

Problem 1

Find the eigenvectors, eigenvalues, and diagonal representations of the Pauli matrices.

Solution: Pauli matrices are

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \sigma_x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \sigma_y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ -i & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \sigma_z = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

For I for all vectors v $Iv = v$. So every vector is an eigenvector and its eigenvalue is 1. Since I is already in its diagonal representation I 's diagonal representation is I itself.

Since $\sigma_x \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\sigma_x \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ we have

$$\sigma_x \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \sigma_x \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = - \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

So the for the eigenvalue 1 the corresponding eigenvector is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and for the eigenvalue -1 the corresponding eigenvalue is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Since $\sigma_y \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -i \end{bmatrix}$ and $\sigma_y \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} i \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ we have

$$\sigma_y \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + i \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -i \end{bmatrix} + i \begin{bmatrix} i \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = -1 \left(i \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right) \quad \sigma_y \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} - i \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -i \end{bmatrix} - i \begin{bmatrix} i \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = -i \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

So the for the eigenvalue 1 the corresponding eigenvector is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} - i \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and for the eigenvalue -1 the corresponding eigenvalue is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + i \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Since $\sigma_z \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\sigma_z \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. So the for the eigenvalue 1 the corresponding eigenvector is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

and for the eigenvalue -1 the corresponding eigenvalue is $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Now $\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z$ has eigenvalues 1 and -1. So if we write in their corresponding eigenbasis then we will obtain the same diagonalized matrices where all the eigenvalues are in the diagonal positions i.e. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

□

Problem 2

Show that a normal matrix is Hermitian if and only if it has real eigenvalues. Show that a positive operator is necessarily Hermitian.

Solution: Let A is normal and it is hermitian. Then $A = A^\dagger$. Let v be an eigenvector of A with eigenvalue λ . Then $v^\dagger Av = v^\dagger \lambda v = \lambda |v|^2$. Also $v^\dagger Av = v^\dagger A^\dagger v = (Av)^\dagger v = \lambda^\dagger v^\dagger v = \lambda^\dagger |v|^2$. So we have $\lambda = \lambda^\dagger$. Which implies λ is real. Hence all eigenvalues of A are real.

For the opposite direction we need some lemmas.

Lemma 1: The product of two unitary matrices is unitary

Proof: Let U, V are two unitary matrices then $(UV)^\dagger = V^\dagger U^\dagger$. Now $(UV)(UV)^\dagger = U(VV^\dagger U^\dagger) = U I U^\dagger = I$.

Lemma 2: If A is any square complex matrix then there is an upper triangular complex matrix T and a unitary matrix U so that $A = UTU^\dagger$

Proof: Let A is a $n \times n$ matrix. Let v_1 be a eigenvector of A with the corresponding eigenvalue λ_1 . We can take x_1 to be of unit length. Now by Gram-Schmidt process we can extend x_1 to an orthonormal basis $\{x_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$; Let $S_0 = [x_1 \ v_2 \ \dots \ v_n]$ then S_0 is unitary and

$$S_0^\dagger A S_0 = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & * \\ 0 & A_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

where A_1 is an $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrix. Again suppose x_2 is an eigenvector of A_1 and the corresponding eigenvalue is λ_2 . Then again for A_1 we extend x_2 to an orthonormal basis $\{x_2, \tilde{v}_2, \dots, \tilde{v}_{n-1}\}$ and take $\hat{S}_1 = [x_2, \tilde{v}_2, \dots, \tilde{v}_{n-1}]$ then S_1 is also unitary and we have $\hat{S}_1^\dagger A_1 \hat{S}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_2 & * \\ 0 & A_2 \end{bmatrix}$ where A_2 is a $(n-2) \times (n-2)$

matrix. So we take $S_1 = S_0 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \hat{S}_1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then

$$S_1^\dagger A S_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & * & * \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & * \\ 0 & 0 & A_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

We continue like this letting $S_k = S_{k-1} \begin{bmatrix} I_k & 0 \\ 0 & \hat{S}_k \end{bmatrix}$ thus at the end we obtain $U := S_n$ such that $U^\dagger A U = T$ which is an upper triangular matrix. Hence we have $A = UTU^\dagger$

Lemma 3: A matrix A is diagonalizable with a unitary matrix if and only if A is normal

Proof: Let A is normal. Then by Lemma 2 there is a unitary matrix U and a upper triangular matrix T such that $A = UTU^\dagger$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} TT^\dagger &= U^\dagger A U (U^\dagger A U)^\dagger = U^\dagger A U U^\dagger A^\dagger U = U^\dagger A A^\dagger U \\ &= U^\dagger A^\dagger A U = U^\dagger A^\dagger U U^\dagger A U = (U^\dagger A U)^\dagger U^\dagger A U = T^\dagger T \end{aligned}$$

Now let $T = (t_{i,j})_{1 \leq i,j \leq n}$. Then the first diagonal entry of TT^\dagger is

$$\sum_{i=1}^n t_{1,i} \overline{t_{1,i}} = \sum_{i=1}^n |t_{1,i}|^2$$

Now the first diagonal entry of $T^\dagger T$ is $t_{1,1} \overline{t_{1,1}} = |t_{1,1}|^2$. These two are equal. Hence for all $2 \leq i \leq n$ we have $t_{1,i} = 0$. Similarly comparing the second diagonal entry of TT^\dagger and $T^\dagger T$ we have that all the nondiagonal entries of second row of T is 0. Continuing like this we have that T is diagonal.

Now suppose that A is any matrix such that there exists an unitary matrix U such that $U^\dagger A U = D$ where D is diagonal. Then

$$\begin{aligned} A A^\dagger &= U D U^\dagger (U D U^\dagger)^\dagger = U D U^\dagger U D^\dagger U^\dagger = U D D^\dagger U^\dagger \\ &= U D^\dagger D U^\dagger = U D^\dagger U^\dagger U D U^\dagger = (U D U^\dagger)^\dagger U D U^\dagger = A^\dagger A \end{aligned}$$

So A is normal.

Now coming back to the original question we have that the eigenvalues of A are real. A is normal. Then there exists an unitary matrix U such that $U^\dagger A U = D$ where D is diagonal. Since all eigenvalues of A are real $D^\dagger = D$. Then we have

$$A^\dagger = (U^\dagger D U)^\dagger = U^\dagger D^\dagger U = U^\dagger D U = A$$

So A is hermitian

Now suppose A is positive operator. Then for all $v \in V$ we have

$$v^\dagger A v \geq 0 \implies v^\dagger A v = (v^\dagger A v)^\dagger = v^\dagger A^\dagger v \geq 0 \implies v^\dagger (A - A^\dagger) v = 0$$

Now also we have

$$\begin{aligned}(A - A^\dagger)(A - A^\dagger)^\dagger &= (A - A^\dagger)(A^\dagger - A) = AA^\dagger - A^\dagger A^\dagger - AA + A^\dagger A \\ &= (A^\dagger - A)(A - A^\dagger) = (A - A^\dagger)^\dagger(A - A^\dagger)\end{aligned}$$

So $A - A^\dagger$ is a normal operator. Hence by Lemma 3 there exists a unitary matrix U such that $U^\dagger(A - A^\dagger)U = D$ where D is a diagonal matrix. Now for standard basis for any e_i

$$e_i^\dagger D e_i = e_i^\dagger U^\dagger(A - A^\dagger)U e_i = (U e_i)^\dagger(A - A^\dagger)(U e_i) = 0$$

Now $e_i^\dagger D e_i$ is the i -th diagonal element of D which we got is 0. Since this is true for all $i \in [n]$ we have D is a null matrix. So

$$U^\dagger(A - A^\dagger)U = 0 \iff A - A^\dagger = U 0 U^\dagger = 0 \iff A = A^\dagger$$

Hence A is hermitian. □

Problem 3

Suppose that A and B are Hermitian operators. Then show that the commutator $[A, B] = 0$ if and only if there exists an orthonormal basis such that both A and B are diagonal with respect to that basis.

Solution: If there exists an orthonormal basis such that both A and B are diagonal with respect to that basis then let we have $P^\dagger A P = D_A$ and $P^\dagger B P = D_B$. Then

$$AB - BA = P D_A P^\dagger P D_B P^\dagger - P D_B P^\dagger P D_A P^\dagger = P D_A D_B P^\dagger - P D_B D_A P^\dagger = P(D_A D_B - D_B D_A)P^\dagger = 0$$

The last equality comes because D_A and D_B are diagonal matrices so $D_A D_B = D_B D_A$.

For the opposite direction suppose v be an eigenvector with corresponding eigenvalue λ of A then $Av = \lambda v$. Now

$$A(Bv) = BAv = B\lambda v = \lambda Bv$$

Hence for any eigenvector v of A Bv is also an eigenvector and if Bv is zero then still it is an eigenvector of A for same eigenvalue.

Let $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$ be the eigenvalues of A . Then the corresponding eigenspaces of A are V_{λ_i} for $i \in [k]$. Then we have $B(V_{\lambda_i}) \subseteq V_{\lambda_i}$ for all $i \in [k]$. Now let β be an eigenvalue of B with corresponding eigenspace is V_β . Then for any $i \in [k]$ we can think $y = y_1 + y_2$ where $y_1 \in V_{\lambda_i}$ and $y_2 \in \bigoplus_{j \neq i} V_{\lambda_j}$. Then $By = \beta y = \beta y_1 + \beta y_2$. also we have $By = B y_1 + B y_2$. Since $B(V_{\lambda_i}) \subseteq V_{\lambda_i}$ and $B\left(\bigoplus_{j \neq i} V_{\lambda_j}\right) \subseteq \bigoplus_{j \neq i} V_{\lambda_j}$ we can say $B y_1 = \beta y_1$ and $B y_2 = \beta y_2$. Now if the V_β is the corresponding eigenspace for the eigenvalue β then

$$V_\beta = [V_\beta \cap V_{\lambda_i}] \oplus \left[V_\beta \cap \bigoplus_{j \neq i} V_{\lambda_j} \right] = \bigoplus_{i=1}^k V_{\lambda_i} \cap V_\beta$$

Now if β_1, \dots, β_l are the eigenvalues of B then we have

$$\bigoplus_{i=1}^l V_{\beta_i} = \bigoplus_{i=1}^l \left(\bigoplus_{j=1}^k V_{\lambda_j} \cap V_{\beta_i} \right) = \bigoplus_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq l \\ 1 \leq j \leq k}} V_{\beta_i} \cap V_{\lambda_j}$$

Let us denote $V_{i,j} = V_{\beta_i} \cap V_{\lambda_j}$ then for each $V_{i,j}$ we take an orthogonal basis for all i, j . Then taking union of all of them we have an orthogonal basis for both A and B such that both A and B are diagonal. Now for each vector in the basis after normalizing we get an orthonormal basis such that both A and B are diagonal with respect to that basis. □

Problem 4

Prove that a state $|\psi\rangle$ of a composite system AB is a product state if and only if it has Schmidt number 1.
 Prove that $|\psi\rangle$ is a product state if and only if the reduced density matrices ρ_A and ρ_B are pure states.

Solution:

- Let the $|\psi\rangle$ is a product state. Then $\exists |\psi_1\rangle \in A, |\psi_2\rangle \in B$ such that $|\psi\rangle = |\psi_1\rangle |\psi_2\rangle$. Now by Schmidt Decomposition there exists an orthonormal basis $\{|i_A\rangle\}$ for system A and orthonormal basis $\{|i_B\rangle\}$ for system B such that

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i |i_A\rangle |i_B\rangle$$

where $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^2 = 1$. We have there exists at least one $\lambda_i \neq 0$. WLOG $\lambda_1 \neq 0$ Now we also have

$$|\psi_1\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_{i,A} |i_A\rangle \quad |\psi_2\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_{i,B} |i_B\rangle$$

then we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i |i_A\rangle |i_B\rangle = |\psi\rangle = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_{i,A} |i_A\rangle \right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_{i,B} |i_B\rangle \right) = \sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq n} \lambda_{i,A} \lambda_{j,B} |i_A\rangle |j_B\rangle$$

Comparing the coefficients we have $\lambda_i = \lambda_{i,A} \lambda_{i,B}$ and for all $\lambda_{i,A} \lambda_{j,B} = 0$ where $i \neq j$. Since $\lambda_1 \neq 0$ we have $\lambda_{1,A}, \lambda_{1,B} \neq 0$. Since for all $j \neq 1$, $\lambda_{1,A} \lambda_{j,B} = 0$ we have $\lambda_{j,B} = 0$ for all $2 \leq j \leq n$. Similarly since for all $i \neq 1$, $\lambda_{i,A} \lambda_{1,B} = 0$ we have $\lambda_{i,A} = 0$ for all $2 \leq i \leq n$. So we have $\lambda_i = 0$ for all $2 \leq i \leq n$. So $|\psi\rangle = \lambda_1 |i_A\rangle |i_B\rangle$. Hence $|\psi\rangle$ has Schmidt Number 1.

For the opposite direction $|\psi\rangle$ has Schmidt Number 1. So $|\psi\rangle = |i_A\rangle |i_B\rangle$ Here $|i_A\rangle$ is a state of system A and $|i_B\rangle$ is a state of system B . Hence $|\psi\rangle$ is already in a product state. Hence $|\psi\rangle$ is a product state of the composite system AB .

- $|\psi\rangle$ is a product state. Hence it has Schmidt Number 1. So there exists an orthonormal basis $\{|i_A\rangle\}$ for system A and orthonormal basis $\{|i_B\rangle\}$ for system B such that $|\psi\rangle = |i_A\rangle |i_B\rangle$. Then

$$\rho_{AB} = |\psi\rangle \langle \psi| = (|i_A\rangle |i_B\rangle) (\langle i_A| \langle i_B|) = |i_A\rangle \langle i_A| \otimes |i_B\rangle \langle i_B|$$

Now

$$\rho_A = \text{tr}_B(\rho_{AB}) = \text{tr}_B(|i_A\rangle \langle i_A| \otimes |i_B\rangle \langle i_B|) = |i_A\rangle \langle i_A| \text{tr}(|i_B\rangle \langle i_B|) = |i_A\rangle \langle i_A|$$

and similarly

$$\rho_B = \text{tr}_A(\rho_{AB}) = \text{tr}_A(|i_A\rangle \langle i_A| \otimes |i_B\rangle \langle i_B|) = \text{tr}(|i_A\rangle \langle i_A|) |i_B\rangle \langle i_B| = |i_B\rangle \langle i_B|$$

So ρ_A and ρ_B are pure states.

Let ρ_A and ρ_B are pure states. Let $|\psi\rangle = |\psi_1\rangle |\psi_2\rangle$ Then

$$|\psi\rangle \langle \psi| = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i |i_A\rangle |i_B\rangle \right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j \langle j_A| \langle j_B| \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^2 |i_A\rangle \langle i_A| \otimes |i_B\rangle \langle i_B|$$

There exists at least one $\lambda_i \neq 0$. WLOG $\lambda_1 \neq 0$. Now

$$\rho_A = \text{tr}_B \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^2 |i_A\rangle \langle i_A| \otimes |i_B\rangle \langle i_B| \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^2 |i_A\rangle \langle i_A| \text{tr}(|i_B\rangle \langle i_B|) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^2 |i_A\rangle \langle i_A|$$

and

$$\rho_B = \text{tr}_A \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^2 |i_A\rangle \langle i_A| \otimes |i_B\rangle \langle i_B| \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^2 \text{tr}(|i_A\rangle \langle i_A|) |i_B\rangle \langle i_B| = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^2 |i_B\rangle \langle i_B|$$

Since ρ_A and ρ_B are pure states there exists $k, l \in [n]$ such that $\rho_A = \lambda_k |k_A\rangle \langle k_A|$ and $\rho_B = \lambda_l |l_B\rangle \langle l_B|$ since we already know that $\lambda_1 \neq 0$ we have $k = l = 1$ for all $2 \leq i \leq n$ $\lambda_i = 0$. So $\rho_A = |1_A\rangle \langle 1_A|$ and $\rho_B = |1_B\rangle \langle 1_B|$. Hence $|\psi\rangle = \lambda_1 |1_A\rangle |1_B\rangle$. So $|\psi\rangle$ has Schmidt Number 1. So $|\psi\rangle$ is a product state of the composite system AB .

□

Problem 5

Write a self-contained proof that single qubit gates and $CNOT$ gates are universal.

Solution:

Lemma 1. Let U be an unitary matrix acting on \mathbb{C}^d . Then there are $N \leq \frac{d(d-1)}{2}$, 2-level unitary matrices i.e. unitary matrices which act on 2 or less dimensional subspaces U_1, \dots, U_n such that

$$U_N U_{N-1} \cdots U_2 U_1 U = I$$

Proof: We will prove this by induction. Let $d = 3$. Then suppose $U = \begin{bmatrix} a & d & g \\ b & e & h \\ c & f & i \end{bmatrix}$. Then first take

$$U_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{a^\dagger}{|a|^2+|b|^2} & \frac{b^\dagger}{|a|^2+|b|^2} & 0 \\ \frac{b}{|a|^2+|b|^2} & \frac{-a}{|a|^2+|b|^2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \implies U_1 U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & d' & g' \\ 0 & e' & h' \\ c' & f' & i' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a' & d' & g' \\ 0 & e' & h' \\ c' & f' & i' \end{bmatrix}$$

Now we take

$$U_2 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{a'^\dagger}{|a'|^2+|c'|^2} & 0 & \frac{c'^\dagger}{|a'|^2+|c'|^2} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{c'}{|a'|^2+|c'|^2} & 0 & \frac{-a'}{|a'|^2+|c'|^2} \end{bmatrix} \implies U_2 U_1 U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & d'' & g'' \\ 0 & e'' & h'' \\ 0 & f'' & i'' \end{bmatrix}$$

Clearly U_1 and U_2 are unitary matrix. Hence $U_2 U_1 U$ is unitary matrix. Since $U_2 U_1 U$ is a unitary matrix and $(U_2 U_1 U)^\dagger = U_2 U_1 U$ we have $d'' = g'' = 0$. Hence

$$U_2 U_1 U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e'' & h'' \\ 0 & f'' & i'' \end{bmatrix}$$

So we will take

$$U_3 = (U_2 U_1 U)^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e''^\dagger & h''^\dagger \\ 0 & f''^\dagger & i''^\dagger \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence $U_3 U_2 U_1 U = I \implies U = U_1^\dagger U_2^\dagger U_3^\dagger$.

Now suppose this statement is true for $d - 1$. For d like the above process we need $d - 1$ unitary matrices to make the first entry of the first column 1 and the rest entries of the first column to be 0. Let the unitary matrices are U_1, \dots, U_{d-1} . So $U_{d-1} \cdots U_1 U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & U' \end{bmatrix}$ where U' is a $(d - 1) \times (d - 1)$ matrix. Since U is unitary we have U' is unitary. By induction hypothesis there exists $k \leq \frac{(d-1)(d-2)}{2}$ matrices U'_1, \dots, U'_k such that $U'_k \cdots U'_1 U' = I_{d-1}$. Now $\forall i \in [k]$ we take the matrices

$$\tilde{U}_i = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & U'_i \end{bmatrix}$$

Then we have

$$(\tilde{U}_k \cdots \tilde{U}_1) (U_{d-1} \cdots U_1) U = I_d$$

Now

$$k + d - 1 \leq \frac{(d-1)(d-2)}{2} + d - 1 = \frac{d-1}{2}(d-2+2) = \frac{d(d-1)}{2}$$

Hence there exists $N \leq \frac{d(d-1)}{2}$ unitary matrices U_1, \dots, U_N such that $U_N \cdots U_1 U = I$. \square

Now if U is an unitary matrix acting on a n -qubit system then we can decompose U into product of 2-level unitary matrices using the previous lemma. So it is enough to see 2-level unitary matrices. Now denote U to be a 2-level matrix on an n -qubit system. Suppose U acts non-trivially on the space spanned by the computational basis $\{|x\rangle, |y\rangle\}$. where $\text{bin}(x) = x_{n-1} \cdots x_0$ and $\text{bin}(y) = y_{n-1} \cdots y_0$ are the binar expressions for x, y where $\forall i, j \in [n]$ we have $x_i, y_j \in \{0, 1\}$. Let $U|x\rangle = a|x\rangle + b|y\rangle$ and $U|y\rangle = c|x\rangle + d|y\rangle$. Therefore U is an $2^n \times 2^n$ matrix where U has 1 in all diagonal positions and 0 in all off diagonal positions except $U_{xx} = a, U_{xy} = c, U_{yx} = b, U_{yy} = d$. Take $\tilde{U} = \begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{bmatrix}$. Now we will try to reduce U to \tilde{U} using single qubit gates and $CNOT$ gate. \tilde{U} can be thought of as a unitary matrix acting on a single qubit.

To reduce U to \tilde{U} we first take a sequence of binary numbers $\{a_1, \dots, a_m\}$ such that $a_1 = x$ and $a_m = y$ and for any $i \in [m-1]$, a_i, a_{i+1} differ in exactly one bit. Clearly $m \leq n+1$ since there are n bits. Our main strategy is to find gates providing the sequence of state changes

$$|x\rangle = |x_1\rangle \rightarrow |x_2\rangle \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow |x_{m-1}\rangle$$

then $|x_{m-1}\rangle$ and $|x_m\rangle = |y\rangle$ differs in only one position and then apply \tilde{U} on that specific bit position and then undo the sequence so that

$$|x\rangle = |x_1\rangle \leftarrow |x_2\rangle \leftarrow \cdots \leftarrow |x_{m-1}\rangle$$

Now to change the state $|x_i\rangle \rightarrow |x_{i+1}\rangle$ let $x_i = x_{i,n-1} \cdots x_{i,0}$ and the difference of x_i and x_{i+1} is at j th position. Then

$$x_{i+1} = x_{i,n-1} \cdots x_{i,j+1} \overline{x_{i,j}} x_{i,j-1} \cdots x_{i,0}$$

Then we apply $C^{n-1}(X)$ on j th bit along with sandwiching by X gate at l th bit, $l \neq j$ if $x_{i,l} = 0$. Thus j th bit is changed only if it is in $|x_i\rangle$ state. Lets denote the gate $C_i^n(X)$ for the change of state $|x_i\rangle \rightarrow |x_{i+1}\rangle$. We apply this for all $i \in [m-2]$ to finally get $|x_{m-1}\rangle$

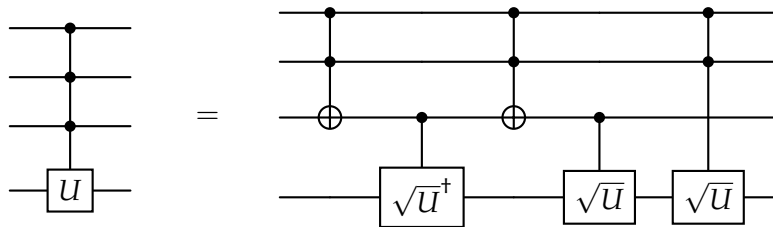
Now let x_{m-1} and $x_m = y$ differs in k th position. Let $x_{m-1} = x_{m-1,n-1} \cdots x_{m-1,0}$ then

$$x_m = x_{m-1,n-1} \cdots x_{m-1,k+1} \overline{x_{m-1,k}} x_{m-1,k-1} \cdots x_{m-1,0}$$

. Then we apply $C^{n-1}(\tilde{U})$ where \tilde{U} is applied in k -th position along with sandwiching by X gates if at l th bit, $l \neq k$ if $x_{m-1,l} = 0$. Thus \tilde{U} is applied to k th bit only if the rest of the bits are equal to $x_{m-1,n-1}, \dots, x_{m-1,k+1}, x_{m-1,k-1}, \dots, x_{m-1,0}$ respectively.

Lemma 2. For any unitary gate U acting on a single qubit system $C^n(U)$ gate on a n qubit system can be constructed by 3 $C^{n-1}(V)$ and 3 $C(W)$ gates where V, W are unitary matrices. [I took this idea from algoassert.com]

Proof: We will prove drawing the circuit for $n = 3$.



There are 4 cases arise:

- **OFF, OFF:** If any of the first 2 states is $|0\rangle$ and the 3rd state is $|0\rangle$ then no gate is applied on the 4th state.
- **ON, OFF:** If first 2 states are $|1\rangle$ and the 3rd state is $|0\rangle$ then after the first $C^2(X)$ gate the 3rd state becomes $|1\rangle$ so the \sqrt{U}^\dagger is applied on 4th state and after the second $C^2(X)$ the 3rd state becomes $|0\rangle$ so only the last \sqrt{U} is applied on 4th state. But we know $\sqrt{U}^\dagger \sqrt{U} = I$ so in the end nothing changes

- **ON, ON:** If first 2 states are $|1\rangle$ and 3rd state is $|1\rangle$ then after the first $C^2(X)$ gate the 3rd state becomes $|0\rangle$ so the \sqrt{U}^\dagger is not applied on 4th state and after the second $C^2(X)$ the 3rd state becomes $|1\rangle$ so both the last two \sqrt{U} gate are applied on 4th state. Since $\sqrt{U}\sqrt{U} = U$ we can say when all the first 3 states are $|1\rangle$ U is applied to the 4th state.
- **OFF, ON:** If any of the first 2 states is $|0\rangle$ and the 3rd state is $|1\rangle$ then after the first $C^2(X)$ gate the 3rd state doesn't change so it remains $|1\rangle$ so the \sqrt{U}^\dagger is applied on 4th state and after the second $C^2(X)$ the 3rd state still remains $|1\rangle$ so the first \sqrt{U} gate is applied but the last \sqrt{U} is not applied since at least one of the first 2 states is $|0\rangle$

We will implement the same for any n . Here we are using 2 $C^{n-1}(X)$ gate one $C^{n-1}(\sqrt{U})$ gate and one $C(\sqrt{U})$ and one $C(\sqrt{U}^\dagger)$ gate. So the lemma is true. \square

With this lemma we can construct a $C^n(U)$ gate using 2 $C^{n-1}(X)$ gate one $C^{n-1}(\sqrt{U})$ gate and one $C(\sqrt{U})$ and one $C(\sqrt{U}^\dagger)$ gate. So applying this procedure again and again we can finally reach where we are using only $C(V)$ gates where V is a unitary gate acting on a single qubit.

Let $SU(n)$ define the set of all $n \times n$ unitary matrices with determinant 1.

Lemma 3. $\forall U \in SU(2)$ there exists $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ with $|a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1$ such that

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b^*e^{i\theta} & a^*e^{i\theta} \end{bmatrix}$$

Proof: Let $U = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$. We know $U^\dagger = U^{-1}$. Now

$$U^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det U} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix} \quad U^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} a^* & c^* \\ b^* & d^* \end{bmatrix}$$

So we have

$$d = a^* \det U, a = d^* \det U, \text{ and } -b = c^* \det U$$

So we have $d = d(\det U)^* \det U = d|\det U|$. So if $d \neq 0$ we have $|\det U| = 1 = (\det\{U\})^* \det U = \det U^\dagger \det U = \det(UU^\dagger)$. So we can think $\det U = e^{i\theta}$ So we have

$$d = a^* e^{i\theta} \quad c = -b^* e^{i\theta}$$

Hence $U = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b^*e^{i\theta} & a^*e^{i\theta} \end{bmatrix}$. Now

$$\det U = aa^*e^{i\theta} + bb^*e^{i\theta} = e^{i\theta}(|a|^2 + |b|^2) \implies |\det U| = 1 = |e^{i\theta}|(|a|^2 + |b|^2) = |a|^2 + |b|^2$$

\square

Now since $|a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1$ so we can think $|a| = \sin \theta$ and $|b| = \cos \theta$. So $a = e^{i\lambda} \sin \theta$ and $b = e^{i\mu} \cos \theta$. So

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\lambda} \sin \theta & e^{i\mu} \cos \theta \\ -e^{i(\theta-\mu)} \cos \theta & e^{i(\theta-\lambda)} \sin \theta \end{bmatrix} = e^{i\frac{\theta}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} e^{i(\lambda-\frac{\theta}{2})} \sin \theta & e^{i(\mu-\frac{\theta}{2})} \cos \theta \\ -e^{-i(\mu-\frac{\theta}{2})} \cos \theta & e^{-i(\lambda-\frac{\theta}{2})} \sin \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

So we take $\alpha = \lambda - \frac{\theta}{2}$ and $\beta = \mu - \frac{\theta}{2}$. Now introduce $\alpha = \phi + \psi$ and $\beta = \phi - \psi$. Then we have

$$U = e^{i\frac{\theta}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\phi} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-i\phi} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sin \theta & \cos \theta \\ -\cos \theta & \sin \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\psi} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-i\psi} \end{bmatrix}$$

Now for any 2×2 matrix A and for any element x we have $xA = (xI)A$. So here we can take the multiplication of $e^{i\frac{\theta}{2}}$ as multiplication of the matrix $e^{i\frac{\theta}{2}}I = \Phi(\frac{\theta}{2})$. To write in short we will take $\frac{\theta}{2} = \omega$. So $\Phi(\frac{\theta}{2}) = \Phi(\omega)$. Now for any angle γ we know

$$R_z(\gamma) = \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\frac{\gamma}{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\frac{\gamma}{2}} \end{bmatrix} \quad R_y(\gamma) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \frac{\gamma}{2} & \sin \frac{\gamma}{2} \\ -\sin \frac{\gamma}{2} & \cos \frac{\gamma}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

Since $\cos \gamma = \sin(\frac{\pi}{2} - \gamma)$ we have

$$R_z(2\phi) = \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\phi} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-i\phi} \end{bmatrix} \quad R_y(\pi - 2\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \frac{\pi-2\theta}{2} & \sin \frac{\pi-2\theta}{2} \\ -\sin \frac{\pi-2\theta}{2} & \cos \frac{\pi-2\theta}{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sin \theta & \cos \theta \\ -\cos \theta & \sin \theta \end{bmatrix} \quad R_z(2\psi) = \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\psi} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-i\psi} \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence $U = \Phi(\omega)R_z(2\phi)R_y(\pi - 2\theta)R_z(2\psi)$. Now we need to break $C(U)$ into single qubit gates and CNOT gate.

Lemma 4. Let $U \in SU(2)$ then there exists $A, B, C \in SU(2)$ such that $U = \Phi(\delta)AXBXC$ where $ABC = I$ and $X = \sigma_x$ for some $\delta \in \mathbb{R}$

Proof: By the previous construction there exists $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $U = \Phi(\delta)R_z(\alpha)R_y(\beta)R_z(\gamma)$. Now take

$$A = R_z(\alpha)R_y\left(\frac{\beta}{2}\right), \quad B = R_y\left(-\frac{\beta}{2}\right)R_z\left(-\frac{\alpha+\gamma}{2}\right), \quad C = R_z\left(-\frac{\alpha-\gamma}{2}\right)$$

Then

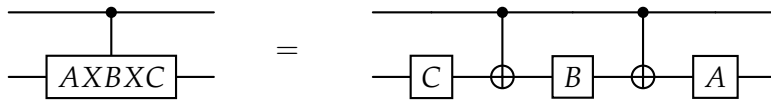
$$\begin{aligned} AXBXC &= R_z(\alpha)R_y\left(\frac{\beta}{2}\right)XR_y\left(-\frac{\beta}{2}\right)R_z\left(-\frac{\alpha+\gamma}{2}\right)XR_z\left(-\frac{\alpha-\gamma}{2}\right) \\ &= R_z(\alpha)R_y\left(\frac{\beta}{2}\right)\left[XR_y\left(-\frac{\beta}{2}\right)X\right]\left[XR_z\left(-\frac{\alpha+\gamma}{2}\right)X\right]R_z\left(-\frac{\alpha-\gamma}{2}\right) \\ &= R_z(\alpha)R_y\left(\frac{\beta}{2}\right)R_y\left(\frac{\beta}{2}\right)R_z\left(\frac{\alpha+\gamma}{2}\right)R_z\left(-\frac{\alpha-\gamma}{2}\right) \\ &= R_z(\alpha)R_y(\beta)R_z(\gamma) \end{aligned}$$

We also need to verify that $ABC = I$. For that

$$ABC = R_z(\alpha)R_y\left(\frac{\beta}{2}\right)R_y\left(-\frac{\beta}{2}\right)R_z\left(-\frac{\alpha+\gamma}{2}\right)R_z\left(-\frac{\alpha-\gamma}{2}\right) = R_z(\alpha)R_y(0)R_z(-\alpha) = R_z(\alpha)R_z(-\alpha) = I$$

□

We know if U_1 and U_2 are two unitary gates acting on a single qubit then $C(U_1U_2) = C(U_1)C(U_2)$. Hence $C(U) = C(\Phi(\delta))C(AXBXC)$. Now we can impliment $C(AXBXC)$ where $ABC = I$ like this



So if the control state is $|0\rangle$ then $ABC = I$ is applied on the 2nd state but nothing changes. If the control state is $|1\rangle$ then $AXBXC$ is applied on the 2nd state. Now we will try to simulate $C(\Phi(\delta))$.

Lemma 5. For any $\Phi(\delta)$ gate where $\delta \in \mathbb{R}$) Take

$$D = R_z(-\delta)\Phi\left(\frac{\delta}{2}\right)$$

then $C(\Phi(\delta)) = D \otimes I$

Proof: First simplify D .

$$D = R_z(-\delta)\Phi\left(\frac{\delta}{2}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\frac{\delta}{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\frac{\delta}{2}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\frac{\delta}{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\frac{\delta}{2}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\delta} \end{bmatrix}$$

Now we know

$$C(U) = |0\rangle\langle 0| \otimes I + |1\rangle\langle 1| \otimes \Phi(\delta) = |0\rangle\langle 0| \otimes I + |1\rangle\langle 1| \otimes e^{i\delta}I = |0\rangle\langle 0| \otimes I + e^{i\delta} |1\rangle\langle 1| \otimes I$$

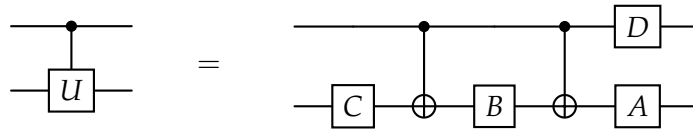
Also

$$D \otimes I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\delta} \end{bmatrix} \otimes I = \left[|0\rangle\langle 0| + e^{i\delta} |1\rangle\langle 1| \right] \otimes I = |0\rangle\langle 0| \otimes I + e^{i\delta} |1\rangle\langle 1| \otimes I$$

Hence we have $C(\delta) = D \otimes I$. □

Therefore for $C(\Phi(\delta))$ it is enough to apply the D gate to the control state.

Hence for any $C(U)$ where $U \in SU(2)$ there exists $\delta \in \mathbb{R}$ and $A, B, C \in SU(2)$ such that $U = \Phi(\delta)AXBXC$ where $ABC = I$. Then let D be the gate $D = R_z(-\delta)\Phi\left(\frac{\delta}{2}\right)$. Then we implement $C(U)$ like this:



Now we have broken down $C(U)$ into single qubit gates and $CNOT$ gates. Therefore any unitary gate operating on n qubits can be broken down into single qubit gates and $CNOT$ gates. Hence single qubit gates and $CNOT$ gates are universal. □

Problem 6

Let S be a subspace of \mathbb{Z}_2^n . Define $S^\perp = \{t \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n \mid t \cdot s = 0 \text{ for all } s \in S\}$. Let $|S\rangle$ be the quantum state that represents the uniform superposition over S . Compute the values of $H^{\otimes n} |S\rangle$ and $H^{\otimes n} |y + S\rangle$ for any $y \in \{0, 1\}^n$.

Solution: □