

Introduction to Probabilistic and Quantum Programming

Part II

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Section 1

Probabilistic Programming Languages

Flipping a Coin

- ▶ Adding probabilistic behaviour to any programming language is relatively **easy**, at least from a purely **linguistic** point of view.
- ▶ The naïve solution is to endow your favourite language with a primitive that, when executed, “flips a fair coin” returning 0 or 1 with equal probability.
 - ▶ In **imperative** programming languages, this can take the form of a keyword `rand`, to be used in expressions;
 - ▶ In **functional** programming languages, one could also use a form of binary, probabilistic sum, call it \oplus , as follows:
`letrec f x = x (+) (f (x+1))`
- ▶ How do we get the necessary randomness, when executing programs?
 - ▶ By a source of *true* randomness, like physical randomness.
 - ▶ By *pseudorandomness* (we will come to that later).

Sampling

- ▶ If incepted into a universal programming language, binary uniform choice is enough to encode sampling from any **computable** distribution.
- ▶ As an example, if f is defined as follows

```
letrec f x = x (+) (f (x+1))
```

then $f(0)$ produces the exponential distribution

$$\{0^{\frac{1}{2}}, 1^{\frac{1}{4}}, 2^{\frac{1}{8}}, \dots\}.$$

- ▶ A **real number** $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is **computable** if there is an algorithm \mathcal{A}_x outputting, on input $n \in \mathbb{N}$, a rational number $q_n \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $|x - q_n| < \frac{1}{2^n}$.
- ▶ A **computable distribution** is one such that there is an algorithm \mathcal{B} that, on input n , outputs the code of \mathcal{A}_{p^n} , where p^n is the probability the distribution assigns to n .

Theorem

PTMs are universal for computable distributions.

True Randomness vs. Pseudorandomness

- ▶ Having access to a source of true randomness is definitely not trivial.
- ▶ One could make use, as an example, of:
 - ▶ Keyboard and mouse actions;
 - ▶ External sources of randomness, like sound or movements;
 - ▶ TRNGs (True Random Number Generators).
- ▶ A **pseudorandom generator** is a deterministic algorithm \mathcal{G} from strings in Σ^* to Σ^* such that:
 - ▶ $|\mathcal{G}(s)| > |s|$;
 - ▶ $\mathcal{G}(s)$ is somehow **indistinguishable** from a truly random string t *of the same length*.
- ▶ The point of pseudorandomness is **amplification**: a short truly random string is turned into a longer string which is not random, but looks so.

Programming vs. Modeling

- ▶ Probabilistic *models*, contrarily to probabilistic *languages*, are pervasive and very-well studied from decades.
 - ▶ Markov Chains
 - ▶ Markov Processes
 - ▶ Stochastic Processes
 - ▶ ...
- ▶ A probabilistic **program**, however, can indeed be seen as a way to concisely specify a model, for the purpose of doing, e.g., machine learning or inference.
 - ▶ A quite large research community is currently involved in this effort, mainly in the United States (for more details, see <http://probabilistic-programming.org>).
 - ▶ Roughly, you cannot only “flip a coin”, but you can also incorporate **observations** about your dataset in your program.

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A Nice Example: FUN

```
let heads1 = random (Bernoulli(0.5)) in  
let heads2 = random (Bernoulli(0.5)) in  
let u = observe (heads1 || heads2) in  
(heads1,heads2)
```

A Nice Example: FUN

```
// prior distributions, the hypothesis
let skill() = random (Gaussian(10.0,20.0))
let Alice,Bob,Cyd = skill(),skill(),skill()

// observe the evidence
let performance player = random (Gaussian(player,1.0))
observe (performance Alice > performance Bob) //Alice beats Bob
observe (performance Bob > performance Cyd) //Bob beats Cyd
observe (performance Alice > performance Cyd) //Alice beats Cyd

// return the skills
Alice,Bob,Cyd
```

Section 2

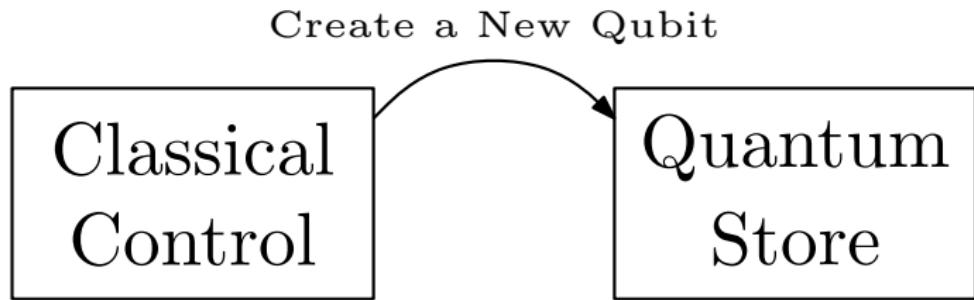
Quantum Programming Languages

Quantum Data and Classical Control

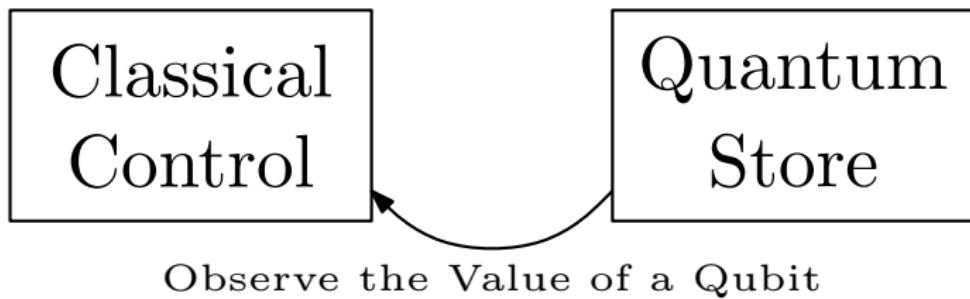
Classical
Control

Quantum
Store

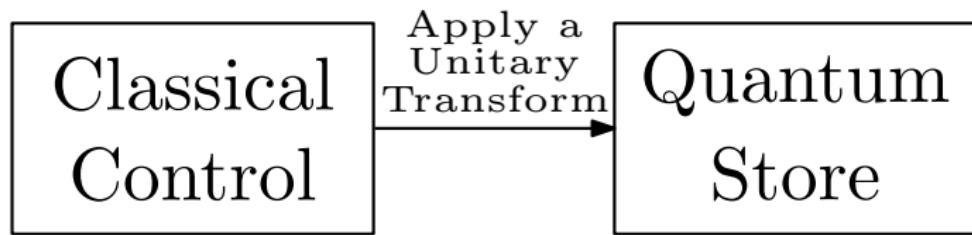
Quantum Data and Classical Control



Quantum Data and Classical Control



Quantum Data and Classical Control



Imperative Quantum Programming Languages

- ▶ QCL, which has been introduced by Ömer
- ▶ Example:

```
qufunct set(int n,qureg q)
{
    int i;
    for i=0 to #q-1
    {
        if bit(n,i) {Not(q[i]);}
    }
}
```

- ▶ Classical and quantum variables.
- ▶ The syntax is very reminiscent of the one of C.

Quantum Imperative Programming Languages

- ▶ qGCL, which has been introduced by Sanders and Zuliani.
 - ▶ It is based on Dijkstra's predicate transformers and guarded-command language, called GCL.
 - ▶ Features quantum, probabilistic, and nondeterministic evolution.
 - ▶ It can be seen as a generalization of pGCL, itself a *probabilistic* variation on GCL.
- ▶ Tafliovich, Hehner adapted predicative programming to quantum computation.
 - ▶ Predicative programming is not a proper programming language, but rather a methodology for specification and verification.

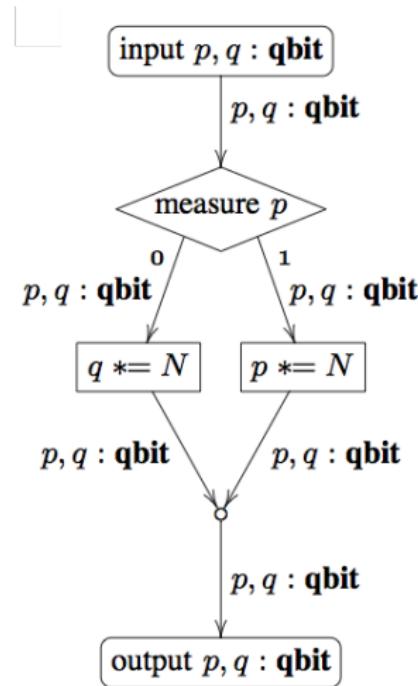
Quantum Functional Programming Languages

- ▶ QPL, introduced by Selinger.
 - ▶ A very simple, first-order, functional programming language.
 - ▶ The first one with a proper denotational semantics, given in terms of superoperators, but also handling divergence by way of domain theory.
 - ▶ A *superoperator* is a mathematical object by which we can describe the evolution of a quantum system **in presence of measurements**.
- ▶ Many papers investigated the possibility of embedding quantum programming into Haskell, arguably the most successful real-world functional programming language.
 - ▶ In a way or another, they are all based on the concept of a monad.

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QPL: an Example



Quantum Functional Programming Languages

- ▶ In a first-order fragment of Haskell, one can also model a form of *quantum control*, i.e., programs whose internal **state** is in superposition.
 - ▶ This is Altenkirch and Grattage's QML.
- ▶ Operations are programmed at a very low level: unitary transforms become programs themselves, e.g.

$$\begin{aligned} had : \mathbf{Q}_2 &\multimap \mathbf{Q}_2 \\ had\ x &= \mathbf{if}^\circ\ x \\ &\quad \mathbf{then}\ \{\mathbf{qfalse}\mid(-1)\mathbf{qtrue}\} \\ &\quad \mathbf{else}\ \{\mathbf{qfalse}\mid\mathbf{qtrue}\} \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Whenever you program by way of the *if* construct, you should be careful and check that the two branches are **orthogonal** in a certain sense.

Quantum Functional Programming Languages

- ▶ Most work on functional programming languages has focused on **λ -calculi**, which are *minimalist*, paradigmatic languages only including the essential features.
- ▶ Programs are seen as terms from a simple grammar

$$M, N ::= x \mid MN \mid \lambda x. M \mid \dots$$

- ▶ Computation is captured by way of **rewriting**
- ▶ Quantum features can be added in many different ways.
 - ▶ By adding **quantum variables**, which are meant to model the interaction with the quantum store.
 - ▶ By allowing terms to be in **superposition**, somehow diverging from the quantum-data-and-classical-control paradigm:

$$M ::= \dots \mid \sum_{i \in I} \alpha_i M_i$$

- ▶ The third part of this course will be entirely devoted to (probabilistic and) quantum λ -calculi.

Quantum Process Algebras

- ▶ Process algebras are calculi meant to model **concurrency** and **interaction** rather than mere computation.
- ▶ Terms of process algebras are usually of the following form;

$$P, Q ::= \mathbf{0} \mid a.P \mid \bar{a}.P \mid P||Q \mid \dots$$

- ▶ Again, computation is modeled by a form of rewriting, e.g.,

$$a.P || \bar{a}.Q \rightarrow P || Q$$

- ▶ How could we inception quantum computation? Usually:
 - ▶ Each process has its own set of classical and quantum (local) variables.
 - ▶ Processes do not only synchronize, but can also **send** classical and quantum data along channels.
 - ▶ Unitary transformations and measurements are done locally.

Other Programming Paradigms

- ▶ Concurrent Constraint Programming
- ▶ Measurement-Based Quantum Computation
- ▶ Hardware Description Languages
- ▶ ...

Thank You!

Questions?