## Adapting Logic to Quantum Physics (and not the other way round)

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## Outline

- Physics and Logic
- Boole's development and logical diagrams
- Operators in logic
- Eigenlogic
- Many-valued Eigenlogic
- Logical syntax and semantics in quantum operators
- Fuzzy Eigenlogic
- Logical interpretation of the Bell Inequalities
- Quantum computing end Eigenlogic
- Quantum Robots


## Physics \& Logic

## Representing Physics

Physical quantities are represented in various mathematical forms:

- Scalars (mass, energy, wavelength...)
- Vectors (momentum, electromagnetic field,...)
- Matrices (spin, Hamiltonians, optical transformations...)
- Tensors (gravitation, stress...)

So restricting the language in physics to only Boolean functions of the two numbers $\mathbf{0}$ and $\mathbf{1}$ is very hindering.
A basic aspect of quantum physics is quantification represented by the spectrum corresponding to the eigenvalues of operators (matrices) called observables.

A quantum measurement gives one of the eigenvalues with a certain probability.

- Angular Momentum: discrete (positive and negative) and finite; e.g. $\left\{-\frac{1}{2},+\frac{1}{2}\right\}$ (Fermions) or $\{-1,0,+1\}$
- Harmonic Oscillator: discrete positive and infinite. $\{0,1,2, \cdots\}$ (Bosons)
- Position and Momentum: continuous


## Why adapting logic?

Logic: greek word logos, means both speech and reason,
Logic defines languages whose syntax constructs formal languages and whose semantics interprets them.
Syntax should have a link with the structure of Physics (symmetry, geometry, particles, waves...)
Semantics should correspond to the valuation (measurement) in Physics (discrete, rational, complex, random...)
Looking for more "physical" representations of logic. How ?
Different possibilities:

- Representing Boolean logic $\{0,1\}$ by operators (quantum logic, quantum computing, ...)
- Using alternative binary logical values, negative numbers e.g. $\{-1,+1\}$, (angular momentum, Ising model...)
- Using many-valued logic (Qudits, Fourier Transform,...)
- Using fuzzy logic (quantum probabilistic interpretation...)
- Representing the logic by operators instead of functions to handle with noncommutativity and reversibility


## George Boole

## George Boole : the truth values " 0 " and " 1 "

George Boole in 1847 [a] gave a mathematical symbolism for logical propositions.
The conjunction (AND) of 2 logical propositions X and Y is the product:

$$
x y=y x
$$

Thus $x$ ("elective" symbol) acts as a selection operator on $y$ (also $y$ on $x$ ) applied on itself the proposition does not change: $\quad x^{2}=x$
also written as $\quad x(1-x)=0 \quad$ : the principle of non contradiction
showing that $x$ is idempotent and orthogonal to ( $1-x$ )
the solutions of this equation are the numbres 0 and 1 representing "False" and "True" respectively.
This equation was considered by George Boole the "fundamental law of thought"! [b]
The method was extended by Boole in the continuous interval $[0,1]$ to give one of the first mathematical formalizations of probabilities in [b].
[a] Boole, G.: The Mathematical Analysis of Logic. Being an Essay To a Calculus of Deductive Reasoning, (1847)
[b] Boole, G.: An Investigation of the Laws of Thought on Which are Founded the Mathematical Theories of Logic and Probabilities, Macmillan, (1854) Zeno Toffano : "Adapting Logic to Physics" Workshop - "modélisation quantique" - ISC Paris - 25-10-2021

## Boole's method for generating logical functions and truth tables [*]

Boole’s idempotent logical functions $f \in\{0,1\}$ are expressed in an arithmetical form (not modulo 2 !)
a logical function of two variables can be expressed by a bilinear form of symbols $x$ and $y$ and truth values $f(a, b)$

$$
f=f(0,0)(1-x)(1-y)+f(0,1)(1-x) y+f(1,0) x(1-y)+f(1,1) x y
$$

Negation is the complementation by subtracting $f$ from the number 1 :

$$
\bar{f}=1-f
$$

## generalizes to any number of arguments

TABLE 1. The four single argument logical elective functions
$\left.\begin{array}{lllll}\hline \begin{array}{l}\text { Function } \\ f_{i}^{[1]}\end{array} & \text { Operator } & \begin{array}{l}\text { Truth } \\ \text { table }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { Canonical } \\ \text { form }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { Arithmetic } \\ \text { form }\end{array} \\ \hline f_{0}^{[1]} & F & 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}\right] 0$
[*] Toffano, Z. Eigenlogic in the Spirit of George Boole. Logica Universalis, Birkhäuser-Springer, 14, 175-207 (2020).

TABLE 2. The sixteen two argument logical elective functions

| Funct. $f_{i}^{[2]}$ | Connective for $A$ and $B$ | Truth table |  | Canonical form | Arithmetic form |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $f_{0}^{[2]}$ | $F$ | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

## Logical forms and diagrams

Elementary propositions: A, B

## SOP (Sum Of Products) canonical form

disjunction ( $\mathrm{V}, \mathrm{OR}$ ) of conjunctions ( $\wedge$, AND)
Conjunction: $\mathrm{A} \wedge \mathrm{B}$
Disjunction: $\quad A \vee B=(\bar{A} \wedge B) \vee(A \wedge \bar{B}) \vee(A \wedge B)$ in arithmetical form:
$(1-a) b+a(1-b)+a b=a+b-a b$
Exclusive disjunction: $\quad \mathrm{A} \oplus \mathrm{B}=(\overline{\mathrm{A}} \wedge \mathrm{B}) \vee(\mathrm{A} \wedge \overline{\mathrm{B}})$
in arithmetical form:
$(1-a) b+a(1-b)=a+b-2 a b$

## Reed-Muller canonical form

exclusive disjunction ( $\oplus, \mathrm{XOR}$ ) of conjunctions ( $\wedge$, AND)


De Morgan duality: $\quad \overline{\mathrm{A}} \wedge \overline{\mathrm{B}}=\overline{\mathrm{A} \vee \mathrm{B}}$
in arithmetical form:

$$
(1-a)(1-b)=1-(a+b-a b)=1-a-b+a b
$$

A simple way to illustrate all logical truth-tables is by using Venn diagrams (Venn 1881)

Direct correspondence with set theory and probability theory

Widely used in information theory for the representation of different information representations (relative, conditional...)


## Operators in Logic

## Why one should use operators (rather than functions) in logic ?

An important difference between operators and functions:
an operator can be described by its action only without defining the input domain
Operators permit to represent different effects peculiar to quantum physics:

- non-commutativity
- reversibility

Quantum computing uses reversible operators (commuting and not) as logical quantum gates
Linear algebra using operators is the most used mathematical language to perform computer algorithms in the domains of:

- Big Data
- Artificial Intelligence (AI)
- Quantum Compuiting
- ...


## Operators in Logic

In 1847 G. Boole uses symbols (elective) that act as idempotent operators less known: in 1848 in [a], he gave a logical interpretation of unitary quaternions.
C. S. Pierce often used matrices to build his logic formalism at the end of the XIX ${ }^{\text {th }}$ century.

In 1921 L. Wittgenstein states in [b] that all propositions can be derived by repeated application of the operator $\boldsymbol{N}$ to the elementary propositions.

In 1924, M. Schönfinkel [c] introduced an operator based method in logic
H. Curry named it successively Combinatory Logic and improved the method [d] which lead to lambda calculus introduced A. Church.

Boolean logical functions as used nowadays in digital electronic circuits were introduced by C.E. Shannon in his Master's thesis in 1938 [e] to represent binary switching functions.
[a] Boole, G. Notes on quaternions. Philos. Mag, 33, 278-280, (1848)
[b] Wittgenstein, L. Tractatus Logico-Philosophicus, 6.001, Routledge (1921)
[c] Schönfinkel, M. Über die Bausteine der mathematischen Logik. Math. Ann, 92, 305-316. (1924)
[d] Curry, H.B.; Feys, R. Combinatory Logic; North-Holland Co: Amsterdam, The Netherlands, (1958)

[e] Shannon, C.E. A symbolic analysis of relay and switching circuits. Trans. AIEE, 57(12), 713-723 (1938)

## Projections as propositions and quantum logic

M. H. Stone gave the conditions for operations on projectors and commutativity [a] and established that each binary logical proposition corresponds by duality to the set of all its true valuations (Stone Duality).
J. von Neumann considered measurement projection operators as propositions in 1932 [b] and also stated that a quantum state $|\psi\rangle$ can be represented by a density matrix (rank-1 projection operator) :

$$
\boldsymbol{\rho}=|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|
$$

Quantum logic proposed by Garret Birkhoff and John von Neumann in 1936 [c] suggested the replacement of Boolean algebras with the lattice of closed subspaces of a (finite) Hilbert space.

[a] Marshall Harvey Stone: Linear Transformations in Hilbert Space and Their Applications to Analysis, p.70: "Projections", (1932)
[b] John von Neumann. Mathematical Foundations of Quantum Mechanics, Eng. Transl. (1955), p.249: "Projectors as Propositions", (1932)
[c] Garret Birkhoff, John von Neumann, The Logic of Quantum Mechanics. The Annals of Mathematics, 2nd Ser., 37 (4), 823-843 (1936)

## Eigenlogic

## Eigenlogic

Eigenlogic: a logical method using operators in linear algebra $[a, b, c]$

## logical operators $\Leftrightarrow$ logical connectives (syntax) eigenvalues of logical operators $\Leftrightarrow$ truth values (semantics) eigenvectors of logical operators $\Leftrightarrow$ interpretations (propositional cases)

Eigenlogic uses the Kronecker product to scale-up to more logical arguments (arity).
A single seed operator generates the entire logic.
[a] Dubois, F., Toffano, Z., Eigenlogic: A Quantum View for Multiple-Valued and Fuzzy Systems,
in: de Barros J., Coecke B., Pothos E. (eds) Quantum Interaction. QI 2016. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol 10106. Springer. (2017)
[b] Toffano, Z., Eigenlogic in the Spirit of George Boole. Logica Universalis, Birkhäuser-Springer, 14, 175-207. (2020)
[c] Toffano Z, Dubois F., Adapting Logic to Physics: The Quantum-Like Eigenlogic Program. Entropy. ; 22(2):139. (2020)

## Eigenlogic: one-qubit Boolean logical operators

The qubits $|1\rangle$ and $|0\rangle$ define the computational basis (the " $z$ " base): $|0\rangle=\binom{1}{0},|1\rangle=\binom{0}{1}$ eigenvectors of the Pauli matrix $\quad \sigma_{z}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}+1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1\end{array}\right)=\operatorname{diag}(+1,-1)$

Choice of the logical seed projector $\Pi=|1\rangle\langle 1|$ (density matrix of qubit $|1\rangle)$ $\Pi|1\rangle=|1\rangle\langle 1||1\rangle=|1\rangle=1|1\rangle$, eigenvalue: $1 ; \quad \Pi|0\rangle=|1\rangle\langle 1||0\rangle=0=0|0\rangle$, eigenvalue: 0. Logical operators as a linear development (equivalent to Boole's method):

$$
\boldsymbol{F}=f(0)(\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{\Pi})+f(1) \boldsymbol{\Pi}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
f(0) & 0 \\
0 & f(1)
\end{array}\right)=\operatorname{diag}(f(0), f(1))
$$

the cofactors $f(0)$ and $f(1)$ are the eigenvalues i.e. the truth values of the logical connective.
Negation is obtained by complementation (substracting from the identity operator): $\overline{\boldsymbol{F}}=\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{F}$
other choices of logical bases are possible: e.g. the " $x$ " base with $\Pi_{+}=|+\rangle\langle+|,|+\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle+|1\rangle)$

## Eigenlogic: two-qubit Boolean logical operators

Making use of the Kronecker product $\otimes$ to scale up to more arguments (as done in quantum computing)

Scaling to 2-qubit logical operators with the 4 basis projection operators (pure quantum-state density matrices):

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\boldsymbol{\rho}_{11}=|11\rangle\langle 11|=\boldsymbol{\Pi} \otimes \boldsymbol{\Pi} & ; & \boldsymbol{\rho}_{10}=|10\rangle\langle 10|=\boldsymbol{\Pi} \otimes(\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{\Pi}) ; \\
\boldsymbol{\rho}_{01}=|01\rangle\langle 01|=(\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{\Pi}) \otimes \boldsymbol{\Pi} & ; & \boldsymbol{\rho}_{00}=|00\rangle\langle 00|=(\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{\Pi}) \otimes(\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{\Pi})
\end{array}
$$

All 16 logical arity- 2 operators can directly be obtained by the bilinear development (G. Boole's method)

$$
\begin{gathered}
\boldsymbol{F}=f(0,0)|00\rangle\langle 00|+f(0,1)|01\rangle\langle 01|+f(1,0)|10\rangle\langle 10|+f(1,1)|11\rangle\langle 11|= \\
=f(0,0)(\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{\Pi}) \otimes(\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{\Pi})+f(0,1)(\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{\Pi}) \otimes \boldsymbol{\Pi}+f(1,0) \boldsymbol{\Pi} \otimes(\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{\Pi})+f(1,1) \Pi \otimes \boldsymbol{\Pi} \\
=\operatorname{diag}(f(0,0), f(0,1), f(1,0), f(1,1))
\end{gathered}
$$

the truth values are $f(x, y) \in\{0,1\}$

## Eigenlogic elementary (or atomic) propositions and connectives

In propositional logic one defines the elementary (or atomic) propositions P and Q in a well-formed-formula. From the elementary propositions P and Q all other compound propositions can be derived.

In Eigenlogic atomic propositions are operators that are extensions of the seed projector $\boldsymbol{\Pi}$ with the identity $\mathbb{I}$ :

$$
\boldsymbol{P}=\boldsymbol{\Pi} \otimes \mathbb{I}=\operatorname{diag}(0,0,1,1) \quad, \quad \boldsymbol{Q}=\mathbb{I} \otimes \boldsymbol{\Pi}=\operatorname{diag}(0,1,0,1)
$$

directly from $\boldsymbol{P}$ and $\boldsymbol{Q}$ all other compound logical operators are derived:

Conjunction (AND, $\wedge)$
Disjunction (OR, V)
Exclusive disjunction (XOR, $\oplus$ )
Material implication ( $\Rightarrow$ )

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{AND}}=\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{P} \wedge \mathrm{Q}}=\boldsymbol{P} \cdot \boldsymbol{Q}=\boldsymbol{\Pi} \otimes \boldsymbol{\Pi}=\operatorname{diag}(0,0,0,1) & \text { is the product of } \boldsymbol{P} \text { and } \boldsymbol{Q} \\
\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{OR}}=\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{PVQ}}=\boldsymbol{P}+\boldsymbol{Q}-\boldsymbol{P} \cdot \boldsymbol{Q}=\operatorname{diag}(0,1,1,1) & \text { is not the sum of } \boldsymbol{P} \text { and } \boldsymbol{Q} \\
\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{XOR}}=\boldsymbol{P}+\boldsymbol{Q}-2 \boldsymbol{P} \cdot \boldsymbol{Q}=\operatorname{diag}(0,1,1,0) & \text { is not the sum of } \boldsymbol{P} \text { and } \boldsymbol{Q} \\
\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{P} \Rightarrow \mathrm{Q}}=\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{P}+\boldsymbol{P} \cdot \boldsymbol{Q}=\operatorname{diag}(1,1,0,1) &
\end{array}
$$

Equivalent forms were used by V. Aggarwal and R. Calderbank in 2007 for Quantum Error Correcting Codes in [*]
Negation is simply obtained by subtracting from the identity operator $\mathbb{I}$ :

$$
\boldsymbol{F}_{\boldsymbol{N A N D}}=\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{F}_{A N D}=\operatorname{diag}(1,1,1,0) \quad ; \text { Equivalence } \quad \boldsymbol{F}_{\Leftrightarrow}=\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{XOR}}=\operatorname{diag}(1,0,0,1)
$$

## Changing the paradigm: using the values $\{+1,-1\}$ instead of $\{0,1\}$

The polar alphabet $\{+1,-1\}$ is: $\quad+1$ (spin up) $\leftrightarrow 0:$ "False" ; -1 (spin down) $\leftrightarrow 1$ : "True"
this binary reversible logic alphabet is often used (implicitly) in Ising models and neural networks.
The Householder Transform: $\quad \boldsymbol{G}=\mathbb{I}-2 \boldsymbol{F}=(-1)^{\boldsymbol{F}}=e^{i \pi \boldsymbol{F}}=e^{i \frac{\pi}{2}} e^{-i \frac{\pi}{2} \boldsymbol{G}}$
is an isomorphism from projection operators $\boldsymbol{F}$ (eigenvalues $\{0,1\}$ ) to involution operators $\boldsymbol{G}$ (eigenvalues $\{+1,-1\}$ ), $\boldsymbol{G}$ and $\boldsymbol{F}$ have the same eigenvectors

Choice of the Eigenlogic seed operator: Pauli matrix $\sigma_{z}=Z$ the $« Z$ » quantum gate (other directions possible: $\sigma_{x} \ldots$ )

$$
\sigma_{z}=\boldsymbol{Z}=\operatorname{diag}(+1,-1)=(\mathbb{I}-\Pi)-\Pi=\mathbb{I}-2 \boldsymbol{\Pi}=(-1)^{\Pi}
$$

The equivalent of the elementary propositions $\boldsymbol{P}$ and $\boldsymbol{Q}$ in $\{0,1\}$ are the involutions $\boldsymbol{U}$ and $\boldsymbol{V}$ in $\{+1,-1\}$

$$
\boldsymbol{U}=\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{z} \otimes \mathbb{I}=\operatorname{diag}(+1,+1,-1,-1) \quad, \quad \boldsymbol{V}=\mathbb{I} \otimes \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{z}=\operatorname{diag}(+1,-1,+1,-1)
$$

Negation is simply obtained by multiplying by -1 :

$$
\overline{\boldsymbol{G}}=-\boldsymbol{G}
$$

Exclusive disjunction $\quad \boldsymbol{G}_{\oplus}=\boldsymbol{U} \cdot \boldsymbol{V}=\operatorname{diag}(+1,-1,-1,+1) \quad$ is the product of $\boldsymbol{U}$ and $\boldsymbol{V}$
This shows that even though the logic for $\{0,1\}$ and $\{+1,-1\}$ is the same, the mathematical operations are not !

## Logical Operator

 Truth Tables| logical connective for P, Q | truth table $\{\mathrm{F}, \mathrm{T}\}$ : $\{0,1\} \text { or }\{+1,-1\}$ | $\{0,1\}$ projective logical operator | $\{+1,-1\}$ involitive logical operator |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| False F | F FFF | 0 | + 1 |
| NOR | FFFT | $\mathbf{I}-\mathbf{P}-\mathbf{Q}+\mathrm{PQ}$ | $(1 / 2)(+I-U-V-U V)$ |
| $P \neq Q$ | FFTF | Q - PQ | $(1 / 2)(+I-U+V+U V)$ |
| $\neg \mathrm{P}$ | FFTT | I-P | - U |
| $P \nRightarrow Q$ | FTFF | P - PQ | $(1 / 2)(+I+U-V+U V)$ |
| -Q | FTFT | I-Q | - V |
| XOR ; P¢Q | FTTF | $P+Q-2 P Q$ | $U V=Z \otimes Z$ |
| NAND ; P¢Q | F T T | I-PQ | $(1 / 2)(-I-U-V+U V)$ |
| AND ; P^Q | T FFF | $P Q=\Pi \otimes \Pi$ | $(1 / 2)(+I+U+V-U V)$ |
| $\mathrm{P} \equiv \mathrm{Q}$ | T FFT | I-P - Q + 2 PQ | - UV |
| Q | T F TF | $Q=1 \otimes \Pi$ | $V=1 \otimes z$ |
| $\mathbf{P} \Rightarrow \mathbf{Q}$ | TFTT | $I-P+P Q$ | $(1 / 2)(-I-U+V-U V)$ |
| P | TTFF | $P=\Pi \otimes I$ | $\mathrm{U}=\mathrm{Z} \otimes \mathrm{l}$ |
| $\mathbf{P} \Leftarrow \mathbf{Q}$ | TTFT | $I-Q+P Q$ | $(1 / 2)(-I+U-V-U V)$ |
| OR ; PVQ | TTTF | $P+Q-P Q$ | $(1 / 2)(-I+U+V+U V)$ |
| True T | TTTT | I | -I |

## Eigenlogic is different from quantum logic

In Eigenlogic the extension of the seed operator $\boldsymbol{\Pi}$ with the identity operator $\mathbb{I}$
ensures the independence of the elementary propositions represented in Eigenlogic by the operators $\boldsymbol{P}$ and $\boldsymbol{Q}$

$$
\boldsymbol{P}=\Pi \otimes \mathbb{I} \quad ; \quad \boldsymbol{Q}=\mathbb{I} \otimes \Pi
$$

## this is a major difference with quantum logic !

In quantum logic atomic propositions are represented by pure state density matrices (rank-1 projection operators).

For example considering the density matrix of the quantum state $|11\rangle$ :

$$
\rho_{11}=|11\rangle\langle 11|=\Pi \otimes \Pi
$$

This operator corresponds in Eigenlogic to conjunction (compound proposition)

$$
\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{AND}}=\boldsymbol{P} \cdot \boldsymbol{Q}=\boldsymbol{\Pi} \otimes \boldsymbol{\Pi}=|11\rangle\langle 11|=\boldsymbol{\rho}_{11}
$$

the conjunction is not a logical elementary proposition

## Many-Valued

## More than binary: many-valued logic

Many-valued logic was proposed independently by J. Łukasiewicz [a] and E.L. Post [b] in 1921 born nearly simultaneously to the new mathematical theory of quantum mechanics.

With many-valued logic higher information densities can be achieved:
 the information density in a $m$-valued system is $\log _{2} m$ times larger than in a binary system

This logic has interested engineers involved in various aspects of information technology for over 40 years.
Used in the HDL programming language used in simulation of digital circuits and their synthesis.
Standards have been established, for example IEEE 1364MVL :

| SYMBOL | MEANING |
| :--- | :--- |
| 0 | Logic zero |
| 1 | Logic one |
| Z | High-impedance state |
| X | Unknown logic value |

The total number of logical connectives for a system of $m$ values and $n$ arguments is $m^{m^{n}}$.
with 2 values (binary) for arity- $1: 2^{2^{1}}=4 \quad$ and for arity-2: $2^{2^{2}}=16$
with 3 values (ternary) for arity-1: $3^{3^{1}}=27 \quad$ and $\quad$ for arity- $2: 3^{3^{2}}=19683$
The number of connectives has a doubly exponential increase with the number of values $m$ and arity- $n$
[a] Jan Łukasiewicz, On three-valued logic, Selected Works, North-Holland, (1970), pp. 87-88 (1921)
[b] Emil Post, Introduction to a General theory of Elementary Propositions, American Journal of Mathematics 43: 163-185 (1921)

## Cayley-Hamilton theorem and many-valued Eigenlogic

The Eigenlogic seed operator $\Lambda$ can be any operator with $m$ non-degenerate eigenvalues $\lambda_{i}$, using Lagrange matrix interpolation the projector of each eigenstate is given by:

$$
\left|\lambda_{i}><\lambda_{i}\right|=\Pi_{\lambda_{i}}(\Lambda)=\prod_{j=1, j \neq i}^{m} \frac{\Lambda-\lambda_{j} \mathbb{I}}{\lambda_{i}-\lambda_{j}}
$$

is a polynomial in $\Lambda$ up to the power $m-1$ and is represented by a $m \times m$ square matrix.
The Cayley-Hamilton theorem says that any finite matrix is the solution of its own characteristic equation showing that the above development is unique.

A logical operator for arity-1 is then given by the spectral decomposition with truth-values $f\left(\lambda_{j}\right) \in\left\{\ldots \lambda_{i} \ldots\right\}$ :

$$
\boldsymbol{F}_{L}=\sum_{j=1}^{m} f\left(\lambda_{j}\right) \boldsymbol{\Pi}_{\lambda_{j}}(\boldsymbol{\Lambda})
$$

Scaling to higher arity is obtained by extending the seed operator $\Lambda$ with the identity.

## Identification with Angular Momentum

Logical observables can be identified with

## Quantum Angular Momentum.

Balanced ternary logic equivalent to Orbital Angular Momentum (OAM) with $\ell=1$.
The $z$ component of the orbital angular momentum operator :

$$
\boldsymbol{L}_{z}=\hbar \Lambda=\hbar\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & -1
\end{array}\right)=\operatorname{diag}(+1,0,-1)
$$

Spin Family (Bosons $\ell$ and Fermions $S$ ) (© Julian Voss-Andreae. Photo: Dan Kvitka.)
the three rank-1 projectors obtained by interpolation :

$$
\Pi_{+1}=\frac{1}{2} \Lambda(\Lambda+\mathbb{I}) \quad, \quad \Pi_{0}=\mathbb{I}-\Lambda^{2}, \quad \Pi_{-1}=\frac{1}{2} \Lambda(\Lambda-\mathbb{I})
$$

For arity- $\mathbf{2} \boldsymbol{U}$ and $\boldsymbol{V}$, are then defined as usual in Eigenlogic:

| Min U |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| V | F | N | T |
| False $\equiv+1$ | +1 | +1 | +1 |
| Neutral $\equiv 0$ | +1 | 0 | 0 |
| True $\equiv-1$ | +1 | 0 | -1 |

$\boldsymbol{U}=\boldsymbol{\Lambda} \otimes \mathbb{I}, \boldsymbol{V}=\mathbb{I} \otimes \boldsymbol{\Lambda}$
In many-valued logic the Min and Max are the equivalent of AND and OR :
$\boldsymbol{\operatorname { M i n }}(\boldsymbol{U}, \boldsymbol{V})=\frac{\mathbf{1}}{\mathbf{2}}\left(\boldsymbol{U}+\boldsymbol{V}+\boldsymbol{U}^{2}+\boldsymbol{V}^{2}-\boldsymbol{U} \cdot \boldsymbol{V}-\boldsymbol{U}^{2} \cdot \boldsymbol{V}^{2}\right)=\operatorname{diag}(1,1,1,1,0,0,1,0,-1)$
$\boldsymbol{M a x}(\boldsymbol{U}, \boldsymbol{V})=\frac{1}{2}\left(\boldsymbol{U}+\boldsymbol{V}-\boldsymbol{U}^{2}-\boldsymbol{V}^{2}+\boldsymbol{U} \cdot \boldsymbol{V}+\boldsymbol{U}^{2} \cdot \boldsymbol{V}^{2}\right)=\operatorname{diag}(1,0,-1,0,0,-1,-1,-1,-1)$

| Max $U \backslash V$ | F | N | T |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| False $\equiv+1$ | +1 | 0 | -1 |
| Neutral $\equiv 0$ | 0 | 0 | -1 |
| True $\equiv-1$ | -1 | -1 | -1 |

## Syntax and Semantics in Unitary Operators

## Anti-commutativity and the syntax-semantic duality

Considering the 2 eigenstates $| \pm z\rangle$ of $\sigma_{z}$ with eigenvalues $\pm 1$
and using he anti-commutativity of the Pauli operators:

$$
\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{x} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{z}=-\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{z} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{x}
$$

$\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{x} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{z}| \pm z\rangle=( \pm 1) \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{x}| \pm z\rangle=-\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{z} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{x}| \pm z\rangle \quad$ gives $\quad \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{z}\left(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{x}| \pm z\rangle\right)=(\mp 1)\left(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{x}| \pm z\rangle\right)$
So ( $\left.\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{x} \mid \pm z>\right)$ are eigenstates of $\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{z}$ with eigenvalues $\bar{\mp} 1$ and correspond to the eigenstates $|\mp z\rangle$ )
Identifying $|+z\rangle$ with qubit $|0\rangle$ and $|-z\rangle$ with qubit $|1\rangle$ gives: $\quad \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{x}|0\rangle=|1\rangle \quad$ and $\quad \sigma_{x}|1\rangle=|0\rangle$
This operation corresponds to logical binary negation.
So for these operators the basic logical operation of binary negation is a consequence of anti-commutativity
In this very simple example using the Pauli matrices as Eigenlogic operators, one has simultaneously:

- a semantic representation by the eigenstructure (eigenvalues and eigenvectors) of the Pauli matrix $\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{z}$
- a syntactic representation by a permutation operation represented by the Pauli matrix $\sigma_{x}$.


## Syntax and Semantics for many-valued operators

The quantum state logical complementation can be generalized for a $d$-dimensional multi-level system (qudit) using the generalized Pauli operators given by the Weyl-Heisenberg pairs $\boldsymbol{X}_{d}$ and $\boldsymbol{Z}_{d}$

$$
\boldsymbol{Z}_{d}|j\rangle=\omega_{d}^{j}|j\rangle \quad \text { with } \quad \omega_{d}=e^{i \frac{2 \pi}{d}} \quad ; \quad \boldsymbol{X}_{d}|j\rangle=|j+1\rangle \quad \text { with } \quad \boldsymbol{Z}_{d}^{d}=\boldsymbol{X}_{d}^{d}=\mathbb{I}_{d}
$$

$\boldsymbol{X}_{d}$ and $\boldsymbol{Z}_{d}$ possess the same eigenvalues and verify : $\quad \boldsymbol{Z}_{d} \cdot \boldsymbol{X}_{d}=\omega_{d} \boldsymbol{X}_{d} \cdot \boldsymbol{Z}_{d}$
the action of the shift operator $\boldsymbol{X}_{d}$ on the state $|j\rangle$, which is an eigenstate of $\boldsymbol{Z}_{d}$, gives the state $|j+1\rangle$ so by applying successively this operator one can generate all the other states of the basis.

The semantics is here represented by the eigenstructue of $\boldsymbol{Z}_{d}$, the eigenvalues $\omega_{d}$ are the $d^{\text {th }}$ roots of unity
The syntax is represented by $\boldsymbol{X}_{d}$ corresponding to a many-valued negation as formulated by E.L. Post in 1921.
The transformation from $\boldsymbol{Z}_{d}$ to $\boldsymbol{X}_{d}$ is the Discrete Fourier Transform operator $\boldsymbol{D} \boldsymbol{F} \boldsymbol{T}_{d}$ (Quantum Fourier Transform)
$\left(\boldsymbol{D} \boldsymbol{F T} \boldsymbol{T}_{d}\right)_{i j}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} \omega_{d}{ }^{i j} \quad ;$
$\boldsymbol{D F T}_{d}{ }^{4}=\mathbb{I}_{d}$
$\boldsymbol{D F T} \boldsymbol{T}_{d}{ }^{-1} \cdot \boldsymbol{Z}_{d} \cdot \boldsymbol{D F T} \boldsymbol{T}_{d}=\boldsymbol{X}_{d}$

The Quantum Fourier Transform can be seen as a mediator between logical syntax and logical semantics.

Fuzzy

## Fuzzy Eigenlogic: when the logical input is not an eigenstate

In 1965 L. Zadeh [a] proposed fuzzy logic to describe partial truths, truth values can take values between 0 and 1 .
Fuzzy logic is grounded on the theory of fuzzy sets. The relation between the theory of fuzzy sets and the probability theory has been debated for a long time.

The quantum principle of superposition of states finds a counterpart in the degree of membership to fuzzy sets: the mean value of an Eigenlogic projection operator $\boldsymbol{F}$ gives a fuzzy measure ( $\mathbf{t}$-norm) when the quantum state $|\psi\rangle$ is not an eigenstate of $\boldsymbol{F}$.
Whereas a crisp measure 0 or 1 is obtained for eigenstates of $\boldsymbol{F}$.
The Eigenlogic fuzzy membership function is: $\quad \mu=\langle\psi| \boldsymbol{F}|\psi\rangle$ with $0 \leq \mu \leq 1$
Fuzziness can be related to the probabilistic nature of quantum measurements (Born rule). For a projective observable $\boldsymbol{P}$ measured on a quantum state $|\psi\rangle$ we have the probability (Gleason's theorem [b]):

$$
p_{|\psi\rangle}=\langle\psi| \boldsymbol{P}|\psi\rangle=\operatorname{Tr}(\boldsymbol{\rho} \cdot \boldsymbol{P}) \quad \text { with } \quad \boldsymbol{\rho}=|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| \text { the "density matrix". }
$$

A projective observable corresponds to a logical projection operator in Eigenlogic.
[a] Zadeh, L.A.: Fuzzy sets. Information and Control, 8 (3), 338-353, (1965)
[b] A. M. Gleason, Measures on the closed subspaces of a Hilbert space. Indiana U. Mathematics Journal, 6, 885-893, (1957)

## Eigenlogic fuzzy conjunction, disjunction and material implication

 A generic qubit state on the Bloch sphere: $\quad|\phi\rangle=\sin \frac{\theta}{2}|0\rangle+e^{i \varphi} \cos \frac{\theta}{2}|1\rangle$,The quantum average (Born rule) of the logical projector is: $\mu(\mathrm{A})=\langle\phi| \Pi|\phi\rangle=\cos ^{2} \frac{\theta}{2}$ and the complement: $\quad \mu(\overline{\mathrm{A}})=\langle\phi|(\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{\Pi})|\phi\rangle=\sin ^{2} \frac{\theta}{2}=1-\cos ^{2} \frac{\theta}{2}=1-\mu(\mathrm{A})$ which satisfies the condition of fuzzy logic for the complement (negation) of a fuzzy set.

The fuzzy membership function for $\boldsymbol{P}$ and $\boldsymbol{Q}$ by performing the quantum average on :

$$
|\psi\rangle=\left|\phi_{p}\right\rangle \otimes\left|\phi_{q}\right\rangle \quad \begin{aligned}
& \text { with } \quad p=\left(\cos \frac{\theta_{p}}{2}\right)^{2} \text { and } q=\left(\cos \frac{\theta_{q}}{2}\right)^{2} \\
& \mu(\mathrm{P})=\langle\psi| \boldsymbol{P}|\psi\rangle=p(1-q)+p \cdot q=p \quad ; \quad \mu(\mathrm{Q})=\langle\psi| \boldsymbol{Q}|\psi\rangle=q
\end{aligned}
$$



Bloch sphere in Hilbert space
The fuzzy Eigenlogic measure of logical operators are :

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Conjunction (AND) } & \mu(\mathrm{P} \wedge \mathrm{Q})=\langle\psi| \boldsymbol{P} \cdot \boldsymbol{Q}|\psi\rangle=\langle\psi| \Pi \otimes \Pi|\psi\rangle=p \cdot q=\mu(\mathrm{P}) \cdot \mu(\mathrm{Q}) \\
\text { Disjunction (OR) } & \mu(\mathrm{P} \vee \mathrm{Q})=p+q-p \cdot q=\mu(\mathrm{P})+\mu(\mathrm{Q})-\mu(\mathrm{P}) \cdot \mu(\mathrm{Q}) \\
\text { Material Implication } & \mu(\mathrm{P} \Rightarrow \mathrm{Q})=1-p+p \cdot q=1-\mu(\mathrm{P})+\mu(\mathrm{P}) \cdot \mu(\mathrm{Q})
\end{array}
$$

In the language of fuzzy logic these are Product t-norms (product of the probabilities $p$ and $q$ for the conjunction)
The disjunction $\mu(\mathrm{P} \vee \mathrm{Q})$ corresponds to the inclusion-exclusion expression for probabilities due to $\mathbf{H}$. Poincaré [*]
[*] Poincaré, H. Calcul des Probabilités; Gauthier-Villars: Paris, France, 1912

## Logic and Bell Inequalities

## Correlations of 2 quantum particles: CHSH Bell-inequality [*]



A CHSH "Bell experiment"


Alice's set $\left\{A, A^{\prime}\right\}$

Local properties $\left(A= \pm 1, A^{\prime}= \pm 1, B= \pm 1, B^{\prime}= \pm 1\right)$
[*] J.F. Clauser; M.A. Horne; A. Shimony; R.A. Holt, Proposed experiment to test local hidden-variable theories, Phys. Rev. Lett., 23 (15): 880-4, (1969)
in all 16 cases (deterministic) the expression:

$$
A B+A B^{\prime}+A^{\prime} B-A^{\prime} B^{\prime}=A\left(B+B^{\prime}\right)+A^{\prime}\left(B-B^{\prime}\right)= \pm 2
$$

CHSH-Bell inequality requires 16 measurements giving (average on a great number of measurements):

$$
S=\left|<A B+A B^{\prime}+A^{\prime} B-A^{\prime} B^{\prime}>\right| \leq 2
$$

But Quantum Mechanics allows: $2<S \leq 2 \sqrt{2}=2.83$
so violates the CHSH Inequality > 2!


Bell inequality: the Orsay experiment [*]
[*] A. Aspect; P. Grangier; G. Roger, Experimental Realization of Einstein-Podolsky-Rosen-Bohm Gedankenexperiment: A New Violation of Bell's Inequalities. Phys. Rev. Lett. 49 (2): 91-4, (1982)
$C(\alpha, \beta)$ : coincidence photon counting rate function of the polarisation angles $\alpha$ and $\beta$
Then the 2-photon correlation is defined: $\quad E(\alpha, \beta)=\frac{C(\alpha, \beta)+C\left(\alpha^{\perp}, \beta^{\perp}\right)-C\left(\alpha^{\perp}, \beta\right)-C\left(\alpha, \beta^{\perp}\right)}{C(\alpha, \beta)+C\left(\alpha^{\perp}, \beta^{\perp}\right)+C\left(\alpha^{\perp}, \beta\right)+C\left(\alpha, \beta^{\perp}\right)}$
The Bell CHSH inequality is a function of the correlations $E$ for 4 experimental settings $\left\{\alpha_{i}, \beta_{j}\right\}$ with $i, j \in\{1,2\}$ :
the Bell parameter: $\quad|S|=\left|E\left(\alpha_{1}, \beta_{1}\right)+E\left(\alpha_{1}, \beta_{2}\right)+E\left(\alpha_{2}, \beta_{1}\right)-E\left(\alpha_{2}, \beta_{2}\right)\right|$ Classically the Bell inequality verifies: $-2 \leq|S| \leq+2$
for the angles:

$$
\beta_{1}-\alpha_{1}=\frac{\pi}{8}, \alpha_{2}-\beta_{1}=\frac{\pi}{8}, \beta_{2}-\alpha_{2}=\frac{\pi}{8}
$$

we have a violation of the Bell CHSH inequality

$$
|S| \geq 2
$$


with the maximal value

$$
|S|_{\max }=2 \sqrt{2}
$$

$$
\left|\Psi^{-}\right\rangle_{S}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(|H\rangle_{1}|V\rangle_{2}-|V\rangle_{1}|H\rangle_{2}\right)
$$

obtained with an entangled state (Bell state)

## The CHSH Bell inequality and probabilities

The CHSH Bell inequality is expressed with the Pauli spin operators $\sigma_{i}$ along the 4 measurement directions
The CHSH measurement operator is then : $\quad \mathbf{C H S H}=\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{A} \otimes \sigma_{B}+\sigma_{A} \otimes \sigma_{B \prime}+\sigma_{A \prime} \otimes \sigma_{B}-\sigma_{A^{\prime}} \otimes \sigma_{B \prime}$
Considering the projection operators, each term transforms as:

$$
\sigma_{A} \otimes \sigma_{B}=\left(\mathbb{I}-2 \Pi_{A}\right) \otimes\left(\mathbb{I}-2 \Pi_{B}\right)
$$ replacing and simplifying :

$$
C H S H=2 \mathbb{I}-4 \Pi_{A} \otimes \mathbb{I}-4 \mathbb{I} \otimes \Pi_{B}+4 \Pi_{A} \otimes \Pi_{B}+4 \Pi_{A} \otimes \Pi_{B^{\prime}}+4 \Pi_{A^{\prime}} \otimes \Pi_{B}-4 \Pi_{A^{\prime}} \otimes \Pi_{B^{\prime}}
$$

In this expression one recognizes the Eigenlogic projection and conjunction operators

To evaluate the Bell inequality one averages this operator:

$$
\mathrm{S}=\langle\psi| \mathbf{C H S H}|\psi\rangle
$$

By averaging the operator $\boldsymbol{\mathcal { F }}=\frac{1}{4} \boldsymbol{C H S H}-\frac{\mathbb{1}}{2}$ one obtains the Fine inequality for probabilities:
$\mathcal{F}=\langle\psi| \mathcal{F}|\psi\rangle=P(\mathrm{~A} \wedge \mathrm{~B})+P\left(\mathrm{~A} \wedge \mathrm{~B}^{\prime}\right)+P\left(\mathrm{~A}^{\prime} \wedge \mathrm{B}\right)-P\left(\mathrm{~A}^{\prime} \wedge \mathrm{B}^{\prime}\right)-P(\mathrm{~A})-P(\mathrm{~A})$ classically $-1 \leq \mathcal{F} \leq 0$ equivalent to the CHSH BI : $-2 \leq C H S H \leq+2$ for entangled states one has violation of these inequalities.

George Boole already discussed these probability inequalities in 1854 as stated by Itamar Pitowsky in [*]

## The Bell CHSH inequality cases

## Classical, local, separable

The Bell parameter $S_{\text {Bell }}$ lies between 0 and 2 .
Measurements are local: $E(X, Y)=E(X) E(Y)$.

## Quantum

The case $2 \leq S_{\text {Bell }} \leq 2 \sqrt{2}$ achieved with bipartite quantum entangled states. $S_{\text {Bell }}=2 \sqrt{2}$ is called the Tsirelson's bound and is a limit for Quantum systems.

## No-signaling (post-quantum theories)



## The strange propositions of Diederik Aerts [*]

D. Aerts in 1982 proposed a macroscopic experiment that violates the CHSH Bell Inequality maximally.

Two vessels V1 and V2 with a capacity of 8 liters each, linked through a tube with a capacity of 16 liters (at most the system holds 32 liters). The vessel Vref used to siphon water from the V1 and V2 basins.


## 4 experiments:

Experiment $\alpha$ : answer to:
Experiment $\beta$ : answer to:
Experiment $\gamma$ : answer to:
Experiment $\delta$ : answer to:
is Vref > 10 L ?
are V1 or V2 > 6L?
is the water drinkable? is the water transparent?
outcomes: +1 if the answer is YES and -1 if the answer is NO
Results of correlated experiments:
$X_{\alpha, \beta}=-1, X_{\alpha, \gamma}=+1, X_{\delta, \beta}=+1$ and $X_{\delta, \gamma}=+1$.
Taking the sum for the CHSH Bell parameter:
$S=\left|X_{\alpha, \beta}-X_{\alpha, \gamma}\right|+\left|X_{\delta, \beta}+X_{\delta, \gamma}\right|=4$
Bell's inequality is therefore maximally violated!
[*] D. Aerts, Example of a macroscopical situation that violates Bell inequalities, Lett. Nuovo Cimento 34, 107 (1982)


In 2012 we undertook the experiment in Supélec using 2 flower pots and a 32 m water tube. students: Vincent DUMOULIN \& Yves SOURRILLE

## The PR Box [*]

The well known nonlocal PR box correlates outputs $(a, b)$ to inputs $(x, y)$ in a two-party correlation by means of a logical constraint equation:

$$
a \oplus b \equiv x \wedge y
$$

This box violates the CHSH Bell Inequality (BI) maximally The measurement outcomes $(A, B)$, Alice and Bob, give the values $\pm 1$.

We define the joint mean value for the possible outcomes of the box as a function of the marginal probabilities :
$C_{x, y}=\sum_{a, b} P(a, b \mid \mathrm{a} \oplus \mathrm{b} \equiv \mathrm{x} \wedge \mathrm{y}) \cdot A(a) \cdot B(b)$
where $A(a)=1-2 a=(-1)^{a} ; B(b)=1-2 b=(-1)^{b}$
The Bell parameter considering the four input possibilities is:

$$
S=C_{00}+C_{01}+C_{10}-C_{11}=4
$$

[*] Popescu S., Rohrlich D. Quantum nonlocality as an axiom. Found Phys 24, 379-385 (1994)

## Analysing the PR Box Bell inequality by Eigenlogic

One uses the logical expression directly in an operator form using the following logical identity:

$$
\mathrm{a} \oplus \mathrm{~b} \equiv \mathrm{x} \wedge \mathrm{y} \quad \leftrightarrow \quad \overline{\mathrm{a} \oplus \mathrm{~b} \oplus \mathrm{x} \wedge \mathrm{y}}
$$

Using the involution properties: $\quad(-1)^{\overline{\mathrm{a} \oplus \mathrm{b} \oplus \mathrm{x} \wedge \mathrm{y}}}=-(-1)^{\mathrm{a} \oplus \mathrm{b} \oplus \mathrm{x} \wedge \mathrm{y}}=-(-1)^{\mathrm{a}}(-1)^{\mathrm{b}}(-1)^{\mathrm{x} \wedge \mathrm{y}}$
One can then express the involution $\boldsymbol{G}_{\mathrm{PR}}$ operator's eigenvalues (truth values) : $-(-1)^{a}(-1)^{b}(-1)^{x y}$
The corresponding projective operator is: $\quad \boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{PR}}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{G}_{\mathrm{PR}}\right)$
The BI parameter $S$ is obtained by averaging the operator $\boldsymbol{G}_{\mathrm{PR}}$ on the possible situations given by the logical constraint a $\oplus \mathrm{b} \equiv \mathrm{x} \wedge \mathrm{y}$ that is to the 8 cases out of 16 where the truth value of $\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{PR}}$ is 1

Considering all the possible cases for $C_{x, y}$ one gets the maximum Bell parameter:
using of the idempotence property:

$$
\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{PR}}^{2}=\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{PR}}
$$

$$
S=-\frac{8}{16} \operatorname{Tr}\left(\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{PR}} \cdot \boldsymbol{G}_{\mathrm{PR}}\right)=-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left(\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{PR}}\left(\mathbb{I}-2 \boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{PR}}\right)\right)=\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left(\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{PR}}\right)=\frac{8}{2}=4
$$

## Generalising the PR Box for all logical bipartite constraints

 In total $16 \times 16=256$ logical equations.The PR box corresponds to : $\mathrm{a} \bigoplus \mathrm{b} \equiv \mathrm{x} \wedge \mathrm{y}$ (in the table $f_{6}(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}) \equiv f_{8}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})$ ) Bl violation $|S|=4$ for other 15 no-signaling nonlocal boxes (orange)


Other 32 nonlocal boxes (green) are signaling and violate BI with

$$
|S|=\frac{10}{3} \approx 3.33>2 \sqrt{2}>2
$$

case for: $\quad \mathrm{a} \vee \mathrm{b} \equiv \mathrm{x} \wedge \mathrm{y} \quad$ (in the table $f_{14}(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}) \equiv f_{8}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})$ )

## also exceeding the quantum limit.

| $\begin{gathered} \text { Logical function } \\ \text { for } p, q \\ f_{n}(p, q) \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Truth tabl } \\ & (p, q)(1,1) \end{aligned}$ |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { puts } \\ & (0,0) \end{aligned}$ | Logical oper | rator | output InPuT | f0 | f1 | f2 | f4 | f8 | f3 | $f 5$ | f12 | f10 | $f 6$ | f9 | f7 | f11 | f13 | f14 | f15 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $f_{0}$ | ( 0 | 0 | 0 | 0) | contradiction : | False ; $\perp$ | fo |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $f_{1}$ | 10 | 0 | 0 | 1) | not or : | NOR ; $\urcorner \mathrm{P} \wedge \neg \mathrm{Q}$ | $f 1$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 4 | 4 | 3,33 | 3,33 | 3,33 | 3,33 |  |
| $\mathrm{f}_{2}$ | 10 | 0 | 1 | 0 ) | non-Implication: | $\mathrm{P} \supseteq \mathrm{Q}$ | $f 2$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 4 | 4 | 3,33 | 3,33 | 3,33 | 3,33 |  |
| $\mathrm{f}_{3}$ | 10 | 0 | 1 | 1) | negation of $p$ : | $\neg P$ | f4 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 4 | 4 | 3,33 | 3,33 | 3,33 | 3,33 |  |
| $\mathrm{f}_{4}$ | $(0$ | 1 | 0 | 0 ) | converse non-implication : | $\mathrm{P} \subseteq \mathrm{Q}$ | $f 8$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 4 | 4 | 3,33 | 3,33 | 3,33 | 3,33 |  |
| $f_{5}$ | $(0$ | 1 | 0 | 1) | negation of q : | $\neg \mathrm{Q}$ | ${ }^{\text {f }}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\mathrm{f}_{6}$ | $(0$ | 1 | 1 | 0 ) | exclusive or: | $\mathrm{XOR} ; \mathrm{P} \oplus \mathrm{Q}$ | f5 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $f_{7}$ | $(0$ | 1 | 1 | 1) | not and: | NAND ; $\neg \mathrm{P} \vee \neg \mathrm{Q}$ | $f 12$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\mathrm{f}_{8}$ | $(1$ | 0 | 0 | 0 ) | conjunction (and) : | AND ; P^Q | $f 10$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\mathrm{f}_{9}$ | ( 1 | 0 | 0 | 1) | equivalence : | XNOR; $\mathrm{P} \equiv \mathrm{Q}$ | f6 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\mathrm{f}_{10}$ | ( 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 ) | right projection of q : | Q | f9 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\mathrm{f}_{11}$ | ( 1 | 0 | 1 | 1) | converse implication | $P \subset Q$ | 77 |  | 3,33 | 3,33 | 3,33 | 3,33 |  |  |  |  | 4 | 4 |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\mathrm{f}_{12}$ | $(1$ | 1 | 0 | 0 ) | left projection of $p$ : | P | $f 11$ |  | 3,33 | 3,33 | 3,33 | 3,33 |  |  |  |  | 4 | 4 |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\mathrm{f}_{13}$ | ( 1 | 1 | 0 | 1) | implication : | $P \supset Q$ | $f 13$ |  | 3,33 | 3,33 | 3,33 | 3,33 |  |  |  |  | 4 | 4 |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\mathrm{f}_{14}$ | $(1$ | 1 | 1 | 0 ) | disjunction (or) : | $\mathrm{OR} ; \mathrm{P} \vee \mathrm{Q}$ | $f 14$ |  | 3,33 | 3,33 | 3,33 | 3,33 |  |  |  |  | 4 | 4 |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\mathrm{f}_{15}$ | ( 1 | 1 | 1 | 1) | tautology: | True; T | $f 15$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

## Quantum Computing and Eigenlogic

## Quantum Computing

A quantum computer is one whose operation exploits certain very special transformations of its internal quantum state.

For computer scientists the most striking thing about quantum computation is that a quantum computer can be vastly more efficient than anything ever imagined in the classical theory of computational complexity, for certain computational tasks of considerable practical interest.

The time it takes the quantum computer to accomplish such tasks scales
 up much more slowly with the size of the input than it does in any classical computer.

## Eigenlogic and quantum gates

Eigenlogic makes a correspondence between quantum control logic (David Deutsch's quantum logical gate paradigm) and ordinary propositional logic.
It is known that the 2-quibit control-phase gate $\boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{Z}}$ in association with 1-quibit gates is a universal gate set.
In Eigenlogic the $\boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{Z}}$ gate corresponds to the AND involution gate : $\quad \boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{Z}}=\boldsymbol{G}_{\wedge}=\operatorname{diag}(1,1,1,-1)$
The XOR gate (not universal) is given by the Kronecker product:

$$
\boldsymbol{G}_{\oplus}=\operatorname{diag}(1,-1,-1,1)=\boldsymbol{Z} \otimes \boldsymbol{Z}
$$

The well-known control-not CNOT gate $\boldsymbol{C}$ can be expressed using the Pauli matrices $\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{z}=\boldsymbol{Z}$ and $\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{x}=\boldsymbol{X}$ from the seed operators : $\boldsymbol{\Pi}=|1\rangle\langle 1|=\frac{1}{2}(\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{Z})$ and $\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{+}=|+\rangle\langle+|=\frac{1}{2}(\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{X})$
using the Eigenlogic involution conjunction operator (in the alphabet $\{+1,-1\}$ ) :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \boldsymbol{C}=(-1)^{\boldsymbol{\Pi} \otimes \boldsymbol{\Pi}_{+}}=\mathbb{I}-2\left(\boldsymbol{\Pi} \otimes \boldsymbol{\Pi}_{+}\right)=\frac{1}{2}(\mathbb{I}+\boldsymbol{Z} \otimes \mathbb{I}+\mathbb{I} \otimes \boldsymbol{X}-\boldsymbol{Z} \otimes \boldsymbol{X})=\left(\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right) \\
& \text { CNOT }=\boldsymbol{C}=1 / 2\left(\boldsymbol{I}+\boldsymbol{U}+\boldsymbol{V}_{x}-\boldsymbol{U} . \boldsymbol{V}_{x}\right) \\
& \boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{Z}}=\boldsymbol{G}_{\wedge}=1 / 2(\boldsymbol{I}+\boldsymbol{U}+\boldsymbol{V}-\boldsymbol{U} . \boldsymbol{V})
\end{aligned}
$$



## Control gates and quantum entanglement concurrence

For a general 2-qubit state:
$|\psi\rangle=\alpha|00\rangle+\beta|01\rangle+\gamma|10\rangle+\delta|11\rangle$
Simple way to characterize entanglement by the quantum concurrence:

$$
\mathrm{C}=2|\alpha \delta-\beta \gamma|
$$

$$
C=0 \text { not entangled } ; 0<C \leq 0 \text { entangled } ; C=1 \text { fully entangled }
$$

Entangling gate : the control-phase gate $\boldsymbol{C}_{Z}=\boldsymbol{G}_{\wedge}$

$$
\text { using } \quad|++\rangle=|+\rangle \otimes|+\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle+|1\rangle) \otimes \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle+|1\rangle)=\frac{1}{2}(|00\rangle+|01\rangle+|10\rangle+|11\rangle)
$$

$$
\text { the concurrence of }|++\rangle \text { is: } \quad 2\left|\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2}-\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2}\right|=0 \quad \text { the state is not entangled }
$$

$$
\text { Let's apply } \boldsymbol{C}_{Z}|++\rangle=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & -1
\end{array}\right) \frac{1}{2}\left(\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
1 \\
1 \\
1
\end{array}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left(\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
1 \\
1 \\
-1
\end{array}\right)=\frac{1}{2}(|00\rangle+|01\rangle+|10\rangle-|11\rangle)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0+\rangle-|1-\rangle)
$$

the resulting state is one of the Bell states in the basis $\{|z, x\rangle\}$ called also a cluster state (used in measurement based quantum computing)

The concurrence of $C_{Z}|++\rangle$ is: $\quad 2\left|\frac{1}{2} \frac{-1}{2}-\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2}\right|=1 \quad$ the state is fully entangled

## logical universality and quantum entanglement

In binary propositional logic the following set when combined with negation (NOT) constitutes

## a universal set of 8 logical connectives:

AND, OR, NOR, NAND, $\Rightarrow, \nRightarrow, \Leftarrow, \nLeftarrow$ one observes that they possess an odd number of True and False truth values
the other 8 connectives are not universal:

$$
\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{Q}, \neg \mathrm{P}, \neg \mathrm{Q}, \equiv, \mathrm{XOR}, \mathrm{~F}, \mathrm{~T}
$$

one observes that they possess an even number of True and False truth values
For involution logical operators $\boldsymbol{G}$ with eigenvalues $\{+1,-1\}$
the universal logical gates correspond to 8 operators with an odd number of eigenvalues +1 and -1 these are all entangling gates the 8 other logical operators are separable (not entangled) and not universal.

This states clearly the correspondence between logical universality and entanglement.

| P | Q | F | NOR | $\mathrm{P} \neq \mathrm{Q}$ | -P | $\mathrm{P} \Rightarrow \mathrm{Q}$ | -Q | XOR | NAND | AND | $\mathrm{P} \equiv \mathrm{Q}$ | Q | $\mathrm{P} \Rightarrow \mathrm{Q}$ | P | $\mathrm{Q} \Rightarrow \mathrm{P}$ | OR | T |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| + | + | + | - | + | - | + | - | + | - | + | - | + | - | + | - | + | - |
| + | - | + | + | - | - | - | + | - | - | + | + | - | - | + | + | - | - |
| - | + | + | + | + | + | + | - | - | - | + | + | + | + | - | - | - | - |
| - | - | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |

## building the 3-qubit Toffoli universal quantum gate

The 3-qubit Toffoli (double-CNOT) gate $\mathbf{T O}$ is a universal reversible logic quantum gate, directly in Eigenlogic form :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\boldsymbol{T O}=(-1)^{\boldsymbol{\Pi} \otimes \boldsymbol{\Pi} \otimes \Pi_{+}} & =\mathbb{I}-2\left(\boldsymbol{\Pi} \otimes \boldsymbol{\Pi} \otimes \Pi_{+}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{4}\left(3 \mathbb{I}+Z_{2}+Z_{1}+X_{0}-Z_{2} \cdot Z_{1}-Z_{2} \cdot X_{0}-Z_{1} \cdot X_{0}+Z_{2} \cdot Z_{1} \cdot X_{0}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Can be put in exponential form using the Householder transform

$$
\boldsymbol{T O}=e^{+i \frac{\pi}{8}} e^{-i \frac{\pi}{8} Z_{1}} e^{-i \frac{\pi}{8} Z_{2}} e^{-i \frac{\pi}{8} X_{0}} e^{i \frac{\pi}{8} Z_{2} \cdot Z_{1}} e^{i \frac{\pi}{8} Z_{2} \cdot X_{0}} e^{i \frac{\pi}{8} \cdot Z_{1} \cdot X_{0}} e^{-i \frac{\pi}{8} Z_{2} \cdot Z_{1} \cdot X_{0}}
$$

Alternative method using a $\boldsymbol{T}$ gate as the Eigenlogic seed operator: $\boldsymbol{T}=\boldsymbol{Z}^{\frac{1}{4}}=e^{i \frac{\pi}{8}} e^{-i \frac{\pi}{8} Z}=\operatorname{diag}\left(1, e^{i \frac{\pi}{4}}\right)$ using a Reed-Muller form for the CCZ gate [*] : $\boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{C Z}}=\boldsymbol{T}_{0} \cdot \boldsymbol{T}_{1} \cdot \boldsymbol{T}_{2} \cdot\left(\boldsymbol{T}_{x \oplus y}\right)^{\dagger} \cdot\left(\boldsymbol{T}_{x \oplus z}\right)^{\dagger} \cdot\left(\boldsymbol{T}_{y \oplus z}\right)^{\dagger} \cdot\left(\boldsymbol{T}_{x \oplus y \oplus z}\right)$ by the Hadamard gate extension one has again the Toffoli gate : $\quad \boldsymbol{T O}=\boldsymbol{H}_{0} \cdot \boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{C Z}} \cdot \boldsymbol{H}_{0}$
[*] Selinger, P., Quantum circuits of T-depth one, Phys. Rev. A, 87, 252-259, (2013)


$$
\boldsymbol{T O}=\left(\begin{array}{cccccccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

## Deutsch algorithm [*]

The Deutsch algorithm is one of the first quantum algorithms more efficient than its classical counterpart.

The answer to the question: is the logical function $f(x)$ constant or balanced? can be performed by a quantum computer in one step. (the classic treatment requires two steps.)

| $x$ | $f_{00}(x)$ | $f_{01}(x)$ | $f_{10}(x)$ | $f_{11}(x)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| +constant |  |  |  |  |
|  | balanced | balanced | constant |  |

[*] D. Deutsch, Quantum theory, the Church-Turing principle and the universal quantum computer, Proc. R. Soc. A, 400, 97-117, (1985)

The algorithm measurement is made on the upper qubit of the following circuit

$$
\boldsymbol{U}_{f}:|x\rangle|y\rangle \rightarrow|x\rangle|y \oplus f(x)\rangle
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =(-1)^{f(0)}|f(0) \oplus f(1)\rangle|1\rangle \\
& =(-1)^{f(0)}|0\rangle|1\rangle \text { if constant } \\
& =(-1)^{f(0)}|1\rangle|1\rangle \text { if balanced }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Expressing the quantum oracle circuit in Eigenlogic

In quantum control logic a Boolean logical function $f$ can be calculated by means of a quantum oracle $\boldsymbol{U}_{f}$ :

Particular cases are:
the 2-qubit CNOT gate $\boldsymbol{C}$ ( $f$ is the NOT function) the 3-qubit Toffoli gate $\boldsymbol{T O} \quad$ ( $f$ is the AND function)


The logical function $f$ is represented by the projective Eignelogic operator $\boldsymbol{F}$
The control bit corresponds to the seed projection operator in the $|x\rangle$ basis: $\quad \boldsymbol{\Pi}_{+}=|+\rangle\langle+|=\frac{1}{2}(\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{X})$
The oracle is then simply expressed in Eigenlogic as:

$$
\boldsymbol{U}_{f}=(-1)^{F \otimes \Pi_{+}}=\mathbb{I}-2 \boldsymbol{F} \otimes \boldsymbol{\Pi}_{+}
$$

In the case of a one bit Boolean function $f(x)$ :

$$
\boldsymbol{F}=f(0) \boldsymbol{\Pi}_{0}+f(1) \boldsymbol{\Pi}_{1}=f(0)(\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{\Pi})+f(1) \boldsymbol{\Pi}
$$

by developing one obtains another expression for the oracle :

$$
\boldsymbol{U}_{f}=\Pi_{0} \otimes \boldsymbol{X}^{f(0)}+\Pi_{1} \otimes \boldsymbol{X}^{f(1)}
$$

the Deutsch algorithm result is obtained by applying the oracle on : $|+\rangle|-\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle+|1\rangle) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle-|1\rangle)$

$$
\boldsymbol{U}_{f}|+\rangle|-\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|0\rangle(-1)^{f(0)}|-\rangle+\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|1\rangle(-1)^{f(1)}|-\rangle
$$

for constant $f(0)=f(1) \quad \boldsymbol{U}_{f}|+\rangle|-\rangle= \pm|+\rangle|-\rangle \quad$ and for balanced $\quad f(0) \neq f(1) \quad U_{f}|+\rangle|-\rangle= \pm|-\rangle|-\rangle$

## Grover's search algorithm [*]

Problem: finding the value $x_{0}$ in a large database with the fewest queries possible.


We consider a "black box" (oracle $\mathrm{U}_{f}$ )
Having for the value $x_{0}$ the property :

$$
f\left(x_{0}\right)=1 \text { and } f(x)=0 \text { for } x \neq x_{0}
$$

[*] L. K. Grover. A fast quantum mechanical algorithm for database search, Proceedings, 28th Annual ACM Symp. on the Theory of Computing, p. 212, (1996)

Classical query: complexity: $\boldsymbol{O}(\exp (n))$
Grover quantum query: complexity: $\boldsymbol{O}(\exp (\sqrt{n}))$

Grover algorithm and first-order-logic
The Grover search algorithm looks for an element $a$ (here $\left|a_{2} a_{1} a_{0}\right\rangle=|111\rangle$ ) satisfying the property $P$ (oracle) can thus be interpreted as an existential logical quantifier $\exists$, and becomes the predicate proposition in first-order-logic:

$$
\exists a P(a)
$$

The Grover amplification gate corresponds to an Eigenlogic disjunction operator in the $X$ system (in the circuit we have $\boldsymbol{G}_{\mathrm{NOR}}=-\boldsymbol{G}_{\mathrm{OR}}$ ). The oracle (phase) is here a double control Z gate (Eigenlogic 3-input AND: $(-1)^{\boldsymbol{\Pi} \otimes \Pi \otimes \Pi}$ ).
$\exists a P(a)$ decomposes, using Skolemization for finite systems

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \exists a \Leftrightarrow a_{1} \vee a_{2} \vee \cdots \vee a_{N} \\
& \text { and } \\
& \forall a \Leftrightarrow a_{1} \wedge a_{2} \wedge \cdots \wedge a_{N}
\end{aligned}
$$



$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { double } \mathrm{C}_{\mathbf{z}} \text { marking }|111\rangle \uparrow & \text { Eigenlogic } \text { NOR }_{\mathrm{x}} \\
\qquad P_{Z} \wedge Q_{Z} \wedge R_{Z} & \neg\left(P_{X} \vee Q_{X} \vee R_{X}\right)
\end{array}
$$

# Quantum Robots 

## Quantum robots: Paul Benioff

Paul Benioff was the first to propose the idea of a quantum Turing machine in 1980 [1].


Benioff also gave the theoretical principle of a quantum robot in 1988 [2] as a first step towards a quantum mechanical description of systems that are aware of their environment and make decisions.

Currently a "Quantum Robotics" group has been created and a book has been published in 2017 [3].
"Quantum Robotics is an emerging engineering and scientific research discipline that explores the application of quantum mechanics, quantum computing, quantum algorithms, and related fields to robotics. These developments are expected to impact the technical capability for robots to sense, plan, learn, and act in a dynamic environment."
[1] Benioff, P., 1980, The computer as a physical system: A microscopic quantum mechanical Hamiltonian model of computers as represented by Turing machines, J. of Statistical Phys., Vol. 22, (1980)
[2] Benioff, P., 1988, Quantum Robots and Environments, Physical Review A, Vol. 58, No.2, pp. 893-904
[3] Tandon, P., Lam, S., Shih, B., Mehta, T., Mitev, A., Ong, Z., Quantum Robotics - A Primer on Current Science and Future Perspectives, Morgan \& Claypool. (2017)

## Braitenberg Vehicles (BV)

Valentino Braitenberg was a cyberneticist at the University of Tübingen.
In his book Vehicles [1] various thought experiments using simple machines consisting in sensors, motors and wheels.

Sensors detect light produced by surrounding sources.
The sensors can be connected in different configurations of combinations to the wheels. Simple changes in configuration can lead to complex and surprising results in the agent behavior.

We designed fuzzy logic quantum-like Braitenberg vehicles [2].
The control is based on "Eigenlogic".
The goal is to test the multiple combinations of logical gates used in the control of Braitenberg vehicles by analyzing their complex behavior.

[1] Braitenberg, V., Vehicles - Experiments in Synthetic Psychology. MIT Press; Cambridge USA. (1986)
[2] Z. Toffano, F. Dubois, Quantum eigenlogic observables applied to the study of fuzzy behaviour of Braitenberg vehicle quantum robots, Kybernetes, (2019)

Zeno Toffano : "Adapting Logic to Physics" Workshop - "modélisation quantique" - ISC Paris - 25-10-2021

## Vehicle input-output structure [*]

The computational block is composed of logic operators (matrices) designed with the quantumlike Eigenlogic method. The control of the two-wheel motors ( $M L, M R$ ), responds to signals from the two light sensors ( $S L, S R$ ).

the input state vector representing the light intensity on $S L$ and $S R$ is: $\quad|\psi\rangle=\left|\phi_{S L}\right\rangle \otimes\left|\phi_{S R}\right\rangle$
The fuzzy quantities for left and right wheel (WL, WR) control, are the mean values of the logical operators $\boldsymbol{F}_{\boldsymbol{L}}$ and $\boldsymbol{F}_{\boldsymbol{R}}$ on the input compound state $|\psi\rangle$ :

$$
\mu_{L}=\langle\psi| \boldsymbol{F}_{L}|\psi\rangle \quad, \quad \mu_{R}=\langle\psi| \boldsymbol{F}_{\boldsymbol{R}}|\psi\rangle
$$

[*] Cunha R.A.F., Sharma N., Toffano Z., Dubois F. Fuzzy Logic Behavior of Quantum-Controlled Braitenberg Vehicle Agents. In: Coecke B., Lambert-Mogiliansky A. (eds) Quantum Interaction. QI 2018. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol 11690. Springer, Cham. (2019)

## basic BV classical emotions using Eigenlogic

Fear $(B V-2 a)\left(\boldsymbol{F}_{L}=\boldsymbol{A}\right.$ and $\left.\boldsymbol{F}_{R}=\boldsymbol{B}\right)$ :
turns away from the light if one sensor is activated more than the other. If both are equal, the light source is "attacked".
Aggression ( $B V-2 b$ ) $\left(\boldsymbol{F}_{L}=\boldsymbol{B}\right.$ and $\left.\boldsymbol{F}_{R}=\boldsymbol{A}\right)$ : when the light source is placed near either sensor, the vehicle will face it and go towards it.
Love $(B V-3 a)\left(\boldsymbol{F}_{L}=\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{A}\right.$ and $\left.\boldsymbol{F}_{R}=\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{B}\right)$ : will go until it finds a light source, then slows to a stop. If one side sees light, the vehicle turns in the direction of the light.
Exploration $(B V-3 b)\left(\boldsymbol{F}_{L}=\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{B}\right.$ and $\left.\boldsymbol{F}_{R}=\mathbb{I}-\boldsymbol{A}\right)$ :
 will go to the nearby light source, keeps an eye open and will sail to other stronger sources, given the chance.

## Quantum like emotions: worship, doubt

Worship: $\left(\boldsymbol{F}_{L}=\frac{1}{2}(1-\boldsymbol{H} \otimes \boldsymbol{H})\right.$ and $\left.\boldsymbol{F}_{R}=\boldsymbol{B}\right)$ :
one of the control logical operator is the projector version of the double-Hadamard qubit gate $\boldsymbol{H}$.

The vehicle keeps rotating around its own center in the absence of light. In the presence of light, it goes towards the source and starts to rotate around the source (or multiple sources when they are close together).

| $\left\|x_{f}\right\rangle$ | $\mu_{L}$ | $\mu_{R}$ | Behavior |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\|00\rangle$ | 0.25 | 0 | turns to the right slowly |
| $\|01\rangle$ | 0.75 | 1 | turns to the left slowly |
| $\|10\rangle$ | 0.75 | 0 | turns to the right |
| $\|11\rangle$ | 0.25 | 1 | turns to the left |

Doubt: $\left(\boldsymbol{F}_{L}=\boldsymbol{B} \nRightarrow \boldsymbol{A}\right.$ and $\left.\boldsymbol{F}_{R}=\boldsymbol{F}_{X O R}=\frac{1}{2}(1-\boldsymbol{Z} \otimes \boldsymbol{Z})\right)$ : here, one of the control logical operator is XOR (projector version of the double- $\boldsymbol{Z}$ qubit gate).

This operator provides a property that makes the vehicle turn around in circles, regardless of the presence or absence of stimuli.


1) $0.25 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad$ turns to the right slowly


## quantum wheel of emotions

The concept of "wheel of emotions" introduced by Plutchik et al. [*] allows a continuous set of emotional states.
[*] Plutchik, R., 2001, The Nature of Emotions, Amercian Scientist, July-August, Vol. 89, N ${ }^{\circ} 4$, pp. 334-350
A small perturbation in the angle of the input state will correspond to small changes in the vehicle's behavior.

The emotions presented on the wheel shown are an example corresponding to the following $L \mid R$ logical control operators:

- (Anger-Aggressive)
$B \mid A$
- (Passion)
$B \nRightarrow A \mid A \nRightarrow B$
- (Love)
- (Interest-Explore)
$\bar{A} \mid \bar{B}$
$\bar{B} \mid \bar{A}$
- (Curiosity)
- (Distraction)
- (Apprehension)
$A \nRightarrow B \mid B \nRightarrow A$
$A \nRightarrow B \mid X O R$
$B \nRightarrow A \mid X O R$
- (Worship)
$\boldsymbol{H} \otimes \boldsymbol{H} \mid B$
- (Sadness)
- (Fear)

CNOT | CNOT $A \mid B$


## THANK -YOU


drawings by Maciek Albrecht © Braitenberg, V. 1986, Vehicles: Experiments in Synthetic, Psychology. MIT Press

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