



Supplementary Figure S1. **QEDR process fidelity characterized using different methods.** For the same experimental data as in Fig. 3a of the main text, here we show the QEDR process fidelities calculated via the averaged state fidelities  $\mathcal{F}_{av}$  and  $\mathcal{F}'_{av}$  defined in Eqs. (S29) and (S30). For easier comparison with Fig. 3a we show the scaled results  $\mathcal{F}_{av,sc} = (3\mathcal{F}_{av} - 1)/2$  (top panels) and  $\mathcal{F}'_{av,sc} = (3\mathcal{F}'_{av} - 1)/2$  (bottom panels). As in Fig. 3a, the quantum state is stored for the durations  $\tau_2 = 0.9, 1.7,$  and  $3 \mu\text{s}$  in the memory resonator  $M_1$ , which has the energy relaxation time  $T_1 = 2.5 \mu\text{s}$ . The measurement strength (swap probability)  $p$  is indicated on the horizontal axis, and the uncollapsing swap probability  $p_u$  is adjusted as described in the main text. Circles are the experimental results, while error bars represent statistical errors (standard deviation); lines are simulations. Horizontal dashed lines in each panel show the free-decay process fidelity. The statistical errors increase with increasing measurement strength  $p$  due to the decrease in sample size (fewer double-null outcomes). It is seen that all definitions of the QEDR process fidelity give similar results, and all of them show significant increase of the storage fidelity compared with the case of natural energy relaxation.

	freq.	$T_1$	$T_2$	$T_{SE}$	coupling strength
	(GHz)	(ns)	(ns)	(ns)	(MHz)
$Q_1$	6.01	580	140	500	34.7 ( $\leftrightarrow B$ )
$Q_2$	5.90	614	100	510	34.1 ( $\leftrightarrow B$ )
$Q_3$	5.81	580	150	430	33.3 ( $\leftrightarrow B$ )
$B$	6.24	3000	$\sim 5000$	*	
$M_1$	7.55	2500	$\sim 5000$	*	56.8 ( $\leftrightarrow Q_1$ )

Supplementary Table S1. **Operating characteristics for qubits  $Q_1$ ,  $Q_2$ ,  $Q_3$ , the bus resonator  $B$ , and the memory resonator  $M_1$ .** We show the  $|g\rangle - |e\rangle$  splitting frequency for the qubits, the resonance frequency for the resonators, as well as each element’s measured energy relaxation time  $T_1$ , Ramsey dephasing time  $T_2$ , and spin-echo dephasing time  $T_{SE}$ . Qubit lifetimes are at the listed frequencies, and resonator lifetimes are measured using photon swaps with a qubit; the coupling strengths are from vacuum Rabi oscillations. [27-29]

## SUPPLEMENTARY NOTE 1

### Sample fabrication

The qubits and resonators used in this experiment were all produced in a multi-layer lithographic process on single-crystal sapphire substrates. The qubits are phase qubits, each consisting of a  $2\ \mu\text{m}^2$  Al/ $\text{AlO}_x$ /Al junction in parallel with a 1 pF Al/a-Si:H/Al shunt capacitor and a 720 pH loop inductance (design values). The resonators are single-layer aluminum coplanar waveguide resonators. We use interdigitated coupling capacitors between the qubits and the resonators. Standard performance parameters of individual elements are listed in Supplementary Table S1.

## SUPPLEMENTARY NOTE 2

### State evolution during the QRQ-based quantum error detection protocol

In this note we discuss the state evolution in the actual experimental protocol, based on the QRQ swaps. We include the dynamic phases in the analysis but for simplicity neglect imperfections as well as decoherence in the unitary operations, while including energy relaxation during the state storage in the memory resonator (step 2 in Fig. 1e of the main text).

Instead of using the master equation formalism for the density matrix to account for the energy relaxation, we work with wavefunctions and unravel the process into the jump (energy relaxation event) and no-jump scenarios (for more detail, see Refs. [21], [22], and Appendices of Ref. [34]). This is essentially the technique of Kraus operators, in which the zero-temperature energy relaxation ( $|1\rangle \rightarrow |0\rangle$ ) during time  $\tau$  of the memory resonator with energy relaxation time  $T_1$  is represented by two Kraus operators:  $A_{\text{jump}} = \sqrt{1 - \exp(-\tau/T_1)} |0\rangle\langle 1|$  and  $A_{\text{no-jump}} = |0\rangle\langle 0| + \exp(-\tau/2T_1) |1\rangle\langle 1|$ . It is easy to check that the density matrix  $A_{\text{jump}}|\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|A_{\text{jump}}^\dagger + A_{\text{no-jump}}|\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|A_{\text{no-jump}}^\dagger$  coincides with the density matrix obtained via the master equation, starting with an arbitrary initial state  $|\psi_i\rangle$ . This technique of Kraus operators is convenient because of two reasons: First, it is easier to work with wavefunctions than with density matrices, and this gives more physical insight into the analyzed process. Second, the technique of Kraus operators is naturally compatible with the description of partial quantum measurements and/or projective measurements with post-selection.

Assuming no errors in the preparation of the target qubit  $Q_1$ , the initial state of the system prior to step 1 shown in Fig. 1e is [see Eq. (2) in the main text]

$$|\Psi_i\rangle = \alpha|ggg\rangle|00\rangle + \beta|egg\rangle|00\rangle = (\alpha|g\rangle + \beta|e\rangle) \otimes |gg\rangle|00\rangle, \quad (\text{S1})$$

where  $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$  and the notation  $|q_1 q_2 q_3\rangle |b m_1\rangle$  displays the quantum states of the qubits  $Q_1$ ,  $Q_2$ , and  $Q_3$ , as well as the states of the bus  $B$  and memory  $M_1$  resonators; the notation including the outer product sign  $\otimes$  uses the same order for the system elements.

*Step 1* of the procedure (Fig. 1e) is equivalent to the first partial measurement of the qubit  $Q_1$  in Fig. 1a with strength  $p$ . This step consists of the QRQ swap  $Q_1$ - $B$ - $Q_2$ , followed by measurement of qubit  $Q_2$ . First, the partial swap between the qubit  $Q_1$  and bus  $B$  with the swap probability  $p$  results in the state

$$|\Psi_{1a}\rangle = \alpha|ggg\rangle|00\rangle + \beta e^{i\theta_p}(\sqrt{1-p}|egg\rangle|00\rangle - ie^{i\tilde{\theta}_p}\sqrt{p}|ggg\rangle|10\rangle), \quad (\text{S2})$$

where  $\theta_p$  and  $\tilde{\theta}_p$  are the dynamic phases accumulated when the frequency of qubit  $Q_1$  is tuned into and out of resonance with the resonator  $B$  [each term in Eq. (S2) assumes a separate rotating frame]. The factor  $-i$  in the last term comes from the ideal qubit-resonator evolution described by the standard Hamiltonian. After this partial swap, the resonator  $B$  is no longer in the ground state. The second part of the QRQ swap fully transfers the

excitation from  $B$  into  $Q_2$ , resulting in the state

$$|\Psi_{1b}\rangle = \alpha|ggg\rangle|00\rangle + \beta e^{i\theta_p}(\sqrt{1-p}|egg\rangle|00\rangle - \sqrt{p}e^{i\theta_{pa}}|geg\rangle|00\rangle), \quad (\text{S3})$$

where the phase  $\theta_{pa}$  combines  $\tilde{\theta}_p$  and the dynamic phase accumulated during the full swap. The minus sign in the last term is due to the additional factor  $-i$ , appearing when the excitation in the resonator  $B$  swaps to  $Q_2$  (this is why the full swap is termed an iSWAP).

After the QRQ swap  $Q_1$ - $B$ - $Q_2$ , the qubit  $Q_2$  is measured projectively (strongly) and only the outcome  $|g\rangle$  is selected. Phase qubits are measured [28] by lowering the tunnel barrier between the right and left potential wells shown in the bottom panel of Fig. 1a, with a high likelihood of tunneling to the right well if the qubit is in the excited state  $|e\rangle$ , while there is a very small tunneling probability if the qubit is in its ground state  $|g\rangle$ . When a qubit that is initially in a superposition of  $|g\rangle$  and  $|e\rangle$  tunnels to the right well, the subsequent rapid energy decay in the right well destroys any coherence between  $|g\rangle$  and  $|e\rangle$  states. The barrier is lowered only for a few nanoseconds, and the quantum state projection occurs during this time. Actual readout of the measurement result takes place many microseconds later, using a SQUID flux measurement.

In the case of the measurement result  $|g\rangle$  (no tunneling for qubit  $Q_2$ ), the system state (S3) collapses to the state

$$|\Psi_{1c}\rangle = \alpha|ggg\rangle|00\rangle + \beta e^{i\theta_p}\sqrt{1-p}|egg\rangle|00\rangle. \quad (\text{S4})$$

Notice that while the state (S3) is normalized,  $\langle\Psi_{1b}|\Psi_{1b}\rangle = 1$ , the post-selected state (S4) is not normalized, so that  $\langle\Psi_{1c}|\Psi_{1c}\rangle$  is the probability of the  $|g\rangle$  outcome, while the normalized state would be  $|\Psi_{1c}\rangle/\sqrt{\langle\Psi_{1c}|\Psi_{1c}\rangle}$ . We prefer here to use unnormalized states as in Eq. (S4) because these are linearly related to the initial state, in contrast to the normalized states. The state (S4) can be written as  $|\Psi_{1c}\rangle = (\alpha|g\rangle + \beta e^{i\theta_p}\sqrt{1-p}|e\rangle)|gg\rangle|00\rangle$ , so at the end of this step we essentially have a one-qubit state in  $Q_1$ , even though other elements of the system are entangled with  $Q_1$  during the evolution of this step.

*Step 2* of the protocol (Fig. 1e) involves storing  $Q_1$ 's state in the memory resonator  $M_1$  for a relatively long time  $\tau_2$ , which corresponds to the delay  $\tau$  in the protocol in Fig. 1a in the main text. We first perform an iSWAP between  $Q_1$  and  $M_1$ , resulting in the state

$$|\Psi_{2a}\rangle = \alpha|ggg\rangle|00\rangle - i\beta e^{i\theta_p}e^{i\tilde{\theta}_s}\sqrt{1-p}|ggg\rangle|01\rangle, \quad (\text{S5})$$

where  $\tilde{\theta}_s$  is the dynamic phase accumulated when tuning  $Q_1$  into the resonance with  $M_1$ . With  $Q_1$  now in its ground state, we detune  $Q_1$  from  $M_1$  to its idle frequency, and wait a time  $\tau_2$ . During this time the state in the resonator  $M_1$  decays in energy at the rate  $\Gamma = 1/T_1$ , where  $T_1 = 2.5 \mu\text{s}$  is the energy relaxation time of  $M_1$ , so that the overall decay factor is  $\kappa_2 = e^{-\Gamma\tau_2}$  (pure dephasing is negligible).

The decay in  $M_1$  can be treated by considering two scenarios [22]: either the state of  $M_1$  jumps to  $|0\rangle$  during the storage time  $\tau_2$  or there is no jump (see the brief discussion above). In the jump scenario the resulting unnormalized state is

$$|\Psi_{2b}^j\rangle = \beta\sqrt{1-p}\sqrt{1-e^{-\Gamma\tau_2}}|ggg\rangle|00\rangle, \quad (\text{S6})$$

where the overall phase is not important. Note that the first term in Eq. (S5) does not give a contribution to  $|\Psi_{2b}^j\rangle$ . Physically, this is because the jump cannot occur when  $M_1$  is in the ground state  $|0\rangle$ . Mathematically, this is because application of the corresponding Kraus operator  $A_{\text{jump}}$  to the first term of Eq. (S5) gives zero.

We will return to the jump scenario later, focusing first on the no-jump scenario, which produces the unnormalized state

$$|\Psi_{2b}^{\text{nj}}\rangle = \alpha|ggg\rangle|00\rangle - i\beta e^{i\theta_p} e^{i\tilde{\theta}_s} \sqrt{1-p} e^{-\Gamma\tau_2/2} |ggg\rangle|01\rangle. \quad (\text{S7})$$

After the storage time  $\tau_2$  we swap the state in  $M_1$  back to  $Q_1$ , so that at the end of step 2 the no-jump state becomes

$$|\Psi_{2c}^{\text{nj}}\rangle = \alpha|ggg\rangle|00\rangle + \beta e^{i(\theta_p+\theta_s)} \sqrt{1-p} e^{-\Gamma\tau_2/2} |egg\rangle|00\rangle, \quad (\text{S8})$$

where the phase  $\theta_s$  includes  $\tilde{\theta}_s$  [see Eq. (S5)], the similar dynamic phase accumulated during the swap back to  $Q_1$ , the  $\pi$ -shift due to the factor  $(-i)^2$ , and the phase  $2\pi\Delta f\tau_2$  accumulated due to the frequency difference  $\Delta f$  between the resonator  $M_1$  and the qubit  $Q_1$  at its idle frequency. After the step is completed, we again have essentially a one-qubit state.

*Step 3* of the protocol consists of a  $\pi_x$  rotation, the second QRQ swap  $Q_1$ - $B$ - $Q_3$  with strength  $p_u$ , and the projective measurement of  $Q_3$  (this step is analogous to the second partial measurement in Fig. 1a). The  $\pi_x$  rotation applied to  $Q_1$  exchanges the amplitudes of its  $|g\rangle$  and  $|e\rangle$  states in Eq. (S8):

$$|\Psi_{3a}^{\text{nj}}\rangle = \alpha|egg\rangle|00\rangle + \beta e^{i(\theta_p+\theta_s)} \sqrt{1-p} e^{-\Gamma\tau_2/2} |ggg\rangle|00\rangle. \quad (\text{S9})$$

The partial swap between  $Q_1$  and  $B$  then yields the state

$$|\Psi_{3b}^{\text{nj}}\rangle = \alpha e^{i\theta_u} (\sqrt{1-p_u} |egg\rangle|00\rangle - i e^{i\tilde{\theta}_u} \sqrt{p_u} |ggg\rangle|10\rangle) + \beta e^{i(\theta_p+\theta_s)} \sqrt{1-p} e^{-\Gamma\tau_2/2} |ggg\rangle|00\rangle, \quad (\text{S10})$$

where  $\theta_u$  and  $\tilde{\theta}_u$  are the dynamic phases accumulated during this partial swap. Next, the QRQ swap is completed with a full iSWAP between  $B$  and  $Q_3$ , yielding the state

$$|\Psi_{3c}^{\text{nj}}\rangle = [(e^{i\theta_u} \alpha \sqrt{1-p_u} |egg\rangle + e^{i(\theta_p+\theta_s)} \beta \sqrt{1-p} e^{-\Gamma\tau_2/2} |ggg\rangle) - e^{i(\theta_u+\theta_{ua})} \alpha \sqrt{p_u} |gge\rangle] \otimes |00\rangle, \quad (\text{S11})$$

where  $\theta_{ua}$  combines  $\tilde{\theta}_u$  and the dynamic phase accumulated during the last iSWAP. Finally, the measurement of  $Q_3$  and the selection of the result  $|g\rangle$  (thus corresponding to an overall double-null outcome) produces the no-jump state

$$|\Psi_f^{\text{nj}}\rangle = (\alpha \sqrt{1-p_u} |e\rangle + e^{i(\theta_p+\theta_s-\theta_u)} \beta \sqrt{1-p} e^{-\Gamma\tau_2/2} |g\rangle) \otimes |gg\rangle|00\rangle, \quad (\text{S12})$$

where we ignore the unimportant overall phase.

Equation (S12) coincides with Eq. (3) of the main text, if we neglect the dynamic phase  $\theta_p+\theta_s-\theta_u$ . This phase does not depend on the initial state, but in general depends on  $p$ ,  $p_u$ , and  $\tau_2$ . To restore the initial qubit state (up to a  $\pi_x$  rotation), this phase can be corrected by an additional single-qubit phase gate (rotation about the  $z$  axis of the Bloch sphere). In the experiment we typically did not perform this correction, and instead compensated for this phase numerically in the quantum process tomography analysis. However, we have checked explicitly that for the initial states  $|g\rangle - i|e\rangle$  and  $|g\rangle + |e\rangle$  (using the same QEDR protocol parameters), the measured output states differ by a phase of  $\pi/2$ , as expected.

Note that we completely omit step 2 when testing the protocol with no storage in  $M_1$ , i.e. with  $\tau_2 = 0$  (see Fig. 2 of the main text). In this case there is no dynamic phase  $\theta_s$  in Eq. (S12), we have no delay-based decay so that  $e^{-\Gamma\tau_2/2} = 1$ , and also the dynamic phases  $\theta_p$  and  $\theta_u$  cancel each other because  $p_u = p$  and therefore  $\theta_u = \theta_p$ . In reality there is still a small amount of energy decay occurring in steps 1 and 3. We take this into account in the numerical simulations as described in Supplementary Note 3.

Now let us return to the scenario when the energy relaxation event (the jump) occurs during step 2, producing the state  $|\Psi_{2b}^j\rangle$  given by Eq. (S6). After performing the swap between the memory resonator and  $Q_1$ , this state remains the same,  $|\Psi_{2c}^j\rangle = |\Psi_{2b}^j\rangle$ , because

all elements are in their ground states. In step 3 of the protocol, following the  $\pi_x$  pulse, the state becomes

$$|\Psi_{3a}^j\rangle = \beta\sqrt{1-p}\sqrt{1-e^{-\Gamma\tau_2}}|egg\rangle|00\rangle, \quad (\text{S13})$$

and following the partial swap between  $Q_1$  and  $B$  this state evolves into

$$|\Psi_{3b}^j\rangle = \beta\sqrt{1-p}\sqrt{1-e^{-\Gamma\tau_2}}(\sqrt{1-p_u}|egg\rangle|00\rangle - ie^{i\tilde{\theta}_u}\sqrt{p_u}|ggg\rangle|10\rangle) \quad (\text{S14})$$

(the overall phase  $\theta_u$  is now unimportant), and after the full iSWAP between  $B$  and  $Q_3$  it becomes

$$|\Psi_{3c}^j\rangle = \beta\sqrt{1-p}\sqrt{1-e^{-\Gamma\tau_2}}(\sqrt{1-p_u}|egg\rangle - e^{i\theta_{ua}}\sqrt{p_u}|gge\rangle) \otimes |00\rangle. \quad (\text{S15})$$

After the measurement of  $Q_3$  and selection of the null result  $|g\rangle$ , the final state in the jump scenario is

$$|\Psi_f^j\rangle = \beta\sqrt{1-p}\sqrt{1-e^{-\Gamma\tau_2}}\sqrt{1-p_u}|e\rangle \otimes |gg\rangle|00\rangle, \quad (\text{S16})$$

so that the qubit  $Q_1$  is now in the  $|e\rangle$  state.

The squared norm of the no-jump final state  $|\Psi_f^{\text{nj}}\rangle$  in Eq. (S12) is the probability of the no-jump scenario (which includes the double-null outcome selection),

$$P_f^{\text{nj}} \equiv \langle\Psi_f^{\text{nj}}|\Psi_f^{\text{nj}}\rangle = |\alpha|^2(1-p_u) + |\beta|^2(1-p)e^{-\Gamma\tau_2}. \quad (\text{S17})$$

Notice that this probability becomes  $P_f^{\text{nj}} = (1-p)e^{-\Gamma\tau_2}$  if we choose  $1-p_u = (1-p)e^{-\Gamma\tau_2}$ . The squared norm of the state  $|\Psi_f^j\rangle$  in Eq. (S16) is the probability of the jump scenario,

$$P_f^j \equiv \langle\Psi_f^j|\Psi_f^j\rangle = |\beta|^2(1-p)(1-p_u)(1-e^{-\Gamma\tau_2}). \quad (\text{S18})$$

This probability is given by  $P_f^j = |\beta|^2(1-p)^2e^{-\Gamma\tau_2}(1-e^{-\Gamma\tau_2})$  if we choose  $1-p_u = (1-p)e^{-\Gamma\tau_2}$ . The probabilities  $P_f^{\text{nj}}$  and  $P_f^j$  cover all possible double-null outcomes in this model, so their sum

$$P_{\text{DN}} = P_f^{\text{nj}} + P_f^j \quad (\text{S19})$$

is the probability of the double-null outcome.

Combining the two scenarios, the normalized density matrix of the system after the selection of the double-null outcome is

$$\rho_f = \frac{|\Psi_f^{\text{nj}}\rangle\langle\Psi_f^{\text{nj}}| + |\Psi_f^j\rangle\langle\Psi_f^j|}{P_{\text{DN}}}. \quad (\text{S20})$$

In this double-null outcome, note that the target qubit  $Q_1$  is now unentangled with the other elements, which are all in their ground states. Comparing the resulting state of the qubit  $Q_1$  with the corresponding final state in the single-qubit protocol based on partial tunneling [see Fig. 1a and Eq. (1) in the main text], we see only two differences: the non-zero dynamic phase  $\theta_p + \theta_s - \theta_u$  in Eq. (S12), and the exchange of the amplitudes of the states  $|g\rangle$  and  $|e\rangle$  due to the absence of the final  $\pi_x$  pulse. Therefore, our experimental protocol shown in Fig. 1e essentially realizes the un-collapsing protocol shown in Fig. 1a, but with much better experimental fidelity.

### SUPPLEMENTARY NOTE 3

#### Numerical simulations

For numerical simulations we follow the theory of Ref. [22] and describe decoherence by the energy relaxation factors  $\kappa_1$ ,  $\kappa_2$ , and  $\kappa_3$  (each factor for the corresponding step of the protocol shown in Fig. 1e) and by the factor  $\kappa_\varphi$ , which accounts for pure dephasing during the whole procedure. The primary decay factor is  $\kappa_2 \approx \exp(-\tau_2/T_1)$ , where  $\tau_2 = \tau$  is the storage time and  $T_1 = 2.5 \mu\text{s}$  is the energy relaxation time of the memory resonator. Similarly,  $\kappa_1$  describes energy relaxation before the first partial measurement and  $\kappa_3$  describes energy relaxation in between the  $\pi_x$  pulse and the second partial measurement. Therefore  $\kappa_1 = \exp(-\tilde{\tau}_1/T_1^{(1)})$  and  $\kappa_3 = \exp(-\tilde{\tau}_3/T_1^{(3)})$ , where  $\tilde{\tau}_1$  is the effective duration of step 1 in Fig. 1e before the quantum information is partially swapped into the bus resonator,  $\tilde{\tau}_3$  is the effective duration of step 3 between the  $\pi_x$  pulse and partial swap into the bus resonator, and  $T_1^{(1)}$  and  $T_1^{(3)}$  are the effective energy relaxation times for these steps (mostly determined by the phase qubit  $Q_1$ ). We estimate that  $\kappa_1 \approx \kappa_3 \approx 0.985$ , consistent with the energy relaxation time  $T_1 \simeq 0.6 \mu\text{s}$  of the phase qubit  $Q_1$  (see Supplementary Table S1) and the time  $\sim 10$  ns, which the quantum state spends in the phase qubit before the first partial swap (in step 1) and between the  $\pi_x$  pulse and the second partial swap (in step 3).

The overall pure dephasing factor is  $\kappa_\varphi = \exp[-\tau_1/T_\varphi^{(1)} - \tau_2/T_\varphi^{(2)} - \tau_3/T_\varphi^{(3)}]$ , where  $T_\varphi^{(i)}$  is the effective pure dephasing time during  $i$ th step ( $1/T_\varphi = 1/T_2 - 1/2T_1$ ). In simulations we used the value  $\kappa_\varphi = 0.95$ , which fits well with the experimental results and is consistent with the qubit parameters in Supplementary Table S1. Notice that  $T_\varphi^{(2)}$  is very long since during step 2, the quantum state is stored in the memory resonator, and therefore  $\kappa_\varphi$  does not depend on  $\tau_2$ . Also notice that because of the  $\pi_x$  pulse in the procedure (see Fig. 1e),



pure dephasing is reduced, essentially due to a spin-echo effect. In the theory we neglect imperfections of the unitary gates and the qubit decoherence after the second partial swap; we also do not accurately consider decoherence processes in the actual multi-component device, essentially reducing it to the single-qubit model of Ref. [22]. In a practical sense, however, these additional imperfections are somewhat accounted for by small adjustments of the parameters  $\kappa_1$ ,  $\kappa_3$ , and  $\kappa_\varphi$ . We have checked numerically that slight variations of the parameters  $\kappa_1$ ,  $\kappa_3$ , and  $\kappa_\varphi$  do not affect the simulation results significantly;  $\kappa_3$  is the most important parameter, and varying its value in the experimentally-expected range of  $0.985 \pm 0.005$  gives good agreement with the data shown in Fig. 3a of the main text.

In the experiment we do not perform the final  $\pi_x$  rotation to save time, so in the final state the amplitudes of the states  $|g\rangle$  and  $|e\rangle$  are exchanged in comparison with the initial state  $|\psi_i\rangle = \alpha|g\rangle + \beta|e\rangle$  in  $Q_1$  (here and below we use a lowercase  $|\psi\rangle$  to represent the state of  $Q_1$ , in contrast to  $|\Psi\rangle$  which represents the state of the complete system of 3 qubits and 2 resonators). Following the approach of Ref. [22], neglecting the dynamic phases, and for the moment neglecting pure dephasing, we can represent the state of the qubit  $Q_1$  after the double-null outcome selection as an incoherent mixture of the three states  $|g\rangle$ ,  $|e\rangle$ , and

$$|\psi_f^{\text{nj}}\rangle = \beta\sqrt{\kappa_1\kappa_2(1-p)}|g\rangle + \alpha\sqrt{\kappa_3(1-p_u)}|e\rangle. \quad (\text{S21})$$

The unnormalized state  $|\psi_f^{\text{nj}}\rangle$  occurs in the no-jump scenario during steps 1, 2, and 3. The squared norm of this wavefunction is the probability of the no-jump scenario,

$$P_f^{\text{nj}} = \langle\psi_f^{\text{nj}}|\psi_f^{\text{nj}}\rangle = |\alpha|^2\kappa_3(1-p_u) + |\beta|^2\kappa_1\kappa_2(1-p), \quad (\text{S22})$$

which includes the probability of the double-null outcome selection.

The final state  $|g\rangle$  is realized if there was a jump to  $|g\rangle$  after the  $\pi_x$  pulse in step 3 and there was zero or one jump during steps 1 and 2. This occurs with the probability

$$P_f^{|g\rangle} = (1-\kappa_3)|\alpha|^2 + (1-\kappa_3)|\beta|^2[(1-\kappa_1) + \kappa_1(1-p)(1-\kappa_2)], \quad (\text{S23})$$

which can be easily understood in the classical way (for a qubit starting either in the state  $|g\rangle$  or  $|e\rangle$ ). The final state  $|e\rangle$  is realized if there was a jump either during step 1 or 2 and no jump during step 3; this occurs with probability

$$P_f^{|e\rangle} = |\beta|^2[(1-\kappa_1) + \kappa_1(1-p)(1-\kappa_2)]\kappa_3(1-p_u). \quad (\text{S24})$$

Combining these three scenarios, we obtain the normalized density matrix of the qubit final state:

$$\rho_f = \frac{|\psi_f^{\text{nj}}\rangle\langle\psi_f^{\text{nj}}| + P_f^{|g\rangle}|g\rangle\langle g| + P_f^{|e\rangle}|e\rangle\langle e|}{P_{\text{DN}}}, \quad (\text{S25})$$

where

$$P_{\text{DN}} = P_f^{\text{nj}} + P_f^{|g\rangle} + P_f^{|e\rangle} \quad (\text{S26})$$

is the probability of the double-null outcome. Notice that there is no factor  $P_f^{\text{nj}}$  in the numerator of Eq. (S25) because it was included in the definition of the unnormalized state  $|\psi_f^{\text{nj}}\rangle$  in Eq. (S21). The unnormalized final density matrix  $P_{\text{DN}}\rho_f$  [the numerator in Eq. (S25)] is linearly related to the initial density matrix  $\rho_i = |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|$ , so the linear map used in the analysis of the quantum process tomography is  $\rho_i \rightarrow P_{\text{DN}}\rho_f$ .

Pure dephasing (described by  $\kappa_\varphi$ ) does not affect the probabilities and does not affect the final states  $|g\rangle$  and  $|e\rangle$ . The only effect of pure dephasing is that the off-diagonal matrix elements of  $|\psi_f^{\text{nj}}\rangle\langle\psi_f^{\text{nj}}|$  are multiplied by  $\kappa_\varphi$ . Including dephasing, the system's density matrix after the selection of the double-null outcome is given by

$$\rho_f = \frac{1}{P_{\text{DN}}} \begin{bmatrix} \kappa_1\kappa_2(1-p)|\beta|^2 + P_f^{|g\rangle} & \kappa_\varphi\sqrt{\kappa_1\kappa_2\kappa_3(1-p)(1-p_u)}\beta^*\alpha \\ \kappa_\varphi\sqrt{\kappa_1\kappa_2\kappa_3(1-p)(1-p_u)}\beta\alpha^* & \kappa_3(1-p_u)|\alpha|^2 + P_f^{|e\rangle} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (\text{S27})$$

Using Eq. (S27), we can calculate the process matrix  $\chi$  and the process fidelity.

The dynamic phases appearing in the actual experimental procedure affect only the relative phase between the two terms in Eq. (S21). Therefore, the dynamic phases can be taken into account by using a single parameter: the phase shift of the off-diagonal element of the final density matrix. This dynamic phase shift depends on the parameters of the experimental protocol, including the strength  $p$  and  $p_u$  of the two partial measurements (partial swaps) and the storage duration  $\tau_2$ .

Numerical simulations in this paper are based on Eq. (S27), so they are relatively simple and mostly involve evaluation of (rather lengthy) formulas. As the efficiency of the QEDR protocol depends on the value of  $p_u$  once  $p$  is fixed, we performed an error analysis of the process fidelity  $\mathcal{F}$  based on the uncertainty in  $p_u$ . Once  $p$  is chosen, the optimal  $p_u$  value depends on the intrinsic decay rate  $\Gamma$  of the resonator and the decay time  $\tau_2$ , which can be precisely determined in the experiment. We then choose the QRQ swap time that

corresponds to the optimal  $p_u$  value. Errors in the QRQ swap time thus introduce errors through the effective variation of  $p_u$ ; we have found experimentally that the uncertainty in  $p_u$  is about 0.02. To test the sensitivity of  $\mathcal{F}$  to errors in  $p_u$ , we performed numerical simulations using Eq. (S27). We find that the uncertainty in  $\mathcal{F}$  due to the uncertainty in  $p_u$  is very small for all the data shown in Fig. 3a in the main text, corresponding to less than 10% of the error bars shown in the figure. This suggests that the process fidelity errors come mainly from statistical errors due to the small sample size rather than uncertainty in  $p_u$ .

#### SUPPLEMENTARY NOTE 4 Analysis of the QEDR process fidelity

In the main text we use the definition [31]

$$\mathcal{F} = \frac{\text{Tr}(\chi^{\text{ideal}}\chi)}{\text{Tr}(\chi)}, \quad (\text{S28})$$

for the process fidelity of a non-trace-preserving quantum operation. This definition implies that  $\chi/\text{Tr}(\chi)$  is the effective process matrix (which is shown e.g. in Fig. 2a of the main text). Notice that  $\chi/\text{Tr}(\chi)$  does not correspond to any physical trace-preserving process; however, this is a positive Hermitian matrix with unit trace, and therefore  $0 \leq \mathcal{F} \leq 1$  when  $\chi^{\text{ideal}}$  corresponds to a unitary operation. The perfect fidelity,  $\mathcal{F} = 1$ , requires  $\chi = P_s \chi^{\text{ideal}}$  with  $P_s \leq 1$  being the selection probability (in this case  $P_s$  should not depend on the initial state). This justifies the definition (S28).

However, Eq. (S28) is not the only possible definition for the fidelity of a non-trace-preserving quantum process. For example, another natural definition [22] is the averaged state fidelity,

$$\mathcal{F}'_{\text{av}} = \frac{\int \text{Tr}(\rho_f \rho_f^{\text{ideal}}) d|\psi_i\rangle}{\int d|\psi_i\rangle}, \quad (\text{S29})$$

where  $\rho_f^{\text{ideal}} = U|\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|U^\dagger$ ,  $U$  is the desired unitary operation,  $\rho_f$  is the actual normalized density matrix, and the integration is over all pure initial states  $|\psi_i\rangle$  with uniform weight (using the Haar measure); in the one-qubit case this is the uniform averaging over the Bloch sphere. Another natural definition is the averaged state fidelity, which is averaged with a weight proportional to the selection probability  $P_s$  (denoted  $P_{\text{DN}}$  in the main text),

$$\mathcal{F}'_{\text{av}} = \frac{\int \text{Tr}(\rho_f \rho_f^{\text{ideal}}) P_s(|\psi_i\rangle) d|\psi_i\rangle}{\int P_s(|\psi_i\rangle) d|\psi_i\rangle}. \quad (\text{S30})$$

Notice that both  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{av}}$  and  $\mathcal{F}'_{\text{av}}$  can be easily calculated when the process matrix  $\chi$  is known.

For a trace-preserving quantum operation  $\mathcal{F}'_{\text{av}} = \mathcal{F}_{\text{av}}$  because  $P_s = 1$ , and there is a direct relation [33]  $\text{Tr}(\chi^{\text{ideal}}\chi) = [(d+1)\mathcal{F}_{\text{av}} - 1]/d$ , where  $d$  is the dimension of the Hilbert space ( $d = 2$  in our one-qubit case). It is possible to show that in the general non-trace-preserving case the same relation remains valid between  $\mathcal{F}$  defined by Eq. (S28) and  $\mathcal{F}'_{\text{av}}$  defined by Eq. (S30),

$$\mathcal{F} = \frac{(d+1)\mathcal{F}'_{\text{av}} - 1}{d}. \quad (\text{S31})$$

Notice that the denominator  $\text{Tr}(\chi)$  in Eq. (S28) is equal to the averaged selection probability,

$$\text{Tr}(\chi) = \frac{\int P_s(|\psi_i\rangle) d|\psi_i\rangle}{\int d|\psi_i\rangle}. \quad (\text{S32})$$

We have numerically calculated the process fidelity in our un-collapsing QEDR experiment using all three definitions (S28)–(S30). For easier comparison with the results for  $\mathcal{F}$  shown in Fig. 3a of the main text, in Fig. S1 we scale  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{av}}$  and  $\mathcal{F}'_{\text{av}}$  as in Eq. (S31):  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{av,sc}} = (3\mathcal{F}_{\text{av}} - 1)/2$ ,  $\mathcal{F}'_{\text{av,sc}} = (3\mathcal{F}'_{\text{av}} - 1)/2$ . Notice that for the experimental results  $\mathcal{F}'_{\text{av,sc}}$  and  $\mathcal{F}$  are not exactly equal to each other [in spite of Eq. (S31)] because slightly different algorithms were used in the numerical processing of the over-complete experimental data set. Comparing Supplementary Figure S1 with Fig. 3a, we see that the experimental results using the three fidelity definitions are close to each other, and all of them show significant increase of the fidelity due to the un-collapsing-based QEDR procedure.

## SUPPLEMENTARY NOTE 5

### QEDR versus Quantum Error Correction

We now briefly discuss the relation between the QEDR procedure and quantum error correction (QEC). The main difference is that QEDR is a selective process (which selects only certain measurement results) and therefore is necessarily probabilistic, although with potentially high fidelity in the selected outcomes. By contrast, QEC can in principle achieve 100% probability, even if its fidelity is low. Since QEDR works probabilistically, there are clearly serious problems with scaling, similar to those with proposals for quantum computers based on linear optics [35]. We therefore do not believe that QEDR is practical for large-scale quantum information processing.

It would of course be very interesting to implement quantum error correction using our circuit, but we have been unable to do this, primarily due to inadequate gate fidelities, limited in part by the  $T_2$  of our qubits. This can be seen by the fact that a typical two qubit CNOT gate takes  $\sim 50$  ns in our device. As this is already about 30% of the  $T_2$  time of 150 ns, dephasing significantly impacts our CNOT fidelity. Building a code that could correct amplitude damping (dissipation) errors in one qubit will, in one scheme, require 4 physical qubits and a number of gate operations including the CNOT [18]; performing this kind of error correction remains a challenge for experimentalists.

An alternative recent proposal uses a circuit QED structure to encode/decode the qubit state in order to correct for photon dissipation errors [19]. This proposal uses fewer qubits than that of Ref. [18], but still requires a number of complex gates, and has not yet been realized experimentally. Interestingly, a numerical simulation for this proposal suggests that an improvement of only a factor of two in the resonator lifetime can be achieved, even if the QEC gate execution is almost perfect. We note that this is smaller than the factor of three effective improvement demonstrated in our QEDR experiment.

As QEC of energy relaxation errors in superconducting qubits is presently not possible, QEDR provides a good intermediate method, here demonstrating a factor of three improvement in the effective lifetime of a quantum state. Furthermore, even if QEC becomes a viable approach in the future, QEDR may still be useful in medium-scale quantum information processing.

Note that the detection of quantum errors and selection of no-error realizations is not as trivial as in the classical case. For example, one may think that to do the QEDR for the qubit energy relaxation it is sufficient to monitor the emission of a photon (or phonon) and then select only the realizations without the emission event. However, besides the technical problems with practical implementation of such gedankenexperiment, it would not work as QEDR even theoretically, because observation of no emission changes the qubit state,  $|\psi_i\rangle \rightarrow A_{\text{no-jump}}|\psi_i\rangle$  (see the second paragraph in Supplementary Note 2).

Besides its potential practical use in the future, QEDR has value as it provides a stepping stone towards the more-practical QEC, as it essentially demonstrates the same “magic” of a quantum algorithm that is able to deal with the continuous evolution of a quantum state (or density matrix) due to decoherence, by essentially converting this continuous change into discrete jump events (errors). Our particular implementation of QEDR, based on the

reversal of a quantum measurement (which we note is often thought to be a fundamentally *irreversible* process), demonstrates non-trivial physics and shows that quite counterintuitive effects can be practically useful in quantum information processing.

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### SUPPLEMENTARY REFERENCES

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