Entanglement of Formation of an Arbitrary State of Two Qubits

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Abstract

The entanglement of a pure state of a pair of quantum systems is defined as the entropy of either member of the pair. The entanglement of formation of a mixed state ρ is defined as the minimum average entanglement of an ensemble of pure states that represents ρ . An earlier paper [Phys. Rev. Lett. 78, 5022 (1997)] conjectured an explicit formula for the entanglement of formation of a pair of binary quantum objects (qubits) as a function of their density matrix, and proved the formula to be true for a special class of mixed states. The present paper extends the proof to arbitrary states of this system and shows how to construct entanglement-minimizing pure-state decompositions.

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Entanglement is the feature of quantum mechanics that allows, in principle, feats such as teleportation [1] and dense coding [2] and is what Schrödinger called "the characteristic trait of quantum mechanics [3]." A pure state of a pair of quantum systems is called entangled if it does not factorize, that is, if each separate system does not have a pure state of its own. A classic example is the singlet state of two spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ particles, $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\uparrow\downarrow\rangle - |\downarrow\uparrow\rangle)$, in which neither particle has a definite spin direction. A mixed state is entangled if it cannot be represented as a mixture of factorizable pure states. In the last couple of years a good deal of work has been devoted to finding physically motivated measures of entanglement, particularly for mixed states of a bipartite system [4, 5, 6]. Perhaps the most basic of these measures is the entanglement of formation, which is intended to quantify the resources needed to create a given entangled state [6].

Having a well justified and mathematically tractable measure of entanglement is likely to be of value in a number of areas of research, including the study of decoherence in quantum computers [7] and the evaluation of quantum cryptographic schemes [8]. Unfortunately, most proposed measures of entanglement involve extremizations which are difficult to handle analytically; the entanglement of formation is no exception to this rule. However, in the special case of entanglement between two binary quantum systems such as the spin of a spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ particle or the polarization of a photon—systems that are generically called "qubits"—an explicit formula for the entanglement of formation has recently been conjectured and has been proved for a special class of density matrices [9]. In this Letter we prove the formula for arbitrary states of two qubits.

The entanglement of formation is defined as follows [6]. Given a density matrix ρ of a pair of quantum systems A and B, consider all possible pure-state decompositions of ρ , that is, all ensembles of states $|\psi_i\rangle$ with probabilities p_i such that

$$\rho = \sum_{i} p_i |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|. \tag{1}$$

For each pure state, the entanglement E is defined as the entropy of either of the two subsystems A and B [4]:

$$E(\psi) = -\text{Tr}\left(\rho_A \log_2 \rho_A\right) = -\text{Tr}\left(\rho_B \log_2 \rho_B\right). \tag{2}$$

Here ρ_A is the partial trace of $|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$ over subsystem B, and ρ_B is defined similarly. The entanglement of formation of the mixed state ρ is then defined as the average entanglement of the pure states of the decomposition, minimized over all decompositions of ρ :

$$E(\rho) = \min \sum_{i} p_i E(\psi_i). \tag{3}$$

The basic equation (2) is justified by the physical interconvertibility of a collection of pairs in an arbitrary pure state $|\psi\rangle$ and a collection of pairs in the standard singlet state, the asymptotic conversion ratio being given by $E(\psi)$ [4]. The central claim of this Letter is that for a pair of qubits, the minimum value specified in Eq. (3) can be expressed as an explicit function of ρ , which we develop in the next few paragraphs. For ease of expression we will usually refer to the entanglement of formation simply as "the entanglement."

Our formula for entanglement makes use of what can be called the "spin flip" transformation, which is a function applicable both to state vectors and to density matrices of an arbitrary number of qubits. For a pure state of a single qubit, the spin flip, which we denote by a tilde, is defined by

$$|\tilde{\psi}\rangle = \sigma_y |\psi^*\rangle,\tag{4}$$

where $|\psi^*\rangle$ is the complex conjugate of $|\psi\rangle$ when it is expressed in a fixed basis such as $\{|\uparrow\rangle,|\downarrow\rangle\}$, and σ_y expressed in that same basis is the matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. For a spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ particle this is the standard time reversal operation and indeed reverses the direction of the spin [10]. To perform a spin flip on n qubits, one applies the above transformation to each individual qubit. If the system is described by a density matrix rather than a state vector, each σ_y is applied on both the right and the left. For example, for a general state ρ of two qubits—the object of interest in this Letter—the spin-flipped state is

$$\tilde{\rho} = (\sigma_2 \otimes \sigma_2) \rho^* (\sigma_2 \otimes \sigma_2), \tag{5}$$

where again the complex conjugate is taken in the standard basis, which for a pair of spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ particles is $\{|\uparrow\uparrow\rangle,|\uparrow\downarrow\rangle,|\downarrow\uparrow\rangle$. In this case the spin flip is equivalent [11] to "complex conjugation in the magic basis," which appears in Ref. [9].

Though we have introduced the spin flip transformation primarily to deal with mixed states, the concept is also convenient for expressing the entanglement of a *pure* state of two qubits. One can show that this entanglement, defined in Eq. (2), can be written as [9]

$$E(\psi) = \mathcal{E}(C(\psi)),\tag{6}$$

where the "concurrence" C is defined as

$$C(\psi) = |\langle \psi | \tilde{\psi} \rangle|, \tag{7}$$

and the function \mathcal{E} is given by

$$\mathcal{E}(C) = -\frac{1+\sqrt{1-C^2}}{2}\log_2\frac{1+\sqrt{1-C^2}}{2} - \frac{1-\sqrt{1-C^2}}{2}\log_2\frac{1-\sqrt{1-C^2}}{2}.$$
(8)

The function $\mathcal{E}(C)$ is monotonically increasing, and ranges from 0 to 1 as C goes from 0 to 1, so that one can take the concurrence as a measure of entanglement in its own right. For example, the singlet state $|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\uparrow\downarrow\rangle - |\downarrow\uparrow\rangle)$ is left unchanged by a spin flip (except for an overall negative sign), so that its concurrence $|\langle\psi|\tilde{\psi}\rangle|$ is equal to 1. At the other extreme, an unentangled, or factorizable, pure state such as $|\uparrow\downarrow\rangle$ is always mapped by the spin flip transformation into an orthogonal state, so that its concurrence is zero. Later we will use another fact about $\mathcal{E}(C)$, namely, that it is a convex function (that is, curving upward).

Having defined the spin flip and the function $\mathcal{E}(C)$, we can now present the promised formula for the entanglement of formation of a mixed state ρ of two qubits:

$$E(\rho) = \mathcal{E}(C(\rho)), \tag{9}$$

where

$$C(\rho) = \max\{0, \lambda_1 - \lambda_2 - \lambda_3 - \lambda_4\},\tag{10}$$

and the λ_i s are the eigenvalues, in decreasing order, of the Hermitian matrix $R \equiv \sqrt{\sqrt{\rho}\tilde{\rho}\sqrt{\rho}}$. Alternatively, one can say that the λ_i s are the square roots of the eigenvalues of the non-Hermitian matrix $\rho\tilde{\rho}$. Note that each λ_i is a

non-negative real number. The matrices R and $\rho\tilde{\rho}$ may seem unlikely objects to be using in any formula, but one can see that they are closely related to the pure-state concurrence of Eq. (7). In fact for a pure state $|\psi\rangle$, R has only one eigenvalue that may be nonzero, namely, $C(\psi)$.

The formula (9) was shown in Ref. [9] to be correct for all density matrices of two qubits having no more than two nonzero eigenvalues. More recently, Smolin has tested the formula numerically on several thousand randomly chosen two-qubit density matrices and has found complete agreement [12]. Most of the rest of this Letter is devoted to proving that the formula is correct for arbitrary states of this system. We will find that the value $\mathcal{E}(C(\rho))$ of the average entanglement can always be achieved by a decomposition of ρ consisting of four or fewer pure states, each state having the same entanglement. (Uhlmann has already shown that the optimal decomposition must consist of pure states with equal entanglement [14], but we do not assume this result in our proof.) We will then show that no decomposition has a smaller average entanglement.

Our method will be to look explicitly for an entanglement-minimizing decomposition of ρ . We use the fact that every decomposition of a density matrix can be obtained via the following prescription [13]. First, find a complete set of orthogonal eigenvectors $|v_i\rangle$ corresponding to the nonzero eigenvalues of ρ , and "subnormalize" these vectors so that $\langle v_i|v_i\rangle$ is equal to the *i*th eigenvalue. Every decomposition $\{|w_i\rangle\}$ of ρ can then be obtained through the following equation, and every set of states that can be obtained in this way is a legitimate decomposition of ρ :

$$|w_i\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^n U_{ij}^* |v_j\rangle. \tag{11}$$

Here n is the rank of ρ , that is, the number of vectors $|v_i\rangle$, and U is an $m \times m$ unitary matrix, m being greater than or equal to n. (The complex conjugation is included only for later convenience.) Alternatively, since only the first n columns of U are used, we can take U to be an $m \times n$ matrix whose columns are orthonormal vectors. If m is greater than n, the decomposition will have more elements than are necessary for the creation of ρ , but such decompositions are certainly allowed. The states $|w_i\rangle$ in Eq. (11) are automatically subnormalized so that $\langle w_i|w_i\rangle$ is equal to the probability of $|w_i\rangle$ in the decomposition. We can thus write $\rho = \sum_i |w_i\rangle \langle w_i|$. In what follows, we

express all decompositions of ρ in terms of such subnormalized vectors.

It is helpful to consider separately two classes of density matrix: (i) those for which $\lambda_1 - \lambda_2 - \lambda_3 - \lambda_4$ is positive or zero, and (ii) those for which the same combination is negative. Again, the numbers λ_i are the eigenvalues of the matrix $R = \sqrt{\sqrt{\rho}\tilde{\rho}\sqrt{\rho}}$. We consider class (i) first.

For any density matrix ρ in this class, we will define successively three specific decompositions of ρ , the last of which will be the optimal decomposition that we seek. Each of these decompositions consists of exactly n pure states, n being the rank of ρ as above. For the system we are considering, n is always less than or equal to 4.

The first decomposition consists of states $|x_i\rangle$, $i=1,\ldots,n$, satisfying

$$\langle x_i | \tilde{x}_j \rangle = \lambda_i \delta_{ij}. \tag{12}$$

The states $|x_i\rangle$ can be said to be "tilde-orthogonal." We obtain such a decomposition as follows. First note that if the set $\{|x_i\rangle\}$ is defined via an $n \times n$ unitary matrix U as in Eq. (11), then the "tilde inner products" $\langle x_i|\tilde{x}_j\rangle$ can be written as

$$\langle x_i | \tilde{x}_j \rangle = (U \tau U^T)_{ij}, \tag{13}$$

where $\tau_{ij} \equiv \langle v_i | \tilde{v}_j \rangle$ is a symmetric but not necessarily Hermitian matrix. (The states $|v_i\rangle$ are the eigenstates of ρ defined earlier.) In order that condition (12) be satisfied, we want $U\tau U^T$ to be diagonal. It happens that for any symmetric matrix τ , one can always find a unitary U that diagonalizes τ in this way [15]. Moreover, the diagonal elements of $U\tau U^T$ can always be made real and non-negative, in which case they are the square roots of the eigenvalues of $\tau\tau^*$. (To see how this works, note that U must diagonalize $\tau\tau^*$ in the usual sense; that is, $U\tau\tau^*U^{\dagger}$ is diagonal.) The square roots of the eigenvalues of $\tau\tau^*$ are the same as the eigenvalues of R, so that condition (12) is fulfilled as long as the diagonalizing matrix U is chosen in such a way that the numbers λ_i appear in their proper order. Thus one can always find a decomposition with the desired property. It is interesting to note that the vectors $|x_i\rangle$ of this decomposition are right-eigenvectors of the non-Hermitian matrix $\rho\tilde{\rho}$. One can see this by writing ρ as $\sum_{i} |x_{i}\rangle\langle x_{i}|$ and using Eq. (12). We could in fact have used this property to give an alternative specification of the ensemble $\{|x_i\rangle\}$.

Our second decomposition of ρ , which we label $\{|y_i\rangle\}$, $i=1,\ldots,n$, is hardly different from the first:

$$|y_1\rangle = |x_1\rangle;$$

 $|y_j\rangle = i|x_j\rangle \quad \text{for } j \neq 1.$ (14)

It is indeed physically equivalent to the first decomposition, but the phase factors will become important shortly when we take linear combinations of these vectors.

The decomposition $\{|y_i\rangle\}$ typically does not have a small average entanglement, but it does have a property that will make it useful for finding an optimal ensemble. In order to express this property, let us define the "preconcurrence" c of a pure state $|\psi\rangle$ to be

$$c(\psi) = \frac{\langle \psi | \tilde{\psi} \rangle}{\langle \psi | \psi \rangle},\tag{15}$$

where we have allowed for the possibility that $|\psi\rangle$ may be subnormalized. Note that the preconcurrence is the same as the concurrence of Eq. (7) but without the absolute value sign. The decomposition $\{|y_i\rangle\}$ is special in that its average preconcurrence has the value $C(\rho)$ of Eq. (10). To see this, recall that the probability of the state $|y_i\rangle$ in the decomposition is $\langle y_i|y_i\rangle$, so that the average preconcurrence is

$$\langle c \rangle = \sum_{i} \langle y_i | y_i \rangle \frac{\langle y_i | \tilde{y}_i \rangle}{\langle y_i | y_i \rangle} = \sum_{i} \langle y_i | \tilde{y}_i \rangle. \tag{16}$$

The sum can be evaluated immediately from Eqs. (12) and (14), yielding $\langle c \rangle = \lambda_1 - \lambda_2 - \lambda_3 - \lambda_4 = C(\rho)$. Here we have used the fact that if n < 4, the numbers λ_i with i > n are all zero.

We would like to find a decomposition that, like $\{|y_i\rangle\}$, has $\langle c\rangle = C(\rho)$, but which also has the property that the preconcurrence (and hence the concurrence) of each individual state is equal to $C(\rho)$. It would then follow immediately that the average entanglement is $\mathcal{E}(C(\rho))$, since this would be the entanglement of each state in the decomposition. In seeking such a decomposition, we will confine ourselves to transformations that leave the average preconcurrence unchanged, and use these transformations to adjust the individual preconcurrences until they are all the same. The result will be our final decomposition of ρ .

Now, any decomposition with n elements can be written in terms of the states $|y_i\rangle$ via the equation

$$|z_i\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^n V_{ij}^* |y_j\rangle,\tag{17}$$

where V is an $n \times n$ unitary matrix. The average preconcurrence of the ensemble $\{|z_i\rangle\}$ is

$$\langle c \rangle = \sum_{i} \langle z_i | \tilde{z}_i \rangle = \sum_{i} (VYV^T)_{ii} = \text{Tr}(VYV^T),$$
 (18)

where Y is the real diagonal matrix defined by $Y_{ij} = \langle y_i | \tilde{y}_j \rangle$. Thus the average preconcurrence is unchanged by any real unitary matrix V (that is, any orthogonal matrix), since in that case $V^T = V^{-1}$ and the trace in Eq. (18) is preserved.

Even restricting ourselves to orthogonal matrices, we retain more than enough freedom to make the preconcurrences of the individual states equal. One way to do this is as follows. First, select the two states $|y_i\rangle$ with the largest and smallest values of the preconcurrence. Since the set $\{|y_i\rangle\}$ has the correct average preconcurrence, either all the preconcurrences are already equal to $C(\rho)$, or else the largest one is too large and the smallest one is too small (typically negative). In the latter case, consider the set of positivedeterminant orthogonal transformations that act only on these two extreme states as in Eq. (17), changing them into new states that we call $|z_a\rangle$ and $|z_b\rangle$. (This set of transformations is simply the one-parameter set of rotations in two dimensions. It is worth emphasizing, however, that we are not using them to rotate the vector space; rather, we are directly forming new linear combinations of the two specified states. The other states $|y_i\rangle$ are not changed.) Among this set of transformations is one that simply interchanges the two extreme states and thus interchanges their preconcurrences. Therefore, by continuity there must exist an intermediate transformation that makes the preconcurrence of $|z_a\rangle$ equal to $C(\rho)$. Perform this transformation, thereby fixing one element of the ensemble to have the correct concurrence. Next, consider the remaining n-1 states, that is, $|z_b\rangle$ and the remaining $|y_i\rangle$ s, and perform the same operation on them. Continuing in this way, one finally arrives at a set of states all having concurrence equal to $C(\rho)$. This we take to be our final decomposition $\{|z_i\rangle\}$, which, as we have argued above, achieves the claimed minimum average entanglement $\mathcal{E}(C(\rho))$. Thus the value of entanglement given in our formula (9) can always be attained, at least for the case in which $\lambda_1 - \lambda_2 - \lambda_3 - \lambda_4 \ge 0$.

We now wish to show that no decomposition of ρ has a *smaller* average entanglement. For this it is enough to show that no decomposition has a smaller average *concurrence*: the average entanglement cannot be less than $\mathcal{E}(\langle C \rangle)$ because of the convexity of the function \mathcal{E} . Now, the average concurrence of a general decomposition is given by an equation similar to Eq. (18) but with an absolute value sign:

$$\langle C \rangle = \sum_{i} |(VYV^{T})_{ii}|. \tag{19}$$

Here V is an $m \times n$ matrix whose n columns are orthonormal vectors. The dimension m of these vectors can be arbitrarily large, since the decomposition may consist of an arbitrarily large number of pure states (though prior results guarantee that one need not consider values of m larger than sixteen [16]). In terms of the components of V and Y, we can write the average concurrence as

$$\langle C \rangle = \sum_{i} \left| \sum_{j} (V_{ij})^{2} Y_{jj} \right|. \tag{20}$$

To obtain the desired lower bound on this sum, we need use only the fact that $\sum_i |(V_{ij})^2| = 1$. That is, we can show that for any complex numbers α_{ij} such that $\sum_i |\alpha_{ij}| = 1$, we have

$$\sum_{i} \left| \sum_{j} \alpha_{ij} Y_{jj} \right| \ge \lambda_1 - \lambda_2 - \lambda_3 - \lambda_4. \tag{21}$$

The proof is straightforward: first note that there is no loss of generality in taking each α_{i1} to be real and positive. (The phases of the other α_{ij} s can be changed to compensate.) Then we can say

$$\sum_{i} |\sum_{j} \alpha_{ij} Y_{jj}| \geq |\sum_{ij} \alpha_{ij} Y_{jj}|$$

$$= |\lambda_{1} - \sum_{j=2}^{n} (\sum_{i} \alpha_{ij}) \lambda_{j}|$$

$$\geq \lambda_{1} - \lambda_{2} - \lambda_{3} - \lambda_{4}$$

$$= C(\rho).$$
(22)

(Again we are using the fact that any λ_j with j > n is zero.) Thus no decomposition of ρ can achieve an average concurrence lower than $C(\rho)$ or an average entanglement lower than $\mathcal{E}(C(\rho))$.

There remains one case to consider, namely, density matrices for which $\lambda_1 - \lambda_2 - \lambda_3 - \lambda_4 < 0$. For these density matrices our formula predicts that the entanglement should be zero, that is, that there should be a decomposition of ρ into unentangled pure states. To show that this is indeed the case, we again start with the decomposition $\{|x_i\rangle\}, i = 1, \ldots, n$, of Eq. (12). If n is equal to 3—the values n = 1 and n = 2 are not possible for the case we are now considering—it is convenient to supplement this set with a dummy state $|x_4\rangle$ equal to the zero vector. From the complete set we directly form our final decomposition $\{|z_i\rangle\}$:

$$|z_{1}\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(e^{i\theta_{1}}|x_{1}\rangle + e^{i\theta_{2}}|x_{2}\rangle + e^{i\theta_{3}}|x_{3}\rangle + e^{i\theta_{4}}|x_{4}\rangle)$$

$$|z_{2}\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(e^{i\theta_{1}}|x_{1}\rangle + e^{i\theta_{2}}|x_{2}\rangle - e^{i\theta_{3}}|x_{3}\rangle - e^{i\theta_{4}}|x_{4}\rangle)$$

$$|z_{3}\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(e^{i\theta_{1}}|x_{1}\rangle - e^{i\theta_{2}}|x_{2}\rangle + e^{i\theta_{3}}|x_{3}\rangle - e^{i\theta_{4}}|x_{4}\rangle)$$

$$|z_{4}\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(e^{i\theta_{1}}|x_{1}\rangle - e^{i\theta_{2}}|x_{2}\rangle - e^{i\theta_{3}}|x_{3}\rangle + e^{i\theta_{4}}|x_{4}\rangle),$$
(23)

where the phase factors are chosen so that

$$\sum_{j} e^{2i\theta_j} \lambda_j = 0. (24)$$

Such phase factors can always be found when $\lambda_1 < \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 + \lambda_4$ (λ_1 being the largest of the four numbers as always). The condition (24) together with the property (12) of the set $\{|x_i\rangle\}$ guarantee that each state $|z_i\rangle$ has zero concurrence and hence zero entanglement. This completes the proof of the formula (9).

Our formula makes possible the easy evaluation of entanglement of formation for a pair of qubits, and should thus facilitate the investigation of any number of questions concerning entanglement. However, there remains a very basic question concerning the *interpretation* of the entanglement of formation that has not yet been resolved. For any pure state $|\psi\rangle$ of a bipartite system, the entanglement $E(\psi)$ defined in Eq. (2) has a very simple and elegant interpretation [17]: if two separated observers Alice and Bob start out with no shared entanglement, then in order for them to create many pairs in the state $|\psi\rangle$, such that Alice ends up with one member of each pair

and Bob has the other, it is necessary that for each pair produced, at least $E(\psi)$ qubits must pass across an imaginary plane separating Alice and Bob; moreover, as the number of pairs approaches infinity, the number of transmitted qubits needed per pair can be made arbitrarily close to $E(\psi)$. That is, $E(\psi)$ measures the amount of quantum information that must be exchanged between Alice and Bob in order to create the state $|\psi\rangle$. It seems likely that one can apply the same interpretation to the entanglement of formation of a mixed state [6], but this conclusion depends on a property of $E(\rho)$ that has not yet been demonstrated [18]. The question is whether $E(\rho)$ is additive, that is, whether, if Alice and Bob have n pairs in the state ρ , the entanglement of formation of that whole system is exactly n times the entanglement of formation of a single pair and not less. In mathematical terms, the issue is whether $E(\rho^{\otimes n}) = nE(\rho)$. It is conceivable that the formula proved in this Letter will help to settle this question in the case of qubits, but more likely an entirely different and more general argument will have to be found. If it is determined that $E(\rho)$ is indeed additive, then this finding will considerably strengthen the physical interpretation of our formula.

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