

Exercise - Week 1

Problem 1.1: Von Neumann entropy and thermal states (10 points)

Given a quantum system with Hamiltonian H , the thermal state (Gibbs state) $\rho_\beta(H)$ at inverse temperature $\beta = 1/(k_B T)$ is defined as

$$\rho_\beta(H) := \frac{e^{-\beta H}}{Z}, \quad \text{where } Z := \text{tr}(e^{-\beta H}).$$

The von Neumann entropy S and quantum relative entropy (Kullback-Leibler divergence) D are defined as

$$\begin{aligned} S(\rho) &:= -\text{tr}(\rho \log \rho), \\ D(\rho \|\sigma) &:= \text{tr}(\rho \log \rho - \rho \log \sigma) \end{aligned}$$

where ρ and σ are density matrices. In the following, we use the fact that $D(\rho \|\sigma) \geq 0$, with equality if and only if $\rho = \sigma$. We also define the free energy of a state ρ (at inverse temperature $\beta \neq 0$) as

$$F_\beta(\rho) := \langle H \rangle_\rho - S(\rho)/\beta,$$

where $\langle H \rangle_\rho := \text{tr}(\rho H)$.

- (i) Show that if $H = H_A + H_B$ is a non-interacting Hamiltonian on a bipartite quantum system AB , then $\rho_\beta(H) = \rho_\beta(H_A) \otimes \rho_\beta(H_B)$.
- (ii) Show that $S(\rho_\beta(H)) = \beta \langle H \rangle_{\rho_\beta(H)} + \log Z$.
- (iii) Show that $\frac{1}{\beta} D(\rho \|\rho_\beta(H)) = F_\beta(\rho) - F_\beta(\rho_\beta(H))$.
- (iv) Prove that $\rho_\beta(H)$ is the unique state that minimizes the free energy.
- (v) Consider the expression $D(\rho_{AB} \|\rho_A \otimes \rho_B)$, and prove that von Neumann entropy satisfies the subadditivity property $S(\rho_{AB}) \leq S(\rho_A) + S(\rho_B)$, with equality if and only if $\rho_{AB} = \rho_A \otimes \rho_B$. (This is sometimes just written $S(AB) \leq S(A) + S(B)$.)

Exercises - Week 2

Majorization is concerned with a (pre)order on probability distributions. Writing $x \succ y$ means that y is “closer” to the uniform distribution than x or equivalently y is “more uniform” than x . On this exercise sheet x, y, z will be *probability vectors* of size n – they have non-negative components and their elements sum to one. For each probability vector x we define the vector x^\downarrow whose elements are same as in x , but are ordered in decreasing size $x_1^\downarrow \geq \dots \geq x_n^\downarrow$. We say x *majorizes* y and write

$$x \succ y \quad \text{iff} \quad \sum_{i=1}^k x_i^\downarrow \geq \sum_{i=1}^k y_i^\downarrow \quad \text{for } k = 1, \dots, n$$

This definition is easy to check if you have two given vectors but it is a bit abstract and not really clear why it captures the notion of “uniformness”. The aim of this exercise sheet is to develop a better understanding of majorization, and to present some equivalent statements to the above definition. First convince yourself that $x \succ x$ and if $x \succ y$, then $Px \succ P'y$ for arbitrary permutations P and P' . If $x \succ y$ and $y \succ x$, does this mean that $x \equiv y$?

Problem 2.1: Drawing some Lorenz curves (6 points)

If we have a probability vector x we can define the vector $s(x)$ of partial sums of x as

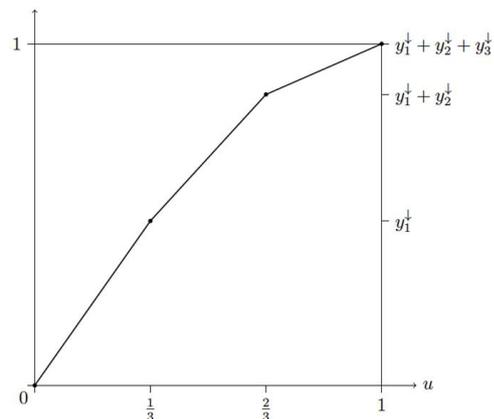
$$s(x)_i = \sum_{j=1}^i x_j.$$

which is an n -component nonnegative vector. If we draw the vector $s(x^\downarrow)$ as a piecewise linear function we get the *Lorenz curve* (named after the economist Max O. Lorenz).

On the right we see the Lorenz curve for a three component probability vector. It is a piecewise linear function on the interval $[0, 1]$ which has the value $s(x^\downarrow)_i$ at the point i/n . The majorization condition can be expressed in terms of Lorenz curves in the following way

$$x \succ y \quad \text{if} \quad s(x^\downarrow)_i \geq s(y^\downarrow)_i \quad \forall i$$

Now choose $n = 4$ and write down an arbitrary choice of probability vector y . Find two more probability distributions x and z such that $x \succ y \succ z$ and draw the Lorenz curves for all three in one diagram. (Please don't use $(1, 0, 0, 0)$ or $(1/n, 1/n, 1/n, 1/n)$ for any of x, y or z .)



Furthermore find a probability vector y' such that neither $y \succ y'$ nor $y' \succ y$ and draw the corresponding Lorenz curves. Try to argue graphically that the following holds for arbitrary y :

$$(1, 0, \dots, 0) \succ y \succ (1/n, \dots, 1/n). \tag{1}$$

Problem 2.2: The convex set of majorized states (10 points)

In this exercise we will prove that the set of probability vectors majorized by some x is convex. That is:

$$\text{If } x \succ y \text{ and } x \succ z \quad \text{then} \quad x \succ ty + (1-t)z \quad \text{for } t \in [0, 1]. \quad (2)$$

First, show that:

- (i) $s(x^\downarrow)_i \geq s(Px^\downarrow)_i$ for all i where Px^\downarrow is some permutation of the vector x^\downarrow .
- (ii) For real numbers a, b, c with $a \geq b$ and $a \geq c$, it holds that $tb + (1-t)c \leq a$ for $t \in [0, 1]$.

Now use these to prove the convexity statement above. Convince yourself that the following slightly more general statement holds as well:

$$\text{If } x \succ y^i \quad \text{then} \quad x \succ p_1y^1 + \dots + p_ky^k,$$

for probability vectors y^i and all probability distribution $p = (p_1, \dots, p_k)$. For a given x we always know that the set of its permutations form one such collection of y^i that are majorized by x . Thus, the set of distributions majorized by some x contains all convex mixtures of the permutations of x . It can be further shown that this set in fact contains *all* the distributions majorized by x .

Theorem: The vector $x \succ y$ if and only if there exists a probability distribution p and a set of permutations $\{P_i\}$ such that

$$y = \sum_i p_i P_i x. \quad (3)$$

(You do not need to prove this.) Show that this theorem implies the relations in equation (1).

Problem 2.3: Drawing the set of probability vectors (8 points)

For higher dimensions the set of probability vectors is quite difficult to visualize but for $n = 3$ we can draw some insightful pictures. Particularly, this set is the intersection of the positive octant of \mathbb{R}^3 with the plane defined by $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 1$. Draw this set and indicate the points $(1, 0, 0)$, $(0, 1, 0)$, $(0, 0, 1)$ and $(1/3, 1/3, 1/3)$.

Since the set is two dimensional it is convenient to forget about its embedding in \mathbb{R}^3 and consider only its intersection with the plane. Draw this also, and indicate the above points. Now pick a probability distribution x with $x_1 \neq x_2 \neq x_3$ and indicate it in the set together with all its permutations. Use what you know from the previous exercise to indicate the set of all vectors that are majorized by x . (**Bonus:** What shape would the set of $n = 4$ probabilities take if we only drew the intersection with $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 = 1$?)

We know that majorization does not really care about the order of the vector components so lets restrict ourselves to the part of the probability distributions which are ordered decreasingly $x_1 \geq x_2 \geq x_3$. Find out which part of the whole set this is and draw it. In this subset now choose again a point x and draw in addition to the set that x is majorizing as well the set of elements that majorize x . (To do work out the latter, you could try to look systematically at some Lorenz curves.) In the end you should end up with three different regions: the points majorizing x , the points majorized by x and the points that are not comparable to x .

Problem 2.4 (Optional): Permutations and other bi-stochastic matrices (10 points)

A stochastic matrix B of size n is a $n \times n$ real matrix whose matrix elements satisfy the first two of the following properties:

$$(i): B_{ij} \geq 0 \quad (ii): \sum_{i=1}^n B_{ij} = 1 \quad (iii): \sum_{j=1}^n B_{ij} = 1.$$

If in addition the matrix elements obeys (iii) we call B a *bi-stochastic matrix* (a.k.a. a *doubly stochastic matrix*).

Prove the following statements:-

- (i) The stochastic matrices are exactly the linear maps that map probability vectors into probability vectors.
- (ii) Bistochastic matrices are exactly the subset of stochastic matrices that leave the maximally mixed state $(1/n, \dots, 1/n)$ invariant.
- (iii) Permutation matrices are the only bi-stochastic matrices that are *reversible* – that is, they are invertible and their inverse is also a bi-stochastic matrix.
- (iv) The set of bi-stochastic matrices is convex. Thus if B_i are bi-stochastic and p is a probability distribution than $\sum_i p_i B_i$ is bi-stochastic.

The converse of the last statement holds as well:

Theorem (Birkhoff & von Neumann): A matrix B is bi-stochastic if and only if there exist permutations P_i and a probability distribution p such that

$$B = \sum_i p_i P_i .$$

(You do not need to prove this.)

Use this together with the theorem of in Problem 2.2 to argue that:

$$x \succ y \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \exists B \text{ bi-stochastic with} \quad Bx = y.$$