Symplectic geometry of entanglement

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July 16, 2010

Abstract

We present a description of entanglement in composite quantum systems in terms of symplectic geometry. We provide a symplectic characterization of sets of equally entangled states as orbits of group actions in the space of states. In particular, using Kostant-Sternberg theorem, we show that separable states form a unique Kähler orbit, whereas orbits of entanglement states are characterized by different degrees of degeneracy of the canonical symplectic form on the complex projective space. The degree of degeneracy may be thus used as a new geometric measure of entanglement and we show how to calculate it for various multiparticle systems providing also simple criteria of separability. The presented method is general and can be applied also under different additional symmetry conditions stemming, eg. from the indistinguishability of particles.

1 Introduction

Quantum entanglement - a direct consequence of linearity of quantum mechanics and the superposition principle - is one of the most intriguing phenomena distinguishing quantum and classical description of physical systems. Quantum states which are entangled posses features unknown in the classical world, like the seemingly paradoxical non-local properties exhibited by the famous Einstein-Podolsky-Rosen analysis of completeness of the quantum theory. Recently, with the development of quantum information theory they came to prominence as the main resource for several applications aiming at speeding up and making more secure information transfers (see e.g. \[1\]).
Pure states which are not entangled are called separable and for systems of $N$ distinguishable particles they are, by definition, described by simple tensors in the Hilbert space of the whole system, $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathcal{H}_N$, where $\mathcal{H}_k$ are the single-particle spaces. For indistinguishable particles such a definition lacks sense - indistinguishability enforces symmetrization or antisymmetrization of the state vectors. In effect nearly all states are not simple tensors, in fact the relevant Hilbert spaces of such systems are not longer tensor products, but rather their symmetric or antisymmetric subspaces. In these cases one modifies the original definition of separability and adapts it according to symmetry (see below).

The concept of separability (or equivalently nonentanglement) can be in a natural way extended to mixed states by first identifying pure states with projections on their directions (i.e. rank-one orthogonal projections) and then defining mixed separable states as convex combinations of pure separable ones. Mixed states which are not separable are, consequently, called entangled.

Separability of a state remains unaffected under particular class of transformations allowed by quantum mechanics. Thus, for example, a separable state of distinguishable particles remains separable when we act on it by a unitary operator $U = U_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes U_N$ where $U_k$ are unitaries acting in the single-particle spaces. One can find appropriate classes of unitary operators preserving separability also in the cases of indistinguishable particles. Going one step further one may analyze how actions of separability-preserving unitaries stratifies into their orbits the whole space of states (pure or mixed) of a composite quantum system. To treat all the cases in a unified way we may consider a general situation in which a compact group $K$ acts on some manifold $M$. The manifold in question will then depend on the considered system. For pure states it will be the projectivisation $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{H})$ of the Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$ in the case of distinguishable particles or the projectivisation of an appropriate symmetrization (for bosons) or antisymmetrization (for fermions) of $\mathcal{H}$. In all cases the manifold $M$ is naturally equipped with some additional structure. In our investigations it will be a symplectic structure inherited from the natural one existing on every complex Hilbert space. Orbits of $K$ being submanifolds of $M$ might also, under special circumstances, inherit the symplectic structure or in addition respect the underlying complex structure of $\mathcal{H}$ and become Kählerian. From this point of view we want to consider several problems.

1. How symplectic and non-symplectic orbits of the $K$ action on $\mathbb{P}(V)$ stratify the set of pure states?

2. What is the meaning (for the entanglement properties) of the fact that the orbit through a particular pure state is or is not symplectic?

In the next section we start with relevant definitions of separability and entanglement for distinguishable as well as indistinguishable particles. When giving definitions we concentrate on $N = 2$, i.e. on two-partite systems, but the general reasonings for larger $N$ remains very similar. To make the paper reasonably self-contained we devote a few further sections and the Appendix to a presentation of some tools from the Lie-group representation theory and the symplectic geometry most important in our investigations.
2 Separable and entangled states

Let $\mathcal{H}$ be an $N$-dimensional Hilbert space. By choosing an orthonormal basis in $\mathcal{H}$ we will identify it with $\mathbb{C}^N$ equipped with the standard Hermitian product.

A state is a positive, trace-one linear operator on $\mathcal{H}$, 
\[ \rho : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}, \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{H} \langle x | \rho | x \rangle \geq 0, \quad \text{Tr} \rho = 1. \] (1)

We use the standard Dirac notation: $|x\rangle$ is an element of $\mathcal{H}$, and $\langle x|$ - the element of the dual space $\mathcal{H}^*$ corresponding to $|x\rangle$ via the scalar product $\langle \cdot | \cdot \rangle$ on $\mathcal{H}$. A state is, by definition, pure if it is a rank-one projection, 
\[ \rho = \rho^2, \] (2)
otherwise it is called mixed. A pure state can be thus written in the form $\rho = |x\rangle \langle x|/\langle x|x \rangle := P_x$ for some $x \in \mathcal{H}$, hence it can be identified with a point in the projective space $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{H})$.

2.1 Separable and entangled states of two distinguishable particles

The Hilbert space for a composite system of two distinguishable particles is the tensor product of the Hilbert spaces of the subsystems,
\[ \mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2, \quad \mathcal{H}_1 \simeq \mathbb{C}^N, \quad \mathcal{H}_2 \simeq \mathbb{C}^M. \] (3)

A pure state $\rho$ is called separable or, equivalently, nonentangled if and only if it is a tensor product of pure states of the subsystems,
\[ \rho = P_x \otimes P_y, \quad |x\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_1, \quad |y\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_2, \] (4)
otherwise it is called entangled. A mixed state is, by definition, separable if it is a convex combination of pure separable states $[2]$,
\[ \rho = \sum_i p_i P_{x_i} \otimes P_{y_i}, \quad |x_i\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_1, \quad |y_i\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_2, \quad p_i > 0, \quad \sum_i p_i = 1. \] (5)

From the physical point of view it is often desirable to define how strongly entangled is a particular state $\rho$. Although such a quantification of entanglement is not universal, especially for systems with more then two constituents and can be constructed on the basis of different (measured in an actual experiment) properties of entangled states, it should always ascribe the same amount of entanglement to states differing by local quantum operations, i.e. by a conjugation by direct product of the unitary groups $U(\mathcal{H}_1) \times U(\mathcal{H}_2)$,
\[ \rho \mapsto U_1 \otimes U_2 \rho U_1^* \otimes U_2^*. \] (6)
2.2 Separable and entangled states of two indistinguishable particles

For indistinguishable particles the Hilbert space of a composite, two-partite system is no longer the tensor product of the Hilbert spaces of the subsystems but,

1. the antisymmetric part of the tensor product in the case of fermions,
   \[ \mathcal{H}_F = \bigwedge^2 (\mathcal{H}_1), \quad (7) \]
2. the symmetric part of the tensor product in the case of bosons,
   \[ \mathcal{H}_B = \text{Sym}^2 (\mathcal{H}_1), \quad (8) \]

where \( \mathcal{H}_1 \simeq \mathbb{C}^M \) is the, so called, one-particle Hilbert space, i.e. the Hilbert space of a single particle.

In the fermionic state there is a natural way of defining pure nonentangled states: a state \( \rho \) is nonentangled if and only if it is an orthogonal projection on an antisymmetric part of the tensor product of two vectors from \( \mathcal{H}_1 \). Otherwise \( \rho \) is called entangled. This definition, which can be in an obvious way extended to multipartite systems, is equivalent to the one proposed in [3] and [4].

Interestingly, a completely analogous definition for bosons, identifying nonentangled pure states with orthogonal projections of simple tensors on the symmetric part of the tensor product of two (or more when the number of subsystems exceeds two) copies of \( \mathcal{H}_1 \), leads to some unexpected consequences: there are two geometrically inequivalent types of nonentangled bosonic states. We will return to the problem in Section 10. There exists an alternative solution which is tantamount to defining as nonentangled only those states which are products of two (or more) copies of the same state from \( \mathcal{H}_1 \). Both definitions, supported by physical arguments, were employed in the literature of the subject. In [5] (see also [6]) a concept of ‘complete system of properties’ of a subsystem was used to introduce a definition of nonentanglement of the first of the above described kinds, whereas in [7] it was pointed that the second kind of definition assures that nonentangled states can not be used to perform such clearly ‘non-classical’ task like e.g. teleportation, which definitely remains in accordance with the basic intuition connecting no-entanglement with the classical world. The second definition of nonentangled bosonic states was also proposed in [4], based on slightly different arguments.

Mixed nonentangled states for fermions and bosons are defined, as in the case of distinguishable particles, as convex combinations of pure nonentangled states.

As in the case of distinguishable particles the physically interesting amount of entanglement is invariant under the action of \( U(\mathcal{H}_1) \) acting in the one-particle space \( \mathcal{H}_1 \).
3 Pure nonentangled states as coherent states

In all three cases of distinguishable particles, fermions, and bosons, the pure nonentangled states, treated as points in appropriate projective spaces, form a set invariant under the action of an appropriate compact, semisimple group $K$ irreducibly represented on some Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$ \cite{8,9,10}. This observation is in accordance with an intuition that entanglement properties of a state should not change under ‘local’ transformations allowed by quantum mechanics and symmetries of a system. Thus for example, for two distinguishable particles in two distant laboratories, local transformations can consist of independent quantum evolutions of each particle. This paradigm does not apply to indistinguishable particles when, in order to keep the exchange symmetry untouched, both particles must undergo the same evolution. Thus,

1. For distinguishable particles,
   \[ K = SU(N) \times SU(M), \quad \mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}^N \otimes \mathbb{C}^M. \]  

2. For fermions,
   \[ K = SU(N), \quad \mathcal{H} = \bigwedge^2 (\mathbb{C}^N), \]  

3. For bosons,
   \[ K = SU(N), \quad \mathcal{H} = \text{Sym}^2 (\mathbb{C}^N). \]  

In all cases the nonentangled pure states are distinguished as forming some unique orbit of the underlying group action \cite{11,12}. The orbit in question appears in the literature in several contexts and customary its points are called coherent states, or the coherent states ‘closest to classical states’ \cite{13}. A precise characteristic of the orbit, as well as its distinguished features from the view of entanglement theory will be discussed below.

4 A short review of the representation theory

Let us remind some fundamentals of the representation theory for semisimple Lie groups and algebras useful in next sections \cite{14}.

In the following we denote by $K$ a simply connected compact Lie group and by $\mathfrak{k}$ its Lie algebra. It is standard fact that representations of $K$ are in one to one correspondence with representations of $\mathfrak{k}$. They both posses complete reducibility property, i.e., decompose as direct sums of irreducible ones, and can be made unitary by an appropriate choice of the scalar product in the carrier space. Let $\mathfrak{k}^\mathbb{C}$ be the complexification of $\mathfrak{k}$. It is also well known that irreducible representations of $\mathfrak{k}$ and $\mathfrak{k}^\mathbb{C}$ are in one to one correspondence and that $\mathfrak{k}^\mathbb{C}$ is a semisimple complex Lie algebra.

Example 1 Consider $K = SU(n)$ which is simply connected and compact. Then $\mathfrak{k} = \mathfrak{su}(n)$ and $\mathfrak{k}^\mathbb{C} = \mathfrak{sl}(n, \mathbb{C})$. 

5
4.1 Adjoint representation of $\mathfrak{t}^\mathbb{C}$

The adjoint representation of $\mathfrak{t}^\mathbb{C}$ is defined as

$$\text{ad} : \mathfrak{t}^\mathbb{C} \to \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{t}^\mathbb{C}),$$

$$\text{ad}_X(Y) = [X, Y].$$

(12)

(13)

This representation plays a key role in understanding all other representations of $\mathfrak{t}^\mathbb{C}$. Let us fix a maximal commutative subalgebra $\mathfrak{t}$ of $\mathfrak{t}$ then $\mathfrak{h} = \mathfrak{t} + i\mathfrak{t}$ is a Cartan subalgebra of $\mathfrak{t}^\mathbb{C}$. Since $\mathfrak{h}$ is the maximal commutative subalgebra of $\mathfrak{t}^\mathbb{C}$ with the property that for every $H \in \mathfrak{h}$ the operator $\text{ad}_H$ is diagonalizable (this is a consequence of the assumed semisimplicity of $\mathfrak{K}$), we can decompose $\mathfrak{t}^\mathbb{C}$ as a direct sum of root spaces with respect to $\mathfrak{h}$,

$$\mathfrak{t}^\mathbb{C} = \mathfrak{h} \oplus \bigoplus_\alpha \mathfrak{g}_\alpha,$$

(14)

where $\alpha : \mathfrak{h} \to \mathbb{C}$ range over linear functionals (called roots) for which there exist $X \in \mathfrak{t}^\mathbb{C}$ such that

$$\text{ad}_H(X) = \alpha(H)X \quad \forall H \in \mathfrak{h}$$

(15)

Space $\mathfrak{g}_\alpha$ consists of the elements $X$ with the above property. It is a standard fact that if $\alpha$ is a root then $-\alpha$ is also a root and that $[\mathfrak{g}_\alpha, \mathfrak{g}_\beta] = 0$ or $[\mathfrak{g}_\alpha, \mathfrak{g}_\beta] = \mathfrak{g}_{\alpha + \beta}$. Moreover all $\mathfrak{g}_\alpha$ are one dimensional. We may introduce the notion of a positive root by first choosing an arbitrary basis consisting of roots in the space spanned by them, and then defining positive roots as those with only positive coefficients in the decomposition in the chosen basis. The weight space decomposition of $\mathfrak{t}^\mathbb{C}$ can be then written as

$$\mathfrak{t}^\mathbb{C} = \mathfrak{n}_- \oplus \mathfrak{h} \oplus \mathfrak{n}_+$$

(16)

where the direct sums of the negative and positive root spaces, $\mathfrak{n}_-$ and $\mathfrak{n}_+$ are nilpotent Lie algebras. In the defining representation of $\mathfrak{sl}(n, \mathbb{C})$ as $N \times N$ complex traceless matrices, the most natural choice of positive roots is that which leads to $\mathfrak{n}_-$ and $\mathfrak{n}_+$ as, respectively, lower and upper triangular matrices.

It is a key fact that we can choose bases $E_\alpha$ of the root spaces $\mathfrak{g}_\alpha$ and define $H_\alpha = [E_\alpha, E_\alpha]$ so that $\{E_\alpha, H_\alpha, E_\alpha\}$ is the standard basis for $\mathfrak{sl}_2(\mathbb{C})$. We will denote it by $\mathfrak{sl}_2(\alpha)$ and by $\mathfrak{su}_2(\alpha)$ the corresponding $\mathfrak{su}_2$-triple $\{E_\alpha - E_\alpha, iH_\alpha, i(E_\alpha + E_\alpha)\}$.

4.2 General case

It is enough to restrict our attention to irreducible representations as $\mathfrak{K}$ is a compact and simply connected Lie group. Given any representation of $\mathfrak{h}$ on complex vector space $V$ one decomposes $V$ as a direct sum:

$$V = \oplus V_\lambda$$

(17)
where isotypical components $V_\lambda$ are weight spaces. In other words:

$$\xi.v = \lambda(\xi)v \quad \forall \xi \in \mathfrak{h} \text{ and } v \in V_\lambda,$$

where the linear functionals $\lambda$ are called weights and vectors $v$ - the corresponding weight vectors. Every irreducible representation of $\mathfrak{g}$ is the so called highest weight cyclic representation. The most important facts we will use in next sections are:

- $E_\alpha.V_\lambda \subset V_{\lambda+\alpha}$
- $[E_\alpha, E_\beta].V_\lambda \subset V_{\lambda+\alpha+\beta}$

where $E_\alpha \in \mathfrak{g}_\alpha$ and $E_\beta \in \mathfrak{g}_\beta$.

## 5 Symplectic orbits of group actions

In the following we will need a couple of facts about actions of Lie groups on symplectic manifolds (see e.g. [12]).

Let us denote by $(M, \omega)$ a symplectic manifold, i.e. $M$ is a manifold and $\omega$ is a non-degenerate, closed ($d\omega = 0$) two-form.

Let a compact semisimple group $K$ act on $M$ via symplectomorhisms, $K \times M \ni (g, x) \mapsto \Phi_g(x) \in M$, $\Phi_g^*\omega = \omega$. We denote by $\mathfrak{k}^*$ the space dual to $\mathfrak{k}$ = Lie$(K)$.

Let $\xi \in \mathfrak{k}$. We define a vector field $\hat{\xi}$

$$\hat{\xi}(x) = \frac{d}{dt}\bigg|_{t=0} \Phi_{\exp t\xi}(x).$$

Since the action of the group is Hamiltonian (which is true for a semisimple $K$), for each $\xi \in \mathfrak{k}$ there exists a Hamilton function $\mu_\xi : M \to \mathbb{R}$ for $\hat{\xi}$, i.e.

$$d\mu_\xi = \iota_{\hat{\xi}}\omega := \omega(\xi, \cdot).$$

The function can be chosen to be linear in $\xi$, i.e.

$$\mu_\xi(x) = \langle \mu(x), \xi \rangle, \quad \mu(x) \in \mathfrak{k}^*,$$

where $\langle , \rangle$ is the pairing between $\mathfrak{k}$ and its dual $\mathfrak{k}^*$. The map $\mu_\xi$ defines thus by [21] a map $\mu : M \to \mathfrak{k}^*$. We can chose $\mu$ to be equivariant with respect to the coadjoint action of $K$ [15], i.e.

$$\mu(\Phi_g(x)) = \text{Ad}_g^*\mu(x),$$

where the coadjoint action $\text{Ad}_g^*$ on $\mathfrak{k}^*$ is defined via

$$\langle \text{Ad}_g^*\alpha, h \rangle = \langle \alpha, \text{Ad}_{g^{-1}}h \rangle = \langle \alpha, g^{-1}hg \rangle, \quad g \in K, \quad h \in \mathfrak{k}, \quad \alpha \in \mathfrak{k}^*,$$
and Ad is the adjoint representation of $K$,
\[
\text{Ad} : K \to \text{Gl}(\mathfrak{k})
\]
\[
\text{Ad}(g)X = gXg^{-1} := \left. \frac{d}{dt} \right|_{t=0} g \exp tX g^{-1}.
\] (24)

The above constructed $\mu$ is called the momentum map.

The goal is now to describe the criterion for $K$-orbit to be symplectic. Let $N = K.x$ be the orbit through a point $x \in M$. Denote by $\omega_N$ the restriction of the symplectic form $\omega$ to $N$. This form may, and in fact usually does, have a certain degree of degeneracy. Denote by $D_x$ the subspace of tangent vectors which are $\omega_N$-orthogonal to the full space $T_xN$. Since the $K$ action is symplectic we have $\Phi_{g^*}(D_x) = D_{\Phi_g(x)}$ which means that degree of degeneracy is constant on the orbit $N$. This fact will turn out to be very important in the context of entanglement measure. Now because of (22) $\mu(N) = O$ is a coadjoint orbit in $\mathfrak{k}^*$ and thus is symplectic with respect to the canonical form $\omega_O$ (see Appendix). We also have $(\mu|_N)^*(\omega_O) = \omega_N$ which means that the tangent spaces of the fibers of $\mu|_N$ are exactly the degeneracy spaces $N_x$. Indeed, if $u \in D_x$ then for an arbitrary $v \in T_xN$
\[
0 = \omega_N(u, v) = \omega_O((\mu|_N)_*u, (\mu|_N)_*v).
\] (25)

But $\omega_O$ is nondegenerate and $T_{\mu(x)}O = (\mu|_N)_*T_xN$. Thus $(\mu|_N)_*u = 0$ whenever $u \in D_x$.

As a conclusion we get

**Theorem 1** A $K$-orbit $K.x$ in $M$ is symplectic if and only if the restriction of the moment map $\mu|_N$ is a diffeomorphism onto a coadjoint orbit $O$.

Suppose now that $N$ defined as above is symplectic. This means that $K$-action on $N$ is the same as the coadjoint $K$-action on its $\mu$-image $O$ (because $\mu$ is a diffeomorphism). Since $K$ is compact there exists an Ad-invariant scalar product $(\cdot | \cdot)$ on the carrier space $\mathfrak{k}$
\[
(\text{Ad}(g)X|\text{Ad}(g)Y) = (X|Y), \quad \forall X, Y \in \mathfrak{k}, \quad g \in K.
\] (26)

In particular every operator $\text{Ad}(g)$ is unitary, operators $\text{ad}_X$ are antiHermitian ($\text{ad}_X^* = -\text{ad}_X$), and
\[
(\text{ad}_X Y|Z) = -(Y|\text{ad}_X Z)
\] (27)

We may use the invariant scalar product (26) to identify $\mathfrak{k}$ with $\mathfrak{k}^*$. More specifically we know that for any $\alpha \in \mathfrak{k}^*$ there exist $X \in \mathfrak{k}$ such that $\alpha = (X|\cdot)$. Upon such identification coadjoint orbits are exactly adjoint ones. To see this consider $\alpha \in \mathfrak{k}^*$. We know that
\[
\alpha = (X|\cdot) \equiv \alpha_X,
\] (28)
for some $X \in \mathfrak{k}$. We need to show that $\text{Ad}_g^*\alpha$ (defined by 23) is equal to $\alpha_{\text{Ad}(g)X}$. We have
\[
(\text{Ad}_g^*\alpha_X, Y) = \langle \alpha_X, \text{Ad}(g^{-1})Y \rangle = (X|\text{Ad}(g^{-1})Y) =
\]
\[
= (\text{Ad}(g)X|Y) = \alpha_{\text{Ad}(g)X}, \quad \forall g \in K,
\] (29)
but this exactly what we wanted. Now we have important fact which says that adjoint action of $K$ on $\mathfrak{t}$ (the maximal commutative subalgebra of $\mathfrak{k}$) gives the whole $\mathfrak{k}$. This observation is true for any compact group but in the following we will need only its exemplification given by a familiar example.

**Example 2** Let $K = SU(n)$ with the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{k} = \mathfrak{su}(n)$ of traceless antiHermitian matrices. Maximal commutative subalgebra of $\mathfrak{k}$ consists of traceless diagonal matrices $\mathfrak{t} = \text{diag}(it_1,\ldots,it_n)$ where $t_k \in \mathbb{R}$. It is well known fact that every antiHermitian matrix has a purely imaginary spectrum and can be diagonalized by a unitary operator. Therefore, taking any $X \in \mathfrak{k}$ we can find $U \in U(n)$ such that

$$UXU^{-1} = \text{diag}(it_1,\ldots,it_n) \quad t_k \in \mathbb{R} \quad \forall k$$

Moreover we can choose $SU(n) \ni U_1 = \det(U)^{-\frac{1}{n}}U$ so that $\det(U_1) = 1$ and

$$X = U_1^{-1}\text{diag}(it_1,\ldots,it_n)U_1 \quad t_k \in \mathbb{R} \quad \forall k$$

Hence indeed, every matrix $X \in \mathfrak{k}$ can be obtained from the $\mathfrak{t}$ by the adjoint action.

As a consequence we obtain that every adjoint orbit contains an element of the maximal commutative subalgebra $\mathfrak{t}$ which is fixed by the adjoint action of the maximal torus $T \subset G$, where torus $T$ is obtained by exponentiating $\mathfrak{t}$ ($T = \{e^t : t \in \mathfrak{t}\}$). Indeed, since $T$ is Abelian it fixes its elements by conjugation, $tt' = t'$, for $t,t' \in T$. By differentiation it translates to fixing the elements of $\mathfrak{t}$ (and, consequently $\mathfrak{t}'$) by the adjoint (coadjoint) action of $T$. Combining this observation with Theorem 1 establishing diffeomorphism of a symplectic orbit with some coadjoint one, we arrive at the following conclusion

**Theorem 2** If an orbit $N$ of $K$ through $x \in M$ is symplectic then the set of points on $N$ fixed by the action of $T$ is nonempty, $\text{Fix}_N(T) \neq 0$.

If the point $x \in M$ is fixed by an element $g \in K$ than by the equivariant property of moment map, its $\mu$-image is also fixed by adjoint action $\text{Ad}(g)$. The degeneracy subspaces $D_x$ originate from nontrivial action of those symplectomorphisms $\Phi_g$ for which the corresponding $\text{Ad}(g)$-action on $\mu(x)$ is trivial. Thus we have following theorem

**Theorem 3** The orbit of $K$ through $x \in M$ is symplectic if and only if the stabilizer subgroup (of the $K$-action) of $x$ is the same as the stabilizer subgroup (of the $\text{Ad}^*$-action) of $\mu(x)$.

It is always true that $\text{Stab}(x) \subset \text{Stab}(\mu(x))$ hence,

**Collorary 1** The dimension of degeneracy subspace $D_x$ for an orbit $N = K.x$ does not depend on $x \in N$ and can be computed as

$$D(x) = \dim(D_x) = \dim(\text{Stab}(x)) - \dim(\text{Stab}(\mu(x))) = \dim(K.x) - \dim(K.\mu(x)).$$

This means we can associate with every orbit of $K$-action an non negative integer $D(x)$ which measures the degree of its non symplecticity.
6 Symplectic orbits in the space of states

In the case of pure states $M = \mathbb{P}(V)$. The canonical symplectic form on $\mathbb{P}(V)$, the moment map and symplectic orbits of a unitary $K$ action can be calculated as follows \[11, 12\]. For $A \in \mathfrak{u}(V)$ let $A_x \in T_x\mathbb{P}(V)$ be the vector tangent at $t = 0$ to the curve $t \mapsto \pi(\exp(tA)v)$, where $x = \pi(v), v \in V, \|v\| = 1$ and $\pi : V \to \mathbb{P}(V)$ is the canonical projection. When $A$ runs through the whole Lie algebra $\mathfrak{u}(V)$ the corresponding $A_x$ span $T_x\mathbb{P}(V)$ and for $A, B \in \mathfrak{u}(V)$ we obtain

$$\omega_x(A_x, B_x) = -\text{Im} \langle Av | Bv \rangle = \frac{i}{2} \langle [A, B]v | v \rangle.$$  \[33\]

The equivariant moment map $\mu : \mathbb{P}(V) \to \mathfrak{u}^*(V)$ for the action of $U(V)$ on $\mathbb{P}(V)$ is given by

$$\mu_A(x) = \frac{1}{2} \langle v | Av \rangle.$$  \[34\]

The group $K$ acts on $V$ via its unitary representation $\varphi : K \to U(V)$. The restriction of $\omega$ to $K.x$ can be calculated as above but now $A$ and $B$ are restricted to elements of $\mathfrak{k}$. From Section 5 we know that the necessary condition for orbit to be symplectic is possessing a point fixed by the maximal torus $T$ of $K$. From the definition of weights and weight vectors \[13\] it easily follows that in the case of $K$-action via a unitary representation on a projective space $\mathbb{P}(V)$ fixed points of the $T$ action are exactly the weight vectors. Hence Theorem 2 can be reformulated as,

**Fact 1** Let $K$ act on $\mathbb{P}(V)$ by unitary representation on a Hilbert space $V$. If $N = K.x$ is a symplectic $K$-orbit then $N$ contains a point $x = \pi(v)$ where $v$ is a $T$-weight vector, i.e. $v \in V_\lambda$ for some weight $\lambda$.

Our goal is to find a sufficient condition for $N = K.x$ to be symplectic. This condition is of course given in Theorem 3 but we want to have it in more useful form. It is enough to restrict our attention to orbits passing through the weight vectors. For $v \in V_\lambda$ we consider the tangent space $T_x(N)$ equipped with the 2-form $\omega_x$. Let $\alpha$ be a positive root and define $O_\alpha$ to be the orbit of $SU_2(\alpha)$ of the associated $SU_2$-triple. Let $P_\alpha$ denote the tangent space to $O_\alpha$ at the point $x$. Tangent space $T_xN$ can be of course considered as the collection of $P_\alpha$ where $\alpha$ range over all positive roots. Let $\mathfrak{t}^\mathbb{C}$ be the complexification of $\mathfrak{t}$ - the Lie algebra of $K$. It has the root-space decomposition

$$\mathfrak{t}^\mathbb{C} = \mathfrak{t}_\alpha^\mathbb{C} \oplus \mathbb{C}E_\alpha,$$  \[35\]

where $E_\alpha$ is a root vector corresponding to the root $\alpha$, hence $[E_\alpha, E_{-\alpha}] = H_\alpha \in \mathfrak{t}^\mathbb{C}$. The corresponding decomposition of $\mathfrak{t}$ reads

$$\mathfrak{t} = \mathfrak{t}_\alpha \oplus \mathbb{R}(E_\alpha - E_{-\alpha}) \oplus \mathbb{R}i(E_\alpha + E_{-\alpha}),$$  \[36\]

where $\alpha$ ranges over all positive roots.
**Fact 2** If $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are different positive roots, then the tangent planes $P_\alpha$ and $P_\beta$ are $\omega$-orthogonal.

*Proof.* The symplectic form $\omega_x$ is given as:

$$\omega_x(A_x, B_x) = \frac{i}{2} \langle [A, B]v | v \rangle. \quad (37)$$

We have assumed that $v \in V_\lambda$. If $[A, B]v$ is in some other weight space, the right hand side of (37) vanishes since two different weight spaces are orthogonal. We know that $P_\alpha = \text{Span}\{(E_\alpha - E_{-\alpha})v, i(E_\alpha + E_{-\alpha})v\}$ and $P_\beta = \text{Span}\{(E_\beta - E_{-\beta})v, i(E_\beta + E_{-\beta})v\}$. We also know that $[E_\alpha, E_\beta]v \in V_{\lambda+\alpha+\beta}$ or is equal zero. But $V_{\lambda+\alpha+\beta}$ is orthogonal to $V_\lambda$. Consequently, if $A_x \in P_\alpha$ and $B_x \in P_\beta$ then

$$\omega_x(A_x, B_x) = \frac{i}{2} \langle [A, B]v | v \rangle = 0, \quad (38)$$

which is what we wanted to prove.

Summing up we know that $T_xN = \bigcup_\alpha P_\alpha$ and that spaces $P_\alpha$ are $\omega$-orthogonal. So $T_xN$ is symplectic vector space if and only if all $P_\alpha$ are symplectic.

**Fact 3** The space $P_\alpha$ is symplectic if and only if $\langle [E_\alpha, E_{-\alpha}]v | v \rangle \neq 0$

*Proof.* Let $A_x \in P_\alpha$ and $B_x \in P_\alpha$. Computing

$$\omega_x(A_x, B_x) = \frac{i}{2} \langle [A, B]v | v \rangle \quad (39)$$

we see that only the term $\langle [E_\alpha, E_{-\alpha}]v | v \rangle$ can give a nonzero result and when it indeed does not vanish then $P_\alpha$ is symplectic which is what we wanted to prove.

So $T_xN$ is symplectic when the following implication is true

$$\langle [E_\alpha, E_{-\alpha}]v | v \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow P_\alpha = 0. \quad (40)$$

The left hand side of (40) can be rewritten as

$$[E_\alpha, E_{-\alpha}]v = H_\alpha v = \lambda(H_\alpha)v, \quad (41)$$

where $\lambda$ is the weight of $v$. For the right hand side of (40) recall that $P_\alpha = \text{Span}\{(E_\alpha - E_{-\alpha})v, i(E_\alpha + E_{-\alpha})v\}$. So $P_\alpha = 0$ means $E_\alpha v = 0 = E_{-\alpha}v$. Hence (11).

**Theorem 4 (Kostant-Sternberg)** The orbit $N = K.x$, $x = \pi(v)$, $v \in V_\lambda$ for some weight $\lambda$, is symplectic if and only if for every positive root $\alpha$ with $\lambda(H_\alpha) = 0$ it follows that $E_\alpha v = 0 = E_{-\alpha}v$.

To demonstrate how this theorem works we will prove that the orbit through the highest weight vector is always symplectic. As it was mentioned in Subsection 4.2 every unitary irreducible representation of compact semisimple group $K$ is highest weight representation. The highest weight vector is defined as follows
Definition 1 Let $K$ be compact semisimple Lie group and denote by $\mathfrak{k}$ its Lie algebra and by $\mathfrak{k}^C$ its complexification. Then $\mathfrak{k}^C$ admits decomposition (33). The weight vector $v \in V_\lambda$ of irreducible representation of $K$ (respectively $\mathfrak{k}$ or $\mathfrak{k}^C$) is highest weight if and only if

$$E_\alpha.v = 0,$$

where $\alpha$ range through all positive roots.

Let us take $v \in V_\lambda$ - the highest weight vector of irreducible representation of $k^C$ and consider corresponding orbit $N = K.x$, where $x = \pi(v)$. It is easy to see that according to Definition 1, $v$ is also the highest weight vector for all $\mathfrak{sl}_2(\alpha)$-triples. From the representation theory we know that weights of irreducible representation of $\mathfrak{sl}_2(\alpha)$ are $W = \{-n, -n+2, \ldots, n-2, n\}$, where $n \geq 0$. This means

$$H_\alpha.v = \lambda(H_\alpha)v = nv$$

So $\lambda(H_\alpha) = n$. The only interesting $\alpha$ is the one for which $n = 0$. But then we have one dimensional, hence trivial, representation of $\mathfrak{sl}_2(\alpha)$. This, of course, means $E_{-\alpha}.v = 0 = E_\alpha.v$. Making use of Theorem 4 we see that $N$ is symplectic. In fact this orbit is not only symplectic but also Kähler (see Appendix for definition of a Kähler manifold). Indeed, from Theorem 5 we know that to prove this, it is enough to check that this orbit is complex manifold since $\mathbb{P}(V)$ is positive Kähler manifold (see Appendix). But if $v$ is the highest weight vector then the tangent space $T_xN = \bigcup_\alpha P_\alpha$, where $\alpha$ range over positive roots and $P_\alpha = \text{Span}\{E_{-\alpha}.v, iE_{-\alpha}.v\}$. So $T_xN$ is stable under multiplication by $i$ hence $N$ is complex.

7 Distinguishable particles

7.1 Two qubits case

In the simplest case of two qubits we may use directly the Kostant-Sternberg theorem from the last section. The Hilbert space is then $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2$ and the direct product $K = SU(2) \times SU(2)$ acts on $\mathcal{H}$ in a natural way,

$$(g_1, g_2)v_1 \otimes v_2 = g_1v_1 \otimes g_2v_2,$$

where $g_1, g_2 \in SU(2)$ and $v_1, v_2 \in \mathbb{C}^2$. Our first goal is to identify symplectic orbits of $K$. To apply theorems and facts established in the previous sections we start with the root-space decomposition of the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{k}^C = \mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C}) \oplus \mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$, i.e., the complexification of $\mathfrak{k} = \mathfrak{su}(2) \oplus \mathfrak{su}(2)$ - the Lie algebra of $G$. The algebra $\mathfrak{k}^C$ is semisimple as a direct sum of simple algebras $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$. Let us remind that,

$$\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C}) = \text{Span}\{X, H, Y\},$$

$$[H, X] = 2X, \quad [H, Y] = -2Y, \quad [X, Y] = H.$$
The Cartan subalgebra of \( \mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C}) \) is spanned by \( H \), whereas \( \text{Span}\{X\} \) and \( \text{Span}\{Y\} \) are the positive and negative root spaces. An element of \( \mathfrak{t} \) can be written as \((Z_1, Z_2)\), where \( Z_1, Z_2 \in \mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C}) \). We also have:

\[
((Z_1, Z_2), (W_1, W_2)) = ([Z_1, W_1], [Z_2, W_2]).
\]  

Knowing this we find that the Cartan subalgebra of \( \mathfrak{k} \) is \( \mathfrak{t} = \text{Span}\{(H, 0), (0, H)\} \). The commutation relations read as,

\[
\begin{align*}
[(H, 0), (X, 0)] &= 2(X, 0), & [(H, 0), (Y, 0)] &= -2(Y, 0), & [(X, 0), (Y, 0)] &= (H, 0), \\
[(0, H), (0, X)] &= 2(0, X), & [(0, H), (0, Y)] &= -2(0, Y), & [(0, X), (0, Y)] &= (0, H), \\
[(0, W), (Z, 0)] &= 0.
\end{align*}
\]  

Since \( \mathfrak{k} \) is semisimple, its root spaces are one dimensional. We have the following roots (computed in the basis \( \{(H, 0), (0, H)\} \) of the Cartan subalgebra \( \mathfrak{t} \)), and the corresponding root spaces,

\[
\begin{align*}
\alpha &= (2, 0), & V_\alpha &= \text{Span}\{(X, 0)\}, \\
-(\alpha) &= (-2, 0), & V_{-(\alpha)} &= \text{Span}\{(Y, 0)\}, \\
\beta &= (0, 2), & V_\beta &= \text{Span}\{(0, X)\}, \\
-(\beta) &= (0, -2), & V_{-(\beta)} &= \text{Span}\{(0, Y)\}.
\end{align*}
\]

Thus we have the following decomposition of \( \mathfrak{t} \),

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathfrak{t} &= \mathfrak{n}_- \oplus \mathfrak{t} \oplus \mathfrak{n}_+, \\
\mathfrak{n}_- &= \text{Span}\{(Y, 0), (0, Y)\}, \\
\mathfrak{n}_+ &= \text{Span}\{(X, 0), (0, X)\}, \\
\mathfrak{t} &= \text{Span}\{(H, 0), (0, H)\},
\end{align*}
\]

where \( \mathfrak{n}_- \) and \( \mathfrak{n}_+ \) are negative and positive root spaces, respectively. Let

\[
e_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad e_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix},
\]

be the standard basis of \( \mathbb{C}^2 \). The Lie algebra \( \mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C}) \) acts then \textit{via} the defining representation,

\[
H = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.
\]

The highest weight vector equals \( e_1 \) and there are just two weight spaces, one spanned by \( e_1 \) and the other by \( e_2 \). The corresponding weights are 1 and \(-1\). The action of \((Z_1, Z_2) \in \mathfrak{t} \) on \( \mathcal{H} \) is given by

\[
(Z_1, Z_2)v_1 \otimes v_2 = Z_1v_1 \otimes v_2 + v_1 \otimes Z_2v_2.
\]

It is easy to guess that the highest weight vector for the above representation equals \( e_1 \otimes e_1 \). Indeed, it is an eigenvector of the Cartan subalgebra and is annihilated by all
elements of $n_+$. The weight spaces are obtained by successive action of $n_-$ on $e_1 \otimes e_1$. In the basis $\{(H, 0), (0, H)\}$ the weights and weight vectors read as,

\[
\begin{align*}
\lambda_1 &= (1, 1), & v_1 &= e_1 \otimes e_1, & (59) \\
\lambda_2 &= (1, -1), & v_2 &= e_1 \otimes e_2, & (60) \\
\lambda_3 &= (-1, 1), & v_3 &= e_2 \otimes e_1, & (61) \\
\lambda_4 &= (-1, -1), & v_4 &= e_2 \otimes e_2. & (62)
\end{align*}
\]

The $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$ triples corresponding to the positive roots of $\mathfrak{t}^\mathbb{C}$ are $\{(X, 0), (H, 0), (Y, 0)\}$ and $\{(0, X), (0, H), (0, Y)\}$. To decide if an orbit through a weight vector is symplectic it is enough to check if $\lambda((0, H)) \neq 0$ and $\lambda((H, 0))) \neq 0$ where $\lambda$ is one of the weights from the list above. Since weights are given by two non-zero numbers $(n_1, n_2)$, we find

**Fact 4** In the case of two qubits, only the orbits through weight vectors are symplectic in the projective space $\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2)$. In fact all weight vectors lie on the same orbit which is Kähler and contains all separable states. Orbits through entangled states are not symplectic.

Let us now consider the states $e_1 \otimes e_2 \pm e_2 \otimes e_1$ which are not weight vectors and are not separable. The orbits through them are not symplectic and we can ask what is the dimension of the degeneracy subspace for them. We need to examine which vectors from the tangent space to the orbit of $SU(2) \times SU(2)$ are tangent to the fibers of the corresponding moment map $\mu$. We already know that,

\[
\mu_A(x) = \frac{1}{2}(v|Av), \quad x = \pi(v).
\]

In our case we have,

\[
\mu_{(Z_1, Z_2)}(x) = \frac{1}{2}\langle e_1 \otimes e_2 \pm e_2 \otimes e_1 | (Z_1, Z_2)(e_1 \otimes e_2 \pm e_2 \otimes e_1) \rangle =
\]

\[
= \text{tr}(Z_1) + \text{tr}(Z_2) = 0, \quad (Z_1, Z_2) \in \mathfrak{t},
\]

where the first equality was obtained by a direct computation and the second one is a consequence of the zero-trace property of the matrices from $\mathfrak{su}(2)$. Thus the degeneracy space is the whole tangent space to the orbit through state $e_1 \otimes e_2 \pm e_2 \otimes e_1$. This space can be directly computed, as it is spanned by the projection of vectors given by

\[
(Z_1, Z_2)(e_1 \otimes e_2 \pm e_2 \otimes e_1) = Z_1 e_1 \otimes e_2 + e_1 \otimes Z_2 e_2 \pm Z_1 e_2 \otimes e_1 \pm e_2 \otimes Z_2 e_1.
\]

Using the Pauli matrices multiplied by the imaginary unit $i$ as a basis for $\mathfrak{su}(2)$ and the formula (57) we obtain that in both cases the tangent space is three dimensional. In the case of the state $e_1 \otimes e_2 \pm e_2 \otimes e_1$, it is spanned by \{\(i(e_1 \otimes e_1 + e_2 \otimes e_2), (e_2 \otimes e_2 - e_1 \otimes e_1), i(e_1 \otimes e_2 - e_2 \otimes e_1)\}\}, whereas for the state $e_1 \otimes e_2 \pm e_2 \otimes e_1$ it is spanned by \{\(i(e_2 \otimes e_2 - e_1 \otimes e_1), (e_1 \otimes e_1 + e_2 \otimes e_2), i(e_1 \otimes e_2 + e_2 \otimes e_1)\)\}. The conclusion is that we can use the dimension of the degeneracy space as a measure of entanglement.

In principle a similar reasoning directly using the Kostant-Sternberg theorem can be applied in cases of larger dimensions of subsystems an/or for many-partite systems.
involving multiple tensor products of spaces with arbitrary dimensions, but explicit
calculations become prohibitively complicated. In the next section we present a method
allowing for finding the degeneracy spaces for bipartite systems of arbitrary dimensions
based on the Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) of a matrix, and in the following one
we show how to extend the reasoning to a multipartite case where the direct application
of SVD is not possible.

8 Degeneracy subspaces and SVD

The method of determining the dimension of the degeneracy space presented in the
previous section can be extended to a more general case of two distinguishable particles,
but in this case one can achieve the goal in a less cumbersome manner by invoking the
Singular Value Decomposition of an arbitrary complex matrix \[16\]. We will present the
solution for two distinguishable but otherwise identical particles (i.e. living in spaces
of the same dimension \(N\)). A generalization to unequal dimensions of the spaces needs
only a little bit more effort.

The Hilbert space is thus now \(\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}^N \otimes \mathbb{C}^N\). Let us fix an orthonormal basis \(\{e_i : i = 1, \ldots, N\}\) of \(\mathbb{C}^N\). (e.g., the standard one where \(e_i\) is a column vector with one on the
\(i\)-th position and zero on others). Any state \(|\Psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}\) can be decomposed as:

\[
|\Psi\rangle = \sum_{i,j=1}^{N} C_{ij} e_i \otimes e_j \tag{66}
\]

The action of \(U \otimes V \in SU(N) \times SU(N)\) gives:

\[
U \otimes V|\Psi\rangle = \sum_{i,j=1}^{N} C_{ij} U e_i \otimes V e_j = \sum_{i,j=1}^{N} C_{ij} U e_i \otimes V e_j = \sum_{k,l=1}^{N} (UCV^T)_{kl} e_k \otimes e_l \tag{67}
\]

It is well known fact that any complex matrix can be put to a diagonal form by the
simultaneous left and right action of the unitary group achieving the SVD, i.e. there
exist unitary \(\tilde{U}, \tilde{V}\) such that

\[
\tilde{U} C \tilde{V} = \text{diag}(0, \ldots, 0, \nu_1, \ldots, \nu_2, \ldots, \nu_K), \tag{68}
\]

where \(\nu_i > 0\) and \(\{0, \ldots, 0, \nu_1^2, \ldots, \nu_2^2, \ldots, \nu_K^2\}\) constitute the spectrum of \(C^\dagger C\) (and,
equivalently, the spectrum of \(CC^\dagger\)). Taking \(U = \tilde{U}\) and \(V = \tilde{V}^T\) in \(67\) we conclude
that the orbit of \(SU(N) \times SU(N)\) through any state \(|\Psi\rangle\) contains a point which can be
written as:

\[
|\Psi'\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{N} p_i e_i \otimes e_i, \tag{69}
\]

with \(p_i \geq 0\) and \(\sum_{i=1}^{N} p_i^2 = 1\).

We denote by \(m_i\) the multiplicity of \(\nu_i\) and by \(m_0\) the dimension of the kernel of \(C\),
hence \(m_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{K} m_i = N\). We can use state \(|\Psi'\rangle\) to compute the dimension of orbit
blocks are diminished by one due to the determinant fixing condition stated above, and

\[ H(\text{where we used } \dim(U) \text{ associated with } \text{projective space}) \]

can compute the dimension of the orbit \( \mathcal{O} \) of \( G = SU(N) \times SU(N) \) through \( |\Psi\rangle \) in the projective space \( \mathbb{P}(H) \) as:

\[
\dim(\mathcal{O}) = (2N^2 - 2) - ((2m_0^2 - 2) + 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{K} m_n^2) = 2N^2 - 2m_0^2 - \sum_{n=1}^{K} m_n^2 - 1,
\]

where we used \( \dim(U(n)) = n^2 = \dim(SU(n)) + 1 \). The dimensions of the two \( U(m_0) \) blocks are diminished by one due to the determinant fixing condition stated above, and an additional one is subtracted due to the projection on \( \mathbb{P}(H) \).

To compute the dimension of the coadjoint orbit in the dual space to \( \mathfrak{t} = \mathfrak{su}(N) \oplus \mathfrak{su}(N) \) associated with \( |\Psi'\rangle \) via the moment map \( \mu \) let us calculate

\[
\mu(A,B)\left( \sum_{i=1}^{N} p_i e_i \otimes e_i \right) = \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N} p_i e_i \otimes e_i \right)(A \otimes I + I \otimes B)\left( \sum_{j=1}^{N} p_j e_j \otimes e_j \right) = \sum_{i,j=1}^{N} \langle p_i e_i \otimes e_i | p_i A e_j \otimes e_j + p_j e_j \otimes B e_j \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{N} p_i^2 \left( \langle e_i | A e_i \rangle + \langle e_i | B e_i \rangle \right),
\]

with \( (A, B) \in \mathfrak{su}(N) \oplus \mathfrak{su}(N) \). It is easy to see (using the standard basis of \( \mathfrak{su}(N) \)) that in fact SVD transfers our state \( |\Psi\rangle \) into a state \( |\Psi'\rangle \) such that \( \mu(|\Psi'\rangle) \in \mathfrak{t}^* \), where \( \mathfrak{t}^* \) is the dual space to the Cartan subalgebra \( \mathfrak{t} \) of \( \mathfrak{k} \). Of course every coadjoint orbit is passing through at least one point from \( \mathfrak{t}^* \) (usually, a coadjoint orbit contains more than one point from \( \mathfrak{t}^* \), all this points lie on the orbit of the Weyl group). This fact could be seen as a geometrical interpretation of the SVD, but in contrast to the SDV itself, it remains true in multipartite cases. We will use it in the following sections. Going back to our considerations we know that \( \mu(|\Psi'\rangle) \) is determined by the action on \( \mathfrak{t} \) which is generated by \( I \otimes H, H \otimes I \) where \( H \) belongs to the Cartan subalgebra of \( \mathfrak{su}(N) \). Using invariant scalar product on \( \mathfrak{t} \) given by \( Tr A B \), we can find an element \( (X, Y) \in \mathfrak{t} \) such that \( \mu(|\Psi'\rangle) = \alpha_{(X,Y)} \). To compute this we use standard basis for \( \mathfrak{t} \) given by \( H_1 = \text{diag}(1, -1, 0, \ldots, 0), \ldots, H_{N-1} = \text{diag}(0, 0, \ldots, 1, -1) \). We have

\[
\mu(H_{k,0})(|\Psi'\rangle) = \text{tr}((X \otimes I + I \otimes Y)H_k \otimes I) = \text{tr}(X H_k), \\
\mu(0,H_k)(|\Psi'\rangle) = \text{tr}((X \otimes I + I \otimes Y)I \otimes H_k) = \text{tr}(Y H_k),
\]

where:

- \( |\Psi\rangle \) is the state we consider.
- \( \mu \) is the moment map.
- \( \mathfrak{su}(N) \) is the Lie algebra of \( SU(N) \).
- \( I \) is the identity operator.
- \( H_k \) are the Cartan generators.
- \( (X, Y) \) are elements of \( \mathfrak{t} \).
- \( \text{tr} \) denotes the trace.
but we also know that
\[
\mu_{(H_k,0)}(\ket{\Psi'}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} p_i^2(e_i|H_k e_i) = p_k^2 - p_{k+1}^2 = \mu_{(0,H_k)}(\ket{\Psi'}). \tag{74}
\]
It is easy to see now that \(X = Y\) and
\[
X = Y = \mathrm{diag}(\frac{-1}{N} + p_1^2, \frac{-1}{N} + p_2^2, \ldots, \frac{-1}{N} + p_N^2). \tag{75}
\]
To compute the dimension of the coadjoint orbit through \(\mu(|\Psi'\rangle)\) notice that if \(U_1 \otimes U_2 \in G\) then
\[
U_1 \otimes U_2(X \otimes I + I \otimes X)U_1^\dagger \otimes U_2^\dagger = U_1XU_1^\dagger \otimes I + I \otimes U_2XU_2^\dagger. \tag{76}
\]
Hence, to obtain the dimension of the coadjoint orbit we need to compute the dimension of the stabilizer subgroup of \(X\) by the adjoint action. It is easy to see that \(X\) is stabilized by any matrix of the form:
\[
U = \begin{pmatrix}
    u_0 \\
u_1 \\
    \vdots \\
u_K
\end{pmatrix}
\tag{77}
\]
where \(u_0, u_1, \ldots, u_K\) are arbitrary unitary operators from \(U(m_0), U(m_1), \ldots, U(m_K)\) and the value of \(\det(u_0)\) is fixed by demanding that \(U\) is special unitary. The dimension of the coadjoint orbit through \(\mu(|\Psi'\rangle)\) is thus
\[
\dim(\mu(\mathcal{O})) = (2N^2 - 2) - (2 \sum_{n=0}^{K} m_n^2 - 2) = 2N^2 - 2 \sum_{n=0}^{K} m_n^2 \tag{78}
\]
Now we are able to compute the dimension \(D(|\Psi\rangle)\) of the degeneracy subspaces (fibers of the moment map),
\[
D(|\Psi\rangle) = \dim(\mathcal{O}) - \dim(\mu(\mathcal{O})) = \sum_{n=1}^{K} m_n^2 - 1, \tag{79}
\]
and we see that the orbit through \(\ket{\Psi}\) is symplectic if and only if in the SVD decomposition we get diagonal matrix with only one non zero entry.

**Fact 5** *In the case of two identical but distinguishable particles there is only one symplectic orbit in the projective space \(\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{C}^N \otimes \mathbb{C}^N)\). This orbit contains all separable states and is Kähler. Orbits through entangled states are not symplectic.*

Knowing this and making use of Corollary 1 we arrive with

**Fact 6** *In the case of two identical but distinguishable particles the dimension of the degeneracy space \(D(|\Psi\rangle) = \sum_{n=1}^{K} m_n^2 - 1\) gives a well defined entanglement measure.*
9 Three particle case

As already mentioned the SVD has no generalization to multiple tensor products corresponding to multiparticle cases. Nevertheless we may apply some methods from the previous section if we look at the SVD from a slightly different point of view. Let us namely ask the question about necessary conditions for a state $|\Psi\rangle$ (66) to be sent by the moment map $\mu$ to an element of $t^*$ represented by $X \otimes I + I \otimes Y \in t$ upon the identification of $t^*$ and $t$ through the invariant scalar product on $k$. We have,

$$\mu_{(A,B)}(|\Psi\rangle) = \sum_{i,j=1}^N C_{ij} e_i \otimes e_j (A \otimes I + I \otimes B) \sum_{m,n=1}^N C_{mn} e_m \otimes e_n =$$

$$= \sum_{m,n=1}^N \sum_{i,j=1}^N \tilde{C}_{ij} C_{mn} (\delta_{nj} \langle e_i| Ae_m \rangle + \delta_{im} \langle e_j| Be_n \rangle) = \sum_{i,j,m=1}^N \tilde{C}_{ij} C_{mj} \langle e_i| Ae_m \rangle +$$

$$+ \sum_{i,j,n=1}^N \tilde{C}_{ij} C_{in} \langle e_j| Be_n \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^N (CC^\dagger)_{ji} \langle e_i| Ae_j \rangle + (C^\dagger C)_{ji} \langle e_j| Be_i \rangle.$$

In the following we will denote by $E_{ij}$ the matrix with zero entries everywhere except 1 on the $(i, j)$ position. Matrices $i(E_{ij} + E_{ji})$ and $E_{ij} - E_{ji}$ supplemented by the previously defined standard basis elements of $t$ constitute a standard basis of $k$. Taking now $A$ and $B$ of the form $i(E_{ij} + E_{ji})$ and $E_{ij} - E_{ji}$ which do not belong to $t$ but are from $k$, we must have

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^N (CC^\dagger)_{ji} (E_{kl} + E_{lk}) e_j = 0,$$

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^N (CC^\dagger)_{ji} (E_{kl} - E_{lk}) e_j = 0,$$

and the same for $C^\dagger C$. Notice that,

$$\langle e_i|(E_{kl} \pm E_{lk}) e_j \rangle = \delta_{ij} \langle e_i|e_k \rangle \pm \delta_{kj} \langle e_i|e_l \rangle = \delta_{ij} \delta_{lk} \pm \delta_{kj} \delta_{il},$$

hence,

$$(CC^\dagger)_{lk} + (CC^\dagger)_{kl} = 0,$$

$$(CC^\dagger)_{lk} - (CC^\dagger)_{kl} = 0,$$

and the same equations are fulfilled by $C^\dagger C$. It means that both $CC^\dagger$ and $C^\dagger C$ are diagonal. From linear algebra we know that the spectra of $(CC^\dagger)$ and $(C^\dagger C)$ are the same. Using this property and an additional freedom of a unitary action which permutes elements on the diagonal we notice that it is always possible to have $CC^\dagger = C^\dagger C$ (i.e.
$C$ is a normal operator) and thus $X = Y$ in $X \otimes I + I \otimes Y$ for corresponding image of moment map. Let thus

$$C^\dagger C = \begin{pmatrix} 0_{m_0} & v_1 I_{m_1} & \cdots & v_K I_{m_k} \\ v_1 I_{m_1} & & & \\ \vdots & & & \\ v_K I_{m_k} & & & \end{pmatrix},$$

where $I_n$ is the unit $n \times n$ matrix. Then,

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sqrt{v_1} u_1 & \cdots & \sqrt{v_K} u_K \\ \sqrt{v_1} u_1 & & & \\ \vdots & & & \\ \sqrt{v_K} u_K & & & \end{pmatrix},$$

(81)

where $m_1, \ldots, m_k$ are dimensions of degeneracy of $v_1, \ldots, v_K$, respectively and $u_n$ are $m_n \times m_n$ unitary matrices. Among all matrices (81) there is one which is diagonal and corresponds to the SVD. In this way we proved the existence of the SVD for any state using the fact that each adjoint orbit intersects the Cartan subalgebra $t$. The second important observation is that all states (81) are sent by the moment map into the same point $X \otimes I + I \otimes X$ and therefore constitute the fiber of the moment map. The dimension is of this fiber is $\sum_{n=1}^K m_n^2 - 1$ which is exactly $D(|\Psi\rangle)$ from the previous section.

To a certain point we may repeat the reasoning in a multipartite case. Thus, e.g. for a general three-particle state

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum_{i,j,k=1}^N C_{ijk} e_i \otimes e_j \otimes e_k,$$

(82)

the action of the moment map on $|\Psi\rangle$ gives:

$$\mu_{(A,B,D)}(|\Psi\rangle) =$$

$$\langle \sum_{i,j,k=1}^N C_{ijk} e_i \otimes e_j \otimes e_k | (A \otimes I \otimes I + I \otimes B \otimes I + I \otimes I \otimes D) \sum_{m,n,l=1}^N C_{mnl} e_m \otimes e_n \otimes e_l \rangle =$$

$$\sum_{m,n,l=1}^N \sum_{i,j,k=1}^N \bar{C}_{ijk} C_{mnl} \langle e_i \otimes e_j \otimes e_k | Ae_m \otimes e_n \otimes e_l + e_m \otimes Be_n \otimes e_l + e_m \otimes e_n \otimes De_l \rangle =$$

$$\sum_{m,n,l=1}^N \sum_{i,j,k=1}^N \bar{C}_{ijk} C_{mnl} (\delta_{jn}\delta_{kl} \langle e_i | Ae_m \rangle + \delta_{im}\delta_{kl} \langle e_j | Be_n \rangle + \delta_{im}\delta_{jn} \langle e_k | De_l \rangle) =$$

$$\sum_{i,j,k,m=1}^N \bar{C}_{ijk} C_{mjk} \langle e_i | Ae_m \rangle + \bar{C}_{ijk} C_{imk} \langle e_j | Be_m \rangle + \bar{C}_{ijk} C_{ijm} \langle e_k | De_m \rangle.$$
Again, we want to find conditions for $C_{ijk}$ under which $\mu_{(A,B,D)}(|\Psi\rangle)$ belongs to $t^*$. Substituting for $A$, $B$, and $D$ basis elements from $t - t$ and again using (80) we get:

$$\sum_{j,k=1}^{N} \bar{C}_{njk}C_{ljk} + \sum_{j,k=1}^{N} \bar{C}_{ljk}C_{njk} = 0,$$

$$\sum_{j,k=1}^{N} \bar{C}_{njk}C_{ljk} - \sum_{j,k=1}^{N} \bar{C}_{ljk}C_{njk} = 0,$$

and similar two pairs of equations for other combination of indices. If we now define

$$(C^1)_{nl} = \sum_{j,k=1}^{N} \bar{C}_{njk}C_{ljk},$$

$$(C^2)_{nl} = \sum_{j,k=1}^{N} \bar{C}_{jnk}C_{jlk},$$

$$(C^3)_{nl} = \sum_{j,k=1}^{N} \bar{C}_{jkn}C_{jkl},$$

the obtained conditions mean that the matrices $C^1, C^2, C^3$ are diagonal. In this case it is not generally true that $C^1 = C^2 = C^3$ so the corresponding state in $t$ is $X \otimes I \otimes I + I \otimes Y \otimes I + I \otimes I \otimes Z$ where $X \neq Y \neq Z$.

Up to now we know that any state $|\tilde{\Psi}\rangle = \sum_{i,j,k=1}^{N} \tilde{C}_{ijk}e_i \otimes e_j \otimes e_k$ can be taken by local unitary transformation $U_1 \otimes U_2 \otimes U_3$ to the state $|\Psi\rangle = \sum_{i,j,k=1}^{N} C_{ijk}e_i \otimes e_j \otimes e_k$ where the coefficients $C_{ijk}$ fulfill (83). This statement has a deeper physical meaning. The diagonal elements of $C^1, C^2, C^3$ constitute probabilities to obtain basis vectors $\{e_i\}$ in some local measurements performed on state $|\Psi\rangle$. The conditions (83) say that any state can be transformed by local unitary transformation to the state which is determined by these local measurements. It is natural to ask now how to find such a unitary local transformation.

Let us consider arbitrary state $|\tilde{\Psi}\rangle$. The action of $U \otimes V \otimes W$ gives:

$$U \otimes V \otimes W|\tilde{\Psi}\rangle = \sum_{i,j,k=1}^{N} \tilde{C}_{ijk}U_{ei} \otimes V_{ej} \otimes W_{ek} = \sum_{i,j,k=1}^{N} \tilde{C}_{ijk}U_{ai}V_{bj}W_{ck}e_a \otimes e_b \otimes e_c. \quad (84)$$

The matrices $\tilde{C}^1, \tilde{C}^2, \tilde{C}^3$ are generally not diagonal but by definition they are positive hence Hermitian. This means there are unitary operators $U, V, W$ such that $U^\dagger \tilde{C}^1 U, V^\dagger \tilde{C}^2 V, W^\dagger \tilde{C}^3 W$ are diagonal. If we take now

$$C_{ijk} = \sum_{n,l,m=1}^{N} \tilde{C}_{nlm}U^T_{in}V^T_{jl}W^T_{km},$$

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then:

\[(C^1)_{nl} = \sum_{j,k=1}^{N} \tilde{C}_{njk} C_{ijk} = \sum_{j,k=1}^{N} \tilde{C}_{\alpha\beta\gamma} U_j^T \alpha V_j \tilde{C}_{\alpha\beta\gamma} W_k^T =\]

\[\sum_{j,k=1}^{N} \tilde{C}_{\alpha\beta\gamma} \tilde{C}_{\alpha\beta\gamma} U_j^T \alpha V_j \tilde{C}_{\alpha\beta\gamma} U_k^T \gamma W_k^T \gamma = U_{na}^T \tilde{C}_{\alpha\beta\gamma} \tilde{C}_{\alpha\beta\gamma} U_{al}\]

which is diagonal as we wanted. Similarly we show that \(C^2\) and \(C^3\) are diagonal as well. Now to compute the dimension of the fiber over \(\mu(|\Psi\rangle)\) we need to find the dimension of submanifold of states which are sent to \(\mu(|\Psi\rangle)\). First we look at the coadjoint orbit through \(\mu(|\Psi\rangle)\). As we know \(\mu(|\Psi\rangle)\) can be represented by an element of \(X \otimes I \otimes I + I \otimes Y \otimes I + I \otimes I \otimes Z \in \mathfrak{t}\). Using similar reasoning as in the case of two particles we obtain:

\[X = \text{diag}(\frac{-1}{N} + p_{11}^2, \frac{-1}{N} + p_{12}^2, \ldots, \frac{-1}{N} + p_{1N}^2),\]

\[Y = \text{diag}(\frac{-1}{N} + p_{21}^2, \frac{-1}{N} + p_{22}^2, \ldots, \frac{-1}{N} + p_{2N}^2),\]

\[Z = \text{diag}(\frac{-1}{N} + p_{31}^2, \frac{-1}{N} + p_{32}^2, \ldots, \frac{-1}{N} + p_{3N}^2),\]

where \(\{p_{11}^2, p_{12}^2, \ldots, p_{1N}^2\}\), \(\{p_{21}^2, p_{22}^2, \ldots, p_{2N}^2\}\) and \(\{p_{31}^2, p_{32}^2, \ldots, p_{3N}^2\}\) constitute the spectra of \(C^1\), \(C^2\) and \(C^3\), respectively. The dimension of this orbit can be easily computed knowing that \(\text{Stab}(\mu(|\Psi\rangle))\) consists of matrices \(U \otimes V \otimes W\) and

\[U = \begin{pmatrix} u_{1,0} & u_{1,1} & \cdots & u_{1,K_1} \\ & u_{1,1} & \cdots & u_{1,K_1} \\ & & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & & u_{1,1} 
\end{pmatrix}, \quad V = \begin{pmatrix} v_{2,0} & v_{2,1} & \cdots & v_{2,1} \\ & v_{2,1} & \cdots & v_{2,1} \\ & & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & & v_{2,1} 
\end{pmatrix}, \quad W = \begin{pmatrix} w_{3,0} & w_{3,1} & \cdots & w_{3,1} \\ & w_{3,1} & \cdots & w_{3,1} \\ & & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & & w_{3,1} 
\end{pmatrix},\]

where \(K_i\) is the number of eigenspaces of \(C^i\) corresponding to different eigenvalues, \(m_{i,n}\) are their dimensions and \(u_{i,n} \in U(m_{i,n})\). Stabilizer of this orbit has dimension:

\[\dim(\text{Stab}(\mu(|\Psi\rangle))) = \sum_{n=0}^{K_1} m_{1,n}^2 + \sum_{n=0}^{K_2} m_{2,n}^2 + \sum_{n=0}^{K_3} m_{3,n}^2 - 3.\]

Hence,

\[\dim(\mathcal{O}) = (3N^2 - 3) - (\sum_{n=0}^{K_1} m_{1,n}^2 + \sum_{n=0}^{K_2} m_{2,n}^2 + \sum_{n=0}^{K_3} m_{3,n}^2 - 3).\]

The dimension of fiber can be computed as:

\[\dim(D(|\Psi\rangle)) = \dim(\text{Stab}(\mu(|\Psi\rangle))) - \dim(\text{Stab}(|\Psi\rangle)).\]
Notice that if $C^1, C^2, C^3$ have nontrivial kernels then in decomposition of $\Psi$ there are no elements $e_i \otimes e_j \otimes e_k$ where $e_i \in \text{Ker}(C^1)$ or $e_j \in \text{Ker}(C^2)$ or $e_j \in \text{Ker}(C^3)$. This means that acting on $|\Psi\rangle$ by unitary operators from $\text{Stab}(\mu(|\Psi\rangle))$ which can be restricted to the kernels of $C^1, C^2, C^3$ we do not change the state $|\Psi\rangle$. We find thus an upper bound for the dimension of the degeneracy space as

$$\sum_{n=1}^{K_1} m_{1,n}^2 + \sum_{n=1}^{K_2} m_{2,n}^2 + \sum_{n=1}^{K_3} m_{3,n}^2 - 3. \quad (90)$$

The dimension of a fiber is at least

$$\max\left\{ \sum_{n=1}^{K_1} m_{1,n}^2, \sum_{n=1}^{K_2} m_{2,n}^2, \sum_{n=1}^{K_3} m_{3,n}^2 \right\} - 1. \quad (91)$$

Indeed, the conditions (83) allow us to write the state $|\Psi\rangle$ as

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum_i p_1 e_i \otimes v_i, \quad (92)$$

where

$$v_i = \sum_{jk} p_{1i} C_{ijk} e_j \otimes e_k, \quad i = 1, \ldots, N \quad (93)$$

constitute a set of orthonormal vectors. We can treat (92) as a bipartite decomposition of $\Psi$ in the orthonormal bases $\{e_i\}$ and $\{v_i\}$. In these bases $\Psi$ is thus represented by the matrix $\tilde{C}$,

$$\tilde{C} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 I_{m_{10}} & \tilde{p}_1 I_{m_{1,1}} & \cdots & \tilde{p}_{K_1} I_{m_{1,K_1}} \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & 0 u_{10} \\ & & & & \tilde{p}_1 u_{11} \\ & & & & \cdots \\ & & & & \tilde{p}_{K_1} u_{1,K_1} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (94)$$

where $\tilde{p}_i$ are different eigenvalues $p_{1i}$. Application of $U \otimes I \otimes I \in \text{Stab}(\mu(|\Psi\rangle))$ yields:

$$\tilde{C}' = \begin{pmatrix} 0 u_{10} & \tilde{p}_1 u_{11} & \cdots & \tilde{p}_{K_1} u_{1,K_1} \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & 0 u_{10} \\ & & & & \tilde{p}_1 u_{11} \\ & & & & \cdots \\ & & & & \tilde{p}_{K_1} u_{1,K_1} \end{pmatrix},$$

Clearly, the matrices $\tilde{C}'$ of the above form constitute a manifold of dimension $\sum_{n=1}^{K_1} m_{1,n}^2 - 1$. In the case of two particles this is the whole fiber because acting with $U \otimes I$ and $I \otimes V$ we get exactly the same manifold. For multipartite systems, like the three particle case we consider, we have to take into account that acting with $I \otimes V \otimes I$ and $I \otimes I \otimes W$ may produce manifolds of larger dimensionalities which leads thus to the estimate (91).

Summing up we have

$$\max\left\{ \sum_{n=1}^{K_1} m_{1,n}^2, \sum_{n=1}^{K_2} m_{2,n}^2, \sum_{n=1}^{K_3} m_{3,n}^2 \right\} - 1 \leq D(|\Psi\rangle) \leq \sum_{n=1}^{K_1} m_{1,n}^2 + \sum_{n=1}^{K_2} m_{2,n}^2 + \sum_{n=1}^{K_3} m_{3,n}^2 - 3. \quad (95)$$
Thus an orbit is symplectic if and only if
\[ \sum_{n=1}^{K_1} m^2_{1,n} = 1, \quad \sum_{n=1}^{K_2} m^2_{2,n} = 1, \quad \sum_{n=1}^{K_3} m^2_{3,n} = 1. \]

But this means that the state |Ψ⟩ is separable because it reduces to one of the states \( e_i \otimes e_j \otimes e_k \). If the state is separable than of course by local operations we can transform it to the state \( e_1 \otimes e_1 \otimes e_1 \) and then (96) is fulfilled. In this way we found an easy way to check if a state is separable and showed that it is equivalent to the fact that associated orbit is symplectic. We also have an estimate for dimension of degeneracy spaces for entangled states. A generalization to cases of more than three particles is straightforward. So we have following

**Theorem 5** In the case of \( M \) identical but distinguishable particles there is only one symplectic orbit in the projective space \( P(\bigotimes_{n=1}^{M} C^N) \). This orbit contains all separable states and is Kähler. Orbits through entangled states are not symplectic.

Knowing this and making use of Corollary 1 we arrive with

**Fact 7** In the case of \( M \) identical but distinguishable particles the dimension of degeneracy space \( D(|Ψ⟩) \) gives well defined entanglement measure. For any state |Ψ⟩ the estimate for this measure is given by formula analogous to (95).

### 10 Indistinguishable particles

The Kostant-Sternberg theorem can be directly applied also to indistinguishable particles, i.e. bosons and fermions. For \( M \) bosons the relevant group is \( K = SU(N) \) represented in \( V = \text{Sym}^M(C^N) \). As above we want to check which orbits of \( K \)-action are symplectic in the projective space \( P(V) \). The best way to understand the problem is to do some nontrivial example and then generalize the obtained result. To this end let us consider the simplest case of \( M = 2 \) and \( N = 3 \), i.e. the representation of \( SU(3) \) in \( \text{Sym}^2(C^3) \). From the Kostant-Sternberg theorem it follows that it is enough to investigate structure of the \( \mathfrak{sl}(3, \mathbb{C}) \) representation on \( \text{Sym}^2(C^3) \). The \( \mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{sl}(3, \mathbb{C}) \) algebra is eight-dimensional and can be decomposed as \( \mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{n}_- \oplus \mathfrak{h} \oplus \mathfrak{n}_+ \), where \( \mathfrak{h} \) is the Cartan subalgebra consisting of traceless diagonal matrixes and \( \mathfrak{n}_+ = \text{Span}(E_{12}, E_{13}, E_{23}) \), \( \mathfrak{n}_- = \text{Span}(E_{21}, E_{31}, E_{32}) \). We define three linear functionals \( L_i : \mathfrak{h} \to \mathbb{C} \),

\[ L_i(\text{diag}(a_1, a_2, a_3)) = a_i, \quad i \in \{1, 2, 3\} \] (96)

Let us choose a basis \( B \) in \( \text{Sym}^2(C^3) \), \( B = \{ e_1 \otimes e_1, e_2 \otimes e_2, e_3 \otimes e_3, e_1 \otimes e_2 + e_2 \otimes e_1, e_1 \otimes e_3 + e_3 \otimes e_1, e_2 \otimes e_3 + e_3 \otimes e_2 \} \) where \( e_i \in \mathbb{C}^3 \) are the standard basis vectors. The action of the Lie algebra \( \mathfrak{g} \) on \( \text{Sym}^2(C^3) \) is a usual action of the tensor product of representations. Construction of the representation of \( \mathfrak{sl}(3, \mathbb{C}) \) on \( \text{Sym}^2(C^3) \) is straightforward, we take
the vector $e_1 \otimes e_1$ which is the highest weight vector (it is an eigenvector of all elements in $\mathfrak{h}$ and it is annihilated by $n_+$ ), and we act on it with operators from $n_+$. As a result we obtain a decomposition of $V = \text{Sym}^2 (\mathbb{C}^3)$ into the direct sum $V = \bigoplus V_\lambda$ where the one-dimensional weight spaces $V_\lambda$ are spanned by the basis vectors of $B$. The weights $\lambda \in \mathfrak{h}^*$ can be now calculated as $^1$

\[ H(e_i \otimes e_i) = 2L_i(H)e_i \otimes e_i \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \]
\[ H(e_i \otimes e_j + e_j \otimes e_i) = (L_i + L_j)(H)(e_i \otimes e_j + e_j \otimes e_i) \quad (97) \]

We know that only orbits passing through weight vectors might be symplectic. We have the following $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$ triples in $\mathfrak{sl}(3, \mathbb{C})$: $(E_{ij}, E_{ji}, H_{ij} = [E_{ij}, E_{ji}])$. The orbit through a weight vector $v$ with a weight $\lambda$ is symplectic if and only if for every operator from $\mathfrak{n}_+$ the following implication is true: $\lambda(H_{ij}) = 0 \Rightarrow E_{ij}(v) = 0 = E_{ji}(v)$. There are two cases to consider,

- Vectors of the form $e_i \otimes e_i$, $i = 1, 2, 3$. The weight of the $e_i \otimes e_i$ state is $2L_i$ so $2L_i(H_{ij}) = 0$ only when $k \neq i$ and $j \neq i$. In this case $E_{ij}(e_i \otimes e_i) = 0$ because to give nonzero result matrix $E_{kj}$ must have one in the $i$-th column. The corresponding orbit is thus symplectic. Obviously, all these vectors lie on the orbit through the highest weight vector $e_1 \otimes e_1$.

- Vectors of the form $e_i \otimes e_j + e_j \otimes e_i$ where $i \neq j$. The weight of this vector is $L_i + L_j$ so $(L_i + L_j)(H_{ij}) = 0$ only if $k = i$ and $j = l$. In this case $E_{ij}(e_i \otimes e_j + e_j \otimes e_i) \neq 0$ because $E_{ij}e_j \neq 0$. In conclusion the orbit through $e_i \otimes e_j + e_j \otimes e_i$ is not symplectic.

Let us now return to the problem mentioned in Section 2.2. If we define nonentangled bosonic states as antisymmetrizations of simple tensors (or, more precisely, as corresponding points in the projective space) then we clearly have two, inequivalent from the geometric point of view, types of nonentanglement. Non-entangled states of two different types are not connected by local unitary transformations which is in contrast to the familiar situation of distinguishable particles and intuitions build upon the fact that all separable states of distinguishable particles can be obtained from a single one by local transformations. Although this is obviously acceptable, it remains an open problem what is a physical meaning of two different types of nonentanglement. If, instead, we adopt the second definition identifying nonentangled bosonic states as points in the projective space corresponding to tensor products of the same vector we encounter the same situation as in the case of distinguishable particles - the nonentangled states form a unique symplectic orbit, and the degeneracy of the symplectic form can be used as a measure of entanglement for entangled states.

The case of fermions does not lead to any ambiguities of the above type. Calculations similar to those made for bosons lead to a conclusion that nonentangled states form the unique symplectic orbit. Indeed, let us consider as an example $K = SU(N)$ and $V = \bigwedge^2 \mathbb{C}^N$ corresponding to two fermions of spin $(N - 1)/2$ with the single-particle

\footnote{Remember that we represent $\mathfrak{e}$ in the symmetric tensor product, hence $H(e_i \otimes e_i)$ has the meaning of $(H \otimes I + I \otimes H)(e_i \otimes e_i) = He_i \otimes e_i + e_i \otimes He_i$, etc.}
space $\mathcal{H}_i = \mathbb{C}^N$. In terms of the previously introduced standard bases $e_i$ and $E_{ij}$ adapted to $N$ dimensions $V$ is spanned by $e_{kl} = e_k \otimes e_l - e_l \otimes e_k$, with $k < l$ the highest weight vector is $e_{12}$ and

$$E_{ij} e_{kl} = \delta_{jl} e_{ki} + \delta_{jk} e_{il}$$  \hspace{1cm} (98)

where we denote $e_{kl} = -e_{lk}$ for $k > l$. Acting by $E_{ij}$ with $i > j$ on $e_{12}$ we obtain remaining weight vectors, which according to (98) are all of the form $e_{kl}$ (in fact with $l = 1$ or 2), with weights $L_i + L_j$ (we extended in an obvious way the definition (96) to $N$ dimensions). As remarked $(L_i + L_j)(H_{kl}) = 0$ implies $k = i$, $j = l$ but then $E_{ij} e_{kl} = 0 = E_{ji} e_{kl}$.

11 Summary and outlook

We presented an geometric description of the set of pure states of composite quantum systems in terms of natural symplectic structure in the space of states. Nonentangled states form a unique symplectic orbit through the highest weight vector of the appropriate representation of the group of local transformations whereas entangled states are characterized by the degeneracy of the symplectic form. The degeneracy can be thus used as a kind of geometric measure of entanglement. We were able to calculate the degeneracy in many relevant cases and give some estimates for the most general system of arbitrary number of constituents with an arbitrary dimension of the single particle space. Let us remark that there exists a useful characterization of the highest weight vector orbits which allows to generalize and estimate effectively some other entanglement measures [19].

An obvious question is whether a method can be adapted to the case of mixed states. This problem, as well as applications of the obtained results to identifying, so called, locally unitary equivalent multiparticle states [20] and finding "canonical" forms of them we postpone to forthcoming publications.

12 Acknowledgments

The support by SFB/TR12 Symmetries and Universality in Mesoscopic Systems program of the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft and Polish MNiSW grant no. DFG-SFB/38/2007 is gratefully acknowledged.
13 Appendix

13.1 Symplectic structure on coadjoint orbits

Let $K$ be a semisimple compact Lie group, $\mathfrak{k}$ its Lie algebra, and $\mathfrak{k}^*$ the dual space to $\mathfrak{k}$. The coadjoint action of $K$ on $\mathfrak{k}^*$ is given by

$$\text{Ad}^*_g : \mathfrak{k}^* \to \mathfrak{k}^*$$

\[ \langle \text{Ad}^*_g \alpha, Y \rangle = \langle \alpha, \text{Ad}_{g^{-1}} Y \rangle, \quad g \in K, \quad Y \in \mathfrak{k}, \quad \alpha \in \mathfrak{k}^*. \]

where $\text{Ad}$ is the adjoint action of $K$. It can be easily checked that (99) is well defined. The coadjoint orbit $O_\alpha$ passing through $\alpha \in \mathfrak{k}^*$ is the orbit of the coadjoint action of $K$

\[ O_\alpha = \{ \text{Ad}^*_g \alpha : g \in K \} \]

Our goal now is to define a $K$-invariant symplectic form $\omega$ on $O_\alpha$. Such a form acts on tangent vectors so it is reasonable to first look at their structure. Since $\mathfrak{k}^*$ is a vector space its tangent space at any point is again $\mathfrak{k}^*$. For any $X \in \mathfrak{k}$ let $\tilde{X} \in T_\alpha O_\alpha$ be a vector tangent to the curve $t \mapsto \text{Ad}^*_{\exp(tX)} \alpha$. We have then,

\[ \langle \tilde{X}, Y \rangle = \left( \frac{d}{dt} \right)_{t=0} \text{Ad}^*_{\exp(tX)} \alpha, Y \right) = \left( \frac{d}{dt} \right)_{t=0} \langle \alpha, \text{Ad}_{\exp(-tX)} Y \rangle = \langle \alpha, [Y, X] \rangle, \]

where $Y \in \mathfrak{k}$. Thus $\tilde{X}$ is an element of $\mathfrak{k}^*$ given by

\[ \tilde{X} = \langle \alpha, [\cdot, X] \rangle. \]

It is now interesting to ask how this tangent vector transform when pushed by an element $g \in K$, i.e. to consider the vector $g \tilde{X} \in T_{\text{Ad}^*_g \alpha} O_\alpha$ tangent to the curve $t \mapsto \text{Ad}^*_g \text{Ad}^*_{\exp(tX)} \alpha$. We have

\[ \langle g \tilde{X}, Y \rangle = \left( \frac{d}{dt} \right)_{t=0} \text{Ad}^*_g \text{Ad}^*_{\exp(tX)} \alpha, Y \right) = \left( \frac{d}{dt} \right)_{t=0} \langle \alpha, \text{Ad}_{\exp(-tX)} \alpha \text{Ad}_{g^{-1}} Y \rangle = \langle \alpha, [\text{Ad}_{g^{-1}} Y, \text{Ad}_{g^{-1}} X] \rangle = \langle \alpha, \text{Ad}_{g^{-1}} [Y, \text{Ad}_{g} X] \rangle = \langle \text{Ad}^*_g \alpha, [Y, \text{Ad}_{g} X] \rangle. \]

Hence $g \tilde{X}$ is an element of $\mathfrak{k}^*$ given by

\[ g \tilde{X} = \langle \text{Ad}^*_g \alpha, [\cdot, \text{Ad}_{g} X] \rangle. \]

We may now define our symplectic form at any $\beta \in O_\alpha$ as

\[ \omega_\beta(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}) = \langle \beta, [X, Y] \rangle. \]

The form is non-degenerate on $O_\alpha$ because

\[ \forall Y \in \mathfrak{k} \quad \langle \beta, [X, Y] \rangle = 0 \iff \forall Y \in \mathfrak{k} \quad \langle \tilde{X}, Y \rangle = 0 \iff \tilde{X} = 0. \]
It is also $K$-invariant because
\[
\omega_{\text{Ad}_g^*\beta}(g\tilde{X}, g\tilde{Y}) = \langle \text{Ad}_g^*\beta, [\text{Ad}_gX, \text{Ad}_gY]\rangle = \langle \beta, \text{Ad}_g^{-1}\text{Ad}_g[X, Y]\rangle = \langle \beta, [X, Y]\rangle = \omega_\beta(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}).
\] (107)

Thus we need only to check if $\omega$ is closed. But we know that for any differential 2-form the following is true
\[
d\omega(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z}) = \tilde{X}\omega(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{Z}) + \tilde{Y}\omega(\tilde{Z}, \tilde{X}) + \tilde{Z}\omega(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}) + (108)
\]

Taking $\tilde{X} = \langle \text{Ad}_g^*\beta, [\cdot, \text{Ad}(g)X]\rangle$ and similarly for $\tilde{Y}$ and $\tilde{Z}$ we see that that first three terms in (108) vanish because $\omega$ is $K$-invariant. The sum of next three terms is also zero due to the Jacobi identity. This way we arrive at a well defined symplectic form on $O_\alpha$.

### 13.2 Kähler structure

Let us start with definition of Kähler manifold.

**Definition 2** Let $M$ be a complex manifold $\dim \mathbb{C}M = n$ and let $\omega$ be a symplectic form on $M$ treated as $2n$-dimensional real manifold. Then $M$ is called a Kähler manifold if at every $p \in X$ the complex structure $i$ on $T_pX$ (multiplication by imaginary unit) and the antisymmetric form $\omega_p$ has the following property:
\[
\omega_p(iv,iw) = \omega(v,w),
\] (109)

that is $i \in Sp(T_pM)$ (the symplectic group of $T_pM$).

Assume $M$ is a Kähler manifold. Then we can define a symmetric nondegenerate form $b$ on $M$
\[
b(v,w) = \omega(v,iw).
\] (110)

Indeed we have
\[
b(v,w) = \omega(v,iw) = \omega(iv,i^2w) = -\omega(iv,w) = \omega(w,iv) = b(w,v).
\] (111)

The form $b$ is non-degenerate because
\[
\forall w \in T_pM \quad b(v,w) = 0 \iff \forall w \in T_pM \quad \omega(w,iv) = 0 \iff v = 0.
\] (112)

It is also $i$-invariant
\[
b(iv,iw) = \omega(iv,i^2w) = \omega(v,iw) = b(v,w).
\] (113)

We have now the following definition.
Definition 3. A Kähler structure on $M$ is called positive if and only if the corresponding symmetric form $b$ is positive.

It is straightforward to check that having such an $i$-invariant non-degenerate symmetric form $b$ on $M$ we can define a non-degenerate $i$-invariant antisymmetric 2-form by $\omega(v, w) = b(iv, w)$. We will need only one more theorem (see [12] for a detailed proof).

Theorem 6. Let $M$ be a positive Kähler manifold. Then any complex submanifold $N \subset M$ is also a Kähler manifold.

The assumption that $M$ is a positive Kähler manifold (not just a Kähler manifold) is very important due to the fact that restriction of the symmetric form $b$ to $N$ is then non-degenerate and $i$-invariant. Now using $b|_N$ we can define a non-degenerate $i$-invariant antisymmetric 2-form on $N$ which is a restriction of $\omega$ defined on the whole $M$, and hence is symplectic.

13.2.1 Kähler structure on $\mathbb{P}(V)$

Consider a complex vector space $V$, $\dim_{\mathbb{C}} V = n$ with a Hermitian scalar product $(\cdot|\cdot)$. The complex projective space $\mathbb{P}(V)$ of $V$ is defined

$$\mathbb{P}(V) = V/\sim,$$

where the equivalence $\sim$ is defined by

$$v \sim w \iff w = \alpha v \quad \alpha \in \mathbb{C}^*,$$

where $\mathbb{C}^* = \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$. The standard way to realize $\mathbb{P}(V)$ is by two steps

$$V \xrightarrow{a} S(V) \xrightarrow{b} \mathbb{P}(V),$$

where the step $a$ is a quotient by the dilation $v \sim \alpha v$ for $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^*$ and the step $b$ is a quotient by the rotations $v \sim e^{i\phi} v$. The result of the quotient $a$ is the real sphere $S(V) = \{v \in V : \|v\| = 1\}$. The quotient $b$ gives $S(V)/S^1 = S^{2n-1}/S^1$, where $S^1$ represents the group of rotations. It is well known fact that the complex projective space $\mathbb{P}(V)$ is a complex manifold and $\dim_{\mathbb{C}} \mathbb{P}(V) = n - 1$. Let $\pi : V\setminus\{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}(V)$ be the projection defined by equivalence $\sim$. The tangent space to $\mathbb{P}(V)$ at $z = \pi(v)$ is $T_z \mathbb{P}(V) = \pi_v(T_v V)$. It is good question to ask what is $\pi_v(\xi)$, where $\xi \in T_v V$. Consider the curve $t \mapsto v(t) \in V$, $v(0) = v$. Then

$$\xi = \frac{d}{dt} \bigg|_{t=0} v(t).$$

We first apply the map $a$ to $v(t)$. As a result we get a curve $t \mapsto \frac{v(t)}{\|v(t)\|} \in S(V)$. Applying the map $b$ amounts to getting rid of the rotation $e^{i\phi} v$, hence finally the curve in $\mathbb{P}(v)$ is given as

$$t \mapsto \frac{v(t)}{\|v(t)\|} - v \left( \frac{v(t)}{\|v(t)\|} \right).$$

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The tangent vector to this curve is thus
\[
\frac{d}{dt} \bigg|_{t=0} v(t) - \frac{d}{dt} \bigg|_{t=0} v\left(\frac{v}{\|v\|}\right) = \left. \frac{\xi}{\|v\|} - \frac{v}{\|v\|} \right(\frac{v}{\|v\|} \right).
\]

Hence for any vector \( \xi \in T_vV \) we obtain the corresponding vector \( \pi_v(\xi) \in T_{\pi(v)}\mathbb{P}(V) \) as the orthogonal complement of \( \frac{\xi}{\|v\|} \) to the subspace \( \mathbb{C}v \) in the Hermitian scalar product \( \langle \cdot | \cdot \rangle \). Let us introduce a Hermitian scalar product on \( \mathbb{P}(v) \) by
\[
h(\pi_v(\xi), \pi_v(\eta)) = \left( \frac{1}{\|v\|} \frac{\xi(v|v)}{(v|v)} - \frac{1}{\|v\|} \frac{\eta(v|v) - (v|\eta)v}{(v|v)} \right),
\]
which, after some calculations, reduces to
\[
h(\pi_v(\xi), \pi_v(\eta)) = \frac{\langle \xi|\eta \rangle (v|v) - \langle \xi|v \rangle (v|\eta)}{(v|v)^2}.
\]

Of course, \( h \) is a well defined, that is non-degenerate, positive Hermitian form on \( \mathbb{P}(V) \). Indeed, for any \( z = \pi(v) \) we have \( T_z\mathbb{P}(V) = (\mathbb{C}v)^\perp \). Knowing this we can introduce a non-degenerate antisymmetric 2-form \( \omega \) on \( \mathbb{P}(V) \) as the imaginary part of \( h(\cdot, \cdot) \)
\[
\omega(\pi_v(\xi), \pi_v(\eta)) = -\text{Im} h(\pi_v(\xi), \pi_v(\eta)).
\]

It is straightforward to check that \( \omega \) is not only \( i \)-invariant but also \( U(V) \)-invariant. To check that it is also closed notice that \( U(V) \) is acting transitively on \( V \) which means the vectors \( Av \), where \( A \in u(V) \) span \( T_vV \). Hence,
\[
\omega(Av, Bv) = -\text{Im} \frac{(Av|Bv)(v|v) - (Av|v)(v|Bv)}{(v|v)^2}, \quad A, B \in u(V).
\]

But \( (Av|v)(v|Bv) \) is real since \( (Av|v) \) and \( (v|Bv) \) are imaginary (this is because \( A^\dagger = -A \) for all \( A \in u(V) \)). Hence,
\[
\omega(Av, Bv) = -\text{Im} \frac{(Av|Bv)}{(v|v)} = \frac{i([A, B]|v|v)}{2(v|v)}, \quad A, B \in u(V).
\]

Now making use of Equation (108) for vector fields \( \pi_v(UA^*Uv) \) and similarly for \( B \) and \( C \) we find, by the same argument as for coadjoint orbits, that \( d\omega = 0 \). This means \( \mathbb{P}(V) \) is a Kähler manifold. It is also a positive Kähler manifold because the corresponding symmetric form \( b \) given by
\[
b(\pi_v(\xi), \pi_v(\eta)) = -\text{Re} h(\pi_v(\xi), \pi_v(\eta)),
\]
is clearly positive.

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