

# Diagrammatic Design of Ansätze for Quantum Chemistry



Ayman El Amrani

St. John's College

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Pour ma mère et mon père.  
Merci de m'avoir amené jusqu'ici.

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# Summary

A central challenge in computational quantum chemistry is the accurate simulation of fermionic systems. At the heart of these calculations lies the need to solve the Schrödinger equation to determine the many-electron wavefunction. An exact solution to this problem scales exponentially with the number of electrons. Classical computers struggle to store the increasingly large wavefunctions making this problem computationally intractable in many cases. In contrast, gate-based quantum computing presents a promising solution, offering the potential to represent electronic wavefunctions with polynomially scaling resources [1]. In other words, quantum computers are a natural tool of choice for simulating processes that are inherently quantum [2].

In the last two decades many advancements in quantum computing have been made in both hardware and software bringing us closer to being able to simulate molecular systems. Despite these advancements, we remain in the so-called Noisy Intermediate Scale Quantum (NISQ) era, characterised by challenges such as poor qubit fidelity, low qubit connectivity and limited coherence times. The NISQ era represents a transitional phase in quantum computing, where quantum devices are not yet error-corrected but are still capable of performing computations beyond the reach of classical computers. Overcoming the limitations of the NISQ era is crucial for realising the full potential of quantum computing in various fields, including quantum chemistry and materials science.

The Variational Quantum Eigensolver (VQE) algorithm is a method used to estimate the ground state energy of a molecular Hamiltonian by preparing a trial wavefunction,

calculating its energy, and optimising the wavefunction parameters classically until the energy converges to the best approximation for the ground state energy [3]. It is recognised as a leading algorithm for quantum simulation on NISQ devices due to its reduced resource requirements in terms of qubit count and coherence time [4].

This thesis extends methods developed by Richie Yeung [2] for the preparation and analysis of parametrised quantum circuits, and applies them to ansätze representing fermionic wavefunctions. We are concerned with two main questions on this theme. Firstly, can we use the ZX calculus [cite] to gain insights into the structure of the unitary product ansatz in the context of variational algorithms for quantum chemistry? Secondly, in the context of NISQ devices, can we use these insights to build better ansätze with reduced circuit depth and more efficient resources?

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# Chapter 1

## Background

In this chapter, we will discuss the methods and concepts required to simulate fermionic systems on a quantum computer, as well as the notation that we will use throughout the text. Starting with ... we will introduce the ... and finally a variational quantum algorithm known as the Variational Quantum Eigensolver.

In this chapter, we will review the concepts and methods required to simulate a fermionic system on a quantum computer. Starting with the electronic structure theory, we will introduce unitary coupled cluster (UCC) and the ZX calculus.

Let us first develop a general fermionic simulation scheme.

- hamiltonian in first quantisation
- born oppenheimer approximation
- hamiltonian in second quantisation
- anti commutation relations of creation/annihilation operators
- introduction to unitary coupled cluster theory

In order to simulate a fermionic system on a quantum computer, we must map the fermionic state to a qubit state. This is usually done using the occupation number representation [REF SECTION]. We then act on the qubit state with unitary operations that represent the fermionic operations. In order not to violate the Pauli principle, we must choose a fermion-qubit mapping that preserves the



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fermionic anti-commutation relations. The most common mapping, and the one used throughout this text, is known as the Jordan-Wigner transformation [REF SECTION]. Then, by acting on the qubit state with the unitary qubit operator, we obtain the resultant qubit state, which in the occupation number representation, simply represents the fermionic wavefunction.

A successful simulation scheme is one that reproduces the action of the fermionic operator [CITE BRAVYI-KITAEV PAPER].

## 1. Background

### 1.1 Electronic Structure Theory

#### Electronic Structure Problem

The main interest of electronic structure theory is finding approximate solutions to the eigenvalue equation of the full molecular Hamiltonian. Specifically, we seek solutions to the non-relativistic time-independent Schrödinger equation.

$$H = -\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{2} \nabla_i^2 - \sum_{i=1}^M \frac{1}{2M_i} \nabla_i^2 - \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^M \frac{Z_j}{|r_i - R_j|} + \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j>i}^N \frac{1}{|r_i - r_j|} + \sum_{i=1}^M \sum_{j>i}^M \frac{Z_i Z_j}{|R_i - R_j|}$$

**Figure 1.1:** Full molecular Hamiltonian in atomic units, where  $Z_i$  is the charge of nucleus  $i$  and  $M_i$  is its mass relative to the mass of an electron.

The full molecular Hamiltonian,  $H$ , describes all interactions within a system of  $N$  interacting electrons and  $M$  nuclei. The first term corresponds to the kinetic energy of all electrons in the system and the second term corresponds to the total kinetic energy of all nuclei. The third term corresponds to the pairwise attractive Coulombic interactions between the  $N$  electrons and  $M$  nuclei, whilst the fourth and fifth terms correspond to all repulsive Coulombic interactions between electrons and nuclei respectively.

Using the Born-Oppenheimer approximation, we are able to simplify this problem to an electronic one. Motivated by the large difference in mass of electrons and nuclei, we can approximate the nuclei as stationary on the timescale of electronic motion such that the electronic wavefunction depends only parametrically on the nuclear coordinates. This allows us to express the full molecular wavefunction as an adiabatic separation as below.

$$\Phi_{\text{total}} = \psi_{\text{elec}}(\{r\}; \{R\}) \psi_{\text{nuc}}(\{R\})$$

Within this approximation, the nuclear kinetic energy term can be neglected and the nuclear repulsive term is considered to be constant. Since constants in eigenvalue equations have no effect on the eigenfunctions and simply add to the

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resulting eigenvalue, we will omit this too. The resulting equation is the electronic Hamiltonian for  $N$  electrons.

$$H = -\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{2} \nabla_i^2 - \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^M \frac{Z_j}{|r_i - R_j|} + \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j>i}^N \frac{1}{|r_i - r_j|}$$

Throughout the remainder of this text, we will concern ourselves only with the electronic Hamiltonian, simply referring to it as the Hamiltonian,  $H$ . The solution to the eigenvalue equation involving the electronic Hamiltonian is the electronic wavefunction, which depends only parametrically on the nuclear coordinates. It is solved for fixed nuclear coordinates, such that different arrangements of nuclei yields different functions of the electronic coordinates. The total molecular energy can then be calculated by solving the electronic Schrödinger equation and including the constant repulsive nuclear term.

$$E_{\text{total}} = E_{\text{elec}} + \sum_{i=1}^M \sum_{j>i}^M \frac{Z_i Z_j}{|R_i - R_j|}$$

## Many-Electron Wavefunctions [5]

The many-electron wavefunction, which describes all fermions in given molecular system, must satisfy the Pauli principle. This requires that the many-electron wavefunction be antisymmetric with respect to the exchange of any two fermions. Hence, valid many-electron wavefunctions must both be eigenfunctions of the Hamiltonian and must satisfy the Pauli principle.

A spatial molecular orbital is defined as a one-particle function of the position vector, spanning the whole molecule. The spatial orbitals form an orthonormal set  $\{\psi_i(\mathbf{r})\}$ , which if complete can be used to expand any arbitrary function of the position vector, that is, an arbitrary single-particle molecular wavefunction. In practice, only a finite set of such orbitals is available to us, spanning only a subspace of the complete space. Hence, wavefunctions expanded using this finite set are described as being ‘exact’ only within the subspace spanned.

We will now introduce the spin orbitals  $\{\phi_i(\mathbf{x})\}$ , that is, the set of functions of the composite coordinate  $\mathbf{x}$ , which describes both the spin and spatial distribution of

## 1. Background

an electron. Given a set of  $K$  spatial orbitals, we can construct  $2K$  spin orbitals by taking the product with the orthonormal spin functions  $\alpha(\omega)$  and  $\beta(\omega)$ . Whilst the Hamiltonian operator makes no reference to spin, it is a necessary component when constructing many-electron wavefunctions in order to correctly antisymmetrise the wavefunction with respect to fermion exchange. Constructing the antisymmetric many-electron wavefunction from a finite set of spin orbitals amounts to taking the appropriate linear combinations of symmetric products of  $N$  spin orbitals known as Hatree products.

$$\begin{aligned}\psi_{1,2}(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) &= \phi_i(\mathbf{x}_1)\phi_j(\mathbf{x}_2) & \psi_{2,1}(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_1) &= \phi_i(\mathbf{x}_2)\phi_j(\mathbf{x}_1) \\ \Psi_{1,2}(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [\psi_{1,2}(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) - \psi_{2,1}(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_1)]\end{aligned}$$

**Figure 1.2:** Symmetric Hartree products of spin orbitals  $\phi_i$  and  $\phi_j$  and antisymmetric linear combination of them.

A general procedure for this is achieved by constructing a Slater determinant from the finite set of spin orbitals, where each row relates to the electron coordinate and each column corresponds to the particular spin orbital. Since exchange any two rows or columns of a determinant changes its sign, the following Slater determinant satisfies the Pauli principle.

$$\psi(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N!}} \begin{vmatrix} \phi_i(\mathbf{x}_1) & \phi_j(\mathbf{x}_1) & \dots & \phi_k(\mathbf{x}_1) \\ \phi_i(\mathbf{x}_2) & \phi_j(\mathbf{x}_2) & \dots & \phi_k(\mathbf{x}_2) \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \phi_i(\mathbf{x}_N) & \phi_j(\mathbf{x}_N) & \dots & \phi_k(\mathbf{x}_N) \end{vmatrix}$$

**Figure 1.3:** Slater determinant representing an antisymmetrised  $N$ -electron wavefunction.

Slater determinants constructed from orthonormal spin orbitals are themselves normalised.  $N$  electron Slater determinants constructed from different orthonormal spin orbitals are orthogonal to one another [5].

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By constructing Slater determinants, we have antisymmetrised the many-electron wavefunction to meet the requirements of the Pauli principle. In so doing, we have incorporated exchange correlation, in that, the motion of two electrons with parallel spins is now correlated.

We will now introduce the Hartree-Fock approximation, which yields a set of orthonormal spin orbitals, which when used to construct a single Slater determinant, gives the best variational approximation to the ground state of a system [5]. By treating electron-electron repulsion in an average way, the Hartree-Fock approximation allows us to iteratively solve for spin orbitals until they become the same as the eigenfunctions of the Fock operator. This is known as the Self Consistent Field (SCF) method and is an elegant starting point for finding approximate solutions to the many-electron wavefunction.

For an  $N$  electron system, and given a set of  $2K$  Hartree-Fock spin orbitals, where  $2K > N$ , there exist many different single determinants. The Hartree-Fock groundstate being one of these. The remainder are known as excited determinants, recalling that they must all be orthogonal to one-another. By treating the Hartree-Fock ground state as a reference state, we can describe all possible excited states relative to the reference state, as single, double,  $\dots$ ,  $N$ -tuple excited states.

## Second Quantisation

In second quantisation, both observables and states (by acting on the vacuum state) are represented by operators, namely the creation and annihilation operators [6]. In contrast to the standard formulation of quantum mechanics, operators in second quantisation incorporate the relevant Bose or Fermi statistics each time they act on a state, circumventing the need to keep track of symmetrised or antisymmetrised products of single-particle wavefunctions [7]. Put differently, the antisymmetry of an electronic wavefunction simply follows from the algebra of the creation and annihilation operators [6], which greatly simplifies the discussion of systems of many identical interacting fermions [7].

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The Fock space is a linear abstract vector space spanned by  $N$  orthonormal occupation number vectors [6], each representing a single Slater determinant. Hence, given a basis of  $N$  spin orbitals we can construct  $2^N$  single Slater determinants, each corresponding to a single occupation number vector in the full Fock space.

The occupation number vector for fermionic systems is succinctly denoted in Dirac notation as below, where the occupation number  $f_j$  is 1 if spin orbital  $j$  is occupied, and 0 if spin orbital  $j$  is unoccupied.

$$|\psi\rangle = |f_{n-1} f_{n-2} \dots f_1 f_0\rangle \quad \text{where } f_j \in 0, 1$$

Whilst there is a one-to-one mapping between Slater determinants with canonically ordered spin orbitals and the occupation number vectors in the Fock space, it is important to distinguish between the two since, unlike the Slater determinants, the occupation number vectors have no spatial structure and are simply vectors in an abstract vector space. [6].

$$|\psi_1\rangle = |0 \dots 1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \dots \quad |\psi_N\rangle = |1 \dots 1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

## Creation and Annihilation Operators

Operators in second quantisation are constructed from the creation and annihilation operators  $a_j^\dagger$  and  $a_j$ , where the subscripts  $i$  and  $j$  denote the spin orbital.  $a_j^\dagger$  and  $a_j$  are one another's Hermitian adjoints, and are not self-adjoint [6].

Taking the excitation of an electron from spin orbital 0 to spin orbital 1 as an example, we can construct the following excitation operator.

$$a_1^\dagger a_0 |0 \dots 01\rangle = |0 \dots 10\rangle$$

SHOW LADDER OPERATORS ACTING ON OPPOSITE STATES Due to the fermionic exchange anti-symmetry imposed by the Pauli principle, the action of the creation and annihilation operators introduces a phase to the state that depends on

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the parity of the spin orbitals preceding the target spin orbital.

$$\begin{aligned} a_j^\dagger |f_{n-1} \dots f_{j+1}, 0, f_{j-1} \dots f_0\rangle &= (-1)^{\sum_{s=0}^{j-1} f_s} |f_{n-1} \dots f_{j+1}, 1, f_{j-1} \dots f_0\rangle \\ a_j |f_{n-1} \dots f_{j+1}, 1, f_{j-1} \dots f_0\rangle &= (-1)^{\sum_{s=0}^{j-1} f_s} |f_{n-1} \dots f_{j+1}, 0, f_{j-1} \dots f_0\rangle \end{aligned}$$

In second quantisation, this exchange anti-symmetry requirement is accounted for by the anti-commutation relations of the creation and annihilation operators.

$$\{\hat{a}_j, \hat{a}_k\} = 0 \quad \{\hat{a}_j^\dagger, \hat{a}_k^\dagger\} = 0 \quad \{\hat{a}_j, \hat{a}_k^\dagger\} = \delta_{jk} \hat{1} \quad (1.1)$$

That is, the phase factor required for the second quantised representation to be consistent with the first quantised representation is automatically kept track of by the anticommutation relations of the creation and annihilation operators [6].

## Second Quantised Hamiltonian

The Hamiltonian in second quantisation is constructed from creation and annihilation operators as follows.

$$\hat{H} = \sum_{ij} h_{ij} a_i^\dagger a_j + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ijkl} h_{ijkl} a_i^\dagger a_j^\dagger a_k a_l + h_{\text{Nu}}$$

Where the one-body matrix element  $h_{ij}$  corresponds to the kinetic energy of an electron and its interaction energy with the nuclei.

$$h_{ij} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_{i(x_1)}^* \left( -\frac{1}{2} \nabla^2 + \hat{V}_{(x_1)} \right) \psi_{j(x_1)} d^3 x_1$$

The two-body matrix element  $h_{ijkl}$  corresponds to the repulsive interaction between electrons  $i$  and  $j$ .

$$h_{ijkl} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_{i(x_1)}^* \psi_{j(x_2)}^* \left( \frac{1}{|x_1 - x_2|} \right) \psi_{k(x_2)} \psi_{l(x_1)} d^3 x_1 d^3 x_2$$

$h_{\text{Nu}}$  is a constant corresponding to the repulsive interaction between nuclei. These matrix elements are computed classically, allowing us to compute only the inherently quantum aspects of the problem on a quantum computer.

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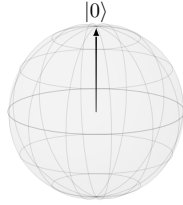
# 1.2 Quantum Computation

## Introduction to Qubits

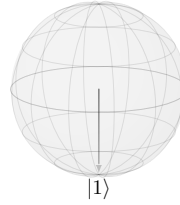
In quantum computing, the  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$  states form the computational basis. They are vectors in a two-dimensional complex Hilbert space  $\mathbb{C}^2$ . We can choose any pair of orthonormal states to form our computational basis. Consider, for instance, the  $|+\rangle$  and  $|-\rangle$  states.

$$|+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \quad |-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$$

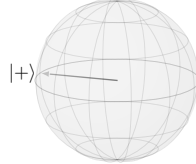
We can depict these computational basis states on a Bloch sphere.



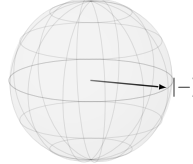
**Figure 1.4:**  $|0\rangle$  state



**Figure 1.5:**  $|1\rangle$  state



**Figure 1.6:**  $|+\rangle$  state



**Figure 1.7:**  $|-\rangle$  state

We can choose any pair of orthonormal states to form our computational basis.

$$|+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \quad |-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$$

More generally, any qubit  $|\psi\rangle$  can be represented as complex linear combination of the chosen basis, provided that the qubit state vector is normalised.

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle$$

$$|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$$

$$\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$$



## 1. Background

### 1.3 Fermion-Qubit Encodings

#### Jordan-Wigner Transformation [8]

The form of the occupation number representation vector and the qubit statevector suggests the following identification between electronic states and qubit states.

$$|f_{n-1} \dots f_0\rangle \rightarrow |q_{n-1} \dots q_0\rangle$$

That is, we allow each qubit to store the occupation number of a given spin-orbital. Hence, in order to actually simulate a Hamiltonian we must map the fermionic creation and annihilation operators onto qubit operators, and these operators must behave in the same way as their fermionic analogues.

$$\hat{Q}^+ |0\rangle = |1\rangle \quad \hat{Q}^+ |1\rangle = 0 \quad \hat{Q} |1\rangle = |0\rangle \quad \hat{Q} |0\rangle = 0$$

The qubit operators must also preserve the fermionic anti-commutation relations in order to satisfy the Pauli antisymmetry requirement.

$$\{\hat{Q}_j, \hat{Q}_k\} = 0 \quad \{\hat{Q}_j^\dagger, \hat{Q}_k^\dagger\} = 0 \quad \{\hat{Q}_j, \hat{Q}_k^\dagger\} = \delta_{jk}$$

One such qubit encoding is known as the Jordan-Wigner transformation. It expresses the fermionic creation and annihilation operators as a linear combination of the Pauli matrices.

$$\hat{Q}^+ = |1\rangle \langle 0| = \frac{1}{2}(X - iY) \quad \hat{Q} = |0\rangle \langle 1| = \frac{1}{2}(X + iY)$$

When dealing with **multiple-qubits**, we must also account for the occupation parity of the qubits preceding the target qubit  $j$ .

$$a_j^\dagger |f_{n-1} \dots f_{j+1}, 0, f_{j-1} \dots f_0\rangle = (-1)^{\sum_{s=0}^{j-1} f_s} |f_{n-1} \dots f_{j+1}, 1, f_{j-1} \dots f_0\rangle$$

We do this by introducing a string of Pauli Z operators that computes the parity of the qubits preceding the target qubit.

$$\hat{a}_j^+ = \frac{1}{2}(X - iY) \prod_{k=1}^{j-1} Z_k \quad \hat{a}_j = \frac{1}{2}(X + iY) \prod_{k=1}^{j-1} Z_k$$

Where  $\prod$  is the tensor product.

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A more compact notation is,

$$\hat{a}_j^+ = \frac{1}{2}(X - iY) \otimes Z_{j-1}^{\rightarrow} \quad \hat{a}_j = \frac{1}{2}(X + iY) \otimes Z_{j-1}^{\rightarrow}$$

Where  $Z_i^{\rightarrow}$  is the parity operator with eigenvalues  $\pm 1$ , and ensures the correct phase is added to the qubit state vector.

$$Z_i^{\rightarrow} = Z_i \otimes Z_{i-1} \otimes \cdots \otimes Z_0$$

For instance, the creation operator  $a_3^\dagger$  maps to the following Pauli string,

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{a}_3^\dagger &= \frac{1}{2}(X_3 - iY_3) \otimes Z_2 \otimes Z_1 \otimes Z_0 \\ \hat{a}_3^\dagger &= \frac{1}{2}(X_3 \otimes Z_2 \otimes Z_1 \otimes Z_0) - \frac{1}{2}i(Y_3 \otimes Z_2 \otimes Z_1 \otimes Z_0) \end{aligned}$$

Usually we drop the subscript specifying the orbital acted on.

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### 1.4 Unitary Coupled Cluster

Within the traditional coupled-cluster framework, the ground electronic state is prepared by applying the CC operator to a reference state (usually Hartree-Fock).

$$|\psi\rangle = e^{\hat{T}} |\phi_0\rangle$$

Where  $\hat{T}$  is the cluster excitation operator.

Quantum gates, however, must be unitary operators, so instead, we work within the UCC framework.

$$|\psi\rangle = e^{\hat{T}} |\phi_0\rangle$$

Where  $\hat{T}$  is now an **anti-Hermitian** operator, and  $e^{\hat{T}}$  is unitary.

In general, we can prepare exact electronic states by applying a sequence of  $k$  parametrised unitary operators to our reference state.

$$|\psi\rangle = \prod_i^k U_i(\theta_i) |\phi_0\rangle$$

Where  $U_i(\theta_i)$  is a parametrised unitary operator

The parameters  $\theta_i$  are then optimised to find the ground state energy.

General fermionic single and double excitation operators are defined as,

$$a_q^\dagger a_p \text{ and } a_r^\dagger a_s^\dagger a_q a_p$$

Exciting one electron from  $p$  to  $q$ , and two electrons from  $p, q$  to  $r, s$  respectively.

Taking a linear combination of these, we obtain **anti-Hermitian** fermionic single and double excitation operators.

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\kappa}_p^q &= a_q^\dagger a_p - a_p^\dagger a_q \\ \hat{\kappa}_{pq}^{rs} &= a_r^\dagger a_s^\dagger a_q a_p - a_p^\dagger a_q^\dagger a_s a_r\end{aligned}$$

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Such that upon exponentiating, we obtain **unitary** operators.

$$U_p^q = e^{\hat{\kappa}_p^q} \quad U_{pq}^{rs} = e^{\hat{\kappa}_{pq}^{rs}}$$

Recalling the Jordan-Wigner encoding for the creation and annihilation operators,

$$\hat{a}_j^+ = \frac{1}{2}(X - iY) \otimes Z_{j-1}^{\rightarrow} \quad \hat{a}_j = \frac{1}{2}(X + iY) \otimes Z_{j-1}^{\rightarrow}$$

The anti-Hermitian fermionic single and double excitation operators  $\kappa_p^q$  and  $\kappa_{pq}^{rs}$

$$\begin{aligned} F_p^q &= \frac{i}{2}(Y_p X_q - X_p Y_q) \prod_{k=p+1}^{q-1} Z_k \\ F_{pq}^{rs} &= \frac{i}{8}(X_p X_q Y_s X_r + Y_p X_q Y_s Y_r + X_p Y_q Y_s Y_r + X_p X_q X_s Y_r - \\ &\quad Y_p X_q X_s X_r - X_p Y_q X_s X_r - Y_p Y_q Y_s X_r - Y_p Y_q X_s Y_r) \prod_{k=p+1}^{q-1} Z_k \prod_{l=r+1}^{s-1} Z_l \end{aligned}$$

Multiplying by  $\theta$  and exponentiating yields the parametrised unitary qubit operators,

$$\begin{aligned} U_p^q(\theta) &= \exp \left( i \frac{\theta}{2} (Y_p X_q - X_p Y_q) \prod_{k=p+1}^{q-1} Z_k \right) \\ U_{pq}^{rs}(\theta) &= \exp \left( i \frac{\theta}{8} (X_p X_q Y_s X_r + \dots - Y_p Y_q Y_s X_r - Y_p Y_q X_s Y_r) \prod_{k=p+1}^{q-1} Z_k \prod_{l=r+1}^{s-1} Z_l \right) \end{aligned}$$

To summarise, we constructed anti-Hermitian single and double excitation operators from a linear combination of fermionic excitation operators,

$$\hat{\kappa}_p^q = a_q^\dagger a_p - a_p^\dagger a_q \quad \hat{\kappa}_{pq}^{rs} = a_r^\dagger a_s^\dagger a_q a_p - a_p^\dagger a_q^\dagger a_s a_r$$

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We then mapped these to qubit operators using the Jordan-Wigner transformation,

$$\hat{\kappa}_p^q \xrightarrow{\text{JW}} F_p^q \qquad \hat{\kappa}_{pq}^{rs} \xrightarrow{\text{JW}} F_{pq}^{rs}$$

And finally, we exponentiated to yield the parametrised unitary qubit operators.

$$U_p^q(\theta) = e^{\theta_p^q F_p^q} \qquad U_{pq}^{rs}(\theta) = e^{\theta_{pq}^{rs} F_{pq}^{rs}}$$

# Chapter 2

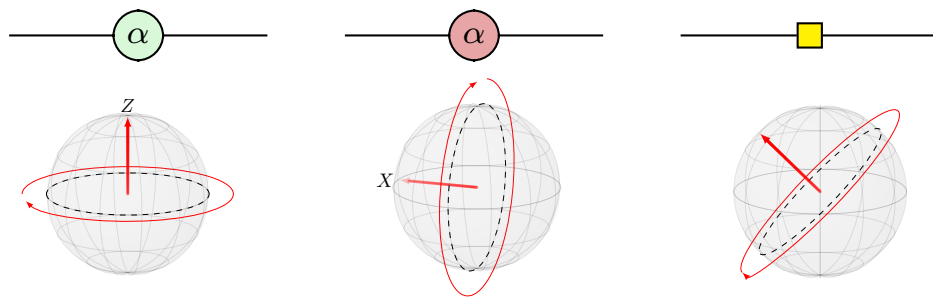
## ZX Calculus

### 2.1 Generators

#### Z and X Spiders

#### Single Qubit Rotations

An arbitrary rotation in the  $X$  basis can be depicted by a single  $X$  spider with phase  $\alpha$ .



**Figure 2.1:** Bloch sphere representation.

## 2.2 Rewrite Rules

## 2.3 Phase Gadgets

1. zx representation
2. algebraic structure
3. relation to chemistry
4. phase gadget decomposition / ladder / bricklayering



## 2.4 Pauli Gadgets

$$C \in \text{Clifford} \quad P \in \text{Pauli}$$

$$\text{prove: } Ce^P C^\dagger = e^{CPC^\dagger}$$

$$CP^n C^\dagger = (CPC^\dagger)^n$$

$$Ce^P C^\dagger = C \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{P^n}{n!} \right) C^\dagger = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{CP^n C^\dagger}{n!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(CPC^\dagger)^n}{n!}$$

## 2.5 ZxFermion Software Package

ZxFermion is a Python package built on top of PyZX designed for the manipulation and visualisation of circuits of Pauli gadgets. With built-in Clifford tableau logic using Stim, ZxFermion allows users to quickly implement proofs and test ideas.

VQE algorithms used in quantum chemistry often utilise the UCC framework in which excitation operators have a natural representation as Pauli gadgets. ZxFermion provides a comprehensive toolset designed to be used in a Jupyter notebook environment. Export functionality can be used to generate research paper quality diagrams.

### Creating Gadgets

#### Creating Circuits of Gadgets

#### Pauli & Clifford Algebra

```
from zxfermion.gates import X, XPlus, XMinus, Z, ZPlus
```

```
XPlus + XMinus  
>> Identity
```

### Architecture-Aware Circuit Extraction

## Chapter 3

# Variational Quantum Eigensolver

### 3.1 Variational Principle

## 3.2 Discretely-Optimised VQE

### Excitation Operators in ZXC

Let's look again at the parametrised single-body unitary operator,

$$U_p^q(\theta) = \exp \left( i \frac{\theta}{2} (Y_p X_q - X_p Y_q) \prod_{k=p+1}^{q-1} Z_k \right)$$

$$U_p^q(\theta) = \left( \exp \left[ i \frac{\theta}{2} Y_p X_q \prod_{k=p+1}^{q-1} Z_k \right] \right) \left( \exp \left[ -i \frac{\theta}{2} X_p Y_q \prod_{k=p+1}^{q-1} Z_k \right] \right)$$

The first exponential term can be implemented by the following phase gadget.

$$\exp \left( i \frac{\theta}{2} Y_p X_q \prod_{k=p+1}^{q-1} Z_k \right)$$

Whilst the second exponential term can be implemented by the phase gadget.

$$\exp \left( -i \frac{\theta}{2} X_p Y_q \prod_{k=p+1}^{q-1} Z_k \right)$$

Together, they constitute the single-body unitary excitation operator  $U_p^q(\theta)$

By defining the ordering of spin-orbitals such that adjacent spin-orbitals share the same spatial orbital, adjacent single-body operators commute.

$$[\hat{\kappa}_p^q, \hat{\kappa}_{p+1}^{q+1}] = 0$$

The same is therefore true for the resulting qubit operators,

$$[F_p^q, F_{p+1}^{q+1}] = 0$$

$$p, q \in \text{even} \quad p+1, q+1 \in \text{odd}$$

This allows us to define the parametrised unitary qubit operators in terms of spin-adapted excitation operators.

### 3. Variational Quantum Eigensolver

$$U_p^q(\theta) = \exp \left[ \theta \left( F_p^q + F_{p+1}^{q+1} \right) \right]$$

In other words, since  $F_p^q$  and  $F_{p+1}^{q+1}$  commute, we can think of them as a single operator with a single parameter.

### **3.3 One Body Excitation Operator**

## **3.4 Two Body Excitation Operator**

## **3.5 Spin-Adapted Single Body Excitations**

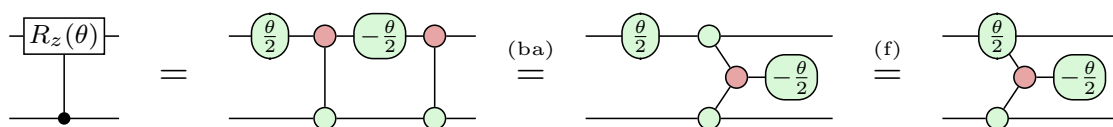


# Chapter 4

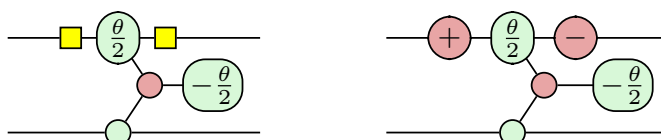
## Controlled Rotations

### 4.1 Singly-Controlled Rotations

Singly-controlled Z rotation.



Singly-controlled X and Y rotations obtained by conjugating the control qubit.



### 4.2 Doubly-Controlled Rotations

hello world

### 4.3 Triply-Controlled Rotations

hello world hello world

# Appendices

# Bibliography

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