

Quantum Information Protocols in QFT

- Our goal: couple local probes to a QFT to implement QI protocols.

This lecture: Background

1) QFT in curved spacetimes

↳ set basics and notation

↳ properties of propagators

2) QI protocols

↳ mixed vs pure states

↳ entanglement

↳ quantum channels → ent. breaking / class. channel cap.

3) Fermi Normal Coordinates

↳ construction

↳ limitations

↳ applications.

QFT in curved Spacetimes

We will focus on the case of a scalar field in curved spacetimes. This can be generalized (see e.g. "Advances in Algebraic Quantum field Theory" by R. Brunetti, C. Dappiaggi, K. Fredenhagen, J. Yngvason → especially chapter 3)

We will always work with a specific example of AQFT, where the quantum field theory can be built as the following association:

$$f \mapsto \hat{\phi}(f), \quad f \in C_0^\infty(M) \rightarrow \text{can be relaxed.}$$

↪ spacetime

Such that $f \mapsto \hat{\phi}(f)$ is linear

$$\hat{\phi}(f)^* = \hat{\phi}(f^*)$$

$$\hat{\phi}(Pf) = 0, \quad P = \text{c.o.m. differential operator}$$

(linear)

$$[\hat{\phi}(f), \hat{\phi}(g)] = i E(f, g),$$

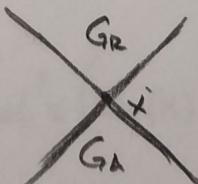
where $E(f, g) = \int_{M \times M} dV dV' f(x) g(x') E(x, x')$, and

$\int g d^4x$ ↪ causal propagator.

$$E(x, x') = G_R(x, x') - G_A(x, x')$$

↪ advanced Green's function
↪ retarded green's function.

$$PG_R = \delta, \quad PG_A = \delta,$$



Overall, if $A(x, x')$ is a bifunction, we will denote:

$$Af = Af(x) = \int dV' A(x, x') f$$

$$A(f, g) = \int dV dV' f(x) g(x') A(x, x')$$

And overall, the quantum field $\hat{\phi}(x)$ should be thought as the kernel of an operator valued distribution:

$$\hat{\phi}(f) = \int dV f(x) \hat{\phi}(x).$$

The algebras $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{O})$, $0 \subseteq M$ are then built by products and linear combinations of elements of the form $\hat{\phi}(f)$ s.t. $f \in C_0^\infty(\mathcal{O})$. $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}(M)$

A state is a linear function $\omega: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that $\omega(1) = 1$, $\omega \geq 0$ ($\omega(A^* A) \geq 0 \forall A \in \mathcal{A}$)
(maps operators to expected values)

→ In this course we will rarely pick specific bases of solutions $u_e(x)$. We will not use representations such as

$$\hat{\phi}(x) = \int d^3k (u_e(x) \hat{a}_e + u_e^*(x) \hat{a}_e^+)$$

(not necessary)

However, we will mostly restrict ourselves to zero-mean Gaussian states. That is, states such that $w(\hat{\phi}(t_1) \dots \hat{\phi}(t_{2n+1})) = 0 \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ and such that Wick's theorem applies to even products.

Every state defines a correlation function (or Wightman function) through

$$w(\hat{\phi}(t)\hat{\phi}(g)) = w(t, g) = \int dV dV' \ell(x) g(x') w(x, x')$$

\hookrightarrow Wightman function.

An extra restriction to the states that we will consider here is that

$$w(t, g) - w(g, t) = i E(t, g).$$

From the conditions above we have:

$$w(x, x') = \frac{1}{2} H(x, x') + \frac{i}{2} E(x, x'),$$

where $H(t, g) = w(\{\hat{\phi}(t), \hat{\phi}(g)\})$, $H(x, x') = H(x', x) \in \mathbb{R}$ is the Hadamard distribution.

We also define the Feynman propagator:

$$G_F(x, x') = \Theta(t - t') w(x, x') + \Theta(t' - t) w(x', x)$$

for any time parameter t . \hookrightarrow Heaviside Θ

Show that:

- G_F is independent of the time parameter t

(Hint: $\Theta(t-t') G_F(x, x') = 0$, $\Theta(t-t') G_F(x, x') = G_F(x, x')$)

- $G_F(x, x') = G_F(x', x)$

- $G_F(x, x') = \frac{1}{2} H(x, x') + \frac{i}{2} \Delta(x, x')$, where

$$\Delta(x, x') = G_R(x, x') + G_A(x, x') = \Delta(x', x)$$

(notice that $G_R(x, x') = G_A(x, x')$,

Important properties:

$$\omega(e^{i\hat{\phi}(t)}) = e^{-\frac{1}{2}W(t,t)} = e^{-\frac{1}{4}H(t,t)}$$

$$W^*(x, x') = W(x', x) \Leftrightarrow (W(t, g))^* = W(g^*, f^*)$$

$$E(x, x') = -E(x', x) \Leftrightarrow E(f, g) = -E(g, f)$$

$$G_F(x, x') = G_F(x', x) \Leftrightarrow G_F(t, g) = G_F(g, f)$$

$$\Delta(x, x') = \Delta(x', x) \Leftrightarrow \Delta(t, g) = \Delta(g, f).$$

We will also define the (time parameter dependent) distributions:

$$W_t(x, x') = \Theta(t-t') W(x, x')$$

$$W_{-t}(x, x') = \Theta(t'-t) W(x', x)$$

$$\Rightarrow G_F(x, x') = W_t(x, x') + W_{-t}(x, x')$$

$$\Rightarrow W(x, x') = W_t(x, x') + W_{-t}^*(x, x')$$

because $\Theta(u) + \Theta(-u) = 1$ and $W^*(x', x) = W(x, x')$.

remark: $W^*(t, g) \neq (W(t, g))^* = W(g^*, f^*)$

$$\hookrightarrow \int dV dV' f(x) g(x') W^*(x, x') = W(g, f)$$

QI Protocols

- States in Quantum theory.

1) $|\Psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$: $\langle \Psi | \Psi \rangle = 1$, $|\Psi\rangle \sim e^{i\phi} |\Psi\rangle$

2) $\hat{\rho} \in L(\mathcal{H})$: $\hat{\rho} \geq 0$, $\text{tr}(\hat{\rho}) = 1$.

3) $\omega: \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}) \xrightarrow{\text{b}} \mathbb{C}$: $\omega(\mathbb{1}) = 1$, $\omega \geq 0$.

Each of these is more general than the other one:

$$\hat{A} \in L(\mathcal{H}) \Rightarrow \omega(\hat{A}) \stackrel{1}{=} \text{tr}(\hat{\rho} \hat{A}), \quad \hat{\rho} = \sum_i p_i |\Psi_i\rangle \langle \Psi_i|, \quad \sum p_i = 1, p_i \geq 0$$

$$\text{If } \hat{\rho} = |\Psi\rangle \langle \Psi| \Rightarrow \text{tr}(\hat{\rho} \hat{A}) = \langle \Psi | \hat{A} | \Psi \rangle \quad \xrightarrow{\text{convex comb.}}$$

Pure state: ω such that it cannot be written as a convex combination of other states.

- Multi-partite systems

Given two quantum systems represented in \mathcal{H}_1 & \mathcal{H}_2 or \mathcal{H}_1 & \mathcal{H}_2 , then the composite system is represented in $\mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$, or $\mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$.

↳ notice that a quantum field here and the same quantum field there are not two systems!

Let's focus on $\mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$. If $\{|\Phi_n\rangle\}$ and $\{|\Psi_m\rangle\}$ are bases for \mathcal{H}_1 and \mathcal{H}_2 , then $\{|\Phi_n\rangle \otimes |\Psi_m\rangle\}$ is a basis of $\mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$.

However $|\Psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2 \neq |\Psi\rangle = |v_1\rangle \otimes |v_2\rangle$

↳ this is the key concept of entanglement.

A pure state which ~~can't~~ be written as $|w_1\rangle\langle w_1|$ is called a separable state.

For mixed states, a state is separable if it can be written as a convex combination of product states: $\hat{\rho} = \sum p_i \hat{\rho}_i \otimes \hat{\sigma}_i$ (for bipartite systems)

A state is said to be entangled if it is not separable.

→ Entanglement allows many different protocol to be performed: secure key distribution, quantum dense coding, quantum teleportation, ...

The key question is how to quantify it in general. → hard!

↳ for pure bipartite states, $S(\hat{\rho}_A) = S(\hat{\rho}_B)$ is an entanglement quantity, where

$$\hat{\rho}_A = \text{tr}_B (I|\Psi\rangle\langle\Psi|), \quad \hat{\rho}_B = \text{tr}_A (I|\Psi\rangle\langle\Psi|), \quad S(\hat{\rho}) = -\text{tr}(\hat{\rho} \log \hat{\rho})$$

↳ reduced density operator

Von-Neumann entropy.

$S(\hat{\rho}) = 0$ for pure states, but $S(\rho) \neq 0$ for mixed.

It is usually required that an entanglement measure satisfies:

1) $E(\hat{p}) = 0$ if \hat{p} is separable

2) $E(\rho) = 0$ if ρ is separable

3) E is invariant under $U_A \otimes U_B$.

Important for us: Negativity

Peres Criterium: $\hat{\rho}$ state $\Rightarrow \hat{\rho}^t$ state.

If $\hat{\rho} \in L(\mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B)$, $\hat{\rho} = \sum_{ij} c_{ij} \hat{\rho}_i \otimes \hat{\sigma}_j$. Define the partial transpose: $\hat{\rho}^{t_B} = \sum_{ij} c_{ij} \hat{\rho}_i \otimes \hat{\sigma}_j^t$, and it might be that $\hat{\rho}^{t_B}$ is not positive.

$\boxed{\hat{\rho}^{t_B} \text{ not positive} \Rightarrow \hat{\rho} \text{ entangled}}$
 $\hookrightarrow \text{for 2qubits} \Leftrightarrow$

Negativity: $N(\hat{\rho}) = \sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda_{\hat{\rho}}} |\lambda|$, $\Lambda_{\hat{\rho}} = \{ \lambda : \lambda < 0, \lambda \in \text{spec}(\hat{\rho}^{t_B}) \}$.

\hookrightarrow we will use this entanglement quantifier a lot
(but there are other options on the market).

Quantum Channels

A quantum channel is an operation $E: L(\mathcal{H}) \rightarrow L(\mathcal{H}_2)$ which maps density operators in a given space to density operators in (possibly another) space.

e.g. $E(\hat{\rho}) = U \hat{\rho} U^+$, $E_{\hat{\rho}_A}(\hat{\rho}_A) = \text{tr}_B(U \hat{\rho}_A \otimes \hat{\rho}_B U^+)$

For an operation $E: L(\mathcal{H}) \rightarrow L(\mathcal{H}_2)$ to be valid it needs to be trace preserving and completely positive (CPTP):

$$\text{tr}_2(E(\hat{\rho})) = \text{tr}_1(\hat{\rho}), \quad \hat{\sigma} \otimes E(\hat{\rho}) \geq 0 \quad \forall \hat{\sigma}, \hat{\rho} \geq 0.$$

(CPTP)

We will be interested in two main properties of quantum channels $E: L(H_A) \rightarrow L(H_B)$

Classical Channel Capacity: $C(E)$,

Quantum Channel Capacity: $Q(E)$

These quantify the amount of classical/quantum information that can be transmitted through this quantum channel.

$C(E)$: Alice has a message $m \in X$, $X =$ possible messages, that she wants to transmit to Bob using the channel E multiple times.

$$m \xrightarrow{\substack{\text{encodes} \\ \text{message}}} \hat{\rho}_m^{(n)} \in L(H_A^{\otimes n}) \xrightarrow{\substack{\text{sends to} \\ \text{Bob}}} E^{\otimes n}(\hat{\rho}_m^{(n)}) \in L(H_B^{\otimes n}).$$

Bob will now apply a POVM $\{\hat{E}_m\} \xrightarrow{\text{in } H_B^{\otimes n}}$, so that each outcome is associated to a message. The probability that the decoded message is the sent message is:

$$P_{m' \neq m} = \text{tr}(\hat{E}_m E^{\otimes n}(\hat{\rho}_m^{(n)})).$$

The rate of communication between Alice and Bob in this protocol is $R_c = \log_2(I(X))$ (bits per use of the channel) and it has maximum error $P_{\text{err}} = \max_m (1 - P_{m' \neq m})$.

The classical channel capacity is the supremum "over the R_c 's with smallest error". \rightarrow hard to compute so requires optimizing a protocol for the channel.

Luckily, the HSW theorem states that

$$C(\varepsilon) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\chi(\varepsilon^{\otimes n})}{n},$$

where χ is the Holevo information of $\varepsilon^{\otimes n}$:

$$\chi(\varepsilon) = \max_{\{p_m, \hat{p}_m\}} \left(S(\varepsilon(\hat{p})) - \sum_m p_m S(\varepsilon(\hat{p}_m)) \right)$$

$Q(\varepsilon)$

The main differences from classical and quantum information arise from correlations that systems can have with other systems.

$$\hat{\rho}_A \xrightarrow{U} \begin{matrix} P_A \\ \hat{\rho}_E \end{matrix}$$
$$E(\hat{\rho}_A) = \text{tr}_E(U \hat{\rho}_A \otimes I \otimes \text{tr}_E U^\dagger)$$
$$\hat{\rho}_E = \text{tr}_A(U \hat{\rho}_A \otimes I \otimes U^\dagger)$$

What if we apply $I \otimes E(\hat{\rho}_A)$? What correlations do we break?

→ this is very very hard to compute.

→ for us, what matters is that if $I \otimes E(\hat{\rho}_A)$ is always separable, then $Q(\varepsilon) = 0$.

Entanglement Breaking channels:

$(I \otimes E)(\hat{\rho}_A)$ always separable. $\Rightarrow Q(\varepsilon) = 0$.

$\Rightarrow C(\varepsilon) = \chi(\varepsilon), (\chi(\varepsilon^{\otimes n}) = n\chi(\varepsilon)).$

Fermi Normal Coordinates

arXiv:1102.0529

Let $z(\tau)$ be a timelike curve parametrized by proper time, and denote its four-velocity by u^μ . 1) Pick τ_0 , and define $e_0(\tau_0) = u(\tau_0)$. Pick vectors $e_i(\tau_0) \in T_{z(\tau_0)} M$ such that



$$g(e_i, e_j) = \delta_{ij}, \quad g(u, e_i) = 0$$

This defines an orthonormal frame $e_\mu(\tau_0)$ at $T_{z(\tau_0)} M$.

Fermi Transport

Given $v \in T_{z(\tau_0)} M$, its Fermi transport is the solution to

$$\frac{Dv^\mu}{d\tau} + 2a^\mu{}^\nu u^\alpha v_\nu = 0, \quad a^\mu = \frac{Du^\mu}{d\tau}$$

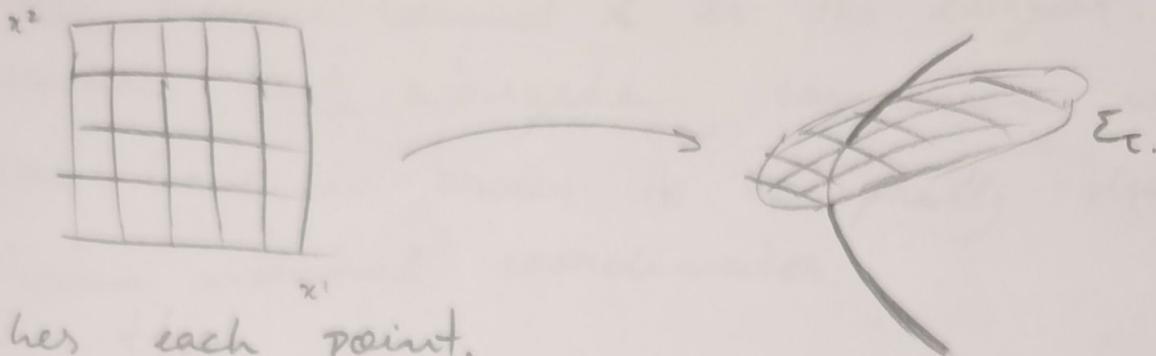
$\rightarrow \frac{D}{d\tau} = u^\alpha \nabla_\alpha$ ↴ 4-acceleration

Notice: $u^\mu(\tau)$ is Fermi transported.

Notice: Fermi transport preserves inner products.

- 2) Extend the frame $\{e_\mu(\tau_0)\}$ to the whole curve via the Fermi transport. $\Rightarrow \{e_\mu(\tau)\}$.
- 3) For each τ , consider the geodesics that start at $z(\tau)$ with initial velocity $x^i e_i(\tau)$. Follow this geodesic for a proper distance of $\sqrt{\delta_{ij} x^j x^i}$.

This defines a set $\Sigma_\tau \subseteq M$, the rest space of $z(\tau)$, where there is a unique geodesic that re-



ches each point.

- 4) repeat this procedure for each τ . Now the (τ, x^1, \dots, x^n) define coordinates in a worldtube around $z(\tau)$.

Important: ∂_τ is generically not normal to Σ_τ , and it is usually not normalized.

- 5*) Parallel transport $\{e_\mu(\tau)\}$ along each geodesic shot in step 3), so that we have a local frame defined in the worldtube.

Useful property:

$$g_{\tau\tau} = -((1 + a_i x^i))^2 - R_{0ij}^{(0)} x^i x^j + \mathcal{O}(|z|^3)$$

$$g_{\tau i} = -\frac{2}{3} R_{0ik} x^j x^k + \mathcal{O}(|z|^3)$$

$$g_{ij} = \delta_{ij} - \frac{1}{3} R_{ijk} x^k + \mathcal{O}(|x|)$$

also $\mathcal{O}(R^2)$
 and $\mathcal{O}(a^2)$

The Fermi Bound arXiv: 2206.01225.

The Fermi bound l is the largest proper radius that a system ^(rigid") moving with $z(\tau)$ can have in order to be fully described in Fermi normal coordinates.

Define the τ -Fermi bound l_τ as:

$$l_\tau = \sup \left(\{ \sqrt{\delta_{ij} x^i x^j} : \exp_{z(\tau)}(x^i e_i(\tau)) \subseteq \Sigma_\tau \} \right)$$

\Rightarrow largest radius a system can have in order to be contained in Σ_τ .

The Fermi radius is

$$l = \inf_\tau l_\tau$$

Important: $l \gtrsim \inf_\tau \left(\frac{1}{\alpha(\tau) + \sqrt{|\lambda_R(\tau)|}} \right)$,

where $\alpha(\tau)^2 = \alpha_\mu(\tau) \alpha^\mu(\tau)$, $\lambda_R(\tau)$ is the most negative eigenvalue of $\text{Ric}_{\partial\Omega}(z(\tau))$.

Basically: can only use F.N.C. to describe systems that are centered at $z(\tau)$ and have radius smaller than l .