

REAL-VALUED OBSERVABLES AND QUANTUM UNCERTAINTY

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

Abstract

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

1 Introduction

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

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

where A, B are self-adjoint operators and ψ is a vector state on a Hilbert space. The inequality (1.1) is usually applied to position and momentum operators A, B in which case $|\langle \psi, [A, B] \psi \rangle|^2 = \hbar^2$ where \hbar is Planck's constant.

In this situation, A and B are unbounded operators, but for mathematical rigor we shall only deal with bounded operators. However, our results can be extended to the unbounded case by considering a dense subspace common to the domains of A and B . In this paper, we derive a generalization of (1.1). This generalization applies to mixed states and contains an additional covariance term that results in a stronger inequality.

The main result in Section 2 is an uncertainty principle for observable operators. This principle contains four parts: a commutator term, a covariance term, a correlation term and a product of variances term. This last term is sometimes called a product of uncertainties. In Section 2 we also characterize, for faithful states, when the uncertainty inequality is an equality. Section 3 introduces the concept of a real-valued observable. If ρ is a state and A is a real-valued observable, we define the ρ -average, ρ -deviation and ρ -variance of A . If B is another real-valued observable, we define the ρ -correlation and ρ -covariance of A, B . An uncertainty principle for real-valued observables is given in terms of these concepts. An important role is played by the stochastic operator \tilde{A} for A . In Section 3 we also define the sharp version of a real-valued observable and characterize when two real-valued observables have the same sharp version.

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

2 Quantum Uncertainty Principle

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

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

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

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

Hence,

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

(ii) Applying (i), we have

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

It is straightforward to show that

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

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

$$\Delta_\rho(A) = \langle A^2 \rangle_\rho - \langle A \rangle_\rho^2 \quad (2.3)$$

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}(\rho AB) &= \text{tr}[\rho_1 \otimes \rho_2(A_1 \otimes I_2)(I_1 \otimes A_2)] = \text{tr}[\rho_1 \otimes \rho_2(A_1 \otimes A_2)] \\ &= \text{tr}(\rho_1 A_1 \otimes \rho_2 A_2) = \text{tr}(\rho_1 A_1) \text{tr}(\rho_2 A_2) \\ &= \text{tr}(\rho_1 \otimes \rho_2 A_1 \otimes I_2) \text{tr}(\rho_1 \otimes \rho_2 I_1 \otimes A_2) = \langle A \rangle_\rho \langle B \rangle_\rho \end{aligned}$$

This shows that A, B are ρ -uncorrelated for any product state ρ . Of course, $[A, B] = 0$ in this case. However, there are examples of noncommuting

operators that are uncorrelated. For instance, on $H = \mathbb{C}^2$ let $\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$,

$\phi = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\psi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. With $\rho = |\alpha\rangle\langle\alpha|$, $A = |\phi\rangle\langle\phi|$, $B = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$ we have

$$\text{tr}(\rho AB) = \langle A \rangle_\rho \langle B \rangle_\rho = 0$$

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

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

so $[A, B] \neq 0$. □

We now present our main result.

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

Proof. (i) Applying Lemma 2.1 we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}([A, B]) &= \text{tr}(\rho AB) - \text{tr}(\rho BA) = \text{tr}(\rho AB) - \overline{\text{tr}[\rho(BA)^*]} \\ &= \text{tr}(\rho AB) - \overline{\text{tr}(\rho A^* B^*)} = \text{tr}(\rho AB) - \overline{\text{tr}(\rho AB)} \end{aligned}$$

$$= 2i \operatorname{Im} [\operatorname{tr} (\rho AB)] \quad (2.4)$$

From (2.2) and (2.4) we obtain

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$|\text{tr} [\rho D_\rho(A) D_\rho(B)]|^2 = \Delta_\rho(A)\Delta_\rho(B) \quad (2.6)$$

We can rewrite (2.6) as

$$\left| \langle D_\rho(A), D_\rho(B) \rangle_\rho \right|^2 = \langle D_\rho(A), D_\rho(A) \rangle_\rho \langle D_\rho(B), D_\rho(B) \rangle_\rho$$

Since we have equality in Schwarz's inequality and $\langle \bullet, \bullet \rangle_\rho$ is an inner product, it follows that $D_\rho(B) = \alpha D_\rho(A)$ for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$. Since $D_\rho(B)^* = D_\rho(B)$ and $D_\rho(A)^* = D_\rho(A)$ we conclude that $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. (ii) \Rightarrow (iii) If $D_\rho(B) = \alpha D_\rho(A)$ for $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$B - \langle B \rangle_\rho I = \alpha (A - \langle A \rangle_\rho I)$$

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

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

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

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

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

Example 2. The simplest faithful state when $\dim H = n < \infty$ is $\rho = I/n$. Then $\langle A, B \rangle_\rho = \frac{1}{n} \text{tr}(A^* B)$ which is essentially the Hilbert-Schmidt inner product $\langle A, B \rangle_{HS} = \text{tr}(A^* B)$. In this case for

$A, B \in \mathcal{L}_S(H)$ we have $\langle A \rangle_\rho = \frac{1}{n} \text{tr}(A)$, $D_\rho(A) = A - \frac{1}{n} \text{tr}(A)I$. The other statistical concepts become:

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

The uncertainty principle is given by:

$$\begin{aligned}[\text{Im tr}(AB)]^2 + [\text{Re tr}(AB) - \frac{1}{n} \text{tr}(A) \text{tr}(B)]^2 &= |\text{tr}(AB) - \frac{1}{n} \text{tr}(A) \text{tr}(B)|^2 \\ &\leq [\text{tr}(A^2) - \frac{1}{n} \text{tr}(A)^2] [\text{tr}(B^2) - \frac{1}{n} \text{tr}(B)^2]\end{aligned}\quad \square$$

3 Real-Valued Observables

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

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

$$\langle A \rangle_\rho = \left\langle \tilde{A} \right\rangle_\rho = \text{tr}(\rho \tilde{A}) = \sum_{x \in \Omega_A} x \text{tr}(\rho A_x) \quad (3.1)$$

We interpret $\text{tr}(\rho A_x)$ as the probability that a measurement of A results in the outcome x when the system is in state ρ . Thus, (3.1) says that

the ρ -average of A is the sum of its outcomes times the probabilities these outcomes occur. We define the ρ -deviation of A by

$$\begin{aligned} D_\rho(A) &= D_\rho(\tilde{A}) = \tilde{A} - \langle A \rangle_\rho I = \sum_{x \in \Omega_A} x A_x - \sum_{x \in \Omega_A} x \text{tr}(\rho A_x) I \\ &= \sum_{x \in \Omega_A} x [A_x - \text{tr}(\rho A_x) I] \end{aligned}$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cor}_\rho(A, B) &= \text{tr}(\rho \tilde{A} \tilde{B}) - \langle \tilde{A} \rangle_\rho \langle \tilde{B} \rangle_\rho = \text{tr} \left(\rho \sum_{x,y} xy A_x B_y \right) - \langle \tilde{A} \rangle_\rho \langle \tilde{B} \rangle_\rho \\ &= \sum_{x,y} xy [\text{tr}(\rho A_x B_y) - \text{tr}(\rho A_x) \text{tr}(\rho B_y)] \end{aligned} \quad (3.2)$$

It follows that

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

and

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

We also have by (2.4) that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr} \left(\rho [\tilde{A}, \tilde{B}] \right) &= 2i \text{Im tr}(\rho \tilde{A} \tilde{B}) = 2i \text{Im tr} \left(\rho \sum_{x,y} xy A_x B_y \right) \\ &= 2i \sum_{x,y} xy \text{Im tr}(\rho A_x B_y) \end{aligned} \quad (3.5)$$

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

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

A, B are compatible with $C_{(x,y)} = A_x B_y$ for all $(x, y) \in \Omega_A \times \Omega_B$. However, if A, B are compatible, they need not commute [4]. If A, B are compatible real-valued observables, then

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{A} &= \sum_x x A_x = \sum_{x,y} x C_{(x,y)} \\ \tilde{B} &= \sum_y y B_y = \sum_{x,y} y C_{(x,y)}\end{aligned}$$

Using (3.2), (3.3), (3.4), (3.5) we can write $\text{Cor}_\rho(A, B)$, $\Delta_\rho(A, B)$, $\Delta_\rho(A)$, $\Delta_\rho(B)$ and $\text{tr} \left(\rho \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{A} & \tilde{B} \end{bmatrix} \right)$ in terms of $C_{(x,y)}$. Hence, we can express the uncertainty principle in terms of $C_{(x,y)}$.

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

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

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

$$\tilde{A} = (\hat{A})^\sim = (\hat{B})^\sim = \tilde{B}$$

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

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

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

Let $\tilde{A} = \sum x A_x = \sum \lambda_i P_i$ so $\hat{A} = \{P_i : i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is a sharp version of A . Let $B = \{B_x : x \in \Omega_A\}$ be the real-valued observable given by $B_x =$

$\sum_{i=1}^n P_i A_x P_i$. We conclude that A and B have the same sharp version because

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{B} &= \sum_x x B_x = \sum_i P_i \sum_x x A_x P_i = \sum_i P_i \tilde{A} P_i = \sum_i P_i \sum_j \lambda_j P_j P_i \\ &= \sum_{i,j} \lambda_i P_i P_j P_i = \sum_i \lambda_i P_i = \tilde{A}\end{aligned}$$

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

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

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

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

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

$$\hat{A} = \sum_x x A_x = \sum_i \lambda_i P_i$$

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

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

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

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

4 More Examples

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

Example 3. A two outcome observable is called a *dichotomic observable*.

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

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{A} &= A_1 - (I - A_1) = 2A_1 - I \\ \langle A \rangle_\rho &= \text{tr}(\rho \tilde{A}) = \text{tr}[\rho(2A_1 - I)] = 2 \text{tr}(\rho A_1) - 1 \\ D_\rho(A) &= \tilde{A} - \langle A \rangle_\rho I = 2A_1 - I - 2 \text{tr}(\rho A_1)I + I = 2[A_1 - \text{tr}(\rho A_1)I]\end{aligned}$$

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

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cor}_\rho(A, B) &= \text{tr}(\rho \tilde{A} \tilde{B}) - \langle A \rangle_\rho \langle B \rangle_\rho \\ &= \text{tr}[\rho(2A_1 - I)(2B_1 - I)] - [2 \text{tr}(\rho A_1) - 1][2 \text{tr}(\rho B_1) - 1] \\ &= \text{tr}[\rho(4A_1 B_1 - 2A_1 - 2B_1 + I)] - 4 \text{tr}(\rho A_1) \text{tr}(\rho B_1) \\ &\quad + 2 \text{tr}(\rho A_1) + 2 \text{tr}(\rho B_1) - 1 \\ &= 4[\text{tr}(\rho A_1 B_1) - \text{tr}(\rho A_1) \text{tr}(\rho B_1)]\end{aligned}\tag{4.1}$$

Hence,

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

and

$$\Delta_\rho(A) = \Delta_\rho(A, A) = 4[\text{tr}(\rho A_1^2) - (\text{tr}(\rho A_1))^2]$$

We also have

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

We conclude that $[\tilde{A}, \tilde{B}] = 0$ if and only if $[A_1, B_1] = 0$ and this does not hold in general so \tilde{A}, \tilde{B} need not commute. The uncertainty principle becomes

$$[\text{Im tr}(\rho A_1 B_1)]^2 + [\text{Re tr}(\rho A_1 B_1) - \text{tr}(\rho A_1) \text{tr}(\rho A_2)]^2$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= |\text{tr}(\rho A_1 B_1) - \text{tr}(\rho A_1) \text{tr}(\rho B_1)|^2 \\
&\leq \left[\text{tr}(\rho A_1^2) - (\text{tr}(\rho A_1))^2 \right] \left[\text{tr}(\rho B_1^2) - (\text{tr}(\rho B_1))^2 \right] \quad \square \quad (4.2)
\end{aligned}$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

and

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

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

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

and it follows from (4.1) that

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cor}_\rho(A, B) &= 4 [\text{tr}(\rho A_1 B_1) - \text{tr}(\rho A_1) \text{tr}(\rho B_1)] \\ &= 1 + (r_1 + r_2)\mu + ir_3\mu^2 - (1 + r_1\mu)(1 + r_2\mu) = -r_1r_2\mu^2 + ir_3\mu^2\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $\Delta_\rho(A, B) = -r_1r_2\mu^2$. A straightforward calculation shows that

$$\begin{aligned}\text{tr}(\rho A_1^2) &= \frac{1}{4}(1 + \mu^2) + \frac{1}{2}\mu r_1 \\ \text{tr}(\rho B_1^2) &= \frac{1}{4}(1 + \mu^2) + \frac{1}{2}\mu r_2\end{aligned}$$

It follows that

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

and similarly, $\Delta_\rho(B) = \mu^2(1 - r_2^2)$.

The commutator term in (4.2) becomes

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

The covariance term in (4.2) is

$$[\text{Re}(\rho A_1 B_1) - \text{tr}(\rho A_1) \text{tr}(\rho B_1)]^2 = \frac{1}{16} r_1^2 r_2^2 \mu^4$$

and the correlation term in (4.2) is

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

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

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

The inequality in (4.2) reduces to

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

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

$$\|\vec{r}\|^2 = r_1^2 + r_2^2 + r_3^2 \leq 1$$

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

$$r_1^2 r_2^2 \leq (1 - r_1^2)(1 - r_2^2) \quad (4.4)$$

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

5 Real-Valued Coarse Graining

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

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

We call $f(A)$ a *real-valued coarse graining* of A [2, 3, 4]. Then $f(A)$ has stochastic operator

$$f(A)^\sim = \sum_z z f(A)_z = \sum_z z A_{f^{-1}(z)} = \sum_z \sum_{x \in f^{-1}(z)} z A_x = \sum_x f(x) A_x$$

It follows that $\langle f(A) \rangle_\rho = \sum_x f(x) \text{tr}(\rho A_x)$ for all $\rho \in \mathcal{S}(H)$. If B is another observable and $g : \Omega_B \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cor}_\rho[f(A), g(B)] &= \sum_{x,y} f(x)g(y) \text{tr}(\rho A_x B_y) - \langle f(A) \rangle_\rho \langle g(B) \rangle_\rho \\ \Delta_\rho[f(A), g(B)] &= \sum_{x,y} f(x)g(y) \text{Re tr}(\rho A_x B_y) - \langle f(A) \rangle_\rho \langle g(B) \rangle_\rho \\ \Delta_\rho[f(A)] &= \sum_{x,y} f(x)f(y) \text{tr}(\rho A_x A_y) - \langle f(A) \rangle_\rho^2 \end{aligned}$$

Moreover, we have the uncertainty inequality

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

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

[2, 3]. It can be shown that $J(\mathcal{I})_x = \mathcal{I}_x^*(I)$ for all $x \in \Omega_{\mathcal{I}}$ where I is the identity operator [2, 3].

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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}[f(\mathcal{I})_z(\rho)] &= \text{tr}\left[\sum \{\mathcal{I}_x(\rho): f(x) = z\}\right] = \sum \{\text{tr}[\mathcal{I}_x(\rho)]: f(x) = z\} \\ &= \sum \{\text{tr}(\rho A_x): f(x) = z\} = \text{tr}\left[\rho \sum \{A_x: f(x) = z\}\right] \\ &= \text{tr}[\rho f(A)_z] \end{aligned}$$

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

$$\langle \mathcal{I} \rangle_\rho = \text{tr}\left[\sum x \mathcal{I}_x(\rho)\right] = \sum x \text{tr}[\mathcal{I}_x(\rho)] = \sum x \text{tr}(\rho A_x) = \langle A \rangle_\rho$$

for all $\rho \in \mathcal{S}(H)$. We also define $\Delta_\rho(\mathcal{I}) = \Delta_\rho(A)$. It follows that $\langle f(\mathcal{I}) \rangle_\rho = \langle f(A) \rangle_\rho$, $\Delta_\rho[f(\mathcal{I})] = \Delta_\rho[f(A)]$ and $f(\mathcal{I})^\sim = \sum f(x) \mathcal{I}_x$.

Let $A = \{A_x: x \in \Omega_A\}$, $B = \{B_y: y \in \Omega_B\}$ be arbitrary observables and suppose \mathcal{I} is an instrument with $J(\mathcal{I}) = A$. Define the \mathcal{I} -product observable $A \circ B$ with $\Omega_{A \circ B} = \Omega_A \times \Omega_B$ given by $(A \circ B)_{(x,y)} = \mathcal{I}_x(B_y)$ [2, 3]. Then $A \circ B$ is indeed an observable because

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} f(A, B)_z &= (A \circ B)_{f^{-1}(z)} = \sum \{(A \circ B)_{(x,y)}: f(x, y) = z\} \\ &= \sum \{\mathcal{I}_x^*(B_y): f(x, y) = z\} \\ f(A, B)^\sim &= \sum_{x,y} f(x, y) (A \circ B)_{(x,y)} = \sum_{x,y} f(x, y) \mathcal{I}_x^*(B_y) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle f(A, B) \rangle_\rho &= \sum_{x,y} f(x, y) \text{tr} [\rho(A \circ B)_{(x,y)}] = \sum_{x,y} f(x, y) \text{tr} [\rho \mathcal{I}_x^*(B_y)] \\
\Delta_\rho [f(A, B)] &= \sum_{x,y,x',y'} f(x, y) f(x', y') \text{tr} [\rho(A \circ B)_{(x,y)} (A \circ B)_{(x',y')}] - \langle f(A, B) \rangle_\rho^2 \\
&= \text{tr} \left\{ \rho \left[\sum_{x,y} f(x, y) \mathcal{I}_x^*(B_y) \right]^2 \right\} - \langle f(A, B) \rangle_\rho^2
\end{aligned}$$

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

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

We then have the simplification

$$\begin{aligned}
f(A, B)^\sim &= \sum_{x,y} g(x)h(y) \mathcal{I}_x^*(B_y) = \sum_x g_x \mathcal{I}_x^* \left(\sum_y h(y) B_y \right) \\
&= \sum_x g(x) \mathcal{I}_x^* [h(B)^\sim]
\end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle f(A, B) \rangle_\rho &= \text{tr} [\rho f(A, B)^\sim] = \text{tr} \left\{ \rho \sum_x g(x) \mathcal{I}_x^* [h(B)^\sim] \right\} \\
&= \sum_x g(x) \text{tr} \{ \rho \mathcal{I}_x^* [h(B)^\sim] \} = \sum_x g(x) \text{tr} \{ \mathcal{I}_x(\rho) [h(B)^\sim] \} \\
&= \text{tr} \left\{ \sum_x g(x) \mathcal{I}_x(\rho) [h(B)^\sim] \right\} = \text{tr} \{ g(\mathcal{I})^\sim(\rho) [h(B)^\sim] \}
\end{aligned}$$

In a similar way we obtain

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

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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned}(B | A)^\sim &= \sum_y y(B | A)_y = \sum_{x,y} y \mathcal{I}_x^*(B_y) = \mathcal{I}_{\Omega(A)}^*(\tilde{B}) \\ \langle (B | A) \rangle_\rho &= \sum_y y \text{tr} [\rho \mathcal{I}_{\Omega(A)}^*(B_y)] = \sum_y y \text{tr} [\bar{\mathcal{I}}(\rho) B_y] = \text{tr} [\bar{\mathcal{I}}(\rho) \tilde{B}] = \langle B \rangle_{\bar{\mathcal{I}}(\rho)} \\ \Delta_\rho [(B | A)] &= \Delta_\rho [(B | A)^\sim] = \Delta_\rho [\mathcal{I}_{\Omega(A)}^*(\tilde{B})] = \text{tr} \left\{ \left[\mathcal{I}_{\Omega(A)}^*(\tilde{B}) \right]^2 \right\} - \left[\langle B \rangle_{\bar{\mathcal{I}}(\rho)} \right]^2\end{aligned}$$

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

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

$$\begin{aligned}(A \circ B)_{(x,y)} &= \mathcal{I}_x^*(B_y) = \omega(x)B_y \\ f(A, B)_z &= f(A \circ B)_z = \sum \{ \omega(x)B_y : f(x, y) = z \}\end{aligned}$$

We conclude that

$$\begin{aligned}f(A, B)^\sim &= \sum_{x,y} f(x, y) \omega(x) B_y \\ \langle f(A, B) \rangle_\rho &= \sum_{x,y} f(x, y) \omega(x) \text{tr} (\rho B_y) \\ \Delta_\rho [f(A, B)] &= \text{tr} \left\{ \rho \left[\sum_{x,y} f(x, y) \omega(x) B_y \right]^2 \right\} - \langle f(A, B) \rangle_\rho^2\end{aligned}$$

Moreover, since

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

we have that $(B | A) = B$. □

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

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

Since $\mathcal{H}_x^*(a) = \text{tr}(\alpha_x a)A_x$ for all $x \in \Omega_A$ [2, 3], we have

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

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

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

We conclude that

$$\begin{aligned} f(A, B)_z &= \sum_{x,y} f(x, y) \mathcal{H}_x^*(B_y) = \sum_{x,y} f(x, y) \text{tr}(\alpha_x B_y)A_x \\ \langle f(A, B) \rangle_\rho &= \sum_{x,y} f(x, y) \text{tr}(\alpha_x B_y) \text{tr}(\rho A_x) \\ \Delta_\rho[f(A, B)] &= \sum_{x,y,x',y'} f(x, y) f(x', y') \text{tr}[\rho \text{tr}(\alpha_x B_y)A_x \text{tr}(\alpha_{x'} B_{y'})A_{x'}] \\ &\quad - \langle f(A, B) \rangle_\rho^2 \\ &= \text{tr} \left\{ \rho \left[\sum_{x,y} f(x, y) \text{tr}(\alpha_x B_y)A_x \right]^2 \right\} - \langle f(A, B) \rangle_\rho^2 \end{aligned}$$

Moreover, we have

$$(B \mid A)_y = \sum_x \mathcal{H}_x^*(B_y) = \sum_x \text{tr}(\alpha_x B_y)A_x \quad \square$$

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

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

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

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

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

$$f(A, B)_z = \sum \left\{ A_x^{1/2} B_y A_x^{1/2} : f(x, y) = z \right\}$$

We conclude that

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

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

Moreover, we have

$$(B \mid A)_y = \sum_x \mathcal{L}_x^*(B_y) = \sum_x A_x^{1/2} B_y A_x^{1/2} \quad \square$$

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