Fast Erasure Decoder for a Class of Quantum LDPC Codes Nicholas Connolly*¹, Vivien Londe², Anthony Leverrier¹, and Nicolas Delfosse³ ¹Inria Paris, ²Microsoft France, ³Microsoft Quantum https://arxiv.org/abs/2208.01002

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Main Result

We consider the decoding problem for HGP codes, one of the most popular families of quantum LDPC codes. We propose a decoder which closely approximates the maximum likelihood decoder, but with computational complexity reduced by an order of magnitude.

Classical Codes and Tanner Graphs

A classical binary linear code C is a vector space over \mathbb{Z}_2 . A code of length n is defined to be the kernel of an $r \times n$ parity check matrix H. Vectors $x \in C \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_2^n$ are known as codewords, and C has dimension k as a subspace of \mathbb{Z}_2^n . A code $C = \ker(H)$ may be visualized by its **Tanner graph** T(H).



Hypergraph Product Codes



Figure 6: Geometric structure of the Tanner graph of a HGP of two 3-bit repetition codes (equivalent to the 3×3 toric code).



Figure 1: The 3-bit repetition code, its parity check matrix, and its Tanner graph.

- T(H) is a bipartite graph with vertex set $A \cup B$.
- $-A = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ is the set of **bits** in C (one vertex for each column in H).
- $-B = \{b_1, \dots, b_r\}$ is the set of **checks** in C (one vertex for each row in H).
- There exists an edge between b_i and a_j if and only if $H_{i,j} \neq 0$.
- $C = \ker(H)$ is a low density parity check (LDPC) code if H is a sparse matrix.

Classical Error Correction

- 1. An initial codeword $x \in C = \ker(H) \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_2^n$ is sent. 2. A corrupted codeword $y = x + e \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n$ is received. 3. A syndrome measurement $s = Hy = He \in \mathbb{Z}_2^r$ is made. 4. The decoder predicts an error \hat{e} satisfying $s = H\hat{e}$. 5. Error correction $y + \hat{e}$ is performed.
- syndrome noise message $egin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{array}$ \Rightarrow =s = Hyx + e = yr
- 6. The original codeword is recovered if $y + \hat{e} = x$.



The Erasure Channel and the Peeling Decoder

• An erasure refers to the loss of a *known* subset of bits \mathcal{E} . $-\mathcal{E}$ induces a subgraph of the Tanner graph T(H). $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ -Figure: $H = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ with $\mathcal{E} = \{a_3, a_4, a_5\}$. $1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1$



Theorem (Tillich-Zémor):

The hypergraph product (HGP) code of two classical codes $C_1 = \ker(H_1)$ and $C_2 = \ker(H_2)$ is the quantum code $C = \text{CSS}(C_X, C_Z)$, where $C_X = \ker(H_X)$ and $C_Z = \ker(H_Z)$ have parity check matrices H_X and H_Z defined from H_1 and H_2 by the formulas shown in Figure 6.

- C has length $N = n_1 n_2 + r_1 r_2$, where $H_1 = [r_1 \times n_1]$ and $H_2 = [r_2 \times n_2]$ are the matrix sizes.
- C has dimension $K = N \operatorname{rank}(H_X) \operatorname{rank}(H_Z)$.
- C has minimum distance $min(d_1, d_2)$, where d_1 and d_2 are the minimum distances of C_1 and C_2 .

Generalized Peeling Decoder for HGP Codes

By mapping Pauli errors $X_i, Z_i \in P_N$ onto binary strings $e_i \in \mathbb{Z}_2^N$, the erasure decoding problem for a CSS code can be modeled as a classical erasure problem using H_Z or H_X , and the peeling decoder directly applied.

- We try to use the classical peeling decoder with HGP codes, but observe that it does not perform well.
- This poor performance results from the presence of stopping sets unique to HGP codes.
- We design different versions of a generalized peeling decoder to overcome these stopping sets.
- Numerical simulations show that we can achieve a performance close to the maximum likelihood decoder.





- Erasure correction can be achieved using error correction.
- Erased bits in \mathcal{E} are assigned random values.
- The **Peeling Decoder** does this efficiently for LDPC codes.

Figure 3: Erasure-induced subgraph of the Tanner graph T(H).

1. Given erasure pattern \mathcal{E} , a **dangling** (degree 1) check in the erasure induced subgraph of T(H) is selected. 2. The adjacent erased bit is corrected and then removed from \mathcal{E} , shrinking the erasure and the subgraph. 3. The algorithm terminates when $\mathcal{E} = \emptyset$, or fails when \mathcal{E} is a **stopping set** (contains no dangling checks).



Figure 4: Example of a sequence of stages in the peeling decoder; each "peel" reduces the size of the erasure \mathcal{E} until empty.

Families of Quantum Codes

A quantum code of length N and dimension K is a subspace of a Hilbert space; vectors are N-qubit states $|\psi\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^N$. Errors on a state $|\psi\rangle$ are described discretely by N-qubit Pauli operators in $P_N = \{I, X, Z, Y\}^{\otimes N}$. • Stabilizer codes are defined as the space of states left fixed by some subgroup of the Pauli-group P_N . • CSS codes are a subclass of stabilizer codes defined by *commuting* N-qubit X- and Z-Pauli operators.

Figure 7: Two types of HGP stopping sets for the peeling decoder: stabilizer (left) and classical (right)

Stabilizer Stopping Sets and the Pruned Peeling Decoder

1. Given erasure pattern \mathcal{E} , apply the peeling decoder algorithm until \mathcal{E} contains no remaining dangling checks. 2. If \mathcal{E} contains the qubit-support S of an X-type stabilizer, then $S \subseteq \mathcal{E}$ is a stabilizer stopping set of $T(H_Z)$. 3. Remove a qubit in S from \mathcal{E} and continue peeling (errors are corrected up to multiplication by a stabilizer).

Classical Stopping Sets and the Vertical-Horizontal (VH) Decoder

1. Apply the pruned peeling decoder algorithm until \mathcal{E} contains no dangling checks and no erased stabilizers. 2. \mathcal{E} contains a classical stopping set if it contains a stopping set for $T(H_1)$ (vertical) or $T(H_2)$ (horizontal). 3. Apply the Gaussian (ML) decoder on classical stopping sets in sequence and continue peeling. 4. The VH decoder will terminate provided clusters of classical stopping sets do not form a closed loop.

Numerical Simulations and Computational Complexity



- X- and Z-Pauli stabilizer generators define the rows of matrices H_X and H_Z (where $H_X H_Z^T = 0$). -CSS Z and X error correction is modeled using the classical codes $C_X = \ker(H_X)$ and $C_Z = \ker(H_Z)$. • Surface codes are a subclass of CSS codes defined from a cellulation of a surface.



Example of the 3×3 **Toric Code**

- Edges define qubits.
- Vertices define X-stabilizer generators.
- $-X^{b_1a_2} = X_{a_1a_2}X_{a_2a_2}X_{b_1b_1}X_{b_1b_2}$
- Detect Z-errors on adjacent qubits.
- Plaquettes define Z-stabilizer generators.
- $-Z^{a_2b_2} = Z_{a_2a_2}Z_{a_2a_3}Z_{b_1b_2}Z_{b_2b_2}$
- Detect X-errors on adjacent qubits.
- X- and Z-stabilizers overlap on 0 or 2 qubits. - Commutivity: $X^{b_1a_2}Z^{a_2b_2} = Z^{a_2b_2}X^{b_1a_2}$

Figure 5: Standard lattice visualization of the 3×3 toric code, with labels matching the HGP Tanner graph of Figure 6.

Figure 8: Comparison of performance for Pruned Peeling, VH, and ML decoders for three randomly generated HGP codes.

VH Decoder Performance

Simulations show that pruned peeling (with M stabilizer generators) combined with the VH decoder performs almost as well as the Gaussian (ML) decoder applied to random LDPC HGP codes at low erasure rates.

Complexity of the VH Decoder

For a HGP code of length N, the classical codes used in the construction have length on the order of \sqrt{N} . • The VH decoder is dominated by the cubic complexity Gaussian decoder on these classical codes. • Complexity grows as $O(N^{\frac{3}{2}})$ per classical code and $O(N^2)$ across all classical codes. • Probabilistic implementation of the Gaussian decoder in quadratic complexity reduces this to $O(N^{1.5})$.