Generalized Performance of Concatenated Quantum Codes
– a dynamical systems approach

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Abstract—We apply a dynamical systems approach to concatenation of quantum error correcting codes, extending and generalizing the results of Rahn et al. [1] to both diagonal and non-diagonal channels. Our point of view is global: instead of focusing on particular types of noise channels, we study the geometry of the coding map as a discrete-time dynamical system on the entire space of noise channels.

In the case of diagonal channels, we show that any code with distance at least three corrects (in the infinite concatenation limit) an open set of errors. For Calderbank-Shor-Steane (CSS) codes, we give a more precise characterization of that set. We show how to incorporate noise in the gates, thus completing the framework. We derive some general bounds for noise channels, which allows us to analyze several codes in detail.

Index Terms—Quantum error correction, quantum channels, quantum fault tolerance

I. INTRODUCTION

In this paper we analyze quantum codes in essence, abstracting their details as codes and extracting their fault tolerance properties using a dynamical systems approach. This framework has been initiated by Rahn et al. [1]. They show how to incorporate diagonal noise on the qubit into an effective channel on the logical qubits.

We broaden this viewpoint and extend their approach in several ways. We look at the effective channel from a dynamical systems point of view, using tools and methods from this field. In particular we characterize the region of correctable errors using tools from the analysis of fixed points and show how to incorporate perturbations of the coding map.

Our second chain of results extends the results of [1] to the realistic model of faulty gates and general channels. Rahn et al. only analyzed the depolarizing channel on the physical qubits as the single source of noise. We show that incorporating noisy gates gives rise to a perturbed effective channel. We also analyze general noise on the qubits and give several bounds for the convergence of non-diagonal channels to diagonal channels. Our results are supported by several examples for the family of CSS-codes, which is the encoding predominantly proposed for fault-tolerant quantum computing. We simplify our bounds in the case of CSS codes and analyze the [[7, 1, 3]] code, the smallest member of the CSS family, in great detail.

a) Structure of the paper: We first introduce the dynamical systems approach in Section II and establish the notation and some basics. In Section III we extend this approach to diagonal channels, including an analysis of regions of convergence. Section IV deals with faulty gates. In Section V we establish several results and examples for non-diagonal (i.e. general) noise channels and in Section VI we discuss a way to improve channels. Our approach allows to drastically reduce the number of parameters, lending Quantum error correcting codes to an elegant analysis. This however comes at some price, and in Section VII we outline some of the shortcomings of this approach, before concluding with some open questions.

II. NOTATION AND FRAMEWORK

In this section we formulate the basic framework and review the main results from [1], which should be consulted for details. Quantum states are represented by their density matrices.

The error correction process consists of three parts: encoding \( \mathcal{D} \), noise \( \mathcal{N} \), and decoding \( \mathcal{D} \). Each part is modeled as a quantum channel, namely, a map taking density matrices to density matrices. Quantum channels are required to be linear, trace-preserving, and completely positive, hence of the form

\[
\rho \mapsto \sum_j A_j \rho A_j^\dagger, \quad \text{with} \quad \sum_j A_j^\dagger A_j = I, \tag{1}
\]

where \( A_j \) are linear operators and \( I \) is the identity (cf. [2]). In addition, we will assume that the channels are time-independent in order to simplify the study of their convergence. In the subsequent sections, we will often denote quantum channels by \( \mathcal{S} \).

Encoding \( \mathcal{E} \) takes an initial logical qubit state \( \rho_0 \) to the initial register state \( \rho(0) \) which evolves according to some continuous-time noise dynamics. We consider the evolution for a fixed amount of time \( t \), turning noise into a discrete-time operation \( \mathcal{N} \) which takes \( \rho(0) \) into a final register state \( \rho(t) = \mathcal{N}(\rho(0)) \). Finally, decoding \( \mathcal{D} \) takes \( \rho(t) \) to the final logical qubit state \( \rho_f \). The map

\[
\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D} \circ \mathcal{N} \circ \mathcal{E} : \rho_0 \mapsto \rho_f
\]
describes the effective dynamics of the encoded information resulting from the physical dynamics of \( \mathcal{N} \) and is called the effective channel.

We consider noise models \( \mathcal{N} \) on \( n \) qubits consisting of uncorrelated noise \( \mathcal{N}^{(1)} \) on each single physical qubit, so

\[
\mathcal{N} = \mathcal{N}^{(1)} \otimes \ldots \otimes \mathcal{N}^{(1)}.
\]

Given an \( n \) qubit quantum error correcting code \( C \) with encoding operation \( \mathcal{E} \) and decoding operation \( \mathcal{D} \), the map taking the single qubit noise \( \mathcal{N}^{(1)} \) to the effective channel \( \mathcal{G} \),

\[
\Omega^C : \mathcal{N}^{(1)} \to \mathcal{D} \circ \left( \mathcal{N}^{(1)} \otimes \ldots \otimes \mathcal{N}^{(1)} \right) \circ \mathcal{E},
\]

is called the coding map of \( C \).

The density matrix of one qubit can be expanded in the standard Pauli basis \( \mathcal{P} = \{ I, X, Y, Z \} \) for density matrices and represented as a four-dimensional real vector. A noise channel \( \mathcal{N}^{(1)} \) can then be represented as a \( 4 \times 4 \) matrix

\[
\mathcal{N}^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix}
N_{XI} & N_{XO} & 0 & 0 \\
N_{YO} & N_{YX} & N_{XY} & N_{XZ} \\
N_{ZI} & N_{ZX} & N_{ZY} & N_{ZZ}
\end{pmatrix},
\]

(3)

Zeroes in the first row are due to trace preservation. For an arbitrary \( n \) qubit code \( C \), the entries of the matrix \( \mathcal{G} \) is \( \Omega^C (\mathcal{N}^{(1)}) \) can be calculated as

\[
\mathcal{G}_{\sigma \sigma'} = \sum_{i} \beta_{\sigma}^{\rho} \alpha_{\sigma'}^{\rho} \prod_{\mu=1}^{n} \rho_{\nu_{\mu}, \mu_{\nu}} 
\]

(4)

where \( \mu = (\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_n), \nu = (\nu_1, \ldots, \nu_n) \) run over \( \mathcal{P}^{\otimes n} \), and \( \alpha_{\sigma}^{\rho}, \beta_{\sigma'}^{\rho} \) are the coefficients in the expansions for the encoding and decoding operations relative to \( \mathcal{P}^{\otimes n} \). See [1] for details.

If the matrix \( \mathcal{G} \) is diagonal, \( \mathcal{N}^{(1)} \) is called a diagonal channel. In that case, we write \( x = N_{XX} \), \( y = N_{YY} \), and \( z = N_{ZZ} \) and denote the channel by \( [x, y, z] \). It was shown in [3] that complete positivity of such channels implies that the point \( (x, y, z) \) must be in the tetrahedron \( \Delta \) defined by

\[
\begin{align*}
-x + y + z &\leq 1 \\
-x + y &\leq 1 \\
x + y - z &\leq 1 \\
x - y - z &\leq 1.
\end{align*}
\]

(5)

It is easily checked that a single-bit Pauli channel with exclusive probabilities \( 0 \leq p_X, p_Y, p_Z \leq 1 \),

\[
\rho \to (1 - p_X - p_Y - p_Z) \rho + p_X X \rho X + p_Y Y \rho Y + p_Z Z \rho Z,
\]

has the following representation in the above notation:

\[
[1 - 2(p_Y + p_Z), 1 - 2(p_X + p_Y), 1 - 2(p_X + p_Y)].
\]

In fact, any diagonal channel can be realized as a single-bit Pauli channel, so the parametrizations of \( \Delta \) via \([x, y, z]\) and via \((p_X, p_Y, p_Z)\) are equivalent.

The \( n \) dimensional Pauli group is \( \mathcal{P}_n = \{ \pm 1, \pm i \} \otimes \mathcal{P}^{\otimes n} \). Suppose we have a stabilizer code that encodes \( k \) qubits into \( n \). Its stabilizer \( S \) is an abelian subgroup of \( \mathcal{P}_n \) with \( n - k \) generators \( g_i \). The \( 2^k \) dimensional codespace is defined as

\[
C_S = \{ |\psi\rangle \in (\mathbb{C}^2)^{\otimes n} \text{ so that } g_i |\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle \text{ for all } g_i \in S \}.
\]

The subset of \( \mathcal{P}_n \) that commutes with \( S \) is the centralizer, and it includes encoded operations we can perform on the codespace. We measure each generator \( g_i \), and let \( \beta_i = 0 \) if we project into the +1 eigenspace, and \( \beta_i = 1 \) if we project into the −1 eigenspace. We then have an error syndrome \( \beta \in F^{n-k} \) and we correct with a recovery operator \( R_\beta \in \mathcal{P}_n \).

It was shown in [1] that if \( C \) is a stabilizer code, then \( \Omega^C \) takes diagonal channels to diagonal channels. In fact, if \( S_1, \ldots, S_m \) are the generators of \( C \), then

\[
\Omega^C_{x, y, z} = [\Omega^C_{X}(x, y, z), \Omega^C_{Y}(x, y, z), \Omega^C_{Z}(x, y, z)],
\]

where

\[
\Omega^C_{x, y, z} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^{m} f_{k\sigma} x^{w_X(S_k\sigma)} y^{w_Y(S_k\sigma)} z^{w_Z(S_k\sigma)},
\]

(6)

and \( \eta(\sigma, \sigma') = \pm 1 \), if \( \sigma' = \pm \sigma \sigma \sigma \), for \( \sigma, \sigma' \in \{ I, X, Y, Z \} \). Here, \( w_\sigma \) denotes the \( \sigma \)-weight, \( \tilde{\sigma} \) is the encoded \( \sigma \), and the \( R_j \) denote recovery operators corresponding to the error syndromes. For later purposes, we extend \( \eta \) as the natural homomorphism to the negative of the Pauli matrices by \((\eta(-\sigma, \sigma')) = \eta(\sigma, -\sigma') = -\eta(\sigma, \sigma') \).

Therefore, the components of \( \Omega^C_{x, y, z} \) are polynomials of degree \( n \) in \( x, y, z \). Observe, however, that in general \( \Omega^C \) is a map from a higher dimensional space of non-diagonal channels to itself. Non-diagonal channels of particular interest to us are unital channels; a channel \( \mathcal{U} \) is unital if \( \mathcal{U}(I) = I \).

An important result from [1] is that concatenation of codes translates into composition of coding maps. In other words, if \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) are codes and \( C_1 \circ C_2 \) denotes their concatenation, then

\[
\Omega^C = \Omega^{C_1} \circ \Omega^{C_2}.
\]

(7)

Given a noise model \( \mathcal{N}^{(1)} \) and code \( C \), we are interested in what this noise looks like under repeated concatenation of the code \( C \) with itself. Then the question is, does

\[
\Omega^{C^k}(\mathcal{N}^{(1)}) \to I, \quad k \to \infty?
\]

If this is the case, \( C \) corrects the error given by \( \mathcal{N}^{(1)} \).

Rahn et al. [1] focus mostly on the symmetric depolarizing channel given in the above notation by \([e^{-\gamma t}, e^{-\gamma t}, e^{-\gamma t}]\) and derive threshold estimates for various codes. We take a global point of view, where instead of looking at noise channels point by point, we consider the behavior of the coding map as a discrete-time dynamical system and study the set of all noise channels attracted to the identity channel under iteration of the coding map. This approach enables us to use methods from the theory of dynamical systems.
III. OPEN SET OF CORRECTABLE DIAGONAL ERRORS

We will first focus on diagonal noise channels, i.e., those given by a diagonal matrix, as discussed in the previous section. The standing assumption of this section is therefore that all noise channels are diagonal. We saw that we can characterize the asymptotic properties of the coding scheme involving the concatenation of a fixed code $C$ with itself by studying the long-term behavior of the dynamical system

$$\Omega^C : \Delta \rightarrow \Delta.$$ 

We now review some necessary basics from the theory of dynamical systems. Good introductory references are [4] and [5].

A. Dynamical systems preliminaries

A (discrete-time) dynamical system is a map $f : M \rightarrow M$, where $M$ is a space with a certain additional structure (topological, metric, differentiable, etc.). In our case, it suffices to assume that $M$ is some Euclidean space $\mathbb{R}^k$ or a subset of it, and that $f$ is a differentiable map. We denote by $D_f(p)$ the derivative of $f$ at a point $p$ and think of it as a linear operator on $\mathbb{R}^k$. We will denote by $\|D_f(p)\|$ the norm of $D_f(p)$ as such an operator; that is,

$$\|D_f(p)\| = \max\{\|D_f(p)v\| : \|v\| \leq 1\}.$$

The norm on $\mathbb{R}^k$ is arbitrary but fixed.) If $D_f(p)$ depends differentiably on $p$, we define the second derivative of $f$ in the usual way as $D^2f = D(D_f)$; recall that $D^2f(p)$ can be thought of a bilinear map $\mathbb{R}^k \times \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ and $\|D^2f(p)\|$ then denotes its norm. Continuing recursively, we say that $f$ is of class $C^r$ (or simply $C^r$) if $D^r(f)$ exists and is a continuous function of $p$.

For $p \in M$, the set $\{f^n(p) : n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$, where $f^n = f \circ \cdots \circ f$ (n times), is called the orbit or trajectory of $f$. A fundamental question in the theory of dynamical systems is: what is the long term behavior of trajectories? That is, where does $f^n(p)$ end up eventually, as $n \rightarrow \infty$? The set of accumulation points of the orbit of $p$ is called the omega-limit set of $p$. An example of such a set is a fixed point of $f$, i.e., a point $p$ such that $f(p) = p$. A fixed point $p$ is locally attracting if there exists a neighborhood $V$ of $p$ in $M$ such that for every $x \in V$, $f^n(x) \rightarrow p$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$. A basic criterion for a fixed point to be locally attracting is the following.

Lemma 3.1: Suppose $U \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ is open, $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ is a $C^1$ map, $p \in U$ is a fixed point of $f$, and $\lambda_0 = \|D_f(p)\| < 1$. Then $p$ is locally attracting.

Proof: Let $\lambda_0 < \lambda < 1$. Since $D_f(x)$ depends continuously on $x$ and $\|D_f(p)\| < 1$, there exists a neighborhood $V$ of $p$ in $U$ such that $\|D_f(x)\| \leq \lambda$, for all $x \in V$. Then, by the Mean Value Theorem,

$$\|f(x) - f(p)\| \leq \lambda\|x - p\|,$$

for all $x \in V$. Therefore,

$$\|f^n(x) - p\| = \|f^n(x) - f^n(p)\| \leq \lambda^n\|x - p\| \rightarrow 0,$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

The largest such set $V$ is called the basin of attraction of the fixed point $p$, denoted by $\mathcal{B}(p)$. Let $B(x, r)$ denote the open ball of radius $r$ centered at $x$.

Lemma 3.2: Assume $f$ is $C^2$, the hypotheses of the previous lemma are satisfied, and $\|D^2f(x)\| \leq K$, for all $x \in U$. Then $B(p, (1 - \lambda_0)/K) \cap U \subset \mathcal{B}(p)$. Proof: The proof goes along similar lines as the previous one. Let $\lambda_0 < \lambda < 1$ be arbitrary and $0 < r < (\lambda - \lambda_0)/K$.

For an arbitrary point $x$ in the closed ball $B[p, r]\cap U$, we have

$$\|Df(x)\| \leq \|Df(x) - Df(p)\| + \|Df(p)\| \leq Kr + \lambda_0 \leq \lambda,$$

that is, $f$ is a contraction on $B[x, r]\cap U$. Furthermore, for all $x \in B[p, r]\cap U$,

$$\|f(x) - p\| = \|f(x) - f(p)\| \leq \lambda\|x - p\| \leq r,$$

which implies that $B[p, r]\cap U$ is $f$-invariant. Therefore, under iteration of $f$, every point in $B[p, r]\cap U$ converges to $p$, so $B[p, r]\cap U \subset \mathcal{B}(p)$. Taking the union over all $\lambda \in (\lambda_0, 1)$ proves the claim.

Now take $f = \Omega^C$ and observe that $[1, 1, 1]$ is always an isolated fixed point of $\Omega^C$, though not necessarily attracting. For instance, $[1, 1, 1]$ is a saddle for the coding map $\Omega^{101}$ of the bit-flip code. However, if $C$ is the Shor or five-bit code, then $\Omega^{C}[1, 1, 1] = 0$, so $[1, 1, 1]$ is locally attracting. The following result shows that this is not a coincidence.

Proposition 3.3: Under the assumptions above, if $C$ is a quantum error correcting code of distance $\geq 3$, then

$$\Omega^C[1, 1, 1] = 0.$$

Proof: It suffices to show that $\Omega^C$ sends three linearly independent vectors to zero.

Since the distance of the code is at least three, $C$ corrects all errors of weight one. In particular, it corrects all single-bit Pauli channel errors

$$\rho \rightarrow (1 - \varepsilon)\rho + \varepsilon\rho\sigma,$$

for $\sigma \in \{X, Y, Z\}$ and $0 \leq \varepsilon \leq 1$. Such errors correspond to noise channels $[1, 1 - 2\varepsilon, 1 - 2\varepsilon], [1 - 2\varepsilon, 1, 1 - 2\varepsilon]$, and $[1 - 2\varepsilon, 1 - 2\varepsilon, 1]$, for $\sigma = X, Y, Z$, respectively. Let us consider $\sigma = X$. To say that $C$ corrects $X$-errors means that

$$\Omega^{C}[1, 1 - 2\varepsilon, 1 - 2\varepsilon] = [1, 1 - O(\varepsilon^2), 1 - O(\varepsilon^2)].$$

This implies that the directional derivative

$$\Omega^{C}[1, 1, 1]v_X = \frac{d}{d\varepsilon} \mid_{\varepsilon=0} \Omega^{C}(1, 1, 1 + \varepsilon v_X) = 0,$$

where $v_X = (0, -1, -1)^T$. Similarly, we can show that $\Omega^{C}[1, 1, 1]v_Y = \Omega^{C}[1, 1, 1]v_Z = 0$, where $v_Y = (-1, 0, -1)^T$ and $v_Z = (-1, 1, 0)^T$. Since $v_X, v_Y, v_Z$ are linearly independent, it follows that $\Omega^{C}[1, 1, 1] = 0$.
$\Delta \to \Delta$. If $B_C$ denotes its basin of attraction and $\|D^2 \Omega^C\| \leq K$ on $\Delta$, then
\[ B\left([1,1,1], \frac{1}{K}\right) \cap \Delta \subset B_C. \quad (7) \]

Proof: Observe that $\Omega^C$ can be extended to the whole space $\mathbb{R}^3$, has $[1,1,1]$ as a fixed point, and, by Proposition 3.3, $\lambda_0 = D \Omega^C [1,1,1] = 0$. Therefore, $[1,1,1]$ is locally attracting for $\Omega^C$ as a map $\mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^3$. By Lemma 3.2, $B([1,1,1], 1/K)$ is contained in the basin of attraction of $[1,1,1]$, again as a fixed point of $\Omega^C : \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^3$. However, we know that $\Delta$ is an invariant set for $\Omega^C$, i.e., $\Omega^C(\Delta) \subset \Delta$, and it contains $[1,1,1]$. Therefore, points in $B([1,1,1], 1/K) \cap \Delta$ are both attracted to $[1,1,1]$ and stay in $\Delta$ under iteration of $\Omega^C$. This proves \( \Box \).

Proposition 3.5: Suppose $C$ is a CSS code. It will be shown in Theorem 5.7 that
\[ \Omega^C[x,y,z] = [f(x), g(x,y,z), f(z)], \]
for some polynomials $f, g$. Let $a$ be the largest fixed point of $f$ in $(0,1)$. Then
\[ B_C = \{[x,y,z] \in \Delta : x > a, z > a\}. \]

Proof: It follows from Proposition 3.3 that 1 is an attracting fixed point of $f$. Let $(\alpha, \beta)$ be its basin of attraction. It is well known that its boundary $\{\alpha, \beta\}$ is $f$-invariant. Since $\alpha \in (a,1)$ and $(a,1)$ is $f$-invariant, it follows that $\alpha$ is a fixed point of $f$. Therefore, $\alpha = a$. This means that for every $x \in (a, 1)$, $f^k(x) \to 1$, as $k \to \infty$.

Now suppose $[x,y,z] \in \Delta, x > a, z > a$. Then
\[ \Omega^C(x, y, z) = [f^k(x), y, f^k(z)]. \]

We know that $f^k(x), f^k(z) \to 1$. Let $y_*$ be an accumulation point of the sequence $y_k$. Since $[1, y_*, 1] \in \Delta$, it follows that $y_* = 1$. Therefore, $(\Omega^C)^k [x, y, z] \to [1,1,1]$, as $k \to \infty$, which implies $\{[x, y, z] \in \Delta : x > a, z > a\} \in B_C$.

To show the opposite inclusion, assume the contrary, i.e., that there exists a point $p = [x, y, z] \in B_C$ such that $p \notin \{[x, y, z] \in \Delta : x > a, z > a\}$. Then $x \leq a$ or $z \leq a$. In the former case, $f^k(x)$ does not converge to 1, and in the latter, $f^k(z) \not\to 1$, contrary to our assumption that $p$ is in the basin of attraction of $[1,1,1]$.

IV. FAULTY GATES

We want to extend the analysis in [1] to include faulty gate operations both in the error correction and in the computation circuits. Gate errors are a common form of noise in quantum information processing. We show how to incorporate faulty gates into the current framework and how they change the effective channel and the coding map. Note that fault tolerance for our noise model has been shown, but that there is some debate about the validity of that model and whether quantum fault-tolerance is possible [6].

A. A simple noise model

Our first approach is to start with a very simple error model for faulty unitary gates $G$:
\[ G : \rho \to (1 - \varepsilon) G \rho G^\dagger + \varepsilon \frac{1}{N} I. \quad (8) \]

This error model is rather generic. It has the additional advantage that noise from sequential gates is additive; if we combine two faulty operations as in Eq. (8), we obtain
\[ G_2 \circ G_1 : \rho \to G_2 \left( (1 - \varepsilon_1) G_1 \rho G_1^\dagger + \frac{\varepsilon_1}{N} I \right) = (1 - \varepsilon_2)(1 - \varepsilon_1) G_2 G_1 \rho G_1 G_2^\dagger + \frac{(1 - \varepsilon_2)(1 - \varepsilon_1)}{N} I \approx (1 - \varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2) G_2 G_1 \rho (G_2 G_1)^\dagger + \frac{\varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2}{N} I, \quad (9) \]
i.e., a faulty process with $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2$. As we have seen, the effective dynamics of one level of concatenation is simply encoding, noise and decoding, i.e.
\[ \mathcal{G} = D \circ N \circ E. \]

Let us also assume here that the noise on the qubits is unital, i.e., $N(I) = I$. We now show that faulty gates in this model have the same effect as noise; hence we can effectively treat noise from faulty gates and other types of noise on the qubits in the same way.

The encoding operation can be written concisely as $E(\rho) = B_\rho B_2^3$, where $B = |0\rangle|0\rangle + |1\rangle|1\rangle$ (or, for codes that encode more than one qubit, $B = \sum_i |i\rangle|i\rangle$). This encoding is performed by applying a sequence of gates, possibly faulty, as in Eq. (3). The operation corresponding to $B$ can be implemented with unitary gates in a larger space by appending some ancilla qubits, for instance as $U_B : |i\rangle|0\rangle \to |i\rangle$. If errors occur according to Eq. (3), the resulting operation will be $E_{\varepsilon_E} : \rho \to (1 - \varepsilon_E) U_B \rho U_B^\dagger + \frac{\varepsilon_E}{N} I = (1 - \varepsilon_E) E(\rho) + \frac{\varepsilon_E}{N} I$, where $E$ denotes the error-free encoding and $\varepsilon_E$ is the noise accumulated from gates during encoding. In an analogous way it can be seen that a decoding map $D$, implemented with faulty gates, can be written as $D_{\varepsilon_D} : \rho \to (1 - \varepsilon_D) D(\rho) + \frac{\varepsilon_D}{N} I$, where we have used that $D : \frac{1}{N} I \to \frac{1}{N} I$. Putting this together under the simplifying assumption that $N(I) = I$ (unital channels), and using additivity of error from faulty gates, we get
\[ \rho \to (1 - \varepsilon) \mathcal{G}(\rho) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} I, \]
where $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_D + \varepsilon_E$ and $\mathcal{G}$ is the effective channel with perfect gates. In other words, faulty gates only contract the iterated map by $(1 - \varepsilon)$. As a result, the coding map $\Omega^C$ (see Eq. (2)) changes to $\Omega^C$, the coding map with faulty gates, as
\[ \Omega^C_{\varepsilon} : N \to (1 - \varepsilon) D \circ N \circ E + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} I = (1 - \varepsilon) \Omega^C + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} I. \]
The entries of the matrix $\mathcal{G}$ for the coding map change as
\[ \mathcal{G}_{\sigma \sigma'}^I = (1 - \varepsilon) G_{\sigma \sigma'} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \delta_{\sigma 1} \delta_{\sigma' 1}, \quad (10) \]
where we have used the fact that the coding map whose only non-zero entry is $G_{11}$ represents a mapping of $\rho$ to the identity matrix. In other words, the incorporation of faulty gates into our analysis results in an affine mapping of the coding map: $G$ is contracted by $(1 - \varepsilon)$ and the element $\varepsilon_{11}$ is added.
B. More general noise

It is not difficult to extend this analysis to more general noise in the gates and general noise on the qubits. Let us assume that instead of the restricted noise model of Eq. (5) we are dealing with generic noise of rate \( \varepsilon \). We can write

\[
G : \rho \rightarrow (1 - \varepsilon)G\rho G^\dagger + \varepsilon N_C(\rho)
\]

where \( N_C \) is some general noise operation.

The analysis of the previous Section [IV-A] goes through line by line. The noise process is additive (with \( I/N \) in Eq. (3) replaced by \( \varepsilon I G_2 N_C(\rho) G_2^\dagger + \varepsilon_2 N_C(\rho) \)). The encoding and decoding operations can then be written as

\[
\mathcal{E}_{\varepsilon E} : \rho \rightarrow (1 - \varepsilon E)U_B\rho U_B^\dagger + \varepsilon E I_N
\]

\[
\mathcal{D}_{\varepsilon D} : \rho \rightarrow (1 - \varepsilon_D)\mathcal{D}(\rho) + \varepsilon_D N_D(\rho),
\]

where \( N_E \) and \( N_D \) are the noise resulting from encoding resp. decoding. Concatenating yields

\[
\rho \rightarrow (1 - \varepsilon)\mathcal{G}(\rho) + \varepsilon N_{DE}
\]

with \( \varepsilon = \varepsilon_E + \varepsilon_D \) and the cumulative noise can be written to first order as

\[
\varepsilon N_{DE} = \varepsilon_E \mathcal{D}(N(\varepsilon_E(\rho))) + \varepsilon_D N_D(N(\varepsilon(\rho))
\]

The new coding map with faulty gates is then very similar to before:

\[
\Omega_f^C : N \rightarrow (1 - \varepsilon)\mathcal{D}_C \circ \mathcal{E}\circ \varepsilon N_{DE}(\rho) = (1 - \varepsilon)\Omega_C + \varepsilon N_{DE}.
\]

In other words, faulty gates introduce a perturbation to the original coding map studied in the previous section. They can be treated in the same way as noise on the qubits. In fact we see that the occurrence of faulty gates is the same as a process with increased noise on the gates and perfect gates. However, if the noise on gates is small compared to the noise on qubits, we can treat it as a perturbation to the original coding map. We will show how to incorporate such perturbations in the analysis with the following Lemma. Here, \( |h|_{c1} \) denotes the \( C^1 \) norm of a smooth map \( h \) on its domain, that is, the maximum of the supremum of \( |h| \) and \( \|Dh\| \).

**Lemma 4.1:** Suppose \( U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \) is an open set, \( f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \) is smooth (at least \( C^2 \)), \( f(p) = p \) and \( \lambda = \|Df(p)\| < 1 \). Then for small enough \( \varepsilon > 0 \) and every smooth map \( g : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \), if \( \|g - f\|_{C^1} < \varepsilon \), then \( g \) has a fixed point \( q \) such that \( \|Dg(q)\| < 1 \) and \( |g - p| < \varepsilon/(1 - \lambda) \).

In other words, if a map has an attracting fixed point, then any sufficiently small \( C^1 \) perturbation of it also has an attracting fixed point which is close to the original one. This is a standard fact from the theory of dynamical systems; for completeness, we supply a proof here. **Proof:** Let \( M \) be an upper bound of \( \|D^2f\| \) on some relatively compact neighborhood \( V \) of \( p \). Since \( \lambda < 1 \), there exists \( r > 0 \) such that \( f \) maps the closed ball \( B[p, r] \) into itself and \( B[p, r] \subset V \). Without loss, we can take \( r \) so small that \( r < (1 - \lambda)/M \). Assume \( 0 < \varepsilon < \min((1 - \lambda)r, 1 - \lambda - Mr) \). Then it is not difficult to show that for every \( x \in B[p, r] \), \( |g(x) - p| < \varepsilon + \lambda r < r \), which means that \( g \) takes \( B[p, r] \) into itself. Therefore, by the Brouwer fixed point theorem, \( g \) has a fixed point, say \( q \), in \( B[p, r] \). Since

\[
|q - p| = |g(q) - p| \\
\leq |g(q) - f(q)| + |f(q) - p| \\
\leq \varepsilon + \lambda |q - p|,
\]

we obtain \( |q - p| < \varepsilon/(1 - \lambda) \).

To show that \( q \) is an attracting fixed point for \( g \), let us show that \( \|Dg(q)\| < 1 \). Observe first that \( \|Df(q)\| \leq Mr + \lambda < 1 - \varepsilon \). Therefore, \( \|Dg(q)\| \leq \|Dg(q) - Df(q)\| + \|Df(q)\| < 1 \).

It is clear from [10] that the coding map \( \Omega_f^C \) of a code with faulty gates is a \( C^1 \) small perturbation of the coding map \( \Omega^C \) with perfect gates.

V. ANALYSIS OF CHANNELS

In this section we will give several technical results about channel maps, which we will subsequently use to analyze various diagonal and non-diagonal channels and to give examples. In particular we will study in detail how non-diagonal elements of a noise channel affect its convergence and threshold.

A. The two-point theorem

We look at bounds for a general channel, resulting in Thm. [SA].

**Lemma 5.1:** For any non-identity Pauli matrix \( \sigma \),

\[
N_{Z\sigma}^2 + N_{X\sigma}^2 + N_{Y\sigma}^2 \leq (1 - |N_{\sigma I}|)^2
\]

\( N_{X\sigma} \pm N_{Y\sigma} \pm N_{Z\sigma} \leq (N_{X\sigma} \pm N_{Y\sigma})^2 + (N_{Y\sigma} \pm N_{Z\sigma})^2 + (N_{X\sigma} \pm N_{Z\sigma})^2 \leq 1.

All elements of the channel are real.

**Proof:** \( \mathcal{N} \) preserves hermiticity, and is positive (sends non-negative \( \rho \) to non-negative \( \rho \)) [7]. The first condition implies that the elements are real. Then the adjoint channel, which has the map \( \mathcal{N}' \rho = \sum A_j \rho A_j^\dagger \), is also positive. A simple calculation shows that a matrix \( \rho = c_1 I + c_2 X + c_3 Y + c_4 Z \) is non-negative if and only if \( c_1 \geq \sqrt{c_2^2 + c_3^2 + c_4^2} \).

Let \( c = \sqrt{N_{X\sigma}^2 + N_{Y\sigma}^2 + N_{Z\sigma}^2} \), and apply \( \mathcal{N}(cI \pm (N_{X\sigma} X + N_{Y\sigma} Y + N_{Z\sigma} Z)) \), which gives \( c_1 = c \) and \( c_\sigma = c N_{\sigma I} \pm c_2 c_\sigma \). From this we get \( c \leq (1 - |N_{\sigma I}|)^2, \) which gives equation [11].

Let \( b_{\sigma I} = N_{X\sigma} N_{X\sigma} + N_{Y\sigma} N_{Y\sigma} + N_{Z\sigma} N_{Z\sigma} \). Now let \( c = \sqrt{b_{\sigma I} + 2b_{\sigma I} + 2b_{\sigma I}} \). Then, apply \( \mathcal{N} \) to

\[
cl - (N_{X\sigma} X + N_{Y\sigma} Y + N_{Z\sigma} Z) \pm (N_{X\sigma} X + N_{Y\sigma} Y + N_{Z\sigma} Z),
\]

which gives \( c_1 = c - b_{\sigma I} \pm b_{\sigma I} \), \( c_\sigma = -b_{\sigma I} \pm b_{\sigma I} \), and

\[
c_1 \geq b_{\sigma I} \pm b_{\sigma I} \geq |b_{\sigma I} \pm b_{\sigma I}|, \text{which gives } c \geq b_{\sigma I} \pm b_{\sigma I} = c_2, \text{so } c \leq 1, \text{which gives equation [12].}
\]

This proof extends naturally to multi-qubit channels.

**Corollary 5.2:** Each row of a quantum channel \( \mathcal{N} \) in the Pauli basis has norm at most 1.

**Proof:** Since \( |N_{\sigma I}| \leq 1 \), we have \( 1 - N_{\sigma I}^2 \geq (1 - |N_{\sigma I}|)^2 \), and so the result follows from Eq. [11].
Corollary 5.3: Let \( A = N_{x_1}^2 + N_{y_1}^2 + N_{z_1}^2 \) be the non-unital portion of the channel. Then we have that any unitary column of the channel in the Pauli basis has \( L_2 \) norm squared \( N_{x_2}^2 + N_{y_2}^2 + N_{z_2}^2 \leq 1 - A \).  

Proof: Follows immediately from Eq. (12). 

Theorem 5.4 (Two-point theorem): If two of \( N_{XX}, N_{YY}, N_{ZZ} \) are 1, then the channel is the identity channel.  

Proof: Let \( \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3 \) be some permutation of the Pauli matrices such that \( N_{\sigma_1 \sigma_1} = N_{\sigma_2 \sigma_2} = 1 \). From Corollary 5.3 \( N_{\sigma_1 \sigma_1} \) and \( N_{\sigma_2 \sigma_2} \) are the only non-zero elements in their rows. From Corollary 5.3 the non-unital part must be 0, and \( N_{\sigma_1 \sigma_1} \) and \( N_{\sigma_2 \sigma_2} \) are the only non-zero elements in their columns. It then follows that the channel is diagonal. From the conditions on diagonal channels given in Eq. (5), it easily follows that if two terms are equal to 1, the \( 3^{rd} \) term must equal 1, and so we have the identity channel. 

B. Example: Generalized Shor codes

In this section we give a first application of our formalism and the general bounds we obtained. We study generalized Shor codes, which are bit flip and phase flip codes concatenated with each other. We will assume a diagonal channel \([x, y, z] \) in what follows. Note that Thm. 5.3 is easy to prove in this case; it follows immediately from Eq. (5).

b) Bit flip, phase flip: The \( n \) qubit bit flip code is a classical code on \( n \) qubits that corrects all bit flip errors on less than \( \frac{n}{4} \) qubits and none of the errors on greater than \( \frac{n}{4} \) qubits; if \( n \) is even it also corrects half of the errors on exactly \( \frac{n}{2} \) qubits. The coding map is \( \Omega_{bf}^{[n]} : [x, y, z] = [x^n, h_n(x, y, z), f_n(z)] \). To see this note that the code does not correct phase flips (\( Y \) or \( Z \) errors), and so if \( p = p_Y + p_Z \), the \( p \)-component of the coding map must be a function of only \( p \). Since \( x = 1 - 2(p_Y + p_Z) = 1 - 2p \), it follows that the \( x \)-component of the coding map must be a function of only \( x \). The only such element of the \( X \) equivalence class gives us \( x^n \).

To see that the \( z \)-component depends on \( z \) only, note that the code can correct bit flips (\( X \) or \( Y \) errors), sending them to \( I \) or \( Z \) errors, respectively, and so if \( p' = p_X + p_Y \), by similar reasoning as above we observe that the \( p' \) component depends only on \( p' \) and hence that the \( z \)-component is a function of only \( z \). Now, assume only \( X \) errors. Then \( z = 1 - 2p_X \), and \( f_n(z) = 1 - 2g(\frac{z}{2}) \), where \( g(p) \) is the failure probability as a function of an \( X \) error rate of \( p \). We can obtain \( g(p) \) from the properties of the classical bit flip code.

Since the function \( h_n(x, y, z) \) does not affect the \( x \) and \( z \) components of the channel, from Thm. 5.3 we may ignore it for the purposes of convergence to the identity channel.

Some values of \( f_n \) are 
\[
\begin{align*}
  f_1(x) &= f_2(x) = x \\
  f_3(x) &= f_4(x) = \frac{3}{5}x - \frac{1}{5}x^3 \\
  f_5(x) &= f_6(x) = \frac{15}{8}x - \frac{3}{8}x^3 + \frac{3}{8}x^5.
\end{align*}
\]

For the phase flip code we get similarly \( \Omega_{pf}^{[n]} : [x, y, z] = [f_n(x), h_n'(x, y, z), z^n] \) by exchanging the roles of \( x \) and \( z \).

These codes will have two critical values, \( x_c \) and \( z_c \). If \( x > x_c \) then \( x \to 1 \), and similarly for \( z \).

c) Specific codes: We can now obtain sharper results for the error threshold of concatenated bit flip and phase flip codes, extending [1].

The often discussed \([9, 1, 3]\) Shor code has the coding map: \( \Omega_{Shor}^{[n]} : [x, y, z] = [f_3(x), h_3'(x, y, z), f_3(z^3)] \). We define a \([25, 1, 5]\) code to be \( \Omega_{25}^{[n]} : [x, y, z] = [f_3(x), h_3'(x, y, z), f_3(z^3)] \), and a \([15, 1, 3]\) code to be \( \Omega_{15}^{[n]} : [x, y, z] = [f_3(x), h_3'(x, y, z), f_3(z^3)] \). The \([25, 1, 5]\) code has critical values of \( x_c = 0.916208 \), and \( z_c = 0.854032 \). If \( x = z \), the \([15, 1, 3]\) code performs much better than the \([25, 1, 5]\), even though it is less redundant.

C. Convergence of non-diagonal channels

In this section we will establish some general results for non-diagonal channels in the case of stabilizer codes [8]. Non-diagonal channels are in general much harder to analyze than their diagonal counterparts, as the parameters span a 12-dimensional manifold. However, we will show that in certain cases these channels converge to diagonal channels, and will discuss when these converge to the identity channel.

We can decompose the single qubit noise operator \( \mathcal{N} \) as 
\[
\mathcal{N} = L + \varepsilon M,
\]
where \( L \) is the diagonal part, and \( \varepsilon \) is chosen such that \( M \) has no term with absolute value more than \( 1 \); it contains the off-diagonal terms. We show that if \( \varepsilon \) is sufficiently small and \( d \geq 3 \), then repeated application of the coding map yields a diagonal matrix. This will allow to restrict our analysis to diagonal channels, at least in certain regimes.

We wish to analyze the absolute values of the difference that the non-diagonal terms make on the channel after we apply the coding map. Define the difference matrix 
\[
\Gamma = \Omega^C(\mathcal{N}) - \Omega^C(L).
\]
Let us assume that the code is an \([n, k, d]\) stabilizer code [8] (it encodes \( k \) qubits into \( n \) qubits, and has distance \( d \), which is the minimal weight of an undetected error). Let \( m \) be the minimal weight of a non-identity stabilizer element.

Theorem 5.5: The non-diagonal terms of the difference matrix \( \Gamma \) have absolute value at most \( c_{d}e^{m} \). The diagonal terms of \( \Gamma \) are at most \( c_{m}e^{m} \) in absolute value. These coefficients are bounded above by 
\[
\max(c_{d}, c_{m}) \leq 2^{n-k-1} \sum_{\sigma} |\mathcal{D}_{\sigma \sigma'}| \leq 4^{n-k}.
\]

Proof: We can rewrite Eq. (4) as 
\[
G_{\sigma \sigma'} = D_{\sigma}N_{E_{\sigma}},
\]
where \( \sigma \) is the \( \sigma \) component of \( \mathcal{E} \) and similarly for \( D \). The (non-zero) entries of \( E_{\sigma} \) are the stabilizer elements, and the non-zero elements of \( G_{\sigma \sigma'} \) are \( \mathcal{E} \) times the stabilizer elements, where \( \mathcal{E} \) is the encoded \( \sigma \). We note that \( G_{\sigma \sigma'} \) is non-zero only if \( \sigma' \) and \( \sigma \) are in the same equivalence class of \( C(S) \) modulo \( S \), where \( S \) is the stabilizer group, and \( C(S) \) is its centralizer (see [8] for more detailed definitions).

Now the non-diagonal elements of \( \Gamma \) depend on the non-zero elements of \( \sigma \) and \( \sigma' \) with \( \sigma \neq \sigma' \), which correspond to
the $\sigma$ and $\sigma'$ equivalence classes of $C(S)$, which differ on at least $d$ qubits. Then from Eq. (4) resp. Eq. (15), it follows that the non-diagonal terms involve at least $d$ non-diagonal terms of $N$ and are hence $O(\varepsilon^d)$ from Eq. (13). The difference of the diagonal elements corresponds to elements of the same $\delta_\sigma$, which differ on at least $m$ qubits, since $m$ is the minimal weight of different elements in the same equivalence class (non-zero elements of the same $\delta_\sigma$). Hence they are $O(\varepsilon^m)$.

From Eq. (15) it is easy to see that the coefficients $c_d$ and $c_m$ are bounded above by

$$\sum_{\sigma''} |\mathcal{P}_{\sigma''}^{(\cdot)}| \leq \sum_{\sigma''} |\mathcal{P}_{\sigma''}^{(\cdot)}| \leq 4^n - k,$$

where we used that each coefficient is at most 1 in absolute value and the cardinality of the stabilizer group.

Note that in certain cases we have explicit expressions for $\sum_{\sigma''} |\mathcal{P}_{\sigma''}^{(\cdot)}|$, which can come from calculations with a diagonal noise channel and can give us tighter bounds on $c_d$ and $c_m$ than the generic $4^n - k$.

**d) Convergence to the identity:** Suppose we concatenate the above coding map $i$ times. Then the absolute values of the off-diagonal terms are bounded above by $a_i$, where $a_0 = \varepsilon$, and $a_{n+1} = a_n c_d a_n$. Then, from Thm. 5.5,

$$a_i = \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} d^j \varepsilon^j = \varepsilon_0 \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon_0}\right)^i d^i,$$

where $\varepsilon_0 = \sqrt[d]{\sum c_d}$ is defined for $d > 1$. Since these affect the diagonal terms by at most $c_m \varepsilon^m$, we can bound the correction for the diagonal terms as

$$b_i = c_m a_i^{m-1} = c_m \varepsilon \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} d^j \varepsilon^j = c_m \varepsilon_0 \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon_0}\right)^{m-1}.$$

However, we can get a tighter bound than this.

Let $L_0 = [x_0, y_0, z_0]$ be the diagonal part of the channel. We define $L_i = \Omega^G(L_{i-1}) - b_i I$. We can think of the $L_i$ as a lower bound on the diagonal part of the channel. Then, the channel goes to $[1, 1, 1]$, if $L_i \rightarrow [1, 1, 1]$. These coding maps are $\Omega^G_2(L) = \Omega^G(L_{i-1}) - b_i I$, and $\Omega^G_1(L) = \Omega^G(L_0) - c_m \varepsilon^m I$. The channel converges to identity if

$$\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \Omega^G_2 \circ \Omega^G_1 L = [1, 1, 1].$$

**D. CSS codes on 1 qubit with a generalized noise channel**

In this section we tighten our result in the case of CSS codes [9], [10], [11].

Let our code be a $[n, 1, d]$ CSS code. From the construction of CSS codes from classical codes, $n$ must be odd. Its stabilizer group is generated by $n-1$ generators, half of which depend only on tensor products of $I$s and $X$s, and the other half are the same, except they have $Z$s replacing the $X$s. We can write the stabilizer group $S$ as the span of $\{S(X), S(Z)\}$, where $S(A) \in A_S$, and $A_S$ is the $n$-dimensional Pauli Matrices $\mathcal{P}_n$, which only depend on tensor products of $I$ and $A$.

The stabilizer elements in $S(X)$ are used to correct against $Z$ errors, and the stabilizer elements of $S(Z)$ are used to correct against $X$ errors, and so we can write the set of recovery operators as $R(\varepsilon, X, Z)$ and $R(\varepsilon, X, Z)$, where $\varepsilon$ and $\sigma$ are the components of the syndromes obtained by measuring stabilizer generators from $S(A)$, and each $R(\varepsilon, A) \in A_S$.

The Pauli operators are encoded as

$$\text{Eq. (17)} \quad X = X \otimes \cdots \otimes X \in X_S$$

$$\text{Eq. (18)} \quad Y = iXZ = (-1)^{x+y}Y \otimes \cdots \otimes Y \in Y_S.$$

To obtain a convenient representation of the decoding operator $D$, we define the average recovery function as

$$\text{Eq. (19)} \quad \mathcal{F}_\sigma = \eta(\mathcal{R}_A, \sigma)$$

where $\eta$ is the linear homomorphism defined in Sec. III Eq. 6. In particular note that if $\sigma$ commutes with all recovery operators $R_i$, then $\mathcal{F}_\sigma = 1$, and if $\sigma$ anti-commutes with all of the recovery operators then $\mathcal{F}_\sigma = -1$. Then, from [1] we obtain for the decoding matrix

$$\text{Eq. (19)} \quad D = \delta^T \mathcal{F}.\,$$

**Lemma 5.6:** The non-zero elements of $\mathcal{D}_X$ must be contained in $X_S$, and similarly for $Z$, although usually not for $Y$.

In particular this implies that if $\sigma = X$ or $\sigma = Z$, then $\mathcal{D}_{\sigma'}$ depends only on $N_{\sigma'}$, $N_{\sigma X}$, $N_{\sigma Y}$, and $N_{\sigma Z}$. Then to find convergence of the $X$ and $Z$ rows, we can look at these rows separately.

**Proof:** Since $D_I = I$, the non identity stabilizer elements must commute with half of the recovery operators. Only the non-zero elements of $\mathcal{D}_s$ don’t commute with exactly half of the recovery operators. This implies that each non-identity element of $S(X)$ commutes with half of the elements of $R_Z = R(\varepsilon, X, Z)$, and similarly for $S(Z)$ and $R_X = R(\varepsilon, X, Z)$. If half of either $R_X$ or $R_Z$ commute with some element of $S$, then half of all of the the recovery operators commute with it. Now, pick some non-zero element $c = X \otimes \cdots \otimes X \in S\delta$, where $s_i \in S(i)$. If $c \notin A_X$ then $s_2 \neq I$. Then, if an element $r \in A_X$, it follows that $\eta(r, c) = \eta(r, s_2)$, and such, half of $R_X$ commutes with $c$. Then, $c$ must commute with half of the recovery elements, and so must be zero in $D_X$. Then the non-zero elements of $\mathcal{D}_X$ are in $A_X$.

**Theorem 5.7:** There exists functions $f_1(a, b, c, d)$ and $f_2(a, b, c, d)$ such that the following are true for $\mathcal{G} =
Notice that this no longer depends on $f_1$.

**Lemma 5.10:** For CSS codes, we have $\max(c_d, c_m) \leq 2^{\frac{n-k}{2}}$ for $c_d$ and $c_m$ as defined in Thm. 5.5.

**Proof:** We use the bound of Thm. 5.5 for the non-diagonal terms. In the case of a CSS code, we have for $A = X$ or $A = Z$ that $\Omega_A \subset AS$, and so the non-zero entries are given by $S(A)A^{\otimes n}$. Therefore the sum in Eq. 10 has only $2^\frac{n-k}{2}$ entries, giving an overall coefficient of $2^{\frac{n-k}{2}}$.

1) Doubly-even CSS codes: Doubly even CSS codes are CSS codes that have weight divisible by 4 for $S(X)$ and $S(Z)$. For these codes we can strengthen Thm. 5.9. Define functions $g_1$ and $g_2$ that are the same as the $f_1$ and $f_2$ defined in Thm. 5.9 without the factors of $i$.

**Theorem 5.11:** A doubly even CSS code takes a channel $\mathcal{N}$ to the identity channel if and only if both $[\mathcal{N}_{X1}, \mathcal{N}_{XX}, \mathcal{N}_{XX}, \mathcal{N}_{XY}]$ and $[\mathcal{N}_{Z1}, \mathcal{N}_{ZZ}, \mathcal{N}_{ZB}, \mathcal{N}_{Z2}]$ converge to $[0, 1, 0, 0]$ under the map $[a, b, c, d] \rightarrow g_j(a, b, c, d)$.

**Proof:** The stabilizer group is formed by generators in $X$, and generators in $Z$, each with weight divisible by 4. Then $X$ and $Z$ together appear a number of times divisible by 4 in each stabilizer element (and similarly for the $\{X, Y\}$, $\{Y, Z\}$). Following similar reasoning to that of the proof of Lemma 5.8 we find that $c$ and $t$ together appear a divisible by 4 number of times in each term of $f_j$ ($j = 1, 2$). Then $f_j(a, b, c, d) = f_j(a, b, c, d)$, and by definition $g_j(a, b, c, d) = f_j(a, b, c, d)$.

These $g_j$ satisfy all the symmetries above and the convergence relations of Thm. 5.9 (without the factors of $i$).

2) Example: $[[7, 1, 3]]$ CSS code: We use the example of the $[[7, 1, 3]]$ code, a doubly even CSS code commonly used in fault tolerance calculations, to illustrate how to find the functions defined in Thm. 5.9 and use Thm. 5.11 to analyze the convergence of channels under this code.

**a) Computation of the coding map:** The stabilizer group of this code is generated by the elements $III XXXXX, IXXI IX X, IX IXX IX$ and $I I IZZZZZ, IZZI IZZZ, ZIZIZIZIZ$. Using the notation from section 5.4 the non-zero elements of $\sigma_I$ are the stabilizer group elements.

$$\sigma_I = \sum_{s \in S} s (III I I I I I + I I I I X X X X X X )$$

$$(III I I I I + I X X I I X X ) (I I I I I I I I I + I X I I X I I X )$$

$$(I I I I I I I I + I I I I Z I Z ) (I I I I I I I I I I + I Z I I I I Z I Z )$$

We have $X = XXXXXX$, and $Z = ZZZZZZ$. One notices that there are 7 terms that are some permutation of $I I I I X X X$. Let $p_{r}(I I I I X X X)$ denote the sum over these permutations. $p_{r}(I I I Y Y Y Y )$ and $p_{r}(I I I Z Z Z Z Z )$ give us the corresponding permutations of $I I I Y Y Y Y$ and $I I I Z Z Z Z Z Z$. Similarly, there are 42 terms that are $I I I Z Z X Y Y Y$, up to some permutation, so we define a...
function $\rho_{42}( -IZZXYY)$ to sum over these. Then we can write

$$\delta_I = IIIIIII + p_{42}( -IZZXYY)$$

$$+ p_7(IIIIXXX + IIYIIIY + IIIZZZZ).$$

With $\delta_\sigma = \delta_I \sigma$ we get

$$\delta_X = XXXXXXX + p_{42}( -YYYYIIZZ)$$

$$+ p_7(XXXXIII + XXXZZZZ + XXXYYYY)$$

$$\delta_Y = -YYYYYYY + p_{42}( -YYYYZZZI)$$

$$- p_7(YYYYZZZ + YYYYIII + YYYYXXX)$$

$$\delta_Z = ZZZZZZZ + p_{42}( -ZIYYXX)$$

$$+ p_7(ZZZYYY + ZZZXXX + ZZIII).$$

The recovery operators which depend on $X$ are

$$R(\varepsilon, X) = \{IIIIIII, XIIIIIII, IXIII, IIIXIII, IIIIX, IIIXI, IIIXI, IIIIII, IIIIII}. $$

Combining these with the recovery operations in $R(\varepsilon, X, Z)$, we easily find all 64 recovery operators. There are 1 in the form $IIIIII$, all 7 permutations of $IIIIIX$, all 7 permutations of $IIIIXX$, all 7 permutations of $IIIIIZ$, and all 42 permutations of $IIIIIXZ$. Eq. (19) now allows us to find the elements of $\mathcal{D}_\sigma$. We calculate $\mathcal{D}_X$ from $\delta_X$. XXXXXXXX commutes with $\frac{1}{4}$ recovery elements, XXXIII commutes with $\frac{21}{64}$ recovery elements, and XXXZZZZZ, XXXYYYY, and YYYYIIZZ each commute with $\frac{1}{4}$ of the recovery elements. Then

$$\mathcal{D}_X = \frac{1}{4} p_7(XXXIII) - \frac{3}{4} XXXXXXXX$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} XXXIII + \frac{1}{4} XIIIXII$$

$$+ \frac{1}{4} IIXIXI + \frac{1}{4} IXIXX$$

$$+ \frac{1}{4} IIIXIX + \frac{1}{4} IIXIXI$$

$$+ \frac{1}{4} XIIXXX + \frac{3}{4} XXXXXXXX.$$

A similar calculation shows that $\mathcal{D}_Z = -\frac{3}{4} ZZZZZZZ + \frac{1}{4} p_7(ZZZIII)$, but $\mathcal{D}_Y$ doesn’t follow this pattern.

Now we wish to compute $\mathcal{D}_X$. First we look at how the $\frac{1}{4} p_7(XXXIII)$ component of $\mathcal{D}_X$ contributes. From $N_{I\sigma} = \delta_1\sigma$, it follows that only elements in $\delta_1$ that are identity on the last 4 qubits contribute. This is just $IIIIII$, so we get $p_7(\frac{1}{4} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI}) = \frac{1}{4} N_{XI}$. For the $-\frac{3}{4} XXXXXXXX$ component of $\mathcal{D}_X$, everything in $\delta_I$ contributes. This gives a contribution of

$$- \frac{3}{4} (N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI}$$

$$+ p_7( N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI})$$

$$+ N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI}$$

$$+ N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI})$$

$$+ p_{42}( -N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XY} N_{XY})).$$

Together, these give

$$\mathcal{G}_{XI} = \frac{7}{4} N_{XI}^3 - \frac{3}{4} (N_{XI} N_{XI} + N_{XI} N_{XI} + N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} - N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI}$$

$$+ N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} - N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI}$$

$$- 42 N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI} N_{XI}).$$

A similar calculation shows that

$$\mathcal{G}_{XX} = \frac{7}{4} N_{XX}^3 - \frac{3}{4} (N_{XX} N_{XX}$$

$$+ N_{XX} N_{XX} + N_{XX} N_{XX} N_{XX} - N_{XX} N_{XX} N_{XX} N_{XX} - 42 N_{XX} N_{XX} N_{XX} N_{XX} N_{XX} N_{XX} N_{XX} N_{XX}).$$

For the functions $g_j$, which are related to $f_j$ by Eq. (20), we obtain

$$g(a, b, c, d) = g_1(a, b, c, d) + g_2(a, b, c, d)$$

$$= \frac{7}{4} a^3 - \frac{3}{4} a^7 - \frac{21}{4} a^3 (b^4 + c^4 + d^4) + \frac{63}{2} ab^2 c^2 d^2.$$
We wish to see how much $\varepsilon$ changes the critical convergence value for $a$. Let $k := \frac{g(a,0,0,0)}{da} |_{x_c} = 1.691859$. Then,
\[
g(a,b,c,d) \geq g(a,\varepsilon,\varepsilon,\varepsilon) \geq g(a,0,0,0) - \frac{63}{4} a^3 \varepsilon^4 \approx k(a-x_c) + x_c - \frac{63}{4} a^3 \varepsilon^4.
\]
Since $b$, $c$, and $d$ become $O(\varepsilon^d) = O(\varepsilon^3)$ up to 4th order of $\varepsilon$, the vector converges to $[1,0,0,0]$ for $k(a-x_c) + x_c - \frac{63}{4} a^3 \varepsilon^4 \geq x_c$, which implies that
\[
k(a-x_c) \geq \frac{63}{4} a^3 \varepsilon^4 \geq \frac{63}{4} x_c^3 + (a-x_c)^2 \geq \frac{63}{4} x_c^3.
\]
Solving up to first order for our new critical value, we get
\[
a = \frac{63 x_c^3}{4k} + x_c = 6.14726 x_c^4 + x_c.
\]
This implies that the off-diagonal terms affect the threshold to fourth order (as implied by Thm. 5.5), but here we improved the prefactor $c_4$. Note that Lemma 5.10 would have given a prefactor of 512.

If we choose a larger number instead of 6.14726, for example 7, then our vector converges to $[1,0,0,0]$ from $[x_c + 7 \varepsilon^4, \varepsilon, \varepsilon, \varepsilon]$ for $\varepsilon$ as big as 0.3.

VI. SVD CANONICAL FORM

In this section, we follow the method of [3], applying unitary gates before and after our channel to create a new channel that has fewer parameters. This can be used to improve the region of convergence to the identity channel.

**Lemma 6.1:** Let $\sigma_j$ be the non-identity elements of the Pauli group $\mathcal{P}$. Then if $U = e^{i \frac{\pi}{2} \sigma_j}$, then the unitary channel $\rho \mapsto U \rho U^\dagger$ is a rotation by $\theta$ in the $\sigma_j \sigma_k$ plane. Expressing the unitary gates as channels in the Pauli basis creates a bijection from $SU(2)/(\pm I)$ to $1 \oplus SO(3)$.

The Singular Value decomposition (SVD) theorem [12] states that if $A$ is a real matrix, then there exists $D = O_2^T A O_1$ such that the $O_i$ are orthogonal, and $D$ is a diagonal matrix with elements $\lambda_i \geq 0$, which are called the singular values of $A$. Then $D = \text{sgn} (\text{det} A) R_2^T A R_1^T$, where $R_i \in SO(n)$.

**Theorem 6.2:** If $\mathcal{N}^{(1)}$ is a channel on one qubit, then there exists a channel
\[
\mathcal{J} = \mathcal{W}_2^{(1)} \mathcal{N}^{(1)} \mathcal{W}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ t_1' & \pm \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ t_2' & 0 & \pm \lambda_2 & 0 \\ t_3' & 0 & 0 & \pm \lambda_3 \end{pmatrix},
\]
where $\mathcal{W}_i \in SU(2)$, and the $\pm$ designates the sign of $\text{det} \mathcal{N}^{(1)}$.

**Proof:** From Eq. [3] define the vector $t = (N_{X1}, N_{Y1}, N_{Z1})$, and let $A$ be the $3 \times 3$ matrix with the other 9 variable elements. From the SVD theorem, we have
\[
\mathcal{J} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & R_2^T \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ t & A \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & R_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ t' & \pm D \end{pmatrix},
\]
where $t' = R_2^T t = (t_1', t_2', t_3')$. The outer matrices are unitary channels by Lemma 6.1.

Note that $\|t\| = \|t'\|$, so if the channel is unitarily, $t' = 0$.

A. CSS codes

We now apply the above to CSS codes, and in particular examine the [[7, 1, 3]] CSS code.

**Proposition 6.3:** For a given CSS code with a channel $\mathcal{J}$ in the canonical form of Eq. [22] if at least 2 of $[t_1', \lambda_1]$ converge to $[0,1]$ under the map $[a,b] \rightarrow [f_1(a,b,0,0), f_2(b,a,0,0)]$, where the $f_i$ are the functions from Thm. 5.7 then by applying unitary gates before and after the channel $\mathcal{J}$, we can create a new channel $\mathcal{J}'$ that converges to the identity.

**Proof:** Suppose that $[t_1', \lambda_1]$ and $[t_2', \lambda_2]$ converge to $[0,1]$ under the given map. We define a matrix $A \in SO(4)$ such that $\sigma_j \rightarrow \sigma_j$, $\sigma_i \rightarrow \sigma_j X$, $\sigma_j \rightarrow \sigma_j Z$, and the diagonal matrix $B = [1, \pm 1, \pm 1]$. By lemma 6.1 these are unitary channels. Then,
\[
\mathcal{J}' = A \mathcal{J} A^\dagger B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ t_1' & \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ t_2' & 0 & 0 & \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix},
\]
and the rest follows from Thm. 5.9.

Note that even if $\mathcal{J}'$ was diagonal, the order of the $\lambda_i$ could affect whether it converges to the identity channel.

1) Example: The [[7, 1, 3]] CSS code: For the [[7, 1, 3]] CSS code, the map is $h([a,b]) = [g(a,b), g(b,a)]$, where $g(a,b) = \frac{1}{2}(7 - 3a^4 - 21b^2)$. Let $[a_n, b_n] = h^k([a,b])$. This converges to $[0,1]$ if and only if $b_n \rightarrow 1$.

Now we are interested in which $[a,b]$ converge to $[0,1]$. Using that $a^2 + b^2 \leq 1$, a numerical calculation shows that there is always convergence to $[0,1]$ for $b > b_c \approx 0.927334$. For $[a,b] = [\sin \theta, \cos \theta]$, this threshold is exact, and so this converge to $[0,1]$ for $|\theta| < \theta_1 \approx 0.383572$. For a unital channel, $a = 0$, and so this converges to $[0,1]$ for $b > x_c \approx 0.870807$. In either of these cases, we just need at most one singular value of the channel to be less than or equal to the given critical value.

We can find an approximate solution for the region of convergence to $[0,1]$ by solving $x_n \geq x_c$. For $n = 1$, we have an approximation for the region of $a^4 \leq f_1(b) = \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} b^2 - \frac{1}{2} x_c$. As $n$ increases, these approximate regions rapidly converge to the actual region of convergence to $[0,1]$.

The singular values of a unitary channel are always 1. Note that if the unitary channel from lemma 6.1 is in its original non canonical form, it converge to the identity channel for $|\theta| < \theta_1$.

VII. CONCLUSION AND FURTHER QUESTIONS

A. Drawbacks of our approach

The approach of integrating the sequence of concatenated encoding and noise as a rather simple map from channels to channels is very powerful. By abstracting away from the details of the encoding and the noise process, it drastically reduces the number of parameters, and makes the coding process amenable to a dynamical systems type analysis. However, this approach sometimes comes at a price. By ignoring the details of the coding and correction process, we might get...
error thresholds above the actual thresholds if we accounted for all these details. The following example illustrates this, introducing the notion of a recovery function.

Suppose we have a $[[n, k, d]]$ stabilizer code. We define a recovery or error correcting function $R(\varepsilon)$ [13] which maps the collection of syndromes measured by the codes to some $n$ qubit Pauli operator, $R : \mathcal{F}_{2n-k} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}_n$. We also define a syndrome function $\varepsilon : \mathcal{P}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{F}_{2n-k}$, which maps Pauli errors to some syndrome. With these definitions we must have that $\beta = \varepsilon(R(\beta))$, for any $\beta \in \mathcal{P}_n$. Note that we can chose $R(\beta)$ up to elements of the stabiliser $S$ without any difference for error correction. Hence our choices for $R(\beta)$ differ from each other by elements of the centralizer $C(S)$ are limited to the $4^k$ elements of the Centralizer modulo the Stabilizer. They can be written as an element of $C(S)$ times some representative element of $S$. To study the choice of recovery function on the channel, define the matrix $T^\sigma \in M_{4^n, 4^n}$ to be the diagonal matrix

$$T^\sigma_{\sigma'\sigma} = \frac{1}{2^{n-k}} \eta(\sigma, \sigma')$$

Then the matrix operator $T$, defined in Eq. (18), is $T = \sum_i T^R_i$. We have $\mathcal{G} = \sum \mathcal{G}^R = \Omega^C(\mathcal{N} \mathcal{G})$, where the quasi-channel (they don’t have to preserve trace)

$$\mathcal{G}^R_i = e^\sigma T^R_i. \mathcal{N} \mathcal{G},$$

is the contribution of a single $R_i$ on the channel map.  

When we measure a syndrome $\varepsilon$ during error-correction, we gain some information about the channel. Let the encoded state be described by the density matrix $\rho = \rho_1 I + \rho_X X + \rho_Y Y + \rho_Z Z$. We can re-write our channel $\mathcal{G} = \Omega^C(\mathcal{N})$ as a sum over all syndromes

$$\mathcal{G}' = \sum_{\beta \in \mathcal{F}_{2n-k}} \mathcal{G}^R(\beta) \otimes |\beta\rangle.$$  

If we measure $|\beta\rangle$ and use the information, we collapse to a syndrome $\beta$ with probability $p_\beta = \text{tr}(\mathcal{G}^R(\beta) \rho) = 2 \sum_\sigma \mathcal{G}^R(\beta)_\sigma \rho_\sigma$, and the resulting density matrix is $\frac{1}{p_\beta} \mathcal{G}^R(\beta).$  

In particular, if $\mathcal{G}^R(\beta)_X = \mathcal{G}^R(\beta)_Y = \mathcal{G}^R(\beta)_Z = 0$, then $p_\beta = 2 \mathcal{G}^R(\beta)_1 \rho_1 = G^R(\beta)_I$, which doesn’t depend on $\rho$, and the resulting $\rho$-independent channel is then $\frac{1}{p_\beta} \mathcal{G}^R(\beta).$  

If we throw this information away we recover the coding map $\mathcal{G}$ from the previous sections. In other words the coding map approach corresponds to ignoring the information about the channel that we could have obtained from the syndrome measurements, to optimize the recovery functions. 

By performing measurements on the subblocks of a concatenated code, we affect the channel on each qubit of the top level code. If we don’t optimize our error correction, we are not being as efficient as we should be. For example, a distance 3 code can’t correct some 2 qubit errors, and so the code we obtain by concatenating it once with itself without changing the error correction function can’t fix some 4 qubit errors. However, the distance $d$ of a distance $d_1$ code concatenated with a distance $d_2$ code is $d \geq d_1 + d_2$, and so we should be able to correct any 4 qubit error. The problem is to keep track of all of this syndrome information, and finding the optimal error correction function seems to be computationally hard.

**B. Open questions**

We have initiated a dynamical systems approach to quantum error correction, extending the result of Rahn et al. [1]. This only opens the road to further analysis and many questions remain open. We list a few of them here.

In our analysis we have always assumed that an error correction process is successful, if the associated coding map takes the noise channel to the identity channel. However, this might be too stringent a condition. Are there any other criteria for information retrieval, which are not equivalent to zero (corrected) error?

Another question relates to the basin of correctable noise for a code: If our noise channel lies outside the basin of attraction of a certain code, can we find another code that would “lift” this noise into the basin of attraction of the old code? More specifically, given a code $C$ (with $d \geq 3$) and a noise channel $p \in \Delta - BC_C$, is there another code $C'$ such that $\Omega^{C'}(p) \in BC_C$? If the answer is positive, then the concatenation scheme $C^k \circ C'$ corrects $p$, as $k \rightarrow \infty$. It would be interesting to formalise these ideas.

Yet another question concerns the shape of the region of correctable noise. Is there a (non-trivial) bound for the size or shape of the domain of attraction? Can we characterize regions of noise that are not correctable by any code? There is a new and interesting bound on noise from which no circuit can recover in [14]. However the methods used there are not dynamical. Is it possible to make sharper statements?

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