

Real-Valued Observables and Quantum Uncertainty

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Abstract

We first present a generalization of the Robertson-Heisenberg uncertainty principle. This generalization applies to mixed states and contains a covariance term. For faithful states, we characterize when the uncertainty inequality is an equality. We next present an uncertainty principle version for real-valued observables. Sharp versions and conjugates of real-valued observables are considered. The theory is illustrated with examples of dichotomic observables. We close with a discussion of real-valued coarse graining.

Keywords Uncertainty principle · Real-valued observables · Coarse-grain

1 Introduction

One of the basic principles of quantum theory is the Robertson-Heisenberg uncertainty inequality [4, 7]

$$\Delta_{\psi}(A)\Delta_{\psi}(B) \ge \frac{1}{4} |\langle \psi, [A, B]\psi \rangle|^2$$
(1.1)

where *A*, *B* are self-adjoint operators and ψ is a vector state on a Hilbert space. The inequality (1.1) is usually applied to position and momentum operators *A*, *B* in which case $|\langle \psi, [A, B]\psi \rangle|^2 = \hbar^2$ where \hbar is Planck's constant. In this situation, *A* and *B* are unbounded operators, but for mathematical rigor we shall only deal with bounded operators. However, our results can be extended to the unbounded case by considering a dense subspace common to the domains of *A* and *B*. In this paper, we derive a generalization of (1.1). This generalization applies to mixed states and contains an additional covariance term that results in a stronger inequality.

The main result in Section 2 is an uncertainty principle for observable operators. This principle contains four parts: a commutator term, a covariance term, a correlation term and a product of variances term. This last term is sometimes called a product of uncertainties. In Section 2 we also characterize, for faithful states, when the uncertainty inequality is an

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Dedicated to the memory of Richard Greechie (1941–2022). The author's cherished friend, long time colleague and collaborator.

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equality. Section 3 introduces the concept of a real-valued observable. If ρ is a state and A is a real-valued observable, we define the ρ -average, ρ -deviation and ρ -variance of A. If B is another real-valued observable, we define the ρ -correlation and ρ -covariance of A, B. An uncertainty principle for real-valued observables is given in terms of these concepts. An important role is played by the stochastic operator \widetilde{A} for A. In Section 3 we also define the sharp version of a real-valued observable and characterize when two real-valued observables have the same sharp version

Section 4 illustrates the theory presented in Section 3 with two examples. The first example considers two dichotomic arbitrary real-valued observables. The second example considers the special case of two noisy spin observables. In this case, the uncertainty inequality becomes very simple. Section 5 discusses real-values coarse graining of observables.

2 Quantum Uncertainty Principle

For a complex Hilbert space H, we denote the set of bounded linear operators by $\mathcal{L}(H)$ and the set of bounded self-adjoint operators by $\mathcal{L}_{S}(H)$. A positive trace-class operator with trace one is a *state* and the set of states on H is denoted by $\mathcal{S}(H)$. A state ρ is *faithful* if tr (ρC^*C) = 0 for $C \in \mathcal{L}(H)$ implies that C = 0. For $\rho \in \mathcal{S}(H)$ and $C, D \in \mathcal{L}(H)$ we define the sesquilinear form $\langle C, D \rangle_{\rho} = \text{tr} (\rho C^*D)$.

Lemma 2.1 (i) If $C \in \mathcal{L}(H)$, $\rho \in \mathcal{S}(H)$, then tr $(\rho C^*) = \text{tr } (\rho \overline{C})$. (ii) The form $\langle \bullet, \bullet \rangle_{\rho}$ is a positive semi-definite inner product. (iii) A state ρ is faithful if and only if $\langle \bullet, \bullet \rangle_{\rho}$ is an inner product

Proof (i) If D is a trace-class operator and $\{\phi_i\}$ is an orthonormal basis for H, we have

$$\operatorname{tr}(D^*) = \sum_{i} \langle \phi_i, D^* \phi_i \rangle = \sum_{i} \overline{\langle D^* \phi_i, \phi_i \rangle} = \sum_{i} \overline{\langle \phi_i, D \phi_i \rangle} = \overline{\operatorname{tr}(D)}$$

Hence,

tr
$$(\rho C^*)$$
 = tr $[(C\rho)^*]$ = $\overline{\text{tr}(C\rho)}$ = $\overline{\text{tr}(\rho C)}$

(ii) Applying (i), we have

$$\overline{\langle C, D \rangle_{\rho}} = \overline{\operatorname{tr}\left(\rho C^* D\right)} = \operatorname{tr}\left[\rho(C^* D)^*\right] = \operatorname{tr}\left(\rho D^* C\right) = \langle D, C \rangle_{\rho}$$

Moreover, since $C^*C \ge 0$ we have $\langle C, C \rangle_{\rho} = \text{tr} (\rho C^*C) \ge 0$. Hence, $\langle \bullet, \bullet \rangle_{\rho}$ is a positive semi-definite inner product. (iii) If $\langle \bullet, \bullet \rangle_{\rho}$ is an inner product, then

$$\langle C, C \rangle_{\rho} = \operatorname{tr}(\rho C^* C) = 0$$

implies C = 0 so ρ is faithful. Conversely, if ρ is faithful, then

$$\operatorname{tr}\left(\rho C^*C\right) = \langle C, C \rangle_{\rho} = 0$$

implies C = 0 so $\langle \bullet, \bullet \rangle_{\rho}$ is an inner product

For $A \in \mathcal{L}_{S}(H)$ and $\rho \in \mathcal{S}(H)$, the ρ -average (or ρ -expectation) of A is $\langle A \rangle_{\rho} = \text{tr}(\rho A)$ and ρ -deviation of A is $D_{\rho}(A) = A - \langle A \rangle_{\rho} I$ where I is the identity map on H. If $A, B \in \mathcal{L}_{S}(H)$, the ρ -correlation of A, B is

$$\operatorname{Cor}_{\rho}(A, B) = \operatorname{tr}\left[\rho D_{\rho}(A) D_{\rho}(B)\right]$$

Although $\operatorname{Cor}_{\rho}(A, B)$ need not be a real number, it is easy to check that $\overline{\operatorname{Cor}_{\rho}(A, B)} = \operatorname{Cor}_{\rho}(B, A)$. We say that A and B are *uncorrelated* if $\operatorname{Cor}_{\rho}(A, B) = 0$. The *p*-covariance of A, B is $\Delta_{\rho}(A, B) = \operatorname{Re} \operatorname{Cor}_{\rho}(A, B)$ and the *p*-variance of A is

$$\Delta_{\rho}(A) = \Delta_{\rho}(A, A) = \operatorname{Cor}_{\rho}(A, A) = \operatorname{tr}\left[\rho D_{\rho}(A)^{2}\right]$$

It is straightforward to show that

$$\operatorname{Cor}_{\rho}(A, B) = \operatorname{tr}(\rho A B) - \langle A \rangle_{\rho} \langle B \rangle_{\rho}$$
(2.1)

$$\Delta_{\rho}(A, B) = \operatorname{Re}\operatorname{tr}\left(\rho A B\right) - \langle A \rangle_{\rho} \langle B \rangle_{\rho}$$
(2.2)

$$\Delta_{\rho}(A) = \langle A^2 \rangle_{\rho} - \langle A \rangle_{\rho}^2 \tag{2.3}$$

We see from (2.1) that A and B are ρ -uncorrelated if and only if tr (ρAB) = $\langle A \rangle_{\rho} \langle B \rangle_{\rho}$. We say that A and B commute if their commutant [A, B] = AB - BA = 0.

Example 1 In the tensor product $H_1 \otimes H_2$ let $\rho = \rho_1 \otimes \rho_2 \in S(H_1 \otimes H_2)$ be a product state and let $A_1 \in \mathcal{L}_S(H_1)$, $A_2 \in \mathcal{L}_S(H_2)$. Then $A = A_1 \otimes I_2$, $B = I_1 \otimes A_2 \in \mathcal{L}_S(H_1 \otimes H_2)$ are ρ -uncorrelated because

$$\operatorname{tr} (\rho AB) = \operatorname{tr} [\rho_1 \otimes \rho_2 (A_1 \otimes I_2) (I_2 \otimes A_2)] = \operatorname{tr} [\rho_1 \otimes \rho_2 (A_1 \otimes A_2)]$$
$$= \operatorname{tr} (\rho_1 A_1 \otimes \rho_2 A_2) = \operatorname{tr} (\rho_1 A_1) \operatorname{tr} (\rho_2 A_2)$$
$$= \operatorname{tr} (\rho_1 \otimes \rho_2 A_1 \otimes I_2) \operatorname{tr} (\rho_1 \otimes \rho_2 I_1 \otimes A_2) = \langle A \rangle_{\rho} \langle B \rangle_{\rho}$$

This shows that A, B are ρ -uncorrelated for any product state ρ . Of course, [A, B] = 0 in this case. However, there are examples of noncommuting operators that are uncorrelated. For instance, on $H = \mathbb{C}^2$ let $\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\phi = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\psi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. With $\rho = |\alpha\rangle\langle\alpha|$, $A = |\phi\rangle\langle\phi|$, $B = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$ we have

$$\operatorname{tr}\left(\rho AB\right) = \langle A \rangle_{\rho} \langle B \rangle_{\rho} = 0$$

Hence, A, B are ρ -uncorrelated. However,

$$AB = \langle \phi, \psi \rangle |\phi\rangle \langle \psi| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |\phi\rangle \langle \psi|$$
$$BA = \langle \psi, \phi \rangle |\psi\rangle \langle \phi| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |\psi\rangle \langle \phi|$$

so $[A, B] \neq 0$.

We now present our main result.

Theorem 2.2 If $A, B \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}}(H)$ and $\rho \in \mathcal{S}(H)$, then (i) $\frac{1}{4} |\text{tr} (\rho[A, B])|^2 + [\Delta_{\rho}(A, B)]^2 = |\text{Cor}_{\rho}(A, B)|^2$

(*ii*)
$$\frac{1}{4}$$
 |tr ($\rho[A, B]$)|² + $\left[\Delta_{\rho}(A, B)\right]^2 \le \Delta_{\rho}(A)\Delta_{\rho}(B)$

Proof (i) Applying Lemma 2.1 we have

$$\operatorname{tr} \left([A, B] \right) = \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A B \right) - \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho B A \right) = \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A B \right) - \operatorname{tr} \left[\rho (B A)^* \right]$$
$$= \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A B \right) - \overline{\operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A^* B^* \right)} = \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A B \right) - \overline{\operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A B \right)}$$
$$= 2i \operatorname{Im} \left[\operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A B \right) \right]$$
(2.4)

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From (2.2) and (2.4) we obtain

$$\frac{1}{4} |\operatorname{tr} (\rho[A, B])|^2 + [\Delta_{\rho}(A, B)]^2 = [\operatorname{Im} (\rho A B)]^2 + [\operatorname{Re} \operatorname{tr} (\rho A B) - \langle A \rangle_{\rho} \langle B \rangle_{\rho}]^2$$
$$= |\operatorname{Re} \operatorname{tr} (\rho A B) - \langle A \rangle_{\rho} \langle B \rangle_{\rho} + i \operatorname{Im} \operatorname{tr} (\rho A B)|^2$$
$$= |\operatorname{tr} (\rho A B) - \langle A \rangle_{\rho} \langle B \rangle_{\rho}|^2 = |\operatorname{Cor}_{\rho}(A, B)|^2$$

(ii) Applying Lemma 2.1(ii), the form $\langle C, D \rangle_{\rho} = \text{tr} (\rho C^* D)$ is a positive semi-definite inner product. Hence, Schwarz's inequality holds and we have

$$\begin{aligned} |\operatorname{Cor}_{\rho}(A, B)|^{2} &= |\operatorname{tr}\left[\rho D_{\rho}(A) D_{\rho}(B)\right]|^{2} = |\langle D_{\rho}(A), D_{\rho}(B) \rangle_{\rho}|^{2} \\ &\leq \langle D_{\rho}(A), D_{\rho}(A) \rangle_{\rho} \langle D_{\rho}(B), D_{\rho}(B) \rangle_{\rho} = \operatorname{tr}\left[\rho D_{\rho}(A)^{2}\right] \operatorname{tr}\left[\rho D_{\rho}(B)^{2}\right] \\ &= \Delta_{\rho}(A) \Delta_{\rho}(B) \end{aligned}$$

We call Theorem 2.2(i) the *uncertainty equation* and Theorem 2.2(ii) the *uncertainty inequality*. Together, they are called the *uncertainty principle*. Notice that Theorem 2.2(ii) is a considerable strengthening of the usual Robertson-Heisenberg inequality (1.1) since it contains the term $[\Delta_{\rho}(A, B)]^2$ and it applies to arbitrary states. Thus, even when [A, B] = 0 we still have an uncertainty relation

$$\left[\Delta_{\rho}(A, B)\right]^{2} = \left|\operatorname{tr}\left[\rho D_{\rho}(A) D_{\rho}(B)\right]\right|^{2} \leq \Delta_{\rho}(A) \Delta_{\rho}(B)$$

Lemma 2.3 A state ρ is faithful if and only if the eigenvalues of ρ are positive.

Proof Suppose the eigenvalues λ_i of ρ are positive with corresponding normalized eigenvectors ϕ_i . Then we can write $\rho = \sum \lambda_i |\phi_i\rangle \langle \phi_i|$ for the orthonormal basis $\{\phi_i\}$. For any $A \in \mathcal{L}(H)$ we obtain

$$\operatorname{tr}\left(\rho A^*A\right) = \sum \lambda_i \operatorname{tr}\left(|\phi_i\rangle\langle\phi_i|A^*A\right) = \sum \lambda_i\langle A\phi_i, A\phi_i\rangle = \sum \lambda_i \|A\phi_i\|^2$$

Hence, tr (ρA^*A) = 0 implies $A\phi_i = 0$ for all *i*. It follows that A = 0. Conversely, if 0 is an eigenvalue of ρ and ϕ is a corresponding unit eigenvector, then setting $P_{\phi} = |\phi\rangle\langle\phi|$ we have

$$\operatorname{tr}\left(\rho P_{\phi}^{*} P_{\phi}\right) = \operatorname{tr}\left(\rho P_{\phi}\right) = \langle \phi, \rho \phi \rangle = 0$$

But $P_{\phi} \neq 0$ so ρ is not faithful.

Theorem 2.4 If ρ is faithful, then the following statements are equivalent. (i) The uncertainty inequality of Theorem 2.2(ii) is an equality. (ii) $D_{\rho}(B) = \alpha D_{\rho}(A)$ for $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. (iii) $B = \alpha A + \beta I$ for $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$. If one of the conditions holds, then

$$\left[\Delta_{\rho}(A,B)\right]^{2} = \left|\operatorname{Cor}_{\rho}(A,B)\right|^{2} = \Delta_{\rho}(A)\Delta_{\rho}(B)$$
(2.5)

Proof (i) \Rightarrow (ii) If the uncertainty inequality is an equality, then

$$\left| \operatorname{tr} \left[\rho D_{\rho}(A) D_{\rho}(B) \right] \right|^{2} = \Delta_{\rho}(A) \Delta_{\rho}(B)$$
(2.6)

We can rewrite (2.6) as

$$|\langle D_{\rho}(A), D_{\rho}(B) \rangle_{\rho}|^{2} = \langle D_{\rho}(A), D_{\rho}(A) \rangle_{\rho} \langle D_{\rho}(B), D_{\rho}(B) \rangle_{\rho}$$

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$$B - \langle B \rangle_{\rho} I = \alpha \left(A - \langle A \rangle_{\rho} I \right)$$

Hence, letting $\beta = \langle B \rangle_{\rho} - \alpha \langle A \rangle_{\rho}$ we have $B = \alpha A + \beta I$. Since $A, B \in \mathcal{L}_{S}(H)$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, we have that $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$. (iii) \Rightarrow (i) If (iii) holds, then

$$\langle B \rangle_{\rho} = \operatorname{tr}(\rho B) = \alpha \operatorname{tr}(\rho A) + \beta = \alpha \langle A \rangle_{\rho} + \beta$$

Hence, $\beta = \langle B \rangle_{\rho} - \alpha \langle A \rangle_{\rho}$ so that

$$D_{\rho}(B) = B - \langle B \rangle_{\rho} I = \alpha A + \beta I - \langle B \rangle_{\rho} I$$

= $\alpha A + \langle B \rangle_{\rho} I - \alpha \langle A \rangle_{\rho} I - \langle B \rangle_{\rho} I = \alpha D_{\rho}(A)$

Thus, (ii) holds and it follows that (2.6) holds and this implies (i). Equation (2.5) holds because (2.6) holds.

Example 2 The simplest faithful state when dim $H = n < \infty$ is $\rho = I/n$. Then $\langle A, B \rangle_{\rho} = \frac{1}{n} \operatorname{tr} (A^*B)$ which is essentially the Hilbert-Schmidt inner product $\langle A, B \rangle_{HS} = \operatorname{tr} (A^*B)$. In this case for $A, B \in \mathcal{L}_S(H)$ we have $\langle A \rangle_{\rho} = \frac{1}{n} \operatorname{tr} (A), D_{\rho}(A) = A - \frac{1}{n} \operatorname{tr} (A)I$. The other statistical concepts become:

$$\operatorname{Cor}_{\rho}(A, B) = \operatorname{tr}\left[\rho D_{\rho}(A) D_{\rho}(B)\right] = \frac{1}{n} \operatorname{tr}(AB) - \frac{1}{n^{2}} \operatorname{tr}(A) \operatorname{tr}(B)$$
$$\Delta_{\rho}(A, B) = \frac{1}{n} \operatorname{Re} \operatorname{tr}(AB) - \frac{1}{n^{2}} \operatorname{tr}(A) \operatorname{tr}(B)$$
$$\Delta_{\rho}(A) = \frac{1}{n} \operatorname{tr}(A^{2}) - \left[\frac{1}{n} \operatorname{tr}(A)\right]^{2}$$
$$\operatorname{tr}\left(\rho\left[A, B\right]\right) = \frac{2i}{n} \operatorname{Im} \operatorname{tr}(AB)$$

The uncertainty principle is given by:

$$[\operatorname{Im}\operatorname{tr}(AB)]^{2} + \left[\operatorname{Re}\operatorname{tr}(AB) - \frac{1}{n}\operatorname{tr}(A)\operatorname{tr}(B)\right]^{2} = |\operatorname{tr}(AB) - \frac{1}{n}\operatorname{tr}(A)\operatorname{tr}(B)|^{2}$$
$$\leq \left[\operatorname{tr}(A^{2}) - \frac{1}{n}\operatorname{tr}(A)^{2}\right] \left[\operatorname{tr}(B^{2}) - \frac{1}{n}\operatorname{tr}(B)^{2}\right] \qquad \Box$$

3 Real-Valued Observables

An *effect* is an operator $C \in \mathcal{L}_S(H)$ that satisfies $0 \le C \le I$ [1, 4–6]. Effects are thought of as two outcomes *yes-no* measurements. When the result of measuring *C* is *yes*, we say that *C* occurs and when the result is *no*, then *C* does not occur. A real-valued observable is a finite set of effects $A = \{A_x : x \in \Omega_A\}$ where $\sum_{x \in \Omega_A} A_x = I$ and $\Omega_A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is the outcome space for *A*. The effect A_x occurs when the result of measuring *A* is the outcome *x*. The condition $\sum_{x \in \Omega_A} A_x = I$ specifies that one of the possible outcomes of *A* must occur. An observable is also called a *positive operator-valued measure* (POVM). We say *A* is *sharp* if A_x is a projection for all $x \in \Omega_A$ and in this case, *A* is a *projection-valued measure* [4, 7]. Corresponding to A we have the *stochastic operator* $\widetilde{A} \in \mathcal{L}(H)$ given by $\widetilde{A} = \sum_{x \in \Omega_A} x A_x$.

Notice that we need A to be real-valued in order for \widetilde{A} to exist.

We now apply the theory presented in Section 2 to real-valued observables. For $\rho \in S(H)$, the ρ -average (or ρ -expectation) of A is defined by

$$\langle A \rangle_{\rho} = \langle \widetilde{A} \rangle_{\rho} = \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho \widetilde{A} \right) = \sum_{x \in \Omega_{A}} x \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A_{x} \right)$$
(3.1)

We interpret tr (ρA_x) as the probability that a measurement of A results in the outcome x when the system is in state ρ . Thus, (3.1) says that the ρ -average of A is the sum of its outcomes times the probabilities these outcomes occur. We define the ρ -deviation of A by

$$D_{\rho}(A) = D_{\rho}(\widetilde{A}) = \widetilde{A} - \langle A \rangle_{\rho} I = \sum_{x \in \Omega_{A}} x A_{x} - \sum_{x \in \Omega_{A}} x \operatorname{tr} (\rho A_{x}) I$$
$$= \sum_{x \in \Omega_{A}} x \left[A_{x} - \operatorname{tr} (\rho A_{x}) I \right]$$

If *A*, *B* are real-valued observables, the ρ -correlation of *A*, *B* is $\operatorname{Cor}_{\rho}(A, B) = \operatorname{Cor}_{\rho}(\widetilde{A}, \widetilde{B})$, ρ -covariance of *A*, *B* is $\Delta_{\rho}(A, B) = \Delta_{\rho}(\widetilde{A}, \widetilde{B})$ and the ρ -variance of *A* is $\Delta_{\rho}(A) = \Delta_{\rho}(\widetilde{A})$. Applying (2.1) we obtain

$$\operatorname{Cor}_{\rho}(A, B) = \operatorname{tr}\left(\rho\widetilde{A}\widetilde{B}\right) - \langle\widetilde{A}\rangle_{\rho}\langle\widetilde{B}\rangle_{\rho} = \operatorname{tr}\left(\rho\sum_{x,y} xyA_{x}B_{y}\right) - \langle\widetilde{A}\rangle_{\rho}\langle\widetilde{B}\rangle_{\rho}$$
$$= \sum_{x,y} xy\left[\operatorname{tr}\left(\rho A_{x}B_{y}\right) - \operatorname{tr}\left(\rho A_{x}\right)\operatorname{tr}\left(\rho B_{y}\right)\right]$$
(3.2)

It follows that

$$\Delta_{\rho}(A, B) = \sum_{x, y} xy \left[\operatorname{Re} \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A_x B_y \right) - \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A_x \right) \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho B_y \right) \right]$$
(3.3)

and

$$\Delta_{\rho}(A) = \sum_{x,y} xy \left[\operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A_x A_y \right) - \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A_x \right) \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A_y \right) \right]$$
(3.4)

We also have by (2.4) that

$$\operatorname{tr}\left(\rho\left[\widetilde{A}, \widetilde{B}\right]\right) = 2i\operatorname{Im}\operatorname{tr}\left(\rho\widetilde{A}\widetilde{B}\right) = 2i\operatorname{Im}\operatorname{tr}\left(\rho\sum_{x,y} xyA_{x}B_{y}\right)$$
$$= 2i\sum_{x,y} xy\operatorname{Im}\operatorname{tr}\left(\rho A_{x}B_{y}\right)$$
(3.5)

Substituting \widetilde{A} , \widetilde{B} for A, B in Theorem 2.2 gives an uncertainty principle for real-valued observables.

Two observables *A*, *B* are *compatible* (or *jointly measurable*) if there exists a *joint observable* $C_{(x,y)}$, $(x, y) \in \Omega_A \times \Omega_B$, such that $A_x = \sum_y C_{(x,y)}$, $B_y = \sum_x C_{(x,y)}$ for all $x \in \Omega_A$, $y \in \Omega_B$. If $[A_x, B_y] = 0$ for all x, y, then *A*, *B* are compatible with $C_{(x,y)} = A_x B_y$ for all

 $(x, y) \in \Omega_A \times \Omega_B$. However, if *A*, *B* are compatible, they need not commute [4]. If *A*, *B* are compatible real-valued observables, then

$$\widetilde{A} = \sum_{x} x A_{x} = \sum_{x,y} x C_{(x,y)}$$
$$\widetilde{B} = \sum_{y} y B_{y} = \sum_{x,y} y C_{(x,y)}$$

Using (3.2), (3.3), (3.4), (3.5) we can write $\operatorname{Cor}_{\rho}(A, B), \Delta_{\rho}(A, B), \Delta_{\rho}(A), \Delta_{\rho}(B)$ and tr $\left(\rho\left[\widetilde{A}, \widetilde{B}\right]\right)$ in terms of $C_{(x,y)}$. Hence, we can express the uncertainty principle in terms of $C_{(x,y)}$.

If $A = \{A_x : x \in \Omega_A\}$ is a real-valued observable, then \widetilde{A} has spectral decomposition $\widetilde{A} = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i P_i$ where $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$ are the distinct eigenvalues of \widetilde{A} and P_i are projections with $\sum P_i = I$. We call $\widehat{A} = \{P_i : i = 1, 2, ..., n\}$ the *sharp version* of A. Then \widehat{A} is a real-valued observable with outcome space $\Omega_{\widehat{A}} = \{\lambda_i : i = 1, 2, ..., n\}$ and $P_{\lambda_i} = P_i$. Since $(\widehat{A})^{\sim} = \widetilde{A}$, A and \widehat{A} have the same stochastic operator. It follows that $\langle A \rangle_{\rho} = \langle \widehat{A} \rangle_{\rho}$, $\Delta_{\rho}(A) = \Delta_{\rho}(\widehat{A}, \widehat{B})$.

Lemma 3.1 The following statements are equivalent. (i) $\widehat{A} = \widehat{B}$. (ii) $\widetilde{A} = \widetilde{B}$. (iii) $\langle A \rangle_{\rho} = \langle B \rangle_{\rho}$ for all $\rho \in \mathcal{S}(H)$.

Proof (i) \Rightarrow (ii) If $\widehat{A} = \widehat{B}$ then

$$\widetilde{A} = (\widehat{A})^{\sim} = (\widehat{B})^{\sim} = \widetilde{B}$$

(ii) \Rightarrow (iii) If $\widetilde{A} = \widetilde{B}$ then

$$\langle A \rangle_{\rho} = \langle \widetilde{A} \rangle_{\rho} = \langle \widetilde{B} \rangle_{\rho} = \langle B \rangle_{\rho}$$

(iii) \Rightarrow (i) If $\langle A \rangle_{\rho} = \langle B \rangle_{\rho}$ for all $\rho \in \mathcal{S}(H)$, then $\langle \widetilde{A} \rangle_{\rho} = \langle \widetilde{B} \rangle_{\rho}$ for all $\rho \in \mathcal{S}(H)$. It follows that $\widehat{A} = \widehat{B}$.

Let $\widetilde{A} = \sum x A_x = \sum \lambda_i P_i$ so $\widehat{A} = \{P_i : i = 1, 2, ..., n\}$ is a sharp version of A. Let $B = \{B_x : x \in \Omega_A\}$ be the real-valued observable given by $B_x = \sum_{i=1}^n P_i A_x P_i$. We conclude that A and B have the same sharp version because

$$\widetilde{B} = \sum_{x} x B_{x} = \sum_{i} P_{i} \sum_{x} x A_{x} P_{i} = \sum_{i} P_{i} \widetilde{A} P_{i} = \sum_{i} P_{i} \sum_{j} \lambda_{j} P_{j} P_{i}$$
$$= \sum_{i,j} \lambda_{i} P_{i} P_{j} P_{i} = \sum_{i} \lambda_{i} P_{i} = \widetilde{A}$$

so by Lemma 3.1, $\widehat{A} = \widehat{B}$. We say that *B* is a *conjugate* of *A*. Letting $C_{ix} = P_i A_x P_i$, we have that

$$\{C_{ix}: i=1,2,\ldots,n, x\in\Omega_A\}$$

is an observable and $\sum_{i} C_{ix} = B_x$, $\sum_{x} C_{ix} = P_i$. It follows that *B* and \widehat{A} are compatible with joint observable $\{C_{ix}\}$. We say that an observable $A = \{A_x : x \in \Omega_A\}$ is *commutative* if $[A_x, A_y] = 0$ for all $x, y \in \Omega_A$. Notice that if *A* is sharp, then *A* is commutative. However, there are many unsharp observables that are commutative.

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Theorem 3.2 If A is commutative, then B is conjugate to A if and only if B = A.

Proof If A is commutative, we show that A is conjugate to A. Since

$$\widehat{A} = \sum x A_x = \sum \lambda_i P_i$$

we have that $[\widehat{A}, A_x] = 0$ for all $x \in \Omega_A$. By the spectral theorem, $[A_x, P_i] = 0$ for all x, iso $A_x = \sum P_i A_x P_i$. Therefore, A is conjugate to A. Conversely, suppose A is commutative and B is conjugate to A. Then $B_x = \sum_i P_i A_x P_i$ for all $x \in \Omega_A$. As before, we have that $[\widehat{A}_x, A_x] = 0$ for all $x \in \Omega_A$ so $[A_x, P_i] = 0$ for all x, i. Hence,

$$B_x = \sum_i P_i A_x P_i = A_x \sum_i P_i = A_x$$

for all $x \in \Omega_B = \Omega_A$ so B = A.

Thus, nontrivial conjugates only occur in the nonclassical case where A is noncommutative.

4 More Examples

This section illustrates the theory in Sections 2 and 3 with two examples.

Example 3 A two outcome observable is called a dichotomic observable. Of course, a dichotomic observable is commutative but it need not be sharp. Let $A = \{A_1, I - A_1\}$ be a dichotomic observable with $\Omega_A = \{1, -1\}$. Then

$$\begin{split} \widehat{A} &= A_1 - (I - A_1) = 2A_1 - I \\ \langle A \rangle_\rho &= \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho \widetilde{A} \right) = \operatorname{tr} \left[\rho (2A_1 - I) \right] = 2 \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A_1 \right) - 1 \\ D_\rho(A) &= \widetilde{A} - \langle A \rangle_\rho I = 2A_1 - I - 2 \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A_1 \right) I + I = 2 \left[A_1 - \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A_1 \right) I \right] \end{split}$$

If $B = \{B_1, I - B_1\}$ is another dichotomic observable with $\Omega_B = \{1, -1\}$, then

 $\sim \sim$

$$Cor_{\rho}(A, B) = tr(\rho AB) - \langle A \rangle_{\rho} \langle B \rangle_{\rho}$$

= tr [\rho(2A_1 - I)(2B_1 - I)] - [2 tr(\rho A_1 - 1)] [2 tr(\rho B_1 - 1)]
= tr [\rho(4A_1B_1 - 2A_1 - 2B_1 + I)] - 4 tr(\rho A_1)tr(\rho B_1)
+ 2 tr(\rho A_1) + 2 tr(\rho B_1) - 1
= 4 [tr(\rho A_1B_1) - tr(\rho A_1)tr(\rho B_1)] (4.1)

Hence,

$$\Delta_{\rho}(A, B) = 4 \left[\operatorname{Re} \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A_1 B_1 \right) - \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A_1 \right) \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho B_1 \right) \right]$$

and

$$\Delta_{\rho}(A) = \Delta_{\rho}(A, A) = 4 \left[\text{tr} \left(\rho A_{1}^{2} \right) - \left(\text{tr} \left(\rho A_{1} \right) \right)^{2} \right]$$

We also have

$$\begin{bmatrix} \widetilde{A}, \widetilde{B} \end{bmatrix} = [2A_1 - I, 2B_1 - I] = (2A_1 - I)(2B_1 - I) - (2B_1 - I)(2A_1 - I)$$
$$= 4[A_1, B_1]$$

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$$[\operatorname{Im} \operatorname{tr} (\rho A_{1} B_{1})]^{2} + [\operatorname{Re} \operatorname{tr} (\rho A_{1} B_{1}) - \operatorname{tr} (\rho A_{1}) \operatorname{tr} (\rho A_{2})]^{2}$$

= $|\operatorname{tr} (\rho A_{1} B_{1}) - \operatorname{tr} (\rho A_{1}) \operatorname{tr} (\rho B_{1})|^{2}$
 $\leq [\operatorname{tr} (\rho A_{1}^{2}) - (\operatorname{tr} (\rho A_{1}))^{2}] [\operatorname{tr} (\rho B_{1}^{2}) - (\operatorname{tr} (\rho B_{1}))^{2}]$ (4.2)

Example 4 We now consider a special case of Example 3. For $H \in \mathbb{C}^2$ we define the Pauli matrices

$$\sigma_x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \sigma_y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ -i & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \sigma_z = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Let $\mu \in [0, 1]$ and define the dichotomic observable $A = \{A_1, I - A_1\}$, where

$$A_1 = \frac{1}{2}(I + \mu\sigma_x) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \mu \\ \mu & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and $\Omega_A = \{1, -1\}$. Similarly, let $B = \{B_1, I - B_1\}$, where

$$B_1 = \frac{1}{2}(I + \mu\sigma_y) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & i\mu \\ -i\mu & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and $\Omega_B = \{1, -1\}$. We call A and B noisy spin observables along the x and y directions, respectively, with noise parameter $1 - \mu$ [7].

Any state $\rho \in S(H)$ has the form $\rho = \frac{1}{2}(I + \overrightarrow{r} \bullet \overrightarrow{\sigma})$ where $\overrightarrow{r} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ with $\|\overrightarrow{r}\| \le 1$ [1, 2]. This is called the Block sphere representation of ρ [4, 7]. The eigenvalues of ρ are $\lambda_{\pm} = \frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \|\overrightarrow{r}\|)$. Then $\lambda_{+} = 1$, $\lambda_{-} = 0$ if and only if $\|\overrightarrow{r}\| = 1$ and these are precisely the pure states. Letting $\sigma_1 = \sigma_x$, $\sigma_2 = \sigma_y$, $\sigma_3 = \sigma_z$ we obtain

$$\rho = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 + r_3 & r_1 - ir_2 \\ r_1 + ir_2 & 1 - r_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$\begin{split} \rho A_1 &= \frac{1}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 1+r_3 & r_1 - ir_2 \\ r_1 + ir_2 & 1 - r_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \mu \\ \mu & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1+r_3 + (r_1 - ir_2)\mu & (1+r_3)\mu + r_1 - ir_2 \\ (1-r_3)\mu + r_1 + ir_2 & 1 - r_3 + (r_1 + ir_2)\mu \end{bmatrix} \end{split}$$

Hence, tr $(\rho A_1) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + r_1\mu)$ and as in Example 3, $\langle A \rangle_{\rho} = r_1\mu$. Similarly, tr $(\rho B_1) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + r_2\mu)$ and $\langle B \rangle_{\rho} = r_2\mu$. We also obtain

tr
$$(\rho A_1 B_1) = \frac{1}{4} \left[1 + (r_1 + r_2)\mu + ir_2\mu^2 \right]$$

and it follows from (4.1) that

$$\operatorname{Cor}_{\rho}(A, B) = 4 \left[\operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A_1 B_1 \right) - \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A_1 \right) \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho B_1 \right) \right]$$

= 1 + (r_1 + r_2) \mu + i r_3 \mu^2 - (1 + r_1 \mu) (1 + r_2 \mu) = -r_1 r_2 \mu^2 + i r_3 \mu^2

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Therefore, $\Delta_{\rho}(A, B) = -r_1 r_2 \mu^2$. A straightforward calculation shows that

tr
$$(\rho A_1^2) = \frac{1}{4}(1+\mu^2) + \frac{1}{2}\mu r_1$$

tr $(\rho B_1^2) = \frac{1}{4}(1+\mu^2) + \frac{1}{2}\mu r_2$

It follows that

$$\Delta_{\rho}(A) = 4 \left[\text{tr} \left(\rho A_1^2 \right) - \left(\text{tr} \left(\rho A_1 \right) \right)^2 \right] = \mu^2 (1 - r_1^2)$$

and similarly, $\Delta_{\rho}(B) = \mu^2 (1 - r_2^2)$. The commutator term in (4.2) becomes

$$[\operatorname{Im} \operatorname{tr} (\rho A_1 B_1)]^2 = \frac{1}{16} r_3^2 \mu^4$$

The covariance term in (4.2) is

$$\left[\operatorname{Re}\left(\rho A_{1}B_{1}\right) - \operatorname{tr}\left(\rho A_{1}\right)\operatorname{tr}\left(\rho B_{1}\right)\right]^{2} = \frac{1}{16}r_{1}^{2}r_{2}^{2}\mu^{4}$$

and the correlation term in (4.2) is

$$|\operatorname{tr}(\rho A_1 B_1) - \operatorname{tr}(\rho A_1) \operatorname{tr}(\rho B_1)|^2 = \frac{1}{16} (r_3^2 + r_1^2 r_2^2) \mu^4$$

Finally, the variance term in (4.2) is given by

$$\Delta_{\rho}(A_1)\Delta_{\rho}(B_1) = \frac{1}{16} (1 - r_1^2)(1 - r_2^2)\mu^4$$

The inequality in (4.2) reduces to

$$\frac{1}{16}(r_3^2 + r_1^2 + r_2^2)\mu^4 \le \frac{1}{16}(1 - r_1^2)(1 - r_2^2)\mu^4$$
(4.3)

If $\mu \neq 0$, (4.3) is equivalent to the inequality

$$\|\overrightarrow{r}\|^2 = r_1^2 + r_2^2 + r_3^2 \le 1$$

If the commutator term vanishes and $\mu \neq 0$, the uncertainty inequality becomes

$$r_1^2 r_2^2 \le (1 - r_1^2)(1 - r_2^2) \tag{4.4}$$

which is equivalent to $r_1^2 + r_2^2 \le 1$. If A and B are ρ -uncorrelated and $\mu \ne 0$, the uncertainty inequality becomes $r_3^2 \le (1 - r_1^2)(1 - r_2^2)$ which is equivalent to $\|\vec{r}\|^2 \le 1 + r_1^2 r_2^2$. This inequality and (4.4) are weaker than (4.3).

5 Real-Valued Coarse Graining

Let $A = \{A_x : x \in \Omega_A\}$ be an arbitrary observable. We assume that A is not necessarily real-valued so the outcome space Ω_A is an arbitrary finite set. For $f : \Omega_A \to \mathbb{R}$ with range $\mathcal{R}(f)$ we define the real-valued observable f(A) by $\Omega_{f(A)} = \mathcal{R}(f)$ and for all $z \in \Omega_{f(A)}$

$$f(A)_z = A_{f^{-1}(z)} = \sum \{A_x : f(x) = z\}$$

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We call f(A) a real-valued coarse graining of A [2–4]. Then f(A) has stochastic operator

$$f(A)^{\sim} = \sum_{z} zf(A)_{z} = \sum_{z} zA_{f^{-1}(z)} = \sum_{z} \sum_{x \in f^{-1}(z)} zA_{x} = \sum_{x} f(x)A_{y}$$

It follows that $\langle f(A) \rangle_{\rho} = \sum_{x} f(x) \operatorname{tr} (\rho A_{x})$ for all $\rho \in \mathcal{S}(H)$. If *B* is another observable and $g: \Omega_{B} \to \mathbb{R}$ we have

$$\operatorname{Cor}_{\rho} \left[f(A), g(B) \right] = \sum_{x, y} f(x)g(y)\operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A_{x}B_{y}\right) - \langle f(A) \rangle_{\rho} \langle g(B) \rangle_{\rho}$$
$$\Delta_{\rho} \left[f(A), g(B) \right] = \sum_{x, y} f(x)g(y)\operatorname{Re} \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A_{x}B_{y}\right) - \langle f(A) \rangle_{\rho} \langle g(B) \rangle_{\rho}$$
$$\Delta_{\rho} \left[f(A) \right] = \sum_{x, y} f(x)f(y)\operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A_{x}A_{y}\right) - \langle f(A) \rangle_{\rho}^{2}$$

Moreover, we have the uncertainty inequality

$$|\operatorname{Cor}_{\rho}[f(A), g(B)]|^2 \le \Delta_{\rho}[f(A)] \Delta_{\rho}[g(B)]$$

We denote the set of trace-class operators on H by $\mathcal{T}(H)$. An *operation* on H is a completely positive, trace reducing, linear map $\mathcal{O} : \mathcal{T}(H) \to \mathcal{T}(H)$ [1–4]. If \mathcal{O} preserves the trace, then \mathcal{O} is called a *channel*. A (finite) *instrument* is a finite set of operators $\mathcal{I} = {\mathcal{I}_x : x \in \Omega_\mathcal{I}}$ such that $\overline{\mathcal{I}} = \sum {\mathcal{I}_x : x \in \Omega_\mathcal{I}}$ is a channel [1–4]. We say that \mathcal{I} measures an observable A if $\Omega_\mathcal{I} = \Omega_A$ and tr $[\mathcal{I}_x(\rho)] = \text{tr}(\rho A_x)$ for all $x \in \Omega_\mathcal{I}$. It can be shown that \mathcal{I} measures a unique observable which we denote by $\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{I})$ [2, 3]. Conversely, any observable is measured by many instruments [1–4]. Corresponding to an operation \mathcal{O} we have its *dual-operation* $\mathcal{O}^* : \mathcal{L}(H) \to \mathcal{L}(H)$ defined by tr $[\rho \mathcal{O}^*(C)] = \text{tr}[\mathcal{O}(\rho)C]$ for all $\rho \in \mathcal{S}(H)$ [2, 3]. It can be shown that $\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{I})_x = \mathcal{I}^*_x(I)$ for all $x \in \Omega_\mathcal{I}$ where I is the identity operator [2, 3].

As with observables, if \mathcal{I} is an instrument, and $f : \Omega_{\mathcal{I}} \to \mathbb{R}$ we define the real-valued instrument $f(\mathcal{I})$ such that $\Omega_{f(\mathcal{I})} = \mathcal{R}(f)$ and

$$f(\mathcal{I})_z = \sum \{\mathcal{I}_x : f(x) = z\}$$

If $J(\mathcal{I}) = A$, then $J[f(\mathcal{I})] = f(A)$ because

$$\operatorname{tr}\left[f(\mathcal{I})_{z}(\rho)\right] = \operatorname{tr}\left[\sum \left\{\mathcal{I}_{x}(\rho) : f(x) = z\right\}\right] = \sum \left\{\operatorname{tr}\left[\mathcal{I}_{x}(\rho)\right] : f(x) = z\right\}$$
$$= \sum \left\{\operatorname{tr}\left(\rho A_{x}\right) : f(x) = z\right\} = \operatorname{tr}\left[\rho \sum \left\{A_{x} : f(x) = z\right\}\right]$$
$$= \operatorname{tr}\left[\rho f(A)_{z}\right]$$

for all $z \in \Omega_{f(A)} = \Omega_{f(\mathcal{I})}$. If \mathcal{I} is real-valued, we define $\widetilde{\mathcal{I}}$ on $\mathcal{L}(H)$ by $\widetilde{\mathcal{I}}(C) = \sum x \mathcal{I}_x(C)$ and $\langle \mathcal{I} \rangle_{\rho} = \text{tr } [\widetilde{\mathcal{I}}(\rho)]$. If $J(\mathcal{I}) = A$, then

$$\langle \mathcal{I} \rangle_{\rho} = \operatorname{tr} \left[\sum x \mathcal{I}_{x}(\rho) \right] = \sum x \operatorname{tr} \left[\mathcal{I}_{x}(\rho) \right] = \sum x \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A_{x} \right) = \langle A \rangle_{\rho}$$

for all $\rho \in \mathcal{S}(H)$. We also define $\Delta_{\rho}(\mathcal{I}) = \Delta_{\rho}(A)$. It follows that $\langle f(\mathcal{I}) \rangle_{\rho} = \langle f(A) \rangle_{\rho}$, $\Delta_{\rho} [f(\mathcal{I})] = \Delta_{\rho} [f(A)]$ and $f(\mathcal{I})^{\sim} = \sum f(x)\mathcal{I}_{x}$. Let $A = \{A_x : x \in \Omega_A\}, B = \{B_y : y \in \Omega_B\}$ be arbitrary observables and suppose \mathcal{I} is an instrument with $J(\mathcal{I}) = A$. Define the \mathcal{I} -product observable $A \circ B$ with $\Omega_{A \circ B} = \Omega_A \times \Omega_B$ given by $(A \circ B)_{(x,y)} = \mathcal{I}_x(B_y)$ [2, 3]. Then $A \circ B$ is indeed an observable because

$$\sum_{x,y} (A \circ B)_{(x,y)} = \sum_{x,y} \mathcal{I}_x^*(B_y) = \sum_x \mathcal{I}_x^*\left(\sum_y B_y\right) = \sum_x \mathcal{I}_x^*(I) = \sum_x A_x = I$$

Although $A \circ B$ depends on \mathcal{I} , we shall not indicate this for simplicity. We interpret $A \circ B$ as the observable obtained by first measuring A using \mathcal{I} and then measuring B. If $f : \Omega_A \times \Omega_B \to \mathbb{R}$ we obtain the real-valued observable $f(A, B) = f(A \circ B)$. We then have

$$\begin{split} f(A, B)_{z} &= (A \circ B)_{f^{-1}(z)} = \sum \left\{ (A \circ B)_{(x,y)} : f(x, y) = z \right\} \\ &= \sum \left\{ \mathcal{I}_{x}^{*}(B_{y}) : f(x, y) = z \right\} \\ f(A, B)^{\sim} &= \sum_{x,y} f(x, y)(A \circ B)_{(x,y)} = \sum_{x,y} f(x, y)\mathcal{I}_{x}^{*}(B_{y}) \\ \langle f(A, B) \rangle_{\rho} &= \sum_{x,y} f(x, y) \text{tr} \left[\rho(A \circ B)_{(x,y)} \right] = \sum_{x,y} f(x, y) \text{tr} \left[\rho \mathcal{I}_{x}^{*}(B_{y}) \right] \\ \Delta_{\rho} \left[f(A, B) \right] &= \sum_{x,y,x',y'} f(x, y) f(x', y') \text{tr} \left[\rho(A \circ B)_{(x,y)} (A \circ B)_{(x',y')} \right] - \langle f(A, B) \rangle_{\rho}^{2} \\ &= \text{tr} \left\{ \rho \left[\sum_{x,y} f(x, y) \mathcal{I}_{x}^{*}(B_{y}) \right]^{2} \right\} - \langle f(A, B) \rangle_{\rho}^{2} \end{split}$$

If f is a product function f(x, y) = g(x)h(y) we obtain

$$f(A, B)_z = \sum_z \left\{ \mathcal{I}_x^*(B_y) : g(x)h(y) = z \right\}$$

We then have the simplification

$$f(A, B)^{\sim} = \sum_{x, y} g(x)h(y)\mathcal{I}_{x}^{*}(B_{y}) = \sum_{x} g_{x}\mathcal{I}_{x}^{*}\left(\sum_{y} h(y)B_{y}\right)$$
$$= \sum_{x} g(x)\mathcal{I}_{x}^{*}\left[h(B)^{\sim}\right]$$

Hence,

$$\langle f(A,B) \rangle_{\rho} = \operatorname{tr} \left[\rho f(A,B)^{\sim} \right] = \operatorname{tr} \left\{ \rho \sum_{x} g(x) \mathcal{I}_{x}^{*} \left[h(B)^{\sim} \right] \right\}$$
$$= \sum_{x} g(x) \operatorname{tr} \left\{ \rho \mathcal{I}_{x}^{*} \left[h(B)^{\sim} \right] \right\} = \sum_{x} g(x) \operatorname{tr} \left\{ \mathcal{I}_{x}(\rho) \left[h(B)^{\sim} \right] \right\}$$
$$= \operatorname{tr} \left\{ \sum_{x} g(x) \mathcal{I}_{x}(\rho) \left[h(B)^{\sim} \right] \right\} = \operatorname{tr} \left\{ g(\mathcal{I})^{\sim}(\rho) \left[h(B)^{\sim} \right] \right\}$$

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In a similar way we obtain

$$\Delta_{\rho}\left[f(A,B)\right] = \operatorname{tr}\left\{\left(g(\mathcal{I})^{\sim}(\rho)\left[h(B)^{\sim}\right]\right)^{2}\right\} - \langle f(A,B)\rangle_{\rho}^{2}$$

If A and B are arbitrary observables, we define the observable B conditioned by A to be

$$(B \mid A)_y = \mathcal{I}^*_{\Omega_A}(B_y) = \sum_{x \in \Omega_A} \mathcal{I}^*_x(B_y)$$

where $\Omega_{B|A} = \Omega_B$ [2, 3]. We interpret ($B \mid A$) as the observable obtained by first measuring A without taking the outcome into account and then measuring B. If B is real-valued we have

$$(B \mid A)^{\sim} = \sum_{y} y(B \mid A)_{y} = \sum_{x,y} y\mathcal{I}_{x}^{*}(B_{y}) = \mathcal{I}_{\Omega(A)}^{*}(\widetilde{B})$$
$$\langle (B \mid A) \rangle_{\rho} = \sum_{y} y \operatorname{tr} \left[\rho \mathcal{I}_{\Omega(A)}^{*}(B_{y}) \right] = \sum y \operatorname{tr} \left[\overline{\mathcal{I}}(\rho) B_{y} \right] = \operatorname{tr} \left[\overline{\mathcal{I}}(\rho) \widetilde{B} \right] = \langle B \rangle_{\overline{\mathcal{I}}(\rho)}$$
$$\Delta_{\rho} \left[(B \mid A) \right] = \Delta_{\rho} \left[(B \mid A)^{\sim} \right] = \Delta_{\rho} \left[\mathcal{I}_{\Omega(A)}^{*}(\widetilde{B}) \right] = \operatorname{tr} \left\{ \left[\mathcal{I}_{\Omega(A)}^{*}(\widetilde{B}) \right]^{2} \right\} - \left[\langle B \rangle_{\overline{\mathcal{I}}(\rho)} \right]^{2}$$

We now illustrate the theory of this section with some examples.

Example 5 The simplest example of an instrument is a trivial instrument $\mathcal{I}_x(\rho) = \omega(x)\rho$ where ω is a probability measure on the finite set $\Omega_{\mathcal{I}}$. It is clear that \mathcal{I} measures the trivial observable $A_x = \omega(x)I$. Let B be an arbitrary observable and let $f : \Omega_A \times \Omega_B \to \mathbb{R}$. We then have

$$(A \circ B)_{(x,y)} = \mathcal{I}_x^*(B_y) = \omega(x)B_y$$

$$f(A, B)_z = f(A \circ B)_z = \sum \left\{ \omega(x)B_y : f(x, y) = z \right\}$$

We conclude that

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$$f(A, B)^{\sim} = \sum_{x, y} f(x, y)\omega(x)B_{y}$$
$$\langle f(A, B) \rangle_{\rho} = \sum_{x, y} f(x, y)\omega(x)\operatorname{tr}(\rho B_{y})$$
$$\Delta_{\rho} [f(A, B))] = \operatorname{tr}\left\{\rho \left[\sum_{x, y} f(x, y)\omega(x)B_{y}\right]^{2}\right\} - \langle f(A, B) \rangle_{\rho}^{2}$$

Moreover, since

$$(B \mid A)_y = \sum_x \mathcal{I}_x^*(B_y) = \sum_x \omega(x)(B_y) = B_y$$

we have that $(B \mid A) = B$.

Example 6 Let $A = \{A_x : x \in \Omega_A\}$ and $B = \{B_y : y \in \Omega_B\}$ be arbitrary observables and let $\mathcal{H}_x(\rho) = \text{tr}(\rho A_x)\alpha_x, \alpha_x \in \mathcal{S}(H)$ be a Holevo instrument [2, 3]. Then \mathcal{H} measure A because

tr
$$[\mathcal{H}_x(\rho)] =$$
tr $[tr (\rho A_x)\alpha_x] =$ tr (ρA_x)

Since $\mathcal{H}_{x}^{*}(a) = \operatorname{tr} (\alpha_{x} a) A_{x}$ for all $x \in \Omega_{A}$ [2, 3], we have

$$(A \circ B)_{(x,y)} = \mathcal{H}_x^*(B_y) = \operatorname{tr}(\alpha_x B_y) A_x$$

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If $f: \Omega_A \times \Omega_B \to \mathbb{R}$, we obtain the real-valued observable

$$f(A, B)_z = \sum \left\{ \operatorname{tr} (\alpha_x B_y) A_x : f(x, y) = z \right\}$$

We conclude that

$$f(A, B)_{z} = \sum_{x,y} f(x, y)\mathcal{H}_{x}^{*}(B_{y}) = \sum_{x,y} f(x, y)\operatorname{tr}(\alpha_{x}B_{y})A_{x}$$
$$\langle f(A, B) \rangle_{\rho} = \sum_{x,y} f(x, y)\operatorname{tr}(\alpha_{x}B_{y})\operatorname{tr}(\rho A_{x})$$
$$\Delta_{\rho} [f(A, B)] = \sum_{x,y,x',y'} f(x, y)f(x', y')\operatorname{tr} \left[\rho \operatorname{tr}(\alpha_{x}B_{y})A_{x}\operatorname{tr}(\alpha_{x'}B_{y'})A_{x'}\right]$$
$$-\langle f(A, B) \rangle_{\rho}^{2}$$
$$= \operatorname{tr} \left\{ \rho \left[\sum_{x,y} f(x, y)\operatorname{tr}(\alpha_{x}B_{y})A_{x} \right]^{2} \right\} - \langle f(A, B) \rangle_{\rho}^{2}$$

Moreover, we have

$$(B \mid A)_y = \sum_x \mathcal{H}_x^*(B_y) = \sum_x \operatorname{tr} (\alpha_x B_y) A_x \qquad \Box$$

Example 7 Let A, B be arbitrary observables and let \mathcal{L} be the Lüders instrument given by $\mathcal{L}_x(\rho) = A_x^{1/2} \rho A_x^{1/2}$ [2, 3, 6]. Then

tr
$$[\mathcal{L}_x(\rho)]$$
 = tr $(A_x^{1/2}\rho A_x^{1/2})$ = tr (ρA_x)

so \mathcal{L} measures A. Since $\mathcal{L}_x^*(a) = A_x^{1/2} a A_x^{1/2}$ [2, 3] we have

$$(A \circ B)_{(x,y)} = A_x^{1/2} B_y A_x^{1/2}$$

If $f: \Omega_A \times \Omega_B \to \mathbb{R}$, we obtain the real-valued observable

$$f(A, B)_{z} = \sum \left\{ A_{x}^{1/2} B_{y} A_{x}^{1/2} : f(x, y) = z \right\}$$

We conclude that

$$f(A, B)^{\sim} = \sum_{x, y} f(x, y) A_x^{1/2} B_y A_x^{1/2}$$

$$\langle f(A, B) \rangle_{\rho} = \sum_{x, y} f(x, y) \operatorname{tr} \left(\rho A_x^{1/2} B_y A_x^{1/2}\right) = \sum_{x, y} f(x, y) \operatorname{tr} \left(A_x^{1/2} \rho A_x^{1/2} B_y\right)$$

$$\Delta_{\rho} \left[f(A, B)\right] = \operatorname{tr} \left\{ \rho \left[\sum_{x, y} f(x, y) A_x^{1/2} B_y A_x^{1/2} \right]^2 \right\} - \langle f(A, B) \rangle_{\rho}^2$$

Moreover, we have

$$(B \mid A)_{y} = \sum_{x} \mathcal{L}_{x}^{*}(B_{y}) = \sum_{x} A_{x}^{1/2} B_{y} A_{x}^{1/2} \qquad \Box$$

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