

Information-theoretic bounds on quantum advantage in machine learning

[arXiv:2101.02464](https://arxiv.org/abs/2101.02464)

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Motivation

- Machine learning (ML) has received great attention in the quantum community these days.

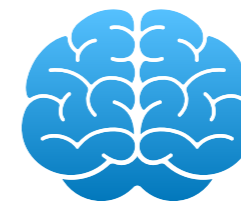
Classical ML for quantum physics/chemistry

The goal 🎯:
Solve challenging quantum
many-body problems
better than
traditional classical algorithms



Enhancing ML with quantum computers

The goal 🎯:
Design quantum ML algorithms
that yield
significant **advantage**
over any classical algorithm



"Solving the quantum many-body problem with artificial neural networks." *Science* 355.6325 (2017): 602-606.


"Learning phase transitions by confusion." *Nature Physics* 13.5 (2017): 435-439.

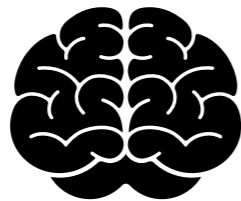
"Supervised learning with quantum-enhanced feature spaces." *Nature* 567.7747 (2019): 209-212.

Motivation


- Yet, many fundamental questions remain to be answered.

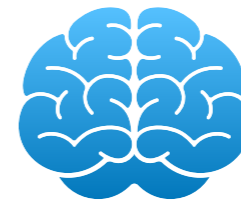
Classical ML for quantum physics/chemistry

The question :
How can ML be more useful
than non-ML algorithms?



Enhancing ML with quantum computers

The question :
What are the advantages of
quantum ML in general?



"Solving the quantum many-body problem with artificial neural networks." *Science* 355.6325 (2017): 602-606.

"Learning phase transitions by confusion." *Nature Physics* 13.5 (2017): 435-439.

"Supervised learning with quantum-enhanced feature spaces." *Nature* 567.7747 (2019): 209-212.

General Setting

- In this work, we focus on training an ML model to predict

$$x \mapsto f_{\mathcal{E}}(x) = \text{Tr}(O\mathcal{E}(|x\rangle\langle x|)),$$

where x is a classical input, \mathcal{E} is an **unknown** CPTP map, and O is an observable.

- This is **very general**: includes any function computable by a quantum computer.

Example 1

Predicting outcomes of physical experiments

x : parameters describing the experiment

\mathcal{E} : the physical process in the experiment

O : what the scientist measure



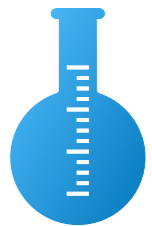
Example 2

Predicting ground state properties of a physical system

x : parameters describing a physical system

\mathcal{E} : a process for preparing ground state

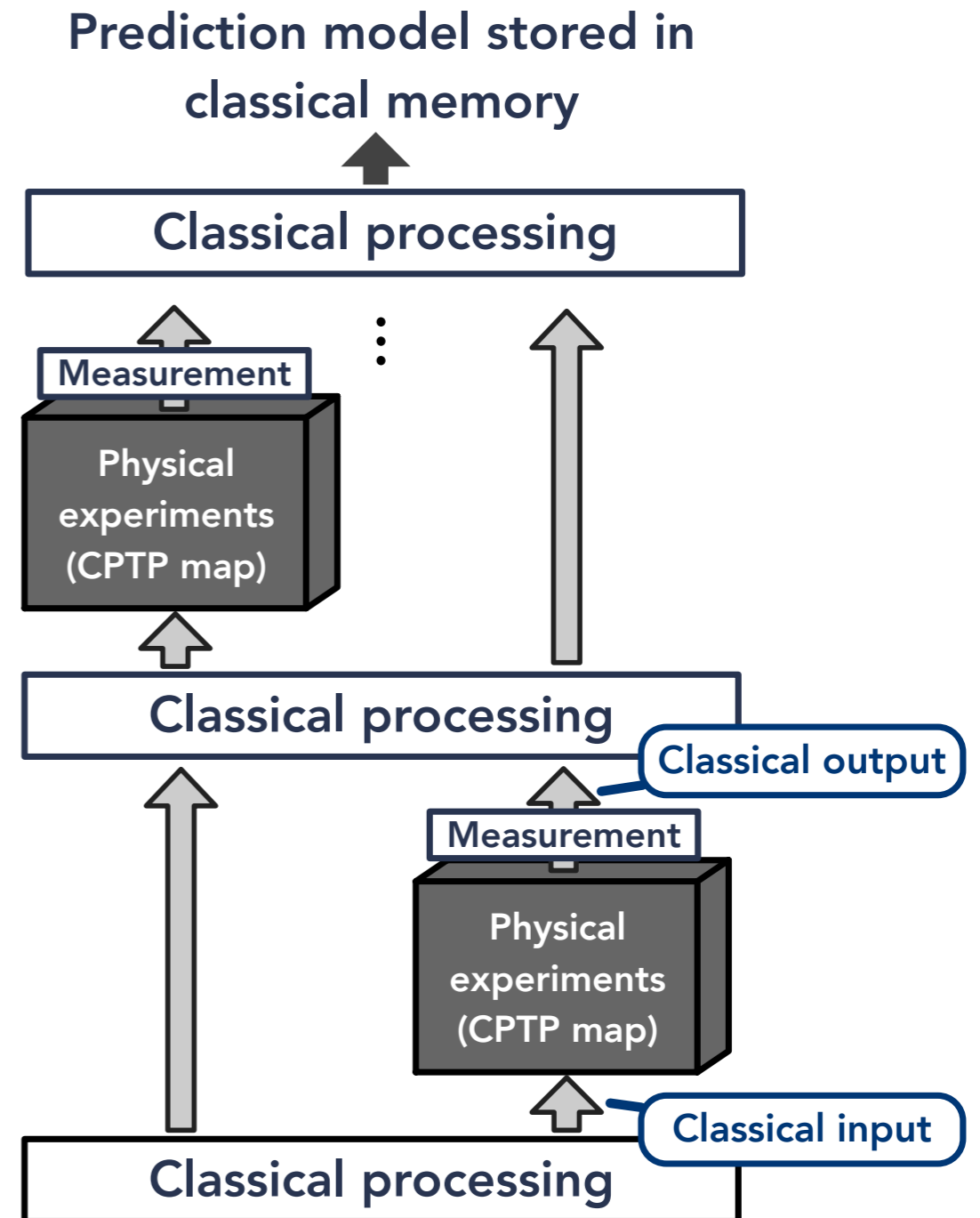
O : the property we want to predict



General Setting

Classical machine learning

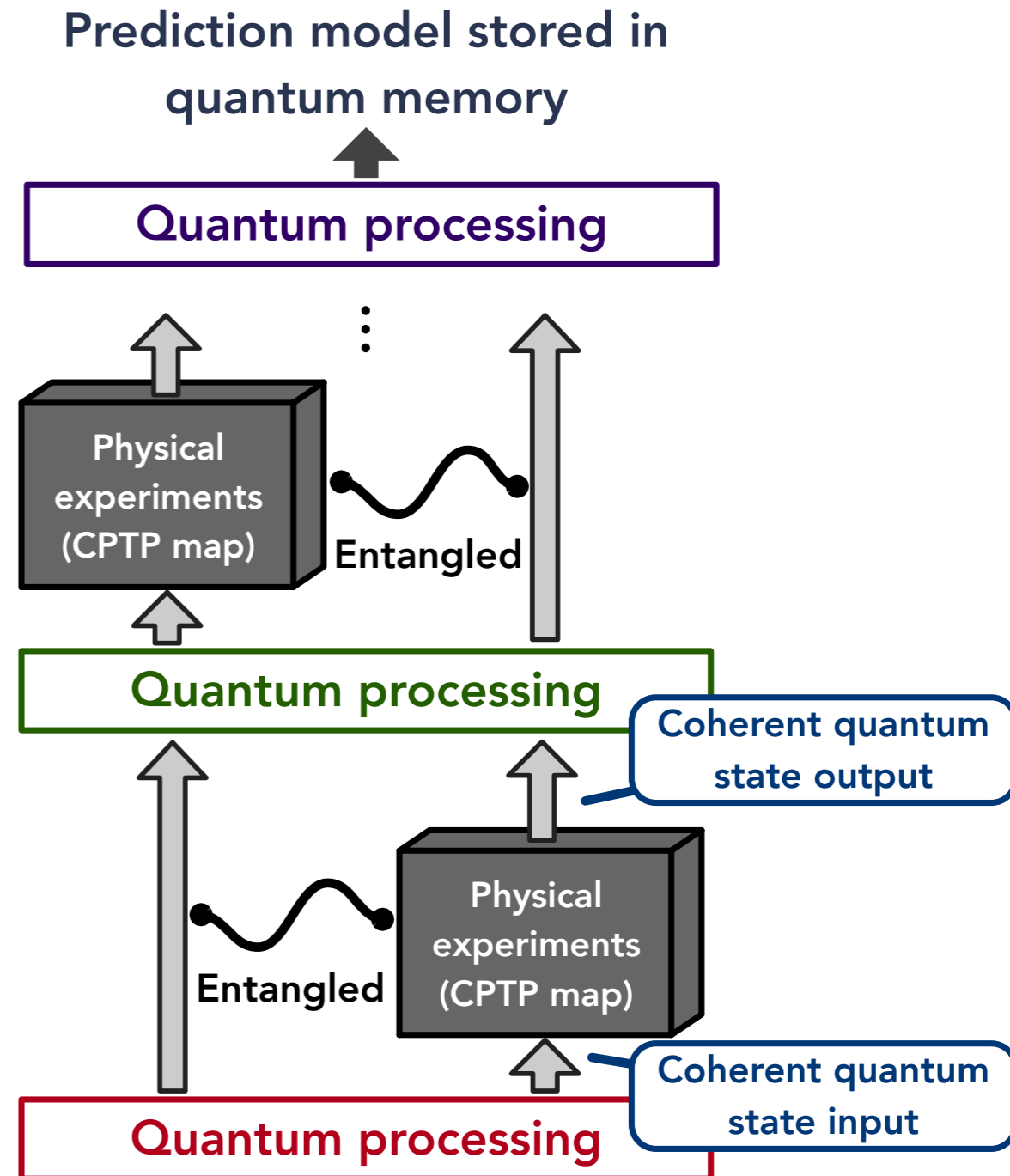
- Learning agents can actively perform experiments to learn a prediction model.
- Each query begins with a choice of classical input x and ends with an arbitrary POVM measurement.
- A prediction model $h(x) \approx f_{\mathcal{E}}(x)$ is created after learning.



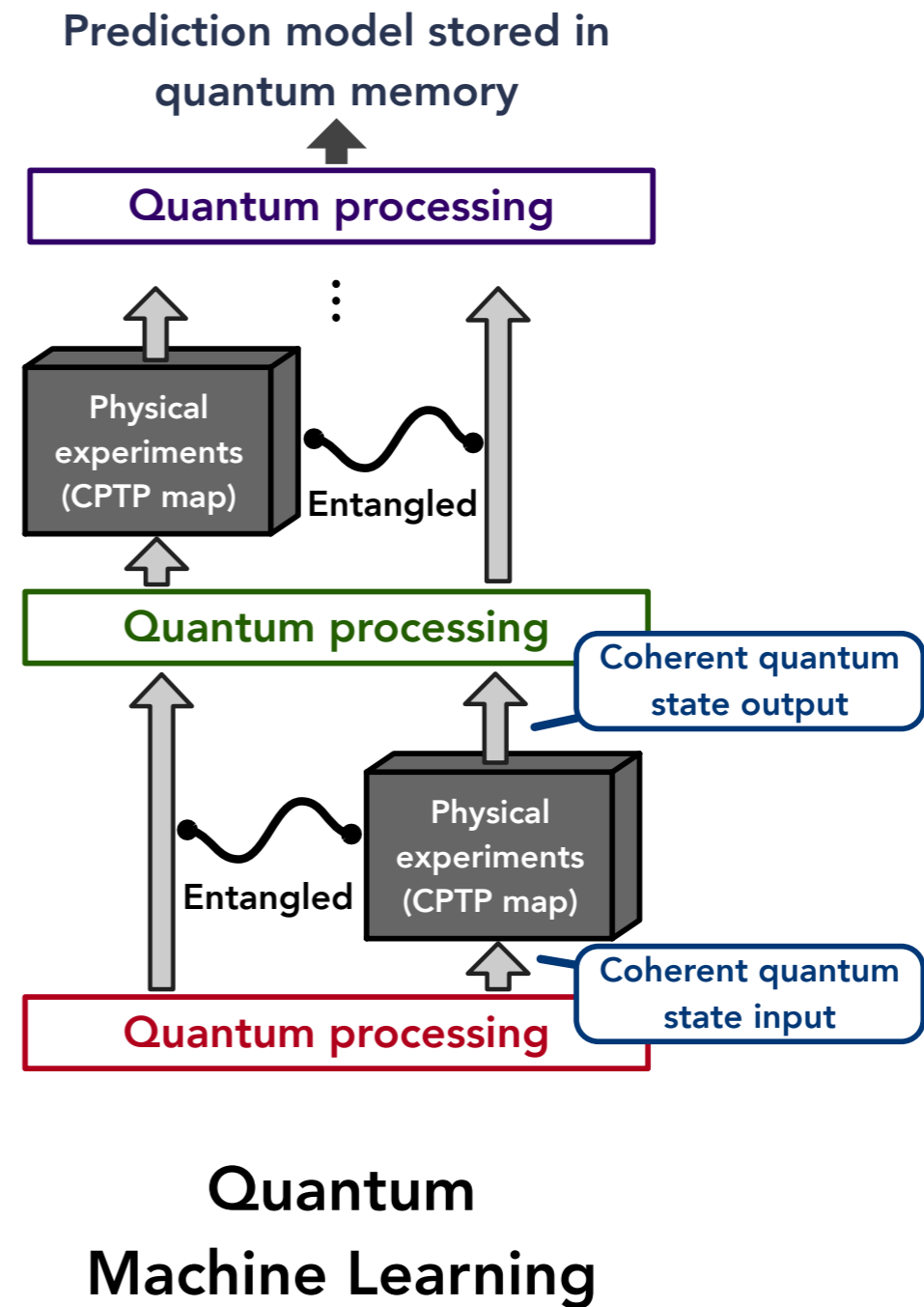
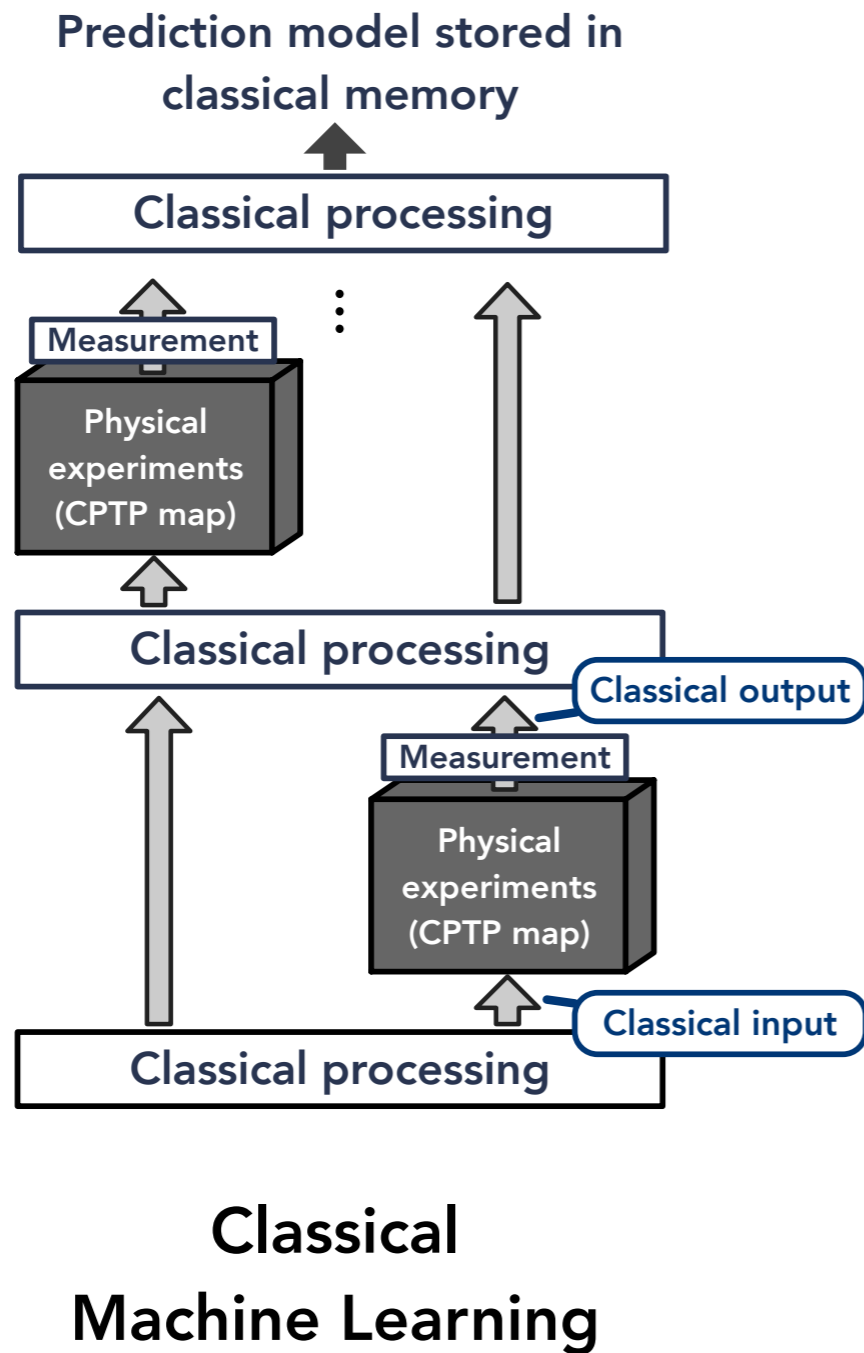
General Setting

Quantum machine learning

- Similar to classical ML setting.
- Each query consists of an arbitrary access to the CPTP map \mathcal{E} (the input can be entangled, and no measurement at the end).
- A prediction model $h(x) \approx f_{\mathcal{E}}(x)$ is stored in a quantum memory instead of a classical memory.



General Setting



The setup is closely related to Quantum Algorithmic Measurements by Aharonov, Cotler, Qi

Main Question



Information-theoretic aspect:

Do classical ML need significantly more experiments (query complexity) than quantum ML to predict $f_{\mathcal{E}}(x) = \text{Tr}(O\mathcal{E}(|x\rangle\langle x|))$?

[1] Information-theoretic bounds on quantum advantage in machine learning, *arXiv:2101.02464*.

Main Theorem

Theorem (Huang, Kueng, Preskill; 2021 [1])

Consider any observable O , any family of CPTP maps $\mathcal{F} = \{\mathcal{E}\}$ with n -qubit input and m -qubit output, and any input distribution \mathcal{D} .

Suppose a quantum ML uses N_Q queries to the unknown CPTP map \mathcal{E} to learn a prediction model $h_Q(x)$ that achieves a prediction error of

$$\mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{D}} \left| h_Q(x) - f_{\mathcal{E}}(x) \right|^2 \leq \epsilon,$$

then there is a classical ML using $N_C \leq \mathcal{O}(mN_Q/\epsilon)$ to learn a prediction model $h_C(x)$ that achieves a prediction error of

$$\mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{D}} \left| h_C(x) - f_{\mathcal{E}}(x) \right|^2 \leq \mathcal{O}(\epsilon).$$

Main Theorem

Theorem (Huang, Kueng, Preskill; 2021 [1])

Concept/hypothesis class
in statistical learning theory

Consider any observable O , any family of CPTP maps $\mathcal{F} = \{\mathcal{E}\}$ with n -qubit input and m -qubit output, and any input distribution \mathcal{D} .

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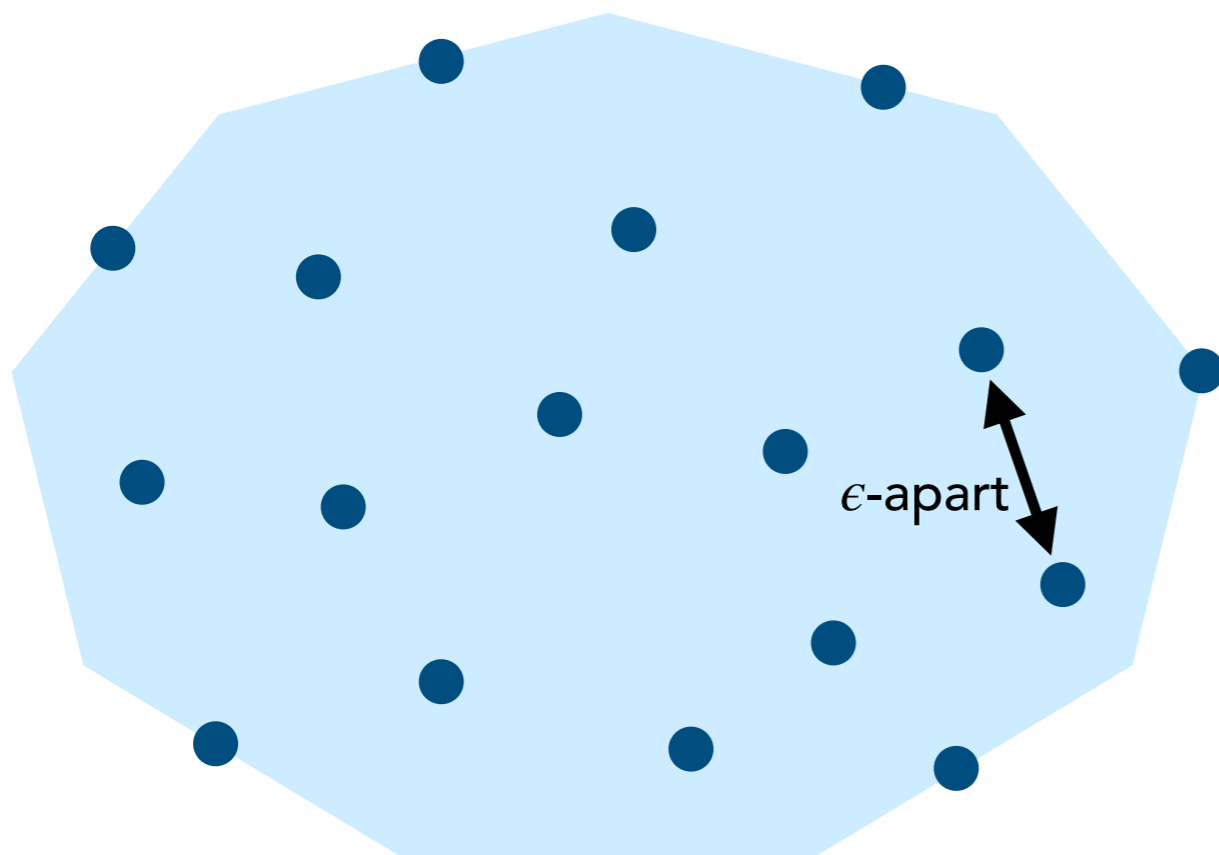
Average prediction error

then there is a classical ML using $N_C \leq \mathcal{O}(mN_Q/\epsilon)$ to learn a prediction model $h_C(x)$ that achieves a prediction error of

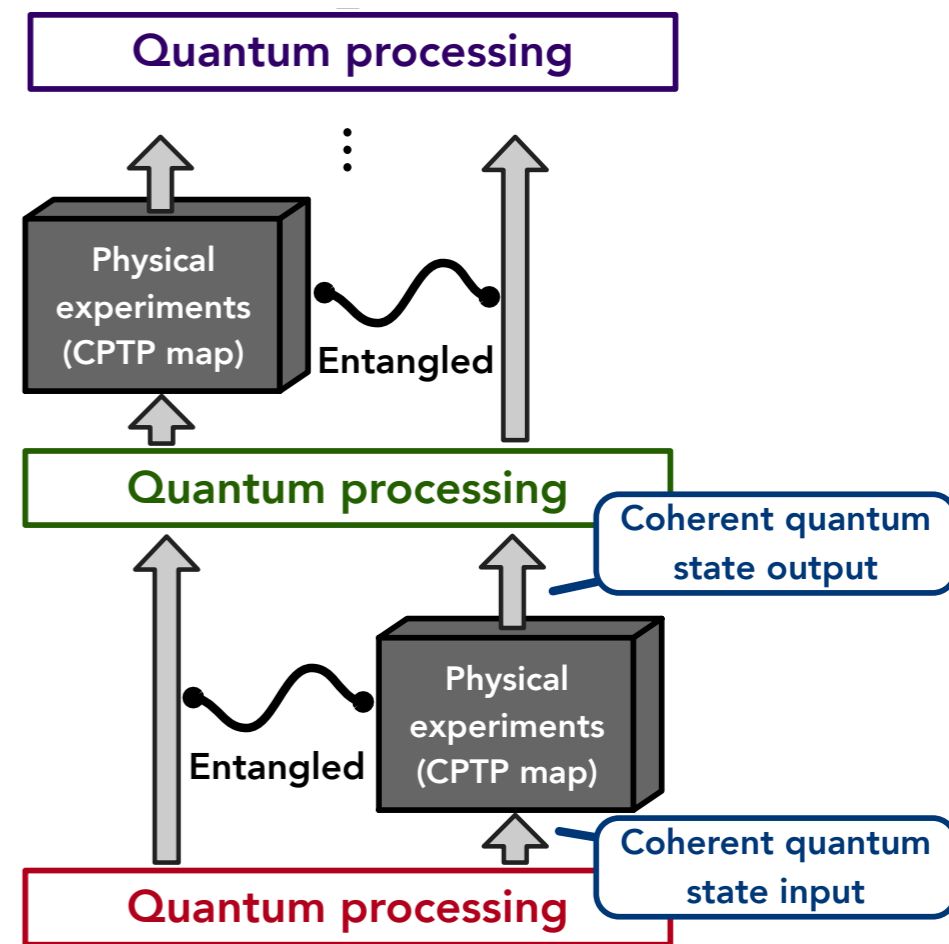
$$\mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{D}} \left| h_C(x) - f_{\mathcal{E}}(x) \right|^2 \leq \mathcal{O}(\epsilon).$$

Proof idea: Quantum lower bound

The set of CPTP maps $\mathcal{F} = \{\mathcal{E}\}$



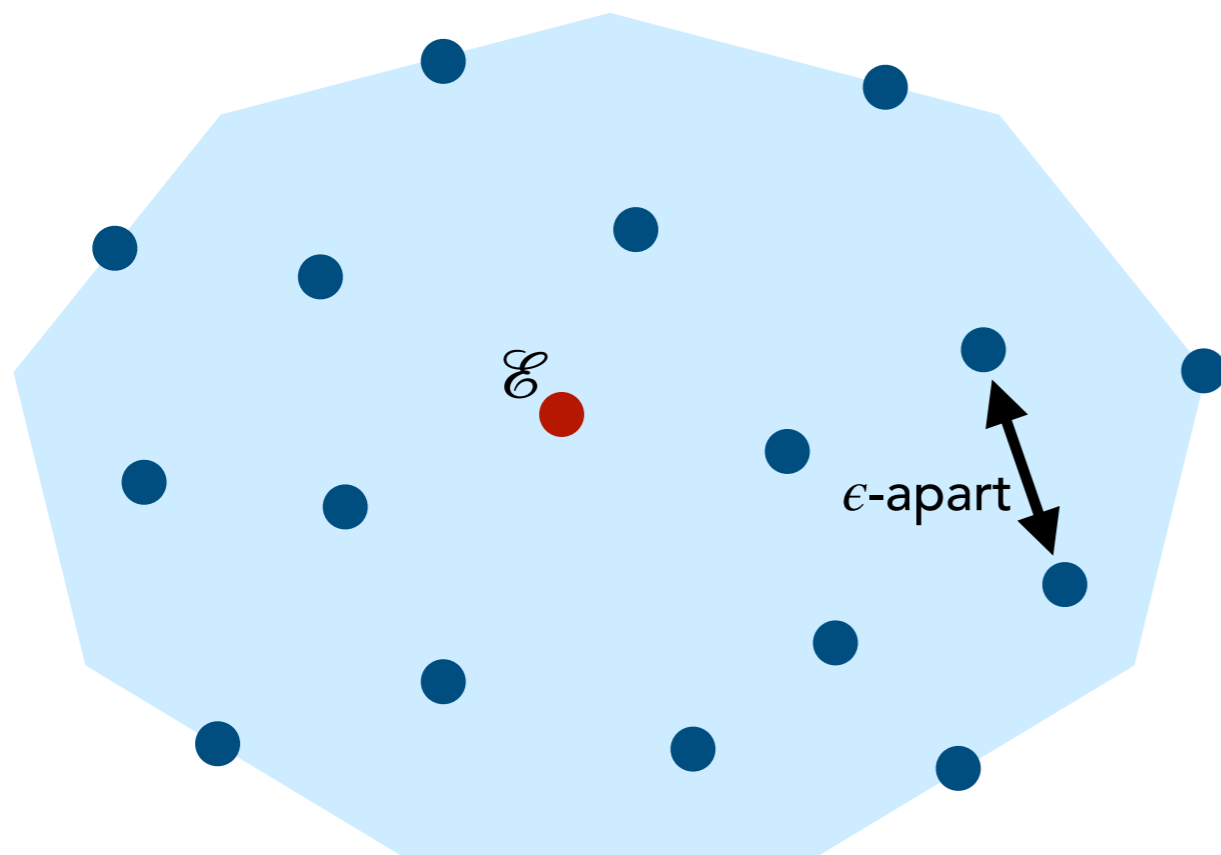
Construct the maximum packing net M_ϵ^P



Quantum
Machine Learning

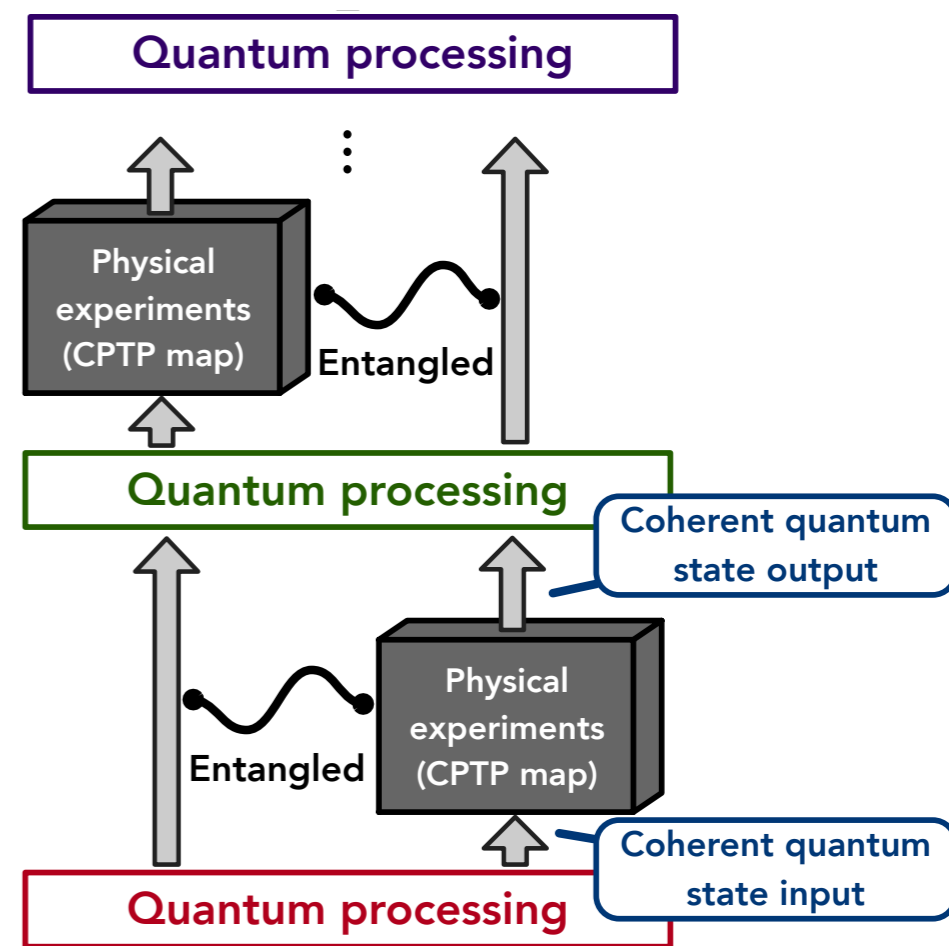
Proof idea: Quantum lower bound

The set of CPTP maps $\mathcal{F} = \{\mathcal{E}\}$



Construct the maximum packing net M_ϵ^P

Alice chooses a CPTP map \mathcal{E} among M_ϵ^P

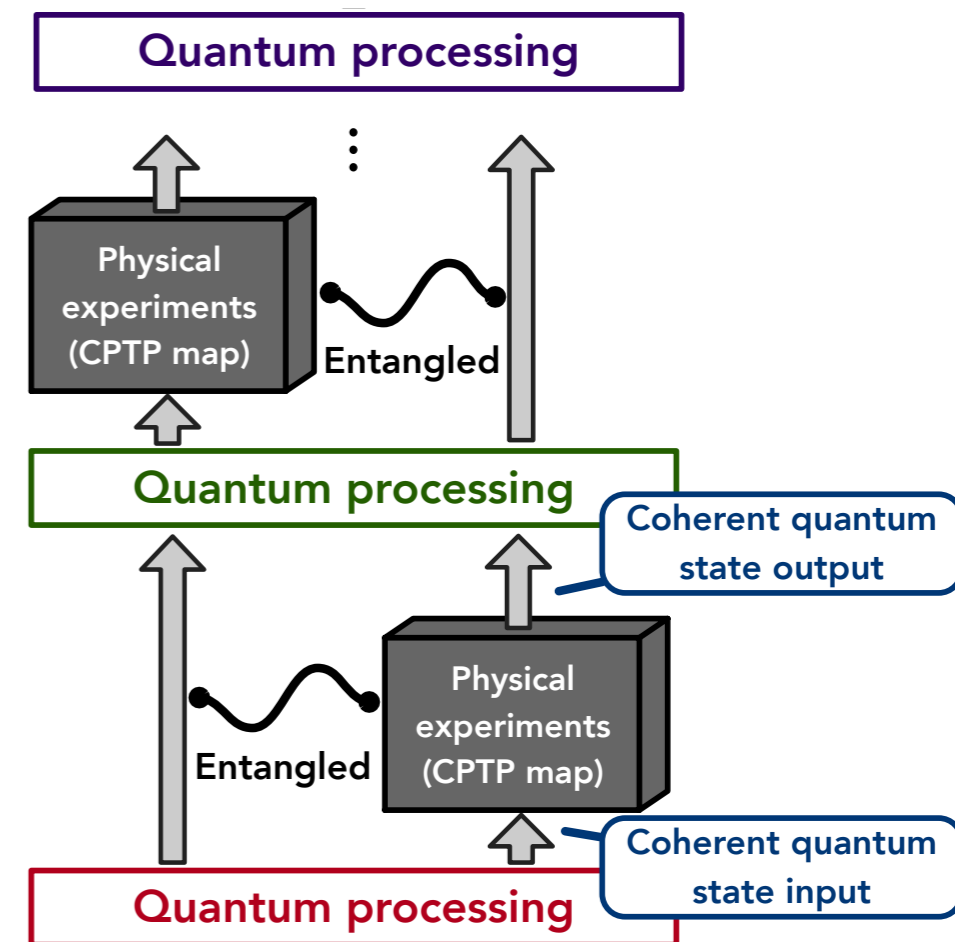
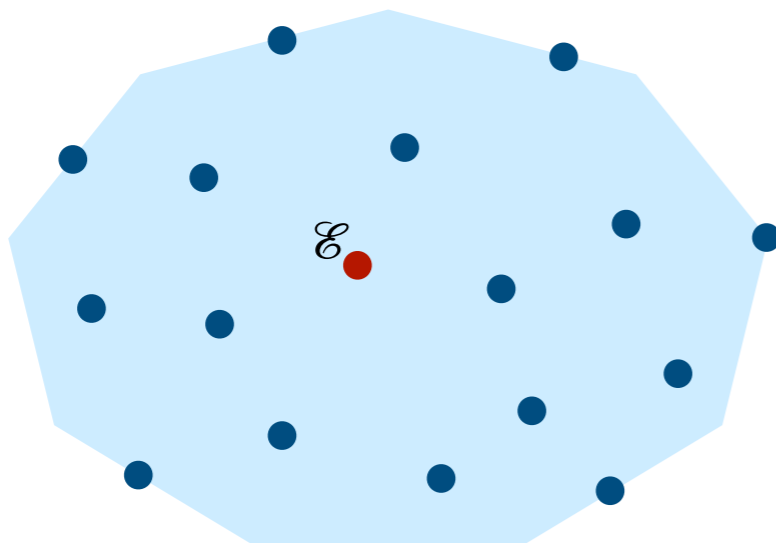


Quantum
Machine Learning

Proof idea:

Quantum lower bound

1. Alice chooses a CPTP map \mathcal{E} among packing net M_ϵ^P

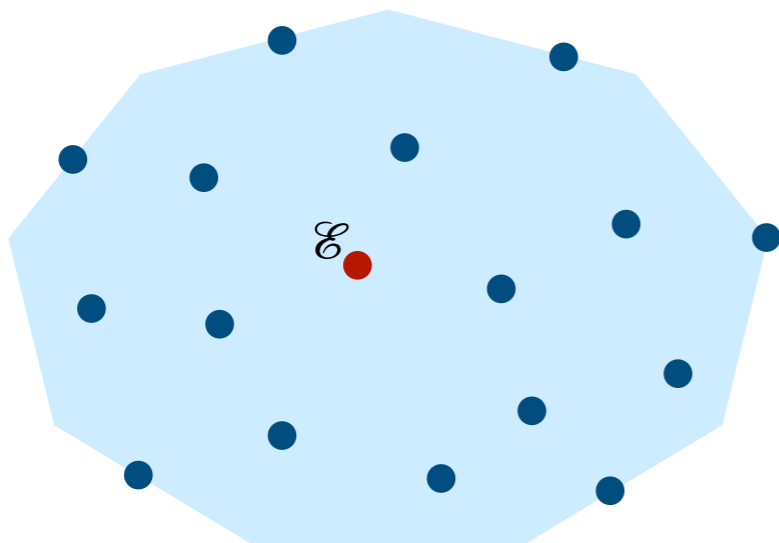


Quantum
Machine Learning

Proof idea:

Quantum lower bound

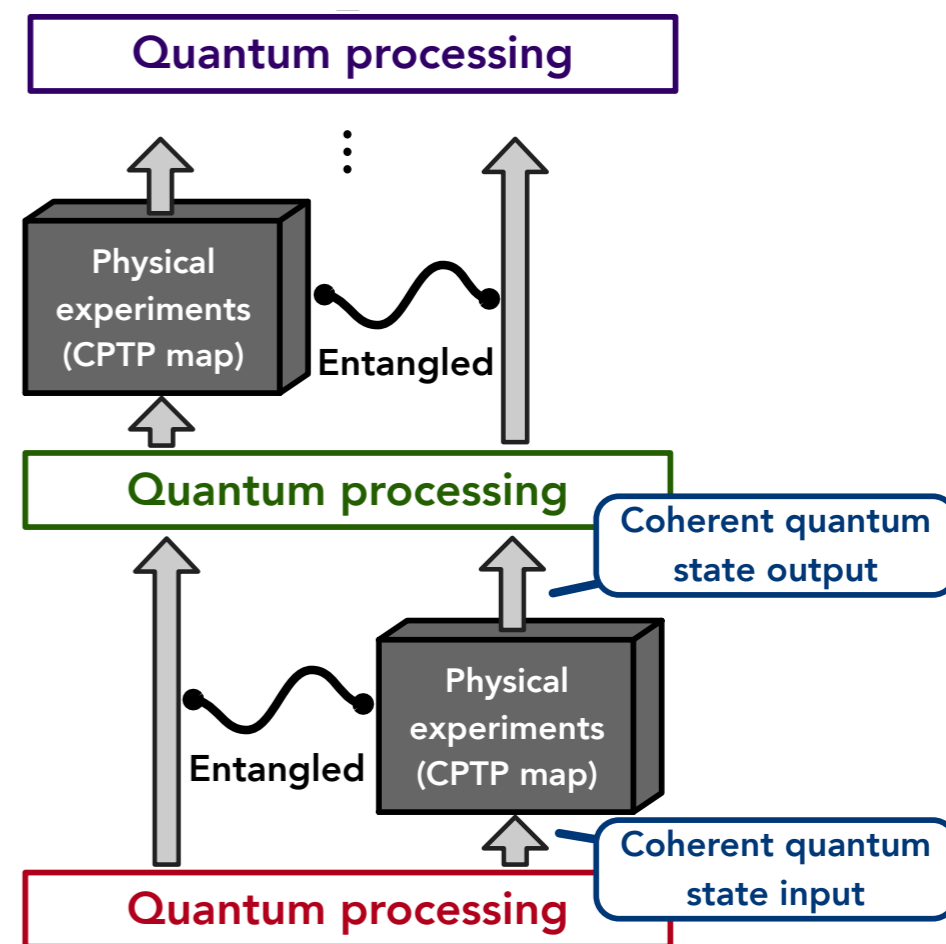
1. Alice chooses a CPTP map \mathcal{E} among packing net M_ϵ^P



2. Bob uses the quantum machine learning algorithm to get

$$\rho_{N_Q, \mathcal{E}} = (\mathcal{E} \otimes I) \dots C_2(\mathcal{E} \otimes I) C_1(\mathcal{E} \otimes I)(\rho_0),$$

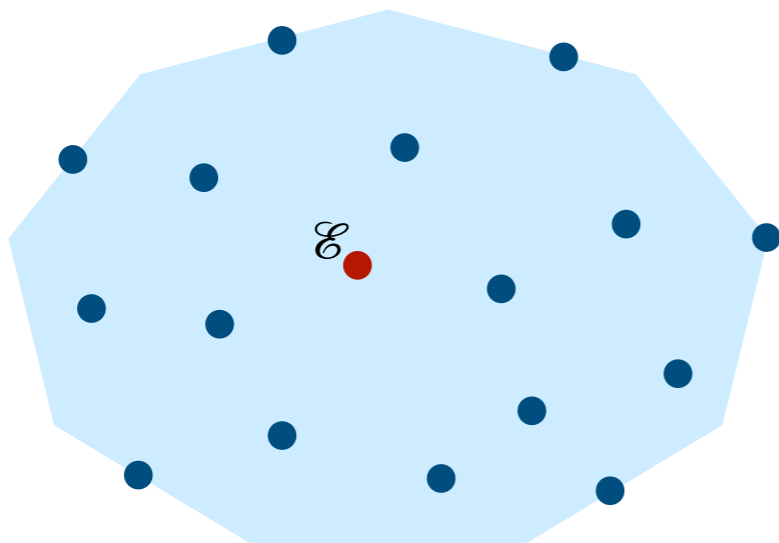
where $C_1, C_2, \dots =$ quantum processing (CPTP maps),
 And $\mathcal{E} \otimes I$ is the physical experiment to learn.



Quantum
Machine Learning

Proof idea: Quantum lower bound

1. Alice chooses a CPTP map \mathcal{E} among packing net M_ϵ^P

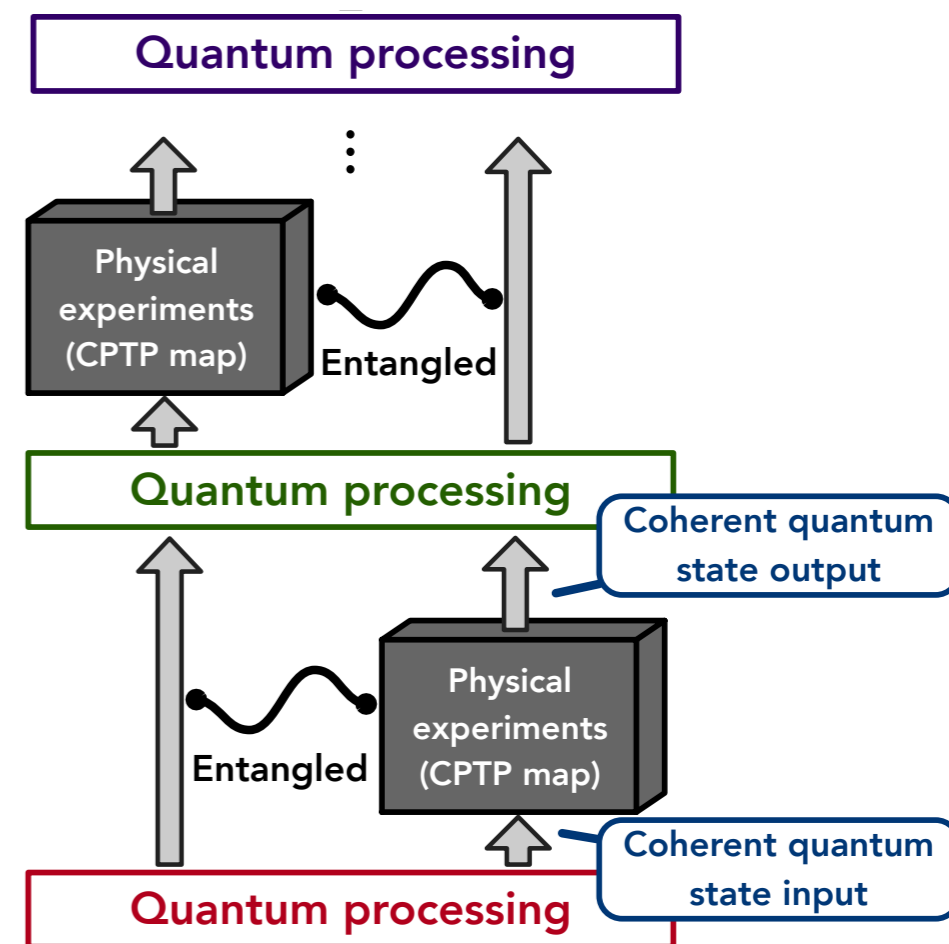


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$$\rho_{N_Q, \mathcal{E}} = (\mathcal{E} \otimes I) \dots C_2(\mathcal{E} \otimes I) C_1(\mathcal{E} \otimes I)(\rho_0),$$

where $C_1, C_2, \dots =$ quantum processing (CPTP maps),
And $\mathcal{E} \otimes I$ is the physical experiment to learn.

3. Bob can use $\rho_{N_Q, \mathcal{E}}$ to predict $f_{\mathcal{E}}(x) = \text{Tr}(O\mathcal{E}(|x\rangle\langle x|))$
to ϵ -error, so Bob could determine \mathcal{E} (bc. of packing net).



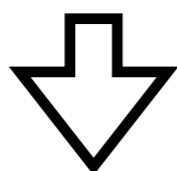
**Quantum
Machine Learning**

Proof idea:

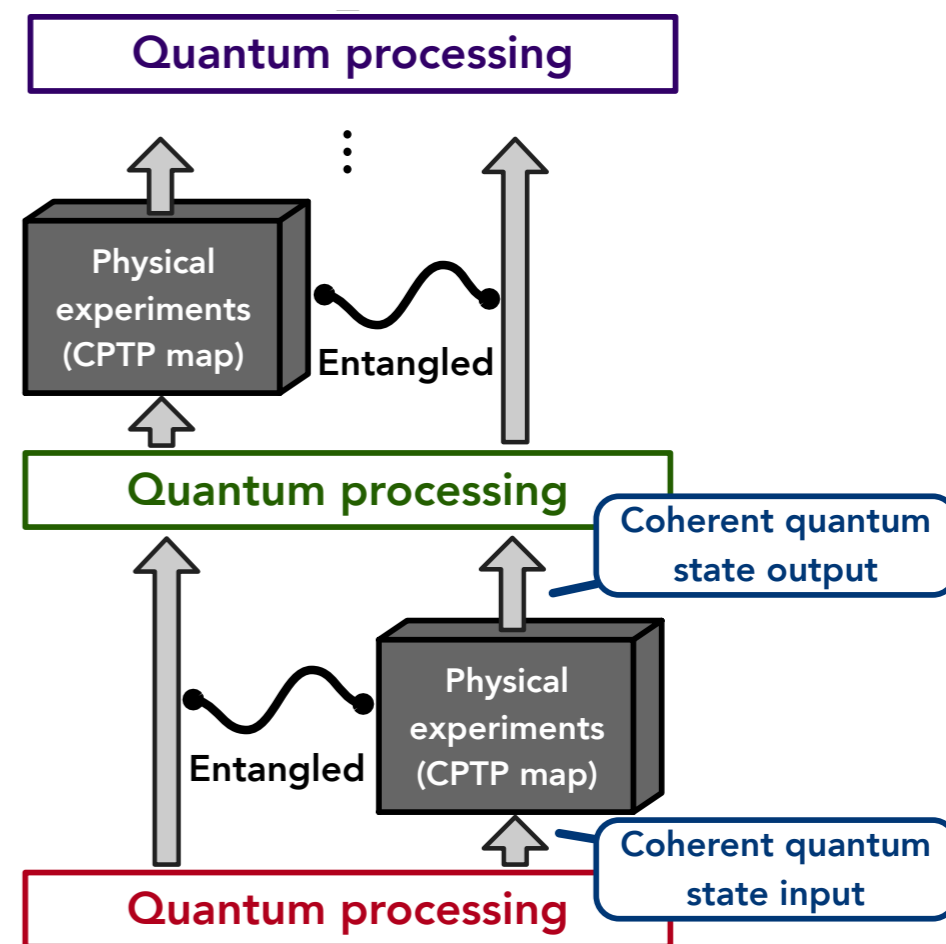
Quantum lower bound

1. Alice chooses a CPTP map \mathcal{E} among packing net M_ϵ^p
2. Bob uses the quantum machine learning algorithm to get

$$\rho_{N_Q, \mathcal{E}} = (\mathcal{E} \otimes I) \dots C_2(\mathcal{E} \otimes I) C_1(\mathcal{E} \otimes I)(\rho_0).$$
3. Bob can use $\rho_{N_Q, \mathcal{E}}$ to determine \mathcal{E} (bc. of packing net).



Mutual information between $\mathcal{E} \in M_\epsilon^p$ and $\rho_{N_Q, \mathcal{E}}$ is at least an order of $\log(|M_\epsilon^p|)$.



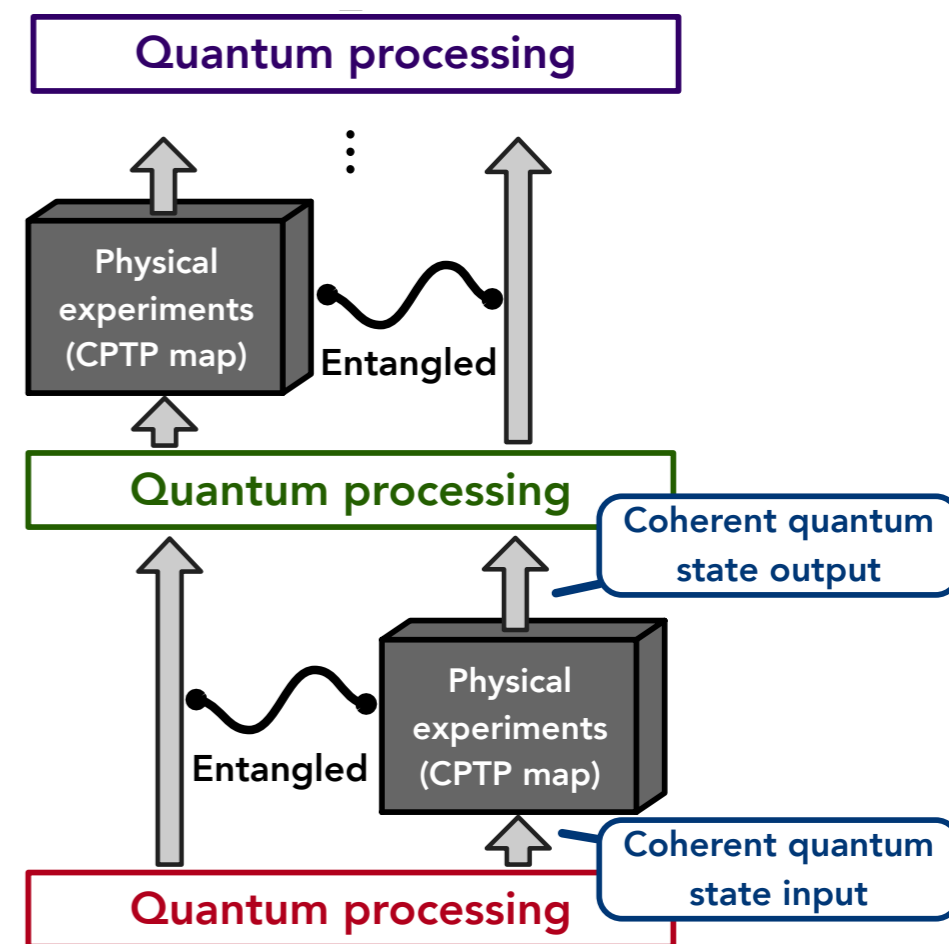
Quantum
Machine Learning

Proof idea: Quantum lower bound

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$$(\mathcal{E} \otimes I) \dots \underline{C_2}(\mathcal{E} \otimes I) C_1(\mathcal{E} \otimes I)(\rho_0)$$

Does not increase the information



Quantum
Machine Learning

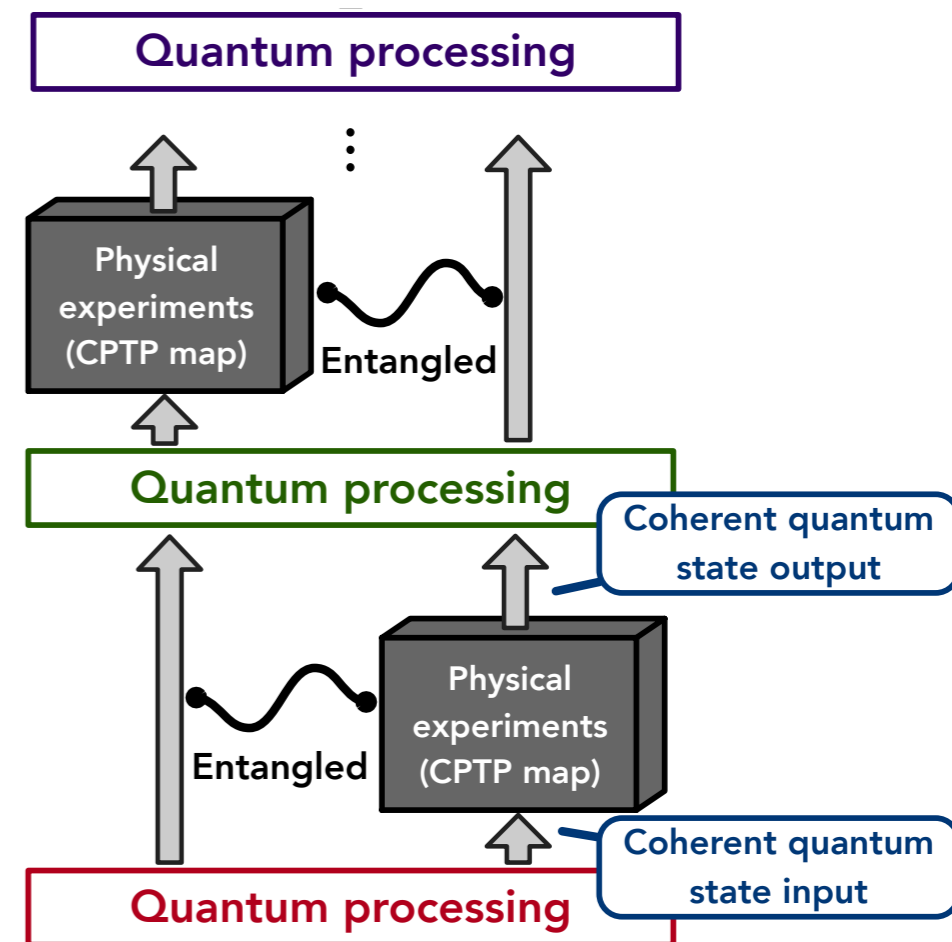
Proof idea:

Quantum lower bound

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$$\underline{(\mathcal{E} \otimes I)} \dots C_2(\mathcal{E} \otimes I) C_1(\mathcal{E} \otimes I)(\rho_0)$$

Each query increases information by at most order m



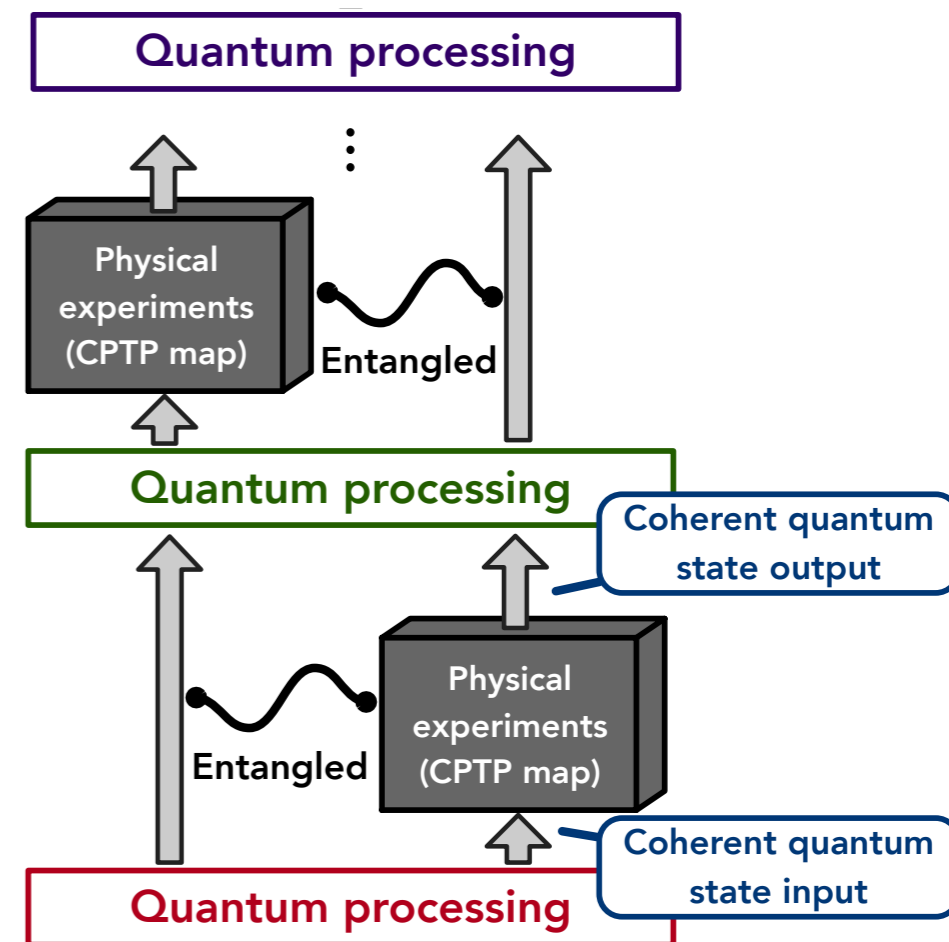
Quantum
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Mutual information is upper bounded by order mN_Q



Quantum
Machine Learning

Proof idea: Quantum lower bound

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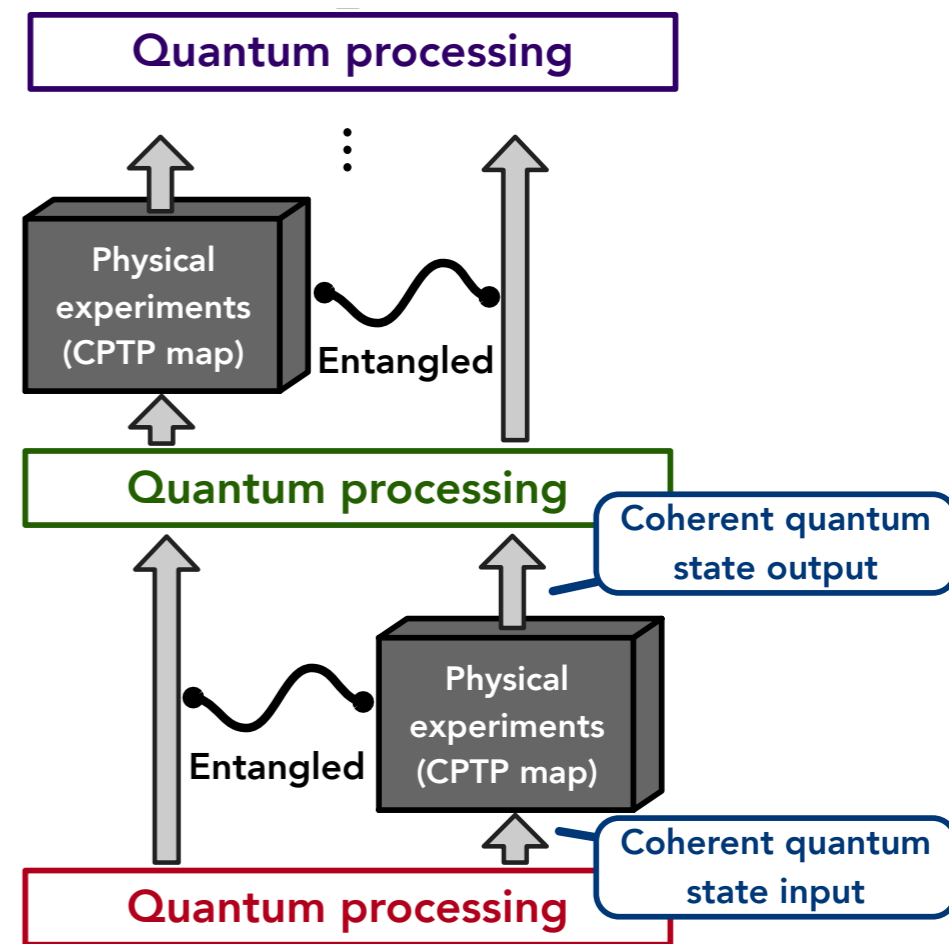
+

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Mutual information is upper bounded by order mN_Q

||

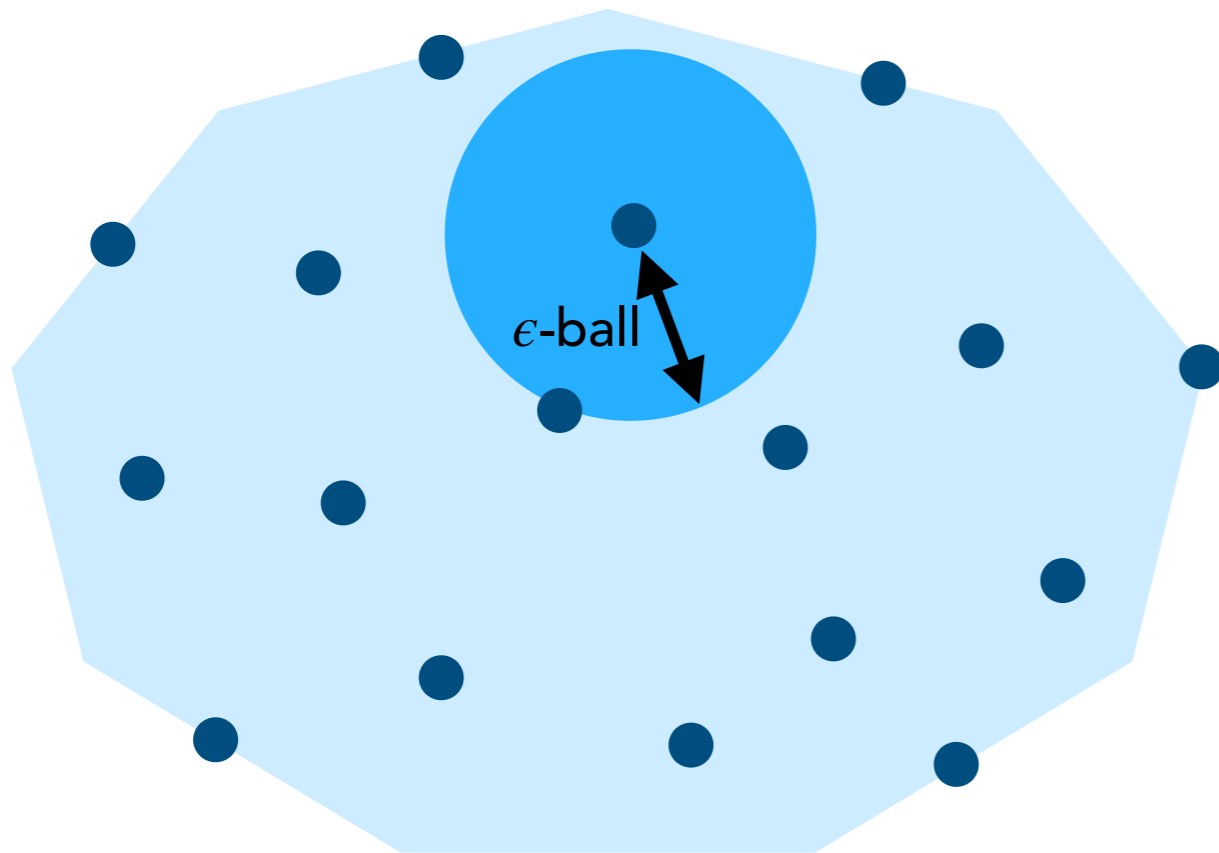
$$N_Q \geq \Omega(\log(|M_\epsilon^P|)/m)$$



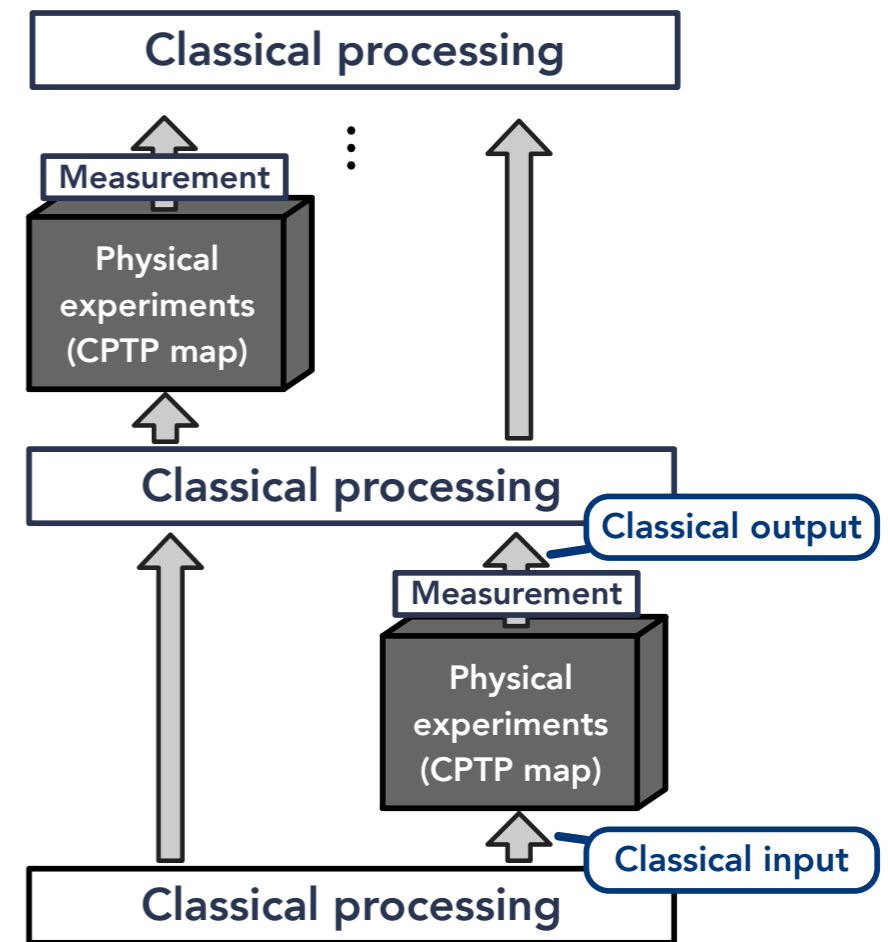
Quantum
Machine Learning

Proof idea: Classical upper bound

The set of CPTP maps $\mathcal{F} = \{\mathcal{E}\}$



Construct the **maximum** packing net M_ϵ^P
 M_ϵ^P covers the entire set \mathcal{F} with ϵ -ball.

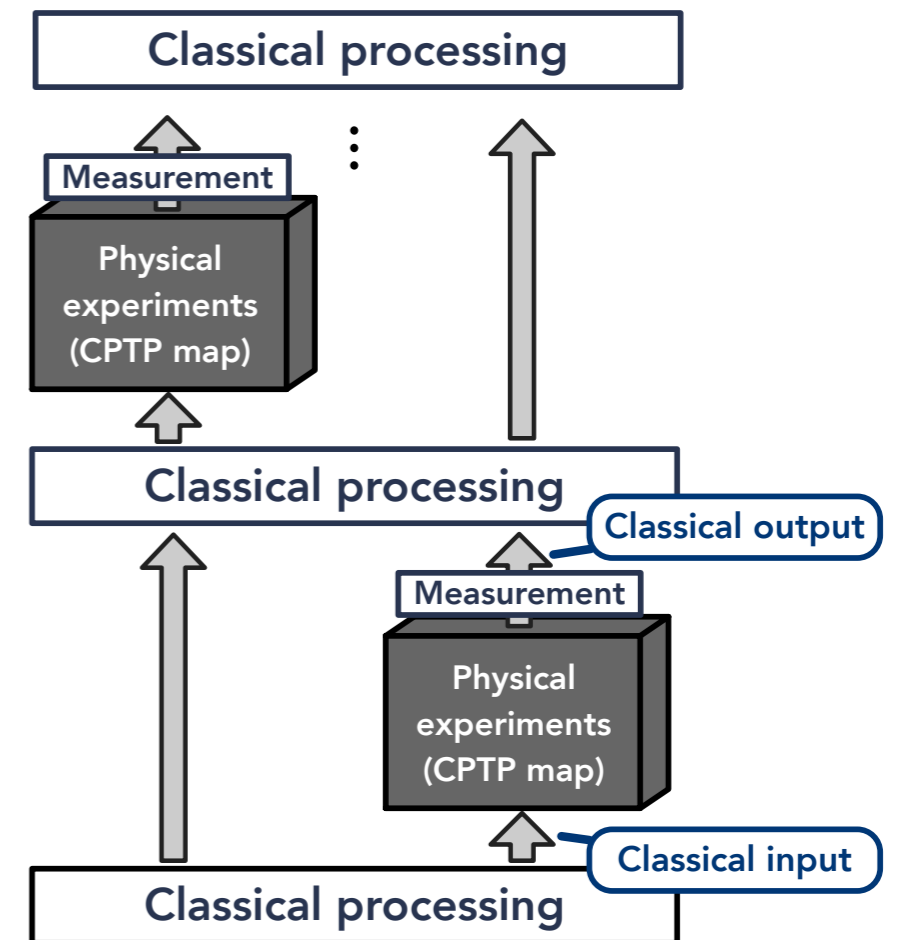


**Classical
Machine Learning**

Proof idea:

Classical upper bound

1. Randomly select inputs x_1, \dots, x_{N_C} from distribution \mathcal{D}

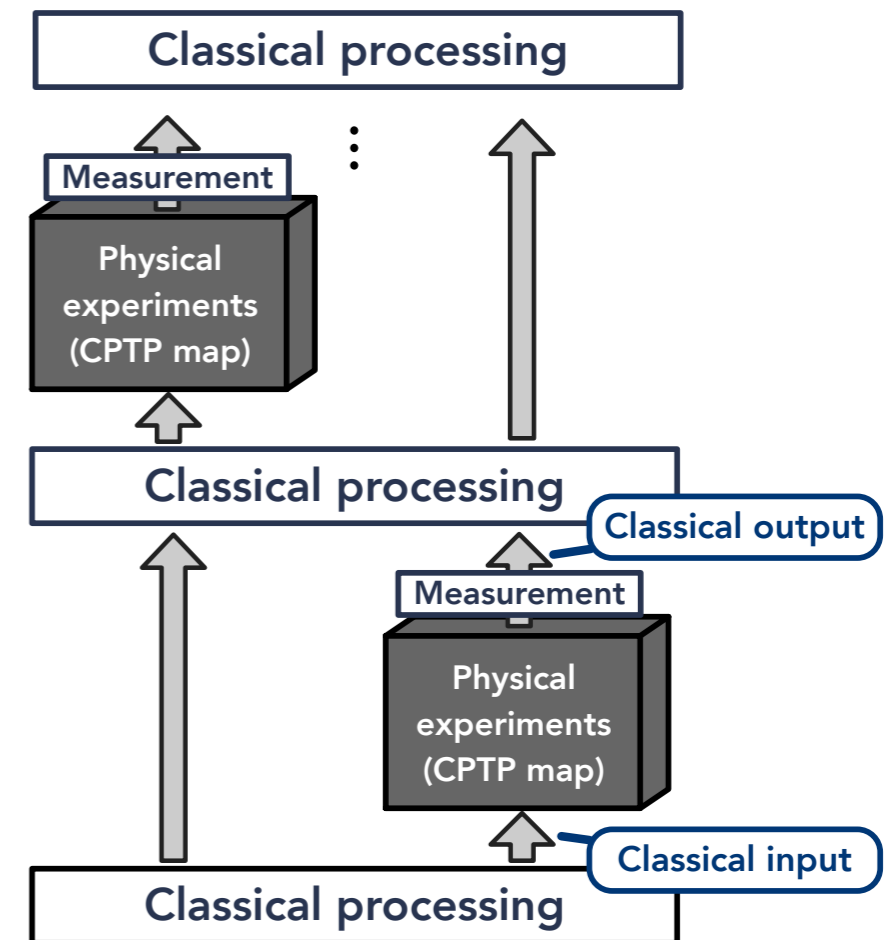


**Classical
Machine Learning**

Proof idea:

Classical upper bound

1. Randomly select inputs x_1, \dots, x_{N_C} from distribution \mathcal{D}
2. Measure observable O on the output state of the CPTP map that takes in input x_i to obtain outcome o_i .

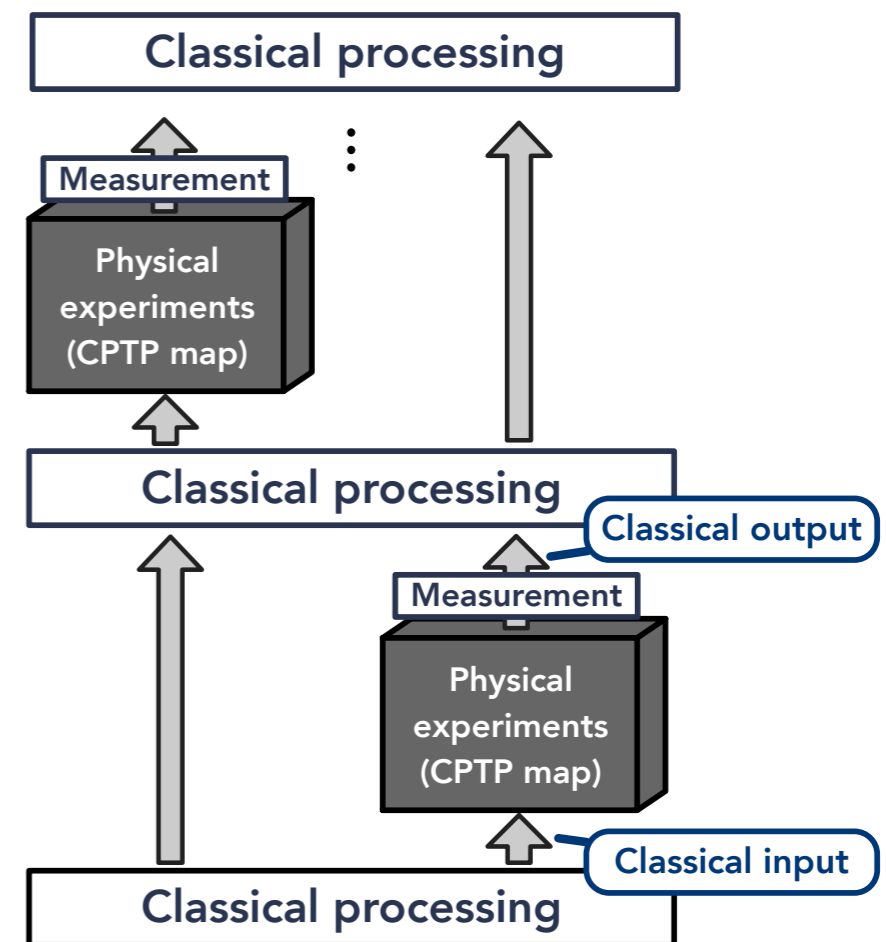
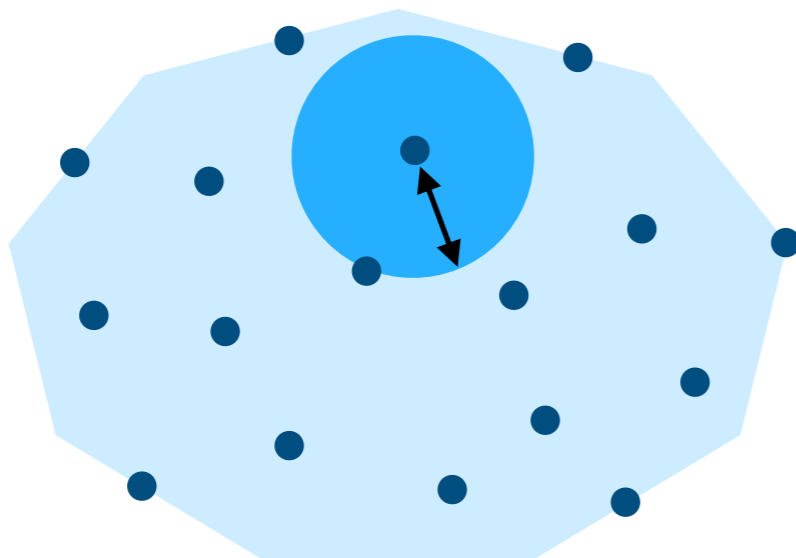


Classical
Machine Learning

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3. Output the function h_C from M_ϵ^p that minimizes

$$\frac{1}{N_C} \sum_{i=1}^{N_C} |h_C(x_i) - o_i|^2.$$



Classical
Machine Learning

Proof idea:

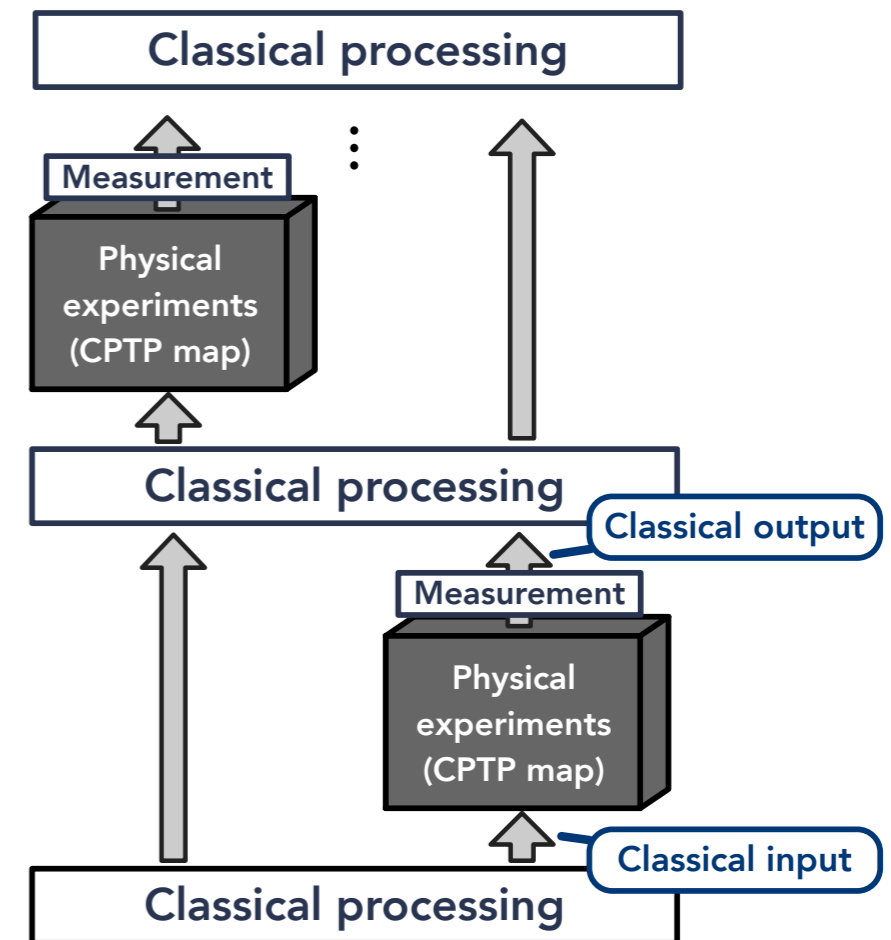
Classical upper bound

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Prediction error $\mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{D}} |h_C(x) - f_{\mathcal{G}}(x)|^2 \leq \mathcal{O}(\epsilon)$
using $N_C = \mathcal{O}(\log(|M_\epsilon^P|)/\epsilon)$.

A proper/complicated statistical analysis gives this.



**Classical
Machine Learning**

Proof idea:

Combining the two bounds

Quantum lower bound

$$N_Q \geq \Omega(\log(|M_\epsilon^P|)/m).$$

Classical upper bound

$$N_C \leq \mathcal{O}(\log(|M_\epsilon^P|)/\epsilon).$$

$$N_C \leq \mathcal{O}(mN_Q/\epsilon).$$

Main Theorem

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Implication of $N_C \leq \mathcal{O}(mN_Q/\epsilon)$

- Quantum ML can **perform better** than classical ML when ϵ is small or when m is large.
- This can still be useful in practice!
- But the advantage in query complexity is **limited** as above in any quantum problem.

Implication of $N_C \leq \mathcal{O}(mN_Q/\epsilon)$

- The Quantum ML setting requires coherent accesses to \mathcal{E} + large quantum memory.
- The Classical ML setting only use fixed measurement after each \mathcal{E} + large classical memory.
- Quantum ML setting may likely only be available **far in the future**.
- Classical ML setting is **just as powerful** after getting moderately more data. And is readily available.

Non-Implication of $N_C \leq \mathcal{O}(mN_Q/\epsilon)$

- ML models trained on classical computers are computationally as powerful as those running on quantum computers?
- **No!** We only consider query complexity, not computational complexity.
- We can consider quantum computers running in the classical ML setting (learning only from measurement data stored in classical memory).
- Quantum computers can **optimize/compute faster** than classical computers! E.g., see [2] for discussion on computational complexity.

[1] Information-theoretic bounds on quantum advantage in machine learning, *arXiv:2101.02464*.

[2] Power of data in quantum machine learning, *arXiv:2011.01938*.

Non-Implication of $N_C \leq \mathcal{O}(mN_Q/\epsilon)$

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Complexity class of classical ML algorithms trained on data is strictly bigger than BPP

[1] Information-theoretic bounds on quantum advantage in machine learning, *arXiv:2101.02464*.

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Implication of $N_C \leq \mathcal{O}(mN_Q/\epsilon)$

- Classical ML setting is **just as powerful** as quantum ML setting after getting moderately more data.
- Quantum computers can **optimize/compute ML models faster** than classical computers.
- => Near-term quantum devices + classical computers may be able to address challenging quantum problems in physics/chemistry.

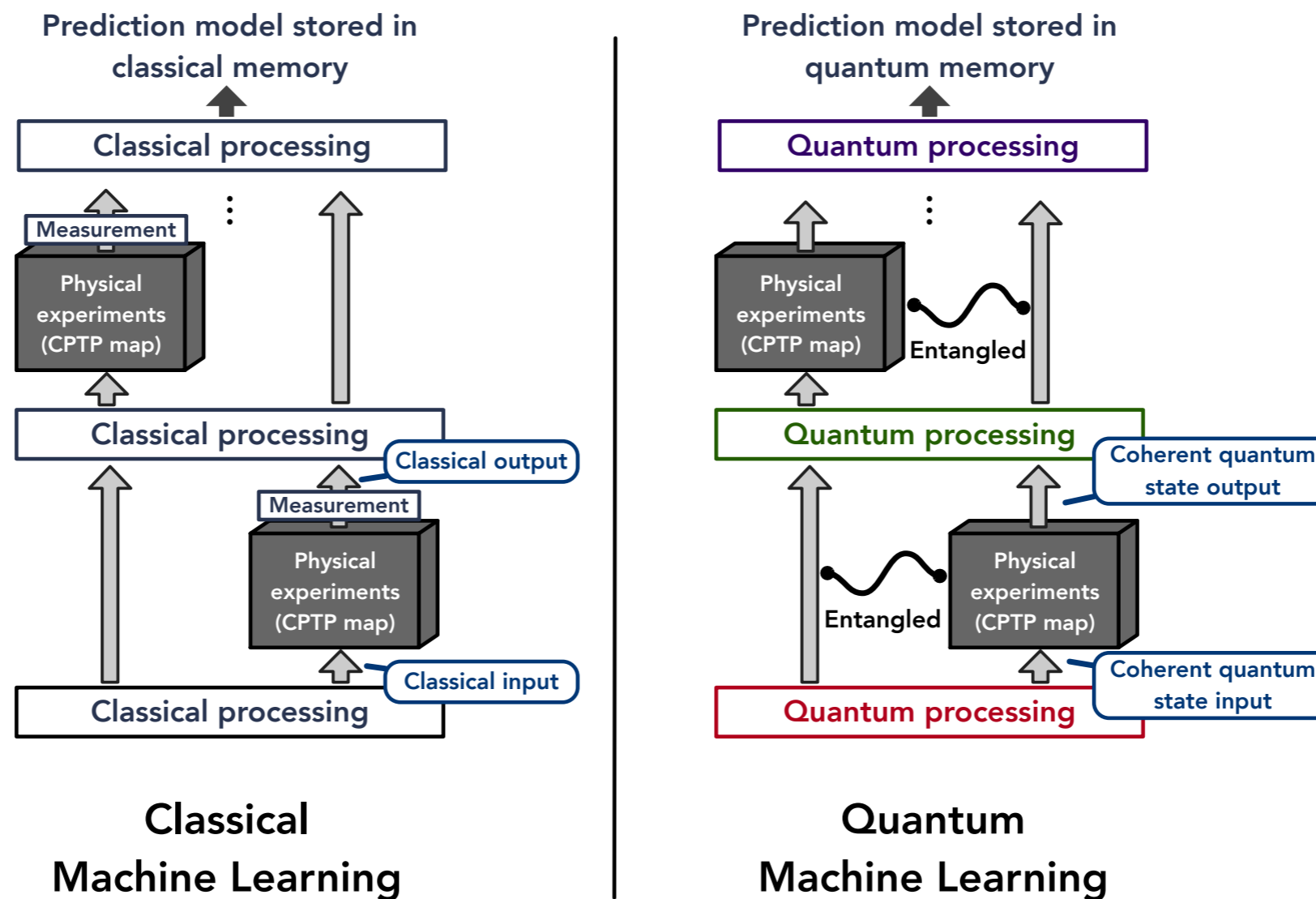
Exponential advantage

- The theorem holds only for average-case prediction error.
- Other measures of prediction error (e.g., worst-case) admits **provable exponential advantage**.

$$\max_x \left| h(x) - f_{\mathcal{E}}(x) \right|^2 \text{ instead of } \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{D}} \left| h(x) - f_{\mathcal{E}}(x) \right|^2$$

Exponential advantage

- We give an example where the CPTP map takes no input.



Exponential advantage

- The physical experiment prepares an unknown quantum system and we want to predict expectation values of Pauli observables on the unknown quantum system.
- The input x describes which Pauli observable we would like to predict.
- The output $f_{\mathcal{G}}(x)$ is the expectation of the Pauli observable on the unknown quantum system.
- Goal: Learn a model $h(x)$ such that $h(x) \approx f_{\mathcal{G}}(x)$.

Exponential advantage

What we know so far:

We can always achieve an average prediction error

$$\mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{D}} \left| h_C(x) - f_{\mathcal{G}}(x) \right|^2 \leq \mathcal{O}(\epsilon)$$

with a classical ML that uses a number of experiments similar to the optimal quantum ML.

But what about:

Can we achieve a worst-case prediction error

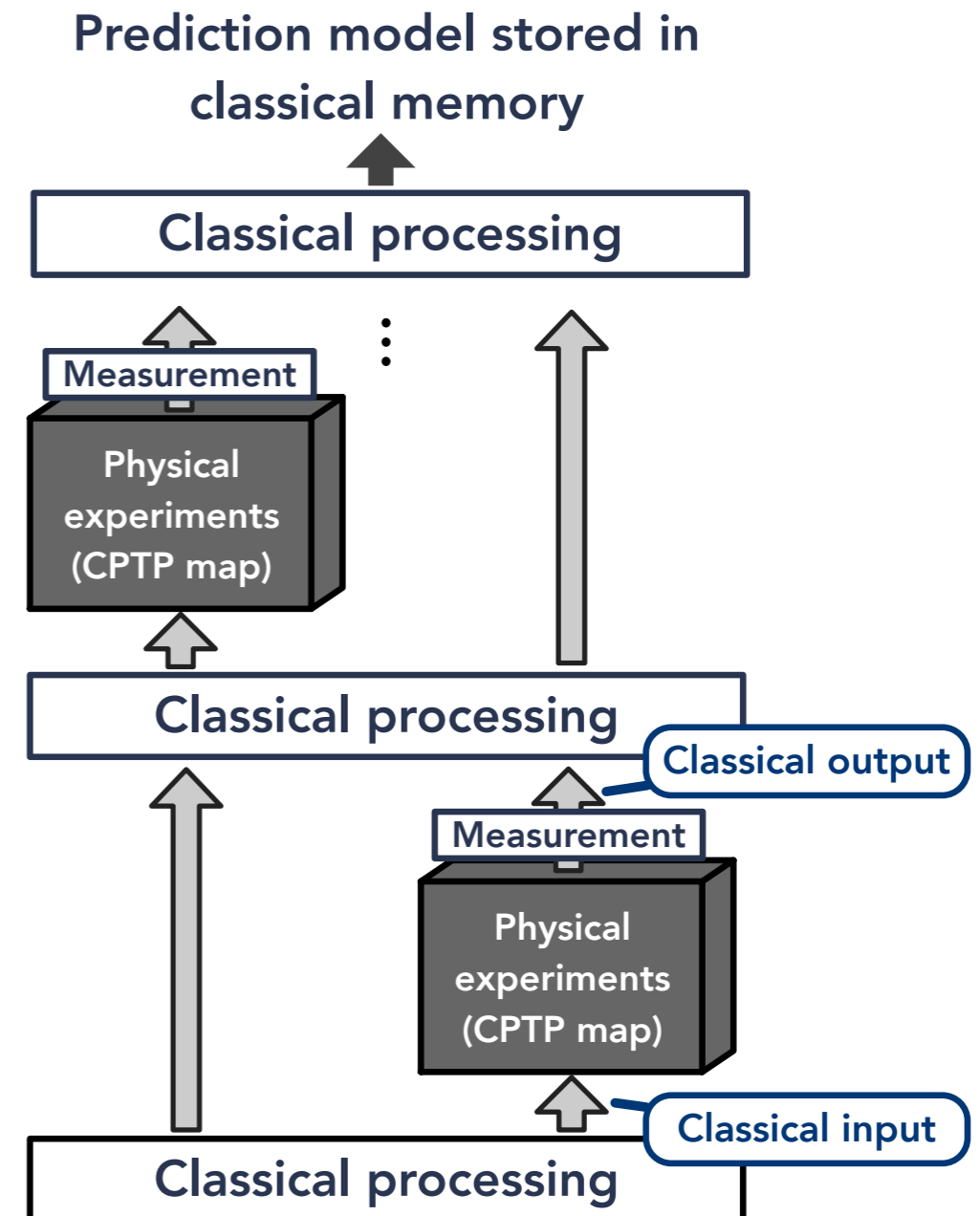
$$\max_x \left| h_C(x) - f_{\mathcal{G}}(x) \right|^2 \leq \mathcal{O}(\epsilon)$$

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Exponential advantage

Classical ML setting

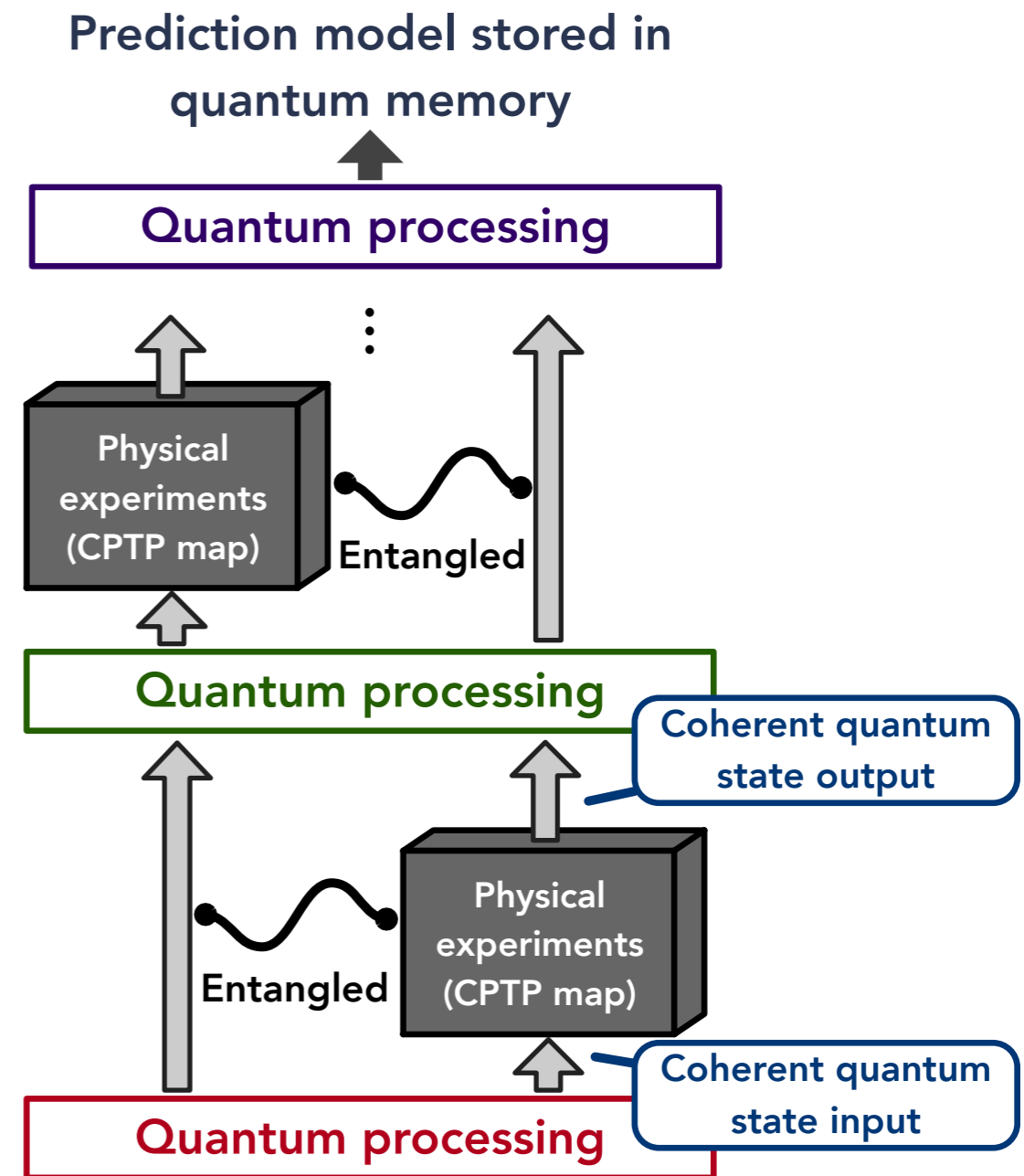
- It can perform arbitrary POVM measurement on the physical system (adaptively).
- Then analyze classical measurement data.



Exponential advantage

Quantum ML setting

- It can store quantum information from each physical experiment coherently in quantum memory.
- Then perform quantum data analysis on the quantum data.



Exponential advantage

Where could quantum advantage come from?

Classical ML suffers from **uncertainty principle**, especially when many observables are highly incompatible.

Quantum ML can store data in quantum memory and access higher-order function of the physical world, e.g., $\rho^{\otimes k}$.

Quantum memory enables the ability to **reduce the effect** of uncertainty principle [* , **].

[*] Shadow tomography of quantum states.

[**] The uncertainty principle in the presence of quantum memory.

[1] Information-theoretic bounds on quantum advantage in machine learning, *arXiv:2101.02464*.

Exponential advantage

- The input x describes which Pauli observable we would like to predict.
- The output $f_{\mathcal{G}}(x)$ is the expectation of the Pauli observable on the unknown quantum system.
- **Lower bound:** $\Omega(2^n)$ is necessary to predict all Pauli observables for classical ML (or any conventional experiments).
- **Upper bound:** $\mathcal{O}(n)$ is sufficient to predict all Pauli observables for quantum ML (based on a simple quantum algorithm).

Classical lower bound

- **Lower bound:** $\Omega(2^{n/3})$ is necessary to predict all Pauli observables for the classical ML setting (i.e., adaptive single-copy measurement protocols).
- Consider a subset of states of the form $(I + P)/2^n$, where P is a tensor product of Pauli-X/Y/Z observable.
- If we can predict all Pauli observables, then we can discriminate completely mixed state vs one of the above states.
- The informationally maximal POVM is $\{w_i|\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|\}$. A complicated information-theoretic proof shows that because
$$\frac{1}{4^n} \sum_P \langle\psi|P|\psi\rangle^2 = \frac{1}{2^n},$$
(a signature of high incompatibility) we need at least $\Omega(2^{n/3})$ measurements.

Classical lower bound

- **Lower bound:** $\Omega(2^{n/3})$ is necessary to predict all Pauli observables for the classical ML setting (i.e., adaptive single-copy measurement protocols).

- The informationally maximal POVM is $\{w_i|\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|\}$. A complicated information-theoretic proof shows that because

$$\frac{1}{4^n} \sum_P \langle\psi|P|\psi\rangle^2 = \frac{1}{2^n}, \text{ (a signature of high incompatibility)}$$

we need at least $\Omega(2^{n/3})$ measurements.

- The same proof can be extended to any set of traceless observables,

$$\frac{1}{N_O} \sum_O \langle\psi|O|\psi\rangle^2 = \delta, \text{ (a signature of high incompatibility)}$$

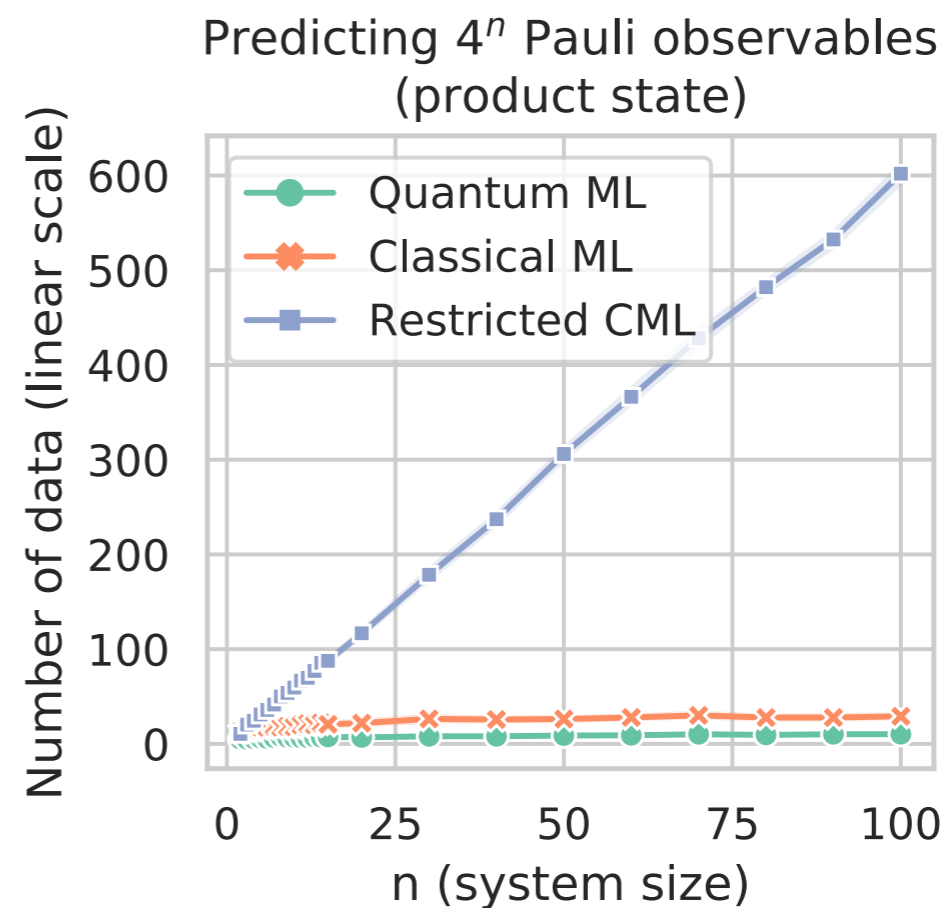
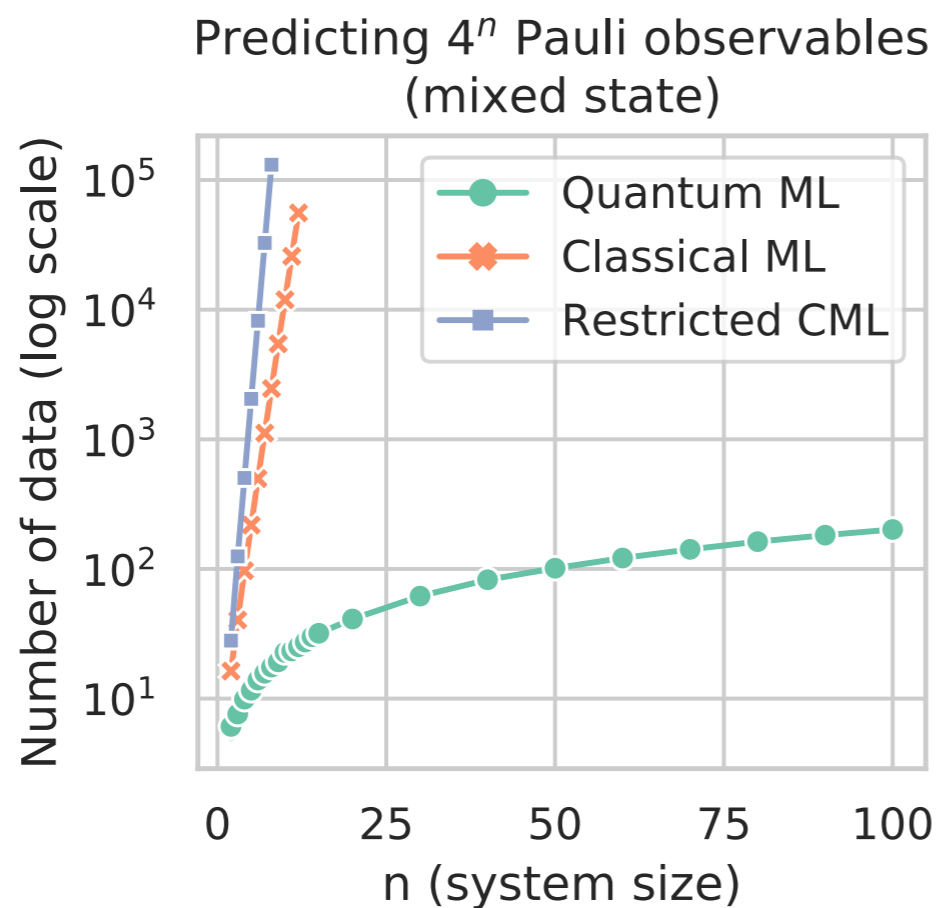
implies at least $\Omega(\delta^{-1/3})$ measurements to predict the set of observables.

Quantum upper bound

- **Upper bound:** $\mathcal{O}(n)$ is sufficient to predict all Pauli observables for quantum ML (based on a simple quantum algorithm).
- Two level protocol:
- Estimate $|\text{Tr}(P\rho)|^2$ — $P \otimes P$ commutes for all pair of P , so we can simultaneously measure $(P \otimes P)$ on $\rho \otimes \rho$. And note that $\text{Tr}((P \otimes P)(\rho \otimes \rho)) = \text{Tr}(P\rho)^2$.
- Estimate $\text{sign}(\text{Tr}(P\rho))$ — Only consider P with $|\text{Tr}(P\rho)| > \epsilon/2$. Perform coherent majority vote on n copies of ρ . This will not disturb the state much because the outcome happens with very high probability.

Worst-case prediction error

- Numerical experiments that achieve exponential advantage.



Conclusion

- A fundamental limit on quantum advantage in data efficiency for achieving average-case prediction error.
- An exponential separation between classical and quantum ML setting for achieving worst-case prediction error.