

GEORGIA TECH

MATH, PHYSICS & COMPUTING

MATH 4782, PHYS 4782, CS4803

QUANTUM INFORMATION & QUANTUM COMPUTING

Homework # 2

Due September 18, 2007

1. Read carefully Nielsen-Chang, Section 4.2 & 4.3 .
2. Treat as many exercises in Section 4.3 as possible.
3. Turn in exercises (*to be graded*) # 4.2, 4.4, 4.5, 4.7, 4.8, 4.9, 4.13, 4.17, 4.18, 4.21, 4.23, 4.24, 4.25, 4.35 .

Exercises :

- **4.2-** Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and A be a matrix such that $A^2 = 1$ then show that $e^{ixA} = \cos xI + i \sin xA$.
□

By definition

$$\begin{aligned}
 e^{ixA} &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(ixA)^n}{n!} \\
 &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(ixA)^{2n}}{(2n)!} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(ixA)^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} \\
 &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{(2n)!} I + i \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} A \\
 &= \cos x I + i \sin x A
 \end{aligned}$$

- **4.4-** Express the Hadamard gate as a product of R_x and R_y rotation and a phase. □

By definition the matrix of the Hadamard gate in the computer basis is given by

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{X + Z}{\sqrt{2}}.$$

Thanks to (4.2), $e^{i\pi X/4} = (I + iX)/\sqrt{2}$ and $e^{i\pi Z/4} = (I + iZ)/\sqrt{2}$ are the R_x , R_z rotations of angle $\pi/4$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{(I + iX)}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{(I + iZ)}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{(I + iX)}{\sqrt{2}} &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} (I + i(X + Z) - XZ) (I + iX) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} (I + i(X + Z) - XZ + iX - I - ZX - iXZX) \\
 &= \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} (X + Z) = i H
 \end{aligned}$$

where $XZ + ZX = 0 \Rightarrow XZX = -Z$ have been used. Thus $H = e^{-i\pi/2}e^{i\pi X/4}e^{i\pi Z/4}e^{i\pi X/4}$. \square

Here $\hat{n} = (n_x, n_y, n_z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ is a vector of length one. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} (\hat{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma})^2 &= (n_x X + n_y Y + n_z Z)^2 \\ &= (n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2) I + n_x n_y (XY + YX) + n_y n_z (YZ + ZY) + n_z n_x (ZX + XZ) \\ &= I \end{aligned}$$

since $XY + YX = 0 = YZ + ZY = ZX + XZ$.

– **4.7-** Show that $XYX = -Y$ and use it to prove that $XR_y(\theta)X = R_y(-\theta)$. \square

By definition $X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $Y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Therefore a direct calculation gives

$$XY = \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}, \quad YX = \begin{bmatrix} -i & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{bmatrix} = -XY.$$

Hence $XYX = -YX^2 = -Y$. Moreover, thanks to (4.2), $R_y(\theta) = \cos \theta I + i \sin \theta Y$ so that indeed

$$XR_y(\theta)X = \cos \theta X^2 + i \sin \theta XYX = \cos \theta I - i \sin \theta Y = R_y(-\theta).$$

– **4.8-** An arbitrary single qubit unitary operator can be written in the form

$$U = e^{i\alpha} R_{\hat{n}}(\theta) \quad (1)$$

for some real numbers α, θ and a tridimensional unit vector \hat{n} .

1. Prove this fact.

2. Find values for α, θ and \hat{n} giving the Hadamard gate H .

3. Find values for α, θ and \hat{n} giving the phase gate $S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{bmatrix}$.

\square

If eq. (1) holds, since $H = (X + Z)/\sqrt{2}$, it follows that choosing $\alpha = -\pi/2, \theta = \pi/2$ and $\hat{n} = (1, 0, 1)/\sqrt{2}$ gives

$$-i \left\{ \cos \pi/2 + i \sin \pi/2 \left(\frac{X + Z}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \right\} = \frac{(X + Z)}{\sqrt{2}} = H.$$

In much the same way S is obtained in choosing $\alpha = \pi/4, \theta = -\pi/4$ and $\hat{n} = (0, 0, 1)$ giving

$$S = e^{i\pi/4} e^{-i\pi Z/4}.$$

Let now U be a 2×2 unitary matrix and it will be shown that (1) holds. First, $\det U$ is a pure phase. For indeed $|\det U|^2 = \det U \overline{\det U} = \det U \det U^\dagger = \det UU^\dagger = 1$. Therefore there is $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\det U = e^{2i\alpha}$. Hence $U = e^{i\alpha} W$ with W unitary and $\det W = 1$.

Since W is unitary, it is normal and thus can be diagonalized in an orthonormal basis with eigenvalues λ_{\pm} . Unitarity implies that both eigenvalues are pure phases. Since $\det W = \lambda_+ \lambda_- = 1$ there is a real number θ such that $\lambda_{\pm} = e^{\pm i\theta}$. As a consequence $\operatorname{tr} W = 2 \cos \theta$. As any 2×2 matrix, W can be decomposed in a unique way in the Pauli basis namely

$$W = w_0 I + w_x X + w_y Y + w_z Z, \quad w_i \in \mathbb{C}.$$

Clearly $\operatorname{tr} W = 2w_0$ so that $w_0 = \cos \theta$. Moreover writing w_i as $u_i + \imath v_i$ with $u_i, v_i \in \mathbb{R}$ (for $i = x, y, z$), this gives, with $\vec{u} = (u_x, u_y, u_z)$ and $\vec{v} = (v_x, v_y, v_z)$,

$$W = \cos \theta I + \vec{u} \cdot \vec{\sigma} + \imath \vec{v} \cdot \vec{\sigma}, \quad W^\dagger = \cos \theta I + \vec{u} \cdot \vec{\sigma} - \imath \vec{v} \cdot \vec{\sigma}.$$

By unitarity, it follows that

$$I = WW^\dagger = (\cos^2 \theta + |\vec{u}|^2 + |\vec{v}|^2) I + (2 \cos \theta \vec{u} + \vec{u} \wedge \vec{v}) \cdot \vec{\sigma},$$

giving

$$\cos^2 \theta + |\vec{u}|^2 + |\vec{v}|^2 = 1, \quad 2 \cos \theta \vec{u} = -\vec{u} \wedge \vec{v}.$$

From the second equation, it follows that $2 \cos \theta |\vec{u}|^2 = 0$ so that either $2 \cos \theta = 0$ or $\vec{u} = 0$. If $\vec{u} \neq 0$, then \vec{u} and \vec{v} are colinear, and thanks to the *l.h.s.*, $|\vec{u}|^2 + |\vec{v}|^2 = 1$ so that there is $\phi \in \mathbb{R}$ and a unit vector \hat{n} such that $\vec{u} + \vec{v} = e^{i\phi} \hat{n}$. Then, since $\det \hat{n} \vec{\sigma} = -1$ it implies that $\phi = \pi$ and eq. (1) holds with $\theta = \pi/2$.

If $\vec{u} = 0$, then $|\vec{v}|^2 = \sin^2 \theta$ so that there is a unit vector \hat{n} such that

$$W = \cos \theta I + \imath \sin \theta \hat{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma} = R_{\hat{n}}(\theta).$$

and eq. (1) also holds.

– **4.9-** Explain why a single qubit unitary operator can be written as

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} e^{i(\alpha-\beta/2-\delta/2)} \cos \gamma/2 & -e^{i(\alpha-\beta/2+\delta/2)} \sin \gamma/2 \\ e^{i(\alpha+\beta/2-\delta/2)} \sin \gamma/2 & e^{i(\alpha+\beta/2+\delta/2)} \cos \gamma/2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

□

Any 2×2 unitary matrix can be written as

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

where the two columns makes an orthonormal basis, namely

$$|a|^2 + |c|^2 = 1, \quad |b|^2 + |d|^2 = 1, \quad \bar{a}b + \bar{c}d = 0. \quad (3)$$

If $c = 0$ (resp. $b = 0$) this implies $b = 0$ (resp. $c = 0$) and both a, d are pure phases, so that it is always possible to find (non unique) real numbers α, β, δ such that $a = e^{i(\alpha-\beta/2-\delta/2)}$ and $d = e^{i(\alpha+\beta/2+\delta/2)}$ and eq. (2) holds. Similarly if $a = 0$ (resp. $d = 0$) then $d = 0$ (resp. $a = 0$) and it is always possible to find (non unique) real numbers α, β, δ such that $b = -e^{i(\alpha-\beta/2+\delta/2)}$ and $c = e^{i(\alpha+\beta/2-\delta/2)}$ so that eq. (2) holds again.

Therefore it is possible to assume that none of the coefficients a, b, c, d vanish. In particular, there are real numbers $0 < \gamma, \gamma' < \pi$ such that $|a| = \cos \gamma/2$, $|c| = \sin \gamma/2$, $|d| = \cos \gamma'/2$

and $|b| = \sin \gamma'/2$. In addition, since $a\bar{b} = -c\bar{d}$, it follows that $0 = |a||b| - |c||d| = \sin(\gamma' - \gamma)/2$ and therefore $\gamma = \gamma'$ since both belong to $(0, \pi)$. Thus, there are real numbers $\theta_a, \theta_b, \theta_c, \theta_d$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} a &= \cos \gamma/2 e^{i\theta_a} & b &= -\sin \gamma/2 e^{i\theta_b} \\ c &= \sin \gamma/2 e^{i\theta_c} & d &= \cos \gamma/2 e^{i\theta_d} \end{aligned}$$

From eq. (3), it follows that $\theta_c - \theta_d = \theta_a - \theta_b$ or equivalently, there is a real number α such that

$$\theta_a + \theta_d = \theta_c + \theta_b = 2\alpha.$$

Therefore it is possible to find real numbers ϕ and ϕ' such that

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_a &= \alpha - \phi & \theta_b &= \alpha - \phi' \\ \theta_c &= \alpha + \phi' & \theta_d &= \alpha + \phi \end{aligned}$$

Setting $\phi + \phi' = \beta$ and $\phi - \phi' = \delta$ gives eq. (2).

- **4.13- (Circuit identities)** *It is useful to be able to simplify circuits by inspection, using well-known identities. Prove the following three identities*

$$HXH = Z, \quad HYH = -Y, \quad HZH = X. \quad (4)$$

□

By definition, $XZ = -ZX$, $X^2 = I = Z^2$ and $ZX = iY$. Moreover the Hadamard operator can be written as $H = (X + Z)/\sqrt{2}$. These definitions leads to

$$H^\dagger = H, \quad H^2 = \frac{X^2 + XZ + ZX + Z^2}{2} = I.$$

In addition

$$HXXH = \frac{X^3 + X^2Z + ZX^2 + ZXX}{2} = \frac{X + 2Z - X}{2} = Z$$

Consequently, multiplying to the right and to the left by H gives $HZH = X$, since $H^2 = I$. At last, $Y = -iZX = iXZ$ so that $HYH = iHXXHHZH = iZX = -Y$.

- **4.17- (Building CNOT from the controlled-Z gate)** *Construct a CNOT gate from one controlled-Z gate, that is, the gate whose action on the computational basis is specified by the unitary matrix*

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5)$$

and the two Hadamard gates, specifying the control and the target qubits.

□

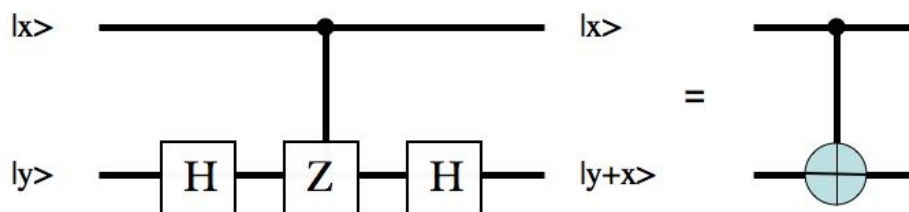


FIG. 1 – How to construct CNOT from the controlled- Z gate

The controlled- Z gate can be described algebraically as $C^1(Z)|x, y\rangle = |x\rangle \otimes Z^x|y\rangle$. It is easy to check that its matrix is given by eq. (5) in the computational basis. Since $X = HZH$ (see eq. (4)), $\text{CNOT}|x, y\rangle = |x\rangle \otimes X^x|y\rangle = |x\rangle \otimes (HZH)^x|y\rangle = |x\rangle \otimes HZ^xH|y\rangle = I \otimes H \cdot C^1(Z) \cdot I \otimes H|x, y\rangle$ giving the result described in Figure 1.

– 4.18- Show that

□

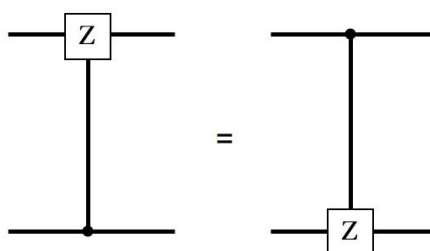


FIG. 2 –

By construction $C^1(Z)|x, y\rangle = |x\rangle \otimes Z^x|y\rangle = |x\rangle \otimes (-1)^{xy}|y\rangle = (-1)^{xy}|x, y\rangle = Z^y|x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle$ which is exactly what Figure 2 expresses.

– 4.21- Verify that Figure 3 implements the $C^2(U)$ operation

□

As can be seen from Figure 3, there are five gates in the circuit of the *r.h.s.* Therefore the quantum states describing the computer can be labeled by $|\psi_0\rangle, \dots, |\psi_5\rangle$ if $|\psi_0\rangle$ denotes the input, while $|\psi_s\rangle$ denotes the state after the s -th gate. So that $|\psi_5\rangle$ is the output. If the input is given by $|\psi_0\rangle = |x, y, z\rangle$ then

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi_1\rangle &= |x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle \otimes V^y|z\rangle \\ |\psi_2\rangle &= |x\rangle \otimes |y+x\rangle \otimes V^y|z\rangle \\ |\psi_3\rangle &= |x\rangle \otimes |y+x\rangle \otimes (V^\dagger)^{x+y}V^y|z\rangle \\ |\psi_4\rangle &= |x\rangle \otimes |y+2x\rangle \otimes (V^\dagger)^{x+y}V^y|z\rangle \\ &= |x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle \otimes (V^\dagger)^{x+y}V^y|z\rangle \\ |\psi_5\rangle &= |x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle \otimes V^x(V^\dagger)^{x+y}V^y|z\rangle \end{aligned}$$

In the last expression, giving the output, $x+y$ has to be understood *modulo 2*. Namely $|\psi_{out}\rangle = |x, y\rangle \otimes V^x(V^\dagger)^{x+y}V^y|z\rangle$. So that if $(x, y) \neq (1, 1)$ then the one-qubit operation

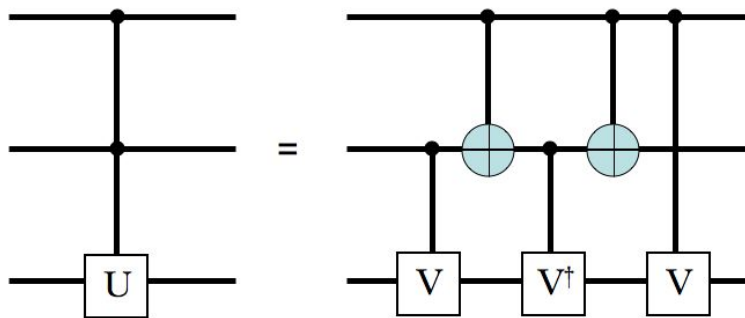


FIG. 3 – Circuit for the $C^2(U)$ gate. V is any unitary satisfying $V^2 = U$. The special case $V = (1 - i)(I + iX)/2$ corresponds to the Toffoli gate

$V^x(V^\dagger)^{x+y}V^y$ is always the identity I , since $V^\dagger = V^{-1}$. However, if $x = y = 1$ then $x + y = 0, \text{ mod } 2$ and $V^x(V^\dagger)^{x+y}V^y = V^2 = U$. Thus $V^x(V^\dagger)^{x+y}V^y = U^{xy}$ for all $(x, y) \in \{0, 1\}^{\times 2}$. And therefore $|\psi_{out}\rangle = |x, y\rangle \otimes U^{xy}|z\rangle = C^2(U)|x, y, z\rangle$.

It is easy to check that if $V = (1 - i)(I + iX)/2 = e^{-i\pi/4} e^{i\pi X/4}$, $V^2 = -i(\cos \pi/2 + i \sin \pi/2 X) = X$. So that the previous circuit implements the Toffoli gate.

- **4.23-** Construct a $C^1(U)$ gate for $U = R_x(\theta)$ and $U = R_y(\theta)$ using only CNOT and single qubit gates. Can you reduce the number of single qubit gates from three to two? \square

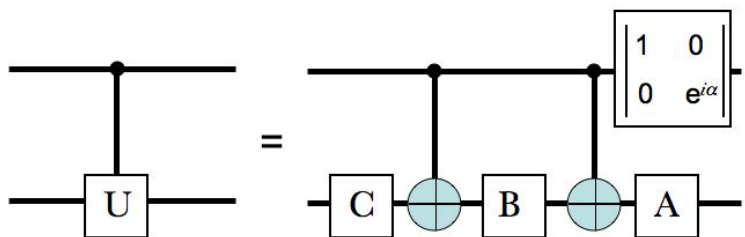


FIG. 4 – Circuit implementing $C^1(U)$: here $ABC = I$ and $U = e^{i\alpha}AXBXC$.

The quantum circuit in Figure 4 describes how to implement a $C^1(U)$ gate from using only one-qubit and CNOT gates.

By construction $\det U = e^{i\alpha}$. If $U = R_y(\theta) = e^{i\theta Y}$ then $\alpha = 0$. Moreover, taking $A = I, B = e^{-i\theta Y/2}$ and $C = e^{i\theta Y/2}$, leads to $ABC = BC = I$ and $AXBXC = XBX C = e^{i\theta Y/2} e^{i\theta Y/2} = e^{i\theta Y}$ since $XYX = -Y$ (see Exercise 4.7). In this case then, only the two 1-qubit gates B, C are needed. Actually A and C could be interchanged here.

If $U = R_x(\theta)$ however, a solution is given by $A = H, B = e^{-i\theta Z/2}$ and $C = e^{i\theta Z/2}H$. This is because $HZH = X$ and $XZX = -Z$ (see Exercise 4.13). It does not seem possible to reduce the number of single qubit gates then.

– 4.24- Verify that Figure 5 implements the Toffoli gate

□

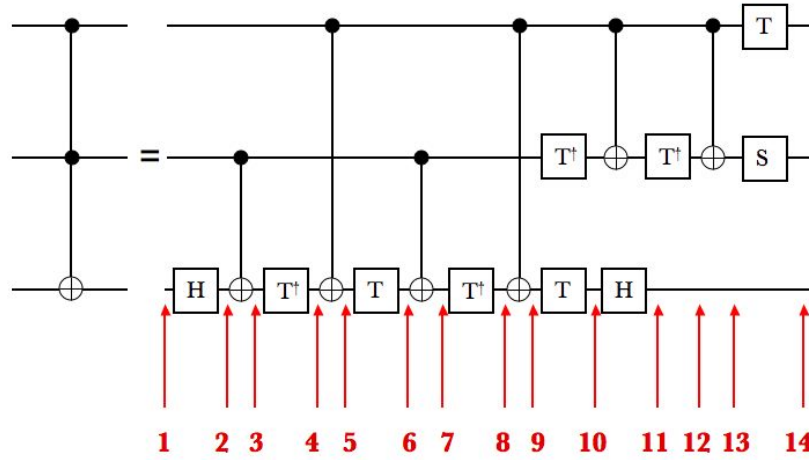


FIG. 5 – Implementation of the Toffoli gate

To compute the outcome of the *r.h.s.* it will be convenient to proceed gate by gate as indicated by the arrows in Figure 5. Since $T = e^{i\pi/8}e^{-i\pi Z/8}$ and since $XZX = -Z$ it follows that $XT^\dagger X = e^{-i\pi/4}T$. It is easy to jump directly to the step #9. This gives

$$|\psi_1\rangle = |x, y, z\rangle, \quad |\psi_9\rangle = |x, y\rangle \otimes X^x T^\dagger X^y T X^x T^\dagger X^y H |z\rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi_{10}\rangle &= |x\rangle \otimes T^\dagger |y\rangle \otimes T X^x T^\dagger X^y T X^x T^\dagger X^y H |z\rangle \\ |\psi_{11}\rangle &= |x\rangle \otimes X^x T^\dagger |y\rangle \otimes H T X^x T^\dagger X^y T X^x T^\dagger X^y H |z\rangle \\ |\psi_{12}\rangle &= |x\rangle \otimes T^\dagger X^x T^\dagger |y\rangle \otimes H T X^x T^\dagger X^y T X^x T^\dagger X^y H |z\rangle \\ |\psi_{13}\rangle &= |x\rangle \otimes X^x T^\dagger X^x T^\dagger |y\rangle \otimes H T X^x T^\dagger X^y T X^x T^\dagger X^y H |z\rangle \\ |\psi_{14}\rangle &= e^{i\pi x/4} |x\rangle \otimes S X^x T^\dagger X^x T^\dagger |y\rangle \otimes H T X^x T^\dagger X^y T X^x T^\dagger X^y H |z\rangle \end{aligned}$$

where $T|x\rangle = e^{i\pi x/4}|x\rangle$ has been used. If $x = 0$ then

$$|\psi_{out}\rangle = |0\rangle \otimes |y\rangle \otimes |z\rangle = \text{TOFFOLI}|0, y, z\rangle.$$

as can be checked immediately. If $x = 1$ then $e^{i\pi x/4} S X^x T^\dagger X^x T^\dagger |y\rangle = e^{i\pi/4} S X T^\dagger X T^\dagger |y\rangle = S|y\rangle = (i)^y |y\rangle$. Thus, whenever $y = 0$ this gives

$$|\psi_{out}\rangle = |1\rangle \otimes |0\rangle \otimes H T X T^\dagger T X T^\dagger H |z\rangle = |1, 0, z\rangle$$

If now $x = y = 1$ then

$$|\psi_{out}\rangle = |1, 1\rangle \otimes i H T X T^\dagger X T X T^\dagger X H |z\rangle = \text{TOFFOLI}|1, 0, z\rangle.$$

noindent However it is easy to check that

$$T X T^\dagger X = \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\pi/4} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\pi/4} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow (T X T^\dagger X)^2 = -iZ.$$

So that

$$|\psi_{out}\rangle = |1, 1\rangle \otimes HZH|z\rangle = |1, 1\rangle \otimes X|z\rangle = \text{TOFFOLI}|1, 1, z\rangle.$$

Hence the result is the same as for the Toffoli gate for all values of (x, y, z) .

– **4.25-** Recall that the Fredkin (controlled-SWAP) gate performs the transform

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{6}$$

1. Give a quantum circuit which uses three Toffoli gates to construct the Fredkin gate (Hint : think of the SWAP-gate construction- you can control each gate one at a time).
2. Show that the first and the last Toffoli gates can be replaced by CNOT-gates.
3. Now replace the middle Toffoli gate with the circuit of Figure 3 to obtain a Fredkin gate construction using only six two-qubit gates.
4. Can you come up with an even simpler construction, with five two-qubit gates?

□

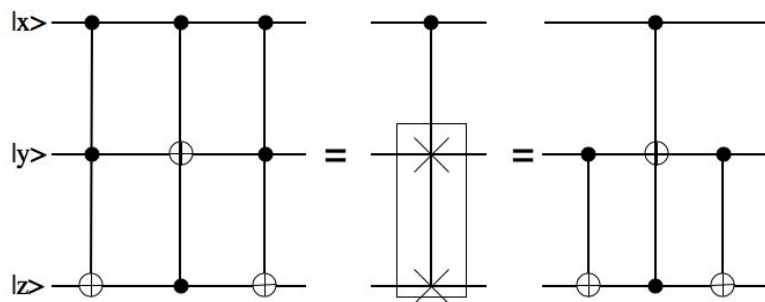


FIG. 6 – The Fredkin gate is a controlled-SWAP gate

1. As can be seen from eq. (6), the Fredkin gate acts on the computational basis as $F|0, y, z\rangle = |0, y, z\rangle$ and $F|1, y, z\rangle = |1, z, y\rangle$. In other words if $\text{SWAP}|y, z\rangle = |z, y\rangle$ then it can be written as $F|x, y, z\rangle = |x\rangle \otimes (\text{SWAP})^x|y, z\rangle$. Hence the Fredkin gate is nothing but a controlled-SWAP. The SWAP-gate can be implemented by three alternating CNOT-gates, suggesting that the Fredkin gate be given by the quantum circuit described on the *l.h.s.* of Figure 6. A direct calculation of the outcome of this quantum circuit gives indeed, if $|\psi_i\rangle$ represents the quantum state of the computer after the i -th gate,

$$\begin{aligned}
|\psi_1\rangle &= |x, y, z + xy\rangle \\
|\psi_2\rangle &= |x, y + xz + x^2y, z + xy\rangle \\
&= |x, \bar{x}y + xz, z + xy\rangle \\
|\psi_{out}\rangle = |\psi_3\rangle &= |x, \bar{x}y + xz, z + xy + x\bar{x}y + x^2z\rangle \\
&= |x, \bar{x}y + xz, \bar{x}z + xy\rangle
\end{aligned}$$

In these equations, $x = x^2, \bar{x} = 1 - x = 1 + x, x\bar{x} = 0$ have been used. If $x = 0$ the outcome is therefore $|0, y, z\rangle$ while if $x = 1$ it is $|1, z, y\rangle$. Hence the *l.h.s.* of Figure 6 implements indeed the Fredkin gate.

2. Actually the left and the right Toffoli gates can be replaced by a simple CNOT gate, as in the *r.h.s.* of Figure 6. For indeed the same calculation performed now on the *r.h.s.* gives

$$\begin{aligned}
|\psi_1\rangle &= |x, y, z + y\rangle \\
|\psi_2\rangle &= |x, y + xz + xy, z + y\rangle \\
&= |x, \bar{x}y + xz, z + y\rangle \\
|\psi_{out}\rangle = |\psi_3\rangle &= |x, \bar{x}y + xz, z + y + \bar{x}y + xz\rangle \\
&= |x, \bar{x}y + xz, \bar{x}z + xy\rangle
\end{aligned}$$

giving indeed the same result.

3. Replacing the Toffoli gate in the middle by the quantum circuit given in Figure 3, will give Figure 7, where $V = e^{-i\pi/4}(I + iX)/\sqrt{2}$. In such a case $V^2 = X$, or, equivalently $(V^\dagger)^2 = X$. It can be checked directly that the *r.h.s.* of Figure 7 gives indeed the Fredkin gate for, using the same type of computation as before,

$$\begin{aligned}
|\psi_1\rangle &= |x, y, z \oplus y\rangle \\
|\psi_2\rangle &= |x\rangle \otimes V^{y \oplus z} |y\rangle \otimes |y \oplus z\rangle \\
|\psi_3\rangle &= |x\rangle \otimes V^{y \oplus z} |y\rangle \otimes |x \oplus y \oplus z\rangle \\
|\psi_4\rangle &= |x\rangle \otimes (V^\dagger)^{x \oplus y \oplus z} V^{y \oplus z} |y\rangle \otimes |x \oplus y \oplus z\rangle \\
|\psi_5\rangle &= |x\rangle \otimes (V^\dagger)^{x \oplus y \oplus z} V^{y \oplus z} |y\rangle \otimes |y \oplus z\rangle \\
|\psi_6\rangle &= |x\rangle \otimes V^x (V^\dagger)^{x \oplus y \oplus z} V^{y \oplus z} |y\rangle \otimes |y \oplus z\rangle \\
&= |x\rangle \otimes |u\rangle \otimes |y \oplus z\rangle \\
|\psi_{out}\rangle = |\psi_7\rangle &= |x\rangle \otimes |u\rangle \otimes |u \oplus y \oplus z\rangle
\end{aligned}$$

where

$$|u\rangle = V^x (V^\dagger)^{x \oplus y \oplus z} V^{y \oplus z} |y\rangle.$$

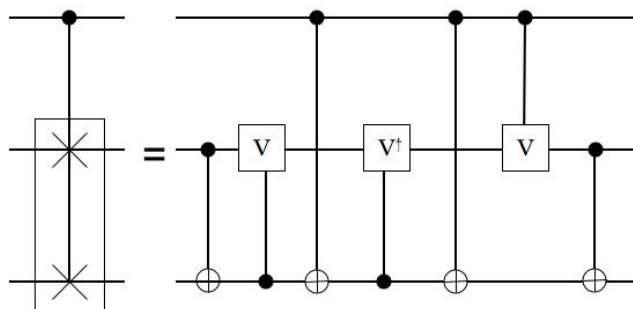


FIG. 7 – Quantum circuit implementing the Fredkin gate

Hence if $x = 0$ then $|u\rangle = |y\rangle$ and $|u \oplus y \oplus z\rangle = |z\rangle$. If $x = 1$ then $|u\rangle = V(V^\dagger)^{1-y\oplus z}V^{y\oplus z}|y\rangle = V^{2\{y\oplus z\}}|y\rangle = X^{y\oplus z}|y\rangle = |y\oplus y\oplus z\rangle = |z\rangle$. Then $|u\oplus y\oplus z\rangle = |y\rangle$. Thus

$$|\psi_{out}\rangle = |x\rangle \otimes (\text{SWAP})^x|y, z\rangle = F|x, y, z\rangle.$$

This circuit requires seven elementary two-qubit-gates and not six as suggested. However, the product of two such gates is a two-qubit gate so that the product of the first gates on the *r.h.s.* of Figure 7 can be considered as a unique two-qubit gate, meaning that only 6 such gates are necessary. If G denotes this product then

$$G|y, z\rangle = e^{-i\pi/4} \frac{(|y\rangle + i|z\rangle)}{\sqrt{2}}$$

4. It does not seem possible to decrease the number of two-qubit gates.

- **4.35- (Measurement commutes with controls)** A consequence of the principle of deferred measurements is that measurements commute with quantum gates when the qubit being measured is a control qubit, that is :

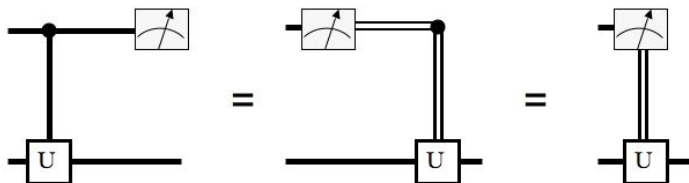


FIG. 8 –

(Recall that double lines represents classical bits in this diagram.) Prove the first equality. The rightmost circuit is simply a convenient notation to depict the use of measurement result to classically control a quantum gate. \square

If $|x, y\rangle$ is the input in these circuit, then on the leftmost circuit, the quantum state of the computer before measurement is $|x\rangle \otimes U^x|y\rangle$. In general then the input will be a linear combinations $\sum_{x,y} \alpha_{xy}|x, y\rangle$ of the computational basis. The measurement will give an outcome for the value of the first qubit. If this outcome is x , then then, thanks to the axioms about measurement, the output will be given by

$$|\psi_{out}\rangle = \frac{\sum_y \alpha_{xy} U^x |y\rangle}{\sqrt{\sum_y |\alpha_{xy}|^2}} = U^x \frac{\sum_y \alpha_{xy} |y\rangle}{\sqrt{\sum_y |\alpha_{xy}|^2}}$$

In the middle circuit, the measurement of the first qubit is made first. If x is the outcome then the new state, right after the measurement is given by

$$|\psi_{meas}\rangle = \frac{\sum_y \alpha_{xy} |y\rangle}{\sqrt{\sum_y |\alpha_{xy}|^2}}$$

The classical bit x is then applied to control the gate U so that the output will be $U^x |\psi_{meas}\rangle$ which the same output as for the leftmost circuit.