Supplementary material

Here, we provide details on the fermionic formalism and additional remarks for the interested reader.

(a) (Un)physical states

• When allowing $\lambda \neq 0$, the state in Eq. (1) is still Gaussian, *i.e.*, it can be written as $\rho = \exp(-2\langle n \rangle a^{\dagger} a + \lambda a + \lambda^* a^{\dagger} + \langle n \rangle - |\lambda|^2)$, but it is neither thermal, nor physical (as we shall see, this actually corresponds to a Gaussian state that is not centered at the origin).

(b) Berezin integrals

• Berezin integrals are integrals over Grassmann-valued variables, which are such that $\int d\alpha 1 = 0$ and $\int d\alpha \alpha = 1$, showing that integration is equivalent to differentiation for Grassmann variables. Integrals of all other powers vanish since $\alpha^n = 0$ for $n \geq 2$.

(c) Fermionic coherent states

- Fermionic coherent states $|\alpha\rangle$ are characterized by Grassmann-valued displacements and thus are unphysical unless $\alpha=0$, see also [1]. Indeed, using Eq. (3) together with $\mathbf{D}(\alpha)=\mathbb{1}+\mathbf{a}^{\dagger}\alpha-\alpha^*\mathbf{a}+\left(\frac{1}{2}\mathbb{1}-\mathbf{a}^{\dagger}\mathbf{a}\right)\alpha\alpha^*$, we see that coherent states are superpositions $|\alpha\rangle=(1+\frac{1}{2}\alpha\alpha^*)|0\rangle-\alpha|1\rangle$. In analogy to the bosonic case, fermionic coherent states are eigenstates of the annihilation operator $\mathbf{a}|\alpha\rangle=\alpha|\alpha\rangle$.
- The decomposition of the identity in terms of fermionic coherent states, namely $\mathbb{1} = \int \mathcal{D}\alpha \, |\alpha\rangle \, \langle\alpha|$, can be checked by using $|\alpha\rangle = \beta \, |0\rangle \alpha \, |1\rangle$ and $|\alpha\rangle = \beta^* \, |\alpha\rangle \alpha^* \, |\alpha\rangle$, with $|\alpha\rangle = 1 + \frac{1}{2}\alpha\alpha^*$, together with the fact that $|\alpha\rangle = 1 + \frac{1}{2}\alpha\alpha^*$, together with the fact that $|\alpha\rangle = 1 + \frac{1}{2}\alpha\alpha^*$ and $|\alpha\rangle = 1 + \frac{1}{2}\alpha\alpha^*$.
- The expression for the trace in the fermionic coherent basis, namely $\text{Tr}\{O\} = \int \mathcal{D}\alpha \langle \alpha | O | -\alpha \rangle$, can also be checked by using $|-\alpha\rangle = \beta |0\rangle + \alpha |1\rangle$ and $\langle \alpha | = \beta^* \langle 0 | -\alpha^* \langle 1 |$, with $\beta = 1 + \frac{1}{2}\alpha\alpha^*$, together with the fact that $\int \mathcal{D}\alpha \, \beta^* \beta = \int \mathcal{D}\alpha \, (-\alpha^*)\alpha = 1$ as well as $\int \mathcal{D}\alpha \, \beta^* \alpha = \int \mathcal{D}\alpha \, (-\alpha^*) \beta = 0$. We may easily verify that the minus sign in $|-\alpha\rangle$ is needed by applying the trace formula to the density operator ρ . Indeed, we get $\text{Tr}\{\rho\}=1$ whereas we would get $\mathbf{Tr}\{\boldsymbol{\rho}\} = 1 - 2\langle n \rangle$ by (wrongly) replacing $|-\alpha\rangle$ with $|\alpha\rangle$, so that the excited state would (wrongly) be normalized to -1. This issue is intrinsically linked to the fact that $\langle n|\alpha\rangle$ and $\langle \alpha|n\rangle$ anticommute for n=1 (whereas they commute for n=0), so we have to insert this minus sign when exchanging the two matrix elements (this fixes the problem both for n = 0 and n = 1).

(d) Fermionic phase-space distributions

- The normalization of the Glauber P-distribution $\int \mathcal{D}\alpha P(\alpha) = \mathbf{Tr}\{\boldsymbol{\rho}\} = 1$ is ensured by the normalized projector $\mathbf{Tr}\{|\boldsymbol{\alpha}\rangle\langle -\boldsymbol{\alpha}|\} = \langle \alpha|\alpha\rangle = 1$, whereas $\mathbf{Tr}\{|\boldsymbol{\alpha}\rangle\langle \boldsymbol{\alpha}|\} = \langle -\alpha|\alpha\rangle = 1 2\alpha^*\alpha$. Analogously, $\int \mathcal{D}\alpha Q(\alpha) = \mathbf{Tr}\{\boldsymbol{\rho}\} = 1$ is a consequence of the minus sign appearing in the coherent-state trace formula.
- The characteristic function of ρ is calculated using $\operatorname{Tr}\{|\mathbf{0}\rangle\langle\mathbf{0}|D(\alpha)\} = 1 + \frac{1}{2}\alpha\alpha^*$ as well as $\operatorname{Tr}\{|\mathbf{1}\rangle\langle\mathbf{1}|D(\alpha)\} = 1 \frac{1}{2}\alpha\alpha^*$, resulting in $\chi(\alpha) = 1 + (\frac{1}{2} \langle n \rangle)\alpha\alpha^*$. To get $W(\alpha)$, we perform the Fourier transform of $\chi(\alpha)$ by exploiting the identity $e^{\alpha\beta^*-\beta\alpha^*} = 1 + \alpha\beta^* \beta\alpha^* + \alpha\alpha^*\beta\beta^*$. The expressions of $P(\alpha)$ and $Q(\alpha)$ are also straightforward to derive by using the expansions of ρ and $|\alpha\rangle$ in the Fock basis.
- We observe all phase-space distributions to be Grassmann-even. More generally, we argue that any physical quantity has to be of definite Grassmann-parity, that is, either fully commute or anti-commute with any Grassmann variable, which we refer to as Grassmann-even or Grassmann-odd, respectively (see also [2]).
- In contrast to the bosonic case, where a complete characterization of the set of Wigner-positive states is an outstanding problem [3–5], the sign of the single-mode fermionic Wigner W-distribution is entirely determined by the particle number $\langle n \rangle$ and thus by the sign of the temperature. Recall that negative temperatures can occur for a Hamiltonian bounded from above when the occupation of the excited states is more likely. In our case, this amounts to $\langle n \rangle > 1/2$. Also, the fermionic Glauber P-distribution is always a real function, while its bosonic counterpart can become distribution-valued involving the Dirac δ -distribution and its derivatives.

(e) Majorization relations

- Without the condition f(0) = 0 both sides of the majorization relation would diverge [6].
- Although the proofs of the majorizations relations used the first derivative of f, we do not even have to assume that f is analytic since all higher derivatives of f are multiplied by zero. Further, the existence of its first derivative f' is guaranteed almost everywhere following Rademacher's theorem for Lipschitzcontinuous functions, with the exceptions occurring only at the boundary points.

• The equivalence between second-moment and majorization relations can be proven as follows. Any physical distribution $z_1(\alpha_1)$ is related to another distribution $z_2(\alpha_2)$ by $\alpha_2 \to \alpha_1 = \sqrt{M} \alpha_2$ such that $z_2(\alpha_2) \to z_1(\alpha_1) = M z_2(\alpha_2)$, where $M = z_{2,B}/z_{1,B}$ is a real number. Then, the majorization relation Eq. (8) can be rewritten as $\int \mathcal{D}\alpha_1 f(z_1) =$ $\int \mathcal{D}\alpha_2 f(M z_2)/M \geq \int \mathcal{D}\alpha_2 f(z_2)$. (Note here that a change of coordinates for Grassmann variables is accompanied by the *inverse* Jacobian.) Since f is concave and fulfills f(0) = 0, it is subadditive. Thus, the latter relation is fulfilled if $0 \le M \le 1$ which implies $\det \gamma(z_1) \ge (\le) \det \gamma(z_2)$ when $|z_{1,B}| \geq (\leq)|z_{2,B}|$. The converse statement follows from transforming the left-hand side of Eq. (8) instead.

(f) Moments in state space and phase space

- To relate quantities in state space and phase space, we introduce the fermionic variant of the overlap formula for two physical density operators, which reads $\operatorname{Tr}\{\rho_1\rho_2\} = \int \mathcal{D}\alpha W_1(\alpha)K_2(\alpha)$, where $W_1(\alpha) = 1/2 \langle n_1 \rangle + \alpha\alpha^*$ and $K_2(\alpha) = 1/2 + (1 2\langle n_2 \rangle)\alpha\alpha^*$, with $\langle n_1 \rangle$ ($\langle n_2 \rangle$) denoting the mean particle number in ρ_1 (ρ_2).
- The mean fields of any physical state vanish $\operatorname{Tr}\{\boldsymbol{\rho}\boldsymbol{a}\} = \int \mathcal{D}\alpha W(\alpha) \, \alpha^* = 0$ and $\operatorname{Tr}\{\boldsymbol{\rho}\boldsymbol{a}^{\dagger}\} = \int \mathcal{D}\alpha W(\alpha) \, \alpha = 0$. Hence, physical states are Gaussian states that are centered at the origin, see also Eq. (2), and thus all second-order moments $\gamma_{jj'}(z)$ are centered moments.
- By setting $\langle n_2 \rangle$ to either 0 or 1, the overlap formula shows that the state's covariance matrix defined as $\gamma_{jj'}(\boldsymbol{\rho}) \equiv \text{Tr}\{\boldsymbol{\rho}[\boldsymbol{\xi}_j,\boldsymbol{\xi}_{j'}]\}/(2i)$, where $\boldsymbol{\xi}_1 = \boldsymbol{a}$ and $\boldsymbol{\xi}_2 = \boldsymbol{a}^{\dagger}$, agrees with the one of the Wigner W-distribution, i.e., $\gamma(\boldsymbol{\rho}) = \gamma(W)$. More precisely, we find for the off-diagonal elements $\text{Tr}\{\boldsymbol{\rho}[\boldsymbol{a},\boldsymbol{a}^{\dagger}]\} = \int \mathcal{D}\alpha W(\alpha)[\alpha,\alpha^*]$, although similar relations do not hold for the individual terms, consider, e.g., $\text{Tr}\{\boldsymbol{\rho}\boldsymbol{a}\boldsymbol{a}^{\dagger}\} = \int \mathcal{D}\alpha W(\alpha)(1/2 + \alpha\alpha^*) = 1 \langle n \rangle$.
- The covariance matrix is also often defined in terms of the field quadratures. In contrast to bosons, fermionic quadratures $\boldsymbol{x} = (\boldsymbol{a} + \boldsymbol{a}^{\dagger})/\sqrt{2}$ and $\boldsymbol{p} = (\boldsymbol{a} \boldsymbol{a}^{\dagger})/(\sqrt{2}i)$, which are commonly referred to as Majorana operators, anti-commute $\{\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{p}\} = 0$ and square to a constant $\boldsymbol{x}^2 = \boldsymbol{p}^2 = 1/2$. Noting that $[\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{p}] = i[\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{a}^{\dagger}]$ shows that the covariance matrix takes the form $\gamma_{jj'}(\boldsymbol{\rho}) = \text{Tr}\{\boldsymbol{\rho}[\boldsymbol{\xi}_j, \boldsymbol{\xi}_{j'}]\}/2$, where now $\boldsymbol{\xi}_1 = \boldsymbol{x}$ and $\boldsymbol{\xi}_2 = \boldsymbol{p}$. We note that the diagonal elements are still zero since every operator commutes with itself. Hence, the variances

defined via $\sigma^2(\boldsymbol{x}) \equiv \langle \boldsymbol{x}^2 \rangle - \langle \boldsymbol{x} \rangle^2$ (which are constant $\sigma^2(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sigma^2(\boldsymbol{p}) = 1/2$) do not appear in the covariance matrix. Instead, $\gamma(\boldsymbol{\rho}) = i\sigma(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{p})\sigma_y$, where $\sigma(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{p}) \equiv \langle [\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{p}] \rangle / 2$ denotes the anti-symmetrized covariance and σ_y is the second Pauli matrix. Hence, we have $\det \gamma(\boldsymbol{\rho}) = \sigma^2(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{p}) = \langle [\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{p}] \rangle^2 / 4$.

(g) Entropies and entropic uncertainty relations

- Continuous-variable entropies of classical probability distributions are commonly denoted by $h(\cdot)$. Still, we choose the convention $S(\cdot)$ that is preferred in the mathematical literature, see, e.g., [6–10].
- Defining entropies with an additional minus sign to render them concave would make them lose their meaning as uncertainty measures, since, e.g., S(W) would then tend to $-\infty$ when approaching the maximally mixed state $\langle n \rangle \to 1/2$.
- For a comparison of the entropic uncertainty relations to the bosonic case, we note that the corresponding inequalities for a bosonic mode read $S_r(W) \geq (r-1)^{-1} \ln r + \ln \pi$ and $S_r(Q) \geq (r-1)^{-1} \ln r$. Since the fermionic Wigner W-distribution comes without the normalization factor of 2π that prevails in the bosonic case, the corrected bosonic lower bound on $S_r(W)$ would read $(r-1)^{-1} \ln r \ln 2$, which is precisely the fermionic lower bound with an overall minus sign.
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