

Preliminaries for Haar–POVM Tomography: Groups, Permutations, and Conjugacy

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Note. This write-up follows the organization of John Wright’s *Quantum Learning Theory* course notes (UC Berkeley, 2024)

Sources. Standard references include Nielsen–Chuang, Watrous, and Wright’s course notes [1, 2, 3].

1 Groups and Actions

Definition 1 (Group). A *group* is a set G with a binary operation $(g, h) \mapsto gh$ such that (i) associativity holds, (ii) there is an identity $e \in G$ with $eg = ge = g$, and (iii) every $g \in G$ has an inverse g^{-1} with $gg^{-1} = g^{-1}g = e$.

Definition 2 (Homomorphism and isomorphism). A map $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ between groups is a *homomorphism* if $\varphi(gh) = \varphi(g)\varphi(h)$ for all $g, h \in G$. If, in addition, φ is bijective, it is an *isomorphism*.

Definition 3 (Group action (left action)). A *(left) action* of G on a set X is a map $G \times X \rightarrow X$, $(g, x) \mapsto g \cdot x$, such that $e \cdot x = x$ and $(gh) \cdot x = g \cdot (h \cdot x)$. We also write a homomorphism $G \rightarrow \text{Sym}(X)$, $g \mapsto (x \mapsto g \cdot x)$.

Definition 4 (Orbit and stabilizer). For $x \in X$, the *orbit* is $\mathcal{O}(x) = \{g \cdot x : g \in G\}$ and the *stabilizer* is $G_x = \{g \in G : g \cdot x = x\}$.

Remark 1 (Orbit–stabilizer (finite case)). If G is finite, then $|G| = |G_x| \cdot |\mathcal{O}(x)|$ for every $x \in X$.

2 Permutations and the symmetric group

Let $[n] = \{1, \dots, n\}$.

Definition 5 (Permutation and S_n). A *permutation* of $[n]$ is a bijection $\pi : [n] \rightarrow [n]$. The set of all permutations is the *symmetric group* S_n , with composition $(\pi\sigma)(i) = \pi(\sigma(i))$. We use two-line notation

$$\pi = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \\ \pi(1) & \pi(2) & \cdots & \pi(n) \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{or cycle notation, e.g. } \pi = (1\ 3\ 2)(4\ 5)(6).$$

Proposition 1 (Basic identities). For $\pi, \sigma \in S_n$, π^{-1} is the inverse permutation, $\pi\pi^{-1} = \pi^{-1}\pi = \text{id}$, and composition is associative.

Examples of permutation groups (subgroups of S_n)

Example 1.

$$\pi = (1\ 3\ 2)(4\ 5)(6) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 & 5 & 4 & 6 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\pi^{-1} = (1\ 2\ 3)(4\ 5)(6) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 5 & 4 & 6 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Example 2.

$$\text{id} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\text{id}_{S_n} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \\ 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \end{pmatrix}.$$

Example 3 (Cyclic subgroup generated by an n -cycle). If $c = (1\ 2 \dots n)$, then $\langle c \rangle = \{e, c, c^2, \dots, c^{n-1}\} \cong \mathbb{Z}_n$.

Example 4 (Dihedral group D_n). Act on the vertices of a regular n -gon labeled $1, \dots, n$ by rotations and reflections. As a subgroup of S_n , $D_n = \langle (1\ 2 \dots n), (2\ n)(3\ n-1) \cdots \rangle$ has order $2n$.

Example 5 (Alternating group A_n). $A_n = \{\pi \in S_n : \pi \text{ is even}\}$ is a normal subgroup of index 2.

Example 6 (Young (block) subgroups). For a partition $n = m_1 + \dots + m_r$, the subgroup $S_{m_1} \times \dots \times S_{m_r} \subseteq S_n$ permutes elements within each block; useful for symmetrizing tensor indices.

2.1 Permutation representation on n registers

Let $\mathcal{H} \cong \mathbb{C}^d$ and consider $\mathcal{H}^{\otimes n}$ with computational basis $\{|i_1, \dots, i_n\rangle\}$.

Definition 6 (Unitary permutation operators). For $\pi \in S_n$, define $P(\pi)$ by

$$P(\pi) |i_1, \dots, i_n\rangle = |i_{\pi^{-1}(1)}, \dots, i_{\pi^{-1}(n)}\rangle. \quad (1)$$

Proposition 2 (Homomorphism property). $P : S_n \rightarrow \text{U}(\mathcal{H}^{\otimes n})$ is a group homomorphism (representation): $P(\pi)P(\sigma) = P(\pi\sigma)$, $P(\text{id}) = \mathbb{1}$, and $P(\pi)^{-1} = P(\pi^{-1})$.

Remark 2. For this property, we will extend to the representation theory in a later document.

Remark 3 (Symmetric subspace). The symmetric subspace is the $+1$ eigenspace of all $P(\pi)$, i.e. vectors invariant under every permutation of the n registers.

3 Conjugacy in groups and in S_n

Definition 7 (Conjugacy and conjugacy class). In a group G , elements g, h are *conjugate* if there exists $x \in G$ with $h = xgx^{-1}$. The *conjugacy class* of g is $C_G(g) = \{xgx^{-1} : x \in G\}$.

Definition 8 (Cycle type in S_n). Write a permutation $\pi \in S_n$ as a product of disjoint cycles. If m_ℓ denotes the number of ℓ -cycles of π (so $\sum_{\ell \geq 1} \ell m_\ell = n$), then the *cycle type* of π is the multiset of lengths

$$\text{type}(\pi) = 1^{m_1} 2^{m_2} 3^{m_3} \dots,$$

equivalently the partition $n = \sum_{\ell \geq 1} \ell m_\ell$.

Theorem 1 (Conjugacy in S_n = same cycle type). *Two permutations $\pi, \sigma \in S_n$ are conjugate in S_n if and only if their cycle decompositions have the same cycle type (i.e. the same multiset of cycle lengths).*

Proof sketch. If $\sigma = \tau\pi\tau^{-1}$, then σ is obtained from π by relabeling symbols via τ ; conjugation preserves cycle lengths, so cycle types match. Conversely, if π and σ have the same cycle type, pair each cycle of π with a cycle of σ of the same length and define a bijection τ that maps elements along corresponding positions in each cycle. Then $\tau\pi\tau^{-1} = \sigma$. \square

Example 7 (Same cycle type \Rightarrow same conjugacy class). In S_6 let

$$\pi = (1\ 3\ 2)(4\ 5)(6) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 & 5 & 4 & 6 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Its cycle type is $3^1 2^1 1^1$ (partition $3 + 2 + 1$). The permutation

$$\sigma = (1\ 4\ 2)(3)(5\ 6) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 4 & 1 & 3 & 2 & 6 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

has the same cycle type $3^1 2^1 1^1$, hence π and σ are conjugate in S_6 .

Example 8 (Other basic types). The identity has type 1^n . Any transposition (ab) has type $2^1 1^{n-2}$ (so all transpositions are conjugate). A 4-cycle (e.g. $(1\ 2\ 3\ 4)$ in S_6) has type $4^1 1^2$, which is *not* the same as $3^1 2^1 1^1$, so it lies in a different conjugacy class.

Proposition 3 (Size of a conjugacy class in S_n). *Let the cycle type of $\pi \in S_n$ be specified by integers $m_\ell \geq 0$ (the number of ℓ -cycles), so that $\sum_{\ell \geq 1} \ell m_\ell = n$. Then*

$$|C_{S_n}(\pi)| = \frac{n!}{\prod_{\ell \geq 1} \ell^{m_\ell} m_\ell!}.$$

Example 9. In S_6 , the type $(3)(2)(1)$ has $m_1 = 1, m_2 = 1, m_3 = 1$. The conjugation class size is $6!/(1^1 1! \cdot 2^1 1! \cdot 3^1 1!) = 720/6 = 120$.

Unitary representations

Definition 9 (Unitary representation). Let G be a group and V a complex inner-product space. A *unitary representation* of G on V is a homomorphism $\mu : G \rightarrow \text{U}(V)$, i.e. $\mu(gh) = \mu(g)\mu(h)$ for all $g, h \in G$, and each $\mu(g)$ is unitary.

Permutation (tensor) representation of S_n . Let $\mathcal{H} \cong \mathbb{C}^d$ and consider $\mathcal{H}^{\otimes n}$ with computational basis $\{|i_1, \dots, i_n\rangle : i_k \in [d]\}$. For $\pi \in S_n$ define

$$P(\pi) |i_1, \dots, i_n\rangle = |i_{\pi^{-1}(1)}, \dots, i_{\pi^{-1}(n)}\rangle.$$

Then $P : S_n \rightarrow \text{U}(\mathcal{H}^{\otimes n})$ is a unitary representation: $P(\pi)P(\sigma) = P(\pi\sigma)$, $P(\text{id}) = \text{Id}$, and $P(\pi)^\dagger = P(\pi^{-1})$ (so $P(\pi)$ is unitary).

Example 10 ($n = 2$: the SWAP). For $\pi = (1\ 2)$, $P(\pi) |i, j\rangle = |j, i\rangle$; this is the usual SWAP gate. Its matrix in the basis $\{|00\rangle, |01\rangle, |10\rangle, |11\rangle\}$ is

$$\text{SWAP} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Symmetric states and the symmetric subspace

Definition 10 (Symmetric vector and subspace). A vector $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}^{\otimes n}$ is *symmetric* if $P(\pi)|\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$ for all $\pi \in S_n$. The *symmetric subspace* is

$$\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d) = \{|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}^{\otimes n} : P(\pi)|\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle \ \forall \pi \in S_n\}.$$

Example 11 (Symmetric vectors). For any $|v\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^d$, the n -fold product $|v\rangle^{\otimes n}$ is symmetric. For $d = 2$, $n = 2$, the vectors $|00\rangle$, $|11\rangle$, and $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|01\rangle + |10\rangle)$ are symmetric. The uniform superposition $\sum_{x \in [d]^n} |x\rangle$ is also symmetric.

Type classes (histograms) and type vectors

Fix d, n . For a string $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in [d]^n$, its *type (histogram)* is $\tau(x) = (\tau_1, \dots, \tau_d)$ where $\tau_a = \#\{k : x_k = a\}$ and $\sum_{a=1}^d \tau_a = n$. Let $T_\tau = \{x \in [d]^n : \tau(x) = \tau\}$ and define the *type vector*

$$|\tau\rangle := \frac{1}{\sqrt{|T_\tau|}} \sum_{x \in T_\tau} |x\rangle.$$

Proposition 4. *Each $|\tau\rangle$ is symmetric; the family $\{|\tau\rangle\}$ (over all histograms τ) is orthonormal.*

Proof. For any π , $P(\pi)$ permutes the strings inside T_τ , so $P(\pi)|\tau\rangle = |\tau\rangle$. If $\tau \neq \tau'$, then $T_\tau \cap T_{\tau'} = \emptyset$, hence $\langle \tau | \tau' \rangle = 0$. Normalization is by the $1/\sqrt{|T_\tau|}$ factor. \square

Theorem 2 (Type basis and dimension). *The type vectors $\{|\tau\rangle\}$ form an orthonormal basis of $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$. Consequently,*

$$\dim \text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d) = \#\{\text{histograms } \tau\} = \binom{n+d-1}{d-1}.$$

Idea. Any symmetric vector must assign equal amplitudes to all strings of the same type (otherwise some permutation changes the state), so it lies in the span of $\{|\tau\rangle\}$; together with Proposition 4, these vectors form an ONB. Counting histograms is the stars-and-bars argument. \square

Span by product states and a Vandermonde argument

Define $S := \text{span}\{|v\rangle^{\otimes n} : |v\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^d\}$. Clearly $S \subseteq \text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$. We show $S = \text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$ by proving that each type vector lies in S .

Case $d = 2$ (explicit). Write types as $\tau_i = (n-i, i)$, $i = 0, \dots, n$, and $|\tau_i\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\binom{n}{i}}} \sum_{|x|=i} |x\rangle$, where $|x|$ counts 1's. For any $z \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$(|0\rangle + z|1\rangle)^{\otimes n} = \sum_{i=0}^n z^i \sqrt{\binom{n}{i}} |\tau_i\rangle.$$

Choose $K = n+1$ distinct complex numbers z_1, \dots, z_{n+1} and consider the system

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n+1} \alpha_j (|0\rangle + z_j |1\rangle)^{\otimes n} = \sqrt{\binom{n}{i^\star}} |\tau_{i^\star}\rangle.$$

This reduces to the linear equations $\sum_j \alpha_j z_j^i = \delta_{i, i^\star}$ for $i = 0, \dots, n$, whose coefficient matrix is the $(n+1) \times (n+1)$ Vandermonde $V = (z_j^i)$. Since the z_j are distinct, V is invertible; thus every $|\tau_i\rangle$ is a linear combination of $|v\rangle^{\otimes n}$'s, so S contains the type basis.

General d . This is a high-level understanding of the proof later. A multivariate version uses $(\sum_{a=1}^d z_a |a\rangle)^{\otimes n}$ and separates coefficients by choosing a finite grid of d -tuples $z^{(j)} = (z_1^{(j)}, \dots, z_d^{(j)})$ so that the associated multivariate Vandermonde matrix is invertible; this yields each $|\tau\rangle$. Hence $S = \text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$.

Concrete examples ($n = 2, d = 2$)

Type classes and type vectors:

$$\tau = (2, 0) : |\tau\rangle = |00\rangle, \quad \tau = (0, 2) : |\tau\rangle = |11\rangle, \quad \tau = (1, 1) : |\tau\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|01\rangle + |10\rangle).$$

Recovering $|\tau = (1, 1)\rangle$ from product states:

$$\frac{1}{2}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)^{\otimes 2} - \frac{1}{2}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)^{\otimes 2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|01\rangle + |10\rangle).$$

Theorem 3 (Product-state span equals the symmetric subspace). *Let $\mathcal{H} \simeq \mathbb{C}^d$. Then*

$$\text{span}\{ |v\rangle^{\otimes n} : |v\rangle \in \mathcal{H} \} = \text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d).$$

Proof. It is clear that every $|v\rangle^{\otimes n}$ is invariant under all register permutations, so the left-hand side is contained in $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$. To prove the reverse inclusion we show that the standard *type (histogram) basis* of $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$ lies in the span of product states.

Step 1 (set up type vectors). For $d = 2$ write types as $\tau_i = (n - i, i)$ and define

$$|\tau_i\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\binom{n}{i}}} \sum_{\substack{x \in \{0,1\}^n \\ |x|=i}} |x\rangle, \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

Then $\{|\tau_i\rangle\}_{i=0}^n$ is an orthonormal basis of $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^2)$. The binomial expansion gives, for any $z \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$(|0\rangle + z|1\rangle)^{\otimes n} = \sum_{i=0}^n z^i \sqrt{\binom{n}{i}} |\tau_i\rangle. \quad (2)$$

Step 2 (Vandermonde isolation for $d = 2$). Fix $i^* \in \{0, \dots, n\}$. Choose $K = n + 1$ distinct complex numbers z_1, \dots, z_{n+1} and seek coefficients $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{n+1}$ such that

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n+1} \alpha_j (|0\rangle + z_j |1\rangle)^{\otimes n} = |\tau_{i^*}\rangle.$$

Using (2) this is equivalent to the linear system

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n+1} \alpha_j z_j^i = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\binom{n}{i^*}}}, & i = i^*, \\ 0, & i \neq i^*, \end{cases} \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

In matrix form $V\alpha = e_{i^*} / \sqrt{\binom{n}{i^*}}$, where

$$V = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ z_1 & z_2 & \cdots & z_{n+1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ z_1^n & z_2^n & \cdots & z_{n+1}^n \end{pmatrix}$$

is the $(n+1) \times (n+1)$ Vandermonde matrix. Since the z_j are distinct, V is invertible; hence such α exists and $|\tau_{i^*}\rangle$ is a linear combination of product states. As the $|\tau_i\rangle$'s span $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^2)$, we have equality for $d = 2$.

Step 3 (general d via a univariate reduction). For $d \geq 2$, index types by $m = (m_1, \dots, m_d) \in \mathbb{N}^d$ with $|m| := \sum_a m_a = n$ and set

$$|\tau_m\rangle := \sqrt{\frac{\prod_{a=1}^d m_a!}{n!}} \sum_{\substack{x \in [d]^n \\ \text{type}(x)=m}} |x\rangle,$$

an orthonormal basis of $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$. The multinomial theorem yields, for $z = (z_1, \dots, z_d) \in \mathbb{C}^d$,

$$\left(\sum_{a=1}^d z_a |a\rangle\right)^{\otimes n} = \sum_{|m|=n} z^m \sqrt{\frac{n!}{\prod_a m_a!}} |\tau_m\rangle, \quad z^m := \prod_{a=1}^d z_a^{m_a}. \quad (3)$$

Choose a base $B := n + 1$ and distinct scalars t_1, \dots, t_M with $M = \binom{n+d-1}{d-1}$. Define points $z^{(j)} \in \mathbb{C}^d$ by

$$z_a^{(j)} := t_j^{B^{a-1}}, \quad a = 1, \dots, d.$$

For $|m| = n$ the monomial evaluates to

$$(z^{(j)})^m = \prod_{a=1}^d t_j^{m_a B^{a-1}} = t_j^{\sum_{a=1}^d m_a B^{a-1}}.$$

Because $0 \leq m_a \leq n$ and the base is $B = n + 1$, the exponent $\sum_a m_a B^{a-1}$ is the base- B encoding of m ; distinct m 's yield distinct exponents. Thus the evaluation matrix with entries $(z^{(j)})^m$ is a (rectangular) Vandermonde in the variables t_j with *distinct* exponents, hence has full row rank. Arguing exactly as in Step 2, we can linearly combine the product states $(\sum_a z_a^{(j)} |a\rangle)^{\otimes n}$ to isolate any fixed $|\tau_m\rangle$. Therefore, every type of vector lies in the span of product states, proving the reverse inclusion. \square

Definition 11 (Symmetrizer / projector onto the symmetric subspace). Let $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d) \subset (\mathbb{C}^d)^{\otimes n}$ be the symmetric subspace. Define the *symmetrizer*

$$\Pi_{\text{sym}} := \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\pi \in S_n} P(\pi).$$

Proposition 5 (Uniform pushforward on S_n). *If π is uniform on S_n and $\sigma \in S_n$ is fixed, then $\pi\sigma$ is also uniform. Equivalently, for any function $f : S_n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$,*

$$\mathbb{E}_{\pi \sim S_n} f(\pi\sigma) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi \sim S_n} f(\pi), \quad \text{and} \quad \Pr[\pi = \tau] = \frac{1}{n!} \quad \forall \tau \in S_n.$$

Theorem 4 (Averaging projector). *The operator Π_{sym} defined in Definition 11 is the orthogonal projector onto $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$. In particular,*

$$\Pi_{\text{sym}}^\dagger = \Pi_{\text{sym}}, \quad \Pi_{\text{sym}}^2 = \Pi_{\text{sym}}, \quad \text{Ran}(\Pi_{\text{sym}}) = \text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d).$$

Proof. Hermitian. Since $P(\pi)^\dagger = P(\pi^{-1})$ and the map $\pi \mapsto \pi^{-1}$ is a bijection of S_n ,

$$\Pi_{\text{sym}}^\dagger = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\pi \in S_n} P(\pi)^\dagger = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\pi \in S_n} P(\pi^{-1}) = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\pi \in S_n} P(\pi) = \Pi_{\text{sym}}.$$

Idempotent. Using group multiplication and Proposition 5,

$$\Pi_{\text{sym}}^2 = \left(\frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\pi} P(\pi) \right) \left(\frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\sigma} P(\sigma) \right) = \frac{1}{(n!)^2} \sum_{\pi, \sigma} P(\pi\sigma) = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\tau \in S_n} P(\tau) = \Pi_{\text{sym}},$$

because for each fixed τ there are exactly $n!$ pairs (π, σ) with $\pi\sigma = \tau$ (take any σ and set $\pi = \tau\sigma^{-1}$).

Since Π_{sym} is Hermitian and idempotent, it is an orthogonal projector onto its range.

Range equals the symmetric subspace. (i) If $|\psi\rangle \in \text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$, then $P(\pi)|\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$ for all π ; hence $\Pi_{\text{sym}}|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\pi} |\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$. Thus $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d) \subseteq \text{Ran}(\Pi_{\text{sym}})$.

(ii) Conversely, for any $|\phi\rangle$ and any $\sigma \in S_n$,

$$P(\sigma)\Pi_{\text{sym}}|\phi\rangle = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\pi} P(\sigma\pi)|\phi\rangle = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\tau} P(\tau)|\phi\rangle = \Pi_{\text{sym}}|\phi\rangle,$$

relabeling $\tau = \sigma\pi$. Hence $\Pi_{\text{sym}}|\phi\rangle$ is invariant under all permutations, so $\text{Ran}(\Pi_{\text{sym}}) \subseteq \text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$.

Combining (i) and (ii) completes the proof. \square

Example 12 ($n = 2$). Here $S_2 = \{e, (12)\}$ and $P(12) = \text{SWAP}$. Thus

$$\Pi_{\text{sym}} = \frac{1}{2}(I + \text{SWAP}),$$

which projects onto the span of $\{|00\rangle, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|01\rangle + |10\rangle), |11\rangle\}$.

4 The symmetric subspace and the unitary group action

Definition 12 (Unitary group). $U(d) = \{U \in \mathbb{C}^{d \times d} : U^\dagger U = UU^\dagger = I\}$.

Proposition 6. $U(d)$ is a group under matrix multiplication (associativity, identity I , and inverses U^\dagger).

Definition 13 (Tensor (diagonal) action of $U(d)$). For $n \geq 1$ and $U \in U(d)$ define the unitary on $(\mathbb{C}^d)^{\otimes n}$

$$Q(U) := U^{\otimes n}.$$

Fact 1 (Representation property). $Q : U(d) \rightarrow U((\mathbb{C}^d)^{\otimes n})$ is a unitary representation since $Q(U)Q(V) = U^{\otimes n}V^{\otimes n} = (UV)^{\otimes n} = Q(UV)$.

Proposition 7 (Invariance of the symmetric subspace). Let $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d) \subset (\mathbb{C}^d)^{\otimes n}$ be the symmetric subspace. Then $Q(U)\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d) \subseteq \text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$ for every $U \in U(d)$.

Proof. By Theorem “product-state span = symmetric subspace”, every $|\psi\rangle \in \text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$ can be written as $|\psi\rangle = \sum_i \alpha_i |v_i\rangle^{\otimes n}$. Then $Q(U)|\psi\rangle = \sum_i \alpha_i (U|v_i\rangle)^{\otimes n}$, which is again a linear combination of n -fold product states, hence symmetric. \square

Remark 4. The permutation representation $P : S_n \rightarrow U((\mathbb{C}^d)^{\otimes n})$ acts trivially on $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$: $P(\pi)|\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$ for all $\pi \in S_n$ and $|\psi\rangle \in \text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$.

Haar measure and Haar-random vectors

Definition 14 (Haar measure on $U(d)$). The (normalized) Haar measure μ_{Haar} is the unique probability measure on $U(d)$ that is invariant under left and right multiplication: $\mu_{\text{Haar}}(VUW) = \mu_{\text{Haar}}(U)$ for all fixed $V, W \in U(d)$.

Fact 2 (Haar pushforward to the sphere). Fix any unit vector $|v\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^d$. If $U \sim \mu_{\text{Haar}}$, then $U|v\rangle$ is a *Haar-random unit vector* (i.e., uniformly distributed on the complex unit sphere). Conversely, a Haar-random unitary can be obtained by sampling d i.i.d. complex Gaussian vectors, applying Gram–Schmidt, and stacking them as columns.

Theorem 5 (Haar moment on the symmetric projector). *Let $|v\rangle$ be a Haar-random unit vector in \mathbb{C}^d and*

$$M := \mathbb{E}[|v\rangle\langle v|^{\otimes n}].$$

Then M is a scalar multiple of the symmetrizer $\Pi_{\text{sym}} = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\pi \in S_n} P(\pi)$, namely

$$M = \frac{1}{\binom{n+d-1}{d-1}} \Pi_{\text{sym}}.$$

Proof. (i) *Invariance under $U(d)$.* If $U \sim \mu_{\text{Haar}}$, then $U|v\rangle$ is Haar-random; hence

$$U^{\otimes n} M U^{\otimes n \dagger} = \mathbb{E}[(U|v\rangle\langle v|U^\dagger)^{\otimes n}] = M.$$

Thus M lies in the commutant of $Q(U(d)) = \{U^{\otimes n}\}$.

(ii) *Support in the symmetric subspace.* Each sample $|v\rangle\langle v|^{\otimes n}$ has range contained in $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$; therefore so does M . Hence M acts as zero on the orthogonal complement of $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$.

(iii) *Proportionality to Π_{sym} .* By Schur–Weyl duality (or by the fact that the only operators on the irreducible $U(d)$ -module $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$ commuting with all $U^{\otimes n}$ are scalars), the restriction of M to $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$ is a scalar multiple of the identity there: $M = c \Pi_{\text{sym}}$ for some $c > 0$.

(iv) *Determine c by traces.* Since $\text{Tr}(|v\rangle\langle v|^{\otimes n}) = 1$, we have $\text{Tr}(M) = 1$. Also $\text{Tr}(\Pi_{\text{sym}}) = \dim \text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d) = \binom{n+d-1}{d-1}$. Therefore $1 = \text{Tr}(M) = c \binom{n+d-1}{d-1}$, giving $c = \binom{n+d-1}{d-1}^{-1}$. \square

Example 13 ($n = 2$). Using $\Pi_{\text{sym}} = \frac{1}{2}(I + F)$ (with F the swap),

$$\mathbb{E}[|v\rangle\langle v|^{\otimes 2}] = \frac{2}{d(d+1)} \Pi_{\text{sym}} = \frac{I + F}{d(d+1)},$$

the familiar second-moment identity.

4.1 Toy example: the $n = 1$ case

Let $|v\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^d$ be Haar-random on the unit sphere and expand in the computational basis $|v\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^d v_i |i\rangle$ with $\sum_i |v_i|^2 = 1$. Then

$$\mathbb{E}[|v\rangle\langle v|] = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\sum_i v_i |i\rangle\right)\left(\sum_j \bar{v}_j \langle j|\right)\right] = \sum_{i,j} \mathbb{E}[v_i \bar{v}_j] |i\rangle\langle j|.$$

Off-diagonals vanish. For any diagonal phase unitary $D = \text{diag}(e^{i\theta_1}, \dots, e^{i\theta_d})$, $D|v\rangle$ is also Haar-distributed, so

$$\mathbb{E}[v_i \bar{v}_j] = \mathbb{E}[(e^{i\theta_i} v_i)(e^{-i\theta_j} \bar{v}_j)] = e^{i(\theta_i - \theta_j)} \mathbb{E}[v_i \bar{v}_j] \quad \forall \theta_i, \theta_j.$$

If $i \neq j$ this forces $\mathbb{E}[v_i \bar{v}_j] = 0$.

Diagonals are all equal and sum to 1. By permutation invariance of the Haar measure, $\mathbb{E}[|v_i|^2]$ is the same for all i ; write $\mathbb{E}[|v_i|^2] = \alpha$. Taking expectations in $\sum_i |v_i|^2 = 1$ yields

$$1 = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^d |v_i|^2\right] = \sum_{i=1}^d \mathbb{E}[|v_i|^2] = d\alpha \implies \alpha = \frac{1}{d}.$$

Combining these two facts,

$$\mathbb{E}[|v\rangle\langle v|] = \sum_{i=1}^d \frac{1}{d} |i\rangle\langle i| = \frac{1}{d} I.$$

5 A potential obstruction and irreducibility

5.1 A potential obstruction

Let $|\phi\rangle = |1\rangle^{\otimes n}$ and recall

$$M = \mathbb{E}_{U \sim \text{Haar}}[Q(U) |\phi\rangle\langle\phi| Q(U)^\dagger], \quad Q(U) = U^{\otimes n}.$$

Suppose (hypothetically) that in some fixed basis every $Q(U)$ had the same block-diagonal form $Q(U) = \begin{pmatrix} Q_1(U) & 0 \\ 0 & Q_2(U) \end{pmatrix}$. Then $Q(U)$ would never mix the two invariant subspaces, and averaging could not move a vector from one block into the other. In that case M could be at best a projector onto *one* block, rather than a multiple of the full symmetrizer Π_{sym} . This motivates the need to show that no such nontrivial decomposition exists on the symmetric subspace, i.e. the action is *irreducible*.

5.2 (Ir)reducible representations and examples

Definition 15 (Reducible / irreducible). A unitary representation (μ, V) of a group G is *reducible* if there is a nontrivial proper subspace $0 \neq W \subsetneq V$ with $\mu(g)W \subseteq W$ for all $g \in G$. Otherwise it is *irreducible*. Equivalently, in some basis $\mu(g)$ is block diagonal for all g .

Examples. (1) The permutation representation $P : S_n \rightarrow \text{U}((\mathbb{C}^d)^{\otimes n})$ is reducible since it preserves the symmetric subspace $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$. (2) The tensor action $Q(U) = U^{\otimes n}$ on $(\mathbb{C}^d)^{\otimes n}$ is also reducible because it preserves $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$. (3) On $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$, the permutation action $P(\pi)$ is trivial (acts as the identity), hence “extremely” reducible.

5.3 Irreducibility of Q on the symmetric subspace

Theorem 6. Let $Q : \text{U}(d) \rightarrow \text{U}(\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d))$ be the restricted tensor action $Q(U) = U^{\otimes n}$. Then Q is irreducible on $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$.

Proof. We follow the sketch from the notes.

Assume for contradiction that Q is reducible. Then there are nonzero, proper, *orthogonal* Q -invariant subspaces $X, Y \subset \text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$ with

$$\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d) = X \oplus Y, \quad Q(U)X \subseteq X, \quad Q(U)Y \subseteq Y \quad \forall U \in \text{U}(d).$$

By the product-state span theorem (proved earlier), the set $\{|v\rangle^{\otimes n} : |v\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^d\}$ spans $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$. Hence there exists a family of unit vectors $\{|v_i\rangle\}$ and an index set I such that $|v_i\rangle^{\otimes n} \in X$ for all $i \in I$, and (since $Y \neq \{0\}$) there is some $j \notin I$ with $|v_j\rangle^{\otimes n} \in Y$.

Because $\text{U}(d)$ acts transitively on unit vectors, there exists a unitary $U \in \text{U}(d)$ with $U|v_j\rangle = |v_{i_0}\rangle$ for some $i_0 \in I$. Then

$$Q(U)|v_j\rangle^{\otimes n} = (U|v_j\rangle)^{\otimes n} = |v_{i_0}\rangle^{\otimes n} \in X.$$

But $|v_j\rangle^{\otimes n} \in Y$ and Y is Q -invariant, so $Q(U)|v_j\rangle^{\otimes n} \in Y$ as well. Thus $|v_{i_0}\rangle^{\otimes n} \in X \cap Y$, a nonzero vector, contradicting $X \perp Y$ and $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d) = X \oplus Y$.

Therefore no such nontrivial invariant decomposition exists, and Q is irreducible on $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$. \square

5.4 Proof of the Haar moment theorem via irreducibility

Recall Theorem 5: for $|v\rangle$ Haar-random, $M = \mathbb{E}[|v\rangle\langle v|^{\otimes n}] = \binom{n+d-1}{d-1}^{-1} \Pi_{\text{sym}}$.

Proof (representation-theoretic). For any fixed $U \in \text{U}(d)$, Haar invariance gives

$$Q(U) M Q(U)^\dagger = \mathbb{E}[(U|v\rangle\langle v|U^\dagger)^{\otimes n}] = M,$$

so M commutes with every $Q(U)$ and acts trivially on the orthogonal complement of Sym^n . By Theorem 6 and Schur's lemma (which we will show later), $M = c \Pi_{\text{sym}}$ for some c . Taking traces, $1 = \text{Tr}(M) = c \text{Tr}(\Pi_{\text{sym}}) = c \binom{n+d-1}{d-1}$, so $c = \binom{n+d-1}{d-1}^{-1}$. \square

6 Pure-state tomography via the Haar POVM

Problem. Given n copies of an unknown pure state $|\psi\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^d$, we perform one collective measurement on $|\psi\rangle^{\otimes n}$ and output an estimate $|\hat{\psi}\rangle$. Our accuracy metric will be the (squared) fidelity $F := |\langle\psi|\hat{\psi}\rangle|^2$.

Equivalence for pure states. For pure states,

$$D_{\text{tr}}(|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|, |\hat{\psi}\rangle\langle\hat{\psi}|) = \sqrt{1 - |\langle\psi|\hat{\psi}\rangle|^2}.$$

Hence a fidelity target $|\langle\psi|\hat{\psi}\rangle|^2 \geq 1 - \varepsilon^2$ is exactly the trace-distance target $D_{\text{tr}} \leq \varepsilon$.

Proposition 8 (Expected trace distance). *Under the Haar POVM estimator $\hat{\psi} = v$,*

$$\mathbb{E}[D_{\text{tr}}(|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|, |\hat{\psi}\rangle\langle\hat{\psi}|)] \leq \sqrt{1 - \mathbb{E}[|\langle\psi|\hat{\psi}\rangle|^2]} = \sqrt{\frac{d-1}{n+d}} \leq \sqrt{\frac{d}{n}}.$$

(The inequality uses concavity of $x \mapsto \sqrt{1-x}$ and Theorem 8.)

Theorem 7 (Tail bound / error exponent in trace distance). *Let $F = |\langle\psi|\hat{\psi}\rangle|^2$. Then $F \sim \text{Beta}(n+1, d-1)$, so for any $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$,*

$$\Pr[D_{\text{tr}} \geq \varepsilon] = \Pr[1 - F \geq \varepsilon^2] = I_{1-\varepsilon^2}(n+1, d-1) \leq \frac{(n+d-1)^{d-2}}{(d-2)!(n+1)} e^{-(n+1)\varepsilon^2}.$$

Thus the error probability decays at least like $\text{poly}(n, d) e^{-(n+1)\varepsilon^2}$ with exponent $(n+1)\varepsilon^2$.

Proposition 9 (Samples for trace-distance target with tail $\leq \delta$). *To ensure $\Pr[D_{\text{tr}} \geq \varepsilon] \leq \delta$, it suffices to take*

$$n \geq \frac{(d-2) \log(n+d-1) + \log\left(\frac{1}{(d-2)!\delta}\right)}{\varepsilon^2} - 1 = O\left(\frac{d + \log(1/\delta)}{\varepsilon^2}\right).$$

The Haar POVM on $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$

By Theorem 5, for Haar-random $|v\rangle$, $\mathbb{E}[|v\rangle\langle v|^{\otimes n}] = \binom{n+d-1}{d-1}^{-1} \Pi_{\text{sym}}$. This implies that the operator density

$$E(dv) = \binom{n+d-1}{d-1} |v\rangle\langle v|^{\otimes n} d\nu(v), \quad (4)$$

with $d\nu$ the normalized Haar measure on the unit sphere of \mathbb{C}^d , forms a valid POVM on $\text{Sym}^n(\mathbb{C}^d)$. For input $|\psi\rangle^{\otimes n}$ the outcome law is

$$\Pr[dv \mid \psi] = \binom{n+d-1}{d-1} |\langle v \mid \psi \rangle|^{2n} d\nu(v). \quad (5)$$

We use the simple estimator $|\hat{\psi}\rangle := |v\rangle$ (the outcome direction).

Proposition 10. *For Haar-random $|v\rangle$ and any fixed $|\psi\rangle$,*

$$\mathbb{E}_{\text{Haar}}[\langle \psi \mid \hat{\psi} \rangle^{2m}] = \binom{m+d-1}{d-1}^{-1} \quad (m \in \mathbb{N}).$$

Proof. By Theorem 5, $\mathbb{E}[|v\rangle\langle v|^{\otimes m}] = \binom{m+d-1}{d-1}^{-1} \Pi_{\text{sym}}$. Taking the matrix element on $|\psi\rangle^{\otimes m}$ gives the claim since $\Pi_{\text{sym}} |\psi\rangle^{\otimes m} = |\psi\rangle^{\otimes m}$. \square

Theorem 8 (Expected fidelity). *If we measure $|\psi\rangle^{\otimes n}$ with the Haar POVM (4) and output $|\hat{\psi}\rangle = |v\rangle$, then*

$$\mathbb{E}[\langle \psi \mid \hat{\psi} \rangle^2] = \frac{n+1}{n+d} = 1 - \frac{d-1}{n+d}.$$

Proof. From (5),

$$\mathbb{E}[\langle \psi \mid \hat{\psi} \rangle^2] = \binom{n+d-1}{d-1} \int |\langle \psi \mid v \rangle|^{2(n+1)} d\nu(v) = \binom{n+d-1}{d-1} \binom{n+d}{d-1}^{-1},$$

using Lemma 10 with $m = n+1$. The ratio simplifies to $(n+1)/(n+d)$. \square

Full distribution and an error exponent

Let $F := |\langle \psi \mid \hat{\psi} \rangle|^2$. Combining (5) with the well-known fact that $T := |\langle v \mid \psi \rangle|^2$ is $\text{Beta}(1, d-1)$ under Haar measure, we find

$$F \sim \text{Beta}(n+1, d-1) \quad \text{with density} \quad f_F(t) = \frac{t^n(1-t)^{d-2}}{B(n+1, d-1)} \quad (t \in [0, 1]),$$

where B is the beta function. In particular, for any $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$,

$$\Pr[1 - F \geq \varepsilon^2] = I_{1-\varepsilon^2}(n+1, d-1), \quad (6)$$

the regularized incomplete beta.

A convenient explicit upper bound (polynomial pre-factor with an *exponential* rate) is

$$\Pr[1 - F \geq \varepsilon^2] \leq \frac{1}{(n+1)B(n+1, d-1)} (1 - \varepsilon^2)^{n+1} \leq \frac{(n+d-1)^{d-2}}{(d-2)!(n+1)} e^{-(n+1)\varepsilon^2}. \quad (7)$$

The first inequality integrates the density on $[0, 1 - \varepsilon^2]$ and the second uses $(1-x) \leq e^{-x}$ and $1/B(n+1, d-1) \leq \frac{(n+d-1)^{d-2}}{(d-2)!}$. Thus, the *error exponent* is at least $(n+1)\varepsilon^2$ up to a dimension-dependent polynomial pre-factor.

Why Beta, not just “a concentration bound”? Let $T = |\langle v|\psi\rangle|^2$. For $v \sim \text{Haar}$ on \mathbb{C}^d ,

$$T \sim \text{Beta}(1, d-1),$$

because $|v_1|^2$ is the ratio of two independent Γ variables (Dirichlet on the sphere). Under the Haar POVM, the outcome density is tilted by T^n [Eq. (5)], so the posterior law of $F := |\langle \hat{\psi}|\psi\rangle|^2$ is

$$F \sim \text{Beta}(n+1, d-1).$$

This one-dimensional reduction has three advantages:

1. **Exact quantities.** We get $\mathbb{E}[F] = \frac{n+1}{n+d}$ and, for any m , $\mathbb{E}[F^m] = \binom{n+d-1}{d-1}^{-1}$ *exactly*, and the tail is the regularized incomplete beta:

$$\Pr[1 - F \geq \varepsilon^2] = I_{1-\varepsilon^2}(n+1, d-1).$$

2. **Sharp, dimension-aware tails.** From the Beta form,

$$\Pr[1 - F \geq \varepsilon^2] = \frac{1}{B(n+1, d-1)} \int_0^{1-\varepsilon^2} t^n (1-t)^{d-2} dt \leq \frac{(1-\varepsilon^2)^{n+1}}{B(n+1, d-1)},$$

which yields the explicit error exponent $e^{-(n+1)\varepsilon^2}$ up to a polynomial pre-factor in $(n+d)$ [cf. Eq. (7)]. This captures the correct n -vs- d dependence with the best constants you can hope for from this route.

3. **No independence assumptions.** Standard tools like Hoeffding/Bernstein apply to *sums of i.i.d.* variables; here F is a single draw whose density already encodes n (via t^n). Forcing a generic concentration argument either does not apply directly or gives looser bounds.

Proposition 11. [Sample complexity with tail $\leq \delta$] For any $\delta \in (0, 1)$, it suffices to take

$$n \geq \frac{(d-2) \log(n+d-1) + \log\left(\frac{1}{(d-2)!\delta}\right)}{\varepsilon^2} - 1$$

to guarantee $\Pr[1 - F \geq \varepsilon^2] \leq \delta$. In coarse scaling, $n = O((d + \log(1/\delta))/\varepsilon^2)$.

7 Single-copy tomography with a Haar-random basis

Definition 16 (Haar-random basis). If $U \in \text{U}(d)$ is Haar-random and $\{|1\rangle, \dots, |d\rangle\}$ is a fixed orthonormal basis, then $\{|u_i\rangle := U|i\rangle\}_{i=1}^d$ is a *Haar-random basis*.

Algorithm (incomplete single-copy tomography).

1. Draw a Haar-random basis $\{|u_1\rangle, \dots, |u_d\rangle\}$.
2. Measure ρ in this basis; let the outcome be $|u\rangle$.
3. Output the estimator

$$\hat{\rho} := (d+1)|u\rangle\langle u| - I.$$

Haar-basis measurement equals the uniform POVM

[Symmetry of outcomes in a Haar basis] For a Haar-random basis $\{|u_i\rangle\}$ and any state ρ , $\Pr[\text{outcome} = |u_1\rangle] = \dots = \Pr[\text{outcome} = |u_d\rangle]$.

[Outcome density] Let $|u\rangle$ be any unit vector. Then

$$\Pr[\text{outcome} \in d\nu(u) \text{ around } |u\rangle] = d \operatorname{Tr} [|u\rangle\langle u| \rho] d\nu(u),$$

where $d\nu$ is the normalized Haar measure on the unit sphere of \mathbb{C}^d .

Definition 17 (Uniform POVM). The *uniform POVM* on \mathbb{C}^d has operator density

$$E(du) = d |u\rangle\langle u| d\nu(u) \quad (\text{so } \int E(du) = I).$$

Performing the Haar-basis measurement is equivalent to applying this POVM.

Unbiased single-copy estimator

Write $Q(U) = U^{\otimes 2}$, F for SWAP, and $\Pi_{\text{sym},2} = \frac{1}{2}(I + F)$. Using Theorem 5 with $n = 2$, $\int |u\rangle\langle u|^{\otimes 2} d\nu(u) = \frac{2}{d(d+1)} \Pi_{\text{sym},2}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[|u\rangle\langle u|] &= \int |u\rangle\langle u| \Pr[\text{outcome} \in du] = d \int |u\rangle\langle u| \operatorname{Tr} [|u\rangle\langle u| \rho] d\nu(u) \\ &= d \operatorname{Tr}_B \left[\left(\int |u\rangle\langle u|^{\otimes 2} d\nu(u) \right) (I \otimes \rho) \right] = \frac{2}{d+1} \operatorname{Tr}_B [\Pi_{\text{sym},2} (I \otimes \rho)] \\ &= \frac{1}{d+1} \operatorname{Tr}_B [(I + F)(I \otimes \rho)] = \frac{1}{d+1} (I + \rho). \end{aligned}$$

Hence:

Theorem 9 (Unbiasedness). *With the uniform POVM and estimator $\hat{\rho} = (d+1)|u\rangle\langle u| - I$,*

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\rho}] = \rho.$$

Second moment and a variance bound

For any outcome $|u\rangle$, in a basis with $|u\rangle$ first, the matrix of $\hat{\rho}$ is $\operatorname{diag}(d, -1, \dots, -1)$. Thus

$$\operatorname{Tr}(\hat{\rho}^2) = d^2 + (d-1) \cdot 1 = d^2 + d - 1 \quad (\text{independent of } |u\rangle).$$

Using $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\rho}] = \rho$,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[\|\hat{\rho} - \rho\|_2^2] &= \mathbb{E}[\operatorname{Tr}(\hat{\rho}^2) - 2\operatorname{Tr}(\hat{\rho}\rho) + \operatorname{Tr}(\rho^2)] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[\operatorname{Tr}(\hat{\rho}^2)] - \operatorname{Tr}(\rho^2) \leq d^2 + d - 1. \end{aligned}$$

Standard unentangled tomography (averaging n copies)

Run the single-copy procedure independently on n copies of ρ , obtaining $\hat{\rho}_1, \dots, \hat{\rho}_n$, and output $\bar{\rho} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \hat{\rho}_k$. Then

$$\mathbb{E}[\|\bar{\rho} - \rho\|_2^2] = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{k=1}^n \mathbb{E}[\|\hat{\rho}_k - \rho\|_2^2] \leq \frac{d^2 + d - 1}{n}.$$

Using $\|A\|_1 \leq \sqrt{\operatorname{rank}(A)} \|A\|_2 \leq \sqrt{d} \|A\|_2$ gives the trace-distance guarantee

$$\mathbb{E}[D_{\text{tr}}(\bar{\rho}, \rho)] = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}[\|\bar{\rho} - \rho\|_1] \leq \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{d} (\mathbb{E}[\|\bar{\rho} - \rho\|_2^2])^{1/2} \leq \sqrt{\frac{d^3 + d^2 - d}{4n}}.$$

Hence $n = \Theta(d^3/\varepsilon^2)$ samples suffice to achieve $\mathbb{E}[D_{\text{tr}}(\bar{\rho}, \rho)] \leq \varepsilon$. (With independence, standard scalar concentration upgrades this to $n = O((d^3 + \log(1/\delta))/\varepsilon^2)$ for tail $\leq \delta$.)

Acknowledgments

This note follows the organization and notation of John Wright’s *Quantum Learning Theory* course notes (UC Berkeley, 2024) while adding a self-contained derivation of the Haar-POVM inversion.

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