Facilitating the calibration of complex quantum photonic circuits with machine learning assisted gate set tomography

By

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Declaration

This dissertation is submitted to the University of Bristol in accordance with the requirements of the	ne
degree of MEng in the Faculty of Engineering. It has not been submitted for any other degree of	or
diploma of any examining body. Except where specifically acknowledged, it is all the work of the	nе
Author.	

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Abstract

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Acknowledgements

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List of Acronyms

CPTP Completely Positive and Trace-Preserving

 \mathbf{GST} Gate Set Tomography

 \mathbf{LGST} Linear Gate Set Tomography

POVM Positive Operator-Valued Measure

Todo list

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Chapter 1: Notes

1.1 Gate Set Tomography

Notes taken from [1].

Gate Set Tomography (GST) differs from state and process tomography in that:

- It is almost entirely calibration-free. It does not depend upon a prior description of the measurements used (as in state tomography) or the states that can be prepared (as in process tomography). These are called "reference frame" operations in the literature?
- It estimates an entire set of logic operations, rather than a single one.

GST being calibration-free is incredibly important. Both state and process tomography are limited in that they rely on *accurate* characterisation of their "reference frame" operations. Typically, they're either unknown or misidentified.

1.1.1 Mathematical Background

A quantum system is described by a d-dimensional Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}=\mathbb{C}^d$, where d is the largest number of outcomes of a repeatable measurement. For a qubit, d=2. GST uses the Hilbert-Schmidt space. The Hilbert-Schmidt space is the complex d^2 -dimensional vector space of $d \times d$ matrices. We're interested in the d^2 -dimensional subspace of Hermitian matrices, denoted $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$. The basis we use for $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ is the set of normalised Pauli matrices $\{\mathbb{I}/\sqrt{2}, \sigma_x/\sqrt{2}, \sigma_y/\sqrt{2}, \sigma_z/\sqrt{2}\}$. This basis has the following properties:

- Hermicity: $B_i = B_i^{\dagger}$
- Orthonormality: $\operatorname{tr}(B_i B_j) = \delta_{ij}$
- Traceless for i > 0: $B_0 = \mathbb{I}/\sqrt{d}$ and $\operatorname{tr}(B_i) = 0 \ \forall i > 0$.

Elements of $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ are represented using an 'extension' of Dirac's bra-ket notation called *super bra-ket notation*. Some element B is represented as a column vector $|B\rangle$, and an element of its dual space by a row vector $\langle\!\langle A|$. Everything works similarly to regular Dirac notation, the main difference is that we can represent everything as vectors in $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ rather than the usual matrices.

Measurement of a quantum system yields an outcome from a set of k possibilities. Therefore, the ith outcome can be represented by a dual vector $\langle\langle E_i|$, so that $\Pr(i|\rho) = \langle\langle E_i|\rho\rangle\rangle = \operatorname{tr}(E_i\rho)$. Since they represent probabilities, we require that $E_i \geq 0$ and $\sum_i E_i = \mathbb{I}$. The E_i are called *effects*, and the set $\{E_i\}$ is called a Positive Operator-Valued Measure (POVM). Note that since both states and effects are both Hermitian, we can in fact represent them in the d^2 -dimensional real subspace of $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$. Therefore, any reference to $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ is referring to the real subspace.

1.1.2 Quantum Logic Gates

An ideal quantum logic gate is reversible and corresponds to a unitary transform of \mathcal{H} . Such a gate would transform ρ as $\rho \to U \rho U^{\dagger}$ for some unitary matrix U. This is a linear transformation from $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ to itself; the linear transformation $\rho \to U \rho U^{\dagger}$ is called a superoperator. In reality, logic gates are not perfectly reversible. These superoperators are known as quantum processes or quantum channels. We can represent any superoperator Λ as a $d^2 \times d^2$ matrix, which acts on $|\rho\rangle\rangle \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ by left multiplication. This representation is called the transfer matrix of Λ , and is denoted by S_{Λ} . Thus,

$$\Lambda: |\rho\rangle\rangle \mapsto S_{\Lambda} |\rho\rangle\rangle \tag{1.1}$$

If Λ is performed on some input state ρ , then the probability of outcome E_i is therefore

$$p_i = \langle \langle E_i | S_\Lambda | \rho \rangle \rangle = \text{tr} (E_i S_\Lambda \rho)$$
(1.2)

Not all superoperators describe physical operations. To be physically possible, they must be:

- Trace-preserving: $\operatorname{tr}(\Lambda(\rho))$ must equal 1 for all ρ .
- Completely Positive: when Λ acts on part of a larger system, it must preserve positivity for the entire system. A superoperator is positive iff. $\Lambda(\rho) \geq 0$ for all ρ . A superoperator is completely positive iff. $\Lambda \otimes \mathbb{I}_{\mathcal{A}}$ is positive for any auxiliary state space \mathcal{A} .

This Completely Positive and Trace-Preserving (CPTP) constraint alone is sufficient – any CPTP superoperator can be physically implemented. The TP condition corresponds to $\langle \mathbb{I} | S_{\Lambda} = \langle \mathbb{I} |$. Since our basis is traceless for i > 0, then Λ is TP iff. the first row of S_{Λ} is [1, 0, ..., 0]. The CP condition is a lot more tricky to describe. We first rewrite S_{Λ} in the operator-sum representation:

$$\Lambda: \rho \mapsto \sum_{ij} \chi_{ij}^{\Lambda} B_i \rho B_j^{\dagger} \tag{1.3}$$

where $\{B_i\}$ is a basis, and χ_{ij}^{Λ} is a matrix of coefficients called the "Choi process matrix" which represents Λ . Similarly to the chi matrix representation from earlier, this completely describes Λ (read this answer for more about their relationship). The mapping between S_{Λ} and χ_{ij}^{Λ} is known as the Choi-Jamiołkowski isomorphism:

$$\chi^{\Lambda} = d(S_{\Lambda} \otimes \mathbb{I}) | \Pi_{\text{EPR}} \rangle$$
 (1.4)

where $|\Pi_{EPR}\rangle$ is a maximally entangled state. Note that the equality above really means element-wise equality in a consistent basis. This is all quite complex. Fortunately, the process is simple once we have the Choi process matrix: Λ is CP iff. χ is positive semidefinite.

TODO: Research Choi representation vs. Chi representation

1.1.3 Gate Sets

A quantum processor's capabilities can be specified with a *gate set*. Consider a processor that can perform:

- N_G distinct gates,
- N_{ρ} distinct state preparations,
- N_M distinct measurements, with $N_E^{(m)}$ distinct outcomes.

We can use these to construct a gate set

$$\mathcal{G} = \left\{ \left\{ |\rho^{(i)}\rangle\rangle \right\}_{i=1}^{N_{\rho}} ; \left\{ G_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{N_{G}} ; \left\{ \langle\langle E_{i}^{(m)}| \right\}_{m=1,i=1}^{N_{m},N_{E}^{(m)}} \right\}$$
(1.5)

where

$$G_i: \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}) \to \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}) \quad \text{for} \quad i = 1, \dots, N_G$$

$$|\rho^{(i)}\rangle\rangle \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}) \quad \text{for} \quad i = 1, \dots, N_\rho$$

$$\langle\langle E_i^{(m)} | \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})^* \quad \text{for} \quad m = 1, \dots, N_M, i = 1, \dots, N_E^{(m)}$$

$$(1.6)$$

In other words, we can describe the capabilities of a quantum processor by collecting together the possible 'input states', the quantum gates, and the possible measurement outcomes for each input state.

The operations that a gate set describes are related to each other. In fact, the specification given above is an overspecification of the gate set. Consider a transformation of the gate set that acts as

$$\langle\langle E_i^{(m)}| \to \langle\langle E_i^{(m)}| M^{-1}$$

$$|\rho^{(i)}\rangle\rangle \to M |\rho^{(i)}\rangle\rangle$$

$$G_i \to MG_iM^{-1}$$

$$(1.7)$$

where M is an invertible superoperator. Although this changes the gate set, it does not change the observed probabilities (see Equation 1.10). This means that gate sets in fact describe a family of equivalent gate sets. This degeneracy is known as gauge freedom.

1.1.4 Circuits

The term 'quantum circuit' can refer to different things. There are two related but distinct types of quantum circuit that we're interested in.

- Fixed-Input, Classical-Output (FI/CO): a quantum circuit where each experiment is described by a quantum circuit that begins by initialising and ends by measuring all of the qubits. A FI/CO circuit describes a probability distribution over classical bit strings.
- Quantum-Input, Quantum-Output (QI/QO): a quantum circuit which is an arrangement of unitary logic gates, with no explicit initialisation or measurement. This may be inserted into a large quantum circuit as a 'sub-routine'.

QI/QO circuits are defined as a sequence of layers $S = (\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_L)$. Each layer corresponds to applying some superoperator G_{γ_i} . The entire QI/QO circuit S also corresponds to applying a superoperator. We denote the transfer matrix for S by $\tau(S)$, where

$$\tau(S) = \tau((\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_L)) = G_{\gamma_L} \dots G_{\gamma_2} G_{\gamma_1}$$
(1.8)

which is formed by composing the elements from each layer. Exponentiation of a circuit describes repetition, and since $S^2 = SS$, it follows that

$$\tau(S^n) = \tau(S)^n \tag{1.9}$$

For a set of FI/CO circuits, we can generate data sets by repeating each one N times, and recording the results. The results are summarized by observed frequencies, $f_k = n_k/N$, which approaches the corresponding probabilities

$$f_k \approx \langle \langle E_k^{(m)} | G_{\gamma_L} \dots G_{\gamma_2} G_{\gamma_1} | \rho^{(i)} \rangle \rangle$$
 (1.10)

and can be used to estimate them. This is not the only way to do so, but it illustrates that we can infer some of $|\rho^{(i)}\rangle\rangle$, $\langle\langle E_k^{(m)}|$, and G_j based on observed frequencies. This is called tomography. Each type of tomography treats some of the operations as known, and uses them as the reference frame to estimate the others.

1.1.5 Tomography

Quantum State Tomography

In order to perform *any* type of tomography, we must have a *fiducial* and *informationally complete* set. "Fiducial" means that it is accepted as a fixed basis of reference, and "informationally complete" means that it will uniquely identify any target information.

In the context of state tomography, we're aiming to describe some unknown quantum state ρ , given some fiducial and informationally complete measurements. In other words, the measurements are a frame of reference and must uniquely identify ρ . This implies that the set of measurements $\{E_i^{(m)}\}_{m,i}$ must span the entire space of effects. To perform state tomography, many copies of ρ are

made available, and divided into M pools. The mth fiducial measurement is applied to all the copies in the mth pool, and used to estimate the probabilities,

$$p_i^{(m)}(\rho) = \operatorname{tr}\left(\rho E_i^{(m)}\right) \tag{1.11}$$

which should uniquely identify ρ . In general, this is only true if we have infinite copies of ρ . In practice, we have limited numbers of ρ , and therefore $\hat{p}_i = f_i$ where f_i are the frequencies for each measurement. This often yields an estimate $\hat{\rho}$ which is not positive. Nevertheless, it is still useful.

Let's assume that we have the exact probabilities for each measurement outcome for the state ρ . We can in fact ignore the measurements themselves, what is important is the list of effects, so we can write the set simply as $\{E_j : j = 1, ..., N_{f1}\}$ where f1 is the total number of distinct measurement outcomes. Additionally, we can represent these as dual vectors $\langle\langle E_j|$ in $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ just like before. To recover ρ , we can write Born's rule as an inner product,

$$p_{j} = \operatorname{tr}(E_{j}\rho)$$

$$= \langle \langle E_{j} | \rho \rangle \rangle$$
(1.12)

Then, we can stack all of the effects into a single $N_{f1} \times d^2$ matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \langle \langle E_1 | \\ \langle \langle E_2 | \\ \vdots \\ \langle \langle E_{N_{f1}} | \end{bmatrix}$$
 (1.13)

which gives $\vec{p} = A |\rho\rangle$. If A is square, then we can recover ρ with:

$$|\rho\rangle\rangle = A^{-1}\vec{p} \tag{1.14}$$

If N_{f1} is greater than d^2 , making A non-square, we must solve with a pseudo-inverse:

$$(A^{T}A)^{-1}A^{T}\vec{p} = (A^{T}A)^{-1}A^{T}A |\rho\rangle\rangle$$

$$= (A^{T}A)^{-1}(A^{T}A) |\rho\rangle\rangle$$

$$= I |\rho\rangle\rangle$$

$$= |\rho\rangle\rangle$$
(1.15)

Quantum Process Tomography

In the context of process tomography, we're aiming to describe some quantum process (e.g. a quantum gate), given an informationally complete set of known fiducial states. Broadly, we prepare many copies of them, pass them through the target process, and perform state tomography on the output states.

Let G be the superoperator representing the process we want to reconstruct. If state ρ_i is prepared, G is applied, and measurement is performed with possible outcomes $\{E_j\}$, then the probability of observing E_j is

$$Pj, i = \operatorname{tr} (E_j G[\rho_i])$$

$$= \langle \langle E_j | G | \rho_i \rangle \rangle$$
(1.16)

We can then define a $d^2 \times N_{f2}$ matrix B, similarly to A, which represents the fiducial states $|\rho_i\rangle$:

$$B = [|\rho_1\rangle\rangle \quad |\rho_2\rangle\rangle \quad \dots \quad |\rho_{N_{f_2}}\rangle\rangle] \tag{1.17}$$

which gives the $N_{f1} \times N_{f2}$ matrix P = AGB. Similarly to before, we can recover G with (pseudo)-inverses. If P is square, we can recover G with:

$$G = A^{-1}PB^{-1} (1.18)$$

If P is non-square, then again we use a pseudo-inverse:

$$G = (A^{T}A)^{-1}A^{T}PB^{T}(BB^{T})^{-1}$$
(1.19)

Calibration

The requirements of fiducial states/measurements in state and process tomography show why GST being calibration-free is important. In practice, we never have access to perfectly known states/measurements, and they're also not noiseless. In order to identify the exact fiducial measurements for state tomography, we would need perfectly known states, which would require state tomography. Similarly, process tomography relies on fiducial states and measurements which are almost always produced by applying quantum logic gates. Identifying these would again require process tomography. It's an endless loop of self-referentiality.

1.1.6 Linear Gate Set Tomography (LGST)

Linear Gate Set Tomography (LGST) looks very much like process tomography, but is doing something significantly different. Unlike process tomography, it reconstructs the entire gate set up to gauge freedom as shown in Equation 1.7. Quantum operations are usually described relative to an implicit and absolute reference frame. But in most experiments, no such reference frame is available. GST characterises all of these operations relative to each other, and estimates every property of a gate set that can be measured without a reference frame. Those that cannot be measured without a reference frame correspond to gauge degrees of freedom.

Because of gauge freedom, the representation produced by LGST is generally not unique. Another shortcoming of LGST is its similarity to process tomography. N trials of an event with probability p generally yields $\hat{p} = p \pm O(1/\sqrt{N})$, meaning that errors scale with $O(1/\sqrt{N})$ like process tomography. Therefore, in order to estimate a gate set to within $\pm 10^{-5}$ would require repeating each circuit $N \approx 10^{10}$ times, which is impractical.

LGST Algorithm

We make some assumptions first, which we relax later:

- We can create informationally complete sets of fiducial states and measurement effects. However, we do not know them.
- We ignore finite sample error.
- We assume that the fiducial states and effects are *exactly* informationally complete, giving $N_{f1} = N_{f2} = d^2$.

Similarly to process tomography, to reconstruct the set of gates $\{G_k\}$, we require a matrix P_k for each gate:

$$[P_k]_{i,j} = \langle \langle E_i' | G_k | \rho_j' \rangle \rangle \tag{1.20}$$

We don't know what ρ'_j and E'_i are, but we are able to prepare them, meaning that we can measure the probabilities that they produce. As before, we have

$$P_k = AG_k B (1.21)$$

but we do not know what A or B are. So it may seem that we cannot solve for G_k . Instead, we measure some additional probabilities that correspond to tomography on the null operation which will take our ignorance about ρ'_i and E'_i into account. We arrange these into a Gram matrix

$$\tilde{\mathbb{1}}_{i,j} = \langle \langle E_i' | \rho_j' \rangle \rangle \tag{1.22}$$

which is in fact $\tilde{1} = AB$. Then we can solve for G_k with

$$G_k = B\tilde{1}^{-1} P_k B^{-1} \tag{1.23}$$

To reconstruct the states $\rho^{(l)}$ and measurement effects $\{E_l^{(m)}\}$, we can similarly construct vectors of observable probabilities:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{R}^{(l)} \end{bmatrix}_{j} = \langle \langle E'_{j} | \rho^{(l)} \rangle \rangle
\begin{bmatrix} \vec{Q}^{(m)} \end{bmatrix}_{j} = \langle \langle E^{(m)}_{l} | \rho'_{j} \rangle \rangle$$
(1.24)

Measuring these probabilities corresponds to state tomography on each native state $\rho^{(l)}$, and measurement tomography on every native effect $\{E_l^{(m)}\}$. They can be written in terms of A and B as

$$\vec{R}^{(l)} = A |\rho^{(l)}\rangle\rangle$$

$$\vec{Q}_l^{(m)T} = \langle\langle E_l^{(m)} | \rho_i' \rangle\rangle$$
(1.25)

which we can sub $\tilde{1} = AB$ into to get:

$$G_k = B\tilde{1}^{-1}P_k B^{-1} \tag{1.26}$$

$$|\rho^{(l)}\rangle\rangle = B\tilde{\mathbb{1}}^{-1}\vec{R}^{(l)} \tag{1.27}$$

$$\langle\!\langle E_l^{(m)}| = \vec{Q}_l^{(m)T} B^{-1} \tag{1.28}$$

This has recovered the original gate set up to gauge freedom! The best choice for B requires a posteriori gauge-fixing.

TODO: Look at gauge-fixing

Over-Completeness

We assumed that $N_{f1} = N_{f2} = d^2$, but this isn't always the case. This means that A, B and P_k are generally not square and invertible. Additionally, due to finite sample errors,

$$P_k = AG_k B$$

$$\tilde{\mathbb{I}} = AB \tag{1.29}$$

may not have exact solutions. Instead we can find an approximate solution with a least-squares estimator, i.e. we want to minimise $|P_k - AG_kB|^2$ and $|\tilde{\mathbb{1}} - AB|^2$. For $|\tilde{\mathbb{1}} - AB|^2$, using differentiation yields

$$A = \tilde{\mathbb{I}}B^T (BB^T)^{-1} \tag{1.30}$$

We can do the same for $|P_k - AG_kB|^2$ and solve for G_k with pseudo-inverses, yielding

$$G_k = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T P_k B^T (B B^T)^{-1}$$
(1.31)

and substituting A from before yields

$$G_k = B \left[B^T \left(B \tilde{\mathbb{1}}^T \tilde{\mathbb{1}} \right)^{-1} B \right] \tilde{\mathbb{1}}^T P_k \left[B^T (BB^T)^{-1} \right]$$
(1.32)

This is just a generic version of the formulation from before, however, B is no longer assumed to be square and invertible. In this case, this isn't true, which means that B does affect the probability estimates, but only through its support. B has dimensions $d^2 \times N_{f1}$, but since the fiducial states are informationally complete, then its rows only span a d^2 -dimensional subspace of the space of observable probabilities.

We can write B as $B = B_0\Pi$ where Π is a $d^2 \times N_{f1}$ matrix and B_0 is a $d^2 \times d^2$ matrix. Here, B_0 determines only the gauge, while Π has a real effect – we can choose B_0 arbitrarily, but not Π . To choose an optimal Π , first we rewrite out AB using Equation 1.30 as

$$AB = \tilde{\mathbb{1}}B^T (BB^T)^{-1}B = \tilde{\mathbb{1}}\Pi^T \Pi$$
(1.33)

and then defining the complement projector $\Pi_c = \mathbb{I} - \Pi^T \Pi$ gives

$$|\tilde{1} - AB|^2 = \operatorname{tr}\left(\Pi_c \tilde{1}^T \tilde{1}\Pi_c\right) \tag{1.34}$$

This is uniquely minimised by choosing Π to be the projector onto the d^2 right singular vectors of $\tilde{\mathbb{I}}$ with the largest singular values. I think this is referring to decomposing $\tilde{\mathbb{I}} = U\Sigma V^*$ using SVD, and projecting onto the first d^2 vectors of V^* . I am not sure why this minimises $|\tilde{\mathbb{I}} - AB|^2$.

TODO: Find out why tr $(\Pi_c \tilde{1}^T \tilde{1} \Pi_c)$ is minimised by using SVD here.

Substituting $B = B_0\Pi$ into the estimates for native states, gates, and effects yields

$$|\rho^{(l)}\rangle\rangle = B_0 \left(\Pi \tilde{1}^T \tilde{1} \Pi^T\right)^{-1} \Pi \tilde{1}^T \vec{R}^{(l)}$$
(1.35)

$$G_k = B_0 \left(\Pi \tilde{\mathbb{1}}^T \tilde{\mathbb{1}} \Pi^T \right)^{-1} \left(\Pi \tilde{\mathbb{1}}^T P_k \Pi^T \right) B_0^{-1}$$

$$(1.36)$$

$$\langle\!\langle E_l^{(m)} | = \left[\vec{Q}_l^{(m)} \right]^T \Pi^T B_0^{-1}$$
(1.37)

Bibliography

[1] E. Nielsen, J. K. Gamble, K. Rudinger, T. Scholten, K. Young, and R. Blume-Kohout, "Gate Set Tomography," arXiv:2009.07301 [quant-ph], Sept. 2020.