Multi-bit gates for quantum computing

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We present a general technique to implement products of many qubit operators communicating via a joint harmonic oscillator degree of freedom in a quantum computer. By conditional displacements and rotations we can implement Hamiltonians which are trigonometric functions of qubit operators. With such operators we can effectively implement higher order gates such as Toffoli gates and C*-NOT gates, and we show that the entire Grover search algorithm can be implemented in a direct way.

A quantum computer is a device which is capable of coherently processing information which is stored in a collection of small quantum systems. Much attention has been devoted to quantum computers due to the discovery of algorithms which enable a quantum computer to solve certain computational problems much faster than any classical computer [1,2]. In a quantum computer an algorithm is represented as a series of unitary operations, and with a set of so-called universal gates acting only on single two-level systems and on pairs of two-level systems, it is possible to produce any unitary evolution on the Hilbert space of a collection of two-level systems so that any algorithm can be implemented with these gates [3]. This theorem couples the development of quantum computing to the theory of classical computing where a similar theorem exists, and the complexity of various computational tasks has been analyzed simply by counting the number of universal gates required to perform the entire computation. Proposals for practical implementation of quantum computing deal with practical issues such as identification of quantum systems which can be addressed by the experimentalist, but which do not decohere with time, and it is a particularly interesting task to find ways to implement the two-bit gates, acting on the joint state of a pair of two-level systems (with internal states $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$), or qubits.

Starting with the ion trap proposal by Cirac and Zoller [4], a number of proposals for quantum computing exist, where the individual qubits are coupled to a harmonic oscillator degree of freedom, and where two-bit gates are implemented by use of the coupling to such a 'data-bus'. In the ion trap, the internal electronic or hyperfine states of the ions are coupled to the collective vibrational degree of freedom due to the recoil during absorption of laser light; quantum dots may be localized in an optical cavity and communicate via a single mode of the optical field [5], and it has been proposed to couple Josephson-junction qubits by an LC-oscillator mode in an electrical circuit [6].

In the original ion trap proposal [4], the state of one qubit is transferred to the data-bus which is then brought into interaction with the second qubit of the gate. In this proposal it is essential that the state of the harmonic oscillator is initially cooled to the ground state. In order to be able to use an oscillator which is not initially in a known state, one can use a scheme which only virtually excites it [7], so that the internal states of the ions are completely disentangled from the unknown state of the oscillator. It is even possible to use a scheme which dramatically entangles the qubits with the oscillator degrees of freedom, to only magically at the end of the operation remove all entanglement and produce an effective coupling of two qubits which is completely independent of the state of the oscillator [8,9]. To produce a unitary time evolution of the form $\exp(i\mu\hat{A}\hat{B})$, where $\hat{A}$, $\hat{B}$ commute, these proposals use the simple fact that

$$\exp(i\lambda_1 x \hat{A}) \exp(i\lambda_2 p \hat{B}) \exp(-i\lambda_1 x \hat{A}) \exp(-i\lambda_2 p \hat{B}) = \exp(-i\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \hat{A}\hat{B}). \quad (1)$$

This property can be seen from the Baker-Hausdorff relation since $\hat{A}$ and $\hat{B}$ commute and the commutator of the oscillator position $x$ and momentum $p$ is a constant. Application of (1) requires that one can induce interaction Hamiltonians proportional to $x\hat{A}$ and $p\hat{B}$. Since these operators can be expressed in terms of lowering and raising operators such couplings can be induced using the resonance condition associated with excitation and deexcitation of the oscillator together with the implementation of the internal state operators. If $\hat{A}$ and $\hat{B}$ act on different qubits, we obtain a two-qubit gate. If they both involve many qubits, we can produce multi-particle entangled states. It has already been shown that if we take $\hat{A} = \hat{B} = \hat{J}_y = \sum_l \frac{1}{2}\sigma_{yl}$, Eq. (1) leads to an effective interaction proportional to $\hat{J}_y^2$, which can be used to produce a Schrödinger cat like state of the bits [10,11]. Throughout this Letter we apply a Pauli spin notation for the description of the qubits. The qubit states $|0(1)\rangle$ are defined as the $\sigma_{zl} = -1(1)$ eigenstates.

It will be useful to have a geometric picture of the contents of Eq. (1): Each of the exponential terms on the left hand side are displacement operators for the harmonic oscillator (conditioned on the internal eigenstates of operators $\hat{A}$ and $\hat{B}$), and the four terms displace the system around the rectangular path in Fig. 1 (a). When a system is displaced around a closed loop in phase space, the state vector acquires a geometric phase factor equal to the enclosed area [12]. In Fig. 1(a) the area is the prod-
uct of the lengths of the sides, which due to the operator character of these lengths becomes the product of two internal state operators, and the resulting phase factor is the operator on the right hand side of Eq. (1).

$\hat{S}(t) = \hat{A}x + \hat{w}(t)\hat{B}p + r(t)\hat{C}n,$ \hspace{1cm} (2)

where $\hat{A}$, $\hat{B}$ and $\hat{C}$ are commuting operators acting on the internal states of the atoms, $n$ is the number operator for the harmonic oscillator, and $v$, $w$, and $r$ are arbitrary functions of time. With this Hamiltonian the time dependent Schrödinger equation for the propagator $i\dot{U}(t)/dt = H(t)U(t)$ has the solution

$$U = e^{-i\hat{S}(t)}e^{-i\hat{t}(t)}e^{-i\hat{W}(t)}e^{-i\hat{p}(t)},$$ \hspace{1cm} (3)

with

$$\hat{R}(t) = \hat{C} \int_0^t r(t')dt',$$

$$\hat{V}(t) = \int_0^t \hat{A}v(t')\cos(\hat{R}(t')) - \hat{B}w(t')\sin(\hat{R}(t'))dt',$$

$$\hat{W}(t) = \int_0^t \hat{B}w(t')\cos(\hat{R}(t')) + \hat{A}v(t')\sin(\hat{R}(t'))dt',$$

$$\hat{S}(t) = -\int_0^t \hat{V}(t')(\hat{B}w(t')\cos(\hat{R}(t')) + \hat{A}v(t')\sin(\hat{R}(t')))dt' \hspace{1cm} (4)$$

It is straightforward to check the solution by taking the time derivative of $U$ and using the Baker-Hausdorff relation to simplify the result. In the $xp$-phase space the net action of this propagator is to perform translations $(x, p) \rightarrow (x + \hat{W}(t), p - \hat{V}(t))$ followed by a rotation by an angle $\hat{R}(t)$ around the origin. Since the functions $\hat{V}$, $\hat{W}$, and $\hat{R}$ involve the internal state operators $\hat{A}$, $\hat{B}$, and $\hat{C}$ the translation and rotation is entangled with the internal states of the bits. We now generalize the trick applied in Eq. (3) to ensure that $\hat{V}$, $\hat{W}$, and $\hat{R}$ vanish after a certain time $\tau$, such that the harmonic oscillator is returned to its initial state, and we are left with an internal state evolution operator $\exp(-i\hat{S}(\tau))$, where $\hat{S}(\tau)$ is the area enclosed by the trajectory in the phase space. Note, that the expression for $\hat{S}(\tau)$ does not involve operators referring to the harmonic oscillator, so that the gate is insensitive to the initial state of the oscillator. This gate can be applied with the oscillator in an unknown state, e.g., in a thermal state.

As a first concrete example of our procedure consider three bits which are subject to the time independent Hamiltonian

$$H = \Omega \left( \frac{\sigma_{z1} + \sigma_{z2} + 1}{4\sqrt{K}}x - \sigma_{z3} \left( n + \frac{1}{32K} \right) \right),$$ \hspace{1cm} (5)

where $K$ is an integer. After a duration $\tau = K2\pi/\Omega$ the propagator $\hat{S}(\tau)$ reduces to $\exp(-i\pi[\sigma_{z1} + \sigma_{z2} + 1]^2 - 1/\sigma_{z3}/16) = \exp(-i\pi(\sigma_{z1} + 1)(\sigma_{z2} + 1)/\sigma_{z3}/8)$, which is exactly the Toffoli gate. (We used the fact that for a single particle Pauli operator $\sigma$, $\sin(\theta\sigma) = \sin(\theta\sigma)$. In the
ion trap quantum computer the gate can be achieved by applying a single pulse of suitably directed and detuned fields to the ions.

The three particle Toffoli-gate, can be constructed so easily because the constant term in $\sigma_{x1} + \sigma_{x2} + 1$ can be chosen so that this operator squared yields the desired combination of internal state operators apart from a single particle rotation. This technique is not directly applicable for more than three particles, and we have not been able to devise a similar simple construction with only a single Hamiltonian in this situation. Instead we shall produce gates by sequentially applying three different Hamiltonians. To make a $C^{n_r}$-NOT operation, where the first $n_c$ qubits control the action of the $n_c + 1$st qubit, we need a projection operator which projects into the space where all the $n_c$ control bits are in the $|1\rangle$ state. Such a projection operator can be expressed as a product of single particle projection operators $\prod_{l=1}^{n_c} (\sigma_{x1} + 1)/2$, and the $C^{n_r}$-NOT operation may be expressed as $\exp(-i\pi/2 \prod_{l=1}^{n_c} (\sigma_{x1} + 1)/2)$. The operators that are easy to make in practice are sums of individual particle operators like $J_z - J = \sum_{n=1}^{n_c} (\sigma_{x1} - 1)/2$. To turn the sum into a product, we observe that if and only if all $n_c$ control qubits are in the $|1\rangle$ state, not only is the product $\prod_{l=1}^{n_c} (\sigma_{x1} + 1)/2$ equal to unity, also the sum $J_z - J = \sum_{n=1}^{n_c} (\sigma_{x1} - 1)/2$ vanishes. We now use the Fourier transform $\sum_{m=1}^{2^{n_c}} (2\pi k/N)_{m} = m\delta(N \bmod m)$ which can also be applied to operators so that:

$$\prod_{l=1}^{n_c} (\sigma_{x1} + 1)/2 = \frac{1}{n_c + 1} \sum_{k=1}^{n_c+1} \cos \left( \frac{2\pi k}{n_c + 1} (J_z - J) \right).$$

The $C^{n_r}$-NOT gate is thus the product of $n_c + 1$ terms $\exp(-i\pi/2 \prod_{l=1}^{n_c} (\sigma_{x1} + 1)/2)$. To implement a unitary operator which can be written in the form $\exp(-i\mu A \cos(\theta C))$, where $A$ and $C$ are internal state operators, we make explicit use of the fact that we have an internal state operator appearing inside a trigonometric function in the expression for $S$. Geometrically, we follow the construction of the parallelogram in Fig. 1 (b): First, we apply a Hamiltonian proportional to $\dot{A}p$ which performs a translation along the $x$-axis. Then a Hamiltonian $H \sim Cn$ makes a rotation of the phase space by an angle $\theta C$: $\exp(i\theta Cn)x \exp(-i\theta Cn) = \cos(\theta C)x + \sin(\theta C)p$, and we perform a translation along the $p$-axis with $B$ equal to the identity, etc. The enclosed area is proportional to $A\cos(\theta C)$ and the propagator has the desired form $\exp(-i\mu A \cos(\theta C))$. By varying the strength and duration of the pulse one can control the parameters $\theta$ and $\mu$, and using $A = \sigma_{x1} + 1$ and $C = J_z - J$ the parallelogram results in the time evolution operator $\exp(-i\mu \cos(\theta (J_z - J))\sigma_{x1} + 1)$. By using the operator identity we can devise a $C^{n_c}$-NOT gate by following the outline of $n_c + 1$ such parallelograms, one after the other. By rotating each parallelogram, so that the first linear displacement is precisely the opposite of the last displacement of the previous parallelogram, we can save half of the translations. Note that the sum over $l$ implicit in the $J_z$ term in Eq. (3) just amounts to illuminating several qubits instead of a single qubit at a time.

In 1997, Grover presented a search algorithm that identifies the single value $x_0$ that fulfills $f(x_0) = 1$ for a function $f(x)$ provided, e.g., by an oracle (all other arguments lead to vanishing values of the function). If $x$ is an integer on the range between 0 and $N - 1 = 2^n - 1$, the search algorithm is able to find $x_0$ after on the order of $\sqrt{N}$ evaluations of the function. Grover’s algorithm has been demonstrated on NMR few qubit systems. In the following we show how our proposal can be used to implement the search algorithm.

The quantum algorithm first prepares an initial trial state vector populating all basis states with equal probability. To implement a full Grover search the function $f(x)$ has to be a non-trivial function which is implemented by the quantum computer, but for demonstration purposes, the function $f(x)$ can be encoded by letting the state of the register undergo a transformation where the amplitude of the $x_0$ component changes sign and all other amplitudes are left unchanged. This step can be implemented by writing $x_0$ in binary form, $b_0b_1b_2...b_{n-1}$, and by applying the unitary operator

$$U_f = \exp \left( i\pi \prod_{l=0}^{n-1} \frac{(\sigma_{x1} + 2b_l - 1)/2}{2} \right).$$

Below we show how this time evolution may be implemented with our procedure. Note that the corresponding effective Hamiltonian vanishes when applied to any state where the qubit value (eigenvalue of $\sigma_{x1}$) does not coincide with $2b_l - 1$, i.e., the state must be the exact representation of $x_0$ to acquire the sign change.

The crucial step in Grover’s algorithm is an ‘inversion about the mean’, where the amplitude with the sign changed will grow in comparison with the other amplitudes. In the $n$-qubit computer with $N = 2^n$ amplitudes $c_x$, the operation can be written $c_x \to \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x'} c_{x'} - (c_x - \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x'} c_{x'}).$ The sum of all amplitudes of the state vector $|\psi\rangle$ can be obtained as any component in the vector $M|\psi\rangle$, where $M$ is the $N \times N$ matrix with unit elements in all positions. The inversion about the mean is therefore given by the unitary matrix

$$U_G = \frac{2}{N} M - I,$$

where $I$ is the $N \times N$ identity matrix.

A straightforward calculation shows that the $M$ matrix fulfill $(sM)^k = s^k N^{k-1} M$, and hence we have the exponential

$$\exp(sM) = I + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(sM)^k}{k!} = I + \frac{1}{N}(e^{sN} - 1)M.$$
Thus, by choosing $sN = i\pi$, we get $\exp(sM) = I - \frac{1}{2}M$, which apart from an irrelevant global phase yields precisely the inversion about the mean.

In the standard binary basis, the matrix $M$ couples all states to any other state, and it can be written as the tensor product $\Pi_{t=0}^{n-1}(\sigma_zl + 1)$, where the single qubit operators $\sigma_zl + 1$ are $2 \times 2$ matrices with unit elements in all positions. The inversion about the mean is therefore produced directly by the action of the following multi-particle operator

$$U_M = \exp\left(\frac{i\pi}{2} \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} (\sigma_zl + 1)\right),$$

where we used $N = 2^n$.

Both $U_f$ and $U_M$ can be implemented effectively using $\hat{B}$. To implement the function $\hat{B}$, it is easiest to first invert all the bits, which have the value zero in $x_0$, so that $U_f$ on that state should encode only unit bit values, i.e., $U_f$ is precisely the exponential of the projection operator in the left hand side of Eq. (9). Following the outline of the parallelogram in Fig. 1 (b) with $A$ and $B$ equal to the identity and $\hat{C} = \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} (\sigma_zl - 1)$, we obtain the exponential of one of the terms in the sum on the right hand side, and by combining $n + 1$ such terms one can construct the full sum. After application of this simple $U_f$, the qubits encoding the value zero should be flipped back again. All qubits should then have their $\sigma_z$ components rotated into the $z$-direction, to use again the operation in $\hat{B}$ to implement $U_M$, which is the same operator, defined for the $x$-components of the spins. The whole algorithm only requires individual access for the single qubit spin flips, encoding $x_0$, and for the final readout. An easy demonstration experiment where $x_0 = 1111...1$ can thus be performed without individual access at all (one only needs to verify that the number of excited qubits at the end equals the total number of qubits).

In summary, we have presented a technique to produce multi-bit gates in quantum computers where all qubits are coupled to a joint harmonic oscillator degree of freedom. We have derived general expressions, and we have exemplified the method by an analysis of the Grover search and the $C^n$.NOT gate, which appears frequently, e.g., in error correcting codes $\hat{B}$. A recent preprint $\hat{F}$ has addressed the achievements of so-called ‘concurrent quantum computing’, in which access to multi-bit interaction Hamiltonians of the form $\Pi_{\sigma_zl}$ is assumed. That paper presents ideas for Grover’s and Shor’s algorithm, without suggesting a practical means to implement the interaction. Our procedure provides a proposal for such implementation: since we can write $\exp(-i\mu \sum \sigma_zl) = \exp[-i\mu \cos(\pi \sum l = 1/2)]$, a single parallelogram as in Fig. 1 (b) suffices to produce this operator.

It is known how to make $C^2$.NOT and $C^3$.NOT gates by means of one- and two-bit gates, but it is difficult to make a theoretical comparison of these implementations with our proposal, since we build up the desired one-, two-, and multi-bit interactions continuously in time. From a practical perspective, however, our scheme should be really advantageous. The essential operation in the Grover search (10) is implemented without access to the individual qubits and, e.g., in the ion trap it is much easier to implement the Hamiltonian $H = \sum (\sigma_zl - 1)n$ than just a single term $H = (\sigma_zl - 1)n$ in that sum. In addition, it is an experimental advantage to apply as few control Hamiltonians as possible, since imprecision in timing accumulates if many operations are needed.

A feature of our proposal worth emphasizing is that all operations are expressed as unitary gates acting on the qubit degrees of freedom. The oscillator is certainly important, and only at the end of the gates, do the qubits actually decouple from the oscillator. One consequence is that the initial state of the oscillator does not have to be specified. It can be in the ground state, an excited state, or even in an incoherent mixture of states, possibly entangled with environmental degrees of freedom, as long as this entanglement does not evolve during gate operation.

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