Robustness of composite pulses to time-dependent control noise

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We study the performance of composite pulses in the presence of time-varying control noise on a single qubit. These protocols, originally devised only to correct for static, systematic errors, are shown to be robust to time-dependent non-Markovian noise in the control field up to frequencies as high as $\sim 10\%$ of the Rabi frequency. Our study combines a generalized filter-function approach with asymptotic DC-limit calculations to give a simple analytic framework for error analysis applied to a number of composite-pulse sequences relevant to nuclear magnetic resonance as well as quantum information experiments. Results include examination of recently introduced concatenated composite pulses and dynamically corrected gates, demonstrating equivalent first-order suppression of time-dependent fluctuations in amplitude and/or detuning, as appropriate for the sequence in question. Our analytic results agree well with detailed numerical simulations for realistic $1/f$ noise spectra, providing independent validation of our theoretical insights.

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I. INTRODUCTION

High-fidelity control of quantum systems is limited by unwanted interactions with the environment and imperfections in the applied control fields. Composite pulse (CP) sequences have long been employed in nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) to mitigate the effects of systematic errors in the control [1–4]. Initially developed to tackle static but otherwise unknown errors in the amplitude or frequency of the driving field, CP sequences have been recently extended to handle multiple error sources using symmetry [5, 6] and concatenation [7, 8] and to provide efficient high-order error suppression by optimized design [9]. These capabilities have made CPs broadly attractive in laboratory quantum systems, including experimental platforms based on atomic [10] and solid-state qubits [11, 12].

Despite these advances, an outstanding challenge to the systematic incorporation of CPs into practical quantum information systems remains the current lack of insight into CP performance in the presence of time-dependent noise. With the exception of [13], where the impact of decoherence due to random-telegraph noise on the performance of NMR-derived CP sequences has been numerically characterized, no systematic analysis of the interplay between time-dependent noise and CPs has yet been undertaken.

Treating the influence of time-dependent noise processes on quantum control operations has been facilitated by recent advances in dynamical error suppression based on open-loop Hamiltonian engineering [14–17]. These approaches provide a general framework for understanding and mitigating non-Markovian time-dependent noise in a finite-dimensional open quantum system due to either uncontrolled couplings to the environment or a variety of control errors. In particular, both dynamical decoupling [14, 18] and dynamically corrected gates (DCGs) [16, 19] are able to perturbatively reduce the effects of classical as well as quantum noise sources, provided that the correlation time scale of the noise is sufficiently long compared to the control time scale at which the noise is “coherently averaged out”. These characteristics may be captured quantitatively in filter-transfer functions (FF henceforth) for arbitrary single-qubit control using methods of spectral overlap in the frequency domain [17, 20]. The resulting approach allows for prediction of the leading-order contribution to fidelity loss, and has been applied to the study of both dynamically protected memory [21–23] and nontrivial quantum logic operations [17, 24] with results borne out through a variety of experiments [21, 25].

In this work, we use a combination of analytic formulations based on FFs [17] and numerical simula-
TABLE I: CP sequences correcting the target rotation $R(\theta,0)$ against different error models [4, 8]. Here, $\phi_1 = \cos^{-1}(-\theta/\pi)$, $k = \arcsin(\sin(\theta/2)/2)$, $a$: amplitude noise; $d$: detuning noise; $s$: simultaneous amplitude and detuning noise [see text]. For the DCG sequence [16, 17], $\Omega_1 = \pi/2$, $t_1 \leq t < t_2 \equiv \pi/4$; $\Omega_2 = \pi/2$, $t_1 \leq t < t_2 \equiv 3\pi/4$; $\Omega_3 = \pi$, $t_2 \leq t < t_3 \equiv \pi$.

| Composite pulse | Error model | $(\theta_1, \phi_1)$ | $(\theta_2, \phi_2)$ | $(\theta_3, \phi_3)$ | $(\theta_4, \phi_4)$ | $(\theta_5, \phi_5)$ | $(\theta_6, \phi_6)$ |
|-----------------|-------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| SK1             | $a$         | $(\theta, 0)$        | $(2\pi - \phi_1)$    | $(2\pi - \phi_1)$    | -                    | -                    | -                    |
| BB1             | $a$         | $(\theta, 0)$        | $(\pi, \phi_1)$     | $(2\pi, 3\phi_1)$    | $(\pi, \phi_1)$     | -                    | -                    |
| CORPSE          | $d$         | $(2\pi + \theta/2 - k,0)$ | $(2\pi - 2k, \pi)$  | $(2\pi/2 - k,0)$     | -                    | -                    | -                    |
| Reduced CinSK   | $s$         | $(2\pi + \theta/2 - k,0)$ | $(2\pi - 2k, \pi)$  | $(2\pi/2 - k,0)$     | $(2\pi - \phi_1)$   | $(2\pi, \phi_1)$   | -                    |
| Reduced CinBB   | $s$         | $(2\pi + \theta/2 - k,0)$ | $(2\pi - 2k, \pi)$  | $(2\pi/2 - k,0)$     | $(\pi, \phi_1)$    | $(2\pi, 3\phi_1)$  | $(\pi, \phi_1)$     |

tions to demonstrate that CPs are able to effectively suppress control errors caused by time-dependent processes possessing realistic noise power spectra. Specifically, we consider a variety of both standard and concatenated CP sequences on a single qubit, as well as simple DCG protocols, and compare their performance within a unified control framework. Remarkably, robust performance of CP sequences is found up to fluctuations as fast as $\sim 10\%$ of the Rabi frequency, marking the first quantitative characterization of the sensitivity of these approaches to time-dependent control noise. Calculations show that even under such noise environments, which are beyond the static ones originally assumed for CPs, predicted fidelities are at least comparable to DCGs beyond the static ones originally assumed for CPs, to time-dependent control noise. Calculations show that even under such noise environments, which are beyond the static ones originally assumed for CPs, predicted fidelities are at least comparable to DCGs beyond the static ones originally assumed for CPs.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Control protocols

Both CP and DCG protocols consist of multiple elementary control operations, which are sequentially implemented in such a way that the desired target operation (quantum gate) is realized while simultaneously reducing the net sensitivity to error. The mathematical frameworks and error-model assumptions employed in arriving at these constructions vary considerably, leading to different control modalities. While we refer to the relevant literature for a more complete discussion [4, 16, 19], we focus here on the task of effecting a target rotation on a single qubit, which as usual may be parametrized as

$$R(\theta, \phi) = \exp[-i\theta \rho(\phi) \cdot \sigma/2], \quad \sigma \equiv (\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z).$$

Ideally, $R(\theta, \phi)$ rotates the qubit Bloch vector through an angle $\theta$, about an axis defined by the unit vector $\rho(\phi) \equiv (\cos \phi, \sin \phi, 0)$. In practice, any environmental and/or control errors cause the actual effect of a control protocol to differ from the intended one. We shall be interested here in error models that may be pictured in terms of coupling to classical degrees of freedom, as arising from noisy control actions and/or a fluctuating background environment – in which case the net result is the implementation of a different operation on the target system, say, $M(\theta, \phi) \neq R(\theta, \phi)$.

The standard error model assumed in CP constructions involves a combination of static (DC) pulse-length and off-resonance control errors, which we may represent as

$$M(\theta, \phi) = \exp[-i\theta((1 + \epsilon_a) \rho(\phi) \cdot \sigma + \epsilon_d \sigma_z)/2],$$

where $\epsilon_a$ and $\epsilon_d$ represent the amplitude and detuning offsets, respectively. CPs rely on the application of constant-amplitude control fields segmented into rotations of different durations about different axes (phase modulation) to counter these errors which, until recently [5–8], have been largely addressed separately. If $M_a(\theta, \phi)$ (respectively, $M_d(\theta, \phi)$) denote the propagator for the special case in which only $\epsilon_a$ (respectively, $\epsilon_d$) is significant, an $m$-th order CP protocol $M^{[m]}(\theta, \phi)$ is a sequence of elementary operations $\{M_\mu(\theta, \phi)\}$ for which [4]

$$M^{[m]}(\theta, \phi) = R(\theta, \phi) + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon^{m+1}_d), \quad \mu \in \{a, d\}.$$
order compensating sequence for pure detuning errors \[2, 26\]. Simultaneous errors can be systematically suppressed for arbitrary \((\theta, \phi)\) by applying concatenated CPs \[8\], such as reduced CinSK (CORPSE in SK1) and reduced CinBB (CORPSE in BB1).

DCG protocols are constructed from general Hamiltonian models for finite-dimensional open quantum systems exposed to non-Markovian decoherence due to quantum or, as considered here, classical environments. This is to be contrasted with CP constructions which are obtained without making reference to an underlying physical model for the intervening error dynamics. In the simplest case DCGs employ piecewise-constant amplitude and phase modulation of the applied control fields across a sequence of carefully designed elementary segments. Through this approach, the error-sensitivity of the target operation is perturbatively minimized to a given order \[16\]. More general analytical DCG constructions are also possible, involving “stretching and scaling” a variety of different control profiles. In the present setting, we take advantage of formal similarity of the propagator \(M(\theta, \phi)\) under pure off-resonance errors \(\epsilon_a = 0\) to the one arising from single-axis classical decoherence in the DCG context. Specifically, the representative DCG we study is a first-order three-segment sequence, obtained from general constructions in the special case \(\theta = \pi\) \[16, 17\] (see also Table I).

## B. Time-dependent error model

In order to both introduce and analyze the effect of time-dependent amplitude and detuning errors in CP sequences, and compare them to DCGs in a unified setting, it is necessary to formulate the control problem at the Hamiltonian (rather than propagator) level. Let us consider a piecewise-constant chain of \(n\) discrete time-segments, each indexed by \(l\) and spanning time \(t \in [t_{l-1}, t_l]\) such that, in units \(\hbar = 1\) and in a suitable frame, we may write a total Hamiltonian of the form

\[
H(t) = \sum_{l=1}^{n} G^{(l)}(t) [\Omega_l + \beta_a(t)] \frac{1}{2} \rho_a^{(l)} \cdot \sigma + \beta_d(t) \frac{1}{2} \sigma_z \\
\equiv H_0(t) + H_{err}(t).
\]

(1)

Here, we have introduced a modulation function \(G^{(l)}(t) \equiv \Theta[t - t_{l-1}] \Theta[t_l - t]\), which has unit value for \(t \in [t_{l-1}, t_l]\), and is equal to zero otherwise, in order to capture the fact that the control may be implemented in a piecewise-constant fashion. The ideal control field amplitude for the \(l\)-th segment is denoted by \(\Omega_l\), and its axis of rotation by \(\rho_a^{(l)} \equiv \rho(\phi_l) = (\cos \phi_l, \sin \phi_l, 0)\). The two zero-mean Gaussian (stationary) stochastic processes \(\beta_a(t)\) and \(\beta_d(t)\) model amplitude and detuning noise, respectively.

We assume that both such processes enter the dynamics additively, and are independent of the ideal amplitude and phase of the control, while also being mutually independent, that is, \(\langle \beta_a(t) \beta_d(t') \rangle = 0\).

The total Hamiltonian in Eq. (1) may be separated into ideal plus error Hamiltonians by isolating the noise terms proportional to \(\beta_d\). That is, acting alone, \(H_0(t)\) generates the unitary propagator \(U_0(t, 0) = \sum_{l=1}^{n} G^{(l)}(t) U_0(t, t_{l-1}) R_l^{-1},\) which describes a sequence of \(n\) consecutive elementary control operations \(R_l \equiv R(\theta_l, \phi_l), l = 1, \ldots, n,\) executed over a total gating time \(\tau \equiv t_n\). Here, the operator \(U_0(t, t_{l-1}) \equiv \exp[-i\Omega_l(t - t_{l-1})\rho_a^{(l)} \cdot \sigma / 2]\) is the time-dependent propagator for the \(l\)-th elementary pulse, such that \(\theta_l = \Omega_l(t_l - t_{l-1})\) and \(U_0(t_l, t_{l-1}) = R_l\). At the end of the sequence, \(U_0(\tau, 0) = R(\theta, \phi) = R_n^{\dagger}\) (the desired target operation), where \(R_n^{\dagger} \equiv R_l R_{l-1} \ldots R_0\) and \(R_0 \equiv I\).

Following \[16\], the total evolution operator \(U(t, 0),\) generated by the controlled Hamiltonian in Eq. (1) may then be written as \(U(\tau, 0) = U_0(\tau, 0) \exp[-i\Phi(\tau)]\), where the “error action operator” encapsulates the effect of \(H_{err}(t)\) and, to the lowest order in a perturbative Magnus-series expansion, we may write

\[
\Phi(\tau) = \Phi_1(\tau) = \int_0^\tau dt \ U_0^{\dagger}(t, 0) H_{err}(t) U_0(t, 0) .
\]

(2)

Calculating this quantity requires consideration of all (ideal) time-ordered control operations enacted during the sequence; accordingly, let us define “control vectors” as follows \[17\]:

\[
\rho_a(t) = \sum_{l=1}^{n} G^{(l)}(t) \rho_a^{(l)} \Lambda^{(l-1)},
\]

\[
\rho_d(t) = \sum_{l=1}^{n} G^{(l)}(t) \rho_d^{(l)} (t - t_{l-1}) \Lambda^{(l-1)},
\]

where the matrices (vectors) \(\Lambda^{(l-1)}\) \((\rho_d^{(l)}(t - t_{l-1}))\) have components

\[
\Lambda_\beta^{(l-1)} = \text{Tr}[R_l^{\dagger} \sigma_i R_{l-1}^{-1} \sigma_j] / 2,
\]

\[
\rho_d^{(l)}(t - t_{l-1}) = \text{Tr}[U_0(t, t_{l-1}) \sigma_i U_0(t, t_{l-1}) \sigma_j] / 2,
\]

for \(i, j \in \{x, y, z\}\). Thus, \(\Phi_1(\tau) = a(\tau) \cdot \sigma,\) where the “error vector”

\[
a(\tau) \equiv \int_0^\tau dt \ [\beta_a(t) \rho_a(t) + \beta_d(t) \rho_d(t)],
\]
captures the difference between the actual and target control operations, for each realization of the noise.

In order to gain useful information about the overall performance of a CP protocol, we must characterize performance across an ensemble of noise realizations. As a figure of merit, we consider the ensemble-averaged (denoted by ⟨·⟩) propagator fidelity, which in our qubit setting reads

\[ F = \frac{1}{4} \langle |\text{Tr}[U_0^\dagger(\tau, 0) U(\tau, 0)]|^2 \rangle. \]

In the (weak-noise or/and short-time) limit where the first-order description of Eq. (2) is accurate, we may further write [17]:

\[ F \approx 1 - \langle a(\tau)^2 \rangle, \quad a(\tau) \equiv |a(\tau) \cdot a(\tau)|^{1/2}. \]

This quantity is most conveniently calculated in the Fourier domain; introducing the noise power spectral densities, \( S_\mu(\omega) \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt e^{-i\omega t} \langle \beta_\mu(t_0) \beta_\mu(t_0 + t) \rangle \) for \( \mu \in \{a, d\} \), and exploiting the stationarity and independence properties of the noise sources, we finally obtain the following expression for the (first-order) fidelity loss:

\[ 1 - F \approx \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d\omega}{\omega^2} \sum_{\mu=a,d} S_\mu(\omega) F_\mu(\omega). \quad (3) \]

Here, \( F_\mu(\omega) \equiv \rho^{a*}_\mu(\omega) \cdot \rho_\mu(\omega) \) is the generalized FF for amplitude \((\mu = a)\) and detuning \((\mu = d)\) respectively, defined in terms of the frequency-domain control vectors, \( \rho_\mu(\omega) = -i\omega \int_0^\tau dt \rho_\mu(t) e^{i\omega t} \).

The FFs characterize the spectral properties of the applied control and thus provide a simple quantitative means to compare the control protocols of interest (see Table I) in the presence of time-dependent Gaussian noise [17, 22]. In general, one may interpret these functions by considering the transfer function of a high-pass filter, including passband, stopband, and rolloff. The filter rolloff, captured by the slope of the FF near zero frequency, serves as a proxy measure of the order of error suppression in the presence of time-dependent noise. We next proceed to calculate and present independently the FFs for both amplitude and detuning quadratures.

III. RESULTS

A. Analytical results and geometric picture

We begin by analyzing the effect of a single noise source, as described by the appropriate generalized FF introduced in the previous section. Results are summarized in the two top panels of Fig. 1, where we also show, for comparison, FFs for an uncorrected (elementary or “primitive”) π-rotation. As the latter is expected to have no error-suppressing properties, a comparison of the FFs for CP protocols against the primitive rotation reveals their relative performance advantages; a steeper slope indicates improved (higher-order) error suppression. All compensating sequences show the expected first-order suppression of errors against which they are designed to be effective, in the low-frequency limit. At the same time, they show no improvement over the primitive for the uncompensated error quadrature. Remarkably, our analysis reveals that the crossover frequency at which the FF for CP protocols becomes larger than that for the primitive is as high as ~ 10% of the driving frequency Ω. Accordingly, in circumstances where the noise power spectral density is dominated by frequencies below this value, CP sequences are still expected to provide robust error-suppressing performance.

For amplitude noise, it is possible to make connections between the form of the amplitude FF and geometric models commonly used to describe CPs [4, 6, 9, 29]. One may represent a compensating sequence as an initial target rotation followed by correction rotations, captured through a set of vectors in a multi-dimensional space. Direct calculation shows that a sequence correcting DC errors to the first order satisfies the condition:

\[ \sum_l \Omega(t_l - t_{l-1}) \tilde{\rho}^{(l)}_a = 0, \quad \tilde{\rho}^{(l)}_a \equiv \rho^{(l)}_a \Lambda^{(l-1)}. \quad (4) \]

If one treats each term in the above sum as a vector of length \( \Omega(t_l - t_{l-1}) \) pointing in the direction \( \rho^{(l)}_a \), then placing the vectors end to end forms a closed figure, demonstrating the effective DC error suppression. In this picture, SK1 yields a triangle, whereas BB1 corresponds to two triangles with opposite signed area, indicating second-order correction, as expected [4].

Returning to the FF construction, we find that the amplitude-noise FF may be written as

\[ F_a(\omega) = \frac{1}{4} \left\{ \left| \sum_l A_l(\omega) \rho^{(l)}_a \right|^2 + \left| \sum_l B_l(\omega) \rho^{(l)}_a \right|^2 \right\}, \]

\[ A_l(\omega) \equiv \cos(\omega t_l) - \cos(\omega t_{l-1}), \]

\[ B_l(\omega) \equiv \sin(\omega t_l) - \sin(\omega t_{l-1}). \]

The above expression for \( F_a(\omega) \) may be interpreted in terms of the magnitudes of two three-dimensional real vectors \( A \equiv \sum_l A_l(\omega) \rho^{(l)}_a \) and
FIG. 1: (Color online) Top: FFs as a function of dimensionless frequency for amplitude [Panel a)], and detuning noise [Panel b)]. A target rotation angle $\theta = \pi$ is used for all sequences. Inset: Geometric picture for first- vs. second-order amplitude-error compensating sequences. The axes represent Cartesian $x$ and $y$, indicating the rotation axes of the different segments [see text]. The initial rotation is effected about the $x$-axis, indicated by the horizontal line, with corrections about different axes conducted subsequently. Returning to the origin indicates suppression of error, with two different time-domain elements of the FF being indicated by color (dashed green/solid red). Bottom: Performance of CP sequences in the presence of amplitude [Panel c)] and detuning noise [Panel d)] as a function of dimensionless high-frequency cutoff for a $1/f$ Gaussian noise spectrum with constant noise power, Eq. (6). Spectrum parameters: $A_a = A_d = 2.07 \cdot 10^8/\log(\omega_{max}/\omega_{min})$ (rad/s)$^2$/Hz; $\omega_{min} = 2\pi$ rad/s. Control amplitude: $\Omega = 1.5 \cdot 10^6$ rad/s. Numerical simulation involves discretization of the continuous noise functions $\beta_\mu(t)$, calculating a single instance of $U(\tau, 0)$ and a single value for fidelity, and averaging over $N$ noise realizations. We employ the Karhunen-Loeve filter [27] to simulate discrete noise in the Gaussian limit [28]. Analytical lines representing the fidelity loss calculated by the FF approach [Eq. (3), in color] and by the DC limit approach [Eq. (5), gray] are plotted.

$B \equiv \sum_l B_l(\omega) \rho^l_\mu$. When $\omega$ is small compared to the relevant time scales, Taylor-expansion of $B_l$ shows that to second order in $\omega$, we have $\sum_l B_l(\omega) \rho^l_\mu \approx \Omega \sum_l (t_l - t_{l-1}) \rho^l_\mu = 0$, which corresponds to (a scaled version of) the closed-loop condition required for error suppression at DC, Eq. (4). To second order, $A_l \approx \frac{\omega^2}{2} (t^2_l - t^2_{l-1})$, which thus dominates the error. This implies that all CPs for amplitude noise should have FFs that scale at least as $\omega^4$ in the limit of small $\omega$. These observations tie to previous knowledge about general FFs and associated error-suppressing properties [17, 22].

The inset in the top-left panel of Fig. 1 shows the vectors $A$ and $B$ divided by $\omega$ (dashed green arrows corresponding to $B_l/\omega$ and solid red arrows corresponding to $A_l/\omega$, respectively) and placed end-to-end for SK1 and BB1, for two different values of the dimensionless frequency $\omega/\Omega$. At sufficiently small $\omega$ the dashed green arrows trace an approximate closed path, whereas for higher frequencies, $\omega \gtrsim 0.1 \Omega$, higher-order terms become important. In this case, the resulting figure is no longer closed and the sequence will not be error-suppressing, in agreement with the FF analysis presented above. Thus, this geometric picture reflects common observations for DC error analyses, but now lifted to a time-dependent error model, analyzed in the frequency domain.

While these approaches capture the effects of a dynamic bath well, the first-order FF formalism un-
derestimates error in the region $\omega/\Omega \ll 1$, corresponding to noise processes fluctuating slowly on the scale of operation time. This may be understood by treating very slow noise as a constant error term equal to $\beta_\mu(0)$. For small, constant noise an $m$-th order CP (or DCG) sequence is well approximated by $\Phi_{m+1}(\tau, 0) \approx U_0(\tau, 0) \exp[-i\Phi_{m+1}(\tau)]$, where $\Phi_{m+1}(\tau)$ is the $(m + 1)$th order term in the perturbative Magnus expansion [4, 16]. For a qubit as we consider, $\Phi_{m+1}(\tau)$ is traceless with eigenvalues $\pm \lambda_{m+1}$ and the magnitude of $\lambda_{m+1}$ is proportional to $\beta_\mu(0)^{m+1}$. The fidelity of the sequence is then $F \approx \langle |\cos(\lambda_{m+1})|^2 \rangle$. In this limit, the leading order error term can thus be written as

$$1 - F \approx c_{m+1} \langle \beta_\mu(0)^{2(m+1)} \rangle,$$

where the constant $c_{m+1}$, like $F_\mu(\omega)$, depends on the sequence and the noise axis, but not the noise strength. On the other hand, the error of the first-order FF formalism [Eq. (3)] only depends on the first-order Magnus term [Eq. (2)], so the slow-noise (DC) limit contains fidelity loss contributions from higher-order FF terms that are ignored in the first-order approximation (see also [17] for additional details). For a zero mean Gaussian noise described by a spectral density $S(\omega)$, we further have

$$\langle \beta_\mu(0)^{2(m+1)} \rangle = (2m + 1)!! \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\omega S_\mu(\omega) \right)^{m+1}.$$

We may therefore estimate the analytical fidelity loss over the entire frequency range by combining the contributions from Eq. (3) and Eq. (5).

B. Comparison with numerical results

Quantifying the fidelity loss [Eq. (3)] for control protocols implemented in a real (classical) noise environment requires one to choose a specific noise spectrum. As a practical example, we consider $1/f$ Gaussian noise with spectrum

$$S_\mu(\omega) = \begin{cases} A_\mu/\omega, & \omega_{\min}^\mu < \omega < \omega_{\max}^\mu, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise}, \end{cases}$$

where $A_\mu$ is a constant amplitude for the two error quadratures $\mu \in \{a, d\}$. This type of noise is frequently encountered in experimental qubit systems over a wide frequency range [12, 30, 31]. The generality of this power spectrum in various noise processes allows us to reasonably assume the same power spectrum for both amplitude and detuning noise, despite the fact that these two noise sources have different physical origins in general and, as remarked, we take them to be independent.

We analytically compute the fidelity loss according to Eq. (3) in combination with the asymptotic error floor, Eq. (5). These analytic results are compared to numerical data obtained from simulation of the Bloch vector evolution under the noisy Hamiltonian in Eq. (1). Provided that the number of noise realizations, $N$, over which we average is large enough (typically $N \gtrsim 10^4$), this numeric simulation can be considered a reliable direct method for calculating the fidelity.

For the three first-order protocols studied (SK1, CORPSE, and DCG), the lower panels of Fig. 1 show that as the high frequency cutoff is reduced, the fidelity loss is well approximated by the combination of the FF estimate and DC limit (lines). Visibly, both the analytic and numerical approaches directly reveal the robustness of CP protocols against noise fluctuations up to $\sim 0.1\Omega$. Detailed performance variation in the slow-noise limit stems from differences in construction of the selected gate protocols. The DCG and CORPSE sequences both correct DC detuning noise to the first order and have first-order FF’s for time-dependent errors. While for frequencies below $\sim$10% of the Rabi frequency the DCG has a FF of lower magnitude than CORPSE, the specific CORPSE sequence used is designed to additionally minimize the residual second-order DC pre-factor [4] (namely, $c_2$ in Eq. (5)), which explains the significantly smaller observed DC limit. The resulting relative performance between the DCG and CORPSE protocols further depends on the specifics of the noise power spectral density. Similarly, the effective second-order DC error cancellation associated with BB1 means that the DC-limit does not provide a substantial contribution relative to the FF calculation except at very slow frequencies, again explaining the observed behavior.

Finally, we extend our analysis to include representative concatenated CP sequences (Table I). Specifically, the analytical fidelity loss for standard and concatenated CPs, in the presence of simultaneous amplitude (horizontal axis) and detuning noise (vertical axis), is shown in the left panel of Fig. 2. Examination of the constant fidelity-loss contours in these two-dimensional plots clearly reveals the performance benefits of the concatenated CP protocols. Relative to the uncorrected gate, the standard sequences show a modest improvement in fidelity. In contrast, the concatenated sequences exhibit a vastly improved performance in the low-frequency range, demonstrating their ability to effectively suppress
FIG. 2: (Color online) Performance of CPs under simultaneous 1/f Gaussian amplitude and detuning noise, as a function of dimensionless high-frequency cutoffs, $\omega_a^{\text{max}}$ and $\omega_d^{\text{max}}$, respectively. Spectrum and control parameters as in Fig. 1. Left: Analytical results for fidelity loss for primitive X-pulse, CORPSE, SK1, BB1, reduced CinSK and reduced CinBB, using the FF approach described in the text. Right: Analytical (FF: green surface, DC-limit: gray surface) and numerical results (green circles and mesh) for Reduced CinBB, vs. analytical (blue surface) and numerical results (black diamonds) for a primitive pulse.

Both forms of error. In the right panel of Fig. 2, we again present a quantitative comparison of analytical and numerical fidelity-loss calculations for the primitive $\pi$-pulse and for reduced CinBB, showing good agreement between the two approaches. For this two-parameter compensating sequence, the constant-error DC fidelity limit may be seen to arise due to a cross-term of the two noise sources, namely,

$$1 - \mathcal{F} = c_{1,1} \langle \beta_a(0)^2 \beta_d(0)^2 \rangle.$$

As the data show, the resulting DC limit matches the fidelity loss in the very low frequency regime for the reduced CinBB sequence.

Our numerical calculations validate the insights provided by the analytic FF formalism and demonstrate that, in combination with the calculated DC error floor, the first-order FF is an effective tool for predicting single-qubit control performance in the presence of time-dependent noise. The analytic approach comes with an additional benefit, however, in terms of computational efficiency; the numerical calculations of fidelity loss under time-dependent noise are in fact significantly more computationally intensive than the FF approach [32]. While this is beyond our current purpose, such an advantage is likely to become even more dramatic in more complex control scenarios, in particular including multiple qubits.

IV. CONCLUSION

We have shown that CP sequences originally designed to compensate only for static control errors may be successfully employed for non-Markovian time-dependent control and/or environmental errors as well. Our numeric and analytic results demonstrate that these sequences are robust against noise fluctuations up to $\sim 10\%$ of the control frequency, a surprisingly high value. In addition to substantially expanding the practical significance of open-loop quantum control protocols, our analysis further establishes the utility of FFs as a unifying and computationally efficient framework for estimating and understanding the performance of coherent control protocols under realistic noise spectra. Furthermore, we have shown that at least for the single-qubit setting under consideration, slow noise can be accurately modeled by a DC-limit approximation that can be combined with the FF approach to accurately estimate control performance over a broader frequency range.

Altogether, our results show that, in combination, CP and DCG protocols provide experimentalists with a viable toolkit capable of meeting a variety of constraints, including the presence of colored time-dependent control noise. We further expect that the geometric picture we have developed, in conjunction with the FF approach, may prove instrumental for finding new CPs which are resilient to specific noise spectra.
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[32] For our current analysis, each numerically calculated point requires the generation of $N \gtrsim 10^4$ noise trajectories and calculation of 10 points requires approximately two hours on a 6-Core CPU with 12 GB of RAM. The FF fidelity loss calculation can take ~0.4 seconds for 500 points (different cutoff frequencies) and individual data points can be determined in milliseconds.