Assumptions of Physics Summer School 2024

States and Processes

Gabriele Carcassi and Christine A. Aidala

Physics Department University of Michigan



https://assumptionsofphysics.org



Main goal of the project

Identify a handful of physical starting points from which the basic laws can be rigorously derived

For example:





https://assumptionsofphysics.org

This also requires rederiving all mathematical structures from physical requirements

For example:

Science is evidence based \Rightarrow scientific theory must be characterized by experimentally verifiable statements \Rightarrow topology and σ -algebras





If physics is about creating models of empirical reality, the foundations of physics should be a theory of models of empirical reality

Requirements of experimental verification, assumptions of each theory, realm of validity of assumptions, ...





Reverse physics: Start with the equations, reverse engineer physical assumptions/principles

Found Phys **52**, 40 (2022)



Goal: find the right overall physical concepts, "elevate" the discussion from mathematical constructs to physical principles

Physical mathematics: Start from scratch and rederive all mathematical structures from physical requirements



Goal: get the details right, perfect one-to-one map between mathematical and physical objects



This session

Physical Mathematics: States and Processes

Assumptions of Physics, Michigan Publishing (v2 2023)





All names are placeholders

So feedback like "I wouldn't call it that", "the name is confusing", ... is not useful. We don't even know what the right concepts are. Good naming is the final step.



Axioms of mixture and convex spaces



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Axiom 1.1 (Axiom of ensembles). The state of a system is represented by an ensemble, which represents all possible preparations of equivalent systems prepared according to the same procedure. The set of all possible ensembles for a particular system is an ensemble space. Formally, an ensemble space is a T_0 second countable topological space where each element is called an ensemble.

Can be defined experimentally

whenever this

Physical laws are not about single instances: they are about reproducible relationships

Reproducibility already implies infinitely many copies (you can always check one more time)

Also, preparations are never perfect (can't prepare perfect initial conditions)

⇒ Ensemble is the basic object for describing systems and states

The "pure states" (i.e. (q^i, p_i) and $P(\mathcal{H})$) are idealized ensembles



ma

then that

States

Phase space

Symplectic manifold

 $X = \{\mathbb{R}^{2n}, \omega\}$

Projective complex

Classical discrete $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$

Classical continuum

Quantum mechanics $X = P(\mathcal{H})$

Hilbert space

 $\mathcal{E} = \{ p_i \mid \sum_i p_i = 1 \}$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{E} &= \{ \rho \in C(\mathbb{R}^{2n}) \mid \\ & \int \rho \Pi_i dq^n dp_n = 1 \} \end{aligned}$$

 $\mathcal{E} = \{ \text{ positive semi-definite} \}$ Hermitian, $tr(\rho) = 1$ }



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Assumptions Physics

Axiom 1.6 (Axiom of mixture). An ensemble space \mathcal{E} is equipped with an operation +: $[0,1] \times \mathcal{E} \times \mathcal{E} \rightarrow \mathcal{E}$ called **mixing**, noted with the infix notation $p\mathbf{e}_1 + \bar{p}\mathbf{e}_2$, with the following properties:

- Continuity: the map (p, e₁, e₂) → pe₁ + p
 *p*e₂ is continuous (the products [0, 1] × E × E → E have the product topology)
- *Identity*: 1e₁ + 0e₂ = e₁
- *Idempotence:* $pe_1 + \bar{p}e_1 = e_1$ for all $p \in [0, 1]$
- Commutativity: $pe_1 + \bar{p}e_2 = \bar{p}e_2 + pe_1$ for all $p \in [0, 1]$
- **Associativity**: $p_1 \mathbf{e}_1 + \bar{p_1} \left(\overline{\left(\frac{p_3}{\bar{p_1}} \right)} \mathbf{e}_2 + \frac{p_3}{\bar{p_1}} \mathbf{e}_3 \right) = \bar{p_3} \left(\frac{p_1}{\bar{p_3}} \mathbf{e}_1 + \overline{\left(\frac{p_1}{\bar{p_3}} \right)} \mathbf{e}_2 \right) + p_3 \mathbf{e}_3 \text{ for all } p_1, p_3 \in [0, 1]$

Ensembles can be mixed

 \Rightarrow Convex structure

Classical probability distributions and quantum density operators have a convex structure



Definition 1.8. Let \mathcal{E} be an ensemble space. Let $\rho = \sum_i p_i \mathbf{e}_i$ where $\rho, \{\mathbf{e}_i\} \in \mathcal{E}$ and $p_i \in (0, 1]$ such that $\sum p_i = 1$. We say that ρ is a *mixture* of $\{\mathbf{e}_i\}$ and each \mathbf{e}_i is a *component* of ρ .

Definition 1.9. Let \mathcal{E} be an ensemble space and $e_1, e_2 \in \mathcal{E}$. We say that they have a common component if we can find $e_3 \in \mathcal{E}$ such that $e_1 = p_1e_3 + \bar{p_1}e_4$ and $e_2 = p_2e_3 + \bar{p_2}e_5$ for some $e_4, e_5 \in \mathcal{E}$ and $p_1, p_2 \in (0, 1)$. They are **distinct**, noted $e_1 \perp e_2$, otherwise.





Proposition 1.11. Let $e, e_1, e_2 \in \mathcal{E}$. If e is distinct from a mixture of e_1 and e_2 then it is distinct from all mixtures of e_1 and e_2 and from both e_1 and e_2 . That is, if $e \perp pe_1 + \bar{p}e_2$ for some $p \in (0,1)$ then $e \perp pe_1 + \bar{p}e_2$ for all $p \in [0,1]$. However, if e is distinct from e_1 and e_2 , it is not necessarily true that e is distinct from a mixture of e_1 and e_2 .



Suppose *e* distinct from *a* but not *b*



Definition 1.12. Let $\rho = p\mathbf{e}_1 + \bar{p}\mathbf{e}_2$ with $p \in (0,1)$. Then we say that \mathbf{e}_2 is a *p*-complement of \mathbf{e}_1 towards ρ . An ensemble space is complemented if all *p*-complements are unique for all $p \in (0,1)$.

Proposition 1.13. An ensemble space is complemented if and only if it is a convex subset of a real vector space for which mixtures are linear combination.



The mixing axioms allow us to get the same mixture just by changing one component

Requiring unique complement (i.e. cancellation axiom, unique inverse) recovers vector spaces

Both classical and quantum mechanics are complemented, but at this point it is not clear whether it is a necessary axiom



Takeaways

- Ensemble mixing provides a convex structure
- Invertibility of mixture recovers convex spaces
- TODOs:
 - Gather useful results for convex spaces
 - Understand how to recover topological vector spaces



Entropy



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Definition 1.16. Given the coefficients $\{p_i\} \in [0,1]$ such that $\sum p_i = 1$, the entropy of the coefficients (also known as Shannon entropy) is defined as $I(\{p_i\}) = -\sum p_i \log p_i$.

Axiom 1.17 (Axiom of entropy). An ensemble space \mathcal{E} is equipped a function $S : \mathcal{E} \to \mathbb{R}$ called *entropy* with the following properties

- Continuity
- Strict concavity: S(p₁e₁ + p₂e₂) ≥ p₁S(e₁) + p₂S(e₂) with the equality holding if and only if e₁ = e₂
- Upper variability bound: $S(p_1e_1 + p_2e_2) \leq I(p_1, p_2) + p_1S(e_1) + p_2S(e_2)$; if the equality hold then, e_1 and e_2 are **disjunct**, noted $e_1 \perp e_2$

Entropy must be strictly concave: it cannot decrease during mixing, and it stays the same only when mixing an ensemble with itself

Maximum entropy increase is when ensembles are "completely different" (disjunct); in that case, the increase is only given by the choice of the ensemble

Assuming entropy is the variability within the ensemble



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- Upper variability bound: $S(p_1e_1 + p_2e_2) \leq I(p_1, p_2) + p_1S(e_1) + p_2S(e_2)$; if the equality hold then, e_1 and e_2 are **disjunct**, noted $e_1 \perp e_2$

In classical mechanics, disjunct ensembles correspond to probability distributions with disjoint support In quantum mechanics, disjunct ensembles correspond to density operators in orthogonal subspaces





Definition 1.22. An ensemble space \mathcal{E} is *reducible* (or *classical*) if distinct ensembles are also disjunct. That is, $e_1 \perp e_2$ implies $e_1 \perp e_2$.

Proposition 1.23. Continuous and discrete classical ensemble spaces are reducible.

The difference between disjunctness and distinctness proves to be crucial

Classical

Quantum

R

С

Distinct: no common subdistribution
 Disjunct: equal mixture raises the entropy by 1

All pure states are distinct (no common component)

Only orthogonal states are disjunct (equal mixture raises the entropy by 1)

The entropic structure (disjunctness) tells us how much the ensembles are similar or not The convex structure (distinctness) tells us how much the common part can be separately studied



Axiom 1.18 (Axiom of entropic disjunctness). The entropy function of an ensemble space obeys the following properties

- Disjunctness implies distinctness: $e_1 \perp e_2$ implies $e_1 \perp e_2$
- Mixtures preserve disjunctness: let e₁ = pe₂ + p

 e₃, then e₄ ⊥ e₁ if and only if e₄ ⊥ e₂ and e₄ ⊥ e₃

Conceptually, disjunctness is a stronger property than distinctness

The above axioms can be justified from the physics

Can they be proved from the previous axioms or not?



Conjecture 1.19. Let $e_1, e_2 \in \mathcal{E}$ be such that $pe + \bar{p}e_1 = pe + \bar{p}e_2$ for some $p \in (0, 1)$ and $e \in \mathcal{E}$. Then e_1 and e_2 are not disjunct.

Remark. It seems very unlikely that differences in states that can be obscured by mixing would correspond to disjunct states. The more general question is whether the strict concavity of the entropy allows non-complemented spaces.

Is there any other interplay between convex structure and entropic structure?



Takeaways

- Entropy provides an additional structure
- Disjunctness allows us to recognize orthogonal elements
- TODOs:
 - Better understand the interplay between convex and entropic structure
 - Entropy may be crucial to recover topological vector spaces



Dimensions of a subset of ensembles



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Classical statistical mechanics links count of states and entropy



Want a generalization of these relationships



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entropy

Proposition 1.24 (Exponential entropy subadditivity). Let $e_1, e_2 \in \mathcal{E}$. Let $S_1 = S(e_1)$ and $S_2 = S(e_2)$. Let $e = pe_1 + \bar{p}e_2$ for some $p \in [0,1]$ and S = S(e). Then $2^S \leq 2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}$, with the equality if and only if e_1 and e_2 are disjunct and $p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}}$.

Exponential of the entropy has key property

Assumptions

Proof. If p is fixed, the upper variability bound of entropy is saturated only if e_1 and e_2 are disjunct by definition. The entropy maximum for the mixed ensemble can only be achieved when the elements are disjunct, for some value of p.

$$\begin{split} 0 &= \frac{dS}{dp} = \frac{d}{dp} S(\mathbf{e}) = \frac{d}{dp} \left(-p \log p - \bar{p} \log \bar{p} + pS_1 + \bar{p}S_2 \right) & \bar{p} = 1 - \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} = \frac{2^{S_2}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} \\ &= -\log p - 1 + \log \bar{p} + 1 + S_1 - S_2 & S = S(\mathbf{e}) = -p \log p - \bar{p} \log \bar{p} + pS_1 + \bar{p}S_2 \\ &\log \frac{p}{\bar{p}} = \log 2^{S_1} - \log 2^{S_2} & = -\frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} \log \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} - \frac{2^{S_2}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} \log \frac{2^{S_2}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} \\ &\log \frac{p}{1 - p} = \log \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_2}} & = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} \log 2^{S_1} + \frac{2^{S_2}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} \log 2^{S_1} + \frac{2^{S_2}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} \log 2^{S_1} + \frac{2^{S_2}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} \log 2^{S_2} \\ &p (2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}) = 2^{S_1} & = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} \log (2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}) \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S} = \log (2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}) \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S} = \log (2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}) \\ &p (2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}) & 2^{S} = 2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2} \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S} = \log (2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}) \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S} = \log (2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}) \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2} \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2} \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2} \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2} \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2} \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2} \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2} \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2} \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2} \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2} \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2} \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2} \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2} \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2} \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2} \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2}} & \log 2^{S_1} + 2^{S_2} \\ &p = \frac{2^{S_1}}{2^{S_1} + 2^{$$

Definition 1.27. Let $U \subseteq \mathcal{E}$ be the subset of an ensemble space. The **convex hull** of U, noted hull(U) is the set of all possible mixtures that can be constructed with elements contained in U.

Corollary 1.28. The convex hull has the following properties

1. $U \subseteq \operatorname{hull}(U)$ 2. $U \subseteq V \Longrightarrow \operatorname{hull}(U) \subseteq \operatorname{hull}(V)$ 3. $\operatorname{hull}(\operatorname{hull}(U)) = \operatorname{hull}(U)$

and is therefore a closure operation



Definition 1.29. Let $U \subseteq \mathcal{E}$ be the subset of an ensemble space. The **dimension** of U is defined as $\dim(U) = \sup(2^{S(\operatorname{hull}(U))})$ if $U \neq \emptyset$ and $\dim(U) = 0$ otherwise.

Proposition 1.30. The dimension is a set function that is

- 1. non negative: $\dim(U) \in [0, +\infty]$
- 2. monotone: $U \subseteq V \implies \dim(U) \leq \dim(V)$
- 3. subadditive: $\dim(U \cup V) \leq \dim(U) + \dim(V)$
- 4. additive over disjunct sets: $U \perp V \implies \dim(U \cup V) = \dim(U) + \dim(V)$

Dimension is the exponential of the highest entropy reachable through convex combinations

Recovers $S(\rho_U) \le \log \dim(U)$

Highest entropy is reached by uniform distribution of disjunct elements

But it is not additive!



Need for non-additive measure



Takeaways

- Upper entropy bound leads to a natural notion of "size" of a set which recovers statistical mechanics relationships in the general case
- This notion of size is, in general, not additive
- It is additive over disjunct sets
 - In classical mechanics, distinct = disjunct, so the measure is additive over pure states
 - In quantum mechanics, disjunct = orthogonal, so the measure is additive only over an orthogonal basis (i.e. measurement context)
- TODOs:
 - Better characterize the non-additivity



Entropic geometry



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The space of classical statistical manifolds has a natural metric

The Fisher information metric then takes the form: [clarification needed]

$$g_{jk}(heta) = -\int_R rac{\partial^2 \log p(x, heta)}{\partial heta_j \, \partial heta_k} p(x, heta) \, dx.$$

There is a quantum analogue

The Bures metric may be defined as

$$[D_B(
ho,
ho+d
ho)]^2=rac{1}{2}{
m tr}(d
ho G),$$

where G is the Hermitian 1-form operator implicitly given by

 $\rho G+G\rho=d\rho,$

Want a generalization of these objects

The Bures metric can be seen as the quantum equivalent of the Fisher information metric and can be rewritten in terms of the variation of coordinate parameters as

$$[D_B(
ho,
ho+d
ho)]^2=rac{1}{2}{
m tr}\left(rac{d
ho}{d heta^\mu}L_
u
ight)d heta^\mu d heta^
u,$$



Definition 1.31. Given two ensembles $e_1, e_2 \in \mathcal{E}$, the **mixing entropy**, also called Jensen-Shannon divergence, is the increase in entropy associated to their mixture. That is:

$$MS(e_1, e_2) = S\left(\frac{1}{2}e_1 + \frac{1}{2}e_2\right) - \left(\frac{1}{2}S(e_1) + \frac{1}{2}S(e_2)\right).$$

Corollary 1.32. The mixing entropy obeys the following bounds

 $0 \leq MS(\mathsf{e}_1,\mathsf{e}_2) \leq 1.$

The lower bound is satisfied if and only if $e_1 = e_2$ and the upper bound is satisfied if and only if $e_1 \perp e_2$.

It is a semi-metric (does not satisfy triangle inequality)

Proposition 1.33. In discrete and continuous classical cases, the mixing entropy coincides with the Jensen-Shannon divergence. In quantum spaces it coincides with the quantum Jensen-Shannon divergence.

It generalizes the Jensen-Shannon divergence



Definition 1.34. An ensemble space is **geometric** if it is complemented and has a twice differentiable entropy with respect to the mixing coefficients.

Conjecture 1.35. A geometric ensemble space is a convex subset of a real vector space. Moreover, every finite dimensional subspace is a smooth manifold.

We need a vector space with a differentiable structure



Definition 1.36. Let $V \subseteq \mathcal{E}$ be a differentiable manifold embedded in the ensemble space. Let $e \in \mathcal{E}$ be an ensemble and T_e the tangent space at that point. The **norm** of $\delta e \in T_e$ is given by

$$\|\delta \mathbf{e}\|_{\mathbf{e}} = \sqrt{8MS(\mathbf{e},\mathbf{e}+\delta \mathbf{e})}$$

The metric tensor (i.e. the inner product between $\delta e_1, \delta e_2 \in T_e$) is given by

$$g_{e}(\delta e_{1}, \delta e_{2}) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\|\delta e_{1} + \delta e_{2}\|_{e}^{2} - \|\delta e_{1}\|_{e}^{2} - \|\delta e_{2}\|_{e}^{2} \right).$$

Recover a geometric structure in general

Theorem 1.37. Let \mathcal{E} be a geometric ensemble space and $V \subseteq \mathcal{E}$ a differentiable manifold embedded in the ensemble space. Then

$$\|\delta \mathbf{e}\|_{\mathbf{e}}^2 = -\frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial \mathbf{e}^2}(\delta \mathbf{e}, \delta \mathbf{e})$$

 $g_{\mathsf{e}}(\delta \mathsf{e}_1, \delta \mathsf{e}_2) = -\frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial \mathsf{e}^2}(\delta \mathsf{e}_1, \delta \mathsf{e}_2)$

Metric tensor is just the Hessian of the entropy

and

Then V is a Riemannian manifold with g_{e} as the metric tensor and $\|\cdot\|_{e}$ as the norm.



Proofs are trivial

$$S(\mathbf{e} + \delta \mathbf{e}) = S(\mathbf{e}) + \frac{\partial S}{\partial \mathbf{e}} \delta \mathbf{e} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial \mathbf{e}^2} \delta \mathbf{e} \delta \mathbf{e} + O(\delta \mathbf{e}^3).$$

Expanding the definition of MS, we have

$$\begin{split} MS(\mathbf{e},\mathbf{e}+\delta\mathbf{e}) &= S\left(\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{e}+\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{e}+\delta\mathbf{e})\right) - \frac{1}{2}S(\mathbf{e}) - \frac{1}{2}S(\mathbf{e}+\delta\mathbf{e}) \\ &= S\left(\mathbf{e}+\frac{1}{2}\delta\mathbf{e}\right) - \frac{1}{2}S(\mathbf{e}) - \frac{1}{2}S(\mathbf{e}+\delta\mathbf{e}) \\ &= S(\mathbf{e}) + \frac{\partial S}{\partial \mathbf{e}}\frac{1}{2}\delta\mathbf{e} + \frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial \mathbf{e}^2}\frac{1}{2}\delta\mathbf{e}\frac{1}{2}\delta\mathbf{e} + O(\delta\mathbf{e}^3) \\ &- \frac{1}{2}S(\mathbf{e}) - \frac{1}{2}\left(S(\mathbf{e}) + \frac{\partial S}{\partial \mathbf{e}}\delta\mathbf{e} + \frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial \mathbf{e}^2}\delta\mathbf{e}\delta\mathbf{e} + O(\delta\mathbf{e}^3)\right) \\ &= S(\mathbf{e}) + \frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial S}{\partial \mathbf{e}}\delta\mathbf{e} + \frac{1}{8}\frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial \mathbf{e}^2}\delta\mathbf{e}\delta\mathbf{e} \\ &- S(\mathbf{e}) - \frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial S}{\partial \mathbf{e}}\delta\mathbf{e} - \frac{1}{4}\frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial \mathbf{e}^2} + O(\delta\mathbf{e}^3) \\ &= -\frac{1}{8}\frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial \mathbf{e}^2}\delta\mathbf{e}\delta\mathbf{e} + O(\delta\mathbf{e}^3). \end{split}$$

Therefore

$$\|\delta \mathbf{e}\|^2 = 8MS(\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{e} + \delta \mathbf{e}) = -\frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial \mathbf{e}^2}(\delta \mathbf{e}, \delta \mathbf{e}).$$

$$g_{e}(\delta e_{1}, \delta e_{2}) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\|\delta e_{1} + \delta e_{2}\|^{2} - \|\delta e_{1}\|^{2} - \|\delta e_{2}\|^{2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(-\frac{\partial^{2} S}{\partial e^{2}} (\delta e_{1} + \delta e_{2}, \delta e_{1} + \delta e_{2}) + \frac{\partial^{2} S}{\partial e^{2}} (\delta e_{1}, \delta e_{1}) + \frac{\partial^{2} S}{\partial e^{2}} (\delta e_{2}, \delta e_{2}) \right)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial^{2} S}{\partial e^{2}} (\delta e_{1}, \delta e_{1}) + \frac{\partial^{2} S}{\partial e^{2}} (\delta e_{1}, \delta e_{2}) + \frac{\partial^{2} S}{\partial e^{2}} (\delta e_{2}, \delta e_{1}) + \frac{\partial^{2} S}{\partial e^{2}} (\delta e_{2}, \delta e_{2}) \right)$$

$$- \frac{\partial^{2} S}{\partial e^{2}} (\delta e_{1}, \delta e_{1}) - \frac{\partial^{2} S}{\partial e^{2}} (\delta e_{2}, \delta e_{2}) \right)$$

$$= -\frac{\partial^{2} S}{\partial e^{2}} (\delta e_{1}, \delta e_{1})$$



Proposition 1.41. For a classical ensemble space, the metric corresponds to the Fisher-Rao metric. $\log(x + dx) = \log(x) + d_x \log x \, dx + \frac{1}{2} d_x d_x \log x \, dx^2 + O(dx^3)$

$$S(\rho + \delta\rho) = -\int_X (\rho + \delta\rho) \log(\rho + \delta\rho) dx = \log \left[\log \rho + \frac{1}{\rho} \delta\rho - \frac{1}{2\rho^2} \delta\rho^2 + O(\delta\rho^3) \right] dx$$
$$= -\int_X \rho \log \rho dx - \int_x \left[\log \rho + 1 \right] dx \delta\rho - \int_X \left[\frac{1}{\rho} - \frac{\rho}{2\rho^2} \right] dx \delta\rho^2 + \int_X dx O(\delta\rho^3)$$
$$= -\int_X \rho \log \rho dx - \int_x \left[\log \rho + 1 \right] dx \delta\rho - \frac{1}{2} \int_X \frac{1}{\rho} dx \delta\rho^2 + \int_X dx O(\delta\rho^3)$$

og(x) +
$$\frac{1}{x}dx - \frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{x^2}dx^2 + O(dx^3)$$

) Proofs are
mere calculations

$$\frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial \rho^2} (\delta \rho, \delta \rho) = -\int_X \frac{1}{\rho} \delta \rho^2 dx = -\int_X \frac{1}{\rho} \delta \rho^2 dx + 0 = -\int_X \frac{1}{\rho} \delta \rho^2 dx + \delta^2 (1)$$
$$= -\int_X \frac{1}{\rho} \delta \rho^2 dx + \delta^2 \int_X \rho dx = -\int_X \frac{1}{\rho} \delta \rho^2 dx + \int_X \delta^2 \rho dx$$
$$= \int_X \rho dx \left[-\frac{1}{\rho^2} \delta \rho^2 + \frac{1}{\rho} \delta^2 \rho \right] = \int_X \rho dx \, \delta \left[\frac{1}{\rho} \delta \rho \right]$$
$$= \int_X \rho dx \, \delta^2 \log \rho$$

$$g_{\mathsf{e}}(d\theta^{1}, d\theta^{2}) = -\frac{\partial^{2}S}{\partial\rho^{2}} \left(\frac{\partial\rho}{\partial\theta^{1}} d\theta^{1}, \frac{\partial\rho}{\partial\theta^{2}} d\theta^{2} \right) = -\int_{X} \rho dx \frac{\partial^{2}\log\rho}{\partial\theta^{1}\partial\theta^{2}} d\theta^{1} d\theta^{2}$$



Takeaways

- The geometric structure of the ensemble space is due to the strict concavity of the entropy, and therefore it is fully general
- TODOs:
 - Recover the quantum case
 - In both the classical and quantum case, the JSD is the square of a distance function: can this be proven in general?

NOTE: differential geometry is limited to manifolds (i.e. finite dimensional spaces). Yet, what we find is more general.

Can we find a more general notion of differentiability, tangent spaces, etc... ?



Differentiability



Gabriele Carcassi - University of Michigan

Differentiability in math

Differentiable manifold Manifold Differentiable structure

Vector defined as derivation of a scalar function

 $v: C^{\infty}(X, \mathbb{R}) \to C^{\infty}(X, \mathbb{R})$ vector basis $v(f) = v \partial_i f$

Does not make sense physically!

- velocity is not a derivation
- momentum is not a function of a derivation
- derivations ∂_i depend on units and can't be summed (e.g. $\partial_r + \partial_{\theta}$)
- Two mathematical notions of differentials (the • new one and the one hidden in the Fréchet derivative)
- Infinitesimal objects are limits of finite objects, not the other way around

Defined on top of Fréchet derivative

Changes of coordinates are differentiable

Differentials defined as linear functions of vectors

 $dx: V \to \mathbb{R}$ $dx(v) = dx(v^i\partial_i) = v^x$

So are convectors, like momentum

Mathematicians have developed

definitions for differentials, derivatives,

integrations, tangent vectors... are they

several, increasingly abstract,

suitable for physics?

Integrals defined on top of differential forms

$$\int_{\gamma} dx = \Delta x$$



Differentiability in physics

Infinitesimal reducibility \Rightarrow differentiability

General notion of differential as an infinitesimal change in ANY vector space





Convergence at all points \Rightarrow differentiability of curve

Goal: one notion of derivative



Definition 1.2 (Convergence envelope). A convergence envelope $\{a_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ is a sequence of non-zero elements of \mathbb{R} that converges to 0.

Defines how we go to zero

Definition 1.3. Let V be a real vector space. A differential dv is a sequence of vectors $\{v_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ such that there exists a vector $t \in V$ and a convergence envelope $\{a_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ for which

$$\lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{v_i}{a_i} = t$$

We call t the **tangent vector** of the differential and $\{a_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ its **convergence envelope**. We note $dv[a_i t]$ the differential with its tangent vector and convergence envelope.

Only requires the (topological) vector space structure



Proposition 1.4. Let dv be a differential. It can be expressed as

 $v_i = a_i t_i = a_i (t + w_i)$

where $\{t_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ is a sequence of vectors that converges to t and w_i is a sequence of vectors that converges to 0.

Proposition 1.5. Differentials respect the following property

 $dv[a_i kt] = dv[ka_i t].$

Some useful properties



Proposition 1.6. Differentials with the same convergence envelope form a vector space. That is

$$b dv[a_i t] + c dv[a_i u] = dv[a_i (bt + cu)].$$

for any $t, u \in V$ and $b, c \in \mathbb{R}$.

Technically, we have a space of differentials for each a_i



Definition 1.7. Let V and W be two vector spaces. Given a map $f: V \to W$, a sequence $\{v_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ that converges to some $v \in V$ and a differential $dv[a_i t]$, we define the **image of** the differential through the map as $df(v_i, dv[a_i t]) = \{f(v_i + a_i t_i) - f(v_i)\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$. The map is differentiable at v if there exists a map $\frac{df}{dV}\Big|_{v}: V \to W$, called derivative such that $df(v_i, dv[a_i t]) = dw[a_i \frac{df}{dV}\Big|_{v}(t)]$ for all $\{v_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ and for all differentials. That is, df maps differentials of V to differentials of W that have the same convergence envelope and a tangent vector that depends only on the original tangent vector.

Differentiable maps are those that map differentials to differentials

Same convergence

Proposition 1.9. The derivative must be a linear function. \blacksquare

It is automatically linear!

Proof. Recall that $dv[a_i kt] = dv[ka_i t]$, therefore $dw[a_i \frac{df}{dV}\Big|_v(kt)] = df(v_i, dv[a_i kt]) = df(v_i, dv[a_i kt]) = dw[ka_i \frac{df}{dV}\Big|_v(t)] = dw[a_i k \frac{df}{dV}\Big|_v(t)]$. Therefore $\frac{df}{dV}\Big|_v(kt) = k \frac{df}{dV}\Big|_v(t)$. We also have

$$dw[a_{i} \frac{df}{dV}\Big|_{v}(t+u)] = df(v_{i}, dv[a_{i}t+u]) = \{f(v_{i}+a_{i}(t_{i}+u_{i})) - f(v_{i})\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$$

$$= \{f(v_{i}+a_{i}(t_{i}+u_{i})) - f(v_{i}+a_{i}t_{i}) + f(v_{i}+a_{i}t_{i}) - f(v_{i})\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$$

$$= \{f((v_{i}+a_{i}t_{i}) + a_{i}u_{i}) - f(v_{i}+a_{i}t_{i})\}_{i=1}^{\infty} + \{f(v_{i}+a_{i}t_{i}) - f(v_{i})\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$$

$$= df(v_{i}+a_{i}t_{i}, dv[a_{i}u]) + df(v_{i}, dv[a_{i}t])$$

$$= dw[a_{i} \frac{df}{dV}\Big|_{v}(u)] + dw[a_{i} \frac{df}{dV}\Big|_{v}(t)]$$

Generalizations of derivative (e.g. Fréchet) are DEFINED to be linear



Proposition 1.14 (Chain rule). Let U, V and W be three vector spaces. Let $f: U \to V$ and $g: V \to W$ be two differentiable maps and $h = g \circ f$ their composition. Then $\frac{dh}{dU} = \frac{dg}{dV} \circ \frac{df}{dU}$. Chain rule is simply function composition

Proof. Since f is differentiable, we have $df(u_i, du[a_i t]) = dv[a_i \frac{df}{dU}|_u(t)]$ for all $u_i \to u$, convergence envelopes a_i and tangent vectors t. Since g is differentiable, we have $dg(v_i, dv[a_i t]) = dw[a_i \frac{dg}{dV}|_v(t)]$ for all $v_i \to v$, convergence envelopes a_i and tangent vectors t. In particular, we have

$$dw[a_{i} \frac{dg}{dV}|_{v} \left(\frac{df}{dU}|_{u}(t)\right)] = dg(f(u_{i}), dv[a_{i} \frac{df}{dU}|_{u}(t)])$$

$$= dg(f(u_{i}), df(u_{i}, du[a_{i}t]))$$

$$= dg(f(u_{i}), df(u_{i}, a_{i}t_{i}))$$

$$= dg(f(u_{i}), \{f(u_{i} + a_{i}t_{i}) - f(u_{i})\}))$$

$$= \{g(f(u_{i}) + f(u_{i} + a_{i}t_{i}) - f(u_{i})) - g(f(u_{i}))\}$$

$$= \{g(f(u_{i} + a_{i}t_{i}) - g(f(u_{i}))\}$$

$$= \{h(u_{i} + a_{i}t_{i}) - h(u_{i})\}$$

$$= dh(u_{i}, du[a_{i}t]).$$
(1.15)
$$dU = df$$

Therefore the image of the differential through h is a differential with convergence envelope a_i and tangent vector $\frac{dg}{dV}\Big|_v \left(\frac{df}{dU}\Big|_u(t)\right)$. The derivative of h is

 $\frac{dh}{dU} = \frac{dg}{dV} \circ \frac{df}{dU} \tag{1.16}$



IJ

Proposition 1.13. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$. Then the standard analytical notions of differentiability and derivative coincide.

Proposition 1.19. Let V and W be two normed vector spaces. Then the notion of Fréchet derivative and the new derivative coincide.

Coincides with standard notion of derivatives in specific cases



Differentiability: forms and linear functionals



Thinking in terms of relationships between finite objects leads to better physical intuition

The mathematics is contingent upon the assumption of infinitesimal reducibility (e.g. mass in volumes sums only if boundary effects can be neglected)

We can define functionals that act on boundaries



Boundary of a boundary is the empty set \Rightarrow

exterior derivative of exterior derivative is zero

Reversing the exterior derivative is finding a (non-unique) potential

 $J_{V^{k+1}}$

exterior functional

derivative

 $d/d\sigma^k$



Takeaways

- We can define a more general notion of derivative that is more in line with the old ideas of infinitesimals but still rigorous
- We can get better physical intuition because we can understand all infinitesimal objects as limits/decompositions on finite objects (on which the physics is actually defined)
- TODOs:
 - Complete the theory
 - Construct the analogue of differentiable manifold (i.e. topological space that is homeomorphic to a topological vector space at each point)



Subspaces



Gabriele Carcassi - University of Michigan

The basic definition do not tell us what are the spaces on which the ensembles are defined

We need to recover them... in a general way

Disjunctness allows us to detect disjoint support in classical mechanics and orthogonality in quantum mechanics





Definition 1.49. Let X be a set and $R \subseteq X \times X$ a symmetric relation. Given a subset $U \subseteq X$, we define the R-complement to be \forall Will be disjunctness in the end

$$U^{RC} = \{a \in X \mid \forall b \in U, aRb\}$$

All the elements that are orthogonal to all elements in U

Get a lot of properties out of very little

Proposition 1.50. Let X be a set and $R \subseteq X \times X$ a symmetric relation. Then:

1.
$$U \subseteq V \implies V^{RC} \subseteq U^{RC}$$

2. $U \subseteq (U^{RC})^{RC}$
3. $U^{RC} = ((U^{RC})^{RC})^{RC}$
4. $U^{RC} = (V^{RC})^{RC} \iff (U^{RC})^{RC} = V^{RC}$
5. $(\bigcup_{i \in I} U_i)^{RC} = \bigcap_{i \in I} (U_i)^{RC}$
6. $\varnothing^{RC} = X$



Proposition 1.51. Let X be a set and $R \subseteq X \times X$ a symmetric and irreflexive relation. Then

1. $U \cap U^{RC} = \emptyset$ 2. $X^{RC} = \emptyset$

Nothing is orthogonal to itself

Last few properties



Definition 1.52. Let X be a set and $R \subseteq X \times X$ a symmetric relation. Let $U \subseteq X$. The *R*-subspace generated by U is $\langle U \rangle_R = (U^{RC})^{RC}$. An *R*-subspace of X is a set $U \subseteq X$ such that $U = \langle U \rangle_R$. The lattice of *R*-subspaces is the set $\mathfrak{L} = \{U \subseteq X | U = \langle U \rangle_R\}$ ordered by inclusion.

Corollary 1.53. The lattice of R-subspaces \mathfrak{L} is a topped \cap -structure on X and therefore is also a complete lattice.

Subspaces defined as subsets that are the complement of their complement

This is usually a property for subspaces of vector spaces. We use it as the defining characteristic

Proposition 1.56. Let X be an inner product space and $R = \{(a, b) | \langle a, b \rangle = 0\}$. Then:

- 1. R is an irreflexive and symmetric relation
- 2. $U^{RC} = U^{\perp}$

3. $\langle U \rangle_R = \operatorname{cl}_X(\operatorname{span}(U))$

Recovers the notion of closed vector subspaces



Proposition 1.57. Let \mathcal{E} be an ensemble space, disjunctness \bot is an irreflexive symmetric relation.

Definition 1.58. Let \mathcal{E} be an ensemble space and $X \subseteq \mathcal{E}$ be a subset. The disjunct complement $X^{\perp} \subseteq \mathcal{E}$ is the set of all ensembles that are disjunct from all elements of X. An ensemble subspace is a subset $X \in \mathcal{E}$ such that $X = (X^{\perp})^{\perp}$.

Now we apply the more general construction to our specific case

Note that this construction only uses the entropic structure Valid even if there is not vector space structure (i.e. noncomplemented space)

Recovers the correct notions

In the classical case, a subspace is the set of all distributions with support within a set U

In the quantum case, a subspace is the set of all density operators within a subspace of the Hilbert space



To recover the topology of the base space on top of which distributions are defined, the distributions must be continuous

Physically justifiable: experimental relationships are continuous functions

A continuous function is zero only on an open set

Hilbert spaces in quantum mechanics cannot work: $L^2(\mathbb{R}) \equiv L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$

Schwartz spaces do work: $S(\mathbb{R}) \not\equiv S(\mathbb{R}^n)$



Definition 1.62. A pure state is a limit of an ensemble with the smallest entropy. Formally, a pure state $s \in \mathfrak{L}$ is a non-empty collection of subspaces such that

- 1. if $\{X_i\}_{i \in I} \in s$ then $\bigcap_{i \in I} X_i \in s$
- 2. if $X \in s$ and $Y \in \mathfrak{L}$ such that $X \subseteq Y$, then $Y \in s$
- 3. if $X \in s$ and $Y \in \mathfrak{L}$ such that $Y \subseteq X$ and $Y \neq \emptyset$, then there exists $Z \in s$ such that $Z \subset X$.

The set of all pure states for an ensemble space is noted $S(\mathcal{E})$.

Points can be recovered by looking for sequences of subspaces that become "smaller and smaller"

They are definitely not pure states...



Takeaways

- We can define a general notion of subspaces of ensembles based on disjunctness
- The geometry of the vector spaces (i.e. the inner product, orthogonality) is also uniquely defined by the entropy
- TODOs:
 - Complete the theory
 - Can we also define a notion of inner product from the entropy?



Probability and measure theory



Classical probability

Possibilities (experimentally defined cases)

- the sample space Ω an arbitrary non-empty set,
- the σ -algebra $\mathcal{F} \subseteq 2^{\Omega}$ (also called σ -field) a set of subsets of Ω , called events, such that:
 - ${\mathcal F}$ contains the sample space: $\Omega\in {\mathcal F}$,
 - ${\mathcal F}$ is closed under complements: if $A\in {\mathcal F}$, then also $(\Omega\setminus A)\in {\mathcal F}$,
 - $\mathcal F$ is closed under countable unions: if $A_i\in \mathcal F$ for $i=1,2,\ldots$, then also $(igcup_{i=1}^\infty A_i)\in \mathcal F$
 - The corollary from the previous two properties and De Morgan's law is that \mathcal{F} is also closed under countable intersections: if $A_i \in \mathcal{F}$ for i = 1, 2, ..., then also $(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) \in \mathcal{F}$
- the probability measure $P:\mathcal{F}
 ightarrow [0,1]$ a function on \mathcal{F} such that:
 - *P* is countably additive (also called σ -additive): if $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ is a countable collection of pairwise disjoint sets, then $P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i),$
 - the measure of the entire sample space is equal to one: $P(\Omega) = 1$.

Probability each theoretical

Theoretical statements

(statements with tests)

statement is true

Does not work for quantum mechanics!

Want a generalization for both



Definition 1.70. Let $e \in \mathcal{E}$. The probability measure for e is defined as $p_e(A) = \sup(\{p \in [0,1] | \exists e_1 \in \operatorname{hull}(A), e_2 \in \mathcal{E} \text{ s.t. } e = pe_1 + \overline{p}e_2\})$ if $A \neq \emptyset$ and $p_e(A) = 0$ otherwise.

Corollary 1.71. Let $e_1, e_2 \in \mathcal{E}$. Then $p_{e_1} \neq p_{e_2}$.

Π

Given a set of ensembles, the probability is the biggest mixing coefficient associated to the biggest component of the target ensemble

$$p(x) = p(x|U)p(U) + p(x|U^{C})p(U^{C})$$
$$e = e_{1}p + e_{2}(1-p)$$



Proposition 1.73. The probability measure for an ensemble is

- 1. non negative and unit bounded: $p_{e}(U) \in [0,1]$
- 2. monotone: $U \subseteq V \implies p_{e}(U) \leq p_{e}(V)$
- 3. subadditive: $p_{e}(U \cup V) \leq p_{e}(U) + p_{e}(V)$

Non-additive in general. When do we recover additivity?

Non-additivity comes out when distinct ensembles are not disjunct. Restrict to structure where distinct = disjunct.



Definition 1.74. Let \mathfrak{L} be the lattice of subspaces and $\wedge, \vee, (\cdot)^{\perp}$ be respectively the join, meet and disjunct complement. A **context** is a lattice of subspaces $C \subseteq \mathfrak{L}$ such that

1. if
$$\{X_i\}_{i\in I} \in C$$
 then $\bigwedge_{i\in I} X_i \in C$, $\bigvee_{i\in I} X_i \in C$ and $X_i^{\perp} \in C$
2. if $X, Y \in C$ and $X \cap Y = \emptyset$, then $X \perp Y$.

That is, the join, meet and complement operation in \mathfrak{L} and C are the same (i.e. smallest subspace that contains all, biggest subspace contained by all, disjunct subspace). The additional property is that disjoint subspaces are disjunct.

The entire lattice of subspaces of CM is a context Lattice of orthonormal subspaces in QM (i.e. a basis) is a context

Results from Quantum Logic can be reused at this point



Takeaways

- We can define a general of non-additive probability that is physically motivated and works for both classical and quantum mechanics (and beyond)
- The mixing coefficients are more fundamental and the probability comes out of decomposition of ensembles into parts
- TODOs:
 - Fully develop a non-additive measure theoretical parallel



Other missing things

- Symplectic structure should be imposed on the space of ensembles to have coordinate invariance of entropy... How?
- Composite systems (i.e. product spaces) and independence of DOFs
- Quantities (linear maps from ensembles to real numbers... or other topological spaces?)
- Processes (linear ensemble maps)
 - Deterministic and reversible processes (entropy preserving processes)
 - Equilibration process (projections)
- Extension to field theory



Wrapping it up

- We should be able to construct a general theory of states and processes on minimal requirements
- Same concepts for all theories
- Lots of interesting mathematical work to do



