

AperTO - Archivio Istituzionale Open Access dell'Università di Torino

On the Expressivity of Total Reversible Programming Languages

This is a pre print version of the following article:

Original Citation:

Availability:

This version is available <http://hdl.handle.net/2318/1747639> since 2020-08-03T14:40:25Z

Publisher:

Springer

Published version:

DOI:10.1007/978-3-030-52482-1_7

Terms of use:

Open Access

Anyone can freely access the full text of works made available as "Open Access". Works made available under a Creative Commons license can be used according to the terms and conditions of said license. Use of all other works requires consent of the right holder (author or publisher) if not exempted from copyright protection by the applicable law.

(Article begins on next page)

On the expressivity of total reversible programming languages

Armando B. Matos¹, Luca Paolini²^[0000-0002-4126-0170], and Luca Roversi²^[0000-0002-1871-6109]

¹ Universidade do Porto, Departamento de Ciência de Computadores
`armandobcm@yahoo.com`

² Università degli Studi di Torino, Dipartimento di Informatica, Italy
`{luca.paolini,luca.roversi}@unito.it`

Abstract. SRL is a reversible programming language conceived as a restriction of imperative programming languages. Each SRL program that mentions n registers defines a bijection on n -tuples of integers. Despite its simplicity, SRL is strong enough to grasp a wide class of computable bijections and to rise non-trivial programming issues. We advance in the study of its expressivity. We show how to choose among alternative program-branches by checking if a given value is positive or negative. So, we answer some longstanding questions that the literature poses. In particular, we prove that SRL is primitive recursive complete and that its program equivalence is undecidable.

Keywords: Reversible Programming Languages · Imperative Programming Languages · Primitive Recursive Functions · Decidability.

1 Introduction

Reversible computing is an unconventional form of computing that identifies an interesting restriction of the classical digital computing model which, perhaps surprisingly, still is Turing-complete [3]. Classical computation is deterministic in a forward manner, i.e. each state is followed by a unique state. The reversible computation is a classic computation which is also required to be backward-deterministic: every state has a unique predecessor state.

The research interest for reversible computing is emerged in a plethora of situations (see [25] for a survey). Inside the classical computing, often we come across this subject inadvertently and accidentally. Think about lossless compression, cryptographic procedures, view-update problem, and so on. However, the interest for the reversible paradigm in the classical computing is far broader than that, because it is linked to the ubiquitous backtracking mechanism. Albeit specific researches on these classic arguments have been developed, the quest for an overall theory of reversible computing has been initially motivated from a different search: the interest for thermodynamic issues of the computation. This research goal can potentially contribute to decrease energy consumption, systems overheat and, battery stockpiling in portable systems. Furthermore, we

like to remind that the reversible computation is intimately linked to emerging computing models, like, for example, the quantum computing paradigm.

The literature proposes several reversible languages (see [25] for a survey). We focus our attention on SRL and its variants, namely a family of total reversible programming languages introduced in [10]. These languages have been conceived as a restriction of the LOOP language defined in [15, 14]. The LOOP language identifies a sub-class of programs that exist inside WHILE programming languages and which correspond to the class of primitive recursive functions, crucial in recursion theory. The distinguishing difference between SRL languages and LOOP, or WHILE ones, is that their registers store both positive and negative integers (like standard programming languages) and not only natural numbers. The three instructions common to every variant of SRL are the increment (viz. `inc R`), the decrement (viz. `dec R`) and the iteration (viz. `for R(P)`, where P is a subprogram that cannot modify the content of register R). Registers contain values in \mathbb{Z} and a program that mentions n registers defines a bijection $\mathbb{Z}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^n$.

For each program P of SRL, we can build the program P^{-1} that reverses the behavior of P in an effective way. I.e., executing P^{-1} just after P is equivalent to the identity. Patently, increment and decrement are mutual inverses. On the other hand, `for R(P)` iterates n times the execution of P , whenever $n \geq 0$, and iterates n times the execution of the inverse of P whenever $n \leq 0$; so, it can be used to invert itself.

Despite the instruction set of SRL is quite limited, its operational semantics is unexpectedly complex. The literature [10, 12, 13, 18, 21] leaves many questions open, mainly concerning the relation between SRL and the class of computable bijections³, which form a core of computable functions [10, 19, 20, 22, 24, 23].

We aim at answering some of those questions.

1. Is the program equivalence of SRL decidable?
2. Is it decidable if a program of SRL behaves as the identity?
3. Is it possible to decide whether a given program is an inverse of a second one?
4. Is SRL primitive-recursive complete?
5. Is SRL sufficiently expressive to represent RPP [21] or RPRF [18, 20]?

Patently, these questions are correlated in many ways. Quite trivially 1, 2 and 3 are equivalent. Also 4 and 5 are because RPP and RPRF are primitive-recursive correct and complete. A positive answer to 4 would imply a positive answer to 5 and a negative one to 1 because the equivalence between primitive-recursive functions is undecidable [26, Ch.3].

In this work we answer to all of them by solving the open problem in [21]: “It is an open problem if the conditional instruction of RPP can be implemented in SRL.” Encoding a conditional behavior as a program of SRL allows to compile programs of RPP and RPRF in SRL, so answering question 5. Since RPP is

³ We remark that, traditionally, computable bijections are studied on natural numbers, while in this setting, studies extend them, w.l.o.g., to the whole set of integers.

primitive-recursive complete [21], then SRL is, answering question 4. So, the program equivalence for SRL is undecidable because that one of primitive recursive functions is [26, Ch.3]. This answers questions 1,2 and 3.

Contents Section 2 introduces SRL and some useful notations. Section 3 introduces the representation of truth values. Section 4 shows how to test numbers and zero. Section 5 shows how RPP can be represented in SRL. Conclusions are in Section 6.

2 The language SRL

SRL is a reversible programming language [10, 11, 25] that Armando Matos distills from a variant of Meyer and Ritchie’s LOOP language [15, 14]. Specifically, SRL restricts a FOR language that, in its turn, is a total restriction of any WHILE programming language (a.k.a. IMP) [5, 9, 26]. A FOR language is in [17] which revisits results in [15, 14] about the relation between programming and primitive recursive functions.

The choice of letting SRL-languages to operate on all integers eases the design of a reversible language because \mathbb{Z} , endowed with sum, is a group while \mathbb{N} is not. Therefore, the registers that a program of SRL uses store values of \mathbb{Z} . Each program P defines a bijection $\mathbb{Z}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^n$, where $n \geq 1$ is an upper bound to the number of registers that occur in P . As a terminology, we take “mentioned” and “used” as synonymous of “occur” in a sentence like “registers that occur in P ”. The inverse of P is P^{-1} , i.e. the inverse bijection that P represents. We shall explain how to get P^{-1} from P in a few.

The minimal dialect of SRL languages we focus on is as follows:

Definition 1. *Let R be a meta-variable denoting register names that we range over by lowercase letters, possibly with subscripts and superscripts. Valid SRL-programs are the programs generated by the following grammar:*

$$P ::= \text{inc } R \mid \text{dec } R \mid \text{for } R(P) \mid P; P \tag{1}$$

that, additionally, satisfy the following linear constraint: for $r(P)$ is part of a valid program iff r is not used in P as argument of inc or dec.

The operational semantics of SRL says that (i) $\text{inc } x$ increments the content of the register x by 1; (ii) $\text{dec } x$ decrements the content of the register x by 1; (iii) $P_0; P_1$ is the sequential composition of 2 programs that we execute from left to right; and, (iv) if $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ is the initial content of the register r then, $\text{for } r(P)$ executes, either $\underbrace{P; \dots; P}_n$ whenever $n \geq 0$, or $\underbrace{P^{-1}; \dots; P^{-1}}_{|n|}$ whenever $n \leq 0$,

where $|n|$ is the absolute value of n . We notice that executing $\text{for } r(P)$ cannot alter the value in r because of the linear constraint on the syntax.

The inverse of an SRL-program is obtained by transforming $\text{inc } x$, $\text{dec } x$, $P_0; P_1$ and for $r(P)$ in $\text{dec } x$, $\text{inc } x$, $P_1^{-1}; P_0^{-1}$ and for $r(P^{-1})$, respectively. More on SRL, its extensions, as well as results about it, is in [10, 11, 21, 25].

For the sake of simplicity, the following notation concisely and formally allows to see SRL programs as bijective functions.

Notation 1 (Register names). *Without loss of generality, we shall only consider SRL-programs whose registers' names are a single letter, typically r , indexed by means of different natural numbers. Also, we assume that, if a program mentions $n \in \mathbb{N}$ registers, then r_0, \dots, r_{n-1} are their names.*

We use vectors of integers to denote the contents of all registers as a whole, both for input and output. If a vector contains n integers then, we say that n is its size and we index such integers from 0 to $n - 1$. The idea is that the content of the register r_i is in position i of the vector. As for quantum computing [16], we represent such vectors as column arrays written downwards.

Notation 2. *Let P be a SRL program that respects Notation 1. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be an upper bound of the indexes of the registers that P uses. Let $|v_{in}\rangle$ and $|v_{out}\rangle$ denote (column) vectors of size n . Then, $|v_{in}\rangle P |v_{out}\rangle$ denotes that P sets the content of its register with the values in $|v_{out}\rangle$, starting from registers set to the values in $|v_{in}\rangle$. Slightly abusing our notation:*

$$|v_1\rangle P_1 |v_2\rangle \cdots |v_k\rangle P_k |v_{k+1}\rangle$$

is the computation of $P_1; \dots; P_n$ applied to $|v_1\rangle$ with the value of the registers' intermediate contents made explicitly.

We conclude with simple examples of SRL programs that use ancillary registers. Specifically, a register is said to be a “zero-ancilla” whenever we assume that its initial value is 0; when its initial value is different, we are just not interested in the behaviour of the program.

Lemma 1 (Integer-Negation). *If r_1 is used as a zero-ancilla then:*

$$\text{for } r_0(\text{dec } r_1); \text{ for } r_1(\text{inc } r_0); \text{ for } r_1(\text{inc } r_0); \text{ for } r_0(\text{dec } r_1); \quad (2)$$

inverts the sign of the value in r_0 .

Proof. Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. It is easy to see that:

$$\begin{vmatrix} a \\ 0 \end{vmatrix} \text{ for } r_0(\text{dec } r_1); \begin{vmatrix} a \\ -a \end{vmatrix} \text{ for } r_1(\text{inc } r_0); \begin{vmatrix} 0 \\ -a \end{vmatrix} \text{ for } r_1(\text{inc } r_0); \begin{vmatrix} -a \\ -a \end{vmatrix} \text{ for } r_0(\text{dec } r_1); \begin{vmatrix} -a \\ 0 \end{vmatrix} .$$

□

We remark that (2) resets the zero-ancilla to zero, so that it can be reused for as many applications of (2) as we need. So, we can use the macro $\text{neg } r_i$ as a name of (2), hiding an additional zero-initialized ancillary register.

Lemma 2 (Swap). *If r_2 is used as a zero-ancilla then:*

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{for } r_0(\text{inc } r_2); \text{ for } r_2(\text{dec } r_0); \text{ for } r_1(\text{inc } r_0); \\ &\text{for } r_0(\text{dec } r_1); \text{ for } r_2(\text{inc } r_1); \text{ for } r_1(\text{dec } r_2); \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

swaps the content of r_0 and r_1 , and leaves the zero-ancilla clean.

Proof. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. It is easy to see that:

$$\begin{aligned} & \begin{vmatrix} a \\ b \\ 0 \end{vmatrix} \text{ for } r_0(\text{inc } r_2); \begin{vmatrix} a \\ b \\ a \end{vmatrix} \text{ for } r_2(\text{dec } r_0); \begin{vmatrix} 0 \\ b \\ a \end{vmatrix} \text{ for } r_1(\text{inc } r_0); \begin{vmatrix} b \\ b \\ a \end{vmatrix} \\ & \text{for } r_0(\text{dec } r_1); \begin{vmatrix} b \\ 0 \\ a \end{vmatrix} \text{ for } r_2(\text{inc } r_1); \begin{vmatrix} b \\ a \\ a \end{vmatrix} \text{ for } r_1(\text{dec } r_2); \begin{vmatrix} b \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{vmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

□

We shall use the macro:

$$\text{swap}(r_i, r_j) \tag{4}$$

as a name of (3) which mentions two distinct registers r_i and r_j and which hides an additional zero-initialized ancillary register. Remarkably, that unique silent zero-ancilla can be used by all swaps and negations that possibly occur in a program. For completeness, we recall that swap and negation, analogous to the ones here above, are taken as primitive operations in variants of SRL [10, 11].

3 Representing Truth Values

In order to represent truth values in SRL, we conventionally use a pair of registers.

Definition 2 (Truth values). *A pair of registers is called truth-pair whenever one register contains 0 and the other contains 1. If 1 is in the first register, then the truth-pair encodes **true**. Otherwise, 1 is in the second register and the truth-pair encodes **false**.*

Definition 2 recalls the representation of qbits in quantum computing [16] and, indeed, it has been inspired by the quantum programming languages designed in [22, 23]. Definition 2 relies on some observations:

1. “for”, natively included in SRL, works as a basic conditional operator. If r contains 1, then $\text{for } r(P)$ executes P once. Furthermore, the program:

$$\text{for } r_0(P); \text{for } r_1(Q)$$

simulates an “if-then-else” whenever r_0, r_1 is a truth-pair which drives the mutually exclusive selection between P and Q .

2. It is easy to negate a truth-value by means of $\text{swap}(r_i, r_j)$, as defined in (3), which, we recall, uses a silent additional ancilla.

A first application of truth-pairs is to check the parity of a register’s content.

Lemma 3 (isEven). *Given the truth-pair r_1, r_2 set to true, $\text{for } r_0(\text{swap}(r_1, r_2))$ decides the parity of the number in r_0 . It leaves r_1, r_2 set true iff the content of r_0 is even.*

Proof. Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then:

$$\left| \begin{array}{c} n \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{array} \right| \text{ for } r_0(\text{swap}(r_1, r_2)); \left| \begin{array}{c} n \\ b_{\text{even}} \\ b_{\text{odd}} \end{array} \right|, \quad (5)$$

where both b_{even} is 1 (b_{odd} is zero) if and only if n is even and b_{odd} is 1 (b_{even} is zero) if and only if n is odd. \square

We observe that a truth-pair can drive $\text{for } r_1(P); \text{for } r_2(Q)$ to simulate an “if-then-else” that chooses between P and Q . Once chosen, we can set the truth-pair back to its initial content by applying the inverse of (5), i.e. Bennet’s trick [1–3], in accordance with programming strategy widely used in [21]. In principle, Bennet’s trick allows to reuse the truth-pair for a further parity test.

Lemma 3 justifies the use of the macro $\text{isEven}(r_i, r_j, r_k)$ as a name for (5), provided that r_i, r_j, r_k are distinct registers and that r_j, r_k form a truth-pair. If the content of r_i is even the truth-value contained in r_j, r_k is not changed, otherwise it is logically negated. We also note that the inverse of (5) is $\text{for } r_i(\text{swap}(r_j, r_k))$, because the swap is commutative on its arguments.

An Euclidean division by 2 on positive numbers, relying on Lemma 3, divides the dividend, an integer, by the divisor, yielding a quotient and a remainder smaller than the divisor.

Lemma 4 (Halve). *Let r_1, r_2 be a truth-pair initialized to true. Let r_3 be a zero-ancilla. Then:*

$$\text{for } r_0(\text{swap}(r_1, r_2); \text{for } r_1(\text{inc } r_3)) \quad (6)$$

halves the content of r_0 , leaves the quotient of the integer division by 2, which is decremented by one in the case r_0 contains a negative odd number, in r_3 and, finally, lives the remainder in r_2 .

Proof. Let $n \geq 0$. Then:

$$\left| \begin{array}{c} n \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{array} \right| \text{ for } r_0(\text{swap}(r_1, r_2); \text{for } r_1(\text{inc } r_3)); \left| \begin{array}{c} n \\ b_{\text{even}} \\ b_{\text{odd}} \\ n/2 \end{array} \right|$$

where b_{even} and b_{odd} flag the parity of the value in r_0 in accordance with Lemma 3. In particular, r_1, r_2 contain 1, 0, respectively, iff the remainder of the division is zero. Otherwise, r_1, r_2 contain 0, 1, respectively. If $n < 0$, then:

$$\left| \begin{array}{c} n \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{array} \right| \text{ for } r_0(\text{swap}(r_1, r_2); \text{for } r_1(\text{inc } r_3)); \left| \begin{array}{c} n \\ b_{\text{even}} \\ b_{\text{odd}} \\ n/2 - b_{\text{odd}} \end{array} \right|$$

where b_{even} and b_{odd} flag the parity of the value in r_0 in accordance with Lemma 3. \square

Lemma 4 justifies the use of the macro $\text{halve}(r_i)(r_j)(r_k)(r_h)$ as a name for (6) in order to halve the value in r_i , whenever r_i, r_j, r_k and r_h are pairwise distinct. Clearly, halve silently assumes the use of an additional zero-ancilla.

4 Testing SRL-registers

We here discuss how to check if an integer number is smaller than -1 in order to leave the answer in a truth-pair. The test is crucial to answer longstanding questions about the expressivity of SRL, firstly posed in [10] and reiterated in other papers [12, 13, 18, 20, 21].

The *Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic* is the starting point [4, p.23]:

“... Any integer not zero can be expressed as a unit (± 1) times a product of positive primes. This expression is unique except for the order on which the primes factors occur. ...”

Technically, every integer $n \neq 0$ has *prime-decomposition* $(\pm 1)2^k p_1 p_2 \cdots p_m$, unique up to the order of its factors. For every $k, m \geq 0$ and $1 \leq i \leq m$, the factor p_i is a prime, positive and odd number not smaller than 3. The *odd-core* of n , decomposed as $(\pm 1)2^k p_1 p_2 \cdots p_m$, is $(\pm 1)p_1 p_2 \cdots p_m$. For instance, 21 is prime-decomposed as either $(1) \cdot 2^0 \cdot 3 \cdot 7$ or $(1) \cdot 2^0 \cdot 7 \cdot 3$ with odd-core 21, and -90 is prime-decomposed in $(-1) \cdot 2^1 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$ with odd-core -45 .

Proposition 1. *Let $n \neq 0$ be an integer and let $(\pm 1)2^k p_1 p_2 \cdots p_m$ be the prime-decomposition of n , for some $k, m \geq 0$.*

1. $k \leq |n|$, where $|n|$ is the absolute value of n .
2. For each $h \leq k$, the division of n by 2^h returns $(\pm 1)2^{k-h} p_1 p_2 \cdots p_m$ as quotient and 0 as remainder.
3. The division of n by 2^k returns an odd number. So, dividing n by 2^{k+1} has 1 as its remainder.

Proof. Trivial. □

Crucially, for each $j \in \mathbb{N}$, if we divide 0 by 2^j , then 0 is both remainder and quotient. Therefore, given an integer N and an integer M greater than N , we can show that a program of SRL exists which iteratively divides N by 2 for M times. If N is 0, the only reminder we can obtain is 0. Otherwise, a remainder equal to 1 necessarily shows up.

Theorem 3 here below defines the program. It assumes the existence of two occurrences of N . One is the dividend, the other drives the iteration. We remark that producing a copy of a given N costs just a single zero-ancilla more.

Theorem 3 (isLessThanOne). *Let r_2, r_3 and r_5, r_6 be truth-pairs initialized to true and let r_4 be a zero-ancilla. Let both r_0 and r_1 contain the value N . Then:*

$$\text{for } r_0 \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{for } r_5(\text{for } r_1(\text{swap}(r_2, r_3); \text{for } r_2(\text{inc } r_4))); \quad /* \text{ SP0 } */ \\ \text{for } r_3(\text{swap}(r_5, r_6)); \quad /* \text{ SP1 } */ \\ \text{for } r_5(\text{for } r_4(\text{dec } r_1); \text{for } r_1(\text{dec } r_4)); \quad /* \text{ SP2 } */ \\ \text{for } r_6 \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{for } r_1(\text{for } r_2(\text{dec } r_4); \text{swap}(r_2, r_3)); \\ \text{for } r_1(\text{inc } r_4); \text{for } r_4(\text{inc } r_1) \end{array} \right) \quad /* \text{ SP3 } */ \end{array} \right) \quad (7)$$

leaves true in the truth-pair r_5, r_6 if and only if N is strictly lower than 1.

Proof. Both r_0, r_1 contain N because r_0 iterates as many times as required, and r_1 is the dividend. Some remarks are worth doing.

- The comments `/* SP0 */...` name the part of program to their left that begins with “for”.
- We can think of r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4 as the arguments of `halve`, i.e. we could rewrite SP0 as `for r_5 (halve(r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4))`. So, Lemma 4, implies that SP0 halves r_1 , leaving the quotient in r_4 and the remainder in r_3 .
- Only swap-operations modify truth pairs.
- It would be sufficient to initialize r_0 with any number greater than the exponent of 2 in the prime-decomposition of N .
- Making explicit the statement requirements,

REGISTER-NAME	r_0 r_1 r_2 r_3 r_4 r_5 r_6
CONTENT	N N 1 0 0 1 0

sums up the input for SRL program (7).

The behaviour of the SRL program (7) can be described by considering three cases: $N = 0$, $N > 0$ and $N < 0$.

- Let $N = 0$. Then (7) does nothing and result is immediate. We remark that the result does not change if we arbitrarily modify the value in r_0 .
- Let $N \geq 1$. The outermost “for r_0 ” iterates its body as many times as N and the computation proceeds as discussed in the following.
 1. Let us consider SP0. If the truth-pair r_5, r_6 contains true, the program (7) executes `halve(r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4)` once. Lemma 4 implies that the value of r_1 does not change, that the remainder is stored in the truth-pair r_2, r_3 and that the result of dividing r_1 by 2 is in r_4 . Otherwise, the truth-pair r_5, r_6 contains false and nothing is done.
 2. Let us consider SP1. We observe that only SP1 can modify r_5, r_6 . If the truth-pair r_2, r_3 contains true, i.e. r_1 has even value in it, then nothing is done. Otherwise, the truth-pair r_2, r_3 contains false, i.e. r_1 contains an odd number. Then, SP1 yields the global result by setting the truth-pair r_5, r_6 to false.
 3. Let us consider SP2 which, we remark, is crucial that the program (7) executes at most once. Let the truth-pair r_5, r_6 contain true. We both subtract from r_1 half of its value, which is in r_4 after we execute SP0, and we reset r_4 to zero. This sets r_1, r_2, r_3 and r_4 for the next halve-iteration. If the truth-pair r_5, r_6 contains false, then nothing is done.
 4. Let us consider SP3. If the truth-pair r_5, r_6 contains true, then nothing is done. Globally, this means that the body of SP3 cannot run until r_1 is possibly set with an odd value. If the truth-pair r_5, r_6 contains false, then we must consider two cases in order to ensure that SP3 leaves the value false in the truth-pair r_2, r_3 .
 - Let r_1 contain an odd value n after executing SP1, which sets r_5, r_6 to false, and which is followed by SP2 that, doing nothing, leaves register’s contents unchanged. Since `for r_1 (for r_2 (dec r_4); swap(r_2, r_3))` is the inverse of `halve(r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4)`, then:

$$\begin{array}{c} \left| \begin{array}{c} N \\ n \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ n/2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{array} \right| \underbrace{\left| \begin{array}{c} \text{for } r_1(\text{for } r_2(\text{dec } r_4); \text{swap}(r_2, r_3)); \\ \text{halve}(r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4)^{-1} \end{array} \right|}_{\text{for } r_1(\text{inc } r_4);} \left| \begin{array}{c} N \\ n \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c} N \\ n \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ n \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c} N \\ 2n \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ n \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{array} \right| . \end{array}$$

To sum up, (i) the truth-pair r_2, r_3 is restored to true, (ii) the contents of r_1 and r_4 are now both even. Specifically, r_1 contains an even value and r_4 doubles that value.

- Let r_1 contain an even value n . This sub-case can only occur when the preceding sub-case, with r_1 initially set to an odd value n , has already occurred once. Moreover, both SP0, SP1 and SP2 cannot not change the content of the registers anymore, because r_5, r_6 contain the false and r_1 is doubled by every iteration in order to permanently maintain true in the pair r_2, r_3 . Then:

$$\begin{array}{c} \left| \begin{array}{c} N \\ n \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ n/2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{array} \right| \underbrace{\left| \begin{array}{c} \text{for } r_1(\text{for } r_2(\text{dec } r_4); \text{swap}(r_2, r_3)); \\ \text{halve}(r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4)^{-1} \end{array} \right|}_{\text{for } r_1(\text{inc } r_4);} \left| \begin{array}{c} N \\ n \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c} N \\ n \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ n \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c} N \\ 2n \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ n \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{array} \right| . \end{array}$$

To sum up, (i) the truth-pair r_2, r_3 remains true, (ii) the contents of r_1 and r_4 are both even. Specifically, r_1 contains an even value and r_4 doubles that value.

- Let $N \leq -1$. By definition, $\text{for } r_0(P)$ executes P^{-1} as many times as n_0 if n_0 is the value of r_0 . We have to check that (7) doubles the content of r_1 before checking its parity. Hence, r_1 can never be read off with an odd number in it. Thus, (7) simply checks the parity of r_1 and doubles r_1 , at every of its iterations, according to the following details:
 - Let us consider SP3. The body of the outermost “for” of SP3 never executes, for the truth-pair r_5, r_6 contains true all along the execution.
 - Let us call B_{SP2} the body $\text{for } r_4(\text{dec } r_1); \text{for } r_1(\text{dec } r_4)$ of SP2. Then, every iteration of (7) executes B_{SP2} . Since N is negative and r_5 contains 1, we have to consider B_{SP2}^{-1} , i.e. $\text{for } r_1(\text{inc } r_4); \text{for } r_4(\text{inc } r_1)$. Moreover, since r_1 contains a negative number, we remark that the outermost occurrence of “for” in B_{SP2}^{-1} further inverts its body. Since $N \leq -1$, we consider a generic negative number n . Thus:

$$\left| \begin{array}{c} N \\ n < 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c} \text{for } r_1(\text{dec } r_4); \\ \text{for } r_4(\text{dec } r_1) \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c} N \\ n \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ -n \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c} N \\ n + n \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ -n \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{array} \right| ,$$

where both n and $n + n$ are negative, so $-n$ is positive.

- Let us consider SP1. Since the truth-pair r_2, r_3 is never changed from its initial value true, the body of the outermost occurrence of “for” in SP1 is always skipped.

- Let us consider SP0 and let name for $r_5(\text{for } r_1(\text{swap}(r_2, r_3); \text{for } r_2(\text{inc } r_4)))$, i.e. the body of SP0, as B_{SP0} . Every iteration of (7) executes B_{SP0} because the initial true value in the truth-pair r_5, r_6 never changes. Since N is negative, we consider B_{SP0}^{-1} , i.e. $\text{for } r_5(\text{for } r_1(\text{for } r_2(\text{dec } r_4); \text{swap}(r_2, r_3)))$. Nevertheless, also r_1 contains a negative number, thus the body of $\text{for } (r_1)$ is subject to a further inversion that annihilates the first one. Since $N \leq -1$, we consider a generic negative number n . Thus:

$$\begin{pmatrix} N \\ 2n \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ -n \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{for } r_5(\text{for } r_1(\text{swap}(r_2, r_3); \text{for } r_2(\text{inc } r_4))) \begin{pmatrix} N \\ 2n \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Summing up, in the case $N \leq -1$ each iteration executes two steps: (i) SP2 copies the content of r_1 in r_4 and doubles r_1 ; (ii) SP0 resets r_4 to zero and leaves all other registers unchanged. \square

Concluding observations and remarks on (7) follow.

We can drop the constraint that both r_0 and r_1 contain the same value by letting r_1 be a zero-ancilla and starting (7) with $\text{for } r_0(\text{inc } r_1)$, to recover the current assumptions of Theorem 3. Therefore:

$$\text{isLessThanOne}(r_{j_0}, r_{j_1}, r_{j_2}, r_{j_3}, r_{j_4}, r_{j_5}, r_{j_6}) \quad (8)$$

can be a name for the program (7) that we assume to apply to distinct registers such that: (i) r_{j_2}, r_{j_3} and r_{j_5}, r_{j_6} are truth-pairs with initial value set true, and (ii) r_{j_1}, r_{j_4} are variables with initial value set 0. Under these assumptions, after executing $\text{isLessThanOne}(r_{j_0}, r_{j_1}, r_{j_2}, r_{j_3}, r_{j_4}, r_{j_5}, r_{j_6})$, the truth-pair r_{j_5}, r_{j_6} still contains true if and only if r_{j_0} was containing either zero or a negative integer.

Using one more additional zero-ancilla would allow to further simplify (7) in the minimal version of SRL that we program with in this work: all the explicit uses of the swap-macros would disappear. In accordance with Theorem 3, isLessThanOne always returns the content of r_{j_0} unchanged. Yet, in accordance with Theorem 3, isLessThanOne always returns the truth-pair r_{j_2}, r_{j_3} clean. Therefore, w.l.o.g., it is possible to use it silently. On the other hand, the truth-pair r_{j_5}, r_{j_6} is used for the result and so it cannot be used silently. Worst, the registers r_{j_1}, r_{j_4} are left “dirty”, i.e. containing useless values for our goal. It is an open question if a program, equivalent to (7), exists that stops with all ancillary variables, but the truth-pair r_5, r_6 that contains the result, clean, i.e. with their starting values in them.

The program (7) of Theorem 3 and its sub-procedures, have been checked by using the Haskell meta-interpreter in [11, page 86]. The main drawback of isLessThanOne is that the value of r_1 grows exponentially. More precisely, let N be an integer different from zero and $(\pm 1)2^k p_1 p_2 \cdots p_m$ its prime-decomposition with odd-core $d = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_m$. If N is positive, then the above program leaves the value $d * 2^{N-k}$ in r_1 . If N is negative, then value is $N * 2^N$. We leave the problem of eliminating the exponential blow up as open.

5 Expressivity

We here prove that SRL can represent all Primitive Recursive functions (PR). We begin by recalling what Reversible Primitive Permutations (RPP) are. Second, we show that SRL can represent every element of RPP. Since RPP can express all PR [21], then SRL enjoys the same property.

By analogy with PR, we build RPP by means of composition schemes that we apply to base functions. RPP contains total reversible endofunctions on tuples of integers, i.e. elements of \mathbb{Z}^n for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Definition 3 (Reversible Primitive Permutations [21]). *Reversible Primitive Permutations (RPP) is a sub-class of endofunctions on \mathbb{Z}^n for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. In order to identify the endofunctions of RPP specifically defined on \mathbb{Z}^k , for some given k , we write RPP^k with the following meaning:*

- RPP^1 includes the identity function \mathbf{I} , the successor function \mathbf{S} that increments an integer, the predecessor function \mathbf{P} that decrements an integer, the negation function \mathbf{N} that inverts the sign of an integer;
- RPP^2 includes the transposition χ that exchanges two integers;
- If $f, g \in \text{RPP}^k$ then, their series-composition $(f \circledast g)$ belongs to RPP^k . It is the function that sequentially applies f and g to the k -tuple of integers provided as input (i.e., it is the programming composition that applies functions from left to right);
- If $f \in \text{RPP}^j$ and $g \in \text{RPP}^k$, for some $j, k \in \mathbb{N}$, then the parallel composition $(f \parallel g)$ belongs to RPP^{j+k} . It is the function that applies f on the first j arguments and, in parallel, applies g on the other ones;
- If $f \in \text{RPP}^k$, then the finite iteration $\text{It}[f]$ belongs to RPP^{k+1} and it is the function defined as:

$$\text{It}[f](x_1, \dots, x_k, z) := \left(\overbrace{(f \circledast \dots \circledast f)}^{|z|} \parallel \mathbf{I} \right) (x_1, \dots, x_k, z) ;$$

- Let $f, g, h \in \text{RPP}^k$. The selection $\text{If}[f, g, h]$ belongs to RPP^{k+1} and it is the function defined as:

$$\text{If}[f, g, h](\langle x_1, \dots, x_k, z \rangle) := \begin{cases} (f \parallel \mathbf{I})(\langle x_1, \dots, x_k, z \rangle) & \text{if } z > 0 , \\ (g \parallel \mathbf{I})(\langle x_1, \dots, x_k, z \rangle) & \text{if } z = 0 , \\ (h \parallel \mathbf{I})(\langle x_1, \dots, x_k, z \rangle) & \text{if } z < 0 . \end{cases}$$

Summing up, RPP [21] is a quite simple language that simplifies the reversible language presented in [18]. We recall from [21] that no reversible programming language can represent all and only the total reversible functions and that an algorithm exists, which is linear both in time and space, able to generate the inverse of every element in RPP.

Many notions of definability exist. Good references are [17, 20, 21], for example. Typically, they deal with classes of functions that yield single value as result. However, SRL-programs and RPP functions return tuples. In order to relate SRL and RPP to classes of single-value return functions we introduce what definability means in our context:

Definition 4 (Definability). *Let f be an endofunction on \mathbb{Z}^k . The function f is definable whenever there is a program P that involves $k+h$ registers, for some $h \in \mathbb{N}$, such that: if the first k registers are initialized to v_0, \dots, v_{k-1} and the others are initialized to zero, then the application of P sets the first k registers to $f(v_0, \dots, v_{k-1})$. Moreover, f is r-definable whenever P ends by also resetting the last h registers to zero.*

Clearly, a reversible programming language like SRL can r-define reversible functions only. Also, from the definition here above, it follows that the definition of SRL and RPP can be strengthened to explicitly construct the inverse of any of their elements. We mean that, if P is a program of SRL, for example, it is easy to see that P r-defines f iff P^{-1} r-defines f^{-1} .

Theorem 4 (RPP-definability). *If $f \in \text{RPP}$, then there is an SRL-program P that r-defines it.*

★

Proof. By induction, if $f \in \text{RPP}^k$, then we prove that there is a program P that r-defines f and uses $k+h$ registers, for some $h \in \mathbb{N}$.

- If f is either an identity, a successor or a predecessor, then it can be easily r-defined with no additional register. If f is a negation, then it can be r-defined by using the procedure of Lemma 1, by using one additional register. If f is a transposition, then it can be r-defined by using the procedure of Lemma 2 with a one additional register.
- Let $f = f_1 \circledast f_2 \in \text{RPP}^k$. By induction, there is P_i that r-defines f_i by using the registers r_0, \dots, r_{k+h_i-1} ($1 \leq i \leq 2$). Then $P_1; P_2$ r-defines f by using $h = \max\{h_1, h_2\}$ additional registers (reset to zero by both P_1 and P_2).
- Let $f = (f_1 \parallel f_2)$ such that $f_i \in \text{RPP}^{k_i}$ ($1 \leq i \leq 2$) and $k_1 + k_2 = k$. By induction, there is P_i that r-defines f_i by using the registers $r_0, \dots, r_{k_i+h_i-1}$. Let P_1^* be the program P_1 where $r_{k_1}, \dots, r_{k_1+h_1-1}$ (viz. its h additional registers) are simultaneously renamed r_k, \dots, r_{k+h_1-1} . Let P_2^* be the program P_2 where $r_0, \dots, r_{k_2+h_2-1}$ are simultaneously renamed $r_{k_1}, \dots, r_{k_1+k_2+h_2-1}$. Then f is r-defined by $P_1^*; P_2^*$ with $\max\{h_1, h_2\}$ additional registers.
- Let $f = \text{lt}[f']$ where $f' \in \text{RPP}^{k'}$ ($k = k' + 1$). By induction, there is P' using the registers $r_0, \dots, r_{k'-1}, \dots, r_{k'+h'-1}$ that r-defines f' with h' additional registers. The register r_k is expected to drive the execution of $\text{lt}[f]$, thus we denote P^* the program P' where each register with index r_i ($i \geq k$) are renamed r_{i+1} .

We use `isLessThanOne` in (8) in order to check the content of r_k using $8+1$ registers, the distinguished one being a zero-ancilla that occurrences of `swap` in (4) relies on. In this work we do not focus on minimizing the number of additional variables. We are looking for a program that receives the input in the first k registers and it uses $h' + 8 + 1$ additional zero-ancillae. Thus $r_1, \dots, r_{k'+h'}$ (except r_k) are used by P^* , while $r_k, r_{k+h'+1}, \dots, r_{k+h'+7}$ are the eight registers that supply the input of `isLessThanOne` and $r_{k+h'+8}$ is sometimes used to reverse a procedure.

We r-define $\text{lt}[f']$ by means of the following program (named $P_{\text{lt}[f']}$):

$$\text{inc } r_{k+h'+1}; \text{inc } r_{k+h'+5}; \quad (9)$$

$$\text{inc } r_k; \text{isLessThanOne}(r_k, r_{k+h'+1}, \dots, r_{k+h'+6}); \text{dec } r_k; \quad (10)$$

$$\text{for } r_{k+h'+6}(\text{for } r_k(P^*)); \quad (11)$$

$$\text{for } r_{k+h'+5}(\text{dec } r_{k+h'+8}; \text{for } r_{k+h'+8}(\text{for } r_k(P^*)); \text{inc } r_{k+h'+8}) \quad (12)$$

$$\text{inc } r_k; (\text{isLessThanOne}(r_k, r_{k+h'+1}, \dots, r_{k+h'+6}))^{-1}; \text{dec } r_k; \quad (13)$$

$$\text{dec } r_{k+h'+5}; \text{dec } r_{k+h'+1}; \quad (14)$$

Line (9) initializes the truth-pairs $r_{k+h'+2}, r_{k+h'+3}$ and $r_{k+h'+5}, r_{k+h'+6}$ to true. I.e., it prepares the execution of `isLessThanOne` in accordance with the requirements of Theorem 3. Line (10) increments the content of r_k before testing it. It results that the truth-pair $r_{k+h'+5}, r_{k+h'+6}$ is left to true if and only if the content of r_k is strictly less than zero. Finally, it restores r_k to its initial value. Let n be the content of r_k . Line (11), if n is positive, then $r_{k+h'+5}, r_{k+h'+6}$ is false and P^* is executed n times. Otherwise, $r_{k+h'+6}$ contains 0 and nothing is done. Line (12), if n is strictly negative, then $r_{k+h'+5}$ contains 1 and P^* is executed $|n|$ times because $r_{k+h'+8}$ is set to -1 so that `for` $r_{k+h'+8}$ ensures the inversion of the application of P^* , which, in its turn, was inverted by the negative value n . Lines (13) and (14) reset all additional registers to zero, implementing Bennet's trick locally to this procedure.

Albeit the execution of $\text{lt}[f']$ amounts to a non predetermined number of sequential compositions of f' , we emphasize that the number of ancillae that the translation $P_{\text{lt}[f']}$ requires is bounded because (i) the number of ancillae that P' contain is, in its turn, bounded (by induction), and (ii) P' r-defines f' , meaning that P' leaves its ancillae clean at the end of each iteration, whatever number of compositions are involved.

- Let $f = \text{If}[f_1, f_0, f_2]$ such that $f_1, f_0, f_2 \in \text{RPP}^k$. This case is simpler than the preceding one. We need to adapt the construction in Theorem 3's proof in order to write two programs that check if the given argument is bigger, or lesser, than one and that leave their answer in a truth-pair. We notice that two nested `for` are necessary to trigger the application of g , because we have to check that the value driving the selection is neither bigger, nor lesser than one. \square

Since all primitive recursive functions are definable in RPP by [21, Th.5], Theorem 4 immediately implies that SRL can express every element of PR. Therefore, we answer the open questions that we recall in the introduction.

6 Conclusions

Many essential reversible programming languages appear in the literature. A survey is in [25], albeit we should add many recent proposals as, for instance,

R-WHILE [6], R-CORE [7], RPRF [18], RPP [21], RFUN [8]. Some comparative discussion is useful to frame the relevance of the presented result.

SRL has been conceived by distilling the reversible core of the language LOOP [15, 14]. For this reason SRL enjoys two main characterizing features, up to some details. First, it allows to program total procedures only. Second, it is also a (reversible) core of a standard imperative programming language.

Almost all reversible programming languages are conceived to be Turing-complete, so the first feature distinguishes SRL from them. We do not consider this feature, that it shares with RPRF and RPP, as a limitation. The relevance of studying classes of total functions only is unquestionable, since results about Primitive Recursive Functions (see [17] as instance) like Kleene Normalization Theorem, Grzegorzcyk Hierarchies, and so on. Turing-complete languages are not immediately suitable for such kinds of investigations until the identification of a minimal total core of programs/functions in them. Thanks to its conciseness and expressive power, that we studied in this paper, we consider SRL as the best candidate for theoretical investigations in analogy with that done on primitive recursive functions.

Let us consider the second feature. Janus has been the first reversible programming language distilled from an imperative structured programming language. Many interesting extensions and paradigmatic languages stem from it, in particular the recent R-WHILE and R-CORE. Their primitives are based on iterators that may not terminate (roughly `while`-iterators) and which are somewhat stretched to behave reversibly, by incorporating some form of “assertion”. Quite interestingly, the introduction of R-CORE relies on the observation that a possibly non terminating iterator of R-WHILE can encode the conditional. However, these languages neglect the very standard imperative total iterator `for`. It is worth to emphasize that modifying the semantics of “`for`” (in SRL) by not inverting its body when applied to negative numbers, in analogy with the iterator in RPP, we obtain a version of SRL straightforwardly included in the core of standard imperative programming languages. Furthermore, our expressivity results still hold for such a variant of SRL. On the other hand, we wonder if all the reversible `while`-iterators have to be extended with some exiting-test, that are not standard in classical languages. We leave this as a further open question.

References

1. Axelsen, H.B., Glück, R.: What do reversible programs compute? In: Hofmann, M. (ed.) *Foundations of Software Science and Computational Structures*. pp. 42–56. Springer (2011). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00236-015-0253-y>
2. Axelsen, H.B., Glück, R.: On reversible turing machines and their function universality. *Acta Informatica* **53**(5), 509–543 (2016). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00236-015-0253-y>, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00236-015-0253-y>
3. Bennett, C.H.: Logical reversibility of computation. *IBM Journal of Research and Development* **17**(6), 525–532 (Nov 1973). <https://doi.org/10.1147/rd.176.0525>
4. Birkhoff, G., Mac Lane, S.: *A Survey of Modern Algebra*. Macmillan, New York, fourth edn. (1977)

5. Calude, C.: Theories of Computational Complexity. Elsevier (1988), *annals of Discrete Mathematics – Monograph* 35
6. Glück, R., Yokoyama, T.: A linear-time self-interpreter of a reversible imperative language. *Computer Software* **33**(3), 108–128 (2016). <https://doi.org/10.11309/jssst.33.3.108>
7. Glück, R., Kaarsgaard, R.: A categorical foundation for structured reversible flowchart languages: Soundness and adequacy. *Logical Methods in Computer Science* **Volume 14, Issue 3** (Sep 2018). [https://doi.org/10.23638/LMCS-14\(3:16\)2018](https://doi.org/10.23638/LMCS-14(3:16)2018), <https://lmcs.episciences.org/4802>
8. Jacobsen, P.A.H., Kaarsgaard, R., Thomsen, M.K.: CoreFun: A typed functional reversible core language. In: Kari, J., Ulidowski, I. (eds.) *Reversible Computation*. pp. 304–321. Springer (2018)
9. Kristiansen, L., Niggl, K.H.: On the computational complexity of imperative programming languages. *Theoretical Computer Science* **318**(1-2), 139–161 (Jun 2004). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tcs.2003.10.016>
10. Matos, A.B.: Linear programs in a simple reversible language. *Theoretical Computer Science* **290**(3), 2063–2074 (2003). [https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S0304-3975\(02\)00486-3](https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S0304-3975(02)00486-3)
11. Matos, A.B.: Register reversible languages (work in progress). Tech. rep., LIACC (2014), <https://www.dcc.fc.up.pt/~acm/questionsv.pdf>
12. Matos, A.B., Paolini, L., Roversi, L.: The fixed point problem for general and for linear SRL programs is undecidable. In: Aldini, A., Bernardo, M. (eds.) *Proceedings of the 19th Italian Conference on Theoretical Computer Science*, Urbino, Italy, September 18-20, 2018. *CEUR Workshop Proceedings*, vol. 2243, pp. 128–139. CEUR-WS.org (2018), <http://ceur-ws.org/Vol-2243/paper12.pdf>
13. Matos, A.B., Paolini, L., Roversi, L.: The Fixed Point Problem of a Simple Reversible Language. *Theoretical Computer Science* **813**, 143 – 154 (2020). <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tcs.2019.10.005>, <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0304397519306280>
14. Meyer, A.R., Ritchie, D.M.: Computational complexity and program structure. Tech. Rep. RC 1817, IBM (1967)
15. Meyer, A.R., Ritchie, D.M.: The complexity of loop programs. In: *Proceedings of the 22nd National Conference of the ACM*. p. 465–469. ACM, New York, NY, USA (1967). <https://doi.org/10.1145/800196.806014>
16. Nielsen, M.A., Chuang, I.L.: *Quantum Computation and Quantum Information: 10th Anniversary Edition*. Cambridge University Press, New York, NY, USA, 10th edn. (2011)
17. Odifreddi, P.: *Classical Recursion Theory – The Theory of Functions and Sets of Natural Numbers*, vol. I. *Studies in Logic and the Foundations of Mathematics*. Elsevier North Holland (1989)
18. Paolini, L., Piccolo, M., Roversi, L.: A Class of Reversible Primitive Recursive Functions. *Electronic Notes in Theoretical Computer Science* **322**(18605), 227–242 (2016). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.entcs.2016.03.016>
19. Paolini, L., Piccolo, M., Roversi, L.: A Certified Study of a Reversible Programming Language. In: Uustalu, T. (ed.) *21st International Conference on Types for Proofs and Programs (TYPES 2015)*. *Leibniz International Proceedings in Informatics (LIPIcs)*, vol. 69, pp. 7:1–7:21. Schloss Dagstuhl - Leibniz-Zentrum fuer Informatik, Germany (2018). <https://doi.org/10.4230/LIPIcs.TYPES.2015.7>
20. Paolini, L., Piccolo, M., Roversi, L.: On a class of reversible primitive recursive functions and its turing-complete extensions. *New Generation Computing* **36**(3), 233–256 (Jul 2018). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00354-018-0039-1>

21. Paolini, L., Piccolo, M., Roversi, L.: A class of Recursive Permutations which is Primitive Recursive complete. *Theoretical Computer Science* **813**, 218 – 233 (2020). <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tcs.2019.11.029>, <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0304397519307558>
22. Paolini, L., Piccolo, M., Zorzi, M.: QPCF: Higher-order languages and quantum circuits. *Journal of Automated Reasoning* (2019). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10817-019-09518-y>
23. Paolini, L., Roversi, L., Zorzi, M.: Quantum programming made easy. In: Ehrhard, T., Fernández, M., Paiva, V.d., Tortora de Falco, L. (eds.) *Proceedings Joint International Workshop on Linearity & Trends in Linear Logic and Applications*, Oxford, UK, 7-8 July 2018. *Electronic Proceedings in Theoretical Computer Science*, vol. 292, pp. 133–147. Open Publishing Association (2019). <https://doi.org/10.4204/EPTCS.292.8>
24. Paolini, L., Zorzi, M.: qPCF: a language for quantum circuit computations. In: Gopal, T., Jäger, G., Steila, S. (eds.) *14th Annual Conference on Theory and Applications of Models of Computation*. *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, vol. 10185, pp. 455–469. Springer, Germany (2017). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-55911-7_33
25. Perumalla, K.: *Introduction to Reversible Computing*. CRC Press (2014)
26. Schoning, U.: *Gems of Theoretical Computer Science*. Springer-Verlag (1998)