

## Noncommutativity and Transition Probability in Quantum Mechanics

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Using an operation that behaves as a noncommutative conjunction in orthomodular lattices, a way to define the transition probability for arbitrary quantum logics is given.

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In quantum mechanics there is a lattice structure that appears naturally and it is that of a *complete orthomodular lattice*. This is just a complete lattice  $(\mathbf{L}, \leq, \wedge, \vee)$  which satisfies all of the following:

- (I) There exists an orthocomplement  $\perp: \mathbf{L} \rightarrow \mathbf{L}$  such that:
  - (i)  $a \leq b$  iff  $b^\perp \leq a^\perp$ .
  - (ii)  $(a^\perp)^\perp = a$ .
  - (iii)  $a^\perp \vee a = 1$ .
  - (iv)  $a^\perp \wedge a = 0$ .
- (II) Given  $a \leq b$  in  $\mathbf{L}$ , then  $b = a \vee (b \wedge a^\perp)$  or equivalently  $a = (a \vee b^\perp) \wedge b$ . This property is usually referred to as weak modularity.

In Román and Rumbos (1982) it is argued that if the implication  $a \rightarrow b = (a \wedge b) \vee a^\perp$ , known in the literature as the *Sasaki hook*, is chosen in order to turn  $\mathbf{L}$  into an implicative lattice, then the best choice for the logical conjunction is the *ampersand*  $\&$  defined by  $a \& b = (a \vee b^\perp) \wedge b$ . It is not hard to see that  $a \& b \leq c$  iff  $a \leq b \rightarrow c$ , so that  $\_ \& b$  is left adjoint to  $b \rightarrow \_$ .

It is worth mentioning that  $\&$  is neither commutative nor associative; actually it is only so when  $\& = \wedge$  and this happens if and only if  $\mathbf{L}$  is a Boolean algebra. For a proof the reader is referred to Román and Rumbos (1991).

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Another condition relating Booleaness of  $\mathbf{L}$  to properties of  $\&$  is the following:

*Proposition.* Let  $\mathbf{L}$  be an orthomodular lattice and  $b \in \mathbf{L}$ . The map  $- \& b$  preserves orthogonality (i.e.,  $a^\perp \& b \leq (a \& b)^\perp \forall a \in \mathbf{L}$ ) iff  $\mathbf{L}$  is Boolean.

*Proof.*  $a^\perp \& b \leq (a \& b)^\perp$  iff  $a^\perp \leq b \rightarrow (a \& b)^\perp = [b \wedge (a \& b)^\perp] \vee b^\perp$ , but since  $a \& b \leq b$  we have  $b^\perp \leq (a \& b)^\perp$  and weak modularity yields  $[b \wedge (a \& b)^\perp] \vee b^\perp = (a \& b)^\perp$ ; thus  $a^\perp \& b \leq (a \& b)^\perp$  iff  $a^\perp \leq (a \& b)^\perp$  iff  $a \& b \leq a$  iff  $a \& b = a \wedge b$  iff  $\mathbf{L}$  is Boolean. ■

The ampersand behaves very much like a noncommutative analog of the usual meet in  $\mathbf{L}$ . Two elements  $a, b \in \mathbf{L}$  will be said to be *compatible* (denoted by  $a \rightarrow b$ ) iff  $a \& b = a \wedge b$ .

In general, a *quantum logic* (Jauch, 1968) is a pair  $(\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{S})$ , where  $\mathbf{L}$  is a complete orthomodular lattice and  $\mathbf{S}$  is a full set of states. A *state*  $s \in \mathbf{S}$  is just a map  $s: \mathbf{L} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  satisfying:

- (i)  $s(0) = 0, s(1) = 1$ .
- (ii)  $s(\vee a_i) = \sum s(a_i)$  given  $a_i \leq a_j^\perp \forall i \neq j$ .

Moreover,  $\mathbf{S}$  is *full* whenever  $s(a) \leq s(b) \forall s \in \mathbf{S} \Rightarrow a \leq b$ .

If the Borel sets of  $\mathbb{R}$  are denoted as usual by  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ , an  *$\mathbf{L}$ -observable* (or just an *observable* when no confusion arises) is an  $\mathbf{L}$ -valued measure based on  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ , that is, a map  $\mathbf{A}: \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbf{L}$  such that  $\mathbf{A}(\emptyset) = 0, \mathbf{A}(\mathbb{R}) = 1$ , and  $\mathbf{A}(\cup \beta_i) = \sum \mathbf{A}(\beta_i)$  given  $\beta_i \cap \beta_j = \emptyset$  for all  $i \neq j$ .

The orthomodular lattice associated with quantum mechanics is just the lattice of closed subspaces of a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ , or equivalently, the lattice of projection operators, which will be denoted by  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ . Note that when  $\mathbf{L} = \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ , an observable is a spectral measure and by the spectral theorem these correspond exactly to the self-adjoint operators on  $\mathcal{H}$ . In particular, the eigenvalues or possible measurements of an observable will always be real and they can form either a continuous set, if, for example, the observable is the position of a particle, or a discrete set, if we are dealing with an observable such as energy.

Given an observable  $\mathbf{A}: \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbf{L}$ , a state  $s: \mathbf{L} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ , and a set  $\beta \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ , the number  $s(\mathbf{A}(\beta)) \in [0, 1]$  is interpreted as “the probability that the observable  $\mathbf{A}$  takes values in the set  $\beta$  when the system is in the state  $s$ .”

If  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  are two observables, they are said to be *compatible* or to commute, iff  $\mathbf{A}(\beta) \rightarrow \mathbf{B}(\gamma)$  for all  $\beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ . When  $\mathbf{L} = \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  and the observables are thought of as self-adjoint operators, then this is equivalent to  $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{BA}$  and so their product (regular composition) is also an observable. This, of course, happens only when  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  can be simultaneously diagonalized, that is, when an orthonormal basis of common eigenvectors can be found for  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$ .

Again let  $\mathbf{L} = \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ ; if  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is the scalar product on  $\mathcal{H}$  and  $\mathcal{U}$  denotes the set of all unit vectors, a full set of states is given by

$$\mathbf{S} = \{s_u: \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H}) \rightarrow [0, 1] \mid u \in \mathcal{U} \text{ and } s_u(P) = \langle u, P(u) \rangle \ \forall P \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})\}$$

Note that if  $P$  is one-dimensional, say  $P = P_v$ , the projection onto the space generated by  $v \in \mathcal{U}$ , then  $s_u(P_v) = |\langle u, v \rangle|^2$ . This is usually referred to as the *transition probability* between the states  $s_u$  and  $s_v$ .

If  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  are two self-adjoint operators or observables which are not compatible, then there exist vectors  $u, v \in \mathcal{U}$  such that  $u$  is an eigenvector of  $\mathbf{A}$  but not of  $\mathbf{B}$  and dually with  $v$ , thus  $|\langle u, v \rangle|^2 \in (0, 1)$ , that is, there is a nontrivial transition probability between the corresponding (eigen)states  $s_u$  and  $s_v$ . It is to be expected, then, that there should be a relationship between the noncommutativity of  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  and the transition probabilities of their noncommon (eigen)states.

The quantum logic approach to the foundations of quantum mechanics (e.g., Jauch, 1968) deals with an arbitrary quantum logic  $(\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{S})$ . One of the problems with this description is that it is static since it offers no reasonable (or unreasonable!) definition of transition probability between states; a description of this problem can be found in Gudder (1978). Maczynski (1981) attempts to solve this problem by defining a “measure of noncommutativity” for the elements of  $\mathbf{L}$ . Román and Rumbos (1991), making use of the operation  $\&$  discussed before, defined a simpler and conceptually clearer measure of noncommutativity; let us briefly describe it.

Whenever  $(\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{S})$  is a quantum logic and  $a, b \in \mathbf{L}$ , the *commutativity gap* between  $a$  and  $b$  is defined as follows.

*Definition 1.*  $\Delta(a, b) = \sup_{s \in \mathbf{S}} |s(a \& b) - s(b \& a)|$ .

It is immediate from the definition that  $\Delta$  satisfies:

- (i)  $\Delta(a, b) = \Delta(b, a)$ .
- (ii)  $\Delta(a, b) \in [0, 1]$ .
- (iii)  $\Delta(a, b) = 0$  iff  $a \rightarrow b$ .

This definition can be easily extended to arbitrary observables as follows.

*Definition 2.* Given  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  two  $\mathbf{L}$ -observables, then the commutativity gap between them is given by

$$\Delta(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}) = \sup_{E, F \in \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{R})} \Delta(\mathbf{A}(E), \mathbf{B}(F))$$

If  $\mathbf{L} = \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  it was shown in Román and Rumbos (1991) that  $\Delta(a, b) = \|a \& b - b \& a\|$ , where  $\|\cdot\|$  is the usual operator norm; also, if  $u, v \in \mathcal{U}$  with  $\langle u, v \rangle \neq 0$  and  $P_u, P_v$  are the corresponding one-dimensional projections,

the following was proved:  $\Delta(P_u, P_v) = (1 - |\langle u, v \rangle|^2)^{1/2}$ . This expression will be referred to as (\*).

Given a quantum logic  $(L, S)$ , it is usually required that  $L$  be atomic and that there exists a bijection between the atoms of  $L$  and the pure states of  $S$  ( $s \in S$  is *pure* iff  $s$  cannot be expressed as a convex combination of other elements of  $S$ ). Whenever this happens we shall say that the quantum logic is *desirable*. Expression (\*) above suggests the following definition:

*Definition 3.* Let  $(L, S)$  be a desirable quantum logic, let  $a, b$  be two atoms of  $L$ , and let  $s_a, s_b$  be the corresponding pure states. The *transition probability* between  $s_a$  and  $s_b$ , denoted by  $\text{trp}(s_a, s_b)$ , is defined by

$$\text{trp}(s_a, s_b) = \begin{cases} 1 - \Delta(a, b)^2 & \text{if } a \not\leq b^\perp \\ 0 & \text{if } a \leq b^\perp \end{cases}$$

It is this definition that I suggest toward the solution of the open problem posed in Gudder (1978) mentioned above.

Let us now go back to the case  $L = \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ . Given  $A, B$  self-adjoint operators, their commutator  $[A, B] = AB - BA$  is not self-adjoint, but the operator  $i[A, B]$  is. It is natural to ask whether, given  $u, v \in \mathcal{U}$  and  $p_u, p_v$  the corresponding projections, there is any connection between  $\|i[p_u, p_v]\|$  and  $\Delta(p_u, p_v)$ . The answer is given by the next result.

*Theorem.* Given  $p_u, p_v$  as above with  $\langle u, v \rangle \neq 0$ , we have that

$$\Delta(p_u, p_v) = \frac{\|i[p_u, p_v]\|}{|\langle u, v \rangle|}$$

*Proof.* Expressing  $p_u$  and  $p_v$  in the orthonormal basis

$$e_1 = u, \quad e_2 = \frac{v - \langle v, u \rangle u}{(1 - |\langle u, v \rangle|^2)^{1/2}}$$

as in Román and Rumbos (1991) we have that

$$p_u = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad p_v = \begin{pmatrix} |\langle u, v \rangle|^2 & \langle v, u \rangle(1 - |\langle u, v \rangle|^2)^{1/2} \\ \langle u, v \rangle(1 - |\langle u, v \rangle|^2)^{1/2} & 1 - |\langle u, v \rangle|^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

so that  $\|i[p_u, p_v]\|$  can be calculated as the largest eigenvalue of  $i(p_u p_v - p_v p_u)$ . This is easily seen to be  $|\langle u, v \rangle|(1 - |\langle u, v \rangle|^2)^{1/2}$ , where we recognize  $\Delta(p_u, p_v)$  as the right-hand side factor; we thus have that  $\Delta(p_u, p_v) = \|i[p_u, p_v]\|/|\langle u, v \rangle|$ , which is the desired result. ■

The advantage of defining the transition probability in terms of the commutativity gap  $\Delta$  is that this can be done for more general quantum logics  $(L, S)$ , where the notion of commutator does not even exist.

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