Symmetry-assisted adversaries for quantum state generation

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Abstract

We introduce a new quantum adversary method to prove lower bounds on the query complexity of the quantum state generation problem. This problem encompasses both, the computation of partial or total functions and the preparation of target quantum states. There has been hope for quite some time that quantum state generation might be a route to tackle the GRAPH ISOMORPHISM problem. We show that for the related problem of INDEX ERASURE our method leads to a lower bound of \( \Omega(\sqrt{N}) \) which matches an upper bound obtained via reduction to quantum search on \( N \) elements. This closes an open problem first raised by Shi [FOCS’02].

Our approach is based on two ideas: (i) on the one hand we generalize the known additive and multiplicative adversary methods to the case of quantum state generation, (ii) on the other hand we show how the symmetries of the underlying problem can be leveraged for the design of optimal adversary matrices and dramatically simplify the computation of adversary bounds. Taken together, these two ideas give the new result for INDEX ERASURE by using the representation theory of the symmetric group. Also, the method can lead to lower bounds even for small success probability, contrary to the standard adversary method. Furthermore, we answer an open question due to Špalek [CCC’08] by showing that the multiplicative version of the adversary method is stronger than the additive one for any problem. Finally, we prove that the multiplicative bound satisfies a strong direct product theorem, extending a result by Špalek to quantum state generation problems.
Introduction

The query model provides a way to analyze quantum algorithms including, but not limited to, those of Shor [Sho97] and Grover [Gro96] as well as quantum walks, quantum counting, and hidden subgroup problems. Traditionally, in this model the input is a black-box function which can be accessed via queries and the output is a classical value. The measure of complexity of an algorithm is then defined as the number of queries made by the algorithm. Studying the quantum query complexity of functions is quite fruitful since the model is simple enough that one can show tight bounds for several problems and hence provides some intuition about the power of quantum computing.

In this paper, we study a generalization of the query model to include problems in which the input is still a black-box function, however, the output is no longer a classical value but a target quantum state. An example for the resulting quantum state generation problem is INDEX ERASURE. Here we are given access to an injective function \( f : [N] \rightarrow [M] \) and the task is to prepare the quantum state \( \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=1}^{N} |f(x)\rangle \) using as few queries to \( f \) as possible. The name “index erasure” stems from the observation that while it is straightforward to prepare the (at first glance perhaps similar looking) state \( \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=1}^{N} |x\rangle |f(x)\rangle \), it is quite challenging to forget (“erase”) the contents of the first register of this state which carries the input (“index”) of the function.

In particular, this approach has been considered in [AT03] to solve statistical zero knowledge problems, one ultimate goal being to tackle GRAPH ISOMORPHISM [KST93]. The quantum state generation problem resulting from the well-known reduction of GRAPH ISOMORPHISM to INDEX ERASURE would be to generate the uniform superposition of all the permutations of a graph \( \Gamma \):

\[
|\Gamma\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n!}} \sum_{\pi \in S_n} |\Gamma^{\pi}\rangle.
\]

By coherently generating this state for two given graphs, one could then use the standard SWAP-test to check whether the two states are equal or orthogonal, and therefore decide whether the graphs are isomorphic or not. Such a method for solving GRAPH ISOMORPHISM would be drastically different from more standard approaches based on the reduction to the hidden subgroup problem, and might therefore provide a way around serious limitations of the coset state approach [HMR+06]. There has been hope for quite some time that quantum state generation might be a route to tackle the GRAPH ISOMORPHISM problem, however one of the main results of this paper is that any approach that tries to generate \( |\Gamma\rangle \) without exploiting further structure\(^1\) of the graph cannot improve on the simple \( O(\sqrt{n!}) \) upper bound via search. More generally, we are interested in the query complexity of the quantum state generation problem, in which the amplitudes of the target quantum state can depend on the given function in an arbitrary way. Subroutines for quantum state generation might provide a useful toolbox to design efficient quantum algorithms for a large class of problems.

Adversaries. Lower bounds on the quantum query complexity have been shown for a wide range of (classical in the above sense) functions. Roughly speaking, currently there are two main ideas for proving lower bounds on quantum query complexity: the polynomial method [BBBV97, BBC+98, Aar02, Shi02, Amb03, KŚdW07] and the adversary method [Amb00]. The latter method has

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\(^1\)Indeed, here we assume that the only way to access the graph \( \Gamma \) would be by querying an oracle that, given a permutation \( \pi \), returns the permuted graph \( \Gamma^\pi \). Note that we assume that \( \Gamma \) is rigid which is no loss of generality.
seen a sequence of variations, generalizations, and improvements over the past decade including HNS08 Amb03 BS04 LM08.

The basic idea behind the adversary method and its variations is to define a progress function that monotonically changes from an initial value (before any query) to a final value (depending on the success probability of the algorithm) with one main property: the value of the progress function changes only when the oracle is queried. Then, a lower bound on the quantum query complexity of the problem can be obtained by bounding the amount of progress done by one query.

Different adversary methods were introduced, but they were later proved to be all equivalent ŠS06. They rely on optimizing an adversary matrix assigning weights to different pairs of inputs to the problem. While originally these methods only considered positive weights, it was later shown that negative weights also lead to a lower bound, which can actually be stronger in some cases HLS07. The relevance of this new adversary method with negative weights, called *additive*, was made even clearer when it was very recently shown to be tight for the quantum query complexity of functions in the bounded-error model Rei09 LMRŠ10.

Nevertheless, for some problems other methods (such as the polynomial method or other ad-hoc techniques) might be easier to implement while also leading to strong bounds. The additive adversary method also suffers from one main drawback: it cannot prove lower bounds for very small success probability. To circumvent it, Špalek introduced the *multiplicative* adversary method Špák08 that generalizes some previous ad-hoc methods Amb05 AŠdW07. Being able to deal with exponentially small success probability also allowed to prove a strong direct product theorem for any function that admits a multiplicative adversary lower bound Amb05 AŠdW07 Špáček08 (note that a similar result has recently been proved for the polynomial method She10). Roughly speaking, it means that if we try to compute $k$ independent instances of a function using less than $O(k)$ times the number of queries required to compute one instance, then the overall success probability is exponentially small in $k$. However, Špalek left unanswered the question of how multiplicative and additive methods relate in the case of high success probability. In particular, it is unknown whether the strong direct product theorem extends to the additive adversary method, and therefore to the quantum query complexity of functions since this method is known to be tight in the bounded error model LMRŠ10. The quantum query complexity of functions nevertheless satisfies a weaker property called direct sum theorem, meaning that computing $k$ instances requires at least $\Omega(k)$ times the number of queries necessary to solve one instance, but it is unknown how the success probability decreases if less than $O(k)$ queries are used.

**Related work.** We are not aware of any technique to directly prove lower bounds for quantum state generation problems, and the only few known lower bounds are based on reductions to computing some functions. One particular example is a lower bound for the already mentioned INDEX ERASURE problem, which consists in generating the uniform superposition over the image of an injective function. The best lower bound comes from a $\Omega(\sqrt[5]{N}/\log N)$ lower bound for the SET EQUALITY problem Mid04, which consists in deciding whether two sets of size $N$ are equal or disjoint or, equivalently, whether two injective functions over a domain of size $N$ have equal or disjoint images. This problem reduces to INDEX ERASURE since by generating the superposition over the image of the two functions, we can decide whether they are equal or not using the SWAP-test. Therefore, this implies the same $\Omega(\sqrt[5]{N}/\log N)$ lower bound for INDEX ERASURE. However, this lower bound is probably not tight, neither for SET EQUALITY, whose best upper bound is $O(\sqrt[3]{N})$ due to the algorithm for COLLISION BHT97, nor for INDEX ERASURE, whose best upper bound
is $O(\sqrt{N})$ due to an application of Grover’s algorithm for Search [Gro96]. The question of the complexity of Index Erasure has first been raised by Shi [Shi02] in 2002 and has remained open until the present work.

Our results. The chief technical innovation of this paper is an extension of both, the additive and multiplicative adversary methods, to quantum state generation (Theorems 10 and 14). To do so, we give a geometric interpretation of the adversary methods which is reminiscent of the approach of [Amb05, Spa08], where this is done for classical problems. As a by-product we give elementary and arguably more intuitive proofs of the additive and multiplicative methods, contrasting with some rather technical proofs e.g. in [HL07, Spa08].

In order to compare the additive and multiplicative adversary bounds, we introduce yet another flavor of adversary method (Theorem 12), which we will call hybrid adversary method. Indeed, this method is a hybridization of the additive and multiplicative methods that uses “multiplicative” arguments in an “additive” setup: it is equivalent to the additive method for large success probability, but is also able to prove non-trivial lower-bounds for small success probability, overcoming the concern [Spa08] that the additive adversary method might fail in this case. We show that for any problem, the hybrid adversary bound lies between the additive and multiplicative adversary bounds (Theorem 16), answering Špalek’s open question about the relative power of these methods [Spa08]. By considering the Search problem for exponentially small success probability, we also conclude that the powers of the three methods are strictly increasing, since the corresponding lower bounds scale differently as a function of the success probability in that regime (Theorem 28).

We then extend the strong direct product theorem for the multiplicative adversary bound [Spa08] to quantum state generation problems (Theorem 20). Since we have clarified the relation between the additive and multiplicative adversary methods, this also brings us closer to a similar theorem for the additive adversary method. The most important consequence would be for the quantum query complexity of functions, which would therefore also satisfy a strong direct product theorem since the additive adversary bound is tight in this case [LMRS10]. However, it remains to prove some technical lemma about the multiplicative bound to be able to conclude.

As it has been previously pointed out many interesting problems have strong symmetries [Amb05, AŠdW07, Spa08]. We show how studying these symmetries helps to address the two main difficulties of the usage the adversary method, namely, how to choose a good adversary matrix $\Gamma$ and how to compute the spectral norm of $\Gamma_x - \Gamma$ (Theorem 26). Following the automorphism principle of [HL07], we define the automorphism group $G$ of $\mathcal{P}$, and its restrictions $G_x$, for any input $x$ to the oracle. We show how computing the norm of $\Gamma_x - \Gamma$ can be simplified to compute the norm of much smaller matrices that depend only on the irreps of $G$ and $G_x$. For problems with strong symmetries, these matrices typically have size at most $3 \times 3$ [Amb05, AŠdW07, Spa08]. We have therefore reduced the adversary method from an algebraic problem to the study of the representations of the automorphism group.

Finally, we use our hybrid adversary method to prove a lower bound of $O(\sqrt{N})$ for the quantum query complexity of Index Erasure (Theorem 29), which is tight due to the matching upper bound based on Grover’s algorithm, therefore closing the open problem stated by Shi [Shi02]. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first lower bound directly proved for the query complexity of a quantum state generation problem. The lower bound is entirely based on the study of the representations of the symmetric group, a technique that might be fruitful for other problems.
having similar symmetries, such as the Set Equality problem [Mid04], or in turn some stronger quantum state generation approaches to Graph Isomorphism.

1 Notations

In this paper, we will use different norms. We recall their definitions and some useful facts:

Definition 1. For any matrix $A$, we use the following norms:

- **Operator (or spectral) norm:** $\|A\| = \sup_{|v|} \frac{|A|v}{||v||}$,
- **Trace norm:** $\|A\|_{\text{tr}} = \text{tr} \sqrt{A^\dagger A}$,
- **Frobenius norm:** $\|A\|_F = \sqrt{\text{tr}(A^\dagger A)}$.

Lemma 2 (Hölder’s inequality). For any $A, B$, we have $\|AB\|_{\text{tr}} \leq \|A\|_F \cdot \|B\|_F$.

Lemma 3. For any $A, B$, we have $\text{tr}(AB) \leq \|A\| \cdot \|B\|_{\text{tr}}$.

In Section 7.2 we will consider irreps of the symmetric group $S_N$, i.e., Young diagrams and denote them by $\lambda_N, \lambda_N^+, \ldots$. Note that since a diagram $\lambda_N$ necessarily contains $N$ boxes, it is fully determined by its part $\lambda$ below the first row, as we know that its first row must contain $N - |\lambda|$ boxes, where $|\lambda|$ is the number of boxes below the first row. This will lighten the notations. The dimension of the space spanned by an irrep of the symmetric group can be easily computed:

Lemma 4 (Hook-length formula [Sag01]). For any Young diagram $\lambda$ corresponding to an irrep of $S_N$, the dimension of the space spanned by this irrep is:

$$d_N^\lambda = \frac{N!}{\prod_{(i,j) \in \lambda} h_{i,j}},$$

where $h_{i,j} = |\{(i, j') \in \lambda_N : j' > j\} \cup \{(i', j) \in \lambda_N : i' \geq i\}|$.

2 Adversary methods: general concepts

2.1 Definition of the problem

In this section, we describe elements which are common to all adversary methods. The goal of these methods is to study the quantum query complexity of some problems in the bounded-error model when we have access to an oracle $O_f$ computing a function $f : \Sigma_I \mapsto \Sigma_O$. In this article, we will consider an oracle acting on two registers, the input register $I$ and the output register $O$, as:

$$|x\rangle_I |s\rangle_O \xrightarrow{O_f} |x\rangle_I |s \oplus f(x)\rangle_O,$$

where $x \in \Sigma_I$ and $s, f(x) \in \Sigma_O$. Note that it is also possible to consider other types of oracle, for example computing the value of the function into the phase instead of into another register, but these different models all lead to equivalent notions of query complexity (up to a constant).

We denote by $F$ the set of all possible functions $f$ that can be encoded into the oracle. We will consider three types of problems $P$, a classical one and two quantum ones:
Figure 1: Schematic representation of a quantum algorithm that make use of an oracle $O_f$, an input register $I$, an output register $O$, and a register $W$ for work space.

**Function** Given an oracle $O_f$, compute the classical output $P(f)$. The success probability of an algorithm $A$ solving $P$ is $\min_{f \in F} \Pr[A(f) = P(f)]$, where $A(f)$ is the classical output of the algorithm on oracle $f$.

**Coherent quantum state generation** Given an oracle $O_f$, generate a quantum state $|P(f)\rangle = |\psi_f\rangle$ in some target register $T$, and reset all other registers to a default state $|\bar{0}\rangle$. The success probability of an algorithm $A$ solving $P$ is given by $\min_{f \in F} \| \Pi_{P(f)} \otimes \Pi_{|0\rangle} |\psi_f^T\rangle \|^2$, where $|\psi_f^T\rangle$ is the final state of the algorithm and $\Pi_{P(f)}$ and $\Pi_{|0\rangle}$ are the projectors on the corresponding states.

**Non-coherent quantum state generation** Given an oracle $O_f$, generate a quantum state $|P(f)\rangle = |\psi_f\rangle$ in some target register $T$, while some $f$-dependent junk state may be generated in other registers. The success probability of an algorithm $A$ solving $P$ is given by $\min_{f \in F} \| \Pi_{P(f)} |\psi_f^T\rangle \|^2$.

Let us note that computing a function is a special case of non-coherent quantum state generation, where all states $|P(f)\rangle$ are computational basis states. Indeed, no coherence is needed since the state is in this case measured right after its generation. However, when the quantum state generation is used as a subroutine in a quantum algorithm for another problem, coherence is typically needed to allow interferences between different states. This is in particular the case for solving SET EQUALITY via reduction to INDEX ERASURE, and similarly to solve GRAPH ISOMORPHISM via the quantum state generation approach, since coherence is required to implement the SWAP-test.

Without loss of generality we can consider the algorithm as being a circuit $C$ consisting of a sequence of unitaries $U_0, \ldots, U_T$ and oracle calls $O_f$ acting on the “algorithm” Hilbert space $A$. Decomposing $A$ into three registers, the input register $I$ and output register $O$ for the oracle, as well as an additional workspace register $W$, the circuit may be represented as in Fig. 1.

At the end of the circuit, a target register $T$ holds the output of the algorithm. In the classical case, this register is measured to obtain the classical output $A(f)$. In the quantum case, it holds the output state $A(f)$.

In both cases, for a fixed algorithm, we note $|\psi_f^t\rangle$ the state of the algorithm after the $t$-th query. The idea behind the adversary methods is to consider that $f$ is in fact an input to the oracle. We therefore introduce a function register $F$ holding this input, and define a super-oracle $O$ acting on registers $I \otimes O \otimes F$ as

$$|x\rangle_I |s\rangle_O |f\rangle_F \xrightarrow{O} |x\rangle_I |s \oplus f(x)\rangle_O |f\rangle_F.$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)
Figure 2: Schematic representation of a quantum algorithm that makes use of an oracle $O_f$, an input register $I$, an output register $O$, a register $W$ for work space, and a virtual register $F$ holding the input of the problem.

We see that when the function register $F$ is in state $|f⟩$, $O$ acts on $I ⊗ O$ just as $O_f$. Suppose, just for the sake of analyzing the algorithm, that we prepare register $F$ in the state $|δ⟩ = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|F|}} \sum_{f \in F} |f⟩$, the uniform superposition over all the elements of $F$, and that we apply the same circuit as before, by replacing each call to $O_f$ by a call to $O$. Intuitively, each oracle call introduces more entanglement between this new register and the algorithm register. The state of this new circuit after the $t$-th query is (see Fig. 2)

$$|Ψ_t⟩ = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|F|}} \sum_{f \in F} |ψ_t^f⟩ A|f⟩_F.$$  

Note that only oracle calls can modify the state of the function register $F$, since all other gates only affect the algorithm register $A = I ⊗ O ⊗ W$. The general idea of all adversary methods is to study the evolution of the algorithm by looking at the reduced state of the input register,

$$ρ^t = tr_A|Ψ_t⟩⟨Ψ_t| = \frac{1}{|F|} \sum_{f,f′ \in F} ⟨ψ_t^f|ψ_t^{f′})|f⟩⟨f′|.$$  

The algorithm starts with the state $ρ^0 = |δ⟩⟨δ|$ and ends in a state $ρ^T$.

### 2.2 Adversary matrices and progress function

The adversary method studies how fast $ρ^t$ can change from $ρ^0$ to $ρ^T$. We introduce a progress function in order to do so.

**Definition 5** (Adversary matrix). An adversary matrix $Γ$ is a Hermitian matrix such that $Γ|δ⟩ = |δ⟩$. An additive adversary matrix also satisfies $-I ≤ Γ ≤ I$ (i.e., $∥Γ∥ = 1$), while a multiplicative adversary matrix satisfies $Γ ≥ I$. In both cases, the progress function is defined as $W^t = tr [Γρ^t]$.  

We will also use a matrix $Γ_x$ derived from the adversary matrix $Γ$ and defined as follows (for both the additive and the multiplicative case).
**Definition 6** ($\Gamma_x, D_x$). For any adversary matrix $\Gamma$, let $\Gamma_x = \Gamma \circ D_x$, where $\circ$ denotes the Hadamard (element-wise) product and $D_x$ is the (0-1)-matrix $D_x = \sum_{f, f'} \delta_{f(x), f'(x)} |f\rangle \langle f'|$, where $\delta$ denotes the Kronecker’s delta.

We will show that the Hadamard product is closely related to oracle calls: when the input register is in the state $|x\rangle$, the oracle calls acts on the function register as the Hadamard product with $D_x$. It is easy to check that this Hadamard product is a CP-map.

**Fact 7.** The map $\gamma \mapsto \gamma \circ D_x$ is a CP-map and $\gamma \circ D_x = \sum_y \Pi^x_y \gamma \Pi^y_x$ with $\Pi^x_y = \sum_{f, f' = y} |f\rangle \langle f'|$.

The basic idea of all adversary methods is to bound how much the value of the progress function can change by one oracle call. To study the action of one oracle call, we isolate the registers $I$ and $O$ holding the input and output of the oracle from the rest of the algorithm register. Without loss of generality, we may assume that for any oracle call, the output register $O$ is in the state $|0\rangle_O$ (computing oracle call) or $|f(x)\rangle_O$ (uncomputing oracle call). Indeed, an oracle call for any other state $|s\rangle_O$ may be simulated by one computing oracle call, $O(\log N)$ XOR gates and one uncomputing oracle call. Therefore, this assumption only increases the query complexity by a factor at most 2.

Let us consider the action of the $(t+1)$-th oracle call, which we assume to be of computing type (uncomputing oracle calls are treated similarly). Just before the $(t+1)$-th oracle call, the state can be written as:

$$|\Psi^t\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|F|}} \sum_{x,f} |\psi^t_{f,x}\rangle W |x\rangle_I |0\rangle_O |f\rangle_F,$$

with $|\psi^t_{f,x}\rangle$ being non-normalized states. Let us consider the reduced density matrix

$$\tilde{\rho}^t = \text{tr}_W |\Psi^t\rangle \langle \Psi^t| = \frac{1}{|F|} \sum_{f, f', x, x'} \langle \psi^t_{f,x} | \psi^t_{f', x'} \rangle |x\rangle \langle x| \otimes |0\rangle \langle 0| \otimes |f\rangle \langle f|,$$

and note that $\rho^t = \text{tr}_{IO} [\tilde{\rho}^t]$.

**Lemma 8.** Let the $t$-th oracle call be of computing-type. Then, $W^t = \text{tr} [\Upsilon \tilde{\rho}^t]$ and $W^{t+1} = \text{tr} [\Upsilon' \tilde{\rho}^t]$, where

$$\Upsilon = \sum_x |x\rangle \langle x| \otimes \sum_y |y\rangle \langle y| \otimes \Gamma = \bigoplus_{x,y} \Gamma,$$

$$\Upsilon' = \sum_x |x\rangle \langle x| \otimes \sum_y |y\rangle \langle y| \otimes \Gamma_x = \bigoplus_{x,y} \Gamma_x.$$

Note that for uncomputing oracle calls, it suffices to swap the roles of $\rho^t$ and $\rho^{t+1}$.

**Proof.** From the definition of $\Upsilon$ and the fact that $\rho^t = \text{tr}_{IO} [\tilde{\rho}^t]$, we immediately have that $W^t = \text{tr} [\Gamma \rho^t] = \text{tr} [\Upsilon \tilde{\rho}^t]$. Let us now consider what happens after one oracle call. An oracle call acts on the registers $I \otimes O \otimes F$ as the operator

$$O = \sum_x |x\rangle \sum_{f, s} |f(x) \oplus s\rangle |s\rangle \otimes |f\rangle \langle f|.$$
Before a computing oracle call, the output register $O$ is in the state $|0\rangle$, as in eq. (2). Therefore, the state $\tilde{\rho}^{t+1} = O\tilde{\rho} O^\dagger$ just after the $(t + 1)$-th oracle call is

$$\tilde{\rho}^{t+1} = \frac{1}{|F|} \sum_{f,f',x,x'} \langle \psi_{f,x}^t | \psi_{f',x'}^t \rangle |x'\rangle\langle x| \otimes |f'(x')\rangle \otimes |f\rangle\langle f|$$

and

$$\rho^{t+1} = \text{tr}_{IO} \left[ \tilde{\rho}^{t+1} \right] = \sum_x \rho_x^t \circ D_x,$$

where

$$\rho_x^t = \frac{1}{|F|} \sum_{f,f'} \langle \psi_{f,x}^t | \psi_{f',x}^t \rangle |f\rangle \langle f|$$

Combining eqs. (2) and (4) we have:

$$\text{tr} \left[ \Upsilon' \tilde{\rho}^t \right] = \frac{1}{|F|} \sum_{f,f',x,x'} \text{tr} \left[ \langle \psi_{f,x}^t | \psi_{f',x'}^t \rangle |x'\rangle\langle x| \otimes |0\rangle\langle 0| \otimes \Gamma_x |f'\rangle\langle f| \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{|F|} \sum_x \text{tr} \left[ \Gamma_x \sum_{f,f'} \langle \psi_{f,x}^t | \psi_{f',x}^t \rangle |f'\rangle\langle f| \right]$$

$$= \sum_x \text{tr} \left[ \Gamma_x \rho_{f'}^x \right] \quad \text{by eq. (5)}$$

$$= \sum_x \text{tr} \left[ (\Gamma \circ D_x) \rho_{f'}^x \right]$$

$$= \sum_x \text{tr} \left[ \Gamma (\rho_x^t \circ D_x) \right] \quad \text{using Fact 7 and tr(AB) = tr(BA)}$$

$$= \text{tr} \left[ \Gamma \rho^{t+1} \right] \quad \text{by eq. (5)}. \quad \Box$$

3 The different adversary methods

3.1 Additive adversary method

Additive adversary should be understood as adversary with negative weights as defined in [HLS07]. To differentiate between the different methods, we will from now on denote additive adversary matrices by $\tilde{\Gamma}$ and multiplicative adversary matrices by $\Gamma$. For the statement of the theorem, we will also need the following notions.

**Definition 9 ($\rho^\odot$, junk matrix).** For a quantum state generation problem $P$ such that $|P(f)\rangle = |\psi_f\rangle$, we denote by $\rho^\odot$ the target state $\rho^\odot = \frac{1}{|F|} \sum_{f,f'} \langle \psi_f | \psi_{f'} \rangle |f'\rangle\langle f|$. In the non-coherent case, we call junk matrix any Gram matrix $M$ of size $|F| \times |F|$ such that $M_{ij} = \langle v_i | v_j \rangle$, where $\{v_i : i \in [|F|]\}$ is a set of unit vectors (or, equivalently, any semi-definite matrix $M$ such that $M_{ii} = 1$ for any $i \in [|F|]$). In the coherent case, we call junk matrix the all-1 matrix of size $|F| \times |F|$. 

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Theorem 10 (Additive adversary method \cite{HL07}). Consider a quantum algorithm solving $\mathcal{P}$ with success probability at least $1 - \varepsilon$, and let $\tilde{\Gamma}$ be an additive adversary matrix such that $\text{tr} \left[ \tilde{\Gamma}(\rho^\odot \circ M) \right] = 0$ for any junk matrix $M$. Then,

$$Q_\varepsilon(\mathcal{P}) \geq \frac{1 - C(\varepsilon)}{\max_x \| \tilde{\Gamma}_x - \Gamma \|}$$

where $C(\varepsilon) = \varepsilon + 2\sqrt{\varepsilon(1 - \varepsilon)}$.

Proof. By definition of $\tilde{\Gamma}$, the initial value of the progress function is $\tilde{W}^0 = 1$. We now bound the decrease of the progress function for each query. We have from Lemma 8

$$|\tilde{W}^{t+1} - \tilde{W}^t| = |\text{tr}[ (\tilde{\Gamma}' - \tilde{\Gamma}) \rho'] | \leq \| \tilde{\Gamma}' - \tilde{\Gamma} \| = \max_x \| \tilde{\Gamma}_x - \Gamma \|.$$

To conclude, we need to upper-bound the value of the progress function at the end of the algorithm. Let us prove that $\tilde{W}^T \leq C(\varepsilon)$. Let $|\psi_f\rangle$ be the state to be generated when the input is $f$ (in particular, for a classical problem this will just be a computational basis state encoding the output of the classical problem). The final state is:

$$|\Psi^T\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|F|}} \sum_{f \in F} \left[ \sqrt{1 - \varepsilon_f} |\psi_f, \text{junk}_f\rangle + \sqrt{\varepsilon_f} |\text{error}_f\rangle \right] |f\rangle,$$

where $|\text{junk}_f\rangle$ is the default state $|\bar{0}\rangle$ for a coherent quantum state generation problem, and any state otherwise. Since the algorithm has success probability $1 - \varepsilon$, we have $0 \leq \varepsilon_f \leq \varepsilon \forall f$ and the final state can be rewritten as:

$$|\Psi^T\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|F|}} \sum_{f \in F} \left[ \sqrt{1 - \varepsilon} |\psi_f, \text{junk}_f\rangle + \sqrt{\varepsilon} |\text{error}_f\rangle \right] |f\rangle,$$

where $|\text{error}_f\rangle$ is the (non-normalized) vector $\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon_f - \sqrt{1 - \varepsilon}} |\psi_f, \text{junk}_f\rangle + \sqrt{\varepsilon_f} |\text{error}_f\rangle$.

Tracing over everything but the last register, we have

$$\rho^T = (1 - \varepsilon) (\rho^\odot \circ M_{\text{junk}}) + \varepsilon \tau + \sqrt{\varepsilon(1 - \varepsilon)}(\sigma + \sigma^\dagger),$$

where

$$M_{\text{junk}} = \sum_{f, f' \in F} \langle \text{junk}_f | \text{junk}'_f \rangle |f'\rangle\langle f|,$$

$$\tau = \frac{1}{|F|} \sum_{f, f' \in F} \langle \text{error}_f | \text{error}'_f \rangle |f'\rangle\langle f|,$$

$$\sigma = \frac{1}{|F|} \sum_{f, f' \in F} \langle \psi_f, \text{junk}_f | \text{error}_f \rangle |f'\rangle\langle f|.$$

By assumption on $\tilde{\Gamma}$, we have $\text{tr} \left[ \tilde{\Gamma}(\rho^\odot \circ M_{\text{junk}}) \right] = 0$ and $\text{tr} \left[ \tilde{\Gamma} A \right] \leq \| A \|_{\text{tr}}$ for any operator $A$, so that

$$W^T = (1 - \varepsilon) \text{tr} \left[ \tilde{\Gamma}(\rho^\odot \circ M_{\text{junk}}) \right] + \varepsilon \text{tr} \left[ \tilde{\Gamma} \tau \right] + \sqrt{\varepsilon(1 - \varepsilon)} \text{tr} \left[ \tilde{\Gamma}(\sigma + \sigma^\dagger) \right]$$

$$\leq \varepsilon \| \tau \|_{\text{tr}} + \sqrt{\varepsilon(1 - \varepsilon)} \| \sigma + \sigma^\dagger \|_{\text{tr}}.$$
It remains to show that $\|\tau\|_\text{tr} \leq 1$ and $\|\sigma + \sigma^\dagger\|_\text{tr} \leq 2$. Let us define the following matrices.

$$A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|F|}} \sum_{f \in F} |\psi_{f,junk}\rangle \langle f|,$$

$$B = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|F|}} \sum_{f \in F} |\text{error}_f\rangle \langle f|. $$

Then, we have $\sigma = (A^\dagger B)^t$ and therefore $\|\sigma + \sigma^\dagger\|_\text{tr} \leq 2 \|\sigma\|_\text{tr} = 2 \|A^\dagger B\|_\text{tr} \leq 2 \|A\|_F \cdot \|B\|_F \leq 2$, where we have used Hölder’s inequality (Lemma 2) and the fact that $\|A\|_F = 1$ since $|\psi_{f,junk}\rangle$ is normalized, and $\|B\|_F \leq 1$ and $\langle \text{error}_f|\text{error}_f\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(2 - \varepsilon - 2\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon}) \leq 1$ for $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon$.

Similarly, we have $\tau = (B^\dagger B)^t$ and therefore $\|\tau\|_\text{tr} \leq \|B\|_F^2 \leq 1$. □

For classical problems, we now prove that our method generalizes [HLS07]. Indeed, our condition on the adversary matrix is different, which allows us to also deal with quantum problems. However, for classical problems, the following lemma shows that the usual condition implies our modified condition. Let $\mathcal{P}(f)$ be the function to be computed.

**Lemma 11.** $\text{tr} \left[ \tilde{\Gamma}(\rho \circ M) \right] = 0$ for any matrix $M$ if and only if $\tilde{\Gamma}_{f,f'} = 0$ for any $f, f'$ such that $\mathcal{P}(f) = \mathcal{P}(f')$.

**Proof.** Let $\tilde{\Gamma}$ be such that $\text{tr} \left[ \tilde{\Gamma}(\rho \circ M) \right] = 0$ for any matrix $M$, and $\tilde{f}, \tilde{f}'$ be such that $\mathcal{P}(\tilde{f}) = \mathcal{P}(\tilde{f}')$. Choosing $M$ such that $M_{\tilde{f},\tilde{f}'} = 1$ and $M_{f,f'} = 0$ for any other element, we have $\rho \circ M = \frac{1}{|F|} M$ and therefore $\tilde{\Gamma}_{f,f'} = 0$.

For the other direction, we obtain for any matrix $M$

$$\text{tr} \left[ \tilde{\Gamma}(\rho \circ M) \right] = \frac{1}{|F|} \sum_{f,f' \in F} \tilde{\Gamma}_{f,f'} \langle \mathcal{P}(f)|\mathcal{P}(f')\rangle M_{f,f'} = 0$$

since $\tilde{\Gamma}_{f,f'} = 0$ whenever $\mathcal{P}(f) = \mathcal{P}(f')$, and $\langle \mathcal{P}(f)|\mathcal{P}(f')\rangle = 0$ whenever $\mathcal{P}(f) \neq \mathcal{P}(f')$. □

### 3.2 Hybrid adversary method

The original adversary method can only prove a lower bound when $C(\varepsilon) < 1$, that is, when the success probability $1 - \varepsilon > \frac{1}{2}$. For smaller success probability, we need to prove a stronger bound on the final value of the progress function $\tilde{W}^T$. Inspired by the multiplicative adversary method [Spa08], we prove the following hybrid adversary bound.

**Theorem 12** (Hybrid adversary method). Consider a quantum algorithm solving $\mathcal{P}$ with success at least $1 - \varepsilon$. Let $\tilde{\Gamma}$ be any additive adversary matrix, $V_{\text{bad}}$ be the direct sum of eigenspaces of $\tilde{\Gamma}$ with eigenvalue strictly larger than $\lambda < 1$, and assume that $\text{tr} [\Pi_{\text{bad}}(\rho \circ M)] \leq \eta$ for any junk matrix $M$, where $\Pi_{\text{bad}}$ is the projector on $V_{\text{bad}}$, and $0 \leq \eta \leq 1 - \varepsilon$. We have

$$Q_{\varepsilon}(\mathcal{P}) \geq \frac{\tilde{K}(\tilde{\Gamma}, \lambda, \varepsilon)}{\max_x \|\tilde{\Gamma}_x - \tilde{\Gamma}\|}, \quad \text{where} \quad \tilde{K}(\tilde{\Gamma}, \lambda, \varepsilon) = (1 - \lambda)(\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon} - \sqrt{\eta})^2.$$

**Proof.** The initial value of the progress function and the bound on the amount of change between two queries are the same as the additive adversary method, so we only need to prove that $\tilde{W}^T \leq 1 - \tilde{K}(\tilde{\Gamma}, \lambda, \varepsilon)$. Recall that by assumption, $|\Psi^T\rangle$ can be written

$$|\Psi^T\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|F|}} \sum_{f \in F} \left[ \sqrt{1 - \varepsilon} |\psi_{f,junk}\rangle + \sqrt{\varepsilon} |\text{error}_f\rangle \right] |f\rangle.$$
The state $|\Psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|F|}} \sum_{f \in F} |\psi_f, \text{junk}_f\rangle |f\rangle$ satisfies $|\langle \Psi | \Psi^T \rangle| \geq \sqrt{1 - \varepsilon}$, and $\text{tr}_A |\Psi\rangle \langle \Psi| = \rho^\circ \circ M_{\text{junk}}$.

Let $\beta = \|\Pi_{\text{good}} |\Psi^T\rangle\|^2$, $|\Psi_{\text{good}}\rangle = \Pi_{\text{good}} |\Psi^T\rangle / \sqrt{\beta}$ and $|\Psi_{\text{bad}}\rangle = \Pi_{\text{bad}} |\Psi^T\rangle / \sqrt{1 - \beta}$, so that

$$
\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon} \leq |\langle \Psi | \Psi^T \rangle| = \sqrt{\beta} |\langle \Psi | \Psi_{\text{good}}\rangle| + \sqrt{1 - \beta} |\langle \Psi | \Psi_{\text{bad}}\rangle|
$$

$$
\leq \beta \|\Pi_{\text{good}} |\Psi\rangle\| + \sqrt{1 - \beta} \|\Pi_{\text{bad}} |\Psi\rangle\|
\leq \sqrt{\beta} + \sqrt{1 - \beta} \sqrt{\text{tr} [\Pi_{\text{bad}} (\rho^\circ \circ M_{\text{junk}})]}
\leq \sqrt{\beta} + \sqrt{\eta}.
$$

Since $\eta \leq 1 - \varepsilon$, we obtain that $\beta \geq (\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon} - \sqrt{\eta})^2$. We are now ready to bound $\tilde{W}^T = \text{tr}(\tilde{\Gamma} \rho^T)$, where $\rho^T = \beta \rho_{\text{good}} + (1 - \beta) \rho_{\text{bad}} + \sqrt{\beta (1 - \beta)} [\text{tr}_A (|\Psi_{\text{good}}\rangle \langle \Psi_{\text{bad}}|) + \text{tr}_A (|\Psi_{\text{bad}}\rangle \langle \Psi_{\text{good}}|)]$.

Since $\text{tr}(\tilde{\Gamma} \rho_{\text{good}}) \leq \tilde{\lambda}$, $\text{tr}(\tilde{\Gamma} \rho_{\text{bad}}) \leq 1$, and the off-diagonal terms are zero, we have

$$
\tilde{W}^T = \beta \text{tr}(\tilde{\Gamma} \rho_{\text{good}}) + (1 - \beta) \text{tr}(\tilde{\Gamma} \rho_{\text{bad}})
\leq 1 - (1 - \tilde{\lambda}) \beta \leq 1 - (1 - \tilde{\lambda})(\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon} - \sqrt{\eta})^2.
$$

For classical problems, we can use the following lemma:

**Lemma 13.** Let $\Pi_{\text{bad}}$ be the projector on $V_{\text{bad}}$, $\Pi_z = \sum_{P(f) = z} |f\rangle \langle f|$, and assume that $\|\Pi_z \Pi_{\text{bad}}\|^2 \leq \eta$ for any $z$. Then, $\text{tr} [\Pi_{\text{bad}} (\rho^\circ \circ M)] \leq \eta$ for any junk matrix $M$.

**Proof.** For any junk matrix $M$, let us define the following purification of $\rho^\circ \circ M$,

$$
|\psi_{M\circ}^\circ\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|F|}} \sum_{f} |P(f)\rangle |M_f\rangle |f\rangle,
$$

where $|M_f\rangle$ are normalized states such that $\langle M_f | M_{f'} \rangle = \langle f | f' \rangle$. Let us also consider the operator $P = \sum_z |z\rangle \langle z| \otimes \Pi_z$. Then, we have $P |\psi_{M\circ}^\circ\rangle = |\psi_{M\circ}^\circ\rangle$, so that

$$
\text{tr} [\Pi_{\text{bad}} (\rho^\circ \circ M)] = \|\Pi_{\text{bad}} |\psi_{M\circ}^\circ\rangle\|^2 = \|\Pi_{\text{bad}} P |\psi_{M\circ}^\circ\rangle\|^2 \leq \|\Pi_{\text{bad}} P\|^2 = \max_z \|\Pi_{\text{bad}} \Pi_z\|^2 \leq \eta.
$$

□

### 3.3 Multiplicative adversary method

**Theorem 14 (Multiplicative adversary method [Spa08]).** Consider a quantum algorithm solving $P$ with success at least $1 - \varepsilon$. Let $\Gamma$ be any multiplicative adversary matrix, $V_{\text{bad}}$ be the direct sum of eigenspaces of $\Gamma$ with eigenvalue strictly smaller than $\lambda > 1$, and assume that $\text{tr} [\Pi_{\text{bad}} (\rho^\circ \circ M)] \leq \eta$ for any junk matrix $M$, where $\Pi_{\text{bad}}$ is the projector on $V_{\text{bad}}$, and $0 \leq \eta \leq 1 - \varepsilon$. We have

$$
Q_{\varepsilon} (P) \geq \frac{\log K(\Gamma, \lambda, \varepsilon)}{\log \max \left\{ \| \Gamma_x^{1/2} \Gamma^{-1/2} \|^2, \| \Gamma^1/2 \Gamma_x^{-1/2} \|^2 : \forall x \in I \right\}},
$$

where $K(\Gamma, \lambda, \varepsilon) = 1 + (\lambda - 1)(\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon} - \sqrt{\eta})^2$. 

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Proof. As done in the previous proof, the initial value of the progress function is \( W^0 = 1 \).
In this case we do not bound the difference of the progress function between two queries, but its quotient. From Fact \[ \text{\ref{fanxing}} \] we note that \( \Upsilon \) and \( \Upsilon' \) are definite-positive. Then, using Lemma \[ \text{\ref{spalke}a} \] we have

\[
\frac{W^{t+1}}{W^t} = \frac{\text{tr} [\Upsilon' \rho^t]}{\text{tr} [\Gamma \rho^t]} = \frac{\text{tr} [\Upsilon^{1/2} \Gamma^{-1/2} \Upsilon^{1/2} \rho^t \Upsilon^{1/2} \Gamma^{-1/2} \Upsilon^{1/2} \rho^t \Upsilon^{1/2} \Gamma^{-1/2} \Upsilon^{1/2} \rho^t \Upsilon^{1/2}]}{\text{tr} [\Gamma^{1/2} \Gamma^{-1/2}]} \leq \left\| \Upsilon^{1/2} \Gamma^{-1/2} \right\|^2 = \max_x \left\| \Gamma^{1/2} \Gamma^{-1/2} \right\|^2,
\]

If the \((t+1)\)-th oracle call is of uncomputing type, we similarly obtain \( \frac{W^{t+1}}{W^t} \leq \max_x \left\| \Gamma^{1/2} \Gamma^{-1/2} \right\|^2 \).

The proof of the upper bound of \( W^T \) is similar to the one in Theorem \[ \text{\ref{spalke}b} \] up to eq. \[ \text{\ref{spalke}c} \], where we now have \( W^T = \beta \text{tr}(\Gamma_{\text{good}}) + (1 - \beta) \text{tr}(\Gamma_{\text{bad}}) \geq 1 + (\lambda - 1) \beta \geq 1 + (\lambda - 1)(\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon} - \sqrt{\eta})^2 \).

The lower-bound on the query complexity is a consequence of

\[
\left( \max \left\{ \left\| \Gamma^{1/2} \Gamma^{-1/2} \right\|^2, \left\| \Gamma^{1/2} \Gamma^{-1/2} \right\|^2 \right\} : \forall x \in I \right)^T \geq K(\Gamma, \lambda, \varepsilon).
\]

Note that since the condition on the adversary matrix is very similar as for the hybrid adversary, we can also use an analogue of Lemma \[ \text{\ref{fanxing}} \] to choose the adversary matrix in the special case of classical problems. This implies that our method is an extension of Špalek’s original multiplicative adversary method \[ \text{\ref{spalke}d} \].

4 Comparison of the adversary methods

Definition 15. We define the additive adversary bound and the hybrid adversary bound respectively as

\[
\text{ADV}_\varepsilon^\pm(\mathcal{P}) = \max_{\Gamma} \frac{1 - C(\varepsilon)}{\max_x \left\| \Gamma - \tilde{\Gamma}_x \right\|} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{ADV}_\varepsilon^\pm(\mathcal{P}) = \max_{\Gamma, \lambda < 1} \frac{\tilde{K}(\tilde{\Gamma}, \tilde{\lambda}, \varepsilon)}{\max_x \left\| \tilde{\Gamma} - \tilde{\Gamma}_x \right\|},
\]

where, for \( \text{ADV}_\varepsilon^\pm \), the maximum is taken over additive adversary matrices \( \tilde{\Gamma} \) such that \( \text{tr} \left[ \tilde{\Gamma}(\rho^0 \circ M) \right] = 0 \) for any junk matrix \( M \), while for \( \text{ADV}_\varepsilon^\pm \) it is taken over all additive adversary matrices. Finally, we define the multiplicative adversary bound as

\[
\text{MADV}_\varepsilon(\mathcal{P}) = \sup_{\lambda > 1} \text{MADV}_\varepsilon^{(\lambda)}(\mathcal{P}) \quad \text{where} \quad \text{MADV}_\varepsilon^{(\lambda)}(\mathcal{P}) = \sup_{\Gamma} \frac{\log K(\Gamma, \lambda, \varepsilon)}{\log \max \left\{ \left\| \Gamma^{1/2} \Gamma^{-1/2} \right\|^2, \left\| \Gamma^{1/2} \Gamma^{-1/2} \right\|^2 : \forall x \in I \right\}},
\]

and the supremum is taken over all multiplicative adversary matrices \( \Gamma \).

In this section, we show that the three methods are progressively stronger (the two inequalities are proved independently in the next two sections).

Theorem 16. \( \text{MADV}_\varepsilon(\mathcal{P}) \geq \text{ADV}_\varepsilon^\pm(\mathcal{P}) \geq \text{ADV}_\varepsilon^\pm(\mathcal{P})/60 \).
4.1 Additive versus hybrid

We show that the hybrid adversary method is always at least as strong as the original additive one (up to a constant factor).

**Lemma 17.** $\widetilde{\text{ADV}}_\varepsilon(P) \geq \text{ADV}_\varepsilon^\pm(P)/60.$

The proof of this lemma relies on the following.

**Lemma 18.** Let $\tilde{\Gamma}$ be an additive adversary method such that $\text{tr} \left[ \tilde{\Gamma}(\rho \circ M) \right] = 0$ for any junk matrix $M$. Then, for any $\tilde{\lambda}, \varepsilon$ such that $\frac{1}{1-\varepsilon} \leq \tilde{\lambda} \leq 1$, we have

$$K(\tilde{\Gamma}, \tilde{\lambda}, \varepsilon) > (1-\tilde{\lambda}) \left( \sqrt{1-\varepsilon} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\lambda}} \right)^2.$$

**Proof.** Let $V_{\text{bad}}$ be the direct sum of eigenspaces of $\tilde{\Gamma}$ with eigenvalue strictly larger than $\tilde{\lambda}$. From the definition of $K(\tilde{\Gamma}, \tilde{\lambda}, \varepsilon)$, it suffices to show that $\text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\text{bad}}(\rho \circ M) \right] < 1/(1 + \lambda)$ for any junk matrix $M$. Let $p_{\text{bad}} = \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\text{bad}}(\rho \circ M) \right] = \| \Pi_{\text{bad}} \psi_M \|_2^2$, where $|\psi_M\rangle$ is defined as above. Let us also define the states $|\psi_{\text{bad}}\rangle = \Pi_{\text{bad}}|\psi_M\rangle/\sqrt{p_{\text{bad}}}$ and $|\psi_{\text{good}}\rangle = \Pi_{\text{good}}|\psi_M\rangle/\sqrt{1-p_{\text{bad}}}$, so that $|\psi_M\rangle = \sqrt{p_{\text{bad}}}|\psi_{\text{bad}}\rangle + \sqrt{1-p_{\text{bad}}}|\psi_{\text{good}}\rangle$. From the properties of the additive adversary matrix $\tilde{\Gamma}$, we have

$$0 = \text{tr} \left[ \tilde{\Gamma}(\rho \circ M) \right] = \text{tr} \left[ \tilde{\Gamma}|\psi_M\rangle\langle\psi_M| \right] = p_{\text{bad}} \text{tr} \left[ \tilde{\Gamma}|\psi_{\text{bad}}\rangle\langle\psi_{\text{bad}}| \right] + (1-p_{\text{bad}}) \text{tr} \left[ \tilde{\Gamma}|\psi_{\text{good}}\rangle\langle\psi_{\text{good}}| \right] > p_{\text{bad}} \tilde{\lambda} + (1-p_{\text{bad}})(-1) = (\tilde{\lambda} + 1)p_{\text{bad}} - 1.$$  

This implies that $p_{\text{bad}} < 1/(1 + \tilde{\lambda})$. \hfill \Box

**Proof of Lemma 18.** This is immediate for $\varepsilon \geq 1/5$ as in this case, we have $\text{ADV}_\varepsilon^\pm(P) = 0$. Therefore, it suffices to show that for any additive adversary matrix $\tilde{\Gamma}$ and any $\varepsilon < 1/5$, we have $\max_{\tilde{\lambda}} K(\tilde{\Gamma}, \tilde{\lambda}, \varepsilon) \geq (1 - \varepsilon - 2\sqrt{\varepsilon(1-\varepsilon)})/60$. Let

$$\tilde{\lambda} = \left( \frac{4}{1-\varepsilon} \right)^{1/3} - 1,$$

and note that $\frac{1}{1-\varepsilon} \leq \tilde{\lambda} \leq 1$ when $0 \leq \varepsilon \leq 1/2$. By Lemma 18, we then have

$$\max_{\tilde{\lambda}} K(\tilde{\Gamma}, \tilde{\lambda}, \varepsilon) \geq 1 - 2\varepsilon - 3(2-2\varepsilon)^{2/3} + 3(2-2\varepsilon)^{1/3} \geq (1 - \varepsilon - 2\sqrt{\varepsilon(1-\varepsilon)})/60,$$

for any $0 \leq \varepsilon \leq 1/2$. \hfill \Box

4.2 Hybrid versus multiplicative

We now show that the multiplicative adversary method is as always at least as strong as the hybrid one.

**Lemma 19.** $\lim_{\lambda \to 1} \text{MADV}_\varepsilon^{(\lambda)}(P) \geq \text{ADV}_\varepsilon(P)$. 

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Proof. Let $\tilde{\Gamma}$ be the additive adversary matrix achieving $\widehat{\text{ADV}}_\varepsilon(\mathcal{P})$. Therefore, we have

$$\widehat{\text{ADV}}_\varepsilon(\mathcal{P}) = \frac{\tilde{K}(\tilde{\Gamma}, \tilde{\lambda}, \varepsilon)}{\max_x \|\tilde{\Gamma} - \tilde{x}\|}.$$ 

Let $\Gamma(\gamma) = \mathbb{I} + \gamma(\mathbb{I} - \tilde{\Gamma})$. Since $\Gamma(|\delta|) = \|\tilde{\Gamma}\| = 1$, we see that for any $\gamma > 0$, $\Gamma(\gamma)$ is definite positive with $\Gamma(\gamma) \succeq \mathbb{I}$ and $\Gamma(\gamma)|\delta| = 1$, therefore it is a valid multiplicative adversary matrix. Moreover, $\Gamma$ has eigenvalue at least $\lambda = 1 + \gamma(1 - \tilde{\lambda})$ over $\mathcal{V}_{\text{good}}$. Therefore, $K(\Gamma(\gamma), \lambda(\gamma), \varepsilon) = 1 + \gamma \tilde{K}(\tilde{\Gamma}, \tilde{\lambda}, \varepsilon)$ and, by definition of the multiplicative adversary bound,

$$\text{MADV}_\varepsilon(\mathcal{P}) \geq \sup_{\gamma > 0} \frac{\ln \left(1 + \gamma \tilde{K}(\tilde{\Gamma}, \tilde{\lambda}, \varepsilon)\right)}{\ln \max \left\{\|\Gamma_x^{1/2}(\gamma)\Gamma^{-1/2}(\gamma)\|^2,\|\Gamma_x^{1/2}(\gamma)\Gamma^{-1/2}(\gamma)\|^2 : \forall x \in \mathcal{I} \right\}}.$$ 

We show that in the limit $\gamma \to 0$, the argument of the supremum is just $\widehat{\text{ADV}}_\varepsilon(\mathcal{P})$, which implies the lemma. For the numerator, we immediately have

$$\ln \left[1 + \gamma \tilde{K}(\tilde{\Gamma}, \lambda, \varepsilon)\right] = \gamma \tilde{K}(\tilde{\Gamma}, \lambda, \varepsilon) + O(\gamma^2).$$ 

Also, since $\Gamma_x(\gamma) = \mathbb{I} + \gamma(\mathbb{I} - \tilde{\Gamma}_x)$, we have

$$\|\Gamma_x^{1/2}(\gamma)\Gamma^{-1/2}(\gamma)\|^2 = \|\mathbb{I} + \frac{\gamma}{2}(\tilde{\Gamma} - \tilde{\Gamma}_x)\|^2 + O(\gamma^2),$$

$$\|\Gamma_x^{1/2}(\gamma)\Gamma^{-1/2}(\gamma)\|^2 = \|\mathbb{I} - \frac{\gamma}{2}(\tilde{\Gamma} - \tilde{\Gamma}_x)\|^2 + O(\gamma^2).$$

Therefore, we have for the denominator

$$L(\gamma, x) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \ln \max \left\{\|\Gamma_x^{1/2}(\gamma)\Gamma^{-1/2}(\gamma)\|^2,\|\Gamma_x^{1/2}(\gamma)\Gamma^{-1/2}(\gamma)\|^2 : \forall x \in \mathcal{I} \right\} = \gamma \|\tilde{\Gamma} - \tilde{\Gamma}_x\| + O(\gamma^2).$$

Since $\lim_{\gamma \to 0} L(\gamma, x)$ exists for all $x$ and there are only a finite number of possible $x$, we can swap $\lim$ and $\max$, which finally implies that:

$$\lim_{\gamma \to 0} \frac{\ln \left[1 + \gamma \tilde{K}(\tilde{\Gamma}, \lambda, \varepsilon)\right]}{\ln \max \left\{\|\Gamma_x^{1/2}(\gamma)\Gamma^{-1/2}(\gamma)\|^2,\|\Gamma_x^{1/2}(\gamma)\Gamma^{-1/2}(\gamma)\|^2 : \forall x \in \mathcal{I} \right\}} = \widehat{\text{ADV}}_\varepsilon(\mathcal{P}).$$

\[\square\]

5 Strong direct product theorem

In this section we extend Špalek’s strong direct product theorem [Spa08] to quantum state generation problems. We prove that for any problem which accepts a multiplicative adversary bound $\text{MADV}^{(k)}_\varepsilon(\mathcal{P})$, if one wants to solve $\mathcal{P}^{(k)}$, i.e., $k$ independent instances of $\mathcal{P}$, using less than $k/10$ times the number of queries necessary to solve one instance with error $\varepsilon$, then the success probability for $\mathcal{P}^{(k)}$ is exponentially small in $k$. Let us note that a similar theorem was recently proved for the polynomial method [She10].
Theorem 20 (Strong direct product). For any problem \( \mathcal{P} \) and \( \lambda > 1 \), there exist a constant \( 0 < c < 1 \) and an integer \( k_0 > 0 \) such that, for any \( k > k_0 \), we have \( \text{MADV}^{(\lambda)}_{1-c^k}(\mathcal{P}^{(k)}) \geq \frac{k}{10} \text{MADV}^{(\lambda)}_{c}(\mathcal{P}) \).

Proof. This proof closely follows the footsteps of the one by Špalek in [Spa08, Sec. 5], which dealt with the special case of computing functions. Let us assume that the multiplicative adversary bound for \( \mathcal{P} \) with threshold \( \lambda \) is obtained by the adversary matrix \( \Gamma \). For \( \mathcal{P}^{(k)} \), we construct an adversary matrix \( \Gamma' = \Gamma^\otimes k \) and set the threshold at value \( \lambda' = \lambda^{\frac{k}{10}} \).

First of all we observe that \( \max_{x \in \Sigma, i \in [k]} \| \Gamma_{x,i}^{1/2} \Gamma^\otimes 1/2 \| = \max_{x \in \Sigma} \| \Gamma_{x}^{1/2} \Gamma^\otimes 1/2 \| \) where \( i \) is the index of the queried oracle and \( \Gamma'_{x,i} = \Gamma' \circ (\Gamma^\otimes 1 \otimes D_x \otimes \mathbb{I}^{k-i}) \). The proof follows by noting that for \( x \in \Sigma \) and for all \( i \in [k] \) we have

\[
\Gamma_{x,i}^{1/2} \Gamma'^{-1/2} = \left( \Gamma^{1/2 \otimes i-1} \otimes \Gamma^{1/2} \otimes \Gamma^{1/2 \otimes k-i} \right) \left( \Gamma^{-1/2 \otimes i-1} \otimes \Gamma^{-1/2} \otimes \Gamma^{-1/2 \otimes k-i} \right) = \mathbb{I}^{\otimes i-1} \otimes \Gamma^{1/2} \Gamma^{-1/2} \otimes \mathbb{I}^{\otimes k-i}.
\]

We can do the same calculation for the uncomputing oracle.

Let us now find an upper bound to \( \max_M \text{tr}[\Pi_{\text{bad}}(\rho^\otimes M)] \). The “bad” subspace \( V_{\text{bad}}' \) for the problem \( \mathcal{P}^{(k)} \) is defined by the direct sum of eigenspaces of \( \Gamma^\otimes k \) with eigenvalue at most \( \lambda' = \lambda^{k/10} \). While, we do not have in general \( V_{\text{bad}}' \subset V_{\text{bad}}^\otimes k \) nor \( V_{\text{bad}}^\otimes k \subset V_{\text{bad}}' \), we know that \( V_{\text{bad}}^\otimes k \) is a subspace of the direct sum of spaces \( \bigoplus_{i=1}^k V_v \) where \( v \in \{\text{good, bad}\}^k \) and the number of good subspaces \( |v| \) is at most \( \frac{k}{10} \). Indeed, any other eigenspace of \( \Gamma' \) has eigenvalue at least \( 1^{9k/10} \lambda^{k/10} = \lambda' \) since the eigenvalues of \( \Gamma \) are greater than 1, and those associated to good subspaces are greater than \( \lambda > 1 \). Therefore, the projector \( \Pi_{\text{bad}}' \) on the bad subspace is such that \( \Pi_{\text{bad}}' = \Pi_{\text{bad}} \circ (\bigoplus_v \Pi_v) \). Let us consider a junk matrix \( M' \) for \( \mathcal{P}^{(k)} \). Such a matrix can be written as \( M' = \sum_j m_j \bigotimes_{i=1}^k M_{i,j} \) where \( \sum_j m_j = 1 \), and each \( M_{i,j} \) is a junk matrix for \( \mathcal{P} \).

\[
\text{tr}[\Pi_{\text{bad}}(\rho^\otimes M')] \leq \sum_{v,j} m_j \text{tr}[\bigotimes_{i=1}^k \Pi_v(\rho^\otimes M_{i,j})] = \sum_{v,j} m_j \prod_i \text{tr}[\Pi_v(\rho^\otimes M_{i,j})] \\
\leq \sum_{v,j} m_j \eta^{9k/10} \leq \eta^{9k/10} \sum_{v:|v|<k/10} 1 \\
\leq \eta^{2k/5} \quad \text{for } \eta \leq 1/2 \text{ and } k \geq 361
\]

We conclude that we can take \( \eta' = \eta^{2k/5} \). Let us also define the constants \( \zeta = (\sqrt{1-\varepsilon} - \sqrt{\eta})^2 \) and \( \zeta_0 = \left( \frac{K(\Gamma', \lambda' \varepsilon)}{\lambda} \right)^{1/10} \left( \frac{1+((\lambda-1)\varepsilon)}{\lambda} \right)^{1/10} < 1 \) since \( \lambda > 1 \). There exists \( k_0 > 361 \) and \( 0 < c < 1 \) such that for all \( k > k_0 \), \( \zeta_0^{k/2} + \eta^{k/5} \leq c^{k/2} \). For such \( k \)'s, we choose \( \epsilon' = 1 - c^k \). With these choices, we have

\[
K(\Gamma', \lambda', \epsilon') \geq 1 + (\lambda' - 1)\zeta_0^{k/2} = 1 + (1 - \lambda^{-k/10})K(\Gamma, \lambda, \varepsilon) \geq K(\Gamma, \lambda, \varepsilon)^{k/10},
\]
where we used the fact that $K(\Gamma, \lambda, \varepsilon) < \lambda$. Combining everything, we then have

\[
\frac{k}{10} \text{MADV}_\varepsilon(\mathcal{P}) = \frac{\ln K(\Gamma, \lambda, \varepsilon)^{k/10}}{\ln \max \left\{ \| \Gamma_x^{1/2} \Gamma_{-1/2} \|^2, \| \Gamma_x^{1/2} \Gamma_{-1/2} \|^2 : \forall x \in I \right\}} \\
\leq \frac{\ln K(\Gamma', \lambda', \varepsilon')}{\ln \max \left\{ \| \Gamma_x^{1/2} \Gamma_{-1/2} \|^2, \| \Gamma_x^{1/2} \Gamma_{-1/2} \|^2 : \forall x \in I \right\}} \\
\leq \text{MADV}_\varepsilon'(\mathcal{P}(k)).
\]

Let us note that while we have proved that the multiplicative adversary method is stronger than the additive one, we cannot directly conclude that this strong direct product theorem also applies to the additive bound. This is because we can only prove that the multiplicative adversary method becomes stronger in the limit of $\lambda$ going to 1, while in the same limit the constant $c$ in the theorem also goes to 1. Therefore, this only implies a direct sum theorem for the additive adversary bound.

6 Representation theory

6.1 Symmetrization of the circuit

In this section we will study how the symmetries of the problem can help choosing the adversary matrix and in turn obtain the lower bounds. Recall that the oracle computes a function $f \in F$ from $\Sigma_I$ to $\Sigma_O$, where the input alphabet has size $N = |\Sigma_I|$ and the output alphabet has size $M = |\Sigma_O|$. Let us consider permutations $(\pi, \tau) \in S_N \times S_M$ acting on $f \in F$ as

\[
f_{\pi, \tau} = \tau \circ f \circ \pi,
\]

that is, $f_{\pi, \tau} : \Sigma_I \mapsto \Sigma_O : x \mapsto \tau(f(\pi(x)))$.

**Definition 21 (Automorphism group of $\mathcal{P}$).** We call a group $G \subseteq S_N \times S_M$ an automorphism group of a problem $\mathcal{P}$ if

- For any $(\pi, \tau) \in G$ and $f \in F$, we have $f_{\pi, \tau} \in F$.
- For any $(\pi, \tau) \in G$, there exists a unitary $V_{\pi, \tau}$ such that $V_{\pi, \tau} |\mathcal{P}(f)\rangle = |\mathcal{P}(f_{\pi, \tau})\rangle$ for all $f \in F$.

Note that from an oracle for $f$, it is easy to simulate an oracle for $f_{\pi, \tau}$ by prefixing and appending the necessary permutations on the input and output registers. Consider for example a computing oracle call. Then, $O_{f_{\pi, \tau}}$ acts on $|x\rangle|0\rangle$ just as $(\pi^{-1} \otimes \tau)O_f(\pi \otimes \mathbb{I})$.

Therefore, if $(\pi, \tau)$ is an element of an automorphism $G$ of $\mathcal{P}$, we can solve the problem with oracle $f$ in the following indirect way:

1. Solve the problem for $f_{\pi, \tau}$, which will prepare a state close to $|\mathcal{P}(f_{\pi, \tau})\rangle$.
2. Apply $V_{\pi, \tau}^\dagger$ to map this state to a state close to $|\mathcal{P}(f)\rangle$.

Since we want the algorithm to work just as well for any possible $f$, we can use this property to symmetrize the circuit. The idea is to solve the algorithm for $f$ by solving it for $f_{\pi, \tau}$ for all possible $(\pi, \tau) \in G$ simultaneously in superposition. Just as we considered $|f\rangle$ as an additional input to the
Let \( \Gamma \) be an adversary matrix that does not satisfy this property, and let us consider its symmetrized version \( \bar{\Gamma} = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{(\pi,\tau) \in G} \Gamma_{\pi,\tau} \Gamma U_{\pi,\tau}^\dagger \). Note that we can assume without loss of generality that the best algorithm for \( \mathcal{P} \) is symmetrized. Indeed, for any algorithm for \( \mathcal{P} \) with success probability \( p \) and query complexity \( T \), the symmetrized version will have the same query complexity and a success probability at least \( p \). For the same reason, we can also assume that the optimal adversary matrix satisfies a similar symmetry, in the following sense:

**Lemma 22.** For all \( (\pi,\tau) \in G \), let \( U_{\pi,\tau} \) be the unitary that maps \( |f\rangle \) onto \( |f_{\pi,\tau}\rangle \). Then, we can assume without loss of generality that the optimal adversary matrix \( \Gamma \) satisfies \( U_{\pi,\tau} \Gamma U_{\pi,\tau}^\dagger = \Gamma \) for any \( (\pi,\tau) \in G \).

**Proof.** Let \( \Gamma \) be an adversary matrix that does not satisfy this property, and let us consider its symmetrized version \( \bar{\Gamma} = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{(\pi,\tau) \in G} U_{\pi,\tau} \Gamma U_{\pi,\tau}^\dagger \).

We first show that this matrix is still a valid adversary matrix. Since \( U_{\pi,\tau} |\delta\rangle = |\delta\rangle \) for any \( (\pi,\tau) \in G \), we immediately have \( \bar{\Gamma} |\delta\rangle = |\delta\rangle \) if \( \Gamma |\delta\rangle = |\delta\rangle \). By definition of the automorphism group, we have for any \( f, g \in F \) and \( (\pi,\tau) \in G \)

\[
\langle \mathcal{P}(f_{\pi,\tau}) | \mathcal{P}(g_{\pi,\tau}) \rangle = \langle \mathcal{P}(f) | V_{\pi,\tau}^\dagger V_{\pi,\tau} | \mathcal{P}(g) \rangle = \langle \mathcal{P}(f) | \mathcal{P}(g) \rangle.
\]

Therefore, for any junk matrix \( M \), we have

\[
\frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{(\pi,\tau) \in G} U_{\pi,\tau} (\rho \circ M) U_{\pi,\tau}^\dagger = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{(\pi,\tau) \in G} \frac{1}{|F|} \sum_{f,g} \langle \mathcal{P}(f) | \mathcal{P}(g) \rangle M_{fg} |g_{\pi,\tau}\rangle \langle f_{\pi,\tau} | |f\rangle |g\rangle
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{(\pi,\tau) \in G} \frac{1}{|F|} \sum_{f,g} \langle \mathcal{P}(f_{\pi,\tau}) | \mathcal{P}(g_{\pi,\tau}) \rangle M_{fg_{\pi,\tau}} |g\rangle \langle f | |f\rangle |g\rangle
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{|F|} \sum_{f,g} \langle \mathcal{P}(f) | \mathcal{P}(g) \rangle \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{(\pi,\tau) \in G} M_{fg_{\pi,\tau}} |g\rangle \langle f | |f\rangle |g\rangle
\]

\[
= \rho \circ \bar{M},
\]

where \( \bar{M} \) is the symmetrized version of \( M \). Therefore, if \( \Gamma \) satisfies \( \text{tr} \left[ \Gamma (\rho \circ M) \right] = 0 \) for any junk matrix \( M \), we have for \( \bar{\Gamma} \),

\[
\text{tr} \left[ \bar{\Gamma} (\rho \circ M) \right] = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{(\pi,\tau) \in G} \text{tr} \left[ U_{\pi,\tau} \Gamma U_{\pi,\tau}^\dagger (\rho \circ M) \right] = \text{tr} \left[ \Gamma (\rho \circ \bar{M}) \right] = 0.
\]

Similarly, if \( \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\text{bad}} (\rho \circ M) \right] \leq \eta \) for any junk matrix \( M \), where \( \Pi_{\text{bad}} \) is the projector on the bad subspace of \( \Gamma \), then

\[
\text{tr} \left[ \bar{\Pi}_{\text{bad}} (\rho \circ M) \right] = \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\text{bad}} (\rho \circ \bar{M}) \right] \leq \eta,
\]

where \( \bar{\Pi}_{\text{bad}} \) is the projector on the bad subspace of \( \bar{\Gamma} \).

Let us now show that substituting \( \Gamma \) by \( \bar{\Gamma} \) can only make the adversary bound stronger. It suffices to show that \( \max_x \| \bar{\Gamma} - \Gamma_x \| \leq \max_x \| \Gamma - \Gamma_x \| \), where \( \Gamma_x = \bar{\Gamma} \circ D_x \). Recall from Fact 7 that
\( \Gamma_x = \sum_y \Pi_x^y \Pi_y \), and similarly for \( \bar{\Gamma}_x \). By definition of \( \Pi_x^y \), we have \( U_{\pi,\tau} \Pi_y U^\dagger_{\pi,\tau} = \Pi_y^{\pi^{-1}(x)} \) and in turn
\[
\bar{\Gamma}_x = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_y \sum_{(\pi,\tau) \in G} \Pi_y^x U_{\pi,\tau} \Pi_x^{y} U^\dagger_{\pi,\tau} = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_y \sum_{(\pi,\tau) \in G} U_{\pi,\tau} \Pi_x^{\pi(y)} \Pi_x^{\tau^{-1}(y)} U^\dagger_{\pi,\tau} \\
= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{(\pi,\tau) \in G} U_{\pi,\tau} \Gamma_x U^\dagger_{\pi,\tau}
\]

Finally, we have
\[
\| \bar{\Gamma} - \bar{\Gamma}_x \| \leq \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{(\pi,\tau) \in G} \| \Gamma - \Gamma_x \| \leq \max_x \| \Gamma - \Gamma_x \|,
\]
where we have used the triangle inequality.

Note that the mapping \( U : (\pi, \tau) \mapsto U_{\pi,\tau} \) defines a representation of the automorphism group \( G \) and that Lemma 22 implies that \( \Gamma \) commutes with \( U_{\pi,\tau} \) for any \( (\pi, \tau) \in G \). This means that the matrices \( U_{\pi,\tau} \) and \( \Gamma \) block-diagonalize simultaneously in a common basis, where each block corresponds to a different irrep of \( G \). From now on, we will consider the special case where \( U \) is multiplicity-free. This happens for different interesting problems, such as \( t \)-fold search \cite{ASdW07, Spa08} and Index Erasure (see Section 7.2), as a consequence of the following lemma.

**Lemma 23.** If, for any \( f, g \in F \), there exists \( (\pi, \tau) \in G \) such that \( g = f_{\pi,\tau} \) and \( g_{\pi,\tau} = f \), then \( U \) is multiplicity-free.

**Proof.** Let us consider the set of matrices \( \mathcal{M} = \{ A \in \mathbb{C}^{|F| \times |F|} : \forall (\pi, \tau) \in G, U_{\pi,\tau} A U^\dagger_{\pi,\tau} = A \} \). It is easy to see that for any \( A, B \in \mathcal{M} \), we have \( AB \in \mathcal{M} \), therefore \( \mathcal{M} \) defines an algebra. Note that \( U \) is multiplicity-free if and only if \( \mathcal{M} \) is commutative, in which case all matrices in \( \mathcal{M} \) diagonalize in a common basis \cite[p. 65]{Cam99}. For any matrix \( A \in \mathcal{M} \), we have \( A^f \) since there exists \( (\pi, \tau) \in G \) such \( \langle f | A | g \rangle = \langle f | U_{\pi,\tau} A U^\dagger_{\pi,\tau} | g \rangle = \langle g | A | f \rangle \). This immediately implies that for any \( A, B \in \mathcal{M} \), we have \( AB = (AB)^f = B^f A^f = BA \), therefore \( \mathcal{M} \) is a commutative algebra. (More precisely, it is a Bose-Mesner algebra associated to an association scheme \cite{Bai04}.)

### 6.2 Symmetry of oracle calls

Recall that oracle calls are closely related to the Hadamard product with \( D_x \). We show that the invariance of \( \Gamma \) under the action of a group \( G \) implies the invariance of \( \Gamma_x = \Gamma \circ D_x \) under the action of the subgroup \( G_x \) of \( G \) that leaves \( x \) invariant.

**Lemma 24.** For any \( x \in \Sigma_I \) and \( y \in \Sigma_O \), let us define the following subgroups of \( G \)
\[
G_{xy} = \{ (\pi, \tau) \in G : \pi(x) = x, \tau(y) = y \},
\]
\[
G_x = \{ (\pi, \tau) \in G : \pi(x) = x \}.
\]

Then \( \Pi_y^x \) satisfies \( U_{\pi,\tau} \Pi_y^x U^\dagger_{\pi,\tau} = \Pi_y^x \) for any \( (\pi, \tau) \in G_{xy} \), and \( \Gamma_x \) satisfies \( U_{\pi,\tau} \Gamma_x U^\dagger_{\pi,\tau} = \Gamma_x \) for any \( (\pi, \tau) \in G_x \).
Proof. Recall that by definition of $\Pi_x^\pi$, we have $U_{\pi,\tau} \Pi_x^\pi U_{\pi,\tau}^\dagger = \Pi_{(\tau,y)}^\pi$ for any $(\pi, \tau) \in G$. This immediately implies the first part of the lemma for $(\pi, \tau) \in G_x$. Moreover, Fact 7 and Lemma 22 imply that $U_{\pi,\tau} \Gamma_x U_{\pi,\tau}^\dagger = \Gamma_{\pi^{-1}(x)}$ for any $(\pi, \tau) \in G$. This implies the second part of the lemma for $(\pi, \tau) \in G_x$. \hfill $\Box$

Since $U$ is a representation of $G$, it is also a representation of the subgroup $G_x$. However, even if $U$ is multiplicity-free with respect to $G$, it is typically not with respect to $G_x$. Indeed, when restricting $G$ to $G_x$, multiplicities can happen due to two different mechanisms. First, an irrep can become reducible, and one of the new smaller irreps can be a copy of another irrep. Secondly, two irreps that are different for $G$ could be the same when we restrict to the elements of $G_x$. Let us identify an irrep of $G_x$ by three indices $(k, l, m)$: the first index identifies the irrep $k$ of $G$ from which it originates, the second index identifies the irrep $l$ of $G_x$, and the last index allows to discriminate between different copies of the same irrep of $G_x$. For example, two irreps having the same index $l$ but different indices $k$ are two copies of the same irrep of $G_x$ originating from different irreps of $G$. Also, we denote by $V_{k,l,m}$ the subspace spanned by irrep $(k, l, m)$. These subspaces are such that $\bigoplus_{k,l,m} V_{k,l,m} = V_k$, where $V_k$ is the subspace spanned by the irrep $k$ of $G$ (we assume that $V_{k,l,m}$ is empty if $(k, l, m)$ does not correspond to a valid irrep). In the following, it will also be useful to define $W_l = \bigoplus_{k,m} V_{k,l,m}$ which is sometimes called the isotypical component corresponding to $l$ ~[Ser77].

**Lemma 25.** Let $U$ be multiplicity-free for $G$. Then, $\Gamma$ can be written as $\Gamma = \sum_k \gamma_k \Pi_k$, where $k$ indexes the irreps of $G$ and $\Pi_k$ is the projector onto the space $V_k$ spanned by the irrep $k$. Also, $\Gamma_x$ block-diagonalizes as $\Gamma_x = \sum_l \Gamma_{x}^l$, where $l$ indexes the irreps of $G_x$, and, for each $l$, $\Gamma_{x}^l$ is a matrix on the isotypical component $W_l = \bigoplus_{k,m} V_{k,l,m}$ of $l$. Moreover, $\Gamma_{x}^l$ can be written as

$$\Gamma_{x}^l = \sum_{k_1,m_1,k_2,m_2} \gamma_{x;k_1m_1;k_2m_2} \Pi_{k_1m_1\leftarrow k_2m_2}^l$$

where $d_l$ is the dimension of irrep $l$, $\Pi_{k_1m_1\leftarrow k_2m_2}^l$ is the “transporter” from $V_{k_2,l,m_2}$ to $V_{k_1,l,m_1}$, i.e., the operator that maps any state in $V_{k_2,l,m_2}$ to the corresponding state in $V_{k_1,l,m_1}$, and

$$\gamma_{x;k_1m_1;k_2m_2} = \frac{1}{d_l} \text{tr} \left[ \Gamma_x \Pi_{k_2m_2\leftarrow k_1m_1}^l \right].$$

**Proof.** This directly follows from Lemmas 22, 24 using the canonical decomposition of the representation $U$ ~[Ser77]. \hfill $\Box$

### 6.3 Computing the adversary bounds

Lemma 25 tells us how to choose the adversary matrix: it suffices to assign weights $\gamma_k$ to each irrep $k$ of $G$, i.e., $\Gamma = \sum_k \gamma_k \Pi_k$. Moreover, it also implies that computing the associated adversary bounds boils down to bounding for each irrep $l$ of $G_x$ the norm of a small $m_l \times m_l$ matrix, where $m_l$ is the multiplicity of irrep $l$.

**Theorem 26.** Let $U$ be multiplicity-free for $G$. Then, we have

$$\|\tilde{\Gamma}_x - \Gamma\| = \max_l \|\Delta_x^l\|,$$

$$\|\Gamma^{1/2}_x \Gamma^{-1/2}_x\| = \max_l \|\Delta_x^l\|,$$

$$\|\Gamma^{1/2}_x \Gamma^{-1/2}_x\|^2 = \max_l \|\Delta_x^l\|^{-1},$$
where the maximums are over irreps \( l \) of \( G_x \). For each irrep \( l \), \( \Delta^l_x \) and \( \bar{\Delta}^l_x \) are \( m_1 \times m_1 \) matrices, where \( m_1 \) is the multiplicity of \( l \) for \( G_x \), with elements labeled by the different copies of the irrep and such that

\[
(\Delta^l_x)_{k_1m_1,k_2m_2} = \frac{1}{d_l} \sum_{k,y} \gamma_{k,y} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\gamma_{k,y}}} \left[ \Pi^x_{k,y} \Pi^x_{k,y} \right]_{k_1m_1 \leftarrow k_2m_2} \cdot (\bar{\Delta}^l_x)_{k_1m_1,k_2m_2} = \frac{1}{d_l} \sum_{k,y} \gamma_{k,y} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\gamma_{k,y}}} \left[ \Pi^x_{k,y} \Pi^x_{k,y} \right]_{k_1m_1 \leftarrow k_2m_2}.
\]

\( \Delta^l_x \) and \( \bar{\Delta}^l_x \) are isomorphic if and only if

\[
\gamma_{k_1m_1,k_2m_2}^\Delta = \gamma_{k_1m_1,k_2m_2}^{\bar{\Delta}}.
\]

**Proof.** This follows directly from Lemma 25 and the definition of \( \gamma \). \( \square \)

We see that to obtain the adversary bounds, we need to compute the traces of products of four operators. Since \( G_{xy} \) is a subgroup of both \( G \) and \( G_x \), each of these operators can be decomposed into a sum of projectors onto irreps of \( G_{xy} \) (or transporters from and to these irreps). To compute these traces, we can use the following lemma, which shows that it is sufficient to compute the traces of products of two projectors onto irreps of \( G_{xy} \).

**Lemma 27.** Let \( \lambda, \mu, \nu_1, \nu_2 \) denote irreps of \( G_{xy} \). If any of \( \mu, \nu_1 \) or \( \nu_2 \) is not isomorphic to \( \lambda \), then

\[
\text{tr} [\Pi_\lambda \Pi_\mu \Pi_\lambda \Pi_{\nu_1 \leftarrow \nu_2}] = 0.
\]

Otherwise, we have

\[
\text{tr} [\Pi_\lambda \Pi_\mu \Pi_\lambda \Pi_{\nu_1 \leftarrow \nu_2}] = \frac{1}{d} \text{tr} [\Pi_\lambda \Pi_\mu] \cdot \text{tr} [\Pi_\lambda \Pi_{\nu_1 \leftarrow \nu_2}],
\]

\[
|\text{tr} [\Pi_\lambda \Pi_{\nu_1 \leftarrow \nu_2}]| = \sqrt{\text{tr} [\Pi_\lambda \Pi_{\nu_1}] \cdot \text{tr} [\Pi_\lambda \Pi_{\nu_2}],}
\]

where \( d \) is the dimension of the representation \( \lambda \).

**Proof.** If two irreps are not isomorphic to each other, they belong to different isotypical subspaces of \( \mathcal{U} \), and therefore the product of their projectors (or transporters) is zero. Let us now assume that all the irreps are isomorphic to \( \lambda \) and therefore belong to the same isotypical subspace. Then, we can define isomorphic bases \( \{|i\}_{i \in [d]} \) and \( \{|\phi_i^{(1)}\}_{i \in [d]} \) and \( \{|\phi_i^{(2)}\}_{i \in [d]} \) for the subspaces spanned by irreps \( \lambda, \mu, \nu_1 \) and \( \nu_2 \), respectively, such that

\[
\Pi_\lambda = \sum_{i=1}^d |i\rangle \langle i|, \quad \Pi_\mu = \sum_{i=1}^d |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i|, \quad \Pi_{\nu_1 \leftarrow \nu_2} = \sum_{i=1}^d |\phi_i^{(1)}\rangle \langle \phi_i^{(2)}|.
\]

Let us also choose a basis \( \{|i,j\}_{i,j \in [d] \times [m]} \) for the whole \((d \times m)\)-dimensional isotypical subspace, \( m \) being the multiplicity of the irreps. Without loss of generality, we may choose this basis such that \( \{|i,1\}_{i \in [d]} = \{|i\}_{i \in [d]} \) corresponds to \( \lambda \) itself, and, for any \( j \neq 1 \), \( \{|i,j\}_{i \in [d]} \) corresponds to a copy of \( \lambda \). Since \( \lambda, \mu, \nu_1 \) and \( \nu_2 \) are isomorphic, there exists coefficients \( \{\alpha_j\}_{j \in [m]}, \{\beta_j^{(1)}\}_{j \in [m]} \) and \( \{\beta_j^{(2)}\}_{j \in [m]} \) such that

\[
|\psi_i\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_j |i,j\rangle, \quad |\phi_i^{(1)}\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^m \beta_j^{(1)} |i,j\rangle, \quad |\phi_i^{(2)}\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^m \beta_j^{(2)} |i,j\rangle.
\]
We now have
\[
\text{tr} \left[ \Pi_\lambda \Pi_\mu \Pi_\lambda \Pi_{\nu_1 \leftarrow \nu_2} \right] = \sum_{i=1}^{d} \langle i | \psi_i \rangle \langle \psi_i | i \rangle \langle \phi_i^{(1)} | \phi_i^{(2)} \rangle \langle \phi_i^{(2)} | i \rangle \\
= d \cdot \langle 1 | \psi_1 \rangle \langle \psi_1 | 1 \rangle \langle \phi_1^{(1)} | \phi_1^{(2)} \rangle \langle \phi_1^{(2)} | 1 \rangle \\
= \frac{1}{d} \sum_{i=1}^{d} \langle i | \psi_i \rangle \langle \psi_i | i \rangle \sum_{j=1}^{d} \langle j | \phi_j^{(1)} \rangle \langle \phi_j^{(2)} | j \rangle \\
= \frac{1}{d} \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_\lambda \Pi_\mu \right] \cdot \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_\lambda \Pi_{\nu_1 \leftarrow \nu_2} \right].
\]

Similarly, we also have
\[
\text{tr} \left[ \Pi_\mu \Pi_{\nu_1 \leftarrow \nu_2} \right] \cdot \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_\mu \Pi_{\nu_2 \leftarrow \nu_1} \right] = \sum_{i=1}^{d} \langle i | \phi_i^{(1)} \rangle \langle \phi_i^{(2)} | i \rangle \sum_{j=1}^{d} \langle j | \phi_j^{(1)} \rangle \langle \phi_j^{(2)} | j \rangle \\
= d^2 \cdot \langle 1 | \phi_1^{(1)} \rangle \langle \phi_1^{(2)} | 1 \rangle \langle 1 | \phi_1^{(2)} \rangle \langle \phi_1^{(1)} | 1 \rangle \\
= \sum_{i=1}^{d} \langle i | \phi_i^{(1)} \rangle \langle \phi_i^{(2)} | i \rangle \sum_{j=1}^{d} \langle j | \phi_j^{(2)} \rangle \langle \phi_j^{(1)} | j \rangle \\
= \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_\mu \Pi_{\nu_1} \right] \cdot \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_\mu \Pi_{\nu_2} \right].
\]

\[\square\]

7 Applications

7.1 Search

By considering Grover’s Search problem [Gro96], which we denote \text{Search}_n, we can show that the inequalities in Theorem 16 are strict.

\textbf{Theorem 28.} For any \(0 < \varepsilon < 1 - \frac{1}{n}\), we have
\[
\ADV^+_{\varepsilon}(\text{Search}_n) = \Omega \left( (1 - \varepsilon - 2\sqrt{\varepsilon(1 - \varepsilon)})\sqrt{n} \right) \\
\\ADV^-_{\varepsilon}(\text{Search}_n) = \Omega \left( (\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon} - 1/\sqrt{n})\sqrt{n} \right) \\
\MADV_{\varepsilon}(\text{Search}_n) = \Omega \left( ((\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon} - 1/\sqrt{n})\sqrt{n} \right).
\]

In particular, for \(\varepsilon > 1/5\), we have \(\MADV_{\varepsilon}(\text{Search}_n) > \ADV^-_{\varepsilon}(\text{Search}_n) > \ADV^+_{\varepsilon}(\text{Search}_n)\).

In order to illustrate our method, we will use representation theory to compute the adversary bounds, even though this is not really necessary for such a simple problem. The \(\Omega(\sqrt{n})\) lower bound for large success probability is well-known (see e.g [BBBV97]), and the case of small success probability has been studied in [Amb05, Spá08] using the multiplicative adversary method. The fact that a non-trivial bound can also be found in this regime using and additive adversary method (our hybrid method) is new to the present work.
Proof. Let us denote by $f_x$ the oracle that marks element $x$, that is, $f_x(x') = 1$ if $x' = x$ and 0 otherwise. Let us consider the symmetric group $S_n$ acting on $f$ as $f_\pi(x) = f(\pi(x))$. This groups forms an automorphism for $\text{SEARCH}_n$, and the associated representation $\mathcal{U}$ corresponds to the natural representation acting on $[n]$. This representation decomposes into two irreps, the one-dimensional trivial representation on $V_0 = \text{Span}\{\delta\}$, where $|\delta\rangle = (1/\sqrt{n}) \sum_x |f_x\rangle$, and an $(n-1)$-dimensional irrep on $V_1 = V_0^\perp$. Following Lemma 22 we set $\Gamma = \Pi_0 + \gamma \Pi_1$.

Let us now fix some input $x \in \Sigma_I$ to the oracle (by symmetry, the calculation will be the same for any $x$). When restricting $G$ to $G_x = \{ \pi \in G : \pi(x) = x \}$, the second representation splits into two irreps, the first one being a second copy of the trivial representation, now acting on $V_{1,0} = \text{Span}\{\delta_x\}$, where $|\delta_x\rangle = (|\delta\rangle - \sqrt{n} |f_x\rangle)/\sqrt{n-1}$. Following our convention, we index the three irreps of $G_x$ with labels $(k,l)$ as $(0,0)$, $(1,0)$ and $(1,1)$ (no need for a third index as each irrep of $G_x$ appears only once in a given irrep of $G$). Since we have one irrep with multiplicity two, and one irrep with multiplicity one, the matrix $\Gamma_x$ will block-diagonalize into two blocks: one $2 \times 2$ block $\Gamma_x^0$ on $V_0 \oplus V_{1,0}$, and one $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ block $\Gamma_x^1$ on $V_{1,1}$.

It is easy to check that only the block corresponding to the trivial representation $l = 0$ is relevant. Indeed, since the other representation has multiplicity 1, the corresponding block is characterized by a single scalar, and it is straightforward to check that $\Delta^1_x = 0$ and $\Delta^0_x = 1$, so that the maximum in Theorem 26 will not be achieved by this block.

Let us now consider the other representation, corresponding to a $2 \times 2$ block. In order to compute matrices $\Delta^0_x$, and $\Delta^1_x$, we first need to compute $\Pi_0 \circ D_x$ and $\Pi_1 \circ D_x$, which is straightforward using Fact 7. In the basis $\{|\delta\rangle, |\delta_x\rangle\}$, we obtain

$$
\Pi_0 \circ D_x = \begin{pmatrix}
    1 - 2\alpha^2(1 - \alpha^2) & \alpha \sqrt{1 - \alpha^2}(1 - 2\alpha^2) \\
    \alpha \sqrt{1 - \alpha^2}(1 - 2\alpha^2) & 2\alpha^2(1 - \alpha^2)
\end{pmatrix},
$$

where $\alpha = 1/\sqrt{n}$, and therefore $\Pi_1 \circ D_x = I - \Pi_0 \circ D_x$. For the additive adversary methods, we then obtain from Theorem 26

$$
\Delta^0_x = (1 - \gamma)\alpha \sqrt{1 - \alpha^2} \begin{pmatrix}
    -2\alpha \sqrt{1 - \alpha^2} & 1 - 2\alpha^2 \\
    1 - 2\alpha^2 & 2\alpha \sqrt{1 - \alpha^2}
\end{pmatrix}.
$$

The matrix has eigenvalues $\pm 1$, so that $\|\Delta^0_x\| = (1 - \gamma)\alpha \sqrt{1 - \alpha^2}$.

For the usual additive adversary method, we need to choose $\gamma$ such that $\text{tr}(\tilde{\Gamma}(\rho \circ M)) = 0$ for any junk matrix $M$. Here, $\rho \circ = I/n$, therefore this condition reduces to $\text{tr}(\tilde{\Gamma}) = 0$, which is satisfied for $\gamma = -1/(n - 1)$. This yields $\|\Delta^0_x\| = 1/\sqrt{n - 1}$, and therefore $\text{ADV}^A_\varepsilon(\text{SEARCH}_n) = (1 - \varepsilon - 2\sqrt{\varepsilon(1 - \varepsilon)})\sqrt{n - 1}$, which is $\Omega(\sqrt{n})$ for $\varepsilon < 1/5$, but negative otherwise.

For the new additive adversary method, we can choose $\tilde{\lambda} = \gamma$, so that $V_{\text{bad}} = V_0$ and $\eta = 1/n$. This implies that as soon as $\varepsilon < 1 - 1/n$, we have a non-trivial bound $\text{ADV}^A_\varepsilon(\text{SEARCH}_n) = (\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon} - 1/\sqrt{n})^2 \sqrt{n - 1}$.

For the multiplicative adversary method, we choose $\gamma > 1$ and $\tilde{\lambda} = \gamma$, so that $V_{\text{bad}} = V_0$ and $\eta = 1/n$. We then obtain similarly

$$
\Delta^0_x = \begin{pmatrix}
    1 + (2\gamma - 1)\alpha^2(1 - \alpha^2) & -2\gamma(1 - \alpha^2) \sqrt{1 - \alpha^2}(1 - 2\alpha^2) \\
    -2\gamma(1 - \alpha^2) \sqrt{1 - \alpha^2}(1 - 2\alpha^2) & 1 - 2\gamma(1 - \alpha^2)(1 - \alpha^2)
\end{pmatrix}
$$

$$
= \begin{pmatrix}
    1 & -2\gamma \sqrt{1 - \alpha^2} \\
    -2\gamma \sqrt{1 - \alpha^2} & 1
\end{pmatrix} + O(\alpha^2).
$$
By Gershgorin circle theorem, the eigenvalues of this matrix lie in the range \([1 - \frac{\gamma - 1}{\sqrt{\gamma}}, 1 + \frac{\gamma - 1}{\sqrt{\gamma}}]\), so that

\[
\text{MADV}(\text{Search}_n) \geq \frac{\log[1 + (\gamma - 1)\beta^2]}{\log[1 + (\gamma - 1)/\sqrt{\gamma}]},
\]

where \(\beta = \sqrt{1 - \varepsilon} - 1/\sqrt{n}\). In the limit \(\gamma \to 1\), we obtain the same bound as for the new additive adversary method. However, for \(\gamma = 1 + 1/\beta^2\), we obtain

\[
\text{MADV}(\text{Search}_n) \geq (\log 2) \cdot \frac{\sqrt{\gamma n}}{\gamma - 1} = \Omega\left(\left(\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon} - 1/\sqrt{n}\right)\sqrt{n}\right),
\]

where we have used the fact that \(\log(1 + x) \leq x\).

### 7.2 Index Erasure

Let us now consider the following coherent quantum state generation problem, called **Index Erasure** [Shi02]: given an oracle for an injective function \(f: [N] \to [M]\), coherently generate the superposition \(|\psi_f\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=1}^{N} |f(x)\rangle\) over the image of \(f\). The name **Index Erasure** comes from the fact that we can easily prepare the superposition \(\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=1}^{N} |f(x)\rangle\) using one oracle call, so the problem is to *erase* the index \(|x\rangle\).

The previously best known lower bound for **Index Erasure** is \(\Omega\left(\sqrt{N}/\log N\right)\), which follows from a reduction to the **Set Equality** problem [Mid04]. It is also known that this problem may be solved with \(O(\sqrt{N})\) oracle calls. Indeed, given \(|f(x)\rangle\), one can find the index \(|x\rangle\) with \(O(\sqrt{N})\) oracle calls using Grover’s algorithm for **Search** [Gro96]. Therefore, the quantum circuit for this algorithm maps the superposition \(|\psi_f\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=1}^{N} |f(x)\rangle\) to the state \(\frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{x=1}^{M} |x\rangle|f(x)\rangle\). The algorithm for **Index Erasure** then follows by inverting this circuit.

We now show that this algorithm is optimal by proving a matching lower bound using the hybrid adversary method.

**Theorem 29.** \(Q_\varepsilon(\text{Index Erasure}) = \Theta(\sqrt{N})\).

**Proof.** Let \((\pi, \tau) \in S_N \times S_M\) act on the set \(F\) of injective functions from \([N]\) to \([M]\) by mapping \(f\) to \(f_{\pi,\tau} = \tau \circ f \circ \pi\). Since we can obtain the state \(|\psi_f\rangle\) from \(|\psi_{f_{\pi,\tau}}\rangle\) by applying the permutation \(\tau^{-1}\) on the target register, the whole group \(G = S_N \times S_M\) defines an automorphism group for the problem.

**Representations.** Let us study the representation \(U\) corresponding to the action of \(G\) on the set of injective functions \(F\). From Lemma 23, this representation is multiplicity-free: indeed, for any \(f, g \in F\), it is easy to construct a group element \((\pi, \tau)\) that maps both \(f\) to \(g\) and \(g\) to \(f\). Therefore, any irrep of \(G\) appears in \(U\) at most once. Let us now show that many irreps do not appear at all. Recall that irreps of \(G = S_N \times S_M\) can be represented by pairs of Young diagrams \((\lambda_N, \lambda_M)\), where \(\lambda_N\) has \(N\) boxes, and \(\lambda_M\) has \(M\) boxes [Sag01]. We show that only irreps where the diagram \(\lambda_N\) is contained in the diagram \(\lambda_M\) can appear. We show this by induction on \(M\), starting from \(M = N\). For the base case, the set of injective functions \(F\) is isomorphic to the set of permutations in \(S_N\), and \((\pi, \tau) \in S_N \times S_N\) acts on a permutation \(\sigma\) as \(\tau \sigma \pi\). Therefore, the only irreps which occur in \(U\) are those where the two diagrams are the same, that is, \(\lambda_N = \lambda_M\). When
Let \( \rho \) correspond to the trivial one-dimensional irrep of \( S \) on the subspace spanned by states \( V \). The initial state is \( \rho^0 \) the projector over \( V_0 \); b) Young diagrams corresponding to the \((M-1)\)-dimensional space \( V_1 \). The target state \( \rho^\odot \) has a large overlap \((1-N/M)\) with the completely mixed state over \( V_1 \).

Extending the range of functions in \( F \) from \( M \) to \( M+1 \), we induce irreps of \( S_N \times S_M \) to irreps of \( S_N \times S_{M+1} \) by adding an extra box on the diagram corresponding to \( S_M \). Since we start from a case where the two diagrams are the same, we can only obtain pairs of diagrams \((\lambda_N, \lambda_M)\) where \( \lambda_N \) is contained inside \( \lambda_M \).

**Initial and target states.** The initial state is \( \rho_0 = |\delta\rangle\langle\delta| \), where \( |\delta\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|F|}} \sum_{f \in F} |f\rangle \) is the superposition over all injective functions, which is invariant under any element \((\pi, \tau) \in G \). Therefore, it corresponds to the trivial one-dimensional irrep of \( S_N \times S_M \), represented by a pair of diagrams \((\lambda_N, \lambda_M)\) where both diagrams contain only one row of \( N \) and \( M \) boxes, respectively (see Fig. 3). Let \( V_0 = \text{Span}\{|\delta\rangle\} \) be the corresponding one-dimensional subspace. We now show that the target state \( \rho^\odot \) is a mixed state over \( V_0 \oplus V_1 \), where \( V_1 = \text{Span}\{|\phi_y\rangle : y \in [M]\} \) is the \((M-1)\)-dimensional subspace spanned by states \( |\phi_y\rangle = \sqrt{1-(N/M)}|\psi_y\rangle - \sqrt{N/M}|\bar{\psi}_y\rangle \), \( |\psi_y\rangle \) being the uniform superposition over functions \( f \) such that \( y \in \text{Im}(f) \), and \( |\bar{\psi}_y\rangle \) the uniform superposition over functions \( f \) such that \( y \notin \text{Im}(f) \). This subspace corresponds to the irrep represented by diagrams \((\lambda_N, \lambda_M)\) where \( \lambda_N \) contains only one row of \( N \) boxes, and \( \lambda_M \) has \( M-1 \) boxes on the first row and one box on the second (see Fig. 4). We have for the target state

\[
\rho^\odot = \frac{1}{|F|} \sum_{f,f' \in F} \langle \psi_f | \psi_{f'} \rangle |f'\rangle\langle f| = \frac{1}{|F|} \sum_{f,f' \in F} \frac{|\text{Im}(f) \cap \text{Im}(f')|}{N} |f'\rangle\langle f|
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{M} \sum_{y=1}^{M} |\bar{\psi}_y\rangle\langle \psi_y| = \frac{N}{M} |\delta\rangle\langle \delta| + \left(1 - \frac{N}{M}\right) \frac{1}{M} \sum_{y=1}^{M} |\phi_y\rangle\langle \phi_y|
\]

\[
= \frac{N}{M} \rho_0 + \left(1 - \frac{N}{M}\right) \rho_1,
\]

where \( \rho_0 \) and \( \rho_1 \) are the maximally mixed states over \( V_0 \) and \( V_1 \), respectively.

**Adversary matrix.** Since we start from state \( \rho_0 \) and we want to reach state \( \rho^\odot \) which has a large weight over \( \rho_1 \), the strategy for the lower bound is to show that it is hard to transfer weight from \( V_0 \) to \( V_1 \). More precisely, we divide all irreps (and by consequence their corresponding subspaces) into two sets: one set of *bad* irreps containing all irreps represented by diagrams \((\lambda_N, \lambda_M)\) where \( \lambda_N \) and \( \lambda_M \) only differ in their first row, and one set of *good* irreps containing all the other irreps (see Fig. 4). By this definition, the irrep corresponding to \( V_0 \) is bad, while the irrep corresponding to \( V_1 \) is good. The lower bound is based on the fact that it is hard to transfer weight onto good subspaces (in particular \( V_1 \)) starting from \( V_0 \). As mentioned in Section 3, from now on, we note the irreps only by their part under the first row; \((\lambda, \lambda')\) then denotes an irrep of \( S_N \times S_M \). Therefore, bad
Figure 4: We use $N = 17$ and $M = 21$. a) Example of a “bad” irrep $\lambda_N \times \lambda_M$: the shape of the diagrams below the first row for $S_N$ and $S_M$ are the same $\lambda$; b) Example of a “good” irrep: the shape of the diagram below the first line of $S_N$ is strictly included into the one for $S_M$.

Irreps are precisely those such that $\lambda = \lambda'$. Recall from Lemma 24 that constructing an adversary matrix $\tilde{\Gamma}$ amounts to assigning an eigenvalue to each irrep of $G$. We choose $\tilde{\Gamma}$ such that it has eigenvalue 0 on good irreps, and eigenvalue $\gamma_{|\lambda|}$ on a bad irrep $(\lambda, \lambda)$, which only depends on $|\lambda|$, i.e.,

$$\tilde{\Gamma} = \sum_{\lambda} \gamma_{|\lambda|} \Pi_{(\lambda, \lambda)};$$

where $\Pi_{(\lambda, \lambda)}$ is the projector onto the subspace corresponding to the irrep $(\lambda, \lambda')$. We set

$$\gamma_{|\lambda|} = \begin{cases} 1 - \frac{|\lambda|}{\sqrt{N}} & \text{if } \lambda < \sqrt{N} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Therefore, we have $\gamma_0 = 1$ and $0 \leq \gamma_{|\lambda|} \leq 1$ for any $\lambda$, and $\tilde{\Gamma}$ is a valid additive adversary matrix. Let $V_{\text{bad}}$ denote the direct-sum of the bad subspaces. Since $\rho^\oplus$ only has overlap $N/M$ over $V_{\text{bad}}$, we have $\text{tr}(\Pi_{\text{bad}} \rho^\ominus) \leq N/M$. Therefore, we can set the threshold eigenvalue $\tilde{\lambda} = 0$ and the base success probability $\eta = N/M$.

**Discussion.** From Theorem 26, we see that we need to compute the norm of a matrix $\Delta^l_x$ for each irrep $l$ of $G_x = S_{N-1} \times S_M$. We show that these matrices are non-zero only for three different types of irreps of $G_x$. Indeed, for irreps $k$ of $G$ and $l$ of $G_x$, the quantity $\gamma_k \text{tr} \left[ \Pi^\rho_k \Pi^\delta \Pi^l_{k1m1\leftarrow k2m2} \right]$ is non-zero only if: ① $k$ is a bad irrep (otherwise $\gamma_k = 0$); ② $k$ and $l$ restrict to a common irrep of $G_{xy} = S_{N-1} \times S_{M-1}$ (otherwise the product of the projectors is zero). The restrictions of an irrep $(\lambda, \lambda')$ of $G$ to $G_{xy}$ are obtained by removing one box from each of the diagrams $\lambda$ and $\lambda'$. Similarly, the restrictions of an irrep $(\lambda, \lambda')$ of $G_x$ to $G_{xy}$ are obtained by removing one box from $\lambda'$. ③ Note that not all irreps of $G_{xy}$ appear in the projector $\Pi^\rho_y$, as it projects on all injective functions such that $f(x) = y$. Therefore, this set is isomorphic to the set of injective functions from $[N-1]$ to $[M-1]$, and we know that the irrep $U$ acting on this set is multiplicity-free, and that only irreps $(\lambda, \lambda')$ where $\lambda$ is contained in $\lambda'$ can occur. Altogether, this implies that only three type of irreps of $G_x = S_{N-1} \times S_M$ lead to non-zero matrices (see Fig. 5).

1. $l = (\lambda, \lambda)$: Same diagram for $S_{N-1}$ and $S_M$ below the first row. This irrep has multiplicity one since there is only one way to induce to a valid irrep of $S_N \times S_M$, by adding a box in the first row of the left diagram, leading to irrep $k = (\lambda, \lambda)$.
2. $l = (\lambda, \lambda')$: Diagram for $S_M$ has one additional box below the first row. This irrep has multiplicity two since there are two ways to induce to a valid irrep of $S_N \times S_M$, by adding a box either in the first row, leading to $k = (\lambda, \lambda')$, or at the missing place below the first row, leading to $k = (\lambda', \lambda')$. 

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Figure 5: In accordance with our convention, we draw only the part of the diagram below the first row. The condition ① imposes that the two diagrams on top have the same shape. From the first to the second row, one should remove one box to each diagram. When the removed box does not belong to the first row, it is shown in light gray. The condition ③ imposes that the left diagram is included into the right one. The condition ② gives the third row of diagrams. Finally we have 3 "generic" types of irreps: case 1 (blue) where the irreps have the same shape; case 2 (green) where the right diagram has one more box; and case 3 (red) where the right diagram has 2 more boxes.

3. $l = (\lambda, \lambda^{++})$: Diagram for $S_M$ has two additional boxes below the first row. This irrep has multiplicity three since there are three ways to induce to a valid irrep of $S_N \times S_M$, by adding a box either in the first row, leading to $k = (\lambda^{++})$, or at one of the missing places below the first row, leading to $k = (\lambda^{--}, \lambda^{++})$.

Let us now consider these three cases separately.

Case $(\lambda, \lambda)$. Since this irrep has multiplicity one, we just need to compute a scalar. As an irrep of $S_{N-1} \times S_M$, $(\lambda, \lambda)$ restricts to only one valid irrep of $S_{N-1} \times S_{M-1}$, by removing a box on the first row of the right diagram, therefore this irrep is also labeled $(\lambda, \lambda)$. Inducing from this irrep of $S_{N-1} \times S_{M-1}$ to $S_N \times S_M$, we obtain three valid irreps, two "bad" ones, $(\lambda, \lambda)$ and $(\lambda^{-}, \lambda^{+})$, and a good one, $(\lambda, \lambda^{+})$. To differentiate between projectors of irreps of the different groups, we will from now on use superscripts (for example $\Pi^{N,M}_{\lambda,\lambda}$ denotes a projector on the irrep $(\lambda, \lambda)$ of $S_N \times S_M$). We therefore have from Theorem 26

$$
\Delta^{\lambda,\lambda}_{\lambda} = \frac{\gamma_{|\lambda|}}{d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M}} \sum_y \text{tr} \left[ \Pi^{N,M}_{y,\lambda,\lambda} \Pi^{2,N-1,M}_{y,\lambda,\lambda} \right] + \frac{\gamma_{|\lambda|+1}}{d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M}} \sum_y \text{tr} \left[ \Pi^{N,M}_{y,\lambda^{+},\lambda^{+}} \Pi^{2,N-1,M}_{y,\lambda,\lambda} \right] - \gamma_{|\lambda|}
$$

$$
= \frac{M \gamma_{|\lambda|}}{d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M} d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1}} \cdot \text{tr} \left[ \Pi^{N-1,M-1,N,M}_{\lambda,\lambda,\lambda} \right] \cdot \text{tr} \left[ \Pi^{N-1,M-1,N,M}_{\lambda,\lambda,\lambda} \right] - \gamma_{|\lambda|},
$$

$$
+ \frac{M \gamma_{|\lambda|+1}}{d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M} d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1}} \cdot \text{tr} \left[ \Pi^{N-1,M-1,N,M}_{\lambda,\lambda,\lambda^{+}} \right] \cdot \text{tr} \left[ \Pi^{N-1,M-1,N,M}_{\lambda,\lambda,\lambda^{+}} \right] - \gamma_{|\lambda|},
$$

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where we have used Lemma 27 and the fact that all terms in the sum over \( y \) are equal by symmetry. We also have

\[
\text{tr} \left[ \Pi^{N-1,M-1}_{\lambda,\lambda} \Pi^{N,M}_{\lambda,\lambda} \right] = \text{tr} \left[ \Pi^{N-1,M-1}_{\lambda,\lambda} \Pi^{N,M}_{\lambda,\lambda} \right],
\]

since the only way for \((\lambda, \lambda)\) as an irrep of \( S_N \times S_M \) to restrict to \((\lambda, \lambda)\) as an irrep of \( S_{N-1} \times S_{M-1} \) is to first restrict to \((\lambda, \lambda)\) as an irrep of \( S_{N-1} \times S_{M-1} \), and similarly for \((\lambda^+, \lambda^+)\). Therefore, we only have two traces to compute. For the first one, we consider the maximally mixed state \( \rho^{N-1,M-1}_{\lambda,\lambda} \) over the corresponding irrep. By inducing from \( S_{M-1} \) to \( S_M \) we find that its overlap over the irrep \((\lambda, \lambda)\) of \( S_{N-1} \times S_{M-1} \) is given by

\[
\text{tr} \left[ \rho^{N-1,M-1}_{\lambda,\lambda} \Pi^{N-1,M}_{\lambda,\lambda} \right] = \frac{d^{N-1,M}}{M d^{N-1,M-1}_\lambda} = \frac{d^M}{M d^{M-1}_\lambda}.
\]

Similarly, we obtain

\[
\text{tr} \left[ \rho^{N-1,M-1}_{\lambda,\lambda} \Pi^{N,M-1}_{\lambda^+,\lambda^+} \right] = \frac{d^{N,M-1}}{N d^{N-1,M-1}_{\lambda^+}} = \frac{d^N}{N d^{N-1}_{\lambda^+}},
\]

and finally

\[
\Delta^{\lambda,\lambda}_x = \gamma |\lambda| \frac{d^M}{M d^{M-1}_\lambda} + \gamma |\lambda| + 1 \frac{d^N}{N d^{N-1}_{\lambda^+}} - \gamma |\lambda| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} + O\left(\frac{1}{N}\right),
\]

where we have used the hook-length formula for dimensions of irreps and the fact that the number of boxes \(|\lambda|\) below the first row is at most \(\sqrt{N} \), otherwise \(\gamma |\lambda| = 0\).

**Case** \((\lambda, \lambda^+)\). This irrep has multiplicity two, so we need to compute a \(2 \times 2\) matrix. Let \((\lambda, \lambda^+, 1)\) denote the copy of \((\lambda, \lambda^+)\) irrep of \( S_{N-1} \times S_M \) which is inside the \((\lambda^+, \lambda^+)\) irrep of \( S_N \times S_M \). Let \((\lambda, \lambda^+, 2)\) denote the copy of \((\lambda, \lambda^+)\) irrep of \( S_{N-1} \times S_M \) which is inside the \((\lambda, \lambda^+)\) irrep of \( S_N \times S_M \). Let the first row and the first column of \(\Delta^{\lambda,\lambda_+}_x\) be indexed by \((\lambda, \lambda^+, 1)\) and the second row and the second column be indexed by \((\lambda, \lambda^+, 2)\).

An irrep \((\lambda, \lambda^+)\) of \( S_{N-1} \times S_M \) restricts to two valid irreps of \( S_{N-1} \times S_{M-1} \): \((\lambda, \lambda)\) and \((\lambda, \lambda^+)\). Those two irreps can be induced to the following bad irreps of \( S_N \times S_M \): \((\lambda, \lambda)\) and any irrep \((\lambda', \lambda')\) which has one more square below the first row than \(\lambda\). \((\lambda'\) may be equal or different from \(\lambda^+).\)

For brevity, we denote \(\Delta^{\lambda,\lambda^+}_x\) simply by \(\Delta\). Since \((\lambda, \lambda^+, 1)\) is contained inside a bad irrep of
\[ S_N \times S_M, \text{ we have} \]

\[
\Delta_{1,1} = \frac{\gamma_{\lambda}}{d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M}} \sum_y \left[ \Pi_y^{N,M} \Pi_y^{N-1,M} \right] + \frac{\gamma_{\lambda+1}}{d_{\lambda,\lambda+1}^{N-1,M}} \sum_{\lambda'} \sum_y \left[ \Pi_y^{N,M} \Pi_y^{N-1,M} \right] - \gamma_{\lambda+1}
\]

\[
= \frac{M \gamma_{\lambda}}{d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M} d_{\lambda,\lambda+1}^{N-1,M}} \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1} \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N,M} \right] \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1} \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda+1}^{N-1,M} \right] + \frac{M \gamma_{\lambda+1}}{d_{\lambda,\lambda+1}^{N-1,M}} \left( \sum_{\lambda'} \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda+1}^{N-1,M-1} \Pi_{\lambda',\lambda'}^{N,M} \right] \right) \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda+1}^{N-1,M-1} \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda+1}^{N-1,M} \right] - \gamma_{\lambda+1}
\]

We start by evaluating the sum

\[
\sum_{\lambda'} \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1} \Pi_{\lambda',\lambda'}^{N,M} \right].
\]

We consider the maximally mixed state \( \rho_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1} \) over the corresponding irrep of \( S_{N-1} \times S_{M-1} \). By inducing \( \lambda \) from \( S_{N-1} \) to \( S_N \), we find that the dimension of the induced representation is \( N d_{\lambda}^{N-1} \) and the induced representation decomposes into irreps \( \lambda \) of \( S_N \), with dimension \( d_{\lambda}^N \) and irreps \( \lambda' \). Therefore,

\[
\sum_{\lambda'} \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N,M} \rho_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1} \right] = 1 - \frac{d_{\lambda}^N}{N d_{\lambda}^{N-1}} \leq 1 - \frac{1}{N} \quad (9)
\]

where the inequality follows by comparing the hook-length formulas of \( d_{\lambda}^N \) and \( d_{\lambda}^{N-1} \). Similarly, we have

\[
\text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N,M} \rho_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1} \right] = O \left( \frac{1}{N} \right). \quad (10)
\]

We now evaluate a similar quantity for \( \rho_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1} \). By inducing \( \lambda^+ \) from \( S_{M-1} \) to \( S_M \), we find that the dimension of the induced representation is \( M d_{\lambda^+}^{M-1} \) and the induced representation decomposes into irreps \( \lambda^+ \) of \( S_M \), with dimension \( d_{\lambda}^M \) and irreps \( \lambda^{++} \) which have one more square below the first row than \( \lambda^+ \). Therefore,

\[
\text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N,M} \rho_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1} \right] = \frac{d_{\lambda}^M}{M d_{\lambda}^{M-1}} = O \left( \frac{1}{M} \right). \quad (11)
\]

By using eqs. (9), (10) and (11), we have

\[
\Delta_{1,1} = \frac{M \gamma_{\lambda+1}}{d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M}} \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1} \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda+1}^{N-1,M} \right] + O \left( \frac{1}{N} \right) - \gamma_{\lambda+1}. \quad (12)
\]

We have

\[
\text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1} \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda+1}^{N-1,M} \right] = \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1} \Pi_{\lambda^+,\lambda^+}^{N,M} \right]
\]

because the other irreps of \( S_{N-1} \times S_M \) contained in the irrep \( (\lambda^+, \lambda^+) \) of \( S_N \times S_M \) have no overlap with the irrep \( (\lambda, \lambda) \) of \( S_{N-1} \times S_{M-1} \). Let \( \rho_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1} \) be the completely mixed state over \( (\lambda, \lambda) \). Then,

\[
\text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1} \Pi_{\lambda^+,\lambda^+}^{N,M} \right] = d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1} \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\lambda^+,\lambda^+}^{N-1,M-1} \right] = d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1} \frac{d_{\lambda}^N}{N d_{\lambda}^{N-1}}.
\]

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Here, the second equality follows by inducing $\lambda$ from $S_{N-1}$ to $S_N$. We have

$$d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1}\frac{d_{\lambda}^N}{Nd_{\lambda}^{N-1}} = d_{\lambda}^{N-1}\frac{d_{\lambda}^M}{Nd_{\lambda}^{N-1}} = \frac{d_{\lambda}^{M-1}d_{\lambda}^N}{N}.$$  

By matching up the terms in hook-length formulas, we have

$$d_{\lambda}^{M-1}d_{\lambda}^N = \left(1 + O\left(\frac{1}{N}\right)\right)\frac{N}{M}d_{\lambda}^{N-1}d_{\lambda}^M. \tag{13}$$

Therefore,

$$\text{tr}\left[\Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1}\Pi_{\lambda^+,\lambda^+}^{N,M}\right] = \left(1 + O\left(\frac{1}{N}\right)\right)\frac{d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M}}{M}. \tag{14}$$

and

$$\Delta_{1,1} = O\left(\frac{1}{N}\right).$$

Similarly to eq. (12), we have

$$\Delta_{2,2} = \frac{M\gamma(\lambda+1)}{d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1}}\text{tr}\left[\Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1}\Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1}\right] + O\left(\frac{1}{N}\right). \tag{15}$$

We have

$$\text{tr}\left[\Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1}\Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1}\right] = \text{tr}\left[\Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1}\Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1}\right] = \frac{d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1}}{d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1}},$$

because the other irreps of $S_{N-1} \times S_M$ contained in the irrep $(\lambda, \lambda^+)$ of $S_N \times S_M$ have no overlap with the irrep $(\lambda, \lambda)$ of $S_{N-1} \times S_{M-1}$.

By inducing $\lambda$ from $S_{M-1}$ to $S_M$, we get

$$\text{tr}\left[\Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N,M-1}\Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1}\right] + \text{tr}\left[\Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N,M-1}\Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1}\right] = \frac{d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{M-1}}{M d_{\lambda}^{M-1}}. \tag{16}$$

By inducing $\lambda$ from $S_{N-1}$ to $S_N$, we get

$$\text{tr}\left[\Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N,M-1}\Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1}\right] = \frac{d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1}}{Nd_{\lambda}^{N-1}}. \tag{17}$$

By subtracting eq. (17) from eq. (16), we get

$$\text{tr}\left[\Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N,M-1}\Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1}\right] = \frac{d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{M-1}d_{\lambda}^N}{M d_{\lambda}^{N-1}} - \frac{d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{M-1}d_{\lambda}^{N-1}}{Nd_{\lambda}^{N-1}}.$$

Because of eq. (13),

$$\text{tr}\left[\Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1}\Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N,M}\right] = O\left(\frac{d_{\lambda,\lambda}^{M-1}d_{\lambda}^{N-1}}{M N}\right). \tag{18}$$

By substituting this into eq. (15), we get $\Delta_{2,2} = O\left(\frac{1}{N}\right)$.  

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Last, we have to bound $\Delta_{1,2}$ and $\Delta_{2,1}$. Similarly to eq. (12), we have

$$\Delta_{i,j} = \frac{M \gamma_{i,j}}{d_{\lambda,\lambda^+}^{N,1,M}} \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda}^{N-1,M-1} \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda^+}^{N-1,M} \right] + O \left( \frac{1}{N} \right).$$

By using Lemma 27 and eqs. (14) and (18), we get

$$\Delta_{i,j} = O \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \right).$$

We have shown that $\Delta_{i,j} = O(\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}})$ for all $i,j$. Therefore, $\|\Delta\| = O(\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}})$.

**Case** $(\lambda, \lambda^{++})$. This irrep of $S_{N-1} \times S_M$ has multiplicity three, so we need to bound the elements of a $3 \times 3$ matrix. Let $(\lambda, \lambda^{++}, 1)$ denote the copy of the irrep that lies inside the irrep $(\lambda, \lambda^{++})$ of $(S_N \times S_M)$, $(\lambda, \lambda^{++}, 2)$ be the copy that lies inside the irrep $(\lambda^{+}, \lambda^{++})$ of $(S_N \times S_M)$, and $(\lambda, \lambda^{++}, 3)$ be the copy that lies inside the irrep $(\lambda^{+}, \lambda^{++})$ of $(S_N \times S_M)$, where $\lambda^{+}$ and $\lambda^{++}$ correspond to the two different ways a box can be added to $\lambda$. Since these two last copies have exactly the same structure, they can be treated similarly and we really need to compute only 4 different matrix elements (2 diagonal elements and 2 non-diagonal elements). Let us also note that none of these copies are contained in bad irreps of $S_N \times S_M$.

Let us now denote $\Delta_{\lambda,\lambda^{++}}$ by $\Delta$, and index the rows and columns of this matrix by the three copies of the irrep. Note that the irrep $(\lambda, \lambda^{++})$ of $S_{N-1} \times S_M$ restricts to three valid irreps of $S_{N-1} \times S_{M-1}$: $(\lambda, \lambda^{++})$, $(\lambda, \lambda^{+})$ and $(\lambda, \lambda^{++})$. Also only these last two irreps induce two bad irreps of $S_N \times S_M$, $(\lambda^{+}, \lambda^{++})$ and $(\lambda^{+}, \lambda^{++})$, respectively. Therefore, we have for the first diagonal element

$$\Delta_{1,1} = \frac{\gamma_{1,1}}{d_{\lambda,\lambda^{++}}^{N-1,M-1}} \sum y \left\{ \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{y}^{N,M} \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda^{++},1}^{N-1,M} \right] + \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{y}^{N,M} \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda^{++},1}^{N-1,M} \right] \right\}$$

$$= \frac{2 M \gamma_{1,1} d_{\lambda,\lambda^{++}}^{N-1,M-1}}{d_{\lambda,\lambda^{++}}^{N-1,M}} \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda^{++},1}^{N,M} \rho_{\lambda,\lambda^{++}}^{N-1,M-1} \right] \cdot \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda^{++},1}^{N-1,M} \rho_{\lambda,\lambda^{++}}^{N-1,M-1} \right].$$

Studying as before the overlap of $\rho_{\lambda,\lambda^{++}}^{N-1,M-1}$ over the irreps of $S_N \times S_M$, we obtain for the two traces

$$\text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda^{++},1}^{N,M} \rho_{\lambda,\lambda^{++}}^{N-1,M-1} \right] \leq \frac{d_{\lambda^{++}}^{N}}{M d_{\lambda^{++}}^{N-1}}, \quad (19)$$

$$\text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda^{++},1}^{N-1,M} \rho_{\lambda,\lambda^{++}}^{N-1,M-1} \right] = \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_{\lambda,\lambda^{++},1}^{N-1,M} \rho_{\lambda,\lambda^{++}}^{N-1,M-1} \right] \leq \frac{d_{\lambda^{++}}^{N}}{N d_{\lambda^{++}}^{N-1}}, \quad (20)$$

and in turn

$$\Delta_{1,1} \leq \frac{2 M \gamma_{1,1} d_{\lambda^{++}}^{N} d_{\lambda^{++}}^{N}}{N d_{\lambda^{++}}^{N-1} d_{\lambda^{++}}^{N-1}} = O \left( \frac{1}{MN} \right).$$

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For the second diagonal element, we find similarly
\[
\Delta_{2,2} = \frac{\gamma|\lambda|+1}{d_{\lambda,\lambda^+}^{N-1,M}} \sum_y \left\{ \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_y^{N,M} \Pi_0^{N-1,M} \right] + \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_y^{N,M} \Pi_0^{N-1,M} \right] \right\}
\]
\[
= M\gamma|\lambda|+1d_{\lambda,\lambda^+}^{N-1,M} \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_0^{N,M} \Pi_0^{N-1,M} \right] \cdot \left\{ \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_0^{N-1,M} \rho_0^{N-1,M} \right] + \text{tr} \left[ \Pi_0^{N-1,M} \rho_0^{N-1,M} \right] \right\}
\]
\[
\leq \frac{2\gamma|\lambda|+1d_{\lambda,\lambda^+}^{M}}{d_{\lambda,\lambda^+}^{M}} = O \left( \frac{1}{M} \right),
\]
where we have used eq. (20) and the fact that the other overlaps are at most 1.

Using exactly the same arguments, we find for the non-diagonal elements
\[
|\Delta_{1,2}| \leq \frac{2\gamma|\lambda|+1d_{\lambda,\lambda^+}^{M}}{d_{\lambda,\lambda^+}^{M}} \sqrt{\frac{d_{\lambda^+}^{N}}{N}} = O \left( \frac{1}{M\sqrt{N}} \right),
\]
\[
|\Delta_{2,3}| \leq \frac{2\gamma|\lambda|+1d_{\lambda,\lambda^+}^{M}}{d_{\lambda,\lambda^+}^{M}} = O \left( \frac{1}{M} \right).
\]

Since the irreps \((\lambda, \lambda^+, 2)\) and \((\lambda, \lambda^+, 3)\) are of the same type, we also have \(\Delta_{3,3} = O(1/M)\) and \(\Delta_{1,3} = O(1/(M\sqrt{N}))\). Therefore, all elements of \(\Delta\) are at most \(O(1/M)\), so that \(\|\Delta\| = O(1/M)\).

Finally, since the matrices corresponding to all irreps have norm at most \(O(1/\sqrt{N})\), we have from Theorem 26 \(\|\tilde{\Gamma}_x - \tilde{\Gamma}_y\| = O(1/\sqrt{N})\), and in turn
\[
Q_{\varepsilon}(\text{INDEX ERASURE}) = \Omega \left( (\sqrt{1-\varepsilon} - \sqrt{N/M})^2 \sqrt{N} \right).
\]

\[\square\]

8 Conclusions and outlook

The hybrid adversary method we introduced in this paper has a strength that—in a precise, mathematical sense—lies between that of the known additive and of the multiplicative adversary methods. In our opinion, our new method combines the advantages of the additive and multiplicative bounds: (i) it is not more complicated to use than the additive method and (ii) it can lead to lower bounds even for cases of algorithms with small success probability, like the multiplicative method. Furthermore, it can prove lower bounds for quantum state generation problems. We have also shown how to leverage the symmetries of a problem to simplify the computation of the adversary bound, using group representation theory. Altogether, this allowed us to prove a new and tight lower bound for the INDEX ERASURE problem.

There are several directions for future research that might present themselves as this point. By clarifying the relation between the different adversary methods, we are one step closer to a proof that the additive bound satisfies a strong direct product theorem like the multiplicative bound. Indeed, our results imply that it is sufficient to prove that whenever the multiplicative adversary method can prove a lower bound in the limit \(\lambda \to 1\), there exists some fixed \(\lambda > 1\) which leads to the same bound. The most important consequence would be for the quantum query complexity.
of functions, which would itself satisfy a strong direct product theorem for any function, since the additive adversary method is known to be tight in that case \cite{Rei09,LMRS10}.

As far as GRAPH ISOMORPHISM is concerned, one natural question to consider is if the methods can be extended beyond the model considered here. In particular to allow more powerful oracles that do not have such strong restrictions for the access to the graphs. One interesting open question is if a limitation can be shown for any quantum walk based approach to GRAPH ISOMORPHISM. The results shown in this paper are a first step in this direction but significantly new ideas would be necessary. Finally, there is an open question that touches on the issue of “junk”: in the paper we showed lower bounds for the coherent quantum state generation problem. We conjecture that the extension to the case where some undesired state is generated along with the target state should also be possible, however, we have not been able to establish this result so far.

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