Contributions to the Theory of Clifford-Cyclotomic Circuits

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Let *n* be a positive integer divisible by 8. The Clifford-cyclotomic gate set \mathscr{G}_n consists of the Clifford gates, together with a *z*-rotation of order *n*. It is easy to show that, if a circuit over \mathscr{G}_n represents a unitary matrix *U*, then the entries of *U* must lie in \mathscr{R}_n , the smallest subring of \mathbb{C} containing 1/2 and $\exp(2\pi i/n)$. The converse implication, that every unitary *U* with entries in \mathscr{R}_n can be represented by a circuit over \mathscr{G}_n , is harder to show, but it was recently proved to be true when $n = 2^k$. In that case, k - 2 ancillas suffice to synthesize a circuit for *U*, which is known to be minimal for k = 3, but not for larger values of *k*. In the present paper, we make two contributions to the theory of Clifford-cyclotomic circuits. Firstly, we improve the existing synthesis algorithm by showing that, when $n = 2^k$ and $k \ge 4$, only k - 3 ancillas are needed to synthesize a circuit over for *U*, which is minimal for k = 4. Secondly, we extend the existing synthesis algorithm to the case of $n = 3 \cdot 2^k$ with $k \ge 3$.

1 Introduction

1.1 Background

Let *n* be a positive integer divisible by 8. The **Clifford-cyclotomic gate set of degree** *n*, which we denote by \mathscr{G}_n , consists of the usual **Clifford gates**

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \text{and} \qquad CX = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

together with the z-rotation of order n

$$T_n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \zeta_n \end{bmatrix},$$

where ζ_n is the **primitive** *n*-th root of unity $\zeta_n = e^{2\pi i/n}$. For any *n* divisible by 8, \mathscr{G}_n is universal for quantum computation. The gate sets \mathscr{G}_8 and \mathscr{G}_{16} are also known as the **Clifford**+*T* and **Clifford**+ \sqrt{T} gate sets, respectively. Clifford-cyclotomic circuits are important to the design of quantum algorithms [15], the theory of fault-tolerant quantum computation [5, 10], and the study of quantum complexity [14]. Because of this, they have received significant attention in the literature [2, 3, 7, 8, 9, 11, 13].

An important question in the theory of Clifford-cyclotomic circuits is that of precisely characterizing the matrices that can be exactly represented by a circuit over \mathscr{G}_n . Let \mathscr{R}_n be the smallest subring of \mathbb{C} containing 1/2 and ζ_n . It is easy to see that, if a circuit over \mathscr{G}_n represents a unitary matrix U, then the entries of U must lie in \mathscr{R}_n . The converse implication, that every unitary U with entries in \mathscr{R}_n can be represented by a circuit over \mathscr{G}_n , is harder to show. Indeed, until recently, it was only known to be true for the Clifford+T gate set \mathscr{G}_8 , as well as for a handful of adjacent gate sets [3, 8]. Recently, however, it was shown that this converse is true whenever n is a power of 2 [2]. In that case, $\log(n) - 2$ ancillas suffice to synthesize a circuit for U, which is known to be minimal for n = 8, but not for larger powers of 2.

A. Díaz-Caro, O. Oreshkov, and A.B. Sainz (Eds.): Quantum Physics and Logic 2025 (QPL 2025) EPTCS ??, 2025, pp. 1–16, doi:10.4204/EPTCS.??.?? © Linh Dinh & Neil J. Ross This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution License. This recent exact synthesis result naturally raises two questions. Firstly, when *n* is a power of 2, can the number of ancillas needed to synthesize a Clifford-cyclotomic circuit of degree *n* be made smaller than log(n) - 2? Secondly, can one prove an exact synthesis result for Clifford-cyclotomic circuits whose degree is not a power of 2? In the present paper, we contribute to the theory of Clifford-cyclotomic circuits by answering both questions positively.

1.2 Contributions

Let *m* be a positive integer.

We prove that any 2^m -dimensional unitary U with entries in \mathscr{R}_{16} can be exactly represented by an m-qubit circuit over \mathscr{G}_{16} using at most 1 ancilla, which is minimal. We establish this result through a study of the effect of catalytic embeddings [1] on the determinant which may be of independent interest. We then use this result about circuits over \mathscr{G}_{16} to save an ancilla in synthesizing circuits over \mathscr{G}_{2^k} , for $k \ge 4$.

We also prove, inspired by the results of [4], that any 2^m -dimensional unitary U with entries in $\Re_{3.2^k}$ with $k \ge 3$ can be exactly represented by an *m*-qubit circuit over $\mathscr{G}_{3.2^k}$, thereby establishing a number-theoretic characterization for Clifford-cyclotomic circuits whose degree is not a power of 2.

2 Rings

We now introduce the rings that will be important in what follows and we discuss some of their properties. For further details, we encourage the reader to consult [6, 17].

We assume that rings have a multiplicative identity. If *R* is a ring and $u \in R$, we write R/(u) for the **quotient of** *R* by the ideal (u). Two elements *v* and *v'* of the ring *R* are congruent modulo *u*, if their difference is a multiple of *u*, that is, if $v - v' \in (u)$. In that case, we write $v \equiv_u v'$, or $v \equiv v' \pmod{u}$. The relation \equiv_u is an equivalence relation on *R* and the elements of R/(u) are precisely the equivalence classes of elements of *R* under the relation \equiv_u . We sometimes refer to these equivalence classes as residues.

2.1 Cyclotomic integers

We write ζ_n for the **primitive** *n*-th root of unity $\zeta_n = e^{2\pi i/n}$. The ring of cyclotomic integers $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_n]$ is the smallest subring of \mathbb{C} that contains ζ_n . Since $\zeta_n^{\dagger} = \zeta_n^{n-1}$, the ring $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_n]$ is closed under complex conjugation.

Let φ denote **Euler's totient function**, so that $\varphi(n)$ counts the integers in $\{1, ..., n\}$ that are relatively prime to *n*. The ring $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_n]$ can be characterized as

$$\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_n] = \left\{ a_0 + a_1 \zeta_n + a_2 \zeta_n^2 + \dots + a_{\varphi(n)-1} \zeta_n^{\varphi(n)-1} \mid a_0, \dots, a_{\varphi(n)-1} \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}.$$
 (1)

Every element $u \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_n]$ can be uniquely expressed as a \mathbb{Z} -linear combination of powers of ζ_n as in Equation (1). That is, we have

$$a_0 + a_1 \zeta_n + \dots + a_{\varphi(n)-1} \zeta_n^{\varphi(n)-1} = a'_0 + a'_1 \zeta_n + \dots + a'_{\varphi(n)-1} \zeta_n^{\varphi(n)-1}$$

if and only if $a_j = a'_j$ for $0 \le j \le \varphi(n) - 1$.

We will be interested in two families of rings of cyclotomic integers: the one corresponding to $n = 2^k$, and the one corresponding to $n = 3 \cdot 2^k$. For $k \le k'$, we have $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{2^k}] \subseteq \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{3 \cdot 2^k}] \subseteq \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{3 \cdot 2^k}] \subseteq \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{3 \cdot 2^k}]$.

Moreover, for $k \ge 1$, every element $u \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{2^{k+1}}]$ (resp. $u \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{3,2^{k+1}}]$) can be uniquely written as $u = a + b\zeta_{2^{k+1}}$ (resp. $u = a + b\zeta_{3,2^{k+1}}$), with $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{2^k}]$ (resp. $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{3,2^k}]$).

We define the ring \mathscr{R}_n as the smallest subring of \mathbb{C} that contains 1/2 and ζ_n . The ring \mathscr{R}_n can be characterized as in Equation (1). Indeed, we have

$$\mathscr{R}_{n} = \left\{ a_{0} + a_{1}\zeta_{n} + a_{2}\zeta_{n}^{2} + \dots + a_{\varphi(n)-1}\zeta_{n}^{\varphi(n)-1} \mid a_{0}, \dots, a_{\varphi(n)-1} \in \mathbb{D} \right\},\tag{2}$$

where $\mathbb{D} = \{a/2^{\ell} \mid a \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } \ell \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is the ring of **dyadic fractions**. Every element $u \in \mathscr{R}_n$ can be uniquely expressed as in Equation (2).

If *n* is divisible by 8, then n = 8d, so that $\zeta_n^{2d} = \zeta_4 = i$, $\zeta_n^d = \zeta_8$, and $\zeta_n^d + \zeta_n^{-d} = \zeta_8 - \zeta_8^{\dagger} = \sqrt{2}$. Hence, in that case, we have $i \in \mathscr{R}_n$ and $1/\sqrt{2} \in \mathscr{R}_n$, which implies that the entries of the gates *H*, *S*, *CX*, and *T_n* belong to \mathscr{R}_n . Thus, whenever *n* is divisible by 8, any matrix that can be represented by a circuit over \mathscr{G}_n has entries in \mathscr{R}_n .

2.2 The ring $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$

The ring $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$ will play an important role in Section 7. We now record some of its relevant properties. We know from Equation (1) that

$$\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}] = \left\{ a_0 + a_1 \zeta_{12} + a_2 \zeta_{12}^2 + a_3 \zeta_{12}^3 \mid a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3 \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}.$$

We define $\delta \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$ as $\delta = 1 + \zeta_{12}^3 = 1 + i$. The cyclotomic integer δ is prime in $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$ and the prime factorization of 2 in $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$ is given by

$$2 = (1+i)^2(-i) = \delta^2(-i).$$
(3)

Now consider an element $u \in \mathscr{R}_{12}$. By Equations (2) and (3), we can write u as $u = u'/\delta^{\ell}$, with $u' \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$ and $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$. The smallest such ℓ is called the **least denominator exponent of** u and is denoted $\operatorname{Ide}(u)$. Equivalently, $\operatorname{Ide}(u)$ is the smallest $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\delta^{\ell}u \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$. More generally, if M is a matrix (or a vector) with entries in \mathscr{R}_{12} , then $\operatorname{Ide}(M)$ is the smallest ℓ such that $\delta^{\ell}M$ is a matrix (or a vector) over $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$.

Proposition 2.1. We have:

• $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]/(2) = \{a_0 + a_1\zeta_{12} + a_2\zeta_{12}^2 + a_3\zeta_{12}^3 \mid a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3 \in \{0, 1\}\}, and$ • $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]/(\delta) = \{0, 1, \zeta_{12}, \zeta_{12}^2\}.$

Proof. Let $u = a_0 + a_1\zeta_{12} + a_2\zeta_{12}^2 + a_3\zeta_{12}^3 \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$. Since $2 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, the coefficients a_0, a_1, a_2 , and a_3 can be chosen in $\{0, 1\}$, which establishes the first item in the proposition. For the second item, notice that, since $\delta = 1 + \zeta_{12}^3$, we have $1 + \zeta_{12}^3 \equiv 0 \pmod{\delta}$ so that $\zeta_{12}^3 \equiv -1 \equiv 1 \pmod{\delta}$. This, together with the fact that $2 \equiv 0 \pmod{\delta}$, implies that any $u \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]/(\delta)$ can be written as $u = a_0 + a_1\zeta_{12} + a_2\zeta_{12}^2$ with $a_0, a_1, a_2 \in \{0, 1\}$. Since we have the cyclotomic relation $\zeta_{12}^4 - \zeta_{12}^2 + 1 = 0$, we get $\zeta_{12}^2 \equiv \zeta_{12} + 1 \pmod{\delta}$, from which the second item in the proposition then follows.

The **quadratic integer ring** $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{3}]$ is the smallest subring of \mathbb{C} containing \mathbb{Z} and $\sqrt{3}$. The elements of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{3}]$ can be characterized as $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{3}] = \{a + b\sqrt{3} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ and every element of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{3}]$ can be uniquely written as such a \mathbb{Z} -linear combination of 1 and $\sqrt{3}$. Because $\sqrt{3} = \zeta_{12} + \zeta_{12}^{\dagger}$, we have $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{3}] \subseteq$

$u \pmod{\delta}$	$u \pmod{2}$	$u^{\dagger}u \pmod{2}$
0	0	0
0	$1 + \zeta_{12}^3$	0
0	$1+\zeta_{12}+\zeta_{12}^2$	0
0	$\zeta_{12} + \zeta_{12}^2 + \zeta_{12}^3$	0
1	1	1
1	ζ_{12}^3	1
1	$\zeta_{12} + \zeta_{12}^2 \equiv_2 \overline{\zeta}_{12}(1 + \zeta_{12})$	$\sqrt{3}$
1	$1 + \zeta_{12} + \zeta_{12}^2 + \zeta_{12}^3 \equiv_2 \zeta_{12}^4 (1 + \zeta_{12})$	$\sqrt{3}$
ζ_{12}	ζ ₁₂	1
ζ_{12}	$1+\zeta_{12}^2\equiv_2\zeta_{12}^4$	1
ζ_{12}	$\zeta_{12}^2 + \zeta_{12}^3 \equiv_2 \zeta_{12}^2 (1 + \zeta_{12})$	$\sqrt{3}$
ζ ₁₂	$1 + \zeta_{12} + \zeta_{12}^3 \equiv_2 \zeta_{12}^5 (1 + \zeta_{12})$	$\sqrt{3}$
ζ_{12}^2	ζ_{12}^2	1
ζ_{12}^2	$1 + \zeta_{12}$	$\sqrt{3}$
$\zeta_{12}^{\overline{2}}$	$1 + \zeta_{12}^2 + \zeta_{12}^3 \equiv_2 \zeta_{12}^3 (1 + \zeta_{12})$	$\sqrt{3}$
ζ_{12}^2	$\zeta_{12} + \zeta_{12}^3 \equiv_2 \zeta_{12}^5$	1

Table 1: The possible residues for $u \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$ modulo δ and 2, as well as those for $u^{\dagger}u$ modulo 2.

 $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$. Since $\zeta_{12}^6 = -1$ and $\zeta_{12}^4 - \zeta_{12}^2 + 1 = 0$, we have $\zeta_{12}^\dagger = \zeta_{12} - \zeta_{12}^3$. It can then be verified by direct computation that if $u = a + b\zeta_{12} + c\zeta_{12}^2 + d\zeta_{12}^3 \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$, then

$$u^{\dagger}u = ((a^2 + c^2 + ac) + (b^2 + d^2 + bd)) + (ab + bc + cd)\sqrt{3}.$$
(4)

In particular, the Euclidean norm of $u \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$ belongs to $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{3}]$, i.e., if $u \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$, then $u^{\dagger}u \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{3}]$.

Lemma 2.2. We have:

- *if* $u \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$ *and* $u \equiv_{\delta} 0$ *, then* $u^{\dagger}u \equiv_2 0$ *,*
- *if* $u \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$ and $u \not\equiv_{\delta} 0$, then $u^{\dagger}u \equiv_2 1$ or $u^{\dagger}u \equiv_2 \sqrt{3}$, and
- *if* $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$ and $u^{\dagger}u \equiv_2 v^{\dagger}v$, then $u \equiv_2 \zeta_{12}^m v$ for some integer m.

Proof. By inspection of Table 1, which lists the possible residues of $u \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$ modulo δ and 2, as well as the possible residues of $u^{\dagger}u$ modulo 2. The calculations leading to the construction of Table 1 can be verified using the congruences from the proof of Proposition 2.1, in addition to the following facts: $\delta^{\dagger}\delta = 2, (1 + \zeta_{12})^{\dagger}(1 + \zeta_{12}) = 2 + \sqrt{3} \equiv_2 \sqrt{3}, \text{ and } \zeta_{12}^4 \equiv_2 \zeta_{12}^2 + 1.$

3 Matrices and circuits

Let *R* be a commutative ring. We write M(R) for the collection of all square matrices with entries in *R*, and $M_m(R)$ for the ring of $m \times m$ matrices in *R*. When *R* is a subring of \mathbb{C} that is closed under complex conjugation, we write U(R) for the collection of all unitary matrices with entries in *R*, and $U_m(R)$ for the group of $m \times m$ unitary matrices with entries in *R*.

We now introduce certain matrices which will be useful in Section 7. Let $c \in \mathbb{C}$. For $0 \le j \le m-1$, the **one-level operator of type** c is the $m \times m$ matrix $c_{[j]}$ defined as

$$c_{[j]} = j \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & c & 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$$

Similarly, let $M \in M_2(\mathbb{C})$. For $0 \le j < j' \le m-1$, the **two-level operator of type** M is the $m \times m$ matrix $M_{[j,j']}$ defined as

$$M_{[j,j']} = \begin{bmatrix} j & \cdots & j' & \cdots \\ j & I & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ j & M_{1,1} & 0 & M_{1,2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & I & 0 & 0 \\ j' & 0 & M_{2,1} & 0 & M_{2,2} & 0 \\ \vdots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$$

The one-level operator $c_{[j]}$ acts on an *m*-dimensional vector **u** by scaling its *j*-th component by *c* and leaving the remaining components unchanged. The two-level operator $M_{[j,j']}$ similarly acts as *M* on the *j*-th and *j'*-th components of **u** and leaves the remaining components unchanged. Note that if |c| = 1 then $c_{[j]}$ is unitary, and that if $M \in U_2(\mathbb{C})$, then $M_{[j,j']}$ is unitary.

We close this section by recalling the existence of some well-known circuit constructions which will be useful in what follows. As mentioned in Section 1, when *n* is divisible by 8, the gate set \mathscr{G}_n subsumes the Clifford+*T* gate set. Hence, any matrix that can be represented by a Clifford+*T* circuit can also be represented by a circuit over \mathscr{G}_n . As a consequence, the one-level operators of type ζ_n and the two-level operators of type *X* and *H* can be represented exactly over the gate set \mathscr{G}_n using a single ancilla.

Theorem 3.1 (Giles & Selinger). The one- and two-level operators of type ζ_n , X, and H can each be exactly represented by a circuit over \mathscr{G}_n using at most one ancilla.

Proof. Circuit constructions for the one- and two-level operators of type ζ_8 , X, and H using a single ancilla can be found in [8, Section 5]. To obtain a circuit for the one-level operator of type ζ_n , it suffices to replace T with T_n where appropriate.

4 Determinants

The **determinant** is an important function on matrices. We will be interested in the determinant of certain block matrices.

Let *R* be a commutative ring and let *M* be an $m \times m$ matrix with entries in *R*. The **determinant of** *M* with respect to *R*, denoted by det_{*R*}(*M*), is defined as

$$\det_{R}(M) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_{m}} \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) \prod_{j=1}^{m} M_{j,\sigma(j)},$$

where S_m is the symmetric group of degree *m* and $sgn(\sigma)$ is the sign of the permutation $\sigma \in S_m$. If *R* is a subring of some ring *R'* and *M* is a matrix with entries in *R*, we have $det_R(M) = det_{R'}(M)$. For simplicity,

when the ring *R* in which the determinant is to be computed is clear from context, we sometimes write det(M) rather than $det_R(M)$. The determinant is multiplicative, in the sense that for matrices *M* and *M'* over *R* of compatible dimensions, we have $det_R(MM') = det_R(M) det_R(M')$. Moreover, if *M* is a complex unitary matrix, then $|det_{\mathbb{C}}(M)| = 1$.

If $\phi : R \to R'$ is a ring homomorphism, then the entrywise application of ϕ is a ring homomorphism $M_m(R) \to M_m(R')$. By a slight abuse of notation, we use the symbol ϕ to denote both the homomorphism $R \to R'$ and its entrywise extension $M(R) \to M(R')$. Now consider a matrix M over R. Since ϕ is a ring homomorphism and the determinant is a polynomial in the matrix entries, we have

$$\phi(\det_{R}(M)) = \phi\left(\sum_{\sigma \in S_{m}} \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) \prod_{j=1}^{m} M_{j,\sigma(j)}\right) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_{m}} \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) \prod_{j=1}^{m} \phi(M)_{j,\sigma(j)} = \det_{R'}(\phi(M)).$$
(5)

Let *R* be a commutative ring and let *R'* be a commutative subring of $M_m(R)$. Now consider a matrix *M* in $M_{m'}(R')$. The matrix *M* is an $m' \times m'$ block matrix whose blocks are $m \times m$ matrices over *R*. We can therefore compute the determinant of *M* with respect to *R'*, and then the determinant of the resulting matrix with respect to *R*. Alternatively, we can "open" the blocks and think of *M* as an $mm' \times mm'$ matrix over *R* to directly compute the determinant of *M* with respect to *R*. The following theorem, whose proof can be found in [16, Theorem 1], states that these two quantities are equal.

Theorem 4.1 (Silvester). Let *R* be a commutative ring, let *R'* be a commutative subring of $M_m(R)$, and let $M \in M_{m'}(R')$. Then

$$\det_R M = \det_R(\det_{R'} M).$$

It will be convenient for us to consider a variant of Theorem 4.1 where R' is not a subring of $M_m(R)$ but simply related to one.

Corollary 4.2. Let *R* and *R'* be two commutative rings, let $\phi : R' \to M_m(R)$ be a ring homomorphism, and let $M \in M_{m'}(R')$. Then

$$\det_R(\phi(M)) = \det_R(\phi(\det_{R'}(M))).$$

Proof. Let $Q = \phi[R']$ be the direct image of R' under ϕ . Then Q is a commutative subring of $M_m(R)$, since R' is commutative. Hence, by Theorem 4.1 and Equation (5),

$$\det_{R}(\phi(M)) = \det_{R}(\det_{Q}(\phi(M))) = \det_{R}(\phi(\det_{R'}(M))),$$

as desired.

5 Catalytic embeddings

We now introduce **catalytic embeddings** [1, 2, 9]. Let \mathscr{U} and \mathscr{V} be two sets of unitary matrices. An *m*-dimensional catalytic embedding from \mathscr{U} into \mathscr{V} is a pair (ϕ, \mathbf{c}) where $\phi : \mathscr{U} \to \mathscr{V}$ is a function and $\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{C}^m$ is a unit vector such that

- 1. If $U \in \mathscr{U}$ has dimension *d*, then $\phi(U) \in \mathscr{V}$ has dimension *md*, and
- 2. For any $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{C}^d$, $\phi(U)(\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{c}) = (U\mathbf{u}) \otimes \mathbf{c}$.

We often write $(\phi, \mathbf{c}) : \mathscr{U} \to \mathscr{V}$ to indicate that (ϕ, \mathbf{c}) is a catalytic embedding from \mathscr{U} to \mathscr{V} . The composition of an *m*-dimensional catalytic embedding $(\phi, \mathbf{c}) : \mathscr{U} \to \mathscr{V}$ and an *m*'-dimensional catalytic

embedding $(\phi', \mathbf{c}') : \mathscr{V} \to \mathscr{W}$ is the *mm'*-dimensional catalytic embedding $(\phi' \circ \phi, \mathbf{c} \otimes \mathbf{c}') : \mathscr{U} \to \mathscr{W}$. The catalytic embedding $(\mathrm{id}_{\mathscr{U}}, 1) : \mathscr{U} \to \mathscr{U}$ acts as the identity for this notion of composition.

We now discuss two specific catalytic embeddings which will be important in the rest of this paper. Let $k \ge 2$ and define the matrix Λ_k and the vector \mathbf{c}_k by

$$\Lambda_k = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \zeta_{2^{k-1}} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{c}_k = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \zeta_{2^k} \end{bmatrix}$$

We can use Λ_k and \mathbf{c}_k to define a catalytic embedding, following [1, 2]. Consider a matrix $M \in \mathbf{M}(\mathscr{R}_{2^k})$. Then M can be uniquely written as $M = A + B\zeta_{2^k}$, for some $A, B \in \mathbf{M}(\mathscr{R}_{2^{k-1}})$, so that we can construct the matrix $A \otimes I_2 + B \otimes \Lambda_k \in \mathbf{M}(\mathscr{R}_{2^{k-1}})$. It can be shown that the assignment

$$A + B\zeta_{2^k} \longmapsto A \otimes I_2 + B \otimes \Lambda_k \tag{6}$$

defines, for every *m*, a ring homomorphism $\phi_k : M_m(\mathscr{R}_{2^k}) \to M_{2m}(\mathscr{R}_{2^{k-1}})$. Moreover, we have $\phi_k(M^{\dagger}) = \phi_k(M)^{\dagger}$ for every *M*, so that ϕ_k restricts to a group homomorphism $U_m(\mathscr{R}_{2^k}) \to U_{2m}(\mathscr{R}_{2^{k-1}})$. Now let **u** be an arbitrary vector. Then

$$\phi_k(U)(\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{c}_k) = (A \otimes I + B \otimes \Lambda_k)(\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{c}_k)$$

= $(A \otimes I)(\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{c}_k) + (B \otimes \Lambda_k)(\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{c}_k)$
= $A\mathbf{u} \otimes I\mathbf{c}_k + B\mathbf{u} \otimes \Lambda_k\mathbf{c}_k$
= $A\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{c}_k + B\mathbf{u} \otimes \zeta_{2^k}\mathbf{c}_k$
= $A\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{c}_k + B\zeta_{2^k}\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{c}_k$
= $(A\mathbf{u} + B\zeta_{2^k}\mathbf{u}) \otimes \mathbf{c}_k$
= $(U\mathbf{u}) \otimes \mathbf{c}_k$.

The pair (ϕ_k, \mathbf{c}_k) is therefore a catalytic embedding. For future reference, we record this fact in the proposition below.

Proposition 5.1. Let $k \ge 2$. Then (ϕ_k, c_k) is a 2-dimensional catalytic embedding from $U(\mathscr{R}_{2^k})$ to $U(\mathscr{R}_{2^{k-1}})$.

By identifying $M_1(\mathscr{R}_{2^k})$ with \mathscr{R}_{2^k} , we can think of the function ϕ_k , when restricted to \mathscr{R}_{2^k} as a ring homomorphism $\mathscr{R}_{2^k} \to M_2(\mathscr{R}_{2^{k-1}})$. The function ϕ_k as defined by Equation (6) is then the entrywise extension of ϕ_k from \mathscr{R}_{2^k} to $M(\mathscr{R}_{2^k})$. We can therefore use Corollary 4.2 to get, for $U \in U(\mathscr{R}_{2^k})$, an expression for the determinant of $\phi_k(U)$.

Corollary 5.2. Let $k \ge 2$ and let $U \in U_n(\mathscr{R}_{2^k})$. Then we have

$$\det_{\mathscr{R}_{2^{k-1}}}(\phi_k(U)) = \det_{\mathscr{R}_{2^{k-1}}}(\phi_k(\det_{\mathscr{R}_{2^k}}(U))).$$

In other words, Corollary 5.2 states that, for $U \in U(\mathscr{R}_{2^k})$, to compute the determinant of $\phi_k(U)$ over $\mathscr{R}_{2^{k-1}}$, one can first compute the determinant u of U over \mathscr{R}_{2^k} , and then compute the determinant of $\phi_k(u)$ over $\mathscr{R}_{2^{k-1}}$.

Remark 5.3. The function det_{$\mathscr{R}_{2^{k-1}}$} $\circ \phi_k : \mathscr{R}_{2^k} \to \mathscr{R}_{2^{k-1}}$ is known in number theory as the **relative norm** of the field extension $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_{2^k})/\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_{2^{k-1}})$, and is often denoted by $N_{\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_{2^k})/\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_{2^{k-1}})}$. Corollary 5.2 therefore states that the determinant (over $\mathscr{R}_{2^{k-1}}$) of $\phi_k(U)$ is the relative norm of the determinant (over \mathscr{R}_{2^k}) of U, i.e., det $\mathscr{R}_{2^{k-1}} \circ \phi_k = N_{\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_{2^k})/\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_{2^{k-1}})} \circ \det_{\mathscr{R}_{2^k}}$.

We close this section by introducing a second catalytic embedding. The construction is essentially the same as in the definition of (ϕ_k, \mathbf{c}_k) . We define the matrix Γ_k and the vector \mathbf{d}_k by

$$\Gamma_k = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \zeta_{3\cdot 2^{k-1}} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $\mathbf{d}_k = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \zeta_{3\cdot 2^k} \end{bmatrix}$.

We then define the function $\psi_k : \mathbf{M}(\mathscr{R}_{3 \cdot 2^k}) \to \mathbf{M}(\mathscr{R}_{3 \cdot 2^{k-1}})$ by

$$\psi_k(A+B\zeta_{2^k})=A\otimes I_2+B\otimes \Gamma_k$$

Reasoning as above, we obtain the proposition below.

Proposition 5.4. Let $k \ge 2$. Then (ψ_k, d_k) is a 2-dimensional catalytic embedding from $U(\mathscr{R}_{3\cdot 2^k})$ to $U(\mathscr{R}_{3\cdot 2^{k-1}})$.

An analogue of Corollary 5.2 holds for (ψ_k, \mathbf{d}_k) , but we omit it here, since it will not be useful for our purposes.

6 Clifford-cyclotomic circuits of degree 2^k

We now turn to the exact synthesis of circuits for matrices with entries in the ring \mathscr{R}_{2^k} . We will take advantage of the following result, which was established in [8, Lemma 7].

Theorem 6.1 (Giles & Selinger). If U is a $2^m \times 2^m$ matrix with entries in \mathscr{R}_8 and det(U) = 1, then U can be exactly represented by an ancilla-free m-qubit circuit over \mathscr{G}_8 .

Let U be a unitary matrix with entries in \mathscr{R}_{16} . Then the determinant of U over \mathscr{R}_{16} is an element of \mathscr{R}_{16} of norm 1. The next lemma shows that this determinant must be a power of ζ_{16} . The proof is relegated to Appendix A.

Lemma 6.2. Let $u \in \mathscr{R}_{16}$ be such that |u| = 1. Then $u = \zeta_{16}^{\ell}$ for some $0 \le \ell \le 15$.

In order to save an ancilla in synthesizing circuits over \mathscr{G}_{16} our strategy is the following. Consider an *m*-qubit unitary *U* with entries in \mathscr{R}_{16} . By Lemma 6.2, the determinant of *U* is a power of ζ_{16} . Hence, multiplying *U* by an appropriate power of the one-level operator of type ζ_{16} if needed, we can assume without loss of generality that *U* has determinant 1. By Corollary 5.2, $\phi_4(U)$ is then an (m+1)-qubit unitary of determinant 1 with entries in \mathscr{R}_8 and it can thus be represented by an (m+1)-qubit circuit by Theorem 6.1.

Theorem 6.3. A $2^m \times 2^m$ matrix U can be exactly represented by an m-qubit circuit over \mathscr{G}_{16} if and only if $U \in U_{2^m}(\mathscr{R}_{16})$. Furthermore, a single ancilla suffices to synthesize a circuit for U.

Proof. The left-to-right implication follows immediately from the fact that all the elements of \mathscr{G}_{16} belong to $U(\mathscr{R}_{16})$. For the right-to-left implication, let $U \in U_{2^m}(\mathscr{R}_{16})$. Since U is unitary, $\det_{\mathscr{R}_{16}}(U)$ is an element of \mathscr{R}_{16} of norm 1. Thus, by Lemma 6.2, we have that $\det_{\mathscr{R}_{16}}(U) = \zeta_{16}^{\ell}$ for some $0 \leq \ell \leq 15$. Now let P be the fully-controlled phase gate

$$P = \text{diag}(1, 1, ..., 1, \zeta_{16}^{\ell}),$$

and let $V = P^{\dagger}U$. Note that $\det_{\mathscr{R}_{16}}(V) = \det_{\mathscr{R}_{16}}(P^{\dagger}) \det_{\mathscr{R}_{16}}(U) = 1$. Now consider the catalytic embedding (ϕ_4, \mathbf{c}_4) defined in Section 5. By Corollary 5.2, we have

$$\det_{\mathscr{R}_8}(\phi_4(V)) = \det_{\mathscr{R}_8}(\phi_4(\det_{\mathscr{R}_{16}}(V))) = \det_{\mathscr{R}_8}(I_2) = 1.$$



Figure 1: The circuit constructed in the proof of Theorem 6.3.

Hence, $\phi_4(V) \in U_{2^{m+1}}(\mathscr{R}_8)$ and $\det_{\mathscr{R}_8}(\phi_4(V)) = 1$ so that, by Theorem 6.1, $\phi_4(V)$ can be represented by an ancilla-free circuit *C* over \mathscr{G}_8 . Now let *D* be the circuit $D = (I_m \otimes (T_{16}H))^{\dagger} \circ C \circ (I_m \otimes (T_{16}H))$ over \mathscr{G}_{16} . Then $T_{16}H\mathbf{e}_0 = \mathbf{c}_4$, so that, for an arbitrary \mathbf{u} , we have:

$$D(\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{e}_0) = (I_m \otimes (T_{16}H))^{\dagger} \circ C \circ (I_m \otimes (T_{16}H))(\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{e}_0)$$

= $(I_m \otimes (T_{16}H))^{\dagger} \circ C(\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{c}_4)$
= $(I_m \otimes (T_{16}H))^{\dagger} \circ \phi_4(V)(\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{c}_4)$
= $(I_m \otimes (T_{16}H))^{\dagger}((V\mathbf{u}) \otimes \mathbf{c}_4)$
= $(V\mathbf{u}) \otimes \mathbf{e}_0.$

Hence *D* exactly represents *V* over \mathscr{G}_{16} using a single ancilla. Moreover, *P* can also be represented by a circuit over \mathscr{G}_{16} using a single ancilla. Indeed, this follows from Theorem 3.1, since *P* is (a power of) a one-level operator of type ζ_{16} . Thus, the unitary *U* can be represented using a single ancilla as well. \Box

The circuit constructed in the proof of Theorem 6.3 is depicted in Figure 1. We note that, if U is a unitary with entries in \mathscr{R}_{16} and the dimension of U is larger than 4, then an ancilla is necessary to synthesize a matrix for a U. As a result, the construction of Theorem 6.3 uses the minimal number of ancillas (in the worst case).

Corollary 6.4. Let $k \ge 4$. A $2^m \times 2^m$ matrix U can be exactly represented by an m-qubit circuit over \mathscr{G}_{2^k} if and only if $U \in U_{2^m}(\mathscr{R}_{2^k})$. Furthermore, k-3 ancillas suffice to synthesize a circuit for U.

Proof. By induction, using Theorem 6.3 as the base case, and a construction similar to the one given in Figure 1 in the inductive step. \Box

7 Clifford-cyclotomic circuits of degree $3 \cdot 2^k$

We now turn to the exact synthesis of circuits for matrices with entries in the ring $\mathscr{R}_{3.2^k}$. Our strategy is to first prove that every matrix with entries in \mathscr{R}_{24} can be represented by a circuit over \mathscr{G}_{24} , and to then use an inductive argument like the one used in proving Corollary 6.4. In order to establish the result for n = 24, we start by showing that every unitary matrix with entries in \mathscr{R}_{12} can be factored as a product of convenient generators.

7.1 Generating $U_n(\mathscr{R}_{12})$

To generate $U_n(\mathscr{R}_{12})$, we use one-level operators of type ζ_{12} and two-level operators of type X and H', where

$$H' = \zeta_8 H = \frac{\delta}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note that $H' \in U(\mathscr{R}_{12})$. We follow [3, 8] and first show that a unit vector with entries in \mathscr{R}_{12} can be mapped to a standard basis vector using one- and two-level operators of type ζ_{12} , X, and H'. To this end, we proceed by induction on the least denominator exponent of the vector.

Lemma 7.1. Let a and b be integers, at least one of which is nonzero. Then $a^2 + b^2 + ab \ge 1$, and equality is achieved exactly when (a,b) is one of $(\pm 1,0)$, $(0,\pm 1)$, or $(\pm 1,\pm 1)$.

Proof. First notice that if $a \neq 0$ and b = 0, then $a^2 + b^2 + ab = a^2 \ge 1$, since $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. A similar argument applies when a = 0 and $b \neq 0$. Equality in the first of these cases happens exactly when $a = \pm 1$ and b = 0, while equality in the second of these cases happens exactly when a = 0 and $b = \pm 1$. Now suppose that a and b are both nonzero, and assume, without loss of generality, that $|a| \ge |b|$. We then have $a^2 \ge |ab|$, so that $a^2 + ab \ge 0$. Hence,

$$a^2 + ab + b^2 \ge b^2 \ge 1,$$

since $b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Equality in this case happens exactly when $b^2 = 1$ and $a^2 + ab = 0$ which, in turn, happens exactly when $b = \pm 1$ and $a = \pm 1$.

Lemma 7.2. If u is an m-dimensional unit vector with entries in \mathscr{R}_{12} and lde(u) = 0, then, for any $0 \le j \le m-1$, there exists a sequence G_1, \ldots, G_q of one- and two-level operators of type ζ_{12} , X, and H' such that $G_1 \cdots G_q u = e_j$.

Proof. It suffices to show that $\mathbf{u} = \zeta_{12}^{\ell} \mathbf{e}_{j'}$ for some integers j' and ℓ , since, if \mathbf{u} is of that form, then it can be mapped to \mathbf{e}_j by applying the appropriate operators of type ζ_{12} and X. Because \mathbf{u} is a unit vector, we have $\mathbf{u}^{\dagger}\mathbf{u} = 1$. Hence, using Equation (4), we get

$$1 = \mathbf{u}^{\dagger}\mathbf{u} = \sum_{j} u_{j}^{\dagger}u_{j} = \sum_{j} ((a_{j}^{2} + c_{j}^{2} + a_{j}c_{j}) + (b_{j}^{2} + d_{j}^{2} + b_{j}d_{j})) + (a_{j}b_{j} + b_{j}c_{j} + c_{j}d_{j})\sqrt{3}.$$

Since every element $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{3}]$ can be uniquely expressed as an integer linear combination of 1 and $\sqrt{3}$, the equation above implies the equations below.

$$\sum_{j} \left(\left(a_{j}^{2} + c_{j}^{2} + a_{j}c_{j} \right) + \left(b_{j}^{2} + d_{j}^{2} + b_{j}d_{j} \right) \right) = 1$$
(7)

$$\sum_{j} (a_{j}b_{j} + b_{j}c_{j} + c_{j}d_{j}) = 0$$
(8)

It follows from Lemma 7.1 that Equation (7) can only be satisfied if there is exactly one index *j* such that either $a_j^2 + c_j^2 + a_jc_j = 1$ or $b_j^2 + d_j^2 + b_jd_j = 1$, but not both. By Lemma 7.1, this happens precisely when (a_j, c_j) is one of $(\pm 1, 0)$, $(0, \pm 1)$, or $(\pm 1, \mp 1)$, and (b_j, d_j) is (0, 0), or when (b_j, d_j) is one of $(\pm 1, 0)$, $(0, \pm 1)$, or $(\pm 1, \mp 1)$, and (a_j, c_j) is (0, 0). These 12 solutions all satisfy Equation (8) and correspond exactly to the possible powers of ζ_{12} .

Lemma 7.3. If $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$ are such that $u^{\dagger}u \equiv_2 v^{\dagger}v$, then there exists ℓ such that

$$H'T_{12}^{\ell}\begin{bmatrix} u\\v\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u'\\v'\end{bmatrix}$$

for some $u', v' \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$ such that $u' \equiv v' \equiv 0 \pmod{\delta}$.

Proof. Let *u* and *v* be as stated. Then, by Lemma 2.2, we have $u \equiv_2 \zeta_{12}^{\ell} v$ for some ℓ . Equivalently, $u \pm \zeta_{12}^{\ell} v \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, so that $u + \zeta_{12}^{\ell} v = 2w$ and $u - \zeta_{12}^{\ell} v = 2w'$ for some $w, w' \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$. We then get

$$H'T_{12}^{\ell}\begin{bmatrix} u\\ v \end{bmatrix} = H'\begin{bmatrix} u\\ \zeta_{12}^{\ell}v \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\delta}{2}\begin{bmatrix} u+\zeta_{12}^{\ell}v\\ u-\zeta_{12}^{\ell}v \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\delta}{2}\begin{bmatrix} 2w\\ 2w' \end{bmatrix} = \delta\begin{bmatrix} w\\ w' \end{bmatrix},$$

which completes the proof.

Lemma 7.4. If u is an m-dimensional unit vector with entries in \mathscr{R}_{12} and $lde(u) \ge 1$, then there exists a sequence G_1, \ldots, G_q of one- and two-level operators of type ζ_{12} , X, and H' such that $lde(G_1 \cdots G_q u) < lde(u)$.

Proof. Let $k = \text{lde}(\mathbf{u})$ and let $\mathbf{v} = \delta^k \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$. We know from Lemma 2.2 that, for $v \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{12}]$, if $v \neq_{\delta} 0$, then $v^{\dagger}v \equiv_2 1$ or $v^{\dagger}v \equiv_2 \sqrt{3}$. We can therefore write $\mathbf{v}^{\dagger}\mathbf{v}$ as

$$\mathbf{v}^{\dagger}\mathbf{v} = \sum_{j} v_{j}^{\dagger}v_{j} = \sum_{v_{j}\equiv\delta0} v_{j}^{\dagger}v_{j} + \sum_{v_{j}\neq\delta0} v_{j}^{\dagger}v_{j} = \sum_{v_{j}\equiv\delta0} v_{j}^{\dagger}v_{j} + \sum_{v_{j}^{\dagger}v_{j}\equiv21} v_{j}^{\dagger}v_{j} + \sum_{v_{j}^{\dagger}v_{j}\equiv2\sqrt{3}} v_{j}^{\dagger}v_{j}.$$
 (9)

Since **u** is a unit vector and $\delta^{\dagger}\delta = 2$, we have $\mathbf{v}^{\dagger}\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}^{\dagger}\mathbf{u}(\delta^{\dagger}\delta)^{k} = 2^{k}$. Because $k \ge 1$, this implies that $\mathbf{v}^{\dagger}\mathbf{v} \equiv_{2} 0$. Hence, by Lemma 2.2, taking Equation (9) modulo 2 yields

$$0 \equiv_2 \mathbf{v}^{\dagger} \mathbf{v} \equiv_2 a + b\sqrt{3},$$

where *a* is the number of v_j such that $v_j^{\dagger}v_j \equiv_2 1$, and *b* be the number of v_j such that $v_j^{\dagger}v_j \equiv_2 \sqrt{3}$. It then follows that we must have $a \equiv_2 b \equiv_2 0$. That is, both *a* and *b* are even integers. We can therefore group the entries of **v** that are not congruent to 0 modulo δ into pairs $(v_j, v_{j'})$ such that $v_j^{\dagger}v_j \equiv_2 v_{j'}^{\dagger}v_{j'}$. Applying Lemma 7.3 to every such pair reduces the least denominator exponent of **u**.

Lemma 7.5. If u is an m-dimensional unit vector with entries in \mathscr{R}_{12} , then, for any $0 \le j \le m-1$, there exists a sequence G_1, \ldots, G_q of one- and two-level operators of type ζ_{12} , X, and H' such that $G_1 \cdots G_q u = e_j$.

Proof. By induction on $\operatorname{Ide}(\mathbf{u})$. If $\operatorname{Ide}(\mathbf{u}) = 0$, then the result follows from Lemma 7.2. If $\operatorname{Ide}(\mathbf{u}) \ge 1$, then, by Lemma 7.4, there exists a sequence G_1, \ldots, G_q of two-level operators of type ζ_{12}, X , and H' such that $\operatorname{Ide}(G_1 \cdots G_q \mathbf{u}) < \operatorname{Ide}(\mathbf{u})$. Now let $\mathbf{u}' = G_1 \cdots G_q \mathbf{u}$. By the induction hypothesis, there exists a sequence $G'_1, \ldots, G'_{q'}$ of one- and two-level operators of type ζ_{12}, X , and H such that $G'_1 \cdots G'_{\ell'} \mathbf{u}' = \mathbf{e}_j$. We therefore have

$$\mathbf{e}_j = G'_1 \cdots G'_{q'} \mathbf{u}' = G'_1 \cdots G'_{q'} \cdot G_1 \cdots G_q \mathbf{u},$$

which completes the proof.

Theorem 7.6. A matrix U belongs to $U(\mathcal{R}_{12})$ if and only if U can be expressed as a product of one- and two-level operators of type ζ_{12} , X, and H'.

Proof. The right-to-left direction follows immediately from the fact that one- and two-level operators of type ζ_{12} , X, and H' are unitaries with entries in \mathscr{R}_{12} . We now prove the left-to-right direction. Let $U \in U(\mathscr{R}_{12})$ and let **u** be the first column of U. Then **u** is a unit vector with entries in \mathscr{R}_{12} . Hence, by

Lemma 7.5, there exists a sequence G_1, \ldots, G_q of one- and two-level operators of type ζ_{12} , X, and H' such that $G_1 \cdots G_q \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{e}_1$. Since U and G_1, \ldots, G_q are unitaries with entries in \mathscr{R}_{12} , we have

$$G_1 \cdots G_q U = egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \ \hline 0 & & & \ dots & & & U' & \ 0 & & & & \end{bmatrix},$$

for some smaller $U' \in U(\mathscr{R}_{12})$. Repeating this process inductively, we ultimately obtain a sequence $F_1, \ldots, F_{q'}$ of one- and two-level operators of type ζ_{12} , X and H' such that $F_1 \cdots F_{q'} U = I$. Multiplying by $(F_1 \cdots F_{q'})^{-1}$ on both sides then yields the desired decomposition.

7.2 Exact synthesis

Theorem 7.7. A $2^m \times 2^m$ matrix U can be exactly represented by an m-qubit circuit over \mathscr{G}_{24} if and only if $U \in U_{2^m}(\mathscr{R}_{24})$. Furthermore, 2 ancillas suffice to synthesize a circuit for U.

Proof. The left-to-right follows immediately from the fact that elements of \mathscr{G}_{24} belong to $U(\mathscr{R}_{24})$. Now let $U \in U_{2^m}(\mathscr{R}_{24})$ and let $(\psi_3, \mathbf{d}_3) : U(\mathscr{R}_{24}) \to U(\mathscr{R}_{12})$ be the catalytic embedding defined in Section 5. Then $\psi_3(U) \in U_{2^{m+1}}(\mathscr{R}_{12})$ and can be represented as a product of one- and two-level operators of type ζ_{12} , X, and H'. By Theorem 3.1, these 1- and 2-level operators can each be represented by a circuit over \mathscr{G}_{24} using a single ancilla. Hence, there is a circuit C over \mathscr{G}_{24} that represents $\psi_3(U)$. Using an additional ancilla and reasoning as in Theorem 6.3, we obtain a circuit over \mathscr{G}_{24} for U that uses 2 ancillas.

We can now use Theorem 7.7 to obtain an exact synthesis result for Clifford-cyclotomic gate sets of degree $3 \cdot 2^k$, with $k \ge 3$. The proof is very similar to that of Corollary 6.4, so we omit it here.

Corollary 7.8. Let $k \ge 3$. A $2^m \times 2^m$ matrix U can be exactly represented by an m-qubit circuit over $\mathscr{G}_{3.2^k}$ if and only if $U \in U_{2^m}(\mathscr{R}_{3.2^k})$. Furthermore, k-1 ancillas suffice to synthesize a circuit for U.

8 Conclusion

We now know that, for $n = 2^k$ and $n = 3 \cdot 2^k$, *m*-qubit circuits with ancillas over \mathscr{G}_n correspond precisely to matrices in $U_{2^m}(\mathscr{R}_n)$. Yet, many questions in the theory of Clifford-cyclotomic circuits remain unanswered. Two natural open problems are the following.

- 1. For which values of *n* does the correspondence between circuits over \mathscr{G}_n and matrices in $U(\mathscr{R}_n)$ hold?
- 2. For the values of *n* for which the correspondence holds, what is the smallest number of ancillas required to synthesize circuits in the worst case?

A natural initial step in addressing the first of these open problems is to consider values of n of the form $p \cdot 2^k$, for p a prime. While it stands to reason that our results might generalize to such cases, it gets progressively harder to analyze the relevant residues; this indicates that a novel approach may be needed for such generalizations.

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A A Proof of Lemma 6.2

Let *R* be a ring. A **unit** of *R* is an element of *R* that admits a multiplicative inverse. A ring *R* is an **integral domain** if $uv \neq 0$, for all nonzero elements $u, v \in R$. An element $u \in R$ is an **associate** of an element $v \in R$ if there exists a unit $w \in R$ such that v = wu. A nonunit, nonzero element $u \in R$ is called **prime** if *u* divides *v* or *u* divides *w*, whenever *u* divides *vw*. An ideal $I \subsetneq R$ is called **prime** if $uv \in I$.

We start by recalling two well known facts, before establishing a property of roots of unity.

Proposition A.1. Let *R* be a commutative ring with identity and let $u, v \in R$. Then *u* and *v* are associates if and only if $u \mid v$ and $v \mid u$.

Proposition A.2. *Let* R *be a commutative ring with identity and let* $u \in R$ *. Then* u *is prime if and only if the ideal generated by* u *is prime.*

Lemma A.3. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that gcd(a, b) = 1. Then $1 - \zeta_a^b$ and $1 - \zeta_a$ are associates.

Proof. We have

$$1 - \zeta_a^b = (1 - \zeta_a)(1 + \zeta_a + \zeta_a^2 + \dots + \zeta_a^{b-1}).$$

Hence, $1 - \zeta_a \mid 1 - \zeta_a^b$. Now since gcd(a,b) = 1, there exist $c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that ac + bd = 1. Then $1 - \zeta_a = 1 - \zeta_a^{ac+bd} = 1 - (\zeta_a^b)^d$, and thus

$$1 - \zeta_a = 1 - (\zeta_a^b)^d = (1 - \zeta_a^b)(1 + \zeta_a^b + (\zeta_a^b)^2 + \dots + (\zeta_a^b)^{d-1}).$$

Hence, $1 - \zeta_a^b \mid 1 - \zeta_a$. Thus, $1 - \zeta_a$ and $1 - \zeta_a^b$ are associates by Proposition A.1.

We are now in a position to prove Lemma 6.2, whose statement we reproduce below.

Lemma. Let $u \in \mathscr{R}_{16}$ be such that |u| = 1. Then $u = \zeta_{16}^{\ell}$ for some $0 \le \ell \le 15$.

Proof. Let $\chi = 1 - \zeta_{16} \in \mathscr{R}_{16}$. Then χ is a prime element in $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{16}]$ and, by Proposition A.2, $\langle \chi \rangle$ is a prime ideal of \mathscr{R}_{16} . By Lemma A.3, we can decompose 2 in $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{16}]$ as

$$2 = (1+i)(1-i)$$

= $(1-i)^2 u_1$
= $(1-\zeta_8)^2 (1+\zeta_8)^2 u_1$
= $(1-\zeta_8)^4 u_2 u_1$
= $(1-\zeta_{16})^4 (1+\zeta_{16})^4 u_2 u_1$
= $(1-\zeta_{16})^8 u_3 u_2 u_1$
= $\chi^8 u_3 u_2 u_1$,

where u_1 , u_2 , and u_3 are units in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$, $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_8]$, and $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{16}]$, respectively. Hence, any $u \in \mathscr{R}_{16}$, can be written as $u = v/\chi^{\ell}$ with $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ and $v \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{16}]$. Now let $u \in \mathscr{R}_{16}$ be such that |u| = 1 and write u as $u = v/\chi^{\ell}$ with ℓ minimal. Observe that $\chi^{\dagger} = 1 - \zeta_{16}^{\dagger} = -\zeta_{16}^{\dagger}\chi$. We hence have

$$1 = |u|^2 = u^{\dagger} u = \frac{v^{\dagger} v}{(-\zeta_{16}^{\dagger})^{\ell} \chi^{2\ell}},$$

so that $v^{\dagger}v = \chi^{2\ell} \cdot (-\zeta_{16}^{\dagger})^{\ell}$. If $\ell > 0$, we have $v^{\dagger}v \in \langle \chi \rangle$. Since χ is prime, this implies that we must have either $v \in \langle \chi \rangle$ or $v^{\dagger} \in \langle \chi \rangle$. But $v^{\dagger} \in \langle \chi \rangle$ would imply $v \in \langle \chi \rangle$ since χ and χ^{\dagger} are associates. Hence, if $\ell > 0$, then $v \in \langle \chi \rangle$, which contradicts the minimality of ℓ . It must thus be the case that $\ell = 0$, so that u is in fact an element of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{16}]$. Writing u as $u = \sum_{j=0}^{7} a_j \zeta_{16}^j$, with $a_j \in \mathbb{Z}$, we then get

$$1 = u^{\dagger}u$$

= $\sum_{j=0}^{7} a_j^2 + 2Re(\zeta_{16})((\sum_{j=0}^{6} a_j a_{j+1}) - a_0 a_7) + 2Re(\zeta_{16}^2)((\sum_{j=0}^{5} a_j a_{j+2}) - a_0 a_6 - a_1 a_7)$
+ $2Re(\zeta_{16}^3)((\sum_{j=0}^{4} a_j a_{j+3}) - a_0 a_5 - a_1 a_6 - a_2 a_7).$

The above equation holds when exactly one $a_j = \pm 1$ and the rest are zero. Hence $u = \zeta_{16}^{\ell}$ for some $0 \le \ell \le 15$, as desired.