# Nonapproximability of the normalized information distance 

Sebastiaan A. Terwijn ${ }^{\text {a }}$, Leen Torenvliet ${ }^{\text {b }}$, Paul M.B. Vitányi ${ }^{\text {b,c, }}{ }^{\text {* }}$<br>${ }^{\text {a }}$ Radboud University Nijmegen, Netherlands<br>${ }^{\mathrm{b}}$ University of Amsterdam, Netherlands<br>${ }^{\text {c }}$ CWI, Netherlands

## A R T I C L E I N F O

## Article history:

Received 23 October 2009
Received in revised form 11 June 2010
Accepted 28 June 2010
Available online 3 July 2010

## Keywords:

Normalized information distance
Kolmogorov complexity
Semicomputability


#### Abstract

Normalized information distance (NID) uses the theoretical notion of Kolmogorov complexity, which for practical purposes is approximated by the length of the compressed version of the file involved, using a real-world compression program. This practical application is called 'normalized compression distance' and it is trivially computable. It is a parameterfree similarity measure based on compression, and is used in pattern recognition, data mining, phylogeny, clustering, and classification. The complexity properties of its theoretical precursor, the NID, have been open. We show that the NID is neither upper semicomputable nor lower semicomputable.


© 2010 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

## 1. Introduction

The classical notion of Kolmogorov complexity [8] is an objective measure for the information in a single object, and information distance measures the information between a pair of objects [2]. This last notion has spawned research in the theoretical direction, among others [3,15-17,12,14]. Research in the practical direction has focused on the normalized information distance (NID), also called the similarity metric, which arises by normalizing the information distance in a proper manner. (The NID is defined by (2.1) below.) If we also approximate the Kolmogorov complexity through real-world compressors [10,4,5], then we obtain the normalized compression distance (NCD). This is a parameter-free, feature-free, and alignment-free similarity measure that has had great impact in applications. The NCD was preceded by a related nonoptimal distance [9]. In [7] another variant of the NCD has been tested on all major time-sequence databases used in all major data-mining conferences against all other major methods used. The compression method turned out to be competitive in general, and superior in heterogeneous data clustering and anomaly detection. There have been many applications in pattern recognition, phylogeny, clustering, and classification, ranging from hurricane forecasting and music to genomics and analysis of network traffic, see the many papers referencing [10,4,5] in Google Scholar. The NCD is trivially computable. In [10] it is shown that its theoretical precursor, the NID, is a metric up to negligible discrepancies in the metric (in)equalities and that it is always between 0 and 1 . (For the subsequent computability notions see Section 2.)

The computability status of the NID has been open, see Remark VI. 1 in [10] which asks whether the NID is upper semicomputable, and (open) Exercise 8.4 .4 (c) in the textbook [11] which asks whether the NID is semicomputable at all. We resolve this question by showing the following.

Theorem 1.1. Let $x, y$ be strings and denote the NID between them by $e(x, y)$.
(i) The function e is not lower semicomputable (Lemma 3.3).
(ii) The function e is not upper semicomputable (Lemma 4.1).

[^0]Item (i) implies that there is no pair of lower semicomputable functions $g, \delta$ such that $g(x, y)+\delta(x, y)=e(x, y)$. (If there were such a pair, then $e$ itself would be lower semicomputable.) Similarly, Item (ii) implies that there is no pair of upper semicomputable functions $g, \delta$ such that $g(x, y)+\delta(x, y)=e(x, y)$. Therefore, the theorem implies

## Corollary 1.2.

(i) The NID $e(x, y)$ cannot be approximated by a semicomputable function $g(x, y)$ to any computable precision $\delta(x, y)$.
(ii) The NID $e(x, y)$ cannot be approximated by a computable function $g(x, y)$ to any semicomputable precision $\delta(x, y)$.

How can this be reconciled with the above applicability of the NCD (an approximation of the NID through real-world compressors)? It can be speculated upon but not proven that natural data do not contain complex mathematical regularities such as $\pi=3.1415 \ldots$ or a universal Turing machine computation. The regularities they do contain are of the sort detected by a good compressor. In this view, the Kolmogorov complexity and the length of the result of a good compressor are not that different for natural data.

## 2. Preliminaries

We write string to mean a finite binary string, and $\epsilon$ denotes the empty string. The length of a string $x$ (the number of bits in it) is denoted by $|x|$. Thus, $|\epsilon|=0$. Moreover, we identify strings with natural numbers by associating each string with its index in the length-increasing lexicographic ordering

$$
(\epsilon, 0),(0,1),(1,2),(00,3),(01,4),(10,5),(11,6), \ldots
$$

Informally, the Kolmogorov complexity of a string is the length of the shortest string from which the original string can be losslessly reconstructed by an effective general-purpose computer such as a particular universal Turing machine $U$, [8]. Hence it constitutes a lower bound on how far a lossless compression program can compress. In this paper we require that the set of programs of $U$ is prefix free (no program is a proper prefix of another program), that is, we deal with the prefix Kolmogorov complexity. (But for the results in this paper it does not matter whether we use the plain Kolmogorov complexity or the prefix Kolmogorov complexity.) We call $U$ the reference universal Turing machine. Formally, the conditional prefix Kolmogorov complexity $K(x \mid y)$ is the length of the shortest input $z$ such that the reference universal Turing machine $U$ on input $z$ with auxiliary information $y$ outputs $x$. The unconditional prefix Kolmogorov complexity $K(x)$ is defined by $K(x \mid \epsilon)$. For an introduction to the definitions and notions of Kolmogorov complexity (algorithmic information theory) see [11].

Let $\mathcal{N}$ and $\mathcal{R}$ denote the nonnegative integers and the real numbers, respectively. A function $f: \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ is upper semicomputable (or $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ ) if it is defined by a rational-valued computable function $\phi(x, k)$ where $x$ is a string and $k$ is a nonnegative integer such that $\phi(x, k+1) \leqslant \phi(x, k)$ for every $k$ and $\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} \phi(x, k)=f(x)$. This means that $f$ can be computably approximated from above. A function $f$ is lower semicomputable (or $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$ ) if $-f$ is upper semicomputable. A function is called semicomputable (or $\Pi_{1}^{0} \cup \Sigma_{1}^{0}$ ) if it is either upper semicomputable or lower semicomputable or both. A function $f$ is computable (or recursive) if it is both upper semicomputable and lower semicomputable (or $\Pi_{1}^{0} \cap \Sigma_{1}^{0}$ ). Use $\langle\cdot\rangle$ as a pairing function over $\mathcal{N}$ to associate a unique natural number $\langle x, y\rangle$ with each pair $(x, y)$ of natural numbers. An example is $\langle x, y\rangle$ defined by $y+(x+y+1)(x+y) / 2$. In this way we can extend the above definitions to functions of two nonnegative integers, in particular to distance functions.

The information distance $D(x, y)$ between strings $x$ and $y$ is defined as

$$
D(x, y)=\min _{p}\{|p|: U(p, x)=y \wedge U(p, y)=x\}
$$

where $U$ is the reference universal Turing machine above. Like the Kolmogorov complexity $K$, the distance function $D$ is upper semicomputable. Define

$$
E(x, y)=\max \{K(x \mid y), K(y \mid x)\}
$$

In [2] it is shown that the function $E$ is upper semicomputable, $D(x, y)=E(x, y)+O(\log E(x, y))$, the function $E$ is a metric (more precisely, that it satisfies the metric (in)equalities up to a constant), and that $E$ is minimal (up to a constant) among all upper semicomputable distance functions $D^{\prime}$ satisfying the mild normalization conditions $\sum_{y: y \neq x} 2^{-D^{\prime}(x, y)} \leqslant 1$ and $\sum_{x: x \neq y} 2^{-D^{\prime}(x, y)} \leqslant 1$. (Here and elsewhere in this paper "log" denotes the binary logarithm.) It should be mentioned that the minimality property was relaxed from the $D^{\prime}$ functions being metrics [2] to symmetric distances [10] to the present form [11] without serious proof changes. The normalized information distance (NID) $e$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
e(x, y)=\frac{E(x, y)}{\max \{K(x), K(y)\}} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is straightforward that $0 \leqslant e(x, y) \leqslant 1$ up to some minor discrepancies for all $x, y \in\{0,1\}^{*}$. Since $e$ is the ratio between two upper semicomputable functions, that is, between two $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ functions, it is a $\Delta_{2}^{0}$ function. That is, $e$ is computable relative to the halting problem $\emptyset^{\prime}$. One would not expect any better bound in the arithmetic hierarchy. However, we can say
this: Call a function $f(x, y)$ computable in the limit if there exists a rational-valued computable function $g(x, y, t)$ such that $\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} g(x, y, t)=f(x, y)$. This is precisely the class of functions that are Turing-reducible to the halting set, and the NID is in this class, Exercise 8.4.4(b) in [11] (a result due to [6]).

In the sequel we use time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity. Let $x$ be a string of length $n$ and $t(n)$ a computable time bound. Then $K^{t}$ denotes the time-bounded version of $K$ defined by

$$
K^{t}(x \mid y)=\min _{p}\left\{|p|: U^{\prime}(p, y)=x \text { in at most } t(n) \text { steps }\right\} .
$$

Here we use the two work-tape reference universal Turing machine $U^{\prime}$ suitable for time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity [11]. The computation of $U^{\prime}$ is measured in terms of the output rather than the input, which is more natural in the context of Kolmogorov complexity.

## 3. The NID is not lower semicomputable

Define the time-bounded version $E^{t}$ of $E$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
E^{t}(x, y)=\max \left\{K^{t}(x \mid y), K^{t}(y \mid x)\right\} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 3.1. For every length $n$ and computable time bound $t$ there are strings $u$ and $v$ of length $n$ such that

- $K(v) \geqslant n-c_{1}$,
- $K(v \mid u) \geqslant n-c_{2}$,
- $K(u \mid n) \leqslant c_{2}$,
- $K^{t}(u \mid v) \geqslant n-c_{1} \log n-c_{2}$,
where $c_{1}$ is a nonnegative constant independent of $t, n$, and $c_{2}$ is a nonnegative constant depending on $t$ but not on $n$.
Proof. Fix an integer $n$. There is a $v$ of length $n$ such that $K(v \mid n) \geqslant n$ by simple counting (there are $2^{n}$ strings of length $n$ and at most $2^{n}-1$ programs of length less than $n$ ). If we have a program for $v$ then we can turn it into a program for $v$ ignoring conditional information by adding a constant number of bits. Hence, $K(v)+c \geqslant K(v \mid n)$ for some nonnegative constant $c$. Therefore, for large enough nonnegative constant $c_{1}$ we have

$$
K(v) \geqslant n-c_{1} .
$$

Let $t$ be a computable time bound and let the computable time bound $t^{\prime}$ be large enough with respect to $t$ so that the arguments below hold. Use the reference universal Turing machine $U^{\prime}$ with input $n$ to run all programs of length less than $n$ for $t^{\prime}(n)$ steps. Take the least string $u$ of length $n$ not occurring as an output among the halting programs. Since there are at most $2^{n}-1$ programs as above, and $2^{n}$ strings of length $n$ there is always such a string $u$. By construction $K^{t^{\prime}}(u \mid n) \geqslant n$ and for a large enough constant $c_{2}$ also

$$
K(u \mid n) \leqslant c_{2},
$$

where $c_{2}$ depends on $t^{\prime}$ (hence $t$ ) but not on $n, u$. Since $u$ in the conditional only supplies $c_{2}$ bits apart from its length $n$ we have

$$
K(v \mid u) \geqslant K(v \mid n)-K(u \mid n) \geqslant n-c_{2} .
$$

This implies also that $K^{t^{\prime}}(v \mid u) \geqslant n-c_{2}$. Hence,

$$
2 n-c_{2} \leqslant K^{t^{\prime}}(u \mid n)+K^{t^{\prime}}(v \mid u)
$$

Now we use the time-bounded symmetry of algorithmic information [13] (see also [11, Exercise 7.1.12]) where $t$ is given and $t^{\prime}$ is chosen in the standard proof of the symmetry of algorithmic information [11, Section 2.8.2] (the original is due to L.A. Levin and A.N. Kolmogorov in [18]), so that the statements below hold. (Recall also that for large enough $f, K^{f}(v \mid u, n)=$ $K^{f}(v \mid u)$ and $K^{f}(u \mid v, n)=K^{f}(u \mid v)$ since in the original formulas $n$ is present in each term.) Then,

$$
K^{t^{\prime}}(u \mid n)+K^{t^{\prime}}(v \mid u)-c_{1} \log n \leqslant K^{t^{\prime}}(v, u \mid n),
$$

with the constant $c_{1}$ large enough and independent of $t, t^{\prime}, n, u, v$. For an appropriate choice of $t^{\prime}$ with respect to $t$ it is easy to see (the simple side of the time-bounded symmetry of algorithmic information) that

$$
K^{t^{\prime}}(v, u \mid n) \leqslant K^{t}(v \mid n)+K^{t}(u \mid v) .
$$

Since $K^{t}(v \mid n) \geqslant K(v \mid n) \geqslant n$ we obtain $K^{t}(u \mid v) \geqslant n-c_{1} \log n-c_{2}$.
A similar but tighter result can be obtained from [1, Lemma 7.7].

Lemma 3.2. For every length $n$ and computable time bound $t$ ( provided $t(n) \geqslant c n$ for a large enough constant $c$ ), there exist strings $v$ and $w$ of length $n$ such that

- $K(v) \geqslant n-c_{1}$,
- $E(v, w) \leqslant c_{3}$,
- $E^{t}(v, w) \geqslant n-c_{1} \log n-c_{3}$,
where the nonnegative constant $c_{3}$ depends on $t$ but not on $n$ and the nonnegative constant $c_{1}$ is independent of $t$, $n$.
Proof. Let strings $u, v$ and constants $c_{1}, c_{2}$ be as in Lemma 3.1 using $2 t$ instead of $t$, and the constants $c^{\prime}, c^{\prime \prime}, c_{3}$ are large enough for the proof below. By Lemma 3.1, we have $K^{2 t}(u \mid v) \geqslant n-c_{1} \log n-c_{2}$ with $c_{2}$ appropriate for the time bound $2 t$. Define $w$ by $w=v \oplus u$ where $\oplus$ denotes the bitwise XOR. Then,

$$
E(v, w) \leqslant K(u \mid n)+c^{\prime} \leqslant c_{3}
$$

where the nonnegative constant $c_{3}$ depends on $2 t$ (since $u$ does) but not on $n$ and the constant $c^{\prime}$ is independent of $t, n$. We also have $u=v \oplus w$ so that (with the time bound $t(n) \geqslant c n$ for $c$ a large enough constant independent of $t, n$ )

$$
\begin{aligned}
n-c_{1} \log n-c_{2} & \leqslant K^{2 t}(u \mid v) \\
& \leqslant K^{t}(w \mid v)+c^{\prime} \\
& \leqslant \max \left\{K^{t}(v \mid w), K^{t}(w \mid v)\right\}+c^{\prime \prime} \\
& =E^{t}(v, w)+c^{\prime \prime},
\end{aligned}
$$

where the nonnegative constants $c^{\prime}, c^{\prime \prime}$ are independent of $t, n$.
Lemma 3.3. The function e is not lower semicomputable.
Proof. Assume by way of contradiction that the lemma is false. Let $e_{i}$ be a lower semicomputable function approximation of $e$ such that $e_{i+1}(x, y) \geqslant e_{i}(x, y)$ for all $i$ and $\lim _{i \rightarrow \infty} e_{i}(x, y)=e(x, y)$. Let $E_{i}$ be an upper semicomputable function approximating $E$ such that $E_{i+1}(x, y) \leqslant E_{i}(x, y)$ for all $i$ and $\lim _{i \rightarrow \infty} E_{i}(x, y)=E(x, y)$. Finally, for $x, y$ are strings of length $n$ let $i_{x, y}$ denote the least $i$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
e_{i_{x, y}}(x, y) \geqslant \frac{E_{i_{x, y}}(x, y)}{n+2 \log n+c} \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $c$ is a large enough constant (independent of $n, i)$ such that $K(z)<n+2 \log n+c$ for every string $z$ of length $n$ (this follows from the upper bound on $K$, see [11]). Since the function $E$ is upper semicomputable and the function $e$ is lower


Claim 3.4. The function $s(n)$ is total computable and $\left.E^{s}(v, w)\right) \geqslant n-c_{1} \log n-c_{3}$ for some strings $v, w$ of length $n$ and constants $c_{1}, c_{3}$ in Lemma 3.2.

Proof. By the contradictory assumption $e$ is lower semicomputable, and $E$ is upper semicomputable since $K(\cdot \mid \cdot)$ is. Recall also that $e(x, y)>E(x, y) /(n+2 \log n+c)$ for every pair $x, y$ of strings of length $n$. Hence for every such pair ( $x, y$ ) we can compute $i_{x, y}<\infty$. Since $s(n)$ is the maximum of $2^{2 n}$ computable integers, $s(n)$ is computable as well and total. Then, the claim follows from Lemma 3.2. (If $s(n)$ happens to be too small to apply Lemma 3.2 we increase it total computably until it is large enough.)

Remark 3.5. The string $v$ of length $n$ as defined in the proof of Lemma 3.1 satisfies $K(v \mid n) \geqslant n$. Hence $v$ is noncomputable [11]. Similarly this holds for $w=v \oplus u$ (defined in Lemma 3.2). But above we look for a function $s(n)$ such that all pairs $x, y$ of strings of length $n$ (including the noncomputable strings $v, w$ ) satisfy (3.2) with $s(n)$ replacing $i_{x, y}$. Since the computable function $s(n)$ does not depend on the particular strings $x, y$ but only on their length $n$, we can use it as the computable time bound $t$ in Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2 to define strings $u, v, w$ of length $n$.

For given strings $x, y$ of length $n$, the value $E_{i_{x, y}}(x, y)$ is not necessarily equal to $E^{s}(x, y)$. Since $s(n)$ majorises the $i_{x, y}$ 's and $E$ is upper semicomputable, we have $E^{s}(x, y) \leqslant E_{i_{x, y}}(x, y)$, for all pairs $(x, y)$ of strings $x, y$ of length $n$.

Since $K(v) \geqslant n-c_{1}$ we have $E(v, w) \geqslant e(v, w)\left(n-c_{1}\right)$. By the contradictory assumption that $e$ is lower semicomputable we have $e(v, w) \geqslant e^{s}(v, w)$. By (3.2) and the definition of $s(n)$ we have

$$
e^{s}(v, w) \geqslant \frac{E^{s}(v, w)}{n+2 \log n+c}
$$

Hence,

$$
E(v, w) \geqslant \frac{E^{s}(v, w)\left(n-c_{1}\right)}{n+2 \log n+c}
$$

But $E(v, w) \leqslant c_{3}$ by Lemma 3.2 and $E^{s}(v, w) \geqslant n-c_{1} \log n-c_{3}$ by Claim 3.4, which yields the required contradiction for large enough $n$.

## 4. The NID is not upper semicomputable

Lemma 4.1. The function e is not upper semicomputable.
Proof. It is easy to show that $e(x, x)$ (and hence $e(x, y)$ in general) is not upper semicomputable. For simplicity we use $e(x, x)=1 / K(x)$. Assume that the function $1 / K(x)$ is upper semicomputable Then, $K(x)$ is lower semicomputable. Since $K(x)$ is also upper semicomputable, it is computable. But this violates the known fact [11] that $K(x)$ is noncomputable.

## 5. Open problem

A subset of $\mathcal{N}$ is called $n$-computably enumerable ( $n$-c.e.) if it is a Boolean combination of $n$ computably enumerable sets. Thus, the $1-c . e$. sets are the computably enumerable sets, the 2 -c.e. sets (also called d.c.e.) the differences of two c.e. sets, and so on. The n-c.e. sets are referred to as the difference hierarchy over the c.e. sets. This is an effective analog of a classical hierarchy from descriptive set theory. Note that a set is $n$-c.e. if it has a computable approximation that changes at most $n$ times.

We can extend the notion of $n$-c.e. set to a notion that measures the number of fluctuations of a function as follows: For every $n \geqslant 1$, call $f: \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{R} n$-approximable if there is a rational-valued computable approximation $\phi$ such that $\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} \phi(x, k)=f(x)$ and such that for every $x$, the number of $k$ 's such that $\phi(x, k+1)-\phi(x, k)<0$ is bounded by $n-1$. That is, $n-1$ is a bound on the number of fluctuations of the approximation. Note that the 1 -approximable functions are precisely the lower semicomputable ( $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$ ) ones (zero fluctuations). Also note that a set $A \subseteq \mathcal{N}$ is $n$-c.e. if and only if the characteristic function of $A$ is $n$-approximable.

Conjecture. For every $n \geqslant 1$, the normalized information distance e is not $n$-approximable.

## Acknowledgments

Harry Buhrman pointed out an apparent circularity in an early version of the proof of Claim 3.4. Lubos Steskal pointed out that an early version of Lemma 4.1 was incorrect and gave many other useful comments that improved the paper.

## References

[1] B. Bauwens, S.A. Terwijn, Notes on sum-tests and independence tests, Theory Comput. Syst., doi:10.1007/s00224-009-9240-4, in press.
[2] C.H. Bennett, P. Gács, M. Li, P.M.B. Vitányi, W. Zurek, Information distance, IEEE Trans. Inform. Theory 44 (4) (1998) 1407-1423.
[3] A.V. Chernov, An.A. Muchnik, A.E. Romashchenko, A.K. Shen, N.K. Vereshchagin, Upper semi-lattice of binary strings with the relation " $x$ is simple conditional to $y^{\prime \prime}$, Theoret. Comput. Sci. 271 (1-2) (2002) 69-95.
[4] R. Cilibrasi, P.M.B. Vitányi, R. de Wolf, Algorithmic clustering of music based on string compression, Computer Music J. 28 (4) (2004) 49-67.
[5] R. Cilibrasi, P.M.B. Vitányi, Clustering by compression, IEEE Trans. Inform. Theory 51 (4) (2005) 1523-1545.
[6] W. Gasarch, Email of August 12, 2001, to author PMBV.
[7] E. Keogh, S. Lonardi, C.A. Ratanamahatana, L. Wei, H.S. Lee, J. Handley, Compression-based data mining of sequential data, Data Min. Knowl. Discov. 14 (1) (2007) 99-129.
[8] A.N. Kolmogorov, Three approaches to the quantitative definition of information, Probl. Inf. Transm. 1 (1) (1965) 1-7.
[9] M. Li, J. Badger, X. Chen, S. Kwong, P. Kearney, H. Zhang, An information-based sequence distance and its application to whole mitochondrial genome phylogeny, Bioinformatics 17 (2) (2001) 149-154.
[10] M. Li, X. Chen, X. Li, B. Ma, P.M.B. Vitányi, The similarity metric, IEEE Trans. Inform. Theory 50 (12) (2004) 3250-3264.
[11] M. Li, P.M.B. Vitányi, An Introduction to Kolmogorov Complexity and Its Applications, third ed., Springer-Verlag, New York, 2008.
[12] An.A. Muchnik, N.K. Vereshchagin, Logical operations and Kolmogorov complexity II, in: Proc. 16th IEEE Conf. Comput. Complexity, IEEE Computer Society Press, 2001, pp. 256-265.
[13] L. Longpré, Resource bounded Kolmogorov complexity, a link between computational complexity and information theory, Comput. Sci. Dept., Cornell Univ., PhD thesis, 1986.
[14] A.K. Shen, N.K. Vereshchagin, Logical operations and Kolmogorov complexity, Theoret. Comput. Sci. 271 (1-2) (2002) 125-129.
[15] N.K. Vereshchagin, M.V. Vyugin, Independent minimum length programs to translate between given strings, Theoret. Comput. Sci. 271 (1-2) (2002) 131-143.
[16] M.V. Vyugin, Information distance and conditional complexities, Theoret. Comput. Sci. 271 (1-2) (2002) 145-150.
[17] M.V. Vyugin, Systems of strings with high mutual complexity, Probl. Inf. Transm. 39 (4) (2003) 88-92.
[18] A.K. Zvonkin, L.A. Levin, The complexity of finite objects and the development of the concepts of information and randomness by means of the theory of algorithms, Russian Math. Surveys 25 (6) (1970) 83-124.


[^0]:    * Corresponding author at: CWI, Science Park 123, Amsterdam 1098 XG, Netherlands.

    E-mail addresses: terwijn@math.ru.nl (S.A. Terwijn), leen@science.uva.nl (L. Torenvliet), Paul.Vitanyi@cwi.nl (P.M.B. Vitányi).

