# Theoretical Foundation for Equivalence Checking of Quantum Circuits 

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#### Abstract

Quantum circuits are typically used to design quantum algorithms at a high abstraction level without considering specific hardware restrictions. To execute quantum circuits on an actual quantum device, they must undergo a compilation process, transforming the high abstraction level into a low abstraction level that conforms to all restrictions imposed on the target device. As a result, the original quantum circuits and their compiled counterparts differ significantly. Therefore, it is crucial to verify the equivalence of two quantum circuits constructed from quantum gates based on their functionality. This paper presents a theoretical foundation for checking the equivalence of quantum circuits based on which an algorithm is constructed. The equivalence of quantum circuits can be reduced to matrix equivalence modulo a global phase. To achieve this, we compare each column vector of two matrices modulo the same global phase, making it significantly faster than the actual matrix equivalence check, especially in cases of non-equivalent quantum circuits.


## Keywords

Observable Equivalence, Density Matrices, Equivalence Checking, Quantum Circuits

## 1. Introduction

Quantum computing is a rapidly emerging technology that uses the principles of quantum mechanics to solve complex problems beyond the capabilities of current classical computing. Several quantum algorithms have been proposed, showing significant improvements over classical algorithms, such as Shor's fast algorithms for discrete logarithms and factoring in 1994 [1]. Although practical quantum computers capable of running such algorithms effectively are not yet available, recent exponential investments from big companies like IBM, Google, Microsoft, and Intel bring the future of the quantum era within closer reach.

Quantum circuits are a natural model of quantum computation, comprising qubits and quantum operations (e.g., quantum gates), that can be used to design and implement quantum algorithms. However, quantum circuits are typically used to design quantum algorithms at a high abstraction level without considering specific hardware restrictions. To execute the quantum circuits on an actual quantum device, they have to undergo a compilation process, transforming the high abstraction level to a low abstraction level that conforms to all restrictions

[^0]imposed on the targeted device. More precisely, this compilation process has several key aspects as follows. Firstly, quantum devices natively support only a limited set of quantum operations. Consequently, quantum circuits intended for the target device must be expressed using only these native quantum operations. This requires a decomposition (or translation) step of nonnative quantum operations into sequences of native ones $[2,3,4]$. Secondly, logical qubits used in quantum circuits have to be mapped to physical qubits on the target device. However, this mapping cannot be arbitrary because the target device imposes restrictions on which physical qubits can interact with each other. To achieve this, a mapping (or routing) step is required, which involves adding SWAP and Hadmard gates to quantum circuits [5, 6, 7]. Lastly, after the decomposition and mapping steps, the size of quantum circuits tends to increase, posing challenges for their execution on quantum devices due to noise and decoherence effects. Therefore, an optimization step is required to reduce the size of quantum circuits in terms of the number of quantum gates [ $8,9,10$ ]. As a result of these processes, the quantum circuit defined at a high abstraction level and its compiled counterpart defined at a low abstraction level are significantly different. Therefore, it is crucial to verify the equivalence of two quantum circuits based on their functionality.

The functionality of quantum circuits can be described by a sequence of quantum gates, which are represented by unitary matrices. Given two quantum circuits constructed from quantum gates in the form of $U=U_{m} \ldots U_{0}$ and $U^{\prime}=U_{m^{\prime}}^{\prime} \ldots U_{0}^{\prime}$, the two quantum circuits are considered equivalent if $U$ is equal to $U^{\prime}$ modulo a global phase, which is physically unobservable [11]. Directly comparing $U$ and $U^{\prime}$ is inefficient because it requires costly matrixmatrix multiplications $U_{m} \ldots U_{0}$ and $U_{m^{\prime}}^{\prime} \ldots U_{0}^{\prime}$ to obtain $U$ and $U^{\prime}$ for comparison. Moreover, if $U$ is significantly different from $U^{\prime}$, constructing the entire elements of both matrices is unnecessary. Instead, we can compare each column of two matrices modulo a global phase. Concretely, for each basis vector $\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ in an orthonormal basis of a Hilbert space, if $U\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ is equal to $U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ modulo the same global phase, then the two quantum circuits are equivalent. It is important to note that we may need a few iterations to check that some quantum circuits are not equivalent in cases of non-equivalent quantum circuits, making it significantly faster than the actual matrix equivalence check. We present a theoretical foundation for checking the equivalence of quantum circuits with a theorem to guarantee the correctness of our approach. An algorithm is also constructed based on our theorem.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Sect. 2 provides the basics of quantum mechanics related mostly to linear algebra, Sect. 3 proposes a theoretical foundation of equivalence checking of quantum circuits in this work based on which an algorithm is constructed, Sect. 4 presents some existing work, and Sect. 5 concludes the paper with some pieces of future work.

## 2. Basic Quantum Mechanics

In classical computing, the fundamental unit of information is a bit whose value is either 0 or 1. In quantum computing, the counterpart is a quantum bit or qubit, which has two basis states, conventionally written in Dirac notation [12] as $|\mathbf{0}\rangle$ and $|\mathbf{1}\rangle$, which denote two column vectors $\binom{1}{0}$ and $\binom{0}{1}$, respectively. In quantum theory, a general state of a quantum system
is a superposition or linear combination of basis states. A quantum state is a unit vector in a Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$, which is a vector space equipped with an inner product such that each Cauchy sequence has a limit. The state of a single qubit is $|\psi\rangle=\alpha|\mathbf{0}\rangle+\beta|\mathbf{1}\rangle$, where $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are complex numbers such that $|\alpha|^{2}+|\beta|^{2}=1$. States can be represented by column complex vectors as follows: $|\psi\rangle=\binom{\alpha}{\beta}=\alpha|\mathbf{0}\rangle+\beta|\mathbf{1}\rangle$, where $\{|\mathbf{0}\rangle,|\mathbf{1}\rangle\}$ forms an orthonormal basis of the two-dimensional complex vector space.

The basis $\{|\mathbf{0}\rangle,|\mathbf{1}\rangle\}$ is called as the standard basis. Besides, there are some other orthonormal bases studied in the literature, such as diagonal (or dual, or Hadamard) basis consisting of the following vectors:

The evolution of a closed quantum system can be performed by a unitary transformation. If the state of a qubit is represented by a column vector, then a unitary transformation $\boldsymbol{U}$ can be represented by a complex-value matrix such that $\boldsymbol{U} \boldsymbol{U}^{\dagger}=\boldsymbol{U}^{\dagger} \boldsymbol{U}=\boldsymbol{I}$ or $\boldsymbol{U}^{\dagger}=\boldsymbol{U}^{-1}$, where $\boldsymbol{U}^{\dagger}$ is the conjugate transpose of $\boldsymbol{U} . \boldsymbol{U}$ acts on the Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$ transforming a state $|\psi\rangle$ to a state $\left|\psi^{\prime}\right\rangle$ by a matrix multiplication such that $\left|\psi^{\prime}\right\rangle=\boldsymbol{U}|\psi\rangle$. There are some frequently used quantum gates in applications: the Hadamard gate $\boldsymbol{H}$, the identity gate $\boldsymbol{I}$, the Pauli gates $\boldsymbol{X}, \boldsymbol{Y}$, and $\boldsymbol{Z}$, and the controlled-NOT gate $\boldsymbol{C} \boldsymbol{X}$. Note that the $\boldsymbol{C X}$ gate performs on two qubits, while the remaining gates perform on a single qubit. Their matrix representations are as follows:

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\boldsymbol{I}_{2}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right), & \boldsymbol{X}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right), & \boldsymbol{Y}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -i \\
i & 0
\end{array}\right), \\
\boldsymbol{Z}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right), & \boldsymbol{H}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 1 \\
1 & -1
\end{array}\right), & \boldsymbol{C} \boldsymbol{X}=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right) .
\end{array}
$$

where $i$ is the imaginary unit. For example, the Hadamard gate on a single qubit performs the mapping $|\mathbf{0}\rangle \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\mathbf{0}\rangle+|\mathbf{1}\rangle)$ and $|\mathbf{1}\rangle \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\mathbf{0}\rangle-|\mathbf{1}\rangle)$. The controlled-NOT gate on pairs of qubits performs the mapping $|\mathbf{0 0}\rangle \mapsto|\mathbf{0 0}\rangle,|\mathbf{0 1}\rangle \mapsto|\mathbf{0 1}\rangle,|\mathbf{1 0}\rangle \mapsto|\mathbf{1 1}\rangle,|\mathbf{1 1}\rangle \mapsto|\mathbf{1 0}\rangle$, which can be understood as inverting the second qubit (referred to as the target) if and only if the first qubit (referred to as the control) is one.

For multiple qubits, we use the tensor product of Hilbert spaces. Let $\mathcal{H}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{H}_{2}$ be two Hilbert spaces. Their tensor product $\mathcal{H}_{1} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{2}$ is defined as a vector space consisting of linear combinations of the vectors $\left|\psi_{1} \psi_{2}\right\rangle=\left|\psi_{1}\right\rangle\left|\psi_{2}\right\rangle=\left|\psi_{1}\right\rangle \otimes\left|\psi_{2}\right\rangle$, where $\left|\psi_{1}\right\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_{1}$ and $\left|\psi_{2}\right\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_{2}$. Systems of two or more qubits may be in entangled states, meaning that states of qubits are correlated and inseparable. Entanglement shows that an entangled state of two qubits cannot be expressed as a tensor product of single-qubit states. We can use $\boldsymbol{H}$ and $\boldsymbol{C X}$ gates to create entangled states as follows: $\boldsymbol{C X}((\boldsymbol{H} \otimes \boldsymbol{I})|\mathbf{0 0}\rangle)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\mathbf{0 0}\rangle+|\mathbf{1 1}\rangle)$.

Let $|\psi\rangle$ be a quantum state and $\theta \in[0,2 \pi)$. In quantum mechanics, the state $e^{i \theta}|\psi\rangle$ is considered to be physically equal to $|\psi\rangle$ with respect to the global phase factor $e^{i \theta}$. From an observable perspective, two states are undistinguishable if they differ only by a global phase. We can use density matrices $|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$ to present quantum states $|\psi\rangle$ from which we can eliminate the global phase factor as follows: $e^{i \theta}|\psi\rangle\left(e^{i \theta}|\psi\rangle\right)^{\dagger}=e^{i \theta}|\psi\rangle e^{-i \theta}\langle\psi|=|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$.

## 3. Equivalence Checking of Quantum Circuits

This section presents the theoretical foundation of equivalence checking of quantum circuits by introducing a theorem based on which an algorithm is constructed.

### 3.1. Theoretical Foundation

We propose a method for checking the equivalence of quantum circuits constructed from quantum gates based on their functionality. We suppose that quantum circuits operate on quantum states in a Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$ with $n$ qubits. The unitary evolution of quantum systems is described by unitary matrices whose size is $2^{n} \times 2^{n}$. We first define the equivalence checking problem of quantum circuits.

Definition 3.1 (Equivalence checking problem). Given two quantum circuits represented by unitary matrices, $U=U_{m} \ldots U_{0}$ and $U^{\prime}=U_{m^{\prime}}^{\prime} \ldots U_{0}^{\prime}$, the equivalence checking problem of $U$ and $U^{\prime}$ is asked to check whether $U=e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}$ for some $\theta \in[0,2 \pi)$.

We call $e^{i \theta}$ a global phase that is physically unobservable [11]. In quantum mechanics, quantum states that differ only by a global phase are physically indistinguishable and equivalent under observation [11]. Hence, we define observable equivalence for quantum states as follows:

Definition 3.2 (Observable equivalence for quantum states). $|\psi\rangle \approx\left|\psi^{\prime}\right\rangle$ (or $|\psi\rangle \approx_{\theta}\left|\psi^{\prime}\right\rangle$ to make it clear from the context) is defined as $|\psi\rangle=e^{i \theta}\left|\psi^{\prime}\right\rangle$ for some $\theta \in[0,2 \pi)$.

To check $|\psi\rangle \approx\left|\psi^{\prime}\right\rangle$, we can check the equality of their density matrices $|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$ and $\left|\psi^{\prime}\right\rangle\left\langle\psi^{\prime}\right|$. Because using density matrices to represent quantum states can eliminate the global phase, it is a handy trick to check the observable equivalence of two quantum states by comparing their density matrices. This result is derived from the following lemma.

Lemma 3.1. $|\psi\rangle \approx\left|\psi^{\prime}\right\rangle$ if and only if $|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|=\left|\psi^{\prime}\right\rangle\left\langle\psi^{\prime}\right|$.
Proof. For the 'only if' part (the $\Rightarrow$ direction), it is straightforward.
We now consider the 'if' part (the $\Leftarrow$ direction). Let $\left\{\left|\phi_{0}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle, \ldots\left|\phi_{2^{n}-1}\right\rangle\right\}$ be an orthonormal basis of $\mathcal{H}$ with $n$ dimension. There exists $c_{0}, \ldots, c_{i}, \ldots, c_{2^{n}-1}$ such that $|\psi\rangle=$ $c_{0}\left|\phi_{0}\right\rangle+\cdots+c_{i}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle+\cdots+c_{2^{n-1}}\left|\phi_{2^{n}-1}\right\rangle$ and $\left|c_{0}\right|^{2}+\cdots+\left|c_{i}\right|^{2}+\cdots+\left|c_{2^{n}-1}\right|^{2}=1$. Similarly, we have $\left|\psi^{\prime}\right\rangle=c_{0}^{\prime}\left|\phi_{0}\right\rangle+\cdots+c_{i}^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle+\cdots+c_{2^{n-1}}^{\prime}\left|\phi_{2^{n}-1}\right\rangle$. Let A and A' be $2^{n} \times 2^{n}$ matrices denoting $|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$ and $\left|\psi^{\prime}\right\rangle\left\langle\psi^{\prime}\right|$, respectively. The elements of matrix A are calculated as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{i j} & =\left\langle\phi_{i}\right| A\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle \\
& =\left\langle\phi_{i} \mid \psi\right\rangle\left\langle\psi \mid \phi_{j}\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
=c_{i} c_{j}^{*}
$$

Similarly, the elements of matrix A' are calculated as follows: $a_{i j}^{\prime}=c_{i}^{\prime} c_{j}^{\prime *}$.
We have $a_{i j}=a_{i j}^{\prime}$ for any $i, j \in\left[0 \ldots 2^{n}-1\right]$ because of $\mathrm{A}=\mathrm{A}$ ' from the assumption. Let us consider $a_{i i}=a_{i i}^{\prime}$ as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{i i} & =a_{i i}^{\prime} \\
\Leftrightarrow c_{i} c_{i}^{*} & =c_{i}^{\prime} c_{i}^{\prime *}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\Leftrightarrow r e^{i \alpha}\left(r . e^{i \alpha}\right)^{*}=r^{\prime} e^{i \alpha^{\prime}}\left(r^{\prime} e^{i \alpha^{\prime}}\right)^{*} \quad \text { (by the exponential form of complex numbers) }
$$

$$
\Leftrightarrow r=r^{\prime} \quad \quad \text { (because } \mathrm{r} \text { and } \mathrm{r}^{\prime} \text { are non-negative numbers) }
$$

We have $c_{i}=r e^{i \alpha}, c_{i}^{\prime}=r^{\prime} e^{i \alpha^{\prime}}$, and $r=r^{\prime}$, where $i \in\left[0 \ldots 2^{n}-1\right]$. Let us consider two cases:

- If $r=r^{\prime}=0$, then it is immediate that $c_{i}=e^{i \theta_{i}} c_{i}^{\prime}$ for some $\theta_{i} \in[0,2 \pi)$.
- If $r=r^{\prime} \neq 0$, then we have $\frac{c_{i}}{c_{i}^{\prime}}=\frac{r e^{i \alpha}}{r^{\prime} e^{i \alpha^{\prime}}}=e^{i\left(\alpha-\alpha^{\prime}\right)}=e^{i \theta_{i}}$, where $\theta_{i}=\alpha-\alpha^{\prime}$. Then, we have $c_{i}=e^{i \theta_{i}} c_{i}^{\prime}$ for some $\theta_{i} \in[0,2 \pi)$.

Therefore, for all $i \in\left[0 \ldots 2^{n}-1\right]$, there exists $\theta_{i} \in[0,2 \pi)$ such that $c_{i}=e^{i \theta_{i}} c_{i}^{\prime}$. Now let us consider $a_{i j}=a_{i j}^{\prime}$ as follows:

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl} 
& a_{i j}=a_{i j}^{\prime} \\
\Leftrightarrow & c_{i} c_{j}^{*}=c_{i}^{\prime} c_{j}^{\prime *} \\
\Leftrightarrow & e^{i \theta_{i}} c_{i}^{\prime}\left(e^{i \theta_{j}} c_{j}^{\prime}\right)^{*}=c_{i}^{\prime} c_{j}^{* *} \\
\Leftrightarrow & e^{i\left(\theta_{i}-\theta_{j}\right)} c_{i}^{\prime} c_{j}^{\prime *}=c_{i}^{\prime} c_{j}^{\prime *}
\end{array} \quad \quad \text { (by the result above) }\right)
$$

Therefore, we have $\theta_{i}=\theta_{j}$ for any $c_{i}, c_{j} \neq 0$. It indicates that $|\psi\rangle=e^{i \theta}\left|\psi^{\prime}\right\rangle$ for some $\theta \in[0,2 \pi)$. From Definition 3.2, we have $|\psi\rangle \approx\left|\psi^{\prime}\right\rangle$.

Recall to check the equivalence of quantum circuits $U$ and $U^{\prime}$, we need to check whether $U=e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}$ for some $\theta \in[0,2 \pi)$. We can use the following lemma to solve this problem.

Lemma 3.2. Let $U$ and $U^{\prime}$ be $2^{n} \times 2^{n}$ unitary matrices, then $U=e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}$ for some $\theta \in[0,2 \pi)$ if and only if $U|\psi\rangle \approx_{\theta} U^{\prime}|\psi\rangle$ for any vector $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$.

Proof. For the 'only if' part (the $\Rightarrow$ direction), for any $|\psi\rangle$, we have $U|\psi\rangle=e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}|\psi\rangle$ for some $\theta \in[0,2 \pi)$ using the assumption. From Definition 3.2, we have $e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}|\psi\rangle \approx U^{\prime}|\psi\rangle$. Therefore, $U|\psi\rangle \approx_{\theta} U^{\prime}|\psi\rangle$.

For the 'if' part (the $\Leftarrow$ direction), because $U|\psi\rangle \approx_{\theta} U^{\prime}|\psi\rangle$ for any $|\psi\rangle$ from the assumption, we have $U|\psi\rangle=e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}|\psi\rangle$ for some $\theta \in[0,2 \pi)$. Therefore, $U=e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}$ for some $\theta \in[0,2 \pi)$.

In Lemma 3.2, it is unfeasible to consider any vector $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ because there are infinite vectors in $\mathcal{H}$. Therefore, we introduce the following lemma to help us check whether $U=e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}$ by considering only basis vectors in an orthonormal basis of $\mathcal{H}$. If the dimension of $\mathcal{H}$ is $n$, we need to consider at most $2^{n}$ basis vectors with respect to the same global phase.

Lemma 3.3. Let $U$ and $U^{\prime}$ be $2^{n} \times 2^{n}$ matrices, then $U=e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}$ for some $\theta \in[0,2 \pi)$ if and only if $U\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle \approx_{\theta} U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ for each basis vector $\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ in an orthonormal basis of $\mathcal{H}$.

Proof. The 'only if' part (the $\Rightarrow$ direction) is immediate from Lemma 3.2.
For the 'if' part (the $\Leftarrow \operatorname{direction),~let~}\left\{\left|\phi_{0}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle, \ldots\left|\phi_{2^{n}-1}\right\rangle\right\}$ be an orthonormal basis of $\mathcal{H}$ with $n$ dimension. For each basis vector $\phi_{i}$, we have $U\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle \approx_{\theta} U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ from the assumption. From Definition 3.2, we have $U\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle=e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ for some $\theta \in[0,2 \pi)$. Therefore, for any complex number $c_{i}$, we have $U c_{i}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle=e^{i \theta} U^{\prime} c_{i}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ (1).

For arbitrary $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$, there exists $c_{0}, \ldots, c_{i}, \ldots, c_{2^{n}-1}$ such that $|\psi\rangle=c_{0}\left|\phi_{0}\right\rangle+\cdots+$ $c_{i}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle+\cdots+c_{2^{n-1}}\left|\phi_{2^{n}-1}\right\rangle$ and $\left|c_{0}\right|^{2}+\cdots+\left|c_{i}\right|^{2}+\cdots+\left|c_{2^{n}-1}\right|^{2}=1$. Because of (1), we have the following:

$$
\begin{aligned}
U|\psi\rangle & =U c_{0}\left|\phi_{0}\right\rangle+\cdots+U c_{i}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle+\cdots+U c_{2^{n}-1}\left|\phi_{2^{n}-1}\right\rangle \\
& =e^{i \theta} U^{\prime} c_{0}\left|\phi_{0}\right\rangle+\cdots+e^{i \theta} U^{\prime} c_{i}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle+\cdots+e^{i \theta} U^{\prime} c_{2^{n}-1}\left|\phi_{2^{n}-1}\right\rangle \\
& =e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}\left(c_{0}\left|\phi_{0}\right\rangle+\cdots+c_{i}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle+\cdots+c_{2^{n}-1}\left|\phi_{2^{n}-1}\right\rangle\right) \\
& =e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}|\psi\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

for any $|\psi\rangle$ and $\theta$. It means that $U|\psi\rangle \approx_{\theta} U^{\prime}|\psi\rangle$ for any vector $|\psi\rangle$. Therefore, $U=e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}$ by Lemma 3.2.

Remark 3.1. Checking $U\left|\psi_{i}\right\rangle \approx_{\theta} U^{\prime}\left|\psi_{i}\right\rangle$ is actually checking the observable equivalence of the $i$-th column vector of $U$ and the $i$-th column vector of $U^{\prime}$ with respect to the phase $\theta$.

Lemma 3.4. $U\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle \approx_{\theta} U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ for each basis vector $\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ in an orthonormal basis of $\mathcal{H}$ if and only if $U\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle \approx U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ for each $\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ and $U\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle\left(U\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle\right)^{\dagger}=U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle\left(U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle\right)^{\dagger}$ for each $\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ and $\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle$.

Proof. For the 'only if' part (the $\Rightarrow$ direction), we have $U\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle \approx U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ for each basis vector $\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ using the assumption. Moreover, we have $U\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle=e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ and $U\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle=e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle$ for each $\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ and $\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle$. Therefore, $U\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle\left(U\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle\right)^{\dagger}=e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle\left(e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle\right)^{\dagger}=U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle\left(U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle\right)^{\dagger}$

For the 'if' part (the $\Leftarrow$ direction), we have $U\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle=e^{i \theta_{i}} U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ and $U\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle=e^{i \theta_{j}} U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle$ for each $\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ and $\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle$ using the first condition in the assumption. For the second condition in the assumption, we have as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& U\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle\left(U\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle\right)^{\dagger}=U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle\left(U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle\right)^{\dagger} \\
\Leftrightarrow & e^{i \theta_{i}} U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle\left(e^{i \theta_{j}} U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle\right)^{\dagger}=U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle\left(U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle\right)^{\dagger} \\
\Leftrightarrow & e^{i\left(\theta_{i}-\theta_{j}\right)} U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle\left(U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle\right)^{\dagger}=U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle\left(U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle\right)^{\dagger}
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, we have $\theta_{i}=\theta_{j}$ for each $\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ and $\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle$. It indicates that $U\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle \approx_{\theta} U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ for each basis vector $\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$.

```
Algorithm 1: Equivalence Checking of Quantum Circuits
    input : \(n\) - the dimension of a Hilbert space
                \(U=U_{m} \ldots U_{0}\) and \(U^{\prime}=U_{m^{\prime}}^{\prime} \ldots U_{0}^{\prime}\) - two quantum circuits
                \(\left\{\left|\phi_{0}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left|\phi_{2^{n}-1}\right\rangle\right\}\) - an orthonormal basis of a Hilbert space \(\mathcal{H}\)
                \(\theta \in[0,2 \pi)-\) the phase
    output: True \(\left(U=e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}\right)\) or False \(\left(U \neq e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}\right)\)
    forall \(\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle \in\left\{\left|\phi_{0}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left|\phi_{2^{n}-1}\right\rangle\right\}\) do
        \(\left|u_{i}\right\rangle=U_{m} \cdot\left(\ldots\left(U_{0} \cdot\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle\right) \ldots\right)\)
        \(\left|u_{i}^{\prime}\right\rangle=U_{m^{\prime}}^{\prime} \cdot\left(\ldots\left(U_{0}^{\prime} \cdot\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle\right) \ldots\right)\)
        if \(\left|u_{i}\right\rangle\left\langle u_{i}\right| \neq\left|u_{i}^{\prime}\right\rangle\left\langle u_{i}^{\prime}\right|\) then
            return False
        if \(i \neq 0 \wedge\left|u_{0}\right\rangle\left\langle u_{i}\right| \neq\left|u_{0}^{\prime}\right\rangle\left\langle u_{i}^{\prime}\right|\) then
            return False
    return True
```

Based on Lemma 3.1, Lemma 3.3 and Lemma 3.4, we introduce the following theorem to check whether $U=e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}$ for some $\theta \in[0,2 \pi)$.
Theorem 3.5. Let $U$ and $U^{\prime}$ be $2^{n} \times 2^{n}$ matrices, then $U=e^{i \theta} U^{\prime}$ for some $\theta \in[0,2 \pi)$ if and only if $U\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle\left(U\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle\right)^{\dagger}=U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle\left(U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle\right)^{\dagger}$ for each basis vector $\phi_{i}$ and $U\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle\left(U\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle\right)^{\dagger}=$ $U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle\left(U^{\prime}\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle\right)^{\dagger}$ for each $\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ and $\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle$ in an orthonormal basis of $\mathcal{H}$.

Proof. It is immediate from Lemma 3.1, Lemma 3.3 and Lemma 3.4.
It is extremely expensive to calculate matrix-matrix multiplications $U_{m} \ldots U_{0}$ and $U_{m^{\prime}}^{\prime} \ldots U_{0}^{\prime}$ to obtain $U$ and $U^{\prime}$ and subsequently multiple with each $\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle$ and $\left|\phi_{j}\right\rangle$ in Theorem 3.5 because of the exponential size of unitary matrices. Instead, we can perform a series of matrix-vector multiplications between unitary matrices and vectors in sequence as follows:

$$
\left|u_{i}^{0}\right\rangle=U_{0}\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle,\left|u_{i}^{1}\right\rangle=U_{1}\left|u_{i}^{0}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left|u_{i}^{m}\right\rangle=U_{m} \cdot u_{i}^{m-1}
$$

The $i$-th column vector of matrix $U$ is $\left|u_{i}\right\rangle$ (i.e., $\left|u_{i}^{m}\right\rangle$ ) and similarly for the $i$-th column vector $\left|u_{i}^{\prime}\right\rangle$ of matrix $U^{\prime}$. We are now ready to check whether $\left|u_{i}\right\rangle\left\langle u_{i}\right|$ is equal to $\left|u_{i}^{\prime}\right\rangle\left\langle u_{i}^{\prime}\right|$ for the first condition in Theorem 3.5. Moreover, for the second condition in Theorem 3.5, it suffices to fix $\left|u_{i}\right\rangle$ and $\left|u_{i}^{\prime}\right\rangle$, and check whether $\left|u_{i}\right\rangle\left\langle u_{j}\right|=\left|u_{i}^{\prime}\right\rangle\left\langle u_{j}^{\prime}\right|$ for all $j \neq i$. This is an efficient way to handle the calculation in Theorem 3.5.

### 3.2. Algorithm for Equivalence Checking of Quantum Circuits

An algorithm for equivalence checking of quantum circuits can be constructed based on Theorem 3.5, which is shown as Algorithm 1. Given two quantum circuits in the form of $U=U_{m} \ldots U_{0}$ and $U^{\prime}=U_{m^{\prime}}^{\prime} \ldots U_{0}^{\prime}$, and an orthonormal basis $\left\{\left|\phi_{0}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left|\phi_{2^{n}-1}\right\rangle\right\}$, for each basis vector $\phi_{i}$, we first construct the series of matrix-vector multiplications between unitary matrices and vectors to obtain $\left|u_{i}\right\rangle$ and $\left|u_{i}^{\prime}\right\rangle$ in the code fragment at lines $2-3$. We then check
whether their corresponding density matrices $\left|u_{i}\right\rangle\left\langle u_{i}\right|$ and $\left|u_{i}^{\prime}\right\rangle\left\langle u_{i}^{\prime}\right|$ are equal for the first condition in Theorem 3.5 in the code fragment at lines 4-5. If this is not the case, False is returned. Otherwise, we keep on checking for the second condition in Theorem 3.5 except for the case of the basis vector $\left|\phi_{0}\right\rangle$ in the code fragment at lines 6-7. If $\left|u_{0}\right\rangle\left\langle u_{i}\right|$ is not equal to $\left|u_{0}^{\prime}\right\rangle\left\langle u_{i}^{\prime}\right|$, False is returned. Otherwise, we move to check for other basis vectors. True is returned at the end once all basis vectors have been checked.

## 4. Related Work

L. Burgholzer et al. [13] have proposed an advanced method for equivalence checking of quantum circuits based on a decision diagram. Their approach involves two quantum circuits $U=U_{m} \ldots U_{0}$ and $U_{m^{\prime}}^{\prime} \ldots U_{0}^{\prime}$ as inputs and they check whether the two quantum circuits are equivalent. They leverage two key observations: (1) quantum circuits are inherently reversible, and (2) even small differences in quantum circuits may impact the overall behavior of quantum circuits. Their strategy is as follows. For (2), they first randomly prepare some basis vectors $\phi_{i}$ and calculate the $i$-th column of each matrix $U$ and $U^{\prime}$ to obtain $\left|u_{i}\right\rangle$ and $\left|u_{i}^{\prime}\right\rangle$ as we do. They then compare $\left|u_{i}\right\rangle$ and $\left|u_{i}^{\prime}\right\rangle$ modulo the global phase by using the fidelity, denoted $\mathcal{F}=\left|\left\langle u_{i} \mid u_{i}^{\prime}\right\rangle\right|^{2}$, to measure the overlap between the two states. The two states are considered equivalent if the fidelity between them is 1 up to a given tolerance $\varepsilon$. This is an approximate estimation, while we use their density matrices for the comparison, which provides an exact estimation. After several runs, if they find $\left|u_{i}\right\rangle$ and $\left|u_{i}^{\prime}\right\rangle$ that are not equivalent, the process is stopped. Otherwise, they attempt to resolve $U \Rightarrow I \Leftarrow U^{\prime}$ into the identity matrix $I$ based on (1) to solve the equivalence checking problem. However, calculating $U_{i}\left(U_{i^{\prime}}^{\prime}\right)^{\dagger}$ involves an expensive matrix-matrix multiplication. Moreover, they seem not to consider the global phase in this step. We have proven a theorem that it suffices to consider all basis vectors in an orthonormal basis with the same global phase to conclude the equivalence checking problem. Our approach considers the global phase and can be adopted by other approaches/tools for checking the equivalence of quantum circuits.

## 5. Conclusion

We have presented a theoretical foundation for checking the equivalence of quantum circuits based on which an algorithm is constructed. The equivalence checking process is simplified to comparing each column vector of two unitary matrices, representing two quantum circuits, modulo the same global phase. To eliminate the global phase during the comparison, we compare their corresponding density matrices instead of their column vectors. To guarantee the same global phase is used, we compare the outer products of two columns from each unitary matrix, with one column fixed. We have proven a theorem to guarantee the correctness of our approach. As one piece of future work, we would develop a support tool based on symbolic reasoning in $[14,15]$ for our approach and conduct case studies to demonstrate the effectiveness of our approach for equivalence checking of quantum circuits.

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