Basics of Quantum Error Correction

Part 2

Stabilizers and CSS codes

John Watrous

Pauli operations

$$\mathbb{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\mathfrak{i} \\ \mathfrak{i} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Anti-commutation relations:

$$XY = -YX$$
 $XZ = -ZX$ $YZ = -ZY$

Multiplication rules:

$$XY = iZ$$
 $YZ = iX$ $ZX = iY$ $XX = YY = ZZ = 1$

An n-qubit Pauli operation is the n-fold tensor product of Pauli matrices. Its weight is the number of non-identity Pauli matrices in the tensor product.

Pauli operations as generators

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Suppose that P_1, \ldots, P_r are n-qubit Pauli operations.

The set $\frac{\text{generated}}{\text{generated}}$ by P_1, \dots, P_r includes all matrices that can be obtained from P_1, \dots, P_r by multiplication (taking any number of each operation and in any order).

Notation: $\langle P_1, \ldots, P_r \rangle$

Example 1

$$\langle X,Y,Z\rangle = \left\{\alpha P \ : \ \alpha \in \{1,i,-1,-i\}, \ P \in \{1,X,Y,Z\}\right\} \tag{16 elements}$$

Example 2

$$\langle X, Z \rangle = \{1, X, Z, XZ, -1, -X, -Z, -XZ\}$$
 (8 elements)

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Example 2

$$(X, Z) = \{1, X, Z, XZ, -1, -X, -Z, -XZ\}$$
 (8 elements)

Example 3

$$\langle X \otimes X, Z \otimes Z \rangle = \big\{ \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathbb{1}, \ X \otimes X, \ -Y \otimes Y, \ Z \otimes Z \big\} \qquad \text{(4 elements)}$$

Pauli observables

Pauli matrices describe unitary operations — but they also describe measurements.

More precisely, we can associate each Pauli matrix with a projective measurement defined by its eigenvectors.

$$X = |+\rangle\langle +|-|-\rangle\langle -| \qquad Y = |+i\rangle\langle +i|-|-i\rangle\langle -i| \qquad Z = |0\rangle\langle 0|-|1\rangle\langle 1|$$

For example, an X measurement is a measurement with respect to the basis $\{|+\rangle, |-\rangle\}$. Equivalently it is the measurement described by the set $\{|+\rangle\langle+|, |-\rangle\langle-|\}$.

We can perform this measurement non-destructively using *phase estimation*.



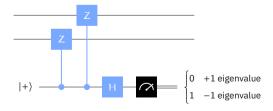
Pauli observables

This extends naturally to n-qubit Pauli operations. For example, consider $Z \otimes Z$.

$$Z \otimes Z = (|0\rangle\langle 0| - |1\rangle\langle 1|) \otimes (|0\rangle\langle 0| - |1\rangle\langle 1|)$$
$$= (|00\rangle\langle 00| + |11\rangle\langle 11|) - (|01\rangle\langle 01| + |10\rangle\langle 10|)$$

The associated measurement is the two-outcome projective measurement described by the set $\{|00\rangle\langle00|+|11\rangle\langle11|,|01\rangle\langle01|+|10\rangle\langle10|\}$.

Again we can perform this measurement non-destructively using phase estimation.



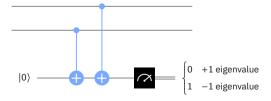
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Repetition code revisited

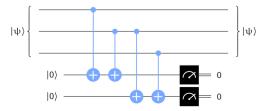
The 3-bit repetition code encodes qubit states as follows:

$$\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle \mapsto \alpha|000\rangle + \beta|111\rangle = |\psi\rangle$$

To check that the 3-qubit state $|\psi\rangle$ is a valid encoding of a qubit, it suffices to check these two equations:

$$(Z \otimes Z \otimes 1)|\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$$

$$(\mathbb{1} \otimes Z \otimes Z)|\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$$



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To check that the 3-qubit state $|\psi\rangle$ is a valid encoding of a qubit, it suffices to check these two equations:

$$(Z \otimes Z \otimes 1)|\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$$
$$(1 \otimes Z \otimes Z)|\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$$

The 3-qubit Pauli operations $Z \otimes Z \otimes \mathbb{1}$ and $\mathbb{1} \otimes Z \otimes Z$ are stabilizer generators for this code. The stabilizer for the code is the set generated by the stabilizer generators.

$$\left\langle \mathsf{Z} \otimes \mathsf{Z} \otimes \mathbb{1}, \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathsf{Z} \otimes \mathsf{Z} \right\rangle = \left\{ \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathbb{1}, \, \mathsf{Z} \otimes \mathsf{Z} \otimes \mathbb{1}, \, \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathsf{Z} \otimes \mathsf{Z}, \, \mathsf{Z} \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathsf{Z} \right\}$$

Bit-flip detection

$$\begin{split} \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle \mapsto \alpha|000\rangle + \beta|111\rangle &= |\psi\rangle \\ (Z \otimes Z \otimes 1)|\psi\rangle &= |\psi\rangle \\ (1 \otimes Z \otimes Z)|\psi\rangle &= |\psi\rangle \end{split}$$

Suppose a bit-flip error occurs on the leftmost qubit.

$$|\psi\rangle \, \mapsto \, (X \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathbb{1}) |\psi\rangle$$

By treating the stabilizer generators as observables, we can detect this error.

$$\begin{split} (Z \otimes Z \otimes \mathbb{1})(X \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathbb{1})|\psi\rangle &= -(X \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathbb{1})(Z \otimes Z \otimes \mathbb{1})|\psi\rangle = -(X \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathbb{1})|\psi\rangle \\ (\mathbb{1} \otimes Z \otimes Z)(X \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathbb{1})|\psi\rangle &= (X \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathbb{1})(\mathbb{1} \otimes Z \otimes Z)|\psi\rangle = (X \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathbb{1})|\psi\rangle \\ (Z \otimes Z \otimes \mathbb{1})(X \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathbb{1}) &= -(X \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathbb{1})(Z \otimes Z \otimes \mathbb{1}) \\ (\mathbb{1} \otimes Z \otimes Z)(X \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathbb{1}) &= (X \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathbb{1})(\mathbb{1} \otimes Z \otimes Z) \end{split}$$

Bit-flip detection

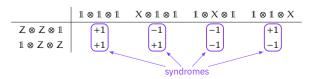
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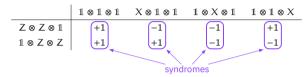
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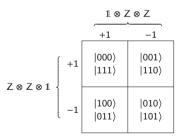
$$(Z \otimes Z \otimes 1)(X \otimes 1 \otimes 1) = -(X \otimes 1 \otimes 1)(Z \otimes Z \otimes 1)$$
$$(1 \otimes Z \otimes Z)(X \otimes 1 \otimes 1) = (X \otimes 1 \otimes 1)(1 \otimes Z \otimes Z)$$



Syndromes



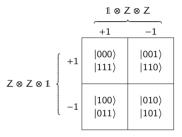
The syndromes partition the 8-dimensional space into four 2-dimensional subspaces.



They also partition the 3-qubit Pauli operations into 4 equal-size collections. For example, $\mathbb{1} \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathbb{Z}$, $\mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}$, and $\mathbb{X} \otimes \mathbb{X} \otimes \mathbb{X}$ all cause the same syndrome (+1, +1).

Syndromes

The syndromes partition the 8-dimensional space into four 2-dimensional subspaces.



They also partition the 3-qubit Pauli operations into 4 equal-size collections. For example, $1 \otimes 1 \otimes Z$, $Z \otimes Z \otimes Z$, and $X \otimes X \otimes X$ all cause the same syndrome (+1, +1).

Pauli operations that commute with every stabilizer generator but are not themselves in the stabilizer act like Pauli operations on the encoded qubit.

Stabilizer codes

A set $\{P_1, \dots, P_r\}$ of \mathfrak{n} -qubit Pauli operations are stabilizer generators for a stabilizer code if these properties are satisfied:

1. The stabilizer generators all *commute* with one another.

$$P_i P_k = P_k P_i$$
 (for all $j, k \in \{1, \dots, r\}$)

2. The stabilizer generators form a *minimal generating set*.

$$P_k \notin \left\langle P_1, \dots, P_{k-1}, P_{k+1}, \dots, P_r \right\rangle \qquad (\text{for each } k \in \{1, \dots, r\})$$

3. At least one nonzero vector is fixed by all of the stabilizer generators.

$$-1^{\otimes n} \notin \langle P_1, \ldots, P_r \rangle$$

The code space defined by the stabilizer generators contains all vectors that are fixed by all of the stabilizer generators.

$$\{|\psi\rangle: |\psi\rangle = P_1|\psi\rangle = \cdots = P_r|\psi\rangle\}$$

Examples

3-bit repetition code (bit-flips)

 $Z \otimes Z \otimes 1$ $1 \otimes Z \otimes Z$ 3-bit repetition code (phase-flips)

 $X \otimes X \otimes 1$ $1 \otimes X \otimes X$

9-qubit Shor code

Examples

Z Z 1
1 Z Z

X X 1
1 X X

Examples

- 7-qubit Steane code

E-bit stabilizer code

ZZ XX

5-qubit code

X Z Z X 1 1 X Z Z X X 1 X Z Z Z X 1 X Z

GHZ stabilizer code

Z Z 1 1 Z Z X X X

Code space dimension

Suppose that $\{P_1, \dots, P_r\}$ are n-qubit stabilizer generators for a stabilizer code.

- 1. $P_i P_k = P_k P_j$ for all $j, k \in \{1, ..., r\}$
- 2. $P_k \notin \langle P_1, \dots, P_{k-1}, P_{k+1}, \dots, P_r \rangle$ for each $k \in \{1, \dots, r\}$
- 3. $-1 \notin \langle P_1, \ldots, P_r \rangle$

Theorem

The code space defined by $\{P_1, \ldots, P_r\}$ has dimension 2^{n-r} .

(Equivalently, the code defined by these generators encodes n - r qubits.)

3-bit repetition code (bit-flips)

$$n = 3$$
 qubits
 $r = 2$ stabilizer generators
 $\Rightarrow 3 - 2 = 1$ encoded qubit

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Suppose that $\{P_1, \dots, P_r\}$ are n-qubit stabilizer generators for a stabilizer code.

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5-qubit code

$$n = 5$$
 qubits
 $r = 4$ stabilizer generators
 $\Rightarrow 5 - 4 = 1$ encoded qubit

Code space dimension

Suppose that $\{P_1, \dots, P_r\}$ are n-qubit stabilizer generators for a stabilizer code.

- 1. $P_i P_k = P_k P_i$ for all $j, k \in \{1, ..., r\}$
- 2. $P_{\nu} \notin \langle P_1, \dots, P_{\nu-1}, P_{\nu+1}, \dots, P_r \rangle$ for each $k \in \{1, \dots, r\}$
- 3. $-1 \notin \langle P_1, \ldots, P_r \rangle$

Theorem

The code space defined by $\{P_1, \ldots, P_r\}$ has dimension 2^{n-r} .

(Equivalently, the code defined by these generators encodes n-r qubits.)

E-bit stabilizer code

n = 2 qubits r = 2 stabilizer generators \Rightarrow 2 - 2 = 0 encoded qubits

Clifford operations and encodings

Clifford operations

Clifford operations are unitary operations that can be implemented by quantum circuits with gates from

- · Hadamard gates
- S gates
- CNOT gates

Up to a global phase, an n-qubit unitary operation is a Clifford operation if and only if it maps n-qubit Pauli operations to n-qubit Pauli operations by conjugation.

Equivalently, U is a Clifford operation (up to a global phase) if for every $P_0, \ldots, P_{n-1} \in \{1, X, Y, Z\}$ there exist $Q_0, \ldots, Q_{n-1} \in \{1, X, Y, Z\}$ such that

$$U(P_{n-1} \otimes \cdots \otimes P_0)U^{\dagger} = \pm Q_{n-1} \otimes \cdots \otimes Q_0$$

Clifford operations are *not universal* for quantum computation.

There are only finitely many n-qubit Clifford operations and their actions on standard basis states can be efficiently simulated classically by the <u>Gottesman-Knill theorem</u>.

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Encodings for stabilizer codes can always be performed using $O(n^2/\log(n))$ Clifford gates.

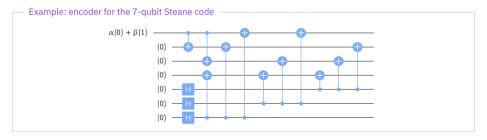
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Detecting errors

Let P_1, \ldots, P_r be stabilizer generators for an n-qubit stabilizer code, and let E be an n-qubit Pauli operation, representing a *hypothetical error*.

Errors are detected in a stabilizer code by $\frac{measuring\ the\ stabilizer\ generators}{the\ syndrome}$ (as observables). The r outcomes form the syndrome.

Case 1:
$$E = \alpha Q$$
 for $Q \in \langle P_1, \dots, P_r \rangle$.

This error does nothing to vectors in the code space: $E|\psi\rangle = \alpha|\psi\rangle$ for every encoded state $|\psi\rangle$.

Case 2:
$$E \neq \alpha Q$$
 for $Q \in \langle P_1, \dots, P_r \rangle$, but $EP_k = P_k E$ for every $k \in \{1, \dots, r\}$.

This error changes vectors in the code space and goes undetected by the code.

Case 3:
$$P_k E = -EP_k$$
 for at least one $k \in \{1, ..., r\}$.

This error is *detected* by the code.

The distance of a stabilizer code is the minimum weight of a Pauli operation that changes vectors in the code space but goes undetected by the code.

Notation: an [[n, m, d]] stabilizer code is one that encodes m qubits into n qubits and has distance d.

 The distance is the minimum weight of an n-qubit Pauli operation that

- 1. commutes with every stabilizer generator, and
- 2. is not proportional to a stabilizer element.

This code has distance 3.

We can first reason that every Pauli operation with weight at most 2 that commutes with every stabilizer generator must be the identity operation.

P Q 1 1 1 1 1 1 Z 1 Z 1 Z 1 X 1 X 1 X 1 X

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Z 1 Z 1 Z 1 Z
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We can first reason that every Pauli operation with weight at most 2 that commutes with every stabilizer generator must be the identity operation.

On the other hand, there are weight 3 Pauli operations that commute with every stabilizer generator and fall outside of the stabilizer.

Two examples:

Correcting errors

Let P_1, \ldots, P_r be stabilizer generators for an n-qubit stabilizer code.

- The 2^r syndromes partition the n-qubit Pauli operations into equal-size sets, with $4^n/2^r$ Pauli operations in each set.
- If E is an error and $S \in \langle P_1, \dots, P_r \rangle$ is a stabilizer element, then E and ES are equivalent errors: $E|\psi\rangle = ES|\psi\rangle$ for every $|\psi\rangle$ in the code space.
- This leaves 4^{n-r} inequivalent classes of errors for each syndrome.

So, unless r = n (i.e., the code space is one-dimensional) we cannot correct every error. Rather, we must choose one correction operation for each syndrome (which corrects at most one class of equivalent errors).

Natural strategy

For each syndrome s, choose a $\frac{lowest\ weight}{lowest\ pauli}$ Pauli operation that causes the syndrome s as the corresponding correction operation.

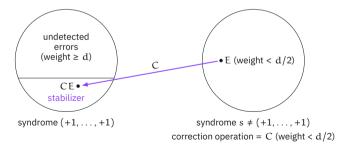
For a distance d stabilizer code, this strategy corrects all errors having weight at most (d-1)/2.

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For a distance d stabilizer code, this strategy corrects all errors having weight at most (d-1)/2.

Unfortunately, for a given choice of stabilizer generators and a syndrome, it is computationally difficult to find the lowest weight Pauli operation causing that syndrome.

Finding codes for which this can be done efficiently is part of the artistry in code design.

Let $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ denote the binary alphabet.

A *classical linear code* is a non-empty set of binary strings $C \subseteq \Sigma^n$ with this property:

$$u, v \in C \implies u \oplus v \in C$$

Example: 3-bit repetition code

The 3-bit repetition code $\{000, 111\}$ is a classical linear code.

Example: [7, 4, 3]-Hamming code

The [7, 4, 3]-Hamming code is the classical linear code containing these strings:

```
        0000000
        1100001
        1010010
        0110011

        0110100
        1010101
        1100110
        0000111

        1111000
        0011001
        0101010
        1001011

        1001100
        0101101
        0011110
        1111111
```

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A *classical linear code* is a non-empty set of binary strings $C \subseteq \Sigma^n$ with this property:

$$u, v \in C \implies u \oplus v \in C$$

Two natural ways to describe a classical linear code:

1. Generators: a minimal list of strings $u_1, \ldots, u_m \in \Sigma^n$ such that

$$C = \{\alpha_1 \mathbf{u}_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus \alpha_m \mathbf{u}_m : \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m \in \{0, 1\}\}$$

2. Parity checks: a minimal list of strings $v_1, \ldots, v_r \in \Sigma^n$ such that

$$C = \left\{ \mathbf{u} \in \Sigma^{n} : \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{1} = \dots = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{r} = 0 \right\}$$

(where $u \cdot v$ is the binary dot product of u and v).

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- 1. Generator: 111
- 2. Parity checks: 110, 011

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0000000 1100001 1010010 0110011
0110100 1010101 1100110 0000111
1111000 0011001 0101010 1001011
1001100 0101101 0011110 1111111
```

- 1. Generators: 0110100, 1010010, 1100001, 1111000
- 2. Parity checks: 1111000, 1100110, 1010101

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Note: parity checks are equivalent to stabilizer generators containing only Z and 1 Pauli matrices.

Example: 3-bit repetition code

The 3-bit repetition code {000, 111} is a classical linear code.

- 1. Generator: 111
- 2. Parity checks: 110, 011

Equivalently, the strings in this code are standard basis states for the stabilizer code with stabilizer generators $Z\ Z\ 1$ and $1\ Z\ Z$.

Stabilizer generators containing only Z and $\mathbbm{1}$ Pauli matrices are equivalent to parity checks.

Example: 3-bit repetition code

The 3-bit repetition code {000, 111} is a classical linear code.

Parity checks: 110, 011

Stabilizer generators: Z Z 1, 1 Z Z

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        0101010
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        1001100
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        0011110
        1111111
```

Parity checks: 1111000, 1100110, 1010101

Stabilizer generators: ZZZZ1111, ZZI11ZZ1, Z1Z1Z1Z1Z

Stabilizer generators containing only Z and 1 Pauli matrices are equivalent to parity checks. These are called Z stabilizer generators.

Stabilizer generators containing only X and 1 Pauli matrices are also equivalent to parity checks — for the plus/minus basis $\{|+\rangle, |-\rangle\}$.

```
Example: [7, 4, 3]-Hamming code

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Parity checks: 1111000, 1100110, 1010101

The stabilizer generators X X X X I I I I, X X I I I X X I, X I X I X I X I X I X I define a code that includes these states:

Stabilizer generators containing only Z and 1 Pauli matrices are equivalent to parity checks. These are called Z stabilizer generators.

Stabilizer generators containing only X and 1 Pauli matrices are also equivalent to parity checks — for the plus/minus basis $\{|+\rangle, |-\rangle\}$. These are called X stabilizer generators.

Definition: CSS codes

Stabilizer codes that can be expressed using only Z stabilizer generators and X stabilizer generators are called CSS codes.

Example: e-bit stabilizer code

The code space is the one-dimensional space spanned by

$$| \, \varphi^{+} \rangle = \frac{|0\rangle |0\rangle + |1\rangle |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{|+\rangle |+\rangle + |-\rangle |-\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

Stabilizer generators containing only Z and 1 Pauli matrices are equivalent to parity checks. These are called Z stabilizer generators.

Stabilizer generators containing only X and 1 Pauli matrices are also equivalent to parity checks — for the plus/minus basis $\{|+\rangle, |-\rangle\}$. These are called X stabilizer generators.

Definition: CSS codes

Stabilizer codes that can be expressed using only Z stabilizer generators and X stabilizer generators are called $CSS\ codes$.

Example: 7-qubit Steane code

Example: 9-qubit Shor code

Error detection and correction

Consider a CSS code.

- The Z stabilizer generators detect X errors but are oblivious to Z errors (and corrections).
- The X stabilizer generators detect Z errors but are oblivious to X errors (and corrections).

Suppose the following:

- The Z stabilizer generators allow for the correction of up to j bit-flip errors.
- The X stabilizer generators allow for the correction of up to k
 phase-flip errors.

Then the CSS code allows for the correction of any error on up to $min\{j, k\}$ qubits — we can simply detect and correct X errors and Z errors on this many qubits separately.

Thank you for your attention!