

Consequences and Limits of Nonlocal Strategies

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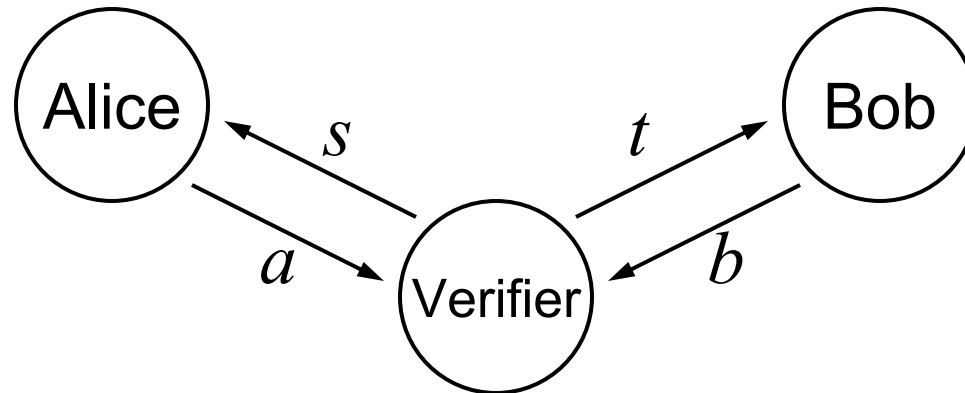
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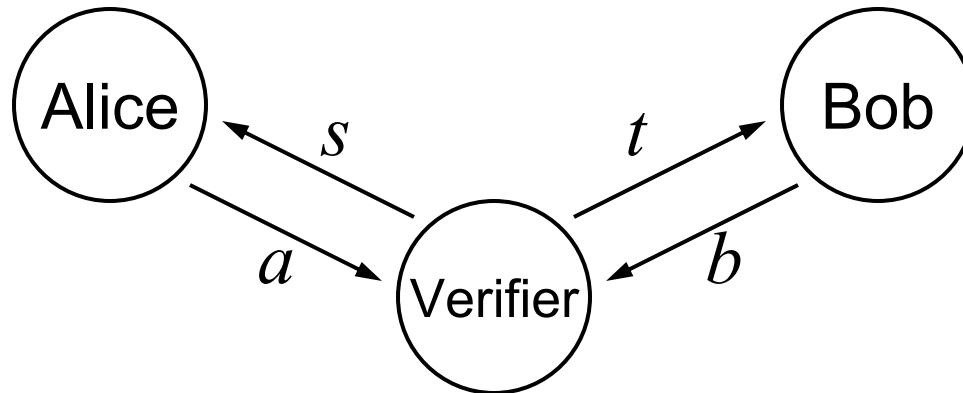
Bell Nonlocality à la CHSH



No communication between Alice and Bob during the game

- The Verifier chooses two random bits, s and t , and sends them to Alice and Bob, respectively
- Alice and Bob return bits a and b , respectively
- The Verifier **accepts** iff $a \oplus b = s \wedge t$
(Alice and Bob **win** iff Verifier accepts)

CHSH Game



For any **classical** strategy,
Alice and Bob's success
probability is at most $3/4$

Winning conditions: $a_s \oplus b_t = s \wedge t$

$$a_0 \oplus b_0 = 0$$

$$a_0 \oplus b_1 = 0$$

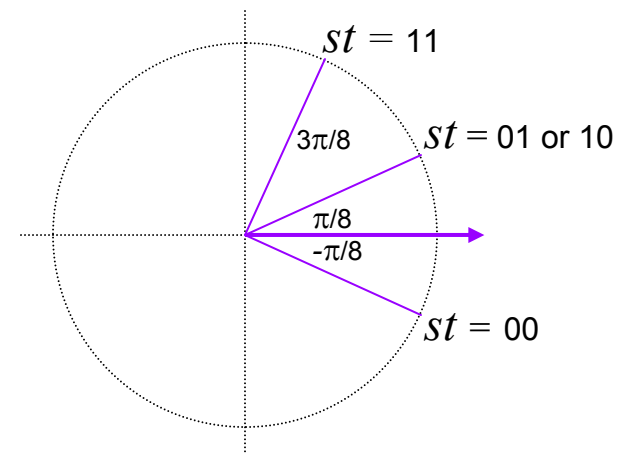
$$a_1 \oplus b_0 = 0$$

$$a_1 \oplus b_1 = 1$$

CHSH Game

There is a *quantum* strategy that succeeds with probability $\cos^2(\pi/8) \approx 0.853$

- Alice and Bob start with entanglement $|\phi\rangle = |00\rangle - |11\rangle$
- If Alice applies rotation θ_A and Bob applies rotation θ_B :
 $\cos(\theta_A - \theta_B) (|00\rangle - |11\rangle) + \sin(\theta_A - \theta_B) (|01\rangle + |10\rangle)$
- Alice and Bob can organize their rotations so that $\theta_A - \theta_B$ takes on the following values for input st :

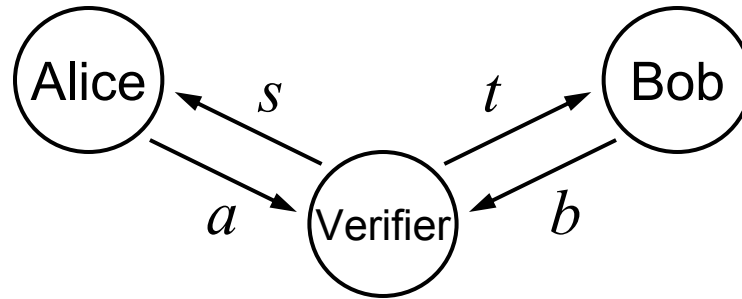


(Bell, 1964; Clauser, Horne, Shimony, Holt, 1969)

CHSH Game

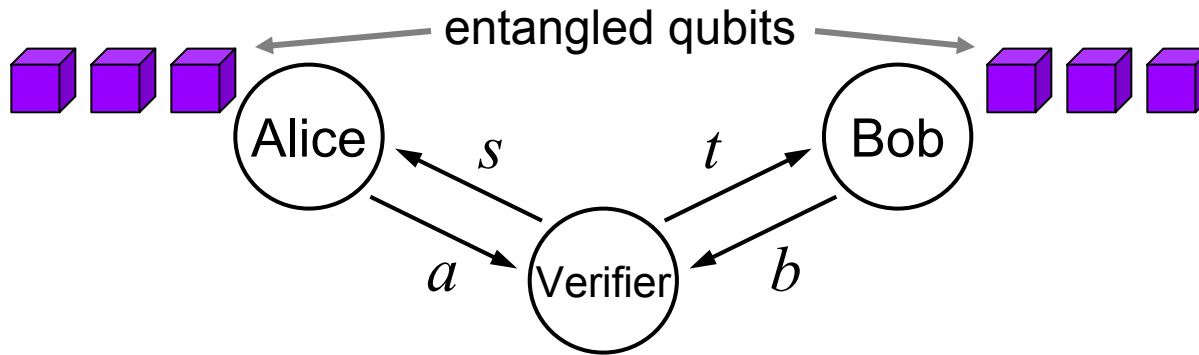
Tsirelson (1980): For *any* quantum strategy, the success probability is at most $\cos^2(\pi/8)$

Nonlocality Game Framework



- A **nonlocality game** G consists of four sets A, B, S, T , a probability distribution π on $S \times T$, and a predicate $V : A \times B \times S \times T \rightarrow \{0,1\}$
- Verifier chooses $(s,t) \in S \times T$ according to π and, after receiving (a,b) , **accepts** iff $V(a,b,s,t) = 1$
- The **classical value** of G , denoted as $\omega_c(G)$, is the maximum acceptance probability, over all classical strategies of Alice and Bob

Quantum Strategies



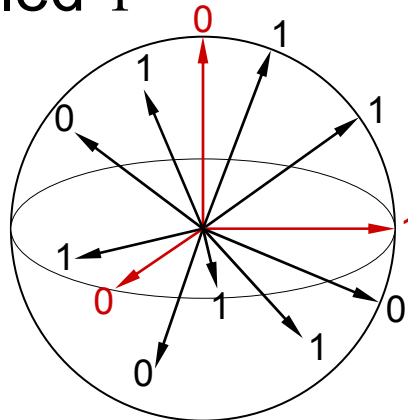
- The **quantum value** of G , denoted as $\omega_q(G)$, is the maximum acceptance probability of quantum strategies
- An upper bound on $\omega_c(G)$ is a **Bell inequality**
- A quantum strategy with success probability greater than $\omega_c(G)$ is a **Bell inequality violation**
- An upper bound on $\omega_q(G)$ is a **Tsirelson inequality**

Kochen-Specker Game

Based on the

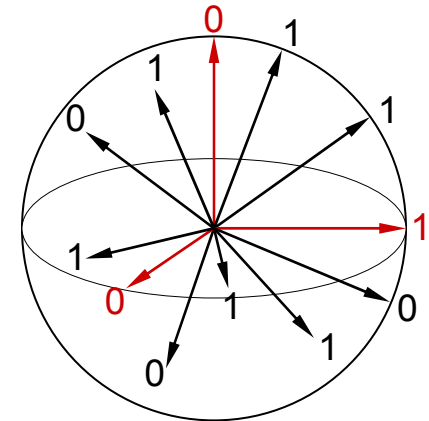
Kochen-Specker Theorem (1967): there exists a finite set of vectors v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n in \mathbf{R}^3 that **cannot** be assigned labels from $\{0,1\}$ simultaneously satisfying:

- For any two orthogonal vectors, they are not both labeled 1
- For any three mutually orthogonal vectors, at least one of them is labeled 1



Kochen-Specker Game

- The Verifier sends Alice a triple of vectors $s = (v_i, v_j, v_k)$ and Bob one vector $t = v_m$ from that triple
- Alice returns a , a valid labeling for (v_i, v_j, v_k) , and Bob returns b , a label for v_m
- The verifier accepts iff the labels are consistent
- By the Kochen-Specker Theorem, $\omega_c(G) < 1$
- There is a perfect quantum strategy using entanglement $|\psi\rangle = |00\rangle + |11\rangle + |22\rangle$, therefore $\omega_q(G) = 1$



Our Goal

- Investigate general relationships between $\omega_q(G)$ and $\omega_c(G)$ for various nonlocality games
- **Motivation #1:** broaden understanding of what entanglement can and cannot do
- **Motivation #2:** determine the expressive power of *multi-prover interactive proof systems* with entangled provers

Computational Proof Systems

General question: what is the computational cost of the process of being *convinced* of something?

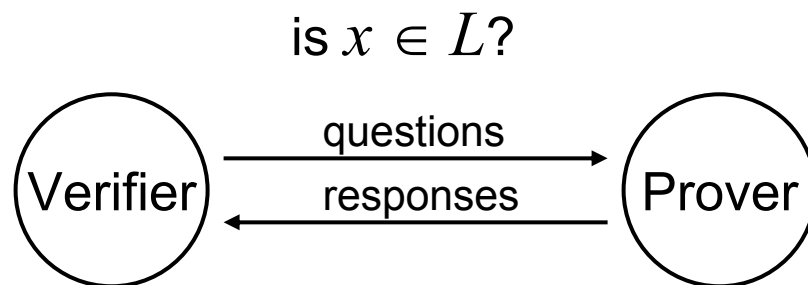
- Consider an instance of 3SAT:

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (x_1 \vee \bar{x}_3 \vee x_4) \wedge (\bar{x}_2 \vee x_3 \vee \bar{x}_5) \wedge \Lambda \wedge (\bar{x}_1 \vee x_5 \vee \bar{x}_n)$$

- Its satisfiability is easy to **verify**—if one is supplied with, say, a satisfying assignment for it
- NP denotes the class of languages L whose positive instances have such “witnesses” that can be verified in polynomial-time

Interactive Proof Systems

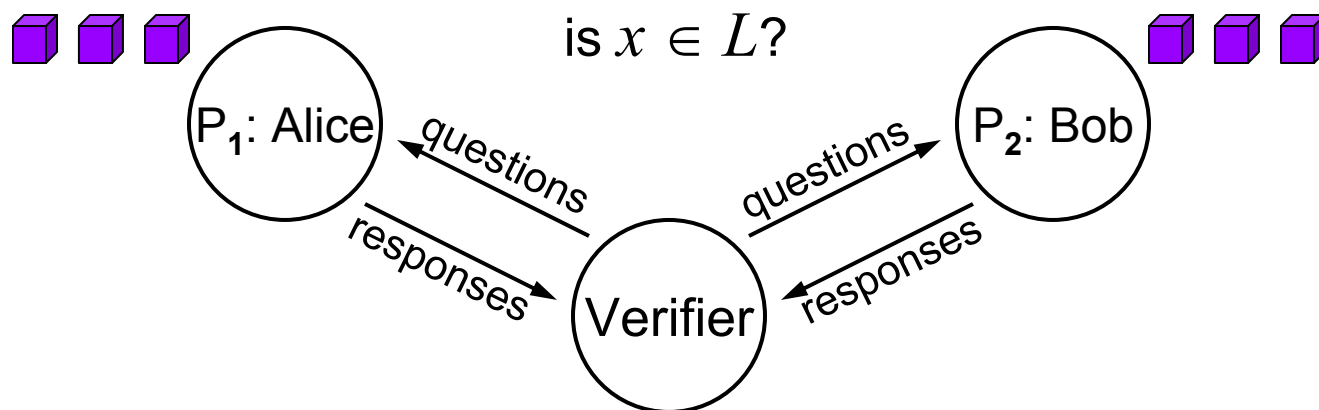
If one can carry out a “dialog” with a prover then the expressive power increases from NP to PSPACE



- The Verifier must be efficient (polynomial-time), but the Prover is computationally unbounded
- **Soundness:** if $x \notin L$, no Prover causes the Verifier to accept (small error probability is okay)
- **Completeness:** if $x \in L$, there exists a Prover that causes the Verifier to accept (small error is okay)

Two Provers

With **two** provers, who cannot communicate with each other, the expressive power increases to NEXP (nondeterministic exponential-time)



- Again, the Verifier must be efficient (polynomial-time), and the Provers are computationally unbounded
- The NEXP result assumes the Provers are **classical**
- With **quantum** strategies, Provers can sometimes “cheat”

Cheating a Protocol for 3SAT

Instance: $(x_1 \vee \bar{x}_3 \vee x_4) \wedge (\bar{x}_2 \vee x_3 \vee \bar{x}_5) \wedge (\bar{x}_1 \vee x_5 \vee \bar{x}_n)$

1. The Verifier randomly chooses a clause and a variable from that clause, and then sends the clause to Alice and the variable to Bob
2. Alice returns a valid truth assignment for the clause, and Bob must return a consistent value for the variable

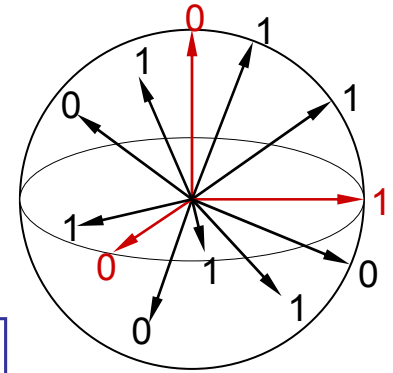
E.g., for the above instance, the Verifier might send Alice “ $(\bar{x}_2 \vee x_3 \vee \bar{x}_5)$ ” and send Bob “ x_5 ”

... and a valid response is Alice sends 1, 0, 0 (values for x_2 , x_3 , x_5 respectively), and Bob sends 0 (value for x_5)

Cheating a Protocol for 3SAT

For an instance of the Kochen-Specker Theorem, the orthogonality conditions can be expressed by the formula

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \left[\bigwedge_{v_i \perp v_j} (\bar{x}_i \vee \bar{x}_j) \right] \wedge \left[\bigwedge_{v_i \perp v_j \perp v_k} (x_i \vee x_j \vee x_k) \right]$$



- By the Kochen-Specker Theorem, this formula is unsatisfiable—therefore, for classical Provers, the Verifier accepts with probability ***less than one***
- But, using the quantum strategy for the KS game, the Provers can cause the Verifier to ***always*** accept

Quantum vs. Classical MIP

- MIP: class of languages accepted by *classical* two-prover interactive proof systems
- MIP*: class of languages accepted by *quantum* two-prover interactive proof systems
- **Theorem** (Fortnow, Rompel, Sipser, 1988): $MIP \subseteq NEXP$
- **Theorem** (Babai, Fortnow, Lund, 1991): $MIP \supseteq NEXP$
And this holds for **one-round** proof systems (Feige, Lovász)
- **Open questions:** is $MIP^* \supseteq NEXP$? is $MIP^* \subseteq NEXP$?
- **Note:** **one-round** quantum two-prover interactive proof systems correspond to nonlocality games ...

XOR Games

- An **XOR game** is a nonlocality game where:
 - Alice and Bob's messages, a and b , are bits
 - The Verifier's decision is a function of $s, t, a \oplus b$
- **Example:** the CHSH game is an XOR game
- **Theorem 1:** for any XOR game, if $\omega_c(G) \leq 1 - \varepsilon$ then $\omega_q(G) \leq 1 - c\varepsilon^2$, where $c \approx \pi^2/4$
- **Note:** there exist classical XOR two-prover MIPs for NEXP

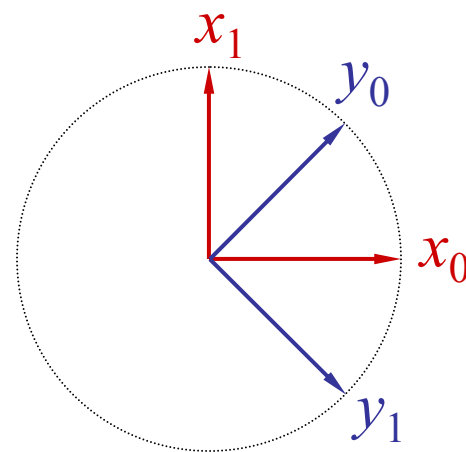
Proof of Theorem 1 (Part 1)

Makes use of

Theorem (Tsirelson, 1987): quantum strategies for XOR games can be characterized by sets of vectors $\{x_s : s \in S\}$ and $\{y_t : t \in T\}$ in \mathbf{R}^n such that, on input $(s,t) \in S \times T$,

$$\Pr[a \oplus b = 1] = (1 - x_s \cdot y_t)/2$$

E.g., vectors in \mathbf{R}^2 for the CHSH game:



Aside: optimal strategies can be found by semidefinite programming

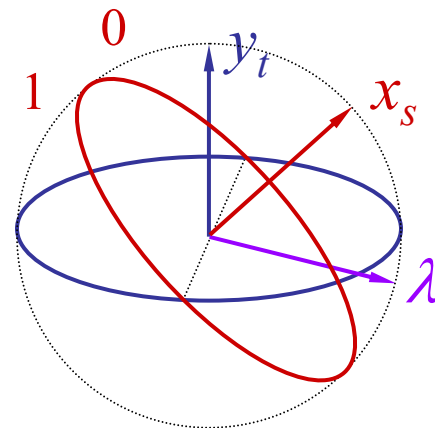
Proof of Theorem 1 (Part 2)

Contrapositive: $\omega_q(G) > 1 - c\varepsilon^2$ implies $\omega_c(G) > 1 - \varepsilon$

For a quantum strategy, we have $\{x_s : s \in S\}$, $\{y_t : t \in T\}$

Classical strategy:

- Alice and Bob share a random vector $\lambda \in \mathbf{R}^n$
- On input s , Alice outputs 0 if $x_s \cdot \lambda \geq 0$ and 1 otherwise
- On input t , Bob outputs 0 if $y_t \cdot \lambda \geq 0$ and 1 otherwise



Proof of Theorem 1 (Part 3)

- **Classical protocol:**

$$\Pr[a \oplus b = 1] = \theta/\pi$$

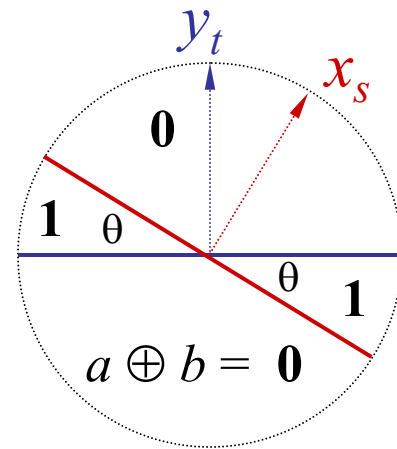
- **Quantum protocol:**

$$\Pr[a \oplus b = 1] = (1 - \cos(\theta))/2$$

- It follows that the quantum and classical success probabilities,

p_q and p_c , are related by

$$p_q \leq \sin^2(\pi p_c / 2) \quad \text{if } p_c \geq 0.742$$



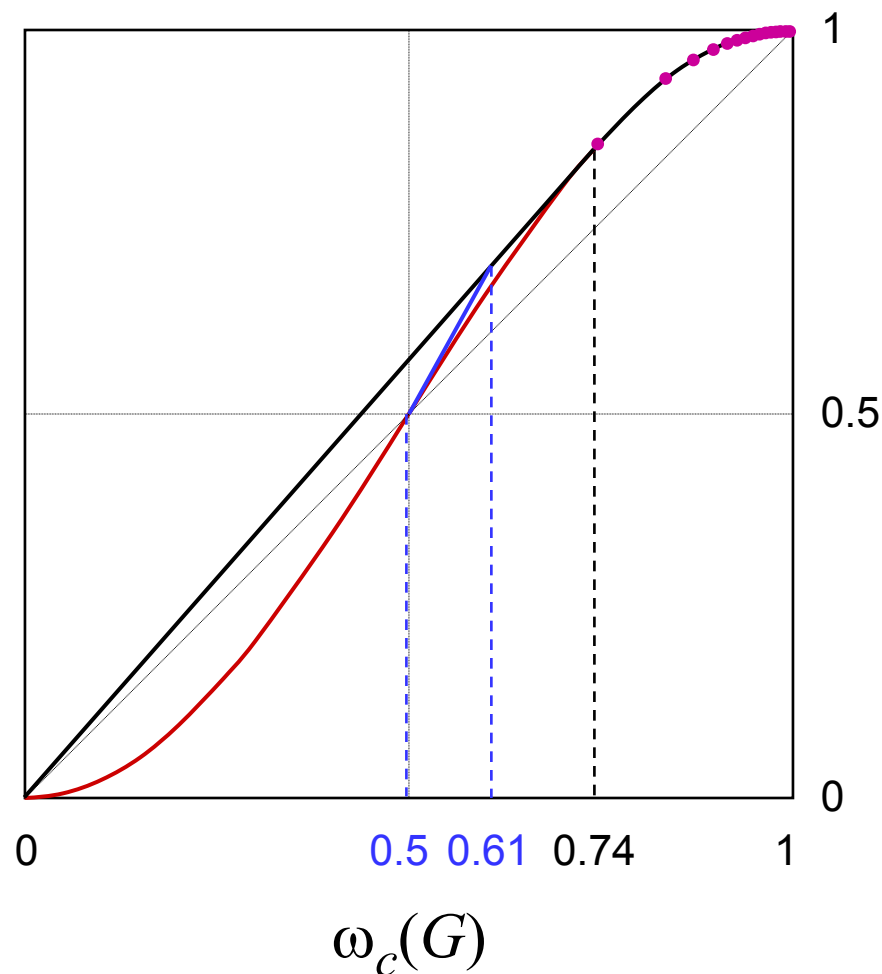
$$\cos(\theta) = x_s \cdot y_t$$

Conclusion of Theorem 1

Upper bound of $\omega_q(G)$ in terms of $\omega_c(G)$ for XOR games

Tight bound for Chained Bell Inequality games (Braunstein, Caves, 1990)

For *nondegenerate* XOR games, better bound when $0.5 \leq \omega_c(G) < 0.61$



Consequences for MIP*?

- For all $L \in \text{NEXP}$, there is a **classical** two-prover MIP that:
 - is an XOR game
 - has soundness probability $p_s \approx 0.6875$
 - has completeness probability $p_c = 0.75$
- ☹️ Unfortunately, applying Theorem 1 yields a quantum upper bound on p_s of 0.7825 (greater than p_c)
- Possible remedies:
 - better classical p_s vs. p_c gap?
 - stronger **specialized** upper bounds for quantum p_s ?
 - quantum strategy to increase quantum p_c ?

Binary Nonlocality Games

Binary: $|A| = |B| = 2$ (but not necessarily XOR)

Theorem 2: for any binary game G ,
if $\omega_c(G) < 1$ then $\omega_q(G) < 1$

Note: no corresponding result if “binary” is relaxed to “ternary-binary”: $|A| = 3$ and $|B| = 2$

Example: the Kochen-Specker game is ternary-binary with $\omega_c(G) < 1$ and $\omega_q(G) = 1$

Bounding Entanglement

- For XOR games, $N = \max(|S|, |T|)$ entangled qubits suffice (this can be exponentially large for MIPs)
- For ***approximate*** simulations, $O(\log N)$ qubits suffice (by applying the Johnson-Lindenstrauss Theorem)
- **Theorem** (Kobayashi, Matsumoto, 2003): if the provers are restricted to a ***polynomial number*** of entangled qubits then $\text{MIP}^* \subseteq \text{NEXP}$
- **Corollary:** $\text{XOR-MIP}^* \subseteq \text{NEXP}$

Open Questions

- MIP^* versus $NEXP$?
- What happens with more than two provers?
- Quantum communication between the provers and a quantum Verifier?
- How does “parallel repetition” work for quantum strategies?

THE END