DISTANCES BETWEEN STATES AND BETWEEN PREDICATES

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Abstract. This paper gives a systematic account of various metrics on probability distributions (states) and on predicates. These metrics are described in a uniform manner using the validity relation between states and predicates. The standard adjunction between convex sets (of states) and effect modules (of predicates) is restricted to convex complete metric spaces and directed complete effect modules. This adjunction is used in two state-and-effect triangles, for classical (discrete) probability and for quantum probability.

1. Introduction

Metric structures have a long history in program semantics, see the overview book [3]. They occur naturally, for instance on sequences, of inputs, outputs, or states. In complete metric spaces solutions of recursive (suitably contractive) equations exist via Banach’s fixed point theorem. The Hausdorff distance on subsets is used to model non-deterministic (possibilistic) computation. In general, metrics can be used to measure to what extent computations can be approximated, or are similar.

This paper looks at metrics on probability distributions (often called states), as outcomes of probabilistic computations. Various such metrics exist for measuring the (dis)similarity in behaviour between computations, see e.g. [7, 12, 5]. This paper does not develop new applications, but contributes to the theory behind distances in a probabilistic setting. In particular, it shows how distances:
• arise in an abstract uniform way, both on distributions and on fuzzy predicates, see Equations (1.1) and (1.2) below for more information;
• on distributions and on predicates can be related, via adjunctions in so-called state-and-effect triangles, see Diagrams (1.3) below.

A salient feature of this paper is that it uniformly covers standard distance functions, not only on classical discrete probability distributions, but also on quantum distributions. For discrete probability we use the familiar and well-studied total variation distance, which

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is a special case of the Kantorovich distance, see e.g. [14, 6, 33, 32]. This total variation distance is investigated both on sets and on metric spaces. For quantum probability we use the well-known trace distance for states (quantum distributions) on Hilbert spaces, and the more general operator norm distance for states of von Neumann algebras. One contribution of this paper is a uniform description of all these distances on states as ‘validity’ distances.

In each of these cases we shall describe a validity relation $\models$ between states $\omega$ and predicates $p$, so that the validity $\omega \models p$ is a number in the unit interval $[0,1]$. This validity relation $\models$ plays a central role in the definition of various distances. What we call the ‘validity’ distance on states is given by the supremum (join) over predicates $p$ in:

$$d(\omega_1, \omega_2) = \bigvee_p |\omega_1 \models p - \omega_2 \models p|.$$  

(1.1)

In general, states are closed under convex combinations. We shall thus study combinations of convex and complete metric spaces, in a category $\text{ConvCMet}$.

We also study metrics on predicates. The algebraic structure of predicates will be described in terms of effect modules. Here we show that suitably order complete effect modules are Archimedean, and thus carry an induced metric, such that limits and joins of ascending Cauchy sequences coincide. This result requires an extension of the theory of effect modules, which is developed in Section 3. In our main examples, we use fuzzy predicates on sets and effects of von Neumann algebras as predicates; their distance can also be formulated via validity $\models$, but now using a join over states $\omega$ in:

$$d(p_1, p_2) = \bigvee_\omega |\omega \models p_1 - \omega \models p_2|.$$  

(1.2)

The ‘duality’ between the distance formulas (1.1) for states (distributions) and (1.2) for predicates is a new insight.

A basic ‘dual’ adjunction in a probabilistic setting is of the form $\text{EMod}^{\text{op}} \rightleftarrows \text{Conv}$, between effect modules and convex sets. Effect modules are the probabilistic analogues of Boolean algebras, serving as ‘algebraic probabilistic logics’ (see below for details). Convex sets capture the algebraic structure of states. This adjunction thus expresses the essentials of a probabilistic duality between predicates and states. Since predicates are often called ‘effects’ in a quantum setting, one also speaks of a duality between states and effects.

This paper restricts this adjunction to an adjunction $\text{DcEMod}^{\text{op}} \rightleftarrows \text{ConvCMet}$ between directed complete effect modules and convex complete metric spaces. This restricted adjunction is used in two ‘state-and-effect’ triangles, of the form:

$$\text{DcEMod}^{\text{op}} \rightleftarrows \text{ConvCMet}$$

(1.3)

Details will be provided in Section 4. Thus, the paper culminates in suitable order/metrically complete versions of the state-and-effect triangles that emerge in the effectus-theoretic [17, 10] description of state and predicate transformer semantics for probability (see also [21, 20]).

2. Distances between states

This section will describe distance functions (metrics) on various forms of probability distributions, which we collectively call ‘states’. In separate subsections it will introduce
discrete probability distributions on sets and on metric spaces, and quantum distributions on Hilbert spaces and on von Neumann algebras. A unifying formulation will be identified, namely what we call a validity formulation of the metrics involved, where the distance between two states is expressed via a join over all predicates using the validities of these predicates in the two states, as in (1.1).

2.1. Discrete probability distributions on sets.

A finite discrete probability distribution on a set $X$ is given by ‘probability mass’ function $\omega : X \to [0, 1]$ with finite support and $\sum_x \omega(x) = 1$. This support $\text{supp}(\omega) \subseteq X$ is the set $\{ x \in X \mid \omega(x) \neq 0 \}$. We sometimes simply say ‘distribution’ instead of ‘finite discrete probability distribution’. Often such a distribution is called a ‘state’. The ‘ket’ notation $| - \rangle$ is useful to describe specific distributions. For instance, on a set $X = \{ a, b, c, d \}$ we may write a distribution as $\omega = \frac{1}{2}|a \rangle + \frac{1}{8}|b \rangle + \frac{3}{8}|c \rangle$. This corresponds to the probability mass function $\omega : X \to [0, 1]$ given by $\omega(a) = \frac{1}{2}$, $\omega(b) = \frac{1}{8}$ and $\omega(c) = \frac{3}{8}$.

We write $\mathcal{D}(X)$ for the set of distributions on a set $X$. The mapping $X \mapsto \mathcal{D}(X)$ forms (part of) a well-known monad on the category of sets, see e.g. [16, 18, 21] for additional information, using the same notation as used here. We write $\mathcal{EM}(\mathcal{D})$ for the category of Eilenberg-Moore algebras. The latter may be identified with convex sets, that is, with sets in which formal convex sums can be interpreted as actual sums. Thus we often write $\text{Conv} = \mathcal{EM}(\mathcal{D})$; morphisms in $\text{Conv}$ are ‘affine’ functions, that preserve convex sums. Convex sets have a rich history, going back to [38], see [30, Remark 2.9] for an extensive description.

**Definition 2.1.** Let $\omega_1, \omega_2 \in \mathcal{D}(X)$ be two distributions on the same set $X$. Their total variation distance $\text{tvd}(\omega_1, \omega_2)$ is the positive real number defined as:

$$\text{tvd}(\omega_1, \omega_2) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x \in X} |\omega_1(x) - \omega_2(x)|.$$  

(2.1)

The historical origin of this definition is not precisely clear. It is folklore that the total variation distance is a special case of the ‘Kantorovich distance’ (also known as ‘Wasserstein’ or ‘earth mover’s distance’) on distributions on metric spaces, when applied to discrete metric spaces (sets), see Subsection 2.2 below.

We leave it to the reader to verify that $\text{tvd}$ is a metric on sets of distributions $\mathcal{D}(X)$, and that its values are in the unit interval $[0, 1]$.

**Example 2.2.** Consider the sets $X = \{ a, b \}$ and $Y = \{ 0, 1 \}$ with ‘joint’ distribution $\omega \in \mathcal{D}(X \times Y)$ given by $\omega = \frac{1}{2}|a, 0 \rangle + \frac{1}{2}|b, 1 \rangle$. The first and second marginal of $\omega$, written as $\omega_1 \in \mathcal{D}(X)$ and $\omega_2 \in \mathcal{D}(Y)$, are: $\omega_1 = \frac{1}{2}|a \rangle + \frac{1}{2}|b \rangle$ and $\omega_1 = \frac{1}{2}|0 \rangle + \frac{1}{2}|1 \rangle$. We immediately see that $\omega$ is not the same as the product $\omega_1 \otimes \omega_2 \in \mathcal{D}(X \times Y)$ its marginals, since $\omega_1 \otimes \omega_2 = \frac{1}{2}|a, 0 \rangle + \frac{1}{2}|a, 1 \rangle + \frac{1}{2}|b, 0 \rangle + \frac{1}{2}|b, 1 \rangle$. This means $\omega$ is ‘entwined’, see [25, 21]. One way to associate a number with this entwinedness is to take the distance between $\omega$ and the product of its marginals. It can be computed as:

$$\text{tvd}(\omega, \omega_1 \otimes \omega_2) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x \in X, y \in Y} |\omega(x, y) - (\omega_1 \otimes \omega_2)(x, y)|$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left( \left| \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{4} \right| + \left| 0 - \frac{1}{4} \right| + \left| 0 - \frac{1}{4} \right| + \left| \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{4} \right| \right) = \frac{1}{2}.$$
For a function \( f: X \to D(Y) \) there are two associated ‘transformation’ functions, namely state transformation (aka. Kleisli extension) \( f_\ast: D(X) \to D(Y) \) and predicate transformation \( f^\ast: [0,1]^Y \to [0,1]^X \). They are defined as:

\[
f_\ast(\omega)(y) = \sum_x f(x)(y) \cdot \omega(x) \quad \text{and} \quad f^\ast(q)(x) = \sum_y f(x)(y) \cdot q(y). \tag{2.2}
\]

Maps \( p \in [0,1]^X \) are called (fuzzy) predicates on \( X \). In the special case where the outcomes \( p(x) \) are in the (discrete) subset \( \{0,1\} \subseteq [0,1] \), the predicate \( p \) is called \textit{sharp}. These sharp predicates correspond to subsets \( U \subseteq X \), via the indicator function \( 1_U: X \to \{0,1\} \).

For a state \( \omega \in D(X) \) we write \( \omega \models p \) for the \textit{validity} of predicate \( p \) in state \( \omega \), defined as the expected value \( \sum_x \omega(x) \cdot p(x) \) in \([0,1]\). Thus, \( \omega \models 1_U = \sum_{x \in U} \omega(x) \); the latter sum is commonly written as \( \omega(U) \). Further, the fundamental validity transformation equality holds:\( f_\ast(\omega) \models q = \omega \models f^\ast(q) \).

We conclude this subsection with a standard redescription of the total variation distance, see e.g. [14, 39]. It uses validity \( \models \), as described above. Such ‘validity’ based distances will form an important theme in this paper. The proof of the next result is standard but not trivial and is included in the appendix, for the convenience of the reader.

**Proposition 2.3.** Let \( X \) be an arbitrary set, with states \( \omega_1, \omega_2 \in D(X) \). Then:

\[
\text{tvd}(\omega_1, \omega_2) = \bigvee_{p \in [0,1]^X} |\omega_1 \models p - \omega_2 \models p| = \max_{U \subseteq X} \omega_1 \models 1_U - \omega_2 \models 1_U
\]

We write maximum ‘max’ instead of join \( \bigvee \) to express that the supremum is actually reached by a subset (sharp predicate). Completeness of the Kantorovich metric is an extensive topic, but here we only need the following (standard) result. Since there is a short proof, it is included.

**Lemma 2.4.** If \( X \) is a finite set, then \( D(X) \), with the total variation distance \( \text{tvd} \), is a complete metric space.

**Proof.** Let \( X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_N\} \) and \( \omega_i \in D(X) \) be a Cauchy sequence. For each \( n \) we have \( |\omega_i(x_n) - \omega_j(x_n)| \leq 2 \cdot \text{tvd}(\omega_i, \omega_j) \). Hence, the sequence \( \omega_i(x_n) \in [0,1] \) is Cauchy too, say with limit \( r_n \). Take \( \omega = \sum_n r_n|x_n\rangle \in D(X) \). This is the limit of the \( \omega_i \).

\[\square\]

### 2.2. Discrete probability distributions on metric spaces.

A metric \( d \) on a set \( X \) is called 1-bounded if it takes values in the unit interval \([0,1]\), that is, if it has type \( d: X \times X \to [0,1] \). We write \( \text{Met} \) for the category with such 1-bounded metric spaces as objects, and with non-expansive functions \( f \) between them, satisfying \( d(f(x), f(y)) \leq d(x,y) \). From now on we assume that all metric spaces in this paper are 1-bounded. For example, each set carries a discrete metric, where points \( x, y \) have distance 0 if they are equal, and 1 otherwise.

For a metric space \( X \) and two functions \( f, g: A \to X \) from some set \( A \) to \( X \) there is the \textit{supremum} distance given by:

\[
\text{spd}(f,g) = \bigvee_{a \in A} d(f(a),g(a)). \tag{2.3}
\]

A ‘metric predicate’ on a metric space \( X \) is a non-expansive function \( p: X \to [0,1] \). These predicates carry the above supremum distance \( \text{spd} \). We use them in the following
definition of Kantorovich distance, which transfers the validity description of Proposition 2.3 to the metric setting.

**Definition 2.5.** Let $\omega_1, \omega_2$ be two discrete distributions on (the underlying set of) a metric space $X$. The **Kantorovich** distance between them is defined as:

$$
\kvd(\omega_1, \omega_2) = \sqrt{\sup_{p \in \Met(X,[0,1])} |\omega_1 \models p - \omega_2 \models p|}.
$$

(2.4)

This makes $D(X)$ a (1-bounded) metric space.

The Kantorovich-Wasserstein duality Theorem gives an equivalent description of this distance in terms of joint states and ‘couplings’, see [31, 39] for details. Here we concentrate on relating the Kantorovich distance to the monad structure of distributions. The next lemma collects some basic, folklore facts.

**Lemma 2.6.** Let $X, Y$ be metric spaces.

1. The unit function $\eta: X \rightarrow D(X)$ given by $\eta(x) = 1|x|$ is non-expansive.
2. For each non-expansive function $f: X \rightarrow D(Y)$ the corresponding state transformer $f_*: D(X) \rightarrow D(Y)$ from (2.2) is non-expansive.

As special cases, the multiplication map $\mu = (\text{id})_*: D(D(X)) \rightarrow D(X)$ of the monad $D$ is non-expansive, and validity $((-) \models p) = p_*: D(X) \rightarrow D(2) = [0,1]$ in its first argument as well.

3. If $f: X \rightarrow D(Y)$ and $q: Y \rightarrow [0,1]$ are non-expansive, then so is $f^*(q): X \rightarrow [0,1]$. Moreover, the function $f^*: \Met(Y,[0,1]) \rightarrow \Met(X,[0,1])$ is itself non-expansive, wrt. the supremum distance (2.3).

As a result, validity $\omega \models (-) = \omega^*: \Met(X,[0,1]) \rightarrow \Met(1,[0,1]) = [0,1]$ is non-expansive in its second argument too.

4. Taking convex combinations of distributions $\sigma_i, \tau_i$ satisfies: for $r + s = 1$,

$$
\kvd(r \cdot \sigma_1 + s \cdot \sigma_2, r \cdot \tau_1 + s \cdot \tau_2) \leq r \cdot \kvd(\sigma_1, \tau_1) + s \cdot \kvd(\sigma_2, \tau_2).
$$

**Proof.** We do points (1) and (4) and leave the others to the reader. The crucial fact that we use for (1) is that the unit map $\eta: X \rightarrow D(X)$ is non-expansive: $\eta(x) \models p = p(x)$. Hence we are done because the join in (2.4) is over non-expansive functions $p$ in:

$$
\kvd(\eta(x_1), \eta(x_2)) = \sqrt{p \mid \eta(x_1) \models p - \eta(x_2) \models p} = \sqrt{p \mid p(x_1) - p(x_2)}
\leq \sqrt{p \mid d(x_1, x_2)} = d(x_1, x_2).
$$

For point (4) we first notice that for $\Omega \in D^2(X)$ and $p: X \rightarrow [0,1]$,

$$
(\mu(\Omega) \models p) = \sum_x \mu(\Omega)(x) \cdot p(x) = \sum_x (\sum_\omega \Omega(\omega) \cdot \omega(x)) \cdot p(x)
= \sum_\omega \Omega(\omega) \cdot (\sum_x \omega(x) \cdot p(x))
= \sum_\omega \Omega(\omega) \cdot (\omega \models p)
= (\Omega \models ((- \models p)),
$$

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where $\mu$ is the multiplication map defined in Lemma 2.6(2), and $((-\mid p): D(X) \to [0,1]$ is used as (non-expansive) predicate on $D(X)$. Hence for $r, s \in [0,1]$ with $r + s = 1$,

$$
kvd(r \cdot \sigma_1 + s \cdot \sigma_2, r \cdot \tau_1 + s \cdot \tau_2)
= kvd(\mu(r|\sigma_1) + s|\sigma_2), \mu(r|\tau_1) + s|\tau_2))
= \bigvee_p |\mu(r|\sigma_1) + s|\sigma_2)\mid p - \mu(r|\tau_1) + s|\tau_2)\mid p
= \bigvee_p |r \cdot (\sigma_1) + s|\sigma_2) = ((-\mid p) - r|\tau_1) + s|\tau_2)\mid ((-\mid p) |p
= \bigvee_p r \cdot (\sigma_1 | p) + s \cdot (\sigma_2 | p) - r \cdot (\tau_1 | p) + s \cdot (\tau_2 | p) |p
\leq \bigvee_p r \cdot (\sigma_1 | p) - \tau_1 | p + \bigvee_p s \cdot (\sigma_2 | p - \tau_2 | p
= r \cdot kvd(\sigma_1, \tau_1) + s \cdot kvd(\sigma_2, \tau_2).
\]

Corollary 2.7. The monad $D$ on Sets lifts to a monad, also written as $D$, on the category Met, and commutes with forgetful functors, as in:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{Met} & \xrightarrow{D} & \text{Met} \\
\downarrow & & \downarrow \\
\text{Sets} & \xrightarrow{D} & \text{Sets}
\end{array}
$$

(2.5)

We write ConvMet for the category $\mathcal{EM}(D)$ of Eilenberg-Moore algebras of this lifted monad, with ‘convex metric spaces’ as objects, see below.

The lifting (2.5) can be seen as a finite version of a similar lifting result for the ‘Kantorovich’ functor $\mathcal{K}$ in [6]. This $\mathcal{K}(X)$ captures the tight Borel probability measures on a metric space $X$. The above lifting (2.5) is a special case of the generic lifting of functors on sets to functors on metric spaces described in [4] (see esp. Example 3.3).

The category ConvMet $= \mathcal{EM}(D)$ of the monad $D: \text{Met} \to \text{Met}$ contains convex metric spaces, consisting of:

1. a convex set $X$, that is, a set $X$ with an Eilenberg-Moore algebra $\alpha: D(X) \to X$ of the distribution monad $D$ on Sets;
2. a metric $d_X: X \times X \to [0,1]$ on $X$;
3. a connection between the convex and the metric structure, via the requirement that the algebra map $\alpha: D(X) \to X$ is non-expansive: $d_X(\alpha(\omega_1), \alpha(\omega_2)) \leq kvd(\omega_1, \omega_2)$, for all distributions $\omega_1, \omega_2 \in D(X)$.

The maps in ConvMet are both affine and non-expansive. We shall write ConvCMet $\hookrightarrow$ ConvMet for the full subcategory of convex complete metric spaces.

Example 2.8. The unit interval $[0,1]$ is a convex metric space, via its standard (Euclidean) metric, and its standard convex structure, given by the algebra map $\alpha: D([0,1]) \to [0,1]$ defined by the ‘expected value’ operation:

$$
\alpha(\omega) = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \omega(x) \cdot x
$$

that is $\alpha(\sum_i r_i \cdot x_i) = \sum_i r_i \cdot x_i$.

The identity map $\text{id}: [0,1] \to [0,1]$ is a predicate on $[0,1]$ that satisfies:

$$
(\omega \mid \text{id}) = \sum_x \omega(x) \cdot \text{id}(x) = \sum_x \omega(x) \cdot x = \alpha(\omega).
$$
This allows us to show that $\alpha$ is non-expansive:

$$\left| \alpha(\omega_1) - \alpha(\omega_2) \right| = \left| \omega_1 \models \text{id} - \omega_2 \models \text{id} \right| \leq \sum_p \left| \omega_1 \models p - \omega_2 \models p \right| = \kappa(\omega_1, \omega_2).$$

In fact, we can see this as a special case of non-expansiveness of multiplication maps $\mu$ from Lemma 2.6 (2): indeed, $D(2) \cong [0, 1]$, for the two-element set $2 = \{0, 1\}$, and the algebra $\alpha: D([0, 1]) \to [0, 1]$ corresponds to the multiplication $\mu: D(D(2)) \to D(2)$.

2.3. Density matrices on Hilbert spaces.

The analogue of a probability distribution in quantum theory is often simply called a state. We first consider states of Hilbert spaces (over $\mathbb{C}$), and consider the more general (and abstract) situation of states of von Neumann algebras in subsection 2.5.

A state of a Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$ is a density operator, that is, it is a positive linear map $\rho: \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{H}$ whose trace is one: $\text{tr}(\rho) = 1$. Recall that the trace of a positive operator $T: \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{H}$ is given by $\text{tr}(T) = \sum (e_i, T(e_i))$, where $(e_i)_i$ is any orthonormal basis for $\mathcal{H}$; this value $\text{tr}(T)$ does not depend on the choice of basis $(e_i)_i$, but might equal $+\infty$ [2, Def. 2.5]. The same formula also works for when $T$ is not necessarily positive, but bounded with $\text{tr}(|T|) < \infty$ — where $|T| := \sqrt{T^*T}$ and $T^*$ is the adjoint of $T$ and where the square root is determined as the unique positive operator $B$ with $BB = T^*T$. Such $T$, which are aptly called trace-class operators, always have finite trace: $\text{tr}(T) < \infty$, see [2, Def. 2.5(4.6)].

When $\mathcal{H}$ is finite dimensional, any operator $T: \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{H}$ is trace-class, and when represented as a matrix, its trace can be computed as the sum of all elements on the diagonal. If $T$ is a density operator, then the associated matrix is called a density matrix. We refer for more information to for instance [2], and to [35, 36, 41] for the finite-dimensional case.

A linear map $A: \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{H}$ is called self-adjoint if $A = A^\dagger$ and positive if it is of the form $A = BB^\dagger$. This yields a partial order, with $A \leq B$ iff $B - A$ is positive. A predicate on $\mathcal{H}$ is a linear map $p: \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{H}$ with $0 \leq p \leq \text{id}$. It is called sharp (or a projection) if $p^2 = p$. Predicates are also called effects. We write $\mathcal{E}(\mathcal{H})$ for the set of effects of $\mathcal{H}$. For a state $\rho$ of $\mathcal{H}$ the validity $\rho \models p$ is defined as the trace $\text{tr}(\rho p)$. To make sense of this definition we should mention that the product $AB$ of bounded operators $A, B: \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{H}$ is trace-class when either $A$ or $B$ is trace-class [2, Def. 2.54] — so $\rho p$ is trace-class because $\rho$ is.

**Definition 2.9.** Let $\rho_1, \rho_2$ be two quantum states of the same Hilbert space. The trace distance $\text{trd}(\rho_1, \rho_2)$ between them is defined as:

$$\text{trd}(\rho_1, \rho_2) = \frac{1}{2} \text{tr}(|\rho_1 - \rho_2|) = \frac{1}{2} \text{tr}(\sqrt{\rho_1 - \rho_2})^\dagger(\rho_1 - \rho_2).$$

(2.6)

This definition involves the square root of a positive operator $B$. With the examples below in mind it is worth pointing out that in the finite-dimensional case — when $B$ is essentially a positive matrix — the square root of $B$ can be computed by first diagonalising the matrix $B = VDV^\dagger$, where $D$ is a diagonal matrix; then one forms the diagonal matrix $\sqrt{D}$ by taking the square roots of the elements on the diagonal in $D$; finally the square root of $B$ is $V\sqrt{D}V^\dagger$.

The trace distance $\text{trd}$ is an extension of the total variation distance $\text{tvd}$: given two discrete distributions $\omega_1, \omega_2$ on the same set, then the union of their supports $\text{supp}(\omega_1) \cup \text{supp}(\omega_2)$ is a finite set, say with $n$ elements. We can represent $\omega_1, \omega_2$ via diagonal $n \times n$
matrices as density operators $\hat{\omega}_1, \hat{\omega}_2$. They are states, by construction. Then $\text{trd}(\hat{\omega}_1, \hat{\omega}_2) = \text{tvd}(\omega_1, \omega_2)$.

**Example 2.10.** We describe the quantum analogue of Example 2.2, involving the ‘Bell’ state. As a vector in $\mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2$ the Bell state is usually described as $|b\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00\rangle + |11\rangle)$.

The corresponding density matrix $\beta = |b\rangle\langle b|$ is the following $4 \times 4$ matrix.

\[
\beta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix}
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Its two marginals $\beta_1, \beta_2$ (in this context usually called reduced density operators and obtained by taking partial traces, see §2.4.3 of [35]) are equal $2 \times 2$ matrices, namely:

\[
\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
\]

The product state $\beta_1 \otimes \beta_2$ is obtained as Kronecker product, see e.g. [35].

We can now ask the same question as in Example 2.2, namely what is the distance between the Bell state $\beta$ and the product of its marginals. We recall that the Bell state is ‘maximally entangled’ and that the quantum theory allows, informally stated, higher levels of entanglement than in classical probability theory. Hence we expect an outcome that is higher than the value $\frac{1}{2}$ obtained in Example 2.2 for the classical maximally entwined state.

The key steps are:

\[
\beta - \beta_1 \otimes \beta_2 = \begin{pmatrix}
\frac{1}{4} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\
0 & -\frac{1}{4} & 0 & 0 \\
\frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{4} \\
\frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{4}
\end{pmatrix}
\]

so that $|\beta - \beta_1 \otimes \beta_2| = \begin{pmatrix}
\frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\
0 & \frac{1}{4} & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \frac{1}{4} & 0 \\
\frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{4}
\end{pmatrix}$

Hence:

\[
\text{trd}(\beta, \beta_1 \otimes \beta_2) = \frac{1}{2} \text{tr}(|\beta - \beta_1 \otimes \beta_2|) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{3}{4}.
\]

In the earlier version of this paper [19] these distance computations are generalised to $n$-ary products, both for classical and for quantum states. Both distances then tend to 1, as $n$ goes to infinity, but the classical distance is one step behind, via formulas $\frac{2^n - 1}{2n - 1}$ versus $\frac{2^n - 1}{2n - 1}$. Here we only consider $n = 2$.

The following result is a quantum analogue of Proposition 2.3. Our formulation generalises the standard formulation of e.g. [35, §9.2] and its proof to arbitrary, not necessarily finite-dimensional Hilbert spaces. We will see an even more general version involving von Neumann algebras later on.

**Proposition 2.11.** For states $\varrho_1, \varrho_2$ on the same Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$,

\[
\text{trd}(\varrho_1, \varrho_2) = \bigvee_{p \in E(\mathcal{H})} |\varrho_1 \models p - \varrho_2 \models p| = \max_{s \in EF(\mathcal{H}) \text{ sharp}} (\varrho_1 \models s) - (\varrho_2 \models s).
\]

As before, the maximum means the supremum is actually reached by a sharp effect. The proof of this result is in the appendix.
2.4. Preliminaries on von Neumann algebras.

Our final example of a distance function requires a short introduction to von Neumann algebras. We do not however pretend to explain the basics of the theory of von Neumann algebras here; for this we refer to [29] (and [40]). We just recall some elementary definitions and facts which are relevant here.

To define von Neumann algebras we must speak about unital C*-algebras first.

**Definition 2.12.** A unital C*-algebra $\mathcal{A}$ is a complex vector space endowed with:

1. an associative multiplication that is linear in both coordinates;
2. an element 1, called unit, such that $1 \cdot a = a = a \cdot 1$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$;
3. a unary operation $(\cdot)^*$, called involution, such that $(a^*)^* = a$, $(ab)^* = b^*a^*$, $(\lambda a)^* = \bar{\lambda}a^*$, and $(a + b)^* = a^* + b^*$ for all $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$;
4. a complete norm, $\| \cdot \|$, with $\|ab\| \leq \|a\| \|b\|$ and $\|a^*a\| = \|a\|^2$ for all $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$.

Two types of elements deserve special mention: an element $a$ of a unital C*-algebra $\mathcal{A}$ is called self-adjoint when $a^* = a$, and positive when $a \equiv b^*b$ for some $b \in \mathcal{A}$.1 Elementary matters relating to self-adjoint elements are usually easily established: the reader should have no trouble verifying, for example, that every element $a$ of a unital C*-algebra $\mathcal{A}$ can be written as $a \equiv b + ic$ for unique self-adjoint $b, c \in \mathcal{A}$ (namely, $b = \frac{1}{2}(a + a^*)$ and $c = \frac{1}{2i}(a - a^*)$.) On the other hand, the everyday properties of the positive elements are often remarkably difficult to prove from basic principles, such as the facts that the sum of positive elements is positive, that the set $\mathcal{A}_+$ of positive elements of $\mathcal{A}$ is norm closed (see parts (iii) and (i) of Theorem 4.2.2 of [29]), that every positive element $a \in \mathcal{A}_+$ has a unique positive square root, $\sqrt{a}$ (see Theorem 4.2.6(ii) of [29]), and that every self-adjoint element $a$ of $\mathcal{A}$ may be written uniquely as $a \equiv b - c$ where $b, c \in \mathcal{A}_+$ with $bc = 0$ (see Proposition 4.2.3(iii) of [29]).

The elements of a unital C*-algebra are ordered by $a \leq b$ when $b - a$ is positive. We write $[0, 1]_{\mathcal{A}} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ for subset of effects $0 \leq e \leq 1$; they will be used as quantum predicates. Such an effect $e$ is called sharp (or a projection) if $e^2 = e$.

**Definition 2.13.** A unital C*-algebra $\mathcal{A}$ is a von Neumann algebra (aka. W*-algebra) if firstly the unit interval $[0, 1]_{\mathcal{A}}$ is a directed complete partial order (dcpo), and secondly the positive linear functionals $\omega: \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{C}$ with $\omega(1) = 1$ that preserve these (directed) suprema separate the elements of $[0, 1]_{\mathcal{A}}$. This means that $e_1, e_2 \in [0, 1]_{\mathcal{A}}$ are equal provided that $\omega(e_1) = \omega(e_2)$ for all such $\omega$.

There are several equivalent alternative definitions of the notion of ‘von Neumann algebra’, but this one, essentially due to Kadison (see [28]), is most convenient here.

For the purposes of this paper we consider as morphisms $f: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{B}$ between von Neumann algebras: linear maps which are unital (that is, $f(1) = 1$), positive ($a \geq 0$ implies $f(a) \geq 0$) and normal.2 The latter normality requirement means that the restriction $f: [0, 1]_{\mathcal{A}} \to [0, 1]_{\mathcal{B}}$ preserves directed joins (i.e. is Scott-continuous). This yields a category $\text{vNA}$ of von Neumann algebras. It occurs naturally in opposite form, as $\text{vNA}^{\text{op}}$.3

---

1In [29] a different but in the end equivalent definition of “positive” is used, see Theorem 4.2.6 of [29].
2It is not difficult to see that a positive morphism between von Neumann algebras sends self-adjoint elements to self-adjoint elements, and preserves the involution.
3Depending on the context other choices of morphisms between von Neumann algebras may be more appropriate. The proper ‘structure preserving maps’, for example, preserve multiplication too, and form a
Each non-zero\(^4\) morphism \(f\) in \(\text{vNA}\) has operator norm equal to 1, i.e. \(\|f\|_{\text{op}} = 1\), where \(\|f\|_{\text{op}} = \sqrt{\{\|f(x)\| \mid \|x\| = 1\}}\). Below we apply the operator norm to a (pointwise) difference \(\|f - g\|_{\text{op}}\) of parallel morphisms \(f, g\) in \(\text{vNA}\). Using \(\|f - g\|_{\text{op}}\) as distance, each homset of \(\text{vNA}\) is a complete metric space.\(^5\)

2.5. States of von Neumann algebras.

A state of a von Neumann algebra \(\mathcal{A}\) is a morphism \(q: \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{C}\) in \(\text{vNA}\). We write \(\text{Stat}(\mathcal{A}) = \text{Hom}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{C})\) for the set of states; it is easy to see that it is a convex set. For an effect \(e \in [0, 1]_{\mathcal{A}}\), we write \(q = e\) for its value \(q(e) \in [0, 1]\). When \(\mathcal{A}\) is the von Neumann algebra \(\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})\) of bounded operators on a Hilbert space \(\mathcal{H}\), then ‘effect’ has a consistent meaning, since \([0, 1]_{\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})} = \mathcal{E}(\mathcal{H})\). Moreover, density operators \(q\) on \(\mathcal{H}\) are in one–one correspondence with states of \(\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})\), via \(q \mapsto \text{tr}(q(\cdot))\); in fact, this correspondence extends to a linear bipositive isometry between trace-class operators on \(\mathcal{H}\) and normal — but not necessarily positive — functionals on \(\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})\) (see \([2, \text{Thm } 2.68]\)).

For states of von Neumann algebras we use half of the operator norm as distance, since it coincides with the ‘validity’ distance whose formulation is by now familiar. The proof is again delegated to the appendix.

Proposition 2.14. Let \(q_1, q_2: \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{C}\) be two states of a von Neumann algebra \(\mathcal{A}\). Their validity distance \(\text{vld}(q_1, q_2)\), as defined on the left below, satisfies:

\[
\text{vld}(q_1, q_2) := \bigvee_{e \in [0, 1]_{\mathcal{A}}} \left| q_1 = e - q_2 = e \right| = \max_{s \in [0, 1]_{\mathcal{A}}} \left| q_1 = s - q_2 = s = \frac{1}{2}\|q_1 - q_2\|_{\text{op}}\right.
\]

Via the last equation it is easy to see that \(\text{vld}\) is a complete metric.

Corollary 2.15. Let \(\mathcal{A}\) be a von Neumann algebra.

1. For each predicate \(e \in [0, 1]_{\mathcal{A}}\), the ‘evaluate at \(e\’) map \(\text{ev}_e = (-)(e) = (-) \models e: \text{Stat}(\mathcal{A}) \to [0, 1]\) is both affine and non-expansive.

2. The convex map \(\alpha: \text{D(Stat}(\mathcal{A})) \to \text{Stat}(\mathcal{A})\) is non-expansive.

3. The ‘states’ functor \(\text{Stat} = \text{Hom}(-, \mathbb{C}): \text{vNA}^{\text{op}} \to \text{Conv}\) restricts to a functor \(\text{vNA}^{\text{op}} \to \text{ConvCMet}\).

Proof. (1) It is standard that the map \(\text{ev}_e\) is affine, so we concentrate on its non-expansiveness: for states \(q_1, q_2\) we have:

\[
\|\text{ev}_e(q_1) - \text{ev}_e(q_2)\| = \|q_1 = e - q_2 = e\| \leq \bigvee_{e \in [0, 1]_{\mathcal{A}}} \|q_1 = a - q_2 = a\| = \text{vld}(q_1, q_2).
\]

strict subcategory \(\text{vNA}'\) of \(\text{vNA}\), similar to how \(\text{Sets}\) forms a strict subcategory of \(\mathcal{K}(D)\). Further, if we had wished to work with tensor products of von Neumann algebras, we had required the morphisms in \(\text{vNA}\) to be not just positive but \textit{completely positive}, see \([37]\).

\(^4\)The unique morphism \(\mathcal{A} \to \{0\}\) is unital, because it sends 1 to 1 = 0, but has operator norm 0.

\(^5\)Here is a proof that \(\text{vNA}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B})\) is complete: We must show that a Cauchy sequence \(f_1, f_2, \ldots\) in \(\text{vNA}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B})\) converges. By Theorem 1.5.6 of \([29]\), the sequence \(f_1, f_2, \ldots\) \(\|-_{\text{op}}\)-converges to a bounded linear map \(f: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{B}\). It is clear that \(f\) will be unital, and positive (since the norm-limit of positive elements of \(\mathcal{B}\) is again positive, see Theorem 4.2.2 of \([29]\), so it remains to be shown that \(f\) is normal. Given directed \(D \subseteq [0, 1]_{\mathcal{A}}\) we must show that \(\bigvee_{d \in D} f(d) = f(\bigvee D)\). For this it suffices to show that \(\bigvee_{d \in D} \omega(f(d)) = \omega(f(\bigvee D))\) for all positive normal linear functionals \(\omega: \mathcal{B} \to \mathbb{C}\), which is the case when \(\omega \circ f\) is normal. But since \(\omega \circ f_1, \omega \circ f_2, \cdots\) \(\|-_{\text{op}}\)-converges to \(\omega \circ f\), this is indeed so (because the predual of \(\mathcal{B}\) is complete, see the text under Definition 7.4.1 of \([29]\)).
(2) Suppose we have two formal convex combinations \( \Omega = \sum_i r_i | \omega_i \rangle \) and \( \Psi = \sum_j s_j | g_j \rangle \) in \( \mathcal{D}(\text{Stat}(\mathcal{A})) \). The map \( \alpha: \mathcal{D}(\text{Stat}(\mathcal{A})) \to \text{Stat}(\mathcal{A}) \) is non-expansive since:

\[
\text{vld}(\alpha(\Omega), \alpha(\Psi)) = \bigvee_e \left| \sum_i r_i \cdot \omega_i \right| - \left| \sum_j s_j \cdot g_j \right| = \bigvee_e \left| \sum_i r_i \cdot \omega_i(e) - \sum_j s_j \cdot g_j(e) \right| \\
= \bigvee_e \left| \sum_i r_i \cdot \text{ev}_e(\omega_i) - \sum_j s_j \cdot \text{ev}_e(g_j) \right| \\
= \bigvee_e \left| \Omega \right| = \text{ev}_e - \Psi = \text{ev}_e \leq \bigvee_{p \in \text{Met}(\text{Stat}(\mathcal{A}), [0,1])} \left| \Omega \right| = p - \Psi = p \\
\leq (2.4) \Rightarrow \text{kvd}(\Omega, \Psi). 
\]

(3) We have to prove that for a positive unital map \( f: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{B} \) between von Neumann algebras the associated state transformer \( f_\ast = (-) \circ f: \text{Hom}(\mathcal{B}, \mathbb{C}) \to \text{Hom}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{C}) \) is affine and non-expansive. The former is standard, so we concentrate on non-expansiveness. Let \( \varrho_1, \varrho_2: \mathcal{B} \to \mathbb{C} \) be states of \( \mathcal{B} \). Then:

\[
\text{vld}(f_\ast(\varrho_1), f_\ast(\varrho_2)) = \bigvee_{e \in [0,1, \mathcal{A}]} \left| f_\ast(\varrho_1)(e) - f_\ast(\varrho_2)(e) \right| \\
= \bigvee_{e \in [0,1, \mathcal{A}]} \left| \varrho_1(f(e)) - \varrho_2(f(e)) \right| \\
\leq \bigvee_{d \in [0,1, \mathcal{B}]} \left| \varrho_1(d) - \varrho_2(d) \right| \\
= \text{vld}(\varrho_1, \varrho_2). 
\]

\[ \Box \]

3. Distances between effects (predicates)

There are several closely connected views on what predicates are in a probabilistic setting. Informally, one can consider fuzzy predicates \( X \to [0,1] \) on a space \( X \), or only the sharp ones \( X \to \{0,1\} \). Instead of restricting oneself to truth values in \([0,1] \), one can use \( \mathbb{R} \)-valued predicates \( X \to \mathbb{R} \), which are often called ‘observables’. Alternatively, one can restrict to the non-negative ones \( X \to [0, \infty) \). There are ways to translate between these views, by restriction, or by completion. The relevant underlying mathematical structures are: effect modules, order unit spaces, and ordered cones. Via suitable restrictions, see [23, Lem. 13, Thm. 14] for details, the categories of these structures are equivalent. Here we choose to use effect modules because they capture \([0,1]\)-valued predicates, which we consider to be most natural. Moreover, there is a standard adjunction between effect modules and the convex sets that we have been using in the previous section. This adjunction will be explored in the next section.

In this section we recall some basic facts from the theory of effect modules (see [17, 10, 24]), and add a few new ones, especially related to \( \omega \)-joins and metric completeness, see Proposition 3.3. With these results in place, we observe that in our main examples — fuzzy predicates on a set and effects in a von Neumann algebras — the induced ‘Archimedean’ metric can also be expressed using validity \( \models \), but now in dual form wrt. the previous section: for the distance between two predicates we now take a join over all states and use the validities of the two predicates in these states.

We briefly recall what an effect module is, and refer to [17] and its references for more details. This involves three steps.
A partial commutative monoid (PCM) is given by a set $E$ with an element $0 \in E$ and a partial binary operation $\otimes : E \times E \to E$ which is commutative and associative, in a suitably partial sense, and has $0$ has unit element: given $a, b, c \in E$, the expression $a \otimes (b \otimes c)$ is defined iff $(a \otimes b) \otimes c$ is defined, and they are equal in that case; $a \otimes b$ is defined iff $b \otimes a$ is defined, and they are equal in that case; and $a \otimes 0$ is always defined, and is equal to $a$.

An effect algebra is a PCM $E$ in which each element $x \in E$ has a unique orthosupplement $x^\perp \in E$ with $x \otimes x^\perp = 1$, where $1 = 0^\perp$. Moreover, if $x \otimes 1$ is defined, then $x = 0$. Each effect algebra carries a partial order given by: $x \leq y$ iff $x \otimes z = y$ for some $z$. It satisfies $x \leq y$ iff $y^\perp \leq x^\perp$. Moreover, $x \otimes y$ exists iff $x \leq y^\perp$ iff $y \leq x^\perp$. For more information on effect algebras we refer to [13].

An effect module is an effect algebra $E$ with a (total) scalar multiplication operation $[0, 1] \times E \to E$ which acts as a bihomomorphism: it preserves in each coordinate separately scalar multiplications $\cdot$ and partial sums $(\otimes, 0)$, when defined, and maps the pair $(1, 1)$ to $1$.

We write $\mathbf{EMod}$ for the category of effect modules. A map $f : E \to D$ in $\mathbf{EMod}$ preserves $1$, sums $\otimes$, when they exist, and scalar multiplication; such an $f$ then also preserves orthosupplements and $0$. There are (non-full) subcategories $\mathbf{DcEMod} \hookrightarrow \omega-\mathbf{EMod} \hookrightarrow \mathbf{EMod}$ of directed complete and $\omega$-complete effect modules, with joins of directed (or countable ascending) subsets, with respect to the existing order of effect algebras. The sum $\otimes$ and scalar multiplication $\cdot$ operations are required to preserve these joins in each argument separately. Since taking the orthosupplement $a \mapsto a^\perp$ is an order anti-isomorphism it sends joins to meets and vice-versa. In particular, $\omega$/directed meets exist in $\omega$/directed complete effect modules. Morphisms in $\mathbf{DcEMod}$ and $\omega-\mathbf{EMod}$ are homomorphisms of effect modules that additionally preserve the relevant joins.

Below it is shown how this effect module structure arises naturally in our main examples. The predicate functors $\mathbf{Pred}$ are special cases of constructions for ‘effectuses’, see [17].

**Lemma 3.1.** (1) For the distribution monad $D$ on $\mathbf{Sets}$ there is a ‘predicate’ functor on its Kleisli category:

$$
K\ell(D) \xrightarrow{\mathbf{Pred}} \mathbf{DcEMod}^{\text{op}} \quad \text{given by} \quad \begin{cases} 
X \mapsto [0, 1]^X \\
(X \xrightarrow{\ell} D(Y)) \mapsto ([0, 1]^Y \xrightarrow{\ell^*} [0, 1]^X)
\end{cases}
$$

This functor is faithful, and it is full (and faithful) if we restrict it to the subcategory $K\text{ell}_{\text{fin}}(D) \hookrightarrow K\ell(D)$ with finite sets as objects.

(2) There is also a ‘predicate’ functor:

$$
\mathbf{vNA}^{\text{op}} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{Pred}} \mathbf{DcEMod}^{\text{op}} \quad \text{given by} \quad \begin{cases} 
\mathcal{A} \mapsto [0, 1]_{\mathcal{A}} \\
[\mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{\ell} \mathcal{B}] \mapsto ([0, 1]_{\mathcal{B}} \xrightarrow{\ell^*} [0, 1]_{\mathcal{A}})
\end{cases}
$$

This functor is full and faithful.

\[6\text{In fact, it can be shown that maps } (\cdot) \otimes y \text{ preserve directed (or countable ascending) joins automatically when all such directed (or countable ascending) joins exist, see Lemma 3.2 (1i). Preservation by scalar multiplication can also be proved, but is outside the scope of this paper.}\]
Writing \((-)^{op}\) on both sides in point (2) looks rather formal, but makes sense since the category \(\mathbf{vNA}\) of von Neumann algebras is naturally used in opposite form, see also the next section.

**Proof.** (1) It is easy to see that the set \([0,1]^X\) of fuzzy predicate on a set \(X\) is an effect module, in which a sum \(p \otimes q\) exists if \(p(x) + q(x) \leq 1\) for all \(x \in X\), and in that case \((p \otimes q)(x) = p(x) + q(x)\). Clearly, \(p^\perp (x) = 1 - p(x)\) and \((r \cdot p)(x) = r \cdot p(x)\) for a scalar \(r \in [0,1]\). The induced order on \([0,1]^X\) is the pointwise order, which is (directed) complete.

For a Kleisli map \(f: X \to \mathcal{D}(Y)\) the predicate transformation map \(f^*: [0,1]^Y \to [0,1]^X\) from (2.2) preserves the effect module structure. Moreover, it is Scott-continuous by the following argument. Let \(q_i \in [0,1]^X\) be a directed collection of predicates, and let \(x \in X\). Write the support of \(f(x) \in \mathcal{D}(Y)\) as \(\{y_1, \ldots, y_n\}\). Then:

\[
\begin{align*}
\forall_i q_i(x) &= f(x)(y_1) \cdot (\forall_i q_i)(y_1) + \cdots + f(x)(y_n) \cdot (\forall_i q_i)(y_n) \\
&= (\forall_i f(x)(y_1) \cdot q_i(y_1)) + \cdots + (\forall_i f(x)(y_n) \cdot q_i(y_n)) \\
&= \text{since } + \text{ is Scott-continuous} \\
&= \forall_i f(x)(y_1) \cdot q_i(y_1) + \cdots + f(x)(y_n) \cdot q_i(y_n) \\
&= \forall_i f^*(q_i)(x) \\
&= (\forall_i f^*(q_i))(x).
\end{align*}
\]

Assume \(f^* = g^*\) for \(f, g: X \to \mathcal{D}(Y)\), and let \(x \in X, y \in Y\). Write \(1_{\{y\}} \in [0,1]^Y\) for the singleton predicate that is 1 on \(y \in Y\) and zero everywhere else. Then \(f(x)(y) = f^*(1_{\{y\}})(x) = g^*(1_{\{y\}})(x) = g(x)(y)\). Hence \(f = g\), showing that Pred is faithful.

Now let \(X, Y\) be finite sets and \(h: [0,1]^Y \to [0,1]^X\) be a map in \(\text{DeEMod}\). Define \(f(x)(y) = h(1_{\{y\}})(x) \in [0,1]\). We claim that \(f(x)\) is a distribution on \(Y = \{y_1, \ldots, y_n\}\), say, and that \(f^* = h\). This works as follows.

\[
\begin{align*}
\sum_{y \in Y} f(x)(y) &= \sum_i h(1_{\{y_i\}})(x) \\
&= (\bigvee_i h(1_{\{y_i\}}))(x) \\
&= h(\bigvee_i 1_{\{y_i\}})(x) \\
&= h(1_X)(x) \\
&= 1.
\end{align*}
\]

(2) It is not hard to see that the unit interval \([0,1]_\mathcal{A}\) of a unital \(C^*\)-algebra \(\mathcal{A}\) is an effect module, see also [17]. If \(\mathcal{A}\) is a von Neumann algebra, then this interval is a dcpo, by definition. Each map \(f\) of von Neumann algebras restricts to these intervals, and is in fact entirely determined by its behaviour on unit intervals: an arbitrary element can be written as a linear combination of (four) positive elements (see Corollary 4.2.4 of [29]); the latter can be scaled down with a scalar, if needed, so that they fit in the unit interval.

For comparison with what follows we recall that the Archimedean property of an order unit space (see [34, 27]) with unit 1 is typically formulated as follows. Let \(x\) be an arbitrary element that satisfies \(x \leq \frac{1}{n} \cdot 1\), for all \(n \geq 1\), then \(x \leq 0\). This Archimedean property is crucial for defining a norm on order unit spaces.
An analogous Archimedean property is given for effect modules in [22, 23]. Its formulation is more subtle, and runs as follows. For arbitrary elements \( x, y \), if \( \frac{1}{2} \cdot x \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot y \otimes \frac{1}{2^n} \cdot 1 \) for all \( n \geq 1 \), then \( x \leq y \). This formulation uses the fact that sums \( r \cdot x \otimes s \cdot y \) with \( r + s \leq 1 \) always exist in an effect module.

Also for Archimedean effect modules one can define an ‘Archimedean’ distance function \( \ard \) as:

\[
\ard(x, y) = \max \left( \bigwedge \{ r \in (0, 1] \mid \frac{1}{2} \cdot x \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot y \otimes \frac{2}{n} \cdot 1 \}, \bigwedge \{ r \in (0, 1] \mid \frac{1}{2} \cdot y \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot x \otimes \frac{2}{n} \cdot 1 \} \right)
\]

In this situation we can write \( \|x\| = \ard(0, x) \in [0, 1] \), so that \( x \leq \|x\| \cdot 1 \) (see Lemma 3.2(3) below). But we need to be careful that we cannot express the distance \( \ard \) in terms of \( \| \cdot \| \) since there is no general subtraction in effect modules — but there is a partial operation \( \ominus \), see below.

In [22, 23] it is shown that:

- the full subcategory \( \text{AEMod} \) of Archimedean effect modules is equivalent to the category of order unit spaces; the ‘Archimedean’ distances on order unit spaces and effect modules coincide;
- Archimedean effect modules carry this (1-bounded) metric \( \ard \), and all maps of effect modules are automatically non-expansive. This gives a functor \( \text{AEMod} \to \text{Met} \).

We need to collect a few basic facts about this Archimedean distance function \( \ard \), especially about its relation to (partial) subtraction \( \ominus \) in the last point below.

**Lemma 3.2.** Let \( E \) be an Archimedean effect module. For \( x, y \in E \) with \( x \leq y \) one can define\(^7\) \( y \ominus x = (y \perp x) \perp x \). Then:

1. This minus operation \( \ominus \) satisfies the following properties:
   - (a) \( x \ominus 0 = x \) and \( 1 \ominus y = y^+ \) and \( x \ominus x = 0 \);
   - (b) if \( y \leq z \) then: \( x \ominus y = z \) iff \( x = z \ominus y \); in particular, \( x = (x \ominus y) \ominus y \) and \( (z \ominus y) \ominus y = z \);
   - (c) \( x \ominus y \leq z \) iff \( x \leq z \ominus y \) (and \( y \leq z \));
   - (d) if \( x \leq y \) then \( (y \ominus z) \ominus x = (y \ominus x) \ominus z \);
   - (e) if \( x \leq y \leq z \) then \( y \ominus x \leq z \ominus x \);
   - (f) if \( x \geq y \) then \( x \leq y \ominus z \) iff \( x \ominus y \leq z \);
   - (g) if \( x \leq y \) then \( r \cdot y \ominus r \cdot x = r \cdot (y \ominus x) \) for \( r \in [0, 1] \);
   - (h) if \( r \leq s \) in \( [0, 1] \), which is itself an Archimedean effect module, then \( s \ominus r = s - r \) and \( (s - r) \cdot x = s \cdot x \ominus r \cdot x \);

   (i) Let \( S \) be a non-empty subset of \( [0, y^+]_E \). If \( S \) has a join \( \bigvee S \) in \( E \), then \( y \ominus \bigvee S \) exists, and is the join of \( \{ y \ominus s \mid s \in S \} \) in \( E \). If \( S \) has a meet \( \bigwedge S \) in \( E \), and\(^8\) \( \{ y \ominus s \mid s \in S \} \) has a meet \( \bigwedge_{s \in S} y \ominus s \) in \( E \), then \( y \ominus \bigwedge S = \bigwedge_{s \in S} y \ominus s \).

---

\(^7\)Indeed, recall that \( a \ominus b \) exists iff \( b \leq a^+ \). Thus \( y^+ \ominus x \) exists since \( x \leq y \equiv y^+ \).

\(^8\)The condition that the \( y \ominus s \) have a meet in \( E \) cannot be dropped. To see this, recall from [26], Lemma 2, that projections \( P \) and \( Q \) on closed linear subspaces \( C \) and \( D \) of a Hilbert sapce \( \mathcal{H} \), respectively, have an infimum in the set of positive operators \( \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})_+ \) on \( \mathcal{H} \), namely the projection \( R \) onto \( C \cap D \). However, by [26], Corollary 4, \( P \) and \( Q \) only have an infimum in the space of self-adjoint bounded operators \( \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})_{sa} \) on \( \mathcal{H} \) when \( P \) and \( Q \) commute. By inspecting and adapting the proofs of these results, one easily sees that when \( P \) and \( Q \) do not commute, then \( \frac{1}{2} \cdot P \) and \( \frac{1}{2} \cdot Q \) have \( \frac{1}{2} \cdot R \) as meet in \( [0, 1]_{\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})} \), while \( \frac{1}{2} \cdot \cdot 1 \ominus \frac{1}{2} \cdot P \) and \( \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 \ominus \frac{1}{2} \cdot Q \) have no meet in \( [0, 1]_{\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})} \) at all.
(j) Let $S$ be a non-empty subset of $[y,1]_E$. If $S$ has a join $\bigvee S$ in $E$, and \{s \circ y \mid s \in S\}

has a join $\bigvee_{s \in S} s \circ y$ in $E$, then $\bigvee_{s \in S} s \circ y = (\bigvee S) \circ y$. If $S$ has a meet $\bigwedge S$ in $E$, then $(\bigwedge S) \circ y$ exists, and is the meet of \{s \circ y \mid s \in S\} in $E$.

(2) Scalar multiplication preserves meets in its first argument: $(\bigwedge S) \cdot 1 = \bigwedge_{s \in S} (s \cdot 1)$ for any set of scalars $S \subseteq [0,1]$.

(3) Given $r \in [0,1]$ and $x \leq y$ from $E$ we have $\operatorname{ard}(x,y) \leq r$ iff $y \circ x \leq r \cdot 1$. In particular, $y \circ x \leq \operatorname{ard}(x,y) \cdot 1$. Moreover, $\|y\| \leq r$ iff $y \cdot 1 \leq r$; and $y \cdot 1 \leq \|y\|$.

(4) The sum $\oplus$ is continuous wrt. the Archimedean metric $\operatorname{ard}$, in the sense that when $x_1, x_2, \ldots \in E$ converge to $x \in E$ wrt. $\operatorname{ard}$, and $y_1, y_2, \ldots \in E$ converge to $y$ in $E$, and $x_n$ is summable with $y_n$ for each $n$, then $x \oplus y$ exists too, and $\operatorname{ard}(x_n \oplus y, x \oplus y) \to 0$.

Orthosupplement $(-)^\perp$, scalar multiplication $\cdot$, and $\ominus$ are continuous in a similar sense too.

Proof. (1) The first point is trivial, and left to the reader. For (1b) we use: $x = z \ominus y = (z^\perp \circ y)^\perp$ iff $x^\perp = z^\perp \circ y = 1$ iff $z = x \circ y$. Next, for (1c),

$$x \circ y \leq z \iff \exists w. x \circ y \circ w = z \iff \exists w. x \circ w = z \circ y \quad \text{as just shown}$$

$\iff x \leq z \circ y$.

Point (1d) is obtained as follows. We have:

$$(y \circ z)^\perp \circ x \circ (y \circ x) \circ z = (y \circ z)^\perp \circ y \circ z = 1,$$

so that $(y \circ x) \circ z = ((y \circ z)^\perp \circ x)^\perp = (y \circ z) \circ x$.

For (1e) let $x \leq y \leq z$, say via $z = y \circ w$. Then $z \circ x = (y \circ w) \circ x = (y \circ x) \circ w$ by the previous point. Hence $y \circ x \leq z \ominus x$.

Assume now $x \geq y$ for (1f). In one direction, if $x \leq y \circ z$, then, by the previous point, $x \circ y \leq (y \circ z) \ominus y = z$. The other direction follows similarly by adding $y$ on both sides.

For (1g) let $x \leq y$ and $r \in [0,1]$. Then $r \cdot y = r \cdot (x \circ (y \circ x)) = (r \cdot x) \circ (r \cdot (y \circ x))$, so $r \cdot x \leq r \cdot y$, and $(r \cdot y) \ominus (r \cdot x) = r \cdot (y \ominus x)$, by (1b).

Point (1h) is easy and left to the reader. For (1i) and (1j) first note that the map $y \circ (-): [0,y^\perp]_E \to [y,1]_E$ is not only order preserving, but also an order isomorphism, with inverse $(-) \circ y: [y,1]_E \to [0,y^\perp]_E$, by (1b) and (1e). Therefore $y \circ (-): [0,y^\perp]_E \to [y,1]_E$ preserves and reflects joins.

So if a non-empty subset $S$ of $\subseteq [0,y^\perp]_E$ has a join $\bigvee S$ in $E$ (which must be the join in $[0,y^\perp]_E$ too), then $y \circ \bigvee S$ is the join of the $y \circ s$ in $[y,1]_E$. We claim that $y \circ \bigvee S$ is the join of the $y \circ s$ in $E$ too, using here that $S$ is non-empty. Indeed, let $u \in E$ with $y \circ s \leq u$ for all $s \in S$ be given; we must show that $y \circ \bigvee S \leq u$. Since there is some $s_0 \in S$, we have $y \leq y \circ s_0 \leq u$, and so $u \in [y,1]_E$, which entails that $y \circ \bigvee S \leq u$, since $y \circ \bigvee S$ is the least upper bound of the $y \circ s$ in $[y,1]_E$.

Now suppose that $S$ is a non-empty subset of $[0,y^\perp]_E$ that has a meet in $E$, and suppose that $\{y \circ s \mid s \in S\}$ has a meet $\bigwedge_{s \in S} y \circ s$ in $E$ too. We must show that $\bigwedge_{s \in S} y \circ s = y \circ \bigwedge S$. (Note that $\bigwedge S \leq y^\perp$ since $S$ is non-empty, and so $y \circ \bigwedge S$ exists.)

Since $y \circ (-): [0,y^\perp]_E \to [y,1]_E$, being an order isomorphism, preserves (and reflects) meets, and $\bigwedge S$ is the meet of $S$ in $E$, and so in $[0,y^\perp]_E$ too, we see that $y \circ \bigwedge S$ is the meet of the $y \circ s$ in $[y,1]_E$. Since $\bigwedge_{s \in S} y \circ s$ is the meet of the $y \circ s$ in $E$, and thus in $[y,1]_E$ too, we get $y \circ \bigwedge S = \bigwedge_{s \in S} y \circ s$.

Whence (1i) holds, and (1j) is established similarly.
(2) Given a set \( S \subseteq [0,1] \) of scalars, we must show that \((\bigwedge S) \cdot 1 = \bigwedge_{s \in S} s \cdot 1\). The difficulty here is not whether \((\bigwedge S) \cdot 1\) is a lower bound of the \(s \cdot 1\), but whether it is the greatest lower bound. To prove this, let \( x \in E \) with \( x \leq s \cdot 1 \) for all \( s \in S \) be given; we must prove that \( x \leq (\bigwedge S) \cdot 1 \). Since \( E \) is Archimedean it suffices (by the definition of the Archimedean property for effect module above) to prove that for given \( n > 1 \) we have \( \frac{1}{n} \cdot x \leq \frac{1}{n} \cdot ((\bigwedge S) \cdot 1) \otimes \frac{1}{n} \cdot 1 \equiv \frac{1}{n} \cdot (\bigwedge S + \frac{1}{n} \cdot 1) \). Since the elements of \( S \) are just plain real numbers we can find \( s \in S \) with \( s \leq \bigwedge S + \frac{1}{n} \). Using this \( s \), we see that \( \frac{1}{n} \cdot x \leq \frac{1}{n} \cdot \left( \frac{1}{n} s \right) \cdot 1 \leq \frac{1}{n} \cdot \left( \bigwedge S + \frac{1}{n} \right) \cdot 1 \). Whence \( x \leq (\bigwedge S) \cdot 1 \).

(3) Let sequences \( x_1, x_2, \ldots \) and \( y_1, y_2, \ldots \) in \( E \) \( \text{ard}\)-converging to elements \( x \) and \( y \) of \( E \), respectively, be given, such that \( x_n \otimes y_n \) exists for all \( n \). We must show that \( x \otimes y \) exists, and that \( x_1 \otimes y_1, x_2 \otimes y_2, \ldots \) \( \text{ard}\)-converges to \( x \otimes y \).

To show that \( x \otimes y \) exists we need to show that \( x \leq y^\perp \), and for this in turn, it suffices given integer \( n > 0 \) (since \( E \) is Archimedean) to prove that \( \frac{1}{n} x \leq \frac{1}{n} y^\perp \otimes \frac{1}{n} \cdot 1 \). Since \( \text{ard}(x_n, x) \to 0 \) as \( m \to \infty \), we can find an \( M \) such that \( \text{ard}(x_m, x) < \frac{1}{2n} \) for all \( m \geq M \). From this, and the definition of \( \text{ard} \), it follows readily that \( \frac{1}{n} x \leq \frac{1}{n} x_m \otimes \frac{1}{n} \cdot 1 \) for all \( m \geq M \). By a similar argument, but now using that \( \text{ard}(y_m, y) \to 0 \) as \( m \to \infty \), we can, by choosing \( M \) larger if necessary, have \( \frac{1}{n} y \leq \frac{1}{n} y_m \otimes \frac{1}{n} \cdot 1 \) for all \( m \geq M \). Note that \( \frac{1}{n} a \otimes \frac{1}{n} b \perp = \frac{1}{n} a \perp \otimes \frac{1}{n} b \perp \) for all \( a, b \in E \). So upon application of \(( \cdot )^\perp \), the aforementioned inequality gives

\[
\frac{1}{n} y_m^\perp \otimes \frac{1}{n} (\frac{1}{n} \cdot 1)^\perp = (\frac{1}{n} y_m \otimes \frac{1}{n} \cdot 1)^\perp \\
\leq (\frac{1}{n} y \otimes \frac{1}{n} \cdot 1)^\perp \\
= \frac{1}{n} y^\perp \otimes \frac{1}{n} \cdot 1 = \frac{1}{n} y^\perp \otimes \frac{1}{n} (\frac{1}{n} \cdot 1) \otimes \frac{1}{n} (\frac{1}{n} \cdot 1)^\perp,
\]

which implies that \( \frac{1}{n} y_m^\perp \leq \frac{1}{n} y^\perp \otimes \frac{1}{n} \cdot 1 \), for all \( m \geq M \). As the final ingredient, note that \( x_M \leq y_M^\perp \) since \( x_M \otimes y_M \) exists. Altogether we get:

\[
\frac{1}{n} x \leq \frac{1}{n} x_M \otimes \frac{1}{n} \cdot 1 \leq \frac{1}{n} y_M^\perp \otimes \frac{1}{n} \cdot 1 \leq \frac{1}{n} y^\perp \otimes \frac{1}{n} \cdot 1. \]

Whence \( x \leq y^\perp \), and so \( x \otimes y \) exists.

Concerning the continuity of \( \otimes \) it remains to be shown that \( x_n \otimes y_n \) converges to \( x \otimes y \). For this we need the observation that \( \text{ard}(a \otimes c, b \otimes c) = \text{ard}(a, b) \) for all \( a, b, c \in E \) for which \( a \otimes c \) and \( b \otimes c \) exist. (Hint: looking at the definition of \( \text{ard} \) note that given \( r \in (0,1] \) we have \( \frac{1}{r} a \leq \frac{1}{r} b \otimes \frac{1}{r} \cdot 1 \) iff \( \frac{1}{r} (a \otimes c) \leq \frac{1}{r} (b \otimes c) \otimes \frac{1}{r} \cdot 1 \).) Indeed, this identity gives us \( \text{ard}(x_n \otimes y_n, x \otimes y) \leq \text{ard}(x_n \otimes y_n, x_n \otimes y) + \text{ard}(x_n \otimes y, x \otimes y) = \text{ard}(y_n, y) + \text{ard}(x_n, x) \), and so \( \text{ard}(x_n \otimes y_n, x \otimes y) \to 0 \) as \( n \to \infty \).

The continuity of \( \cdot \) and \(( \cdot )^\perp \) follows along similar lines, but involves the equations \( \text{ard}(x^\perp, y^\perp) = \text{ard}(x, y), \text{ard}(r \cdot x, r \cdot y) = r \cdot \text{ard}(x, y) \) and \( \text{ard}(r \cdot x, s \cdot x) = |r - s| \cdot \|x\| \), whose proofs we leave to the reader.

(4) Let \( x \leq y \) in \( E \) and \( r' \in [0,1] \) be given. Recall that we must show that \( y \otimes x \leq r' \cdot 1 \) iff \( \text{ard}(x, y) \leq r' \). Since \( x \leq y \), we have \( \bigwedge \{ r \in (0,1] \mid \frac{1}{r} \cdot x \leq \frac{1}{r} \cdot y \otimes \frac{1}{r} \cdot 1 \} = 0 \), so:

\[
\text{ard}(x, y) = \bigwedge \{ r \in (0,1] \mid \frac{1}{r} \cdot y \leq \frac{1}{r} \cdot x \otimes \frac{1}{r} \cdot 1 \}
\]
Suppose that \( \text{ard}(x, y) \leq r' \). We must show that \( y \oplus x \leq r' \cdot 1 \). It suffices to show that \( y \oplus x \leq \text{ard}(x, y) \cdot 1 \). Indeed:

\[
\text{ard}(x, y) \cdot 1 = \left( \bigwedge \{ r \in (0, 1] \mid \frac{1}{2} \cdot y \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot x \oplus \frac{r}{2} \cdot 1 \} \right) \cdot 1
\]

(2)

\[
\equiv \bigwedge \{ r \cdot 1 \mid \frac{1}{2} \cdot y \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot x \oplus \frac{r}{2} \cdot 1 \}
\]

(10)

\[
\equiv \bigwedge \{ r \cdot 1 \mid \frac{1}{2} \cdot y \oplus \frac{r}{2} \cdot x \leq \frac{r}{2} \cdot 1 \}
\]

(10)

\[
\geq \left( \frac{1}{2} \cdot y \oplus \frac{1}{2} \cdot x \right) \ominus \left( \frac{1}{2} \cdot y \oplus \frac{1}{2} \cdot x \right)
\]

(10)

\[
= \frac{1}{2} \cdot (y \oplus x) \ominus \frac{1}{2} \cdot (y \oplus x)
\]

(10)

\[
= y \oplus x.
\]

For the other direction, suppose that \( y \oplus x \leq r' \cdot 1 \). We must show that \( \text{ard}(x, y) \leq r' \).

If \( r' = 0 \), then this is clearly true (since then \( y \oplus x = 0 \), thus \( x = y \), thus \( \text{ard}(x, y) = 0 \)).

So we may assume that \( r' \neq 0 \). Then \( \frac{1}{2} \cdot y \oplus \frac{1}{2} \cdot x = \frac{1}{2} \cdot (y \oplus x) \leq \frac{r'}{2} \cdot 1 \), so \( \frac{1}{2} \cdot y \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot x \oplus \frac{r'}{2} \cdot 1 \), which implies \( \text{ard}(x, y) \leq r' \), by (3.1).

\[ \square \]

**Proposition 3.3.** Let \( E \) be an \( \omega \)-complete effect module. Then:

1. \( E \) is Archimedean;
2. \( E \) is metrically complete for the above Archimedean distance function \( \text{ard} \);
3. for each ascending sequence \( e_1 \leq e_2 \leq e_3 \leq \cdots \) which is Cauchy, one has \( \bigvee e_n = \lim e_n \).

**Proof.** (1) Assume \( \frac{1}{2} \cdot x \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot y \oplus \frac{1}{2n} \cdot 1 \) for all \( n \geq 1 \). We need to prove \( x \leq y \). Recall that the partial addition and scalar multiplication preserve all \( \omega \)-joins, by our definition of \( \omega \)-completeness. So since \( \bigwedge_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2n} = 0 \), we compute

\[
\frac{1}{2} \cdot y = \frac{1}{2} \cdot y \oplus \bigwedge_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2n} \cdot 1 = \bigwedge_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{2} \cdot y \ominus \frac{1}{2n} \cdot 1 \right) \geq \frac{1}{2} \cdot x.
\]

Thus \( x = \frac{1}{2} \cdot x \oplus \frac{1}{2} \cdot x \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot y \oplus \frac{1}{2} \cdot y = y \).

(2) We use an auxiliary result that we will prove in a moment:

- assume that for each sequence \( a_1, a_2, \ldots \in E \) for which \( \sum_n \| a_n \| \leq 1 \), the sums \( b_N := \bigodot_{n \leq N} a_n \) converge;
- then \( E \) is complete.

We first remark that the sums \( b_N := \bigodot_{n \leq N} a_n \) exists, as can be seen using induction. Indeed, if \( b_N = \bigodot_{n \leq N} a_n \) exists, then so does \( \bigodot_{n \leq N} a_n \otimes a_{N+1} \), because since \( \sum_n \| a_n \| \leq 1 \), we have \( \sum_{n \leq N} \| a_n \| \leq \| a_{N+1} \| \) by \( 1 - \| a_{N+1} \| \), and thus, using Lemma 3.2(3), \( \bigodot_{n \leq N} a_n \leq \bigodot_{n \leq N} \| a_n \| \cdot 1 = \left( \sum_{n \leq N} \| a_n \| \right) \cdot 1 \leq \| a_{N+1} \| \cdot 1 \leq a_{N+1}^{N+1} \).

We start by proving that \( E \) is complete using statement (\*). Let \( x_1, x_2, \ldots \in E \) be a Cauchy sequence; we need to prove that it converges, given the assumption in (\*). We replace \( x_1, x_2, \ldots \) by \( \frac{1}{2} \cdot x_1, \frac{1}{2} \cdot x_2, \ldots \) so that we may assume that \( x_n \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 \) for all \( n \), because if \( \frac{1}{2} \cdot x_n \) converges, then so does \( (x_n)_n \), and since \( x_1, x_2, \ldots \) is Cauchy, so is \( \frac{1}{2} \cdot x_1, \frac{1}{2} \cdot x_2, \ldots \). Similarly, by replacing \( (x_n)_n \) by an appropriate subsequence we may assume that \( \text{ard}(x_m, x_n) < \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^n \) for all \( m \geq n \). In particular, \( \text{ard}(x_{n+1}, x_n) < \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^{n+1} \), which implies, by the definition of \( \text{ard} \), that

\[
\frac{1}{2} \cdot x_n \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot x_{n+1} \oplus \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^{n+1} \cdot 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{2} \cdot x_{n+1} \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot x_n \oplus \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^{n+1} \cdot 1.
\]

Since \( x_n \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 \) and \( x_{n+1} \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 \), this implies:

\[
x_n \leq x_{n+1} \oplus \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^{n+1} \cdot 1 \quad \text{and} \quad x_{n+1} \leq x_n \oplus \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^{n+1} \cdot 1.
\]
We then have:
\[
\begin{align*}
x_1 & \leq x_2 \otimes \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \cdot 1 \leq x_3 \otimes \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^3 \cdot 1 \otimes \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \cdot 1 \\
& \quad \leq \cdots \\
& \leq x_{n+1} \otimes \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n+1} \cdot 1 \otimes \cdots \otimes \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \cdot 1 \\
& = x_{n+1} \otimes \left(\frac{1}{2} - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n+1}\right) \cdot 1.
\end{align*}
\]

The trick is to consider the elements \(a_n := (x_{n+1} \otimes \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n+1} \cdot 1) \otimes x_n\). We check that these \(a_n\) satisfy the requirement in (*):
\[
a_n = (x_{n+1} \otimes \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n+1} \cdot 1) \otimes x_n \leq (x_n \otimes \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n+1} \cdot 1 \otimes \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n+1} \cdot 1) \otimes x_n = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n \cdot 1.
\]
Thus we have \(\|a_n\| \leq \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n\) (by Lemma 3.2(3)), and so \(\sum_n \|a_n\| \leq 1\). We may now additionally assume that the sums \(b_N := \bigotimes_{n \leq N} a_n\) converge. These sums can be re-organised as:
\[
b_N = \bigotimes_{n \leq N} a_n \\
= \left( (x_{n+1} \otimes \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{N+1} \cdot 1) \otimes x_N \right) \otimes ((x_N \otimes \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^N \cdot 1 \otimes x_{N-1}) \otimes \cdots \\
\quad \otimes ((x_2 \otimes \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \cdot 1 \otimes x_1) \\
= (x_{N+1} \otimes \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{N+1} \cdot 1 \otimes \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^N \cdot 1 \otimes \cdots \otimes \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \cdot 1) \otimes x_1 \\
= (x_{N+1} \otimes \left(\frac{1}{2} - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{N+1}\right) \cdot 1) \otimes x_1.
\]
We claim that we can now also show that the sequence of \(x_N\) converges, since:
\[
x_{N+1} = (b_N \otimes x_1) \otimes \left(\frac{1}{2} - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{N+1}\right) \cdot 1.
\]
Indeed, the right-hand-side converges, as \(N\) goes to infinity, by Lemma 3.2(4).

We will now prove (*). So let \(a_1, a_2, \ldots \in E\) for which \(s := \sum_n \|a_n\| \leq 1\) and sums \(b_N := \bigotimes_{n \leq N} a_n\) exist. These \(b_N\) form an ascending chain, so by \(\omega\)-completeness of \(E\), the suppremum \(b := \bigvee_N b_N\) exists. We are done if we can show that \(b\) is the limit of the \(b_N\). For \(M \leq N\) we have:
\[
b_N \otimes b_M = a_N \otimes \cdots \otimes a_{M+1} \leq \|a_N\| \cdot 1 \otimes \cdots \otimes \|a_{M+1}\| \cdot 1 \\
= (\|a_N\| + \cdots + \|a_{M+1}\|) \cdot 1.
\]
This means:
\[
b \otimes b_M = (\bigvee_N b_N) \otimes b_M \\
= (\bigvee_{N \geq M} b_N) \otimes b_M \\
= \bigvee_{N \geq M} b_N \otimes b_M 
\quad \text{(by Lemma 3.2 (1i))} \\
\leq \bigvee_{N \geq M} \left(\|a_N\| + \cdots + \|a_{M+1}\|\right) \cdot 1 \\
= \left(\|a_N\| + \cdots + \|a_{M+1}\|\right) \cdot 1 \\
= (s - (\|a_M\| + \cdots + \|a_1\|)) \cdot 1, \quad \text{where, recall, } s := \sum_n \|a_n\| \in [0,1].
\]
The latter scalar becomes arbitrarily small as \(M\) goes to infinity. This means that \(\operatorname{ard}(b, b_M)\) can be made arbitrarily small (see Lemma 3.2(3).) Hence \(\lim_M b_M = b\), as required.
(3) Let \( e_1 \leq e_2 \leq \cdots \) be a Cauchy sequence and let \( \epsilon > 0 \). We can find an \( N \in \mathbb{N} \) such that \( \text{ard}(e_n, e_m) < \epsilon \) for all \( n, m \geq N \). For \( m \geq N \) we have \( e_m \leq \bigvee_n e_n \), so that:

\[
(\bigvee_n e_n) \oplus e_m = (\bigvee_{n \geq m} e_n) \oplus e_m \\
= \bigvee_{n \geq m} (e_n \oplus e_m) \quad \text{by Lemma 3.2 (1i)} \\
\leq \bigvee_{n \geq m} \text{ard}(e_n, e_m) \cdot 1 \quad \text{by Lemma 3.2 (3)} \\
= (\bigvee_{n \geq m} \text{ard}(e_n, e_m)) \cdot 1 \\
\leq \epsilon \cdot 1.
\]

Lemma 3.2 (1f) gives \( \bigvee_n e_n \leq e_m \oplus \epsilon \cdot 1 \), and in particular \( \frac{1}{2} \cdot (\bigvee_n e_n) \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot e_m \oplus \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 \). Hence \( \text{ard}(\bigvee_n e_n, e_m) \leq \epsilon \), so that \( \lim_m e_m = \bigvee_n e_n \).

With this information about distances and joins and their relation in effect modules we return to our main examples from Lemma 3.1. We describe the Archimedean metrics in these cases in more detail, and discover that we can describe them also as ‘validity’ metrics, but in dual form: here they involve joins over states, and not over predicates like in Section 2.

**Proposition 3.4.** (1) Let \( X \) be an arbitrary set. The Archimedean metric \( \text{ard} \) induced on the effect module \([0,1]^X\) of fuzzy predicates on \( X \) is the supremum metric (2.3), as observed in [22, 23]. But this metric can alternatively be described via validities, as (in the last equation) in:

\[
\text{ard}(p,q) = \text{spd}(p,q) \overset{(2.3)}{=} \bigvee_{x \in X} |p(x) - q(x)| = \bigvee_{\omega \in \mathcal{D}(X)} |\omega| = p - \omega| = q|.
\]

(2) Let \( \mathcal{A} \) be a von Neumann algebra. The Archimedean metric \( \text{ard} \) on the effect module \([0,1]_{\mathcal{A}}\) of effects of \( \mathcal{A} \) is the distance induced by the norm \( \| - \| \) of \( \mathcal{A} \). Moreover, this distance can be described as on the right below.

\[
\text{ard}(e,d) = \| e - d\| = \bigvee_{\omega : \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{C}} |\omega| = e - \omega| = d|.
\]

**Proof.** (1) Let \( p,q \in [0,1]^X \). We abbreviate \( s := \bigvee_x |p(x) - q(x)| \) and \( t := \bigvee_{\omega} |\omega| = p - \omega| = q| \). First note that for \( x \in X \) the unit (or ‘Dirac’) distribution \( \eta(x) = 1|x| \) satisfies \( \eta(x)| = p = p(x) \). This yields \( s \leq t \). The converse inequality \( t \leq s \) follows from:

\[
t = \bigvee_{\omega} |\omega| = p - \omega| = q| = \bigvee_{\omega} |\sum_x \omega(x) \cdot p(x) - \sum_x \omega(x) \cdot q(x)| \\
\leq \bigvee_{\omega} \sum_x \omega(x) \cdot |p(x) - q(x)| \\
\leq \bigvee_{\omega} \sum_x \omega(x) \cdot s \\
= \bigvee_{\omega} (\sum_x \omega(x)) \cdot s \\
= s.
\]

(2) From [29, Cor. 4.3.10] we see that for a self-adjoint element \( a \in \mathcal{A} \) we have \( \|a\| = \bigvee_\omega |\omega(a)| \), where \( \omega \) ranges over (normal) states \( \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{C} \). Thus:

\[
\text{ard}(e,d) = \| e - d\| = \bigvee_{\omega} |\omega(e - d)| \\
= \bigvee_{\omega} |\omega(e) - \omega(d)| = \bigvee_{\omega} |\omega = e - \omega| = d|.
\]
4. State-and-effect triangles

In this section the results from the two previous sections are combined. This will happen via the adjunction $\text{EMod}^{\text{op}} \rightleftharpoons \text{Conv}$ between effect modules and convex sets from [15]. This adjunction is restricted by imposing completeness requirements on both sides. Then it is shown how our standard examples give rise to commuting state-and-effect triangles with full and faithful state and predicate functors.

Recall from Section 2 that we write $\text{ConvMet}$ for the category of convex metric spaces, and $\text{ConvCMet}$ for the subcategory of convex complete metric spaces.

**Lemma 4.1.** The adjunction from [15] on the left below restricts to the adjunction on the right.

$$
\begin{align*}
\text{EMod}^{\text{op}} & \overset{\top}{\longleftarrow} \text{Conv} \\
\text{DcEMod}^{\text{op}} & \overset{\top}{\longleftarrow} \text{ConvCMet}
\end{align*}
$$

All functors are given by ‘homing into $[0,1]$’.

**Proof.** The proof boils down to two points:

1. For a directed complete effect module $E$, the convex set $\text{DcEMod}(E,[0,1])$ is a (convex) complete metric space.
   
2. For a convex complete metric space $X$, the effect module $\text{ConvCMet}(X,[0,1])$ is directed complete.

As to point (1), let $E$ be a directed complete effect module. The homset $\text{DcEMod}(E,[0,1])$ carries the supremum metric (2.3). This metric is complete with pointwise limits: $(\lim h_n)(e) = \lim h_n(e)$. It is easy to see that such a limit map $\lim h_n$ preserves sums $\otimes$ and scalar multiplication. Hence it is a map of effect modules, and thus automatically a non-expansive (and continuous) function. In order to see that it is also Scott-continuous, let $(e_i)$ be directed collection of elements in $E$. Writing $h = \lim h_n$, with each $h_n$ Scott-continuous, we have to prove $h(\bigvee e_i) = \bigvee h(e_i)$. This works as follows. For each $n$ and $j$ we have:

$$
|h(\bigvee_i e_i) - \bigvee_i h(e_i)| \leq |h(\bigvee_i e_i) - h_n(\bigvee_i e_i)| + |\bigvee_i h_n(e_i) - h_n(e_j)|
$$

$$
+ |h_n(e_j) - h(e_j)| + |h(e_j) - \bigvee_i h(e_i)|
$$

$$
\leq \text{spd}(h,h_n) + |\bigvee_i h_n(e_i) - h_n(e_j)| + \text{spd}(h,h_n) + |h(e_j) - \bigvee_i h(e_i)|.
$$

By choosing $n$ suitably large, the two $\text{spd}$ distances can be made arbitrarily small. Having fixed $n$, the term $|\bigvee_i h_n(e_i) - h_n(e_j)|$ can be made arbitrary small too by choosing $j$ suitably large, since the directed net $(h_n(e_j))_i$ in $[0,1]$ converges to its supremum $\bigvee_i h_n(e_i)$. Since the final term $|h(e_j) - \bigvee_i h(e_i)|$ vanishes too as $j$ increases we see that $|h(\bigvee_i e_i) - \bigvee_i h(e_i)| = 0$, and so $h(\bigvee_i e_i) = \bigvee_i h(e_i)$.

The homset $\text{DcEMod}(E,[0,1])$ also has a convex structure, given by the map:

$$
\mathcal{D}(\text{DcEMod}(E,[0,1])) \longrightarrow \text{DcEMod}(E,[0,1])
$$

with $\alpha(\omega)(e) = \sum h \omega(h) \cdot h(e)$,

where $h$ ranges over $\text{DcEMod}(E,[0,1])$. Notice that each element $e \in E$ gives rise to a non-expansive predicate $\text{ev}_e : \text{DcEMod}(E,[0,1]) \to [0,1]$ via $\text{ev}_e(h) = h(e)$. It satisfies for $\omega \in \mathcal{D}(\text{DcEMod}(E,[0,1]))$,

$$
\omega \models \text{ev}_e = \sum h \omega(h) \cdot \text{ev}_e(h) = \sum h \omega(h) \cdot h(e) = \alpha(\omega)(e).
$$
Now we can show that the algebra map \( \alpha \) on \( \text{DcEMod}(E, [0, 1]) \) is non-expansive, using the Kantorovich metric (2.4) on distributions:
\[
\text{spd}(\alpha(\omega_1), \alpha(\omega_2)) \overset{(2.3)}{=} \sqrt{e} \left\| \alpha(\omega_1)(e) - \alpha(\omega_2)(e) \right\| = \sqrt{e} \left\| \omega_1 \right\| = \sqrt{e} \left( \omega_2 \right) \leq \sqrt{p} \left\| \omega_1 \right\| = p - \omega_2 = p \left\| \right. \\
\overset{(2.4)}{=} kvd(\omega_1, \omega_2).
\]
Each map \( f : E \to D \) in \( \text{EMod} \) gives an affine map \((-) \circ f : \text{Hom}(D, [0, 1]) \to \text{Hom}(E, [0, 1]) \) in \( \text{Conv} \); it is easy to show that it is also non-expansive.

For point (2) we have to prove that for each convex complete metric space \( X \) the set \( \text{ConvCMet}(X, [0, 1]) \) of affine non-expansive maps is a directed complete effect module. We concentrate on directed completeness, since the effect module structure is standard, see [15]. Hence let \((p_i)\) be a directed collection of non-expansive affine maps \( p_i : X \rightarrow [0, 1] \). We take \( p = \bigvee_i p_i \) pointwise. This map is affine since affine sums are by definition finite, so that they commute with directed joins:
\[
p(\sum_n r_n|x_n)) = \left( \bigvee_i p_i \right)(\sum_n r_n|x_n)) = \bigvee_i p_i(\sum_n r_n|x_n)) \\
= \bigvee_i \sum_n r_n \cdot p_i(x_n) \\
= \sum_n r_n \cdot \left( \bigvee_i p_i(x_n) \right) = \sum_n r_n \cdot p(x_n).
\]
It is not hard to see that \( p \) is non-expansive.

The next two results summarise our main concrete findings.

**Proposition 4.2.** The Kleisli subcategory \( \text{Klfin}(\mathcal{D}) \), with finite sets only, of the distribution monad \( \mathcal{D} \) on \( \text{Sets} \) gives rise to a triangle as below, in which the two up-going functors are full and faithful and make the two corresponding triangles commute up-to natural isomorphism.

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{DcEMod}^{op} & \xrightarrow{T} & \text{ConvCMet} \\
\text{Hom}(-, 2) = \text{Pred} & & \\
\text{Klfin}(\mathcal{D}) & & \text{Stat} = \text{Hom}(1, -)
\end{array}
\]

We briefly explain the functor \( \text{Pred} = \text{Hom}(-, 2) : \text{Klfin}(\mathcal{D}) \to \text{EMod}^{op} \). Since \( \mathcal{D}(2) \cong [0, 1] \) we get \( \text{Pred}(X) = \text{Hom}(X, 2) = \text{Sets}(X, \mathcal{D}(2)) = \text{Sets}(X, [0, 1]) = [0, 1]^X \).

**Proof.** We use the full and faithful predicate functor \( \text{Pred} = [0, 1]\langle-\rangle : \text{Klfin}(\mathcal{D}) \to \text{DcEMod}^{op} \) from Lemma 3.1 (1). The states functor \( \text{Stat} : \text{Klfin}(\mathcal{D}) \to \text{Conv} = \mathcal{EM}(\mathcal{D}) \) is the full and faithful Kleisli extension functor, restricted to finite sets. The functor restricts to metric spaces \( \text{ConvCMet} \hookrightarrow \text{Conv} \) by Lemma 2.6 and to complete spaces \( \text{ConvCMet} \hookrightarrow \text{ConvCMet} \) by Lemma 2.4. We need to check that the two triangles commute.

In one direction we have, for a finite set \( X \),
\[
\left( \text{DcEMod}(-, [0, 1]) \circ \text{Pred} \right)(X) = \text{DcEMod}([0, 1]^X, [0, 1]) \\
\cong \text{Klfin}(\mathcal{D})(1, X) \quad \text{since Pred is full & faithful} \\
\cong \mathcal{D}(X) \\
= \text{Stat}(X)
\]
In the other direction:

\[
(\text{ConvCMet}(-, [0, 1]) \circ \text{Stat})(X) = \text{ConvMet}(D(X), [0, 1]) \\
\cong \text{Met}(X, [0, 1]) \quad \text{using } X \text{ with discrete metric} \\
= \text{Sets}(X, [0, 1]) \\
= \text{Pred}(X).
\]

The description, in the above triangle, of the predicate and state functors via homsets \(\text{Hom}(-, 2)\) and \(\text{Hom}(1, -)\) comes from effectus theory \([17, 10]\). It also applies to von Neumann algebras, when we use their category in opposite form, as \(\mathcal{v}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{A}^{\text{op}}\). For instance, the initial object in \(\mathcal{v}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{A}\) is the algebra \(\mathbb{C}\) of complex numbers; it forms the final object \(1\) in \(\mathcal{v}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{A}^{\text{op}}\).

Thus, a map \(1 \to \mathcal{A}\) in \(\mathcal{v}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{A}^{\text{op}}\) is a state \(\mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{C}\), as we have described before. In a similar way one can check that maps \(\mathcal{A} \to 2 = 1 + 1\) in \(\mathcal{v}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{A}^{\text{op}}\) correspond to effects in the unit interval \([0, 1]_{\mathcal{A}}\), see below, or [17] for details.

**Proposition 4.3.** The opposite of the category \(\mathcal{v}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{A}\) of von Neumann algebras fits in a triangle as below, in which the predicate and state functors are full and faithful and make the triangles commute up-to natural isomorphism.

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\mathcal{DcEMod}^{\text{op}} & \xrightarrow{\top} & \text{ConvCMet} \\
\text{Hom}(-, 2) = \text{Pred} & \downarrow & \downarrow \\
\mathcal{v}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{A}^{\text{op}} & \xleftarrow{\text{Stat} = \text{Hom}(1, -)} &\end{array}
\]

The predicate functor \(\text{Pred} = \text{Hom}(-, 2): \mathcal{v}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{A}^{\text{op}} \to \mathcal{E}\mathcal{M}\mathcal{D}^{\text{op}}\) can be described via maps into \(2\) in the following way. The object \(2 = 1 + 1\) is formed in \(\mathcal{v}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{A}^{\text{op}}\). Hence it is \(0 \times 0\) in \(\mathcal{v}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{A}\), where the initial object 0 is the algebra \(\mathbb{C}\) of complex numbers. One then needs to check that \(\text{Hom}(\mathbb{C}^2, \mathcal{A}) \cong [0, 1]_{\mathcal{A}}\) for a von Neumann algebra \(\mathcal{A}\) via \(f \mapsto f(1, 0)\), which is easy, and left to the reader. In a similar way the maps in \(\text{Hom}(1, \mathcal{A})\) are the maps of von Neumann algebras \(\mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{C}\). These are the states, as used before.

*Proof.* In Lemma 3.1 (2) we have seen that the predicate functor \(\text{Pred} = [0, 1]_{(-)}: \mathcal{v}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{A}^{\text{op}} \to \mathcal{DcEMod}^{\text{op}}\) is full and faithful. For convenience we abbreviate \(\mathcal{F} = \text{ConvCMet}(-, [0, 1])\) and \(\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{DcEMod}(-, [0, 1])\) so that \(\mathcal{F} \dashv \mathcal{G}\) at the top of the above triangle.

Starting from the predicate functor \(\text{Pred}\) the above triangle commutes, since \(\text{Pred}\) is full and faithful:

\[
\mathcal{G}\text{Pred}(\mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{DcEMod}\left(\text{Pred}(\mathcal{A}), [0, 1]\right) = \mathcal{DcEMod}\left(\text{Pred}(\mathcal{A}), \text{Pred}(\mathbb{C})\right) \\
\cong \mathcal{v}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{C}) \\
= \text{Stat}(\mathcal{A}).
\]

Commutation of the second triangle is less obvious. It relies on some facts concerning the linear combinations of normal states on \(\mathcal{A}\), which form a closed linear subspace \(\mathcal{A}_*\) of the continuous dual \(\mathcal{A}^* = \{f: \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{C} \mid f \text{ is bounded and linear}\}\) of \(\mathcal{A}\) (see e.g. A90, A91, and A92 of [1].) This “pre-dual” \(\mathcal{A}_*\) of \(\mathcal{A}\) determines the order and norm of \(\mathcal{A}\) in the sense that the map \(a \mapsto \hat{a}: \mathcal{A} \to (\mathcal{A}_*)^*\) which sends \(a \in \mathcal{A}\) to the bounded functional \(\hat{a}: \mathcal{A}_* \to \mathbb{C}\) given by \(\hat{a}(\varphi) = \varphi(a)\) is a linear isomorphism \(\mathcal{A} \to (\mathcal{A}_*)^*\) that preserves (and reflects) both the norm and the order (see A94 of [1]). Restricted to effects, we get a natural isomorphism \(\text{Pred} = [0, 1]_{(-)} \Rightarrow [0, 1]_{((-)*)}\). Since a bounded linear
functional \( f: \mathcal{A}^* \to \mathbb{C} \) on the pre-dual \( \mathcal{A}^* \) of a von Neumann algebra \( \mathcal{A} \) is completely determined by its action on the states of \( \mathcal{A} \), and this action is affine, contractive and maps into \([0, 1]\) when \( f \) is from \([0, 1]((\mathcal{A}^*)^*) \to \text{ConvCMet}(\text{Stat}(-), [0, 1])\). Composing this with the natural isomorphism mentioned before we get a natural isomorphism \( \text{Pred} \Rightarrow \mathcal{F}_{\text{Stat}} \).

With these isomorphisms \( G_{\text{Pred}} \cong \text{Stat} \) and \( \text{Pred} \cong \mathcal{F}_{\text{Stat}} \) in place we can show that the functor \( \text{Stat}: \text{vNA}^{op} \to \text{ConvCMet} \) is full and faithful, since for two von Neumann algebras \( \mathcal{A} \) and \( \mathcal{B} \) we have:

\[
\text{ConvCMet}\left(\text{Stat}(\mathcal{A}), \text{Stat}(\mathcal{B})\right) \cong \text{ConvCMet}\left(\text{Stat}(\mathcal{A}), G_{\text{Pred}}(\mathcal{B})\right) \\
\cong \text{DcEMod}^{op}\left(\mathcal{F}_{\text{Stat}}(\mathcal{A}), \text{Pred}(\mathcal{B})\right) \\
\cong \text{DcEMod}^{op}\left(\text{Pred}(\mathcal{A}), \text{Pred}(\mathcal{B})\right) \\
\cong \text{vNA}^{op}\left(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}\right). 
\]

5. Concluding remarks

In this paper we have given a systematic unifying description of metrics on states and predicates from the perspective of the duality between state transformers and predicate transformers, notably in state-and-effect triangles. This unifying perspective is most prominent in the use of ‘validity’ metrics, both on states (via joins over predicates) and on predicates (via joins over states).

We have concentrated on the discrete version of classical probability and on quantum probability. What about continuous classical probability? Most of it has already been done in [8], see also [11], albeit in slightly different form, using \( \omega \)-complete ordered cones instead of directed complete effect modules, together with a ‘cone duality’ result of the form \( \text{Hom}(L_p^+(X, \mu), \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}) \cong L_q^+(X, \mu) \) when \( \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1 \); here, \( X \) is a measurable space with measure \( \mu \). In the language of triangles, this duality corresponds to commutation of the triangles, as in the above Propositions 4.2 and 4.3. In a next step, as in [11], a category of ‘kernels’ can be formed, as comma category \((1 \downarrow \mathcal{B})\) of the base category \( \mathcal{B} \) that we use in triangles. For instance, the comma category \((1 \downarrow \mathcal{K}(D))\) contains distributions as objects, and distribution preserving maps between them. They can be used to define Bayesian inversion in the form of a dagger functor on such a comma category, see notable [11] — and [9] for a wider perspective on inversion and disintegration.

References


Appendix A. Missing proofs from Section 2

Proof of Proposition 2.3. Let \( \omega_1, \omega_2 \in \mathcal{D}(X) \) be two discrete probability distributions on the same set \( X \). Recall from (2.1) that by definition: \( \text{tvd}(\omega_1, \omega_2) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x \in X} |\omega_1(x) - \omega_2(x)| \).

We will prove the two inequalities labeled (a) and (b) in:

\[
\text{tvd}(\omega_1, \omega_2) \leq \max_{U \subseteq X} \omega_1 \models 1_U - \omega_2 \models 1_U \leq \bigvee_{p \in [0,1]^X} \left| \omega_1 \models p - \omega_2 \models p \right| \leq \text{tvd}(\omega_1, \omega_2).
\]

This proves Proposition 2.3 since the inequality in the middle is trivial.

We start with some preparatory definitions. Let \( U \subseteq X \) be an arbitrary subset. Recall that we write \( \omega_1(U) = \sum_{x \in U} \omega_1(x) = (\omega \models 1_U) \). We partition \( U \) in three disjoint parts, and take the relevant sums:

\[
\begin{align*}
U_> &= \{ x \in U \mid \omega_1(x) > \omega_2(x) \} \\
U_= &= \{ x \in U \mid \omega_1(x) = \omega_2(x) \} \\
U_< &= \{ x \in U \mid \omega_1(x) < \omega_2(x) \}
\end{align*}
\]

We use this notation in particular for \( U = X \). In that case we can use:

\[
\begin{align*}
1 &= \omega_1(X) = \omega_1(X_>) + \omega_1(X_=) + \omega_1(X_<) \\
1 &= \omega_2(X) = \omega_2(X_>) + \omega_2(X_=) + \omega_2(X_<)
\end{align*}
\]

Hence by subtraction we obtain, since \( \omega_1(X_=) = \omega_2(X_=) \),

\[
0 = (\omega_1(X_>) - \omega_2(X_>) + (\omega_1(X_<) - \omega_2(X_<))
\]

That is,

\[
X^\uparrow = \omega_1(X_>) - \omega_2(X_>) = \omega_2(X_<) - \omega_1(X_<) = X^\downarrow.
\]
As a result:
\[
\tau = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x \in X} |\omega_1(x) - \omega_2(x)|
\]
\[
= \frac{1}{2} \left( \sum_{x \in X^>} (\omega_1(x) - \omega_2(x)) + \sum_{x \in X^<} (\omega_2(x) - \omega_1(x)) \right)
\]
\[
= \frac{1}{2} \left( \omega_1(X^>) - \omega_2(X^>) + (\omega_2(X^<) - \omega_1(X^<)) \right) \tag{A.1}
\]
\[
= \frac{1}{2} (X^+ + X^-)
\]
\[
= X^+.
\]
We have prepared the ground for proving the above inequalities (a) and (b).

(a) We will see that the above maximum is actually reached for the subset \( U = X^> \), first of all because:
\[
\tau = X^+ = \omega_1(X^>) - \omega_2(X^>) = \omega_1 \models 1_{X^>} - \omega_2 \models 1_{X^>}
\]
\[
\leq \max_{U \subseteq X} \omega_1 \models 1_U - \omega_2 \models 1_U.
\]

(b) Let \( p \in [0,1]^X \) be an arbitrary predicate. We write \( 1_U \& p \) for the pointwise product predicate, with: \( (1_U \& p) = 1_U(x) \cdot p(x) \), which is \( p(x) \) if \( x \in U \) and 0 otherwise. Then:
\[
\begin{align*}
|\omega_1 \models p - \omega_2 \models p | &= \left( |\omega_1 \models 1_{X^>} \& p + \omega_1 \models 1_{X^<} \& p + \omega_1 \models 1_{X^<_} \& p \right) \\
&\quad - \left( |\omega_2 \models 1_{X^>} \& p + \omega_2 \models 1_{X^<} \& p + \omega_2 \models 1_{X^<_} \& p \right) \\
&= \left( |\omega_1 \models 1_{X^>} \& p - \omega_2 \models 1_{X^>} \& p \right) - \left( |\omega_2 \models 1_{X^<} \& p - \omega_1 \models 1_{X^<} \& p \right) \\
&\quad \text{if } (\omega_1 \models 1_{X^<} \& p - \omega_2 \models 1_{X^<} \& p \geq (\omega_2 \models 1_{X^<_} \& p - \omega_1 \models 1_{X^<_} \& p) \tag{*}) \\
&\quad \text{otherwise} \\
&\leq \left( |\omega_1 \models 1_{X^>} \& p - \omega_2 \models 1_{X^-_} \& p \right) \text{ if } (*) \\
&\quad |\omega_2 \models 1_{X^<_} \& p - \omega_1 \models 1_{X^<_} \& p \text{ otherwise} \\
&\leq \sum_{x \in X^>} (\omega_1(x) - \omega_2(x)) \cdot p(x) \text{ if } (*) \\
&\quad \sum_{x \in X^<_} (\omega_2(x) - \omega_1(x)) \cdot p(x) \text{ otherwise} \\
&\leq X^+ \text{ if } (*) \\
&\quad X^\downarrow = X^+ \text{ otherwise} \\
&= X^+ \tag{A.1}
\end{align*}
\]

Proof of Proposition 2.11. Let \( \rho_1, \rho_2 \) be two states (density operators) of a Hilbert space \( \mathcal{H} \). The trick is to split the trace-class operator \( \varrho := \rho_1 - \rho_2 \) into its positive and negative parts: we have \( \varrho = \varrho_+ - \varrho_- \), where \( \varrho_+, \varrho_- : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H} \) are positive operators with \( \varrho_+ \varrho_- = 0 \)
and $|q| = \varrho_+ + \varrho_-$, see [2, Cor 2.15]. Note that since $\varrho_+, \varrho_- \leq |q|$ the operators $\varrho_+$ and $\varrho_-$ are trace-class as well. The key is to note that $\text{tr}(\varrho_+ - \varrho_-) = \text{tr}(\varrho) = \text{tr}(\varrho_1) - \text{tr}(\varrho_2) = 1 - 1 = 0$, so that $\text{tr}(\varrho_+) = \text{tr}(\varrho_-)$. Hence:

$$\text{trd}(\varrho_1, \varrho_2) \overset{(2.6)}{=} \frac{1}{2} \text{tr}(|\varrho|) = \frac{1}{2}(\text{tr}(\varrho_+) + \text{tr}(\varrho_-)) = \text{tr}(\varrho_+) = \text{tr}(\varrho_-).$$

Now, given an effect $p$ on $\mathcal{H}$ we have $\varrho_1 = p - \varrho_2 \models p = \text{tr}(\varrho_1 p) - \text{tr}(\varrho_2 p) = \text{tr}(\varrho(p)) = \text{tr}(\varrho_+ p) - \text{tr}(\varrho_- p) \leq \text{tr}(\varrho_+ p) \leq \text{tr}(\varrho_+ + \text{trd}(\varrho_1, \varrho_2))$, using $p \leq \text{id}$. (Here we used that $\text{tr}(\varrho_- p) \geq 0$ by A87 of [1], because $\varrho_- \geq 0$ and $p \geq 0$.) Since similarly $\varrho_2 = p - \varrho_1 \models p \leq \text{trd}(\varrho_1, \varrho_2)$, we get:

$$\bigvee_{p \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{H})} |\varrho_2 \models p - \varrho_1 \models p| \leq \text{trd}(\varrho_1, \varrho_2).$$

The only thing that remains to be shown is that there is a projection $s$ on $\mathcal{H}$ with $\varrho_1 = s - \varrho_2 \models s = \text{trd}(\varrho_1, \varrho_2)$. It turns out that we need to pick the least projection $s$ in $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ with $\varrho_+, s = \varrho_+$ (which exists, see e.g. [2, Defn 2.107]). If $t$ denotes the least projection with $\varrho_+, t = \varrho_-$ then one can prove that $\text{tr}(\varrho_+ t) = 0$ (see e.g. 59IV1 of [40]), so that $\varrho_-, s = \varrho_-, ts = 0$. Whence $\varrho_1 \models s - \varrho_2 \models s = \text{tr}(\varrho_1 s) - \text{tr}(\varrho_2 s) = \text{tr}(\varrho s) = \text{tr}(\varrho_+ s) - \text{tr}(\varrho_- s) = \text{tr}(\varrho_+) = \text{trd}(\varrho_1, \varrho_2)$.

Proof of Proposition 2.14. Let $\varrho_1, \varrho_2: \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{C}$ be two (normal) states of a von Neumann algebra $\mathcal{A}$ and let $e \in [0,1]_\mathcal{A}$ be an arbitrary effect. If we bluntly apply the definition of the operator norm we only get $|\varrho_1 | e - \varrho_2 | e| = |(\varrho_1 - \varrho_2)(e)| \leq \|\varrho_1 - \varrho_2\|_{\text{op}} \|e\| \leq \|\varrho_1 - \varrho_2\|_{\text{op}}$. The factor “$\frac{1}{2}$” from Proposition 2.14 is then missing, so a more subtle approach is called for. Writing $\varrho := \varrho_1 - \varrho_2$ there is by [29, Thm 4.3.2] a sharp predicate $s \in [0,1]_\mathcal{A}$ such that both $\varrho_+ := \varrho(s(\cdot)s)$ and $\varrho_- := -\varrho(s^+(\cdot)s^+)$ are positive and normal, and, moreover,

$$\varrho = \varrho_+ - \varrho_- \quad \text{and} \quad \|\varrho\|_{\text{op}} = \|\varrho_+\|_{\text{op}} + \|\varrho_-\|_{\text{op}}.$$

Further, by [29, Thm 4.3.2] we have $\|\varrho_1\|_{\text{op}} = \varrho_1(1)$ and $\|\varrho_2\|_{\text{op}} = \varrho_2(1)$. Then since $\varrho_1$ and $\varrho_2$ are states, we have $\varrho_1(1) = \varrho_2(1) = 1 - 1 = 0$, so $\varrho_+(1) - \varrho_-(1) = \varrho(1) = 0$, and thus $\|\varrho_+\|_{\text{op}} = \varrho_+(1) = \varrho(1) = \|\varrho_-\|_{\text{op}}$. But then, since $\|\varrho\|_{\text{op}} = \|\varrho_+\|_{\text{op}} + \|\varrho_-\|_{\text{op}}$ we get:

$$\|\varrho_+\|_{\text{op}} = \|\varrho_-\|_{\text{op}} = \frac{1}{2}\|\varrho_1 - \varrho_2\|_{\text{op}}.$$

Now, given $e \in [0,1]_\mathcal{A}$ we have $\varrho_1 \models e - \varrho_2 \models e = \varrho(e) \leq \varrho_+(e) \leq \varrho_+(1) \leq \|\varrho_+\|_{\text{op}} = \frac{1}{2}\|\varrho_1 - \varrho_2\|_{\text{op}}$, and so $\bigvee_{e \in [0,1]_\mathcal{A}} \varrho_1 \models e - \varrho_2 \models e \leq \frac{1}{2}\|\varrho_1 - \varrho_2\|_{\text{op}}$. By a similar reasoning, we get $\bigvee_{e \in [0,1]_\mathcal{A}} \varrho_1 \models e - \varrho_1 \models e \leq \frac{1}{2}\|\varrho_1 - \varrho_2\|_{\text{op}}$, and so:

$$\bigvee_{e \in [0,1]_\mathcal{A}} |\varrho_1 \models e - \varrho_1 \models e| \leq \frac{1}{2}\|\varrho_1 - \varrho_2\|_{\text{op}}.$$

The only real thing left to prove is that $\frac{1}{2}\|\varrho_1 - \varrho_2\|_{\text{op}} = \varrho_1(s) - \varrho_2(s)$, for the above sharp predicate $s$, because all the equalities in Proposition 2.14 follow trivially from it. Since $\varrho_+ = \varrho(s(\cdot)s)$ we have $\varrho_+(s) = \varrho(s) = \varrho_+(1) = \|\varrho_+\|_{\text{op}} = \frac{1}{2}\|\varrho_1 - \varrho_2\|_{\text{op}}$; and since $\varrho_- = -\varrho(s^+(\cdot)s^+)$ we have $\varrho_-(s) = -\varrho(s^+(\cdot)s^+) = -\varrho(0) = 0$. Whence $\varrho_1(s) - \varrho_2(s) = \varrho(s) = \varrho_+(s) - \varrho_-(s) = \varrho_+(s) = \frac{1}{2}\|\varrho_1 - \varrho_2\|_{\text{op}}$.  

\hfill \Box