

four real multiplications, then updating \mathbf{r}_{ji} incurs $18|L(i)| - 16$ real multiplications when $q = 4$, and $46|L(i)| - 44$ real multiplications when $q = 8$. In turn, updating all the \mathbf{r}_{ji} in one iteration requires $\sum_{i=1}^{N-K} |L(i)|(18|L(i)| - 16)$ real multiplications when $q = 4$, and $\sum_{i=1}^{N-K} |L(i)|(46|L(i)| - 44)$ real multiplications when $q = 8$. On the other hand, updating all the \mathbf{q}_{ji} in one iteration requires $\sum_{j=1}^N q|M(j)|^2$ real multiplications. Finally, estimating the *a posteriori* probabilities of the variable nodes incurs a further $Nq(|M(j)| + 1)$ real multiplications.

For the codes simulated, it follows that decoding the \mathbb{Z}_4 code of length 500 (respectively, 1000) requires in one iteration, a total of 112 000 (respectively, 224 000) real multiplications. On the other hand, the \mathbb{Z}_8 code of length 500 (respectively, 1000) requires in one iteration, a total of 271 500 (respectively, 543 000) real multiplications. Thus, with the single-stage BP decoder iterating a maximum of 50 times, the \mathbb{Z}_4 codes of length 500 and 1000 require at most 5.6×10^6 and 11.2×10^6 real multiplications, respectively, while the \mathbb{Z}_8 codes of length 500 and 1000 require at most 13.575×10^6 and 27.15×10^6 , respectively.

Since the binary images of these codes may be decoded in the logarithmic domain so that only additions are incurred, the increase in complexity to decode the \mathbb{Z}_4 codes in two stages is solely due to the task of updating \mathbf{p}_j at the end of stage zero (in the case of 4-ary modulation), and initializing $\mathbf{r}_{ji}(1)$ at the start of stage 1. Given an (N, K) code over \mathbb{Z}_p^m , updating all the \mathbf{p}_j at the end of decoding stages 0 to $m - 2$ requires $Np^{2m} \sum_{l=0}^{m-2} (1 - p^{-(l+1)})$ real multiplications, while initializing all the $\mathbf{r}_{ji}(l+1)$ for $l = 0, 1, \dots, m - 2$ requires a further $\sum_{i=1}^{N-K} |L(i)| \sum_{l=0}^{m-2} p^{l+2}$ real multiplications. Thus, for the \mathbb{Z}_4 codes of length 500 and 1000, these two tasks incur a total of 9000 and 18 000 real multiplications, respectively, corresponding to a marginal increase of at most 0.16% in decoding complexity over that of single-stage decoding, in exchange for the 0.07–0.1 dB of additional coding gain. Turning to the \mathbb{Z}_8 codes next, observe that the increase in decoding complexity is due to the operations incurred when 1) decoding their images over \mathbb{Z}_4 via the single-stage BP decoder at stage 1, 2) updating \mathbf{p}_j at the end of stages 0 and 1 (in the case of 8-ary modulation), and 3) initializing $\mathbf{r}_{ji}(1)$ and $\mathbf{r}_{ji}(2)$. For the codes of length 500 and 1000, the second and third tasks require a total of 55 000 and 110 000 real multiplications, respectively, while the first task requires at most 5.6×10^6 and 11.2×10^6 , respectively. Consequently, the increase in decoding complexity over that under single-stage decoding is at most 41.66% for the \mathbb{Z}_8 codes. Compared to their \mathbb{Z}_4 counterparts, we see a sharp increase in decoding complexity for similar improvements in coding gain for the codes at hand.

Finally, we point out that $\beta = 0.5$ is optimal for the codes considered here in that the resulting BER is minimized. Moreover, varying β from its worst values to its best, has a very small effect on the coding gain. In the case of our \mathbb{Z}_8 code, increasing (respectively, decreasing) β from 0.1 to 0.5 (respectively, from 0.9 to 0.5), yields a coding gain of about 0.07 dB.

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

To summarize, we have presented a multistage BP decoder for LDPC codes over \mathbb{Z}_p^m that outperforms a single-stage BP decoder, albeit at the expense of increased decoding complexity. As our complexity analysis shows, the increase in decoding complexity is significant for $m > 2$. On the other hand, recall that stage 0 contributes the most to the additional coding gain offered by our multistage decoding scheme. Thus, to reduce the increase in complexity when $m > 2$ (albeit at the expense of a slight degradation in performance), one could employ a

two-stage decoding approach by jumping to stage $m - 1$ directly from stage 0, bypassing stages 1 to $m - 2$.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors would like to thank the anonymous referees for their comments and suggestions which helped improve the quality of this correspondence.

REFERENCES

- [1] M. A. Armand and O. de Taisne, "Multistage list decoding of generalized Reed-Solomon codes over Galois rings," *IEEE Commun. Lett.*, vol. 9, pp. 625–627, Jul. 2005.
- [2] M. C. Davey, Error-Correction Using Low-Density Parity-Check Codes. Cambridge, U.K., Univ. Cambridge, 1999, Ph.D..
- [3] M. C. Davey and D. J. C. MacKay, "Low density parity check codes over GF(q)," *IEEE Commun. Lett.*, vol. 2, pp. 165–167, Jun. 1998.
- [4] U. Erez and G. Miller, "The ML decoding performance of LDPC ensembles over \mathbb{Z}_q ," *IEEE Trans. Inf. Theory*, vol. 51, pp. 1871–1879, May 2005.
- [5] G. H. Norton and A. Sălăgean, "On the Hamming distance of linear codes over a finite chain ring," *IEEE Trans. Inf. Theory*, vol. 46, no. 3, pp. 1060–1067, May 2000.
- [6] L. Ping, W. K. Leong, and M. Phamdo, "Low density parity check codes with semi-random parity check matrix," *IEE Electron. Lett.*, vol. 35, no. 1, pp. 38–39, Jan. 1999.
- [7] T. J. Richardson and R. L. Urbanke, "The capacity of low-density parity-check codes under message-passing decoding," *IEEE Trans. Inf. Theory*, vol. 47, pp. 559–618, Feb. 2001.
- [8] D. Sridhara and T. E. Fuja, "LDPC codes over rings for PSK modulation," *IEEE Trans. Inf. Theory*, vol. 51, no. 9, pp. 3209–3220, Sep. 2005.

Multipartite Secret Correlations and Bound Information

Lluís Masanes and Antonio Acín

Abstract—The problem of secret key extraction when n honest parties and an eavesdropper share correlated information is considered. A family of probability distributions is introduced and the full characterization of its distillation properties is presented. This formalism allows to design a rich variety of cryptographic scenarios. In particular, the existence of multipartite probability distributions containing nondistillable secret correlations, also known as bound information, can be proved

Index Terms—Cryptography, distillability, entanglement, irreversibility, quantum correlations, secret correlations.

I. INTRODUCTION

Many cryptographic applications nowadays are based on *computational security*. In this type of protocols, the security is based on two assumptions: i) the computational capabilities of an eavesdropper are bounded and ii) a conjecture on the computational complexity of some

Manuscript received January 7, 2005; revised March 9, 2006. This work was supported by the Spanish Ministerio de Ciencia y Tecnología, under the "Ramón y Cajal" grant, and the Generalitat de Catalunya.

L. Masanes is with the School of Mathematics, University of Bristol, Bristol BS8 1TW, U.K. (e-mail: lluis.masanes@bristol.ac.uk).

A. Acín is with the ICFO-Institut de Ciències Fotòniques, 08034 Barcelona, Spain (e-mail: Antonio.Acin@icfo.es).

Communicated by E. Okamoto, Associate Editor for Complexity and Cryptography.

Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/TIT.2006.881711

mathematical problems. The advent of quantum computing, however, sheds doubts on the medium-term applicability of these schemes. Indeed, Shor's algorithm [17] will allow an eavesdropper provided with a quantum computer breaking many of the now commonly used schemes, such as RSA.

There is a second type of security which is clearly the strongest one: *information-theoretic security*. This type of protocols are secure against attacks using unlimited resources, since the security is simply guaranteed by known results of information theory. The first step in this direction was already given in 1949 by Shannon [16]: such a level of security could only be attained by honest parties initially sharing a secure secret key. An example of a completely secure way of information encryption is given by the one-time pad [19]: in this scheme, the honest parties share a private key. The message is summed (XOR) bitwise with the common key and sent through the insecure public channel. The receivers owning the key can read the sent information performing a second bitwise XOR, while no information on the message is accessible to anybody with no access to the key. It turns out, however, that i) this protocol works only when the parties willing to interchange the information share a private key of the same length as the message to be encrypted and ii) the key cannot be reused. Moreover, the following question arises in a natural way: how is the key generated? It was later shown by Maurer that a secure key cannot be generated from nothing [12]. More precisely, the honest parties cannot establish a key by a protocol consisting of local operations and public communication (LOPC). Therefore, a necessary requirement for key agreement is that the honest parties share prior correlations that are partially secret.

These pessimistic statements were somehow made relative in [12], [13], where it was proven that an arbitrary weak level of correlation and privacy can be in some cases sufficient for generating a key. Furthermore, quantum cryptography protocols [2], [9] have been shown to provide an efficient way for establishing these initial partially secret correlations. Indeed, it is a crucial problem in most of quantum cryptography protocols how to transform into a perfect secret key the noisy and partially secret data distributed among the honest parties through quantum channels. As said, this key will later be consumed for sending private information by means of one-time pad. In general, one would like to know if all the correlations that are partially secret can be transformed into a secret key or, if the answer to this question is negative, to identify those correlations distillable to a secret key.

In this work, we study the inter-conversion among different kinds of secret correlations in a multipartite scenario, where n honest parties and an eavesdropper have access to common information. More precisely, each party, including the eavesdropper, has many realizations of a random variable. These $n+1$ random variables are correlated through a known probability distribution. Since the secrecy content of these correlated data is nonincreasing under LOPC, this set of transformations is considered as a free resource. That is, the honest parties are allowed to perform any local operation on their data and to communicate through a public, but authenticated, channel. Given an initial probability distribution P , we focus on two questions: i) can P be generated by LOPC? and ii) can perfect secret bits be extracted from P by LOPC?

A family of probability distributions is introduced, allowing the construction of several examples (see below) with a huge variety of distillation properties. In particular, for each probability distribution we can answer the previous two questions i) and ii). That is, we fully characterize the secrecy content and distillability properties of these probability distributions. However, we do not consider the physical mechanism used in the generation of these correlations, that is, they will appear as an initially given resource. Note that there have been proposed different ways of establishing partially secret correlations, such as the satellite model by Maurer [12], or quantum cryptography [2]. The analyzed techniques can be used to prove the existence and activation

of *bound information*, a cryptographic analog of bound entanglement, first conjectured in [10] (see also [8]). We finally discuss the connection of these techniques with previous results on entanglement transformations in quantum information theory.

A. Examples

In this subsection, we present some examples of n -partite secret correlations showing interesting distillability properties. Their corresponding probability distributions are explicitly constructed in Section IV-F. In the following examples, we consider n separated honest parties $\{\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2, \dots, \mathcal{A}_n\}$, although not all of them may aim at obtaining a secret key. We call cooperating parties the ones that participate in the distillation protocol and at the end share the secret key. Throughout the correspondence, whenever we say that a subset of k parties are together, or form a group, we mean that they can perform k -partite joint secret operations. This can be done by meeting at the same place, or by sharing a sufficiently large k -partite secret key, that is, a list of random and secret bits shared by the k parties.

Example 1: Distillation is possible if, and only if, at least arbitrary 70% of the parties cooperate in the protocol (the choice of 70% is arbitrary).

Example 2: Distillation is possible if, and only if, the cooperating parties join in groups of at least k parties.

The previous two examples can be considered as elementary conditions on distillation. In the following two examples we combine them with different logical clauses (AND and OR), in order to obtain more complex distillation scenarios.

Example 3: Distillation is possible if, and only if, at least 70% of the parties cooperate in the protocol, AND, they join in groups of at least k parties.

Example 4: Distillation is possible if, and only if, at least 70% of the parties cooperate in the protocol, OR, the cooperating parties join in groups of at least k people, or both.

In the previous examples, all the parties played the same role. In the following, some specific parties have a different status, that is, the possibility of distillation may depend on their actions.

Example 5: Distillation of a secret key is possible if, and only if, the parties \mathcal{A}_i and \mathcal{A}_j participate in the protocol and belong to the same group, independently of how many others cooperate and how they distribute in groups. The same can be done but imposing that parties \mathcal{A}_i and \mathcal{A}_j must remain separated.

It is now clear that one can design probability distributions showing unlimited intricate distillation properties.

II. BIPARTITE SECRET CORRELATIONS

In 1993, Maurer introduced the information-theoretic key-agreement model, generalizing previous ideas by Wyner [20] and Csiszár and Körner [4]. In his original formulation, two honest parties (Alice and Bob) are connected by an authenticated but otherwise insecure classical communication channel. Additionally, each party—including Eve—has access to correlated information given by repeated realizations of the random variables A , B and E (possessed by Alice, Bob, and Eve, respectively), jointly distributed according to $P(A, B, E)$. From now on, we denote by the same symbol X a random variable X , as well as the value it can take, x , e.g., $P(X) = P_X(x)$. The goal for Alice and Bob is to obtain a common string of random bits for which Eve has virtually no information, i.e., a secret key. The maximal amount of secret key bits that can be asymptotically extracted per realization of (A, B)

used, is called the secret-key rate [4], denoted by $S(A : B \parallel E)$ or S . More precisely, this quantity is defined as the largest real number R such that for all $\epsilon > 0$, one can find an integer N_0 and a two-way communication protocol for Alice and Bob transforming $N \geq N_0$ realizations of A and B into random variables S_A and S_B satisfying

$$\begin{aligned} P[S_A = S_B = X] &> 1 - \epsilon \\ H(X) = \log(|X|) &\geq (R - \epsilon)N \\ I(X : CE^N) &< \epsilon \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where X is another random variable, C denotes the communication exchanged during the protocol, $H(X)$ is the Shannon entropy of the random variable X , and $I(X : Y)$ the mutual information between X and Y . Therefore, the secret-key rate quantifies the amount of secret-key bits extractable from a probability distribution.

More recently, another measure for the secrecy content of $P(A, B, E)$, the so-called information of formation $I_{\text{form}}(A : B|E)$, has been introduced in [15]. Intuitively, it can be understood as the minimal number of secret-key bits asymptotically needed to generate each independent realization of (A, B) —distributed according to $P(A, B)$ —such that the information about (A, B) contained in the messages exchanged through the public channel C is at most equal to the information in E . More precisely, I_{form} is defined as the infimum over all numbers $R \geq 0$ such that for all $\epsilon > 0$ there exists an integer N , and a protocol with communication C that, with probability $1 - \epsilon$, allows Alice and Bob, knowing the same random $[RN]$ -bit string X , to compute A^N and B^N such that

$$P(A^N, B^N, C) = \sum_{E^N} [P(A, B, E)]^N P(C|E^N) \quad (2)$$

where $P(C|E^N)$ defines a channel [15]. According to this definition, we say that a probability distribution P can be established by LOPC if, and only if, $I_{\text{form}} = 0$. Note that this statement does not mean that the result of the corresponding LOPC formation protocol is necessarily P , but it is a distribution P' at least as good as P from Alice and Bob's point of view. More concretely, P' can be obtained from P by processing Eve's information, in the sense of (2).

Information of formation and secret-key rate are two measures of the secrecy content of a probability distribution with a clear operational meaning: I_{form} quantifies the amount of secret-key bits required for the formation of $P(A, B, E)$, while S specifies the amount of secret bits extractable from $P(A, B, E)$.

A useful upper bound for S is given by the so-called intrinsic information, introduced in [13]. This quantity, denoted by $I(A : B \downarrow E)$ or more briefly I_{\downarrow} , will play a significant role in the proof of our results. The intrinsic information between A and B given E is defined as

$$I(A : B \downarrow E) = \min_{E \rightarrow \tilde{E}} I(A : B|\tilde{E}) \quad (3)$$

where the minimization runs over all possible stochastic maps $P_{\tilde{E}|E}$ defining a new random variable \tilde{E} . The quantity $I(A : B|E)$ is the mutual information between A and B conditioned on E . It can be written as

$$I(A : B|E) = H(A, E) + H(B, E) - H(A, B, E) - H(E). \quad (4)$$

The intrinsic information also gives a lower bound for the information of formation [15], thus,

$$S \leq I_{\downarrow} \leq I_{\text{form}}. \quad (5)$$

III. MULTIPARTITE SECRET CORRELATIONS

The generalization of Maurer's formulation to the multipartite scenario is straightforward. Consider a set of n honest parties $\mathcal{Q} = \{\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2, \dots, \mathcal{A}_n\}$ connected by a broadcast public communication channel which is totally accessible to the eavesdropper but which is tamper-proof. Each of the parties (including Eve) has access to the correlated information contained in many realizations of its corresponding random variable. We denote by A_i the random variable corresponding to party \mathcal{A}_i . Eve's random variable is also denoted by E . In this correspondence, curly capital letters refer to parties and sets of parties, while normal capital letters refer to random variables. In this scenario, general secret correlations are represented by probability distributions of the form $P(A_1, \dots, A_n, E)$. That is, all random variables in each realization are correlated according to P , and each realization is independent of the others.

One possible goal for the honest parties is to obtain an n -partite secret key. Sometimes this is not possible, but still, a subset of m parties (with $1 < m < n$) can get an m -partite key. Therefore, there are many different senses in which a distribution P is (or is not) distillable. In order to get rid of such ambiguity, we choose the following definition of nondistillability: a distribution P is nondistillable if there does not exist any pair of parties, capable of obtaining a secret key by LOPC, even with the help of the others. Therefore, a probability distribution is distillable when the n parties can prepare a secret key between at least one pair of parties by LOPC. It is important to stress here that our definition of distillability, and secrecy content, only refers to the fully multipartite scenario, where the n parties remain separated, and are simply allowed to communicate through the public channel. It is then possible that a nondistillable probability distribution in an n -partite scenario, where the n parties are connected by a public channel, becomes distillable when considered in an m -partite scenario ($m < n$), where some subsets of the parties can communicate in a secret way. This fact is not in contradiction with our previous definitions, since we refer to different multipartite scenarios.

Note also that our definition of nondistillability is the strongest one for the fully n -partite scenario. However, one could think of an even stronger definition of nondistillability: an n -partite probability distribution is nondistillable when no pair of parties can establish a secret key for all the m -partite scenarios, where $m < n$. In this work, we stick to the first definition and do not explore this alternative type of nondistillability.

For similar reasons, in the multipartite scenario there may be many ways of defining the secret-key rate. But, in this correspondence we only use the secret-key rate in bipartite situations, where the definition is unique. In general, considering bipartite splittings of the parties will prove to be a very useful tool for obtaining necessary conditions in the multipartite scenario.

A. Bipartite Splittings

We denote by \mathcal{P} any subset of \mathcal{Q} , and by $\overline{\mathcal{P}}$ its complement (the set of all elements in \mathcal{Q} not belonging to \mathcal{P}). Each bipartition of \mathcal{Q} can be specified by giving one of the halves, say \mathcal{P} .

The following two lemmas concerning any n -party distribution refer to their distillation and formation properties.

Lemma 1: A necessary condition for obtaining an n -partite secret key is that: for all bipartitions \mathcal{P} of \mathcal{Q} , when all parties within each half are together, a bipartite secret key between \mathcal{P} and $\overline{\mathcal{P}}$ can be obtained.

Proof: Suppose the distribution can be distilled into an n -partite secret key. The same must hold when some of the parties are together. In particular, a bipartite key between the groups \mathcal{P} and $\overline{\mathcal{P}}$ can be obtained, for any \mathcal{P} . Therefore, the last is a necessary condition. \square

Lemma 2: A necessary condition for the correlations specified by P being generated by LOPC is that: for all bipartitions \mathcal{P} of \mathcal{Q} , when all

parties within each half are together, the resulting bipartite distribution can be generated by LOPC.

Proof: Suppose the distribution can be generated using LOPC by the n honest parties. The same must hold when some of the parties are together, in particular, for the bipartite splitting \mathcal{P} and $\overline{\mathcal{P}}$. Therefore, the last is a necessary condition. \square

IV. A FAMILY OF MULTIPARTITE PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS

In this section, we present a family of probability distributions, denoted by P_Ω , exhibiting a variety of distillation properties. The examples described in Section I-A are particular instances of this family.

A. Notation and Definitions

From now on, we restrict the random variables of the honest parties A_1, \dots, A_n to take the values 0, 1. Eve's random variable E can, however, have a wider range. In the remainder, unless explicitly mentioned, quantities between square brackets $[s]$ are to be understood as $(n-1)$ -bit strings. That is, we associate with each integer $s \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^{n-1} - 1\}$ the $(n-1)$ -bit string corresponding to its binary expansion in reversed order, and denote this by $[s]$. We denote by $[\bar{s}]$ the string where all bits have the opposite value than in $[s]$. As an example, suppose $n-1 = 3$, we have that $[3] = 110$ and $[\bar{3}] = 001$. We will use bit strings $[s]$ to label the outcome of the first $(n-1)$ variables A_1, \dots, A_{n-1} ; for example, $A_1 \dots A_{n-1} = [s]$.

In what follows, we also use bit strings $[s]$ to specify bipartitions of the set of n parties \mathcal{Q} . The subset $\mathcal{P}_{[s]} \subset \mathcal{Q}$ is defined in this way: $\mathcal{A}_i \in \mathcal{P}_{[s]}$ if the i th most significant bit of $[s]$ is one. Notice that \mathcal{A}_n always belongs to $\overline{\mathcal{P}_{[s]}}$, denoted in what follows by $\overline{\mathcal{P}_{[s]}}$. In this way, we associate with each $(n-1)$ -bit string $[s]$ a bipartition of \mathcal{Q} . As an example suppose $\mathcal{Q} = \{\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2, \mathcal{A}_3\}$, the string 01 corresponds to the bipartition $(\mathcal{A}_2) - (\mathcal{A}_1 \mathcal{A}_3)$, and 00 corresponds to the trivial bipartition $() - (\mathcal{A}_1 \mathcal{A}_2 \mathcal{A}_3)$.

Let us denote by $P_\Omega(A_1, \dots, A_n, E)$ the following family of probability distributions:

$A_1 \dots A_{n-1}$	A_n	E	P_Ω
[0]	0	[0]0 or $[\bar{0}]1$	$\Omega_{[0]}$
$[\bar{0}]$	1	[0]0 or $[\bar{0}]1$	$\Omega_{[0]}$
[1]	0	[1]0	$\Omega_{[1]}$
$[\bar{1}]$	1	$[\bar{1}]1$	$\Omega_{[1]}$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
$[s]$	0	$[s]0$	$\Omega_{[s]}$
$[\bar{s}]$	1	$[\bar{s}]1$	$\Omega_{[s]}$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
$[2^{n-1}-1]$	0	$[2^{n-1}-1]0$	$\Omega_{[2^{n-1}-1]}$
$[2^{n-1}-1]$	1	$[2^{n-1}-1]1$	$\Omega_{[2^{n-1}-1]}$

In this table, each row corresponds to a different event. For example, in the first row event, the obtained outcomes are $A_1 \dots A_n = 0 \dots 0$ and $E = "[0]0$ or $[\bar{0}]1"$, and this happens with probability $\Omega_{[0]}$. As can be seen, the 2^n events are grouped in equiprobable pairs. In order to avoid confusion, let us remark that the alphabet of symbols from which E takes values is

$$\{ "[0]0$$
 or $[\bar{0}]1", "[1]0", "[\bar{1}]1", \dots, "[2^{n-1}-1]0", "[\overline{[2^{n-1}-1]}]1" \}$

that is, "[0]0 or $[\bar{0}]1"$ is one symbol and does not mean that the outcome is "[0]0" or " $[\bar{0}]1$."

Notice that Eve always knows the value of $A_1 \dots A_n$, except in the first two events, where she obtains the outcome "[0]0 or $[\bar{0}]1"$ independently of which is the actual one. The parameters of P_Ω are the positive numbers $\Omega_{[0]}, \dots, \Omega_{[2^{n-1}-1]}$, only constrained by the normalization condition

$$\sum_{s=0}^{2^{n-1}-1} \Omega_{[s]} = \frac{1}{2}. \quad (6)$$

A simple example of P_Ω can be found in Section V-A.

B. Bipartitions

Let us study the bipartite properties of P_Ω . In the following lemmas, it is assumed that all parties within each half, $\mathcal{P}_{[s]}$ and $\overline{\mathcal{P}_{[s]}}$, are together.

Lemma 3: A bipartite secret key between the parts $\mathcal{P}_{[s]}$ and $\overline{\mathcal{P}_{[s]}}$ can be obtained if, and only if, $\Omega_{[s]} < \Omega_{[0]}$.

Proof: To prove the *if* statement we only have to provide an explicit distillation protocol. This protocol has two steps. In the first step, the honest parties discard all realizations of P_Ω in which not all the variables within each half ($\mathcal{P}_{[s]}$ and $\overline{\mathcal{P}_{[s]}}$) have the same value. This operation only filters the following events:

$$A_1 \dots A_{n-1} A_n = [0]0, [\bar{0}]1, [s]0, [\bar{s}]1. \quad (7)$$

The filtered probability distribution is, up to normalization

$\mathcal{P}_{[s]}$	$\overline{\mathcal{P}_{[s]}}$	E	$P_{\Omega filtered}$
0	0	[0]0 or $[\bar{0}]1$	$\Omega_{[0]}$
1	1	[0]0 or $[\bar{0}]1$	$\Omega_{[0]}$
1	0	$[s]0$	$\Omega_{[s]}$
0	1	$[\bar{s}]1$	$\Omega_{[s]}$

Here, $\mathcal{P}_{[s]} = \mathcal{A}_i$ for all i such that $\mathcal{A}_i \in \mathcal{P}_{[s]}$, and, analogously, for $\overline{\mathcal{P}_{[s]}}$ and $\overline{\mathcal{P}_{[s]}}$. Notice that this is well defined because all parties in $\mathcal{P}_{[s]}$ ($\overline{\mathcal{P}_{[s]}}$) have obtained the same outcome. The second step is the repeated code protocol, explained in the Appendix. There, it is shown that this protocol generates a secret key if $\Omega_{[0]} > \Omega_{[s]}$, as we wanted to prove.

The *only if* part can be proven by showing that the intrinsic information of this partition is zero, $I(\mathcal{P}_{[s]} : \overline{\mathcal{P}_{[s]}} \downarrow E) = 0$, when $\Omega_{[0]} < \Omega_{[s]}$. For doing so, we perform the following stochastic map $E \rightarrow \tilde{E}$: If E is equal to $[s]0$ or $[\bar{s}]1$, we assign $\tilde{E} := "[0]0$ or $[\bar{0}]1"$ with probability $\Omega_{[0]}/\Omega_{[s]}$, and, with probability $1 - \Omega_{[0]}/\Omega_{[s]}$ we assign $\tilde{E} := E$. In the rest of the cases we also assign $\tilde{E} := E$. It is easy to check that $I(\mathcal{P}_{[s]} : \overline{\mathcal{P}_{[s]}}|\tilde{E}) = 0$, which ensures that $I(\mathcal{P}_{[s]} : \overline{\mathcal{P}_{[s]}} \downarrow E) = 0$. Now, the upper bound (5) implies that the secret-key rate must be also zero. In other words, we have that when $\Omega_{[0]} < \Omega_{[s]}$

$$S(\mathcal{P}_{[s]} : \overline{\mathcal{P}_{[s]}}||E) = 0 \quad (8)$$

which completes the proof. \square

Lemma 3 provides a tool for designing distributions with involved distillation properties. Suppose that, in order to distill a secret key, the n parties join in two groups according to the bipartition $\mathcal{P}_{[s]}$. Now, we can choose the bipartition in which distillation is possible, and in which it is not. We set $\Omega_{[s]} = 0$, if we allow the parties to obtain a secret key when arranged according to $\mathcal{P}_{[s]}$. Notice that for nontrivial bipartitions, $[s] \neq [0]$. We set $\Omega_{[s]} = \Omega_{[0]}$, if we forbid distillation

when the parties are arranged according to $\mathcal{P}_{[s]}$. Finally, we set $\Omega_{[0]}$ such that the normalization condition (6) is satisfied. Notice that we have as many free parameters as there are possible bipartitions.

C. Multipartitions

Lemma 3 tells us how to construct probability distributions P_Ω , choosing independently which bipartite splits permit secret key extraction, and which do not. Next, we generalize Lemma 3 by considering situations in which the n parties are joined in more than two groups. Of course, this includes the case where the n parties are all separated. Let us introduce some notation first.

An m -partition of \mathcal{Q} is given by m disjoint subsets $\mathcal{Q}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Q}_m \subset \mathcal{Q}$ such that $\mathcal{Q}_1 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{Q}_m = \mathcal{Q}$. As before, we consider that the parties within each subset \mathcal{Q}_i are together. We use Q_i to denote the binary variable associated with the effective ‘‘party’’ \mathcal{Q}_i .

Lemma 4: Consider an m -partition of \mathcal{Q} , $\{\mathcal{Q}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Q}_m\}$. An m -partite secret key among these groups of parties can be obtained if, and only if, for each bit string $[s]$ such that its corresponding bipartition $\mathcal{P}_{[s]}$ does not split any set $\mathcal{Q}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Q}_m$, the inequality $\Omega_{[s]} < \Omega_{[0]}$ holds.

Proof: The *only if* assertion is just Lemma 1, but using the equivalence of Lemma 3. Let us prove the *if* part by giving a protocol which is a generalization of the one given in the proof of Lemma 3. First, the honest parties discard all realizations of P_Ω in which there is at least one subset \mathcal{Q}_i containing variables with different values. Or equivalently, they reject all events where $A_1 \dots A_n$ is equal to $[s]0$ or $[\bar{s}]1$, such that its associated bipartition $\mathcal{P}_{[s]}$ splits at least one subset \mathcal{Q}_i . As usual, $Q_i = A_i$ for all i such that $\mathcal{A}_i \in \mathcal{Q}_i$. After this filtering operation, the probability distribution is, up to normalization

$Q_1 \dots Q_m$	E	$P_{\Omega filtered}$
$[0]0$	$[0]0$ or $[\bar{0}]1$	$\Omega_{[0]}$
$[\bar{0}]1$	$[0]0$ or $[\bar{0}]1$	$\Omega_{[0]}$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
$[s]0$	$[s]0$	$\Omega_{[s]}$
$[\bar{s}]1$	$[\bar{s}]1$	$\Omega_{[\bar{s}]}$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots

Notice that in the first column, we specify the value of the m -bit string $Q_1 \dots Q_m$ with an n -bit string, say $[s]0$. This is well defined if we recall that, in all filtered events, the bits in $[s]0$ associated with the parties belonging to \mathcal{Q}_i , have the same value, and this value is the one assigned to the variable Q_i . Now, the m parties perform the repeated code protocol to $P_{\Omega|filtered}$. In the Appendix it is shown that this protocol works if the condition of Lemma 4 holds. \square

D. Noncooperating Parties

In this subsection, we generalize Lemma 4 by considering the presence of noncooperating parties. It is clear that a single party, say \mathcal{A}_i , can always prevent the others from obtaining a secret key. To do so, she only has to make public the value of A_i in each realization of P_Ω . After this procedure, Eve will know the value of each variable in the two events where all variables are equal: $A_1 \dots A_n = 0 \dots 0$ or $A_1 \dots A_n = 1 \dots 1$. In the rest of events, Eve already knew the value of each variable. Therefore, by a noncooperating party we do not mean

a party who is against the others, but one who does not want to be involved in the distillation protocol. Let us first, introduce some notation.

In what follows, when referring to the m disjoint subsets $\mathcal{Q}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Q}_m \subset \mathcal{Q}$, we do not require that they satisfy $\mathcal{Q}_1 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{Q}_m = \mathcal{Q}$. In other words, they do not have to be an m -partition of \mathcal{Q} . It is understood that the parties not belonging to $\mathcal{Q}_1 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{Q}_m$ do not participate in the protocol. Throughout this section, primed quantities in square brackets $[z']$ have to be understood as $(m - 1)$ -bit strings. That is, we associate with each integer $z \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^{m-1} - 1\}$ the $(m - 1)$ -bit string corresponding to its binary expansion, denoted by $[z']$. As in the rest of the correspondence, unprimed integers in square brackets mean $(n - 1)$ -bit strings. We also denote by $[\bar{z}']$ the $(m - 1)$ -bit string where each bit has the opposite value than in $[z']$. Following the analogy, $\mathcal{P}_{[z']}$ is a subset of $\{\mathcal{Q}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Q}_m\}$ defined with the same convention as $\mathcal{P}_{[s]}$. That is, \mathcal{Q}_i belongs to $\mathcal{P}_{[z']}$ if the i^{th} most significant bit of $[z']$ has the value one. We define $\bar{\mathcal{P}}_{[z']}$ analogously, which always contains \mathcal{Q}_m . We also use $\mathcal{P}_{[z']}$ to denote bipartitions of $\{\mathcal{Q}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Q}_m\}$. Additionally, we associate with each bipartition of $\{\mathcal{Q}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Q}_m\}$ some bipartitions of \mathcal{Q} , in the following way. We say that $\mathcal{P}_{[s]}$ is associated with $\mathcal{P}_{[z']}$ if $\mathcal{P}_{[s]}$ contains all parties belonging to the subsets \mathcal{Q}_i such that $\mathcal{Q}_i \in \mathcal{P}_{[z']}$, and, does not contain any party belonging to the subsets \mathcal{Q}_i such that $\mathcal{Q}_i \in \bar{\mathcal{P}}_{[z']}$. Notice that the noncooperating parties, the ones not belonging to $\mathcal{Q}_1 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{Q}_m$, may or may not belong to $\mathcal{P}_{[s]}$. Therefore, there can be many $\mathcal{P}_{[s]}$ associated with one $\mathcal{P}_{[z']}$. We also extend this relation to bit strings in a natural way: we say $[s] \sim [z']$ if $\mathcal{P}_{[s]}$ is associated with $\mathcal{P}_{[z']}$.

Theorem 5: An m -partite secret key among the groups of parties $\mathcal{Q}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Q}_m$ can be obtained if, and only if, for each bipartition of these m groups $\mathcal{P}_{[z']}$, the inequality

$$\sum_{\forall [s] \sim [z']} \Omega_{[s]} < \Omega_{[0]} \tag{9}$$

holds.

Proof: As in the previous cases, we prove the *if* assertion by giving a protocol that works under the stated conditions. The usual protocol is readily generalized to fit this case: The cooperating honest parties discard all realizations of P_Ω for which there is at least one group \mathcal{Q}_i , in which the variables are not all equal. Or equivalently, they reject all events $A_1 \dots A_n = [s]0, [\bar{s}]1$ such that, its corresponding bipartition $\mathcal{P}_{[s]}$ splits at least one subset \mathcal{Q}_i . Notice that in the filtered events, the noncooperating parties’ variables can have any value. After this filtering, the probability distribution is, up to normalization

$Q_1 \dots Q_{m-1} \quad Q_m$	E	$P_{\Omega filtered}$
$[0']$	0	$[0']0$ or $[\bar{0}']1$
$[\bar{0}']$	1	$[0']0$ or $[\bar{0}']1$
$[1']$	0	$[1']0$
$[\bar{1}']$	1	$[\bar{1}']1$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
$[z']$	0	$[z']0$
$[\bar{z}']$	1	$[\bar{z}']1$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots

$$\sum_{\forall [s] \sim [1']} \Omega_{[s]}$$

$$\sum_{\forall [s] \sim [1']} \Omega_{[s]}$$

$$\sum_{\forall [s] \sim [z']} \Omega_{[s]}$$

$$\sum_{\forall [s] \sim [z']} \Omega_{[s]}$$

As usual, $Q_i = A_i$ for all i such that $A_i \in \mathcal{Q}_i$. As shown in the Appendix, the repeated code protocol works with $P_{\Omega|_{\text{filtered}}}$ if, for all $[z']$, condition (9) holds.

To prove the *only if* part, let us suppose that there exists at least one string $[z'_0]$ such that (9) is not satisfied. According to Lemma 1, when the groups $\mathcal{Q}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Q}_m$ can distill an m -partite secret key, a bipartite key is also obtainable when the m groups are joined in just two groups. This must hold for any bipartition of $\{\mathcal{Q}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Q}_m\}$, say $[z'_0]$. Let us see that this is impossible when

$$\sum_{\forall [s] \sim [z'_0]} \Omega_{[s]} \geq \Omega_{[0]} \quad (10)$$

holds. As in the proof of Lemma 3, we show that the secret-key rate between $\mathcal{P}_{[z'_0]}$ and $\bar{\mathcal{P}}_{[z'_0]}$ is zero, by computing the intrinsic information between these two parts. To do so, we perform a similar stochastic map $E \rightarrow \hat{E}$: If $E = [z']0$ or $E = [z']1$ we assign $\hat{E} = "[0]0$ or $[0]1"$ with probability $\Omega_{[0]}/\sum_{\forall [s] \sim [z']} \Omega_{[s]}$. In the rest of the cases, $\hat{E} = E$. It is easy to check that

$$I(P_{[z']} : \bar{\mathcal{P}}_{[z']} | \hat{E}) = 0 \quad (11)$$

which implies the above mentioned impossibility. \square

E. Correlations Without Secrecy

In this subsection, we will characterize those P_{Ω} that can be established by LOPC. Notice that this does not mean that P_{Ω} can actually be simulated by LOPC, but that its cost, as defined in Section II, is zero $I_{\text{form}}(P_{\Omega}) = 0$. Following the definition given in [15], we say that a distribution P can be established by LOPC, if there exists another distribution P' containing more secrecy than P , such that P' can be simulated by LOPC. For instance, if P can be transformed into P' by degrading Eve's information, then P' contains more secrecy than P .

Theorem 6: A probability distribution P_{Ω} can be generated by LOPC if, and only if, for all bipartite splittings $\mathcal{P}_{[s]}$,

$$\Omega_{[s]} \geq \Omega_{[0]} \quad (12)$$

holds.

Proof: Let us start by the *only if* part. In the proof of Lemma 3, we have seen that whenever $\Omega_{[s]} \geq \Omega_{[0]}$, the intrinsic information for the corresponding bipartite splitting is zero, $I(\mathcal{P}_{[s]} : \bar{\mathcal{P}}_{[s]} \downarrow E) = 0$. It has been proven in [15] that $I_1 = 0$ if, and only if, $I_{\text{form}} = 0$. This result and Lemma 2 imply that (12) is a necessary condition for P_{Ω} being generated by LOPC.

For the *if* part of the proof, we proceed as follows. First, we introduce a probability distribution P'_{Ω} and prove it cannot be less secret than P_{Ω} . This is done by showing that P'_{Ω} can be obtained from P_{Ω} by degrading Eve's information; namely, there exists a map for Eve's random variable $E \rightarrow \hat{E}$ such that $P_{\Omega} \rightarrow P'_{\Omega}$. Next, we give an explicit LOPC protocol producing the probability distribution P'_{Ω} without any additional resource. Thus, I_{form} is zero for P'_{Ω} . Then, it follows from the definition of information of formation, given in [15], that P_{Ω} has also $I_{\text{form}} = 0$.

With each P_{Ω} such that (12) holds for all $[s]$, we associate the following distribution P'_{Ω} :

$A_1 \dots A_{n-1} \ A_n$		\hat{E}	P'_{Ω}
$[0]$	0	x	$\Omega_{[0]}$
$[0]$	1	x	$\Omega_{[0]}$
$[1]$	0	x	$\Omega_{[0]}$
$[1]$	1	x	$\Omega_{[0]}$
$[1]$	0	$[1]0$	$\Omega_{[1]} - \Omega_{[0]}$
$[1]$	1	$[1]1$	$\Omega_{[1]} - \Omega_{[0]}$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
$[s]$	0	x	$\Omega_{[0]}$
$[s]$	1	x	$\Omega_{[0]}$
$[s]$	0	$[s]0$	$\Omega_{[s]} - \Omega_{[0]}$
$[s]$	1	$[s]1$	$\Omega_{[s]} - \Omega_{[0]}$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
$[2^{n-1} - 1]$	0	x	$\Omega_{[0]}$
$[2^{n-1} - 1]$	1	x	$\Omega_{[0]}$
$[2^{n-1} - 1]$	0	$[2^{n-1} - 1]0$	$\Omega_{[2^{n-1}-1]} - \Omega_{[0]}$
$[2^{n-1} - 1]$	1	$[2^{n-1} - 1]1$	$\Omega_{[2^{n-1}-1]} - \Omega_{[0]}$

Actually, P'_{Ω} can be obtained from P_{Ω} after the following stochastic map on Eve's random variable $E \rightarrow \hat{E}$. If E is equal to "[0]0 or [0]1" we assign $\hat{E} := "x"$. If E is equal to $[s]0$ ($[s]1$), we assign $\hat{E} := "x"$ with probability $\Omega_{[0]}/\Omega_{[s]}$, and, with probability $1 - \Omega_{[0]}/\Omega_{[s]}$ we assign $\hat{E} := E$. Now, we prove that all probability distributions P'_{Ω} of that kind can be created with the following LOPC protocol. With probability $2^n \Omega_{[0]}$ party A_1 broadcasts the public message "x." After receiving "x," each party $A_1 \dots A_n$ locally generates a random bit $A_1 \dots A_n$. With probability $\Omega_{[s]} - \Omega_{[0]}$, party A_1 broadcasts the public message $[s]0$ ($[s]1$). After receiving this message each party outputs its corresponding bit from the sequence $[s]0$ ($[s]1$). This implies $I_{\text{form}} = 0$ for P'_{Ω} , and the same result applies to P_{Ω} . \square

F. Construction of the Examples

In this subsection, we explicitly construct the examples that have been introduced at the beginning of the correspondence. This is done by repeatedly using Theorem 5.

Example 1: Let us design a probability distribution of n honest parties which is distillable if, and only if, more than m parties cooperate in the protocol. In other words, if $n - m$ parties (or more) do not cooperate, distillation is impossible. Consider the situation where there are m cooperating parties. For each bipartition of them, $\mathcal{P}_{[z']}$, there are 2^{n-m} different ways of distributing the $n - m$ noncooperating parties between the two groups. That is, there are 2^{n-m} different bipartitions $\mathcal{P}_{[s]}$ associated with $\mathcal{P}_{[z']}$. If we set $\Omega_{[s]} = \Omega_{[0]}/2^{n-m}$ for all $[s] \neq [0]$, (9) will be satisfied if, and only if, the sum $\sum_{\forall [s] \sim [z']} \Omega_{[s]}$ has less than 2^{n-m} terms, and this only happens if the number of cooperating parties is larger than m . Notice that $\Omega_{[0]}$ is fixed by the normalization condition (6). Because all $\Omega_{[s]}$ with $[s] \neq [0]$ have the same value, distillation is possible even when the cooperating parties are all separated.

Example 2: Let us construct an n -party distribution, which is distillable if, and only if, the cooperating parties join in groups of at least k people, independently of how many parties do not cooperate. We denote by $W_{[s]}$ the number of ones that the bit string $[s]$ has. We impose $\Omega_{[s]} = 0$ for all strings with $k \leq W_{[s]} \leq n - k$, and $\Omega_{[s]} = \Omega_{[0]}$ for the rest. As before, $\Omega_{[0]}$ is fixed by the normalization condition (6). It is easy to see that, if there is a group of less than k parties, the bipartition having these k parties on one side and the rest on the other side, satisfies $\Omega_{[s]} = \Omega_{[0]}$, and this prevents condition (9) from being satisfied. When all cooperating groups contain at least k people, all bipartitions that do not split any of the groups satisfy $\Omega_{[s]} = 0$, in this case, condition (9) holds independently of how many parties do not cooperate.

Example 3: This n -party distribution is distillable if, and only if, more than m parties participate in the protocol, AND, they join in groups of at least k people. This is achieved with the following assignments. We set $\Omega_{[s]} = \Omega_{[0]}/2^{n-m}$ if $k \leq W_{[s]} \leq n - k$, with $k \leq n/2$, and $\Omega_{[s]} = \Omega_{[0]}$ otherwise. As in Example 2, if there is one group of less than k cooperating parties condition (9) does not hold. Reasoning in the same fashion as in Example 1, if there are m or less cooperating parties distillation is impossible.

Example 4: This n -party distribution is distillable if, and only if, there are more than m cooperating parties, OR, they join in groups of at least k people, or both. We set $\Omega_{[s]} = 0$ if $k \leq W_{[s]} \leq n - k$, and $\Omega_{[s]} = \Omega_{[0]}/2^{n-m}$ for the rest.

Example 5: This n -party distribution is distillable if, and only if, parties \mathcal{A}_i and \mathcal{A}_j cooperate and remain always together. We suppose without loss of generality that $i, j \neq n$. If the i th and j th most significant bits of the string $[s]$ have the same value, we set $\Omega_{[s]} = 0$ and $\Omega_{[s]} = \Omega_{[0]}$ otherwise. It is clear that this fulfills our demand. A variation of this example is when distillation is possible if, and only if, parties \mathcal{A}_i and \mathcal{A}_j remain separated. The construction of this case is closely analogous to the previous one. Now, we set $\Omega_{[s]} = 0$ if $[s]$ has different values for the i th and j th most significant bits, and $\Omega_{[s]} = \Omega_{[0]}$ otherwise.

V. BOUND INFORMATION

Bound information represents the cryptographic analog of bound entanglement, an intriguing feature of some quantum states found by the Horodeckis in 1998 [11]. In the bipartite case, bound information can easily be defined using the previously introduced quantities [10]: a probability distribution $P(A, B, E)$ contains bound information when the following two conditions hold:

$$\begin{aligned} S &= 0 \\ I_{\text{form}} &> 0. \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

Therefore, $P(A, B, E)$ has bound information when i) no secret-key bits can be extracted from it by LOPC, but ii) its formation by LOPC is impossible. In other words, the nonzero secrecy content of the probability is bound because secret correlations are necessary for its preparation but cannot be distilled into a pure form. There exist several results supporting the existence of this analog of bound entanglement in the bipartite case: in [8], [10], several probability distributions were constructed for which one can prove that I_1 is strictly positive but none of the known secret-key distillation protocols allows to extract secret bits. Moreover, it was shown in [15] that there exist probability distributions where $S < I_{\text{form}}$. This already proves the irreversibility, in terms of secret bits, in the processes of formation and key distillation for some probability distributions. Actually, the authors of [15] constructed a family of probability distributions where $I_{\text{form}} > 1/2$ while

S can be arbitrarily small. Unfortunately, no example of $P(A, B, E)$ such that $0 = S < I_{\text{form}}$ has been given so far.

Bound information was initially defined in the case of two honest parties. However, its generalization to the considered fully multipartite scenario is straightforward: a probability distribution $P(A_1, \dots, A_n, E)$ has bound information when i) no secret-key bits can be extracted between any pair of parties by LOPC and ii) its formation by LOPC is impossible. Notice that this generalization of bound information is consistent with the definition of nondistillability employed in this work. In what follows, we use the techniques described above in order to show the existence of multipartite bound information. We will do that for the case of three honest parties. Moreover, we will see that similarly to what happens in the quantum case, bound information can be activated: the combination of different probability distributions with bound information may give a distillable probability distribution.

A. Proof of the Existence of Bound Information

In this subsection, we prove the existence of bound information in the tripartite scenario. In order to do that we give a probability distribution $P(A_1, A_2, A_3, E)$ and show that its formation by LOPC is impossible but no secret-key bits can be extracted from it by the honest parties using LOPC. Although these results already appear in [1], here we review them using the formalism described in the previous section.

Using the introduced notation, an example of tripartite probability distribution having bound information reads as follows:

$A_1 A_2 A_3$	E	P_1
$[0] 0$	$[0]0$ or $[\bar{0}]1$	$1/6$
$[\bar{0}] 1$	$[0]0$ or $[\bar{0}]1$	$1/6$
$[1] 0$	$[1]0$	$1/6$
$[\bar{1}] 1$	$[\bar{1}]1$	$1/6$
$[2] 0$	$[2]0$	0
$[\bar{2}] 1$	$[\bar{2}]1$	0
$[3] 0$	$[3]0$	$1/6$
$[\bar{3}] 1$	$[\bar{3}]1$	$1/6$

Note that the role played by A_2 and A_3 in P_1 is the same, up to a relabeling of Eve's variables.

Using Lemmas 1 and 3, it is relatively simple to see that no pair of parties can distill secret bits from this probability distribution. Consider, for instance, the partition $\mathcal{A}_2 - (\mathcal{A}_1 \mathcal{A}_3)$, corresponding to $[s] = [1] = 01$. Because of Lemma 3, no distillation is possible since $\Omega_{[1]} = \Omega_{[0]} = 1/6$. Then, Lemma 1 implies that \mathcal{A}_2 can distill secret bits neither with \mathcal{A}_1 nor with \mathcal{A}_3 . Because of the symmetry of the distribution, the same result holds for $(\mathcal{A}_1 \mathcal{A}_2) - \mathcal{A}_3$. Therefore, no pair of parties can distill a secret key. Finally, consider the third partition $\mathcal{A}_1 - (\mathcal{A}_2 \mathcal{A}_3)$. In this case, where $[s] = [2] = 10$, we have $\Omega_{[2]} = 0 < \Omega_{[0]} = 1/6$. That is, the probability distribution corresponding to this partition is distillable, which means that it could not have been created by LOPC. Using Lemma 2, this implies that the initial probability distribution P_1 cannot be created by LOPC either. This proves that the nonzero secrecy content of P_1 is bound, i.e., it constitutes an example of bound information.

The proof presented here is almost the same as in [1], having been adapted to the notation introduced above. Actually, the nondistillability of P_1 could alternatively have been proven using Lemma 4. Note also that many of the probability distributions given above, such as Example 2, already constituted examples of bound information.

B. Bound Information Can Be Activated

The activation of bound entanglement is perhaps one of the most surprising results found in entanglement theory [6], [18]. Bound entanglement is said to be activated whenever one can distill pure-state entanglement from the combination of several bound entangled states. Remarkably, in some cases, this activation can be achieved by mixing different bound entangled states [7]! As it will be shown shortly, a similar feature is observed for classical probability distributions.

Consider the situation where three honest parties and an eavesdropper have access to correlated random variables described by P_1 . In addition, they also have access to other random variables described by P_2 and P_3 , where these two probability distributions correspond to cyclic permutations $A_1 \rightarrow A_2 \rightarrow A_3 \rightarrow A_1$ of P_1 . That is, the random variable for party \mathcal{A}_i in P_j is A_{i+j-1} , where the sum is modulo 3. Of course, P_1 , P_2 , and P_3 have bound information. Now, the three honest parties forget what the actual distribution is. Alternatively, one can think that a source is sending to the parties random variables correlated through P_1 , P_2 , and P_3 with equal probability, and the information about the probability distribution is only accessible to Eve. The resulting distribution, P_{res} , can be described as

$A_1 A_2$	A_3	E	P_{res}
[0]	0	[0]0 or $[\bar{0}]1$	1/6
$[\bar{0}]$	1	[0]0 or $[\bar{0}]1$	1/6
[1]	0	[1]0	1/9
$[\bar{1}]$	1	$[\bar{1}]1$	1/9
[2]	0	[2]0	1/9
$[\bar{2}]$	1	$[\bar{2}]1$	1/9
[3]	0	[3]0	1/9
$[\bar{3}]$	1	$[\bar{3}]1$	1/9

It is now straightforward to see that this probability distribution is distillable, even in the fully multipartite scenario, where the three parties remain separated. This follows from Lemma 4, since for all the partitions one has $1/9 < 1/6$. Therefore, the combination of nondistillable probability distributions produces a distillable distribution.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this work, we have presented a family of probability distributions in the multipartite scenario of n honest parties and an eavesdropper. Using this family, we were able to construct different examples of probability distribution with a huge variety of secrecy properties. This rich variety of examples shows how intricate the structure of multipartite secret correlations is. Moreover, the introduced techniques allowed us to prove the existence and activation of bound information, namely nondistillable secret correlations.

We would like to mention here some analogies between our results and the problem of entanglement manipulations in quantum information theory (see [10], [5]). The intuition for the construction of the previous family of probability distributions came from the quantum states discussed in [6], [7]. Indeed, these distributions represent the cryptographic classical analog of these states. Moreover, the existence of bound information, that was our initial motivation for this study, was conjectured in the year 2000 [10] as a classical counterpart of bound entanglement. In this sense, all these results constitute one of the first examples where well-established ideas in quantum information theory have successfully been translated to the classical side. Up to now, the flow of results has mainly been in the opposite direction.

As mentioned above, one could have considered a stronger definition of nondistillability, where some parties are allowed to communicate secretly. This stronger definition of nondistillability would lead to a different, and also stronger, generalization of bound information. It would be interesting to obtain a probability distribution having this type of bound information. Indeed, according to this stronger definition, all the previous probability distributions with positive secrecy content become distillable. A possible insight to this problem could again be derived from quantum information theory, since there exists tripartite quantum states that are entangled in spite of being separable according to all the bipartite partitions [3]. This possibility appears as a natural follow-up of the present work.

Unfortunately, the existence of bipartite bound information, that is, probability distributions with nondistillable secret correlations, remains as an open question. Indeed, to prove the existence of multipartite bound information we exploited the possibility of joining the parties into different groups, such that key agreement is possible between the groups. But this is impossible in the bipartite scenario. In this sense, it is an interesting issue to study how those quantum concepts that allowed to prove the existence of bipartite bound entanglement for quantum states, such as partial transposition [14], can be adapted to the key-agreement scenario.

APPENDIX
REPEATED CODE PROTOCOL

In this appendix, the repeated code protocol is described. Consider m separated parties $\mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_m$ willing to generate an m -partite secret key. Each of these parties, say \mathcal{A}_i , has access to many realizations of its corresponding random variable A_i . Additionally, there is an eavesdropping party, Eve, who has access to a random variable E correlated to A_i through the probability distribution $P(A_1, \dots, A_m, E)$. Note that it is assumed that each realization of A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m, E , is independent of the other. Moreover, this probability distribution is known by all the parties.

The first part of this key distillation protocol is implemented by the following three steps.

- 1) Each party takes N realizations of her own random variable:

$$\begin{aligned}
 A_1^N &= (A_1^{(1)}, A_1^{(2)}, \dots, A_1^{(N)}) \\
 &\vdots \\
 A_m^N &= (A_m^{(1)}, A_m^{(2)}, \dots, A_m^{(N)}) .
 \end{aligned}$$

- 2) One of the honest parties—say \mathcal{A}_1 —generates locally a random bit k_1 , computes the N numbers $X^{(r)} := (k_1 + A_1^{(r)} \bmod 2)$ for $r = 1, \dots, N$, and broadcasts through the public channel the N -bit string

$$(X^{(1)}, X^{(2)}, \dots, X^{(N)}) . \tag{14}$$

- 3) All the remaining parties—in this case $\mathcal{A}_2, \dots, \mathcal{A}_n$ —perform the following operation. Party \mathcal{A}_i adds bitwise the broadcasted string (14) to his symbols $(A_i^{(1)}, A_i^{(2)}, \dots, A_i^{(N)})$. If he obtains the same result for all of them, that is, $(X^{(r)} + A_i^{(r)} \bmod 2) = k_i$ for $r = 1, \dots, N$, he accepts k_i and communicates the acceptance to the other parties. If not, all parties reject the N realizations of P_Ω .

The final step to attain a secret key uses as input many realizations of (k_1, \dots, k_m) . It consists of the secret key distillation protocol given by Csiszár and Körner in [4]. The fact that this protocol is designed for two parties is not a problem. In our case, one of the honest parties, say \mathcal{A}_1 , broadcasts all public messages to the rest, who perform error correction and privacy amplification to their data.

Let us analyze under which conditions a probability distribution belonging to the family of P_Ω can be distilled into a secret key using this protocol. In the usual notation, a probability distribution P_Ω reads

$A_1 \dots A_{m-1} \quad A_m$	E	P_Ω
$[0] \quad 0$	$[0]0$ or $[\bar{0}]1$	$\Omega_{[0]}$
$[\bar{0}] \quad 1$	$[0]0$ or $[\bar{0}]1$	$\Omega_{[0]}$
$\vdots \quad \vdots$	\vdots	\vdots
$[s] \quad 0$	$[s]0$	$\Omega_{[s]}$
$[\bar{s}] \quad 1$	$[\bar{s}]1$	$\Omega_{[s]}$
$\vdots \quad \vdots$	\vdots	\vdots

Notice that when party \mathcal{A}_i , with $i \geq 2$, accepts k_i in step 3), the variables $A_i^{(1)}, \dots, A_i^{(N)}$ are all equal, or, all different to $A_1^{(1)}, \dots, A_1^{(N)}$. This is equivalent to saying that, the N realizations of P_Ω used in this first part of the protocol, have to be all in the same pair of events, characterized by a given s_0 , that is, $A_1^{(r)} \dots A_m^{(r)} = [s_0]0$ or $A_1^{(r)} \dots A_m^{(r)} = [\bar{s}_0]1$ for $r = 1, \dots, N$. This happens with probability

$$p(s_0) = \frac{\Omega_{[s_0]}^N}{\sum_{[s]} \Omega_{[s]}^N}. \quad (15)$$

Notice that in the case $[s_0] = [0]$, the bits k_1, \dots, k_m are all equal, and Eve has no knowledge about them. If $\Omega_{[0]} > \Omega_{[s]}$ for all $[s] \neq [0]$, the probability $p(0)$ tends to one when making N large. Thus, choosing a large enough N , the honest parties can obtain a probability distribution which satisfies

$$I(k_i : k_j) > I(k_i : E), \quad \forall i, j = 1, \dots, m. \quad (16)$$

This condition implies that the key distillation protocol presented in [4] gives a positive rate.

Result: An m -partite distribution of the family \mathcal{P}_Ω can be distilled if $\Omega_{[0]} > \Omega_{[s]}$ for all $[s] \neq [0]$.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors would like to thank Ignacio Cirac, Nicolas Gisin, Nick Jones, Renato Renner, and Stefan Wolf for discussion.

REFERENCES

- [1] A. Acín, J. I. Cirac, and L. Masanes, "Multipartite bound information exists and can be activated," *Phys. Rev. Lett.*, vol. 92, p. 107903, 2004.
- [2] C. H. Bennett and G. Brassard, "Quantum cryptography: Public key distribution and coin tossing," in *Proc. IEEE Int. Conf. Computers, Systems and Signal Processing*, Bangalore, India, 1984, pp. 175–179.
- [3] C. H. Bennett, D. P. DiVincenzo, T. Mor, P. W. Shor, J. A. Smolin, and B. M. Terhal, "Unextendible product bases and bound entanglement," *Phys. Rev. Lett.*, vol. 82, pp. 5385–5388, 1999.
- [4] I. Csiszár and J. Körner, "Broadcast channels with confidential messages," *IEEE Trans. Inf. Theory*, vol. IT-24, no. 3, pp. 339–348, May 1978.

- [5] D. Collins and S. Popescu, "Classical analog of entanglement," *Phys. Rev. A*, vol. 65, p. 032321, 2002.
- [6] W. Dür and J. I. Cirac, "Activating bound entanglement in multiparticle systems," *Phys. Rev. A*, vol. 62, p. 022302, 2000.
- [7] —, "Multiparticle entanglement and its experimental detection," *J. Phys. A: Math. and Gen.*, vol. 34, no. 35, pp. 6837–6850, 2001.
- [8] N. Gisin, R. Renner, and S. Wolf, "Linking classical and quantum key agreement: Is there a classical analog to bound entanglement?," *Algorithmica*, vol. 34, pp. 389–412, 2002.
- [9] N. Gisin, G. Ribordy, W. Tittel, and H. Zbinden, "Quantum cryptography," *Rev. Mod. Phys.*, vol. 74, pp. 145–195, 2002.
- [10] N. Gisin and S. Wolf, "Linking classical and quantum key agreement: Is there bound information?," in *Proce. CRYPTO 2000*, 2000, vol. 1880, Lecture Notes in Computer Science, pp. 482–500.
- [11] M. Horodecki, P. Horodecki, and R. Horodecki, "Mixed-state entanglement and distillation: Is there a "bound" entanglement in nature?," *Phys. Rev. Lett.*, vol. 80, pp. 5239–5242, 1998.
- [12] U. M. Maurer, "Secret key agreement by public discussion from common information," *IEEE Trans. Inf. Theory*, vol. 39, no. 3, pp. 733–742, May 1993.
- [13] U. M. Maurer and S. Wolf, "Unconditional secure key agreement and the intrinsic information," *IEEE Trans. Inf. Theory*, vol. 45, no. 2, pp. 499–514, Mar. 1999.
- [14] A. Peres, "Separability criterion for density matrices," *Phys. Rev. Lett.*, vol. 77, pp. 1413–1415, 1996.
- [15] R. Renner and S. Wolf, "New bounds in secret-key agreement: The gap between formation and secrecy extraction," in *Advances in Cryptography—EUROCRYPT 2003 (Lecture Notes in Computer Science)*. Berlin, Germany: Springer-Verlag, 2003, vol. 2656, pp. 562–577.
- [16] C. E. Shannon, "Communication theory of secrecy systems," *Bell Syst. Tech. J.*, vol. 28, pp. 656–715, 1949.
- [17] P. W. Shor, S. Goldwasser, Ed., "Algorithms for quantum computation: Discrete logarithms and factoring," in *Proc. 35th Symp. Foundations of Computer Science*, Los Alamitos, CA, 1994, pp. 124–134.
- [18] P. W. Shor, J. A. Smolin, and A. V. Thapliyal, "Superactivation of bound entanglement," *Phys. Rev. Lett.*, vol. 90, p. 107901, 2003.
- [19] G. S. Vernam, "Cipher printing telegraph systems for secret wire and radio telegraph communications," *J. Amer. Inst. Elect. Eng.*, vol. 55, pp. 109–115, 1926.
- [20] A. D. Wyner, "The wire-tap channel," *Bell Syst. Tech. J.*, vol. 54, no. 8, pp. 1355–1387, 1975.