

Quantum Merlin-Arthur with an Internally Separable Proof

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Abstract

While the role of entanglement in quantum proof systems has been extensively studied, the computational power of unentanglement remains poorly understood. Since entanglement admits many inequivalent multipartite structures, it is natural to ask how more fine-grained structural promises affect computational power. In this work we investigate a mild promise: each proof is internally separable, meaning that after tracing out one register, a designated constant-size subsystem is separable from the rest – even though the overall proof may still be entangled across every bipartition. We prove a qualitative jump from one proof to two: with one internally separable proof, the resulting class is contained in EXP (even allowing an inverse-exponential completeness–soundness gap), whereas with two unentangled internally separable proofs, the class equals NEXP at constant gap. Notably, in the NEXP construction, the second proof is used solely to implement a SWAP-based purity test.

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1 Overview

Entanglement is a fundamental property of quantum mechanics. One approach to understanding this phenomenon is through the lens of computational complexity, probing the power of quantum proof systems with and without entanglement. A canonical example is the relationship between QMA and QMA(2). Here QMA is the quantum analogue of NP (see [30] for a survey): a quantum polynomial-time verifier (Arthur) receives a quantum state (the proof) from an all-powerful prover (Merlin) and decides whether to accept. The class QMA(2) restricts Merlin’s proof to be a product across a fixed bipartition – equivalently, the two halves are sent by two unentangled Merlins. Understanding whether this restriction gives strictly more power is one of the central open problems in quantum complexity theory, unresolved for two decades (e.g. [49, 2, 38]). Despite substantial evidence that QMA(2) can outperform QMA in natural settings (e.g. [15, 2, 22, 58]), our unconditional knowledge in the standard constant-gap setting remains limited to the trivial inclusions

$$\text{QMA} \subseteq \text{QMA}(2) \subseteq \text{NEXP}$$

As posed in [2]: what is the power of unentanglement?

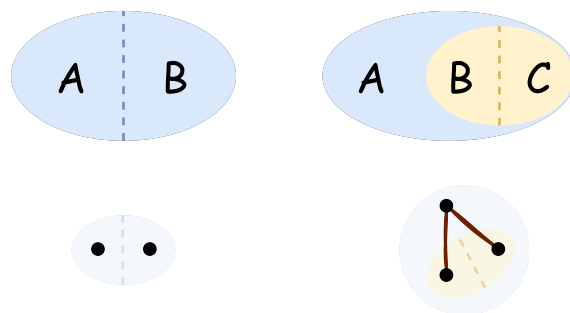
One of the unusual aspects of this landscape is that QMA(2) appears very sensitive to the structure of the proof system. Small changes to the model – extra interaction, very small gaps, or additional promises on the witness – can raise the power all the way to NEXP [58, 45, 10, 32]. This sensitivity complicates attempts to prove meaningful upper bounds for QMA(2). On the other hand, multipartite entanglement admits far richer structure than the binary distinction “entangled vs. unentangled,” motivating a finer-grained study of the witness’s entanglement structure. In this work, we take a first step exploring whether fine-grained entanglement promises can lead to a robust and analyzable refinement of QMA(2), or whether even very mild structural constraints on entanglement already trigger the same dramatic complexity jumps.

1.1 Internal separability: a fine-grained entanglement promise

We study the power of unentanglement through a natural multipartite promise that constrains only a *marginal* of the witness. We restrict Merlin to quantum states we call internally separable: a proof is a tripartite state ρ_{ABC} where C has only constant qubits and ρ_{BC} is separable. This is a mild constraint – ρ may remain entangled across every bipartition – but it fixes a separable marginal. Equivalently, these witnesses can be viewed as (partial) purifications of separable states. Importantly, internal separability is a constraint within a single proof. Our results show that even this very mild structural promise reveals unentanglement as powerful.

1.2 A qualitative one-versus-two jump, driven only by purity

Our main theorem establishes a sharp one-versus-two prover separation for internally-separable proofs. With one such proof, the resulting proof system is simulable in EXP. With two unentangled such proofs, the system becomes as powerful as NEXP. Thus, the “power of unentanglement” in this setting is as large as the gap between EXP and NEXP.



■ **Figure 1** Cartoons of a separable state and a state with a separable subsystem. The left side depicts a separable state, where parts A and B share no entanglement. The right side depicts a state where *after* tracing out part A , parts B and C share no entanglement; this state is in general entangled across every bipartition. The lower cartoons each display a graph where every vertex is a part (A , B , or C), and an edge between two parts X, Y allows bipartite entanglement in the reduced state ρ_{XY} . On the right side, part A is entangled with both part B and part C .

Beyond the separation itself, the proof reveals an unexpected mechanism. In our construction, the role of the two unentangled proofs is minimal: they are used solely to implement a purity test. This stands in contrast with the usual intuition around $\text{QMA}(2)$, where one typically relies on separability in a more robust way – most notably via the product test [38]. Conceptually, our results isolate a striking source of power: certifying that a state is pure (as opposed to mixed) can already suffice to unlock NEXP in the presence of even limited internal separability.

More broadly, our work highlights a qualitative distinction between pure and mixed witnesses in multi-prover quantum proof systems, and it points to a concrete route by which structural promises about internal entanglement might drive complexity-theoretic jumps. In particular, it resonates with recent efforts aimed at understanding whether $\text{QMA}(2)$ itself could reach NEXP [45, 10]. We hope this perspective – treating entanglement structure as a first-class computational resource – encourages further investigation into how subtle promises about witnesses can have outsized consequences for computational power.

2 Results

Consider the complexity class QMA_{IS} , a variant of QMA where the quantum proof must have a fixed, separable *subsystem*: that is, after tracing out all qubits beyond the subsystem, a predetermined set of $O(1)$ qubits are *not* entangled with the rest of the subsystem (see formal definition in Appendix A). Unlike in $\text{QMA}(2)$, this guarantee refers to *internal separability*: the two parts of the subsystem can be entangled, but only if the entanglement disappears when the subsystem is isolated. See Figure 1 for a visual comparison. We restrict one part of the subsystem to $O(1)$ qubits to zero in on the effect of *internal* entanglement structure; without the restriction, this class trivially contains $\text{QMA}(2)$.

We first show that QMA_{IS} , even with inverse exponentially small gap, is contained in EXP :

► **Theorem 1 (Upper bound).** *For any polynomial p and $1 > c > s > 0$ such that $c - s > \frac{1}{2^{p(n)}}$, we have $\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}^{c,s} \subseteq \text{EXP}$, where c, s are the completeness and soundness parameters, respectively.¹*

¹ We formally define QMA_{IS} in Appendix A. In a $\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}^{c,s}$ protocol, YES instances are accepted with probability at least c , and NO instances are accepted with probability at most s . QMA_{IS} includes every $\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}^{c,s}$ with a constant gap $c - s = \Omega(1)$.

We also define $\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}(2)$, where the verifier receives *two* unentangled proofs, each with the above guarantee. In contrast to Theorem 1, we find a constant-sized gap where $\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}(2)$ equals NEXP.

► **Theorem 2** (Lower bound). *There exist constants $1 > c > s > 0$ where $\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}^{c,s}(2) = \text{NEXP}$.*

We note two immediate consequences. First, there exists a quantum verifier with a specific guarantee on entanglement structure that is *unconditionally* (and *exponentially*) more powerful than a deterministic classical verifier. This follows as a consequence of the non-deterministic time hierarchy theorem:

► **Corollary 3.** $\text{NP} \subsetneq \text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}(2)$.

Second, QMA_{IS} and $\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}(2)$ cannot be equal unless $\text{EXP} = \text{NEXP}$. In other words, the power of unentanglement in this setting is as strong as the difference between EXP and NEXP:

► **Corollary 4.** *If $\text{EXP} \neq \text{NEXP}$, then $\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}} \neq \text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}(2)$.*

We summarize these results in Table 1.

■ **Table 1** Categorizing quantum verification protocols by the guaranteed entanglement structures of the proof.

<i>external structure</i> <i>internal structure</i>	GENERAL	SEPARABLE BIPARTITION
GENERAL	QMA	QMA(2)
SEPARABLE SUBSYSTEM	$\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}} \subseteq \text{EXP}$	$\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}(2) = \text{NEXP}$

3 Themes and implications

We highlight three conceptual takeaways: (i) internal entanglement promises are a natural complexity-theoretic probe of fine-grained separability structures; (ii) in our setting, unentanglement is used only to certify purity, exposing a sharp pure-vs-mixed distinction; (iii) this sheds some light on a gap-amplification route towards showing lower bounds of $\text{QMA}(2)$ that avoids known barriers for nearby models.

3.1 A complexity-theoretic probe of multipartite entanglement structure

Despite much attention given to $\text{QMA}(2)$ —the study of unentanglement, (un)entanglement can be much richer than simply across a bipartition. For example, the W and GHZ states, which are $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(|001\rangle + |010\rangle + |100\rangle)$ and $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|000\rangle + |111\rangle)$ respectively, are entangled in *incomparable* ways: both states are entangled across every bipartition, yet the states are not equivalent under LOCC [27]. The same paper observes that tracing out a qubit from the W state gives an entangled state, but the same action on the GHZ state destroys all entanglement. These examples suggest that “entanglement vs. no entanglement across a cut” is only a coarse proxy for the structure that may matter in proof systems.

Our class QMA_{IS} enforces quantum proofs with a specific multipartite entanglement structure, which we call internal separability. To our knowledge, this notion first appeared in [19], where it was called *partial semi-separability*. It is natural to study the power of QMA with *other* types of multipartite entanglement structure. As a first step, we consider

the set of *multiseparable* states [60]: tripartite states where after tracing out *any* register, the reduced density matrix is separable. We show that a quantum proof system over pure, multiseparable states can also decide NEXP:

► **Corollary 5.** *There exist constants $1 > c > s > 0$ where $\text{QMA}^{c,s}$ restricted to pure, multiseparable quantum proofs can decide NEXP.*

A useful perspective is that many known NEXP-power phenomena in restricted-witness models arise because the promise enables the verifier to implement some form of *classicality/s-parsity detection* primitive – e.g., distinguishing structured “nearly classical” superpositions from genuinely diffuse ones. In our case, the internal separability promise plus purity plays exactly this role: it enables quasirigidity enforcement in the NEXP protocol. An interesting question is whether there is a robust way to characterize which multipartite entanglement promises yield NEXP-power in terms of the verification primitives they enable.

3.2 QMA(2) and purity testing

In our work, $\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}(2)$ is no more powerful than QMA_{IS} with a purity test. This resonates with a broader theme in the previous works [54, 38, 9, 64] where they use the fact that a protocol over separable states can simulate a protocol over states with a purity constraint by the purity test. This raises the question: What is the relative power between purity and separability? For example, one QMA(2)-complete candidate was the *pure state marginal problem* [54]: decide if there exists a global pure state consistent with the input local density matrices. This problem is known to be in QMA(2), while the *mixed* variant of this problem is QMA-complete [52].

After our work was put online, [47] showed that the pure state marginal problem is in PSPACE, even with an inverse exponential promise gap. This suggests that the pure state marginal problem is in fact *not* QMA(2)-hard, as QMA(2) with an inverse-exponential completeness-soundness gap is equal to NEXP [58]. Moreover, they propose one systematic way to understand the power of purity by abstracting out the complexity class definition based on the pure version of the super verifier characterization of QMA [5]. Many of the questions remain unclear for their model.

The quantum proof systems are associated with their classical optimization counterparts. Therefore, we also consider the optimization problem over *purifications* of separable states that is enough to decide NP, and even hard to approximate within a constant error:

► **Corollary 6.** *Given $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, consider the following optimization problem over n -dimensional pure, internally separable states (denoted $\mathcal{W}_{\text{IS}}$):*

$$\max_{\rho \in \mathcal{W}_{\text{IS}}} \text{Tr}[M\rho] \tag{*}$$

Then there is a constant $0 < \alpha < 1$ for which it is NP-hard to compute an α -approximation of ().*

By contrast, optimizing over separable states (of $\text{poly}(n)$ dimension) is known to be NP-hard, but only with a gap inverse polynomial of the system size [35, 2, 29, 15, 58, 28]. If the gap in these problems could be made constant, then $\text{QMA}(2) = \text{NEXP}$.²

More generally, assuming mild conditions on a set of quantum states $\mathcal{W}$, we show how a QMA(2) protocol with both proofs restricted to $\mathcal{W}$ can implement a QMA protocol with a proof restricted to *pure states* in $\mathcal{W}$. We use this as a recipe to generate other proof systems

² One must also assume that the problems can be made succinct.

where one quantum proof is provably weaker than two *unentangled* quantum proofs, up to standard complexity-theoretic assumptions. We give two examples: the pure quantum proofs in QMA^+ , and the *proper states* of [2, 12]. Each set represents the pure states of some larger set $\mathcal{W}$. Then, $\text{QMA}_{\mathcal{W}}$ can be decided with a semidefinite program, but $\text{QMA}_{\mathcal{W}}(2)$ can restrict to the more capable pure states. This technique is likely to generate other examples that demonstrate the power of unentanglement.

3.3 A revived approach towards $\text{QMA}(2)$

Corollary 4 suggests a potentially cleaner gap-amplification route towards understanding the power of $\text{QMA}(2)$. For a constant r , denote by $\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}^{c,s}[r](k)$ the class of problems in $\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}^{c,s}(k)$ with at most r dimensions for the witnesses' bounded part of the separable subsystem. Since r is constant, we have that for any constant k , $\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}[r](k)$ at large enough completeness-soundness gap is equal to $\text{QMA}(k)$:

▷ **Claim 7.** For any constants k and r , there exist constants $1 > c > s > 0$ so that $\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}^{c,s}[r](k) = \text{QMA}(k)$.

By Claim 7 and Theorem 2,³ gap amplification of $\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}[r](2)$ would imply $\text{QMA}(2) = \text{NEXP}$:

► **Corollary 8.** *If for some r $\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}[r](2)$ exhibits gap amplification, then $\text{QMA}(2) = \text{NEXP}$.*

Corollary 8 is analogous to an approach suggested in [45]. That work introduced the class $\text{QMA}^+(k)$, and showed that $\text{QMA}^+(2)$ at some completeness-soundness gap is equal to NEXP , while at a larger gap, is equal to $\text{QMA}(2)$. Therefore, if $\text{QMA}^+(2)$ admits gap amplification, then $\text{QMA}(2) = \text{NEXP}$. However, [10] showed that the same is true for QMA^+ ; as a consequence, QMA^+ *cannot* have gap amplification unless $\text{QMA} = \text{NEXP}$. Conceptually, this limits the techniques available to prove gap amplification of $\text{QMA}^+(2)$ in order to show $\text{QMA}(2) = \text{NEXP}$. By contrast, gap amplification of $\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}(2)$ can be plausibly found by studying gap amplification of QMA_{IS} , since the latter implies no such complexity collapse. This raises the possibility of using Corollary 8 to fully characterize $\text{QMA}(2)$. However, any such gap amplification must be sensitive to *purity*, as QMA_{IS} suffers the same issue as QMA^+ . We reinterpret the barrier of [10] by constructing a mixed-state variant of QMA^+ that also avoids the complexity collapse, as broadly explained in the previous subsection.

4 Techniques

4.1 Upper bound

To show Theorem 1, we rely on a well-known duality of membership testing of a convex set and optimizing a convex function over this set. We use this duality to reduce any QMA_{IS} problem to membership testing of the set of internally separable quantum states $\mathcal{W}_{\text{IS}}$. In order to use tools from convex optimization, we represent quantum states as vectors in a generalized Bloch sphere. We use a non-ellipsoidal reduction that permits an error analysis matching our setup [53, 29].

We then show how to test membership of $\mathcal{W}_{\text{IS}}$ in EXP . It is essential that only $O(1)$ qubits are unentangled from the rest of the subsystem. Our algorithm tests membership of two convex sets whose intersection forms $\mathcal{W}_{\text{IS}}$; note that this requires testers with inverse

³ The theorem also holds for $\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}^{c,s}[r](2)$ for some fixed constant r .

exponential precision. The first set represents all Bloch vectors of quantum states, which can be tested using exponentially many explicit conditions (e.g. [48]). The second set represents all vectors whose reduced density matrix on the subsystem is separable. This can be tested by solving the Doherty-Parrilo-Spedalieri SDP [25, 26, 56] which decides if a state has a *symmetric extension*. A careful error analysis shows that separability of a bipartite state ρ with local dimensions M, N can be tested to error δ in time $\tilde{O}((2/\delta)^{9N} \text{poly}(M, N))$ [44]. When N is a fixed constant, this SDP runs in exponential time.

4.2 Lower bound

To prove Theorem 2, we consider $\text{QMA}_{|\mathcal{S}\rangle}$, a variant of $\text{QMA}_{\mathcal{S}}$ where the proof must also be a *pure state*. Note that unlike QMA and $\text{QMA}(2)$, restricting $\text{QMA}_{\mathcal{S}}$ to pure states can change the power of the complexity class, as an internally separable ensemble of pure states may not decompose into an *ensemble* of internally separable pure states.⁴ We then develop a $\text{QMA}_{|\mathcal{S}\rangle}$ protocol for an NEXP-complete problem. This protocol builds on the recent proof of $\text{QMA}^+ = \text{NEXP}$ [15, 45, 10], where QMA^+ is restricted to pure quantum proofs with real nonnegative amplitudes.

As in [45, 10], we consider a succinct constraint satisfaction problem (CSP) with constant promise gap, which is NEXP-hard by the PCP theorem [7, 6, 40]. In the QMA^+ protocol, one enforces a *rigidity* property of the quantum proof: the state must be close to $\frac{1}{\sqrt{R}} \sum_{j \in [R]} |j\rangle |a_j\rangle$. It is easy to ensure that all constraints $j \in [R]$ are included in the state (“density”), but the positive-amplitude guarantee is used to ensure there is at most one assignment a_j per constraint (“quasirigidity”). We find a way to instead enforce quasirigidity using both internal separability *and* purity.

► **Lemma 9 (informal).** *There is a test A and a fixed quantum circuit C such that for any internally separable $|\psi\rangle$, if $A(|\psi\rangle) \geq 1 - \epsilon$, then $C|\psi\rangle$ has $1 - O(\epsilon)$ squared overlap with a quasirigid state.*

In our $\text{QMA}_{|\mathcal{S}\rangle}$ protocol, the verifier enforces tripartite proofs of the specific form $\sum_{j,a} z_{ja} |j\rangle |a, j\rangle |a\rangle$. This can be done by measuring all registers and accepting iff we see two copies of the same constraint j , and two copies of the same assignment a . We then observe that having multiple assignments per constraint adds entanglement to the second and third registers, even after tracing out the first register. Thus, if the state is *internally separable*, it has high overlap with a state with one assignment a per constraint j . Notably, this test is inspired by recasting the QMA^+ protocol in the language of “superposition detection” and non-collapsing measurement [11, 4], an unphysical operation related to a problem of Aaronson [1].

We then prove that $\text{QMA}_{|\mathcal{S}\rangle} \subseteq \text{QMA}_{\mathcal{S}}(2)$. Without loss of generality, the best proof Merlin can send in a $\text{QMA}_{\mathcal{S}}(2)$ protocol is a product state $\rho_1 \otimes \rho_2$, since separable states form the convex hull of the set of product states. The SWAP test accepts a product state with probability $\frac{1}{2}(1 + \text{Tr}[\rho_1 \rho_2])$: this is 1 only if ρ_1, ρ_2 are *pure*. The $\text{QMA}_{\mathcal{S}}(2)$ simulator thus applies a SWAP test with some probability, and otherwise applies the $\text{QMA}_{|\mathcal{S}\rangle}$ circuit.

To make this formal, we first generalize the above statement. Given a set of quantum states $\mathcal{W}$, let $\text{QMA}_{\mathcal{W}}$ be the variant of QMA where the proof must be in $\mathcal{W}$. Let $\text{rank1}(\mathcal{W}) \subseteq \mathcal{W}$ be the pure states contained in $\mathcal{W}$. Then provided $\mathcal{W}$ satisfies a mild *continuity condition*, we have that $\text{QMA}_{\text{rank1}(\mathcal{W})} \subseteq \text{QMA}_{\mathcal{W}}(2)$.

⁴ For example, the same is true in QMA^+ : this is the difference between doubly non-negative matrices and completely positive matrices.

► **Lemma 10** (informal). *Consider a protocol V in $\text{QMA}_{\text{rank1}(\mathcal{W})}$. If $\mathcal{W}$ has the continuity condition, then $\text{QMA}_{\mathcal{W}}(2)$ can simulate V .*

Intuitively, the continuity condition requires that every density operator in $\mathcal{W}$ that is “almost pure” is close to a pure state in $\mathcal{W}$; i.e. in $\text{rank1}(\mathcal{W})$. The condition ensures that when the SWAP test accepts with high probability, both ρ_1 and ρ_2 are close to a state in $\text{rank1}(\mathcal{W})$.

Ideally, we would show that $\mathcal{W}_{\text{IS}}$ satisfies the continuity condition, but a proof of this seems difficult. Nonetheless, we find a large subset $\mathcal{W}_{\text{IS}}^* \subseteq \mathcal{W}_{\text{IS}}$ that has the continuity condition, such that the NEXP protocol is still contained in $\text{QMA}_{\text{rank1}(\mathcal{W}_{\text{IS}}^*)}$. By the above lemma, NEXP is contained in $\text{QMA}_{\mathcal{W}_{\text{IS}}^*}(2)$. To complete the proof, we show how to simulate any protocol in $\text{QMA}_{\mathcal{W}_{\text{IS}}^*}(2)$ using a protocol in $\text{QMA}_{\mathcal{W}_{\text{IS}}}(2)$.

5 Related work

5.1 The complexity class $\text{QMA}(2)$

One sign that $\text{QMA}(2)$ is more powerful than QMA is that QMA with a $O(\log n)$ -qubit proof is equal to BQP [55]. By contrast, $\text{QMA}(2)$ with two unentangled $O(\log n)$ -qubit proofs can decide NP, although with inverse polynomially small completeness-soundness gap [2, 12, 15, 22, 23, 28, 58]. Improving the completeness-soundness gap to a constant would likely imply $\text{QMA}(2) = \text{NEXP}$; see [45, 10, 46] for a recent attempt using quantum proofs with non-negative amplitudes (QMA^+). In general, one only needs two unentangled proofs since $\text{QMA}(2) = \text{QMA}(k)$ [38]; the proof of this result uses an iterated SWAP test. There are few complete problems known for $\text{QMA}(2)$ [21, 41, 36]. One proposal is the *pure state marginal problem*, which is known to be QMA-hard and in $\text{QMA}(2)$ [52, 54, 53, 63, 65, 64]. Recently, [47] proved that this problem is in PSPACE, and gave evidence that it is *not* $\text{QMA}(2)$ -hard.

5.2 Convex optimization and quantum entanglement

Some quantum papers build a Turing reduction using the duality between convex optimization and membership testing of a convex set, for example NP-hardness of separability testing [35, 44, 29], and QMA-hardness of the mixed state marginal problem [52, 54, 53, 63]. This reduction can be implemented in several ways, including the ellipsoid method [66, 34], random walks [14], and a perceptron-like algorithm [53]. One can use a hierarchy of semidefinite programs to detect entanglement [25, 26, 56, 39] or optimize over separable states [16, 17, 9]. In some cases, carefully chosen ϵ -nets provide similar performance [59, 8, 18].

5.3 Measuring quantum entanglement

There are numerous ways to quantify entanglement; see the surveys [67, 37, 43, 42]. One approach considers the set of reachable states under transformations consisting only of local operations and classical communication (LOCC) [27, 13, 62]. Other works classify multipartite entanglement by whether a *subsystem* is separable [60, 19]. Permutation-symmetric approaches include the Positive Partial Transpose (PPT) criterion [57] and quantum de Finetti theorems [20, 24]. Mysteriously, both approaches identify entangled states that “look” separable under LOCC transformations [61, 16, 17, 50, 51]. There exist ensembles of low-entanglement quantum states that are computationally indistinguishable from maximally entangled quantum states [3].

6 Outlook

There are several ways to further the ideas within this work. In our view, the most promising future direction is to study other quantum proof systems with other multipartite entanglement structures. For example, what is the power of $\text{QMA}_{\mathcal{W}}$ when the states in $\mathcal{W}$ are the Absolutely Maximally Entangled states (see review in [31])?

Another direction is to probe the relationship of $\text{QMA}(2)$ and purity testing. The proof of Theorem 2 uses two quantum proofs only to implement a purity test. Is there a set of proofs $\mathcal{W}$ such that $\text{QMA}_{\mathcal{W}}(2)$ is strictly more powerful than $\text{QMA}_{\text{rank1}(\mathcal{W})}$? If so, there is a setting where *unentanglement* is useful for something beyond purity testing. A related technical question is whether the *continuity condition* is necessary to show $\text{QMA}_{\text{rank1}(\mathcal{W})} \subseteq \text{QMA}_{\mathcal{W}}(2)$. Is there a simple characterization of sets which do *not* satisfy the continuity condition?

This work also reignites the possibility of showing the power of $\text{QMA}(2)$ by proving a gap amplification result (Corollary 8). As a starting point, does the complexity class QMA_{IS} exhibit gap amplification? (Even a small amount of gap amplification implies the existence of new complete problems for QMA_{IS} .) One can ask similar questions about the additional quantum proof systems we discuss, see Section 3.1. Unlike with QMA^+ [10], each of these complexity classes demonstrates that unentanglement can be as powerful as the difference between EXP vs. NEXP.

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A Formal Definitions

Fix any set of quantum states $\mathcal{W}$. Let $\text{QMA}_{\mathcal{W}}(m)$ as $\text{QMA}(m)$ where Merlin *must* send m unentangled proofs from $\mathcal{W}$. Here we modify both completeness and soundness. Only modifying completeness sometimes has no effect, as seen in [33].

► **Definition 11** ($\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}(m), \text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}^c$). Let $c, s : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ and $\hat{a}, \hat{b}, \hat{c} : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be polynomial-time computable functions, and $m : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be a function.

A promise problem $A = (A_{\text{yes}}, A_{\text{no}})$ is in $\text{QMA}_{\text{IS}}^{c,s}[\hat{a}, \hat{b}, \hat{c}](m)$ if and only if there exist a polynomial p and a polynomial-time uniform family of quantum circuits $\{Q_n\}$ that satisfies the following:

1. Q_n takes as input:
 - a string $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$;
 - m quantum states $\rho_1, \rho_2, \dots, \rho_m \in A \otimes B \otimes C$, each over three registers A, B, C of dimensions $\hat{a}, \hat{b}, \hat{c}$ respectively, and such that each is internally separable, meaning that $\text{Tr}_A(\rho_i)$ is separable;
 - and at most $p(n)$ scratch qubits in the state $|0\rangle$.
2. Q_n is complete and sound for A :
 - (completeness) If $x \in A_{yes}$, there is a set of m such quantum states $\rho_1, \dots, \rho_m$ such that Q_n accepts $|x\rangle\langle x| \otimes (\rho_1 \otimes \dots \otimes \rho_m) \otimes (|0\rangle\langle 0| \otimes \dots \otimes |0\rangle\langle 0|)$ with probability at least $c(n)$.
 - (soundness) If $x \in A_{no}$, then for any set of m such quantum states $\rho_1, \dots, \rho_m$, Q_n accepts $|x\rangle\langle x| \otimes (\rho_1 \otimes \dots \otimes \rho_m) \otimes (|0\rangle\langle 0| \otimes \dots \otimes |0\rangle\langle 0|)$ with probability at most $s(n)$.

Let

$$\text{QMA}_{|\text{IS}\rangle}^{c,s}(m) := \bigcup_{\substack{\hat{a}, \hat{b} = O(\text{poly}(n)), \\ \hat{c} = O(1)}} \text{QMA}_{|\text{IS}\rangle}^{c,s}[\hat{a}, \hat{b}, \hat{c}](m).$$

Define $\text{QMA}_{|\text{IS}\rangle}^{c,s}$ similarly, where each quantum state $\rho_i = |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|$ is always pure.

We also generalize the above definition for other sets of quantum states.

► **Definition 12** ($\text{QMA}_{\mathcal{W}}(m)$). Let $c, s : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ be polynomial-time computable functions, and m a polynomial. Fix an arbitrary set of quantum states $\mathcal{W}$.

A promise problem $A = (A_{yes}, A_{no})$ is in $\text{QMA}_{\mathcal{W}}^{c,s}(m)$ if and only if there exist polynomials p, q and a polynomial-time uniform family of quantum circuits $\{Q_n\}$, where Q_n takes as input a string $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$, m $p(n)$ -qubit quantum states in $\mathcal{W}$, and $q(n)$ scratch qubits in state $|0\rangle^{\otimes q(n)}$, such that:

- (completeness) If $x \in A_{yes}$, there exists a set of m $p(n)$ -qubit quantum states $\rho_1, \dots, \rho_m \in \mathcal{W}$ such that Q_n accepts $|x\rangle\langle x| \otimes (\rho_1 \otimes \dots \otimes \rho_m) \otimes |0\rangle\langle 0|^{\otimes q(n)}$ with probability at least $c(n)$.
- (soundness) If $x \in A_{no}$, then for any set of m $p(n)$ -qubit quantum states $\rho_1, \dots, \rho_m \in \mathcal{W}$, Q_n accepts $|x\rangle\langle x| \otimes (\rho_1 \otimes \dots \otimes \rho_m) \otimes |0\rangle\langle 0|^{\otimes q(n)}$ with probability at most $s(n)$.

► **Remark 13.** Following the convention in [45], we drop the c, s when the completeness-soundness gap is allowed to be any absolute constant: $\text{QMA}_{\mathcal{W}}(m) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \bigcup_{c=s=\Omega(1)} \text{QMA}_{\mathcal{W}}^{c,s}(m)$. However, note that $\text{QMA}_{\mathcal{W}}^{c,s}(m)$ is not in general equal to $\text{QMA}_{\mathcal{W}}^{c',s'}(m)$ [10].

We will only consider $\text{QMA}_{|\text{IS}\rangle}$ with one proof, as we prove $\text{QMA}_{|\text{IS}\rangle} = \text{NEXP}$. This implies $\text{QMA}_{|\text{IS}\rangle}(m) = \text{NEXP}$ for all $m \geq 1$.

We occasionally select another property P to choose a set of quantum states which we denote $\mathcal{W}_P$. When this occurs, we use the shorthand $\text{QMA}_P(m) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{QMA}_{\mathcal{W}_P}(m)$. We use the label $|P\rangle$ for the pure states in $\mathcal{W}_P$.