

Quantum Sensing and Communication via Non-Gaussian States

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Abstract—Quantum sensing and communication (QSC) is pivotal for developing next-generation networks with unprecedented performance. Many implementations of existing QSC systems employ Gaussian states as they can be easily realized using current technologies. However, Gaussian states lack non-classical properties necessary to unleash the full potential of QSC. This motivates the use of non-Gaussian states, which have non-classical properties beneficial for QSC. This paper establishes a theoretical foundation for QSC employing photon-varied Gaussian states (PVGs). The PVGs are non-Gaussian states that can be generated from Gaussian states using current technologies. First, we derive a closed-form expression for the generalized bilinear generating function of ordinary Hermite polynomials and show how it can be used to describe PVGs. Then, we characterize PVGs by deriving their Fock representation and their inner product. We also determine equivalence conditions for Gaussian states obtained from arbitrary permutations of rotation, displacement, and squeezing operators. Finally, we explore the use of PVGs for QSC in several case studies.

Index Terms—Quantum sensing, quantum communication, quantum information, non-Gaussian quantum states, quantum state characterization.

I. INTRODUCTION

QUANTUM sensing and communication (QSC) is a promising field that has the potential to revolutionize information technologies, thus paving the way for the development of next-generation networks with unprecedented performance. Specifically, QSC underpins the extension of classical information theory fields, such as coding [1], [2], [3], [4], [5], [6], rate distortion [7], [8], [9], [10], [11], [12], sensing [13], [14], [15], and communication [16], [17], [18], [19] to the quantum domain. Quantum information technologies

exploit properties of quantum mechanics to measure physical quantities of target systems and to exchange information. Such tasks are respectively referred to as quantum sensing [20], [21], [22], [23], [24], [25], [26], [27] and quantum communication [28], [29], [30], [31], [32], [33], [34], [35], [36], [37], [38], [39], [40], [41], [42], [43], [44], [45], [46], [47], [48], [49], [50], [51]. Many existing QSC systems are implemented with light sources that generate Gaussian quantum states. The use of Gaussian states is motivated by well-established theoretical foundations [52], [53], [54], [55], [56] and by the possibility of generating and manipulating them using current technologies. Unfortunately, Gaussian states do not possess several non-classical properties, including strong non-Poissonian photon number distribution and negative Wigner function [55], [56], [57], [58], [59], [60], [61], [62], which are necessary to fully unleash the potential of QSC. This calls for the use of non-Gaussian states, which play an important role toward achieving quantum supremacy [59], [60], [61]. However, the development of QSC systems employing non-Gaussian states can be challenging as it requires the implementation of complex optical processes, the characterization of such non-Gaussian states, and the establishment of theoretical foundations for QSC.

Non-Gaussian states are a broad class of quantum states that exhibit non-Gaussian Wigner function [61]. In the class of non-Gaussian states, photon-added quantum states (PAQs) [63], [64], [65], [66] and photon-subtracted quantum states (PSQs) [67], [68], [69], [70], [71] are of interest as they can be realized in laboratory [72], [73], [74], [75], [76], [77], [78] and their non-classical properties can be measured [78], [79], [80], [81], [82], [83]. In particular, PAQs and PSQs are obtained, respectively, by exciting and annihilating photons from an initial state of the quantized electromagnetic field. Recently, PAQs and PSQs have been unified in terms of photon-varied quantum states (PVQs), which are obtained via photon-variation operations on initial quantum states [84]; such a photon-variation unifies photon-addition and photon-subtraction. When photon-variation operations are performed on initial Gaussian states, the corresponding PVQs are referred to as photon-varied Gaussian states (PVGs). An important property of PVGs is their generality, as they reduce to Gaussian states under certain conditions. In the literature, subclasses of PVGs have been used for quantum sensing [85], [86], [87], [88], [89], [90] and quantum communications [91], [92], [93], [94], [95], [96], [97], [98], showing that their degrees of freedom can be engineered to provide performance improvements compared to Gaussian states.

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However, the development of QSC with non-Gaussian states is hindered by the lack of a theoretical foundation, which can be used to determine performance benchmarks and to guide the system design. The fundamental questions related to the design of QSC systems with non-Gaussian states are: (i) which classes of non-Gaussian states are more suitable for QSC; and (ii) how may such classes of states be characterized and then employed in QSC systems? The answers to these questions provide insights for the design of QSC systems with non-Gaussian states. The goal of this paper is to introduce the use of PVGSs for unleashing QSC. This paper establishes a theoretical foundation for QSC with PVGSs, accommodating for noise in state preparation, and shows how to exploit such class of states for different QSC applications. In particular, the key contributions are summarized as follows:

- we determine equivalence conditions for Gaussian states obtained from arbitrary permutations of rotation, displacement, and squeezing operators;
- we characterize PVGSs by deriving their Fock representation and their inner product using generalized Hermite-Kampé de Fériet (H-KdF) polynomials; and
- we explore the use of PVGSs for QSC, utilize their characterization to design QSC systems, and quantify their performance in several case studies.

The remaining sections are organized as in the following. Section II recalls generalized H-KdF polynomials and derives a closed-form expression for the generalized bilinear generating function of ordinary Hermite polynomials. Section III reviews the theory of Gaussian states, derives equivalence conditions for them, and defines PVGSs. Section IV determines the Fock representation of PVGSs. Section V derives the inner product of pure PVGSs. Section VI explores the use of PVGSs for QSC and quantifies their performance in several case studies. Finally, Section VII provides our conclusions.

Notation: Random variables are displayed in sans serif, upright fonts; their realizations in serif, italic fonts. Vectors are denoted by bold lowercase letters. Matrices and operators are denoted by bold uppercase letters. For example, a random operator and its realization are denoted by \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{X} , respectively. Sets are denoted by upright sans serif font except for the sets of natural numbers, integer numbers, real numbers, and complex numbers, which are denoted by \mathbb{N} , \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{R} , and \mathbb{C} , respectively. For $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\bar{n} = -$ for $n < 0$, and $\bar{n} = +$ for $n \geq 0$. For $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $\lfloor x \rfloor$ denotes the greatest integer less than or equal to x . For $z \in \mathbb{C}$, $|z|$ denotes its absolute value, $\angle z \in (-\pi, \pi]$ denotes its angle, z^* denotes its complex conjugate, and $i = \sqrt{-1}$. For $z \in \mathbb{C}$, the principal branch of the complex square root is chosen such that $\sqrt{z} = |z|^{1/2} \exp\{i(\angle z)/2\}$. For a matrix M , $[M]_{i,j}$ denotes the element in the i -th row and j -th column. The adjoint of an operator is denoted by $(\cdot)^\dagger$. The annihilation and the creation operators are denoted by \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{A}^\dagger , respectively. The set of density operators defined on a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} is denoted by $\mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H})$. The identity operator defined on a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} is denoted by $\mathbf{I}_{\mathcal{H}}$. For two operators \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} , the commutator is denoted by $[\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}]_- = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Y}\mathbf{X}$. The rotation operator with parameter $\phi \in \mathbb{R}$ is $\mathbf{R}_\phi = \exp\{i\phi\mathbf{A}^\dagger\mathbf{A}\}$. The displacement operator with parameter $\mu \in \mathbb{C}$ is $\mathbf{D}_\mu = \exp\{\mu\mathbf{A}^\dagger - \mu^*\mathbf{A}\}$. The squeezing operator with parameter $\zeta \in \mathbb{C}$ is $\mathbf{S}_\zeta =$

$\exp\{\frac{1}{2}\zeta(\mathbf{A}^\dagger)^2 - \frac{1}{2}\zeta^*\mathbf{A}^2\}$. The Pauli matrices \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Z} are $\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{Z} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$, respectively.

II. GENERALIZED HERMITE-KAMPÉ DE FÉRIET POLYNOMIALS AND BILINEAR GENERATING FUNCTIONS

This section first recalls generalized H-KdF polynomials and associated subclasses. Then, it derives a closed-form expression for the generalized bilinear generating function of ordinary Hermite polynomials [99], [100]. Such a bilinear generating function is found to play a crucial role in the characterization of PVGSs.

A. Definitions

Generalized H-KdF polynomials [101], [102], [103], [104], also referred to as generalized Hermite polynomials, are a class of polynomials that extend both two-variable H-KdF polynomials [101], [102], [103], [104] and ordinary Hermite polynomials [105], [106], [107].

Let $x, y, z, u, t \in \mathbb{C}$ and $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$. The generalized H-KdF polynomials are defined as

$$H_{m,n}(x, y; z, u | t) \triangleq m!n! \sum_{k=0}^{\min\{m,n\}} t^k \frac{H_{m-k}(x, y)H_{n-k}(z, u)}{k!(m-k)!(n-k)!} \quad (1)$$

where

$$H_p(\xi, w) \triangleq p! \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor p/2 \rfloor} \frac{1}{k!(p-2k)!} \xi^{p-2k} w^k \quad (2)$$

with $p \in \mathbb{N}$, are two-variable H-KdF polynomials. Notice that ordinary Hermite polynomials are defined as

$$H_p(\xi) \triangleq p! \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor p/2 \rfloor} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!(p-2k)!} (2\xi)^{p-2k} \quad (3)$$

and are obtained from two-variable H-KdF polynomials in (2) via the following relation

$$H_p(\xi) = H_p(2\xi, -1). \quad (4)$$

B. Generalized Bilinear Generating Function

To facilitate the characterization of PVGSs developed in the remainder of the paper, we define the function

$$G(x, y; r, s | \alpha, \beta) \triangleq \frac{1}{(1-\alpha^2)^{\frac{r+s}{2}}} M(x, y | \alpha) \times H_{r,s} \left(\frac{2(x-y\alpha)}{\sqrt{1-\alpha^2}}, -1; \frac{2(y-x\alpha)}{\sqrt{1-\alpha^2}}, -1 \middle| 2\beta \right) \quad (5)$$

where $x, y, \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$, $\alpha \neq 1$, $r, s \in \mathbb{N}$, and $M(x, y | \alpha)$ is the Mehler function defined as

$$M(x, y | \alpha) \triangleq \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\alpha^2}} \exp \left(\frac{2xy\alpha - (x^2 + y^2)\alpha^2}{1-\alpha^2} \right). \quad (6)$$

The following lemma uses (5) to determine a closed-form expression for the generalized bilinear generating function of ordinary Hermite polynomials.

Lemma 1: Let $x, y, t \in \mathbb{C}$, $|t| < 1$, and $r, s \in \mathbb{N}$. The generalized bilinear generating function of ordinary Hermite polynomials has the following expression

$$G(x, y; r, s|t, t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n}{n! 2^n} H_{n+r}(x) H_{n+s}(y). \quad (7)$$

Proof: See Appendix A. □

Notice that for $r = 0$ and $s = 0$, (7) reduces to ⊗

$$G(x, y; 0, 0|t, t) = M(x, y|t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n}{n! 2^n} H_n(x) H_n(y)$$

which is the standard bilinear generating function of the ordinary Hermite polynomials in (3).

III. GAUSSIAN AND PHOTON-VARIED GAUSSIAN STATES

This section reviews the theory of Gaussian states, derives equivalence conditions for Gaussian states obtained from arbitrary conventions and permutations of unitary operators, and defines the class of PVGSs.

A. Preliminaries on the Single Bosonic Mode

Consider a single bosonic mode of the quantized electromagnetic field described within an infinite dimensional Hilbert space \mathcal{H} spanned by the complete orthonormal Fock basis $\{|n\rangle\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, where $|n\rangle$ is the Fock state with exactly n photons. Let \mathbf{Q} and \mathbf{P} be the unbounded quadrature operators of the quantized field that satisfy the canonical commutation relation $[\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{P}]_- = i\mathbf{I}_{\mathcal{H}}$. Let $\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{Q} + i\mathbf{P})/\sqrt{2}$ and $\mathbf{A}^\dagger = (\mathbf{Q} - i\mathbf{P})/\sqrt{2}$ be the associated bosonic annihilation and creation operators, respectively. The canonical commutation relation for \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{A}^\dagger is $[\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{A}^\dagger]_- = \mathbf{I}_{\mathcal{H}}$. The eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the self-adjoint operator $\mathbf{A}^\dagger \mathbf{A}$, called number operator, are related by

$$\mathbf{A}^\dagger \mathbf{A} |n\rangle = n |n\rangle$$

which shows that the mean number of photons of $|n\rangle$ is $\langle n | \mathbf{A}^\dagger \mathbf{A} |n\rangle = n$.

B. Gaussian States

Gaussian states are quantum states generated by applying permutations of the unitary operators \mathbf{R}_ϕ , \mathbf{D}_μ , and \mathbf{S}_ζ on either the vacuum or the thermal state. Such operators can be defined according to different conventions. This paper considers the convention $\mathbf{R}_\phi = e^{i\phi \mathbf{A}^\dagger \mathbf{A}}$, $\mathbf{D}_\mu = e^{\mu \mathbf{A}^\dagger - \mu^* \mathbf{A}}$, and $\mathbf{S}_\zeta = e^{\frac{1}{2}\zeta (\mathbf{A}^\dagger)^2 - \frac{1}{2}\zeta^* \mathbf{A}^2}$. This choice is not restrictive as Gaussian states defined according to arbitrary conventions and permutations of rotation, displacement, and squeezing operators can always be written according to any other convention and permutation by properly modifying the operator parameters. We define the most general Gaussian state as

$$\Xi(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) \triangleq \mathbf{R}_\phi \mathbf{D}_\mu \mathbf{S}_\zeta \Xi_{\text{th}} \mathbf{S}_\zeta^\dagger \mathbf{D}_\mu^\dagger \mathbf{R}_\phi^\dagger \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}) \quad (8)$$

where

$$\Xi_{\text{th}} \triangleq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\bar{n}^n}{(\bar{n} + 1)^{n+1}} |n\rangle \langle n| \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}) \quad (9)$$

is the thermal state with intensity (mean number of photons) \bar{n} given by the Planck law $\bar{n} = (\exp(\hbar\omega/(k_B T)) - 1)^{-1}$, in which ω , T , \hbar , and k_B are respectively the angular frequency of the field, the absolute temperature, the reduced Planck constant, and the Boltzmann constant. Notice that $\Xi(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n})$ in (8) is mixed due to Ξ_{th} being mixed when $\bar{n} > 0$. In some contexts, $\Xi(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n})$ is also referred to as noisy Gaussian state as Ξ_{th} in (9) can model thermal fluctuations impairing the preparation of a pure Gaussian state. For $\bar{n} = 0$ (i.e., for $T \rightarrow 0$), Ξ_{th} reduces to the vacuum state and (8) results in the density operator of a pure Gaussian state, namely

$$\Xi(\phi, \mu, \zeta, 0) = \mathbf{R}_\phi \mathbf{D}_\mu \mathbf{S}_\zeta |0\rangle \langle 0| \mathbf{S}_\zeta^\dagger \mathbf{D}_\mu^\dagger \mathbf{R}_\phi^\dagger. \quad (10)$$

The ket representation of the pure Gaussian state in (10) is

$$|\phi, \mu, \zeta\rangle \triangleq \mathbf{R}_\phi \mathbf{D}_\mu \mathbf{S}_\zeta |0\rangle \in \mathcal{H}. \quad (11)$$

In particular, (11) defines a pure Gaussian state according to Caves' definition [108]. An equivalent definition can be given according to Yuen as [109]

$$|\phi, \mu, \zeta\rangle = \mathbf{R}_\phi \mathbf{S}_\zeta \mathbf{D}_{\mu\lambda_\zeta + \mu^* \nu_\zeta} |0\rangle \quad (12)$$

where the parameters

$$\lambda_\zeta = \cosh(|\zeta|) \quad (13a)$$

$$\nu_\zeta = \sinh(|\zeta|) e^{i(\angle\zeta + \pi)} \quad (13b)$$

generate the linear transformation that maps bosonic operators $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{A}^\dagger$ to new operators $\hat{\mathbf{A}}, \hat{\mathbf{A}}^\dagger$ according to [110, eq. (1.8)]

$$\hat{\mathbf{A}} = \lambda_\zeta \mathbf{A} - \nu_\zeta \mathbf{A}^\dagger \quad (14a)$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{A}}^\dagger = \lambda_\zeta \mathbf{A}^\dagger - \nu_\zeta^* \mathbf{A}. \quad (14b)$$

Since λ_ζ and ν_ζ satisfy $|\lambda_\zeta|^2 - |\nu_\zeta|^2 = 1$, (14) defines a canonical Bogoljubov-Valatin transformation that preserves the commutation relation, i.e., $[\hat{\mathbf{A}}, \hat{\mathbf{A}}^\dagger]_- = [\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{A}^\dagger]_- = \mathbf{I}_{\mathcal{H}}$.

An important property of Gaussian states is their closure under rotational transformations. Indeed, from the Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff formula [53], it can be found that

$$\mathbf{R}_\phi \mathbf{D}_\mu \mathbf{S}_\zeta = \mathbf{D}_{\hat{\mu}} \mathbf{S}_{\hat{\zeta}} \mathbf{R}_\phi \quad (15)$$

where

$$\hat{\mu} = \mu e^{i\phi} \quad (16a)$$

$$\hat{\zeta} = \zeta e^{i2\phi}. \quad (16b)$$

Therefore, the mixed Gaussian state defined in (8) can equivalently be written as

$$\Xi(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) = \mathbf{D}_{\hat{\mu}} \mathbf{S}_{\hat{\zeta}} \Xi_{\text{th}} \mathbf{S}_{\hat{\zeta}}^\dagger \mathbf{D}_{\hat{\mu}}^\dagger \quad (17a)$$

$$= \Xi(0, \hat{\mu}, \hat{\zeta}, \bar{n}) \quad (17b)$$

which is obtained by using (15), (16), and by noticing that the thermal state is invariant to rotations, i.e., $\mathbf{R}_\phi \Xi_{\text{th}} \mathbf{R}_\phi^\dagger = \Xi_{\text{th}}$. Analogously, a pure Gaussian state defined in (11) can equivalently be written as

$$|\phi, \mu, \zeta\rangle = \mathbf{D}_{\hat{\mu}} \mathbf{S}_{\hat{\zeta}} |0\rangle \quad (18a)$$

$$= |0, \hat{\mu}, \hat{\zeta}\rangle \quad (18b)$$

TABLE I

EQUIVALENCE CONDITIONS FOR GAUSSIAN STATES DEFINED ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT CONVENTIONS AND THOSE USED IN THIS PAPER, WHICH ARE DEFINED BY (8) AND (11) FOR MIXED AND PURE GAUSSIAN STATES, RESPECTIVELY. COEFFICIENTS λ_β AND ν_β ARE GIVEN BY (13).

Operator Chain	Transformations of ϕ, μ, ζ			Operator Chain	Transformations of ϕ, μ, ζ		
	ϕ	μ	ζ		ϕ	μ	ζ
$R_\theta^- D_\alpha^- S_\beta^-$	$-\theta$	$-\alpha$	$-\beta$	$D_\alpha^- S_\beta^- R_\theta^-$	$-\theta$	$-\alpha e^{+\imath\theta}$	$-\beta e^{+\imath 2\theta}$
$R_\theta^- D_\alpha^- S_\beta^+$	$-\theta$	$-\alpha$	$+\beta$	$D_\alpha^- S_\beta^- R_\theta^+$	$+\theta$	$-\alpha e^{-\imath\theta}$	$-\beta e^{-\imath 2\theta}$
$R_\theta^- D_\alpha^+ S_\beta^-$	$-\theta$	$+\alpha$	$-\beta$	$D_\alpha^- S_\beta^+ R_\theta^-$	$-\theta$	$-\alpha e^{+\imath\theta}$	$+\beta e^{+\imath 2\theta}$
$R_\theta^- D_\alpha^+ S_\beta^+$	$-\theta$	$+\alpha$	$+\beta$	$D_\alpha^- S_\beta^+ R_\theta^+$	$+\theta$	$-\alpha e^{-\imath\theta}$	$+\beta e^{-\imath 2\theta}$
$R_\theta^+ D_\alpha^- S_\beta^-$	$+\theta$	$-\alpha$	$-\beta$	$D_\alpha^+ S_\beta^- R_\theta^-$	$-\theta$	$+\alpha e^{+\imath\theta}$	$-\beta e^{+\imath 2\theta}$
$R_\theta^+ D_\alpha^- S_\beta^+$	$+\theta$	$-\alpha$	$+\beta$	$D_\alpha^+ S_\beta^- R_\theta^+$	$+\theta$	$+\alpha e^{-\imath\theta}$	$-\beta e^{-\imath 2\theta}$
$R_\theta^+ D_\alpha^+ S_\beta^-$	$+\theta$	$+\alpha$	$-\beta$	$D_\alpha^+ S_\beta^+ R_\theta^-$	$-\theta$	$+\alpha e^{+\imath\theta}$	$+\beta e^{+\imath 2\theta}$
$R_\theta^+ D_\alpha^+ S_\beta^+$	$+\theta$	$+\alpha$	$+\beta$	$D_\alpha^+ S_\beta^+ R_\theta^+$	$+\theta$	$+\alpha e^{-\imath\theta}$	$+\beta e^{-\imath 2\theta}$
$R_\theta^- S_\beta^- D_\alpha^-$	$-\theta$	$-\alpha\lambda_\beta - \alpha^*\nu_\beta$	$-\beta$	$S_\beta^- R_\theta^- D_\alpha^-$	$-\theta$	$-\alpha\lambda_\beta - \alpha^*\nu_\beta e^{+\imath 2\theta}$	$-\beta e^{+\imath 2\theta}$
$R_\theta^- S_\beta^- D_\alpha^+$	$-\theta$	$+\alpha\lambda_\beta + \alpha^*\nu_\beta$	$-\beta$	$S_\beta^- R_\theta^- D_\alpha^+$	$-\theta$	$+\alpha\lambda_\beta + \alpha^*\nu_\beta e^{+\imath 2\theta}$	$-\beta e^{+\imath 2\theta}$
$R_\theta^- S_\beta^+ D_\alpha^-$	$-\theta$	$-\alpha\lambda_\beta + \alpha^*\nu_\beta$	$+\beta$	$S_\beta^- R_\theta^+ D_\alpha^-$	$+\theta$	$-\alpha\lambda_\beta - \alpha^*\nu_\beta e^{-\imath 2\theta}$	$-\beta e^{-\imath 2\theta}$
$R_\theta^- S_\beta^+ D_\alpha^+$	$-\theta$	$+\alpha\lambda_\beta - \alpha^*\nu_\beta$	$+\beta$	$S_\beta^- R_\theta^+ D_\alpha^+$	$+\theta$	$+\alpha\lambda_\beta + \alpha^*\nu_\beta e^{-\imath 2\theta}$	$-\beta e^{-\imath 2\theta}$
$R_\theta^+ S_\beta^- D_\alpha^-$	$+\theta$	$-\alpha\lambda_\beta - \alpha^*\nu_\beta$	$-\beta$	$S_\beta^+ R_\theta^- D_\alpha^-$	$-\theta$	$-\alpha\lambda_\beta + \alpha^*\nu_\beta e^{+\imath 2\theta}$	$+\beta e^{+\imath 2\theta}$
$R_\theta^+ S_\beta^- D_\alpha^+$	$+\theta$	$+\alpha\lambda_\beta + \alpha^*\nu_\beta$	$-\beta$	$S_\beta^+ R_\theta^- D_\alpha^+$	$-\theta$	$+\alpha\lambda_\beta - \alpha^*\nu_\beta e^{+\imath 2\theta}$	$+\beta e^{+\imath 2\theta}$
$R_\theta^+ S_\beta^+ D_\alpha^-$	$+\theta$	$-\alpha\lambda_\beta + \alpha^*\nu_\beta$	$+\beta$	$S_\beta^+ R_\theta^+ D_\alpha^-$	$+\theta$	$-\alpha\lambda_\beta + \alpha^*\nu_\beta e^{-\imath 2\theta}$	$+\beta e^{-\imath 2\theta}$
$R_\theta^+ S_\beta^+ D_\alpha^+$	$+\theta$	$+\alpha\lambda_\beta - \alpha^*\nu_\beta$	$+\beta$	$S_\beta^+ R_\theta^+ D_\alpha^+$	$+\theta$	$+\alpha\lambda_\beta - \alpha^*\nu_\beta e^{-\imath 2\theta}$	$+\beta e^{-\imath 2\theta}$
$D_\alpha^- R_\theta^- S_\beta^-$	$-\theta$	$-\alpha e^{+\imath\theta}$	$-\beta$	$S_\beta^- D_\alpha^- R_\theta^-$	$-\theta$	$-\alpha\lambda_\beta e^{+\imath\theta} - \alpha^*\nu_\beta e^{+\imath\theta}$	$-\beta e^{+\imath 2\theta}$
$D_\alpha^- R_\theta^- S_\beta^+$	$-\theta$	$-\alpha e^{+\imath\theta}$	$+\beta$	$S_\beta^- D_\alpha^- R_\theta^+$	$+\theta$	$-\alpha\lambda_\beta e^{-\imath\theta} - \alpha^*\nu_\beta e^{-\imath\theta}$	$-\beta e^{-\imath 2\theta}$
$D_\alpha^- R_\theta^+ S_\beta^-$	$+\theta$	$-\alpha e^{-\imath\theta}$	$-\beta$	$S_\beta^- D_\alpha^+ R_\theta^-$	$-\theta$	$+\alpha\lambda_\beta e^{+\imath\theta} + \alpha^*\nu_\beta e^{+\imath\theta}$	$-\beta e^{+\imath 2\theta}$
$D_\alpha^- R_\theta^+ S_\beta^+$	$+\theta$	$-\alpha e^{-\imath\theta}$	$+\beta$	$S_\beta^- D_\alpha^+ R_\theta^+$	$+\theta$	$+\alpha\lambda_\beta e^{-\imath\theta} + \alpha^*\nu_\beta e^{-\imath\theta}$	$-\beta e^{-\imath 2\theta}$
$D_\alpha^+ R_\theta^- S_\beta^-$	$-\theta$	$+\alpha e^{+\imath\theta}$	$-\beta$	$S_\beta^+ D_\alpha^- R_\theta^-$	$-\theta$	$-\alpha\lambda_\beta e^{+\imath\theta} + \alpha^*\nu_\beta e^{+\imath\theta}$	$+\beta e^{+\imath 2\theta}$
$D_\alpha^+ R_\theta^- S_\beta^+$	$-\theta$	$+\alpha e^{+\imath\theta}$	$+\beta$	$S_\beta^+ D_\alpha^- R_\theta^+$	$+\theta$	$-\alpha\lambda_\beta e^{-\imath\theta} + \alpha^*\nu_\beta e^{-\imath\theta}$	$+\beta e^{-\imath 2\theta}$
$D_\alpha^+ R_\theta^+ S_\beta^-$	$+\theta$	$+\alpha e^{-\imath\theta}$	$-\beta$	$S_\beta^+ D_\alpha^+ R_\theta^-$	$-\theta$	$+\alpha\lambda_\beta e^{+\imath\theta} - \alpha^*\nu_\beta e^{+\imath\theta}$	$+\beta e^{+\imath 2\theta}$
$D_\alpha^+ R_\theta^+ S_\beta^+$	$+\theta$	$+\alpha e^{-\imath\theta}$	$+\beta$	$S_\beta^+ D_\alpha^+ R_\theta^+$	$+\theta$	$+\alpha\lambda_\beta e^{-\imath\theta} - \alpha^*\nu_\beta e^{-\imath\theta}$	$+\beta e^{-\imath 2\theta}$

which is obtained by using (15), (16), and by noticing that $R_\theta|0\rangle = |0\rangle$. For pure Gaussian states defined according to Yuen, see (12), the closure under rotational transformations is preserved as

$$\begin{aligned} |\phi, \mu, \zeta\rangle &= R_\theta S_\zeta D_\mu \lambda_\zeta + \mu^* \nu_\zeta |0\rangle \\ &= S_\zeta D_{\tilde{\mu}} \lambda_\zeta + \tilde{\mu}^* \nu_\zeta |0\rangle. \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

C. Equivalence Conditions for Gaussian States

In general, Gaussian states can be obtained for any permutation of rotation, displacement, and squeezing operators, which in turn can be defined according to different conventions. It is therefore desirable to establish equivalence conditions for Gaussian states obtained according to arbitrary definitions. To this aim, for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, we introduce the following notation

$$\bar{n} \triangleq \begin{cases} - & \text{for } n < 0 \\ + & \text{for } n \geq 0 \end{cases} \quad (20)$$

which can be used to define the generalized unitary operators

$$R_\theta^{\bar{r}} \triangleq \begin{cases} e^{-\imath\theta A^\dagger A} & \text{for } r = -1 \\ e^{\imath\theta A^\dagger A} & \text{for } r = +1 \end{cases} \quad (21a)$$

$$D_\alpha^{\bar{d}} \triangleq \begin{cases} e^{\alpha^* A - \alpha A^\dagger} & \text{for } d = -1 \\ e^{\alpha A^\dagger - \alpha^* A} & \text{for } d = +1 \end{cases} \quad (21b)$$

$$S_\beta^{\bar{s}} \triangleq \begin{cases} e^{\frac{1}{2}\beta^* A^2 - \frac{1}{2}\beta(A^\dagger)^2} & \text{for } s = -1 \\ e^{\frac{1}{2}\beta(A^\dagger)^2 - \frac{1}{2}\beta^* A^2} & \text{for } s = +1 \end{cases} \quad (21c)$$

where $r, d, s \in \{-1, +1\}$ determine the convention for rotation, displacement, and squeezing operators, respectively. Let

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P} \triangleq \{ & R_\theta^{\bar{r}} D_\alpha^{\bar{d}} S_\beta^{\bar{s}}, R_\theta^{\bar{r}} S_\beta^{\bar{s}} D_\alpha^{\bar{d}}, D_\alpha^{\bar{d}} R_\theta^{\bar{r}} S_\beta^{\bar{s}}, D_\alpha^{\bar{d}} S_\beta^{\bar{s}} R_\theta^{\bar{r}}, \\ & S_\beta^{\bar{s}} R_\theta^{\bar{r}} D_\alpha^{\bar{d}}, S_\beta^{\bar{s}} D_\alpha^{\bar{d}} R_\theta^{\bar{r}} \} \end{aligned} \quad (22)$$

be the set of permutations of $R_\theta^{\bar{r}}$, $D_\alpha^{\bar{d}}$, and $S_\beta^{\bar{s}}$ defined in (21). Then, generalized mixed and pure Gaussian states can be respectively defined as¹

$$\Xi_{G_{\theta, \alpha, \beta}^{\bar{r}, \bar{d}, \bar{s}}}(\bar{n}) \triangleq G_{\theta, \alpha, \beta}^{\bar{r}, \bar{d}, \bar{s}} \Xi_{\text{th}}(G_{\theta, \alpha, \beta}^{\bar{r}, \bar{d}, \bar{s}})^\dagger \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}) \quad (23a)$$

$$|\psi_{G_{\theta, \alpha, \beta}^{\bar{r}, \bar{d}, \bar{s}}}\rangle \triangleq G_{\theta, \alpha, \beta}^{\bar{r}, \bar{d}, \bar{s}} |0\rangle \in \mathcal{H} \quad (23b)$$

where $G_{\theta, \alpha, \beta}^{\bar{r}, \bar{d}, \bar{s}} \in \mathcal{P}$. The equivalence conditions for generalized Gaussian states and those defined according to (8) and (11) are given by the Bogoljubov-Valatin transformations of ϕ , μ , and ζ that satisfy

$$R_\phi D_\mu S_\zeta \Xi_{\text{th}} S_\zeta^\dagger D_\mu^\dagger R_\phi^\dagger = G_{\theta, \alpha, \beta}^{\bar{r}, \bar{d}, \bar{s}} \Xi_{\text{th}}(G_{\theta, \alpha, \beta}^{\bar{r}, \bar{d}, \bar{s}})^\dagger \quad (24a)$$

¹Notice that the Gaussian states defined in (8) and (11) are obtained by using $G_{\phi, \mu, \zeta}^{\bar{r}, \bar{d}, \bar{s}} = R_\phi^{\bar{r}} D_\mu^{\bar{d}} S_\zeta^{\bar{s}}$ with $r = +1$, $d = +1$, and $s = +1$.

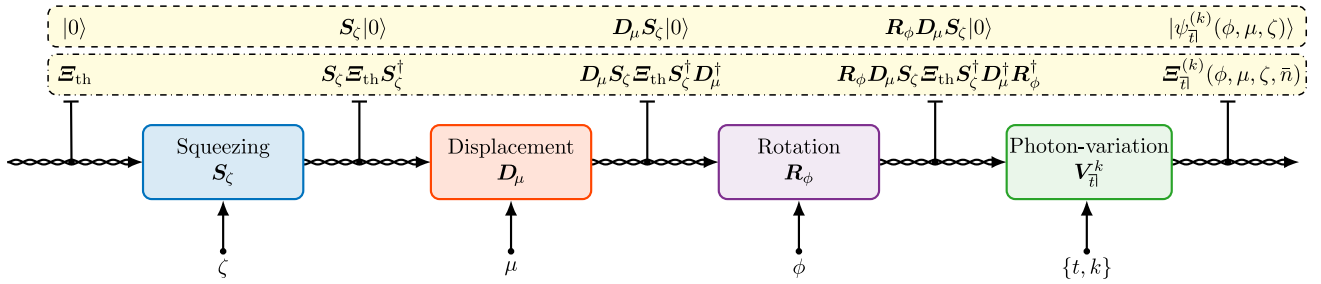


Fig. 1. Block diagram representing the sequence of operations to obtain mixed PVGSs (dashed dotted box) and pure PVGSs (dashed box), respectively defined in (27) and (29), for ζ, μ, ϕ, t , and k given as input parameters.

$$\mathbf{R}_\phi \mathbf{D}_\mu \mathbf{S}_\zeta |0\rangle = \mathbf{G}_{\theta, \alpha, \beta}^{\bar{r}, \bar{d}, \bar{s}} |0\rangle \quad (24b)$$

for all $r, d, s \in \{-1, +1\}$ and $\mathbf{G}_{\theta, \alpha, \beta}^{\bar{r}, \bar{d}, \bar{s}} \in \mathcal{P}$. Such transformations are listed in Table I that reports, for each convention and permutation of rotation, displacement, and squeezing operators, the transformations of ϕ, μ , and ζ that satisfy (24a) and (24b). For example, consider the mixed Gaussian state

$$\Xi_{D_\alpha^- S_\beta^- R_\theta^+}(\bar{n}) = D_\alpha^- S_\beta^- R_\theta^+ \Xi_{\text{th}} (R_\theta^+)^\dagger (S_\beta^-)^\dagger (D_\alpha^-)^\dagger \quad (25)$$

which is obtained from (23a) with $\mathbf{G}_{\theta, \alpha, \beta}^{\bar{r}, \bar{d}, \bar{s}} = D_\alpha^- S_\beta^- R_\theta^+$ and convention determined by $r = +1, d = -1$, and $s = -1$. From Table I, $\Xi_{D_\alpha^- S_\beta^- R_\theta^+}(\bar{n})$ in (25) is equivalent to the Gaussian state $\Xi(+\theta, -\alpha e^{-i\theta}, -\beta e^{-i\theta}, \bar{n})$ defined according to (8). The same approach holds for pure Gaussian states by using (23b) and (24b).

Remark 1: The equivalence conditions in Table I extend the results of this paper to any kind of Gaussian states and PVGSs. This is also important from the experimental perspective, as optical setups generating Gaussian states may be easier to implement for specific orders of rotation, displacement, and squeezing operations than for others. \square

D. Photon-Variied Gaussian States

PVGSs are a subclass of PVQSs, which have been introduced in [84] to unify PAQSs and PSQSs. PVGSs can be implemented by exciting (photon-addition) or annihilating (photon-subtraction) photons from initial Gaussian states of the quantized electromagnetic field. For PVGSs, photon-addition and photon-subtraction operations are jointly described by the photon-variation operator, which is defined as

$$\mathbf{V}_{\bar{n}} \triangleq \begin{cases} \mathbf{A} & \text{for } t = -1 \text{ (photon-subtraction)} \\ \mathbf{A}^\dagger & \text{for } t = +1 \text{ (photon-addition).} \end{cases} \quad (26)$$

For a mixed Gaussian state $\Xi(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H})$ defined in (8), the corresponding mixed PVGS is (see Fig. 1)

$$\Xi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) \triangleq \frac{\mathbf{V}_{\bar{n}}^k \Xi(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) (\mathbf{V}_{\bar{n}}^\dagger)^k}{N_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\bar{n})} \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}) \quad (27)$$

where k is the number of photon-variation operations (i.e., k photon-additions or k photon-subtractions) and $N_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\bar{n})$ is the associated normalization constant (photon-variation is a non-unitary operation), which is given by

$$N_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\bar{n}) = \text{tr}\{\mathbf{V}_{\bar{n}}^k \Xi(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) (\mathbf{V}_{\bar{n}}^\dagger)^k\}. \quad (28)$$

Analogously, for a pure Gaussian state $|\phi, \mu, \zeta\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ defined in (11), the corresponding pure PVGS is (see Fig. 1)

$$|\psi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta)\rangle \triangleq \frac{1}{N_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}} \mathbf{V}_{\bar{n}}^k |\phi, \mu, \zeta\rangle \in \mathcal{H} \quad (29)$$

with associated normalization constant given by

$$N_{\bar{n}}^{(k)} = \sqrt{\langle \zeta, \mu, \phi | (\mathbf{V}_{\bar{n}}^\dagger)^k \mathbf{V}_{\bar{n}}^k | \phi, \mu, \zeta \rangle}. \quad (30)$$

Remark 2: PVGSs extend multiple classes of quantum states. In particular, PVGSs reduce to: (i) Gaussian states when $k = 0$; (ii) photon-subtracted Gaussian states (PSGSs) [89] when $t = -1$ and $k > 0$; and (iii) photon-added Gaussian states (PAGSs) when $t = +1$ and $k > 0$. Furthermore, when $\bar{n} \rightarrow 0, \zeta \rightarrow 0$, and $k > 0$, PSGSs reduce to coherent states (i.e., eigenvectors of \mathbf{A}), while PAGSs reduce to photon-added coherent states [64], [86]. \square

IV. FOCK REPRESENTATION OF PVGSs

The Fock representation is fundamental for assessing the properties of quantum states. This section derives the Fock representation of PVGSs.²

A. Mixed PVGSs

The Fock representation of a mixed PVGS is determined in the following theorem.

Theorem 1: Let $\Xi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H})$ be a mixed PVGS obtained by performing k photon-variation operations specified by t on the initial mixed Gaussian state $\Xi(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H})$. The Fock representation of $\Xi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n})$ is

$$\Xi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) = \sum_{n, m=0}^{\infty} \langle n | \Xi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) | m \rangle | n \rangle \langle m |$$

where the Fock coefficients $\langle n | \Xi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) | m \rangle$ and the normalization constant $N_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\bar{n})$ are respectively given by (31) and (32), at the bottom of the next page, with

$$A = 1 + \bar{n} + (2\bar{n} + 1) \sinh(|\zeta|)^2 \quad (33a)$$

$$B = (2\bar{n} + 1) \sinh(|\zeta|) \cosh(|\zeta|) e^{i(\zeta + 2\phi + \pi)} \quad (33b)$$

$$C = \frac{\bar{n}(\bar{n} + 1)}{\bar{n}^2 + (\bar{n} + \frac{1}{2})(1 + \cosh(2|\zeta|))} \quad (33c)$$

²For simplicity of notation, hereafter we drop the dependence on the parameters characterizing the quantum states when it is clear from the context.

$$D = \frac{(\bar{n} + \frac{1}{2}) \sinh(2|\zeta|) e^{i(\angle\zeta + 2\phi + \pi)}}{\bar{n}^2 + (\bar{n} + \frac{1}{2})(1 + \cosh(2|\zeta|))} \quad (33d)$$

$$E = e^{i\phi} \left[\frac{\frac{\mu}{2} + (\bar{n} + \frac{1}{2})\mu \cosh(2|\zeta|)}{\bar{n}^2 + (\bar{n} + \frac{1}{2})(1 + \cosh(2|\zeta|))} - \frac{(\bar{n} + \frac{1}{2})\mu^* \sinh(2|\zeta|) e^{i\angle\zeta}}{\bar{n}^2 + (\bar{n} + \frac{1}{2})(1 + \cosh(2|\zeta|))} \right] \quad (33e)$$

and $\min\{n, m\} - tk \geq 0$. In (32), the vector $\boldsymbol{\mu}_\phi$ is given by

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_\phi = [\mu e^{i\phi} \quad \mu^* e^{-i\phi}]^T \quad (34)$$

whereas the matrix

$$\mathbf{C}_s = \begin{bmatrix} [\mathbf{C}_s]_{1,1} & [\mathbf{C}_s]_{1,2} \\ [\mathbf{C}_s]_{2,1} & [\mathbf{C}_s]_{2,2} \end{bmatrix}$$

has the following elements

$$[\mathbf{C}_s]_{1,1} = \frac{1}{2}[(2\bar{n} + 1) \cosh(2|\zeta|) - s] \quad (35a)$$

$$[\mathbf{C}_s]_{1,2} = \frac{1}{2}(2\bar{n} + 1) \sinh(2|\zeta|) e^{i(2\phi + \angle\zeta)} \quad (35b)$$

$$[\mathbf{C}_s]_{2,1} = \frac{1}{2}(2\bar{n} + 1) \sinh(2|\zeta|) e^{-i(2\phi + \angle\zeta)} \quad (35c)$$

$$[\mathbf{C}_s]_{2,2} = \frac{1}{2}[(2\bar{n} + 1) \cosh(2|\zeta|) - s] \quad (35d)$$

with $s \in \{-1, +1\}$. \square

Proof: See Appendix B. \boxtimes

The normalization constant in (32) can also be used to determine the mean number of photons of mixed PVGSs through

$$\text{tr}\{\mathbf{A}^\dagger \mathbf{A} \boldsymbol{\Xi}_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n})\} = \frac{N_{\bar{n}}^{(k+1)}(\bar{n})}{N_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\bar{n})} - \frac{t+1}{2}.$$

Remark 3: For $k = 0$, $\boldsymbol{\Xi}_{\bar{n}}^{(0)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) = \boldsymbol{\Xi}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n})$ and, from (32), $N_{\bar{n}}^{(0)}(\bar{n}) = 1$ as required by the Gaussianity of $\boldsymbol{\Xi}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n})$. \square

As we will see in Section VI, the Fock representation is fundamental to designing QSC systems employing PVGSs. In [111] and [112], an alternative characterization of quantum states was established based on the number and distribution of the roots of their stellar representation, which is connected to their Husimi Q -function. Notice that the Husimi Q -function

of the mixed PVGS $\boldsymbol{\Xi}_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n})$ is obtained from (31) as

$$Q_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\xi; \phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) = \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{n,m=0}^{\infty} \langle n | \boldsymbol{\Xi}_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) | m \rangle \langle \xi | n \rangle \langle m | \xi \rangle$$

where $|\xi\rangle$ is a coherent state. Therefore, (31) can also be used to characterize mixed PVGSs according to [111], [112].

B. Pure PVGSs

The Fock representation of a pure PVGS is determined in the following theorem.

Theorem 2: Let $|\psi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta)\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ be the pure PVGS obtained by performing k photon-variation operations specified by t on the initial pure Gaussian state $|\phi, \mu, \zeta\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$. The Fock representation of $|\psi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta)\rangle$ is given by (36), at the bottom of the page, with

$$\begin{aligned} \Lambda_{\mu, \zeta} &= \sqrt{\text{sech}(|\zeta|)} \\ &\times \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(|\mu|^2 + (\mu^*)^2 \tanh(|\zeta|) e^{i(\angle\zeta + \pi)}\right)\right) \quad (37) \\ \eta_{\mu, \zeta} &= \frac{\mu + \mu^* \tanh(|\zeta|) e^{i(\angle\zeta + \pi)}}{\sqrt{2 \tanh(|\zeta|) e^{i(\angle\zeta + \pi)}}}. \quad (38) \end{aligned}$$

Proof: See Appendix C. \square

To complete the representation in (36), it is necessary to determine the normalization constant $N_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}$ given by (30), which is related to the inner product $\langle \psi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta) | \psi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta) \rangle$. The derivation of $N_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}$ is given in the next section where we derive the inner product of pure PVGSs.

V. INNER PRODUCT OF PURE PVGSs

Pure PVGSs can also be characterized based on their orthogonality, which is of particular interest as it impacts the performance of QSC. Therefore, as will be seen in Section VI, the inner product is fundamental to designing and analyzing QSC systems. This section derives the inner product of pure PVGSs.

$$\begin{aligned} \langle n | \boldsymbol{\Xi}_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) | m \rangle &= \frac{1}{N_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\bar{n}) \sqrt{A^2 - |B|^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{A|\mu|^2 + \frac{1}{2}[B(\mu^* e^{-i\phi})^2 + B^*(\mu e^{i\phi})^2]}{A^2 - |B|^2}\right) \\ &\times \sqrt{\frac{(m!n!)^t}{((m-k)!(n-k)!)^{t+1}}} \left(\frac{D}{2}\right)^{\frac{n-tk}{2}} \left(\left(\frac{D}{2}\right)^{\frac{m-tk}{2}}\right)^* H_{m-tk, n-tk}\left(\frac{\sqrt{2}E^*}{(\sqrt{D})^*}, -1; \frac{\sqrt{2}E}{\sqrt{D}}, -1 \middle| \frac{2C}{|D|}\right) \quad (31) \end{aligned}$$

$$N_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\bar{n}) = (-1)^k H_{k,k}\left(\left[\mathbf{XZ}\boldsymbol{\mu}_\phi\right]_1, -\frac{1}{2}\left[\mathbf{XZC}_{-t}\mathbf{Z}^\dagger\right]_{1,1}; \left[\mathbf{XZ}\boldsymbol{\mu}_\phi\right]_2, -\frac{1}{2}\left[\mathbf{XZC}_{-t}\mathbf{Z}^\dagger\right]_{2,2} \middle| -\left[\mathbf{XZC}_{-t}\mathbf{Z}^\dagger\right]_{1,2}\right) \quad (32)$$

$$|\psi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta)\rangle = \frac{\Lambda_{\mu, \zeta}}{N_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sqrt{\frac{(n+k)!}{n!(n-k\frac{t-1}{2})!}} \left(\frac{\tanh(|\zeta|) e^{i(\angle\zeta + 2\phi + \pi)}}{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}(n-k\frac{t-1}{2})} H_{n-k\frac{t-1}{2}}(\eta_{\mu, \zeta}) |n+k\frac{t+1}{2}\rangle \quad (36)$$

A. Generalized Bilinear Generating Function for the Inner Product of Pure PVGSs

The following theorem establishes that the inner product of two PVGSs defines a generalized bilinear generating function of ordinary Hermite polynomials.

Theorem 3: Let $|\psi_{\bar{s}1}^{(h)}(\varphi, \xi, \omega)\rangle, |\psi_{\bar{t}1}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta)\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ be two PVGSs obtained from the initial Gaussian states $|\varphi, \xi, \omega\rangle, |\phi, \mu, \zeta\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ by performing h and k photon-variation operations, respectively. Without loss of generality, consider $h \leq k$. The inner product $\langle \psi_{\bar{s}1}^{(h)}(\varphi, \xi, \omega) | \psi_{\bar{t}1}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta) \rangle$ defines the generalized bilinear generating function of ordinary Hermite polynomials given by (39) at the bottom of the page. \square

Proof: See Appendix D. \boxtimes

B. Expressions for the Inner Product of Pure PVGSs

The bilinear generating function associated with $\langle \psi_{\bar{s}1}^{(h)}(\varphi, \xi, \omega) | \psi_{\bar{t}1}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta) \rangle$ in (39) can be used to obtain closed-form expressions for the inner product of: (i) two PAGSs, for $(s, t) = (+1, +1)$; (ii) a PAGS and a PSGS, for $(s, t) = (+1, -1)$; (iii) a PSGS and a PAGS, for $(s, t) = (-1, +1)$; and (iv) two PSGSs, for $(s, t) = (-1, -1)$. Let

$$\rho = \left(\sqrt{\tanh(|\omega|)} e^{\imath(\angle\omega + 2\varphi + \pi)} \right)^* \sqrt{\tanh(|\zeta|)} e^{\imath(\angle\zeta + 2\phi + \pi)}. \quad (40)$$

By specializing Theorem 3 for the aforementioned cases (i), (ii), (iii), and (iv), the following corollaries are obtained.

Corollary 1: The inner product of two PAGSs $|\psi_{+1}^{(h)}(\varphi, \xi, \omega)\rangle, |\psi_{+1}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta)\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$, with $h \leq k$, is given by (41) at the bottom of the page. \square

Proof: See Appendix E. \boxtimes

Corollary 2: The inner product of a PAGS $|\psi_{+1}^{(h)}(\varphi, \xi, \omega)\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ and a PSGS $|\psi_{-1}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta)\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$, with $h \leq k$, is given by (42) at the bottom of the page. \square

Proof: See Appendix F. \boxtimes

Corollary 3: The inner product of a PSGS $|\psi_{-1}^{(h)}(\varphi, \xi, \omega)\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ and a PAGS $|\psi_{+1}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta)\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$, with $h \leq k$, is given by (43) at the bottom of the page. \square

Proof: See Appendix G. \boxtimes

Corollary 4: The inner product of two PSGSs $|\psi_{-1}^{(h)}(\varphi, \xi, \omega)\rangle, |\psi_{-1}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta)\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$, with $h \leq k$, is given by (44) at the bottom of the page. \square

Proof: See Appendix H. \boxtimes

Theorem 3 facilitates the derivation of the normalization constant $N_{\bar{t}1}^{(k)}$ of a pure PVGS $|\psi_{\bar{t}1}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta)\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$. Indeed, from the normalization condition

$$\langle \psi_{\bar{t}1}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta) | \psi_{\bar{t}1}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta) \rangle = 1$$

$N_{\bar{t}1}^{(k)}$ is obtained by using (41) and (44) for $t = +1$ and $t = -1$, respectively. Notice that the normalization constant of a pure PVGS is related to the normalization constant in (28) of a mixed PVGS through

$$N_{\bar{t}1}^{(k)} = \lim_{\bar{n} \rightarrow 0} \sqrt{N_{\bar{t}1}^{(k)}(\bar{n})}.$$

Remark 4: For $k = 0$, the initial Gaussian state is kept untouched and, from (5), it can be easily verified that $N_{\bar{t}1}^{(0)} = 1$ as required by its Gaussianity. \square

As we will see in Section VI, the inner product is fundamental to deriving the ultimate performance limits of QSC with PVGSs. Furthermore, it can also be used to determine the Husimi Q -function of pure PVGSs and to characterize them according to [111], [112]. In particular, the Husimi Q -function of a pure PVGS $|\psi_{\bar{t}1}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta)\rangle$ is found to be

$$Q_{\bar{t}1}^{(k)}(\xi; \phi, \mu, \zeta) = \lim_{\omega \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\pi} |\langle \psi_{\bar{s}1}^{(0)}(0, \xi, \omega) | \psi_{\bar{t}1}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta) \rangle|^2.$$

Therefore, when s and t are assigned, (41), (42), (43), and (44) allow one to obtain $Q_{\bar{t}1}^{(k)}(\xi; \phi, \mu, \zeta)$.

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi_{\bar{s}1}^{(h)}(\varphi, \xi, \omega) | \psi_{\bar{t}1}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta) \rangle &= \frac{\Lambda_{\xi, \omega}^* \Lambda_{\mu, \zeta}}{N_{\bar{s}1}^{(h)} N_{\bar{t}1}^{(k)}} \sum_{n=\max\{h\delta_{s,1}, k\delta_{t,1}\}}^{\infty} \left[\sqrt{\frac{(n+h\delta_{s,-1})!(n+k\delta_{t,-1})!}{(n-h\delta_{s,1})!(n-sh)!(n-k\delta_{t,1})!(n-tk)!}} \right. \\ &\quad \left. \times \left(\left(\frac{\tanh(|\omega|)}{2} e^{\imath(\angle\omega + 2\varphi + \pi)} \right)^{\frac{n-sh}{2}} \right)^* \left(\frac{\tanh(|\zeta|)}{2} e^{\imath(\angle\zeta + 2\phi + \pi)} \right)^{\frac{n-tk}{2}} H_{n-sh}(\eta_{\xi, \omega}^*) H_{n-tk}(\eta_{\mu, \zeta}) \right] \end{aligned} \quad (39)$$

$$\langle \psi_{+1}^{(h)}(\varphi, \xi, \omega) | \psi_{+1}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta) \rangle = \frac{\Lambda_{\xi, \omega}^* \Lambda_{\mu, \zeta}}{N_{+1}^{(h)} N_{+1}^{(k)}} \left(\frac{\rho}{2} \right)^h \left(\left(\frac{\tanh(|\omega|)}{2} e^{\imath(\angle\omega + 2\varphi + \pi)} \right)^{\frac{k-h}{2}} \right)^* G(\eta_{\xi, \omega}^*, \eta_{\mu, \zeta}; k, h | \rho, \rho^{-1}) \quad (41)$$

$$\langle \psi_{+1}^{(h)}(\varphi, \xi, \omega) | \psi_{-1}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta) \rangle = \frac{\Lambda_{\xi, \omega}^* \Lambda_{\mu, \zeta}}{N_{+1}^{(h)} N_{-1}^{(k)}} \left(\frac{\tanh(|\zeta|)}{2} e^{\imath(\angle\zeta + 2\phi + \pi)} \right)^{\frac{h+k}{2}} G(\eta_{\xi, \omega}^*, \eta_{\mu, \zeta}; 0, h+k | \rho, \rho) \quad (42)$$

$$\langle \psi_{-1}^{(h)}(\varphi, \xi, \omega) | \psi_{+1}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta) \rangle = \frac{\Lambda_{\xi, \omega}^* \Lambda_{\mu, \zeta}}{N_{-1}^{(h)} N_{+1}^{(k)}} \left(\left(\frac{\tanh(|\omega|)}{2} e^{\imath(\angle\omega + 2\varphi + \pi)} \right)^{\frac{h+k}{2}} \right)^* G(\eta_{\xi, \omega}^*, \eta_{\mu, \zeta}; h+k, 0 | \rho, \rho) \quad (43)$$

$$\langle \psi_{-1}^{(h)}(\varphi, \xi, \omega) | \psi_{-1}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta) \rangle = \frac{\Lambda_{\xi, \omega}^* \Lambda_{\mu, \zeta}}{N_{-1}^{(h)} N_{-1}^{(k)}} \left(\frac{\rho}{2} \right)^h \left(\frac{\tanh(|\zeta|)}{2} e^{\imath(\angle\zeta + 2\phi + \pi)} \right)^{\frac{k-h}{2}} G(\eta_{\xi, \omega}^*, \eta_{\mu, \zeta}; h, k | \rho, \rho) \quad (44)$$

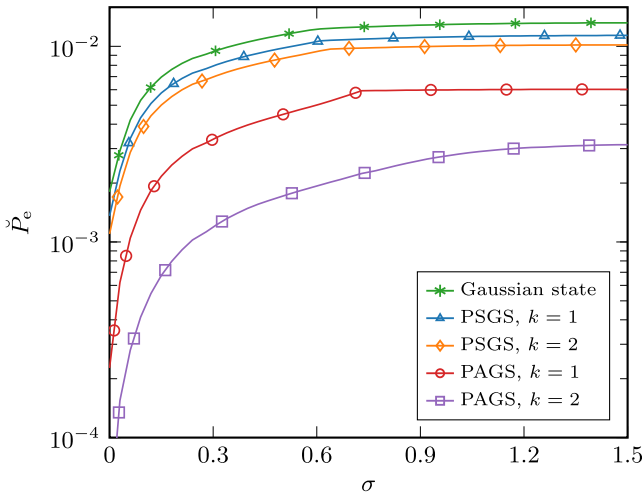


Fig. 2. Minimum DEP for the binary discrimination between a mixed PVGS, affected by phase diffusion, and the thermal state as a function of the diffusion coefficient σ . We set $\phi = 0$, $\zeta = 0.50$ and determine μ such that each state has a mean number of photons $n_p = 10$. The thermal state has intensity $\bar{n} = 0.10$ and the prior probabilities are $p_1 = p_2 = 0.5$.

VI. QUANTUM SENSING AND COMMUNICATION VIA PVGSS

This section explores the use of PVGSs for various QSC applications and evaluates their performance in several case studies.

A. Quantum Sensing With PVGSs

Quantum sensing, which is the process of measuring physical quantities of a target system by exploiting quantum mechanical properties [23], [24], [59], is essential for a wide plethora of applications including quantum illumination [21], [22], [23], [85], quantum tomography [23], and quantum metrology [23], [24], [25], [26], [113]. In such applications, the quantity of interest is measured based on the interaction between a quantum sensing system and the target system. Specifically, after the interaction, the final state of the quantum sensor contains information about the quantity of interest. However, due to the stochastic nature of quantum interactions, the final state cannot be deterministically identified. To address this problem, we consider quantum state discrimination (QSD) [41], [86], [114], [115], [116]. The sensing performance is related to the discrimination error probability (DEP), which depends on the quantum states used for sensing. In the literature, QSD was considered for photon-added coherent state [86] and PSGSs [89]. However, a complete characterization of QSD with PVGSs has been missing until now. In the following, we explore QSD with PVGSs. Let

$$\mathcal{S} \triangleq \left\{ \Xi_{\bar{i}_i}^{(k_i)}(\phi_i, \mu_i, \zeta_i, \bar{n}); i = 1, 2, \dots, M \right\} \subset \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}) \quad (45)$$

be a set of M PVGSs, representing the initial states of a quantum sensor, respectively with prior probability p_1, p_2, \dots, p_M satisfying $\sum_{i=1}^M p_i = 1$. The interaction between the sensor and the target system can be modeled as the mapping

$$\mathcal{T} : \mathcal{S} \longrightarrow \hat{\mathcal{S}}$$

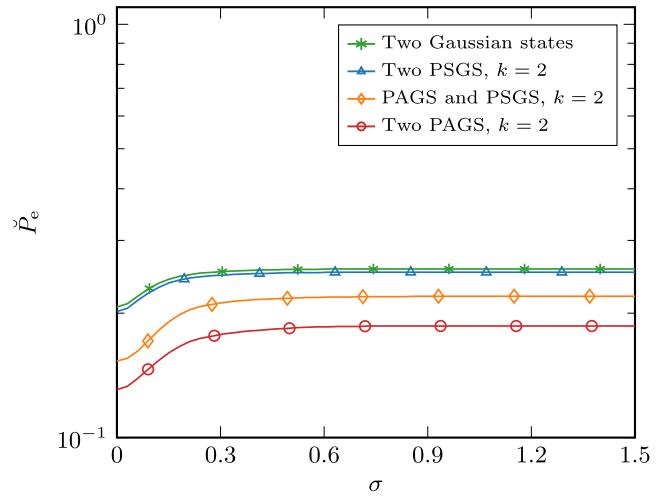


Fig. 3. Minimum DEP for the binary discrimination between two pure PVGSs, affected by phase diffusion, as a function of the diffusion coefficient σ . We set $\phi_1 = \phi_2 = 0$, $\zeta_1 = \zeta_2 = 0.25$ and determine μ_1 and μ_2 such that the two states have respectively a mean number of photons $n_{p1} = 8$ and $n_{p2} = 4$. PVGSs have $k_1 = k_2 = k = 2$ and the prior probabilities are $p_1 = p_2 = 0.5$.

$$\Xi_{\bar{i}_i}^{(k_i)}(\phi_i, \mu_i, \zeta_i, \bar{n}) \longmapsto \Upsilon_{\bar{i}_i}^{(k_i)}(\phi_i, \mu_i, \zeta_i, \bar{n}) \quad (46)$$

for $i = 1, 2, \dots, M$, where $\hat{\mathcal{S}} \subset \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H})$ is the set of quantum states resulting from the interaction between the initial PVGSs and the target system. Therefore, the QSD problem is formulated for quantum states in $\hat{\mathcal{S}}$. Let $\Upsilon_{\bar{i}_i}^{(k_i)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) \in \hat{\mathcal{S}}$ be the unknown random state of the quantum sensor after the interaction, the QSD problem can be formulated as a M -ary hypothesis testing problem where the i -th hypothesis is

$$H_i : \Upsilon_{\bar{i}_i}^{(k_i)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) = \Upsilon_{\bar{i}_i}^{(k_i)}(\phi_i, \mu_i, \zeta_i, \bar{n})$$

for $i = 1, 2, \dots, M$. The QSD performance is quantified by the DEP, i.e., the probability of incorrectly discriminating $\Upsilon_{\bar{i}_i}^{(k_i)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n})$. A case of particular interest is the binary ($M = 2$) QSD, namely when $\Upsilon_{\bar{i}_i}^{(k_i)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n})$ has to be discriminated among the binary set $\hat{\mathcal{S}} = \{\Upsilon_{\bar{i}_1}^{(k_1)}(\phi_1, \mu_1, \zeta_1, \bar{n}), \Upsilon_{\bar{i}_2}^{(k_2)}(\phi_2, \mu_2, \zeta_2, \bar{n})\}$.³ According to the optimal binary discrimination strategy, the minimum achievable DEP is given by [41]

$$\check{P}_e = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \|\Delta\|_1) \quad (47)$$

where $\|\cdot\|_1 = \text{tr}\{\sqrt{(\cdot)^\dagger(\cdot)}\}$ denotes the trace-norm and $\Delta = p_2 \Upsilon_{\bar{i}_2}^{(k_2)}(\phi_2, \mu_2, \zeta_2, \bar{n}) - p_1 \Upsilon_{\bar{i}_1}^{(k_1)}(\phi_1, \mu_1, \zeta_1, \bar{n})$. Note that (47) can be evaluated using the Fock representation of the states $\Upsilon_{\bar{i}_i}^{(k_i)}(\phi_i, \mu_i, \zeta_i, \bar{n})$, which is related to the Fock representation (31) of the initial PVGSs $\Xi_{\bar{i}_i}^{(k_i)}(\phi_i, \mu_i, \zeta_i, \bar{n})$. The ultimate performance limit for binary QSD is obtained from (47) by considering an ideal interaction, i.e., $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{H}}$

³Examples of quantum sensing applications that rely on binary QSD are quantum illumination and signal detection. In the former, hypotheses are associated with the presence or the absence of a target. In the latter, hypotheses describe the detection of the signal state or the background state.

in (46),⁴ and pure PVGSs, i.e., $\bar{n} = 0$. In this case, \check{P}_e becomes

$$\check{P}_e = \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - 4p_1p_2|\langle \psi_{\tau_1}^{(k_1)}(\phi_1, \mu_1, \zeta_1) | \psi_{\tau_2}^{(k_2)}(\phi_2, \mu_2, \zeta_2) \rangle|^2}}{2} \quad (48)$$

and depends on the inner product of the two pure PVGSs.

To evaluate the performance of PVGSs, we consider a binary QSD problem for a scenario in which the interaction between the quantum sensor and the target system is modeled as a phase diffusion process, which can be used to describe decoherence caused by a scattering process. Phase diffusion relates $\mathcal{Y}_{\tau_i}^{(k_i)}(\phi_i, \mu_i, \zeta_i, \bar{n})$ and $\mathcal{X}_{\tau_i}^{(k_i)}(\phi_i, \mu_i, \zeta_i, \bar{n})$ via [117]

$$\begin{aligned} \langle n | \mathcal{Y}_{\tau_i}^{(k_i)}(\phi_i, \mu_i, \zeta_i, \bar{n}) | m \rangle &= e^{-(n-m)^2 \sigma^2} \\ &\times \langle n | \mathcal{X}_{\tau_i}^{(k_i)}(\phi_i, \mu_i, \zeta_i, \bar{n}) | m \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (49)$$

for $i = 1, 2$, where $\sigma \geq 0$ denotes the diffusion coefficient shaping the exponential decay of off-diagonal Fock coefficients of initial PVGSs. Notice that, from (49), the Fock representation of PVGSs derived in Section IV is fundamental to determining the Fock representation of $\mathcal{Y}_{\tau_i}^{(k_i)}(\phi_i, \mu_i, \zeta_i, \bar{n})$.

Fig. 2 shows the minimum DEP as a function of σ when discriminating between a mixed PVGS and the thermal state in the presence of phase diffusion. Notice that PVGSs always outperform the Gaussian state. In particular, the performance improves with the number of photon-variations and degrades with the diffusion coefficient. For each PVGS setting, there exists a threshold for σ above which \check{P}_e approaches a horizontal asymptote. This can be attributed to the fact that when σ is large, the Fock coefficients outside the diagonal are strongly attenuated by the exponential decay in (49). Fig. 2 also shows that the performance improvement of PVGSs over the Gaussian state is larger than that of PSGSs. This is due to the fact that for squeezing $\zeta = 0.50$, the benefits of photon-subtraction vanish since PSGSs approach coherent states, which are invariant to photon-subtractions. Therefore, the use of PSGSs is recommended only for large squeezing.

Similar considerations hold for Fig. 3, which shows the minimum DEP as a function of σ when discriminating between two pure ($\bar{n} = 0$) PVGSs obtained by performing two photon-variations and affected by phase diffusion. As in Fig. 2, PVGSs always outperform Gaussian states, with significant performance gain when discriminating between a PVGS and a PSGS and, especially, between two PVGSs. Notice that, despite $\bar{n} = 0$, \check{P}_e is higher than that shown in Fig. 2. This can be attributed to the fact that the two PVGSs, with intensity

$n_{p1} = 8$ and $n_{p2} = 4$, are less distinguishable compared to the scenario discussed in Fig. 2.

Finally, notice that the results discussed in Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 also show that PVGSs facilitate more reliable quantum communications than Gaussian states. Indeed, classical information, represented by digital symbols with known prior probabilities, can be properly encoded into PVGSs propagating through a quantum channel (modeled analogously to (46)) to the destination. Then, the quantum receiver can perform QSD to identify the transmitted PVGSs and retrieve the encoded symbols. In this case, the DEP takes the role of the symbol error probability. Therefore, \check{P}_e shown in Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 can be respectively interpreted as the minimum symbol error probability of an on-off keying quantum communication and of a two-level quantum communication in the presence of phase diffusion (e.g., caused by scattering in optical fibers).

B. Quantum Key Distribution With PVGSs

Quantum key distribution (QKD) [118], [119], [120], [121], [122], [123], [124] is crucial for secure quantum communications and allows two parties, commonly referred to as Alice and Bob, to generate and exchange theoretically secure cryptographic keys by exploiting properties of quantum mechanics. Widely adopted metrics to assess the QKD performance are the transmission distance and secure key generation rate.

In discrete-variable QKD (DV-QKD) protocols, Alice exploits the particle nature of light to encode the information into qubits, for example realized as the polarization of photons. The security of such protocols relies on the fact that Alice employs an ideal single-photon light source. However, practical implementations of such sources exhibit a non-zero probability of generating undesired vacuum and multi-photon radiations. Vacuum radiations reduce the secure key generation rate as no information is transmitted, while multi-photon radiations can be exploited by an eavesdropper Eve to extract information about the key, thus harming the unconditional security of QKD [125], [126], [127]. Such a problem is exacerbated in scenarios with lossy quantum channels. This calls for more robust protocol variants, such as the widely adopted decoy-state protocol [128], [129], [130], [131]. The idea behind the decoy-state protocol is that Alice employs two light sources, namely signal source and decoy source, with slightly different intensities so that the emitted radiations cannot be distinguished by Eve. This strategy allows Alice and Bob to detect Eve by comparing measured and theoretical statistics of decoy radiations.

Developing QKD with the decoy-state protocol requires the design of strong sub-Poissonian signal and decoy light sources. However, in typical implementations using weak Gaussian states, the secure key generation rate is limited by the high vacuum emission probability. The use of PVGSs in DV-QKD was explored for subclasses of PVGSs [92], [93], [94]. In the following, we characterize DV-QKD with PVGSs and show that using weak PVGSs can provide better QKD performance

⁴All interactions \mathcal{T} are (non-strictly) contractive in the trace-norm. Therefore, the output states of any interaction will be closer in trace-norm distance than the input ones, thus resulting in a worse \check{P}_e . The ideal interaction $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{H}}$, however, is an isometry so it leads to achieving (48).

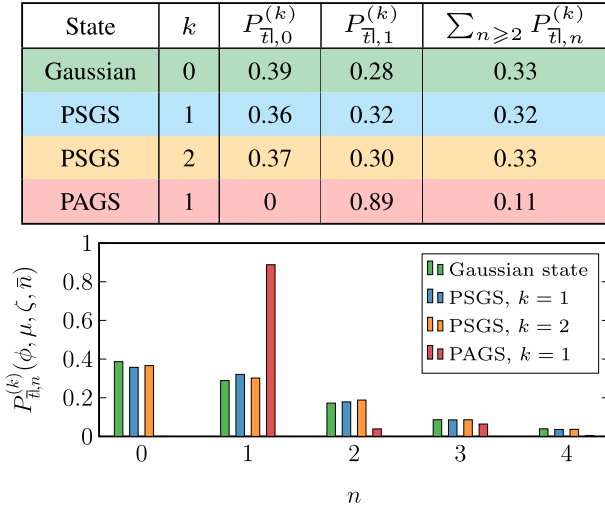


Fig. 4. Photon number distribution of a light source producing Gaussian states and PVGSs with $\bar{n} = 0$, $\phi = 0$, $\zeta = 0.20$, and μ chosen such that the states have $n_p = 1.20$. The table reports vacuum, single-photon, and multi-photon emission probabilities; the histogram depicts the dominant terms of the photon number distribution.

than using weak Gaussian states with the same intensity. The stochastic photon emission of a light source producing PVGSs obeys the corresponding photon number distribution given by the diagonal elements of the associated Fock representation, namely (31) and (36) for mixed and pure PVGSs, respectively. The photon number distribution of a mixed PVGS is given by

$$P_{\bar{n},n}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) = \langle n | \Xi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) | n \rangle \quad (50)$$

which describes how likely a light source producing PVGSs emits radiations with n photons. In particular, (50) shows that the stochastic photon emission can be engineered by tuning ω , T (both determine \bar{n} through the Planck law), k , ϕ , μ , and ζ . From (50), the probabilities of emitting vacuum, single-photon, and multi-photon radiations are respectively $P_{\bar{n},0}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n})$, $P_{\bar{n},1}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n})$, and $\sum_{n \geq 2} P_{\bar{n},n}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n})$.

Fig. 4 shows the photon number distribution of Gaussian states and PVGSs with $\bar{n} = 0$, $\phi = 0$, $\zeta = 0.20$, and μ chosen such that the states have a mean number of photons $n_p = 1.20$. In particular, the table reports the probabilities of emitting vacuum, single-photon, and multi-photon radiations, while the histogram represents the dominant terms of the photon number distribution. Notice that photon-variation operations reduce the vacuum emission probability in favor of a higher single-photon probability, thus being beneficial to the secure key generation rate. Note also that PAGSs with $k = 1$ are strong sub-Poissonian with $P_{\bar{n},1}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) = 0.89$ due to the photon-addition, which eliminates the vacuum and reduces the multi-photon emission probability. Therefore, we expect that PAGSs provide better QKD performance than PGSs and Gaussian states. However, the use of PAGSs with $k \geq 2$ is forbidden in order to have a non-zero single-photon probability. Otherwise, PAGSs would emit only multi-photon radiations, thus compromising the QKD security. This restriction does not apply for PGSs. Nonetheless, PGSs with $k = 2$ exhibit

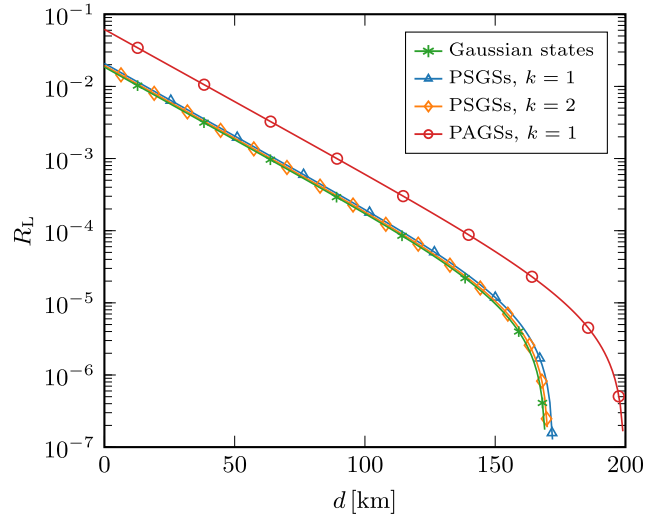


Fig. 5. Lower bound on the secure key generation rate of the decoy-state protocol as a function of the transmission distance using Gaussian states and PVGSs. Signal states' parameters are the same used for the scenario in Fig. 4. Regarding decoy states' parameters, we set $\phi = 0$, $\zeta = 0.20$ and determine μ to guarantee $n_p = 1.15$.

higher vacuum probability and lower single-photon probability than PGSs with $k = 1$.

To assess the performance of QKD employing PVGSs, we evaluate the lower bound on the secure key generation rate of the decoy state protocol with a single decoy as [130]

$$R_L = \frac{1}{2} \left(-Q_g f_e h_2(R_e) + \tilde{P}_{\bar{n},1}^{(k)} Y_1 [1 - h_2(e_1)] \right) \quad (51)$$

where Q_g is the overall gain for the signal source, f_e is the bidirectional error correction efficiency, $h_2(\cdot)$ is the binary entropy function, R_e is the total error rate, $\tilde{P}_{\bar{n},1}^{(k)}$ is the single-photon emission probability for signal PVGSs, Y_1 is the detection probability conditioned to the event that Alice sent a single-photon radiation, and e_1 is the error rate associated with single-photon radiations. Consider a non-ideal optical fiber-based quantum channel operating at wavelength $\lambda = 1550$ nm with attenuation coefficient 0.2 dB/km, which introduces photon-loss during propagation, and an imperfect detection system with parameters given in [132].

Fig. 5 shows the lower bound on the secure key generation rate of the decoy-state protocol with Gaussian states and PVGSs as a function of the transmission distance. Notice that, as we expected in light of considerations on Fig. 4, PAGSs outperform both PGSs and Gaussian states. This can be attributed to the fact that the photon-addition operation eliminates the vacuum emission and increases the single-photon emission probability at the expense of the multi-photon one. On the other hand, PGSs perform slightly better than Gaussian states due to the small reduction of the vacuum emission probability in favor of the single-photon one. However, PGSs with $k = 1$ perform better than PGSs with $k = 2$ due to the higher single-photon emission probability.

VII. CONCLUSION

This paper established a theoretical foundation for QSC employing PVGSs, accommodating for noise in state preparation. We characterized PVGSs by deriving their Fock representation and their inner product using generalized H-KdF polynomials. We also determined equivalence conditions for Gaussian states obtained from arbitrary permutations of rotation, displacement, and squeezing operators. Finally, we explored the use of PVGSs for QSC, utilized their characterization to design QSC systems, and quantified their performance in several case studies. Numerical results show that using PVGSs for QSC can provide significant performance improvements compared to Gaussian states. The findings of this paper pave the way for the development of QSC with non-Gaussian states.

APPENDIX A
PROOF OF LEMMA 1

Let $x, y, z, u, t \in \mathbb{C}$, $|t| < 1$, and $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$. By substituting (4) in (1) with $y = -1$ and $u = -1$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} & H_{m,n}(2x, -1; 2z, -1|t) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\min\{m,n\}} \binom{m}{k} \binom{n}{k} t^k k! H_{m-k}(x) H_{n-k}(z). \end{aligned} \quad (52)$$

Now, by using [133, eq. (4.1)], the right-hand side of (7) can be written as (53) at the bottom of the page. Finally, (7) follows by using (6), (52), and (5) in (53).

APPENDIX B
PROOF OF THEOREM 1

Let $\Xi(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) \in \mathfrak{D}(\mathcal{H})$ be the initial Gaussian state and $\Xi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) \in \mathfrak{D}(\mathcal{H})$ the corresponding PVGS obtained by performing k photon-variation operations specified by t . From (16) and (17), it follows

$$\langle n | \Xi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) | m \rangle = \langle n | \Xi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(0, \hat{\mu}, \hat{\zeta}, \bar{n}) | m \rangle. \quad (54)$$

The definition of $V_{\bar{n}}$ in (26) yields

$$(V_{\bar{n}}^\dagger)^k | n \rangle = \sqrt{\frac{(n - k \frac{t-1}{2})!}{(n - k \frac{t+1}{2})!}} | n - tk \rangle. \quad (55)$$

By using (55) in (54), we obtain (56) at the bottom of the page. Then, (31) follows by using [110, eqs. (4.4), (4.23), and (5.2)], (33), and (1) in (56). In particular, (33) is derived from [110, eqs. (2.9), (2.10), (4.9), (4.10), and

(4.11)] and by noting that, from (16), $|\hat{\mu}| = |\mu|$, $|\hat{\zeta}| = |\zeta|$, and $\angle \hat{\zeta} = \angle \zeta + 2\phi$.

To complete the proof, we have to demonstrate (32). This requires deriving the covariance matrix of the initial Gaussian state. From (15), we can write

$$\mathbf{R}_\phi \mathbf{D}_\mu \mathbf{S}_\zeta = \mathbf{D}_{\mu e^{i\phi}} \mathbf{R}_\phi \mathbf{S}_{|\zeta| e^{i\angle \zeta}} \quad (57a)$$

$$= \mathbf{D}_{\mu e^{i\phi}} \mathbf{R}_{\phi + \frac{\angle \zeta}{2}} \mathbf{S}_{|\zeta|} \mathbf{R}_{-\frac{\angle \zeta}{2}} \quad (57b)$$

where (57b) follows from (57a) by using $\mathbf{S}_\zeta = \mathbf{R}_{-\frac{\angle \zeta}{2}} \mathbf{S}_{|\zeta|} \mathbf{R}_{\frac{\angle \zeta}{2}}^\dagger$, $\mathbf{R}_\phi \mathbf{R}_{-\frac{\angle \zeta}{2}} = \mathbf{R}_{\phi + \frac{\angle \zeta}{2}}$, and $\mathbf{R}_{\frac{\angle \zeta}{2}}^\dagger = \mathbf{R}_{-\frac{\angle \zeta}{2}}$. By using (57b) and the invariance of Ξ_{th} to rotational transformations, $\Xi(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n})$ can equivalently be written as

$$\Xi(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) = \mathbf{D}_{\mu e^{i\phi}} \mathbf{R}_{\phi + \frac{\angle \zeta}{2}} \mathbf{S}_{|\zeta|} \Xi_{\text{th}} \mathbf{S}_{|\zeta|}^\dagger \mathbf{R}_{\phi + \frac{\angle \zeta}{2}}^\dagger \mathbf{D}_{\mu e^{i\phi}}^\dagger. \quad (58)$$

Notice that the Gaussian state in (58) has the same form as that in [52], thus allowing us to use the same approach to derive its covariance matrix. Recall that, in the Heisenberg picture, \mathbf{R}_ϕ and \mathbf{S}_ζ generate linear canonical Bogoljubov-Valatin transformations of the bosonic operators \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{A}^\dagger . Such transformations are described in the phase space through the associated symplectic matrices. In particular, the symplectic matrices associated with $\mathbf{R}_{\phi + \frac{\angle \zeta}{2}}$ and $\mathbf{S}_{|\zeta|}$ are

$$\check{\mathbf{R}}_{\phi + \frac{\angle \zeta}{2}} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\phi + \frac{\angle \zeta}{2}) & -\sin(\phi + \frac{\angle \zeta}{2}) \\ \sin(\phi + \frac{\angle \zeta}{2}) & \cos(\phi + \frac{\angle \zeta}{2}) \end{bmatrix} \quad (59)$$

$$\check{\mathbf{S}}_{|\zeta|} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{|\zeta|} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-|\zeta|} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (60)$$

Hence, by using (59) and (60), the covariance matrix of $\Xi(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n})$ in (58) is

$$\mathbf{V} = \left(\bar{n} + \frac{1}{2} \right) \check{\mathbf{R}}_{\phi + \frac{\angle \zeta}{2}} \check{\mathbf{S}}_{2|\zeta|} \check{\mathbf{R}}_{\phi + \frac{\angle \zeta}{2}}^\dagger. \quad (61)$$

Finally, (32) follows by using [84, eqs. (14), (22), and (25a)], (61), and (1), with μ_ϕ given by (34) and \mathbf{C}_s given by (35).

APPENDIX C
PROOF OF THEOREM 2

Let $|\psi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta)\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ be the pure PVGS obtained by performing k photon-variation operations specified by t on the initial pure Gaussian state $|\phi, \mu, \zeta\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$. From (16), (18), and (29), we have

$$|\psi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta)\rangle = \frac{1}{N_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}} \mathbf{V}_{\bar{n}}^k \mathbf{D}_\mu \mathbf{S}_\zeta | 0 \rangle. \quad (62)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n}{n! 2^n} H_{n+r}(x) H_{n+s}(y) &= \frac{1}{(1-t^2)^{\frac{r+s+1}{2}}} \exp\left(\frac{2xyt - (x^2 + y^2)t^2}{1-t^2}\right) \\ &\times \sum_{k=0}^{\min\{r,s\}} \binom{r}{k} \binom{s}{k} (2t)^k k! H_{r-k}\left(\frac{x-yt}{\sqrt{1-t^2}}\right) H_{s-k}\left(\frac{y-xt}{\sqrt{1-t^2}}\right) \end{aligned} \quad (53)$$

$$\langle n | \Xi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta, \bar{n}) | m \rangle = \frac{1}{N_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\bar{n})} \sqrt{\frac{(n - k \frac{t-1}{2})! (m - k \frac{t-1}{2})!}{(n - k \frac{t+1}{2})! (m - k \frac{t+1}{2})!}} \langle n - tk | \mathbf{D}_\mu \mathbf{S}_\zeta \Xi_{\text{th}} \mathbf{S}_\zeta^\dagger \mathbf{D}_\mu^\dagger | m - tk \rangle \quad (56)$$

The definition of $V_{\bar{n}}$ in (26) yields

$$V_{\bar{n}}^k |n\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{(n+k\frac{t+1}{2})!}{(n+k\frac{t-1}{2})!}} |n+tk\rangle. \quad (63)$$

By expanding $|\psi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta)\rangle$ in the Fock basis and using (63), (62) can be written as

$$|\psi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta)\rangle = \frac{1}{N_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left[\langle n | \mathbf{D}_{\hat{\mu}} \mathbf{S}_{\hat{\zeta}} | 0 \rangle \times \sqrt{\frac{(n+k\frac{t+1}{2})!}{(n+k\frac{t-1}{2})!}} |n+tk\rangle \right]. \quad (64)$$

By substituting $p = n + k(t-1)/2$ in (64), we obtain

$$|\psi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta)\rangle = \frac{1}{N_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}} \sum_{p=0}^{\infty} \left[\langle p - k\frac{t-1}{2} | \mathbf{D}_{\hat{\mu}} \mathbf{S}_{\hat{\zeta}} | 0 \rangle \times \sqrt{\frac{(p+k)!}{p!}} |p + k\frac{t+1}{2}\rangle \right]. \quad (65)$$

Now, by using (19) and $\mathbf{S}_{\hat{\zeta}} = \mathbf{S}_{-\hat{\zeta}}^\dagger$, we have that

$$\langle m | \mathbf{D}_{\hat{\mu}} \mathbf{S}_{\hat{\zeta}} | 0 \rangle = \langle m | \mathbf{S}_{-\hat{\zeta}}^\dagger \mathbf{D}_{\hat{\mu} \lambda_{\hat{\zeta}} + \hat{\mu}^* \nu_{\hat{\zeta}}} | 0 \rangle. \quad (66)$$

In particular, (66) gives the m -th Fock coefficient of a Yuen's squeezed coherent state with displacement parameter $\hat{\mu} \lambda_{\hat{\zeta}} + \hat{\mu}^* \nu_{\hat{\zeta}}$ and squeezing parameter $-\hat{\zeta}$ [109]. Finally, by using (66) in (65) with $m = p - k(t-1)/2$ as well as [109, eq. (3.23)], [134, eq. (3.4)], (16), (37), and (38), we obtain (36).

APPENDIX D

PROOF OF THEOREM 3

Let $|\psi_{\bar{s}}^{(h)}(\varphi, \xi, \omega)\rangle, |\psi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta)\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ be the two PVGSs obtained from the initial Gaussian states $|\varphi, \xi, \omega\rangle, |\phi, \mu, \zeta\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$, with $h \leq k$. By using (36), the inner product can be written as in (67), at the bottom of the page, where we used the definition of the Kronecker delta to write $\delta_{s,1} = (s+1)/2$, $\delta_{t,1} = (t+1)/2$, $\delta_{s,-1} = -(s-1)/2$, and $\delta_{t,-1} = -(t-1)/2$.

Now, define $p = m + h\delta_{s,1}$ and $q = n + k\delta_{t,1}$, from which follow $m + h\delta_{s,-1} = p - h(\delta_{s,1} - \delta_{s,-1}) = p - sh$; $m + h = p - h(\delta_{s,1} - 1) = p + h\delta_{s,-1}$; $n + k\delta_{t,-1} = q - k(\delta_{t,1} - \delta_{t,-1}) = q - tk$; and $n + k = q - k(\delta_{t,1} - 1) =$

$q + k\delta_{t,-1}$. By using such relations together with the orthonormality of the Fock states, (39) follows from (67) after some algebra.

APPENDIX E

PROOF OF COROLLARY 1

By using $(s, t) = (+1, +1)$, the substitution $q = n - \max\{h\delta_{s,1}, k\delta_{t,1}\} = n - k$, (7), and (5) in (39), we obtain (68) shown at the bottom of the page. By exploiting generalized Leibniz's differentiation rule and the recursive derivative formula for ordinary Hermite polynomials, together with [135, eqs. (40) and (41)], (1), (40), and (5), we obtain (41). Notice that, as required in (7), (41) is well defined as $|\rho| < 1$.

APPENDIX F

PROOF OF COROLLARY 2

By using $(s, t) = (+1, -1)$ and the substitution $q = n - \max\{h\delta_{s,1}, k\delta_{t,1}\} = n - h$ in (39), we obtain, after some algebra, the following bilinear generating function

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi_+^{(h)}(\varphi, \xi, \omega) | \psi_-^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta) \rangle &= \frac{\Lambda_{\xi, \omega}^* \Lambda_{\mu, \zeta}}{N_+^{(h)} N_-^{(k)}} \left(\frac{\tanh(|\zeta|) e^{\imath(\angle\zeta + 2\phi + \pi)}}{2} \right)^{\frac{h+k}{2}} \\ &\times \sum_{q=0}^{\infty} \frac{\rho^q}{q! 2^q} H_q(\eta_{\xi, \omega}^*) H_{q+h+k}(\eta_{\mu, \zeta}). \quad (69) \end{aligned}$$

Then, by using (5), (40), and (7) in (69), we obtain (42). The convergence of (69) to (42) is ensured as $|\rho| < 1$.

APPENDIX G

PROOF OF COROLLARY 3

By using $(s, t) = (-1, +1)$ and the substitution $q = n - \max\{h\delta_{s,1}, k\delta_{t,1}\} = n - k$ in (39), we obtain, after some algebra, the following bilinear generating function

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi_-^{(h)}(\varphi, \xi, \omega) | \psi_+^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta) \rangle &= \frac{\Lambda_{\xi, \omega}^* \Lambda_{\mu, \zeta}}{N_-^{(h)} N_+^{(k)}} \left(\left(\frac{\tanh(|\omega|) e^{\imath(\angle\omega + 2\varphi + \pi)}}{2} \right)^{\frac{h+k}{2}} \right)^* \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi_{\bar{s}}^{(h)}(\varphi, \xi, \omega) | \psi_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta) \rangle &= \frac{\Lambda_{\xi, \omega}^* \Lambda_{\mu, \zeta}}{N_{\bar{s}}^{(h)} N_{\bar{n}}^{(k)}} \sum_{n, m=0}^{\infty} \left[\sqrt{\frac{(m+h)!(n+k)!}{m!(m+h\delta_{s,-1})!n!(n+k\delta_{t,-1})!}} \left(\left(\frac{\tanh(|\omega|) e^{\imath(\angle\omega + 2\varphi + \pi)}}{2} \right)^{\frac{m+h\delta_{s,-1}}{2}} \right)^* \right. \\ &\times \left. \left(\frac{\tanh(|\zeta|) e^{\imath(\angle\zeta + 2\phi + \pi)}}{2} \right)^{\frac{n+k\delta_{t,-1}}{2}} H_{m+h\delta_{s,-1}}(\eta_{\xi, \omega}^*) H_{n+k\delta_{t,-1}}(\eta_{\mu, \zeta}) \langle m + h\delta_{s,1} | n + k\delta_{t,1} \rangle \right] \quad (67) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi_+^{(h)}(\varphi, \xi, \omega) | \psi_+^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta) \rangle &= \frac{\Lambda_{\xi, \omega}^* \Lambda_{\mu, \zeta}}{N_+^{(h)} N_+^{(k)}} \frac{1}{2^h (1 - \rho^2)^{\frac{k}{2}}} \left(\left(\frac{\tanh(|\omega|) e^{\imath(\angle\omega + 2\varphi + \pi)}}{2} \right)^{\frac{k-h}{2}} \right)^* \\ &\times \frac{\partial^h}{\partial (\eta_{\xi, \omega}^*)^h} \left[M(\eta_{\xi, \omega}^*, \eta_{\mu, \zeta} | \rho) H_k \left(\frac{\eta_{\xi, \omega}^* - \eta_{\mu, \zeta} \rho}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}} \right) \right] \quad (68) \end{aligned}$$

$$\times \sum_{q=0}^{\infty} \frac{\rho^q}{q! 2^q} H_{q+h+k}(\eta_{\xi, \omega}^*) H_q(\eta_{\mu, \zeta}). \quad (70)$$

Then, by using (5), (40), and (7) in (70), we obtain (43). The convergence of (70) to (43) is ensured as $|\rho| < 1$.

APPENDIX H

PROOF OF COROLLARY 4

By using $(s, t) = (-1, -1)$ and $\max\{h\delta_{s,1}, k\delta_{t,1}\} = 0$ in (39), we obtain, after some algebra, the following bilinear generating function

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi_-^{(h)}(\varphi, \xi, \omega) | \psi_-^{(k)}(\phi, \mu, \zeta) \rangle \\ = \frac{\Lambda_{\xi, \omega}^* \Lambda_{\mu, \zeta}}{N_-^{(h)} N_-^{(k)}} \left(\frac{\rho}{2}\right)^h \left(\frac{\tanh(|\zeta|) e^{\nu(\angle\zeta + 2\phi + \pi)}}{2}\right)^{\frac{k-h}{2}} \\ \times \sum_{q=0}^{\infty} \frac{\rho^q}{q! 2^q} H_{q+h}(\eta_{\xi, \omega}^*) H_{q+k}(\eta_{\mu, \zeta}). \quad (71) \end{aligned}$$

Then, by using (5), (40), and (7) in (71), we obtain (44). The convergence of (71) to (44) is ensured as $|\rho| < 1$.

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