

Title: Differences between quantum and generalised non-locality

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Abstract: TBA

Differences between quantum and generalised non-locality



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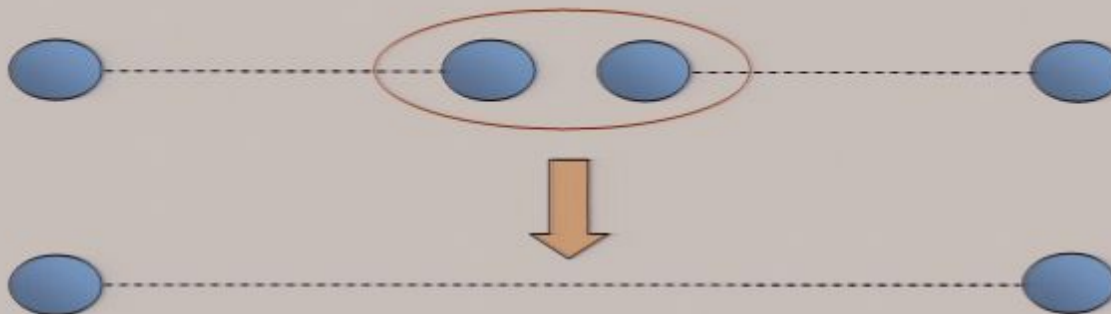
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Contrasting quantum and generalised non-locality

- Non-local computation (with N.Linden, A.Winter, and S.Popescu)



- Joint measurements and non-locality swapping (with J.Barrett)



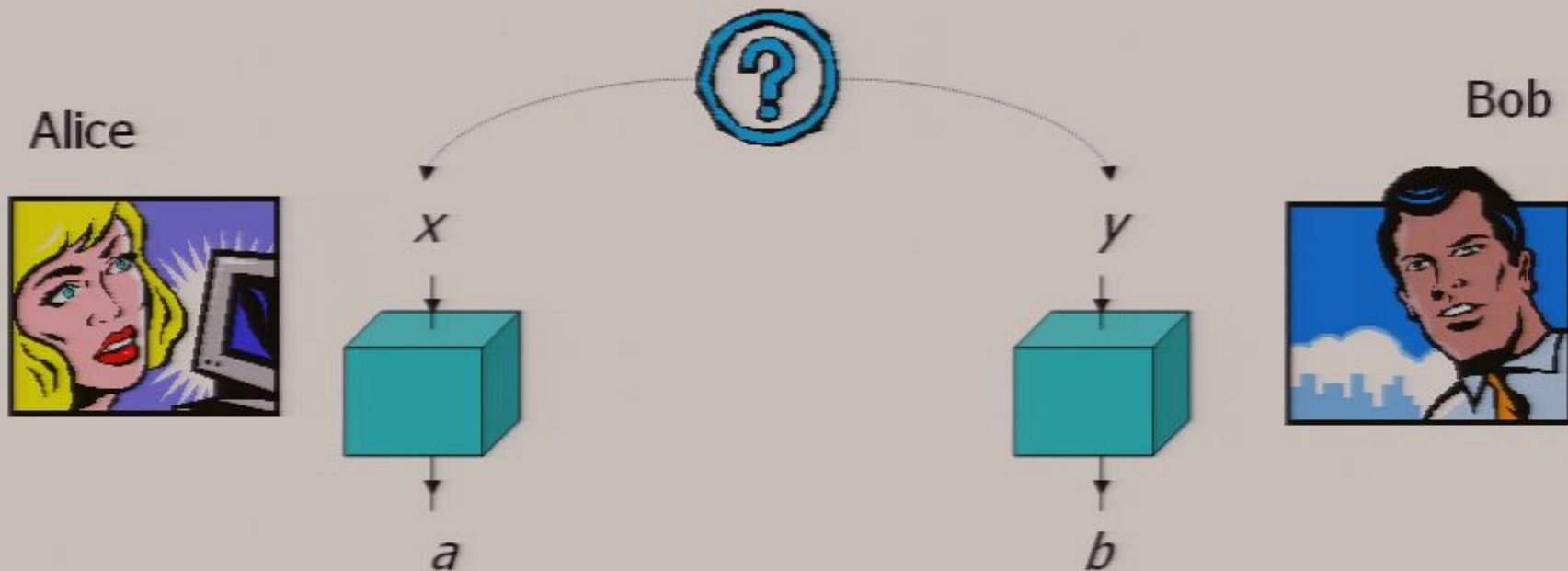
Non-local computation



Non-local computation: Overview

- An elementary non-local task
 - Success probability bounds:
 - Classical (\Rightarrow CHSH inequality)
 - Quantum (\Rightarrow Tsirelson inequality)
 - Generalised non-locality
- Non-local Computation
 - Success probability bounds
 - Example: nonlocal-AND
 - Extensions.
- Conclusions

An elementary non-local task.



Alice and Bob are set the following challenge: Given random input bits (x, y) , they must generate output bits (a, b) such that

$$a \oplus b = xy$$

What is their maximum probability of success?

Computing the success probability

- The average probability of success in this task is given by

$$\begin{aligned} P_{\text{success}} &= \sum_{xy} P(x, y) P(a_x \oplus b_y = xy) \\ &= \sum_{xy} \frac{1}{4} \left\langle \frac{1 + (-1)^{a_x + b_y + xy}}{2} \right\rangle \end{aligned}$$

Writing $A_x = (-1)^{a_x}$ and $B_y = (-1)^{b_y}$,

$$P_{\text{success}} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} (\langle A_0 B_0 \rangle + \langle A_0 B_1 \rangle + \langle A_1 B_0 \rangle - \langle A_1 B_1 \rangle)$$

Maximal success probability: Classical

- The success probability for classical strategies is bounded by the Clauser-Horne-Shimony-Holt (CHSH) inequality:

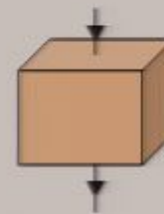
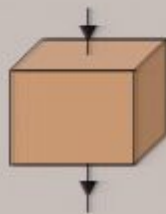
$$\langle A_0 B_0 \rangle + \langle A_0 B_1 \rangle + \langle A_1 B_0 \rangle - \langle A_1 B_1 \rangle \leq 2$$

Which gives

$$\max P_{\text{success}}^C = \frac{3}{4}$$

e.g.

x	a
0	0
1	0



y	b
0	0
1	0

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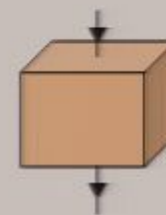
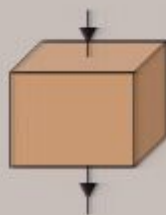
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e.g.

x	a
0	0
1	0



y	b
0	0
1	0

Maximal success probability: Quantum

- If Alice and Bob share an entangled state, they can use it to generate *non-local correlations*:

$$P(a, b \mid x, y) \neq \sum_i P(i) P(a \mid x, i) P(b \mid y, i)$$

Their success probability is bounded by the Tsirelson inequality:

$$\langle A_0 B_0 \rangle + \langle A_0 B_1 \rangle + \langle A_1 B_0 \rangle - \langle A_1 B_1 \rangle \leq 2\sqrt{2}$$

Which gives

$$\max P_{\text{success}}^Q = \frac{2 + \sqrt{2}}{4}$$

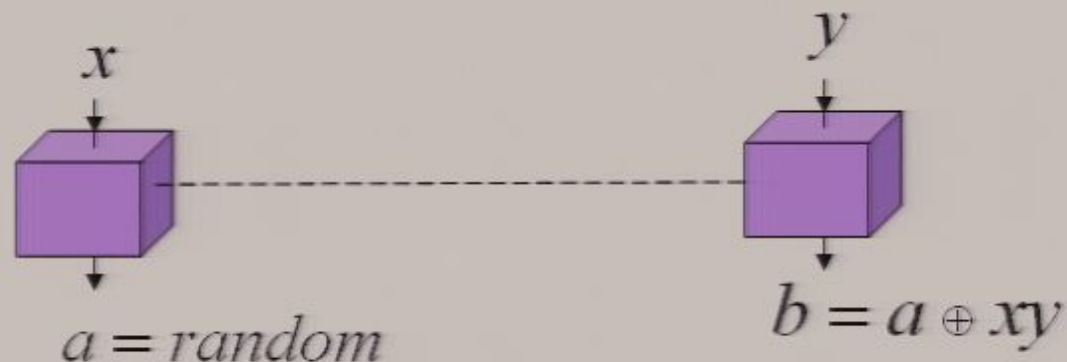
Maximal success probability: Generalised non-locality

- Now consider generalised non-local correlations, where any $P(a,b|x,y)$ is allowed that does not allow signalling between Alice and Bob.

With such super-strong non-local correlations

$$\max P_{\text{success}}^G = 1$$

e.g.



A hierarchy of success probabilities

- Bell and Tsirelson inequalities can be understood as bounds on the maximal success probability in non-local tasks.
- In this particular non-local task, the maximal success probability increases with the amount of attainable non-locality:

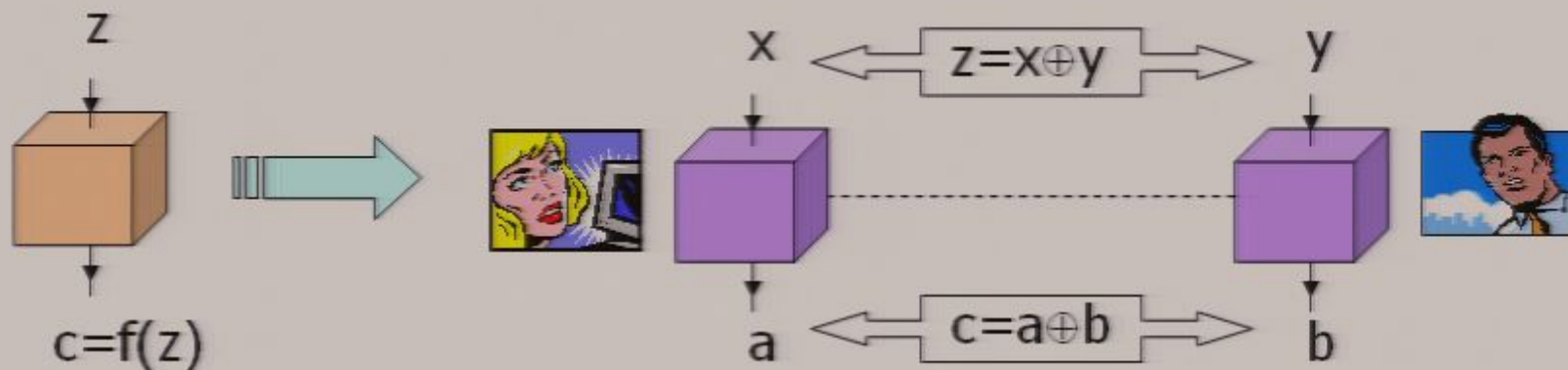
Greater non-locality \Rightarrow Greater success probability

$$\max P_{\text{success}}^C < \max P_{\text{success}}^Q < \max P_{\text{success}}^G$$

- Is this a feature of *all* non-local tasks?

Non-local Computation

- Consider the non-local computation of a Boolean function $c=f(z)$ from n bits ($z=z_1z_2\dots z_n$) to 1 bit, in which each party individually learns nothing about c or z .



Given random input bit strings (x, y) , Alice and Bob must generate output bits (a, b) such that

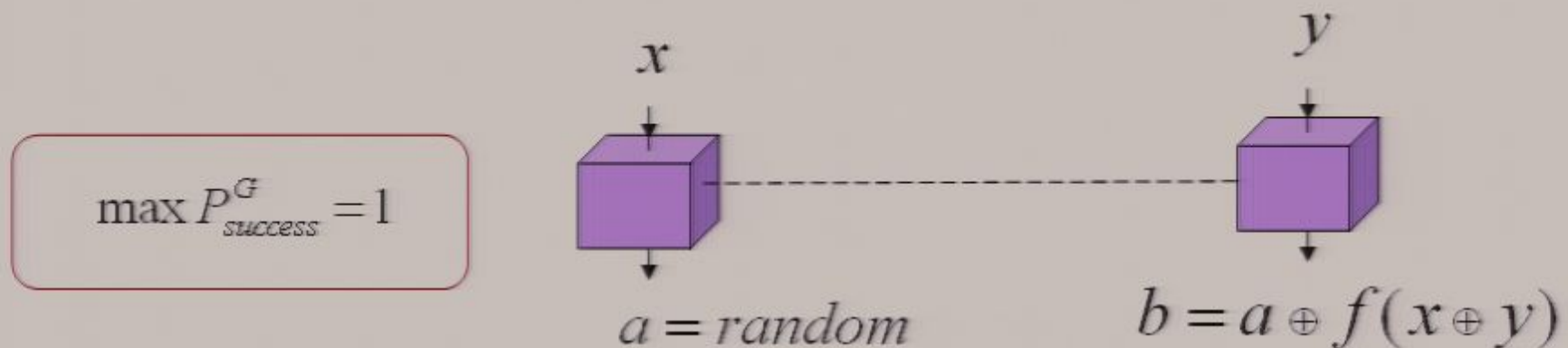
$$a \oplus b = f(x \oplus y)$$

Maximal success probabilities: Generalised non-locality.

- We allow an arbitrary probability distribution $P_{in}(z)$ of logical inputs $z = x \oplus y$, although x and y individually remain maximally random so that Alice and Bob cannot learn z . Hence

$$P(x, y) = \frac{P_{in}(x \oplus y)}{2^n}$$

- As before, generalised non-locality allows perfect success:



Maximal success probabilities: Quantum

- When Alice and Bob share a quantum state, their success probability is given by

$$\begin{aligned} P_{\text{success}} &= \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \sum_{xy} P(x, y) (-1)^{\hat{a}_x + \hat{b}_y + f(x \oplus y)} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (1 + \langle \alpha | \mathbf{1} \otimes \Phi | \beta \rangle) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} |\alpha\rangle &= 2^{-n/2} \sum_x (-1)^{\hat{a}_x} |\psi\rangle \otimes |x\rangle \\ |\beta\rangle &= 2^{-n/2} \sum_y (-1)^{\hat{b}_y} |\psi\rangle \otimes |y\rangle \\ \Phi &= \sum_{xy} (-1)^{f(x \oplus y)} P_{in}(x \oplus y) |x\rangle \langle y| \end{aligned}$$

Maximal success probabilities: Quantum

This means that the quantum success probability is bounded by

$$P_{success}^Q \leq \frac{1}{2} (1 + \|\Phi\|)$$

Φ has eigenstates $|u\rangle = \sum_x (-1)^{u \cdot x} |x\rangle$

with eigenvalues $\varphi_u = \sum_z (-1)^{f(z) + u \cdot z} P_{in}(z)$ hence

$$\max P_{success}^Q = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \max_u \left| \sum_z (-1)^{f(z) + u \cdot z} P_{in}(z) \right| \right)$$

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Maximal success probabilities: Classical

- Surprisingly, the same maximal success probability can be attained by adopting a classical strategy:



giving

$$\max P_{\text{success}}^C = \max_{u, \delta} \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \sum_z (-1)^{f(z) + u \cdot z + \delta} P_{\text{in}}(z) \right) = \max P_{\text{success}}^Q$$

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Non-local Computation: Summary

- For all non-local computations with a single output bit, where Alice and Bob must jointly compute $c=f(z_1, z_2 \dots z_n)$ without individually learning c or z , **quantum non-locality is useless**:

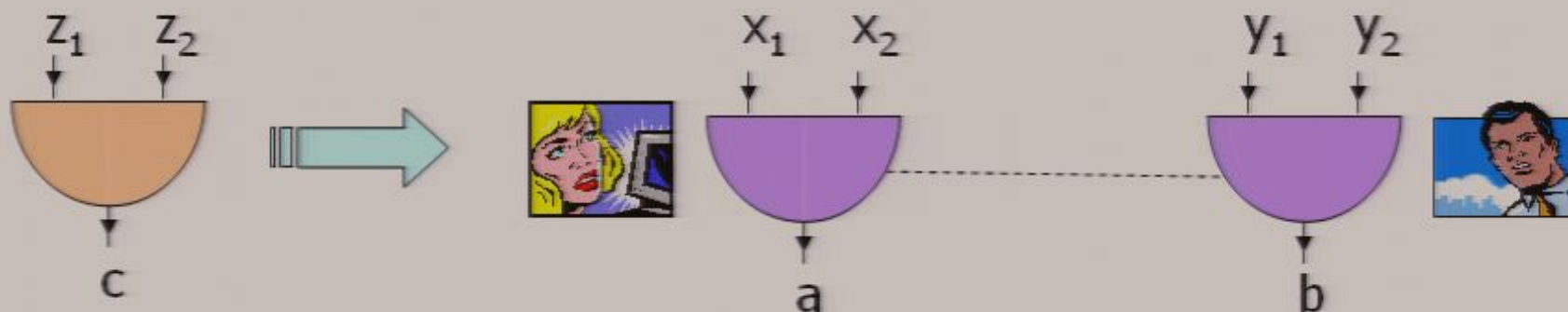
Greater non-locality $\not\Rightarrow$ Greater success probability

$$\max P_{\text{success}}^C = \max P_{\text{success}}^Q \leq \max P_{\text{success}}^G$$

- Note that each choice of $f(z)$ and $P_{\text{in}}(z)$ also corresponds to a pair of identical Bell and Tsirelson inequalities.

Example: Nonlocal-AND

As a simple example, consider the non-local version of AND



$$c = z_1 z_2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad (a \oplus b) = (x_1 \oplus y_1)(x_2 \oplus y_2)$$

For maximally random inputs ($P_{\text{in}}(z)=1/4$), we obtain:

$$\max P_{\text{success}}^C = \frac{3}{4} = \max P_{\text{success}}^Q = \frac{3}{4} < \max P_{\text{success}}^G = 1$$

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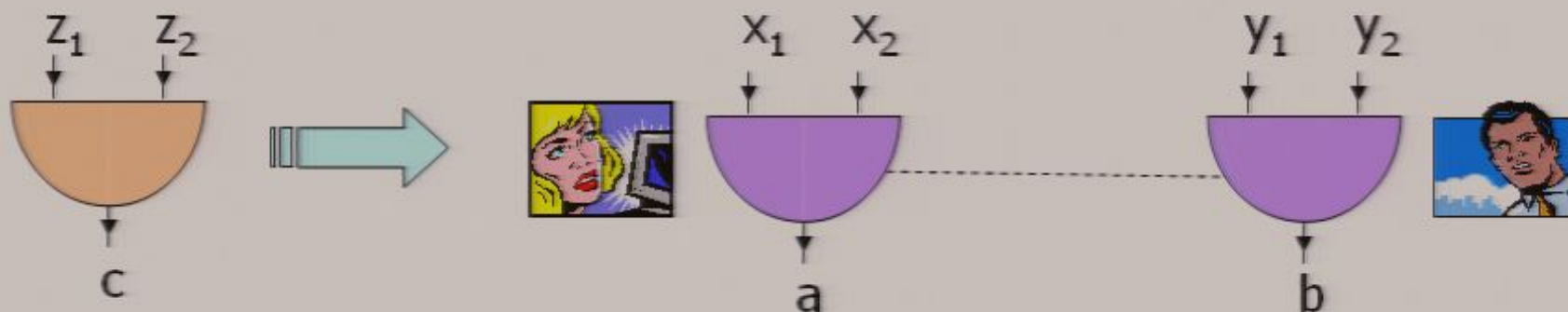


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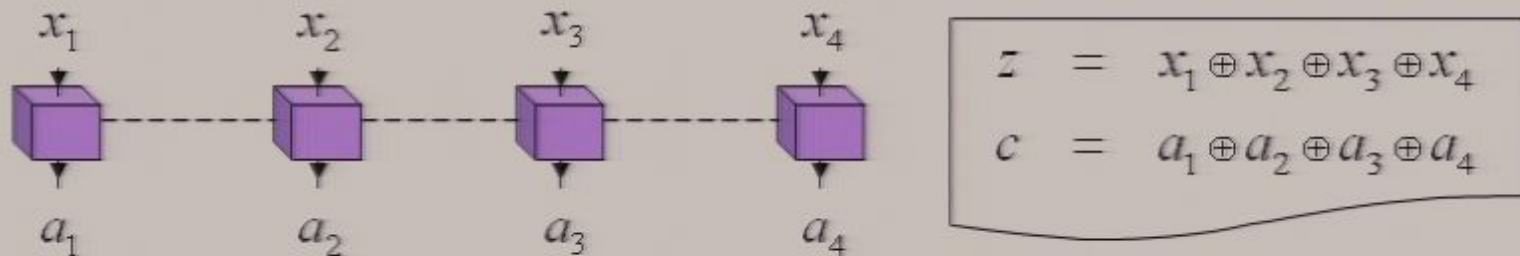
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Non-local computation: Extensions

- These results also extend to further cases:

- Non-local computations by any number of parties:



- Non-local computations with multiple output bits where strategies are scored according to the number of correct bits.
- Other non-local tasks requiring $a \oplus b = f(x, y)$, for which

$$\Phi' = \sum_{xy} (-1)^{f(x,y)} P(x, y) |x\rangle\langle y|$$

has a maximal-eigenvalue eigenstate $|u\rangle = \sum_x (-1)^{u \cdot x} |x\rangle$

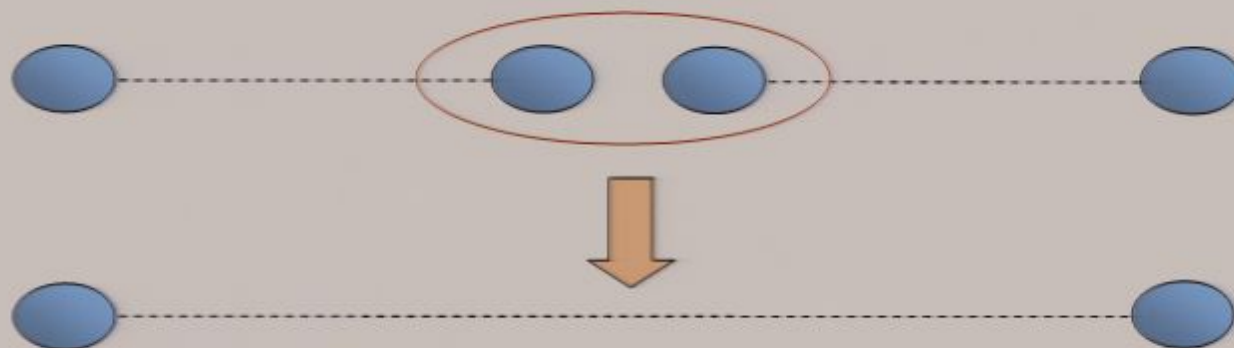
Distributed Computation: Conclusions

- Non-local computation provides a natural class of tasks in which generalised non-local correlations allow perfect success, yet quantum non-locality is useless.

$$\max P_{success}^C = \max P_{success}^Q < \max P_{success}^G$$

- Do all non-quantum non-local correlations help in some non-local computation?

Joint measurements and non-locality swapping

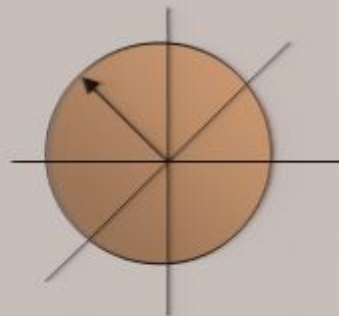


Joint measurements and non-locality swapping: Overview

- A general framework for probabilistic theories.
 - Representing states
 - The no-signalling condition
 - Generalised Non-Signalling Mechanics (GNSM)
 - Representing measurements
- Measurements in GNSM
 - Limitation to post-selected fiducial measurements
 - Impossibility of 'swapping' non-locality
- Conclusions

Representing quantum states as probability vectors

- Instead of representing quantum states as density matrices, we take a more operational approach (Hardy, Barrett):
 - A state is completely represented by a vector $P(a|x)$ of outcome probabilities (a) for some set of *fiducial* measurements (x).
 - E.g. For a single qubit, we might choose $\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z$ as fiducial measurements



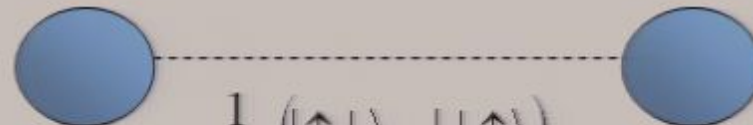
$$\underline{P} = \begin{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} P(+1 | \sigma_x) \\ P(-1 | \sigma_x) \end{pmatrix} \\ \begin{pmatrix} P(+1 | \sigma_y) \\ P(-1 | \sigma_y) \end{pmatrix} \\ \begin{pmatrix} P(+1 | \sigma_z) \\ P(-1 | \sigma_z) \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}$$

- This framework can be used to express quantum, classical and more general theories, allowing comparisons between them.

Multipartite systems

- The state of a multipartite system can be given by specifying the output probabilities for every combination of fiducial measurements on the subsystems (I.e. $P(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{x}) = P(a_1 \dots a_n | x_1 \dots x_n)$)

e.g. The singlet state



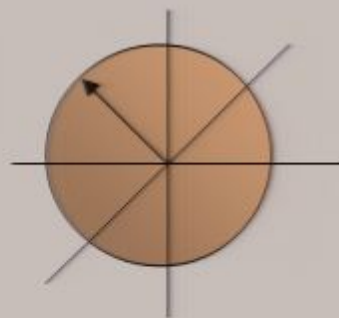
$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\uparrow\downarrow\rangle - |\downarrow\uparrow\rangle)$$

$$P_{\text{singlet}} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \overbrace{\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \end{pmatrix} \right)}^{a_2 | x_2} \\ \left(\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \end{pmatrix} \right) \\ \left(\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right) \end{array} \right\} \overbrace{\hspace{10em}}^{a_1 | x_1}$$

$P(a_1 = +1, a_2 = -1 | x_1 = \sigma_z, x_2 = \sigma_z)$

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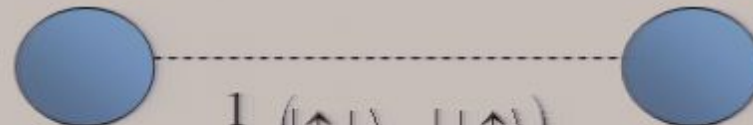
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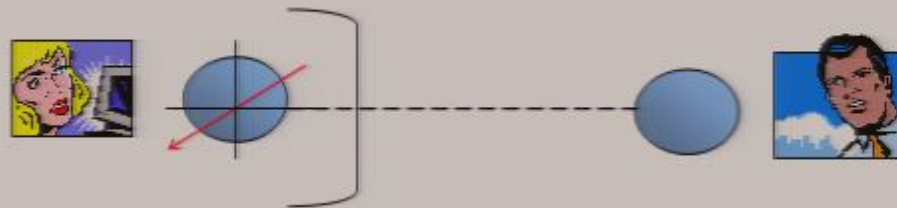
The no-signalling condition

- All $P(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{x})$ representing allowed states must satisfy:

I. Positivity: $P(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{x}) \geq 0$

II. Normalisation: $\sum_{\mathbf{a}} P(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{x}) = 1$

III. No-signalling: $\sum_{a_n} P(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{x})$ is independent of x_n



Without knowing Alice's result, Bob cannot learn anything about which measurement she performed on her system

Generalised non-signalling mechanics (GNSM)

- However, there exist distributions $P(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{x})$ satisfying the positivity, normalisation, and no-signalling constraints that do not correspond to any quantum system.

e.g.

$$P_{\text{deterministic}} = \left(\begin{array}{c} \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 0 \end{array} \right) \\ \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 0 \end{array} \right) \\ \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 0 \end{array} \right) \end{array} \right) \longrightarrow \sigma_x = \sigma_y = \sigma_z = +1$$

- **Generalised Non-Signalling mechanics (GNSM)** is an alternative to quantum theory in which *all* states satisfying positivity, normalisation, and no-signalling are allowed. (Barrett)

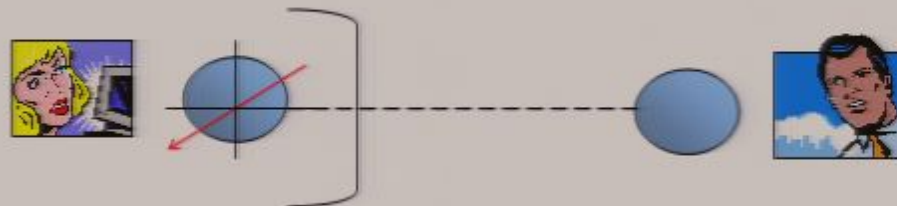
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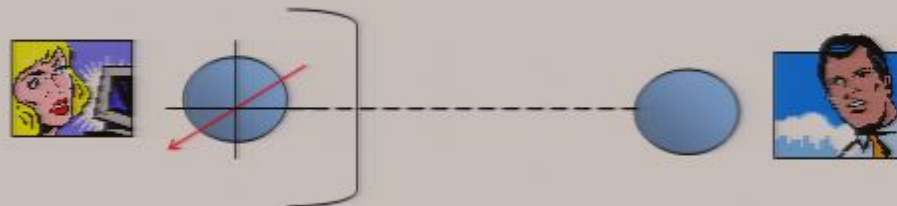
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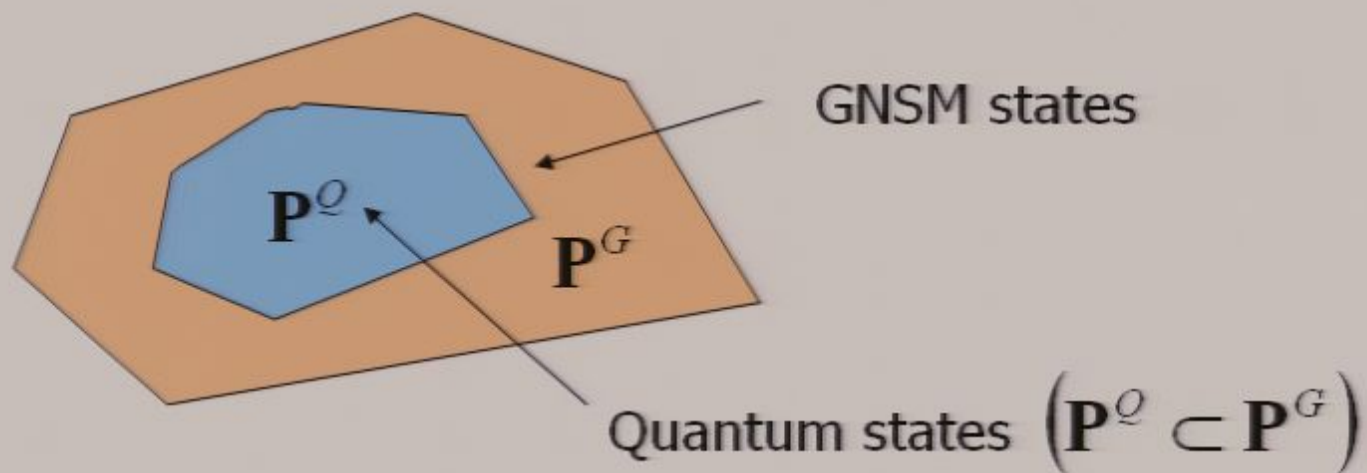
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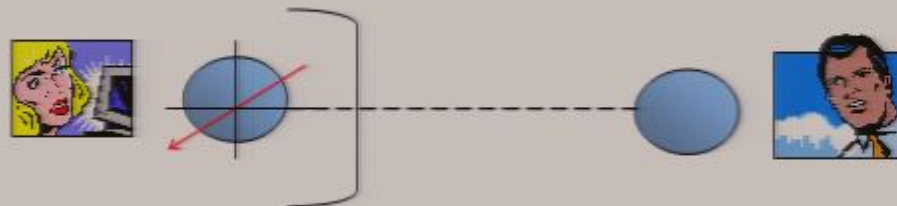
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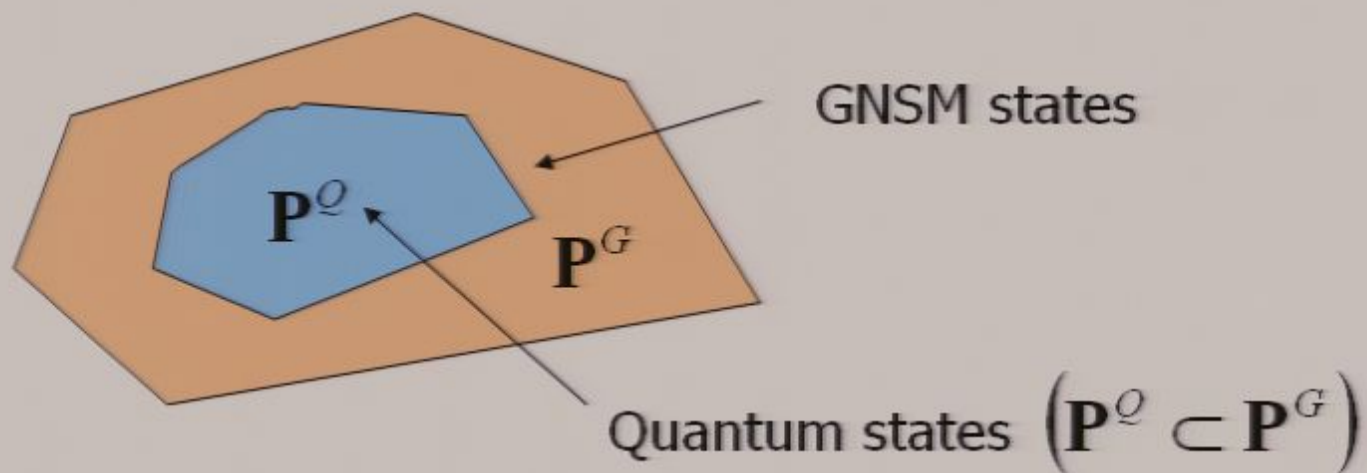
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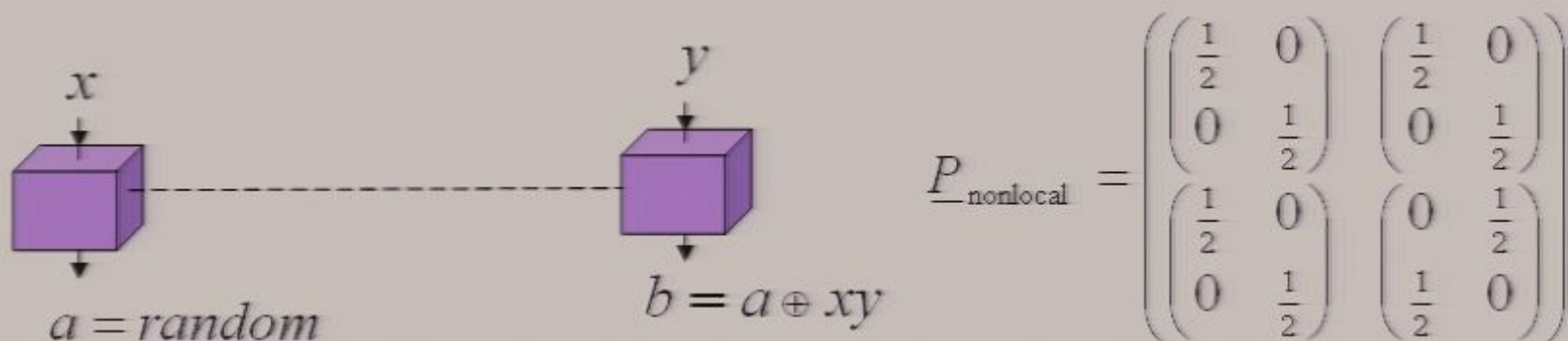
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Non-local correlations

- Some states yield *non-local* correlations, for which

$$P(a_1 a_2 | x_1 x_2) \neq \sum_i p(k) P_k(a_1 | x_1) P_k(a_2 | x_2)$$

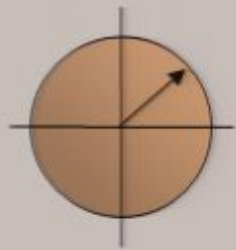
- GNSM states can produce stronger non-local correlations than quantum theory. E.g. $\underline{P}_{\text{nonlocal}} \in \mathbf{P}^G$ that allows perfect success in the non-local task introduced earlier (based on the CHSH inequality):



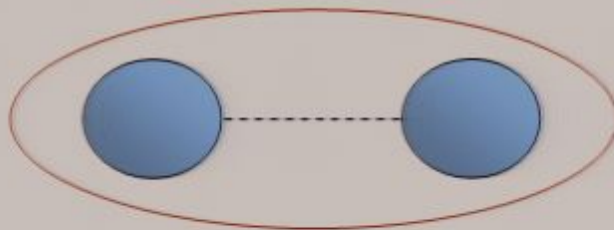
Why doesn't nature allow the full state-space/non-locality of GNSM?

Introducing non-fiducial measurements

- In addition to the fiducial measurements used to characterise the state, a theory may admit many other measurements.
- E.g. in quantum theory



$$\sigma^{45^\circ} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\sigma_x + \sigma_z) \quad \text{on a single qubit}$$



A joint Bell measurement on two qubits

- What are the allowed measurements in GNSM?

Representing generalised measurements

- The probability p_i of obtaining a measurement output i with a mixed state must equal the mixture of output probabilities for the constituent states. It follows that **measurements act linearly**:

$$p_i = \underline{R}_i \cdot \underline{P} = \sum_{\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{x}} R_i(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{x}) P(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{x})$$

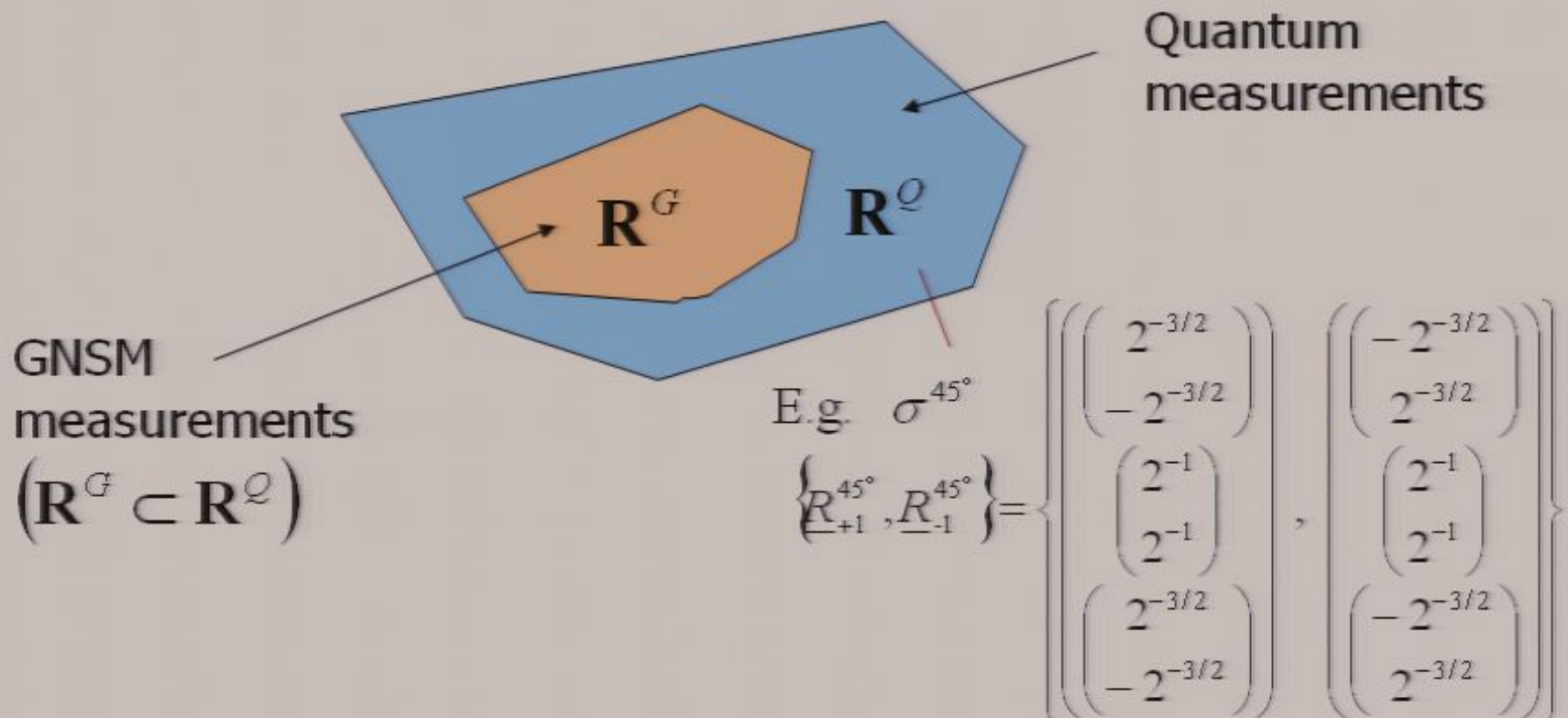
- Allowed measurements are represented by a set of vectors $\{ R_i(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{x}) \}$ which satisfy:

I. Positivity: $\underline{R}_i \cdot \underline{P} \geq 0$ for all allowed \underline{P}

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GNSM allows less measurements than quantum theory

- Like states, the allowed measurements form a convex set. However, as measurements in GNSM are constrained to give positive/normalised results for *more states*, the allowed measurement set is smaller.



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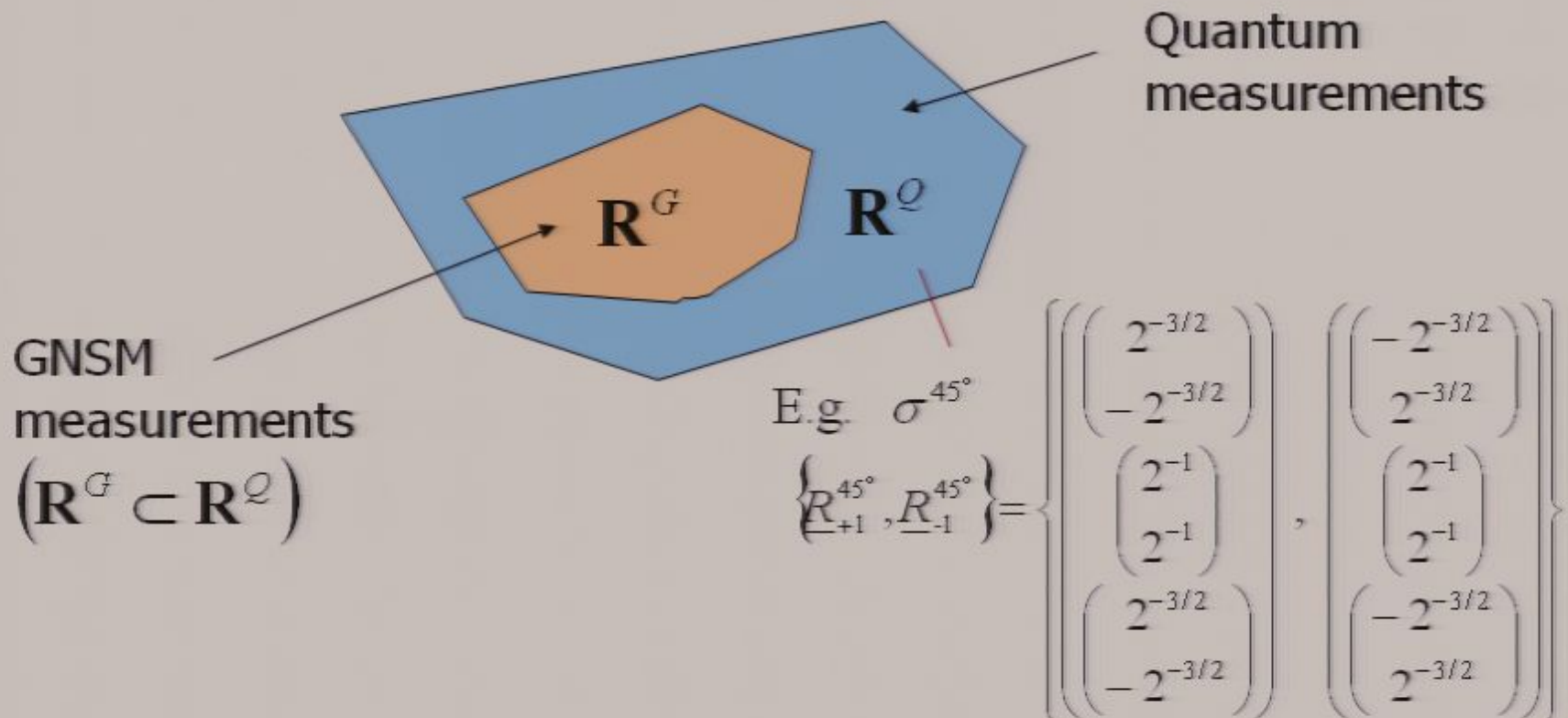
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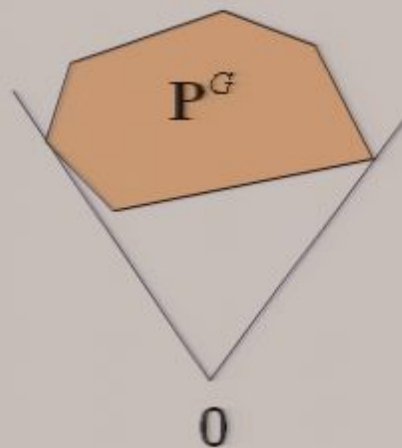
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Results concerning GNSM measurements: I

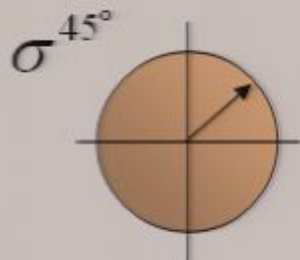
I. All GNSM measurements can be represented by non-negative vectors $R_i(a|x) \geq 0$



The proof follows from applying Farkas Lemma to the convex cone of un-normalised states.

Note that measurements in quantum theory do not have this property:

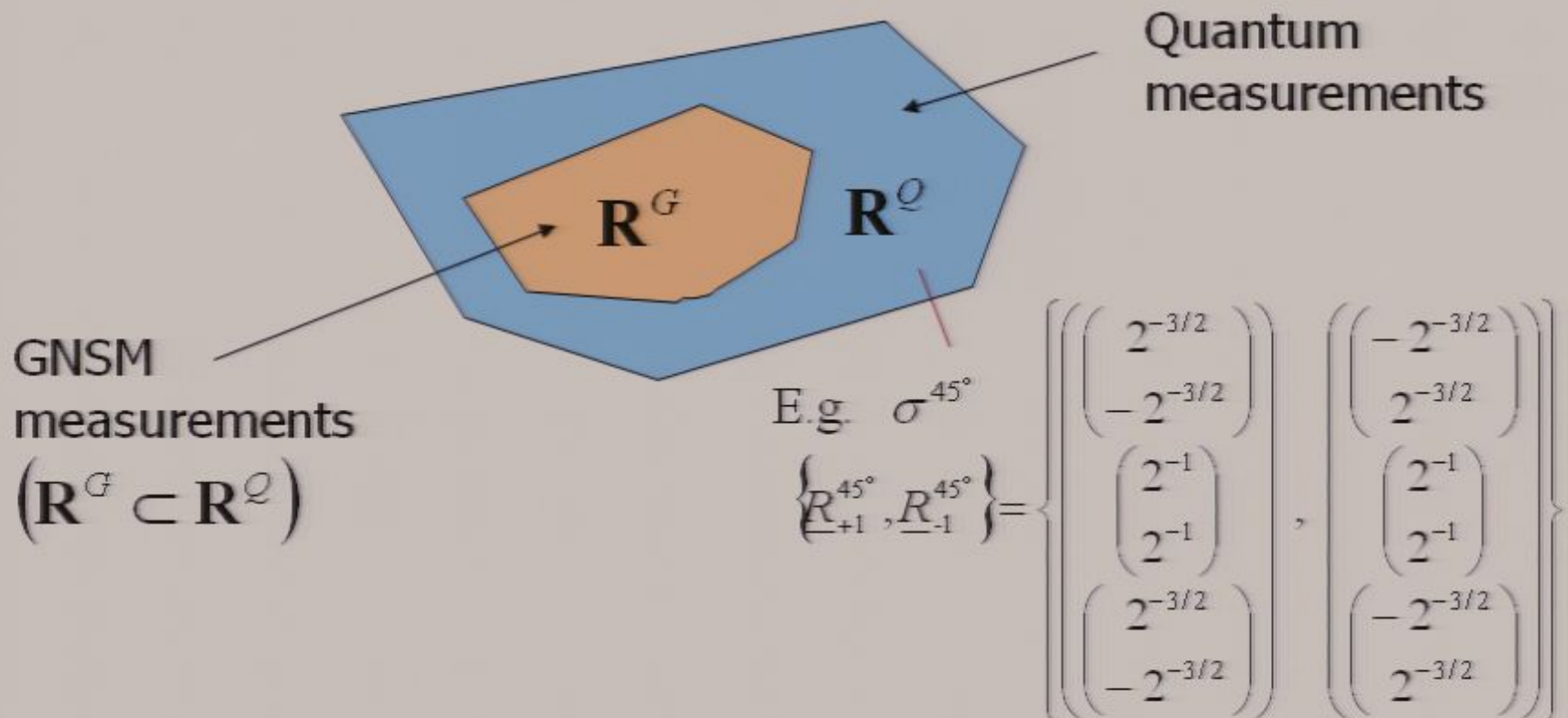
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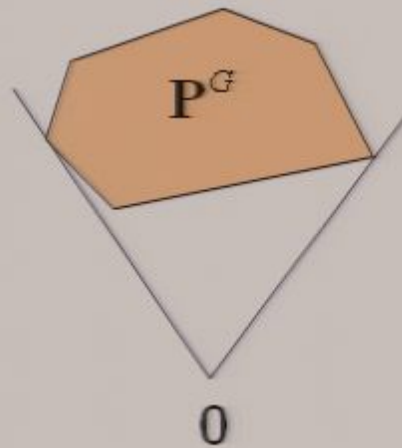
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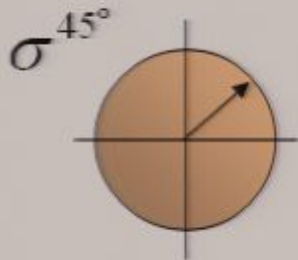
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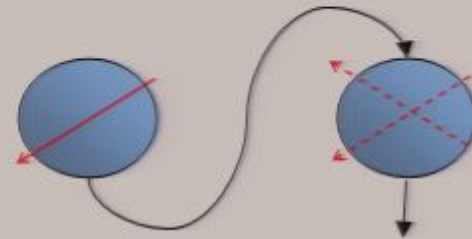
Results concerning GNSM measurements: II

II. All GNSM measurements on single and bi-partite systems can be performed using only fiducial measurements on the individual systems

This includes conditional sequences of measurements

e.g.

$$x_1 = 0, x_2 = a_1, i = a_2$$



There is therefore no analogue of a Bell measurement in GNSM.

However, note that for tri-partite (or larger) measurements fiducial measurements alone are *not* sufficient. However...

Results concerning GNSM measurements: III

III. All GNSM measurements can be simulated using fiducial measurements on individual systems and post-selection

A protocol to obtain any particular $\{ \underline{R}_i \}$ is as follows:

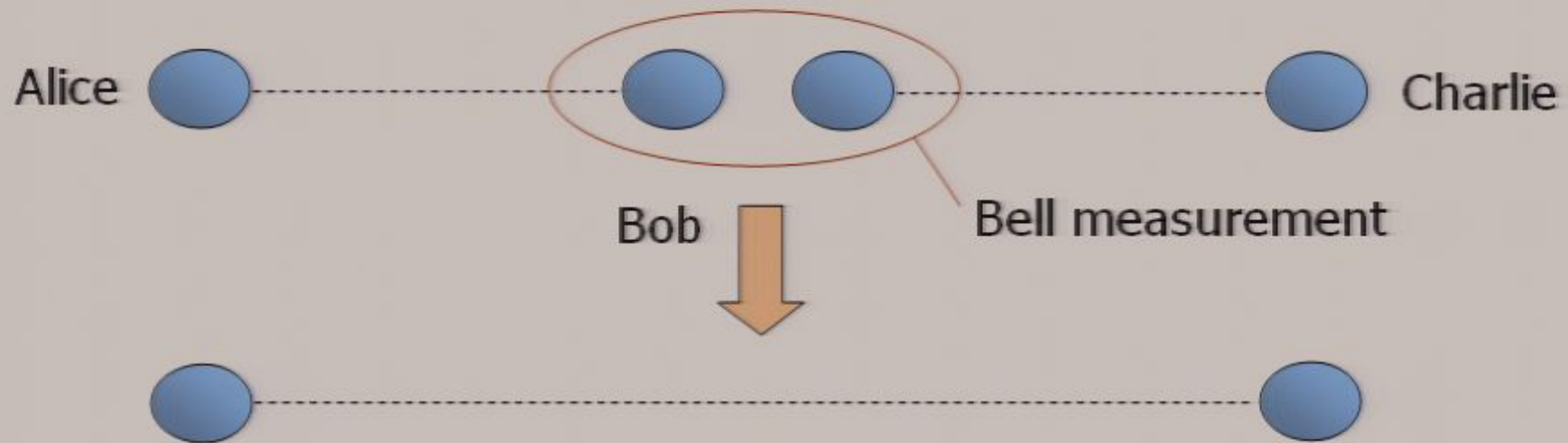
- a. Perform a maximally random set of fiducial measurements $\mathbf{x} = x_1 \dots x_n$, obtaining outputs \mathbf{a}
- b. Give measurement output i or *fail* with probabilities:

$$q_i = \frac{R_i(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{x})}{\max_{\mathbf{a}\mathbf{x}} \sum_i R_i(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{x})} \quad q_{fail} = 1 - \frac{\sum_i R_i(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{x})}{\max_{\mathbf{a}\mathbf{x}} \sum_i R_i(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{x})}$$

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No 'swapping' of non-locality in GNSM

- In quantum theory, non-local correlations can be 'swapped' between parties.



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'Swapping' non-locality is impossible in GNSM

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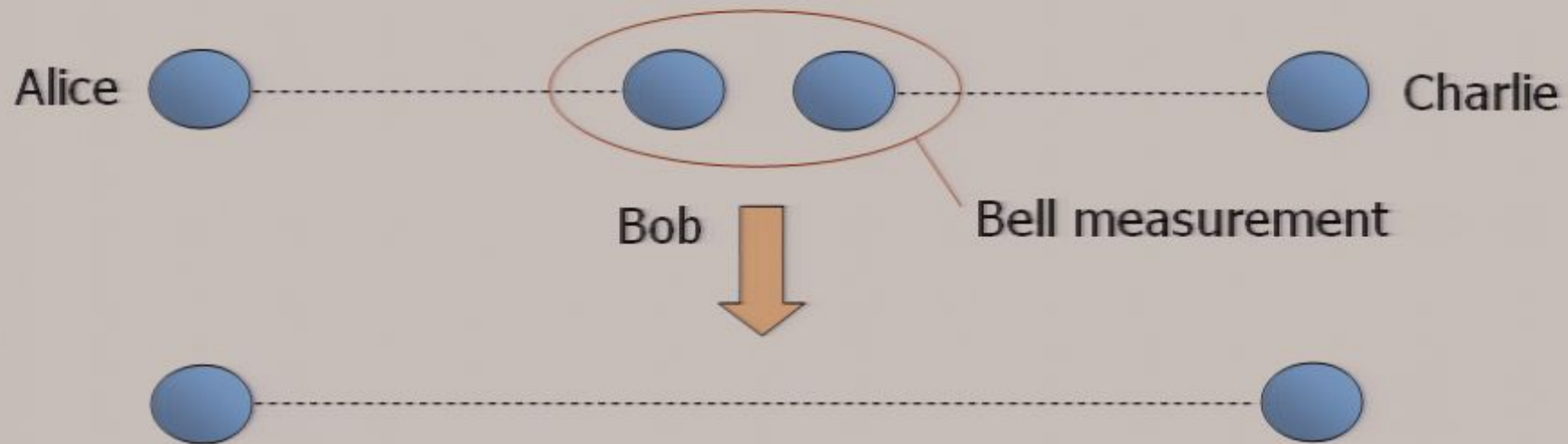
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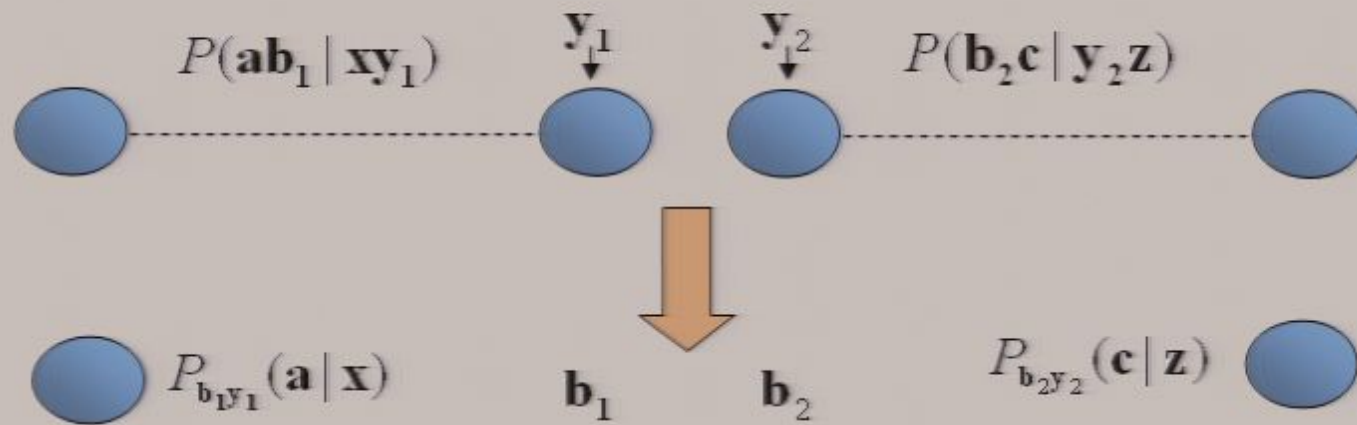


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- Performing a set of fiducial measurements *collapses* the state



Hence using fiducial measurements and post-selection we can only obtain separable (i.e. local) final states

$$P(\mathbf{ac} | \mathbf{xz}) = \sum_{\mathbf{b}_1\mathbf{y}_1\mathbf{b}_2\mathbf{y}_2} P(\mathbf{b}_1\mathbf{y}_1\mathbf{b}_2\mathbf{y}_2 | \text{success}) P_{\mathbf{b}_1\mathbf{y}_1}(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{x}) P_{\mathbf{b}_2\mathbf{y}_2}(\mathbf{c} | \mathbf{z})$$

Joint measurements and non-locality swapping: Conclusions

- We can construct a theory admitting generalised non-local correlations and quantum theory within a common framework.
- Generalised non-signalling mechanics allows any non-local correlations, but much less versatility in terms of measurements on a given state:
 - There are no truly joint measurements on separate subsystems, analogous to a Bell measurement.
 - There is no analogue of entanglement-swapping for generalised non-local correlations.
 - All measurements can be implemented using only fiducial measurements and (for >2 systems) post-selection.

Summary

Differences between quantum and generalised non-locality:

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<i>More allowed states</i>	<i>More measurements and dynamics</i>
<i>Stronger non-locality</i>	<i>More versatile ('swappable') non-locality</i>
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