Characterizing classes of quantum computations that can be simulated efficiently on a classical computer is one of the most useful ways for investigating the power of quantum computation. In particular classical simulations can be used to identify the crucial properties which are responsible for the advantage that quantum computation has over classical computation. One property that has been shown as essential for a valuable quantum computation is entanglement (measured by the Schmidt number). Any computation that does not produce much entanglement, in the sense that the state of the computer, at any stage of the computation, can be described through a sequence of Schmidt decompositions for which the Schmidt number is bounded by poly(n) (n – the number of qubits), can be efficiently simulated on a classical computer [1,2].

One method for simulating quantum circuits which does not make use of a low-entanglement representation of the computer’s state is tensor contraction due Markov and Shi [3]. This method relies solely on the topology of the circuit, or more accurately, of the graph created by representing the gates as vertices and the qubit wires as edges. It was shown that a number of families of quantum circuits including log-depth circuits with nearest-neighbor interaction [3] and the approximate quantum Fourier transform (which was not known to be efficiently simulable by any other method), can be efficiently simulated by this method [4, 5]. The relation between low-entanglement based methods and tensor contraction was not completely clear. In particular, the question how much entanglement can circuits whose topology allows for an efficient classical simulation produce was until now open.

In this work we first consider classical simulations of measurement based quantum computation (MQC). We show a similarity between the tree tensor network (TTN) simulation method of [6, 7] – which is a low-entanglement method based on a sequence of Schmidt decompositions (relying on low enough Schmidt numbers) – and a version of the tensor contraction method, as defined in [3], for MQC. We then use this similarity to show that any quantum circuit which is efficiently contractable cannot produce much entanglement. Namely, during the entire computation the state of the computer has an efficient representation (as a TTN) in terms of as sequence of Schmidt decompositions.

In the methods above (as in all other simulation methods of quantum computation that we know of) one simulates a quantum computation through sampling in a qubit by qubit manner. Explicitly, one computes the probabilities for the output measurement on one qubit and samples from them, then one computes the conditional probabilities for a measurement on a second qubit given that the sampled outcome for the first qubit had been obtained and so on. At each stage one computes the conditional probabilities for a measurement on one qubit given that previously sampled outcomes had been obtained. At the end of the process one obtains an outcome, of the entire computation, with the same probability as the quantum computer.

Let us first consider the simulation method based on the representation of the system as a TTN. This representation of a quantum state is a generalization of Vidal’s matrix product state (MPS) representation. In the MPS representation of a system of n qubits one considers n – 1 Schmidt decompositions according to a chosen ordering (that is, one considers the first qubit against the rest then the first two qubit against the rest and so on), whereas in the TTN representation one considers a sequence of Schmidt decompositions along a chosen tree structure. Explicitly, given an n qubit system we consider a tree which has these qubits as its leaves as in Fig. 1. Removing an edge from the tree will induce a partition of the tree into two sub-trees. The Schmidt decompositions we consider in a TTN are those corresponding to partitions induced by removing one internal edge of such a tree graph. In a subcubic tree was considered where all vertices, except the leaves, including the root have three edges. Here we shall turn this into a binary tree by adding a degree two vertex proportional to the identity (which will be the new root) to one of the edges connected to the original root. In a TTN representation a tensor is associated with each vertex of the tree. The indices of these tensors are associated with the edges connected to the vertex. Therefore in our TTN every tensor (except the root) would be of rank 3. Indices associated with edges connected to the leaves correspond to the value of the qubit in the computational basis. So that given an n qubit state and a binary tree structure on that state, the coefficients of the computational basis
FIG. 1: A tree structure on a 5 qubits state. The partition corresponding to the edge $\alpha$ is shown.

The decomposition of the state are given in terms of a contraction over these tensors. For example, a TTN representation of the state depicted in Fig. 1 would be

$$\sum_{i_1 \cdots i_5} A_{i_1,i_2,\alpha} A_{i_3,i_4,\beta} A_{i_5,i_6,\gamma} |i_1 \cdots i_5\rangle$$

where the $i$ indices are the value of the qubit (in the computational basis) and the Greek indices correspond to the internal edges of the tree and thus correspond to the Schmidt basis of the partition induced by this edge. So that, for instance, the Schmidt vectors corresponding to the decomposition along the edge $\alpha$ (up to normalization) would be

$$|\Phi^{(1,2)}(\alpha)\rangle = \sum_{i_1,i_2} A_{i_1,i_2,\alpha} |i_1,i_2\rangle$$

$$|\Phi^{(3,4,5)}(\alpha)\rangle = \sum_{i_3,i_4,i_5} A_{i_3,i_4,\alpha} A_{i_5,i_6,\beta} A_{i_7,i_8,\gamma} |i_3,i_4,i_5\rangle$$

Denoting the largest Schmidt number for a certain tree by $\chi$, the number of complex parameters describing the state is of the order $O(n\chi^3)$.

It was shown that using a TTN representation the response of the the system to local operations and classical communication (LOCC) as well as two-qubit operations can be efficiently simulated classically. Therefore, one can efficiently simulate any computation that does not generate much entanglement (where $\chi$ is bounded by poly$(n)$). Furthermore, since in MQC the computation is performed by LOCC that can not increase the entanglement, any MQC can be efficiently simulated given that the initial state has an efficient TTN representation.

Let us now consider the tensor contraction method for simulating quantum circuits. In this method we first associate a graph with the circuit, representing each input qubit, gate and output measurement by a vertex, and each wire by an edge (e.g. a two qubit gate would correspond to a vertex of degree four). We then label each edge with a different index. Finally, to each vertex we associate a tensor describing the operation performed at that point. This tensor has indices corresponding to all edges connected to that vertex (so that its rank is equal to the degree of the vertex). The probability to obtain a certain outcome for some measurement is given by contracting these tensors, (that is, taking the product of all these tensors and summing over all indices).

Of course, one cannot efficiently sum over all indices at the same time as there are exponentially many terms. To avoid this one contracts the tensors together one at a time – in each step of the computation one replaces two existing tensors with a new one obtained by summing over any joint indices. We repeat this procedure until we are left with a single tensor with no free indices, which is the desired probability. The key element of the method is the ordering of the contraction. The aim is to order the contractions so that one never generate tensors with too many indices during this process.

The contraction process can be described by a sequence of sets of vertices $S = (s^1, \ldots, s^N)$ - each of which corresponds to a particular tensor that is generated during the computation. Each set $s^i \in S$ is either the union of two previous sets, or one previous set and a vertex, or two vertices. Denoting the set of all vertices by $V$:

$$s^i = \{t^i_1 \cup t^i_2\} \text{ where } \begin{cases} t^i_j = s^k, & k < i, \\ t^i_j = \{v\}, & v \in V. \end{cases}$$

The calculation of the probability is done in $N$ steps, where in step $i$ we compute a new tensor by summing over all indices corresponding to edges connecting $t^i_1$ to $t^i_2$. For the computation to be complete, we require that the final set $s^N = V$. The number of edges connecting vertices in $s^i$ to vertices outside $s^i$ is the rank of the tensor corresponding to $s^i$. The simulation corresponding to the sequence $S$ will be an efficient one if $L^{\max} = \max_i L^i = O(\log n)$.

In what follows we consider simulations of MQC. The state used as the resource for MQC is the graph state, which we consider here as any state that is generated by taking a set of qubits with each of them initially in the state $|+\rangle$ and applying cphase operations to any number of pairs of qubits (the order in which these operations are applied is irrelevant, one would always end up in the same state) we will refer to these operations as cphase connections). The underlying graph $(G)$ of such a graph state is obtained by associating a vertex to each qubit and an edge to each cphase connection.

A natural way of defining a tensor contraction scheme for MQC is by using PEPS. In such a scheme a tensor is associated with each of the qubits in the graph state. Such a tensor corresponding to a particular qubit would have an index for each cphase connection plus an additional index for the value of the qubit. The PEPS representation of a graph state would be of the form

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum_{i_1 \cdots i_n} \sum_{\{\alpha\}} A_{i_1}^{(\alpha)} \cdots A_{i_n}^{(\alpha)} |i_1 \cdots i_n\rangle$$

where $\{\alpha\}$ donates the set of all the indices corresponding to cphase connections in the graph, $\{\alpha\}_j$ denotes the subset of indices corresponding to cphase connections of qubit $j$. 
In order to simulate MQC on a graph state it is enough to calculate the probabilities for single qubit measurements. In more general terms, we consider a measurement described by a set of POVM elements \( \{ E_r \} \) each composed of single qubit POVM elements. Namely, \( E_r = E_{r_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes E_{r_n} \) where \( r_j \) represents an outcome of a single qubit measurement. For a projective measurement (on qubit \( j \)) \( E_{r_j} = | r_j \rangle \langle r_j | \), and for an unmeasured qubit we define \( E_{r_j} := I \). The probability (\( P(r) \)) for obtaining a certain outcome \( r = r_1 \cdots r_n \) is given by \( tr(E_r \langle \psi | \psi \rangle) \), and from \( 4 \) we have:

\[
P(r) = \sum_{\{ \alpha \} \{ \alpha \}^\prime} B_{\{ \alpha \}_1, \{ \alpha \}_2, \cdots, \{ \alpha \}_n \}^{r_1, r_2, \cdots, r_n}
\]

where

\[
B_{\{ \alpha \}_j, \{ \alpha \}_j^\prime}^{r_j} = \sum_{i_j, j_j^\prime} A_{\{ \alpha \}_j, i_j} A_{\{ \alpha \}_j^\prime, j_j^\prime}^* | E_{r_j} \rangle \langle i_j |
\]

The probability is, therefore, given in terms of a tensor contraction scheme on the same graph as the underlying \( G \), where a tensor \( B_{\{ \alpha \}_j}^{r_j} \) is associated with the vertex corresponding to qubit \( k \). Note that in this tensor network there is a pair of joint indices for each edge in the graph – one from the subset \( \{ \alpha \} \) and the corresponding one from \( \{ \alpha \}^\prime \) – we can treat the pair as a single index admitting four values. The above expression \( 5 \) for the probability can be obtained by placing the graph associated with the bra \( \langle \psi | \) and its tensor network on "top" of the graph of \( \langle \psi | \) (the two graphs are similar only the associated tensor network of the first is the complex conjugate of the other) and summing over the indices of the qubits (the \( i_k \)'s) with the appropriate measurement elements in between.

Once we have expressed the probabilities in terms of a contraction scheme over a graph (namely, the probability is given by contracting a set tensors where each tensor is associated with a vertex and each index of these tensors is associated with an edge) then all the results obtained in \( 4 \) and \( 5 \) automatically apply here.

The key point here is that a sequence \( S \) defined on a system of qubits is completely equivalent to a binary tree structure \( T \) on the same system – \( S \) defines a tree \( T \) and vice versa. Any subset \( s^k \in S \) of vertices (which now corresponds to some set of qubits) corresponds to a subtree of \( T \).

What can we learn from the above equivalence? A bipartition of the system corresponding to an internal edge \( e \) in the tree \( T \) (that is the partition induced by removing \( e \)), is simply a partition to a set in \( S \) and the rest of the system. Let us denote the Schmidt number corresponding to this bipartition by \( \chi_e \) and the number of cphase-connections between qubits corresponding to vertices in the set and the rest of the system (or in other words the number of edges in \( G \) connecting vertices in the set to vertices outside the set) by \( L_e \). Clearly \( L_e \geq \log_2 \chi_e \). As this is true for any \( e \in T \) it is certainly true for the one with the maximal Schmidt number. The edge in \( T \) for which we obtain the maximal \( L_e \) might be a different one but obviously the corresponding partition cannot have less cphase-connections. Thus, for any graph state \( \langle \psi | \) and any tree structure on it \( T \) we have

\[
\max_{e \in T} L_e(\langle \psi | \langle \psi |) \geq \max_{e \in T} \log_2 \chi_e(\langle \psi | \langle \psi |)
\]

The minimum of the left hand side over all possible trees is the contraction complexity of the underlying graph \( G \) denoted by \( cc(G) \), which determines the complexity of the best tensor contraction scheme on the graph state. Classically simulating any computation performed on \( \langle \psi | \) would require \( poly(n, 2^{cc(G)}) \) computational resources. \( 6 \) applies to any tree structure \( T \) it applies also to the particular tree for which the minimum of the left hand side is obtained. The minimum of the right hand side therefore cannot be bigger. Thus

\[
cc(G) \geq \chi_{wd}(\langle \psi | \langle \psi |)
\]

Hence, if we have an efficient tensor contraction simulation of MQC then we are assured that there is an efficient simulation of the same computation in terms of a TTN. Note that the opposite claim is not true. Indeed, the number of cphase-connections between two parts of a graph state gives an upper bound to \( \log_2 \chi_e \), however there can be graph states where the number of connections greatly exceeds \( \log_2 \chi_e \). The fully connected graph, for example, where each of the qubits is connected to all the rest, has Schmidt number \( 2 \) for any possible bipartition of the state.

Yet, the graph states that one usually considers as a resource for quantum computation are those without much excess of cphase connections. In particular, graph states where the number of connections per qubit (the degree of the vertices) is bounded by some constant – \( \Delta \). In that case, for a bipartition of the system corresponding to edge \( e \), into a subtree (A) and the rest of the system (B), the maximal number of qubits in A connected to qubits in B is \( \Delta \log_2 \chi_e \). We can verify this by the following procedure. We construct a sequence of sets of qubits \( (F_1, F_2, \cdots) \). \( F_1 \) includes a single qubit in \( B \) and all the qubits that are connected to it in \( A \). \( F_2 \) consists of a different qubit in \( B \) and all the qubits that are connected to it in \( A \), except those that are already included in \( F_1 \) and so on. We keep constructing such sets until each of the qubits in \( A \) that are connected to qubits in \( B \) is included in one of those sets. We now undo all cphase
connections within \(A\) and \(B\) (not affecting the entanglement between the two sides). Next we measure (in the \(z\) basis) all the qubits in \(F_1 \cap A\) save one, so that we are left with a maximally entangled pair, where the qubit in \(F_1 \cap B\) is connected only to its counterpart in \(F_1 \cap A\). The qubit in \(F_1 \cap A\) might be connected also to other qubits in \(B\) however these connections can be undone by local complementation \(\mathbb{H}\) (i.e. by local clifford operations) and unitary operation local to \(B\). Thus, by using operations which could only decrease the entanglement we have produced out of the first set a maximally entangled pair with no connections to other qubits. At that stage the qubit in \(F_2 \cap B\) is connected only to qubits within \(F_2\), therefore we can repeat the procedure and produce a maximally entangled pair also from this set. We proceed in the same way generating a maximally entangled pair from each set, each carrying exactly one qubit. Clearly, the maximal number of pairs, and therefore of sets, cannot be greater than \(\log_2 \chi_e\). As the maximal number of qubits from \(A\) in each set is \(\Delta\) we get the above bound.

The upper bound on \(L_e\) is thus \(\Delta^2 \log_2 \chi_{A,B}\) since each qubit in \(A\) is connected to at most \(\Delta\) qubits in \(B\). Since this bound applies to any bipartition it also applies to the one for which \(L_e\) is maximal for a given tree. Obviously, the maximal \(\chi_e\) for this tree can only be greater, thus

\[
\max_{e \in T} L_e(|\psi\rangle, T) \leq \Delta^2 \max_{e' \in T} \log_2 \chi_{e'}(|\psi\rangle, T)
\]

(8)

Using the same arguments as above we can take a minimum over all trees for both sides of the inequality. Including \(\mathbb{I}\) we therefore have

\[
\chi_{\text{twd}}(|\psi\rangle) \leq cc(G) \leq \Delta^2 \chi_{\text{wd}}(|\psi\rangle)
\]

(9)

Showing the equivalence, up to a constant, of both methods of simulations of MQC for any \(G\) of maximal degree \(\Delta\). A topological parameter which determines \(cc(G)\) is the tree width of \(G\) (\(\text{twd}(G)\)). In \(\mathbb{I}\) upper and lower bounds to \(cc(G)\) were given in terms of \(\text{twd}(G), \chi_{\text{wd}}(G)\) is equal to a different parameter of the graph – the rank width of \(G\) (\(\text{rwd}(G)\)) \(\mathbb{F}, \mathbb{I}\). Using the bounds in \(\mathbb{I}\) the above inequalities can be written in terms of these parameters. For any graph \(G\) we have

\[
\frac{\text{twd}(G) - 1}{2\Delta^2} \leq \text{rwd}(G) \leq \Delta(\text{twd}(G) + 1) - 1
\]

So far we have considered simulation of quantum computation on graph states. Let us now consider quantum circuits. Given a quantum circuit \((C)\) we can on one hand define a a tensor contraction scheme as in \(\mathbb{I}, \mathbb{I}, \mathbb{F}\) where the corresponding graph \((G_c)\) is constructed by associating a vertex to each circuit element. On the other hand we can perform the same computation using MQC on a graph state. The standard way to construct a graph state for a given circuit is by associating a chain of qubits for each logical qubit along which the data would progress via single qubit measurements while undergoing one and two qubit gate applications. For each single qubit gate up to three qubits should be introduced to the chain and two qubit gates are realized by introducing cphase connections between the two corresponding chains. We denote, as before, the underlying graph of the graph state by \(G\).

Clearly \(G_c\) is not identical to \(G\). One difference is that in \(G\) a sequence of up to three vertices of degree 2 may correspond to a single one-qubit gate (which corresponds to one such vertex in \(G_c\)). The second difference is that a two qubit gate is associated with a single vertex of degree 4 while in \(G\) it would correspond to two vertices of degree 3 with an edge between them. Clearly, the additional vertices of degree 2 have no effect on the contraction complexity of \(G\) – any degree 2 vertex can be contracted together with a neighboring vertex or a set of vertices without changing its number of outgoing edges. Since the two vertices of degree 3 can be combined to form a set with four outgoing edges (representing a rank 4 tensor just as the corresponding vertex in \(G_c\)), it is clear that

\[
cc(G) \leq cc(G_c)
\]

Hence, if a quantum circuit has an efficient tensor contraction scheme simulating it then we are assured that so would the MQC version of that circuit on a graph state, and from \(\mathbb{I}\) we know that the this graph state would have an efficient TTN representation and consequently an efficient TTN-based classical simulation. Moreover, the fact that any such circuit has an efficient TTN representation also tells us that such a circuit cannot produce much entanglement. The state of the computer at any stage of the computation would have an efficient TTN representation.

In order to see this we note that the state of the computer at a certain stage of the computation is the state produced by applying a sub-circuit of \(C\) \((C_1)\) to the input. In order to produce the same state using our graph state we introduce new ‘output’ qubits in the graph state corresponding to \(C\). These are additional qubits inserted in the chains just after the sub-graph state corresponding to \(C_1\), which function as links connecting this sub-graph to the rest of the system (they have no vertical cphase connections between different chains). The reason we introduced these new qubits is that the qubits that immediately follow \(C_1\) might have additional connection between the chains. Obviously the vertices corresponding to the new output qubits are of degree 2 so that if the original graph had an efficient TTN representation so would the new graph with the additional qubits. Now, the state of the quantum computer after applying \(C_1\) would be the state (up to local phase corrections) of the new output qubits after measuring the qubits corresponding to \(C_1\) according to the circuit, and measuring the rest of the qubits in the \(z\) basis. As single qubit measurements
cannot increase the Schmidt rank the new output qubits would also have an efficient TTN representation.

It should be noted that the opposite claim is not true. There are circuits which do not produce much entanglement but do not have an efficient tensor contraction scheme. Obvious examples are classical circuits (with ‘classical’ computational basis input and output measurements) such as modular exponentiation, which do not produce any entanglement and yet are not likely to have an efficient tensor contraction scheme [11].

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