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# Quantum Cognition and Decision Theories: A Tutorial

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## Abstract

Models of cognition and decision making based on quantum theory have been the subject of much interest recently. Quantum theory provides an alternative probabilistic framework for modelling decision making compared with classical probability theory, and has been successfully used to address behaviour considered paradoxical or irrational from a classical point of view.

The purpose of this tutorial is to give an introduction to quantum models, with a particular emphasis on how to build these models in practice. Examples are provided by the study of order effects on judgments, and we will show how order effects arise from the structure of the theory. In particular, we show how to derive the recent discovery of a particular constraint on order effects implied by quantum models, called the Quantum Question (QQ) Equality, which does not appear to be derivable from alternative accounts, and which has been experimentally verified to high precision. However the general theory and methods of model construction we will describe are applicable to any quantum cognitive model. Our hope is that this tutorial will give researchers the confidence to construct simple quantum models of their own, particularly with a view to testing these against existing cognitive theories.

*Keywords:* quantum theory, order effects, similarity

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## 1. Introduction

Models of decision making based on the mathematics of quantum theory have attracted a large amount of interest recently (Busemeyer and Bruza, 2014; Aerts, 2009; Mogiliansky et al., 2009; Yukalov and Sornette, 2011; Khrennikov, 2010; Pothos and Busemeyer, 2013; Wang et al., 2013). These models have arisen in part as a response to the empirical challenges faced by ‘rational’ decision-making models, such as those based on Bayesian probability theory (such examples are mostly associated with the famous Tversky-Khanaman research tradition. See e.g. Tversky and Kahneman (1974); Chater et al. (2006).) These quantum models posit that, at least in some circumstances, human behaviour does not align well with classical probability theory or expected utility maximisation. However unlike, for example, the fast and frugal heuristics programme (see, e.g. Gigerenzer et al., 2011), quantum cognition aims not to do away with the idea of a formal structure underlying decision-making, but simply to replace the structure of classical probability theory with an alternative theory of probabilities. This new probability theory has features, such as context effects, interference effects and constructive judgments, which align well with psychological intuition about human decision-making. Initial research involving quantum models tended to focus mainly on explaining results previously seen as paradoxical from the point of view of classical probability theory, and there have been a number of successes in this area (Pothos and Busemeyer, 2013; Wang et al., 2013; Trueblood and Busemeyer, 2011; White et al., 2014; Pothos and Busemeyer, 2009; Aerts et al., 2013; Bruza et al., 2015; Blutner et al., 2013). More recently, the focus has switched to some extent to testing new

predictions arising from quantum models, and designing better tests of quantum vs classical decision theories (Atmanspacher and Filk, 2010; Yearsley and Pothos, 2014, in preparation).

One key success of quantum models of cognition has been the treatment of question order effects (Moore, 2002). ‘Order effects’ here describes a phenomenon where, for example, given two particular questions, each with a number of possible responses, the expected distribution of responses to a particular question depends on whether it was asked first or second in the series. In other words, asking a prior question can influence the outcome of a subsequent one. We will explain in more detail below exactly how to characterise this effect.

As we shall see, order effects arise naturally in quantum theory, and thus they can be accounted for by quantum cognitive models. However what is more remarkable is that quantum theory also predicts particular constraints on the probabilities that can be generated by these models, most notably in the form of the Quantum Question (QQ) Equality (Wang and Busemeyer, 2013). These constraints seem to be extremely well satisfied in the data from real world experiments and surveys (Wang et al., 2014). Thus as well as being a natural application of quantum theory, question order effects also represent a striking empirical confirmation of the idea of using quantum theory to model decisions.

Although the mathematical machinery of quantum theory is not inherently more complex than that required by many other cognitive models, essentially linear algebra and a small amount of calculus, it is rather unfamiliar to most cognitive scientists. Our aim in this tutorial paper is therefore to introduce readers to the ideas and machinery of basic quantum theory, such that after

61 working their way through this tutorial readers will feel more<sup>115</sup>  
62 confident making use of quantum models in their research. <sup>116</sup>

63 As well as existing cognitive scientists, we hope this tutorial  
64 may find a secondary audience in those researchers who already  
65 have a background in quantum theory gained from studying the<sup>117</sup>  
66 physical sciences, who are interested in the application of these  
67 ideas in social science <sup>118</sup>. To help these readers we have struc-  
68 tured our discussion of the basic formalism of quantum theory  
69 in a way which should feel familiar to anyone who first encoun-  
70 tered it in the context of the physical sciences (see for example  
71 Isham (1995) or the notes by Plenio available online). Hope-  
72 fully this should enable those already familiar with quantum  
73 theory to quickly grasp how to apply their existing knowledge  
74 to the construction of cognitive models. <sup>119</sup>

75 The material we will cover in this tutorial is essential back-  
76 ground to any application of quantum theory in judgment and  
77 decision making. We will pay particular attention to two im-  
78 portant but sometimes overlooked issues; first how exactly does  
79 one choose a particular framework of Hilbert space, basis vec-  
80 tors, initial state etc to suit the problem at hand, and what do  
81 these choices mean? Second, how are the various calculations<sup>120</sup>  
82 actually carried out? Grasping both of these issues is essen-  
83 tial for any student of the field, and we hope this tutorial will<sup>121</sup>  
84 help researchers bridge the gap between reading about quantum<sup>122</sup>  
85 models and actually constructing them for themselves. <sup>123</sup>

86 There are a number of things we will not cover in this tuto-<sup>124</sup>  
87 rial, which may be worth stating now. First, although we will<sup>125</sup>  
88 mention it, we will not cover the dynamics of quantum systems<sup>126</sup>  
89 in any detailed way; this is mainly a tutorial on quantum stat-<sup>127</sup>  
90 ics. Quantum dynamics are relatively simple to grasp once one<sup>128</sup>  
91 understands the material in this tutorial. Second, we will not<sup>129</sup>  
92 touch upon ‘entanglement’ or issues around quantum informa-<sup>130</sup>  
93 tion. Finally, some advanced topics, such as CP-Maps and the<sup>131</sup>  
94 full theory of POVMs will not be covered, as they are best learnt<sup>132</sup>  
95 about once one is familiar with the basics. They will be covered<sup>133</sup>  
96 in a subsequent tutorial (Yearsley, in preparation). <sup>134</sup>

97 We will assume the reader has a good familiarity with linear<sup>135</sup>  
98 algebra in the usual form of vectors, matrices etc, but for ref-<sup>136</sup>  
99 erence, and to set notation, we give a brief summary of some<sup>137</sup>  
100 important ideas in an appendix. <sup>138</sup>

101 The rest of this tutorial is structured as follows; in Section<sup>139</sup>  
102 2 we introduce the basic elements of quantum cognition. In<sup>140</sup>  
103 Section 3 we then expand upon some points, with the aim of<sup>141</sup>  
104 guiding readers through the process of constructing a quantum<sup>142</sup>  
105 model in practice rather than in theory. In Section 4 we give<sup>143</sup>  
106 a brief introduction to order effects in quantum theory, and in<sup>144</sup>  
107 Section 5 we expand on this to include a derivation of the QQ<sup>145</sup>  
108 Equality. In Section 6 we give a brief introduction to POVMs,<sup>146</sup>  
109 which can be used to represent noisy or imperfect measure-<sup>147</sup>  
110 ments, and in Section 7 we apply these in the setting of order<sup>148</sup>  
111 effects, our goal being to see to what extent the QQ Equality<sup>149</sup>  
112 generalises to the case of more realistic noisy measurements.<sup>150</sup>  
113 In Section 8 we briefly talk about another application of quan-<sup>151</sup>  
114 tum theory to modelling similarity judgments. We summarise<sup>152</sup>

in Section 9. A number of mathematical details are contained  
in the Appendix.

## 2. The basics of quantum cognition

The aim of this section is to present the basic formalism of  
quantum cognition, including information about the state, the  
dynamics, and the description of measurements. Our goal here  
is to give a reasonably concise account of the essentials; in the  
next section we will return to each element in turn and ask in  
more detail what it means and how it may be specified for a par-  
ticular model. We hope this format will make it easy for readers  
to grasp the essential structure of quantum models. All of the  
material in this section is standard, and we will not give ref-  
erences for individual results/definitions. For a more complete  
account see Isham (1995) or for an alternative description with  
a more cognitive focus see Busemeyer and Bruza (2014).

### 2.1. What is quantum cognition?

Quantum cognition is a framework for constructing cogni-  
tive models based on the mathematics of quantum probability  
theory, which is itself a mathematical framework for assigning  
probabilities to events, much like classical probability theory  
(for a full account see Busemeyer and Bruza (2014)). For a  
given event, usually thought of as the outcome of some judg-  
ment process, and specification of the decision maker by means  
of a cognitive state, quantum cognition gives a real number be-  
tween 0 and 1 which is to be interpreted as the probability that  
the decision maker will make that particular choice. Quantum  
cognition also includes information about the set of possible  
dynamics, state transformations and measurements that can be  
performed on a system, although to a large extent this follows  
directly from the basic probabilistic structure.

In its most conservative form, quantum cognition is simply  
an algorithm for computing probabilities, without any claim to  
reflect the underlying way decisions are made in the brain. In  
this way of thinking, the success or otherwise of the approach is  
to be judged purely by the empirical success of its predictions.  
However steps are being taken towards viewing quantum cogni-  
tive theories as *process* models, that do reflect in some way the  
process of arriving at a given decision (Kvam et al., 2015). The  
attraction of quantum models in this case stems in part from the  
fact they have features, such as contextuality, interference ef-  
fects, order effects and constructive judgments, to name a few,  
that seem to align well with the way we think human decision  
makers process information. However an important feature of  
quantum models of decision is that they generally do not as-  
sume the underlying processing that happens in the brain is rep-  
resented by quantum physics. In this sense that are distinct from  
so called *quantum brain* models (Hameroff and Penrose, 1996;  
Tegmark, 2000; Hagan et al., 2002; McKemmish et al., 2009).

The ingredients of any quantum cognitive model are a space  
of possible thoughts/judgment outcomes etc with subspaces  
corresponding to particular beliefs/opinions/choices, together  
with a cognitive state that keeps track of a decision maker’s cur-  
rent state of mind, and a dynamics that specifies how this state

<sup>1</sup>Indeed one of the present authors (JMY) has such a background.

of mind changes with time/evidence presentation etc. From these ingredients we can compute probabilities for any relevant judgment outcome.

In the following subsections we will introduce each element in turn.

## 2.2. The Space

The most basic ingredient in quantum cognition is a space<sup>198</sup> of possible thoughts/beliefs/etc. This space is a finite dimensional Hilbert space<sup>2</sup>, which is essentially just a vector space<sup>199</sup> equipped with an inner product  $\langle \cdot | \cdot \rangle$ . In quantum theory the Hilbert spaces we consider are complex spaces, which means they can be spanned by vectors whose entries are complex numbers. It is usual to denote the Hilbert space by the symbol  $\mathcal{H}$ .

We will write the elements of  $\mathcal{H}$  as  $|u\rangle$ .  $|u\rangle$  is known as a ‘ket’, and is roughly analogous to a column vector in standard linear algebra. The inner product of two vectors in  $\mathcal{H}$  is denoted as

$$\langle |v\rangle, |u\rangle \rangle \equiv \langle v|u\rangle \quad (1)$$

which is roughly analogous to the dot product of two vectors in linear algebra. The inner product induces a norm  $|\cdot|$  on  $\mathcal{H}$  via,

$$\begin{aligned} |\cdot| : \mathcal{H} &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ |u\rangle &\rightarrow \sqrt{\langle u|u\rangle}. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Technically our Hilbert space is an *abstract* space, i.e. it can be spanned by many different possible sets of basis states. One important point about this is that the object,  $|u\rangle$ , while a ‘vector’ in the technical sense, is *not* equal to a column vector, i.e.

$$|u\rangle \neq \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}. \quad (3)$$

The reason for this is that the right hand side of Eq.(3) is defined relative to a particular basis, whereas the left hand side is basis independent. We will often abuse notation to write a ket as equal to a column vector etc, but when we do so we will always take care to specify the basis in which we are computing the vector.

One particularly striking example of the difference between vectors in  $\mathcal{H}$  and vectors/functions in a particular basis occurs when dealing with states of a particle moving along a line (Isham, 1995). Let  $|\psi\rangle$  be the state of a particle in 1D. Then  $\psi(x) = \langle x|\psi\rangle$  is the wave function of the particle in position space, and  $\tilde{\psi}(p) = \langle p|\psi\rangle$  is the wave function in momentum space.  $\psi(x)$  and  $\tilde{\psi}(p)$  are equivalent representations of  $|\psi\rangle$  (one is the Fourier transform of the other, and they carry the same information), but they live in different spaces and have different units, so they are certainly not equal, and neither are they equal to the abstract vector  $|\psi\rangle$ .

<sup>2</sup>The restriction to finite dimensions is not strictly necessary. The extension to infinite dimensional spaces such as those required to model motion in a continuous space requires only some extra mathematical precision. However the spaces most often used in quantum cognition are finite, so we will mostly restrict to this case in this tutorial. See below or Isham (1995); Reed and Simon (1980) for more.

An important concept is the idea of an operator on a Hilbert space. An operator on a space is a map which sends an element of the space to another element of the same space. e.g.,

$$\begin{aligned} A : \mathcal{H} &\rightarrow \mathcal{H} \\ |u\rangle &\rightarrow A|u\rangle \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

In a particular basis, the operator  $A$  will be represented by a matrix. Note though that in a similar way to states, an operator is *not equal* to a matrix, since the particular matrix depends on the choice of basis.

An important property of operators in Hilbert space is that they need not *commute*. Let  $A$  and  $B$  be two operators on  $\mathcal{H}$ . The *commutator*  $[A, B]$  is defined as,

$$\begin{aligned} [\cdot, \cdot] : \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H} &\rightarrow \mathcal{H} \\ [A, B] &\rightarrow AB - BA \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

i.e. the commutator represents the difference between the two possible orders in which  $A$  and  $B$  could be applied to a state.  $A$  and  $B$  are said to *commute* if  $[A, B] = 0$ . Otherwise they are said to be *non-commuting*. That many important operators do not commute with each other, such as those representing position and momentum, is what lies behind many interesting features of quantum theory, such as the uncertainty principle.

A basic overview of operators on Hilbert spaces is given in the appendix.

### Aside on Infinite Dimensional Spaces

In this tutorial we will be working mainly with finite dimensional vector spaces, such as are appropriate for modelling finite sets of possible question answers. However we may sometimes need to model situations where the variables can take any value in a continuous range, such as the position of a slider, or situations where the set of possible outcomes is so large it may be more convenient to think of them as continuous, for example confidence judgments on a 0-100% scale, where the corresponding finite dimensional representation has 101 dimensions. In these cases we can extend the formalism to an infinite dimensional Hilbert space. Instead of vectors our space is now spanned by complex valued functions. Most of what we say in this tutorial still holds, but the maths becomes slightly more complex. Interested readers should consult any good book on quantum theory (e.g. Isham, 1995), or for the full mathematical glory, see Reed and Simon (1980).

## 2.3. The Knowledge State

The second ingredient in any quantum model is the specification of the initial knowledge state of a participant, or group of participants. This is given in the simplest case by a vector  $|\psi\rangle$  in  $\mathcal{H}$ . This state vector encodes information about the cognitive state of participants prior to any computation. This state can also be written as an operator on the Hilbert space by taking the outer product of  $|\psi\rangle$  with itself, to give the *density operator*,

$$\rho = |\psi\rangle \langle \psi| \quad (6)$$

The main advantage of using density matrices to represent knowledge states, rather than just vectors, is that it allows us to deal with situations where we have some (classical) uncertainty about the state. Suppose we have an ensemble of different groups of participants and each group can be characterised by the state vector  $|\psi_i\rangle$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ . Let the proportion of participants in each group be  $\omega_i$ . Then the state of the whole ensemble can be written as,

$$\rho = \sum_i \omega_i |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i| \quad (7)$$

It is cumbersome to represent this type of ensemble using state vectors alone.

Let us introduce some simple nomenclature. States that can be written in the form  $\rho = |\psi\rangle \langle \psi|$  for a single  $|\psi\rangle$ , i.e. that have  $\omega_i = 1$  for some  $i$  and  $\omega_{j \neq i} = 0$  are called *pure states*. States that cannot be written in this form, i.e. that have  $\omega_i \neq 0$  for more than one  $i$ , are called *mixed*.

The knowledge state plays a role roughly analogous to a prior probability distribution in classical theories. If the states  $|\psi_i\rangle$  are orthonormal then the  $\omega_i$  play the role of the probabilities for the initial state to be one of the  $|\psi_i\rangle$ . The following properties of  $\rho$  guarantee that the  $\omega_i$  can be interpreted as probabilities in this way;

- $\rho = \rho^\dagger$ . This guarantees the  $\omega_i$  are real.
- $\text{Tr}(\rho) = 1$ . This guarantees  $\sum_i \omega_i = 1$ .
- $\langle \psi | \rho | \psi \rangle \geq 0$ ,  $\forall |\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ . This property, known as positivity, guarantees the  $\omega_i$  are non-negative.

A particularly important example of a knowledge state is the case where the  $\{|\psi_i\rangle\}$  form an orthonormal basis for  $\mathcal{H}$  and  $\omega_1 = \omega_2 = \dots = 1/D$ , where  $D$  is the dimension of the space. The knowledge state can be written in this case as,

$$\rho = \frac{1}{D} \mathbb{I} \quad (8)$$

where  $\mathbb{I}$  is the identity operator, i.e. the operator that has the property that, for any  $A$ ,  $\mathbb{I}A = A\mathbb{I} = A$ . This state corresponds to a state of maximum (classical) uncertainty, and it plays a similar role to a uniform prior in classical models. Note that it is possible to define the notion of the ‘entropy’ of a quantum state, in a similar way to the entropy of a classical probability distribution. This is beyond the scope of this tutorial, see Nielsen and Chuang (2000) or Yearsley (in preparation) for details, however it can be shown that  $\rho = \frac{1}{D} \mathbb{I}$  does indeed give the maximum value of the entropy, equal to  $\ln(D)$ .

We note that it is usual in quantum cognitive models to see the initial knowledge state represented as a pure state (e.g. in Busemeyer and Bruza (2014) density matrices are introduced only at the very end of the book). In the interests of completeness we will mainly work in this tutorial with density matrices, so that the initial state may be either pure or mixed. Where appropriate we will show how our expressions simplify in the case of pure states.

## 2.4. Observables and Measurements

The term *observable* in quantum theory refers to any quantity whose value can be measured by a suitable experiment. In quantum cognition observables are generally preferences or choices, such as whether a suspect is guilty or innocent, which of two gambles is preferred, or how confident a decision maker feels about a particular choice. The observables in a quantum cognitive theory are ultimately the same as they would be in a classical theory.

Observables in quantum theory are represented by *Hermitian* operators on  $\mathcal{H}$ . An operator is Hermitian if

$$A = A^\dagger \equiv (A^T)^* \quad (9)$$

The operation  $\dagger$  is known as Hermitian conjugation. Hermitian operators are an important class because they have real eigenvalues, which makes sense, since any measurement must have a result that is a real number.

The expected value of the observable  $A$  for a participant with a cognitive state given by  $\rho$  is equal to,

$$\langle A \rangle = \text{Tr}(A\rho) = \langle \psi | A | \psi \rangle \quad (10)$$

where the final equality holds if the cognitive state is pure. However if we perform a measurement of  $A$  we do not get the result  $\langle A \rangle$  in general. An important feature of quantum theory is that the possible results of a measurement of any observable are one of its eigenvalues.

Because the operators representing observables are self-adjoint, the spectral theorem for self adjoint operators (see Appendix) tells us that  $A$  may be written as,

$$A = \sum_i a_i P_i^A \quad (11)$$

where the  $a_i$  are the eigenvalues of  $A$  and  $P_i^A$  are the projection operators onto the subspaces corresponding to these eigenvalues. The probability of measuring  $A$  and getting the result  $a_i$  is given by,

$$p(a_i) = \text{Tr}(P_i^A \rho) = \langle \psi | P_i^A | \psi \rangle \quad (12)$$

where again the last equality holds if the cognitive state is pure.

A crucial feature of quantum theory is what happens to the state when this measurement is carried out. Suppose we measure the observable  $A$  and we get the answer  $a_i$ . Then the state *collapses* to the new state,

$$\rho \rightarrow \frac{P_i^A \rho P_i^A}{\text{Tr}(P_i^A \rho)} \quad (13)$$

or

$$|\psi\rangle \rightarrow \frac{P_i^A |\psi\rangle}{|P_i^A |\psi\rangle|} \quad (14)$$

if the state is pure. This is known as the collapse postulate in quantum theory and is responsible for much of the strange non-classical behaviour of the theory. Note that if we take the collapsed state and immediately perform another measurement of  $A$  then we will get the answer  $a_i$  again with certainty, since,

$$\text{Tr}\left(P_j^A \frac{P_i^A \rho P_i^A}{\text{Tr}(P_i^A \rho)}\right) = \delta_{ij} \quad (15)$$

283 This means that measurements represented by projection oper-  
 284 ators can also be used to prepare systems to be in a known state.  
 285 These are often known as ‘ideal first kind’ measurements. That  
 286 such operations can actually be carried out in practice is a criti-  
 287 cal assumption in quantum cognition<sup>3</sup>.

It is worth saying a little more about the role of the collapse postulate, since anecdotally it seems to cause some concern amongst cognitive scientists. On the surface it looks a lot like Bayesian updating. Imagine that the initial state is a density operator  $\rho$  which can be written as a weighted sum of projection operators onto eigenvectors of a particular observable  $A$ , i.e.,

$$\rho = \sum_i p(a_i) |a_i\rangle \langle a_i| \quad (16)$$

with  $\{p(a_i)\}$  a probability distribution over the possible  $a_i$ . Such a decomposition is not guaranteed to be possible, because although the  $|a_i\rangle$  form an orthonormal basis  $\rho$  need not be diagonal in this basis. However suppose it is possible for the particular state under consideration. Then if we measure the observable  $A$  and get the result  $a_j$  then the state collapses to,

$$\rho \rightarrow |a_j\rangle \langle a_j| \quad (17)$$

288 In other words, if one thinks of the  $\omega_i$  in Eq.(16) as defining  
 289 probability distribution over the set of states  $|a_i\rangle$ , then the col-  
 290 lapse looks exactly like a Bayesian updating of this probability  
 291 distribution.

292 The reason this interpretation doesn’t work in general is that  
 293 a Bayesian update happens when one gets some new informa-  
 294 tion about the state as a result of performing a measurement.  
 295 Because of this, a Bayesian update may, at least in some cases,  
 296 decrease the uncertainty, or entropy, associated with our de-  
 297 scription of the system. In contrast, at least for pure quantum  
 298 states, increasing our knowledge of an observable  $A$  will de-  
 299 crease our knowledge of any observable that doesn’t commute  
 300 with  $A$ . For pure states this means state collapse does not re-  
 301 duce our uncertainty about the state, in contrast to a classical  
 302 Bayesian update. That being said, there is an approach to un-  
 303 derstanding the interpretation of quantum theory which empha-  
 304 sises the connection between collapse and Bayesian updating,  
 305 called Quantum Bayesianism (See, for example, Caves et al.  
 306 (2002).) We will not discuss this further here since the inter-  
 307 pretation of quantum theory is beyond the scope of this tuto-  
 308 rial. The important point to take away from this discussion is  
 309 that although the collapse postulate is a fundamentally quantum  
 310 feature, it does have some similarities with more familiar ideas  
 311 in classical probability theory.

## 312 2.5. Evolution

313 We will not be especially concerned in this tutorial with the  
 314 evolution of quantum states. Nevertheless, for the sake of com-  
 315 pleteness we note here the basics of quantum evolution.

For a closed quantum system, evolution is generated by an Hermitian operator  $H$  known as the Hamiltonian<sup>4</sup>. The evolution of a quantum state is governed by,

$$\rho(t) = U(t)\rho(0)U^\dagger(t) \quad (18)$$

or

$$|\psi(t)\rangle = U(t)|\psi(0)\rangle \quad (19)$$

where, if  $H$  is time independent,  $U(t)$  is given by,

$$U(t) = e^{-iHt} \quad (20)$$

The operator  $U(t)$  is *unitary* which turns out to be an extremely important property. Unitary operators preserve the length of the state vector, or more generally the trace of the density operator, which means they conserve total probability. They also have an inverse,  $U^{-1}(t) = U^\dagger(t) = e^{iHt}$ , so that,

$$U^\dagger(t)U(t) = U(t)U^\dagger(t) = \mathbb{1}. \quad (21)$$

The reason this is important is the following: In practice we generate evolution of a cognitive state by the presentation of some stimuli. If we assume this evolution can be modelled by a Hamiltonian operator leading to a unitary evolution, then we also assume that this evolution is reversible. That means we are implicitly assuming there is some second set of stimuli that, if presented to a participant, could *undo* the change in cognitive state caused by the first set of stimuli (assuming no measurement intervenes). Whether this is reasonable or not depends on the experimental set up, but it is frequently not realistic.

The solution is to model the cognitive state not as a closed system, but as an *open* one, where information can flow between the cognitive system and some external system or environment. This allows for the possibility of *irreversible* evolutions not represented by unitary operators. It is also beyond the scope of this tutorial (Yearsley, in preparation). Concerns about reversibility notwithstanding, unitary evolutions are the most widely used in quantum models of decision, and have indeed proven to be very successful. However one should recognise that such a choice may not always be appropriate.

There are two further points we want to make about evolution. First we want to quickly discuss how to write expressions for the probabilities associated with measurements at different times, second we want to give two simple examples of useful Hamiltonians.

If we start with an initial cognitive state  $\rho_0$ , evolve for a time  $t$  and then perform a measurement of  $A$ , the probability we will get the outcome  $a_i$  is given by any of the following expressions,

$$p(a_i, t) = \text{Tr}(P_i^A U(t)\rho_0 U^\dagger(t)) \quad (22)$$

$$= \text{Tr}(P_i^A \rho(t)) \quad (23)$$

$$= \text{Tr}(P_i^A(t)\rho_0) \quad (24)$$

where,

$$\rho(t) = U(t)\rho_0 U^\dagger(t) \quad (25)$$

$$P_i^A(t) = U^\dagger(t)P_i^A U(t)$$

<sup>3</sup>Although one can argue that it is a critical assumption in any theory of cognition, quantum or otherwise.

<sup>4</sup>Since  $H$  is Hermitian, it is an observable. In physics  $H$  corresponds to the *energy* of a system, however its significance in cognition is less clear.

Eq.(23) and Eq.(24) refer to the *Schrödinger* and *Heisenberg* pictures of evolution respectively. They differ in terms of whether one regards the evolution as changing the cognitive state, or the observables. For the most part we tend to work in the Schrödinger picture in quantum cognition, but both representations are equally valid.

Now suppose we measure  $A$  at time  $t_1$ , then we continue to evolve our state, and now we also measure  $B$  at time  $t_2$ . The probability that we get the outcome  $a_i$  at  $t_1$  and  $b_j$  at  $t_2$  is,

$$\begin{aligned} p(a_i, t_1; b_j, t_2) &= \text{Tr}(P_j^B U(t_2 - t_1) P_i^A U(t_1) \rho_0 U^\dagger(t_1) P_i^A U^\dagger(t_2 - t_1)) \\ &= \text{Tr}(P_j^B(t_2) P_i^A(t_1) \rho_0 P_i^A(t_1)) \end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

This can easily be extended to further evolutions and measurements. The Heisenberg picture of evolution comes into its own here.

We want to conclude this section on evolution with a couple of examples of useful Hamiltonians. The first is the Hamiltonian for a single particle evolving in some potential  $V(x)$ , such as might be appropriate for modelling a set of beliefs which could take any value in a given range. In the  $x$  basis we have,

$$H = -\frac{1}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V(x) \quad (27)$$

Here  $m$  is some constant (the mass in physical terms) which gives rise to a sort of ‘inertia’ of our cognitive state, in other words it determines how quickly the state changes as a result of applying some force determined by  $V(x)$ . This sort of Hamiltonian has been used in studies of confidence judgments (Kvam et al., 2015). Good choices for the potential might be linear ( $V(x) = ax + b$ ) which generates a constant force in a particular direction, or a quadratic ( $V(x) = ax^2$ ) which produces a state which oscillates around  $x = 0$ .

Second, the Hamiltonian for a simple two state system can be written (like any other Hermitian operator on this space) as a weighted sum of the identity operator and the three Pauli matrices,

$$H = a\mathbb{1} + b\sigma_x + c\sigma_y + d\sigma_z \quad (28)$$

where

$$\sigma_x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ -i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (29)$$

and  $a, b, c, d$  are real numbers. Adding an overall scale to the numbers just speeds up or slows down the evolution, which is equivalent to rescaling the time. Thus only the ratios of the different coefficient are important. Now, the term involving the identity matrix just adds an overall phase to the state. Since the absolute phase is unobservable we can ignore this term. The terms involving  $\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z$  generate rotations about the  $x, y, z$  directions respectively, depending on the set up one might be able to further simplify this expression by considering rotation around only a single axis. Thus, for example, in Yearsley and Pothos (2014) it was argued that the Hamiltonian,

$$H = b\sigma_x \quad (30)$$

gives a reasonable general dynamics if one is interested only in the observable  $\sigma_z$ .

### 3. What does it all mean?

#### 3.1. Introduction

In the previous section we introduced the basics of quantum theory, as applicable to constructing theories of decision making. In theory this gives all the information you need to go and study existing quantum models, and even in principle to build models of your own.

However much was left unsaid about the meaning of the various objects introduced. As a consequence, while it should now be obvious that, for example, to build a quantum model of order effects one first needs to identify the Hilbert space, it is probably less clear exactly how to do this in practice. What we want to do in this section is to fill in some of the gaps regarding the meaning of the various pieces of the quantum formalism. Our aim will be to give some clues about how to build a quantum model for a particular set of judgments.

There are two possible positions one might find oneself in when attempting to construct a quantum model of a particular decision making process. First we might have in mind some existing classical model, and want to explore a quantum analogue, either because the classical model is already empirically inadequate, or simply because one is interested in whether a quantum model might produce novel predictions. The second position is that we might have little idea about any existing treatment of the problem, and we have to start modelling from scratch. In practice we tend to encounter the latter more often than the former, but we will look at both scenarios here.

#### 3.2. Quantisation?

Suppose we already have a classical model of a decision making problem, and we are interested in creating a quantum analogue. This is very similar to the typical situation in the physics literature, and physicists already have a reasonably straightforward process for constructing quantum models from classical ones. This process is known as ‘quantisation’ (The classic reference is Dirac, 1982), and we will describe it briefly.

It is easiest to take a specific example, so we will look at confidence judgments than can be expressed on a 0 – 100% scale. We will assume the range of possible values is continuous, even if the set of possible responses is discrete. Assume we have some initial distribution of confidence levels, dynamics that might be generated by some evidence presentation, and then a judgment process that corresponds to splitting the scale into some intervals, e.g.  $0\% \leq x < 10\%$ , or  $20\% \leq x < 30\%$  etc. The precise details are unimportant, but the key is the classical model gives us four things,

1. The space of states. In this case they are probability distributions (functions) in the interval (0, 100).
2. The initial state. Or at least what that allowable class of initial states looks like.
3. The dynamics. Which we will assume can be written in terms of a classical Hamiltonian function.
4. The observables. In this case the probabilities of lying in various intervals of the form  $[a, b]$ .

417 Given these four features, we can now construct a fairly 436  
 418 unique quantum analogue of this model. Let us explain how 437  
 419 to do this<sup>5</sup>, 438

- 420 • The Hilbert space is given by the set of complex val- 439  
 421 ued functions on the interval (0,100), together with the 440  
 422 condition that these functions are normalisable. Strictly 441  
 423  $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{L}^2([0, 100])$ . These are just the infinite dimensional 442  
 424 analogues of column vectors. 443
- 425 • The initial state is a normalised state  $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ . 445
- The dynamics follow from the classical Hamiltonian. Sup- 446  
 427 pose we have  $H = f(x, p)$  where  $x$  and  $p$  are the classi- 448  
 428 cal position and momentum of the state. A typical exam- 449  
 429 ple might be a particle evolving in according to some po- 450  
 430 tential  $V(x)$  (representing the effect of evidence presented 451  
 431 maybe)  $H = p^2/2m + V(x)$ . To get the equivalent quan- 452  
 432 tum dynamics one makes the replacement<sup>6</sup>  $x \rightarrow \hat{x}$ ,  $p \rightarrow \hat{p}$ , 453  
 433 so  $H \rightarrow \hat{H} = \hat{p}^2/2m + V(\hat{x})$ . Here  $\hat{p}$  is the operator in 454  
 434 Hilbert spaces corresponding to momentum, in the  $x$  basis 455  
 435 it is given by  $-i\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$ . The dynamics are then given by the 456  
 Schrödinger equation, 457

$$-i\frac{\partial}{\partial t} |\psi\rangle = \hat{H} |\psi\rangle \quad (31)$$

- Finally, the observables are given by self adjoint operators 461  
 462 on  $\mathcal{H}$ , but the most important one is simply  $\hat{x}$ , which is the 463  
 464 operator corresponding to the confidence judgment. Typi- 465  
 466 cal judgments might be whether a participant's confidence 467  
 468 was between  $a\%$  and  $b\%$ , which corresponds to the pro- 469  
 469 jection operator, 470

$$\hat{P}_{[a,b]} = \int_a^b dx |x\rangle \langle x| \quad (32)$$

so that,

$$p(a, b) = \langle \psi | \hat{P}_{[a,b]} | \psi \rangle = \int_a^b dx |\psi(x)|^2 \quad (33)$$

426 So much for this ideal situation. In practice we are unlikely 475  
 427 to have a concrete classical model from which to work, and we 476  
 428 have to be considerably more inventive to set up our quantum 477  
 429 models. We will explain how to do this below. 478

### 430 3.3. Building quantum models from scratch 480

431 In the last section we saw that if one has a well defined classi- 481  
 432 cal model of decision making, setting up a quantum analogue is 482  
 433 a fairly straightforward process. However it is much more com- 483  
 434 mon in practice to approach a modelling problem with little or 484  
 435 no prior idea about how to model it. In this case one cannot start 485

with an existing classical model, and we need to find a different way to proceed.

The difficulty we face is not so much that it is hard to build a quantum model, but that it is hard to constrain the possible choices. For simple models this is rarely a problem, but as the number of, say, responses grows so does the number of possible ways of encoding these responses as vectors in a Hilbert space. For this reason what we will describe below is a reasonably algorithmic way to construct quantum models, but it may often be the case that the modeller has some extra information that suggests a particular structure to use. Remember that, provided a few simple rules are followed, it is hard to produce a model that is 'wrong' in the sense of not being a valid quantum system. Some degree of experimentation when building models is therefore fine, and may indeed be necessary to get a model which works well.

Here is a rough outline of how you might go about building a quantum model of a particular decision making process.

#### 3.4. Identify the observables

Identify all the observables/measurements/judgments you wish to include in your model. An observable must be defined for any state. Decide which of them you expect to be able to define simultaneously, and for each set of simultaneously well defined observables decide how many distinct states there are. In other words, identify the commuting subsets of your observables, and the associated eigenstates. If all observables commute you have a classical model.

As an example, suppose we have three variables,  $A$ ,  $\alpha$  and  $B$ . Suppose  $A$  can take values  $a_1, a_2$ ,  $\alpha$  can take values  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2$  and  $B$  can take values  $b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4$ . Suppose we expect to be able to define  $A$  and  $\alpha$  simultaneously, but we don't expect to be able to define either together with  $B$ . So our two sets of commuting observables are  $\{A, \alpha\}$  and  $\{B\}$ .

Now an important question is whether states with the same value of  $A$  might have different values of  $\alpha$  or vice versa. If this isn't the case then  $A$  and  $\alpha$  are simple functions of one another and that's not very interesting. Suppose instead that states with the same value of  $A$  can indeed have different values of  $\alpha$ . Then there are four possible states defined by the set  $\{A, \alpha\}$ , let's denote them  $\{|a_1, \alpha_1\rangle, |a_1, \alpha_2\rangle, |a_2, \alpha_1\rangle, |a_2, \alpha_2\rangle\}$ , where e.g. state  $|a_1, \alpha_1\rangle$  has value  $a_1$  for observable  $A$  and value  $\alpha_1$  for observable  $\alpha$ .

Once we have identified the sets of observables we can use these to determine  $\mathcal{H}$ .

#### Aside on degeneracy

One possibility we are ignoring here is that all the commuting subsets we generate may have degenerate eigenspaces.

It might happen that all eigenstates are degenerate because of some observable we have failed to account for. For example, as well as the operators  $A, \alpha, B$  there may be some fourth operator  $C$  which commutes with all the other operators and gives multiple possible flavours for all existing states, e.g.  $|b_1, c_1\rangle, |b_1, c_2\rangle, \dots$ . This could happen if there is a mismatch between the way a judgment is elicited and the way that observable is represented cognitively, e.g. we may ask participants to

<sup>5</sup>To avoid confusion, in this subsection we use hats to denote operators.

<sup>6</sup>This hides a multitude of sins. If the classical Hamiltonian contains terms like  $x^n p^m$  there is no unique quantisation, since classically this term does not depend on the order of  $x$  and  $p$ , whereas of course in quantum theory it does.



491 give preference judgments on a 1-9 scale when their preferences<sup>S546</sup>  
 492 are actually encoded on a 0-100 scale in the brain. <sup>547</sup>

493 Although it seems like this might be a problem, it is actually<sup>S548</sup>  
 494 unlikely to cause difficulty as long as the dynamics do not con-<sup>S549</sup>  
 495 tain interactions between  $C$  and other observables. However a<sup>S550</sup>  
 496 good general rule is to choose your observables to match the<sup>S551</sup>  
 497 way you think the quantities are encoded in the brain, and then<sup>S552</sup>  
 498 if necessary represent the measurements in a coarse grained<sup>S553</sup>  
 499 way as projection operators onto large dimensional subspaces. <sup>554</sup>

### 500 3.4.1. Identifying $\mathcal{H}$ <sup>555</sup>

501 For the sets of simultaneously definable observables, find the<sup>S557</sup>  
 502 set with the largest set of associated states. If two or more sets<sup>S558</sup>  
 503 of commuting observables tie for the largest number of states<sup>S559</sup>  
 504 then pick either, call this number  $D$ . Your Hilbert space then<sup>S560</sup>  
 505 must have  $D$  complex dimensions, or in other words  $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}^D$ . <sup>561</sup>

506 To go back to our example, it turns out our two sets of com-<sup>S562</sup>  
 507 muting observables  $\{A, \alpha\}$  and  $\{B\}$  have equal numbers of dis-<sup>S563</sup>  
 508 tinct states, four each, so we can work with either. Since the set<sup>S564</sup>  
 509  $\{B\}$  has four distinct states, we will need a 4D space for them<sup>S565</sup>  
 510 to live in. This means we need a Hilbert space of four complex<sup>S566</sup>  
 511 dimensions, so we have determined that  $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}^4$ .

512 What we have done here is used the spectral theorem for Her-  
 513 mitian operators in reverse (see the appendix). We know that  
 514 the eigenstates of an Hermitian operator span the Hilbert space  
 515 in which it lives. Thus if we know that we have an observable  
 516 with  $D$  distinct eigenvalues, that means it must live in a com-  
 517 plex space with at least dimension  $D$ . The trick is then to look  
 518 at our observables and find the one with the largest number of  
 519 eigenvalues, this gives the minimum dimension of our Hilbert  
 520 space. Care needs to be taken if we have commuting subsets<sup>S567</sup>  
 521 of observables, like  $A$  and  $\alpha$  above, since the number distinct<sup>S568</sup>  
 522 states now depends on the degeneracy. (e.g. if  $A$  and  $\alpha$  can<sup>S569</sup>  
 523 each take one of three possible values, the number of vectors<sup>S570</sup>  
 524 may vary between 3 and 9.) <sup>571</sup>

525 So in our example  $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}^4$  and the states<sup>S572</sup>  
 526  $\{|b_1\rangle, |b_2\rangle, |b_3\rangle, |b_4\rangle\}$  and  $\{|a_1, \alpha_1\rangle, |a_1, \alpha_2\rangle, |a_2, \alpha_1\rangle, |a_2, \alpha_2\rangle\}$ <sup>S573</sup>  
 527 form two orthonormal bases for  $\mathcal{H}$ . <sup>574</sup>

### 528 3.4.2. The relationship between the observables <sup>575</sup>

529 Now by construction the eigenstates of  $B$  and those of the pair<sup>S577</sup>  
 530  $\{A, \alpha\}$  span  $\mathcal{H}$ , so we already know two different bases for our<sup>S578</sup>  
 531 Hilbert space. The question is, what is the relationship between<sup>S579</sup>  
 532 the sets of bases? Or in other words, we started by assuming<sup>S580</sup>  
 533 that  $A$  and  $B$  could not be defined simultaneously, which means<sup>S581</sup>  
 534 that they won't commute as operators. So the question is, what<sup>S582</sup>  
 535 is their commutator? <sup>583</sup>

536 Well the short answer is that we can't tell you! This is<sup>S584</sup>  
 537 essentially where the maths ends and the psychologist's intu-<sup>S585</sup>  
 538 ition has to take over. Quantum cognitive theories, like any<sup>S586</sup>  
 539 other theory, require certain inputs from the modeller, and<sup>S587</sup>  
 540 one of these is the relationship between the observable quan-<sup>S588</sup>  
 541 tities. However although we can't tell you exactly how to<sup>S589</sup>  
 542 proceed, we can give you some clues about how to imple-<sup>S590</sup>  
 543 ment different choices. One comes from the fact that since<sup>S591</sup>  
 544 the two sets of vectors  $\{|a_1, \alpha_1\rangle, |a_1, \alpha_2\rangle, |a_2, \alpha_1\rangle, |a_2, \alpha_2\rangle\}$ , and<sup>S592</sup>  
 545  $\{|b_1\rangle, |b_2\rangle, |b_3\rangle, |b_4\rangle\}$  each form an orthonormal basis for  $\mathcal{H}$ ,<sup>S593</sup>

they must be related to each other by a unitary transform. A  
 unitary transformation in the space  $\mathbb{C}^D$  has  $D^2$  parameters, so  
 that gives us the maximum number of parameters to be fixed.  
 However this number will often be much lower in practice, be-  
 cause of simplifying assumptions we can make

Another is that we may sometimes be able to make simplifying  
 assumptions about the relationship between the states. Sup-  
 pose for example we are dealing with emotion states from two  
 different points of view, perhaps two different people, so that  
 our states are  $\{|Happy\rangle, |Sad\rangle, |Excited\rangle, |Scared\rangle\}$  from one  
 point of view, and  $\{|Happy'\rangle, |Sad'\rangle, |Excited'\rangle, |Scared'\rangle\}$   
 from a different point of view. It might be that we have rea-  
 son to believe that e.g.  $|Happy'\rangle$  is a mixture of  $|Happy\rangle$  and  
 $|Sad\rangle$  and  $|Excited'\rangle$  is a mixture of  $|Excited\rangle$  and  $|Scared\rangle$ , but  
 that the change of perspective doesn't mix e.g.  $|Happy\rangle$  and  
 $|Excited\rangle$ . The unitary transformation can then be split into two  
 separate transformations, each operating on a 2 dimensional  
 subspace, and the number of parameters drops from  $D^2 = 16$  to  
 $2 * 2^2 = 8$ . Another simplification occurs when we have a small  
 number of observables compared with the dimension of  $\mathcal{H}$ . We  
 may then be able to pick all our basis vectors to be real

A further special case is when we think the different bases  
 are maximally mixed, in the sense that a basis state from one  
 basis is a mixture of all basis states from the other basis, so that  
 there is equal probability to measure this state to be in any of  
 the basis states for the other basis. In other words, if we have  
 two bases  $\{|e_i\rangle\}$  and  $\{|f_j\rangle\}$  then,

$$\left| \langle e_i | f_j \rangle \right|^2 = \frac{1}{D}, \quad \forall i, j \in 1, 2, \dots, D \quad (34)$$

If our two bases have this property then they are called *mu-  
 tually unbiased* (mutually unbiased bases were introduced in,  
 Schwinger (1960). For a more recent review see Bengtsson  
 (2006)). There are only a fixed number of mutually unbiased  
 bases in a given Hilbert space, which means only a fixed num-  
 ber of options for choosing  $\{|f_j\rangle\}$  given  $\{|e_i\rangle\}$ . If the dimension  
 of the Hilbert space,  $D$ , is a power of a prime number, then the  
 number of mutually unbiased bases is  $D + 1$ . It is not known  
 how many mutually unbiased bases there are for general  $D$ , but  
 it is always less than or equal to  $D + 1$  (Durt, 2010). Thus in this  
 case there are only a finite set of possible choices for the basis  
 vectors.

What exactly does the choice of relation between observables  
 mean for a model? In a classical model all observable are *com-  
 patible*, which means they can be defined at the same time. In  
 quantum models observables are generally not compatible, and  
 they cannot be defined simultaneously. Assuming one wants to  
 use a quantum model in the first place, then presumably one  
 is looking for incompatibility. The relationship between ob-  
 servables in a particular model therefore determines two things;  
 how much incompatibility one has, and whether the incompati-  
 bility occurs equally across all states of those observables.

As we will show for a specific example in Section 4, the de-  
 gree of incompatibility, measured through non-commutation or  
 order effects, depends on the overall size of the unitary rotation  
 between bases for  $A$  and  $B$ . However if the unitary transforma-  
 tion does not effect all basis states equally, it might be the case

594 that, for example, some subset of the possible outcomes of  $A$  643  
 595 commutes with a subset of the possible outcomes of  $B$ , so that 644  
 596 although the observables are technically incompatible this may 645  
 597 not be the case when acting on all possible states. In general 646  
 598 deciding on the relationship between a given set of observables 647  
 599 is a hard problem, that needs a lot of psychological insight to 648  
 600 solve successfully. 649

### 601 3.4.3. Identifying the initial state 651

602 The initial state is straightforward to identify, at least in the 652  
 603 ory. The initial state can be fixed from the probabilities for the 653  
 604 outcomes of measurements. So if one knows the initial mea- 654  
 605 surement probabilities, one can identify the state. 655

606 The problem is that there are  $2D - 2$  free parameters in a pure 656  
 607 quantum state, and  $D^2 - 1$  in a general density operator. By 657  
 608 contrast, a complete set of measurements can fix at most  $D - 1$  658  
 609 parameters (see appendix for information on how to compute 659  
 610 these). Thus to fix all the parameters of a pure state we need 659  
 611 probabilities for at least two non-commuting observables, and 660  
 612 we will need many more than that to fix a density operator. 661

613 However, this is almost never the way things are done in prac-  
 614 tice. Usually we set the initial state to be a particular eigenstate  
 615 of one observable. How can we get away with this? The answer  
 616 lies in recognising that because measurements change the state  
 617 via the collapse postulate, measurements can be thought of a  
 618 equivalent to state preparation (Peres, 1998).

619 Suppose we have a  $D$  dimensional Hilbert space with some 662  
 620 unknown initial cognitive state  $|\psi\rangle$  and an observable  $A$  with 663  
 621 eigenvectors  $|a_1\rangle, |a_2\rangle \dots$ . If we perform a measurement of the 664  
 622 observable  $A$  on the initial cognitive state and get the result  $a_1$ , 665  
 623 then we know that the cognitive state has now collapsed to  $|a_1\rangle$ .  
 624 Thus we can use an initial measurement as a priming, to fix the  
 625 cognitive state. Assuming not all participants give the same answer  
 626 to this initial question, they will not all be in the same state  
 627 afterwards. We can deal with this in one of two ways; if there  
 628 is an extremely high probability of participants giving one answer,  
 629 say  $a_1$ , then we can simply screen out any participant who  
 630 answers otherwise. Our cognitive state is then  $\rho = |a_1\rangle\langle a_1|$ .

If, on the other hand, there are a spread of likely answers, we  
 can either model each participant separately with a cognitive  
 state corresponding to his/her initial answer, or we can use the  
 density operator,

$$\rho = \sum_i \omega_i |a_i\rangle\langle a_i| \quad (35)$$

631 where the  $\{\omega_i\}$  are equal to the probabilities that participants  
 632 give each of the possible answers  $\{a_i\}$  to the initial question. A  
 633 special case of this is when there is equal likelihood of partici- 666  
 634 pants being in any of the  $|a_i\rangle$ , in which case the most appropri- 667  
 635 ate initial state is the completely mixed state, corresponding to 668  
 636 maximum ignorance,  $\rho = \frac{1}{D} \mathbb{I}$ .

637 We can then take this idea further. Suppose we have good 669  
 638 reason to believe participants would, with extremely high prob- 670  
 639 ability, answer the initial question in a particular way. One ex- 671  
 640 ample might be if our experimental set up was something like 672  
 641 a jury trial, and the initial question was prior to the presenta- 673  
 642 tion of any evidence, since participants should overwhelmingly 674

prefer innocent to guilty in the absence of any evidence. In  
 this case since we are close to certain that participants would  
 respond innocent if questioned, we can say their initial state  
 must be very close to the ‘innocent’ eigenvector. However this  
 rapidly becomes unreliable as our confidence in what the initial  
 judgment would be drops from 100%. This is, in its simplest  
 form, because it is impossible to tell the difference between a  
 superposition of the form  $\sqrt{a}|0\rangle + \sqrt{1-a}|1\rangle$  and a mixed state  
 of the form  $a|0\rangle\langle 0| + (1-a)|1\rangle\langle 1|$  by only measuring in the  
 $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$  basis.

Nevertheless, the key is that the application of some quan-  
 tum know how together with some psychological intuition can  
 usually help us to identify the initial cognitive state in a straight-  
 forward manner.

### 651 3.4.4. Identifying the dynamics 651

652 We shall briefly talk though how the dynamics might be spec- 652  
 653 ified. In the same way as for the initial state above we shall 653  
 654 begin with the technical story, and then we shall show how the 654  
 655 problem can be simplified with some psychological intuition. 655

656 Evolution is generated by a Hermitian operator, the Hamilto- 656  
 657 nian. For finite dimensional systems this is an  $D \times D$  Hermitian 657  
 658 matrix, and thus has  $D^2$  parameters. We can fix some of these 658  
 659 parameters by using the transition probabilities,

$$p(i \rightarrow j; t) = |\langle j|U(t)|i\rangle|^2 \quad (36)$$

660 There are  $D^2/2$  of these transition probabilities, so we either 660  
 661 need them for two different bases, or for the same basis at two 661  
 662 different times. In theory we know this information if we know 662  
 663 the expected dynamics.

664 In practice, in much the same way as we could assume a 664  
 665 simplified form for the initial state, we can probably assume a 665  
 666 simplified form for the dynamics. A standard assumption is that 666  
 667 the dynamics of a quantum system functions like a transforma- 667  
 668 tion between two known bases. e.g. it might rotate the states 668  
 669  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$  to the states  $\{|+\rangle, |-\rangle\}$  after some total time  $T$ . This 669  
 670 means,

$$U(T)|0\rangle = |+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \quad (37)$$

so we can take,

$$U(T) = \exp\left(-i\frac{\pi}{4}\sigma_y\right) \quad (38)$$

thus we conclude,

$$U(t) = \exp\left(-i\frac{\pi t}{4T}\sigma_y\right) \quad (39)$$

671 Again, we have seen that with some psychology intuition 671  
 672 about the expected dynamics, we can fix the unitary operator 672  
 673 controlling evolution fairly simply.

### 674 3.5. The interpretation of quantum theory 674

675 Despite all that we have said above, it is reasonable to feel 675  
 676 like we have not really scratched the surface of what quantum 676  
 677 theory *means* as a theory of cognition. What does superposi- 677  
 678 tion really mean? Why are certain variables incompatible and 678  
 679 what does that mean for the way they are actually encoded in 679

675 the brain? If wave function collapse is not exactly Bayesian up-  
 676 dating then what is it? These questions about the meaning of  
 677 the theory are in some ways the most interesting and important.

678 Unfortunately we cannot cover these questions in this tutorial.  
 679 The reason is essentially twofold; first, the primary purpose  
 680 of this tutorial is to explain how to use quantum theory to  
 681 model certain effects. Furthermore, addressing the meaning of  
 682 the theory is generally best done once one has a good grasp of  
 683 the way the theory works in practice, and so it is more profitable  
 684 for the reader to return to this question once they have  
 685 more experience with how the theory is used.

686 Second, there is in fact no general agreement on how to interpret  
 687 quantum theory as a theory of cognition. The confusion is partly  
 688 inherited from physics, since the interpretation of quantum theory  
 689 in physics is hardly without controversy, but it is also worsened  
 690 by the fact that quantum theory is generally regarded as an *effective*  
 691 theory of cognition, where the actually neuroprocessing may take  
 692 place in an essentially classical way. Thus, in cognition, quantum  
 693 theory is regarded as an effective theory possibly arising from an  
 694 underlying classical process. For various reasons this cannot be the  
 695 case in physics (Isham, 1995; Bell, 2004), and thus it is not obvious  
 696 whether the interpretative framework associated with quantum theory  
 697 can be directly imported to quantum cognition in the same way  
 698 as the mathematics (see Blutner and beim Graben (2014); beim  
 699 Graben and Atmanspacher (2006) for some attempts to interpret  
 700 quantum cognition as arising directly from classical neuro-  
 701 physics). We hope that further research will help us to understand  
 702 why quantum theory works, and what it tells us about the  
 703 underlying process of cognition.  
 704

#### 705 4. Order Effects I

706 The basic framework we have outlined so far can be used  
 707 to build quantum models for any particular set up one wishes.  
 708 However it is useful to look at specific examples to see how the  
 709 theory works in practice. For the rest of this tutorial we will  
 710 therefore focus on the particular example of order effects, but  
 711 bear in mind this is just one possible application of these ideas.

Order effects are a central feature of quantum theory because  
 of the non-commutation of operators. Recall; if  $A$  and  $B$  are  
 two operators on  $\mathcal{H}$  then the commutator  $[A, B]$  is defined as,

$$\begin{aligned} [\cdot, \cdot] : \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H} &\rightarrow \mathcal{H} \\ [A, B] &\rightarrow AB - BA \end{aligned} \quad (40)$$

712  $A$  and  $B$  are said to *commute* if  $[A, B] = 0$ . Otherwise they are  
 713 said to be non-commuting.

714 Most operators in quantum theory do not commute with each  
 715 other, and thus the order in which they are evaluated matters. If  
 716 the two operators represent two possible survey questions, for  
 717 example, then a lack of commutation means that the expected  
 718 answers these questions depends on the order in which they are  
 719 asked. Thus quantum theory can naturally incorporate order effects  
 720 via non-commuting operators (Atmanspacher and Römer, 2012).  
 721

As an example, let us consider a two dimensional Hilbert  
 space spanned by  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ , and two projection operators given  
 by

$$P_0 = |0\rangle\langle 0|, \quad P_+ = \frac{1}{2}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)(\langle 0| + \langle 1|). \quad (41)$$

A striking example of order effects in this case occurs when the  
 initial state is  $|\psi\rangle = |1\rangle$ . We have

$$p(+, 0) = |P_0 P_+ |1\rangle|^2 = \left| \frac{1}{2}(|0\rangle\langle 0| + |0\rangle\langle 1|)|1\rangle \right|^2 = \frac{1}{4} \quad (42)$$

but,

$$p(0, +) = |P_+ P_0 |1\rangle|^2 = \left| \frac{1}{2}(|0\rangle\langle 0| + |1\rangle\langle 0|)|1\rangle \right|^2 = 0. \quad (43)$$

If we examine the commutator, we see,

$$\begin{aligned} P_0 P_+ &= \frac{1}{2}(|0\rangle\langle 0| + |0\rangle\langle 1|) \\ P_+ P_0 &= \frac{1}{2}(|0\rangle\langle 0| + |1\rangle\langle 0|) \end{aligned} \quad (44)$$

so

$$[P_0, P_+] = \frac{1}{2}(|0\rangle\langle 1| - |1\rangle\langle 0|) \neq 0 \quad (45)$$

However this masks a more complicated structure. The com-  
 mutator of two operators is itself an operator. There may be  
 some states for which the expectation value of this operator is  
 0, and thus for which the order of operations does not matter,  
 even though the commutator does not vanish identically. In-  
 deed, it is easy to see that,

$$\langle 0|[P_0, P_+]|0\rangle = \langle 1|[P_0, P_+]|1\rangle = 0 \quad (46)$$

On the other hand, we can show that the largest order effects  
 come from the two eigenstates of the commutator,  $|\pm i\rangle$ , where,

$$|+i\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + i|1\rangle), \quad |-i\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - i|1\rangle) \quad (47)$$

and we have <sup>7</sup>,

$$\langle \pm i|[P_0, P_+]|\pm i\rangle = \pm \frac{i}{2}. \quad (48)$$

In addition we have the following very important property:  
 Consider any two operators  $A$  and  $B$ , and look at the average  
 value of their commutator across a complete basis of  $\mathcal{H}$ . This  
 is equivalent to computing the expectation value of the com-  
 mutator in a state where  $\rho = \frac{1}{D}\mathbb{1}$ . Such a state corresponds to  
 an ensemble where participants are equally likely to be in any  
 initial knowledge state, i.e. there are no privileged states. We  
 see,

$$\text{Tr}([A, B]\mathbb{1}) = \text{Tr}(AB - BA) = 0. \quad (49)$$

In other words, this type of order effect averages out across  
 Hilbert space. The presence of a particular order effect is there-  
 fore as much about the initial state as it is about the operators

<sup>7</sup>It is easy to see that for two Hermitian operators  $A$  and  $B$ ,  $[A, B]$  is *anti-Hermitian*, i.e.  $[A, B]^\dagger = -[A, B]$ . Anti-Hermitian operators have pure imaginary eigenvalues, a fact that follows from a simple modification of Theorem 1 of the Appendix.

725 in question. (We will see in a later section an example of a dif-  
726 ferent type of order effect which does not average out in this  
727 way.)

The discussion so far might lead you to conclude that com-  
mutation is a binary property, two operators either commute or  
they do not. This is technically true, but it is more helpful to  
think of commutation as a continuum. To explore this let's con-  
sider the projection operator  $P_\theta$ , defined by

$$P_\theta = U(\theta)P_0U(\theta)^\dagger \quad (50)$$

where, in the basis  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ ,

$$U(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{pmatrix}, \quad (51)$$

so  $P_\theta$  is a unitary rotation of  $P_0$ . In the basis  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$  we have,

$$P_\theta = \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2(\theta) & \sin(\theta)\cos(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta)\cos(\theta) & \sin^2(\theta) \end{pmatrix} \quad (52)$$

We can show,

$$[P_0, P_\theta] = \frac{1}{2} \sin(2\theta) \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (53)$$

The eigenvectors of  $[P_0, P_\theta]$  are equal to the eigenvectors of  
 $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ , i.e. they are the same as  $|\pm i\rangle$  above, but the eigenvalues  
are now given by  $\lambda_\pm = \pm \frac{i \sin(2\theta)}{2}$ . The maximum order effects that  
we can observe are therefore given by,

$$\langle \pm i | [P_0, P_\theta] | \pm i \rangle = \frac{\pm i}{2} \sin(2\theta). \quad (54)$$

728 Therefore although strictly  $P_0$  and  $P_\theta$  do not commute unless-  
729  $\theta$  is a multiple of  $\pi/2$ , there is a sense in which they *approx-*  
730 *imately* commute for values of  $\theta$  close to these. In a realistic-  
731 experiment with some low level of noise in the experimental-  
732 data, for these values of  $\theta$  the maximum possible order effects-  
733 may be too small to observe against the noise.

Now thus far we have been interested in the expected value-  
of commutators as a measure of order effects. However when-  
we perform a sequence of measurements of two observables,  $A$ -  
and  $B$  this is not in fact what we obtain. Rather the probability-  
of getting a positive result for the measurement of  $A$  followed-  
by a positive one for the measurement of  $B$  is given by,

$$p(A \text{ and then } B) = \text{Tr}(P_B P_A \rho P_A) = |P_B P_A |\psi\rangle|^2 \quad (55)$$

where the second equality holds when the initial knowledge-  
state is pure. The probability for the same measurements in-  
the opposite order is given by,

$$p(B \text{ and then } A) = \text{Tr}(P_A P_B \rho P_B) = |P_A P_B |\psi\rangle|^2 \quad (56)$$

We are therefore interested in the quantity,

$$\begin{aligned} p(A \text{ and then } B) - p(B \text{ and then } A) \\ = \text{Tr}(P_B P_A \rho P_A) - \text{Tr}(P_A P_B \rho P_B) \\ = \text{Tr}(\{P_A P_B P_A - P_B P_A P_B\} \rho) \end{aligned} \quad (57)$$

The order effect we will observe in a measurement therefore  
depends on the operator  $P_A P_B P_A - P_B P_A P_B$ . Note that this op-  
erator is Hermitian. Using the same 2D Hilbert space as above,  
and taking  $P_A = P_0$  and  $P_B = P_\theta$  we can show, in the  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$   
basis,

$$P_0 P_\theta P_0 - P_\theta P_0 P_\theta = \cos^2(\theta) \sin(\theta) \begin{pmatrix} \sin(\theta) & -\cos(\theta) \\ -\cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \end{pmatrix} \quad (58)$$

The eigenvalues of this operator can be easily, if somewhat te-  
diously, shown to be,

$$\lambda_\pm = \pm \cos^2(\theta) \sin(\theta) \quad (59)$$

The eigenvectors can be computed if required, but they are not  
necessary here. The key is that the maximum possible order  
effects that we can observe are given by the eigenvalues of this  
operator.

It is worth looking in more detail at how these eigenvalues  
behave with different values of  $\theta$ . Firstly they are zero for  $\theta =$   
 $0, \pi/2$  as expected. The maximum value is,

$$\begin{aligned} \max(\cos^2(\theta) \sin(\theta)) = \\ \sin\left(2 \tan^{-1}\left(\sqrt{5-2\sqrt{6}}\right)\right) \cos^2\left(2 \tan^{-1}\left(\sqrt{5-2\sqrt{6}}\right)\right) \\ \approx 0.385 \end{aligned} \quad (60)$$

Which occurs at

$$\theta = 2 \tan^{-1}\left(\sqrt{5-2\sqrt{6}}\right) \approx 35.2^\circ \quad (61)$$

Somewhat surprisingly then, the angle between the projectors  
 $P_0$  and  $P_\theta$  at which the measured order effect is maximised is  
not the same as the angle at which the commutator attains its  
maximum value, which recall was  $\pi/4$  radians or  $45^\circ$ . Also, the  
maximum possible order effect, in the sense of the difference  
between the probabilities  $p(A \text{ and then } B)$  and  $p(B \text{ and then } A)$   
is limited to about .385. This is significant because logically,  
since the probabilities themselves are bounded by 0, 1, one  
might have expected to be able to produce order effects of any  
size from 0 to 1.

So far in this section, we have glimpsed how order effects  
may be modelled, and we have seen that there are some non-  
trivial restrictions on the type of effects that can be accounted  
for. In the next section we will introduce a precise test of the  
quantum account of order effects which allows the quantum ac-  
count to be compared with other models.

## 5. Order Effects 2

Designing a theory to fit existing data is relatively easy. What  
is much harder is to develop an a priori or parameter free test  
of a theory which would allow the theory to be falsified. As we  
will now show, quantum theory is very constrained with respect  
to the types of order effects it can account for. This leads to a  
remarkable equality between various probabilities which must

be satisfied if the probabilities are to be explained by quantum theory (Wang and Busemeyer, 2013; Wang et al., 2014).

Our aim in this section is to show in detail how this constraint, which is known as the Quantum Question, or QQ Equality, is derived. The derivation in the original papers was rather long, here we will make use of the machinery of quantum theory we have discussed in this tutorial to give a simpler and hopefully more transparent derivation.

Suppose we have two different measurements we can perform,  $A$  or  $B$ , and crucially these measurements have two possible outcomes,  $A, \bar{A}$  and  $B, \bar{B}$ . Denote the projection operators corresponding to these measurement outcomes as  $P_A, P_{\bar{A}}, P_B, P_{\bar{B}}$ , with  $P_A + P_{\bar{A}} = P_B + P_{\bar{B}} = \mathbb{I}$ . Let's write the probabilities associated with these measurements as  $p(A, B), p(\bar{A}, \bar{B})...$  where  $p(A, B) = Tr(P_B P_A \rho P_A)$  etc.

Now since these measurements don't necessarily commute,

$$p(A, B) \neq p(B, A) \quad (62)$$

However, slightly unexpectedly, the following is true,

$$p(A, B) + p(\bar{A}, \bar{B}) - p(B, A) - p(\bar{B}, \bar{A}) = 0 \quad (63)$$

This is the QQ Equality (Wang and Busemeyer, 2013). (This equality also holds if we relabel  $A \leftrightarrow \bar{A}$ , or  $B \leftrightarrow \bar{B}$ , and the original form of the equality given in Wang and Busemeyer (2013), Wang et al. (2014) had  $B \leftrightarrow \bar{B}$ , but the form given above is better to see the essential symmetry of the equality.)

The QQ Equality holds because the following operator is identically zero,

$$P_A P_B P_A + P_{\bar{A}} P_{\bar{B}} P_{\bar{A}} - P_B P_A P_B - P_{\bar{B}} P_{\bar{A}} P_{\bar{B}} = 0 \quad (64)$$

We give a proof of this below.

This derivation makes use of the properties of commutators and projection operators, which together imply,

$$\begin{aligned} [P_A, P_B] &= [P_A, (1 - P_{\bar{B}})] = -[P_A, P_{\bar{B}}] = [P_{\bar{B}}, P_A] \\ &= -[P_{\bar{B}}, P_{\bar{A}}] = [P_{\bar{A}}, P_{\bar{B}}] \text{ etc.} \end{aligned} \quad (65)$$

Note however that the use of commutators is just a mathematical convenience.

Now for the derivation. We begin with,

$$[P_A, P_B] - [P_A, P_B] = 0 \quad (66)$$

Inserting two copies of the identity gives,

$$[P_A, P_B] P_A + [P_A, P_B] P_{\bar{A}} - P_B [P_A, P_B] - P_{\bar{B}} [P_A, P_B] = 0 \quad (67)$$

Now we use the property of the commutator noted above, to get,

$$[P_A, P_B] P_A + [P_{\bar{A}}, P_{\bar{B}}] P_{\bar{A}} - P_B [P_A, P_B] - P_{\bar{B}} [P_{\bar{A}}, P_{\bar{B}}] = 0 \quad (68)$$

Expanding out the commutators gives,

$$P_A P_B P_A + P_{\bar{A}} P_{\bar{B}} P_{\bar{A}} - P_B P_A P_B - P_{\bar{B}} P_{\bar{A}} P_{\bar{B}} = 0 \quad (69)$$

which is Eq.(64). Since this operator is identically zero, it follows that for any density operator  $\rho$ ,

$$Tr((P_A P_B P_A + P_{\bar{A}} P_{\bar{B}} P_{\bar{A}} - P_B P_A P_B - P_{\bar{B}} P_{\bar{A}} P_{\bar{B}})\rho) = 0 \quad (70)$$

By the linearity and cyclic property of the trace this gives,

$$p(A, B) + p(\bar{A}, \bar{B}) - p(B, A) - p(\bar{B}, \bar{A}) = 0 \quad (71)$$

Where  $p(A, B) = Tr(P_B P_A \rho P_A)$  etc.

This QQ Equality was first introduced by Wang and Busemeyer (2013), and it was strongly supported experimentally in a very compelling paper by Wang et al. (2014). That the QQ Equality is obeyed by real world data is surprising in view of the fact that it does not follow from general contextual probability theories, but can only (apparently) be derived assuming the particular structures of quantum theory. This means observing that the QQ Equality is obeyed in the wild provides very good evidence that human decision-making can be described by quantum theory in particular, rather than just a contextual probability theory in general.

It is worth asking exactly what properties of quantum theory the derivation relies on. That is, exactly what properties does the QQ Equality test? The key ones appear to be the properties of the projection operators representing measurements, specifically the fact that they are orthogonal and idempotent. This raises the question of whether the QQ Equality still holds if the measurement operators do not have these 'ideal' properties, such as one might expect to be appropriate for more realistic measurements. We will address this question in a later section.

Another property that this derivation relied upon was that the measurements had binary outcomes. Despite extensive work, we have not been able to prove a generalisation of this result for measurements with more than two possible outcomes. It remains unclear whether any such analogue exists, but it would obviously be of huge interest to resolve this question.

## 6. A brief introduction to POVMs

The measurements we have been dealing with so far are *ideal* measurements, in the sense that they are perfectly idempotent and perfectly orthogonal. This means if the cognitive state of a participant happens to be an eigenstate  $|a_i\rangle$  of an operator  $A$ , if we perform a measurement of the observable represented by  $A$  we will get the result  $a_i$  with probability 1.

Realistic experiments are never this straightforward, and there is always some irreducible noise that means that real measurements are not exactly ideal. The reason for this could be as simple as the presence of response errors; for example if an experiment is performed under conditions where speed is emphasised. Alternatively noise could enter because different response options are not viewed as orthogonal, or because it is impossible to separate out the cognitive variable one is interested in from others which are also effectively 'measured' when a decision is made. In order to account for this we need to generalise the ideal measurements we have been using so far. The correct way to do this in quantum theory is via the use of what

are known as *Positive Operator Valued Measures* or POVMs for short.

This tutorial is not the place to give a full introduction to POVM measurements<sup>8</sup>. However the noise inherent in realistic measurements can play an important part in determining whether we observe order effects in experiments, and it is therefore worth presenting a bare bones account that will enable us to see how noise in the measurements interacts with order effects.

Suppose we wish to model an experiment where we have participants express a preference for one of two alternatives,  $A$  or  $B$ , and that these are exhaustive and exclusive alternatives. In an ideal measurement these would be represented by projection operators  $P_0 = |0\rangle\langle 0|$ ,  $P_1 = |1\rangle\langle 1|$ . Suppose instead our measurement isn't ideal but, intentionally or otherwise, is subject to some noise. This means some participants who really prefer 0 will select option 1, and vice versa.

Let's see how we might model this. What we want is an operator  $E_0$ , whose expectation value in the state  $|0\rangle$  is close to one, but which also has a non-zero expectation value in the state  $|1\rangle$ , and likewise for  $E_1$ . That is,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle 0|E_0|0\rangle &= 1 - \epsilon, & \langle 1|E_0|1\rangle &= \epsilon, \\ \langle 0|E_1|0\rangle &= \epsilon, & \langle 1|E_1|1\rangle &= 1 - \epsilon. \end{aligned} \quad (72)$$

Where  $0 \leq \epsilon \leq 1$  is some small error probability<sup>9</sup>. Let us also assume,

$$\langle 0|E_0|1\rangle = 0, \text{ etc.} \quad (73)$$

In the basis  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$  these operators can therefore be written as,

$$E_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \epsilon & 0 \\ 0 & \epsilon \end{pmatrix}, \quad E_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon & 0 \\ 0 & 1 - \epsilon \end{pmatrix}. \quad (74)$$

Can we use these operators to describe a measurement process? It is easily seen that they are not projection operators, nevertheless they satisfy the following properties,

- They are *positive* operators, which means they have positive eigenvalues.
- They are *complete*, in the sense that  $E_0 + E_1 = \mathbb{1}$ , where recall,  $\mathbb{1}$  is the identity operator over  $\mathcal{H}$ .

These properties mean that for any density operator,

$$0 \leq \text{Tr}(E_i\rho) \leq 1 \quad (75)$$

and

$$\sum_{i=0,1} \text{Tr}(E_i\rho) = 1 \quad (76)$$

<sup>8</sup>The best book JMY has read on POVMs is Busch et al. (1995), however this is currently out of print. A popular alternative is Nielsen and Chuang (2000). See also Yearsley (in preparation).

<sup>9</sup>An important point here is that we are assuming the errors are *unbiased*, i.e. the probability of incorrectly answering 1 when the state is  $|0\rangle$  is the same as the probability of incorrectly answering 0 when the state is  $|1\rangle$ . This need not hold in general, but this would describe a something other than pure noise, so we will ignore this possibility here.

The quantities  $\text{Tr}(E_i\rho)$  can thus be interpreted as probabilities, and so  $E_0$  and  $E_1$  are good candidates to describe a measurement process.

But what measurement process do they describe? Well there are many ways to think about this, but probably the easiest is to note that we can write,

$$E_0 = (1 - \epsilon)P_0 + \epsilon P_1, \quad E_1 = \epsilon P_0 + (1 - \epsilon)P_1. \quad (77)$$

In other words, we can write these operators like,

$$E_0 = \sum_i p_0(i)P_i \quad (78)$$

where  $p_0(i)$  have (loosely) the interpretation of probabilities. So one way to think about these measurements is that instead of performing a measurement  $P_0$ , we instead perform one of the possible measurements  $P_i$  with some probabilities  $p_0(i)$ . So these measurements look like noisy versions of ideal ones.

$E_0$  and  $E_1$  are specific examples of elements of POVMs. The probability that a measurement described by  $E_i$  gives a positive answer is then given by,

$$p(i) = \text{Tr}(E_i\rho). \quad (79)$$

Suppose we perform a measurement of  $E_i$ , what is the resulting state after the measurement? Writing,

$$E_i = M_i^\dagger M_i \quad (80)$$

we can show that if we get a positive answer to the measurement described by  $E_i$  then the state collapses to,

$$\rho' = \frac{M_i\rho M_i^\dagger}{\text{Tr}(E_i\rho)}. \quad (81)$$

The  $M_i$  are often called 'measurement operators'. The decomposition of  $E_i$  into  $M_i$  is not unique; there in fact many different *realisations* of a given POVM in terms of a set of measurement operators  $M_i$ . We ignore this issue here, and simply take the simplest,  $M_i = \sqrt{E_i}$ . For more details see Yearsley (in preparation); Busch et al. (1995).

To return to our example above, in the basis  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$  the measurement operator associated with  $E_0$  will be,

$$M_0 = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{1 - \epsilon} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{\epsilon} \end{pmatrix} \quad (82)$$

which is nice and simple.

## 7. Order Effects and POVMs

We are now ready to explore the extent to which the presence and size of order effects depends on whether the measurements are perfect. We will start with the simple case, and then move on to consider whether the QQ Equality still holds for imperfect measurements.

We will replace the projection operators  $P_A, P_B$ , with the following POVMs<sup>10</sup>,

$$\begin{aligned} P_B &\rightarrow E_B = \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon & 0 \\ 0 & 1 - \epsilon \end{pmatrix} \\ P_+ &\rightarrow E_+ = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1-2\epsilon}{2} \\ \frac{1-2\epsilon}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned} \quad (83)$$

These have associated measurement operators,

$$\begin{aligned} M_B &= \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{\epsilon} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{1-\epsilon} \end{pmatrix} \\ M_+ &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{1-\epsilon} + \sqrt{\epsilon}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{1-\epsilon} - \sqrt{\epsilon}}{2} \\ \frac{\sqrt{1-\epsilon} - \sqrt{\epsilon}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{1-\epsilon} + \sqrt{\epsilon}}{2} \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned} \quad (84)$$

Now we can see that,

$$\begin{aligned} p_\epsilon(+ \text{ and then } B) &= \text{Tr}(E_B M_+ \rho M_+) \\ &= \frac{1}{4} (1 - 2(1 - 2\epsilon) \sqrt{\epsilon} \sqrt{1 - \epsilon}) \end{aligned} \quad (85)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} p_\epsilon(B \text{ and then } +) &= \text{Tr}(E_+ M_B \rho M_B) \\ &= \frac{\epsilon}{2} \end{aligned} \quad (86)$$

We plot these results against the value of  $\epsilon$  in Fig.(1). The results are interesting. The key is that the difference in the values of the probabilities (plotted as the dotted line) decreases sharply with increasing  $\epsilon$ , i.e. with increasing noise. Note however that the value of  $\epsilon$  is interpretable in terms of the ‘error’ probability of the measurement. Realistic experiments would probably have values of  $\epsilon$  in the range 1-5%, and so order effects are still likely to be visible in such experiments, although they might appear smaller than one might have expected.

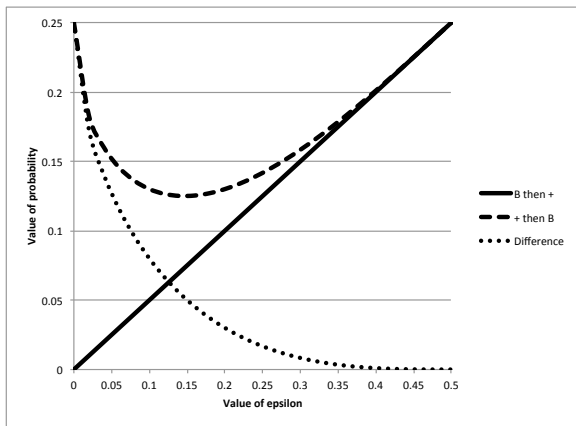


Figure 1:  $p_\epsilon(B \text{ and then } +)$ ,  $p_\epsilon(+ \text{ and then } B)$ , and their difference, plotted against  $\epsilon$ .

<sup>10</sup>Readers are encouraged to convince themselves  $E_+$  is reasonable. Either start with  $E_B$  and rotate through  $\pi/4$ , or consider a combination of  $P_+$  and  $P_-$  as in Eq.(78).

We don't have space here to pursue this further, but it is clear that small amounts of noise will still allow order effects to be observed, even though very large amounts of noise rapidly kill off such effects. This has important implications for studies looking for these effects in the wild.

If the noise inherent in realistic measurements can kill off order effects, can it also disrupt the important QQ Equality that we introduced previously to test the quantum explanation for such effects? It is obviously vital to know the answer to this if we want to understand whether we expect to see this equality obeyed under realistic conditions.

What we want to do is to examine what happens to the operator in Eq.(64) when we replace the projectors with POVMs. Clearly the derivation that led to Eq.(64) will no longer hold, but it is unclear whether this means the equality is no longer valid.

We are going to restrict ourselves in what follows to a very simple class of POVMs, in particular we will take, in the basis  $\{|A\rangle, |\bar{A}\rangle\}$

$$E_A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \epsilon & 0 \\ 0 & \epsilon \end{pmatrix}, \quad E_{\bar{A}} = \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon & 0 \\ 0 & 1 - \epsilon \end{pmatrix}. \quad (87)$$

and in the basis  $\{|B\rangle, |\bar{B}\rangle\}$

$$E_B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \eta & 0 \\ 0 & \eta \end{pmatrix}, \quad E_{\bar{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} \eta & 0 \\ 0 & 1 - \eta \end{pmatrix}. \quad (88)$$

We will also chose the measurement operators to have a simple form. Eg in the  $\{|A\rangle, |\bar{A}\rangle\}$  basis

$$M_A = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{1-\epsilon} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{\epsilon} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (89)$$

This is useful because it means we can write,

$$E_A = (1 - \epsilon)P_A + \epsilon P_{\bar{A}}, \quad M_A = \sqrt{1-\epsilon}P_A + \sqrt{\epsilon}P_{\bar{A}} \quad (90)$$

etc. This choice of POVM is special because of the fact that the  $E_A$  etc can be written as sums of commuting projection operators. This means they are in some sense very close in behaviour to the more usual projective measurements<sup>11</sup>. The significance of this is discussed in Busch et al. (1995).

We will now see what happens when we replace the projectors with POVMs in Eq.(64). We will use the trick of replacing the POVMs with sums of projection operators, as above. This then lets us write,

$$\begin{aligned} &M_A E_B M_A + M_{\bar{A}} E_{\bar{B}} M_{\bar{A}} - M_B E_A M_B - M_{\bar{B}} E_{\bar{A}} M_{\bar{B}} = \\ &(\sqrt{1-\epsilon}P_A + \sqrt{\epsilon}P_{\bar{A}})((1-\eta)P_B + \eta P_{\bar{B}})(\sqrt{1-\epsilon}P_A + \sqrt{\epsilon}P_{\bar{A}}) \\ &+ (\sqrt{\epsilon}P_A + \sqrt{1-\epsilon}P_{\bar{A}})(\eta P_B + (1-\eta)P_{\bar{B}})(\sqrt{\epsilon}P_A + \sqrt{1-\epsilon}P_{\bar{A}}) \\ &- (\sqrt{1-\eta}P_B + \sqrt{\eta}P_{\bar{B}})((1-\epsilon)P_A + \epsilon P_{\bar{A}})(\sqrt{1-\eta}P_B + \sqrt{\eta}P_{\bar{B}}) \\ &- (\sqrt{\eta}P_B + \sqrt{1-\eta}P_{\bar{B}})(\epsilon P_A + (1-\epsilon)P_{\bar{A}})(\sqrt{\eta}P_B + \sqrt{1-\eta}P_{\bar{B}}) \end{aligned} \quad (91)$$

<sup>11</sup>We are grateful to an anonymous referee for emphasising this point.

Some rather tedious algebra gives,

$$\begin{aligned}
& M_A E_B M_A + M_{\bar{A}} E_{\bar{B}} M_{\bar{A}} - M_B E_A M_B - M_{\bar{B}} E_{\bar{A}} M_{\bar{B}} = \\
& (P_A P_B P_A + P_{\bar{A}} P_{\bar{B}} P_{\bar{A}} - P_B P_A P_B - P_{\bar{B}} P_{\bar{A}} P_{\bar{B}})((1 - \epsilon)(1 - \eta) + \epsilon\eta) \\
& + (P_A P_{\bar{B}} P_A + P_{\bar{A}} P_B P_{\bar{A}} - P_B P_{\bar{A}} P_B - P_{\bar{B}} P_A P_{\bar{B}})((1 - \epsilon)\eta + \epsilon(1 - \eta)) \\
& + (P_A P_B P_{\bar{A}} + P_{\bar{A}} P_B P_A + P_A P_{\bar{B}} P_{\bar{A}} + P_{\bar{A}} P_{\bar{B}} P_A) \sqrt{\epsilon} \sqrt{1 - \epsilon} \\
& - (P_B P_A P_{\bar{B}} + P_{\bar{B}} P_A P_B + P_B P_{\bar{A}} P_{\bar{B}} + P_{\bar{B}} P_{\bar{A}} P_B) \sqrt{\eta} \sqrt{1 - \eta}
\end{aligned} \tag{92}$$

The first term on the right hand side of this equation is proportional to the original QQ operator Eq.(64) and thus vanishes. The second term is also proportional to the QQ operator, with  $B$  and  $\bar{B}$  interchanged, and thus this also vanishes. What we are left with is,

$$\begin{aligned}
& M_A E_B M_A + M_{\bar{A}} E_{\bar{B}} M_{\bar{A}} - M_B E_A M_B - M_{\bar{B}} E_{\bar{A}} M_{\bar{B}} = \\
& (P_A P_B P_{\bar{A}} + P_{\bar{A}} P_B P_A + P_A P_{\bar{B}} P_{\bar{A}} + P_{\bar{A}} P_{\bar{B}} P_A) \sqrt{\epsilon} \sqrt{1 - \epsilon} \\
& - (P_B P_A P_{\bar{B}} + P_{\bar{B}} P_A P_B + P_B P_{\bar{A}} P_{\bar{B}} + P_{\bar{B}} P_{\bar{A}} P_B) \sqrt{\eta} \sqrt{1 - \eta}
\end{aligned} \tag{93}$$

By using the properties of projection operators, we see e.g.,

$$P_A P_B P_{\bar{A}} = P_A(1 - P_{\bar{B}})P_{\bar{A}} = -P_A P_{\bar{B}} P_{\bar{A}} \tag{94}$$

etc. From this we can see that the both the terms on the right hand side of Eq.(93) also vanish, and so finally we see,

$$M_A E_B M_A + M_{\bar{A}} E_{\bar{B}} M_{\bar{A}} - M_B E_A M_B - M_{\bar{B}} E_{\bar{A}} M_{\bar{B}} = 0 \tag{95}$$

Therefore for any density operator  $\rho$  we have,

$$\text{Tr}(\{M_A E_B M_A + M_{\bar{A}} E_{\bar{B}} M_{\bar{A}} - M_B E_A M_B - M_{\bar{B}} E_{\bar{A}} M_{\bar{B}}\}\rho) = 0 \tag{96}$$

and thus,

$$p_{\epsilon, \eta}(A, B) + p_{\epsilon, \eta}(\bar{A}, \bar{B}) - p_{\epsilon, \eta}(B, A) - p_{\epsilon, \eta}(\bar{B}, \bar{A}) = 0 \tag{97}$$

Where  $p_{\epsilon, \eta}(A, B) = \text{Tr}(E_B M_A \rho M_A)$  etc.

Therefore we have shown the QQ Equality still holds when the measurements are given by these simple types of POVM. This is an important result, since it helps to explain why the equality seems to hold so well in real world data sets (Wang et al., 2014).

Note that this result relied on the POVMs having unbiased errors. If we relax this condition then the QQ equality no longer holds. This corresponds, for example, to having systematic error that bias the result towards or away from  $A$ , and similarly for  $B$ . We will not explore this possibility further here.

In summary, using realistic noisy measurements does effect the size and presence of order effects. In general adding noise to a quantum system tends to make it look more classical, and this case provides a good example of that. (For a good introduction to the quantum to classical transition see Halliwell (2005). For a classic review we recommend Zurek (1991).) However for realistic levels of noise order effects should still be visible, and crucially the QQ Equality will still hold provided the noisy measurements remain unbiased.

## 8. Order Effects in Similarity Judgments

In this final section we want to explore the presence of order effects in a slightly different context, namely that of similarity judgments. Similarity judgments are an important part of many other more complicated cognitive processes such as categorisation. In a classic paper Tversky (1977) demonstrated that human similarity judgments have a number of properties that one would not expect from the simplest classical models. The most important for us is that similarity can sometimes display asymmetry, in other words, if  $\text{Sim}(A, B)$  denotes the similarity of  $A$  to  $B$ , then,

$$\text{Sim}(A, B) \neq \text{Sim}(B, A) \tag{98}$$

In particular, so the theory goes (Tversky, 1977),  $\text{Sim}(A, B) \geq \text{Sim}(B, A)$  if we have more knowledge about  $B$  than about  $A$ .

In an attempt to model this interesting finding, Pothos et al. (2013) came up with a model of similarity judgments based on quantum theory (see also Pothos et al. (2015)). Their model works as follows, suppose we have a space of concepts  $\mathcal{H}$ , with subspaces representing the concepts  $A$  and  $B$  defined by the projection operators<sup>12</sup>  $P_A$  and  $P_B$ . Then the judged similarity of  $A$  to  $B$ , given our initial knowledge state is  $\rho$ , is given by,

$$\text{Sim}(A, B) = \text{Tr}(P_B P_A \rho P_A) / \text{Tr}(P_A \rho) \tag{99}$$

or

$$\text{Sim}(A, B) = \frac{|P_B P_A |\psi\rangle|^2}{|P_A |\psi\rangle|^2} \tag{100}$$

if the state is pure<sup>13</sup>. In actual fact Pothos et al didn't include the normalisation factor in the denominator of Eq.(99). However they left the question of normalisation open, so we may explore any reasonable choice of normalisation.

The initial knowledge state is to be set such that the state is 'unbiased'. Specifically "in the absence of priming manipulation or contextual influence, we require the state vector to be neutral between the compared concepts" (Pothos et al., 2013). One might expect that this means the initial state is set such that,

$$\text{Tr}(P_A \rho) = \text{Tr}(P_B \rho) \tag{101}$$

and this is indeed what Pothos et al had in mind. However there are other ways to interpret this. They go on to say "Such an assumption is equivalent to that of a uniform prior in a Bayesian model." Now the concept of a uniform prior is rather slippery, because it depends on what exactly it is uniform over. In this case there are two obvious choices; the prior could be uniform over the whole knowledge space, so one is equally likely to be thinking about any thought in the space, or it could be uniform over the concepts under consideration, which, recall, are represented by subspaces of dimension potentially greater than

<sup>12</sup>One might also use smeared projectors or POVMs instead of projection operators if there is some uncertainty about the concept boundary.

<sup>13</sup>This assumes that the similarity between a stimulus and itself is always judged to be 1. If desired, this assumption can be dropped by using POVMs in place of the projection operators.



941 one. A uniform prior over the whole knowledge space would be  
 942 given by the density operator  $\rho = \frac{1}{D} \mathbb{1}$ , whereas a uniform prior  
 943 over the concepts under consideration would be given by a den-  
 944 sity operator satisfying Eq.(101). One advantage of the former  
 945 is that it is guaranteed to exist, whereas the latter is not. At any  
 946 rate, in the absence of further information we will explore both  
 947 possibilities.

This similarity measure looks like a quantum version of a  
 conditional probability. It has two nice properties, it is nor-  
 malised in the sense that,

$$Sim(A, A) = 1 \quad (102)$$

and also in the sense that,

$$\sum_i Sim(A, B_i) = 1 \quad (103)$$

if the set  $\{B_i\}$  is complete, i.e.  $\sum_i B_i = \mathbb{1}$ .

948 Now the key factor responsible for asymmetry in this model  
 949 is that  $P_A$  and  $P_B$  may have different dimensions. This corre-  
 950 sponds in cognitive terms to a participant having greater knowl-  
 951 edge about one of the stimuli. Greater knowledge implies more  
 952 possible thoughts connected with that stimuli, which means a  
 953 higher dimensional subspace for that stimuli. What we want to  
 954 do is explore how the asymmetry depends on the relationship  
 955 between the different subspaces corresponding to  $P_A$  and  $P_B$ . A  
 956 full analysis is given in Pothos et al. (2013), what we want to  
 957 do is explore a simple analytically tractable example.

958 As our example, we will take a three dimensional Hilbert  
 space of possible thoughts, and  $P_A$  and  $P_B$  to be one and two  
 dimensional respectively. It is useful to choose a basis of eigen-  
 states of  $B$ , so that,

$$P_B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (104)$$

The bases formed by the eigenstates of  $A$  and  $B$  are related by a  
 unitary transform  $U$ , so in the basis of eigenstates of  $B$  we can  
 also write,

$$P_A = U^\dagger \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} U = U^\dagger P_B U \quad (105)$$

959 The relationship between  $P_A$  and  $P_B$ , and therefore the asym-  
 960 metry, depends on the unitary transformation  $U$ .

There appear to be several possible choices for  $U$ . How-  
 ever the only important component of any transformation is that  
 which rotates  $P_A$  towards the plane defined by  $P_B$ . Anything  
 else is equivalent to a relabelling of the coordinates. Therefore  
 without loss of generality we can choose the transformation to  
 simply rotate  $P_A$  towards one of the states in  $P_B$ . Since the set  
 up is symmetric we can choose,

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) & 0 \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (106)$$

this gives,

$$P_A = \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2(\theta) & -\cos(\theta)\sin(\theta) & 0 \\ -\cos(\theta)\sin(\theta) & \sin^2(\theta) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (107)$$

Now we need to ensure we have an allowable initial state.  
 Recall we have two choices, either our initial state is propor-  
 tional to the identity, or we must choose it so that  $\langle P_A \rangle = \langle P_B \rangle$ .

Let us start with the simpler case, of  $\rho = \frac{1}{3} \mathbb{1}$ . Clearly,

$$\text{Tr}(P_B P_A \rho P_A) = \frac{1}{3} \text{Tr}(P_A P_B) = \text{Tr}(P_A P_B \rho P_B) \quad (108)$$

so the numerators of the two similarities, Eq.(99), are equal.  
 However we can also see,

$$\text{Tr}(P_A \rho) = \frac{1}{3} \text{Tr}(P_A) = \frac{1}{3}, \quad \text{Tr}(P_B \rho) = \frac{1}{3} \text{Tr}(P_B) = \frac{2}{3}. \quad (109)$$

Thus we have,

$$\frac{Sim(A, B)}{Sim(B, A)} = \frac{\text{Tr}(P_B P_A \rho P_A) \text{Tr}(P_B \rho)}{\text{Tr}(P_A P_B \rho P_B) \text{Tr}(P_A \rho)} = 2. \quad (110)$$

We see therefore that in the case  $Sim(A, B)$  is always larger than  
 $Sim(B, A)$  by a factor of two. In general the ratio of the similar-  
 ities is the inverse of the ratio of the dimension of the subspaces,  
 and thus the inverse of the ratio of the ‘degree of knowledge’ we  
 have about  $A$  and  $B$ , as desired<sup>14</sup>. Turning back to our specific  
 example,  $Sim(A, B)$  is easily computed to be  $\sin^2(\theta)$ .

In summary, this choice of initial state is interesting because  
 it always gives rise to the expected asymmetry. It also produces  
 a particularly simple expression for the similarities. However  
 it is an open question whether the observed asymmetry shares  
 this behaviour.

Now let us turn to the more challenging case. It is easiest to  
 start by looking at the eigenvectors of  $A - B$ . Once we have  
 these we can take a combinations that give zero expectation  
 value for  $A - B$ , and which are thus unbiased. In the  $B$  basis  
 the eigenvectors are given by,

$$|v_1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad |v_2\rangle = N_2 \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\cos(\theta)-1}{\sin(\theta)} \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad |v_3\rangle = N_3 \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\cos(\theta)+1}{\sin(\theta)} \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (111)$$

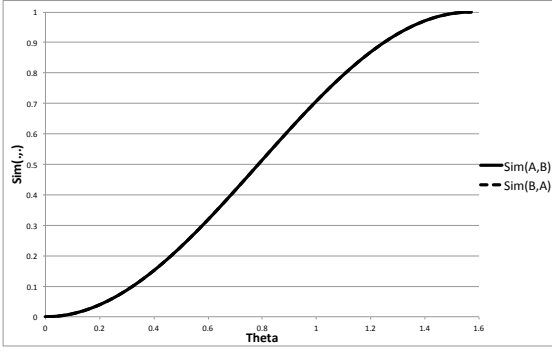
with eigenvalues,  $-1, -\cos(\theta)$  and  $\cos(\theta)$  respectively. Here  $N_2$   
 and  $N_3$  are normalisation factors given by,

$$N_2 = \sqrt{\frac{\sin^2(\theta)}{2(1-\cos(\theta))}}, \quad N_3 = \sqrt{\frac{\sin^2(\theta)}{2(1+\cos(\theta))}} \quad (112)$$

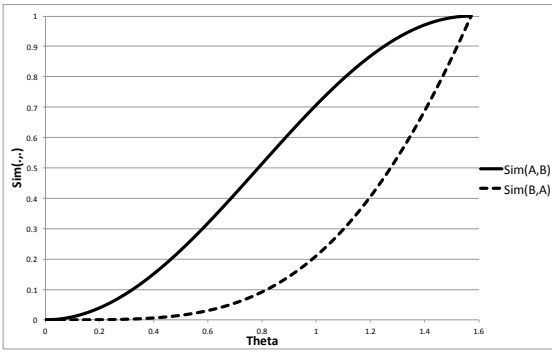
We will choose a pure initial state for simplicity, and we will  
 also choose the state to be real. Then the following (unnor-  
 malised) set of states have zero expectation value with respect  
 to the operators  $A - B$ ,

$$|\psi_a\rangle = a \sqrt{\cos(\theta)} |v_1\rangle + \sqrt{1-a^2} |v_2\rangle + |v_3\rangle \quad (113)$$

<sup>14</sup>This way of achieving asymmetries can also be implemented classically.  
 Pothos et al (2013) argue that this might not represent a good solution. However  
 we are only interested here in exploring the structure of the theory.



(a) Similarities for the choice  $a = 0$ . The two similarities coincide in this case, so there is no asymmetry.



(b) Similarities for the choice  $a = 1$ .  $Sim(A, B)$  is always greater than  $Sim(B, A)$ , apart from at the end points  $\theta = 0, \pi/2$ .

Figure 2: Plots of  $Sim(A, B)$  and  $Sim(B, A)$  against  $\theta$  for two choices of  $a$ .

where  $0 \leq a \leq 1$ . Thus these states have the same expectation value for the operators  $A$  and  $B$  and are ‘unbiased’ in the sense of Pothos et al. Note that there is not a single state with this property, but crucially rather a whole family of possible states.

Now we can compute the similarities  $Sim(A, B)$  etc according to Eq.(99). We save the reader the algebra involved in this but note it is quite straightforward to run in MatLab or similar. We plot the special cases of  $a = 0$  and  $a = 1$  in Fig.(2), the general case interpolates between these two extremes. The important point is that we generally have  $Sim(A, B) \geq Sim(B, A)$  with equality in the case  $a = 0$  and for the values  $\theta = 0, \pi/2$ .

We see that with this choice of initial state the similarities show a rather more complex behaviour. The ratio of the similarities is now a function of  $\theta$ , as well as of the new parameter  $a$ . Thus in this case the degree of asymmetry predicted depends on how incompatible  $A$  and  $B$  are.

The purpose of this section was to introduce a different type of order effect, which occurs in models of similarity judgments, that behaves in a slightly different way to the order effects we see in survey designs. Recall, measured order effects in survey designs result because the operator,

$$\Delta = P_A P_B P_A - P_B P_A P_B \quad (114)$$

is non-zero. However, although  $\Delta \neq 0$  it is *traceless*, which means that the average of  $\Delta$  over the whole Hilbert space is zero. In other words, order effects in survey designs are generally balanced, for every cognitive state which gives rise to a

particular asymmetry, there is another state which gives the opposite result. In contrast, the order effects that produce asymmetries in similarity judgments do not have this property, and it can be that case that  $Sim(A, B) \geq Sim(B, A)$  for all states in the cognitive space.

## 9. Summary

Order effects are an important feature of the study of human decision making. But order effects are just one of many different kinds of phenomena addressed by quantum models of cognition. Others include the conjunction fallacy, violations of total probability, over and under extension effects in conceptual combinations, etc. We hope this tutorial has convinced you that quantum models represent a useful and potentially powerful way to model these phenomena. The existence of order or asymmetry effects strongly suggests that theories beyond classical probability theory are needed to model this type of decision making. However simply exchanging non-contextual for contextual probability theories leaves us with too many free parameters, and no underlying sense about *why* these effects occur. Quantum models, on the other hand, are both more constrained than the general case of a contextual probability theory, and also offer the possibility of achieving an understanding of why such effects occur in terms of incompatibility of mental representations. So far, it has been the success of quantum models at predicting observed constraints on various phenomena that has been most persuasive. In the future, we hope that these models will also impress by the story they can tell about the reasons behind the occurrence of other puzzling violations of classical probability theory in human decision making.

As well as having a particular focus on order effects, we hope this tutorial has also been useful to researchers looking to construct quantum models for other purposes. We have strived to set out in as clear a way as possible how and why quantum models are constructed to address particular questions. While it is impossible to cover every possible scenario one might encounter when trying to set up a model, hopefully this tutorial will have given the reader the confidence to experiment with constructing quantum models of their own.

## Acknowledgements

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## Appendix A. Review of Linear Algebra

In this appendix we give a brief review of some relevant concepts from linear algebra. Our aim is not to cover all possible topics, but just to recap some key ideas. In particular we will show how some familiar ideas may be expressed in a basis independent way, which means they can be computed directly in terms of the elements of Hilbert space.

A Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  is essentially a complex vector space<sup>1054</sup> which is a complete metric space with respect to the inner product<sup>1055</sup>  $\langle \cdot | \cdot \rangle$ , and are known as ‘kets’.

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \cdot | \cdot \rangle : \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H} &\rightarrow \mathbb{C} \\ (|u\rangle, |v\rangle) &\rightarrow \langle u | v \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.1})$$

with the usual properties (see Isham (1995); Reed and Simon<sup>1056</sup> (1980) for a fuller account.) The elements of  $\mathcal{H}$  are denoted  $|u\rangle$ <sup>1057</sup> and are known as ‘kets’.

An operator on Hilbert space is a map from the space to itself<sup>1058</sup><sub>1059</sub>

$$\begin{aligned} A : \mathcal{H} &\rightarrow \mathcal{H} \\ |u\rangle &\rightarrow A |u\rangle \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.2})$$

An important operator is the *identity operator* denoted  $\mathbb{1}$ . It is defined by,

$$\mathbb{1}A = A\mathbb{1} = A, \quad \forall A : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}. \quad (\text{A.3})$$

The eigenvectors,  $\{|a_i\rangle\}$  and eigenvalues  $a_i$  of  $A$  are defined by,

$$A |a_i\rangle = a_i |a_i\rangle \quad (\text{A.4})$$

The object  $\langle u |$  is known as a ‘bra’. It is not technically an element of  $\mathcal{H}$ , but can be thought of either as an element of the dual space, or as a functional that maps elements of  $\mathcal{H}$  to the complex numbers,<sup>1060</sup>

$$\begin{aligned} \langle u | : \mathcal{H} &\rightarrow \mathbb{C} \\ |v\rangle &\rightarrow \langle v | u \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.5})$$

Hermitian conjugation of an operator is a useful concept in<sup>1064</sup> linear algebra. The Hermitian conjugate of an operator  $A^\dagger$  is defined by,

$$\langle A | u \rangle, |v\rangle = \langle u |, A^\dagger |v\rangle, \quad \forall |u\rangle, |v\rangle \in \mathcal{H}. \quad (\text{A.6})$$

In a particular basis, where  $A$  is represented by some matrix,

$$A^\dagger = (A^T)^* \quad (\text{A.7})$$

where  $A^T$  is the transpose of  $A$ .

Hermitian conjugation has the following properties,<sup>1049</sup>

1.  $(A^\dagger)^\dagger = A$ <sup>1050</sup>
2.  $(A + B)^\dagger = A^\dagger + B^\dagger$ <sup>1051</sup>
3.  $(AB)^\dagger = B^\dagger A^\dagger$ <sup>1052</sup>
4.  $(cA)^\dagger = c^* A^\dagger$  for  $c \in \mathbb{C}$ <sup>1053</sup>

It is useful to define,

$$\langle u | = |u\rangle^\dagger \quad (\text{A.8})$$

From Eq.(A.4) we can see that,

$$\begin{aligned} A |a_i\rangle &= a_i |a_i\rangle \\ \rightarrow (\langle a_i | A)^\dagger &= (\langle a_i | a_i)^\dagger \\ \rightarrow A^\dagger |a_i\rangle &= a_i^* |a_i\rangle \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.9})$$

Thus the eigenvectors of  $A^\dagger$  are the same as those of  $A$ , but the eigenvalues are the complex conjugates.

A useful class of operators in quantum theory are those which are *Hermitian* or more generally *Self-Adjoint*<sup>15</sup>. An operator is Hermitian if,

$$A^\dagger = A \quad (\text{A.10})$$

We can now state a number of useful theorems about Hermitian operators.

**Theorem 1.** *The eigenvalues of an Hermitian operator are real.*

*Proof:* Let  $|a_i\rangle$  be any non-zero eigenvector of  $A$ , with eigenvalue  $a_i$ .

$$A |a_i\rangle = a_i |a_i\rangle \quad (\text{A.11})$$

Then,

$$\langle A | a_i \rangle, |a_i\rangle = \langle a_i | a_i \rangle, |a_i\rangle = a_i^* \langle a_i |, |a_i\rangle = a_i^* \langle a_i | a_i \rangle \quad (\text{A.12})$$

But because  $A$  is Hermitian,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle A | a_i \rangle, |a_i\rangle &= \langle a_i |, A^\dagger |a_i\rangle = \langle a_i |, A |a_i\rangle \\ &= \langle a_i |, a_i |a_i\rangle = a_i \langle a_i | a_i \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.13})$$

Thus,

$$0 = (a_i - a_i^*) \langle a_i | a_i \rangle \quad (\text{A.14})$$

and since  $|a_i\rangle$  is non-zero, we must have  $a_i = a_i^*$ .  $\square$

Note that the converse is also true, i.e. an operator is Hermitian if its eigenvalues are real.

**Theorem 2.** *The eigenvectors corresponding to two different eigenvalues are orthogonal.*

*Proof:* Let

$$A |a_1\rangle = a_1 |a_1\rangle, A |a_2\rangle = a_2 |a_2\rangle \quad (\text{A.15})$$

with  $a_1 \neq a_2$

Then,

$$\langle a_2 |, A |a_1\rangle = \langle a_2 |, a_1 |a_1\rangle = a_1 \langle a_2 | a_1 \rangle \quad (\text{A.16})$$

But because  $A$  is Hermitian the left hand side is,

$$\langle A | a_2 \rangle, |a_1\rangle = \langle a_2 | a_2 \rangle, |a_1\rangle = a_2^* \langle a_2 | a_1 \rangle = a_2 \langle a_2 | a_1 \rangle \quad (\text{A.17})$$

Thus,

$$(a_1 - a_2) \langle a_2 | a_1 \rangle = 0 \quad (\text{A.18})$$

and since  $a_1 \neq a_2$ , we must have  $\langle a_2 | a_1 \rangle = 0$ .  $\square$

Another important class of operators are those which are *Unitary*. An operator  $U$  is unitary if,

$$U^\dagger U = U U^\dagger = \mathbb{1} \quad (\text{A.19})$$

<sup>15</sup>The distinction is only important for Hilbert spaces with an infinite number of dimensions. In these spaces it is not necessarily true that an operator and its adjoint have the same domain. Thus self-adjoint means that the domains of an operator and its adjoint match, and that the operators are equal on this shared domain (Reed and Simon, 1980).

i.e.  $U^\dagger = U^{-1}$ . The exponential of ( $i$  times) an Hermitian operator is a Unitary operator,

$$(e^{iH})^\dagger = e^{(iH)^\dagger} = e^{-iH^\dagger} = e^{-iH} = (e^{iH})^{-1} \quad (\text{A.20})$$

(We will explain how to define the exponential of an operator below.)

A final important class of operators are those which are *Projection* operators or projectors. An Hermitian operator  $P$  is a projector if,

$$P^2 = P \quad (\text{A.21})$$

We are now ready to state probably the most important theorem in quantum theory.

**Theorem 3.** *The Spectral Theorem for Hermitian (Self-Adjoint) Operators.*

The set of all eigenvectors of a Hermitian (self-adjoint) operator  $A$  defined on a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  of dimension  $D$  forms an orthonormal basis for  $\mathcal{H}$ . Thus, any vector  $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$  can be expanded as,

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^D \langle a_i | \psi \rangle |a_i\rangle. \quad (\text{A.22})$$

The operator  $A$  itself can be written in the important form,

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^D a_i |a_i\rangle \langle a_i| \quad (\text{A.23})$$

That is, any Hermitian (self-adjoint) operator may be written as a sum of projection operators onto subspaces spanned by the eigenvalues of  $A$ , each projection operator being multiplied by the associated eigenvalue.

*Proof:* The spectral theorem is a classical result in linear algebra. See any good book on linear algebra if you are interested.

*Note:* This analysis assumes the eigenvalues are not degenerate, i.e. that each eigenvector has a unique eigenvalue. All the theorems in this appendix can be trivially extended to the case where the spectrum of  $A$  is degenerate, see any good textbook on linear algebra or quantum theory Isham (1995); Reed and Simon (1980).

This theorem is important because Hermitian operators and their associated eigenspaces play a key role in quantum theory because of the association of Hermitian operators with *observables*. The spectral theorem says that any observable quantity defines a basis for the knowledge space, so that the space can be partitioned into subspaces each of which have a well defined value of the observable.

An important example of a Hermitian operator is the identity operator,  $\mathbb{1}$ . This can be thought of as an operator where all the eigenvalues are 1. Since it is Hermitian the spectral theorem applies, and so we can write,

$$\mathbb{1} = \sum_{i=1}^D |\phi_i\rangle \langle \phi_i| \quad (\text{A.24})$$

where the  $\{|\phi_i\rangle\}$  are any orthonormal basis for the space. The trick of inserting copies of the identity is often used in computations.

We can use this result to show that any state in the Hilbert space can be expanded in terms of the eigenstates of any observable. Consider an observable  $A$ , from the above we know,

$$\mathbb{1} = \sum_{i=1}^D |a_i\rangle \langle a_i| \quad (\text{A.25})$$

Now consider this operator acting on any state vector,

$$|\psi\rangle = \mathbb{1} |\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^D |a_i\rangle \langle a_i | \psi \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^D \psi_i^A |a_i\rangle \quad (\text{A.26})$$

The square norms of the  $\psi_i^A$  can be interpreted as the probabilities that a measurement of the observable  $A$  would give the result  $a_i$ .

Since this decomposition of  $|\psi\rangle$  can be performed in any basis, we can write any state as a superposition of the eigenstates of any observable in our theory.

One important consequence of the spectral theorem is that it lets us compute/define functions of operators. For example suppose we want to define  $A^2$  where  $A$  is some Hermitian operator. Well we can write,

$$\begin{aligned} A^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^D a_i |a_i\rangle \langle a_i| \sum_{j=1}^D a_j |a_j\rangle \langle a_j| = \sum_{i,j=1}^D a_i a_j \langle a_i | a_j \rangle |a_i\rangle \langle a_j| \\ &= \sum_{i,j=1}^D a_i a_j \delta_{ij} |a_i\rangle \langle a_j| = \sum_{i=1}^D a_i^2 |a_i\rangle \langle a_i| \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.27})$$

which is very simple. In general,

$$A^n = \sum_{i=1}^D a_i^n |a_i\rangle \langle a_i| \quad (\text{A.28})$$

This suggests the following, suppose we take any function  $f(\cdot)$ , which can be defined in terms of a power series, i.e.

$$f(x) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x + \alpha_2 x^2 + \dots \quad (\text{A.29})$$

then we can define,

$$\begin{aligned} f(A) &= \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 A + \alpha_2 A^2 + \dots \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^D \{ \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 a_i + \alpha_2 a_i^2 + \dots \} |a_i\rangle \langle a_i| \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^D f(a_i) |a_i\rangle \langle a_i| \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.30})$$

With sufficient care this can then be extended to essentially all functions. So we can take square roots, exponentials, trig functions of operators etc with abandon.

One final operation we need to define is trace of an operator.

$$\text{Tr}(A) = \sum_i \langle \phi_i | A | \phi_i \rangle \quad (\text{A.31})$$

where the  $\{|\phi_i\rangle\}$  form an orthonormal basis for  $\mathcal{H}$ . The trace of an operator is independent of the basis in which it is computed. The trace operation has the following useful properties,

1.  $\text{Tr}(ABC) = \text{Tr}(BCA) = \text{Tr}(CAB)$ , etc.
2.  $\text{Tr}(A|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|) = \langle\psi|A|\psi\rangle$

In a particular basis, where  $A$  is represented by a matrix, the Trace of  $A$  is simply the sum of the diagonal elements of the matrix. One important consequence is that the trace of a projection operator is simply the dimension of the subspace onto which it projects.

## Appendix B. Number of degrees of freedom associated with states, operators, etc.

Let us briefly explain how to compute the number of parameters associated with some objects in quantum theory. This is useful information for understanding the number of measurements needed to fix a particular state, or indeed how many parameters a quantum theory has in total, to compare with a classical theory.

A pure state  $|\psi\rangle$  is a complex vector in a  $D$  dimensional space. As a column vector in a particular basis it would have  $D$  complex entries, which means  $2D$  parameters to fix. However we also have two constraints. The first is that the state be normalised, the second is that the overall phase of a state is unobservable, so we can set it to 0 (Isham, 1995). This means a pure state has a total of  $2D - 2$  free parameters.

An observable is an Hermitian operator, which in a particular basis can be written as a  $D \times D$  matrix with complex entries which would require  $2D^2$  parameters to specify. However we have the constraint that an observable must be Hermitian, which in terms of matrix elements means  $A_{ij} = A_{ji}^*$ . This reduces the number of parameters to be specified to  $D^2$ .

Finally, a density operator is an Hermitian operator, together with the condition that it must be trace normalised ( $\text{Tr}(\rho) = 1$ ). This is one extra constraint, so reduces the number of parameters by one. The number of free parameters in a density operator is therefore  $D^2 - 1$ .

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