A Quantum Compression No-Go Theorem

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Abstract

This paper provides a resolution to an open problem from 2001 in [BvL01], which states the Kolmogorov complexity of a string is not more than its quantum Kolmogorov complexity. Thus there are no benefits to using quantum mechanics to compress classical information. The quantitative amount of information in bits is invariant to the physical model used.

1 Introduction

A central topic of investigation in computer science is whether leveraging different physical models can change computability and complexity properties of constructs. In a remarkable result, Shor's factoring algorithm uses quantum mechanics to perform factoring in polynomial time. One question is whether quantum mechanics provides benefits to compressing classical information. In this manuscript, a negative answer is given. This solves open problem 1 in [BvL01]. The (prefix-free) Kolmogorov complexity of a string $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ conditioned on its length is $\mathbf{K}(x|n)$, the size of the smallest program to a classical universal Turing machine that can produce x given n on an auxilliary tape. The quantum Kolmogorov complexity of an n qubit state $|\psi\rangle$, which we call BvL complexity (named after its originators), is $\mathbf{Hbvl}(|\psi\rangle)$, the size of the smallest mixed quantum state input to a universal quantum Turing machine (conditioned on n) that produces $|\psi\rangle$ up to arbitrary fidelity. The main result is as follows. As shown in Section 5, the inequality is tight. For $x \in \{0,1\}^n$,

$$\mathbf{K}(x|n) <^+ \mathbf{Hbvl}(|x\rangle\langle x|) + \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{Hbvl}(|x\rangle\langle x|)|n).$$

2 Conventions

We use \mathbb{N} , \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} , $\{0,1\}$, and $\{0,1\}^*$ to denote natural numbers, integers, rational numbers, reals, complex numbers, bits, and finite strings. Let $X_{\geq 0}$ and $X_{>0}$ be the sets of non-negative and of positive elements of X. For set of strings $A \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$, $[\![A]\!] = \{x\alpha : x \in A, \alpha \in \{0,1\}^\infty\}$. When it is clear from the context, we will use natural numbers and other finite objects interchangeably with their binary representations. For positive real functions f, by $<^+f$, $>^+f$, $=^+f$, we denote $\leq f + O(1)$, $\geq f - O(1)$, $= f \pm O(1)$. Furthermore, $\stackrel{*}{<}f$, $\stackrel{*}{>}f$ denotes < O(1)f and > f/O(1). The term and $\stackrel{*}{=}f$ is used to denote $\stackrel{*}{>}f$ and $\stackrel{*}{<}f$. $\mathbf{K}(x|y)$ is the prefix free Kolmogorov complexity and $\mathbf{C}(x|y)$ is the plain Kolmogorov complexity.

We use the standard model of qubits used throughout quantum information theory. We deal with finite N dimensional Hilbert spaces \mathcal{H}_N , with bases $|\alpha_1\rangle, |\alpha_2\rangle, \ldots, |\alpha_n\rangle$. We assume $\mathcal{H}_{n+1} \supseteq \mathcal{H}_n$ and the bases for \mathcal{H}_n are the beginning of that of \mathcal{H}_{n+1} . An n qubit space is denoted by

 $Q_n = \bigotimes_{i=1}^n Q_1$, where qubit space Q_1 has bases $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$. For $x \in \Sigma^n$ we use $|x\rangle \in Q_n$ to denote $\bigotimes_{i=1}^n |x[i]\rangle$. The space Q_n has 2^n dimensions and we identify it with \mathcal{H}_{2^n} .

A pure quantum state $|\phi\rangle$ of length n is represented as a unit vector in \mathcal{Q}_n . Its corresponding element in the dual space is denoted by $\langle \phi|$. The tensor product of two vectors is denoted by $|\phi\rangle \otimes |\psi\rangle = |\phi\rangle |\psi\rangle = |\phi\psi\rangle$. The inner product of $|\psi\rangle$ and $|\psi\rangle$ is denoted by $|\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$.

The symbol Tr denotes the trace operation. The conjugate transpose of a matrix M is denoted by M^* . Projection matrices are Hermitian matrices with eigenvalues in $\{0,1\}$. For positive positive semidefinite matrices, σ and ρ we say $\sigma \leq \rho$ if $\rho - \sigma$ is positive semidefinite. For positive semidefinite matrices A, B, C, if $A \leq B$ then $\text{Tr}AC \leq \text{Tr}BC$. Mixed states are represented by density matrices, which are, self adjoint, positive semidefinite, operators of trace 1. A semi-density matrix has non-negative trace less than or equal to 1.

A pure quantum state $|\phi\rangle$ and (semi)density matrix σ are called *elementary* if their real and imaginary components have rational coefficients. Elementary objects can be encoded into strings or integers and be the output of halting programs. Therefore one can use the terminology $\mathbf{K}(|\phi\rangle)$ and $\mathbf{K}(\sigma)$, and also $\mathbf{m}(|\phi\rangle)$ and $\mathbf{m}(\sigma)$.

We say program $q \in \{0,1\}^*$ lower computes positive semidefinite matrix σ if, given as input to universal Turing machine U, the machine U reads $\leq ||q||$ bits and outputs, with or without halting, a sequence of elementary semi-density matrices $\{\sigma_i\}$ such that $\sigma_i \leq \sigma_{i+1}$ and $\lim_{i\to\infty} \sigma_i = \sigma$. A matrix is lower computable if there is a program that lower computes it.

3 Gács Complexity

Gács complexity, introduced in [Gố1], is a construct that will be used in the proof of the main theorem. The Kolmogorov complexity of a string x is equal to, up to an additive factor, $-\log \mathbf{m}(x)$, where \mathbf{m} is the universal lower computable semi-measure. Similarly Gács complexity is defined using the following universal lower computable semi-density matrix, with

$$\mu = \sum_{\text{Eementary } |\phi\rangle \in \mathcal{Q}_n} \mathbf{m}(|\phi\rangle |n) |\phi\rangle \langle \phi|.$$

The parameter n represents number of qubits used. The Gács complexity of a mixed state σ is defined by

$$\mathbf{H}\mathbf{v}(\sigma) = [-\log \mathrm{Tr} \boldsymbol{\mu} \sigma].$$

This generalizes the definition \underline{H} in [G01], which was solely over pure states. We use the following notation for pure states, with $\mathbf{Hg}(|\phi\rangle) = \mathbf{Hg}(|\phi\rangle\langle\phi|)$.

Theorem 1 ([GÓ1]) Let $q \in \{0,1\}^*$ lower compute semi-density matrix A, relativized to the dimension of the Hilbert space, 2^n ,. Then $\mu \stackrel{*}{>} \mathbf{m}(q|n)A$.

Proof. A can be composed into a sum $\sum_i p(i) |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i|$, where each $|\psi_i\rangle$ is elementary, p is a semi-measure, with $\sum_i p(i) \leq 1$, and p is lower computable from q and n. Thus,

$$A = \sum_{i} p(i) |\psi_{i}\rangle \langle \psi_{i}| \stackrel{*}{<} \mathbf{m}(p|n)^{-1} \sum_{i} \mathbf{m}(i|n) |\psi_{i}\rangle \langle \psi_{i}| \stackrel{*}{<} \mathbf{m}(q|n)^{-1} \sum_{i} \mathbf{m}(i|n) |\psi_{i}\rangle \langle \psi_{i}| \stackrel{*}{<} \boldsymbol{\mu}/\mathbf{m}(q|n).$$

Theorem 2 ([G01]) $\mu_{ii} \stackrel{*}{=} \mathbf{m}(i|n)$.

Proof. The matrix $\rho = \sum_{i} \mathbf{m}(i|n) |i\rangle \langle i|$ is lower computable, so $\rho < \mu$ so $\mu_{ii} > \mathbf{m}(i|n)$. Furthermore, $f(i) = |i\rangle \mu \langle i|$ is a lower computable semi-measure, so $\mathbf{m}(i|n) > \mu_{ii}$.

4 BvL Complexity

In this section, we introduce quantum Kolmogorov complexity, which we call BvL complexity, after its originators. Kolmogorov complexity measures the smallest program to a universal Turing machine that produces a string. Thus it is natural to adapt this notion to defining the complexity of a pure or mixed quantum state ρ to be the shortest program to a universal quantum Turing machine that approximates ρ . This definition was introduced in [BvL01] and we call it BvL complexity. Whereas Gács complexity can be thought of as a score of the algorithmic entropy of a state, BvL complexity enjoys a direct interpretation of the amount of resources in quantum mechanics needed to approximate or produce a state.

In this paper, BvL complexity is defined with respect to a universal quantum Turing machine introduced in [Mul08]. This is different than the work in [BvL01], which uses the universal quantum machine from [BV93]. The operation of a quantum Turing machine M can be found in [BV93].

The input tape of M consists consists of symbols of the type 0, 1, and #. The input is an ensemble $\{p_i\}$ of pure states $|\psi_i\rangle$ of the same length n, where $p_i \geq 0$, $\sum_i p_i = 1$, and $p_i \in Q_{\geq 0}$. Each pure state $|\psi_i\rangle$ is a complex linear superposition over all inputs of length n. Thus the input can be seen as an ensemble of states $|\psi_i\#000\ldots\rangle$. In addition, there can be auxilliary tape containing quantum or classical information.

The output tape consists solely of $\{0,1\}$. This ensemble can be represented as a mixed state ρ of n qubits. The quantum transition function is

$$\delta: Q \times \Sigma \to \mathbb{C}^{\Sigma \times Q \times \{L,R\}}.$$

Note that each complex number must be computable. Q is the set of states, $\Sigma = \{0, 1, \#\}$ is the alphabet, and $\{L, R\}$ is the action taken by the head. The evolution of M is a computable unitary matrix u_M .

If there exists a $t \in \mathbb{N}$, where during the operation of M input ρ , the control state $M_C^{t'}(\rho)$ is orthogonal to the final state $|f_C\rangle$ for all t' < t, with $\langle f_C | M_C^{t'}(\rho) | f_C \rangle = 0$, and $\langle f_C | M_C^t(\rho) | f_C \rangle = 1$, and all the heads of the superpositions are at position n then $M(\rho)$ is defined to be the n qubit mixed state on the output tape. Otherwise it is undefined. Quantum machines are not expected to produce the target states exactly, only an approximation. To measure the closeness of states, the trace distance function is used.

Definition 1 (Trace Distance of Quantum States) $D(\sigma, \rho) = \frac{1}{2} \|\sigma - \rho\|_1$, where $\|A\|_1 = \text{Tr}\sqrt{A^*A}$. $D(\sigma, \rho) = \sup_{Projection\ P} \text{Tr}P(\sigma - \rho)$. The trace distance obeys the triangle inequality. Fidelity is $F(\sigma, \rho) = \left(\text{Tr}\sqrt{\sqrt{\sigma}\rho\sqrt{\rho}}\right)^2$, With $F(|\psi\rangle, \sigma) = \langle\psi|\sigma|\psi\rangle$. $1 - \sqrt{F(\rho, \sigma)} \leq D(\rho, \sigma) \leq \sqrt{1 - F(\rho, \sigma)}$.

Theorem 3 ([Mul08]) There is quantum Turing machine $\mathfrak U$ such that for every QTM M and mixed state σ for which $M(\sigma)$ is defined, there is qubit string σ_M such that

$$D(\mathfrak{U}(\sigma_M, \delta), M(\sigma)) < \delta,$$

for every $\delta \in \mathbb{Q}_{>0}$ where the length of σ_M is bounded by $\|\sigma_M\| \leq \|\sigma\| + c_M$, where $c_M \in \mathbb{N}$ is a constant dependent only on M.

One can define the complexity of a state σ with respect to an arbitrary quantum Turing machine.

Definition 2 (BvL Complexity [BvL01]) The BvL Complexity of mixed state ρ with respect to QTM M and trace distance δ is

$$\mathbf{Hbvl}_{M}[\epsilon](\sigma) = \min_{\sigma} \{ \|\rho\| : D(M(\rho, n), \sigma) < \epsilon \}.$$

The BvL Complexity of mixed state ρ with respect to QTM M is

$$\mathbf{Hbvl}_{M}(\sigma) = \min \left\{ \|\rho\| : \forall_{k}, D(M(\rho, n, k), \sigma) < \frac{1}{k} \right\}.$$

Due to Theorem 3 and the fact that the trace distance D follows the triangle inequality, using the universal quantum Turing machine \mathfrak{U} , one can define the BvL complexity of a quantum state. This differs from the original definition in [BvL01] where the program must achieve any degree of precision.

Theorem 4 ([Mul08]) For $\delta < \epsilon \in \mathbb{Q}_{>0}$, universal QTM \mathfrak{U} , for every QTM M, there is a constant c_M where

- $\mathbf{Hbvl}_{\mathfrak{U}}[\epsilon](\sigma) < \mathbf{Hbvl}_{M}[\delta](\sigma) + \mathbf{K}(\delta, \epsilon) + c_{M}$.
- $\mathbf{Hbvl}_{\mathfrak{U}}(\sigma) < \mathbf{Hbvl}_{M}(\sigma) + c_{M}$.

Definition 3 (BvL Complexity)

- $\mathbf{Hbvl}[\epsilon](\sigma) = \mathbf{Hbvl}_{\mathfrak{I}}[\epsilon](\sigma).$
- $\mathbf{Hbvl}(\sigma) = \mathbf{Hbvl}_{\mathfrak{U}}(\sigma)$.

Proposition 1 For $k \in \mathbb{N}$, Hbvl $\left[\frac{1}{k}\right](\sigma|k) \leq \text{Hbvl}(\sigma)$.

Proof. Let \mathcal{M} be the set of inputs to \mathfrak{U} that realize $\mathbf{Hbvl}\left[\frac{1}{k}\right](\sigma|k)$. Let \mathcal{N} be the set of inputs to \mathfrak{U} that realize $\mathbf{Hbvl}(\sigma)$. Clearly $\mathcal{N} \subseteq \mathcal{M}$.

Proposition 2 Let $\mathcal{H}_{k,n}^t$ consist of the linear subspace of inputs to \mathfrak{U} , that produce an output of length n in time t. There is a trace preserving completely positive map $\Psi_{k,n}^t$ such that for all $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_{k,n}^t$, $\mathfrak{U}(|\psi\rangle;n) = \Psi_{k,n}^t(|\psi\rangle)$.

Proof. The map $\Psi_{k,n}^t$ appends 2t 0s to the input tape, and creates an auxilliary and output tape consisting 2t 0s. It applies $u_{\mathfrak{U}}^t$ to the configuration and then performs a partial trace on all but n qubits of the output tape.

5 Results

To prove the main results of the theorem, we first lower bound the BvL complexity by Gács complexity. Then we leverage the fact that over strings, Gács complexity is equal to Kolmogorov complexity.

Theorem 5 For pure state $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{Q}_n$, $\mathbf{Hg}(|\psi\rangle) <^+ \mathbf{Hbvl}[\epsilon](|\psi\rangle) + \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{Hbvl}[\epsilon](|\psi\rangle)|n\rangle - 2\log(1-\epsilon)$.

Proof. The proof is a reworking of Theorem 9 in [G01] from definitions \overline{H} and QC to definitions P and P are the smallest linear subspace spanning inputs to the universal quantum Turing machine \mathfrak{U} , conditioned on P0, of size P1, that halt in P1 steps, outputing a P2 quantum Turing machine P3, conditioned on P4, then P4 steps, and the elementary elements of P4 steps, and the elementary elements of P4 steps, and definition, P6, the projection of minimum rank such that for all P4 steps, and continuously performing the Gram-Schmidt procedure. For each P4, P5, and P5, and the proposition P5, there is a completely positive trace preserving map P4, such that for all P5 and P5 and P5 and P5 and P5 are such that for all P5 and P5 are such that P5 are such that P5 and P5 are such that P5 and P6 and P6 and P6 are such that P6 and P6 are such that P6 and P6 are such that P6 are such that P6 and P6 are such that P8 are such that P9 are such

Proposition 3 For pure quantum states $|\zeta\rangle$ and $|\xi\rangle$, if $D(\mathfrak{U}_t(|\zeta\rangle), |\xi\rangle) < \delta$, then there is a (potentially non-normalized) elementary state $|\zeta'\rangle$ with $\langle\zeta'|\zeta\rangle' \leq 1$ such that $D(\mathfrak{U}_t(|\zeta'\rangle), |\xi\rangle) < \delta$.

Proof. Let $D(\mathfrak{U}_t(|\zeta\rangle), |\xi\rangle) < \delta - c$, for $c \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$. Since $\mathcal{S}_{k,n}^t$ is dense in $\mathcal{H}_{k,tn}^t$, there is a sequence of (possible non-normalized) states $|\overline{\zeta}_i\rangle \in \mathcal{S}_{k,n}^t$ such that $\lim_{i\to\infty} \||\zeta\rangle - |\overline{\zeta}_i\rangle\| = 0$. Let $c_i \in \mathbb{Q}, c_i \in (\||\overline{\zeta}_i\rangle\|, \||\overline{\zeta}_i\rangle\| + 2^{-i})$. Thus for (non-normalized states) $|\zeta_i\rangle = |\overline{\zeta}_i\rangle/c_i, |\zeta_i\rangle \in \mathcal{S}_{k,n}^t$, $\lim_{i\to\infty} \||\zeta\rangle - |\zeta_i\rangle\| = 0$. Thus there is an i such that $D(|\zeta\rangle, |\zeta_i\rangle) < c/2$. Thus since trace distance is monotone, $D(\mathfrak{U}_t(|\zeta\rangle), \mathfrak{U}_t(|\zeta_i\rangle)) < c/2$. Since D follows the triangle inequality, $D(\mathfrak{U}_t(|\zeta_i\rangle), |\xi\rangle) < \delta - c/2$.

Let ρ be a k qubit semi-density matrix that minimizes $k = \mathbf{Hbvl}[\epsilon](|\psi\rangle)$ in time t. Due to Proposition 3, without loss of generality, ρ can be assumed to be elementary, with $\rho \leq P_{k,t}$. By the definition of trace distance and fidelity, $\langle \psi | \Psi_{k,n}^t(\rho) | \psi \rangle > (1 - \epsilon)^2$. So

$$\rho \le P_{k,t}
2^{-k} \rho \le 2^{-k} P_{k,t}
\Psi_{k,t} 2^{-k} \rho \le \Psi_{k,n}^t 2^{-k} P_{k,t}
\Psi_{k,t} 2^{-k} \rho \le \sum_{t} \Psi_{k,n}^t 2^{-k} P_{k,t}$$

The semi density matrix $\sum_{t} \Psi_{k,n}^{t} 2^{-k} P_{k,t}$ is lower computable relative to k, so using Theorem 1,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{m}(k|n) 2^{-k} \Psi_{k,n}^t \rho &\leq \mathbf{m}(k|n) \sum_t \Psi_{k,n}^t 2^{-k} P_{k,t} \overset{*}{<} \boldsymbol{\mu} \\ \mathbf{m}(k|n) 2^{-k} \left\langle \psi \right| \Psi_{k,n}^t(\rho) \left| \psi \right\rangle &\overset{*}{<} \left\langle \psi \right| \boldsymbol{\mu} \left| \psi \right\rangle \\ k &+ \mathbf{K}(k|n) - 2 \log(1-\epsilon) >^+ \mathbf{Hg}(\left| \psi \right\rangle). \end{aligned}$$

If $P_{k,t}$ can be shown to project onto $\mathcal{H}_{k,n}^t$ then the proof can be simplified.

Corollary 1 $Hg(|\psi\rangle) <^+ Hbvl(|\psi\rangle) + K(Hbvl(|\psi\rangle)|n\rangle$.

Proof. From Theorem 5,

$$\mathbf{Hg}(|\psi\rangle|2) <^{+} \mathbf{Hbvl}[1/2](|\psi\rangle) + \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{Hbvl}[1/2](|\psi\rangle)|n, 2).$$

From Propositions 1 and 4,

$$\mathbf{Hg}(|\psi\rangle) <^{+} \mathbf{Hbvl}(|\psi\rangle) + \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{Hbvl}(|\psi\rangle)|n).$$

Proposition 4 For every c, there is a c' such that if a < b + c then $a + \mathbf{K}(a) < b + \mathbf{bb}(b) + c'$.

Proof. So
$$\mathbf{K}(a-b) < 2\log c + O(1)$$
. So $\mathbf{K}(a) < \mathbf{K}(b) + 2\log c + O(1)$. Assume not, then $b-a+c' < \mathbf{K}(a) - \mathbf{K}(b) + O(1) < 2\log c + O(1)$, which is a contradiction for $c' > 2\log c + O(1)$.

Up to logarithmic precision, the Kolmogorov complexity of a string is equal to its BvL complexity. ote that the lower and upper bounds are tight because $\mathbf{Hbvl}(|x\rangle\langle x|) <^+ \mathbf{C}(x|n)$ and the bound $\mathbf{K}(x|n) <^+ \mathbf{C}(x|n) + \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{C}(x|n)|n)$ is tight.

Theorem 6 For $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$,

$$\mathbf{Hbvl}(|x\rangle \langle x|) <^{+} \mathbf{C}(x|n), \\ \mathbf{K}(x|n) <^{+} \mathbf{Hbvl}(|x\rangle \langle x|) + \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{Hbvl}(|x\rangle \langle x|)|n).$$

Proof. The lower bound comes from the fact that the universal quantum Turing machine \mathfrak{U} can simulate any classical (non-prefix) Turing machine. For the upper bound, by Theorem 2 and Corollary 1,

$$\mathbf{K}(x|n) = ^{+} \mathbf{Hg}(|x\rangle \langle x|) < ^{+} \mathbf{Hbvl}(|x\rangle \langle x|) + \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{Hbvl}(|x\rangle \langle x|)|n).$$

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