

Entanglement in Quantum Field Theory

Pablo Bueno



UNIVERSITAT DE
BARCELONA

Giambiagi School 2025

References

- **Casini, Huerta** - 2201.13310
Lectures on entanglement in QFT
- **Hollands, Sanders** - 1702.04924
Entanglement measures and their properties in QFT
- **Nishioka** - 1801.10352
Entanglement entropy: holography and renormalization group
- **Pontello** - 2005.13975
Aspects of entanglement entropy in AQFT
- **Witten** - 1803.04993
Notes On Some Entanglement Properties Of QFT

- ★ **I. Entanglement in finite systems**
- ★ **II. Entanglement in QFT**
- ★ **III. From the lattice to the continuum**
- ★ **IV. QFT from entanglement**

Part I: Entanglement in finite systems

Warm up: states and observables

A quantum system is associated with a Hilbert space of states \mathcal{H} and a set of observables represented by self-adjoint operators $\{a\}$.

Warm up: states and observables

A quantum system is associated with a Hilbert space of states \mathcal{H} and a set of observables represented by self-adjoint operators $\{a\}$. Observables encode questions we can ask about the system,

Warm up: states and observables

A quantum system is associated with a Hilbert space of states \mathcal{H} and a set of observables represented by self-adjoint operators $\{a\}$. Observables encode questions we can ask about the system, and states provide probabilistic answers to them through expectation values $\langle\psi|a|\psi\rangle$ or $\text{tr}(\rho a)$.

Warm up: states and observables

A quantum system is associated with a Hilbert space of states \mathcal{H} and a set of observables represented by self-adjoint operators $\{a\}$. Observables encode questions we can ask about the system, and states provide probabilistic answers to them through expectation values $\langle\psi|a|\psi\rangle$ or $\text{tr}(\rho a)$.

A general quantum state is represented by a unit-trace, positive semi-definite operator ρ acting on \mathcal{H} , aka **density matrix**.

Warm up: states and observables

- If

$$\rho = |\psi\rangle \langle\psi|$$

for certain $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$, we can alternatively describe the state by $|\psi\rangle$ and we say it is a **pure state**

Warm up: states and observables

- If

$$\rho = |\psi\rangle \langle\psi|$$

for certain $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$, we can alternatively describe the state by $|\psi\rangle$ and we say it is a **pure state** $\Leftrightarrow \rho$ is a rank-1 projector (it points in a single direction in \mathcal{H})

Warm up: states and observables

- If

$$\rho = |\psi\rangle \langle\psi|$$

for certain $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$, we can alternatively describe the state by $|\psi\rangle$ and we say it is a **pure state** $\Leftrightarrow \rho$ is a rank-1 projector (it points in a single direction in \mathcal{H})

- If

$$\rho = \sum_a p_a |\psi_a\rangle \langle\psi_a| , \quad (a = 1, 2, \dots)$$

we say it is a **mixed state**

Warm up: states and observables

- If

$$\rho = |\psi\rangle \langle\psi|$$

for certain $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$, we can alternatively describe the state by $|\psi\rangle$ and we say it is a **pure state** $\Leftrightarrow \rho$ is a rank-1 projector (it points in a single direction in \mathcal{H})

- If

$$\rho = \sum_a p_a |\psi_a\rangle \langle\psi_a|, \quad (a = 1, 2, \dots)$$

we say it is a **mixed state** \Leftrightarrow statistical mixture of multiple pure states

Warm up: states and observables

- If

$$\rho = |\psi\rangle \langle\psi|$$

for certain $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$, we can alternatively describe the state by $|\psi\rangle$ and we say it is a **pure state** $\Leftrightarrow \rho$ is a rank-1 projector (it points in a single direction in \mathcal{H})

- If

$$\rho = \sum_a p_a |\psi_a\rangle \langle\psi_a|, \quad (a = 1, 2, \dots)$$

we say it is a **mixed state** \Leftrightarrow statistical mixture of multiple pure states $\Leftrightarrow \text{rank } \rho > 1$.

Warm up: separability and entanglement

Consider a finite quantum system made of two independent subsystems A and B (e.g., a pair of electrons), so that the Hilbert space factorizes as $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$.

Warm up: separability and entanglement

Consider a finite quantum system made of two independent subsystems A and B (e.g., a pair of electrons), so that the Hilbert space factorizes as $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$. We call this a **bipartition** of \mathcal{H} .

Warm up: separability and entanglement

Consider a finite quantum system made of two independent subsystems A and B (e.g., a pair of electrons), so that the Hilbert space factorizes as $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$. We call this a **bipartition** of \mathcal{H} . If the system is in a pure state $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$, we say that:

Warm up: separability and entanglement

Consider a finite quantum system made of two independent subsystems A and B (e.g., a pair of electrons), so that the Hilbert space factorizes as $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$. We call this a **bipartition** of \mathcal{H} . If the system is in a pure state $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$, we say that:

- $|\psi\rangle$ is a **separable state** if we can write it as $|\psi\rangle = |\phi\rangle_A \otimes |\tilde{\phi}\rangle_B$.

Warm up: separability and entanglement

Consider a finite quantum system made of two independent subsystems A and B (e.g., a pair of electrons), so that the Hilbert space factorizes as $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$. We call this a **bipartition** of \mathcal{H} . If the system is in a pure state $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$, we say that:

- $|\psi\rangle$ is a **separable state** if we can write it as $|\psi\rangle = |\phi\rangle_A \otimes |\tilde{\phi}\rangle_B$.
- Otherwise, we say that $|\psi\rangle$ is an **entangled state**.

Warm up: separability and entanglement

Consider a finite quantum system made of two independent subsystems A and B (e.g., a pair of electrons), so that the Hilbert space factorizes as $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$. We call this a **bipartition** of \mathcal{H} . If the system is in a pure state $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$, we say that:

- $|\psi\rangle$ is a **separable state** if we can write it as $|\psi\rangle = |\phi\rangle_A \otimes |\tilde{\phi}\rangle_B$.
- Otherwise, we say that $|\psi\rangle$ is an **entangled state**.

Entanglement \iff non-separability of quantum systems

Warm up: separability and entanglement

Imagine we only have access to subsystem A . How should we describe the state of our electron?

Warm up: separability and entanglement

Imagine we only have access to subsystem A . How should we describe the state of our electron? It must be such that all measurements of observables on A match hypothetical measurements over the full state

Warm up: separability and entanglement

Imagine we only have access to subsystem A . How should we describe the state of our electron? It must be such that all measurements of observables on A match hypothetical measurements over the full state
 \Rightarrow **reduced-density matrix**:

$$\rho_A \equiv \text{tr}_B \rho_{AB}$$

Warm up: separability and entanglement

Imagine we only have access to subsystem A . How should we describe the state of our electron? It must be such that all measurements of observables on A match hypothetical measurements over the full state \Rightarrow **reduced-density matrix**:

$$\rho_A \equiv \text{tr}_B \rho_{AB}$$

If the global state ρ_{AB} is pure then:

- If ρ_{AB} is separable $\Rightarrow \rho_A$ is pure.
- If ρ_{AB} is entangled $\Rightarrow \rho_A$ is mixed.

Warm up: separability and entanglement

Imagine we only have access to subsystem A . How should we describe the state of our electron? It must be such that all measurements of observables on A match hypothetical measurements over the full state \Rightarrow **reduced-density matrix**:

$$\rho_A \equiv \text{tr}_B \rho_{AB}$$

If the global state ρ_{AB} is pure then:

- If ρ_{AB} is separable $\Rightarrow \rho_A$ is pure.
- If ρ_{AB} is entangled $\Rightarrow \rho_A$ is mixed.

When the global state is entangled, we necessarily lose information when we ignore one of the subsystems.

Warm up: separability and entanglement

Imagine we only have access to subsystem A . How should we describe the state of our electron? It must be such that all measurements of observables on A match hypothetical measurements over the full state \Rightarrow **reduced-density matrix**:

$$\rho_A \equiv \text{tr}_B \rho_{AB}$$

If the global state ρ_{AB} is pure then:

- If ρ_{AB} is separable $\Rightarrow \rho_A$ is pure.
- If ρ_{AB} is entangled $\Rightarrow \rho_A$ is mixed.

When the global state is entangled, we necessarily lose information when we ignore one of the subsystems. The subsystems should be understood as forming a single inseparable entity...

Summary: separability and entanglement

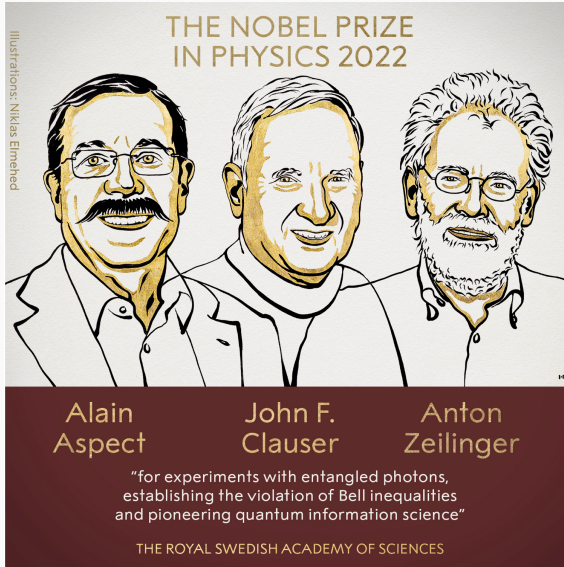
Summary: separability and entanglement

- Given a quantum system made of two subsystems A, B , a pure global state $|\psi\rangle$ is separable if we can write it as a tensor product, $|\psi\rangle = |\phi\rangle_A \otimes |\tilde{\phi}\rangle_B$. If not, it is entangled.

Summary: separability and entanglement

- Given a quantum system made of two subsystems A, B , a pure global state $|\psi\rangle$ is separable if we can write it as a tensor product, $|\psi\rangle = |\phi\rangle_A \otimes |\tilde{\phi}\rangle_B$. If not, it is entangled.
- If $|\psi\rangle$ is separable, the reduced density matrices on A and B are pure. If $|\psi\rangle$ is entangled, the reduced density matrices are mixed. In entangled states we necessarily lose information whenever we take a partial trace over one of the subsystems.

Entanglement is real...



A closer look?

- ★ Read about Bell inequalities, their relation to entanglement and the role of possible loopholes in the experimental tests (detection, locality, freedom of choice, etc.).

The algebraic approach

In order to discuss entanglement in the QFT context, it is convenient to consider operators as our primary objects.

The algebraic approach

In order to discuss entanglement in the QFT context, it is convenient to consider operators as our primary objects.

An **algebra of operators** \mathcal{A} is a set closed under linear combinations, operator products, and taking adjoints, which also includes scalar multiples of the identity,

$$1 \in \mathcal{A}, \quad a, b \in \mathcal{A}, \quad \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \alpha a + \beta b \in \mathcal{A}, \quad ab \in \mathcal{A}, \quad a^\dagger \in \mathcal{A}$$

The algebraic approach

In order to discuss entanglement in the QFT context, it is convenient to consider operators as our primary objects.

An **algebra of operators** \mathcal{A} is a set closed under linear combinations, operator products, and taking adjoints, which also includes scalar multiples of the identity,

$$1 \in \mathcal{A}, \quad a, b \in \mathcal{A}, \quad \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \alpha a + \beta b \in \mathcal{A}, \quad ab \in \mathcal{A}, \quad a^\dagger \in \mathcal{A}$$

Given some set of operators \mathcal{A} , we define its **commutant** \mathcal{A}' as the set of operators which commutes with all the operators of \mathcal{A} ,

$$\mathcal{A}' \equiv \{b \mid [b, a] = 0, \forall a \in \mathcal{A}\}$$

Von Neumann theorem:

The algebraic approach

Von Neumann theorem:

- Whatever \mathcal{A} is, \mathcal{A}' is an algebra.

Von Neumann theorem:

- Whatever \mathcal{A} is, \mathcal{A}' is an algebra.
- \mathcal{A} is an algebra iff it coincides with its double commutant, $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}''$.

The algebraic approach

Von Neumann theorem:

- Whatever \mathcal{A} is, \mathcal{A}' is an algebra.
- \mathcal{A} is an algebra iff it coincides with its double commutant, $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}''$.

The smallest algebra which contains any set \mathcal{A} is \mathcal{A}'' .

The algebraic approach

From this perspective, states are objects that take operators as input and return numbers (expectation values):

The algebraic approach

From this perspective, states are objects that take operators as input and return numbers (expectation values): a state ω is a functional $\omega : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$

The algebraic approach

From this perspective, states are objects that take operators as input and return numbers (expectation values): a state ω is a functional $\omega : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that

$$\omega(\alpha a + \beta b) = \alpha \omega(a) + \beta \omega(b), \quad \omega(aa^\dagger) \geq 0, \quad \omega(1) = 1,$$

namely, it is linear, it produces a positive semi-definite result for operators with a positive spectrum and it is normalized.

The algebraic approach

From this perspective, states are objects that take operators as input and return numbers (expectation values): a state ω is a functional $\omega : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that

$$\omega(\alpha a + \beta b) = \alpha \omega(a) + \beta \omega(b), \quad \omega(aa^\dagger) \geq 0, \quad \omega(1) = 1,$$

namely, it is linear, it produces a positive semi-definite result for operators with a positive spectrum and it is normalized.

For any state ω acting on \mathcal{A} , $\exists!$ element of the algebra $\rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}} \in \mathcal{A}$ such that

$$\omega(a) = \text{tr}(\rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}} a) \quad \forall a \in \mathcal{A}$$

The algebraic approach

From this perspective, states are objects that take operators as input and return numbers (expectation values): a state ω is a functional $\omega : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that

$$\omega(\alpha a + \beta b) = \alpha\omega(a) + \beta\omega(b), \quad \omega(aa^\dagger) \geq 0, \quad \omega(1) = 1,$$

namely, it is linear, it produces a positive semi-definite result for operators with a positive spectrum and it is normalized.

For any state ω acting on \mathcal{A} , $\exists!$ element of the algebra $\rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}} \in \mathcal{A}$ such that

$$\omega(a) = \text{tr}(\rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}} a) \quad \forall a \in \mathcal{A}$$

Hence, a state acting on an algebra selects an operator in the algebra itself, the reduced density matrix.

The algebraic approach

What about subsystems?

The algebraic approach

What about subsystems? If the system can be split into two independent subsystems A, B , the full algebra is a tensor product $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_A \otimes \mathcal{A}_B$

The algebraic approach

What about subsystems? If the system can be split into two independent subsystems A, B , the full algebra is a tensor product $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_A \otimes \mathcal{A}_B$ and

$$\mathcal{A}_B = \mathcal{A}'_A,$$

namely, the algebra of subsystem B coincides with the algebra of the commutant of the algebra of subsystem A (and viceversa).

The algebraic approach

What about subsystems? If the system can be split into two independent subsystems A, B , the full algebra is a tensor product $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_A \otimes \mathcal{A}_B$ and

$$\mathcal{A}_B = \mathcal{A}'_A,$$

namely, the algebra of subsystem B coincides with the algebra of the commutant of the algebra of subsystem A (and viceversa).

Given a global pure state ω , separability means that we can write

$$\omega = \omega_A \otimes \tilde{\omega}_B$$

where ω_A is a state on \mathcal{A}_A and $\tilde{\omega}_B$ is a state on \mathcal{A}_B . Otherwise, ω is entangled.

Summary: the algebraic approach

Summary: the algebraic approach

- Quantum observables organize themselves in algebras. A set of operators \mathcal{A} is an algebra iff it coincides with its double commutant, $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}''$.

Summary: the algebraic approach

- Quantum observables organize themselves in algebras. A set of operators \mathcal{A} is an algebra iff it coincides with its double commutant, $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}''$.
- States take operators from the algebras and produce numbers out of them (expectation values).

Summary: the algebraic approach

- Quantum observables organize themselves in algebras. A set of operators \mathcal{A} is an algebra iff it coincides with its double commutant, $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}''$.
- States take operators from the algebras and produce numbers out of them (expectation values).
- Any state ω acting on an algebra \mathcal{A} selects a unique element of the algebra (the density matrix $\rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}} \in \mathcal{A}$) such that the expectation value of any operator a of the algebra can be computed in the usual way, namely, as $\text{tr}(\rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}} a)$.

A closer look?

- ★ Read about the classification of von Neumann algebras and the contexts in which the different types appear in physics.

[More in Witten's lectures]

Von Neumann entropy

Once we have the density matrix representation of some global state in some algebra, we can extract numbers out of it.

Von Neumann entropy

Once we have the density matrix representation of some global state in some algebra, we can extract numbers out of it. A standard measure of entropy for any density matrix ρ is the **von Neumann entropy**:

$$S(\rho) \equiv -\operatorname{tr}(\rho \log \rho)$$

Von Neumann entropy

Once we have the density matrix representation of some global state in some algebra, we can extract numbers out of it. A standard measure of entropy for any density matrix ρ is the **von Neumann entropy**:

$$S(\rho) \equiv -\operatorname{tr}(\rho \log \rho)$$

This entropy is always non-negative, $S(\rho) \geq 0$, and vanishes if and only if ρ is a pure state.

Von Neumann entropy

Once we have the density matrix representation of some global state in some algebra, we can extract numbers out of it. A standard measure of entropy for any density matrix ρ is the **von Neumann entropy**:

$$S(\rho) \equiv -\operatorname{tr}(\rho \log \rho)$$

This entropy is always non-negative, $S(\rho) \geq 0$, and vanishes if and only if ρ is a pure state.

Given a pure state ω and some algebra \mathcal{A} , the entropy of $\rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}}$ coincides with the entropy of $\rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}'}$,

Von Neumann entropy

Once we have the density matrix representation of some global state in some algebra, we can extract numbers out of it. A standard measure of entropy for any density matrix ρ is the **von Neumann entropy**:

$$S(\rho) \equiv -\operatorname{tr}(\rho \log \rho)$$

This entropy is always non-negative, $S(\rho) \geq 0$, and vanishes if and only if ρ is a pure state.

Given a pure state ω and some algebra \mathcal{A} , the entropy of $\rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}}$ coincides with the entropy of $\rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}'}$, namely, with the entropy of the density matrix associated to the commutant algebra,

$$S(\rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}}) = S(\rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}'})$$

Entanglement Entropy

When the system splits into two subsystems, $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_A \otimes \mathcal{A}_B$, the von Neumann entropy of the reduced density matrix associated to any of them, $\rho_A \equiv \rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}_A}$, is called the **entanglement entropy**:

Entanglement Entropy

When the system splits into two subsystems, $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_A \otimes \mathcal{A}_B$, the von Neumann entropy of the reduced density matrix associated to any of them, $\rho_A \equiv \rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}_A}$, is called the **entanglement entropy**:

$$S_{\text{EE}}(A) \equiv S(\rho_A) = -\text{tr}(\rho_A \log \rho_A)$$

Entanglement Entropy

When the system splits into two subsystems, $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_A \otimes \mathcal{A}_B$, the von Neumann entropy of the reduced density matrix associated to any of them, $\rho_A \equiv \rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}_A}$, is called the **entanglement entropy**:

$$S_{\text{EE}}(A) \equiv S(\rho_A) = -\text{tr}(\rho_A \log \rho_A)$$

Since $\mathcal{A}_B \equiv \mathcal{A}'_A$, it follows that $S_{\text{EE}}(A) = S_{\text{EE}}(B)$.

Entanglement Entropy

When the system splits into two subsystems, $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_A \otimes \mathcal{A}_B$, the von Neumann entropy of the reduced density matrix associated to any of them, $\rho_A \equiv \rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}_A}$, is called the **entanglement entropy**:

$$S_{\text{EE}}(A) \equiv S(\rho_A) = -\text{tr}(\rho_A \log \rho_A)$$

Since $\mathcal{A}_B \equiv \mathcal{A}'_A$, it follows that $S_{\text{EE}}(A) = S_{\text{EE}}(B)$.

The entanglement entropy is a measure of the degree of entanglement between A and B .

Entanglement Entropy

When the system splits into two subsystems, $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_A \otimes \mathcal{A}_B$, the von Neumann entropy of the reduced density matrix associated to any of them, $\rho_A \equiv \rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}_A}$, is called the **entanglement entropy**:

$$S_{\text{EE}}(A) \equiv S(\rho_A) = -\text{tr}(\rho_A \log \rho_A)$$

Since $\mathcal{A}_B \equiv \mathcal{A}'_A$, it follows that $S_{\text{EE}}(A) = S_{\text{EE}}(B)$.

The entanglement entropy is a measure of the degree of entanglement between A and B . If the global state is pure and separable, then ρ_A is pure and $S_{\text{EE}}(A) = 0$.

Summary: entanglement entropy

- Given a density matrix induced by a global state in some algebra, we can compute its von Neumann entropy as $S(\rho) = -\text{tr}(\rho \log \rho)$. The entropy is positive whenever ρ is mixed and it vanishes whenever it is pure.

Summary: entanglement entropy

- Given a density matrix induced by a global state in some algebra, we can compute its von Neumann entropy as $S(\rho) = -\text{tr}(\rho \log \rho)$. The entropy is positive whenever ρ is mixed and it vanishes whenever it is pure.
- When the system splits into two subsystems A, B , the algebra of B coincides with the commutant of the algebra of A .

Summary: entanglement entropy

- Given a density matrix induced by a global state in some algebra, we can compute its von Neumann entropy as $S(\rho) = -\text{tr}(\rho \log \rho)$. The entropy is positive whenever ρ is mixed and it vanishes whenever it is pure.
- When the system splits into two subsystems A, B , the algebra of B coincides with the commutant of the algebra of A .
- The entanglement entropy of A with respect to B , $S_{\text{EE}}(A)$, is defined as the von Neumann entropy associated to the reduced density matrix on A , and it equals $S_{\text{EE}}(B)$. When the global state is entangled, $S_{\text{EE}} > 0$ and there is entanglement between the two subsystems.

A closer look?

- ★ Read about the Schmidt decomposition and how it makes manifest that $S_{\text{EE}}(A) = S_{\text{EE}}(B)$.
- ★ Consider the following global two-qubit states $|\psi_i\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$ and show that the EE reads in each case:

$$|\psi_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|01\rangle + |00\rangle) \quad \Rightarrow \quad S_{\text{EE}}(A) = 0$$

$$|\psi_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|01\rangle + |10\rangle) \quad \Rightarrow \quad S_{\text{EE}}(A) = \log 2 \simeq 0.6931,$$

$$|\psi_3\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} (|00\rangle + |01\rangle + |11\rangle) \\ \Rightarrow S_{\text{EE}}(A) = \log \left[\frac{6}{3 + \sqrt{5}} \right] \simeq 0.1362,$$

Modular Hamiltonian and modular flow

For a thermal state in the canonical ensemble the density matrix on the full algebra of observables reads

$$\rho = \frac{e^{-\beta H}}{Z}, \quad Z \equiv \text{tr } e^{-\beta H}$$

Modular Hamiltonian and modular flow

For a thermal state in the canonical ensemble the density matrix on the full algebra of observables reads

$$\rho = \frac{e^{-\beta H}}{Z}, \quad Z \equiv \text{tr } e^{-\beta H}$$

where H is the Hamiltonian of the theory and β the inverse temperature.

Modular Hamiltonian and modular flow

For a thermal state in the canonical ensemble the density matrix on the full algebra of observables reads

$$\rho = \frac{e^{-\beta H}}{Z}, \quad Z \equiv \text{tr } e^{-\beta H}$$

where H is the Hamiltonian of the theory and β the inverse temperature. Then, the von Neumann entropy of ρ reads

$$S(\rho) = \beta(E - F), \quad E \equiv \langle H \rangle_\rho, \quad F = -T \log Z$$

Modular Hamiltonian and modular flow

For a thermal state in the canonical ensemble the density matrix on the full algebra of observables reads

$$\rho = \frac{e^{-\beta H}}{Z}, \quad Z \equiv \text{tr } e^{-\beta H}$$

where H is the Hamiltonian of the theory and β the inverse temperature. Then, the von Neumann entropy of ρ reads

$$S(\rho) = \beta(E - F), \quad E \equiv \langle H \rangle_\rho, \quad F = -T \log Z$$

so it coincides with the usual thermodynamic entropy.

Modular Hamiltonian and modular flow

Consider now a general density matrix. Since it is a positive operator, we can always write it as

$$\rho = \frac{e^{-K}}{\text{tr } e^{-K}}$$

where K is the **modular Hamiltonian**.

Modular Hamiltonian and modular flow

Consider now a general density matrix. Since it is a positive operator, we can always write it as

$$\rho = \frac{e^{-K}}{\text{tr } e^{-K}}$$

where K is the **modular Hamiltonian**.

The von Neumann entropy can be thought of as the canonical entropy for an equilibrium state at temperature 1 for the “Hamiltonian” K .

Modular Hamiltonian and modular flow

Consider now a general density matrix. Since it is a positive operator, we can always write it as

$$\rho = \frac{e^{-K}}{\text{tr } e^{-K}}$$

where K is the **modular Hamiltonian**.

The von Neumann entropy can be thought of as the canonical entropy for an equilibrium state at temperature 1 for the “Hamiltonian” K . And since we have a Hamiltonian, we can define a notion of “time evolution”,

$$U(\tau) = \rho^{i\tau} \sim e^{-i\tau K}.$$

Modular Hamiltonian and modular flow

Consider now a general density matrix. Since it is a positive operator, we can always write it as

$$\rho = \frac{e^{-K}}{\text{tr } e^{-K}}$$

where K is the **modular Hamiltonian**.

The von Neumann entropy can be thought of as the canonical entropy for an equilibrium state at temperature 1 for the “Hamiltonian” K . And since we have a Hamiltonian, we can define a notion of “time evolution”,

$$U(\tau) = \rho^{i\tau} \sim e^{-i\tau K}.$$

The evolution of operators under this is called **modular flow**, $O(\tau) \equiv U(\tau)OU(-\tau)$,

Modular Hamiltonian and modular flow

Consider now a general density matrix. Since it is a positive operator, we can always write it as

$$\rho = \frac{e^{-K}}{\text{tr } e^{-K}}$$

where K is the **modular Hamiltonian**.

The von Neumann entropy can be thought of as the canonical entropy for an equilibrium state at temperature 1 for the “Hamiltonian” K . And since we have a Hamiltonian, we can define a notion of “time evolution”,

$$U(\tau) = \rho^{i\tau} \sim e^{-i\tau K}.$$

The evolution of operators under this is called **modular flow**, $O(\tau) \equiv U(\tau)OU(-\tau)$, which leaves expectation values invariant, $\text{tr}(\rho O(\tau)) = \text{tr}(\rho O)$.

Summary: modular Hamiltonian

- Any density matrix comes with an associated modular Hamiltonian, $\rho \equiv e^{-K} / \text{tr } e^{-K}$. The von Neumann entropy of ρ can be thought of as the canonical entropy for an equilibrium state at temperature 1 for such “Hamiltonian”.

Summary: modular Hamiltonian

- Any density matrix comes with an associated modular Hamiltonian, $\rho \equiv e^{-K} / \text{tr } e^{-K}$. The von Neumann entropy of ρ can be thought of as the canonical entropy for an equilibrium state at temperature 1 for such “Hamiltonian”.
- The time evolution associated to the modular Hamiltonian defines its associated modular flow, $U(\tau) \sim e^{-i\tau K}$. Expectation values are invariant under it.

A closer look?

- It is always possible to purify a given mixed state ρ_A by enlarging the original Hilbert space \mathcal{H}_A with a copy \mathcal{H}_B . In the tensor product, we can define a pure state $|\Omega\rangle$ so that $\rho_A = \text{tr}_B |\Omega\rangle \langle \Omega|$.

A closer look?

- It is always possible to purify a given mixed state ρ_A by enlarging the original Hilbert space \mathcal{H}_A with a copy \mathcal{H}_B . In the tensor product, we can define a pure state $|\Omega\rangle$ so that $\rho_A = \text{tr}_B |\Omega\rangle \langle \Omega|$.
- Provided all the eigenvalues of ρ_A are non-vanishing, the purification defines: the modular operator $\Delta = \rho_A \otimes \rho_B^{-1}$, and the modular conjugation J , which maps the algebra \mathcal{A}_A into its commutant \mathcal{A}_B .

A closer look?

- It is always possible to purify a given mixed state ρ_A by enlarging the original Hilbert space \mathcal{H}_A with a copy \mathcal{H}_B . In the tensor product, we can define a pure state $|\Omega\rangle$ so that $\rho_A = \text{tr}_B |\Omega\rangle \langle \Omega|$.
- Provided all the eigenvalues of ρ_A are non-vanishing, the purification defines: the modular operator $\Delta = \rho_A \otimes \rho_B^{-1}$, and the modular conjugation J , which maps the algebra \mathcal{A}_A into its commutant \mathcal{A}_B .
- The modular flow intrinsic to the original algebra $\rho_A^{i\tau}$ can be extended to the purification by $U(\tau) = \Delta^{i\tau}$, which satisfies $U(\tau)\mathcal{A}_A U(-\tau) = \mathcal{A}_A$, $U(\tau)\mathcal{A}_B U(-\tau) = \mathcal{A}_B$.

Relative Entropy

Given two states ω_1, ω_2 and a single algebra \mathcal{A} , their **relative entropy** reads (where $\rho_i \equiv \rho_{\omega_i, \mathcal{A}}$):

$$S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) \equiv \text{tr}(\rho_1 \log \rho_1 - \rho_1 \log \rho_2),$$

Relative Entropy

Given two states ω_1, ω_2 and a single algebra \mathcal{A} , their **relative entropy** reads (where $\rho_i \equiv \rho_{\omega_i, \mathcal{A}}$):

$$S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) \equiv \text{tr}(\rho_1 \log \rho_1 - \rho_1 \log \rho_2),$$

- Asymmetry:

$$S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) \neq S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_2|\rho_1)$$

Relative Entropy

Given two states ω_1, ω_2 and a single algebra \mathcal{A} , their **relative entropy** reads (where $\rho_i \equiv \rho_{\omega_i, \mathcal{A}}$):

$$S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) \equiv \text{tr}(\rho_1 \log \rho_1 - \rho_1 \log \rho_2),$$

- Asymmetry:

$$S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) \neq S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_2|\rho_1)$$

- Positive semi-definiteness:

$$S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) \geq 0 \text{ and } S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) = 0 \text{ iff } \rho_1 = \rho_2$$

Relative Entropy

Given two states ω_1, ω_2 and a single algebra \mathcal{A} , their **relative entropy** reads (where $\rho_i \equiv \rho_{\omega_i, \mathcal{A}}$):

$$S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) \equiv \text{tr}(\rho_1 \log \rho_1 - \rho_1 \log \rho_2),$$

- Asymmetry:

$$S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) \neq S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_2|\rho_1)$$

- Positive semi-definiteness:

$$S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) \geq 0 \text{ and } S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) = 0 \text{ iff } \rho_1 = \rho_2$$

- Monotonicity under algebra inclusions:

$$S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_{\omega_1, \mathcal{A}}|\rho_{\omega_2, \mathcal{A}}) \leq S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_{\omega_1, \mathcal{B}}|\rho_{\omega_2, \mathcal{B}}) \quad \text{if } \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$$

Relative Entropy

Given two states ω_1, ω_2 and a single algebra \mathcal{A} , their **relative entropy** reads (where $\rho_i \equiv \rho_{\omega_i, \mathcal{A}}$):

$$S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) \equiv \text{tr}(\rho_1 \log \rho_1 - \rho_1 \log \rho_2),$$

- Asymmetry:

$$S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) \neq S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_2|\rho_1)$$

- Positive semi-definiteness:

$$S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) \geq 0 \text{ and } S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) = 0 \text{ iff } \rho_1 = \rho_2$$

- Monotonicity under algebra inclusions:

$$S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_{\omega_1, \mathcal{A}}|\rho_{\omega_2, \mathcal{A}}) \leq S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_{\omega_1, \mathcal{B}}|\rho_{\omega_2, \mathcal{B}}) \quad \text{if } \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$$

The relative entropy is a measure of distinguishability between some reference state and another.

Relative Entropy

Given two states ω_1, ω_2 and a single algebra \mathcal{A} , their **relative entropy** reads (where $\rho_i \equiv \rho_{\omega_i, \mathcal{A}}$):

$$S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) \equiv \text{tr}(\rho_1 \log \rho_1 - \rho_1 \log \rho_2),$$

- Asymmetry:

$$S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) \neq S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_2|\rho_1)$$

- Positive semi-definiteness:

$$S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) \geq 0 \text{ and } S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) = 0 \text{ iff } \rho_1 = \rho_2$$

- Monotonicity under algebra inclusions:

$$S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_{\omega_1, \mathcal{A}}|\rho_{\omega_2, \mathcal{A}}) \leq S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_{\omega_1, \mathcal{B}}|\rho_{\omega_2, \mathcal{B}}) \quad \text{if } \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$$

The relative entropy is a measure of distinguishability between some reference state and another. The greater the algebra in which we are comparing the states, the more we can distinguish them.

Mutual Information

Given a state ω and two subsystems A, B with algebra $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_A \otimes \mathcal{A}_B$ we can define the **mutual information** (MI) between both algebras as

$$I(A, B) \equiv S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_{A \cup B} | \rho_A \otimes \rho_B)$$

Mutual Information

Given a state ω and two subsystems A, B with algebra $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_A \otimes \mathcal{A}_B$ we can define the **mutual information** (MI) between both algebras as

$$I(A, B) \equiv S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_{A \cup B} | \rho_A \otimes \rho_B) = S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) - S_{\text{EE}}(A \cup B)$$

Mutual Information

Given a state ω and two subsystems A, B with algebra $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_A \otimes \mathcal{A}_B$ we can define the **mutual information** (MI) between both algebras as

$$I(A, B) \equiv S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_{A \cup B} | \rho_A \otimes \rho_B) = S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) - S_{\text{EE}}(A \cup B) \geq 0$$

Mutual Information

Given a state ω and two subsystems A, B with algebra $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_A \otimes \mathcal{A}_B$ we can define the **mutual information** (MI) between both algebras as

$$I(A, B) \equiv S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_{A \cup B} | \rho_A \otimes \rho_B) = S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) - S_{\text{EE}}(A \cup B) \geq 0$$

where $\rho_{A \cup B} \equiv \rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}}$, $S_{\text{EE}}(A \cup B) \equiv S(\rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}})$.

Mutual Information

Given a state ω and two subsystems A, B with algebra $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_A \otimes \mathcal{A}_B$ we can define the **mutual information** (MI) between both algebras as

$$I(A, B) \equiv S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_{A \cup B} | \rho_A \otimes \rho_B) = S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) - S_{\text{EE}}(A \cup B) \geq 0$$

where $\rho_{A \cup B} \equiv \rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}}$, $S_{\text{EE}}(A \cup B) \equiv S(\rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}})$.

The mutual information measures correlations between the algebras \mathcal{A}_A and \mathcal{A}_B .

Mutual Information

Given a state ω and two subsystems A, B with algebra $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_A \otimes \mathcal{A}_B$ we can define the **mutual information** (MI) between both algebras as

$$I(A, B) \equiv S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_{A \cup B} | \rho_A \otimes \rho_B) = S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) - S_{\text{EE}}(A \cup B) \geq 0$$

where $\rho_{A \cup B} \equiv \rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}}$, $S_{\text{EE}}(A \cup B) \equiv S(\rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}})$.

The mutual information measures correlations between the algebras \mathcal{A}_A and \mathcal{A}_B .

- **Strong Subadditivity:** $I(A, B) \leq I(A, B \cup C)$

Mutual Information

Given a state ω and two subsystems A, B with algebra $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_A \otimes \mathcal{A}_B$ we can define the **mutual information** (MI) between both algebras as

$$I(A, B) \equiv S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_{A \cup B} | \rho_A \otimes \rho_B) = S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) - S_{\text{EE}}(A \cup B) \geq 0$$

where $\rho_{A \cup B} \equiv \rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}}$, $S_{\text{EE}}(A \cup B) \equiv S(\rho_{\omega, \mathcal{A}})$.

The mutual information measures correlations between the algebras \mathcal{A}_A and \mathcal{A}_B .

- **Strong Subadditivity:** $I(A, B) \leq I(A, B \cup C)$

The correlations between A and B are always smaller (or equal) than the correlations between A and any enlarged version of B .

Summary: relative entropy and mutual information

- Given two states represented by their density matrices ρ_1, ρ_2 in a single algebra, the relative entropy $S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) \equiv \text{tr}(\rho_1 \log \rho_1 - \rho_1 \log \rho_2)$ quantifies how distinguishable the states are in that algebra. The greater the algebra, the more we can distinguish them. The relative entropy is always positive except if the states are equal, in which case it vanishes.

Summary: relative entropy and mutual information

- Given two states represented by their density matrices ρ_1, ρ_2 in a single algebra, the relative entropy $S_{\text{rel}}(\rho_1|\rho_2) \equiv \text{tr}(\rho_1 \log \rho_1 - \rho_1 \log \rho_2)$ quantifies how distinguishable the states are in that algebra. The greater the algebra, the more we can distinguish them. The relative entropy is always positive except if the states are equal, in which case it vanishes.
- Given a global state and two algebras $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_A \otimes \mathcal{A}_B$, the mutual information $I(A, B) \equiv S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) - S_{\text{EE}}(A \cup B)$ quantifies the degree of entanglement shared by the algebras in such state. It is monotonically increasing under inclusions, $I(A, B) \leq I(A, B \cup C)$.

A closer look?

- ★ There exists many additional interesting and entanglement-related quantities (Rényi entropy, reflected entropy, negativity, entanglement of purification, etc.). Read about them and find out what makes them special/relevant.

Part II: Entanglement in QFT

Warm up

Warm up

- The fundamental objects in the standard approach to QFT are quantum fields $\Phi(x)$.

Warm up

- The fundamental objects in the standard approach to QFT are quantum fields $\Phi(x)$. Operators are defined by smearing them over spacetime regions with test functions, $\Phi[f] \equiv \int \Phi(x)f(x) d^4x$.

Warm up

- The fundamental objects in the standard approach to QFT are quantum fields $\Phi(x)$. Operators are defined by smearing them over spacetime regions with test functions, $\Phi[f] \equiv \int \Phi(x)f(x) d^4x$.
- The Hilbert space of states contains a special element, the vacuum $|\Omega\rangle$, which has minimal energy and from which the whole Hilbert space can be accessed by acting on it with linear combinations of products of operators.

Warm up

- The fundamental objects in the standard approach to QFT are quantum fields $\Phi(x)$. Operators are defined by smearing them over spacetime regions with test functions, $\Phi[f] \equiv \int \Phi(x) f(x) d^4x$.
- The Hilbert space of states contains a special element, the vacuum $|\Omega\rangle$, which has minimal energy and from which the whole Hilbert space can be accessed by acting on it with linear combinations of products of operators.
- Wightman's reconstruction theorem states that the full information about a QFT is encoded in its vacuum fluctuations:

$$\{\Phi(x), \mathcal{H}\} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \langle \Omega | \Phi(x_1) \cdots \Phi(x_n) | \Omega \rangle$$

Entanglement and QFT?

All this sounds great, but it does not seem to tell us much about the type of questions we would like to ask here, namely:

Entanglement and QFT?

All this sounds great, but it does not seem to tell us much about the type of questions we would like to ask here, namely:

- What are the natural subsystems in QFT?

Entanglement and QFT?

All this sounds great, but it does not seem to tell us much about the type of questions we would like to ask here, namely:

- What are the natural subsystems in QFT?
- How do we extend the notion of bipartition?

Entanglement and QFT?

All this sounds great, but it does not seem to tell us much about the type of questions we would like to ask here, namely:

- What are the natural subsystems in QFT?
- How do we extend the notion of bipartition?
- How is entanglement manifest?

Entanglement and QFT?

All this sounds great, but it does not seem to tell us much about the type of questions we would like to ask here, namely:

- What are the natural subsystems in QFT?
- How do we extend the notion of bipartition?
- How is entanglement manifest?
- How much entanglement is there?

Entanglement and QFT?

All this sounds great, but it does not seem to tell us much about the type of questions we would like to ask here, namely:

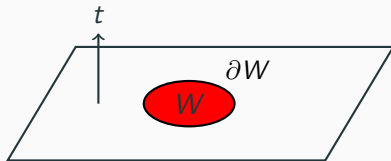
- What are the natural subsystems in QFT?
- How do we extend the notion of bipartition?
- How is entanglement manifest?
- How much entanglement is there?
- How do we quantify it?

The algebraic approach in QFT

In the **algebraic** or **Haag-Kastler** formulation of QFT, the fundamental objects are algebras of operators localized in spacetime regions:

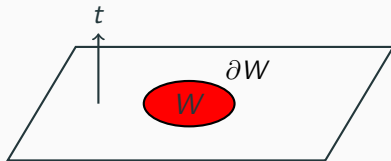
The algebraic approach in QFT

In the **algebraic** or **Haag-Kastler** formulation of QFT, the fundamental objects are algebras of operators localized in spacetime regions: for any region W , the operators with support in that region close an algebra $\mathcal{A}(W)$



The algebraic approach in QFT

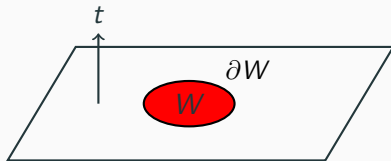
In the **algebraic** or **Haag-Kastler** formulation of QFT, the fundamental objects are algebras of operators localized in spacetime regions: for any region W , the operators with support in that region close an algebra $\mathcal{A}(W)$



No operators can be localized in the interface ∂W .

The algebraic approach in QFT

In the **algebraic** or **Haag-Kastler** formulation of QFT, the fundamental objects are algebras of operators localized in spacetime regions: for any region W , the operators with support in that region close an algebra $\mathcal{A}(W)$



No operators can be localized in the interface ∂W .

The “natural” subsystems in QFT are therefore spacetime regions.

Axioms for region algebras

Basic properties of region algebras (axioms):

Axioms for region algebras

Basic properties of region algebras (axioms):

Axioms for region algebras

Basic properties of region algebras (axioms):

- **Isotony:** Any operators localized in some region V are also localized in any larger region W that contains it.

$$V \subseteq W \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathcal{A}(V) \subseteq \mathcal{A}(W)$$

Axioms for region algebras

Basic properties of region algebras (axioms):

- **Isotony:** Any operators localized in some region V are also localized in any larger region W that contains it.

$$V \subseteq W \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathcal{A}(V) \subseteq \mathcal{A}(W)$$

- **Microcausality:** Operators localized in spacelike separated regions must commute.

Axioms for region algebras

Basic properties of region algebras (axioms):

- **Isotony:** Any operators localized in some region V are also localized in any larger region W that contains it.

$$V \subseteq W \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathcal{A}(V) \subseteq \mathcal{A}(W)$$

- **Microcausality:** Operators localized in spacelike separated regions must commute. Let V' be the causal complement of region V ,

$$V' = \{x \mid x \text{ spacelike to } y, \quad \forall y \in V\}.$$

Axioms for region algebras

Basic properties of region algebras (axioms):

- **Isotony:** Any operators localized in some region V are also localized in any larger region W that contains it.

$$V \subseteq W \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathcal{A}(V) \subseteq \mathcal{A}(W)$$

- **Microcausality:** Operators localized in spacelike separated regions must commute. Let V' be the causal complement of region V ,

$$V' = \{x \mid x \text{ spacelike to } y, \quad \forall y \in V\}.$$

Operators in V' must commute with operators in the algebra of V :

$$\mathcal{A}(V') \subseteq \mathcal{A}(V)'$$

Causal diamonds as fundamental regions

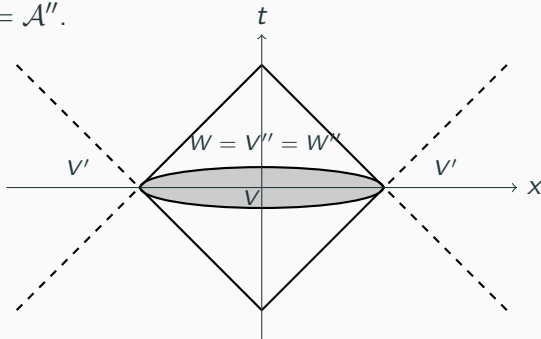
The fundamental regions are causal diamonds (domains of dependence of pieces of space-like regions, $W \equiv D(V)$).

Causal diamonds as fundamental regions

The fundamental regions are causal diamonds (domains of dependence of pieces of space-like regions, $W \equiv D(V)$). These are defined by $W = W''$,

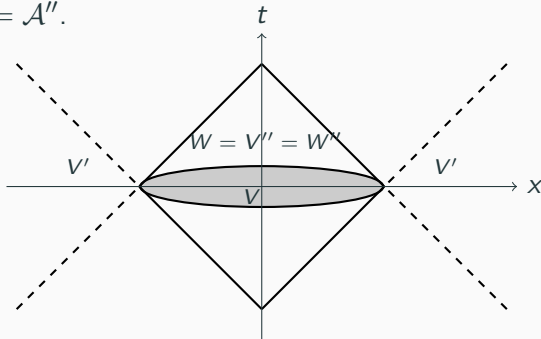
Causal diamonds as fundamental regions

The fundamental regions are causal diamonds (domains of dependence of pieces of space-like regions, $W \equiv D(V)$). These are defined by $W = W''$, \Leftrightarrow analogous to the property satisfied by von Neumann algebras, $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}''$.



Causal diamonds as fundamental regions

The fundamental regions are causal diamonds (domains of dependence of pieces of space-like regions, $W \equiv D(V)$). These are defined by $W = W''$, \Leftrightarrow analogous to the property satisfied by von Neumann algebras, $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}''$.



Causal diamonds are the minimal “physical laboratories” in which local quantum experiments could be performed: $\mathcal{A}(V) = \mathcal{A}(W)$

Haag duality

When the causality condition becomes equality, $\mathcal{A}(V') = \mathcal{A}(V)'$, for ball regions, the theory is said to satisfy **Haag duality**.

Haag duality

When the causality condition becomes equality, $\mathcal{A}(V') = \mathcal{A}(V)'$, for ball regions, the theory is said to satisfy **Haag duality**. This is a rather weak condition which holds for general QFTs.

When the causality condition becomes equality, $\mathcal{A}(V') = \mathcal{A}(V)'$, for ball regions, the theory is said to satisfy **Haag duality**. This is a rather weak condition which holds for general QFTs.

On the other hand, when it holds for arbitrary regions, the property is called simply **duality**.

When the causality condition becomes equality, $\mathcal{A}(V') = \mathcal{A}(V)'$, for ball regions, the theory is said to satisfy **Haag duality**. This is a rather weak condition which holds for general QFTs.

On the other hand, when it holds for arbitrary regions, the property is called simply **duality**. This takes place only for sufficiently “complete” theories...

Algebraic version of Wightman's theorem?

What distinguishes a particular QFT from another?

Algebraic version of Wightman's theorem?

What distinguishes a particular QFT from another? The information is not encoded in the algebras themselves, but in the relations between algebras (the way they intersect each other and share operators).

Algebraic version of Wightman's theorem?

What distinguishes a particular QFT from another? The information is not encoded in the algebras themselves, but in the relations between algebras (the way they intersect each other and share operators). The vacuum mutual information between spatially separated regions does this: it measures correlations between algebras.

Algebraic version of Wightman's theorem?

What distinguishes a particular QFT from another? The information is not encoded in the algebras themselves, but in the relations between algebras (the way they intersect each other and share operators). The vacuum mutual information between spatially separated regions does this: it measures correlations between algebras.

- Open question: is there an algebraic version of the Wightman reconstruction theorem?

Algebraic version of Wightman's theorem?

What distinguishes a particular QFT from another? The information is not encoded in the algebras themselves, but in the relations between algebras (the way they intersect each other and share operators). The vacuum mutual information between spatially separated regions does this: it measures correlations between algebras.

- Open question: is there an algebraic version of the Wightman reconstruction theorem? Can we reconstruct the full information about a QFT from the mutual information of subregions?

$$\{\mathcal{A}(W), \mathcal{H}\} \Leftrightarrow I(V, W)$$

Summary: the algebraic approach to QFT

- In the algebraic approach, the fundamental objects are region algebras. Spacetime regions are the natural subsystems in QFT.

Summary: the algebraic approach to QFT

- In the algebraic approach, the fundamental objects are region algebras. Spacetime regions are the natural subsystems in QFT.
- If region V is contained in region W , the algebra of V is contained in the algebra of W . Operators in the causal complement of V commute with operators in V : $\mathcal{A}(V') \subseteq \mathcal{A}(V)'$.

Summary: the algebraic approach to QFT

- In the algebraic approach, the fundamental objects are region algebras. Spacetime regions are the natural subsystems in QFT.
- If region V is contained in region W , the algebra of V is contained in the algebra of W . Operators in the causal complement of V commute with operators in V : $\mathcal{A}(V') \subseteq \mathcal{A}(V)'$.
- Only sufficiently “complete” theories satisfy $\mathcal{A}(V') = \mathcal{A}(V)'$ for arbitrary regions V .

Summary: the algebraic approach to QFT

- In the algebraic approach, the fundamental objects are region algebras. Spacetime regions are the natural subsystems in QFT.
- If region V is contained in region W , the algebra of V is contained in the algebra of W . Operators in the causal complement of V commute with operators in V : $\mathcal{A}(V') \subseteq \mathcal{A}(V)'$.
- Only sufficiently “complete” theories satisfy $\mathcal{A}(V') = \mathcal{A}(V)'$ for arbitrary regions V .
- An algebraic reconstruction theorem?

$$\{\mathcal{A}(W), \mathcal{H}\} \Leftrightarrow I(V, W)$$

A closer look?

- ★ Read about the interplay between violations of the duality relation for regions with non-trivial topology and superselection sectors

[More in Casini's lectures]

The Reeh-Schlieder theorem

By construction, we can reach any state in the Hilbert space \mathcal{H} by acting on the vacuum $|\Omega\rangle$ with general linear combinations and products of operators.

The Reeh-Schlieder theorem

By construction, we can reach any state in the Hilbert space \mathcal{H} by acting on the vacuum $|\Omega\rangle$ with general linear combinations and products of operators.

Reeh-Schlieder theorem: We can reach any state in the Hilbert space \mathcal{H} by acting on the vacuum state $|\Omega\rangle$ with general linear combinations and products of operators with support in any region algebra, **regardless of how small the spacetime region is!**

The Reeh-Schlieder theorem

By construction, we can reach any state in the Hilbert space \mathcal{H} by acting on the vacuum $|\Omega\rangle$ with general linear combinations and products of operators.

Reeh-Schlieder theorem: We can reach any state in the Hilbert space \mathcal{H} by acting on the vacuum state $|\Omega\rangle$ with general linear combinations and products of operators with support in any region algebra, **regardless of how small the spacetime region is!**

The theorem follows from the analyticity properties of vacuum correlation functions, which in turn result from the positivity of energy, Lorentz invariance, and locality.

The Reeh-Schlieder theorem

Consider creating a peanut in Andromeda by acting with local operators supported in this room...

The Reeh-Schlieder theorem

Consider creating a peanut in Andromeda by acting with local operators supported in this room...

Let P be the “peanut operator”, supported in Andromeda and such that $\langle \psi | P | \psi \rangle \approx 0$ for states which do not contain a peanut in Andromeda,

The Reeh-Schlieder theorem

Consider creating a peanut in Andromeda by acting with local operators supported in this room...

Let P be the “peanut operator”, supported in Andromeda and such that $\langle \psi | P | \psi \rangle \approx 0$ for states which do not contain a peanut in Andromeda, and $\langle \psi | P | \psi \rangle \approx 1$ for states which do.

The Reeh-Schlieder theorem

Consider creating a peanut in Andromeda by acting with local operators supported in this room...

Let P be the “peanut operator”, supported in Andromeda and such that $\langle \psi | P | \psi \rangle \approx 0$ for states which do not contain a peanut in Andromeda, and $\langle \psi | P | \psi \rangle \approx 1$ for states which do. In the vacuum state $\langle \Omega | P | \Omega \rangle \approx 0$ (no peanuts in Andromeda in the vacuum state).

The Reeh-Schlieder theorem

Consider creating a peanut in Andromeda by acting with local operators supported in this room...

Let P be the “peanut operator”, supported in Andromeda and such that $\langle \psi | P | \psi \rangle \approx 0$ for states which do not contain a peanut in Andromeda, and $\langle \psi | P | \psi \rangle \approx 1$ for states which do. In the vacuum state $\langle \Omega | P | \Omega \rangle \approx 0$ (no peanuts in Andromeda in the vacuum state).

According to R.S. theorem, \exists some operator a with support in this room such that

$$\langle a\Omega | P | a\Omega \rangle \approx 1$$

namely, such that in that state there is a peanut in Andromeda.

The Reeh-Schlieder theorem

Since a and P have support in space-like separated regions, they commute, so

$$\langle a\Omega|P|a\Omega\rangle = \langle\Omega|a^\dagger Pa|\Omega\rangle = \langle\Omega|Pa^\dagger a|\Omega\rangle \approx 1$$

The Reeh-Schlieder theorem

Since a and P have support in space-like separated regions, they commute, so

$$\langle a\Omega|P|a\Omega\rangle = \langle\Omega|a^\dagger Pa|\Omega\rangle = \langle\Omega|Pa^\dagger a|\Omega\rangle \approx 1$$

and at the same time we know that $\langle\Omega|P|\Omega\rangle \approx 0$.

The Reeh-Schlieder theorem

Since a and P have support in space-like separated regions, they commute, so

$$\langle a\Omega|P|a\Omega\rangle = \langle\Omega|a^\dagger Pa|\Omega\rangle = \langle\Omega|Pa^\dagger a|\Omega\rangle \approx 1$$

and at the same time we know that $\langle\Omega|P|\Omega\rangle \approx 0$.

This may look a bit weird, but it is fine. It is just that a cannot be a unitary operator (such that $a^\dagger a = 1$).

The Reeh-Schlieder theorem

Since a and P have support in space-like separated regions, they commute, so

$$\langle a\Omega|P|a\Omega\rangle = \langle\Omega|a^\dagger Pa|\Omega\rangle = \langle\Omega|Pa^\dagger a|\Omega\rangle \approx 1$$

and at the same time we know that $\langle\Omega|P|\Omega\rangle \approx 0$.

This may look a bit weird, but it is fine. It is just that a cannot be a unitary operator (such that $a^\dagger a = 1$). Physically, we can only act with unitary operators, so this is not possible in practice...

The Reeh-Schlieder theorem

Since a and P have support in space-like separated regions, they commute, so

$$\langle a\Omega|P|a\Omega\rangle = \langle\Omega|a^\dagger Pa|\Omega\rangle = \langle\Omega|Pa^\dagger a|\Omega\rangle \approx 1$$

and at the same time we know that $\langle\Omega|P|\Omega\rangle \approx 0$.

This may look a bit weird, but it is fine. It is just that a cannot be a unitary operator (such that $a^\dagger a = 1$). Physically, we can only act with unitary operators, so this is not possible in practice...

However, it makes manifest the existence of strong non-local quantum correlations in the vacuum state.

$$\langle\Omega|Pa^\dagger a|\Omega\rangle \neq \langle\Omega|P|\Omega\rangle \langle\Omega|a^\dagger a|\Omega\rangle \Leftrightarrow \text{Manifest non-separability}$$

Summary: Reeh-Schlieder theorem

- Any state of the Hilbert space can be approximated by acting with operators on the vacuum $|\Omega\rangle$.

Summary: Reeh-Schlieder theorem

- Any state of the Hilbert space can be approximated by acting with operators on the vacuum $|\Omega\rangle$.
- The Reeh-Schlieder theorem shows that, in fact, local operators with support in arbitrarily small regions can approximate any state, even those “localized” very far away from it.

Summary: Reeh-Schlieder theorem

- Any state of the Hilbert space can be approximated by acting with operators on the vacuum $|\Omega\rangle$.
- The Reeh-Schlieder theorem shows that, in fact, local operators with support in arbitrarily small regions can approximate any state, even those “localized” very far away from it.
- The theorem makes manifest the existence of strong non-local quantum correlations in the vacuum state.

A closer look?

- ★ Read about the notions of “cyclic” and “separating” states and their connection with the R.S. theorem.
- ★ Read about the issues that arise with the notion of “localized states” as a consequence of the R.S. theorem and the role played by “nuclearity conditions”.

(No) Hilbert space factorization

Consider two space-like separated regions W and W' .

(No) Hilbert space factorization

Consider two space-like separated regions W and W' . If the Hilbert space factorized as $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_W \otimes \mathcal{H}_{W'}$, there would exist separable states of the form $|\Phi\rangle_W \otimes |\Phi\rangle_{W'}$.

(No) Hilbert space factorization

Consider two space-like separated regions W and W' . If the Hilbert space factorized as $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_W \otimes \mathcal{H}_{W'}$, there would exist separable states of the form $|\Phi\rangle_W \otimes |\Phi\rangle_{W'}$. For such states, the connected correlation function of two operators living in W and W' respectively would vanish

$$\langle \mathcal{O}_W \mathcal{O}_{W'} \rangle_c \equiv \langle \mathcal{O}_W \mathcal{O}_{W'} \rangle - \langle \mathcal{O}_W \rangle \langle \mathcal{O}_{W'} \rangle = 0$$

(No) Hilbert space factorization

Consider two space-like separated regions W and W' . If the Hilbert space factorized as $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_W \otimes \mathcal{H}_{W'}$, there would exist separable states of the form $|\Phi\rangle_W \otimes |\Phi\rangle_{W'}$. For such states, the connected correlation function of two operators living in W and W' respectively would vanish

$$\langle \mathcal{O}_W \mathcal{O}_{W'} \rangle_c \equiv \langle \mathcal{O}_W \mathcal{O}_{W'} \rangle - \langle \mathcal{O}_W \rangle \langle \mathcal{O}_{W'} \rangle = 0$$

However, we know that such correlation function diverges in general in the vacuum state as both operators approach the same point in ∂W .

(No) Hilbert space factorization

Consider two space-like separated regions W and W' . If the Hilbert space factorized as $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_W \otimes \mathcal{H}_{W'}$, there would exist separable states of the form $|\Phi\rangle_W \otimes |\Phi\rangle_{W'}$. For such states, the connected correlation function of two operators living in W and W' respectively would vanish

$$\langle \mathcal{O}_W \mathcal{O}_{W'} \rangle_c \equiv \langle \mathcal{O}_W \mathcal{O}_{W'} \rangle - \langle \mathcal{O}_W \rangle \langle \mathcal{O}_{W'} \rangle = 0$$

However, we know that such correlation function diverges in general in the vacuum state as both operators approach the same point in ∂W . Since all states look identical to the vacuum at short distances, this should be the case for all states.

(No) Hilbert space factorization

Consider two space-like separated regions W and W' . If the Hilbert space factorized as $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_W \otimes \mathcal{H}_{W'}$, there would exist separable states of the form $|\Phi\rangle_W \otimes |\Phi\rangle_{W'}$. For such states, the connected correlation function of two operators living in W and W' respectively would vanish

$$\langle \mathcal{O}_W \mathcal{O}_{W'} \rangle_c \equiv \langle \mathcal{O}_W \mathcal{O}_{W'} \rangle - \langle \mathcal{O}_W \rangle \langle \mathcal{O}_{W'} \rangle = 0$$

However, we know that such correlation function diverges in general in the vacuum state as both operators approach the same point in ∂W . Since all states look identical to the vacuum at short distances, this should be the case for all states. Hence, separable states cannot exist at all in a QFT.

(No) Hilbert space factorization

Consider two space-like separated regions W and W' . If the Hilbert space factorized as $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_W \otimes \mathcal{H}_{W'}$, there would exist separable states of the form $|\Phi\rangle_W \otimes |\Phi\rangle_{W'}$. For such states, the connected correlation function of two operators living in W and W' respectively would vanish

$$\langle \mathcal{O}_W \mathcal{O}_{W'} \rangle_c \equiv \langle \mathcal{O}_W \mathcal{O}_{W'} \rangle - \langle \mathcal{O}_W \rangle \langle \mathcal{O}_{W'} \rangle = 0$$

However, we know that such correlation function diverges in general in the vacuum state as both operators approach the same point in ∂W . Since all states look identical to the vacuum at short distances, this should be the case for all states. Hence, separable states cannot exist at all in a QFT.

The Hilbert space does not factorize across spacelike-separated regions,

$$\mathcal{H} \neq \mathcal{H}_W \otimes \mathcal{H}_{W'} \quad \text{in QFT}$$

Entanglement everywhere

It is impossible to perform “isolating” operations that remove the entanglement between any region and its spacelike complement.

Entanglement everywhere

It is impossible to perform “isolating” operations that remove the entanglement between any region and its spacelike complement. Any pure global state is necessarily mixed when restricted to both $\mathcal{A}(W)$ and $\mathcal{A}(W')$.

Entanglement everywhere

It is impossible to perform “isolating” operations that remove the entanglement between any region and its spacelike complement. Any pure global state is necessarily mixed when restricted to both $\mathcal{A}(W)$ and $\mathcal{A}(W')$. Every state is “intrinsically entangled” across bipartitions.

Entanglement everywhere

It is impossible to perform “isolating” operations that remove the entanglement between any region and its spacelike complement. Any pure global state is necessarily mixed when restricted to both $\mathcal{A}(W)$ and $\mathcal{A}(W')$. Every state is “intrinsically entangled” across bipartitions.

This is related to the peculiar nature of region algebras in QFT,

Entanglement everywhere

It is impossible to perform “isolating” operations that remove the entanglement between any region and its spacelike complement. Any pure global state is necessarily mixed when restricted to both $\mathcal{A}(W)$ and $\mathcal{A}(W')$. Every state is “intrinsically entangled” across bipartitions.

This is related to the peculiar nature of region algebras in QFT, which are **type-III von Neumann algebras** (for which all nonzero projections are infinite and equivalent),

Entanglement everywhere

It is impossible to perform “isolating” operations that remove the entanglement between any region and its spacelike complement. Any pure global state is necessarily mixed when restricted to both $\mathcal{A}(W)$ and $\mathcal{A}(W')$. Every state is “intrinsically entangled” across bipartitions.

This is related to the peculiar nature of region algebras in QFT, which are **type-III von Neumann algebras** (for which all nonzero projections are infinite and equivalent), and these have no pure states: all states are intrinsically mixed!

Entanglement everywhere

It is impossible to perform “isolating” operations that remove the entanglement between any region and its spacelike complement. Any pure global state is necessarily mixed when restricted to both $\mathcal{A}(W)$ and $\mathcal{A}(W')$. Every state is “intrinsically entangled” across bipartitions.

This is related to the peculiar nature of region algebras in QFT, which are **type-III von Neumann algebras** (for which all nonzero projections are infinite and equivalent), and these have no pure states: all states are intrinsically mixed! It is impossible to understand such mixed states in terms of mixtures of pure states...

Summary: intrinsic entanglement

Summary: intrinsic entanglement

- The vacuum is intrinsically entangled across any spatial bipartition. The algebras \mathcal{A}_A and \mathcal{A}_B are type-III von Neumann algebras, which have no pure states.

Summary: intrinsic entanglement

- The vacuum is intrinsically entangled across any spatial bipartition. The algebras \mathcal{A}_A and \mathcal{A}_B are type-III von Neumann algebras, which have no pure states.
- The Hilbert space does not factorize, $\mathcal{H} \neq \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$. If it did, there would exist separable states. All states look like the vacuum at short distances, so such states cannot exist.

Summary: intrinsic entanglement

- The vacuum is intrinsically entangled across any spatial bipartition. The algebras \mathcal{A}_A and \mathcal{A}_B are type-III von Neumann algebras, which have no pure states.
- The Hilbert space does not factorize, $\mathcal{H} \neq \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$. If it did, there would exist separable states. All states look like the vacuum at short distances, so such states cannot exist.
- Local reduced states are *always* mixed, they cannot be represented by standard density matrices (and cannot be interpreted as statistical mixtures of pure states). Entanglement is irreducible, it cannot be eliminated by local operations.

Summary: intrinsic entanglement

- The vacuum is intrinsically entangled across any spatial bipartition. The algebras \mathcal{A}_A and \mathcal{A}_B are type-III von Neumann algebras, which have no pure states.
- The Hilbert space does not factorize, $\mathcal{H} \neq \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$. If it did, there would exist separable states. All states look like the vacuum at short distances, so such states cannot exist.
- Local reduced states are *always* mixed, they cannot be represented by standard density matrices (and cannot be interpreted as statistical mixtures of pure states). Entanglement is irreducible, it cannot be eliminated by local operations.
- The information about the QFT is not in the algebras themselves (they are all isomorphic), but in their relations.

A closer look?

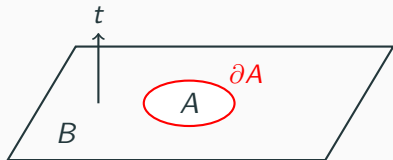
- ★ Read about the “split property” and how it helps define approximate notions of Hilbert space factorization in this context.
- ★ Read about the “Bisognano-Wichmann theorem” and how it hints at the type-III nature of region algebras in QFT.

A philosophical observation...

...despite its conservative way of dealing with physical principles, algebraic QFT leads to a radical change of paradigm. Instead of the Newtonian view of a space-time filled with a material content, one enters the reality of Leibniz created by relation (in particular inclusions) between “monads” (the hyperfinite type-III local von Neumann factors, which as single algebras are nearly void of physical meaning). (Schroer’98)

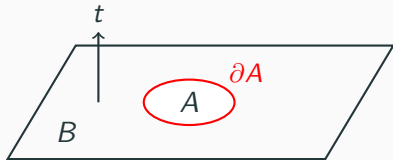
(No) entanglement entropy in QFT

Fix some time-slice Σ , divide it in two regions A and B :



(No) entanglement entropy in QFT

Fix some time-slice Σ , divide it in two regions A and B :

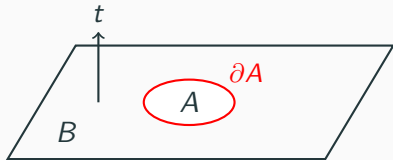


If the Hilbert space factorized, there would exist some state $|\psi\rangle$ such that $|\psi\rangle = |\phi\rangle_A \otimes |\tilde{\phi}\rangle_B$, which would imply

$$S_{\text{EE}}(A) = 0$$

(No) entanglement entropy in QFT

Fix some time-slice Σ , divide it in two regions A and B :

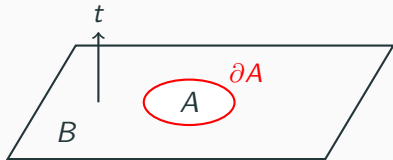


If the Hilbert space factorized, there would exist some state $|\psi\rangle$ such that $|\psi\rangle = |\phi\rangle_A \otimes |\tilde{\phi}\rangle_B$, which would imply

$$S_{\text{EE}}(A) = 0 \quad \Leftarrow \quad \text{this would require some kind of firewall in } \partial A$$

(No) entanglement entropy in QFT

Fix some time-slice Σ , divide it in two regions A and B :



If the Hilbert space factorized, there would exist some state $|\psi\rangle$ such that $|\psi\rangle = |\phi\rangle_A \otimes |\tilde{\phi}\rangle_B$, which would imply

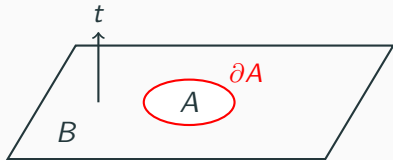
$$S_{\text{EE}}(A) = 0 \quad \Leftarrow \quad \text{this would require some kind of firewall in } \partial A$$

In QFT, the entanglement entropy of subregions is divergent in any state,

$$S_{\text{EE}}(A) = +\infty \quad \forall \text{ spatial bipartitions and } \forall \text{ states}$$

(No) entanglement entropy in QFT

Fix some time-slice Σ , divide it in two regions A and B :



If the Hilbert space factorized, there would exist some state $|\psi\rangle$ such that $|\psi\rangle = |\phi\rangle_A \otimes |\tilde{\phi}\rangle_B$, which would imply

$$S_{\text{EE}}(A) = 0 \quad \Leftarrow \quad \text{this would require some kind of firewall in } \partial A$$

In QFT, the entanglement entropy of subregions is divergent in any state,

$$S_{\text{EE}}(A) = +\infty \quad \forall \text{ spatial bipartitions and } \forall \text{ states}$$

There is infinite entanglement between any pair of adjacent regions.

A closer look?

- ★ Read about the firewalls proposal (and a putative breakdown of entanglement across the horizon) in the context of the black hole information paradox.

Part III: From the lattice to the continuum

QFTs from the lattice

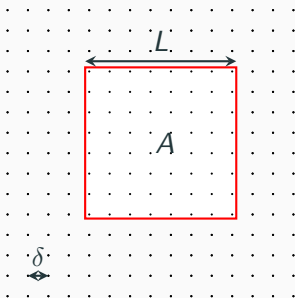
Sometimes it is possible to think of a QFT as the continuum limit of a discrete model.

QFTs from the lattice

Sometimes it is possible to think of a QFT as the continuum limit of a discrete model. In the limit in which the lattice spacing goes to zero (compared with the relevant physical scales) one would expect to reproduce whatever results may be well-defined in the continuum theory.

QFTs from the lattice

Sometimes it is possible to think of a QFT as the continuum limit of a discrete model. In the limit in which the lattice spacing goes to zero (compared with the relevant physical scales) one would expect to reproduce whatever results may be well-defined in the continuum theory. Such **universal** quantities should be independent of the particular regulator utilized



The “area-law” of entanglement entropy

From this perspective, the EE divergence can be understood as an infinite accumulation of correlations between pairs of entangled modes living at both sides of the interface ∂A as the continuum limit is approached.

The “area-law” of entanglement entropy

From this perspective, the EE divergence can be understood as an infinite accumulation of correlations between pairs of entangled modes living at both sides of the interface ∂A as the continuum limit is approached.

For any QFT one finds

$$S_{\text{EE}}(A) = c_0 \frac{\text{Area}(\partial A)}{\delta^{d-2}} + \dots$$

where δ is a “UV cutoff” (the lattice spacing) and c_0 is a non-universal constant.

The “area-law” of entanglement entropy

From this perspective, the EE divergence can be understood as an infinite accumulation of correlations between pairs of entangled modes living at both sides of the interface ∂A as the continuum limit is approached.

For any QFT one finds

$$S_{\text{EE}}(A) = c_0 \frac{\text{Area}(\partial A)}{\delta^{d-2}} + \dots$$

where δ is a “UV cutoff” (the lattice spacing) and c_0 is a non-universal constant.

This **area law** of EE holds in any state (any state looks like the vacuum at sufficiently short distances).

General structure of EE

Given a QFT_d and a smooth entangling region A , the EE takes the form

$$S_{\text{EE}}^{(d)} = b_{d-2} \frac{L^{d-2}}{\delta^{d-2}} + b_{d-4} \frac{L^{d-4}}{\delta^{d-4}} + \dots + \begin{cases} b_1 \frac{L}{\delta} + (-1)^{\frac{d-1}{2}} s^{\text{univ}}, & (\text{odd } d) \\ b_2 \frac{L^2}{\delta^2} + (-1)^{\frac{d-2}{2}} s^{\text{univ}} \log\left(\frac{L}{\delta}\right) + b_0, & (\text{even } d) \end{cases}$$

L is some characteristic length of A .

General structure of EE

Given a QFT_d and a smooth entangling region A , the EE takes the form

$$S_{\text{EE}}^{(d)} = b_{d-2} \frac{L^{d-2}}{\delta^{d-2}} + b_{d-4} \frac{L^{d-4}}{\delta^{d-4}} + \dots + \begin{cases} b_1 \frac{H}{\delta} + (-1)^{\frac{d-1}{2}} s^{\text{univ}}, & (\text{odd } d) \\ b_2 \frac{L^2}{\delta^2} + (-1)^{\frac{d-2}{2}} s^{\text{univ}} \log\left(\frac{L}{\delta}\right) + b_0, & (\text{even } d) \end{cases}$$

L is some characteristic length of A .

- Local (given by integrals of curvature invariants over ∂A)
- They depend exclusively on UV physics \Leftarrow state independent

General structure of EE

Given a QFT_d and a smooth entangling region A , the EE takes the form

$$S_{\text{EE}}^{(d)} = b_{d-2} \frac{L^{d-2}}{\delta^{d-2}} + b_{d-4} \frac{L^{d-4}}{\delta^{d-4}} + \dots + \begin{cases} b_1 \frac{H}{\delta} + (-1)^{\frac{d-1}{2}} s^{\text{univ}}, & (\text{odd } d) \\ b_2 \frac{L^2}{\delta^2} + (-1)^{\frac{d-2}{2}} s^{\text{univ}} \log\left(\frac{L}{\delta}\right) + b_0, & (\text{even } d) \end{cases}$$

L is some characteristic length of A .

- Local (given by integrals of curvature invariants over ∂A)
- They depend exclusively on UV physics \Leftarrow state independent
- Non-local (not given by integrals over ∂A , but rather depending on the whole A)
- They capture IR physics \Leftarrow state dependent

For CFTs, the only universal terms appear in s^{univ} .

For CFTs, the only universal terms appear in s^{univ} . These coefficients capture certain bits of information which characterise the corresponding theory.

For CFTs, the only universal terms appear in s^{univ} . These coefficients capture certain bits of information which characterise the corresponding theory.

For example, in $d = 2$ theories, for a single interval region of length L ,

$$S_{\text{EE}}^{(2)} = \frac{c}{3} \log \left(\frac{L}{\delta} \right) + b_0,$$

where c is the Virasoro central charge of the theory.

EE universal terms

More generally, in even dimensions the universal term is logarithmic and $\mathcal{S}^{\text{univ}}$ is given by a linear combination of local integrals over ∂V weighted by theory-dependent coefficients which can be shown to coincide with the trace-anomaly charges.

EE universal terms

More generally, in even dimensions the universal term is logarithmic and s^{univ} is given by a linear combination of local integrals over ∂V weighted by theory-dependent coefficients which can be shown to coincide with the trace-anomaly charges.

For instance, in $d = 4$:

$$\langle T_{\mu}^{\mu} \rangle = -\frac{a}{16\pi^2} \mathcal{X}_4 + \frac{c}{16\pi^2} C_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} C^{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}$$

EE universal terms

More generally, in even dimensions the universal term is logarithmic and S^{univ} is given by a linear combination of local integrals over ∂V weighted by theory-dependent coefficients which can be shown to coincide with the trace-anomaly charges.

For instance, in $d = 4$:

$$\langle T^\mu_\mu \rangle = -\frac{a}{16\pi^2} \mathcal{X}_4 + \frac{c}{16\pi^2} C_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} C^{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}$$

and

$$S_{\text{EE}}^{(4)} = b_2 \frac{H^2}{\delta^2} - \left[\frac{a}{2\pi} \int_{\partial V} \mathcal{R} + \frac{c}{2\pi} \int_{\partial V} \left(\text{tr} k^2 - \frac{1}{2} k^2 \right) \right] \log \left(\frac{H}{\delta} \right) + b_0.$$

EE universal terms

More generally, in even dimensions the universal term is logarithmic and S^{univ} is given by a linear combination of local integrals over ∂V weighted by theory-dependent coefficients which can be shown to coincide with the trace-anomaly charges.

For instance, in $d = 4$:

$$\langle T^\mu_\mu \rangle = -\frac{a}{16\pi^2} \mathcal{X}_4 + \frac{c}{16\pi^2} C_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} C^{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}$$

and

$$S_{\text{EE}}^{(4)} = b_2 \frac{H^2}{\delta^2} - \left[\frac{a}{2\pi} \int_{\partial V} \mathcal{R} + \frac{c}{2\pi} \int_{\partial V} \left(\text{tr} k^2 - \frac{1}{2} k^2 \right) \right] \log \left(\frac{H}{\delta} \right) + b_0.$$

The dependence on the geometric details of the entangling-surface and on the CFT considered appear highly “disentangled” from each other.

EE universal terms

More generally, in even dimensions the universal term is logarithmic and $\mathcal{S}^{\text{univ}}$ is given by a linear combination of local integrals over ∂V weighted by theory-dependent coefficients which can be shown to coincide with the trace-anomaly charges.

For instance, in $d = 4$:

$$\langle T_{\mu}^{\mu} \rangle = -\frac{a}{16\pi^2} \mathcal{X}_4 + \frac{c}{16\pi^2} C_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} C^{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}$$

and

$$\mathcal{S}_{\text{EE}}^{(4)} = b_2 \frac{H^2}{\delta^2} - \left[\frac{a}{2\pi} \int_{\partial V} \mathcal{R} + \frac{c}{2\pi} \int_{\partial V} \left(\text{tr} k^2 - \frac{1}{2} k^2 \right) \right] \log \left(\frac{H}{\delta} \right) + b_0.$$

The dependence on the geometric details of the entangling-surface and on the CFT considered appear highly “disentangled” from each other.

Similar story in $d = 6, 8, \dots$

EE universal terms

In odd dimensions, no logarithmic term is present for smooth entangling surfaces and the universal contribution is a constant term

EE universal terms

In odd dimensions, no logarithmic term is present for smooth entangling surfaces and the universal contribution is a constant term which no longer corresponds to an integral over ∂V . (Also, there is no trace anomaly)

EE universal terms

In odd dimensions, no logarithmic term is present for smooth entangling surfaces and the universal contribution is a constant term which no longer corresponds to an integral over ∂V . (Also, there is no trace anomaly)

Simplest case corresponds to $d = 3$ CFTs, for which

$$S_{\text{EE}}^{(3)} = b_1 \frac{H}{\delta} - F(V).$$

EE universal terms

In odd dimensions, no logarithmic term is present for smooth entangling surfaces and the universal contribution is a constant term which no longer corresponds to an integral over ∂V . (Also, there is no trace anomaly)

Simplest case corresponds to $d = 3$ CFTs, for which

$$S_{\text{EE}}^{(3)} = b_1 \frac{H}{\delta} - F(V).$$

For a round ball region \mathbb{B}^2 , the universal term equals the Euclidean free energy of the corresponding theory on \mathbb{S}^3 , $F(\mathbb{B}^2) = -\log Z_{\mathbb{S}^3}$.

EE universal terms

In odd dimensions, no logarithmic term is present for smooth entangling surfaces and the universal contribution is a constant term which no longer corresponds to an integral over ∂V . (Also, there is no trace anomaly)

Simplest case corresponds to $d = 3$ CFTs, for which

$$S_{\text{EE}}^{(3)} = b_1 \frac{H}{\delta} - F(V).$$

For a round ball region \mathbb{B}^2 , the universal term equals the Euclidean free energy of the corresponding theory on \mathbb{S}^3 , $F(\mathbb{B}^2) = -\log Z_{\mathbb{S}^3}$.

In F , the dependence on the geometric details of V and the dependence on the details of the CFT are no longer disentangled from each other.

EE universal terms

In odd dimensions, no logarithmic term is present for smooth entangling surfaces and the universal contribution is a constant term which no longer corresponds to an integral over ∂V . (Also, there is no trace anomaly)

Simplest case corresponds to $d = 3$ CFTs, for which

$$S_{\text{EE}}^{(3)} = b_1 \frac{H}{\delta} - F(V).$$

For a round ball region \mathbb{B}^2 , the universal term equals the Euclidean free energy of the corresponding theory on \mathbb{S}^3 , $F(\mathbb{B}^2) = -\log Z_{\mathbb{S}^3}$.

In F , the dependence on the geometric details of V and the dependence on the details of the CFT are no longer disentangled from each other.

Similar story in $d = 5, 7, \dots$

Summary: entanglement entropy in QFT

Summary: entanglement entropy in QFT

- The EE is divergent in any state of any QFT for any bipartition.

Summary: entanglement entropy in QFT

- The EE is divergent in any state of any QFT for any bipartition.
- From a lattice perspective, this can be understood as an infinite accumulation of correlations between pairs of entangled modes at both sides of ∂A . The leading term in a regulated expansion of EE is always proportional to the area of ∂A .

Summary: entanglement entropy in QFT

- The EE is divergent in any state of any QFT for any bipartition.
- From a lattice perspective, this can be understood as an infinite accumulation of correlations between pairs of entangled modes at both sides of ∂A . The leading term in a regulated expansion of EE is always proportional to the area of ∂A .
- Certain terms in such expansions are independent of the way we regulate the theory and capture information about the continuum theory.

A closer look?

- ★ Read about the explicit dependence of the universal terms on the geometry of the entangling region and the theory under consideration.

A closer look?

- ★ Read about the explicit dependence of the universal terms on the geometry of the entangling region and the theory under consideration. You can read about the “Mezei formula” which allows one to extract the stress tensor two-point function charge C_T from the EE of slightly deformed disks,

A closer look?

- ★ Read about the explicit dependence of the universal terms on the geometry of the entangling region and the theory under consideration. You can read about the “Mezei formula” which allows one to extract the stress tensor two-point function charge C_T from the EE of slightly deformed disks, and also about the effects of introducing geometric singularities (like corners) in ∂V and how those modify the structure of divergences and universal terms.

A closer look?

- ★ Read about the explicit dependence of the universal terms on the geometry of the entangling region and the theory under consideration. You can read about the “Mezei formula” which allows one to extract the stress tensor two-point function charge C_T from the EE of slightly deformed disks, and also about the effects of introducing geometric singularities (like corners) in ∂V and how those modify the structure of divergences and universal terms. You can also read about the existing general universal bounds on s^{univ} as a function of the geometry of V .

[More in Moreno and Lasso's talks]

- ★ Read about the “Casini-Huerta-Myers” maps and the tools involved in the proof that $F(\mathbb{B}^{d-1}) = -\log Z_{\mathbb{S}^d}$.

Real time method for free fields in the lattice

The evaluation of (regulated) EE and related quantities is in general a very challenging problem in QFT.

Real time method for free fields in the lattice

The evaluation of (regulated) EE and related quantities is in general a very challenging problem in QFT. Roughly, we can divide the existing techniques in “Euclidean” and “Real-time” methods.

Real time method for free fields in the lattice

The evaluation of (regulated) EE and related quantities is in general a very challenging problem in QFT. Roughly, we can divide the existing techniques in “Euclidean” and “Real-time” methods.

Euclidean methods usually make use of an Euclidean path-integral representation of ρ_A .

Real time method for free fields in the lattice

The evaluation of (regulated) EE and related quantities is in general a very challenging problem in QFT. Roughly, we can divide the existing techniques in “Euclidean” and “Real-time” methods.

Euclidean methods usually make use of an Euclidean path-integral representation of ρ_A . On the other hand, in the real-time approach, one tries to obtain ρ_A in terms of correlators of the fundamental fields.

Real time method for free fields in the lattice

The evaluation of (regulated) EE and related quantities is in general a very challenging problem in QFT. Roughly, we can divide the existing techniques in “Euclidean” and “Real-time” methods.

Euclidean methods usually make use of an Euclidean path-integral representation of ρ_A . On the other hand, in the real-time approach, one tries to obtain ρ_A in terms of correlators of the fundamental fields.

Here I will give you a flavor of the second type of methods in the case of free fields in the lattice.

Real time method for free fields in the lattice

We start with a lattice version of the model and at the end we take the continuum limit.

Real time method for free fields in the lattice

We start with a lattice version of the model and at the end we take the continuum limit. The knowledge of all correlators inside A must be enough to determine the density matrix ρ_A .

Real time method for free fields in the lattice

We start with a lattice version of the model and at the end we take the continuum limit. The knowledge of all correlators inside A must be enough to determine the density matrix ρ_A . In the case of free fields, Wick's theorem implies that all correlators are reduced to two-point functions such as $X_{ij} \equiv \langle \phi_i \phi_j \rangle$.

Real time method for free fields in the lattice

We start with a lattice version of the model and at the end we take the continuum limit. The knowledge of all correlators inside A must be enough to determine the density matrix ρ_A . In the case of free fields, Wick's theorem implies that all correlators are reduced to two-point functions such as $X_{ij} \equiv \langle \phi_i \phi_j \rangle$.

Let us assume we know the form of the correlators inside A .

Real time method for free fields in the lattice

We start with a lattice version of the model and at the end we take the continuum limit. The knowledge of all correlators inside A must be enough to determine the density matrix ρ_A . In the case of free fields, Wick's theorem implies that all correlators are reduced to two-point functions such as $X_{ij} \equiv \langle \phi_i \phi_j \rangle$.

Let us assume we know the form of the correlators inside A . The idea is to consider a smart ansatz for the density matrix (a quadratic modular Hamiltonian)

Real time method for free fields in the lattice

We start with a lattice version of the model and at the end we take the continuum limit. The knowledge of all correlators inside A must be enough to determine the density matrix ρ_A . In the case of free fields, Wick's theorem implies that all correlators are reduced to two-point functions such as $X_{ij} \equiv \langle \phi_i \phi_j \rangle$.

Let us assume we know the form of the correlators inside A . The idea is to consider a smart ansatz for the density matrix (a quadratic modular Hamiltonian) and impose consistency between the known correlators X_{ij} and the result obtained using the ansatz, namely, $\text{tr}(\rho_A \phi_i \phi_j)$.

Real time method for free fields in the lattice

We start with a lattice version of the model and at the end we take the continuum limit. The knowledge of all correlators inside A must be enough to determine the density matrix ρ_A . In the case of free fields, Wick's theorem implies that all correlators are reduced to two-point functions such as $X_{ij} \equiv \langle \phi_i \phi_j \rangle$.

Let us assume we know the form of the correlators inside A . The idea is to consider a smart ansatz for the density matrix (a quadratic modular Hamiltonian) and impose consistency between the known correlators X_{ij} and the result obtained using the ansatz, namely, $\text{tr}(\rho_A \phi_i \phi_j)$. If the ansatz is suitable, it is possible to extract the eigenvalues of ρ_A in terms of the correlators.

Real time method for free fields in the lattice

We start with a lattice version of the model and at the end we take the continuum limit. The knowledge of all correlators inside A must be enough to determine the density matrix ρ_A . In the case of free fields, Wick's theorem implies that all correlators are reduced to two-point functions such as $X_{ij} \equiv \langle \phi_i \phi_j \rangle$.

Let us assume we know the form of the correlators inside A . The idea is to consider a smart ansatz for the density matrix (a quadratic modular Hamiltonian) and impose consistency between the known correlators X_{ij} and the result obtained using the ansatz, namely, $\text{tr}(\rho_A \phi_i \phi_j)$. If the ansatz is suitable, it is possible to extract the eigenvalues of ρ_A in terms of the correlators.

Once we have the eigenvalues of ρ_A , we can rewrite the EE in terms of the correlators using the usual formula ($S_{\text{EE}} = -\text{tr} \rho_A \log \rho_A$).

Free bosons

Consider a system of N scalar fields and momenta in a lattice.

Free bosons

Consider a system of N scalar fields and momenta in a lattice. By definition, they satisfying canonical commutation relations

$$[\phi_i, \pi_j] = i\delta_{ij}, \quad [\phi_i, \phi_j] = [\pi_i, \pi_j] = 0.$$

Free bosons

Consider a system of N scalar fields and momenta in a lattice. By definition, they satisfying canonical commutation relations

$$[\phi_i, \pi_j] = i\delta_{ij}, \quad [\phi_i, \phi_j] = [\pi_i, \pi_j] = 0.$$

Define the correlation functions associated to ρ_A as

$$\langle \phi_i \phi_j \rangle \equiv X_{ij}, \quad \langle \pi_i \pi_j \rangle \equiv P_{ij}, \quad \langle \phi_i \pi_j \rangle = \langle \pi_j \phi_i \rangle^* = \frac{i}{2} \delta_{ij}.$$

Free bosons

Consider a system of N scalar fields and momenta in a lattice. By definition, they satisfying canonical commutation relations

$$[\phi_i, \pi_j] = i\delta_{ij}, \quad [\phi_i, \phi_j] = [\pi_i, \pi_j] = 0.$$

Define the correlation functions associated to ρ_A as

$$\langle \phi_i \phi_j \rangle \equiv X_{ij}, \quad \langle \pi_i \pi_j \rangle \equiv P_{ij}, \quad \langle \phi_i \pi_j \rangle = \langle \pi_j \phi_i \rangle^* = \frac{i}{2} \delta_{ij}.$$

Free bosons

Consider a system of N scalar fields and momenta in a lattice. By definition, they satisfying canonical commutation relations

$$[\phi_i, \pi_j] = i\delta_{ij}, \quad [\phi_i, \phi_j] = [\pi_i, \pi_j] = 0.$$

Define the correlation functions associated to ρ_A as

$$\langle \phi_i \phi_j \rangle \equiv X_{ij}, \quad \langle \pi_i \pi_j \rangle \equiv P_{ij}, \quad \langle \phi_i \pi_j \rangle = \langle \pi_j \phi_i \rangle^* = \frac{i}{2} \delta_{ij}.$$

The ansatz for the density matrix reads

$$\rho_A = k e^{-\sum_A (M_{ij} \phi_i \phi_j + N_{ij} \pi_i \pi_j)}.$$

Free bosons

Consider a system of N scalar fields and momenta in a lattice. By definition, they satisfying canonical commutation relations

$$[\phi_i, \pi_j] = i\delta_{ij}, \quad [\phi_i, \phi_j] = [\pi_i, \pi_j] = 0.$$

Define the correlation functions associated to ρ_A as

$$\langle \phi_i \phi_j \rangle \equiv X_{ij}, \quad \langle \pi_i \pi_j \rangle \equiv P_{ij}, \quad \langle \phi_i \pi_j \rangle = \langle \pi_j \phi_i \rangle^* = \frac{i}{2} \delta_{ij}.$$

The ansatz for the density matrix reads

$$\rho_A = k e^{-\sum_A (M_{ij} \phi_i \phi_j + N_{ij} \pi_i \pi_j)}.$$

We can diagonalize it to obtain the eigenvalues of ρ_A in terms of M and N .

Free bosons

Consider a system of N scalar fields and momenta in a lattice. By definition, they satisfying canonical commutation relations

$$[\phi_i, \pi_j] = i\delta_{ij}, \quad [\phi_i, \phi_j] = [\pi_i, \pi_j] = 0.$$

Define the correlation functions associated to ρ_A as

$$\langle \phi_i \phi_j \rangle \equiv X_{ij}, \quad \langle \pi_i \pi_j \rangle \equiv P_{ij}, \quad \langle \phi_i \pi_j \rangle = \langle \pi_j \phi_i \rangle^* = \frac{i}{2} \delta_{ij}.$$

The ansatz for the density matrix reads

$$\rho_A = k e^{-\sum_A (M_{ij} \phi_i \phi_j + N_{ij} \pi_i \pi_j)}.$$

We can diagonalize it to obtain the eigenvalues of ρ_A in terms of M and N . Next, we impose the consistency relations, $X_{ij} = \text{tr}(\rho_A \phi_i \phi_j)$, etc.

Free bosons

The result is that the eigenvalues of ρ_A can be written in terms of the eigenvalues of the matrix $C_{ij} \equiv \left[\sqrt{XP} \right]_{ij}$.

Free bosons

The result is that the eigenvalues of ρ_A can be written in terms of the eigenvalues of the matrix $C_{ij} \equiv \left[\sqrt{XP} \right]_{ij}$. As a consequence, we can write the EE in terms of C_{ij} .

Free bosons

The result is that the eigenvalues of ρ_A can be written in terms of the eigenvalues of the matrix $C_{ij} \equiv \left[\sqrt{XP} \right]_{ij}$. As a consequence, we can write the EE in terms of C_{ij} . The result reads

$$S_{\text{EE}}(A) = \text{tr}[(C + 1/2) \log(C + 1/2) - (C - 1/2) \log(C - 1/2)],$$

Free bosons

The result is that the eigenvalues of ρ_A can be written in terms of the eigenvalues of the matrix $C_{ij} \equiv \left[\sqrt{XP} \right]_{ij}$. As a consequence, we can write the EE in terms of C_{ij} . The result reads

$$S_{\text{EE}}(A) = \text{tr}[(C + 1/2) \log(C + 1/2) - (C - 1/2) \log(C - 1/2)],$$

or in terms of the eigenvalues of C ,

$$S_{\text{EE}}(A) = \sum_k [(\lambda_k + 1/2) \log(\lambda_k + 1/2) - (\lambda_k - 1/2) \log(\lambda_k - 1/2)]$$

Free bosons

The result is that the eigenvalues of ρ_A can be written in terms of the eigenvalues of the matrix $C_{ij} \equiv \left[\sqrt{XP} \right]_{ij}$. As a consequence, we can write the EE in terms of C_{ij} . The result reads

$$S_{\text{EE}}(A) = \text{tr}[(C + 1/2) \log(C + 1/2) - (C - 1/2) \log(C - 1/2)],$$

or in terms of the eigenvalues of C ,

$$S_{\text{EE}}(A) = \sum_k [(\lambda_k + 1/2) \log(\lambda_k + 1/2) - (\lambda_k - 1/2) \log(\lambda_k - 1/2)]$$

The thing is that computing correlators like X_{ij} and P_{ij} (and consequently, C_{ij}) is usually something rather doable, so we can evaluate $S_{\text{EE}}(A)$ using the above formula once we know them.

Free fermions

The story is very similar for free fermions. In that case we start with N fields satisfying anticommutation relations

$$\{\psi_i, \psi_j^\dagger\} = \delta_{ij},$$

Free fermions

The story is very similar for free fermions. In that case we start with N fields satisfying anticommutation relations

$$\{\psi_i, \psi_j^\dagger\} = \delta_{ij},$$

and we define the correlators in the state ρ_A by

$$\langle \psi_i \psi_j^\dagger \rangle \equiv C_{ij}, \quad \langle \psi_i \psi_j \rangle = \langle \psi_i^\dagger \psi_j^\dagger \rangle = 0.$$

Free fermions

The story is very similar for free fermions. In that case we start with N fields satisfying anticommutation relations

$$\{\psi_i, \psi_j^\dagger\} = \delta_{ij},$$

and we define the correlators in the state ρ_A by

$$\langle \psi_i \psi_j^\dagger \rangle \equiv C_{ij}, \quad \langle \psi_i \psi_j \rangle = \langle \psi_i^\dagger \psi_j^\dagger \rangle = 0.$$

The density matrix ansatz is analogous,

$$\rho_A = k e^{-\sum_A H_{ij} \psi_i^\dagger \psi_j}$$

from which we can extract the eigenvalues of ρ_A as a function of H_{ij} .

Free fermions

The story is very similar for free fermions. In that case we start with N fields satisfying anticommutation relations

$$\{\psi_i, \psi_j^\dagger\} = \delta_{ij},$$

and we define the correlators in the state ρ_A by

$$\langle \psi_i \psi_j^\dagger \rangle \equiv C_{ij}, \quad \langle \psi_i \psi_j \rangle = \langle \psi_i^\dagger \psi_j^\dagger \rangle = 0.$$

The density matrix ansatz is analogous,

$$\rho_A = k e^{-\sum_A H_{ij} \psi_i^\dagger \psi_j}$$

from which we can extract the eigenvalues of ρ_A as a function of H_{ij} .

Using the consistency relations, the eigenvalues of ρ_A can be written in terms of the eigenvalues of C_{ij} , so we can write the EE in terms of the correlators matrix. The result is:

$$S_{\text{EE}}(A) = -\text{tr}[(1 - C) \log(1 - C) + C \log C]$$

Example: free fermion in $d = 2$



Consider a free fermion in $d = 2$, with A being a single interval of length L_A .

Example: free fermion in $d = 2$



Consider a free fermion in $d = 2$, with A being a single interval of length L_A . The lattice Hamiltonian reads

$$H_{\text{latt.}}^{\text{ferm.}} = -\frac{i}{2} \sum_j \left[\psi_j^\dagger \psi_{j+1} - \psi_{j+1}^\dagger \psi_j \right] ,$$

Example: free fermion in $d = 2$



Consider a free fermion in $d = 2$, with A being a single interval of length L_A . The lattice Hamiltonian reads

$$H_{\text{latt.}}^{\text{ferm.}} = -\frac{i}{2} \sum_j \left[\psi_j^\dagger \psi_{j+1} - \psi_{j+1}^\dagger \psi_j \right] ,$$

The vacuum state correlators read

$$C_{jl} \equiv \langle \psi_j \psi_l^\dagger \rangle = \begin{cases} \frac{(-1)^{(j-l)} - 1}{2\pi i(j-l)} & j \neq l \\ \frac{1}{2} & j = l \end{cases} .$$

Example: free fermion in $d = 2$



Consider a free fermion in $d = 2$, with A being a single interval of length L_A . The lattice Hamiltonian reads

$$H_{\text{latt.}}^{\text{ferm.}} = -\frac{i}{2} \sum_j \left[\psi_j^\dagger \psi_{j+1} - \psi_{j+1}^\dagger \psi_j \right],$$

The vacuum state correlators read

$$C_{jl} \equiv \langle \psi_j \psi_l^\dagger \rangle = \begin{cases} \frac{(-1)^{(j-l)} - 1}{2\pi i(j-l)} & j \neq l \\ \frac{1}{2} & j = l \end{cases}.$$

For a general CFT_2 , the result for the EE of an interval reads

$$S_{\text{EE}}^{(2)} = \frac{c}{3} \log(L_A/\delta) + \mathcal{O}(\delta^0)$$

where c is the “Virasoro central charge” of the theory.

Example: free fermion in $d = 2$



Consider a free fermion in $d = 2$, with A being a single interval of length L_A . The lattice Hamiltonian reads

$$H_{\text{latt.}}^{\text{ferm.}} = -\frac{i}{2} \sum_j \left[\psi_j^\dagger \psi_{j+1} - \psi_{j+1}^\dagger \psi_j \right],$$

The vacuum state correlators read

$$C_{jl} \equiv \langle \psi_j \psi_l^\dagger \rangle = \begin{cases} \frac{(-1)^{(j-l)} - 1}{2\pi i(j-l)} & j \neq l \\ \frac{1}{2} & j = l \end{cases}.$$

For a general CFT_2 , the result for the EE of an interval reads

$$S_{\text{EE}}^{(2)} = \frac{c}{3} \log(L_A/\delta) + \mathcal{O}(\delta^0)$$

where c is the “Virasoro central charge” of the theory. In the case of the free fermion, $c = 1/2$.

Example: free fermion in $d = 2$



Consider a free fermion in $d = 2$, with A being a single interval of length L_A . The lattice Hamiltonian reads

$$H_{\text{latt.}}^{\text{ferm.}} = -\frac{i}{2} \sum_j \left[\psi_j^\dagger \psi_{j+1} - \psi_{j+1}^\dagger \psi_j \right],$$

The vacuum state correlators read

$$C_{jl} \equiv \langle \psi_j \psi_l^\dagger \rangle = \begin{cases} \frac{(-1)^{(j-l)} - 1}{2\pi i(j-l)} & j \neq l \\ \frac{1}{2} & j = l \end{cases}.$$

For a general CFT_2 , the result for the EE of an interval reads

$$S_{\text{EE}}^{(2)} = \frac{c}{3} \log(L_A/\delta) + \mathcal{O}(\delta^0)$$

where c is the “Virasoro central charge” of the theory. In the case of the free fermion, $c = 1/2$. So the coefficient of the logarithmic term is $1/6$.

Example: free fermion in $d = 2$

For technical reasons (“fermion doubling”), when performing lattice calculations for fermions in $d = 2$ one gets an extra factor of 2.

Example: free fermion in $d = 2$

For technical reasons (“fermion doubling”), when performing lattice calculations for fermions in $d = 2$ one gets an extra factor of 2. A small program in Mathematica yields perfect agreement:

```
In[258]:= c[x_] := If[x == 0, 1/2, N[((-1)^(x) - 1)/(2 Pi I x)]]
           |si                |valor numérico          |... |número i

In[259]:= entro[reg_] :=
  Module[{corr, v},
    |módulo
    corr = Table[c[reg[[i]] - reg[[j]]], {i, 1, Length[reg]}, {j, 1, Length[reg]};
           |tabla                |longitud          |longitud
    v = Re[Eigenvalues[corr]];
        |pa- |autovalores
    Re[-v.Log[v + 10^(-11)] - (1 - v).Log[1 - v - 10^(-11)]]
        |parte ... |logaritmo                |logaritmo

In[270]:= entropia = Table[entro[Table[j, {j, 1, i*10}]], {i, 1, 25}]
           |tabla                |tabla

Out[270]= {1.49342, 1.7246, 1.85978, 1.95568, 2.03007, 2.09084, 2.14223, 2.18674,
           2.226, 2.26112, 2.29289, 2.3219, 2.34858, 2.37328, 2.39628, 2.41779, 2.438,
           2.45705, 2.47507, 2.49217, 2.50844, 2.52394, 2.53876, 2.55295, 2.56655}

In[271]:= Fit[entropia, {Log[x], 1}, x]
           |ajusta                |logaritmo

Out[271]= 1.49351 + 0.333363 Log[x]
```


Summary: real time methods for free fields

Summary: real time methods for free fields

- There exist many different approaches which allow us to evaluate the EE of region algebras in certain cases.

Summary: real time methods for free fields

- There exist many different approaches which allow us to evaluate the EE of region algebras in certain cases.
- I have briefly explained one: the real-time method for free fields, which allows one to evaluate it in terms of expectation values of the fundamental fields, which are usually much easier to compute in explicit models (and particularly suitable for the lattice).

A closer look?

- ★ Write your own code (or use mine) for computing the EE of $d = 2$ free fermions in the lattice and try to reproduce the $c = 1/2$ result. Explore the dependence of the mutual information of pairs of intervals as a function of their distance using the same code.


The path to the continuum...

Feature	Survives?	What changes?/what replaces it?

The path to the continuum...

Feature	Survives?	What changes?/what replaces it?
Subsystem algebras		

The path to the continuum...

Feature	Survives?	What changes?/what replaces it?
Subsystem algebras		type-I algebras \implies type-III algebras

The path to the continuum...

Feature	Survives?	What changes?/what replaces it?
Subsystem algebras	✓	type-I algebras \implies type-III algebras
$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_{A'}$		

The path to the continuum...

Feature	Survives?	What changes?/what replaces it?
Subsystem algebras	✓	type-I algebras \implies type-III algebras
$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_{A'}$	✗	Split property

The path to the continuum...

Feature	Survives?	What changes?/what replaces it?
Subsystem algebras	✓	type-I algebras \implies type-III algebras
$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_{A'}$	✗	Split property
Complement = Commutant		

The path to the continuum...

Feature	Survives?	What changes?/what replaces it?
Subsystem algebras	✓	type-I algebras \implies type-III algebras
$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_{A'}$	✗	Split property
Complement = Commutant	⚠	For balls yes (Haag duality); for regions with non-trivial topology, not always

The path to the continuum...

Feature	Survives?	What changes?/what replaces it?
Subsystem algebras	✓	type-I algebras \implies type-III algebras
$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_{A'}$	✗	Split property
Complement = Commutant	⚠	For balls yes (Haag duality); for regions with non-trivial topology, not always
Partial trace density matrix ρ_A		

The path to the continuum...

Feature	Survives?	What changes?/what replaces it?
Subsystem algebras	✓	type-I algebras \implies type-III algebras
$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_{A'}$	✗	Split property
Complement = Commutant	⚠	For balls yes (Haag duality); for regions with non-trivial topology, not always
Partial trace density matrix ρ_A	✗	Closest surviving object \Rightarrow modular operator (continuum version of $\Delta = \rho_A \otimes \rho_{A'}^{-1}$)

The path to the continuum...

Feature	Survives?	What changes?/what replaces it?
Subsystem algebras	✓	type-I algebras \implies type-III algebras
$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_{A'}$	✗	Split property
Complement = Commutant	⚠	For balls yes (Haag duality); for regions with non-trivial topology, not always
Partial trace density matrix ρ_A	✗	Closest surviving object \Rightarrow modular operator (continuum version of $\Delta = \rho_A \otimes \rho_{A'}^{-1}$)
Modular Hamiltonian $K_A = -\log \rho_A$		


The path to the continuum...

Feature	Survives?	What changes?/what replaces it?
Subsystem algebras	✓	type-I algebras \implies type-III algebras
$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_{A'}$	✗	Split property
Complement = Commutant	⚠	For balls yes (Haag duality); for regions with non-trivial topology, not always
Partial trace density matrix ρ_A	✗	Closest surviving object \Rightarrow modular operator (continuum version of $\Delta = \rho_A \otimes \rho_{A'}^{-1}$)
Modular Hamiltonian $K_A = -\log \rho_A$	✗	Closest surviving object \Rightarrow full modular Hamiltonian (continuum version of $K_A \otimes \mathbb{I} - \mathbb{I} \otimes K_{A'}$)


The path to the continuum...

Feature	Survives?	What changes?/what replaces it?
Entanglement across sub-systems		

The path to the continuum...

Feature	Survives?	What changes?/what replaces it?
Entanglement across sub-systems		On steroids (unavoidable, structurally ingrained)

The path to the continuum...

Feature	Survives?	What changes?/what replaces it?
Entanglement across sub-systems		On steroids (unavoidable, structurally ingrained)
Entanglement entropy $S_{EE} = -\text{tr } \rho_A \log \rho_A$		

The path to the continuum...

Feature	Survives?	What changes?/what replaces it?
Entanglement across sub-systems	✓	On steroids (unavoidable, structurally ingrained)
Entanglement entropy $S_{EE} = -\text{tr } \rho_A \log \rho_A$	✗	Ill-defined. Divergent \forall state \forall bipartition. Using regulator \Rightarrow universal terms

The path to the continuum...

Feature	Survives?	What changes?/what replaces it?
Entanglement across sub-systems	✓	On steroids (unavoidable, structurally ingrained)
Entanglement entropy $S_{EE} = -\text{tr } \rho_A \log \rho_A$	✗	Ill-defined. Divergent \forall state \forall bipartition. Using regulator \Rightarrow universal terms
Relative entropy $S_{\text{rel}} = \text{tr}(\rho_1 \log \rho_1 - \rho_1 \log \rho_2)$		

The path to the continuum...

Feature	Survives?	What changes?/what replaces it?
Entanglement across sub-systems	✓	On steroids (unavoidable, structurally ingrained)
Entanglement entropy $S_{EE} = -\text{tr } \rho_A \log \rho_A$	✗	Ill-defined. Divergent \forall state \forall bipartition. Using regulator \Rightarrow universal terms
Relative entropy $S_{\text{rel}} = \text{tr}(\rho_1 \log \rho_1 - \rho_1 \log \rho_2)$	✓	Well defined (Araki). All states look the same at short distances, so all UV divergences cancel each other in the subtraction

The path to the continuum...

Feature	Survives?	What changes?/what replaces it?
Entanglement across sub-systems	✓	On steroids (unavoidable, structurally ingrained)
Entanglement entropy $S_{\text{EE}} = -\text{tr } \rho_A \log \rho_A$	✗	Ill-defined. Divergent \forall state \forall bipartition. Using regulator \Rightarrow universal terms
Relative entropy $S_{\text{rel}} = \text{tr}(\rho_1 \log \rho_1 - \rho_1 \log \rho_2)$	✓	Well defined (Araki). All states look the same at short distances, so all UV divergences cancel each other in the subtraction
Mutual information		

The path to the continuum...

Feature	Survives?	What changes?/what replaces it?
Entanglement across sub-systems	✓	On steroids (unavoidable, structurally ingrained)
Entanglement entropy $S_{\text{EE}} = -\text{tr } \rho_A \log \rho_A$	✗	Ill-defined. Divergent \forall state \forall bipartition. Using regulator \Rightarrow universal terms
Relative entropy $S_{\text{rel}} = \text{tr}(\rho_1 \log \rho_1 - \rho_1 \log \rho_2)$	✓	Well defined (Araki). All states look the same at short distances, so all UV divergences cancel each other in the subtraction
Mutual information	✓	Well defined (using relative entropy). Using regulated EE definition, all divergences cancel each other in the continuum limit

Part IV: QFT from entanglement

Mutual information in QFT

As opposed to the entanglement entropy, the mutual information of pairs of region algebras is well defined in a QFT.



Mutual information in QFT

As opposed to the entanglement entropy, the mutual information of pairs of region algebras is well defined in a QFT.



From the regulated theory point of view, all divergences appearing in

$$I(A, B) = S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) - S_{\text{EE}}(A \cup B)$$

exactly cancel each other in the continuum limit.

Mutual information in QFT

As opposed to the entanglement entropy, the mutual information of pairs of region algebras is well defined in a QFT.



From the regulated theory point of view, all divergences appearing in

$$I(A, B) = S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) - S_{\text{EE}}(A \cup B)$$

exactly cancel each other in the continuum limit.

Mutual information in QFT

As opposed to the entanglement entropy, the mutual information of pairs of region algebras is well defined in a QFT.



From the regulated theory point of view, all divergences appearing in

$$I(A, B) = S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) - S_{\text{EE}}(A \cup B)$$

exactly cancel each other in the continuum limit.

On the other hand, it can be rigorously defined directly in the continuum using its definition in terms of the relative entropy

Tripartite information in QFT

Generalization to three regions: **tripartite information**

$$\begin{aligned} I_3 &\equiv S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) + S_{\text{EE}}(C) - S_{\text{EE}}(AB) - S_{\text{EE}}(AC) - S_{\text{EE}}(BC) + S_{\text{EE}}(ABC) \\ &= I(A, B) + I(A, C) - I(A, BC) \end{aligned}$$

Tripartite information in QFT

Generalization to three regions: **tripartite information**

$$\begin{aligned} I_3 &\equiv S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) + S_{\text{EE}}(C) - S_{\text{EE}}(AB) - S_{\text{EE}}(AC) - S_{\text{EE}}(BC) + S_{\text{EE}}(ABC) \\ &= I(A, B) + I(A, C) - I(A, BC) \end{aligned}$$

It measures the non-extensivity of mutual information.

Tripartite information in QFT

Generalization to three regions: **tripartite information**

$$\begin{aligned} I_3 &\equiv S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) + S_{\text{EE}}(C) - S_{\text{EE}}(AB) - S_{\text{EE}}(AC) - S_{\text{EE}}(BC) + S_{\text{EE}}(ABC) \\ &= I(A, B) + I(A, C) - I(A, BC) \end{aligned}$$

It measures the non-extensivity of mutual information. It can have either sign:

Tripartite information in QFT

Generalization to three regions: **tripartite information**

$$\begin{aligned} I_3 &\equiv S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) + S_{\text{EE}}(C) - S_{\text{EE}}(AB) - S_{\text{EE}}(AC) - S_{\text{EE}}(BC) + S_{\text{EE}}(ABC) \\ &= I(A, B) + I(A, C) - I(A, BC) \end{aligned}$$

It measures the non-extensivity of mutual information. It can have either sign:

- $I_3 < 0 \Leftrightarrow$ “monogamous” mutual information:

Tripartite information in QFT

Generalization to three regions: **tripartite information**

$$\begin{aligned} I_3 &\equiv S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) + S_{\text{EE}}(C) - S_{\text{EE}}(AB) - S_{\text{EE}}(AC) - S_{\text{EE}}(BC) + S_{\text{EE}}(ABC) \\ &= I(A, B) + I(A, C) - I(A, BC) \end{aligned}$$

It measures the non-extensivity of mutual information. It can have either sign:

- $I_3 < 0 \Leftrightarrow$ “monogamous” mutual information: A shares less information with B and C individually than with the union $B \cup C$.

Tripartite information in QFT

Generalization to three regions: **tripartite information**

$$\begin{aligned} I_3 &\equiv S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) + S_{\text{EE}}(C) - S_{\text{EE}}(AB) - S_{\text{EE}}(AC) - S_{\text{EE}}(BC) + S_{\text{EE}}(ABC) \\ &= I(A, B) + I(A, C) - I(A, BC) \end{aligned}$$

It measures the non-extensivity of mutual information. It can have either sign:

- $I_3 < 0 \Leftrightarrow$ “monogamous” mutual information: A shares less information with B and C individually than with the union $B \cup C$.
e.g., holographic theories

Tripartite information in QFT

Generalization to three regions: **tripartite information**

$$\begin{aligned} I_3 &\equiv S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) + S_{\text{EE}}(C) - S_{\text{EE}}(AB) - S_{\text{EE}}(AC) - S_{\text{EE}}(BC) + S_{\text{EE}}(ABC) \\ &= I(A, B) + I(A, C) - I(A, BC) \end{aligned}$$

It measures the non-extensivity of mutual information. It can have either sign:

- $I_3 < 0 \Leftrightarrow$ “monogamous” mutual information: A shares less information with B and C individually than with the union $B \cup C$.
e.g., holographic theories
- $I_3 > 0 \Leftrightarrow$ “non-monogamous” mutual information: A shares more information with B and C individually than with the union $B \cup C$.

Tripartite information in QFT

Generalization to three regions: **tripartite information**

$$\begin{aligned} I_3 &\equiv S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) + S_{\text{EE}}(C) - S_{\text{EE}}(AB) - S_{\text{EE}}(AC) - S_{\text{EE}}(BC) + S_{\text{EE}}(ABC) \\ &= I(A, B) + I(A, C) - I(A, BC) \end{aligned}$$

It measures the non-extensivity of mutual information. It can have either sign:

- $I_3 < 0 \Leftrightarrow$ “monogamous” mutual information: A shares less information with B and C individually than with the union $B \cup C$.
e.g., holographic theories
- $I_3 > 0 \Leftrightarrow$ “non-monogamous” mutual information: A shares more information with B and C individually than with the union $B \cup C$.
e.g., free fields in $2 + 1$ dimensions

Tripartite information in QFT

Generalization to three regions: **tripartite information**

$$\begin{aligned} I_3 &\equiv S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) + S_{\text{EE}}(C) - S_{\text{EE}}(AB) - S_{\text{EE}}(AC) - S_{\text{EE}}(BC) + S_{\text{EE}}(ABC) \\ &= I(A, B) + I(A, C) - I(A, BC) \end{aligned}$$

It measures the non-extensivity of mutual information. It can have either sign:

- $I_3 < 0 \Leftrightarrow$ “monogamous” mutual information: A shares less information with B and C individually than with the union $B \cup C$.
e.g., holographic theories
- $I_3 > 0 \Leftrightarrow$ “non-monogamous” mutual information: A shares more information with B and C individually than with the union $B \cup C$.
e.g., free fields in $2 + 1$ dimensions
- $I_3 = 0 \Leftrightarrow$ “extensive” mutual information: the mutual information is additive (or extensive) as a function of its arguments

Tripartite information in QFT

Generalization to three regions: **tripartite information**

$$\begin{aligned} I_3 &\equiv S_{\text{EE}}(A) + S_{\text{EE}}(B) + S_{\text{EE}}(C) - S_{\text{EE}}(AB) - S_{\text{EE}}(AC) - S_{\text{EE}}(BC) + S_{\text{EE}}(ABC) \\ &= I(A, B) + I(A, C) - I(A, BC) \end{aligned}$$

It measures the non-extensivity of mutual information. It can have either sign:

- $I_3 < 0 \Leftrightarrow$ “monogamous” mutual information: A shares less information with B and C individually than with the union $B \cup C$.
e.g., holographic theories
- $I_3 > 0 \Leftrightarrow$ “non-monogamous” mutual information: A shares more information with B and C individually than with the union $B \cup C$.
e.g., free fields in $2 + 1$ dimensions
- $I_3 = 0 \Leftrightarrow$ “extensive” mutual information: the mutual information is additive (or extensive) as a function of its arguments
e.g., free fermions in $1 + 1$ dimensions

N -partite information in QFT

Generalization to N regions: N -partite information

N -partite information in QFT

Generalization to N regions: **N -partite information**

$$\begin{aligned} I_N(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_N) &\equiv - \sum_{\sigma} (-1)^{\#_{\sigma}} S_{\text{EE}}(\sigma), \quad \sigma \subset \{A_1, A_2, \dots\} \\ &= I_{N-1}(\star, A_{N-1}) + I_{N-1}(\star, A_N) - I_{N-1}(\star, A_{N-1} \cup A_N), \end{aligned}$$

where $\star \equiv A_1, \dots, A_{N-2}$. It measures the non-extensivity of I_{N-1} .

N -partite information in QFT

Generalization to N regions: **N -partite information**

$$\begin{aligned} I_N(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_N) &\equiv - \sum_{\sigma} (-1)^{\#_{\sigma}} S_{\text{EE}}(\sigma), \quad \sigma \subset \{A_1, A_2, \dots\} \\ &= I_{N-1}(\star, A_{N-1}) + I_{N-1}(\star, A_N) - I_{N-1}(\star, A_{N-1} \cup A_N), \end{aligned}$$

where $\star \equiv A_1, \dots, A_{N-2}$. It measures the non-extensivity of I_{N-1} .

It can have either sign in general.

Summary: N -partite information in QFT

Summary: N -partite information in QFT

- The MI for pairs of non-intersecting region algebras is well-defined in QFT. If we use a regulator, all the EE divergences cancel each other in the continuum limit.

Summary: N -partite information in QFT

- The MI for pairs of non-intersecting region algebras is well-defined in QFT. If we use a regulator, all the EE divergences cancel each other in the continuum limit.
- Using the MI as a building block, we can define associated multi-partite notions for an arbitrary number of regions as

$$I_N = I_{N-1}(\star, A_{N-1}) + I_{N-1}(\star, A_N) - I_{N-1}(\star, A_{N-1} \cup A_N) ,$$

$$\star \equiv A_1, \dots, A_{N-2}.$$

Quantum Field Theory from entanglement?

QFT formulations and reconstruction theorems

Formulation in terms of
quantum fields $\Phi(x)$



Vacuum expectation values
 $\langle \Omega | \Phi(x_1) \Phi(x_2) \cdots | \Omega \rangle$

Quantum Field Theory from entanglement?

QFT formulations and reconstruction theorems

Formulation in terms of
quantum fields $\Phi(x)$



Vacuum expectation values
 $\langle \Omega | \Phi(x_1) \Phi(x_2) \cdots | \Omega \rangle$

Formulation in terms of
algebras $\mathcal{A}(A)$

Quantum Field Theory from entanglement?

QFT formulations and reconstruction theorems

Formulation in terms of
quantum fields $\Phi(x)$



Vacuum expectation values
 $\langle \Omega | \Phi(x_1) \Phi(x_2) \cdots | \Omega \rangle$

Formulation in terms of
algebras $\mathcal{A}(A)$



Vacuum mutual informations
 $I(A, B)$

Quantum Field Theory from entanglement?

Is there a universal description of QFT in terms of vacuum mutual informations?

Quantum Field Theory from entanglement?

Is there a universal description of QFT in terms of vacuum mutual informations?



If so, what are the general axioms satisfied by $I(A, B)$?

Quantum Field Theory from entanglement?

Is there a universal description of QFT in terms of vacuum mutual informations?



If so, what are the general axioms satisfied by $I(A, B)$?



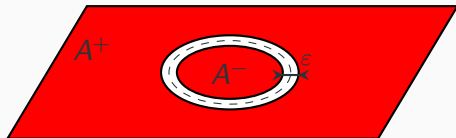
Given $I(A, B)$ for all regions, how do we reconstruct the theory?

Mutual information as a geometric regulator

The MI can be used as a **geometric regulator** of EE.

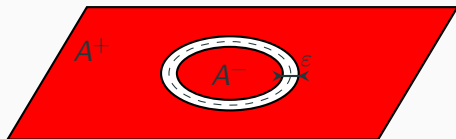
Mutual information as a geometric regulator

The MI can be used as a **geometric regulator** of EE. Given some region A , consider slightly smaller and greater versions of it A^- , \bar{A}^+



Mutual information as a geometric regulator

The MI can be used as a **geometric regulator** of EE. Given some region A , consider slightly smaller and greater versions of it A^- , \bar{A}^+



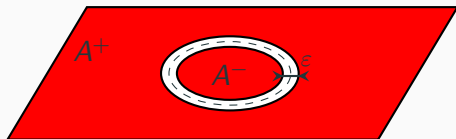
Then, the EE of A can be approximated as

$$S_{\text{EE}}^{(\varepsilon)}(A) \approx \frac{1}{2} I_{\varepsilon}(A^+, A^-), \quad (\varepsilon \ll L_A)$$

where the buffer zone width ε plays the role of UV regulator.

Mutual information as a geometric regulator

The MI can be used as a **geometric regulator** of EE. Given some region A , consider slightly smaller and greater versions of it A^- , \bar{A}^+



Then, the EE of A can be approximated as

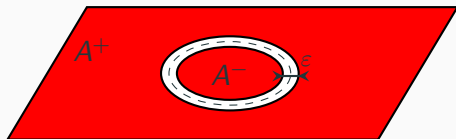
$$S_{\text{EE}}^{(\varepsilon)}(A) \approx \frac{1}{2} I_{\varepsilon}(A^+, A^-), \quad (\varepsilon \ll L_A)$$

where the buffer zone width ε plays the role of UV regulator.

All EE universal terms are robustly captured by the MI.

Mutual information as a geometric regulator

The MI can be used as a **geometric regulator** of EE. Given some region A , consider slightly smaller and greater versions of it A^- , \bar{A}^+



Then, the EE of A can be approximated as

$$S_{\text{EE}}^{(\varepsilon)}(A) \approx \frac{1}{2} I_{\varepsilon}(A^+, A^-), \quad (\varepsilon \ll L_A)$$

where the buffer zone width ε plays the role of UV regulator.

All EE universal terms are robustly captured by the MI. This is not just a technical curiosity: it becomes crucial in certain situations (e.g., for general odd-dimensional QFTs or for orbifold theories).

QFT from Mutual information

On the other hand, a systematic way of extracting **CFT data** (scaling dimensions and spins of primary operators + OPE coefficients)

QFT from Mutual information

On the other hand, a systematic way of extracting **CFT data** (scaling dimensions and spins of primary operators + OPE coefficients) can be engineered by considering long-distance expansions of MI for (hyper)spherical regions



QFT from Mutual information

On the other hand, a systematic way of extracting **CFT data** (scaling dimensions and spins of primary operators + OPE coefficients) can be engineered by considering long-distance expansions of MI for (hyper)spherical regions



On general grounds, the MI satisfies the bound

$$I(A, B) \geq \frac{1}{2} \frac{\langle \mathcal{O}_A \mathcal{O}_B \rangle_c^2}{\|\mathcal{O}_A\|^2 \|\mathcal{O}_B\|^2},$$

for any operators \mathcal{O}_A , \mathcal{O}_B supported in A and B , respectively.

QFT from Mutual information



For CFTs,

$$\langle \mathcal{O}_A \mathcal{O}_B \rangle \sim L^{-2\Delta}$$

QFT from Mutual information



For CFTs,

$$\langle \mathcal{O}_A \mathcal{O}_B \rangle \sim L^{-2\Delta} \quad \Rightarrow \quad I(A, B) \geq |\alpha| L^{-4\Delta}$$

QFT from Mutual information



For CFTs,

$$\langle \mathcal{O}_A \mathcal{O}_B \rangle \sim L^{-2\Delta} \quad \Rightarrow \quad I(A, B) \geq |\alpha| L^{-4\Delta}$$

where $\Delta \equiv$ lowest scaling dimension of the theory.

QFT from Mutual information



For CFTs,

$$\langle \mathcal{O}_A \mathcal{O}_B \rangle \sim L^{-2\Delta} \quad \Rightarrow \quad I(A, B) \geq |\alpha| L^{-4\Delta}$$

where $\Delta \equiv$ lowest scaling dimension of the theory.

This is actually saturated

$$I(A, B) = f(d, \Delta) \frac{R_A^{2\Delta} R_B^{2\Delta}}{L^{4\Delta}} + \dots$$

QFT from Mutual information



For CFTs,

$$\langle \mathcal{O}_A \mathcal{O}_B \rangle \sim L^{-2\Delta} \quad \Rightarrow \quad I(A, B) \geq |\alpha| L^{-4\Delta}$$

where $\Delta \equiv$ lowest scaling dimension of the theory.

This is actually saturated

$$I(A, B) = f(d, \Delta) \frac{R_A^{2\Delta} R_B^{2\Delta}}{L^{4\Delta}} + \dots$$

where $f(d, \Delta)$ is a theory dependent quantity which also depends on the shape of A and B .

QFT from Mutual information

Explicit formulas exist for (arbitrarily boosted hyper)spherical regions of radii R separated a distance L ,

QFT from Mutual information

Explicit formulas exist for (arbitrarily boosted hyper)spherical regions of radii R separated a distance L ,

$$I(A, B) = \#_s \cdot \frac{\sqrt{\pi} \Gamma[2\Delta + 1]}{4\Gamma[2\Delta + \frac{3}{2}]} \frac{R_A^{2\Delta} R_B^{2\Delta}}{L^{4\Delta}} + \dots$$

QFT from Mutual information

Explicit formulas exist for (arbitrarily boosted hyper)spherical regions of radii R separated a distance L ,

$$I(A, B) = \#_s \cdot \frac{\sqrt{\pi} \Gamma[2\Delta + 1]}{4 \Gamma[2\Delta + \frac{3}{2}]} \frac{R_A^{2\Delta} R_B^{2\Delta}}{L^{4\Delta}} + \dots$$

where $\#_s$ is a fixed geometric tensorial structure which depends on the spin of the primary \mathcal{O} with the smallest scaling dimension

QFT from Mutual information

Explicit formulas exist for (arbitrarily boosted hyper)spherical regions of radii R separated a distance L ,

$$I(A, B) = \#_s \cdot \frac{\sqrt{\pi} \Gamma[2\Delta + 1]}{4 \Gamma[2\Delta + \frac{3}{2}]} \frac{R_A^{2\Delta} R_B^{2\Delta}}{L^{4\Delta}} + \dots$$

where $\#_s$ is a fixed geometric tensorial structure which depends on the spin of the primary \mathcal{O} with the smallest scaling dimension (e.g., $\#_0 = 1$).

QFT from Mutual information

Explicit formulas exist for (arbitrarily boosted hyper)spherical regions of radii R separated a distance L ,

$$I(A, B) = \#_s \cdot \frac{\sqrt{\pi}\Gamma[2\Delta + 1]}{4\Gamma[2\Delta + \frac{3}{2}]} \frac{R_A^{2\Delta} R_B^{2\Delta}}{L^{4\Delta}} + \dots$$

where $\#_s$ is a fixed geometric tensorial structure which depends on the spin of the primary \mathcal{O} with the smallest scaling dimension (e.g., $\#_0 = 1$).

The result can be generalized to the N -partite information with $N = 3, 4, \dots$

QFT from Mutual information

Explicit formulas exist for (arbitrarily boosted hyper)spherical regions of radii R separated a distance L ,

$$I(A, B) = \#_s \cdot \frac{\sqrt{\pi}\Gamma[2\Delta + 1]}{4\Gamma[2\Delta + \frac{3}{2}]} \frac{R_A^{2\Delta} R_B^{2\Delta}}{L^{4\Delta}} + \dots$$

where $\#_s$ is a fixed geometric tensorial structure which depends on the spin of the primary \mathcal{O} with the smallest scaling dimension (e.g., $\#_0 = 1$).

The result can be generalized to the N -partite information with $N = 3, 4, \dots$. In the case of the tripartite information, one finds, for equal radii equiseparated spheres

$$I_3(A, B, C) = - \left[\frac{\sqrt{\pi}\Gamma[3\Delta + 1]}{4\Gamma[3\Delta + \frac{3}{2}]} C_{\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}}^2 - \frac{2^{6\Delta}\Gamma[\Delta + \frac{1}{2}]^3}{2\pi\Gamma[3\Delta + \frac{3}{2}]} \right] \frac{R^{6\Delta}}{L^{6\Delta}} + \dots$$

if lowest-dim operator \mathcal{O} is a scalar,

QFT from Mutual information

Explicit formulas exist for (arbitrarily boosted hyper)spherical regions of radii R separated a distance L ,

$$I(A, B) = \#_s \cdot \frac{\sqrt{\pi}\Gamma[2\Delta + 1]}{4\Gamma[2\Delta + \frac{3}{2}]} \frac{R_A^{2\Delta} R_B^{2\Delta}}{L^{4\Delta}} + \dots$$

where $\#_s$ is a fixed geometric tensorial structure which depends on the spin of the primary \mathcal{O} with the smallest scaling dimension (e.g., $\#_0 = 1$).

The result can be generalized to the N -partite information with $N = 3, 4, \dots$. In the case of the tripartite information, one finds, for equal radii equiseparated spheres

$$I_3(A, B, C) = - \left[\frac{\sqrt{\pi}\Gamma[3\Delta + 1]}{4\Gamma[3\Delta + \frac{3}{2}]} C_{\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}}^2 - \frac{2^{6\Delta}\Gamma[\Delta + \frac{1}{2}]^3}{2\pi\Gamma[3\Delta + \frac{3}{2}]} \right] \frac{R^{6\Delta}}{L^{6\Delta}} + \dots$$

if lowest-dim operator \mathcal{O} is a scalar, where $\langle \mathcal{O}_A \mathcal{O}_B \mathcal{O}_C \rangle \sim C_{\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}}/L^{3\Delta}$.

QFT from Mutual information

From the leading term of the mutual information we can extract the conformal dimension of the leading primary of the theory and its spin

$$l_2 \rightarrow \Delta, s$$

QFT from Mutual information

From the leading term of the mutual information we can extract the conformal dimension of the leading primary of the theory and its spin

$$I_2 \rightarrow \Delta, s$$

From the leading term of the N -partite information we can extract its N -point function

$$I_3 \rightarrow C_{\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}}, \quad I_4 \rightarrow \langle \mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O} \rangle, \quad \dots$$

QFT from Mutual information

From the leading term of the mutual information we can extract the conformal dimension of the leading primary of the theory and its spin

$$I_2 \rightarrow \Delta, s$$

From the leading term of the N -partite information we can extract its N -point function

$$I_3 \rightarrow C_{\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}}, \quad I_4 \rightarrow \langle \mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O} \rangle, \quad \dots$$

Subleading terms in the long-distance expansions will produce the rest of dimensions and OPE coefficients.

QFT from Mutual information

From the leading term of the mutual information we can extract the conformal dimension of the leading primary of the theory and its spin

$$I_2 \rightarrow \Delta, s$$

From the leading term of the N -partite information we can extract its N -point function

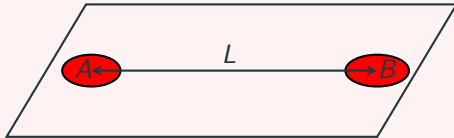
$$I_3 \rightarrow C_{\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}}, \quad I_4 \rightarrow \langle \mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O} \rangle, \quad \dots$$

Subleading terms in the long-distance expansions will produce the rest of dimensions and OPE coefficients. Doing this explicitly is easier said than done...

Summary: QFT from MI

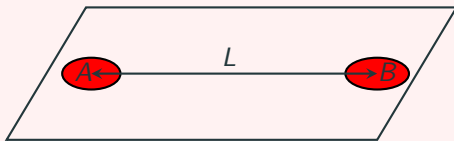
Summary: QFT from MI

- CFT data (scaling dimensions, spins, OPE coefficients) extractable from **long-distance** expansion of MI...

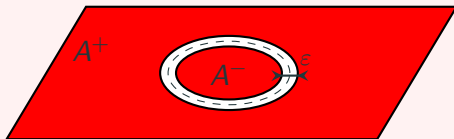


Summary: QFT from MI

- CFT data (scaling dimensions, spins, OPE coefficients) extractable from **long-distance** expansion of MI...



- CFT universal charges (central charges, trace-anomaly coefficients, stress-tensor correlators, sphere partition functions, etc.) extractable from **short-distance** expansions of MI



A closer look?

- ★ Read about the “Réplica trick” and “twist operators”, and the role they play in the long-distance expansion of mutual information.

[More in Takayanagi's lectures]

What are the known axioms satisfied by mutual information in QFT?

What are the known axioms satisfied by mutual information in QFT?

- $I(A, B) \geq 0$ (Positivity)

What are the known axioms satisfied by mutual information in QFT?

- $I(A, B) \geq 0$ (Positivity)
- $B \subseteq C \Rightarrow I(A, B) \leq I(A, C)$ (Strong subadditivity)

What are the known axioms satisfied by mutual information in QFT?

- $I(A, B) \geq 0$ (Positivity)
- $B \subseteq C \Rightarrow I(A, B) \leq I(A, C)$ (Strong subadditivity)
- $I(A, B) = I(B, A)$ (Symmetry)

What are the known axioms satisfied by mutual information in QFT?

- $I(A, B) \geq 0$ (Positivity)
- $B \subseteq C \Rightarrow I(A, B) \leq I(A, C)$ (Strong subadditivity)
- $I(A, B) = I(B, A)$ (Symmetry)
- $I(A, B) = I(\Lambda A + x, \Lambda B + x)$ (Poincaré invariance)

What are the known axioms satisfied by mutual information in QFT?

- $I(A, B) \geq 0$ (Positivity)
- $B \subseteq C \Rightarrow I(A, B) \leq I(A, C)$ (Strong subadditivity)
- $I(A, B) = I(B, A)$ (Symmetry)
- $I(A, B) = I(\Lambda A + x, \Lambda B + x)$ (Poincaré invariance)
- $\lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} I(A, B + x) = 0$ (Clustering)

What are the known axioms satisfied by mutual information in QFT?

- $I(A, B) \geq 0$ (Positivity)
- $B \subseteq C \Rightarrow I(A, B) \leq I(A, C)$ (Strong subadditivity)
- $I(A, B) = I(B, A)$ (Symmetry)
- $I(A, B) = I(\Lambda A + x, \Lambda B + x)$ (Poincaré invariance)
- $\lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} I(A, B + x) = 0$ (Clustering)
- For X, Y with boundary in the same null plane
 $I(A, X) + I(A, Y) \leq I(A, X \cap Y) + I(A, X \cup Y)$ (Markov property)

What are the known axioms satisfied by mutual information in QFT?

- $I(A, B) \geq 0$ (Positivity)
- $B \subseteq C \Rightarrow I(A, B) \leq I(A, C)$ (Strong subadditivity)
- $I(A, B) = I(B, A)$ (Symmetry)
- $I(A, B) = I(\Lambda A + x, \Lambda B + x)$ (Poincaré invariance)
- $\lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} I(A, B + x) = 0$ (Clustering)
- For X, Y with boundary in the same null plane
 $I(A, X) + I(A, Y) \leq I(A, X \cap Y) + I(A, X \cup Y)$ (Markov property)
- For A, B sharing planar boundary proportional to η
 $I(A, B + \epsilon \eta) \sim \epsilon^{-(d-2)}$ as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ (Area law)

QFT entropy cone

Very few inequalities, but with strong consequences, e.g.,

QFT entropy cone

Very few inequalities, but with strong consequences, e.g.,

- Renormalization Group flows irreversibility in $d = 2, 3, 4$ (but not in $d \geq 5$)

QFT entropy cone

Very few inequalities, but with strong consequences, e.g.,

- Renormalization Group flows irreversibility in $d = 2, 3, 4$ (but not in $d \geq 5$)
- Some (but now all) of the known unitarity bounds for general theories

QFT entropy cone

Very few inequalities, but with strong consequences, e.g.,

- Renormalization Group flows irreversibility in $d = 2, 3, 4$ (but not in $d \geq 5$)
- Some (but now all) of the known unitarity bounds for general theories

Every QFT realizes the axioms in a particular way, giving rise to a “QFT entropy cone” (\otimes_i Theory; \Leftrightarrow Sums of entropies)

QFT entropy cone

Very few inequalities, but with strong consequences, e.g.,

- Renormalization Group flows irreversibility in $d = 2, 3, 4$ (but not in $d \geq 5$)
- Some (but now all) of the known unitarity bounds for general theories

Every QFT realizes the axioms in a particular way, giving rise to a “QFT entropy cone” (\otimes ; Theory; \Leftrightarrow Sums of entropies)

Some solutions correspond to scaled limits of CFTs,

QFT entropy cone

Very few inequalities, but with strong consequences, e.g.,

- Renormalization Group flows irreversibility in $d = 2, 3, 4$ (but not in $d \geq 5$)
- Some (but now all) of the known unitarity bounds for general theories

Every QFT realizes the axioms in a particular way, giving rise to a “QFT entropy cone” (\otimes ; Theory; \Leftrightarrow Sums of entropies)

Some solutions correspond to scaled limits of CFTs, e.g., the Ryu-Takayanagi formula for large- N CFTs with Einstein gravity duals

$$S^{\text{holo}}(A) = \underset{\Gamma_A \sim A}{\text{ext}} \left[\text{Area} \left(\frac{\Gamma_A}{4G} \right) \right] + \dots \quad \text{[More in Takayanagi's lectures]}$$

Another explicit realization of the axioms is given by the “Extensive Mutual Information” model,

Another explicit realization of the axioms is given by the “Extensive Mutual Information” model, defined by the condition

$$I_3(A, B, C) = 0 \Leftrightarrow I_2(A, B) + I_2(A, C) = I_2(A, B \cup C)$$

for all regions A, B, C .

Another explicit realization of the axioms is given by the “Extensive Mutual Information” model, defined by the condition

$$I_3(A, B, C) = 0 \Leftrightarrow I_2(A, B) + I_2(A, C) = I_2(A, B \cup C)$$

for all regions A, B, C .

Interestingly, added to the axioms, this leads to a closed explicit geometric formula

$$I_2^{\text{EMI}}(A, B) = 2\kappa_{(d)} \int_{\partial A} d\sigma_A \int_{\partial B} d\sigma_B \frac{n_A \cdot n_B}{|x_A - x_B|^{2(d-2)}}$$

where $\kappa_{(d)}$ is a constant characterizing the model.

In $d = 2$ the EMI model describes a free fermion.

In $d = 2$ the EMI model describes a free fermion.

In $d > 2$ it satisfies numerous consistency checks and for years it was thought that it may describe the mutual information of an actual CFT.

In $d = 2$ the EMI model describes a free fermion.

In $d > 2$ it satisfies numerous consistency checks and for years it was thought that it may describe the mutual information of an actual CFT.

However, studying the long-distance expansion of $I_2^{\text{EMI}}(A, B)$ for boosted (hyper)spherical regions it can be shown that the EMI model cannot correspond to any actual theory or limit of theories.

In $d = 2$ the EMI model describes a free fermion.

In $d > 2$ it satisfies numerous consistency checks and for years it was thought that it may describe the mutual information of an actual CFT.

However, studying the long-distance expansion of $I_2^{\text{EMI}}(A, B)$ for boosted (hyper)spherical regions it can be shown that the EMI model cannot correspond to any actual theory or limit of theories.

Some realizations of the MI axioms do not correspond to any actual theory!

In $d = 2$ the EMI model describes a free fermion.

In $d > 2$ it satisfies numerous consistency checks and for years it was thought that it may describe the mutual information of an actual CFT.

However, studying the long-distance expansion of $I_2^{\text{EMI}}(A, B)$ for boosted (hyper)spherical regions it can be shown that the EMI model cannot correspond to any actual theory or limit of theories.

Some realizations of the MI axioms do not correspond to any actual theory! \Rightarrow are we missing axioms?

Summary: axioms for mutual information in QFT

Summary: axioms for mutual information in QFT

- ★ The mutual information of pairs of region algebras satisfies a set of structural properties, “axioms”, valid for general QFTs.

Summary: axioms for mutual information in QFT

- ★ The mutual information of pairs of region algebras satisfies a set of structural properties, “axioms”, valid for general QFTs.
- ★ These can be used to establish various general theorems in QFT.

Summary: axioms for mutual information in QFT

- ★ The mutual information of pairs of region algebras satisfies a set of structural properties, “axioms”, valid for general QFTs.
- ★ These can be used to establish various general theorems in QFT.
- ★ Each QFT provides a particular “resolution” of the axioms.

Summary: axioms for mutual information in QFT

- ★ The mutual information of pairs of region algebras satisfies a set of structural properties, “axioms”, valid for general QFTs.
- ★ These can be used to establish various general theorems in QFT.
- ★ Each QFT provides a particular “resolution” of the axioms. However, there exist resolutions of the axioms which do not correspond to actual QFTs.

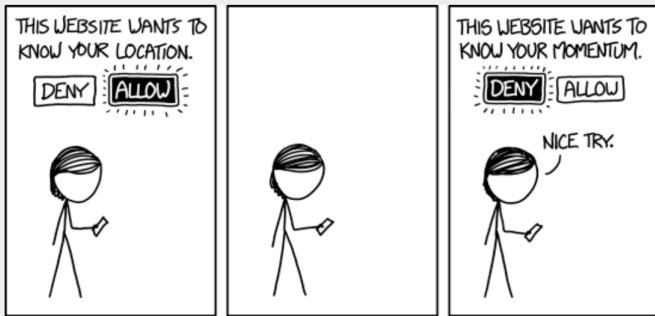
Summary: axioms for mutual information in QFT

- ★ The mutual information of pairs of region algebras satisfies a set of structural properties, “axioms”, valid for general QFTs.
- ★ These can be used to establish various general theorems in QFT.
- ★ Each QFT provides a particular “resolution” of the axioms. However, there exist resolutions of the axioms which do not correspond to actual QFTs. Are we missing axioms?

A closer look?

- ★ Do not forget to go to the Giambiagi school webpage, download these slides and have a closer look at them!

The End



BONUS

Roughly, the logic goes as follows:

Roughly, the logic goes as follows:

- The EE can be obtained as the $n \rightarrow 1$ limit of the Rényi entropy

$$S^{(n)}(A) = \frac{1}{1-n} \log \left[\frac{Z(\mathcal{C}_A^{(n)})}{Z^n} \right]$$

where $\mathcal{C}_A^{(n)} \equiv$ replica manifold.

Roughly, the logic goes as follows:

- The EE can be obtained as the $n \rightarrow 1$ limit of the Rényi entropy

$$S^{(n)}(A) = \frac{1}{1-n} \log \left[\frac{Z(\mathcal{C}_A^{(n)})}{Z^n} \right]$$

where $\mathcal{C}_A^{(n)} \equiv$ replica manifold.

- Identification process of region A in consecutive copies \Leftrightarrow twist operator $\Sigma_A^{(n)}$ with support on A : $Z(\mathcal{C}_A^{(n)})/Z^n = \langle \Sigma_A^{(n)} \rangle$

Roughly, the logic goes as follows:

- The EE can be obtained as the $n \rightarrow 1$ limit of the Rényi entropy

$$S^{(n)}(A) = \frac{1}{1-n} \log \left[\frac{Z(\mathcal{C}_A^{(n)})}{Z^n} \right]$$

where $\mathcal{C}_A^{(n)} \equiv$ replica manifold.

- Identification process of region A in consecutive copies \Leftrightarrow twist operator $\Sigma_A^{(n)}$ with support on A : $Z(\mathcal{C}_A^{(n)})/Z^n = \langle \Sigma_A^{(n)} \rangle$
- It is convenient to extract the identity operator contribution,

$$\Sigma_A^{(n)} \equiv \langle \Sigma_A^{(n)} \rangle (1 + \tilde{\Sigma}_A^{(n)})$$

Roughly, the logic goes as follows:

- The EE can be obtained as the $n \rightarrow 1$ limit of the Rényi entropy

$$S^{(n)}(A) = \frac{1}{1-n} \log \left[\frac{Z(\mathcal{C}_A^{(n)})}{Z^n} \right]$$

where $\mathcal{C}_A^{(n)} \equiv$ replica manifold.

- Identification process of region A in consecutive copies \Leftrightarrow twist operator $\Sigma_A^{(n)}$ with support on A : $Z(\mathcal{C}_A^{(n)})/Z^n = \langle \Sigma_A^{(n)} \rangle$
- It is convenient to extract the identity operator contribution,

$$\Sigma_A^{(n)} \equiv \langle \Sigma_A^{(n)} \rangle (1 + \tilde{\Sigma}_A^{(n)})$$

- Then, the N -partite information can be written as

$$I_N(A_1, \dots, A_N) = \lim_{n \rightarrow 1} \frac{(-)^{N+1}}{1-n} \langle \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_1}^{(n)} \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_2}^{(n)} \dots \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_N}^{(n)} \rangle$$

- At long distances, $\tilde{\Sigma}_A^{(n)} \approx$ sum of products of local operators on A

- At long distances, $\tilde{\Sigma}_A^{(n)} \approx$ sum of products of local operators on A
- Leading contribution comes from lowest-dimensional operator, \mathcal{O}

$$\tilde{\Sigma}_A^{(n)} = \sum_{i < j} C_{ij}^A \mathcal{O}^i(x_A) \mathcal{O}^j(x_A) + \dots$$

where $i, j \Leftrightarrow$ replica indices

- At long distances, $\tilde{\Sigma}_A^{(n)} \approx$ sum of products of local operators on A
- Leading contribution comes from lowest-dimensional operator, \mathcal{O}

$$\tilde{\Sigma}_A^{(n)} = \sum_{i < j} C_{ij}^A \mathcal{O}^i(x_A) \mathcal{O}^j(x_A) + \dots$$

where $i, j \Leftrightarrow$ replica indices

- From this it is easy to show that $I_N \sim (R/L)^{2N\Delta}$ for general regions

- At long distances, $\tilde{\Sigma}_A^{(n)} \approx$ sum of products of local operators on A
- Leading contribution comes from lowest-dimensional operator, \mathcal{O}

$$\tilde{\Sigma}_A^{(n)} = \sum_{i < j} C_{ij}^A \mathcal{O}^i(x_A) \mathcal{O}^j(x_A) + \dots$$

where $i, j \Leftrightarrow$ replica indices

- From this it is easy to show that $I_N \sim (R/L)^{2N\Delta}$ for general regions
- For spherical entangling surfaces,

$$C_{ij}^A = \frac{R^{2\Delta}}{\sin^{2\Delta} \left[\frac{\pi(i-j)}{n} \right]}$$

For instance, for the tripartite information we have

$$I_3(A_1, A_2, A_3) = - \lim_{n \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{n-1} \langle \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_1}^{(n)} \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_2}^{(n)} \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_3}^{(n)} \rangle$$

For instance, for the tripartite information we have

$$I_3(A_1, A_2, A_3) = - \lim_{n \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{n-1} \langle \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_1}^{(n)} \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_2}^{(n)} \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_3}^{(n)} \rangle$$

where

$$\langle \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_1}^{(n)} \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_2}^{(n)} \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_3}^{(n)} \rangle = (R_1 R_2 R_3)^{2\Delta} \sum_{i < j} \sum_{k < l} \sum_{m < n} C_{ij} C_{kl} C_{mn} \langle \mathcal{O}_{A_1}^i \mathcal{O}_{A_1}^j \mathcal{O}_{A_2}^k \mathcal{O}_{A_2}^l \mathcal{O}_{A_3}^m \mathcal{O}_{A_3}^n \rangle$$

For instance, for the tripartite information we have

$$I_3(A_1, A_2, A_3) = - \lim_{n \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{n-1} \langle \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_1}^{(n)} \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_2}^{(n)} \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_3}^{(n)} \rangle$$

where

$$\langle \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_1}^{(n)} \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_2}^{(n)} \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_3}^{(n)} \rangle = (R_1 R_2 R_3)^{2\Delta} \sum_{i < j} \sum_{k < l} \sum_{m < n} C_{ij} C_{kl} C_{mn} \langle \mathcal{O}_{A_1}^i \mathcal{O}_{A_1}^j \mathcal{O}_{A_2}^k \mathcal{O}_{A_2}^l \mathcal{O}_{A_3}^m \mathcal{O}_{A_3}^n \rangle$$

- Contribution 1:

$$\sum_{i < j} C_{ij}^3 \langle \mathcal{O}_{A_1}^i \mathcal{O}_{A_2}^i \mathcal{O}_{A_3}^i \rangle \langle \mathcal{O}_{A_1}^j \mathcal{O}_{A_2}^j \mathcal{O}_{A_3}^j \rangle$$

For instance, for the tripartite information we have

$$I_3(A_1, A_2, A_3) = - \lim_{n \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{n-1} \langle \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_1}^{(n)} \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_2}^{(n)} \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_3}^{(n)} \rangle$$

where

$$\langle \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_1}^{(n)} \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_2}^{(n)} \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_3}^{(n)} \rangle = (R_1 R_2 R_3)^{2\Delta} \sum_{i < j} \sum_{k < l} \sum_{m < n} C_{ij} C_{kl} C_{mn} \langle \mathcal{O}_{A_1}^i \mathcal{O}_{A_1}^j \mathcal{O}_{A_2}^k \mathcal{O}_{A_2}^l \mathcal{O}_{A_3}^m \mathcal{O}_{A_3}^n \rangle$$

- Contribution 1:

$$\sum_{i < j} C_{ij}^3 \langle \mathcal{O}_{A_1}^i \mathcal{O}_{A_2}^i \mathcal{O}_{A_3}^i \rangle \langle \mathcal{O}_{A_1}^j \mathcal{O}_{A_2}^j \mathcal{O}_{A_3}^j \rangle$$

- Contribution 2:

$$\sum_{i < j < k} C_{ij} C_{ik} C_{jk} \left(\langle \mathcal{O}_{A_1}^i \mathcal{O}_{A_3}^i \rangle \langle \mathcal{O}_{A_1}^j \mathcal{O}_{A_2}^j \rangle \langle \mathcal{O}_{A_2}^k \mathcal{O}_{A_3}^k \rangle + \text{permutations of } \{A_1, A_2, A_3\} \right)$$

For instance, for the tripartite information we have

$$I_3(A_1, A_2, A_3) = - \lim_{n \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{n-1} \langle \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_1}^{(n)} \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_2}^{(n)} \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_3}^{(n)} \rangle$$

where

$$\langle \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_1}^{(n)} \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_2}^{(n)} \tilde{\Sigma}_{A_3}^{(n)} \rangle = (R_1 R_2 R_3)^{2\Delta} \sum_{i < j} \sum_{k < l} \sum_{m < n} C_{ij} C_{kl} C_{mn} \langle \mathcal{O}_{A_1}^i \mathcal{O}_{A_1}^j \mathcal{O}_{A_2}^k \mathcal{O}_{A_2}^l \mathcal{O}_{A_3}^m \mathcal{O}_{A_3}^n \rangle$$

- Contribution 1:

$$\sum_{i < j} C_{ij}^3 \langle \mathcal{O}_{A_1}^i \mathcal{O}_{A_2}^i \mathcal{O}_{A_3}^i \rangle \langle \mathcal{O}_{A_1}^j \mathcal{O}_{A_2}^j \mathcal{O}_{A_3}^j \rangle$$

- Contribution 2:

$$\sum_{i < j < k} C_{ij} C_{ik} C_{jk} \left(\langle \mathcal{O}_{A_1}^i \mathcal{O}_{A_3}^i \rangle \langle \mathcal{O}_{A_1}^j \mathcal{O}_{A_2}^j \rangle \langle \mathcal{O}_{A_2}^k \mathcal{O}_{A_3}^k \rangle + \text{permutations of } \{A_1, A_2, A_3\} \right)$$

which appear written in terms of correlators of \mathcal{O} :

$$\langle \mathcal{O}_{A_1} \mathcal{O}_{A_2} \rangle = \frac{1}{L_{12}^{2\Delta}}, \quad \langle \mathcal{O}_{A_1} \mathcal{O}_{A_2} \mathcal{O}_{A_3} \rangle = \frac{C_{\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}\mathcal{O}}}{L_{12}^{\Delta} L_{13}^{\Delta} L_{23}^{\Delta}}$$

So what CFT is described by the EMI model in $d > 2$?

[Agon, PB, Casini]

So what CFT is described by the EMI model in $d > 2$? [Agon, PB, Casini]

- We apply the entanglement bootstrap to the EMI model

So what CFT is described by the EMI model in $d > 2$?

[Agon, PB, Casini]

- We apply the entanglement bootstrap to the EMI model
- Leading order term in long-distance expansion for spherical regions:

$$I_2^{\text{EMI}} = \frac{4(d-1)(d-2)\pi^{d-1}\kappa(d)}{\Gamma[\frac{d+1}{2}]^2} [2(n_A \cdot \ell)(n_B \cdot \ell) - (n_A \cdot n_B)] \cdot \frac{R_A^{d-1} R_B^d}{L^{2(d-1)}}$$

So what CFT is described by the EMI model in $d > 2$?

[Agon, PB, Casini]

- We apply the entanglement bootstrap to the EMI model
- Leading order term in long-distance expansion for spherical regions:

$$I_2^{\text{EMI}} = \frac{4(d-1)(d-2)\pi^{d-1}\kappa(d)}{\Gamma[\frac{d+1}{2}]^2} [2(n_A \cdot \ell)(n_B \cdot \ell) - (n_A \cdot n_B)] \cdot \frac{R_A^{d-1} R_B^d}{L^{2(d-1)}}$$

Recall long-distance expression for a CFT whose lowest-dim operator is a fermion:

$$I_2^f = 2^{\lfloor \frac{d}{2} \rfloor + 1} \frac{\sqrt{\pi} \Gamma[2\Delta + 1]}{4\Gamma[2\Delta + \frac{3}{2}]} [2(n_A \cdot \ell)(n_B \cdot \ell) - (n_A \cdot n_B)] \cdot \frac{R_A^{2\Delta} R_B^{2\Delta}}{L^{4\Delta}} + \dots$$

So what CFT is described by the EMI model in $d > 2$?

[Agon, PB, Casini]

- We apply the entanglement bootstrap to the EMI model
- Leading order term in long-distance expansion for spherical regions:

$$I_2^{\text{EMI}} = \frac{4(d-1)(d-2)\pi^{d-1}\kappa(d)}{\Gamma[\frac{d+1}{2}]^2} [2(n_A \cdot \ell)(n_B \cdot \ell) - (n_A \cdot n_B)] \cdot \frac{R_A^{d-1} R_B^d}{L^{2(d-1)}}$$

Recall long-distance expression for a CFT whose lowest-dim operator is a fermion:

$$I_2^f = 2^{\lfloor \frac{d}{2} \rfloor + 1} \frac{\sqrt{\pi} \Gamma[2\Delta + 1]}{4\Gamma[2\Delta + \frac{3}{2}]} [2(n_A \cdot \ell)(n_B \cdot \ell) - (n_A \cdot n_B)] \cdot \frac{R_A^{2\Delta} R_B^{2\Delta}}{L^{4\Delta}} + \dots$$

We learn that the EMI model necessarily contains a free fermion ($\Delta = (d-1)/2$) as its lowest-dim operator