Capacities of Quantum Channels

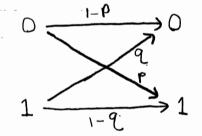
1) What is a classical channel?

• phone line, radio waves, etc.

As a simplified abstraction we'll look at discrete memoryless channels.

Memoryless means each use is independent.

Any discrete memoryless Channel for bits can be fully described by two probabilities p and 9:



If p=q then this is the binary symmetric channel.

2) What is a quantum channel?

Discrete: finite-dimensional Hilbert Space

Memoryless: each use is independent

= quantum operation or "superoperator"

P -> E AKPAK where EAKAK = I

Examples

1) Depolarizing channel (this is the quantum analogue to the binary symmetric channel)

$$\rho \rightarrow (1-\lambda)\rho + \lambda I/d$$
 (for d-dimensional)

For 2-dimensions (qubits) we can use the following identity to put this into operator sum form:

$$\frac{\overline{L}}{2} = \frac{P + \overline{J_x} P \overline{J_x} + \overline{J_y} P \overline{J_y} + \overline{J_z} P \overline{J_z}}{4}$$

For all p with trace 1.

So for qubits the depolarizing channel can be written as:

$$P \rightarrow (1-7)P + \frac{7}{3} \left[\sigma_{x} \rho \sigma_{x} + \sigma_{y} \rho \sigma_{y} + \sigma_{z} \rho \sigma_{z} \right]$$

(which doesn't look obviously symmetric anymore, but of course it still is)

2) Dephasing channel

3) Amplitude damping channel

11) is likely to go to 10) but not the other way around, e.g. photon loss in an optical fiber

The operator sum representation of an amplitude damping channel is:

$$A_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{1-y} \end{pmatrix} \qquad A_{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sqrt{y} \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$P \rightarrow \sum_{i} A_{i} P A_{i}^{\dagger}$$

For all the examples shown so far, the channels have been representable as a mixture of unitaries:

Question: can all channels & with & (I/d) = I/d

be represented as mixtures of

unitaries?

For d=2 the answer is yes. For d=3 the answer is no.

Now we'll look at a counterexample for d=3.

1) Project onto the X-Y, X-Z, or Y-Z planes.

This is a POVM with elements

$$\frac{1}{2}\begin{pmatrix}1\\&&\\&&\\&&&\end{pmatrix}\qquad \frac{1}{2}\begin{pmatrix}1\\&&\\&&1\end{pmatrix}\qquad \frac{1}{2}\begin{pmatrix}0\\&\\&&1\end{pmatrix}$$

2) Flip coordinates in planes. The 3 corresponding Kraus operators are

$$A_{1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad A_{2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad A_{3} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

This quantum channel cannot be represented as a mixture of unitaries,

Now let's look at what type of argument can be used to prove this.

If we input $|0\rangle$ to this channel we get $\frac{1}{2}\left(|1\rangle\langle1|+|2\rangle\langle2|\right)$

as output,

If we input the state $(10) + |1\rangle / \sqrt{2}$ then with probability 1/2 the state gets projected onto the 0-1 plane. This state is already in the 0-1 plane, so in this case the output is just $(10) + |1\rangle / \sqrt{2}$.

With probability 14 the State will get projected onto the 1-2 plane, in which case the output is 11).

With probability 14 the state gets projected Onto the U-Z plane, in which case the output is 10>. Thus we see that $\xi(10)$ has zero amplitude for 10 and $\xi((10)+11)/\sqrt{2}$ has zero amplitude for 12.

If E is a mixture of unitaries then each of the unitaries must satisfy these constraints. By considering the action of E on a few more input states it is possible to compile enough constraints so that no unitary can satisfy all of them.

As a final example, we'll look at the erasure channel, which takes d-dimensional inputs to a d+1 dimensional space of outputs.

For d=2:

$$A_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{1-\rho} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{1-\rho} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad A_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ \sqrt{\rho} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad A_{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{\rho} \end{bmatrix}$$

Classical Shannon theory:

- 2 big theorems in Shannon's famous paper:
- 1) noiseless coding thm ("source coding thm")
- 2) noisy coding thm ("channel coding thm")

A discrete probability distribution P,... Px has entropy

$$H(\rho) = -\sum_{j=1}^{K} \rho_j \log \rho_j$$

(H(p) is the information theory notation. The physics notation for entropy is S(p).)

A source can be coded so that n symbols are sent using

$$(H(s) + \epsilon)n$$
 bits

source 5 is modelled as producing independent identically distributed random variables from some probability distribution.)

Def The capacity of a channel is:

max I (A:B)

where I(A:B) is the mutual information between the input A and the output B.

Def Mutual information is defined by

$$I(A:B) = H(A) + H(B) - H(A,B)$$

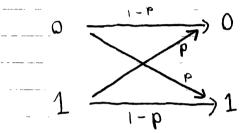
where H(A,B) denotes the entropy of the joint probability distribution of A and B.

It is also true that

$$I(A:B) = H(B) - H(B|A)$$

where BIA denotes the conditional probability distribution for B given A.

Example: Binary Symmetric Channel



$$H(B|A) = -p \log p - (1-p) \log (1-p)$$

regardless of what A is.

And
$$H(A,B) = \rho_0 \rho (0 \to 1) + \rho_0 (1-\rho) (0 \to 0)$$

+ $\rho_1 \rho (1 \to 0) + \rho_1 (1-\rho) (1 \to 1)$

To find I we choose $P_0 = P_1 = \frac{1}{2}$ since this maximizes H(B), whereas H(B|A) is not affected by P_0 and P_1 .

N(C-E) bits of information can be transmitted over a channel and recovered with high probability by using the channel N times, where C is the channel capacity.

More precisely, for any E, there exists an nand a coding scheme which takes n(C-E) bits and encodes them so that they can be transmitted by using the channel n times

Shannons theorems are proved using typical bequences.

Typical Sequences

Suppose you have a probability distribution

probability pr for symbol di probability pr for symbol dr

A length n string is E-typical if Xi, the number of occurrences of symbol di satisfies

 $N(p; -\epsilon) \leq X; \leq N(p; +\epsilon)$

for all i.

Theorem: with high probability a length n String produced by a given source is E-+ypical.

> (More precisely, the probability of a String not being €-typical goes to Zero exponentially as n->,0.)

The proof of this theorem is relatively simple and works by applying Stirling's formula to the multinomial distribution.

Encoding

A source s outputs a typical string with high probability.

It is only necessary to encode typical strings, since by simply throwing out non-typical strings one only fails with exponentially small probability.

The number of bits needed to encode a typical string is log2 (# of typical strings)

$$\simeq -\log_2\left(\begin{array}{cccc} n & & \\ p_1 n & p_2 n & \dots & p_K n \end{array}\right)$$

 \sim n H (p., p2, ..., pn)

= n H (source)

Quantum coding

Alice gets a source which outputs on unknown pure state IV:> with probability Pi.

Alice's goal is to send these States to Bob using as few qubits as possible.

Alice can use quantum data compression to successfully transmit the states to Bob with high probability using a reduced number of qubits.

Criteria for success

Alice gets n symbols from the source

 $|V\rangle = |V_{i1}\rangle \otimes |V_{i2}\rangle \otimes ... \otimes |V_{in}\rangle$

She wants to compress this into some number of qubits, send them through a noiseless quantum channel to Bob, Bob then decompresses and obtains P.

require: E (V/p/V) 2 1-E
expectation fidelity

To be concrete, we could imagine that there is a referee who, unlike Alice and Bob, knows IVi). The referee does the best measurement allowed by quantum mechanics and can't distinguish Bob's decompressed state from IV) except with probability E.

Def The entropy of a source is H(p) where p is the density matrix defined by

$$P = \sum_{i} P_{i} |V_{i}\rangle\langle V_{i}|$$

and $H(p) = -tr(p \log p)$.

Note that H(p) is equal to the Shannon entropy of the eigenvalues of p. Also note that log(p) is uniquely defined since density matrices are always positive operators.

Now let's see how Alice performs the compression.

Alice projects anto a typical subspace. This is the quantum analogue of typical sequences and next we'll see what typical subspaces are.

Suppose the source produces states

(VI), (V2), ..., (VK) with probabilities

propose the source is

$$\rho = \sum_{i=1}^{k} P_i |V_i\rangle \langle V_i|$$

Call the eigenvectors of ρ $|\tilde{V}_i\rangle$ and the eigenvalues λ_i . The source which produces states $|V_i\rangle$, $|V_2\rangle$, ..., $|V_k\rangle$ with probabilities $|X_i|$, $|X_2|$, ..., $|X_k|$ has the same density matrix ρ .

These states are orthogonal so this source is essentially classical.

Ihm Any two sources with identical density matrices behave the same in any experiment (i.e. are indistinguishen ble).

The typical subspace is the subspace Spanned by typical sequences of |V:>'s.

Alice's compression procedure:

Perform a projective measurement to see whether the string of n states produced by the source lies in the typical subspace or not. If it does then send the resulting projection onto the typical subspace through the quantum channel. This requires n(H(P)+E) qubits, since this is just the Shannon entropy of the λ :'s.

The probability that the state will project into the typical subspace is nearly 1.

Let's let T be the projector onto the typical subspace and let

14) = |V;1 > ⊗ |V;2 > ∞ ... ∞ |Vin >

be the cutput of the source. Then

 $E_{\Psi} \langle \Psi | T | \Psi \rangle = 1 - E$ expectation
over all
outputs of

Source

If Alice projects successfully she sends

TIV) (4) T (1-E) Factor Recall that $(\Psi|T|\Psi)=1-E$. Thus the fidelity is:

$$--\langle \Psi | \left(\frac{T |\Psi \rangle \langle \Psi | T}{1 - \varepsilon} \right) |\Psi \rangle = \frac{(1 - \varepsilon)^2}{1 - \varepsilon} = 1 - \varepsilon$$

Capacity of quantum channel

Example:

Alice is given 2 non-orthogonal quantum states with which to encode. We'll denote these as and R.

One thing she could do is:

Bob measures each I or 2, distinguishes them as well as possible, and decodes.

More specifically, suppose I and Z represent the following states of a qubit:

$$\mathcal{I} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \qquad \mathcal{Z} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

The optimal measurement to distinguish these is a Von Neumann measurement symmetric about these two states:

project onto these perpendicular

The accessible information is:

$$I_{acc} = 1 - H_2 \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sin \theta}{2} \right)$$

where H2(p) denotes -plogp - (1-p) log(1-p),

Suppose Alice is instead given 3 quantum states

Suppose Alice encodes her bits just using two of these states. In this case she can only transmit 0.6454 bits per channel use.

There is another strategy Alice can use which is much better. Use two-state blacks and send either

12) 12), 12) 12), or 15) 15)

If Bob uses the Von Neumann measurement that best distinguishes these then he gets 1.369 bits per Channel usage.