Role of entanglement and correlations in dense coding

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(May 10, 2002)

Usually it is assumed that quantum dense coding is due to quantum entanglement between two parties. We show that this phenomenon has its origin in correlations between two parties rather than simply in entanglement. In order to justify our argument we considered that Alice has a qubit in the state \( \rho = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{1} + \vec{n} \cdot \mathbf{\sigma} \) and we evaluate a capacity of the noiseless channel for two cases: (1) when Bob performs measurement just on the particle received from Alice and (2) in the case when he utilizes the whole potential of the dense coding, that is, he performs the measurement on the received particle and the particle he had prior to the communication. We also present a simple classical scenario which might serve as a prototype of the dense coding. We generalize our results also for qudits.

I. INTRODUCTION

Quantum dense coding is probably one of the most transparent demonstrations of the power of quantum entanglement in quantum communication [1]. Bennett and Wiesner in their seminal paper [2] have shown that entanglement shared between Alice and Bob can increase a capacity of the quantum channel. Specifically, it is well known that one-qubit channel can transmit at most one bit of information [3]. On the other hand, if the entanglement between two parties is utilized, then up to two bits of information can be transmitted via sending just a single qubit from Alice to Bob: Let us suppose that Alice and Bob share a pair of two qubits prepared in the maximally entangled state \( \left| \psi \right\rangle_{AB} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|00\rangle_{AB} + |11\rangle_{AB}) \). Let Alice perform on her qubit one of the following four operations \( \sigma_0 = \mathbb{1}, \sigma_1 = \sigma_x, \sigma_2 = \sigma_y, \sigma_3 = \sigma_z \) (here \( \sigma_j \)'s are Pauli matrices). In particular, the joint state \( \left| \psi^+ \right\rangle \) evolves according to Alice’s actions \( \sigma_k \otimes \mathbb{1}_B \) \((k = 0, 1, 2, 3)\) into one of the following states:

\[
\begin{align*}
|\psi^\pm\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|00\rangle \pm |11\rangle), \\
|\phi^\pm\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|01\rangle \pm |10\rangle).
\end{align*}
\]

That is, Alice prepares one of the four mutually orthogonal states. After that Alice sends her qubit to Bob. He performs the so-called Bell measurement on both qubits to obtain one of the four possible outcomes associated with the operation chosen by Alice. Thus, Alice and Bob can communicate two bits of information per one usage of the channel.

In this scenario it is essential that Bob performs measurement on both particles. The one he has received from Alice and the other which was in his possession prior to the communication via the channel. If Bob would perform a measurement just on the particle he received from Alice, the amount of information he gets is equal to zero. Certainly, if the two qubits were not maximally entangled then the capacity of the channel is definitely less than two. On the other hand, if Bob would perform a measurement only on the particle received from Alice he can get a non-zero information. What is interesting in this case is that Alice essentially encodes message into an unknown state \( \rho_A = Tr_{B} \rho_{AB} \) of her qubit which might or might not be entangled with Bob’s qubit. The information is coded via the set of operations \( U \) (see below). It is then the choice of Bob whether he boosts the capacity of the channel by performing measurement on only Alice’s particle or both particles. In this paper we will analyze the difference between these two scenarios. Specifically, we will assume the Alice’s qubit to be in the state \( \rho = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{1} + \vec{n} \cdot \mathbf{\sigma} \) and we evaluate a capacity of the noiseless channel for the case when Bob performs measurement just on the particle received from Alice and in the case when he utilizes the whole potential of the dense coding.

II. CAPACITY OF NOISELESS QUBIT CHANNELS

We start this section with a brief reminder of the definition of the channel capacity (see for example [4]). Let \( \pi_a \) represents the probability of the input state \( \varrho_a \) of the system that will be transmitted via the quantum channel described by the superoperator \( \mathcal{E} \). Since in this article we will deal only with noiseless channels the mapping \( \mathcal{E} \) corresponds to the identity, i.e. \( \varrho_in \to \varrho_out = \mathcal{E}[\varrho_in] = \varrho_in \). According to Holevo [4] the capacity of the channel is given by the following formula
\[ C(\mathcal{E}) = \max_{\pi} \left[ S(\mathcal{E}[\bar{\rho}]) - \sum_a \pi_a S(\mathcal{E}[\rho_a]) \right] \]  

where \( \bar{\rho} \) := \( \sum_a \pi_a \rho_a \) is the average state, \( S(\rho) = -\text{Tr} \rho \log \rho \) is the von Neumann entropy and the maximization is taken over all possible input probabilities \( \pi_a \).

Once the channel capacity is defined let us consider the first scenario: Alice obtains a qubit which might or might not be a part of the entangled pair. The qubit is prepared in the state \( \rho_a = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{1} + \vec{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma} \) and Bob at the end of the communication channel performs measurement only on the qubit received from Alice. She as a sender is allowed to choose between unitary transformations \( U_a \) to encode the message \( a \) into the state \( \rho_a = U_a \rho U_a^\dagger \).

In what follows we will use a notation \( \rho = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{1} + \vec{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma} \equiv \vec{n} \), that is, we will represent a state of a qubit by a vector \( \vec{n} \) in a three-dimensional space. The state space of a qubit corresponds to a Bloch sphere of a unit radius.

Since the encoding transformation is unitary it does not change the eigenvalues and consequently the entropy is preserved, i.e. \( S(\vec{n}_a) = S(\vec{n}) \). Therefore we obtain

\[ C(\rho) = \max_{\pi} \left[ S(\sum_a \pi_a \rho_a) - S(\rho) \right] . \]  

Our aim is to maximize the entropy of the averaged state \( \sum_a \pi_a \rho_a \). It is known, that the entropy achieves its maximum for the state called as the total mixture, i.e. for the operator \( \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{1} \). Thus the question is, whether it is possible to find such a set of unitary transformations \( U_a \) for which

\[ \sum_a \pi_a U_a \rho U_a^\dagger = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{1} . \]  

Let us first discuss the case when \( a = 0 \) or \( 1 \) and introduce the notation \( \vec{n}_0 = \vec{n}, \vec{n}_1 = \vec{m} \) (see Fig. 1a) The total mixture lies in the center of the Bloch sphere representation of states of the qubit and corresponds to the vector \( \vec{0} \). Therefore, the condition (2.3) can be rewritten as

\[ \vec{0} = \pi \vec{n} + (1 - \pi) \vec{m} . \]  

The convex sum of two vectors with equal lengths is equal to zero, \textit{if and only if} if \( \pi = 1/2 \) and \( \vec{n} = -\vec{m} \), i.e. they have opposite orientations. For pure states it corresponds to the orthogonality of these states.

As a result we get that in order to maximize the capacity, Alice needs to perform the unitary transformations \( U_0 \) and \( U_1 \) that generate two mutually orthogonal states, i.e. \( \langle \psi | U_1 U_0 | \psi \rangle = 0 \). For a fixed (known) state \( |\psi\rangle \) it is not a difficult task but in a more general case (i.e. if the state \( |\psi\rangle \) is unknown to Alice) it is impossible. The transformation \( |\psi\rangle \rightarrow |\psi^\perp\rangle \) is anti-unitary and therefore cannot be performed perfectly (see Fig. 1b). It means that in the case \( a = 0 \) or \( 1 \) it is impossible to achieve \( C(\rho) = 1 - S(\rho) \), if Alice does not know the state \( \rho \) she gets. But is it entirely impossible? What happens, if the number of applied unitaries \( U_a \) is larger than two?

![FIG. 1. A schematic description of a noiseless single qubit channel with two different ways of coding.](image-url)

Let us choose the following four unitary transformations (\( a = 0, 1, 2, 3 \)) \( U_0 = \mathbb{1} \), \( U_k = \vec{n}_k \cdot \vec{\sigma} \) for \( k = 1, 2, 3 \) and \( \vec{n}_k \) are three real three-dimensional vectors, for which \( \vec{n}_k \cdot \vec{n}_l = \delta_{kl} \) (see Fig. reffig1b) That is, the vectors \( \vec{n}_k \) form a basis in the three-dimensional real vector space. Let us put \( \pi_a = 1/4 \) for all values of \( a \). Calculating the left hand side of Eq. (2.3) we obtain

\[ \frac{1}{4} \sum_{a=0}^{4} U_a \rho U_a^\dagger = \frac{1}{4} \left[ \rho + \sum_k (\vec{n}_k \cdot \vec{\sigma}) \rho (\vec{n}_k \cdot \vec{\sigma})^\dagger \right] \]

\[ = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{1} + \frac{1}{4} \left[ \vec{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma} + \sum_k (\vec{n}_k \cdot \vec{\sigma}) (\vec{n}_k \cdot \vec{\sigma})^\dagger \right] \]

\[ = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{1} + \frac{1}{4} \left[ \vec{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma} + \sum_k (\vec{n}_k \cdot \vec{\sigma})(\vec{n}_k \cdot \vec{\sigma})^\dagger + i(\vec{n} \times \vec{n}_k) \cdot \vec{\sigma} \right] \]

\[ = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{1} + \frac{1}{4} \left[ \vec{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma} + \sum_k ((\vec{n}_k \cdot \vec{n})(\vec{n}_k \cdot \vec{\sigma}) - (\vec{n}_k \times (\vec{n} \times \vec{n}_k)) \cdot \vec{\sigma}) \right] \]

\[ = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{1} + \frac{1}{4} \left[ 2 \sum_k (\vec{n}_k \cdot \vec{n})(\vec{n}_k \cdot \vec{\sigma}) - 2(\vec{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma}) \right] \]

\[ = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{1} , \]  

where we used the following identities

\( (\vec{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma})(\vec{m} \cdot \vec{\sigma}) = (\vec{n} \cdot \vec{m}) \mathbb{1} + i(\vec{n} \times \vec{m}) \cdot \vec{\sigma} \),

\( \vec{a} \times (\vec{b} \times \vec{c}) = (\vec{a} \cdot \vec{c})\vec{b} - (\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b})\vec{c} \),
\[
\sum_k (\vec{n}_k \cdot \vec{n})(\vec{n}_k \cdot \vec{\sigma}) = \sum_{k=0}^3 (n_k)^\alpha n^\beta (n_k)^\sigma = \vec{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma},
\]
and \((n_k)^\alpha\) denotes the \(\alpha\)-th component of the vector \(\vec{n}_k\).

What we have shown here is that if Alice chooses one of the four unitary operations \(U_0 = \mathbb{1}, U_k = \vec{n}_k \cdot \vec{\sigma}\) and the information source produces messages \(a = 0, 1, 2, 3\) with equal probabilities, \(\pi_a = 1/4\), then Eq. (2.3) holds for a general (unknown) state \(\rho\).

Therefore, the capacity of the noiseless qubit channel is given by
\[
C(\rho) = 1 - S(\rho). 
\]
(2.7)

The set of unitaries is universal in a sense that their choice is independent of the state \(\rho\). It is interesting that the mentioned universality cannot be obtained by using only two-valued encoding \(U_a\), but with four-valued encoding it is possible. We stress once again that in this scenario the entanglement has not been employed at all. For that reason we will denote the capacity (2.7) as \(C_{\text{normal}}\).

### III. Dense Coding with Partially Entangled States

As we have shown in the Introduction, the dense coding protocol is based on a very specific property of maximally entangled states. Namely, it is based on the possibility to generate the basis of maximally entangled states just by local unitary operations realized by Alice. There are four such operations which generate four mutually orthogonal states. This property is no longer valid, if the qubits are entangled only partially.

In this section we will consider a situation when Alice and Bob are entangled pairs of qubits such that Alice’s qubit is in the state \(\rho = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{1} + \vec{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma} \equiv \vec{n}\) (We note that in the case of maximally entangled pair Alice’s qubit is in the maximally mixed state \(\frac{1}{2} \mathbb{1}\).) Bob is going to utilize the dense coding strategy; that is he will perform a measurement on both qubits. The question is which type of operations Alice has to perform in order to minimize the mutual overlap between the states \(\rho_a\). For these operations we can expect the maximal capacity of the quantum channel. This question has been addressed in Ref. [4]. Here we just briefly evaluate the capacity for noiseless one-qubit channel. Specifically, let us consider that Alice realizes one of the four unitary transformations \(U_a\) to obtain four states \(\rho_a = (U_a \otimes \mathbb{1}) \rho_{AB} (U_a^\dagger \otimes \mathbb{1})\) of a two-qubit system. Since the transformations are unitary, it follows that the second term in the expression (2.3) for the capacity equals the entropy of the joint state, i.e. \(S(\rho_{AB})\). We can write
\[
C(\rho_{AB}) = \max \pi \left[ S(\sum_a \pi_a \rho_a) - S(\rho_{AB}) \right].
\]
(3.1)

The question remains the same as before. What is the maximal value of the first term? Since the whole Hilbert space is four-dimensional, the largest possible value of the entropy is \(\log 4 = 2\). However, is it possible to achieve this value, if the unitary transformations must have the form of \(U_a \otimes \mathbb{1}\)?

Firstly consider the direct generalization of the Bennett and Wiesner example, that is, let Alice perform just four possible transformations \(U_a \otimes \mathbb{1}\). The general state of a two qubit system can be uniquely expressed in the following way
\[
\rho_{AB} = \rho_A \otimes \rho_B + \sum_{c,d} \gamma_{cd} \sigma_c \otimes \sigma_d,
\]
(3.2)
where \(\rho_A = \text{Tr}_B \rho_{AB}\) and \(\rho_B = \text{Tr}_A \rho_{AB}\) are the reduced density operators describing states of the subsystems (Alice and Bob).

If we again set the probabilities \(\pi_a = 1/4\), then the average state
\[
\overline{\rho}_{AB} = \frac{1}{4} \sum_a (U_a \otimes \mathbb{1}) \rho_{AB} (U_a^\dagger \otimes \mathbb{1})
\]
(3.3)
can be calculated. In Ref. [3] it has been shown that if we require that the four Alice’s operations \(U_a\) are independent of \(\rho_{AB}\) then these unitaries must have the form \(U_a \otimes \mathbb{1}\) with \(U_0 = \mathbb{1}, U_k = \vec{n}_k \cdot \vec{\sigma}\). That is, these operations are exactly the same as those derived in previous section in a completely different scenario. It means the vectors \(\vec{n}_k\) form an orthonormal basis in the three-dimensional real vector space.

Using the previous results (Sec.II) we can write
\[
\overline{\rho}_{AB} = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{1} \otimes \rho_B + \sum_{c,d} \gamma_{cd} \left( \frac{1}{4} \sum_a U_a \sigma_c U_a^\dagger \right) \otimes \sigma_d.
\]
(3.4)
If we insert the sigma operator \(\sigma_c\) (instead of the state \(\rho\)) into the calculation (2.3) it gives us
\[
\frac{1}{4} \sum_a U_a \sigma_c U_a^\dagger = 0.
\]
(3.5)
Thus, we find that
\[
\overline{\rho} = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{1} \otimes \rho_B,
\]
(3.6)
and for the dense coding capacity we obtain the formula
\[
C(\rho_{AB}) = S(\frac{1}{2} \mathbb{1} \otimes \rho_B) - S(\rho_{AB}) = 1 + S(\rho_B) - S(\rho_{AB}).
\]
(3.7)
In the last equality we used the following property of the entropy function \(S(\rho \otimes \xi) = S(\rho) + S(\xi)\).

We conclude this section with two remarks:

**Remark 1. Maximal capacity**
We still did not solve the original question of maximalizing the capacity in its full generality. It is an open problem, whether we can raise the capacity by applying more unitaries, like it was done in Section II. We will get back to this problem at the end of this paper.

**Remark 2. The asymmetry of the dense coding**

Let us note, that the obtained capacity of the noiseless qubit channel using the dense coding strategy is not symmetric with respect to the exchange of Bob and Alice. Suppose the same situation as before, i.e. Alice and Bob share a pair of qubits in a state $\varrho_{AB}$. If Bob send the messages to Alice (using dense coding strategy) we obtain

$$C_{B\rightarrow A} = 1 + S(\varrho_A) - S(\varrho_{AB})$$

$$\neq 1 + S(\varrho_B) - S(\varrho_{AB}) = C_{A\rightarrow B}, \quad (3.8)$$

since in general $S(\varrho_A) \neq S(\varrho_B)$. In fact, there is no reason to expect the equality, since Bob and Alice use different signal states.

Finally, in what follows we will denote the capacity (3.7) related to dense coding as $C^{\text{dense}}$.

**IV. CORRELATIONS ARE CRUCIAL**

To compare the capacity of the dense coding scenario (3.7) with the capacity of the noiseless qubit channel without using the dense coding strategy (2.7), we see that always $C^{\text{dense}} \geq C^{\text{normal}}$. Both of these scenarios use the same unitary transformations realized on the same state $\varrho = \frac{1}{2} I + \vec{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma} \equiv \vec{n}$, of Alice’s qubit prepared prior the communication. The four unitary transformations are used to generate the input signals. The choice of the schemes to be used depends on Alice and Bob. In fact, it is Bob’s “free will” whether he uses the second qubit and thus whether he establishes the dense coding communication or not (see Fig. 2). In some sense Alice does not have to do anything different in either case. She simply always chooses one of the four possible unitary transformations. In particular, the difference between channel capacities associated with these two strategies

$$C^{\text{dense}}_{A\rightarrow B} - C^{\text{normal}}_{A\rightarrow B} = C^{\text{dense}}_{B\rightarrow A} - C^{\text{normal}}_{B\rightarrow A}$$

$$= S(\varrho_A) + S(\varrho_B) - S(\varrho_{AB})$$

$$= C_{\varrho}(A, B), \quad (4.1)$$

allows us to make the conclusion that it is not exclusively the entanglement, but the correlations per se which are crucial in the dense coding scenario. We remind us that the function denoted as $C_{\varrho}(A, B)$ in Eq. (4.1) is the correlation function, or to the so-called quantum mutual information (4). In order to appreciate this result we will consider a simple example of a dense coding within a classical context.

**FIG. 2. Schematic description of the communication between Alice and Bob.** Fig. 2a describes a situation when Alice and Bob share a correlated pair of qubits but Bob does perform a measurement only on the particle received from Alice. In this case he does not utilize the potential of the dense-coding strategy. In Fig. 2b, Bob performs measurement on both particles - the one that he received prior to the communication directly from the source of correlated particles and the particle received from Alice. In this second case correlations between particles are used to enhance the capacity of the noiseless channel.

**A. Dense coding in classical settings**

Let us consider the following classical scenario: Alice and Bob share the maximally correlated classical state of two two-level particles (bits). It means that the source produces two particles described by the joint classical state $p(00) = p(11) = 1/2$ and $p(01) = p(10) = 0$. One of them is sent to Bob and the other to Alice. In the classical case (unlike quantum) Alice can perform only two operations on her bit. If she wants to send the message 0, she does nothing, and if the message is 1, then she performs classical NOT on her bit. That is, if she obtains a bit with the value $j$, then she sends the bit with the value $j \oplus k$, where $k$ is the message she wants to send. After Bob receives her bit, he can decide to measure it with no reference to his bit what-so-ever. In this case he obtains no information and capacity of the channel is zero (which is an analogue of the quantum case when Alice is performing operations on the qubit in the state $\frac{1}{2} I$ while Bob measures only this qubit). On the other hand, when Bob receives Alice’s bit he can compare it with the original one he obtained from the source. If their values coincide, then he knows that Alice sent him the message 0. If he finds a difference, then he knows that Alice realized the NOT operation and the
received message is 1. Thus, Alice and Bob can communicate one bit of information using the “dense coding” strategy. In this classical picture it is more illustrative that Bob's bit plays a role of a secure key. Formally, the classical and quantum situations are the same. The classical dense coding (with the maximally correlated state) is completely equivalent to the communication, where Alice and Bob share a secure key. They need two bits (as classical physical systems) to transmit one bit of information. But the transmission is as secure, as in the quantum case, only the existence of the potential eavesdropper is not detectable. (On the other hand the knowledge about the value of the bit transmitted via the channel is useless for the eavesdropper).

B. Entanglement measure

We might consider to utilize the dense coding as a way how to define an entanglement measure (see Refs. [2]). From our previous results if follows that not only the entanglement but the correlations between Alice and Bob are essential for the dense coding. So the question is whether one can use the phenomenon to quantify the degree of entanglement between Alice and Bob.

The main problem in this context is that there might be several views how to define what the dense coding is. Within the context of quantum information processing the classical-quantum analogies are not obtained as a consequence of some rigorously defined procedures, but rather they are based on vague (intuitive) mathematical similarities. If one represents the dense coding as any strategy that breaks the limit on the capacity of the one-qubit channel, then one can say that whenever the capacity \( C(\varrho_{AB}) > 1 \) then the state \( \varrho_{AB} \) is entangled. Obviously this is right, since from Eq. (4.2) it follows that either \( S(\varrho_A) > S(\varrho_{AB}) \), or \( S(\varrho_B) > S(\varrho_{AB}) \). On the other hand, it is known, however, that not all entangled states have such property. We have tried to define the entanglement as the difference between the “normal” and “dense” capacities, but, of course, such definition strongly depends on the definition what the “normal” strategy is. We did it in a simple and natural way, but it might be that other definitions could bring some new insights into the problem of the entanglement. Our choice (at least) enables us to find the classical analogue of the dense coding strategy.

Probably it is worth to note that there exists a formal mathematical relation between the difference of these capacities and the entanglement of formation \( E_F \) (see below). Let us consider Eq. (1.1) describing the difference between \( C_{\text{dense}} \) and \( C_{\text{normal}} \). This difference is equal to the mutual information \( C_p(A,B) \). Based on this expression we can introduce a function \( E(A,B) \) defined as

\[
E(\varrho_{AB}) = \min_{p_k : |\psi_k\rangle_{AB}} \left[ \sum_k p_k C_{\{\psi_k\}}(A,B) \right] \tag{4.2}
\]

where the minimum is taken over all convex decompositions of the state \( \varrho_{AB} \) into pure states and \( \varrho_A^k = \text{Tr}_B |\psi_k\rangle_{AB} \langle \psi_k| \), \( \varrho_B^k = \text{Tr}_A |\psi_k\rangle_{AB} \langle \psi_k| \). Since for pure states \( |\psi\rangle_{AB} \) the entropies of the subsystems are the same, \( S(\varrho_A) = S(\varrho_B) \), it follows that the function \( E(\varrho_{AB}) \) is proportional to the entanglement of formation \( E_F \), i.e.

\[
E(\varrho_{AB}) = \min_{p_k : |\psi_k\rangle_{AB}} 2 \left[ \sum_k p_k S(\varrho_A^k) \right] = 2E_F(\varrho_{AB}) \tag{4.3}
\]

Of course, the meaning of the last equality is rather vague. We do not have any compelling reasons why to use the definition given in Eq. (4.3). We can only argue that it excludes the possibility to substitute the source of the pairs of qubits by local sources that are allowed to communicate via classical channels. In other words, when the source can be replaced by two local sources connected by a classical communication line, the entanglement \( E(\varrho_{AB}) \) vanishes.

V. INSTEAD OF CONCLUSIONS: NOISELESS QUDIT CHANNEL

In this paper we have shown that quantum dense coding has its origin in correlations between two parties rather than simply in entanglement. In order to justify our argument we have considered a situation that Alice has a qubit in the state \( \varrho = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{1} + \vec{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma} \) and we evaluate a capacity of the noiseless channel for two cases: (1) when Bob performs measurement just on the particle received from Alice and (2) in the case when he utilizes the whole potential of the dense coding, that is, he performs the measurement of the particle received from Alice and the particle he had prior the communication. We have also presented a simple classical scenario which might serve as a prototype of dense coding. In all our discussions we have considered that Alice and Bob share a pair of qubits. In a conclusion we show that our results are valid also for qudits.

By qudits we understand \( d \)-dimensional quantum objects. The main property we have used in our discussion with qubits is expressed by Eq. (2.3) and for qudits this expression takes the following form

\[
\sum_a \pi_a U_a \varrho U_a^\dagger = \frac{1}{d} \mathbb{1} = \varrho \tag{5.1}
\]

We can express the general qudit state in the form \( \varrho = \frac{1}{d^2} \mathbb{1} + \vec{n} \cdot \vec{\Lambda} \), where \( \vec{\Lambda} = (\Lambda_1, \ldots, \Lambda_{d^2-1}) \) is the set of \( d^2 - 1 \) Hermitian traceless operators, for which \( \text{Tr} \Lambda_a \Lambda_{\beta} = d \delta_{a,\beta} \) with \( a, \beta = 1, \ldots, d^2 - 1 \). Let us choose the set of \( d^2 \) unitary operators \( U_a \), for which the similar property holds,
i.e. $\text{Tr} U_a^\dagger U_b = d \delta_{ab}$, but $a, b = 0, 1, \ldots, d^2 - 1$. We assume that $\pi_a = 1/d^2$. Introducing this notation we can rewrite the above equation as

$$\frac{1}{d^2} \sum_a U_a \varrho U_a^\dagger = \frac{1}{d} \mathbb{1} + \frac{1}{d^2} \sum_{\alpha = 1}^{d^2-1} n_{\alpha} \left( \sum_{\alpha = 0}^{d^2-1} U_{\alpha} \Lambda_{\alpha} U_{\alpha}^\dagger \right). \quad (5.2)$$

Next, we will show that the second term in the right-hand side of Eq. (5.2) vanishes. Let $|\psi\rangle = \sum_k \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} |k\rangle \otimes |k\rangle$ be the maximally entangled state of two qudits and let us calculate the mean value of the operator $\xi_{\alpha} \otimes \mathbb{1}$, where $\xi_{\alpha} := \sum_a U_{\alpha} \Lambda_{\alpha} U_{\alpha}^\dagger$. That is

$$\langle \psi | \xi_{\alpha} \otimes \mathbb{1} | \psi \rangle = \sum_a \langle \phi_a | \Lambda_{\alpha} \otimes \mathbb{1} | \phi_a \rangle \quad = \text{Tr} \Lambda_{\alpha} \otimes \mathbb{1} = \text{Tr} \Lambda_{\alpha} \text{Tr}_2 \mathbb{1} = 0, \quad (5.3)$$

where we used the notation $|\phi_a\rangle := U_{\alpha}^\dagger \otimes \mathbb{1} |\psi\rangle$ and the identity $\langle \phi_a | \phi_b \rangle = \frac{1}{d} \text{Tr} U_{\alpha}^\dagger U_{\beta} = \delta_{ab}$ which implies that the vectors $|\phi_a\rangle$ form an orthonormal basis in the Hilbert space of two qudits. The last equality is the consequence of the tracelessness of $\Lambda_{\alpha}$. Since the mean value $\langle \psi | \xi_{\alpha} \otimes \mathbb{1} | \psi \rangle$ for all states $|\psi\rangle$ equals to zero, we can conclude that the operator $\xi_{\alpha} \otimes \mathbb{1}$ vanishes as well as the operator $\xi_{\alpha}$ for all $\alpha$. As a result we find that the second term in Eq. (5.2) vanishes and the condition (5.1) holds. We proved the property that enables us to generalize our previous results. It is easy to see that for the capacities of noiseless qudit channels we get

$$C_{A \rightarrow B}^{\text{normal}}(\varrho_A) = \log_2 d - S(\varrho_A),$$

$$C_{A \rightarrow B}^{\text{dense}}(\varrho_{AB}) = \log_2 d + S(\varrho_B) - S(\varrho_{AB}), \quad (5.4)$$

where we used the fact that $\max_{\pi} [S(\varrho)] = \log_2 d$ is achievable, since we showed that $\varrho = \frac{1}{d} \mathbb{1}$. Our generalization also answers the question stated at the end of Section II (see Remark 1). Since it is impossible to find the set of $d^2$ local unitaries of the form $U \otimes \mathbb{1}$ satisfying the orthogonality condition $\text{Tr} U_a^\dagger U_b = d \delta_{ab}$, it follows that the dense coding capacity cannot achieve the value $C(\varrho_{AB}) = \log_2 d^2 - S(\varrho_{AB})$. That is, the maximal capacity cannot be achieved due to the fact that by applying the encoding transformations $U \otimes \mathbb{1}$ we cannot obtain the averaged state of the form $\varrho_{AB} = \frac{1}{d^2} \mathbb{1} \otimes \varrho_B$ (for the general initial state $\varrho_{AB}$). The best encoding transformations which lead to a maximum capacity generate the averaged state $\varrho_{AB}$ of the form $\varrho_{AB} = \frac{1}{d} \mathbb{1} \otimes \varrho_B$.

**ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

This work was supported in part by the European Union projects EQUIP (IST-1999-11053) and QUBITS (IST-1999-13021).

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