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Hamiltonian Monte Carlo sampling from quantum state space

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Abstract

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Hamiltonian Monte Carlo sampling from quantum state space

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Hamiltonian Monte Carlo (HMC), one typical method of Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) random walks, is an efficient way for sampling from quantum state space, due to its high and controllable acceptance rate, as well as its not strongly correlated sample points. Under suitable parameterizations of the density matrix and proper programming implementation, we are able to simulate and obtain samples with considerate amount of data, with respect to various prior probabilities. Properties of the samples are further analyzed, such as the probability distributions of purity, fidelity, distance, *etc*.

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Abbreviations

HMC	${\bf H} {\rm amiltonian} \ {\bf M} {\rm onte} \ {\bf C} {\rm arlo}$		
MCMC	\mathbf{M} arkov Chain \mathbf{M} onte Carlo		
MLE	\mathbf{M} aximum \mathbf{L} ikelihood \mathbf{E} stimator		
POM	$\mathbf{P} \text{robability } \mathbf{O} \text{perator } \mathbf{M} \text{easurement}$		
SIC	\mathbf{S} ymmetric Informationally Complete		

To my grandparents

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Point Likelihood

Quantum state tomography is the attempt of reconstructing a quantum state, by performing measurements on quantum systems described by identical density matrix ρ . Ideally, the measurements should be informationally complete, *i.e.*, the measurement operators form an operator basis of the Hilbert space of the system being measured.

Generally, for a set of probability-operator measurement (POM) of K outcomes, the positive operators $\{\Pi_i\}$ sum up to unity,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{K} \Pi_i = \mathbb{1} \tag{1.1}$$

Identical copies of a state ρ are measured repeatedly by this POM, resulting in probabilities of detector clicks

$$p_i = \operatorname{Tr}\{\rho \Pi_i\} = \langle \Pi_i \rangle \tag{1.2}$$

for the *i*-th detector, and they satisfy the following properties,

$$p_i \ge 0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{K} p_i = 1$$
 (1.3)

After measuring N identical copies of the state ρ , we obtain measurement data D, formed by a sequence of detector clicks $\{n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_K\}$ with

$$\sum_{i=1}^{K} n_i = N \tag{1.4}$$

where n_i is the number of clicks for the *i*-th detector.

The probability of obtaining data D for a given state ρ is given by the point likelihood

$$L(D|\rho) = p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \dots p_K^{n_K} = \prod_{i=1}^K p_i^{n_i}$$
(1.5)

The maximum-likelihood estimator (MLE) for state ρ is thereafter computed by maximizing the above equation. However, this point estimator is of limited power to make statistical inferences, as we will not be able to tell if the probability distribution is sharply peaked at MLE, or widely spreads out over the entire region. In order to answer such questions, we need to find a way to construct and characterize error bars and error regions.

1.2 Estimator Regions

1.2.1 Prior density

Before any measurement data D, our prior knowledge about the quantum system is called the prior probability. The size of an infinitesimal vicinity of state ρ , denoted by $(d\rho)$, is

$$(\mathrm{d}\rho) = w(p)(\mathrm{d}p) \tag{1.6}$$

where w(p) is the prior density, and $(dp) = dp_1 dp_1 \cdots dp_K$ is the infinitesimal volume in the probability space defined by the set of probabilities $\{p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_K\}$. The size[1] of a region \mathcal{R} is defined as the probability that state ρ lies within the region and denoted by $S_{\mathcal{R}}$,

$$S_{\mathcal{R}} = \int_{\mathcal{R}} (\mathrm{d}\rho) = \int_{\mathcal{R}} w(p)(\mathrm{d}p)$$
(1.7)

with

$$S_{\mathcal{R}_0} = \int_{\mathcal{R}_0} (\mathrm{d}\rho) = 1 \tag{1.8}$$

for the entire state space \mathcal{R}_0 .

1.2.2 Posterior density

The posterior density of state ρ is the conditional probability after measurement data D is taken into account, which is

$$P(\rho|D) = \frac{L(D|\rho)}{L(D)}$$
(1.9)

where L(D) is the prior likelihood of measurement data D, by integrating $L(D|\rho)$ over the entire space \mathcal{R}_0 , *i.e.*,

$$L(D) = \int_{\mathcal{R}_0} L(D|\rho)(\mathrm{d}\rho) = \int_{\mathcal{R}_0} L(D|p)w(p)(\mathrm{d}p)$$
(1.10)

We further define the credibility[1] of region \mathcal{R} , denoted by $c_{\mathcal{R}}$, to be the posterior probability of state ρ lies within the region, given measurement data D,

$$c_{\mathcal{R}} = \frac{\int_{\mathcal{R}} L(D|\rho)(\mathrm{d}\rho)}{\int_{\mathcal{R}_0} L(D|\rho)(\mathrm{d}\rho)} = \frac{1}{L(D)} \int_{\mathcal{R}} L(D|p)w(p)(\mathrm{d}p)$$
(1.11)

1.3 Monte Carlo Integration

1.3.1 Motivation

In order to compute $S_{\mathcal{R}}$ and $c_{\mathcal{R}}$ in Equations 1.7 and 1.11, a K-dimension integral is envolved, since the infinitesimal volume in probability space is given by

$$(\mathrm{d}p) = \mathrm{d}p_1 \mathrm{d}p_1 \cdots \mathrm{d}p_K \tag{1.12}$$

As we shall see later in Chapter 3, for a *d*-dimensional density matrix ρ , there are $(d^2 - 1)$ independent variables. Upon a re-parameterization of state ρ from probability space to a certain parameterization space, the integral is in fact of dimension $(d^2 - 1)$, *i.e.*,

$$(d\rho) \propto (dp) \propto (d\theta)$$
, where $(d\theta) = d\theta_1 d\theta_2 \cdots d\theta_{d^2-1}$ (1.13)

For instance, in the 2-qubit case, density operator ρ is a 4 × 4 matrix and the integral would become 15-dimensional. The dimensionality rapidly increases to 63 for a 3-qubit state.

Hence we employ the idea of Monte Carlo integration, where random sample points are generated based on our probability distribution w(p), or in other words, $w(\theta)$. The values of integrand are then evaluated at these sample points, and finally the integral is estimated numerically by a weighted sum over these values.

The sampling strategy is, however, not unique. In this work, we use Hamiltonian Monte Carlo (HMC) algorithm, which is a typical Markov-chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) method.¹ In MCMC, sample points are generated based on a Markov chain random walk, with respect to certain desired probability distribution. The quality of the sample depends on the number of sample points, instead of the dimensionality.

HMC algorithm is introduced in the next section. To implement HMC on quantum systems, we also need a suitable parameterization method for density matrix ρ , in terms of its $(d^2 - 1)$ independent variables. We demonstrate two possible ways of parameterization in Chapter 2. It is therefore possible to obtain samples with, typically, 1 million data points within reasonable amount of time², subject to any prior or posterior density. In Chapter 3, we show some of the results and discuss properties of the samples. The MATLAB[®] code used is attached in Appendix A at the end of this report.

1.3.2 Hamiltonian Monte Carlo

In HMC, parameters $\{\theta_i\}$ are treated as position variables of an artificial system evolving under Hamiltonian dynamics, where the Hamiltonian H is assumed to be

$$H(\theta, \Theta) = \frac{\Theta^2}{2} + U(\theta), \qquad (1.14)$$

where $U(\theta)$ is the potential energy given by $U(\theta) = -\log w(\theta)$, and $\{\Theta_i\}$ are the associated canonical momentum variables. Here $w(\theta)$ is our target density distribution.

More specifically, this Hamiltonian evolution is computed by the leapfrog method[3], with the following procedure:

- Step 1. Set i = 1, with initial condition $\{\theta(i-1), \Theta(i-1)\}$, and number-of-steps L, time sub-interval $\varepsilon = T/L$.
- **Step 2.** Compute $\Theta(i-\frac{1}{2}) = \Theta(i-1) \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \nabla U(\theta(i-1))$
- **Step 3.** Compute $\theta(i) = \theta(i-1) + \varepsilon \Theta(i-\frac{\varepsilon}{2})$
- **Step 4.** Compute $\Theta(i) = \Theta(i \frac{1}{2}) \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \nabla U(\theta(i))).$
- **Step 5.** Set i = i + 1 and return to **Step 2**. Escape the loop when i = L, the desired number of steps.

¹For other sampling strategies, see [2]

²On average, it takes around $10 \sim 11$ hours to generate 1 million data points using a personal laptop with 5th Generation Intel[®] CoreTM i7 Processors.

Combined with the leapfrog method, we have the following steps for HMC algorithm[3]:

- **Step 1.** Begin with i = 1, an arbitrary initial point $\theta^{(i)}$, and time step T.
- **Step 2.** Generate canonical momentum $\Theta^{(i)}$ from a multivariate normal distribution with unit variance.
- **Step 3.** Using the leapfrog method, start from $\{\theta^{(i)}, \Theta^{(i)}\}$ and obtain $\{\theta^*, \Theta^*\}$ after a finite time period T.
- Step 4. Compute the acceptance ratio³ $a = \min\{e^{H(\theta^{(i)},\Theta^{(i)}) H(\theta^{(*)},\Theta^{(*)})}, 1\}$
- **Step 5.** Pick a random number b uniformly from range 0 < b < 1. If a > b, set $\theta^{(i+1)} = \theta^{(*)}$; else let $\theta^{(i+1)} = \theta^{(i)}$.
- Step 6. Set i = i + 1 and return to Step 2. Escape the loop when i reaches the target number of sample points.

As mentioned previously, in order to implement HMC on quantum systems, we will need a parameterization method of density matrix ρ . In the following chapter, we discuss two possible solutions to this problem, namely the Cholesky decomposition and spectral decomposition of ρ .

³For high dimension problem, it is best to maintain an acceptance rate around 65%, by adjusting T and L.

Chapter 2

Random Density Matrices

A density matrix ρ , or density operator, is a matrix that can be used to describe a quantum system. It is a positive semidefinite, Hermitian operator of unit trace, *i.e.*,

$$\operatorname{Tr}\{\rho\} = 1, \text{ and } \lambda_i \ge 0, \tag{2.1}$$

where $\{\lambda_i\}$ are the eigenvalues of ρ .

For a density matrix that lives in a *d*-dimensional Hilbert space, there are $(d^2 - 1)$ independent real parameters. In this chapter, we demonstrate two possible parameterization methods for the density matrix.

2.1 Cholesky Decomposition

Every Hermitian, positive semidefinite density matrix ρ has a Cholesky decomposition taking the form

$$\rho = A^{\dagger}A \tag{2.2}$$

where A is an upper-triangular matrix with real and non-negative diagonal entries. Hence

$$\operatorname{Tr}\{A^{\dagger}A\} = \sum_{1 \le j \le k \le d} |A_{jk}|^2 = 1$$
 (2.3)

That is, the moduli of elements of matrix A are points lying on a sphere of dimension $\frac{1}{2}d(d+1) - 1 = \frac{1}{2}(d+2)(d-1)$. This sphere can be parameterized by a set of angle parameters $\theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_{\frac{1}{2}(d+2)(d-1)}$ with Cartesian coordinates $C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_{\frac{1}{2}(d+2)(d-1)}, S_{\frac{1}{2}(d+2)(d-1)}$ defined by

$$C_{1} = \cos \theta_{1}, \ S_{1} = \sin \theta_{1},$$

$$C_{k} = S_{k-1} \cos \theta_{k}, \ S_{k} = S_{k-1} \sin \theta_{k}, \text{ for } k = 2, 3, \dots, \frac{1}{2}(d+2)(d-1).$$
(2.4)

The upper-triangular matrix A is filled in with these Cartesian coordinates, which consists of $\frac{1}{2}d(d+1)$ number of entries in total, and its off-diagonal terms are further supplemented by phase factors

$$E_k = e^{-i\theta_k}$$
, for $k = \frac{1}{2}d(d+1), \dots, d^2 - 1.$ (2.5)

There are different ways of assigning the Cartesian coordinates and phase factors to matrix A, and they are all equally valid. Written down explicitly in component form, one possible way is given by

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i > j \\ C_{\frac{1}{2}j(j+1)} & \text{if } i = j < d \\ S_{\frac{1}{2}(d+2)(d-1)} & \text{if } i = j = d \\ C_m E_{m+n} & \text{if } i < j \end{cases}$$
(2.6)

with

$$m = \frac{1}{2}j(j-1) + i, \quad n = \frac{1}{2}(d+2)(d-1) - (j-1).$$
(2.7)

The density matrix ρ is now parameterized in terms of the set of independent variables $\{\theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_{d^2-1}\}$. The probability of the *k*th detector clicking, p_k , is given by

$$p_k = \operatorname{Tr}\{A^{\dagger}A\,\Pi_k\}\tag{2.8}$$

From the probability space characterised by these probabilities $\{p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_K\}$, to our parameterisation space defined by variables $\{\theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_l\}$, we have the Jacobian matrix

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial \theta} = 2 \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \operatorname{Tr} \left\{ A^{\dagger} \frac{\partial A}{\partial \theta} \Pi \right\} \right\}$$
(2.9)

or, in component form,

$$\left\{\frac{\partial p}{\partial \theta}\right\}_{ij} \equiv \frac{\partial p_i}{\partial \theta_j} = 2\operatorname{Re}\left\{\operatorname{Tr}\left\{A^{\dagger}\frac{\partial A}{\partial \theta_j}\Pi_i\right\}\right\}$$
(2.10)

The prior or posterior density in p can be expressed in terms of θ ,

$$w(p) \to w(\theta) \equiv \left(w(p) \left| \frac{\partial p}{\partial \theta} \right| \right) \Big|_{p \text{ in terms of } \theta} \propto \left| \frac{\partial p}{\partial \theta} \right|$$
(2.11)

where $\left|\frac{\partial p}{\partial \theta}\right|$ is the Jacobian determinant.

In order to execute the HMC algorithm introduced in Chapter 1, we also need the

gradient of "potential energy", $u_s(\theta) = \frac{\partial U(\theta)}{\partial \theta_s}$, which is proportional to

$$\operatorname{Tr}\left\{\left\{\frac{\partial p}{\partial \theta}\right\}^{-1} \cdot 2\operatorname{Re}\left\{\operatorname{Tr}\left\{\left(\frac{\partial A^{\dagger}}{\partial \theta_{s}}\frac{\partial A}{\partial \theta} + A^{\dagger}\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{s}}\frac{\partial A}{\partial \theta}\right)\Pi\right\}\right\}$$
(2.12)

where $\{\frac{\partial p}{\partial \theta}\}^{-1}$ refers to the matrix inverse of Jacobian matrix.

2.1.1 Example: Single qubit, d = 2

To parameterize ρ for a single qubit, we have

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} C_1 & C_2 E_3 \\ 0 & S_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta_1 & \sin \theta_1 \cos \theta_2 e^{i\theta_3} \\ 0 & \sin \theta_1 \sin \theta_2 \end{pmatrix}$$
(2.13)

and

$$\rho = A^{\dagger}A = \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2 \theta_1 & \frac{1}{2}\sin(2\theta_1)\sin\theta_2 e^{i\theta_3} \\ \frac{1}{2}\sin(2\theta_1)\sin\theta_2 e^{-i\theta_3} & \sin^2 \theta_1 \end{pmatrix}$$
(2.14)

The probabilities of corresponding Pauli matrices are given by

$$x = \langle \sigma_x \rangle = \sin (2\theta_1) \sin \theta_2 \cos \theta_3$$

$$y = \langle \sigma_y \rangle = \sin (2\theta_1) \sin \theta_2 \sin \theta_3$$

$$z = \langle \sigma_z \rangle = \cos (2\theta_1)$$

(2.15)

The Jacobian matrix is

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial \theta} = \begin{pmatrix} 2\cos(2\theta_1)\cos\theta_2\cos\theta_3 & -\cos\theta_3\sin(2\theta_1)\sin\theta_2 & -\cos\theta_2\sin(2\theta_1)\sin\theta_3\\ 2\cos(2\theta_1)\cos\theta_2\sin\theta_3 & -\sin(2\theta_1)\sin\theta_2\sin\theta_3 & \cos\theta_2\cos\theta_3\sin(2\theta_1)\\ -2\sin(2\theta_1) & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
(2.16)

Its determinant, $\left|\frac{\partial p}{\partial \theta}\right|$, is found to be

$$\left|\frac{\partial p}{\partial \theta}\right| = \sin^3(2\,\theta_1)\sin\left(2\,\theta_2\right) \tag{2.17}$$

Finally, to implement HMC algorithm, we have the gradients of the potential energy

$$u_1(\theta) = 6 \cot(2 \theta_1)$$

$$u_2(\theta) = 2 \cot(2 \theta_2)$$

$$u_3(\theta) = 0$$

(2.18)

2.1.2 Example: Qubit pair, d = 4

Following the definition from Equations 2.4 and 2.5, we can decompose the density matrix ρ for a qubit pair with

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} C_1 & C_2 E_{10} & C_4 E_{11} & C_7 E_{13} \\ 0 & C_3 & C_5 E_{12} & C_8 E_{14} \\ 0 & 0 & C_6 & C_9 E_{15} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & S_9 \end{pmatrix}$$
(2.19)

There are 15 independent variables, $\theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_{15}$. To compute the Jacobian matrix and the potential gradient from Equations 2.9 and 2.12, we will need to take first order, as well as second order derivatives of matrix A with respect to all these θ variables. Unfortunately, unlike the trivial example of previous single qubit case, we are unable to obtain analytic expressions at this stage. Instead, we develop a numerical approach to perform HMC algorithm with MATLAB[®].

2.2 Spectral Decomposition

Spectral decomposition, or sometimes eigen-decomposition, is the factorization of a square matrix in terms of its eigenvalues and eigenvectors. For our Hermitian density matrix ρ , we can write

$$\rho = UDU^{\dagger} \tag{2.20}$$

where U is a unitary matrix whose columns are the eigenvectors of ρ , and D is a diagonal matrix of unit trace, formed by the eigenvalues of ρ .

The diagonal elements of matrix D are defined recursively with (d-1) angle parameters $\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_{d-1}\}$ as

$$C_{1} = \cos^{2} \alpha_{1}, \ S_{1} = \sin^{2} \alpha_{1},$$

$$C_{k} = S_{k-1} \cos^{2} \alpha_{k}, \ S_{k} = S_{k-1} \sin^{2} \alpha_{k}, \text{ for } k = 2, 3, \dots, d-1.$$
(2.21)

and matrix $D = \text{diag}\{C_1, C_2, \dots, C_{d-1}, S_{d-1}\}$

The unitary matrix U is decomposed into a set of elementary unitary transformations in two-dimensional subspaces, with two independent variables $\{\theta, \varphi\}$ for each subspace. Every 2-*d* elementary unitary transformation is denoted as $U^{(i,j)} = U^{(i,j)}(\theta_{ij}, \varphi_{ij})$, and constructs the following (d-1) rotations:

$$U_{1} \equiv U^{(1,2)}(\theta_{12},\varphi_{12}) U^{(1,3)}(\theta_{13},\varphi_{13}) \cdots U^{(1,d)}(\theta_{1d},\varphi_{1d})$$

$$U_{2} \equiv U^{(2,3)}(\theta_{23},\varphi_{23}) U^{(2,4)}(\theta_{24},\varphi_{24}) \cdots U^{(2,d)}(\theta_{2d},\varphi_{2d})$$

$$U_{3} \equiv U^{(3,4)}(\theta_{34},\varphi_{34}) U^{(3,5)}(\theta_{35},\varphi_{35}) \cdots U^{(3,d)}(\theta_{3d},\varphi_{3d})$$

$$\dots$$

$$U_{d-1} \equiv U^{((d-1),d)}(\theta_{(d-1)d},\varphi_{(d-1)d})$$
(2.22)

The elementary unitary transformation $U^{(i,j)}(\theta,\varphi)$ has the following non-zero entries,

$$U_{mm}^{(i,j)} = 1, \quad \text{for } m = 1, 2, \dots, d, \& m \neq i, j;$$

$$U_{ii}^{(i,j)} = U_{jj}^{(i,j)} = \cos \theta;$$

$$U_{ij}^{(i,j)} = e^{i\varphi} \sin \theta;$$

$$U_{ji}^{(i,j)} = -e^{-i\varphi} \sin \theta.$$
(2.23)

The unitary matrix U is given by the product of (d-1) rotations,

$$U = U_1 U_2 U_3 \cdots U_{(d-1)} \tag{2.24}$$

We now have $\frac{1}{2}d(d-1)$ number of θ and same amount of φ , contributing a total number of d(d-1) independent variables for U. Together with the (d-1) parameters in matrix D, we fulfill the demand of $(d^2 - 1)$ independent parameters for our density matrix ρ .

For the θ , φ variables, the elements of Jacobian matrix are given by

$$\left\{\frac{\partial p}{\partial \phi}\right\}_{ij} \equiv \frac{\partial p_i}{\partial \phi_j} = 2 \operatorname{Re}\left\{\operatorname{Tr}\left\{\frac{\partial U}{\partial \phi_j} D U^{\dagger} \Pi_i\right\}\right\}$$
(2.25)

where $\phi = \{\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_{\frac{1}{2}d(d-1)}, \varphi_1, \varphi_2, \dots, \varphi_{\frac{1}{2}d(d-1)}\}.$ On the other hand, Jacobian elements for α variables are

$$\left\{\frac{\partial p}{\partial \alpha}\right\}_{ij} \equiv \frac{\partial p_i}{\partial \alpha_j} = \operatorname{Tr}\left\{U\frac{\partial D}{\partial \alpha_j}U^{\dagger}\Pi_i\right\}$$
(2.26)

The Jacobian matrix may seem to be a bit more complicated than that in Cholesky decomposition, as three types of variables are to be dealt with instead of two. However, it is much easier to realise in actual practice, due to the fact that matrix U is the product of a series of matrices with independent variables for their own. For instance, to compute $\frac{\partial U}{\partial \phi_k}$, we only need to replace matrix U_k with its derivative

 $\frac{\partial U_k}{\partial \phi_k}$, leaving all the rest in the product unchanged, *i.e.*,

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial \phi_k} = U_1 U_2 \cdots U_{k-1} \frac{\partial U_k}{\partial \phi_k} U_{k+1} \cdots U_{d-1}$$
(2.27)

This process is further simplified as a consequence of our way of defining the elementary unitary transformation. Taking a closer look of $U^{(i,j)}(\theta,\varphi)$ from Equations 2.23, we have

$$U^{(i,j)}(\theta,\varphi) = \begin{cases} i\text{-th} & j\text{-th} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ j\text{-th} \end{cases} \begin{pmatrix} \cdots & \cos\theta & \cdots & e^{i\varphi}\sin\theta & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \cdots & -e^{-i\varphi}\sin\theta & \cdots & \cos\theta & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$
(2.28)

That is, only four terms are involved when taking derivatives with respect to θ and φ , while the remaining entries are simply 0 or 1. Similarly, this ease of implementation extends to the second order derivatives as well.

2.2.1 Example: Single qubit, d = 2

Similar to Example 2.1.1, the single qubit spectral decomposition is the most fundamental and trivial. Density matrix ρ is decomposed into

$$\rho = U_1 D U_1^{\dagger} \tag{2.29}$$

where

$$U_1 = U^{(1,2)} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta & e^{i\varphi}\sin\theta\\ -e^{-i\varphi}\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix}, \quad D = \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2\alpha & 0\\ 0 & \sin^2\alpha \end{pmatrix}$$
(2.30)

Using Pauli matrices as POMs, the Jacobian determinant is found to be

$$\csc(2\alpha)\sin^2(4\alpha)\sin(2\theta) \tag{2.31}$$

The gradient of potential energy is therefore given by

$$u(\alpha) = -2 \cot (2\alpha) + 8 \cot (4\alpha)$$

$$u(\theta) = 2 \cot (2\theta)$$

$$u(\varphi) = 0$$

(2.32)

The HMC algorithm can now be executed accordingly.

Chapter 3

Applications

3.1 Preliminary

3.1.1 POM

Pauli matrices are used as POMs in previous examples for illustration purposes. When generating the samples studied in this chapter, we use tetrahedron measurements[4] instead, which are symmetric and informationally complete (SIC). For a single qubit, they are given by

$$\Pi_{1} = \frac{1}{4} \left(1 + \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \sigma_{x} + \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \sigma_{y} \right)$$

$$\Pi_{2} = \frac{1}{4} \left(1 + \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \sigma_{x} - \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \sigma_{y} \right)$$

$$\Pi_{3} = \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \sigma_{x} - \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \sigma_{z} \right)$$

$$\Pi_{4} = \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \sigma_{x} + \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \sigma_{z} \right)$$
(3.1)

For multiple qubits, their tensor products are used as POMs.

3.1.2 Prior Density

Other than the flexibility of choosing different POMs, we can also perform sampling subject to different prior densities. In the following examples, we use three types of prior density $w_0(p)$. In *primitive prior*, the density is uniformly distributed in p, *i.e.*,

$$w_{\text{primitive}}(p) = 1 \tag{3.2}$$

Another choice is the *Jeffreys prior*, which is

$$w_{\text{Jeffreys}}(p) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{p_1 p_2 \cdots p_K}} \tag{3.3}$$

Finally we have the *hedged prior*, given by

$$w_{\text{hedged}}(p) = \sqrt{p_1 p_2 \cdots p_K} \tag{3.4}$$

3.2 Purity

For a quantum state ρ , its purity $\xi(\rho)$ is a scalar quantity given by

$$\xi(\rho) \equiv \operatorname{Tr}(\rho^2) \tag{3.5}$$

If we randomly pick up a 2-qubit state, what is the probability for it to have a certain purity value? And, for a 2-qubit state with certain purity value, what are the chances that it is separable?

To answer such questions, we first use HMC to randomly choose 1 million two-qubit states, using Cholesky decomposition and with respect to primitive prior. For each one of these sample states, its purity and separability[5] are then evaluated. The final results are shown below. It is seen clearly in Figure 3.1B that if $\xi(\rho) < 1/3$, then ρ is separable[6]. Here we successfully reproduce the same results as in [2], with a larger sample size.



FIGURE 3.1: Sample of 1 million quantum states generated by Cholesky decomposition with respect to primitive prior density. (A) Prior density of quantum states with respect to purity. (B) Probability of separation as a function of purity.

3.3 Fidelity and Distance

Given two density matrices ρ_1 and ρ_2 , their fidelity F is given by

$$F(\rho_1, \rho_2) = \operatorname{Tr}\left\{\sqrt{\sqrt{\rho_1}\rho_2\sqrt{\rho_1}}\right\}$$
(3.6)

On the other hand, we define their trace distance D as

$$D(\rho_1, \rho_2) = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr} \left\{ \sqrt{(\rho_1 - \rho_2)^{\dagger} (\rho_1 - \rho_2)} \right\}$$
(3.7)

And they satisfy the following inequalities [7],

$$1 - F(\rho_1, \rho_2) \le D(\rho_1, \rho_2) \le \sqrt{1 - F(\rho_1, \rho_2)^2}$$
(3.8)

In this section, we first generate sample data with Cholesky decomposition method, based on certain prior density as introduced in Section 3.1.2. Two density matrices are then selected uniformly out of the sample, and their fidelity F as well as trace distance D are computed thereafter. MATLAB[®] code is attached in Appendix A.4.

For primitive prior, we have the following results.





FIGURE 3.2: 1 million sample two-qubit states with Cholesky decomposition and primitive prior density. Figure (A) and Figure (B) show the probability distribution of their fidelity and distance respectively. A 3-d histogram is shown in Figure (C). Figure (D) plots the fidelity and distance values for each sample state. The shape in (D) is nicely bounded by a unit radius circle.

It is clearly seen in Figure 3.2D that all data points lie within a circle with unit radius, and Fidelity F is above the straight line (-D + 1). Both observations consist with the inequalities of Equation 3.8.

Similar observations can be made with Jeffreys prior (Figure 3.3D) and hedged prior (Figure 3.4D) as well, since the inequalities 3.8 are general results regardless of the choice of prior density.



FIGURE 3.3: 1 million sample two-qubit states with Cholesky decomposition and Jeffreys prior. (A) and (B) show the probability distribution of fidelity and distance respectively. (C) is the 3-d histogram and (D) is the scatter plot for fidelity and distance values of each sample state.



FIGURE 3.4: 1 million sample two-qubit states with Cholesky decomposition and hedged prior. (A) and (B) show the probability distribution of fidelity and distance respectively. (C) is the 3-d histogram and (D) is the scatter plot for fidelity and distance values of each sample state.

Chapter 4

Conclusion and Outlook

The main outcomes of this project are the MATLAB[®] code listed in Appendix A, which computes numerically the density matrix ρ , Jacobian determinant $|\frac{\partial p}{\partial \theta}|$, and gradients $u_s(\theta)$, for a given set of POM and angle variables used in Cholesky or spectral decomposition, with respect to any target prior density. Together with the HMC algorithm developed in [3], the code performs efficiently enough to generate 1 million random two-qubit states within around 10 ~ 11 hours.

In Chapter 1, we first introduced the concepts of size $S_{\mathcal{R}}$ and credibility $c_{\mathcal{R}}$ as in Equations 1.7 and 1.11, which served as motivations of developing HMC algorithm in order to estimate numerically the (d^2-1) -dimensional integral. Then we directly wrote out the HMC algorithm as shown in Section 1.3.2. Its formal and detailed introduction can be found in [3].

Two possible decomposition methods for the density matrix ρ , namely the Cholesky Decomposition and Spectral Decomposition, were discussed in Chapter 2. In Cholesky Decomposition, density matrix ρ is decomposed into the product of an upper-triangular matrix A with its Hermitian conjugate, *i.e.*, $\rho = A^{\dagger}A$, and each element of matrix A is a function of $(d^2 - 1)$ independent angle variables $\{\theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_{d^2-1}\}$. The main challenge was to compute the first order and second order derivatives of A with respect to each one of these variables, as required in Equations 2.9 and 2.12. This part of MATLAB[®] code is attached in Appendix A.1 and A.2.

In contrast to Cholesky Decomposition, where one matrix A consists of all the independent variables, making evaluating its derivatives rather difficult, Spectral Decomposition has the nice properties of defining and assigning each individual variable into its own matrix. By replacing the elementary matrix with its derivative, the overall derivative and thus the Jocabian matrix can be easily computed,

as illustrated in Equation 2.27. An example of performing Spectral Decomposition with primitive prior is listed in Appendix A.3.

In Chapter 3, we studied some properties of the sample generated by the program. The probability distribution of purity, fidelity or distance of two-qubit states could be obtained with ease. It is also possible to analyze some other quantities such as the separation probability, relations between fidelity and distance, *etc*.

Although our MATLAB[®] program was written in such a manner as to compute numerically for any dimension, we were sampling in the 15-dimensional two-qubit state space throughout this thesis. For higher dimensional situations, qualitatively speaking, there will be too many *cosine* and *sine* functions of independent angle variables multiplied together, which may result in numbers that are too small for MATLAB[®] to handle properly. Hence further improvements need to be made for 63-dimensional three-qubit state space as well as even higher dimensional problems.

Appendix A

MATLAB code for two-qubit states

A.1 Cholesky Decomposition with Primitive Prior

```
1 % input angle variables q, matrix dimension d, and POM Q
2 % output matrix A used in Cholesky Decomposition, Jacobian determinant JacDet,
       and potential gradients u
3 % no need to output probabilities prob, which are all 1 in primitive prior
4
5 function [A, JacDet, u] = cholesky_2qb_flat(q,d,Q)
6
7 % d=4;
8 nt=d*(d+1)/2-1; % theta=9
9 nf=d*(d-1)/2; % phi=6
10 num=d^2-1;
11 % num=nt+nf=d^2-1=15
12
13 % indices that will be used repeatedly
14 ind = [d*nt,d*nf,nt+nf,d*(nt+nf),nt*nf,d*nt*nf,nt*(1+nt)/2,d*nt*(1+nt)/2];
15
16 % index matrices: indM1, indM2, and so on.
17 indM1 = tril(ones(d));
  indM2 = tril(ones(d),-1);
18
19
20~ % indM3, indM4 and indM5 are used to compute partial traces
21 indM3 = reshape(reshape(bsxfun(@plus,(0:d<sup>2</sup>-2)*(d<sup>4</sup>-d<sup>2</sup>),reshape(bsxfun(@plus,(0:
       d-1)*(d^3-d+1),(1:d:d^3-d*2+1).'),1,d^3-d).'),d^2-1,d^3-d).',d,(d^2-1)^2);
22 indM4 = reshape(reshape(bsxfun(@plus,(0:14)*3600,reshape(bsxfun(@plus,(0:d-1)
       *901,(1:d:897).'),1,900).'),225,60).',4,3375);
23 indM5 = bsxfun(@plus,(0:14)*225,bsxfun(@plus,(0:14)*16,1.').');
24
25 t=q(1:nt,1)';
26 f=q(nt+1:num,1)';
27
28 sint = sin(t); cost = cos(t); tant = tan(t); cott = cot(t);
```

```
expfp = exp(1i*f); expfm = exp(-1i*f);
29
30
31 % Create x, which are |Ajk| and lie on a sphere
32 x_temp = [1, cumprod(sint)].*[cost,1];
33 temp = ones(d);
34 temp(indM2 == 1) = temp(indM2 == 1)'.*expfm;
35 x = x_temp'.*nonzeros(tril(temp));
36
37 % cA is complex conjugate transpose of matrix A
38 % Create cA using complex conjugate of x
39 cA = zeros(d);
40 cA(indM1 == 1) = conj(x);
41 % Create matrix A
42 % density matrix rho = A'*A = cA*A
43 A = cA';
44
45 % derivative of x wrt theta
46 \ dxdt_temp = (x(2:nt+1)*cott).';
47 dxdt_temp(tril(true(nt),-1)==1) = 0;
48 dxdt = [zeros(nt,1),dxdt_temp];
49 temp = ones(d);
50 temp(indM2 == 1) = temp(indM2 == 1)'.*expfm;
51 temp = temp(indM1==1);
52 dxdt(logical(eye(nt))) = -cumprod(sint)'.*temp(1:nt);
53
54 % derivative of matrix A wrt theta
55 % Create dAdt using transpose of dxdt
56 dAdt = zeros(d, ind(1));
57 dAdt(repmat(indM1,1,nt) == 1) = dxdt.';
  dAdt = dAdt.';
58
59
60 % here dxdf_temp is not yet derivative of x wrt phi
61 dxdf_temp = zeros(nt+1);
62 dxdf_temp(eye(nt+1)==1) = -1i*indM2(tril(true(d)));
63 dxdf_temp(~any(dxdf_temp,2),:) = [];
64
65 % 2nd order derivative of x wrt the same phi
66 ddxdff = -1i*dxdf_temp;
67 ddxdff = bsxfun(@times,ddxdff,x.');
68
69 % 2nd order derivative of A wrt the same phi
70 ddAdff = zeros(d,ind(2));
71 ddAdff(repmat(indM1,1,nf) == 1) = ddxdff.';
72 ddAdff = ddAdff.';
73
74 % y is 2nd order derivative of x wrt theta and phi
75 y = zeros(ind(5), 10);
  for i = 1:9
76
77
       y(6*i-5:1:6*i,:) = y(6*i-5:1:6*i,:) + bsxfun(@times,dxdf_temp,dxdt(i,:));
78
  end
79
80 % derivative of A wrt theta and phi
81 ddAdfdt = zeros(d,ind(6));
82 ddAdfdt(repmat(indM1,1,ind(5)) == 1) = y.';
83 ddAdfdt = ddAdfdt.';
```

```
84
85 % derivative of x wrt phi
86 dxdf = bsxfun(@times,dxdf_temp,x.');
87
88 % derivative of matrix A wrt phi
89 % Create dAdt using transpose of dxdf
90 dAdf = zeros(d, ind(2));
91 dAdf(repmat(indM1,1,nf) == 1) = dxdf.';
92 dAdf = dAdf.';
93
94 % Put dAdt and dAdf together to form dAdm
95 dAdm = [dAdt;dAdf];
96 dAdm = reshape(permute(reshape(dAdm.',d,d,ind(3)),[2,1,3]),d,ind(4));
97
98 % Pre-multiply dAdm with cA and get cAdAdm
99 cAdAdm = cA*dAdm;
   cAdAdm = reshape(permute(reshape(cAdAdm,d,d,ind(3)),[1,3,2]),ind(4),d);
100
101
102 % Multiply cAdAdm with POMs
103 dpdm_temp = cAdAdm * Q(:, 1:60);
104
105 \% Take partial traces and their real part, then times 2 to get Jacobian dpdm
106 dpdm = reshape(2*real(sum(dpdm_temp(indM3))),d^2-1,d^2-1);
107
108 % determinant of Jacobian matrix dpdm
109 JacDet = det(dpdm);
110
111 % z is 2nd order derivative of x wrt theta
112 z = zeros(ind(7),10);
113 for i = 1:8
        temp1 = cott(i)*triu(ones(9-i,10),i+1);
114
115
        temp1 = times(temp1,repmat(cott(i+1:9).',1,10));
116
        temp2 = zeros(9-i,10);
117
        temp2(i*(9-i)+1:10-i:numel(temp2)) = ones(1,9-i); % = cott(2)*tant(3:9)
118
119
        temp2 = times(temp2,repmat(-tant(i+1:9).',1,10));
        temp2 = cott(i)*temp2;
120
121
        z(-i^2/2+21*i/2-8:1:-i^2/2+19*i/2,:) = z(-i^2/2+21*i/2-8:1:-i^2/2+19*i/2,:)+
122
        temp1+temp2;
123 end
124 z = repmat(x.', ind(7), 1).*z;
125
126 z^2 = -1 * triu(ones(9, 10));
127 z2 = repmat(x.',9,1).*z2;
128
129 z(~any(z,2),:) = z2;
130
131 % 2nd order derivative of matrix A wrt theta
132 \,\% Create dAdtdt using transpose of z
133 ddAdtdt = zeros(d,ind(8));
134 ddAdtdt(repmat(indM1,1,ind(7)) == 1) = z.';
135 ddAdtdt = ddAdtdt.';
136
137 % % Put ddAdtdt, ddAdfdt and ddAdff together to form ddAdmdm
```

```
% ddAdmdm = [ddAdtdt;ddAdfdt;ddAdff];
138
   % ddAdmdm = reshape(permute(reshape(ddAdmdm.',d,d,105),[2,1,3]),d,d*105);
139
140 % % Pre-multiply ddAdmdm with cA and get cddAdmdm
141 % cddAdmdm = cA*ddAdmdm;
142
   % cA*ddAdtdt
143
   cddAdtdt = cA*reshape(permute(reshape(ddAdtdt.',d,d,ind(7)),[2,1,3]),d,ind(8));
144
145 a1Cell = mat2cell(cddAdtdt,d,d*(9:-1:1));
146 A1 = zeros(36);
147 for i = 1:9
        A1(d*i-3:1:d*i,:) = A1(d*i-3:1:d*i,:) + [repmat(zeros(d),1,i-1),a1Cell{i}];
148
149
    end
150
    cddAdtdt_permute = reshape(permute(reshape(cddAdtdt,d,d,ind(7)),[1,3,2]),ind(8),d
151
        );
   a2Cell = mat2cell(cddAdtdt_permute,d*(9:-1:1),d);
152
    A2 = zeros(36);
153
   for i = 1:9
154
        A2(:,d*i-3:1:d*i) = A2(:,d*i-3:1:d*i) + [repmat(zeros(d),i-1,1);a2Cell{i}];
155
   end
156
157
158
   a3Cell = cell(1,nt);
   for i = 1:9
159
       a3Cell{i} = a2Cell{i}(1:d,1:d);
160
161
   end
   A3 = blkdiag(a3Cell{:});
162
163
   sumA = A1 + A2 - A3;
164
165
   % cA*ddAdfdt
166
   cddAdfdt = cA*reshape(permute(reshape(ddAdfdt.',d,d,ind(5)),[2,1,3]),d,ind(6));
167
168
   bCell = mat2cell(cddAdfdt,d,ind(2)*ones(1,nt));
    cddAdfdt_permute = reshape(permute(reshape(cddAdfdt,d,d,ind(5)),[1,3,2]),ind(6),d
169
        );
   cCell = mat2cell(cddAdfdt_permute, ind(2)*ones(1,nt),d);
170
171 B = zeros(ind(1), ind(2)); C = zeros(ind(2), ind(1));
   for i = 1:9
172
       B(d*i-d+1:1:4*i,:) = B(d*i-d+1:1:d*i,:) + bCell{i};
173
       C(:,d*i-d+1:1:4*i) = C(:,d*i-d+1:1:d*i) + cCell{i};
174
175
   end
176
177 % cA*ddAdff
178
   cddAdff = cA*reshape(permute(reshape(ddAdff.',d,d,nf),[2,1,3]),d,ind(2));
179 dCell = mat2cell(cddAdff,d,d*ones(1,nf));
180 D = blkdiag(dCell{:});
181
182 % combine sumA B C D in the following way and add to dAdm' * dAdm;
   % | sumA B |
183
184 % | C
              DI
185 mat_1 = [sumA,B;C,D] + dAdm'*dAdm; % a 60-by-60 matrix
186 mat_2 = cell2mat(mat2cell(mat_1,ind(4),d*ones(1,ind(3))).'); % 900-by-4
187 mat_3 = mat_2*Q(:,1:60); % multiply mat_2 with POMs; 900-by-60
188
189 % Take partial traces of mat_3 and their real part, then times 2
190 mat_4 = reshape(2*real(sum(mat_3(indM4))), ind(3), ind(3)^2);
```

191

192 inv_dpdm = eye(d^2-1)/dpdm; % inv_dpdm = inv(dpdm);
193
194 mat_5 = inv_dpdm*mat_4;
195
196 % Partial traces of mat_5 yields the gradients
197 u = sum(mat_5(indM5));
198 u(nt+1:nt+nf) = zeros(1,nf);

A.2 Cholesky Decomposition with Jeffreys Prior or Hedged Prior

```
1 \% input angle variables q, matrix dimension d, and POM Q
2 % output matrix A used in Cholesky Decomposition, probabilities prob, Jacobian
       determinant JacDet, and potential gradients u.
3
  function [A, prob, JacDet, u] = cholesky_2qb_non_flat(q,d,Q)
4
5
6 % d=4:
7 nt=d*(d+1)/2-1; % theta=9
  nf=d*(d-1)/2; % phi=6
9 num=d^2-1;
10 % num=nt+nf=d^2-1=15
11
12 % indices that will be used repeatedly
13
  ind = [d*nt,d*nf,nt+nf,d*(nt+nf),nt*nf,d*nt*nf,nt*(1+nt)/2,d*nt*(1+nt)/2];
14
15 \% index matrices: indM1, indM2, and so on.
16 indM1 = tril(ones(d));
17 indM2 = tril(ones(d), -1);
18
  % indM3, indM4, indM5 and indM6 are used to compute partial traces
19
  indM3 = reshape(reshape(bsxfun(@plus,(0:d^2-2)*(d^4-d^2),reshape(bsxfun(@plus,(0:
20
       d-1)*(d^3-d+1),(1:d:d^3-d*2+1).'),1,d^3-d).'),d^2-1,d^3-d).',d,(d^2-1)^2);
  indM4 = reshape(reshape(bsxfun(@plus,(0:14)*3600,reshape(bsxfun(@plus,(0:d-1)
21
       *901,(1:d:897).'),1,900).'),225,60).',4,3375);
22
  indM5 = bsxfun(@plus,(0:14)*225,bsxfun(@plus,(0:14)*16,1.').');
  indM6 = bsxfun(@plus,(0:14)*16,bsxfun(@plus,(0:3)*5,1.').');
23
24
25 t=q(1:nt,1)';
26 f=q(nt+1:num,1)';
27
  sint = sin(t); cost = cos(t); tant = tan(t); cott = cot(t);
28
29 expfp = exp(1i*f); expfm = exp(-1i*f);
30
31 % Create x, which are |Ajk| and lie on a sphere
32 x_temp = [1, cumprod(sint)].*[cost,1];
33 \text{ temp} = \text{ones}(d);
34 temp(indM2 == 1) = temp(indM2 == 1)'.*expfm;
35 x = x_temp'.*nonzeros(tril(temp));
36
37 % cA is complex conjugate transpose of matrix A
38 % Create cA using complex conjugate of x
39 cA = zeros(d);
40 cA(indM1 == 1) = conj(x);
41 % Create matrix A
42 A = cA';
43 % density matrix rho
44 rho = cA*A;
45 % probabilities
46 prob = rho*Q(:,1:60);
47 prob = sum(prob(indM6));
48
```

```
49 % derivative of x wrt theta
50 dxdt_temp = (x(2:nt+1)*cott).';
51 dxdt_temp(tril(true(nt), -1) == 1) = 0;
52 dxdt = [zeros(nt,1),dxdt_temp];
53 temp = ones(d);
54 temp(indM2 == 1) = temp(indM2 == 1)'.*expfm;
55 temp = temp(indM1==1);
56 dxdt(logical(eye(nt))) = -cumprod(sint)'.*temp(1:nt);
57
58~ % derivative of matrix A wrt theta
59 % Create dAdt using transpose of dxdt
60 dAdt = zeros(d, ind(1));
61 dAdt(repmat(indM1,1,nt) == 1) = dxdt.';
62 dAdt = dAdt.';
63
64 % here dxdf_temp is not yet derivative of x wrt phi
65 dxdf_temp = zeros(nt+1);
66 dxdf_temp(eye(nt+1)==1) = -1i*indM2(tril(true(d)));
67 dxdf_temp(~any(dxdf_temp,2),:) = [];
68
69 % 2nd order derivative of x wrt the same phi
70 ddxdff = -1i*dxdf_temp;
71 ddxdff = bsxfun(@times,ddxdff,x.');
72
73 % 2nd order derivative of A wrt the same phi
74 ddAdff = zeros(d, ind(2));
75 ddAdff(repmat(indM1,1,nf) == 1) = ddxdff.';
76 ddAdff = ddAdff.';
77
78 % y is 2nd order derivative of x wrt theta and phi
79 y = zeros(ind(5), 10);
80 for i = 1:9
        y(6*i-5:1:6*i,:) = y(6*i-5:1:6*i,:) + bsxfun(@times,dxdf_temp,dxdt(i,:));
81
82 end
83
84 % derivative of A wrt theta and phi
85 ddAdfdt = zeros(d,ind(6));
86 ddAdfdt(repmat(indM1,1,ind(5)) == 1) = y.';
87 ddAdfdt = ddAdfdt.';
88
89 % derivative of x wrt phi
90 dxdf = bsxfun(@times,dxdf_temp,x.');
91
92 % derivative of matrix A wrt phi
93 % Create dAdt using transpose of dxdf
94 dAdf = zeros(d, ind(2));
95 dAdf(repmat(indM1,1,nf) == 1) = dxdf.';
96 dAdf = dAdf.';
97
98\, % Put dAdt and dAdf together to form dAdm
99 dAdm = [dAdt;dAdf];
100 dAdm = reshape(permute(reshape(dAdm.',d,d,ind(3)),[2,1,3]),d,ind(4));
101
102 % Pre-multiply dAdm with cA and get cAdAdm
103 cAdAdm = cA*dAdm;
```

```
cAdAdm = reshape(permute(reshape(cAdAdm,d,d,ind(3)),[1,3,2]),ind(4),d);
104
105
106
   % Multiply cAdAdm with POMs
    dpdm_temp = cAdAdm * Q(:, 1:60);
107
108
    \% Take partial traces and their real part, then times 2 to get Jacobian dpdm
109
    dpdm = reshape(2*real(sum(dpdm_temp(indM3))),d^2-1,d^2-1);
110
111
112 % determinant of Jacobian matrix dpdm
   JacDet = det(dpdm);
113
114
115 % z is 2nd order derivative of x wrt theta
   z = zeros(ind(7), 10);
116
    for i = 1:8
117
        temp1 = cott(i)*triu(ones(9-i,10),i+1);
118
        temp1 = times(temp1,repmat(cott(i+1:9).',1,10));
119
120
        temp2 = zeros(9-i,10);
121
        temp2(i*(9-i)+1:10-i:numel(temp2)) = ones(1,9-i); % = cott(2)*tant(3:9)
122
        temp2 = times(temp2,repmat(-tant(i+1:9).',1,10));
123
        temp2 = cott(i)*temp2;
124
125
        z(-i^2/2+21*i/2-8:1:-i^2/2+19*i/2,:) = z(-i^2/2+21*i/2-8:1:-i^2/2+19*i/2,:)+
126
        temp1+temp2;
127
    end
   z = repmat(x.', ind(7), 1).*z;
128
129
   z2 = -1*triu(ones(9,10));
130
   z2 = repmat(x.',9,1).*z2;
131
132
   z(~any(z,2),:) = z2;
133
134
135
   % 2nd order derivative of matrix A wrt theta
136 % Create dAdtdt using transpose of z
137 ddAdtdt = zeros(d, ind(8));
138 ddAdtdt(repmat(indM1,1,ind(7)) == 1) = z.';
    ddAdtdt = ddAdtdt.';
139
140
141 % % Put ddAdtdt, ddAdfdt and ddAdff together to form ddAdmdm
142 % ddAdmdm = [ddAdtdt;ddAdfdt;ddAdff];
143 % ddAdmdm = reshape(permute(reshape(ddAdmdm.',d,d,105),[2,1,3]),d,d*105);
144 % % Pre-multiply ddAdmdm with cA and get cddAdmdm
145
   \% cddAdmdm = cA*ddAdmdm;
146
147 % cA*ddAdtdt
148 cddAdtdt = cA*reshape(permute(reshape(ddAdtdt.',d,d,ind(7)),[2,1,3]),d,ind(8));
149 a1Cell = mat2cell(cddAdtdt,d,d*(9:-1:1));
    A1 = zeros(36);
150
    for i = 1:9
151
        A1(d*i-3:1:d*i,:) = A1(d*i-3:1:d*i,:) + [repmat(zeros(d),1,i-1),a1Cell{i}];
152
153
   end
154
    cddAdtdt_permute = reshape(permute(reshape(cddAdtdt,d,d,ind(7)),[1,3,2]),ind(8),d
155
        ):
   a2Cell = mat2cell(cddAdtdt_permute,d*(9:-1:1),d);
156
```

```
157 A2 = zeros(36);
158 for i = 1:9
159
        A2(:,d*i-3:1:d*i) = A2(:,d*i-3:1:d*i) + [repmat(zeros(d),i-1,1);a2Cell{i}];
160 end
161
162 a3Cell = cell(1,nt);
163 for i = 1:9
      a3Cell{i} = a2Cell{i}(1:d,1:d);
164
165 end
166 A3 = blkdiag(a3Cell{:});
167
168 \text{ sumA} = A1 + A2 - A3;
169
170 % cA*ddAdfdt
171 cddAdfdt = cA*reshape(permute(reshape(ddAdfdt.',d,d,ind(5)),[2,1,3]),d,ind(6));
172 bCell = mat2cell(cddAdfdt,d,ind(2)*ones(1,nt));
173 cddAdfdt_permute = reshape(permute(reshape(cddAdfdt,d,d,ind(5)),[1,3,2]),ind(6),d
       );
174 cCell = mat2cell(cddAdfdt_permute,ind(2)*ones(1,nt),d);
175 B = zeros(ind(1), ind(2)); C = zeros(ind(2), ind(1));
176 for i = 1:9
177
       B(d*i-d+1:1:4*i,:) = B(d*i-d+1:1:d*i,:) + bCell{i};
      C(:,d*i-d+1:1:4*i) = C(:,d*i-d+1:1:d*i) + cCell{i};
178
179 end
180
181 % cA*ddAdff
   cddAdff = cA*reshape(permute(reshape(ddAdff.',d,d,nf),[2,1,3]),d,ind(2));
182
183 dCell = mat2cell(cddAdff,d,d*ones(1,nf));
184 D = blkdiag(dCell{:});
185
186 % combine sumA B C D in the following way and add to dAdm' * dAdm;
187 % | sumA B |
188 %
        С
              DI
189 mat_1 = [sumA,B;C,D] + dAdm'*dAdm; % a 60-by-60 matrix
190 mat_2 = cell2mat(mat2cell(mat_1,ind(4),d*ones(1,ind(3))).'); % 900-by-4
191 mat_3 = mat_2*Q(:,1:60); % multiply mat_2 with POMs; 900-by-60
192
193 % Take partial traces of mat_3 and their real part, then times 2
194 mat_4 = reshape(2*real(sum(mat_3(indM4))), ind(3), ind(3)^2);
195
196 inv_dpdm = eye(d^2-1)/dpdm; % inv_dpdm = inv(dpdm);
197
198
   mat_5 = inv_dpdm*mat_4;
199
200 % Partial traces of mat_5 yields the gradients
201 u = sum(mat_5(indM5));
202 u(nt+1:nt+nf) = zeros(1,nf);
```

A.3 Spectral Decomposition with Primitive Prior

```
1 \,\% input angle variables q, matrix dimension d, and POM Q
2 % output matrix U, matrix D used in Spectral Decomposition, Jacobian determinant
       JacDet, and potential gradients u
3 % no need to output probabilities prob, which are all 1 in primitive prior
4
5 function [U, D, JacDet, u] = spect_2qb_flat(q,d,Q)
6
7 % d=4;
8 nft = d*(d-1)/2; % number of theta and phi are the same
  na = d-1;
                    % number of alpha
9
10 num = d^2-1;
11 % num=nft+nft+na=d2-1=15
12
13 t = q(1:nft,1)';
14 f = q(nft+1:nft+nft,1)';
15 a = q(nft+nft+1:num,1)';
16
17 sint = sin(t); cost = cos(t);
18 tant = tan(t); cott = cot(t);
   expfp = exp(1i*f); expfm = exp(-1i*f);
19
20 sina = sin(a); cosa = cos(a);
21 tana = tan(a); cota = cot(a);
22
23 % j,k indices for theta, phi and matrix E
24 ind = zeros(nft, 2);
25 temp = 1;
26 for j = 1:d-1
      for k = (j+1):d
27
           ind(temp,:)=[j,k];
28
29
           temp=temp+1;
30
       end
31 end
32
33 E = zeros(d,d,nft);
                           % E_i is a matrix of theta_i and phi_i
34 dEdt = zeros(d,d,nft); % 1st order derivative of E_i wrt theta_i
                            % 1st order derivative of E_i wrt phi_i
35 dEdf = zeros(d,d,nft);
36 d2Edtt = zeros(d,d,nft); % 2nd order derivative of E_i wrt theta_i
37 d2Edft = zeros(d,d,nft); % 2nd order derivative of E_i wrt theta_i and phi_i
38 d2Edff = zeros(d,d,nft); % 2nd order derivative of E_i wrt phi_i
  for i = 1:nft
39
       % E_i is a matrix of theta_i and phi_i
40
       E(:,:,i) = eye(d);
41
42
       E(ind(i,1),ind(i,1),i) = cost(i);
       E(ind(i,2),ind(i,2),i) = cost(i);
43
       E(ind(i,1),ind(i,2),i) = expfp(i)*sint(i);
44
       E(ind(i,2),ind(i,1),i) = -expfm(i)*sint(i);
45
46
       % 1st order derivative of E_i wrt theta_i
47
48
       dEdt(ind(i,1),ind(i,1),i) = -sint(i);
49
       dEdt(ind(i,2),ind(i,2),i) = -sint(i);
       dEdt(ind(i,1),ind(i,2),i) = expfp(i)*cost(i);
50
       dEdt(ind(i,2),ind(i,1),i) = -expfm(i)*cost(i);
51
52
```

```
% 1st order derivative of E_i wrt phi_i
53
        dEdf(ind(i,1),ind(i,2),i) = 1i*E(ind(i,1),ind(i,2),i);
54
        dEdf(ind(i,2),ind(i,1),i) = -1i*E(ind(i,2),ind(i,1),i);
55
56
        \% 2nd order derivative of E_i wrt theta_i
57
        d2Edtt(ind(i,1),ind(i,1),i) = -E(ind(i,1),ind(i,1),i);
58
        d2Edtt(ind(i,2),ind(i,2),i) = -E(ind(i,2),ind(i,2),i);
59
        d2Edtt(ind(i,1),ind(i,2),i) = -E(ind(i,1),ind(i,2),i);
60
        d2Edtt(ind(i,2),ind(i,1),i) = - E(ind(i,2),ind(i,1),i);
61
62
        \% 2nd order derivative of E_i wrt theta_i and phi_i
63
        d2Edft(ind(i,1),ind(i,2),i) = 1i*dEdt(ind(i,1),ind(i,2),i);
64
        d2Edft(ind(i,2),ind(i,1),i) = -1i*dEdt(ind(i,2),ind(i,1),i);
65
66
67
        % 2nd order derivative of E_i wrt phi_i
        d2Edff(ind(i,1),ind(i,2),i) = -E(ind(i,1),ind(i,2),i);
68
        d2Edff(ind(i,2),ind(i,1),i) = -E(ind(i,2),ind(i,1),i);
69
70 end
71
72 % Product of matrices E
73 % U = E_1 * E_2 * E_3 * E_4 * ... * E_nft
74 U = eye(d);
75 for i = 1:nft
        U = U * E(:,:,i);
76
77 end
78 cU = ctranspose(U);
79
80 dUdm = zeros(d,d,nft+nft); % 1st order derivative of U wrt theta and phi
81 cdUdm = zeros(d,d,nft+nft);
82 for i = 1:nft
        dUdm(:,:,i) = eye(d);
83
84
        for j = 1:i-1
            dUdm(:,:,i) = dUdm(:,:,i)*E(:,:,j);
85
86
        end
        dUdm(:,:,i+nft) = dUdm(:,:,i)*dEdf(:,:,i); % wrt phi
87
        dUdm(:,:,i) = dUdm(:,:,i)*dEdt(:,:,i); % wrt theta
88
        for j = i+1:nft
89
            dUdm(:,:,i) = dUdm(:,:,i)*E(:,:,j); % wrt theta
90
91
            dUdm(:,:,i+nft) = dUdm(:,:,i+nft)*E(:,:,j); % wrt phi
92
        end
        cdUdm(:,:,i) = ctranspose(dUdm(:,:,i));
93
        cdUdm(:,:,i+nft) = ctranspose(dUdm(:,:,i+nft));
^{94}
95
    end
96
97 d2Udmm = zeros(d,d,nft+nft,nft+nft); % 2nd order derivative wrt theta and phi
98
    for i = 1:nft
        d2Udmm(:,:,i,i) = eye(d); % 2nd order derivative of U wrt same theta
99
        for j = 1:i-1
100
            d2Udmm(:,:,i,i) = d2Udmm(:,:,i,i)*E(:,:,j);
101
102
            d2Udmm(:,:,j,i) = eye(d);
            d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft) = eye(d);
103
            d2Udmm(:,:,j+nft,i+nft) = eye(d);
104
            for k = 1: j-1
105
                d2Udmm(:,:,j,i) = d2Udmm(:,:,j,i)*E(:,:,k);
106
                d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft) = d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft)*E(:,:,k);
107
```

```
d2Udmm(:,:,j+nft,i+nft) = d2Udmm(:,:,j+nft,i+nft)*E(:,:,k);
108
            end
109
110
            d2Udmm(:,:,j,i) = d2Udmm(:,:,j,i)*dEdt(:,:,j);
            d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft) = d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft)*dEdt(:,:,j);
111
            d2Udmm(:,:,j+nft,i+nft) = d2Udmm(:,:,j+nft,i+nft)*dEdf(:,:,j);
112
            for k = j+1:i-1
113
                d2Udmm(:,:,j,i) = d2Udmm(:,:,j,i)*E(:,:,k);
114
                d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft) = d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft)*E(:,:,k);
115
                d2Udmm(:,:,j+nft,i+nft) = d2Udmm(:,:,j+nft,i+nft)*E(:,:,k);
116
117
            end
            d2Udmm(:,:,j,i) = d2Udmm(:,:,j,i)*dEdt(:,:,i);
118
            d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft) = d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft)*dEdf(:,:,i);
119
            d2Udmm(:,:,j+nft,i+nft) = d2Udmm(:,:,j+nft,i+nft)*dEdf(:,:,i);
120
            for k = i+1:nft
121
                d2Udmm(:,:,j,i) = d2Udmm(:,:,j,i)*E(:,:,k);
122
                d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft) = d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft)*E(:,:,k);
123
                d2Udmm(:,:,j+nft,i+nft) = d2Udmm(:,:,j+nft,i+nft)*E(:,:,k);
124
125
            end
126
        end
127
128
        d2Udmm(:,:,i+nft,i+nft) = d2Udmm(:,:,i,i)*d2Edff(:,:,i); % wrt same phi
129
        d2Udmm(:,:,i,i+nft) = d2Udmm(:,:,i,i)*d2Edft(:,:,i); % wrt theta and phi of
        same index
130
        d2Udmm(:,:,i,i) = d2Udmm(:,:,i,i)*d2Edtt(:,:,i); % wrt same theta
131
        for j = i+1:nft
132
            d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft) = eye(d);
133
            for k = 1:i-1
134
135
                d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft) = d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft)*E(:,:,k);
136
            end
            d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft) = d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft)*dEdf(:,:,i);
137
138
            for k = i+1:j-1
                d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft) = d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft)*E(:,:,k);
139
140
            end
            d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft) = d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft)*dEdt(:,:,j);
141
            for k = j+1:nft
142
143
                d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft) = d2Udmm(:,:,j,i+nft)*E(:,:,k);
144
            end
            d2Udmm(:,:,i,i) = d2Udmm(:,:,i,i)*E(:,:,j); % wrt same theta
145
            d2Udmm(:,:,i,i+nft) = d2Udmm(:,:,i,i+nft)*E(:,:,j); % wrt theta and phi
146
        of same index
            d2Udmm(:,:,i+nft,i+nft) = d2Udmm(:,:,i+nft,i+nft)*E(:,:,j); % wrt same
147
        phi
        end
148
149
    end
150
   % matrix of alpha
151
   % off diagonal elements are zero
152
   D = zeros(d,d);
153
154
    for i = 1:d-1
        D(i,i) = (cosa(i))^2;
155
        for j = 1:i-1
156
            D(i,i) = D(i,i)*(sina(j))^2;
157
        end
158
159
   end
```

```
160 D(d,d) = D(d-1,d-1)*(tana(d-1))^2;
161
162 rho = cU*D*U;
163
164 dDda = zeros(d,d,na); % 1st order derivative of D wrt alpha
    d2Ddaa = zeros(d,d,na,na); % 2nd order derivative of D wrt alpha
165
    for i = 1:na
166
        dDda(i,i,i) = -2*D(i,i)*tana(i);
167
        d2Ddaa(i,i,i,i) = -2*D(i,i)*(1-(tana(i))^2);
168
        for j = 1:i-1
169
            d2Ddaa(i,i,j,i) = -4*D(i,i)*tana(i)*cota(j);
170
171
            for k = i+1:d
                d2Ddaa(k,k,j,i) = 4*D(k,k)*cota(i)*cota(j);
172
            end
173
174
        end
        for j = i+1:d
175
            dDda(j,j,i) = 2*D(j,j)*cota(i);
176
            d2Ddaa(j,j,i,i) = 2*D(j,j)*((cota(i))^2-1);
177
178
        end
179 end
180
181
    jcb = zeros(d^2-1);
182 for i = 1:d^2-1
       for j = 1:nft+nft % wrt theta and phi
183
            jcb(i,j) = 2*real(trace(dUdm(:,:,j)*D*cU*Q(:,:,i)));
184
        end
185
        for j = 1:na % wrt alpha
186
            jcb(i,j+nft+nft) = trace(U*dDda(:,:,j)*cU*Q(:,:,i));
187
188
        end
189
    end
190
191 % determinant of Jacobian matrix dpdm
192 JacDet = det(jcb);
193
194 M = zeros(d^2-1, d^2-1, d^2-1);
195 for i = 1:nft+nft
                         % wrt theta and phi
        for j = 1:d^2-1
196
            for k = 1:nft+nft
197
198
                M(j,k,i) = 2*real(trace((d2Udmm(:,:,min(i,k),max(i,k))*D*cU+dUdm(:,:,
        k)*D*cdUdm(:,:,i))*Q(:,:,j)));
199
            end
            for k = 1:na
200
201
                M(j,k+nft+nft,i) = 2*real(trace(dUdm(:,:,i)*dDda(:,:,k)*cU*Q(:,:,j)))
        ;
202
            end
203
        end
204 end
    for i = 1:na % wrt alpha
205
        for j = 1:d^2-1
206
207
            for k = 1:nft+nft
                M(j,k,i+nft+nft) = M(j,i+nft+nft,k);
208
209
            end
            for k = 1:na
210
211
                M(j,k+nft+nft,i+nft+nft) = trace(U*d2Ddaa(:,:,min(i,k),max(i,k))*cU*Q
        (:,:,j));
```

```
212 end
213 end
214 end
215
216 u = zeros(1,d^2-1);
217 inv_jcb = eye(d^2-1)/jcb; % inv_jcb = inv(jcb);
218 for i = 1:d^2-1
219 u(i) = real(trace(inv_jcb*M(:,:,i))); % inverse of jcb * M(:,:,i)
220 end
```

A.4 Fidelity and Distance

```
1 % input data points
2 % output fidelity histogram, distance histogram, and fidelity vs. distance
3
4 clear all
5 close all
6 warning('off','all');
\overline{7}
8 % choose one workspace to load based on your prior density
9
10 load('hmc_AA_2qb_primitive_1m_pts.mat');
11 % load('hmc_AA_2qb_Jeffreys_1m_pts.mat');
12 % load('hmc_AA_2qb_hedged_1m_pts.mat');
13
14 ln = length(rho);
15 randInd = zeros(1,2);
16 randMat = zeros(4);
17 fdl = zeros(1,ln); % fidelity
18 dist = zeros(1,ln); % distance
19 dx = 100; \% number of bins
   x_axis = 1/dx:1/dx:1; % x axis of distribution plot
20
   for i = 1:ln
21
       % random number between 1 and length of rho
22
           randInd = round(1+(ln-1).*rand(1,2));
23
       % randomly choose two matrices and multiply them together
24
       randMat = rho(:,:,randInd(1))*rho(:,:,randInd(2));
25
26
       randEig = sqrt(eig(randMat)); % square root of eigenvalues
27
       fdl(i) = real(sum(randEig)); % sum up to get fidelity
28
29
       randMat2 = rho(:,:,randInd(1))-rho(:,:,randInd(2));
30
       randMat2 = randMat2'*randMat2;
31
       dist(i) = trace(sqrtm(randMat2))/2; % trace distance
32
33 end
34
35 h = figure;
36 [f,x] = hist(fdl,dx);
37 bar(x_axis,f/ln); % fidelity distribution
38 axis([0,1,0,0.04]); xlabel('Fidelity');ylabel('Prior Density');
39 % title(['Fidelity Distribution (', priorType, ', 1m points)']);
40 fileName1 = strcat(fileName, '_fidelity');
41 set(gca,'xlim',[0 1]); set(gca,'FontSize',14);
42 print(h, '-djpeg', fileName1);
43
44 h = figure;
45 [d,x] = hist(dist,100);
46 bar(x_axis,d/ln); % distance distribution
47 axis([0,1,0,0.04]); xlabel('Distance');ylabel('Prior Density');
48 % title(['Distance Distribution (', priorType, ', 1m points)']);
49 fileName2 = strcat(fileName, '_distance');
50 set(gca,'xlim',[0 1]); set(gca,'FontSize',14);
51 print(h, '-djpeg', fileName2);
52
53 h = figure;
```

```
54 scatter(dist,fdl,'filled'); % fidelity vs. distance
55 axis([0,1,0,1]);xlabel('Distance');ylabel('Fidelity');
56 % title(['Fidelity vs. Distance (', priorType, ', 1m points)']);
57 fileName3 = strcat(fileName, '_fidelity_vs_distance');
58 set(gca,'FontSize',14);
59 print(h, '-djpeg', fileName3);
60
61 h = figure;
62 hist3([dist;fdl].',[50,50]); % 3d histogram of fidelity and distance
63 xlabel('Distance'); ylabel('Fidelity');
64 % title(['Fidelity and Distance (', priorType, ', 1m points)']);
65 set(get(gca,'child'),'FaceColor','interp','CDataMode','auto');
66 set(gca,'FontSize',14);
67 fileName4 = strcat(fileName, '_fidelity_distance_3d_histogram');
68 print(h, '-djpeg', fileName4);
69 % fileName5 = strcat(fileName, '_fidelity_distance_2d');
70 % view(0,90);
71 % print(h, '-djpeg', fileName5);
```

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