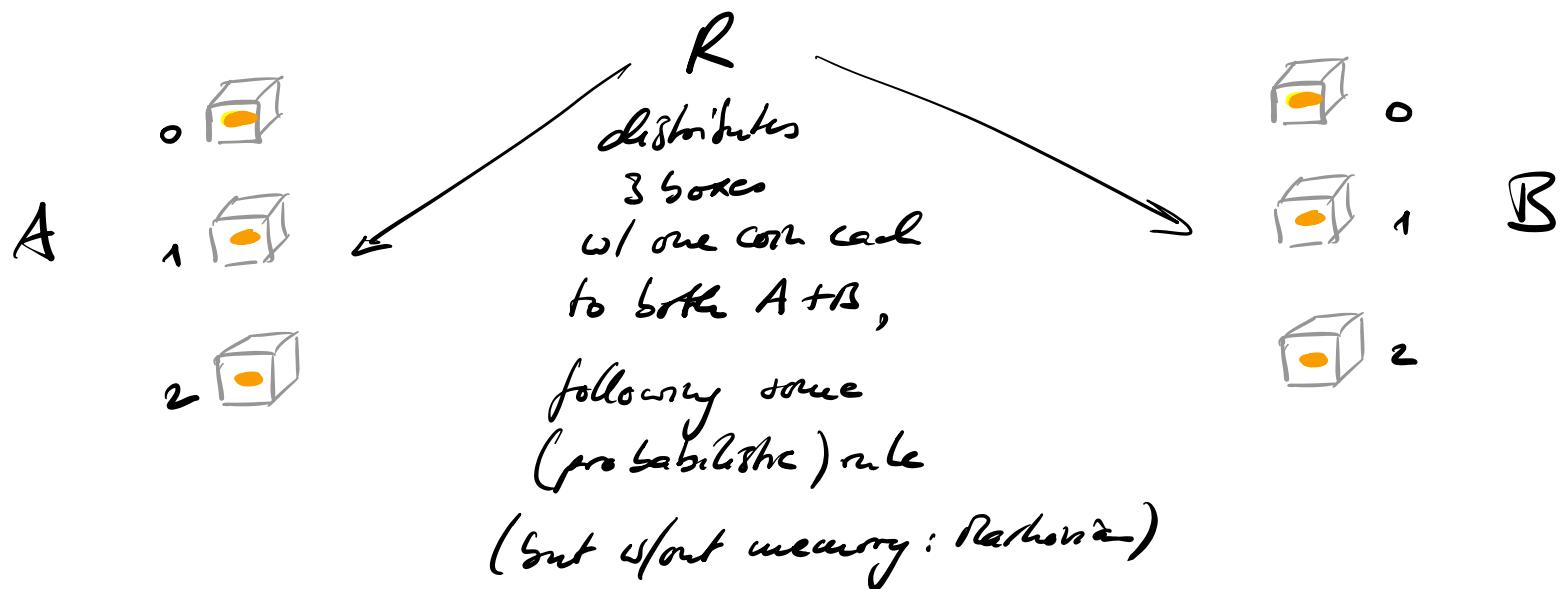


## 2. Bell inequalities

"How non-classical are entangled states?"

### a) The Bell inequality

Consider the following game played by Alice + Bob with coins, prepared by a referee R'



- ① • A & B play many rounds w/ the referee. In each round, A & B each get 3 coins in closed boxes (labeled 0, 1, 2), prepared according to some rule (deterministic or random, but the same indep. rule in every rd.) by R.
- In each rd., A & B can look at only one coin each ( $x=0,1,2$ ;  $y=0,1,2$ ). We denote heads = +1

and tails = -1; and the obtained results by

$$a_x = \pm 1; b_y = \pm 1.$$

- After that, the boxes are collected by the referee, and a new round starts.
- (ii) By repeatedly measuring the same box,  $x=y$ , A & B observe: They always get the same outcome, i.e.

$$\boxed{a_x = b_x}$$

- (iii) A & B are smart: They can use this to cheat the referee and obtain the value of two coins in a single round.

Idea: A checks coin  $x$ , B checks coin  $y = x' + x$ .

Then, since  $a_{x'} = b_{x'}$ , they know  $\underline{a_x}$  and  $a_{x'}$  in the same round!

This clearly works in a classical scenario (i.e., with coins - we will formalize this later).

Consequence: A & B can use Kcs to estimate

$$p(a_x = b_{x'}) = p(a_x = a_{x'})$$

↑  
using Kac  $a_{x'} = b_{x'}$   
(requires classical cores)

Observation:

$$p(a_0 = a_1) + p(a_1 = a_2) + p(a_2 = a_0) \geq 1,$$

$\frac{N(a_0 = a_1)}{N_{tot}}$      $\frac{N(a_1 = a_2)}{N_{tot}}$      $\frac{N(a_2 = a_0)}{N_{tot}}$

↑                      ↑                      ↑  
# of rounds where  $a_0 = a_1$     # of rounds where  $a_1 = a_2$     # of rounds where  $a_2 = a_0$

total # of rounds

Since in each round, at least two cores must be equal (or all 3)!

Using Kac (classically)  $a_x = b_x$ :

$$\rightarrow p(a_0 = b_1) + p(a_1 = b_2) + p(a_2 = b_0) \geq 1 \quad \text{⊗}$$

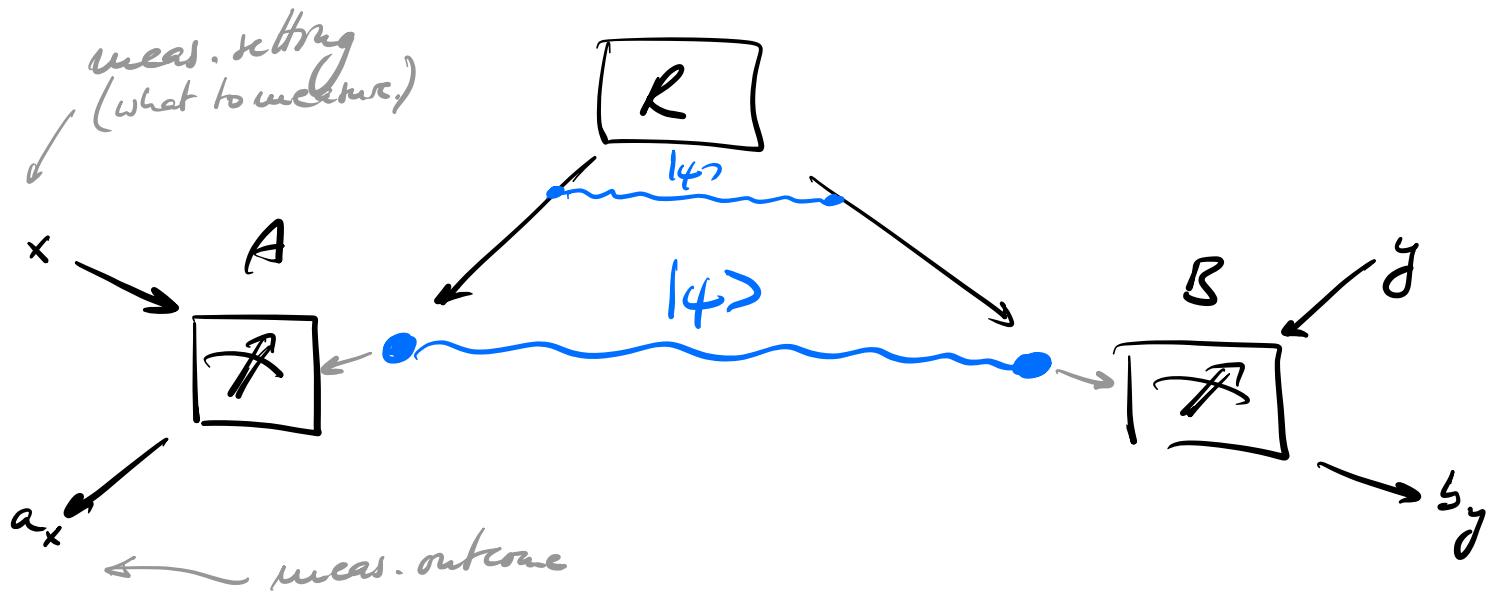
is satisfied for any classical theory  
(which satisfies  $a_x = b_x \forall x$ ).

⊗ is called Bell inequality!

(Note: Bell inequalities are inequalities derived by classical theories, and have a priori nothing to do with quantum theory!)

But: In a suitable quantum mechanical version of the game,  $\otimes$  is violated!

### Quantum version of the game:



- $R$  distributes bipartite state  $|\psi\rangle$ .
- $A$  &  $B$  perform a measurement dep. on  $x/y$ , w/ outcome  $a_x/b_y$ .  
(I.e.: Which box to open = which meas. to

perform — A & B can always only do one meas. each on original state).

Setup: •  $| \psi \rangle = |\psi^-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0_1\rangle - |1_0\rangle)$

- A & B do projective measurement along axes  $\vec{u}_x$  and  $\vec{u}_y$ , i.e. they measure the operators  $\vec{u}_x \cdot \vec{\sigma}^A$  and  $\vec{u}_y \cdot \vec{\sigma}^B$ .
- We will specify  $\vec{u}_x$  and  $\vec{u}_y$  later on.

It holds that  $(\vec{\sigma}^A + \vec{\sigma}^B)|\psi^-\rangle = 0$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \equiv \vec{\sigma}_A \otimes \vec{I}_B & & \equiv \vec{I}_A \otimes \vec{\sigma}_B^B \end{array}$$

(i.e.  $(\vec{\sigma}_\alpha^A + \vec{\sigma}_\alpha^B)|\psi^-\rangle = 0 \quad \forall \alpha = x, y, z;$

by direct inspection, or since  $|\psi^-\rangle$  has spin 0).

$$\Rightarrow \langle \psi^- | (\vec{\sigma}^A \cdot \vec{u}) (\vec{\sigma}^B \cdot \vec{u}) |\psi^-\rangle =$$

$= -\vec{\sigma}^A \cdot \vec{u} |\psi^-\rangle$  from the above

$$= -\langle \psi^- | (\vec{\sigma}^A \cdot \vec{u}) (\vec{\sigma}^A \cdot \vec{u}) |\psi^-\rangle$$

$$= - \sum_{kl} u_k u_l \underbrace{\langle \psi^- | \sigma_k^A \sigma_l^A | \psi^- \rangle}_{\text{tr}[\rho_A \sigma_k^A \sigma_l^A]}$$

$$= \text{tr}[\rho_A \sigma_k^A \sigma_l^A]$$

//  
 $\frac{1}{2}\mathbb{I}$ , e.g. from Schmidt dec.

$$= \frac{1}{2} \text{tr}[\sigma_k^A \sigma_l^A] = \delta_{kl}$$

$$= - \sum_k u_k u_k = - \vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} = - \cos \theta$$

angle between  
 $\vec{u}$  and  $\vec{u}$ ,

Measurement along  $\vec{u}$ : Reas. operators (projectors)

$$E_{\pm 1}(\vec{u}) = \frac{1}{2} (\mathbb{I} \pm \vec{u} \cdot \vec{\sigma})$$

Let  $p(a, b)$ ,  $a, b = \pm 1$  denote prob. to get outcomes  $a$  &  $b$ , respectively, for A & B. Then,

$$p(\pm 1, \pm 1) = \langle \psi^- | E_{\pm 1}^A(\vec{u}) E_{\pm 1}^B(\vec{u}) | \psi^- \rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{1}{4} \langle \psi^- | \underbrace{\mathbb{I}}_{\equiv 1} \pm \underbrace{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\sigma}^A}_{\equiv 0 \text{ since } \rho_A = \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{I}} \pm \underbrace{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\sigma}^B}_{\equiv 0} + \underbrace{(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\sigma}^A)(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\sigma}^B)}_{= -\cos \theta} | \psi^- \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{4} (1 - \cos \theta). \end{aligned}$$

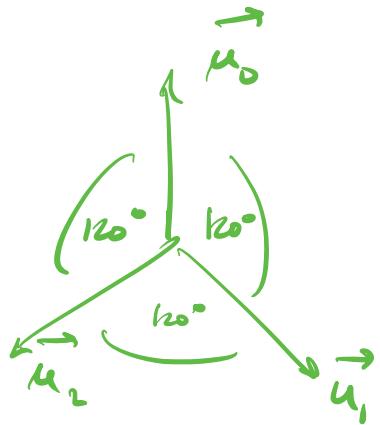
and

$$P(\pm 1, \mp 1) = \frac{1}{4}(1 + \cos \theta).$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{prob}(a=b) = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos \theta)$$

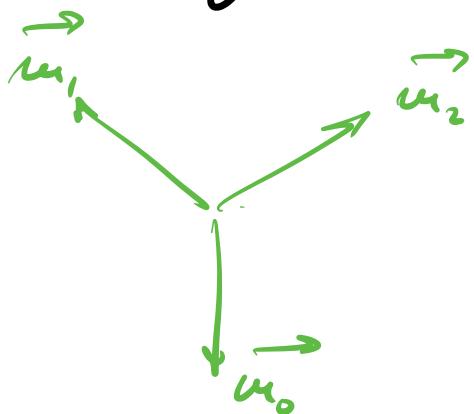
$$\text{prob}(a \neq b) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos \theta)$$

Now let A choose measurements  $\vec{u}_0, \vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2$ :



in the XZ-plane,

and B along  $\vec{u}_x = -\vec{u}_x$ :



Then:

$$\bullet x=y : p(a_x=b_y) = \frac{1}{2} (1 - \cos 180^\circ) = 1$$

$\rightarrow$  A & B always get same result when they measure "the same corr"

$$\bullet x+y : p(a_x=b_y) = \frac{1}{2} (1 - \underbrace{\cos(\pm 60^\circ)}_{= \frac{1}{2}}) = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$\Rightarrow p(a_0=s_1) + p(a_1=s_2) + p(a_2=s_0) = \frac{3}{4} < 1$$

(while Bell req. stated  $\geq 1$  for class. theories!)

Bell inequality violated!

Formally, what were the assumptions of our classical theory?

- ① Realism: Outcomes of measurements are "elements of reality" - i.e., they have pre-determined values even prior to measurement.

② Locality: A & B's boxes cannot communicate once distributed.

$\Rightarrow$  Quantum mechanical predictions are incompatible with any local and realistic theory — we need to give up either locality or realism.

Bell inequalities can be used to certify that a system behaves quantum mechanically (i.e. non-classically): If we measure a violation of the Bell inequality — note that  $P(a_x = b_y)$  can be estimated reliably by repeated measurements — we know that the system cannot be described classically and must thus be quantum mechanical.

## 5) The CHSH inequality

Bell's inequality has two downsides:

- i) We first need to separately test that  $a_x = b_x$
- ii) We need 3 different measurement settings  
— maybe with only 2 settings, everything can be modelled classically?

Consider setting with 2 measurements:  $x=0,1; y=0,1$ , again with outcomes  $a_x, b_y = \pm 1$  (minimal setting).

Since  $a_x = \pm 1, b_y = \pm 1$ :

$$C = (\underbrace{a_0 + a_1}_{\text{one of these must be } 0,} b_0 + \underbrace{(a_0 - a_1)}_{\text{the other is } \pm 2.} b_1 = \pm 2$$

average over many iterations (prob. dist.)

$$\Rightarrow |\langle C \rangle| \leq \langle |C| \rangle = 2$$

$$|\langle a_0 b_0 \rangle + \langle a_1 b_0 \rangle + \langle a_0 b_1 \rangle - \langle a_1 b_1 \rangle| \leq 2$$

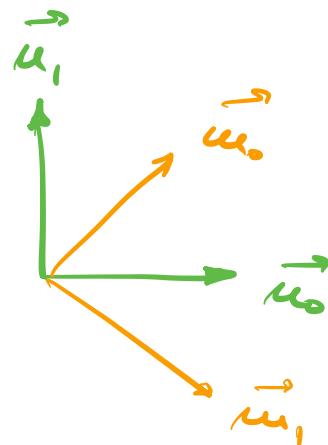
"CHSH inequality" (Clauser, Horne, Shimony, Holt)

Violation of CHSH inequality in quantum theory:

$$\text{Take } |\psi\rangle = |\psi^-\rangle$$

$$a_x \leftrightarrow \vec{u}_x \cdot \vec{\sigma}^A$$

$$b_y \leftrightarrow \vec{u}_y \cdot \vec{\sigma}^B$$



XZ plane

Have seen:

$$\langle a_x b_y \rangle = -\cos \theta$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle a_0 b_0 \rangle = \langle a_1 b_0 \rangle = \langle a_0 b_1 \rangle = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\langle a_1 b_1 \rangle = +\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow |\langle a_0 b_0 \rangle + \langle a_1 b_0 \rangle + \langle a_0 b_1 \rangle - \langle a_1 b_1 \rangle| = 2\sqrt{2} > 2 !$$

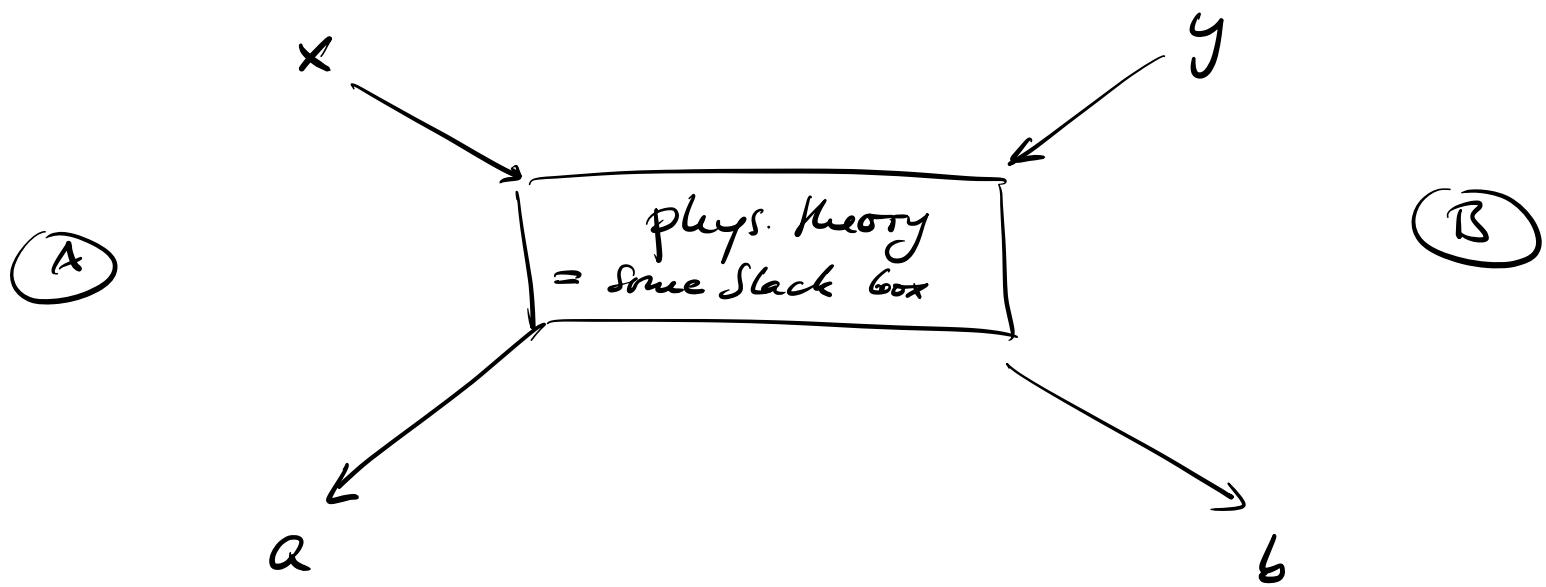
CHSH inequality violated!

Note: This violation is optimal (maximal) within QM.

can be obtained: QM is more restrictive than general local theories.)

### c) Formal setup and local hidden variable theories

Formal setup for physical theories in bipartite setting:



A: input  $x$  (meas. setting),  
output  $a$  (meas. result)

B: input  $y$ , output  $b$ .

Any physical theory is characterized by a conditional probability distribution

$$P(a, b | x, y)$$

to obtain a & b given x & y, where

$$\sum_{a,b} P(a, b | x, y) = 1 \quad \forall x, y.$$

Question: Which  $P(a, b | x, y)$  are consistent with a given physical theory?

Classical physics :

"local hidden-variable (LHV) model":

All outcomes are pre-determined by some "hidden" variable  $\lambda$ , which is chosen according to some distribution  $\lambda$  given to A & B, who act independently (i.e., locally) conditioned on  $\lambda$ .

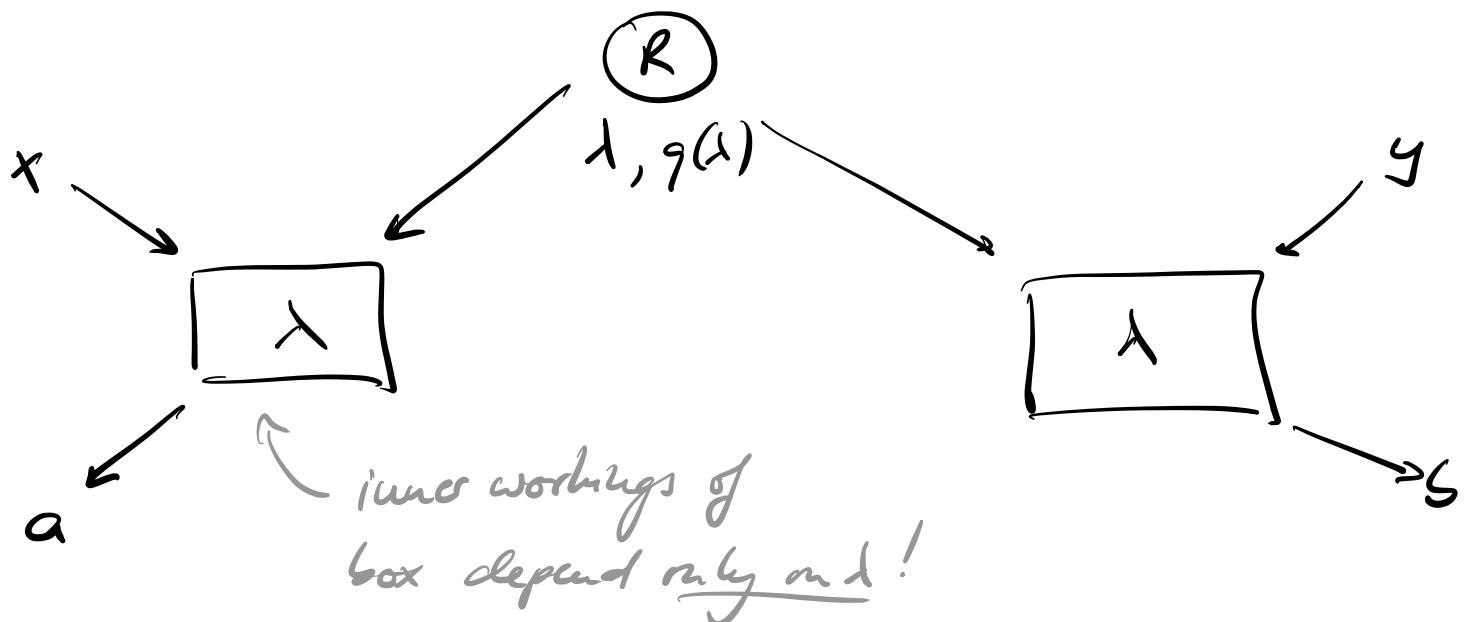
("Local realism": Outcomes exist indep. of meas.-realism - and no (faster-than-light)

i.e.:

$$\textcircled{*} \quad P(a, b | x, y) = \sum_{\lambda} q(\lambda) P_{\lambda}^A(a|x) P_{\lambda}^B(b|y)$$

prob. distr.  
over  $\lambda$

↑      ↑  
can be made  
deterministic by  
putting all random-  
users in  $\lambda$  &  $q(\lambda)$ .



How have we been using the LHV form  $\textcircled{*}$  above  
in the derivation of Bell-type inequalities?

E.g. CHSH:

$$\langle C \rangle = \langle a_0 b_0 \rangle + \langle a_1 b_0 \rangle + \langle a_0 b_1 \rangle - \langle a_1 b_1 \rangle$$

$$= \sum_{x,y} (-1)^{xy} \langle a_x b_y \rangle$$

$$= \sum_{x,y} (-1)^{xy} \left[ \sum_{a_x, b_y} a_x b_y P(a_x, b_y | x, y) \right]$$

$$= \sum_{\lambda} q(\lambda) P_{\lambda}^A(a_x | x) P_{\lambda}^B(b_y | y)$$

$$= \sum_{\lambda} q(\lambda) \sum_{x,y} (-1)^{xy} \left[ \sum_{a_x, b_y} a_x b_y P_{\lambda}^A(a_x | x) P_{\lambda}^B(b_y | y) \right]$$

$$=: E_{\lambda}$$

Then,  $|\langle C \rangle| \leq \sum_{\lambda} q(\lambda) |E_{\lambda}|$ , and

$$|E_{\lambda}| = \left| \sum_{x,y} (-1)^{xy} \left( \underbrace{\sum_{a_x} a_x}_{= \langle a_x \rangle_{\lambda}} P_{\lambda}^A(a_x | x) \right) \left( \underbrace{\sum_{b_y} b_y}_{= \langle b_y \rangle_{\lambda}} P_{\lambda}^B(b_y | y) \right) \right|$$

$$= \left| (\langle a_0 \rangle_{\lambda} + \langle a_1 \rangle_{\lambda}) \langle b_0 \rangle_{\lambda} + (\langle a_0 \rangle_{\lambda} - \langle a_1 \rangle_{\lambda}) \langle b_1 \rangle_{\lambda} \right|$$

$$\leq |\langle a_0 \rangle_\lambda + \langle a_1 \rangle_\lambda| \underbrace{|\langle b_0 \rangle_\lambda|}_{\leq 1} + |\langle a_0 \rangle_\lambda - \langle a_1 \rangle_\lambda| \underbrace{|\langle b_1 \rangle_\lambda|}_{\leq 1}$$

$$\leq |\langle a_0 \rangle_\lambda + \langle a_1 \rangle_\lambda| + |\langle a_0 \rangle_\lambda - \langle a_1 \rangle_\lambda|$$

$$\leq 2 \max \{ |\langle a_0 \rangle_\lambda|, |\langle a_1 \rangle_\lambda| \} \leq 2.$$

Where have we used the LHV condition  $\otimes$ ?

→ In factoring

$$\langle a_x b_y \rangle_\lambda = \sum_{a_x, b_y} a_x b_y P(a_x, b_y | x, y)$$

$$= \left( \sum_{a_x} a_x P_A^A(a_x | x) \right) \left( \sum_{b_y} b_y P_A^B(b_y | y) \right)$$

$$= \langle a_x \rangle_\lambda \langle b_y \rangle_\lambda$$

— otherwise, it does not make sense to talk about  $\langle a_x \rangle$  indep. of the value of  $y$ , and  $\langle a_0 b_0 + a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0 - a_1 b_1 \rangle$  cannot be factored (either as expectation values  $\langle a_i \rangle \langle b_j \rangle$ , or classical variables — cons — which is in essence the same.)