

# Logic and Quantum Information

## Lecture I: Ringing the Bell

Samson Abramsky

Department of Computer Science, University of Oxford

# Beginnings ...

# Beginnings . . .

The first axiom I learnt in Computer Science:

## Beginnings ...

The first axiom I learnt in Computer Science:

Computers might as well be made of green cheese

# Beginnings ...

The first axiom I learnt in Computer Science:

Computers might as well be made of green cheese



# Beginnings ...

The first axiom I learnt in Computer Science:

Computers might as well be made of green cheese



It is no longer safe to assume this!

# Some Agendas for Quantum Computer Science

# Some Agendas for Quantum Computer Science

- Information processing systems are **physically embodied**. The underlying physics is ultimately **quantum-mechanical**. Taking this seriously forces us to re-examine many of our basic assumptions about Computer Science.



# Some Agendas for Quantum Computer Science

- Information processing systems are **physically embodied**. The underlying physics is ultimately **quantum-mechanical**. Taking this seriously forces us to re-examine many of our basic assumptions about Computer Science.
- It has already led to some exciting developments: remarkable new algorithms, cryptographic schemes, and basic questions in computational complexity.

# Some Agendas for Quantum Computer Science

- Information processing systems are **physically embodied**. The underlying physics is ultimately **quantum-mechanical**. Taking this seriously forces us to re-examine many of our basic assumptions about Computer Science.
- It has already led to some exciting developments: remarkable new algorithms, cryptographic schemes, and basic questions in computational complexity.
- Beyond algorithms and complexity it offers new challenges and opportunities across the range of Computer Science: in programming languages and methods, logic and semantics.

# Some Agendas for Quantum Computer Science

- Information processing systems are **physically embodied**. The underlying physics is ultimately **quantum-mechanical**. Taking this seriously forces us to re-examine many of our basic assumptions about Computer Science.
- It has already led to some exciting developments: remarkable new algorithms, cryptographic schemes, and basic questions in computational complexity.
- Beyond algorithms and complexity it offers new challenges and opportunities across the range of Computer Science: in programming languages and methods, logic and semantics.
- There is a fascinating two-way interplay developing between Computer Science and Physics, extending to the foundations of both, as well as to more practical matters. Quantum technology — “hacking matter” — will be a huge feature of 21st Century science and engineering, and a lot of it will be to do with information.

# Some Agendas for Quantum Computer Science

- Information processing systems are **physically embodied**. The underlying physics is ultimately **quantum-mechanical**. Taking this seriously forces us to re-examine many of our basic assumptions about Computer Science.
- It has already led to some exciting developments: remarkable new algorithms, cryptographic schemes, and basic questions in computational complexity.
- Beyond algorithms and complexity it offers new challenges and opportunities across the range of Computer Science: in programming languages and methods, logic and semantics.
- There is a fascinating two-way interplay developing between Computer Science and Physics, extending to the foundations of both, as well as to more practical matters. Quantum technology — “hacking matter” — will be a huge feature of 21st Century science and engineering, and a lot of it will be to do with information.
- This is an exciting emerging area, attracting students with backgrounds in CS, Physics, Mathematics, Logic, Philosophy, . . .

# Contextual Semantics

# Contextual Semantics

- At the heart of quantum non-classicality are the phenomena of **non-locality**, **contextuality** and **entanglement**.

# Contextual Semantics

- At the heart of quantum non-classicality are the phenomena of **non-locality**, **contextuality** and **entanglement**.
- These concepts play a central rôle in the rapidly developing field of quantum information, in delineating how quantum resources can transcend the bounds of classical information processing.

# Contextual Semantics

- At the heart of quantum non-classicality are the phenomena of **non-locality**, **contextuality** and **entanglement**.
- These concepts play a central rôle in the rapidly developing field of quantum information, in delineating how quantum resources can transcend the bounds of classical information processing.
- They also have profound consequences for our understanding of the very nature of physical reality.



# Contextual Semantics

- At the heart of quantum non-classicality are the phenomena of **non-locality**, **contextuality** and **entanglement**.
- These concepts play a central rôle in the rapidly developing field of quantum information, in delineating how quantum resources can transcend the bounds of classical information processing.
- They also have profound consequences for our understanding of the very nature of physical reality.
- We shall describe recent work in which tools from Computer Science are used to shed new light on these phenomena.

# Contextual Semantics

- At the heart of quantum non-classicality are the phenomena of **non-locality**, **contextuality** and **entanglement**.
- These concepts play a central rôle in the rapidly developing field of quantum information, in delineating how quantum resources can transcend the bounds of classical information processing.
- They also have profound consequences for our understanding of the very nature of physical reality.
- We shall describe recent work in which tools from Computer Science are used to shed new light on these phenomena.
- There are also striking and unexpected connections with a number of topics in **classical** computer science, including relational databases and constraint satisfaction.

# First Loophole-free Bell test, 2015

NATURE | LETTER

日本語要約

## Loophole-free Bell inequality violation using electron spins separated by 1.3 kilometres

B. Hensen, H. Bernien, A. E. Dréau, A. Reiserer, N. Kalb, M. S. Blok, J. Ruitenberg, R. F. L. Vermeulen, R. N. Schouten, C. Abellán, W. Amaya, V. Pruneri, M. W. Mitchell, M. Markham, D. J. Twitchen, D. Elkouss, S. Wehner, T. H. Taminiau & R. Hanson

*Nature* **526**, 682–686 (29 October 2015) doi:10.1038/nature15759

Received 19 August 2015 Accepted 28 September 2015 Published online 21 October 2015

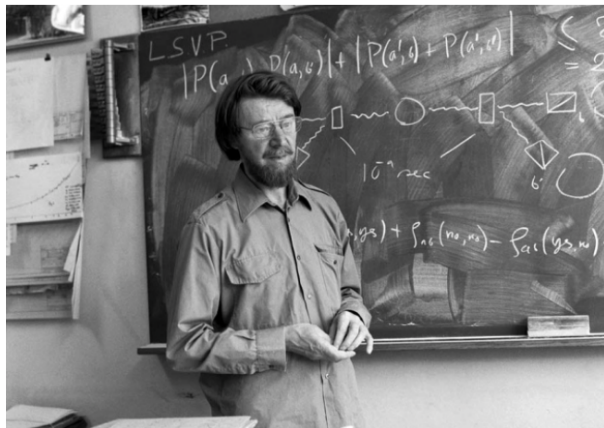
More than 50 years ago<sup>1</sup>, John Bell proved that no theory of nature that obeys locality and realism<sup>2</sup> can reproduce all the predictions of quantum theory: in any local-realist theory, the correlations between outcomes of measurements on distant particles satisfy an inequality that can be violated if the particles are entangled. Numerous Bell inequality tests have been reported<sup>3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13</sup>; however, all experiments reported so far required additional assumptions to obtain a contradiction with local realism, resulting in 'loopholes'<sup>13, 14, 15, 16</sup>. Here we report a Bell experiment that is free of any such additional assumption and thus directly tests the principles underlying Bell's inequality. We use an event-ready scheme<sup>17, 18, 19</sup> that enables the generation of robust entanglement between distant electron spins (estimated state fidelity of  $0.92 \pm 0.03$ ). Efficient spin read-out avoids the fair-sampling assumption (detection loophole<sup>14, 15</sup>), while the use of fast random-basis selection and spin read-out combined with a spatial separation of 1.3 kilometres ensure the required locality conditions<sup>13</sup>. We performed 245 trials that tested the CHSH-Bell inequality<sup>20</sup>  $S \leq 2$  and found  $S = 2.42 \pm 0.20$  (where  $S$  quantifies the correlation between measurement outcomes). A null-hypothesis test yields a probability of at most  $P = 0.039$  that a local-realist model for space-like separated sites could produce data with a violation at least as large as we observe, even when allowing for memory<sup>16, 21</sup> in the devices. Our data hence imply statistically significant rejection of the local-realist null hypothesis. This conclusion may be further consolidated in future experiments; for instance, reaching a value of  $P = 0.001$  would require approximately 700 trials for an observed  $S = 2.4$ . With improvements, our experiment could be used for testing less-conventional theories, and for implementing device-independent quantum-secure communication<sup>22</sup> and randomness certification<sup>23, 24</sup>.

## Quantum 'spookiness' passes toughest test yet

Experiment plugs loopholes in previous demonstrations of 'action at a distance', against Einstein's objections — and could make data encryption safer.

Zeeya Merali

27 August 2015

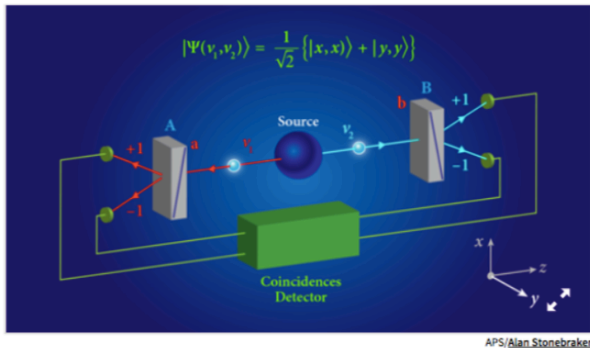


GERN

# Viewpoint: Closing the Door on Einstein and Bohr's Quantum Debate

**Alain Aspect**, Laboratoire Charles Fabry, Institut d'Optique Graduate School, CNRS, Université Paris-Saclay, Palaiseau, France  
 December 16, 2015 • *Physics* 8, 123

By closing two loopholes at once, three experimental tests of Bell's inequalities remove the last doubts that we should renounce local realism. They also open the door to new quantum information technologies.

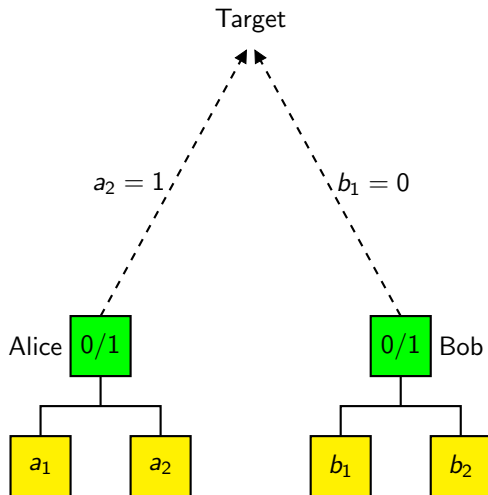


**Figure 1:** An apparatus for performing a Bell test. A source emits a pair of entangled photons  $v_1$  and  $v_2$ . Their polarizations are analyzed by polarizers A and B (grey blocks), which are aligned, respectively, along directions  $a$  and  $b$  ( $a$  and  $b$  can be along  $x$ ... [Show more](#)

# Timeline

- 1932 von Neumann's Mathematical Foundations of Quantum Mechanics
- 1935 EPR Paradox, the Einstein-Bohr debate
- 1964 Bell's Theorem
- 1982 First experimental test of EPR and Bell inequalities  
(Aspect, Grangier, Roger, Dalibard)
- 1984 Bennett-Brassard quantum key distribution protocol
- 1985 Deutsch Quantum Computing paper
- 1993 Quantum teleportation  
(Bennett, Brassard, Crépeau, Jozsa, Peres, Wootters)
- 1994 Shor's algorithm
- 2015 First loophole-free Bell tests (Delft, NIST, Vienna)

# Alice and Bob look at bits



# A Probabilistic Model Of An Experiment



# A Probabilistic Model Of An Experiment

Example: The Bell Model

A	B	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1,1)
$a_1$	$b_1$	$1/2$	$0$	$0$	$1/2$
$a_1$	$b_2$	$3/8$	$1/8$	$1/8$	$3/8$
$a_2$	$b_1$	$3/8$	$1/8$	$1/8$	$3/8$
$a_2$	$b_2$	$1/8$	$3/8$	$3/8$	$1/8$

# A Probabilistic Model Of An Experiment

Example: The Bell Model

A	B	(0, 0)	(1, 0)	(0, 1)	(1, 1)
$a_1$	$b_1$	$1/2$	0	0	$1/2$
$a_1$	$b_2$	$3/8$	$1/8$	$1/8$	$3/8$
$a_2$	$b_1$	$3/8$	$1/8$	$1/8$	$3/8$
$a_2$	$b_2$	$1/8$	$3/8$	$3/8$	$1/8$

The entry in row 2 column 3 says:

*If Alice looks at  $a_1$  and Bob looks at  $b_2$ , then  $1/8$ th of the time, Alice sees a 0 and Bob sees a 1.*

# A Probabilistic Model Of An Experiment

Example: The Bell Model

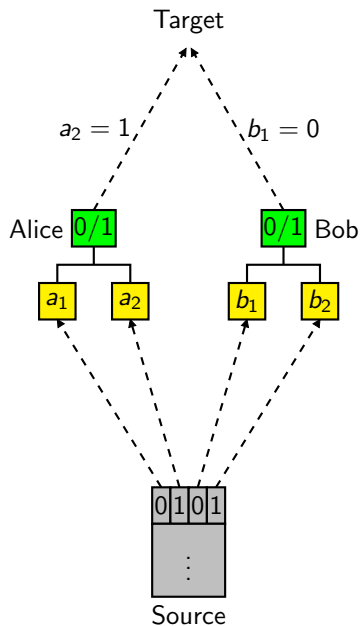
A	B	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1,1)
$a_1$	$b_1$	1/2	0	0	1/2
$a_1$	$b_2$	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
$a_2$	$b_1$	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
$a_2$	$b_2$	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

The entry in row 2 column 3 says:

*If Alice looks at  $a_1$  and Bob looks at  $b_2$ , then 1/8th of the time, Alice sees a 0 and Bob sees a 1.*

How can we explain this behaviour?

# Classical Correlations: The Classical Source



# A Simple Observation

## A Simple Observation

Suppose we have propositional formulas  $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_N$

## A Simple Observation

Suppose we have propositional formulas  $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_N$

Suppose further we can assign a probability  $p_i = \text{Prob}(\phi_i)$  to each  $\phi_i$ .

## A Simple Observation

Suppose we have propositional formulas  $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_N$

Suppose further we can assign a probability  $p_i = \text{Prob}(\phi_i)$  to each  $\phi_i$ .

(Story: perform experiment to test the variables in  $\phi_i$ ;  $p_i$  is the relative frequency of the trials satisfying  $\phi_i$ .)



## A Simple Observation

Suppose we have propositional formulas  $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_N$

Suppose further we can assign a probability  $p_i = \text{Prob}(\phi_i)$  to each  $\phi_i$ .

(Story: perform experiment to test the variables in  $\phi_i$ ;  $p_i$  is the relative frequency of the trials satisfying  $\phi_i$ .)

Suppose that these formulas are **not simultaneously satisfiable**. Then (e.g.)

$$\bigwedge_{i=1}^{N-1} \phi_i \Rightarrow \neg \phi_N,$$

## A Simple Observation

Suppose we have propositional formulas  $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_N$

Suppose further we can assign a probability  $p_i = \text{Prob}(\phi_i)$  to each  $\phi_i$ .

(Story: perform experiment to test the variables in  $\phi_i$ ;  $p_i$  is the relative frequency of the trials satisfying  $\phi_i$ .)

Suppose that these formulas are **not simultaneously satisfiable**. Then (e.g.)

$$\bigwedge_{i=1}^{N-1} \phi_i \Rightarrow \neg \phi_N, \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad \phi_N \Rightarrow \bigvee_{i=1}^{N-1} \neg \phi_i.$$

## A Simple Observation

Suppose we have propositional formulas  $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_N$

Suppose further we can assign a probability  $p_i = \text{Prob}(\phi_i)$  to each  $\phi_i$ .

(Story: perform experiment to test the variables in  $\phi_i$ ;  $p_i$  is the relative frequency of the trials satisfying  $\phi_i$ .)

Suppose that these formulas are **not simultaneously satisfiable**. Then (e.g.)

$$\bigwedge_{i=1}^{N-1} \phi_i \Rightarrow \neg \phi_N, \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad \phi_N \Rightarrow \bigvee_{i=1}^{N-1} \neg \phi_i.$$

Using elementary probability theory, we can calculate:

$$p_N \leq \text{Prob}\left(\bigvee_{i=1}^{N-1} \neg \phi_i\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \text{Prob}(\neg \phi_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} (1 - p_i) = (N-1) - \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} p_i.$$

## A Simple Observation

Suppose we have propositional formulas  $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_N$

Suppose further we can assign a probability  $p_i = \text{Prob}(\phi_i)$  to each  $\phi_i$ .

(Story: perform experiment to test the variables in  $\phi_i$ ;  $p_i$  is the relative frequency of the trials satisfying  $\phi_i$ .)

Suppose that these formulas are **not simultaneously satisfiable**. Then (e.g.)

$$\bigwedge_{i=1}^{N-1} \phi_i \Rightarrow \neg \phi_N, \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad \phi_N \Rightarrow \bigvee_{i=1}^{N-1} \neg \phi_i.$$

Using elementary probability theory, we can calculate:

$$p_N \leq \text{Prob}\left(\bigvee_{i=1}^{N-1} \neg \phi_i\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \text{Prob}(\neg \phi_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} (1 - p_i) = (N-1) - \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} p_i.$$

Hence we obtain the inequality

$$\sum_{i=1}^N p_i \leq N - 1.$$

# Logical analysis of the Bell table

## Logical analysis of the Bell table

	(0, 0)	(1, 0)	(0, 1)	(1, 1)
$(a_1, b_1)$	1/2	0	0	1/2
$(a_1, b_2)$	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
$(a_2, b_1)$	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
$(a_2, b_2)$	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

## Logical analysis of the Bell table

	(0, 0)	(1, 0)	(0, 1)	(1, 1)
$(a_1, b_1)$	1/2	0	0	1/2
$(a_1, b_2)$	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
$(a_2, b_1)$	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
$(a_2, b_2)$	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

If we read 0 as true and 1 as false, the highlighted entries in each row of the table are represented by the following propositions:

$$\varphi_1 = (a_1 \wedge b_1) \vee (\neg a_1 \wedge \neg b_1) = a_1 \leftrightarrow b_1$$

$$\varphi_2 = (a_1 \wedge b_2) \vee (\neg a_1 \wedge \neg b_2) = a_1 \leftrightarrow b_2$$

$$\varphi_3 = (a_2 \wedge b_1) \vee (\neg a_2 \wedge \neg b_1) = a_2 \leftrightarrow b_1$$

$$\varphi_4 = (\neg a_2 \wedge b_2) \vee (a_2 \wedge \neg b_2) = a_2 \oplus b_2.$$

## Logical analysis of the Bell table

	(0, 0)	(1, 0)	(0, 1)	(1, 1)
$(a_1, b_1)$	1/2	0	0	1/2
$(a_1, b_2)$	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
$(a_2, b_1)$	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
$(a_2, b_2)$	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

If we read 0 as true and 1 as false, the highlighted entries in each row of the table are represented by the following propositions:

$$\varphi_1 = (a_1 \wedge b_1) \vee (\neg a_1 \wedge \neg b_1) = a_1 \leftrightarrow b_1$$

$$\varphi_2 = (a_1 \wedge b_2) \vee (\neg a_1 \wedge \neg b_2) = a_1 \leftrightarrow b_2$$

$$\varphi_3 = (a_2 \wedge b_1) \vee (\neg a_2 \wedge \neg b_1) = a_2 \leftrightarrow b_1$$

$$\varphi_4 = (\neg a_2 \wedge b_2) \vee (a_2 \wedge \neg b_2) = a_2 \oplus b_2.$$

These propositions are easily seen to be contradictory.



## Logical analysis of the Bell table

	(0, 0)	(1, 0)	(0, 1)	(1, 1)
$(a_1, b_1)$	1/2	0	0	1/2
$(a_1, b_2)$	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
$(a_2, b_1)$	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
$(a_2, b_2)$	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

If we read 0 as true and 1 as false, the highlighted entries in each row of the table are represented by the following propositions:

$$\varphi_1 = (a_1 \wedge b_1) \vee (\neg a_1 \wedge \neg b_1) = a_1 \leftrightarrow b_1$$

$$\varphi_2 = (a_1 \wedge b_2) \vee (\neg a_1 \wedge \neg b_2) = a_1 \leftrightarrow b_2$$

$$\varphi_3 = (a_2 \wedge b_1) \vee (\neg a_2 \wedge \neg b_1) = a_2 \leftrightarrow b_1$$

$$\varphi_4 = (\neg a_2 \wedge b_2) \vee (a_2 \wedge \neg b_2) = a_2 \oplus b_2.$$

These propositions are easily seen to be contradictory.

The violation of the logical Bell inequality is 1/4.

## Example: the Hardy model

The support of the Hardy model:

	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1,1)
$(a,b)$	1	1	1	1
$(a',b)$	0	1	1	1
$(a,b')$	0	1	1	1
$(a',b')$	1	1	1	0

## Example: the Hardy model

The support of the Hardy model:

	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1,1)
(a,b)	1	1	1	1
(a',b)	0	1	1	1
(a,b')	0	1	1	1
(a',b')	1	1	1	0

If we interpret outcome 0 as true and 1 as false, then the following formulas all have positive probability:

$$a \wedge b, \quad \neg(a \wedge b'), \quad \neg(a' \wedge b), \quad a' \vee b'.$$

## Example: the Hardy model

The support of the Hardy model:

	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1,1)
(a,b)	1	1	1	1
(a',b)	0	1	1	1
(a,b')	0	1	1	1
(a',b')	1	1	1	0

If we interpret outcome 0 as true and 1 as false, then the following formulas all have positive probability:

$$a \wedge b, \quad \neg(a \wedge b'), \quad \neg(a' \wedge b), \quad a' \vee b'.$$

However, these formulas are not simultaneously satisfiable.

## Example: the Hardy model

The support of the Hardy model:

	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1,1)
(a,b)	1	1	1	1
(a',b)	0	1	1	1
(a,b')	0	1	1	1
(a',b')	1	1	1	0

If we interpret outcome 0 as true and 1 as false, then the following formulas all have positive probability:

$$a \wedge b, \quad \neg(a \wedge b'), \quad \neg(a' \wedge b), \quad a' \vee b'.$$

However, these formulas are not simultaneously satisfiable.

In this model,  $p_2 = p_3 = p_4 = 1$ .

## Example: the Hardy model

The support of the Hardy model:

	(0, 0)	(1, 0)	(0, 1)	(1, 1)
(a, b)	1	1	1	1
(a', b)	0	1	1	1
(a, b')	0	1	1	1
(a', b')	1	1	1	0

If we interpret outcome 0 as true and 1 as false, then the following formulas all have positive probability:

$$a \wedge b, \quad \neg(a \wedge b'), \quad \neg(a' \wedge b), \quad a' \vee b'.$$

However, these formulas are not simultaneously satisfiable.

In this model,  $p_2 = p_3 = p_4 = 1$ .

Hence the Hardy model achieves a violation of  $p_1 = \text{Prob}(a \wedge b)$  for the logical Bell inequality.

# What Do 'Observables' Observe?

# What Do 'Observables' Observe?

Surely **objective properties** of a physical system, which are independent of our choice of which measurements to perform — of our **measurement context**.



# What Do 'Observables' Observe?

Surely **objective properties** of a physical system, which are independent of our choice of which measurements to perform — of our **measurement context**.

More precisely, this would say that for each possible state of the system, there is a function  $\lambda$  which for each measurement  $m$  specifies an outcome  $\lambda(m)$ , **independently of which other measurements may be performed**.

# What Do 'Observables' Observe?

Surely **objective properties** of a physical system, which are independent of our choice of which measurements to perform — of our **measurement context**.

More precisely, this would say that for each possible state of the system, there is a function  $\lambda$  which for each measurement  $m$  specifies an outcome  $\lambda(m)$ , **independently of which other measurements may be performed**.

This point of view is called **non-contextuality**. It is equivalent to the assumption of a classical source.

# What Do 'Observables' Observe?

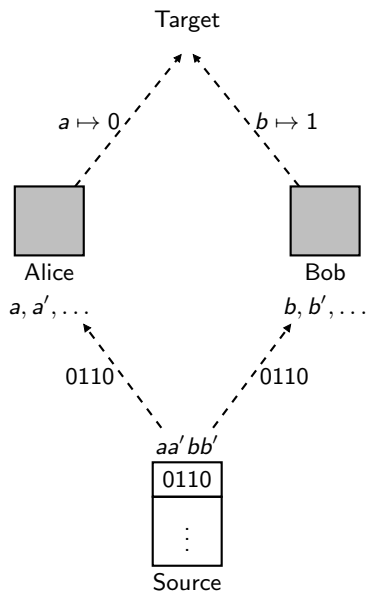
Surely **objective properties** of a physical system, which are independent of our choice of which measurements to perform — of our **measurement context**.

More precisely, this would say that for each possible state of the system, there is a function  $\lambda$  which for each measurement  $m$  specifies an outcome  $\lambda(m)$ , **independently of which other measurements may be performed**.

This point of view is called **non-contextuality**. It is equivalent to the assumption of a classical source.

However, this view is **impossible to sustain** in the light of our **actual observations of (micro)-physical reality**.

# Hidden Variables: The Mermin instruction set picture



# Quantum Mechanics changes the game

# Quantum Mechanics changes the game

It seems then that the kind of behaviour exhibited in these tables is not realisable.

# Quantum Mechanics changes the game

It seems then that the kind of behaviour exhibited in these tables is not realisable.  
However, if we use **quantum** rather than classical resources, it **is** realisable!

# Quantum Mechanics changes the game

It seems then that the kind of behaviour exhibited in these tables is not realisable.

However, if we use **quantum** rather than classical resources, it **is** realisable!

More specifically, if we use **an entangled pair of qubits** as a shared resource between Alice and Bob, who may be spacelike separated, then behaviour of exactly the kind we have considered **can** be achieved.



# Quantum Mechanics changes the game

It seems then that the kind of behaviour exhibited in these tables is not realisable.

However, if we use **quantum** rather than classical resources, it **is** realisable!

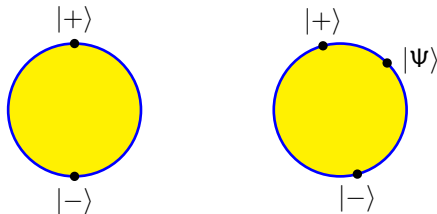
More specifically, if we use **an entangled pair of qubits** as a shared resource between Alice and Bob, who may be spacelike separated, then behaviour of exactly the kind we have considered **can** be achieved.

Alice and Bob's choices are now of **measurement setting** (e.g. which direction to measure spin) rather than “which register to load”.

# The Quantum Case: Spin Measurements

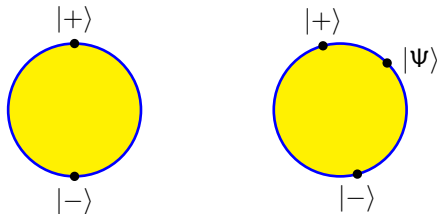
# The Quantum Case: Spin Measurements

States of the system can be described by complex unit vectors in  $\mathbb{C}^2$ . These can be visualized as points on the unit 2-sphere:



## The Quantum Case: Spin Measurements

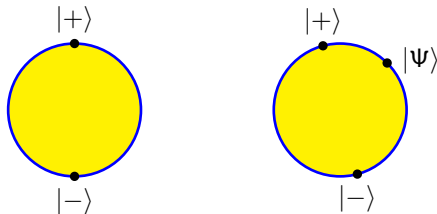
States of the system can be described by complex unit vectors in  $\mathbb{C}^2$ . These can be visualized as points on the unit 2-sphere:



Spin can be measured in any direction; so there are a continuum of possible measurements. There are **two possible outcomes** for each such measurement; spin in the specified direction, or in the opposite direction. These two directions are represented by a pair of orthogonal vectors. They are represented on the sphere as a pair of **antipodal points**.

# The Quantum Case: Spin Measurements

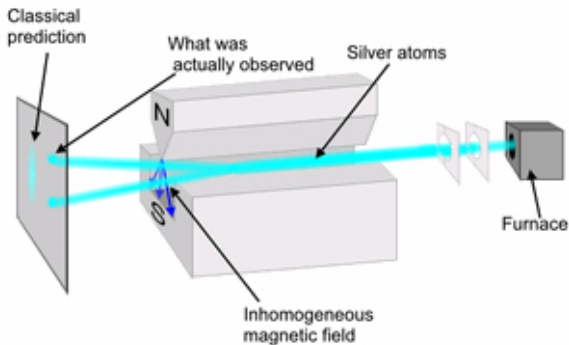
States of the system can be described by complex unit vectors in  $\mathbb{C}^2$ . These can be visualized as points on the unit 2-sphere:



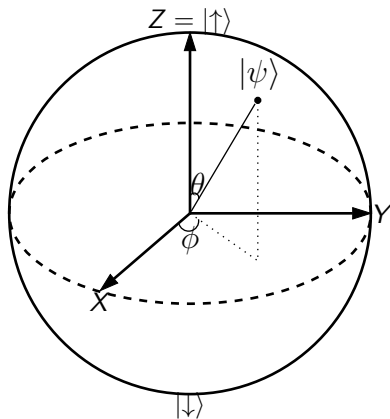
Spin can be measured in any direction; so there are a continuum of possible measurements. There are **two possible outcomes** for each such measurement; spin in the specified direction, or in the opposite direction. These two directions are represented by a pair of orthogonal vectors. They are represented on the sphere as a pair of **antipodal points**.

Note the appearance of **quantization** here: there are not a continuum of possible outcomes for each measurement, but only two!

# The Stern-Gerlach Experiment



# The Bloch sphere representation of qubits

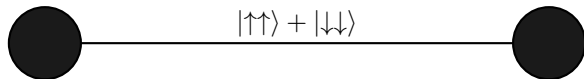


# Quantum Entanglement

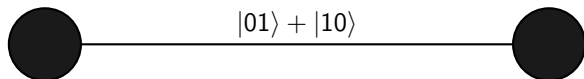


# Quantum Entanglement

Bell state:

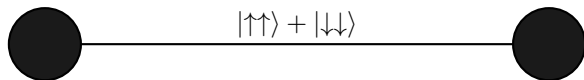


EPR state:

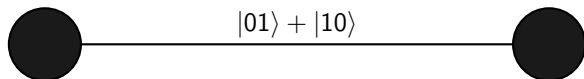


# Quantum Entanglement

Bell state:



EPR state:



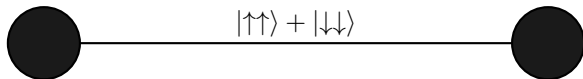
Compound systems are represented by **tensor product**:  $\mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$ . Typical element:

$$\sum_i \lambda_i \cdot \phi_i \otimes \psi_i$$

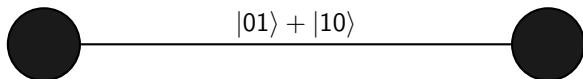
**Superposition** encodes **correlation**.

# Quantum Entanglement

Bell state:



EPR state:



Compound systems are represented by **tensor product**:  $\mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$ . Typical element:

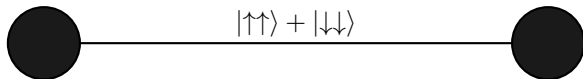
$$\sum_i \lambda_i \cdot \phi_i \otimes \psi_i$$

**Superposition** encodes **correlation**.

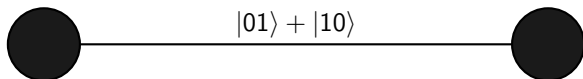
Einstein's 'spooky action at a distance'. Even if the particles are spatially separated, measuring one has an effect on the state of the other.

# Quantum Entanglement

Bell state:



EPR state:



Compound systems are represented by **tensor product**:  $\mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$ . Typical element:

$$\sum_i \lambda_i \cdot \phi_i \otimes \psi_i$$

**Superposition** encodes **correlation**.

Einstein's 'spooky action at a distance'. Even if the particles are spatially separated, measuring one has an effect on the state of the other.

Bell's theorem: QM is **essentially non-local**.

# A Probabilistic Model Of An Experiment

## A Probabilistic Model Of An Experiment

A	B	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1,1)
$a_1$	$b_1$	$1/2$	0	0	$1/2$
$a_1$	$b_2$	$3/8$	$1/8$	$1/8$	$3/8$
$a_2$	$b_1$	$3/8$	$1/8$	$1/8$	$3/8$
$a_2$	$b_2$	$1/8$	$3/8$	$3/8$	$1/8$

## A Probabilistic Model Of An Experiment

A	B	(0, 0)	(1, 0)	(0, 1)	(1, 1)
$a_1$	$b_1$	1/2	0	0	1/2
$a_1$	$b_2$	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
$a_2$	$b_1$	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
$a_2$	$b_2$	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

This model can be **physically realised** in quantum mechanics.

## A Probabilistic Model Of An Experiment

A	B	(0,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(1,1)
$a_1$	$b_1$	1/2	0	0	1/2
$a_1$	$b_2$	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
$a_2$	$b_1$	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
$a_2$	$b_2$	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

This model can be **physically realised** in quantum mechanics.

There is an entangled state of two qubits, and directions for spin measurements  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$  for Alice and  $b_1$ ,  $b_2$  for Bob, which generate this table according to the predictions of quantum mechanics.



## A Probabilistic Model Of An Experiment

A	B	(0, 0)	(1, 0)	(0, 1)	(1, 1)
$a_1$	$b_1$	1/2	0	0	1/2
$a_1$	$b_2$	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
$a_2$	$b_1$	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
$a_2$	$b_2$	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

This model can be **physically realised** in quantum mechanics.

There is an entangled state of two qubits, and directions for spin measurements  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$  for Alice and  $b_1$ ,  $b_2$  for Bob, which generate this table according to the predictions of quantum mechanics.

Moreover, behaviour of this kind has been extensively experimentally confirmed.

## A Probabilistic Model Of An Experiment

A	B	(0, 0)	(1, 0)	(0, 1)	(1, 1)
$a_1$	$b_1$	1/2	0	0	1/2
$a_1$	$b_2$	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
$a_2$	$b_1$	3/8	1/8	1/8	3/8
$a_2$	$b_2$	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

This model can be **physically realised** in quantum mechanics.

There is an entangled state of two qubits, and directions for spin measurements  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$  for Alice and  $b_1$ ,  $b_2$  for Bob, which generate this table according to the predictions of quantum mechanics.

Moreover, behaviour of this kind has been extensively experimentally confirmed.

This is really how the world is!

# The XOR Game

Alice and Bob play a cooperative game against Nature:

# The XOR Game

Alice and Bob play a cooperative game against Nature:

- Nature chooses an input  $x \in \{0, 1\}$  for Alice ( $x = 0$  corresponds to  $a_1$ ,  $x = 1$  to  $a_2$ ) and similarly an input  $y$  for Bob, *i.e.* the context. We assume the uniform distribution for Nature's choices.

# The XOR Game

Alice and Bob play a cooperative game against Nature:

- Nature chooses an input  $x \in \{0, 1\}$  for Alice ( $x = 0$  corresponds to  $a_1$ ,  $x = 1$  to  $a_2$ ) and similarly an input  $y$  for Bob, *i.e.* the context. We assume the uniform distribution for Nature's choices.
- Alice and Bob each have to choose an output,  $a \in \{0, 1\}$  for Alice,  $b \in \{0, 1\}$  for Bob, depending on their input.

# The XOR Game

Alice and Bob play a cooperative game against Nature:

- Nature chooses an input  $x \in \{0, 1\}$  for Alice ( $x = 0$  corresponds to  $a_1$ ,  $x = 1$  to  $a_2$ ) and similarly an input  $y$  for Bob, *i.e.* the context. We assume the uniform distribution for Nature's choices.
- Alice and Bob each have to choose an output,  $a \in \{0, 1\}$  for Alice,  $b \in \{0, 1\}$  for Bob, depending on their input.
- The winning condition:  $a \oplus b = x \wedge y$ .

# The XOR Game

Alice and Bob play a cooperative game against Nature:

- Nature chooses an input  $x \in \{0, 1\}$  for Alice ( $x = 0$  corresponds to  $a_1$ ,  $x = 1$  to  $a_2$ ) and similarly an input  $y$  for Bob, *i.e.* the context. We assume the uniform distribution for Nature's choices.
- Alice and Bob each have to choose an output,  $a \in \{0, 1\}$  for Alice,  $b \in \{0, 1\}$  for Bob, depending on their input.
- The winning condition:  $a \oplus b = x \wedge y$ .

A probability table defines a **strategy** for this game. The **success probability** for this strategy is:

$$\begin{aligned} &1/4[p(a = b|x = 0, y = 0) + p(a = b|x = 0, y = 1) + p(a = b|x = 1, y = 0) \\ &\quad + p(a \neq b|x = 1, y = 1)] \end{aligned}$$

# The XOR Game

Alice and Bob play a cooperative game against Nature:

- Nature chooses an input  $x \in \{0, 1\}$  for Alice ( $x = 0$  corresponds to  $a_1$ ,  $x = 1$  to  $a_2$ ) and similarly an input  $y$  for Bob, *i.e.* the context. We assume the uniform distribution for Nature's choices.
- Alice and Bob each have to choose an output,  $a \in \{0, 1\}$  for Alice,  $b \in \{0, 1\}$  for Bob, depending on their input.
- The winning condition:  $a \oplus b = x \wedge y$ .

A probability table defines a **strategy** for this game. The **success probability** for this strategy is:

$$\begin{aligned} &1/4[p(a = b|x = 0, y = 0) + p(a = b|x = 0, y = 1) + p(a = b|x = 1, y = 0) \\ &\quad + p(a \neq b|x = 1, y = 1)] \end{aligned}$$

These are exactly the probabilities of events we used in our derivation of the logical Bell inequality.



# Classical Strategies, Bell Inequalities and the Quantum Advantage

A classical strategy is one in which Alice and Bob can have shared initial information (e.g. shared randomness) but cannot communicate once the game starts.

# Classical Strategies, Bell Inequalities and the Quantum Advantage

A classical strategy is one in which Alice and Bob can have shared initial information (e.g. shared randomness) but cannot communicate once the game starts.

Our logical Bell inequality bounds the maximum success probability of any classical strategy.

# Classical Strategies, Bell Inequalities and the Quantum Advantage

A classical strategy is one in which Alice and Bob can have shared initial information (e.g. shared randomness) but cannot communicate once the game starts.

Our logical Bell inequality bounds the maximum success probability of any classical strategy.

It shows that the classical bound is  $3/4$ .

# Classical Strategies, Bell Inequalities and the Quantum Advantage

A classical strategy is one in which Alice and Bob can have shared initial information (e.g. shared randomness) but cannot communicate once the game starts.

Our logical Bell inequality bounds the maximum success probability of any classical strategy.

It shows that the classical bound is  $3/4$ .

The Bell table exceeds this bound. Since it is quantum realizable, it shows that quantum resources yield a **quantum advantage** in an information-processing task.