
Exponential Hardness of Optimization from the Locality in Quantum Neural Networks

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Abstract

1 Quantum neural networks (QNNs) have become a leading paradigm for establish-
2 ing near-term quantum applications in recent years. The trainability issue of QNNs
3 has garnered extensive attention, spurring demand for a comprehensive analysis of
4 QNNs in order to identify viable solutions. In this work, we propose a perspective
5 that characterizes the trainability of QNNs based on their locality. We prove that
6 the entire variation range of the loss function via adjusting any local quantum gate
7 vanishes exponentially in the number of qubits with a high probability for a broad
8 class of QNNs. This result reveals extra harsh constraints independent of gradi-
9 ents and unifies the restrictions on gradient-based and gradient-free optimizations
10 naturally. We showcase the validity of our results with numerical simulations of
11 representative models and examples. Our findings, as a fundamental property of
12 random quantum circuits, deepen the understanding of the role of locality in QNNs
13 and serve as a guideline for assessing the effectiveness of diverse training strategies
14 for quantum neural networks.

15 1 Introduction

16 Quantum computing is a rapidly growing technology that exploits quantum mechanics to solve
17 intricate problems that classical computers cannot solve. With enormous efforts having been made
18 to develop noisy intermediate scale quantum (NISQ) devices [1], current quantum devices have
19 demonstrated the ability to achieve near-term quantum advantage for practical applications in key
20 areas including many-body physics [2–4], chemistry [5], finance [6–8], and machine learning [9].
21 Specifically, quantum machine learning (QML) represents an exciting, emerging interdisciplinary
22 field that seeks to enhance machine learning algorithms by harnessing the inherent parallelism
23 of quantum systems [10–20]. Quantum neural networks (QNNs) stand at the forefront of QML,
24 capitalizing on the unprecedented potential of quantum computing to revolutionize data analysis and
25 pattern recognition. Inspired by classical neural networks, QNNs employ quantum gates and quantum
26 states as fundamental building blocks within their computational framework. These networks can be
27 trained using a diverse range of methods, including gradient-based optimization techniques akin to
28 classical neural network training [21–24].

29 With the aim to show quantum advantage on certain tasks, a critical issue is whether QNNs can be
30 extended to solve large-scale systems, i.e., scalability. Unfortunately, many studies point out that
31 training of QNNs requires exponential resources with the system size under certain conditions [25–
32 36]. Besides the practical limitations such as noises [29], even ideal quantum devices will suffer
33 from the so-called *barren plateau* phenomenon [25], which is the quantum counterpart of vanishing
34 gradient problem in classical machine learning. It was shown that the gradient of the cost function
35 vanishes exponentially in the number of qubits with a high probability for a random initialized
36 QNN with sufficient depth, analogous to the vanishing gradient issue in classical neural networks.

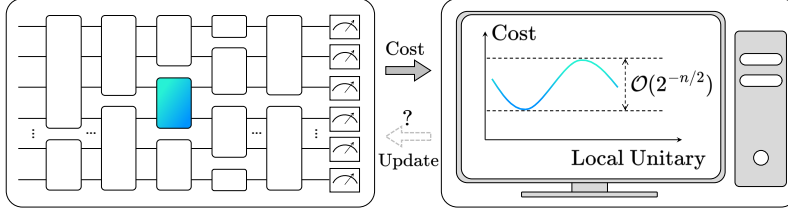


Figure 1: **Training limitations from QNN locality.** The left part depicts a PQC on n qubits composed of local unitaries. The right part symbolically depicts the cost function on a classical device vs. the local unitary highlighted in the left part. This work proves that the cost function will fluctuate in an exponentially small range in the number of qubits with a high probability when we vary an arbitrary local unitary within the QNN in certain cases.

37 Consequently, exponentially vanishing gradients demand exponential precision in the cost function
 38 measurement on a quantum device [37] to make progress in the gradient-based optimization, and
 39 hence an exponential complexity in the number of qubits.

40 Several attempts have been made to avoid barren plateaus, such as higher order derivatives [38],
 41 gradient-free optimizers including gate-by-gate optimization [39, 40], proper initialization [41],
 42 pre-training including adaptive methods [42–46], QNN architectures [47, 48] and cost function
 43 choices [49, 50]. More efforts are needed to study the general effectiveness of these attempts [26, 27]
 44 and develop new strategies to improve the trainability and scalability of QNNs. As a guide for
 45 exploring effective training strategies, it is crucial to uncover the essential mechanisms behind the
 46 barren plateau phenomenon.

47 However, few rigorous scaling results are known for generic QNNs besides phenomenological calcu-
 48 lations, i.e., gradient analyses and their descendent [26–28]. Instead of just the limited information of
 49 vicinity from gradient analyses, it would be quite helpful for designing efficient algorithms if we could
 50 gain information on the entire variation range of the cost function when adjusting a single [39, 40] or
 51 several parameters. Combined with the fact that parameters usually enter the circuit independently
 52 through local quantum gates, all of which motivate our work where we are chiefly concerned with the
 53 variation range of the cost function via varying a local unitary within a quantum circuit.

54 In this work, we present a rigorous scaling theorem on the trainability of QNNs beyond gradients
 55 from the perspective of QNN locality. As summarized in Fig. 1, we prove that when varying a *local*
 56 *unitary* within a sufficiently random circuit, the expectation and variance of the variation range of
 57 the cost function vanish exponentially in the number of qubits. Then through simple derivations, we
 58 show that this theorem implies exponentially vanishing gradients and cost function differences, and
 59 hence unifies the restrictions on gradient-based and gradient-free optimizations. Meanwhile, this
 60 theorem further delivers extra meaningful information about the training landscapes and optimization
 61 possibilities of QNNs. In this sense, we obtain a fundamental limitation on QNN training. Next, we
 62 illustrate the applications of our theorem on representative QNN models, where a tighter bound for
 63 the fidelity-type cost function is provided specifically even with shallow random circuits. At last, we
 64 perform numerical simulations on these representative models, where the scaling exponents coincide
 65 with our analytical results almost precisely.

66 **Comparison with Previous Works.** The advances of our results compared to previous works [25,
 67 27, 26, 28] exist in two aspects. Firstly, the exponentially vanishing quantity we claim is the *entire*
 68 variation range of the cost function in the *whole parameter subspace* corresponding to the local
 69 unitary. This provides constraints on multiple parameters at finite intervals simultaneously, instead of
 70 an infinitesimal vicinity or two fixed-parameter points. Secondly, our results are irrelevant with the
 71 parameterization of the local unitary like $e^{-i\Omega\theta}$ used previously. Hence, our results are much more
 72 general whose only condition is the circuit locality and open a new avenue for analyzing the QNN
 73 trainability.

74 **2 Preliminaries**

75 **Quantum State.** We first introduce basic concepts and notations in quantum computing. A pure
 76 single-qubit quantum state is a linear combination of two computational basis states, represented
 77 as $|\phi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$ in Dirac notation, where $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$, $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$. Here, $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ denote
 78 the basis states $[1, 0]^T$ and $[0, 1]^T$ in the single-qubit space \mathbb{C}^2 , respectively. The n -qubit space \mathbb{C}^{2^n}
 79 is formed by the tensor product of n single-qubit spaces. Additionally, the quantum state can be
 80 represented by a positive semidefinite matrix, also known as a density matrix. The density matrix ρ
 81 of a pure state $|\phi\rangle$ consisting of n qubits is expressed as $\rho = |\phi\rangle\langle\phi|$, where $\langle\phi| = |\phi\rangle^\dagger$. A general
 82 mixed quantum state is represented by $\rho = \sum_k c_k |\phi_k\rangle\langle\phi_k|$, where $c_k \in \mathbb{R}$, $\sum_k c_k = 1$.

83 **Quantum Gate.** Quantum gates are mathematically described as unitary operators. Common
 84 single-qubit gates include the Pauli rotations $\{R_P(\theta) = e^{-i\frac{\theta}{2}P} | P \in \{X, Y, Z\}\}$, which are in the
 85 matrix exponential form of Pauli matrices

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (1)$$

86 Common two-qubit gates include controlled-X gate CNOT = $I \oplus X$ (\oplus is the direct sum) and
 87 controlled-Z gate CZ = $I \oplus Z$, which can generate quantum entanglement among qubits.

88 **Quantum Measurement.** Quantum measurement is a quantum operation to obtain information
 89 from the quantum system. For example, for a single-qubit state $|\phi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$, the outcome of a
 90 computational basis measurement is either $|0\rangle$ with probability $|\alpha|^2$ or $|1\rangle$ with probability $|\beta|^2$. This
 91 measurement operation can be mathematically referred to as the average of the observable $O = Z$
 92 under the state $|\phi\rangle$: $\langle\phi|O|\phi\rangle = \text{tr}[Z|\phi\rangle\langle\phi|] = |\alpha|^2 - |\beta|^2$. Generally, quantum observables O are
 93 Hermitian matrices and $\mathcal{O}(1/\varepsilon^2)$ times of measurements could give an $\varepsilon\|O\|_\infty$ -error estimation to
 94 the value $\text{tr}[O\rho]$, where $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ is the spectral norm of the matrix.

95 **Quantum Neural Network.** While classical neural networks operate on classical bits and use
 96 classical logic gates, quantum neural networks (QNNs) use quantum bits, or qubits, and quantum gates
 97 to process and store information. QNNs are often described as parameterized quantum circuits (PQCs)
 98 that are composed of rotation gates with adjustable rotating angles. In general, a QNN takes the
 99 mathematical form $\mathbf{U}(\theta) = \prod_\mu U_\mu(\theta_\mu)W_\mu$, where $U_\mu(\theta_\mu) = e^{-i\theta_\mu\Omega_\mu}$ denotes a parameterized gate,
 100 such as a single-qubit rotation gate with Ω_μ representing a Hermitian operator, and W_μ corresponds
 101 to fixed gates like the CNOT gate and SWAP gate. Commonly used templates of QNNs include the
 102 hardware efficient ansatz, the alternating-layered ansatz, and the tensor-network-based ansatz [49, 51].
 103 Note that QNNs with intermediate classical controls such as QCNNs [52] can also be included in this
 104 general form theoretically.

105 **3 Limitations of Local Unitary Optimization in QNN**

106 We start by introducing a general setting of a QNN model used throughout our analysis. A hybrid
 107 quantum-classical framework in QML usually uses a classical optimizer to train a QNN, denoted by
 108 \mathbf{U} , with an input state ρ by minimizing a task-dependent cost function C , which is typically chosen
 109 as the expectation value of some Hermitian operator H :

$$C_{H,\rho}(\mathbf{U}) = \text{tr}(H\mathbf{U}\rho\mathbf{U}^\dagger). \quad (2)$$

110 Note that other cost function forms can be regarded as compositions of observable expectations and
 111 some other classical post-processing functions. Here we focus on (2) for simplicity. Divide the whole
 112 qubit system into two parts A, B with m qubits and $n - m$ qubits, respectively. Here m is a fixed
 113 constant not scaling with n so that we call A a local subsystem. The QNN \mathbf{U} is often composed of
 114 local unitaries on real devices, such as the single-qubit rotation gates and the CNOT gate. We focus
 115 on a local unitary U_A within \mathbf{U} acting on subsystem A . As shown in Fig. 2, we denote the sub-circuit
 116 of \mathbf{U} before U_A as V_1 and that behind U_A as V_2 , such that $\mathbf{U} = V_2(U_A \otimes I_B)V_1$ where I_B is the
 117 identity operator on B . V_1, V_2 and U_A are independent of each other. We also remark that this circuit
 118 setting is sufficiently general to cover common representative QNN models, e.g., the variational
 119 quantum eigensolver, the quantum autoencoder, and the quantum state learning.

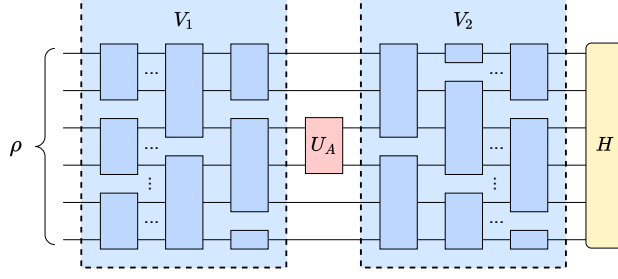


Figure 2: **Partition of the QNN in our analysis.** The QNN is decomposed as $\mathbf{U} = V_2(U_A \otimes I_B)V_1$ with an input state ρ and an observable H . A tunable local unitary U_A is implemented by some local quantum gates with the left and right parts assembled as V_1 and V_2 .

120 To characterize the training landscape beyond the limited information of the vicinity from gradient
 121 analyses, we introduce a central quantity throughout this work, i.e., the *variation range of the cost*
 122 *function* via varying a local unitary.

123 **Definition 1** For a generic cost function $C_{H,\rho}(\mathbf{U})$ with a QNN \mathbf{U} in Eq. (2), we define its variation
 124 range with given V_1, V_2 as

$$\Delta_{H,\rho}(V_1, V_2) := \max_{U_A} C_{H,\rho}(\mathbf{U}) - \min_{U_A} C_{H,\rho}(\mathbf{U}), \quad (3)$$

125 where the maximum and minimum with respect to U_A are taken over the unitary group $\mathcal{U}(2^m)$ of
 126 degree 2^m .

127 The quantity $\Delta_{H,\rho}(V_1, V_2)$ intuitively reflects the maximal possible influence that the local unitary
 128 U_A can have on the cost function. We establish an upper bound on $\Delta_{H,\rho}(V_1, V_2)$ in the sense of
 129 probability by Theorem 1, which thus delivers a limitation on optimizing an arbitrary local unitary.
 130 To be specific, we prove that if either V_1, V_2 , or both match the Haar distribution up to the second
 131 moment, i.e., are sampled from unitary 2-designs [53], the expectation of $\Delta_{H,\rho}(V_1, V_2)$ vanishes
 132 exponentially in the number of qubits. See Appendix A for preliminaries on unitary designs.

133 **Theorem 1** Suppose $\mathbb{V}_1, \mathbb{V}_2$ are ensembles from which V_1, V_2 are sampled, respectively. If either \mathbb{V}_1
 134 or \mathbb{V}_2 , or both form unitary 2-designs, then for arbitrary H and ρ , the following inequality holds

$$\mathbb{E}_{V_1, V_2}[\Delta_{H,\rho}(V_1, V_2)] \leq \frac{w(H)}{2^{n/2-3m-2}}, \quad (4)$$

135 where \mathbb{E}_{V_1, V_2} denotes the expectation over $\mathbb{V}_1, \mathbb{V}_2$ independently. $w(H) = \lambda_{\max}(H) - \lambda_{\min}(H)$
 136 denotes the spectral width of H , where $\lambda_{\max}(H)$ is the maximum eigenvalue of H and $\lambda_{\min}(H)$ is
 137 the minimum.

138 Theorem 1 demonstrates that the maximal influence of a local unitary within a random QNN on
 139 the cost function diminishes exponentially in the number of qubits, with a high probability. This
 140 inherent locality of QNN poses an exponential hardness of optimization in QNN training and we
 141 would like to make several remarks to better reveal the underlying implications of the theorem below.
 142 The main proof idea of Theorem 1 is to calculate the expectation value over $\mathbb{V}_1, \mathbb{V}_2$ separately. To
 143 tackle the maximization over U_A , the main technique is to employ Hölder's inequality to extract U_A
 144 out and bound the remaining part with specific calculations of 2-design element-wise integrals. For
 145 the detailed proof, we defer to Appendix B.

146 **Remark 1** Firstly, due to the non-negativity and boundedness of the variation range, i.e., $\Delta_{H,\rho} \in$
 147 $[0, w(H)]$, the variance of $\Delta_{H,\rho}$ can be bounded by its expectation times $w(H)$. Thus from Theorem 1
 148 we know that the variance also vanishes exponentially:

$$\text{Var}_{V_1, V_2}[\Delta_{H,\rho}(V_1, V_2)] \leq \frac{w^2(H)}{2^{n/2-3m-2}}. \quad (5)$$

149 Note that $w(H) \in \mathcal{O}(\text{poly}(n))$ holds for common VQAs. Moreover, Theorem 1 together with
 150 Markov’s inequality provides an exponentially small upper bound of the probability that $\Delta_{H,\rho}(V_1, V_2)$
 151 deviates from zero, i.e.,

$$\Pr[\Delta_{H,\rho}(V_1, V_2) \geq \epsilon] \leq \frac{1}{\epsilon} \cdot \frac{w(H)}{2^{n/2-3m-2}}, \forall \epsilon > 0. \quad (6)$$

152 That is to say, the probability that $\Delta_{H,\rho}$ is non-zero to some fixed precision is exponentially small.

153 **Remark 2** Secondly, we can even establish an exponentially small bound using Theorem 1 for the
 154 case where U_A is a *global unitary* satisfying the parameter-shift rule [54–58]. Suppose $U_A = e^{-i\theta\Omega}$
 155 with the Hermitian generator Ω satisfying $\Omega^2 = I$. Since Ω has only two different eigenvalues ± 1 ,
 156 there exists a unitary W such that $We^{-i\theta\Omega}W^\dagger$ becomes a local unitary acting on a single qubit
 157 non-trivially. W and W^\dagger could be absorbed into the rest of the circuit with $W^\dagger\nabla_1$ or ∇_2W still
 158 forming 2-designs [59]. Therefore, the proof for global unitaries satisfying the parameter-shift rule
 159 can be reduced back to the case of local unitaries.

160 **Remark 3** Moreover, it is worth noticing that the compact bound in (4) only involves the spectral
 161 width $w(H)$ and does not depend on any detail of the Hermitian operator H . But if some specific
 162 structures about H are known, e.g., the Pauli decomposition of H , a tighter bound could be derived in
 163 Appendix B which depends on the coupling complexity of H . In addition, if the cost function reduces
 164 to the form of the fidelity between pure states, we could have a tighter bound with scaling $\mathcal{O}(2^{-n})$
 165 in Proposition 2. Theorem 1 can be generalized to arbitrary dimensions besides qubit systems of
 166 dimension 2^n , e.g., qutrit and qudit systems. The detailed proof is provided in Appendix B.

167 In fact, Theorem 1 has a natural physical interpretation: the effect of a local operation on a physical
 168 observable will vanish exponentially after a chaotic evolution. Remarkably, the concept of local
 169 operations yielding minor global influences is a physically intuitive yet mathematically intricate
 170 notion. For instance, even a single-qubit unitary is enough to rotate an arbitrary n -qubit pure state to a
 171 new state with zero fidelity with the original one, showcasing local operations do make a great global
 172 influence. Hence, Theorem 1 may be invaluable as a rigorous formulation of the aforementioned
 173 argument within the domain of QNN training, elucidating the locality of QNNs.

174 4 Unifying the Limitations on Training QNNs

175 Here we briefly demonstrate how Theorem 1 unifies the restrictions on gradient-based [25, 27] and
 176 gradient-free optimizations [26, 28] in a more natural manner, and indicates the extra restrictions
 177 besides them on QNN training. In the following, we focus on a PQC applicable for Theorem 1 with
 178 M trainable parameters $\{\theta_\mu\}_{\mu=1}^M$ and denote the variation range of the cost function via varying θ_μ
 179 as Δ_μ .

180 Consider the gradient-based optimization first. On the one hand, in the case where the parameter-shift
 181 rule is valid [54–58], Theorem 1 can strictly deduce vanishing gradients. Suppose $\{\theta_\mu\}_{\mu=1}^M$ are
 182 applicable for the parameter-shift rule (e.g., hardware-efficient ansatzes). Namely, θ_μ enters the
 183 unitary $e^{-i\theta_\mu\Omega_\mu}$ within the circuit where Ω_μ is a Hermitian generator satisfying $\Omega_\mu^2 = I$. From
 184 Theorem 1 we know that the expectation of Δ_μ vanishes exponentially. Therefore, the derivative
 185 $\partial_\mu C := \frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_\mu}$ with respect to θ_μ satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}[|\partial_\mu C|] = \mathbb{E}\left[\left|C\left(\boldsymbol{\theta} + \frac{\pi}{4}\mathbf{e}_\mu\right) - C\left(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \frac{\pi}{4}\mathbf{e}_\mu\right)\right|\right] \leq \mathbb{E}[\Delta_\mu] \in \mathcal{O}(2^{-n/2}), \quad (7)$$

186 where \mathbf{e}_μ is the unit vector in the parameter space corresponding to θ_μ . From Markov’s inequality as
 187 in (6), we know that the probability that the derivative $\partial_\mu C$ deviates from zero by a small constant is
 188 exponentially small.

189 On the other hand, even in the absence of the parameter-shift rule, vanishing gradients could still be
 190 obtained approximately by the following arguments. Consider the vicinity of a random initialized
 191 parameter point where the linear approximation error is negligible, denoted as an ϵ -ball \mathcal{B}_ϵ of radius
 192 ϵ (here ϵ plays the same role as the learning rate). As shown in Fig. 3, the linearity in \mathcal{B}_ϵ together
 193 with Theorem 1 leads to

$$\mathbb{E}[|\partial_\mu C|] \leq \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\Delta_\mu}{2\epsilon}\right] \in \mathcal{O}\left(2^{-n/2}\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right), \quad (8)$$

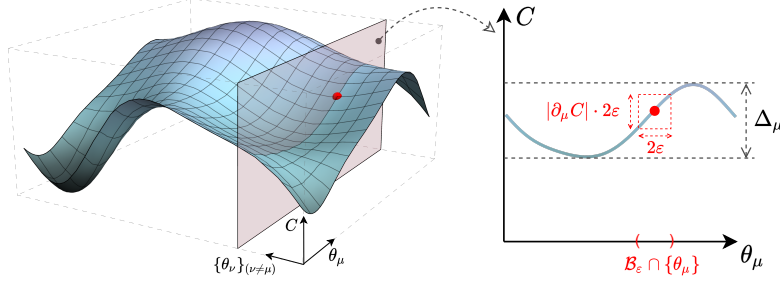


Figure 3: **Sketch of our results implying vanishing gradients.** The left panel sketches the whole training landscape with one of the parameters θ_μ as the x -axis, all of the other parameters $\{\theta_\nu\}_{\nu \neq \mu}$ as the y -axis symbolically and the cost function value C as the z -axis. The right panel depicts a typical sample of the z - x cross-section from the landscape on the left with variation range Δ_μ . Up to the linear approximation error, Δ_μ serves as an upper bound for the absolute derivative $|\partial_\mu C|$ times the vicinity size 2ε .

194 up to the linear approximation error, where $1/\varepsilon$ is not an essential factor since it reflects the frequencies
 195 of the landscape fluctuation rather than magnitudes, similar to the role of the factor $\text{tr}(V^2)$ in the
 196 expression of $\text{Var}[\partial_\mu C]$ [25].

197 For the gradient-free optimization based on the cost function difference between any two *fixed*
 198 parameter points θ' and θ , Theorem 1 leads to

$$\mathbb{E} [|C(\theta') - C(\theta)|] \leq \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{\mu=1}^M |C(\theta^{(\mu)}) - C(\theta^{(\mu-1)})| \right] \leq \sum_{\mu=1}^M \mathbb{E} [\Delta_\mu] \in \mathcal{O}(M2^{-n/2}), \quad (9)$$

199 where $\theta^{(\mu)} = \theta + \sum_{\nu=1}^{\mu} (\theta'_\nu - \theta_\nu) \mathbf{e}_\nu$ for $\mu = 1, \dots, M$ and $\theta^{(\mu)} = \theta$ for $\mu = 0$. Thus, as long as
 200 the number of parameters satisfies $M \in \mathcal{O}(\text{poly}(n))$, the cost function difference between any two
 201 points vanishes exponentially with a high probability, demanding an exponential precision to make
 202 progress in the gradient-free optimization.

203 Furthermore, Theorem 1 goes beyond vanishing gradients and vanishing differences between two
 204 fixed points. The exponentially vanishing quantity claimed by Theorem 1 is the variation range of the
 205 cost function in the *whole parameter subspace* corresponding to a local unitary, e.g., the subspace of
 206 the 3 Euler angles in a single-qubit rotation gate from $SU(2)$, or the subspace of the 15 parameters
 207 in a two-qubit rotation gate from $SU(4)$, etc. This gives constraints on multiple parameters at finite
 208 intervals simultaneously, instead of a vicinity or two fixed parameter points.

209 5 Application on Representative QNN Models

210 To better illustrate the meaning of our findings in practice, we investigate the applications of Theorem 1
 211 on three representative QNN models, including the variational quantum eigensolver (VQE), quantum
 212 autoencoder, and quantum state learning. The corresponding numerical simulation results are
 213 summarized in Fig. 5.

214 **Application on VQE.** The variational quantum eigensolver is the most famous implementation of a
 215 hybrid quantum-classical algorithm with the goal to prepare the ground state of a given Hamiltonian
 216 \hat{H} of a physical system [60]. The cost function is the energy expectation with respect to an ansatz
 217 state $\mathbf{U}|0\rangle$, i.e.,

$$C_{\text{VQE}}(\mathbf{U}) = \langle 0 | \mathbf{U}^\dagger \hat{H} \mathbf{U} | 0 \rangle. \quad (10)$$

218 For most physical models with local interactions, the spectral width is proportional to the system
 219 size, i.e., $w(\hat{H}) \in \mathcal{O}(n)$. For common repeated-layer-type ansatzes, e.g., the hardware-efficient
 220 ansatzes [61], linear depth $\mathcal{O}(n)$ is enough to make a randomly initialized circuit to be a sample from
 221 an approximate 2-design ensemble [25, 62, 63]. Hence from Theorem 1 we know that $\Delta_{\text{VQE}}(V_1, V_2)$
 222 vanishes exponentially with a high probability for random circuits forming 2-designs. We conduct

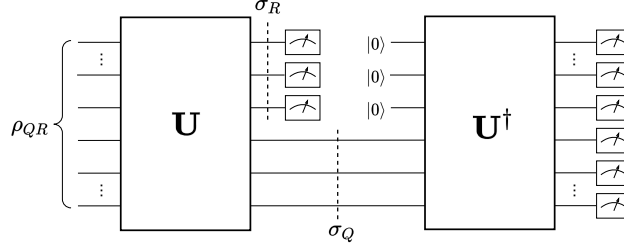


Figure 4: **Circuit setting of the quantum autoencoder.** ρ_{QR} is the given state to be compressed and σ_Q is the compressed state through the encoder \mathbf{U} . The quantum autoencoder aims to train \mathbf{U} such that ρ_{QR} can be reconstructed from σ_Q with high fidelity through the decoder \mathbf{U}^\dagger combined with an ancilla zero state $|0\rangle\langle 0|_R$. σ_R denotes the state of the discarded part after compression.

numerical simulations for the variation range of the VQE cost function Δ_{VQE} using the 1-dimensional spin-1/2 antiferromagnetic Heisenberg model:

$$\hat{H} = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i X_{i+1} + Y_i Y_{i+1} + Z_i Z_{i+1}), \quad (11)$$

with periodic boundary condition, as shown in Fig. 5(a).

Application on Quantum Autoencoder. The quantum autoencoder (QAE) is an approach for quantum data compression [64, 65]. As shown in Fig. 4, a QNN \mathbf{U} is trained as an encoder to compress a given state ρ_{QR} on a bipartite system QR into a reduced state $\sigma_Q = \text{tr}_R(\mathbf{U}\rho_{QR}\mathbf{U}^\dagger)$ on subsystem Q , such that ρ_{QR} can be reproduced from σ_Q by the decoder isometry $\langle 0|_R\mathbf{U}^\dagger$ with a high fidelity. According to the monotonicity of the fidelity under partial trace, an easy-to-measure cost function could be reduced from the fidelity between ρ_{QR} and the reconstructed state as

$$C_{\text{QAE}}(\mathbf{U}) := 1 - \text{tr}(|0\rangle\langle 0|_R \otimes I_Q \mathbf{U}\rho_{QR}\mathbf{U}^\dagger), \quad (12)$$

where the second term is exactly the fidelity between the state of the discarded part $\sigma_R = \text{tr}_Q(\mathbf{U}\rho_{QR}\mathbf{U}^\dagger)$ and the zero state $|0\rangle_R$ on subsystem R . The spectral width for the QAE cost function (12) is $w(H_{\text{QAE}}) = 1$ with $H_{\text{QAE}} = I_{QR} - |0\rangle\langle 0|_R \otimes I_Q$. Thus again from Theorem 1 we know that $\Delta_{\text{QAE}}(V_1, V_2)$ vanishes exponentially in the number of qubits, specifically with the scaling $\mathcal{O}(2^{-n/2})$ as shown in Fig. 5(b).

Application on Quantum State Learning. The fidelity between pure states is a special case of the cost function in (2) with a low-rank observable. Many QML applications make use of fidelity as their cost functions [66–68]. Here we uniformly call them quantum state learning (QSL) tasks. Denote the input state as $|\psi\rangle$ and the target state as $|\phi\rangle$. The QSL cost function can be written as

$$C_{\text{QSL}}(\mathbf{U}) = 1 - |\langle \phi | \mathbf{U} | \psi \rangle|^2. \quad (13)$$

Theorem 1 can be applied here with $H_{\text{QSL}} = I - |\phi\rangle\langle \phi|$ and $w(H_{\text{QSL}}) = 1$. Here a tighter bound for Δ_{QSL} is provided in Proposition 2, which generally holds for the Bures fidelity. The proof of Proposition 2 is detailed in Appendix C.

Proposition 2 *If either \mathbb{V}_1 or \mathbb{V}_2 , or both form unitary 1-designs, then for the variation range of the fidelity-type cost function Δ_{QSL} , the following inequality holds*

$$\mathbb{E}_{V_1, V_2} [\Delta_{\text{QSL}}(V_1, V_2)] \leq \frac{1}{2^{n-2m}}. \quad (14)$$

Compared with Theorem 1, the bound $\mathcal{O}(2^{-n})$ becomes tighter and the demanded randomness becomes weaker in this special case. Notably, even a random circuit of constant depth is enough to form a 1-design, which is much shallower than 2-designs. Like in (5) and (6), the variance and the probability that Δ_{QSL} deviates from zero also vanish exponentially, but only require random circuits forming unitary 1-designs. Moreover, still with 1-designs, Proposition 2 implies exponentially vanishing cost gradients and cost differences in the same way as Theorem 1, which may be considered as the underlying mechanism behind the severe barren plateaus for global cost functions even with shallow quantum circuits [49].

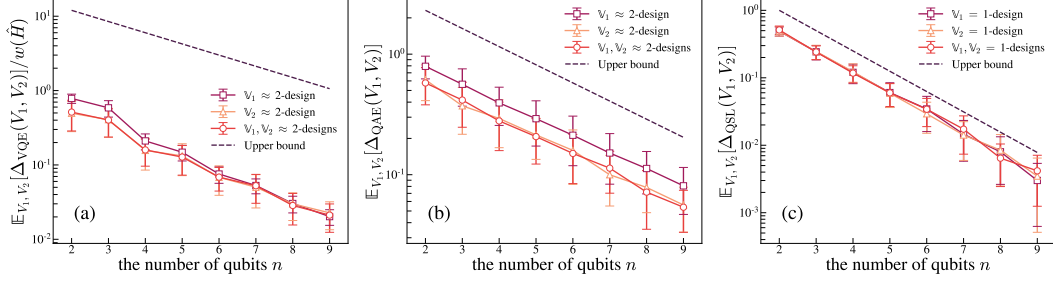
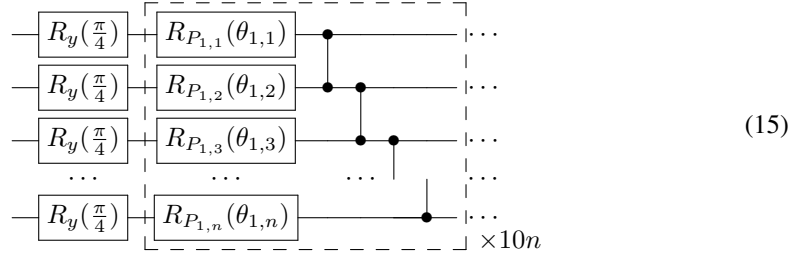


Figure 5: **Exponentially vanishing variation range of the cost function via varying a local unitary.** The data points represent the sample averages of the cost variation range $\Delta_{H,\rho}$ via varying a single-qubit unitary over the spectral width $w(H)$ as a function of the number of qubits on semi-log plots. Panel (a) and (b) correspond to the VQE with the 1-dimensional Heisenberg model and the quantum autoencoder with one qubit discarded, respectively, where the error bars represent the standard deviations over samples. Panel (c) corresponds to the quantum state learning with the cost function being the fidelity with the zero state. Different legends stand for \mathbb{V}_1 , \mathbb{V}_2 or both being approximate 2-designs in (a), (b) and 1-designs in (c). The dashed lines depict our theoretical upper bounds for the three tasks where the scaling exponents show a good coincidence with the experimental results.

254 6 Numerical Simulations of Experiments

255 Previously, we have theoretically shown that with a high probability, the maximal influence of a local
 256 unitary within a random QNN on the cost function will vanish exponentially in the number of qubits.
 257 We further demonstrate the validity of our results with numerical simulations of experiments on the
 258 three representative QNN models. All of these experimental results show the exponentially vanishing
 259 variation range in the number of qubits, which is consistent with Theorem 1 and Proposition 2.

260 **Circuit Setting.** Consider subsystem A only containing a single qubit, namely $m = 1$, and
 261 parameterize the local unitary $U_A \in \mathcal{U}(2)$ with 3 Euler angles up to a global phase, i.e., $U_A(\phi, \theta, \alpha) =$
 262 $R_z(\phi)R_y(\theta)R_z(\alpha)$, where R_y and R_z are single-qubit rotation gates with generators being Y and
 263 Z Pauli matrices. To construct random circuits forming 2-designs as \mathbb{V}_1 or \mathbb{V}_2 used in the VQE and
 264 QAE examples, we employ the following hardware-efficient ansatz as in [25] for comparison.



265 A single layer of $R_y(\pi/4) = \exp(-iY\pi/8)$ gates are laid at the very beginning of the circuit to
 266 make the three rotation axes have equal status, then followed by $10 \times n$ repeated layers. Each layer
 267 consists of n single-qubit rotation gates $R_P(\theta)$ on each qubit together with $n - 1$ controlled phase
 268 gates between nearest neighboring qubits aligned as a 1-dimensional array, where the rotation axes
 269 $P \in \{x, y, z\}$ is chosen with uniform probability and $\theta \in [0, 2\pi)$ is also chosen uniformly. A such
 270 random circuit with $\mathcal{O}(n)$ repeated layers could be considered as an approximate 2-design (here we
 271 employ $10 \times n$) [25, 62, 63]. Experimental results with different numbers of layers are also presented
 272 in Appendix D to show how the expectation of the cost variation range $\Delta_{H,\rho}$ vanishes with the circuit
 273 depth. To construct random circuits forming 1-designs used in the QSL example, we just replace the
 274 repeated layers above with a single layer of $SU(2)$ elements $R_z(\phi)R_y(\theta)R_z(\alpha)$ on each qubit with
 275 $\phi, \theta, \alpha \in [0, 2\pi)$ are chosen with uniform probability.

276 **Implementation Details.** To compute $\max_{U_A} C$ and $\min_{U_A} C$ in the definition of $\Delta_{H,\rho}(V_1, V_2)$
 277 with respect to U_A , we employ the Adam optimizer to update U_A iteratively until convergence for

278 each of the 100 samples of V_1, V_2 . We consider the converged value as a good estimation with a
279 tolerable error at least for circuits with a small number of qubits (≤ 10) and a modest depth ($\leq 10 \times n$).
280 We repeat this procedure for different numbers of qubits and different statistics of \mathbb{V}_1 and \mathbb{V}_2 , i.e., \mathbb{V}_1
281 or \mathbb{V}_2 being a 2-design (1-design) while the other being identity.

282 **Numerical Results.** We summarize the simulation results of the three examples in Fig. 5. The
283 slopes of the lines imply the rates of exponential decay. The data points represent the sample averages
284 of the cost variation range $\Delta_{H,\rho}$ via varying U_A over $w(H)$, and the error bars represent the standard
285 deviations over samples. We specially rescale the error bar in the QSL example as a quarter of the
286 standard deviation for better presentation on semi-log plots. One can see that in all the cases, the
287 expectations of $\Delta_{H,\rho}(V_1, V_2)$ vanish exponentially in the number of qubits. The data lines are almost
288 parallel to the dashed lines depicting the theoretical upper bounds. That is to say, the scaling behaviors
289 almost coincide with the predictions from Theorem 1 and Proposition 2. These results suggest that
290 while optimizing a local unitary within a random QNN, the cost function exhibits fluctuations within
291 an exponentially small range relative to the number of qubits. It is this phenomenon that elucidates
292 the vanishing gradient issue and contributes to the exponential difficulty of training as the QNN scales
293 up. A detailed derivation can be found in Appendix B for the tighter task-dependent upper bounds
294 used in Fig. 5(a) and (b).

295 7 Conclusion and Discussion

296 We have shown that the maximal possible influence of a local unitary within a QNN on the cost
297 function vanishes exponentially in the number of qubits with a high probability. This finding unveils
298 the exponential hardness associated with training QNNs as they scale up. The randomness required is
299 just a 2-design for the generic cost function and a 1-design for the fidelity-type cost function, in spite
300 that the integrand $\Delta_{H,\rho}(V_1, V_2)$ is not necessarily a polynomial of degree at most 2 or 1 in the entries
301 of V_1 and V_2 . We remark that a 2-design circuit can be achieved approximately by only $\mathcal{O}(n)$ depth
302 [25, 62, 63] for common repeated-layer-type ansatzes, e.g., the hardware-efficient ansatzes [61], and
303 a 1-design circuit can be achieved more easily by only $\mathcal{O}(1)$ depth.

304 From the perspective of quantum information theory, our results can be regarded as a basic property
305 of random quantum circuits. That is, a local unitary within a random circuit of polynomial depth
306 has an exponentially small impact on the expectation of physical observables, which is expected to
307 have potential applications in other areas involving random quantum circuits. This property may also
308 provide insight into QNN design to address the critical trainability issue.

309 For the training of QNN, our results unify the restrictions on gradient-based and gradient-free
310 optimizations in a natural way and hence can be regarded as the underlying mechanism behind the
311 barren plateau phenomenon. Therefore, a fundamental limitation is unraveled in training QNNs,
312 which can serve as a guide for designing better training strategies to improve the scalability of
313 QNNs. A direct consequence is that the gate-by-gate optimization strategy [39, 40] is ineffective no
314 matter what optimizers are utilized. Reparameterization within local unitaries is also unhelpful. For
315 future research, it will be of great interest to explore potential solutions via proper initialization [41],
316 pre-training including adaptive methods [42–46], circuit architectures [47, 48] and cost function
317 choices [49, 50].

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