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School on New Trends in Quantum Dynamics and Quantum Entanglement

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ESSENTIAL ENTANGLEMENT

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I. Introduction

Entanglement is considered to be the key feature that distinguishes quantum from classical behaviour.

Inasmuch as quantum theory is intrinsically a statistical theory, and makes ^(statistical) predictions on measurement results, entanglement manifests in correlations of measurement results on different system components that are "stronger" than classical correlations and incompatible with classical probability theory as formulated by Kolmogorov.

Historically, entanglement was brought up by Schrödinger (1935), debated by Einstein, Podolsky and Rosen (1935), quantified by Bell (1964), and since demonstrated in a plethora of experiments (Aspect et al., Zeilinger et al., ...), in particular after the "invention" of the concept of a quantum computer (Shor, ...).

Recently, communities distinct from quantum engineering got absorbed in entanglement - e.g. strong field representation of helium (U. Becker et al., R. Dörner et al., ...), and quantum chemistry also study coherence effects in excitation and charge transport e.g. in biological systems. While 'captured' by water, these systems are very different from strongly screened systems that so far exist in human labs. In particular, they are widely open, noisy, and large, and thus define new challenges for theory.

This lecture will provide the elementary tools to ^{describe} understand entanglement in ent. systems.

"complete set of observables $A, B, C, \dots$ "

a) $A, B, C, \dots$ are pairwise commuting

$$AB = BA, \quad AC = CA, \quad BC = CB, \dots$$

$$[A, B] = 0, \dots$$

i.e. simultaneously diagonalizable

b) The eigenvalues $\{a_j, b_j, c_j, \dots\}$ of $A, B, C, \dots$

allow for an unambiguous identification of each eigen-

vector $|j\rangle$. $\{a_j, b_j, c_j, \dots\}$ are the "quantum numbers" characterizing $|j\rangle$.

II. Pure state entanglement

A. 1. Tensor product of composite or multidimensional quantum systems with multiple degrees of freedom

Given a complete set of observables $A, B, C, \dots$ for the description of a quantum system, we can associate each observable with its Hilbert space, eigenvalues and eigenvectors:

$$\begin{aligned} A|a\rangle &= a|a\rangle & \text{on } \mathcal{H}_A \\ B|b\rangle &= b|b\rangle & \text{on } \mathcal{H}_B \\ C|c\rangle &= c|c\rangle & \text{on } \mathcal{H}_C \\ &\vdots \end{aligned} \quad (\text{II.1})$$

We then define the "tensor product" or "product space" of $\mathcal{H}_A, \mathcal{H}_B, \mathcal{H}_C, \dots$ as

$$\mathcal{H} := \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B \otimes \mathcal{H}_C, \quad (\text{II.2})$$

$\uparrow$
"tensor"

as the vector space spanned by linear combinations of tensor products

$$|a\rangle \otimes |b\rangle \otimes |c\rangle := |a\rangle |b\rangle |c\rangle := |a, b, c\rangle, \quad (\text{II.3})$$

Example:

Polarization states $|0\rangle$ (horizontal) and $|1\rangle$ (vertical) of two photons live in a space spanned by

$$|0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle, |0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle, |1\rangle \otimes |0\rangle, |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle,$$

generated by linear ~~re~~ superpositions like

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |0, 0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |1, 1\rangle.$$

For as following discussion we consider ourselves with two factor spaces $\mathcal{H}_A$ and $\mathcal{H}_B$. The generalization for more than two factors is straightforward (as much as the construction of the product state is concerned).

Nomenclature:

two factors $\mathcal{H}_A, \mathcal{H}_B \iff$ "bipartite system"
 more than two factors $\iff$ "multiparticle system"

$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$ is again a vector space, by virtue of

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda (|a\rangle \otimes |b\rangle) &= (\lambda |a\rangle) \otimes |b\rangle \\ &= |a\rangle \otimes (\lambda |b\rangle) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{II.4})$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} (|a_1\rangle + |a_2\rangle) \otimes |b\rangle &= |a_1\rangle \otimes |b\rangle + |a_2\rangle \otimes |b\rangle \\ |a\rangle \otimes (|b_1\rangle + |b_2\rangle) &= |a\rangle \otimes |b_1\rangle + |a\rangle \otimes |b_2\rangle \end{aligned} \quad (\text{II.5})$$

Given dimensions d_A and d_B of the factor spaces, $\mathcal{H}$ has dimension

$$d_{\mathcal{H}} = d_A \cdot d_B, \quad (\text{II.6})$$

and is spanned by products of the basis vectors of $\mathcal{H}_A$ and $\mathcal{H}_B$,

$$\left\{ |a_j\rangle \otimes |b_k\rangle \right\}_{\substack{j=1, \dots, d_A \\ k=1, \dots, d_B}} \quad (\text{II.7})$$

Accordingly, each vector given as a product of two arbitrary vectors

$|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_A$ and $|\chi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_B$ has the decomposition

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi\rangle &= |\psi\rangle \otimes |\chi\rangle = \left(\sum_j c_j |a_j\rangle \right) \otimes \left(\sum_k r_k |b_k\rangle \right) \\ &= \sum_{jk} c_j r_k |a_j\rangle \otimes |b_k\rangle \end{aligned} \quad (\text{Eq. 8})$$

The scalar product on $\mathcal{H}$ is induced by those on $\mathcal{H}_A$ and $\mathcal{H}_B$:
for $|\psi\rangle, |\xi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ with $|\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle \otimes |\chi\rangle$ and $|\xi\rangle = |\eta\rangle \otimes |\zeta\rangle$
one defines

$$\langle \xi | \psi \rangle := \underbrace{\langle \eta | \psi \rangle}_{\text{scalar product on } \mathcal{H}_A} \cdot \underbrace{\langle \zeta | \chi \rangle}_{\text{scalar multiplication on } \mathcal{H}_B} \quad (\text{Eq. 9})$$

Tensor products of operators A and B on $\mathcal{H}_A$ and $\mathcal{H}_B$, respectively, act on $\mathcal{H}$ as

$$(A \otimes B) |\psi\rangle \otimes |\chi\rangle = A |\psi\rangle \otimes B |\chi\rangle, \quad (\text{Eq. 10})$$

where

$$A \otimes B = (A \otimes 1_B) (1_A \otimes B) = A \cdot 1_A \otimes 1_B \cdot B \quad (\text{Eq. 11})$$

The most general operator on $\mathcal{H}$ is of the form

$$R = \sum_i S_{ij} \otimes T_{ij} \quad (\text{Eq. 12})$$

and the most general vector in $\mathcal{H}$ is written

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{jk} c_{jk} |\psi_j\rangle \otimes |\chi_k\rangle, \quad (\text{Eq. 13})$$

where $|\psi_j\rangle$ and $|\chi_k\rangle$ need not be basis vectors of $\mathcal{H}_A$ or $\mathcal{H}_B$, respectively.

Not each operator on $\mathcal{H}$ can be written as a simple tensor product of operators on $\mathcal{H}_A$ and $\mathcal{H}_B$, and the analogous statement holds for vectors in $\mathcal{H}$.

In particular, states $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ with

$$|\psi\rangle \neq |\varphi\rangle \otimes |\chi\rangle \quad (\text{I } 14)$$

$$\forall |\varphi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_A, |\chi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_B$$

are called "entangled". States of the form $|\psi\rangle = |\varphi\rangle \otimes |\chi\rangle$ are called "separable".

II 2 Schmidt decomposition of states of bipartite quantum systems

The representation (I 8) of an arbitrary state vector $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ runs over two summation indices j and k . Given a specific state $|\psi\rangle$, we can rewrite that as follows:

$$|\psi\rangle \stackrel{\text{(I 8)}}{=} \sum_{jk} c_{jk} |a_j\rangle \otimes |b_k\rangle = \quad (\text{I } 15)$$

$$= \sum_{jk} d_{jk} |a_j\rangle \otimes |b_k\rangle,$$

$d_{jk} = c_{jk}$

Hence $d_{jk} = \langle a_j | \otimes \langle b_k | \psi \rangle$. ~~The arbitrary unitary~~ transformations U and V on $\mathcal{H}_1$ and $\mathcal{H}_2$, respectively, induce the transformations

$$|\tilde{a}_j\rangle = U |a_j\rangle \quad |\tilde{b}_k\rangle = V |b_k\rangle \quad (\text{I } 16)$$

$$\begin{aligned} d_{jk} &= \langle \tilde{a}_j | \otimes \langle \tilde{b}_k | \psi \rangle = \\ &= \langle a_j | U^\dagger \otimes \langle b_k | V^\dagger | \psi \rangle = \end{aligned}$$

(I 16)

Singular value decomposition: For any $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ $\exists U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$
 and $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$: $U^* A V = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_p) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$,
 $p = \min\{m, n\}$, where $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_p \geq 0$.

[S. G. Golub, C. F. van Loan, Matrix Computations, John
 Hopkins Univ Press 1996]

$\{|a_j^s\rangle\}_j$, $\{|b_j^s\rangle\}$ local ONB's

$$= \sum_{pq} \underbrace{\langle a_j | u^\dagger | a_p \rangle}_{=: u_{jp}} \underbrace{\langle b_k | v^\dagger | b_q \rangle}_{=: v_{kq}} \underbrace{\langle a_p | \otimes \langle b_q | \psi \rangle}_{=: d_{pq} \text{ (11.15)}}$$

$\{a_p\}, \{b_q\}$
 ONB on $\mathcal{H}_1, \mathcal{H}_2$

$\uparrow \uparrow$
 (sic!)

$$= [u d v]_{jk}$$

Therefore,

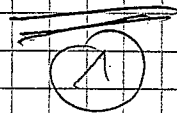
$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{(11.15, 16)} [u d v]_{jk} |a_j\rangle |\tilde{b}_k\rangle \quad (11.13)$$

Since any complex matrix d can be diagonalized by unitary transformations u and v , to yield its regular value decomposition with real, non-negative diagonal entries - 'regular values' - ~~λ_j~~ , we can always find local bases $\{|a_j^s\rangle\}$ and $\{|\tilde{b}_j^s\rangle\}$ such that

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_j \lambda_j |a_j^s\rangle \otimes |\tilde{b}_j^s\rangle \quad (11.14)$$

with the sum over one index alone. (11.12) is the Schmidt decomposition of $|\psi\rangle$, with the Schmidt coefficients λ_j .

11.3 (Reduced) density matrices



With (11.4, 5, 8, 9) we have embedded all states of $\mathcal{H}_A$ and $\mathcal{H}_B$ into $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$. Since, in the basis of (11.12, 13), $\mathcal{H}$ is 'larger' than the set of products of states of $\mathcal{H}_A$ and $\mathcal{H}_B$, we can ask to which extent it is possible to describe any state ~~of $\mathcal{H}$~~ in $\mathcal{H}$ with a state in $\mathcal{H}_A$ and $\mathcal{H}_B$.

To follow up this question, we now represent the state $|\psi\rangle$ by the associated projector on $\mathcal{H}$.

$$|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| = \sum_{j,j'} \mu_j \mu_{j'} |a_j^S\rangle\langle a_{j'}^S| \otimes |b_j^S\rangle\langle b_{j'}^S| \quad (\text{E.18})$$

where we set $\mu_j := \sqrt{\lambda_j}$

Let us first assume that the right hand side (RHS) of (E.18) contains only one non-vanishing term, i.e. $\mu_j = \delta_{j0}$, then

$$|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| = |a_0^S\rangle\langle a_0^S| \otimes |b_0^S\rangle\langle b_0^S| \quad (\text{E.20})$$

The partial trace of $|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$ over a complex band of $\mathcal{H}_B$ gives

$$\text{tr}_B |\psi\rangle\langle\psi| = \sum_m \underbrace{\langle m|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|m\rangle}_\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{OVR on } \mathcal{H}_B} =$$

$$= \sum_m |a_0^S\rangle\langle a_0^S| \otimes \underbrace{\langle m|b_0^S\rangle\langle b_0^S|m\rangle}_B =$$

$$= |a_0^S\rangle\langle a_0^S| \underbrace{\langle b_0^S|b_0^S\rangle}_{(\text{E.12})} = |a_0^S\rangle\langle a_0^S|,$$

$$\text{tr}_B |\psi\rangle\langle\psi| = |a_0^S\rangle\langle a_0^S|, \quad (\text{E.21})$$

and thus an unique mapping between $|\psi\rangle$ and $|a_0^S\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_A$.
 Strictly analogously, the ~~trace~~ partial trace over $\mathcal{H}_A$ maps $|\psi\rangle$ on $|b_0^S\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_B$.

The qualitative content of (E.21) is that the deliberate ignorance of the state of subsystem B does not affect the identification of $|\psi\rangle$ with a state of subsystem A .

The situation changes, though, if the r.h.s. side of (I 19) contains more than one term; partial trace over B leads to

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}_B |\psi\rangle\langle\psi| &= \sum_m \sum_{j,j'} \mu_j \mu_{j'} |a_j^s\rangle\langle a_{j'}^s| \underbrace{|\langle u|b_j^s\rangle|}_{\delta_{jj'}} \underbrace{|\langle b_{j'}^s|u\rangle|}_{\delta_{jj'}} \\ &= \sum_m \mu_m^2 |a_m^s\rangle\langle a_m^s|, \end{aligned} \quad (\text{I } 22)$$

which is a diagonal operator with eigenvalues $\mu_m^2 < 1$, on $\mathcal{H}_A$. Since any projector $|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$ on ~~some~~ $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_A$ has eigenvalues 0 and 1, $\text{tr}_B |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$ cannot be identified with a Bloch vector on $\mathcal{H}_A$!

Partial trace ~~of~~ Blochs on $\mathcal{H}$ over $\mathcal{H}_A$ or $\mathcal{H}_B$ in general generates operator-valued objects of the form (I 22), which can be identified with Bloch vectors $|\psi\rangle$ or $|\chi\rangle$ on $\mathcal{H}_A$ or $\mathcal{H}_B$ only if $|\psi\rangle$ is separable.

$$\rho_A := \text{tr}_B |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|, \quad \rho_B := \text{tr}_A |\psi\rangle\langle\psi| \quad (\text{I } 23)$$

are the reduced density matrices of $|\psi\rangle$ on $\mathcal{H}_A$ and $\mathcal{H}_B$, respectively, and operate on $\mathcal{H}_A$ and $\mathcal{H}_B$, respectively.

Comparison of (I 18, 19, 22) furthermore shows that the Schmidt coefficients of $|\psi\rangle$ can be obtained as the ^(non-vanishing) eigenvalues of the reduced density matrices ρ_A or ρ_B of $|\psi\rangle$.

The number of non-vanishing Schmidt coefficients of a Bloch $|\psi\rangle$ is called the Schmidt rank of $|\psi\rangle$.

The vector ~~the~~ $\vec{\lambda}$ with dimension $d = \min\{\dim(\mathcal{H}_A), \dim(\mathcal{H}_B)\}$

and the Schmidt coefficient of entangled in non-increasing order is called the Schmidt vector.

According to (14, 20, 21), separable states have only one non-vanishing ~~eff~~ Schmidt vector coefficient $\lambda_0 = 1$.

Correspondingly, a maximally entangled state has Schmidt vector $\lambda = \left(\underbrace{\frac{1}{d}, \dots, \frac{1}{d}}_{d \text{ entries!}} \right)$

Write the reduced density matrix of a separable state is pure,

since
$$\text{tr}_B \rho_{A, \text{sep}}^2 = \text{tr} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & 0 & \\ & & 0 \end{pmatrix}^2 = 1,$$

the reduced state of the maximally entangled state is maximally mixed, i.e.

$$\text{tr}_B \rho_{A, \text{max ent.}}^2 = \text{tr} \begin{pmatrix} 1/d & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & 1/d \end{pmatrix}^2 = d \cdot \frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{1}{d},$$

and the purity $\text{tr} \rho_{A/B}^2$ of the reduced density matrix of a state $|\Psi\rangle$ thus ~~defines~~ can be used as an entanglement indicator for pure states.

11.4 Local operations and classical communication (LOCC)

LOCC's provide some framework for the classification of entangled states (i.e. the rank of being more or less entangled).

They ~~include~~ comprise all manipulations that are allowed by the laws of quantum mechanics, including measurements, coherent driving, interaction with auxiliary degrees of freedom, under the condition

that they are restricted to either one of the individual subsystems.

Operations that require an interaction between the subsystems do not fall into this category, and quantum correlations that cannot be generated by local operations. Only classical communication is here admissible to create correlations. E.g. the result of a measurement can be communicated to a receiver ready to execute local operations on the other subsystem, and this subsequent measurement can be conditioned on the classically communicated measurement results. This will only create classical correlations between the subsystems, and no entanglement can be generated when starting from a separable state.

Consequently, one considers a state ρ_2 less or equally entangled than a state ρ_1 , if ρ_2 can be obtained from ρ_1 by LOCC. Maximally entangled states are then such states which allow to reach any other state by LOCC. In two-qubit systems, the Bell states

$$|\psi^\pm\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0,1\rangle \pm |1,0\rangle) \quad (\text{II.24})$$

$$|\phi^\pm\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0,0\rangle \pm |1,1\rangle)$$

are maximally entangled, and maximally entangled states of bipartite systems with sub-dimension d are of the form

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} \sum_{j=1}^d |j\rangle \otimes |j\rangle \quad (\text{II.25})$$

The situation gets considerably more complicated in multipartite states with more than two subsystems, since there inequivalent entanglement classes do exist. A well known example is provided by

$\mathcal{GHZ}$ - and W - states, as $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2 \otimes \mathcal{H}_3$, $\mathcal{H}_i \equiv \mathbb{C}^2$,

$$|\mathcal{GHZ}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [|000\rangle + |111\rangle], \quad (\text{a } 26)$$

$$|W\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} [|001\rangle + |010\rangle + |100\rangle]$$

~~Heuristics~~

While $|\mathcal{GHZ}\rangle$ as well as $|W\rangle$ are strongly entangled in some sense, neither $|\mathcal{GHZ}\rangle$ is reachable from $|W\rangle$ through LOCC, nor the reverse.

II.5 Two state entanglement quantities

As a consequence of the above, two states that can be transformed into each other by invertible LOCC's are ascribed equivalent entanglement properties. Invertible LOCC's are ^{precisely} local unitary transformations induced by single-qubitary transformations

$$U = U_1 \otimes U_2 = e^{-i(t_2 \otimes I_3 + I_2 \otimes t_3)t/\hbar} \quad (\text{a } 27)$$

An entanglement quantity therefore has to be invariant under such transformations. For bipartite systems, the Schmidt coefficients λ_j are precisely the invariants under transformations of type (a 27). Consequently, the λ_j fully describe the entanglement properties of a pure bipartite state.

Non-increasing ^(E) functions of the λ_j under LOCC's are called 'entanglement monotones'.

Entanglement monotones that satisfy some additional axioms

are called 'entanglement measures', though there is no uniquely accepted list of axioms. Some found in the literature are

- $E(|\psi\rangle)$ vanishes for separable states (makes sense!)
- $E(|\psi\rangle \otimes u) = u \cdot E(|\psi\rangle)$ 'additivity'
- $E(|\psi\rangle \otimes |\phi\rangle) \leq E(|\psi\rangle) + E(|\phi\rangle)$ 'subadditivity'
- $E(\lambda|\psi\rangle + (1-\lambda)|\phi\rangle) \leq \lambda E(|\psi\rangle) + (1-\lambda)E(|\phi\rangle)$,
for $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$ 'convexity'

[is general formulated for density matrices on $\mathcal{H}$,
 $|\psi\rangle \rightarrow \rho$, $|\phi\rangle \rightarrow \rho'$ see below chap II]

Some popular entanglement measures are:

- Schmidt rank S : the number of non-vanishing coefficients
in $(II.18)$

- Schmidt number K : $K = \left[\sum_{j=1}^S \lambda_j^2 \right]^{-1} = \left[\text{tr } \rho_A^2 \right]^{-1}$

$K \in [1; d] \sim$ inverse participation number (II.28)

- the von Neumann entropy: $S_{\text{vN}}(|\psi\rangle) = - \sum_{j=1}^S \lambda_j \ln \lambda_j$

- the concurrence:

$$C(|\psi\rangle) = \sqrt{2 \left(1 - \sum_{j=1}^S \lambda_j^2 \right)}$$

1.6 Quantum and classical correlations

To check our claim (rather formal) definitions to our opening remarks concerning correlations of measured results, consider the maximally entangled state (I.25) and the state

$$(II.29) \quad \rho = \frac{1}{d} \sum_{j=1}^d |\psi_j\rangle \langle \psi_j|, \quad |\psi_j\rangle = |j\rangle \otimes |j\rangle.$$

(An experimentalist prepares both subsystems always in the same random state $|j\rangle$, with balanced probabilities $\frac{1}{d} = p_j$). A projective measurement in the (orthonormal) basis $\{|j\rangle\}$ on the first subsystem ~~part~~ of (II.25) has completely random outcome, with probability $\frac{1}{d}$ for each of the possible results, though a subsequent measurement on the second subsystem has a certain result (the first measurement projects the two-particle state on a random result $|j_0\rangle \otimes |j_0\rangle$, and the outcome of a measurement on the second subsystem is then certain). However, precisely the same is true for a measurement in the $\{|j\rangle\}$ basis if performed on ρ in (II.29).

Only when the measurement is performed in another, distinct basis $\{|\alpha_p\rangle\}$ does the difference between (I.25) and (II.29) emerge:

Given the measurement outcome α_p on the first subsystem of (I.25), the two-body state $|\Psi\rangle$ is projected on

$$|\alpha_p\rangle \otimes \frac{1}{d} \sum_j \langle \alpha_p | j \rangle |\Psi\rangle = |\alpha_p\rangle \otimes |\tilde{\alpha}_p\rangle$$

with $|\tilde{\alpha}_p\rangle = \frac{1}{d} \sum_j \langle \alpha_p | j \rangle |j\rangle$. The $|\tilde{\alpha}_p\rangle$ ($p=1, \dots, d$) are mutually orthogonal, since $\langle \tilde{\alpha}_q | \tilde{\alpha}_p \rangle = \frac{1}{d} \sum_j \langle k | \alpha_q \rangle \langle \alpha_p | j \rangle \langle k | j \rangle = \frac{1}{d} \langle \alpha_p | \alpha_q \rangle = \delta_{pq}$ modulo normalization. The j only result of a subsequent measurement on the second subsystem in the basis $\{|\tilde{\alpha}_p\rangle\}$ is therefore deterministic! In contrast, a measurement on (II.29) in the basis $\{|\alpha_p\rangle\}$ projects onto $|\alpha_p\rangle \langle \alpha_p | \rho | \alpha_p \rangle \langle \alpha_p | = |\alpha_p\rangle \langle \alpha_p | \otimes \frac{1}{d} \sum_j |\langle \alpha_p | j \rangle|^2 |j\rangle \langle j|$, ~~and as mentioned~~ with the second subsystem in a mixed state. If subsequent measurement on the second subsystem will then of course provide an uncertain result!

II. Mixed state entanglement

While the Bloch decomposition (II.18) provides a versatile tool to analyze the entanglement properties of pure bipartite states of arbitrary (finite) dimension, and the difficulties of pure state entanglement characterization ~~is~~ fully encompassed for multiparticle states, it is much more demanding to characterize the entanglement content of mixed states of systems (aspir. than 2×2 - though this is precisely the challenge when one wants to assess the role of entanglement e.g. in photochemical reactions / transport processes in complex systems).

III.1 Mixed state entanglement measures

A mixed state ρ acting on $\mathcal{H}$ (that can be understood to be generated as a weighted average to our above construction of the reduced density matrices ρ_A and ρ_B) is called a "product state" if it can be written as

$$\rho = \rho_A \otimes \rho_B \quad (\text{III.1})$$

with ρ_A and ρ_B acting on $\mathcal{H}_A$ and $\mathcal{H}_B$, respectively. Such state bears no correlations between local measurements at all.

A mixed state of the form

$$\rho = \sum p_j \rho_A^{(j)} \otimes \rho_B^{(j)} \quad (\text{III.2})$$

with $\rho_A^{(j)}$ and $\rho_B^{(j)}$ acting on $\mathcal{H}_A$ and $\mathcal{H}_B$, respectively, and $p_j > 0$, $\sum p_j = 1$ is called "separable", because it reads only classical correlations (fully explained in terms of probabilities p_j). Mixed states that cannot be written

Indeed, (iii.4) presents all possible decompositions of g .

in the form (II.2) are called "rank-1".

Since, upon diagonalization, each mixed state can be written as an ~~or~~ ~~in~~ ~~the~~ ~~eigenbasis~~ ~~$|\phi_j\rangle$~~ ~~$\langle\phi_j|$~~ with eigenvalues μ_j (distinct from those in (I.18)!),

$$\rho = \sum \mu_j |\phi_j\rangle \langle\phi_j| \quad (\text{II.3})$$

It ~~may~~ is suggestive to define the entanglement of ρ as the weighted average of the entanglement of the $|\phi_j\rangle$, by

$$E(\rho) = \sum \mu_j E(|\phi_j\rangle) \quad (\text{II.3a})$$

However, as already

stated, any linear combination

$$\sum_j V_{ij} \sqrt{\mu_j} |\phi_j\rangle =: \sqrt{p_i} |\psi_i\rangle \quad (\text{II.4})$$

defines another valid decomposition of ρ , provided V is left-unitary, i.e.

$$\sum_k V_{ik}^* V_{kj} = \delta_{ij} \quad (\text{II.5})$$

Since

$$\sum_i p_i |\psi_i\rangle \langle\psi_i| = \sum_{ijk} V_{ij} \sqrt{\mu_j} |\phi_j\rangle \langle\phi_k| \sqrt{\mu_k} V_{ik}^* \quad (\text{II.4})$$

$$= \sum_{ijk} V_{ki}^* V_{ij} \sqrt{\mu_j \mu_k} |\phi_j\rangle \langle\phi_k| =$$

$$\stackrel{(\text{II.5})}{=} \sum_{jk} \delta_{kj} \sqrt{\mu_j \mu_k} |\phi_j\rangle \langle\phi_k| = \sum_j \mu_j |\phi_j\rangle \langle\phi_j|$$

"convex roof construction"

g_P does depend on the lifts used, but the eigenvalues of f_P^P
do not !

Consequently, the pure state decomposition of ρ is not unique, and neither is a weighted average $\bar{\rho}$ (III.5a).

A valid mixed state generalization of entanglement that is ~~invariant~~ under LOCC mon-increasing under LOCC is provided by taking the minimum over all pure state decompositions,

$$E(\rho) = \inf_{\{|\psi_i\rangle, p_i\}} \sum p_i E(|\psi_i\rangle) \quad (\text{III.6})$$

In systems larger than 2×2 no explicit general, explicit algebraic solution does exist for the optimization problem implicit in (III.6), and one generally needs to optimize over all left unitaries V in (III.4), which need to be done ~~of dimension~~ $V \in \mathbb{C}^{u^2 \times u}$, where u is the rank of ρ . Thus, one deals with an optimization space of dimension $\sim u^3$, which rapidly grows with the subsystem Hilbert space dimensions.

An exact solution to (III.6) for 2×2 systems has been given by Woerner in 1998.

III.2 Fixed state negativity

Due to the computationally demanding evaluation of (III.6) another entanglement monotone has been introduced which can be evaluated algebraically, the "negativity" $N(\rho)$. $N(\rho)$ is given in terms of the eigenvalues of the partial transpose of the state of a bipartite quantum system for an arbitrary bipartite state

$$\rho = \sum_{j,k \ell} \rho_{j,k \ell} |\varphi_j\rangle\langle\varphi_j| \otimes |x_k\rangle\langle x_\ell| \quad (\text{III.7})$$

The partial transpose is defined as

$$\rho^{PT} = \sum_{j,k \ell} \rho_{j,k \ell} |\varphi_j\rangle\langle\varphi_j| \otimes |x_\ell\rangle\langle x_k| \quad (\text{III.8})$$

If p^{PT} has eigenvalues λ_j , then the negativity of p is defined as

$$N(p) = \frac{\sum_j |\lambda_j| - 1}{2} \quad (\text{iii. 9})$$

$N(p)$ takes positive values if p^{PT} has at least one negative eigenvalue, though vanishes whenever p^{PT} is positive semi-definite.

Since in systems larger than 2×2 there exist entangled states with positive partial transpose, $N(p)$ is not strictly lower than zero for all entangled states and thus cannot detect all mixed state entanglement. However, it is exactly the measure which is easiest to evaluate for higher dimensional bipartite systems.

III.3 Trace distance

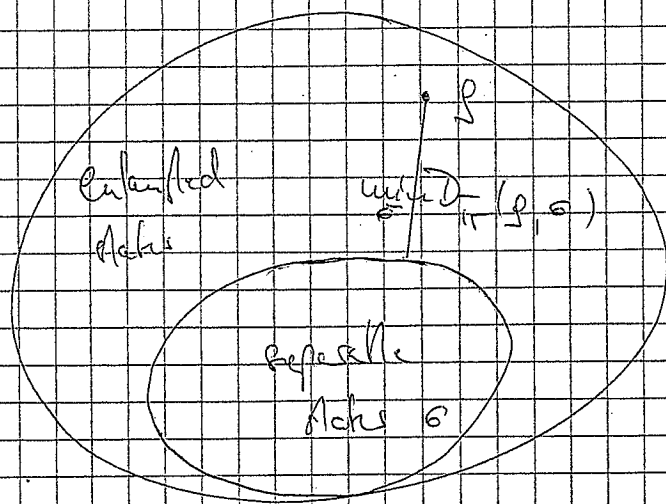
Since we straight forward generalization of the Schmidt decomposition or of negativity is available for multipartite systems with more than two factor spaces, other entanglement measures have been designed through measures of the distance between a given state and the set of ~~ent~~ separable states in state space. We ~~will~~ here briefly introduce the trace norm between two states, which quantifies their distance through

$$D_{\text{Tr}}(\rho, \sigma) = \text{Tr} |\rho - \sigma| = \|\rho - \sigma\|_{\text{Tr}} \quad (\text{iii. 10})$$

The minimal distance of a given state ρ from the separables,

$$E_{\text{Tr}}(\rho) = \min_{\sigma \text{ separable}} D_{\text{Tr}}(\rho, \sigma) \quad (\text{iii. 11})$$

then defines an entanglement measure, which is ~~unique~~ well-defined ^{due} to the convexity of the set of separable states (any straight line between two separable states contains only separable states).



Remark: Note that (11) actually can be rewritten

$$\text{as } N(\rho) = \frac{\|\rho^{PT}\|_{tr} - 1}{2} \quad (12)$$

IV. ~~Sketch~~ Benchmarking entanglement evolution

So far, we related the open system entanglement evolution directly from the time evolution of the system density matrix.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \textcircled{2} \\ \rho(t_0) \dashrightarrow \rho(t) \\ \uparrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow \\ \rho(t_0) \xrightarrow{\text{Brewer-Vockivi}} \rho(t) \end{array}$$

As the system size increases, it gets ever more demanding to ~~fully~~ transport the entire density matrix.

→ IS THERE SOME SORT OF UNIVERSAL BEHAVIOUR?

Weaknesses

- approach large system limit
 - ignore system details
 - need to live with uncontrolled errors
- STATISTICAL approach!

→ seek robust picture, universal!

IV.1 Pure states of d-level systems

$$|\psi\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^d \simeq \mathbb{R}^{2d} \quad (\text{IV.1}) \quad \text{~~(IV.1)~~}$$

global phase irrelevant $\rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2d-1}$

normalization $\rightarrow$ hypersphere $\mathbb{S}^{2d-2} \simeq \{|\psi\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^d, \|\psi\|=1\}$
(two level case $\rightarrow$ Bloch sphere $\mathbb{S}^2$)

IV.2 Dynamics of quantum states

open system dynamics ($\rightarrow$ Breuer, Vacchini!)

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} \rho(0) &\mapsto \rho(t) = \text{Tr}_{\text{env}} \left[U_{\text{tot}}(t) \rho_{\text{tot}}(0) U_{\text{tot}}^\dagger(t) \right] \\ &\equiv: \Lambda_t[\rho(0)] = \Lambda_t \rho(0) \quad (\text{IV.2}) \\ \text{with } \rho_{\text{tot}}(0) &= \rho(0) \otimes \rho_{\text{env}}(0) \end{aligned} \right.$$

Λ_t CPT (completely positive trace-preserving)

We are interested to characterize the global behavior of generic initial states under Λ_t , hence need to compare the dynamics of different initial states.

→ Use trace distance of two states ρ, σ .

$$D_{tr}(\rho, \sigma) = \|\rho - \sigma\|_{tr} = \text{tr} |\rho - \sigma| = \text{tr} \sqrt{(\rho - \sigma)^\dagger (\rho - \sigma)} \quad (\text{IV.3})$$

Russek 1994 (+ relation):

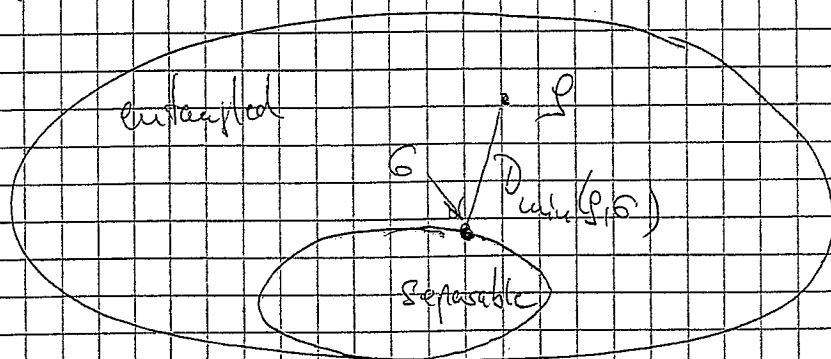
$$D_{tr}[\Lambda_t(\rho), \Lambda_t(\sigma)] \leq D_{tr}(\rho, \sigma) \quad (\text{IV.4})$$

$\forall$ CPT - maps Λ_t

|| i.e. open system dynamics induces some sort of contraction ||
on state space

V.3 Distance based entanglement measure

Rather than first introducing entanglement of ~~pure~~ pure states and ~~therefor deriving mixed~~ subsequently generalizing for mixed states (compare chap II.1, (II.6)) it is in some sense more direct to start directly from the structure of state space:



→ entrenchment $\equiv$ minimal distance from separables

$$E(p) = \min_{\substack{\sigma \in S \\ \uparrow \text{separables}}} D_H(p, \sigma) \quad (\text{IV.5})$$

→ Further down we will need that $E(p)$ is Lipshitz-continuous on Prob space.

Lipshitz

→ A function $f: U \rightarrow V$ is Lipshitz continuous
 $\Leftrightarrow \|f(x) - f(y)\|_V \leq \eta \|x - y\|_U \quad \forall x, y \in U$, (IV.6)
 with Lipshitz constant η

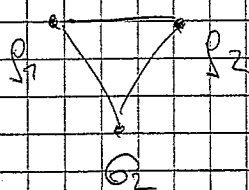
→ Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned} |E(p_1) - E(p_2)| &\stackrel{(\text{IV.5})}{=} |D_H(p_1, \sigma_1) - D_H(p_2, \sigma_2)| \\ &\quad \text{with } \sigma_1, \sigma_2 \\ &\quad \text{respectively closest} \\ &\quad \text{separables} \end{aligned}$$

$$\leq |D_H(p_1, \sigma_2) - D_H(p_2, \sigma_2)|$$

$$\leq D_H(p_1, p_2)$$

triangle inequality



$$\Rightarrow |E(p_1) - E(p_2)| \leq D_H(p_1, p_2) \quad (\text{IV.7})$$

E Lipshitz with $\eta_E = 1$

$$D(p_1, \sigma_2) \leq D(p_1, p_2) + D(p_2, \sigma_2)$$

IV.4 Entanglement evolution

We need only prove for initial states, which are prepared with Λ_t

$$\rho = \Lambda_t(|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|) \quad \omega = \Lambda_t(|\phi\rangle\langle\phi|) \quad (\text{IV.8})$$

Due to (IV.3.7) (E Lipschitz):

$$|E(\rho) - E(\omega)| \leq \eta_E \|\rho - \omega\|_{\text{tr}} =$$

$$\stackrel{(\text{IV.8})}{=} \eta_E \|\Lambda_t(|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|) - \Lambda_t(|\phi\rangle\langle\phi|)\|_{\text{tr}}$$

$$\stackrel{(\text{IV.4})}{\leq} \eta_E \eta_{\Lambda_t} \| |\psi\rangle\langle\psi| - |\phi\rangle\langle\phi| \|_{\text{tr}} \leq$$

$$\cancel{\eta_{\Lambda_t} = 1 \text{ for unitary } \Lambda_t}$$

$$\leq 2 \eta_E \eta_{\Lambda_t} \| |\psi\rangle - |\phi\rangle \|$$

$$\| |\psi\rangle \| = \sqrt{\langle\psi|\psi\rangle} \text{ euclidean norm}$$

$$\| |\psi\rangle\langle\psi| - |\phi\rangle\langle\phi| \|_{\text{tr}} \leq 2 \| |\psi\rangle - |\phi\rangle \|$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow |E(\Lambda_t(|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|)) - E(\Lambda_t(|\phi\rangle\langle\phi|))| & \\ & \leq 2 \eta_E \eta_{\Lambda_t} \| |\psi\rangle - |\phi\rangle \| \end{aligned} \quad (\text{IV.9})$$

Hence, E is Lipschitz continuous function from $\mathbb{R}^{2d \times 2}$ to $\mathbb{R}$, with Lipschitz constant $2\eta_E \eta_{\Lambda_t}$.

W.5 Concentration of measure - Levy's Lemma

[→ See e.g. P. Ledoux: The Concentration of Measure Phenomenon.
Probabilistic Surveys and Perspectives, ITA 2001]

Levy's Lemma: For $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ Lipschitz continuous
with Lipschitz constant γ :

$$\Pr(|f(x) - \langle f \rangle| > \varepsilon) \leq 4 \exp\left(-C \frac{(n+1) \varepsilon^2}{\gamma^2}\right) \quad (W.10)$$

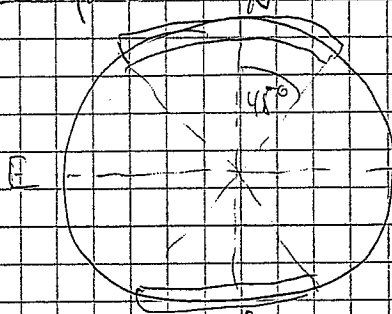
Idea: $|f(x) - f(y)| \leq \gamma |x - y|$ by contraction.

If large subvolume of the domain of f concentrates
in a narrow region around y , then the variation
of f on this large subvolume ~~is bounded~~ is bounded
in a narrow interval.

Uniform sampling of the values of f on its entire
domain will thus give a strongly supported probability
for large variation!

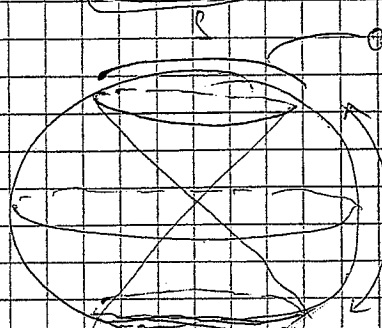
→ on the sphere:

θ_1



polar regions same
area as equatorial
regions

θ_2



arc 90°

arc 90°

equatorial arc 360°
 $= 4 \cdot 90^\circ$
 $\sim$ equatorial area
 $\geq 2 \times$ polar area

- || $\delta^d \rightarrow$ concentration of surface volume around equator $\frac{1}{2}$
- || $u \rightarrow \infty \rightarrow$ volume concentrates exponentially around equator

IV.6 Entanglement concentration of open spin dynamics

(IV.9) $\Rightarrow$ E is Lipshitz with constant $2\eta_E \eta_{\Lambda_t}$ on δ^{2d-2}

$\Rightarrow$
(IV.10)

$$P_r \left[\left| E(\rho(t)) - \langle E \rangle(t) \right| \leq 4 \exp \left[-C \frac{(2d-1) \varepsilon^2}{4 \eta_E^2 \eta_{\Lambda_t}^2} \right] \right] \quad (IV.11)$$

$$\langle E \rangle(t) = \int E[\Lambda_t(|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|)] d|\psi\rangle$$

η_{Λ_t} time dependent through Λ_t

(IV.11) $\Rightarrow$ In high dimensions, can predict entanglement evolution of all states with high precision, if know fate of only one (generic, benchmark) state $\frac{1}{2}$

IV.7 Example for N qubits under phase decoherence

$\rightarrow$ Privet both decoherence, single-qubit map

$$\Lambda_t(\rho_0) = (1-p)\rho_0 + p \left[|\uparrow\rangle\langle\uparrow| \rho_0 |\uparrow\rangle\langle\uparrow| + |\downarrow\rangle\langle\downarrow| \rho_0 |\downarrow\rangle\langle\downarrow| \right]$$

with $p = 1 - \exp(-\Gamma t)$

→ N -qubit map:

$$\rho_t = \underbrace{\Lambda_t \otimes \dots \otimes \Lambda_t}_{N \text{ times}} \quad (2 \times 2)$$

→ bipartite entanglement of one qubit with respect to
 $N-1$ remaining qubits, measured by negativity, $(\mathcal{N}(\rho))$,

$$\mathcal{N}(\rho) = \frac{\|\rho^{PT}\|_{tr} - 1}{2} = \sum_{\lambda_i < 0} |\lambda_i|$$

↑ eigenvalues of ρ^{PT}