

Gaussian Stochastic Schrödinger Equation

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1 Gaussian System

1.1 BdG Hamiltonian

The BdG Hamiltonian has the form

$$\hat{H} = \sum_{i,j=1}^n A_{ij} c_i^\dagger c_j + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^n (B_{ij} c_i^\dagger c_j^\dagger - B_{ij}^* c_i c_j) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{2n} \Psi_i^\dagger H_{ij} \Psi_j, \quad (1)$$

where A is Hermitian and B is antisymmetric, the Hamiltonian matrix is

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ -B^* & -A^* \end{bmatrix}, \quad (2)$$

and the Nambu spinor Ψ is

$$\Psi_i = \begin{cases} c_i & 1 \leq i \leq n \\ c_i^\dagger & n+1 \leq i \leq 2n \end{cases}. \quad (3)$$

A fermionic Gaussian state can be regarded as the ground state of a BdG Hamiltonian.

The action of particle-hole symmetry \mathcal{C} on the Nambu spinor is $\mathcal{C} \cdot \Psi = \sigma^x \cdot \Psi^*$, on Hamiltonian is $\mathcal{C} H \mathcal{C}^{-1} = \sigma^x H^* \sigma^x = -H$. The unitary transformation conserving particle-hole symmetry is

$$T^\dagger H T = \text{diag}(\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_N, -\varepsilon_1, \dots, -\varepsilon_N), \quad T = \begin{bmatrix} U & V^* \\ V & U^* \end{bmatrix}. \quad (4)$$

Define a set of new fermionic modes

$$d_k^\dagger = \sum_{j=1}^{2n} \Psi_j^\dagger T_{jk} = \sum_{j=1}^n (U_{jk} c_j^\dagger + V_{jk} c_j), \quad (5)$$

where $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$. The Hamiltonian is

$$\hat{H} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_n \varepsilon_n (d_n^\dagger d_n - d_n d_n^\dagger) = \sum_n \varepsilon_n \left(d_n^\dagger d_n - \frac{1}{2} \right). \quad (6)$$

The following code does the diagonalization in the Nambu basis:

```
1 function bdg_eigen(A, B)
2     n = size(A, 1)
3     H = [A B; -conj(B) -conj(A)]
4     vals, vecs = eigen(Hermitian(H))
5     e = real(vals[n+1:2n])
6     U, V = vecs[1:n, n+1:2n], vecs[n+1:2n, n+1:2n]
7     T = [U conj(V); V conj(U)]
8     e, T
9 end
```

1.2 Majorana Basis

Under the Majorana basis $\underline{\Omega} = (\omega_1, \dots, \omega_{2n})^T$, where

$$\omega_i = \begin{cases} c_i + c_i^\dagger & 1 \leq i \leq n \\ i(c_i - c_i^\dagger) & n+1 \leq i \leq 2n \end{cases}. \quad (7)$$

the Hamiltonian is

$$\hat{H} = \frac{1}{8} \underline{\Omega} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{I} & \mathbb{I} \\ i\mathbb{I} & -i\mathbb{I} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ -B^* & -A^* \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{I} & -i\mathbb{I} \\ \mathbb{I} & i\mathbb{I} \end{bmatrix} \underline{\Omega} = -\frac{i}{4} \sum_{i,j=1}^{2n} \Omega_i H_{ij} \Omega_j. \quad (8)$$

Here, the Hamiltonian matrix under the Majorana basis is

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} -\text{Im}A - \text{Im}B & \text{Re}A - \text{Re}B \\ -\text{Re}A - \text{Re}B & -\text{Im}A + \text{Im}B \end{bmatrix}, \quad (9)$$

where $\text{Re}A = \text{Re}[A]$, $\text{Im}A = \text{Im}[A]$, $\text{Re}B = \text{Re}[B]$, $\text{Im}B = \text{Im}[B]$. The canonical form of antisymmetric matrix H is:

$$H = R \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \text{diag}(\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n) \\ -\text{diag}(\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n) & 0 \end{bmatrix} R^T, \quad (10)$$

where $R \in \text{SO}(2n)$. By defining the new Majorana operator

$$\gamma_k = \sum_{j=1}^{2n} \omega_j R_{jk}, \quad k = 1, \dots, 2n. \quad (11)$$

The Hamiltonian becomes diagonal

$$H = -\frac{i}{2} \sum_{k=1}^n \varepsilon_k \gamma_k \gamma_{k+n} = \sum_{k=1}^n \varepsilon_k \left(d_k^\dagger d_k - \frac{1}{2} \right), \quad (12)$$

The diagonalization is done by

```

1 function majorana_eigen(A, B)
2     n = size(A, 1)
3     S, V, vals = schur(majoranaform(A, B))
4     e = abs.(imag(vals))
5     R = Matrix{Float64}(undef, 2n, 2n)
6     for i in 1:n
7         if S[2i-1, 2i] > 0
8             R[:, i] = V[:, 2i-1]
9             R[:, i+n] = V[:, 2i]
10        else
11            R[:, i] = V[:, 2i]
12            R[:, i+n] = V[:, 2i-1]
13        end
14    end
15    e, R
16 end

```

Note that the ground state $|\psi\rangle$ of H is annihilated by all d 's,

$$\sum_{j=1}^n U_{jk}^* c_j |\psi\rangle = - \sum_{j=1}^n V_{jk}^* c_j^\dagger |\psi\rangle, \quad \forall k = 1, 2, \dots, n. \quad (13)$$

For this linear form, we immediately see that $|\psi\rangle$ has the Gaussian form:

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\mathcal{N}} \exp\left(\sum_{ij} M_{ij} c_i^\dagger c_j^\dagger\right) |0\rangle. \quad (14)$$

The equation leads to

$$c_j |\psi\rangle = e^{\sum_{kl} M_{kl} c_k^\dagger c_l^\dagger} e^{-\sum_{kl} M_{kl} c_k^\dagger c_l^\dagger} c_j e^{\sum_{kl} M_{kl} c_k^\dagger c_l^\dagger} |0\rangle = -2M_{kj} c_k^\dagger |\psi\rangle.$$

Therefore $M = \frac{1}{2} V^* \cdot (U^*)^{-1}$.

2 Dirac SSE

For particle number conserving systems, the Gaussian state can be represented as a matrix:

$$|B\rangle \equiv \prod_{j=1}^N \sum_i B_{ij} c_i^\dagger |0\rangle \equiv \bigotimes_{j=1}^N |B_j\rangle. \quad (15)$$

Note that the matrix B representing the Gaussian state has the unitary degree of freedom

$$|B\rangle = |B'\rangle, \quad B'_{ij} = \sum_k B_{ik} U_{kj},$$

where U_{kj} is an $N \times N$ unitary matrix. It means that the Gaussian state is determined by the linear subspace that columns of B span. The columns of B need not be orthogonal, while the canonical form can be obtained by the QR decomposition: $B_{L \times N} = Q_{L \times N} \cdot R_{N \times N}$, where the Q matrix is orthonormal and we can set $B' = Q$.

2.1 Evolution

The Stochastic Schrödinger equation can be Trotterized as

$$|\psi'\rangle = \left(\prod_x \mathcal{M}_x \right) e^{-iH\Delta t} |\psi\rangle. \quad (16)$$

That is, the monitored dynamics can be regarded as a two-step process, where the state $|\psi\rangle$ first undergoes a coherent Hamiltonian evolution and is then subject to a generalized measurement controlled by parameter Δt . Using the Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff formula,

$$e^X Y e^{-X} = \exp(\text{ad} X) Y, \quad e^{-iH\Delta t} c_j^\dagger e^{iH\Delta t} = c_k^\dagger [e^{-iH\Delta t}]_{kj}.$$

Therefore,¹

$$e^{-iH\Delta t} |B\rangle = \prod_{j=1}^N \sum_i [e^{-iH\Delta t}]_{ki} B_{ij} c_k^\dagger |0\rangle = |e^{-iH\Delta t} \cdot B\rangle. \quad (17)$$

The Krause operator of \mathcal{M} is

$$M_x = L_x \sqrt{\gamma \Delta t}, \quad M_0 = \sqrt{1 - L_x^\dagger L_x \gamma \Delta t}. \quad (18)$$

We consider the case where the jump operator L_x the form:

$$L_x = U_x d_x^\dagger d_x, \quad L_x^\dagger L_x = d_x^\dagger d_x, \quad (19)$$

where U_x is a Gaussian unitary operator. In this case, the Kraus operator is

$$M_0 = \sqrt{(1 - \gamma \Delta t) d_x^\dagger d_x + d_x d_x^\dagger} = \sqrt{1 - \gamma \Delta t} d_x^\dagger d_x + d_x d_x^\dagger = 1 - (1 - \sqrt{1 - \gamma \Delta t}) d_x^\dagger d_x.$$

This operator preserve Gaussianity since $\exp(-\alpha d_x^\dagger d_x) = 1 - (1 - e^{-\alpha}) d_x^\dagger d_x$.

2.2 Quantum Jump

When applied to a quasi-particle creation/annihilation operator, a free fermion state maintains its structure. Consider a general quasi-particle $b^\dagger = \sum_i b_i c_i^\dagger$, creating a quasiparticle is simply adding a column to B , since

$$b^\dagger |B\rangle = \sum_k b_k c_k^\dagger \prod_{j=1}^N \sum_i c_i^\dagger B_{ij} |0\rangle = \prod_{j=1}^{N+1} \sum_i c_i^\dagger [b|B]_{ij} |0\rangle. \quad (20)$$

The new column b is not orthogonal to linear space B . Therefore, an orthogonalization procedure is needed to obtain canonical form.

For the quasiparticle annihilation operator b ,

$$b|B\rangle = \sum_k b_k^* c_k \prod_j \sum_i c_i^\dagger B_{ij} |0\rangle = \sum_j \langle b|B_j\rangle \bigotimes_{l \neq j} |B_l\rangle.$$

We can use the gauge freedom to restrict $\langle b|B'_j\rangle = 0$ for $j > 1$. Such matrix B' always exists since we can always find a column j that $\langle b|B_j\rangle \neq 0$ (otherwise $p_m = 0$ and the jump is impossible). We then move the column to the first and define the column as

$$|B'_j\rangle = |B_j\rangle - \frac{\langle a|B_j\rangle}{\langle a|B_1\rangle} |B_1\rangle, \quad j > 1. \quad (21)$$

Such column transformations do not alter the linear space B spans, while the orthogonality and the normalization might be affected.

¹Note that the Hamiltonian is not necessarily Hermitian, so the vectors will no longer be orthogonal.

2.3 Entanglement Entropy

The density matrix for m -site subregion has the Gaussian form $\rho = e^{-M_{ij}c_i^\dagger c_j}$. If we diagonalize it,

$$\rho = \frac{1}{Z} \exp\left(-\sum_k \lambda_k a_k^\dagger a_k\right) = \bigotimes_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\lambda_k}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-\lambda_k} \end{bmatrix} = \bigotimes_{k=1}^n \text{diag}(1 - \mu_k, \mu_k). \quad (22)$$

Note that $\{a_k\}$ is also the basis that diagonalizes the correlation function $G_{ij} = \text{Tr}[\rho c_i^\dagger c_j]$, with

$$U \cdot G \cdot U^T = \text{diag}(\mu_1, \dots, \mu_m). \quad (23)$$

The entropy is

$$S(\rho) = -\text{Tr}[\rho \log \rho] = -\sum_k [\mu_k \log \mu_k + (1 - \mu_k) \log(1 - \mu_k)] = \sum_k H(\mu_k). \quad (24)$$

Note that the eigenvalue μ_k of correlation G is the square of singular values of $B|_{\text{subregion}}$ matrix.

3 Majorana SSE

The Majorana operators are defined as $\omega_j = c_i + c_i^\dagger$, $\omega_{j+n} = i(c_i - c_i^\dagger)$. For the Majorana case, a Gaussian pure state $|\psi\rangle$ can be expressed as

$$|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| = \prod_{j=1}^n d_j^\dagger d_j. \quad (25)$$

Note that the state is annihilated by $\{d_j^\dagger\}$. We can store the information of $|\psi\rangle$ into a $2n \times n$ complex matrix B . The rest of the procedures parallel those of the Dirac fermion case.

4 Grassmann Representation

In this section, we discuss the general fermionic Gaussian state in the framework of the Grassmann representation. We will closely follow Ref. [1]. A general operator in Fermionic Fock space can be expanded on the Majorana basis:

$$\hat{X} = \alpha \hat{I} + \sum_{p=1}^{2n} \sum_{1 \leq a_1 < \dots < a_p \leq 2n} \alpha_{a_1 \dots a_p} \hat{\omega}_{a_1} \cdots \hat{\omega}_{a_p}. \quad (26)$$

Define a linear map from Fermionic operator space to Grassmann algebra:

$$\hat{X} \mapsto X(\theta) = \alpha + \sum_{1 \leq a_1 < \dots < a_p \leq 2n} \alpha_{a_1 \dots a_p} \theta_{a_1} \cdots \theta_{a_p}. \quad (27)$$

This mapping is called the Grassmann representation of \hat{X} .

One can formally define calculus on Grassmann algebra:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} \theta_j = \int d\theta_i \theta_j = \delta_{ij}, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} 1 = \int d\theta_i 1 = 0. \quad (28)$$

The Gaussian integral of Grassmann algebra is

$$\int D\theta e^{\eta^T \theta + \frac{i}{2} \theta^T M \theta} = i^n \text{Pf}(M) e^{-\frac{i}{2} \eta^T M^{-1} \eta}. \quad (29)$$

One useful result concerning the expectation value is

Theorem 1. For two operator \hat{X} and \hat{Y} , we have the following identity

$$\text{Tr}(\hat{X}\hat{Y}) = (-2)^n \int D[\theta, \mu] e^{\theta^T \cdot \mu} X(\theta) Y(\mu).$$

where $\int D\theta = \int d\theta_{2n} \cdots \int d\theta_1$, $\int D\mu = \int d\mu_{2n} \cdots \int d\mu_1$.

Proof. We prove the statement by considering only m -th order monomial. On the one hand

$$\text{LHS} = \text{Tr}[\hat{\omega}_1 \cdots \hat{\omega}_m \hat{\omega}_1 \cdots \hat{\omega}_m] = 2^n (-1)^{m(m-1)/2}.$$

On the other hand,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{RHS} &= (-2)^n \int D[\theta, \mu] \prod_{i=1}^m \theta_i \prod_{j=m+1}^{2n} (\theta_j \mu_j) \prod_{k=1}^m \mu_k \\ &= (-2)^n (-1)^{(4n-m)m + (m+1+2n)(2n-m)/2} \\ &= 2^n (-1)^{-m(m+3)/2} = 2^n (-1)^{m(m-1)/2}. \end{aligned}$$

We, therefore, proved the statement. \square

4.1 Gaussian States

Definition 1. A quantum state $\hat{\rho}$ is Gaussian if it has Gaussian Grassmann representation:

$$\rho(\theta) = \frac{1}{2^n} \exp\left(\frac{i}{2} \theta^T M \theta\right), \quad (30)$$

where the antisymmetric matrix $M_{ab} = \frac{i}{2} \text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}[\hat{\omega}_a, \hat{\omega}_b])$ is the **covariance matrix**.

All higher correlations of a Gaussian state are determined by the Wick theorem, namely

$$\text{Tr}(i^p \hat{\rho} \hat{\omega}_{a_1} \cdots \hat{\omega}_{a_p}) = \text{Pf}(M|_{a_1, \dots, a_p}).$$

The canonical form of antisymmetric matrix M is:

$$M = R \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n) \\ -\text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n) & 0 \end{bmatrix} R^T, \quad (31)$$

where $R \in \text{SO}(2n)$. Under the new Grassmann variance $\mu = R\theta$, ρ has the form

$$\rho(\mu) = \frac{1}{2^n} \prod_j \exp(i\lambda_j \mu_j \mu_{j+n}) = \frac{1}{2^n} \prod_j (1 + i\lambda_j \mu_j \mu_{j+n}). \quad (32)$$

We can then obtain the operator form:

$$\hat{\rho} = 2^{-n} \prod_{j=1}^n (1 + i\lambda_j \hat{\gamma}_j \hat{\gamma}_{j+n}) \quad (33)$$

where $\hat{\gamma}$'s are a new set of Majorana operators. In the fermion basis

$$\hat{d}_j = \frac{\hat{\gamma}_j - i\hat{\gamma}_{j+n}}{2}, \quad \hat{d}_j^\dagger = \frac{\hat{\gamma}_j + i\hat{\gamma}_{j+n}}{2}, \quad (34)$$

the density matrix has the form

$$\hat{\rho} = \prod_j \left(\frac{1 + \lambda_j}{2} - \lambda_j \hat{d}_j^\dagger \hat{d}_j \right) = \bigotimes_j \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1+\lambda_j}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1-\lambda_j}{2} \end{bmatrix}_j. \quad (35)$$

Without loss of generality, we assume $\lambda_i \geq 0$. For pure state, $\lambda_i = 1, \forall i$. For mixed state, the entropy of ρ is just

$$S(\hat{\rho}) = \sum_j H\left(\frac{1+\lambda_j}{2}\right), \quad (36)$$

where $H(p) = -p \log p - (1-p) \log(1-p)$.

4.2 Gaussian Operators

Definition 2. An operator \hat{X} (with nonzero trace) is Gaussian if

$$X(\theta) = C \exp\left(\frac{i}{2} \theta^T M \theta\right)$$

for some complex number C and some **complex antisymmetric** matrix M . M is called a correlation matrix of \hat{X} . If \hat{X} is traceless, it should be thought of as a limit $\hat{X} = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \hat{X}_m$ for some converging sequence of Gaussian operators with nonzero trace.

Note that for traceless \hat{X} , the explicit form of $X(\theta)$ is

$$X(\theta) = C \left(\prod_{a=1}^{2k} \mu_a \right) \exp\left(\frac{i}{2} \sum_{a,b=2k+1}^{2n} M_{ab} \mu_a \mu_b\right), \quad (37)$$

where $\mu_a = \sum_b T_{ab} \theta_b$ for some invertible complex matrix T . The factor is a limiting point of the sequence:

$$\prod_{a=1}^{2k} \mu_a = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{a=1}^k \left(\mu_{2a-1} \mu_{2a} + \frac{1}{t} \right) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{t^k} \exp\left(t \sum_{a=1}^k \mu_{2a-1} \mu_{2a}\right). \quad (38)$$

Introducing the operator $\hat{\Lambda} \equiv \sum_{a=1}^{2n} \hat{\omega}_a \otimes \hat{\omega}_a$, we have the following theorem:

Theorem 2. An operator \hat{X} is Gaussian iff \hat{X} is even and satisfies

$$[\hat{\Lambda}, \hat{X} \otimes \hat{X}] = 0.$$

Proof. The adjoint action of $\hat{\Lambda}$ in the Grassmann representation has the form:

$$\Lambda_{\text{ad}} = 2 \sum_a \left(\theta_a \otimes \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_a} + \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_a} \otimes \theta_a \right) \equiv \sum_a \Delta_a. \quad (39)$$

That is, $[\hat{\omega}_a \otimes \hat{\omega}_a, Y \otimes Z](\theta) = \Delta_a \cdot Y(\theta) \otimes Z(\theta)$ for any operators Y, Z having the same parity. Without loss of generality, both Y and Z are monomials in $\hat{\omega}$'s. Each commutes or anticommutes with $\hat{\omega}_a$. Consider two cases:

1. Both Y and Z contain $\hat{\omega}_a$, or both Y and Z do not contain $\hat{\omega}_a$. Then the commutator $[\hat{\omega}_a \otimes \hat{\omega}_a, Y \otimes Z]$ is zero since both factors yield the same sign. The right-hand side is also zero since either θ_a or $\partial/\partial \theta_a$ annihilates both Y and Z .
2. Y contains $\hat{\omega}_a$ while Z does not contain $\hat{\omega}_a$ (or vice versa). In this case $\hat{\omega}_a \otimes \hat{\omega}_a$ anti-commutes with $Y \otimes Z$. Let us write $Y = \hat{\omega}_a \tilde{Y}$, where \tilde{Y} is a monomial which does not contain $\hat{\omega}_a$. We have:

$$[\hat{\omega}_a \otimes \hat{\omega}_a, Y \otimes Z] = 2(\hat{\omega}_a \otimes \hat{\omega}_a)(Y \otimes Z) = 2\tilde{Y} \otimes (\hat{\omega}_a Z).$$

On the other hand,

$$\theta_a \otimes \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_a} \cdot Y \otimes Z = 0, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_a} \otimes \theta_a \cdot Y \otimes Z = \tilde{Y} \otimes \theta_a Z.$$

We again get equality.

Necessity: Note that Λ_{ad} is invariant under change of variables since $\mu_a = \sum_b T_{ab} \theta_b$,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu_a} = \sum_b (T^{-1})_{ab} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_b} \implies \sum_a \theta_a \otimes \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_a} = \sum_a \mu_a \otimes \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu_a}.$$

Direct application of the operator to the general Gaussian form will prove the necessity.

Sufficiency: Denote $C = 2^{-n} \text{tr}(X) \equiv X(0)$ and represent $X(\theta)$ as

$$X(\theta) = C \cdot 1 + \frac{iC}{2} \sum_{a,b=1}^{2n} M_{ab} \theta_a \theta_b + \text{higher order terms.}$$

Applying a differential operator $1 \otimes \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_b}$ to both sides:

$$\sum_{a=1}^{2n} \left(\theta_a X \otimes \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial \theta_b \partial \theta_a} - \frac{\partial X}{\partial \theta_a} \otimes \theta_a \frac{\partial X}{\partial \theta_b} \right) + \frac{\partial (X \otimes X)}{\partial \theta_b} = 0.$$

Now let us put $\theta \equiv 0$ in the second factor:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_b} X = i \sum_{a=1}^{2n} M_{ba} \theta_a X.$$

This differential equation can be easily solved by $X(\theta) = C \exp\left(\frac{i}{2} \theta^T M \theta\right)$.

For general cases, we denote $\mathcal{K} \subseteq \mathcal{M}_1$ a subspace spanned by linear functions which annihilate \hat{X} , i.e.

$$\mathcal{K} = \{f \in \mathcal{M}_1 : f(\theta)X(\theta) = 0\}.$$

Let us perform a linear change of variables $\mu_a = \sum_b T_{ab} \theta_b$, with T being an invertible complex matrix chosen such that the first k variables μ span the subspace \mathcal{K} , i.e. $\mathcal{K} = \text{span}[\mu_1, \dots, \mu_{2k}]$. From equalities $\mu_j X = 0$, $j \in [1, 2k]$ it follows that

$$X(\theta(\mu)) = \left(\prod_a \mu_a \right) \tilde{X}(\mu),$$

where $\tilde{X}(\mu)$ depends only upon $\mu_{2k+1}, \dots, \mu_{2n}$. The function $\tilde{X}(\mu)$ satisfies the equation

$$\sum_{a=2k+1}^{2n} \left(\mu_a \otimes \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu_a} + \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu_a} \otimes \mu_a \right) \tilde{X} \otimes \tilde{X} = 0.$$

Therefore, we get the general Gaussian form. □

4.3 Gaussian Linear Maps

We define linear maps that preserve Gaussian states as the following:

Definition 3. A linear map \mathcal{E} is Gaussian iff it admits an integral representation

$$\mathcal{E}(X)(\theta) = C \int D[\eta, \mu] \exp[S(\theta, \eta) + i\eta^T \mu] X(\mu), \quad (40)$$

where

$$S(\theta, \eta) = \frac{i}{2} (\theta^T, \eta^T) \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ -B^T & D \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \theta \\ \eta \end{pmatrix} \quad (41)$$

for some complex $2n \times 2n$ matrices A , B , D , and some complex number C .

Consider a Gaussian operator \hat{X} , described by a correlation matrix M and a Gaussian map \mathcal{E} . Applying the Gaussian integration, one can show that $\mathcal{E}(X)$ has a correlation matrix

$$\mathcal{E}(M) = A + B(M^{-1} + D)^{-1}B^T = A + B(I + MD)^{-1}MB^T,$$

while a pre-exponential factor of the operator $\mathcal{E}(X)$ can be found from an identity

$$\text{tr}(\mathcal{E}(X)) = C(-1)^n \text{Pf}(M) \text{Pf}(M^{-1} + D) \text{tr}(X).$$

The value of $\text{tr}(\mathcal{E}(X))$ can be found up to a factor ± 1 using a regularized version:

$$\text{tr}(\mathcal{E}(X))^2 = C^2 \det(I + MD) \text{tr}(X)^2.$$

References

- [1] S. Bravyi, *Lagrangian representation for fermionic linear optics* (2004), [quant-ph/0404180](https://arxiv.org/abs/quant-ph/0404180).