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Chair of Computer Science 2
Software Modeling and Verification

Master Thesis

**Compilation of Quantum Programs with Control Flow
Primitives in Superposition**

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1 Introduction

- Introduction with random citation to not cause error [ACR*10]

2 Background

... Background

2.1 Quantum Computing

While computers are prevalent and important in today's society, there are many relevant problems which classical computers can currently and perhaps will never realistically be able to solve. Quantum Computing is gaining more momentum as the technology that could solve at least some of these problems. For example, Quantum algorithms like Shor's algorithm [Shor97] could provide a significant improvement for prime factorization given sufficient technology. Therefore, it is estimated to be a valuable market with many of the largest technology companies as well as governments investing billions in the research and development of quantum technology [RDB*22]. While there already exist detailed theoretical foundations [van20, Ying11, YYF12] and advanced algorithms for QC [ACR*10, BGB*18, LoCh19, Shor97], the technology of quantum computers is said to be on the level of classical computers in the 1950s [CFM17]. In the following section, we take a look at the basic concepts of a quantum computer and the core principles it relies on.

Classical Computers are based on simple operations, like **and**, **or**, and **not**, on bits. These bits can either have a value of 0 or 1. Similarly, at their core, quantum computers apply simple operations, like **controlled not**, and **Hadamard**, on quantum bits (qubits). In contrast to classical bits, quantum computers use the unique properties of quantum mechanics to enable qubits to have not just one value of either 0 or 1 but a combination of both. Additionally, quantum computers also use the idea of entanglement to their advantage where the value of a qubit is dependent on another qubit. The combination of superposition and entanglement enable quantum computers to solve specific problems more efficiently than classical computers [RDB*22], e.g. prime factorization [Shor97].

citation needed?

Repeating info from paragraph above?

2 Background

Models for Quantum Computers can be divided into three main categories, the *analog model*, the *measurement-based model*, and the *gate-based model*. The analog model uses smooth operations to evolve a quantum system over time such that the resulting system encodes the desired result with high probability. It is not clear whether this model allows for universal quantum computation or quantum speedup [DiCh20]. Instead of smoothly evolving a system, the measurement-based model starts with a fixed quantum state, the cluster-state. The computation is accomplished by measuring qubits of the system, possibly depending on the results of previous measurements. The concept of gate teleportation is used such that the measurements realize quantum gates. The result is a bit-string of the measurement results [DiCh20, Niel06]. Lastly, the gate-based model uses a discrete set of qubits that are manipulated by a sequence of operations represented by quantum gates. The result is obtained by measuring the qubits at the end of the computation. Although digital quantum computation is more sensitive to noise than analog computations, the digitization can also be used for quantum error correction and mitigate the increased noise [DiCh20]. The gate-based model is the most used model and this thesis will mainly focus on it.

2.1.1 Superposition

The first important property of quantum mechanics used by quantum computers is the idea of superposition. The concept of superposition is most known for its role in the “Schrödinger’s cat” thought experiment [Wine13] where the life of a cat in a box is dependent on a particle in superposition, only when “measuring” the state of the cat, i.e. looking into the box, we can know if it is still alive.

Similar to the cat being referred to as alive and dead at the same time, qubits in superposition are often informally described as simultaneously having a value of 0 and 1 until their state is measured. However, a qubit in superposition is more formally a linear combination of its basis states. The basis states are the states where the qubit has a value of 0, written $|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, and 1, written $|1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Furthermore, the state can be reduced to a simple vector. Therefore, a state ψ in superposition can be written as:

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \beta \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}.$$

The factors α and β are the amplitudes of the basis states and are complex numbers. The probability that the state will either be 0 or 1 when measured is related to be amplitude of the corresponding basis state and can be computed by squaring the absolute values of the amplitude. Because a state will always collapse to a basis state when measured, the following must hold for a state to be a valid quantum state:

$$|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1.$$

2.1.2 Entanglement

The second important quantum mechanical concept is entanglement. Simply said, two qubits are entangled when their values depend on each other. An example would be a quantum system where two qubits are in superposition and equally likely to collapse to either 0 or 1; whichever value one qubit collapses to when measured, the second one will also collapse to the same values. Additionally, changes to one of the qubits can also affect the other one. This happens independent of the locations of the two qubits [RDB*22, HHHH09].

Also introduce notation for composition of systems?

The entanglement of states is used by leveraging the effect of the qubits on each other to collaborate to calculate the result. Although this can be simulated on classical computers, it cannot be achieved “natively” because all classical bits are independent of each other. Moreover, quantum algorithms not using entangled states can often be simulated efficiently on classical computers [MHH19]. Therefore, entanglement is at the core of quantum computing but it can also have unintended consequences one needs to be aware of when designing quantum algorithms.

To calculate specific functions or intermediate values, quantum algorithms may need to use additional qubits or registers which state can, in turn, be entangled with the main data of the algorithm. If this entanglement is not resolved in time by, e.g., uncomputing the changes to the qubit or register, it can interfere with future calculations or measurements and cause the results to be invalid. This effect is called *disruptive entanglement* [YVC24].

register were not previously mentioned, add small reference

Uncomputing as a concept was not introduced before

Cannot find literature besides [YVC24] which calls this effect disruptive entanglement, use anyway?

2.1.3 Operators and Gates

In gate-based quantum computer, the transformations applied to the quantum data are represented by *quantum gates*. Similar to quantum states, which can be represented by linear combinations of basis states, or vectors, quantum gates can be formulated as linear transformations of these combinations or a matrix to be applied to the vector. Because the result of such a transformation also needs to be a valid quantum state, the transformation needs to be norm-preserving, or *unitary*. The most relevant of often used unitary gates are depicted in Tab. 2.1.

Add correct matrices and functions

Add depictions for gates in circuits?

Add troffoli gate, large but important for universality?

- What do unitary transformations lead to?
 - -> all transformation need to be reversible!
- Universality of gates?
 - -> later can be stated that set of gates/functionality provided by Luie must be universal.

2.1.4 Measurement

- How are qubits measured?
- What is the effect of measurement on qubits?

2 Background

	Gates	Matrix	Ket-notation
Pauli-Gates	X	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	$ 0\rangle \mapsto 1\rangle$ $ 1\rangle \mapsto 0\rangle$
	Y	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	$ 0\rangle \mapsto -i 1\rangle$ $ 1\rangle \mapsto i 0\rangle$
	Z	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$	$ 0\rangle \mapsto 0\rangle$ $ 1\rangle \mapsto - 1\rangle$
	Hadamard	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$	$ 0\rangle \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(0\rangle + 1\rangle)$ $ 1\rangle \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(0\rangle - 1\rangle)$
	Phase	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\phi} \end{pmatrix}$	$ 0\rangle \mapsto 0\rangle$ $ 1\rangle \mapsto e^{i\phi} 1\rangle$
	CNOT	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$	$ 00\rangle \mapsto 00\rangle$ $ 01\rangle \mapsto 01\rangle$ $ 10\rangle \mapsto 11\rangle$ $ 11\rangle \mapsto 10\rangle$

Table 2.1: List of relevant quantum gates in matrix representation as as functions in ket-notation.

2.1.5 Relevant Algorithms

- Shortly describe algorithms referenced later
- QFT (Quantum Fourier Transform)
- Shor's algorithm

2.2 Quantum Control Flow

- Introduction into quantum control flow
- Branching
- Iteration
- Limitations

2.2.1 Branching

- Explain branching principle
- How is branching relevant for control flow?
 - Example of branching in classical computing
 - Example of branching in quantum computing

2.2.2 Iteration

2.2.3 Limitations

Reversibility

- Explain reversibility principle
- How is reversibility relevant for control flow?
 - Example of reversible and irreversible operations (JMP instructions)
-

Synchronization

- Explain synchronization principle
- Tortoise and hare example

2.2.4 Quantum Control Machine

- Definition of Quantum Control Machine
- How does it solve/handle the limitations of quantum control flow?
- Example program
 - Example for non-reversible program
 - Example for reversible but not synchronous program
 - Example for correct program

2.3 Quantum Languages

2.3.1 QASM Language

- Give overview of QASM language and concepts

2.4 Compilation

2.4.1 Lexer

2.4.2 Parser

2.4.3 Semantic Analysis

2.4.4 Code Generation

2.4.5 Optimization

- Different optimization techniques

```

1      add    res $1
2      add    r1  y
3  11:  rjne   13  r1  y
4  12:  jz     14  r1
5      mul    res x
6      radd   r1  $1
7  13:  jmp    11
8  14:  rjmp   12

```

Figure 2.1: QCM exponentiation without synchronization

```

1      add    res $1
2      add    r1  max
3  11:  rjne   13  r1  max
4  12:  jz     14  r1
5  15:  jg     17  r1  y
6      mul    res x
7  16:  jmp    18
8  17:  rjmp   15
9      nop                                ; padding
10  18:  rjle   16  r1  y
11      radd   r1  $1
12  13:  jmp    11
13  14:  rjmp   12

```

Figure 2.2: Synchronized QCM exponentiation

- Constant folding or constant propagation
- Peephole optimization

2.4.6 ANTLR

- Give overview of ANTLR and parsing in general

3 Concept

- Expand on concept section from proposal:

The concept for the master thesis is to take the idea of the QCM, specifically the core concept of quantum control flow, and reduce it to its most basic elements and make it realistic for and applicable to NISQ era quantum computers. Concretely, we want to go from jump instructions to basic if-else clause to reduce the complexity of the code and make it easier to read and write. These if-else clauses can easily be implemented as the application of controlled gates. Moreover, because of the synchronization principle and the fact that current quantum computer technology does not support loops depending on measurement, any other loop can be reduced to a for-loop that is unrolled at compile time.

To achieve this goal, we want to define a language “Luie” (short for loop-unrolled if-else) which is partially based on the quantum while language used by Ying [Ying11]. The language is extended by a quantum if clause which takes a quantum register and executes the statements in the clause based on the value of the register. Furthermore, the clause could even be extended to include the evaluation of boolean expression. While the language cannot include while statements based on measurements of registers, as it is the case in the language proposed by Ying, it can include bounded loops which are unrolled at compile time. The language will then be compiled to QASM.

4 Implementation

4.1 Semantic analysis

- What is semantic analysis used for?
- How is it implemented in Luie?
- Different types of semantic analysis
- Errors
 - Types of errors: Critical, warning
 - Different critical errors (Type, undefined, ...)
 - Different warnings (invalid range, ...)

4.2 Code Generation

- How is code generated?
- Important classes and abstractions

4.3 Language Overview

4.3.1 Blocks and Scopes

- Basic structure of Luie
- Consists of blocks and statements
- One main block
- Symbol table that handles scopes
- All blocks have scope

4 Implementation

Grammar

- A block consists of arbitrarily many definitions and statements

```
1      grammar Luie;  
2  
3      parse  
4      : block EOF  
5      ;  
6  
7      block  
8      : (definition | statement)*  
9      ;
```

4.3.2 Data Types

- Different data types
 - Register
 - Qubits (Registers with size 1)
 - Iterators, in more detail in Sec. 4.3.4

Grammar

- Registers and qubits defined in declaration
- Optional size, otherwise qubit (size 1).
- Identifier is the name of the register/qubit
- Arbitrary string starting with a character or underscore
- Later

```
1      declaration  
2      : 'qubit' ('[' size=expression ']')?  
          IDENTIFIER ';' ;  
3  
4  
5      IDENTIFIER  
6      : [a-zA-Z_] [a-zA-Z_0-9]*  
7      ;
```

Semantic analysis

- Semantic analysis can be differentiated between checking the use of an identifier and checking the type of an identifier.
- *Definedness*: symbol table to check if an identifier is defined
- *Type checking*: symbol table to check if the type of an identifier is correct
 - What are different type
 - Object oriented approach, i.e. because qubit inherits from register it is also a register
 - -> less checks required

Code Generation

- Definitions used for code generation, symbols can be transformed into definitions
- Needs unique identifier (language has scopes -> multiple variables with same name possible, while QASM does not)
- Unique identifiers given at generation time because of for loops
 - Explain why ...

4.3.3 Gate Application

Grammar

Semantic Analysis

Code Generation

4.3.4 Control Flow

Grammar

Code Generation

4.3.5 Expressions

Grammar

- Consists of expressions, terms and factors
 - Expressions consist of expression, operator, and term or just a term
 - Term consists of term, operator, and factor or just a factor
 - Factor consists of expression in parentheses, a negated factor, number, identifier or function call
- Inherent order of operations

Evaluation

- All expressions evaluated at compile time
- All expressions inherit from abstract `Expression` class, which has an `Evaluate` method
- Generic return type `T`
- ...

4.4 Optimization

4.4.1 Constant folding

- Inherent in the language
- All variables known at compile time
- Any expression is evaluated at compile time

4.4.2 Peephole optimization

- Not implemented, but planned
- Replace sequences of gates with more efficient ones

4.5 Test Cases

- Different test categories
- How are they implemented?
- What do they test?
- (Continuous integration)

5 Conclusion and Future Work

- Conclusion to thesis
- Future work
 - how could language be extended

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