

# A proof of Bell's inequality in quantum mechanics using causal interactions

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## **Abstract**

We give a simple proof of Bell's inequality in quantum mechanics which, in conjunction with experiments, demonstrates that the local hidden variables assumption is false. The proof sheds light on relationships between the notion of causal interaction and interference between particles.

*Keywords:* Interactions, interference, local reality, quantum physics.

## Introduction

Neyman introduced a formal mathematical theory of counterfactual causation that now has become standard language in many quantitative disciplines, including statistics, epidemiology, philosophy, economics, sociology, and artificial intelligence, but not in physics. Several researchers in these disciplines (Frangakis et al., 2007; Pearl, 2009) have speculated that there exists a relationship between this counterfactual theory and quantum mechanics, but have not provided any substantive formal relation between the two. In this note, we show that theory concerning causal interaction, grounded in notions of counterfactuals, can be used to give a straightforward proof of a result in quantum physics, namely, Bell's inequality. Our proof relies on recognizing that results on causal interaction (VanderWeele, 2010) can be used to empirically test for interference between units (VanderWeele et al., 2011). It should be stressed that a number of extremely short and elegant proofs of both Bell's original inequality (and its generalizations) are already available in the physics literature. In fact some of these proofs are based on reasoning with counterfactuals (Gill et al., 2001). Our contribution is to explicitly show relations to the theory of causal interactions.

We motivate our proof with an exceedingly short history of the Bell Inequality that is elaborated upon later. A non-intuitive implication of quantum theory is that pairs of spin  $1/2$  particles (e.g., electrons) can be prepared in an entangled state with the following property. When the spins of both particles are measured along a common (spatial) axis, the measurement of one particle's spin perfectly predicts the spin of the other; if the first particle's spin is up, then the spin of the second must be down. One explanation would be that the measurement itself of the first particle determined the spin of the second, even if physically separated, perhaps, by many light years. This would mean that reality was not "local"; what occurred at one place would affect reality (i.e. the spin of the second electron) at another. However, Einstein believed in "local realism" and argued that the more plausible explanation was that both particles are carrying with them from their common source 'hidden' correlated spin outcomes which they will exhibit when measured (Einstein

et al., 1935). He therefore argued for "local realism" and rejected the previous explanation. Bohr disagreed with Einstein and his "local realist" assumption. Neither Einstein nor Bohr apparently realized that the hypothesis of local realism was subject to empirical test. In 1964, John Bell showed that a test was possible; he proved that if strict locality were true, there would be certain inequality relations between measurable quantities that must hold (Bell, 1964); quantum theory predicted that these inequalities must be violated. Experiments found Bell's inequalities were indeed violated (though see discussion below for further comments). Einstein was wrong; local realism is false.

### A Proof of Bell's Inequality Using Causal Interactions

We now show how results on causal interaction can be used to produce an alternative proof of Bell's theorem. Suppose we have two particles and can use devices to measure the spin of each, along any axis of our choosing. Let  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  be two "interventions" each taking values in  $\{0, 1, 2\}$ , where  $X_1$  records the angle (i.e. axis in space) at which particle 1 is measured, and  $X_2$  records the angle at which particle 2 is measured, and where 0, 1, 2 correspond to three particular angles. Let  $Y_1(x_1, x_2)$  be the binary spin (up= 1 or down= -1) of particle 1 and  $Y_2(x_1, x_2)$  be the spin for particle 2, when particle 1 is measured at angle  $x_1$  and particle two is measured at  $x_2$ . In the language of the Neyman model  $Y_i(x_1, x_2)$  is the counterfactual response of particle  $i$  under the joint intervention  $(x_1, x_2)$ . Let  $M(x_1, x_2) = 1\{Y_1(x_1, x_2) = Y_2(x_1, x_2)\}$  be an indicator function that the spin directions agree so that  $M(x_1, x_2) = 1$  if the spin direction agree and  $M(x_1, x_2) = 0$  if they disagree. Suppose that the particles are in a maximally entangled state. Then, according to quantum mechanics of the 2 particle system, for  $i, j = 0, 1, 2$ ,  $E[M(x_1 = i, x_2 = j)] = \sin^2(\Delta_{ij}/2)$ , where  $\Delta_{ij}$  is the angle between angles  $i$  and  $j$ . This result has been confirmed by experiments in which the angles of measurement were randomized (though see discussion below for further comments). Therefore in what follows we take  $\{E[M(x_1, x_2)]; x_1 \in \{0, 1, 2\}, x_2 \in \{0, 1, 2\}\}$  as known, based on the data from experiment. Since  $\sin(0) = 0$ ,  $M(i, i) = 0, i = 0, 1, 2$ , with

probability 1 and, therefore, also  $Y_1(i, i) = -Y_2(i, i) = 0$ , with probability 1, as mentioned earlier.

We formalize the hypothesis of "local hidden variables" by the hypothesis that spin measured on one particle does not depend on the angle at which the other particle is measured. This can be stated as: for all angles  $(x_1, x_2)$

$$Y_1(x_1, x_2) = Y_1(x_1)$$

$$Y_2(x_1, x_2) = Y_2(x_2).$$

In some of the experiments referenced above the times of the two measurements were sufficiently close and the separation of the particles sufficiently great that even a signal traveling at the speed of light could not inform one particle of the result of the other's spin measurement. Therefore, refuting the hypothesis of "local hidden variables" implies reality is not local and therefore we can essentially treat the hypothesis of local hidden variable and local reality as the same; we return to this point in the discussion.

The hypothesis asserts both locality and reality. It asserts locality because the angle  $x_2$  at which particle 2 is measured has no effect the spin  $Y_1(x_1)$  of particle 1. It asserts reality because the spin  $Y_i(x)$  of a particle measured along axis  $x$  is assumed to exist for every  $x$ , even though for each  $i$ , only one of the  $Y_i(x)$  is observed; the one corresponding to the axis along which particle was actually measured. All other  $Y_i(x)$  are missing data in the language of statisticians or, equivalently, hidden variables in the language of physicists. The counterfactuals  $Y_i(x)$  correspond exactly to what Einstein called "elements of reality". In the language of counterfactual theory, the hypothesis of local reality is, by definition, the hypothesis of no interference between treatments. In the following a unit may be taken to be a pair of entangled particles.

**Theorem 1.** If for some unit,  $M(0, 0) = 0$ ,  $M(1, 2) = 1$ ,  $M(0, 2) = 0$ ,  $M(1, 0) = 0$  then the hypothesis of 'local hidden variables' is false.

Proof. By contradiction: Suppose the hypothesis holds. Now  $M(1, 2) = 1$  implies either

(a) that  $Y_1(1) = Y_2(2) = 1$  or (b) that  $Y_1(1) = Y_2(2) = -1$ . Suppose that (a) holds: then  $M(0, 2) = 0$  and  $Y_2(2) = 1$  imply  $Y_1(0) = -1$ . But,  $M(1, 0) = 0$  and  $Y_1(1) = 1$  imply  $Y_2(0) = -1$  and thus, by  $M(0, 0) = 0$ , that  $Y_1(0) = 1$ , a contradiction.

Suppose instead that (b) holds. Then  $M(0, 2) = 0$  and  $Y_2(2) = -1$  implies  $Y_1(0) = 1$ . But  $M(1, 0) = 0$  and  $Y_1(1) = -1$  implies  $Y_2(0) = 1$  and thus, by  $M(0, 0) = 0$ , that  $Y_1(0) = -1$ , again a contradiction. Thus it cannot be the case that  $Y_i(x_1, x_2) = Y_i(x_i), i = 1, 2$ .

The next result is given in VanderWeele (2010) in the context of testing for a causal interaction, sometimes referred to as "epistasis" in genetics. It relates the empirical data  $E[M(x_1, x_2)]$  to the existence of a unit satisfying  $M(1, 2) = 1, M(0, 2) = M(1, 0) = M(0, 0) = 0$ . Within the counterfactual framework, this would constitute a causal interaction for the variable  $M$ . Since the proof of the result relating observed data  $E[M(x_1, x_2)]$  to units such that  $M(1, 2) = 1, M(0, 2) = M(1, 0) = M(0, 0) = 0$  is essentially one line, we give it here also for completeness.

**Theorem 2.** If  $E[M(1, 2)] - E[M(0, 2)] - E[M(1, 0)] - E[M(0, 0)] > 0$ , then there must exist a unit with  $M(1, 2) = 1, M(0, 2) = M(1, 0) = M(0, 0) = 0$ .

Proof. By contradiction. Suppose there were no unit with  $M(1, 2) = 1, M(0, 2) = M(1, 0) = M(0, 0) = 0$ . Then, for all units,  $M(1, 2) - M(0, 2) - M(1, 0) - M(0, 0) \leq 0$  which implies  $E[M(1, 2)] - E[M(0, 2)] - E[M(1, 0)] - E[M(0, 0)] \leq 0$ , a contradiction.

An immediate corollary of Theorems 1 and 2 is then:

**Corollary.** If  $E[M(1, 2)] - E[M(0, 2)] - E[M(1, 0)] - E[M(0, 0)] > 0$ , then the hypothesis of 'local hidden variables' is false.

This corollary is referred to as Bell's theorem in the physics literature. Its premise is referred to as Bell's inequality. As noted above, from the quantum mechanics of the 2-particle system, and confirmed by experiment,  $E[M(x_1 = i, x_2 = j)] = \sin^2(\Delta_{ij}/2)$ . Thus we have that:

$$E[M(1, 2)] - E[M(0, 2)] - E[M(1, 0)] - E[M(0, 0)] = \sin^2(\Delta_{12}/2) - \sin^2(\Delta_{02}/2) - \sin^2(\Delta_{10}/2) - 0$$

From this it follows that the local hidden variables assumption is rejected if

$$\sin^2(\Delta_{12}/2) > \sin^2(\Delta_{02}/2) + \sin^2(\Delta_{10}/2)$$

but the angles 0, 1, 2 can easily be chosen to satisfy this inequality. Thus the hypothesis of local hidden variables is false.

The prototypical Bell inequality, and accompanying experiment, has in recent years spawned a multitude of variations involving more than two particles, measurements with more than two outcomes, and more than two possible measurements at each location; see for instance Zohren, et al. (2010) for a striking version of "Bell" obtained simply by letting the number of outcomes be arbitrarily large. Popular inequalities and experiments are compared in terms of statistical efficiency by Van Dam et al. (2005). Other connections to statistics (missing data theory) and open problems are surveyed in Gill (2007).

## Discussion

We claimed above that there were experimental results that violated Bell's inequality and therefore ruled out local hidden variables. However, there remains several small possible loopholes. Perhaps the most important one of which is the following: in these experiments for every entangled pair that we measure we often fail to detect one of the two particles because the current experimental set-up is imperfect. The experimental results we noted above are actually the results conditional on both particles' spins being measured. If those pairs were not representative of all pairs, that is, if the missing pairs are not missing at random, it is logically possible that the experimental results can be explained by local hidden variables where the values of  $Y_1(x_1)$  and  $Y_2(x_2)$  also determine the probability of the spin of both being

observed. The results of experiments that close this loophole by observing a higher fraction of the pairs should be available within the next several years. Nearly all physicists believe that the results of these experiments will be precisely as predicted by quantum mechanics and thus violate Bell's inequality.

Henceforth, we assume Bell's inequality is violated and that we have therefore ruled out local hidden variables. We now return to the question of whether this rules out local reality. As noted above, experiments have been conducted such that the times of the two measurements were sufficiently close and the separation of the particles sufficiently great that even a signal traveling at the speed of light could not inform one particle of the result of the other's spin measurement. Since physical signals cannot be transmitted faster than the speed of light, the effect of the measurement of the first particle on the outcome of the second cannot be explained by any physical mechanism. Therefore ruling out local hidden variable would also effectively rule out local reality.

Since the hypothesis of local reality is false, we conclude that the alternative is true and angle at which particle 1 is measured has a causal effect on the spin of particle 2. Note, even under the alternative, we have assumed that  $Y_1(x_1, x_2)$  exists for all  $(x_1, x_2)$ . Thus our assumption of 'reality' remains; the hypothesis that "reality" is local has been rejected. However, quantum mechanics is generally assumed to be irreducibly stochastic. We could have accommodated this assumption by positing stochastic counterfactuals  $p_1(x_1, x_2)$  and  $p_2(x_1, x_2)$  defined for all  $(x_1, x_2)$  with the measured spin  $Y_i(x_1, x_2)$  being the realization of a Bernoulli random with success probability  $p_i(x_1, x_2)$ . That is, we could assume that the elements of reality are the counterfactual probabilities  $p_i(x_1, x_2)$ . Our hypothesis of stochastic locality is then  $p_1(x_1, x_2) = p_1(x_1)$  and  $p_2(x_1, x_2) = p_2(x_2)$ . The proof given above, again combined with the experimental results, can be used to reject this hypothesis by using a coupling argument as in VanderWeele and Robins (2011).

A perhaps more radical point of view is that is often attributed to the Copenhagen school: the mathematical theory of quantum mechanics successfully predicts the results of

experiments, without positing any "elements of reality" (counterfactuals), even the above non-local stochastic ones. Thus the question of their existence is not a scientific question, as it is not subject to empirical test and our most successful scientific theory, quantum mechanics, has no need of them. This is appealing to physicists because it restores locality in the following sense. To become entangled two particles must interact and this interaction, even in the laws of quantum mechanics, occurs locally. Entanglement leads to correlated measurements. Once entangled, these correlations will persist irrespective of the particles' separation as described earlier. However, following the Copenhagen school, to say counterfactuals  $Y_i(x_1, x_2)$  do not exist is to say that question of whether the measurement of the spin of particle 1 had an effect on the spin on particle 2 cannot be asked; not every event has a cause. In all physical theories prior to quantum theory, it was possible to imagine, alongside the actual measurements of actual experiments, what would have been observed had we done something differently (i.e. counterfactuals), while still preserving locality. This is not possible with quantum mechanics. In summary, Bell's inequality (and its experimental support) show that the Copenhagen standpoint of abandoning counterfactuals is not only possible, it is also necessary to take this standpoint if we want to retain "locality" as a fundamental part of our world picture.

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