

## Reducible correlations in all SLOCC equivalent $W$ states

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## Plan...

- ▶ **Quantum Marginal Problem (QMP)**
  - QMP
  - Weaker version(s) of QMP
- ▶ **Reducible Correlations**
  - Optimal RC
  - Relevance
- ▶ **Bipartite RC in SLOCC equivalent  $W$  states**
  - All SLOCC equivalent  $W$  states
  - Are determined by  $\rho^{1K}$
  - Are determined by  $\rho^{K(K+1)}$
- ▶ **Discussion**
  - Issues and some other approaches
  - Conclusion

## Quantum Marginal Problem (QMP)

Given two density matrices  $\rho^A$  and  $\rho^B$  for two systems  $A$  and  $B$ , there always exists a density matrix  $\rho^{AB} = \rho^A \otimes \rho^B$  for the composite system  $AB$  compatible with these reduced density matrices (RDM).

Given three density matrices  $\rho^A, \rho^B, \rho^C$ , there always exists a compatible  $\rho^{ABC} = \rho^A \otimes \rho^B \otimes \rho^C$ .

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No, not always!

Examples:

- $\nexists |\psi\rangle_{AB}$  if  $\lambda(\rho^A) \neq \lambda(\rho^B)$  (Schmidt decomposition).
- $\nexists$  any  $\rho^{ABC}$  compatible with  $\rho^{AB} = \rho^{BC} = |\psi^-\rangle\langle\psi^-|$ .
- $\nexists$  any  $|\psi\rangle_{ABCD}$  having all bipartite RDMs  $I_4$ .

## An $N$ -partite System

$\rho$

An  $N$ -partite System $\rho$

An  $N$ -partite System

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It has  $\binom{N}{N-1} = N$  number of  $(N-1)$ -partite RDMs



An  $N$ -partite System

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It has  $\binom{N}{K}$  number of  $K$ -partite RDMs

An  $N$ -partite System $\rho$ 

...

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$\rho$

$\Downarrow$   
It has  $\binom{N}{2} = \frac{N(N-1)}{2}$  number of bipartite-RDMs

An  $N$ -partite System

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It has  $\binom{N}{1} = N$  number of single-partite RDMs

An  $N$ -partite System

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⇓

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★ Easier to fall ⇓ 😊, but very difficult to rise ↑ ☹️.

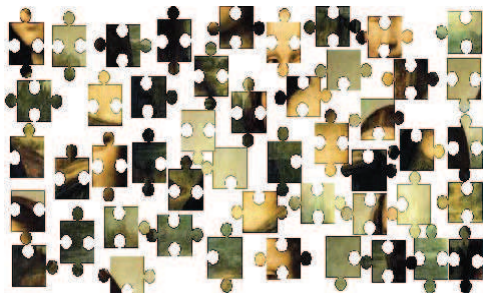
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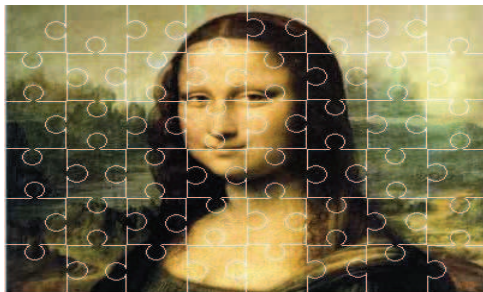
For a given set of Parts...



## QMP: The quantum jigsaw puzzle

Given a set of RDMs to find a compatible  $\rho$

Not always..., but sometimes they can be seen to be the parts of a





## QMP: The quantum jigsaw puzzle

Given a set of RDMs to find a compatible  $\rho$


valid whole...



## QMP in a Nutshell

- ▷ Pure QMP asks for the existence of a compatible pure state  $\rho = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$ , while mixed QMP asks for constraints on the spectra.
- ▷ The compatibility conditions should be in terms of spectral inequalities.
- ▷ Some problems of the same spirit:
  - Many-body Physics: [Local Hamiltonian Problem](#)
  - Quantum Chemistry:  [\$N\$ -representability Problem](#)
- ▷ [Higuchi, Sudbery and Szulc \(2003\)](#) have solved the 1-RDM  $N$ -qubit pure QMP, [Bravyi \(2004\)](#) solved the 2-qubit mixed QMP, [Coleman \( \$\approx 1963\$ \)](#) solved the 1-RDM mixed  $N$ -representability and [Alexander Klyachko \(2005\)](#) solved the 1-RDM pure  $N$ -representability.

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🔥 QMP is QMA-complete!<sup>1</sup>

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- **Even weaker version:** Suppose the given RDMs are not arbitrary, rather they have been calculated from a known state. We then ask whether there are other states compatible with these RDMs.
  - The original state can be taken as pure state as we can always purify a mixed state.
  - This apparently simple question has many non-trivial consequences in Quantum Information Theory (some will be mentioned).

## (Ir)reducible Correlations

- ▷ Since  $\rho^A$  and  $\rho^B$  are from  $|\psi\rangle_{AB} = \sum \lambda_i |ii\rangle$ ,  $\exists$  another compatible  $|\phi\rangle_{AB} = \sum \pm \lambda_i |ii\rangle$ . Thus the RDMs  $\rho^A$  and  $\rho^B$  can not *determine any entangled  $|\psi\rangle_{AB}$  uniquely*, or generic bipartite pure states are *undetermined by their RDMs*.



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- ▷ By the same argument, not every  $|\psi\rangle_{ABC}$  is determined by its 1-RDMs and  $|\psi\rangle_{ABC\dots} = \sum \lambda_j |iii\dots\rangle$  is undetermined by all  $K$ -RDMs.

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- ▷ So it is reasonable to think that  $|\psi_{ABC\dots}\rangle$  can be determined by its RDMs iff it can not be written as  $\sum \lambda_j |ii\dots\rangle$ , i.e. iff it is not LU to  $|GGHZ\rangle = \sum \lambda_j |ii\dots\rangle$ !!

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- ▷ Yes, it indeed is correct!

## (Ir)reducible Correlation

A (usually pure) state  $\rho$ , is said to be

- $K$ -reducible, if it can be determined by  $K$ -RDMs
- $K$ -irreducible, if  $K$ -reducible but can not be determined by  $(K-1)$ -RDMs
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- ◆  $|GGHZ\rangle$  and LU are irreducible, all other 3-qubit pure states are 2-reducible (Linden et al, PRL 2002).
- ◆ This holds for  $N$ -qubits too (Walck and Lyons, PRL 2008).
- ◆ and even for arbitrary  $N$ -partite states, restricting within pure states (Feng et al, QIC 2009).

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### Examples:

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- ◆ *Almost all*  $N$ -qudit pure states are  $(\lceil N/2 \rceil + 1)$ -reducible (Jones and Linden, PRA 2005)
- ◆ *Generalized*  $N$ -qubit  $W$  states  $|W\rangle = \sum a_k |001_k 0 \dots 0\rangle$  are **optimal** 2-reducible (PP and S. Rana, PRA 2009).



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- ◆ Generalized  $N$ -qubit Dicke states  $|GD_N^\ell\rangle = \sum a_k \text{Perm}|11 \dots 1_\ell 00 \dots 0\rangle$  are  $2\ell$ -reducible (PP and S. Rana, JPA 2009) and actually optimal  $(\ell + 1)$ -reducible (PP and S. Rana, PRA 2011).
- ◆ Standard  $N$ -qubit Dicke states  $|D_N^\ell\rangle = \sum \text{Perm}|11 \dots 1_\ell 00 \dots 0\rangle$  are 2-irreducible (Chen et al., arXiv:1106.1373v2).

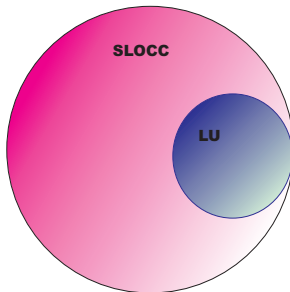
- RC essentially exhibits peculiarity of quantum correlation as compared to its classical analogue.
- Study of RC will lead to the understanding of different types of correlations that a multipartite state can exhibit—which will lead to classification of quantum states. This is a fundamental area of study in quantum information theory (QIT).
- The study will explore the traditional field of many-body quantum physics in terms of correlation among various parties (e.g., characterizing ground states of local Hamiltonian).
- The undetermined states can be exploited in the quantum secret sharing scheme (Hsieh et al., EPJD 2011).

## RC/IC under SLOCC

It follows that two LU equivalent states are either irreducible or reducible (according to whether either of them is LU to  $|GGHZ\rangle$ ). Thus we can say that under LU, reducibility remains preserved. From the early definition/basic understanding, entanglement remains preserved under LU but can change drastically under more general operations e.g., SLOCC. So, its natural to ask, how the reducibility changes under SLOCC.

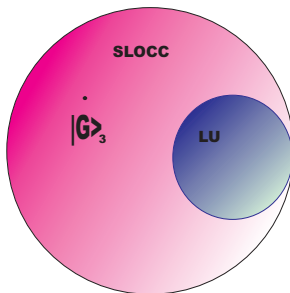
## RC/IC under SLOCC

As  $LU \subset SLOCC$ ,  $\exists$  states which are SLOCC but not LU to  $|GGHZ\rangle$ .



## RC/IC under SLOCC

$|G\rangle_3 = 1/\sqrt{2}(|W\rangle + |\widetilde{W}\rangle)$  is an example (Usha Devi et al., arXiv:1002.2820).



The SLOCC operator

$$A = -\frac{1}{\sqrt[6]{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \omega \\ 1 & \omega^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

will convert  $|G\rangle_3$  into standard  $|GHZ\rangle$ .

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Partial transpose of any (the state is symmetric) bipartite RDM of  $|G_3\rangle$  has a negative eigenvalue  $-1/6$ , so (by PPT criterion) is entangled. However, any bipartite RDM of  $|GGHZ\rangle$  is separable. Therefore they cannot be LU equivalent.

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But the second most well known state, namely the  $W$  state is not SLOCC to  $|GHZ\rangle$ . So, what about the reducibility of all SLOCC equivalent  $W$  state?

$|W\rangle$  has optimal 2-reducibility. Do they preserve it?

## All SLOCC equivalent $W$ states

[Kintas and Turgut, JMP 2010]

- Any  $N$ -qubit pure state which is SLOCC equivalent to the standard  $W$  state is given by  $|\psi\rangle = \otimes_{k=1}^N A_k |W_N\rangle$  where  $A_k$ s are any invertible operators. If

$$A_k = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_k & \gamma_k \\ \beta_k & \delta_k \end{bmatrix}$$

then  $A_k$  transforms  $|0\rangle_k \rightarrow \alpha_k |0\rangle_k + \beta_k |1\rangle_k \equiv |u\rangle_k$ ,  
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$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} (|vu\dots u\rangle + |uv\dots u\rangle + \dots + |uu\dots v\rangle)$$

- Now  $A_k$  is invertible  $\Rightarrow \{u_k, v_k\}$  are LI and so can be extended to an orthonormal basis of  $\mathcal{H}^k$  i.e.,  $\exists$  orthonormal  $\{p_k, q_k\}$  s.t.

$$|p\rangle_k = a_k |u\rangle_k$$

$$|q\rangle_k = b_k |u\rangle_k + b'_k |v\rangle_k$$

- Thus  $|\psi\rangle$  can be written as

$$|\psi\rangle = z_0 |pp \dots p\rangle + \sum_{k=1}^N z_k |pp \dots p_{k-1} q_k p_{k+1} \dots p\rangle$$

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- Clearly the bases can be redefined to *absorb* the phases in the complex coefficients and  $|\psi\rangle$  can be written as

$$|\psi\rangle = c_0 |0 \dots 0\rangle + \sum_{k=1}^N c_k |0 \dots 0_{k-1} 1_k 0_{k+1} \dots 0\rangle, \quad (1)$$

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- Though we can consider all  $c_k \geq 0$ , we will not restrict—we will consider all  $c_k$  as complex numbers satisfying normalization. Also, for our purpose, WLOG at least 3  $c_k \neq 0$ . Thus (1) is the general form of all SLOCC equivalent states  $|GW\rangle$ .

## All SLOCC equivalent $W$ states are determined by $\{\rho^{1K}\}$

### Theorem 1

All SLOCC equivalent  $W$  states are uniquely determined by only  $(N-1)$  number of bipartite RDMs  $\{\rho^{1K}, K = 2, 3, \dots, N\}$ .

### Proof

1. From (1), we readily have

$$\rho_{GW}^{1K} = \begin{bmatrix} n_{1K} & c_0 \overline{c_K} & c_0 \overline{c_1} & 0 \\ & |c_K|^2 & c_K \overline{c_1} & 0 \\ & & |c_1|^2 & 0 \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $n_{1K} = 1 - |c_1|^2 - |c_K|^2$  by normalization.

2. Now, if possible, let another  $N$ -qubit density matrix (possibly mixed, thereby subscript  $M$ )



$$\rho_M = \sum_{i_1, \dots, j_N=0}^1 r_{(i_1 \dots i_N)(j_1 \dots j_N)} |i_1 \dots i_N\rangle \langle j_1 \dots j_N| \equiv \sum r_{IJ} |I\rangle \langle J|$$

share the same bipartite RDMs with  $|GW\rangle$  i.e.,  $\rho_M^{1K} = \rho_{GW}^{1K} \quad \forall K = 2(1)N$ .  
 To be a valid physical state, the entries of  $\rho_M$  must satisfy

- i).  $\overline{r_{IJ}} = r_{JI}$  (for hermiticity)
- ii).  $\sum_I r_{II} = 1$  (for normalization  $\text{Tr}(\rho_M) = 1$ )
- iiia).  $r_{II} \geq 0 \quad \forall I$  and  $r_{II} = 0 \Rightarrow r_{IJ} = 0 \forall J$ .
- iiib). All principle minors of  $\rho^M$  are  $\geq 0$
- iiic). Particularly,  $|r_{IJ}|^2 \leq r_{II} r_{JJ}$

3a. Since there exists no term  $|11\rangle \langle 11|$  in  $\rho_{GW}^{1K}$ , we must have  
 $r_{(1i_2i_3\dots 1_k\dots i_N)(1i_2i_3\dots 1_k\dots i_N)} = 0$  and hence by property (iiia) of PSD  
 matrices, we have

$$r_{(1i_2\dots 1_k\dots i_N)(j_1j_2\dots j_N)} = r_{(i_1i_2\dots i_N)(1j_2\dots 1_k\dots j_N)} = 0$$

for all  $i_1, i_2, \dots, i_N, j_1, j_2, \dots, j_N = 0, 1$ .

3b. Comparing the coefficient of  $|10\rangle\langle 10|$  from  $\rho_M^{1N}$  and  $\rho_{GW}^{1N}$ , it follows that

$$r_{(10\dots 0)(10\dots 0)} = |c_1|^2$$

4a. Now consider the non-diagonal element  $|01\rangle\langle 10|$  of  $\rho_M^{1K}$  and  $\rho_{GW}^{1K}$ ,  $K = 2(1)N$ . It follows that

$$r_{(0\dots 0_{K-1}1_K 0_{K+1}\dots 0)(100\dots 0)} = c_K \bar{c}_1$$

and hence by the property (iiic) of PSD matrices with  $I = (0\dots 0_{K-1}1_K 0_{K+1}\dots 0)$  and  $J = (100\dots 0)$  we have

$$r_{(0\dots 0_{K-1}1_K 0_{K+1}\dots 0)(0\dots 0_{K-1}1_K 0_{K+1}\dots 0)} \geq |c_K|^2$$

4b. Similarly, comparing the coefficients of  $|00\rangle\langle 10|$ , it follows that

$$r_{(00\dots 0)(00\dots 0)} \geq |c_0|^2$$

- 4c. From normalization, the property (iiia) of PSD matrices it follows that all the above inequalities will be equalities; and each  $r_{IJ}$  in which  $I$  has two or more 1, is zero. So, by property (iiia),  $r_{IJ} = r_{JI} = 0$  whenever  $I$  or  $J$  has two or more 1.
- 4d. Comparing the coefficients of  $|00\rangle\langle 01|$  from  $\rho_M^{1K}$  and  $\rho_{GW}^{1K}$ , we have

$$r_{(00\dots 0)(00\dots 01_K 0\dots 0)} = c_0 \overline{c_K}, \quad \forall K = 2(1)N$$

- 4e. Thus, collecting all the results it follows that  $\rho_M$  has the same form as  $|GW\rangle\langle GW|$  and they share the same diagonal elements, same elements along the row and column  $(00\dots 0)$  and  $(10\dots 0)$ . The only remaining task is to prove

$$r_{(0\dots 01_J 0\dots 0)(0\dots 01_K 0\dots 0)} = c_J \overline{c_K} \text{ for } J > K = 1(1)(N-1)$$

This part is quite difficult, because no further condition can arise from sharing of the RDMs.

5. If  $c_J \overline{c_K} = 0$  then by property (iiia), our requirement follows trivially. Hence let us assume  $c_J \overline{c_K} \neq 0$ . To complete the proof we will now apply property (iv) to  $\rho_M$ . Let us consider the following principle minor consisting of the rows and columns  $(0 \dots 01_J 0 \dots 0), (0 \dots 01_K 0 \dots 0), (10 \dots 0)$ :

$$\begin{vmatrix} |c_J|^2 & r & c_J \overline{c_1} \\ \overline{r} & |c_K|^2 & c_K \overline{c_1} \\ \overline{c_J} c_1 & \overline{c_K} c_1 & |c_1|^2 \end{vmatrix}$$

where  $r = r_{(0 \dots 01_J 0 \dots 0)(0 \dots 01_K 0 \dots 0)}$ . The value of this determinant is<sup>a</sup>

$$-|c_J|^2 |c_K|^2 |c_1|^2 \left| 1 - \frac{r}{c_J \overline{c_K}} \right|^2$$

Since this should be non-negative, we have  $r = c_J \overline{c_K}$ . ■

---

<sup>a</sup>To evaluate easily, divide first row by  $c_J$ , first column by  $\overline{c_J}$ , second row by  $c_K$ , second column by  $\overline{c_K}$ , third row by  $c_1$  and third column by  $\overline{c_1}$ .

All SLOCC equivalent  $W$  states are determined by  $\{\rho^{K(K+1)}\}$

## Theorem2

All SLOCC equivalent  $W$  states are uniquely determined by only  $(N-1)$  number of bipartite RDMs  $\{\rho^{K(K+1)}, K = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N-1\}$ .

## Outline of the proof

- First we note that no basis of  $\rho_M$  can have two consecutive 1, means

$$r_{(i_1 i_2 \dots i_{K-1} 1_K 1_{K+1} i_{K+2} \dots i_N)(j_1 j_2 \dots j_N)} = 0$$

Next we will show that no basis of  $\rho_M$  can have the sequence 101 i.e.

$$r_{(i_1 \dots 1_K 0_{K+1} 1_{K+2} \dots i_N)(j_1 j_2 \dots j_N)} = 0$$

For simplicity, let us first take  $K = 1$  and the other cases will follow similarly. So, comparing the diagonal elements  $|01\rangle\langle 01|$ ,  $|10\rangle\langle 10|$  and the off-diagonal elements  $|01\rangle\langle 10|$  from  $\rho_M^{12}$  and  $\rho_{GW}^{12}$  we have (keeping in mind that no basis can have two consecutive 1)

$$\sum_{i_4, i_5, \dots, i_N=0}^1 r_{(010i_4 i_5 \dots i_N)}(010i_4 i_5 \dots i_N) = |c_2|^2$$

$$\sum_{i_3, i_4, \dots, i_N=0}^1 r_{(10i_3 i_4 \dots i_N)}(10i_3 i_4 \dots i_N) = |c_1|^2$$

$$\sum_{i_4, i_5, \dots, i_N=0}^1 r_{(010i_4 i_5 \dots i_N)}(100i_4 i_5 \dots i_N) = c_2 \overline{c_1}$$

- Considering absolute values in the last equation, we have

$$\sum_{i_4, i_5, \dots, i_N=0}^1 |r_{(010i_4 i_5 \dots i_N)}(100i_4 i_5 \dots i_N)| \geq |c_2| |c_1|$$

- Again, by the PSD property (iiic),

$$\sum_{i_4, i_5, \dots, i_N=0}^1 |r_{(010i_4 \dots i_N)}(100i_4 \dots i_N)| \leq |c_2| |c_1|$$

- Equality  $\Rightarrow$

$$\sum_{i_4, \dots, i_N=0}^1 r(100i_4 \dots i_N)(100i_4 \dots i_N) = |c_1|^2$$

$$r(101i_4 i_5 \dots i_N)(101i_4 i_5 \dots i_N) = 0$$

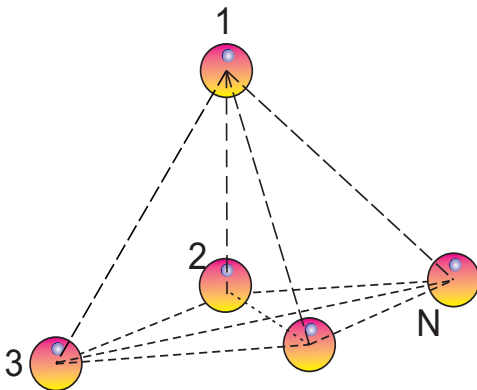
Similarly all  $\rho_M^{K(K+1)}$  and  $\rho_{GW}^{K(K+1)}$ :  $\nexists$  sequence 101  $\Rightarrow$

$$\sum_{i_5, i_6, \dots, i_N=0}^1 r(0100i_5 \dots i_N)(1000i_5 \dots i_N) = c_2 \overline{c_1}$$

$$r(1001i_5 \dots i_N)(j_1 j_2 \dots j_N) = 0$$

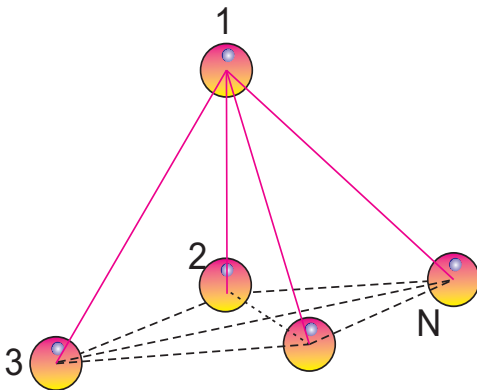
- Next ordered RDMs ( $\rho^{23}$  and  $\rho^{34}$ ) gives  $i_5 = 0 = i_6$ . Thus  $\nexists$  sequence 1001, 10001, so on....i.e. **only possible sequence are those having only one 1 and no one.** ■

Each pair of qubits in a generic  $|W\rangle$  states is correlated

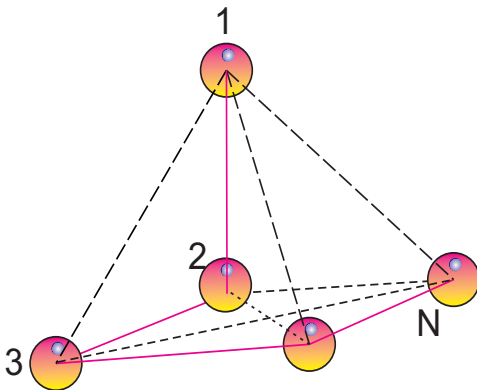




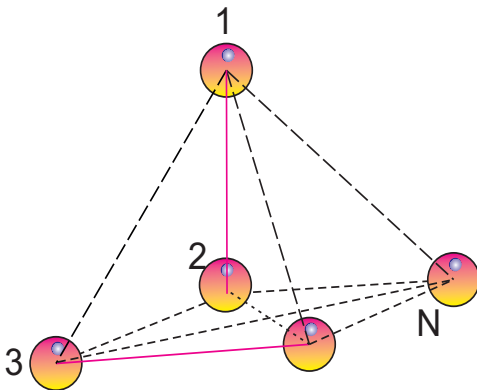
But they can be determined uniquely by the bipartite RDMs  $\rho^{12}, \rho^{13}, \dots, \rho^{1N}$ .



Or by the bipartite RDMs  $\rho^{12}, \rho^{23}, \dots, \rho^{(N-1)N}$  .....but



can not be determined by the bipartite RDMs  $\rho^{12}, \rho^{34}, \dots, \rho^{(N-1)N}$ .



## Optimal reducibility of $G$ states $|G\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|W\rangle + |\widetilde{W}\rangle)$

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### Theorem 3

For  $N \geq 6$ , the  $N$ -qubit generic  $G$  state

$$|GG_N\rangle = \sum_{K=1}^N (a_K |01_K 0 \dots 0\rangle + b_K |10_K 1 \dots 1\rangle)$$

(with  $\sum (|a_K|^2 + |b_K|^2) = 1$ ,  $a_K b_K \neq 0$ ) is uniquely determined, among arbitrary states, by only **two**  $(N-2)$ -partite RDMs, but can not be determined by lower order RDMs

## Optimal reducibility of *generalized* Dicke states $|GD_N^\ell\rangle$

The generalized Dicke states  $|GD_N^\ell\rangle$

$$|GD_N^\ell\rangle = \sum_{\text{Permutation } \mathcal{P}} a_k \mathcal{P} \left( \underbrace{|11\dots 1\rangle}_\ell \underbrace{|00\dots 0\rangle}_{N-\ell} \right)$$



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$|GD_N^\ell\rangle$  is uniquely determined, among arbitrary states, by its  $(\ell + 1)$ -partite marginals  $\rho_{GD}^{1P_2P_3\dots P_{\ell+1}}$ ,  $P_k \in \{2, 3, 4, \dots, N\}$ .

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### Note

If we consider the *standard* Dicke states (i.e.,  $|GD_N^\ell\rangle$  with all equal coefficients), then only bipartite marginals are sufficient to determine them.

## Conclusion

- Any pure state which is SLOCC equivalent to  $W$  states can be determined (among arbitrary states) from its bipartite marginals. Moreover any *correlated* set of  $(N-1)$  number of bipartite marginals (e.g.  $\{\rho^{1K}, \{\rho^{K(K+1)}\}\}$ ) suffices. This reveals that all information in such states is imprinted into these few RDMs. This feature of  $W$  states is absent in  $GHZ$ -type states.
- Generalized Dicke states  $|GD_N^\ell\rangle$  are optimal  $(\ell+1)$ -reducible. The standard Dicke states are optimal 2-reducible.
- For higher qubits (more than five), the  $G$  states are optimal  $(N-2)$ -reducible.

## Discussion

### Issues

- ① Can a mixed state have reducible correlations? If so, what are those states?
- ① Determine all optimal  $K$ -reducible states.
  - Or, at least determining optimal reducibility of well known states (e.g., Werner and cluster states) also of interest.

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- ▲ Majorana Representation [[A. R. Usha Devi et al., arXiv:1003.2450v1](#)]: They have shown that  $N$  qubit states containing two distinct spinors are  $(N-1)$ -reducible. May give some insight into the general problem.

# Thank You