Multipartite entanglement measure for all discrete systems

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Via a multidimensional complementarity relation we derive a novel operational entanglement measure for any discrete quantum system, i.e. for any multidimensional and multipartite system. This new measure admits a separation into different classes of entanglement obtained by using a flip operator $2$, $3$, ..., $n$–times, defining an $m$–flip concurrence. For mixed states bounds on this $m$–flip concurrence can be obtained. Moreover, the information content of a $n$–partite multidimensional system admits a simple and intuitive interpretation. Explicitly, the three qubits system is analyzed and e.g. the physical difference in entanglement of the $W$–state, the $GHZ$–state or a bi–separable state is revealed.

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I. INTRODUCTION

For many quantum mechanical applications entanglement is the basic ingredient. Mathematically entanglement is well defined. However, no simple operational criterion to detect entanglement versus separability is known. Especially with multipartite entanglement, which is subject to recent research (Ref. [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]), there are still many open questions regarding its properties. Moreover, it is known that there exist different “kinds” of entanglement, see e.g. Ref. [6]. It is therefore highly desirable to first find an operational measure of entanglement and secondly it should provide a good classification of the different kinds of entanglement as this is the physical property which is explored by various applications such as e.g. quantum cryptography or quantum communication, see also Ref. [10, 11, 12].

In this paper we provide both by defining a novel and very intuitive entanglement measure which is additive for pure states and has the advantage to separate entanglement into $2$, $3$, ..., $n$–flip entanglement and for certain cases even into bipartite, tripartite,...$n$–partite entanglement. It works for any dimension and any number of particles.

Explicitly, we show for three qubit systems how this novel measure admits the separation of entanglement into genuine bipartite and tripartite entanglement. And moreover how its substructure is revealed, i.e. the entanglement property of each qubit with all others, see also Fig. 1.

For that we start by proposing the following separation of the information content in a $n$–partite quantum state of arbitrary dimension $\rho$:

$$I(\rho) + R(\rho) + E(\rho) = n \tag{1}$$

where

$$I(\rho) := \sum_{s=1}^{n} S_{s}^{2}(\rho) \tag{2}$$

We will show that for certain cases:

$$\begin{align*}
I(\rho) & \text{ contains all locally obtainable information,} \\
E(\rho) & \text{ contains all information encoded in entanglement,} \\
R(\rho) & \text{ is the complementing missing information, due to a classical lack of knowledge about the quantum state.}
\end{align*}$$

Moreover, we show how the total amount of entanglement...
can be separated into m-flip concurrences:

$$E(\rho) := C_{(2)}^2(\rho) + C_{(3)}^2(\rho) + \ldots + C_{(n)}^2(\rho),$$

for all states (pure: $M(\rho) = 0$). $M(\rho)$ measures the mixiness or linear entropy which equals in this case the uncertainty of individual particles under investigation, clearly a “classical” uncertainty.

The complementarity principle seems to be an intrinsic property of all discrete quantum systems. So even considering various dynamics that a quantum system can be exposed to [13], the two dimensional complementarity relation still holds true. The next logical step is trying to generalize this relation to for a qudit system.

II. THE SINGLE PROPERTY $S$, AND BOHR’S COMPLEMENTARY RELATION:

Bohr’s complementary relation was first discussed to understand the double slit experiment, its information theoretic content can be formulated by the following formula [13, 14]:

$$S^2(\rho) := P^2(\rho) + C_{coh}^2(\rho) \leq 1,$$

where for all pure states the equality sign is valid. $C_{coh}$ is the coherence or in the case of the double slit scenario the fringe visibility which quantifies the sharpness or contrast of the interference pattern (“the wave–like property”). Whereas $P$ denotes the path predictability, i.e., the a priori knowledge one can have on the path taken by the interfering system (“the particle–like property”). In double slit experiment it is simply defined by $P = |P_1 - P_{11}|$, where $P_1$ and $P_{11}$ are the probabilities for taking each path ($P_1 + P_{11} = 1$).

As has been shown this complementary relation is useful to understand several interfering two state system as e.g. particle–antiparticle mixing systems [15, 16] or Mott scattering experiments of identical nuclei [16] or even specific thermodynamical quantum system [17].

One can make Bohr’s complementary relation always exact by adding the quantity (dimensionality $d$, here 2)

$$M^2(\rho) = \frac{d}{d-1} (1 - Tr(\rho^2))$$


to the single particle property $S$

$$S^2(\rho) + M^2(\rho) = 1$$

III. BOHR’S COMPLEMENTARY RELATION FOR $d$–DIMENSIONAL SYSTEMS

: For a qudit system or a multi–slit system the definition of predictability is not straightforward. One approach has recently been introduced in Ref. [15, 16], however, we introduce a similar approach which makes a generalization to multipartite systems possible. To do that we will first introduce the following useful quantity

$$P_{i,j} := Tr(\rho |i\rangle\langle j|)$$

and propose the generalized predictability for a qudit state $\rho$

$$P_g(\rho) := \sqrt{\frac{d-1}{d} \sum_{i} |P_{i,0} - P_{i,1} + P_{i,2} + \ldots + P_{i,d-1}|^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{1}{d-1} \sum_{i} |P_{i,i} - \frac{1}{d}|^2} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{d-1} \sum_{i} P_{i,i}^2 - \frac{1}{d-1}},$$

where \( \sum_{i} \) denotes the sum over all possible permutations of $P_{i,j}$. The first line admits for a multi–slit scenario the following simple interpretation: it is the difference of the probability that the particle transverses the slit, e.g. $P_{0,0}$, minus the probabilities that the particle takes the way through all the other slits weighted by $d-1$, summed over all slits. For $d = 2$ it is clearly equivalent to the prior definition of predictability, it ranges from zero to one and is equal to one if one has hundred per cent information about a possible measurement outcome and it is equal to zero if one does not have any information about which degree of freedom would most likely to be measured. Thus is meets all of our conceptual requirements.

Of course it is only one of many ways to describe multi–level predictability, but one that meets all of our conceptual requirements. A different one was introduced in Ref. [18].

The coherence is easier to define, it is more straightforward. We can just take the sum over all two dimensional
coherences:

\[ C_{coh,g}(\rho) := \left( \frac{2d}{d-1} \sum_{j=1}^{d-1} \sum_{i<j} |P_{i,j}|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \left( \frac{d}{d-1} \left( Tr(\rho^2) - \sum_{i} P_{i,i}^2 \right) \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \]  \tag{11}

The last equation is obtained by using \( Tr(\rho^2) = \sum |P_{i,j}|^2 = \sum P_{i,i}^2 + 2 \sum_{i,j,i<j} |P_{i,j}|^2 \). Again it meets also the conceptual requirements as for \( d = 2 \) it is equivalent to the prior definition of coherence, it ranges from zero to one and is equal to one if one has the most coherent superposition of all degrees of freedom and it is equal to zero if one has hundred per cent information about a possible measurement outcome.

Let us now consider the sum of generalized predictability and coherence

\[ P_g^2(\rho) + C_{coh,g}(\rho)^2 = \frac{d}{d-1} Tr(\rho^2) - \frac{1}{d-1} = -M^2 + 1 \]

\[ \Rightarrow P_g^2(\rho) + C_{coh,g}(\rho)^2 + M^2(\rho) = 1 \]  \tag{12} \( S_3(\rho) \)

This is an entanglement measure, i.e. non-increasing under LOCC (local operations and classical communications), additive and meeting all requirements to be an entanglement monotone (see e.g. Ref. [23]). The same is true for the Von Neumann entropies of the subsystems defining entanglement of formation [20], but the linear entropy \( M^2 \) bears the benefit that it can be operationally obtained as we will show.

**A. Example: A tripartite qubit state**

For convenience and clarity we consider now a tripartite qubit system and generalize then for the multipartite case. Consider the tripartite qubit state

\[ |\psi\rangle = \sum_{i,j,k=0}^1 a_{ijk} |ijk\rangle \]  \tag{14}

then the mixednesses of the subsystem, e.g. of the first qubit, is straightforward calculated and equivalent to the following expressions obtained by simple algebra:

\begin{align*}
M_1^2(\psi) &= M^2(\rho_1) = \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^1 \sum_{i_1 \neq i'_1; i_2 \neq i'_2} \left| \langle \psi | (\sigma \otimes \sigma \otimes 1) (|i_1 i_2 k\rangle \langle i_1 i_2 k| - |i'_1 i'_2 k\rangle \langle i'_1 i'_2 k|) |\psi^*\rangle \right|^2 \\
&\quad + \sum_{k=0}^1 \sum_{i_1 \neq i'_1; i_3 \neq i'_3} \left| \langle \psi | (\sigma \otimes 1 \otimes \sigma) (|i_1 k i_3\rangle \langle i_1 k i_3| - |i'_1 k i'_3\rangle \langle i'_1 k i'_3|) |\psi^*\rangle \right|^2 \\
&\quad + \sum_{i_1 \neq i'_1; i_2 \neq i'_2; i_3 \neq i'_3} \left| \langle \psi | (\sigma \otimes \sigma \otimes \sigma) (|i_1 i_2 i_3\rangle \langle i_1 i_2 i_3| - |i'_1 i'_2 i'_3\rangle \langle i'_1 i'_2 i'_3|) |\psi^*\rangle \right|^2 
\end{align*}

As the sum of all mixednesses, \( E(\psi) \), is an entanglement measure it is obvious to add all terms which contain two flips to one quantity which we denote by \( (C_{(2)})^2 \) and all terms with three flips to \( (C_{(3)})^2 \). Thus we have separated the total entanglement, \( E(\psi) \), into a sum of terms con-
taining two or three flips, which we name in the following as $m$–flip concurrence.

**B. The $m$–concurrence for pure states**

For multipartite qudit systems the same works. The flip operators can be defined in the following way for a qudit system of dimension $d$:

$$\sigma_{kl}^{d \times d} |k\rangle = |l\rangle, \quad \sigma_{kl}^{d \times d} |l\rangle = |k\rangle$$
$$\sigma_{kl}^{d \times d} |t\rangle = 0 \quad \forall t \neq k, l$$

with $k, l \in \{0, 1, \ldots, d - 1\}$. Note that this is just another definition of the $d$-dimensional symmetric Gellmann matrices. The squared $m$–flip entanglement is given by the sum over all possible permutations of $m$ flips, i.e. for $n$ systems there are $\binom{n}{m}$ possibilities and each system where a flip is performed is denoted by $\alpha_j$ and in order to avoid multiple counting we order the set: $\{\alpha_j\} := \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_m$, where $1 < \alpha_2 < \cdots < \alpha_m$:

$$\left( C_{(m)} \right)^2 = \sum_{\{\alpha_j\}} C_{(\alpha_j)}^2.$$ (16)

Each possibility of $m$ flips is derived by

$$C_{(\alpha_j)}^2 := \sum_{\text{set}} \left| \langle \psi | \hat{O}_{(\alpha_j)} (|i_n\rangle \langle i_n| - |i_n'\rangle \langle i_n'|) |\psi\rangle \right|^2$$

where

$$\sum_{\text{set}} := \sum_{i \in \{\alpha_j\}} \sum_{l=1}^{d_i-1} \sum_{k \in \{\alpha_j\}} \sum_{i_n \neq i_n'} \sum_{i_n' \neq i_n'} \sum_{i_n' \neq \emptyset \{\alpha_j\}}$$

and

$$\hat{O}_{(\alpha_j)} := \left( \sigma_{k,l}^{(\alpha_j)} \right)_{k,l \in \{\alpha_j\}}$$

which defines a $n$–tensor product where the flip operator are positioned at $\alpha_j$ and else the unity is taken. Note that this works for $n$–partite systems with dimensions $d_1$ to $d_n$. And the total entanglement is given by

$$E(\psi) := \sum_{m=2}^{n} C_{(m)}^2 = \sum_{s=1}^{M_n^2} |\psi\rangle \langle \psi|$$

This, for pure systems, is equal to the sum of the squared mixedness of the subsystems. Also if we set $d = n = 2$ this is just the definition of Wooters’s concurrence [21] multiplied by two.

**C. The $m$–concurrence for mixed states**

Pure states are quite a strong restriction and for mixed states, the mixedness of the subsystem will not suffice, because it stems from both entanglement and classical uncertainty. The $m$–flip concurrence for mixed density matrices can be defined by:

$$\left( C_{(m)}^m (\rho) \right)^2 := \inf_{\{\psi_i\}, \rho_i} \sum p_i \left( C_{(m)} (|\psi_i\rangle) \right)^2$$ (20)

That this is part of an analytically correct entanglement measure is obvious, because:

1. $\sum_{m=2}^{n} \left( C_{(m)}^m (|\psi\rangle) \right)^2$ is an entanglement measure for pure states.
2. Any separable density matrix can be decomposed into a convex sum of pure separable states, hence the infimum equals zero for all separable states.
3. Any entangled density matrix’s decomposition contains at least one entangled pure state, hence $C_{(m)}^m (\rho)$ is part of an entanglement measure which is nonzero for all entangled states.

**D. Bounds on the $m$–flip concurrence**

We can derive bounds for the $m$–flip concurrence by defining in an analogous way to Hill and Wootters flip density matrix [21] the $m$–flip density matrix:

$$\rho_{(m)} := \rho_{(\alpha_j)} (|i_n\rangle \langle i_n| - |i_n'\rangle \langle i_n'|) \rho^*.$$ (21)

and calculating the $\lambda_{(\alpha_j)}$'s which are the squared roots of the eigenvalues of $\rho_{(m)}$. The bound can be derived as (analogously to Ref. [22])

$$B^m (\rho) := \left( \sum_{\{\alpha_j\}} \sum_{\text{set}} \max \left[ 0, 2 \max \left( \{\lambda_{(m)} \} \right) - \sum \{\lambda_{(m)} \} \right] \right)^\frac{1}{2}$$

This is not equivalent to the convex roof, but a good boundary $B^m (\rho) \leq C_{(m)}^m (\rho)$ as it agreed in all cases we tried with the criterion of partial positive transposition. In literature there exist several possible suggestions how to improve these bounds [22].

**V. $m$–FLIP CONCURRENCE AND $m$–PARTITE ENTANGLEMENT**

Does the $m$–flip concurrence, $C_{(m)}$, also describe the desired $m$–partite entanglement? The answer is no, a simple counter example e.g. for tripartite qubits is

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|00\rangle + |11\rangle) \otimes \left( \cos \alpha |0\rangle + \sin \alpha |1\rangle \right).$$ (22)
It is also plotted in Fig. 2. For which are superposition of the W–state and a separable state. It is unitary equivalent to the GHZ–state (\(\alpha = \frac{\pi}{2}\)) on the other side the 2–flip has a local minimum. These facts suggest that we have to “correct” the flip concurrences to obtain the m–partite entanglement in the following way

\[
E_{(3)} = E_{123} = C_{(3)}^2(\rho_\alpha) + C_{(2)}^2(\rho_\alpha) \\
\{ C_{(2)}^2(\text{Tr}_1(\rho_\alpha)) + C_{(2)}^2(\text{Tr}_2(\rho_\alpha)) + C_{(2)}^2(\text{Tr}_3(\rho_\alpha)) \}
\]

\[
E_{(2)} = E_{12} + E_{13} + E_{23} \\
= C_{(2)}^2(\text{Tr}_1(\rho_\alpha)) + C_{(2)}^2(\text{Tr}_2(\rho_\alpha)) + C_{(2)}^2(\text{Tr}_3(\rho_\alpha)).
\]

(26)

It is clear that the sum is unchanged, because we add the sum of the 2–flip concurrence of the reduced density matrices and subtract it. As the 2–flip concurrence of the subsystems are here equivalent to two times the Wootters-Hill concurrence [21] this sum is clearly invariant under local unitaries. Therefore all that is left to show is that \(E_{(3)}\) cannot get negative. This is easily proven because the entanglement stored in the subsystems can only be lower or at most equivalent to the entanglement stored in the subsystems. This can of course be generalized for mixed states through the convex roof.

With these definitions of the 2– and 3–partite entanglement we obtain a simple interpretation of the physical difference of the W– and the GHZ–entanglement. The state \(\rho_\alpha\), Eq. (24), is for \(\alpha = 0\) separable, the single property in each subsystem is maximal (see also Fig. 2). As \(\alpha\) increases the single properties \(I(\rho_\alpha) = \sum_{s=1}^{3} S^2_s\) have to decrease due to Bohr’s complementary relation \((S^2_2 + M^2_s = 1)\) as their mixednesses increase. For \(\alpha = \frac{\pi}{3}\) or \(\alpha = \frac{2\pi}{3}\) the single properties are zero, thus entanglement is maximal and it is a genuine 3–partite entangled state, the GHZ–state. For \(\alpha = \frac{\pi}{2}\) the 2–partite entanglement is maximal, while the single properties obtain a local maximal and the 3–partite entanglement is zero as desired. There is another interesting state e.g. at \(\alpha = \frac{\pi}{6}/\frac{5\pi}{6}\), here 2–partite entanglement has another maximum (see Fig. 2).

Also the above counter example of a bi–separable state, Eq. (22), obtains the desired interpretation as the 3–partite entanglement \(E_{(3)}\) derives to zero and the 2–partite entanglement to \(E_{(2)} = E_{12} + E_{13} + E_{23} = 2+0+0\), see also Fig. 1 (d).

In Fig. 2 we show the superposition of W and GHZ: \(\tau_\alpha = |\psi(\alpha)\rangle\langle\psi(\alpha)|\)

\[
|\psi(\alpha)\rangle = \frac{\sin \alpha}{\sqrt{3}} \{|001\} + |010\} + |100\} \cos \alpha |111\}
\]

(27)

The single properties are symmetric, however, the tripartite and the bipartite entanglement depend on the particular superposition. One finds for example another interesting state at \((\alpha = \pm 0.8\pi)\) which maximizes the bipartite entanglement \(E_{(2)}\) while the tripartite entanglement \(E_{(3)}\) is zero (see Fig. 3).

\[
C_{(3)}^2 = 0 \\
C_{(2)}^2 = \frac{8}{3} \{ \sin^4(\alpha) + 3 \cos^2(\alpha) \sin^2(\alpha) \},
\]

(25)

i.e. the 3–flip is zero. For the W–state \((\alpha = \frac{\pi}{3})\) on the other side the 2–flip has a local minimum. Moreover, the zero, but the 3–flip entanglement derives to:

\[
C_{(3)}^2 = \frac{\sin^2 \alpha}{3} \\
C_{(2)}^2 = \frac{8}{3} \{ \sin^4(\alpha) + 3 \cos^2(\alpha) \sin^2(\alpha) \}.
\]

(23)

Here only the first and second particle are entangled the third one not, thus the tripartite entanglement should be zero, but the 3–flip entanglement derives to:

\[
\frac{\sin^2 \alpha}{3}.
\]

(24)

Moreover, the m–flip concurrence is not invariant under local unitaries. However, if we introduce “corrections” to the m–flip concurrence such that these new quantities are invariant under local unitaries we obtain the desired m–partite entanglement. For sake of simplicity we stick here to the case of three qubits.

**Three qubits states:** There exist two entangled states, the well known GHZ–state and the W–state, which are obviously in a physically different way entangled. If one traces over one subsystem, in first case one gets a separable state and in the second case an entangled state.

For that let us discuss the states \(\rho_\alpha = |\phi(\alpha)\rangle\langle\phi(\alpha)|\) with

\[
|\phi(\alpha)\rangle = \frac{\sin \alpha}{\sqrt{3}} \{|001\} + |010\} + |100\} + \cos \alpha |111\},
\]

(24)

which are superposition of the W–state and a separable state. It is also plotted in Fig. 2. For \(\alpha = \frac{\pi}{2}/\frac{3\pi}{2}\) the state is unitary equivalent to the GHZ–state \((\alpha = \frac{\pi}{2} / \{ |000\} + |111\})\). This is at the first side surprising, because the 3–flip and the 2–flip concurrences derive to

\[
C_{(3)}^2 = 0 \\
C_{(2)}^2 = \frac{8}{3} \{ \sin^4(\alpha) + 3 \cos^2(\alpha) \sin^2(\alpha) \}.
\]

(25)
properties of the state. We have chosen a mixture of the GHZ-state and the W-state, i.e. \( \sigma(\alpha) \). The complementing missing information, due to classical lack of knowledge about the quantum state, \( R(\sigma(\alpha)) \), is maximal for \( \alpha = \frac{\pi}{2} \) as expected.

To sum up for 3 qubits we have shown that in a simple and evident way the 2–flip and 3–flip concurrences can be made invariant under local unitaries and these new quantities, the 2– and 3–partite entanglement, capture then the desired physical differences e.g. of the GHZ–state, the W–state, the bi–separable state and of mixed states.

VI. THE INFORMATION CONTENT OF N–PARTITE MULTIDIMENSIONAL SYSTEMS

Now returning to the first equation, Eq. (1), we see the separation of information in multi-qudit systems: \( I(\rho) \) quantifies all locally obtainable information as it is just the sum over all obtainable information in every subsystem. Every physical system with \( d \)-degrees of freedom can carry one bit of information, which can be separated into predictability and coherence. Of course the combination of \( n \)-systems can carry \( n \)-bits of information, just as in classical systems. The main difference then is that they cannot all be locally obtained, as for pure entangled systems the sum over all locally obtainable information does not yield \( n \). Here the information is encoded in entanglement, which in itself seems to be separable into different classes of entanglement, as we have seen for the three qubit example. Note that the local information \( I(\rho) \) is always additive and for the entanglement \( E(\rho) \) strict additivity is only proven for pure states. For mixed systems only subadditivity of \( E(\rho) \) can be proven (in the very same way as with entanglement of formation), but additivity is strongly expected (in this case \( R(\rho) \) can clearly only contain classical uncertainty).

VII. CONCLUSION

We started from Bohr’s complementarity relation, which we generalized for \( d \)-dimensional systems, yielding the information content in every subsystem of a multipartite state \( \rho \) through the single property \( S_s(\rho) \). From this relation we are able to consistently quantify the information content in entanglement of pure states as the missing information needed to complement the single properties of all subsystems as \( n - \sum_{s=1}^{n} S_s(\rho) = \sum_{s=1}^{n} M_s^2(\rho) \). Then we showed that this information can be operationally obtained, thus opening the possibility to derive bounds for the entanglement of multipartite multidimensional systems. Moreover, we have shown that the operations necessary to obtain this measure can be separated into different classes of concurrences, i.e. characterized by the amount of flips \( m \), the \( m \)-flip concurrences. Finally that these can be modified to meet our understanding of multipartite entanglement as explicitly shown for three qubits one can correct the \( m \)-flip concurrences to \( m \)-partite entanglement. This explains the different kind of entanglement of the GHZ–state and the W–state, summarized in Fig.1 and in Fig.2. Moreover, it gives the correct entanglement of any bi–separable state. Last but not least we presented a mixed state, where the single properties are complemented by the classical lack of knowledge...
about the quantum state under investigation. In what way this generalizes for multipartite systems consistently is left for further investigation.

In summary, we found a multidimensional, multipartite and operational entanglement measure which admits a separation into different classes of entanglement and herewith we obtain the information content of any discrete state. This knowledge obviously helps to e.g. decide given a certain state quantum communication or quantum cryptography is possible and to what extend.

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