# Day 2 Recap

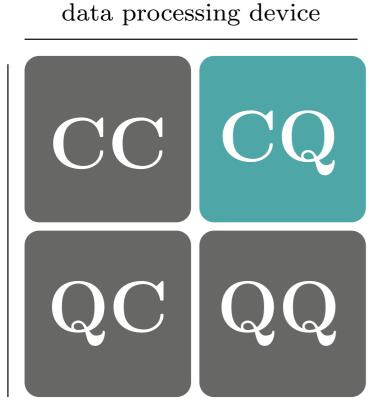
- Two qubit gates
   CNOT, SWAP
- No cloning
- Superdense coding
- Three qubit gates
  - Controlled CNOT, Controlled SWAP
- Teleportation
- A simple QA with two qubits: Deutsch Algorithm
- Deutsch-Jozsa algorithm
- A very short comment on Bernstein-Vazirani Algorithm
- Skipped: Simon's algorithm, Quantum Fourier Transformation, Shor's algorithm and Grover's algorithm

# Day 3 Plan

- Day 3:
  - Distance-based classifier
  - Quantum optimization and adiabatic theorem
  - QAOA and ADAPT-QAOA
- Day 4: 2pm 4pm
- Day 5: 1pm 3:30pm
  - Feedback-based ALgorithm Quantum Optimization (FALQON)
  - Data re-uploading for a universal quantum classifier
  - Error correction
  - Bernstein-Vazirani Algorithm and Simon's algorithm
  - Quantum Fourier Transformation and Phase estimation
  - Shor's algorithm, Grover's algorithm

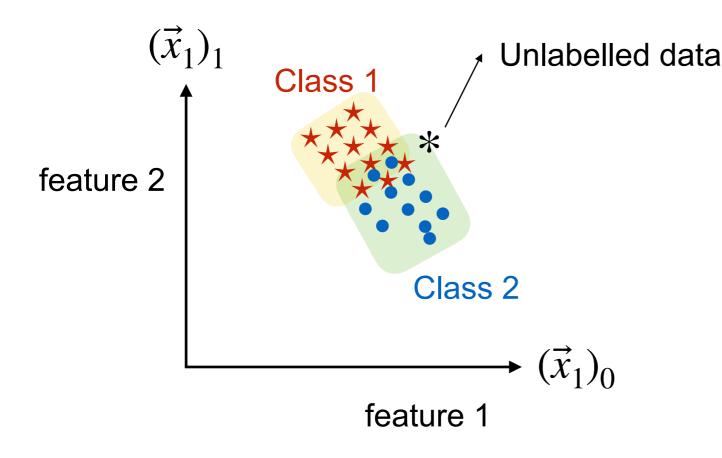
#### **Quantum Machine Learning**

- Artificial Intelligence: Statistical prediction
- Machine Learning: Learn from data
- Quantum Machine Learning: Learn from data with quantum algorithms
  - Subdiscipline of quantum computing and quantum information science



- CC: classical data being processed classically
- QC: how machine learning can help with quantum computing
- CQ: classical data fed into quantum computer for analysis (quantum machine learning)
- QQ: quantum data being processed by quantum computer (ex: Quantum simulation)

• A distance-based classifier with a quantum interference circuit: arXiv:1703:10793 (supervised binary classification)



training data set  $D = \{ (\vec{x}_1, y_1), (\vec{x}_2, y_2), \dots, (\vec{x}_M, y_M) \}$   $\vec{x}_m \in \mathbb{R}^N \quad y_m \in \{-1, +1\}$   $m = 1, 2, \dots, M$  M = the number of data N = the number of features  $\vec{x}_m \in \mathbb{R}^N : \text{ unlabelled data}$ 

 $\rightarrow$  Find the label  $\tilde{y} \in \{-1,1\}$ 

#### **Classical Kernel Method**

- Kernel methods: kNN (k-nearest neighborhood), KDE (kernel density estimation), SVM (support vector machine), Gaussian processes
  - Nearest neighborhood method: a new input data is given the same label as the data point closest to it → k-nearest neighborhood (kNN)
  - Closeness = distance measure

– (ex) Euclidean distance 
$$|\vec{\tilde{x}} - \vec{x}_m|^2$$

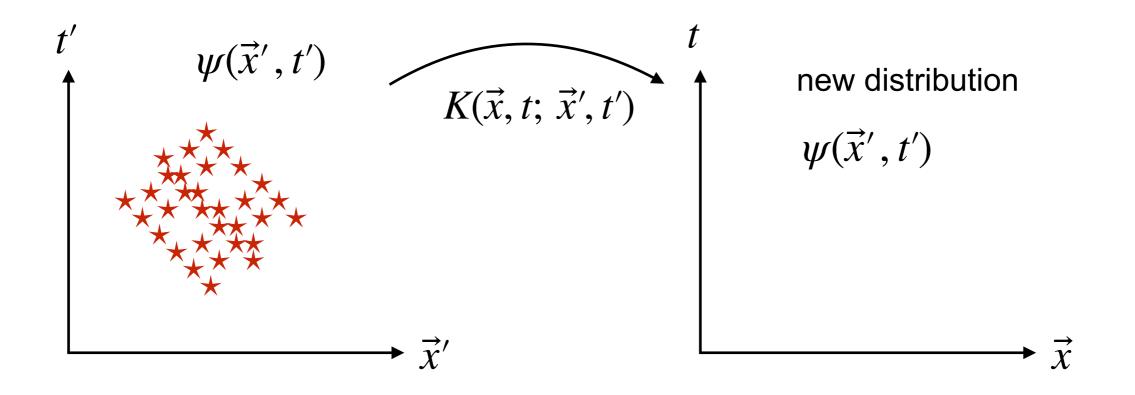
$$\tilde{y} = \operatorname{sign} \left[ \sum_{m=1}^{M} y_m \left( 1 - \frac{1}{4M} |\vec{x} - \vec{x}_m|^2 \right) \right] \quad \text{includes of each of ea$$

• include all data but weigh influence of each data toward the decision by the weight  $\kappa(\vec{\tilde{x}}, \vec{x}_m)$ 

#### **Classical Kernel Method**

$$\psi(\vec{x},t) = \int K(\vec{x},t;\vec{x}',t')\,\psi(\vec{x}',t')\,d^3\vec{x}'$$

 $K(\vec{x}, t; \vec{x}', t')$ : kernel, Green's function, or propagator contains the probability of particle propagation between  $(\vec{x}, t)$  and  $(\vec{x}', t')$ 



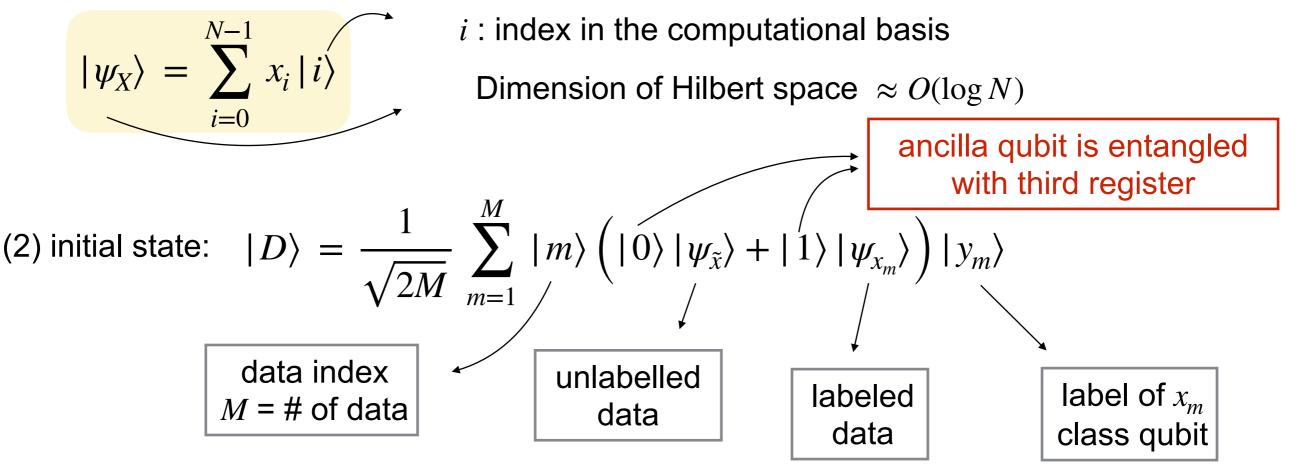
• Choose  $w_m = 1$  for all equally important data

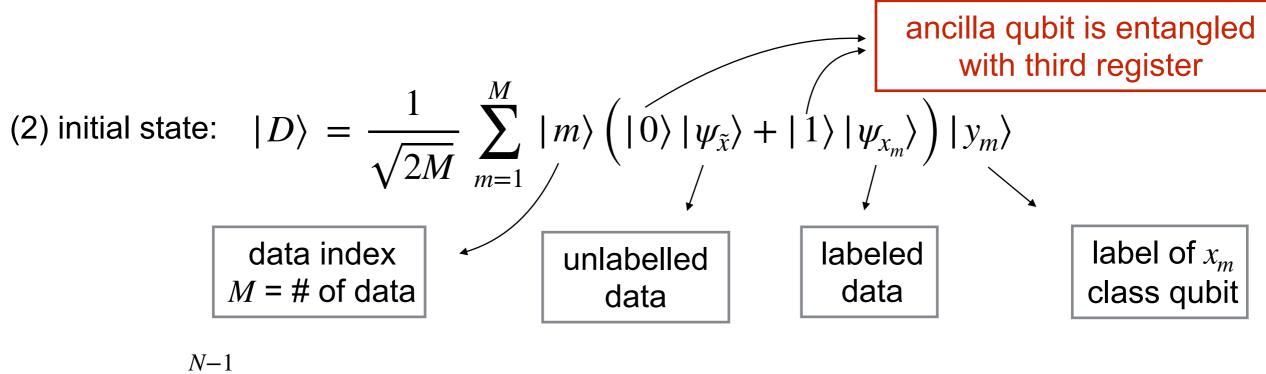
$$\kappa(\vec{\tilde{x}}, \vec{x}_m) = 1 - \frac{1}{4M} |\vec{\tilde{x}} - \vec{x}_m|^2$$

Close data (small distance) are weighted more importantly.

(1) Encode input data (features) into the amplitude of a quantum system (amplitude encoding). For classical vector  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ ,  $(N = 2^n)$  Assume  $x^T x = \vec{x} \cdot \vec{x} = 1$  (normalized to 1)

 $N = 2^n$  : number of features





$$\begin{split} |\psi_{x_m}\rangle &= \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} x_m^i |i\rangle & \text{encoding of m-th training data (labeled)} \\ |\psi_{\tilde{x}}\rangle &= \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \tilde{x}^i |i\rangle & \text{encoding of new data (unlabeled)} \\ |y_m\rangle &= \begin{cases} |0\rangle, & \text{if } y_m = -1 \\ |1\rangle, & \text{if } y_m = +1 \end{cases} \end{split}$$

 $|D\rangle$  contains all training data as well as *M* copies of new inputs.

(3) Apply Hadamard gate on the ancilla (second) qubit.

$$\begin{split} |D\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2M}} \sum_{m=1}^{M} |m\rangle \left( |0\rangle |\psi_{\tilde{x}}\rangle + |1\rangle |\psi_{x_m}\rangle \right) |y_m\rangle \qquad |1\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( |0\rangle - |1\rangle \right) \\ \downarrow \\ |D'\rangle &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{M}} \sum_{m=1}^{M} |m\rangle \left( |0\rangle |\psi_{\tilde{x}+x_m}\rangle + |1\rangle |\psi_{\tilde{x}-x_m}\rangle \right) |y_m\rangle \\ |\psi_{\tilde{x}\pm x_m}\rangle &= |\psi_{\tilde{x}}\rangle \pm |\psi_{x_m}\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \left( \tilde{x}^i \pm x_m^i \right) |i\rangle \end{split}$$

 $|0\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( |0\rangle + |1\rangle \right)$ 

(4) Conditional measurement selecting the branch with ancilla state  $|0\rangle$ . Likely to succeed if the collective Euclidean distance b/w  $\tilde{x}$  and training data set is small. For standard data,  $p \ge 0.5$ .

Probability is 
$$p = \frac{1}{4M} \sum_{m} |\vec{x} + \vec{x}_{m}|^{2}$$
  
 $|D''\rangle = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{Mp}} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} |m\rangle (\vec{x}^{i} + x_{m}^{i}) |i\rangle |y_{m}\rangle$ 

(5) Probability of measuring the class qubit  $|y_m\rangle = |0\rangle$ 

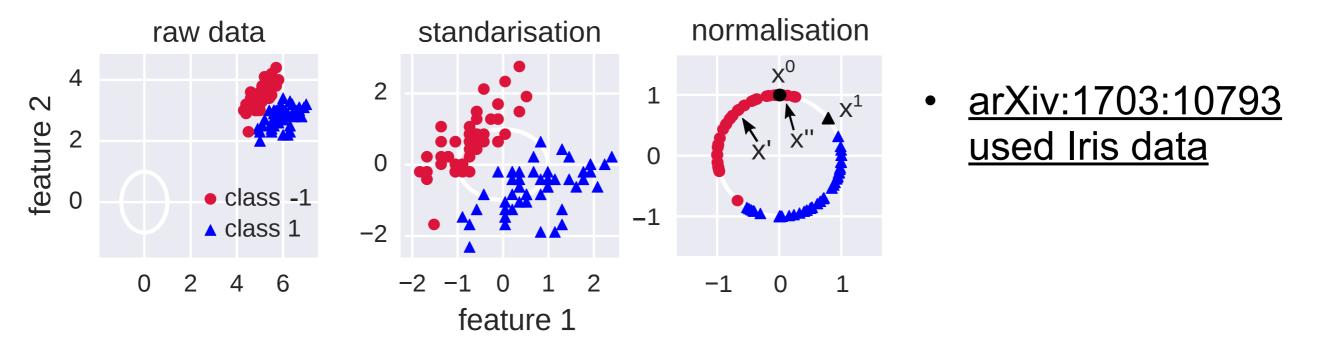
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$$|D''\rangle = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{Mp}} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} |m\rangle \left(\tilde{x}^{i} + x_{m}^{i}\right) |i\rangle |y_{m}\rangle$$

$$P(\tilde{y} = 0) = \frac{1}{4Mp} \sum_{y_{m}=0, m=1}^{M} |\vec{\tilde{x}} + \vec{x}_{m}|^{2} = 1 - \frac{1}{4Mp} \sum_{y_{m}=0, m=1}^{M} |\vec{\tilde{x}} - \vec{x}_{m}|^{2}$$

$$|ass 1$$
using normalization condition

→ choosing the class with the higher probability gives result of kernel method. The # of measurement needed to estimate  $P(\tilde{y} = 0)$  to error  $\epsilon$  with a reasonably high confidence interval grows with  $O(\epsilon^{-1})$ .



Example: square distance classifier Kaggle Titanic dataset

# Quantum Optimization

- Optimization problems are everywhere: math, science, business, finance etc
  - In general, time-consuming.
  - In many cases, can not be solved in polynomial time.
  - Need approximation algorithms: find approximation of the best solution rather than the best solution (time complexity is reduced).
- Two classes
  - Continuous optimization
  - Discrete optimization: combinatorial optimization
    - Quadratic Unconstrained Binary Optimization (QUBO)
- Apply quantum algorithms to solve optimization problem
  - (1) Gate model: use universal gates (Pauli's), problem-independent.
  - (2) Non-gate model (quantum annealer): relies on adiabatic theorem to find a minimum energy of Hamiltonian corresponding to the minimum value of some cost function.

#### Quadratic Unconstrained Binary Optimization (QUBO)

 QUBO: combinatorial optimization problem with a wide range of applications from finance to ML (partitioning, graph coloring, task allocation, max-sat, max-cut etc)

$$f:\mathbb{Z}_2^n\longrightarrow\mathbb{R}$$

Quadratic polynomial over binary variable

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{i} q_{ij} x_i x_j + \sum_{i=1}^{n} h_i x_i$$

 $x_i \in \mathbb{Z}_2 = \{0,1\}, \ h_i, q_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$  $x = x_n x_{n-1} \cdots x_2 x_1$ (binary strings of n-bits)

• Find a binary vector *x*\* which minimizes *f* 

 $x^* = \operatorname*{argmin}_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n} f(x)$ 

• In matrix notation,  $f(x) = x^T Q x$ , where  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ 

#### Quadratic Unconstrained Binary Optimization (QUBO)

• In matrix notation,  $f(x) = x^T Q x$ , where  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ 

 $f(x) = -2x_1 - 3x_2 + 8x_3 + 4x_4 + 4x_1x_2 + 5x_1x_3 + 6x_2x_3 + 10x_3x_4$ 

$$= (x_1 x_2 x_3 x_4) \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 2 & 5/2 & 0 \\ 2 & -3 & 3 & 0 \\ 5/2 & 3 & 8 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{pmatrix} = x^T Q x \qquad \qquad x_i \in Z_2 = \{0, 1\}$$

- QUBO:
  - -NP hard problem
  - Quadratic function might have several local minima
  - Close connection to Ising model

# P vs NP

- In Theoretical Computer Science, the two most basic classes of problems are P and NP.
- P includes all problems that can be solved efficiently.
  - For example: add two numbers. The formal definition of "efficiently" is in time that's polynomial in the input's size.
- NP (nondeterministic polynomial (time)) includes all problems that given a solution, one can efficient verify that the solution is correct.
  - An example is the following problem: given a bunch of numbers, can they be split into two groups such that the sum of one group is the same as the other. Clearly, if one is given a solution (two groups of numbers), it's simple to verify that the sum is the same. (This is a partitioning problem).
- What's unknown is whether problems such as the one above have an efficient algorithm for finding the solution. This is the (in)famous (unsolved) P = NP problem, and the common conjecture is that no such algorithm exists.
- Now, NP hard problems are such problems that were shown that if they can be efficiently solved (which, as mentioned, is believed to not be the case), then each and every problem in NP (each and every problem whose results can be efficiently verified) can be efficiently solved. In other words, if you're up to showing that P=NP, you might want to take a stand at any of those NP-hard problems since they are "equivalent" in some way to all others.

# Ising Model

- Mathematical model for ferromagnetism in statistical mechanics.
- The energy of spin configuration for a given lattice is given by the following classical Hamiltonian

$$E(s) = -\sum_{i,j} J_{ij} s_i s_j - \sum_i h_i s_i \quad s = \{s_i\}, \quad s_i \in \{-1,1\}$$

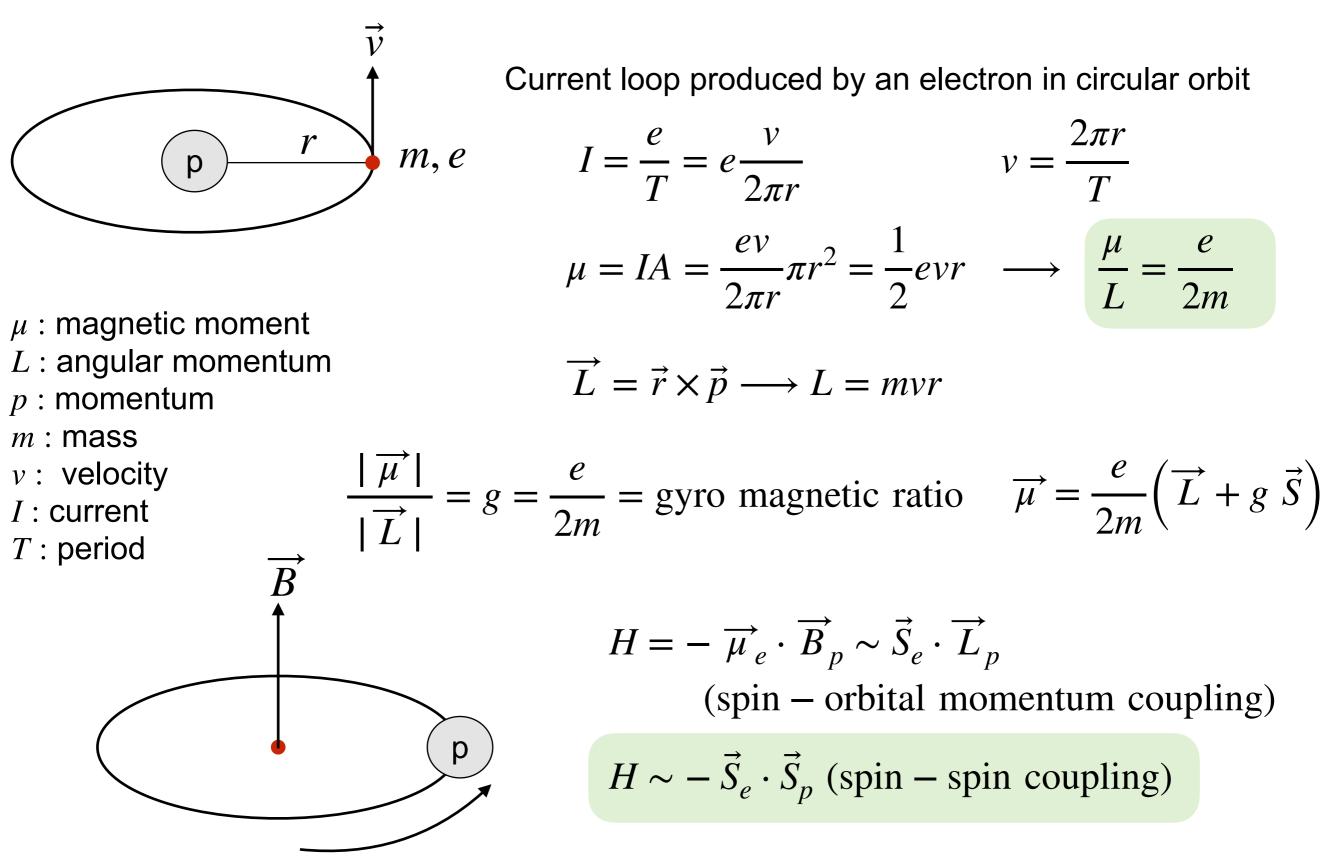
- $J_{ij}$  is called an interaction, spin-spin coupling, and  $h_i$  is an external magnetic field, interacting with spin  $s_i$ .
- The configuration probability is given by the Boltzmann distribution

$$P(s) = \frac{e^{-\beta H(s)}}{\sum_{s} e^{-\beta H(s)}}, \qquad \beta = \frac{1}{k_B T}$$

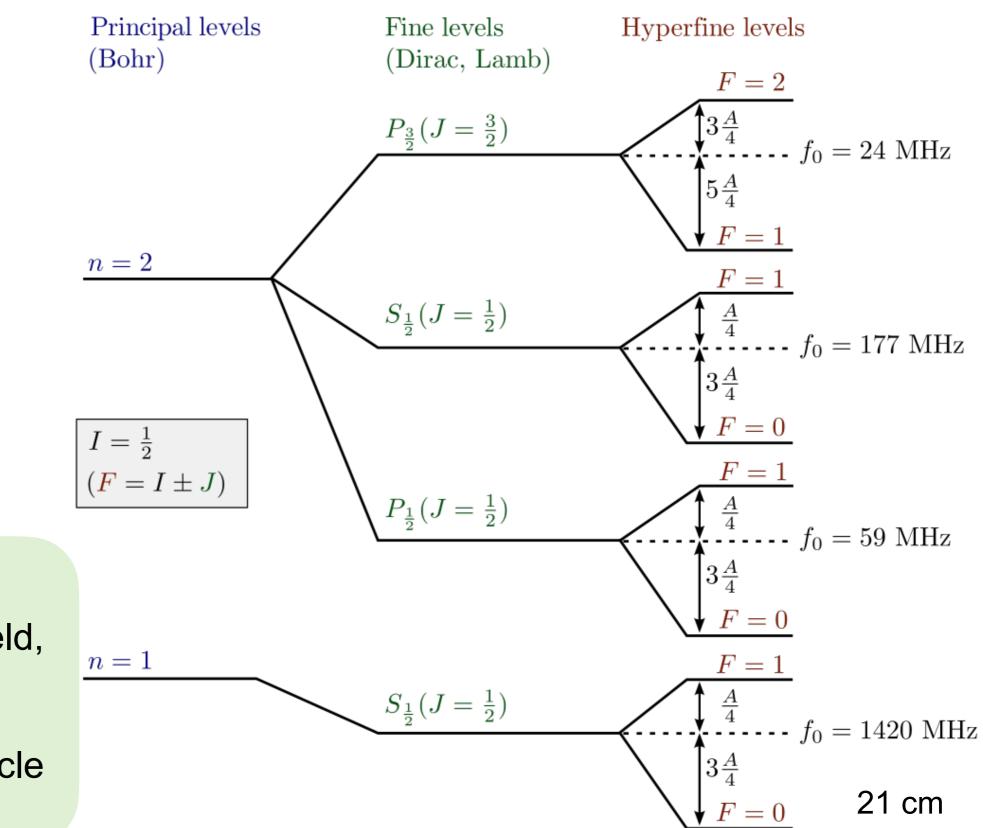
Quantum Ising model:

$$H = -\sum_{i,j} J_{ij} \sigma_i^z \sigma_j^z - \sum_i h_i \sigma_i^z$$

# **Spin-Spin Interaction**



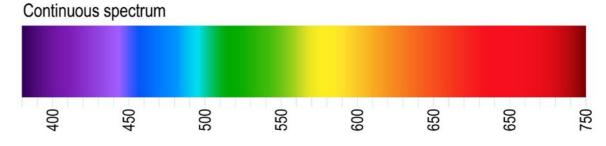
# Hydrogen Hyperfine Structure



MRI, solar magnetic field, Bird migration, Zeeman effect, Nuclear and particle models

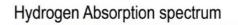
# Hydrogen Hyperfine Structure

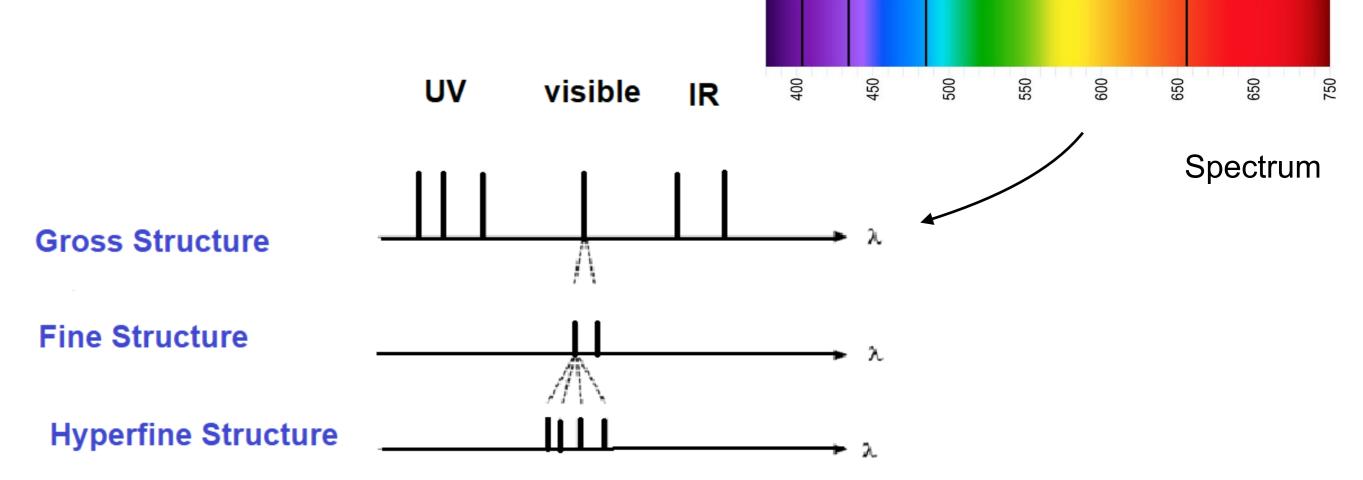
MRI, solar magnetic field, Bird migration, Zeeman effect, Nuclear and particle models



Hydrogen Emission spectrum

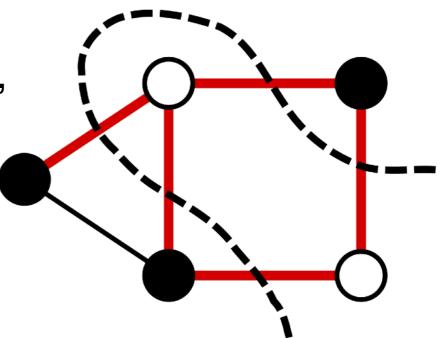






#### QUBO example: Max-cut Problem

- Max-Cut is the NP-hard problem of finding a partition of the graph's vertices into an two distinct sets that maximizes the number of edges between the two sets.
- Undirected Graph: G = (V, E)
  - V: set of nodes, and E: set of edges
- Partition vertices into two complementary sets such that the number of edges between the two sets is as large as possible.
- As the Max-Cut Problem is NP-hard, no polynomial-time algorithms for Max-Cut in general graphs are known.



#### QUBO example: Max-cut Problem

• The cost function to be maximized:

$$C(x) = \sum_{(i,j)\in E} \left( x_i + x_j - 2x_i x_j \right) \text{ where } x_i \in \{0,1\}$$
$$x_i + x_j - 2x_i x_j = 1, \text{ if } x_i \text{ and } x_j \text{ belong in different sets }.$$
$$s_i \in Z_2 = \{-1,1\}$$
$$x_i + x_j - 2x_i x_j = 0, \text{ if } x_i \text{ and } x_j \text{ belong in the same set }.$$

• Introducing 
$$x_i = \frac{s_i + 1}{2}$$
, the cost function can be rewritten  
 $C(s) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(i,j)\in E} (1 - s_i s_j) \longrightarrow C(s) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(i,j)\in E} (1 - \sigma_i^z \sigma_j^z) \qquad \begin{array}{l} (i,j): \text{ the edge index} \\ i: \text{ vertex index} \end{array}$ 

 $\sigma^{z} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma^{z} |0\rangle = +1 |0\rangle \qquad \sigma^{z}_{i} : \text{Pauli's Z matrix actingon the } i^{th} \text{ vertex}$  $\sigma^{z}_{i} |1\rangle = -1 |1\rangle \qquad \sigma^{z}_{j} : \text{Pauli's Z matrix actingon the } j^{th} \text{ vertex}$  $|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \text{Matrices = linear operators = observables}$ 

Eigenvalues = what are actually measured in experiments

- Adiabatic theorem: A physical system remains in its instantaneous eigenstate, if a given perturbation is acting on it slowly enough and if there is a gap between the eigenvalue and the rest of the Hamiltonian's spectrum. (Max Born and Vladimir Folk 1928)
- Under a slowly changing Hamiltonian H(t) with instantaneous eigenstate  $|n(t)\rangle$  and the corresponding energy E(t), a quantum system evolves from initial state  $|\psi(0)\rangle = \sum_{n} c_n(0) |n(0)\rangle$  to final state  $|\psi(t)\rangle = \sum_{n} c_n(t) |n(t)\rangle$  where  $c_n(t) = c_n(0) e^{i\theta_n(t)} e^{i\gamma_n(t)}$  with the dynamical phase  $\theta_n(t) = -\frac{1}{\hbar} \int_0^t E_n(t') dt'$  and geometrical phase  $\gamma(t) = i \int_0^t \langle n(t') | \dot{n}(t') \rangle dt'$
- Adiabatic approximation: the rate of change of Hamiltonian  $\dot{H}(t)$  is small and there is finite gap  $E_m(t) - E_n(t) \neq 0$  between energies for  $m \neq n \rightarrow$  $\langle n(t') | \dot{n}(t') \rangle = -\frac{\langle m(t) | \dot{H}(t) | n(t) \rangle}{E_m(t) - E_n(t)} \rightarrow 0$
- $|c_n(t)|^2 = |c_n(0)|^2$  so if the system begins in an eigenstate of H(0), it remains in an eigenstate of H(t) during the evolution with a change of phase only.

$$H(t) | n(t) \rangle = E_n(t) | n(t) \rangle \qquad | n(t) \rangle : \text{ is eigenstates of Hamiltonian, basis}$$

$$| \psi(t) \rangle = \sum_n c_n(t) | n(t) \rangle \qquad \text{satisfies time-dependent} \qquad i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} | \psi(t) \rangle = H(t) | \psi(t) \rangle$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} : \dot{H}(t) | n(t) \rangle + H(t) | \dot{n}(t) \rangle = \dot{E}_n(t) | n(t) \rangle + E_n(t) | \dot{n}(t) \rangle$$
Assume  $m \neq n$  and perform inner product with  $| m(t) \rangle$ :  $H(t) | m(t) \rangle = E_m(t) | m(t) \rangle$ 

$$\langle m(t) | \dot{H}(t) | n(t) \rangle + \langle m(t) | H(t) | \dot{n}(t) \rangle = \dot{E}_n(t) \langle m(t) | n(t) \rangle + E_n(t) \langle m(t) | \dot{n}(t) \rangle$$

$$/ m(t) | \dot{H}(t) | n(t) \rangle = \langle m(t) | \dot{H}(t) | \dot{n}(t) \rangle = \dot{E}_n(t) \langle m(t) | n(t) \rangle + E_n(t) \langle m(t) | \dot{n}(t) \rangle$$

 $\left\langle m(t) \left| \dot{H}(t) \right| n(t) \right\rangle + E_m(t) \left\langle m(t) \left| \dot{n}(t) \right\rangle = E_n(t) \left\langle m(t) \left| \dot{n}(t) \right\rangle \rightarrow \left\langle m(t) \left| \dot{n}(t) \right\rangle = -\frac{\left\langle m(t) \left| H(t) \right| n(t) \right\rangle}{E_m(t) - E_n(t)}$ 

Adiabatic approximation: the rate of change in Hamiltonian  $\dot{H}(t)$  is small and there is finite gap  $E_m(t) - E_n(t) \neq 0$  between energies  $\rightarrow \langle m(t) | \dot{n}(t) \rangle \approx 0$ .

$$\begin{split} i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial t}|\psi(t)\rangle &= H(t)|\psi(t)\rangle \\ |\psi(t)\rangle &= \sum_{n} c_{n}(t)|n(t)\rangle & \rightarrow i\hbar\sum_{n} \dot{c}_{n}(t)|n(t)\rangle + c_{n}(t)|\dot{n}(t)\rangle = \sum_{n} E_{n}(t) c_{n}(t)|n(t)\rangle \\ \text{Inner product with } |m(t)\rangle &: \quad \langle m(t)|\left[i\hbar\sum_{n}\dot{c}_{n}(t)|n(t)\rangle + c_{n}(t)|\dot{n}(t)\rangle = \sum_{n} E_{n}(t) c_{n}(t)|n(t)\rangle\right] \\ \text{Using } \langle m(t)|n(t)\rangle &= \delta_{mn}, \text{ we obtain } i\hbar\dot{c}_{m}(t) + i\hbar\sum_{n} c_{n}(t)\langle m(t)|\dot{n}(t)\rangle = c_{m}(t) E_{m}(t) \\ \text{In the adiabatic limit,} \\ \langle m(t)|\dot{n}(t)\rangle &\approx 0 \text{ for } m \neq n \\ i\dot{c}_{m}(t) &= \left(\frac{E_{m}(t)}{\hbar} - i\langle m(t)|\dot{m}(t)\rangle\right) c_{m}(t) \\ &\rightarrow \dot{c}_{m}(t) = i\left(-\frac{E_{m}(t)}{\hbar} + i\langle m(t)|\dot{m}(t)\rangle\right) c_{m}(t) \\ &\frac{d}{dt} \ln c_{m}(t) = \frac{1}{c_{m}(t)} \frac{dc_{n}(t)}{dt} = \frac{\dot{c}_{m}(t)}{c_{m}(t)} = -\frac{i}{\hbar}E_{m}(t) + i\dot{n}\langle m(t)|\dot{m}(t)\rangle \\ c_{m}(t) &= c_{m}(0)e^{i\theta_{m}(t)}e^{i\gamma_{m}(t)} \\ &\theta_{m}(t) = -\frac{1}{\hbar}\int_{0}^{t}E_{m}(t')dt' \\ &\gamma(t) = i\int_{0}^{t}\langle m(t')|\dot{m}(t')\rangle dt' \\ &\text{dynamical phase, real, function of E} \\ \end{split}$$

$$c_{m}(t) = c_{m}(0)e^{i\theta_{m}(t)}e^{i\gamma_{m}(t)} \qquad \theta_{m}(t) = -\frac{1}{\hbar} \int_{0}^{t} E_{m}(t') dt' \qquad \gamma(t) = i \int_{0}^{t} \langle m(t') | \dot{m}(t') \rangle dt'$$

$$dynamical phase, real, function of E \qquad geometrical phase, pure imaginary, Has something to do with direction in the Hilbert space
$$0 = \frac{d}{dt} \langle m(t) | m(t) \rangle = \langle \dot{m}(t) | m(t) \rangle + \langle m(t) | \dot{m}(t) \rangle$$

$$= \langle m(t) | \dot{m}(t) \rangle^{*} + \langle m(t) | \dot{m}(t) \rangle$$

$$= 2 \operatorname{Re} \langle m(t) | \dot{m}(t) \rangle \rightarrow \gamma_{m}(t) : \text{ pure imaginary}$$$$

- Schrodinger equation:
- Instantaneous eigenstate:
- Initial condition:
- If evolution is slow enough,

$$i\hbar \frac{d\psi(t)}{dt} = H(t) \psi(t)$$
$$H(t) \psi_n(t) = E_n(t) \psi_n(t)$$
$$\psi(t = 0) = \psi_0$$
$$\psi(t) \approx e^{i\theta(t)} \psi_0$$

#### Born and Folk 1928

$$\psi(t) = U(t) \psi(0)$$
  
$$U_I(t) = \sum_{q=0}^{\infty} (-i)^q \int_0^t dt_q \cdots \int_0^{t_2} dt_1 H_I(t_q) \cdots H_I(t_1)$$

# Quantum Annealing

- $H_p$  is the problem Hamiltonian whose ground state encodes the solution to the optimization problem
- $H_0$  is the initial Hamiltonian whose ground state is easy to prepare.
- Prepare a quantum system to be in the ground state of  $H_0$  and evolve the system using the following time-dependent Hamiltonian,

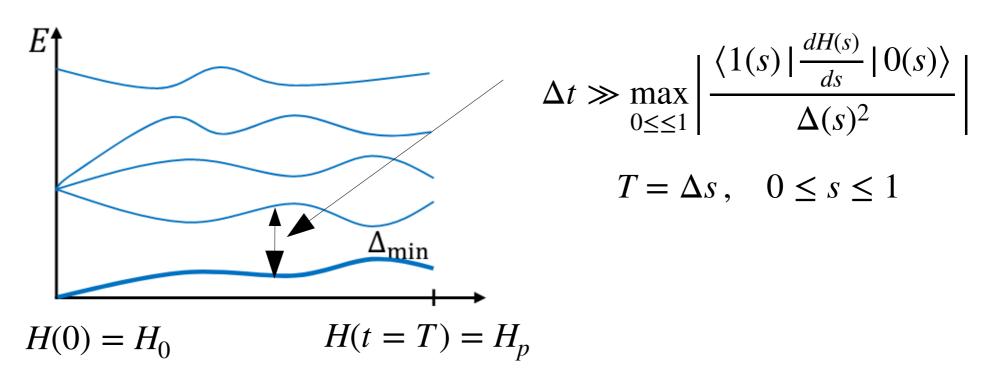
$$H(t) = \left(1 - \frac{t}{T}\right)H_0 + \frac{t}{T}H_p$$

- The system will remain to its ground state at all times, which means for t=T, the system will be in the ground state of  $H_p$ , our problem Hamiltonian.
- D-wave has built Quantum Annealing that solves optimization problem by transferring the original optimization to a hardware, that allows nearest neighbor interaction of qubits.
- If the energy gap b/w the ground state and 1st excited state is small, T must be very large → computationally difficult.

Apolloni, Bianchi, De Falco 1988

# Limitation of Quantum Annealing

 Performance of quantum annealing are governed by the size of the gap.

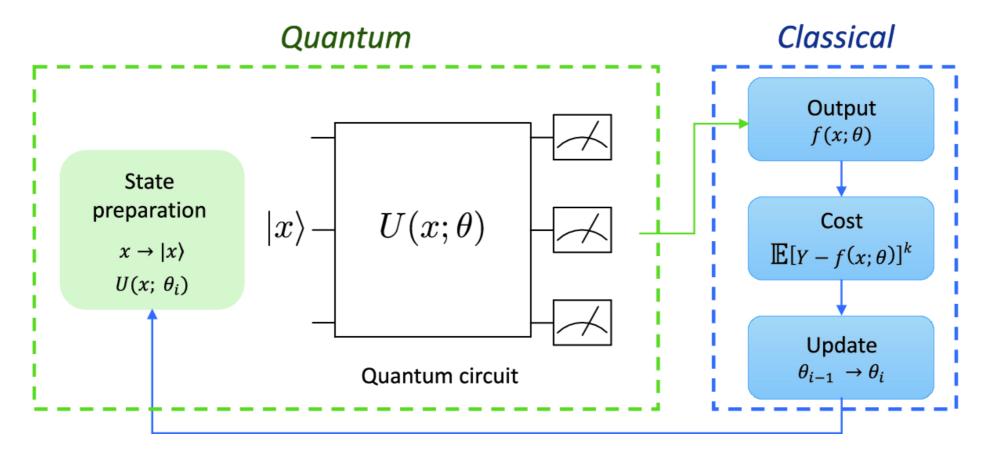


• Performance is poor, when eigenvalues are degenerate.

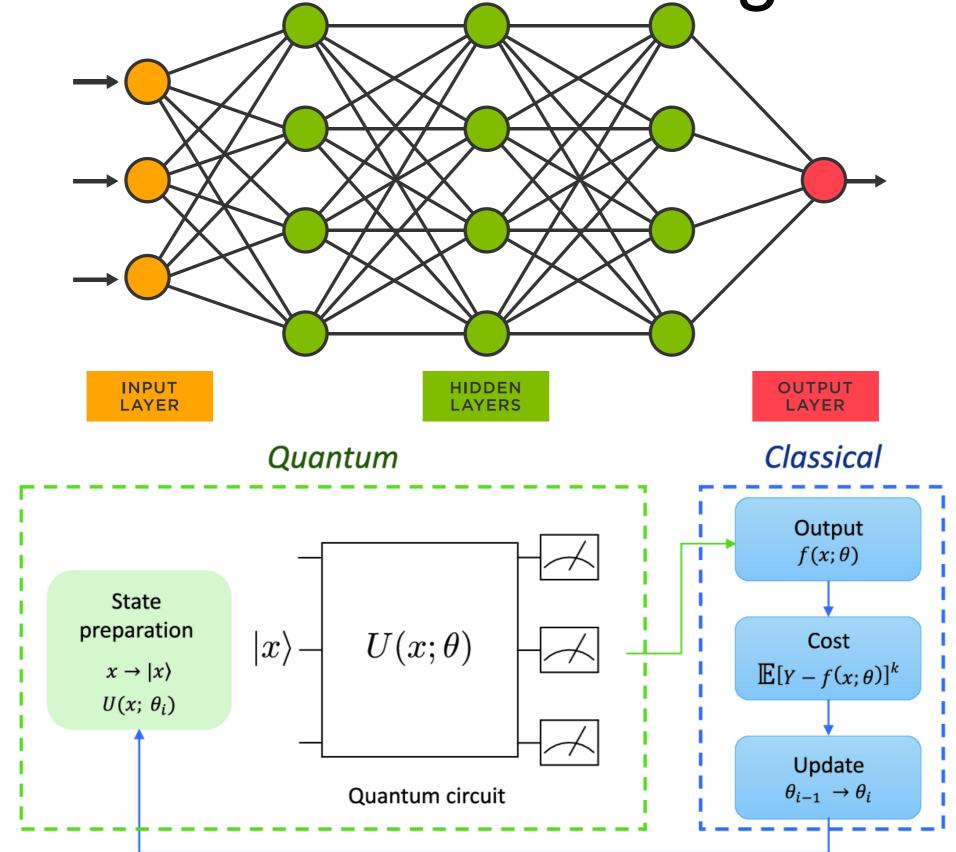
# Variational Quantum Algorithms

- Hybrid quantum-classical model is suggested to circumvent the issue of going slow with quantum annealer as well as implementing Hamiltonian in the available hardware.
- Quantum: parameterize wave function
- Classical: minimize/maximize the expectation value of H in the problem.

$$E(\vec{\theta}) = \langle \psi(\vec{\theta}) | H | \psi(\vec{\theta}) \rangle$$



## Variational Quantum Algorithms



# Variational Quantum Algorithms

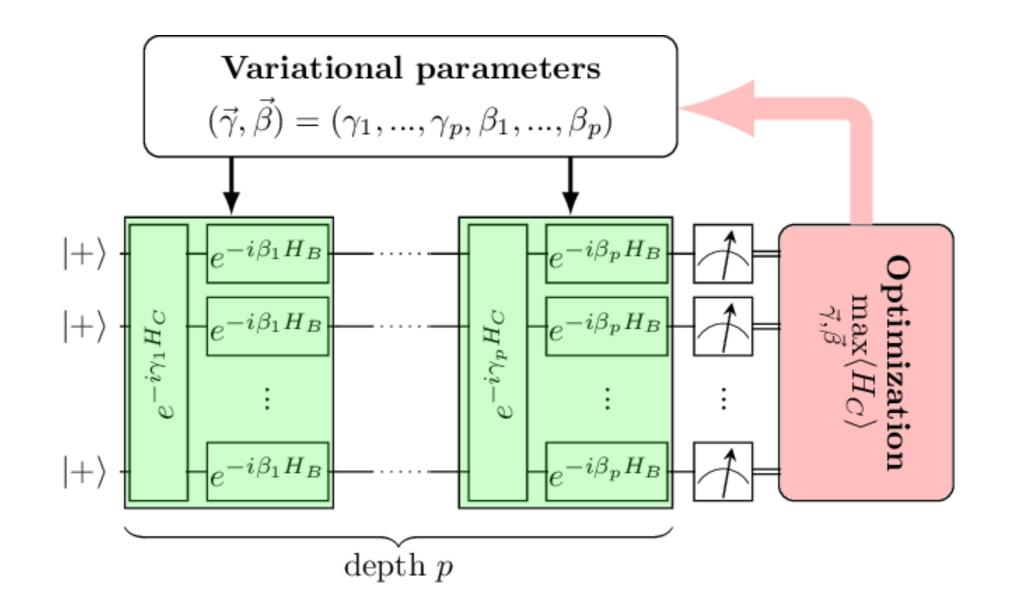
- 2016: first cloud-based quantum computer became available.
- Current state-of-the-art device size ranges from 50 to 100 qubits which allows one to achieve 'quantum supremacy': outperforming the best classical supercomputer, for certain contrived mathematical tasks.
  - Sycamore (53 qubits, corresponding to a computational state-space of dimension  $2^{53} \approx 10^{16}$ ): 200 seconds vs 10,000 years for sampling the output of a pseudo-random quantum circuit.
- Variational Quantum Algorithms (VQAs) have emerged as the leading strategy to obtain quantum advantage on NISQ (Noisy Intermediate-Scale Quantum) devices. Accounting for all of the constraints imposed by NISQ computers with a single strategy requires an optimization-based or learning- based approach, precisely what VQAs use.
- VQAs are arguably the quantum analog of highly successful machine-learning methods, such as neural networks.
- VQAs leverage the toolbox of classical optimization, since VQAs use parametrized quantum circuits to be run on the quantum computer, and then outsource the parameter optimization to a classical optimizer. This approach has the added advantage of keeping the quantum circuit depth shallow and hence mitigating noise, in contrast to quantum algorithms developed for the fault-tolerant era.

1411.4028 E. Farhi, J. Goldstone, S. Gutmann

• Abstract: We introduce a quantum algorithm that produces approximate solutions for combinatorial optimization problems. The algorithm depends on a positive integer p and the quality of the approximation improves as p is increased. The quantum circuit that implements the algorithm consists of unitary gates whose locality is at most the locality of the objective function whose optimum is sought. The depth of the circuit grows linearly with p times (at worst) the number of constraints. If p is fixed, that is, independent of the input size, the algorithm makes use of efficient classical preprocessing. If p grows with the input size a different strategy is proposed. We study the algorithm as applied to MaxCut on regular graphs and analyze its performance on 2-regular and 3-regular graphs for fixed p. For p = 1, on 3-regular graphs the quantum algorithm always finds a cut that is at least 0.6924 times the size of the optimal cut.

#### Quantum Approximate Optimization Algorithm (QAOA) Farhi et al 2014

- Hybrid quantum algorithm: contains a parameterized quantum circuit which depends on variational parameters.
- Use classical computer to optimize the output of the quantum circuit.
- Consider the Ising model for illustration.



#### Quantum Approximate Optimization Algorithm (QAOA) Farhi et al 2014

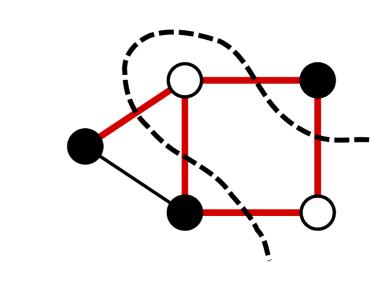
 $H_P = C(s) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(1 - \sigma_i^z \sigma_j^z\right)$ : Problem Hamiltonian

 $|\psi\rangle = \exp\left[-i\int_0^t H(t')\,\mathrm{d}t'\right]|\psi_0\rangle = \exp\left[-i\sum_{i=1}^p H(j\Delta t)\Delta t\right]|\psi_0\rangle$ 

 $H_M = B = \sum \sigma_j^X$ : Mixer Hamiltonian

Full Hamiltonian:  $H(t) = \left(1 - \frac{t}{T}\right)H_M + \frac{t}{T}H_P$ 

(i, j): the edge index *i* : vertex index



Undirected Graph: G = (V, E)V: set of nodes E: set of edges

 $\approx \prod^{p} \exp\left[-i\Delta t \left[\left(1 - \frac{j\Delta t}{T}\right)H_{M} + \frac{j\Delta t}{T}H_{P}\right]\right] |\psi_{0}\rangle$  $\approx \prod^{p} \exp\left[-i\Delta t \left(1 - \frac{j\Delta t}{T}\right) H_{M}\right] \exp\left[-i\Delta t \frac{j\Delta t}{T} H_{P}\right] \left|\psi_{0}\right\rangle$ Works in the adiabatic limit or  $p \to \infty$ 

$$H(t) = \left(1 - \frac{t}{T}\right) H_M + \frac{t}{T} H_P$$

$$H_M = B: \text{ mixer Hamiltonian}$$

$$H_P = C: \text{ problem Hamiltonian}$$

$$|+\rangle$$

$$\int e^{-i\beta_1 H_B} - e^{-i\beta_2 H_B} + \int e$$

#### **Quantum Approximate Optimization** Algorithm (QAOA) Farhi et al 2014

$$C(s) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(i,j)\in E} \left(1 - \sigma_i^z \sigma_j^z\right), \quad B = \sum_j \sigma_j^X \qquad (i,j): \text{ the edge index} \\ i: \text{ vertex index} \\ \sigma^z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \sigma_i^z: \text{Pauli's Z matrix actingon the } i^{th} \text{ vertex} \\ \sigma_j^z: \text{Pauli's Z matrix actingon the } j^{th} \text{ vertex} \\ \sigma_j^z: \text{Pauli's Z matrix actingon the } j^{th} \text{ vertex} \\ \sigma^z | 0 \rangle = +1 | 0 \rangle \qquad \sigma^z | 1 \rangle = -1 | 1 \rangle \qquad | 0 \rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad | 1 \rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ U(C, \gamma) = e^{-i\gamma C} = \prod_{(i,j)\in E} e^{-i\gamma C_{ij}}, \quad U(B,\beta) = e^{-i\beta B} = \prod_{i=1}^n e^{-i\beta B_i} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{split} |\psi(\vec{\gamma},\vec{\beta})\rangle &= \left[\prod_{i=1}^{p} U(B,\beta_{i})U(C,\gamma_{i})\right] H^{\otimes n} |0\rangle \qquad e^{-i\beta\sigma_{j}^{X}} = \cos\beta - i\sigma_{j}^{X}\sin\beta \\ &= U(B,\beta_{p}) U(C,\gamma_{p}) \cdots U(B,\beta_{1}) U(C,\gamma_{1}) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{2^{n}-1} |i\rangle \end{split}$$

i=1

 $\vec{\gamma} = (\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \cdots, \gamma_p), \text{ and } \vec{\beta} = (\beta_1, \beta_2, \cdots, \beta_p)$ 2p angles (parameters):

Goal is to find minimum/maximum over angles:

 $(i,j) \in E$ 

$$M_{p} = \max_{\vec{\gamma}, \vec{\beta}} \langle \psi(\vec{\gamma}, \vec{\beta}) \mid C \mid \psi(\vec{\gamma}, \vec{\beta}) \rangle$$

• How do  $U(C, \gamma)$  and  $U(B, \beta)$  operate on  $|\psi\rangle$ ?

$$U(C,\gamma)H^{\otimes n}|0\cdots 0\rangle = e^{-i\gamma C}H^{\otimes n}|0\cdots 0\rangle = \exp\left[-i\gamma\frac{1}{2}\sum_{(i,j)\in E}\left(1-\sigma_i^Z\sigma_j^Z\right)\right]H^{\otimes n}|0\cdots 0\rangle$$

$$=\prod_{(i,j)\in E}\exp\left[-i\gamma\frac{1}{2}\left(1-\sigma_i^Z\sigma_j^Z\right)\right]H^{\otimes n}|0\cdots 0\rangle = \exp\left(-i\frac{\gamma}{2}\right)\exp\left(+i\frac{\gamma}{2}\sigma_i^Z\sigma_j^Z\right)H^{\otimes n}|0\cdots 0\rangle$$

$$\exp\left(-i\frac{\gamma}{2}\sigma_i^Z\sigma_j^Z\right)|\cdots 0\cdots 0\cdots \rangle = \exp\left(-i\frac{\gamma}{2}1\cdot 1\right)|\cdots 0\cdots 0\cdots\rangle$$

$$\exp\left(+i\frac{\gamma}{2}\sigma_i^Z\sigma_j^Z\right)|\cdots 0\cdots 1\cdots\rangle = \exp\left(-i\frac{\gamma}{2}1\cdot 1\right)|\cdots 0\cdots 1\cdots\rangle$$

$$\exp\left(+i\frac{\gamma}{2}\sigma_i^Z\sigma_j^Z\right)|\cdots 1\cdots 0\cdots\rangle = \exp\left(-i\frac{\gamma}{2}1\cdot 1\right)|\cdots 1\cdots 0\cdots\rangle$$

$$\exp\left(+i\frac{\gamma}{2}\sigma_i^Z\sigma_j^Z\right)|\cdots 1\cdots 1\cdots\rangle = \exp\left(-i\frac{\gamma}{2}1\cdot 1\right)|\cdots 1\cdots 1\cdots\rangle$$

• If bits *i* and *j* are the same,  $\exp\left[-i\gamma \frac{1}{2}\left(1-\sigma_i^Z \sigma_j^Z\right)\right] | \cdots \rangle = +1 | \cdots \rangle$ • If bits *i* and *j* are different,  $\exp\left[-i\gamma \frac{1}{2}\left(1-\sigma_i^Z \sigma_j^Z\right)\right] | \cdots \rangle = e^{-i\gamma} | \cdots \rangle$ 

• If bits *i* and *j* are different, rotate the output state around *z* axis by an angle  $\gamma$ .

$$\sigma_Z |a\rangle = (-1)^a |a\rangle$$
  $R_Z(\theta) = \exp\left(-i\frac{\theta}{2}\sigma_Z\right) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{-i\theta/2} & 0\\ 0 & e^{+i\theta/2} \end{pmatrix}$ 

In circuit:

$$CNOT |x y\rangle| = |x x \oplus y\rangle$$
$$I \otimes R_{z}(2\gamma) |x x \oplus y\rangle = \exp\left(-i\gamma(-1)^{x \oplus y}\right) |x x \oplus y\rangle$$
$$|x\rangle$$

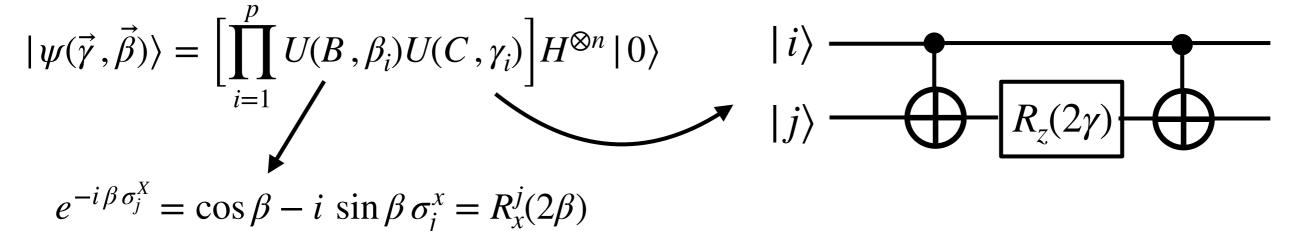
 $|y\rangle$  -

 $\bigoplus R_z(2\gamma_i)$ 

For 
$$U(B,\beta) = e^{-i\beta B} = \prod_{j=1}^{n} e^{-i\beta \sigma_{j}^{X}} = \prod_{j=1}^{n} R_{x}^{j}(2\beta)$$

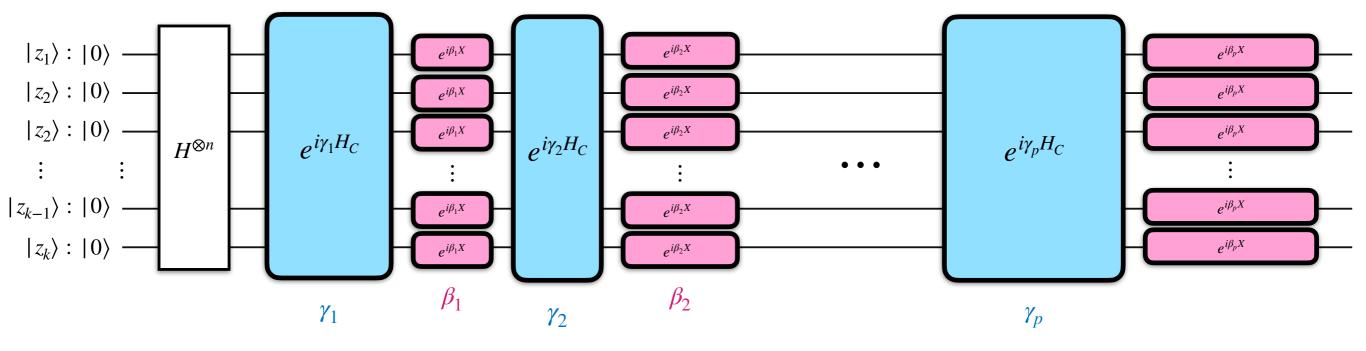
• Rotation of all n-qubits about x-axis with angle  $2\beta$ 

$$|\psi(\vec{\gamma},\vec{\beta})\rangle = U(B,\beta_p) U(C,\gamma_p) \cdots U(B,\beta_1) U(C,\gamma_1) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^n} \sum_{i=1}^{2^n-1} |i\rangle$$



Rotate qubit j around x-axis by  $2\beta$ 

$$C(s) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(i,j)\in E} \left(1 - \sigma_i^z \sigma_j^z\right), \quad B = \sum_j \sigma_j^X$$



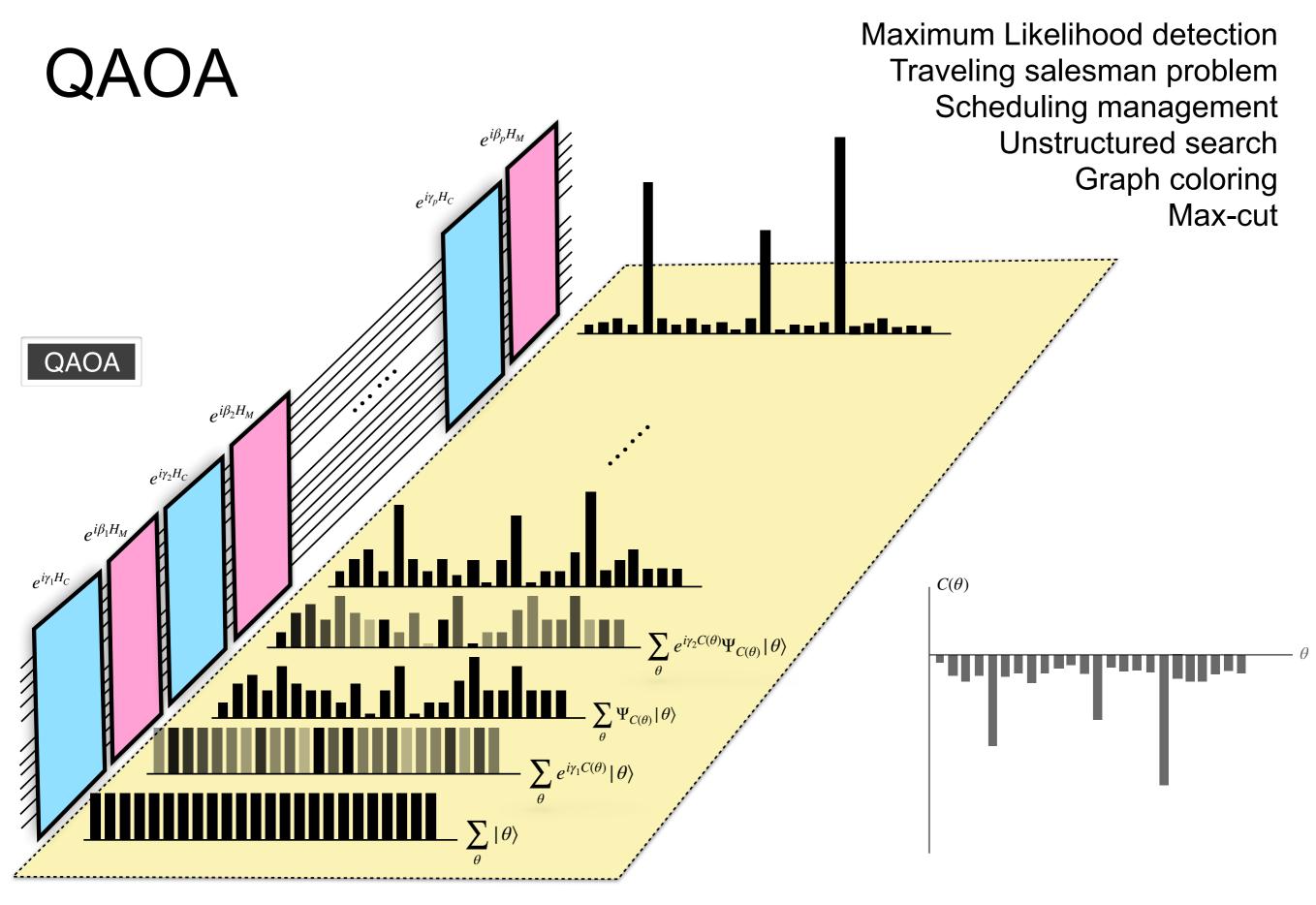
$$|\psi(\vec{\gamma},\vec{\beta})\rangle = U(B,\beta_p) U(C,\gamma_p) \cdots U(B,\beta_1) U(C,\gamma_1) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^n} \sum_{i=1}^{2^n-1} |i\rangle$$
  
For  $n = 2$  and  $p = 1$ ,  $|\psi(\vec{\gamma},\vec{\beta})\rangle = \delta_0(\gamma,\beta) |00\rangle + \delta_1(\gamma,\beta) |01\rangle + \delta_2(\gamma,\beta) |10\rangle + \delta_3(\gamma,\beta) |11\rangle$ 

$$C = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(i,j)\in E} \left(1 - \sigma_i^z \sigma_j^z\right) \qquad |\langle x | \psi(\gamma, \beta) \rangle|^2 \\ C = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^{\otimes n}} C(x) |x\rangle \langle x | \qquad 0.3 \\ |x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{i=1}^{2^n - 1} |i\rangle \qquad 0.1 \qquad |00\rangle |01\rangle |10\rangle |11\rangle \qquad |x\rangle \\ F_p(\gamma, \beta) = \max_{\gamma, \beta} \langle \psi(\gamma, \beta) | C | \psi(\gamma, \beta) \rangle = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^{\otimes n}} C(x) |\langle x | \psi(\gamma, \beta) \rangle|^2$$

 Measure of how good the approximation is to actual best value of the cost function

$$\alpha = \frac{F_p(\dot{\gamma}, \beta)}{C_{max}}$$

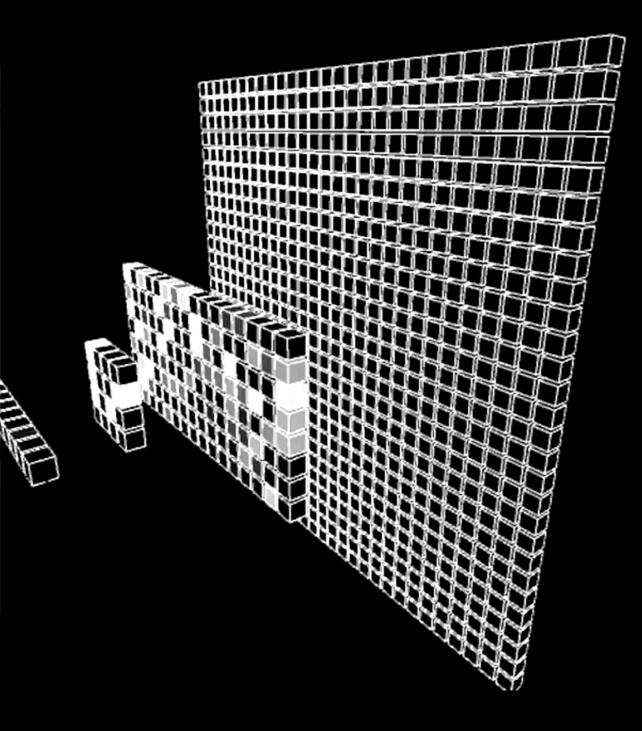
n 1



Example: Max Cut

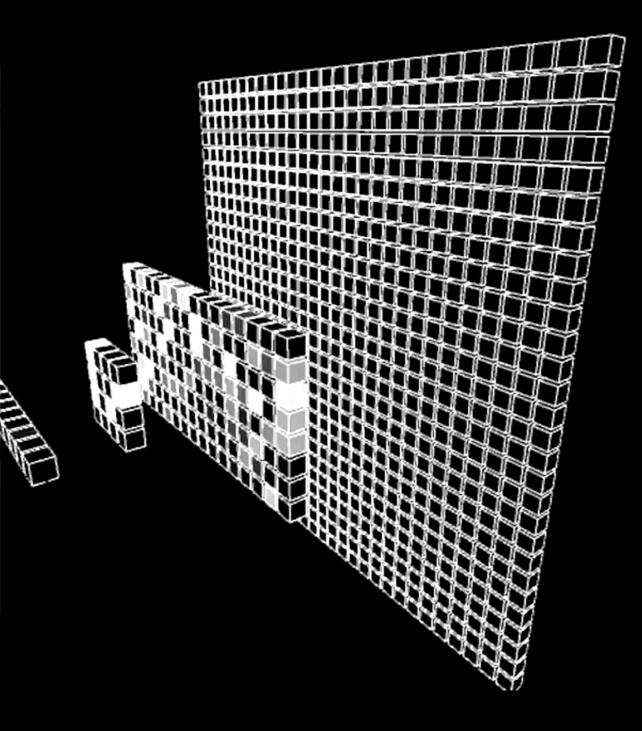
# **Object identification**

Taken from Vecanoi (Youtube Educational channel about AI)



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# QAOA summary

- One can solve the optimization problems on a quantum computer by initializing the quantum device in the ground state of a hamiltonian that is easy to prepare and adiabatically tuning H into the problem Hamiltonian.
- In a digital quantum computer, this translates into a Trotterized version of the adiabatic evolution operator. In the limit of an infinite product, this Trotterized form becomes exact.
- QAOA is a hybrid quantum-classical variational algorithm with a finite order version of the evolution operator.
- Many experimental and theoretical studies, suggesting QAOA may provide a significant quantum advantage over classical algorithms, and that it is computationally universal.

# Limitations and potential issues with QAOA

- The performance improves with the number of alternating layers in the Ansatz, which is limited by coherences times in exiting and near-term quantum processors.
- More layers implies more variational parameters (challenging for classical optimizers) [19].
- Short-depth ansatz is not really the digitized version of the adiabatic problem but rather an adhoc ansatz, which does not guarantee to perform optimally [20].
- Fixed form of standard QAOA is not optimal but no systematic approach for finding a better ansatz.
- ADAPT-QAOA converges faster, reducing the required number of CNOT gates and optimization parameters.
- Connection to concept of shortcuts to adiabaticity.
- Inspired by ADAPT-VQE [28,29] (Refs in 2005.10258).