- Day 4 Recap:
 - ADAPT-QAOA (2103.17047)
 - Feedback-based ALgorithm Quantum Optimization (FALQON, 2103.08619)
 - Data re-uploading for a universal quantum classifier (1907.02085)
- Day 5 Plan:
 - Quantum Fourier Transformation and Phase estimation
 - Error correction
 - Bernstein-Vazirani Algorithm and Simon's algorithm
 Shor's algorithm, Grover's algorithm

Discrete Fourier Transformation

- Simon's algorithm \longrightarrow Shor's algorithm (factoring numbers) makes use of QFT.
- Discrete Fourier Transformation (DFT): signal processing, quantum theory (position ↔ momentum).
- Assume a vector *f* of N complex numbers: f_k , $k = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$
- DFT is a mapping from N complex # to N complex #.

 f_i

$$\begin{aligned} \text{DFT}: \ f_k &\longrightarrow \tilde{f}_j = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} w^{-jk} f_k & w = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{N}\right) \\ \text{Inverse DFT}: \ \tilde{f}_k &\longrightarrow \tilde{f}_j = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} w^{jk} \tilde{f}_k & \text{nonzero only when } j = \ell \end{aligned}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} w^{jk} \tilde{f}_k = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} w^{jk} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{\ell=0}^{N-1} w^{-\ell k} f_\ell\right) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\ell=0}^{N-1} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} w^{(j-\ell)k} f_\ell = \sum_{\ell=0}^{N-1} f_\ell \delta_{j\ell} = f_j \\ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} w^{(j-\ell)k} = \delta_{j\ell} & \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} w^{(j-\ell)k} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{N} \frac{1 - \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{N}(j-\ell)N\right)}{1 - \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{N}\right)} = 0, & \text{if } j \neq \ell \\ 1, & \text{if } j = \ell \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Discrete Fourier Transformation

• Convolution (circular convolution, periodic convolution, cyclic convolution)

$$(f * g)_i = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} f_i g_{i-j}$$
, where $g_{-m} = g_{N-m}$ (periodic condition)

• DFT turns convolution into point wise vector multiplication.

 $\frac{1}{N}\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} w^{(j-\ell)k} = \delta_{j\ell} \qquad w = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{N}\right)$

DFT of
$$f * g = \tilde{c}_k = \tilde{f}_k \tilde{g}_k$$

$$\begin{split} \tilde{c}_{k} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} w^{-jk} (f^{*}g)_{j} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} w^{-jk} \left(\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} f_{i} g_{j-i} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} w^{-jk} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{\ell} w^{i\ell} \tilde{f}_{\ell} \right) \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{m} w^{(j-i)m} \tilde{g}_{m} \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}^{3}} \sum_{j,i,\ell,m} \tilde{f}_{\ell} \tilde{g}_{m} w^{-jk} w^{i\ell} w^{jm} w^{-im} = \tilde{f}_{k} \tilde{g}_{k} \end{split}$$

DFT:
$$f_k \longrightarrow \tilde{f}_j = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} w^{-jk} f_k$$

Inverse DFT: $\tilde{f}_k \longrightarrow \tilde{f}_j = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} w^{jk} \tilde{f}_k$

Fast Fourier Transformation

- DFT: $O(N^2) = O((2^n)^2)$
- FFT: $O(N \log N) = O(2^n \log 2^n) = O(2^n \log n)$
- QFT: $O(n^2)$ where $N = 2^n$
- Best known QFT: $O(n \log n)$
 - "An improved quantum Fourier transform algorithm and applications" by L. Hales and S. Hallgren

- Quantum analog of discrete Fourier transformation
- Used in Shor's algorithm, computing discrete logarithm, quantum phase estimation, algorithms for hidden subgroup problem
- Don Coppersmith (IBM) in 2002
 - https://arxiv.org/pdf/quant-ph/0201067.pdf

• For classical discrete Fourier transformation

$$y_k = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^n} \sum_{j=0}^{2^n - 1} w^{jk} x_j \qquad \qquad w = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{2^n}\right) \qquad \qquad N = 2^n$$

- QFT is defined similarly $F: |j\rangle \longrightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^n} \sum_{k=0}^{2^n} w^{jk} |k\rangle = F|j\rangle$
- For arbitrary quantum states,

 $\frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{k=0}^{2^n-1} w^{(j-\ell)k} = \delta_{j\ell}$

$$F: |x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^n} \sum_{j=0}^{2^n - 1} x_j |j\rangle \longrightarrow |y\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^n} \sum_{k=0}^{2^n - 1} y_k |k\rangle$$

$$F |x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^{n}} \sum_{j=0}^{2^{n}-1} x_{j} F |j\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^{n}} \sum_{j=0}^{2^{n}-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^{n}} \sum_{k=0}^{2^{n}-1} x_{j} w^{jk} |k\rangle$$

• For a single quantum state, $F|j\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^n} \sum_{j=0}^{2^n-1} w^{jk} |k\rangle$ $F|j'\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^n} \sum_{j'=0}^{2^n-1} w^{j'k'} |k'\rangle$

$$\langle j' | F^{\dagger}F | j \rangle = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{k=0}^{2^n - 1} \sum_{k'=0}^{2^n - 1} w^{-j'k'} w^{jk} \langle k' | k \rangle = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{k=0}^{2^n - 1} w^{(j-j')k} = \delta_{jj'}$$

 $F^{\dagger}F = 1$ and QFT is a unitary transformation.

For
$$j = j_1 2^{n-1} + j_2 2^{n-2} + \dots + j_n 2^0 = \sum_{i=1}^n j_i 2^{n-i}$$

 $k = k_1 2^{n-1} + k_2 2^{n-2} + \dots + k_n 2^0 = \sum_{i=1}^n k_i 2^{n-i}$
 $F |j\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{k=0}^{2^n-1} w^{jk} |k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{k=0}^{2^{n-1}} \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i j}{2^n} \sum_{\ell=1}^n k_\ell 2^{n-\ell}\right) |k\rangle$
 $w = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{2^n}\right)$
 $= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{k=0}^{2^n-1} \exp\left(2\pi i j \sum_{\ell=1}^n k_\ell 2^{-\ell}\right) |k\rangle$
 $= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{k=0}^{2^n-1} \exp\left(2\pi i j k_1 2^{-1}\right) \exp\left(2\pi i j k_2 2^{-2}\right) \cdots \exp\left(2\pi i j k_n 2^{-n}\right) |k\rangle$
 $= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{k=0}^1 \cdots \sum_{k_n=0}^1 \exp\left(2\pi i j k_1 2^{-1}\right) \exp\left(2\pi i j k_2 2^{-2}\right) \cdots \exp\left(2\pi i j k_n 2^{-n}\right) |k\rangle$

$$= |0\rangle + \exp(2\pi i j 2^{-n}) |1\rangle$$

$$F|j\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^{n}} \left(|0\rangle + \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i j}{2}\right) |1\rangle \right) \left(|0\rangle + \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i j}{2^{2}}\right) |1\rangle \right) \cdots \left(|0\rangle + \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i j}{2^{n}}\right) |1\rangle \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^{n}} \bigotimes_{k=1}^{n} \left(|0\rangle + \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i j}{2^{k}}\right) |1\rangle \right) \qquad j_{i} = 0,1$$

• Binary fraction = expression in power of 1/2 In decimal form: $0.j_{\ell} j_{\ell+1} \cdots j_m = \frac{j_{\ell}}{2} + \frac{j_{\ell+1}}{2^2} + \cdots + \frac{j_m}{2^{m-\ell+1}}$ j = n for mean integer: $j_{2^k} = j_1 j_2 \cdots j_{n-k} \cdot j_{n-k+1} \cdots j_n = \sum_{\nu=1}^n j_\nu 2^{n-\nu-k}$ If n = 8 and k = 3, $j = j_1 2^7 + j_2 2^6 + j_3 2^5 + j_4 2^4 + j_5 2^3 + j_6 2^2 + j_7 2^1 + j_8 2^0$ $j_1 j_2 j_3 j_4 j_5 \cdot j_6 j_7 j_8$ binary fraction: $0.j_6 j_7 j_8$

$$\begin{split} j &= j_1 2^{n-1} + j_2 2^{n-2} + \dots + j_{n-3} 2^3 + j_{n-2} 2^2 + j_{n-1} 2^1 + j_1 2^0 = \sum_{\nu=1}^n j_\nu 2^{n-\nu} \\ \frac{j}{2^k} &= \frac{j_1 2^{n-1} + j_2 2^{n-2} + \dots + j_{n-3} 2^3 + j_{n-2} 2^2 + j_{n-1} 2^1 + j_1 2^0}{2^k} = \sum_{\nu=1}^n \frac{j_\nu 2^{n-\nu}}{2^k} = \sum_{\nu=1}^n j_\nu 2^{n-\nu-k} \\ &= j_1 j_2 \dots j_{n-k} \cdot j_{n-k+1} \dots j_n \\ \exp\left(2\pi i \frac{j}{2^k}\right) &= \exp\left(2\pi i 0 \cdot j_{n-k+1} \dots j_n\right) \\ F|j\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^n} \left(|0\rangle + \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i j}{2}\right)|1\rangle\right) \left(|0\rangle + \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i j}{2^2}\right)|1\rangle\right) \dots \left(|0\rangle + \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i j}{2^n}\right)|1\rangle\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^n} \bigotimes_{k=1}^n \left(|0\rangle + \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i j}{2^k}\right)|1\rangle\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^n} \bigotimes_{k=1}^n \left(|0\rangle + \exp\left(2\pi i 0 \cdot j_{n-k-1} \dots j_n\right)|1\rangle\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^n} \left(|0\rangle + \exp\left(2\pi i 0 \cdot j_n\right)|1\rangle\right) \left(|0\rangle + \exp\left(2\pi i 0 \cdot j_{n-1} j_{n-2}\right)|1\rangle\right) \\ &\dots \left(|0\rangle + \exp\left(2\pi i 0 \cdot j_1 j_2 \dots j_n\right)|1\rangle\right) \end{split}$$

• $|j_{\ell}\rangle$ transforms into $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left| |0\rangle + \exp\left(2\pi i \, 0 \, . \, j_{\ell} \cdots j_n\right) |1\rangle \right|$ $0.0j_{\ell+1}\cdots j_n = \frac{0.j_{\ell+1}\cdots j_n}{2}$ $= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0.j_{\ell}} e^{2\pi i 0.0j_{\ell+1}\cdots j_n} |1\rangle \right]$ $\exp\left(2\pi i \frac{j_{\ell}}{2}\right) = \exp\left(\pi i j_{\ell}\right) = (-1)^{j_{\ell}}$ $use R_k = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{2\pi i/2^k} \end{pmatrix}$ $if \begin{cases} j_k = 0, \quad R_k = 1 \\ j_k = 1, \quad R_k \end{cases}$ 1st qubit: $|0\rangle + \exp(2\pi i 0.j_{\ell}\cdots j_n)|1\rangle$ Start with $|j\rangle = |j_1\rangle |j_2 j_3 \cdots j_n\rangle \xrightarrow{H_1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(|0\rangle + (-1)^{j_1} |1\rangle\right) |j_2 j_3 \cdots j_n\rangle$ $=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(|0\rangle+e^{2\pi i\,0.j_1}|1\rangle\right)|j_2j_3\cdots j_n\rangle$ R_2 on q_1 with q_2 control $\rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0.j_1} e^{2\pi i j_2/2^2} |1\rangle \right) |j_2 j_3 \cdots j_n \rangle$ $=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(|0\rangle+e^{2\pi i 0.j_1 j_2}|1\rangle\right)|j_2 j_3 \cdots j_n\rangle$



The entire procedure is repeated for all other qubits, j_2, j_3, \cdots , j_n

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^{n}} \left[|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0.j_{1}\cdots j_{n}} |1\rangle \right] \left[|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0.j_{2}\cdots j_{n}} |1\rangle \right] \cdots \left[|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0.j_{n}} |1\rangle \right]$$

Use SWAP gate or relabel to obtain: $F|j\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^{n}} \bigotimes_{k=1}^{n} \left(|0\rangle + \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i j}{2^{k}}\right) |1\rangle \right)$ $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^{n}} \left[|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0.j_{n}} |1\rangle \right] \left[|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0.j_{2}\cdots j_{n}} |1\rangle \right] \cdots \left[|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0.j_{1}\cdots j_{n}} |1\rangle \right]$



- Classical Fourier Transform scales as $\mathcal{O}(N^2) = \mathcal{O}((2^n)^2)$
- FFT: $\mathcal{O}(Nln(N))$ for $N = 2^n$

Quantum Phase Estimation and Finding Eigenvalues

- Good example of phase kickback and use of QFT
- Unitary operator $U: U|u\rangle = e^{i\phi}|u\rangle, \quad 0 \le \phi < 2\pi$
- How to find eigenvalue? = How to measure the phase?
- How to find ϕ to a given level of precision?
- Find the best n-bit estimate of the phase ϕ

$$U^{2j} | u \rangle = \left(e^{i\phi} \right)^{2^{j}} | u \rangle = e^{i\phi 2^{j}} | u \rangle$$



QPE = H + controlled – $U^{2^{j}}$ + QFT[†]



$$|\psi_1\rangle = \left(H|0\rangle\right)^{\otimes n} \otimes |u\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^n} \left(|0\rangle + |1\rangle\right)^{\otimes n} \otimes |u\rangle$$

$$|\psi_2\rangle = \prod_{j=0}^{n-1} \operatorname{CU}^{2^j} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^n} \Big(|0\rangle + |1\rangle\Big)^{\otimes n} \otimes |u\rangle$$



$$|\psi_{2}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^{n}} \Big(|0\rangle + e^{i\phi 2^{n-1}}|1\rangle\Big) \Big(|0\rangle + e^{i\phi 2^{n-2}}|1\rangle\Big) \cdots \Big(|0\rangle + e^{i2\phi}|1\rangle\Big) \Big(|0\rangle + e^{i\phi}|1\rangle\Big) \otimes |u\rangle$$

 $=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^{n}}\sum_{y=0}^{2^{n}-1}e^{i\phi y}|y\rangle\otimes|u\rangle$ Phase kick-back: phase factor $e^{i\phi y}$ has been propagated back from the second eigenstate register to the first control register

$$QFT |a\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^n} \sum_{k=0}^{2^n-1} e^{2\pi i a/2^n} |k\rangle \longrightarrow \frac{2\pi i a}{2^n} = i\phi \longrightarrow \phi = 2\pi \left(\frac{a}{2^n} + \delta\right)$$

 $a = a_{n-1}a_{n-2}\cdots a_0$

• $\frac{2\pi a}{2^n}$ is the best n-bit binary approximation of ϕ . • $0 \le |\delta| \le \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}$ is the associated error.

$$QFT^{-1} | y \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^{n}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^{n}-1} e^{-2\pi i x y/2^{n}} | x \rangle$$
$$| \psi_{3} \rangle = QFT^{-1} | \psi_{2} \rangle = \frac{1}{2^{n}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^{n}-1} \sum_{y=0}^{2^{n}-1} e^{2\pi i (a-x) y/2^{n}} e^{2\pi i \delta y} | x \rangle \otimes | u \rangle$$
$$Operate only n control register.$$

$$|\psi_{3}\rangle = QFT^{-1} |\psi_{2}\rangle = \frac{1}{2^{n}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^{n}-1} \sum_{y=0}^{2^{n}-1} e^{2\pi i (a-x)y/2^{n}} e^{2\pi i \delta y} |x\rangle \otimes |u\rangle$$

Operate only n control register.
(1) If $\delta = 0$, $\frac{1}{2^{n}} \sum_{y=0}^{2^{n}-1} \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i (a-x)y}{2^{n}}\right) = \delta_{ax} \longrightarrow |\psi_{3}\rangle = |a\rangle \otimes |u\rangle \longrightarrow \phi = \frac{2\pi a}{2^{n}}$

(2) If $\delta \neq 0$, Measuring 1st register and getting the state $|x\rangle = |a\rangle$ is the best n-bit estimate of ϕ . The corresponding probability is $P_a = |C_a|^2 \ge \frac{4}{\pi^2} \approx 0.405$





- We will get the correct answer with probability greater than a constant.
- Probability of getting incorrect outcome can be calculated using $|\delta| > \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}$



- N-bit estimate of phase ϕ is obtained with a high probability.
- Need to repeat the calculation multiple times.
- Increasing n will increase the probability of success (not obvious but true).
- Increasing n (# of qubits) will improve the precision of the phase estimate.

Shor's algorithm



$$y = f(x) = a^x \pmod{N}$$

Discrete Logarithm Problem

- All standard public key encryption system and digital signature schemes are based on either factoring or discrete logarithm problem.
- \mathbb{Z}_p^* : group of integers $\{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$ under multiplication modulo p.
 - b: generator of \mathbb{Z}_p^* (any b relatively prime to p-1 will work)
 - The discrete logarithm of $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ with respect to base *b* is the element $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ such that $b^x = y \pmod{p}$.
- Discrete logarithm problem: Given a prime p, a base $b \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ and an arbitrary element $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$, find an $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ such that $b^x = y \pmod{p}$
 - Find the discrete logarithm of $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ with respect to base b such that $b^x = y \pmod{p}$
 - For a large *p*, this problem is computationally difficult to solve.
 - It is a special case of Abelian hidden subgroup problem.
 - Can be generalized to arbitrary finite cyclic groups.

Quantum Error Correction

- quant-ph/9705052, Stabilizer codes and quantum error correction, Caltech PhD thesis by D. Gottesman
- John Preskill
 - Quantum Computation
 - -http://theory.caltech.edu/~preskill/ph229/

Simple Classical (Bitflip) Error Correction

- Classically error correction is not necessary
 - Hardware for one bit is huge on an atomic scale
 - State 0 and 1 are so different that the probability of an unwanted flip is tiny.
- Error correction is needed for transmitting signal over long distance where it attenuates and can be corrupted by noise.
- Suppose we send one bit through a channel.
- Use redundancy: $|0\rangle \longrightarrow |000\rangle$ $|1\rangle \longrightarrow |111\rangle$ called codewords
- Apply majority rule: $\{000,001,010,100\} \rightarrow 0$

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\{111, 110, 101, 011\} \rightarrow 1
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• Flip probability is p: $p^3 + 3(1-p)p^2 = 3p^2 - 2p^3 \le p$, if p < 1/2

Quantum Error Correction

- QEC is essential and QC requires error correction
 - Physical system for a single qubit is small (often on an atomic scale) so any small external interference can disrupt the quantum system
- Measurement destroys quantum information
 - Checking for error is problematic.
 - Monitoring means measuring which would alter quantum states
- More general types of error can occur -(ex) phase error: $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + e^{i\phi}|1\rangle)$
- Errors are continuous
 - Unlike all or nothing bit flip errors for classical bits, errors ion qubits can grow continuously out of the uncorrupted state.

 If the error rate is low, we hope to correct them by tailing the number of qubits as the classical case.



 $\begin{array}{ll} \alpha \left| 0 \right\rangle + \beta \left| 1 \right\rangle & \longrightarrow & \alpha \left| 000 \right\rangle + \beta \left| 111 \right\rangle & \text{ is not a clone of the input state} \\ \\ \left(\alpha \left| 0 \right\rangle + \beta \left| 1 \right\rangle \right)^{\otimes 3} = \alpha^3 \left| 000 \right\rangle + \alpha^2 \beta (\left| 001 \right\rangle + \left| 010 \right\rangle + \left| 100 \right\rangle) \\ \\ + \alpha \beta^2 (\left| 110 \right\rangle + \left| 101 \right\rangle + \left| 011 \right\rangle) + \beta^3 \left| 111 \right\rangle \end{array}$

Assume that no more than one qubit is flipped (reasonable approximation if the error rate is small)



 \longrightarrow four states are called "syndromes"

- Classically to determine if one of the bits is flipped, we just have to look at them. However quantum mechanically, if we measure |ψ⟩, we get |000⟩ with probability |α|² and |111⟩ with |β|² which destroys the coherent superposition.
- Need to couple the codeword qubits to ancilla qubits and measure those, which does not destroy the coherent superposition.





Syndromes	Bit flipped	X	У
$ \psi\rangle = \alpha 000\rangle + \beta 111\rangle$	None	0	0
$ \psi_1\rangle = \alpha 100\rangle + \beta 011\rangle$	1	1	0
$ \psi_2\rangle = \alpha 010\rangle + \beta 101\rangle$	2	1	1
$ \psi_3\rangle = \alpha 001\rangle + \beta 110\rangle$	3	0	1



- $X^{x\tilde{y}}$ gate on qubit 1, only if x=1 and y=0 \rightarrow correcting $|\psi_1\rangle$
- X^{xy} gate on qubit 2, only if x=1 and y=1 \rightarrow correcting $|\psi_2\rangle$
- $X^{\tilde{x}y}$ gate on qubit 3, only if x=0 and y=0 \rightarrow correcting $|\psi_3\rangle$



 $X^{x\tilde{y}}$ gate on qubit 1, only if x=1 and y=0 \rightarrow correcting $|\psi_1\rangle$

 X^{xy} gate on qubit 2, only if x=1 and y=1 \rightarrow correcting $|\psi_2\rangle$

 $X^{\tilde{x}y}$ gate on qubit 3, only if x=0 and y=0 \rightarrow correcting $|\psi_3\rangle$

 What if errors in quantum circuits can arise continuously from zero? (Assume the error rate is small)

 $|\psi\rangle = \alpha |000\rangle + \beta |111\rangle$

$$|\psi\rangle \longrightarrow \left[1 + (\epsilon_1 X_1 + \epsilon_2 X_2 + \epsilon_3 X_3)\right] |\psi\rangle \qquad \epsilon_i \in \mathbb{C}, \ |\epsilon_i| \ll 1$$

Stabilizer Formalism

- Useful method for error correction of arbitrary error.
- Consider two Hermitian operators, Z_1Z_2 and Z_2Z_3

 $Z_i^2 = I_{2\times 2} \qquad Z_1 Z_2 = Z_2 Z_1 \qquad (Z_1 Z_2)^2 = I_{2\times 2} \qquad (Z_2 Z_3)^2 = I_{2\times 2}$ $\longrightarrow A^2 = I_{2\times 2} \qquad \text{eigenvalues} = \pm 1 \qquad Ax = \lambda x \qquad A^2 x = \lambda^2 x = x \qquad \lambda^2 = 1$ $\longrightarrow [Z_1 Z_2, Z_2 Z_3] = 0 \qquad Z_1 Z_3 \text{ and } Z_2 Z_3 \text{ have the same eigenvectors }.$

Syndromes	Z_1Z_2	Z_2Z_3	X	y	
$ \psi\rangle = \alpha 000\rangle + \beta 111\rangle$	1	1	0	0	$Z_1 Z_2 = (-1)^x$
$ \psi_1\rangle = \alpha 100\rangle + \beta 011\rangle = X_1 \psi\rangle$	-1	1	1	0	$Z_2 Z_3 = (-1)^y$
$ \psi_2\rangle = \alpha 010\rangle + \beta 101\rangle = X_2 \psi\rangle$	-1	-1	1	1	
$ \psi_3\rangle = \alpha 001\rangle + \beta 110\rangle = X_3 \psi\rangle$	1	-1	0	1	

• Syndromes are eigenvectors of Z_1Z_2 and Z_2Z_3 .

• Stabilizers are operators whose eigenvalues distinguish the different syndromes.

Properties of Stabilizers and Syndromes

- Syndromes are eigenvectors of Z_1Z_2 and Z_2Z_3 .
- Stabilizers are operators whose eigenvalues distinguish the different syndromes.
- Eigenvalues of a stabilizer in a syndrome is +1 or -1.
- Eigenvalues of all stabilizers are +1 in the uncorrupted syndrome $|\psi\rangle$.
- Operators for the stabilizers are built out of the single qubit operators Z_i and X_i .
- Syndromes with a single qubit error are obtained by acting on the uncorrupted syndrome with X_i , Y_i and Z_i operators.
- For a general stabilizer A_{α} and a syndrome state $|\psi_{\beta}\rangle = B_{\beta} |\psi\rangle$, A_{α} either commutes or anti-commutes with B_{β} .
 - $-B_{\beta}$ involves a single Pauli's operator (X, Y or Z).
 - $-A_{\alpha}$ involves a product of Pauli's operators (X's, and Z's b/c Y = iXZ).

Properties of Stabilizers and Syndromes

• If $[A_{\alpha}, B_{\beta}] = 0$, $A_{\alpha} |\psi_{\beta}\rangle = +1 |\psi_{\beta}\rangle$ and eigenvalue of the stabilizer A_{α} in state $|\psi_{\beta}\rangle$ is +1.

 $-A_{\alpha} |\psi\rangle = A_{\alpha} B_{\beta} |\psi\rangle = B_{\beta} A_{\alpha} |\psi\rangle = B_{\beta} |\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$

- If $\{A_{\alpha}, B_{\beta}\} = 0$, $A_{\alpha} |\psi_{\beta}\rangle = -1 |\psi_{\beta}\rangle$ $-A_{\alpha} |\psi\rangle = A_{\alpha}B_{\beta} |\psi\rangle = -B_{\beta}A_{\alpha} |\psi\rangle = -B_{\beta} |\psi\rangle = -|\psi\rangle$
- Syndromes must be eigenvectors of all stabilizers \rightarrow stabilizers must commute each other
- How to determine efficiently if a stabilizer commutes or anti-commutes with the operator which generates a corrupted syndrome out of the uncorrupted syndrome?
- For the case of 3-qubit bit-flip code, stabilizers are Z_1Z_2 and Z_2Z_3 .
- Operators which generate the corrupted syndromes from the uncorrupted syndrome: X_1 , X_2 and X_3 .

Properties of Stabilizers and Syndromes

- How to determine efficiently if a stabilizer commutes or anti-commutes with the operator which generates a corrupted syndrome out of the uncorrupted syndrome?
- For the case of 3-qubit bit-flip code, stabilizers are Z_1Z_2 and Z_2Z_3 .
- Operators which generate the corrupted syndromes from the uncorrupted syndrome: X_1 , X_2 and X_3 .
 - $-X_1$ commutes with $Z_2Z_3 \leftrightarrow [X_1, Z_2Z_3] = 0$. \therefore no sites in common $\rightarrow Z_2Z_3 |\psi_1\rangle = +1 |\psi_1\rangle$
 - $-X_2 \text{ has one common site with } Z_2Z_3. \rightarrow X_2Z_2Z_3 = -Z_2X_2Z_3 = -Z_2Z_3X_2$ $\rightarrow \{X_1, Z_2Z_3\} = 0 \rightarrow Z_2Z_3 |\psi_2\rangle = -|\psi_2\rangle$

Stabilizer Formalism

- In the stabilizer formalism, we need to construct a set of Hermitian operators (stabilizers) which satisfy the following properties
 - They square to 1 (so eigenvalues are ± 1).
 - They mutually commute (so they have the same eigenvectors).
 - The syndromes are eigenstates.
 - The uncorrupted syndrome has eigenvalue +1 for all stabilizers.
 - The set of ±1 eigenvalues of the stabilizers uniquely specifies the syndrome.
 - Whether the eigenvalue is +1 or -1 is easily determined from the commutation properties of the stabilizer with respect to the operator which generate the corruption in the syndrome.

Stabilizer Formalism: Circuits

• Circuit which will measure the eigenvalues of stabilizers and hence determine which syndromes have occurred.

$$U = U^{\dagger} \qquad |0\rangle \qquad H \qquad control \qquad H \qquad for all interval in$$

Stabilizer Formalism: Circuits

- If a measurement of the upper qubit gives $|0\rangle$ (with probability $|\alpha_{+}|^{2}$), the lower qubit will be in state $|\psi_{+}\rangle$.
- If a measurement of the upper qubit gives $|1\rangle$ (with probability $|\alpha_{-}|^{2}$), the lower qubit will be in state $|\psi_{-}\rangle$.
- ∴ control bit tells us which eigenstates of U the target qubit is in.



Bitflip code for 3 qubits







Phase Flip

• With some probability p, the relative phase of $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ is flipped.

Phase
Flip
Bit Flip
$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle \longrightarrow \alpha |0\rangle - \beta |1\rangle$$
in Z-basis (computational basis
$$\begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow Z \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ -\beta \end{pmatrix}$$
in Z-basis (computational basis)
$$X|0\rangle = |1\rangle$$

Bit Flip
$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle \longrightarrow \alpha |1\rangle + \beta |0\rangle$$
 $X|0\rangle = |1\rangle$
 $\begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow X \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta \\ \alpha \end{pmatrix}$ $X|1\rangle = |0\rangle$

 Phase flip error model can be turned into the bit-flip error model by transforming to the ± basis (X basis).

$$|+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(|0\rangle + |1\rangle \right) \qquad \qquad |-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(|0\rangle - |1\rangle \right)$$

Transformation is Hadamard:

 $H|0\rangle = |+\rangle \qquad H|+\rangle = |0\rangle$ $H|1\rangle = |-\rangle \qquad H|-\rangle = |1\rangle$

Phase Flip

• In the X-basis, roles of X and Z are interchanged.

Bit-flip	$\begin{aligned} X 0 \rangle &= 1 \rangle \\ X 1 \rangle &= 0 \rangle \end{aligned}$	$Z +\rangle = -\rangle$ $Z -\rangle = +\rangle$	Phase-flip
Phase-flip	$Z 0\rangle = 0\rangle$ $Z 1\rangle = - 1\rangle$	$X +\rangle = +\rangle$ $X -\rangle = - -\rangle$	Bit-flip
In c	omputational basis (Z-basis)	In X-basis	

• Stabilizers to detect phase errors involve X-operations as opposed to those used to detect bit-flip errors which involve Z-operators.



Circuit to encode 3-qubit bit-flip code acting on a linear combination of $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$

Encoding circuit for the 3-qubit phase flip