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Compilation of Quantum Programs with Control Flow Primitives in Superposition

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1 Introduction

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 (QC) 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, Pres18]. 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. The phenomenon, where a particle or qubit exists in multiple states at the same time, is called *superposition*. 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].

This is just a coloquially explaination and not technically correct

Repeating info from paragraph above?

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

explain?

gates. The result is a bit-string of the measurement results [DiCh20, Niel06]. Lastly, the gate-based model uses a digitized, 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 [DMN13] and mitigate the increased noise [DiCh20]. Furthermore, because qubits are actively manipulated and not passively evolved, digital quantum computers are more flexible than analog ones [RDB*22]. Therefore, the gate-based model is the most common model and this thesis will mainly focus on it.

Add section on: no cloning/deleting, implicit measurement theorems?[WoZu82, KuBr00]

2.1.1 Superposition

Is a citation needed for this definition? (if yes use [DiCh20])

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 factors must also satisfy the condition $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$. This is because of the relation of the amplitudes to the probability to which basis state the state will collapse when measure, described in Sec. 2.1.3 about measurement.

Beside $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$, there exist more relevant short hands for quantum state. For example, $|+\rangle$ and $|-\rangle$ are states in uniform superposition, i.e. both basis state are equally likely, and often used when discussing quantum state und transformations. They are defined as follows:

$$|+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \quad \text{and} \quad |-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle).$$

2.1.2 Entanglement

Another 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

Define Bell β_{00} state

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].

A more formal definition for an entangled state uses the definition of a composite system. Two separate quantum system can be represented as a single system with the tensor product of both systems. For example, the combined state $|\psi\rangle$ of the separate states $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ can be represented as:

$$|\psi\rangle = |0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle = |01\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

When a quantum state cannot be expressed as a tensor product of two states, the state is entangled. The previous example is a case of a maximally entanglement Bell state [DiCh20, MHH19], often denoted β_{00}, and can be expressed as the following:

$$\beta_{00} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00\rangle + |11\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

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.

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?

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].

2.1.3 Measurement

For quantum computer to be of any use, we need a way to read out information about its state. However, the information we can obtain from a quantum system is limited by the quantum measurement postulate. The postulate states that the only way, to gain any information from a quantum system, is to measure it. When measuring a quantum state, the state irreversibly collapses to one of its basis states. Furthermore, this is a probabilistic transformation and the original state in superposition cannot be recovered from the result. For a state $|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$, the measurement collapses the state to $|0\rangle$ with a probability of $|\alpha|^2$. Correspondingly, the state will collapse to $|1\rangle$ with a probability of $|\beta|^2$ when measured [DiCh20].

Measurement can be represented a a measurement basis set $\{M_i\}_i$ which requires the following condition:

$$\sum_i M_i^\dagger M_i = I.$$

The probability that outcome i is obtained when measuring a state $|\psi\rangle$ is equivalent to $|M_i |\psi\rangle|^2$. After the measurement of outcome i, the state $|\psi'\rangle$ will be equivalent to

$$|\psi'\rangle = \frac{M_i |\psi\rangle}{|M_i |\psi\rangle|} = \frac{M_i |\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{\Pr[\text{observe } i]}}.$$

In contrast to all other transformations, measurements are neither unitary nor reversible and, therefore, are able to "destroy" information on the quantum state before the measurement [DiCh20].

already mentioned above, only mention once

2.1.4 Quantum 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. Because the result of such a transformation also needs to be a valid quantum state, the transformation needs to be norm-preserving, or *unitary* [DiCh20]. The most relevant and often used unitary gates are depicted in Tab. 2.1.

Add depications for gates in circuits?

Add troffoli gate, large but important for universality?

A matrix U is unitary if it has an inverse matrix which is equal to its conjugate transpose $U^\dagger$, i.e. the following must hold:

$$UU^\dagger = I.$$

Therefore, all transformations applied to quantum states in a gate-based quantum computer must be reversible by definition. This limitation does not apply to classical computers where non-reversible transformations, e.g. mapping an arbitrary bit to a specific value, are easily implementable.

To design a useful quantum computer or language, the set of gates should be *universal*. A set of gates is universal if any gate can be simulated by a combination of the gates from the set with arbitrary accuracy [BrBr01]. An example for a universal set of gates is the combination of the Traffoli gate together with the Hadamard gate [DiCh20].

very short section, expand on universality?

2.1.5 Relevant Algorithms

Although quantum computers have impressive technical abilities, they cannot function without a specially designed algorithm. This algorithm needs to exploit the special quantum properties of qubits to achieve *quantum advantage*, i.e. a better complexity

write better introduction

	Gates	Matrix	Ket-notation
Pauli gates	X	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	$\lvert 0 \rangle \mapsto \lvert 1 \rangle$ $\lvert 1 \rangle \mapsto \lvert 0 \rangle$
	Y	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	$\lvert 0 \rangle \mapsto \lvert i \rangle$ $\lvert 1 \rangle \mapsto - \lvert i \rangle$
	Z	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\lvert 0 \rangle \mapsto \lvert 0 \rangle$ $\lvert 1 \rangle \mapsto - \lvert 1 \rangle$
Hadamard gate	H	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\lvert 0 \rangle \mapsto \lvert + \rangle$ $\lvert 1 \rangle \mapsto \lvert - \rangle$
Phase gate	$P(\lambda)$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\lambda} \end{pmatrix}$	$\lvert 0 \rangle \mapsto \lvert 0 \rangle$ $\lvert 1 \rangle \mapsto e^{i\lambda} \cdot \lvert 1 \rangle$
Controlled-NOT gate	CX	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	$\lvert 00 \rangle \mapsto \lvert 00 \rangle$ $\lvert 01 \rangle \mapsto \lvert 01 \rangle$ $\lvert 10 \rangle \mapsto \lvert 11 \rangle$ $\lvert 11 \rangle \mapsto \lvert 10 \rangle$
Traffoli gate	CCX	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	$\lvert 000 \rangle \mapsto \lvert 000 \rangle$ $\lvert 001 \rangle \mapsto \lvert 001 \rangle$ $\lvert 010 \rangle \mapsto \lvert 010 \rangle$ $\lvert 011 \rangle \mapsto \lvert 011 \rangle$ $\lvert 100 \rangle \mapsto \lvert 100 \rangle$ $\lvert 101 \rangle \mapsto \lvert 101 \rangle$ $\lvert 110 \rangle \mapsto \lvert 111 \rangle$ $\lvert 111 \rangle \mapsto \lvert 110 \rangle$

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

than any classical algorithm. One of the first algorithms to show its quantum advantage was the Deutsch–Josza algorithm [DeJo92]. Deutsch et al. define a problem that can be solved in exponential time on classical computer and present a quantum algorithm which can solve the problem in polynomial time. The Bernstein-Vazirani algorithm [BeVa93] is another example with shown quantum advantage, resulting in a polynomial speed up. However, currently, there does not exist a use case for either of the algorithms and, therefore, they are only of limited theoretical interest [DiCh20].

An algorithm with more potential for practical use is Shor's algorithm [Shor97]. It presents an efficient quantum implementation for the discrete logarithm, i.e. find r for a given a, x, p such that $a^r = x \mod p$. The algorithm is of special interest because Shor also provides a reduction of prime factorization to order finding; order finding is a special case of the discrete logarithm where $x = 1$. Modern cryptography is often based on the complexity of factoring large prime numbers , e.g. the commonly used RSA cryptosystem [RSA78]. Therefore, an advanced quantum computer could brake these systems with Shor's algorithm [MVZJ18]. Not only does this prospect provide a practical use-case for Quantum Computer but it also creates the research field of *post-quantum cryptography* [BeLa17].

poly time

discrete log is also used in modern cryptography

Another relevant algorithm or transformation is the quantum Fourier transform (QFT) [Copp02]. Beside being used as a subroutine in Shor's algorithm, it is also relevant for other algorithm, e.g. addition of quantum registers [Drap00]. Similar to the discrete Fourier transform [Wino78] which operates on vectors, the QFT_{2^n} operates on the quantum equivalent of vector, quantum registers, of size n. Registers of size n consist of n qubits. From the register, the QFT extracts periodic features which are then used by the algorithms using the QFT.

bad formulation

2.1.6 Circuit optimization

Despite the expansive theoretical foundations for QC, the current state of the art for it technology is limited. However, the technology is nearing its first milestone towards useable quantum computers with the advent of prototypes with noisy intermediate-scale quantum (NISQ) technology [BFA22]. Nevertheless, the technology is still far away from fault-tolerant quantum computers and, by definition, limited in the number of available qubits. Furthermore, the gate count of NISQ era quantum computers is limited by the inherent noise which is increased with each additional transformation [Pres18]. Therefore, attributes such as the gate count of a quantum algorithm are an important metric for its utility. To improve the utility of an algorithm, its quantum circuit can be optimized with different techniques and rules.

There exist many kinds of optimization techniques for quantum circuits. They are mostly concerned with optimizing the gate count of quantum circuits with the use of peephole optimizations, as described in Sec. 2.4.5. These techniques can range from general rules [GaCh11, LBZ21], that can be applied to all quantum circuits, to hardware-specific optimizations [KMO*23]. Furthermore, machine learning based optimization frameworks for quantum circuits are also gaining popularity [FNML21, LPM*24, RLB*24].

The most simple general optimizations are so called *null gates* [GaCh11]. They are gate combinations or gates under specific conditions that are equivalent to the identity gate I. Therefore, any occurrence of such a null gate can be removed from the circuit. is this the correct word? The most basic example for null gates is the double application of a self-inverse gate, i.e. a gate which is its own inverse. These include the H, X, Y, and Z gates. Therefore, the following holds:

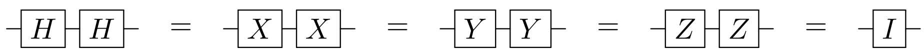

Figure 2.1: Null gates of self-inverse gates.

Furthermore, the same holds for any controlled version of a self-inverse gate such that the rule can also be applied to $CNOT$ and similar gates. The second kind of null gates are gates that do not have an effect under specific conditions. For example, a controlled gate U is not applied if we know that the control is $|0\rangle$. Similarly, the X gate does not have an effect on a qubit in the $|+\rangle$ state. The following two circuits are hence null gates and semantically equivalent to an identity gate.

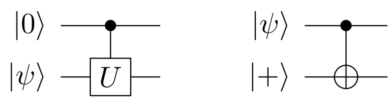

Figure 2.2: Null gates for gate in specific conditions.

Another class of optimizations are called *control reversal*. Control reversal describes gate combination equalities based on the symmetry of the controlled Z gate. For the controlled Z gate, it is semantically equivalent to apply the Z gate to the second wire with a control on the first and to apply the Z gate on the first wire with a control on the second one. Based on this and together with the equalities $HZH = X$, and $HXH = Z$, a controlled X gate surrounded by H gates on both wires can be represented as the reversed X gate. Both equalities are depicted in Fig. 2.3 and Fig. 2.4.

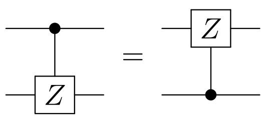

Figure 2.3: Control reversal of the controlled Z gate.

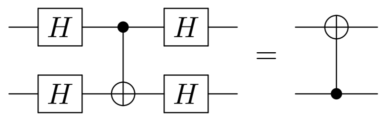

Figure 2.4: Control reversal of CX.

2.2 Quantum Control Flow

The idea of quantum control flow was first used by Altenkirch et al. [AlGr05] when defining a functional programming language with quantum control flow elements. The language uses an if-statement in superposition, `if°`, which is used to, e.g., defined the Hadamard gate as a function *had* instead of a matrix. The *had* function takes a qubit as an input. If the qubit is true, i.e. the value is one, the function returns a uniform superposition of true and false, where true has a negative sign. Correspondingly, for a false input, a uniform superposition with both signs positive is returned.

$$\begin{aligned} had &: Q \to Q \\ had &: x \mapsto \ \texttt{if}^{\circ} x \\ &\qquad\quad \texttt{then}\ \{false \mid -true\} \\ &\qquad\quad \texttt{else}\ \{false \mid true\} \end{aligned}$$

Quantum control flow can be divided into *quantum branching* and *iteration* [YVC24]. In the following, we will discuss both branching and iteration in superposition as well as the limitations of quantum control flow.

2.2.1 Branching

Based on the work presented by Altenkirch et al. [AlGr05], the concept of quantum control flow, more specifically quantum branching, was expanded on and formally defined by Ying et al. [YYF12]. They introduce two different types of quantum branching, quantum guarded commands, and quantum choices as a special case of guarded commands. The definition of quantum guarded commands is based on Dijkstra's guarded commands [Dijk75]. Guarded commands concern the nondeterministic executing of functions based on Boolean expressions, where the nondeterminism derives from the possible overlapping of the guards. In contrast, quantum branching allows for execution of functions based on a value in superposition. The functions are executed such that the result may be a superposition of the results of the individual functions [YVC24]. Quantum branching is, e.g., used in simulation algorithms like [BGB*18], and [LoCh19].

The formal definition for classical guarded commands is given by:

$$\square_{i=1}^{n} b_i \to C_i$$

where C_i is a command guarded by a Boolean expression b_i. The command can only be executed if the expression is true. Similarly, quantum guarded commands map to a set of quantum programs P_i. Further, a set of qubits or quantum registers, which are not used in any guarded program P_i, and a corresponding orthogonal basis $|i\rangle$ is given. The resulting quantum guarded command is of the following form:

can give better/more indepth explantation, example?

$$\square_{i=1}^{n} \bar{q}, |i\rangle \to P_i.$$

The quantum programs are guarded by the basis states and the control flow results from the superposition of these basis states [YYF12].

2.2.2 Iteration

reference [FYY13]?

Quantum iteration can be implemented either as quantum recursion or quantum loops. While some languages implement loops based on the measurement of qubits or registers [Ying11], the concept of quantum iteration requires the body of the loop to be executed in superposition based on the guard in superposition [YYF12].

While classical iteration takes an operation and repeats it on a classical register for k iterations, quantum iteration is dependent on a value k' in superposition and, correspondingly, return a quantum register in superposition. Moreover, it is a special case of quantum branching and heavily restricted by the limitations of quantum computers [YVC24].

2.2.3 Limitations

While quantum control flow is often based on the corresponding control flow primitives on classical computers, it is restricted by multiple limitations imposed by quantum computers. Therefore, many control flow primitives that are used in classical programs can either by not used at all or in a limited capacity. There are two main limitations for quantum programs. Firstly, all gate-based quantum computers need to adhere to *reversibility*. Secondly, programs need to follow the *synchronization* principle for them to return any useful results [YVC24].

Reversibility

As introduced in Sec. 2.1.4, any sequence of instructions on gate-based quantum computers, excluding measurements, is required to be reversible by definition, as they are all unitary transformations. Therefore, any quantum control flow is also required to adhere to this principle. A resulting limitation, that is not present on classical computer, is that any guards for guarded commands need to be immutable in the commands themselves. For example, if a qubit's state is flipped when its value is 0, the resulting command will always return value of 1. When a program returns the same result regardless of which statements where executed, the program cannot be reversible.

Also inherint in definition of quantum branching [YYF12]

Moreover, control flow, as implemented in classical computers, is also not possible. At a basic level, modern computers use jump and conditional jump instruction to implement branching and loop. However, any classical jump instruction is inherently irreversible. Not only can a jump go to a section of code that is accessible without any jumps, multiple jumps can also lead to the same line of code. Therefore, the a reversed program cannot know which path would be or was taken in original program [YVC24].

A simple solution seems to be offered by the *Landauer Embedding* [Land61]. Fundamentally, the idea of the embedding is to turn a now reversible function into a reversible one by not only returning the output but also the input of the function. For example, for a domain D and a codomain D', any (non-)reversible function $f : D \to D'$ can be given as a reversible function $g : D \to D' \times D$ with $g(x) = (f(x), x)$. In the case a quantum program with, e.g., jump instructions, this would result in an output of the result and a complete history of which path was taken through the program. However, because the quantum data depends on the program history, they become entangled. This leads to disruptive entanglement, as described in Sec. 2.1.2, causing invalid results [YVC24].

Synchronization

As we have previously seen, reversibility alone is not the only limiting factor on quantum control flow. When handling control flow, similar to the classical implementation, with a program counter in superposition, the program counter can become entangled with the data and result in disruptive entanglement leading to an invalid result. To avoid this issue, the program must not only be reversible but also adhere the the principle of *synchronization*. It states that control flow must become independent from the data. Further, because any quantum program needs to be synchronized to return any useful results, while loops dependent on a value in superposition need to be bound by a classical value [YVC24].

2.3 Quantum Languages

With the emergence of quantum computing, many quantum languages were introduced. Most languages focus on a lower level representation of quantum circuits. An example is the popular Open Quantum Assembly Language (OpenQASM)[CBSG17]. OpenQASM consists mainly of quantum and classical registers that can be manipulated by predefined and composite gates. Additionally, some classical control flow is possible with if-statements depending on classical bits or measurements. As its name suggests, the language is designed for low level interactions with quantum computers and mostly a directly describing a quantum circuit. In Sec. 2.3.2, OpenQASM is discussed in more detail.

In contrast to the low level circuit descriptions of OpenQASM, there are also languages with a focus on high level interactions. One such language is Tower[YuCa22]. It does not only allow for basic qubits and registers in superposition but also abstract data structures such as lists. Another example is the language Silq [BBGV20] which allows for the automatic and safe uncomputation of registers after they have been used for, e.g., intermediate calculations. What both languages have in common is the restriction to quantum data while using only classical control flow.

Although quantum control flow was defined by Ying et al. [YYF12], as described in Sec. 2.2, over ten years ago, only very few languages have incorporated the principle. One example is the functional programming language proposed by Altenkirch et al. [AlGr05] where quantum branching is used to define, e.g., the Hadamard gate. Only recently was the Quantum Control Machine with quantum control flow at its core proposed by Yuan et al. [YVC24].

2.3.1 Quantum Control Machine

The Quantum Control Machine (QCM), proposed by Yuan et al. [YVC24], is an instruction set architecture that does not only allow for data in superposition but also quantum control flow. The architecture is designed around the limitations of control flow in superposition.

is similar confusing, because classical computer do not use *quantum* registers

The syntax and logic of the QCM are both heavily influenced by classical assembly languages. Similar to classical computers, the language provides a finite set of quantum registers which are all initiated with 0. The instruction set of the architecture does not only provide limited gate transformations and swap operations but also more classical operations on registers such as get-bit operations and simple arithmetical operations like addition and multiplication. However, what makes the QCM stand out are the jump instructions that enabled quantum control flow.

The gates of the architecture are limited to the X and Hadamard gate H. However, since the QCM machine provides the ability on quantum branching, any gate can become a controlled gate such that the X gate can easily be used in combination with quantum branching to create a Traffoli gate. Together with the Hadamard gate, the gate set is therefore universal, as described in Sec. 2.1.4.

There are three kinds of jump instructions. The first is a simple jump based on a given offset, the second is a conditional jump that performs a basic jump when a given register is 0, and, lastly, an indirect jump which is based on the value of a given register. Although the jump instructions are based on jumps in classical computers, they are limited by the restriction of unitary gates and must adhere to *reversibility* and *synchronization* [YVC24], as described in Sec. 2.2. An overview of some QCM instructions is depicted in Tab. 2.2.

Operation	Syntax	Semantics
No-op	`nop`	Only increases instruction pointer by the branch control register.
Addition	`add` ra rb	Adds register rb to rb.
Multiplication	`mul` ra rb	Multiplies register ra by rb.
Jump	`jmp` p	Increases branch control register by p.
Conditional Jumps	`jz` p ra	Increases branch control register by p if ra is 0.
	`jne` p ra rb	Increases branch control register by p if ra is not equal to rb.

Note: After all operations, the instruction pointer is increased by the value of the branch control register.

Table 2.2: An excerpt of the QCM instruction set with instructions used in later examples.

When quantum computers are based on unitary gates, all their operations need to be unitary and, therefore, reversible as well. This limits quantum jump instructions and prohibits them to work like their classical equivalent. However, the problem of a reversible architecture and instruction set is not unique to quantum computers but was also discussed for, e.g., energy efficient classical computers [AGY07, TAG12]. To other word? enable reversible jumps, the QCM adapts the *branch control register* from the reversible Bob architecture [TAG12]. Instead of directly changing the instruction pointer of the machine, the branch control register specifies how much the instruction pointer advances after each instruction.

The branch control register can then be manipulated reversibly by, e.g., adding or subtracting from it. To jump by a given *distance*, the branch control register needs to be increased by *distance*. However, after the instruction pointer has reached the desired location, the register needs to be decreased by *distance*. Otherwise, the pointer would continue to jump in increments of *distance* and any further jumps, i.e. increases to the register, would not jump to the correct location. Because the jump instructions are defined to be reversible, the instruction set also includes a reserve jump instruction which instead decreases the branch control register by a given offset. Therefore, a jump instruction always requires a reverse jump instruction to reset the program counter. Similarly, other operations can also be represented as the reverse operation of an existing one. For example, subtraction can be implemented as reverse addition. Further, to make the code easier to read and write, the QCM also allows for named labels, which can be used for jump instructions instead of offsets. The offset to the given label can then be computed at compile time.

An example of a classical program and the reversible equivalent can be seen in Fig. 2.5 and Fig. 2.6 respectively. Both program calculate x^y for two registers x and y. While the first example has classical jumps that are not reversible, the second example uses reversible jump instructions and their reverse counterpart to create a reversible algorithm.

```
     add   res  $1
     add   r1   y
l1:  jz    l2   r1
     mul   res  x
     radd  r1   $1
     jmp   l1
l2:  nop
```

Figure 2.5: A non-reversible exponentiation algorithm.

```
      add   res  $1
      add   r1   y
l1:   rjne  rl1  r1   y
rl2:  jz    l2   r1
      mul   res  x
      radd  r1   $1
rl1:  jmp   l1
l2:   rjmp  l2
```

Figure 2.6: Reversible exponentiation algorithm.

Although such a program counter addresses the issue of reversibility, it can become entangled with data registers when in superposition. This can lead to disruptive entanglement where the output of the program becomes invalid [YVC24]. To prevent any disruptive entanglement of the data and control registers, QCM programs must adhere to the principle of synchronization, as described in Sec. 2.2. It requires that the control flow is separated from the data at the end of execution. However, this is not the case for the reversible example program in Fig. 2.6 which, therefore, is not a valid QCM program.

The issue that the loop in the reversible example encounters is the *tortoise and hare* problem. Given a superposition of two different values a and b in the y register, the loop will execute a and b times respectively.Therefore, the one of the two loops will finish before the other. Since we must adhere to synchronization, the instruction pointer needs to become independent of the two values again. However, because the branch with the faster execution of the loop cannot simple wait, the other branch cannot catch up and the instruction pointer cannot become independent of the data values. Consequently, the program does not adhere to synchronization. To prevent this issue, the program must include padding operations which are executed instead of the main loop. Furthermore, the loop also needs to be bounded by a classical value, as described in Sec. 2.2.3. The results in an algorithms, as depicted in Fig. 2.7, that calculates $x^{\min(y, max)}$. Here, max is a classical bound to the number of loop iterations, as required.

```
       add   res  $1
       add   r1   max
l1:    rjne  rl1  r1   max
rl2:   jz    l2   r1
rl3:   jg    l3   r1   y
       mul   res  x
rl4:   jmp   l4
l3:    rjmp  rl3
       nop                  ; padding
l4:    rjle  rl4  r1   y
       radd  r1   $1
rl1:   jmp   l1
l2:    rjmp  rl2
```

Figure 2.7: A synchronized, reversible exponentiation algorithm.

2.3.2 OpenQASM Language

The Open Quantum Assembly Language (OpenQASM) 3 [CJA*22] is the successor of the OpenQASM 2 [CBSG17] language. Both languages are imperative and machine independent quantum languages. They are low level quantum languages and, thereby, concretely describe a quantum algorithm in the form of a circuit. OpenQASM 2 developed into a de facto standard and is often used as an intermediate for different quantum tools [CJA*22]. OpenQASM 3 was developed to fit the changing needs of current quantum research and hardware while being mostly backwards compatible except for some uncommon cases. For example, some keywords were added of changed for the successor such that identifiers of OpenQASM 2 circuits by be invalid in the successor language. Sine OpenQASM 3 is the new and improved standard, we will focus on its features in the following.

include link to QASM repository?

OpenQASM 3 requires the header to indicate the language in the circuit header for any top-level circuit. This is achieve by adding `"OpenQASM 3.0";` to the beginning. Additionally, the language supports the inclusion of other source files which can be include with the `include` keyword.

Similar to other quantum languages, OpenQASM 3 operates in 2 basic data types. The first is the classical bit while the second is the qubit. Both primitives can also be used in registers with a fixed size. In contrast to its predecessor where any identifiers have to start with a lowercase letter, in OpenQASM 3, identifiers can start with a range of unicode characters with some exception.

The basic operations of the language can be divided into unitary and non-unitary operations. The most basic unitary operation is the unitary $U(a, b, c)$ where a, b, c are angular parameters. While OpenQASM 2 supported a controlled-NOT gate natively, the successor requires the gate to be defined with, e.g., the NOT gate and a control modifier. The control modifier can be used to turn any arbitrary unitary gate into a controlled gate with an arbitrary number of control qubits. Therefore, the formally predefined gate CX must now be defined by the programmer of represented by a NOT gate with a control modifier, e.g. `ctrl @ x`. Lastly, the non-unitary operations are `measure` and `reset`. While the `measure` operation measures the state of a qubit and saves it to a classical bit, the `reset` operation discards the value of a qubit and replaces it with the $|0\rangle$ state.

Both sentences start almost the same.

The programmer can not only use the operations and modifiers provided by OpenQASM 3 but can also define custom gates. These user-defined gate are defined with an identifier for the gate and a fixed number of single qubit arguments and angular parameters. In the body of the gate definition, the user can apply a sequence of gates to the qubit arguments with the given angular parameters. Additionally, the language also provides implicit iteration. This means the application of a single qubit gate to a quantum register will be interpreted as separate applications of the gate to all qubits in the register.

In Fig. 2.8, a circuit written in OpenQASM 3 is depicted. The circuit ...

```
"OpenQASM 3.0";

qubit[3] quantum_register;
bit[2] classical_register;
```

Figure 2.8: Code for an OpenQASM 3 example circuit.

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
  - Constant folding or constant propagation
  - Peephole optimization

2.4.6 ANTLR

- Give overview of ANTLR and parsing in general

3 Concept

- What are the different aspects of the compiler
- How are they designed
- How do the work
- What is the reason for their implementation...

3.1 Language Overview

- Given an overview of the different feature of the language
- How do they work and what is the reason for implementing them
- Why are some feature (e.g. implicit iteration) *not* implemented

3.1.1 Blocks and Scopes

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

3.1.2 Data Types

- Different data types
  - Register
  - Qubits (Registers with size 1)
  - Iterators, in more detail in Sec. 3.1.4

3.1.3 Gate Application

3.1.4 Control Flow

3.1.5 Expressions

- 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

3.2 Optimization

- Describe circuit graphs
- Give formal definition
- Example graph

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 Optimization

4.3.1 Constant folding

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

4.3.2 Peephole optimization

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

4.4 Testing and Continuous Integration

- 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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