

1 Readings

Benenti, Casati, and Strini:

Classical circuits and computation Ch.1.2, 2.6

Quantum Gates Ch. 3.2-3.4

Universality Ch. 3.5-3.6

2 Unitary Operators

A postulate of quantum physics is that quantum evolution is unitary. That is, if we have some arbitrary quantum system U that takes as input a state $|\phi\rangle$ and outputs a different state $U|\phi\rangle$, then we can describe U as a *unitary linear transformation*, defined as follows.

If U is any linear transformation, the *adjoint* of U , denoted U^\dagger , is defined by $(U\vec{v}, \vec{w}) = (\vec{v}, U^\dagger\vec{w})$. In a basis, U^\dagger is the conjugate transpose of U ; for example, for an operator on \mathcal{C}^2 ,

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow U^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{a} & \bar{c} \\ \bar{b} & \bar{d} \end{pmatrix} .$$

We say that U is *unitary* if $U^\dagger = U^{-1}$. For example, rotations and reflections are unitary. Also, the composition of two unitary transformations is also unitary (Proof: U, V unitary, then $(UV)^\dagger = V^\dagger U^\dagger = V^{-1}U^{-1} = (UV)^{-1}$).

Some properties of a unitary transformation U :

- The rows of U form an orthonormal basis.
- The columns of U form an orthonormal basis.
- U preserves inner products, i.e. $(\vec{v}, \vec{w}) = (U\vec{v}, U\vec{w})$. Indeed, $(U\vec{v}, U\vec{w}) = (U|v\rangle)^\dagger U|w\rangle = \langle v|U^\dagger U|w\rangle = \langle v|w\rangle$. Therefore, U preserves norms and angles (up to sign).
- The eigenvalues of U are all of the form $e^{i\theta}$ (since U is length-preserving, i.e., $(\vec{v}, \vec{v}) = (U\vec{v}, U\vec{v})$).
- U can be diagonalized into the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} e^{i\theta_1} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & e^{i\theta_d} \end{pmatrix}$$

3 Schrödinger's Equation

Schrödinger's equation is the equation of motion which describes the evolution in time of the quantum state.

$$i\hbar \frac{d|\psi(t)\rangle}{dt} = H|\psi\rangle .$$

Here \hbar is a constant (called Planck's constant – we'll usually assume $\hbar = 1$), and H is a linear *Hamiltonian* which is Hermitian, $H^\dagger = H$. Equivalently, H has an orthonormal set of eigenvectors $|\psi_i\rangle$, all with real eigenvalues λ_i : $H|\phi_i\rangle = \lambda_i|\phi_i\rangle$.

For those of you who are familiar with Schrödinger's equation, the unitarity restriction on quantum gates is simply the time-discrete version of the restriction that the Hamiltonian is Hermitian. This is a particular instance of the general relation between a unitary operator U and a Hermitian operator A

$$U = e^{iA},$$

which follows directly from $UU^\dagger = 1, A^\dagger = A$, hence $U^\dagger = \exp(-iA^\dagger) = \exp(-iA)$.

We will now prove explicitly that if the system satisfies Schrödinger's equation, then its evolution in discrete time is described by a unitary operator and determine this operator in terms of the eigenvalues of H . (We will assume that H is time independent.)

Write $|\psi(t)\rangle$ in the basis of eigenvectors of H :

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi(t)\rangle &= \sum_j a_j(t) |\phi_j\rangle \\ &\Downarrow \\ i\hbar \frac{d\sum_j a_j |\phi_j\rangle}{dt} &= H \sum_j a_j |\phi_j\rangle = \sum_j a_j \lambda_j |\phi_j\rangle \\ &\Downarrow \\ i\hbar \frac{da_j}{dt} &= \lambda_j a_j \\ &\Downarrow \\ a_j(t) &= e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} \lambda_j t} a_j(0) \\ &\Downarrow \\ |\psi(t)\rangle &= e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} \lambda_j t} a_j(0) |\phi_j\rangle \end{aligned}$$

We get that the change after a discrete time difference is unitary:

$$|\psi(t)\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} \lambda_1 t} & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} \lambda_d t} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ \vdots \\ a_d \end{pmatrix} = U(t) |\psi(0)\rangle$$

In this basis, $U(t)$ is diagonal.

4 Quantum Gates

We already had some simple examples of unitary transforms, or “quantum gates”. Here are most of the common ones you will encounter.

4.1 One-qubit gates:

- Hadamard Gate.

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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

The Hadamard Gate is one of the most important gates. Note that $H^\dagger = H$ – since H is real and symmetric – and $H^2 = I$.

In the complex plane H can be visualized as a reflection around $\pi/8$, or a rotation around $\pi/4$ followed by a reflection.

On the Bloch sphere H can also be visualized in several ways. One is a rotation of $\pi/2$ about the y -axis, followed by reflection in the x - y plane (see Nielsen and Chuang, p.). Another is a rotation of π about the axis $(1/\sqrt{2}, 0, 1/\sqrt{2})$ (Benenti, p. 111).

Note the action of H on larger number of qubits:

$$\begin{aligned} H \otimes H |00\rangle &\equiv H^{\otimes 2} |00\rangle = \frac{|00\rangle + |01\rangle + |10\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2^2}} \\ H^{\otimes n} |00\dots 0_n\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} |x\rangle \end{aligned}$$

Thus $H^{\otimes n}$ produces an equal superposition of *all* computational basis states.

- Rotation Gate. This rotates in the complex plane by θ .

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

- NOT Gate, also known as bit flip gate, or X (Pauli X). This flips a bit from 0 to 1 and vice versa.

$$NOT = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Phase Flip, also known as Z (Pauli Z).

$$Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The phase flip is a NOT gate acting in the $|+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)$, $|-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$ basis. Indeed, $Z|+\rangle = |-\rangle$ and $Z|-\rangle = |+\rangle$.

- General Phase Gate, $R_z(\delta)$.

$$R_z(\delta) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\delta} \end{pmatrix}$$

Clearly $Z = R_z(\pi)$. There are several other special phase gates that are commonly used: $S = R_z(\pi/2)$, $T = R_z(\pi/4)$. The latter is sometimes referred to as the $\pi/8$ gate.

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{pmatrix} \quad T \equiv \pi/8 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & e^{i\pi/4} \end{pmatrix} = e^{i\pi/8} \begin{pmatrix} e^{-i\pi/8} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\pi/8} \end{pmatrix}$$

- Phaseflips and bitflips are related by conjugation

Conjugation of X by H means premultiplying X by H^{-1} and postmultiplying it by H . But $H = H^{-1}$.

Claim: $HXH = Z$. See Figure 1.

We can prove this by multiplying out the matrices, or by making use of the decomposition of H into an X and a Z gate:

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \right] = \frac{X+Z}{\sqrt{2}}$$

Then $\left(\frac{X+Z}{\sqrt{2}}\right) X \left(\frac{X+Z}{\sqrt{2}}\right) =$

$$\left[\frac{X+Z}{\sqrt{2}} \right] \left[\frac{X^2+XZ}{\sqrt{2}} \right] =$$

$$\left[\frac{X+Z}{\sqrt{2}} \right] \left[\frac{I+XZ}{\sqrt{2}} \right] =$$

$$\frac{XI+XXZ+ZI+ZXZ}{2} =$$

$$\frac{X+Z+Z+X}{2} =$$

$$\frac{2Z}{2} = Z$$

Conversely, $HZH = X$ (Figure 2). Prove this for yourself.

- Any unitary operation on a single qubit can be constructed with various combinations of gates:

$H, R_z(\delta)$, e.g.,

$$R_z(\pi/2 + \phi) H R_z(\theta) H |0\rangle = e^{i\theta/2} (\cos \theta/2 |0\rangle + e^{i\phi} \sin \theta/2 |1\rangle)$$

$H, X, T = R_z(\pi/4)$

X, Y, Z (Euler rotations)

4.2 Two-qubit gates:

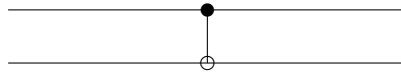
- Any one-qubit gate can be tensored with itself or another gate to make a two-qubit gate, as done above for $H \otimes H$. Such tensor products of one-qubit gates have no ability to generate entanglement and are referred to as ‘local’ gates.

- Controlled Not (*CNOT*).

$$\text{CNOT} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

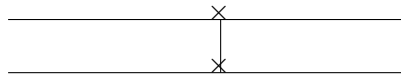
The first bit of a *CNOT* gate is the “control bit;” the second is the “target bit.” The control bit never changes, while the target bit flips if and only if the control bit is 1.

The *CNOT* gate is usually drawn as follows, with the control bit on top and the target bit on the bottom:



Note that $(\text{CNOT})^2 = 1$, i.e., $\text{CNOT}^{-1} = \text{CNOT}$.

- SWAP

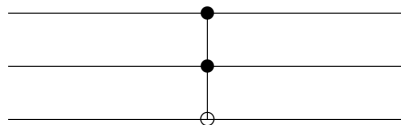


$$\text{SWAP} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

4.3 n-qubit gates:

- local n-qubit gates formed as tensor products of one-qubit gates, e.g., $H^{\otimes n}$
- Toffoli gate

This is a 3-qubit generalization of the CNOT gate. The third, target, qubit is flipped iff both the first and second qubits are in state 1. $\text{TOFF}^2 = 1$.



The Toffoli gate can be decomposed into a combination of one-qubit and two-qubit gates. See Figures 3 and 4.

4.4 Useful gate equivalences

- *SWAP* equals 3 x *CNOT*

See Figure 5.

Suppose we have two qubits in state $|y_2, y_1\rangle$:

$$\begin{aligned} & \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} \otimes \begin{bmatrix} c \\ d \end{bmatrix} \\ &= ac|00\rangle + ad|01\rangle + bc|10\rangle + bd|11\rangle \end{aligned}$$

Apply the first *CNOT*:

$$ac|00\rangle + ad|01\rangle + bd|10\rangle + bc|11\rangle$$

Apply the second *CNOT*:

$$ac|00\rangle + bc|01\rangle + bd|10\rangle + ad|11\rangle$$

Apply the third *CNOT*:

$$\begin{aligned} & ac|00\rangle + bc|01\rangle + ad|10\rangle + bd|11\rangle \\ &= ca|00\rangle + cb|01\rangle + da|10\rangle + db|11\rangle \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} c \\ d \end{bmatrix} \otimes \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

The resulting state is $|y_1, y_2\rangle$, i.e., the states of the two qubits have been swapped.

- Control and target of *CNOT* can be swapped by conjugating both qubits with *H*

See Figure 6.

Proof: see homework 2.

5 Universality of Gate Sets

5.1 Classical

The *NAND* gate is universal for classical computation. The *NAND* gate is the result of applying *NOT* to $a \text{ AND } b = a \wedge b = a \uparrow b$. See Figure 7.

For any boolean function $\{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$, there is a circuit built of *NAND* gates (possibly with *FANOUT*=copy) for that function. Note that neither of these gates are reversible.

In general, the circuit may require an exponential number 2^n of gates. Functions which can be efficiently evaluated require only a polynomial number n^c gates. Complexity theory categorizes the scaling of the resources, esp. the number of gates, with the number of bits n . Provided the gate set is universal, the distinction between functions which require exponentially large circuits and those which can be computed with polynomial-size circuits does not depend on the chosen set of gates.

5.2 Quantum

A set G of quantum gates is called universal if for any $\epsilon > 0$ and any unitary matrix U on n qubits, there is a sequence of gates g_1, \dots, g_l from G such that $\|U - U_{g_l} \cdots U_{g_2} U_{g_1}\| \leq \epsilon$.

Here U_g is $V \otimes I$, where V is the unitary transformation on k qubits operated on by the quantum gate g , and I is the identity acting on the remaining $n - k$ qubits. The operator norm is defined by $\|U - U'\| = \max_{|v\rangle \text{ unit vector}} \|(U - U')|v\rangle\|$. (Recall that for a vector w , $\|w\| = \sqrt{\langle w|w\rangle}$.)

Examples of universal gate sets include

- *CNOT* and all single qubit gates
- *CNOT*, Hadamard, and suitable phase flips
- *CNOT*, Hadamard, *X* and *T* ($\pi/8$)
- Toffoli and Hadamard

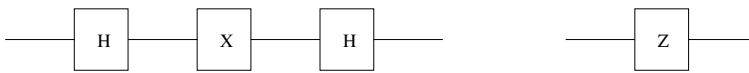


Figure 1: An *X* gate conjugated by *H* gates is a *Z* gate.

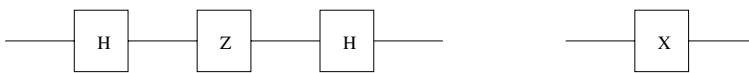


Figure 2: A *Z* gate conjugated by *H* gates is an *X* gate.

Inputs			Outputs		
<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>a'</i>	<i>b'</i>	<i>c'</i>
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	1
0	1	0	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	1	1
1	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	0	1
1	1	0	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1	0

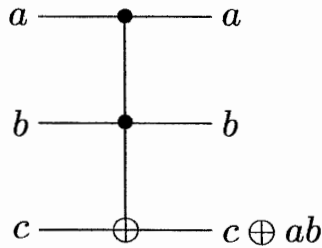


Figure 3: Toffoli gate, a 3-qubit double controlled NOT gate (bit *c* is flipped iff both *a* and *b* are 1).

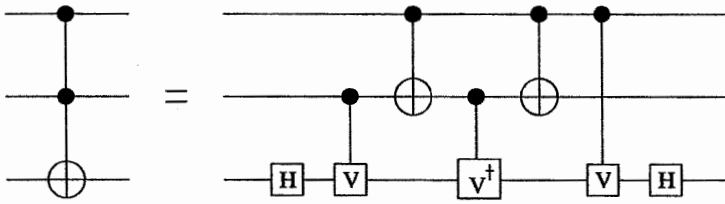


Figure 4: A Toffoli gate can be decomposed into a circuit of 1- and 2-qubit gates. Here $V = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{bmatrix} = R_z(\pi/2)$.

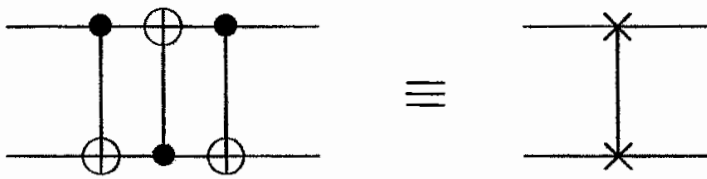


Figure 5: A SWAP gate is three back to back CNOT gates with control and target qubits alternating.

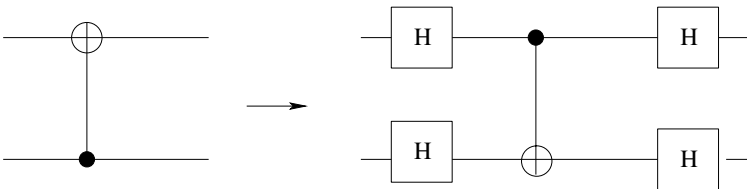


Figure 6: Control and target qubits of CNOT can be exchanged by conjugating with H on both qubits.

a	b	$a \uparrow b$
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

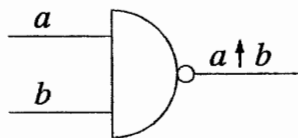


Figure 7: Classical NAND gate and its truth table.