Intrinsic asymmetry with respect to adversary: a new feature of Bell inequalities

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Received 14 February 2014, revised 24 July 2014
Accepted for publication 25 July 2014
Published 8 October 2014

Abstract

It is known that the local bound of a Bell inequality is sensitive to the knowledge of the external observer about the settings statistics. Here we ask how that sensitivity depends on the structure of that knowledge. It turns out that in some cases it may happen that the local bound is much more sensitive to the adversary’s knowledge about the settings of one party than the other. Remarkably, there are Bell inequalities which are highly asymmetric with respect to the adversary’s knowledge about local settings. This property may be viewed as a hidden intrinsic asymmetry of Bell inequalities. Potential implications of the revealed asymmetry effect are also discussed.

This article is part of a special issue of *Journal of Physics A: Mathematical and Theoretical* devoted to ‘50 years of Bell’s theorem’.

Keywords: Bell inequality, quantum information, Bell inequalities, nonlocality, freedom-of-choice

PACS numbers: 03.67, 42.50

(Some figures may appear in colour only in the online journal)

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1. Introduction

Bell inequalities [1] are the unique tool to prove the difference between the quantum and classical worlds both in the philosophical and practical way. In fact, it was the famous Einstein–Rosen–Podolsky [2] paper which introduced the concept of local realism. Yet, no method of experimental verification of their claims was given there. It was only found by Bell in his famous paper [3]. While it was clear that is was entanglement [4] which lead to the paradox, Bell was the first to propose the inequality that under natural assumptions (i) spatial separation of two systems and (ii) locally realistic description of the results of the measurements (that may be thought of as objective properties of two systems) must be necessarily satisfied. Quantum mechanics however violates the prediction of many Bell inequalities (see however [5]). In fact any violation of Bell inequality leads to refutation of the locally realistic theory [1]. On the other hand it is a unique tool for device independent quantum cryptography [6], and randomness amplification against quantum [7] even non-signaling adversary [8, 9].

However there is a natural boot-strap problem, which is a free randomness assumption [11] which corresponds to the duality: to interpret violation of any Bell inequality bound as a signature of absence of local realism one must ensure that the data come from the experiment where the statistics of the settings were intrinsically random, i.e. they should have been uncorrelated from everything else in the world, which is represented as a statistical independence of the source itself with respect to the rest of the Universe, or in other words have ‘statistical unpredictability’ to the rest of the Universe. This is why sometimes this randomness is called ‘the observer’s free will’. Recently the effects of reduced ‘free will’ on Bell inequalities have been demonstrated in different contexts [8, 10, 16–18]. In particular it has been shown that the knowledge of the adversary about the settings statistics can have dramatic consequences on the usual interpretation of the Bell inequalities [10, 11]. In this paper we pose a more sophisticated question: How the structure of that knowledge influences the local bound of a Bell inequality? It turns out that answer to this question lies in the structure of the Bell inequalities itself. More precisely we show that there are Bell inequalities highly asymmetric with respect to the adversary knowledge about local settings.

2. No-signaling boxes and Bell inequality

Consider any given 2-party no-signaling box [12] which is represented by the family of conditional probability distributions

\[ P := \{ p(ab|xy) \}, \]

with settings \( x \in \{1, ..., N_A\} := I_A \), \( y \in \{1, ..., N_B\} := I_B \) and outcomes \( a \in \{1, ..., M_A\} := I_A \), \( b \in \{1, ..., M_B\} := I_B \). We call the box no-signaling from Alice to Bob (from Bob to Alice) if, as usual, \( \sum_a p(ab|xy) = p(b|y) \) (\( \sum_b p(ab|xy) = p(ax) \)), i.e. local statistics of one party does not depend on the settings of the other party. Suppose that the box \( P_{LHV} := \{ p_{LHV}(ab|xy) \} \) satisfies the local hidden variable (LHV) description, namely there are the following conditional probabilities \( \{ p(ax, \lambda) \}, \{ p(by, \lambda) \} \) and some probability distribution on some probabilistic space \( \Lambda, \lambda \in \Lambda \) such that
Note that in the case of Bell inequalities with a finite number of settings, there is also only a finite number of pure classical strategies (and every other strategy is a mixture of them). This enables us to restrict ourselves to a finite alphabet of $\lambda$’s, which describes the choice of the strategy. Therefore, in our paper we can use sums instead of integrals for the description of classical strategies.

Let us formulate the Bell observable value as follows

$$B(\mathcal{P}) = \sum_{a,b,x,y} p(ab|xy)B(a,b,x,y)\alpha(a,b,x,y)p(x,y).$$

(3)

In the above $B(a,b,x,y)$ is an indicator function such that $B(a,b,x,y) = 1 \iff (a, b, x, y) \in \Omega \subseteq I_A \times I_B \times I_X \times I_Y$ and $B(a,b,x,y) = 0$ otherwise. The probabilities $p(x,y)$, satisfying $\sum_{x,y}p(x,y)=1$ represent the probabilities of the settings of the inequality. The conditional probabilities describe the behaviour of the box while $\alpha(a,b,x,y)$ describes the pay-off function. Now the Bell inequality may be considered to be any inequality of the form:

$$B(\mathcal{P}_{LHV}) \leq R_{LHV}$$

(4)

giving the bound for all Bell observable values achievable by boxes satisfying LHV theories.

We use the language of game theory here because it is often more convenient to treat Bell inequalities as nonlocal games. In this approach the box plays against a referee, then provides the settings according to the distribution $p(x,y)$. The conditional probabilities describe the strategy of the box and the pay-off function of the winnings in each case. This treatment of Bell inequalities is especially useful if there are additional constraints involved in the problem at hand, e.g. while preparing the strategy the box is given the distribution of the settings $p(x,y)$ only approximately, or one of the players apart from learning his or her input learns something about the input of the other party. The second case is exactly what we analyze in this paper.

Before we proceed, we should stress that for every Bell inequality there are many inequivalent nonlocal games. This is easily seen in formula (3) where the same value of the product $\alpha(a,b,x,y)p(x,y)$ can be obtained with many different combinations of factors. Therefore, every nonlocal game should be considered a representation of a Bell inequality rather than the inequality itself. However, in any experiment, an inequality is not tested but a nonlocal game is played (a probability distribution of the settings must be clearly defined and a pay-off function applied in the data processing phase).

3. Bit rate of Eve’s knowledge

Consider now a specific Bell inequality in which the statistics of the settings are independent (usually also assumed to be uniform, but they do not need to be):

$$p(x,y) = p(x)p(y)$$

(5)

Now consider an adversary—Eve—who has access to some two hidden parameters $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$ correlated to the settings, namely they have at their disposal some conditional statistics:
\[ p(x | \lambda_1), \sum_{\lambda_1} p(x | \lambda_1) = p(x) \]
\[ p(y | \lambda_2), \sum_{\lambda_2} p(y | \lambda_2) = p(y) \]  
(6)

with some specific ‘hidden variables’ \( \lambda_i \in \Lambda_i, i = 1,2 \) representing Eve’s knowledge about each of the settings. The summation conditions in the above represent the fact that neither Alice nor Bob is supposed to notice any change of the statistics of their settings despite that there is a conditional control of them by external adversary.

Now we shall consider the situation when there is specific knowledge of Eve about either one of the settings. Consider any fixed measure of entropy \( H \). For now we do not specify the particular form of that entropy function. Obviously for any specific statistics of the local settings \( \{p(x)\} \) and \( \{p(y)\} \) we have the corresponding entropies of local statistics of settings \( H(X) \) and \( H(Y) \). The knowledge of Eve about the statistics is described by the conditional entropies of the settings (defined consistently with the entropy \( H \) above, whatever it was chosen to be) which we shall denote as \( H(X | \Lambda_1), H(Y | \Lambda_2) \).

Now we shall introduce the notion of relative knowledge of Eve about the statistics of local settings (see Application in Standard Communication Scheme [13]) following [14]:

\[ \xi_X = \frac{H(X) - H(X | \Lambda_1)}{H(X)} \]
\[ \xi_Y = \frac{H(Y) - H(Y | \Lambda_2)}{H(Y)} \]  
(7)

which in fact represents the bit rate of Eve’s knowledge about the settings which describes how big the ratio of the total randomness of the local settings to the apparent is. Here \( \xi_X, \xi_Y \in [0, 1] \) and the case of, say \( \xi_X = 0, (\xi_X = 1) \) corresponds to zero and maximal Eve’s knowledge respectively.

We choose this measure of information because it is invulnerable to differences in the number of settings per party. For example, consider the family of inequalities introduced in [15]. There one party has exponentially more settings than the other. Therefore, e.g. 10 bits of information can be at the same enough to fully specify the setting of one party while only being able to encode 0.1% of information about the setting of the other.

4. Defining the intrinsic asymmetry of Bell inequality

Now the central quantity of this paper is the new Bell value

\[ B\left(\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_{LHV,\xi_X,\xi_Y}\right) \leq \tilde{R}_{LHV}\left(\xi_X, \xi_Y\right). \]  
(8)

The quantity on the right hand side (RHS) value reproduces the standard Bell bound for the complete lack of knowledge of Eve i.e.

\[ R_{LHV} = \tilde{R}_{LHV}\left(\xi_X, \xi_Y\right). \]  
(9)

which is the minimal value of \( \tilde{R}_{LHV}(0, 0) \).

The left hand side (LHS) \( B\left(\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_{LHV,\xi_X,\xi_Y}\right) \) is any value calculated for an LHV boxes strategy, i.e. the family of correlated LHV boxes prepared by Eve
Inserting it to (3) we get

$$\tilde{B}(\hat{P}_{LHV}^{\lambda_1, \lambda_2}) = \sum_{\lambda_1, \lambda_2} p(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) \sum_{a,b,x,y} p(ab|x\lambda_1y\lambda_2) \tilde{B}(a, b, x, y) \alpha(a, b, x, y) p(x|\lambda_1)p(y|\lambda_2)$$

that is on the LHS of the Eve’s knowledge dependent Bell inequality (8). The bar over the quantity $\tilde{B}$ stresses the fact that this represents the mean value of the different ($\lambda_1$, $\lambda_2$—dependent) averages in the experiment. Actually the RHS of that inequality, which is a new local realistic bound $\tilde{R}(\xi_1)$ can be seen as a maximum of the LHS over all families of the boxes $\{\hat{P}_{LHV}^{\lambda_1, \lambda_2}\}$ and the associated probability distributions (6) such that the corresponding entropies of the settings of the original inequality and the present inequality satisfy the fixed percentage conditions (7).

Note that from the above formulae one can naturally construct the sensitivity indicators of the increase of the Bell value under existence of extra information about the settings in the adversary’s hands: $D_A(\xi_1|H(X)) = R_{LHV}(\xi_1, 0) - R_{LHV}(0, 0)$, $D_B(\xi_2|H(Y)) = R_{LHV}(0, \xi_2) - R_{LHV}(0, 0)$.

5. Searching for hidden asymmetry in Bell inequality

From now on we shall consider the inequalities that originally involve maximally mixed distribution of settings i.e.

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{N_A}$$
$$p(y) = \frac{1}{N_B}.$$  

(12)

Then any difference between $D_A(\xi_1 = \xi \log N_A)$, and the $D_B(\xi_2 = \xi \log N_B)$ is an indicator of the intrinsic asymmetry of the investigated Bell inequality. We shall introduce below the quantity that will reproduce that difference as a special case.

In the analysis below we take a specific entropy measure, namely the so called min-entropy

$$H(X) = \min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \log p(x)$$

(13)

and the conditional min-entropy:

$$H(X|\Lambda) = -\sum_{\lambda \in \Omega} p(\lambda) \min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \log p(x|\lambda)$$

(14)

where $\Omega_\Lambda$ is the probabilistic space of the random variable $\Lambda$.

5.1. Asymmetry indicators

For fixed values of the standard statistics in the Bell value there are several possibilities to provide the asymmetry indicators. First, given the values $\tilde{R}_{LHV}(\xi_X, 0)$, $\tilde{R}_{LHV}(0, \xi_Y)$ one may
Define a quantity

$\Delta(\xi) = |\bar{R}_{LHV}(\xi, 0) - \bar{R}_{LHV}(0, \xi)|,$

by putting $\xi_X = \xi_Y = \xi$. There is however a yet more general option, namely one can depict the fully symmetric quantity

$\Delta(\xi_X, \xi_Y) = |\bar{R}_{LHV}(\xi_X, \xi_Y) - \bar{R}_{LHV}(\xi_Y, \xi_X)|.$

Note that all the above quantities (15) and (16) are calculated for some fixed values of a-priori fixed entropies $H(X), H(Y)$. It is also good to remember that $\Delta(\xi) = \Delta(\xi_X = \xi, \xi_Y = 0)$.

5.2. Checking some table-encoded inequalities

For our purposes it is convenient to present Bell inequalities as tables that specify the product $B(a, b, x, y)a(a, b, x, y)$. For example, the well known CHSH inequality is

$$B(a, b, x, y) = \begin{array}{cccc}
  x, a = 0, 0 & 0, 1 & 1, 0 & 1, 1 \\
  y, b = 0, 0 & 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\
  y, b = 0, 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\
  y, b = 1, 0 & 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\
  y, b = 1, 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\
\end{array}$$

(17)

This inequality is invariant under the permutation of the parties, which is reflected here by the invariance of the table under transposition. Any inequality with this property has $\bar{R}_{LHV}(\xi_X, \xi_Y) = \bar{R}_{LHV}(\xi_Y, \xi_X)$ and displays no asymmetry.

6. Quantizing the asymmetry

However, there are inequalities without this inherent symmetry. For example, take $I_{3322}$ [19] which is described by the table:
This is one of many equivalent representations of $I_{3322}$ in which no negative values appear. Moreover a fourth setting ($x = 0, y = 0$) is added for each party which corresponds to measuring marginal probabilities in the original version. This choice is quite natural. It comes from a problem of obtaining the marginal probability distribution from experimental data where only correlated events are recorded. One could compute it by summing all the events when the other party chose a particular setting. Usually, no-signaling principle would guarantee that the value would be the same regardless of the choice of the other party’s setting. However, in our case no-signaling does not apply—the setting of one party can be transmitted to the other via the source.

We plot $\Delta(\xi)$ for this inequality in figure 1.

7. Conclusions and discussion

We have identified a hidden intrinsic property of Bell inequalities which is sensitive to the structure of adversary’s knowledge about local settings. We have introduced the parameter showing how given Bell inequalities are sensitive to the structure of Eve’s knowledge about the setting of the inequality. The same percentage of the information prompted by Eve to the experimentalists about left and right settings can lead to less or more fake values $R_{LHV}(\xi_X, 0), \tilde{R}_{LHV}(0, \xi_Y)$ in the sense that they exceed the standard LVH bound known as a Bell inequality. Their difference $\Delta = |R_{LHV}(\xi_X, 0) - \tilde{R}_{LHV}(0, \xi_Y)|$ is a natural indicator of the hidden asymmetry of sensitivity of the inequality to the leakage of knowledge to the external adversary. There are several possibilities how this work can be generalised. First we may drop the uniformity assumption (12) as a reference point in calculating the parameters $\xi_X, \xi_Y$. One might see the interesting interplay since the same percentage may either become more or less important for the case when the reference statistics is no longer uniform.

Another natural extension would be the multipartite scenarios, where an interesting possibility of analysis might be to consider the local and partially nonlocal knowledge of the adversaries about the settings statistics.

As for the practical implications, the general sensitivity of the Bell inequality value on the process of a priori prompting the setting information by Eve may be very important in the case of untrusted devices especially in the case of high pay-off losses in device independent cryptography. Given two or more locations it is always good to put the most robust part of the scheme in the lab that may be most sensitive to prior prompting of the preexisting value by the external adversary to the observers, whatever mechanism it would be.

Also, if postprocessing of the raw data is applied and rounds when at least one of the detectors did not register a particle discarded, then we need to either assume ‘fair sampling’ or face an important problem of experimental Bell inequality violations: detection efficiency loophole. In this case local hidden variables, by controlling when the detectors do not ‘click’ can introduce correlations between the source of the states and settings in the data left after
discarding. If an experimentalist has detectors with (even slightly) different efficiencies then they will be correlated with the source with different strengths. Our results can help experimentalists to choose which party should be granted the better detector.

There is a fundamental open question of what is the potential importance of the revealed hidden asymmetry of the sensitivity for an eavesdropper prompting the settings from the perspective of foundations of information theory and foundations of physics.

There is an important issue here. As already mentioned in the introduction there are many mathematically equivalent forms of a given Bell inequality that follow from the normalisation of the probabilities involved. In a particular experiment only one of them corresponding to the specific nonlocal game is tested.

At that moment it is an open question as to whether the asymmetry revealed in the present paper is the feature of the particular form of the Bell inequality (equivalently—specific nonlocal game) or they concern all the Bell inequalities that are mathematically equivalent to each other. This issue is left for further research. No matter which of the two variants is true, we believe that the value of the present result is important. Indeed (i) either all the Bell inequalities within the equivalence class are asymmetric—may be to the different degree—in the present sense—and then we deal with some novel ontological feature of Bell inequality itself or (ii) it is a property of some representatives of the class, which would mean that in fact that its members were only apparently equivalent.

We conjecture that the first part of the alternative is true, i.e. we expect that any representational (game) of $I_{3322}$, which table is not invariant under the permutation of the parties\footnote{Invariant representatives of $I_{3322}$ are known to exist\cite{20}.}, to exhibit the asymmetry, but to different degree. This would imply both ‘ontological’ (independent on the implementation) meaning of the observed asymmetry as well as novel practical implication: we should rather talk about and work with particular nonlocal games rather than formal Bell inequalities. Shortly speaking this would mean that what was believed to be a single equivalence class is split due to practical reasons that must not be ignored. We hope that the answer to the above questions opened by the present result will be found soon.

Acknowledgments

This paper is supported by the Polish Ministry of Science and Higher Education Grant IdP2011 000361, NCN grant 2013/08/M/ST2/00626, FNP TEAM programme and ERC grant QOLAPS. Part of this work was done when P Horodecki and M Pawłowski were attending the programme Mathematical Challenges in Quantum Information at the Isaac Newton Institute for Mathematical Sciences in Cambridge.

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