

# Quantum Model of Mass Function

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## Abstract

Dempster-Shafer (D-S) evidence theory has been used in many fields due to the flexibility and effectiveness in modeling uncertainties, which is the extension of classical probability. Recently, quantum probability which can express uncertainty has been used in many fields due to the existing of interference. Especially for human decision and cognition, interference can better model the process of decision. In order to better expand the applications of D-S evidence theory, the paper proposed quantum model of mass function which can consider the interference. In proposed quantum method, quantum mass function uses euler formula to represent. The paper also discusses some operations in quantum model of mass function. Moreover, the paper also discusses the relationship between quantum mass function and classical mass function by using some numerical examples. Classical mass function is the special case when there is no interference in quantum mass function.

*Keywords:* Dempster-Shafer evidence theory, Quantum Theory, Mass Function, Euler formula, Interference

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## 1. Introduction

Uncertainty is very important in many fields, which has attracted many researchers attention [1]. There are various models to handle uncertainty, including fuzzy sets [2], rough sets [3] and Dempster-Shafer (D-S) evidence theory [4, 5]. D-S evidence theory attract more and more attention due to it needs more weaker condition than the Bayesian theory of probability [6]. Besides, D-S evidence theory can handle imprecise and unknown information by assigning probabilities to the power set of events [7]. For this reason, D-S evidence theory has been used in many fields thanks to the flexibility and effectiveness in modeling uncertainties, such as target recognition, decision-making, classifier and so on.

In D-S evidence theory, there are many operations involving superposition of different events or evidences. Hence, considering the superposition of the different events or evidences is also an open issue. Quantum mechanics provides a new view to consider the superposition. Quantum mechanics are different from classical physical mechanics [8, 9, 10]. The classical systems can be obtained accurately, but there are non-classical correlations among the physical attributes of quantum systems, which make these quantities not accurately obtained, but exist as linear superposition state vectors [11, 12]. There are various experiment used to illustrate the properties of quantum mechanics which includes uncertainty, interference and entanglement and so on [12], such as Schrodinger's Cat [13], double-slit experiment [14] and so on [15]. Based on the properties of quantum mechanics, the quantum information is gradually developed, which has been used many fields, such as communication complexity [16] and game theory [17]. Besides, the quantum theory can better describe the way hu-

mans make judgments towards uncertainty and decisions under conflict environment [18, 19, 20]. At a more fundamental level, it has become clear that an information theory based on quantum principles extends and completes classical information theory [12].

By the above discussion, it can be seen that quantum theory is a hot and interesting topic. Hence, using D-S evidence theory into quantum mechanics provide a new thought to better analyse the process of superposition and expand the application of evidence theory. Vourdas study the connection between quantum mechanics and D-S evidence theory [21, 22, 23]. Deng [24] proposed a meta mass function expressed by complex numbers in DCS evidence theory. Xiao [25] proposed extension of belief function by using complex number. The paper proposed quantum model of mass function by using euler formula which consider the amplitude and phase angle of variables. Quantum model of mass function can better explain the interference of different variables. Quantum mass function can degenerate classic mass function when all variables are orthogonal, namely, the interference of different variables is 0. The paper also proposed the quantum combination rule which is more application and general than Dempster' combination rule. In this context, the quantum model of mass function provides a promising way to model and handle the process of uncertain information. Consequently, several numerical examples are provided to illustrate the efficiency of the quantum evidence theory.

The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2. the preliminaries D-S evidence theory and euler formula are briefly introduced. Section 3 proposed the quantum model of mass function. In Section 4, there are some numerical example be used to explain the proposed method. Finally, this paper is concluded in Section 5.

## 2. Preliminaries

In this section, the preliminaries of D-S theory [4, 5] will be briefly introduced.

### 2.1. Dempster-Shafer theory

**Definition 2.1.** (*Frame of discernment*)

Let  $\Theta$  be the set of mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive events  $A_i$ , namely

$$\Theta = \{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n\} \quad (1)$$

The power set of  $\Theta$  composed of  $2^N$  elements of is indicated by  $2^\Theta$ , namely:

$$2^\Theta = \{\phi, \{A_1\}, \{A_2\}, \dots, \{A_1, A_2\}, \dots, \Theta\} \quad (2)$$

**Definition 2.2.** (*Mass Function*)

For a frame of discernment  $\Theta = \{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n\}$ , the mass function  $m$  is defined as a mapping of  $m$  from 0 to 1, namely:

$$m : 2^\Theta \rightarrow [0, 1] \quad (3)$$

which satisfies

$$m(\phi) = 0 \quad (4)$$

$$\sum_{A \subseteq \Theta} m(A) = 1 \quad (5)$$

In D-S theory, mass function is often called a piece of evidence or belief structure or basic probability assignment (BPA). The  $m(A)$  represents the belief degree to  $A$ , namely, the degree of evidence supports  $A$ . In  $m(A)$ ,

there is a focal element, namely A. BPA is an essential tool for uncertainty measure, there are some researches for BPA.

**Definition 2.3.** (*Belief function*)

The belief function (*Bel*) is a mapping from set  $2^\Theta$  to  $[0,1]$  and satisfied:

$$Bel(A) = \sum_{B \subseteq A} m(B) \quad (6)$$

**Definition 2.4.** (*Plausibility function*)

The plausibility function (*Pl*):  $2^\Theta \rightarrow [0,1]$ , and satisfied:

$$Pl(A) = \sum_{B \cap A \neq \emptyset} m(B) = 1 - Bel(\bar{A}) \quad (7)$$

As can be seen from the above,  $\forall A \subseteq \Theta$ ,  $Bel(A) < Pl(A)$ ,  $Bel(A)$ ,  $Pl(A)$  are respectively the lower and upper limits of A, namely  $[Bel(A), Pl(A)]$ , which indicates uncertain interval for A.

**Definition 2.5.** (*Dempster Combine Rule*)

There are two BPAs indicated by  $m_1$  and  $m_2$ , the Dempster combination rule is used to combine them as follows [4]:

$$m(A) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{K-1} \sum_{B \cap C = A} m_1(B) \times m_2(C) \\ 0 \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

with

$$K = \sum_{B \cap C = \emptyset} m_1(B) \times m_2(C) \quad (9)$$

**Definition 2.6.** (*Pignistic Probability Transition*)

Let  $m$  is a BPA under frame of discernment  $\Theta$ , and the pignistic probability tran-

sition is defined as follows [26]:

$$p(B) = \sum_{B \subseteq A} \frac{m(A)}{|A|} \quad (10)$$

where  $|A|$  represents the cardinality of  $A$ .

Besides, the pignistic probability transition also named PPT.

## 2.2. Euler formula

**Definition 2.7.** The Euler formula is defined as follows:

$$a = e^{j\theta} = \cos(\theta) + j\sin(\theta) \quad (11)$$

where  $e$  is natural logarithm,  $j$  is imaginary number,  $\theta$  is angle. Besides, the amplitude of  $a$  is always 1, namely,  $|a| = 1$ .

Besides,

$$|ae^{j\theta}| = a^2 \quad (12)$$

$$|ae^{j\theta_1} + be^{j\theta_2}| = a^2 + b^2 + 2ab\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) \quad (13)$$

where

$$interference = 2ab\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) \quad (14)$$

Interference is the term of quantum mechanics, which is superposition of micro-particles and is similarly with interference of light in classical mechanics. The Eq. 13 and 14 has been used in many fields [27, 28]. There are various methods to calculate the interference which has been used many fields [27, 28].

### 3. Quantum Model of Mass Function

Quantum probability has been used in many fields [29]. In order to better explore the connection of different evidence and expand the application of D-S evidence theory, the paper proposed the quantum model of mass function.

**Definition 3.1.** (*Quantum Frame of Discernment*)

Let  $\Theta$  be the set of mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive events  $|A_i \rangle$ , namely

$$|\Theta \rangle = \{|A_1 \rangle, |A_2 \rangle, \dots, |A_n \rangle\} \quad (15)$$

The power set of  $|\Theta \rangle$  composed of  $2^N$  elements of is indicated by  $2^{|\Theta \rangle}$ , namely:

$$2^{|\Theta \rangle} = \{\phi, \{|A_1 \rangle\}, \{|A_2 \rangle\}, \dots, \{|A_1, A_2 \rangle\}, \dots, |\Theta \rangle\} \quad (16)$$

**Definition 3.2.** (*Quantum Mass Function*)

In quantum frame of discernment, the quantum mass function  $\mathbf{Q}$  is defined as follows:

$$\mathbf{Q}(|A \rangle) = \psi_1 e^{j\theta_1} \quad (17)$$

which is a mapping of  $\mathbf{Q}$  from 0 to 1 and satisfies :

$$\mathbf{Q}(\phi) = 0 \quad (18)$$

$$\sum_{|A \rangle \subseteq |\Theta \rangle} |\mathbf{Q}(|A \rangle)| = 1 \quad (19)$$

where  $|\mathbf{Q}(|A \rangle)| = \psi_1^2$

The quantum mass function also is called as quantum basic probability assignment(QBPA), where  $|\psi_1|^2$  represents the belief degree to  $|A \rangle$ , name-

ly, evidence supports the proposition or hypothesis  $|A \rangle$ . The  $\theta$  represents phase angle of  $|A \rangle$ .

**Remark 1 :** If the phase angle of quantum mass function equals  $0^\circ$ , the quantum mass function can degenerate the classical mass function.

**Remark 2 :** The quantum mass function does not satisfy additivity, as Eq. 20.

$$Q(A) + Q(B) \neq |Q(A)| + |Q(A)| \quad (20)$$

**Definition 3.3.** (*Quantum Belief Function*)

In quantum frame of discernment, the quantum belief function  $QBel$  is defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} QBel(|A \rangle) &= \sum_{|B \rangle \subseteq |A \rangle} Q(|B \rangle) \\ &= \psi_{A1} e^{j\theta A1} + \psi_{A2} e^{j\theta A2} + \dots \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

**Definition 3.4.** (*Quantum Plausibility Function*)

In quantum frame of discernment, the quantum plausibility function  $QPl$  is defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} QPl(|A \rangle) &= \sum_{|B \rangle \cap |A \rangle \neq \emptyset} Q(|B \rangle) \\ &= \psi_{A1} e^{j\theta A1} + \psi_{A2} e^{j\theta A2} + \dots \end{aligned} \quad (22)$$

Apparently,  $|QBel(|A \rangle)|$  represents the lower probability of supporting proposition  $|A \rangle$  and  $|QPl(|A \rangle)|$  represents the upper probability of supporting proposition  $|A \rangle$ . Hence,  $[|QBel(|A \rangle)|, |QPl(|A \rangle)|]$  is the interval of proposition  $|A \rangle$ .

**Remark 3 :** If the phase angle of quantum mass function equals  $0^\circ$  or the interference of different events equals 0, the quantum belief function and plausibility function can degenerate the classical belief and plausibility



function.

**Proof :** Suppose there are some QBPA's under a quantum frame of discernment  $\Omega = \{|A \rangle, |B \rangle, |C \rangle\}$ , the QBP's are given as follows:

$$Q(|A \rangle) = ae^{j\theta_1}, Q(|B \rangle) = be^{j\theta_2}, Q(|A \rangle, |C \rangle) = ce^{j\theta_3}$$

where  $a^2 + b^2 + c^2 = 1$ . The QBel and QPl of  $|A \rangle$  are shown as follows:

$$QBel(|A \rangle, |B \rangle) = ae^{j\theta_1} + be^{j\theta_2}, QPl(|A \rangle, |B \rangle) = ae^{j\theta_1} + be^{j\theta_2} + ce^{j\theta_3}$$

If the all phase angle of QBP's equal  $0^\circ$ , the QBel and QPl are given as follows:

$$QBel(|A \rangle, |B \rangle) = a + b, QPl(|A \rangle, |B \rangle) = a + b + c$$

which is equal with classical  $Bel(A, B)$  and  $Pl(A, B)$ .

If the phase angle of QBP's does not equal  $0^\circ$ , the  $|QBel(|A \rangle, |B \rangle)|$  and  $|QPl(|A \rangle, |B \rangle)|$  are given as follows:

$$|QBel(|A \rangle, |B \rangle)| = a^2 + b^2 + 2ab\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2)$$

$$|QPl(|A \rangle, |B \rangle)| = a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + 2ab\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) + 2accos(\theta_1 - \theta_3) + 2bccos(\theta_2 - \theta_3)$$

when the interference of  $|QBel(|A \rangle, |B \rangle)|$  and  $|QPl(|A \rangle, |B \rangle)|$  are equal 0, the  $|QBel(|A \rangle, |B \rangle)|$  and  $|QPl(|A \rangle, |B \rangle)|$  is similar with classical  $Bel(A, B)$  and  $Pl(A, B)$ .

**Definition 3.5.** (*Quantum Combination Rule*)

There are two QBP's Q1 and Q2, the quantum combination rule is defined as

follows:

$$\mathbf{Q}(|A \rangle) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \frac{1}{1-|\mathbb{K}|} \sum_{|B \rangle \cap |C \rangle = |A \rangle} \mathbf{Q}(|B \rangle) \times \mathbf{Q}(|C \rangle) & |A \rangle \neq \phi \\ 0 & |A \rangle = \phi \end{array} \right\} \quad (23)$$

After normalization:

$$|\mathbf{Q}(|A \rangle)| = \frac{|\mathbf{Q}(|A \rangle)|}{|\mathbf{Q}(|A \rangle)| + |\mathbf{Q}(|B \rangle)| + \dots + |\mathbf{Q}(|A \rangle, |B \rangle)| + \dots} \quad (24)$$

where  $\mathbb{K}$  is defined as follows:

$$\mathbb{K} = \sum_{|B \rangle \cap |C \rangle = \phi} \mathbf{Q}1(|B \rangle) \times \mathbf{Q}2(|C \rangle) \quad (25)$$

In quantum combination rule,  $\mathbb{K}$  is the quantum probability and  $|\mathbb{K}|$  represents the conflict degree between the QBPA's  $\mathbf{Q}1$  and  $\mathbf{Q}2$ .

**Remark 4 :** The conflict  $|\mathbb{K}|$  of quantum combination rule can generate the classical conflict  $k$  when the interference of  $\mathbb{K}$  is 0, namely the two elements are orthogonal to each other.

**Proof :** Suppose there are the two QBPA's  $\mathbf{Q}1$  and  $\mathbf{Q}2$  in the quantum frame of discernment  $|\Theta \rangle = \{|A \rangle, |B \rangle\}$ , and the two QBPA's are given as follows:

$$\mathbf{Q}1(|A \rangle) = a_1 e^{j\theta_{11}}, \mathbf{Q}1(|B \rangle) = b_1 e^{j\theta_{12}}, \mathbf{Q}1(|A \rangle, |B \rangle) = c_1 e^{j\theta_{13}}$$

$$\mathbf{Q}2(|A \rangle) = a_2 e^{j\theta_{21}}, \mathbf{Q}2(|B \rangle) = b_2 e^{j\theta_{22}}$$

where QBPA's satisfies that  $a_1^2 + b_1^2 + c_1^2 = 1$  and  $a_2^2 + b_2^2 = 1$

The  $\mathbb{K}$  is calculated as follows:

$$\mathbb{K} = a_1 b_2 e^{j\theta_1} + a_2 b_1 e^{j\theta_2}$$

$$|\mathbb{K}| = (a_1 b_2)^2 + (a_2 b_1)^2 + 2a_1 b_2 a_2 b_1 \cos\theta \quad (26)$$

In Eq. 19, the *interference* =  $2a_1 b_2 a_2 b_1 \cos\theta$  represents the interference. If the interference is 0, the  $|\mathbb{K}|$  can generate the classical conflict coefficient  $k$ .

**Remark 5 :** The quantum combination rule is only application for QB-PAs Q1 and Q2 under the condition  $\mathbb{K} \neq 1$

**Remark 6 :** The quantum combination rule can generate the classical Dempster's combination rule when quantum evidence theory does not exist interference, namely *interference*=0.

**Proof :** Using the *Example 1*, the fusion results are as follows:

$$Q(|A \rangle) = \frac{a_1 a_2 e^{j\theta_3} + a_2 c_1 e^{j\theta_4}}{1 - |\mathbb{K}|}$$

$$Q(|B \rangle) = \frac{b_1 b_2 e^{j\theta_5} + b_2 c_1 e^{j\theta_6}}{1 - |\mathbb{K}|}$$

$$|Q(|A \rangle)| = \frac{(a_1 a_2)^2 + (a_2 c_1)^2 + 2a_1 a_2 a_2 c_1 \cos\theta_1}{1 - |\mathbb{K}|}$$

$$Q(|B \rangle) = \frac{(b_1 b_2)^2 + (b_2 c_1)^2 + 2b_1 b_2 b_2 c_1 \cos\theta_2}{1 - |\mathbb{K}|}$$

where *interference1* =  $2a_1 a_2 a_2 c_1 \cos\theta_1$  and *interference2* =  $2b_1 b_2 b_2 c_1 \cos\theta_2$ .

The quantum combination rule can generate the classical Dempster's combination rule when *interference* = 0, *interference1* = 0 and *interference2* = 0.

**Definition 3.6.** (*Quantum Pignistic Probability Transformation*)

Let  $\mathbb{Q}(|A \rangle)$  is the QBPA's under the quantum frame of discernment  $\Omega$  and  $|A \rangle \subseteq \Omega$ , the quantum pignistic probability transformation is defined as follows:

$$\mathbb{P}(|B \rangle) = \sum_{|B \rangle \subseteq |A \rangle} \frac{\mathbb{Q}(|A \rangle)}{| |A \rangle |} \quad (27)$$

where  $|A|$  represents the cardinality of  $|A \rangle$ .

The quantum pignistic probability transformation assign the multi-elements sets into the single element sets. In Eq. 19,  $\mathbb{P}(|B \rangle)$  is the quantum probability.

**Remark 7 :** If the phase angle of quantum mass function equals  $0^\circ$  or the interference of different events equals 0, the quantum belief function and plausibility function can degenerate the classical belief and plausibility function.

#### 4. Numerical Example

In this section, there are some examples to explain the effectiveness quantum model of mass function.

**Example 4.1.** Suppose the quantum frame of discernment is  $\Omega = \{|A \rangle, |B \rangle, |C \rangle\}$ , the QBPA's is shown as follows:

$$\mathbb{Q}(|A \rangle) = \sqrt{0.2}e^{j0^\circ}, \mathbb{Q}(|A \rangle, |B \rangle) = \sqrt{0.3}e^{j0^\circ}$$

$$\mathbb{Q}(|B \rangle) = \sqrt{0.2}e^{j0^\circ}, \mathbb{Q}(|A \rangle, |C \rangle) = \sqrt{0.3}e^{j0^\circ}$$

when the phase angles of all QBPA's equal  $0^\circ$ , the quantum mass function can degenerate the classical mass function.

**Example 4.2.** Suppose the quantum frame of discernment is  $\Omega = \{|A \rangle, |B \rangle, |C \rangle\}$ , the QBPA is shown as follows:

$$Q(|A \rangle) = \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta_{11}}, Q(|A \rangle, |B \rangle) = \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_{12}}$$

$$Q(|B \rangle) = \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta_{13}}, Q(|A \rangle, |C \rangle) = \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_{14}}$$

The *QBel* and *QPl* is calculated as follows:

$$QBel(|A \rangle) = \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta_{11}}, QPl(|A \rangle) = \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta_{11}} + \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_{12}} + \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_{14}}$$

$$QBel(|B \rangle) = \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta_{13}}, QPl(|A \rangle) = \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta_{13}} + \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_{12}}$$

$$QBel(|C \rangle) = 0, QPl(|C \rangle) = \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_{14}}$$

$$QBel(|A \rangle, |B \rangle) = \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta_{11}} + \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta_{13}} + \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_{12}}$$

$$QPl(|A \rangle, |B \rangle) = \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta_{11}} + \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta_{13}} + \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_{12}} + \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_{14}}$$

$$QBel(|A \rangle, |C \rangle) = \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta_{11}} + \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_{14}}$$

$$QPl(|A \rangle, |C \rangle) = \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta_{11}} + \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta_{13}} + \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_{12}} + \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_{14}}$$

$$QBel(|B \rangle, |C \rangle) = \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta_{13}}, QPl(|B \rangle, |C \rangle) = \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta_{13}} + \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_{12}} + \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_{14}}$$

$$QBel(|A \rangle, |B \rangle, |C \rangle) = \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta_{11}} + \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta_{13}} + \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_{12}} + \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_{14}}$$

$$QPl(|A \rangle, |B \rangle, |C \rangle) = \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta_{11}} + \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta_{13}} + \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_{12}} + \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_{14}}$$

If the phase angle of all QBPA equals  $0^\circ$ , the *QBel* and *QPl* can degenerate the classical *Bel* and *Pl*. Besides, if there is no interference, the  $|QBel|$  and  $|QPl|$  is similar with the classical *Bel* and *Pl*.

**Example 4.3.** There are two QBPA's Q1 and Q2 under the quantum frame of discernment  $\Omega = \{|A \rangle, |B \rangle, |C \rangle\}$ , and the two QBPA's Q1 and Q2 are given as follows:

$$Q1(|A \rangle) = \sqrt{0.5}e^{j\theta11}, Q1(|B \rangle) = \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta12}, Q1(|A \rangle, |B \rangle, |C \rangle) = \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta13}$$

$$Q2(|B \rangle) = \sqrt{0.1}e^{j\theta21}, Q2(|A \rangle, |C \rangle) = \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta22}, Q2(|A \rangle, |B \rangle, |C \rangle) = \sqrt{0.7}e^{j\theta23}$$

It is easy to verify that the  $|Q1(|A \rangle)| + |Q1(|B \rangle)| + |Q1(|A \rangle, |B \rangle, |C \rangle)| = 1$  and  $|Q2(|B \rangle)| + |Q2(|A \rangle, |C \rangle)| + |Q2(|A \rangle, |B \rangle, |C \rangle)| = 1$ .

According the Eq. 18, the conflict between two evidences can be calculated as follows:

$$\mathbb{K} = Q1(|A \rangle) \times Q2(|B \rangle) + Q1(|B \rangle) \times Q2(|A \rangle, |C \rangle)$$

$$\mathbb{K} = \sqrt{0.5}e^{j\theta11} \times \sqrt{0.1}e^{j\theta21} + \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta12} \times \sqrt{0.2}e^{j\theta22}$$

$$\mathbb{K} = \sqrt{0.05}e^{j\theta1} + \sqrt{0.04}e^{j\theta2}$$

$$|\mathbb{K}| = 0.09 + 2 \times \sqrt{0.002} \times \cos\theta \quad (28)$$

In Eq. 20,  $2 \times \sqrt{0.002} \times \cos\theta$  represents the interference. The amplitude of  $\mathbb{K}$  changes with  $\theta$ .

By using Eq. 17, the fusion results can be got as follows:

$$Q(|A \rangle) = \frac{\sqrt{0.1}e^{j\theta3} + \sqrt{0.35}e^{j\theta4}}{1 - |\mathbb{K}|}, Q(|B \rangle) = \frac{\sqrt{0.02}e^{j\theta5} + \sqrt{0.14}e^{j\theta6} + \sqrt{0.03}e^{j\theta7}}{1 - |\mathbb{K}|}$$

$$Q(|A \rangle, |C \rangle) = \frac{\sqrt{0.06}e^{j\theta8}}{1 - |\mathbb{K}|}, Q(|A \rangle, |B \rangle, |C \rangle) = \frac{\sqrt{0.21}e^{j\theta9}}{1 - |\mathbb{K}|}$$

It can be seen that the fusion results is also the QBPA. Next, the amplitude of QBPA is calculated as follows:

$$|Q(|A \rangle)| = \frac{0.45 + 0.3742\cos\theta_1}{1 - |\mathbb{K}|}, |Q(|B \rangle)| = \frac{0.19 + 0.1058\cos\theta_2 + 0.049\cos\theta_3 + 0.1296\cos\theta_4}{1 - |\mathbb{K}|}$$

$$|Q(|A \rangle, |C \rangle)| = \frac{0.06}{1 - |\mathbb{K}|}, |Q(|A \rangle, |B \rangle, |C \rangle)| = \frac{0.21}{1 - |\mathbb{K}|}$$

when  $\theta = 90^\circ$ ,  $\theta_1 = 90^\circ$ ,  $\theta_2 = 90^\circ$ ,  $\theta_3 = 90^\circ$  and  $\theta_4 = 90^\circ$ , the amplitude of QBPA is as follows:

$$|Q(|A \rangle)| = 0.49, |Q(|B \rangle)| = 0.21, |Q(|A \rangle, |C \rangle)| = 0.07, |Q(|A \rangle, |B \rangle, |C \rangle)| = 0.23$$

The result is the same with classical Dempster's combination rule, showing that the quantum combination rule can degenerate the classical Dempster's combination rule when there is no interference, namely, all element is mutually orthogonal.

Moreover, if there are interferences, namely,  $\theta = 45^\circ$ ,  $\theta_1 = 60^\circ$ ,  $\theta_2 = 30^\circ$ ,  $\theta_3 = 90^\circ$  and  $\theta_4 = 120^\circ$ , the fusion results are given as follows:

$$|Q(|A \rangle)| = 0.57, |Q(|B \rangle)| = 0.19, |Q(|A \rangle, |C \rangle)| = 0.05, |Q(|A \rangle, |B \rangle, |C \rangle)| = 0.19$$

So, it can be seen that interference can influence the final results.

**Example 4.4.** *Supposing that there are two QBPA's in a quantum frame of discernment, and the two QBPA's are given as follows:*

$$Q1(|A \rangle) = \sqrt{0.3}e^{j30^\circ}, Q1(|B \rangle) = \sqrt{0.2}e^{j180^\circ}, Q1(|A \rangle, |C \rangle) = \sqrt{0.5}e^{j270^\circ}$$

$$Q2(|A \rangle, |B \rangle) = \sqrt{0.4}e^{j90^\circ}, Q2(|B \rangle) = \sqrt{0.3}e^{j120^\circ}, Q2(|A \rangle, |C \rangle) = \sqrt{0.3}e^{j300^\circ}$$

Using the Eq. 22 – 24, the final fusion results are shown as follows:

$$\mathbb{K} = 0.3e^{j150^\circ} + 0.2449e^{j120^\circ} + 0.3873e^{j30^\circ}, |K| = 0.3111$$

$$\mathbb{Q}(|A \rangle) = \frac{0.3464e^{j120^\circ} + 0.3e^{j330^\circ} + 0.4472e^{j150^\circ}}{0.6889}, |\mathbb{Q}(|A \rangle)| = 0.4664$$

$$\mathbb{Q}(|B \rangle) = \frac{0.2828e^{j270^\circ} + 0.2449e^{j300^\circ}}{0.6889}, |\mathbb{Q}(|B \rangle)| = 0.3774$$

$$\mathbb{Q}(|A \rangle, |C \rangle) = \frac{0.3873e^{j210^\circ}}{0.6889}, |\mathbb{Q}(|A \rangle, |C \rangle)| = 0.2177$$

After normalization,

$$|\mathbb{Q}(|A \rangle)| = 0.4394, |\mathbb{Q}(|B \rangle)| = 0.3555, |\mathbb{Q}(|A \rangle, |C \rangle)| = 0.2051$$

After quantum combination rule, the sum of amplitude does not equal

1. The reason is that any operation will change the original state of the system and operation is irreversible.

**Example 4.5.** *There are QBPA's under the quantum frame of discernment  $\Omega = \{|A \rangle, |B \rangle, |C \rangle\}$ . The QBPA's are given as follows:*

$$\mathbb{Q}(|A \rangle, |C \rangle) = \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_1}, \mathbb{Q}(|A \rangle, |B \rangle) = \sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_2}, \mathbb{Q}(|A \rangle, |B \rangle, |C \rangle) = \sqrt{0.4}e^{j\theta_3},$$

According to the Eq. 21, the results are shown as follows:

$$\mathbb{P}(|A \rangle) = \frac{\sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_1}}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_2}}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{0.4}e^{j\theta_3}}{3}$$

$$\mathbb{P}(|B \rangle) = \frac{\sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_2}}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{0.4}e^{j\theta_3}}{3}, \mathbb{P}(|C \rangle) = \frac{\sqrt{0.3}e^{j\theta_1}}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{0.4}e^{j\theta_3}}{3}$$

From the results, it can be seen that the classical PPT is the special case



of quantum pignistic probability transition.

Analysing the above example, it can be known that the quantum evidence theory can generate the classical D-S evidence theory when there is no interference between two or multiple elements. More importantly, interference is the unique phenomenon in quantum mechanics, which represents effect of different events before the final decision and is similar with interference of light in classical mechanics. Considering the interference of operations is helpful to analyse the connection of different events.

## 5. Conclusion

Dempster-Shafer (D-S) evidence theory can have  $2^n$  sets so that it can handle some imprecise and unknown information very well. Quantum theory attracted more and more researchers attention due to its powerful capabilities of solving the decision making problems. How to establish a bridge between quantum theory and D-S evidence theory is an also open issue. Hence, the paper propose quantum model of mass function. In quantum model of mass function, the paper uses euler formula to represent the quantum mass function, the of quantum mass function represents the probability of occurrence of  $|A\rangle$ . Meanwhile, the paper also discusses the quantum belief function, quantum plausibility function and quantum combination rule. Quantum evidence theory can degenerate the classical D-S evidence theory if there is no interference or the phase angle is  $0^\circ$ . That is to say, the classical D-S evidence theory is the special case of quantum model of mass function when different elements are orthogonal to each other. Finally, the paper uses some numerical example to explain the difference between classical D-S evidence theory and quantum evidence theory.

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## **Conflict of interests**

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests regarding the publication of this paper.

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