

Turing Days'04: Classical & Quantum Computing

# QCL

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30th May 2004



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# I. Quantum Computing

## Classical and Quantum Computation

### Classical Computation

- Computation is the mechanical manipulation of symbols.
- A problem is computable if there exists an *effective procedure* to solve it.
- In- and output parameters are encoded as strings over some finite alphabet.
- The computation is time-discrete (*computational steps*).
- The state of the computation is observable and traceable.

### Quantum Computation

- Computation is a physical process and follows the rules of quantum mechanic.
- A problem is computable if (in practice or principle) a machine can be built to solve it.
- Input is encoded as physical states (*state preparation*).
- Output is determined by (potentially destructive) measurement.
- The computation is continuous.
- The state of the computation is not observable.

# Motivation

- **Universality:** Since the basic concepts of quantum computing directly result from the most fundamental postulates of quantum mechanics, the resulting theory of computability is the most general possible in a quantum mechanical universe.
- **Quantum Parallelism:** The possibility of superpositions of up to  $2^n$  classical states in a quantum register of length  $n$  allows the efficient computations of problems for which no polynomial classical algorithm exists.
- **Security:** The principal impossibility to copy or even destructively observe quantum states allows the development of provably secure communication protocols without prior key-exchange.
- **Miniaturization:** Even today, the integration of logical circuits is at a scale where quantum effects can no longer be ignored. By extrapolating Moore's, law the atomic scale should be reached in less than 2 decades.
- **Energy Consumption:** As quantum computing is based on unitary and therefore reversible operations, there exists no lower thermodynamical bound for energy consumption and waste heat.

# Notation

**Hilbert Space** A complete vector space  $\mathcal{H}$  with an inner product  $\langle \cdot | \cdot \rangle$  and the corresponding norm  $\|\psi\| = \sqrt{\langle \psi | \psi \rangle}$  is called Hilbert space.

Notation	Description
$ \psi\rangle$	general “ket” vector, e.g. $ \psi\rangle = (c_0, c_1, \dots)^T$
$\langle\psi $	dual “bra” vector to $ \psi\rangle$ , e.g. $\langle\psi  = (c_0^*, c_1^*, \dots)$
$ n\rangle$	basis vector, $ 0\rangle = (1, 0, 0 \dots)^T$ , $ 1\rangle = (0, 1, 0, \dots)^T$ , etc.
$\langle\phi \psi\rangle$	inner (scalar) product of $ \phi\rangle$ and $ \psi\rangle$
$ \phi\rangle \otimes  \psi\rangle$	tensor product of $ \phi\rangle$ and $ \psi\rangle$
$ \phi\rangle \psi\rangle$	abbreviated tensor product $ \phi\rangle \otimes  \psi\rangle$
$ i, j\rangle$	abbreviated tensor product of the basis vectors $ i\rangle$ and $ j\rangle$
$M^\dagger$	adjoint operator (matrix) $M^\dagger = (M^T)^*$
$\langle\phi M \psi\rangle$	inner product of $ \phi\rangle$ and $M \psi\rangle$
$\ \psi\ $	abbreviated norm $\   \psi\rangle \ $

Table 1: *Dirac Notation*

A linear operator (matrix)  $A$  on  $\mathcal{H}$  is called

- *self-adjointed* or *Hermitian* iff  $A^\dagger = A$ ,
- *unitary* iff  $A^\dagger A = I$ , with  $I$  being the identity operator,
- *idempotent* iff  $A^2 = A$ ,
- (*orthogonal*) *projection* iff  $A$  is self-adjointed and idempotent,
- *self-inverse* iff  $A^2 = I$ .

# Quantum States

**Postulate 1** Associated to any physical system is a complex Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  known as the state space of the system. The state of the system is completely described by a unit vector  $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$  with  $\|\psi\| = 1$ , which is called state vector. Two state vectors  $|\psi\rangle$  and  $|\psi'\rangle$  are equivalent ( $|\psi\rangle \simeq |\psi'\rangle$ ) iff  $|\psi'\rangle = e^{i\phi}|\psi\rangle$ .

- In quantum computing we require that  $\mathcal{H}$  is separable, so  $\mathcal{H}$  is isomorphic and isometric to either  $\mathbf{C}^n$  or  $\mathbf{I}_2$ .
- A general quantum state  $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$  can be written as

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} c_k |k\rangle \quad \text{or} \quad |\psi\rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k |k\rangle \quad \text{with} \quad \sum_k c_k c_k^* = 1.$$

- A system  $\mathbf{q}$  with the state space  $\mathcal{B} = \mathbf{C}^2$  is called a *quantum bit* or *qubit*.
- The general state of a qubit is a *superposition* of  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$ .

$$|\psi\rangle = a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle \quad \text{with} \quad |a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1$$

- The vectors  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$  are called *computational basis*.

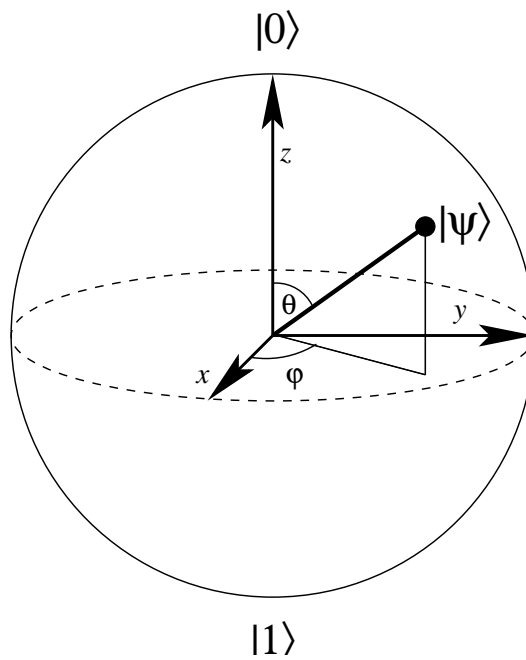
In QCL, qubits are *quantum registers* of length 1:

```
qcl> qureg q[1];           // allocate qubit
qcl> RotX(pi/3,q);        // prepare superposition
0.86603 |0> - 0.5i |1>
```

# The Bloch Sphere

Ignoring an irrelevant overall phase factor, the general state of a qubit can be written as

$$|\psi\rangle = \cos \frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle + e^{i\varphi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle.$$



- Every qubit state has a unique representation as a point on the three-dimensional unit sphere, also known as *Bloch sphere*.
- The unit-vector  $\hat{r} = \hat{r}_\psi$  is called *Bloch vector* of  $|\psi\rangle$ .
- Bloch vectors have the property that

$$\hat{r}_\phi = -\hat{r}_\chi \iff \langle \phi | \chi \rangle = 0.$$

- Unitary qubit operations correspond to rotations in the Bloch sphere.

# Unitary Evolution

**Postulate 2** *The temporal evolution of the state of a closed quantum system is described by the Schrödinger equation*

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} |\psi(t)\rangle = H |\psi(t)\rangle$$

*with the (experimental) Plank constant  $\hbar$  and a self-adjoint operator  $H$  on the state space  $\mathcal{H}$  known as the Hamiltonian of the system.*

- We define  $\hbar \equiv 1$ , so the Schrödinger equation can be written in the dimensionless form  $i|\dot{\psi}\rangle = H|\psi\rangle$ .
- The Hamiltonian  $H$  completely describes the dynamics of a closed quantum system.
- The unitary operator

$$U(t) = e^{-iHt} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} (-i)^n t^n H^n$$

is called *operator of temporal evolution*.

- For the initial value  $|\psi(0)\rangle = |\psi_0\rangle$  the solution of the Schrödinger equation is given as

$$|\psi(t)\rangle = U(t) |\psi_0\rangle.$$

- Since  $U^\dagger(t) = U(-t)$ , the evolution is *reversible*.

Since  $H$  is uniquely defined by  $U(t)$ , the 2<sup>nd</sup> postulate can be reformulated in a discrete-time version as

**Postulate 2'** *The temporal evolution of a closed quantum system from the state  $|\psi\rangle$  at time  $t_1$  to state  $|\psi'\rangle$  at time  $t_2$  can be described by a unitary operator  $U = U(t_2 - t_1)$  such that  $|\psi'\rangle = U|\psi\rangle$ .*

# Single Qubit Operations

The single qubit rotations  $R_x(\theta)$ ,  $R_y(\theta)$ ,  $R_z(\theta)$  about the X-, Y- and Z-axis of the Bloch sphere are given as

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} & -i \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \\ -i \sin \frac{\theta}{2} & \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} & -\sin \frac{\theta}{2} \\ \sin \frac{\theta}{2} & \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} e^{-i\theta/2} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\theta/2} \end{pmatrix}$$

- **Not-gate** ( $\pi$  rotation about the X-axis)

$$\text{Not} = X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- **Hadamard-gate** ( $\pi$  rotation about the XZ-diagonal)

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- **(Controlled) Phase-gates** (rotations about the Z-axis)

$$V(\varphi) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\varphi} \end{pmatrix}$$

which is equivalent to  $R_z(\varphi)$ . Special cases are

$$Z = V(\pi), \quad S = V\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right), \quad T = V\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)$$

**Universal Sets of Operators** A set of qubit operators is *universal* if any unitary transformation on  $\mathcal{B}$  can be approximated to arbitrary precision.

- Any pair of rotations  $R_{\hat{v}}(a\pi)$  and  $R_{\hat{w}}(b\pi)$  is universal if  $\hat{v} \neq \pm\hat{w}$  and  $a, b$  are irrational.
- This is the case for  $HT$  and  $TH$  so the set  $\{H, T\}$  is universal.

# Measurements

**Postulate 3** A measurement is described by a self-adjoint operator  $M$ , called observable, with the spectral decomposition  $M = \sum_m mP_m$ , where  $P_m$  is the projector onto the eigenspace of the eigenvalue  $m$ .

The eigenvalues  $m$  of  $M$  correspond to the possible outcomes of the measurement. Measuring  $|\psi\rangle$  will give the result  $m$  with probability  $p(m) = \langle\psi|P_m|\psi\rangle$ , thereby reducing  $|\psi\rangle$  to the post-measurement state

$$|\psi'\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{p(m)}}P_m|\psi\rangle.$$

- Quantum measurements are destructive (*unobservability of states*)
- The *standard observable* is the self adjoint operator

$$N = \sum_k k|k\rangle\langle k|.$$

- $N$  describes measurements in the computational basis.
- For a general state

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} c_k|k\rangle$$

the probability to measure  $m$  is  $p(m) = |c_m|^2$  with the post-measurement state  $|\psi'\rangle = |m\rangle$ .

```
qcl> qureg q[2];           // allocate 2 qubits
qcl> int m;                // classical variable
qcl> H(q);                 // prepare superposition
[2/32] 0.5 |00> + 0.5 |01> + 0.5 |10> + 0.5 |11>
qcl> measure q[0],m;      // measure lower qubit
[2/32] 0.70711 |01> + 0.70711 |11> // reduced state, m=1
```

# Composite Systems

**Postulate 4** *The state space  $\mathcal{H}$  of a composite physical system is the tensor product of the state spaces  $\mathcal{H}_i$  of its components. Moreover, if the subsystems are in the states  $|\psi_i\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_i$ , then the joint state  $|\Psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$  of the composite system is  $|\Psi\rangle = |\psi_1\rangle \otimes |\psi_2\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes |\psi_n\rangle$ .*

- For two systems  $\mathbf{p}$  and  $\mathbf{q}$  with the state spaces  $\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{p}} = \mathbf{C}^n$  and  $\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{q}} = \mathbf{C}^m$  and the bases  $B_{\mathbf{p}}$  and  $B_{\mathbf{q}}$ , the state space of the joint system  $\mathbf{p} \circ \mathbf{q}$  is given by the tensor product

$$\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{p}} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{q}} = \mathbf{C}^{nm} \quad \text{with the basis} \quad B = B_{\mathbf{p}} \times B_{\mathbf{q}} = \{|i, j\rangle\}$$

- A linear operator  $U$  on  $\mathbf{p}$  is equivalent to the operator  $U(\mathbf{p}) = U \otimes I$  on  $\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{p}} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{q}}$ .
- The *product state* of  $|\psi_1\rangle = \sum_i a_i |i\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{p}}$  and  $|\psi_2\rangle = \sum_j b_j |j\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{q}}$  is given as

$$|\psi\rangle = |\psi_1\rangle \otimes |\psi_2\rangle = \sum_{ij} a_i b_j |i, j\rangle$$

- In product states, unitary transformations or measurements performed on one system, do not affect the state of the other system.

The following QCL code prepares the 2-qubit product state

$$|\Psi\rangle = (H |0\rangle) \otimes (R_y(\frac{\pi}{3}) |0\rangle) = \left( H \otimes R_y(\frac{\pi}{3}) \right) |0, 0\rangle$$

```
qcl> qureg p[1]; qureg q[1]; // allocate 2 qubits p and q
qcl> H(p); // apply Hadamard gate on q
0.707 |0,0> + 0.707 |1,0>
qcl> RotY(pi/3,q); // 120 deg. Y-rotation of p
0.612 |0,0> + 0.612 |1,0> + 0.353 |0,1> + 0.353 |1,1>
```

# Entanglement

Not any joint state is a product state. A state

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum_i \sum_j c_{ij} |i, j\rangle \quad \text{with} \quad \sum_{i,j} |c_{ij}|^2 = 1$$

whose coefficients  $c_{ij}$  cannot be written as  $c_{ij} = a_i b_j$  is called *entangled*.

Consider the following joint states of two qubits

$$|\Psi_A\rangle = \frac{1}{2}|0, 0\rangle + \frac{1}{2}|1, 0\rangle + \frac{1}{2}|0, 1\rangle + \frac{1}{2}|1, 1\rangle \quad \text{and}$$

$$|\Psi_B\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|0, 0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|1, 1\rangle$$

A single measurement of either qubit will give 0 or 1 with equal probability  $p = 1/2$ . Assuming that a measurement of the first qubit gave the result  $m$ , the respective post measurement states are

$$|\Psi'_A\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|m, 0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|m, 1\rangle \quad \text{and}$$

$$|\Psi'_B\rangle = |m, m\rangle$$

A measurement of the second qubit of  $|\Psi'_A\rangle$  will still give a random result, while in the case of  $|\Psi'_B\rangle$ , the outcome is correlated to the previous measurement and will always produce  $m$ .  $|\Psi_B\rangle$  is also known as *Bell state*.

```
qcl> qureg p[1]; qureg q[1]; // allocate 2 qubits p and q
qcl> H(q); // prepare even superposition
0.70711 |0,0> + 0.70711 |1,0>
qcl> CNot(p,q); // entangle states with CNot
0.70711 |0,0> + 0.70711 |1,1>
```

# Gates

Quantum Computing usually deals with composite systems of qubits:

- Finite composition of  $n$  qubits

$$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{B}^{\otimes n} = \mathbf{C}^{2^n}$$

- Infinite number of qubits with zero-tail state condition

$$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{B}^* = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{B}^{\otimes n} \otimes \mathbf{C}^{\otimes \omega} = \{ |\psi\rangle \otimes |00\dots\rangle \mid |\psi\rangle \in \mathbf{C}^{2^n} \}$$

- Dual ended tape of qubits with zero-tail state condition

$$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{T} = \mathcal{B}^* \otimes \mathcal{B}^* = \mathcal{L} \left\{ |\dots b_{-2} b_{-1} b_0 b_1 b_2 b_3 \dots\rangle \mid \sum_i b_i < \infty \right\}$$

**Definition 1** Let  $\mathbf{s}$  be a composite system of the qubits  $\mathbf{s}_i$ . A unitary operator  $U$  on  $\mathcal{B}^{\otimes k} = \mathbf{C}^{2^k}$  which can be applied to an arbitrary  $k$ -qubit subsystem (register)  $\mathbf{s}_{j_0} \circ \dots \circ \mathbf{s}_{j_{k-1}}$  of  $\mathbf{s}$  is called a  $k$ -qubit gate.

**Universal Sets of Gates** A set of gates is *universal* if any unitary transformation  $U$  on a finite number of qubits can be approximated to arbitrary precision.

- Single qubit operations and CNOT are universal.
- The *controlled-not gate* is defined as

$$\text{CNOT} = \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & X \end{pmatrix}$$

and can be generalized to control registers of arbitrary size

$$\text{CNot} : |x\rangle |y_0 \dots y_{n-1}\rangle \rightarrow |x \oplus y_0 \wedge \dots \wedge y_{n-1}\rangle |y_0 \dots y_{n-1}\rangle$$

- The *standard set*  $\{H, T, \text{CNOT}\}$  is universal.

# Quantum Circuits

Gates can be connected to *quantum circuits* with the following restrictions:

- Only feed-forward networks are allowed (no loops).
- Only  $n$ -to- $n$  gates are allowed.
- Forking of inputs is forbidden, as

$$\text{Copy } |\psi\rangle|0\rangle \rightarrow |\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle \quad \text{with } |\psi\rangle \in \mathbf{C}^2$$

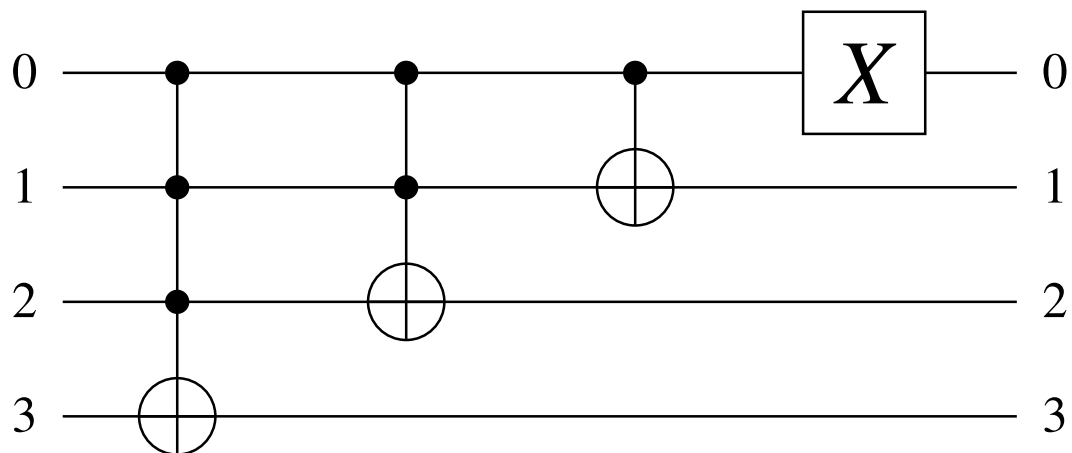
is not a unitary operation.

- “dead ends” are forbidden as

$$\text{Erase } |\psi\rangle \rightarrow |0\rangle \quad \text{with } |\psi\rangle \in \mathbf{C}^2$$

is not a unitary operation.

## 4-qubit Increment Operator



$$\text{inc} : |n\rangle \rightarrow |n + 1 \bmod 16\rangle$$

# Quantum Computers

**Definition 2** A machine  $\mathcal{M}$  is a 5-tuple  $(\mathbf{S}, O, T, \delta, \beta)$  where

- (i)  $\mathbf{S}$  is a set of computational states
- (ii)  $O = \{f_i : \mathbf{S} \mapsto \mathbf{S}\}$  is an enumerable set of memory commands
- (iii)  $T = \{t_i : \mathbf{S} \mapsto \mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{B}\}$  is an enumerable set of test commands
- (iv)  $\delta : \mathcal{I} \rightarrow \mathbf{S}$  is an input function from the enumerable input set  $\mathcal{I}$
- (v)  $\beta : \mathbf{S} \mapsto \mathcal{O}$  is an (potentially probabilistic) output function to the enumerable output set  $\mathcal{O}$

In the most general case, a quantum computer  $\mathcal{M} = (\mathcal{H}, O, T, \delta, \beta)$  is a probabilistic machine where

- $\mathcal{H}$  is the state space of the quantum system operated on. Typically,  $\mathcal{H}$  is qubit-based so  $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{B}^{\otimes n}$  (quantum circuits),  $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{B}^*$  (UGM) or  $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{T}$  (SQTM) or a combination thereof (QTM).
- $O$  a set of (deterministic) unitary transformations. This can e.g. be a complete set of gates applied to arbitrary qubits (quantum circuits), or a single step-operator (QTM). A single qubit-measurement would be described by the mapping

$$\mu(\mathbf{q}) : \alpha|0\rangle_{\mathbf{q}}|\psi_0\rangle_{\mathbf{p}} + \beta|1\rangle_{\mathbf{q}}|\psi_1\rangle_{\mathbf{p}} \mapsto \begin{cases} (|0\rangle_{\mathbf{q}}|\psi_0\rangle_{\mathbf{p}}, 0), & p = |\alpha|^2 \\ (|1\rangle_{\mathbf{q}}|\psi_1\rangle_{\mathbf{p}}, 1), & p = |\beta|^2 \end{cases}$$

- $T$  a set of (probabilistic) measurement commands. This can be empty (quantum circuits, QTM).
- $\delta$  is the initialization operator which can also be constant (e.g. if the input is provided via an oracle-operator).
- $\beta$  describes the final measurement.

# Example: Deutsch's Algorithm

The following quantum algorithm allows to compute  $f(0) \oplus f(1)$  for an arbitrary oracle oracle-operator  $F : |x, y\rangle \rightarrow |x, y \oplus f(x)\rangle$ .

1. Prepare initial 2-qubit state  $|\Psi_0\rangle = |0\rangle_{\mathbf{x}}|1\rangle_{\mathbf{y}}$ .

2. Apply  $H(\mathbf{x} \circ \mathbf{y})$  to set up the search space **superposition**

$$|\Psi_1\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(|0\rangle_{\mathbf{x}} + |1\rangle_{\mathbf{x}}) (|0\rangle_{\mathbf{y}} - |1\rangle_{\mathbf{y}}) = |+\rangle_{\mathbf{x}}|-\rangle_{\mathbf{y}}$$

$$\text{with } |\pm\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle \pm |1\rangle) \quad (\text{dual basis}).$$

3. Apply the oracle operator  $F$ , giving **quantum parallelism**

$$\begin{aligned} |\Psi_2\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}F|0\rangle_{\mathbf{x}}|-\rangle_{\mathbf{y}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}F|1\rangle_{\mathbf{x}}|-\rangle_{\mathbf{y}} = \\ &= \frac{(-1)^{f(0)}}{\sqrt{2}}|0\rangle_{\mathbf{x}}|-\rangle_{\mathbf{y}} + \frac{(-1)^{f(1)}}{\sqrt{2}}|1\rangle_{\mathbf{x}}|-\rangle_{\mathbf{y}} = \\ &= \pm \frac{1}{2}|\pm\rangle_{\mathbf{x}}|-\rangle_{\mathbf{y}} \end{aligned}$$

4. Retransform with  $H(\mathbf{x})$ , resulting in **interference**

$$|\Psi_3\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|b\rangle_{\mathbf{x}} (|0\rangle_{\mathbf{y}} - |1\rangle_{\mathbf{y}}) \quad \text{with } b = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } f(0) = f(1) \\ 1 & \text{for } f(0) \neq f(1). \end{cases}$$

5. Measure  $\mathbf{x}$ . The measured value  $b = f(0) \oplus f(1)$ .

```

qufunct F(quconst x,quvoid y) {           // dummy oracle F
  if f(false) xor f(true) { CNot(y,x); } // f(x) = not x
  if f(false) { Not(y); }                // F|x,y> = |x,~x^y>
}

```

```

procedure deutsch2() {                    // improved Deutsch algorithm
  qureg x[1]; qureg y[1];
  int m;
  Not(y);                                // 1. init state
  H(x & y);                               // 2. prepare superposition
  F(x,y);                                 // 3. quantum parallelism
  H(x);                                   // 4. interference
  measure x,m;                            // 5. measure result
  print "f(0) xor f(1) =",m;
}

```

```

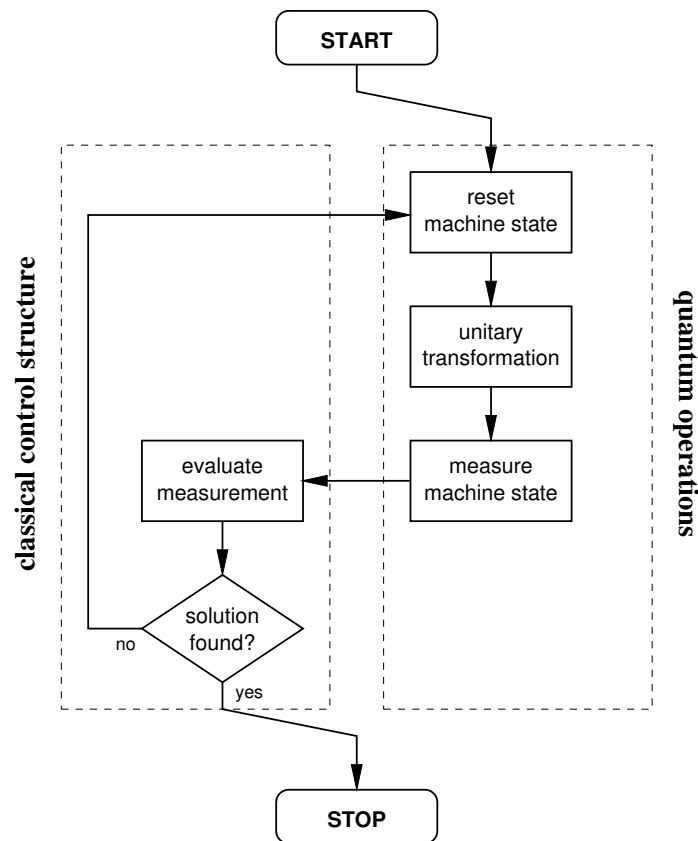
oemer@linux:~/qcl> qcl deutsch2.qcl -i -l1 -L1 -fb
QCL Quantum Computation Language (32 qubits, seed 1085736488)
[0/32] 1 |0>
qcl> print f(false),f(true);             // f(x) = not x
: true false
qcl> deutsch2();                          // start alg.
@ NOT(qureg q=<1>)
1 |10>
@ H(qureg q=<0,1>)
0.5 |00> + 0.5 |01> - 0.5 |10> - 0.5 |11>
@ CNOT(qureg q=<1>,quconst c=<0>)         //
0.5 |00> - 0.5 |01> - 0.5 |10> + 0.5 |11> // oracle call
@ NOT(qureg q=<1>)                         //
-0.5 |00> + 0.5 |01> + 0.5 |10> - 0.5 |11>
@ H(qureg q=<0>)
-0.70711 |01> + 0.70711 |11>
@ MEASURE <0>
: f(0) xor f(1) = 1                       // result
[0/32] -0.70711 |1> + 0.70711 |11>

```

# II. Quantum Programming in QCL

## Quantum Algorithms

*Due to the stochastic nature of measurements, quantum algorithms are often probabilistic.*



### Classical Elements

- control structure
- evaluation of measurements
- probabilistic computation

### Quantum Elements

- Unitary Transformations
- Initialization
- Measurements

# Quantum Programming Languages

*Quantum Programming is about extending classical universal programming languages for quantum computing.*

Unlike the mathematical formalism, QTMs or quantum circuits, quantum programming languages (QPLs) are at the same time

- **universal** (unlike quantum circuits),
- **constructive** (unlike the mathematical formalism),
- **hardware independent** (unlike QTMs).

Moreover, QPLs

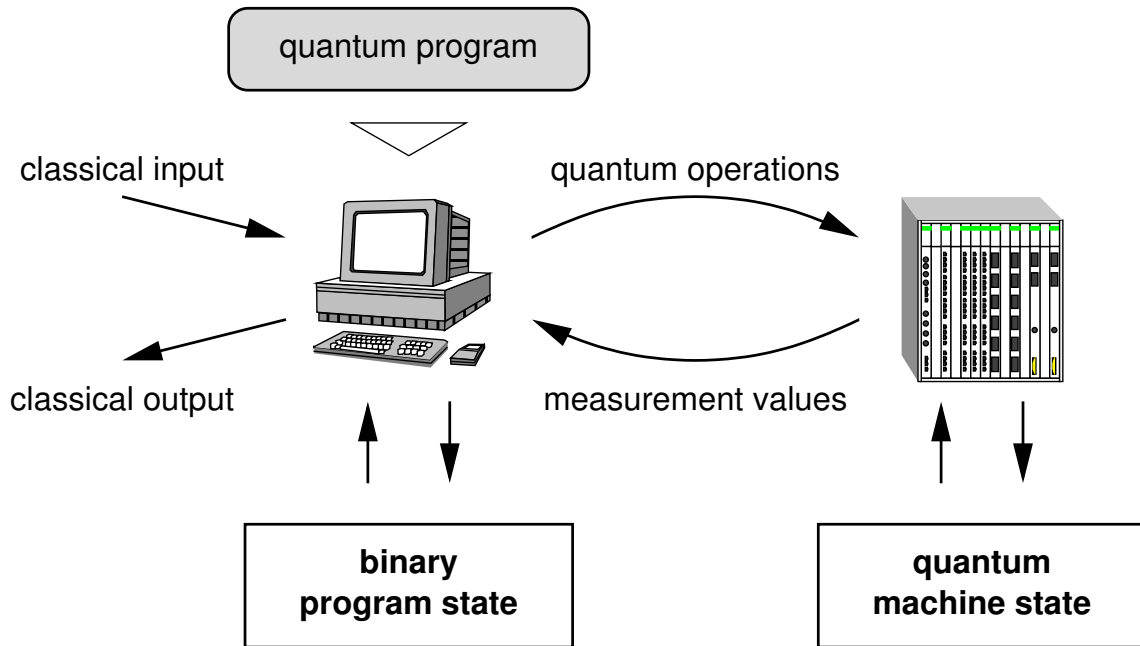
- provide arbitrary levels of abstraction,
- allow input of arbitrary sizes,
- do not require global unitary transformations,
- provide well defined space and time complexity measures and
- allow the implementation of the classical control structure.

A quantum programming language is called

- **imperative** if it provides quantum registers (*quantum variables*), elementary gates and single qubit measurements.
- **procedural** if it additionally supports unitary subroutines and reverse execution to derive the adjoint operator.
- **structured** if it additionally allows the use of qubits and boolean expression of qubits (*quantum conditions*) in structured flow-control statements (*quantum if-statement*).

# Hybrid Architecture

*The target architecture of quantum programming is a universal classical computer with a quantum oracle.*



- **program state:** values of variables, execution stack, etc.
- **machine state:** common quantum state of all qubits

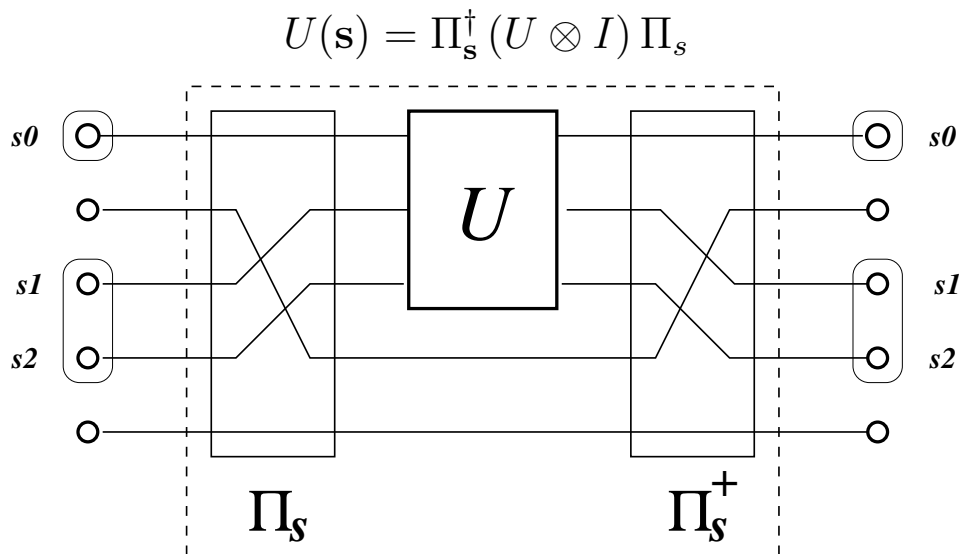
$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum_{(d_0 \dots d_{n-1}) \in \mathbf{B}^n} c_{d_0 \dots d_{n-1}} |d_0 \dots d_{n-1}\rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{2^n-1} c_k |k\rangle$$

- **classical frontend:** I/O, flow control, generation of quantum OPs, evaluation of measurements, random numbers
- **quantum oracle:** elementary qubit gates, reset and measurement operations

# Quantum Registers

**Definition 3** An  $m$  qubit quantum register  $\mathbf{s}$  is a sequence of mutually different qubit positions  $\langle s_0, s_1 \dots s_{m-1} \rangle$  of some machine state  $|\Psi\rangle$

**Definition 4** The register operator  $U(\mathbf{s})$  for an  $m$ -qubit unitary operator  $U$  and an  $m$ -qubit quantum register  $\mathbf{s}$  on an  $n$ -qubit quantum computer is



- Registers are the formal interface to the quantum oracle.
- An  $n$ -qubit quantum oracle allows for  $[en!]$  different registers.
- Operator subroutines take the size of the register (i.e. the number of qubits) as an implicit parameter.
- Operators have mathematical semantics, this esp. excludes
  - dependencies on the program state (e.g. global variables)
  - side effects on the program state
  - user input and calls to `random()`
- Non-unitary quantum operations (i.e. calls to `measure` and `reset`) are prohibited.

# Example: Quantum Fourier Transform

For an  $N$  dimensional vector  $|\psi\rangle$ , the discrete Fourier transform is defined as

$$DFT : |x\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} e^{\frac{2\pi i}{N} xy} |y\rangle$$

In analogy to the classical *FFT*, Coppersmith suggested the following quantum implementation (indices are qubit positions):

$$DFT' = \prod_{i=2}^n \left( H_{n-i} \prod_{j=1}^{i-1} V_{n-i, n-j} \left( \frac{\pi}{2^{i-j}} \right) \right) H_{n-1}$$

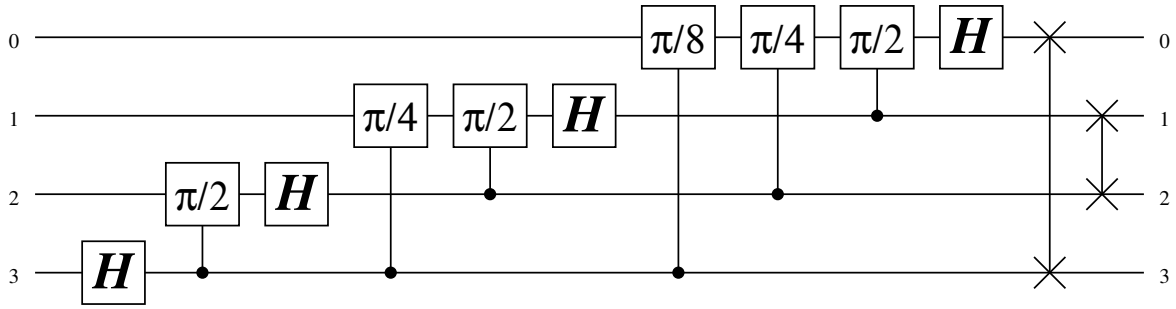
$$\text{with } V(\phi) : |\epsilon\rangle \rightarrow \begin{cases} e^{i\phi} |\epsilon\rangle & \text{if } \epsilon = 11\dots \\ |\epsilon\rangle & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{and } H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

```

operator dft(ureg q) { // main operator
  const n=#q;          // set n to length of input
  int i; int j;        // declare loop counters
  for i=1 to n {
    for j=1 to i-1 { // apply conditional phase gates
      if q[n-i] and q[n-j] { Phase(pi/2^(i-j)); }
    }
    H(q[n-i]);        // qubit rotation
  }
  flip(q);           // swap bit order of the output
}

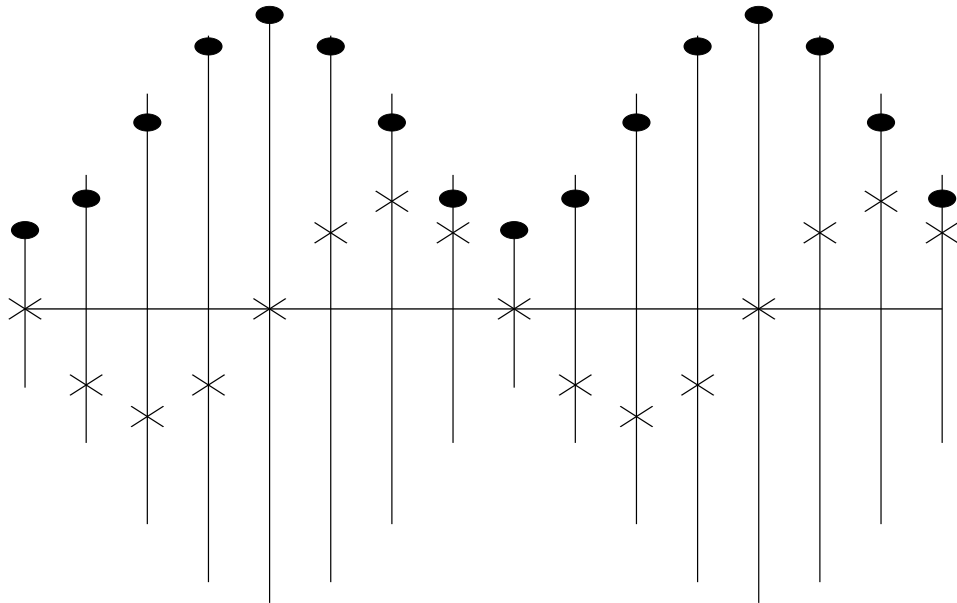
```



```

qcl> qureg q[4];           // allocate 4 qubit register
qcl> Rot(pi/3,q[1]);      // rotate 2nd qubit
0.866 |0> - 0.5 |2>
qcl> dft(q);             // perform Fourier transform
0.0915 |0> + ... + (0.1281+0.0884i) |15> (16 terms)
qcl> plot;
: PLOT STATE

```



4 used qubits, 16 basevectors

```

qcl> !dft(q);           // inverse Fourier transform
0.866 |0> - 0.5 |2>

```

# Quantum Data Types

- **General register (qureg):** general purpose register without access restrictions
- **Constant register (quconst):** register has to be invariant to all operator calls within its scope
- **Target register (quvoid):** register has to be empty when the uninverted operator is called (parameter type)
- **Scratch register (quscratch):** register is declared as scratch space (parameter or local type)

**Definition 5 (Invariance of Registers)** *A quantum register  $\mathbf{c}$  is considered invariant to a register operator  $U(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{c})$  if  $U$  meets the condition*

$$U : |i, j\rangle = |i\rangle_{\mathbf{s}} |j\rangle_{\mathbf{c}} \rightarrow (U_j |i\rangle_{\mathbf{s}}) |j\rangle_{\mathbf{c}}$$

An operator  $U(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{c})$  with a constant  $n$ -qubit argument register  $\mathbf{c}$  is called *selection operator* and can be written as

$$U = \text{diag}(U_1, U_2 \dots U_{2^n}).$$

**Definition 6 (Empty Registers)** *A quantum register  $\mathbf{s}$  is empty iff*

$$P_0(\mathbf{s}) |\Psi\rangle = |\Psi\rangle \quad \text{with} \quad P_0 = |0\rangle\langle 0|$$

- At startup or after the `reset` command, the whole machine state is empty, thus  $|\Psi\rangle = |0\rangle$ .
- Newly allocated registers are empty.

# Basis Permutations

**Definition 7** *A  $n$ -qubit basis permutation is a unitary operator of the form  $U : |i\rangle \rightarrow |\pi_i\rangle$  with some permutation  $\pi$  over  $\mathbf{Z}_{2^n}$ .*

- Basis permutations implement reversible boolean functions.
- The implementation of basis permutations (`qufunct`) must not contain calls to general unitary operators (`operator`).
- When applied to superpositions, basis permutations allow for massive parallel computation (quantum parallelism)

```
qufunct inc(qureg x) {          // increment register
    int i;
    for i = #x-1 to 1 step -1 {
        CNot(x[i],x[0:i-1]);
    }
    Not(x[0]);
}
```

```
qcl> qureg q[4];                // generate superposition
qcl> H(q[3] & q[1]);            // of |0>, |2>, |8> and |10>
0.5 |0> + 0.5 |2> + 0.5 |8> + 0.5 |10>
qcl> inc(q);                    // increment basis vectors
0.5 |1> + 0.5 |3> + 0.5 |9> + 0.5 |11>
qcl> inc(q);
0.5 |2> + 0.5 |4> + 0.5 |10> + 0.5 |12>
qcl> !inc(q);                  // decrement basis vectors
0.5 |1> + 0.5 |3> + 0.5 |9> + 0.5 |11>
```

# Quantum Functions

**Definition 8** For any function  $f : \mathbf{B}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{B}^m$  (or equivalently  $f : \mathbf{Z}_{2^n} \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_{2^m}$ ) there exists a class of basis permutations  $F : \mathbf{C}^{2^{n+m}} \rightarrow \mathbf{C}^{2^{n+m}}$  working on an  $n$ -qubits input and an  $m$ -qubits output register with  $F|x, 0\rangle = |x, f(x)\rangle$ . Operators of that kind are referred to as quantum functions.

- Quantum functions allow the calculation of non-reversible boolean functions.
- Quantum functions have at least one constant (`quconst`) argument and one empty (`quvoid`) target register argument.
- The behavior of a quantum functions for non-empty target registers is unspecified.
- For any boolean function  $f : \mathbf{B}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{B}^m$  there exist  $2^n(2^m - 1)!$  different quantum functions  $F$ .
- Local scratch registers are automatically reclaimed if declared as `quscratch` and don't need to be explicitly uncomputed.

```
qufunct parity(quconst x,quvoid y) {
  int i;
  for i = 0 to #x-1 {
    CNot(y,x[i]);
  }
}
```

```
qcl> qureg x[2]; qureg y[1]; H(x);
0.5 |0,0> + 0.5 |1,0> + 0.5 |2,0> + 0.5 |3,0>
qcl> parity(x,y);
0.5 |0,0> + 0.5 |3,0> + 0.5 |1,1> + 0.5 |2,1>
```

# Scratch Space Management

Let  $F$  be a quantum function with the argument register  $\mathbf{x}$  (`quconst`), the target register  $\mathbf{y}$  (`quvoid`) and the scratch register  $\mathbf{s}$  (`quscratch`)

$$F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{s}) : |i\rangle_{\mathbf{x}} |0\rangle_{\mathbf{y}} |0\rangle_{\mathbf{s}} \rightarrow |i\rangle_{\mathbf{x}} |f(i)\rangle_{\mathbf{y}} |j(i)\rangle_{\mathbf{s}}$$

$F$  fills the register  $\mathbf{s}$  with the temporary junk bits  $j(i)$ . To reclaim  $\mathbf{s}$ , QCL allocates an auxiliary register  $\mathbf{t}$  and translates  $F$  into an operator  $F'$  which is defined as

$$F'(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{t}) = F^\dagger(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{s}) \text{Fanout}(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{y}) F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{s})$$

The *fanout* operator is a quantum function defined as

$$\text{Fanout} : |i\rangle |0\rangle \rightarrow |i\rangle |i\rangle$$

The application of  $F'$  restores the scratch register  $\mathbf{s}$  and the auxiliary register  $\mathbf{t}$  to  $|0\rangle$  while preserving the function value in the target register  $\mathbf{y}$ :

$$|i, 0, 0, 0\rangle \rightarrow |i, 0, j(i), f(i)\rangle \rightarrow |i, f(i), j(i), f(i)\rangle \rightarrow |i, f(i), 0, 0\rangle$$

```

qufunct parity2(quconst x1,quconst x2,quvoid y) {
    quscratch s[2];          // allocate 2 scratch qubits
    parity(x1,s[0]);         // store parity of x1 in s[0]
    parity(x2,s[1]);         // store parity of x2 in s[1]
    CNot(y,s);               // set y if x1 and x2 have odd
}                             // parity

```

```

qcl> qureg a[3]; qureg b[3]; qureg y[1];
qcl> H(a[2] & b[0]); Not(b[1]);
0.5 |0,2,0> + 0.5 |4,2,0> + 0.5 |0,3,0> + 0.5 |4,3,0>
qcl> parity2(a,b,y);
0.5 |0,2,0> + 0.5 |0,3,0> + 0.5 |4,3,0> + 0.5 |4,2,1>

```

# Hierarchy of Subroutines

routine type	program state	machine state	inv.
procedure	all	all	no
operator	none	unitary	yes
qfunct	none	basis perm.	yes
functions	none	none	no

- **General subroutine (procedure):**
  - may depend on I/O, random numbers and measurements
  - used for classical and irreversible parts of quantum algorithms
- **General unitary operator (operator):**
  - effect may only depend on declared parameters
  - allows inverse execution
- **Basis Permutation (qfunct):**
  - allows scratch-space management
- **Classical function:**
  - no side-effects allowed

# Example: Grover's Database Search

- Many problems in classical CS can be formulated as search problems over bitstrings
- If a unique solution to  $C(x) = 1, x \in \mathbf{B}^n$  is known to exist, this solution can be found in  $O(\sqrt{n})$  steps (as opposed to  $O(n/2)$  for a classical brute-force search)
- For each search problem, a query operator can be defined as

$$\text{query} : |x, 0\rangle \rightarrow |x, C(x)\rangle \quad \text{with} \quad x \in \mathbf{B}^n \quad \text{and} \quad C : \mathbf{B}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{B}$$

1. Set up a search space by performing a  $n$ -qubit Hadamard transform

$$H : |i\rangle \rightarrow 2^{-\frac{n}{2}} \sum_{j \in \mathbf{B}^n} (-1)^{(i,j)} |j\rangle$$

2. The main loop of the algorithm consists of two steps

- (a) Perform a conditional phase shift which rotates the phase of all basis vectors which match the condition  $C$  by  $\pi$  radians.

$$Q : |i\rangle \rightarrow \begin{cases} -|i\rangle & \text{if } C(i) \\ |i\rangle & \text{if } \neg C(i) \end{cases}$$

- (b) Apply a diffusion operator

$$D = \sum_{ij} |i\rangle d_{ij} \langle j| \quad \text{with} \quad d_{ij} = \begin{cases} \frac{2}{N} - 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ \frac{2}{N} & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

3. Perform measurement when the amplitude for the solution  $|i_0\rangle$  (i.e.  $C(i_0) = \mathbf{true}$ ) reaches its maximum ( $p > \frac{N-1}{N}$  after  $\lfloor \frac{\pi}{4} \sqrt{N} \rfloor$  iterations)

```

boolean C(int x) { return x==SOLUTION; }

qfunct query(quireg x,quvoid f) {
  int i;
  for i=0 to #x-1 {      // x -> NOT (x XOR n)
    if not bit(SOLUTION,i) { Not(x[i]); }
  }
  CNot(f,x);           // flip f if x=1111..
  for i=0 to #x-1 {    // x <- NOT (x XOR n)
    if not bit(SOLUTION,i) { !Not(x[i]); }
  }
}

operator diffuse(quireg q) {      // diffusion operator
  Mix(q);           // Hadamard Transform
  Not(q);           // invert q
  if q { Phase(pi) }; // invert sign if q=1111..
  !Not(q);         // undo inversion
  !Mix(q);         // undo Hadamard Transform
}

procedure grover(int n) {          // n is upper limit for x
  int l=floor(log(n,2))+1;        // no. of qubits
  int m=ceil(pi/8*sqrt(2^l));     // no. of iterations
  int x; int i;
  qureg q[l]; qureg f[1];
  {
    reset;
    Mix(q);           // prepare superposition
    for i=1 to m {   // main loop
      query(q,f);    // calculate C(q)
      CPhase(pi,f); // negate |x>
      !query(q,f);   // undo C(q)
      diffuse(q);    // diffusion operator
    }
    measure q,x;     // measurement
    print "measured",x;
  } until C(x);
}

```

# Quantum Flow Control

**Conditional Execution** Classical programming languages allow the conditional execution of code depending on a boolean variable.

- **Goal:** conditional execution of code depending on qubits
- **Problem:** unobservability of qubits, unitary evolution
- **Solution:** conditional operators

**If-Statements** In structured languages, conditional branching is realized by if-statements with well defined entry and exit points.

- **Goal:** conditional branching on qubits
- **Problem:** The classical implementation by executing either the if- or the else-branch is impossible.
- **Solution:** conditional composition
- **Problem:** Assignments to classical variables may lead to inconsistent program states
- **Solution:** threaded execution (*quantum forking*)

**Boolean Expression** Classical languages allow the use of complex boolean expressions.

- **Goal:** boolean formulas of qubits (*quantum condition*)
- **Problem:** The boolean operators  $\wedge$  and  $\vee$  are not reversible.
- **Solution:** transformation into the XNF, transparent use of scratch qubits

# Conditional Operators

**Definition 9** A conditional operator  $U_{[[\mathbf{e}]]}$  with the enable register  $\mathbf{e}$  is a unitary operator of the form

$$U_{[[\mathbf{e}]]} : |i, \epsilon\rangle = |i\rangle|\epsilon\rangle_{\mathbf{e}} \rightarrow \begin{cases} (U|i\rangle)|\epsilon\rangle_{\mathbf{e}} & \text{if } \epsilon = 111\dots \\ |i\rangle|\epsilon\rangle_{\mathbf{e}} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Conditional Operators are selection operators of the form

$$U_{[[\mathbf{e}]]} = C^{|\mathbf{e}|}[U] = \text{diag}(I \dots I, U)$$

- Informally, the effect of  $U_{[[\mathbf{e}]]}(\mathbf{s})$  can be described as “if  $\mathbf{e}$  is set then apply  $U(\mathbf{s})$ ”.

**Definition 10** An  $n$ -qubit basis permutation  $P : |k\rangle \rightarrow |p(k)\rangle$  is called cyclic iff it generates the computational basis such that for any  $|k\rangle$

$$\bigcup_{i=0}^{2^n-1} P^i |k\rangle = \{|j\rangle \mid j \in \mathbf{Z}_{2^n}\}$$

Examples for  $P$  are **Not** and **inc**. The following rules apply:

- **Orthogonal Enable Registers:** Let  $U$  and  $V$  be arbitrary unitary operators and  $P$  cyclic basis permutation, then

$$\left[ U_{[[\mathbf{e}]]}(\mathbf{s}) P(\mathbf{e}), V_{[[\mathbf{e}]]}(\mathbf{s}) P^\dagger(\mathbf{e}) \right] = 0.$$

- **Conditional Composition:** For any selection operator

$$U = \text{diag}(U_1, U_2 \dots U_{2^m}) \quad \text{on} \quad \mathcal{B}^{\otimes n+m}$$

there exists an  $m$ -qubit basis permutation  $P$  such that

$$U(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{e}) = \prod_{i=1}^{2^m} U_{i[[\mathbf{e}]]}(\mathbf{s}) P(\mathbf{e})$$

# Conditional Subroutines

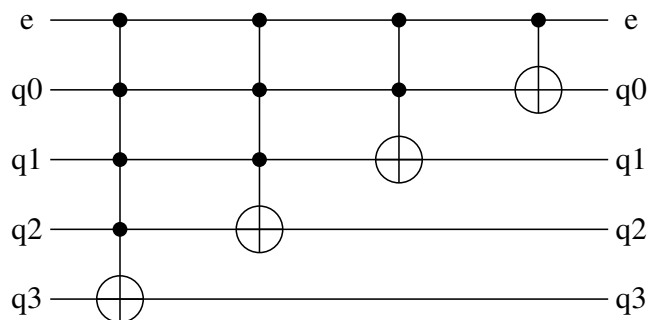
- Operator subroutines can be declared as conditional (`cond`).
- The enable register is passed as an implicit parameter and can be set by a *quantum if-statement*.
- When an enable register is set, a circuit for the conditional operator is automatically constructed.

```

cond qufunct inc(qureg x) {           // Conditional increment
  int i;                               // as conditional
  for i = #x-1 to 0 step -1 {         // subroutine
    CNot(x[i],x[0::i]);
  }
}

qufunct cinc(qureg x,quconst e) {    // Equivalent
  int i;                               // implementation
  for i = #x-1 to 0 step -1 {        // as selection
    CNot(x[i],x[0::i] & e);         // operator
  }
}

```



```

qcl> qureg q[4]; qureg e[1];
qcl> if e { inc(q); }           // equivalent to cinc(q,e);

```

# Quantum Conditions

**Definition 11** A quantum condition is a boolean formula of qubits combined by the operators  $\{\neg, \wedge, \vee, \oplus\}$ .

**Definition 12** Let  $S$  be a set of qubits. A quantum condition

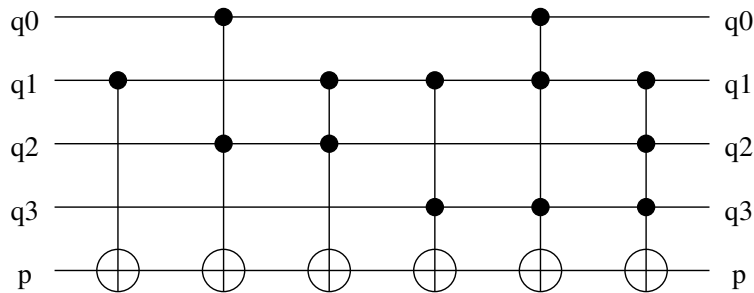
$$\mathbf{C} = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n \bigwedge_{j=1}^{m_i} \mathbf{p}_{ij} \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbf{p}_{ij} \in S \quad \text{and} \quad \{\mathbf{p}_{kj}\} = \{\mathbf{p}_{lj}\} \Leftrightarrow k = l$$

is in exclusive disjunctive normal form (XNF).

Any boolean formula can be transformed into XFN by recursively applying the following rules (**false**  $\equiv \bigoplus_{i=1}^0$  and **true**  $\equiv \bigwedge_{j=1}^0$ ):

$$\begin{aligned} a \oplus a &\implies \mathbf{false} \\ a \wedge a &\implies a \\ \neg a &\implies \mathbf{true} \oplus a \\ a \vee b &\implies a \oplus a \wedge b \oplus b \\ a \wedge \bigoplus_i b_i &\implies \bigoplus_i a \wedge b_i \end{aligned}$$

- Quantum conditions in XNF can be evaluated by CNot-gates.
- Classical boolean expressions and qubits can be mixed.
- The QCL data type `qucond` allows for complex quantum predicates (the example below shows a 4-qubit primality test).



# Quantum If-Statements

- Quantum if-statements (QISs) allow conditional branching on arbitrary quantum conditions.
- A QIS which contains classical assignments is called *dirty*.
- QIS may contain if- and else-branches and can be nested.
- Scratch registers for the evaluation of complex quantum conditions are transparently allocated and uncomputed again.

```
qcl> qureg a[1]; qureg b[1]; qureg q[3];
qcl> H(a & b); // prepare test state
0.5 |0,0,0> + 0.5 |1,0,0> + 0.5 |0,1,0> + 0.5 |1,1,0>
```

```
qcl> if a { inc(q); }
0.5 |0,0,0> + 0.5 |0,1,0> + 0.5 |1,0,1> + 0.5 |1,1,1>
```

```
qcl> if a and b { inc(q); }
0.5 |0,0,0> + 0.5 |0,1,0> + 0.5 |1,0,1> + 0.5 |1,1,2>
```

```
qcl> if a or b { inc(q); }
0.5 |0,0,0> + 0.5 |0,1,1> + 0.5 |1,0,2> + 0.5 |1,1,3>
```

```
qcl> if b { Phase(pi); } else { inc(q); }
0.5 |0,0,1> - 0.5 |0,1,1> + 0.5 |1,0,3> - 0.5 |1,1,3>
```

```
qcl> if not a { if b { inc(q); } else { !inc(q); } }
0.5 |0,0,0> - 0.5 |0,1,2> + 0.5 |1,0,3> - 0.5 |1,1,3>
```

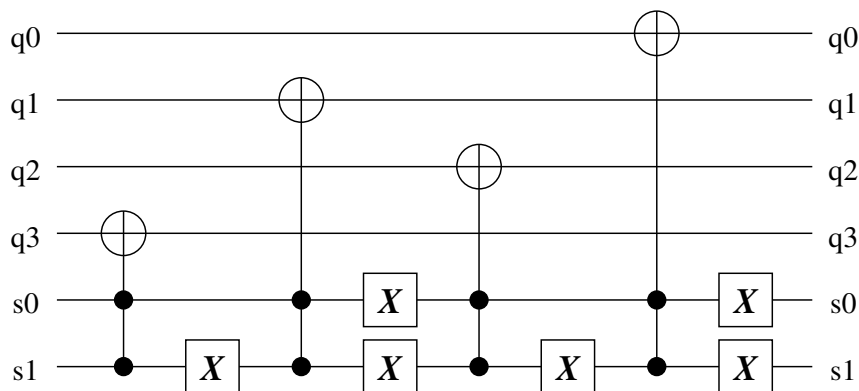
# Quantum Forking

If the body of a quantum if-statement contains statements which change the program state (e.g. assignments to local variables), then subsequent operator calls may differ, depending on whether the if- or the else-branch has been executed (*dirty QIS*).

In that case, QCL follows all possible classical paths throughout the operator definition (*threaded execution*), accumulates the conditions of all visited quantum if-statements and serializes the generated sequence of operators by conditional composition.

Forking if-statements may only appear within an operator definition to assure that the different execution threads can be joined again.

```
cond qfunct mux(quconst s,qureg o) { // Multiplexer
  int i;
  int n = 0;
  for i=0 to #s-1 { // accumulate content of
    if s[i] { n=n+2^i; } // selection register in a
  } // classical variable
  Not(o[n]); // flip selected output qubit
}
```



```
qcl> qureg s[2]; qureg q[4]; H(s);
0.5 |0,0> + 0.5 |1,0> + 0.5 |2,0> + 0.5 |3,0>
qcl> mux(s,q);
0.5 |0,1> + 0.5 |1,2> + 0.5 |2,4> + 0.5 |3,8>
```