Quantum Information and Computation, Vol. 1, No. 0 (2001) 000–000
© Rinton Press

QUANTUM COMPUTER ARCHITECTURE
FOR FAST ENTROPY EXTRACTION

ANDREW M. STEANE
Centre for Quantum Computation, Oxford University, Parks Road
Oxford OX1 3PU, England

Received (received date)
Revised (revised date)

If a quantum computer is stabilized by fault-tolerant quantum error correction (QEC), then most of its resources (qubits and operations) are dedicated to the extraction of error information. Analysis of this process leads to a set of central requirements for candidate computing devices, in addition to the basic ones of stable qubits and controllable gates and measurements. The logical structure of the extraction process has a natural geometry and hierarchy of communication needs; a computer whose physical architecture is designed to reflect this will be able to tolerate the most noise. The relevant networks are dominated by quantum information transport, therefore to assess a computing device it is necessary to characterize its ability to transport quantum information, in addition to assessing the performance of conditional logic on nearest neighbours and the passive stability of the memory. The transport distances involved in QEC networks are estimated, and it is found that a device relying on swap operations for information transport must have those operations an order of magnitude more precise than the controlled gates of a device which can transport information at low cost.

Keywords: quantum error correction, fault tolerance, computing

Communicated by: to be filled by the Editorial

1. Introduction

Fault-tolerant quantum error correction (QEC) may be the best way to stabilize the operation of a quantum computer. The physical basis of QEC is an orchestrated flow of entropy from the computer’s qubits out to the environment. In thermodynamic terms, heat is generated in the computer by the imperfection of its operations and by noise sources; the computing qubits are then coupled to ancillary qubits which have been prepared in low-entropy, i.e. ‘cold’, states, where the coupling is arranged to have the special property that most of the information content of the heat, but none of the information content of the logical computation, passes to the ancillas.

There are various ways to arrange the details of this process, the main ones which have been considered are (1) extract parity check information one bit at a time into groups of qubits prepared in (a close approximation to) ‘cat’ states [1, 2]; (2) extract several parity checks simultaneously by using ancillas prepared in codeword states of quantum codes [3, 4]; (3) use a quantum code of toric geometry so that each parity check only involves local groups of bits of finite size [5]. It emerges that in all these methods the resources required to achieve...
very stable operation are such that the great majority of the qubits and operations of the computer have to be dedicated to this extraction of error information; the forward evolution of the logical computation is, as it were, a small subsidiary process proceeding on the back of the main business of stabilising the machinery. (For example, for each logic gate of the logical algorithm, there may be $>10^4$ in the QEC networks.)

The most basic physical requirements of a device which can perform quantum computation are mostly self-evident (a set of stable systems to act as qubits, controllable coupling between these systems, a means of measuring the final state); a useful more detailed consideration of them has been provided by DiVincenzo [6]. However, in view of the fact that what a quantum computer has to achieve is mostly QEC rather than a general algorithm, there exists a further basic consideration for the physical architecture: the physical device should be one which is well-suited to the requirements of QEC.

This paper will consider what those requirements are, and hence propose a set of desirable properties for quantum computing devices. Apart from the obvious ones of high precision and speed, the most important further properties which emerge are an emphasis on the ease with which information can flow (controllably) in the computer, a suitable geometrical structure of the quantum communication pathways, and the differing requirements of qubits which play differing roles in the computer.

2. Logical structure of quantum error correction

The cooling rate offered by QEC is restricted by two main limitations: the space-time size and structure of the network required to extract error syndromes fault-tolerantly, and the physical communication problem. The latter arises because qubits are physical entities which have to occupy physical locations, so that the reliability and speed with which one qubit can interact with another must decrease as a function of the distance between them. Also, measurements of qubits involve a quantum-to-classical communication which can be slow compared to quantum-quantum operations. The logical analysis of algorithms can completely ignore such issues, but when considering the physical requirements of the hardware, they are centrally important.

The communication problem been previously discussed for one type of error-correcting code and physical device (concatenated code and nearest-neighbour interactions [7, 8]). Here I will make observations which have a wider range of applicability. Some of these are simple but not widely appreciated.

The QEC networks extract error syndromes. The best way to do this fault-tolerantly is either to use a code with a suitable topology [5] or to prepare encoded $|0\rangle_L$ states in ancilla blocks, purify these by verification measurements, and then couple each verified ancilla block to a data block to allow error information to pass to the ancilla, before measuring all the ancilla bits [3, 4, 10] (figure 1). The latter method works for all CSS codes; I adopt it because it allows measurements on encoded bits to be absorbed into the QEC process, which is a useful tool in fault-tolerant processing [4], because fault-tolerant universal sets of gates can be constructed most simply, and therefore robustly, for CSS codes [1, 11], and the class includes good codes, i.e. ones with parameters $[[n, k, d]]$ such that the rate $k/n$ and relative distance $d/n$ both remain finite as $n, k, d \to \infty$ [12, 13].

The syndrome extraction process under consideration has within it a natural hierarchy of
Fig. 1. Network for two successive recoveries, showing approximately the timing for the case of a large efficient code of parameters \([127,29,15]\). d,a,v = 1 block of data, ancilla, verification bits respectively. \(G,H\) = networks implementing respectively the generator and check matrix of the code. Ellipse=preparation network, red (grey) rectangle=measurements, arrows=action conditional on measurement results. The parallel preparation of many ancillas is not shown here, but the need for repetition of syndrome extraction is taken into account in the time allowed for the gates which couple to the data. The recoveries can happen more frequently if further ancillas are introduced. The time allowed for the \(G\) and \(H\) networks assumes the Latin rectangle method of \([9]\).

communication needs. The qubits which must be coupled to one another most frequently are those within each ancilla block, since the network to prepare and verify an ancilla is large (thousands of 2-bit gates); to extract a reliable syndrome several ancilla blocks must be able to undergo controlled-not with a given data block; finally the logical algorithm progresses when one data block is coupled to another data block, but this happens infrequently, approximately once per syndrome extraction. All these statements concern the flow of information inside the computer, they need bear no relation to the physical structure of the computer, such as the physical locations of the qubits. The information flow they describe is summarized by figure 2.

Using the diagram, a recovery of the computer is summarized as follows. First a large number of gates operate on the front and back surfaces of figure 2, in only the vertical direction. Measurements are made of the verification bits at the top and bottom, and then the good ancillas are transported horizontally so that at least one good ancilla is adjacent to each data block. For simplicity, let us assume the whole front surface is good, though the argument will not depend on this. Then next the front surface couples to the inner plane, i.e. the data blocks, by either controlled-phase (for \(X\) error correction) or controlled-not (for \(Z\) error correction). Then the front surface is measured. For the blocks where a zero syndrome is deduced, nothing further happens, while for those blocks where the syndrome is non-zero, the pre-prepared (and as yet unused) good ancillas on the back surface are coupled to the data to extract further syndromes so that a majority vote can be taken. Finally, the result of the majority vote is used to decide what corrective action to apply, if any, and the relevant operation (one or more single-bit Pauli rotations) is applied directly to the data qubits. The process is repeated for the other type of error syndrome(\(X\) or \(Z\)), gates are then applied between data bits of different blocks to evolve the logical computation, and after this the recovery starts again.

3. Physical implications
Fig. 2. Information flow in a fault-tolerant quantum computer. Each dot represents a physical qubit, and lines represent quantum communication channels, with the information rate indicated by the thickness of the lines. Red (dark gray) dots represent data bits, green (gray) ancilla bits, and yellow (light) verification bits. The ancilla and the verification bits are measured each time a syndrome is extracted: this further information flow to an external classical apparatus takes place only at the external surfaces of the structure. Each vertical column of data bits is one encoded block. The thick vertical lines in ancillas represent the complex ancilla preparation network, the horizontal lines between ancillas represent transport of ancillas as needed to particular data blocks, the dotted lines between data blocks represent transversely applied logical gates in the algorithm. Different data bits in the same block never communicate directly.

Moving information around is the main activity of the computer. This process of moving information around is often summarized by the shorthand notation of a vertical ‘gate’ line extending over one or more horizontal ‘qubit’ lines in a quantum network diagram; figures 1 and 4 are examples. It is desirable to reduce the need for information transport represented by these vertical lines, and this can be done by careful network design (see below) but the networks involved in verifying ancillas are not amenable to being completely ‘untangled’ in this way. That is, it is not possible to arrange that the members of every pair of qubits involved in a conditional gate are neighbours when their coupling is required, unless the quantum information is shuffled around between the implementation of one controlled gate and the next. This is especially true when the networks are made as parallel as possible by using the Latin rectangle method described in [9].

For each controlled-not ($C_X$) or controlled-phase ($C_Z$) gate, therefore, qubits of information must be physically transported over relatively large distances. The same is true when prepared ancillas are transported horizontally in figure 2.

Recall that another large movement of information takes place at the outer surfaces of figure 2, namely the measurement of the ancillas and verification bits. The timescale of this quantum-to-classical communication in the measurement of the syndromes is important. Such measurement is useful in order that the required substantial processing of the syndromes can be done by reliable classical means, but the time required for this measurement can be a significant fraction of the total duration of the QEC process. Figure 1 gives an example assuming that the time for a single-qubit measurement is $t_m \simeq 25$ times that of a $C_X$ gate. This is a reasonable model of ion trap processors but it is not yet clear whether it is of other technologies. If instead a quantum network is used to interpret the syndrome in a unitary way, this further network will itself require a time large compared to the time of a single elementary gate and it must also allow qubits to be relaxed to $|0\rangle$. 
The analysis above implies that the following are primary considerations in designing a robust quantum computer architecture: the physical structure of the computer should map onto the information flow diagram, so that those physical bits which have to communicate most frequently are able to do so most reliably (and for preference at high rate); the physical hardware should be well adapted to information transport; qubits which never need to interact directly, such as different physical bits in the same data block, should be prevented from doing so, in order to minimize correlated errors; fast measurements should be available for the verification and ancilla qubits.

A physical hardware which realizes these properties in a natural way is shown in figure 3. Although the information diagram of figure 2 is 3-dimensional, the front-back dimension is much smaller than the others (it could be 3 to 10 qubits, while the others are hundreds or thousands of qubits for a large computer), so in view of the difficulty of building controllable 3-dimensional structures, it makes sense to ‘squash’ the diagram into 2 dimensions while preserving the logical structure.

Logic gates between non-neighbouring qubits are still necessary, and there are many ways they can be accomplished, the main ones being (1) multiple swap-operations between nearest neighbours, (2) coupling to a physical entity such as a photon or phonon which propagates between the bits, (3) transport of the physical entity storing the qubit from one place to another. Teleportation may be combined with any of these. Models (1) and (2) have been discussed most often: (1) is a natural choice for several solid state technologies, but requires many swaps for each desired logic gate, therefore the swaps must be especially precise. (2) has advantages associated with the speed of light and the insensitivity of photons to electric field noise, but requires coupling between the qubits and light which is hard to engineer in such a way as to achieve all the communication represented in figure 2. Model (3) is a natural choice for qubits stored in the fine or hyperfine structure of movable ions or atoms, since the internal spin state is very well preserved when atoms are transported in vacuum; it may also be possible for electron spin qubits, with the electrons transported inside a semiconductor. The transport model offers the large degree of parallelism indicated in figure 3 in a simple
way.

The thick vertical lines on figure 2 emphasize that most of the processing is that required for ancilla preparation and verification. One could envisage carrying out some of this using qubits stored in degrees of freedom such as phonons or photons which can interact simultaneously with several fixed qubits, in order to prepare ancillas in fewer operations. However, the following thermodynamic argument shows that not much can be gained that way. The whole purpose of the ancilla preparation is to prepare a physical entity in a state of low entropy, using operations (quantum gates and communication) which are noisy. This is possible because the structure of the network is itself a highly ordered entity. This structure is guaranteed by the classical device which controls the gates. The classical device is assumed to be highly reliable at this level, i.e. it will never generate gate operations in the wrong order, or on the wrong qubits, etc. In order that the structure of the network can allow sufficient negative entropy to flow into the preparation (along with the undesirable but unavoidable entropy from the noise) the network must be complicated and must involve a large number of separate operations having uncorrelated noise.

4. Typical gate distance

Suppose the speed and precision of a gate between qubits separated by distance \( s \) scales as \( 1 + s/D \); this is a reasonable estimate for model (1) with \( D = 1 \) and for model (3) with \( D \gg 1 \). If a given computation requires a noise level below \( \gamma \) per controlled-not gate without taking communication costs into account, and the gates are required between qubits separated on average by \( \bar{s} \), then the precision required per local gate is of order \( \gamma/\bar{s} \) and \( \gamma \) in models (1) and (3) respectively. If the precision of memory must be below \( \epsilon \) per qubit-time-step without taking communication costs into account, then it must be of order \( \epsilon/\bar{s} \) and \( \epsilon \), in models (1) and (3) respectively.

In order to compare performances, and to interpret noise tolerance calculations which do not take communication costs directly into account, it is necessary to know the mean distance \( \bar{s} \) for the networks involved in error correction. I have calculated this distance for two error correcting codes which have a special significance, namely the \([23, 1, 7]\) Golay code and the \([127, 27, 15]\) BCH code. The former has the best threshold behaviour when we take the measurement time into account \([14]\); the latter has an especially good combination of space efficiency and noise tolerance \([4, 14]\); and the two combined produce a powerful concatenated code.

The calculation assumed the qubits of any given ancilla and its verification bits are layed out along a line, as in figs 2 and 3. The calculation explicitly considered the verification network (that labelled \( H \) in fig. 1); the generation network \( G \) is similar but simpler so \( H \) gives a better guide to the requirements. The network was constructed by converting the check matrix \( H \) into the form \( H = (IA) \) where \( I \) is an identity matrix and extracting \( A \); a latin rectangle was constructed for \( A \); this rectangle produces the verification network as discussed in \([9]\). At this stage a network has been obtained which gives the set of logical gates between logical qubits as a function of time. The network was next converted into a “shuttled” form, in which each two-bit gate is assumed to consist of a transport of one of the two physical bits so that it becomes adjacent to the other, with the intermediate bits shifted upwards or downwards (as in a shift register), followed by the logical gate between the now
neighbouring bits. The rest of the network is then adjusted to take account of the new bit locations. Thus the physical locations of the logical bits continually change as each successive gate is applied.

The details of the physical device will dictate what form these bit displacements take. For example, the effect of multiple swap operations is precisely the shift described, but if we transport bits as in fig. 3 then it is not necessary to shift the intermediate bits. In both cases the mean distance calculation works the same way, however, since it computes the distances between bits measured in units of the number of intervening bits.

The mean distance of the network is defined to be the separation of the physical bits involved in a given two-bit gate in the “shuttled” network at the time gate is applied, (i.e. just before the transport operation), averaged over all the gates of the network.

There is some flexibility in the construction of these networks. For example, there are many latin rectangles of minimum alphabet for the $A$ matrix, there is a choice of the ordering of the logical bits when the ancilla state is first generated, and there is a choice of which bit to transport in each gate. The network was optimized by the following procedure. First a latin rectangle of minimum alphabet was formed, and then adjusted so as to minimize the maximum number of occurrences of any given symbol in the matrix without increasing the alphabet size. This minimizes the number of gates which must operate in parallel given that a network of fewest time steps is being used. Next the verification network was constructed from the latin rectangle, and then adjusted by use of a simulated annealing algorithm: the cost $c$ of a given change in the shuttled network was calculated and the change introduced with probability $\exp(-c/T)$ where $T$ is a temperature measure which was slowly reduced (changes with $c < 0$ were always incorporated). The changes which were tried in this way were random changes in the order of the bits of the ancilla at the beginning of the network, and a change in the choice of which bit to transport in each gate. The algorithm was designed to reduce the maximum separation of any gate in the shuttled network, and then among networks which agree on that to minimize the r.m.s. separation. To accomplish this, first $c = \Delta(j \times \max(s))$ was used, where $\max(s)$ is the maximum separation found in the shuttled network, and $j$ is the number of gates having this separation; whenever this $c$ was zero then $c = \Delta \left\langle s^2 \right\rangle^{1/2}$ was used instead. The simulated annealing algorithm was run through many cycles of ‘heating’ followed by slow ‘cooling’ in order to search for a global minimum.

The resulting network for the case of the Golay code is shown in full in figure 4. This optimized network has a distribution of gate distances with mean $\bar{s}_G = 6$, median 5 and maximum 12. 12 gates act in parallel at the start of the network, and thereafter 7. The corresponding results for the [[127, 2915]] BCH code were $\bar{s}_{BCH} = 22$, median 19, maximum 72. 78 gates act in parallel at the start of the network, and thereafter 42. In both cases the mean distance can be reduced slightly if more gates act in parallel at some steps, or if a higher maximum distance is allowed. Also, further changes in the structure of the network may allow slight reductions in distance. A transport of the verification bits back out to the side locations may be useful before they are measured. Such a final transport would not influence the average distance of the network significantly.

A fairly large computer could be stabilized by means of the BCH code alone [4, 14]. In this case, and assuming a physical arrangement similar to that of fig 3, the results imply that a device where information transport is by swaps between nearest neighbours (method
Fig. 4. The network for the verification of ancillas in the Golay code. The network shows physical qubits and is in “shuttled” form. That is, each gate symbol represents a shift operation followed by implementation of the gate between nearest neighbours. The arrow in the gate line shows the direction of movement of the gate bit which moved; the intermediate bits are displaced one position in the opposite direction. The ancilla block is initially in the central 23 bits. The horizontal axis shows time steps; the gates within each unit increment in time can be simultaneous. The network is one of many logically equivalent ones, but has been optimized for least time, then least parallelism, then least maximum gate separation, then least r.m.s. gate separation.
will require those swap operations to be approximately a factor 20 more precise than the controlled-gate operations of a device where low-noise transport (e.g. by method (3)) over a distance of \( D > 20 \) qubits is available.

For very large quantum algorithms a concatenation of codes may be necessary. In this case, each of the logical bits in figure 2 has to be considered to be itself encoded and corrected; this adds a further two dimensions to the information flow diagram for each layer of concatenation. All these dimensions have to be compressed into a maximum of 3 for the physical device; I will assume 2 here for the layout of the qubits, the 3rd can be used for implementing gates and readout. The resulting structure could be for example as in figure 5. The inner, Golay, code works on the 23-bit inner blocks and its operation is dominated by the ancilla preparation and the gates between ancilla and data, therefore its noise threshold will be a factor \( f \) lower for the swap operations in method (1) than for the controlled-gate operations in method (3), with \( f \) in the range approximately 3 to \( \bar{s}_G = 6 \). For the outer, BCH, code, it is seen from fig. 5 that vertical distances (preparation and verification of ancillas) are multiplied by a factor 5, compared to the bare BCH code, if 4 ancillas per block are adopted for the inner code (as in fig. 5, this speeds the inner recovery time) or by a factor 3 if 2 ancillas per block are adopted. This gives a mean separation between \( 3\bar{s}_{BCH} = 66 \) and \( 5\bar{s}_{BCH} = 110 \) for the vertical network. Horizontal distances for the transport of ancillas and coupling to data are multiplied by 23, making a mean horizontal distance of order 50 if we assume the required ancilla transport distance at the outer level to be 2 on average.

Therefore if transport is by swap operations, the noise of these must be small enough to reduce the swap gate noise of the outer code by a factor in the range approximately 60 to 110, compared to the case of transport at no cost. Since the inner code is 3-error correcting, a reduction in physical gate noise by a factor \( 110^{1/4} \approx 3.2 \) suffices. This is in addition to the factor 3 to 6 already mentioned, making 10 to 20 overall.

In model (3) the transport cost in the concatenated code is small if \( D > 40 \) since then

![Fig. 5. Physical layout for a computer based on a two-layer concatenated code. Each horizontal line represents a block of 23 qubits encoded in the inner code. A group of 5 such lines replaces each bit in fig. 3. A single data block with a pair of ancillas is shown.](image-url)
it is negligible for the inner recoveries, and the noise associated with the vertical transport distances up to approximately $3D$ only causes a small fractional change in the noise accumulating in the recovery networks for the Golay code. This is because most of the noise to be corrected by each inner recovery network then remains that associated with the inner network itself.

I conclude that for this concatenated code, the swap operations in model (1) must be an order of magnitude more precise than the controlled-gates in model (3), assuming the transport distance-scale $D$ in model (3) satisfies $D > 40$.

To conclude overall, transportation of information is the main activity of a quantum computer stabilized by fault-tolerant QEC. This flow has a natural geometry, and the physical computer should be designed to reflect this geometry. The information flow needs to be fast within the ancillas, and moderately fast between ancillas and data, and between ancillas and a classical measuring device, but can be relatively slow elsewhere. The size and complexity of the set of operations to prepare ancillas cannot be further reduced unless the individual operations are made more precise, since otherwise insufficient entropy will be extracted. Mean transport distances for optimized networks to implement two important error correcting codes have been calculated. A computer based on physical qubits which can themselves be easily transported, as well as interact for gate operations, is attractive for achieving the right kind of information flow.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the EPSRC and the Research Training and Development and Human Potential Programs of the European Union.

References

1. P. W. Shor (1996), *Fault-tolerant quantum computation*, in *Proc. 35th Annual Symposium on Fundamentals of Computer Science*, (Los Alamitos), pp. 56–65, IEEE Press. [quant-ph/9605011].
2. D. P. DiVincenzo and P. W. Shor (1996), *Fault-tolerant error correction with efficient quantum codes*, Phys. Rev. Lett., 77, pp. 3260–3263.
3. A. M. Steane (1997), *Active stabilisation, quantum computation, and quantum state synthesis*, Phys. Rev. Lett., 78, pp. 2252–2255. [quant-ph/9608028].
4. A. M. Steane (1999), *Efficient fault-tolerant quantum computing*, Nature, 399, pp. 124–126. [quant-ph/9809054].
5. A. Y. Kitaev (1997), *Quantum error correction with imperfect gates*, in *Quantum Communication, Computing and Measurement (Proc. 3rd Int. Conf. of Quantum Communication and Measurement)*, (New York), pp. 181–188, Plenum Press.
6. D. P. DiVincenzo (2000), *The physical implementation of quantum computation*, Fortschrritte der Physik, 48, pp. 771–783.
7. D. Gottesman (2000), *Fault-tolerant quantum computation with local gates*, Journal of Modern Optics, 47, pp. 333–45. [quant-ph/9903099].
8. D. Aharonov and M. Ben-Or (1997), *Fault-tolerant quantum computation with constant error rate*, in *Proc. 29th Annual ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing (STOC)*, p. 176, ACM Press. [quant-ph/9611023] and 9906129.
9. A. M. Steane (2002), *A fast fault-tolerant filter for quantum codewords*, submitted for publication. [quant-ph/0202036].
10. J. Preskill (1998), *Reliable quantum computers*, Proc. R. Soc. Lond. A, 454, pp. 385–410.
11. D. Gottesman (1998), *A theory of fault-tolerant quantum computation*, Physical Review A, 57, pp. 127–137. quant-ph/9807006.

12. A. R. Calderbank and P. W. Shor (1996), *Good quantum error-correcting codes exist*, Phys. Rev. A, 54, pp. 1098–1105.

13. A. M. Steane (1996), *Multiple particle interference and quantum error correction*, Proc. Roy. Soc. Lond. A, 452, pp. 2551–2577.

14. A. M. Steane (2002), *Overhead and noise threshold of fault-tolerant quantum error correction*, in preparation.