

# A quick introduction to quantum programming

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## Abstract

This note is a quick introduction to quantum programming in the circuit model. A quantum computer on  $k$  bits gets as input a *quantum circuit description*, and produces as output a random string of  $k$  bits according to a probability distribution determined by the quantum circuit. A quantum programming language in this model is a language for creating such quantum circuits.

This note contains a quick but formal introduction to these concepts. After reading it, you will be able to write a computer program that simulates such a quantum computer (albeit exponentially more slowly than an actual quantum computer would execute a circuit, which is the point!).

## 1 Quantum states

Imagine that we have a box with some physical system inside of it, with a finite set  $S$  of possible states. A probability distribution over  $S$  is a vector  $\vec{p}$  of probabilities, one probability  $p_x \in [0, 1]$  for each state  $x \in S$ , such that  $\sum_x p_x = 1$ .

A *quantum state* over  $S$ , on the other hand, is a vector  $\vec{\phi}$  of *probability amplitudes*, one complex number  $\phi_x \in \mathbb{C}$  for each state  $x \in S$ . If we *measure* such a quantum state, we obtain outcome  $x \in S$  with probability  $p_x = |\phi_x|^2$ . Thus, in order for  $\phi$  to be a proper quantum state, we must have  $\sum_x |\phi_x|^2 = 1$ .

## 2 Time evolution in quantum mechanics

Imagine that the system in the box evolves in time according to some laws of physics. In quantum mechanics, the state evolution is given by a matrix  $U$  that multiplies the state every time step. If the state is currently  $\phi$ , then at the next time step the state is  $U\phi$ . If there are  $n = |S|$  possible states, then  $U$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix. Only matrices that preserve the condition that the probabilities sum to 1 are allowed: if  $\sum_x |\phi_x|^2 = 1$  we must have  $\sum_x |(U\phi)_x|^2 = 1$ . Such matrices are called *unitary*.

It might be helpful to compare with probabilistic evolution of the state as in a Markov chain. In that case we model the state with a probability vector  $\vec{p}$  and we multiply this vector with a matrix  $M$  at each time step. If the state is currently  $p$ , then at the next time step the state is  $Mp$ . Matrices that preserve the condition that all probabilities are non-negative and that their sum remains 1 are called *stochastic matrices*. The entry  $M_{x,y}$  of the matrix is the probability that the system will step to state  $y$ , if the state is currently  $x$ . Similarly, the entry  $U_{x,y}$  of the unitary matrix, is the *probability amplitude* of next state being  $y$ , if the state is currently  $x$ .

## 3 What a quantum computer is

A quantum computer with state set  $S$  is a device where we can *input* such a matrix  $U$  and an initial state  $\phi$ . It will then do one step of time evolution to  $\phi' = U\phi$ , and it will *measure* the new state

$\phi'$  and tell us which outcome  $x \in S$  it got. This outcome is random, and we will get answer  $x$  with probability  $|\phi'_x|^2$ . Thus, a quantum computer is a kind of universal quantum mechanics simulator:

1. We *input* the initial state  $\phi$  and state evolution matrix  $U$
2. The quantum computer *outputs* answer  $x \in S$  with probability  $|(U\phi)_x|^2$

We will refine this description in the next section.

## 4 Quantum circuits

In physics, the state set  $S$  is often infinite, and sometimes even uncountably infinite (e.g. the position of a particle), but in quantum programming the set  $S$  is taken to be strings of  $k$  bits, so that  $|S| = 2^k$ . Still,  $U$  is a  $2^k$ -by- $2^k$  matrix. One might wonder how we even input the  $U$  to the quantum computer, if it contains an exponential amount of data.

The answer is that we can't quite input *any* matrix  $U$ ; it must be encoded as a *quantum circuit*. A quantum circuit is a list of operations we do on the state of  $n$  bits, where each operation operates on some small subset of the bits and leaves the rest of the bits alone.

Often, a small set of primitive operations is used, such as the *Hadamard gate* and the *CNOT gate*. The Hadamard gate operates on one bit, and the CNOT gate operates on two bits.

In order to describe what they do, we introduce a bit of notation for *definite states*. We use the notation  $\phi = |01001\rangle$  for the definite state  $\phi$  where  $\phi_{01001} = 1$  and  $\phi_x = 0$  otherwise, i.e., the state that puts all probability amplitude on 01001.

The Hadamard gate  $H$  operates on one bit, and is defined as:

$$\begin{aligned} H|0\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \\ H|1\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) \end{aligned}$$

Equivalently, we can define it using matrix notation, as

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

If we have  $n$  bits in the state, then we have Hadamard gates  $H_1, H_2, \dots, H_n$ , each operating on a different bit. This is what  $H_1$  does:

$$\begin{aligned} H_1 |0b_1b_2 \dots b_n\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0b_1b_2 \dots b_n\rangle + |1b_1b_2 \dots b_n\rangle) \\ H_1 |1b_1b_2 \dots b_n\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0b_1b_2 \dots b_n\rangle - |1b_1b_2 \dots b_n\rangle) \end{aligned}$$

Try writing down  $H_1$  as a  $2^n$ -by- $2^n$  matrix, and you'll see why this notation is useful.

The CNOT gate is defined as:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{CNOT } |00\rangle &= |00\rangle \\ \text{CNOT } |01\rangle &= |01\rangle \\ \text{CNOT } |10\rangle &= |11\rangle \\ \text{CNOT } |11\rangle &= |10\rangle \end{aligned}$$

The CNOT gate implements a classical boolean gate, in the sense that if you input a definite state it also outputs a definite state, but we extend it to superpositions by linearity. In order for the operation to be unitary, all possible states have to appear on the right hand sides, *i.e.*, it wouldn't be valid to have an operation with  $M|00\rangle = |00\rangle$  and  $M|01\rangle = |00\rangle$ , as this wouldn't be unitary.

The CNOT gate flips the second bit if the first bit is 1. Similarly, there is the CCNOT gate, which operates on 3 bits, and flips the third bit if both the first and second bits are 1. Like with the Hadamard gate, if we have  $n$  bits we have  $\text{CNOT}_{ij}$  and  $\text{CCNOT}_{ijk}$  gates, operating on those bits. The Hadamard and CCNOT gates are a universal set of gates, which means that any unitary  $2^n$ -by- $2^n$  matrix can be arbitrarily closely approximated as a product of the  $H_i$  and the  $\text{CCNOT}_{ijk}$  gates.

Thus, we input the matrix  $U$  into the quantum computer as a list of operations, e.g.

$$U = H_1 \cdot \text{CNOT}_{12} \cdot H_2 \cdots H_4$$

The initial state is required to be a definite state  $\phi = |x\rangle$ .

**We arrive at a more refined description of what a quantum computer is:**

- Its input is a  $2^k$ -by- $2^k$  matrix  $U$  represented compactly as a circuit, and an initial state  $x$ .
- Its output is the bit string  $y$  with probability  $|U_{x,y}|^2$ .

## 5 The Deutsch-Jozsa algorithm

TODO

## 6 A quantum circuit simulator

1. Hadamard gate
2. Classical f xor gate

## References