

Title: An Information-Theoretic Approach to Quantum Theory

Date: Jan 22, 2007 02:00 PM

URL: <http://pirsa.org/07010026>

Abstract: The mathematical formalism of quantum theory has many features whose physical origin remains obscure. In this paper, we attempt to systematically investigate the possibility that the concept of information may play a key role in understanding some of these features. We formulate a set of assumptions, based on generalizations of experimental facts that are representative of quantum phenomena and physically comprehensible theoretical ideas and principles, and show that it is possible to deduce the finite-dimensional quantum formalism from these assumptions. The concept of information, via an information-theoretic invariance principle, plays a central role in the derivation, and gives rise to some of the central structural features of the quantum formalism.

## Elucidating the physical origins of quantum theory

- The formalism of quantum theory has many features whose physical origin is obscure (complex numbers, unitary evolution, etc.)



## Elucidating the physical origins of quantum theory

- The formalism of quantum theory has many features whose physical origin is obscure (complex numbers, unitary evolution, etc.)
- Is it possible to derive these features using the concept of information? (Wheeler, Wootters, Zeilinger, Fuchs, etc.)



## Elucidating the physical origins of quantum theory

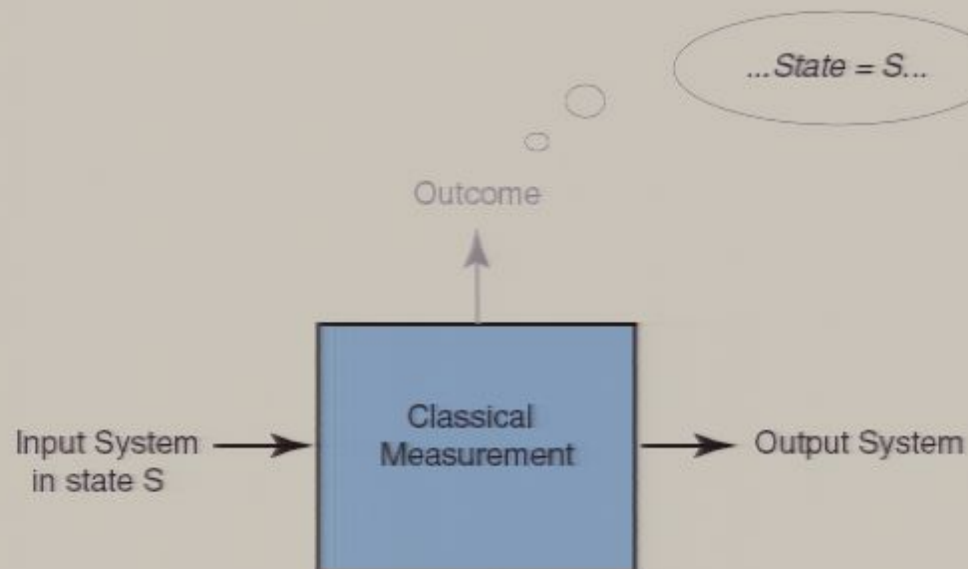
- The formalism of quantum theory has many features whose physical origin is obscure (complex numbers, unitary evolution, etc.)
- Is it possible to derive these features using the concept of information? (Wheeler, Wootters, Zeilinger, Fuchs, etc.)
- We will describe a systematic attempt to explore this possibility by formulating a novel information-theoretic principle, and showing how this leads (in conjunction with a set of physical assumptions) to the finite-dimensional quantum formalism.



## Why Information?

The concept of information plays a new and fundamental role in quantum physics.

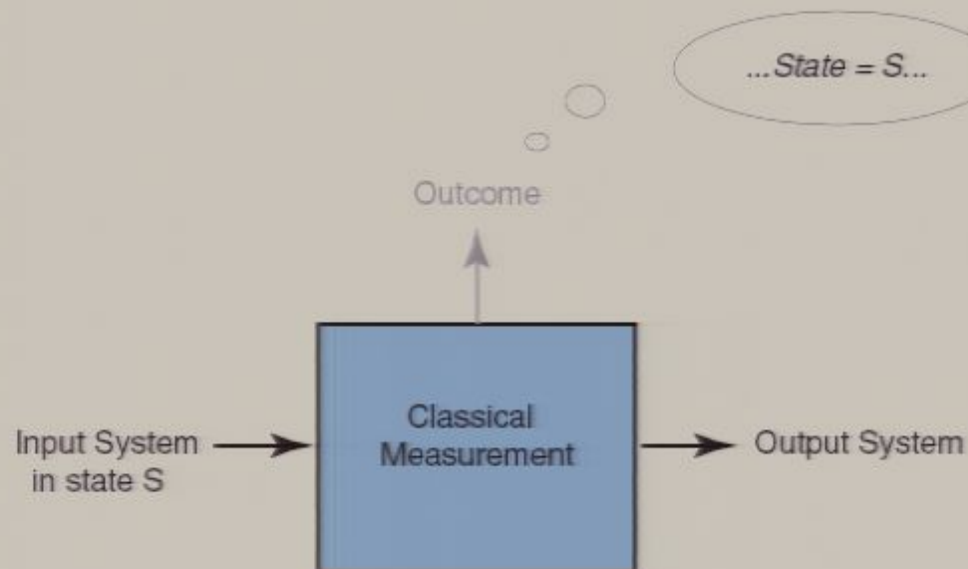
- **Classical Physics.** An ideal measurement provides an experimenter with perfect knowledge about the unknown state of a system....



## Why Information?

The concept of information plays a new and fundamental role in quantum physics.

- **Classical Physics.** An ideal measurement provides an experimenter with perfect knowledge about the unknown state of a system....

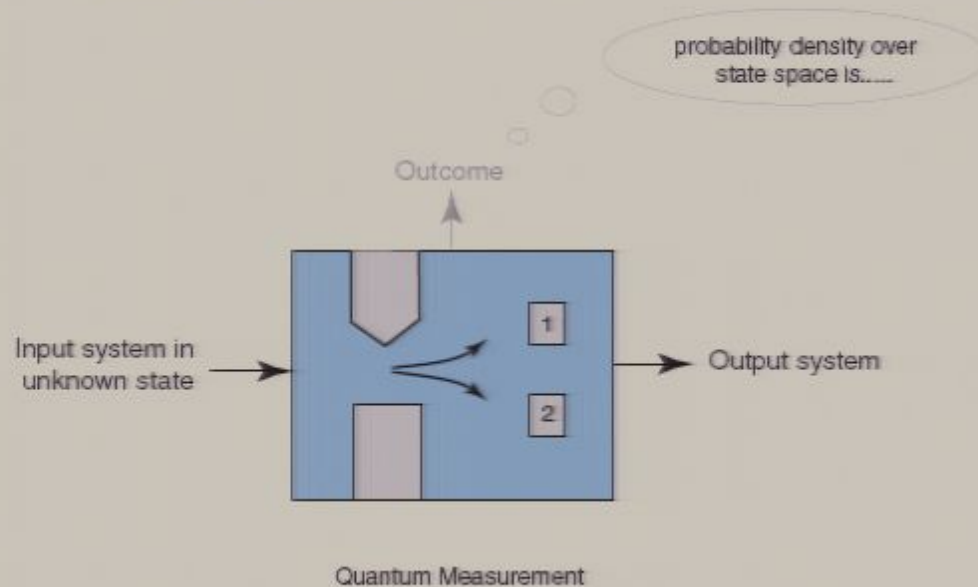


...so there is no distinction between (i) the state itself, and (ii) the ideal experimenter's knowledge of the state.



## Why Information?

- **Quantum Physics.** An ideal measurement provides only partial knowledge about an unknown state....

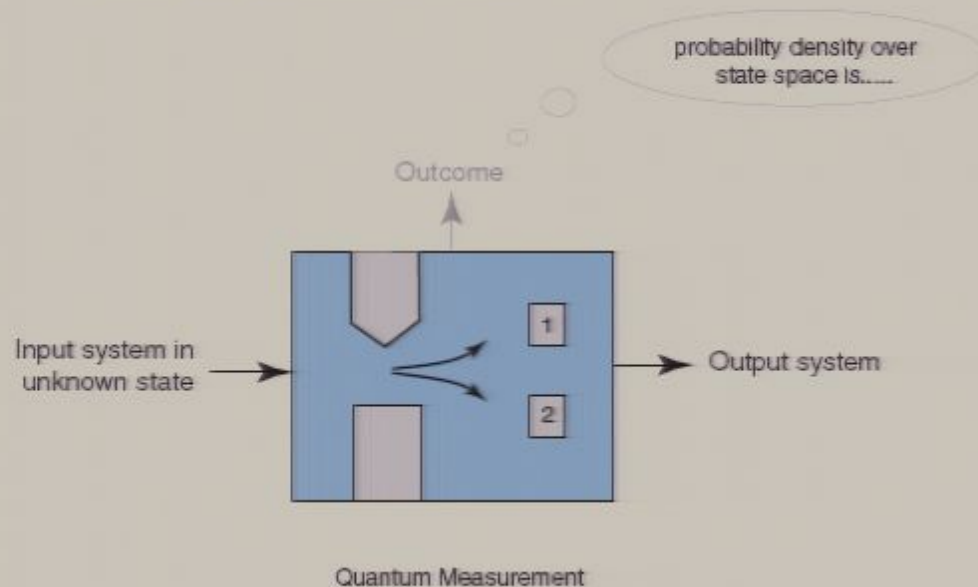


...so a sharp and fundamental distinction is drawn between the state and the experimenter's knowledge of it.



## Why Information?

- **Quantum Physics.** An ideal measurement provides only partial knowledge about an unknown state....



...so a sharp and fundamental distinction is drawn between the state and the experimenter's knowledge of it.

- Information serves as a means to *relate* the two: "How much information has been obtained by the experimenter about the state?"





## Some recent informational approaches

### 1. Approaches of W. Wootters, C. Brukner, J. Summhammer.

- Make a few, physically comprehensible assumptions.
- Impose an informational principle which concerns the amount of information obtained when a measurement is performed.
- Obtain Malus' Law.
- But unable to obtain the quantum formalism.



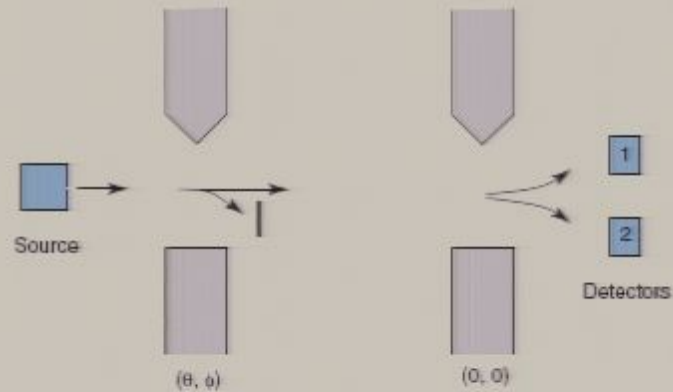
## Some recent informational approaches

1. Approaches of W. Wootters, C. Brukner, J. Summhammer.
  - Make a few, physically comprehensible assumptions.
  - Impose an informational principle which concerns the amount of information obtained when a measurement is performed.
  - Obtain Malus' Law.
  - But unable to obtain the quantum formalism.
2. Approaches of A. Caticha, Clifton et al., A. Grinbaum, and others.
  - Make abstract assumptions (e.g. introduction of complex numbers) at the outset.
  - But are able to obtain a significant fraction of the quantum formalism.



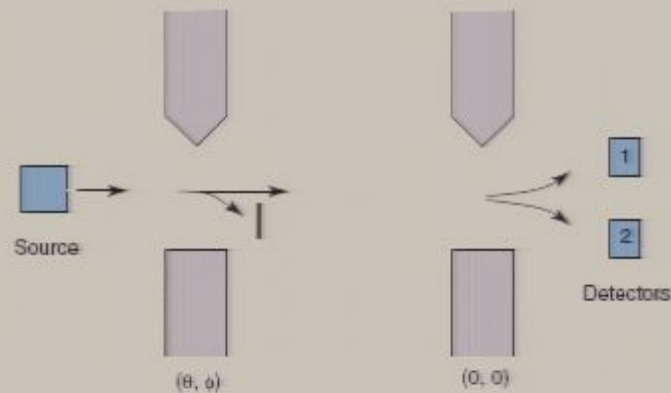
## Wootters' approach

Wootters considers an experimental arrangement where Alice tries to transmit information about  $\theta$  to Bob using spin-1/2 systems:



## Wootters' approach

Wootters considers an experimental arrangement where Alice tries to transmit information about  $\theta$  to Bob using spin-1/2 systems:



The state of the prepared spin is

$$|\psi\rangle = \sqrt{P_1}e^{i\phi_1}|\uparrow\rangle + \sqrt{P_2}e^{i\phi_2}|\downarrow\rangle,$$

where  $P_1, P_2$  are the outcome probabilities of the measurement.

## Wootters' approach

Quantum theory tells us that  $P_1 = \cos^2(\theta/2)$ . Hence, by analyzing  $n$  spins, Bob learns about  $P_1$  and therefore about  $\theta$ .



## Wootters' approach

Quantum theory tells us that  $P_1 = \cos^2(\theta/2)$ . Hence, by analyzing  $n$  spins, Bob learns about  $P_1$  and therefore about  $\theta$ .

Wootters instead asks: “What function  $P_1(\theta)$  *maximizes* the amount of Shannon information that Bob gains about  $\theta$  ?”



## Wootters' approach

Quantum theory tells us that  $P_1 = \cos^2(\theta/2)$ . Hence, by analyzing  $n$  spins, Bob learns about  $P_1$  and therefore about  $\theta$ .

Wootters instead asks: "What function  $P_1(\theta)$  *maximizes* the amount of Shannon information that Bob gains about  $\theta$ ?"

Remarkably, he obtains a generalized form of Malus' law,

$$P_1 = \cos^2 \left( \frac{m(\theta - \theta_0)}{2} \right),$$

where  $m$  is an undetermined integer ( $m \neq 0$ ) and  $\theta_0$  is undetermined.

## Formulation of the strategy

- The above-mentioned approaches support the view that information has an important role in our understanding of quantum theory.





## Formulation of the strategy

- The above-mentioned approaches support the view that information has an important role in our understanding of quantum theory.
- A formulation using only physically comprehensible assumptions has the potential to provide the greater understanding of quantum theory.



## Formulation of the strategy

- The above-mentioned approaches support the view that information has an important role in our understanding of quantum theory.
- A formulation using only physically comprehensible assumptions has the potential to provide the greater understanding of quantum theory.
- Our objective will be to explore whether is it possible to build up the quantum formalism using the concept of information using only physically comprehensible assumptions.



## Physical Comprehensibility

- By “physically comprehensible”, we mean that the assumptions should have the properties:



## Physical Comprehensibility

- By “physically comprehensible”, we mean that the assumptions should have the properties:
  1. **Transparency:** Transparently understandable as a clear assertion about physical events.



## Physical Comprehensibility

- By “physically comprehensible”, we mean that the assumptions should have the properties:
  1. **Transparency:** Transparently understandable as a clear assertion about physical events.
  2. **Traceability:** Traceable to experimental facts and plausible physical principles or ideas.



## Physical Comprehensibility

- By “physically comprehensible”, we mean that the assumptions should have the properties:
  1. **Transparency:** Transparently understandable as a clear assertion about physical events.
  2. **Traceability:** Traceable to experimental facts and plausible physical principles or ideas.
- **Historical Example:** In Einstein’s derivation of the Lorentz transformations, the two postulates are both *transparent* and *traceable*.  
For example, the speed of light postulate:



## Physical Comprehensibility

- By “physically comprehensible”, we mean that the assumptions should have the properties:
  1. **Transparency:** Transparently understandable as a clear assertion about physical events.
  2. **Traceability:** Traceable to experimental facts and plausible physical principles or ideas.
- **Historical Example:** In Einstein’s derivation of the Lorentz transformations, the two postulates are both *transparent* and *traceable*.  
For example, the speed of light postulate:
  1. can be clearly understood as an assertion about the results of an experimental procedure, and



## Formulation of the Assumptions

Accordingly, we shall seek to formulate assumptions that are, as far as possible:





## Physical Comprehensibility

- By “physically comprehensible”, we mean that the assumptions should have the properties:
  1. **Transparency:** Transparently understandable as a clear assertion about physical events.
  2. **Traceability:** Traceable to experimental facts and plausible physical principles or ideas.
- **Historical Example:** In Einstein’s derivation of the Lorentz transformations, the two postulates are both *transparent* and *traceable*.  
For example, the speed of light postulate:
  1. can be clearly understood as an assertion about the results of an experimental procedure, and
  2. can be regarded as based on well-established experimental facts (Michelson-Morley) that are generalized in light of the principle of the uniformity of nature.



## Formulation of the Assumptions

Accordingly, we shall seek to formulate assumptions that are, as far as possible:



## Formulation of the Assumptions

Accordingly, we shall seek to formulate assumptions that are, as far as possible:

- (i) drawn from the theoretical framework of classical physics and other well-established theoretical frameworks (such as probability theory and Shannon's theory of information),



## Formulation of the Assumptions

Accordingly, we shall seek to formulate assumptions that are, as far as possible:

- (i) drawn from the theoretical framework of classical physics and other well-established theoretical frameworks (such as probability theory and Shannon's theory of information),
- (ii) based on experimental facts characteristic of quantum phenomena, or



# Organization of the Formulation

## 1. Basic notions

- *Background Assumptions* — definition of elementary terms (*system, background, state, etc.*), which are needed for theoretical modeling to begin.
- *Idealizations* — assumptions concerning the type of measurements, interactions, and background that are considered.



## Organization of the Formulation

### 1. Basic notions

- *Background Assumptions* — definition of elementary terms (*system, background, state, etc.*), which are needed for theoretical modeling to begin.
- *Idealizations* — assumptions concerning the type of measurements, interactions, and background that are considered.

### 2. Abstract experimental set-up



## Organization of the Formulation

### 1. Basic notions

- *Background Assumptions* — definition of elementary terms (*system, background, state, etc.*), which are needed for theoretical modeling to begin.
- *Idealizations* — assumptions concerning the type of measurements, interactions, and background that are considered.

### 2. Abstract experimental set-up

- Provides a precise description of an abstract, idealized experimental set-up without making use of the abstract language of quantum theory (such as ‘pure state’).



## Organization of the Formulation

### 1. Basic notions

- *Background Assumptions* — definition of elementary terms (*system, background, state, etc.*), which are needed for theoretical modeling to begin.
- *Idealizations* — assumptions concerning the type of measurements, interactions, and background that are considered.

### 2. Abstract experimental set-up

- Provides a precise description of an abstract, idealized experimental set-up without making use of the abstract language of quantum theory (such as ‘pure state’).

### 3. Postulates

- The postulates determine the theoretical model of the abstract set-up.





## Organization of the Formulation

### 1. Basic notions

- *Background Assumptions* — definition of elementary terms (*system, background, state, etc.*), which are needed for theoretical modeling to begin.
- *Idealizations* — assumptions concerning the type of measurements, interactions, and background that are considered.

### 2. Abstract experimental set-up

- Provides a precise description of an abstract, idealized experimental set-up without making use of the abstract language of quantum theory (such as ‘pure state’).

### 3. Postulates

- The postulates determine the theoretical model of the abstract set-up.
- An additional principle (The Average-Value Correspondence Principle) allows the derivation of the formal rules (commutation relations, etc.) needed to model particular experimental set-ups.



# Deductive Formulation of Quantum Theory

## 3. Postulates

- The postulates determine the theoretical model of the abstract set-up.



# Deductive Formulation of Quantum Theory

## 3. Postulates

- The postulates determine the theoretical model of the abstract set-up.
- An additional principle (The Average-Value Correspondence Principle) allows the derivation of the formal rules (commutation relations, etc.) needed to model particular experimental set-ups.



## Background Assumptions

At the outset, we adopt from classical physics the following key assumptions:

- *Partitioning*: The universe is partitioned into a system, the background environment of the system, measuring apparatuses, and the rest of the universe.

## Background Assumptions

At the outset, we adopt from classical physics the following key assumptions:

- *Partitioning*: The universe is partitioned into a system, the background environment of the system, measuring apparatuses, and the rest of the universe.
- *Time*: In a given frame of reference, one can speak of a physical time which is common to the system and its background, and is represented by a real-valued parameter,  $t$ .

## Background Assumptions

At the outset, we adopt from classical physics the following key assumptions:

- *Partitioning*: The universe is partitioned into a system, the background environment of the system, measuring apparatuses, and the rest of the universe.
- *Time*: In a given frame of reference, one can speak of a physical time which is common to the system and its background, and is represented by a real-valued parameter,  $t$ .
- *States*: At any time, the system is in a definite physical state, whose mathematical description is called the state of the system.



## Idealizations

1. Measurements are assumed to have the following properties:

- *Finiteness*: Measurements yields a finite number of possible outcomes.



## Idealizations

1. Measurements are assumed to have the following properties:

- *Finiteness*: Measurements yields a finite number of possible outcomes.
- *Distinctness*: The possible outcomes have distinct values.
- *Repetition Consistency*: When a measurement is immediately repeated, the same outcome is obtained with certainty.





## Idealizations

1. Measurements are assumed to have the following properties:

- *Finiteness*: Measurements yields a finite number of possible outcomes.
- *Distinctness*: The possible outcomes have distinct values.
- *Repetition Consistency*: When a measurement is immediately repeated, the same outcome is obtained with certainty.
- *Classicality*: The measurements do not involve auxiliary quantum systems.



## Idealizations

1. Measurements are assumed to have the following properties:
  - *Finiteness*: Measurements yields a finite number of possible outcomes.
  - *Distinctness*: The possible outcomes have distinct values.
  - *Repetition Consistency*: When a measurement is immediately repeated, the same outcome is obtained with certainty.
  - *Classicality*: The measurements do not involve auxiliary quantum systems.
2. Interactions are assumed to have the following properties:
  - *Identity-preserving*: Interactions preserve the identity of the system.

## Idealizations

1. Measurements are assumed to have the following properties:
  - *Finiteness*: Measurements yields a finite number of possible outcomes.
  - *Distinctness*: The possible outcomes have distinct values.
  - *Repetition Consistency*: When a measurement is immediately repeated, the same outcome is obtained with certainty.
  - *Classicality*: The measurements do not involve auxiliary quantum systems.
2. Interactions are assumed to have the following properties:
  - *Identity-preserving*: Interactions preserve the identity of the system.
  - *Reversibility and Determinacy*: Interactions are reversible and deterministic at the level of the state of the system.



## Idealizations

1. Measurements are assumed to have the following properties:
  - *Finiteness*: Measurements yields a finite number of possible outcomes.
  - *Distinctness*: The possible outcomes have distinct values.
  - *Repetition Consistency*: When a measurement is immediately repeated, the same outcome is obtained with certainty.
  - *Classicality*: The measurements do not involve auxiliary quantum systems.
2. Interactions are assumed to have the following properties:
  - *Identity-preserving*: Interactions preserve the identity of the system.
  - *Reversibility and Determinacy*: Interactions are reversible and deterministic at the level of the state of the system.
3. The internal dynamics of the background is assumed to be adequately modeled within the classical framework.



## Idealizations

2. Interactions are assumed to have the following properties:

- *Identity-preserving*: Interactions preserve the identity of the system.



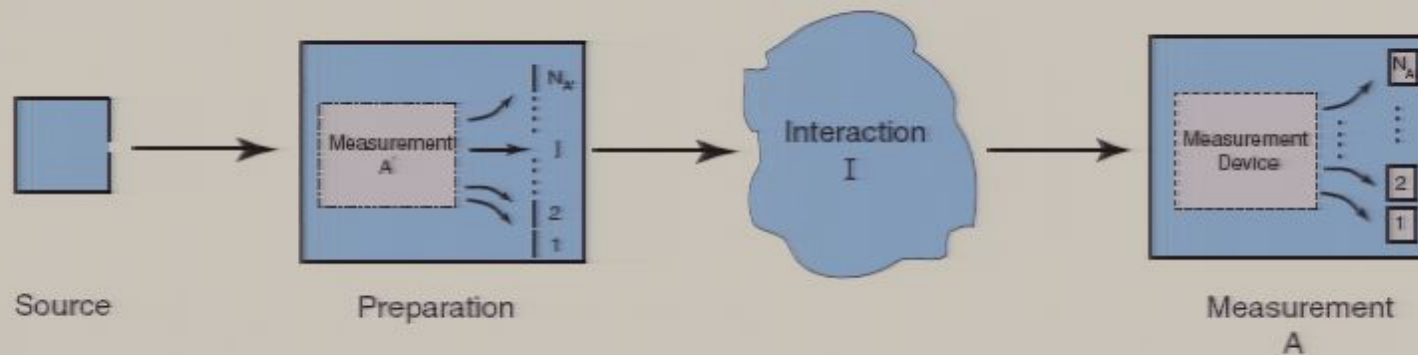
## Idealizations

2. Interactions are assumed to have the following properties:

- *Identity-preserving*: Interactions preserve the identity of the system.
- *Reversibility and Determinacy*: Interactions are reversible and deterministic at the level of the state of the system.



## Abstract Experimental Set-up



## An Ideal Preparation

- The basic purpose of an experimental set-up is to study how some property of a system is influenced by interactions with the background





## An Ideal Preparation

- The basic purpose of an experimental set-up is to study how some property of a system is influenced by interactions with the background
- We do this by preparing the system in some way, subjecting it to interactions, and then performing a measurement on it.

## An Ideal Preparation

- The basic purpose of an experimental set-up is to study how some property of a system is influenced by interactions with the background
- We do this by preparing the system in some way, subjecting it to interactions, and then performing a measurement on it.
- An ideal preparation is one that gives us maximal control over the degrees of freedom of the state which encode the property of the system we are studying.

## An Ideal Preparation

- The basic purpose of an experimental set-up is to study how some property of a system is influenced by interactions with the background
- We do this by preparing the system in some way, subjecting it to interactions, and then performing a measurement on it.
- An ideal preparation is one that gives us maximal control over the degrees of freedom of the state which encode the property of the system we are studying.
- Classical and quantum physics disagree about what constitutes an ideal preparation.

## An Ideal Preparation

- The basic purpose of an experimental set-up is to study how some property of a system is influenced by interactions with the background
- We do this by preparing the system in some way, subjecting it to interactions, and then performing a measurement on it.
- An ideal preparation is one that gives us maximal control over the degrees of freedom of the state which encode the property of the system we are studying.
- Classical and quantum physics disagree about what constitutes an ideal preparation.
- Is it possible to find a test or operational procedure that allows us to determine if a preparation is ideal in the quantum setting without reference to the quantum formalism?



## Key Notion: Completeness of a Preparation

- In classical physics, if a system undergoes an ideal preparation, it is prepared in a precisely known state.



## Key Notion: Completeness of a Preparation

- In classical physics, if a system undergoes an ideal preparation, it is prepared in a precisely known state.
- Once a system is prepared in this way, the results of subsequent measurements are independent of the history of the system prior to the preparation.



## Key Notion: Completeness of a Preparation

- In classical physics, if a system undergoes an ideal preparation, it is prepared in a precisely known state.
- Once a system is prepared in this way, the results of subsequent measurements are independent of the history of the system prior to the preparation.
- One can say: the preparation is *complete* with respect to the subsequent measurements.



## Completeness in Quantum Theory

- One encounters an analogous situation in quantum theory.





## Key Notion: Completeness of a Preparation

- In classical physics, if a system undergoes an ideal preparation, it is prepared in a precisely known state.
- Once a system is prepared in this way, the results of subsequent measurements are independent of the history of the system prior to the preparation.
- One can say: the preparation is *complete* with respect to the subsequent measurements.



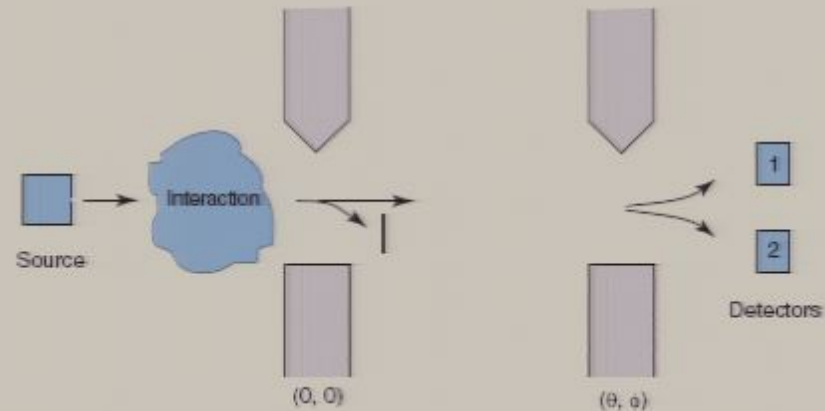
## Completeness in Quantum Theory

- One encounters an analogous situation in quantum theory.



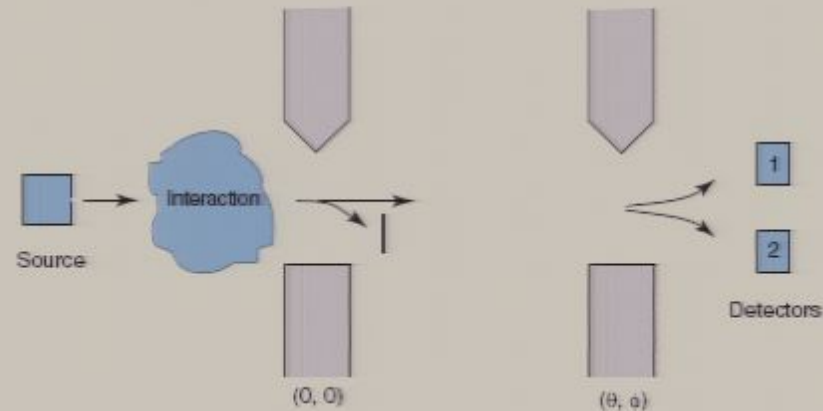
## Completeness in Quantum Theory

- One encounters an analogous situation in quantum theory.
- Consider an experiment where, in each run, a spin-1/2 system undergoes a preparation and measurement using Stern-Gerlach devices.



## Completeness in Quantum Theory

- One encounters an analogous situation in quantum theory.
- Consider an experiment where, in each run, a spin-1/2 system undergoes a preparation and measurement using Stern-Gerlach devices.

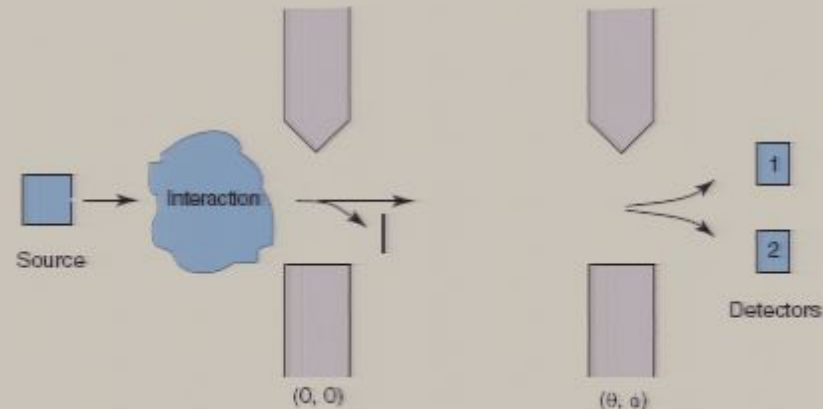


- Quantum theory tells us that the outcome probabilities of the measurement are independent of the pre-preparation history of the spin-1/2 system.



## Completeness in Quantum Theory

- One encounters an analogous situation in quantum theory.
- Consider an experiment where, in each run, a spin-1/2 system undergoes a preparation and measurement using Stern-Gerlach devices.

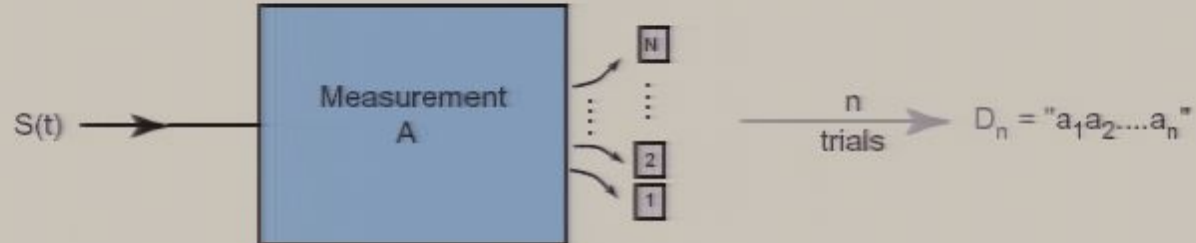


- Quantum theory tells us that the outcome probabilities of the measurement are independent of the pre-preparation history of the spin-1/2 system.
- So, analogously, we can say that the preparation is complete with respect to the measurement.



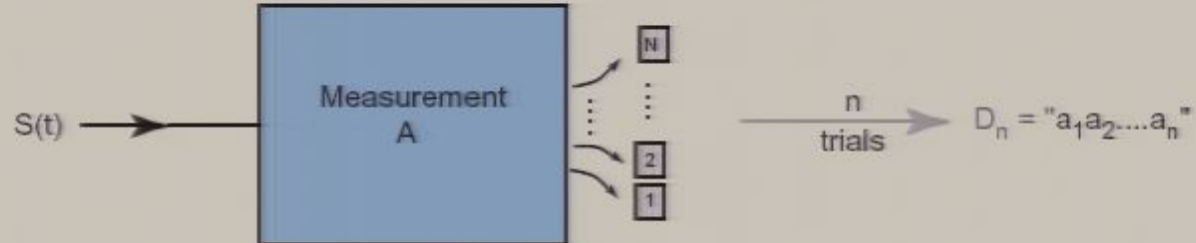
## Operational Definition of Completeness

- Suppose that measurement **A** is performed in  $n$  runs of an experiment, and generates the data string  $D_n = a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$ , where  $a_r$  is the outcome on the  $r$ th run.

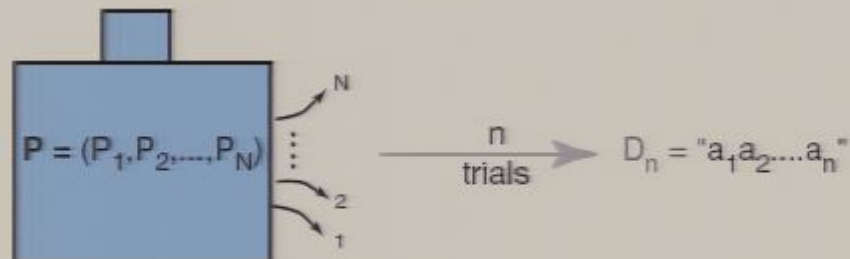


## Operational Definition of Completeness

- Suppose that measurement **A** is performed in  $n$  runs of an experiment, and generates the data string  $D_n = a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$ , where  $a_r$  is the outcome on the  $r$ th run.



- $D_n$  can be modeled by a probabilistic source with some probability  $n$ -tuple  $\vec{P} = (P_1, P_2, \dots, P_N)$ .



## Definition of Completeness

- **Definition:** if  $\vec{P}$  is independent of arbitrary pre-preparation interactions with the system, then the preparation is complete with respect to the measurement  $A$ .





## Definition of Completeness

- **Definition:** if  $\vec{P}$  is independent of arbitrary pre-preparation interactions with the system, then the preparation is complete with respect to the measurement  $\mathbf{A}$ .
- Intuitively, the preparation provides maximal control over the “degrees of freedom” of the system that are relevant to the outcomes of measurement  $\mathbf{A}$ .



## Measurement Pairs

- **Definition:** If completeness still holds when measurements  $A$  and  $A'$  are exchanged, then  $A, A'$  form a *measurement pair*.



## Measurement Pairs

- **Definition:** If completeness still holds when measurements  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{A}'$  are exchanged, then  $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{A}'$  form a *measurement pair*.
- Intuitively, measurements  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{A}'$  are probing precisely the “same region of property-space” of the system.



## Measurement Pairs

- **Definition:** If completeness still holds when measurements  $A$  and  $A'$  are exchanged, then  $A, A'$  form a *measurement pair*.
- Intuitively, measurements  $A$  and  $A'$  are probing precisely the “same region of property-space” of the system.
- **Example:** Any two Stern-Gerlach measurements form a measurement pair.



## Measurement Sets

- **Definition:** The set of measurements generated by  $\mathbf{A}$  forms a *measurement set*,  $\mathcal{A}$ , and is defined as the set of all measurements that
  - (a) form a measurement pair with  $\mathbf{A}$ , and that
  - (b) are not a composite of other measurements in  $\mathcal{A}$ .



## Measurement Sets

- **Definition:** The set of measurements generated by  $\mathbf{A}$  forms a *measurement set*,  $\mathcal{A}$ , and is defined as the set of all measurements that
  - (a) form a measurement pair with  $\mathbf{A}$ , and that
  - (b) are not a composite of other measurements in  $\mathcal{A}$ .
- Intuitively the measurements in the set are *all* measurements probing a given “region of property space”.



## Measurement Sets

- **Definition:** The set of measurements generated by  $\mathbf{A}$  forms a *measurement set*,  $\mathcal{A}$ , and is defined as the set of all measurements that
  - (a) form a measurement pair with  $\mathbf{A}$ , and that
  - (b) are not a composite of other measurements in  $\mathcal{A}$ .
- Intuitively the measurements in the set are *all* measurements probing a given “region of property space”.
- **Example:** The set of all Stern-Gerlach measurements forms a measurement set with respect to a spin-1/2 system. Composites of two or more successive Stern-Gerlach measurements are excluded.



## Compatible Interactions

**Definition:** An interaction is *compatible* with the measurement set if and only if it preserves the completeness of any preparation with respect to any measurement.





## Compatible Interactions

**Definition:** An interaction is *compatible* with the measurement set if and only if it preserves the completeness of any preparation with respect to any measurement.

- Intuitively, the interaction is not coupling the region of property space under study with *other* regions of property space.

## Compatible Interactions

**Definition:** An interaction is *compatible* with the measurement set if and only if it preserves the completeness of any preparation with respect to any measurement.

- Intuitively, the interaction is not coupling the region of property space under study with *other* regions of property space.
- **Example:** Uniform  $\vec{B}$ -field interactions with a spin-1/2 system are compatible with the Stern-Gerlach measurement set. Non-uniform  $\vec{B}$ -field interactions are *not* compatible.

## Interaction Sets

**Definition:** An *interaction set*,  $\mathcal{I}$ , is the set of all interactions compatible with the measurement set.



## Interaction Sets

**Definition:** An *interaction set*,  $\mathcal{I}$ , is the set of all interactions compatible with the measurement set.

- **Example:** The interaction set for a spin-1/2 system undergoing Stern-Gerlach measurements is the set of all uniform  $\vec{B}$ -field interactions.



## Disjoint Set-ups

- Suppose that a system admits a quantum model with respect to measurement sets  $\mathcal{A}^{(1)}$  and  $\mathcal{A}^{(2)}$ .



## Disjoint Set-ups

- Suppose that a system admits a quantum model with respect to measurement sets  $\mathcal{A}^{(1)}$  and  $\mathcal{A}^{(2)}$ .
- **Definition:** If the sets  $\mathcal{A}^{(1)}$  and  $\mathcal{A}^{(2)}$  are disjoint, then the set-ups will be said to be disjoint.



## Disjoint Set-ups

- Suppose that a system admits a quantum model with respect to measurement sets  $\mathcal{A}^{(1)}$  and  $\mathcal{A}^{(2)}$ .
- **Definition:** If the sets  $\mathcal{A}^{(1)}$  and  $\mathcal{A}^{(2)}$  are disjoint, then the set-ups will be said to be disjoint.
- Intuitively, the set-ups are examining distinct aspects of the property space of the system.



## Disjoint Set-ups

- Suppose that a system admits a quantum model with respect to measurement sets  $\mathcal{A}^{(1)}$  and  $\mathcal{A}^{(2)}$ .
- **Definition:** If the sets  $\mathcal{A}^{(1)}$  and  $\mathcal{A}^{(2)}$  are disjoint, then the set-ups will be said to be disjoint.
- Intuitively, the set-ups are examining distinct aspects of the property space of the system.
- **Example:** A source emits a system consisting of two distinguishable spin-1/2 particles on each run of an experiment. If there are two set-ups, with each set-up involving Stern-Gerlach measurements on only one of the particles, then the set-ups are disjoint.





## The Postulates

The postulates can be divided as follows:



## The Postulates

The postulates can be divided as follows:

- (a) **Based on Classical Physics.** Postulates adopted from classical physics, either unchanged or modified in the light of experimental facts characteristic of quantum phenomena.

## The Postulates

The postulates can be divided as follows:

- (a) **Based on Classical Physics.** Postulates adopted from classical physics, either unchanged or modified in the light of experimental facts characteristic of quantum phenomena.
- (b) **Based on Classical–Quantum Correspondence.** Postulates obtained through a classical–quantum correspondence argument.



## The Postulates

The postulates can be divided as follows:

- (a) **Based on Classical Physics.** Postulates adopted from classical physics, either unchanged or modified in the light of experimental facts characteristic of quantum phenomena.
- (b) **Based on Classical–Quantum Correspondence.** Postulates obtained through a classical–quantum correspondence argument.
- (c) **Novel Postulates.** Postulates, with no classical analogues, based on experimental facts or novel theoretical principles or ideas.



## Organization of the Postulates

1. Measurements.
  - 1.1 Finite and Probabilistic outcomes.
  - 1.2 Repetition.
  - 1.3 Representation of Measurements.
2. States.
  - 2.1 States.
  - 2.2 Physical Interpretation of the  $\chi_i$ .
  - 2.3 Information Gain.
  - 2.4 Prior Probabilities.
3. Transformations.
  - 3.1 One-to-one.
  - 3.2 Invariance.
  - 3.3 Parameterized Transformations.
4. Consistency.
5. Composite Systems.



## Organization of the Postulates

1. Measurements.
  - 1.1 Finite and Probabilistic outcomes.
  - 1.2 Repetition.
  - 1.3 Representation of Measurements.
2. States.
  - 2.1 States.
  - 2.2 Physical Interpretation of the  $\chi_i$ .
  - 2.3 Information Gain.
  - 2.4 Prior Probabilities.
3. Transformations.
  - 3.1 One-to-one.
  - 3.2 Invariance.
  - 3.3 Parameterized Transformations.
4. Consistency.
5. Composite Systems.



## Postulate 1.1

### 1 Measurements.

1.1 *Finite and Probabilistic outcomes.* When measurement  $\mathbf{A}$  is performed, one of  $N$  possible outcomes is observed. Outcome  $i$  is obtained with probability  $P_i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, N$ ), with  $P_i$  determined by the preparation, interaction, and measurement.



## Postulate 1.1

### 1 Measurements.

1.1 *Finite and Probabilistic outcomes.* When measurement  $\mathbf{A}$  is performed, one of  $N$  possible outcomes is observed. Outcome  $i$  is obtained with probability  $P_i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, N$ ), with  $P_i$  determined by the preparation, interaction, and measurement.

- Key new idea: All measurements in the measurement set  $\mathcal{A}$  have  $N$  observable outcomes.





## Postulate 1.1

### 1 Measurements.

1.1 *Finite and Probabilistic outcomes.* When measurement  $\mathbf{A}$  is performed, one of  $N$  possible outcomes is observed. Outcome  $i$  is obtained with probability  $P_i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, N$ ), with  $P_i$  determined by the preparation, interaction, and measurement.

- Key new idea: All measurements in the measurement set  $\mathcal{A}$  have  $N$  observable outcomes.
- The postulate is a modification of *determinacy* and *continuum* assumptions of classical physics in the light of experimental facts characteristic of quantum phenomena (such as Stern-Gerlach measurements on silver atoms).



## Postulate 1.2

### 1 Measurements.

1.2 *Repetition.* When measurement **A** is immediately repeated, the same outcome is observed with certainty.



## Postulate 1.2

### 1 Measurements.

1.2 *Repetition.* When measurement **A** is immediately repeated, the same outcome is observed with certainty.

- Identical to the assumption of *repetition consistency* of classical physics.
- Consistent with experimental findings in many quantum experiments (such as Stern-Gerlach measurements on spin systems).



## Postulate 1.3

### 1 Measurements.

1.3 *Representation of Measurements.* For any given pair of measurements,  $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{A}'$ , there exist interactions  $\mathbf{I}, \mathbf{I}'$ , such that  $\mathbf{A}$  can be represented (insofar as the probabilities of the observed outcomes and of the output states are concerned) by an arrangement where  $\mathbf{I}$  is immediately followed by  $\mathbf{A}'$  which, in turn, is immediately followed by  $\mathbf{I}'$ .



## Postulate 1.3

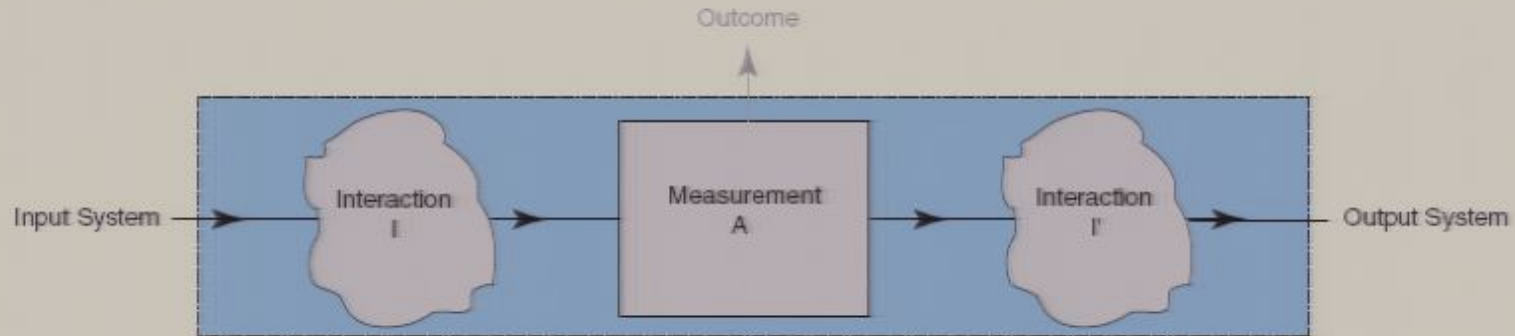
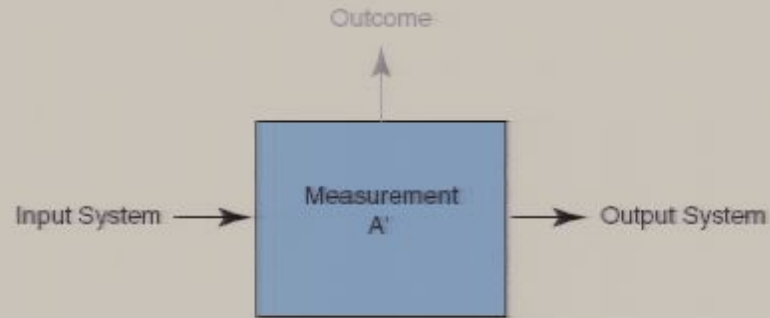
### 1 Measurements.

1.3 *Representation of Measurements.* For any given pair of measurements,  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{A}'$ , there exist interactions  $\mathbf{I}$ ,  $\mathbf{I}'$ , such that  $\mathbf{A}$  can be represented (insofar as the probabilities of the observed outcomes and of the output states are concerned) by an arrangement where  $\mathbf{I}$  is immediately followed by  $\mathbf{A}'$  which, in turn, is immediately followed by  $\mathbf{I}'$ .

- A novel assumption, generalized from appropriate experimental facts (Stern-Gerlach measurements on silver atoms), with no classical analogue.



### Postulate 1.3



## Postulate 2.1

### 2 States.

2.1 *States.* The state,  $\mathbf{S}(t)$ , at time  $t$ , can be represented as  $(\vec{P}, \vec{\chi})$ , where  $\vec{P} = (P_1, \dots, P_N)$  and  $\vec{\chi} = (\chi_1, \dots, \chi_N)$ , where the  $\chi_i$  are real-valued degrees of freedom.



## Postulate 2.1

### 2 States.

2.1 *States.* The state,  $\mathbf{S}(t)$ , at time  $t$ , can be represented as  $(\vec{P}, \vec{\chi})$ , where  $\vec{P} = (P_1, \dots, P_N)$  and  $\vec{\chi} = (\chi_1, \dots, \chi_N)$ , where the  $\chi_i$  are real-valued degrees of freedom.

Postulate 2.1 is based on a classical–quantum correspondence argument:





## Postulate 2.1

### 2 States.

2.1 *States.* The state,  $\mathbf{S}(t)$ , at time  $t$ , can be represented as  $(\vec{P}, \vec{\chi})$ , where  $\vec{P} = (P_1, \dots, P_N)$  and  $\vec{\chi} = (\chi_1, \dots, \chi_N)$ , where the  $\chi_i$  are real-valued degrees of freedom.

Postulate 2.1 is based on a classical–quantum correspondence argument:

- (a) Suppose a particle, mass  $m$ , is prepared using a position measurement at time  $t_0$ , is subject to a potential  $V(\vec{r}, t)$ , and undergoes a position measurement at time  $t_1$ .

## Postulate 2.1

### 2 States.

2.1 *States.* The state,  $\mathbf{S}(t)$ , at time  $t$ , can be represented as  $(\vec{P}, \vec{\chi})$ , where  $\vec{P} = (P_1, \dots, P_N)$  and  $\vec{\chi} = (\chi_1, \dots, \chi_N)$ , where the  $\chi_i$  are real-valued degrees of freedom.

Postulate 2.1 is based on a classical–quantum correspondence argument:

- (a) Suppose a particle, mass  $m$ , is prepared using a position measurement at time  $t_0$ , is subject to a potential  $V(\vec{r}, t)$ , and undergoes a position measurement at time  $t_1$ .
- (b) If the position measurements are sufficiently high in resolution, we find that the preparation is complete with respect to the subsequent position measurement.



## Postulate 2.1

### 2 States.

2.1 *States.* The state,  $\mathbf{S}(t)$ , at time  $t$ , can be represented as  $(\vec{P}, \vec{\chi})$ , where  $\vec{P} = (P_1, \dots, P_N)$  and  $\vec{\chi} = (\chi_1, \dots, \chi_N)$ , where the  $\chi_i$  are real-valued degrees of freedom.

Postulate 2.1 is based on a classical–quantum correspondence argument:

- (a) Suppose a particle, mass  $m$ , is prepared using a position measurement at time  $t_0$ , is subject to a potential  $V(\vec{r}, t)$ , and undergoes a position measurement at time  $t_1$ .
- (b) If the position measurements are sufficiently high in resolution, we find that the preparation is complete with respect to the subsequent position measurement.
- (c) Therefore, we can model the situation using the quantum framework.

## Postulate 2.1

- (d) As  $m$  tends to macroscopic values, the behavior of the particle is well-described by classical physics. Yet the outcomes of the position measurement are still probabilistic.



## Postulate 2.1

- (d) As  $m$  tends to macroscopic values, the behavior of the particle is well-described by classical physics. Yet the outcomes of the position measurement are still probabilistic.
- (e) Hence, the correct classical model is the discretized Hamilton-Jacobi model, with state

$$(P_i; S_i) = (P_1, \dots, P_N; S_1, \dots, S_N).$$



## Postulate 2.1

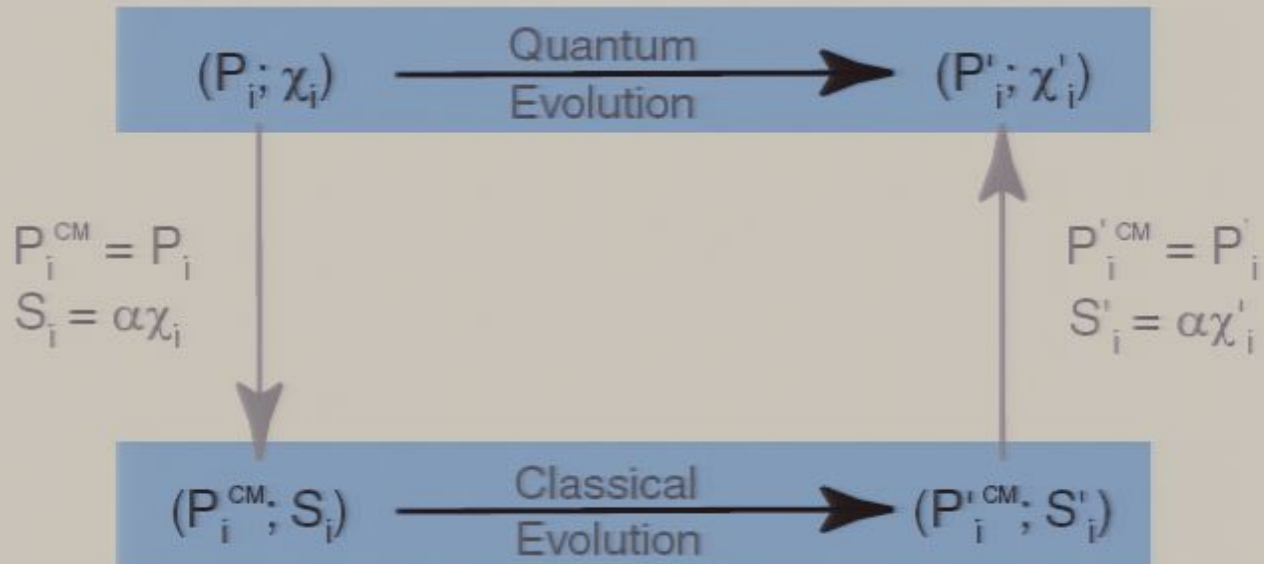
- (d) As  $m$  tends to macroscopic values, the behavior of the particle is well-described by classical physics. Yet the outcomes of the position measurement are still probabilistic.
- (e) Hence, the correct classical model is the discretized Hamilton-Jacobi model, with state

$$(P_i; S_i) = (P_1, \dots, P_N; S_1, \dots, S_N).$$

- (f) To obtain a one-to-one correspondence between the quantum and classical states, the quantum state must be  $(P_i; \chi_i)$ , where the  $\chi_i$  are real-valued degrees of freedom.



## Postulate 2.1



## Postulate 2.2

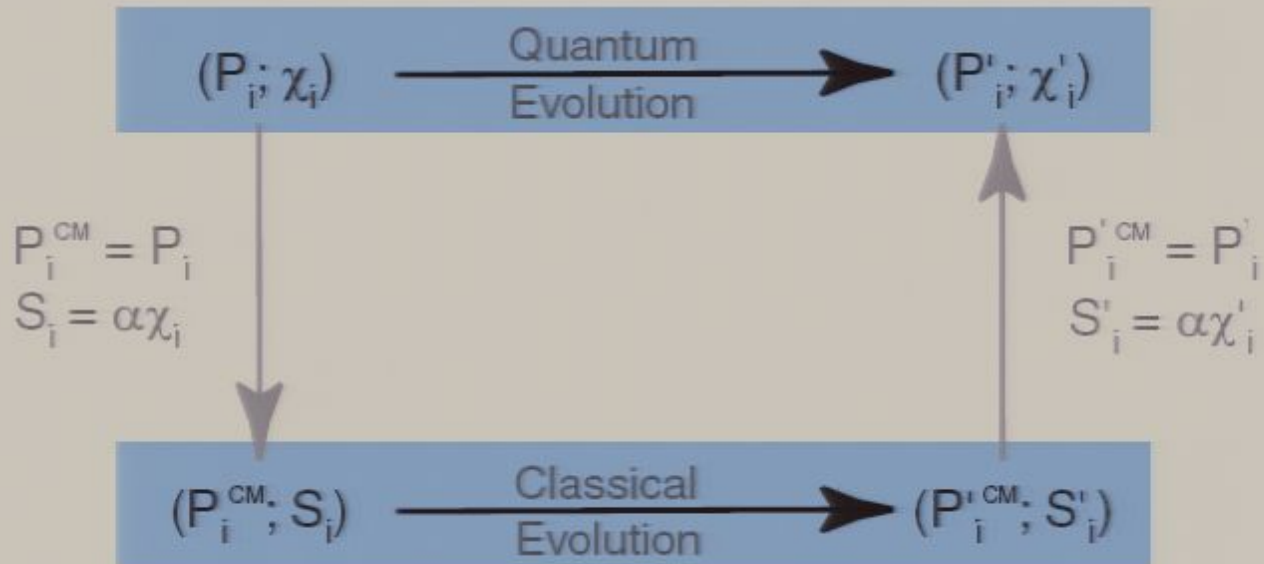
2 States.

2.2 *Physical interpretation of the  $\chi_i$ .* When measurement **A** is performed and the outcome  $i$  is obtained, there are additional outcomes that are objectively realized but unobserved:





## Postulate 2.1



## Postulate 2.2

2 States.

2.2 *Physical interpretation of the  $\chi_i$ .* When measurement **A** is performed and the outcome  $i$  is obtained, there are additional outcomes that are objectively realized but unobserved:



## Postulate 2.2

2 States.

2.2 *Physical interpretation of the  $\chi_i$ .* When measurement **A** is performed and the outcome  $i$  is obtained, there are additional outcomes that are objectively realized but unobserved:

- (a) one of two outcomes (labeled  $a$  and  $b$ ), obtained with respective probabilities  $P_{a|i} = Q_{a|i}^2$  and  $P_{b|i} = Q_{b|i}^2$ , where  $Q_{a|i} = f(\chi_i)$  and  $Q_{b|i} = \tilde{f}(\chi_i)$ , where  $f$  is not a constant function and  $f$  and  $\tilde{f}$  have range  $[-1, 1]$ , and



## Postulate 2.2

### 2 States.

2.2 *Physical interpretation of the  $\chi_i$ .* When measurement **A** is performed and the outcome  $i$  is obtained, there are additional outcomes that are objectively realized but unobserved:

- (a) one of two outcomes (labeled  $a$  and  $b$ ), obtained with respective probabilities  $P_{a|i} = Q_{a|i}^2$  and  $P_{b|i} = Q_{b|i}^2$ , where  $Q_{a|i} = f(\chi_i)$  and  $Q_{b|i} = \tilde{f}(\chi_i)$ , where  $f$  is not a constant function and  $f$  and  $\tilde{f}$  have range  $[-1, 1]$ , and
- (b) one of two possible outcomes (with values labeled  $+$  and  $-$ ), which is determined by the sign of  $Q_{a|i}$  or  $Q_{b|i}$  depending upon whether outcome  $a$  or  $b$  has been realized.



## Postulate 2.2



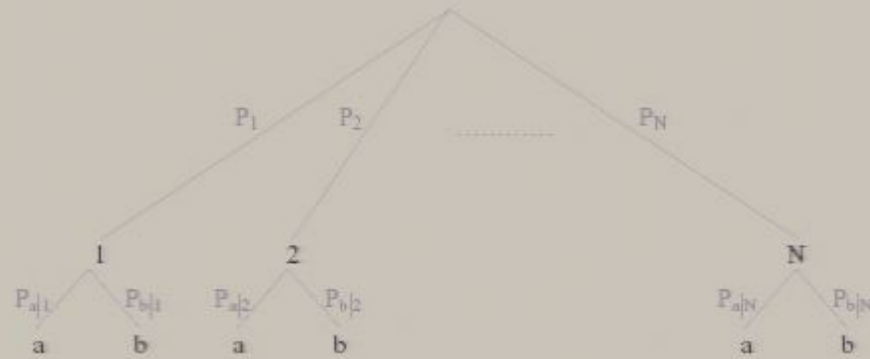
## Postulate 2.2



1. When measurement **A** is performed, and outcome  $i$  is observed, either  $a$  or  $b$  is additionally realized (but unobserved).
2. Outcomes  $a$  and  $b$  are realized probabilistically, with probabilities  $P_{a|i} = Q_{a|i}^2$  and  $P_{b|i} = Q_{b|i}^2$ , respectively.



## Postulate 2.2



## Postulate 2.2

### 2 States.

2.2 *Physical interpretation of the  $\chi_i$ .* When measurement **A** is performed and the outcome  $i$  is obtained, there are additional outcomes that are objectively realized but unobserved:

- (a) one of two outcomes (labeled  $a$  and  $b$ ), obtained with respective probabilities  $P_{a|i} = Q_{a|i}^2$  and  $P_{b|i} = Q_{b|i}^2$ , where  $Q_{a|i} = f(\chi_i)$  and  $Q_{b|i} = \tilde{f}(\chi_i)$ , where  $f$  is not a constant function and  $f$  and  $\tilde{f}$  have range  $[-1, 1]$ , and
- (b) one of two possible outcomes (with values labeled  $+$  and  $-$ ), which is determined by the sign of  $Q_{a|i}$  or  $Q_{b|i}$  depending upon whether outcome  $a$  or  $b$  has been realized.





## Postulate 2.2



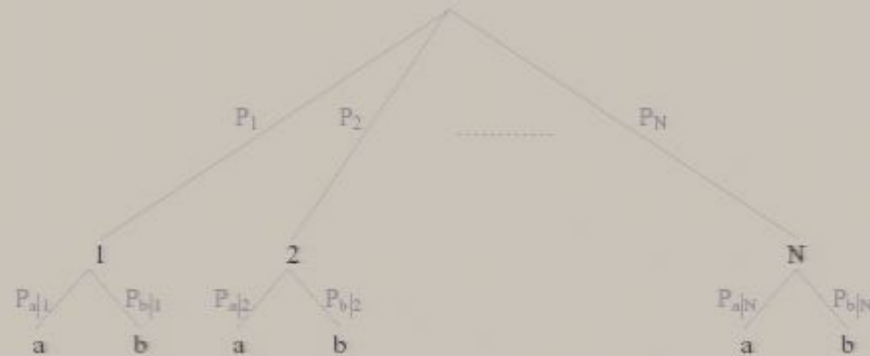
## Postulate 2.2



1. When measurement **A** is performed, and outcome  $i$  is observed, either  $a$  or  $b$  is additionally realized (but unobserved).



## Postulate 2.2



1. When measurement **A** is performed, and outcome  $i$  is observed, either  $a$  or  $b$  is additionally realized (but unobserved).
2. Outcomes  $a$  and  $b$  are realized probabilistically, with probabilities  $P_{a|i} = Q_{a|i}^2$  and  $P_{b|i} = Q_{b|i}^2$ , respectively.



## Postulate 2.2

1. Outcomes  $a$  and  $b$  are motivated by desideratum that the degrees of freedom in the state as far as possible encode probabilities of events.



## Postulate 2.2

1. Outcomes  $a$  and  $b$  are motivated by desideratum that the degrees of freedom in the state as far as possible encode probabilities of events.



## Postulate 2.2

1. Outcomes  $a$  and  $b$  are motivated by desideratum that the degrees of freedom in the state as far as possible encode probabilities of events.
2. The  $Q_{a|i}$  and  $Q_{b|i}$  are motivated by the fact that, in the polarization of a photon, the 'state' is  $(\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$ , which leads to the probabilities  $\cos^2 \theta, \sin^2 \theta$ .



## Postulate 2.3

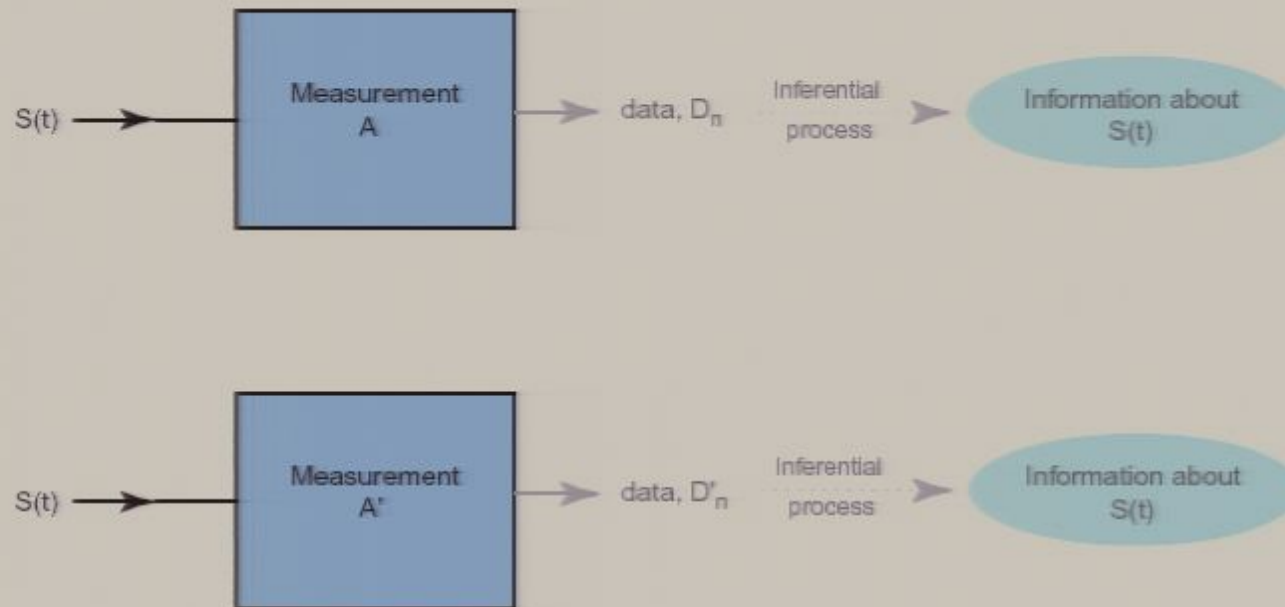
2 States.

2.3 *Information Gain.* In an experiment where measurement  $\mathbf{A}$  is performed on a system in any unknown state,  $\mathbf{S}(t)$ , the amount of Shannon-Jaynes information provided by the probabilistically-determined outcomes about  $\mathbf{S}(t)$  in  $n$  runs of the experiment is independent of  $\mathbf{S}(t)$  in the limit as  $n$  tends to infinity.



## Postulate 2.3

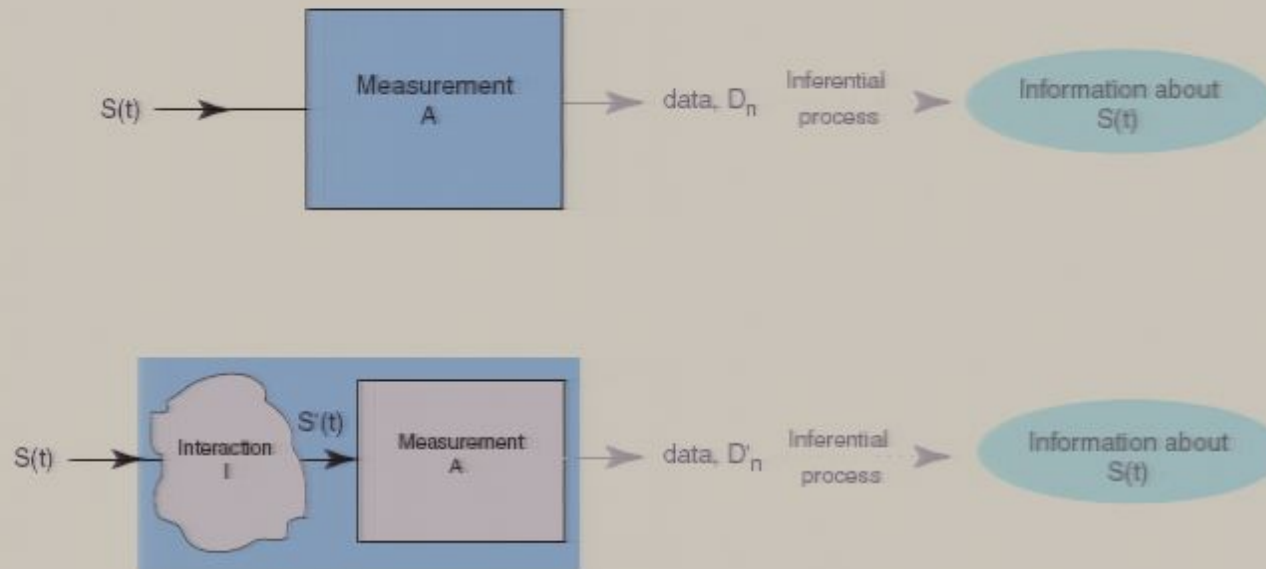
- Consider two experimental trails, each consisting of  $n$  runs.





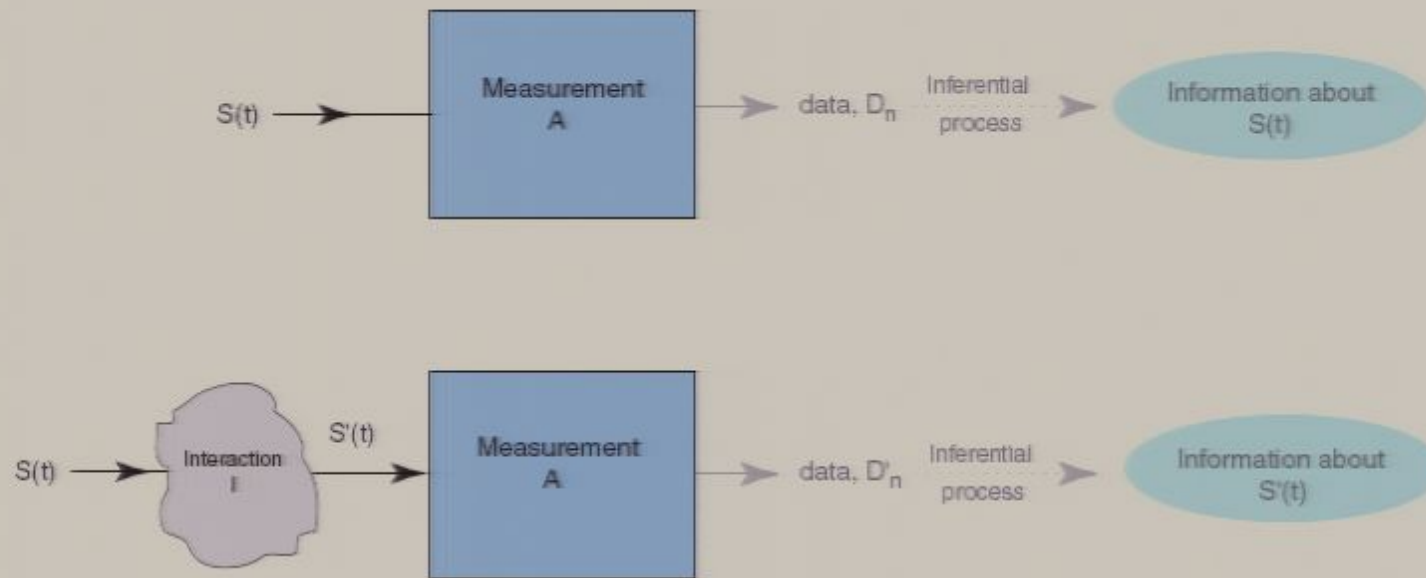
## Postulate 2.3

- Now, by Postulate 1.3 (*Representation of Measurements*), we can replace measurement  $A'$  in trial 2 as follows:



## Postulate 2.3

- Grouping together  $S(t)$  and  $I$ , we have, equivalently:

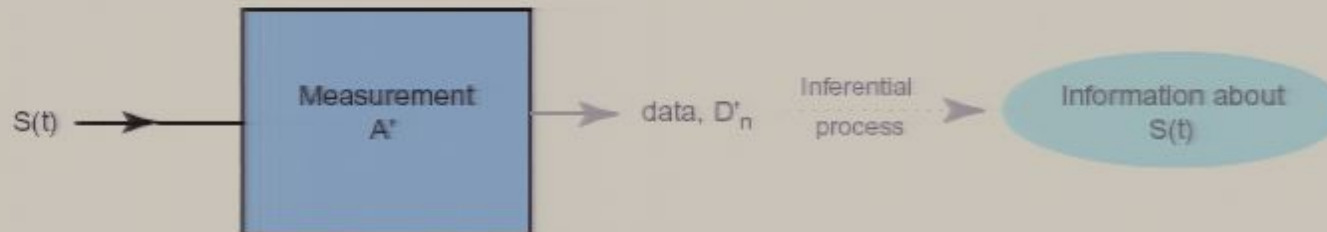


...where  $S'(t) = \mathcal{M}(S(t))$ , where  $\mathcal{M}$  represents the effect of interaction  $I$ .



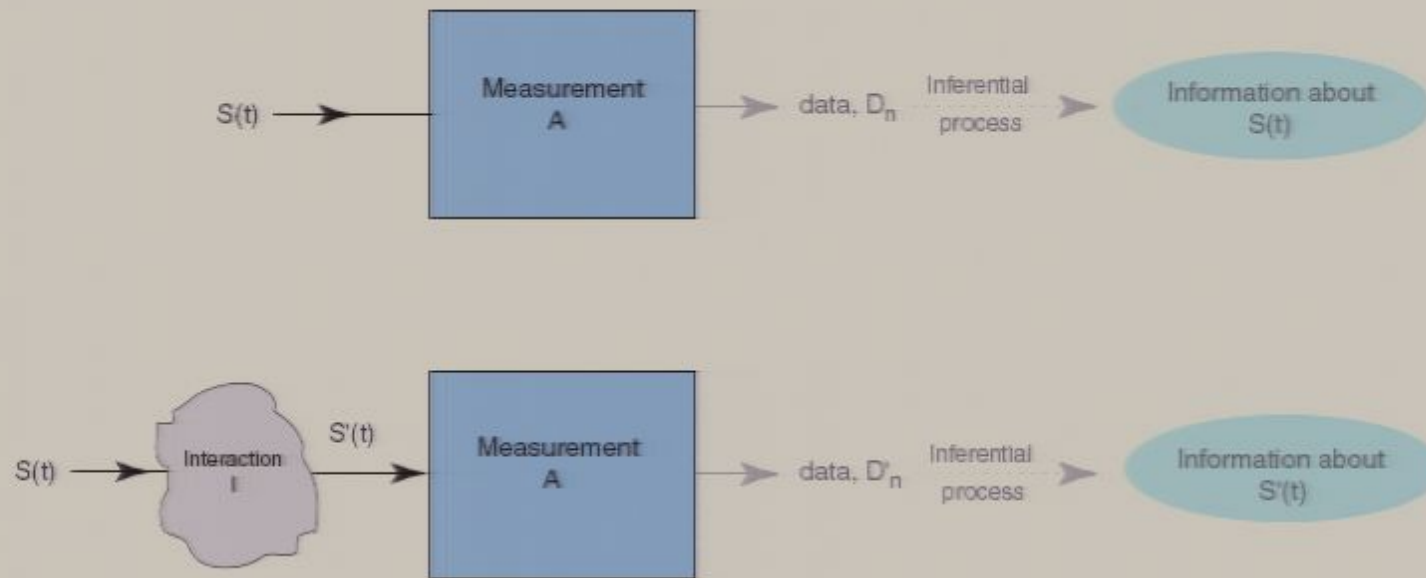
## Postulate 2.3

- Suppose that trials 1 and 2 yield different amounts of information about  $S(t)$ .



## Postulate 2.3

- Grouping together  $S(t)$  and  $I$ , we have, equivalently:

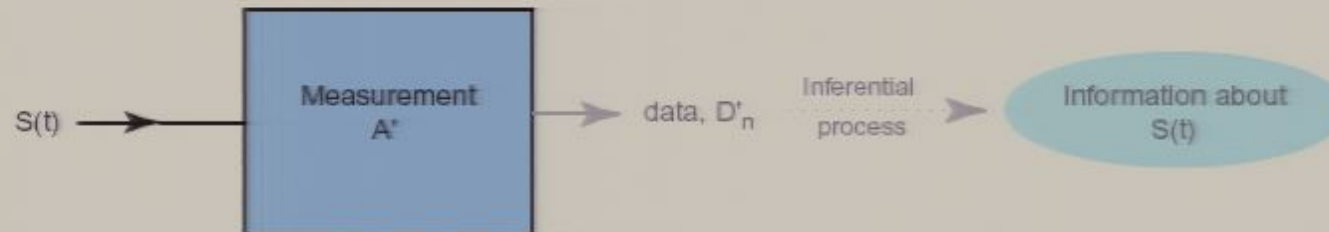
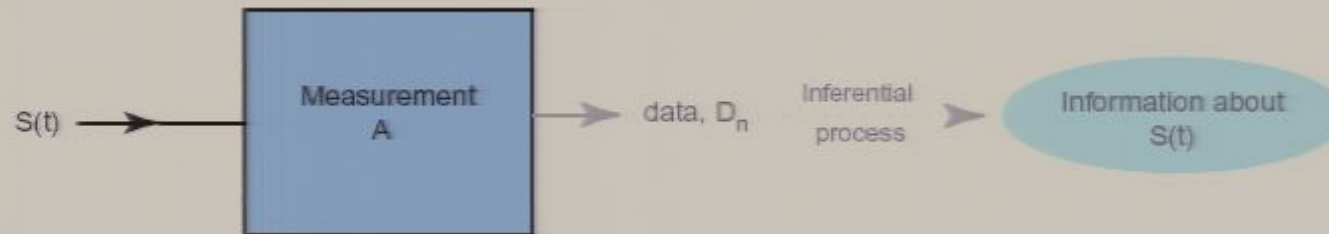


...where  $S'(t) = \mathcal{M}(S(t))$ , where  $\mathcal{M}$  represents the effect of interaction  $I$ .



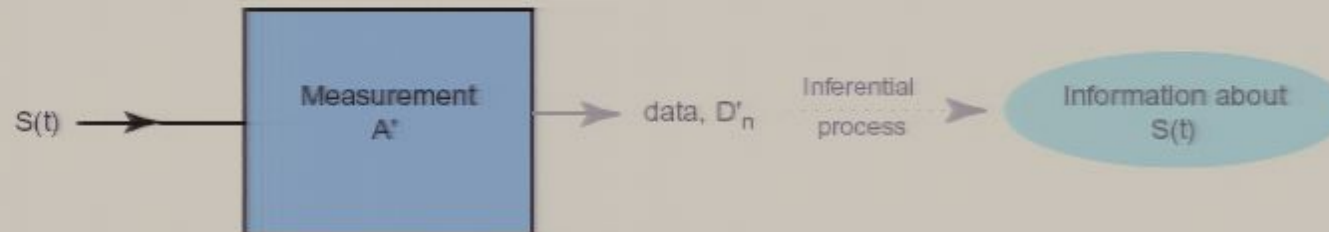
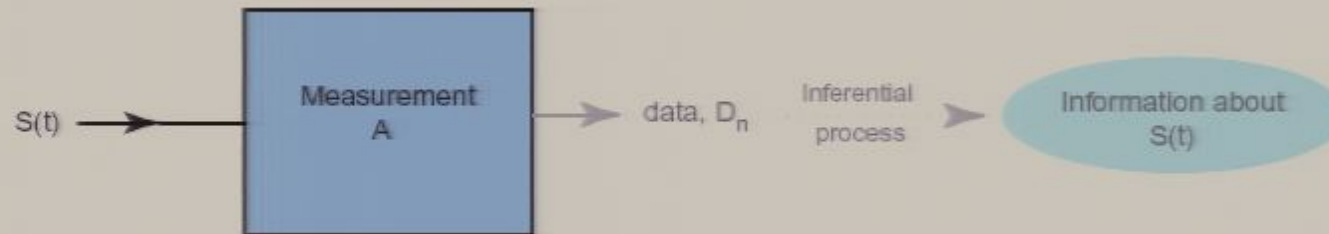
## Postulate 2.3

- Suppose that trials 1 and 2 yield different amounts of information about  $S(t)$ .



## Postulate 2.3

- Suppose that trials 1 and 2 yield different amounts of information about  $\mathbf{S}(t)$ .

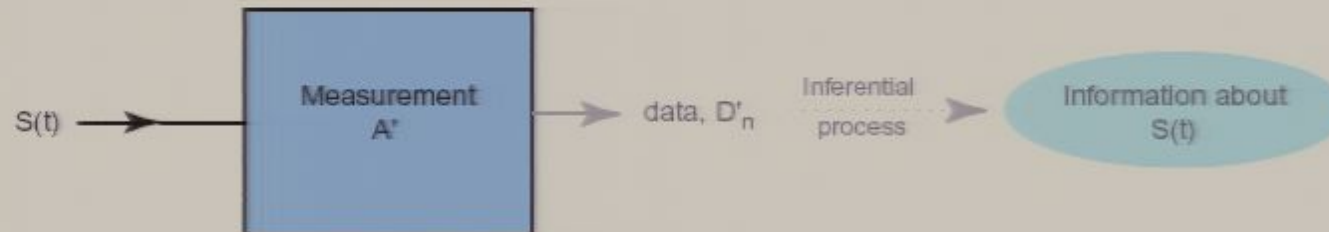


- This implies that one of the measurements  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{A}'$  is privileged insofar as the amount of information it yields about  $\mathbf{S}(t)$ .



## Postulate 2.3

- Suppose that trials 1 and 2 yield different amounts of information about  $\mathbf{S}(t)$ .

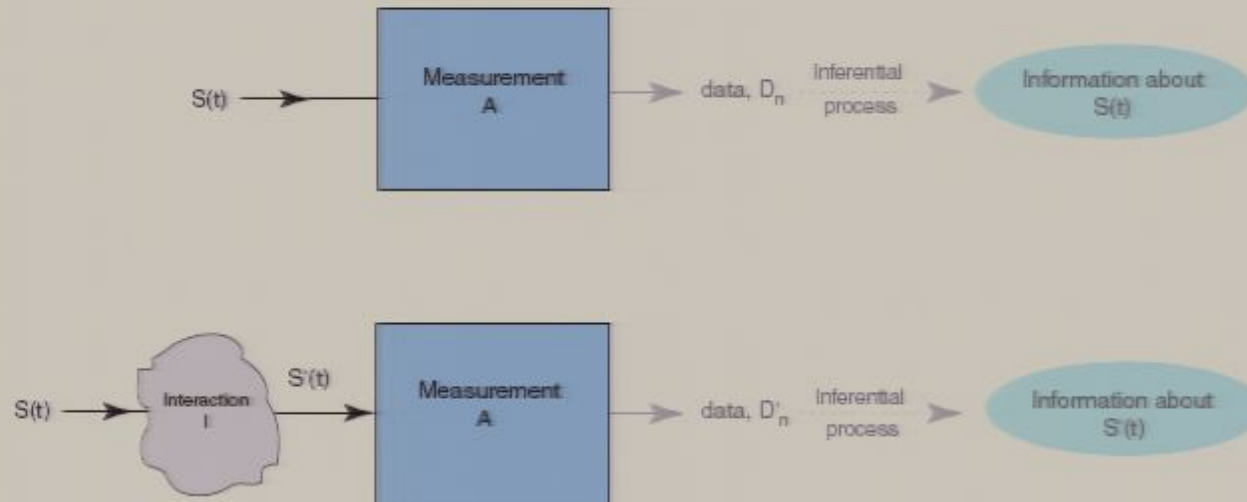


- This implies that one of the measurements  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{A}'$  is privileged insofar as the amount of information it yields about  $\mathbf{S}(t)$ .
- We make the intuitively plausible assertion that this is not possible — that no measurement in  $\mathcal{A}$  is informationally privileged.



## Postulate 2.3

- But this implies that measurement **A** yields the same amount of information about states  $S(t)$  and  $S'(t)$ .





## Postulate 2.4

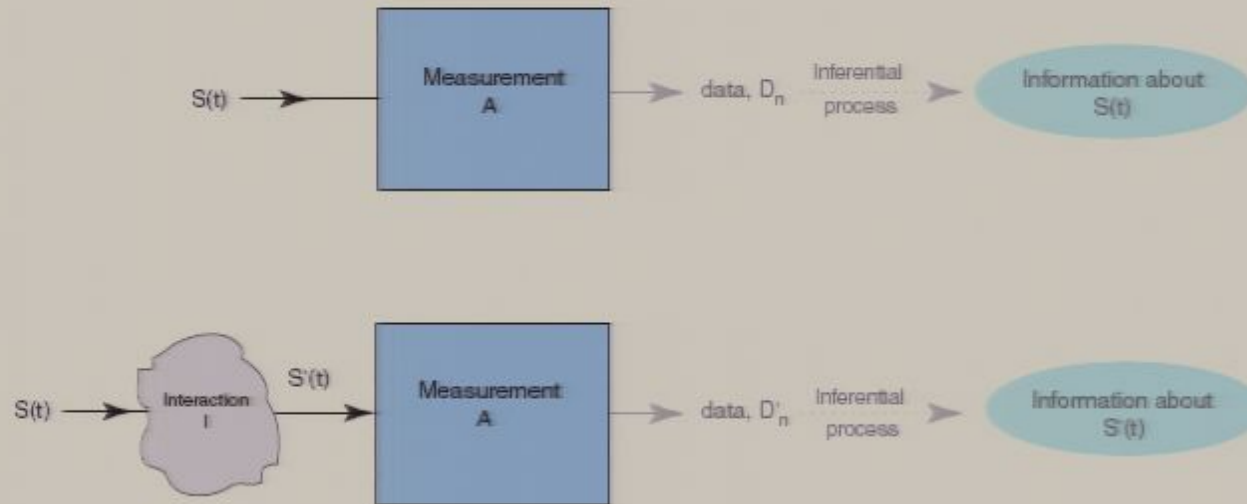
2 States.

2.4 *Prior probabilities.* The prior probability,  $\Pr(\chi_i|I)$ , where  $I$  is the background knowledge of the experimenter prior to performing measurement  $\mathbf{A}$ , is uniform.



## Postulate 2.3

- But this implies that measurement **A** yields the same amount of information about states  $S(t)$  and  $S'(t)$ .



- Postulate 2.3 ensures that this is the case for all  $S(t)$  and  $S'(t)$ .



## Postulate 2.4

2 States.

2.4 *Prior probabilities.* The prior probability,  $\Pr(\chi_i|I)$ , where  $I$  is the background knowledge of the experimenter prior to performing measurement  $\mathbf{A}$ , is uniform.



## Postulate 2.4

### 2 States.

2.4 *Prior probabilities.* The prior probability,  $\Pr(\chi_i|I)$ , where  $I$  is the background knowledge of the experimenter prior to performing measurement  $\mathbf{A}$ , is uniform.

- In the discretized Hamilton-Jacobi model with state  $(P_i, S_i)$ , the zero-value of the  $S_i$  is physically irrelevant.

## Postulate 2.4

### 2 States.

2.4 *Prior probabilities.* The prior probability,  $\Pr(\chi_i|I)$ , where  $I$  is the background knowledge of the experimenter prior to performing measurement  $\mathbf{A}$ , is uniform.

- In the discretized Hamilton-Jacobi model with state  $(P_i, S_i)$ , the zero-value of the  $S_i$  is physically irrelevant.
- This implies that  $\Pr(S_1, \dots, S_N) = \Pr(S_1 + S_0, \dots, S_N + S_0)$  for all  $S_0$  and all  $S_i$ .
- Therefore,  $\Pr(S_i|I)$  is uniform.

## Postulate 2.4

### 2 States.

2.4 *Prior probabilities.* The prior probability,  $\Pr(\chi_i|I)$ , where  $I$  is the background knowledge of the experimenter prior to performing measurement  $\mathbf{A}$ , is uniform.

- In the discretized Hamilton-Jacobi model with state  $(P_i, S_i)$ , the zero-value of the  $S_i$  is physically irrelevant.
- This implies that  $\Pr(S_1, \dots, S_N) = \Pr(S_1 + S_0, \dots, S_N + S_0)$  for all  $S_0$  and all  $S_i$ .
- Therefore,  $\Pr(S_i|I)$  is uniform.
- Under the classical-quantum correspondence  $\chi_i = S_i/\alpha$ , it follows that  $\Pr(\chi_i|I)$  is uniform.



## Postulates 3 and 3.1

3 Transformations. Any transformation of a physical system, whether due to temporal evolution of the system, or due to a passive change of frame of reference (a symmetry transformation), is represented by a map,  $\mathcal{M}$ , over the state space of the system.

3.1 *One-to-one*. The map,  $\mathcal{M}$ , is one-to-one.



## Postulate 2.4

### 2 States.

2.4 *Prior probabilities.* The prior probability,  $\Pr(\chi_i|I)$ , where  $I$  is the background knowledge of the experimenter prior to performing measurement  $\mathbf{A}$ , is uniform.

- In the discretized Hamilton-Jacobi model with state  $(P_i, S_i)$ , the zero-value of the  $S_i$  is physically irrelevant.
- This implies that  $\Pr(S_1, \dots, S_N) = \Pr(S_1 + S_0, \dots, S_N + S_0)$  for all  $S_0$  and all  $S_i$ .
- Therefore,  $\Pr(S_i|I)$  is uniform.
- Under the classical-quantum correspondence  $\chi_i = S_i/\alpha$ , it follows that  $\Pr(\chi_i|I)$  is uniform.



$$(P(r, t), S(r, t))$$



$$(P(r, t), S(r, t))$$

$$(P(r, t), S(r, t))$$

 $\nabla \mathcal{B}$ 

$$(P(r, t), S(r, t))$$

$\nabla S \leftrightarrow$  momentum  
 $\frac{\partial S}{\partial t} \rightarrow$  energy

## Postulate 2.4

### 2 States.

2.4 *Prior probabilities.* The prior probability,  $\Pr(\chi_i|I)$ , where  $I$  is the background knowledge of the experimenter prior to performing measurement  $\mathbf{A}$ , is uniform.

- In the discretized Hamilton-Jacobi model with state  $(P_i, S_i)$ , the zero-value of the  $S_i$  is physically irrelevant.
- This implies that  $\Pr(S_1, \dots, S_N) = \Pr(S_1 + S_0, \dots, S_N + S_0)$  for all  $S_0$  and all  $S_i$ .
- Therefore,  $\Pr(S_i|I)$  is uniform.
- Under the classical-quantum correspondence  $\chi_i = S_i/\alpha$ , it follows that  $\Pr(\chi_i|I)$  is uniform.



$$(P(r, t), S(x, t))$$

$\nabla S$  → momentum  
 $\frac{\partial S}{\partial t}$  → energy

$$Pr(x|I) = Pr(x+x_0|I)$$

P

$$\langle \psi, \psi \rangle = \epsilon(\psi)$$

## Postulate 2.4

### 2 States.

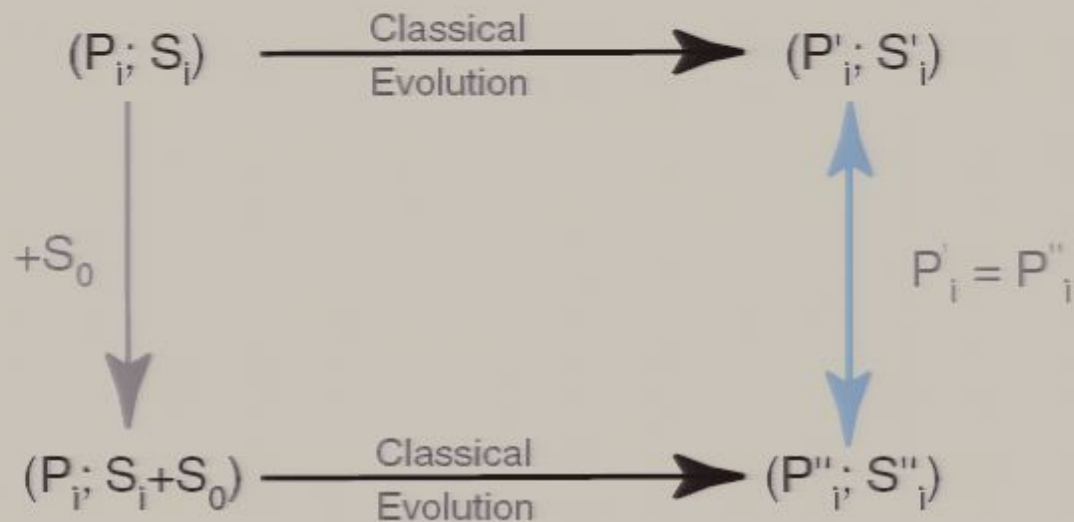
2.4 *Prior probabilities.* The prior probability,  $\Pr(\chi_i|I)$ , where  $I$  is the background knowledge of the experimenter prior to performing measurement  $\mathbf{A}$ , is uniform.

- In the discretized Hamilton-Jacobi model with state  $(P_i, S_i)$ , the zero-value of the  $S_i$  is physically irrelevant.
- This implies that  $\Pr(S_1, \dots, S_N) = \Pr(S_1 + S_0, \dots, S_N + S_0)$  for all  $S_0$  and all  $S_i$ .
- Therefore,  $\Pr(S_i|I)$  is uniform.
- Under the classical-quantum correspondence  $\chi_i = S_i/\alpha$ , it follows that  $\Pr(\chi_i|I)$  is uniform.



### Postulate 3.2

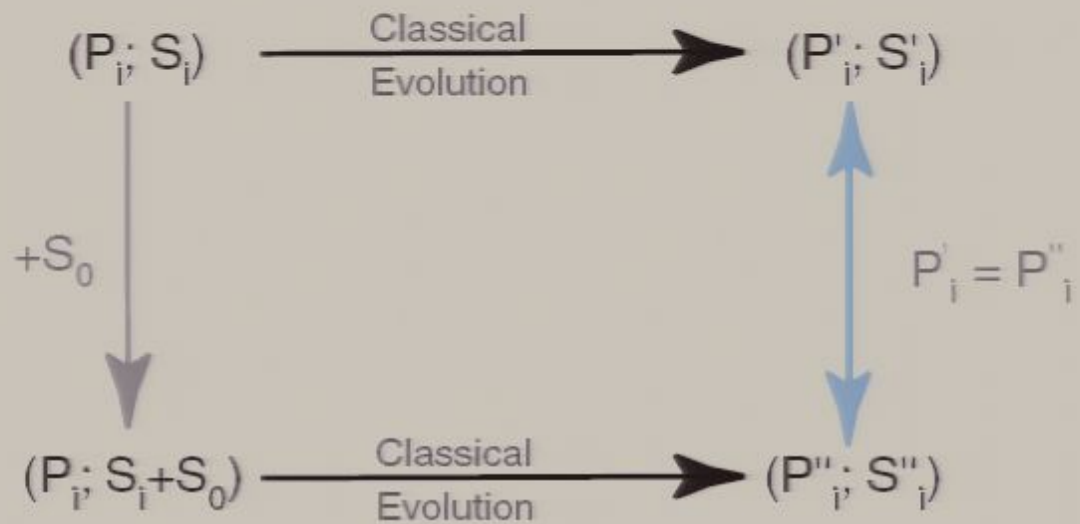
- In the discretized Hamilton-Jacobi model with state  $(P_i, S_i)$ , one can add  $S_0$  to each of the  $S_i$  without changing the predictions of the model.





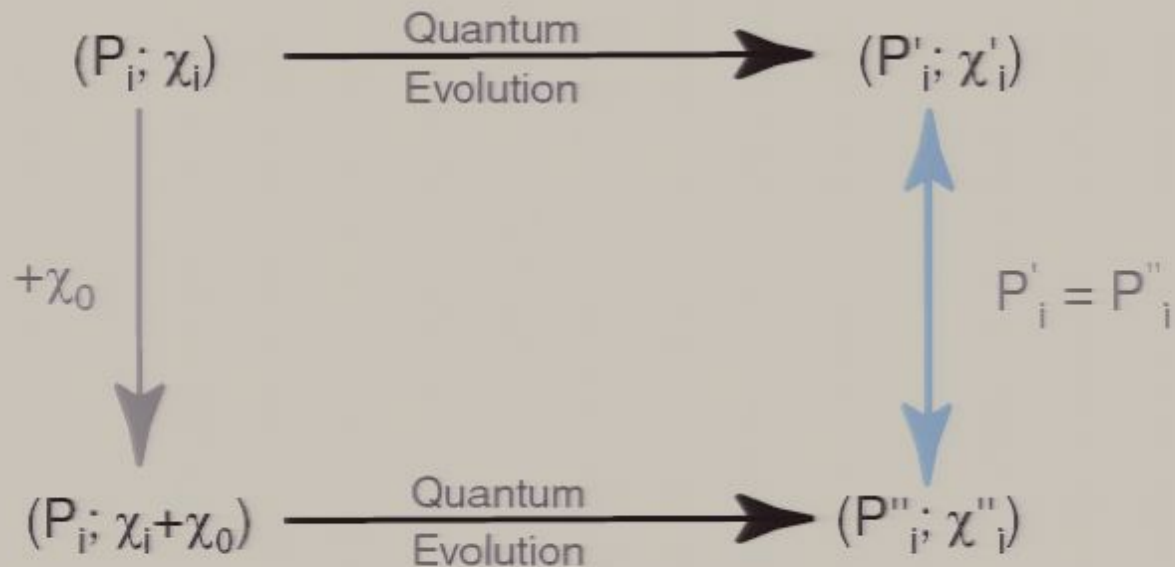
### Postulate 3.2

- In the discretized Hamilton-Jacobi model with state  $(P_i, S_i)$ , one can add  $S_0$  to each of the  $S_i$  without changing the predictions of the model.



## Postulate 3.2

- Under the classical-quantum correspondence  $\chi_i = S_i/\alpha$ , this implies that one can add  $\chi_0$  to each of the  $\chi_i$  in the quantum state  $(P_i; \chi_i)$  without changing the predictions.



## Postulate 3.3

### 3 Transformations.

3.3 *Parameterized Transformations.* If a map,  $\mathcal{M}_\pi$ , represents a physical transformation that is continuously dependent upon the real-valued parameter vector  $\pi$ , then  $\mathcal{M}_\pi$  is continuously dependent upon  $\pi$ . If the physical transformation is a continuous transformation, then, for some value of  $\pi$ ,  $\mathcal{M}_\pi$  reduces to the identity.

- Adopted unchanged from classical physics.



## Postulate 3.3

### 3 Transformations.

3.3 *Parameterized Transformations.* If a map,  $\mathcal{M}_\pi$ , represents a physical transformation that is continuously dependent upon the real-valued parameter vector  $\pi$ , then  $\mathcal{M}_\pi$  is continuously dependent upon  $\pi$ . If the physical transformation is a continuous transformation, then, for some value of  $\pi$ ,  $\mathcal{M}_\pi$  reduces to the identity.

- Adopted unchanged from classical physics.
- **Example 1:** A reflection-rotation of a frame of reference through an angle  $\theta$  is continuously dependent upon  $\theta$ . The map,  $\mathcal{M}_\theta$ , that represents the transformation is therefore continuously dependent upon  $\theta$ .

## Postulate 3.3

### 3 Transformations.

3.3 *Parameterized Transformations.* If a map,  $\mathcal{M}_\pi$ , represents a physical transformation that is continuously dependent upon the real-valued parameter vector  $\pi$ , then  $\mathcal{M}_\pi$  is continuously dependent upon  $\pi$ . If the physical transformation is a continuous transformation, then, for some value of  $\pi$ ,  $\mathcal{M}_\pi$  reduces to the identity.

- Adopted unchanged from classical physics.
- **Example 1:** A reflection-rotation of a frame of reference through an angle  $\theta$  is continuously dependent upon  $\theta$ . The map,  $\mathcal{M}_\theta$ , that represents the transformation is therefore continuously dependent upon  $\theta$ .
- **Example 2:** A rotation of a frame of reference through an angle  $\theta$  is a continuous transformation. For the value  $\theta = 0$ , the map,  $\mathcal{M}_\theta$ , representing the transformation, reduces to the identity.

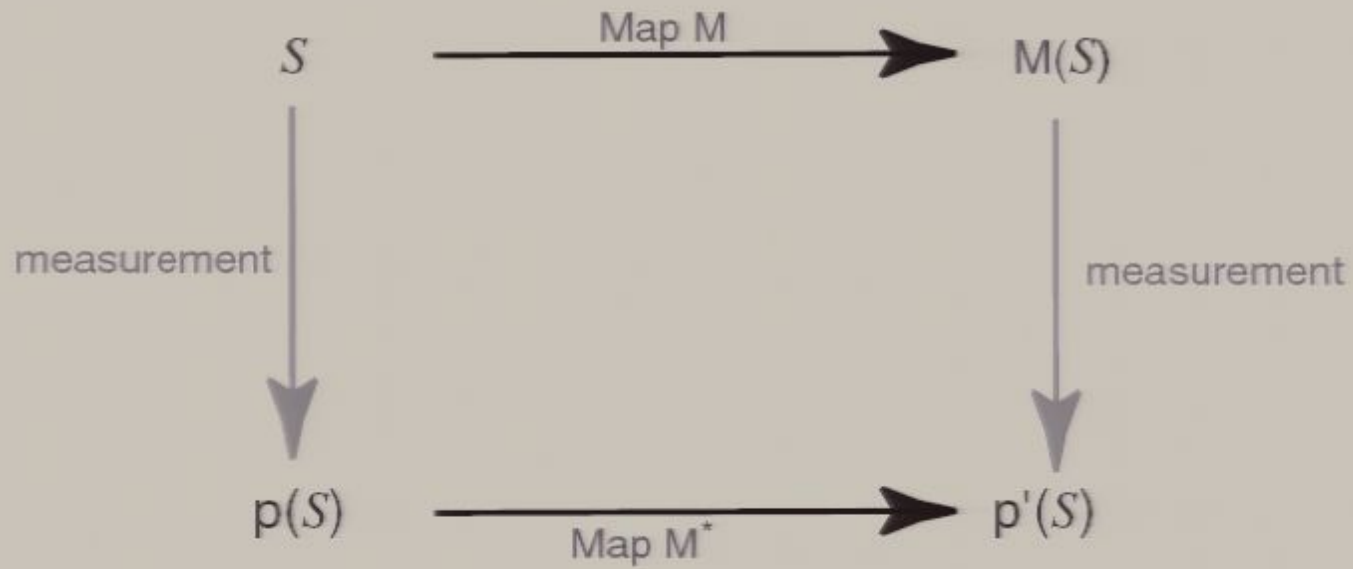


## Postulate 4

4. Consistency. The posterior probability distributions over state space that result from the following two processes coincide in the limit as  $n$  tends to infinity:
- (i) inferring a posterior over state space based upon the objectively realized outcomes when the measurement  $\mathbf{A}$  is performed upon  $n$  copies of a system in state  $\mathbf{S}$ , and then transforming the posterior under the map  $\mathcal{M}$ ,  
or
  - (ii) inferring a posterior over state space based upon the objectively realized outcomes when the measurement  $\mathbf{A}$  is performed upon  $n$  copies of a system in state  $\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{S})$ .



## Postulate 4



## Postulate 5

5. Composite Systems. Suppose that a system admits a quantum model with respect to the measurement set  $\mathcal{A}^{(1)}$  whose measurements have  $N^{(1)}$  possible observable outcomes, and admits a quantum model with respect to the measurement set  $\mathcal{A}^{(2)}$  whose measurements have  $N^{(2)}$  possible observable outcomes, where the sets  $\mathcal{A}^{(1)}$  and  $\mathcal{A}^{(2)}$  are disjoint.

Consider the quantum model of the system with respect to the measurement set  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}^{(1)} \times \mathcal{A}^{(2)}$ . If the states of the sub-systems are represented as  $(P_i^{(1)}; \chi_i^{(1)})$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, N^{(1)}$ ) and  $(P_j^{(2)}; \chi_j^{(2)})$  ( $j = 1, 2, \dots, N^{(2)}$ ), respectively, then the state of the composite system can be represented as  $(P_{ij}; \chi_{ij})$ , where

$$P_{ij} = P_i^{(1)} P_j^{(2)},$$
$$\chi_{ij} = \chi_i^{(1)} + \chi_j^{(2)}.$$





## Postulate 5

- Suppose that, in the discretized Hamilton-Jacobi model of a particle, the state of a particle with respect to  $x$ - and  $y$ -position measurements is  $(P_i^x, S_i^x)$  and  $(P_i^y, S_i^y)$ , respectively.



## Postulate 5

- Suppose that, in the discretized Hamilton-Jacobi model of a particle, the state of a particle with respect to  $x$ - and  $y$ -position measurements is  $(P_i^x, S_i^x)$  and  $(P_i^y, S_i^y)$ , respectively.
- Then, by the Hamilton-Jacobi equations, the state of the particle with respect to  $xy$ -position measurements is

$$(P_{ij}; S_{ij}) = (P_i P_j; S_i^x + S_j^y).$$



## Postulate 5

- Suppose that, in the discretized Hamilton-Jacobi model of a particle, the state of a particle with respect to  $x$ - and  $y$ -position measurements is  $(P_i^x, S_i^x)$  and  $(P_i^y, S_i^y)$ , respectively.
- Then, by the Hamilton-Jacobi equations, the state of the particle with respect to  $xy$ -position measurements is

$$(P_{ij}; S_{ij}) = (P_i P_j; S_i^x + S_j^y).$$

- Under the classical-quantum correspondence  $\chi_i = S_i/\alpha$ , this implies, if the states of two disjoint models of a system are  $(P_i^{(1)}; \chi_i^{(1)})$  and  $(P_i^{(2)}; \chi_i^{(2)})$ , then the state of the composite system is

$$(P_{ij}; \chi_{ij}) = (P_i^{(1)} P_j^{(2)}; \chi_i^{(1)} + \chi_j^{(2)}).$$



## Main steps in the deduction of the formalism (1)

**Step 1.** Implement the Principle of Information Gain.

**Step 2.** Represent  $\mathbf{S}(t)$  as a unit vector in a  $2N$ -dimensional Euclidean space.

**Step 3.** Find the set of possible mappings of state space which represent physical transformations.

**Step 4.** Obtain a representation of measurements as Hermitian operators.

**Step 5.** Obtain the tensor product rule.

## Main steps in the deduction of the formalism (2)

In later steps (not discussed here):

- Formulate the “Average-Value Correspondence Principle” (AVCP)
- Derive the temporal evolution operator.
- Derive the formal rules (such as operator rules and commutation relations) needed to apply the abstract quantum formalism.

## Step 1: Implement the Principle of Information Gain



The probabilistic source which models measurement **A** being performed has the probability n-tuple

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\mathbf{P}} &= (\tilde{P}_1, \tilde{P}_2, \dots, \tilde{P}_{2N-1}, \tilde{P}_{2N}) \\ &= (P_1 P_{a|1}, P_1 P_{b|1}, \dots, P_N P_{a|N}, P_N P_{b|N}) \end{aligned}$$



## Step 1. Implement the Principle of Information Gain.

- Postulate 2.3 (Information Gain) implies that, for any  $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}$  the amount of information obtained about  $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}$  in  $n$  runs is independent of  $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}$  in the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .



## Step 1. Implement the Principle of Information Gain.

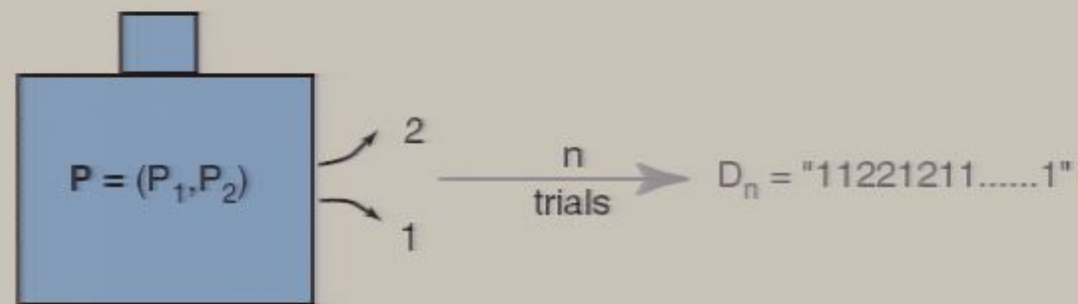
- Postulate 2.3 (Information Gain) implies that, for any  $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}$  the amount of information obtained about  $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}$  in  $n$  runs is independent of  $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}$  in the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .
- To implement this condition, we need to examine the process by which information is gained about a probabilistic source.





## Gaining information from a probabilistic source

- A probabilistic source with two possible outcomes is interrogated  $n$  times, and a data string,  $D_n$ , is obtained.



## Gaining information from a probabilistic source

1. From  $D_n$ , obtain the frequency,  $f_1$ , of outcome 1.



## Gaining information from a probabilistic source

1. From  $D_n$ , obtain the frequency,  $f_1$ , of outcome 1.
2. Using Bayes rule, calculate the posterior,  $\Pr(P_1|f_1, n, I)$ ,

$$\Pr(P_1|f_1, n, I) = \frac{\Pr(f_1|P_1, n, I) \Pr(P_1|n, I)}{\Pr(f_1|n, I)},$$

where “I” symbolizes the knowledge of the experimenter before obtaining  $D_n$ .



## Gaining information from a probabilistic source

1. From  $D_n$ , obtain the frequency,  $f_1$ , of outcome 1.
2. Using Bayes rule, calculate the posterior,  $\Pr(P_1|f_1, n, I)$ ,

$$\Pr(P_1|f_1, n, I) = \frac{\Pr(f_1|P_1, n, I) \Pr(P_1|n, I)}{\Pr(f_1|n, I)},$$

where “I” symbolizes the knowledge of the experimenter before obtaining  $D_n$ .

3. Calculate the information gain,  $\Delta K$ :

$$\Delta K = (\text{Initial uncertainty about } P_1) - (\text{Final uncertainty about } P_1)$$

## The Shannon-Jaynes entropy

- We quantify the uncertainty using the Shannon-Jaynes entropy: the uncertainty in  $P_1$  if one's knowledge about  $P_1$  is given by the probability density function  $f(P_1)$  is

$$H[f(P_1)] = - \int f(P_1) \ln \frac{f(P_1)}{\text{Pr}(P_1|I)} dP_1$$



## The Shannon-Jaynes entropy

- We quantify the uncertainty using the Shannon-Jaynes entropy: the uncertainty in  $P_1$  if ones knowledge about  $P_1$  is given by the probability density function  $f(P_1)$  is

$$H[f(P_1)] = - \int f(P_1) \ln \frac{f(P_1)}{\text{Pr}(P_1|I)} dP_1$$

- Hence, the information gain is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta K &= H[\text{Pr}(P_1|I)] - H[\text{Pr}(P_1|f_1, n, I)] \\ &= \int \text{Pr}(P_1|f_1, n, I) \ln \frac{\text{Pr}(P_1|f_1, n, I)}{\text{Pr}(P_1|I)} dP_1 \end{aligned}$$



## The Shannon-Jaynes entropy

- We quantify the uncertainty using the Shannon-Jaynes entropy: the uncertainty in  $P_1$  if ones knowledge about  $P_1$  is given by the probability density function  $f(P_1)$  is

$$H[f(P_1)] = - \int f(P_1) \ln \frac{f(P_1)}{\text{Pr}(P_1|I)} dP_1$$

- Hence, the information gain is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta K &= H[\text{Pr}(P_1|I)] - H[\text{Pr}(P_1|f_1, n, I)] \\ &= \int \text{Pr}(P_1|f_1, n, I) \ln \frac{\text{Pr}(P_1|f_1, n, I)}{\text{Pr}(P_1|I)} dP_1 \end{aligned}$$

- The information gain is, as we would expect, dependent upon the prior,  $\text{Pr}(P_1|I)$ . But what is  $\text{Pr}(P_1|I)$  ?



## A uniform prior

- Let's try a uniform prior,  $\Pr(P_1|I) = 1$ . In that case, in the limit of large  $n$ , we find

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta K &= -\ln(\sigma\sqrt{2\pi e}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}\ln\left(\frac{n}{2\pi e}\right) - \frac{1}{2}\ln(P_1(1-P_1)).\end{aligned}$$

where  $\sigma^2 = f_1(1-f_1)/n$ .





## A uniform prior

- Let's try a uniform prior,  $\Pr(P_1|I) = 1$ . In that case, in the limit of large  $n$ , we find

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta K &= -\ln(\sigma\sqrt{2\pi e}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}\ln\left(\frac{n}{2\pi e}\right) - \frac{1}{2}\ln(P_1(1-P_1)).\end{aligned}$$

where  $\sigma^2 = f_1(1-f_1)/n$ .

- Hence, with the uniform prior,  $\Pr(P_1|I) = 1$ , the information gain depends upon the value of  $P_1$ .



## A uniform prior

- Let's try a uniform prior,  $\Pr(P_1|I) = 1$ . In that case, in the limit of large  $n$ , we find

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta K &= -\ln(\sigma\sqrt{2\pi e}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}\ln\left(\frac{n}{2\pi e}\right) - \frac{1}{2}\ln(P_1(1-P_1)).\end{aligned}$$

where  $\sigma^2 = f_1(1-f_1)/n$ .

- Hence, with the uniform prior,  $\Pr(P_1|I) = 1$ , the information gain depends upon the value of  $P_1$ .
- Is there a choice of  $\Pr(P_1|I)$  such that the information gain is independent of  $P_1$ ?



## A special prior

- One finds that the information gain is independent of  $P_1$  if and only if

$$\Pr(P_1|I) = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{P_1(1-P_1)}}.$$



## A special prior

- One finds that the information gain is independent of  $P_1$  if and only if

$$\Pr(P_1|I) = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{P_1(1-P_1)}}.$$

- Readily generalizes to an  $M$ -outcome probabilistic source with probability  $n$ -tuple  $\vec{P} = (P_1, \dots, P_M)$ :

$$\Pr(\vec{P}|I) = \frac{2}{A_{M-1}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{P_1 \dots P_M}} \delta \left( 1 - \sum_i P_i \right),$$

where  $A_{M-1}$  is the surface area of a unit  $M$ -ball.



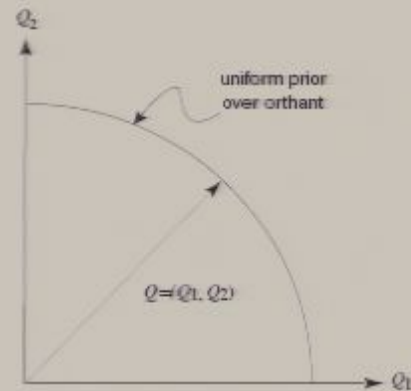
## Visualization of the special prior

- If we change variables to  $(Q_1, Q_2) = (\sqrt{P_1}, \sqrt{P_2})$ , we find that the prior  $\Pr(Q_1, Q_2|I)$  is constant on  $(Q_1^2 + Q_2^2) = 1$  for  $Q_1 \geq 0$  and  $Q_2 \geq 0$ .



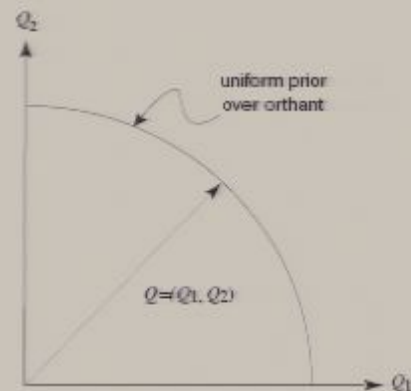
## Visualization of the special prior

- If we change variables to  $(Q_1, Q_2) = (\sqrt{P_1}, \sqrt{P_2})$ , we find that the prior  $\text{Pr}(Q_1, Q_2|I)$  is constant on  $(Q_1^2 + Q_2^2) = 1$  for  $Q_1 \geq 0$  and  $Q_2 \geq 0$ .
- If we define a two-dimensional Euclidean space,  $Q^2$ , then we can equivalently represent and visualize the prior as:



## Visualization of the special prior

- If we change variables to  $(Q_1, Q_2) = (\sqrt{P_1}, \sqrt{P_2})$ , we find that the prior  $\text{Pr}(Q_1, Q_2|I)$  is constant on  $(Q_1^2 + Q_2^2) = 1$  for  $Q_1 \geq 0$  and  $Q_2 \geq 0$ .
- If we define a two-dimensional Euclidean space,  $Q^2$ , then we can equivalently represent and visualize the prior as:



- The posterior, for large  $n$ , is a Gaussian with standard deviation  $1/2\sqrt{n}$  over the positive quadrant.



## Visualization of the special prior

- Similarly, for an  $M$ -outcome probabilistic source, we define  $Q$ -space to be an  $M$ -dimensional Euclidean space. Then we can represent the prior  $\Pr(\mathbf{Q}|I)$  as a uniform prior over the positive orthant of the unit hypersphere.





## Visualization of the special prior

- Similarly, for an  $M$ -outcome probabilistic source, we define  $Q$ -space to be an  $M$ -dimensional Euclidean space. Then we can represent the prior  $\Pr(\mathbf{Q}|I)$  as a uniform prior over the positive orthant of the unit hypersphere.
- The posterior, for large  $n$ , is a symmetric Gaussian with standard deviation  $1/2\sqrt{n}$  over the positive orthant.



## Implications of the Principle of Information Gain

- Let us represent  $\tilde{\mathbf{P}} = (\tilde{P}_1, \dots, \tilde{P}_{2N})$  as a vector in a  $2N$  dimensional Euclidean space:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{Q} &= (Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_{2N}) \\ &= (\sqrt{\tilde{P}_1}, \sqrt{\tilde{P}_2}, \dots, \sqrt{\tilde{P}_{2N}}).\end{aligned}$$



## Implications of the Principle of Information Gain

- Let us represent  $\tilde{\mathbf{P}} = (\tilde{P}_1, \dots, \tilde{P}_{2N})$  as a vector in a  $2N$  dimensional Euclidean space:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{Q} &= (Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_{2N}) \\ &= (\sqrt{\tilde{P}_1}, \sqrt{\tilde{P}_2}, \dots, \sqrt{\tilde{P}_{2N}}).\end{aligned}$$

- Then Postulate 2.3 implies that the prior is uniform over the positive orthant,  $S_+^{2N}$ , of unit hypersphere in  $Q^{2N}$  and zero otherwise.



## Implications of the Principle of Information Gain

- Let us represent  $\tilde{\mathbf{P}} = (\tilde{P}_1, \dots, \tilde{P}_{2N})$  as a vector in a  $2N$  dimensional Euclidean space:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{Q} &= (Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_{2N}) \\ &= (\sqrt{\tilde{P}_1}, \sqrt{\tilde{P}_2}, \dots, \sqrt{\tilde{P}_{2N}}).\end{aligned}$$



## Visualization of the special prior

- Similarly, for an  $M$ -outcome probabilistic source, we define  $Q$ -space to be an  $M$ -dimensional Euclidean space. Then we can represent the prior  $\Pr(\mathbf{Q}|I)$  as a uniform prior over the positive orthant of the unit hypersphere.
- The posterior, for large  $n$ , is a symmetric Gaussian with standard deviation  $1/2\sqrt{n}$  over the positive orthant.



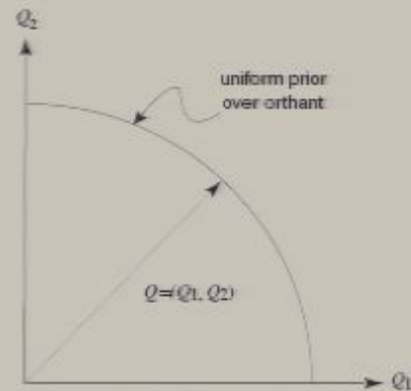
## Visualization of the special prior

- Similarly, for an  $M$ -outcome probabilistic source, we define  $Q$ -space to be an  $M$ -dimensional Euclidean space. Then we can represent the prior  $\Pr(\mathbf{Q}|I)$  as a uniform prior over the positive orthant of the unit hypersphere.



## Visualization of the special prior

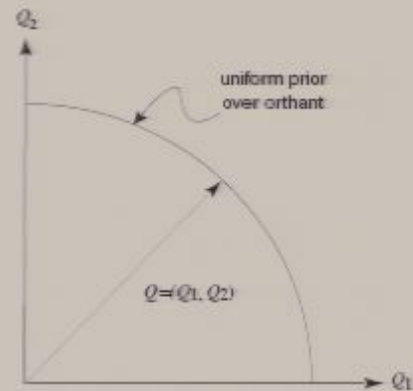
- If we change variables to  $(Q_1, Q_2) = (\sqrt{P_1}, \sqrt{P_2})$ , we find that the prior  $\Pr(Q_1, Q_2|I)$  is constant on  $(Q_1^2 + Q_2^2) = 1$  for  $Q_1 \geq 0$  and  $Q_2 \geq 0$ .
- If we define a two-dimensional Euclidean space,  $Q^2$ , then we can equivalently represent and visualize the prior as:



- The posterior, for large  $n$ , is a Gaussian with standard deviation  $1/2\sqrt{n}$  over the positive quadrant.

## Visualization of the special prior

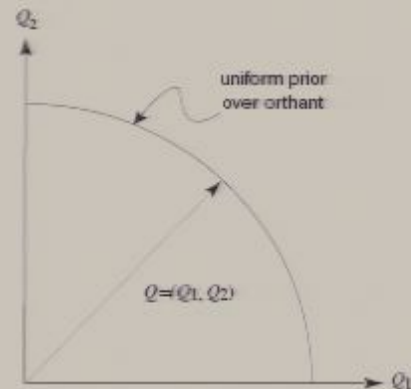
- If we change variables to  $(Q_1, Q_2) = (\sqrt{P_1}, \sqrt{P_2})$ , we find that the prior  $\text{Pr}(Q_1, Q_2|I)$  is constant on  $(Q_1^2 + Q_2^2) = 1$  for  $Q_1 \geq 0$  and  $Q_2 \geq 0$ .
- If we define a two-dimensional Euclidean space,  $Q^2$ , then we can equivalently represent and visualize the prior as:





## Visualization of the special prior

- If we change variables to  $(Q_1, Q_2) = (\sqrt{P_1}, \sqrt{P_2})$ , we find that the prior  $\Pr(Q_1, Q_2|I)$  is constant on  $(Q_1^2 + Q_2^2) = 1$  for  $Q_1 \geq 0$  and  $Q_2 \geq 0$ .
- If we define a two-dimensional Euclidean space,  $Q^2$ , then we can equivalently represent and visualize the prior as:



- The posterior, for large  $n$ , is a Gaussian with standard deviation  $1/2\sqrt{n}$  over the positive quadrant.



## Visualization of the special prior

- Similarly, for an  $M$ -outcome probabilistic source, we define  $Q$ -space to be an  $M$ -dimensional Euclidean space. Then we can represent the prior  $\Pr(\mathbf{Q}|I)$  as a uniform prior over the positive orthant of the unit hypersphere.



## Implications of the Principle of Information Gain

- Let us represent  $\tilde{\mathbf{P}} = (\tilde{P}_1, \dots, \tilde{P}_{2N})$  as a vector in a  $2N$  dimensional Euclidean space:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{Q} &= (Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_{2N}) \\ &= (\sqrt{\tilde{P}_1}, \sqrt{\tilde{P}_2}, \dots, \sqrt{\tilde{P}_{2N}}).\end{aligned}$$

- Then Postulate 2.3 implies that the prior is uniform over the positive orthant,  $S_+^{2N}$ , of unit hypersphere in  $Q^{2N}$  and zero otherwise.



## Step 2. Represent $S(t)$ in a $2N$ -dimensional Euclidean space.

- If we allow *all*  $\mathbf{Q}$  on the unit hypersphere, then the  $2N$  signs of the  $Q_{a|i}$  and the  $Q_{b|i}$  are encoded by the *orthant* containing  $\mathbf{Q}$ .



## Implications of the Principle of Information Gain

- Let us represent  $\tilde{\mathbf{P}} = (\tilde{P}_1, \dots, \tilde{P}_{2N})$  as a vector in a  $2N$  dimensional Euclidean space:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{Q} &= (Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_{2N}) \\ &= (\sqrt{\tilde{P}_1}, \sqrt{\tilde{P}_2}, \dots, \sqrt{\tilde{P}_{2N}}).\end{aligned}$$

- Then Postulate 2.3 implies that the prior is uniform over the positive orthant,  $S_+^{2N}$ , of unit hypersphere in  $Q^{2N}$  and zero otherwise.
- Using Postulate 2.4, namely  $Pr(\chi_i|I)$  is uniform, and using the relations

$$Q_{a|i} = f(\chi_i) \quad \text{and} \quad Q_{b|i} = \tilde{f}(\chi_i),$$

we find that

$$f(\chi_i) = \cos \chi_i \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{f}(\chi_i) = \sin \chi_i.$$



## Step 2. Represent $S(t)$ in a $2N$ -dimensional Euclidean space.

- If we allow *all*  $\mathbf{Q}$  on the unit hypersphere, then the  $2N$  signs of the  $Q_{a|i}$  and the  $Q_{b|i}$  are encoded by the *orthant* containing  $\mathbf{Q}$ .

## Step 2. Represent $\mathbf{S}(t)$ in a $2N$ -dimensional Euclidean space.

- If we allow *all*  $\mathbf{Q}$  on the unit hypersphere, then the  $2N$  signs of the  $Q_{a|i}$  and the  $Q_{b|i}$  are encoded by the *orthant* containing  $\mathbf{Q}$ .
- Hence, the  $\mathbf{Q}$  on the unit hypersphere,  $S^{2N-1}$ , represent the state space of the system. The state  $\mathbf{S}(t)$  can be represented by the unit vector

$$\mathbf{Q} = (\sqrt{P_1} \cos \chi_1, \sqrt{P_1} \sin \chi_1, \dots, \sqrt{P_N} \cos \chi_N, \sqrt{P_N} \sin \chi_N).$$

## Step 2. Represent $\mathbf{S}(t)$ in a $2N$ -dimensional Euclidean space.

- If we allow *all*  $\mathbf{Q}$  on the unit hypersphere, then the  $2N$  signs of the  $Q_{a|i}$  and the  $Q_{b|i}$  are encoded by the *orthant* containing  $\mathbf{Q}$ .
- Hence, the  $\mathbf{Q}$  on the unit hypersphere,  $S^{2N-1}$ , represent the state space of the system. The state  $\mathbf{S}(t)$  can be represented by the unit vector

$$\mathbf{Q} = (\sqrt{P_1} \cos \chi_1, \sqrt{P_1} \sin \chi_1, \dots, \sqrt{P_N} \cos \chi_N, \sqrt{P_N} \sin \chi_N).$$

- The prior is uniform over  $S^{2N-1}$ .
- The posterior consists of a symmetric Gaussian, with standard deviation  $\sigma = 1/2\sqrt{n}$ , over one orthant, and zero in all other orthants.



## Step 3: Find the set of possible mappings of state space

1. **Postulates 3 and 3.1:** all physical transformations are represented by 1-1 mappings over state space.



### Step 3: Find the set of possible mappings of state space

1. **Postulates 3 and 3.1:** all physical transformations are represented by 1-1 mappings over state space.
2. **Postulate 4:** the possible transformations are orthogonal transformations.



### Step 3: Find the set of possible mappings of state space

1. **Postulates 3 and 3.1:** all physical transformations are represented by 1-1 mappings over state space.
2. **Postulate 4:** the possible transformations are orthogonal transformations.
3. **Postulate 3.2:** the possible transformations are a particular subset of the orthogonal transformations.



### Step 3: Find the set of possible mappings of state space

1. **Postulates 3 and 3.1:** all physical transformations are represented by 1–1 mappings over state space.
2. **Postulate 4:** the possible transformations are orthogonal transformations.
3. **Postulate 3.2:** the possible transformations are a particular subset of the orthogonal transformations.
4. **Represent state space in complex form:** the set of possible transformations is the set of unitary and antiunitary transformations.



## Implementation of Postulate 4

- Under the map  $\mathcal{M}$ , over  $S^{2N-1}$ , the uniform prior transforms into the probability density function  $\tilde{p}(\mathbf{Q}')$  given by

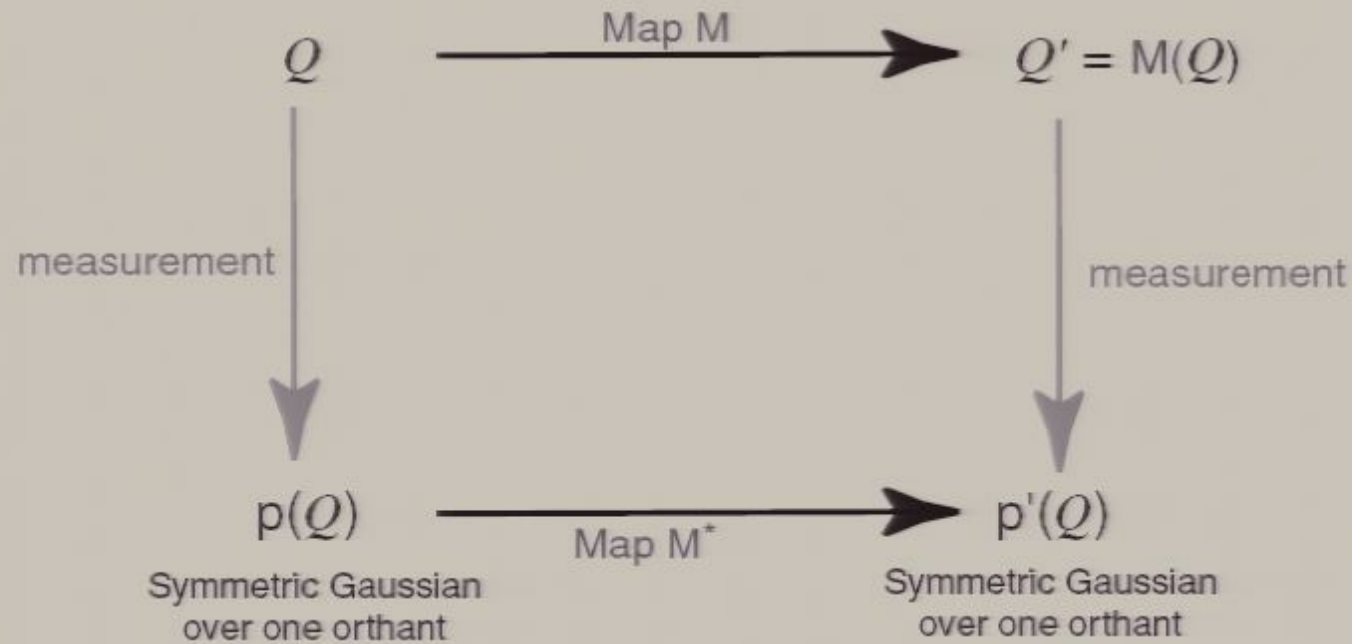
$$\tilde{p}(\mathbf{Q}') = \Pr(\mathbf{Q}|\mathbf{I}) \left| \frac{\partial(Q'_1, \dots, Q'_{2N})}{\partial(Q_1, \dots, Q_{2N})} \right|^{-1}, \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbf{Q} = (Q_1, \dots, Q_{2N})$  and  $\mathbf{Q}' = (Q'_1, \dots, Q'_{2N})$  and  $\mathbf{Q}' = \mathcal{M}(\mathbf{Q})$ .

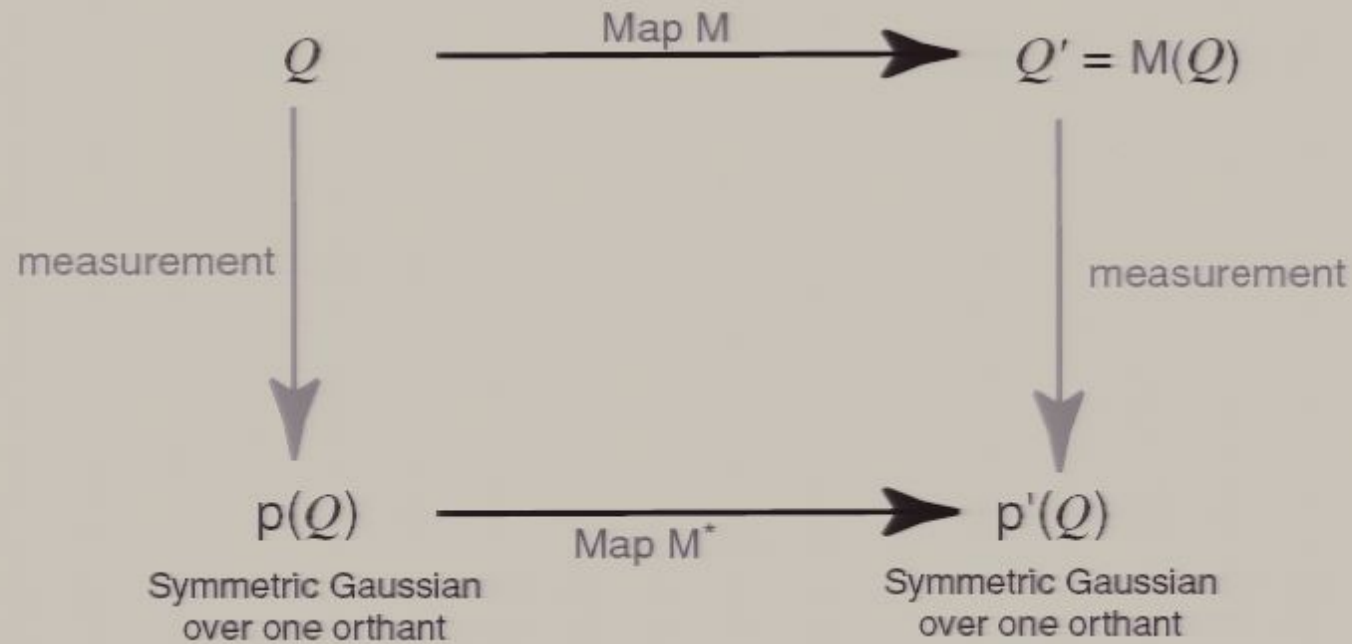
- However, since no measurement has been performed, the prior must remain unchanged. Therefore, the Jacobian is unity.



## Implementation of Postulate 4



## Implementation of Postulate 4



One finds that any given map  $\mathcal{M}$  must be an orthogonal transformation,  $M$ , of  $S^{2N-1}$ .

## Implementation of Postulate 3.2

- Postulate 3.2 requires that the outcome probabilities  $P'_1, \dots, P'_N$  of measurement  $\mathbf{A}$  performed on a system in state  $\mathbf{Q}' = M\mathbf{Q}$  are unaffected by the addition of an arbitrary real constant to the  $\chi_i$  where

$$\mathbf{Q} = (\sqrt{P_1} \cos \chi_1, \sqrt{P_1} \sin \chi_1, \dots, \sqrt{P_N} \cos \chi_N, \sqrt{P_N} \sin \chi_N).$$





## Implementation of Postulate 3.2

- One finds that this leads to the constraint that  $M$  has the form

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} T^{(11)} & T^{(12)} & \dots & T^{(1N)} \\ T^{(21)} & T^{(22)} & \dots & T^{(2N)} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ T^{(N1)} & T^{(N2)} & \dots & T^{(NN)} \end{pmatrix},$$

where

$$T^{(ij)} = \sqrt{\alpha_{ij}} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \varphi_{ij} & -\sigma_{ij} \sin \varphi_{ij} \\ \sin \varphi_{ij} & \sigma_{ij} \cos \varphi_{ij} \end{pmatrix}$$

and where all the non-zero  $T$  sub-matrices are either all scale-rotation or all scale-reflection-rotation matrices.



## Complex representation of state space

- Let us represent  $\mathbf{Q} = (Q_1, \dots, Q_{2N})$  as a unit vector  $\mathbf{v}$ ,

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} Q_1 + iQ_2 \\ Q_3 + iQ_4 \\ \dots \\ Q_{2N-1} + iQ_{2N} \end{pmatrix}$$

in an  $N$ -dimensional complex vector space, and consider

$$\mathbf{v}' = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{v}.$$

## Complex representation of state space

- Let us represent  $\mathbf{Q} = (Q_1, \dots, Q_{2N})$  as a unit vector  $\mathbf{v}$ ,

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} Q_1 + iQ_2 \\ Q_3 + iQ_4 \\ \dots \\ Q_{2N-1} + iQ_{2N} \end{pmatrix}$$

in an  $N$ -dimensional complex vector space, and consider

$$\mathbf{v}' = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{v}.$$

- If we set  $V_{ij} = \sqrt{\alpha_{ij}} \exp(i\varphi_{ij})$ , then the resulting transformation is identical to that produced by  $M$  with the non-zero  $T^{(ij)}$  being scale-rotations.



## Complex representation of state space

- Similarly, the transformation produced by  $VK$ , where  $K$  is the complex conjugation operation, is identical to that produced by  $M$  with the non-zero  $T^{(ij)}$  being scale-reflection-rotations.

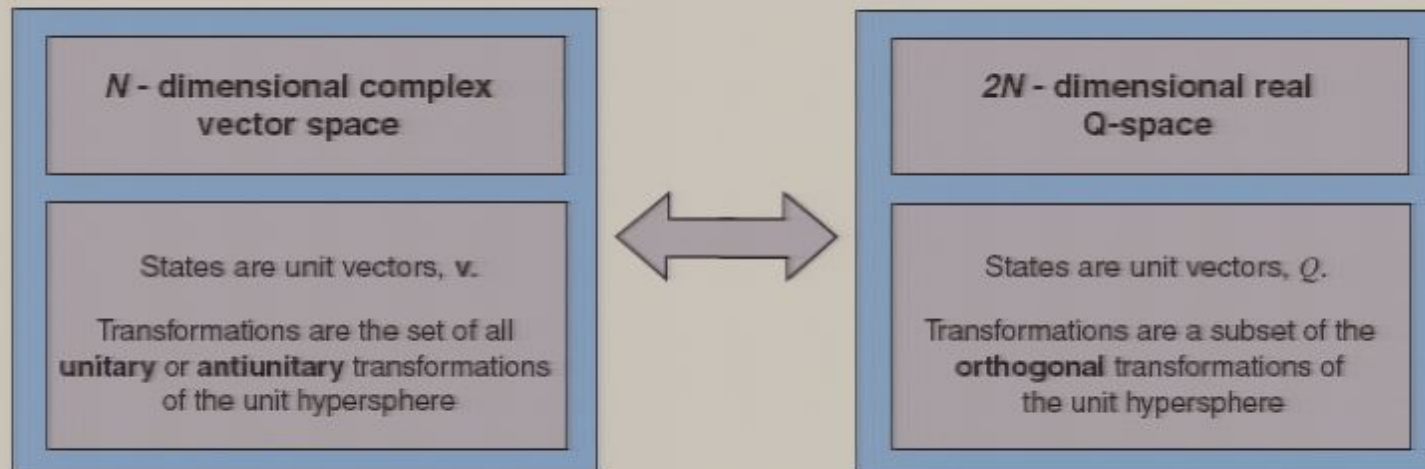


## Complex representation of state space

- Similarly, the transformation produced by  $\mathcal{VK}$ , where  $\mathcal{K}$  is the complex conjugation operation, is identical to that produced by  $M$  with the non-zero  $T^{(ij)}$  being scale-reflection-rotations.
- The converse is also true: every unitary or antiunitary transformation can be cast in the form of  $M$  satisfying Postulate 3.2.



## Complex representation of state space



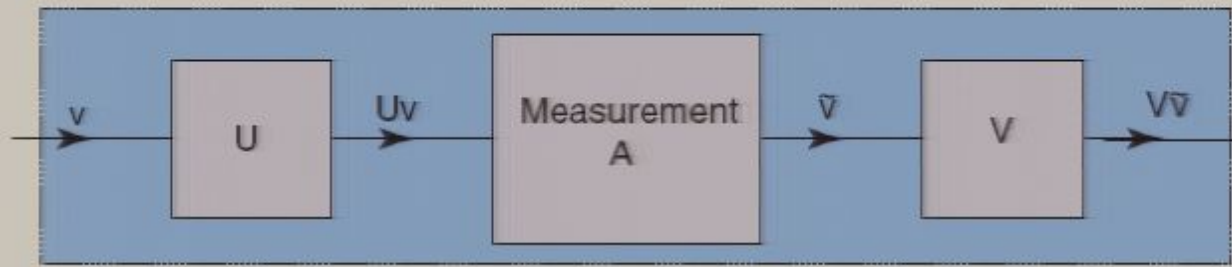
## Step 4: Obtain a representation of measurements

- After measurement  $\mathbf{A}$  has been performed and outcome  $i$  observed, what is the state of the system?



## Step 4: Obtain a representation of measurements

- From Postulate 1.3, a measurement  $A'$  can be represented in terms of measurement  $A$  as follows:



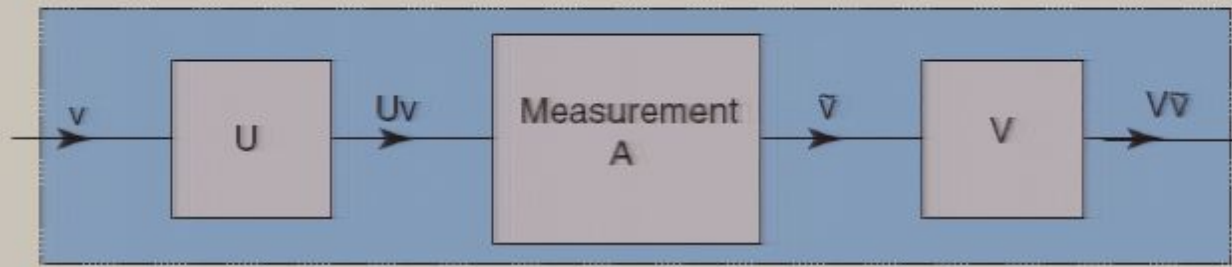
where  $U$  and  $V$  are unitary transformations.





## Step 4: Obtain a representation of measurements

- From Postulate 1.3, a measurement  $\mathbf{A}'$  can be represented in terms of measurement  $\mathbf{A}$  as follows:



where  $U$  and  $V$  are unitary transformations.

- Suppose that measurement  $\mathbf{A}'$  performed on state  $v'_i$  yields outcome  $i$  with certainty. Then, in the above arrangement, we require that, for all  $i$ ,

$$Uv'_i = v_i e^{i\xi_i},$$

where  $\xi_i$  is arbitrary.



## Step 4: Obtain a representation of measurements

- Since  $U$  is unitary, the  $v'_i$  also form an orthonormal basis.



## Step 4: Obtain a representation of measurements

- Since  $U$  is unitary, the  $\mathbf{v}'_i$  also form an orthonormal basis.
- An input state  $\mathbf{v} = \sum_i c_i \mathbf{v}'_i$  therefore gets transformed into  $U\mathbf{v} = \sum_i c_i e^{i\xi_i} \mathbf{v}_i$ .
- Hence, measurement  $\mathbf{A}$  yields outcome  $i$  with probability  $c_i^2$ .



## Step 4: Obtain a representation of measurements

- Since  $U$  is unitary, the  $\mathbf{v}'_i$  also form an orthonormal basis.
- An input state  $\mathbf{v} = \sum_i c_i \mathbf{v}'_i$  therefore gets transformed into  $U\mathbf{v} = \sum_i c_i e^{i\xi_i} \mathbf{v}_i$ .
- Hence, measurement  $\mathbf{A}$  yields outcome  $i$  with probability  $c_i^2$ .
- Hence, the  $\mathbf{v}_i$ , together with the corresponding outcome values,  $a_i$ , of  $\mathbf{A}'$ , characterize measurement  $\mathbf{A}'$ , and can be represented by the Hermitian operator,  $\mathbf{A} = \sum_i a_i \mathbf{v}'_i \mathbf{v}'_i{}^\dagger$ .



## Step 5: Obtain the tensor product rule

- Consider a composite system with two sub-systems with abstract models  $\mathbf{q}(N^{(1)})$  and  $\mathbf{q}(N^{(2)})$ , respectively, where the composite system has the abstract model  $\mathbf{q}(N)$ .



## Step 5: Obtain the tensor product rule

- Consider a composite system with two sub-systems with abstract models  $\mathbf{q}(N^{(1)})$  and  $\mathbf{q}(N^{(2)})$ , respectively, where the composite system has the abstract model  $\mathbf{q}(N)$ .
- Suppose that the sub-systems are in states represented as  $(P_i^{(1)}; \chi_i^{(1)})$  and  $(P_j^{(2)}; \chi_j^{(2)})$ , respectively.
- Then, by Postulate 5, the state of the composite system can be represented as  $(P_{ij}; \chi_{ij})$ , where

$$P_{ij} = P_i^{(1)} P_j^{(2)}$$
$$\chi_{ij} = \chi_i^{(1)} + \chi_j^{(2)}.$$



## Step 5: Obtain the tensor product rule

- Consider a composite system with two sub-systems with abstract models  $\mathbf{q}(N^{(1)})$  and  $\mathbf{q}(N^{(2)})$ , respectively, where the composite system has the abstract model  $\mathbf{q}(N)$ .
- Suppose that the sub-systems are in states represented as  $(P_i^{(1)}; \chi_i^{(1)})$  and  $(P_j^{(2)}; \chi_j^{(2)})$ , respectively.
- Then, by Postulate 5, the state of the composite system can be represented as  $(P_{ij}; \chi_{ij})$ , where

$$P_{ij} = P_i^{(1)} P_j^{(2)}$$
$$\chi_{ij} = \chi_i^{(1)} + \chi_j^{(2)}.$$

- If we write the states of the sub-systems in complex form, then it follows that  $\mathbf{v}$  can simply be written as  $\mathbf{v}^{(1)} \otimes \mathbf{v}^{(2)}$ .



## Step 5: Obtain the tensor product rule

- Consider a composite system with two sub-systems with abstract models  $\mathbf{q}(N^{(1)})$  and  $\mathbf{q}(N^{(2)})$ , respectively, where the composite system has the abstract model  $\mathbf{q}(N)$ .
- Suppose that the sub-systems are in states represented as  $(P_i^{(1)}; \chi_i^{(1)})$  and  $(P_j^{(2)}; \chi_j^{(2)})$ , respectively.
- Then, by Postulate 5, the state of the composite system can be represented as  $(P_{ij}; \chi_{ij})$ , where

$$P_{ij} = P_i^{(1)} P_j^{(2)}$$
$$\chi_{ij} = \chi_i^{(1)} + \chi_j^{(2)}.$$

- If we write the states of the sub-systems in complex form, then it follows that  $\mathbf{v}$  can simply be written as  $\mathbf{v}^{(1)} \otimes \mathbf{v}^{(2)}$ .
- This is easily generalized to a composite system containing  $d$  sub-systems.



## Some General Remarks

- We obtain a mathematical structure that is neither more nor less general than the finite-dimensional quantum formalism. Consequently, the derivation provides an excellent ‘laboratory’ for investigating proposed modifications or novel applications of the quantum formalism.



## Some General Remarks

- We obtain a mathematical structure that is neither more nor less general than the finite-dimensional quantum formalism. Consequently, the derivation provides an excellent ‘laboratory’ for investigating proposed modifications or novel applications of the quantum formalism.
- Complex numbers in the quantum formalism appear to be directly connected with the fact that all possible physical transformations can be represented by unitary or antiunitary transformations. Both stem from the invariance postulate (Postulate 3.2).



## Some General Remarks

- We obtain a mathematical structure that is neither more nor less general than the finite-dimensional quantum formalism. Consequently, the derivation provides an excellent ‘laboratory’ for investigating proposed modifications or novel applications of the quantum formalism.
- Complex numbers in the quantum formalism appear to be directly connected with the fact that all possible physical transformations can be represented by unitary or antiunitary transformations. Both stem from the invariance postulate (Postulate 3.2).
- The concept of information plays a central role in the emergence of the quantum formalism. Specifically, it leads to:
  1.  $Q$ -space, which introduces real amplitudes,
  2. the sinusoidal functions  $f$  and  $\tilde{f}$ .
  3. the restriction that  $\mathcal{M}$  is an orthogonal transformation of  $Q$ -space.



## Some General Remarks

- The derivation highlights the physical importance of the notion of a prior over a continuous parameter, which enters primarily via the Shannon-Jaynes entropy.



## Some General Remarks

- The derivation highlights the physical importance of the notion of a prior over a continuous parameter, which enters primarily via the Shannon-Jaynes entropy.
- One can see rather clearly which assumptions quantum theory shares with classical physics, which are modifications of classical ideas, and which are novel. Information is the key new ingredient.



## Postulate 2.2: Unobservability of $a$ and $b$

- For a system in an eigenstate of energy  $E$ , the overall phase,  $\chi$ , of its quantum state changes at the rate  $E/\hbar$ .



## Postulate 2.2: Unobservability of $a$ and $b$

- For a system in an eigenstate of energy  $E$ , the overall phase,  $\chi$ , of its quantum state changes at the rate  $E/\hbar$ .
- A measurement able to resolve  $a$  and  $b$  must have temporal resolution  $\Delta t < \hbar/E$ .
- But, using  $\Delta E \Delta t \geq \hbar/2$ , the energy associated with the measurement has uncertainty  $\Delta E \geq \hbar/2\Delta t$ . Hence,  $\Delta E \geq E/2$ .
- From  $E = mc^2$ , it follows that  $\Delta E$  must be of the order of the rest energy of the system.
- But such a measurement would probably not preserve the identity of the system, as is required by the idealizations.
- Conversely, an acceptable measurement will have insufficient temporal resolution to resolve the outcomes  $a$  and  $b$ .



## Information: Some Connections

The information gain condition has a number of connections to results in probability theory and to principles used in informational approaches to quantum theory.





## Information: Some Connections

The information gain condition has a number of connections to results in probability theory and to principles used in informational approaches to quantum theory.

- The assumption that the information gain condition applies to a probabilistic source is equivalent to Jeffreys' rule for assigning prior probabilities.
- The metric  $ds^2 = \sum_i dQ_i^2$  over  $Q^M$ -space provides a natural measure of the distance between probability distributions, and is equivalent to the Fisher metric  $ds_F^2 = \sum_i dP_i^2 / P_i$  (cf. Fisher information approaches to quantum theory).

## Information: Some Connections

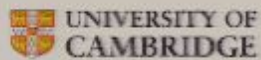
The information gain condition has a number of connections to results in probability theory and to principles used in informational approaches to quantum theory.

- The assumption that the information gain condition applies to a probabilistic source is equivalent to Jeffreys' rule for assigning prior probabilities.
- The metric  $ds^2 = \sum_i dQ_i^2$  over  $Q^M$ -space provides a natural measure of the distance between probability distributions, and is equivalent to the Fisher metric  $ds_F^2 = \sum_i dP_i^2/P_i$  (cf. Fisher information approaches to quantum theory).
- The information gain condition implies that the amount of Shannon-Jaynes information obtained from a source after  $n$  interrogations increases monotonically with  $n$  in the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  (cf. Summhammer, Grinbaum).

### Information: Some Connections

The information gain condition has a number of connections to results in probability theory and to principles used in informational approaches to quantum theory.

- The assumption that the information gain condition applies to a probabilistic source is equivalent to Jeffreys' rule for assigning prior probabilities.
- The metric  $ds^2 = \sum_i dQ_i^2$  over  $Q^M$ -space provides a natural measure of the distance between probability distributions, and is equivalent to the Fisher metric  $ds_F^2 = \sum_i dP_i^2/P_i$  (cf. Fisher information approaches to quantum theory).
- The information gain condition implies that the amount of Shannon-Jaynes information obtained from a source after  $n$  interrogations increases monotonically with  $n$  in the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  (cf. Summhammer, Grimshaw).



Philip Goyal, Cavendish Laboratory

