Analytic continuation via domain knowledge free machine learning

Hongkee Yoon, Jae-Hoon Sim, and Myung Joon Han*

Department of Physics, KAIST, 291 Daehak-ro, Yuseong-gu, Daejeon 34141, Republic of Korea

(Received 9 May 2018; revised manuscript received 17 October 2018; published 3 December 2018)

We present a machine-learning approach to a long-standing issue in quantum many-body physics, namely, analytic continuation. This notorious ill-conditioned problem of obtaining spectral function from an imaginary time Green's function has been a focus of new method developments for past decades. Here we demonstrate the usefulness of modern machine-learning techniques including convolutional neural networks and the variants of a stochastic gradient descent optimizer. The machine-learning continuation kernel is successfully realized without any "domain knowledge," which means that any physical "prior" is not utilized in the kernel construction and the neural networks "learn" the knowledge solely from "training." The outstanding performance is achieved for both insulating and metallic band structure. Our machine-learning-based approach not only provides the more accurate spectrum than the conventional methods in terms of peak positions and heights, but is also more robust against the noise which is the required key feature for any continuation technique to be successful. Furthermore, its computation speed is 10^4 – 10^5 times faster than the maximum entropy method.

DOI: 10.1103/PhysRevB.98.245101

I. INTRODUCTION

Matsubara Green's function method is a useful theoretical tool for quantum many-body problems. While the calculation often becomes much more tractable in the imaginary time (or equivalently, frequency) domain, working with Matsubara function inevitably introduces other theoretical difficulties. One of the most typical cases happens when one tries to obtain a spectral function (or any other measurable quantity), which is defined in real frequency space, from imaginary Green's function. This procedure is known as "analytic continuation" and poses a notorious ill-conditioned inverse problem. The severe noise sensitivity significantly undermines the predictability and the usefulness of theoretical methods such as quantum Monte Carlo (QMC). Many different approaches have been suggested to solve this problem including Padé approximation [1,2], maximum entropy (MEM) [3-6], and stochastic method [7]. All these methods are based on the physical knowledge or utilize the preunderstanding of the problem which are expressed in their own assumptions and fitting parameters. In other words, all these methods heavily rely on "domain knowledge."

The machine-learning (ML) approach is based on a different philosophy. The ML procedure is to develop a machinery which can self-learn the governing rule or the proper representation of a given problem through the massive data set "training" [8–11]. Due to the remarkable progress in both hardware and software engineering, the ML technique overwhelms the state-of-the-art human-designed algorithms in many different areas [11,12]. Recently, it has become more and more popular in physics research. ML proves its capability in many different fields ranging from materials science [13–18] and statistical physics [19–21] to quantum many-body problems [22–28] and quantum information [29–33].

*mj.han@kaist.ac.kr

In this paper, we apply modern ML techniques [34,35] to the long-standing physics problem of analytic continuation. By using convolutional neural network (CNN) [11,36] and stochastic gradient descent based optimizer (i.e., stochastic gradient descent, Adadelta, Adagrad) [37-39], we successfully construct the ML kernel which can generate the real frequency space spectral function from an imaginary Green's function. We emphasize that our method does not require any "domain knowledge," which is a distinctive feature from early-stage ML methods such as statistical learning [40]. In comparison to the conventional techniques, the ML-based algorithm demonstrates its superiority in terms of accuracy and computation speed. The spectral weights and peak positions are in better agreement, and the computation speed is $10^4 - 10^5$ faster. Further, the ML-based method is more robust against the noise which is inevitably introduced in Monte Carlo calculation, for example. Our results show that the domainknowledge free ML approach can be a promising way to solve the long-standing physics problem that has not been well understood based on the currently available techniques.

II. METHOD

A. Description of the problem

Matsubara frequency Green's function $G(i\omega_n)$ is analytically

continued to the real frequency $G(\omega)$. For a given $G(i\omega_n)$, the spectral function is $A(\omega) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \text{Im}G(\omega + i0^+)$. Note that calculating the Green's function for a given spectral function is straightforward, not ill conditioned. On the other hand, the spectral function is obtained by inverting the integral equation

$$G(i\omega_n) = \int d\omega \frac{A(\omega)}{i\omega_n - \omega} \tag{1}$$

$$= \int d\omega \, \mathbf{K}(i\omega_n, \omega) A(\omega), \qquad (2)$$

where the kernel $\mathbf{K}(i\omega_n, \omega)$ has different forms for different problems. This continuation process is an ill-posed problem, and the direct minimizing $\chi^2 = \sum_{i\omega_n}^{N_{\text{freq}}} ||G - \mathbf{K}A||^2$ is hardly feasible due to the high condition number. The key question is how to deal with intrinsic noises.

B. Description of the machine learning

Here we note that many techniques to handle these kinds of ill-posed problems have been actively developed in the ML field of research for more than the past two decades [41–43]. The early stage ML was basically rule based, and many details of the problem representation were implemented through handcrafted algorithms. On the other hand, the modern ML algorithms automatically capture the representations via training, which is often called "self-learning" [8,11]. Since any human knowledge is not directly implemented in the kernel construction, this type of approach is called domain-knowledgefree ML. In this modern approach, crucially required are the efficient data representation in high-dimensional space and the practical algorithm to optimize massive variables in deep neural networks. In spite of the challenging features of the problems, modern ML has dramatically surpassed the other state-of-the-art technologies in many areas such as image recognition [36,44–47], speech recognition [48–50], language processing [51], and translation [52–54].

In the current study, we adopted "fully connected layer (FCL)" and CNN [11,25,36,44], and try to perform analytic continuation within high-dimensional space. The CNN is one of the main players in the high-dimensional data processing for images [11,44,46,55–57] and sound/video data [11,58–60]. We investigated both FCL only and FCL+CNN ML for the analytic continuation problem without using domain knowledge. As a modern domain-knowledge-free ML technique, our approach is well distinguished from the conventional rule-based regression methods [40]. It is noted that our neural networks self-learn the "rule" or "knowledge" from the massive training with well prepared extensive data sets.

C. Training

In order to systematically check the input noise dependence, we considered several different sets of random noise inputs and examined the output spectra. The Gaussian random noise $N(iw_n)$ is used for our main presentation with the noise strength σ (width of Gaussian distribution) varied from 0 to 0.01. The noised input is then defined as $G(i\omega_n)_{noise}^{in} = G(i\omega_n) + N(i\omega_n)$. We also considered the other types of noise character. In particular, the frequency-dependent $\lambda(i\omega_n)$ has been carefully investigated since it is often the case of QMC-DMFT (dynamical mean-field theory) calculations. We also considered the uniformly distributed random noise. We found that the results of the uniform noise $(N(iw_n) \in$ [-0.05, 0.05]) are comparable with Gaussian noise $\sigma = 0.01$. While we mainly present the Gaussian random noise, any part of our conclusion is not changed by this choice of noise type.

We constructed the ML-based analytic continuation kernel by using a widely adopted open-source deep-learning framework, namely, "*keras*" [61] with "*tensorflow*" [62] backend. For the continuation problem, the training process is straightforward since the calculation of $G(i\omega_n)$ from a given $A(\omega)$ is not ill conditioned. Our training sets consist of \sim 106000 different combinations of peak numbers, heights, and positions. We generated 18 000 different training data sets for single-peak spectra, 18 000 for double-peak, 20 000 for triple, and 10 000 for each of 4-8 peak spectra. For each set of peak numbers the position, height, and width of the peak are randomly generated in the range of [-10, 10], [0.2, 1.0], and [0.3, 1.2], respectively. It is straightforward to extend the number of training sets to an arbitrary number. The validation set consists of 10 000 different types of peaks with different random sequences. For all cases, the normalization condition of $\int A(w)dw = 1$ was imposed. It should be noted that, while this particular physical knowledge of normalization is implemented in the training sets, our neural networks are constructed as "domain knowledge free" and the kernel should learn the knowledge from the training.

For training, we used "Adadelta" [37] optimizer. We found that "stochastic gradient descent (SGD)" and even "RM-Sprop" [63] optimizer quite often suffer from the "gradient vanishing problem"; i.e., all variables of a neural net are quickly set to zero. On the other hand, the recently developed adaptive stochastic variant optimizers (such as "Adadelta," "Adagrad" [39], "Adam" [38], and "Adamax" [38]) produce the reliable results. We eventually chose "Adadelta" as it clearly exhibits the best performance. For the activation function, we chose a combination of rectified linear unit (ReLU) [11,64,65] and scaled exponential linear unit (SeLU) [66]. It is found that ~8000 epochs are mostly enough for neural network training which corresponds to 16 h (~7 s/epoch) at the single desktop PC level (we used one Nvidia 1080 GTX card).

III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

A. Fully connected layers

As the first step toward ML-based analytic continuation, we consider the neural network composed of FCLs which may be regarded as an early-stage ML approach [67–69]. Roughly, the use of single FCL can be regarded as one multiplication process of an inversion matrix to the input Green's function [70]. Having more FCLs thus corresponds to the increased number of matrix multiplications to represent the inversion. Practically it is not expected to achieve a notable improvement just by increasing the number of hidden layers [41,57,71,72]. After testing many different numbers of hidden layer sets, we indeed found that the performance is not much enhanced. Thus, in the below, we focus on the results of three layers (Fig. 1).

Figure 2 presents the result of analytic continuation by using FCLs neural network. The black line in Fig. 2(c) is the spectrum from which imaginary Green's functions of Figs. 2(a) and 2(b) (blue lines) are generated. Therefore, if the continuation procedure is perfect, the continued spectrum should be identical with the black line in Fig. 2(c). Note that the process of obtaining $G(i\omega_n)$ from $A(\omega)$ is not ill conditioned. Once $G(i\omega_n)$ is calculated, one can perform the continuation and compare the result of $A(\omega)$ with the original one, namely the ideal spectrum.



FIG. 1. FCL neural network. An illustration of our neural network architecture which consists only of FCLs. The input $G(i\omega_n)$ is an array of complex numbers. Re[$G(i\omega_n)$] and Im[$G(i\omega_n)$] are arranged as a 1D array to be inserted into the neural-net input. The dropout layers are located in between all the FCLs to reduce the overfitting of neural networks (not shown). The green box represents the output layer of $A(\omega)$. The blue neural network lines are the schematic representation of activated connections.

The FCL continuation results are shown in Fig. 2(c). The blue-solid and purple-dashed line corresponds to $\sigma = 0$ and $\sigma = 0.005$, respectively. It is clearly noted that the continued spectra are not smooth and significantly deformed in comparison to the ideal black line. This result demonstrates the challenging nature of the problem. At the same time, however, we also note that the overall shape of spectrum is captured by our FCL neural network although the unexpected wriggles are found, and they become worse as the noise level increases. We emphasize that this level of performance is hardly achievable through the direct matrix inversion of Eq. (2). This promising aspect is largely attributed to the "dropout" and the regularization procedure which prevent overfittings [73]. In this regard, while not satisfactory at all, our FCL result shows a possibility of neural network approach for the analytic continuation.

B. Convolutional neural network

Many techniques have been suggested to overcome the deficiency of FCL. One key idea is to identify the essential features of a problem and to reconstruct them in a higher dimensional space [35,43]. Principal component analysis (PCA) [74,75] is an example which proved to be powerful for data compression and dimensionality reduction. Unfortunately, however, PCA can only be used in rank 1 (vector) and rank 2 (matrix) for most of the cases. While some



FIG. 2. Analytic continuation result of FCL. The input Green's functions and the output spectra calculated by the FCL neural network kernel (without CNN layer). (a), (b) $\text{Re}[G(i\omega_n)]$ and $\text{Im}[G(i\omega_n)]$ are presented in (a) and (b), respectively. The blue curves are generated from the ideal spectrum shown by the black line in (c). The purple lines show the noised input $G(i\omega_n)^{\text{inoise}}_{\text{noise}}$ with $\sigma = 0.005$ (see the main text for more details). (c) The calculated spectral functions are presented by blue-solid ($\sigma = 0$; noise-free) and purple-dashed curve ($\sigma = 0.005$) in comparison to the ideal spectrum (black-solid line).

techniques for tensor PCA have been proposed, they seem to need further developments [76–79]. A typical fundamental limitation of PCA is that each principal component is given by a linear combination of original variables, whereas nonlinearity is essential for ill-posed problems [80]. In this regard, CNN is a useful advanced technique leading the modern machine-learning era [11,44,46,55–57]. The performance of CNN image processing surpasses the human-designed algorithms based on "domain knowledge" [44,55]. Due to its outstanding feature selection in tensor space, CNN is widely adopted by high-dimensional noise filters for autoencoder and sound/video data [58–60].

In analytic continuation, input/output data are represented by a certain set of numbers. Thus it can be regarded as an inverse problem that has to be performed within a dimension corresponding to those numbers. With this observation, we applied CNN technique to the long-standing ill-posed problem of analytic continuation. Figure 3 shows our neural network structure. We aim to create a minimal model with the smallest possible number of layers. Thus our neural network is designed to contain CNN layers in between two FCLs since we learned in the above that three FCLs could capture the basic features of spectra. While it is conventional to have CNN layers just next to the input layer in the image processing (e.g., AlexNet [44], VGG [56], GoogleNet [46], and ResNet [57]), we take a different strategy of inserting the CNN layer after the matrix operation through FCL. It is because the full information of input Green's function needs to be utilized in our problem. The total number of parameters in our neural network is $\sim 600\,000$ and $\sim 500\,000$ for including and excluding CNN, respectively. It is noted that the network size is not much increased by having CNN layers. We have adopted a



FIG. 3. CNN neural network. An illustration of the neural network architecture which consists of both FCLs and CNN. Two convolution layers (blue and red squares) and one pooling layer (green squares) are placed in between the FCLs. Colored neural network lines are the schematic representations of activated connections.

modern optimization algorithm, namely "*Adadelta*" [37], to optimize this large number of neural network parameters.

Figure 4 shows the continuation result of using CNN. The model spectrum [black line in Fig. 4(c)] is designed to mimic a Mott-Hubbard insulator consisting of two distinct Hubbard bands with different peak heights. The outstanding performance of CNN can clearly be seen from the fact that the continuation results are significantly improved in comparison to the FCL-only data in Fig. 2. The overall shape, peak positions, and relative peak heights are well reproduced without any



FIG. 4. Analytic continuation result of CNN. (a), (b) Re[$G(i\omega_n)$] and Im[$G(i\omega_n)$] are presented in (a) and (b), respectively. The lightblue curves are generated from the ideal spectrum shown by the black line in (c). Five different noise levels are presented in light-blue ($\sigma = 0$), magenta ($\sigma = 0.003$), purple ($\sigma = 0.005$), and red lines ($\sigma = 0.01$). (c) Analytic continuation result of CNN-ML kernel for $\sigma = 0$ (noise-free; light-blue-solid), $\sigma = 0.003$ (magenta-dashed), $\sigma = 0.005$ (purple-dashed), and $\sigma = 0.01$ (red-dashed) along with the ideal spectrum (black-solid line).



FIG. 5. Analytic continuation result of MEM. (a), (b) Input Green's function of Re[$G(i\omega_n)$] and Im[$G(i\omega_n)$] are presented in (a) and (b), respectively. The light blue curves are generated from the ideal spectrum shown by the black line in (c). Four different noise levels are presented in light-blue ($\sigma = 0$), light-pink ($\sigma = 0.001$), magenta ($\sigma = 0.003$), and purple lines ($\sigma = 0.005$). (c) Analytic continuation result of conventional MEM for $\sigma = 0$ (noise-free; light-blue-solid), $\sigma = 0.001$ (light-pink-dashed), $\sigma = 0.003$ (magenta-dashed), and $\sigma = 0.005$ (purple-dashed) along with the ideal spectrum (black-solid line).

undesirable wriggle. Importantly, the reproducibility remains quite robust against the noise even if the deviation from the ideal spectrum (black) becomes noticeable as the noise level increases (from light-blue-solid lines to red-dashed lines). We also checked that the reconstructed $\tilde{G}(i\omega_n) = (\mathbf{K}A)(i\omega_n)$ is consistent with $G(i\omega_n)$ within the noise level (not shown). For example, the calculated $\tilde{\chi} = 0.0044$ for the case of $\sigma =$ 0.003, where $\tilde{\chi} \equiv (\chi^2/N_{\text{freq}})^{-1/2}$.

The robustness against the input noise is a crucially required feature for the reliable analytic continuation since the noise is unavoidably present in stochastic approaches. As shown in Fig. 4(c), the overall features and the detailed shapes of the spectrum are well maintained even for the case of significant noise levels. This result shows the powerfulness of the ML-based analytic continuation kernel.

The performance of the ML kernel is further demonstrated by the comparison to the conventional continuation technique, namely MEM. The details of our MEM algorithms can be found in Refs. [4,81]. Figure 5 shows the result of MEM which is one of the most widely used methods for analytic continuation [3–6]. It is clearly noted that, even at a significantly lower noise level, the MEM result is markedly deviated from the ideal spectrum in terms of peak position and height. It is in a sharp contrast to the ML-based result of Fig. 4 in which the spectrum is well preserved even at $\sigma = 0.01$.

Figure 6 shows the result of the ML kernel for metallic spectrum having coherent as well as incoherent peaks. Once again, our machine-learning kernel well reproduces the original spectrum. The robustness against noise is also excellent as in the insulating case. In particular, the coherent peak is considerably well reproduced, while the incoherent states are



FIG. 6. Analytic continuation result of CNN for metallic spectrum. (a), (b) Input Green's function of Re[$G(i\omega_n)$] and Im[$G(i\omega_n)$] are presented in (a) and (b), respectively. The light-blue curves are generated from the ideal spectrum shown by the black line in (c). Five different noise levels are presented in light-blue ($\sigma = 0$), magenta ($\sigma = 0.003$), purple ($\sigma = 0.005$), and red lines ($\sigma = 0.01$). (c) Analytic continuation result of CNN-ML kernel for $\sigma = 0$ (noise-free; light-blue-solid), $\sigma = 0.003$ (magenta-dashed), $\sigma = 0.005$ (purple-dashed), and $\sigma = 0.01$ (red-dashed) along with the ideal spectrum (black-solid line).

moderately affected by the noises. It is a good indication for predicting the phase from a given Green's function.

As the last example, we present the results of a real material, namely $SrVO_3$ monolayer. While the bulk $SrVO_3$ is a correlated metal, it becomes an insulator in the monolayer limit [82,83]. The Green's function is obtained from DFT+DMFT calculation [84,85] combined with the hybridization expansion continuous-time quantum Monte Carlo algorithm [86–89]. The spectra obtained by our ML kernel is reasonably well compared with those of MEM; see Fig. 7. While the peak widths are slightly narrower in MEM, it should be noted that the direct use of MEM for the Green's function tends to broaden the spectra [90].

Of particular interest is the performance of our ML continuation kernel for the cases that were not included in the training sets. Although the systematic investigation of the training-set dependence is not the main interest of the current study, we obtained some meaningful results. In terms of peak numbers, the quality of continuation gets gradually worse as the number of peaks goes out of the training range. However, its performance is still quite decent (we tried up to the 25peak case) and at least comparable with that of MEM. A similar feature is found for the peak width. For the peak of width=0.1 and 0.2, the ML kernel produces the spectrum whose width is 0.22 and 0.24, respectively. Considering that the conventional continuation techniques suffer from the same



FIG. 7. Calculated DFT+DMFT spectral function of monolayer SrVO₃ by (a) CNN and (b) MEM. The magenta and blue colors refer to the d_{xy} and $d_{yz,xz}$ orbital character, respectively. Comparison between ML and MEM results for DFT+DMFT spectral function of the SrVO₃ monolayer. The input Green's function is obtained from DFT+DMFT with CT-QMC solver. Analytic continuation for the spectral function was performed using (a) ML-CNN and (b) MEM.

problems in describing sharp peaks, we concluded that the ML exhibits reasonably good performance. Finally, we emphasize the efficiency of ML-based analytic continuation. Once the ML kernel is well trained, the continuation process can be performed at a speed of $\sim 10\,000$ Green's functions/s, which is at least $10^4 - 10^5$ faster than the conventional MEM.

IV. CONCLUSION

Modern ML technique proves its usefulness for a longstanding physics problem of analytic continuation. Its superiority over the conventional technique is demonstrated in terms of the accuracy, speed, and the robustness against noise. For both insulating and metallic spectrum, our CNNbased ML kernel gives the better agreement with the ideal spectrum in terms of peak position and height. Up to the high level of random noises, at which MEM fails to produce reliable results, the ML technique retains its accuracy. In terms of computation speed, the trained kernel is 10^4 – 10^5 times faster than the conventional method. Our result suggests that "domain-knowledge" free ML can be used as an alternative tool for the physics problems where the conventional methods have been struggling. We also note the possibility of certain types of hybrid methods in which a part of physics intuitions would be combined with the ML approach.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by Basic Science Research Program through the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF) funded by the Ministry of Education (Grant No. 2018R1A2B2005204) and Creative Materials Discovery Program through the NRF funded by Ministry of Science and ICT (Grant No. 2018M3D1A1059001).

- H. J. Vidberg and J. W. Serene, J. Low. Temp. Phys. 29, 179 (1977).
- [2] O. Gunnarsson, M. W. Haverkort, and G. Sangiovanni, Phys. Rev. B 81, 155107 (2010).

- [3] K. Haule, C.-H. Yee, and K. Kim, Phys. Rev. B 81, 195107 (2010).
- [4] D. Bergeron and A.-M. S. Tremblay, Phys. Rev. E 94, 023303 (2016).
- [5] M. Jarrell and J. E. Gubernatis, Phys. Rep. 269, 133 (1996).
- [6] O. Gunnarsson, M. W. Haverkort, and G. Sangiovanni Phys. Rev. B 82, 165125 (2010).
- [7] A. W. Sandvik, Phys. Rev. B 57, 10287 (1998).
- [8] S. Rifai, Y. N. Dauphin, P. Vincent, Y. Bengio, and X. Muller, in Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, Vol. 24 (NIPS, 2011), pp. 2294–2302.
- [9] I. Goodfellow, Y. Bengio, and A. Courville, *Deep Learning* (MIT Press, Cambridge, MA, 2016).
- [10] F. Zhu, L. Shao, J. Xie, and Y. Fang, Image Vision Comput. 55, 42 (2016).
- [11] Y. LeCun, Y. Bengio, and G. Hinton, Nature (London) 521, 436 (2015).
- [12] D. Silver, A. Huang, C. J. Maddison, A. Guez, L. Sifre, G. van den Driessche, J. Schrittwieser, I. Antonoglou, V. Panneershelvam, M. Lanctot, S. Dieleman, D. Grewe, J. Nham, N. Kalchbrenner, I. Sutskever, T. Lillicrap, M. Leach, K. Kavukcuoglu, T. Graepel, and D. Hassabis, Nature (London) 529, 484 (2016).
- [13] J. Behler and M. Parrinello, Phys. Rev. Lett. 98, 146401 (2007).
- [14] F. A. Faber, A. Lindmaa, O. A. von Lilienfeld, and R. Armiento, Phys. Rev. Lett. **117**, 135502 (2016).
- [15] A. Seko, H. Hayashi, K. Nakayama, A. Takahashi, and I. Tanaka, Phys. Rev. B 95, 144110 (2017).
- [16] B. Kolb, L. C. Lentz, and A. M. Kolpak, Sci. Rep. 7, 1192 (2017).
- [17] J. Behler, J. Chem. Phys. 145, 170901 (2016).
- [18] N. Artrith, A. Urban, and G. Ceder, Phys. Rev. B 96, 014112 (2017).
- [19] G. Torlai and R. G. Melko, Phys. Rev. B 94, 165134 (2016).
- [20] L. Huang and L. Wang, Phys. Rev. B 95, 035105 (2017).
- [21] J. Carrasquilla and R. G. Melko, Nat. Phys. 13, 431 (2017).
- [22] L.-F. Arsenault, A. Lopez-Bezanilla, O. A. von Lilienfeld, and A. J. Millis, Phys. Rev. B 90, 155136 (2014).
- [23] L. Li, T. E. Baker, S. R. White, and K. Burke, Phys. Rev. B 94, 245129 (2016).
- [24] L. Wang, Phys. Rev. B 94, 195105 (2016).
- [25] G. Carleo and M. Troyer, Science 355, 602 (2017).
- [26] K. Ch'ng, J. Carrasquilla, R. G. Melko, and E. Khatami, Phys. Rev. X 7, 031038 (2017).
- [27] J. Wang, S. Paesani, R. Santagati, S. Knauer, A. A. Gentile, N. Wiebe, M. Petruzzella, J. L. O'Brien, J. G. Rarity, A. Laing, and M. G. Thompson, Nat. Phys. 13, 551 (2017).
- [28] Y. Zhang and E.-A. Kim, Phys. Rev. Lett. **118**, 216401 (2017).
- [29] X.-D. Cai, D. Wu, Z.-E. Su, M.-C. Chen, X.-L. Wang, L. Li, N.-L. Liu, C.-Y. Lu, and J.-W. Pan, Phys. Rev. Lett. 114, 110504 (2015).
- [30] V. Dunjko, J. M. Taylor, and H. J. Briegel, Phys. Rev. Lett. 117, 130501 (2016).
- [31] H.-K. Lau, R. Pooser, G. Siopsis, and C. Weedbrook, Phys. Rev. Lett. 118, 080501 (2017).
- [32] G. Torlai and R. G. Melko, Phys. Rev. Lett. 119, 030501 (2017).
- [33] J. Tubiana and R. Monasson, Phys. Rev. Lett. 118, 138301 (2017).

- [34] Y. Bengio, P. Lamblin, D. Popovici, and H. Larochelle, in Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, Vol. 19 (NIPS, 2007), pp. 153–160.
- [35] G. Montúfar, R. Pascanu, K. Cho, and Y. Bengio, in Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, Vol. 27 (NIPS, 2014), pp. 2924–2932.
- [36] N. Kalchbrenner, E. Grefenstette, and P. Blunsom, in *Proceedings of the 52nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, Vol. 1 (Association for Computational Linguistics, 2014), pp. 655–665.
- [37] M. D. Zeiler, arXiv:1212.5701 [cs].
- [38] D. P. Kingma and J. Ba, arXiv:1412.6980 [cs].
- [39] J. Duchi, E. Hazan, and Y. Singer, J. Mach. Learn. Res. 12, 2121 (2011).
- [40] L.-F. Arsenault, R. Neuberg, L. A. Hannah, and A. J. Millis, Inverse Probl. 33, 115007 (2017).
- [41] Y. Lecun, L. Bottou, Y. Bengio, and P. Haffner, Proc. IEEE 86, 2278 (1998).
- [42] V. N. Vapnik, IEEE Trans. Neural Netw. 10, 988 (1999).
- [43] G. Pillonetto, F. Dinuzzo, T. Chen, G. De Nicolao, and L. Ljung, Automatica 50, 657 (2014).
- [44] A. Krizhevsky, I. Sutskever, and G. E. Hinton, in Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, Vol. 25 (NIPS, 2012), pp. 1097–1105.
- [45] C. Farabet, C. Couprie, L. Najman, and Y. LeCun, IEEE Trans. Pattern Anal. Mach. Intell. 35, 1915 (2013).
- [46] C. Szegedy, W. Liu, Y. Jia, P. Sermanet, S. Reed, D. Anguelov, D. Erhan, V. Vanhoucke, and A. Rabinovich, in 2015 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR) (IEEE, 2015), pp. 1–9.
- [47] J. J. Tompson, A. Jain, Y. LeCun, and C. Bregler, in Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, Vol. 27 (NIPS, 2014), pp. 1799–1807.
- [48] T. Mikolov, A. Deoras, D. Povey, L. Burget, and J. Černocký, in 2011 IEEE Workshop on Automatic Speech Recognition Understanding (IEEE, 2011), pp. 196–201.
- [49] G. Hinton, L. Deng, D. Yu, G. E. Dahl, A. Mohamed, N. Jaitly, A. Senior, V. Vanhoucke, P. Nguyen, T. N. Sainath, and B. Kingsbury, IEEE Signal Process. Mag. 29, 82 (2012).
- [50] T. N. Sainath, A. Mohamed, B. Kingsbury, and B. Ramabhadran, in 2013 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (IEEE, 2013), pp. 8614–8618.
- [51] R. Collobert, J. Weston, L. Bottou, M. Karlen, K. Kavukcuoglu, and P. Kuksa, J. Mach. Learn. Res. 12, 2493 (2011).
- [52] K. Cho, B. van Merrienboer, C. Gulcehre, D. Bahdanau, F. Bougares, H. Schwenk, and Y. Bengio, in *Proceedings of the* 2014 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP) (Association for Computational Linguistics, 2014), pp. 1724–1734.
- [53] S. Jean, K. Cho, R. Memisevic, and Y. Bengio, arXiv:1412.2007 [cs].
- [54] I. Sutskever, O. Vinyals, and Q. V. V. Le, in Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, Vol. 27 (NIPS, 2014), pp. 3104–3112.
- [55] D. C. Ciresan, U. Meier, L. M. Gambardella, and J. Schmidhuber, in 2011 International Conference on Document Analysis and Recognition (IEEE, 2011), pp. 1135–1139.
- [56] K. Simonyan and A. Zisserman, arXiv:1409.1556 [cs].

- [57] K. He, X. Zhang, S. Ren, and J. Sun, in 2016 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR) (IEEE, 2016), pp. 770–778.
- [58] J. Masci, U. Meier, D. Cireşan, and J. Schmidhuber, in Artificial Neural Networks and Machine Learning ICANN 2011, Lecture Notes in Computer Science (Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2011), pp. 52–59.
- [59] C. Donahue, J. McAuley, and M. Puckette, arXiv:1802.04208 [cs].
- [60] A. Karpathy, G. Toderici, S. Shetty, T. Leung, R. Sukthankar, and L. Fei-Fei, in *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition* (IEEE, 2014), pp. 1725–1732.
- [61] F. Chollet *et al.*, Keras, https://github.com/keras-team/keras (2015).
- [62] M. Abadi, A. Agarwal, P. Barham, E. Brevdo, Z. Chen, C. Citro, G. S. Corrado, A. Davis, J. Dean, M. Devin, S. Ghemawat, I. Goodfellow, A. Harp, G. Irving, M. Isard, R. Jozefowicz, Y. Jia, L. Kaiser, M. Kudlur, J. Levenberg, D. Mané, M. Schuster, R. Monga, S. Moore, D. Murray, C. Olah, J. Shlens, B. Steiner, I. Sutskever, K. Talwar, P. Tucker, V. Vanhoucke, V. Vasudevan, F. Viégas, O. Vinyals, P. Warden, M. Wattenberg, M. Wicke, Y. Yu, and X. Zheng, TensorFlow: Large-scale machine learning on heterogeneous systems, (2015), Software available from tensorflow.org.
- [63] T. Tieleman and G. Hinton, COURSERA Neural Netw. Mach. Learn. 4, 26 (2012).
- [64] R. H. Hahnloser, R. Sarpeshkar, M. A. Mahowald, R. J. Douglas, and H. S. Seung, Nature (London) 405, 947 (2000).
- [65] P. Ramachandran, B. Zoph, and Q. V. Le, arXiv:1710.05941 [cs].
- [66] G. Klambauer, T. Unterthiner, A. Mayr, and S. Hochreiter, Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 30, 971 (2017).
- [67] M. Frean, Neural Comput. 2, 198 (1990).
- [68] W. T. Miller, R. P. Hewes, F. H. Glanz, and L. G. Kraft, IEEE Trans. Robot. Autom. 6, 1 (1990).
- [69] B. D. Ripley, J. R. Stat. Soc. Ser. B Methodol. 56, 409 (1994).
- [70] S.-Y. Kung, Advances in Multimedia Information Processing
 PCM 2009, Lecture Notes in Computer Science (Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2009), pp. 1–32.
- [71] H. Mühlenbein, Parallel Comput. 14, 249 (1990).
- [72] J. Dean, G. Corrado, R. Monga, K. Chen, M. Devin, M. Mao, M. Ranzato, A. Senior, P. Tucker, K. Yang, Q. V. Le, and A.

Y. Ng, in Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, Vol. 25 (NIPS, 2012), pp. 1223–1231.

- [73] N. Srivastava, G. Hinton, A. Krizhevsky, I. Sutskever, and R. Salakhutdinov, J. Mach. Learn. Res. 15, 1929 (2014).
- [74] J. Shlens, arXiv:1404.1100 [cs, stat].
- [75] P. Hall and M. Hosseini-Nasab, J. R. Stat. Soc. Ser. B Stat. Methodol. 68, 109 (2006).
- [76] E. Richard and A. Montanari, in Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, Vol. 27 (NIPS, 2014), pp. 2897–2905.
- [77] K. Inoue, in Applied Matrix and Tensor Variate Data Analysis, edited by T. Sakata (Springer Japan, Tokyo, 2016), pp. 51–71.
- [78] A. Zhang and D. Xia, IEEE Trans. Inf. Theory 64, 7311 (2018).
- [79] H. Li, Z. Lin, X. Shen, J. Brandt, and G. Hua, in *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition* (IEEE, 2015), pp. 5325–5334.
- [80] C. Archambeau and F. R. Bach, in Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, Vol. 21 (NIPS, 2009), pp. 73–80.
- [81] J.-H. Sim and M. J. Han, Phys. Rev. B 98, 205102 (2018).
- [82] K. Yoshimatsu, T. Okabe, H. Kumigashira, S. Okamoto, S. Aizaki, A. Fujimori, and M. Oshima, Phys. Rev. Lett. 104, 147601 (2010).
- [83] M. Schüler, O. E. Peil, G. J. Kraberger, R. Pordzik, M. Marsman, G. Kresse, T. O. Wehling, and M. Aichhorn, J. Phys.: Condens. Matter 30, 475901 (2018).
- [84] A. I. Lichtenstein and M. I. Katsnelson, Phys. Rev. B 57, 6884 (1998).
- [85] A. Georges and G. Kotliar, Phys. Rev. B 45, 6479 (1992).
- [86] P. Werner, A. Comanac, L. de' Medici, M. Troyer, and A. J. Millis, Phys. Rev. Lett. 97, 076405 (2006).
- [87] P. Werner and A. J. Millis, Phys. Rev. B 74, 155107 (2006).
- [88] K. Haule, Phys. Rev. B 75, 155113 (2007).
- [89] The optimized lattice structure of Ref. [83] was used for DFT+DMFT calculation and we adopted $15 \times 15 \times 1k$ points. Atomic V- t_{2g} orbitals are constructed from maximally localized Wannier functions [91,92,93]. The Slater-Kanamori interaction parameters are U = 5.5 eV and $J_H = 0.75$ eV [83,94].
- [90] X. Wang, E. Gull, L. de' Medici, M. Capone, and A. J. Millis, Phys. Rev. B 80, 045101 (2009).
- [91] N. Marzari and D. Vanderbilt, Phys Rev B 56, 12847 (1997).
- [92] I. Souza, N. Marzari, and D. Vanderbilt, Phys Rev B 65, 035109 (2001).
- [93] http://www.openmx-square.org.
- [94] S. Bhandary, E. Assmann, M. Aichhorn, and K. Held Phys. Rev. B 94, 155131 (2016).