

Augmented Index and Quantum Streaming Algorithms for DYCK(2)^{*†}

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Abstract

We show how two recently developed quantum information theoretic tools can be applied to obtain lower bounds on quantum information complexity. We also develop new tools with potential for broader applicability, and use them to establish a lower bound on the quantum information complexity for the Augmented Index function on an easy distribution. This approach allows us to handle superpositions rather than distributions over inputs, the main technical challenge faced previously. By providing a quantum generalization of the argument of Jain and Nayak [IEEE TIT'14], we leverage this to obtain a lower bound on the space complexity of multi-pass, unidirectional quantum streaming algorithms for the DYCK(2) language.

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1 Introduction

The first *bona fide* quantum computers that are built are likely to involve a few hundred qubits, and be limited to short computations. This prompted much research into the capabilities of space bounded quantum computation, especially of quantum finite automata, during the early development of the theory of quantum computation (see, e.g., Refs. [21, 16, 1, 2]). More recently, this has led to the investigation of *quantum streaming algorithms* [18, 11, 5, 20].

1.1 Streaming Algorithms and Augmented Index

Streaming algorithms were originally proposed as a means to process massive real-world data that cannot be stored in their entirety in computer memory [22]. Instead of random access to the input data, these algorithms receive the input in the form of a *stream*, i.e., one input symbol at a time. The algorithms attempt to solve some information processing task using

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as little space and time as possible, on occasion using more than one sequential pass over the input stream.

Streaming algorithms provide a natural framework for studying simple, small-space quantum computation beyond the scope of quantum finite automata. Some of the works mentioned above (e.g., LeGall [18]) show how quantum streaming algorithms can accomplish certain specially crafted tasks with exponentially smaller space, as compared with classical algorithms. This led Jain and Nayak [12] to ask how much more efficient such quantum algorithms could be for other, more natural problems. They focused on DYCK(2), a well-studied and important problem from formal language theory [8]. DYCK(2) consists of all well-formed expressions with two types of parenthesis, denoted below by a, \bar{a} and b, \bar{b} , with the bar indicating a closing parenthesis. More formally, DYCK(2) is the language over the alphabet $\Sigma = \{a, \bar{a}, b, \bar{b}\}$ defined recursively as

$$\text{DYCK}(2) = \varepsilon + (a \cdot \text{DYCK}(2) \cdot \bar{a} + b \cdot \text{DYCK}(2) \cdot \bar{b}) \cdot \text{DYCK}(2) ,$$

where ε is the empty string, ‘ \cdot ’ indicates concatenation of strings (or subsets thereof) and ‘ $+$ ’ denotes set union.

The related problem of recognizing whether a given expression with parentheses is well-formed was originally studied by Magniez, Mathieu, and Nayak [19] in the context of *classical* streaming algorithms. They discovered a remarkable phenomenon, that providing *bi-directional* access to the input stream leads to an exponentially more space-efficient algorithm. They presented a randomized streaming algorithm that makes one pass over the input, uses $O(\sqrt{n \log n})$ bits, and makes polynomially small probability of error to determine membership of expressions of length $O(n)$ in DYCK(2). Moreover, they proved that this space bound is optimal for error at most $1/(n \log n)$, and conjectured that a similar polynomial space bound holds for multi-pass algorithms as well. Magniez *et al.* complemented this with a second randomized algorithm that makes two passes in *opposite* directions over the input, uses only $O(\log^2 n)$ space, and has polynomially small probability of error. Later, two sets of authors [6, 12] independently and concurrently proved the conjectured hardness of DYCK(2) for classical multi-pass streaming algorithms that read the input only in one direction. They showed that any unidirectional randomized T -pass streaming algorithm that recognizes length n instances of DYCK(2) with a constant probability of error uses space $\Omega(\sqrt{n}/T)$.

The space lower bounds for DYCK(2) established in Refs. [19, 6, 12] all rely on a connection with a two-party communication problem, Augmented Index, a variant of Index, a basic problem in two-party communication complexity. In the Index function problem, one party, Alice, is given a string $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$, and the other party, Bob, is given an index $k \in [n]$, for some positive integer n . Their goal is to communicate with each other and compute x_k , the k th bit of the string x . In the Augmented Index function problem, Bob is given the prefix $x[1, k-1]$ (the first $k-1$ bits of x) and a bit b in addition to the index k . The goal of the two parties is to determine if $x_k = b$ or not. The three works cited above (see also [7]) all prove information cost trade-offs for Augmented Index. As a result, in any bounded-error protocol for the function, either Alice reveals $\Omega(n)$ information about her input x , or Bob reveals $\Omega(1)$ information about the index k (even under an easy distribution, the uniform distribution over zeros of the function).

Motivated by the abovementioned works, Jain and Nayak [12] studied quantum protocols for Augmented Index. They defined a notion of quantum information cost for distributions with a limited form of dependence, and then arrived at a similar tradeoff as in the classical case. This result, however, does not imply a lower bound on the space required by quantum

streaming algorithms for DYCK(2). The issue is that the reduction from low information cost protocols for Augmented Index to small space streaming algorithms breaks down in the quantum case (for the notion of quantum information cost they proposed). This left open the possibility of more efficient unidirectional quantum streaming algorithms.

1.2 Overview of Results

We establish the following lower bound on the space complexity of T -pass, unidirectional quantum streaming algorithms for DYCK(2), thus solving the question posed by Jain and Nayak [12].

► **Theorem 1.** *For any $T \geq 1$, any unidirectional T -pass quantum streaming algorithm that recognizes DYCK(2) with a constant probability of error uses space $\Omega(\sqrt{n}/T^3)$ on length n instances of the problem.*

The space bound above holds for a general model for quantum streaming algorithms, one in which the computation is characterized by arbitrary quantum operations. In particular, the computation may be non-unitary, and may use “on-demand” ancillary qubits in addition to the allowed work space. Some earlier work showing strong limitations of bounded space, such as that on quantum finite automata [2], assumed unitary evolution.

Theorem 1 shows that, possibly up to logarithmic factors and the dependence on the number of passes, quantum streaming algorithms are no more efficient than classical ones for this problem. In particular, this provides the first natural example for which classical bi-directional streaming algorithms perform exponentially better than unidirectional quantum streaming algorithms.

Theorem 1 is a consequence of a lower bound that we establish on a measure of quantum information cost introduced by Touchette [25]. (Henceforth, we use the term “quantum information cost” without any qualification to refer to this notion.) We consider this cost for any quantum protocol Π computing the Augmented Index function, with respect to an “easy” distribution μ_0 : the uniform distribution over the zeros of the function. Due to the asymmetry of the Augmented Index function, we distinguish between the amount of information Alice transmits to Bob, denoted $\text{QIC}_{A \rightarrow B}(\Pi, \mu_0)$ and the amount of information Bob transmits to Alice, denoted $\text{QIC}_{B \rightarrow A}(\Pi, \mu_0)$; see Section 2.3 for formal definitions for these notions. Our main technical contributions are in proving the following trade-off.

► **Theorem 2.** *In any t -round quantum protocol Π computing the Augmented Index function f_n with constant error $\varepsilon \in [0, 1/4)$ on any input, either $\text{QIC}_{A \rightarrow B}(\Pi, \mu_0) \in \Omega(n/t^2)$ or $\text{QIC}_{B \rightarrow A}(\Pi, \mu_0) \in \Omega(1/t^2)$.*

A more precise statement is presented as Theorem 17. As in previous works, establishing a lower bound on the quantum information cost for such an easy distribution is necessary; the direct sum argument that links quantum streaming algorithms to quantum protocols for Augmented Index crucially hinges on this. (This phenomenon is common in such direct sum arguments.)

The high level intuition underlying the proof of Theorem 2 and its structure is the same as that in Ref. [12]. There are two principal challenges in their approach, and the choice of an appropriate measure of information cost is fundamental to overcoming both challenges. The first challenge is a direct sum argument that relates streaming algorithms for DYCK(2) and communication protocols for Augmented Index. The second challenge is establishing an information cost trade-off for Augmented Index. Jain and Nayak considered several notions of information cost, each one of which was effective in addressing one challenge *but*

not the other. This was further complicated by the intrinsic correlation of the inputs for Augmented Index held by the two parties. Indeed, an important motivation behind the notion of quantum information cost used in Ref. [12] is the desire to avoid leaking information about the inputs by virtue of their preparation in superposition, instead of exchanging information through interaction alone. The notion they analyzed in detail admits an information cost trade-off, but not a connection between streaming algorithms and low information protocols. In particular, the notion does not seem to be bounded by communication complexity.

Quantum information cost, as proposed by Touchette [25], turns out to be a suitable choice for quantifying the information content of messages in our context. It is defined in terms of conditional mutual information, conditioned on the recipient's quantum state. Thus, this notion naturally avoids the difficulties arising from the intrinsic correlation between the two parties' inputs. It is also relatively simple to derive low quantum information cost protocols for Augmented Index from small-space streaming algorithms for DYCK(2), through a direct sum argument. Remarkably, the properties of quantum information cost allow us to execute the reduction even for algorithms whose computation involves arbitrary quantum operations, including non-unitary evolution. However, a quantum information cost trade-off for Augmented Index still presents significant obstacles. In order to overcome these, we develop new tools for quantum communication complexity that we believe have broader applicability.

One tool is a generalization of the well-known Average Encoding Theorem of (classical and) quantum complexity theory [15], which formalizes the intuition that weakly correlated systems are nearly independent. We call this generalized version the *Superposition-Average Encoding Theorem*, as it allows us to handle arbitrary superpositions over inputs to quantum communication protocols (as opposed to classical distributions over inputs). The proof of this theorem builds on the breakthrough result by Fawzi and Renner [9], linking conditional quantum mutual information to the optimal recovery map acting on the conditioning system. Note that there is an obvious generalization of the Average Encoding Theorem to an analogous result for conditional quantum mutual information implied by the Fawzi-Renner inequality together with the Uhlmann theorem. This *cannot* directly be used in a proof *à la* Ref. [12]. For one, such a generalization would give us a unitary operation that acts on one part of a (pure) "reconstructed" state, and maps it to a state close to a target state. The hybrid argument in Ref. [12] relies on the commutativity of such unitary operations corresponding to successive messages in a protocol, whereas the operations do not commute.

Another key ingredient in the proof of Theorem 2 is a *Quantum Cut-and-Paste Lemma*, a variant of a technique used in Refs. [13, 12], that allows us to deal with easy distributions over inputs. The cut-and-paste lemma for randomized communication protocols connects the distance between transcripts obtained by running protocols on inputs chosen from a two-by-two rectangle $\{x, x'\} \times \{y, y'\}$. The cut-and-paste lemma is very powerful, and a direct quantum analogue does not hold. We can nevertheless obtain the following weaker variant, linking any four possible pairs of inputs in a two-by-two rectangle: if the states for a fixed input y to Bob are close up to a local unitary operator on Alice's side and the states for a fixed input x to Alice are close up to a local unitary operator on Bob's side, then, up to local unitary operators on Alice's and Bob's sides, the states for all pairs (x'', y'') of inputs in the rectangle $\{x, x'\} \times \{y, y'\}$ are close to each other. This lemma allows us to link output states of protocols on inputs from an easy distribution, all mapping to the same output value, to an output state corresponding to a different output value. This helps derive a contradiction to the assumption of low quantum information cost, as states corresponding to different outputs are distinguishable with constant probability.

We go a step further with the quantum information cost trade-off. We provide an alternative way to achieve a similar result, by using a notion of information cost tailored to the Augmented Index problem. An important stepping stone in this approach is the recently developed *Information Flow Lemma* due to Laurière and Touchette [17]. The lemma allows us to track the transfer of information due to interaction in quantum protocols, and provides insight into how information might be leaked due to a superposition over inputs. By conditioning on a suitable classical register, we avoid such leakage of information. Pushing these ideas further, we are able to bring the Average Encoding Theorem to bear in this context as well. This helps us obtain a slightly better round-dependence in the information cost trade-off.

Organization

Background and definitions related to quantum communication, information theory, and streaming algorithms are presented in Section 2. We then adapt, in Section 3, the known two-step reduction from Augmented Index to DYCK(2) to the new notion for information cost due to Touchette [25] and to the general model for streaming algorithms that we define. The main technical tools that we develop and use are presented in Section 4. The main lower bound on the quantum information cost of the Augmented Index function is derived in Section 5. A lower bound with a slightly better dependence on the number of rounds is presented in Section 6.

2 Preliminaries

The full version of this work [23] contains a more detailed preliminaries section, in particular with additional details about the communication model and the properties of the distance and information measures that are relevant for our purposes.

2.1 Quantum Communication Complexity

We refer the reader to text books such as [26, 27] for standard concepts and the associated notation from quantum information.

The notation we use for interactive communication between two parties, called Alice and Bob by convention, is summarized in Figure 1. The operations U_1, \dots, U_{M+1} in protocol Π are isometries.

We restrict our attention to protocols with classical inputs XY , with $A_{\text{in}}B_{\text{in}}$ initialized to XY , and to so-called “safe protocols”. Safe protocols only use $A_{\text{in}}B_{\text{in}}$ as control registers. As explained in Section 2.3, this does not affect the results presented in this article.

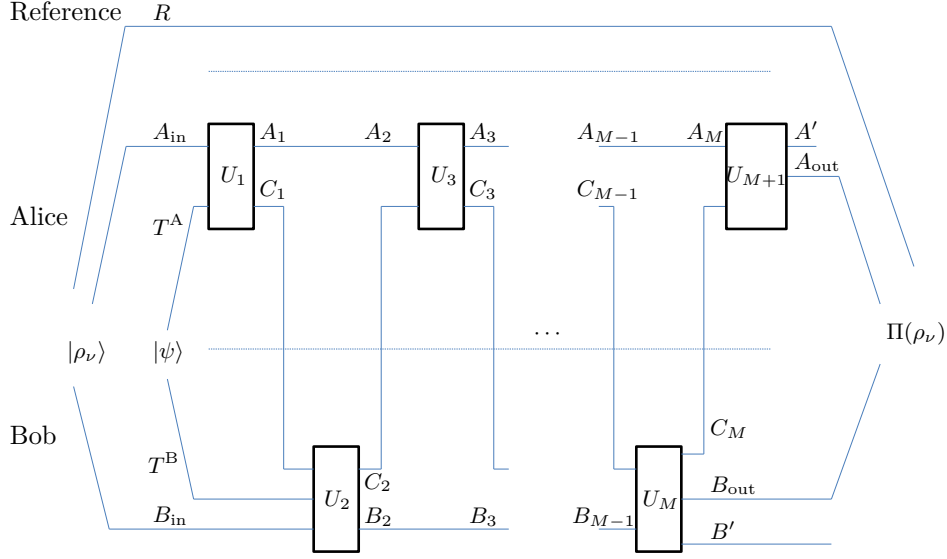
We imagine that the joint classical input XY is purified by a register R . We often partition the purifying register as $R = R_X R_Y$, indicating that the classical input XY , distributed as ν , and represented by the quantum state ρ_ν :

$$\rho_\nu^{XY} = \sum_{x,y} \nu(x,y) |x\rangle\langle x|^X \otimes |y\rangle\langle y|^Y \quad (1)$$

is purified as

$$|\rho_\nu\rangle = \sum_{x,y} \sqrt{\nu(x,y)} |xxyy\rangle^{XR_X YR_Y} . \quad (2)$$

We also use other partitions more appropriate for our purposes, corresponding to particular preparations of the inputs X and Y .



■ **Figure 1** Depiction of an interactive quantum protocol, adapted from Ref. [24, Figure 1], the full version of Ref. [25].

We define the quantum communication cost of Π from Alice to Bob as

$$\text{QCC}_{A \rightarrow B}(\Pi) := \sum_{0 \leq i \leq (M-1)/2} \log |C_{2i+1}|, \quad (3)$$

and the quantum communication cost of Π from Bob to Alice as

$$\text{QCC}_{B \rightarrow A}(\Pi) := \sum_{1 \leq i \leq M/2} \log |C_{2i}|, \quad (4)$$

where for a register D , the notation $|D|$ stands for the dimension of the state space associated with the register. The total communication cost of the protocol is then the sum of these two quantities.

2.2 Information Theory

In order to distinguish between quantum states, we use two related distance measures: trace distance and Bures distance.

The trace distance between two states ρ^A and σ^A on the same register is denoted as $\|\rho^A - \sigma^A\|_1$, where

$$\|O^A\|_1 := \text{Tr} \left((O^\dagger O)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right) \quad (5)$$

is the trace norm for operators on system A . We sometimes omit the superscript if the system is clear from context. In operational terms, the trace distance between the two states ρ^A and σ^A is four times the best possible bias with which we can distinguish between the two states, given a single unknown copy of one of the two.

Bures distance \mathfrak{h} is a fidelity based distance measure, defined for $\rho, \sigma \in \mathcal{D}(A)$ as

$$\mathfrak{h}(\rho, \sigma) := \sqrt{1 - F(\rho, \sigma)}, \quad (6)$$

where fidelity F is defined as $F(\rho, \sigma) := \|\sqrt{\rho}\sqrt{\sigma}\|_1$. It is the quantum analogue of Hellinger distance, which plays an important role in classical communication and information theory (see, e.g., the cut-and-paste lemma in Ref. [3]).

The following lemma, a direct consequence of the Uhlmann theorem, is called the local transition lemma [15], especially when expressed in terms of other metrics.

► **Lemma 3.** *Let $\rho_1, \rho_2 \in \mathcal{D}(A)$ have purifications $\rho_1^{AR_1}, \rho_2^{AR_2}$, with $|R_1| \leq |R_2|$. Then, there exists an isometry $V^{R_1 \rightarrow R_2}$ such that*

$$\mathfrak{h}(\rho_1^A, \rho_2^A) = \mathfrak{h}\left(V(\rho_1^{AR_1}), \rho_2^{AR_2}\right). \quad (7)$$

Bures distance is related to trace distance through a generalization of the Fuchs-van de Graaf inequalities [10]: for any $\rho_1, \rho_2 \in \mathcal{D}(A)$, it holds that

$$\mathfrak{h}^2(\rho_1, \rho_2) \leq \frac{1}{2} \|\rho_1 - \rho_2\|_1 \leq \sqrt{2} \mathfrak{h}(\rho_1, \rho_2). \quad (8)$$

In order to quantify the information content of a quantum state, we use a basic measure, von Neumann entropy, defined as

$$H(A)_\rho := -\text{Tr}(\rho \log \rho)$$

for any state $\rho \in \mathcal{D}(A)$. Here, we follow the convention that $0 \log 0 = 0$, which is justified by a continuity argument. The logarithm is in base 2.

For a state $\rho^{ABC} \in \mathcal{D}(ABC)$, the mutual information between registers A, B is defined as

$$I(A:B)_\rho := H(A) + H(B) - H(AB),$$

and the conditional mutual information between them, given C , as

$$I(A:B|C)_\rho := I(A:BC) - I(A:C).$$

The following lemma, known as the Average Encoding Theorem [15, 13], formalizes the intuition that if a classical and a quantum register are weakly correlated, then they are nearly independent.

► **Lemma 4.** *For any $\rho^{XA} = \sum_x p_X(x) \cdot |x\rangle\langle x|^X \otimes \rho_x^A$ with a classical system X and states $\rho_x \in \mathcal{D}(A)$,*

$$\sum_x p_X(x) \cdot \mathfrak{h}^2(\rho_x^A, \rho^A) \leq I(X:A)_\rho. \quad (9)$$

2.3 Quantum Information Complexity

We rely on the notion of quantum information cost of a two-party communication protocol introduced by Touchette [25]. We follow the notation associated with a two-party quantum communication protocol introduced in Section 2.1, and restrict ourselves to protocols with classical inputs XY distributed as ν .

Quantum information cost is defined in terms of the purifying register R , but is independent of the choice of purification. Given the asymmetric nature of the Augmented Index function, we consider the quantum information cost of messages from Alice to Bob and the ones from Bob to Alice separately. Such an asymmetric notion of quantum information cost was previously considered in Refs. [14, 17].

► **Definition 5.** Given a quantum protocol Π with classical inputs distributed as ν , the *quantum information cost* (of the messages) from Alice to Bob is defined as

$$\text{QIC}_{A \rightarrow B}(\Pi, \nu) = \sum_{i \text{ odd}} I(R: C_i | B_i) , \quad (10)$$

and the *quantum information cost* (of the messages) from Bob to Alice is defined as

$$\text{QIC}_{B \rightarrow A}(\Pi, \nu) = \sum_{i \text{ even}} I(R: C_i | A_i) . \quad (11)$$

It is immediate that quantum information cost is bounded above by quantum communication.

► **Remark.** For any quantum protocol Π with classical inputs distributed as ν , the following holds:

$$\text{QIC}_{A \rightarrow B}(\Pi, \nu) \leq 2 \text{QCC}_{A \rightarrow B}(\Pi) , \quad (12)$$

$$\text{QIC}_{B \rightarrow A}(\Pi, \nu) \leq 2 \text{QCC}_{B \rightarrow A}(\Pi) . \quad (13)$$

As a result, we may bound quantum communication complexity of a protocol from below by analysing its information cost.

We further restrict ourselves to “safe protocols”, in which the registers $A_{\text{in}}, B_{\text{in}}$ are only used as control registers in the local isometries. This restriction does not affect the results in this article, for the following reason. Let Π be any protocol with classical inputs distributed as ν , in which the two parties may apply arbitrary isometries to their quantum registers. In particular, these registers include $A_{\text{in}}, B_{\text{in}}$ which are initialized to the input. Let Π' be the protocol with the same registers as Π and two additional quantum registers $A'_{\text{in}}, B'_{\text{in}}$ of the same sizes as $A_{\text{in}}, B_{\text{in}}$, respectively. In the protocol Π' , the two parties each make a coherent local copy of their inputs into $A'_{\text{in}}, B'_{\text{in}}$, respectively, at the outset. The registers $A'_{\text{in}}, B'_{\text{in}}$ are never touched hereafter, and the two parties simulate the original protocol Π on the remaining registers. Laurière and Touchette [17] show that the quantum information cost of Π is at least as much as that of the protocol Π' :

$$\text{QIC}_{A \rightarrow B}(\Pi', \nu) \leq \text{QIC}_{A \rightarrow B}(\Pi, \nu) , \quad \text{and}$$

$$\text{QIC}_{B \rightarrow A}(\Pi', \nu) \leq \text{QIC}_{B \rightarrow A}(\Pi, \nu) .$$

Thus, the quantum information cost trade-off we show for safe protocols holds for arbitrary protocols as well.

2.4 Quantum Streaming Algorithms

We refer the reader to the text [22] for an introduction to classical streaming algorithms. Quantum streaming algorithms are similarly defined, with restricted access to the input, and with limited workspace.

In more detail, an input $x \in \Sigma^n$, where Σ is some alphabet, arrives as a *data stream*, i.e., letter by letter in the order x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n . An algorithm is said to make a *pass* on the input, when it reads the data stream once in this order, processing it as described next. For an integer $T \geq 1$, a T -pass (unidirectional) *quantum streaming algorithm* \mathcal{A} with space $s(n)$ and time $t(n)$ is a collection of quantum channels $\{\mathcal{A}_{i\sigma} : i \in [T], \sigma \in \Sigma\}$. Each operator $\mathcal{A}_{i\sigma}$ is a channel defined on a register of $s(n)$ -qubits, and can be implemented by a uniform family of circuits of size at most $t(n)$. On input stream $x \in \Sigma^n$,

1. The algorithm starts with a register W of $s(n)$ qubits, all initialized to a fixed state, say $|0\rangle$.
2. \mathcal{A} performs T sequential passes, $i = 1, \dots, T$, on x in the order x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n .
3. In the i th pass, when symbol σ is read, channel $\mathcal{A}_{i\sigma}$ is applied to W .
4. The output of the algorithm is the state in a designated sub-register W_{out} of W , at the end of the T passes.

We may allow for some pre-processing before the input is read, and some post-processing at the end of the T passes, each with time complexity different from $t(n)$. As our work applies to streaming algorithms with any time complexity, we do not consider this refinement.

The probability of correctness of a streaming algorithm is defined in the standard way. If we wish to compute a family of Boolean functions $g_n : \Sigma^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$, the output register W_{out} consists of a single qubit. On input x , let $\mathcal{A}(x)$ denote the random variable corresponding to the outcome when the output register is measured in the standard basis. We say \mathcal{A} computes g_n with (worst-case) error $\varepsilon \in [0, 1/2]$ if for all x , $\Pr[\mathcal{A}(x) = g_n(x)] \geq 1 - \varepsilon$.

In general, the implementation of a quantum channel used by a streaming algorithm with unitary operations involves one-time use of ancillary qubits (initialized to a fixed, known quantum state, say $|0\rangle$). These ancillary qubits are in addition to the $s(n)$ -qubit register that is maintained by the algorithm. Fresh qubits may be an expensive resource in practice, for example, in NMR implementations, and one may argue that they be included in the space complexity of the algorithm. The lack of ancillary qubits severely restricts the kind of computations space-bounded algorithms can perform; see, for example, Ref. [2]. We choose the definition above so as to present the results we derive in the strongest possible model. Thus, the results also apply to implementations in which the “flying qubits” needed for implementing non-unitary quantum channels are relatively easy to prepare.

In the same vein, we may provide a quantum streaming algorithm arbitrary read-only access to a sequence of random bits. In other words, we may also provide the algorithm with a register S of size at most $t(n)$ initialized to random bits from some distribution. Each quantum channel $\mathcal{A}_{i\sigma}$ now operates on registers SW , while using S only as a control register. The bounds we prove hold in this model as well.

3 Reduction from Augmented Index to DYCK(2)

The connection between low-information protocols for Augmented Index and streaming algorithms for DYCK(2) contains two steps. The first is a reduction from an intermediate multi-party communication problem ASCENSION, and the second is the relationship of the latter with Augmented Index.

3.1 Reduction from Ascension to DYCK(2)

In this section, we describe the connection between multi-party quantum communication protocols for the problem ASCENSION(m, n), and quantum streaming algorithms for DYCK(2). The reduction is an immediate generalization of the one in the classical case discovered by Magniez, Mathieu, and Nayak [19], which also works with appropriate modifications for multi-pass classical streaming algorithms [6, 12]. For the sake of completeness, we describe the reduction below.

Multi-party quantum communication protocols involving point-to-point communication may be defined as in the two-party case. As it is straightforward, and detracts from the thrust of this section, we omit a formal definition.

23:10 Augmented index and quantum streaming algorithms for DYCK(2)

Let m, n be positive integers. The $(2m)$ -party communication problem $\text{ASCENSION}(m, n)$ consists of computing the logical OR of m independent instances of f_n , the Augmented Index function. Suppose we denote the $2m$ parties by A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m and B_1, B_2, \dots, B_m . Player A_i is given $x^i \in \{0, 1\}^n$, player B_i is given $k^i \in [n]$, a bit z^i , and the prefix $x^i[1, k^i - 1]$ of x^i . Let $\mathbf{x} = (x^1, x^2, \dots, x^m)$, $\mathbf{k} = (k^1, k^2, \dots, k^m)$, and $\mathbf{z} = (z^1, z^2, \dots, z^m)$. The goal of the communication protocol is to compute

$$F_{m,n}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{k}, \mathbf{z}) = \bigvee_{i=1}^m f_n(x^i, k^i, z^i) = \bigvee_{i=1}^m (x^i[k^i] \oplus z^i) ,$$

which is 0 if $x^i[k^i] = z^i$ for all i , and 1 otherwise.

The communication between the $2m$ parties is required to be T sequential iterations of communication in the following order, for some $T \geq 1$:

$$\begin{aligned} A_1 \rightarrow B_1 \rightarrow A_2 \rightarrow B_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow A_m \rightarrow B_m \\ \rightarrow A_m \rightarrow A_{m-1} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow A_2 \rightarrow A_1 . \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

In other words, for $t = 1, 2, \dots, T$,

- for i from 1 to $m - 1$, player A_i sends register $C_{A_i,t}$ to B_i , then B_i sends register $C_{B_i,t}$ to A_{i+1} ,
- A_m sends register $C_{A_m,t}$ to B_m , then B_m sends register $C_{B_m,t}$ to A_m ,
- for i from m down to 2, A_i sends register $C'_{A_i,t}$ to A_{i-1} .

At the end of the T iterations, A_1 computes the output.

There is a bijection between instances of $\text{ASCENSION}(m, n)$ and a subset of instances of $\text{DYCK}(2)$ that we describe next. For any string $z = z_1 \dots z_n \in \{a, b\}^n$, let \bar{z} denote the matching string $\bar{z}_n \bar{z}_{n-1} \dots \bar{z}_1$ corresponding to z . Let $z[i, j]$ denote the substring $z_i z_{i+1} \dots z_j$ if $1 \leq i \leq j \leq n$, and the empty string ε otherwise. We abbreviate $z[i, i]$ as $z[i]$ if $1 \leq i \leq n$. Consider strings of the form

$$w = (x^1 \bar{y}^1 \bar{z}^1 z^1 y^1) (x^2 \bar{y}^2 \bar{z}^2 z^2 y^2) \dots (x^m \bar{y}^m \bar{z}^m z^m y^m) \bar{x}^m \dots \bar{x}^2 \bar{x}^1 , \quad (15)$$

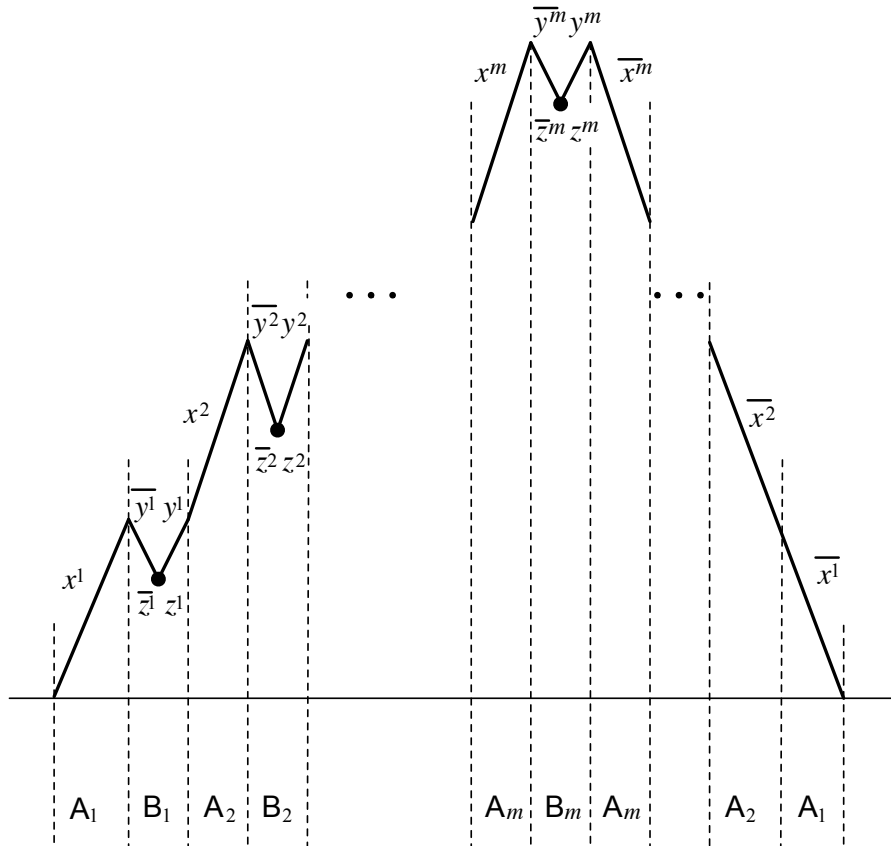
where for every i , $x^i \in \{a, b\}^n$, and y^i is a suffix of x^i , i.e., $y^i = x^i[n - k^i + 2, n]$ for some $k^i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, and $z^i \in \{a, b\}$. The string w is in $\text{DYCK}(2)$ if and only if, for every i , $z^i = x^i[n - k^i + 1]$. Note that these instances have length in the interval $[2m(n + 1), 4mn]$.

The bijection between instances of $\text{ASCENSION}(m, n)$ and $\text{DYCK}(2)$ arises from a partition of the string w amongst the $2m$ players: player A_i is given x^i (and therefore \bar{x}^i), and player B_i is given y^i, z^i (and therefore \bar{y}^i, \bar{z}^i). See Figure 2 for a pictorial representation of the partition.

For ease of notation, the strings x^i in $\text{ASCENSION}(m, n)$ are taken to be the ones in $\text{DYCK}(2)$ with the bits *in reverse order*. This converts the suffixes y^i into prefixes of the same length.

As a consequence of the bijection above, any quantum streaming algorithm for $\text{DYCK}(2)$ results in a quantum protocol for $\text{ASCENSION}(m, n)$, as stated in the following lemma.

► **Lemma 6.** *For any $\varepsilon \in [0, 1/2]$, $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$, and for any ε -error (unidirectional) T -pass quantum streaming algorithm \mathcal{A} for $\text{DYCK}(2)$ that on instances of size $N \in \Theta(mn)$ uses $s(N)$ qubits of memory, there exists an ε -error, T -round sequential $(2m)$ -party quantum communication protocol for $\text{ASCENSION}(m, n)$ in which each message is of length $s(N)$. The protocol may use public randomness, but does not use pre-shared entanglement between any of the parties. Moreover, the local operations of any party are memory-less, i.e., do not require access to the qubits used in generating the previous messages sent by that party.*



■ **Figure 2** An instance of the form described in (15), as depicted in [19, 12]. A line segment with positive slope denotes a string over $\{a, b\}$, and a segment with negative slope denotes a string over $\{\bar{a}, \bar{b}\}$. A solid dot depicts a pair of the form $\bar{z}z$ for some $z \in \{a, b\}$. The entire string is distributed amongst $2m$ players $A_1, B_1, A_2, B_2, \dots, A_m, B_m$ in a communication protocol for $\text{ASCENSION}(m, n)$ as shown.

Proof. Any random sequence of bits used by the streaming algorithm is provided as shared randomness to all the $2m$ parties in the communication protocol for $\text{ASCENSION}(m, n)$. Each input for the communication problem corresponds to an instance of $\text{DYCK}(2)$, as described above. In each of the T iterations, a player simulates the quantum streaming algorithm on appropriate part of the input for $\text{DYCK}(2)$, and sends the length $s(N)$ workspace to the next player in the sequence. (If needed, non-unitary quantum operations may be replaced with an isometry, as follows from the Stinespring Representation theorem [26].) The output of the protocol is the output of the algorithm, and is contained in the register held by the final party A_1 . ◀

3.2 Reduction from Augmented Index to Ascension

Recall that $\text{ASCENSION}(m, n)$ is composed of m instances of Augmented Index on n bits. Magniez, Mathieu, and Nayak [19] showed how we may derive a low-information classical protocol for Augmented Index f_n from one for $\text{ASCENSION}(m, n)$ through a direct sum argument (see Refs. [6, 12] for the details of its working in the multi-pass case). This is

not as straightforward to execute as it might first appear; it entails deriving a sequence of protocols for Augmented Index in which the communication from Alice to Bob corresponds to messages from different parties in the original multi-party protocol. We show that the same kind of construction, suitably adapted to the notion of quantum information cost we use, also works in the quantum case.

Let μ_0 be the uniform distribution on the 0-inputs of the Augmented Index function f_n . If X is a uniformly random n -bit string, K is a uniformly random index from $[n]$ independent of X , and the random variable B is set as $B = X_K$, the joint distribution of $X, K, X[1, K - 1], B$ is μ_0 . We denote the random variables $K, X[1, K - 1], B$ given as input to Bob by Y . Since $X_K = B$ under this distribution, we abbreviate Bob's input as $K, X[1, K]$. Let μ be the uniform distribution over all inputs. Under this distribution, the bit B is uniformly random, independent of XK , while XK are as above.

► **Lemma 7.** *Suppose $\varepsilon \in [0, 1/2]$, $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ and that there is an ε -error, T -round sequential quantum protocol Π_{ASC} for $\text{ASCENSION}(m, n)$, that is memory-less, does not have pre-shared entanglement between any of the parties (but might use public randomness), and only has messages of length at most s (cf. Lemma 6). Then, there exists an ε -error, $2T$ -message, two-party quantum protocol Π_{AI} for the Augmented Index function f_n that satisfies*

$$\text{QIC}_{A \rightarrow B}(\Pi_{\text{AI}}, \mu_0) \leq 2sT, \quad (16)$$

$$\text{QIC}_{B \rightarrow A}(\Pi_{\text{AI}}, \mu_0) \leq 2sT/m. \quad (17)$$

Proof. Starting from the $(2m)$ -party protocol Π_{ASC} for $\text{ASCENSION}(m, n)$, we construct a protocol Π_j for f_n , for each $j \in [m]$.

Fix one such j . Suppose Alice and Bob get inputs x and y , respectively, where $y := (k, x[1, k - 1], b)$. They embed these into an instance of $\text{ASCENSION}(m, n)$: they set $x_j = x$, and $y_j = y$. They sample the inputs for the remaining $m - 1$ coordinates independently, according to μ_0 . Let $X_i Y_i$, with $Y_i = (K_i, X_i[1, K_i])$, be registers corresponding to inputs drawn from μ_0 in coordinate i . Let R_i be a purification register for these, which we may decompose as $R_i^X R_i^Y$, denoting the standard purification of the $X_i Y_i$ registers. Let $S_A S_B$ be registers initialized to $\sum_s \sqrt{\nu_s} |ss\rangle$, so as to simulate the public random string $S \sim \nu$ used in the protocol Π_{ASC} .

For each $i \neq j$, we give X_i to Alice, and $(K_i, X_i[1, K_i])$ to Bob. For $i > j$, we give R_i to Bob, and for $i < j$, we give R_i to Alice. Then Alice and Bob simulate the roles of the $2m$ parties $(A_i, B_i)_{i \in [m]}$ in the following way for each of the T rounds in Π_{ASC} . For $t = 1, 2, \dots, T$:

1. Alice simulates $A_1 \rightarrow B_1 \rightarrow A_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow A_j$, accessing the inputs for B_i , for $i < j$, in the register R_i . We denote the ancillary register she uses to simulate A_1 's local isometry by D_{t1} , and for all other $i < j$, the ancillary registers she uses for B_i and A_{i+1} together by D_{ti} .
2. Alice transmits the message from A_j to B_j to Bob.
3. Bob simulates $B_j \rightarrow A_{j+1} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow B_m$, accessing the input for A_i , for $i > j$, in the register R_i . For all i such that $j \leq i < m$ we denote the ancillary registers Bob uses for simulating B_i and A_{i+1} 's local isometry together by D_{ti} , and the ancillary register he uses for B_m by D_{tm} .
4. Bob transmits the message from B_m to A_m to Alice.
5. Alice simulates $A_m \rightarrow A_{m-1} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow A_1$. We denote the ancillary registers Alice uses for simulating the local isometries of A_m, A_{m-1}, \dots, A_1 by E_t .

We let E_0 denote a dummy register initialized to a fixed state, say $|0\rangle$.

Since the inputs for Augmented Index for $i \neq j$ are distributed according to μ_0 , the protocol Π_j computes Augmented Index for the instance (x, y) with error at most ε .

The quantum information cost from Alice to Bob $\text{QIC}_{A \rightarrow B}(\Pi_j, \lambda)$ is bounded by $2sT$, for any distribution λ over the inputs, as each of her T messages has at most s qubits.

The bound on quantum information cost from Bob to Alice arises from the following direct sum result. Suppose that the inputs for the protocol Π_j for Augmented Index are drawn from the distribution μ_0 . Denote these inputs by $X_j Y_j$, with $Y_j = (K_j, X_j[1, K_j])$, and the corresponding purification register by R_j . We are interested in the quantum information cost $\text{QIC}_{B \rightarrow A}(\Pi_j, \mu_0)$.

For $t \in [T]$, let C_t denote the t th message from Bob to Alice in the protocol Π_j . At the time Alice receives message C_t , her other registers are $X_1 \cdots X_m$, S_A , $R_1 \cdots R_{j-1}$, $(E_{r-1} D_{r1} D_{r2} \cdots D_{rj})_{r \in [t]}$. Note that the corresponding state ρ_t at that point on registers

$$X_1 \cdots X_m S_A (E_{r-1} D_{r1} D_{r2} \cdots D_{rm})_{r \in [t]} R_1 \cdots R_m C_t$$

is the same for all derived protocols Π_j , as all of them simulate Π_{ASC} on the same input distribution $\mu_0^{\otimes m}$, using the above registers.

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{QIC}_{B \rightarrow A}(\Pi_j, \mu_0) &= \sum_{t \in [T]} \text{I}(R_j : C_t \mid X_1 \cdots X_m S_A (E_{r-1} D_{r1} D_{r2} \cdots D_{rj})_{r \in [t]} R_1 \cdots R_{j-1})_{\rho_t} \\ &\leq \sum_{t \in [T]} \text{I}(R_j (D_{rj})_{r \in [t]} : C_t \mid X_1 \cdots X_m S_A (E_{r-1} D_{r1} \cdots D_{r(j-1)})_{r \in [t]} R_1 \cdots R_{j-1})_{\rho_t} . \end{aligned}$$

Using the chain rule, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{j \in [m]} \text{QIC}_{B \rightarrow A}(\Pi_j, \mu_0) &\leq \sum_{t \in [T]} \text{I}(R_1 \cdots R_m (D_{r1} D_{r2} \cdots D_{rm})_{r \in [t]} : C_t \mid X_1 \cdots X_m S_A (E_{r-1})_{r \in [t]})_{\rho_t} . \end{aligned}$$

Since each summand in the expression above is bounded by $2 \log |C_t| \leq 2s$, we have that the sum is bounded by $2sT$. It follows that there exists an index j^* such that

$$\text{QIC}_{B \rightarrow A}(\Pi_{j^*}, \mu_0) \leq 2sT/m , \quad (18)$$

as desired. As noted before, $\text{QIC}_{A \rightarrow B}(\Pi_{j^*}, \mu_0) \leq 2sT$. This completes the reduction. \blacktriangleleft

4 Key Technical Tools

In this section, we present the tools needed to analyze the quantum information cost of protocols. The proofs for the statements made here appear in the full version of this work [23].

In analyzing safe quantum protocols with classical inputs in the rest of the paper, we deviate slightly from the notation for the registers used in the definition of two-party protocols in Section 2.1. We refer to the input registers $A_{\text{in}}, B_{\text{in}}$ by X, Y , respectively. Since we focus on safe protocols, the registers XY are only used as control registers. We express Alice's local registers after the i th message is generated as $X A_i$, and the local registers of Bob by $Y B_i$. As before, the message register is not included in any of the local registers, and is denoted by C_i .

We first generalize the Average Encoding Theorem [15], to relate the quality of approximation of any intermediate state in a two-party quantum communication protocol to its

23:14 Augmented index and quantum streaming algorithms for DYCK(2)

information cost. This also allows us to analyze states arising from arbitrary superpositions over inputs in such protocols. The main technical ingredient used to derive the generalization is the Fawzi-Renner inequality [9].

► **Theorem 8** (Fawzi-Renner inequality). *For any tripartite quantum state ρ^{ACR} , there exists a recovery map $\mathcal{R}^{A \rightarrow AC}$ from register A to registers AC satisfying*

$$I(C:R|A) \geq -2 \cdot \log_2 F(\rho^{ACR}, \mathcal{R}(\rho^{AR})) . \quad (19)$$

In particular, it follows that

$$I(C:R|A) \geq \mathfrak{h}^2(\rho^{ACR}, \mathcal{R}(\rho^{AR})) . \quad (20)$$

Informally, the Superposition-Average Encoding Theorem states that if the incremental information contained in the messages received by a party thus far is “small”, then she can approximate her part of the joint state “well”, *without any assistance from the other party*.

► **Theorem 9** (Superposition-Average Encoding Theorem). *Given any safe quantum protocol Π with input registers XY initialized according to distribution ν , let*

$$|\rho_i\rangle = \sum_{x,y} \sqrt{\nu(x,y)} |xxyy\rangle^{XR_XYR_Y} |\rho_i^{xy}\rangle^{A_iB_iC_i}$$

be the state on registers $XYRA_iB_iC_i$ in round i with the register R initially purifying the registers XY , with a decomposition R_XR_Y into coherent copies of X and Y , respectively. Let $\varepsilon_i := I(R:C_i|YB_i)$ for odd i , and $\varepsilon_i := I(R:C_i|XA_i)$ for even i . There exist registers E_i , isometries V_i and states

$$|\theta_i\rangle = \sum_{x,y} \sqrt{\nu(x,y)} |xxyy\rangle^{XR_XYR_Y} |\theta_i^y\rangle^{B_iC_iE_i}$$

for odd i satisfying

$$\begin{aligned} \mathfrak{h}\left(\rho_i^{RYB_iC_i}, \theta_i^{RYB_iC_i}\right) &\leq \sum_{p \leq i, p \text{ odd}} \sqrt{\varepsilon_p} , \quad \text{and} \\ V_i |y\rangle^Y &= |y\rangle^Y \otimes |\theta_i^y\rangle^{B_iC_iE_i} , \end{aligned}$$

and states

$$|\sigma_i\rangle = \sum_{x,y} \sqrt{\nu(x,y)} |xxyy\rangle^{XR_XYR_Y} |\sigma_i^x\rangle^{A_iC_iE_i}$$

for even i satisfying

$$\begin{aligned} \mathfrak{h}\left(\rho_i^{RXA_iC_i}, \sigma_i^{RXA_iC_i}\right) &\leq \sum_{p \leq i, p \text{ even}} \sqrt{\varepsilon_p} , \quad \text{and} \\ V_i |x\rangle^X &= |x\rangle^X \otimes |\sigma_i^x\rangle^{A_iC_iE_i} . \end{aligned}$$

The recently developed *Information Flow Lemma* due to Laurière and Touchette [17] allows us to analyze information transfer using an alternative notion of information cost (defined in Section 6 for Augmented Index). The lemma states that the total gain in (conditional) information by a party over all the messages is precisely the net (conditional) information gain at the end of the protocol.

► **Lemma 10** (Information Flow Lemma). *Given a protocol Π , an input state ρ with purifying register R with arbitrary decompositions $R = R_a^A R_b^A R_c^A = R_a^B R_b^B R_c^B$, the following hold:*

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{i \geq 0} I(R_a^B : C_{2i+1} | R_b^B B_{2i+1}) - \sum_{i \geq 1} I(R_a^B : C_{2i} | R_b^B B_{2i}) \\ &= I(R_a^B : B_{\text{out}} B' | R_b^B) - I(R_a^B : B_{\text{in}} | R_b^B) , \quad \text{and} \\ & \sum_{i \geq 0} I(R_a^A : C_{2i+2} | R_b^A A_{2i+2}) - \sum_{i \geq 0} I(R_a^A : C_{2i+1} | R_b^A A_{2i+1}) \\ &= I(R_a^A : A_{\text{out}} A' | R_b^A) - I(R_a^A : A_{\text{in}} | R_b^A) . \end{aligned}$$

The direct quantum analogue to the Cut-and-Paste Lemma [3] from classical communication complexity does not hold. We can nevertheless obtain the following weaker property, linking the states in a two-party protocol corresponding to any four possible pairs of inputs in a two-by-two rectangle. The result says that if the states corresponding to two inputs x, x' to Alice and a fixed input y to Bob are close up to a local unitary operation on Alice's side, and the states for two inputs y, y' to Bob and a fixed input x to Alice are close up to a local unitary operation on Bob's side, then, up to local unitary operations on Alice's and Bob's sides, the states for all pairs (x'', y'') of inputs in the rectangle $\{x, x'\} \times \{y, y'\}$ are close. The lemma is a variant of the hybrid argument developed in Refs. [13, 12], and is proven along the same lines. A similar, albeit slightly weaker statement may be derived from the corresponding lemmas in these articles. For example, Lemma IV.10 from Ref. [12], when adapted to the setting described above and combined with a triangle inequality, implies bounds similar to those in Eqs. (22) and (24) below. However, in the notation of the lemma below, the bounds so derived are both larger by the additive term $2h_{i-1}$.

► **Lemma 11** (Quantum Cut-and-Paste). *Given any safe quantum protocol Π with classical inputs, consider distinct inputs x, x' for Alice, and y, y' for Bob. Let $|\rho_0\rangle^{A_0 B_0}$ be the shared initial state of Alice and Bob for any pair $(x'', y'') \in \{x, x'\} \times \{y, y'\}$ of inputs. (The state ρ_0 may depend on the set $\{x, x'\} \times \{y, y'\}$.) Let $|\rho_{i, x'' y''}\rangle^{A_i B_i C_i}$ be the state on registers $A_i B_i C_i$ after the i th message is sent, when the input is (x'', y'') . For odd i , let*

$$h_i := \mathfrak{h}\left(\rho_{i, xy}^{B_i C_i}, \rho_{i, x'y'}^{B_i C_i}\right)$$

and $V_{i, x \rightarrow x'}^{A_i}$ denote the unitary operation acting on A_i given by the local transition lemma (Lemma 3) such that

$$h_i = \mathfrak{h}\left(V_{i, x \rightarrow x'}^{A_i} |\rho_{i, xy}\rangle, |\rho_{i, x'y'}\rangle\right) .$$

For even i , let

$$h_i := \mathfrak{h}\left(\rho_{i, xy}^{A_i C_i}, \rho_{i, x'y'}^{A_i C_i}\right)$$

and $V_{i, y \rightarrow y'}^{B_i}$ denote the unitary operation acting on B_i given by the local transition lemma such that

$$h_i = \mathfrak{h}\left(V_{i, y \rightarrow y'}^{B_i} |\rho_{i, xy}\rangle, |\rho_{i, x'y'}\rangle\right) .$$

Define $V_{0,y \rightarrow y'}^{B_0} := \mathbb{I}^{B_0}$ and $h_0 := 1$. Recall that $B_i = B_{i-1}$ for odd i and $A_i = A_{i-1}$ for even i . It holds that for odd i ,

$$\mathfrak{h}\left(V_{i-1,y \rightarrow y'}^{B_i} |\rho_{i,xy}\rangle, |\rho_{i,x'y'}\rangle\right) = h_{i-1} , \quad (21)$$

$$\mathfrak{h}\left(V_{i,x \rightarrow x'}^{A_i} V_{i-1,y \rightarrow y'}^{B_i} |\rho_{i,xy}\rangle, |\rho_{i,x'y'}\rangle\right) \leq h_i + h_{i-1} + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{i-2} h_j , \quad (22)$$

and for even i ,

$$\mathfrak{h}\left(V_{i-1,x \rightarrow x'}^{A_i} |\rho_{i,xy}\rangle, |\rho_{i,x'y'}\rangle\right) = h_{i-1} , \quad (23)$$

$$\mathfrak{h}\left(V_{i,y \rightarrow y'}^{B_i} V_{i-1,x \rightarrow x'}^{A_i} |\rho_{i,xy}\rangle, |\rho_{i,x'y'}\rangle\right) \leq h_i + h_{i-1} + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{i-2} h_j . \quad (24)$$

5 QIC Lower Bound for Augmented Index

In this section, we establish a lower bound for the quantum information cost of protocols for Augmented Index. The proofs for the statements made here appear in the full version of this work [23].

5.1 Relating Alice's states to $\text{QIC}_{B \rightarrow A}$

We study the quantum information cost of protocols for Augmented Index on input distribution μ_0 (the uniform distribution over $f_n^{-1}(0)$), and relate it to the distance between the states on two different inputs. We first focus on the quantum information cost from Bob to Alice, arising from the messages with even i 's. We show that if this cost is low, then Alice's reduced states on different inputs for Bob are close to each other. (This high level intuition is the same as that described in Ref. [12].)

We state and prove our results for inputs with even length n ; a similar result can be shown for odd n by suitably adapting the proof.

We consider the following purification of the input registers, corresponding to a particular preparation method for the K register, and to a preparation of the X register also depending on the preparation of register K . Recall that the content k of register K is uniformly distributed in $[n]$. The following registers are each initialized to uniform superpositions over the domain indicated: R_S^1 over $\{0, 1\}$ (with a coherent copy in R_S^2), register R_j^1 over indices $j \in [n/2]$ (with a coherent copy in R_j^2), register R_ℓ^1 over $\ell \in [n/2 + 1, n]$ (with a coherent copy in R_ℓ^2). Register R_K holds a coherent copy of register K , whose content k is set to the value j in R_j^1 when R_S^1 is 0, and to ℓ when R_S^1 is 1. Depending on the value ℓ of R_ℓ^1 , the following registers are initialized to uniform superpositions to prepare the X register, itself uniform over $\{0, 1\}^n$: register R_Z^1 over $z \in \{0, 1\}^\ell$, and register R_W^1 over $w \in \{0, 1\}^{n-\ell}$. The register X is set to $x = zw$, so together $R_Z^1 R_W^1$ hold a coherent copy of X , and a second coherent copy is held in $R_Z^2 R_W^2$. If ℓ is clear from the context, we sometimes use the notation Z and W to refer to the parts of the X register holding z and w , respectively. Depending on the value j of R_j^1 , we also refer to a further decomposition $z = z'z''$ with $z' \in \{0, 1\}^j$ and $z'' \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell-j}$. We denote by X_{1K} the register held by Bob and containing the first $k-1$ bits of x and the verification bit b , always equal to x_k under μ_0 (X_{1K} thus contains the first k bits of x in this case); it is set to z' when R_S^1 is 0, to z when R_S^1 is 1, and register $R_{X_{1K}}$ holds a coherent copy of it.

In summary, the resulting input state $\rho_{\mu_0}^{XKX_{1K}}$ distributed according to μ_0 is purified by register R , which decomposes as

$$R := R_J^1 R_J^2 R_L^1 R_L^2 R_Z^1 R_Z^2 R_W^1 R_W^2 R_S^1 R_S^2 R_K R_{X_{1K}} .$$

Using the normalization factor $c := 1/\sqrt{(n/2) \cdot (n/2) \cdot 2^\ell \cdot 2^{n-\ell} \cdot 2}$, the purified state is:

$$\begin{aligned} & |\rho_0\rangle^{RXKX_{1K}} \\ &= c \sum_{j,\ell,z,w} |jj\ell\ell zzw\rangle \left(|00\rangle |jz'\rangle |zw\rangle^X |jz'\rangle^{KX_{1K}} + |11\rangle |\ell z\rangle |zw\rangle^X |\ell z\rangle^{KX_{1K}} \right) . \end{aligned} \quad (25)$$

Starting with the above purification and using pre-shared entanglement $|\psi\rangle^{T_A T_B}$ in the initial state, the state ρ_i after round i in the protocol is

$$\begin{aligned} & |\rho_i\rangle^{RXKX_{1K} A_i B_i C_i} \\ &:= c \sum_{j,\ell,z,w} |jj\ell\ell zzw\rangle \left(|00\rangle |jz'\rangle |zw\rangle |jz'\rangle \left| \rho_i^{zw,(j,z')} \right\rangle + |11\rangle |\ell z\rangle |zw\rangle |\ell z\rangle \left| \rho_i^{zw,(\ell,z)} \right\rangle \right) , \end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

where $\left| \rho_i^{x,(k,x[1,k])} \right\rangle$ denotes the pure state in registers $A_i B_i C_i$ conditional on joint input $(x, (k, x[1, k]))$.

Define $R_A := R_J^1 R_L^1 R_S^1 R_K R_W^1 R_W^2$. All of R_A 's sub-registers except $R_W^1 R_W^2$ are classical in $\rho_i^{R_A X A_i C_i}$, since one of their coherent copies is traced out from the global purification register R . The Z part of the X register is also classical. We can write the reduced state of ρ_i on registers $R_A X A_i C_i$ as

$$\begin{aligned} & \rho_i^{R_A X A_i C_i} \\ &= c' \sum_{j,\ell,z} |j\ell\rangle \langle j\ell| \otimes \left(|0j\rangle \langle 0j| \otimes |z\rangle \langle z|^Z \otimes \rho_{i,\ell z j z'} + |1\ell\rangle \langle 1\ell| \otimes |z\rangle \langle z|^Z \otimes \rho_{i,\ell z \ell z} \right) , \end{aligned}$$

in which we used normalization $c' := 1/((n/2) \cdot (n/2) \cdot 2^\ell \cdot 2)$ and the shorthands

$$\rho_{i,\ell z k x[1,k]} := \text{Tr}_{B_i} \left(\left| \rho_i^{\ell z k x[1,k]} \right\rangle \left\langle \rho_i^{\ell z k x[1,k]} \right| \right) , \quad \text{where} \quad (27)$$

$$\left| \rho_i^{\ell z k x[1,k]} \right\rangle := 1/\sqrt{2^{n-\ell}} \sum_w |w w w\rangle^{R_W^1 R_W^2 W} \left| \rho_i^{zw,(k,x[1,k])} \right\rangle^{A_i B_i C_i} . \quad (28)$$

The indices $\ell z k x[1, k]$ have the following meaning: ℓ and z indicate that Alice's input register X is in superposition after the length ℓ prefix $z = x[1, \ell]$, and k and $x[1, k]$ tell us the index k in Bob's input, the prefix $x[1, k-1]$ of x given as input to Bob, and Bob's verification bit b (which is equal to x_k under μ_0), respectively. Using this notation along with the superposition-average encoding theorem, we show the following result.

► **Lemma 12.** *Given any even $n \geq 2$, let J and L be random variables uniformly distributed in $[n/2]$ and $[n] \setminus [n/2]$, respectively. Conditional on some value ℓ for L , let Z be a random variable chosen uniformly at random in $\{0, 1\}^\ell$. The following then holds for any M -message safe quantum protocol Π for Augmented Index f_n , for any even $i \leq M$:*

$$\text{QIC}_{B \rightarrow A}(\Pi, \mu_0) \geq \frac{1}{2M} \mathbb{E}_{j\ell z \sim J LZ} \left[\mathfrak{h}^2 \left(\rho_{i,\ell z j z'}^{R_W^1 R_W^2 W A_i C_i}, \rho_{i,\ell z \ell z}^{R_W^1 R_W^2 W A_i C_i} \right) \right] .$$

5.2 Relating Bob's states to $\widetilde{\text{QIC}}_{\text{A} \rightarrow \text{B}}$

We continue with the notation from the previous section, and now focus on the quantum information cost from Alice to Bob, arising from messages with odd i 's. We go via an alternative notion of information cost used by Jain and Nayak [12], and studied further by Laurière and Touchette [17]. This notion is similar to the internal information cost of classical protocols (see, e.g., Refs. [3, 4]), and is called the Holevo information cost in Ref. [17].

► **Definition 13.** Given a safe quantum protocol Π with classical inputs, and distribution ν over inputs, the *Holevo information cost* (of the messages) from Alice to Bob in round i is defined as

$$\widetilde{\text{QIC}}_{\text{A} \rightarrow \text{B}}^i(\Pi, \nu) = \text{I}(X : B_i C_i | Y) ,$$

and the cumulative *Holevo information cost* (of the messages) from Alice to Bob is defined as

$$\widetilde{\text{QIC}}_{\text{A} \rightarrow \text{B}}(\Pi, \nu) = \sum_{i \text{ odd}} \widetilde{\text{QIC}}_{\text{A} \rightarrow \text{B}}^i(\Pi, \nu) . \quad (29)$$

Given a bit string z of length at least $\ell \geq 1$, let $z^{(\ell)}$ denote the string in which z_ℓ has been flipped. The following result can be inferred from the proof of Lemma 4.9 in Ref. [12].

► **Lemma 14.** *Given any even $n \geq 2$, let J and L be random variables uniformly distributed in $[n/2]$ and $[n] \setminus [n/2]$, respectively. Conditional on some value ℓ for L , let Z be a random variable chosen uniformly at random in $\{0, 1\}^\ell$. The following holds for any M -message safe quantum protocol Π for the Augmented Index function f_n , for any odd $i \leq M$:*

$$\frac{1}{n} \widetilde{\text{QIC}}_{\text{A} \rightarrow \text{B}}^i(\Pi, \mu_0) \geq \frac{1}{16} \mathbb{E}_{j\ell z \sim JLZ} \left[\mathfrak{h}^2 \left(\rho_{i, \ell z j z'}^{B_i C_i}, \rho_{i, \ell z^{(\ell)} j z'}^{B_i C_i} \right) \right] ,$$

with $\rho_{i, \ell z j z'}$ defined by Eqs. (27) and (28).

For completeness, we provide in the full version of this work [23] a proof of this lemma using our notation.

Laurière and Touchette [17] prove that Holevo information cost is a lower bound on quantum information cost QIC.

► **Lemma 15.** *Given any M -message quantum protocol Π and any input distribution ν , the following holds for any odd $i \leq M$:*

$$\widetilde{\text{QIC}}_{\text{A} \rightarrow \text{B}}^i(\Pi, \nu) \leq \text{QIC}_{\text{A} \rightarrow \text{B}}(\Pi, \nu) .$$

This may be derived from the Information Flow Lemma (Lemma 10) by initializing the purification register R so that R_a^{B} is a coherent copy of X and R_b^{B} is a coherent copy of Y , and R_c^{B} is a coherent copy of both X, Y .

5.3 Lower bound on QIC

By appropriately combining the above lemmas with the quantum cut-and-paste lemma, we prove a slightly weaker variant of our main lower bound on the quantum information cost of Augmented Index, i.e., Theorem 17.

► **Theorem 16.** *Given any even n , the following holds for any M -message safe quantum protocol Π computing the Augmented Index function f_n with error at most ε on any input:*

$$\frac{1}{4}(1 - 2\varepsilon) \leq \left(\frac{2(M+1)^2}{n} \cdot \text{QIC}_{\text{A} \rightarrow \text{B}}(\Pi, \mu_0) \right)^{1/2} + \left(\frac{M^3}{4} \cdot \text{QIC}_{\text{B} \rightarrow \text{A}}(\Pi, \mu_0) \right)^{1/2} . \quad (30)$$

The stronger version stated in Section 6 is proven similarly using a strengthening of Lemma 12.

6 A Stronger QIC Trade-off for Augmented Index

We consider a different notion of quantum information cost, more specialized to the Augmented Index function, for which we obtain better dependence on M for the information lower bound, from M^3 to M . We also show that this notion is at least $1/M$ times $\text{QIC}_{\text{B} \rightarrow \text{A}}$, and thus we get an overall improvement by a factor of M for the M -pass streaming lower bound. The following is a precise statement of Theorem 2. Proofs for this section can be found in the full version of this work [23].

► **Theorem 17.** *Given any even n , the following holds for any M -message quantum protocol Π computing the Augmented Index function f_n with error ε on any input:*

$$\frac{1}{4}(1 - 2\varepsilon) \leq \left(\frac{2(M+1)^2}{n} \cdot \text{QIC}_{\text{A} \rightarrow \text{B}}(\Pi, \mu_0) \right)^{1/2} + \left(\frac{M^2}{2} \cdot \text{QIC}_{\text{B} \rightarrow \text{A}}(\Pi, \mu_0) \right)^{1/2}. \quad (31)$$

Our lower bound on quantum streaming algorithms for DYCK(2), Theorem 1, follows by combining this with Lemmas 6 and 7, and taking $m = n$ so that $N \in \Theta(n^2)$.

We consider the same purification of the input registers as in Section 5.1, and the following alternative notion of quantum information cost.

► **Definition 18.** Given a safe quantum protocol Π for Augmented Index, the *superposed-Holevo information cost* (of the messages) from Bob to Alice in round i is defined as

$$\widetilde{\text{QIC}}_{\text{B} \rightarrow \text{A}}^i(\Pi, \mu_0) := I(R_K R_J^1 R_S^1 : R_W^1 R_W^2 W A_i C_i | R_L^1 Z)_{\rho_i},$$

with ρ_i as defined in Eq. (26), and the cumulative *superposed-Holevo information cost* (of the messages) from Bob to Alice is defined as

$$\widetilde{\text{QIC}}_{\text{B} \rightarrow \text{A}}(\Pi, \mu_0) := \sum_{i \text{ even}} \widetilde{\text{QIC}}_{\text{B} \rightarrow \text{A}}^i(\Pi, \mu_0). \quad (32)$$

Using the average encoding theorem, we show the following.

► **Lemma 19.** *Given any even $n \geq 2$, let J and L be random variables uniformly distributed in $[n/2]$ and $[n] \setminus [n/2]$, respectively. Conditional on some value ℓ for L , let Z be a random variable chosen uniformly at random from $\{0, 1\}^\ell$. The following then holds for any M -message safe quantum protocol Π for the Augmented Index function f_n , for even $i \leq M$:*

$$\widetilde{\text{QIC}}_{\text{B} \rightarrow \text{A}}^i(\Pi, \mu_0) \geq \frac{1}{4} \mathbb{E}_{j \ell z \sim J L Z} \left[\mathfrak{h}^2 \left(\rho_{i, \ell z j z'}^{R_W^1 R_W^2 W A_i C_i}, \rho_{i, \ell z \ell z}^{R_W^1 R_W^2 W A_i C_i} \right) \right],$$

with $\rho_{i, \ell z k x [1, k]}$ defined by Eqs. (27) and (28).

Using the information flow lemma, we show that this notion of information cost is a lower bound on $\text{QIC}_{\text{B} \rightarrow \text{A}}(\Pi, \mu_0)$:

► **Lemma 20.** *Given any M -message safe quantum protocol Π for Augmented Index and any even $i \leq M$, the following holds:*

$$\widetilde{\text{QIC}}_{\text{B} \rightarrow \text{A}}^i(\Pi, \mu_0) \leq \text{QIC}_{\text{B} \rightarrow \text{A}}(\Pi, \mu_0).$$

The improved lower bound on QIC follows along the same lines as in Section 5.3, but we use Lemma 19 instead of Lemma 12.

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