

Efficient implementation and the product-state representation of numbers

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The relation between the requirement of efficient implementability and the product-state representation of numbers is examined. Numbers are defined to be any model of the axioms of number theory or arithmetic. Efficient implementability (EI) means that the basic arithmetic operations are physically implementable and the space-time and thermodynamic resources needed to carry out the implementations are polynomial in the range of numbers considered. Different models of numbers are described to show the independence of both EI and the product-state representation from the axioms. The relation between EI and the product-state representation is examined. It is seen that the condition of a product-state representation does not imply EI. Arguments used to refute the converse implication, EI implies a product-state representation, seem reasonable; but they are not conclusive. Thus this implication remains an open question.

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I. INTRODUCTION

In all physical representations of numbers constructed to date, numbers are represented by strings of numerals or by tensor product states of systems in quantum mechanics. This is the case for macroscopic systems, such as classical computers, which are in such wide use. It is also true for microscopic systems or quantum computers, which are of much recent interest [1,2].

The universal use of these representations brings up the question, are these string or tensor product-state representations necessary? Or is it just a matter of convenience rather than necessity that representations constructed to date have this property? This question will be examined here by studying physical models of the axioms for number theory. Since these axioms are supposed to describe natural numbers (the nonnegative integers), it follows that any physical model of the axioms is a physical model of the natural numbers.

Since the (nonlogical) axioms of number theory are referred to often, it is worth stating them explicitly.¹ In one form they are [3,4]

1. $Sw \neq 0$,
2. $Sw = Sy \rightarrow w = y$,
3. $w + 0 = w$,
4. $w + Sy = S(w + y)$,
5. $w \times 0 = 0$,
6. $w \times Sy = (w \times y) + w$,
7. $\neg(w < 0)$,

$$8. \quad w < y \vee w = y \vee y < w,$$

$$9. \quad w < Sy \leftrightarrow w < y \vee w = y.$$

Here \vee and \neg denote “or” and “not” and w, y are number variables and S is the successor operation.

The reason for the axiomatic approach is that the axioms give a well-defined way to characterize the numbers. Any physical system with states and operators that satisfies the axioms has states that represent the numbers and operators on the states that represent the arithmetic operations. Such a system is referred to as a (physical) model of the axioms. This definition is quite useful in that the axioms characterize the natural numbers in terms of properties of three basic operations, the successor S , addition ($+$), and multiplication (\times). These are referred to here as the basic arithmetic operations.

In recent work [5,6], physical models of the axioms for the natural numbers, integers, and rational numbers were studied. Emphasis was laid on the essential role that the requirement of efficient implementability of the basic arithmetic operations plays in any physical model of the axiom systems for the different types of numbers. This requirement is an essential component of all computers and in studies of computational complexity [7]. This requirement is not expressed by the axiom systems for the different types of numbers. However, from the viewpoint of the importance of developing a comprehensive theory of mathematics and physics together [8], such a requirement becomes an essential condition to be satisfied by any physical model of the axioms.

The condition of efficient implementability applied to the basic arithmetic operations means that for each operation there must exist physical procedures that can actually be implemented and for which the implementation is efficient. Efficiency means that the space-time and thermodynamic resources needed for implementation must be polynomial and not exponential in the number of digits in the numbers represented [5]. An equivalent statement that avoids the use of string representations is that the resources required must be

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¹Arithmetic differs from number theory in that Peano’s induction axiom is included.

polynomial in the logarithm of the numbers represented and not polynomial in the numbers.

Here the position taken follows that in Ref. [5] in that any physical model of natural numbers (and integers and rational numbers also) must satisfy both the axioms of number theory and the condition of efficient implementability of the basic arithmetic operations. That is, a physical system has states representing numbers if and only if the states can be prepared efficiently and there exist dynamics for the basic arithmetic operations that can be efficiently implemented on the states. No conditions are placed on the complexity of the system. It can be macroscopic or microscopic. For microscopic systems for which decoherence effects are important [9], the requirement is a minimal limit in that it accepts physical systems on which the basic operations can be applied without loss of coherence. However, more complex operations requiring more resources would be affected significantly by decoherence.

In this paper the interest is in the relations between the axioms of number theory, efficient implementability, and the product-state representation of numbers. Of special interest is the question of whether or not efficient implementability is a sufficient condition for the states representing numbers to be product states. That is, for all physical systems, does efficient implementability imply a product-state representation? Or do there exist physical systems for which the basic arithmetical operations are efficiently implementable on nonproduct state representations of the numbers?

The wide existence of computers, macroscopic and microscopic, that are efficient and are based on the product-state representation of numbers, is not of much help in deciding this question. Is this a matter of convenience in that there also exist nonproduct representations for which the arithmetic operations can be efficiently implemented, or can one prove that no such representations exist?

These relations are investigated by first exploring in more detail in the next section the relation between physical models and efficient implementability. Emphasis is laid on quantum mechanical systems. Then the description of a model is given in Sec. III with no assumptions made about the structure of the system states representing numbers. The model is based on a description of operators for several successor operations instead of just one and on projection operators. Addition and multiplication are defined in terms of polynomially many iterations of these simpler operators.

This and other models are used to examine in Sec. IV the relation between efficient implementability, a product-state representation of numbers, and the axioms of number theory. It is seen that the axioms of number theory are independent of both the product-state representation and the efficient implementability requirements in that there are models of the axioms in which these conditions are true and others in which they are false.

Examination of the relation between efficient implementability and the product-state representation shows that the implication, efficient implementability implies a product-state representation, is an open question, in spite of arguments suggesting that it is not valid. The converse implication is proved to be invalid.

II. PHYSICAL MODELS AND EFFICIENT IMPLEMENTABILITY

One way to show the need for the restriction of physical models to those satisfying the efficient implementability condition is to consider physical models of the axioms of arithmetic that do not satisfy the requirement. One model that does not use a product representation consists of a one-dimensional lattice of space positions with a particle located at any one of the positions. If one site is chosen to be the origin then the state ψ_0 for the particle at the origin represents the number 0 and the state $(U_S)^n \psi_0 = \psi_n$ represents the number n . U_S implements S by shifting the particle to an adjoining site in a fixed direction.

In this model the S operation is clearly efficiently implementable. However, operations for $+$ and \times are not efficient since their definitions in terms of S show that exponentially many iterations of S are required. This model is a good illustration of the provable fact that any model in which $+$ and \times are defined in terms of iterations of S is not efficient.

These arguments also extend to any physical models using product states for unary representations of numbers. For these models implementation of $+$ and \times are not efficient irrespective of whether S is or is not efficient. For this reason, in what follows product state representations will refer to binary representations. Extension to k -ary representations with $k > 2$ is straightforward, except that k cannot be too large² [5,10].

There also exist physical models with binary product-state representations of numbers in which neither S , $+$ nor \times can be efficiently implemented. An example consists of a row of infinite square wells each containing one spinless particle. The product states representing numbers describe each of the particles in either the ground or first excited state in the wells. The wells are scaled so that the well width d_{j+1} for the well at site $j+1$ is related to that for the site j well by $d_{j+1} = d_j/2$. Since energy-level separations in the j th well are proportional to $(d_j)^{-2}$, one sees that the energy resources required to implement any of the basic arithmetic operations have an exponential dependence on the number n of wells in the model.

This example shows that the requirement of efficiency can be separated from that of physical implementability, but only over a restricted range of physical parameters. For instance, for $n \sim 10-15$, such a model could probably be constructed even though it would not be practical. However, for $n \sim 100$ such a model is impossible to construct as one could not even physically construct the wells to hold the particles. This follows from the scaling of the well size as inversely proportional to the spring constant. For instance, in this case, if $d_1 \sim 1$ cm, then $d_{100} \sim 10^{-30}$ cm, which is of the order of the Planck length.

Other models to consider represent numbers using entangled states. As an example, consider a system of n spin

²Basic physical considerations limit the amount of information that can be placed in or distinguished in a given space-time volume [10].

1/2 particles contained in potential wells, one particle per well at positions x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n . These are collectively represented by a function \underline{x} from $1, \dots, n$ to the set of n positions. A magnetic field is present as a reference frame for spin alignment along (\uparrow) and opposite (\downarrow) to the field direction. Let $|\underline{s}, \underline{x}\rangle = \otimes_{j=1}^n |\underline{s}(j), x_j\rangle$ denote a product state of the spins where \underline{s} is a function from $1, \dots, n$ to 0,1. Here 1 denotes \uparrow or spin along and 0 denotes \downarrow or spin opposite to the magnetic-field direction.

In the following, let \underline{s} be any function as defined above except that $\underline{s}(n)=0$ and let \bar{s} be obtained from \underline{s} by exchanging ones and zeros at each location. That is, $\bar{s}(j)=1-\underline{s}(j)$. Let $|\underline{s}\rangle$ and $|\bar{s}\rangle$ be the corresponding product states. It is clear that all these states are pairwise orthogonal.

Consider states of the form $1/\sqrt{2}(|\underline{s}, \underline{x}\rangle \pm |\bar{s}, \underline{x}\rangle)$. These entangled states are also pairwise orthogonal. Numbers can be associated with these states as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\underline{s}, \underline{x}\rangle + |\bar{s}, \underline{x}\rangle) &\Rightarrow \sum_{j=1}^n t_j 2^{j-1} \quad \text{if } \underline{t} = \underline{s}, \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\underline{s}, \underline{x}\rangle - |\bar{s}, \underline{x}\rangle) &\Rightarrow \sum_{j=1}^n t_j 2^{j-1} \quad \text{if } \underline{t} = \bar{s}. \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

It is clear that these states would be difficult, if not impossible to construct, even in the absence of environmental decoherence. Even if they could be constructed, implementation of the arithmetic operations would be very hard, if not impossible. Yet the space resources occupied by these states are polynomial in n and they are not excluded by the axioms of number theory.

These examples strongly suggest that the concept of physical models of the arithmetic axioms should be restricted to models in which the basic arithmetic operations are efficiently implementable. In this case one can require that any physical system of arbitrary complexity has states that represent numbers (is a physical model of the axioms) if and only if the basic arithmetic operations are efficiently implementable. In this case the states representing numbers are defined by the properties of the efficient dynamics of the arithmetic operations.

The existence of numerous examples of macroscopic computers, and hopefully microscopic ones too, that efficiently implement the arithmetic operations shows that any extension of the axioms of arithmetic to include efficient implementability would be consistent. This follows from the fact that an axiom system is consistent if and only if it has a model [3]. Axiomatization of efficient implementability will not be attempted here as the concept is still too imprecise. The main problem is that to say that an operation is implementable means there exists a physical procedure for carrying out the operation. However, this requires a precise definition of a physical procedure that is not yet available.

In spite of this there is much that can be said about this requirement. The requirement means that for a given operation there must exist an efficient implementable dynamics for carrying out the operation. In the case of numbers and Schrödinger

dynamics, a physical system has states that represent numbers if and only if there exist Hamiltonians, H_S, H_+, H_\times for efficiently implementing the successor (S), addition ($+$), and multiplication (\times) operations on suitable states of the system. That is if $\tilde{S}, \tilde{+}, \tilde{\times}$ are the operators on the physical state space of the system that satisfy the corresponding axioms for number theory, then

$$e^{-iH_S t} \psi \otimes |E\rangle = \tilde{S} \psi \otimes |E'\rangle, \quad (2)$$

$$e^{-iH_+ t} \psi \otimes \psi' \otimes |E\rangle = \tilde{+} \psi \otimes \psi' \otimes |E\rangle = \psi \otimes (\psi + \psi') \otimes |E'\rangle, \quad (3)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} e^{-iH_\times t} \psi_\alpha \otimes \psi_\beta \otimes \psi_0 \otimes \psi_0 \otimes |E\rangle \\ = \tilde{\times} \psi_\alpha \otimes \psi_\beta \otimes \psi_0 \otimes \psi_0 \otimes |E\rangle \\ = \psi_\alpha \otimes \psi_\beta \otimes \psi_0 \otimes (\psi_\alpha \times \psi_\beta) \otimes |E'\rangle. \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Here $|E\rangle$ and $|E'\rangle$ denote the states of the environment before and after the interaction. Unitarity requires that the $+$ operation act on pairs of product states and \times act on quadruples of product states. The state $\psi_0 = |0\rangle$ denotes the number 0. If each state ψ with a different subscript corresponds to a linear superposition $\psi = \sum_j c_j |j\rangle$, where $|j\rangle$ is the physical state corresponding to the number j , then the dynamics acts in a standard fashion on each component $|j\rangle$ in the superposition for H_S and on the product components $|j\rangle \otimes |j'\rangle$, etc.

Probably the best way to express explicitly the requirement of efficiency is to note that any dynamical process, such as those given above for arithmetic operations, is an information manipulation procedure. Such a process is a sequence of alternating information acquisition and processing phases. If the dynamics requires n bits or qubits of information as inputs, then efficient implementation means that the rate of acquiring and processing the n bits or qubits must be polynomial and not exponential in n . This can be expressed crudely as follows: Let $R_{aq}(t)$ and $R_{pr}(t)$ be the rates, in bits or qubits per unit time, of information acquisition and processing by some process. If these rates are independent of time then

$$R(t) = \begin{cases} cn^{1-k} & \text{if rate polynomial in } n \\ cnK^{-n} & \text{if rate exponential in } n. \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

Here c, k, K are constants that depend on the dynamics of the process under consideration. They can also be different for the acquisition and processing phases and any other relevant system parameters.

If the dynamics of a process require the acquisition and processing of n bits or qubits of information, the time t required to carry out the process is given approximately by $\int_0^t R(t) dt \sim Rt = n$ or $t = c^{-1} n^k$ (polynomial) and $t = c^{-1} K^n$ (exponential). Which type applies depends on both the process dynamics and the state representation used.

If the dynamics of each of the processes for implementing the three basic arithmetic operations for numbers up to 2^n requires the acquisition and processing of n bits or qubits, then efficiency requires that the times t_S, t_+, t_\times given in Eqs. (2)–(4) are all equal to $c^{-1}n^k$, where the constants can be different for each of the three processes. However, it does not follow that for all physical systems the dynamics of each of these three processes requires n bits of information.

An example of this is shown by the example considered earlier of the unary representation of numbers. In this case the successor operation S is just a shift. Since implementation of the shift is independent of where it is, the information required by the dynamics is a constant independent of n . Stated otherwise, the operation is strictly local. The dynamics for implementing $+$ and \times are quite different in that they are global. For these operations, implementation of the dynamics depends on where the particle is relative to the choice of the origin, or location of the 0 site. Because of this, the dynamics for these two operations are exponentially slow even though that for S is polynomial. This is why unary representations are rejected as physical models of number theory or arithmetic.

These considerations also show that the condition of efficient implementation is not preserved under arbitrary unitary transformations. If \tilde{S} is an operator on a Hilbert space, \mathcal{H}_ψ of states ψ and U is a unitary operator acting on \mathcal{H} , then $U\tilde{S}U^\dagger$ acting on $U\psi$ is equivalent to \tilde{S} acting on ψ in that $\langle U\psi | U\tilde{S}U^\dagger | U\psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \tilde{S} | \psi \rangle$. From Eqs. (2)–(4) (suppressing the environment states) similar equivalences exist for $\tilde{+}$, $\tilde{\times}$. If $W = U \otimes U$ and $V = W \otimes W$, then $W\tilde{+}W^\dagger$ and $W\tilde{\times}W^\dagger$ acting on states $W\Phi$ in $\mathcal{H} \otimes \mathcal{H}$ and $V\Theta$ in $\mathcal{H} \otimes \mathcal{H} \otimes \mathcal{H} \otimes \mathcal{H}$ are equivalent to $\tilde{+}$ and $\tilde{\times}$ acting on Φ and Θ . However, it does not follow from the efficiency of implementing H_S, H_+, H_\times on ψ, Φ, θ that $UH_SU^\dagger, WH_+W^\dagger, VH_\times V^\dagger$ are implementable or efficient on $U\psi, W\Phi$, or $V\Theta$.

III. MULTISUCCESSOR MODELS

As was noted, one problem with defining $+$ and \times in terms of the successor operation described in the axioms is that exponentially many iterations are required. This leads to the question of finding relatively simple operations whose properties can be easily axiomatized, and polynomially many iterations of these operations can be used to define $+$ and \times .

One approach to this problem is to consider a model based on the use of many successor operations, not just one. In this model the $+$ and \times operations are defined in terms of polynomially many iterations of the successor operations. The product representation of numbers is not assumed.

The multisuccessor model is motivated by the binary representation of numbers $< 2^n$ shown in the right-hand term of Eq. (1). Based on this representation successor operators, $S_1 = S, S_2, \dots, S_j, \dots$, are introduced for each j . These operators correspond to addition of 2^{j-1} just as S corresponds to the $+1$ operation.

If desired, one may expand the axioms for arithmetic by inclusion of axioms for all the successor operators. However, this will not be done here as it is not necessary. Also one may

wonder what has been gained by requiring the efficient implementability of all the S_j rather than applying this requirement separately to just the three operations $S, +, \times$. One reason is that the successor operations are simpler operations than are $+$ and \times . Also in many physical models the S_j are related to one another by means of a transformation operator U that is independent of the index j . That is, $S_{j+1} = U(S_j)$. In these models, which are much used in practice, efficient implementability of all the successors follows from that of the two operations, S and U .

The model considered here will be a microscopic model in which numbers are represented by orthonormal states in a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} with arbitrary tensor product structure. For example \mathcal{H} could have no tensor product structure or it could be a tensor product space where the subspaces are described by different types of entangled states. This includes a possible description using bound entangled states as described by Bennett and others [11]. To keep things simple the model will be given for arithmetic modulo 2^n .

Let A be a set of physical parameters for a quantum system. These could be eigenvalues for some system observable. Let V_a be a set of operators on the state space of the system indexed by the parameters a in a finite set A of n parameters. The operators V_a are required to have the following properties [5]:

1. Each V_a is a cyclic shift.
2. The V_a all commute with one another.
3. There is just one a for which $(V_a)^2 = 1$. Let a_m be this unique a .
4. For each $a \neq a_m$, there is a unique $a' \neq a$ such that $(V_a)^2 = V_{a'}$.
5. For each a' , if there is an $a \neq a'$ such that $(V_a)^2 = V_{a'}$, then a is unique.
6. For just one a there are no a' such that $(V_{a'})^2 = V_a$. Let a_ℓ be this unique value.

Properties 3–6 can be used to establish an ordering a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n of the parameter set A , where $a_1 = a_\ell$, $a_n = a_m$ and $V_{a_{j+1}} = (V_{a_j})^2$ for $j < n$. Based on this ordering, the V_{a_j} can be considered informally as corresponding to addition of 2^{j-1} . The commutativity and cyclic shift properties give the existence of a set \mathcal{B} of pairwise orthogonal subspaces of states such that for each a and each subspace β in \mathcal{B} , $V_a\beta$ is in \mathcal{B} and is orthogonal to β .

The properties can also be used to show that there are 2^n orthogonal subspaces in \mathcal{B} that can be given a cyclic ordering by iterations of V_{a_1} . However, there is no association of the property parameters in A to the subspaces β . Also no subspace is associated with the number 0. From now on the subspaces are assumed to be one dimensional, so β can be represented as a state $|\beta\rangle$.

One way to achieve this is to define operators that can be used to describe this association. To this end let $p \in \{\alpha, \gamma\}$ denote the two values of some physical parameter associated with an observable that is different from that associated with the values in A . Define $2n$ projection operators $P_{a,p}$ and n unitary operators U_a to have the following properties:

7. Each $P_{a,p}$ is 2^{n-1} dimensional and all the $P_{a,p}$ commute with one another. Also $P_{a,\alpha} = \tilde{I} - P_{a,\gamma}$ for each a .

8. $U_a P_{a',p} = P_{a',p} U_a$ if $a \neq a'$.
 9. $U_a P_{a,\alpha} = P_{a,\gamma} U_a$; $U_a P_{a,\gamma} = P_{a,\alpha} U_a$.
 10. For each a there is exactly one p such that $P_{a,p} |\beta\rangle = |\beta\rangle$.

Properties 7 and 10 show that to each state $|\beta\rangle$ there is associated a specific function \underline{s} from the set A to $\{\alpha, \gamma\}$. The association is given by

$$P_{\underline{s}} |\beta\rangle = \prod_{a \in A} P_{a, \underline{s}(a)} |\beta\rangle = |\beta\rangle. \quad (6)$$

Uniqueness is provided by the next property:

11. $P_{\underline{s}} |\beta\rangle = P_{\underline{s}'} |\beta'\rangle$ implies that $|\beta\rangle = |\beta'\rangle$.

Since there are 2^n functions \underline{s} and states $|\beta\rangle$, the above shows that each \underline{s} is associated with some $|\beta\rangle$.

The relation of the $P_{a,p}$ and U_a to the V_a is provided by the following condition:

12. $V_a = U_a P_{a,\alpha} + V_{Sa} U_a P_{a,\gamma}$ if $a \neq a_m$;
 $V_{a_m} = U_{a_m}$.

Here a_m is the value given by property 3 for the V_a and Sa is the unique value of a' that satisfies property 4. This use of the successor notation is based on the fact that properties 3–6 of the V_a express a successor operation and an ordering on the set A that satisfies the number theory axioms 1,2 and 7–9 listed in the introduction.

These operators can be used to define an addition operator $\tilde{+}$ on pairs $|\beta\rangle \otimes |\beta'\rangle$ of states by

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{+} |\beta\rangle \otimes |\beta'\rangle &= \prod_{a \in A} (P_{a,\alpha} \tilde{I} + P_{a,\gamma} \otimes V_a) |\beta\rangle \otimes |\beta'\rangle \\ &= |\beta\rangle \otimes |\beta + \beta'\rangle. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

The “+” without the tilde in $|\beta + \beta'\rangle$ refers to the result of arithmetic addition. It does not denote the coherent sum $|\beta\rangle + |\beta'\rangle$ of $|\beta\rangle$ and $|\beta'\rangle$. The unordered product is used as the operators $P_{a,\alpha} \tilde{I} + P_{a,\gamma} \otimes V_a$ for different a commute with one another.

The unique association of a function \underline{s} with each state $|\beta\rangle$, property 10, shows that the addition operator can also be represented by

$$\tilde{+} |\beta\rangle \otimes |\beta'\rangle = |\beta\rangle \otimes \prod_{a \in A} (V_a)^{\underline{s}'(a)} |\beta'\rangle. \quad (8)$$

Here \underline{s}' is obtained from \underline{s} by replacing α with 0 and γ with 1.

It follows from the definition of $\tilde{+}$, Eq. (7), that the state $|\beta\rangle$ satisfying $P_{\underline{\alpha}} |\beta\rangle = |\beta\rangle$ where $\underline{\alpha}$ is the constant α sequence is the additive identity. As shown by the number theory axioms, this state represents the number 0. It follows that any state $|\beta\rangle$ is related to the 0 state $|\beta\rangle_0$ by

$$|\beta\rangle = \prod_{a \in A} (V_a)^{\underline{s}(a)} |\beta\rangle_0, \quad (9)$$

where \underline{s} is the unique sequence associated with $|\beta\rangle$ by Eq. (6).

To define the multiplication operator it is quite useful to first define the operator W by

$$W |\beta\rangle = |\beta + \beta\rangle. \quad (10)$$

W corresponds informally to the addition of $|\beta\rangle$ to itself. Iteration of W in Eq. (10) gives the result that $W^{j+1} |\beta\rangle = |W^j \beta + W^j \beta\rangle$. Use of Eq. (9), and Eq. (8) gives the result that

$$W^{h+1} |\beta\rangle = \prod_{j=1, s_j=1}^{n-h} V_{a_{j+h}} |\beta\rangle_0, \quad (11)$$

if $s_j=1$ for some $j \leq n-h$. Otherwise $W^{h+1} |\beta\rangle = |\beta\rangle_0$. It follows that $W^h |\beta\rangle = |\beta\rangle_0$ for all $h \geq n+1$.

A definition of $\tilde{\times}$ can now be given in terms of W and $\tilde{+}$. It is defined on triples of states by [5]

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\times} |\beta\rangle_1 \otimes |\beta'\rangle_2 \otimes |\beta\rangle_3 \\ &= \prod_{j=2}^n [(P_{a_j, \alpha} \tilde{I}_{2,3} + P_{a_j, \gamma} \otimes \tilde{+}_{2,3}) W_2] \\ &\quad \times (P_{a_1, \alpha} \tilde{I}_{2,3} + P_{a_1, \gamma} \otimes \tilde{+}_{2,3}) \\ &\quad \times |\beta\rangle_1 \otimes |\beta'\rangle_2 \otimes |\beta\rangle_3 = |\beta\rangle_1 \otimes |\beta\rangle_2 \otimes |\beta \times \beta'\rangle_3. \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

Here W is defined by Eq. (10) and the subscripts “2” and “2,3” on the operators refer to the state subscripts in the triple product. $|\beta\rangle_0$ represents the number 0.

As defined, $\tilde{\times}$ is not unitary. This can be fixed by expanding $\tilde{\times}$ to act on quadruples of the form $|\beta\rangle_1 \otimes |\beta'\rangle_2 \otimes |\beta\rangle_3 \otimes |\beta\rangle_4$. One starts by copying $|\beta'\rangle_2$ to $|\beta\rangle_4$. Then at the conclusion of the action, $|\beta\rangle_2$ and $|\beta'\rangle_4$ are exchanged. Also in order to ensure unitarity $\tilde{\times}$ was defined to add the result of multiplication to whatever state is the 3rd component. That is, if $|\beta''\rangle_3 \neq |\beta\rangle_3$, the final 3rd state component can be represented as $|\beta'' + (\beta \times \beta')\rangle$.

IV. IS THE PRODUCT-STATE REPRESENTATION NECESSARY?

There is much to discuss about the results obtained so far. One feature is that each state $|\beta\rangle$ is in a simultaneous eigenstate of all the values a in A . This follows from property 10. If q_a is the projection operator for an eigenspace associated with a then $q_a |\beta\rangle = |\beta\rangle$ for all a and all $|\beta\rangle$.

This may seem counterintuitive but this property is satisfied by most product-state models. For example, let A be a set of n space positions of potential wells each containing a single spin 1/2 particle. There is a common magnetic field to determine the spin direction. Product states have the form $|\underline{s}, A\rangle = \otimes_{a \in A} |\underline{s}(a), a\rangle$, or $|\underline{s}, \underline{a}\rangle = \otimes_{j=1}^n |\underline{s}(j), \underline{a}(j)\rangle$ in a more standard form. In the second form \underline{s} and \underline{a} are respective functions from $1, \dots, n$ to $\{\uparrow, \downarrow\}$ and from $\bar{1}, \dots, n$ to A . It

is clear that for any of the 2^n states $|s, a\rangle$, $q_a|s, a\rangle = |s, a\rangle$ for each $a \in A$ and all s .

Based on this one might conclude that the properties of the V_a and the projection and unitary operators given above are sufficient to prove that the states $|\beta\rangle$ have a product structure. This is not the case.

To see this consider the entangled state representation of numbers by Eq. (1) for the model described above. In this model let $Q_{\underline{s}, A}$ and $Q_{\bar{s}, A}$ be projection operators for the states $|\underline{s}, A\rangle$ and $|\bar{s}, A\rangle$, respectively. That is, $Q_{\underline{s}, A}|\underline{s}, A\rangle = |\underline{s}, A\rangle$ and $Q_{\bar{s}, A}|\bar{s}, A\rangle = |\bar{s}, A\rangle$. Here, as before, $\underline{s}(a_m) = 0$ and $\bar{s}(a) = 1 - \underline{s}(a)$ for each $a \in A$. a_m is the maximum value of A according to property 3.

Define the unitary operator U by

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\underline{s}, A\rangle + |\bar{s}, A\rangle) &= U|\underline{s}, A\rangle, \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\underline{s}, A\rangle - |\bar{s}, A\rangle) &= U|\bar{s}, A\rangle. \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

Unitarity follows from the fact that $\langle \underline{s}', A | U^\dagger U | \underline{s}, A \rangle = \delta_{\underline{s}, \underline{s}'}$.

Based on this one sees that $P_{\underline{t}, A} = U Q_{\underline{t}, A} U^\dagger$ for any sequence \underline{t} where $\underline{t} = \underline{s}$ or $\underline{t} = \bar{s}$. So $P_{\underline{t}, A}$ satisfies Eq. (6) with $|\beta\rangle = U|\underline{t}, A\rangle$. Note that in Eq. (6) $P_{\underline{s}} \equiv P_{\underline{s}, A}$.

From this one has

$$P_{a, p} = \sum_{\underline{t}} \underline{t}(a) = p P_{\underline{t}, A}.$$

If U_a and V_a are defined by properties 7–12, it is straightforward to show that the V_a have properties 1–6. In this case the definitions of $\tilde{\mp}$ and $\tilde{\times}$ in terms of these operators apply. Proofs that these operators satisfy the axioms of number theory are tedious but also straightforward [5,6].

This constitutes a proof that nothing in the axioms of number theory implies a product-state representation model, even for multiple successor models based on the projection operators and the V_a with the properties described. It follows that the axioms of number theory are independent of the product-state representation condition in that there are models of the axioms in which numbers are represented by product states and models in which they are represented by entangled states.

The number theory axioms are also independent of the requirement that the basic arithmetic operations are efficiently implementable. This is shown by both the well-known existence of physical models in which the operations are physically implementable and the example given in Sec. II of a model containing a row of infinite square wells where the well width decreased exponentially with well position. For this example the operations are not efficient and are, therefore, not efficiently implementable.

It remains to address the relation between the requirement of efficient implementability and product-state representations of numbers. The example noted above shows that the

implication: product-state representation of numbers implies the efficient implementability of the basic arithmetic operations is not valid. The reverse implication is more difficult. In fact one can give arguments that suggest that efficient implementability is independent of the product representation of numbers. That is, it neither implies or is implied by the product representation condition.

It is worth examining this in more detail. To prove that efficient implementability does not imply a product-state representation it is sufficient to show some entangled representation, such as that for Eq. (1), for which the successor operators V_a defined by properties 1–6,12 are efficiently implementable.

To this end assume the entangled representation of numbers given by Eq. (1) with the n physical systems located as described at space sites x_1, \dots, x_n . Then the physical procedure for implementing each V_a would have to include coherent interactions with all the n physical systems. The interactions between the component systems would have to extend coherently over the space region occupied by the n systems.

It is reasonable to expect that the degree of difficulty, or resources needed, to implement the V_a would increase polynomially with n . This is based on the argument that the range over which the interactions need to be coherent increases linearly with n . This suggests that if the V_a are efficiently implementable for physical states of the form of Eq. (1) for some n , they are efficiently implementable for all n even though the resources required for implementation might increase with a high power of n . One would not expect the resources required to increase exponentially with n .

This type of inductive reasoning, combined with the fact that for $n=2$ the two operators V_a should be physically implementable, suggests that the implication is valid. Physical implementability for $n=2$ is based on the fact that the states shown in Eq. (1) are the four Bell states.

The problem with this argument is that, although it may be reasonable, it does not constitute a rigorous proof. Lacking is a discussion of the n dependence of the resources required to overcome the effects of decoherence [12,13] including the use of quantum error correction codes [14]. Also lacking is a precise definition of physical implementability of a procedure. Without this it is difficult to show conclusively, in spite of the above argument of reasonableness, that efficient implementability does not imply a product representation of numbers.

The above shows that the properties of numbers and the basic arithmetic operations cannot be used to determine if efficient implementability implies a product-state representation of numbers. One must look elsewhere for such a proof. Another approach is based on the fact that all physical processes and computations are specific examples of information manipulation processes. In general, every such process consists of a sequence of alternating information-acquisition phases, information-processing phases, and possible information-distribution phases. This includes computations and tasks performed by robots, microscopic [15] or macroscopic.

If the dynamics of an information-manipulation process depends on or is sensitive to n bits or qubits of information then at least n bits or qubits of information must be acquired, and processed. Then the (reversible) dynamics of the process is represented by a unitary step operator U acting on the 2^n dimensional Hilbert space of states of the n qubits. Since one is interested in the time development of the states of the n qubits, it makes sense to choose the product basis $|\underline{b}\rangle = \otimes_{j=1}^n |b_j\rangle_j$, where $|b_j\rangle_j$ is a basis state for the j th qubit, as the reference basis for the n qubits rather than some entangled basis.

This abstract representation of the dynamics of an n qubit information theoretic process is related to physical processes through unitary maps W from the basis states $|\underline{b}\rangle$ to a basis of physical states of some physical system that span a 2^n dimensional Hilbert subspace of states of the system [5]. (See also Viola *et al.* [16] for a discussion regarding the relation between qubits and physical systems.) The dynamical process on the states of the physical system corresponding to the action of U on the qubits is represented by the operator WUW^\dagger .

It is to be noted that there is no requirement that the map W take product qubit states into product states of different physical degrees of freedom of the physical system. The states $W|\underline{b}\rangle$ can just as well be entangled states of the physical system. Whether they are entangled or product states depends on W .

It is also the case that the requirement of efficient implementability applies to the implementation of the operator WUW^\dagger as this corresponds to a physical process. The requirement does not apply to the more abstract U as this is an abstract information theoretic dynamics representing many different physical processes, each characterized by a different map W from the information theoretic qubit states to different Hilbert spaces of physical states of different systems.

This situation makes it unlikely that anything is to be gained by using the more abstract information dynamics to prove or disprove that efficient implementability implies or does not imply a product-state representation. If one could prove the implication, then this would restrict the maps W to be maps from product qubit states to product states of physical degrees of freedom. One must conclude that the implication, efficient implementability of a process implies a product-state representation of the physical states of a system on which the process is to be carried out, is an open question.

V. DISCUSSION

It must be emphasized that the arguments given before to suggest that the implication does not hold for states representing numbers do not constitute a proof. As such, they do not contradict the open question conclusion stated above. As has been noted, a problem in giving such a proof is the lack of an exact characterization of physical implementability. Lacking this, it is difficult to make further progress in this direction.

However, the work done here does show that the conditions of efficient implementability and of a product-state representation of numbers are independent of the axioms of number theory. The result that information theoretic arguments do not help to determine the validity of the implication, efficient implementability implies product-state representation, is a consequence of the assumed separation of abstract qubit states and their dynamics from states and dynamics of real physical processes to which they are related through the maps W . If this assumed picture turns out not to be valid, then the argument may have to be revised.

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