Quantum Error Correction - Notes

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1 Quantum Mechanics: Conventions and Notation

- We take the three postulates of QM from Nielsen and Chuang:
 - 1. Associated to any isolated physical system is a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} , known as the *state space* of the system, and the system is described by its *state vector* (or just *state*), which is a **unit** vector in \mathcal{H}
 - 2. The evolution of a **closed** quantum system is described by a *unitary transformation*
 - 3. Quantum measurements are specified by a collection $\{M_m\}$ of measurement operators acting on \mathcal{H} . The index m refers to the measurement outcomes, and if the system is in state $|\psi\rangle$ initially, the probability m occurs is:

$$\mathbb{P}(m) = \langle \psi | M_m^{\dagger} M_m | \psi \rangle$$

and the state collapses to

$$|\psi\rangle \to \frac{M_m |\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{\mathbb{P}(m)}}$$

1.1 Projective Measurements

- A projective measurement is described by an observable/Hermitian operator M acting on $\mathcal H$
- M has a spectral decomposition:

$$M = \sum_{m} m P_m \tag{1.1}$$

where m are the (real) eigenvalues of M and P_m is the projector onto the corresponding eigenspace

- Note $\sum_{m} P_m = 1$
- This means the outcomes are indexed by m, and the info in postulate (3) reduces to

$$\mathbb{P}(m) = \langle \psi | P_m | \psi \rangle$$
 and $| \psi \rangle \to \frac{P_m | \psi \rangle}{\sqrt{\mathbb{P}(m)}}$

• The expectation of M on state $|\psi\rangle$ in a probabilistic sense reduces to

$$\mathbb{E}(M) = \langle M \rangle_{\psi} = \langle \psi | M | \psi \rangle \tag{1.2}$$

• Notation: usually just list the projectors as $\{P_m\}$ so $\sum_m P_m = 1$ and $P_m P_n = \delta_{mn} P_m$

- Also sometimes say 'measure in basis $|m\rangle$ ', which just means 'perform projective measurement with projectors $P_m = |m\rangle \langle m|$
- Often refer to positive operator-valued measurements (POVMs), which we define here
- Suppose we do a measurement with operators $\{M_m\}$ on system in state $|\psi\rangle$, so $\mathbb{P}(m) = |\psi|M_m^{\dagger}M_m|\psi\rangle$
- Define POVM elements $E_m = M_m^{\dagger} M_m$; then $\sum_m E_m = 1$ and $\mathbb{P}(m) = \langle \psi | E_m | \psi \rangle$
- Since E_m are sufficient to describe the outcomes, we call the set $\{E_m\}$ a POVM

1.2 Density Operator Formalism

- Motivation: nice and easy to talk about subsystems of a composite system, systems where we don't know the state precisely, statistical mechanics
- Consider a system which is in a state from the set $\{|\psi_i\rangle\}$, with the probability of being in state i given by p_i
- The set $\{|\psi_i\rangle, p_i\}$ is called an ensemble of pure states
- The density operator/matrix for this system is defined as

$$\rho = \sum_{i} p_{i} |\psi_{i}\rangle \langle \psi_{i}| \tag{1.3}$$

- Clearly the states $|\psi_i\rangle$ uniquely define ρ and vice-versa, so postulate (1) is unchanged
- For postulate 2, we see that if U governs evolution of states, ρ evolves as

$$\rho = \sum_{i} p_{i} |\psi_{i}\rangle \langle \psi_{i}| \xrightarrow{U} \sum_{i} p_{i}U |\psi_{i}\rangle \langle \psi_{i}| U^{\dagger} = U\rho U^{\dagger}$$
(1.4)

- For describing measurements, suppose we have measurement given by measurement operators $\{M_m\}$
- If we were initially in $|\psi_i\rangle$, probabilities are

$$\mathbb{P}(m|i) = \langle \psi_i | M_m^{\dagger} M_m | \psi_i \rangle = \text{Tr} \left(M_m^{\dagger} M_m | \psi_i \rangle \langle \psi_i | \right)$$

• Therefore, the probability of obtaining m outright on ρ is

$$\mathbb{P}(m) = \sum_{i} \mathbb{P}(m|i)p_{i} = \text{Tr}(M_{m}^{\dagger}M_{m}\rho)$$
(1.5)

and after a bit of algebra, we find ρ collapses to

$$\rho \to \rho_m = \frac{M_m \rho M_m^{\dagger}}{\text{Tr}(M_m^{\dagger} M_m \rho)}$$

- If we know the state of a system is certainly $|\psi\rangle$, the system is in a *pure state* and $\rho = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$; otherwise we have a *mixed state*
- We have criteria $\text{Tr}(\rho^2) = 1$ for pure states and $\text{Tr}(\rho^2) < 1$ for mixed states
- **Theorem:** an operator ρ is a density operator for some system iff

- 1. $Tr(\rho) = 1$
- 2. ρ is a positive operator
- Theorem: ensembles $\{|\psi\rangle\}$ and $\{|\phi_i\rangle\}$ generate the same density operator iff

$$|\psi_i\rangle = \sum_j U_{ij} |\phi_j\rangle$$

where U is a unitary operator

2 Noise and Error Correction

2.1 Markov Processes and Classical Noise

- Consider the classical bit-flip process; the environment contains magnetic fields which can cause a bit to 'flip' with probability p
- To figure out p, we need a model both for the distribution of magnetic fields in the environment, and one for how they interact with bits
- This is a common thing: need a model for both the environment and for the systemenvironment interaction
- To be concrete, suppose p_0 and p_1 are the initial probabilities for the bit to be a 0 and a 1, and q_0 and q_1 are the probabilities after flipping
- Denote the initial state of the bit as A and the final state as B; then

$$\mathbb{P}(B=b) = \sum_{a} \mathbb{P}(B=b \mid A=a) \mathbb{P}(A=a)$$

• The probabilities $\mathbb{P}(B=b \mid A=a)$ are called *transition probabilities*; the above equation can also be written

$$\begin{pmatrix} q_0 \\ q_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1-p & p \\ p & 1-p \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p_0 \\ p_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- If some further noise occurs after the initial bit-flip, we can model this as being **independent** of the first flip this is called *Markovicity*, and we can model the total noise process as a *Markov process*
- For a single-state process, we therefore have that output probabilities \mathbf{q} are related to input probabilities \mathbf{p} by

$$\mathbf{q} = E\mathbf{p} \tag{2.1}$$

where E is a matrix of transition probabilities called the *evolution matrix*

- This means the final state of the system is **linearly** related to the initial state
- We need $E\mathbf{p}$ to be a valid probability distribution, so this gives us some conditions on E:
 - All entries of E are non-negative, so E is positive
 - All columns of E sum to 1, called *completeness*
- This is all classical, but there are quantum analogues

2.2 Quantum Operations

- Not to be confused with operators!!
- Similar to (2.1) for evolution of classical states, quantum states transform as

$$\rho' = \mathcal{E}(\rho) \tag{2.2}$$

where \mathcal{E} is called a quantum operation

• Simple examples: for time-evolution governed by U, $\mathcal{E}(\rho) = U\rho U^{\dagger}$, for measurements $\mathcal{E}_m(\rho) = M_m \rho M_m^{\dagger}$

2.2.1 Closed and Open Systems

- Closed quantum systems can be thought of as being isolated, and not interacting with an environment; evolution is governed by a unitary operation
- Open systems are thought of as arising from an interaction between a system of interest and an environment, together forming a closed system
- For an open system, this means the final state $\mathcal{E}(\rho)$ may not be unitarily related to the initial state
- Suppose the system-environment is initially in $\rho \otimes \rho_{\text{env}}$; then, the operation for evolving ρ alone is found by taking a partial trace:

$$\mathcal{E}(\rho) = \text{Tr}_{\text{env}} \left[U(\rho \otimes \rho_{\text{env}}) U^{\dagger} \right]$$
 (2.3)

2.2.2 Operator-Sum Representation

- Motivation: restate (2.3) in terms of operators on the principal Hilbert space only
- Suppose $|e_k\rangle$ is an orthonormal basis for \mathcal{H}_{env} , and initially $\rho_{\text{env}} = |e_0\rangle \langle e_0|$
- Then:

$$\mathcal{E}(\rho) = \sum_{k} \langle e_k | U \left[\rho \otimes |e_0\rangle \langle e_0| \right] U^{\dagger} |e_k\rangle = \sum_{k} E_k \rho E_k^{\dagger}$$
 (2.4)

where $E_k = \langle e_K | U | e_0 \rangle$ are operators on \mathcal{H} only

- This defines the operator-sum representation of \mathcal{E} , and $\{E_k\}$ are the operation elements of \mathcal{E}
- Since $Tr(\mathcal{E}(\rho)) = 1$, it follows that

$$\sum_{k} E_k^{\dagger} E_k = 1$$

which is satisfied by trace-preserving operation

- This is **very** useful, since we can talk about the operation without referring to properties of the environment
- This representation is **not** unique
- Theorem: (Unitary Freedom) Suppose $\{E_1, \ldots, E_m\}$ and $\{F_1, \ldots, F_n\}$ are operation elements of operations \mathcal{E} and \mathcal{F} respectively. Append zero operators to the shorter list so m = n. Then, $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{F}$ iff $E_i = \sum_j u_{ij} F_j$ where u is a $m \times m$ unitary matrix

2.2.3 Axiomatisation and Properties

- Quantum operations can be defined axiomatically
- A quantum operation \mathcal{E} is a map from the set of density operators on an input space \mathcal{H}_1 to an output \mathcal{H}_2 , satisfying the following properties:
 - 1. $\operatorname{Tr}(\mathcal{E}(\rho))$ is the probability the process \mathcal{E} occurs when ρ is the initial state. This means $0 \leq \operatorname{Tr}(\mathcal{E}(\rho)) \leq 1 \ \forall \rho$
 - 2. \mathcal{E} is convex-linear; that is, for real numbers/probabilities $\{p_i\}$

$$\mathcal{E}\left(\sum_{i} p_{i} \rho_{i}\right) = \sum_{i} p_{i} \mathcal{E}(\rho_{i}) \tag{2.5}$$

- 3. \mathcal{E} is completely positive; so for any positive operator A, $\mathcal{E}(A)$ must also be positive. More generally, if we introduce auxillary system R, $(\mathcal{I} \otimes \mathcal{E})(A)$ is positive for any positive A on combined system $R \otimes \mathcal{H}_1$
- We also have the following theorem:
- Theorem: \mathcal{E} satisfies the above axioms iff

$$\mathcal{E}(\rho) = \sum_{i} E_{i} \rho E_{i}^{\dagger} \tag{2.6}$$

for some set of operators $\{E_i\}$ mapping $\mathcal{H}_1 \to \mathcal{H}_2$, and $\sum_i E_i^{\dagger} E_i \leq 1$

2.3 Error Correction

2.3.1 Examples

- Two main examples: bit-flip correction and Shor code
- Bit-flip:
 - Suppose Alice sends qubit $|\psi\rangle = a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle$ to Bob across a noisy channel, which has probability p of 'flipping' each qubit; that is

$$|0\rangle \mapsto |1\rangle$$
 and $|1\rangle \mapsto |0\rangle$

- Equivalently, the channel has probability p to send $X | \psi \rangle$
- However, we can protect against this noise by sending three qubits instead, encoding as

$$|0\rangle \to |0_L\rangle = |000\rangle |1\rangle \to |1_L\rangle = |111\rangle$$
(2.7)

- Bob then receives the three-qubit state, with some qubits possibly flipped
- He then has to perform *error-detection/syndrome diagnosis*: a measurement to detect if an error occurred and if so, on which qubit it occurred to
- The relevant 4 projectors for this measurement are:

$$P_{0} = |000\rangle \langle 000| + |111\rangle \langle 111| \qquad \text{(no error)}$$

$$P_{1} = |100\rangle \langle 100| + |011\rangle \langle 011| \qquad \text{(qubit 1 flipped)}$$

$$P_{2} = |010\rangle \langle 010| + |101\rangle \langle 101| \qquad \text{(qubit 2 flipped)}$$

$$P_{3} = |001\rangle \langle 001| + |110\rangle \langle 110| \qquad \text{(qubit 3 flipped)}$$

$$(2.8)$$

- Note that the outcome of the relevant measurements is 1 if the corresponding error condition is met, and the measurement also does not change the state of the three qubits
- Upon getting our measurement result, we just apply X to the relevant qubit if an error occurred to get back our original state
- This error-correction procedure works perfectly so long as one or fewer errors occur: this happens with probability $(1-p)^3+3p(1-p)^2=1-3p^2+2p^3$, and the probability we cannot correct the error is therefore $3p^2-2p^3$
- For p < 1/2 we therefore have increased reliability
- In the operation language above, the action of the bit-flip channel can be written

$$\mathcal{E}(\rho) = (1 - p)\rho + pX\rho X \tag{2.9}$$

- Before looking at the Shor code, we note another important basic error: the phase-flip
- This is similar to the bit-flip, except the relative phase of $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ are flipped; that is, with probability p we have

$$|\psi\rangle = a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle \mapsto a|0\rangle - b|1\rangle$$
 (2.10)

- This is easy to correct for: we just move to the $|\pm\rangle$ basis and perform the same procedure as in the bit-flip case
- The action of the phase-flip channel is:

$$\mathcal{E}(\rho) = (1 - p)\rho + pZ\rho Z \tag{2.11}$$

• The Shor code:

- The initial motivation is to correct for both phase and bit-flips
- To do this, we first encode our qubit via the phase-flip machinery: $|0\rangle \rightarrow |+++\rangle$ and $|1\rangle \rightarrow |---\rangle$
- Then, we encode each of our new three qubits via the bit-flip code: $|+\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|000\rangle + |111\rangle)$ and $|-\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|000\rangle |111\rangle)$
- The final result is a nine qubit code, with logical qubits

$$|0\rangle \to |0_L\rangle = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} (|000\rangle + |111\rangle) (|000\rangle + |111\rangle) (|000\rangle + |111\rangle) |1\rangle \to |1_L\rangle = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} (|000\rangle - |111\rangle) (|000\rangle - |111\rangle) (|000\rangle - |111\rangle)$$
(2.12)

- This hierarchical way of encoding qubits is called *concatenation*
- It turns out that the Shor code can correct **arbitrary** single-qubit errors
- To see why, suppose the encoded qubit is initially $|\psi\rangle = \alpha |0_L\rangle + \beta |1_L\rangle$, and consider the operator-sum representation of an arbitrary error \mathcal{E} with elements $\{E_i\}$
- After the noise acts, the state is now

$$\mathcal{E}(|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|) = \sum_{i} E_{i} |\psi\rangle\langle\psi| E_{i}^{\dagger}$$

- Let's focus on the single term $E_i |\psi\rangle\langle\psi| E_i^{\dagger}$

- Any single-qubit operator is a 2×2 Hermitian matrix, so as an operator on qubit 1 only, it can be expanded in the basis of Hermitian matrices $\{I, X, Z, Y = iXZ\}$:

$$E_i = e_{i0}I + e_{i1}X_1 + e_{i2}Z_2 + e_{i3}X_1Z_1 (2.13)$$

- Therefore, the unnormalised state $E_i | \psi \rangle$ is a superposition of $| \psi \rangle$, $X_1 | \psi \rangle$, $Z_1 | \psi \rangle$, $X_1 Z_1 | \psi \rangle$
- Measuring the error syndrome collapses this superposition into one of the 4 states,
 and thus we can reverse the error by performing the appropriate inversion
- The same is true for all other errors, so error correction results in $|\psi\rangle$ being recovered, even though the first qubit error was arbitrary
- This is **very** powerful: we can correct a continuous spectrum of errors by just correcting the bit-flip, phase-flip, and combined bit/phase-flip

2.3.2 Generalities

- General procedure: states $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ encoded by unitary operation into a quantum error-correcting code, which is a subspace $\mathcal{H}_{\text{code}}$ of a larger Hilbert space
- Often refer to the projector into the code space P_{code} or P_c
- After encoding, the state is subjected to noise, a *syndrome measurement* is performed to diagnose what type of error occurred, and then a *recovery operation* is performed to obtain the original state
- Different errors correspond to **orthogonal** subspaces of the full Hilbert space so they can be distinguished
- In the general theory, we make no assumptions about a two-stage detection-recovery method: just assume noise is given by operation $\mathcal E$ and error-correction done by operation $\mathcal R$
- For error-correction to be successful, we require that for any state ρ supported in $\mathcal{H}_{\text{code}}$:

$$(\mathcal{R} \circ \mathcal{E})(\rho) \propto \rho \tag{2.14}$$

- The proportionality rather than equals means that we include non-trace-preserving operations in ${\mathcal E}$
- Theorem: (Quantum Error-Correction Conditions) Let $\mathcal{H}_{\text{code}}$ be a quantum code, and P_c be the projector onto it. Suppose \mathcal{E} is a quantum operation with elements $\{E_i\}$; an error-correction operation \mathcal{R} correcting \mathcal{E} on $\mathcal{H}_{\text{code}}$ exists iff

$$P_c E_i^{\dagger} E_j P_c = \alpha_{ij} P_c \tag{2.15}$$

where α is a complex Hermitian matrix

- The set $\{E_i\}$ are called the *errors*, and if \mathcal{R} exists we say that they are a *correctable set* of errors
- In general, we don't know the form of the noise, but we can adapt the quantum error correction conditions to find a whole class of noises which a code \mathcal{H}_c and correction operation \mathcal{R} can correct for
- Theorem: Suppose \mathcal{H}_c is a quantum code, and \mathcal{R} is the full error-correction operation correcting \mathcal{E} with elements $\{E_i\}$. Then, \mathcal{R} also corrects for \mathcal{F} with elements $\{F_j\} = \{\sum_i m_{ji} E_i\}$ for complex matrix m on \mathcal{H}_c

- This theorem means we can talk about a class of errors $\{E_i\}$ which are *correctable* rather than a class of error processes \mathcal{E}
- This is useful: if (for example) we can find a process satisfying

$$P_c \sigma_i^1 \sigma_j^1 P_c = \alpha_{ij} P_c$$

for the Pauli matrices, then we can correct for arbitrary single-qubit errors since any single qubit operation can be described by having operation elements given by the Pauli matrices

• The Shor code can do this!

2.4 Quantum Erasure

- One class of error which is particularly relevant to Harlow is quantum erasure correction
- This is defined as the channel 'erasing' a subsystem of the transmitted state, i.e. losing access to a **known** subsystem
- To formalise this, suppose $\mathcal{H}_{\text{code}} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ where \mathcal{H} has a tensor product structure $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_{\overline{A}}$
- Then, the operation

$$\mathcal{E}(\rho) = \text{Tr}_{\overline{A}}(\rho) \tag{2.16}$$

'erases' the \overline{A} subsystem with certainty

• If we set $\{|a\rangle\}$ and $\{|\overline{a}\rangle\}$ to be orthonormal bases of \mathcal{H}_A and $\mathcal{H}_{\overline{A}}$ respectively, we can rewrite this explicitly as

$$\mathcal{E}(\rho) = \sum_{\overline{a}} \langle \overline{a} | \rho | \overline{a} \rangle \tag{2.17}$$

from which we can read off operation elements

$$E_{\overline{a}} = I_A \otimes \langle \overline{a} | = \sum_{a} |a\rangle \langle a| \otimes \langle \overline{a} |$$
 (2.18)

• We now want to see what the error correction conditions (2.15) reduce to; the first step to do this is calculating:

$$E_{\overline{a}}^{\dagger} E_{\overline{b}} = I_A \otimes |\overline{a}\rangle \langle \overline{b}| \tag{2.19}$$

• (2.15) therefore reduces to

$$P_{\text{code}} | \overline{a} \rangle \langle \overline{b} | P_{\text{code}} = \alpha_{\overline{a}\overline{b}} P_{\text{code}}$$
 (2.20)

or, more simply

$$P_{\text{code}} | \overline{a} \rangle \langle \overline{b} | P_{\text{code}} \propto P_{\text{code}}$$
 (2.21)

• This has a very relevant implication to Harlow: any operator $X_{\overline{A}}$ on $\mathcal{H}_{\overline{A}}$ can be decomposed as $X_{\overline{A}} = \sum_{\overline{a},\overline{b}} x_{\overline{a},\overline{b}} |\overline{a}\rangle \langle \overline{b}|$, so if (2.21) holds, then for any such $X_{\overline{A}}$ we must have

$$P_{\text{code}}X_{\overline{A}}P_{\text{code}} \propto P_{\text{code}}$$
 (2.22)

• This is exactly (3.3) of Harlow, establishing its necessity for the correctability of erasure of \overline{A}

2.5 Harlow Toy Model

• Suppose Alice wishes to send the **qutrit**

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{2} a_i |i\rangle$$

to Bob

- Suppose also that the channel erases the third qubit with probability p
- An encoding which can protect for this is $\mathcal{H}_{\text{code}} = \text{Span}\{|0_L\rangle, |1_L\rangle, |2_L\rangle\}$, where

$$|0_L\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(|000\rangle + |111\rangle + |222\rangle)$$

$$|1_L\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(|012\rangle + |120\rangle + |201\rangle)$$

$$|2_L\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(|021\rangle + |102\rangle + |210\rangle)$$

- Suppose an erasure occurs, so Bob only has access to the first two qubits; he can indeed recover the original state
- Define a unitary operator on the first two qubits via $U_{12} = |00\rangle \langle 00| + |01\rangle \langle 11| + |02\rangle \langle 22| + |12\rangle \langle 01| + |10\rangle \langle 12| + |11\rangle \langle 20| + |21\rangle \langle 02| + |22\rangle \langle 10| + |20\rangle \langle 21|$ i.e. U_{12} does nothing to $|00\rangle$, and permutes the remaining 8 basis states as

$$|11\rangle \rightarrow |01\rangle \rightarrow |12\rangle \rightarrow |10\rangle \rightarrow |22\rangle \rightarrow |02\rangle \rightarrow |21\rangle \rightarrow |20\rangle \rightarrow |11\rangle$$

• A bit of computation then shows that

$$(U_{12} \otimes I_3) |i_L\rangle = |i\rangle \otimes \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} (|00\rangle + |11\rangle + |22\rangle)$$

• Clearly this explicitly shows state recovery is possible, since

$$(U_{12} \otimes I_3) |\psi_L\rangle = |\psi\rangle \otimes \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} (|00\rangle + |11\rangle + |22\rangle)$$

- We can equivalently frame the correctability in terms of operators
- Say O acts on the original Hilbert space as

$$O|i\rangle = \sum_{j} (O)_{ji} |j\rangle$$

• We can always find a logical operator O_L acting on \mathcal{H}_{code} which has the same action as O; that is

$$O_L |i_L\rangle = \sum_j (O)_{ji} |j_L\rangle$$

• For our scenario, it's easy enough to just set

$$O_{12} = U_{12}^{\dagger} O U_{12}$$

where O acts on the first qubit only; then

$$O_{12}\left|i_{L}\right\rangle =\sum_{j}(O)_{ji}\left|j_{L}\right\rangle$$

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• O_{12} is in some sense an O_L which has support only on the firs two qubits

2.6 Harlow 3.1

- Before relating the toy model to Harlow 3.1, we need the concepts of the *Schmidt decomposition* and *purifications*
- Suppose $|\psi\rangle$ is a pure state of composite system AB, so $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$; then we can choose orthonormal bases $\{|i_A\rangle\}$ and $\{|i_B\rangle\}$ such that

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i} \lambda_{i} |i_{A}\rangle |i_{B}\rangle \tag{2.23}$$

where $\sum_{i} \lambda_{i}^{2} = 1$ are the Schmidt coefficients

- For purification, suppose we have a state ρ_A of system A
- We can introduce an ancillary system R and define a pure state $|AR\rangle$ on composite system AR such that $\rho_A = \text{Tr}_R(|AR\rangle \langle AR|)$; $|AR\rangle$ is a purification of ρ_A
- Harlow (3.1) states that, if $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_{\overline{A}}$ and $\mathcal{H}_{\text{code}} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ has orthonormal basis $\{|i_L\rangle\}$, we can decompose $\mathcal{H}_A = (\mathcal{H}_{A_1} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{A_2}) \oplus \mathcal{H}_{A_3}$ and erasure of \overline{A} is correctable if there exists a unitary transformation U_A on \mathcal{H}_A and a state $|\chi\rangle_{A_2\overline{A}} \in \mathcal{H}_{A_2\overline{A}}$ such that

$$|i_L\rangle = U_A(|i\rangle_{A_1} \otimes |\chi\rangle_{A_2\overline{A}})$$
 (2.24)

where $|i\rangle_{A_1}$ is an o.n. basis for \mathcal{H}_{A_1}

• To interpret this, we essentially take A_1 to be the initial system to be protected preencoding (so in the toy model, $\mathcal{H}_{A_1} = \mathcal{H}_3$)

3 Quantum Secret Sharing

- Reference: https://arxiv.org/pdf/quant-ph/9901025.pdf#page=5&zoom=100,0,0
- Suppose we want to share a secret amongst n people such that no single person has any knowledge of the secret, but any k of them together can reconstruct the secret perfectly we also require that k-1 or fewer of them together have **no** information about the secret
- This is called a (k, n) threshold scheme in the classical case
- In the quantum case, the secret is an arbitrary unknown quantum state
- We define a (k, n) quantum threshold scheme (with $k \leq n$) as a method which encodes an arbitrary secret (given but not necessarily explicitly known) quantum state into n shares such that
 - 1. From k or more shares, the state can be perfectly reconstructed
 - 2. From k-1 or fewer shares, no information at all can be deduced about the secret state
- Formally, this means that the reduced density matrix of k-1 shared (with the remaining n-k+1 shares traced out) is independent of the value of the secret
- Harlow's toy model can be viewed as a (2,3) quantum threshold code: the secret is an arbitrary qutrit which is encoded into three qutrits, and each qutrit is taken as a share as

$$\alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle + \gamma |2\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \left[\alpha (|000\rangle + |111\rangle + |222\rangle) + \beta (|012\rangle + |120\rangle + |201\rangle) + \gamma (|021\rangle + |102\rangle + |210\rangle) \right]$$

$$(3.1)$$

- From any single share, we cannot deduce any info about the secret state since each individual qutrit is always maximally mixed
- Given two shares though, we can simply add the value of the first share to the second, then the second to the first (all mod 3) (or alternatively just apply U_{ij}), which gives us the state

$$(\alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle + \gamma |2\rangle) \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} (|00\rangle + |12\rangle + |21\rangle) \tag{3.2}$$

- This is slightly different to Harlow's version, which has $|\chi\rangle \propto |00\rangle + |11\rangle + |22\rangle$ vs $|\chi\rangle \propto |00\rangle + |12\rangle + |21\rangle$
- What they both have in common though is non-zero entanglement; that is, consider the two density matrices for the (2,3) systems in both cases:

$$\rho_{23}^{1} = \frac{1}{3} (|00\rangle \langle 00| + |12\rangle \langle 12| + |21\rangle \langle 21| + |00\rangle \langle 12| + |12\rangle \langle 00| + |00\rangle \langle 21| + |21\rangle \langle 00| + |12\rangle \langle 21| + |21\rangle \langle 12|)
+ |12\rangle \langle 21| + |21\rangle \langle 12|)
\rho_{23}^{2} = \frac{1}{3} (|00\rangle \langle 00| + |11\rangle \langle 11| + |22\rangle \langle 22| + |00\rangle \langle 11| + |11\rangle \langle 00| + |00\rangle \langle 22| + |22\rangle \langle 00| + |11\rangle \langle 22| + |22\rangle \langle 11|)$$
(3.3)

• Tracing out the 2 subsystem yields

$$\rho_3^1 = \frac{1}{3} (|0\rangle \langle 0| + |1\rangle \langle 1| + |2\rangle \langle 2|)$$

$$\rho_3^2 = \frac{1}{3} (|0\rangle \langle 0| + |1\rangle \langle 1| + |2\rangle \langle 2|)$$
(3.4)

and so both have von Neumann entropy

$$S(\rho_3) = \log 3 \tag{3.5}$$

- This non-zero entanglement of $|\chi\rangle$ is necessary for the code to function robustly
- Say that instead $|\chi\rangle$ was a product state; then the encoding could be written as

$$|\psi_L\rangle = U_{12}(|\psi\rangle_1 \otimes |\chi\rangle_2 \otimes |\tilde{\chi}\rangle_3) = U_{12}(|\psi\rangle_1 \otimes |\chi\rangle_2) \otimes |\tilde{\chi}\rangle_3 \tag{3.6}$$

• This means that for any encoded state $|\psi_L\rangle$, the third qutrit would just be in the pure state $|\tilde{\chi}\rangle_3$, so would give no additional information about the encoded state $|\psi_L\rangle$ which the second qutrit would not have on its own