Entanglement cost of discriminating noisy Bell states by local operations and classical communication

Somshubro Bandyopadhyay∗ Vincent Russo†

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Abstract

Entangled states can help in quantum state discrimination by local operations and classical communication (LOCC). For example, a Bell state is necessary (and sufficient) to perfectly discriminate a set of either three or four Bell states by LOCC. In this paper, we consider the task of LOCC discrimination of the states of noisy Bell ensembles, where a given ensemble consists of the states obtained by mixing the Bell states with an arbitrary two-qubit state with nonzero probabilities. It is proved that a Bell state is required for optimal discrimination by LOCC, even though the ensembles do not contain, in general, any maximally entangled state, and in specific instances, any entangled state.

1 Introduction

The paradigm of local operations and classical communication (LOCC) is of particular importance in quantum information theory [1]. LOCC protocols involve two or more parties sharing a composite quantum system who perform arbitrary quantum operations on the local subsystems and communicate only via classical channels. Note that quantum communication is not allowed between the parties. The framework of LOCC provides a natural way to study the resource theory of quantum entanglement [2], the nonlocal properties of quantum systems [3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13], and applications thereof [14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22].

Local state discrimination

One problem that has been extensively studied within the framework of LOCC is discrimination of quantum states [8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 37, 36, 38, 39, 40].

∗Department of Physics, Bose Institute, Kolkata 700091, India; Email: som@jcbose.ac.in

†ISARA Corporation, Waterloo, ON N2L0A9, Canada; Email: vincentrusso1@gmail.com
The problem may be briefly described as follows. Let \( \mathcal{E} = \{(p_i, \rho_i) : i = 1, \ldots, N\} \) be an ensemble of \( k \)-partite quantum states \( \rho_1, \ldots, \rho_N \) with associated probabilities \( p_1, \ldots, p_N \), where \( k, N \geq 2 \). Now suppose that \( k \) separated parties share a quantum system prepared in a state chosen from \( \mathcal{E} \). The parties do not know the identity of the state but they do know that the state has been chosen from \( \mathcal{E} \). The goal is to gain as much knowledge about the state of the system by means of LOCC. For example, if the given states are mutually orthogonal, then they wish to find which state the system is in without error. This is evidently a state discrimination problem in which the allowed measurements are only those that are implementable by LOCC. So the question of interest here is the following: For a given set of states, does there exist a LOCC measurement that discriminates the states just as well as the best possible measurement that may be performed on the whole system?

In general, how well a given set of states can be discriminated can be quantified by the success probability for minimum-error state discrimination\(^1\). The success probability is the optimized value of the average probability of success, where the optimization is over either all measurements or some specific class of measurements. Thus, for a given ensemble \( \mathcal{E} \), let \( p(\mathcal{E}) \) and \( p_L(\mathcal{E}) \) \([49]\) denote the success probability (global optimum) and the local success probability (local optimum), where the corresponding optimizations are taken over all measurements and LOCC measurements, respectively.

Let us now come back to the question of whether the global optimum for a given set of states is always achievable by LOCC. The answer turns out to be no in general; that is, sets that cannot be optimally discriminated by LOCC, even if the states are all pure and mutually orthogonal, exist. Once the initial results \([8, 23]\) established this fact, most of the subsequent works were devoted to identifying and characterizing the sets for which the global optimum is achievable by LOCC \([24, 25, 32]\) and those for which it is not (e.g., \([9, 26, 29, 30, 31, 32]\)). For example, two pure states can be optimally discriminated by LOCC \([24, 25]\) but an entangled orthogonal basis, such as the Bell basis, cannot be \([10, 26, 29, 32]\). So given a set of states that cannot be optimally discriminated by LOCC, one must, therefore, consider using quantum entanglement as a resource for optimal discrimination.

**Entanglement as a resource for local state discrimination**

The limitations of LOCC protocols in discriminating quantum states can be overcome with shared entanglement used as a resource \([50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56]\). Consider a simple example: The Bell

\(^1\)For general discussions on minimum-error discrimination one may consult \([44, 45, 46, 47, 48]\).
basis $\mathcal{B}$, which is defined by the four Bell states,

$$
|\Psi_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|00\rangle + |11\rangle),
|\Psi_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|00\rangle - |11\rangle),
|\Psi_3\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|01\rangle + |10\rangle),
|\Psi_4\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|01\rangle - |10\rangle),
$$

(1)

cannot be perfectly discriminated by a LOCC measurement, even though the states are mutually orthogonal [26]. In particular, assuming the states are equally probable, one has (see e.g., [49])

$$
p_L (\mathcal{B}) = \frac{1}{2}.
$$

(2)

Now suppose the parties are given a two-qubit ancillary state

$$
|\tau_\varepsilon\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{1+\varepsilon}{2}} |00\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{1-\varepsilon}{2}} |11\rangle
$$

(3)

for some $\varepsilon \in [0,1]$, where $|\tau_\varepsilon\rangle$ is entangled for $0 \leq \varepsilon < 1$. Once again assuming the Bell states are equiprobable, the local success probability for discriminating the set of states

$$
\mathcal{B} \otimes \tau_\varepsilon = \{|\Psi_i\rangle \otimes |\tau_\varepsilon\rangle : i = 1, \ldots, 4\}
$$

is given by [50]

$$
p_L (\mathcal{B} \otimes \tau_\varepsilon) = \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \sqrt{1-\varepsilon^2} \right)
$$

(4)

for all $\varepsilon \in [0,1]$. This value is achievable by a teleportation protocol. Observe that the presence of $|\tau_\varepsilon\rangle$ enhances the local success probability; in particular, the more entangled $|\tau_\varepsilon\rangle$ is, the higher is the local success probability. But perfect discrimination is possible if and only if $\varepsilon = 0$, i.e., when $|\tau_\varepsilon\rangle$ is maximally entangled.

**Optimal resource states and entanglement cost**

Suppose the states of a given bipartite or multipartite ensemble $\mathcal{E} = \{(p_i, \rho_i) : i = 1, \ldots, N\}$ cannot be optimally discriminated by LOCC. Let $\tau = |\tau\rangle\langle\tau|$ be a bipartite or multipartite ancilla

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2 One can assume the given form of $|\tau_\varepsilon\rangle$ because of the Schmidt decomposition.

3 The teleportation protocol is the following: Alice teleports her part of the unknown two-qubit state to Bob using $|\tau_\varepsilon\rangle$. After teleportation, Bob performs a two-qubit measurement to discriminate the states. If $|\tau_\varepsilon\rangle$ is maximally entangled, this protocol is guaranteed to achieve the global optimum for any set of states.
state such that

\[ p_L (E \otimes \tau) > p_L (E), \]

(5)

where \( E \otimes \tau = \{(p_i, \rho_i \otimes \tau) : i = 1, \ldots, N\} \). We then say that \(|\tau\rangle\) is a resource for discriminating the states of \( E \).

Ultimately, however, the goal is to find a \(|\tau\rangle\) that enables optimal discrimination of \( E \) by LOCC and is also minimal in entanglement. The latter condition is imposed because entanglement is generally regarded as an expensive resource, and therefore, we would like to consume as little entanglement as possible. Satisfying the first condition is easy because one can always use maximally entangled pair(s) and employ the teleportation protocol. For example, any set from \( \mathbb{C}^d \otimes \mathbb{C}^d \) (see \cite{54, 55} for discussions regarding multipartite systems) can be optimally discriminated using LOCC and a \( \mathbb{C}^d \otimes \mathbb{C}^d \) maximally entangled state as a resource. But finding a \(|\tau\rangle\) that not only discriminates the states optimally but is also minimal in entanglement is hard. That is because the teleportation protocol using maximally entangled state(s) may not be the most efficient strategy all the time, as one might do just as well with a clever protocol that consumes less entanglement.

For a given ensemble \( E \), we say that \(|\tau\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_\tau\) is an optimal resource if it enables optimal discrimination of the states of \( E \) by LOCC, i.e., \( p_L (E \otimes \tau) = p (E) \), and is minimal in both entanglement and dimension \cite{55}, i.e., for any other \(|\tau'\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_{\tau'}\) satisfying \( p_L (E \otimes \tau') = p (E) \), it holds that \( E (\tau) \leq E (\tau') \), where \( E \) is the entanglement entropy \cite{2}, and \( \dim (\mathcal{H}_\tau) \leq \dim (\mathcal{H}_{\tau'}) \). The entanglement of an optimal resource is said to be the entanglement cost of discriminating the states under consideration. For example, a maximally entangled state is optimal for discriminating a maximally entangled basis on \( \mathbb{C}^d \otimes \mathbb{C}^d \) by LOCC\footnote{This follows from an argument that perfect discrimination of such a basis would lead to distillation of a \( \mathbb{C}^d \otimes \mathbb{C}^d \) maximally entangled state across a bipartition where there was no entanglement to begin with \cite{26, 29}.}, so the entanglement cost here is \( \log_2 d \) ebits. However, a maximally entangled state is not always an optimal resource: a two-qubit ensemble consisting of eight pure entangled states can be optimally discriminated by LOCC using a nonmaximally entangled state \cite{51}.

**Motivation**

In entanglement-assisted local state discrimination, we are mainly interested in finding the entanglement cost of discriminating the states (or simply, entanglement cost) of some given ensemble. So which factors determine the entanglement cost for a given ensemble? For a bipartite orthonormal basis, the average entanglement of the basis vectors provides a lower bound \cite{51, 52}. This lower bound can be improved upon for almost all two-qubit entangled bases and was shown to
be strictly greater than the average entanglement of the basis vectors [52]; however, finding the exact values remains an open problem.

The exact entanglement cost, however, is known for a few ensembles. The entanglement cost is 1 ebit for the Bell basis [26], a set of three Bell states [50], and a set containing a Bell state plus its orthogonal complement [57], but is less than an ebit for a set of nonorthogonal pure states and is given by their average entanglement [51]. In higher dimensions, to the best of our knowledge, exact results are known for a maximally entangled basis and a set containing a maximally entangled state and its orthogonal complement [57].

Generally speaking, for an arbitrary ensemble $\mathcal{E}$, finding the entanglement cost of LOCC discrimination, which is equivalent to the problem of finding an optimal resource state, seems quite hard, even if the states are from $\mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2$, the smallest composite state space. Alternatively, one might ask: For which bipartite ensembles is a maximally entangled state necessary for optimal discrimination by LOCC? Now the ensembles from $\mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2$ that are known to require a Bell state have a common feature: Each contains at least one of the four Bell states. This, therefore, raises a very basic question: Suppose that we are given a set of two-qubit states that does not contain a maximally entangled state and that cannot be optimally discriminated by LOCC. Do we still require a Bell state for optimal discrimination by LOCC? The present paper answers this question in the affirmative and also shows that a Bell state is required for optimal discrimination of some sets that do not even contain an entangled state.

**Problem statement and overview of results**

Specifically, we study the problem of discriminating a set of “noisy” Bell states by LOCC assuming a uniform probability distribution; that is, each state has an equal chance of being distributed to Alice and Bob. A noisy Bell state, in general, results from actions of quantum channels on one or both qubits of the Bell state in question. In fact, the task of LOCC discrimination of four Bell states in a realistic scenario boils down to LOCC discrimination of four noisy Bell states. That is because the unknown Bell state must be distributed to Alice and Bob through quantum channels that are noisy in practice.

In this paper we shall assume that a noisy Bell state results from mixing a Bell state with a two-qubit state with probabilities $\lambda$ and $(1 - \lambda)$, where $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$, or as a consequence of the action of a quantum channel that leaves a Bell state unchanged with probability $\lambda$ but converts it into a two-qubit state with probability $(1 - \lambda)$.

Let $D(\mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2)$ be the set of all two-qubit density matrices. Let $\Psi_i = |\Psi_i\rangle \langle \Psi_i|$ denote the density operator corresponding to the Bell state $|\Psi_i\rangle$ given by (1), and let $\varsigma$ be the density operator corresponding to a two-qubit state that could be either pure or mixed.
Consider a uniform collection of noisy Bell states

$$\mathcal{B}_{\lambda,\varsigma} = \{ \varrho_i : i = 1, \ldots, 4 \} \subset D (\mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2),$$

where

$$\varrho_i = \lambda \Psi_i + (1 - \lambda) \varsigma$$

for $\lambda \in [0, 1]$. The set $\mathcal{B}_{\lambda,\varsigma}$ is therefore completely determined by both $\lambda$ and $\varsigma$. Of course, the situation where $\lambda = 0$ is not interesting.

Observe that for a fixed $j \in \{1, \ldots, 4\}$ one has

$$\max_{i \in \{1, \ldots, 4\}} \langle \Psi_j | \varrho_i | \Psi_j \rangle = \langle \Psi_j | \varrho_j | \Psi_j \rangle.$$

Equation (8) means the following: Suppose a Bell measurement is performed on a two-qubit system that has been prepared with equal probability in one of $\{\varrho_i\}$. Then, given an outcome $j$, where $j \in \{1, \ldots, 4\}$, the system was most likely prepared in the state $\varrho_j$. Note that, in general,

$$\max_{j \in \{1, \ldots, 4\}} \langle \Psi_j | \varrho_i | \Psi_j \rangle \neq \langle \Psi_i | \varrho_i | \Psi_i \rangle.$$

The distinction between (8) and (9) is important.

How well the states $\varrho_i$ can be discriminated is quantified by the global optimum $p (\mathcal{B}_{\lambda,\varsigma})$. As the states are nonorthogonal except for $\lambda = 1$, it holds that $p (\mathcal{B}_{\lambda,\varsigma}) \leq 1$ where equality holds if and only if $\lambda = 1$, i.e., for the Bell basis. Our first result is a lower bound on $p (\mathcal{B}_{\lambda,\varsigma})$: For $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ and any two-qubit state $\varsigma$, it holds that

$$p (\mathcal{B}_{\lambda,\varsigma}) \geq \frac{1}{4} (1 + 3\lambda).$$

Later we will find that the lower bound is, in fact, the exact formula.

Next, we compute the local optimum. The local success probability of discriminating the states of $\mathcal{B}_{\lambda,\varsigma}$ is:

$$p_L (\mathcal{B}_{\lambda,\varsigma}) = \frac{1}{4} (1 + \lambda)$$

for $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ and any two-qubit state $\varsigma$. Now observe that

$$p_L (\mathcal{B}_{\lambda,\varsigma}) < \frac{1}{4} (1 + 3\lambda) \leq p (\mathcal{B}_{\lambda,\varsigma}) \quad \forall \lambda \in (0, 1],$$

for $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ and any two-qubit state $\varsigma$. Now observe that

$$p_L (\mathcal{B}_{\lambda,\varsigma}) < \frac{1}{4} (1 + 3\lambda) \leq p (\mathcal{B}_{\lambda,\varsigma}) \quad \forall \lambda \in (0, 1],$$
which, in turn, proves that the states of $B_{\lambda, \varsigma}$ cannot be optimally discriminated by LOCC for any $\lambda \in (0, 1]$ and any two-qubit $\varsigma$.

So the next thing is to find the entanglement cost of discriminating the states of $B_{\lambda, \varsigma}$ using LOCC. We assume that $|\tau_\varepsilon \rangle$ [given by (3)] is used as a resource.

First, we obtain the success probability of discriminating the states of $B_{\lambda, \varsigma}$ using LOCC and $|\tau_\varepsilon \rangle$. The local success probability of distinguishing the state $s$ of $B_{\lambda, \varsigma} \otimes |\tau_\varepsilon \rangle$ is given by:

$$p_L(B_{\lambda, \varsigma} \otimes |\tau_\varepsilon \rangle) = \frac{1}{4} \left(1 + \lambda + 2\lambda\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2}\right)$$

for $\varepsilon \in [0, 1]$, $\lambda \in [0, 1]$, and any two-qubit state $\varsigma$. Equation (12) can also be written as

$$p_L(B_{\lambda, \varsigma} \otimes |\tau_\varepsilon \rangle) = p_L(B_{\lambda, \varsigma}) + \frac{1}{2} \lambda\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2}.$$ 

Observe the contribution of the resource in the above equation, which is given by the the second term on the right hand side for all $\varepsilon \in [0, 1)$. In particular, the presence of $|\tau_\varepsilon \rangle$ for any $\varepsilon \in [0, 1)$ enhances the ability to discriminate the states of $B_{\lambda, \varsigma}$ by LOCC.

Equation (12) leads to the formula for the global optimum $p(B_{\lambda, \varsigma})$:

$$p(B_{\lambda, \varsigma}) = \frac{1}{4} (1 + 3\lambda)$$

for $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ and any two-qubit state $\varsigma$. So the lower bound from (10) turns out to be exact.

Now, for $\lambda \in (0, 1]$,

$$p_L(B_{\lambda, \varsigma} \otimes |\tau_\varepsilon \rangle) \leq p(B_{\lambda, \varsigma}),$$

where the equality holds if and only if $\varepsilon = 0$. This, therefore, gives us the entanglement cost. In particular, the entanglement cost of discriminating the states of $B_{\lambda, \varsigma}$ by LOCC is 1 ebit for any $\lambda \in (0, 1]$ and two-qubit state $\varsigma$. Thus, a maximally entangled state is required for optimal discrimination of the states of $B_{\lambda, \varsigma}$ by LOCC, although for any given value of $\lambda \in (0, 1)$ the ensemble, in general, does not contain any maximally entangled state. This shows that a maximally entangled state may be required to optimally discriminate a set of states none of which are maximally entangled.

Remark 1. The success probabilities $p_L(B_{\lambda, \varsigma})$, $p_L(B_{\lambda, \varsigma} \otimes |\tau_\varepsilon \rangle)$, and $p(B_{\lambda, \varsigma})$ are all independent of $\varsigma$. This is not something that was expected a priori but seems to be the consequence of the fact
that the Bell states are all mixed with the same $\varsigma$. We should not expect something similar if different two-qubit states are mixed with different Bell states.

The entanglement cost is seen to be independent of the gap between the local and global optima that are given by (11) and (13), respectively. As long as the gap remains finite, no matter how small, the entanglement cost remains 1 ebit, irrespective of the entanglement or other properties of the states.

We illustrate the results with an example in which $\varsigma$ is taken to be the maximally mixed state $\frac{1}{2}1$, where $1$ is the identity operator acting on the two-qubit state space. The general result tells us that the entanglement cost is 1 ebit for $\lambda \in (0, 1]$. In this case, the states are entangled for $\lambda \in \left(\frac{1}{3}, 1\right]$ but separable for $\lambda \in \left(0, \frac{1}{3}\right]$. So if we consider a set $B_{\lambda, \varsigma}$ for some $\lambda \in \left(0, \frac{1}{3}\right]$ and $\varsigma = \frac{1}{2}1$, then such a set contains only separable states. Nevertheless, optimal discrimination by LOCC requires a two-qubit maximally entangled state as a resource.

2 Preliminaries

There is no tractable characterization of the set of LOCC measurements. In fact, even deciding whether a measurement on a composite system describes an LOCC measurement is computationally hard. For these reasons, LOCC state discrimination problems are often investigated by considering the more tractable classes: separable (SEP) measurements [37, 49, 50] and positive partial transpose (PPT) measurements [41, 42, 57, 50]. A separable measurement is one in which the measurement operators are all separable, and a PPT measurement is one in which the measurement operators are all positive under partial transposition. These measurements often yield useful results and insights. One accordingly defines $p_{\text{SEP}}(E)$ as the separable success probability and $p_{\text{PPT}}(E)$ as the PPT success probability. Since

\[
\{\text{LOCC}\} \subset \{\text{SEP}\} \subset \{\text{PPT}\} \subset \{\text{all}\},
\]

it holds that

\[
p_{L}(E) \leq p_{\text{SEP}}(E) \leq p_{\text{PPT}}(E) \leq p(E).
\]

Note that, if $E$ can be optimally discriminated by LOCC, then the above inequalities turn into equalities. On the other hand, if $E$ can be optimally discriminated by a separable measurement but not by LOCC [8, 23], then only the first inequality is strict. It may also be instructive to note that in the case of four Bell states only the last one is strict.

Let $X$ and $Y$ represent finite-dimensional Hilbert spaces associated with quantum systems that belong to Alice and Bob respectively. Let $\text{Pos}(X)$, $\text{Pos}(Y)$, and $\text{Pos}(X \otimes Y)$ denote the
sets of positive semidefinite operators acting on $\mathcal{X}$, $\mathcal{Y}$, and $\mathcal{X} \otimes \mathcal{Y}$, respectively. An operator $P \in \text{Pos}(\mathcal{X} \otimes \mathcal{Y})$ is PPT if $T_{\mathcal{X}}(P) \in \text{Pos}(\mathcal{X} \otimes \mathcal{Y})$, where $T_{\mathcal{X}}$ represents partial transposition taken in the standard basis $\{|0\rangle, \ldots, |d-1\rangle\}$ of $\mathcal{X}$. A PPT measurement is defined by a collection of measurement operators $\{P_1, \ldots, P_N\}$ in which each operator is PPT.

Let us denote the set of all PPT operators acting on $\mathcal{X} \otimes \mathcal{Y}$ by $\text{PPT}(\mathcal{X} : \mathcal{Y})$. The set $\text{PPT}(\mathcal{X} : \mathcal{Y})$ is a closed, convex cone. For a given ensemble $E = \{(p_1, \rho_1), \ldots, (p_N, \rho_N)\} \subset \mathcal{X} \otimes \mathcal{Y}$ the problem of finding $p_{\text{PPT}}(E)$ can be expressed as a semidefinite program [41]:

Primal problem:

$$\text{maximize:} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{N} p_i \text{Tr}(\rho_i P_i)$$

subject to: $\sum_{i=1}^{N} P_i = 1_{\mathcal{X} \otimes \mathcal{Y}}$

$P_k \in \text{PPT}(\mathcal{X} : \mathcal{Y})$ (for each $k = 1, \ldots, N$)

Dual problem:

$$\text{minimize:} \quad \text{Tr}(H)$$

subject to: $H - p_k \rho_k \in \text{PPT}(\mathcal{X} : \mathcal{Y})$ (for each $k = 1, \ldots, N$)

$H \in \text{Herm}(\mathcal{X} \otimes \mathcal{Y})$,

where $\text{Herm}(\mathcal{X} \otimes \mathcal{Y})$ is the set of Hermitian operators acting on $\mathcal{X} \otimes \mathcal{Y}$. By weak duality every feasible solution of the dual problem provides an upper bound on $p_{\text{PPT}}(E)$.

3 LOCC discrimination of $B_{\lambda, \varsigma}$

In this section we prove that the states of a set $B_{\lambda, \varsigma}$ cannot be optimally discriminated by LOCC for $\lambda \in (0, 1]$ and any choice of a two-qubit state $\varsigma$.

Let $\mathcal{X}_1 = \mathbb{C}^2$ and $\mathcal{Y}_1 = \mathbb{C}^2$ denote the Hilbert spaces of Alice and Bob respectively. First, we give a lower bound on $p(B_{\lambda, \varsigma})$.

Lemma 2. $p(B_{\lambda, \varsigma}) \geq \frac{1}{4}(1 + 3\lambda)$ for $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ and any $\varsigma \in D(\mathcal{X}_1 \otimes \mathcal{Y}_1)$.

Proof. For any quantum measurement $\{M_a\}$ on $\mathcal{X}_1 \otimes \mathcal{Y}_1$, it holds that

$$p(B_{\lambda, \varsigma}) \geq \frac{1}{4} \sum_{a} \max_{i \in \{1, \ldots, 4\}} \text{Tr}(g_i M_a).$$
Choosing \( \{M_a\} \) to be the Bell measurement \( \{\Psi_1, \Psi_2, \Psi_3, \Psi_4\} \), we get

\[
p(\mathcal{B}_{\lambda, \varsigma}) \geq \frac{1}{4} \sum_{a=1}^{4} \max_{i \in \{1, \ldots, 4\}} \langle \Psi_a | g_i | \Psi_a \rangle.
\]

(17)

Noting that \( \max_{i \in \{1, \ldots, 4\}} \langle \Psi_a | g_i | \Psi_a \rangle = \langle \Psi_a | g_a | \Psi_a \rangle \), we can write (17) as

\[
p(\mathcal{B}_{\lambda, \varsigma}) \geq \frac{1}{4} \sum_{a=1}^{4} \langle \Psi_a | g_a | \Psi_a \rangle
\]

\[
= \lambda + \left( \frac{1 - \lambda}{4} \right) \sum_{a=1}^{4} \langle \Psi_a | \varsigma | \Psi_a \rangle
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{4} (1 + 3\lambda).
\]

(18)

To arrive at the last line we have used \( \sum_{a=1}^{4} \langle \Psi_a | \varsigma | \Psi_a \rangle = 1 \). Clearly, (18) holds for all \( \lambda \in [0, 1] \) and any \( \varsigma \). \( \square \)

**Lemma 3.** \( p_L (\mathcal{B}_{\lambda, \varsigma}) = \frac{1}{4} (1 + \lambda) \) for \( \lambda \in [0, 1] \) and any \( \varsigma \in D(\mathcal{X}_1 \otimes \mathcal{Y}_1) \).

**Proof.** The proof contains two parts. First, we show that \( p_{\text{PPT}} (\mathcal{B}_{\lambda, \varsigma}) \leq \frac{1}{4} (1 + \lambda) \) and then we will give a local protocol that achieves this bound.

Let \( \lambda \in [0, 1] \). Consider the operator

\[
H_\lambda = \frac{1}{8} \left[ \lambda \mathbf{1}_{\mathcal{X}_1 \otimes \mathcal{Y}_1} + 2 (1 - \lambda) \varsigma \right] \in \text{Herm} (\mathcal{X}_1 \otimes \mathcal{Y}_1),
\]

(19)

where \( \mathbf{1}_{\mathcal{X}_1 \otimes \mathcal{Y}_1} \) is the identity operator acting on \( \mathcal{X}_1 \otimes \mathcal{Y}_1 \). Then

\[
\text{Tr} (H_\lambda) = \frac{1}{4} (1 + \lambda).
\]

(20)

We will now show that \( H_\lambda \) is a feasible solution of the dual of the PPT state discrimination problem. In particular, we will show that

\[
T_{\mathcal{X}_1} \left( H_\lambda - \frac{1}{4} g_i \right) \in \text{Pos} (\mathcal{X}_1 \otimes \mathcal{Y}_1) \ \forall i = 1, \ldots, 4,
\]

(21)

which is a sufficient condition for dual feasibility.
Observe that

\[ H_\lambda - \frac{1}{4} g_i = \frac{1}{8} (\lambda 1_{X_1 \otimes Y_1} - 2\lambda \Psi_i) \]
\[ = \frac{\lambda}{4} \left( \frac{1}{2} 1_{X_1 \otimes Y_1} - \Psi_i \right) \]
\[ = \frac{\lambda}{4} T_{X_1} (\Psi_{5-i}) \quad \text{(for every } i = 1, \ldots, 4) \]

Hence

\[ T_{X_1} \left( H_\lambda - \frac{1}{4} g_i \right) = \frac{\lambda}{4} \Psi_{i-5} \in \text{Pos } (X_1 \otimes Y_1) \]

for every \( i = 1, \ldots, 4 \). So by weak duality we have

\[ p_{\text{PPT}} (B_{\lambda, \varsigma}) \leq \text{Tr } (H_\lambda) = \frac{1}{4} (1 + \lambda) . \quad (22) \]

Consequently,

\[ p_L (B_{\lambda, \varsigma}) \leq p_{\text{PPT}} (B_{\lambda, \varsigma}) \leq \frac{1}{4} (1 + \lambda) . \quad (23) \]

We will now show that the upper bound (23) is also a lower bound on \( p_L (B_{\lambda, \varsigma}) \). Choosing the local measurement in the computational basis \( \{|a\rangle : a \in \{00, 01, 10, 11\} \} \), we get

\[ p_L (B_{\lambda, \varsigma}) \geq \frac{1}{4} \sum_a \max_i \langle a | g_i | a \rangle \]
\[ = \frac{\lambda}{2} + \left( \frac{1 - \lambda}{4} \right) \sum_a \langle a | \varsigma | a \rangle \]
\[ = \frac{1}{4} (1 + \lambda) . \quad (24) \]

From (23) and (24) it follows that

\[ p_L (B_{\lambda, \varsigma}) = \frac{1}{4} (1 + \lambda) \quad (25) \]

for \( \lambda \in [0, 1] \) and any two-qubit state \( \varsigma \).

Lemmas 2 and 3 together imply:

\[ p_L (B_{\lambda, \varsigma}) < \frac{1}{4} (1 + 3\lambda) \leq p (B_{\lambda, \varsigma}) \quad \text{for } \lambda \in (0, 1) , \]

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which proves the following theorem.

**Theorem 4.** The states of a set $B_{\lambda, \varsigma}$, as defined by (6), cannot be optimally discriminated by LOCC for any $\lambda \in (0, 1]$ and any two-qubit state $\varsigma$.

In the next section, we take up the question of finding the entanglement cost: the amount of entanglement one must consume to optimally discriminate the states of a set $B_{\lambda, \varsigma}$, where $\lambda \in (0, 1]$, by LOCC.

### 4 The entanglement cost of discriminating $B_{\lambda, \varsigma}$

Let us now assume that Alice and Bob share an additional resource state $|\tau_\varepsilon\rangle \in X_2 \otimes Y_2$ defined by (3), where $X_2 = \mathbb{C}^2$ and $Y_2 = \mathbb{C}^2$ are the Hilbert spaces associated with the ancilla systems. That means we now consider the task of LOCC discrimination of the states corresponding to the set

$$B_{\lambda, \varsigma} \otimes \tau_\varepsilon = \{ \varrho_i \otimes \tau_\varepsilon : i = 1, \ldots, 4 \} \subset (X_1 \otimes Y_1) \otimes (X_2 \otimes Y_2),$$

where the states are all equally probable, and $\tau_\varepsilon = |\tau_\varepsilon\rangle \langle \tau_\varepsilon| \subset D(X_2 \otimes Y_2)$.

**Theorem 5.** The local success probability of discriminating the states of $B_{\lambda, \varsigma} \otimes \tau_\varepsilon$ is given by

$$p_L(B_{\lambda, \varsigma} \otimes \tau_\varepsilon) \leq \frac{1}{4} \left( 1 + \lambda + 2\lambda \sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2} \right) \quad (27)$$

for $\varepsilon \in [0, 1]$, $\lambda \in [0, 1]$, and any $\varsigma \in D(X_1 \otimes Y_1)$.

**Proof.** Let $\varepsilon \in [0, 1]$, $\lambda \in [0, 1]$, and $\varsigma \in D(X_1 \otimes Y_1)$. First, we will prove that

$$p_{\text{PPT}}(B_{\lambda, \varsigma} \otimes \tau_\varepsilon) \leq \frac{1}{4} \left( 1 + \lambda + 2\lambda \sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2} \right),$$

and then we will give a local protocol that achieves this upper bound.

Define the operator:

$$H_{\lambda, \varepsilon} = \lambda H_\varepsilon + \left( \frac{1 - \lambda}{4} \right) \varsigma \otimes \tau_\varepsilon \in \text{Herm}(X_1 \otimes Y_1 \otimes X_2 \otimes Y_2),$$

where

$$H_\varepsilon = \frac{1}{8} \left[ 1_{X_1 \otimes Y_1} \otimes \tau_\varepsilon + \sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2} 1_{X_1 \otimes Y_1} \otimes T_{X_2}(\Psi_4) \right] \in \text{Herm}(X_1 \otimes Y_1 \otimes X_2 \otimes Y_2).$$
It holds that
\[
\text{Tr} \left( H_{\lambda,\varepsilon} \right) = \frac{1}{4} \left( 1 + \lambda + 2\lambda\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2} \right).
\] (31)

We now show that \( H_{\lambda,\varepsilon} \) is a feasible solution of the dual problem of discriminating the states \( \rho_i \otimes \tau_\varepsilon, i = 1, \ldots, 4 \), by PPT measurements. In particular, we will prove that
\[
(T_{\mathcal{X}_1} \otimes T_{\mathcal{X}_2}) \left( H_{\lambda,\varepsilon} - \frac{1}{4} \rho_i \otimes \tau_\varepsilon \right) \in \text{Pos} \left( \mathcal{X}_1 \otimes \mathcal{Y}_1 \otimes \mathcal{X}_2 \otimes \mathcal{Y}_2 \right) \quad \forall i = 1, \ldots, 4,
\] (32)

which is a sufficient condition for dual feasibility. The proof is, in fact, almost immediate. Observe that
\[
H_{\lambda,\varepsilon} - \frac{1}{4} \rho_i \otimes \tau_\varepsilon = \lambda \left( H_\varepsilon - \frac{1}{4} \Psi_i \otimes \tau_\varepsilon \right) \quad \text{(for every } i = 1, \ldots, 4). \]

Therefore,
\[
(T_{\mathcal{X}_1} \otimes T_{\mathcal{X}_2}) \left( H_{\lambda,\varepsilon} - \frac{1}{4} \rho_i \otimes \tau_\varepsilon \right) = \lambda \left( T_{\mathcal{X}_1} \otimes T_{\mathcal{X}_2} \right) \left( H_\varepsilon - \frac{1}{4} \Psi_i \otimes \tau_\varepsilon \right) \quad \text{(for every } i = 1, \ldots, 4)
\]

which is positive semidefinite [50]. So we have
\[
(T_{\mathcal{X}_1} \otimes T_{\mathcal{X}_2}) \left( H_{\lambda,\varepsilon} - \frac{1}{4} \rho_i \otimes \tau_\varepsilon \right) \in \text{Pos} \left( \mathcal{X}_1 \otimes \mathcal{Y}_1 \otimes \mathcal{X}_2 \otimes \mathcal{Y}_2 \right)
\]

for every \( i = 1, \ldots, 4 \).

By weak duality
\[
p_{\text{PPT}} \left( B_{\lambda,\varepsilon} \otimes \tau_\varepsilon \right) \leq \text{Tr} \left( H_{\lambda,\varepsilon} \right) = \frac{1}{4} \left( 1 + \lambda + 2\lambda\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2} \right).
\] (33)

Since \( p_L \left( B_{\lambda,\varepsilon} \otimes \tau_\varepsilon \right) \leq p_{\text{PPT}} \left( B_{\lambda,\varepsilon} \otimes \tau_\varepsilon \right) \), it holds that
\[
p_L \left( B_{\lambda,\varepsilon} \otimes \tau_\varepsilon \right) \leq \frac{1}{4} \left( 1 + \lambda + 2\lambda\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2} \right). \] (34)

We now give a lower bound on \( p_L \left( B_{\lambda,\varepsilon} \otimes \tau_\varepsilon \right) \). The lower bound is obtained using a strategy based on the teleportation protocol. First, Alice teleports her qubit to Bob using \( \tau_\varepsilon \) as the teleportation channel following the standard protocol: Alice performs the Bell measurement and informs Bob of the outcome, and Bob then applies the relevant unitary operation\(^5\). This results in Bob holding

\(^5\)The convention is as follows: If Alice gets \( \Psi_1 \), Bob does nothing; if Alice gets \( \Psi_2 \), Bob applies \( \sigma_x \), etc.
one of the four two-qubit states from
\[
\begin{align*}
\varrho'_1 &= \lambda \tau_\varepsilon + (1 - \lambda) \varsigma', \\
\varrho'_2 &= \lambda (1 \otimes \sigma_x) \tau_\varepsilon (1 \otimes \sigma_x) + (1 - \lambda) \varsigma', \\
\varrho'_3 &= \lambda (1 \otimes \sigma_x) \tau_\varepsilon (1 \otimes \sigma_x) + (1 - \lambda) \varsigma', \\
\varrho'_4 &= \lambda (1 \otimes \sigma_y) \tau_\varepsilon (1 \otimes \sigma_y) + (1 - \lambda) \varsigma',
\end{align*}
\]
where \(\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z\) are the Pauli matrices and \(\varsigma'\) is the post-teleportation \(\varsigma\). Now once the teleportation part is over, Bob performs a measurement to discriminate the states \(\varrho'_i\). In particular, he performs the Bell measurement \(\{\Psi_1, \Psi_2, \Psi_3, \Psi_4\}\), which leads to
\[
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{F}(\varrho'_l) &= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{a=1}^{4} \max_i \langle \Psi_a | \varrho'_l | \Psi_a \rangle \\
&= \frac{\lambda}{2} \left( 1 + \sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2} \right) + \left( \frac{1 - \lambda}{4} \right) \sum_{a=1}^{4} \langle \Psi_a | \varsigma' | \Psi_a \rangle \\
&= \frac{1}{4} \left( 1 + \lambda + 2\lambda \sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2} \right). \quad (35)
\end{align*}
\]
From (34) and (35) we obtain the desired result. This completes the proof. \(\square\)

Now we see that
\[
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{F}(\varrho'_l) &= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{a=1}^{4} \max_i \langle \Psi_a | \varrho'_l | \Psi_a \rangle \\
&\leq \frac{1}{4} (1 + 3\lambda) \leq \mathcal{F}(\varrho'_l) \quad \text{for} \quad \varepsilon \in (0, 1],
\end{align*}
\]
where the first inequality is an equality for \(\varepsilon = 0\). In other words, the best possible local success probability is obtained only when \(|\tau_\varepsilon\rangle\) is maximally entangled, and that must also be, in this case, the global optimum. So we have
\[
\mathcal{F}(\varrho'_l) = \mathcal{F}(\varrho'_l) = \frac{1}{4} (1 + 3\lambda). \quad (36)
\]
Therefore, the lower bound in Lemma 2 is, in fact, the global optimum.

To summarize, we have proved that for any \(\lambda \in (0, 1]\) and any two-qubit state \(\varsigma\)
\[
\begin{align*}
p_l(\varrho'_l) &< \mathcal{F}(\varrho'_l) \quad \text{for} \quad \varepsilon \in (0, 1] \\
p_l(\varrho'_l) &= \mathcal{F}(\varrho'_l) \quad \text{for} \quad \varepsilon = 0.
\end{align*}
\]
So the states of \(\varrho'_l\) for any \(\lambda \in (0, 1]\) and any two-qubit state \(\varsigma\) can be optimally discriminated by LOCC if and only if the resource state \(|\tau_\varepsilon\rangle\) is maximally entangled, i.e., \(\varepsilon = 0\). Now an optimal
resource state is the one that enables optimal discrimination by LOCC and is also minimal in both entanglement and dimension. Noting that $|\tau_{\epsilon=0}\rangle$ is from $\mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2$, we conclude that it is an optimal resource. Now recall that the entanglement cost of discriminating a set of states by LOCC is given by the entanglement of an optimal resource. We have the following theorem.

**Theorem 6.** The entanglement cost of optimal discrimination of the states of $B_{\lambda,\varsigma}$ by LOCC is 1 ebit for any $\lambda \in (0,1]$ and any two-qubit state $\varsigma$.

**Remark 7.** Note that the entanglement cost in this case is independent of the entanglement of the constituent states and also the choice of the two-qubit state $\varsigma$. In fact, the entanglement cost is 1 ebit as long as the gap between the local and global optima is nonzero. Further, note that a set $B_{\lambda,\varsigma}$ for $\lambda \in (0,1)$, in general, does not contain a maximally entangled state. Such sets are examples of sets that do not contain a maximally entangled state but still require a maximally entangled state for optimal discrimination by LOCC.

**Example 8. Bell states mixed with white noise**

Let us now consider a concrete example in which $\varsigma$ is taken to be the maximally mixed state of two qubits, i.e., $\varsigma = \frac{1}{2}I_{X_1 \otimes Y_1}$. Then we have the following set of noisy Bell states:

$$B_{\lambda,\frac{1}{4}I} = \{\Omega_i : i = 1, \ldots, 4\},$$

where

$$\Omega_i = \lambda \Psi_i + \frac{1-\lambda}{4}I_{X_1 \otimes Y_1}$$

for $\lambda \in (0,1]$. The results obtained earlier apply straightaway. But now the range of $\lambda$ has a clear interpretation in terms of the entanglement of the states: each state $\Omega_i$, where $i = 1, \ldots, 4$ is entangled if and only if $\lambda \in \left(\frac{1}{3}, 1\right]$. So a set $B_{\lambda,\frac{1}{4}I}$ contains entangled states for $\lambda \in \left(\frac{1}{3}, 1\right]$ and separable states for $\lambda \in \left(0, \frac{1}{3}\right]$. But for any such set we now know that the entanglement cost of discrimination by LOCC is 1 ebit. So the entanglement cost, in this case, is independent of the entanglement of the states. Furthermore, one requires a full ebit even when the states are separable.

### 5 Conclusions

A set of bipartite or multipartite quantum states cannot always be optimally discriminated by LOCC. So given a set of states that cannot be optimally discriminated by LOCC, a basic question is: How much entanglement, as a resource, must one consume to perform the task of optimal discrimination by LOCC? For instance, a set of three or four Bell states can be perfectly discriminated by LOCC if and only if a Bell state is used as a resource.
In this paper we considered the problem of LOCC discrimination of a uniform collection \( B_{\lambda,\varsigma} \) of noisy Bell states that are obtained by mixing the Bell states with a two-qubit state \( \varsigma \) with probabilities \( \lambda \) and \( (1 - \lambda) \). First, we showed that the states of \( B_{\lambda,\varsigma} \) cannot be optimally discriminated by LOCC for any \( \lambda \in (0, 1] \) and \( \varsigma \), so optimal discrimination will require an ancillary entangled state. Since, such sets, in general, do not contain a maximally entangled state, it was interesting to find out whether optimal discrimination is possible without using a maximally entangled state. We, however, proved that optimal discrimination by LOCC is possible if and only if a two-qubit maximally entangled state is used as a resource for any \( \lambda \in (0, 1] \) and \( \varsigma \). So the result holds regardless of the entanglement of the states, which could even be separable in some cases. More specifically, the result holds as long as the gap between the local and global optima is nonzero, no matter how small. To prove our results we have utilized the fact that determining the optimal value of discriminating via PPT measurements can be represented as a semidefinite program [41].

There is at least one important application of results of this kind, and that is related to the question of finding the entanglement cost of nonlocal measurements [51, 52]. For example, the entanglement cost of local implementation of a nonlocal completely orthogonal measurement must be at least as much as the entanglement cost of locally discriminating the measurement eigenstates. That is because if we could implement the measurement, we would be able to perfectly distinguish the measurement eigenstates. This idea can be extended to general nonlocal measurements as well. For instance, consider the states in Example 8. It is straightforward to observe that \( \sum_{i=1}^{4} \Omega_i = \mathbf{1}_{X_1 \otimes Y_1} \). Since \( \Omega_i \) are positive operators, it follows that the collection \( \{\Omega_i\} \) represents a noisy Bell measurement. Our result, in particular, can be applied to obtain the entanglement cost of locally implementing such measurements.

An interesting open question is whether a nonmaximally entangled, orthonormal basis of \( \mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2 \) can be perfectly discriminated with LOCC using a nonmaximally entangled state. One may, for instance, consider working with the bases in [51, 52] for which the lower bound was proved to be strictly larger than the entropy bound given by the average entanglement of the states assuming they are equally probable.

Finally, we hope the results presented in this paper, particularly the techniques [41, 42, 50] used to prove the results, will be useful for future research in this area.

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