

Lecture 6 The Shor Code & Basic Benchmarking

§ The Shor code

- (a) QPU's have more exotic kinds of errors than CPUs. While CPUs can only have (potentially correlated) bit flip errors, each qubit has errors that can be caused by any of the continuous family of rotations that make up transformations on the Bloch sphere. Further, quantum errors can not only be correlated like classical errors, but also they can be entangled errors.
- (b) It is hard to check for errors in quantum memory. Because any measurement changes the state of quantum memory, we need to be clever about how we look at the memory to determine if an error has occurred.
- (c) We cannot blindly duplicate states due to the no-cloning theorem. Thus we need to be clever about how we build redundancy into our codes.

Given (a) + (b) + (c) it is amazing that quantum error correction is possible at all!

Thm [No-cloning]

There exists no unitary U s.t. for arbitrary quantum states $|\Psi\rangle$ and $|s\rangle$

$$U(|\Psi\rangle \otimes |s\rangle) = |\Psi\rangle \otimes |\Psi\rangle$$

Proof (by contradiction) Recall that $(A \otimes B)(C \otimes D) = AC \otimes BD$ for the tensor product.

Suppose $|\Psi\rangle, |s\rangle$ and $|\varphi\rangle$ are arbitrary states and so

$$U(|\Psi\rangle \otimes |s\rangle) = |\Psi\rangle \otimes |\varphi\rangle \text{ AND } U(|\varphi\rangle \otimes |s\rangle) = |\varphi\rangle \otimes |\varphi\rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \Rightarrow \langle \Psi | \varphi \rangle &= \langle \Psi | \varphi \rangle \langle s | s \rangle = (\langle \Psi | \otimes \langle s |) U^+ U (|\varphi\rangle \otimes |s\rangle) \\ &= (\langle \Psi | \otimes \langle s |) (|\varphi\rangle \otimes |\varphi\rangle) = (\langle \Psi | \varphi \rangle)^2 \end{aligned}$$

But $x = x^2$ has only two cases:

$$\langle \Psi | \varphi \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow |\Psi\rangle \text{ is orthogonal to } |\varphi\rangle$$

or

$$\langle \Psi | \varphi \rangle = 1 \Rightarrow |\Psi\rangle = |\varphi\rangle$$

Thus one can only clone states that are orthogonal to one another.

This is why CNOT can map $|x, 0\rangle \rightarrow |x, x\rangle$ as $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ are orthogonal.

Note This rules out "perfect" copying. Approximate copying is possible.

Recap [Parity measurements to correct errors]

Recall $Z_1 Z_0$ checks the parity of qubits 0 & 1, because $Z_1 \otimes Z_0$ has

eigenvector	eigenvalue
$ 00\rangle$	1
$ 11\rangle$	1
$ 01\rangle$	-1
$ 10\rangle$	-1

Thus measuring $Z_1 Z_0$ returns ± 1 depending on the parity.

Q: But in Quil how do we do this! A: With CNOTs.

Note that $|x\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{CNOT}} |x\rangle$

$|y\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{CNOT}} |x \oplus y\rangle$
the parity of x and y .

Thus to measure the parity of a set of qubits we use
Ancilla $a \xrightarrow{\text{state}} |0\rangle$ to start.

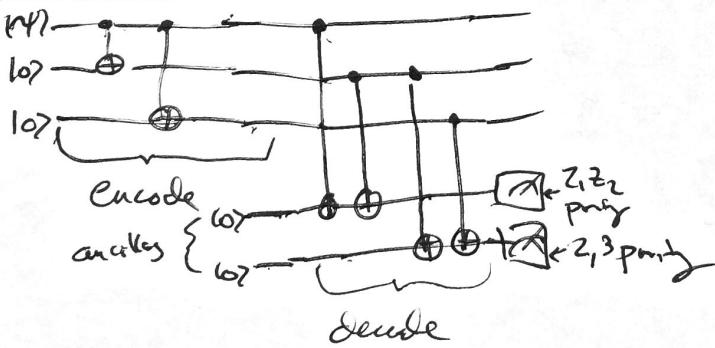
For x in parity-set:

CNOT $x \otimes a$
MEASURE a $\text{ra}(0)$ this now stores the joint parity

Note that while parity is a useful global property (as we will see) it tells us literally nothing about the actual values of our qubits. This is important and is why it has no effect on the computational states.

Recap

Bit flip code



Classical memory		correction	recovery
ra[0]	ra[1]		
0	0	none	
1	0	$X \otimes X$	
0	1	$X \otimes X_2$	
1	1	$X \otimes X_1$	

In Quil Let x be data qubit index
 x_1, x_2 be encoder indices
 a_1, a_2 ancilla indices

CNOT $x \otimes x_1$
CNOT $x \otimes x_2$ } encode
CNOT $x \otimes a_1$
CNOT x, a_1 } errors
CNOT x_1, a_2
CNOT x_2, a_2

$\text{MEASURE } a_1, \text{ra}(0) \xleftarrow{X \otimes X_1}$
 $\text{MEASURE } a_2, \text{ra}(1) \xleftarrow{X_1 \otimes X_2}$

Phase Flip code

So we can detect bit flips, but what about other errors.

For example how do we detect "phase flips" $a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle \mapsto a|0\rangle - b|1\rangle$

error type	bit errors	phase errors
modelled as	random X gates	random Z gates

Since we already know how to correct bit flips, we need to convert phase flips into bit flips. This is done w/ the Hadamard.

$$\text{Then } HZH = X$$

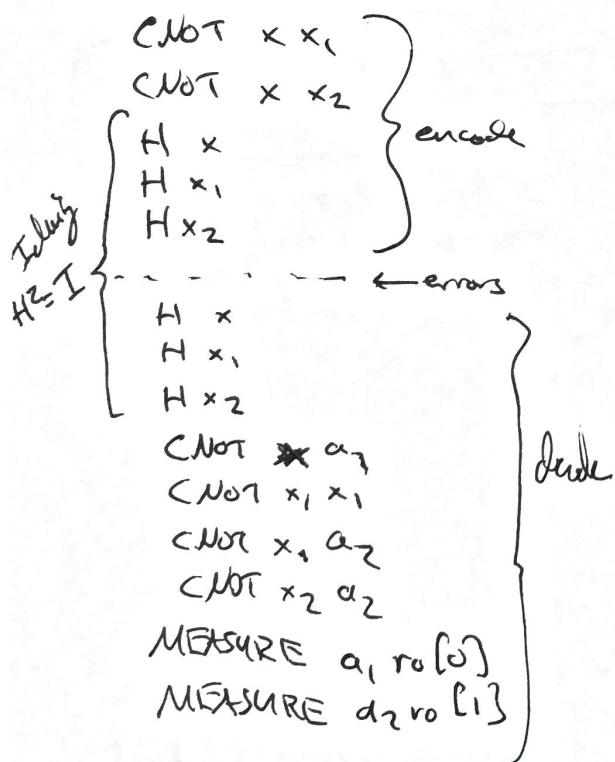
$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = X$$

Thus prepending and appending a H can convert a phase flip to a bit flip.

$$\text{another example: } H(a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle) = \frac{a+b}{\sqrt{2}}|0\rangle + \frac{a-b}{\sqrt{2}}|1\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{bit flip}} \frac{a-b}{\sqrt{2}}|0\rangle + \frac{a+b}{\sqrt{2}}|1\rangle$$

looks like a bit flip.

Phase flip code in Quil

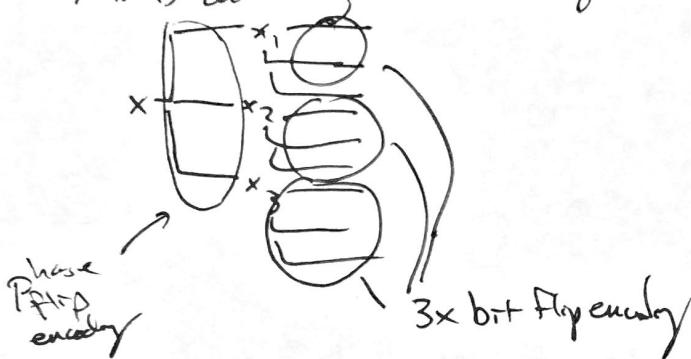


ro[0], ro[1] tells us where to apply Ξ gates to correct the phase errors

The 9-qubit Shor code

But we need to correct Both phase and bit flip errors.

This is done by "concatenating" the bit and phase codes.



→ The idea is to use the phase code to encode into 3 qubits and then for each of those qubits to encode into the bit flip code

In Quil

DEFCIRCUIT BIT-ENCODE $q_0 q_1 q_2$:

CNOT $q_0 q_1$

CNOT $q_0 q_2$

BIT-ENCODE $x \ x_1 \ x_2$

H x, x_1, x_2 ← # shorthand for 3 hadamards

BIT-ENCODE $x \ x_A \ x_B$

BIT-ENCODE $x_1 \ x_{1A} \ x_{1B}$

BIT-ENCODE $x_2 \ x_{2A} \ x_{2B}$

PARITY $\{x, x_A\} a_0$; PARITY $\{x_A, x_B\} a_0'$

PARITY $\{x_1, x_{1A}\} a_1$; PARITY $\{x_{1A}, x_{1B}\} a_1'$

PARITY $\{x_2, x_{2A}\} a_2$; PARITY $\{x_{2A}, x_{2B}\} a_2'$

H $x, x_A, x_D, x_1, x_{1A}, x_{1B}, x_2, x_{2A}, x_{2B}$

PARITY $\{x, x_A, x_B, x_1, x_{1A}, x_{1B}\} b_0$

PARITY $\{x_{1A}, x_{1B}, x_2, x_{2A}, x_{2B}\} b_1$

DEFCIRCUIT BIT-DECODE $q_0 q_1 q_2$:

CNOT $q_0 p_1$

CNOT $q_1 p_2$

MEASURE $p_1 \ r_1$

DEFCIRCUIT PARITY $l \in [q]$ ~~a r~~

for $q_i \in l \in [q]$:

CNOT $q_i \ a$

MEASURE $a \ r$

} to find bit errors

} to find phase errors

In fact the Shor code can correct arbitrary single qubit errors. Deep fact!

This is fascinating because it is an example where a continuum of errors can be corrected by a discrete subset of those errors.

Recall that any ~~arbitrary~~ arbitrary error is given by

$$\cancel{\text{arbitrary}} \quad \epsilon(p) = \sum_i E_i p E_i^\dagger$$

And any E_i can be written as:

$$E_i = \alpha I + \beta X + \gamma Z + \delta XZ$$

Thus $E_i|\psi\rangle$ is a superposition over $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{no error} \\ \text{bit error} \\ \text{phase error} \\ \text{both} \end{array} \right\}$

Measuring the error syndrome (making the parity measurements) collapses this superposition! This allows discrete correction.

The basic idea is that the same reason:

$a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle$ looks continuous but when measured is $\{0, 1\}$
allows continuous errors to be measured to allow discrete correction.

The Shor code is an example of a $[9, 1, 3]$ code:

9 physical qubits

1 logical qubit

3 code distance $(3-1)/2 = 1$ arbitrary error corrected

Hamming distance between codewords

More robust $[7, 1, 3]$ and $[5, 1, 3]$ codes exist.

We also have only considered: (so far)

- (1) Single qubit errors
- (2) independent errors
- (3) acts as a memory rather than prototypically real computation.

Benchmarking

Given that QPU's have noise, how do you characterize what QPU you have?
How do you tell if it's good enough to be better than CPUs?

Levels of benchmarking

2: [] algorithm (app end-to-end benchmarks)

1: [] device (quantum FLOPs)

0: [] physical (basic operations) ← this lecture

How do you tell if your operators did what you wanted?

Metrics → Inner product ($\langle \Psi | \Phi \rangle$) but this only works for pure states

$$\rightarrow \text{State Fidelity } F(\rho, \sigma) = \text{tr}(\rho^{1/2} \sigma \rho^{1/2})$$

Facts

$$\rightarrow \text{bounded } 0 \leq F(\rho, \sigma) \leq 1$$

$$\rightarrow F(\rho, \sigma) = 1 \Leftrightarrow \rho = \sigma$$

$$\rightarrow \text{symmetric } F(\rho, \sigma) = F(\sigma, \rho) \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{This is non-trivial to show} \\ \text{Thm 9.4 Mike and Ike} \end{array}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{unitary invariant } F(U\rho U^\dagger, U\sigma U^\dagger) = F(\rho, \sigma)$$

$$\rightarrow \text{monotonic } F(\varepsilon(\rho), \varepsilon(\sigma)) \geq F(\rho, \sigma) \leftarrow \text{Thm 9.5 Mike and Ike}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{Uhlmann's theorem } F(\rho, \sigma) = \max_{\varphi, \psi} |\langle \psi | \varphi \rangle|^2 \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{purifications of } \rho \text{ and } \sigma \\ \text{respectively} \end{array}$$

☞ If we are comparing to "pure" states then the fidelity simplifies to:

$$F(|\Psi\rangle, \rho) = \sqrt{\langle \Psi | \rho | \Psi \rangle}$$

An Aside on Density Matrix measurement

To Benchmark mixed states we need to understand how to perform measurements on them.

Let A be an observable (e.g. a Pauli X, Y , or Z) and let there be an ensemble of states $|\Psi_a\rangle$ for our system that each occur w/ probability p_a .

The expectation of A with respect to the ensemble is then:

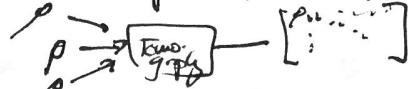
$$\begin{aligned}\sum p_a \langle \Psi_a | A | \Psi_a \rangle &= \sum p_a \text{tr} [\langle \Psi_a | A | \Psi_a \rangle] \\ &= \sum p_a \text{tr} [A | \Psi_a \rangle \langle \Psi_a |] \quad \text{as traces are cyclic} \\ &= \text{tr} \left[\sum p_a |\Psi_a \rangle \langle \Psi_a | \right] \\ &= \text{tr}(Ap)\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{tr}(ABC) = \text{tr}(CAB)$$

Thus the expectation of a density matrix repr of a state for some observable is given by $\text{tr}(Ap)$.

State Tomography

So to measure fidelity we need to prepare states and measure their density matrices ρ . We must have multiple copies of ρ in order to characterize it.



Suppose we have multiple copies of ρ (or can make them on demand).

We can expand

$$\rho = \frac{\text{tr}(\rho)I + \text{tr}(x\rho)X + \text{tr}(y\rho)Y + \text{tr}(z\rho)Z}{2}$$

I, X, Y, Z
 forms basis for
 2×2 complex
 matrices

$\text{tr}(x\rho)$ is $\langle X \rangle_\rho$ i.e. the expectation value of ρ when measured by the X observable.

Thus to get ρ we must calculate $\langle X \rangle_\rho, \langle Y \rangle_\rho, \langle Z \rangle_\rho$ (the 4th from normalization)
 $\uparrow \quad \uparrow \quad \uparrow$
 3 sets of code

- MEASURE $\circ \text{ro}\{\alpha\}$ ← measures in the Z observable
- prepending a $\text{RY}(-\pi/2) \circ$ will measure in X • $\text{RX}(\pi/2) \circ$ measures in Y
- ~~... (not good for global phase)~~

Run each say 1000 times and calculate the expected value

bit	value
0	-1
1	1

This scales badly! For n -qubits you need (2^{n^2}) types of observables

It works well but takes time.

There is also Process Tomography that is similar but characterizes a channel E .

Readout Fidelity

$$\begin{array}{c} I \circ \\ \text{MEASURE } \circ \text{ ro}\{\alpha\} \end{array} \quad \text{vs} \quad \begin{array}{c} X \circ \\ \text{MEASURE } \circ \text{ ro}\{\alpha\} \end{array}$$

What % of the time do we get the right answer?

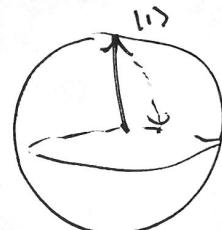
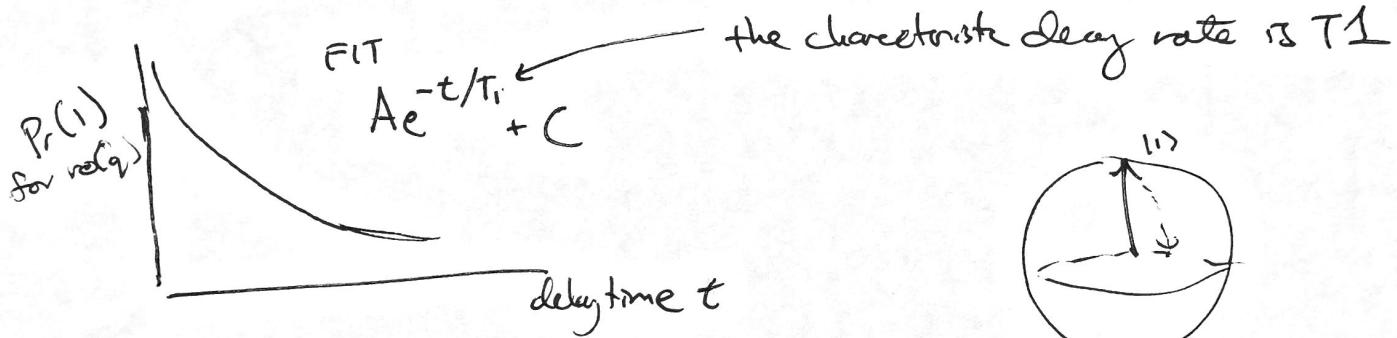
Tricky because gates are also imperfect. More sophisticated techniques decouple these.

T1 coherence

Sometimes we want more synthetic measures of performance.
T1 measures the impact of amplitude damping.

Idea:

X ✓
delay for t time ← the longer you wait, the ~~longer~~ the
higher the chance of decoherence.
MEASURE $g_{\text{rot}}[q]$



T2 coherence

This is the same but phase shifted.

$RX(\pi/2) q$

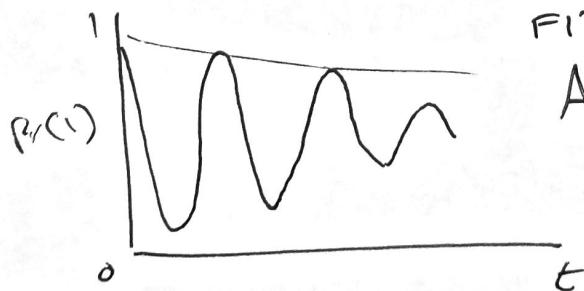
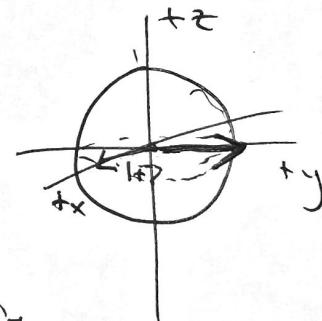
wait for t

$RX(\pi/2) q$

MEASURE $g_{\text{rot}}[q]$

we add a "detuning" freq here to make it easier to fit

$RZ(2\pi t \omega_d)$



FIT $A e^{-2t/T_2} \sin(\omega_d(t - \tau)) + c$

How many steps?
How many samples?
How to fit?