## Verifiable fault tolerance in measurement-based quantum computation

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Quantum systems, in general, cannot be simulated efficiently by a classical computer, and hence are useful for solving certain mathematical problems and simulating quantum many-body systems. This also implies, unfortunately, that verification of the output of the quantum systems is not so trivial, since predicting the output is exponentially hard. As another problem, the quantum system is very delicate for noise and thus needs an error correction. Here, we propose a framework for verification of the output of fault-tolerant quantum computation in a measurement-based model. In contrast to existing analyses on fault tolerance, we do not assume any noise model on the resource state, but an arbitrary resource state is tested by using only single-qubit measurements to verify whether or not the output of measurement-based quantum computation on it is correct. Verifiability is equipped by a constant time repetition of the original measurement-based quantum computation in appropriate measurement bases. Since full characterization of quantum noise is exponentially hard for large-scale quantum computing systems, our framework provides an efficient way to practically verify the experimental quantum error correction.

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Introduction. Quantum computation provides a new paradigm of information processing offering both fast and secure information processing [1]. Recently, many experimental efforts have been made to realize quantum computation [2–4]. There, fault-tolerant quantum computation (FTQC) with a quantum error correction [1,5] is inevitable to obtain a quantum advantage by using noisy quantum devices.

Due to the recent rapid progress on experimental quantum error correction techniques [6-9], there is an increasing demand for an efficient performance analysis of FTQC. There are three categories for this purpose: characterization, validation, and verification of quantum systems (QCVV) [10,11]. In the majority of existing performance analyses of FTQC, a specific noise model, such as stochastic Pauli errors, is assumed a priori [12–20]. By characterizing the elementary quantum operations experimentally, these could serve as validations of quantum computing devices [21]. However, in actual experiments, more general noise might occur, including various correlations between qubits [22,23]. Since a full tomographic approach does not work efficiently, we need a novel scheme for the third category, verification, to guarantee correctness of the output of a quantum computer without assuming an underlying noise model. Unfortunately, the existing FTQCs have not yet been equipped with such an efficient verification scheme.

The aim of this Rapid Communication is to develop FTQCs that are equipped with a verification scheme without assuming an underlying noise model. As requirements of verifiable fault tolerance, we define the following two concepts. One is *detectability*, which means that if the error of a quantum computer is not correctable, such a faulty output of the quantum computation is detected with high probability. In this stage, any assumption on the underlying noise model should not be made. The other is *acceptability*, which means that an appropriately constructed quantum computer can pass the verification with high probability. In other words, under a realistic noise model, the test accepts the quantum computation with

high probability. Both properties are important to characterize the performance of the test in statistical hypothesis testing [24].

Here, we develop verifiable fault tolerance in measurementbased quantum computation (MBQC) [25,26], which satisfies both detectability and acceptability. We take a rather different approach to fault tolerance than the conventional one. We do not assume any underlying noise model, but define a correctable set of errors on a resource state of MBQC and test whether or not the error on a given resource state belongs to such a set. To this end, we employ the stabilizer test proposed in Refs. [27,28], where MBQC is efficiently verified by testing the graph state. However, this method is not fault tolerant, lacking acceptability; any small amount of noise on the graph state causes rejection regardless of whether or not it is correctable. Therefore, we crucially extend the stabilizer test [27] for a noisy situation, so that we can decide whether or not the given resource states belong to a set of fault-tolerant resource states. Under the condition of a successful pass of the test, the accuracy of fault-tolerant MBQC is guaranteed to be arbitrarily high (i.e., contraposition of detectability). Our verification scheme works quite efficiently by simply repeating fault-tolerant MBQC for a constant time in appropriate measurement bases. Therefore, we do not need any special resource state or entangling operation for verification. The total overhead is only factored by a constant to the original faulttolerant MBQC. Moreover, our framework is applicable to any fault-tolerant measurement-based quantum computation. As a concrete example, we explicitly define a set of correctable errors on the resource state for topologically protected MBQC [5,14,16], where we can show acceptability by calculating the acceptance probability concretely under a realistic noise

A general setup for fault-tolerant MBQC. Let us consider a generic scenario of fault-tolerant MBQC on a two-colorable graph state composed of the black system  $\mathcal{H}_B$  and the white system  $\mathcal{H}_W$ , consisting of  $n_B$  and  $n_W$  qubits,

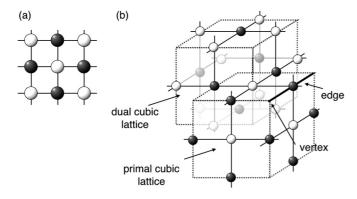


FIG. 1. (a) A two-colorable graph state. (b) Three-dimensional two-colorable graph state for topologically protected measurement-based quantum computation.

respectively [see Fig. 1(a)]. Then, we have two kinds of operators,  $X^z := \bigotimes_{i=1}^n X^{z_i}$  and  $Z^x := \bigotimes_{i=1}^n Z^{x_i}$ , on  $\mathcal{H}_B \otimes \mathcal{H}_W = (\mathbb{C}^2)^{\otimes n}$ , where  $n := n_B + n_W$ . When we restrict them to the black system  $\mathcal{H}_B$  (the white system  $\mathcal{H}_W$ ), we denote  $X^z$  and  $Z^x$  by  $X^z_B$  and  $Z^x_B$  ( $X^z_W$  and  $Z^x_W$ ). By using the binary-valued adjacency matrix A [i.e., (i,j) element is 1 if and only if vertices i and j are connected] corresponding to the graph, the graph state  $|G\rangle$  is characterized as

$$\mathsf{X}_{R}^{z_{B}} \otimes \mathsf{Z}_{W}^{Az_{B}}|G\rangle = |G\rangle, \quad \mathsf{X}_{W}^{z_{W}} \otimes \mathsf{Z}_{R}^{A^{T}z_{W}}|G\rangle = |G\rangle, \quad (1)$$

for  $z_B \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n_B}$  and  $z_W \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n_W}$ . Then, the total space  $\mathcal{H}_B \otimes \mathcal{H}_W$  is spanned by  $\{\mathbf{Z}^x | G\}_{x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n}$ . Suppose we execute a fault-tolerant MBQC on the two-colorable graph state. Then a set of correctable errors on the two-colorable graph state is defined such that an ideal state  $|G\rangle$  and an erroneous one  $\mathbf{Z}^x | G\rangle$  result in the same computational outcome under error correction. Such a set of errors is specified as a subset S of  $\mathbb{F}_2^n = \mathbb{F}_2^{n_B} \times \mathbb{F}_2^{n_W}$ . The projection to the subspace is written by  $\Pi_S$ . We assume that the subset S is written as  $S_B \times S_W$  by using two subsets,  $S_B \subset \mathbb{F}_2^{n_B}$  and  $S_W \subset \mathbb{F}_2^{n_W}$ .

Test for verification of fault tolerance. Similar to Ref. [27], we employ the following sampling protocol to verify whether the error is correctable. Our protocol runs as follows:

- (1) Honest Bob generates  $|G\rangle^{\otimes 2k+1}$ . Bob sends each qubit of it one by one to Alice.
- (2) Alice divides 2k + 1 blocks of n qubits into three groups, two k blocks and a single block, by random choice.
- (3) Alice uses the third group for her computation. Other blocks are used for the test, which will be explained later.
- (4) If Alice passes the test, she accepts the result of the computation performed on the third group.

For each block of the first and second groups, Alice performs the following test:

 $T_B$ : For each block of the first group, Alice measures qubits of W(B) in the Z(X) basis, respectively. Then, she obtains  $Z_W$  and  $X_B$ . If  $X_B + A^T Z_W \in S_B$ , then the test is passed.

 $T_W$ : For each block of the second group, Alice measures qubits of B(W) in the Z(X) basis. Then, she obtains  $Z_B$  and  $X_W$ . If  $X_W + AZ_B \in S_W$ , then the test is passed.

Detectability and acceptability. To show detectability, by taking into account unexpected errors, we obtain the following theorem in the same way as Ref. [27]:

Theorem 1. Assume that  $\alpha > \frac{1}{2k+1}$ . If the test is passed, with a significance level  $\alpha$  [24,29], we can guarantee that the resultant state  $\sigma$  of the third group satisfies

$$\operatorname{Tr} \sigma \Pi_S \geqslant 1 - \frac{1}{\alpha(2k+1)}. \tag{2}$$

The previous study [27] considers the case with  $S_B = \{0\}$ ,  $S_W = \{0\}$ , and proves this special case by discussing the two kinds of binary events  $X_B + A^T Z_W = 0$  or  $\neq 0$  and  $X_W + AZ_B = 0$  or  $\neq 0$ . Replacing these two events by the two kinds of events  $X_B + A^T Z_W \in \text{or } \notin S_B$  and  $X_W + AZ_B \in \text{or } \notin S_W$  in the proof given in Ref. [27], we can show Theorem 1 with the current general form.

From the theorem and the relation between the fidelity and trace norm see Eq. (6.106) in Ref. [30], we can conclude the verifiability: If Alice passes the test, she can guarantee that

$$\left| \operatorname{Tr} \left( C_x \sigma \right) - \operatorname{Tr} \left( C_x \frac{\Pi_S \sigma \Pi_S}{\operatorname{Tr} \sigma \Pi_S} \right) \right| \leqslant \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha (2k+1)}},$$

for any positive operator-valued measure (POVM)  $\{C_x\}$  with the significance level  $\alpha$ . That is, the property of FTQC guarantees that the probability that the obtained computation outcome is different from the true computation outcome is less than  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha(2k+1)}}$ . If we take  $\alpha = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2k+1}}$ , for example, this error probability is  $\frac{1}{(2k+1)^{1/4}} \to 0$  if  $k \to \infty$ , and therefore the verifiability is satisfied. Note that the lower bound,  $\alpha > \frac{1}{2k+1}$ , of the significance level  $\alpha$  is tight, since if Bob generates 2k copies of the correct state  $|G\rangle$  and a single copy of a wrong state, Bob can fool Alice with probability  $\frac{1}{2k+1}$ , which corresponds to  $\alpha = \frac{1}{2k+1}$ . The above theorem on detectability holds without any assumption of the underlying noise. Noise in the measurements can also be taken as noise on the resource state, if it does not depend on the measurement bases. Even if it is not the case, each qubit in the resource state can be randomly rotated such that Alice's measurement bases also become random. In such a case, the proposed verification works if the noises at Alice's and Bob's sides are independent, which are physically plausible.

Next, we consider acceptability. In contrast to detectability, the requirement of acceptability is unique for the verification of FTQC. Indeed, if a quantum computer is assumed to be ideal without any error as is in Ref. [27], we can verify whether or not the quantum computer actually does what one commands to operate with probability 1, i.e., acceptability of the test is trivially satisfied. On the other hand, in the verification of FTQC consisting of many elementary parts, each of which cannot be checked directly, we have to carefully judge whether or not the output of the computation is correct under an expected error model, which imposes the second requirement, acceptability.

To calculate acceptability, we assume a specific application of the Pauli channel on  $\mathcal{H}_B \otimes \mathcal{H}_W$  [31], that is, the error given as the distribution P on the set  $\mathbb{F}_2^{n_B+n_W} \times \mathbb{F}_2^{n_B+n_W}$  of X-basis errors and Z-basis errors. Then, we denote the marginal distribution with respect to the pair of X-basis errors on B and X-basis errors on B and B-basis errors on B

Since we apply 2k rounds to them, the probability to be passed is  $P_B(S_B)^k P_W(S_W)^k$ . Hence, when the probabilities  $P_B(S_B)$  and  $P_W(S_W)$  are close to 1, Alice can accept the correct computation result on the third group with high probability.

Case study. To show acceptability, below we will explain how to define a correctable set of the errors on a graph state. Then, for a concrete example, we will calculate the acceptance probability  $P_B(S_B)^k P_W(S_W)^k$  under a realistic noise model.

In the theory of FTQC, it is conventional that we translate fault tolerance in the circuit model into fault tolerance in MBQC [32–34] as follows. In the circuit model, we can define a set of correctable (sparse) fault paths [35–37]. Then, translating the correctable (sparse) fault paths in the circuit model into MBQC, we can define a correctable set of the errors on the graph state in general. For example, the schemes in Refs. [38,39] and Refs. [14,16] can be viewed as measurement-based versions of circuit-based FTQC using the concatenated Steane 7-qubit code [5,12,40,41] and the surface code with the concatenated Reed-Muller 15-qubit code [15,17], respectively.

Let us see a concrete example by using topologically protected MBQC [5,14,16], which recently has been employed as a standard framework for fault-tolerant MBQC [42–46]. For simplicity of explanation, we here focus on the original scheme proposed in Ref. [14], where the surface code and the concatenated Reed-Muller code are employed to perform two-qubit Clifford gate and single-qubit non-Pauli-basis measurements, respectively. Of course, more efficient distillation protocols as in Refs. [15–17] can also be employed.

In the following, we will briefly sketch how the correctable sets  $S_B$  and  $S_W$  are defined. A detailed description is shown in the Appendixes A and B. The errors specified by the set  $S_B$ , which correspond to the X basis (the Pauli-Z operator) on black qubits and the Z basis (the Pauli-X operator) on white qubits, are detected on the primal cubic lattice consisting of the edges on which the black qubits are located, as shown in Fig. 1(b). Then, the error configuration  $x_B \in S_B$  can be associated with a set of edges on the primal cubic lattice as shown in Fig. 3. Similarly, the errors in the set  $S_W$  are detected on the dual cubic lattice and the error configuration  $x_W$  is associated with a set of edges on the dual cubic lattice.

Depending on quantum computation that Alice wants to do fault-tolerantly, a measurement pattern is determined. Specifically, from an analogy of topological quantum computation [47], the sets of qubits measured in X, Z, and  $(X + Y)/\sqrt{2}$ bases [14] are called defect, vacuum, and singular qubits, respectively (see Fig. 2). For the surface code, minimum distance decoding (MDD) can be done by finding the shortest path connecting the boundary of the error chain on the cubic lattice. Then, if MDD results in a logical operator of a weight (distance) larger than the code distance d by wrapping around a defect or connecting two different defects, such an error is uncorrectable (see the Appendix A for details). Accordingly, we can define  $S_C^{\text{sf}}$  for C = B, W as their complement. The code distance d is chosen to be polylog(n'), with n' being the size of the quantum computation that Alice wants to do fault-tolerantly. Therefore, the number of qubits of the graph state is given by n = poly(n').

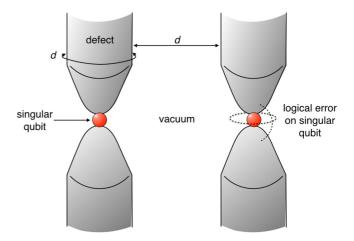


FIG. 2. The tubes indicate defect regions, in which the qubits are measured in the Z basis. Singular qubits are located in between two defect regions, which are measured in the  $(X+Y)/\sqrt{2}$  basis for a transversal logical  $(X+Y)/\sqrt{2}$ -basis measurement. Other regions are vacuum, where qubits are measured in the X basis to obtain the error syndrome.

Around the singular qubits, we still have a logical error of a weight lower than d, as shown in Fig. 2. Such a logical error is corrected by using another code, the concatenated Reed-Muller code. To this end, the fault-tolerant Clifford gates using the surface code are further employed to encode the logical qubits into concatenated Reed-Muller codes, on which we can implement all Pauli bases and (X + Y)-basis measurements transversally. The corresponding physical (X + Y)-basis measurements, i.e., measurements on the singular qubits, are depicted by red circles in Fig. 2. Then we can define the correctable set  $S_C^{\rm rm}$  of the errors for the concatenated Reed-Muller code recursively for C = B, W, as done in Ref. [35] (see the Appendix B for details).

Since we employ two types of error correction codes as seen above, the correctable set of the errors is defined as an intersection of the correctable sets  $S_C^{\rm sf}$  and  $S_C^{\rm rm}$  for the surface code and the concatenated Reed-Muller code, respectively, for both colors C = B, W. Since both decodings can be done efficiently, we can efficiently decide whether or not a given error pattern  $X_B + A^T Z_W (X_W + A^T Z_B)$  is in  $S_B (S_W)$ .

Acceptance probability under a typical error model. To calculate the acceptance probability, we assume, for simplicity, the errors  $Z^x$  ( $x \in \mathbb{F}^n$ ) are distributed independently and identically for each qubit with probability p. It is straightforward to generalize the following argument to any local noise model [48]. Then, the standard counting argument of the self-avoiding walk for the surface code [41] tells us that

$$P(S_C^{\text{sf}}) > 1 - \text{poly}(n)(10p^{1/2})^d,$$
 (3)

for C = B, W. Apparently, if p is sufficiently smaller than a certain constant value,  $P(S_C^{\rm sf})$  converges to 1 for C = B, W. By considering a recursive decoding of the concatenated code, we obtain

$$P(S_C^{\text{rm}}) > \left[1 - \left(105^2 p_0^{\text{fault}}\right)^{2^l} / 105^2\right]^m,$$
 (4)

for C = B, W, where  $p_0^{\text{fault}}$  is a logical error probability of a weight lower than d, which occurs around the singular qubits.

Such a logical probability is also calculated as a function of the physical error probability p by counting the number of self-avoiding walks [41], as show in the Appendix C. The integer  $m = \operatorname{poly}(n')$  and  $l = \operatorname{poly}\log d$  are the numbers of the logical (X+Y)-basis measurements and the number of concatenations, respectively. Again, by counting the number of self-avoiding walks [41,48] we can evaluate  $p_0^{\text{fault}}$ . By choosing p smaller than a certain constant value,  $p_0^{\text{fault}}$  becomes sufficiently small so that  $P(S_C^{\text{rm}})$  converges to 1 for C = B, W. Since

$$P(S_C) = P(S_C^{\text{sf}} \cap S_C^{\text{rm}}) > P(S_C^{\text{sf}}) + P(S_C^{\text{rm}}) - 1, \quad (5)$$

for C = B, W, the probability  $P(S_C)$  also converges to 1 exponentially in the large d limit, if the physical error probability p is smaller than a certain constant threshold value (see the Appendix C). Since d can be chosen independently of k, the acceptance probability  $P_B(S_B)^k P_W(S_W)^k$  converges to 1.

Verifiable blind quantum computation. Finally, we address an application of the proposed verification scheme in blind quantum computation (BQC) [49–55]. A promising application of the proposed framework is verification of measurementonly BQC [53]. Suppose a quantum server generates twocolorable graph states and sends them to a client who executes MBQC with a proposed verification. The same as the original measurement-only BQC [53], the blindness is guaranteed by the no-signaling principle, which contrasts to a verifiable BOC [50,55] of Broadbent-Fitzsimons-Kashefi (BFK) type [49]. According to Theorem 1 (detectability), under the condition of acceptance, the accuracy of the output is guaranteed. In contrast to the earlier verifiable BOC [27,50], by virtue of acceptability, the proposed verification scheme can accept the delegated quantum computation even under the quantum server's deviation or quantum channel noise as long as they are correctable. It would be interesting to apply the proposed framework to quantum interactive proof systems [56].

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## APPENDIX A: TEST FOR TOPOLOGICAL PROTECTION

The error detection on the black vacuum qubits (edges of the primal cubic lattice) is executed as follows (see Fig. 3). If there is no error on the graph state, the outcome  $m_b$  of the X-basis measurements satisfies the condition  $s_v \equiv \bigoplus_{b \in \delta v} m_b = 0$ , where  $\delta v$  indicates a set of black qubits adjacent to the vertex v. Depending on a given error  $\mathbf{Z}^{x_B}$  ( $x_B \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n_B}$ ) on the graph state, we can obtain the error syndrome  $\{s_v(x_B)\}$  in the defect region. From the error syndrome, the most likely location of the errors is estimated using the minimum-weight-perfect-matching (MWPM) algorithm [41]. Let  $\bar{x}_B \equiv \arg\min_{x \mid \{s_v(x) = s_v(x_B)\}} |x|$  be the estimated error location, where |x| indicates the number of 1's in a bit string x. If a chain of

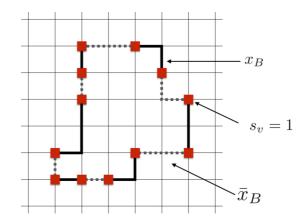


FIG. 3. Actual error  $x_B$  and estimated error  $\bar{x}_B$  are denoted by solid and dotted lines, respectively. The vertices (error syndrome) of  $s_v = 1$  are denoted by red squares. The three-dimensional lattice is depicted as if it is two dimensional.

edges specified by  $x_B + \bar{x}_B$  has a nontrivial cycle in the sense of the relative homology [14–16], the error correction fails. At a defect region far from the singular qubits, a nontrivial cycle has at least length d determined as follows. Let n' be the size of the quantum computation that Alice wants to do fault-tolerantly. To guarantee the accuracy of the output, it is enough to choose d = polylog(n').

Now we can define the correctable set of errors as follows: An error location  $x_B$  belongs to the correctable set  $S_B^{\rm sf} \subset \mathbb{F}^{n_B}$  of the errors if and only if there exists a connected component of length d in the chain of edges specified by  $x_B + \bar{x}_B$ . The error detection and definition of the correctable error set  $S_W^{\rm sf}$  on the white vacuum qubits are done in the same way but on the dual lattice.

From the test  $T_B$ , we know the error location  $x_B$ . Since the MWPM algorithm works in polynomial time in the number of vertices with  $s_v = 1$ , we can decide whether or not  $x_B$  belongs to the correctable error set  $S_B^{\rm sf}$ . The same argument also holds for the error location  $x_W$  on the white vacuum qubits tested by  $T_W$ . Therefore, we can efficiently check whether or not the errors on a given resource belong to  $S_B^{\rm sf} \times S_W^{\rm sf}$ .

## APPENDIX B: TEST FOR THE LOGICAL $(X + Y)/\sqrt{2}$ -BASIS MEASUREMENT

For simplicity, here we do not employ magic state distillation [15,16] but encode each logical qubit into the Reed-Muller 15-qubit code. Then, we perform a fault-tolerant logical  $(X+Y)/\sqrt{2}$ -basis measurement by transversal physical  $(X+Y)/\sqrt{2}$ -basis measurements on the singular qubits, as done in Ref. [14]. Thereby, Alice can fix her strategy of quantum computation, which makes it easy to define the correctable set of errors for the test. Let l and m = poly(n') be the number of concatenation levels and the number of the logical (X+Y)-basis measurements, respectively. Then, we need  $15^l m$  physical  $(X+Y)/\sqrt{2}$ -basis measurements, on the singular qubits. Note that  $l = O(\text{poly} \log \log n')$  is enough to sufficiently reduce the logical error. In the following, the error on the graph state is specified by  $x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$  by converting it into Z operators on the graph state  $Z^x|G\rangle$ .

The logical  $(X + Y)/\sqrt{2}$ -basis measurement is done by physical transversal  $(X + Y)/\sqrt{2}$ -basis measurements by encoding each qubit into a concatenated Reed-Muller 15-qubit code [14]. This is also the case for all Pauli-basis measurements. In the vacuum region near the singular qubits, we have a logical error of length smaller than d, as shown in Fig. 2, since they are not topologically protected. A correctable error for the fault-tolerant logical  $(X + Y)/\sqrt{2}$ -basis measurement is defined for a given error  $(x_B, x_W) \in S_B^{rm} \times S_W^{rm}$  recursively as follows: At a physical level, which we call level-0, if  $x_B + \bar{x}_B$ or  $x_W + \bar{x}_W$  becomes a logical error for a singular qubit, the level-0 (singular) qubit is labeled to be faulty. At the l'th concatenation level, if the level-l' logical qubit consisting of 15 level-(l'-1) logical qubits encoded in the Reed-Muller 15-qubit code has two or more faulty level-(l'-1) logical qubits, the level-l' logical qubit is labeled to be faulty. At the highest level l' = l, if no level-l logical qubit is faulty, the given error  $(x_B, x_W)$  belongs to the correctable set  $S_B^{\rm rm} \times S_W^{\rm rm}$ .

## APPENDIX C: ACCEPTANCE PROBABILITY

Let us first consider the pass probability of the test for topological protection. The error  $x_B$  is rejected if  $x_B + \bar{x}_B$  contains a connected component of length at least d. Such a probability is calculated [41] to be

$$\sum_{\nu=d} \sum_{\mu=\nu/2}^{\nu} \frac{6}{5} n \cdot 5^{\nu} \binom{\nu}{\mu} p^{\mu} (1-p)^{n-\mu} < \text{poly}(n) (10p^{1/2})^{d}.$$

Therefore, if p is sufficiently smaller than a constant value, the rejection probability is exponentially suppressed.

Next, we consider the test for the logical  $(X + Y)/\sqrt{2}$ -basis measurement. Let  $p_0^{\text{fault}}$  be the probability that a level-0

(singular) qubit is faulty.  $p_0^{\rm fail}$  is evaluated in a similar way to the previous case for the topological protection, but we have to count logical errors consisting of chains of length lower than d,

$$p_0^{\text{fault}} = \sum_{\nu=1}^{d} \sum_{\mu=\nu/2}^{\nu} C_{\nu} \binom{\nu}{\mu} p^{\mu} (1-p)^{n-\mu}, \tag{C1}$$

where  $C_{\nu}$  is the number of chains of length  $\nu$  that contribute to the logical error of length  $\nu$ .  $C_{\nu}$  is counted in Ref. [48] rigorously up to  $\nu=14$ , which indicates that we can reduce  $p_0^{\text{fault}}$  by sufficiently decreasing p.

The probability  $p_l^{\text{fault}}$  of obtaining the level-l' faulty qubit

The probability  $p_{l'}^{\text{fault}}$  of obtaining the level-l' faulty qubit is given recursively by

$$p_{l'}^{\text{fault}} < \sum_{r=2}^{15} \left( p_{l'-1}^{\text{fault}} \right)^r \left( 1 - p_{l'-1}^{\text{fault}} \right)^{15-r} = (7 \cdot 15)^2 \left( p_{l'-1}^{\text{fault}} \right)^2.$$

The we obtain  $p_l^{\text{fault}} = (105^2 p_0^{\text{fault}})^{2^l}/105^2$ . The probability to obtain no faulty level-l logical qubits at the highest level is given by  $(1 - p_l^{\text{fault}})^m$ .

Accordingly, if  $p_0^{\text{fault}}$  is sufficiently smaller than  $1/(7 \cdot 15)^2$ , we can reduce the rejection probability of the test for the fault-tolerant logical  $(X + Y)\sqrt{2}$ -basis measurement.

Since m = poly(n'), it is sufficient to choose  $d = \text{poly}(\log n')$  and  $l = \text{poly}(\log d)$ , which are independent of 2k + 1, the number of samples of the graph state. Therefore, in the large d limit for a given n', we can reduce the logical error probability polynomially, and hence amplify the acceptance probability  $P_B(S_B)^k P_W(S_w)^k$  arbitrarily close to 1.

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