

# Homework 8 Solutions (Concise)

C191A: Introduction to Quantum Computing, Fall 2025

Xiaoyang Zheng

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## 1 The Repetition Code and Longitudinal Relaxation

### 1.1

We know that  $p(t) = 1 - e^{-\gamma t} \approx \gamma t$  when  $t$  is small. If we want  $p(t) = 0.01$ , then we get  $\gamma t = 0.01$ , so  $t = 0.01/\gamma$ , which means  $t = 0.01T_1$ .

### 1.2

The error probability is  $P_{\text{err}} = P(\text{at least 1 flip}) = 1 - P(\text{no flips}) = 1 - (1 - p(t))^3$ . Because  $p(t) \approx \gamma t$ , we can write  $P_{\text{err}} \approx 1 - (1 - \gamma t)^3 \approx 1 - (1 - 3\gamma t) = 3\gamma t$ . Setting  $P_{\text{err}} = 0.01$  gives us  $3\gamma t = 0.01$ , so  $t = \frac{0.01}{3\gamma} = \frac{0.01}{3}T_1$ .

### 1.3

The logical error probability is  $P_L = P(2 \text{ flips}) + P(3 \text{ flips}) = \binom{3}{2}p^2(1 - p) + p^3$ , where we let  $p = p(t)$ . Using the approximation  $p \approx \gamma t$ , we get  $P_L \approx 3(\gamma t)^2(1 - \gamma t) + (\gamma t)^3 \approx 3(\gamma t)^2$ . If we set  $P_L = 0.01$ , then  $3(\gamma t)^2 = 0.01$ , which gives  $\gamma t = \sqrt{0.01/3} = 0.1/\sqrt{3}$ . Therefore,  $t = \frac{0.1}{\sqrt{3}\gamma} \approx 0.0577T_1$ .

### 1.4

We need to set  $p = P_L$ , which means  $p = 3p^2 - 2p^3$ . If  $p \neq 0$ , we can divide both sides by  $p$  to get  $1 = 3p - 2p^2$ , or  $2p^2 - 3p + 1 = 0$ . This factors as  $(2p - 1)(p - 1) = 0$ , so  $p = 1$  (trivial solution) or  $p = 1/2$ . Using  $p(t) = 1/2$ , we have  $1 - e^{-\gamma t} = 1/2$ , which gives  $e^{-\gamma t} = 1/2$ . Taking the natural logarithm:  $-\gamma t = -\ln(2)$ , so  $t = \frac{\ln(2)}{\gamma} = \ln(2)T_1$ .

### 1.5

For the physical qubit, the no-flip probability is  $P_S(t) = e^{-\gamma t}$ . By definition,  $P_S(T_1) = 1/e$ . For the logical qubit, the no-flip probability is  $P_L(t) = 1 - (3p^2 - 2p^3)$  where  $p = 1 - e^{-\gamma t}$ . When  $t$  is small:  $P_S(t) \approx 1 - \gamma t$  (decays proportional to  $t$ ).  $P_L(t) \approx 1 - 3(\gamma t)^2$  (decays proportional to  $t^2$ ). Since  $3(\gamma t)^2 \ll \gamma t$  for small  $t$ , we can see that  $P_L(t)$  decays much more

slowly than  $P_S(t)$ . This means that  $T_{1,L}$  (the time when  $P_L(t)$  reaches  $1/e$ ) is **longer** than  $T_1$ .

## 2 Pauli Commutation Relations

We use this rule: If there's an even number of anti-commuting (AC) pairs, then the operators commute. If there's an odd number of AC pairs, they anti-commute.

### 2.1 $X_1, Y_1$

On qubit 1, we have AC. Total: 1 (Odd), so they **Anti-commute**.

### 2.2 $Z_1 Z_2, Y_1 Y_2$

On Q1 we have AC, on Q2 we have AC. Total: 2 (Even), so they **Commute**.

### 2.3 $Z_1 X_3 Y_4, Y_1 Z_2 Y_4$

Q1 (AC), Q2 (C), Q3 (C), Q4 (C). Total: 1 (Odd), so they **Anti-commute**.

### 2.4 $Z_1 \dots Y_8, X_1 \dots X_8$

Q1(AC), Q2(C), Q3(AC), Q4(C), Q5(C), Q6(C), Q7(AC), Q8(AC). Total: 4 (Even), so they **Commute**.

## 3 9-qubit Shor code

### 3.1

The distance is  $d = \min(\text{weight}(L))$  for any logical operator  $L$ . Let's consider  $Z_L = Z_1 Z_4 Z_7$ . We need to check if  $[Z_L, S_i] = 0$  for all stabilizers  $S_i$ :

- $[Z_L, Z\text{-stabs}] = 0$  (all  $Z$  operators commute).
- $[Z_L, S_7 = X_1 \dots X_6] = 0$  (AC on  $X_1, X_4$  means 2 ACs, so they commute).
- $[Z_L, S_8 = X_4 \dots X_9] = 0$  (AC on  $X_4, X_7$  means 2 ACs, so they commute).

Yes, so  $Z_L$  is a logical operator. Since  $\text{weight}(Z_L) = 3$ , we have  $d \leq 3$ . The code can correct  $t = 1$  error, which means  $d \geq 2t + 1 = 3$ . Therefore,  $d = 3$ . Also,  $Z_1 Z_4 Z_7 |0\rangle_L \rightarrow C \cdot (|0\rangle_a - |1\rangle_a)(|0\rangle_b - |1\rangle_b)(|0\rangle_c - |1\rangle_c) = |1\rangle_L$ .

### 3.2

The syndrome has  $s_i = 1$  if the error anti-commutes with  $S_i$ . The order is  $(S_1 \dots S_6, S_7, S_8)$ . The errors  $Z_1, Z_2, Z_3$  all commute with  $S_1 \dots S_6$  (because they're all Z-type).

- $Z_1$ : anti-commutes with  $S_7$  (on  $X_1$ ), but commutes with  $S_8$ .
- $Z_2$ : anti-commutes with  $S_7$  (on  $X_2$ ), but commutes with  $S_8$ .

- $Z_3$ : anti-commutes with  $S_7$  (on  $X_3$ ), but commutes with  $S_8$ .

So all three errors  $Z_1, Z_2, Z_3$  give the same syndrome: **00000010**.

### 3.3

**Effect:** The errors  $Z_1, Z_2, Z_3$  all act on block 1, which is  $(|000\rangle + |111\rangle)$ . Each acts as  $Z$ , mapping it to  $(|000\rangle - |111\rangle)$ . So they have the same effect on  $|\psi_L\rangle$ . **Correction:** The syndrome '00000010' tells us to apply correction  $C = Z_1$ .

- If the error is  $E = Z_1$ , then  $CE = Z_1Z_1 = I$ . (This corrects the error)
- If the error is  $E = Z_2$ , then  $CE = Z_1Z_2 = S_1$ . (This is correct because  $S_1$  is a stabilizer)
- If the error is  $E = Z_3$ , then  $CE = Z_1Z_3 = (Z_1Z_2)(Z_2Z_3) = S_1S_2$ . (This is correct because  $S_1S_2$  is also a stabilizer)

This phenomenon is called "degeneracy": multiple different errors can map to the same syndrome.

## 4 7-qubit Steane code

The syndrome order is:  $(S_x^{(1)}, S_x^{(2)}, S_x^{(3)}, S_z^{(1)}, S_z^{(2)}, S_z^{(3)})$ .

### 4.1 Syndromes for $Z_i$

For  $Z_i$  errors, we have  $s_z^{(k)} = 0$ . We need to check if they anti-commute with  $S_x^{(j)}$ .

Error	Syndrome
$Z_1$	<b>100000</b>
$Z_2$	<b>110000</b>
$Z_3$	<b>111000</b>
$Z_4$	<b>101000</b>
$Z_5$	<b>010000</b>
$Z_6$	<b>011000</b>
$Z_7$	<b>001000</b>

### 4.2 Syndromes for $X_i$

For  $X_i$  errors, we have  $s_x^{(j)} = 0$ . We need to check if they anti-commute with  $S_z^{(k)}$ .

Error	Syndrome
$X_1$	<b>000100</b>
$X_2$	<b>000110</b>
$X_3$	<b>000111</b>
$X_4$	<b>000101</b>
$X_5$	<b>000010</b>
$X_6$	<b>000011</b>
$X_7$	<b>000001</b>

### 4.3

Let's define  $S = \{Z_i^a X_j^b \mid a, b \in \{0, 1\}, i, j \in [1, 7]\}$ .

- When  $a = 0, b = 0$ , we get  $I$ , which is 1 operator.
- When  $a = 1, b = 0$ , we get  $Z_i$ , which gives us 7 operators.
- When  $a = 0, b = 1$ , we get  $X_j$ , which gives us 7 operators.
- When  $a = 1, b = 1$ , we get  $Z_i X_j$ , which gives us  $7 \times 7 = 49$  operators.

The total number is  $1 + 7 + 7 + 49 = \mathbf{64}$ .

### 4.4

We have  $n = 7$  qubits and  $k = 1$  logical qubit, which means  $n - k = 6$  stabilizers. The number of syndromes is  $2^{n-k} = 2^6 = \mathbf{64}$ .

### 4.5

I think the question has a typo. The set  $Z_i^a X_j^b$  has 64 operators, which is not the same as the correctable set (must be  $\leq 64$ ). Let me assume the question meant single-qubit errors:  $E_{1Q} = \{Z_i^a X_i^b \mid a, b \in \{0, 1\}, i \in [1, 7]\}$ . This set is just  $\{I, X_i, Z_i, Y_i\}$  and has  $1 + 7 + 7 + 7 = 22$  errors. The Steane code is  $[[7, 1, 3]]$ , which means  $d = 3$  and  $t = 1$ . So it can correct all single-qubit errors.

- $S(I) = \text{'000000'}$
- $S(X_i)$  gives 7 unique non-zero syndromes (from part 4.2)
- $S(Z_i)$  gives 7 unique non-zero syndromes (from part 4.1)
- $S(Y_i) = S(X_i) + S(Z_i)$  gives 7 unique non-zero syndromes (for example,  $S(Y_1) = \text{'100100'}$ )

All 22 errors in  $E_{1Q}$  map to 22 unique syndromes. Because the code is non-degenerate, this one-to-one mapping means all of them can be corrected. "No more" means we cannot correct all weight-2 errors. For example,  $S(X_1 X_5) = S(X_1) + S(X_5) = \text{'000100'} + \text{'000010'} = \text{'000110'}$ . But this is the same as  $S(X_2)$ . The correction algorithm will see syndrome '000110' and apply  $X_2$ . If the actual error was  $X_1 X_5$ , then applying  $X_2$  gives  $X_2 X_1 X_5$ , which is a logical error. So the correction fails.

*Note: This document was laid out by Gemini 2.5 based on hand-written homework.*