Quantum Tanner codes

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Abstract—Tanner codes are long error correcting codes obtained from short codes and a graph, with bits on the edges and parity-check constraints from the short codes enforced at the vertices of the graph. Combining good short codes together with a spectral expander graph yields the celebrated expander codes of Sipser and Spielman, which are asymptotically good classical LDPC codes.

In this work we apply this prescription to the left-right Cayley complex that lies at the heart of the recent construction of a $C^\perp$ locally testable code by Dinur et al. Specifically, we view this complex as two graphs that share the same set of edges. By defining a Tanner code on each of those graphs we obtain two classical codes that together define a quantum code. This construction can be seen as a simplified variant of the Panteleev and Kalachev asymptotically good quantum LDPC code, with improved estimates for its minimum distance. This quantum code is closely related to the Dinur et al. code in more than one sense: indeed, we prove a theorem that simultaneously gives a linearly growing minimum distance for the quantum code and recovers the local testability of the Dinur et al. code.

Index Terms—Quantum error correcting code

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Contributions

Constructing good linear error correcting codes has been a major endeavor of the information theory community since the early existence results of Shannon. In the past decades, codes have found new playgrounds in fields such as program checking, probabilistically checkable proofs or even quantum computing. Such applications require additional properties beside the capability to correct errors. For instance, a locally testable code (LTC) comes with the remarkable feature that it is possible to read a constant number of bits of a noisy message and estimate how far the message is from the code. In a recent breakthrough, Dinur et al. [1] showed that LTCs exist even when requiring constant rate, constant distance and constant locality. For quantum computing, codes must be able to correct two types of errors: (classical) bit flips and (quantum) phase flips. For this reason, one can define quantum codes by giving a pair of linear codes $C_0$, $C_1$ that will each correct one type of errors. These codes cannot be chosen arbitrarily: they must satisfy some compatibility condition that reads $C_1 \supset C_0$. Of major interest — for theory and experiments — are quantum low-density parity-check (LDPC) codes corresponding to the case when both $C_0 = \ker H_0$ and $C_1 = \ker H_1$ are defined by sparse parity-check matrices $H_0$ and $H_1$. Here, the major open question concerned the existence of good quantum LDPC codes displaying a constant rate and a constant (relative) distance, and was answered positively in the breakthrough work of Panteleev and Kalachev [2], which also provided an alternative construction of classical LTC.

A specific combinatorial object lies at the heart of the construction of the LTC of Dinur et al. [1]: a square complex, and more specifically a left-right Cayley complex, which is a generalisation of expander graphs in higher dimension with cells of dimension 0 (vertices), 1 (edges) and 2 (squares, hence the name). We note that left-right Cayley complexes are also equal to balanced products of Cayley graphs, as introduced by Breuckmann and Eberhardt [3]. Recalling the seminal expander codes of Sipser and Spielman [4] building on the ideas of Tanner [5] to obtain good classical LDPC codes by putting the bits on the edges of an expander graph and the parity-check constraints on its vertices via codes of constant size, it is tempting to apply a similar recipe with higher dimensional objects such as square complexes. In that case, the bits are naturally placed on the 2-dimensional cells of the complex (squares) and the constraints are again enforced at the vertices. The novelty then is that the local view of a vertex becomes a matrix of bits, and allows one to use constraints corresponding to a small tensor product code. The consequence is far reaching: the redundancy between the row constraints and column constraints of the small tensor codes translates into a form of robustness, which can then propagate to the entire code through the square complex, giving in particular the LTCs of Dinur et al. when the square complex is sufficiently expanding.

In the present paper, we apply the Tanner code prescription to the quantum case and construct quantum codes with qubits on the squares and constraints on the vertices of a left-right Cayley complex. The condition $C_1 \supset C_0$ prevents the constraints to be those of small tensor codes, but should come from the dual of such tensor codes. We show that if the complex is sufficiently expanding (e.g. the complex of [1]) and if the small dual tensor codes exhibit robustness (which is true with high probability for random codes [2]), then the construction gives rise to a family of asymptotically good LDPC codes displaying constant rate and linear minimal distance. The present construction borrows a lot from [2], indeed it uses the same ingredients, since [2] also uses Tanner...
codes and has a left-right Cayley complex embedded in its construction: the proposed code family may therefore be seen as a simplified variant of [2]. However, we wish to stress that it also involves a conceptual shift: the recent series of breakthrough asymptotic constructions of LDPC codes with large distances [2, 6–8] arguably relies upon increasingly refined notions of chain-complex products that improve upon the simple product idea of [9]. Our approach breaks away from this paradigm by proposing to take a geometric (square) complex and directly apply to it the Tanner code strategy. Indeed, we show that the square complex can be viewed as two ordinary graphs that share the same set of edges, and the two classical codes \( C_0, C_1 \) that make up the quantum code are simply defined as classical Tanner codes on these two graphs. We obtain improved estimates for the minimum distance of the resulting quantum code, which for any given code rate scales like \( n/\Delta^{3/2+\varepsilon} \), where \( n \) is the code length, \( \Delta \) is the degree of the underlying Cayley graphs, and \( \varepsilon > 0 \) can be taken to be arbitrarily close to 0.

Interestingly, Panteleev and Kalachev showed that there is often a classical LTC hiding behind a good quantum LDPC code, and it turns out that we can recover exactly the LTC of Dinur et al. from our quantum Tanner codes.\(^1\) It can indeed be argued that the present construction is the missing link between the quantum code construction of [2] and the LTC construction of [1], for we show that the linear minimum distance of our quantum code and the local testability of the Dinur et al. code are direct consequences of a unifying Theorem that is the main technical result of the present work.

**B. Context and history**

**a) Locally testable codes:** A binary linear code is a subspace of \( \mathbb{F}_2^n \). A \( \kappa \)-locally testable code with \( q \) queries is a code \( C \) that comes with a tester: the tester requires access to at most \( q \) of bits of any given \( n \)-bit word \( x \), accepts all words of the code, and rejects a word \( x \notin C \) with probability \( \geq \frac{\varepsilon}{n} d(x, C) \), where \( d(x,C) \) is the Hamming distance from \( x \) to the code, and \( \kappa \) is a constant called the detection probability. A \( c^3 \)-LTC, as constructed in [1], is such that the rate and distance of the code, as well as the number \( q \) of queries, are all constant. In that example, the test simply picks a vertex of the left-right Cayley complex and checks whether the local conditions corresponding to the small tensor code are satisfied.

LTCs were defined in the early 90s [10] and were first studied in the context of probabilistically checkable proofs (PCPs), before being investigated as mathematical objects of interest notably in [11]. A good overview of the field can be found in [12]. Let us note that a third construction of \( c^3 \)-LTC, besides those of [1] and [2], was obtained by Lin and Hsieh [13] through a method similar to that of [2], but relying on lossless expanders rather than spectral expanders.

\(^1\)Note however that it is not recovered through the prescription of Lemma 1 in [2] which would give another \( c^3 \)-LTC, namely \( \ker H_0^4 \), with degraded parameters.

**b) Quantum LDPC codes:** Defining the distance of a quantum code is slightly more complicated than in the classical case (where it is the minimum Hamming weight of a nonzero codeword). It is the minimum of two distances, \( d_X \) and \( d_Z \), that basically characterize how well the code behaves against the two possible types of errors occurring in the quantum case: X-type errors, also called bit flips (swapping the basis states \( |0 \rangle \) and \( |1 \rangle \)) and Z-type errors, or phase flips (adding a phase \(-1\) to the state \( |1 \rangle \) while acting trivially on \( |0 \rangle \)). Recall that a quantum CSS code [14], [15] is defined by a pair of classical codes \( C_0 = \ker H_0, C_1 = \ker H_1 \) such that \( C_0 \supset C_0^\perp \) (or equivalently \( H_0 \cdot H_1^\perp = 0 \)). The distance of the code is then given by \( d = \min(\{d_X, d_Z\}) \) with \( d_X = \min_{w \in C_0 \setminus C_0^\perp} |w| \), \( d_Z = \min_{w \in C_1 \setminus C_1^\perp} |w| \). It is worth noting that for a quantum LDPC code, the sparsity of \( H_0 \) and \( H_1 \) implies that both \( C_0^\perp \) and \( C_1^\perp \), and therefore \( C_0 \) and \( C_1 \) contain (many) words of constant weight. In particular, the codes \( C_0 \) and \( C_1 \) are not asymptotically good, quite the opposite!

The study of quantum LDPC codes arguably started around 1997 with the paradigmatic surface code construction of Kitaev [16] that encodes a constant number of logical qubits into \( n \) physical qubits and achieves a distance of \( \sqrt{n} \). Improving on this scaling turned out to be challenging: despite an early construction of [17] achieving \( n^{1/2} \log^{1/4} n \) in 2002, no further progress was made on this question until 2020.

In the meantime, a major development was the idea of taking a special product of classical codes [9], which turned out to correspond to the tensor product of chain complexes that represent the two classical codes, and yielded quantum codes of constant rate and minimum distance \( \Theta(\sqrt{n}) \). Things accelerated quickly in 2020 when the logarithmic dependence of [17] was first improved for constructions based on high-dimensional expanders [18], [19], and then much more decisively in a series of works [6–8] introducing various combinations of chain complex products together with graph lifts. Already well known in the classical case, lifts turned out to be crucial to significantly break the \( \sqrt{n} \) barrier on the distance of quantum LDPC codes. Finally, Panteleev and Kalachev proved the existence of asymptotically good quantum LDPC codes by considering non-abelian lifts of products of (classical) Tanner codes [2].

We also remark that it is possible to define quantum locally testable codes [20]. The existence of such codes would have implications in Hamiltonian complexity, which is the quantum version of computational complexity. In particular, such codes would imply the NLTS conjecture formulated by Hastings [21], [22], and which is itself implied by the quantum PCP conjecture [23]. Current constructions of quantum LTC are still very weak at the moment and far from sufficient for such applications, however: they only encode a constant number of logical qubits with a minimum distance bounded by \( O(\sqrt{n}) \) [24], [25].

A very fruitful approach to prove the existence of certain objects is the probabilistic method and it is indeed very effective to prove that good classical LDPC codes [26] and
good quantum (non LDPC) codes [14], [15] exist. This method has failed, however, to produce $c^3$-LTCs or good quantum LDPC codes. On the one hand, it is well known that a good LDPC code cannot be locally testable since removing a single constraint will yield another good code and therefore a word violating this single constraint will actually be far from the code; on the other hand, picking a good LDPC code for $C_0$ in the quantum case forces one to choose $c^1$ to contain words of large weight and $C_1$ will then not be LDPC. For both problems, it seems essential to enforce some minimal structure, and left-right Cayley complexes have provided this fitting, long-awaited framework.

The paper is organised as follows. Section II gives an overview of the paper, describes the quantum code construction, states the main theorem and its consequences, with sketches of proofs. It is structured as a stand-alone extended summary and concludes with some open problems. Section III is a preliminary to the detailed part of the paper and introduces the required technical material. Section IV is the core of the paper, giving the detailed construction of the quantum code, proving the main theorem and showing how it implies a linear version of the paper [27] is devoted to proving the required behaviour of random dual tensor codes.

II. OVERVIEW

a) The left-right Cayley complex.: Let us summarise the construction of the square complex of Dinur et al. [1]. It is an incidence structure $X$ between a set $V$ of vertices, two sets of edges $E_A$ and $E_B$, that we will refer to as $A$-edges and $B$-edges, and a set $Q$ of squares (or quadrangles). The vertex-set $V$ is defined from a group $G$: it will be useful for us that the complex is bipartite, i.e., the vertex set is partitioned as $V = V_0 \cup V_1$, with $V_0$ and $V_1$ both identified as a copy of the group $G$. Formally, we set $V_0 = G \times \{0\}$ and $V_1 = G \times \{1\}$. Next we have two self-inverse subsets $A = A^{-1}$ and $B = B^{-1}$ of the group $G$: a vertex $v_0 = (g,0) \in V_0$ and a vertex $v_1 = (g,1)$ are said to be related by an $A$-edge if $g' = ag$ for some $a \in A$. Similarly, $v_0$ and $v_1$ are said to be related by a $B$-edge if $g' = gb$ for some $b \in B$. The sets $E_A$ and $E_B$ make up the set of $A$-edges and $B$-edges respectively. In other words, the graph $G_A = (V,E_A)$ is the double cover of the left Cayley graph $Cay(G,A)$ and likewise $G_B = (V,E_B)$ is the double cover of the right Cayley graph $Cay(G,B)$.

Next, the set $Q$ of squares is defined as the set of 4-subsets of vertices of the form $\{(g,0),(ag,1),(gb,1),(agb,0)\}$. A square is therefore made up of two vertices of $V_0$, two vertices of $V_1$ as represented on Figure 1.

Let us remark that, if we restrict the vertex set to $V_0$, every square is now incident to only two vertices (those in $V_0$). The set of squares can now be seen as a set of edges on $V_0$, and it therefore defines a graph that we denote by $G^{(0)} = (V_0,Q)$. Similarly, restricting to vertices of $V_1$ defines the graph $G^{(1)}$, which is an exact replica of $G^{(0)}$; both graphs are defined over a copy of the group $G$, with $g,g',\in G$ being related by an edge whenever $g' = agb$ for some $a \in A, b \in B$. We assume for simplicity that $A$ and $B$ are of the same cardinality $\Delta$.

b) Tanner codes on the complex $X$. : Recall the definition of a Tanner code, or expander code, on a graph, [4], [5]. For $S = (V,E)$ a regular graph of degree $n_0$ and $C_0$ a binary linear code of length $n_0$, we define the Tanner code $T(S,C_0)$ on $\mathbb{F}_2^V$ as the set of binary vectors indexed by $E$ (functions from $E$ to $\mathbb{F}_2$), such that on the edge neighbourhood of every vertex $v \in V$, we see a codeword of $C_0^2$. Sipser and Spielman’s celebrated result is that if the graph $S$ is chosen from a family of $n_0$-regular expander graphs, and if the base code $C_0$ has sufficiently large minimum distance and sufficiently large rate, then the Tanner codes $T(S,C_0)$ form a family of asymptotically good codes.

Now for every vertex $v$ of the graph $G^{(0)} = (V_0,Q)$ (or of $G^{(1)}$) associated to the square complex $X$, there is a natural identification of its neighbourhood with the product set $A \times B$. It therefore makes sense to consider codes $C_0$ on the coordinate set $A \times B$ that are obtained from two small codes $C_A$ and $C_B$ of length $\Delta = |A| = |B|$, defined on coordinate sets $A$ and $B$, respectively. We will refer to the restriction of an assignment $x \in \mathbb{F}_2^V$ to the $Q$-neighbourhood $Q(v)$ of some vertex $v \in V_0$ as the local view of $x$ in $v$. The Tanner code construction therefore consists in constraining the local views of $x$ to belong to the code $C_0$. 

c) The locally testable code of Dinur et al.: Let $C_0$ be defined as the tensor code $C_A \otimes C_B$ on the coordinate set $A \times B$. In other words, this is the code such that for every fixed $b \in B$, we see a codeword of $C_A$ on $\{(a,b), a \in A\}$, and for every fixed $a$ we see a codeword of $C_B$ on $\{(a,b), b \in B\}$. The Tanner code $T(S,G^{(0)},C_0)$ is exactly the locally testable code of Dinur et al. [1]. If $C_A = C_B$ is a linear code with parameters $[\Delta, \rho \Delta, \delta \Delta]$, the resulting Tanner code $T(S,G^{(0)},C_0)$ has length $\Delta^2|G|/2$, a rate at least $2\rho^2 - 1$ and is shown to have a normalized minimum distance $\geq \sqrt{\delta} (\delta - \lambda/\Delta)$, where $\lambda$ is the (common) second largest eigenvalue of the Cayley graphs $Cay(G,A)$ and $Cay(G,B)$ [1].

d) Two Tanner codes that define a quantum LDPC code.: Besides the base code $C_0 = C_A \otimes C_B$ that we have defined 2 this implies some identification, or map, between the edge neighbourhood of each vertex and the coordinate set $[n_0]$ on which $C_0$ is defined

2Formally, this identification is well-defined provided that the complex satisfies the Total No-Conjugacy condition, see Section III-B for a precise statement.
over $A \times B$, define the code $C_A = C_A^\perp \otimes C_B$. Now consider the two Tanner codes $C_0 = T(G_0^A, C_0^B)$ and $C_1 = T(G_1^A, C_1^B)$ that are defined over the same coordinate set $Q$. We claim that this pair of codes $(C_0, C_1)$ satisfies the definition of a quantum CSS code, namely that $C_1 \supset C_0^\perp$. Note crucially that we now enforce constraints corresponding to the dual of a tensor code at each vertex.

This last fact is best seen by looking at the generators (in quantum coding jargon) or parity-checks for these codes. Define a $C_0$-generator for $C_0$ (resp. a $C_1$-generator for $C_1$) as a vector of $\mathbb{F}_2^n$ whose support lies entirely in the $Q$-neighbourhood $Q(v)$ of a vertex $v$ of $V_0$ (resp. $V_1$), and which is equal to a codeword of $C_0$ (resp. $C_1$) on $Q(v)$. (The codes $C_i$ and $C_j$ should not be confused!) The code $C_0$ (resp. $C_1$) is by definition the space of vectors orthogonal to all $C_0$-generators ($C_1$-generators). Now consider a $C_0$-generator and a $C_1$-generator on vertices $v_0$ and $v_1$. If the generators have intersecting supports then the vertices $v_0$ and $v_1$ must be neighbours. If they are connected by a $B$-edge, then their $Q$-neighbourhoods $A \times B$ share an $A$-set $\{(a, b), a \in A\}$ for a fixed $b$, on which the $C_1$-generator must equal a codeword of $C_0$ and the $C_1$-generator must equal a codeword of $C_0$. The two generators must therefore be orthogonal to each other. We reach the same conclusion analogously if $v_0$ and $v_1$ are connected by an $A$-edge.

For reasons of symmetry, we will wish the base codes $C_0$ and $C_1$ to have the same rate: we will require $C_A$ to have some rate $\rho$ and $C_B$ to have rate $1-\rho$. In this case, the length of the quantum code $Q = (C_0, C_1)$ is given by the number of squares in the complex, namely $\Delta^2|G|/2$, and the number of parity check constraints is $2\rho(1-\rho)\Delta^2|G|$. We conclude that the quantum code has rate at least $(2\rho-1)^2$ which is non-zero for every $\rho \neq 1/2$.

We will show that under the right conditions for the choice of the left-right Cayley complex $X$ and the component codes $C_A$ and $C_B$, we obtain an asymptotically good family of quantum codes $Q = (C_0, C_1)$. The required conditions on the choice of $X$ are the same as in [1], namely that the two Cayley graphs $\text{Cay}(G, A)$ and $\text{Cay}(G, B)$ should be Ramanujan graphs or almost Ramanujan graphs, i.e. with a second largest eigenvalue $\lambda \leq c\sqrt{\Delta}$ for some small constant $c$, and that a non-degeneracy condition (called Total No-Conjugacy or TNC) is satisfied by the sets $A, B$, ensuring that for all choices of $g \in G, a \in A$ and $b \in B$, it holds that $ag \neq gb$.

It is worth noting that the good asymptotic properties of classical expander codes follow as soon as the distance of the small code is larger than the second eigenvalue of the expander graph, since the normalized minimum distance is known to be at least $\delta(\Delta - \lambda/\Delta) \geq \delta$. In the case we are considering however, the distance of the small code is upper bounded by $\Delta$ while the second eigenvalue scales like $2\Delta$. It is therefore necessary to inspect more closely the structure of the small dual codes $C_A \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^n + \mathbb{F}_2^n \otimes C_B$ in order to get a nontrivial bound on the distance of the quantum Tanner code.

e) Robustness of the component codes $C_A, C_B$. The required conditions for the codes $C_A, C_B$ are that the minimum distances of $C_A, C_B, C_A^\perp$ and $C_B^\perp$ are all sufficiently large, and that the two dual tensor codes $(C_A \otimes C_B)^\perp$ and $(C_A^\perp \otimes C_B^\perp)$ are sufficiently robust. Viewing the sets $A$ and $B$ as the row and column sets respectively of $\Delta \times \Delta$ matrices, let us say that a dual tensor code $(C_A^\perp \otimes C_B^\perp)^\perp = C_A \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^n + \mathbb{F}_2^n \otimes C_B$ is $w$-robust if any codeword $x$ of weight $\leq w$ has its support included in the union of $|x|/d_A$ columns and $|x|/d_B$ rows, where $d_A$ and $d_B$ are the minimum distances of $C_A$ and $C_B$. A similar notion is used both in [1] and [2]. In particular, $w$-robustness is equivalent to a notion of robustness for the tensor code $C_A \otimes C_B$, which loosely speaking, says that if a vector of $\mathbb{F}_2^n \otimes C_B$ is close to the column code $C_A \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^n$ as well as to the row code $\mathbb{F}_2^n \otimes C_B$, then it must also be close to the tensor code $C_A \otimes C_B$. We shall be more precise with this notion later on.

To obtain asymptotically good quantum codes, we are however not quite able to prove the existence of component codes $C_A$, $C_B$ that yield robust dual tensor codes for a large enough parameter $w$. To overcome this problem, following [2], we introduce the following tweak: recall that if $C$ is a code defined on the coordinate set $S$, and $T \subset S$ is a subset of $S$, then we may define the punctured code that we will denote by $(C)_T$, as the set of codewords of $C$ restricted to the set of coordinates $T$. Let us say that the dual tensor code $C_A \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^n + \mathbb{F}_2^n \otimes C_B$ has $w$-robustness with resistance to puncturing $p$, if, for any subsets $A' \subset A$ and $B' \subset B$ of cardinality $\geq \Delta - w'$, $w' \leq p$, it remains $w$-robust when punctured outside of the set $A' \times B'$. Equivalently, if the dual tensor code obtained from the punctured codes $(C_A)_{A'}$ and $(C_B)_{B'}$ is $w$-robust.

Using the method of [2], we will obtain that for any $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/2)$ and $\gamma \in (1/2 + \varepsilon, 1)$, and for random pairs of codes $C_A, C_B$ of given fixed rates, the associated dual tensor code $C_A \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^n + \mathbb{F}_2^n \otimes C_B$ is, with high probability, $w$-robust with resistance to puncturing $w'$, for $w = \Delta^{3/2 - \varepsilon}$ and $w' = \Delta^\gamma$.

Our main technical result will now take the following form.

**Theorem 1.** Fix $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/2)$, $\gamma \in (1/2 + \varepsilon, 1)$ and $\delta > 0$. For any fixed large enough $\Delta$, if the component codes $C_A$ and $C_B$ have minimum distance $\geq \Delta^\delta$ and if the dual tensor code $C_A \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^n + \mathbb{F}_2^n \otimes C_B = C_{A'}^\perp$ is $w$-robust with $\varepsilon$-resistance to puncturing for $w = \Delta^{3/2 - \varepsilon}/2$ and $p = \Delta^\gamma$, then there exists an infinite family of square complexes $X$ for which the Tanner code $C_1 = T(G_1^A, C_1^\perp)$ of length $n = |Q|$ has the following property:

- **for any codeword $x \in C_1$ of non-zero weight $< \delta n / \Delta^{3/2 + \varepsilon}$, there exists a vertex $v \in V_0$, and a codeword $y \in C_1$ entirely supported by the $Q$-neighbourhood of $v$, on which it coincides with a codeword of the tensor code $C_A \otimes C_B$, and such that $|x+y| < |x|$.

We recall from [1] that there exists an infinite sequence of degrees $\Delta$ (namely $q + 1$, for $q$ an odd prime power), such that for each fixed degree $\Delta$, there exists an infinite family of left-right Cayley complexes (over the groups $G = \text{PSL}_2(q')$), satisfying the TNC condition, for which both the (left) Cayley graph $\text{Cay}(G, A)$ and the (right) Cayley graph $\text{Cay}(G, B)$ are.
Ramanujan graphs. These complexes provide the infinite families of Theorem 1. Let us also mention that randomly chosen codes $C_A$ and $C_B$ will typically achieve the requirements of the above theorem. In the quantum case, the codeword $y$ will in fact belong to $E_0^c$.

f) Sketch of proof of Theorem 1.: Let $x \in E_1$ be a codeword of sufficiently low weight. It induces a subgraph $G_{1,x}$ of $G_1$ with vertex set $S \subseteq V_1$. The local view for any $v \in S$ corresponds to a codeword of $C_1 = C_A \otimes F^2_2 + F^4_2 \otimes C_B$. The $w$-robustness of this code guarantees that codewords of weight less than $w = \Delta^{3/2-\varepsilon}$ have a support restricted to a small number of rows and columns: in particular, and this is the crucial consequence of the robustness property, it implies that the view restricted to any column (or row) is at distance $O(\Delta^{1/2-\varepsilon})$ from a word of $C_A$ (or $C_B$).

Let us call normal vertices the vertices of $S$ with degree less than $\Delta^{3/2-\varepsilon}$ in $G_{1,x}$. Expansion in $G_1$ ensures that the set of exceptional (i.e. not normal) vertices is small compared to $S$ and we will neglect it in this sketch. Dealing with exceptional vertices, however, is slightly technical since their number is not that small, and this is the reason why we will require robust codes that are resistant to puncturing (in order to discard rows or columns belonging to an exceptional vertex).

Define $T \subseteq V_0$ to be vertices of $V_0$ sharing a column (or a row) with a normal vertex in $S$, and such that the local view on this column (or row) is close to a nonzero codeword of $C_A$ (or $C_B$). The global codeword $x$ induces a subgraph of $G_A \cup G_B$ in which the vertices of $T$ have a degree $\Omega(\Delta)$. Expansion in the graph $G_A \cup G_B$ then implies that when $|x|$ is too small, there can’t be too many vertices in $T$, which in turn implies that a typical vertex in $T$ must be adjacent to a large number $\Omega(\Delta)$ of vertices in $S$. In other words, the rows and columns that are close to codewords of $C_A$ and $C_B$ in the local views of normal vertices of $S$, must cluster around the vertices of $T$. So the local view of a typical vertex of $T$ consist of many columns (or rows) containing almost undisturbed codewords of $C_A$ (or $C_B$). The robustness of $C_A \otimes C_B$ then implies that the local view of such a vertex must be $\Delta^{3/2-\varepsilon}$-close to a codeword $y$ of the tensor code, which cannot be the zero codeword since the local view has weight $\Omega(\Delta^2)$. Adding this codeword will decrease the weight of $x$.

g) Asymptotically good quantum codes.: A straightforward consequence of Theorem 1 is that the quantum code $Q = (E_0, E_1)$ described above has constant rate and minimum distance linear in its length $n$.

**Theorem 2.** Let $X$ be the infinite family of square complexes from Theorem 1. For any $\rho \in (0, 1/2)$, $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/2)$ and $\delta > 0$ satisfying $-\delta \log_2(\rho) - (1 - \delta) \log_2(1 - \delta) < \rho$, randomly choosing $C_A$ and $C_B$ of rates $\rho$ and $1 - \rho$ yields, with probability $> 0$ for $\Delta$ large enough, an infinite sequence of quantum codes $Q = (E_0, E_1)$ of rate $(2\rho - 1)^2$, length $n$ and minimum distance $\geq d_n/\Delta^{3/2+\varepsilon}$.

For a more precise statement see Theorems 17 and 18.

**Sketch of proof of Theorem 2.** Recall that the minimum distance of a quantum code $(E_0, E_1)$ is the smallest weight of a vector that is either in $E_0 \setminus E_1$ or in $E_1 \setminus E_0$. The vector $y$ in Theorem 1 is in $E_0^c$, so by applying repeatedly the existence a such a $y$, we obtain that any codeword $x$ of $E_1$ of weight $< d_n/\Delta^{3/2+\varepsilon}$ must belong to $E_0^c$. To similarly bound from below the weight of a vector in $E_0$ but not in $E_1$, one must apply Theorem 1 to the code $E_0$ instead of $E_1$, which just means that we need to ensure that the distance and robustness properties required of $C_A$ and $C_B$ are also satisfied by $C_A^c$ and $C_B^c$. We choose $C_A$ and $C_B$ randomly by picking a uniform random parity-check matrix for one code and a uniform random generator matrix for the other, so that properties typically satisfied by the pair $C_A, C_B$ will also be satisfied by the pair $C_A^c, C_B^c$.

**h) Recovering the local testability of the construction of [11].** Recall that the tester picks randomly a vertex $v \in V_0$ and checks whether the local view $x_v$ of the input vector $x \in F_2^Q$ belongs to the small tensor code $C_0 = C_A \otimes C_B$. Proving local testability amounts to proving that the distance $d(x, \mathcal{C})$ of $x$ to the LTC $\mathcal{C}$ is always proportional to the size $|S|$ of the subset $S \subseteq V_0$ of vertices for which $x_v$ is not a codeword of $C_0$. To this end we consider the collection $\mathcal{Z} = (c_v)_{v \in V_0}$ of all the closest $C_0$-codewords to the local views $x_v$ of $x$. Conflating the small vector $c_v \in E_0$ with a vector in $F_2^Q$ that equals $c_v$ on the $Q$-neighbourhood of $v$ and is zero elsewhere, we then define the vector $z = \sum_{v \in V_0} c_v \in F_2^Q$ that we call the mismatch of the collection $\mathcal{Z}$. If we have $z = 0$ then $\mathcal{Z}$ is the collection of local views of a global codeword $c \in \mathcal{C}$, and its distance to $x$ must be proportional (up to a $\Delta^2$ factor) to $|S|$. Otherwise the key observation is that the local views of the mismatch $z$ at all the vertices of $V_1$, must consist of codewords of $C_A \otimes F_2^Q + F_2^4 \otimes C_B$, in other words words $z$ must belong to the code $E_1$ of Theorem 1. The same Theorem 1 then states that there exists a vector $y_v \in F_2^Q$, that is equal to a codeword of $C_0$ on the $Q$-neighbourhood of some vertex $v \in V_0$, and such that $|z + y_v| < |z|$. Consequently, if one replaces $c_v$ by $c_v + y_v$, in the collection $\mathcal{Z}$, one reduces the weight of the mismatch, and by repeatedly applying the procedure (which we can think of as decoding the mismatch), we obtain a updated list $\mathcal{Z}$ than coincides with the set of local views of a codeword of $\mathcal{C}$ whose distance to $x$ is again easily shown to be proportional to the size of the original set $S$.

**i) Comments and open problems.** A natural follow up problem is to devise an efficient decoding algorithm for quantum Tanner codes. At the moment, to the best of our knowledge, the only efficient decoder for quantum codes that corrects adversarial errors of weight larger than $\sqrt{n}$ is that of [18] which can correct errors of weight $\Omega(\sqrt{n} \log n)$.

While the construction of quantum Tanner codes described above is arguably conceptually simpler than the balanced product and lifted product constructions of [2], [3], it comes at the price of larger weights for the generators, namely $\Theta(\Delta^2)$ instead of $\Theta(\Delta)$. Even if they are constant, it would be very useful to decrease these weights as much as possible and
it would be interesting to explore how the weight reduction technique of Hastings [28] can help on this issue.

It would be naturally very interesting to find other complexes, besides left-right Cayley complexes, on which the Tanner construction can be applied to yield good families of quantum LDPC codes.

It would also be desirable to have completely explicit constructions. Reed-Solomon codes (binarised versions) come close, but tensor codes of Reed-Solomon codes are only known to have the required robustness when the sum of the rates of the component codes is $< 1$ [29], which is insufficient for the above constructions. In a similar vein, we remark that if one could improve the robustness of the component dual tensor codes to values above $\Delta^{3/2}$, we could improve the dependence on $\Delta$ of the relative minimum distance of the quantum code, potentially up to $\Omega(1/\Delta)$. We also remark that we cannot hope to improve the dependence on $\Delta$ of the relative minimum distance above $O(1/\Delta)$. Indeed, we will prove the existence of words of $C_1 \cap C_0^\perp$ of weight less than $n/\Delta$ (see Section IV-C for details). This shows that there is little room for improvement in our estimation of the quantum code minimum distance.

III. PRELIMINARIES

A. Expander Graphs

Let $\mathcal{G} = (V, E)$ be a graph. Graphs will be undirected but may have multiple edges. For $S, T \subset V$, let $E(S, T)$ denote the multiset of edges with one endpoint in $S$ and one endpoint in $T$.

Let $\mathcal{G}$ be a $\Delta$-regular graph on $n$ vertices, and let $\Delta = \lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \ldots \geq \lambda_n$ be the eigenvalues of the adjacency matrix of $\mathcal{G}$. For $n \geq 3$, we define $\lambda(\mathcal{G}) := \max|\lambda_i |, \lambda_i \neq \pm \Delta|$. The connected graph $\mathcal{G}$ is said to be Ramanujan if $\lambda(\mathcal{G}) \leq 2/\sqrt{\Delta - 1}$.

We recall the following version of the expander mixing lemma (see e.g. [30]).

Lemma 3 (Expander mixing lemma). For a $\Delta$-regular non-bipartite, connected graph $\mathcal{G}$ and any sets $S, T \subset V(\mathcal{G})$, it holds that

$$|E(S, T)| \leq \frac{\Delta}{|V|} |S| |T| + \lambda(\mathcal{G}) \sqrt{|S||T|}.$$ 

For a $\Delta$-regular bipartite connected graph $\mathcal{G}$ over the vertex set $V = V_0 \cup V_1$ and any sets $S \subset V_0$, $T \subset V_1$, it holds that

$$|E(S, T)| \leq \frac{\Delta}{|V_0|} |S| |T| + \lambda(\mathcal{G}) \sqrt{|S||T|}.$$ 

B. Left-right Cayley complexes

A left-right Cayley complex $X$ is introduced in [1] from a group $G$ and two sets of generators $A = A^{-1}$ and $B = B^{-1}$. As in [1] we will restrict ourselves, for the sake of simplicity, to the case $|A| = |B| = \Delta$. The complex is made up of vertices, $A$-edges, $B$-edges, and squares. The vertex set is $G$, the $A$-edges are pairs of vertices of the form $\{g, ag\}$ and $B$-edges are of the form $\{g, gb\}$ for $g \in G, a \in A, b \in B$. A

square is a set of group elements of the form $\{g, ag, gb, aBg\}$. The Total No-Conjugacy condition (TNC) requires that

$$\forall a \in A, b \in B, g \in G, \quad ag \neq gb.$$ 

This condition ensures that a square contains exactly 4 distinct vertices and that every vertex is incident to exactly $\Delta^2$ squares. For a vertex $v$, the set of incident squares is called the link of $v$, and denoted $X_v$. The TNC condition implies that the link of any vertex is in bijection with the set $A \times B$ (see Claim 3.7 of [1]). We will naturally refer to sets of the form $\{a\} \times B$ as rows and sets $A \times \{b\}$ as columns.

We recall from [1] that there exists an infinite sequence of degrees $\Delta$ (namely $q + 1$, for $q$ an odd prime power) such that each fixed degree $\Delta$, there exists an infinite family of left-right Cayley complexes (over the groups $G = \text{PSL}_2(q')$), satisfying the TNC condition, for which both the (left) Cayley graph $\text{Cay}(G, A)$ and the (right) Cayley graph $\text{Cay}(G, B)$ are Ramanujan graphs.

When the Cayley graphs $\text{Cay}(G, A)$ and $\text{Cay}(G, B)$ are not bipartite (as is the case of the above family$^5$), it will be convenient for us to make them so by replacing them by their double covers. So we make two copies $V_0 = G \times \{0\}$ and $V_1 = G \times \{1\}$ of $G$ and define the graphs $\mathcal{G}_A = (V = V_0 \cup V_1, E_A)$ and $\mathcal{G}_B = (V, E_B)$ with the edge set $E_A$ made up of pairs $\{(g, 0), (ag, 1)\}, a \in A$, and $E_B$ consisting of the pairs $\{(g, 0), (gb, 1)\}, b \in B$.

Finally, the set $Q$ of squares of the complex $X$ is defined as the set of 4-subsets of vertices of the form $\{(g, 0), (ag, 1), (gb, 1)\}$.

Let us introduce two further graphs that exist on the complex $X$. The first is just the union of $\mathcal{G}_A$ and $\mathcal{G}_B$, and we denote it by $\mathcal{G} = (V, E_A \cup E_B)$. The second graph we denote by $\mathcal{G}^\square = (V, E^\square)$: it puts an edge between all pairs of vertices of the form $\{(g, i), (agb, j)\}$.

We note that $\mathcal{G}^\square$ is regular of degree $\Delta^2$, and may have multiple edges.

If $\mathcal{G}_A$ and $\mathcal{G}_B$ are Ramanujan, then $\mathcal{G}^\square$ and $\mathcal{G}^\square$ inherit most of their expansion properties. Specifically:

Lemma 4. Assume that $\mathcal{G}_A$ and $\mathcal{G}_B$ are Ramanujan graphs, then $\lambda(S^\square) \leq 4\sqrt{\Delta}, \lambda(S^\square) \leq 4\Delta$ and $\lambda(S^\square) \leq 4\Delta$.

All the omitted proofs can be found in the expanded version of this paper [27].

a) The quadrupartite version: A way of avoiding the somewhat cumbersome TNC condition is to make the complex quadrupartite rather than simply bipartite. In this case we construct the vertex set $V$ as the disjoint union of four copies of the group $G$: we set $V = V_0 \cup V_1$ with $V_0 = V_{00} \cup V_{11}$ and $V_1 = V_{10} \cup V_{11}$, where $V_{ij} = G \times \{i, j\}$, $i, j \in \{0, 1\}$. The set $Q$ of squares is then defined as the set of 4-subsets of vertices of the form $\{(g, 00), (ag, 01), (gb, 10), (agb, 11)\}$.

We see that this time the $Q$-neighbourhood of any vertex becomes naturally in bijection with $A \times B$ without requiring

$^5$Thanks to Shai Evra for spelling this out.
any special properties of $A = A^{-1}$ and $B = B^{-1}$. In the present case the edge set $E_A$ of $G_A$ becomes the set of pairs of the form $\{(g,00),(ag,01)\}$ and of the form $\{(g,10),(ag,11)\}$, and the edge set $E_B$ of $G_B$ becomes the set of pairs $\{(g,00),(gb,10)\}$ and $\{(g,01),(gb,11)\}$. The graphs $G_A$ and $G_B$ are therefore both made up of two connected components. As before, we may set $G^2 = (V,E_A \cup E_B)$, and finally the graph $G^2$ over the vertex set $V$ puts an edge between $(g,00)$ and $(ag,11)$ as well as between $(g,01)$ and $(ag,10)$ for all $g \in G, a \in A, b \in B$. The two connected components $G^2_A$ and $G^2_B$ have now become bipartite, the vertex set of $G^2_A$ being $V_{00} \cup V_{11}$ and that of $G^2_B$ being $V_{01} \cup V_{10}$.

It is readily seen that Lemma 4 also holds in the quadrupartite case with the eigenvalue analysis being similar. In the sequel we will not need the bipartite structure of $G$ and its analysis is essentially unchanged.

D. Quantum CSS codes

A quantum CSS code is specific instance of a stabilizer code [32] that can be defined by two classical codes $C_0$ and $C_1$ in the ambient space $F^n_2$, with the property that $C_0 \subseteq C_1$ [14], [15]. If both codes are defined by their parity-check matrix, $C_0 = \ker H_0, C_1 = \ker H_1$, then the condition is equivalent to $H_0 H_1^T = 0$. The resulting quantum code $Q = (C_0, C_1)$ is the following subspace of $(C_2)^{\otimes n}$, the space of $n$ qubits: $Q := \text{Span} \{ \sum_{z \in F_2^n} |x + z \rangle : x \in C_0 \}$, where $\{ |x \rangle : x \in F_2^n \}$ is the canonical basis of $(C_2)^{\otimes n}$.

In practice, it is convenient to describe the code via its generators. A CSS code admits $X$-type generators which correspond to the rows of $H_1$ and and $Z$-type generators, corresponding to the rows of $H_0$. The condition $C_1^⊥ \subseteq C_0$ is simply that the rows of $H_0$ are orthogonal to the rows of $H_1$, where orthogonality is with respect to the standard inner product over $F_2^n$. A CSS code is called LDPC is both $H_0$ and $H_1$ are sparse matrices, i.e. each row and column has constant weight independent of the code length $n$. Equivalently, each generator acts nontrivially on a constant number of qubits, and each qubit is only involved in a constant number of generators.

The dimension $k$ of the code counts the number of logical qubits and is given by $k = \dim (C_0/\mathbb{F}_2) = \dim C_0 + \dim C_1 - n$. Its minimum distance is $d = \min \{ d_X, d_Z \}$ with
\[
d_X = \min_{w \in \mathbb{F}_2^n \setminus \mathbb{F}_2} |w|, \quad d_Z = \min_{w \in \mathbb{F}_2^n \setminus \mathbb{F}_2} |w|.
\]

We denote the resulting code parameters by $[n,k,d]$. We say that a code family $(Q_n)$ is asymptotically good if its parameters are of the form $[n,k = \Theta(n),d = \Theta(n)]$.

E. Tensor codes and dual tensor codes: robustness

Let $A$ and $B$ be two sets of size $\Delta$. We define codes on the ambient space $F_{2^A \times B}$ that we may think of the space of matrices whose rows (columns) are indexed by $A$ (by $B$). If $C_A \subseteq F_{2^A}$ and $C_B \subseteq F_{2^B}$ are two linear codes, we define the tensor (or product) code $C_A \otimes C_B$ as the space of matrices $x$ such that for every $b \in B$ the column vector $(x_{ab})_{a \in A}$ belongs to $C_A$ and for every $a \in A$ the row vector $\langle x_{ab} \rangle_{b \in B}$ belongs to $C_B$. It is well known that $\dim(C_A \otimes C_B) = \dim(C_A) \dim(C_B)$ and that the minimum distance of the tensor code is $d(C_A \otimes C_B) = d(C_A) d(C_B)$.

Consider the codes $C_A \otimes F_{2^B}$ and $F_{2^A} \otimes C_B$ consisting respectively of the space of matrices whose columns are codewords of $C_A$ and whose rows are codewords of $C_B$. We may consider their sum $C_A \otimes F_{2^B} + F_{2^A} \otimes C_B$ which is called a dual tensor code, since it is the dual code of the tensor code $C_A' \otimes C_B' = (C_A' \otimes F_{2^B}) \cap (F_{2^A} \otimes C_B')$. It is relatively straightforward to check that $d(C_A \otimes F_{2^B} + F_{2^A} \otimes C_B) = \min(d(C_A),d(C_B))$.

Definition 5. Let $0 \leq w \leq \Delta^2$. Let $C_A$ and $C_B$ be codes of length $\Delta$ with minimum distances $d_A$ and $d_B$. We shall say that the dual tensor code $C = C_A \otimes F_{2^B} + F_{2^A} \otimes C_B$ is $w$-robust, if for any codeword $x \in C$ of Hamming weight $|x| \leq w$, there

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exist \( A' \subset A, B' \subset B, |A'| \leq |x|/d, |B'| \leq |x|/d_A, \) such that \( x_{ab} = 0 \) whenever \( a \notin A', b \notin B'. \)

In words, \( w \)-robustness means that any dual tensor codeword of weight at most \( w \) is entirely supported within the union of a set of at most \( |c|/d_A \) columns and a set of at most \( |c|/d_B \) rows. In fact, the following proposition shows that any such codeword is the sum of a word of \( C_A \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^B \) and of a word of \( \mathbb{F}_2^A \otimes C_B \) supported on a few columns or rows.

**Proposition 6.** Let \( C_A \) and \( C_B \) be codes of length \( \Delta \) with minimum distances \( d_A \) and \( d_B \), and suppose \( C = C_A \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^B + \mathbb{F}_2^A \otimes C_B \) is \( w \)-robust with \( 0 < w < d_A d_B \). Then for any codeword \( x \in C \) such that \( |x| \leq w \), there exist \( A' \subset A, B' \subset B, |A'| \leq |x|/d_B, |B'| \leq |x|/d_B \) and a decomposition \( x = c + r, \) with \( c \in C_A \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^B \) and \( r \in \mathbb{F}_2^A \otimes C_B \).

Our notion of robustness for the dual tensor code also implies a form of robustness for the corresponding tensor code.

**Proposition 7.** Let \( C_A \) and \( C_B \) be codes of length \( \Delta \) and minimum distances \( d_A \), \( d_B \) such that the dual tensor code \( C_A \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^B + \mathbb{F}_2^A \otimes C_B \) is \( w \)-robust with \( w \leq d_A d_B/2 \). Then, any word \( x \) close to both the column and row code is also close to the tensor code: precisely, if \( d(x, C_A \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^B) + d(x, \mathbb{F}_2^A \otimes C_B) \leq w \) then

\[
d(x, C_A \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^B) \leq \frac{3}{2} \left( d(x, C_A \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^B) + d(x, \mathbb{F}_2^A \otimes C_B) \right).
\]

(3)

The conclusion of Proposition 7 is very close to a property called “robustly testable” in [1]. The difference is that robustly testable tensor codes are required to satisfy (3) without any condition on its right hand side (equivalently, with \( w = 2\Delta^2 \)), at the expense of allowing a looser constant than \( 3/2 \). We note that the constant \( 3/2 \) in Proposition 7 is tight.

If \( C_A \subset \mathbb{F}_2^A \) is a code and \( A' \subset A \), let us denote by \( C_{A'} \subset \mathbb{F}_2^{A'} \) the punctured code consisting of all subvectors \( (c_a)_{a \in A'} \) of all codewords \( (c_a)_{a \in A} \) of \( C_A \). Similarly, for a code \( C_B \), we denote by \( C_{B'} \) the punctured code on \( B' \) for \( B' \subset B \).

Let us introduce the following twist on the above definition of robustness for dual tensor codes, which allows us to boost its potential.

**Definition 8.** Let \( C_A \subset \mathbb{F}_2^A \) and \( C_B \subset \mathbb{F}_2^B \). For integers \( w, p \), let us say that the dual tensor code \( C_A \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^B + \mathbb{F}_2^A \otimes C_B \) is \( p \)-robust with \( p \)-resistance to puncturing, if for any \( A' \subset A \) and \( B' \subset B \) such that \( |A'| = |B'| = \Delta - w', \) with \( w' \leq p \), the dual tensor code \( C_{A'} \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^B + \mathbb{F}_2^A \otimes C_{B'} \) is \( w \)-robust.

We shall need the following result on the robustness of random dual tensor codes.

**Theorem 9.** Let \( 0 < \rho_A < 1 \) and \( 0 < \rho_B < 1 \). Let \( 0 < \varepsilon < 1/2 \) and \( 1/2 + \varepsilon < \gamma < 1 \). Let \( C_A \) be a random code obtained from a random uniform \( \rho_A \Delta \times \Delta \) generator matrix, and let \( C_B \) be a random code obtained from a random uniform \((1 - \rho_B) \Delta \times \Delta \) parity-check matrix. With probability tending to 1 when \( \Delta \) goes to infinity, the dual tensor code

\[
C_A \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^B + \mathbb{F}_2^A \otimes C_B
\]

is \( \Delta^{3/2-\varepsilon} \)-robust with \( \Delta^{\gamma} \)-resistance to puncturing.

Except for the fact that a larger robustness parameter, (namely \( \Delta^{1/2-\varepsilon} \)), this result is essentially in [2]. We provide a proof in the appendix of the expanded version of this work [27], which closely follows the approach of [2].
we define \( \dim C_0 \) generators \( x \in \mathbb{F}_2^Q \) of type \( Z \) by requiring that their local views \( x_v \) at \( v = \) basis element \( \beta_0 \) and that \( x_q = 0 \) for all \( q \notin Q(v) \). Similarly, we define \( |V_1| \dim C_1 \) generators of type \( X \) by imposing a local view equal to a basis element of \( \beta_1 \) on a single vertex \( v \in V_1 \) and requiring \( x_q = 0 \) for all values outside the neighbourhood \( Q(v) \) of \( v \). We see that \( X \)-generators and \( Z \)-generators are orthogonal by design.

Equivalently, the code \( C_0 \) \((C_1) \) orthogonal to all \( Z \)-generators (\( X \)-generators) is defined as the set of vectors \( x \in \mathbb{F}_2^Q \) such that \( x_v \in C_0^\perp \) \((C_1^\perp) \). In other words, the quantum code \( Q = (C_0, C_1) \) is the pair of Tanner codes

\[
C_0 = T(G_0^\square, C_0^\perp), \quad C_1 = T(G_1^\square, C_1^\perp).
\] (4)

To have the same number of \( X \) and \( Z \)-type generators, we shall set \( \rho = \dim C_A/\Delta \) and require \( \dim C_B = \Delta - \dim C_A \); consequently we shall have \( \dim C_0 = \dim C_1 = \rho(1 - \rho)\Delta^2 \).

It is immediate that this code is LDPC since all its generators have weight at most \( \Delta^2 \), which is a constant, and any qubit is involved in at most \( 4\rho(1 - \rho)\Delta^2 \leq \Delta^2 \) generators.

The code length is the number of squares in the complex, \( n = \Delta^2|G|/2 \). While computing the exact dimension \( k \) of the code would require to check for possible dependencies among generators, it is straightforward to get a lower bound by counting the number of generators, namely \( |V_0| \dim C_0 + |V_1| \dim C_1 = 2\rho(1 - \rho)\Delta^2|G| \). This yields the following bound for the rate of the quantum code:

\[
\frac{1}{n} \dim \Omega \geq (2\rho - 1)^2
\] (5)

with equality when all the generators are independent. In particular, the rate is \( > 0 \) for any value of \( \rho \neq 1/2 \).

Most of the rest of this section is devoted to establishing a linear lower bound for the minimum distance of this quantum code, provided that the Cayley graphs associated to \( X \) are sufficiently expanding and the dual tensor codes \( C_0^\perp \) and \( C_1^\perp \) are sufficiently robust.

\footnote{By comparison, the quantum code of \([2]\) admits generators of weight \( O(\Delta) \).
}

\section{Proof of Theorem 1}

We consider a left-right Cayley complex \( X \) from Section III-B over a group \( G \), satisfying the TNC condition and such that \( \text{Cay}(G, A) \) and \( \text{Cay}(G, B) \) are Ramanujan graphs.

Let \( x \in C_1 \) be a codeword of weight \( |x| < \delta n/4\Delta^{3/2+\varepsilon} \). It induces a subgraph \( G_1^\square \) of \( G_1^\square \) with vertex set \( S \subset V_1 \). The local view for any \( v \in S \) corresponds to a codeword of \( C_1^\perp = C_A \otimes F_2^2 + F_2^2 \otimes C_B \). This code is \( w \)-robust so codewords of weight less than \( w = \Delta^{3/2+\varepsilon} \) have a support restricted to a small number \( \leq w/(\delta \Delta) \) of rows and columns; in particular, the local view restricted to any column (or row) is at distance at most \( \Delta^{1/2-\varepsilon}/\delta \) from a codeword of \( C_A \) \((C_B) \).

The proof is broken up into a series of technical claims, that mostly rely upon expansion in \( G_1^\square \) and in \( G^\square \), whose goal is to point towards the required vertex \( v \); robustness is then used to show that the local view at \( v \) has the required property. The proofs of the claims are left out and can be found in \([27]\).

Let us call normal vertices the vertices of \( S \) with degree less than \( \Delta^{3/2-\varepsilon} \) in \( G_1^\square \), and define \( S_e \), the set of exceptional vertices with degree greater than \( \Delta^{3/2-\varepsilon} \). Expansion in \( G_1^\square \) ensures that the set of exceptional vertices is small, namely:

\begin{claim}
The set of exceptional vertices has size
\[
|S_e| \leq \frac{64}{\Delta^{1-2\varepsilon}}|S|.
\] (6)
\end{claim}

The support of the local view of any normal vertex of \( S \) decomposes into a small number of rows and columns, which are shared with vertices in \( V_0 \). We now introduce the set \( T \) of vertices of \( V_0 \) whose local views share with a normal vertex of \( S \) either a row or a column of large weight. Formally:

\begin{enumerate}
\item Defining the subset \( T \subset V_0 \): The vector \( x \), viewed as a set of squares, defines a subset \( E_x \) of edges of \( G^\square \), namely the edges incident to a square in \( x \). Let us say that an edge of \( E_x \) is heavy, if it is incident to at least \( \delta \Delta - \Delta^{1/2-\varepsilon}/\delta \) squares of \( x \). Let \( T \) be the set of vertices of \( V_0 \) that are connected to (at least) one normal vertex of \( S \) through a heavy edge. Let us keep in mind that the local view of a normal vertex of \( S \) is supported by at most \( \Delta^{1/2-\varepsilon}/\delta \) rows and at most \( \Delta^{1/2-\varepsilon}/\delta \) columns, so a heavy edge between a normal vertex of \( S \) and a vertex of \( T \) corresponds to either a row or a column shared by the two local views, which is at distance at most \( \Delta^{1/2-\varepsilon}/\delta \) from a nonzero codeword of \( C_A \) \((C_B) \).
\end{enumerate}

\begin{claim}
The degree in \( E_x \) of any vertex of \( T \) is at least \( \delta \Delta - \Delta^{1/2-\varepsilon}/\delta \).
\end{claim}

\begin{claim}
For \( \Delta \) large enough, the size of the set \( T \) satisfies:
\[
|T| \leq \frac{64}{\delta^{2/3}}|S|.
\] (7)
\end{claim}

From this last claim we infer that a typical vertex in \( T \) must be adjacent to a large number of vertices in \( S \), linear in \( \Delta \), which means that its local view should consist of many columns (or rows) containing almost undisturbed codewords of \( C_A \) \((C_B) \).
Claim 13. At least a fraction $\alpha/2$ of vertices of $T$ are incident to at least $\alpha \Delta$ heavy edges, with $\alpha = \frac{\delta^2}{16} \left( 1 - \frac{64}{\Delta + \delta} \right)$.

We will need to single out a vertex $v$ of $T$ whose existence is guaranteed by claim 13, but we also need this vertex to not be incident to too many exceptional vertices of $S$. To this end we estimate the total number of edges of $G$ between $T$ and $S_e$.

Claim 14. At least a fraction $\alpha/4$ of vertices of $T$

- are incident to at least $\alpha \Delta$ heavy edges.
- are adjacent to at most $d_1 = \frac{45}{2} \Delta^{1/2+\varepsilon}$ vertices of $S_e$, with $\beta = 64 + 32/\Delta$.

Pick any vertex $v$ whose existence is guaranteed by Claim 14. The local view at $v$ is illustrated on Figure 3.

![Figure 3](image)

Theorem 1 stays valid for negative values of $\varepsilon$, i.e. when $\varepsilon \in (-1/2, 0)$. In this case however, there is no need for any resistance to puncturing, because the exceptional rows and columns at the local view of $v$ from Claim 14 will number $o(\Delta^{3/2})$ and contribute a negligible amount to the distance between $x_v$ and the tensor codeword $c$.

C. Consequences of Theorem 1: asymptotically good quantum LDPC codes

The following theorem is a direct consequence of Theorem 1.

Theorem 17. Fix $\rho \in (0, 1/2)$, $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/2)$, $\gamma \in (1/2+\varepsilon, 1)$ and $\delta > 0$. If $\Delta$ is large enough and $C_A$ and $C_B$ are codes of length $\Delta$ such that

1) $0 < \dim C_A \leq \rho \Delta$ and $\dim C_B = \Delta - \dim C_A$.
2) the minimum distances of $C_A, C_B, C_B^{-1}, C_A^{-1}$ are all $\geq \delta \Delta$.
3) both dual tensor codes $C_A^+ = (C_A \otimes C_B)^+ \otimes C_B^{-1}$ and $C_A^{-1} = (C_A^{-1} \otimes C_B)^+ \otimes C_B^{-1}$ are $\Delta^{3/2-\varepsilon/2}$-robust with $\Delta^\gamma$-resistance to puncturing, then the quantum code $Q = \langle (C_0, C_1) \rangle$ defined in (4) has parameters $[n, k \geq (1 - 2\rho)^2 n, d \geq \frac{\delta}{4\Delta^{3/2+\varepsilon}} n]$.

To obtain asymptotically good families of quantum codes it remains to show that codes $C_A, C_B$ satisfying the conditions 1,2,3 of Theorem 17 exist. This is achieved through the random choice result of Theorem 9.

Specifically, we have:

Theorem 18. Fix $\rho \in (0, 1/2)$, $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/2)$, $\gamma \in (1/2+\varepsilon, 1)$ and $\delta > 0$ such that $-\delta \log_2 \delta - (1 - \delta) \log_2 (1 - \delta) < \rho$. Fix some large enough $\Delta$ and let $\delta = \rho \Delta$. Let $C_B$ be the random code defined by a random uniform $r \times \Delta$ generator matrix and let $C_B$ be the random code defined by a random uniform $r \times \Delta$ parity-check matrix. With non-zero probability $C_A$ and $C_B$ satisfy conditions 1,2,3 of Theorem 17 yielding an infinite family of quantum codes of parameters

$$[n, k \geq (1 - 2\rho)^2 n, d \geq \frac{\delta}{4\Delta^{3/2+\varepsilon}} n].$$

a) An upper bound on the minimum distance of $Q$: To evaluate the tightness of the lower bound on the minimum distance $d$ of the quantum code $Q$ given by Theorem 17, now derive the following upper bound on $d$.

Proposition 19. The minimum distance $d$ of the quantum code $Q$ is not more than $n/\Delta$. 

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Recalling Remark 16, we have that if we could find the required dual tensor codes \(C_0^\perp\) and \(C_1^\perp\) that are both \(\Delta^{3/2-\varepsilon}\)-robust for \(\varepsilon \to -1/2\), we would obtain a lower bound on the quantum code minimum distance that practically closes the gap with the upper bound of Proposition 19.

To prove Proposition 19 we shall show the existence of small-weight \((\leq n/\Delta)\) codewords of \(\mathcal{E}_1 \setminus \mathcal{E}_1^\perp\). We do this by constructing many small-weight codewords of \(\mathcal{E}_1\), that are too numerous to all be in \(\mathcal{E}_1^\perp\). Those codewords are best described when using the quadrupartite version of the Left-Right Cayley complex described at the end of Section III-B. In this case the graph \(\mathcal{G}_1^\perp\) is bipartite, with its vertex set \(V_1\) split into the disjoint union of two sets \(V_{10}\) and \(V_{01}\). We have that for every vertex \(v \in V_1\), all squares in its local view that are indexed by \(a\), are indexed by row \(a^{-1}\) in all neighbouring local views. Therefore, if for every vertex \(v \in V_{10}\) we restrict its \(Q\)-neighbourhood \(Q(v)\) to row \(a\) for a fixed \(a\), and similarly restrict all \(Q\)-neighbourhoods of vertices of \(V_{01}\) to row \(a^{-1}\), we obtain a subgraph \(\mathcal{G}_1^\perp_{1a}\) of \(\mathcal{G}_1^\perp\) that is a copy of the double cover of the graph \(\text{Cay}(G,B)\). Furthermore, the edge set of \(\mathcal{G}_1^\perp\) is the disjoint union of the edge sets of the graphs \(\mathcal{G}_1^\perp_{1a}\) for \(a\) ranging in \(A\).

Now we see that any codeword of the Tanner code \(T(\mathcal{G}_1^\perp_{1a},CB)\) yields a codeword of \(\mathcal{E}_1\), where every non-zero local view at any vertex of \(V_{10}\) must be entirely supported by row \(a\) (and row \(a^{-1}\) for vertices of \(V_{01}\)) and coincide with a codeword of \(CB\). Any such codeword has weight at most \(n/\Delta\): expanding \(T(\mathcal{G}_1^\perp_{1a},CB)\) to the whole index set \(\mathcal{G}_1^\perp\) by padding its words with 0s, we may define the disjoint direct sum \(\mathcal{L} = \sum_{a \in A} T(\mathcal{G}_1^\perp_{1a},CB)\). We claim that:

**Lemma 20.** \(\dim \mathcal{L} \cap \mathcal{E}_1^\perp \leq 2 \dim C_A \cdot \dim T(\mathcal{G}_1^\perp_{1a},CB)\) for any given \(a \in A\). In particular when \(\dim C_A < \Delta/2\) we have \(\mathcal{L} \not\subseteq \mathcal{E}_1^\perp\).

The second claim of Lemma 20 follows from the first, since clearly \(\dim \mathcal{L} = \Delta\) where \(\ell\) is the common dimension of the \(\Delta\) isomorphic Tanner codes \(T(\mathcal{G}_1^\perp_{1a},CB)\). Lemma 20 implies therefore that at least one non-zero Tanner codeword in some \(T(\mathcal{G}_1^\perp_{1a},CB)\) (which must be of weight \(\leq n/\Delta\)) cannot be in \(\mathcal{E}_1^\perp\) which proves Proposition 19. It remains therefore to prove Lemma 20. We will need the following easy fact on Tanner codes on bipartite graphs:

**Lemma 21.** Let \(\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{W},E)\) be a regular bipartite graph on the vertex set \(W = W_0 \cup W_1\), and let \(C = T(\mathcal{G},C_0)\) be a Tanner code on it for some inner code \(C_0\). Let \(x = \sum_{w \in W} c_w\) be a vector in \(\mathbb{F}_2^n\) such that every \(c_w\) is a word supported by the edge-neighbourhood \(E(w)\) of \(w\) and that coincides with a codeword of \(C_0\) on \(E(w)\). Then if \(x\) is a Tanner codeword of \(C\), then so are the partial sums \(\sum_{w \in W_0} c_w\) and \(\sum_{w \in W_1} c_w\).

**D. Consequences of Theorem 1:** classical locally testable codes

Let \(X\) be the left right Cayley complex of Theorem 1, and let \(C_A = C_B\) be a code of length \(\Delta\), rate \(\rho \in (0,1)\) and distance \(\delta\Delta\) and suppose that the associated dual tensor code \(C_A \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^B + \mathbb{F}_2^A \otimes C_B\) satisfies Theorem 1.

Let \(C_0 = C_A \otimes C_B\): the Tanner code \(\mathcal{E} = T(\mathcal{G}_1^\perp,C_0)\) is precisely the locally testable code defined of Dinur et al. and is shown (\cite{1}) to have parameters

\[
(n, k \geq (2\rho^2 - 1)n, d \geq \delta^2(\delta - \lambda/\Delta)n)
\]

where \(\lambda\) is the (common) second largest eigenvalue of the constituent Ramanujan Cayley graphs.

Recall from \cite{1} the tester for this code: given a word \(x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n\), pick a random vertex \(v \in V_0\), accept if the local view \(x_v\) belongs to the tensor code \(C_0\) and reject if \(x_v \notin C_0\). Let \(T \subset V_0\) be the set of vertices for which the local test rejects, \(T = \{ v : v \notin V_0 : x_v \notin C_0 \}\). The fraction of rejecting local tests is therefore \(\zeta(x) := |T|/n\).

Recall that a code is said to be locally testable with \(q\) queries and detection probability \(\kappa\), if the tester accesses at most \(q\) bits from \(x\), always accepts when \(x\) is a codeword, and otherwise satisfies

\[
\zeta(x) \geq \kappa - \frac{1}{n}d(x, \mathcal{C}). \tag{8}
\]

In the present case, the number of queries is \(q = \Delta^2\), the size of the \(Q\)-neighbourhood of a vertex. The goal is to establish (8) for some constant \(\kappa\).

The strategy to establish the local testability of the code \(\mathcal{E}\) is to define a decoder that is guaranteed to always find a codeword close to \(x\) if \(\zeta(x)\) (or \(|T|\)) is sufficiently small. The difference with a classical decoder is that we make no assumption on how far \(x\) actually is from the code \(\mathcal{C}\).

Theorem 1 can be converted into such a decoding algorithm. Let \(x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n\) be an initial vector. Our goal is to find a close enough codeword \(c \in \mathcal{C}\). For each vertex \(v \in V_0\), let \(c_v \in C_0\) be the closest codeword to the local view \(x_v\) (breaking ties arbitrarily), and let \(c_v := x_v + c_v\) be the local corresponding error (of minimum weight). We slightly abuse notation here and write \(c_v\) or \(\zeta\) for both the vectors in \(\mathbb{F}_2^n\) and the vectors in \(\mathbb{F}_2^Q\) coinciding with \(c_v\) on \(Q(v)\) and equal to zero elsewhere.

**a) The decoder:** The decoder starts by computing the list \((c_v)_{v \in V_0}\) from the decompositions \(x_v = c_v + \zeta\). Note that this local decoding can be achieved by brute-force if need be since the local code has constant length \(\Delta^2\). Note also that the list of these local views is not necessarily equal to the list of local views of a codeword \(c \in \mathcal{C}\) (if it does then the decoder outputs \(c\)). The decoder then computes what we may call the mismatch of the list \((c_v)\), and which is defined as \(z = \sum_{v} c_v\). If the weight \(|z|\) is too large, namely \(\geq \delta n/\Delta^{3/2+\epsilon}\), then the decoder will refuse to continue and output “far from the code”.

Otherwise the decoder proceeds by looking for a vertex \(v \in V_0\) on which it will update the value of \(c_v\), replacing it by \(c_v = c_v + \zeta\) for some non-zero \(\zeta \in C_0\), so as to decrease the weight of the new value \(z + \zeta\) of the mismatch. Among all possible vertices \(v\) and small codewords \(\zeta \in C_0\), let it choose the one that maximizes \(|z| - \|z + \zeta\|\).

The decoder proceeds iteratively in this way until it has a list of local views with a zero mismatch, corresponding therefore to the list of local views of a global codeword \(c' \in \mathcal{C}\) which it outputs.
Claim 22. If \( |z| < \delta n / 4 \Delta^{3/2 + \varepsilon} \), then the decoder always converges to the zero mismatch and a codeword \( c' \) of \( \mathcal{C} \).

Claim 23. If \( |z| < \delta n / 4 \Delta^{3/2 + \varepsilon} \), then the distance from \( x \) to \( \mathcal{C} \) is bounded by

\[
\begin{align}
 d(x, \mathcal{C}) \leq \frac{1}{n} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{a} \right) \zeta(x).
\end{align}
\]

Let us now consider a word \( x \in \mathbb{F}_2^Q \) such that \( |z| \geq \delta n / 4 \Delta^{3/2 + \varepsilon} \), in which case the decoder gives us nothing. We nevertheless have that, again using \( |z| \leq \Delta^2 |T| \), and the trivial bound \( \frac{1}{n} d(x, \mathcal{C}) \leq 1 \)

\[
\begin{align}
\frac{1}{n} d(x, \mathcal{C}) \leq \frac{4\Delta^{7/2+\varepsilon}|T|}{\delta n} = \frac{8\Delta^{3/2+\varepsilon}}{\delta} \zeta(x).
\end{align}
\]

From (9) and (10), we obtain that the Tanner code \( \mathcal{C} = T(9^N_0, 3^N_0) \) is \( \kappa \)-locally testable with \( \Delta^2 \) queries and \( \kappa = \min \left( \frac{a}{a + \frac{1}{1 + \Delta^{3/2}}}, \frac{1}{\Delta} \right) \).

We conclude this section with a word of comment on the choice of the small component code \( C_A = C_B \). To obtain an LTC we need it to satisfy the hypotheses of Theorem 1. One way is to obtain this by random choice, namely by applying Theorem 9, as we did in Section IV-C. But since this time we have no need for the robustness of \( C_A \otimes C_B \), there are alternatives: in [1], the component codes that are used have better robustness than what is guaranteed by Theorem 9.

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