Verifying Quantum Communication Protocolswith Ground Bisimulation

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- Abstract

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One important application of quantum process algebras is to formally verify quantum communication protocols. With a suitable notion of behavioural equivalence and a decision method, one can determine if the specification of a protocol is consistent with an implementation. Ground bisimulation is a convenient behavioural equivalence for quantum processes because of its associated coinduction proof technique. We exploit this technique to design and implement an on-the-fly algorithm to check if two given processes in quantum CCS are equivalent, which enables us to develop a tool that can verify interesting quantum protocols such as the BB84 quantum key distribution scheme.

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1 Introduction

Process algebras provide a useful formal method for specifying and verifying concurrent systems. Their extensions to the quantum setting have also appeared in the literature. For 24 example, Jorrand and Lalire [22, 25] defined the Quantum Process Algebra (QPAlg) and 25 presented a branching bisimulation to identify quantum processes with the same branching structure. Gay and Nagarajan [18] developed Communicating Quantum Processes (CQP), for 27 which Davidson [9] established a bisimulation congruence. Feng et al. [13] have proposed a quantum variant of Milner's CCS [27], called qCCS, and a notion of probabilistic bisimulation for quantum processes, which is then improved to be a general notion of bisimulation that enjoys a congruence property [15]. Later on, motivated by [28], Deng and Feng [12] defined an open bisimulation for quantum processes that makes it possible to separate ground bisimulation and the closedness under super-operator applications, thus providing not only a 33 neater and simpler definition, but also a new technique for proving bisimilarity. In order to avoid the problem of instantiating quantum variables by potentially infinitely many quantum states, Feng et al. [14] extended the idea of symbolic bisimulation [20] for value-passing CCS and provided a symbolic version of open bisimulation for qCCS. They also proposed an 37 algorithm for checking symbolic ground bisimulation. 38

In the current work, we consider the ground bisimulation proposed in [12]. We put forward an on-the-fly algorithm to check if two given processes in qCCS with fixed initial quantum states are ground bisimilar. The algorithm is simpler than the one in [14] because the initial quantum states are determined for the former but can be parametric for the latter. Therefore, it is easier to implement. Moreover, in many applications, we are only interested in the correctness of a quantum protocol with a predetermined input of quantum states. This is especially the case in the design stage of a protocol or in the debugging of a program.

The new algorithm is obtained by adapting the on-the-fly algorithm for checking probabilistic bisimulations [11], which in turn has its root in similar algorithms for checking classical bisimulations [17, 20]. The basic idea is as follows. A quantum process with an initial quantum state forms a configuration. We describe the operational behavour of a configuration as a probabilistic labelled transition system (pLTS), where probabilistic transitions arise naturally because measuring a quantum system can entail a probability distribution of post-measurement quantum systems. The notion of ground bisimulation is a strengthening of probabilistic bisimulation by imposing some constraints on quantum variables and the environment states of processes. Therefore, the skeleton of the algorithm for quantum ground bisimulation resembles to that for probabilistic bisimulaiton. We have developed a tool that can check if two given configurations are ground bisimilar. It is useful to validate whether the specification of a protocol is equivalent to an implementation. We have conducted experiments on a few interesting quantum protocols including super-dense coding, teleportation, secret sharing, and in particular the BB84 quantum key distribution protocol [5].

Other related Work Ardeshir-Larijani et al. [3] proposed a quantum variant of CCS [27] to describe quantum protocols. The syntax of that variant is similar to qCCS but its semantics is very different. The behaviour of a concurrent process is a finite tree and an interleaving is a path from the root to a leaf. By interpreting an interleaving as a superoperator [29], the semantics of a process is a set of superoperators. The equivalence checking between two processes boils down to the equivalence checking between superoperators, which is accomplished by using the stabilizer simulation algorithm given by Aaronson and Gottesman [1]. Ardeshir-Larijani et al. have implemented their approach in an equivalence checker in Java and verified several quantum protocols from teleportation to secret sharing. However, they are not able to handle the BB84 quantum key distribution protocol because its correctness cannot be specified as an equivalence between interleavings. Our approach is based on ground bisimulation and keeps all the branching behaviour of a concurrent process. Our algorithm of checking ground bisimulations is influenced by the on-the-fly algorithm of Hennessy and Lin for value-passing CCS [20] and inspired by the probabilistic bisimulation checking algorithm of Baier et al. [4].

Kubota et al. [24] implemented a semi-automated tool to check a notion of symbolic bisimulations and used it to verify the equivalence of BB84 and another quantum key distribution protocol based on entanglement distillation [30]. There are two main differences between their work and ours. (1) Their tool is based on equational reasoning and thus requires a user to provide equations while our tool is fully automatic. (2) Their semantic interpretation of measurement is different and entails a kind of linear-time semantics for quantum processes that ignores the timepoints of the occurrences of probabilistic branches. However, we use a branching-time semantics. For instance, the occurrence of a measurement before or after a visible action is significant for our semantics but not for the semantics proposed in [24].

Besides equivalence checking, based on either superoperators or bisimulations as mentioned above, model-checking is another feasible approach to verify quantum protocols. For instance, Gay et al. developed the QMC model checker [19]. Feng et al. implemented the tool QPMC [16] to model check quantum programs and protocols. There are other approaches for verifying quantum systems. Abramsky and Coecke [2] proposed a categorical semantics for quantum protocols. Quantomatic [23] is a semi-automated tool based on graph rewriting. Ying [32] established the quantum Hoare logic, which has been implemented in a theorem

3 prover [26].

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The rest of the paper is structured as follows. In Section 2, we introduce the formal model of probabilistic labelled transition systems. In Section 3 we recall the syntax and semantics of the quantum process algebra qCCS. In Section 4 we present an algorithm for checking ground bisimulations. In Section 5 we report the implementation of the algorithm and some experimental results on verifying a few quantum communication protocols. Finally, we conclude in Section 6 and discuss some future work.

2 Preliminaries

We review the model of probabilistic labelled transition systems (pLTSs). Later on we will interpret the behaviour of quantum processes in terms of pLTSs because quantum measurements give rise to probability distributions naturally.

We begin with some notations. A (discrete) probability distribution over a set S is a function $\Delta: S \to [0,1]$ with $\sum_{s \in S} \Delta(s) = 1$; the support of such a Δ is the set $\lceil \Delta \rceil = \{s \in S \mid \Delta(s) > 0\}$. The point distribution \overline{s} assigns probability 1 to s and 0 to all other elements of S, so that $\lceil \overline{s} \rceil = \{s\}$. In this paper we only need to use distributions with finite support, and let Dist(S) denote the set of finite support distributions over S, ranged over by Δ, Θ etc. If $\sum_{k \in K} p_k = 1$ for some collection of $p_k \geq 0$, and the Δ_k are distributions, then so is $\sum_{k \in K} p_k \cdot \Delta_k$ with $(\sum_{k \in K} p_k \cdot \Delta_k)(s) = \sum_{k \in K} p_k \cdot \Delta_k(s)$.

▶ **Definition 1.** A probabilistic labelled transition system is a triple $\langle S, \mathsf{Act}, \to \rangle$, where S is a set of states, Act is a set of actions, and $\to \subseteq S \times \mathsf{Act} \times Dist(S)$ is the transition relation.

We often write $s \xrightarrow{\alpha} \Delta$ for $(s, \alpha, \Delta) \in \to$, and $s \xrightarrow{\alpha}$ for $\exists \Delta : s \xrightarrow{\alpha} \Delta$. In a pLTS actions are only performed by states, in that actions are given by relations from states to distributions. But in general we allow distributions over states to perform an action. For this purpose, we *lift* these relations so that they also apply to distributions [10].

▶ **Definition 2.** Let $\mathcal{R} \subseteq S \times Dist(S)$ be a relation from states to distributions in a pLTS. Then $\mathcal{R}^{\circ} \subseteq Dist(S) \times Dist(S)$ is the smallest relation that satisfies the two rules: (i) $s \mathcal{R} \ominus I$ implies $\overline{s} \mathcal{R}^{\circ} \ominus I$ (ii) $\Delta_i \mathcal{R}^{\circ} \ominus I$ for all $i \in I$ implies $(\sum_{i \in I} p_i \cdot \Delta_i) \mathcal{R}^{\circ} (\sum_{i \in I} p_i \cdot \Theta_i)$ for any $p_i \in [0,1]$ with $\sum_{i \in I} p_i = 1$, where I is a countable index set.

We apply this operation to the relations $\stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow}$ in the pLTS for $\alpha \in \mathsf{Act}_{\tau}$, where we also write $\stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow}$ for $(\stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow})^{\circ}$. Thus as source of a relation $\stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow}$ we now also allow distributions. But note that $\overline{s} \stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow} \Delta$ is more general than $s \stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow} \Delta$ because if $\overline{s} \stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow} \Delta$ then there is a collection of distributions Δ_i and probabilities p_i such that $s \stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow} \Delta_i$ for each $i \in I$ and $\Delta = \sum_{i \in I} p_i \cdot \Delta_i$ with $\sum_{i \in I} p_i = 1$.

Let $\mathcal{R} \subseteq S \times S$ be a relation between states. It induces a special relation $\hat{\mathcal{R}} \subseteq S \times Dist(S)$ between states and distributions by letting $\hat{\mathcal{R}} \stackrel{def}{=} \{(s,\bar{t}) \mid s \; \mathcal{R} \; t\}$. Then we can use Definition 2 to lift $\hat{\mathcal{R}}$ to be a relation $(\hat{\mathcal{R}})^{\circ}$ between distributions. For simplicity, we combine the above two lifting operations and directly write \mathcal{R}° for $(\hat{\mathcal{R}})^{\circ}$ in the sequel, with the intention that a relation between states can be lifted to a relation between distributions via a special application of Definition 2. In this particular case, it holds that $\Delta \; \mathcal{R}^{\circ} \; \Theta$ implies $\Theta \; (\mathcal{R}^{-1})^{\circ} \; \Delta$, where $s \; \mathcal{R} \; t$ iff $t \; \mathcal{R}^{-1} \; s$ for any $s, t \in S$. This way of lifting relations has elegant mathematical characterisations; see [11] for more details.

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qv(nil)
                                                                 qv(\tau.P)
                                                                                      qv(P)
                                qv(P)
        qv(c?x.P)
                                                               qv(c!e.P)
                                                                                      qv(P)
        qv(c?q.P)
                                qv(P) - \{q\}
                                                               qv(c!q.P)
                                                                                      qv(P) \cup \{q\}
                                qv(P) \cup \tilde{q}
        qv(\mathcal{E}[\tilde{q}].P)
                                                         qv(M[\tilde{q};x].P)
                                                                                      qv(P) \cup \tilde{q}
       qv(P+Q)
                                qv(P) \cup qv(Q)
                                                              qv(P \parallel Q)
                                                                                      qv(P) \cup qv(Q)
          qv(P[f])
                                qv(P)
                                                                qv(P \backslash L)
                                                                                      qv(P)
qv(\mathbf{if}\ b\ \mathbf{then}\ P)
                                qv(P)
                                                             qv(A(\tilde{q}; \tilde{x}))
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Figure 1 Free quantum variables

3 Quantum CCS

We introduce a quantum extension of classical CCS (qCCS) which was originally studied in [13, 31, 15]. Three types of data are considered in qCCS: as classical data we have Bool for booleans and Real for real numbers, and as quantum data we have Qbt for qubits. Consequently, two countably infinite sets of variables are assumed: cVar for classical variables, ranged over by x, y, ..., and qVar for quantum variables, ranged over by q, r, We assume a set Exp, which includes cVar as a subset and is ranged over by e, e', ..., of classical data expressions over Real, and a set of boolean-valued expressions BExp, ranged over by b, b', ..., with the usual boolean constants true, false, and operators \neg , \land , \lor , and \rightarrow . In particular, we let $e \bowtie e'$ be a boolean expression for any $e, e' \in Exp$ and $\bowtie \in \{>, <, \ge, \le, =\}$. We further assume that only classical variables can occur freely in both data expressions and boolean expressions. Two types of channels are used: cChan for classical channels, ranged over by c, d, ..., and qChan for quantum channels, ranged over by c, d, A relabelling function f is a map on $cChan \cup qChan$ such that $f(cChan) \subseteq cChan$ and $f(qChan) \subseteq qChan$. Sometimes we abbreviate a sequence of distinct variables $q_1, ..., q_n$ into \tilde{q} .

The terms in qCCS are given by:

where f is a relabelling function and $L \subseteq cChan \cup qChan$ is a set of channels. Most of the constructors are standard as in CCS [27]. We briefly explain a few new constructors. The process $\underline{c}?q.P$ receives a quantum datum along quantum channel \underline{c} and evolves into P, while $\underline{c}!q.P$ sends out a quantum datum along quantum channel \underline{c} before evolving into P. The symbol \mathcal{E} represents a trace-preserving super-operator applied on the systems \tilde{q} . The process $M[\tilde{q};x].P$ measures the state of qubits \tilde{q} according to the observable M and stores the measurement outcome into the classical variable x of P.

Free classical variables can be defined in the usual way, except for the fact that the variable x in the quantum measurement $M[\tilde{q};x]$ is bound. A process P is closed if it contains no free classical variable, i.e. $fv(P) = \emptyset$.

The set of free quantum variables for process P, denoted by qv(P) can be inductively defined as in Figure 1. For a process to be legal, we require that

- 1. $q \notin qv(P)$ in the process $\underline{c}!q.P$;
- **2.** $qv(P) \cap qv(Q) = \emptyset$ in the process $P \mid\mid Q$;
- **3.** Each constant $A(\tilde{q}; \tilde{x})$ has a defining equation $A(\tilde{q}; \tilde{x}) := P$, where P is a term with $qv(P) \subseteq \tilde{q}$ and $fv(P) \subseteq \tilde{x}$.

The first condition says that a quantum system will not be referenced after it has been sent out. This is a requirement of the quantum no-cloning theorem. The second condition says

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$$\begin{array}{c} (C-Inp) \\ (C-Outp) \\ (C-Outp) \\ (C-Outp) \\ (C-Inp) \\ (Int) \\ ($$

Figure 2 Operational semantics of qCCS. Here in rule (C-Outp), $[\![e]\!]$ is the evaluation of e, and in rule (Meas), $E^i_{\tilde{q}}$ denotes the operator E^i acting on the quantum systems \tilde{q} .

that parallel composition || models separate parties that never reference a quantum system simultaneously.

Throughout the paper we implicitly assume the convention that processes are identified up to α -conversion, bound variables differ from each other and they are different from free variables.

We now give the semantics of qCCS. For each quantum variable q we assume a 2-dimensional Hilbert space \mathcal{H}_q . For any nonempty subset $S \subseteq qVar$ we write \mathcal{H}_S for the tensor product space $\bigotimes_{q \in S} \mathcal{H}_q$ and $\mathcal{H}_{\overline{S}}$ for $\bigotimes_{q \notin S} \mathcal{H}_q$. In particular, $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_{qVar}$ is the state space of the whole environment consisting of all the quantum variables, which is a countably infinite dimensional Hilbert space.

Let P be a closed quantum process and ρ a density operator on \mathcal{H} , the pair $\langle P, \rho \rangle$ is called a *configuration*. We write Con for the set of all configurations, ranged over by \mathcal{C} and \mathcal{D} . We interpret qCCS with a pLTS whose states are all the configurations definable in the language, and whose transitions are determined by the rules in Figure 2; we have omitted the obvious symmetric counterparts to the rules (C-Com), (Q-Com), (Int) and (Sum). The set

As \mathcal{H} is infinite dimensional, ρ should be understood as a density operator on some finite dimensional subspace of \mathcal{H} which contains $\mathcal{H}_{qv(P)}$.

of actions Act takes the following form, consisting of classical/quantum input/output actions.

$$\{c?v, c!v \mid c \in cChan, v \in \text{Real}\} \cup \{c?r, c!r \mid c \in qChan, r \in qVar\}$$

We use $cn(\alpha)$ for the set of channel names in action α . For example, we have $cn(\underline{c}?x) = \{\underline{c}\}$ and $cn(\tau) = \emptyset$.

In the first eight rules in Figure 2, the targets of arrows are point distributions, and we use the slightly abbreviated form $\mathcal{C} \xrightarrow{\alpha} \mathcal{C}'$ to mean $\mathcal{C} \xrightarrow{\alpha} \overline{\mathcal{C}'}$.

The rules use the obvious extension of the function || on terms to configurations and distributions. To be precise, $\mathcal{C} || P$ is the configuration $\langle Q || P, \rho \rangle$ where $\mathcal{C} = \langle Q, \rho \rangle$, and $\Delta || P$ is the distribution defined by:

$$(\Delta \mid\mid P)(\langle Q, \rho \rangle) \stackrel{def}{=} \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \Delta(\langle Q', \rho \rangle) & \text{if } Q = Q' \mid\mid P \text{ for some } Q' \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{array} \right.$$

Similar extension applies to $\Delta[f]$ and ΔL .

▶ **Definition 3** ([12]). A relation $\mathcal{R} \subseteq Con \times Con$ is a ground simulation if $\mathcal{C} \mathcal{R} \mathcal{D}$ implies that $qv(\mathcal{C}) = qv(\mathcal{D})$, $env(\mathcal{C}) = env(\mathcal{D})$, and

whenever $\mathcal{C} \xrightarrow{\alpha} \Delta$, there is some distribution Θ with $\mathcal{D} \stackrel{\hat{\alpha}}{\Longrightarrow} \Theta$ and $\Delta \mathcal{R}^{\circ} \Theta$.

A relation \mathcal{R} is a ground bisimulation if both \mathcal{R} and \mathcal{R}^{-1} are ground simulations. We denote by \sim the largest ground bisimulation, called ground bisimilarity.

4 Algorithm

In this section, we present an on-the-fly algorithm to check if two configurations are ground bisimilar. For convenience, we will only consider pLTSs with finite tree structures. On the one hand, this makes the algorithm easier to describe and analyse. On the other hand, our main motivation of this work is to verify quantum communication protocols and, to the best of our knowledge, almost all of them can be specified by qCCS processes without recursion. Other verification tools such as those in [24, 3] also adop this design choice; they disallow recursion in their modelling language. Modifying the algorithm to deal with pLTSs with loops is possible, with an increased (but still polynomial) time complexity.

In Algorithm 1, the main function is $\mathbf{Bisim}(t,u)$. It initializes the start state pair (t,u), the set W for visited state pairs, which is empty initially, and then searches for a bisimulation based on that initialization. The algorithm keeps updating two sets: the above mentioned W and the set N for non-bisimilar state pairs. The function $\mathbf{Match}(t,u,W)$ invokes a depth-first traversal to match a pair of states (t,u) with all their possible behaviors. There are three possibilities that two states are deemed be non-bisimilar: (1) one state has a transition that the other cannot match, (2) they do have have the same set of free quantum variables, or (3) the density operators corresponding to their quantum registers are different. If one of the three cases takes places, we add the state pair into N.

An auxiliary function $\mathbf{Act}(t,u)$ is called in \mathbf{Match} to discover the next action that both t and u can perform. If the two states have no more action to do then the function returns an empty set. If only one of them has no more action to do then the two states are immediately declared to be non-bisimilar.

The other set W is updated in function $\mathbf{MatchAction}(\gamma, t, u, W)$. This function discovers next pairs or states or distributions, depending on the type of transitions, and recursively invokes the function \mathbf{Match} or $\mathbf{MatchDistribution}$. The current state pair is added to W when the new functions are invoked.

Algorithm 1 Bisim(t,u)

Require: A pair of initial states for matching t,u.

Ensure: A boolean value θ showing if two pLTSs are bisimilar, a set of non-bisimilar state pairs N and a set of bisimilar state pairs B.

```
1: function \mathbf{Bisim}(t, u)
 2:
             return Match(t, u, W)
 3:
                                                                                                                    \triangleright t = \langle P, \rho \rangle \ and \ u = \langle Q, \sigma \rangle
 4: function Match(t, u, W)
            if t, u \in W then
 5:
 6:
                   \theta := \mathsf{tt}
             else
 7:
                   for \gamma \in Act(t, u) do
 8:
                         (\theta_{\gamma}, N_{\gamma}, B_{\gamma}) := \mathbf{MatchAction}(\gamma, t, u, W)
 9:
                   \theta := \bigwedge_{\gamma} \theta_{\gamma} \wedge qv(P) = qv(Q) \wedge tr_{\overline{qv(P)}}(\rho) = tr_{\overline{qv(P)}}(\sigma)
10:
                   N = \bigcup_{\gamma} N_{\gamma}
11:
                   B = \bigcup_{\gamma} B_{\gamma}
12:
                   if \theta = ff then N := N \cup \{(t, u)\}
13:
                   else if \theta = \text{tt then } B := B \cup \{(t, u)\}
14:
             return (\theta, N, B)
15:
16:
17: function MatchAction(\gamma, t, u, W)
18:
             switch \gamma do
                   case c!
19:
                         for t \xrightarrow{c!e_i} t_i do
20:
                               for u \xrightarrow{c!e'_j} u_i do
21:
                                      (\theta_{ij}, N_{ij}, B_{ij}) := \mathbf{Match}(t_i, u_j, W \cup \{(t, u)\})
22:
                         return (\bigwedge_i (\bigvee_i (\theta_{ij} \land e_i = e'_i)) \land \bigwedge_i (\bigvee_i (\theta_{ij} \land e_i = e'_i)), \bigcup_{ij} N_{ij}, \bigcup_{ij} B_{ij})
23:
24:
                   case \tau
                         for t \xrightarrow{\tau} \Delta_i do
25:
                               for u \xrightarrow{\tau} \Theta_i do
26:
                                     (\theta_{ij}, N_{ij}, B_{ij}) := \mathbf{MatchDistribution}(\Delta_i, \Theta_j, W \cup \{(t, u)\})
27:
                         return (\bigwedge_i (\bigvee_j \theta_{ij}) \land \bigwedge_j (\bigvee_i \theta_{ij}), \bigcup_{ij} N_{ij}, \bigcup_{ij} B_{ij})
28:
                   otherwise
29:
                         for t \xrightarrow{\gamma} t_i do
30:
                               for u \xrightarrow{\gamma} u_i do
31:
                                     (\theta_{ij}, N_{ij}, B_{ij}) := \mathbf{Match}(t_i, u_j, W \cup \{(t, u)\})
32:
                         return (\bigwedge_i (\bigvee_j \theta_{ij}) \land \bigwedge_j (\bigvee_i \theta_{ij}), \bigcup_{ij} N_{ij}, \bigcup_{ij} B_{ij})
33:
34:
      function MatchDistribution(\Delta, \Theta, W)
35:
             for t_i \in [\Delta] and u_i \in [\Theta] do
36:
                   (\theta_{ij}, N_{ij}, B_{ij}) := \mathbf{Match}(t_i, u_j, W)
37:
             R := \{(t_i, u_j) | (t_i, u_j) \notin \bigcup_{ij} N_{ij}\}^*
38:
             return (Check(\Delta,\Theta,R) \wedge \bigvee_{ij} \theta_{ij}, \bigcup_{ij} N_{ij}, \bigcup_{ij} B_{ij})
39:
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The function $\operatorname{MatchDistribution}(\Delta, \Theta, R)$ is called if we need to compare a pair of state distributions instead of a single pair of states. It returns a boolean value indicating whether the distributions are equivalent. In order to do so, it compares each pair of states from the supports of the two distributions. After checking the bisimilarity of these state pairs, the function generates an equivalence relation of the state pairs not contained in the set N for non-bisimilar state pairs. Another auxiliary function $\operatorname{Check}(\Delta, \Theta, R)$ is used to check whether Δ and Θ are related by the lifted relation R° . Technically, we take advantage of a nice property of the lifting operation: $\Delta R^{\circ} \Theta$ if and only if the maximum flow in an appropriately constructed network is 1 [4, 11]. There are standard algorithms for computing the maximum flow in a network; see e.g. [8]. Besides the lifting condition, we check the disjunction of the returning boolean values from function Match.

Now let us prove the termination and correctness of the algorithm.

▶ **Theorem 4** (Termination). Given two states t and u from two loop-free pLTSs, Bisim(t,u) always terminates.

Proof. In the absence of loops in the pLTSs, the termination of the algorithm is easy to see. Starting from the initial pair of states, the next action to perform will be detected in function **Match**. Then it invokes function **MatchAction** to find the next new pair of states and recursively call function **Match** to check them. Each time function **MatchAction** calls function **Match** it adds the current state pair into W at the same time. If we reach the leaf nodes, there is no more action, we only compare the quantum variables used and the state of quantum registers. After that, the function terminates, so do the calls to the other functions. Moreover, if there still exists actions enabled in one pLTS but not in the other, then the two pLTSs are not bisimilar and then the whole algorithm terminates.

Theorem 5 (Correctness). Given two states t and u from two pLTSs, Bisim(t, u) returns true if and only if they are ground bisimilar.

Proof. The proof of the correctness is similar to that in [20]. Since our algorithm is not symbolic, our treatment of boolean constraints is easier. On the other hand, we need to deal with probability distributions and have an extra procedure **MatchDistribution** to check if two distributions are related by a lifted relation. The detailed proof is provided in Appendix A.

At the end of this section, we analyse the time complexity of the algorithm.

Theorem 6 (Complexity). Let the number of nodes reachable from t and u is n. The time complexity of function Bisim(t,u) is $O(n^5/\log n)$.

Proof. The number of state pairs is at most n^2 . When a state pair (t, u) is examined, each transition of t is compared with all transitions of u with the same action. Since the pLTSs are assumed to be finite trees, the number of comparisons of transitions does not exceed some constant, say k. Each comparison may call the function **Check** at most once, which requires time $O(n^3/\log n)$ if we use the maximum network flow algorithm in [8]. As a result, the execution time of $\mathbf{Bisim}(t, u)$ is in $O(n^5/\log n)$.

5 Implementation and Experiments

In this section, we report on an implementation of our approach and provide the experimental results of verifying several quantum communication protocols.

5.1 Implementation

We have implemented a ground bisimulation checker based on Algorithm 1 in Python 3.7. The workflow of our tool is sketched in Figure 3. The tool consists of a pLTS generation module and a bisimulation checking module, devoted to modeling and verification, respectively. The input of this tool is a specification and an implementation of a quantum protocl, both described as qCCS processes, the definition of user-defined quantum gates as matrices, as well as an initialisation of classical and quantum variables. Unlike classical variables, the initialisation of all quantum variables, deemed as a quantum register, is accomplished at the same time so to allow for superposition states. The final output of the tool is a result indicating whether the specification and the implementation, under the same initial states, are bisimilar, together with a set of bisimilar state pairs and a set of non-bisimilar state pairs.

The pLTS generation module acts as a preprocessing unit before the verification task. It first translates the input qCCS processes into two abstract syntax trees (ASTs) by a parser. Then the ASTs are transformed into two pLTSs according to the operational semantics given in Figure 2, using the user-defined gates and the initial values of variables. The bisimulation checking module implements the ground bisimilarity checking algorithm we defined in the last section. It checks whether the initial states of the two generated pLTSs are bisimilar.

The tool is available from https://github.com/MartianQXD/QBisim. It has already prepared codes of the examples we used in directories examples.

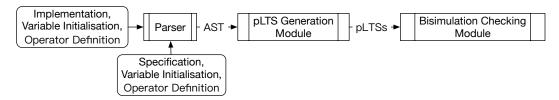


Figure 3 Verification workflow.

5.2 Example: BB84 Quantum Key Distribution Protocol

In this section we formalise the BB84 Quantum Key Distribution Protocol. Our formalisation follows [12], where a manual analysis of the protocol is provided. Now we use our ground bisimulation checker to perform automatic verification. More examples are given in Appendix B.

BB84 is the first quantum key distribution protocol developed by Bennett and Brassard in 1984 [5]. It provides a provably secure way to create a private key between two partners with a classical authenticated channel and a quantum insecure channel between them. The protocol does not make use of entangled states. It ensures its security through the basic property of quantum mechanics: if the states to be distinguished are not orthogonal, such as $|0\rangle$ and $|+\rangle$, then information gain about a quantum state is only possible at the expense of changing the state. Let the sender and the receiver be *Alice* and *Bob*, respectively. The basic BB84 protocol with a sequence of qubits \tilde{q} with size n goes as follows:

- (1) Alice randomly generates two sequences of bits \tilde{B}_a and \tilde{K}_a using her qubits \tilde{q} .
- (2) Alice prepares the state of \tilde{q} , such that the *i*th bits of \tilde{q} is $|x_y\rangle$ where x and y are the *i*th bits of \tilde{B}_a and \tilde{K}_a , and respectively, $|0_0\rangle = |0\rangle$, $|0_1\rangle = |1\rangle$, $|1_0\rangle = |+\rangle = (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$ and $|1_1\rangle = |-\rangle = (|0\rangle |1\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$.
- (3) Alice sends her qubits \tilde{q} to Bob.

Program	Variables	Bisim	Impl	Spec	N	В	Sec
Super-dense coding 1	$q_1 = 0\rangle$ $q_2 = 0\rangle$ $x = 1$	Yes	15	15	0	11	11
Super-dense coding 2	$q_1 = 0\rangle$ $q_2 = 0\rangle$ $x = 5$	No	5	12	-	-	0.2
Super-dense coding (modified)	$q_1 = 0\rangle$ $q_2 = 0\rangle$ $x = 5$	Yes	15	15	0	11	11
Teleportation 1	$q_1 = 1\rangle$ $q_2 = 0\rangle$ $q_3 = 0\rangle$	Yes	33	15	0	22	19
Teleportation 2	$q_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} 0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} 1\rangle$ $q_2 = 0\rangle$ $q_3 = 0\rangle$	Yes	33	15	0	22	19
Teleportation 3	$q_1 = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} 0\rangle + \frac{1}{2} 1\rangle$ $q_2 = 0\rangle$ $q_3 = 0\rangle$	Yes	33	15	0	22	19
Secret Sharing 1	$q_1 = 1\rangle$ $q_2 = 0\rangle$ $q_3 = 0\rangle$ $q_4 = 0\rangle$	Yes	102	26	0	65	62
Secret Sharing 2	$q_4 = 0\rangle$ $q_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} 0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} 1\rangle$ $q_2 = 0\rangle$ $q_3 = 0\rangle$ $q_4 = 0\rangle$	Yes	102	26	0	65	66
Secret Sharing 3	$q_1 = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} 0\rangle + \frac{1}{2} 1\rangle$ $q_2 = 0\rangle$ $q_3 = 0\rangle$ $q_4 = 0\rangle$	Yes	102	26	0	65	58
BB84	$q1 = 0\rangle$ $q2 = 0\rangle$	Yes	151	131	304	414	1371
BB84 (with eavesdropper)	$q1 = 0\rangle$ $q2 = 0\rangle$ $q3 = 0\rangle$	No	1243	763	-	-	56367
BB84 (with eavesdropper & modified)	$q1 = 0\rangle$ $q2 = 0\rangle$ $q3 = 0\rangle$	Yes	1179	779	17272	12294	1585740

Table 1 Experimental Results. The columns headed by **Impl** and **Spec** show the numbers of nodes contained in the generated pLTSs of the implementations and specifications. Column N shows the sizes of the sets of non-bisimilar state pairs and Column B shows the sizes of the sets of bisimilar state pairs. Column **Sec** shows the time cost of the verification in milliseconds.

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- (4) Bob randomly generates a sequence of bits \tilde{B}_b using his qubits \tilde{q}' .
- (5) Bob measures the ith qubit of \tilde{q} he received from Alice according to the basis determined 307 by the ith bit of B_b . Respectively, the basis is $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ if it is 0 and $\{|+\rangle, |-\rangle\}$ if it is 1. 308
- (6) Bob sends his choice of measurements \tilde{B}_b to Alice, and after receiving the information, Alice sends her B_a to Bob. 310
- (7) Alice and Bob match two sequences of bits \tilde{B}_a and \tilde{B}_b to determine at which positions 311 the bits are equal. If the bits match, they keep the corresponding bits of K_a and K_b . 312 Otherwise, they discard them. 313

After the execution the basic BB84 protocol, the remaining bits of \tilde{K}_a and \tilde{K}_b should be the same, provided that the communication channels are prefect and there is no eavesdropper.

Then we consider the case that there exists an eavesdropper called Eve taking part in the communication. Alice and Bob also have more behaviours to detect Eve. In the BB84 protocol with eavesdropper, let \tilde{K}'_a and \tilde{K}'_b to be the remaining bits of \tilde{K}_a and \tilde{K}_b with size k, Eve, Alice and Bob proceed as follows:

- (1) Alice randomly chooses $\lceil k/2 \rceil$ bits of \tilde{K}'_a , denoted by \tilde{K}''_a and sends it to Bob together with the indexes of the chosen bits.
- (2) After receiving the information from Alice, Bob chooses $\lceil k/2 \rceil$ bits of \tilde{K}'_b according to 322 the indexes he received, denoted by $\tilde{K''}_b$ and sends it back to Alice. 323
- (3) Alice and Bob match two sequences of bits \tilde{K}''_a and \tilde{K}''_b . If two sequences match, then they have not detected the eavesdropper and the remaining substring of $\tilde{K'}_a$ and $\tilde{K'}_b$ 325 are used as the secure key. Otherwise, they detect Eve and the protocol halts without 326 generating any secure keys.

Implementation. The program we written here only contains one qubit instead of a sequence of qubits, however, it is enough to reflect all the cases could occur. The other qubits used here are auxiliary qubits for Ran operation.

```
Alice \stackrel{def}{=} Ran[q_1; B_a].Ran[q_1; K_a].Set_{K_a}[q_1].H_{B_a}[q_1].\underline{A2B}!q_1.
331
                                              b2a?B_b.a2b!B_a.key_a!cmp(K_a, B_a, B_b).nil;
332
              Bob \stackrel{def}{=} \underline{A2B}?q_1.Ran[q_2; B_b].M_{B_b}[q_1; K_b].b2a!B_b.
333
                                              a2b?B_a.key_b!cmp(K_b, B_a, B_b).nil;
           BB84 \stackrel{def}{=} (Alice||Bob) \setminus \{a2b, b2a, A2B\}
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```

where there are several special operations:

- $Ran[q;x] = Set_+[q].M_{0,1}[q;x].Set_0[q],$ where Set_+ (resp. Set_0) is the operation which 338 sets a qubit it applies on to $|+\rangle$ (resp. $|0\rangle$), $M_{0,1}[q;x]$ is the quantum measurement on q 339 according to the basis $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ and stores the result into x. 340
- $Set_K[q]$ sets the qubit q to the state $|K\rangle$. 341
- $H_B[q]$ applies H or does nothing on the qubit q depending on whether the value of B is 1 342
- $M_B[q;K]$ is the quantum measurement on q according to the basis $\{|+\rangle,|-\rangle\}$ or $\{|0\rangle,|1\rangle\}$ 344 depending on whether the value of B is 1 or 0. 345
 - cmp(x,y,z) returns x if y and z match, and ϵ , meaning it is empty, if they do not match.

Specification. Its specification can be defined as follows using the same operations:

```
BB84_{spec} \stackrel{def}{=} Ran[q_1; B_a].Ran[q_1; K_a].Ran[q_2; B_b]
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                                               .(key_a!cmp(K_a, B_a, B_b).nil||cmp(K_a, B_a, B_b).nil).
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Inputs. For the implementation, we need declare following variables and operators in the input together with the qCCS program.

- The classical bits are named B_a , K_a for Alice and B_b , K_b for Bob.
- The qubits are declared together as a vector $|q_1, q_2\rangle$. It always need a initial value, we can set it to be $|00\rangle$ in this example.
- There are some functions in the protocol composed by several operators. All these operators require declarations in the input.
- The operator Ran here is composed by two operators Set_+ , Set_0 and a measurement $M_{0,1}$.
- = Set_K needs Set_0 and Set_1 .
- $= H_B$ needs Hadamard gate \mathcal{H} .
- M_B needs one more kind of measurement $M_{+,-}$
- The function cmp is treated as an internal function which has already been declared, so it is not declared in the inputs.
 - For the specification, we only declare the classical bits B_a , B_b , K_a , qubits q_1 , q_2 and the operators for Ran. The variables and operators declared here are the same as those in the input of the implementation.
- The generated pLTSs are too large to present, we do not illustrate it here, so do the sets of non-bisimilar and bisimilar state pairs.
 - As we can see from the third last row in Table 1, our tool confirms that $BB84 \sim BB84_{spec}$, thus the implementation is faithful to the specification.
 - Then we proceed to describe the protocol with an eavesdropper.
- Implementation with an Eavesdropper. We extend the processes *Alice* and *Bob* with a process for eavesdropper detection.

```
Alice' \stackrel{def}{=} key_a?K'_a.Pstr_{K'_a}[q_1;x].a2b!x.a2b!SubStr(K'_a,x).b2a?K''_b.
(\textbf{if } SubStr(K'_a,x) = K''_b \textbf{ then } key'_a!RemStr(K'_a,x).\textbf{nil}
else \ alarm_a!0.\textbf{nil});
Bob' \stackrel{def}{=} key_b?K'_b.a2b?x.a2b?K''_a.b2a!SubStr(K'_b,x).
(\textbf{if } SubStr(K'_b,x) = K''_a \textbf{ then } key'_b!RemStr(K'_b,x).\textbf{nil}
else \ alarm_b!0.\textbf{nil})
```

where there are three more special operations:

- Pstr is a measurement which is similar to Ran, randomly generates the value of x.
- SubStr(K,x) returns the substring of K at the index specified by x.
- = RemStr(K, x) returns the remaining substring of K by deleting SubStr(K, x).
- After that, we give the definition of the eavesdropper:

$$Eve \stackrel{def}{=} \underline{A2E}?q_1.Ran[q_3; B_e].M_{B_e}[q_1; K_e].Set_{K_e}[q_1].H_{B_e}[q_1].\underline{E2B}!q_1.key_e!K_e.\mathbf{nil}.$$

With the participation of Eve, we adjust the communication of Alice and Bob:

$$Alice \longrightarrow Alice[f_a], Bob \longrightarrow Bob[f_b]$$

where $f_a(\underline{A2B}) = \underline{A2E}$, and $f_b(\underline{A2B}) = \underline{E2B}$.

We use a test process to conclude the final result:

```
Test \stackrel{def}{=} key'_a?x.key'_b?y.key'_e?z.

(if x \neq y then fail!0.nil

+ if x = y then key_e!z.skey!x.nil);

BB84' \stackrel{def}{=} (Alice||Bob||Alice'||Bob'||Eve||Test) \setminus C

where C = \{a2b, b2a, key_a, key_b, \underline{A2E}, \underline{E2B}, alarm_a, alarm_b\}.
```

⁴⁰⁰ **Specification with an Eavesdropper.** The specification of that can be defined as:

```
BB84'_{spec} \stackrel{def}{=} Ran[q_1; B_a].Ran[q_1; K_a].Ran[q_3; B_e].Ran'_{B_a, B_e, K_a}[q_1; K_e].Ran[q_2; K_b].
Ran'_{B_e, B_b, K_e}[q_1; K_b].Pstr[q_1; x].
(if K_{ab} = K_{ba} then key_e!K_e.skey!RemStr(K_{ab}, x).nil
+ if K_{ab} \neq K_{ba} then
(if K_{ab}^x \neq K_{ba}^x then alarm_a!0.nil||alarm_b!0.nil
+ if K_{ab}^x = K_{ba}^x then fail!0.nil))
```

where $K_{ab} = cmp(K_a, B_a, B_b)$, $K_{ba} = cmp(K_b, B_a, B_b)$, $K_{ab}^x = SubStr(K_{ab}, x)$, $K_{ab}^x = SubStr(K_{ab}, x)$. And similar to Ran, $Ran'_{x,y,z}[q;v]$ is a special measurement that randomly generates the value of v if x and y do not match and give v the value of z if they match.

More Inputs. For the implementation, we need declare more variables in the inputs as there are more roles attending in the communication.

- The classical bits named K'_a , K''_a for *Alice* are used for storing the result of processing the sequence. The K'_b , K''_b for *Bob* do the same work.
- The classical bits for Eve are named B_e and K_e .

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- The classical bits named x, y, z are declared to store the remaining string.
- The qubits declared together now are extended into a longer vector $|q_1, q_2, q_3\rangle$. We set it to be $|000\rangle$ in this example.
- Similar with function cmp, SubStr and RemStr are already declared inside of the tool.
- For the specification, we do not declare the bits K'_a , K''_a , K''_b , K''_b , we declare K_{ab} , K_{ba} , K^x_{ab} and K^x_{ba} instead. Certainly, we still need declare B_e and K_e .
 - We see from the second last row in Table 1 that in this case our tool gives a negative verification result, i.e. $BB84' \not\sim BB84'_{spec}$. In other words, the implemention BB84' is unsatisfactory. Some modification is needed to make it behave the same as the specification.

Improved BB84 Protocol with an Eavesdropper. After carefully examining the behaviour of the process BB84', we find that the problem lies in the operation alarm. It is not included in Test and the implementation has more behaviours than what the specification requires.

We fix the bug by adding a message communication with Test and thus obtain the following

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refined version of implementation:

```
Alice' \stackrel{def}{=} key_a?K'_a.Pstr_{K'_a}[q_1;x].a2b!x.a2b!SubStr(K'_a,x).b2a?K''_b.
430
                     (if SubStr(K'_a, x) = K''_b then key'_a!RemStr(K'_a, x).nil
431
                     else msg_a!0.nil);
432
           Bob' \stackrel{def}{=} key_b?K'_h.a2b?x.a2b?K''_g.b2a!SubStr(K'_h,x).
433
                     (if SubStr(K_b', x) = K_a'' then key_b'!RemStr(K_b', x).nil
434
                     else msq_b!0.nil);
435
          Test \stackrel{def}{=} key'_a?x.key'_b?y.key'_e?z.
436
                     (if x \neq y then fail!0.nil + if <math>x = y then key_e!z.skey!x.nil)
437
                      + msg_a?x.msg_b?y.key'_e?z.alarm!0.nil.
438
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```

The last row in Table 1 tells us that the above modification of the implementation is indeed correct.

5.3 Experimental Results

We conducted experiments on four quantum communication protocols and a few variants of them. Table 1 provides a summary of our experimental results obtained on a macOS machine with an Intel Core if 2.5 GHz processor and 16GB of RAM. In each case, we report the final outcome (whether an implementation is equivalent to its specification), the number of nodes in two pLTSs, the numbers of non-bisimilar and bisimilar state pairs in N and B, repectively, as well as the verification time of our ground bisimulation checking algorithm (excluding the pLTS generation part).

Another example whose outcome is non-bisimilarity is on the second last line in Table 1, which is the naive BB84 protocol with an eavesdropper. Alice and Bob will declare an alarm if their measurement methods are not matched. The parallelism between the final test process and them leads to a process that continues exhibiting undesirable actions. This is not what the specification exactly describes. To improve the implementation, we move the delaration of alarms to the test process. Alice and Bob only send messages when they find that they use different measurements. As shown in the last line of the table, we modified implementation is bisimilar to the specification.

Not all the cases in Table 1 give the size of the set N of non-bisimilar states pairs, as the bisimulation checking algorithm may immediately terminate once a negative verification result is obtained, i.e. the two initial states are not bisimilar.

6 Conclusion and Future Work

We have presented an on-the-fly algorithm to check ground bisimulation for quantum processes in qCCS. Based on the algorithm, we have developed a tool to verify quantum communication protocols modelled as qCCS processes without recursion. To show its performance, we have carried out experiments on several quantum communication protocols from super-dense coding to key distribution.

As to future work, a couple of interesting problems remain to be addressed. For example, the behavioural equivalence considered in the current work is a strong notion of ground bisimulation because all actions are visible. In practical verifications, it is common to introduce invisible actions in implementations. Then it is more appropriate to equate

an implementation with a specification with respect to a weak notion of bisimulation that abstracts away invisible actions. Another problem with the current work to compare quantum 472 processes with predetermined states of quantum registers. However, there are occasions 473 where one would expect two processes to be equivalent for arbitrary initial states. It is infeasible to enumerate all those states. Then the symbolic bisimulations proposed in [14] will 475 be useful. We are considering to implement the algorithm for symbolic ground bisimulation, 476 and then tackle the more challenging symbolic open bisimulation, both proposed in that 477 work. 478

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Correctness of Algorithm 1

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In this section we give a detailed proof of the correctness of the algorithm. To simplify the presentation, we use R(t, u, W, N) to mean the following condition is satisfied: 557

```
If (t', u') \notin N \wedge t' \xrightarrow{\alpha} t'' \wedge u' \xrightarrow{\alpha'} u'', (t', u') \notin \{(t, u)\} \cup W \wedge:
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- $if \alpha \equiv c!e \wedge \alpha' \equiv c!e' \text{ with } e = e', \text{ then } (t'', u'') \notin W \wedge (t'', u'') \notin N \implies t'' \sim u''.$
- \blacksquare let $t'' \equiv \Delta'$ and $u'' \equiv \Theta'$, if $\alpha \equiv \tau \wedge \alpha' \equiv \tau$, then $\exists t_i' \in \lceil \Delta' \rceil, u_i' \in \lceil \Theta' \rceil, (t_i', u_i') \notin \Delta'$ 560 $W \wedge (t_i', u_j') \notin N \implies t_i' \sim u_j'.$ otherwise $\alpha = \alpha'$, then $(t'', u'') \notin W \wedge (t'', u'') \notin N \implies t'' \sim u''.$ 561
- ▶ Lemma 7. If $N_1 \cap N_2 = \emptyset$ then $R(t, u, W, N_1)$ and $R(t, u, W, N_2)$ implies $R(t, u, W, N_1 \cup N_2)$.
- **Proof.** Straightforward from the definition of R.
- We define the verification conditions of our three matching functions. 565
- **Definition 8.** Match(t, u, W) is true if the following conditions ar satisfied:

```
(C1) W \cap N = \emptyset and
          = if (t, u) \in W, then (t, u) \notin N,
          = if(t,u) \notin W, then either \theta = true \land (t,u) \notin N or \theta = false \land (t,u) \in N.
          (C2) R(t, u, W, N).
     Let \mathbf{Bisim}(t, u) = \mathbf{Match}(t, u, \emptyset).
      ▶ Definition 9. MatchAction(\gamma, t, u, W) is true if all the following conditions are satisfied:
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          (M1) W \cap N = \emptyset, (t, u) \notin W and (t, u) \notin N.
          (M2) R(t, u, W, N).
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          (M3) \ \forall t \xrightarrow{\alpha} t', \exists u \xrightarrow{\alpha'} u', \ (t', u') \notin \{(t, u)\} \cup W \ and
575
          • if \alpha \equiv a (including c?x) then \alpha' \equiv a and (t', u') \notin W \land (t', u') \notin N \implies t' \sim u'.
          • if \alpha \equiv c!e then \alpha' \equiv c!e' with e = e' and (t', u') \notin W \land (t', u') \notin N \implies t' \sim u'.
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             let t' \equiv \Delta and u' \equiv \Theta, if \alpha \equiv \tau then \alpha' \equiv \tau, \forall t_i \in [\Delta], u_i \in [\Theta], (t_i, u_i) \notin
              W \wedge (t_i, u_j) \notin N \implies t_i \sim u_j.
      ▶ Definition 10. MatchDistribution(\Delta, \Theta, W) is true if the following conditions are
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         (D1) W \cap N = \emptyset, \forall t_i \in [\Delta], u_j \in [\Theta], (t_i, u_j) \notin W \text{ and } \exists (t_i, u_j) \notin N.
582
          (D2) Let t \xrightarrow{\alpha} \Delta, u \xrightarrow{\alpha'} \Theta, R(t, u, W, N).
583
      ▶ Proposition 11. Let MatchAction_{\gamma}(\gamma, t, u, W) is the execution of MatchAction with
     action \gamma. If MatchAction_{\gamma}(\gamma, t, u, W) is true for each action \gamma then Match(t, u, W) is
585
     also true, where it returns \theta = \bigwedge_{\gamma} \theta_{\gamma} and N = \bigcup_{\gamma} N_{\gamma}.
     Proof. The only time point that (t, u) is added into W is during the execution of MatchAc-
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     tion, then according to the Definition 9, we have W \cap N = \emptyset. Since the verified pLTS is a
588
     finite tree, if they reach the leaf states of the pLTSs, there should have \theta = true and N = \emptyset,
     at the same time it satisfies that (t,u) \notin W \land (t,u) \notin N. Furthermore, we have t \sim u in such
590
     case. According to the structure of the function, (t, u) will be added in to N if \theta is false.
591
     Overall, C1 is satisfied.
592
          From condition (M2) and (M3), R(t, u, W, N_{\gamma}) exists. According to Lemma 7, we have
593
     the condition that R(t, u, W, \bigcup_{\gamma} N_{\gamma}), it satisfies C2.
      ▶ Proposition 12. Suppose (t, u) \notin W. If Match(t_i, u_i, W \cup \{(t, u)\}) is true for all actions
595
     \gamma \neq \tau where exists transitions (t \xrightarrow{\gamma} t_i, u \xrightarrow{\gamma} u_i) or MatchDistribution(\Delta_i, \Theta_i, W \cup \{(t, u)\})
     is true for all actions \gamma = \tau where exists transitions (t \xrightarrow{\tau} \Delta_i, u \xrightarrow{\tau} \Theta_j) then
     MatchAction(\gamma, t, u, W \cup \{(t, u)\}) is true where \theta = \bigwedge_i (\bigvee_j \theta_{ij}) \land \bigwedge_j (\bigvee_i \theta_{ij}), N = \bigcup_i N_{ij}.
598
     Proof. From the structure of MatchAction, (t, u) does not exist in W, and (t, u) can not
     be added into N here. So the first condition is satisfied.
600
          To show (M2) and (M3), we first consider the case where (t_i, u_i) are already the leafs
601
     of the finite trees. If \theta_{ij} = qv(t_i) = qv(u_j) \wedge (tr_{\overline{qv(u_i)}}\rho_i) = tr_{\overline{qv(u_i)}}(\sigma_j) is true, we have
602
     (t_i, u_j) \notin N_{ij} and N_{ij} = \emptyset. So there is t_i \sim u_j.
          If it is not the leaf node, by (C2), we have R(t_i, u_j, \{(t, u)\} \cup W, N_{ij}). Since N = \bigcup_{ij} N_{ij},
604
     we get if actions match (t_i'', u_j'') \notin W \land (t_i'', u_j'') \notin N \implies t_i'' \sim u_j''. By definition of the
605
     bisimulation, (M3) is satisfied. So we also get if actions match (t'_i, u'_j) \notin W \land (t'_i, u'_j) \notin
     N \implies t_i' \sim u_j'. If \theta is true, as \theta = \bigwedge_i (\bigvee_j \theta_{ij}) \wedge \bigwedge_j (\bigvee_i \theta_{ij}), so there exists \theta_{ij} which is true,
607
     then there is (t_i, u_j) \notin N_{ij}. Similarly, by definition of the bisimulation, (M2) is also satisfied.
608
          The final case we need consider is the distribution (\Delta, \Theta) instead of a node. If \theta is true,
609
     then \theta_{ij} returned from Check should also be true. So there must exist Match returns true
610
     support the relation that (t_i, u_j) \notin N \implies t_i \sim u_j.
```

- Proposition 13. Suppose $\forall t_i \in [\Delta], u_j \in [\Theta], (t_i, u_j) \notin W$. If $Match(t_i, u_j, W)$ is true then $MatchDistribution(\Delta, \Theta, W)$ is true where Δ and Θ satisfy the condition for lifting condition, $\theta = Check(\Delta, \Theta, R) \land \bigvee_{ij} \theta_{ij}$ and $N = \bigcup_{ij} N_{ij}$.
- Proof. According to the verification conditions of March, as all the
- Match (t_i, u_j, W) have been finished before we get R and call Check. If $\Delta \sim \Theta$, then we have $(t_i, u_j) \notin N \implies t_i \sim u_j$.
- Proof of Theorem 5. From the verification condition of Match, we have that if Bisim $(t,u) = \text{Match}(t,u,\emptyset)$ returns (true,N), we guarantee the bisimilarity $t \sim u$.

B Examples

B.1 Super-dense Coding Protocol

Super-dense coding is proposed by Bennett and Wiesner in 1992 [7]. It is a quantum communication protocol allowing two classical bits to be encoded in one qubit during a transmission, so it needs only one quantum channel. Such advantage bases on the use of a maximally entangled state, EPR state. An EPR state can be transformed into all the four kinds of EPR states through an one-qubit operation, and these EPR states are mutually orthogonal.

Protocol. We suppose the sender and the receiver of the communication are *Alice* and *Bob*, then the protocol goes as follows:

- (1) Alice and Bob prepare an EPR state $|\beta_{00}\rangle_{q_1,q_2}$ together. Then they share the qubits, Alice holding q_1 and Bob holding q_2 .
- (2) If Alice wants to send value $x \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$, she applies the corresponding Pauli operation σ^x on her qubit q_1 .
- 634 (3) Alice sends the qubit q_1 to Bob.
- 635 (4) Bob applies a controlled-not operation on q_1, q_2 and a Hadamard operation on q_1 to remove the entanglement.
- (5) Bob measures q_1 and q_2 to get the value x.
- After the execution of the protocol above, Bob gets the value x which Alice wants to send.

 Considering x could be presented in a two-bit string, the protocol exactly transmits two
 classical bits of information by sending one qubit from Alice to Bob.
- Implementation. Now we design the program of super-dense coding protocol in qCCS as
 follows:

$$Alice \stackrel{def}{=} \underline{c}_{A}?q_{1}. \sum_{0 \leq i \leq 3} (\mathbf{if} \ x = i \ \mathbf{then} \ \sigma^{i}[q_{1}].\underline{e}!q_{1}.\mathbf{nil});$$

$$Bob \stackrel{def}{=} \underline{c}_{B}?q_{2}.\underline{e}?q_{1}.CN[q_{1},q_{2}].H[q_{1}].M[q_{1},q_{2};x].d!x.\mathbf{nil};$$

$$EPR \stackrel{def}{=} Set^{\Psi}[q_{1},q_{2}].\underline{c}_{B}!q_{2}.\underline{e}_{A}!q_{1}.\mathbf{nil};$$

$$Sdc \stackrel{def}{=} c?x.(Alice||Bob||EPR) \setminus \{\underline{c}_{A},\underline{c}_{B},\underline{e}\}$$

where CN is the controlled-not operation and H is the Hadamard operation, Set^{Ψ} is the operation transforming all the inputs into an EPR state $|\beta_{00}\rangle = (|00\rangle + |11\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$, its operation elements are $\{|\beta_{00}\rangle\langle 00|, |\beta_{00}\rangle\langle 01|, |\beta_{00}\rangle\langle 10|, |\beta_{00}\rangle\langle 11|\}$, and σ^i are Pauli operators where $\sigma^0 = I, \sigma^1 = X, \sigma^2 = Z, \sigma^3 = Y$. The element set of measurement M is $\{|00\rangle\langle 00|, |01\rangle\langle 01|, |10\rangle\langle 10|, |11\rangle\langle 11|\}$.

553 **Specification.** The specification of super-dense coding protocol can be defined as:

Sdc_{spec}
$$\stackrel{def}{=} c?x.\tau^{11}.\sum_{i=0}^{3} (\mathbf{if}\ x=i\ \mathbf{then}\ Set^{i}[q_1,q_2].d!x.\mathbf{nil})$$

where Set^i is the operation transforming the current state into the state decided by the value of i like Set^{Ψ} .

Inputs. Together with the program in qCCS, we also declare following variables and operators in the input of the implementation program.

The classical bit is named x. It stores the value Alice wants to send. We test the program with different value of x.

The qubits used are declared as a vector $|q_1, q_2\rangle$. They are used for generating the EPR state here, so we can choose arbitrary value indeed. Here we set them to $|00\rangle$.

The operation transforming arbitrary state into the EPR state is defined as Set^{Ψ} .

The controlled-not operation is defined as \mathcal{CN} .

The Hadamard operation is defined as \mathcal{H} .

The Pauli operations are defined as $\sigma^0, \sigma^1, \sigma^2, \sigma^3$ separately.

The measurement is defined as M with its elements.

Then for the specification program, we declare a set of variables and operators slightly different.

The classical bit named x storing the value Alice wants to send is still required.

The qubits used are declared as a vector $|q_1, q_2\rangle$, they can be set to arbitrary value. Here we set them to $|00\rangle$.

The operation transforming arbitrary state into $|00\rangle$ (resp. $|01\rangle$, $|10\rangle$, $|11\rangle$) is defined as Set^0 (resp. Set^1 , Set^2 , Set^3).

We see from the first two lines of the Table 1, not all the inputs can get a positive verification results. Although in the case x=1, we can check that protocol and its specification are bisimilar. In the case x=5, when none of the four branches is chosen, the tool found them non-bisimilar because of the different length of the trace. To correct it, some modifications are needed on both implementation and specification.

Improved Super-dense Coding Protocol. We improve the program through adding an extra solution for the value $i \neq 1, 2, 3, 4$. We send a message alarming we have encountered such case and skip all the rest operations. The new program of Sdc is:

$$Alice \stackrel{def}{=} \underline{c}_{A}?q_{1}.(\sum_{0 \leq i \leq 3} (\mathbf{if} \ x = i \ \mathbf{then} \ \sigma^{i}[q_{1}].\underline{e}!q_{1}.\mathbf{nil}) \\ + \mathbf{if} \neg \bigvee_{0 \leq i \leq 3} x = i \ \mathbf{then} \ c_{C}!msg.\mathbf{nil}); \\ Bob \stackrel{def}{=} \underline{c}_{B}?q_{2}.(\underline{e}?q_{1}.CN[q_{1},q_{2}].H[q_{1}].M[q_{1},q_{2};x].d!x.\mathbf{nil} + c_{C}?msg.\tau^{8}.d!x.\mathbf{nil}); \\ EPR \stackrel{def}{=} Set^{\Psi}[q_{1},q_{2}].\underline{c}_{B}!q_{2}.\underline{c}_{A}!q_{1}.\mathbf{nil}; \\ Sdc \stackrel{def}{=} c?x.(Alice||Bob||EPR) \setminus \{\underline{c}_{A},\underline{c}_{B},c_{C},\underline{e}\}.$$

690 And we adjust the specification as the program has a new branch, so it is defined as:

$$Sdc_{spec} \stackrel{def}{=} c?x.\tau^{11}. \sum_{i=0}^{3} (\mathbf{if} \ x = i \ \mathbf{then} \ Set^{i}[q_{1},q_{2}].d!x.\mathbf{nil})$$

$$+ \mathbf{if} \neg \bigvee_{0 \le i \le 3} x = i \ \mathbf{then} \ Set^{\Psi}[q_{1},q_{2}].d!x.\mathbf{nil}).$$
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We can find that the improved programs becomes bisimilar in the Table 1.

B.2 Quantum Teleportation Protocol

Quantum teleportation [6] is one of the most important protocols in quantum information theory. It teleports an unknown quantum state by only sending classical information, so it just requires a classical communications channel. It makes the use of the maximally entangled states that the post-measurement state can be known from the result of partial measurement for a set of entangled states.

Protocol. Let sender and receiver to be Alice and Bob as defined in super-dense coding example, the quantum teleportation protocol goes as follows:

- 703 (1) Alice and Bob prepare an EPR state $|\beta_{00}\rangle_{q_2,q_3}$ together. Then they share the qubits, Alice holding q_2 and Bob holding q_3 .
- 705 (2) To transmit qubit q_1 , Alice applies a CN operation on q_1 and q_2 followed by a H operation on q_1 .
- 707 (3) Alice measures q_1 and q_2 and sends the outcome x to Bob.
- ⁷⁰⁸ (4) Bob applies corresponding σ^x operation on his qubit q_3 to recover the original state of q_1 .
- After the execution, Bob's qubit q_3 has the same state as the qubit q_1 .

711 **Implementation.** The program of quantum teleportation protocol can be encoded in qCCS as follows:

$$Alice \stackrel{def}{=} \underline{c}_{A}?q2.CN[q_{1},q_{2}].H[q_{1}].M[q_{1},q_{2};x].Set^{\Psi}[q_{1},q_{2}].e!x.\mathbf{nil};$$

$$Bob \stackrel{def}{=} \underline{c}_{B}?q_{3}.e?x. \sum_{0 \leq i \leq 3} (\mathbf{if} \ x = i \ \mathbf{then} \ \sigma^{i}[q_{3}].\mathbf{nil});$$

$$EPR \stackrel{def}{=} Set^{\Psi}[q_{1},q_{2}].\underline{c}_{A}!q_{2}.\underline{c}_{B}!q_{3}.\mathbf{nil};$$

$$Tel \stackrel{def}{=} (Alice||Bob||EPR) \setminus \{\underline{c}_{A},\underline{c}_{B},e\}$$

where the operators used are all already declared before.

Specification. The specification of quantum teleportation protocol can also be described in qCCS. To show the soundness of Tel, it suffices to prove that Tel is bisimilar to an swap operation between the first and the thrid qubits, that is $SWAP_{1,3}[q_1, q_3]$. The program can be encoded as follow:

$$Spec \stackrel{def}{=} \tau^{13}.SWAP[q_1, q_3].nil.$$

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Inputs. Some the operators defined in the inputs are the same as those defined in the
 super-dense coding example, so we do not repeat them. And we need declare following
 variables in the input of the implementation.

The classical bits x is declared here for storing the measurement result of qubits q_1, q_2 .

The qubits are declared together as a vector $|q_1, q_2, q_3\rangle$. The values of the last two qubits are arbitrary as they will be transformed into EPR state later. However the first qubit q_1 is which *Alice* wants to teleport. We set it to be $|\psi 00\rangle$ and test the program in different value of $|\psi\rangle$.

The specification program declare the same set of variables. And only one operation $\mathcal{SWAP}_{1,3}$ is defined in the input.

We see from the results of the Table 1, the programs are checked bisimilar with all the three different valuations of q_1 .

737 B.3 Quantum Secret Sharing Protocol

Quantum secret sharing protocol was proposed by Hillery et al. [21]. The problem involves an agent Alice sending information to other two agents Bob and Charlie, one of whom is dishonest. It is a classical method which is known as secret sharing that Alice split the information into two parts, then Bob and Charlie need collaboration to get the complete information. The idea is to let the honest one keep the dishonest one from doing damage. A quantum version of it can be realized by a three-qubit maximally entangled state called GHZ state, which has similar property as EPR state.

745 **Protocol.** The protocol goes as follows:

- 746 (1) Alice, Bob and Charlie prepare an GHZ state $(|000\rangle + |111\rangle)/\sqrt{2}_{q_2,q_3,q_4}$ together prior to the following execution. Then they share the qubits, Alice holding q_2 , Bob holding q_3 and Charlie holding q_4 .
- 749 (2) Alice entangles q_1 and q_2 by applying a CN operation followed by a H operation on q_1 .
 - (3) Alice measures q_1 and q_2 separately and sends the outcomes m and n to Charlie.
- 751 (4) Bob also measures q_3 and sends the outcome o to Charlie.
- Upon receiving the bits m, n and o, Charlie retrieves the state through applying Pauli operations X or Z on q_4 according to the value of these bits.

After the execution, Charlie's qubit q_4 has the same state as the qubit q_1 .

Implementation. The quantum secret sharing protocol can be encoded in qCCS as follows:

```
Alice \stackrel{def}{=} \underline{c}_{A}?q2.CN[q_{1},q_{2}].H[q_{1}].M[q_{1};m].M[q_{2};n].e!m.f!n.\mathbf{nil};
Bob \stackrel{def}{=} \underline{c}_{B}?q_{3}.H[q_{3}].M[q_{3};o].g!o.\mathbf{nil});
Charlie \stackrel{def}{=} \underline{c}_{C}?q_{4}.e?m.f?n.g?o.
\mathbf{if} \ o = 1 \ \mathbf{then} \ Z[q_{4}].\mathbf{if} \ m = 1 \ \mathbf{then} \ X[q_{4}].\mathbf{if} \ n = 1 \ \mathbf{then} \ Z[q_{4}].\mathbf{nil});
GHZ \stackrel{def}{=} Set^{GHZ}[q_{2},q_{3},q_{4}].\underline{c}_{A}!q_{2}.\underline{c}_{B}!q_{3}.\underline{c}_{C}!q_{4}.\mathbf{nil};
QSS \stackrel{def}{=} (Alice||Bob||Charlie||GHZ) \setminus \{\underline{c}_{A},\underline{c}_{B},\underline{c}_{C},e,f,g\}
```

where the operators used are all already declared before except that Set^{GHZ} is the operation transforming all the inputs into a GHZ state.

Specification. To show the above implementation is correct, we prove that QSS is bisimilar to a swap operation between the first and the fouth qubits, that is $SWAP_{1,4}[q_1,q_4]$. The specification can be written as follow:

$$Spec \stackrel{def}{=} \tau^{24}.SWAP[q_1, q_4].$$
nil.

where we have inserted some harmless τ transitions (τ^{24} stands for a series of 24 τ -transitions) because in ground bisimulations τ -actions are not abstracted away. We will investigate this relaxation and weak ground bisimulations in the future.

1773 **Inputs.** In the input of the implementation, the secret sharing protocol also need to define 1774 the Clifford operations and Pauli operations presented before. And there are other variables 1775 and operations we need to declare.

- The classical bits m, n and o are declared for storing the measurement result of qubits q_1 , q_2 and q_3 .
- The qubits are declared together as a vector $|q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4\rangle$. Similar with the teleportation example, the values of the last three qubits are arbitrary as they will be transformed into GHZ state later. And the first qubit q_1 will be set to several different value to test the programs.
- The operation transforming arbitrary state into the GHZ state is defined as Set^{GHZ} .
- The specification program declare the same set of variables. The only operation required is defined as $SWAP_{1,4}$.

From the results of the Table 1, we find that the programs are bisimilar with their specifications of all the three different valuations of q_1 .