Entanglement distance for arbitrary $M$-qudit hybrid systems

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The achievement of quantum supremacy boosted the need for a robust medium of quantum information. In this task, higher-dimensional qudits show remarkable noise tolerance and enhanced security for quantum key distribution applications. However, to exploit the advantages of such states, we need a thorough characterization of their entanglement. Here, we propose a measure of entanglement which can be computed for either pure or mixed states of a $M$-qudit hybrid system. The entanglement measure is based on a distance deriving from an adapted application of the Fubini-Study metric. This measure is invariant under local unitary transformations and has an explicit computable expression that we derive. In the specific case of $M$-qubit systems, the measure assumes the physical interpretation of an obstacle to the minimum distance between infinitesimally close states. Finally, we quantify the robustness of entanglement of a state through the eigenvalue analysis of the metric tensor associated with it.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Entanglement is an essential resource for progressing in the field of quantum-based technologies. Quantum information has confirmed its importance in quantum cryptography and computation, in teleportation, in the frequency standard improvement problem, and in metrology based on quantum phase estimation [1]. The achievement of quantum supremacy [2] together with the rapid experimental progress on quantum control is driving the interest in entanglement theory. Nevertheless, despite its key role, entanglement remains elusive and the problem of its characterization and quantification is still open [3,4]. In time, several different approaches have been developed to quantify the variety of states available in the quantum regime [5]. Entropy of entanglement is uniquely accepted as a measure of entanglement for pure states of bipartite systems [6], while for the same class of mixed states, entanglement of formation [7], entanglement distillation [8–10], and relative entropy of entanglement [11] are largely acknowledged as faithful measures. The development of quantum information theory and the increasing experimental demand of quantum state manipulation has led to the development of measures enfolding more general states. For multipartite systems a broad range of measures has covered pure states [12,13] and mixed states [14], among which a Schmidt measure [15] and a generalization of concurrence [16] have been proposed. In the past years, the variety of paths adopted to tackle the problem has led to estimation-oriented approaches based on the quantum Fisher information [17–19]. Due to the deep connection between the quantum Fisher information and a statistical distance [20], the geometry of entanglement has been studied in the case of two qubits [21]. While the mentioned measures address mainly qubit systems, the necessity for noise tolerance and reliability in quantum tasks has opened the way to study higher-dimensional states, the qudits [22,23]. In noise-tolerant schemes, magic-state distillation protocols outperform their qubits counterparts [24], while a proof of enhanced security for quantum key distribution tasks has been derived in Ref. [25]. In addition, a recent experimental realization confirmed the superiority of qudits in certifying entanglement in noisy environments [26]. At the same time, different measures of entanglement for such systems appeared, such as a measure for highly symmetric mixed qudit states [27] and the $I$ concurrence in arbitrary Hilbert space dimensions [28]. Finally, a geometric measure for $M$-qudit pure states has been proposed in Ref. [29].

Following a geometric approach, in the present manuscript, we derive an entanglement monotone [30,31], i.e., a measure of entanglement not increasing under local unitary transformation. This measure can be computed for either pure or mixed states of $M$-qudit hybrid systems. The measure that we propose has the following qualities.

(i) It is invariant under local unitary transformations.
(ii) It has an explicit computable expression.
(iii) It is derived from a tailored form of the Fubini-Study metric.
(iv) In the specific case of $M$-qubit systems, the proposed measure has the structure of a distance such that the higher the
entanglement of a given state is, the greater is its minimum distance from infinitesimally close states (see Fig. 1).

(v) In such a case, the analysis of the eigenvalues of the metric tensor associated with the entanglement measure allows one to quantify the robustness of the entanglement of a state and determine if any states are more sensitive to small variations than others.

II. ENTANGLEMENT DISTANCE

A qubit is a state in a 2-dimensional Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}_2$, and a hybrid $M$-qubit is a state in the tensor product $\mathcal{H} := \mathcal{H}_{d_0} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{d_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathcal{H}_{d_{M−1}}$ of Hilbert spaces of dimension $d_0, d_1, \ldots, d_{M−1}$, respectively. Thus, the dimension of $\mathcal{H}$ is $d = \prod_{k} d_k$. First, we derive the entanglement measure for the case of pure hybrid multiqudit states, and then we generalize this measure to the case of mixed states.

A. Pure states

The Hilbert space $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_{d_0} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{d_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathcal{H}_{d_{M−1}}$ of a hybrid $M$-qubit system carries the Fubini-Study metric [32]

$$\langle d\psi | d\psi \rangle = \frac{1}{4} |\langle \psi | d\psi \rangle - \langle d\psi | \psi \rangle|^2,$$

where $|\psi\rangle$ is a generic normalized state and $|d\psi\rangle$ is an infinitesimal variation of such a state. The goal of the present study is to endow the Hilbert space with a Fubini-Study-like metric that has the desirable property of making it an attractive definition for the entanglement measure. For this reason, such distance should not be affected by local operations on single qubits [33,34]. As a matter of fact, the action of $M$ arbitrary SU($d_\mu$) local unitary operators $U_\mu (\mu = 0, \ldots, M−1)$ on a given state $|s\rangle$ generates a class of states,

$$|U, s\rangle = \prod_{\mu=0}^{M−1} U_\mu |s\rangle,$$

that share the same degree of entanglement. For each $\mu$, $U_\mu$ operates on the $\mu$th qudit of $\mathcal{H}_{d_\mu}$. Thus we define an infinitesimal variation of state (2) as

$$|dU, s\rangle = \sum_{\mu=0}^{M−1} dU_\mu |U, s\rangle,$$

where there is no summation on the index $\mu$ and each infinitesimal SU($d_\mu$) transformation $dU_\mu$ operates on the $\mu$th qudit. Such an infinitesimal transformation can be written as

$$dU_\mu = −(n \cdot T_\mu) d\xi^\mu,$$

where $(n \cdot T_\mu) := n_\mu \cdot T_\mu$. $n_\mu$ is a unit vector in $\mathbb{R}^{d_\mu}$, $\xi^\mu$ are real parameters, and we denote by $T_{\mu a}, a = 1, \ldots, d_\mu^2 − 1$, the generators of SU($d_\mu$) algebra (see the Appendix). From Eq. (1), with this choice, we obtain the following expression for the Fubini-Study metric $g(v)$:

$$\sum_{\mu\nu} g_{\mu\nu}(v)d\xi^\mu d\xi^\nu = \sum_{\mu\nu} \left( \langle s | (v \cdot T_\mu)(v \cdot T_\nu) | s \rangle \right) − \langle s | (v \cdot T_\mu) | s \rangle \langle s | (v \cdot T_\nu) | s \rangle d\xi^\mu d\xi^\nu.$$

In the latter equation, the real unit vectors $v_\mu$ are derived by a rotation of the original ones according to

$$v_\nu \cdot T_\nu = U_{\mu}^\dagger n_\mu \cdot T_\nu U_\mu,$$

where there is no summation on the index $\nu$. Focusing on a generic state $|s\rangle$, for each $\mu = 0, \ldots, M−1$, we obtain the following from Eq. (5):

$$E(|s\rangle) = \sum_{\mu=0}^{M−1} [\text{tr}(A_\mu) − 2(d_\mu − 1)].$$

$E(|s\rangle)$ is a proper measure of entanglement satisfying the following properties [11]:

(i) The relations (A4) and (A6) make the measure (9) independent from the local operators $U_\mu$. Consequently, its numerical value is associated with the class of states generated by local unitary transformations and not to the specific element chosen inside the class.

(ii) From Eq. (A4) we obtain

$$\text{tr}(A_\mu) = \frac{2(d_\mu^2 − 1)}{d_\mu} − \sum_{k=1}^{d_\mu^2−1} \langle s | T_{\mu k} | s \rangle^2.$$ 

Furthermore, the absolute value for the maximum eigenvalue of the set $\{T_{\mu k}\}$ is $\sqrt{2(d_\mu^2 − 1)/d_\mu}$ (see the Appendix), therefore we get

$$\text{tr}(A_\mu) \geq \frac{2(d_\mu^2 − 1)}{d_\mu} − \frac{2(d_\mu − 1)}{d_\mu}.$$

From here,

$$\text{tr}(A_\mu) − 2(d_\mu − 1) \geq 0,$$
thus
\[ E(|s\rangle) \geq 0. \] (13)

(iii) From Eq. (10) we have
\[ E(|s\rangle) \leq \sum_{\mu=0}^{M-1} \frac{2(d_{\mu} - 1)}{d_{\mu}}. \] (14)

(iv) For a maximally entangled state \(|s\rangle\),
\[ E(|s\rangle) = \sum_{\mu=0}^{M-1} \frac{2(d_{\mu} - 1)}{d_{\mu}} \] (15)
and
\[ \langle s|T_{\mu k}|s\rangle = 0 \] (16)
for each \(\mu = 0, \ldots, M - 1\) and \(k = 1, \ldots, d_{\mu}^2 - 1\).

(v) For a fully separable state \(|s\rangle = |s_0\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |s_{M-1}\rangle\), from Eqs. (A5) and (10) we get \(E(|s\rangle) = 0\).

In summary, the entanglement measure for a general hybrid qudit state \(|s\rangle\) results in
\[ E(|s\rangle) = \sum_{\mu=0}^{M-1} \left[ \frac{2(d_{\mu} - 1)}{d_{\mu}} - \sum_{k=1}^{d_{\mu}^2-1} \langle s|T_{\mu k}|s\rangle^2 \right]. \] (17)

**Qubit states**

Remarkably, in the case of a general \(M\)-qubit state \(|s\rangle\),
\[ \inf_{\{v_{|s\rangle}\}} \text{tr}[g(v)] \] (18)
identifies unit vectors \(\tilde{v}_i\), for which it results that
\[ E(|s\rangle) = \text{tr}[g(\tilde{v})], \] (19)
where the inf is taken over all the possible orientations of the unit vectors \(v_{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^2\). We name the entanglement metric (EM) \(\tilde{g}\) the Fubini-Study metric associated with \(\tilde{v}_i\):
\[ \tilde{g} = g(\tilde{v}_i). \] (20)
The off-diagonal elements of \(\tilde{g}\) provide the quantum correlations between qubits. In addition, states differing from one another for local unitary transformations have the same form of \(\tilde{g}\). In this way, the expression of the EM identifies the classes of equivalence for \(M\)-qubit states.

**B. Mixed states**

Now, we extend the entanglement measure (9) to the case of mixed states. In order to do so, we require the measure \(E\) to satisfy the following three conditions [8,11,15,35,36].

(i) \(E(\rho) \geq 0\) and \(E(\rho) = 0\) if \(\rho\) is fully separable.

(ii) \(E(\rho)\) is invariant under local unitary transformation, i.e., \(E(U \rho U^\dagger) = E(\rho)\).

(iii) \(E\) is a convex functional of the density matrix, that is,
\[ E[\alpha \rho_1 + (1 - \alpha) \rho_2] \leq \alpha E(\rho_1) + (1 - \alpha) E(\rho_2), \] (21)
for each \(\alpha \in [0, 1]\) and mixed states \(\rho_1\) and \(\rho_2\).

Given a mixed state \(\rho\), consider all possible ways of expressing \(\rho\) in terms of pure states in the form
\[ \rho = \sum_j p_j |\psi_j\rangle \langle \psi_j|, \] (22)
where \(p_j\) is the probability of measuring the state \(|\psi_j\rangle\). We define
\[ E(\rho) = \min \sum_j p_j E(|\psi_j\rangle), \] (23)
where the minimum is taken over all the possible combinations of the form (22). The conditions (i) and (ii) above are inherited by \(E(\rho)\) since the same properties hold true for \(E(|s\rangle)\). Let us verify condition (iii). Given \(\rho = \alpha \rho_1 + (1 - \alpha) \rho_2\), where \(\rho_1\) and \(\rho_2\) can be expressed in the form \(\sum_j p_j^1 |\psi_j^1\rangle \langle \psi_j^1|\) and \(\sum_j p_j^2 |\psi_j^2\rangle \langle \psi_j^2|\) in several ways. We have
\[ \rho = \sum_j |\alpha p_j^1 |\psi_j^1\rangle \langle \psi_j^1| + (1 - \alpha) p_j^2 |\psi_j^2\rangle \langle \psi_j^2|, \] thus
\[ \min_{\{p^1, |\psi^1\rangle\}} \sum_j \alpha p_j^1 E(|\psi_j^1\rangle) + (1 - \alpha) p_j^2 E(|\psi_j^2\rangle) \]
\[ \leq \min_{\{p^1, |\psi^1\rangle\}} \sum_j \alpha p_j^1 E(|\psi_j^1\rangle) \]
\[ + \min_{\{p^2, |\psi^2\rangle\}} \sum_j (1 - \alpha) p_j^2 E(|\psi_j^2\rangle), \] (24)
since the minimum of a set is always less than or equal to the minimum of its subsets.

**III. EXAMPLES OF APPLICATION**

In order to verify the efficacy of the proposed entanglement measure, we first considered two families of one-parameter multiqubit states depending on a real parameter. The degree of entanglement of each state depends on this parameter, and the configuration corresponding to maximally entangled states for each of the families considered is known. The first family of states we consider in Secs. III A, III A 1, and III A 2 has been introduced by Briegel and Raussendorf in Ref. [13], for this reason we name the elements in this family Briegel-Raussendorf states (BRSs). The second family of states, in Sec. III B, is related to the Greenberger-Horne-Zeilinger states [37], since it contains one of these states. We name the elements of such a family the Greenberger-Horne-Zeilinger-like states (GHZLS). It is worth emphasizing that in Ref. [13] it has been shown that the maximally entangled states of these two families are not equivalent if \(M \geq 4\), whereas they are equivalent if \(M \leq 3\), where \(M\) is the number of qubits considered. This fact offers us a further test for our approach to entanglement estimation. In fact, we have found that (i) the entanglement measure (9) provides the same value for the maximally entangled states of both families; and (ii) in the case \(M \leq 3\), the entanglement metric (20) has the same form for the maximally entangled states of the two families, whereas for \(M \geq 4\) the EMs of the maximally entangled states of the two families are inequivalent. In Sec. III C, we have considered a family of three-qubit states depending on two real parameters. With a suitable choice of these parameters, the state can be fully separable or biseparable, whereas in the generic case it is a genuine tripartite entangled state. We show that the proposed entanglement measure provides an accurate description of all these cases. In Sec. III D we have applied the entanglement measure (9) to the case of a hybrid qudit system, and in Sec. III E we have applied it to the case of two qutrits.
A. Briegel Raussendorf states

In the case of qubits, the generators $T_{\mu}$ are the Pauli matrices $\sigma_{\mu}$. We denote with $\Pi_0^\mu = (\mathbb{1} + \sigma_{3})/2$ and $\Pi_1^\mu = (\mathbb{1} - \sigma_{3})/2$ the projector operators onto the eigenstates of $\sigma_{3}$, $\{0\}_\mu$ (with eigenvalue $+1$) and $\{1\}_\mu$ (with eigenvalue $-1$), respectively. Each $M$-qubit state of the BRS class is derived by applying the fully separable state

$$|r, 0\rangle = \bigotimes_{\mu=0}^{M-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle_\mu + |1\rangle_\mu)$$

(25)

the nonlocal unitary operator

$$U_0(\phi) = \exp(-i\phi H_0) = \prod_{\mu=1}^{M-1} (\mathbb{1} + \alpha \Pi_0^\mu \Pi_1^{\mu+1}),$$

(26)

where $H_0 = \sum_{\mu=1}^{M-1} \Pi_0^\mu \Pi_1^{\mu+1}$ and $\alpha = (e^{-i\phi} - 1)$. The full operator (26) is diagonal in the states of the standard basis $\{|0\cdots 0\rangle, |0\cdots 1\rangle, \ldots, |1\cdots 1\rangle\}$. In fact, each vector of the latter basis is identified by $M$ integers $n_0, \ldots, n_{M-1} = 0, 1$ as $|n\rangle = |n_{M-1} n_{M-2} \cdots n_0\rangle$, and we can enumerate such vectors according to the binary integers’ representation $k = |n\rangle$. For $\phi = 2\pi k$, with $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, this state is separable, whereas, for all the other choices of the value $\phi$, it is entangled. In particular, in Ref. [13] it is argued that the values $\phi = (2k + 1)\pi$, where $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, give maximally entangled states.

1. Fubini-Study metric for the Briegel Raussendorf states $M = 2$ and $3$

In the case of two-qubit BRSs, the trace of the Fubini-Study metric is

$$\text{tr}(g) = \sum_{r=0}^{1} (1 - c^2[r v_{r+1} + (-1)^{r+1}v_{r+2}]^2),$$

(30)

where $c = \cos(\phi/2)$ and $s = \sin(\phi/2)$. Equation (30) is minimized with the choice $\tilde{v}_r = \pm |c, (-1)^{r+1}s, 0\rangle$. Consistently, the EM results in

$$\tilde{g} = \begin{pmatrix} s^2 & 1 \\ 1 & s^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

(31)

and

$$E(\phi, r)_{2} = 2s^2.$$ 

(32)

In the case $M = 3$ and $\phi \neq (2k + 1)\pi$, with $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, the trace of $g$,

$$\text{tr}(g) = 3 - c^2[c(v_{01} + v_{11} + v_{21}) + s(v_{22} - v_{02})]^2,$$ 

(33)

is minimized with the choices $\tilde{v}_0 = (c, -s, 0), \tilde{v}_1 = (1, 0, 0)$, and $\tilde{v}_2 = (c, s, 0)$. The EM and the entanglement measure in this case result in

$$\tilde{g} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & c & -2sc^2 \\ c & 1 + c^2 & c \\ -2sc^2 & c & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

(34)

and

$$E(\phi, r)_{3} = s^2(3 + c^2).$$

(35)

respectively. By direct calculation, one can verify that in the case of the maximally entangled BRS $|\phi = (2k + 1)\pi, k \in \mathbb{Z}\rangle$, the choices $\tilde{v}_0 = (-1, 0, 0), \tilde{v}_1 = (0, 0, 1)$, and $\tilde{v}_2 = (1, 0, 0)$ minimize tr($g$) and the corresponding EM is the $3 \times 3$ matrix of ones.

2. Fubini-Study metric for the Briegel Raussendorf states $M > 3$

For a general $M$-qubit state $|r, \phi\rangle_M$, the trace of $g$ is

$$\text{tr}(g) = \left\{ M - \sum_{r=0}^{M-1} [v_{r1} w_{r1} + v_{r+1} w_{r+1} + v_{r+2} w_{r+2} ] \right\},$$

(36)

where $v_{r+1} = v_{r+1} \pm i v_{r+2}, c_k = 2^{-M/2} c_k$, and

$$w_{r+1} = \sum_{k=0}^{2^M-1} \delta_{c_k, 0} \delta_{c_k+2, 2^M-2} c_k,$$

$$w_{r+2} = \sum_{k=0}^{2^M-1} \delta_{c_k, 1} \delta_{c_k+2, 2^M-2} c_k,$$

$$w_{r+3} = \sum_{k=0}^{2^M-1} (-1)^{y_k} |c_k|^2.$$ 

(37)

The trace is minimized by setting $\tilde{v}_{r+1} = w_{r+1}/\|w_{r+1}\|, \tilde{v}_{r+2} = w_{r+2}/\|w_{r+2}\|, \text{and } \tilde{v}_{r+3} = w_{r+3}/\|w_{r+3}\|$. From the latter, we get the following entanglement measure for the BRS:

$$E(|r, \phi\rangle_M) = \left( M - \sum_{r=0}^{M-1} \|w_r\|^2 \right).$$ 

(38)

B. Greenberger-Horne-Zeilinger-like states

Now, we consider a second class of $M$-qubit states, the GHZLS, defined according to

$$|\text{GHZ}, \theta\rangle_M = \cos(\theta)|0\rangle_M + \sin(\theta)e^{i\phi}|2^M - 1\rangle.$$

(39)

For $\theta = k\pi/2$ and $\phi$, where $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, these states are fully separable, whereas $\theta = k\pi/2 + \pi/4 (\forall \phi)$ selects the maximally entangled states. In this case, the trace for the Fubini-Study
We expect the state with a higher degree of entanglement will correspond to $\theta = \pi/4$. Note that this is not a maximally entangled state since the component $|1\rangle$ of the second Hilbert space is absent. From Eq. (8), we have

$$A_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \cos(2\theta) & 0 \\ -i \cos(2\theta) & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 - \cos^2(2\theta) \end{pmatrix}.$$  

(48)

In the case of qutrits, the generators $T_\mu$ can be represented with the Gell-Mann matrices. By direct calculation, one can verify that the only non-null matrix elements for $A_1$ are the following:

$$(A_1)_{11} = \cos^2(\theta),$$

$$(A_1)_{22} = \cos^2(\theta),$$

$$(A_1)_{33} = \cos^2(\theta) \sin^2(\theta),$$

$$(A_1)_{44} = \sin^2(\theta),$$

$$(A_1)_{55} = \sin^2(\theta),$$

$$(A_1)_{66} = 3 \cos^2(\theta) \sin^2(\theta),$$

$$(A_1)_{77} = 1,$$

$$(A_1)_{88} = 1.$$  

Thus, from Eq. (17) we have

$$E(|s, \tau\rangle) = 2 \sin^2(2\theta).$$  

(49)

In Eq. (49), $\theta = \pi/4$ provides the maximally entangled state.

In the next section, we compare entanglement measure $E(|s, \theta\rangle)/2$ with the von Neumann entropy

$$E[\rho(\theta)] = -\cos^2(\theta) \log_2[\cos^2(\theta)] - \sin^2(\theta) \log_2[\sin^2(\theta)]$$  

(50)

of the density matrix $\rho(\theta) = |s, \theta\rangle\langle s, \theta|$ associated with the same state.

### E. $M$-qudit states depending on two parameters

Let us consider an $M$-qutrit system that has a Hilbert space $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_3 \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathcal{H}_3$, that is to say, the product of $M$-qutrit states. We have considered the following generalization of the GHZLS to qutrits:

$$|s, \theta, \phi\rangle_M = \sin(\theta) \cos(\phi)|0, \ldots, 0\rangle + \sin(\phi) \sin(\theta)|1, \ldots, 1\rangle + \cos(\phi) |2, \ldots, 2\rangle,$$  

(51)

which is a family of two-parameter states. We have

$$(A_{uv})_{11} = \sin^2(\theta),$$

$$(A_{uv})_{22} = \sin^2(\theta),$$

$$(A_{uv})_{33} = \frac{1}{2} \sin^2(\theta)(3 + \cos(2\theta) - 2 \sin^2(\theta) \cos(4\phi)), $$

$$(A_{uv})_{44} = \sin^2(\theta) \cos^2(\phi) + \cos^2(\theta),$$

$$(A_{uv})_{55} = \sin^2(\theta) \sin^2(\phi) + \cos^2(\theta),$$

$$(A_{uv})_{66} = 3 \sin^2(\theta) \cos^2(\theta),$$

$$(A_{uv})_{77} = \sin^2(\theta) \cos^2(\phi) + \cos^2(\theta),$$

$$(A_{uv})_{88} = \sin^2(\theta) \cos^2(\phi) + \cos^2(\theta).$$


A. Entanglement measure

In Fig. 2, we plot the measure $E((r, \phi)_{M})/M$ vs $\phi/(2\pi)$ according to Eq. (38), for the multiqubit states (29) in the cases $M = 3$, 4, 7, and 9. Figure 2 shows that the proposed entanglement measure provides a correct estimation of the degree of entanglement for the BRSs in all the cases considered. In particular, for the fully separable states ($\phi = 0$ and $2\pi$), it is zero, whereas for the maximally entangled states ($\phi = \pi$), it provides the maximum possible value for the trace, that is, $E((r, \pi)_{M})/M = 1$. This implies that the expectation values on the maximally entangled states of the operators $\overline{\psi}_{v} \cdot \sigma_{v}$ ($v = 0, \ldots, M - 1$) are zero.

The entanglement measure (9) successfully passes also the second test of the GHZLS for which it provides zero in the case of fully separable states ($\theta = 0, \pi$) and the maximum value (which is 1) in the case of the maximally entangled state ($\theta = \pi/2$). In Fig. 3, we compare the curves $E((r, \phi)_{M})/M$ vs $\phi/(2\pi)$, shown with a continuous line, and $E((\text{GHZ}, \theta)_{M})/M$ vs $2\theta/\pi$, shown with a dashed line, for the case $M = 3$. Even in this case, the expectation values of the operators $\overline{\psi}_{v} \cdot \sigma_{v}$ ($v = 0, \ldots, M - 1$) on the maximally entangled states are zero.

In Fig. 4, we report in a three-dimensional (3D) plot the measure $E((\psi, \gamma, \tau)_{3})/3$ as a function of $\gamma/\pi$ and $\tau/\pi$ according to Eq. (46), for the states (43). The measure (9) catches in a surprisingly clear way the entanglement properties of this family of states. In particular, $E((\psi, \gamma, \tau)_{3})/3$ is null in the case of fully separable states ($\gamma = 0, \pi/2$, and $\pi$, and $\tau = 0, \pi/2$, and $\pi$) and it is maximum (with value 1) in the case of maximally entangled states ($\gamma = \pi/4$ and $3\pi/4$, and $\tau = 0, \pi/2$, and $\pi$). In addition, the case of biseparable states ($\tau = \pi/4$) results in $0 < E((\psi, \gamma, \tau)_{3})/3 < 1$.

Figure 5 refers to the hybrid two-qudit states (47). Here, we compare the curves of the entanglement measure $E((s, \theta))/2$ vs $\theta/\pi$ of states (47), shown with a continuous line, and the von Neumann entropy $E((s, \theta))$ vs $\theta/\pi$, shown with a dashed line, for the same states. This figure clearly shows that, although these two curves are different, they strongly agree in the quantification of the entanglement of the different states. Note that the highly entangled state associated with $\theta = \pi/4$ has an entanglement measure of 1, lower than the maximally entangled state of this Hilbert space which, using Eq. (15), reports a value of $7/6$.

In Fig. 6, we report the entanglement measure $E((s, \theta, \phi)_{M})/M$ as a function of $\theta/\pi$ and $\phi/\pi$ given...
in Eq. (52), for the multiqubit states (51). Even in this example, the measure (9) catches in a surprisingly clear way the entanglement properties of this family of multiqubit states. In particular, $E(|s, \theta, \phi\rangle_M)/M$ is null in the case of fully separable states, i.e., for $\theta = 0$ and $\forall \phi$ and for $\theta = \pi/2$ and $\phi = 0, \pi/2,$ and $\pi$. In the cases of $\phi = 0$ and $\pi$, the entanglement measure changes over $\theta$ and shows local maximum for $\theta = \pi/4$. For $\theta = \pi/2$, the measure changes over $\phi$, displaying local maxima for $\phi = \pi/4$ and $3\pi/4$. Furthermore, the state corresponding to $\sin(\theta) \cos(\phi) = \sin(\theta) \sin(\phi) = \cos(\theta) = 1/\sqrt{3}$ is a maximally entangled state to which corresponds an entanglement measure (15) of value $4/3$.

In Fig. 7, we report the 3D plot for the von Neumann entropy $E[\rho(\theta, \phi)]$ [see Eq. (53)] as a function of $\theta/\pi$ and $\phi/\pi$. The entropy is calculated for the density matrix $\rho(\theta, \phi) = |s, \theta, \phi\rangle_M \langle s, \theta, \phi|$ with the family of two-qudit states (51). The comparison between Figs. 6 and 7 clearly shows that, although the functions $E(|s, \theta, \phi\rangle_M)/M$ and $E[\rho(\theta, \phi)]$ are different, they fully agree, in the entanglement estimation, for the states $|s, \theta, \phi\rangle$.

B. Eigenvalue analysis for $M$-qubit states

In the case of multiqubit states, a further interesting characteristic of the entanglement measure comes from the analysis of the entanglement metric’s eigenvalues. In Fig. 8, we compare the plots of the eigenvalues of $\tilde{g}$ for $|r, \phi\rangle_M$ vs $\phi/(2\pi)$ (dotted lines), with the plot of the unique not vanishing eigenvalue of $\tilde{g}$ for GHZLS vs $2\theta/\pi$ (continuous line), in the case $M = 7$. When $\phi \neq 0$ and $2\pi$, the EM of the BRS, $\tilde{g}$, has exactly $M$ nonzero eigenvalues. Although the value of the latter is greater than the eigenvalues of the BRSs (see Fig. 8), the GHZLSs appear weak, in the sense of entanglement, since there exist $M - 1$ directions with null minimum distance between states. This fact makes the class of the BRSs robust in the sense of entanglement. In fact, the minimum distance between states in a random direction is greater than the minimum eigenvalue of the metric and, therefore, greater than zero.

Within the scenario that we have proposed, the entanglement has the physical interpretation of an obstacle to the
minimum distance between infinitesimally close states. In fact, by defining the distance between a given state represented by the vector \(|U, s\rangle\) and an infinitesimally close state associated with the vector \(|dU, s\rangle\) as \(ds^2 = \text{tr}(g(v))dr^2\), where \(\sum_\mu (d\xi^\mu)^2 = dr^2\), we obtain

\[ ds^2 \geq E(|s\rangle)dr^2. \]  

This shows that the minimum distance density \(ds^2/dr^2\), obtained by varying the vectors \(v\), is bounded from below by the entanglement measure \(E(|s\rangle)\). For fully separable states, the minimum distance density is zero, whereas for maximally entangled states, it results in \(M\) at the very best. Finally, from the analysis of the eigenvalues we can investigate the sensitivity of different states to small variations. Figure 9 shows that different points in parameter space correspond to different state sensitivities of \(|\phi\rangle\). For instance, if we move out of \(\phi = \pi/2\), following the eigenvector’s direction corresponding to the maximum eigenvalue of \(\tilde{g}\), we find a greater distance than when moving along the eigenvector’s direction of the maximally entangled state at \(\phi = \pi\). Such analysis can be profitably used within quantum metrology applications.

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**APPENDIX: GENERALIZED GELL-MANN MATRICES**

As fundamental representation for the generators of the algebra of SU\((d_\mu)\), we use the generalized Gell-Mann matrices. These are the following \(d_\mu^2 - 1, d_\mu \times d_\mu\) matrices. Let \(E_{jk}\) (for \(j, k = 1, \ldots, d_\mu\)) be the matrix with 1 as the \((j, k)\)th entry and 0 elsewhere. We define

\[ T_{\mu\ell} = (E_{jk} + E_{k\ell}), \]

where \(\ell = 2(k - j) + (j - 1)(2d_\mu - j) - 1\) for \(j = 1, \ldots, d_\mu - 1, k = j + 1, \ldots, d_\mu;\)

\[ T_{\mu\ell} = -i(E_{jk} - E_{k\ell}), \]

where \(\ell = 2(k - j) + (j - 1)(2d_\mu - j)\) for \(j = 1, \ldots, d_\mu - 1, k = j + 1, \ldots, d_\mu;\) and

\[ T_{\mu\ell} = \sum_{j=1}^k E_{jk} - kE_{k+1,k+1} \sqrt{\frac{2}{k(k+1)}}, \]

where \(\ell = d_\mu(d_\mu - 1) + k\) for \(k = 1, \ldots, d_\mu - 1).\) In the case \(d_\mu = 2\), these generators are given in terms of the Pauli matrices according to \(T_{\mu\ell} = \sigma_{1\ell}\), \(T_{2\ell} = \sigma_{2\ell}\), and \(T_{3\ell} = \sigma_{3\ell}\). In the case \(d_\mu = 3\), the generators are given by the standard Gell-Mann matrices.

In the general case, the following identity holds true:

\[ \sum_{k=1}^{d_\mu-1} T_{\mu k} T_{k\ell} = \frac{2(d_\mu - 1)}{d_\mu}, \]

and for each normalized state \(|s_\mu\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_{d_\mu}\), the following is obtained:

\[ \sum_{k=1}^{d_\mu-1} \langle s_\mu|T_{\mu k}|s_\mu\rangle^2 = \frac{2(d_\mu - 1)}{d_\mu}. \]

For each normalized state \(|s\rangle \in \mathcal{H}\) and unitary local operator \(U_{\mu} : \mathcal{H}_{d_\mu} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{d_\mu}\), the following is obtained:

\[ \sum_{k=1}^{d_\mu-1} \langle s|U_{\mu} T_{\mu k} U_{\mu}^\dagger |s\rangle = \sum_{k=1}^{d_\mu-1} \sum_{a=1}^{d_\mu} (n_a^k)^2 \langle s|T_{\mu a}|s\rangle^2 \]

\[ = \sum_{a=1}^{d_\mu} \langle s|T_{\mu a}|s\rangle^2 \sum_{k=1}^{d_\mu-1} (n_a^k)^2 \]

\[ = \sum_{a=1}^{d_\mu} \langle s|T_{\mu a}|s\rangle^2. \]


