

# Fault-Tolerant Error Correction with Efficient Quantum Codes

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## Abstract

We exhibit a simple, systematic procedure for detecting and correcting errors using any of the recently reported quantum error-correcting codes. The procedure is shown explicitly for a code in which one qubit is mapped into five. The quantum networks obtained are fault tolerant, that is, they can function successfully even if errors occur during the error correction. Our construction is derived using a recently introduced group-theoretic framework for unifying all known quantum codes.

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The past year has witnessed an astonishing rate of progress in the development of error-correction schemes for quantum memory and quantum computation. The initial discovery [1] that a qubit, when suitably encoded in a block of qubits, can withstand a substantial degree of interaction with the environment without degradation of its quantum state, has been followed by myriad contributions which have identified many new coding schemes [2–13], considered their application in proposed experimental implementations of quantum computation [14–16], and established the relationship of quantum error-correcting codes to the preservation of quantum entanglement in a noisy environment [17]. The most recent work has unified all the known quantum codes within a group-theoretic framework [18].

Throughout the developments of the past year, there has been a hope that these quantum error-correcting codes would permit quantum computation to be done fault tolerantly. Such an outcome was not guaranteed; in classical computation, the existence of error-correction codes does not by itself ensure that logic can be performed using noisy gates. However, one of us has recently established a complete protocol for performing fault-tolerant quantum computation [19]. The protocol guarantees that, if the loss of fidelity of the quantum state between the operation of one quantum gate and the next, due to both decoherence and inaccuracy in the quantum-gate operation, is  $p$ , then the number of steps of quantum computation which can be completed successfully is  $O(p^a \exp(b/p^c))$  (for some positive constants  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$ ), a scaling law which appears very favorable for the ultimate physical implementation of large-scale quantum computation.

This fault-tolerant protocol lays down specific rules for how to use the previously discovered quantum error-correction codes. The class of codes first discovered by Calderbank and Shor [2] and Steane [3] conform to these rules, and can be used fault tolerantly; however, it has not been clear that the more efficient quantum codes which have been discovered more recently (see, e.g., [18]) could be utilized in a fault-tolerant computation. In this note we establish that errors in all known quantum error-correcting codes can be corrected in the necessary fault-tolerant way. We first show explicitly how this is done in one of the simplest efficient quantum codes, one which encodes a single qubit into five [4,17]. This result gives

some interesting insights into the relationship between the different presentations of this code which have recently appeared in the literature, and it shows that it is actually necessary to use these different presentations to produce the fault-tolerant implementation of the error-correction procedure. We then show, using the recently developed group-theoretic framework for the quantum codes, that the protocol developed for the five-bit code can be generalized to permit all known codes to be used for error correction in a fault-tolerant way.

We begin with a short review of the five-qubit error-correcting code as presented in [17]. Using this code, an arbitrary qubit  $|\xi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$  is represented by the five-qubit state  $|\xi\rangle = \alpha|c_0\rangle + \beta|c_1\rangle$ , where one choice of the “code words” is the pair of basis states

$$\begin{aligned} |c_0\rangle = & |00000\rangle \\ & + |11000\rangle + |01100\rangle + |00110\rangle + |00011\rangle + |10001\rangle \\ & - |10100\rangle - |01010\rangle - |00101\rangle - |10010\rangle - |01001\rangle \\ & - |11110\rangle - |01111\rangle - |10111\rangle - |11011\rangle - |11101\rangle \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} |c_1\rangle = & |11111\rangle \\ & + |00111\rangle + |10011\rangle + |11001\rangle + |11100\rangle + |01110\rangle \\ & - |01011\rangle - |10101\rangle - |11010\rangle - |01101\rangle - |10110\rangle \\ & - |00001\rangle - |10000\rangle - |01000\rangle - |00100\rangle - |00010\rangle. \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

When encoded in this way, the qubit can survive an interaction with the environment suffered by any one of the five qubits. For purposes of error correction, it is sufficient to take the error caused by the environment to be of three different types [5,17]: bit  $i$  may suffer a bit-flip error, represented by the operator  $X_i$  acting on coded state  $|\xi\rangle$ ; it may suffer a conditional phase-shift error ( $Z_i$ ), or it may suffer both simultaneously ( $Y_i$ ). (We use the notation of Refs. [11,18].) The right-hand column of Table I lists the 16 possible error processes  $P$  (including the no-error case  $P = I$ ). During error correction, the erroneous state  $P|\xi\rangle$  is

subjected to some quantum-computation operations (one- and two-bit quantum gates [20]) so that measurements on some of the qubits will reveal the identity of the error process  $P$ , without disturbing the superposition of code words. When the error process is determined, the effect of  $P$  can be undone, returning the qubit to its undisturbed state  $|\xi\rangle$ .

It has now been shown by a number of authors [4,17,14] that there exist various quantum circuits which perform the necessary error correction on the five-bit coded state. However, none of them perform this error correction fault tolerantly (unlike the network of Fig. 1 which can operate fault tolerantly). We call a quantum error-correcting network fault tolerant if it can recover from errors *during* the operation of the network. Previous constructions are not fault tolerant because they use two-bit quantum gates involving pairs of qubits within the coded state. If an error occurs on one of these qubits before or during the operation of this two-bit gate, the error will, in general, propagate to both of the qubits, and to yet others if additional two-bit operations are performed. In the five-bit code, two errors are already more than can be recovered from, so such two-bit gates must be avoided. The network of Fig. 1 avoids them by using only two-bit gates which connect the coded bits to ancilla bits  $a$ , so that, with small modifications, it can be made perfectly fault tolerant. These modifications are described briefly in [19] and given in detail in [21].

To explain how the network of Fig. 1 works, we note that the code of Eqs. (1, 2) can be presented in an infinite number of ways, all related by a change of basis of any one of the five qubits. Even if we confine ourselves to bases in which the superpositions all involve equal amplitudes as in Eqs. (1, 2), the number of alternative presentations is very large. One important class of presentations is symmetric under cyclic permutation of the five qubits, as in the example given above. We will define a particular symmetric presentation,  $S$ , as the one in which  $|0\rangle$  is coded as  $|c_0\rangle + |c_1\rangle$ , and  $|1\rangle$  is coded as  $|c_0\rangle - |c_1\rangle$ .

Another class of presentation has been given in the work of Laflamme *et al.* [4]. Their presentation is obtained by starting with presentation  $S$  and applying the one-bit rotation  $R = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$  to qubits 0 and 1 (we number the qubits 0–4 as in Fig. 1). In this presentation, the code words are

$$\begin{aligned}
|c'_0\rangle &= |00010\rangle + |00101\rangle - |01011\rangle + |01100\rangle \\
&+ |10001\rangle - |10110\rangle - |11000\rangle - |11111\rangle,
\end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
|c'_1\rangle &= |00000\rangle - |00111\rangle + |01001\rangle + |01110\rangle \\
&+ |10011\rangle + |10100\rangle + |11010\rangle - |11101\rangle.
\end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

We will call this presentation  $L_3$ ; except for a trivial relabeling of the qubits, this is exactly the one given in [4]. The reason for the subscript is that, since the  $L_3$  presentation is *not* symmetric under cyclic permutation, there are five distinct ones  $L_{0-4}$ . The particular label 3 is used for this example because of an important property which this presentation possesses: all the basis states of both the code words in Eqs. (3, 4) have even parity for the group of four qubits 0, 1, 2, and 4. Thus, a convenient label for this presentation is the qubit which is left out of this parity. Since an error can change this parity, we can learn one bit of information about the error process by collecting up this parity into the ancilla qubit  $a$  (done by the first four quantum XOR gates in Fig. 1), and performing measurement  $M_3$  on  $a$ .

The remainder of the quantum circuit in Fig. 1 is self-explanatory. By passing in succession into three additional bases, those corresponding to the code presentations  $L_4$ ,  $L_0$ , and  $L_1$ , three additional parity bits may be obtained in measurements  $M_4$ ,  $M_0$ , and  $M_1$ . (In standard coding theory terminology, the outcome of these four measurements is called the *error syndrome*.) As Table I indicates, these measurements uniquely distinguish the error process  $P$ . This error can then be undone by returning the code to the original  $S$  basis and selecting the appropriate one-bit operation  $U$ .

As presented, this error-correction network is not completely fault tolerant, because an error occurring on one of the  $a$  bits can be transmitted back to one of the code qubits through the action of the XOR gates. For instance, if a phase error occurs on the ancilla qubit  $a$  between the second and third XOR gates in Fig. 1, the back action of the XOR gates results

in two phase errors in the state of the code qubits, rendering them uncorrectable. However, as one of us has recently shown [19], the network may be made completely fault tolerant by replacing the single-bit ancilla  $a$  by a set of four qubits, each of which is initialized to a “cat” state  $|0000\rangle + |1111\rangle$ . If the targets of each the XOR gates are four different qubits in the cat state, then the parity of the measured state of the four ancilla bits gives the same information as the measurements indicated in Fig. 1. However, the back-action that makes the errors on the ancilla  $a$  dangerous is avoided. The ancilla errors may still result in a mistake in the measured syndrome; we prevent this from adding errors to the coded state by repetition of the entire network and syndrome measurement, before the one-bit operation  $U$  is performed [19]. Once the correct syndrome has been confirmed, the correct  $U$  may be applied [21].

The fact that the four measurements  $M_{3,4,0,1}$  completely distinguish the error process is no accident; it is guaranteed by the group-theoretic structure of these codes [18,11]. In fact, the procedure devised above can be generalized to give a fault-tolerant error-correction procedure that covers every quantum code which is presently known, all of which are derivable as eigenspaces of Abelian subgroups of a group  $E$  [22],

The group  $E$  is obtained by taking all products of the  $X_i$ ,  $Y_i$  and  $Z_i$  operators introduced above. Given an Abelian subgroup  $G$  of  $E$  containing  $2^g$  elements, the matrices representing  $G$  can be simultaneously diagonalized (because they commute with each other). This yields  $2^g$  eigenspaces each of dimension  $2^{n-g}$ . Choosing any of these eigenspaces gives a quantum code mapping  $n - g$  qubits into  $n$  qubits, and the error correction properties of this code can be derived from the combinatorial properties of the subgroup  $G$  [11,18]. The subgroup  $G$  can be generated by an independent set of  $g$  of its elements, which we call generators; again, these generators are products of the  $X_i$ ,  $Y_i$ , and  $Z_i$  operators. For instance, one of the generators for the five-bit code in the  $S$  presentation is, in the notation of [18],  $X(11000)Z(00101)$ ; a 1 in the  $i^{th}$  place in the  $X$  list means that  $X_i$  is included in the operation, a 1 in the  $Z$  list means that  $Z_i$  is included, and a 1 in both lists means that  $Y_i$  is included.

Each such generator of  $G$  gives a prescription for one stage of fault-tolerant error cor-

rection, as follows: First, a change of basis involving just one-bit operations is performed, in order to place the generator in the form  $X(000\dots 0)Z(z_1 z_2 z_3 \dots z_n)$  where  $z_i = 0$  or  $1$  (i.e., so that the generator contains only  $Z_i$  factors). The one-bit rotation required for the  $i^{th}$  qubit is easily determined: if  $X_i = 0$  do nothing, if  $X_i = 1$  and  $Z_i = 0$ , apply  $R$  to the  $i^{th}$  qubit, and if  $X_i = Z_i = 1$ , apply  $R'$ , where  $R' = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ i & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ . After this change of basis, the non-zero elements of the new  $Z$  bit string will be just those for which  $X$  or  $Z$  were non-zero in the original basis. The next step of the error correction is to collect up and measure the parity of the bits with non-zero entries in the  $Z$  string, using the ancilla technique discussed above. Finally, undo the basis transformation. Repeat this procedure for each generator of  $G$ .

It is guaranteed that this set of measurements will completely determine the error process  $P$ . The measurement on a quantum state corresponding to one of the generator matrices of  $G$  gives the eigenvalue of the quantum state with respect to that matrix, reducing the number of eigenspaces which the quantum state might lie in by a factor of 2. Thus, if the measurements are made for every matrix in a generator set for the subgroup  $G$ , this guarantees that the complete set of eigenvalues for this state with respect to the subgroup is known. This complete set of eigenvalues places the quantum state uniquely in one of the eigenspaces. The error processes  $X_i$ ,  $Y_i$  and  $Z_i$  permute these eigenspaces [18], so knowing which eigenspace a state belongs to is enough to uniquely determine the unitary transformation  $U$  of Fig. 1 which will correct the error. ( $U$  is also one of the unitary transformations  $X_i$ ,  $Y_i$  or  $Z_i$ .) The requirement that all the measurements be simultaneously observable can be seen to be the physical justification for the requirement that all the generator matrices commute.

The number of gates this construction gives for error correction of a quantum code can be estimated. Suppose it is applied to a quantum code mapping  $k$  qubits into  $n$  qubits, correcting  $t$  errors. (Many such codes have now been tabulated [12,18].) The syndrome will contain  $n - k$  bits, and computing each bit of this syndrome requires at most  $n$  XOR gates. Similarly, between 0 and  $n$  rotation gates will also be required before and after the

computation of each of the bits of the syndrome. Thus, the number of gates required by this technique for an  $n$ -qubit code is at most  $2n(n - k + 1)$ , and the number of ancilla bits needed is no greater than  $n(n - k)$ . The suitable use of this error-correction network will be fault tolerant: up to  $t$  errors can occur during the error correction process itself without irretrievably damaging the state of the  $k$  coded qubits.

The class of quantum error-correcting codes given in [2,3] have generators which are either products only of  $Z$ 's or only of  $X$ 's. This technique applied to these codes thus reduces to first finding the parity of sets of qubits corresponding to the generators composed of  $Z$ 's, next applying the basis transformation  $R$  to each qubit, then finding the parities corresponding to generators composed of  $X$ 's, and finally undoing the basis transformation  $R$  on each qubit. This is exactly the prescription given by Steane [3]. For this class of codes, the correction procedure for bit-flip ( $X$ ) errors can be decoupled from the treatment of phase ( $Z$ ) errors. The bit-flip ( $X$ ) errors affect the eigenvalues of matrices which are a product of  $Z$ 's, and vice versa. Each type of error can be thought of classically (in the appropriate basis) and corrected using classical techniques, as is emphasized in Steane [3].

To conclude, we have shown that the group-theoretic structure of all the reported quantum error-correcting codes provides rules for designing very simple quantum networks to detect errors and restore the quantum system to its undisturbed state. These networks are superior to previously reported ones in that they can be implemented in a fault-tolerant way. We note that our result does not provide a complete solution for how to use the most efficient quantum codes in fault-tolerant quantum computation, since this would require a fault-tolerant implementation of multi-bit gates on the coded qubits [19]. Such fault-tolerant gate implementations are known for the non-optimal codes of [2,3], but it is not yet clear that they exist for all the codes derived from the group  $E$  (however, see [13]). Even without this, though, it is clear that the procedures developed here may ultimately have a variety of applications for quantum memory, quantum communications, and quantum computation.

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# FIGURES

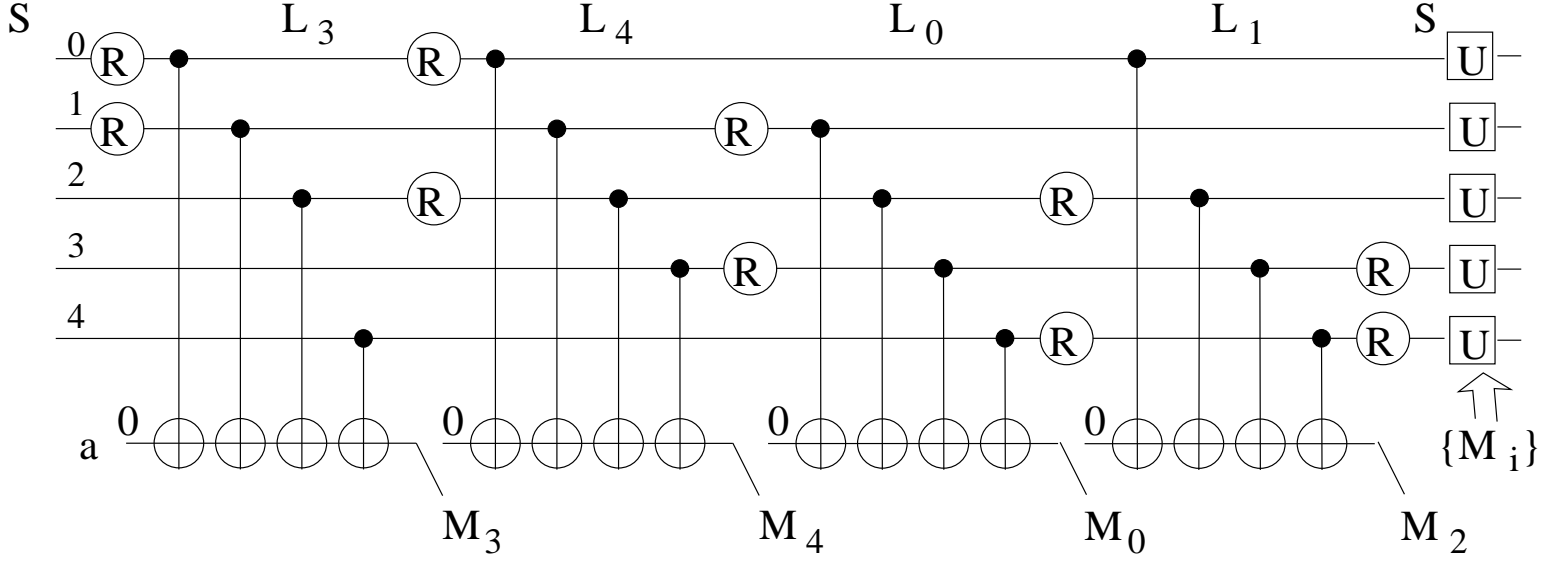


FIG. 1. Quantum network to correct for one-bit errors in the 5-bit code in the  $S$  presentation. Four different code presentations  $L_{3,4,0,1}$  are used in the different stages of error detection. By a simple modification of the ancilla space  $a$ , and by appropriate repetitions of the syndrome computation, this error-correction network can be made fault tolerant.

# TABLES

TABLE I. The four measurement outcomes in the fault-tolerant error correction, and the error process  $P$  revealed by each.

$M_3$	$M_4$	$M_0$	$M_1$	$P$
0	0	0	0	$I$
0	0	0	1	$Z_4$
0	0	1	0	$X_1$
0	0	1	1	$Z_3$
0	1	0	0	$X_3$
0	1	0	1	$X_0$
0	1	1	0	$Z_2$
0	1	1	1	$Y_3$
1	0	0	0	$Z_0$
1	0	0	1	$X_2$
1	0	1	0	$X_4$
1	0	1	1	$Y_4$
1	1	0	0	$Z_1$
1	1	0	1	$Y_0$
1	1	1	0	$Y_1$
1	1	1	1	$Y_2$