

Phase Transitions in Quantum Pattern Recognition

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With the help of quantum mechanics one can formulate a model of associative memory with optimal storage capacity. This model is generalized by introducing a parameter playing the role of an effective temperature. The corresponding thermodynamics provides criteria to tune the efficiency of quantum pattern recognition. It is shown that the associative memory undergoes a phase transition from a disordered, high-temperature phase with no correlation between input and output to an ordered, low-temperature phase with minimal input-output Hamming distance.

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The power of quantum computation [1] is mostly associated with the speedup in computing time it can provide with respect to its classical counterpart. Recently, however, I showed [2] that this new paradigm of information processing opens the possibility for another improvement upon classical computation, represented by associative memories with exponential, and thus optimal, storage capacity. Subsequent further studies [3] are turning quantum pattern recognition into a completely new application of quantum information theory.

In traditional computers the storage of information is address oriented. Retrieval of information requires a precise knowledge of the memory address and, therefore, incomplete or noisy inputs are not permitted. In order to address this shortcoming, models of associative (or content-addressable) memories [4] were introduced. Here, recall of information is possible on the basis of partial knowledge of their content, without knowing the storage location. The best known examples are the Hopfield model and its generalizations [5].

While these models solve the problem of recalling incomplete or noisy inputs, they suffer from a severe capacity shortage. Because of the phenomenon of crosstalk, which is essentially a manifestation of the spin glass transition [6] in the corresponding spin system, the maximum number of binary patterns that can be stored in a Hopfield network of n neurons is linear in the number of neurons, $p_{\max} = O(n)$ [4].

The probabilistic associative quantum memory proposed in [2] solves both problems. It is content addressable and can thus recognize corrupted or incomplete inputs and it can store 2^n binary patterns on n qubits. Contrary to its classical counterpart, which matches any input onto a stored pattern, the quantum associative memory is characterized by both a recognition process and an identification process. An input pattern can be rejected as nonrecognized even before an identification is attempted. For its simplest version, described in [2], the identification efficiency cannot be tuned; only the recognition efficiency can be influenced.

In this Letter I propose a generalization of my previous model with a new parameter t playing the role of an effective temperature, which can be tuned by adding a number $b = \lceil 1/t \rceil_{\text{integer}}$ of certain control qubits. A proper thermodynamics corresponding to this parameter t can be defined. In particular, the free energy $F(t)$ describes the average behavior of the recognition mechanism at temperature t and provides criteria to tune the efficiency of the associative memory. I show that, by increasing b (lowering t), the associative memory undergoes a phase transition from a disordered phase with no correlation between input and output to an ordered phase with minimal Hamming distance between the input and the output. This extends to quantum information theory the relation with Ising spin systems known in error-correcting codes and in public key cryptography [7].

The memory model proposed in [2] consists of three registers: one for the input, one for the memory $|m\rangle$ proper, and one for a control qubit $|c\rangle$. The memory $|m\rangle$ consists of a coherent superposition of the p binary patterns $|p^i\rangle$ on n entangled qubits:

$$|m\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sum_{k=1}^p |p^k\rangle. \quad (1)$$

I do not discuss here the algorithm for generating this superposition starting from the p individual patterns, since it is described in detail in [2]. Also, the usual error-correcting infrastructure [1] is assumed in order to protect the memory from decoherence.

The information retrieval algorithm entails repeating a set of operations and measurements of the control qubit $|c\rangle$ until this is found in state $|0\rangle$ or a threshold T of repetitions is reached. When $|c\rangle = |0\rangle$ is measured one can proceed to a measurement of the memory register that yields the output; if T is reached before obtaining $|c\rangle = |0\rangle$ the input is classified as “nonrecognized.”

I propose here to generalize this device by increasing to b the number of control qubits and repeating sequentially all operations for each of them before measuring the control register. The full initial quantum state is thus

$$|\psi_0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sum_{k=1}^p |i; p^k; 0_1, \dots, 0_b\rangle, \quad (2)$$

where $|i\rangle = |i_1, \dots, i_n\rangle$ denotes the input qbits, the second register, m , contains the memory (1) and all b control qbits are in state $|0\rangle$. Applying the Hadamard gate [1] $H = (\sigma_1 + \sigma_3)/\sqrt{2}$ (σ_i being the Pauli matrices) to the first control qbit, one obtains

$$|\psi_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2p}} \sum_{k=1}^p |i; p^k; 0_1, \dots, 0_b\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2p}} \sum_{k=1}^p |i; p^k; 1_1, \dots, 0_b\rangle. \quad (3)$$

I now apply to this state the following combination of quantum gates:

$$|\psi_2\rangle = \prod_{j=1}^n \text{NOT}_{m_j} \text{XOR}_{i_j m_j} |\psi_1\rangle, \quad (4)$$

where the single-qbit gate NOT is represented by the first Pauli matrix σ_1 , while the two-qbit exclusive OR (XOR) has the matrix representation $\text{XOR} = \text{diag}(1, \sigma_1)$ and performs thus a NOT on the second qbit if and only if the first one is in state $|1\rangle$. Subscripts indicate the qbits on which these gates are applied, m denoting the memory register.

As a result of the above operation the memory register qbits are in state $|1\rangle$ if i_j and p_j^k are identical and $|0\rangle$ otherwise:

$$|\psi_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2p}} \sum_{k=1}^p |i; d^k; 0_1, \dots, 0_b\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2p}} \sum_{k=1}^p |i; d^k; 1_1, \dots, 0_b\rangle, \quad (5)$$

where $d_j^k = 1$ if and only if $i_j = p_j^k$ and $d_j^k = 0$ otherwise.

Consider now the following Hamiltonian:

$$\mathcal{H} = (d_H)_m \otimes (\sigma_3)_{c_1}, \quad (d_H)_m = \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\frac{\sigma_3 + 1}{2} \right)_{m_j}, \quad (6)$$

where σ_3 is the third Pauli matrix. \mathcal{H} measures the number of 0's in register m , with a plus sign if c_1 is in state $|0\rangle$ and a minus sign if c_1 is in state $|1\rangle$. Given how I have prepared the state $|\psi_2\rangle$, this is nothing else than the number of qbits which are different in the input and memory registers i and m . This quantity is called the *Hamming distance* and represents the (squared) Euclidean distance between two binary patterns.

Every term in the superposition (5) is an eigenstate of \mathcal{H} with a different eigenvalue. Applying thus the unitary operator $\exp(i\pi\mathcal{H}/2n)$ to $|\psi_2\rangle$ one obtains

$$|\psi_3\rangle = e^{i(\pi/2n)\mathcal{H}} |\psi_2\rangle,$$

$$|\psi_3\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2p}} \sum_{k=1}^p e^{i(\pi/2n)d_H(i, p^k)} |i; d^k; 0_1, \dots, 0_b\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2p}} \sum_{k=1}^p e^{-i(\pi/2n)d_H(i, p^k)} |i; d^k; 1_1, \dots, 0_b\rangle, \quad (7)$$

where $d_H(i, p^k)$ denotes the Hamming distance between the input i and the stored pattern p^k .

In the final step I restore the memory gate to the state $|m\rangle$ by applying the inverse transformation to Eq. (4) and I apply the Hadamard gate to the control qbit c_1 , thereby obtaining

$$|\psi_4\rangle = H_{c_1} \prod_{j=n}^1 \text{XOR}_{i_j m_j} \text{NOT}_{m_j} |\psi_3\rangle, \quad |\psi_4\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sum_{k=1}^p \cos \frac{\pi}{2n} d_H(i, p^k) |i; p^k; 0_1, \dots, 0_b\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sum_{k=1}^p \sin \frac{\pi}{2n} d_H(i, p^k) |i; p^k; 1_1, \dots, 0_b\rangle. \quad (8)$$

The idea is now to repeat the above operations sequentially for all b control qbits c_1 to c_b . This gives

$$|\psi_{\text{fin}}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sum_{k=1}^p \sum_{l=0}^b \cos^{b-l} \left(\frac{\pi}{2n} d_H(i, p^k) \right) \times \sin^l \left(\frac{\pi}{2n} d_H(i, p^k) \right) \sum_{\{J^l\}} |i; p^k; J^l\rangle, \quad (9)$$

where $\{J^l\}$ denotes the set of all binary numbers of b bits with exactly l bits 1 and $(b-l)$ bits 0. This concludes the deterministic part of the information retrieval process.

At this point one needs a measurement of the control register. Note that the overall effect obtained by the deterministic operations is an overall amplitude concentration on memory states similar to the input if there is a large number of $|0\rangle$ control qbits and an amplitude concentration on states different to the input if there is a large number of $|1\rangle$ control qbits. One is thus interested in retaining the projected state after the measurement only if all control qbits are measured in state $|0\rangle$. This will generically entail repeating the deterministic part of the algorithm several times, until exactly the desired state for the control register is obtained. If the number of such repetitions exceeds a preset threshold T the input is classified as nonrecognized and the algorithm is stopped. Otherwise, once $|c_1, \dots, c_b\rangle = |0_1, \dots, 0_b\rangle$ is obtained, one proceeds to a measurement of the memory register m , which yields the output pattern of the memory.

Since the expected number of repetitions needed to measure the desired control register state is $1/P_b^{\text{rec}}$, with

$$P_b^{\text{rec}} = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{k=1}^p \cos^{2b} \left(\frac{\pi}{2n} d_H(i; p^k) \right), \quad (10)$$

the probability of measuring $|c_1, \dots, c_n\rangle = |0_1, \dots, 0_n\rangle$, the threshold T governs the *recognition efficiency* of the input patterns.

Once the input pattern i is recognized, the measurement of the memory register yields the stored pattern p^k with probability

$$P_b(p^k) = \frac{1}{Z} \cos^{2b} \left(\frac{\pi}{2n} d_H(i, p^k) \right), \quad (11)$$

$$Z = p P_b^{\text{rec}} = \sum_{k=1}^p \cos^{2b} \left(\frac{\pi}{2n} d_H(i, p^k) \right). \quad (12)$$

Clearly, this probability is peaked around those patterns which have the smallest Hamming distance to the input. The highest probability of retrieval is thus realized for that pattern which is most similar to the input.

Contrary to the simplest version of this model presented in [2], however, here there is a second tunable parameter, namely, the number b of control qubits. This new parameter b controls the *identification efficiency* of the quantum memory since, increasing b , the probability distribution $P_b(p^k)$ becomes more and more peaked on the low $d_H(i, p^k)$ states, until $\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} P_b(p^k) = \delta_{kk_{\min}}$, where k_{\min} is the index of the pattern (assumed unique for convenience) with the smallest Hamming distance to the input.

The role of the parameter b becomes familiar upon a closer examination of Eq. (11). Indeed, the quantum distribution described by this equation is equivalent to a canonical Boltzmann distribution with (dimensionless) temperature $t = 1/b$ and (dimensionless) energy levels

$$E^k = -2 \log \cos \left(\frac{\pi}{2n} d_H(i, p^k) \right), \quad (13)$$

with Z playing the role of the partition function.

The appearance of an effective thermal distribution suggests studying the average behavior of quantum associative memories via the corresponding thermodynamic potentials. Before this can be done, however, one must deal with the different distributions of stored patterns characterizing each individual memory. To this end I propose to average also over this distribution, by keeping as a tunable parameter only the minimal Hamming distance d between the input and the stored patterns. In doing so, one obtains an average description of the average memory.

As a first step it is useful to normalize the pattern representation by adding (modulo 2) to all patterns, input included, the input pattern i . This clearly preserves all Hamming distances and has the effect of normalizing the input to be the state with all qubits in state $|0\rangle$. The Hamming distance $d_H(i, p^k)$ becomes thus simply the number of qubits in pattern p^k with value $|1\rangle$. For loading factors $p/n \rightarrow 0$ in the limit $n \rightarrow \infty$, the partition function for the average memory takes then a particularly simple form:

$$Z_{\text{av}} = \frac{p}{N_\lambda} \sum_{\{\lambda\}} \sum_{j=d}^n \lambda_j \cos^{2b} \left(\frac{\pi j}{2n} \right), \quad (14)$$

where λ_j describes an unconstrained probability distribution such that $\sum_{j=d}^n \lambda_j = 1$, $\{\lambda\}$ is the set of such distributions, and N_λ is the corresponding normalization factor.

I now introduce the free energy $F(b, d)$ by the usual definition

$$Z_{\text{av}} = p e^{-bF(b,d)} = Z_{\text{av}}(b=0) e^{-bF(b,d)}, \quad (15)$$

where I have chosen a normalization such that $\exp(-bF)$ describes the deviation of the partition function from its value for $b=0$ (high effective temperature). Since Z/p , and consequently also Z_{av}/p , possess a finite, nonvanishing large- n limit, this normalization ensures that $F(b, d)$ is intensive, exactly like the energy levels (13), and scales as a constant for large n . This is the only difference with respect to the familiar situation in statistical mechanics.

The free energy describes the equilibrium of the system at effective temperature $t = 1/b$ and has the usual expression in terms of the internal energy U and the entropy S :

$$F(t, d) = U(t, d) - tS(t, d), \quad U(t, d) = \langle E \rangle_t, \quad (16)$$

$$S(t, d) = \frac{-\partial F(t, d)}{\partial t}.$$

Note that, with the normalization I have chosen in (15), the entropy S is always a negative quantity describing the deviation from its maximal value $S_{\max} = 0$ at $t = \infty$.

By inverting Eq. (13) with F substituting E one can also define an effective (relative) input/output Hamming distance \mathcal{D} at temperature t :

$$\mathcal{D}(t, d) = \frac{2}{\pi} \arccos e^{-F(t,d)/2}. \quad (17)$$

This corresponds exactly to representing the recognition probability of the average memory as

$$(P_b^{\text{rec}})_{\text{av}} = \cos^{2b} \left(\frac{\pi}{2} \mathcal{D}(b, d) \right), \quad (18)$$

which can also be taken as the primary definition of the effective Hamming distance.

The function $\mathcal{D}(b, d)$ provides a complete description of the behavior of quantum associative memories in the limit $p/n \ll 1$, which can be used to tune their performance. Indeed, suppose that one wants the memory to recognize and identify inputs with up to ϵn corrupted inputs with an efficiency of ν ($0 \leq \nu \leq 1$). Then one must choose a number b of control qubits sufficiently large that $[\mathcal{D}(b, \epsilon n) - \epsilon] \leq (1 - \nu)$ and a threshold T of repetitions satisfying $T \geq 1/\cos^{2b}[\frac{\pi}{2} \mathcal{D}(b, \epsilon n)]$, as illustrated in Fig. 1 below.

A first hint about the general behavior of the effective distance function $\mathcal{D}(b, d)$ can be obtained by examining closer the energy eigenvalues (13). For small Hamming distance to the input these reduce to

$$E^k \simeq \frac{\pi^2}{4} \left(\frac{d_H(i, p^k)}{n} \right)^2, \quad \frac{d_H(i, p^k)}{n} \ll 1. \quad (19)$$

Choosing again the normalization in which $|i\rangle = |0\dots 0\rangle$ and introducing a “spin” s_i^k with value $s_i^k = -1/2$ if qbit i in pattern p^k has value $|0\rangle$ and $s_i^k = +1/2$ if qbit i in pattern p^k has value $|1\rangle$, one can express the energy levels for $d_H/n \ll 1$ as

$$E^k = \frac{\pi^2}{16} + \frac{\pi^2}{4n^2} \sum_{i,j} s_i^k s_j^k + \frac{\pi^2}{4n} \sum_i s_i^k. \quad (20)$$

Apart from a constant, this is the Hamiltonian of an infinite-range antiferromagnetic Ising model in the presence of a magnetic field. The antiferromagnetic term favors configurations k with half the spins up and half down, so that $s_{\text{tot}}^k = \sum_i s_i^k = 0$, giving $E^k = \pi^2/16$. The magnetic field, however, tends to align the spins so that $s_{\text{tot}}^k = -n/2$, giving $E^k = 0$. Since this is lower than $\pi^2/16$, the ground state configuration is ferromagnetic, with all qbits having value $|0\rangle$. At very low temperature (high b), where the energy term dominates the free energy, one expects thus an ordered phase of the quantum associative memory with $\mathcal{D}(t, d) = d/n$. This corresponds to a perfect identification of the presented input. As the temperature is raised (b decreased), however, the thermal energy embodied by the entropy term in the free energy begins to counteract the magnetic field. At very high temperatures (low b) the entropy approaches its maximal value $S(t = \infty) = 0$ (with the normalization chosen here). If this value is approached faster than $1/t$, the free energy will again be dominated by the internal energy. In this case, however, this is not anymore determined by the ground state but rather equally distributed on all possible states, giving

$$\begin{aligned} F(t = \infty) &= U(t = \infty) \\ &= \frac{-1}{1 - (d/n)} \int_{d/n}^1 dx 2 \log \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} x\right) \\ &= \left(1 + \frac{d}{n}\right) 2 \log 2 + O\left[\left(\frac{d}{n}\right)^2\right], \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

and leading to an effective distance

$$\mathcal{D}(t = \infty, d) = \frac{2}{3} - \frac{2 \log 2}{\pi \sqrt{3}} \frac{d}{n} + O\left[\left(\frac{d}{n}\right)^2\right]. \quad (22)$$

This value corresponds to a disordered phase with no correlation between input and output of the memory.

A numerical study of the thermodynamic potentials in (16) and (17) indeed confirms a phase transition from the ordered to the disordered phase as the effective temperature is raised. In Fig. 1 I show the effective distance \mathcal{D} and the entropy S for 1 Mb ($n = 8 \times 10^6$) patterns and $d/n = 1\%$ as a function of the inverse temperature b (the entropy is rescaled to the interval $[0,1]$ for ease of presentation). At high temperature there is indeed a disordered phase with $S = S_{\text{max}} = 0$ and $\mathcal{D} = 2/3$. At low

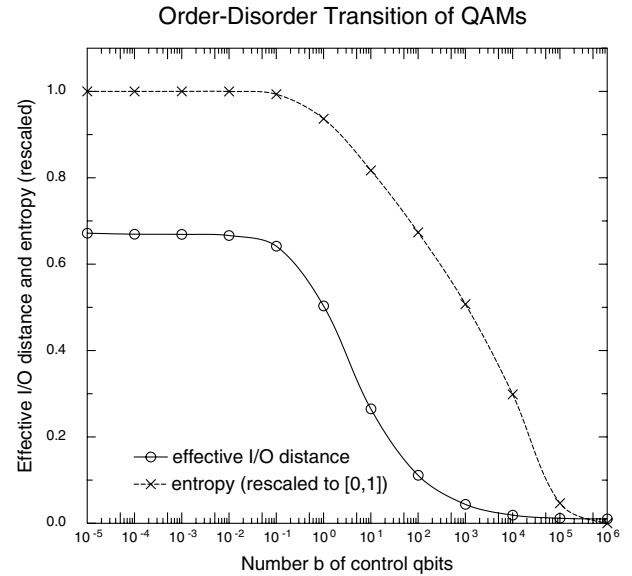


FIG. 1. Effective input/output distance and entropy (rescaled to $[0,1]$) for 1 Mb patterns and $d/n = 1\%$.

temperatures, instead, one is in the ordered phase with $S = S_{\text{min}}$ and $\mathcal{D} = d/n = 0.01$. The effective Hamming distance plays thus the role of the order parameter for the phase transition.

The phase transition occurs at $b_{\text{cr}} \simeq 10^{-1}$. The physical regime of the quantum associative memory ($b = \text{positive integer}$) begins thus just above this transition. For a good accuracy of pattern recognition one should choose a temperature low enough to be well into the ordered phase. As is clear from Fig. 1, this can be achieved already with a number of control qbits $b = O(10^4)$. Note that this number becomes independent of the dimension n of the patterns for large n . The computational load of quantum pattern recognition is thus determined uniquely by the accuracy requirements.

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