# Quantum Computing and $\lambda_{q}$ 

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## 1 The Qubit

Quantum mechanics is concerned with states in a Hilbert (vector, inner product) space. Consider bits $\mathbf{0}$ and $\mathbf{1}$ in a register. These are orthogonal "basis states". Actual states are superpositions $c_{0}|\mathbf{0}\rangle+c_{1}|\mathbf{1}\rangle$ where $\sum_{i}\left|c_{i}\right|^{2}=1$. We call these quantum states "qubits."

Examples:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\psi & =|\mathbf{0}\rangle \\
\psi & =\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\mathbf{0}\rangle+|\mathbf{1}\rangle) \\
\psi & =\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}|\mathbf{0}\rangle-\frac{i}{2}|\mathbf{1}\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

The squares of the magnitudes values of the coefficients form a probability distribution, which is what we see when we measure the system.

What space is generated by $|\mathbf{0}\rangle$ and $|\mathbf{1}\rangle$ ? $\mathbb{C}^{2}$, but normalized (a Bloch sphere). The $|\cdot\rangle$ notation is Dirac's. It's nice, but sometimes it helps to think of our space this way:

$$
\begin{aligned}
|\mathbf{0}\rangle & =\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right] & |\mathbf{1}\rangle & =\left[\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right] \\
\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\mathbf{0}\rangle+|\mathbf{1}\rangle) & =\left[\begin{array}{l}
\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\
\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}
\end{array}\right] & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}|\mathbf{0}\rangle-\frac{i}{2}|\mathbf{1}\rangle & =\left[\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\
\frac{-i}{2}
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

We probably want registers with more qubits in them. A register with $n$ qubits is in the quantized space $H_{\mathrm{QB}(n)}=\ell^{2}\left(\mathbb{B}^{n}\right)$. Each classical state of $n$ bits is one of our computational
basis states:

$$
\begin{array}{rll}
|\mathbf{0}\rangle \otimes|\mathbf{0}\rangle & =|\mathbf{0 0}\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right]^{T} & |\mathbf{0}\rangle \otimes|\mathbf{1}\rangle=|\mathbf{0 1}\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
0 & 1 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right]^{T} \\
|\mathbf{1}\rangle \otimes|\mathbf{0}\rangle & =|\mathbf{1 0}\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
0 & 0 & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right]^{T} & |\mathbf{1}\rangle \otimes|\mathbf{1}\rangle=|\mathbf{1 1}\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right]^{T}
\end{array}
$$

## 2 Quantum Computation

To do quantum computation, we evolve this state through the application of unitary, reversible operators. Unitary: Preserves normalization. Reversible: zero entropy. If we throw away information, we generate heat, which causes decoherence. We also can't duplicate state, in the sense that there is no meaningful function $\psi \rightarrow \psi \otimes \psi$-anything we copy will be coupled.

### 2.1 Quantum Circuits

By analogy to classical circuits, we can build quantum circuits out of gates. The gates have to be unitary and reversible, of course.

### 2.2 Classical Gates

Must be reversable. Consider and:

$$
\text { and }=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

So and is no good, because it loses information. (What is and ${ }^{-1} 0$ ?) Must not duplicate information. By the Pigeonhole principle, gates are invertible transformations $\mathbb{B}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{B}^{n}$.

Reversible classical logic has been shown to be complete. Some useful classical gates:

### 2.3 Identity

$$
I=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

### 2.3.1 Not

$$
n o t=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

Note that $n o t^{-1}=I$.

### 2.3.2 Cnot

Also known as invertible xor:

$$
\text { cnot }=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

Note that cnot $^{-1}=I$.

### 2.3.3 Toffoli Gate

Controlled-Controlled-Not. In general,

$$
C_{U}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
I & 0 \\
0 & U
\end{array}\right]
$$

The Toffoli gate is a basis for classical (reversible) logic circuits.

### 2.4 Uncontrolled gates:

We'd like to apply, say, a one-bit gate to a particular bit of a two-bit register. E.g.:

$$
(I \otimes U)\left|\psi_{0}, \psi_{1}\right\rangle=(I \otimes U)\left(\left|\psi_{0}\right\rangle \otimes\left|\psi_{1}\right\rangle\right)=\left|\psi_{0}\right\rangle \otimes U\left|\psi_{1}\right\rangle
$$

Of course there are permutation gates, too.

### 2.5 Quantum Gates

To do quantum computations, though, we need some gates that create superpositions and take advantage of the phase space.

### 2.5.1 Hadamard

The Hadamard gate produces a uniform distribution, but is reversible.

$$
\begin{aligned}
H & =\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 1 \\
1 & -1
\end{array}\right] \\
H|\mathbf{0}\rangle & =\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\mathbf{0}\rangle+|\mathbf{1}\rangle) \\
H|\mathbf{1}\rangle & =\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\mathbf{0}\rangle-|\mathbf{1}\rangle)
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $H^{2}=I$.

### 2.5.2 Phase

$$
R_{n}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & e^{2 \pi i / 2^{n}}
\end{array}\right]
$$

The gates cnot, $H$, and $R_{3}$, along with composition and tensor product, form a basis for the space of unitary, reversible functions $H_{\mathrm{QB}(n)} \rightarrow H_{\mathrm{QB}(n)}$.

### 2.5.3 Pauli Gates

It may also be convenient to have the three Pauli gates:

$$
\sigma_{1}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right] \quad \sigma_{2}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -i \\
i & 0
\end{array}\right] \quad \sigma_{3}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right]
$$

Some properties:

- $\sigma_{n}^{2}=I$
- $\sigma_{n} \sigma_{n+1}=i \sigma_{n+2}(\bmod 3)$
- $\sigma_{n} \sigma_{m}=-\sigma_{m} \sigma_{n} \quad(i \neq j)$


### 2.6 Some Quantum Algorithms

What's quantum computation good for? Factorization, discrete Fourier transform, function inversion (!), coin flips, "teleportation"...

### 2.6.1 A Coin Flip

$H|\mathbf{0}\rangle$.

### 2.6.2 Deutsch's Algorithm

For a one-bit function $f,(H \otimes I) U_{f}(H \otimes H)|\mathbf{0 1}\rangle$ where $U_{f}:(x, y) \mapsto(x, y \oplus f(x))$. Why $U_{f}$.
The first bit of the result is $\mathbf{1}$ if $f$ is balanced and $\mathbf{0}$ otherwise. This algorithm is deterministic.

### 2.6.3 Einstein, Podolsky, Rosen

The EPR paradox:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{e p r} & \equiv \operatorname{cnot}(H \otimes I)|\mathbf{0 0}\rangle \\
& =\operatorname{cnot} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\mathbf{0 0}\rangle+|\mathbf{1 0}\rangle) \\
& =\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\mathbf{0 0}\rangle+|\mathbf{1 1}\rangle)
\end{aligned}
$$

"Spooky action at a distance." John Bell: No hidden variable (1964).

## 3 The Quantum Lambda Calculus $\lambda_{q}$

### 3.1 Syntax

Wheh. Now for $\lambda_{q}$ :

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
t::=x|\lambda x . t| t t|c|!t \mid \lambda!x . t & \text { terms } \\
c::=0|1| H\left|R_{n}\right| \operatorname{cnot}|T| \sigma_{1}\left|\sigma_{2}\right| \sigma_{3} \mid \cdots & \text { constants }
\end{array}
$$

We need to be careful not to throw away or duplicate non-definite state. Well-formedness (for preserving linearity):

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{}{\vdash c} \text { Const } \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash x}{} \text { Id } \quad \frac{!x_{1}, \ldots,!x_{n} \vdash t}{!x_{1}, \ldots,!x_{n} \vdash!t} \text { Promotion } \quad \frac{\Gamma, x \vdash t}{\Gamma,!x \vdash t} \text { Dereliction } \\
\frac{\Gamma,!x,!y \vdash t}{\Gamma,!z \vdash t[z / x, z / y]} \text { Contraction } \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash t}{\Gamma,!x \vdash t} \text { Weakening } \quad \frac{\Gamma, x \vdash t}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x . t} \multimap-\mathrm{I} \\
\frac{\Gamma,!x \vdash t}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda!x . t} \rightarrow-\mathrm{I} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_{1} \quad \Delta \vdash t_{2}}{\Gamma, \Delta \vdash t_{1} t_{2}}
\end{gathered}
$$

### 3.2 Dynamics

Call-by-value:

$$
\begin{aligned}
v::=c|\lambda x . t| \lambda!x . t \mid!t & & \text { values } \\
E::=[]|(E t)|(v E) & & \text { evaluation contexts }
\end{aligned}
$$

Reduction rules:

$$
\begin{align*}
E[(\lambda x . t) v] & \rightarrow E[t[v / x]] \\
E\left[(\lambda!x . t)!t^{\prime}\right] & \rightarrow E\left[t\left[t^{\prime} / x\right]\right] \\
E\left[\left|c_{U} \phi\right\rangle\right] & \rightarrow E[U|\phi\rangle] \tag{U}
\end{align*}
$$

History-preserving rules. . . ?

### 3.3 Useful Stuff

We need a fixed pointer operator, so let

$$
\text { fix } \equiv(\lambda!u \cdot \lambda!f \cdot f!(u!u!f))!(\lambda!u \cdot \lambda!f \cdot f!(u!u!f))
$$

Then we could verify that fix $!t \rightarrow^{*} t!(f i x!t)$.
Sugar for pairs:

$$
\begin{aligned}
() & \equiv \lambda!x \cdot \lambda!y \cdot x \text { id } \\
\text { cons } & \equiv \lambda h \cdot \lambda t \cdot \lambda!x \cdot \lambda!y \cdot y h t \\
\text { case } t_{1} \text { of }\left(() \rightarrow t_{2}, h: t \rightarrow t_{3}\right) & \equiv t_{1}!\left(\lambda!z \cdot t_{2}\right)!\left(\lambda h \cdot \lambda t \cdot t_{3}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Let's assume we also have let.

### 3.4 Nice Properties

Two terms are said to be "congruent" iff they differ only in 1 s and 0 s. Theorem: All superposed terms generated by $\lambda_{q}$ are congruent.

If the initial state is definite, all !-suspended terms are definite.
We can embed the classical cbv untyped lambda calculus as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(t_{1} t_{2}\right)^{*} & =(\lambda!z . z) t_{1}^{*} t_{2}^{*} \\
x^{*} & =!x \\
(\lambda x . t)^{*} & =!\left(\lambda!x . t^{*}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## 4 Some Algorithms in $\lambda_{q}$

### 4.1 Deutsch Revisited

$$
\operatorname{deutsch} U_{f} \rightarrow \operatorname{let}(x, y)=U_{f}((H 0),(H 1)) \text { in }((H x), y)
$$

Example: if $f=\mathrm{id}$ then $U_{f}=$ cnot.
deutsch $\operatorname{cnot} \rightarrow$ let $(x, y)=\operatorname{cnot}\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}H & 0\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{ll}H & )\end{array}\right)\right.$ in $((H x), y)$
$\rightarrow$ let $(x, y)=\operatorname{cnot} \frac{1}{2}(|(0,0)\rangle+|(1,0)\rangle-|(0,1)\rangle-|(1,1)\rangle)$ in $((H x), y)$
$\rightarrow$ let $(x, y)=\frac{1}{2}(|(0,0)\rangle+|(1,1)\rangle-|(0,1)\rangle-|(1,0)\rangle)$ in $((H x), y)$
$\rightarrow \frac{1}{2}\left(\left|\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}H & 0\end{array}\right), 0\right)\right\rangle+\left|\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}H & 1)\end{array}, 1\right)\right\rangle-\right|\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}H & 0\end{array}\right), 1\right)\right\rangle-\left\lvert\,\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}H & 1), 0)\rangle)\end{array}\right.\right.\right.$
$\rightarrow \frac{1}{2 \sqrt{2}}(|(0,0)\rangle+|(1,0)\rangle+|(0,1)\rangle-|(1,1)\rangle$
$-|(0,1)\rangle-|(1,1)\rangle-|(0,0)\rangle+|(1,0)\rangle)$
$=\frac{1}{2 \sqrt{2}}(2|(1,0)\rangle-2|(1,1)\rangle)$
$=|1\rangle \otimes \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle-|1\rangle)$

Now, what if $f=\lambda x .0$ ? Then $U_{f}(x, y)=(x, y \oplus f(x))=(x, y)$. So,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { deutsch id } \rightarrow \text { let }(x, y)=\operatorname{id}_{2}\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}
H & 0
\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{ll}
H & 1)
\end{array}\right) \text { in }((H x), y)\right. \\
& \rightarrow \text { let }(x, y)=\operatorname{id}_{2} \frac{1}{2}(|(0,0)\rangle+|(1,0)\rangle-|(0,1)\rangle-|(1,1)\rangle) \text { in }((H x), y) \\
& \rightarrow \text { let }(x, y)=\frac{1}{2}(|(0,0)\rangle+|(1,0)\rangle-|(0,1)\rangle-|(1,1)\rangle) \text { in }((H x), y) \\
& \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}\left(\left\lvert\,\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}
H & \left.0), 0)\rangle+\left|\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}
H & 1)
\end{array}, 0\right)\right\rangle-\right|\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}
H & 0
\end{array}\right), 1\right)\right\rangle-\left\lvert\,\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}
H & 1), 1)\rangle)
\end{array}\right) .\right.\right.
\end{array}\right.\right.\right.\right. \\
& \rightarrow \frac{1}{2 \sqrt{2}}(|(0,0)\rangle+|(1,0)\rangle+|(0,0)\rangle-|(1,0)\rangle \\
& -|(0,1)\rangle-|(1,1)\rangle-|(0,1)\rangle+|(1,1)\rangle) \\
& =\frac{1}{2 \sqrt{2}}(2|(0,0)\rangle-2|(0,1)\rangle) \\
& =|0\rangle \otimes \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle-|1\rangle)
\end{aligned}
$$

### 4.2 Spooky Action

Now we have epr $\equiv \operatorname{cnot}((H 0), 0)$. See teleportation from van Tonder, 29.

### 4.3 Controlled $U$

Suppose we have a one-bit function $U: H_{\mathrm{QB}(1)} \rightarrow H_{\mathrm{QB}(1)}$. We want to build a two-bit function $C_{U}$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
C_{U}|00\rangle & \mapsto|00\rangle \\
C_{U}|01\rangle & \mapsto|01\rangle \\
C_{U}|10\rangle & \mapsto|1\rangle U|0\rangle \\
C_{U}|11\rangle & \mapsto|1\rangle U|1\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

We have cnot $=C_{\text {not }}$. Recall, in general, we can build $C_{U}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}I & 0 \\ 0 & U\end{array}\right]$. How do we do it in $\lambda_{q}$ ?

$$
\begin{aligned}
& C \equiv \lambda U \cdot \lambda(c, x) . \\
& \text { let }\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=\operatorname{cnot}(x, 0) \text { in } \\
& \text { let }\left(c^{\prime}, x_{1}^{\prime}, d_{1}\right)=T\left(\sigma_{1} c, x_{1}, 0\right) \text { in } \\
& \text { let }\left(c^{\prime \prime}, x_{2}^{\prime}, d_{2}\right)=T\left(\sigma_{1} c^{\prime}, U x_{2}, 0\right) \text { in } \\
& \quad \text { let }\left(d_{1}^{\prime}, d_{2}^{\prime}, r\right)=T\left(\sigma_{1} d_{1}, \sigma_{1} d_{2}, 1\right) \text { in } \\
& \quad\left(c^{\prime \prime}, r, x_{1}^{\prime}, x_{2}^{\prime}, d_{1}^{\prime}, d_{2}^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

### 4.4 Fourier Transform

We have lists. We can also write (linear) map and reverse. See van Tonder, 31.

## 5 Related Work

### 5.1 Quantum Turing Machine

Equivalent to the quantum Turing machine. The basis states of $\mathcal{Q}$ are $|x ; \mathbf{n} ; \mathbf{m}\rangle$ where $x$ is head position, $n$ is a finite state, and $m$ is an infinite memory (which always has only a finite number of 1 s ).

Transitions are represented by a reversible, unitary operator $U$, so $\psi(t)=U^{t}\left|x ; \mathbf{0} ; \mathbf{n}_{0}\right\rangle . U$ has some restrictions: it can affect only the bit $n_{x}$ at any step, and $x$ can change only by 1 . There's a universal QTM that takes an encoding of $U$ as part of its input.

Theorem: For any particular "finite" QTM, there's a quantum circuit.

Theorem: QTM and $\lambda_{q}$ are equally powerful.

### 5.2 Lambda-q

Another quantum lambda calculus which is strictly more powerful. Can compute NP efficiently. Does this using non-linear operators, so we don't know if it's implementable.

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