

Quantum from principles

# Quantum theory

- 1) Pure states  $\psi \in \mathbb{C}^d$
- 2) Transformations  $\psi \rightarrow U\psi, \quad U \in \text{SU}(d)$
- 3) Measurements  $(F_1, \dots, F_n) \quad F_i \geq 0 \quad \sum_i F_i = \mathbb{I}$
- 4) Probabilities  $p(F_i|\psi) = \langle \psi | F_i | \psi \rangle$
- 5) Composition  $\psi_{AB} \in \mathbb{C}^{d_A} \otimes \mathbb{C}^{d_B}$



# Introduction

- Quantum theory can be defined via a short number of clear postulates.
- Although these postulates are strictly speaking independent, one can ask questions of the following type:
- “Are there theories with the same pure states as quantum theory?”

# Introduction

- Need a general framework to talk about theories.
- What type of theory is quantum theory?
- Is it an information theory? A logic? A form of mechanics? A general probability theory? A process theory?

# Introduction

- Are there logics with the same measurement structure as quantum theory but different states?
- Are there operational theories with the same pure states and dynamics as quantum theory but different measurements?
- The answers to these questions will tell us how independent the postulate are.

# Introduction

- Is it possible to change one part of quantum theory whilst keeping the others constant?
- Could we obtain a future theory of physics by making “perturbations” to the current theory? Or will we need a radical overhaul?

# Introduction

- If we assume quantum theory is a form of logic, then the structure of measurements fully encodes the probability rule.
- Assuming it is a GPT means that the dynamical part fully determines the probabilistic part.
- Adopting different perspectives on quantum theory will allow for different insights into what it has to tell us.
- I don't argue that any of the perspectives I adopt today are the final word, rather they are useful stepping stones.

$$p \implies q$$

$$\mu\left(\sum_i P_i\right) = \sum_i \mu(P_i) \quad L(\mathcal{H})$$

# Quantum logic and Gleason's theorem





# Mathematical Foundations of Quantum Mechanics, Von Neumann (1932)



ANNALS OF MATHEMATICS  
Vol. 37, No. 4, October, 1936

# THE LOGIC OF QUANTUM MECHANICS

BY GARRETT BIRKHOFF AND JOHN VON NEUMANN

(Received April 4, 1936)

# Quantum logic

- Facts about quantum systems do not obey the rules of classical logic
- Need a new set of rules (a quantum logic) to reason about propositions

# Classical logic

# Classical logic (propositional)

- A set of rules about propositions
- Propositions can be true or false
- Can connect propositions together to form formulae using connectives: “and” , “or”
- One connective is implication  $\implies$

# Classical logic (propositional)

- A set of rules about propositions
- Propositions can be true or false

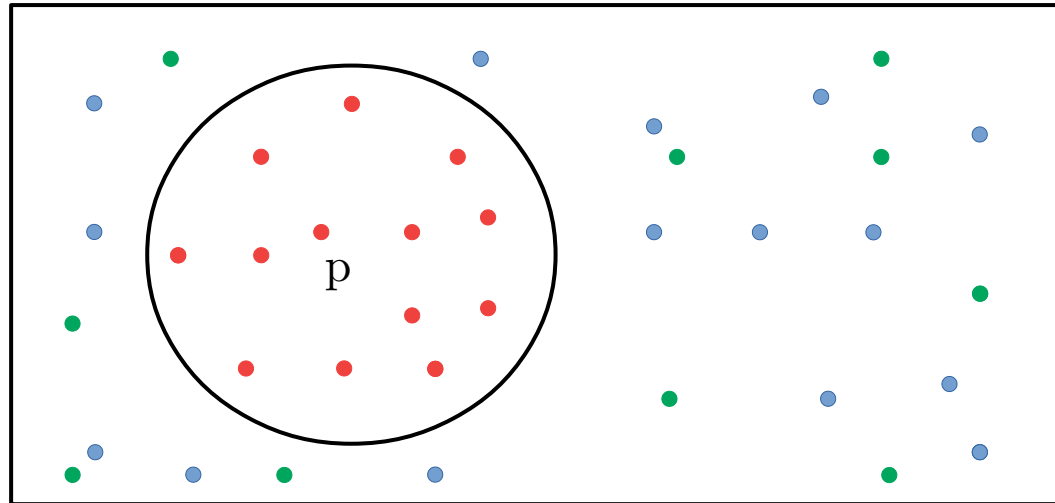
P	Q	P or Q
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F

# Classical logic

- A set of rules about propositions
- Propositions can be true or false

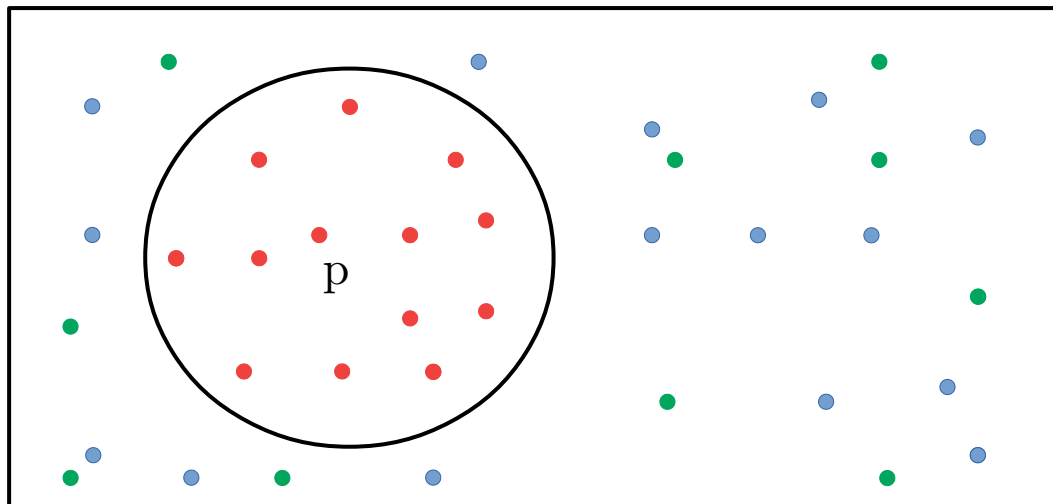
$$(p \text{ and } q) \implies p$$

# Classical logic as set theory



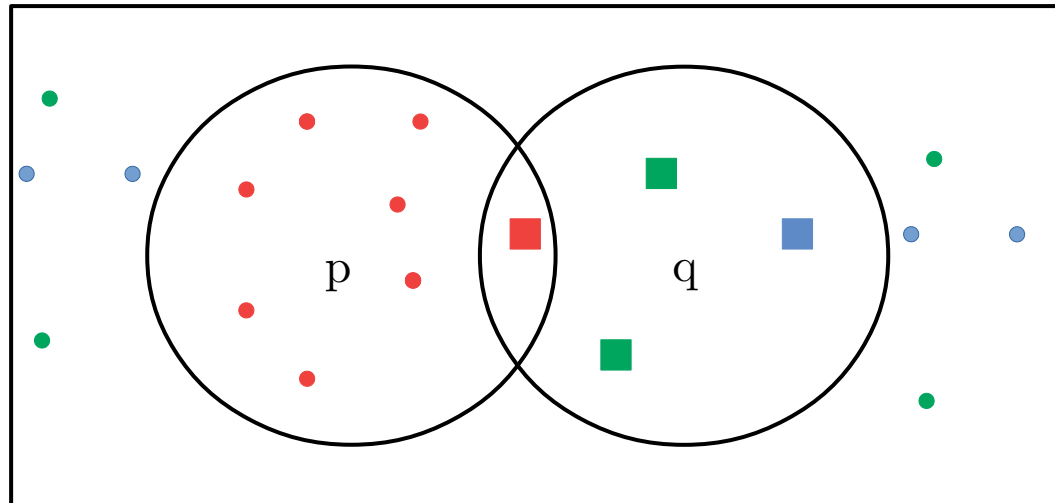


# Classical logic as set theory



$p = \text{being red} = \text{all red objects}$

# Logical connectives in set theoretic language

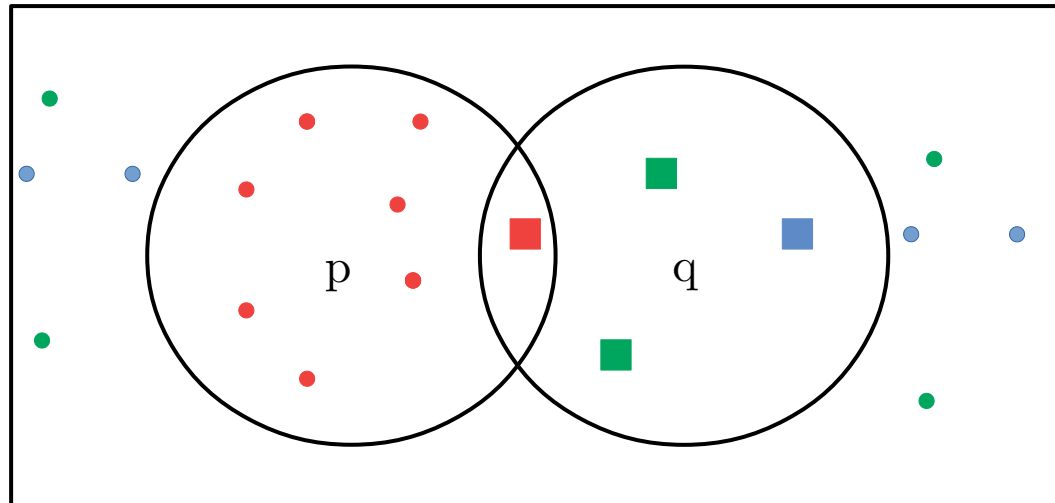


$p$  = being red = all red objects

$q$  = being square = all square objects

# Logical connectives in set theoretic language

- “and” is set intersection

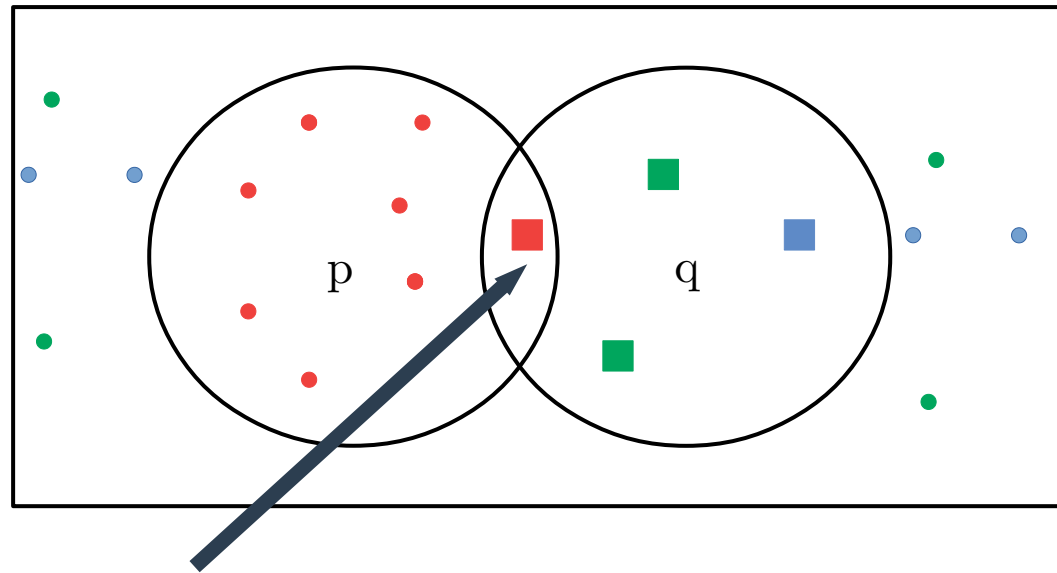


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# Logical connectives in set theoretic language

- “and” is set intersection



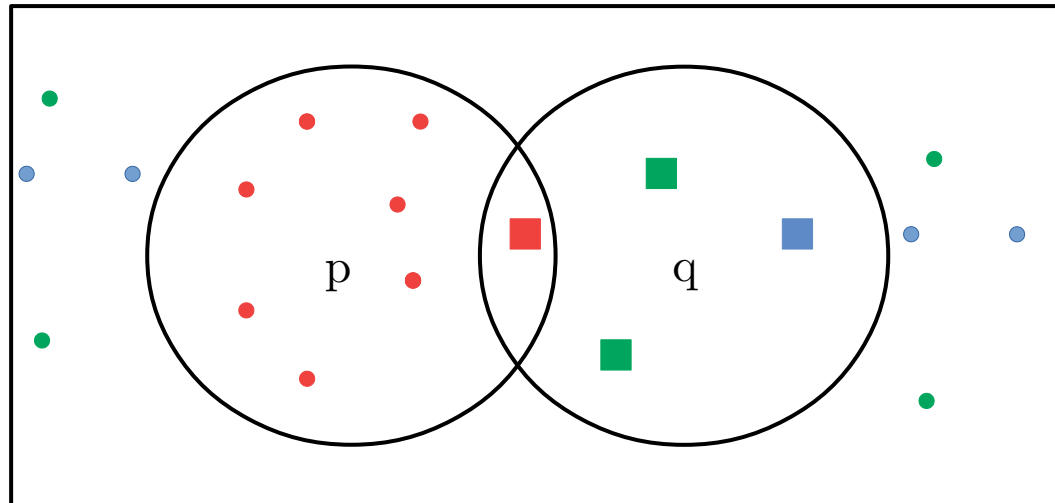
p and q

p = being red = all red objects

q = being square = all square objects

# Logical connectives in set theoretic language

- “or” is set union



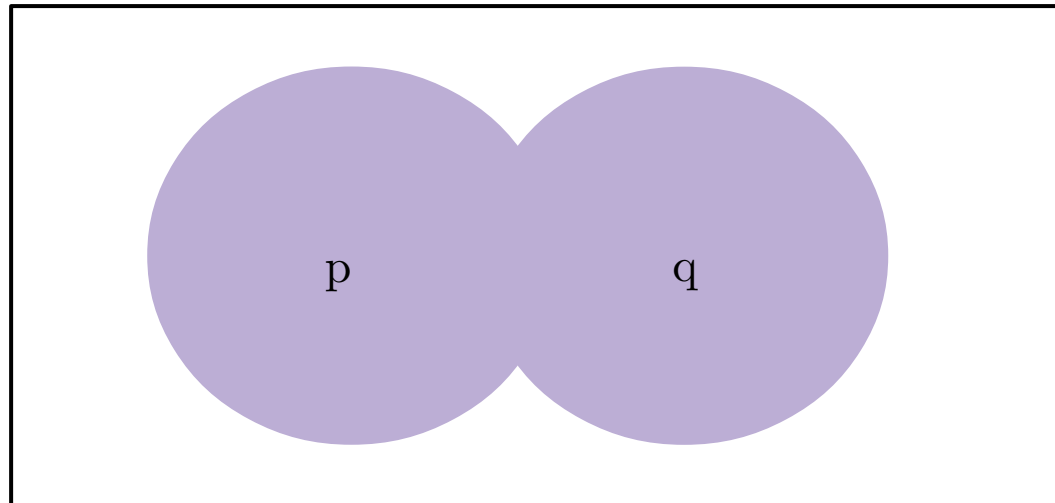
$p \text{ or } q$

$p$  = being red = all red objects

$q$  = being square = all square objects

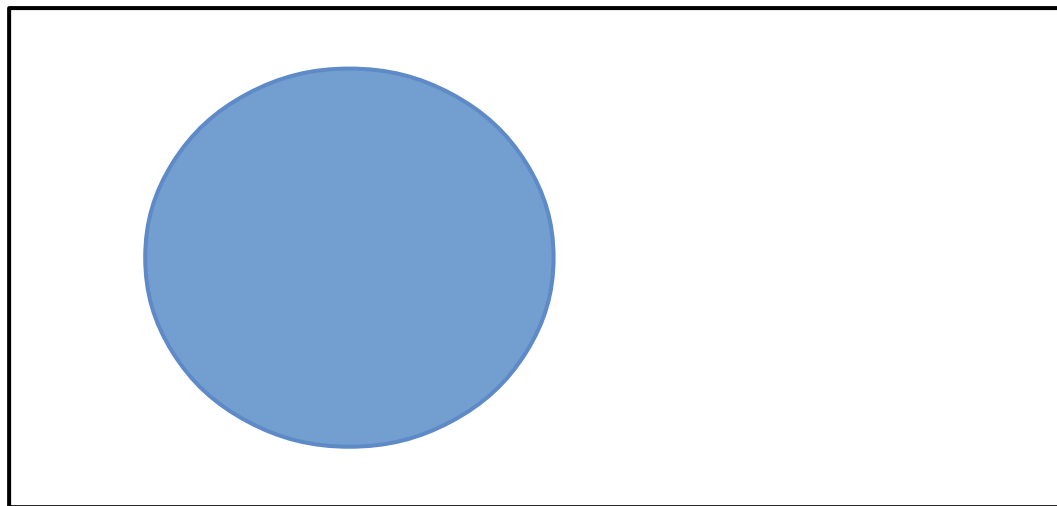
# Logical connectives in set theoretic language

- “or” is set union



$p \text{ or } q$

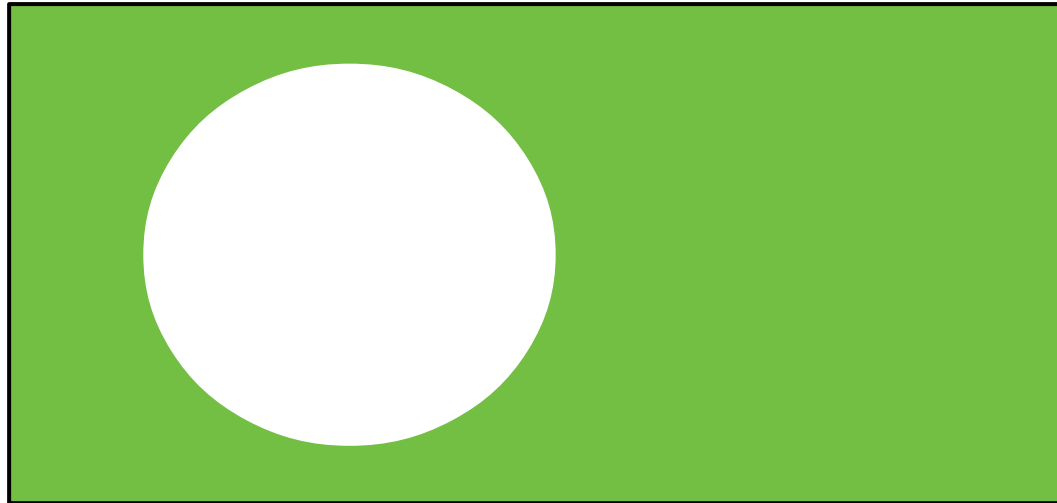
# Classical logic as set theory



$p$  = “particle is in the blue circle”

# Logical connectives in set theoretic language

- “not” is complement set



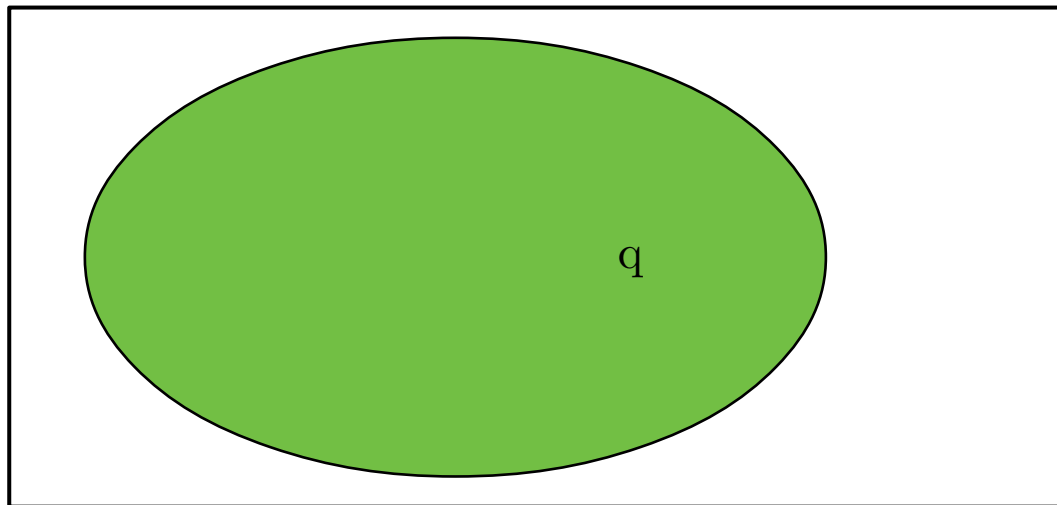
not  $p$  = “particle is not in the blue circle”



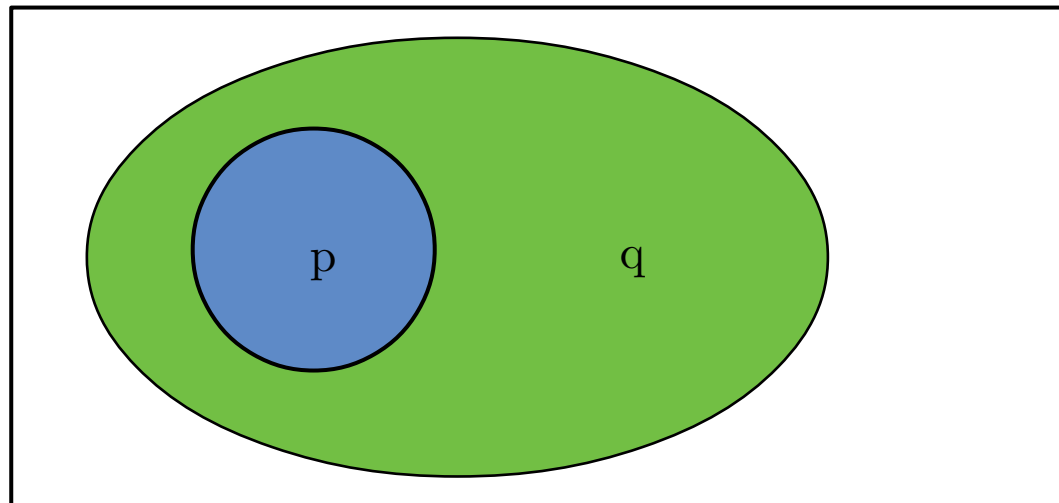
# Logical connectives in set theoretic language

- What is implication?
- All things  $p$  are also  $q$       $p \implies q$
- “Being a square implies having four sides”
- All squares are four sided

# Implication



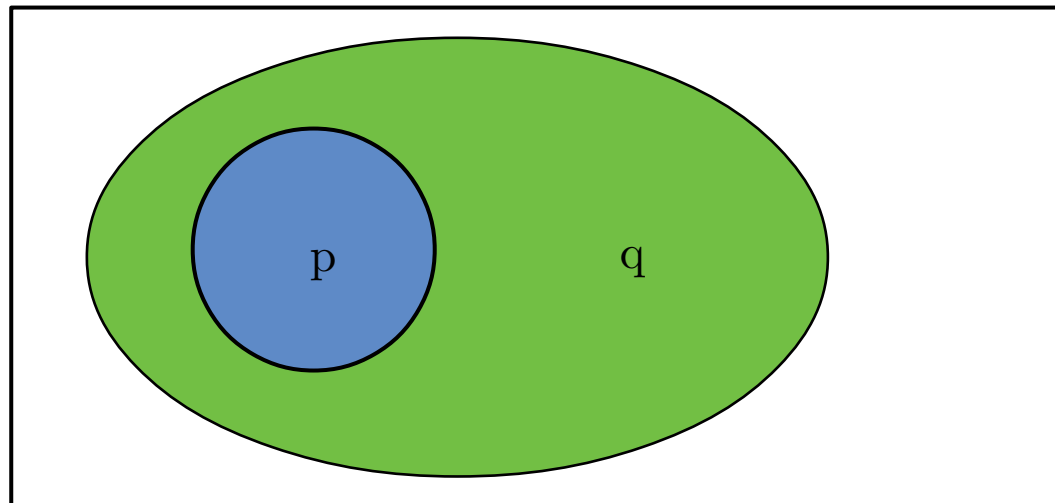
# Implication



# Implication as set inclusion

- Implication is given by set inclusion

$$p \subseteq q$$



# Classical logic

- Classical physics:



$p = \text{"particle is in interval } [a, c]\text{"}$

# Classical logic

- Classical physics:



$q = \text{"particle is in interval } [b,d]\text{"}$

# Classical logic

- Classical physics:

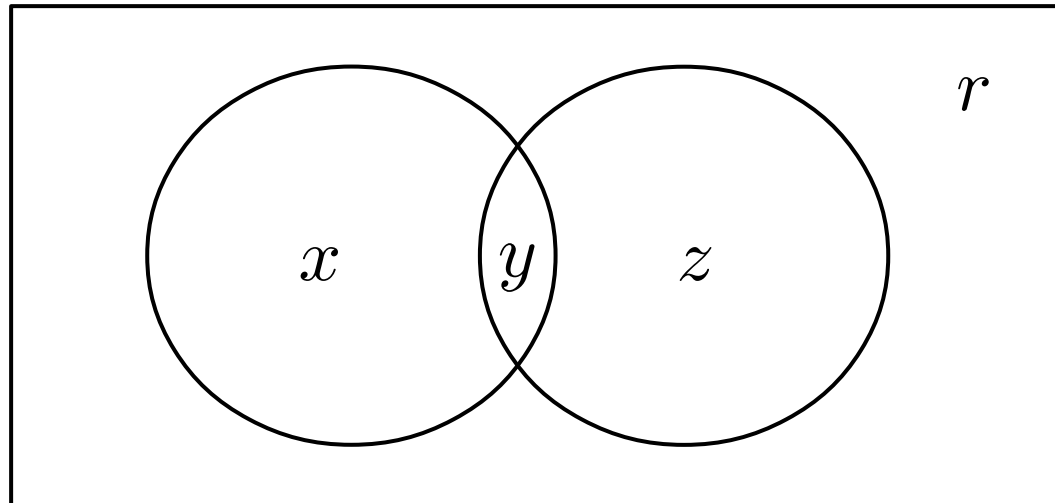


$p$  and  $q$  = “particle is in interval  $[b,c]$ ”

# A simple example

$$p = \{x, y\}$$

$$q = \{y, z\}$$



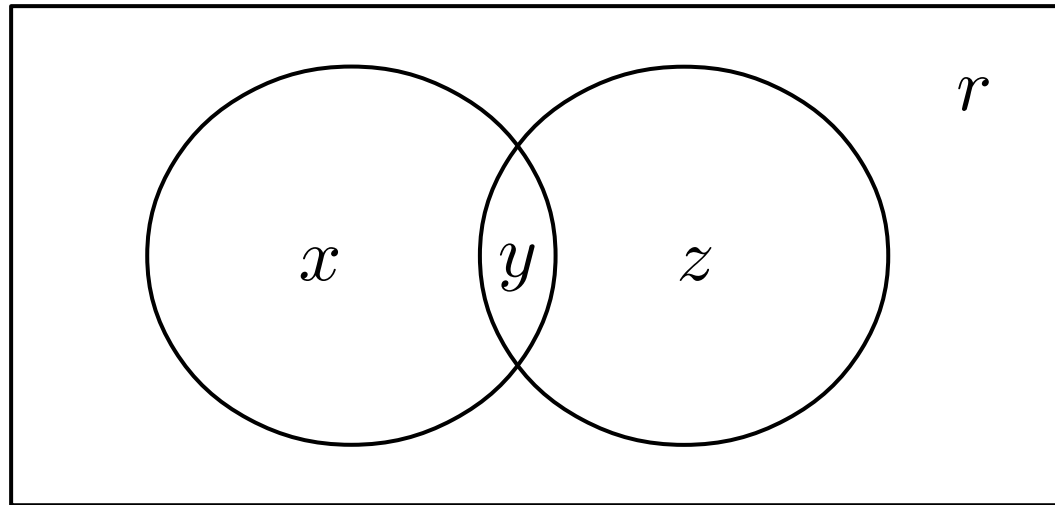
$$p \text{ and } q = \{y\}$$



# A simple example

$$p = \{x, y\}$$

$$q = \{y, z\}$$



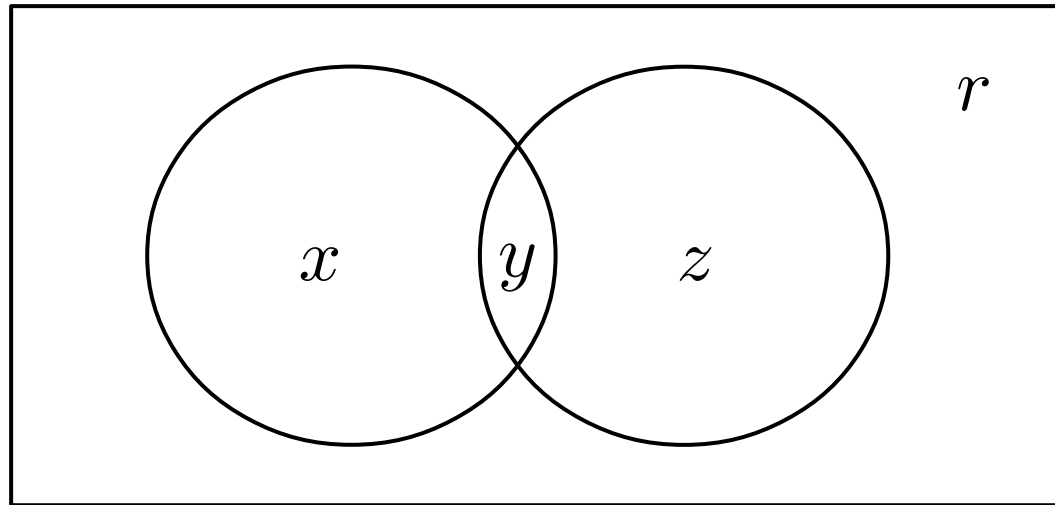
$$p \text{ and } q = \{y\}$$

$$\{y\} \subset \{x, y\} \text{ equivalent to } (p \text{ and } q) \implies p$$

# A simple example

$$p = \{x, y\}$$

$$q = \{y, z\}$$



$$p \text{ or } q = \{x, y, z\}$$

$$\neg p = \{z, r\}$$

$$\neg q = \{x, r\}$$

# Logic as set theory

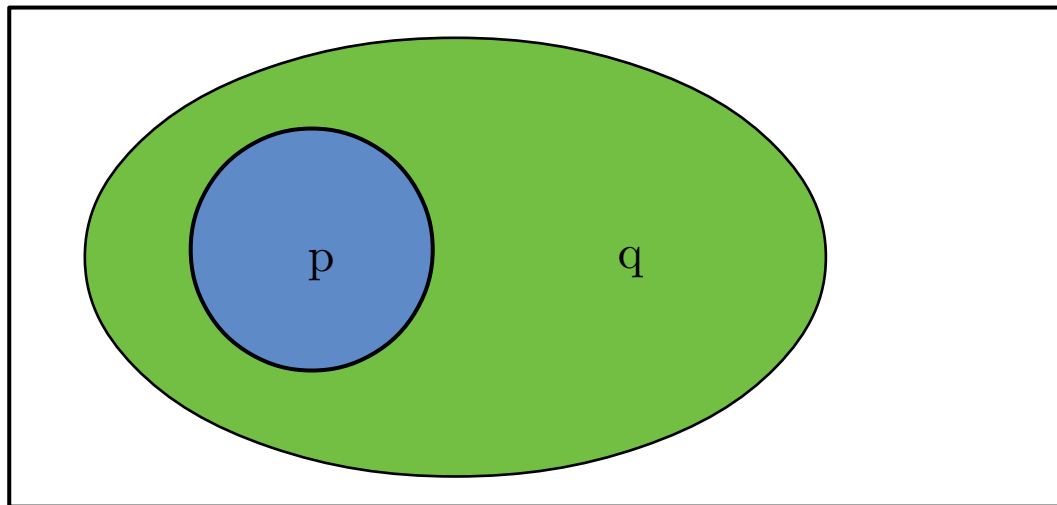
- Propositions correspond to sets.
- Implication amongst propositions given by set inclusion.
- Set inclusion is a partial order:

$$\{x\} \subseteq \{x, y\}$$

$$\{x\} \quad \{y, z\}$$

# Implication

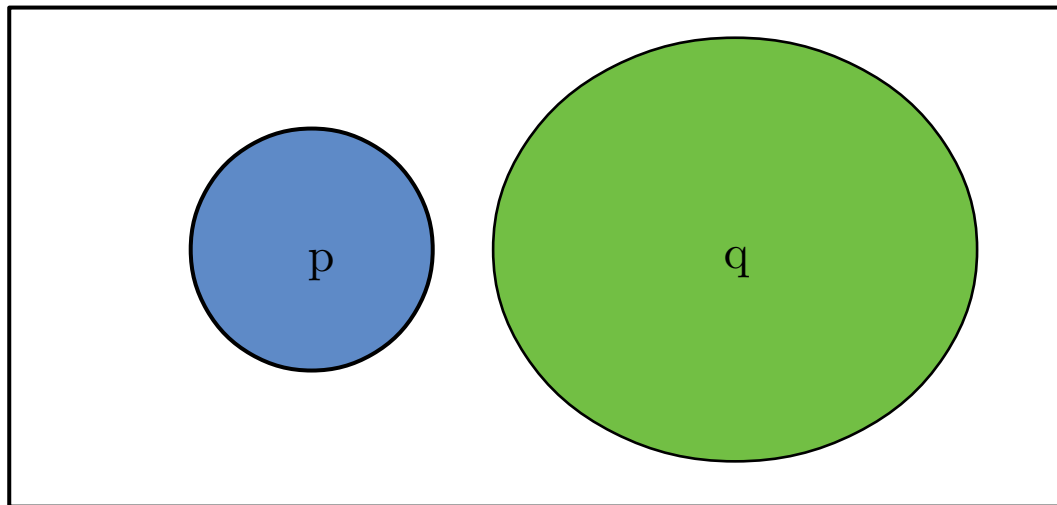
$$p \subseteq q$$



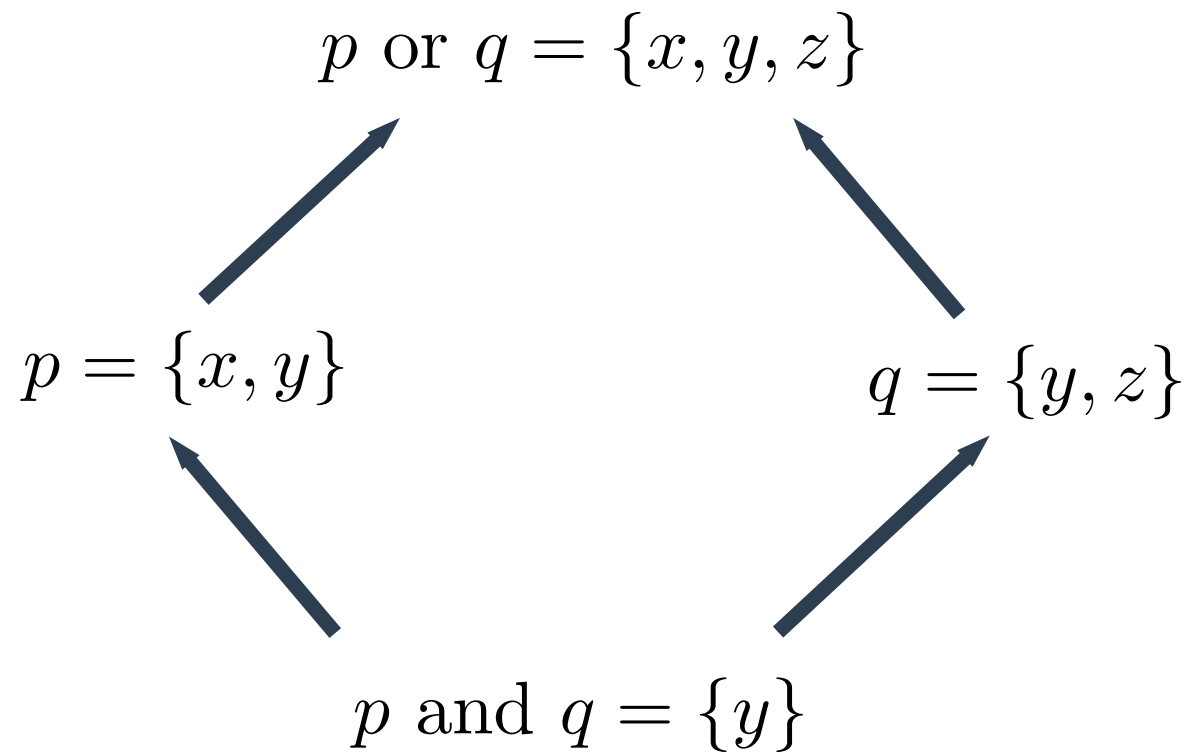
# Implication

$$p \not\subseteq q$$

$$q \not\subseteq p$$



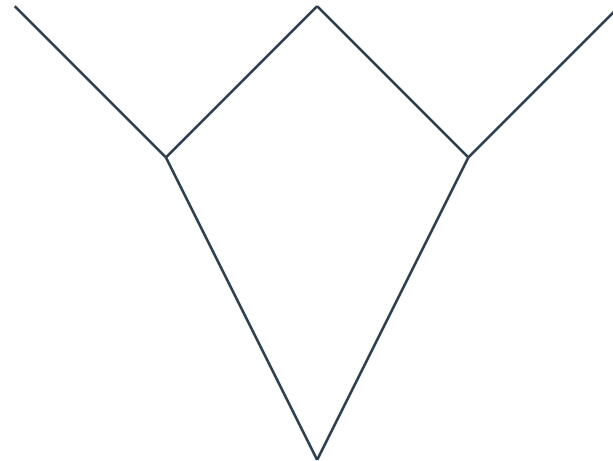
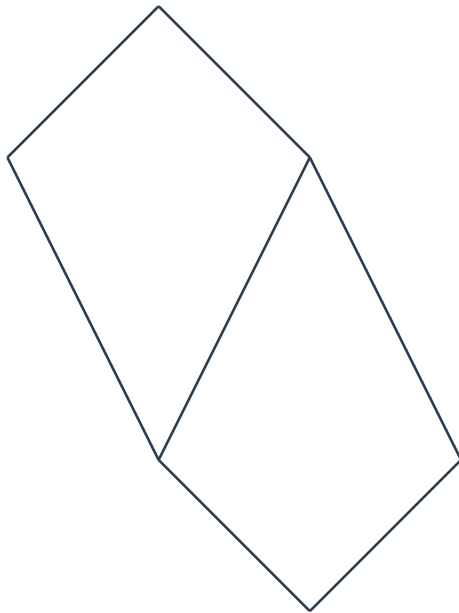
# Lattice



# Complete lattice

- Complete lattice: Partially ordered set where every pair of elements has a “and” and “or” defined (meet and join)
- Meet: greatest lower bound
- Join: least upper bound

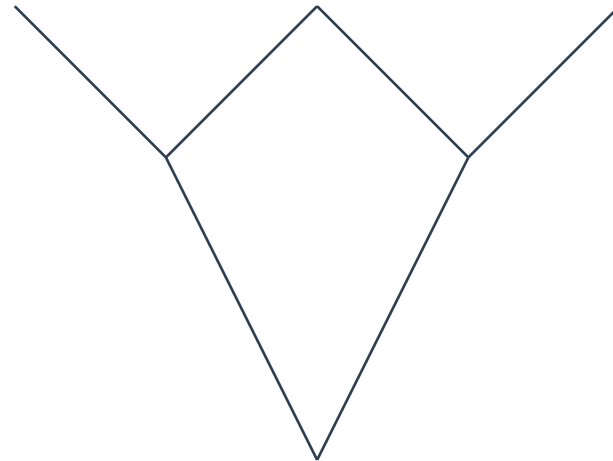
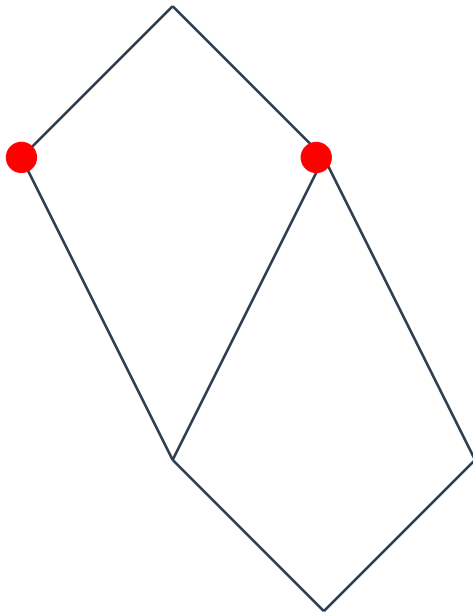
# Complete lattices





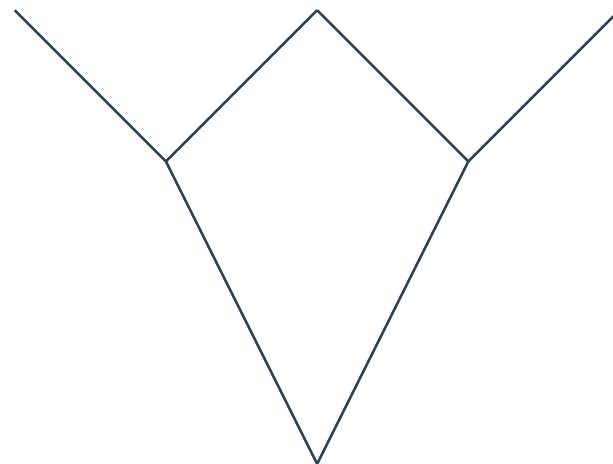
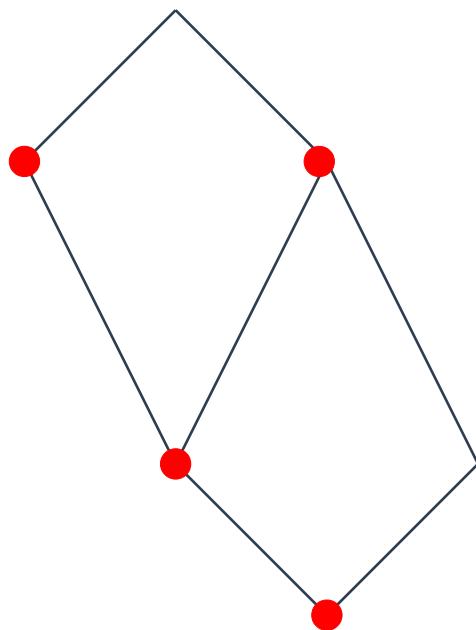
# Complete lattices

Meet? Greatest lower bound



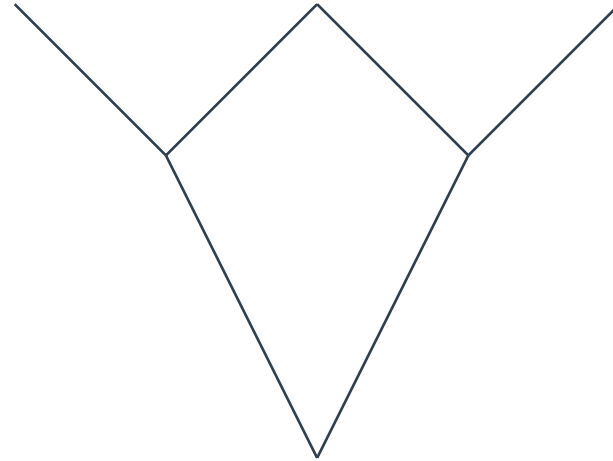
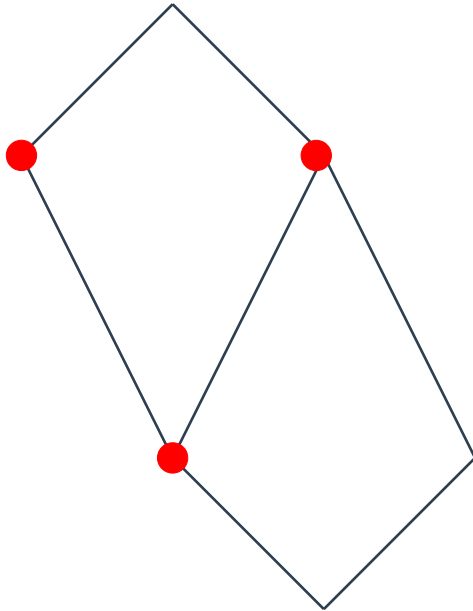
# Complete lattices

Meet? Greatest lower bound

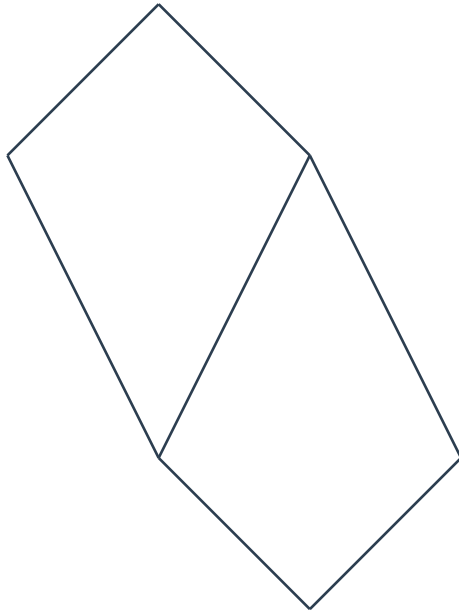


# Complete lattices

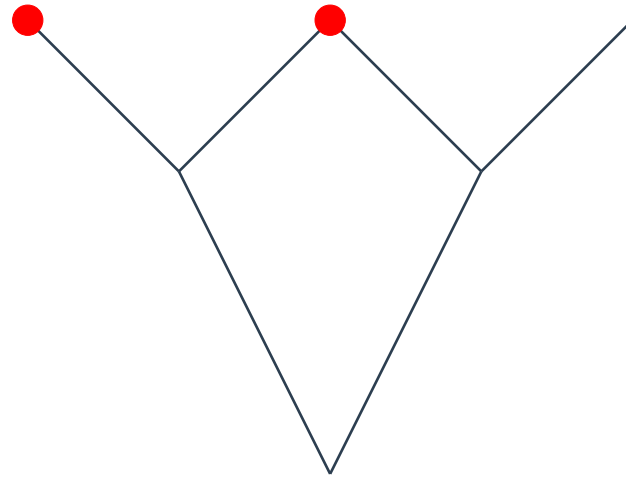
Meet? Greatest lower bound



# Complete lattices



Join? Lowest upper bound



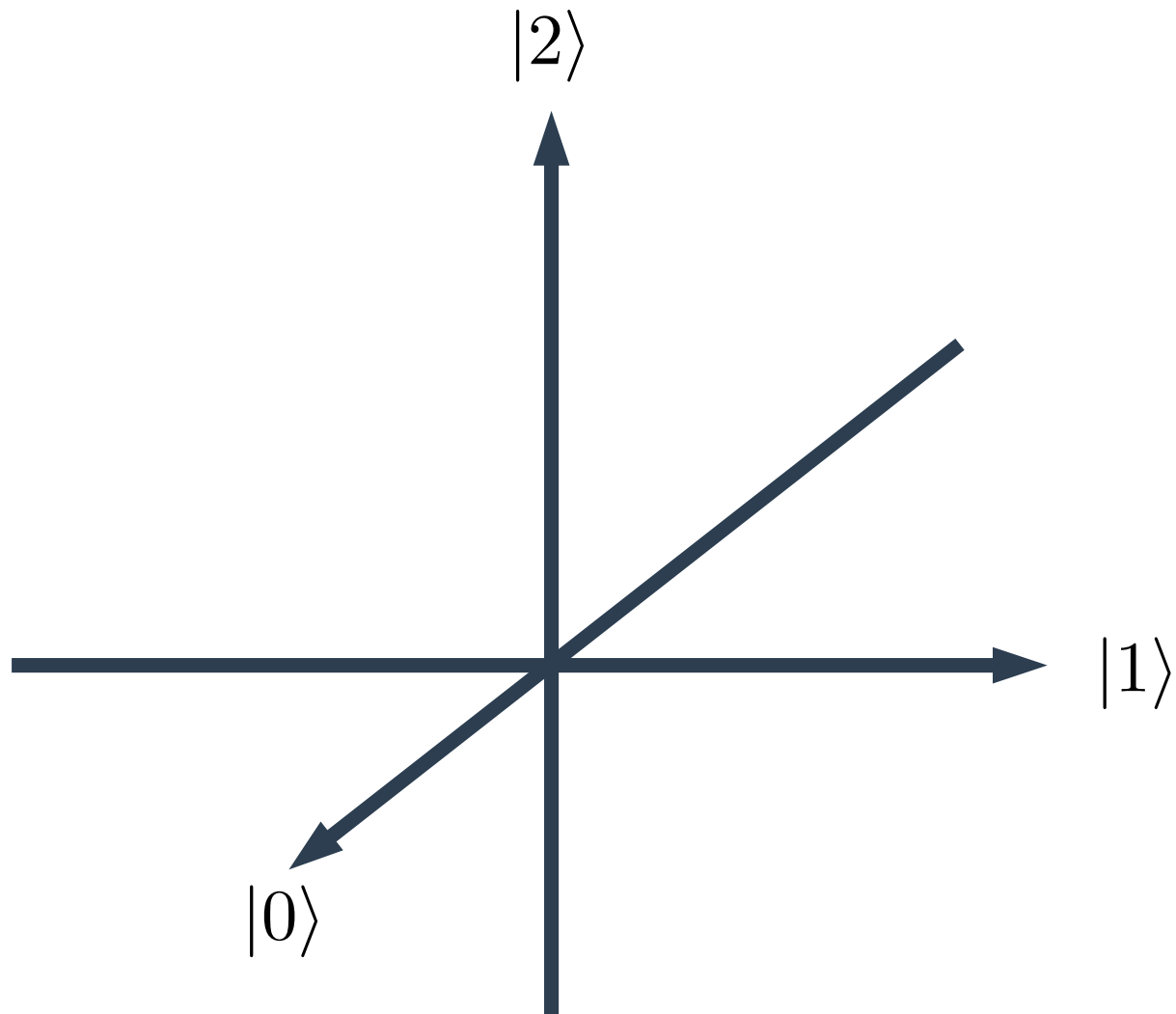
- A logic is just a complete lattice
- Classical logic is distributive lattice
- $p \text{ and } (q \text{ or } r) = (p \text{ and } q) \text{ or } (p \text{ and } r)$
- $p \text{ or } (q \text{ and } r) = (p \text{ or } q) \text{ and } (p \text{ or } r)$

- A logic is just a complete lattice
- Classical logic is distributive lattice
- Quantum logic is a non-distributive lattice
- We have a vantage point to talk about general non-classical logics, of which quantum logic is an example.

# Quantum logic

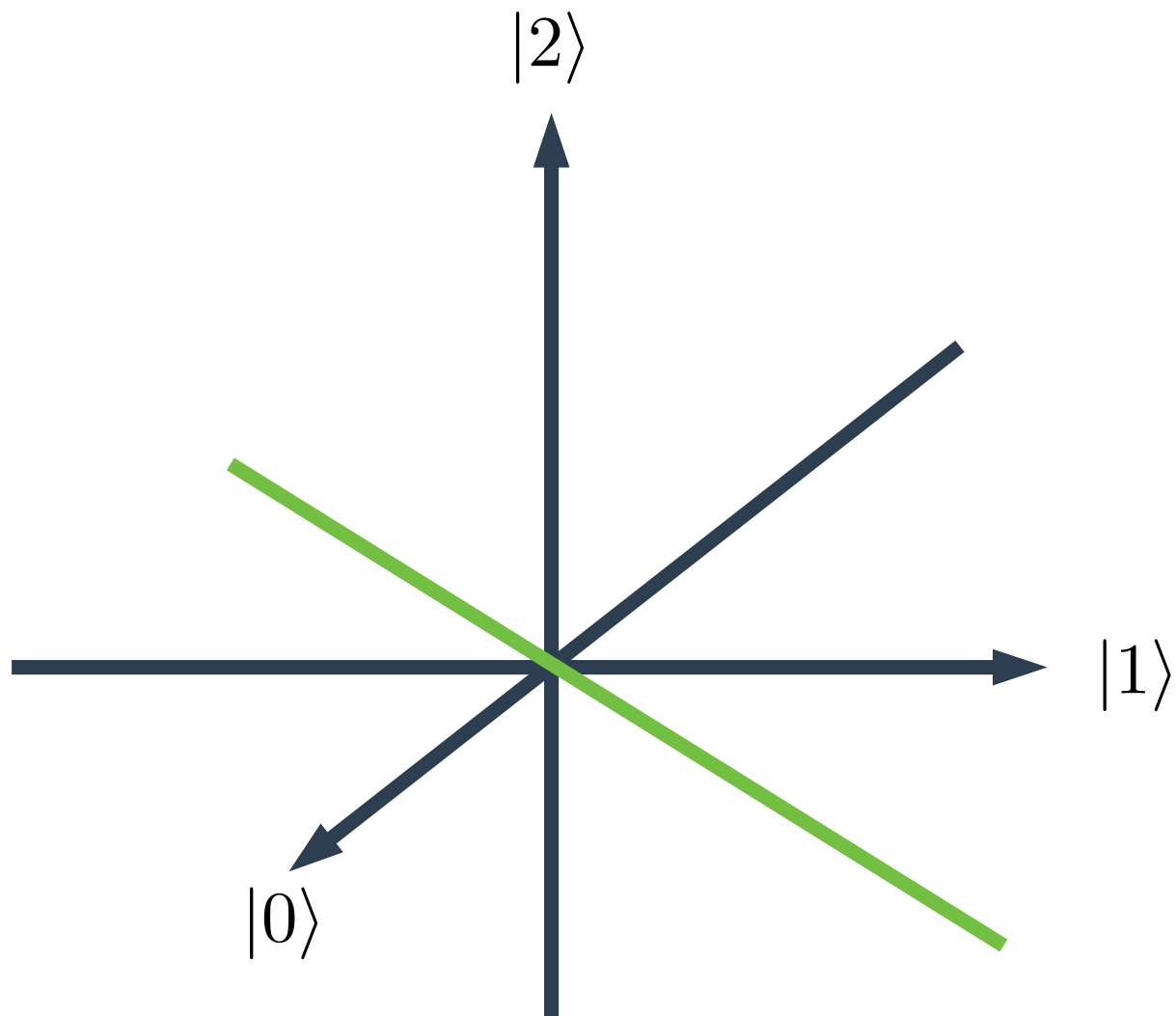
- Propositions correspond to subspaces of  $H$ .
- Examples:  $|0\rangle$   $|+\rangle$   $\text{span}(|0\rangle, |1\rangle)$
- Quantum logic is a lattice of subspaces

# Quantum logic



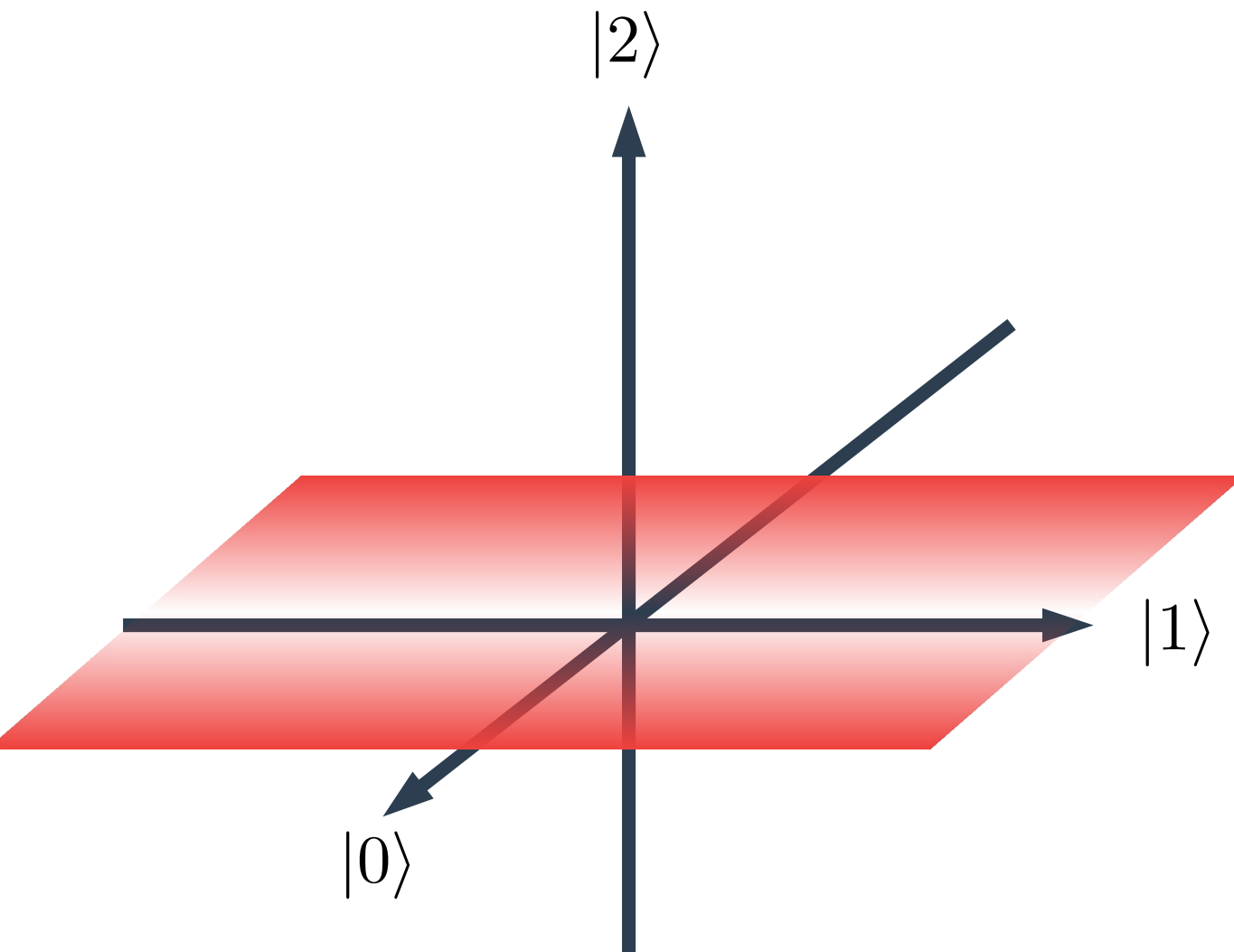


# Quantum logic



$$p = |+\rangle$$

# Quantum logic

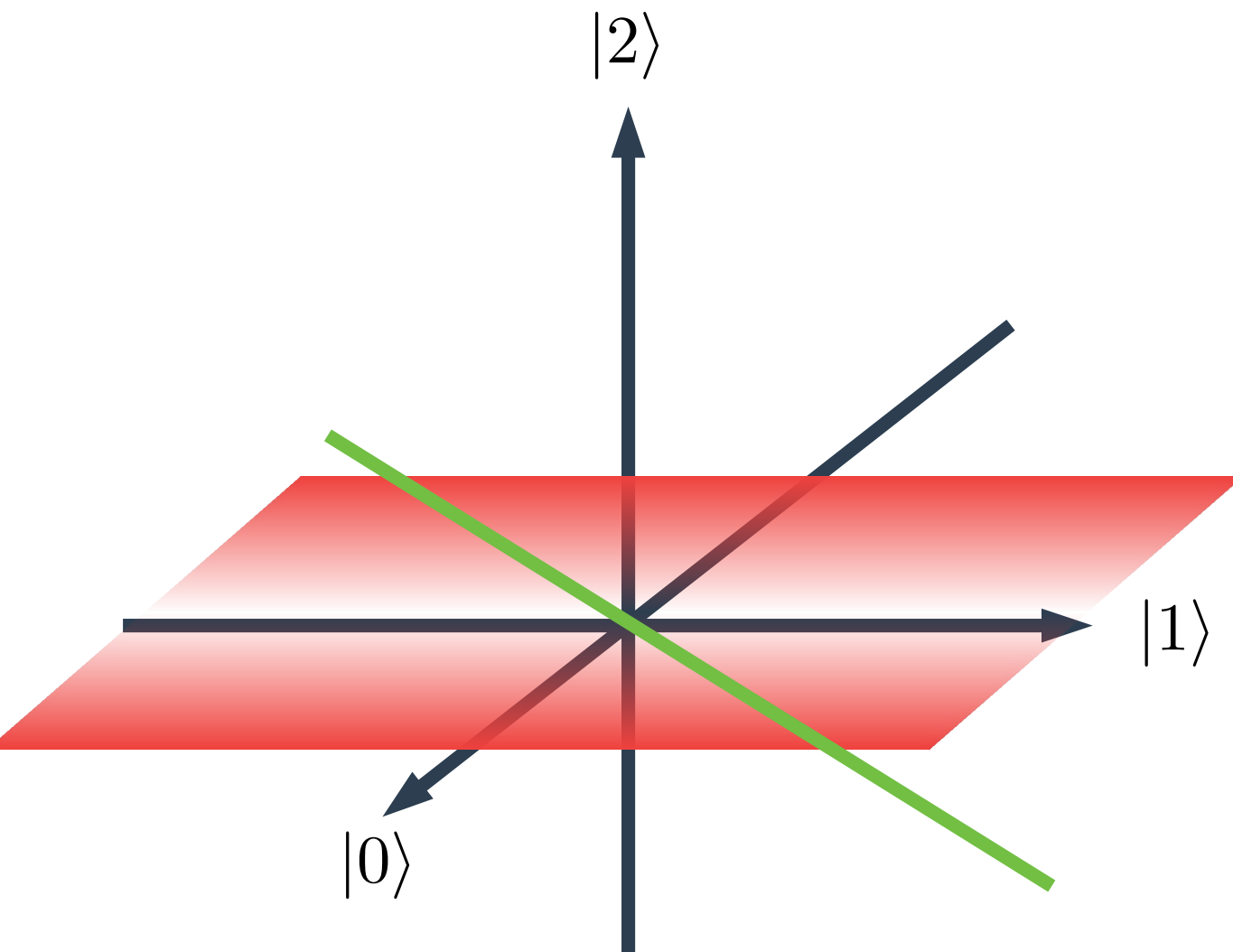


$$q = \text{span}(|0\rangle, |1\rangle)$$

# Quantum logic

- Propositions correspond to subspaces of  $H$ .
- Implication given by inclusion of subspaces

# Quantum logic



$$p = |+\rangle$$

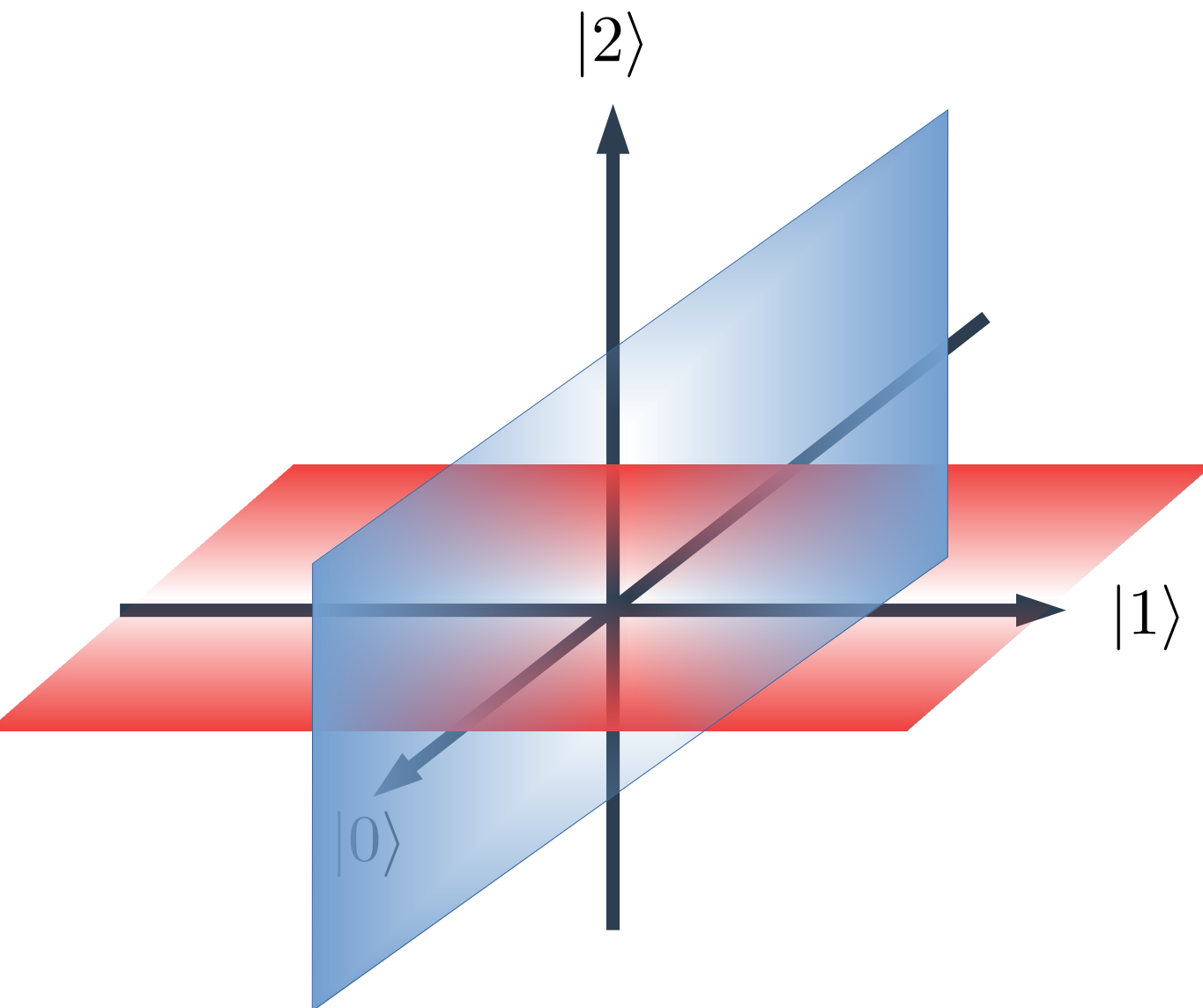
$$q = \text{span}(|0\rangle, |1\rangle)$$

$$p \implies q$$

# Quantum logic

- Propositions correspond to subspaces of  $H$ .
- “and” is given by intersection

# Quantum logic



$$p = \text{span}(|0\rangle, |2\rangle)$$

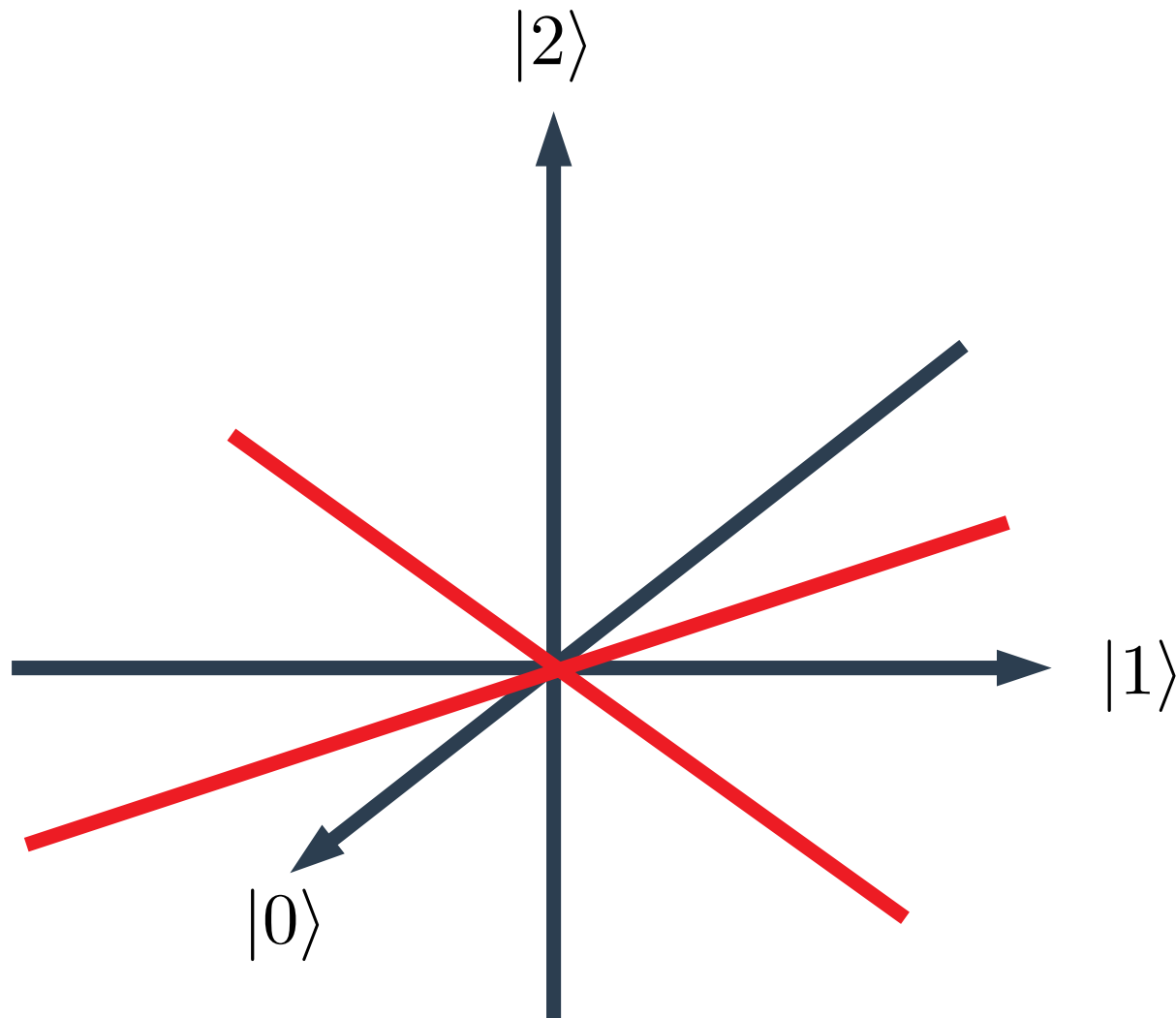
$$q = \text{span}(|0\rangle, |1\rangle)$$

$$p \text{ and } q = |0\rangle$$

# Quantum logic

- Propositions correspond to subspaces of  $H$ .
- “or” is given by span

# Quantum logic

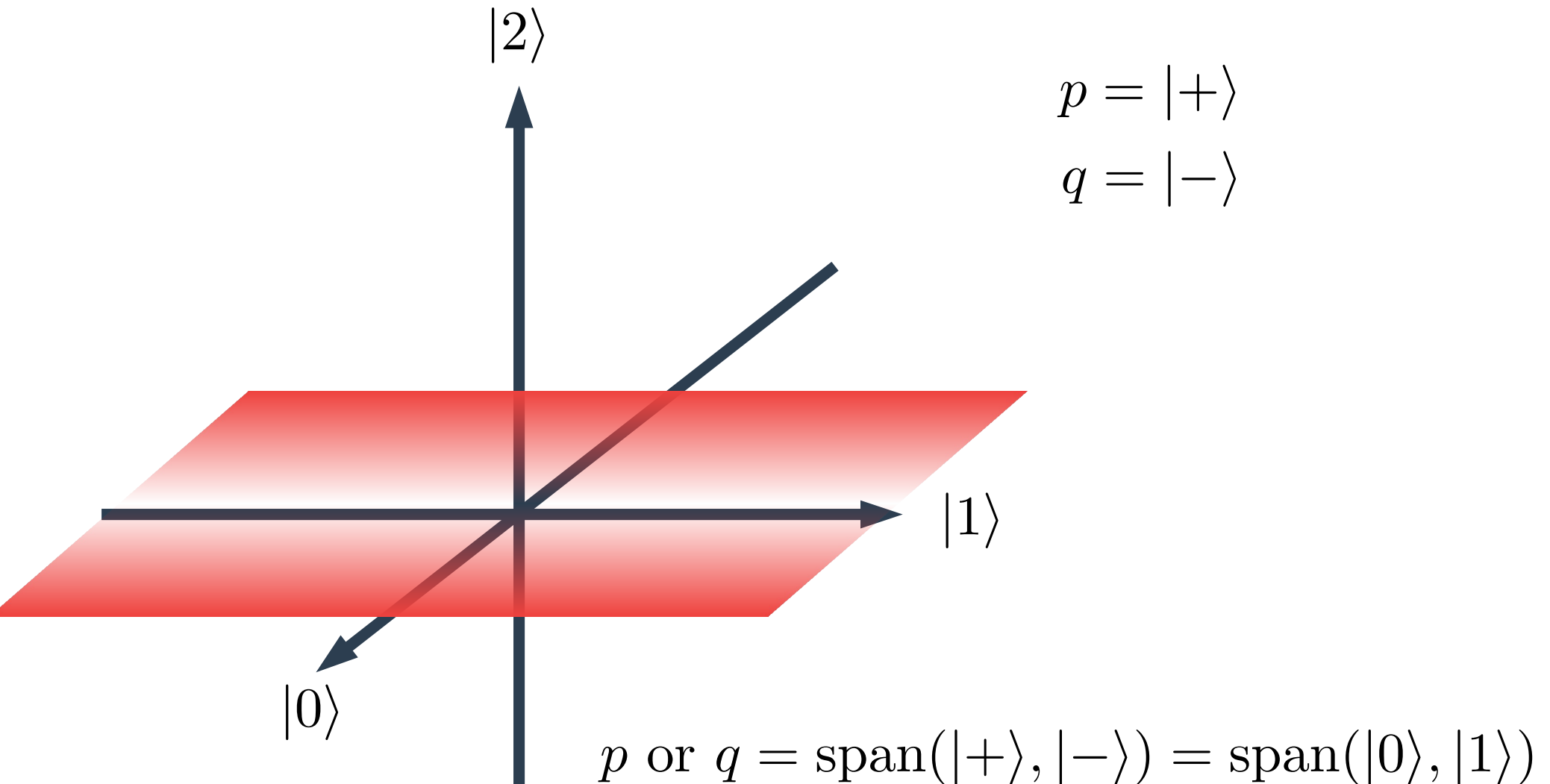


$$p = |+\rangle$$

$$q = |-\rangle$$



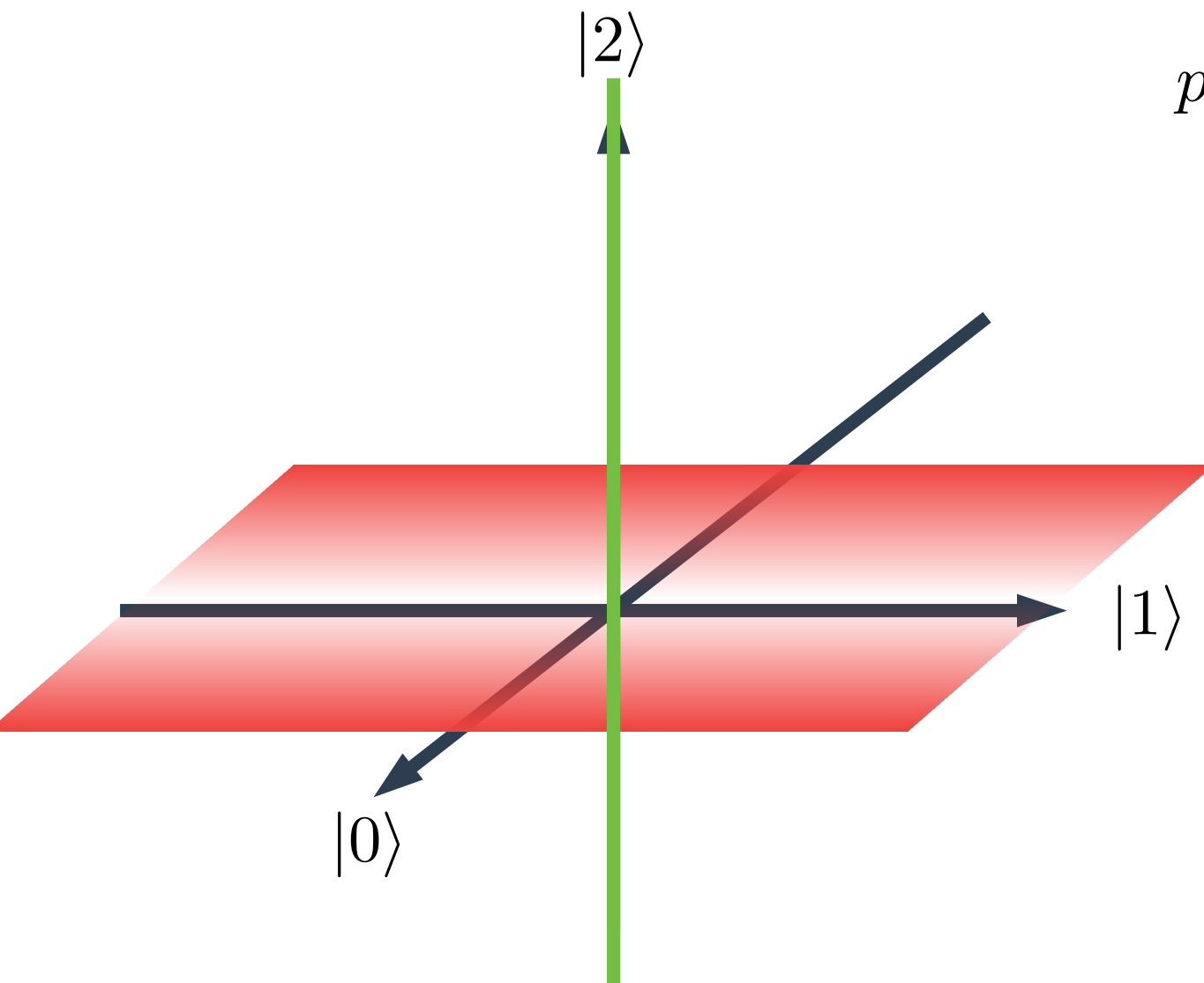
# Quantum logic



# Quantum logic

- Propositions correspond to subspaces of  $H$ .
- Negation is given by orthogonal subspace

# Quantum logic



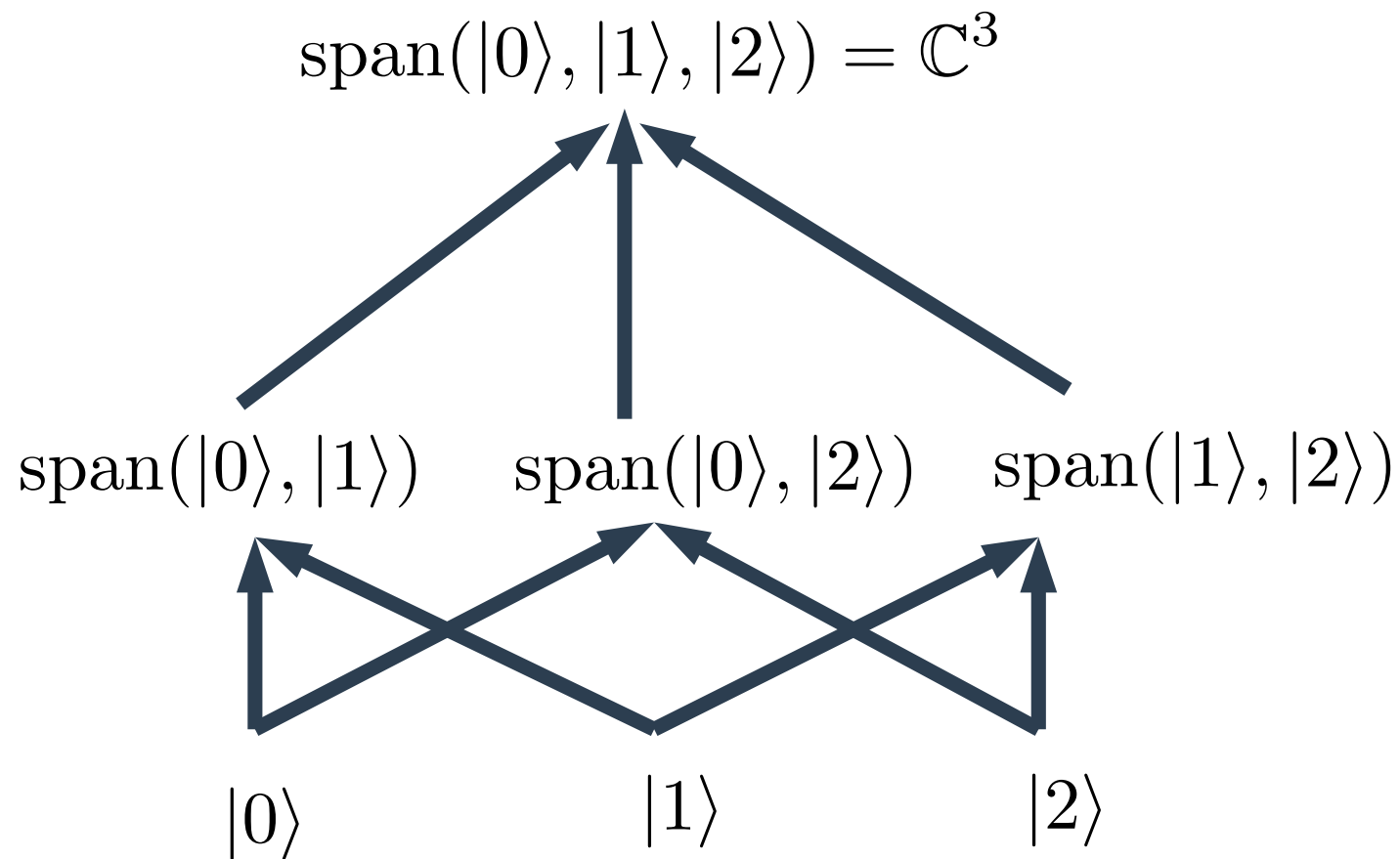
$$p = \text{span}(|0\rangle, |1\rangle)$$

$$\neg p = |2\rangle$$

# Quantum logic

- Propositions correspond to subspaces of  $H$ .
- Implication given by inclusion of subspaces
- “and” is given by intersection
- “or” is given by span
- Negation is given by orthogonal complement (orthocomplemented lattice)

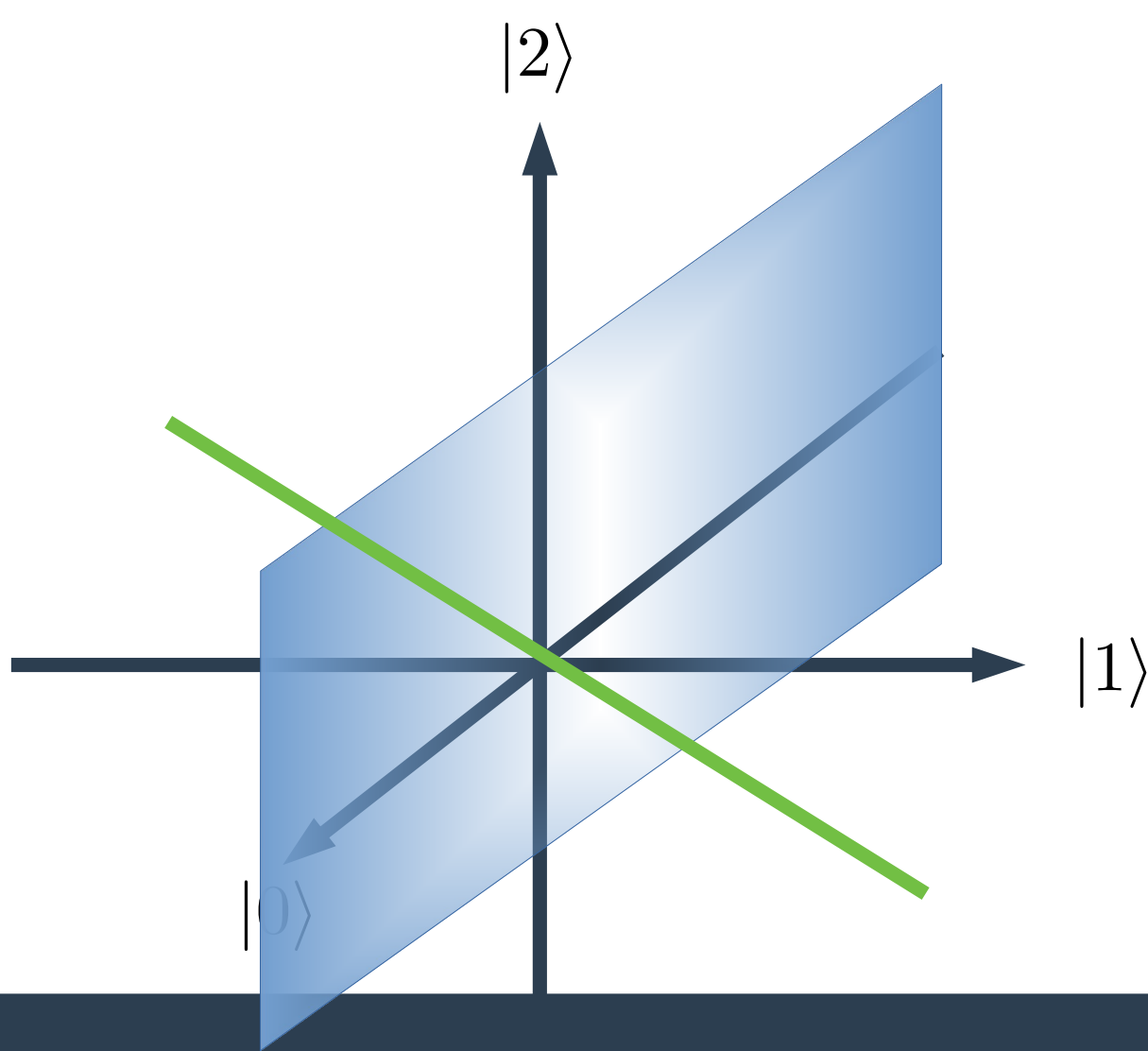
# Quantum logic



# Non-distributivity of quantum logic

$$p \text{ and } (q \text{ or } r) \neq (p \text{ and } q) \text{ or } (p \text{ and } r)$$

# Non-distributivity of quantum logic



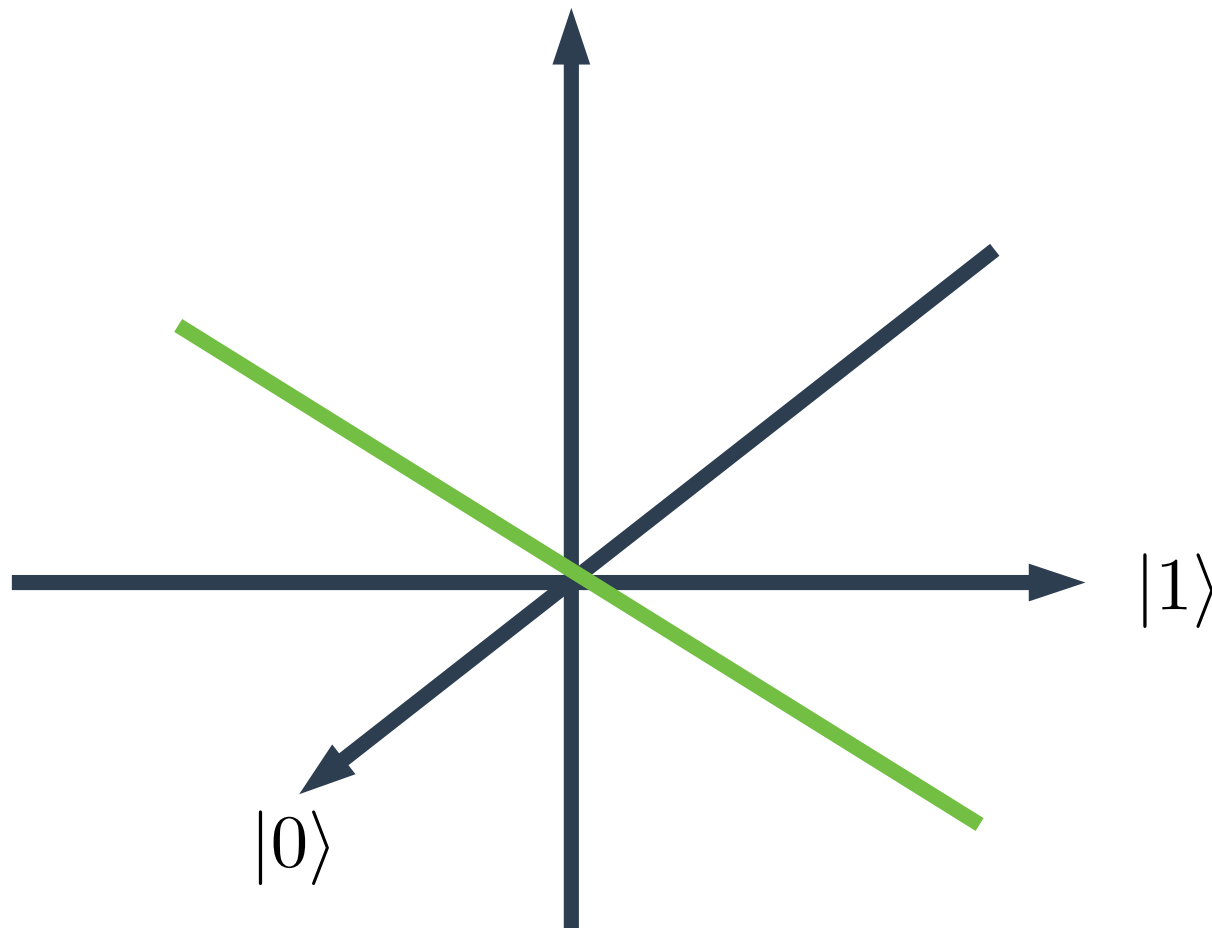
$$p = |+\rangle$$

$$q = \text{span}(|0\rangle, |2\rangle)$$

$$r = |1\rangle$$

# Non-distributivity of quantum logic

$$\begin{aligned} p \text{ and } (q \text{ or } r) &= |+\rangle \cap \text{span}(\text{span}(|0\rangle, |2\rangle), |1\rangle)) \\ &= |+\rangle \cap V = |+\rangle \end{aligned}$$



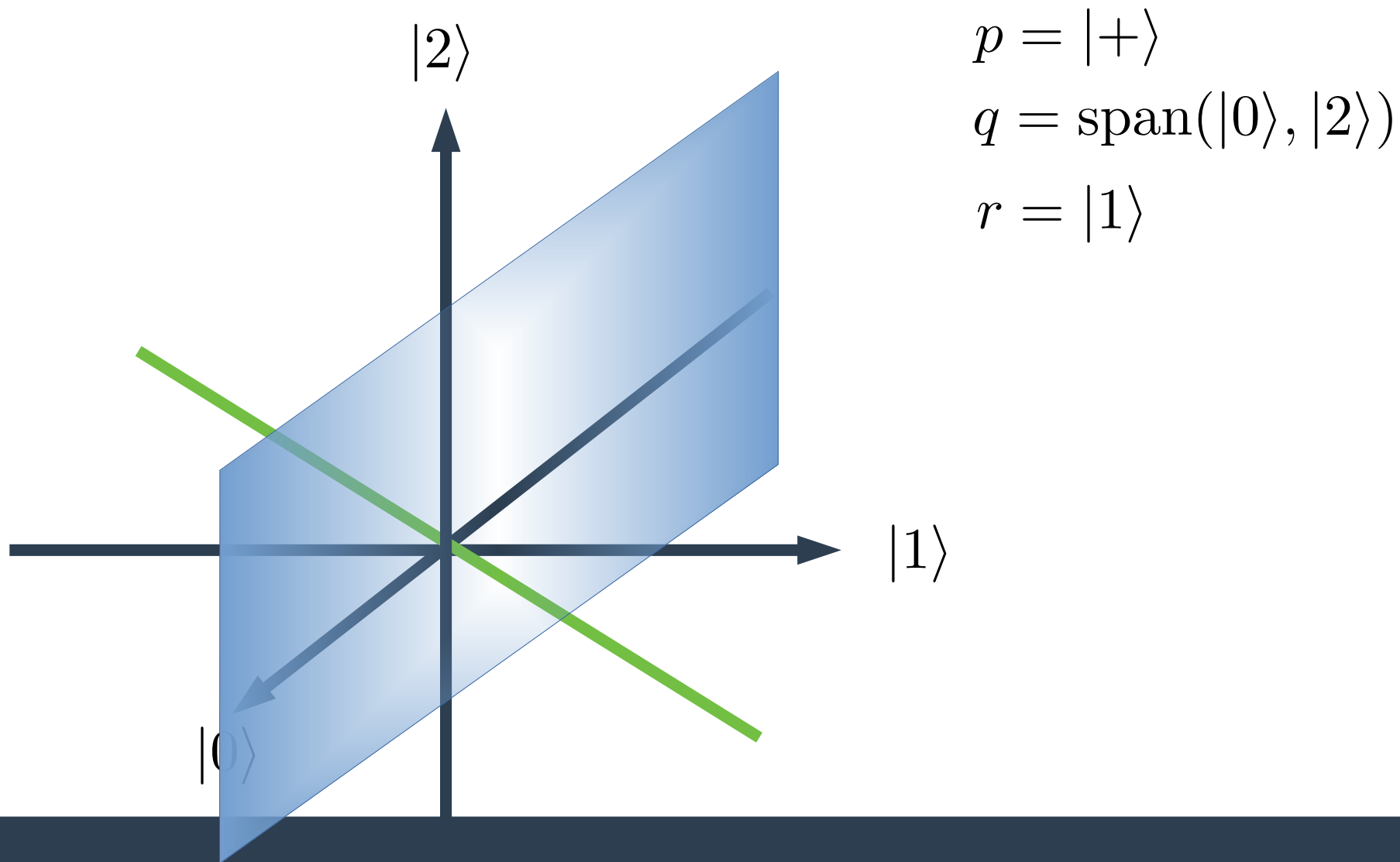
$$p = |+\rangle$$

$$q = \text{span}(|0\rangle, |2\rangle)$$

$$r = |1\rangle$$

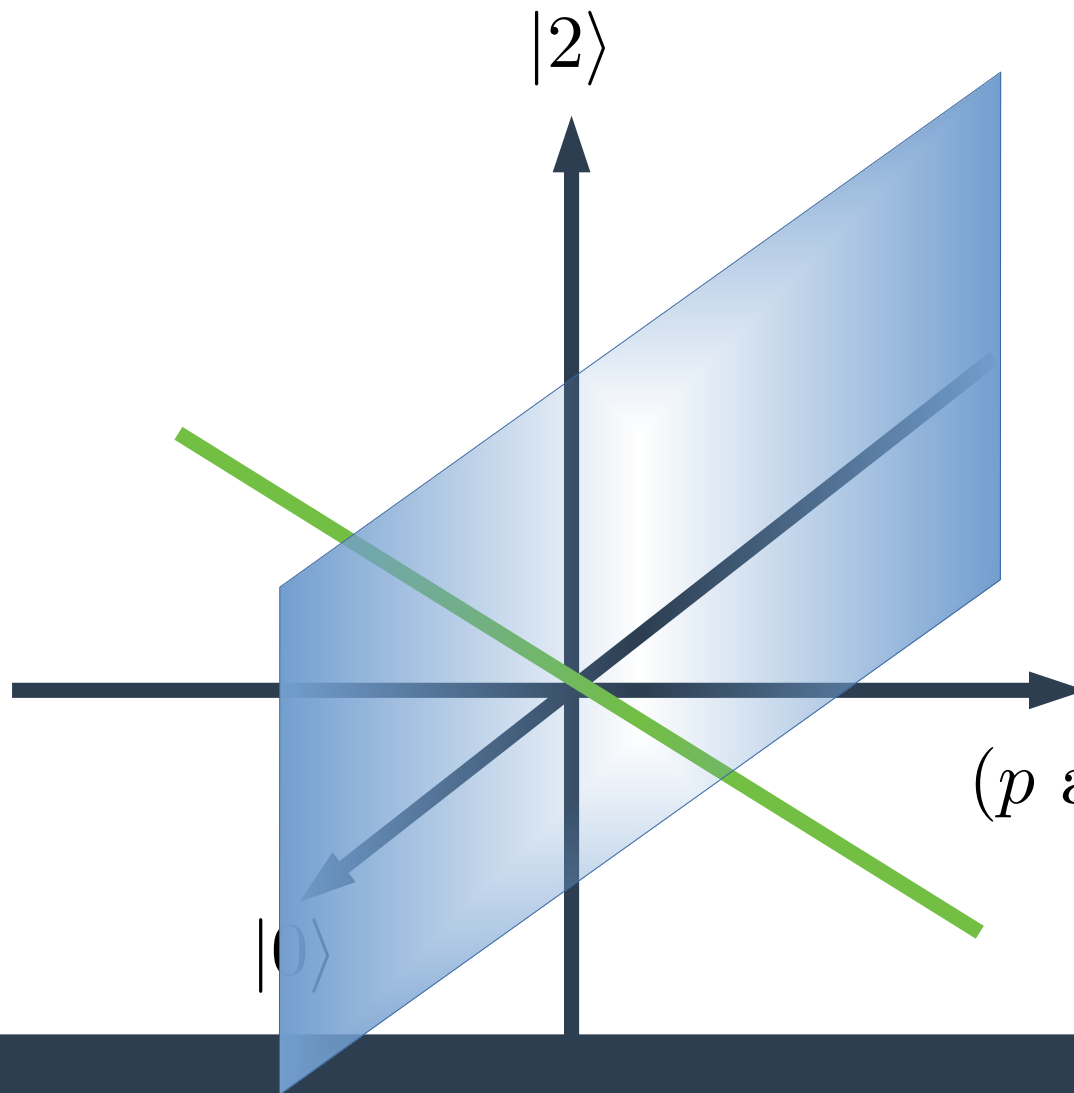


# Non-distributivity of quantum logic



# Non-distributivity of quantum logic

$(p \text{ and } q) \text{ or } (p \text{ and } r)$



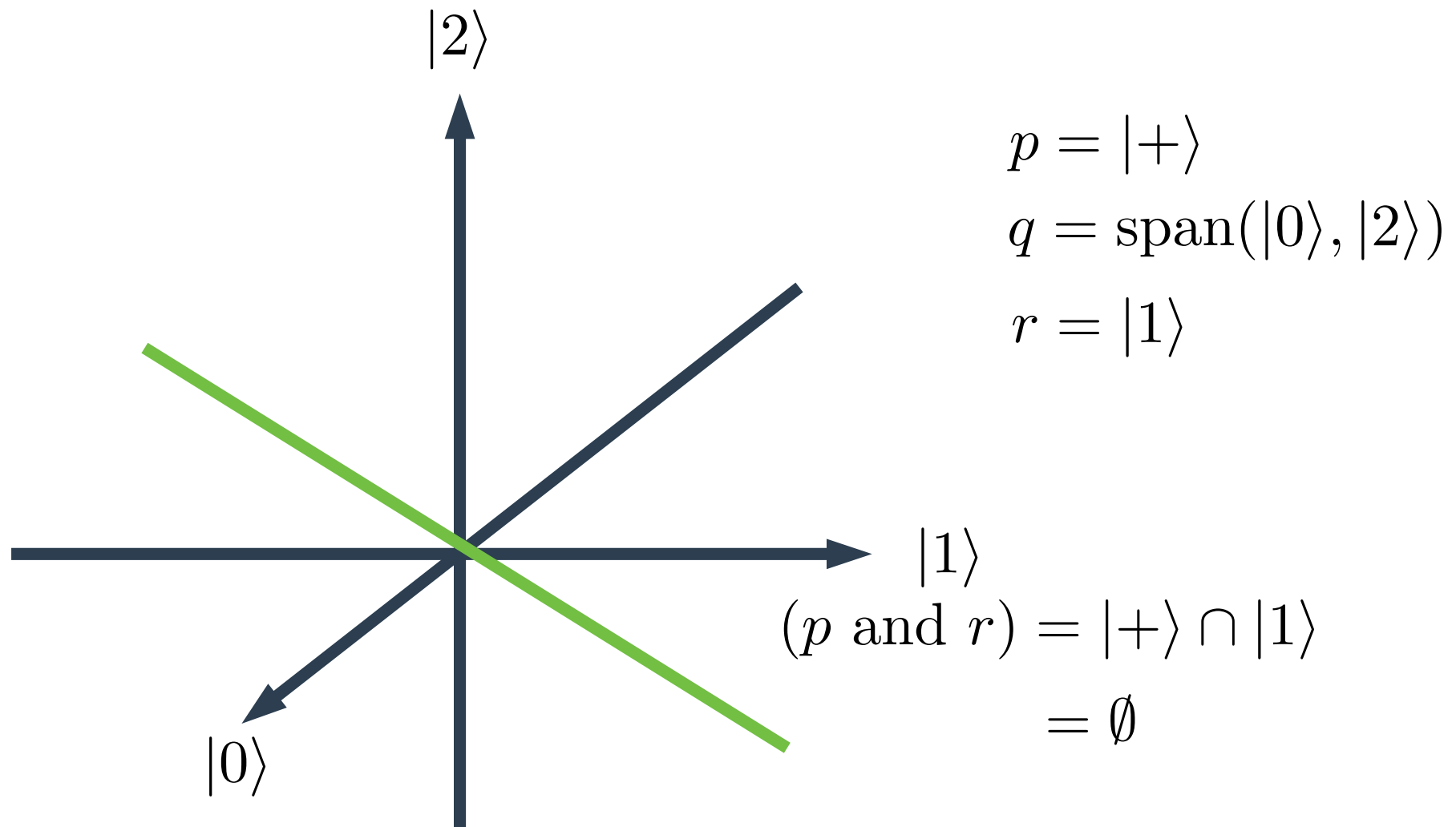
$$p = |+\rangle$$

$$q = \text{span}(|0\rangle, |2\rangle)$$

$$r = |1\rangle$$

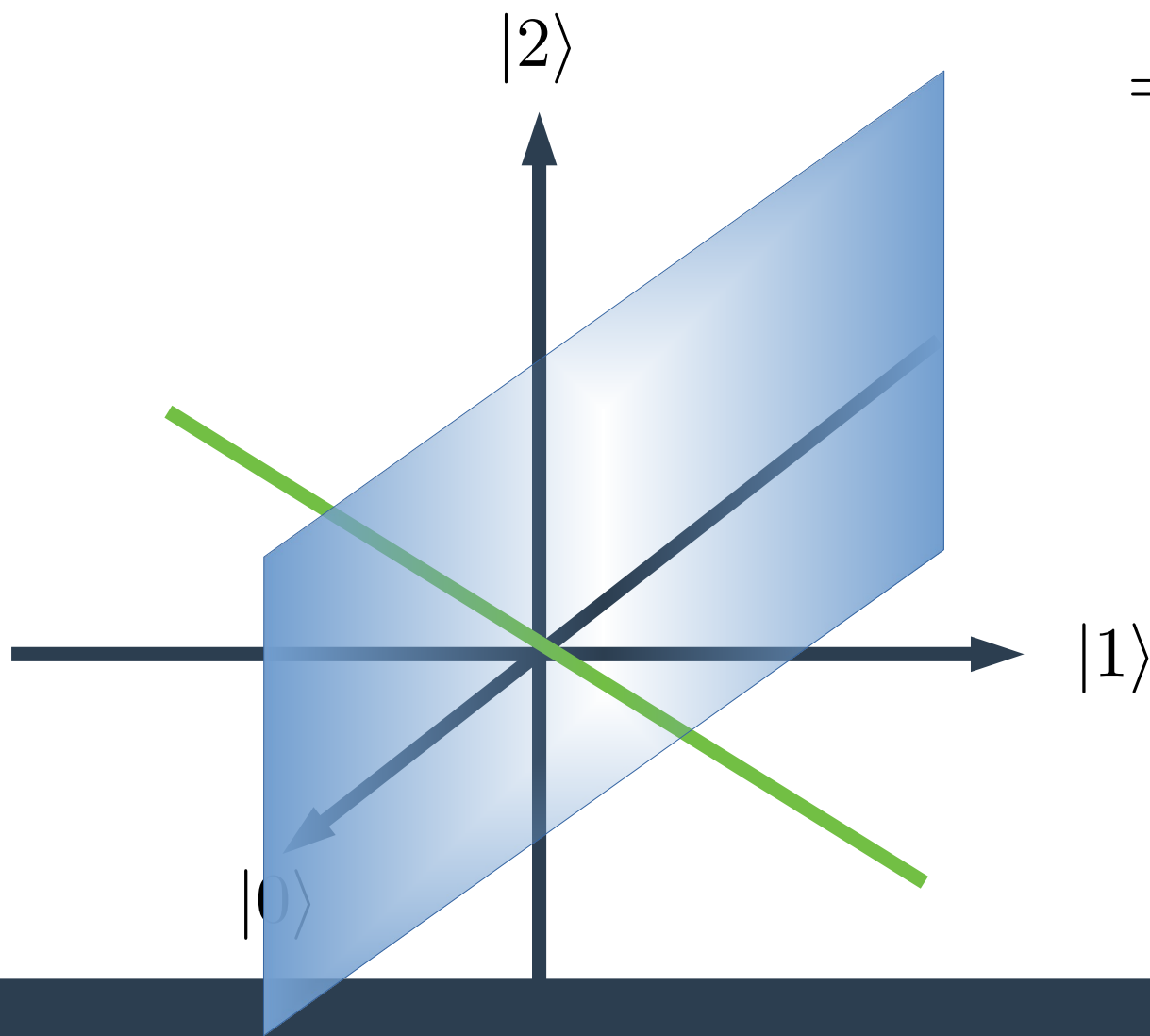
$$\begin{aligned}(p \text{ and } q) &= |+\rangle \cap \text{span}(|0\rangle, |2\rangle) \\ &= \emptyset\end{aligned}$$

# Non-distributivity of quantum logic



# Non-distributivity of quantum logic

$$(p \text{ and } q) \text{ or } (p \text{ and } r) \\ = \text{span}(\emptyset, \emptyset) = \emptyset$$



# Non-distributivity of quantum logic

$$(p \text{ and } q) \text{ or } (p \text{ and } r) = \emptyset$$

$$p \text{ and } (q \text{ or } r) = |+\rangle$$

# Operational quantum logic

- Propositions (subspaces) can be thought of as answers to yes/no questions (Mackey).
- These questions are the (projective) measurements we carry out.

# Gleason's theorem

- If the answers correspond to subspaces, what are the possible probability assignments?
- Measure

$$\mu : P \rightarrow [0, 1]$$

- For mutually exclusive answers we expect probabilities to add:  $P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B)$

# Gleason's theorem

- If the answers correspond to subspaces, what are the possible probability assignments?

$$\mu : P \rightarrow [0, 1]$$

$$\mu\left(\sum_i P_i\right) = \sum_i \mu(P_i)$$

- For  $P_i$  projectors onto orthogonal subspaces (mutually exclusive properties)



# Gleason's theorem

The only measures on  $L(H)$  (for  $d > 2$ ) which obey the lattice structure are of the form

$$\mu(A) = \text{Tr}(\rho P_A)$$

Where  $\rho$  is a density operator

# Axiomatisations of quantum theory

- Assume the structure of questions and answers
- The only probability rule compatible with the lattice structure of subspaces is the Born rule
- Recover the probability rule and states.

# A sketch for a reconstruction

- Assume structure of questions
- Use Gleason's theorem to get states and probability rule
- Use theorem by Wigner to get the unitary group

# Conclusion

- We adopted a certain perspective on quantum theory.
- Namely it is an Operational Quantum Logic
- Using this perspective we see that the axioms about the probability rule (and states) directly follow from the structure of projective measurements.

# Conclusion

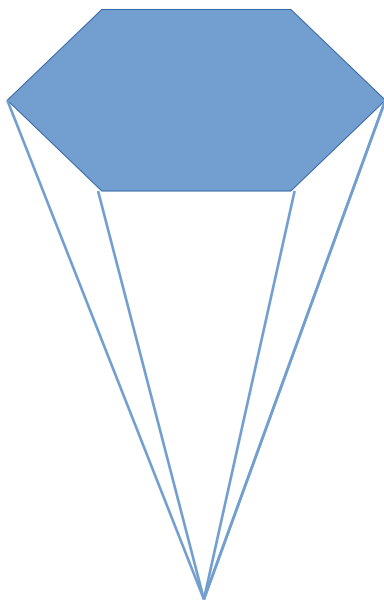
- In classical physics experimental propositions can be identified with sets
- In quantum physics experimental propositions can be identified with subspaces
- Both have a lattice structure

# Where next?

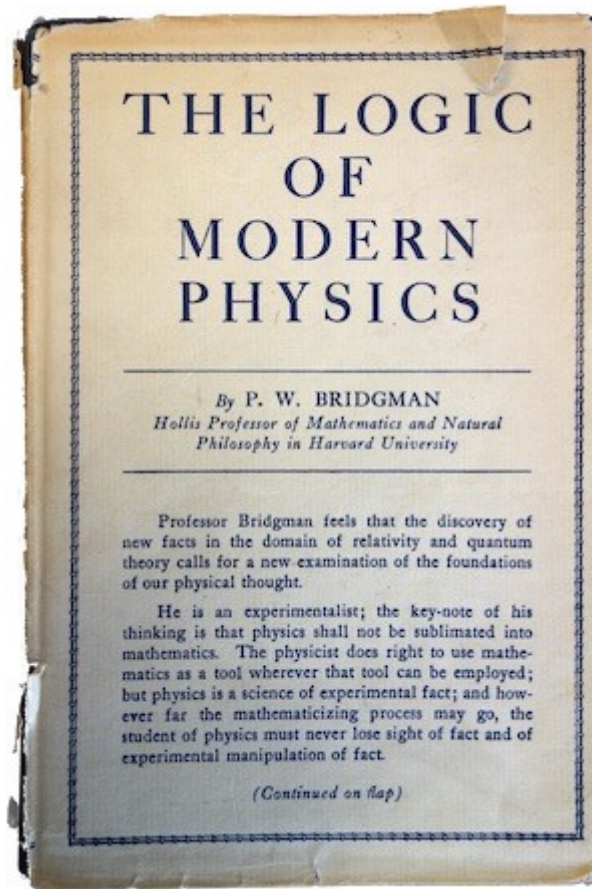
- We will adopt a different operational perspective
- That of General Probabilistic Theories
- Using this perspective we see that the axioms about the probability rule (and measurements) directly follow from the structure of pure states.

$$p(i|P) = \vec{e}_i \cdot \vec{s}_P$$

# General probabilistic theories



# Operationalism (1927)





# Operationalism

- “We mean by any concept nothing more than a set of operations; the concept is synonymous with the corresponding set of operations.” Bridgman (1927)
- For instance concept of length should reduce to a set of operations one can carry out with a ruler.

# Operationalism

- Special relativity
- Theories defined via a small number of operational principles.
- Operational reconstructions of quantum theory
- See Lluís Masanes lectures from last summer school

# General probabilistic theories

## Quantum Theory From Five Reasonable Axioms

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The Clarendon Laboratory,  
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February 1, 2008

# The operational approach to physical theories

- In the operational approach a theory just allows us to make predictions about the outcomes of measurements.
- No claims are made about ontology or underlying physical reality.
- We have access to some physical devices which we can wire together, and the theory allows us to make predictions about what will happen.

# The operational approach to physical theories

- Operational principles will lead to certain mathematical structure
- Mixing: convex structure
- Composition of devices: categorical structure

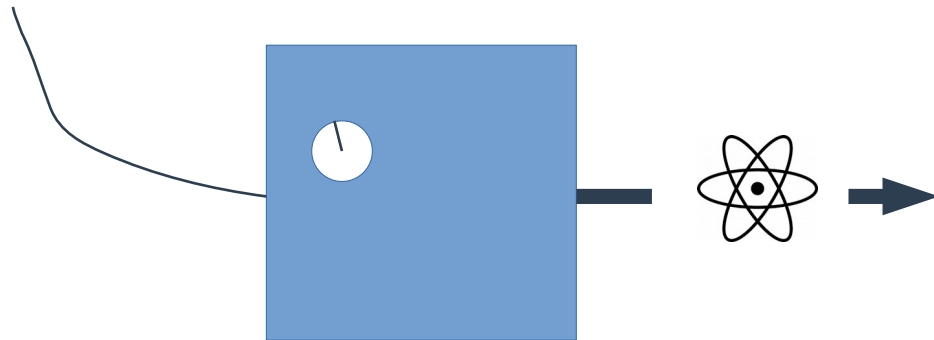
# Primitives

- The primitives are devices: preparation, transformation and measurement devices.

# The operational approach

- The primitives are devices: preparation, transformation and measurement devices.

Preparation choice

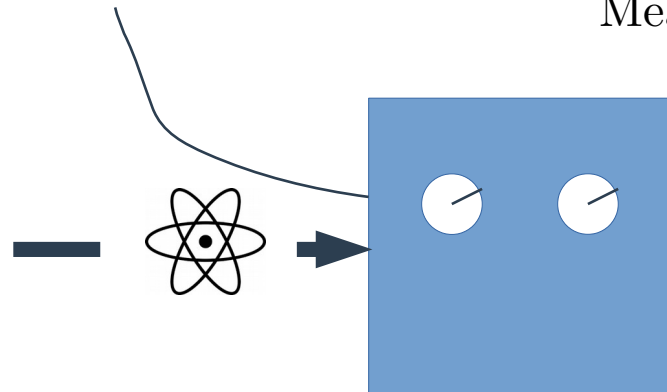


# Measurement device

- The primitives are devices: preparation, transformation and measurement devices.

Measurement choice

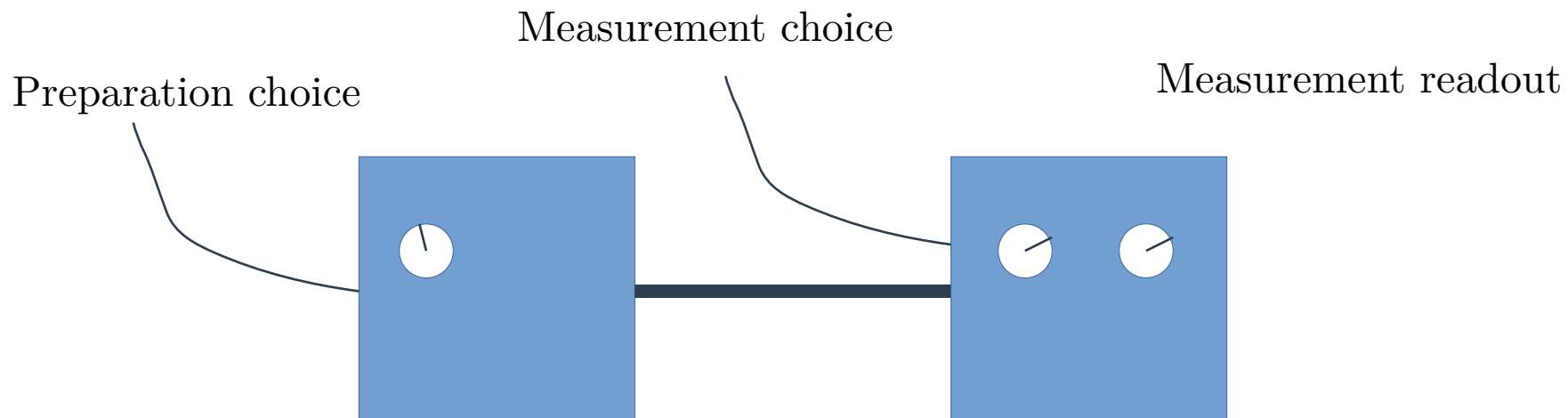
Measurement readout



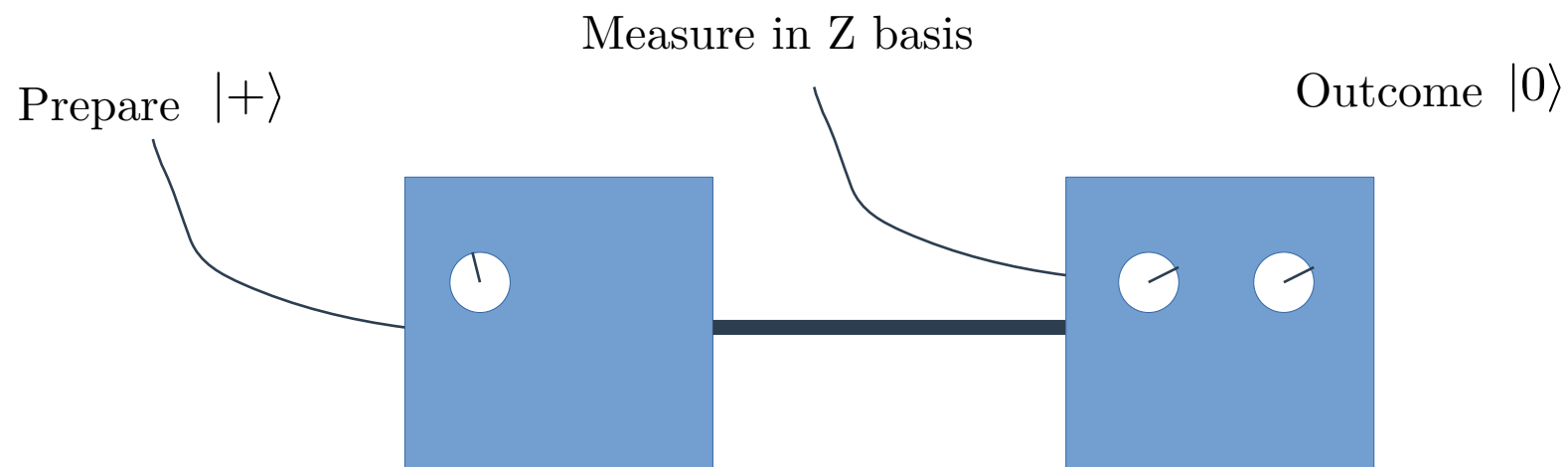


# Prepare and measure

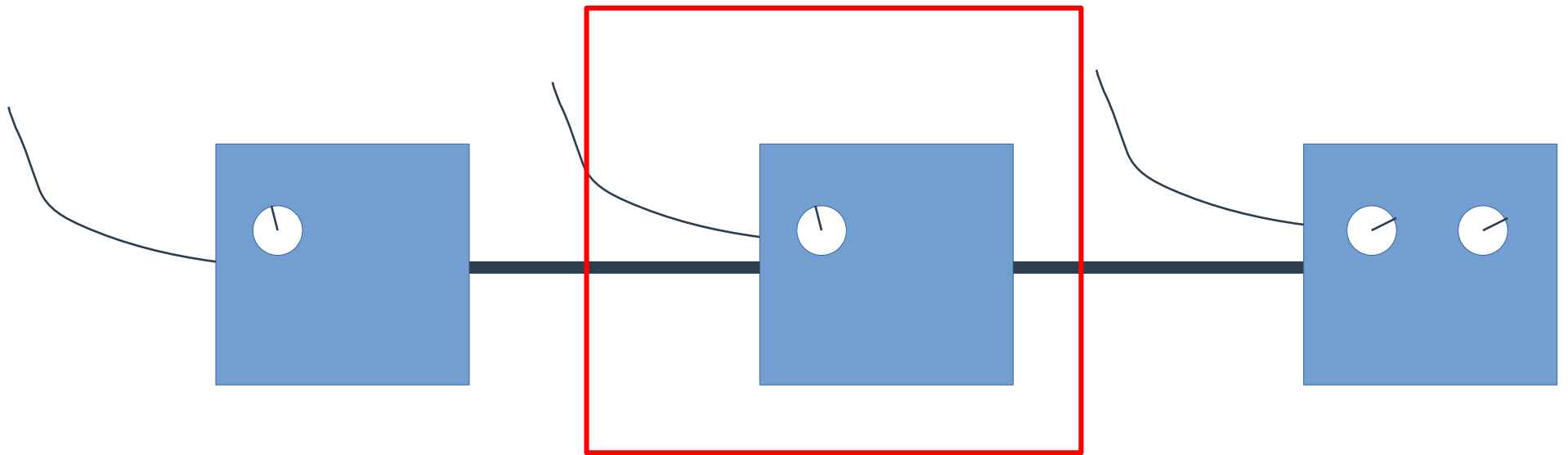
- The primitives are devices: preparation, transformation and measurement devices.



# An example: qubit



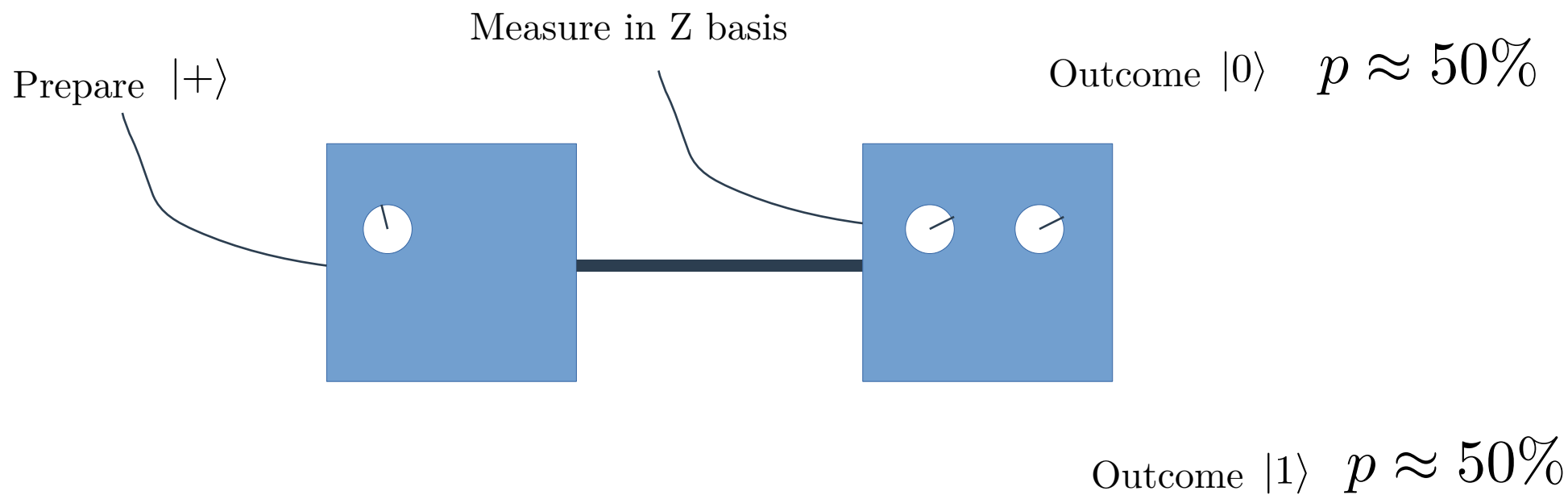
# Transformation devices



# The operational approach in quantum foundations

- For various different settings of the preparation device we collect the statistics for various measurements.
- We use these statistics to generate the state space and effect space.

# An example: qubit



# The operational approach in quantum foundations

- The classical world: laboratories, agents and classical probability theory is assumed.
- Fundamentally not about systems, but about devices, and the correlations between classical inputs and outputs of these devices.
- From the collected statistics we derive the state and effect space.

# Classical probability theory (finite dimensional)



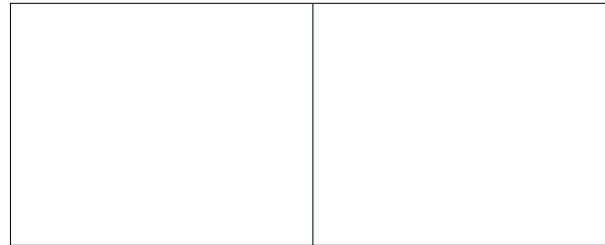
wikipedia



Getty images

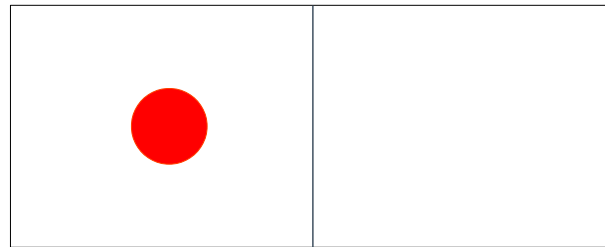
# Classical systems (finite dimensions)

- Consider a ball which can be placed in one of two boxes:

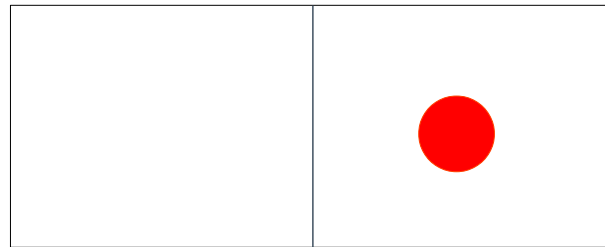




# Classical systems (finite dimensions)

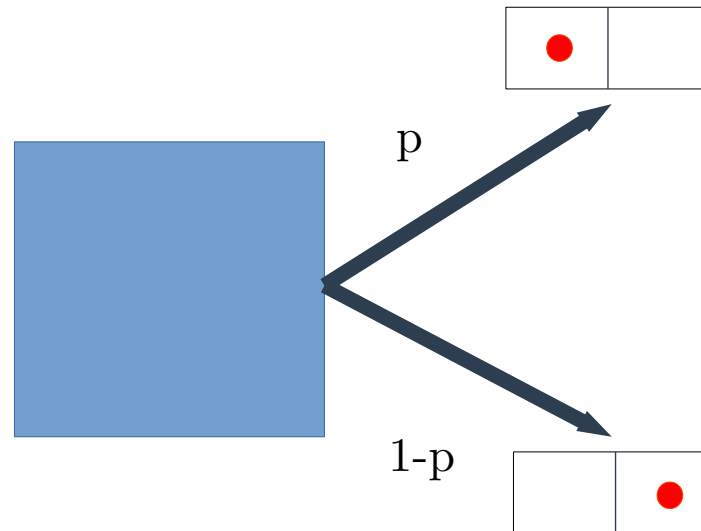


# Classical systems (finite dimensions)



# Preparations

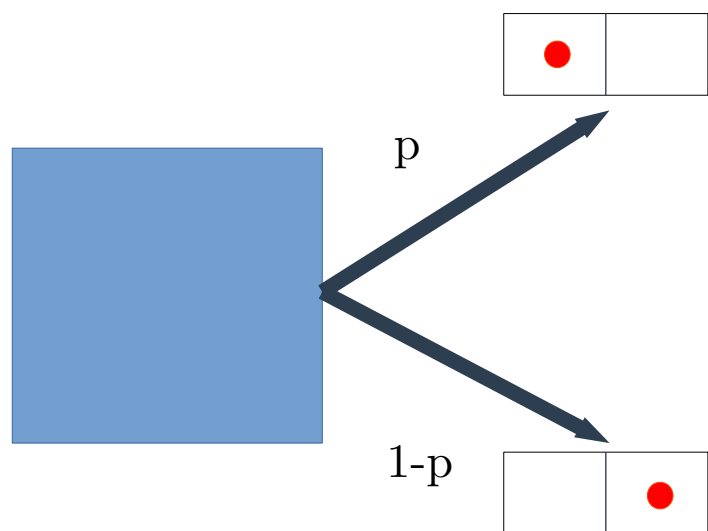
- A preparation consists of putting the ball in one of the boxes and closing them.
- I can choose to put the ball in box 1 with some probability  $p$ , and box 2 with probability  $1-p$



# Preparations

- A preparation consists of putting the ball in one of the boxes and closing them.
- I can choose to put the ball in box 1 with some probability  $p$ , and box 2 with probability  $1-p$
- This is called preparing an ensemble, and is a central assumption of the GPT framework

# Preparing an ensemble

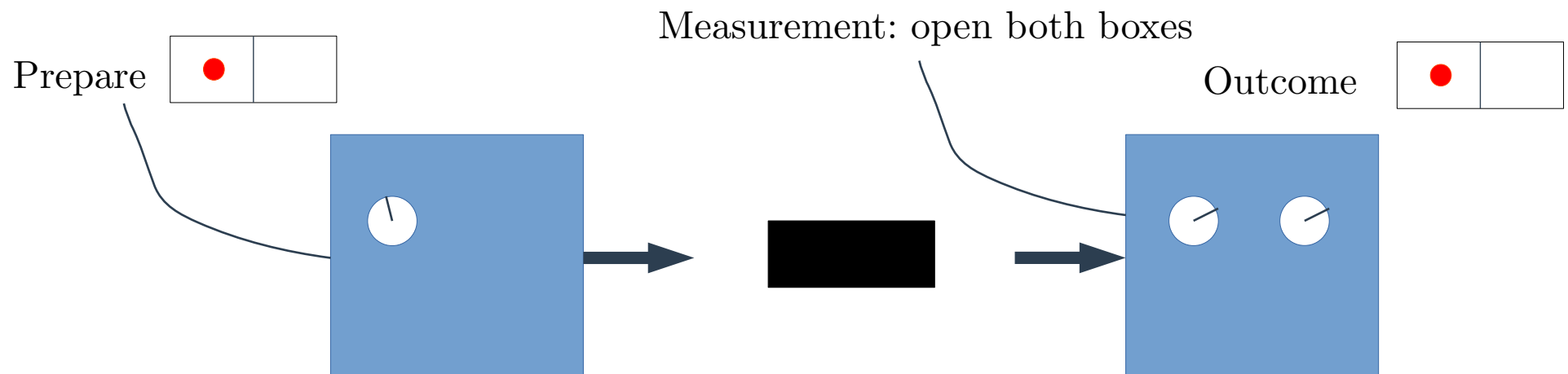


$$\{(p, \boxed{\bullet} \boxed{\phantom{\bullet}}), (1-p, \boxed{\phantom{\bullet}} \boxed{\bullet})\}$$

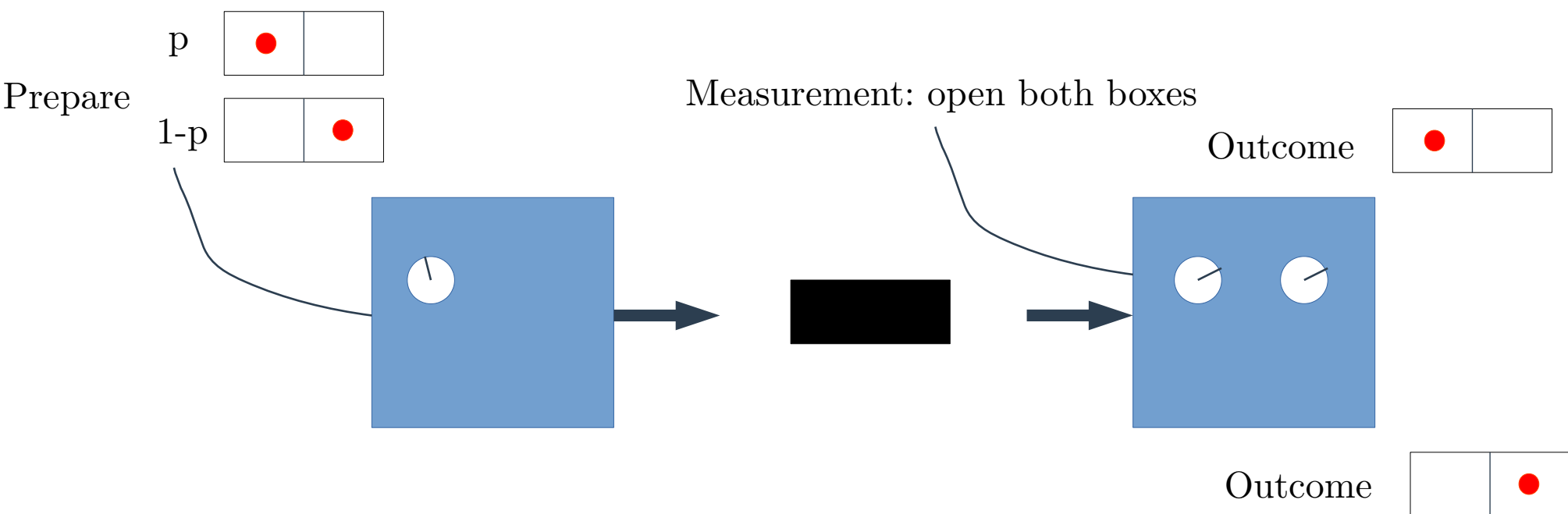
# Measurements

- I give the closed box to someone else
- They can carry out a measurement: open the box to see which partition the ball is in
- For a given preparation we repeat this many times
- The measurement has two outcomes: “The ball is in box 0” and “The ball is in box 1”.

# An example



# An example





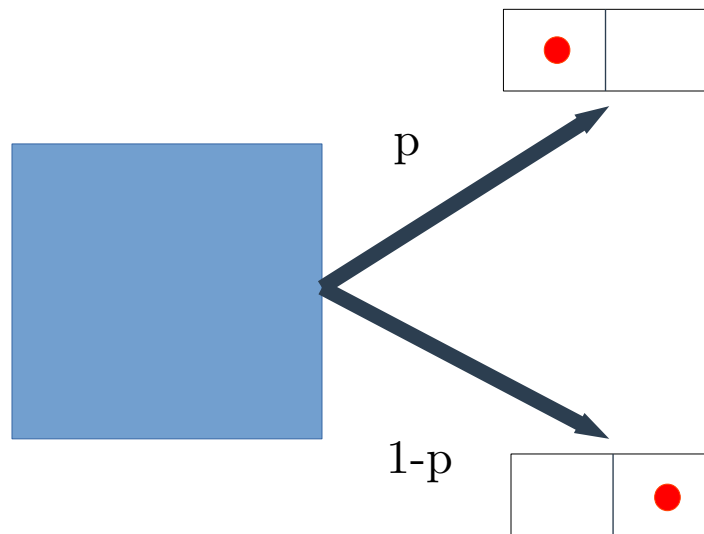
# States

- For a given preparation outcome 0 will occur with probability  $p$ , and outcome 1 with probability  $1-p$

$$\vec{s}_P = \begin{pmatrix} p(0|P) \\ p(1|P) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p \\ 1-p \end{pmatrix}$$

State just allows us to make predictions.

# States

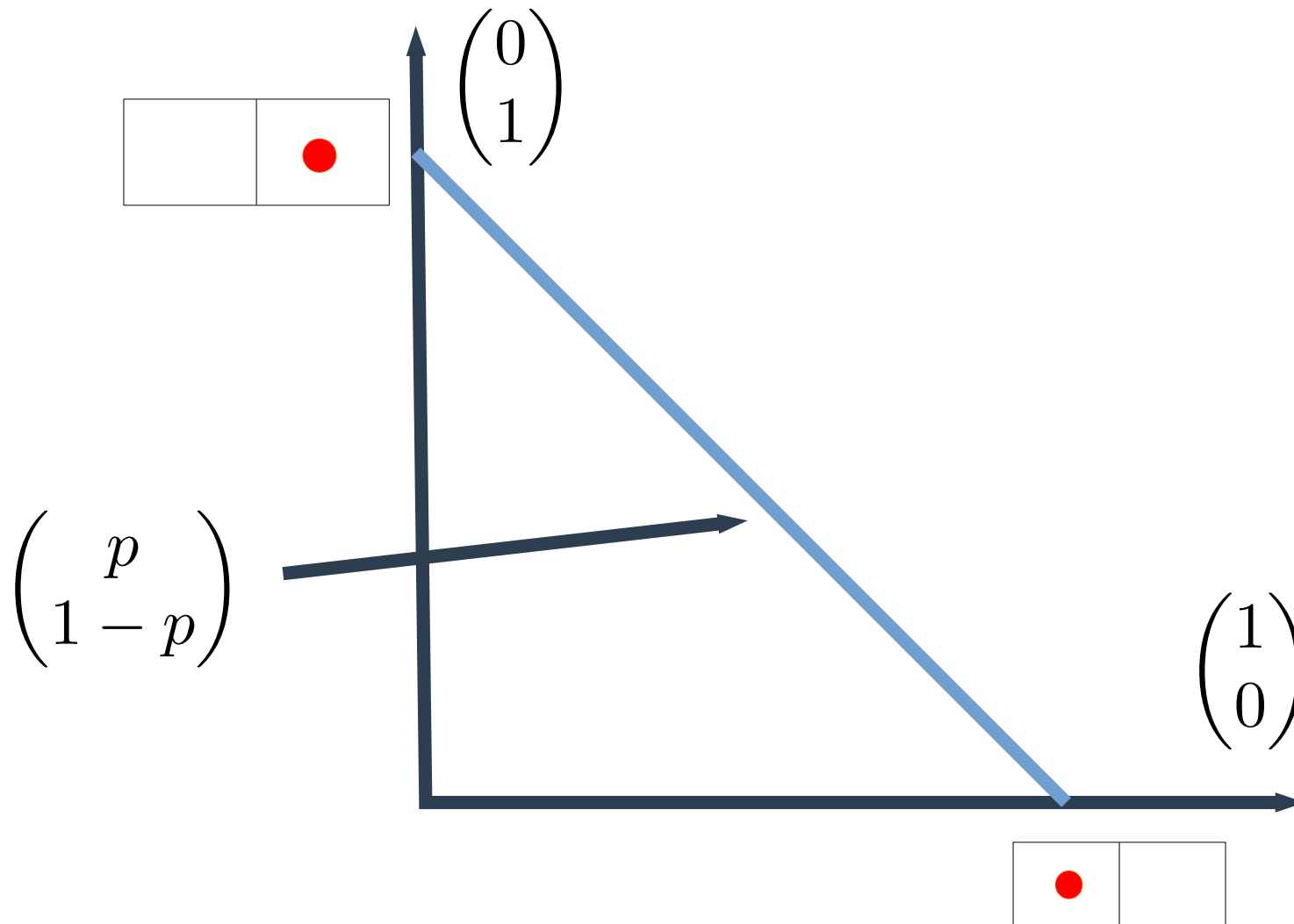


$$\vec{s}_P = \begin{pmatrix} p(0|P) \\ p(1|P) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p \\ 1-p \end{pmatrix}$$

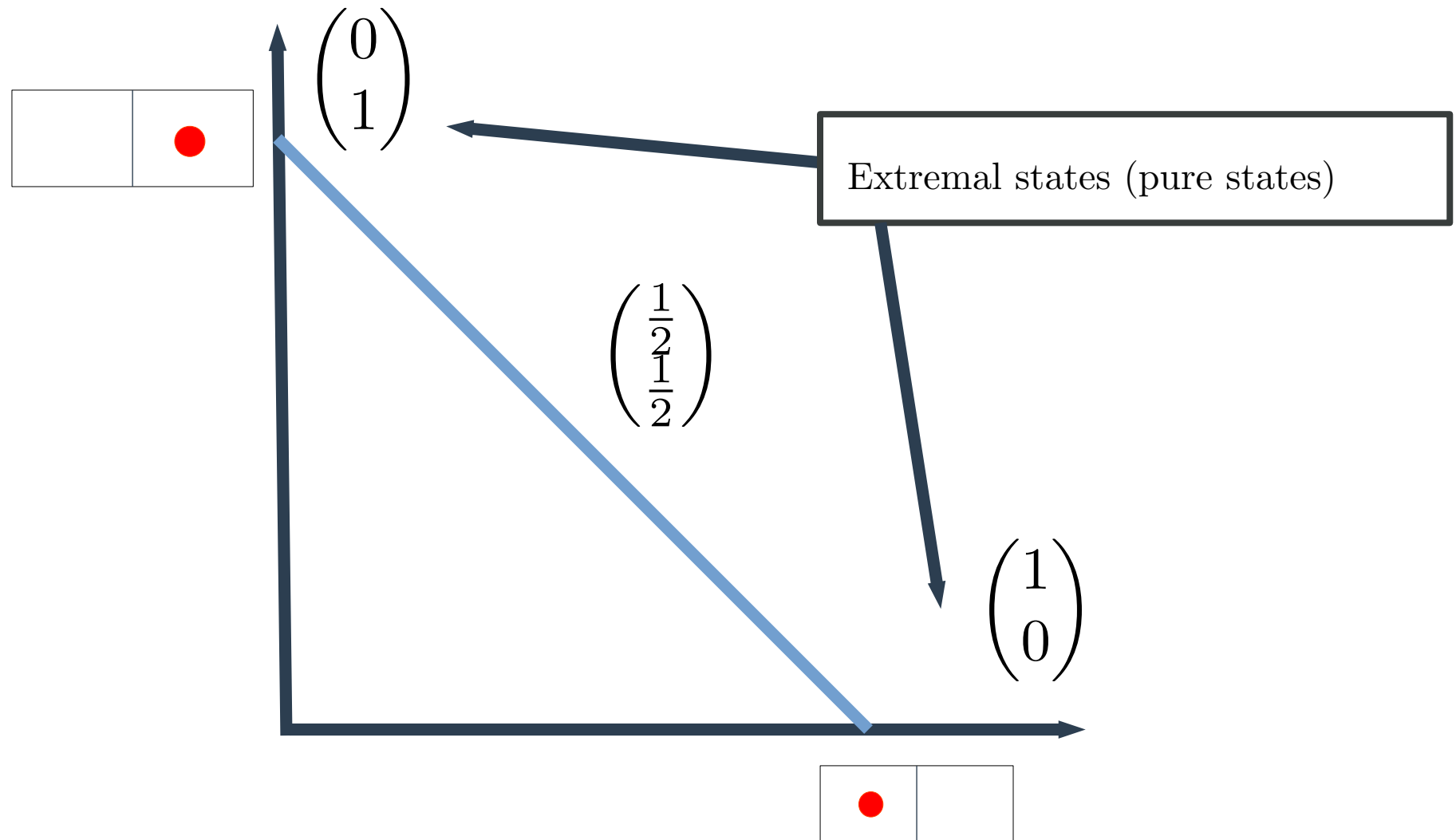
# States

- A state is a probability distribution over outcomes
- Just like in operational quantum logic

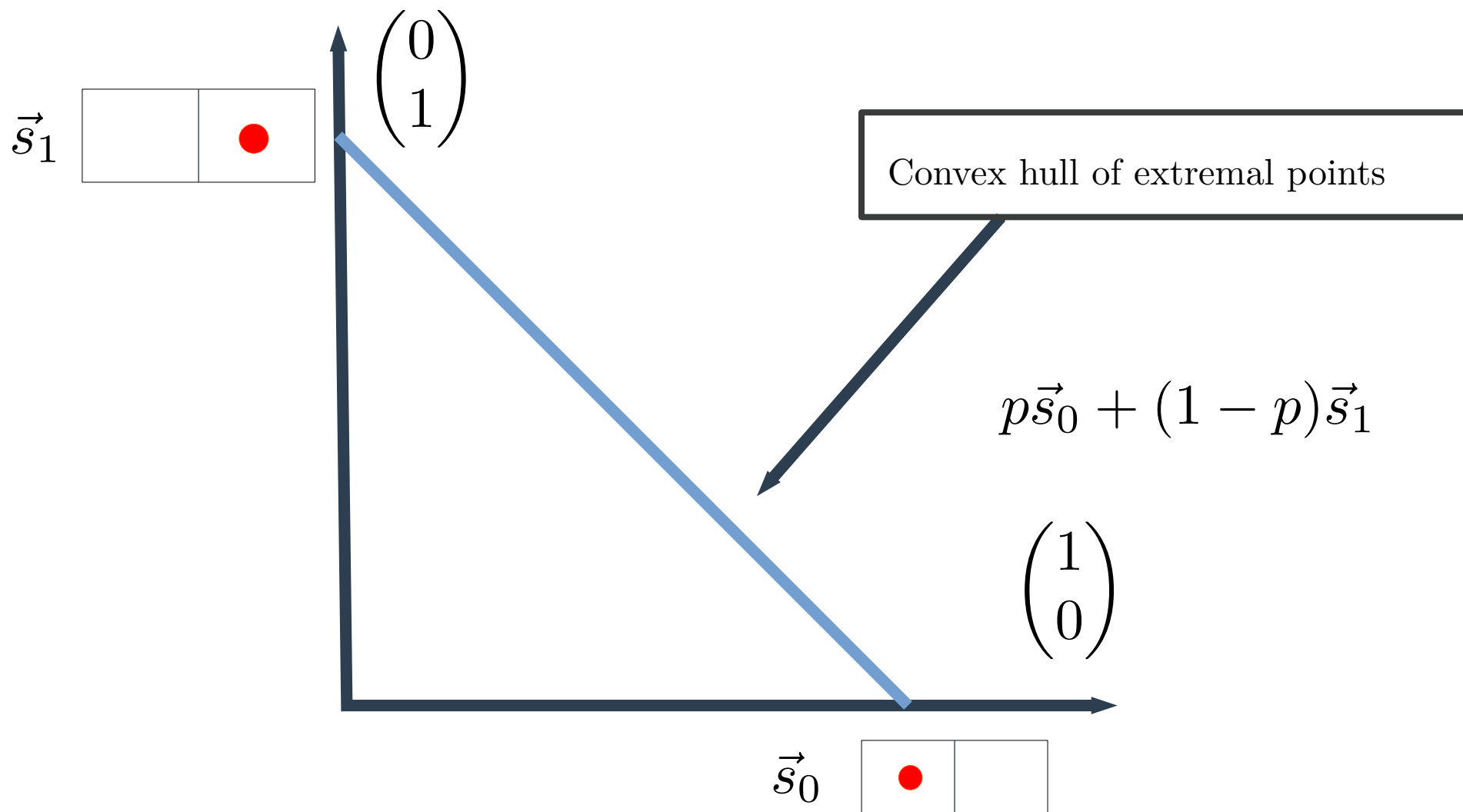
# State space



# State space



# State space



# Convex combination

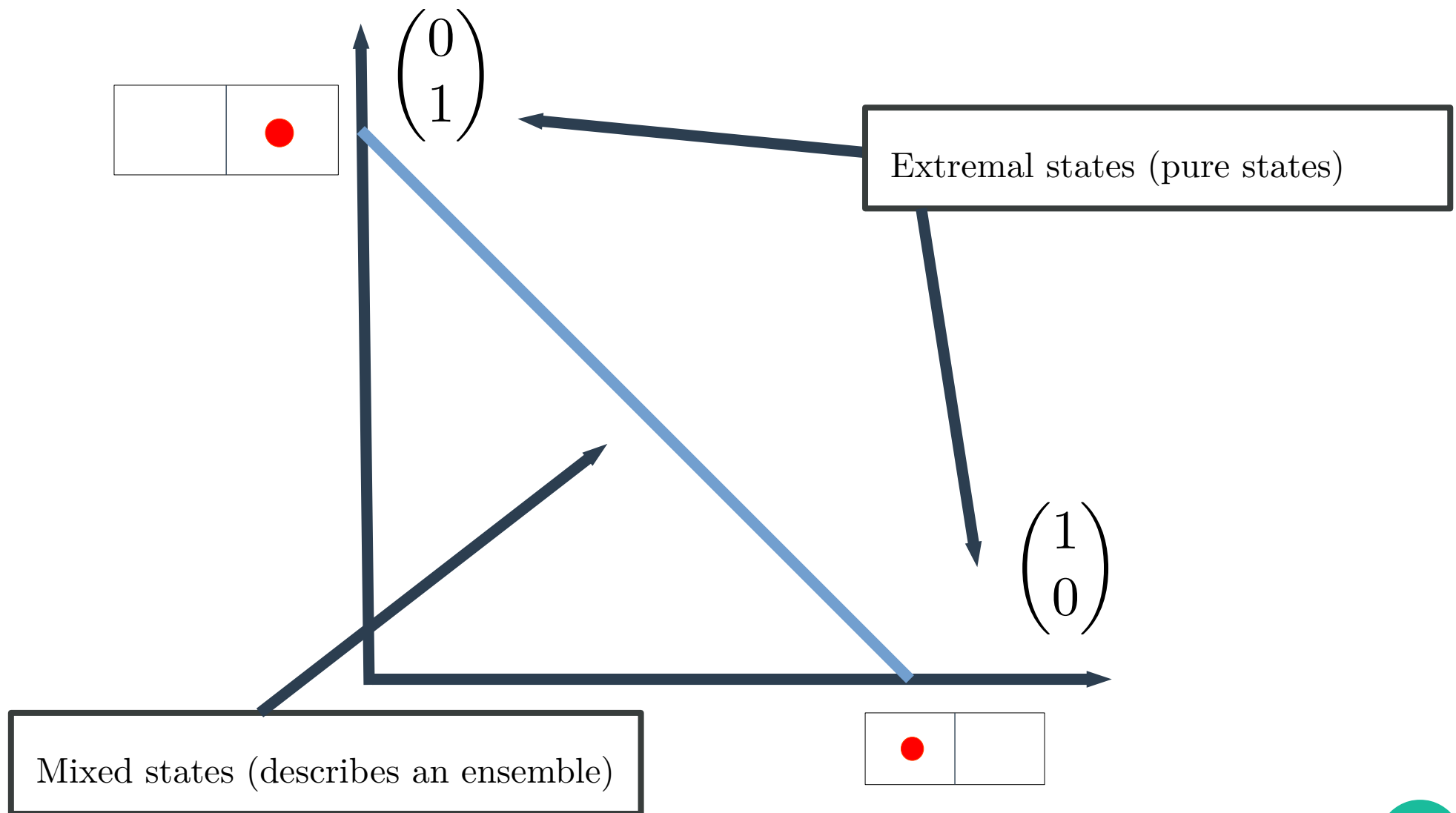
$$p\vec{s}_0 + (1 - p)\vec{s}_1 \qquad \{(p, \boxed{\bullet \mid \phantom{\bullet}}), (1 - p, \boxed{\phantom{\bullet} \mid \bullet})\}$$

$$\sum_i p_i \vec{s}_i$$

$$p_i \geq 0$$

$$\sum_i p_i = 1$$

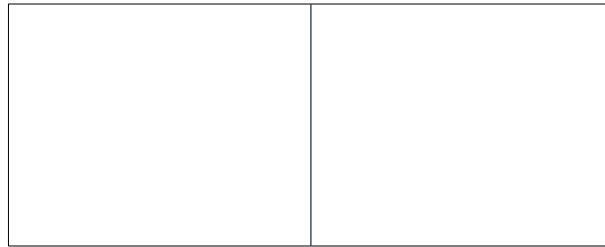
# State space





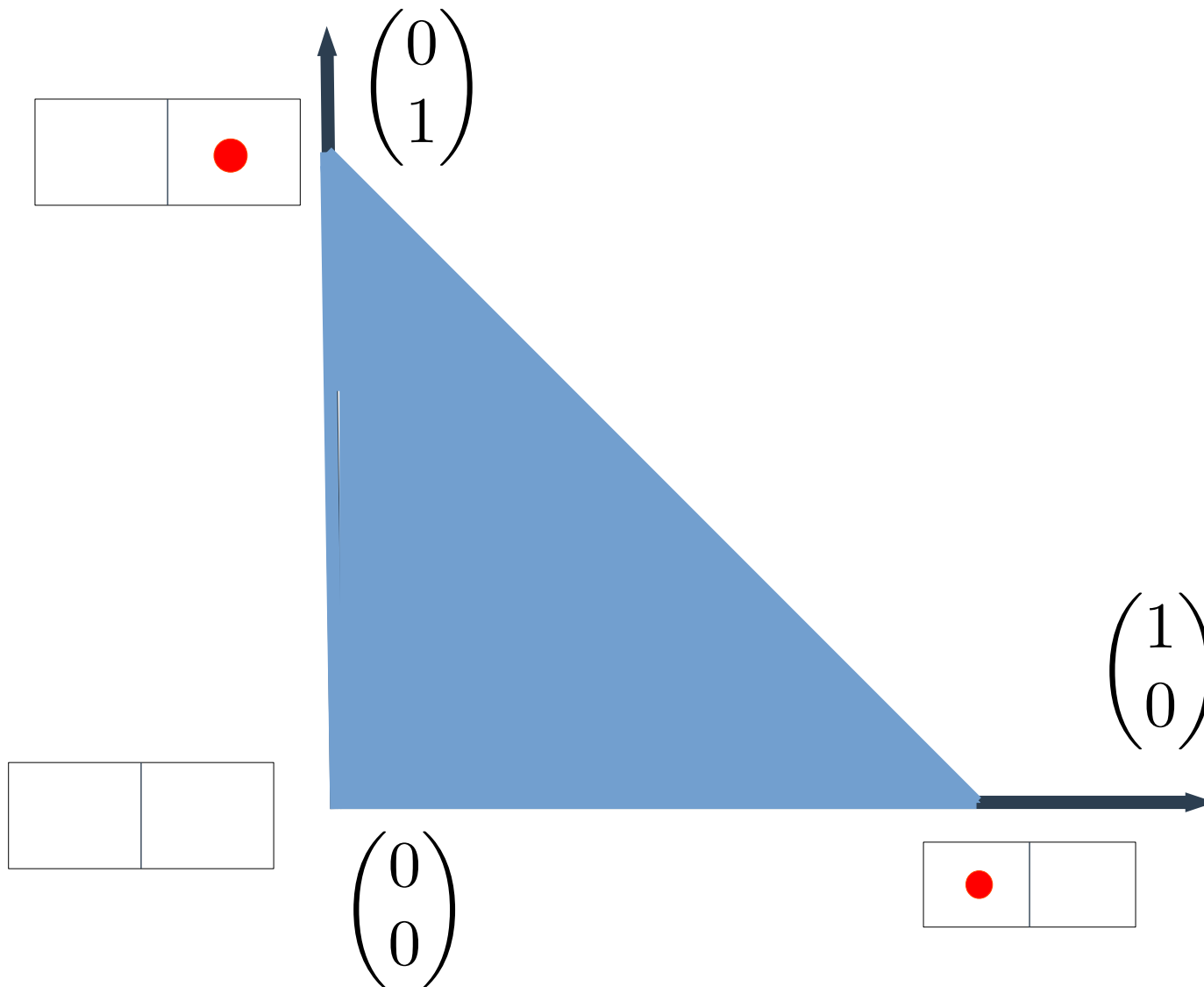
# Subnormalised states

- The experimenter can also choose to just send an empty box

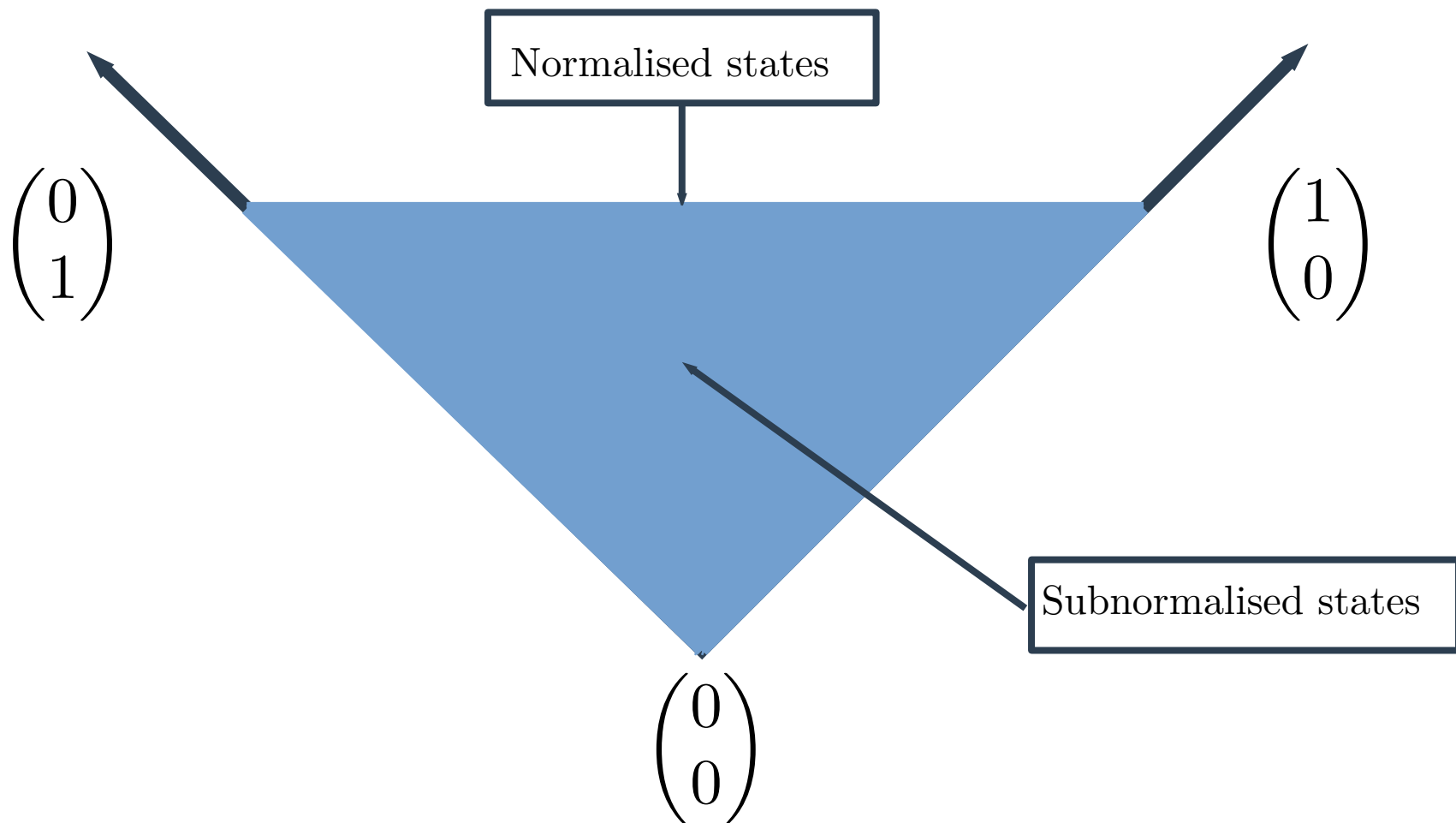


- This will give probability 0 for all measurement outcomes, and hence is represented by

$$\vec{s}_E = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



# Cone of states



# Effects

- How do I obtain the probability  $p(0|P)$  of obtaining outcome 0 from the state  $\vec{s}_P$  ?

$$p(0|P) = \vec{e}_0 \cdot \vec{s}_P = (1, 0) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} p(0|P) \\ p(1|P) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$p(1|P) = \vec{e}_1 \cdot \vec{s}_P = (0, 1) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} p(0|P) \\ p(1|P) \end{pmatrix}$$

# Effects

$$p(0|P) = \vec{e}_0 \cdot \vec{s}_P = (1, 0) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} p(0|P) \\ p(1|P) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$p(1|P) = \vec{e}_1 \cdot \vec{s}_P = (0, 1) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} p(0|P) \\ p(1|P) \end{pmatrix}$$

What is probability of outcome 0 or outcome 1 occurring?

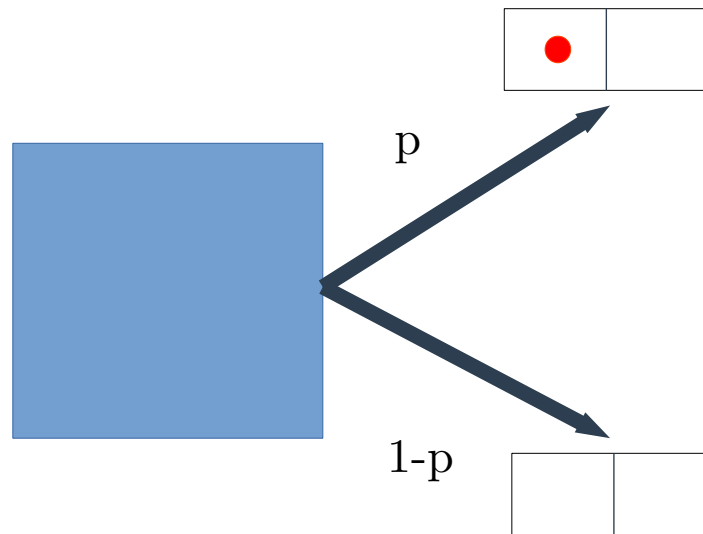
$$p(0 \text{ or } 1) = p(0|P) + p(1|P) = (1, 1) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} p(0|P) \\ p(1|P) \end{pmatrix} = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{s}_P$$

What is probability of neither outcome occurring?

$$\vec{0} \cdot \vec{s}_P = (0, 0) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} p(0|P) \\ p(1|P) \end{pmatrix}$$

# Subnormalised states

- The experimenter can also prepare mixtures of the empty box and preparations with a ball in one of the partition

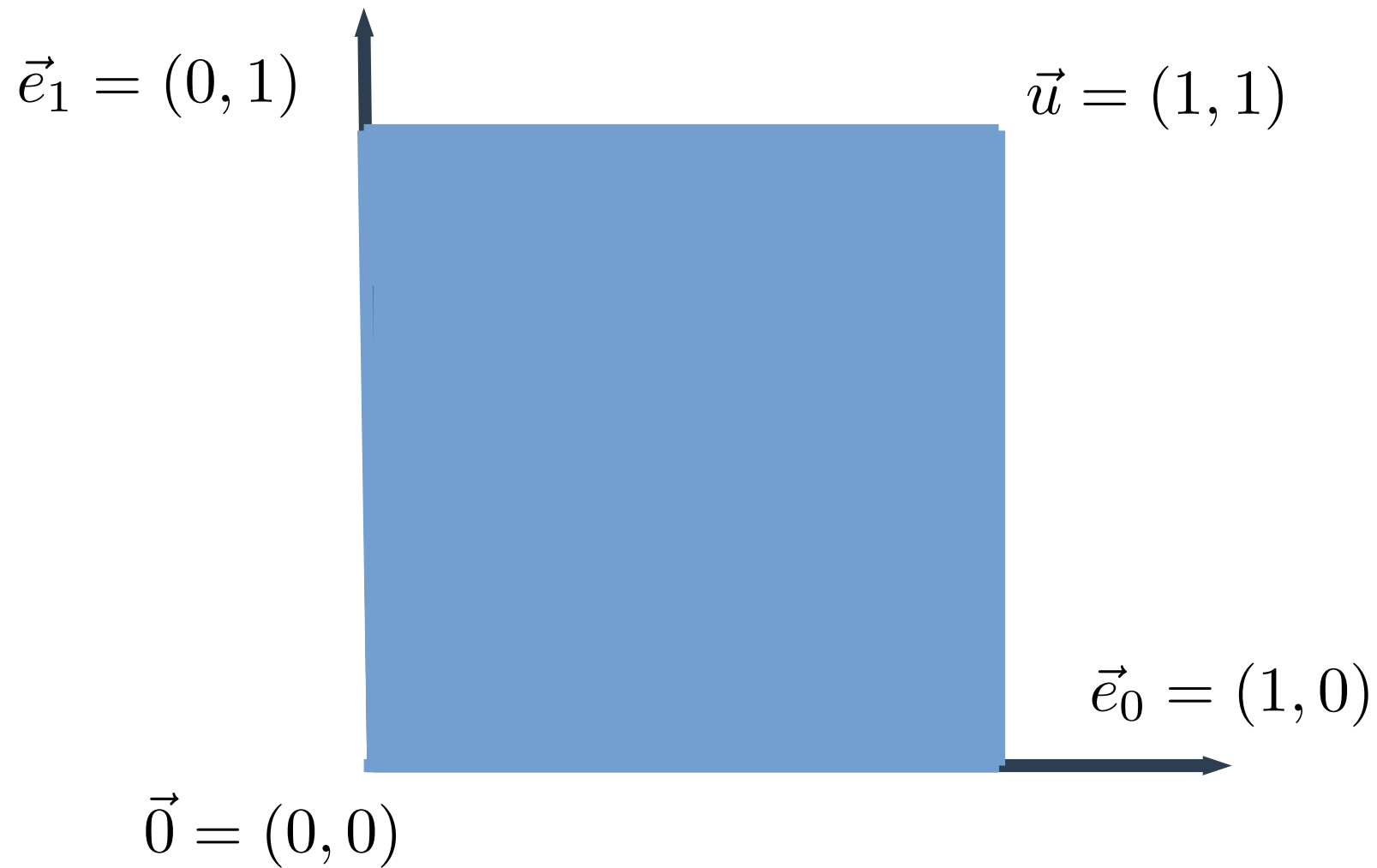


# Effects

$$p(i|P) = \vec{e}_i \cdot \vec{s}_P$$

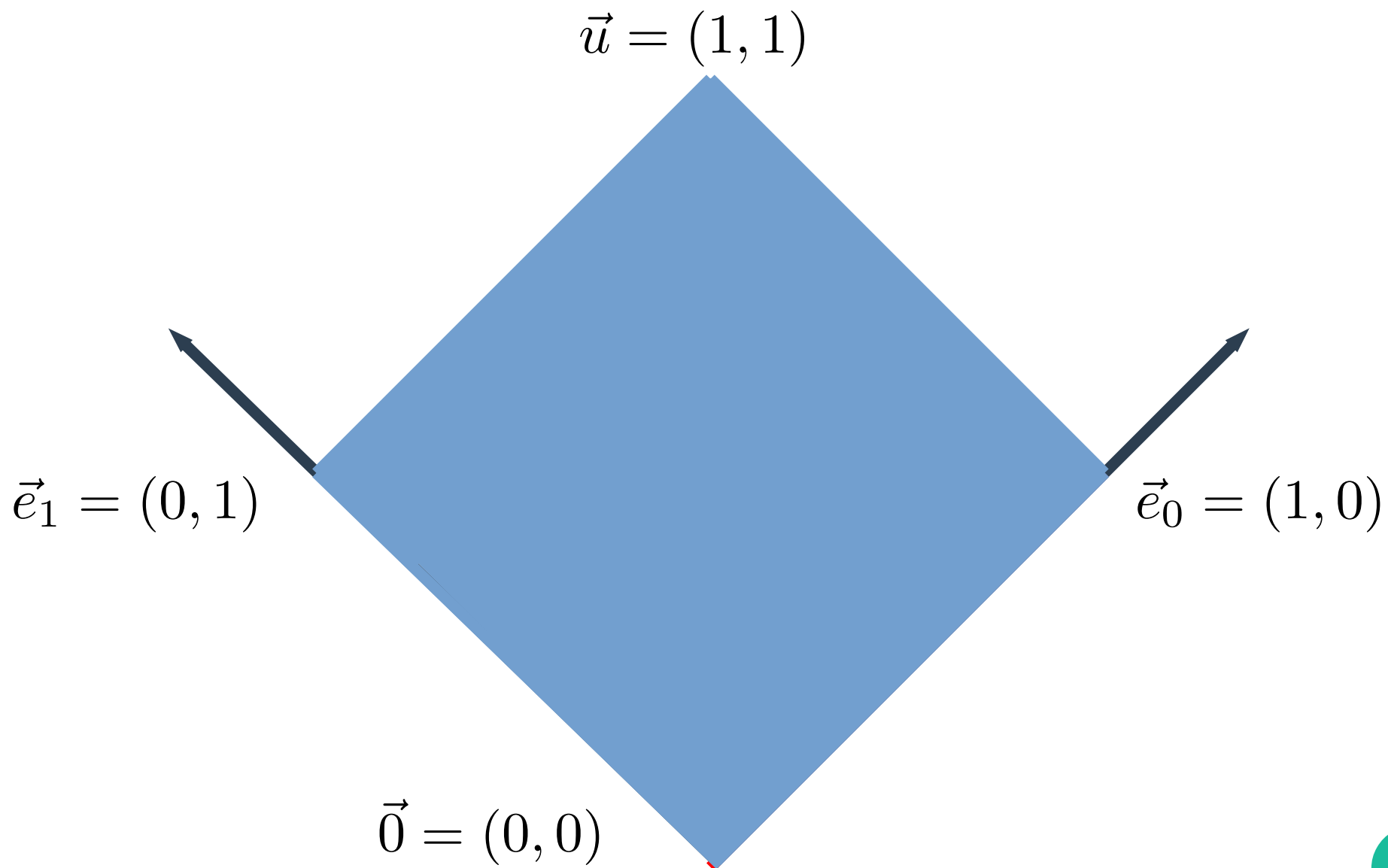
$\vec{e}_i$  is an effect. It is a linear functional of states (dual vector).

$$e : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

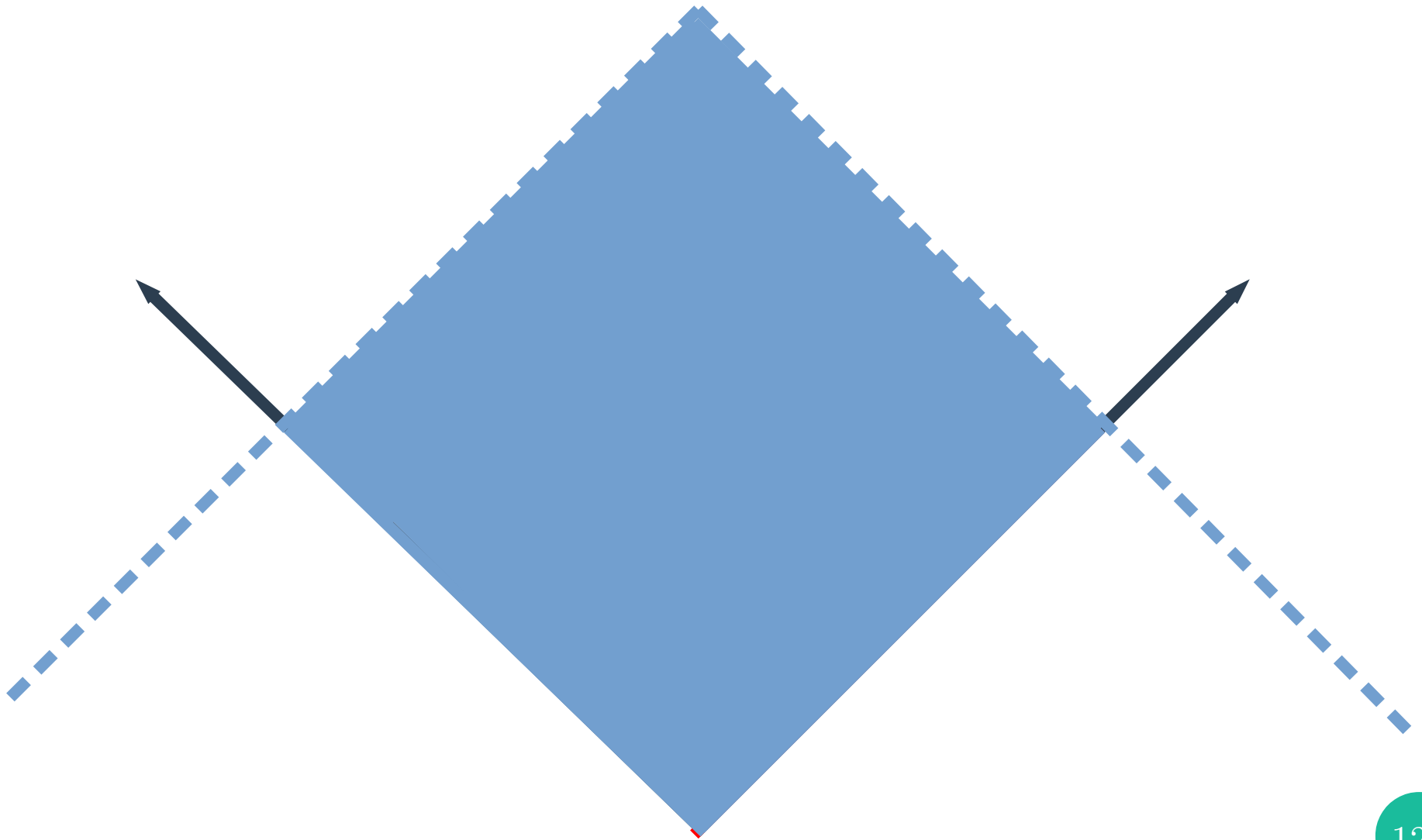




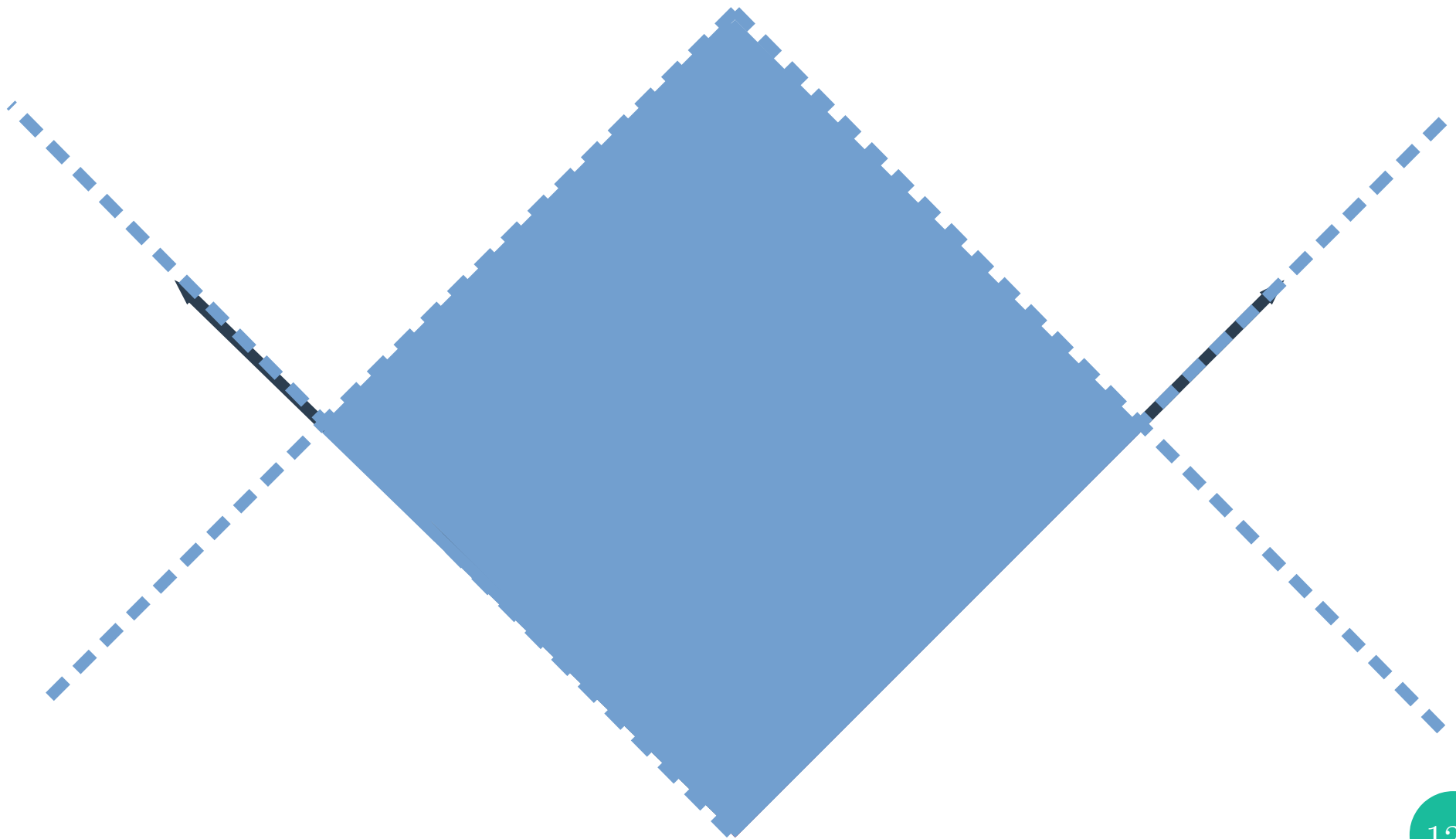
# Effect space



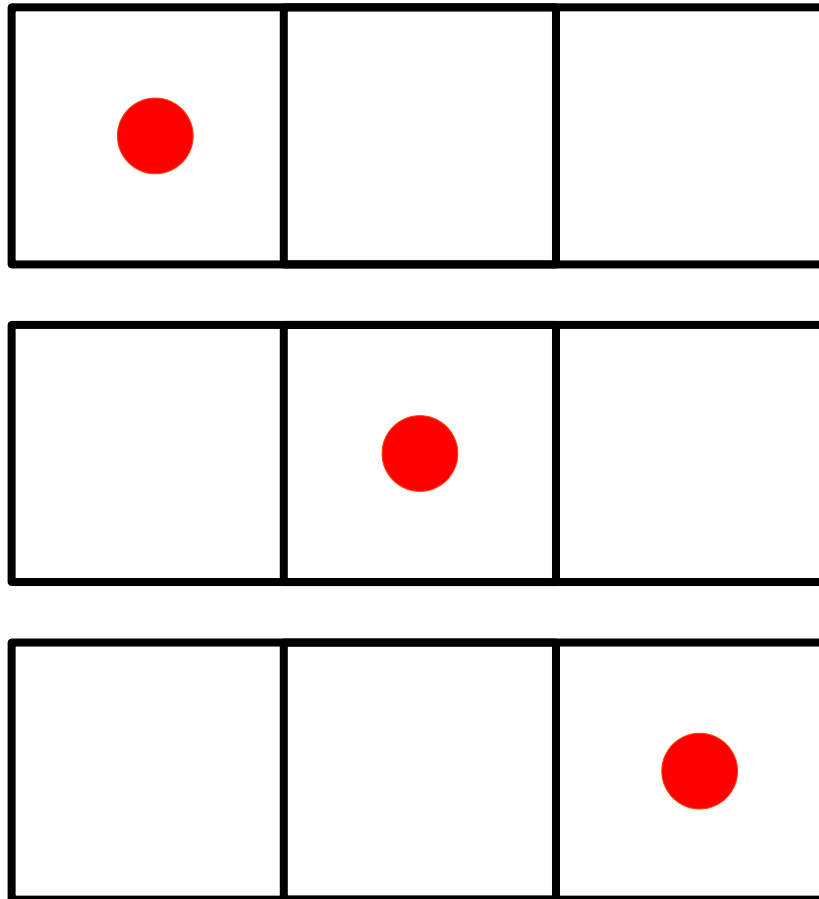
# Effect space



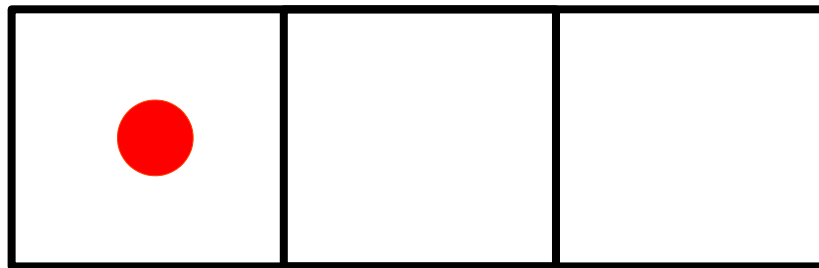
# Effect space



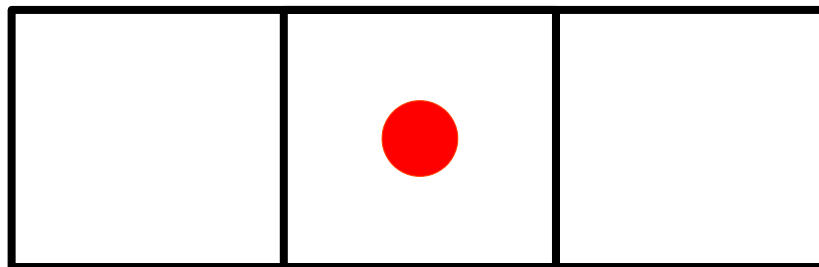
# The trit



# The trit



$(1, 0, 0)$

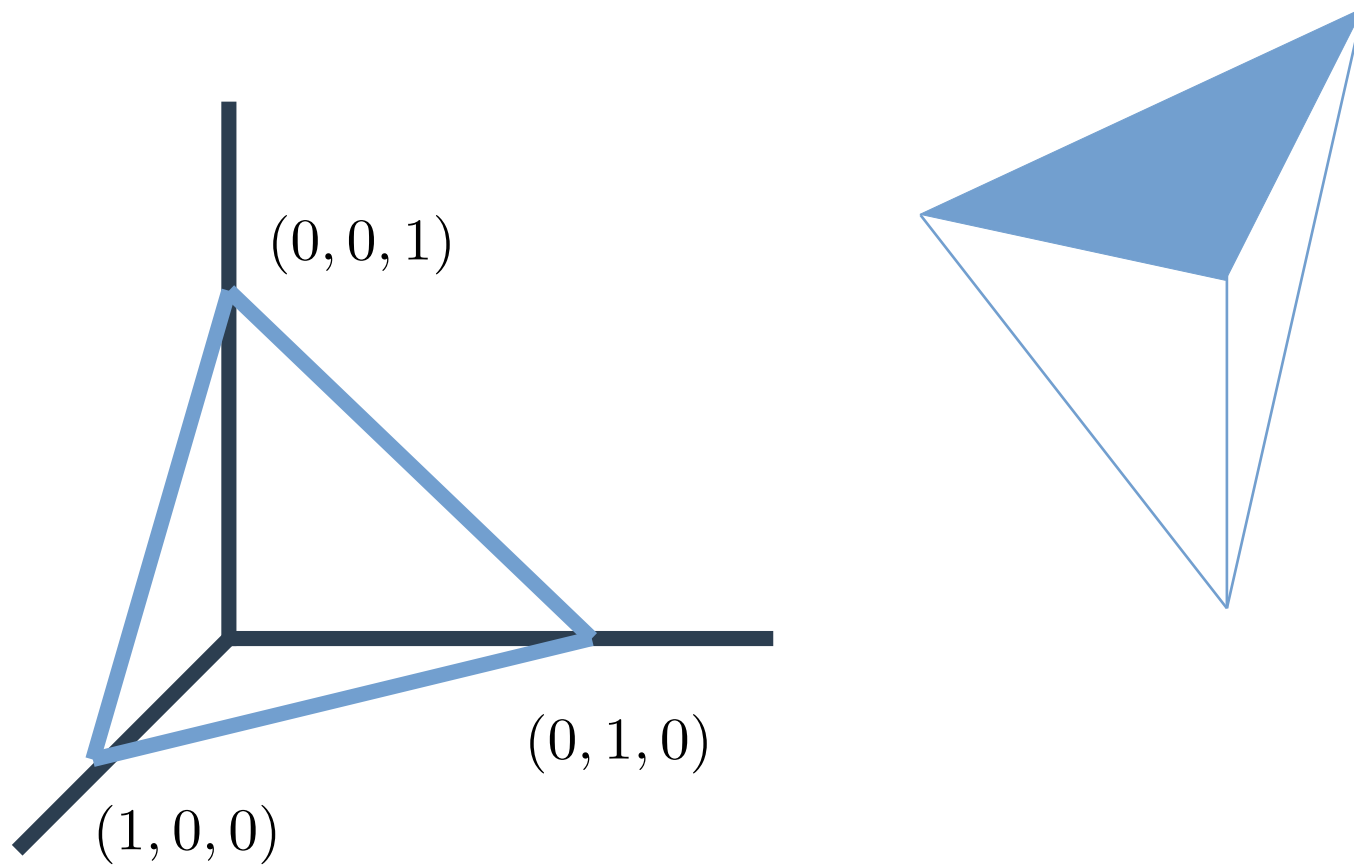


$(0, 1, 0)$



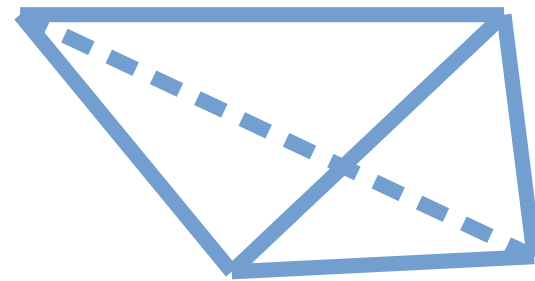
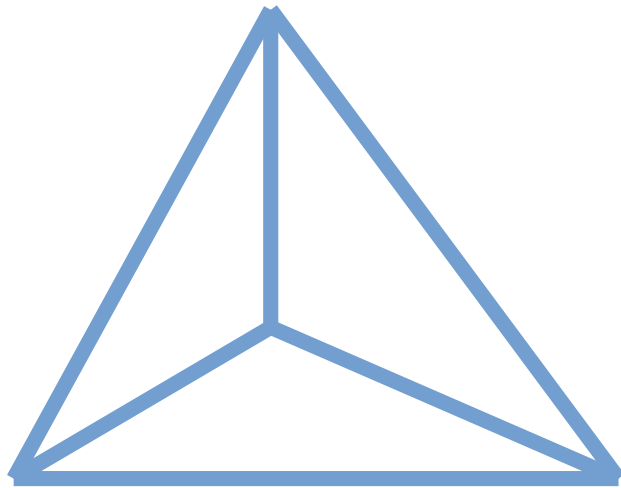
$(0, 0, 1)$

# Trit state space



# Classical four level systems

- Tetrahedron, embedded in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ , just drawing the normalised states



# Classical systems

- A classical system with  $d$  pure states is a simplex with  $d$  extremal points.
- Line segment, triangle, tetrahedron...



# Deriving the quantum state space

# Qubit: deriving the state space

- Pure states  $\psi \in \mathbb{P}\mathbb{C}^2$
- Two outcome measurements

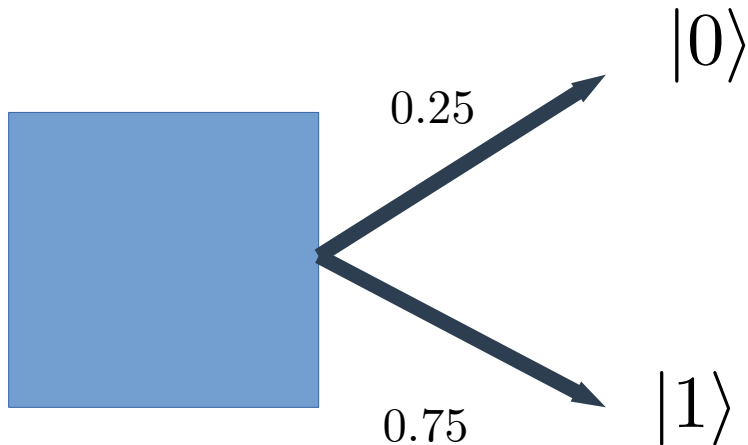
$$p(a|\psi) = |\langle a|\psi\rangle|^2$$

- Can prepare ensembles  $P = \{p_i, \psi_i\}_i$

$$p(a|P) = \sum_i p_i p(a|\psi_i) = \sum_i p_i |\langle a|\psi_i\rangle|^2$$

# Qubit: deriving the state space

$$P = \{(0.25, |0\rangle), (0.75, |1\rangle)\}$$



$$p(0|P) = 0.25 \times |\langle 0|0\rangle|^2 + 0.75 \times |\langle 0|1\rangle|^2 = 0.25$$

# Qubit

Could write a state as a vector of probability distributions over outcomes

$$\vec{s}_\psi = \begin{pmatrix} p(a_1|\psi) \\ p(a_2|\psi) \\ p(a_3|\psi) \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$

# Qubit

- Could write a state as a vector of probability distributions over outcomes.
- But would be infinitely long.
- And contains redundancies.

# Qubit

- Any  $p(a|\psi) = |\langle a|\psi\rangle|^2$  can be written as a linear combination of 4 functions of the form  $|\langle a_i|\psi\rangle|^2$

$$p(a|\psi) = \sum_{i=1}^4 c_i p(a_i|\psi)$$

- For instance we can have the  $+X, +Y, +Z$  and  $-Z$  outcome probabilities as the basis functions.
- Could be a SIC-POVM

# The probabilistic representation

$$p(a|\psi) = \sum_{i=1}^4 c_i p(a_i|\psi) = \vec{e}_a \cdot \vec{s}_\psi$$

$$\vec{e}_a = (c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4)$$

$$\vec{s}_\psi = \begin{pmatrix} p(a_1|\psi) \\ p(a_2|\psi) \\ p(a_3|\psi) \\ p(a_4|\psi) \end{pmatrix}$$

# The probabilistic representation

$$\vec{s}_\psi = \begin{pmatrix} p(+X|\psi) \\ p(+Y|\psi) \\ p(+Z|\psi) \\ p(-Z|\psi) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$p(a|\psi) = \vec{e}_a \cdot \vec{s}_\psi$$

Any outcome probability can be computed as a linear function of the 4 fiducial probabilities.



# Representing ensembles

$$P = \{p_i, \psi_i\}_i$$

$$p(a|P) = \sum_i p_i p(a|\psi_i) = \sum_i p_i \sum_j c_j p(a_j|\psi_i)$$

$$\sum_i p_i \vec{e}_a \cdot \vec{s}_{\psi_i} = \vec{e}_a \cdot \vec{s}_P$$

$$\vec{s}_P = \sum_i p_i \vec{s}_{\psi_i}$$

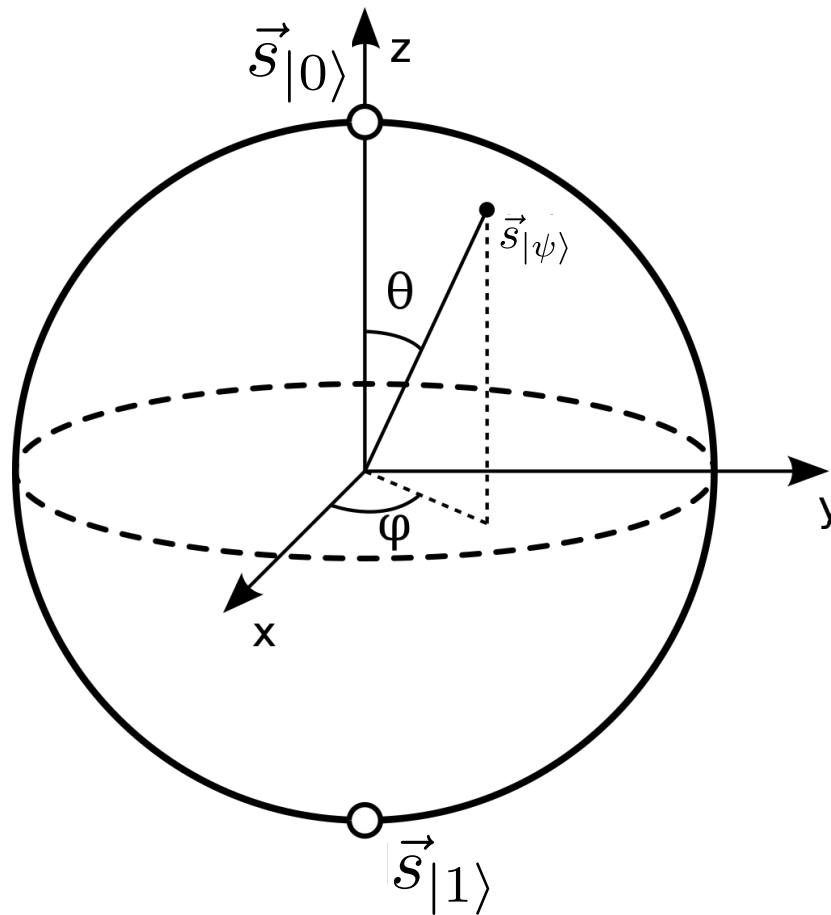
$\vec{s}_P$  is the mixed state representing the ensemble P

# Representing ensembles

- Mixed state representing ensemble  $P = \{p_i, \psi_i\}_i$  is obtained by taking convex combination of vectors  $\vec{s}_{\psi_i}$

$$\vec{s}_P = \sum_i p_i \vec{s}_{\psi_i}$$

# Qubit state space



<https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=5829358>

# Probabilistic representation

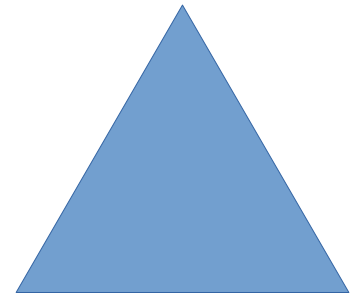
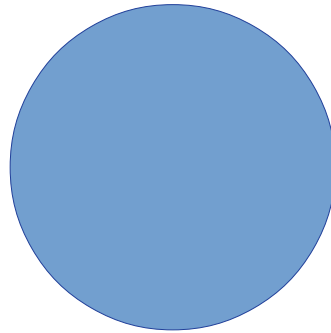
- This is the representation of states in which ensembles are represented by convex combinations of state vectors.
- For example the Bloch vector representation/density matrix representation.
- This is the representation we use in GPTs.

# Key facts about the probabilistic representation

- Outcome probabilities are linear functions of the states.
- We went from  $p(a|\psi) = |\langle a|\psi\rangle|^2$  to  $p(a|\psi) = \vec{e}_a \cdot \vec{s}_\psi$
- We can take mixtures of states by taking convex combinations of state vectors.
- Since for any pair of states we can take a mixture the state space is convex.

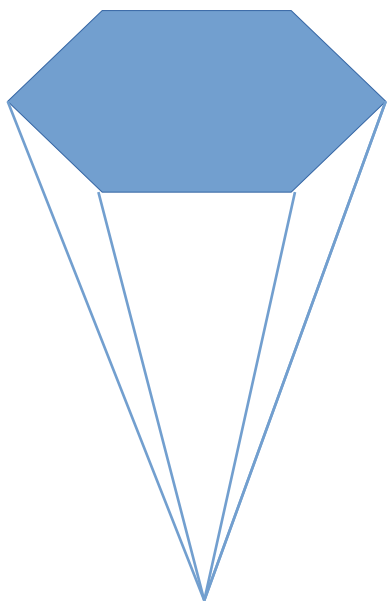
# Convex sets

- For every pair of points in the set the line segment joining them is part of the set.

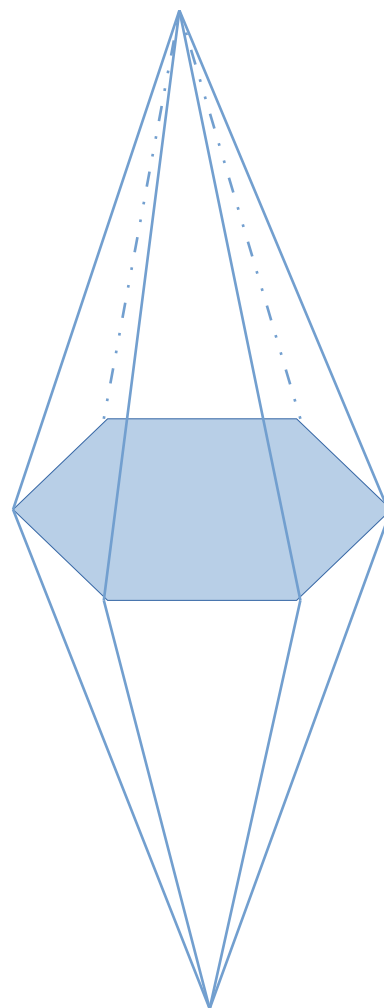


- Classical and quantum state spaces correspond to convex sets.
- Other convex sets correspond to other non-classical systems.
- Like the general lattice structure and non-classical logics.

# General GPT: single system



State space  $S \subset V_A$



Effect space

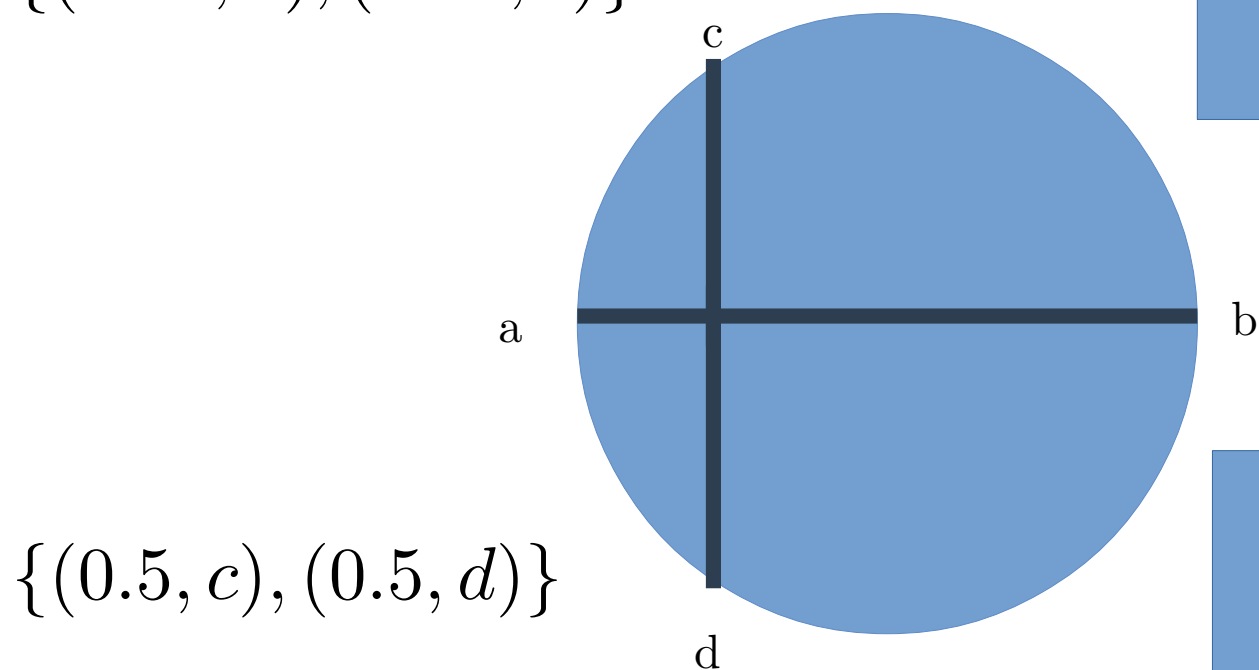
$$E \subset V_A^*$$



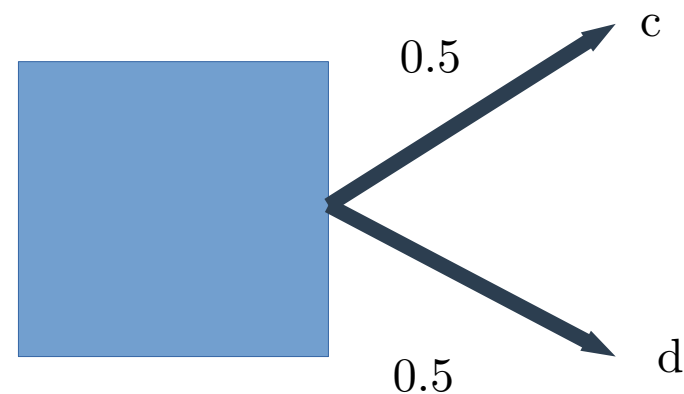
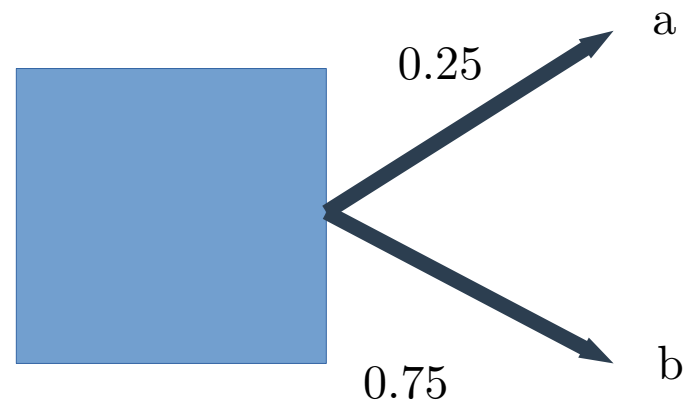
# How to “read” a convex state space

Mixtures of states:

$$\{(0.25, a), (0.75, b)\}$$



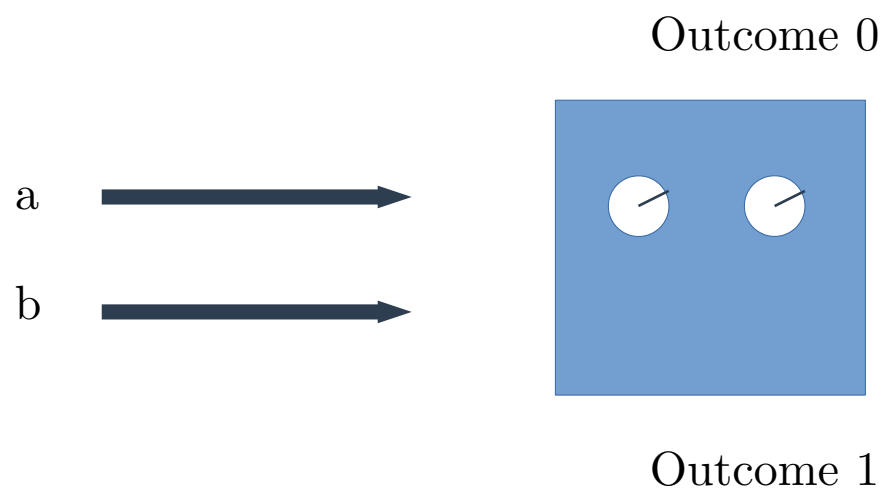
$$\{(0.5, c), (0.5, d)\}$$



# “True” definition of mixed states

- Multiple ensembles are assigned the same mixed state.
- A mixed state is an equivalence class of ensembles.
- See Holevo: “Probabilistic and Statistical Aspects of Quantum Theory”

# Perfectly distinguishable states



$$p(0|a) = 1$$

$$p(0|b) = 0$$

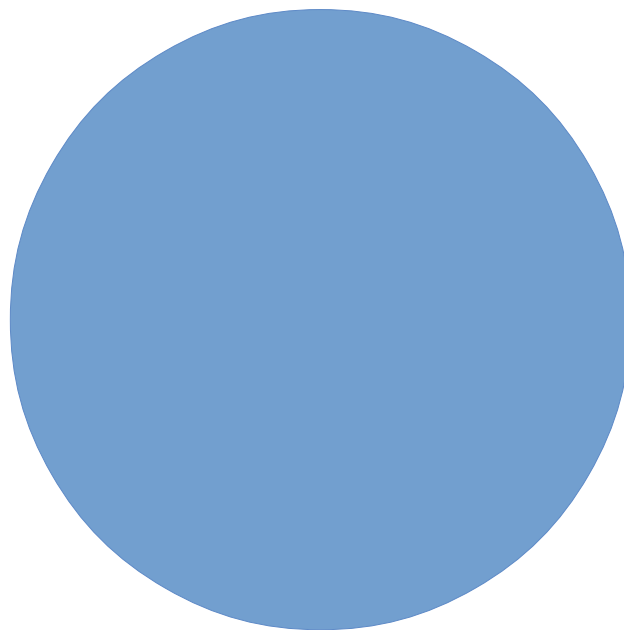
$$p(1|b) = 1$$

$$p(1|a) = 0$$

# How to “read” a convex state space

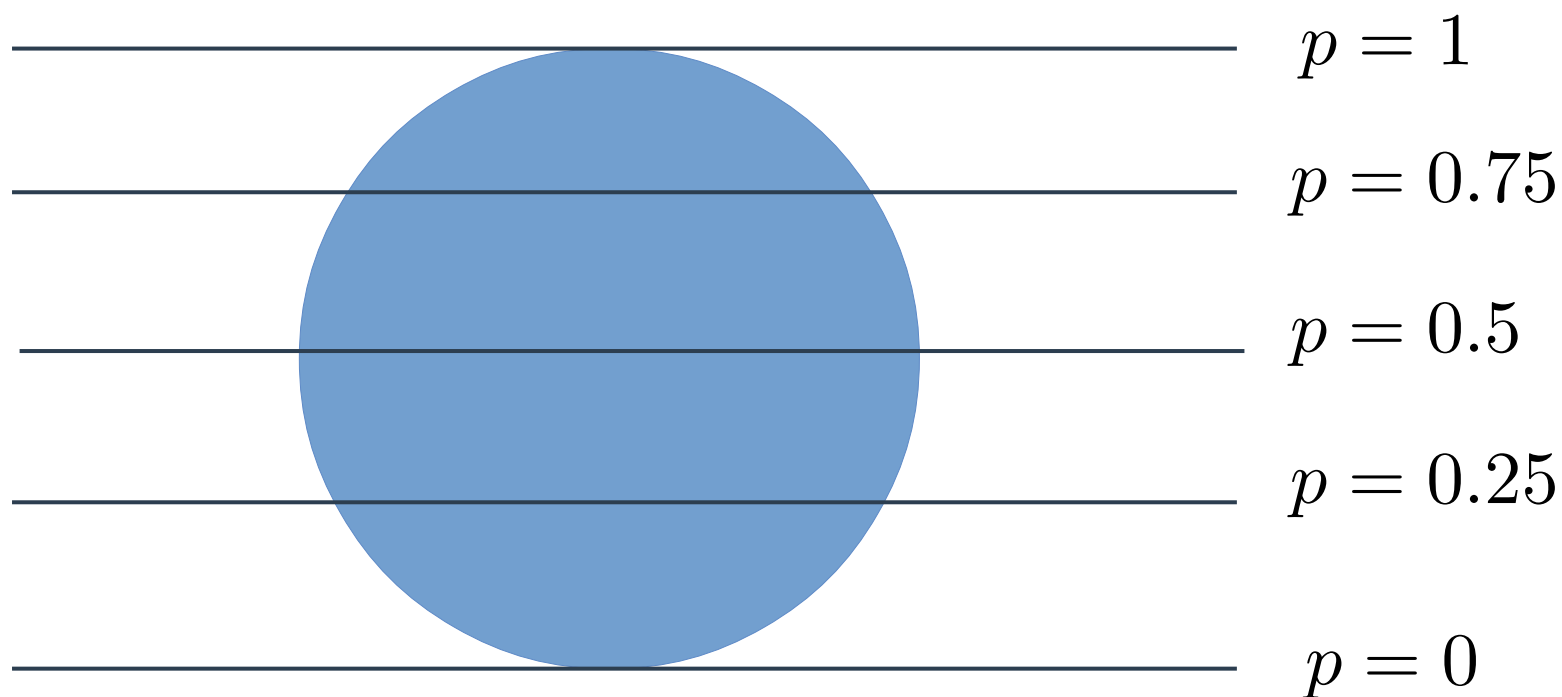
- Effects are linear functionals.

$$p(a|\psi) = \vec{e}_a \cdot \vec{s}_\psi$$



# How to “read” a convex state space

- Effects are linear functionals.



# Perfectly distinguishable states

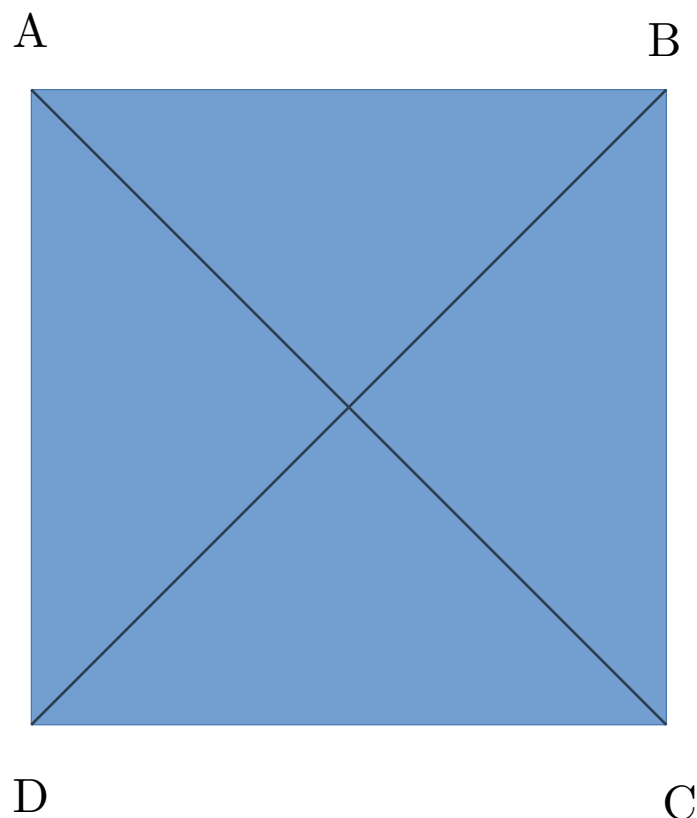
- So antipodal states are perfectly distinguishable.
- There is a single measurement where one of the outcomes occurs with certainty on one of the states, and with probability 0 for the other

# The gbit (one half of a PR box)

- Let us consider a system which can be prepared in 4 pure states, and mixtures of these 4 pure states.
- Its state space is the square.
- Like all non-classical state spaces, there are certain ensembles which are indistinguishable.

# Indistinguishable ensembles

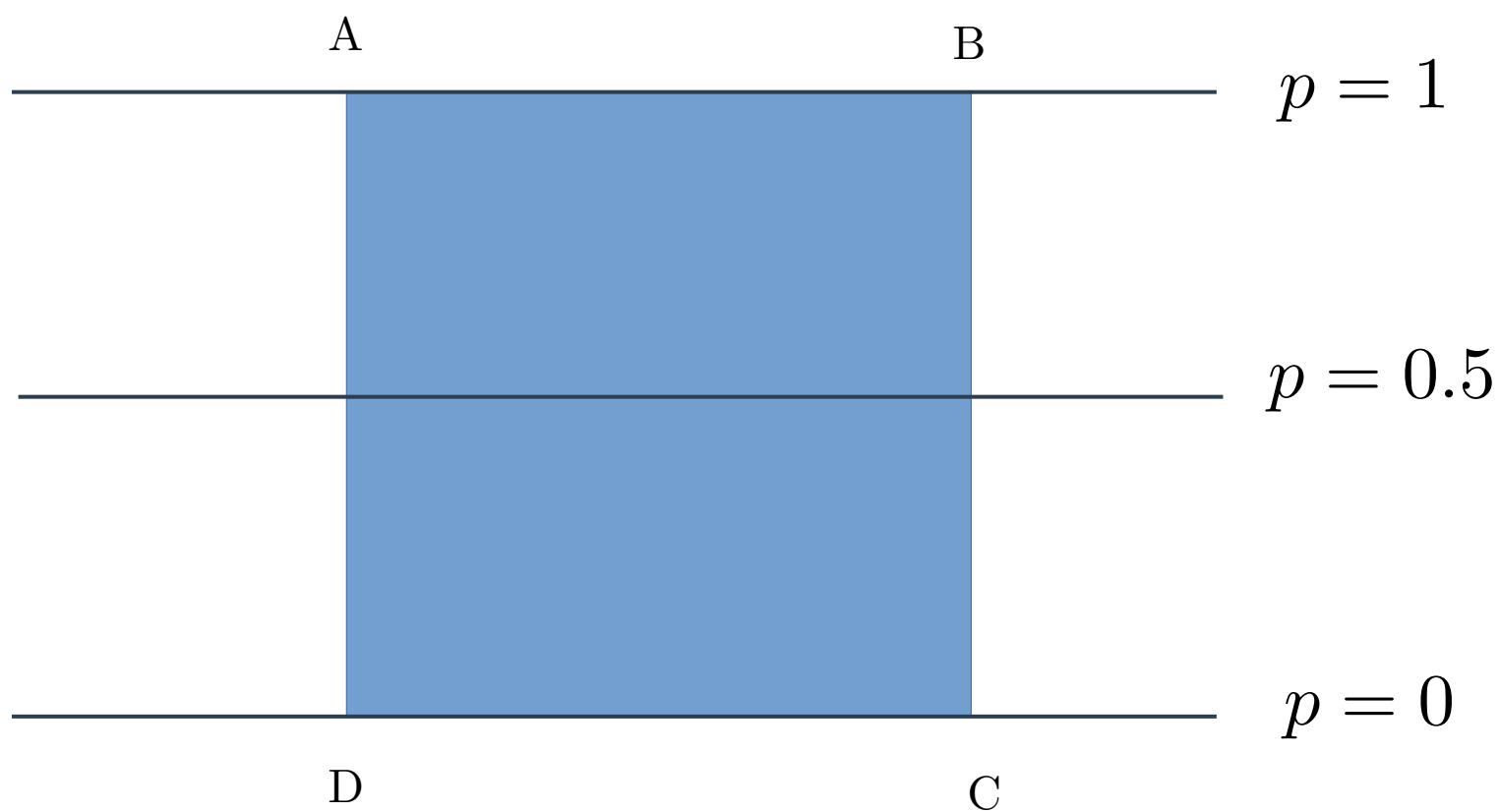
$$\{(\frac{1}{2}, B), (\frac{1}{2}, D)\}$$



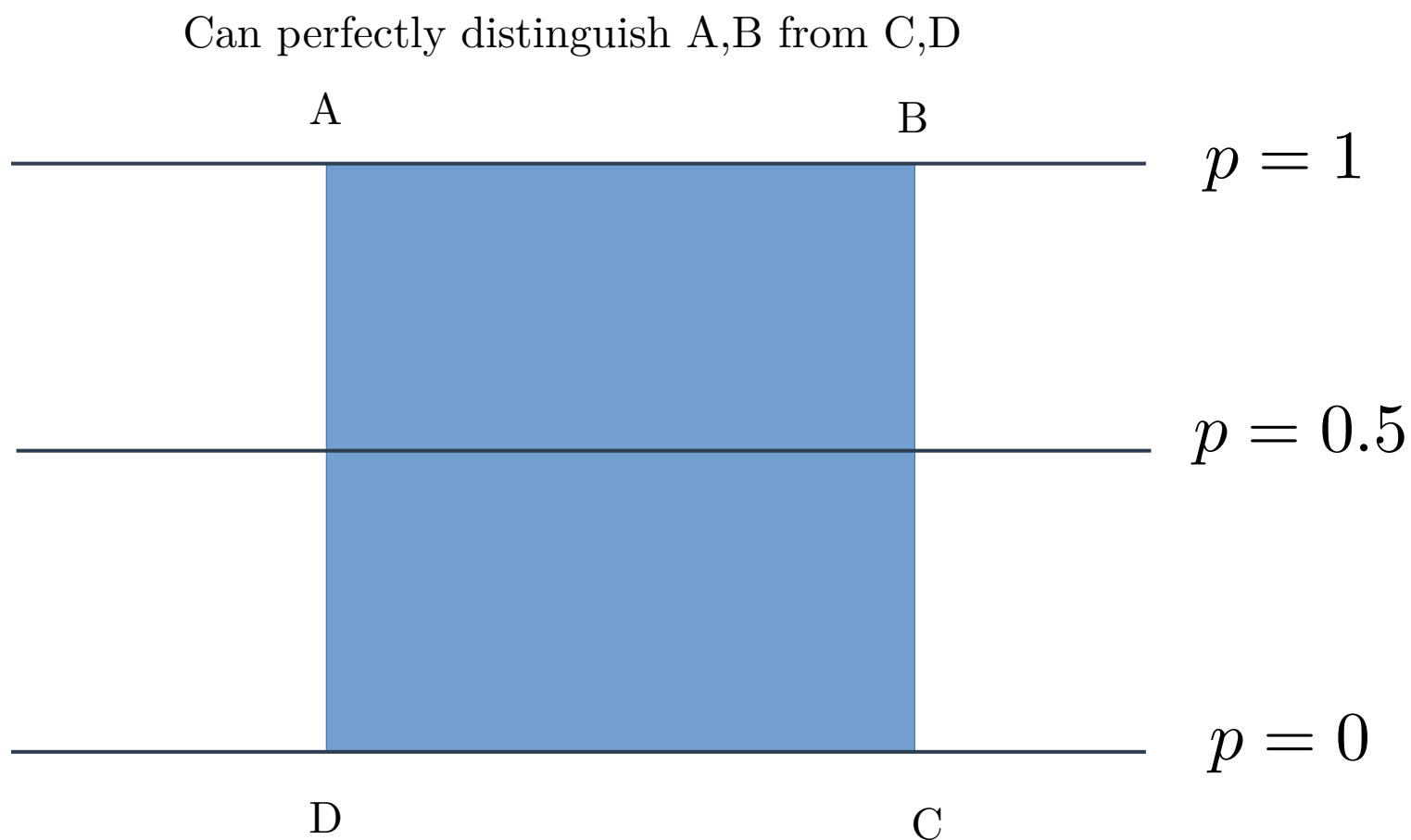
$$\{(\frac{1}{2}, A), (\frac{1}{2}, C)\}$$



# How to “read” a convex state space

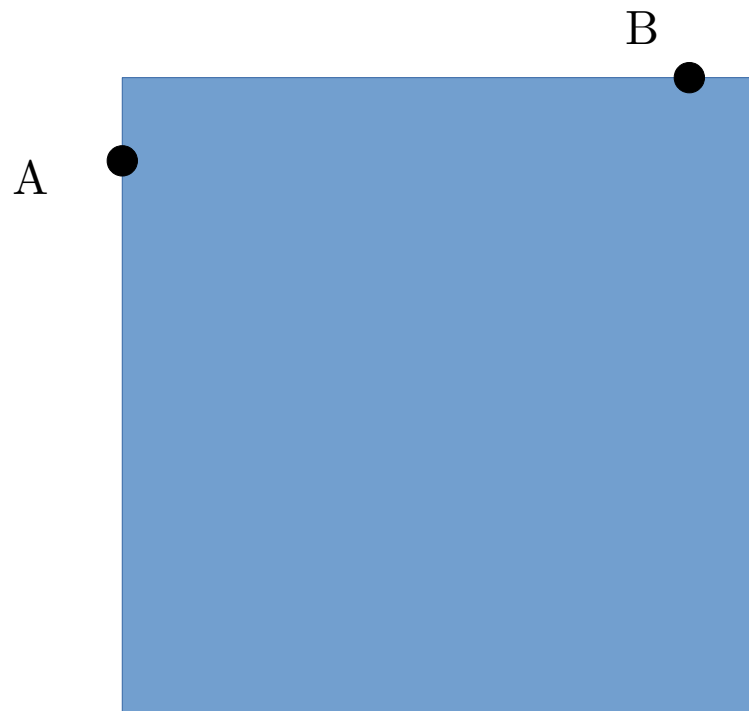


# How to “read” a convex state space

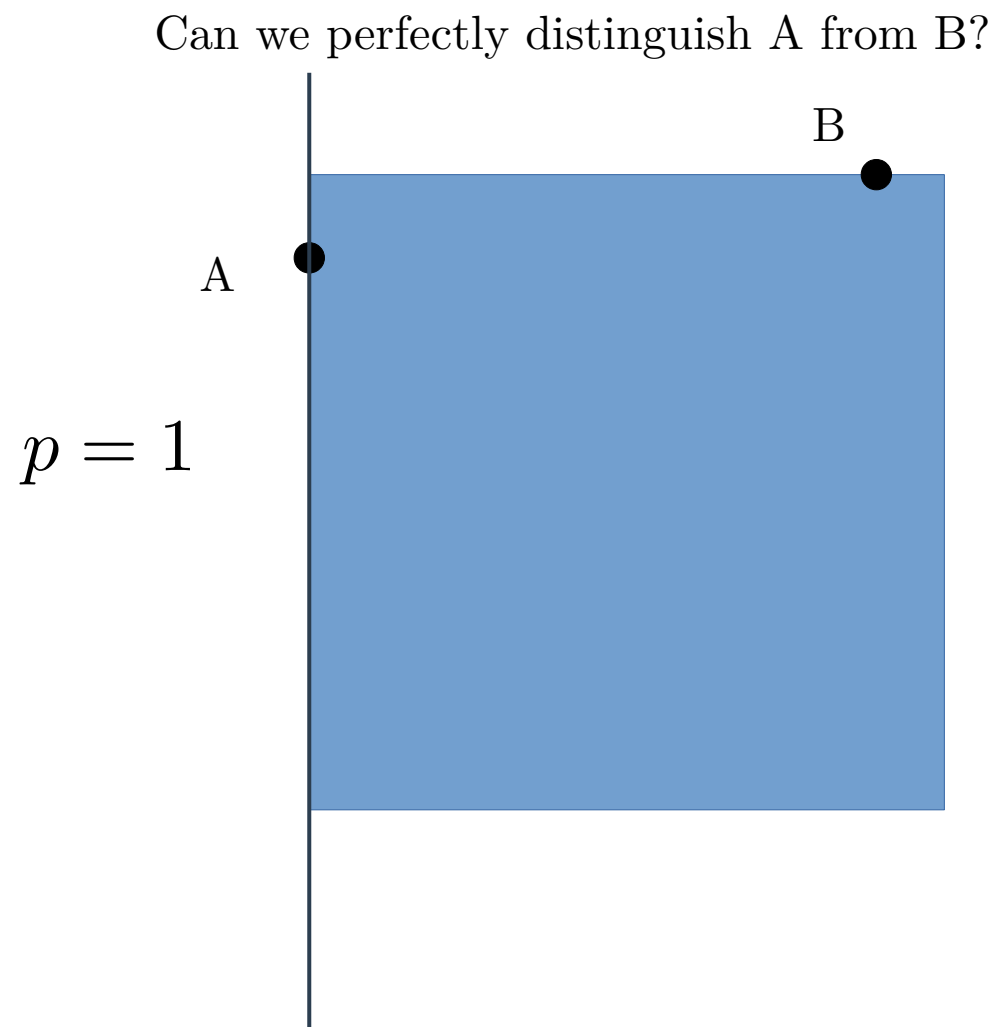


# How to “read” a convex state space

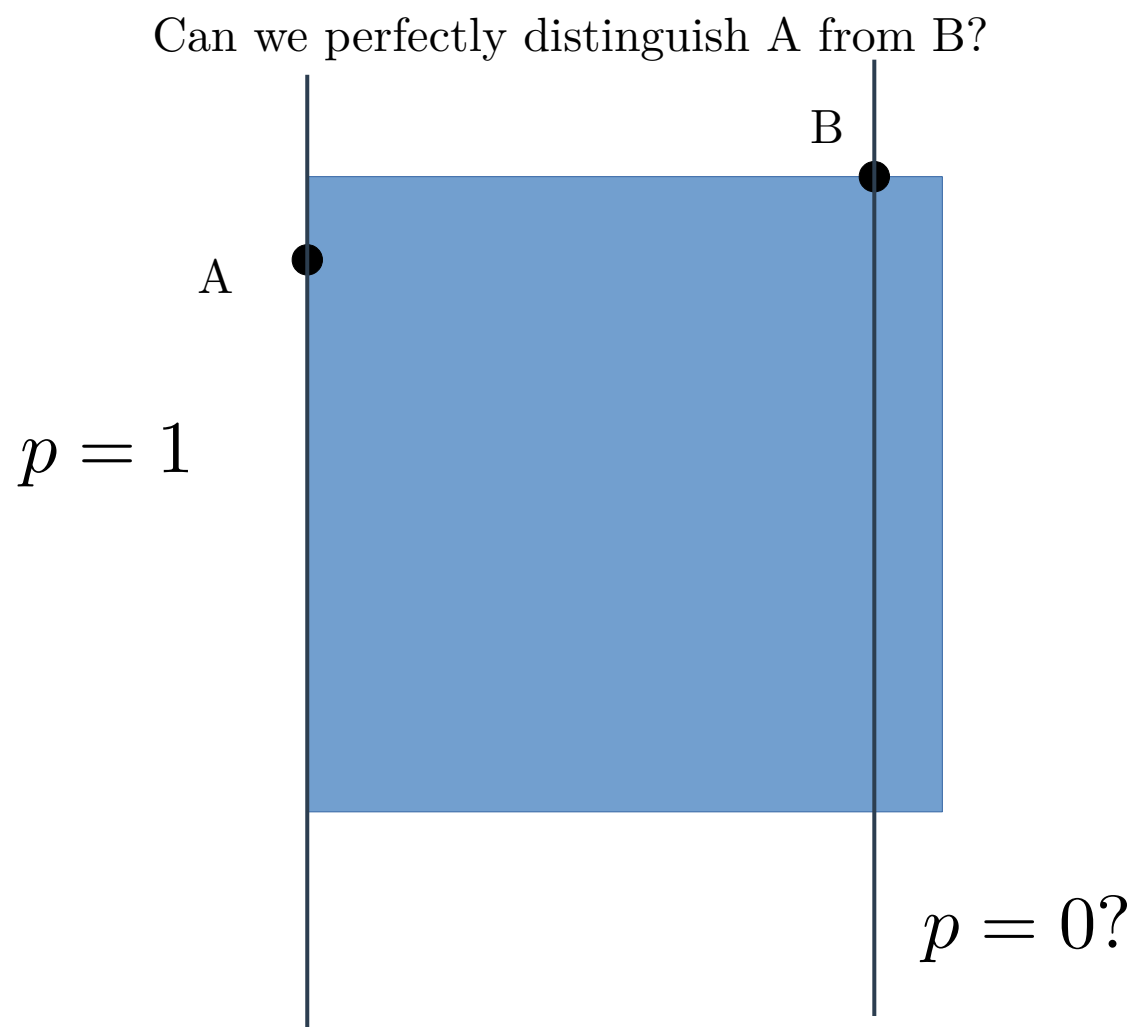
Can we perfectly distinguish A from B?



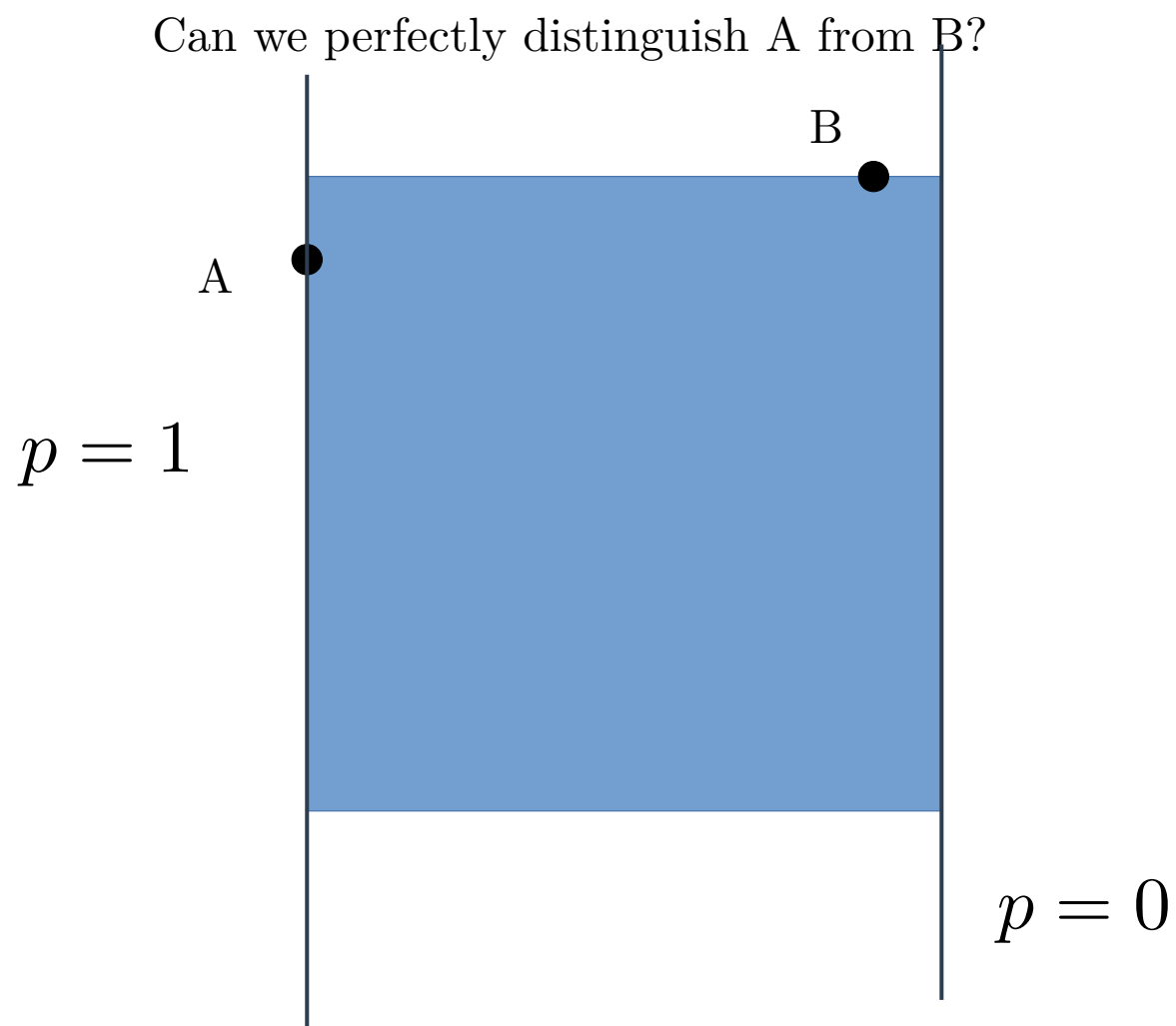
# How to “read” a convex state space



# How to “read” a convex state space

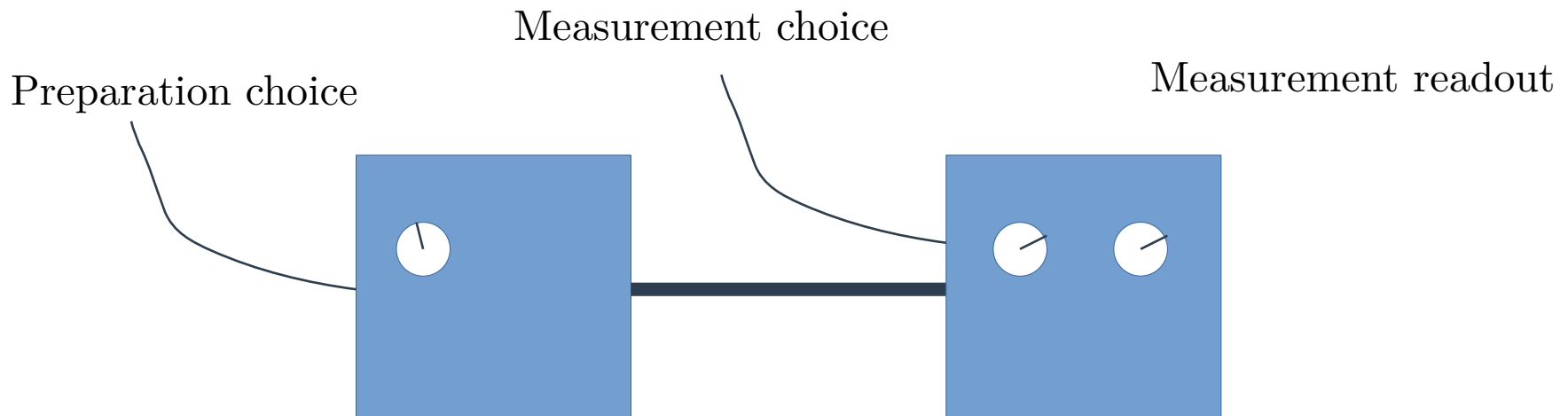


# How to “read” a convex state space



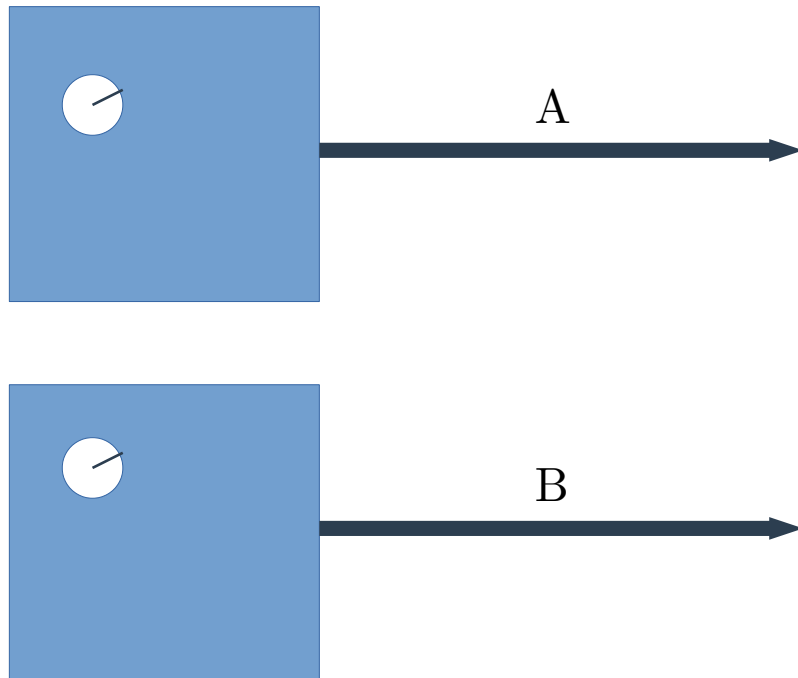
# Composite systems

- As well as composing devices in sequence



- Can compose the in parallel

# Parallel composition





# Operational probabilistic theories

PHYSICAL REVIEW A **81**, 062348 (2010)

## **Probabilistic theories with purification**

Giulio Chiribella<sup>\*</sup>

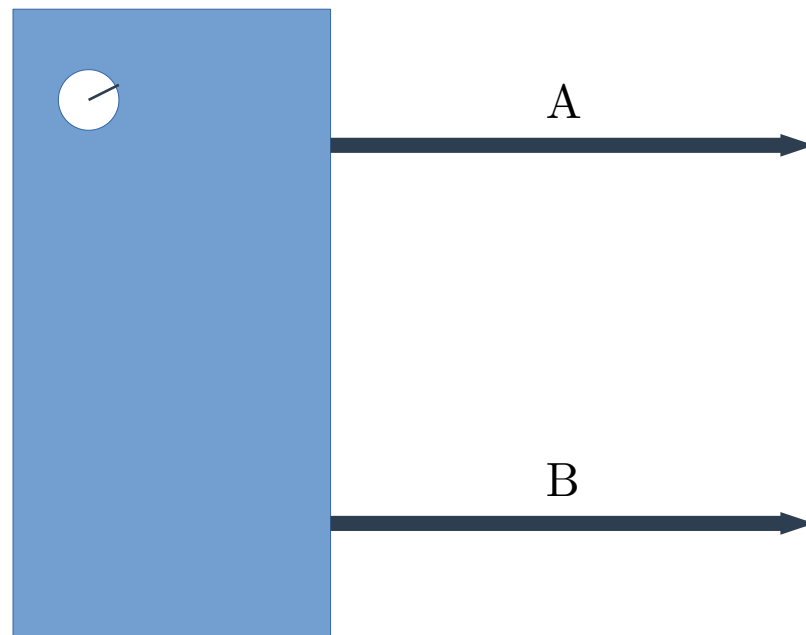
*Perimeter Institute for Theoretical Physics, 31 Caroline Street North, Ontario, Ontario N2L 2Y5, Canada<sup>†</sup>*

Giacomo Mauro D'Ariano<sup>‡</sup> and Paolo Perinotti<sup>‡</sup>

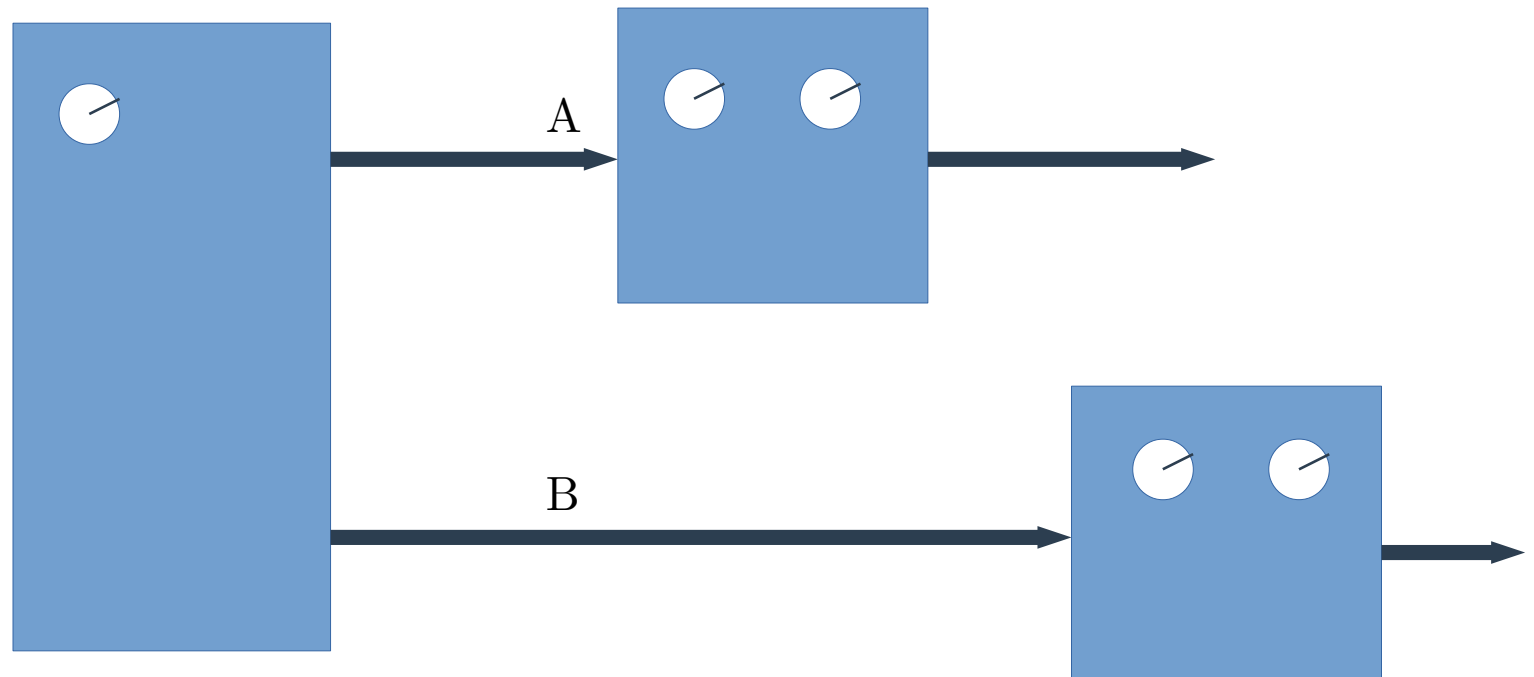
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(Received 13 October 2009; published 30 June 2010)

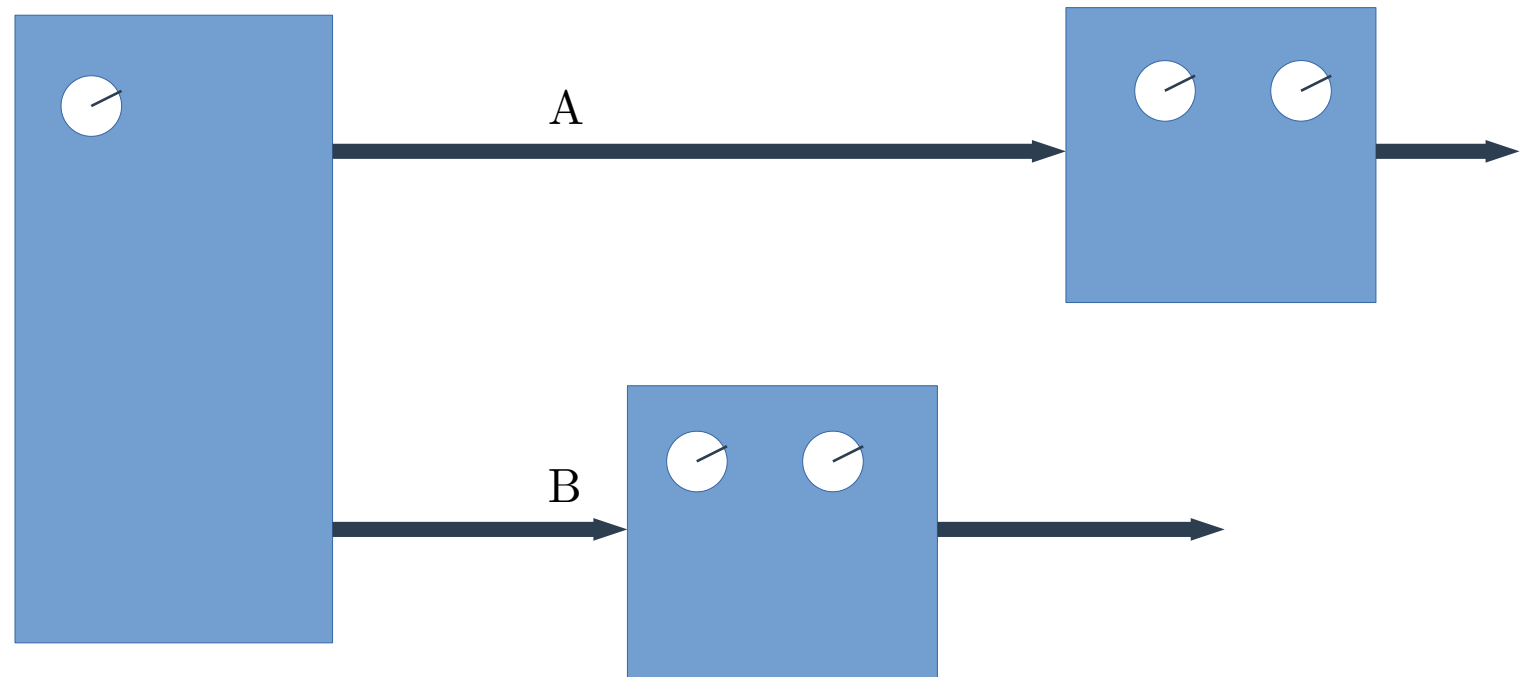
# Composite systems



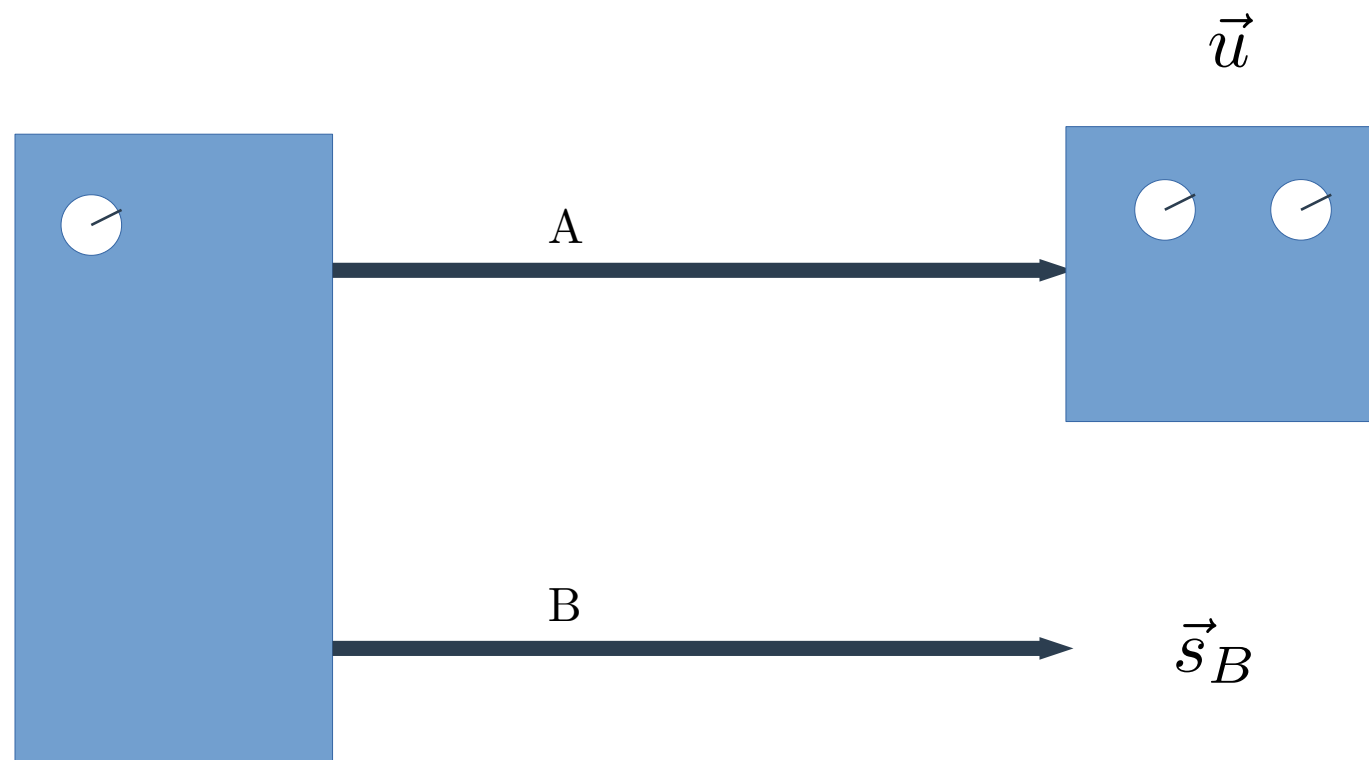
# Composite systems (no-signalling)



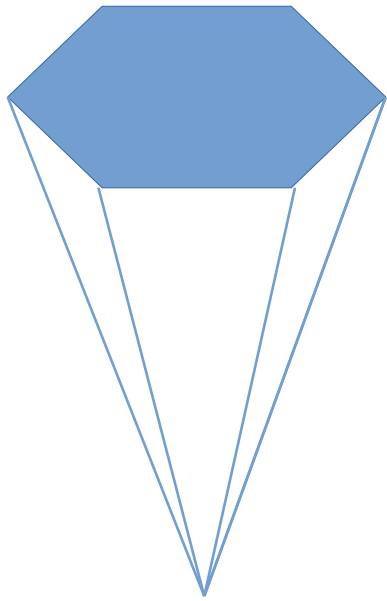
# Composite systems (no-signalling)



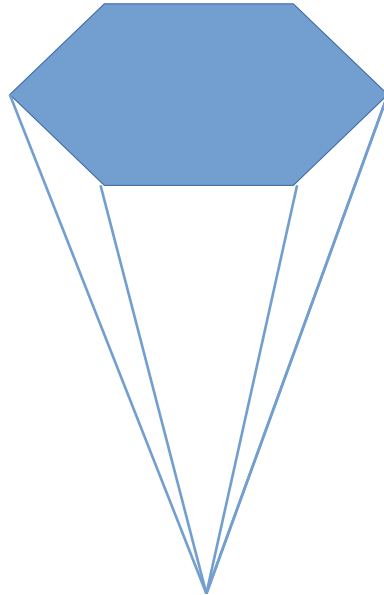
# Reduced states



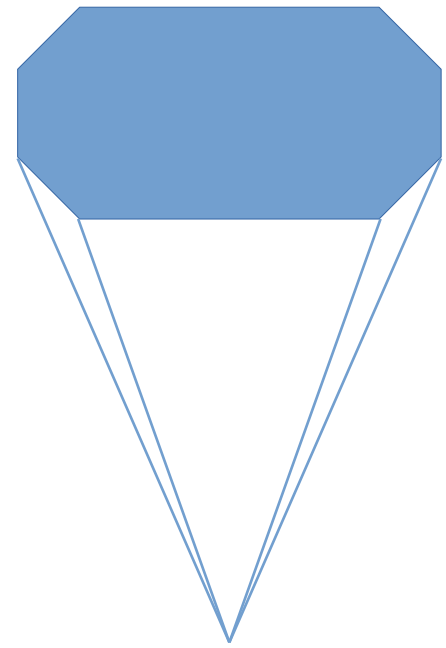
# Composite systems: state spaces



A



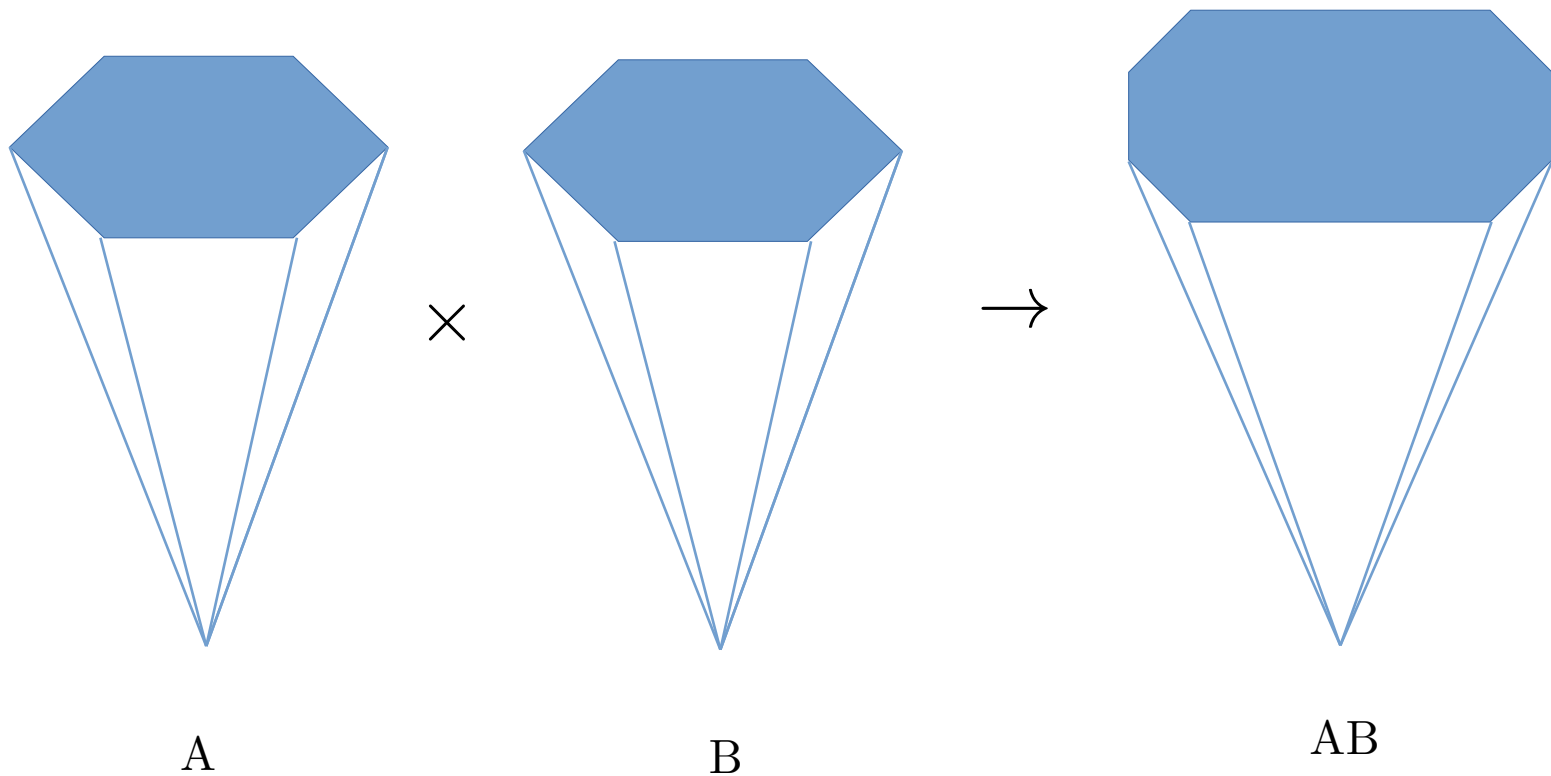
B



AB

# Product states

P:



# Product states: quantum theory

$$P_{\text{quantum}} : s_\psi \times s_\phi \mapsto s_\psi \otimes s_\phi$$

$$P_{\text{quantum}} : \rho \times \sigma \mapsto \rho \otimes \sigma$$

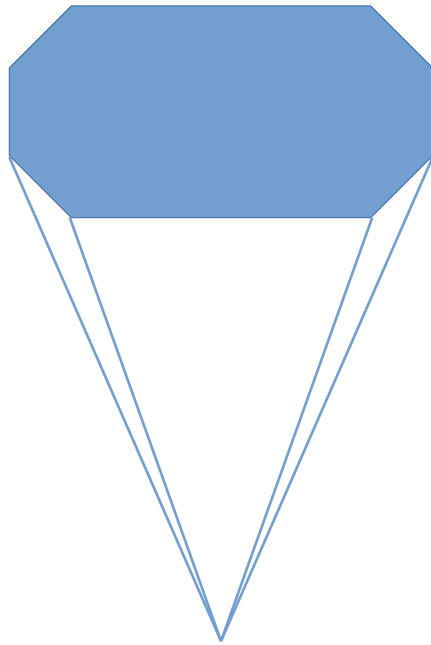


# Product states

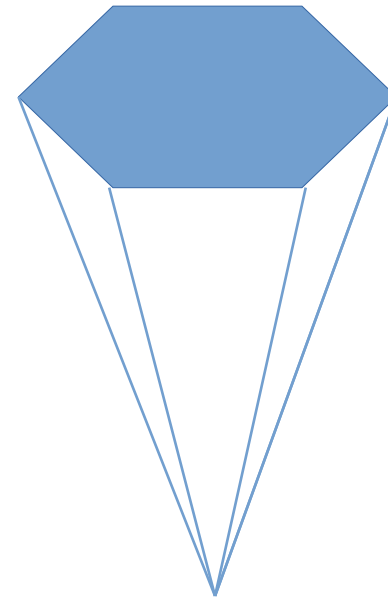
- This map is bilinear (due to mixing)
- If we assume local tomography it is just a tensor product
- But not in general

# Reduced states

R:



AB



A

# Reduced states: quantum theory

$$R_{\text{quantum}} : \rho_{AB} \mapsto \text{Tr}_B(\rho_{AB})$$

# Reduced states

- This map is a linear map from  $V_{AB}$  to  $V_A$
- Obtained by taking the unit effect on subsystem B and the identity on A
- $\mathbb{I}_A \star u_B$

# Effect space

- We have equivalent maps on the effect space.

# Conclusion

- Have a framework within which we can talk about operational theories: general probabilistic theories
- Highlighted the convex structure, which arises from the possibility of taking mixtures
- Mentioned the categorical structure which arises from composing devices
- Arbitrary convex sets correspond to non-classical systems

# Redundancy of the measurement postulates of quantum theory

Article | [OPEN](#) | Published: 25 March 2019

# The measurement postulates of quantum mechanics are operationally redundant

Lluís Masanes, Thomas D. Galley✉ & Markus P. Müller

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# Quantum theory

1) States  $\psi \in \mathbb{P}\mathbb{C}^d$

2) Transformations  $\psi \rightarrow U\psi, \quad U \in \text{SU}(d)$

3) Measurements  $(F_1, \dots, F_n) \quad F_i \geq 0 \quad \sum_i F_i = \mathbb{I}$

4) Probabilities  $p(F_i|\psi) = \langle \psi | F_i | \psi \rangle$

5) Composition  $\psi_{AB} \in \mathbb{C}^{d_A} \otimes \mathbb{C}^{d_B}$



# Theories with modified measurements

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# Alternative probabilistic structure

Outcome Probability Function

$$P(F|\psi) = F(\psi)$$

$$F : \mathbb{P}\mathbb{C}^d \rightarrow [0, 1]$$



# Alternative probabilistic structure

Measurement

$$(F_1, \dots, F_n)$$

$$\sum_i F_i(\psi) = 1 \quad \forall \psi \in \mathbb{P}\mathbb{C}^d$$



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- 4) Probabilities  $p(F|\psi) = F(\psi)$
- 5) Composition  $\psi_{AB} \in \mathbb{C}^{d_A} \otimes \mathbb{C}^{d_B}$



# Theories with modified measurements

- A measurement postulate is a set of OPFs
- $\mathcal{F}_d$  for every  $d \geq 2$
- Any subset which sum to 1 form a measurement
- In the case of quantum theory we have

$$\mathcal{F}_d = \{ \langle \psi | F | \psi \rangle | \forall F \text{ s.t. } 0 \leq F \leq \mathbb{I} \}$$



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Probabilistic structure

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Dynamical  
Structure



# Quantum theory

1) States  $\psi \in \mathbb{P}\mathbb{C}^d$

2) Transformations  $\psi \rightarrow U\psi, \quad U \in \text{SU}(d)$

3)  $\mathcal{F}_d = \{F(\psi) | F(\psi) = \langle \psi | \hat{F} | \psi \rangle, \hat{F} \geq 0\}$

4)

5) Composition  $\psi_{AB} \in \mathbb{C}^{d_A} \otimes \mathbb{C}^{d_B}$



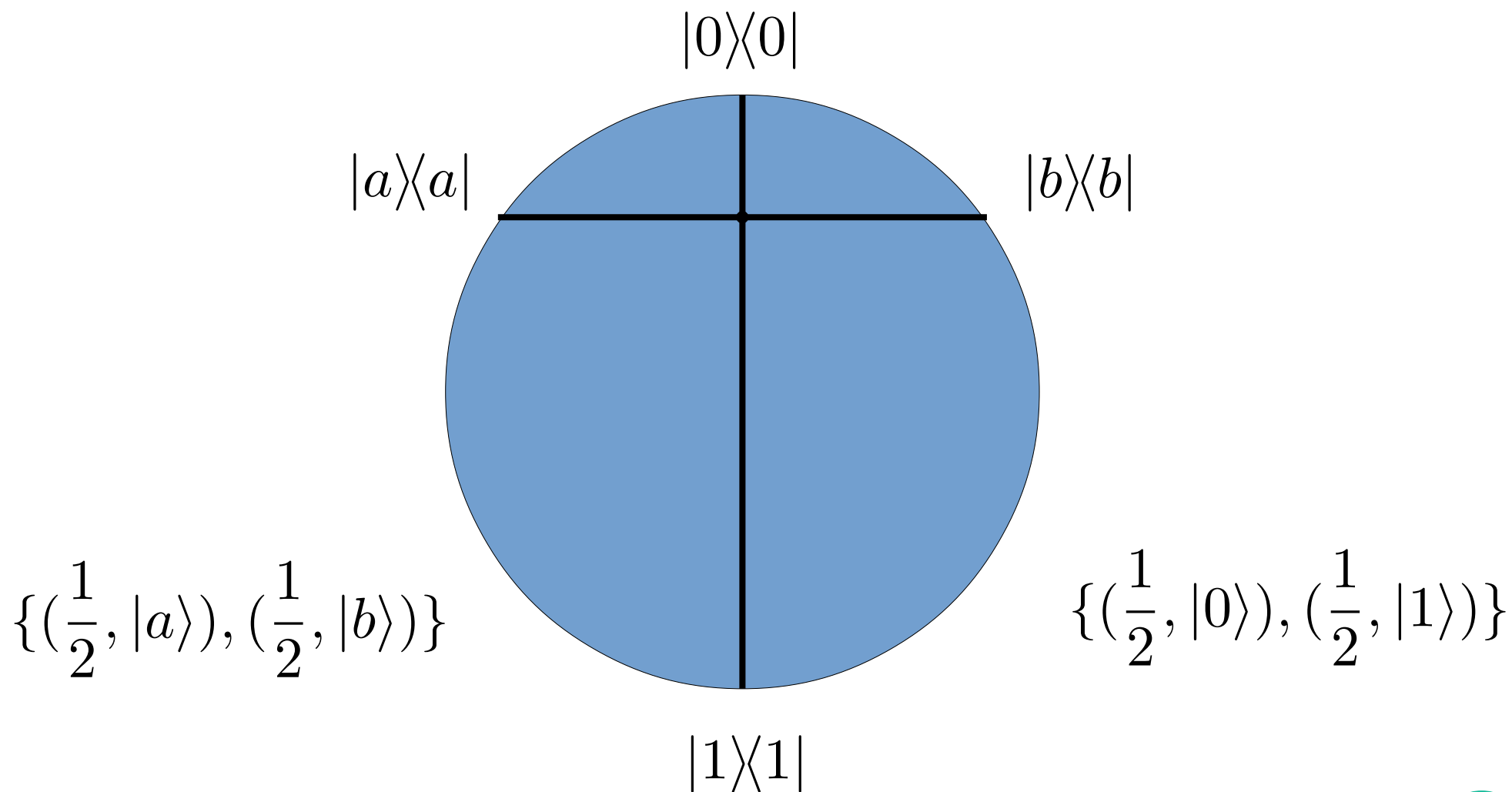
# Warning!



Changing the measurement postulates will change  
the structure of mixed states



# What are mixed states?



# Mixed states

Mixed states are equivalence classes of indistinguishable ensembles.

Indistinguishability is relative to the available measurements.

Changing the measurements will change which ensembles are indistinguishable.

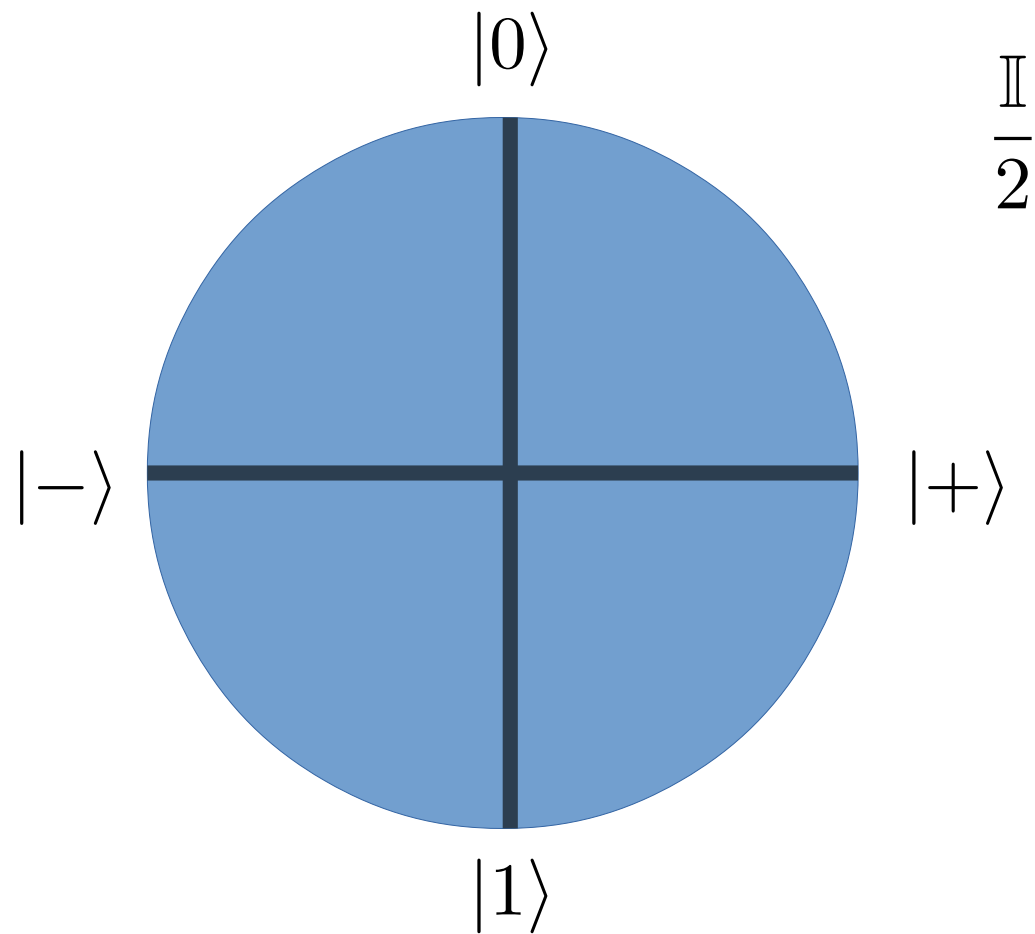


# State spaces

Systems with alternative measurement postulates have same pure states but different mixed states.



# Mixed states: rebit



# Mixed states

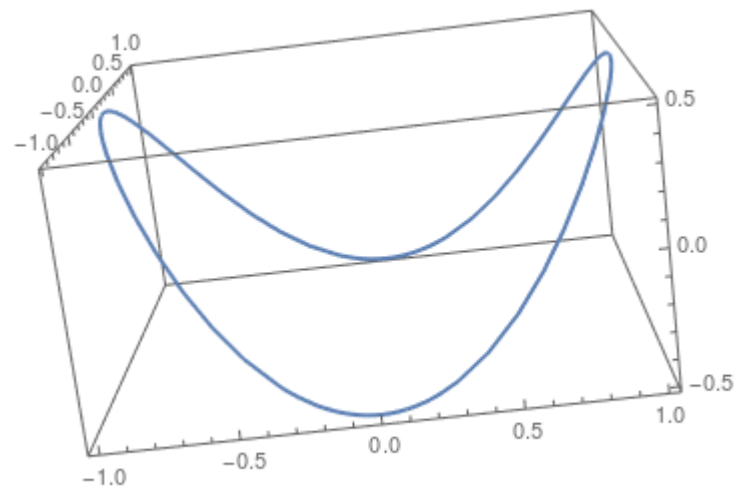
- If we allowed different measurements, these two ensembles may be distinguishable.

$$\{(\frac{1}{2}, |0\rangle), (\frac{1}{2}, |1\rangle)\}$$

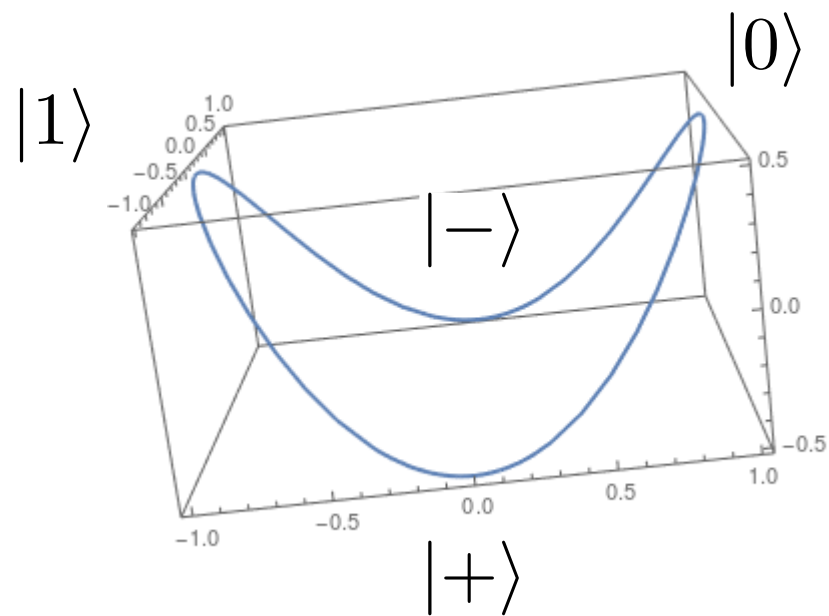
$$\{(\frac{1}{2}, |+\rangle), (\frac{1}{2}, |-\rangle)\}$$



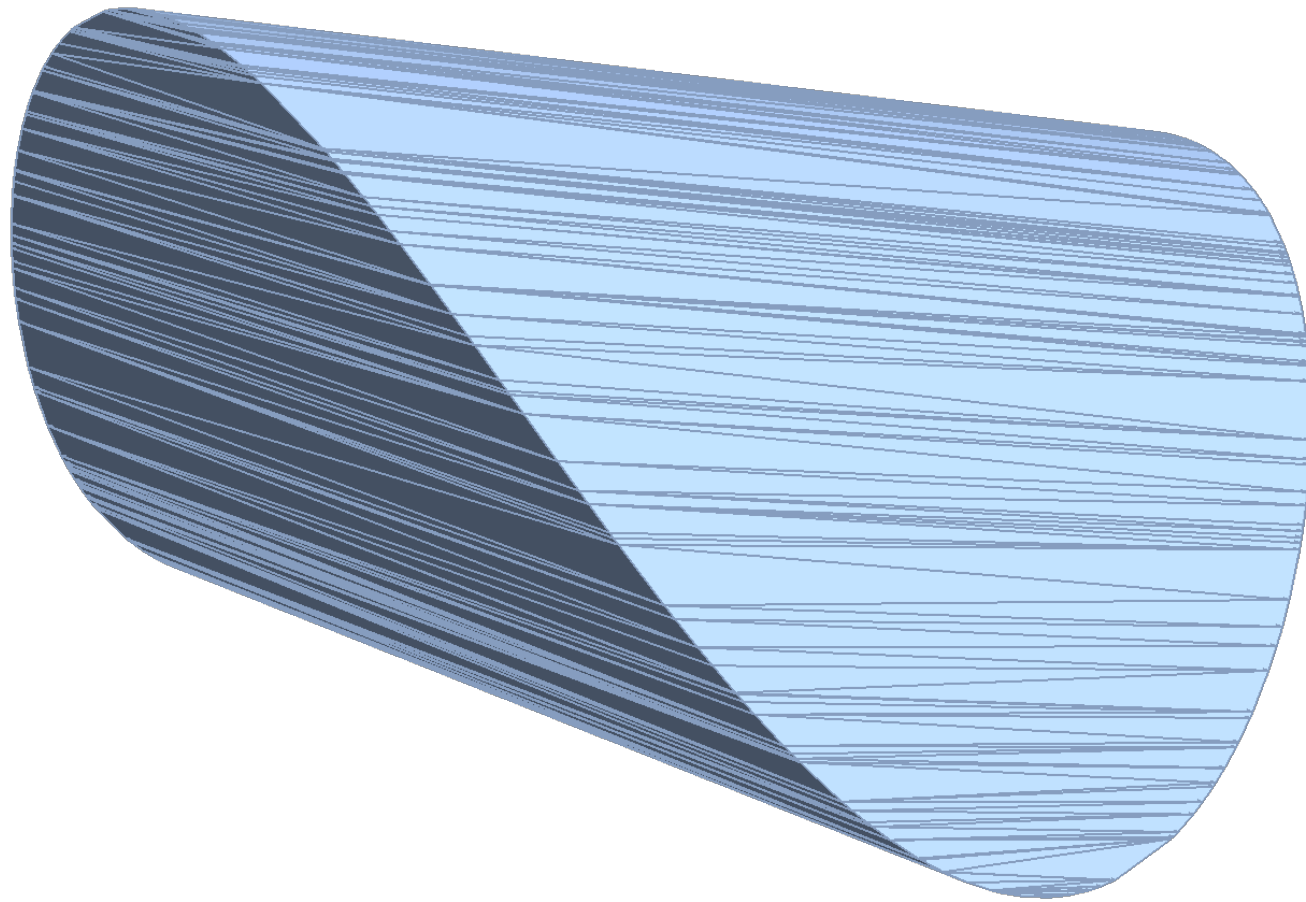
# Alternative rebit



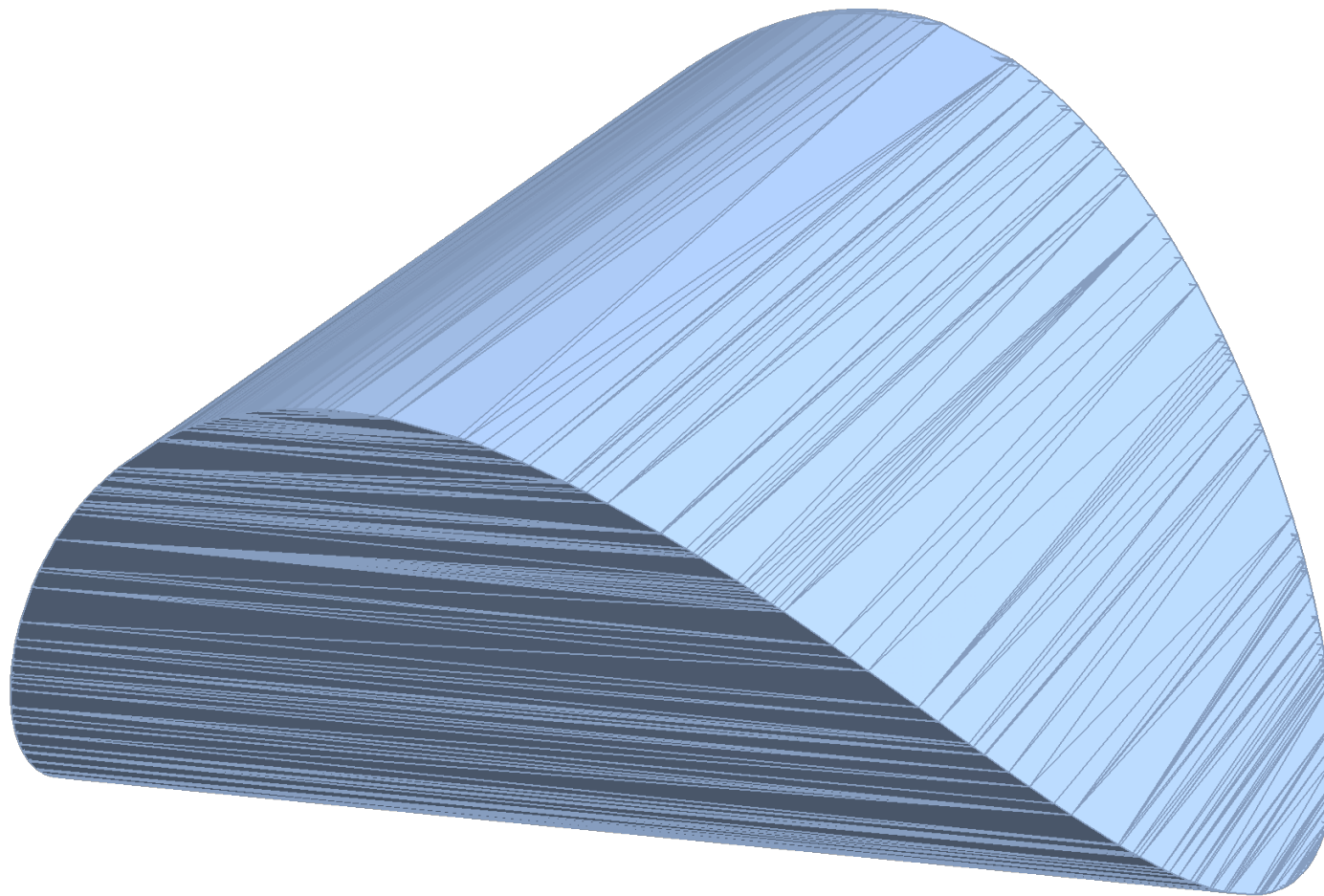
# Alternative rebit



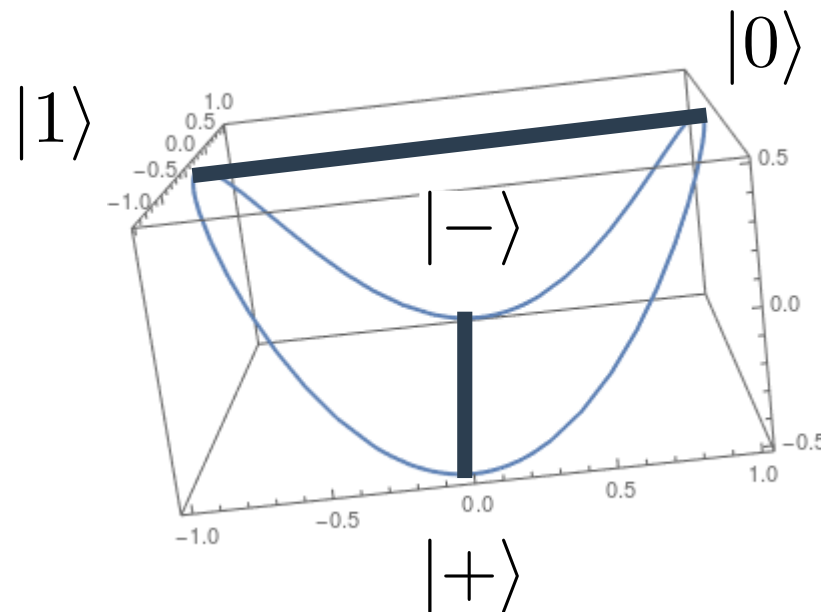
# Alternative rebit



# Alternative rebit



# Alternative rebit



$$\{(\frac{1}{2}, |0\rangle), (\frac{1}{2}, |1\rangle)\}$$

$$\{(\frac{1}{2}, |+\rangle), (\frac{1}{2}, |-\rangle)\}$$

# Mixed states

- We can no longer represent mixed states by density matrices when we change the measurements.
- Need to re-derive the mixed states

# Theories with modified measurements

1) States  $\psi \in \mathbb{P}\mathbb{C}^d$

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$$\mathcal{F}_d$$

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# Deriving the state space

- Find a set of fiducial measurements in  $\mathcal{F}_d$

$$f_1, \dots, f_n$$

$$f(\psi) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i f_i(\psi)$$

- Quantum theory  $n = d^2$



# Deriving the state space

$$f(\psi) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i f_i(\psi)$$

$$\vec{e}_f = (c_1, \dots, c_n)$$

$$\vec{s}_\psi = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(\psi) \\ \vdots \\ f_n(\psi) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f(\psi) = \vec{e}_f \cdot \vec{s}_\psi$$

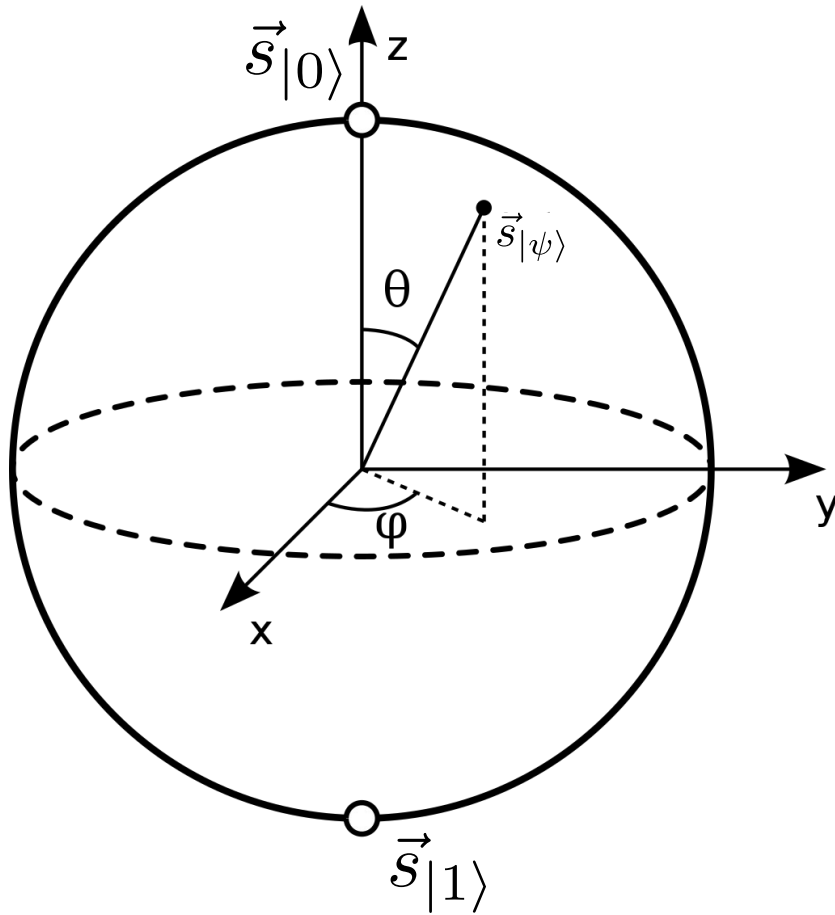
# Mixed states

- The pure states of quantum theory correspond to rays in  $\psi \in \mathbb{P}\mathbb{C}^d$
- Every embedding of these pure states into gives a system with same pure states but different measurements
- So pure state structure of quantum theory does not fix the measurements.

# Classifying all alternatives to the Born rule

- So can classify all alternatives to the measurements postulates
- All state spaces with same pure states but different mixed states as quantum theory
- All possible embeddings of  $\mathbb{P}\mathbb{C}^d$  (as a manifold) in  $\mathbb{R}^n$

# Representation theory and the Bloch sphere



$$\vec{s}_{|\psi\rangle} = \begin{pmatrix} P(+X|\psi) \\ P(+Y|\psi) \\ P(+Z|\psi) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{s}_{|\psi\rangle} \rightarrow R_U \vec{s}_{|\psi\rangle}$$

# Probabilistic representation of transformations

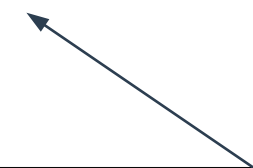
$$|\psi\rangle \mapsto \vec{s}_{|\psi\rangle}$$

$$U \mapsto R_U$$

# Probabilistic representation of transformations

$$|\psi\rangle \rightarrow \vec{s}|\psi\rangle$$

$$U \rightarrow R_U$$



Representation of  $SU(d)$

$$U_1 U_2 \mapsto R_{U_1} R_{U_2}$$

- Alternative measurement postulate implies different mixed states
- Different representations act on these different mixed states
- Alternative measurement postulate in correspondence with representation of  $SU(d)$

# Classification of all alternatives to the Born rule in terms of informational properties

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June 14, 2017



# Theories with modified measurements

1) States  $\psi \in \mathbb{P}\mathbb{C}^d$

2) Transformations  $\psi \rightarrow U\psi, \quad U \in \text{SU}(d)$

3) Measurements

$$\mathcal{F}_d$$

4) Probabilities

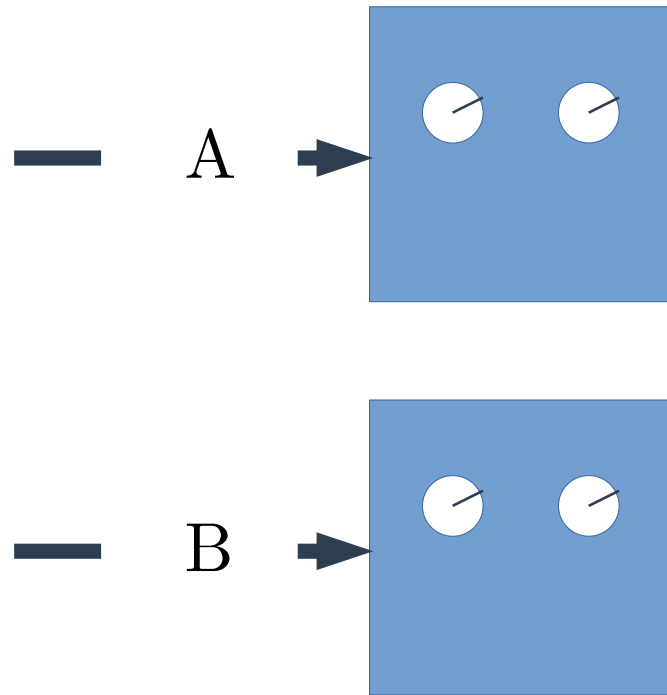
5) Composition  $\psi_{AB} \in \mathbb{C}^{d_A} \otimes \mathbb{C}^{d_B}$



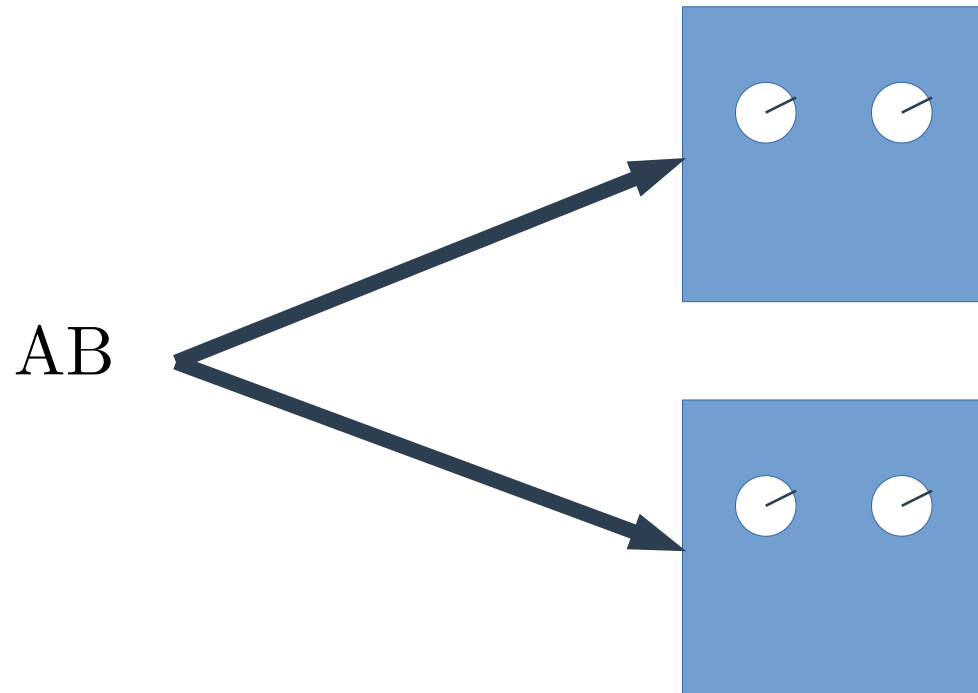
# Composite systems

- Systems A and B and AB.
- $\mathbb{C}^{d_A}, \mathbb{C}^{d_B}, \mathbb{C}^{d_A d_B}$
- $\mathcal{F}_A, \mathcal{F}_B, \mathcal{F}_{AB}$
- Measurement on system A and B should correspond to a joint measurement on AB.

# Joint measurements



# Joint measurements



# What about composite systems?

- Need a product between systems, and specifically between the OPFs:

$$\star : \mathcal{F}_A \times \mathcal{F}_B \rightarrow \mathcal{F}_{AB}$$

- This product needs to obey certain constraints

$$(f_A \star g_B)(\psi_A \otimes \phi_B) = f_A(\psi_A)g_B(\phi_B)$$

- Other constraints also follow from operational considerations.

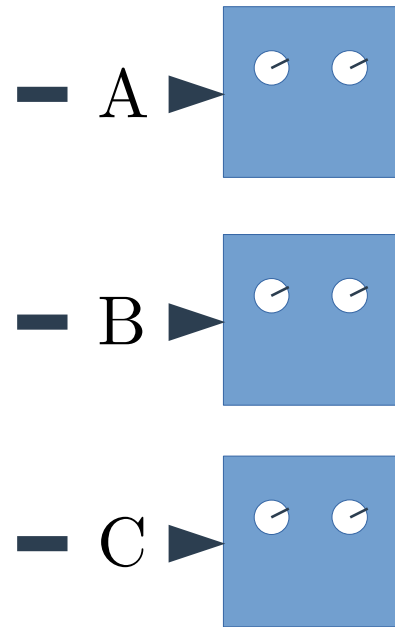
The quantum case:

$$F_A(\psi_A) = \langle \psi_A | \hat{F}_A | \psi_A \rangle$$

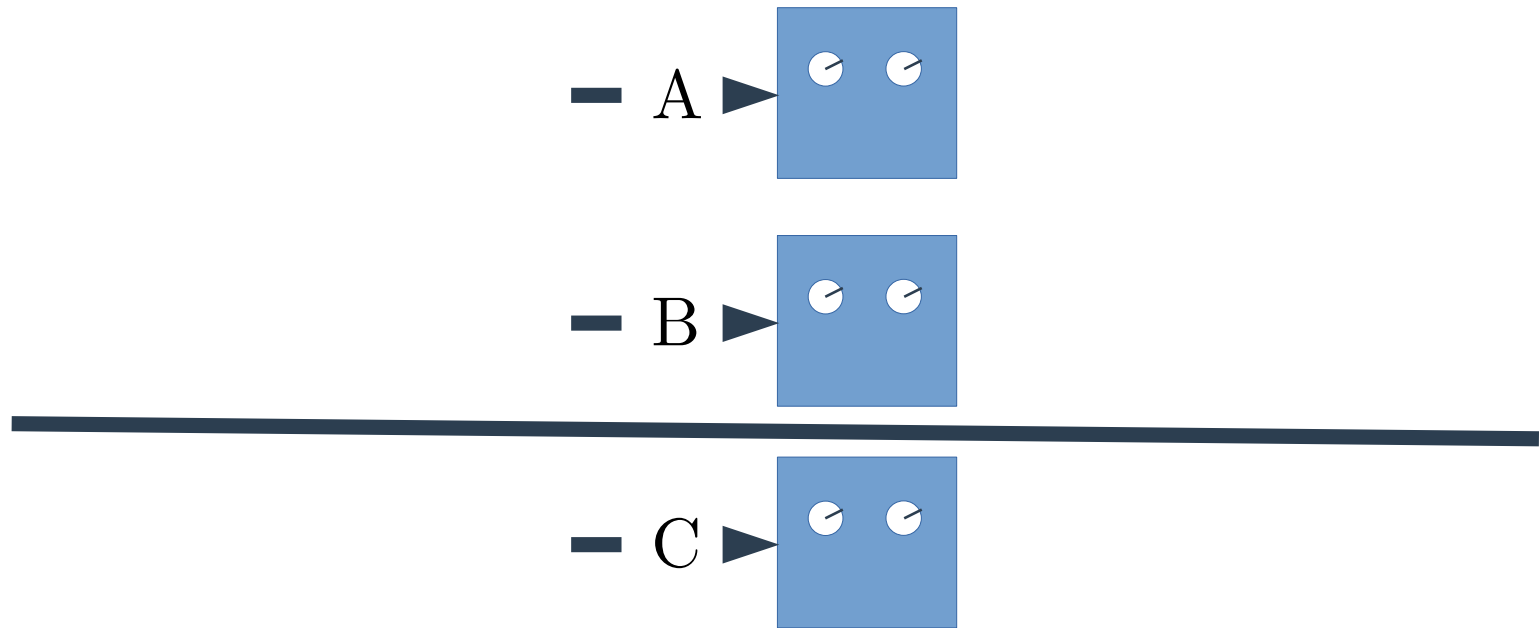
$$G_B(\psi_B) = \langle \psi_B | \hat{G}_B | \psi_B \rangle$$

$$(F_A \star G_B)(\psi_{AB}) = \langle \psi_{AB} | \hat{F}_A \otimes \hat{G}_B | \psi_{AB} \rangle$$

# Associativity

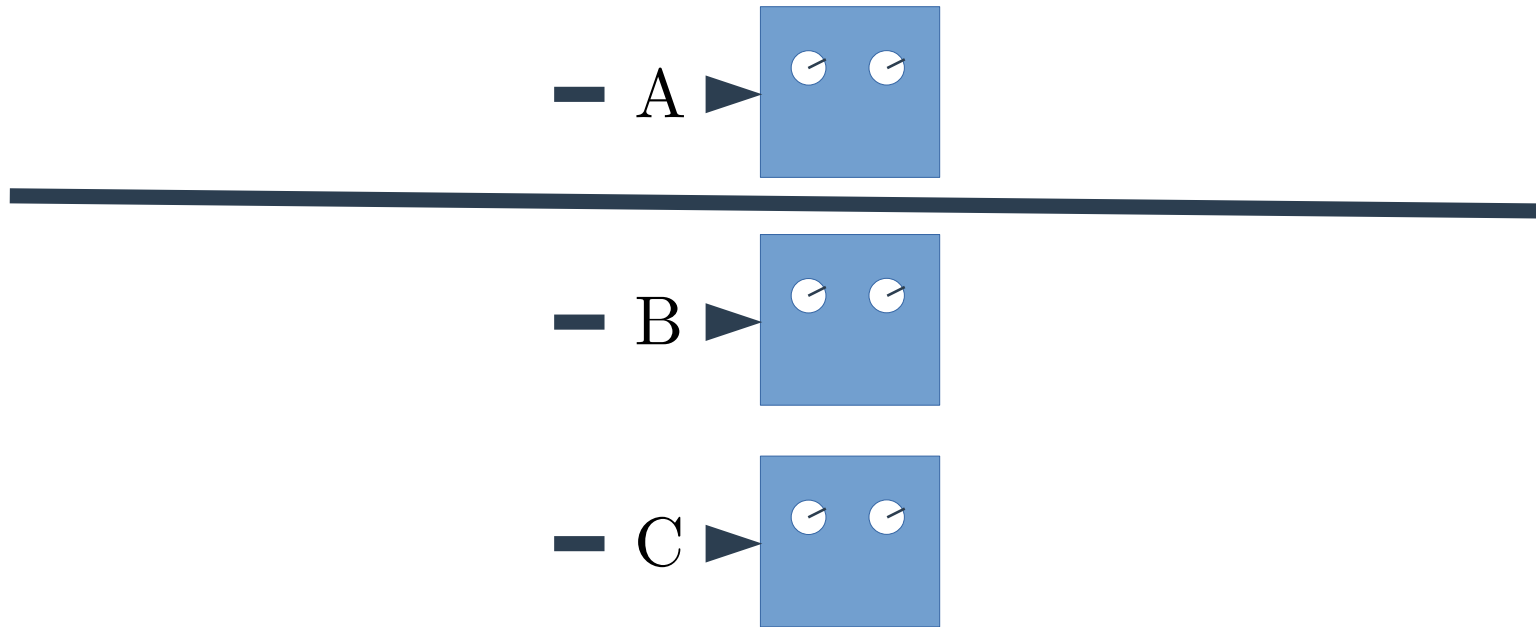


# Associativity





# Associativity



# Associativity

- Subjective groupings of devices lead to the same operational predictions
- “pre-operational” constraint

# What about composite systems?

$$f_A \star (g_B \star h_C) = (f_A \star g_B) \star h_C$$

# The result

- The only OPFs which obey this associativity constraint are the quantum ones.
- Under the assumption that (as a vector space) these sets are finite dimensional.
- Proof makes use of the linear action of the unitary group on  $\mathcal{F}_d$

# The theorem

The only measurement postulate satisfying the “possibility of state estimation” has OPFs and  $\star$ -product of the form

$$F(\psi) = \langle \psi | F | \psi \rangle$$

$$(F_A \star G_B)(\psi_{AB}) = \langle \psi_{AB} | \hat{F}_A \otimes \hat{G}_B | \psi_{AB} \rangle$$

for all  $\psi \in \mathbb{C}^a$  and  $\psi_{AB} \in \mathbb{C}^a \otimes \mathbb{C}^a$  where the  $\mathbb{C}^a$  operator  $F$  satisfies  $0 \leq \hat{F} \leq \mathbb{I}$  and analogously for  $G$ .

# Conclusion

- The only GPT with the same dynamical structure as quantum theory is quantum theory itself
- The measurement postulates are redundant (assuming the operational framework)

# Other approaches

A formal proof of the Born rule from  
decision-theoretic assumptions

David Wallace

June 15, 2009

## Quantum Theory of Probability and Decisions

David Deutsch<sup>1</sup>

Revised February 1999 – to appear in *Proc. R. Soc. Lond. A*

# Other approaches

## PROBABILITIES FROM ENTANGLEMENT, BORN'S RULE $p_k = |\psi_k|^2$ FROM INVARIANCE

Wojciech Hubert Zurek

*Theory Division, MS B210, LANL Los Alamos, NM, 87545, U.S.A.*

(Dated: February 1, 2008)



# Conclusion

# Perspectives on quantum theory

- Quantum logic
- General probabilistic theory
- Many others: Qubism, process theories...
- Also many non-operational approaches

# How to study quantum theory

- We have seen how to study GPTs and non-classical logics.
- Quantum theory is just one instance of a GPT or NCL
- What about other (non operational) approaches?
- What is a general branching theory for instance?

# Perspectives on quantum theory

- Different approaches provide different insights
- In the case of studying postulates I have used two different approaches: Quantum Logic and GPTs
- We were able to compress the postulates in two directions.
- Is there a more succinct formulation of quantum theory?

# Perspectives on quantum theory

- There are multiple mathematical structures in quantum theory
- A lattice structure (of subspaces)
- A convex structure (of state and effect spaces)
- Other structures to be explored: categorical...

# Perspectives on quantum theory

- There is a unique logic with the same measurement structure as quantum theory: quantum theory
- There is a unique GPT with the same dynamical structure as quantum theory: quantum theory

# Perspectives on quantum theory

- There are redundancies within the postulates of quantum theory.
- But need a background framework within which we can define things and show these redundancies.