#### 5. Quantum circuits

- (a) Quantum circuit model (KLM 4.1, NC 1.3.4)  $\leftarrow$
- (b) Quantum gates (NC 4.2-4.3, KLM 4.2)
- (c) Continuous universal set of quantum gates (reading) (NC 4.5.1-4.5.2, KLM 4.3)
- (d) Quantum gate approximations (NC Box 4.1, KLM 4.3)
- (e) Finite universal set of q. gates (NC 4.5.3, KLM 4.3)
- (f) Efficiency & Kitaev-Solovay thm (NC App 3, KLM 4.4)
- (g) Quantum circuits for measurements (KLM 4.5\*)
- (h) Hardness of approximating most unitaries (reading) (NC 4.5.6)

### (a) Quantum circuit model (KLM 4.1, NC 1.3.4)



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q registers (e.g., qubits): ions / spins / atoms / photons / quantum dots / superconducting junctions unitary quantum gates & measurements: laser pulses / currents / electric or magnetic field applied to a few qubits at a time

# (a) Quantum circuit model (KLM 4.1, NC 1.3.4) e.g., factoring with a quantum computer:



q registers (e.g., qubits): ions / spins / atoms / photons / quantum dots / superconducting junctions unitary quantum gates & measurements: laser pulses / currents / electric or magnetic field applied to a few qubits at a time

### A computation in the quantum setting:



- obeys QM :
- classical registers can control the unitary evolution
- classical computation allowed in the box



Simplifying ideas:

(1) Encode classical data in computational basis states, perform classical computation reversibly as a unitary, return ancillas to the initial state without junk.

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e.g., we can perform the NOT gate on 1 bit by encoding the bit as  $|_0\rangle$  or  $||\rangle$  and apply the unitary  $\chi = \begin{bmatrix} \circ & | \\ | & \circ \end{bmatrix}$ .

This follows from topic 2 (classical computation is reversible, the Toffoli gate is unitary and universal for classical computation).

Simplifying ideas:

(1) Encode classical data in computational basis states, perform classical computation reversibly as a unitary, return ancillas to the initial state without junk.



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(2) Unitary operations controlled by classical data can be implemented as a "controlled-unitary" operation and vice versa.

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unitary if the Ux's are





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(2) Unitary operations controlled by classical data can be implemented as a "controlled-unitary" operation and vice versa.

e.g., in superdense coding, Alice receives one of 0,x,y,z and she applies  $6_0$ ,  $6_{\chi}$ ,  $6_{y}$ ,  $6_{z}$  accordingly. This is a unitary controlled by classical data.

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Instead, encode 0,x,y,z as  $|ab\rangle = |00\rangle, |01\rangle, |11\rangle, |10\rangle$ and apply 2 controlled unitaries:

 $M = |0 \times 0| \otimes I + |1 \times 1| \otimes 6_{z}$  $V = |0 \times 0| \otimes I + |1 \times 1| \otimes 6_{x}$ 



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# Canonical quantum computation of classical problems:

- Only has quantum registers.
- Computation is unitary until final measurements.

### Canonical quantum computation of classical problems:

- Only has quantum registers.
- Computation is unitary until final measurements.
- Classical input is encoded in the choice of the unitary. All registers can start as |0>.
- Outputs (classical) are measurement outcomes.

Conventions as in classical circuits.



With goals and ideas similar to topic 1:

Quantum circuit (acyclic graph):

- time going from left to right
- quantum wires (registers) carry quantum data
- gates are vertices in the graph

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Each quantum gate acts unitarily on the Hilbert space associated with the input registers. Since a quantum gate preserves dimension, for each gate # incoming edges = # outgoing edges.

(Assuming each register has the same dimension.)

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Quantum circuit (acyclic graph):

- time going from left to right
- quantum wires (registers) carry quantum data
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Each quantum gate acts unitarily on the Hilbert space associated with the input registers. Since a quantum gate preserves dimension, for each gate # incoming edges = # outgoing edges.

Are there "universal sets of quantum gates" that implement any arbitrary "computation" (i.e., unitary transformation)?

#### 5. Quantum circuits

- (a) Quantum circuit model (KLM 4.1, NC 1.3.4) 🗸
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Universal set of quantum gates

Definition: a set G of quantum gates is universal, if for any unitary U, there is a circuit using only gates from G performing U. (c) Continuous universal set of quantum gates (reading) (NC 4.5.1-4.5.2, KLM 4.3)

Universal set of quantum gates

Definition: a set G of quantum gates is universal, if for any unitary U, there is a circuit using only gates from G performing U.

Theorem (NC 4.5.1-4.5.2) : Let S = set of all single-qubit gates. The set G =  $\{CNOT\}$  U S is universal.

Proof: not difficult but long, left as reading ex.

It means for all n, for all unitary U acting on n qubits, there is a circuit with CNOT's and single qubit gates that implements U:



### (b) Quantum gates



Simpler to implement and understand

Necessary, harder to implement, preferably 2-body <u>The Bloch sphere: a useful way to visualize a qubit</u>

The most general qubit:

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha_0 |0\rangle + \alpha_1 |1\rangle$$
 where  $|\alpha_0|^2 + (\alpha_1|^2 = 1)$   
=  $e^{i\Omega} \left( \cos \frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle + e^{i\phi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle \right)$ 

<u>The Bloch sphere: a useful way to visualize a qubit</u>

The most general qubit:

$$|\Psi\rangle = a_{0} |0\rangle + a_{1} |1\rangle \text{ where } |a_{0}|^{2} + |a_{1}|^{2} = |$$

$$= e^{i\Omega} \left( \cos \frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle + e^{i\phi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle \right)$$
since  $\exists \Theta \quad \text{s.t.} \quad |a_{0}|^{2} = (\cos^{2} \Theta, |a_{1}|^{2} = \sin^{2} \Theta)$ 
and  $\Omega, \phi$  give the arguments of a0, a1.

real and non-negative

The Bloch sphere: a useful way to visualize a qubit

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since  $\exists \theta \quad s.t. \quad |a_0|^2 = (\cos^2 \theta, |a_1|^2 = \sin^2 \theta)$ and  $\Lambda, \phi$  give the arguments of a0, a1.

In test Q2, you showed:

 $|\Psi\rangle\langle\Psi| = \frac{1}{2}\left(I + \left(\cos\phi\,\sin\theta\,X + \sin\phi\,\sin\theta\,Y + \cos\theta\,Z\right)\right)$ 

forms a 3-dim, real, unit vector called the Bloch vector

 $|\Psi\rangle = e^{i\eta} \left(\cos\frac{\theta}{2}|0\rangle + e^{i\phi}\sin\frac{\theta}{2}|1\rangle\right)$ 

 $|\Psi\rangle\langle\Psi| = \frac{1}{2}\left(I + \left(\cos\phi\,\sin\theta\,X + \sin\phi\,\sin\theta\,Y + \left(\cos\theta\,Z\right)\right)\right)$ 



# Single-qubit gates:

# These are 2x2 complex unitaries acting on 1 qubit. e.g., I, X, Y, Z, Hadamard

## 1st characterization of single-qubit gates

# Theorem:

The most general single-qubit unitary has the form

$$e^{-(\Psi I + \lambda X + \beta Y + \gamma Z)}$$

for some  $\Upsilon$ ,  $\lambda$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

### 1st characterization of single-qubit gates

Theorem:

The most general single-qubit unitary has the form  $e^{\tau}(((+++)))$ 

for some  $\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{L}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{Y} \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

Proof idea: U unitary iff  $U = e^{iH}$ for some hermitian matrix H

Any 2x2 hermitian matrix is a linear combination of I, X, Y, Z with real coefficients (cf test Q2).

## 2nd characterization of single-qubit gates

Theorem:

The most general single-qubit unitary has the form

$$R_{\hat{n}}(\xi) := e^{i\Psi} e^{-i\frac{\xi}{2}(n_{x}X + n_{y}Y + n_{z}Z)}$$
  
where  $\hat{n} = (n_{x}, n_{y}, n_{z}) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$  is a unit vector.

## 2nd characterization of single-qubit gates

## Theorem:

The most general single-qubit unitary has the form

$$R_{\hat{n}}(\xi) := e^{\tau \varphi} e^{-\tau \frac{\xi}{2}(n_x X + n_y Y + n_z Z)}$$
  
where  $\hat{n} = (n_x, n_y, n_z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$  is a unit vector.

Proof: From the 1st char, the unitary has the form  $e^{\tau}(\phi I + \lambda X + \beta Y + Y + 2)$ 

We can choose

$$\varphi = \phi, \ n_{x} = \frac{-d}{\sqrt{d^{2} + \beta^{2} + \chi^{2}}}, \ n_{y} = \frac{-\beta}{\sqrt{d^{2} + \beta^{2} + \chi^{2}}}, \ n_{z} = \frac{-\chi}{\sqrt{d^{2} + \beta^{2} + \chi^{2}}}, \ \varepsilon = 2\sqrt{d^{2} + \beta^{2} + \chi^{2}}.$$

#### 2nd characterization of single-qubit gates

What does  $R_{\hat{n}}(\xi) := e^{i \varphi} e^{-i \frac{\xi}{2}(n_x X + n_y Y + n_z Z)}$ do to the Bloch vector?
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So, if  $|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| = \pm (I + aX + bY + cZ)$ 

and  $U = \frac{1}{2} (I + a'X + b'Y + c'Z)$ 

then the Bloch vector changes from (a,b,c) to (a',b',c').

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So, if  $|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| = \frac{1}{2}(I + aX + bY + cZ)$ 

and  $U_{V}(\Psi | U^{\dagger} = \pm (I + Q' X + b' Y + C' Z)$ 

then the Bloch vector changes from (a,b,c) to (a',b',c').

Note:  $|\Psi\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^{2}$ ,  $\mathbb{U} \in \mathbb{U}(2)$ but we are looking at a transformation on  $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ .

e.g., consider U = 
$$e^{-\frac{1}{2}\frac{s}{2}2}$$
  $(\bigwedge_{n=}^{n} (o, o, 1))$ ,

By power series expansion,  $U = \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\frac{\xi}{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\frac{\xi}{2}} \end{bmatrix}$ .

e.g., consider U = 
$$e^{-i\frac{\xi}{2}\frac{2}{2}}$$
  $(\bigwedge_{n=1}^{\infty} (0, 0, 1))$ .  
By power series expansion, U =  $\begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\frac{\xi}{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\frac{\xi}{2}} \end{bmatrix}$ .  
If  $|\Psi\rangle = e^{i\Omega} \left( \cos \frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle + e^{i\phi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle \right)$   
then  $U|\Psi\rangle = e^{i\Omega} \left( e^{-i\frac{\xi}{2}} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle + e^{i\frac{\xi}{2}} e^{-i\phi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle = e^{i\Omega} e^{-i\frac{\xi}{2}} \left( \cos \frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle + e^{i\frac{\xi}{2}} e^{-i\phi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle \right)$ 

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So, when  $|\Psi\rangle \rightarrow U|\Psi\rangle$ ,  $\phi \rightarrow \xi + \phi$ 

(9 unchanged

 $|\Psi\rangle = e^{i\eta} \left(\cos\frac{\theta}{2}|0\rangle + e^{i\phi}\sin\frac{\theta}{2}|1\rangle\right)$  $|\Psi \rangle \langle \Psi| = \frac{1}{2} \left( I + \left( \cos \phi \operatorname{Sin} \Theta X + \operatorname{Sin} \phi \operatorname{Sin} \Theta Y + \left( \cos \Theta Z \right) \right)$  $\mathcal{U}|\Psi\rangle = e^{i\eta} e^{-i\frac{\xi}{2}} \left(\cos\frac{\theta}{2}|0\rangle + e^{i\frac{\xi}{2}} e^{i\frac{\theta}{2}} \sin\frac{\theta}{2}|1\rangle\right)$  $U(\Psi)(\Psi) U^{\dagger} = \frac{1}{2} \left( I + \left( os \left( \phi + \xi \right) \sin \Theta X + \sin \left( \phi + \xi \right) \sin \Theta Y + \left( os \Theta Z \right) \right)$  $|\psi\rangle \longrightarrow \mathcal{M}|\psi\rangle$  $\phi \longrightarrow \xi + \phi$ 0 unchanged

 $|\Psi\rangle = e^{i\eta} \left(\cos\frac{\theta}{2}|0\rangle + e^{i\phi}\sin\frac{\theta}{2}|1\rangle\right)$  $|\Psi \rangle \langle \Psi| = \frac{1}{2} \left( I + \left( os \phi Sin \theta X + Sin \phi Sin \theta Y + \left( os \theta Z \right) \right) \right)$  $\mathcal{M}|\Psi\rangle = e^{i\eta} e^{-i\frac{\xi}{2}} \left(\cos\frac{\theta}{2}|0\rangle + e^{i\frac{\xi}{2}} e^{i\frac{\theta}{2}} \sin\frac{\theta}{2}|1\rangle\right)$  $U[\Psi](\Psi|U^{\dagger} = \frac{1}{2}(I + (os(\phi + \xi))Sin\Theta X + Sin(\phi + \xi))Sin\Theta Y + (os\Theta Z))$  $Z | o \rangle$  $|\Psi\rangle \longrightarrow \mathcal{M}|\Psi\rangle$  $\phi \longrightarrow \xi + \phi$ <sup>(9)</sup> unchanged  $e^{-\tilde{l}\frac{s}{2}Z}$  is a rotation about > V the z-axis of angle  $\xi^{\parallel}$ Χ End of e.g.  $||\rangle$ 

So,  $e^{-\overline{l}\frac{s}{2}\frac{2}{2}}$  is a rotation <u>about</u> the z-axis of angle  $\frac{s}{2}$ , What is  $e^{-\overline{l}\frac{s}{2}(n_x + n_y + n_z + n_z)}$ .

Claim:  $R_{\hat{n}}(\xi) := e^{i\varphi} e^{-i\frac{\xi}{2}(n_x X + n_y Y + n_z Z)}$ rotates the Bloch vector by an angle  $\xi$ about the axis  $\hat{n} = (n_x, n_y, n_z)$ .

# 

Proof: let  $M = n_x X + n_y Y + n_z Z$ .  $M^2 = (n_x X + n_y Y + n_z Z)(n_x X + n_y Y + n_z Z)$ 

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.  

$$M^2 = (n_x X + n_y Y + n_z Z)(n_x X + n_y Y + n_z Z)$$

$$= n_x^2 X^2 + n_y^2 Y^2 + n_z^2 Z^2 + n_x n_y (XY+YX)$$

$$\uparrow \qquad \uparrow \qquad \uparrow \qquad + n_x n_z (XZ+ZX)$$

$$+ n_y n_z (YZ+ZY)$$
all equal to I

all equal to 0, since any two of the Pauli matrices anticommute

Claim:  $R_{\hat{n}}(\xi) := e^{i\Psi} e^{-i\frac{\xi}{2}(n_x X + n_y Y + n_z Z)}$ rotates the Bloch vector by an angle  $\xi$ about the axis  $\hat{n} = (n_x, n_y, n_z)$ .



 $M = n_x X + n_y Y + n_z Z$  hermitian so real eigenvalues. tr (M) = 0, M<sup>2</sup> = I.

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By spectral decomposition:  $M = V Z V^{\dagger}$  for some unitary V!  $R_{\hat{n}}(\xi) := e^{i\Psi} e^{-i\frac{\xi}{2}(n_XX + n_YY + n_ZZ)}$   $= e^{i\Psi} e^{-i\frac{\xi}{2}VZV^{\dagger}}$  $= e^{i\Psi} V e^{-i\frac{\xi}{2}Z}V^{\dagger}$  by test Q1

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So, the eigenvalues are +1, -1.

By spectral decomposition:  $M = V Z V^{\dagger}$  for some unitary V!  $R_{\hat{n}}(\hat{S}) := e^{\tilde{v}} e^{-\tilde{i}\frac{\hat{S}}{2}} (n_{X}X + n_{y}Y + n_{z}Z)$   $= e^{\tilde{v}} e^{-\tilde{i}\frac{\hat{S}}{2}} V Z V^{\dagger}$  $= e^{\tilde{v}} V e^{-\tilde{i}\frac{\hat{S}}{2}} V V^{\dagger}$  by test Q1

When we apply V or  $V^{\dagger}$  to the qubit, how does the Bloch vector transform?

When we apply V or  $V^{\dagger}$  to the qubit, how does the Bloch vector transform?

 $M = V Z V^{\dagger}$ 

 $\frac{1}{2}(I+M) = V \frac{1}{2}(I+2)V^{+}$ 

(add I to both sides then divide by 2) When we apply V or  $V^{\dagger}$  to the qubit, how does the Bloch vector transform?

 $M = V Z V^{\dagger}$   $\frac{1}{2}(T + M) = V \frac{1}{2}(T + 2) V^{\dagger}$   $\frac{11}{2}(T + n_{x}X + n_{y}Y + n_{z}Z)$ 

 $\therefore$  V takes the Bloch vector (0,0,1) to  $(n_X, n_y, n_z)$ .

When we apply V or  $V^{\dagger}$  to the qubit, how does the Bloch vector transform?

 $M = V Z V^{\dagger}$   $\frac{1}{2}(I + M) = V \frac{1}{2}(I + 2) V^{\dagger}$   $\frac{1}{2}(I + n_{x} X + n_{y} Y + n_{z} Z)$ 

`, V takes the Bloch vector (0,0,1) to  $(n_X, n_y, n_z)$ . Furthermore, conjugating the above equation by V<sup>+</sup> V<sup>+</sup> M V = Z, so, V<sup>+</sup> takes  $(n_X, n_y, n_z)$  to (0,0,1).

# Altogether:

$$R_{\hat{n}}(\xi) = e^{i\varphi} V e^{-i\frac{\xi}{2}Z} V^{\dagger}$$

1.  $V^{\dagger}$  takes  $(n_{x}, n_{y}, n_{z})$  to (0, 0, 1).

2.  $e^{-\tilde{l}\frac{s}{2}^2}$  rotates about the z-axis (0,0,1) of angle §,

3. V takes (0,0,1) back to  $(n_X, n_y, n_z)$ .

 $\langle , R_{\hat{n}}(\xi) \rangle$  rotates about the axis  $(n_x, n_y, n_z)$  of angle  $\xi$ ,

For the Pauli matrices:

$$6_{\chi} = \chi = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 10 \end{pmatrix}, \quad 6_{y} = \chi = \begin{pmatrix} 0 - \bar{1} \\ 10 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \delta_{z} = Z = \begin{pmatrix} 10 \\ 0 - \bar{1} \end{pmatrix},$$

they are all  $\pi$  rotations on the Bloch sphere, but they are also generators of rotations, namely:

$$R_{X}(\lambda) := e^{-i\frac{\lambda}{2}X}$$

$$R_{y}(\lambda) := e^{-i\frac{\lambda}{2}Y}$$

$$R_{z}(\lambda) := e^{-i\frac{\lambda}{2}Z}$$

These are rotations about the x, y, z-axes of angle  $\prec$  .

#### Remark:

$$\mathcal{U} = R_{\hat{n}}(\xi) = e^{i\varphi} e^{-i\frac{\xi}{2}(n_x X + n_y Y + n_z Z)}$$

Consider the mapping from 2x2 matrices to 2x2 matrices:

 $f(M) = U M U^{\dagger}.$ 

What are the invariances of f?

#### Remark:

$$U = R_{\hat{n}}(\xi) = e^{i\varphi} e^{-i\frac{\xi}{2}(n_{x}X + n_{y}Y + n_{z}Z)}$$

Consider the mapping from 2x2 matrices to 2x2 matrices:

 $f(M) = U M U^{\dagger}.$ 

What are the invariances of f?

f(I) = I, f(M) = M,so, for all scalars a, b, f(aI + bM) = aI + bM

Fact: if  $U \neq I$ , then, no more invariances. Proof: exercise. Hint: consider a spanning set for 2x2 matrices that include I and M.

#### **Question:**

# Suppose a 2x2 unitary U does the following:

$$U \times U^{+} = Y$$
$$U Y U^{+} = Z$$
$$U Z U^{+} = X$$

# Which of the following can be U?

(a)  $(X+Y+Z) / \sqrt{3}$ (b)  $e^{-\overline{1} \cdot \frac{T}{2}} (X+Y+Z) / \sqrt{3}$ (c)  $e^{-\overline{1} \cdot \frac{T}{3}} (X+Y+Z) / \sqrt{3}$ (d)  $e^{-\overline{1} \cdot \frac{T}{3}} (X+Y+Z) / \sqrt{3}$   $U \times U^{+} = Y$  $U Y U^{+} = Z$  $U Z U^{+} = X$ 

So, the axis of rotation on the Bloch sphere is  $(\chi+\chi+\chi)/\sqrt{3}$ 



since this matrix is an invariant under the conjugation by U.

 $U \times U^{+} = Y$  $U Y U^{+} = Z$  $U Z U^{+} = X$ 

So, the axis of rotation on the Bloch sphere is  $(\chi + \chi + Z)/J_3$ 



since this matrix is an invariant under the conjugation by U.

The angle of rotation is  $\frac{1}{2} \xi = 2\pi/3$ since U<sup>3</sup> = I.  $U \times U^{+} = Y$  $U Y U^{+} = Z$  $U Z U^{+} = X$ 

So, the axis of rotation on the Bloch sphere is  $(\chi+\chi+\chi)/J_3$ 



since this matrix is an invariant under the conjugation by U.

The angle of rotation is  $+\xi = 2\pi/3$ .

Answer =  $e^{-i\frac{\xi}{2}(X+Y+2)/3} = e^{-i\frac{\pi}{3}(X+Y+2)/3}$  (c)

## <u>3rd characterization of single-qubit gates</u>

Theorem: (NC Thm 4.1)

The most general single-qubit unitary has the form

$$\mathcal{U} = e^{\tau \alpha} R_{2}(\beta) R_{y}(\alpha) R_{z}(\delta)$$
  
where  $\alpha, \beta, \tau, \delta \in \mathbb{R}$ .

(From Euler angles, but there is also a quick direct proof using linear algebra.)

Check lecture time ... may demote proof to reading.

#### Theorem: (NC Thm 4.1)

The most general single-qubit unitary has the form

$$\mathcal{U} = e^{\tau \alpha} R_{2}(\beta) R_{y}(\gamma) R_{z}(\beta)$$
  
where  $\alpha, \beta, \delta, \delta \in \mathbb{R}$ . relative

Proof: any 2x2 unitary has the form

relative phase between the 2 columns

$$U = e^{i d} \left( e^{-i \frac{\delta}{2} - i \frac{\beta}{2}} b_{5} \frac{\chi}{2} - e^{-i \frac{\delta}{2} - i \frac{\beta}{2}} S_{1n} \frac{\chi}{2} \right)$$
  
e^{-i \frac{\delta}{2} + i \frac{\beta}{2}} S\_{1n} \frac{\chi}{2} e^{-i \frac{\delta}{2} + i \frac{\beta}{2}} b\_{5} \frac{\chi}{2}  
erall phase

overall phase for both columns

> (1, 5); general qubit state up to overall phase

 $(U_{U})$ : qubit state ortho to  $U_{U}$ up to a phase

## Finally, checking:

phases multiplied to rows  

$$= \begin{pmatrix} e^{-i\frac{\beta}{2}} \circ \\ 0 & e^{-i\frac{\beta}{2}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \omega_{S}\frac{\chi}{2} & -S_{TN}\frac{\chi}{2} \\ S_{TN}\frac{\chi}{2} & \omega_{S}\frac{\chi}{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} e^{-i\frac{\delta}{2}} \circ \\ 0 & e^{-i\frac{\delta}{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} e^{-i\frac{\delta}{2}} - i\frac{\beta}{2} \\ e^{-i\frac{\delta}{2}} - i\frac{\beta}{2} \\ e^{-i\frac{\delta}{2}} + i\frac{\beta}{2} \\ S_{TN}\frac{\chi}{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} e^{-i\frac{\delta}{2}} + i\frac{\beta}{2} \\ e^{-i\frac{\delta}{2}} + i\frac{\beta}{2} \\ e^{-i\frac{\delta}{2}} + i\frac{\beta}{2} \\ S_{TN}\frac{\chi}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

completes the proof.

# **Corollary**:

# The most general single-qubit unitary has the form $W = e^{\tau \alpha} R_{z}(\beta) R_{x}(\beta) R_{z}(\beta)$ where $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta \in \mathbb{R}$ . y in the theorem

# **Corollary**:

The most general single-qubit unitary has the form  $W = e^{\tau \alpha} R_{2}(\beta) R_{X}(\gamma) R_{2}(\beta)$ where  $\alpha_{1} \beta_{1}, \delta_{1} \in \mathbb{R}$ . Proof:  $W = R_{2}(\Xi) U R_{2}(\Xi)$  for some 2x2 unitary U.

becaus you can take

 $R_2(\underline{\exists}) \cup R_2(\underline{\exists}) = U$ 

# <u>Corollary</u>:

The most general single-qubit unitary has the form  $W = e^{\tau \alpha} R_{z}(\beta) R_{x}(\gamma) R_{z}(\delta)$ where  $\alpha, \beta, \delta, \delta \in \mathbb{R}$ . Proof:  $W = R_2(-\Xi) U R_2(\Xi)$  for some 2x2 unitary U. From the theorem  $U = e^{i\alpha} R_2(\beta) R_y(\beta) R_z(\delta)$ . for some  $\prec_{1} \beta_{1} \delta_{1} \delta_{2} \epsilon_{1} \mathcal{R}$ , so,  $W = R_z(\overline{Z}) e^{\tau x} R_z(\beta) R_y(x) R_z(\delta) R_z(\overline{Z})$ 

# Corollary:

The most general single-qubit unitary has the form  $W = e^{\tau \alpha} R_{z}(\beta) R_{x}(\gamma) R_{z}(\delta)$ where  $\alpha, \beta, \delta, \delta \in \mathbb{R}$ . Proof:  $W = R_{2}(\Xi) U R_{2}(\Xi)$  for some 2x2 unitary U. From the theorem  $U = e^{i\alpha} R_2(\beta) R_1(\beta) R_2(\delta)$ . for some  $\prec_{1} \beta_{1} \delta_{1} \delta_{2} \delta_{1} \delta_{2} \delta_{1} \delta_{2} \delta_{1} \delta_{2} \delta_{2} \delta_{1} \delta_{2} \delta$ so,  $W = R_{z}(-\frac{\pi}{2}) e^{\tau x} R_{z}(\beta) R_{y}(x) R_{z}(\delta) R_{z}(\frac{\pi}{2})$  $= e^{i\lambda} R_{z}(\Xi) R_{z}(B) R_{z}(\Xi) R_{z}(\Xi) R_{z}(\Xi) R_{y}(V) R_{z}(\Xi) R_{z}(\Xi) R_{z}(U) R_{z}(\Xi)$
# Corollary:

The most general single-qubit unitary has the form  $W = e^{\tau \alpha} R_{z}(\beta) R_{x}(\gamma) R_{z}(\delta)$ where  $\alpha, \beta, \delta, \delta \in \mathbb{R}$ . Proof:  $W = R_{2}(-\Xi) U R_{2}(\overline{\Xi})$  for some 2x2 unitary U. From the theorem  $U = e^{i\alpha} R_{z}(\beta) R_{y}(\beta) R_{z}(\delta)$ . for some  $\prec, \beta, \delta, \delta \leftarrow \mathcal{R},$ so,  $W = R_{z}(\underline{-}) e^{\tau x} R_{z}(\beta) R_{y}(x) R_{z}(\delta) R_{z}(\underline{-})$  $= e^{i\lambda} R_{z}(\underline{\Xi}) R_{z}(\beta) R_{z}(\underline{\Xi}) R_{z}(\underline{\Xi}) R_{z}(\underline{\Xi}) R_{z}(\underline{\Xi}) R_{z}(\underline{\Xi}) R_{z}(\underline{U}) R_{z}(\underline{\Xi}) R_{z}(\underline{U}) R_{z}(\underline{\Xi}) R_{z}(\underline{U}) R_{z}(\underline{U}$  $\mathcal{R}^{\star}(\mathcal{L})$  $R_{z}(\beta)$  $R_{z}(\delta)$ 

# (b) Quantum gates



Simpler to implement and understand

Necessary, harder to implement, preferably 2-body

# Entangling gates:

Definition: a unitary U that acts on two systems S1, S2 is a tensor product unitary if  $U = U1 \otimes U2$  for some unitaries U1 (U2) acting on S1 (S2).

A unitary U is called entangling if it is not a tensor product unitary.

# Entangling gates:

Example: CNOT ---- control (1st qubit) ----- target (2nd qubit)

Action on a basis:

$$\begin{array}{c} |0\rangle|0\rangle \longrightarrow |0\rangle|0\rangle \\ |0\rangle|1\rangle \longrightarrow |0\rangle|1\rangle \\ |1\rangle|0\rangle \longrightarrow |1\rangle|1\rangle \\ |1\rangle|1\rangle \longrightarrow |1\rangle|0\rangle \end{array}$$

Conditioned on control being "1" (filled circle) apply a NOT to the target.

Matrix representation: (1000) 0100 0001 0010

# Entangling gates:

Generalization:<br/>controlled-U- control (1st qubit)Action on a basis: $|0\rangle|0\rangle \longrightarrow |0\rangle|0\rangle$ <br/> $|0\rangle|1\rangle \longrightarrow |0\rangle|1\rangle$ <br/> $|1\rangle|0\rangle \longrightarrow |1\rangle|0\rangle$ <br/> $|1\rangle|1\rangle \longrightarrow |1\rangle|1\rangle$ 

Conditioned on control being "1" (filled circle) apply U to the target.

Matrix representation: (1000)

In Dirac notation:  $\bigcirc \mathcal{A} = \{ \circ X \circ | \otimes \mathbb{T} + \{ i \mid X i \mid \otimes \mathcal{A} \}$ . Labelling the control register "C" and target register "T"  $\forall \mid \Psi \rangle, \alpha, b =$  $(\alpha \mid \circ \rangle + b \mid i \rangle)_{c} \mid \Psi \rangle_{T} \rightarrow \alpha \mid \circ \rangle_{c} \mid \Psi \rangle_{T} + b \mid i \rangle_{c} (\mathcal{A} \mid \Psi \rangle_{T})$ 

#### Question:

Let  $U \neq I$ . Is there an input for which the control qubit is changed by the controlled-U gate?

- (a) for any such U, there is always an input such that the control qubit changes,
- (b) for some U, the control qubit never changes, for some other U, there is an input such that the control qubit changes,
- (c) the control qubit is never changed by a controlled-U gate.

Answer in the next 3 pages. Please do not read before we vote ...

(c) is wrong.

Unlike the classical setting, the control register of a c-U gate can be changed by the gate !

e.g.1 c-(-I) = Z  $\otimes$ I  $\downarrow 00 \rightarrow 100 \rightarrow -\overline{100}$   $\downarrow 01 \rightarrow -\overline{100}$  which is  $\downarrow 10 \rightarrow -\overline{100}$  $\downarrow 11 \rightarrow -\overline{110}$ 

NB. Overall phase of U matters when taking c-U.

e.g.2, for CNOT, consider the input

$$\frac{107+117}{52} \otimes \frac{107-117}{52} = \frac{1}{2}(100)+(10)-101)-(11)$$

Output after a CNOT:  $\frac{1}{2} (|00\rangle + |11\rangle - |01\rangle - |10\rangle)$ 

$$= \frac{10)-11}{52} \otimes \frac{10)-11}{52}$$

(a) is correct. If  $U \neq I$ , there is an input whose controlled qubit is changed by controlled-U:

Proof: let U has eigenvalues  $\lambda_0$ ,  $\lambda_1$  with corresponding eigenvectors 10, (e, ).

Since  $U \neq I$ , at least one eigenvalue not equal to one.

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Proof: let U has eigenvalues  $\lambda_0$ ,  $\lambda_1$  with corresponding eigenvectors 10, (e, ).

Since  $U \neq I$ , at least one eigenvalue not equal to one.

WLOG: let  $\lambda_0 \neq 1$ .

Take the input:  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(10) + 11)_{C} \otimes (C_{0})_{T}$ 

Output of the gate:  $\frac{1}{52} \left[ 0 \right] \otimes \left[ e_0 \right]_T + \frac{1}{52} \left[ 1 \right]_C \otimes \left[ e_0 \right]_T$ 

(a) is correct. If  $U \neq I$ , there is an input whose controlled qubit is changed by controlled-U:

Proof: let U has eigenvalues  $\lambda_0$ ,  $\lambda_1$  with corresponding eigenvectors 10, (e, ).

Since  $U \neq I$ , at least one eigenvalue not equal to one.

WLOG: let 
$$\lambda_0 \neq |$$
.  
Take the input:  $\frac{1}{52}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)_{c} \otimes |c_{0}\rangle_{T}$   
Output of the gate:  $\frac{1}{52}|0\rangle_{c} \otimes |c_{0}\rangle_{T} + \frac{1}{52}|1\rangle_{c} \otimes \lambda_{0}|c_{0}\rangle_{T}$   
 $= \frac{1}{52}(|0\rangle + \lambda_{0}|1\rangle)_{c} \otimes |c_{0}\rangle_{T}$ 

So the control qubit is changed (a "phase kick-back")!

Question:

Is the SWAP gate, defined by:  $(i) \rightarrow (i) \rightarrow (i)$  entangling?

(a) Yes (b) No Question:

Is the SWAP gate, defined by:  $\langle i \rangle \rightarrow \langle j \rangle \langle i \rangle$ together with all single qubit gates, a universal gate set for quantum computation ?

(a) Yes (b) No Recall for classical circuits:

Definition: universal set of gates

A set of gates G is universal if :

for any positive integers n,m and

for any function f :  $\{0,1\}^{n}$ ->  $\{0,1\}^{m}$  there is a circuit to compute f using the gates in G.

For quantum circuits: the possible unitaries form a continous set. Do we need a continous set of gates for universality (e.g., CNOT+all 1-qubit gates)?