Six-qubit permutation-based decoherence-free orthogonal basis

Adán Cabello
Departamento de Física Aplicada II, Universidad de Sevilla, 41012 Sevilla, Spain
(Dated: December 17, 2021)

There is a natural orthogonal basis of the 6-qubit decoherence-free (DF) space robust against collective noise. Interestingly, most of the basis states can be obtained from one another, just permuting qubits. This property: (a) is useful for encoding qubits in DF subspaces, (b) allows the implementation of the Bennett-Brassard 1984 (BB84) protocol in DF subspaces just permuting qubits, which completes a method for quantum key distribution using DF states proposed by Boileau et al. [Phys. Rev. Lett. 92, 017901 (2004)], and (c) points out that there is only one 6-qubit DF state which is essentially new (not obtained by permutations) and therefore constitutes an interesting experimental challenge.

PACS numbers: 03.67.Pp, 03.65.Yz, 03.67.Hk

I. INTRODUCTION

Quantum communication and computation [1, 2] is based on the preparation and manipulation of qubit states. However, qubit states are very fragile and easily destroyed by decoherence due to unwanted coupling with the environment [3]. There are several strategies to deal with decoherence, each of them appropriate for a specific type of coupling with the environment. On the one hand, if the interaction with the environment is weak enough so there is only a low probability of the qubits being affected, then a good strategy is to add redundancy when encoding the quantum information and correct the errors by using active quantum error correction methods [4, 5, 6, 7]. On the other hand, not all states are equally fragile when interacting with the environment. Indeed, if the qubit-environment interaction exhibits some symmetry, there are states which are immune to this interaction and can therefore be used to protect quantum information. These states are called decoherence-free (DF) states [8, 9, 10, 11, 12].

A particularly relevant symmetry arises in the so-called collective noise, where the environment couples with the qubits without distinguishing between them. This situation occurs naturally when the spatial (temporal) separation between the qubits is small relative to the correlation length (time) of the environment. Typical examples arise in ion-trap or nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) experiments suffering fluctuations of magnetic or electrostatic fields and also when polarized photons are successively sent via the same optical fiber which, due to thermal or stress variations, introduces an uncontrollable (but the same) birefringence.

DF states immune to collective noise (hereafter simply referred as DF states) are invariant under any n-lateral unitary transformation (i.e., $U^\otimes n|\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$), where $U^\otimes n = U\otimes...\otimes U$ denotes the tensor product of $n$ unitary transformations $U$) [3]. This property makes them also useful for quantum information processing between parties who do not share a common reference frame. Specifically, they can be used for quantum key distribution [13, 14] and for other communication protocols involving two [15, 16] or more [17] parties who do not share any reference frame.

The amount of quantum information that a given DF subspace is able to protect depends on the number $N$ of qubits. For $N$ even, the DF subspace spanned by states which are eigenstates of the whole Hamiltonian of the qubits-bath system and also eigenstates of the interaction Hamiltonian with eigenvalue zero has dimension $9$

$$d(N) = \frac{N!}{(N/2)!(N/2+1)!}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

The number of qubits encoded in DF states is $\log_2 d(N)$. For a large $N$, 

$$\log_2 d(N) \approx N - \frac{3}{2} \log_2 N.$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

Therefore, the encoding efficiency is asymptotically unity.

For $N = 2$ qubits, there is only one DF state, the singlet state

$$|\psi^-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|01\rangle - |10\rangle),$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

where $|01\rangle = |0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$. Several experiments have demonstrated the invariance properties of the singlet and its immunity against $U \otimes U$ [18, 19, 20, 21].

For $N = 4$ qubits, the dimension of the DF subspace is 2. Therefore, $N = 4$ qubits are sufficient to fully protect one arbitrary logical qubit against collective noise. A natural choice of orthogonal basis is the one containing the double singlet, denoted by $|\psi^-\rangle_{12} \otimes |\psi^-\rangle_{34}$, and the only DF state which is orthogonal to it. This state can be calculated by applying the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization method to the double singlet and any other state invariant under $U^\otimes 4$—for instance, the one obtained from the double singlet permuting qubits 2 and 3, denoted by $|\psi^-\rangle_{13} \otimes |\psi^-\rangle_{24}$. The resulting state turns out to be the
II. SIX-QUBIT DECOHERENCE-FREE BASIS

A. Decoherence-free subspace spanned by permutations of 2- and 4-qubit states

Some experimental groups are developing sources of six-photon polarization-entangled states \cite{24,25}. One remarkable point is that \( N = 6 \) qubits make room for a DF subspace of dimension 5 [see Eq. (1)]. This number is interesting for two reasons: first, because it is the minimum needed to fully protect two arbitrary logical qubits against collective noise and specifically to fully protect any arbitrary two-qubit entangled state and, second, because the extra dimensions of the DF subspace can be useful for encoding arbitrary qubits in the DF subspace. This hope is based on the fact that there is a very economical (in terms of the number of required experimental setups) way to generate 6-qubit DF orthogonal states. The \( N = 6 \) case is the first one in which orthogonal DF states can be obtained just permuting qubits. Indeed, one can prepare up to four mutually orthogonal 6-qubit DF states just by combining the two setups of Ref. \cite{23}. A natural choice for these basis states is the following:

\[
\begin{align*}
|0\rangle & \equiv |\psi^-\rangle_{12} \otimes |\psi^-\rangle_{34}, \\
|1\rangle & \equiv \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}}(2|0011\rangle - |0101\rangle - |0110\rangle - |1001\rangle - |1010\rangle + 2|1100\rangle).
\end{align*}
\]

This basis was first proposed in \cite{12}. Preparing the double singlet just requires the duplication of the setup to permuting \( |0011\rangle \) and \( |1001\rangle \). Bourennane et al. did it by spontaneous parametric down-conversion and, using a different setup, they also prepared the double singlet \cite{23}. They demonstrated the immunity of both states against collective noise by showing their invariance when passing the four photons through a noisy environment simulated by birefringent media. In addition, they showed that these two orthogonal DF states can be distinguished by fixed (i.e., not conditioned \cite{17}) one-qubit polarization measurements. However, since each state requires a different setup, a still open problem is that of encoding an arbitrary logical qubit in a polarization DF subspace.

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
|000\rangle & |011\rangle & |101\rangle & |110\rangle & |111\rangle \\
\hline
\ldots & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots \\
|000\rangle & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots \\
|011\rangle & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots \\
|101\rangle & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots \\
|110\rangle & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots \\
|111\rangle & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots \\
\end{array}
\]

\text{TABLE I. Measurements that allow us to distinguish any pair of the 6-qubit DF states defined in Eqs. (6–10) and (13). For instance, }\ldots

where \( P_{ij} \) means permuting qubits \( i \) and \( j \). This possibility leads to two observations. The first is that it seems feasible to encode arbitrary qubits exploiting the fact that there are (three) orthogonal DF states which are obtained from one another permuting 4 qubits (i.e., by two permutations). Specifically, designing a setup capable of preparing, for instance, states like

\[
|\Psi\rangle = (\cos \theta + e^{i\phi} \sin \theta P_{24}P_{13})|011\rangle,
\]

by making some paths indistinguishable and appropriately combining them would be an interesting experimental challenge.

B. Genuine 6-qubit decoherence-free state

The other observation is that the dimension of the DF subspace which is \textit{not} spanned by the four states (6–10) is 1, meaning that there is just one DF state that cannot be prepared by combining previous setups. This state can be calculated using the Gram-Schmidt method. The missing state is

\[
|111\rangle \equiv \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}} \sum_{\text{permutations of } 000111} (-1)^t |ijklmn\rangle,
\]

where \( t \) is the number of transpositions of pairs of elements that must be composed to place the elements in canonical order (i.e., 000111). Therefore, another interesting challenge would be to describe a setup for preparing this genuinely new 6-qubit DF state.

Another interesting property of the orthogonal basis of the 6-qubit DF subspace composed by the states (6–10) and (13) is that it is possible to distinguish any two basis states by fixed single qubit measurements. For instance, \( |011\rangle \) and \( |101\rangle \) can be distinguished by measuring \( \sigma_z \otimes \sigma_z \otimes \sigma_z \otimes \sigma_z \otimes \sigma_z \otimes \sigma_z \). The single-qubit measurements that allow us to distinguish any two basis states are summarized in Table I.
C. BB84 protocol using permutations of a single 6-qubit decoherence-free state

Finally, another interesting observation is that all four states needed for a DF version of the Bennett-Brassard 1984 (BB84) protocol (or four-state scheme) \[20\] can be obtained by permutations of a single DF state. For instance, we can define

\[
|\tilde{0}\rangle = |0\tilde{1}\rangle, \quad |\tilde{1}\rangle = P_{13}|\tilde{0}\rangle, \quad |\tilde{1}\rangle = P_{23}|\tilde{1}\rangle. \quad (14)
\]

These four states satisfy

\[
|\langle \tilde{1}|0\rangle|^2 = |\langle \tilde{1}|1\rangle|^2 = |\langle \tilde{1}|\tilde{1}\rangle|^2 = 1/2, \quad (18)
\]
as required for the BB84 protocol. Since both the computational basis \{00, 01\} and the Hadamard basis \{\tilde{0}, \tilde{1}\} can be obtained permuting qubits on a single DF state, a setup for preparing the state |01\rangle and a mechanism to permute the outcomes \[27\] in Alice’s side, and a setup for measuring \(\sigma_z \otimes \sigma_z \otimes \sigma_z \otimes \sigma_z (\text{to distinguish } |0\rangle \text{ and } |1\rangle)\) or, alternatively, one for measuring \(\sigma_z \otimes \sigma_z \otimes \sigma_z \otimes \sigma_z \otimes \sigma_z \otimes \sigma_z (\text{to distinguish } |\tilde{0}\rangle \text{ and } |\tilde{1}\rangle)\) in Bob’s side are sufficient to implement an exact replica of the BB84 protocol using DF states. This DF version of the BB84 protocol completes the quantum key distribution protocol proposed by Bello et al. \[13\] which is essentially a permutation-based DF version of the Bennett 1992 (B92) protocol using nonorthogonal states \[28\]. The characteristic features of the BB84 protocol derive from the fact that it uses two mutually unbiased orthogonal bases. Two orthogonal bases are mutually unbiased if any basis states \(|e_j\rangle\) and \(|e_k\rangle\) belonging to different bases satisfy \(|\langle e_j|e_k\rangle|^2 = 1/2\). Therefore, each state in one of these bases is an equal-magnitude superposition of all the states in any of the other bases. As a consequence, if an eavesdropper (Eve) uses an intercept-and-resend strategy and measures in the wrong basis, she gets no information at all and causes maximal disturbance (error rate 1/2) to the transmission, thereby revealing her presence \[26, 29, 30, 31\].

III. EIGHT-QUBIT DECOHERENCE-FREE BASIS

A. Decoherence-free subspace spanned by permutations of 2-, 4-, and 6-qubit states

The next question is whether or not the process of generating an orthogonal DF basis by using products of DF states in lower dimensions and permuting qubits can be extending to higher dimensions. The next natural step is to study the DF subspace of \(N = 8\) qubits which is of dimension 14 [see Eq. (11)]. How many mutually orthogonal DF states can be obtained by combining the states of the 6-qubit DF subspace and permuting qubits? The answer is that we can obtain up to 12 orthogonal DF states by products of lower dimensional DF states and permutations of qubits. A natural choice of basis states is the following:

\[
|0000\rangle \equiv |\psi^+\rangle_{12} \otimes |\psi^+\rangle_{34} \otimes |\psi^+\rangle_{56} \otimes |\psi^+\rangle_{78}, \quad (19)
\]

\[
|0011\rangle \equiv |\psi^+\rangle_{12} \otimes |\psi^+\rangle_{34} \otimes |\tilde{1}\rangle_{5678}, \quad (20)
\]

\[
|0101\rangle \equiv |\psi^+\rangle_{12} \otimes |\psi^+\rangle_{34} \otimes |\tilde{1}\rangle_{3478}, \quad (21)
\]

\[
|0110\rangle \equiv |\psi^+\rangle_{12} \otimes |\psi^+\rangle_{34} \otimes |\tilde{1}\rangle_{3456}, \quad (22)
\]

\[
|1001\rangle \equiv |\psi^+\rangle_{34} \otimes |\psi^-\rangle_{56} \otimes |\tilde{1}\rangle_{1278}, \quad (23)
\]

\[
|1010\rangle \equiv |\psi^+\rangle_{34} \otimes |\psi^-\rangle_{78} \otimes |\tilde{1}\rangle_{1256}, \quad (24)
\]

\[
|1100\rangle \equiv |\psi^-\rangle_{56} \otimes |\psi^-\rangle_{78} \otimes |\tilde{1}\rangle_{1234}, \quad (25)
\]

\[
|1111\rangle \equiv |\tilde{1}\rangle_{1234} \otimes |\tilde{1}\rangle_{5678}, \quad (26)
\]

\[
|0111\rangle \equiv |\psi^-\rangle_{12} \otimes |\tilde{1}\rangle_{345678}, \quad (27)
\]

\[
|1011\rangle \equiv |\psi^-\rangle_{34} \otimes |\tilde{1}\rangle_{125678}, \quad (28)
\]

\[
|1110\rangle \equiv |\psi^-\rangle_{56} \otimes |\tilde{1}\rangle_{12345678}, \quad (29)
\]

\[
|1100\rangle \equiv |\psi^-\rangle_{78} \otimes |\tilde{1}\rangle_{123456}, \quad (30)
\]

where the notation is the same used in Eqs. (6)–(12).

B. Genuine 8-qubit decoherence-free states

As in previous dimensions, there is still a DF subspace not spanned by the states \[19\]–\[30\]. However, since in this case the dimension of the subspace is 2, there are multiple choices for the remaining two states. However, since the 4-qubit supersinglet was our state \[1\], a reasonable choice for one of the states is the 8-qubit supersinglet \[22\]

\[
|0001\rangle \equiv \frac{1}{4|\tilde{1}\rangle_{5678}} \sum\limits_{\text{permutations of } 000111} z!(4-z)!(-1)^{4-z} |i j k l m n p q\rangle, \quad (31)
\]

where the sum is extended to all the states obtained by permuting the state |0001111\rangle and \(z\) is the number of zeros in the first four positions. This 8-qubit supersinglet is invariant under \(U^{\otimes 8}\) and orthogonal to all the previous DF states given by Eqs. \[19\]–\[30\]. Therefore, there is only one additional DF state, which can be found by choosing a suitable seed and using the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization method. The remaining element of the 8-qubit DF basis is
In conclusion, there is a natural orthogonal basis of 6-qubit DF states with the property that almost all its elements are obtained from a state by permuting qubits. This is interesting because: (a) these basis states are products of previously described DF states in lower dimensions (2 and 4 qubits) that we know how to prepare [23], (b) it opens the possibility of preparing arbitrary DF qubits with a single setup, (c) the remaining DF subspace is spanned by a single DF state, which indicates that it would be interesting to design a setup to prepare this last state, and (d) it allows a natural DF version of the BB84 protocol for quantum key distribution.

In higher dimensions, no such a natural orthogonal basis exist, since there are many possible choices. However, permutations of lower-dimensional DF states still allow us to span most of the DF subspace. We have proposed an almost natural basis of the next DF subspace (i.e., the 8-qubit DF subspace) and pointed out two orthogonal 8-qubit DF states which cannot be obtained by combination and permutations of previous setups. For even higher dimensions, the dimension of the DF subspace not generated by combinations and permutations of previous states grows, so this method of generating orthogonal basis admits multiple choices.

The main motivation of this paper has been to serve as a stimulus for two different 6-qubit experiments: on the one hand, to stimulate the development of an exact DF replica of the BB84 protocol based on the preparation of a 6-qubit DF state—for instance, the state (17)—and permutations of some qubits (this method completes previous proposals for quantum key distribution using DF states and permutations of qubits [13]) and, on the other hand, to stimulate the preparation of the only 6-qubit DF state which cannot be obtained by combining setups for preparing DF states in lower dimensions and permuting qubits. This property makes the preparation of the state (13) a suitable challenge for the recent sources of 6-photon states [24, 25].

Acknowledgments

The author thanks A. Goebel and J.-W. Pan for useful conversations and acknowledges support from Project No. FIS2005-07689.

---

[1] C. H. Bennett and D. P. DiVincenzo, Nature (London) 404, 247 (2000).
[2] M. A. Nielsen and I. L. Chuang, Quantum Computation and Quantum Information (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, England, 2000).
[3] W. H. Zurek, Phys. Today 44(10), 36 (1991).
[4] P. W. Shor, Phys. Rev. A 52, R2493 (1995).
[5] A. M. Steane, Phys. Rev. Lett. 77, 793 (1996).
[6] C. H. Bennett, D. P. DiVincenzo, J. A. Smolin, and W. K. Wootters, Phys. Rev. A 54, 3824 (1996).
[7] R. Laflamme, C. Miquel, J. P. Paz, and W. H. Zurek, Phys. Rev. Lett. 79, 197 (1996).
[8] G. M. Palma, K. Sowminen, and A. K. Ekert, Proc. R. Soc. London, Ser. A 452, 567 (1996); L.-M. Duan and G.-C. Guo, Phys. Rev. Lett. 79, 1953 (1997).
[9] P. Zanardi and M. Rasetti, Phys. Rev. Lett. 79, 3306 (1997).
[10] D. A. Lidar, I. L. Chuang, and K. B. Whaley, Phys. Rev. Lett. 81, 2594 (1998).
[11] D. A. Lidar, D. Bacon, J. Kempe, and K. B. Whaley, Phys. Rev. A 61, 052307 (2000).
[12] J. Kempe, D. Bacon, D. A. Lidar, and K. B. Whaley, Phys. Rev. A 63, 042307 (2001).
[13] J.-C. Boileau, D. Gottesman, R. Laflamme, D. Poulin, and R. W. Spekkens, Phys. Rev. Lett. 92, 017901 (2004).
[14] T.-Y. Chen, J. Zhang, J.-C. Boileau, X.-M. Jin, B. Yang, Q. Zhang, T. Yang, R. Laflamme, and J.-W. Pan, Phys. Rev. Lett. 96, 150504 (2006).
[15] S. D. Bartlett, T. Rudolph, and R. W. Spekkens, Phys. Rev. Lett. 91, 027901 (2003).
[16] A. Cabello, Phys. Rev. Lett. 91, 230403 (2003).
[17] A. Cabello, Phys. Rev. A 68, 042104 (2003).
[18] P. G. Kwiat, A. J. Berglund, J. B. Altepeter, and A. G. White, Science 290, 498 (2000).
[19] D. Kiepinski, V. Meyer, M. A. Rowe, C. A. Sackett, W. M. Itano, C. Monroe, and D. J. Wineland, Science 291, 1013 (2001).
[20] E. M. Fortunato, L. Viola, J. Hodges, G. Teklemariam, and D. G. Cory, New. J. Phys. 4, 5 (2002).
[21] J. E. Ollerenshaw, D. A. Lidar, and L. E. Kay, Phys.
Rev. Lett. 91, 217904 (2003).
[22] A. Cabello, J. Mod. Opt. 59, 1049 (2003).
[23] M. Bourennane, M. Eibl, S. Gaertner, C. Kurtsiefer, A. Cabello, and H. Weinfurter, Phys. Rev. Lett. 92, 107901 (2004).
[24] Q. Zhang, A. Goebel, C. Wagenknecht, Y.-A. Chen, B. Zhao, T. Yang, A. Mair, J. Schmiedmayer, and J.-W. Pan, Nat. Phys. 2, 678 (2006).
[25] C.-Y. Lu, X.-Q. Zhou, O. Gühne, W.-B. Gao, J. Zhang, Z.-S. Yuan, A. Goebel, T. Yang, and J.-W. Pan, Nat. Phys. 3, 91 (2007).
[26] C. H. Bennett and G. Brassard, in Proceedings of the International Conference on Computers, Systems, and Signal Processing, Bangalore, India, 1984 (IEEE, New York, 1984), p. 175.
[27] C.-H. Ji, Y. Yee, J. Choi, S.-H. Kim, and J.-U. Bu, IEEE J. Select. Top. Quant. Elect. 10, 345 (2004).
[28] C. H. Bennett, Phys. Rev. Lett. 68, 3121 (1992).
[29] H. Bechmann-Pasquinucci and A. Peres, Phys. Rev. Lett. 85, 3313 (2000).
[30] R. Asplund, G. Björk, and M. Bourennane, J. Opt. B: Quantum Semiclassical Opt. 3, 163 (2001).
[31] D. Bruß and C. Macchiavello, Phys. Rev. Lett. 88, 127901 (2002).