

Quantum complexity of permutations

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Abstract: Quantum complexity of a unitary measures the runtime of quantum computers. In this article, we study the complexity of a special type of unitaries, permutations. Let S_n be the symmetric group of all permutations of $\{1, \dots, n\}$ with two generators: the transposition and the cyclic permutation (denoted by σ and τ). The permutations $\{\sigma, \tau, \tau^{-1}\}$ serve as logic gates. We give an explicit construction of permutations in S_n with quadratic quantum complexity lower bound $\frac{n^2-2n-7}{4}$. We also prove that all permutations in S_n have quadratic quantum complexity upper bound $3(n-1)^2$. Finally, we show that almost all permutations in S_n have quadratic quantum complexity lower bound when $n \rightarrow \infty$. The method described in this paper may shed light on the complexity problem for general unitaries in quantum computation.

1. Introduction

A quantum computation is a unitary transformation implemented by a given finite set of unitary transformations called logic gates. Quantum complexity of a unitary transformation is then defined as the smallest number of logic gates needed to implement the unitary transformation (cf. [1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12]). A central problem in quantum computation is to estimate the quantum complexity of a unitary. In [1, 2, 7, 8, 11], a geometric method was developed to investigate quantum complexity. Quantum complexity has also been found to have surprising connections to high energy physics. For example, it is conjectured by Stanford and Susskind that quantum complexity is dual to wormhole volume in quantum field theory [13].

In this article, we use a combination of geometric ideas with combinatorial techniques to study the quantum complexity of permutations, a special type of unitary transformations. Permutations plays an important role in quantum computations. For example, the swap gate is a widely-used permutation in quantum computation. It is well known that the matchgate can be simulated in a classical computer in polynomial time [14]. However, the matchgate

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together with the swap gate is universal in the sense that any quantum computation can be (approximately) implemented by a sequence of these gates [15].

The main results of this article are as follows. First, we give an explicit construction of permutations with quadratic quantum complexity lower bound $\frac{n^2-2n-7}{4}$. Secondly, we show that all permutations have quadratic quantum complexity upper bound $3(n-1)^2$. Finally, we prove that almost all permutations have quadratic quantum complexity lower bound $\frac{1}{32}n^2 - 3$.

We define the symmetric group S_n to be the group of all permutations of the set $\{1, \dots, n\}$. Let σ be the permutation: $\sigma(1) = 2, \sigma(2) = 1$, and $\sigma(i) = i$ if $i \neq 1, 2$, and let τ be the cyclic permutation: $\tau(1) = 2, \tau(2) = 3, \dots, \tau(n-1) = n, \tau(n) = 1$. The permutations σ and τ generate the symmetric group S_n in the sense that every element in S_n can be written as the product of a sequence of permutations from $\{\sigma, \tau, \tau^{-1}\}$ (cf. Theorem 1.4).

A quantum computation can be described as a sequence of logic gates. In our model, we choose the generators σ, τ , and τ^{-1} as logic gates. One motivation for choosing these logic gates is that they are essentially the smallest set of generators to implement all permutations. Since any permutation can be expressed as a product of a sequence of the chosen logic gates, a quantum computation is equivalent to a permutation. Quantum complexity of a permutation is then the smallest number in a sequence of these gates needed to implement the permutation. It is a natural problem to estimate quantum complexity of permutations in S_n .

In the following theorem, we construct an explicit permutation with quadratic quantum complexity lower bound (such a permutation is also called quadratically hard to implement).

Theorem 1.1. *If ω is the permutation of the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ defined as follows:*

$$\begin{aligned} \omega(1) = 1, \omega(2) = 3, \dots, \omega\left(\frac{n+1}{2}\right) = n, \omega\left(\frac{n+1}{2} + 1\right) = 2, \\ \omega\left(\frac{n+1}{2} + 2\right) = 4, \dots, \omega(n) = n - 1 \end{aligned}$$

when n is odd, and

$$\begin{aligned} \omega(1) = 1, \omega(2) = 3, \dots, \omega\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) = n - 1, \omega\left(\frac{n}{2} + 1\right) = 2, \omega\left(\frac{n}{2} + 2\right) = 4, \\ \dots, \omega(n) = n \end{aligned}$$

when n is even, then ω has quadratic quantum complexity lower bound $\frac{n^2-2n-7}{4}$, more precisely, if we write

$$\omega = \rho_1 \cdots \rho_l$$

with each ρ_i ($1 \leq i \leq l$) being a permutation from the generating set $\{\sigma, \tau, \tau^{-1}\}$, then

$$l \geq \frac{n^2 - 2n - 7}{4}.$$

The following very bumpiness concept provides the intuition why the permutation in Theorem 1.1 has quadratic quantum complexity lower bound.

Definition 1.2. We identify the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ with the set of all integers modulo n . A permutation ω of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is said to be very bumpy if, for each $k \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n - 1\}$,

$$\#\{ i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\} : d(k + \omega(i), i) \geq \frac{n}{8} \} \geq \frac{n}{4},$$

where addition is performed modulo n and $d(x, y) = \min\{|x - y|, n - |x - y|\}$.

The next theorem gives a quadratic quantum complexity lower bound for very bumpy permutations.

Theorem 1.3. If a permutation ω of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is very bumpy, then ω has quadratic quantum complexity lower bound, more precisely, if we write

$$\omega = \rho_1 \cdots \rho_l$$

with each ρ_i ($1 \leq i \leq l$) being a permutation from the generating set $\{\sigma, \tau, \tau^{-1}\}$, then

$$l \geq \frac{n^2}{32} - 3.$$

The following result gives a quadratic upper bound for quantum complexity of all permutations.

Theorem 1.4. Every permutation in S_n has quantum complexity upper bound $3(n - 1)^2$, more precisely, for any permutation $\omega \in S_n$, we can write

$$\omega = \rho_1 \cdots \rho_j$$

with each ρ_i ($1 \leq i \leq j$) being a permutation from the generating set $\{\sigma, \tau, \tau^{-1}\}$ and

$$j \leq 3(n - 1)^2.$$

Theorem 1.1 implies that the quadratic quantum complexity upper bound in the above theorem is optimal for permutations.

Our final theorem says that a permutation has quadratic quantum complexity lower bound with probability 1 (as $n \rightarrow \infty$).

Theorem 1.5. *Almost all permutations have quadratic quantum complexity lower bound, more precisely, the ratio of the number of permutations in S_n with quantum complexity lower bound $\frac{1}{32}n^2 - 3$ over $\#S_n = n!$ goes to 1 when $n \rightarrow \infty$, where $\#S_n$ is the number of elements in the symmetric group S_n .*

We prove the above theorem by showing that almost all permutations are very bumpy.

The rest of this article is structured as follows. In Section 2, we introduce a discrete geometry method to study quantum complexity lower bound. In Section 3, we give an explicit construction of permutations with quadratic quantum complexity lower bound and prove that very bumpy permutations have quadratic quantum complexity lower bound. In Section 4, we show that all permutations have quadratic quantum complexity upper bound. In Section 5, we prove that almost all permutations have quadratic quantum complexity lower bound.

2. Discrete geometry and quantum complexity lower bound

In this section, we introduce a discrete geometry method for deriving lower bounds for the quantum complexity of any permutation. In the next section, we will combine this method with other combinatorial ideas to give an explicit construction of permutations with quadratic quantum complexity lower bound.

A pair of elements $\{x, y\}$ in $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ are said to be neighbors if $|x - y| = 1$ or $\{x, y\} = \{1, n\}$. We will introduce a discrete path distance d on the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ such that the distance between two neighbors is 1.

A function ϕ from $\{1, \dots, k\}$ to $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is called a discrete path if $\phi(i)$ and $\phi(i+1)$ are either neighbors or $\phi(i) = \phi(i+1)$ for each $i = 1, \dots, k-1$. The length of the discrete path ϕ is defined to be

$$d(\phi(1), \phi(2)) + \dots + d(\phi(k-1), \phi(k)),$$

where

$$d(\phi(i), \phi(i+1)) = 1$$

if $\phi(i)$ and $\phi(i+1)$ are neighbors as defined above, and

$$d(\phi(i), \phi(i+1)) = 0$$

if $\phi(i) = \phi(i + 1)$.

A discrete path ϕ as defined above is said to be connecting a pair of elements $\{x, y\}$ in $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ if

$$\phi(1) = x, \quad \phi(k) = y.$$

Definition 2.1. The discrete path distance on $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is defined as follows. For any pair $\{x, y\}$ in $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, the discrete path distance between x and y is defined to be the length of the shortest discrete path connecting x to y .

The following basic fact plays an essential role in the proof of Theorem 1.1 and Theorem 1.2.

Lemma 2.2. *The discrete path distance between any pair of point x and y in $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is equal to*

$$d(x, y) = \min\{|x - y|, n - |x - y|\}.$$

Proof of Lemma 2.2. We place $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ on a circle such that two neighbors from $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ are adjacent to each other on the circle. One way to do this is to place each k from 1 to n at the position $\exp(\frac{2\pi ki}{n}) = \cos(\frac{2\pi ki}{n}) + i \sin(\frac{2\pi ki}{n})$ on the unit circle in the complex plane.

We claim that there exists a shortest discrete path ϕ connecting x to y such that

- (1) $\phi(i) \neq \phi(i + 1)$ for all $i = 1, \dots, k - 1$;
- (2) the sequence $\phi(1), \dots, \phi(k)$, is ordered either clockwise or anti-clockwise on the circle.

We first show that there exists a shortest discrete path ϕ such that $\phi(i) \neq \phi(i + 1)$ for all $i = 1, \dots, k - 1$. Let ϕ be a shortest discrete path connecting x to y . Assume by contradiction, there exists i_0 such that $\phi(i_0) = \phi(i_0 + 1)$. We can define a new discrete path ϕ' connecting x to y as follows: $\phi'(i) = \phi(i)$ for $i \leq i_0$ and $\phi'(i) = \phi(i + 1)$ for $i_0 + 1 \leq i \leq k - 1$. Note that ϕ' is a discrete path defined on $\{1, \dots, k - 1\}$ satisfying $\phi'(1) = x$ and $\phi'(k - 1) = y$. It is easy to see that the length of ϕ' is equal to the length of ϕ . If ϕ' satisfies the above condition (1), then ϕ' is our desired discrete path. Otherwise, we repeat the same procedure until we obtain a shortest path satisfying the above condition (1). Notice that this process stops at some point since each time we perform this procedure, the size of the domain of the new discrete path decreases by one element.

We now assume that ϕ is a shortest discrete path connecting x to y and satisfies condition (1). Without loss of generality, we can assume that $\phi(1), \phi(2)$ are ordered clockwise on the circle. Assume that by contradiction that there exists i such that $\phi(i), \phi(i+1)$ are ordered anti-clockwise on the circle. Let i_0 be the smallest integer such that $\phi(i_0), \phi(i_0+1)$ are ordered anti-clockwise on the circle. By the assumption that $\phi(1), \phi(2)$ are ordered clockwise on the circle, we know that $i_0 \geq 2$. Since ϕ satisfies the above condition (1), it follows that $\phi(i_0+1) = \phi(i_0-1)$. Let ϕ' be a new discrete path connecting x to y defined as follows: $\phi'(i) = \phi(i)$ for $i \leq i_0 - 1$ and $\phi'(i) = \phi(i+2)$ for $i_0 \leq i \leq k-2$. Notice that the length of ϕ' is less than the length of ϕ . This is a contradiction with the assumption that ϕ is a shortest discrete path connecting x to y .

Now let ϕ be a shortest path connecting x to y satisfying the above conditions (1) and (2). The discrete path ϕ have two possibilities, one going clockwise on the circle and the other going anti-clockwise on the circle. The lengths of the two discrete paths connecting x to y in these two possibilities are respectively $|x-y|$ and $n-|x-y|$. Since ϕ be a shortest path connecting x to y , the length of ϕ is

$$\min\{|x-y|, n-|x-y|\}. \quad \square$$

We have the following result, which gives a lower bound for the quantum complexity of any permutation.

Theorem 2.3. *Let β be the permutation of the set $\{1, \dots, n\}$. If*

$$\beta = \rho_1 \cdots \rho_m$$

with each ρ_i ($1 \leq i \leq m$) being a permutation from the generating set $\{\sigma, \tau, \tau^{-1}\}$, then

$$m \geq \min\{|k - \beta(k)|, n - |k - \beta(k)|\}$$

for all $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$.

An interesting example is the transposition $(1 \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor)$ switching 1 with $\frac{n}{2}$. By Theorem 2.3, this transposition has linear quantum complexity lower bound and by Lemma 4.1 it also has linear quantum complexity upper bound.

Proof of Theorem 2.3. Let

$$\beta = \rho_1 \cdots \rho_m$$

with each ρ_i ($1 \leq i \leq m$) being a permutation from the generating set $\{\sigma, \tau, \tau^{-1}\}$.

We define a discrete path ϕ in $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ as follows:

$$\phi(1) = k, \phi(2) = \rho_m(k), \phi(3) = (\rho_{m-1}\rho_m)(k), \dots, \phi(m+1) = (\rho_1 \cdots \rho_m)(k).$$

A crucial observation is that each permutation ρ_i is an element from the generating set $\{\sigma, \tau, \tau^{-1}\}$ and hence it moves elements in $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ by distance at most 1, where the distance is as defined in Definition 2.1. It follows that ϕ is a discrete path as defined at the beginning of this section.

By definition, we have $\phi(1) = k$ and $\phi(m+1) = \beta(k)$. This implies that

$$d(\phi(1), \phi(m+1)) = d(k, \beta(k)),$$

where d is the discrete path distance as in Definition 2.1. By Lemma 2.2, it follows that the length of the discrete path ϕ is greater than or equal to $\min\{|k - \beta(k)|, n - |k - \beta(k)|\}$. By the definition of length of a discrete path, the length of ϕ is less than or equal to m .

Combining the above two facts, we conclude that

$$m \geq \min\{|k - \beta(k)|, n - |k - \beta(k)|\}. \quad \square$$

3. Explicitly constructed permutations with quadratic quantum complexity lower bound

In this section, we combine the discrete geometric method from Section 2 with new combinatorial ideas to give an explicit construction of permutations with quadratic quantum complexity lower bound. We prove that very bumpy permutations have quadratic quantum complexity lower bound.

We need a few preparations. The following lemma plays an essential role in the explicit construction of permutations with quadratic quantum complexity lower bound.

Lemma 3.1. *Let ω be a permutation of $\{1, \dots, n\}$ defined by*

$$\omega(1) = k_1, \dots, \omega(n) = k_n.$$

We arrange the set

$$\{d(1, k_1), d(2, k_2), \dots, d(n, k_n)\}$$

in a non-increasing order as follows:

$$d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n,$$

where d is the discrete path distance in Definition 2.1. If

$$\omega = (l_t \ l_t + 1) \cdots (l_1 \ l_1 + 1),$$

then for any $1 \leq m \leq \frac{n}{2}$, we have

$$t \geq d_1 + d_2 + \cdots + d_{2m} - m^2.$$

Proof of Lemma 3.1. Let

$$\omega_0 = I, \quad \omega_1 = (l_1 \ l_1 + 1), \quad \omega_2 = (l_2 \ l_2 + 1)(l_1 \ l_1 + 1), \quad \dots,$$

$$\omega_t = (l_t \ l_t + 1) \cdots (l_1 \ l_1 + 1).$$

We identify the set $\{1, \dots, n\}$ with the set of all integers modulo n . Place the elements of $\{1, \dots, n\}$ on the circle in the complex plane by sending $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ to $\exp(\frac{2\pi k}{n})$. The notation $k + l$ will be interpreted as $k + l$ modulo n if k and l are elements of $\{1, \dots, n\}$.

For each $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, if $k_j \neq j$, we define

$$e_j(0) = 0 < e_j(1) < \cdots < e_j(s_j)$$

with $\omega_{e_j(s_j)}(j) = k_j$ as follows.

Let $e_j(1)$ to be the largest integer such that

$$\omega_{e_j(1)-1}(j) = \omega_{e_j(0)}(j) = j$$

(note that $\omega_{e_j(1)}(j)$ is either $j - 1$ or $j + 1$).

Inductively, for each $i \geq 1$, if $\omega_{e_j(i-1)}(j) \neq k_j$, we define $e_j(i)$ to be the largest integer such that

$$\omega_{e_j(i)-1}(j) = \omega_{e_j(i-1)}(j).$$

Once $\omega_{e_j(i)}(j) = k_j$ for some i , we define this i to be s_j . The definition of $e_j(i)$ implies that $\omega_{e_j(i)}(j)$ is either $\omega_{e_j(i)-1}(j) - 1$ or $\omega_{e_j(i)-1}(j) + 1$. Hence either $\omega_{e_j(i)-1}(j) = l_{e_j(i)}$ or $\omega_{e_j(i)-1}(j) = l_{e_j(i)} + 1$.

By the definition of $\{e_j(1), \dots, e_j(s_j)\}$, we know that either the sequence

$$\begin{aligned} (\omega_{e_j(0)}(j) = \omega_{e_j(1)-1}(j), \quad \omega_{e_j(1)}(j) = \omega_{e_j(2)-1}(j), \dots, \\ \omega_{e_j(s_j-1)}(j) = \omega_{e_j(s_j)-1}(j), \omega_{e_j(s_j)}(j)) \end{aligned}$$

is in anti-clockwise order on the circle:

$$\begin{aligned} \omega_{e_j(0)}(j) = \omega_{e_j(1)-1}(j) = j, \omega_{e_j(1)}(j) = \omega_{e_j(2)-1}(j) = j + 1, \dots, \\ \omega_{e_j(s_j-1)}(j) = \omega_{e_j(s_j)-1}(j) = k_j - 1, \omega_{e_j(s_j)}(j) = k_j, \end{aligned}$$

or the sequence

$$\begin{aligned} (\omega_{e_j(0)}(j) = \omega_{e_j(1)-1}(j), \quad \omega_{e_j(1)}(j) = \omega_{e_j(2)-1}(j), \dots, \\ \omega_{e_j(s_j-1)}(j) = \omega_{e_j(s_j)-1}(j), \omega_{e_j(s_j)}(j)) \end{aligned}$$

is in clockwise order:

$$\begin{aligned} \omega_{e_j(0)}(j) = \omega_{e_j(1)-1}(j) = j, \omega_{e_j(2)-1}(j) = \omega_{e_j(1)}(j) = j - 1, \dots, \\ \omega_{e_j(s_j-1)}(j) = \omega_{e_j(s_j)-1}(j) = k_j + 1, \omega_{e_j(s_j)}(j) = k_j. \end{aligned}$$

In the anti-clockwise case, we have

$$\omega_{e_j(i)-1}(j) = l_{e_j(i)} \quad \text{and} \quad \omega_{e_j(i)}(j) = l_{e_j(i)} + 1.$$

In the clockwise case, we obtain

$$\omega_{e_j(i)-1}(j) = l_{e_j(i)} + 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \omega_{e_j(i)}(j) = l_{e_j(i)}.$$

This implies that s_j is either $|k_j - j|$ or $n - |k_j - j|$. Hence $s_j \geq d(j, k_j)$.

Let

$$E(j) = \{e_j(1), e_j(2), \dots, e_j(s_j)\}.$$

If $k_j = j$, we define $E(j)$ to be the empty set \emptyset .

Define a discrete path ϕ_j in $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ by:

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_j(1) = \omega_0(j) = j, \phi_j(2) = \omega_{e_j(1)}(j), \phi_j(3) = \omega_{e_j(2)}(j), \dots, \\ \phi_j(s_j + 1) = \omega_{e_j(s_j)}(j) = k_j. \end{aligned}$$

It is easy to see that ϕ_j is a discrete path as defined in Section 2.

Claim 1: Let $j \neq j'$ be a pair of integers in $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

(1) If the two discrete paths ϕ_j and $\phi_{j'}$ travel in the same direction on the circle (either clockwise or anti-clockwise), then $E(j) \cap E(j') = \emptyset$;

(2) If the two discrete paths ϕ_j and $\phi_{j'}$ go in opposite direction on the circle, then the number of elements in $E(j) \cap E(j')$ is at most two.

Proof of Claim 1. We first prove part (1). Without loss of generality, we can assume that both discrete paths ϕ_j and $\phi_{j'}$ travel in the anti-clockwise direction on the circle.

Assume by contradiction $E(j) \cap E(j') \neq \emptyset$. This implies that there exist k and k' satisfying $e_j(k) = e_{j'}(k')$. Hence we have

$$(l_{e_j(k)}, l_{e_j(k)} + 1) = (l_{e_{j'}(k')}, l_{e_{j'}(k')} + 1).$$

By the assumption that both discrete paths ϕ_j and $\phi_{j'}$ travel in the anti-clockwise direction on the circle, we know

$$\omega_{e_j(k)}(j) = l_{e_j(k)} + 1, \quad \omega_{e_{j'}(k')}(j') = l_{e_{j'}(k')} + 1.$$

As a consequence, we have

$$\omega_q(j) = \omega_q(j')$$

for $q = e_j(k) = e_{j'}(k')$.

The above equation implies $j = j'$, a contradiction with the assumption that $j \neq j'$. This completes the proof of part (1) of the Claim 1.

Now we prove part (2) of the Claim 1. Without loss of generality, we assume that ϕ_j travels in the anti-clockwise direction on the circle and $\phi_{j'}$ travels in the clockwise direction on the circle.

In this case, we have

$$\omega_{e_{j'}(1)-1}(j') = j', \quad \omega_{e_j(1)}(j') = j' - 1, \quad \omega_{e_{j'}(2)-1}(j') = j' - 1,$$

$$\omega_{e_{j'}(2)}(j') = j' - 2, \dots, \quad \omega_{e_{j'}(s_{j'})-1}(j') = k_{j'} + 1, \quad \omega_{e_j(s_{j'})}(j') = k_{j'}.$$

Let k and k' be a pair of integers such that $e_k(k) = e_{k'}(k')$. This assumption implies

$$(l_{e_j(k)}, l_{e_j(k)} + 1) = (l_{e_{j'}(k')}, l_{e_{j'}(k')} + 1).$$

By the other assumption that ϕ_j travels in the anti-clockwise direction on the circle and $\phi_{j'}$ travels in the clockwise direction on the circle, we have

$$\omega_{e_j(k)}(j) = l_{e_j(k)} + 1, \quad \omega_{e_{j'}(k')}(j') = l_{e_{j'}(k')}.$$

As a consequence, we obtain

$$\omega_q(j) + 1 = \omega_q(j')$$

for $q = e_j(k)$. Since the two discrete paths ϕ_j and $\phi_{j'}$ travel in opposite direction on the circle and each of them goes around the circle at most once, there are at most two integers q in

$$\{e_j(0), e_j(1), \dots, e_j(s_j)\} \cap \{e_{j'}(0), e_{j'}(1), \dots, e_{j'}(s_{j'})\}$$

satisfying

$$\omega_q(j) + 1 = \omega_q(j').$$

It follows that there are at most two pairs of k and k' satisfying $e_j(k) = e_{j'}(k')$. This completes the proof of part (2) of the Claim 1.

Recall $d(j, k_j) \leq s_j$ from the discussions before Claim 1. For each $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, let $F(j)$ be the subset of $E(j)$ consisting of the first $d(j, k_j)$ number of elements in the sequence $e_j(1), e_j(2), \dots, e_j(s_j)$. The following claim is a variation of Claim 1. We mention that Claim 1 already suffices to obtain a weaker version of Lemma 3.1, which can be used to prove quadratic quantum complexity lower bound for the permutation in Theorem 1.1 with a smaller coefficient of n^2 .

Claim 2: For each j , let ψ_j of the discrete path obtained by restricting ϕ_j to the domain $\{1, 2, \dots, d(j, k_j)\}$. Let $j \neq j'$ be a pair of elements $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

(1) If the two discrete paths ψ_j and $\psi_{j'}$ go in the same direction on the circle (either clockwise or anti-clockwise), then $F(j) \cap F(j') = \emptyset$;

(2) If the two discrete paths ψ_j and $\psi_{j'}$ go in opposite direction on the circle, then the number of elements in $F(j) \cap F(j')$ is at most one.

Proof of Claim 2. Part (1) of Claim 2 follows from part (1) of Claim 1.

Part (2) of Claim 2 can be proved using essentially the same argument as in the proof of part (2) of Claim 1. Without loss of generality, we assume that ψ_j travels in the anti-clockwise direction on the circle and $\psi_{j'}$ travels in the clockwise direction on the circle. By the definitions of F_j and $F_{j'}$, we know that the discrete paths ψ_j and $\psi_{j'}$ travel at most half of the circle since $d(j, k_j) \leq \frac{n}{2}$ and $d(j', k_{j'}) \leq \frac{n}{2}$. Hence there is at most one integer q in

$$\{e_j(0), e_j(1), \dots, e_j(d(j, k_j))\} \cap \{e_{j'}(0), e_{j'}(1), \dots, e_{j'}(d(j', k_{j'}))\}$$

satisfying

$$\omega_q(j) + 1 = \omega_q(j').$$

It follows that there is at most one pair of $k \leq d(j, k_j)$ and $k' \leq d(j', k_{j'})$ satisfying $e_j(k) = e_{j'}(k')$. This completes the proof for part (2) of Claim 2.

Let j_1, j_2, \dots, j_{2m} be integers in $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ such that

$$d(j_1, k_{j_1}) = d_1, d(j_2, k_{j_2}) = d_2, \dots, d(j_{2m}, k_{j_{2m}}) = d_{2m}.$$

We define A (respectively B) to be the set consisting of j_i ($1 \leq i \leq 2m$) whose corresponding discrete path ϕ_{j_i} is in anti-clockwise (respectively clockwise) order on the circle.

Let a (respectively b) be the number of elements in A (respectively B). We have

$$a + b = 2m.$$

Hence

$$ab \leq \left(\frac{a + b}{2}\right)^2 = m^2.$$

By Claim 2 and Lemma 2.2, it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \#(F(j_1) \cup F(j_2) \cup \dots \cup F(j_{2m})) &= \#((\cup_{i \in A} F(i)) \cup (\cup_{j \in B} F(j))) \\ &\geq (d_1 + d_2 + \dots + d_{2m}) - ab \geq (d_1 + d_2 + \dots + d_{2m}) - m^2, \end{aligned}$$

where the notation $\#$ denotes the number of elements in the set. The above inequality implies Lemma 3.1. □

Lemma 3.2. *Let ω be a permutation of $\{1, \dots, n\}$. If we can write*

$$\omega = \rho_1 \cdots \rho_t$$

with each ρ_j ($1 \leq j \leq t$) being a permutation from the generating set $\{\sigma, \tau, \tau^{-1}\}$, then there exists k such that

$$\tau^k \omega = (l_i \ l_i + 1) \cdots (l_1 \ l_1 + 1)$$

with

$$t \geq 2i - 1.$$

Proof of Lemma 3.2. By assumption, we can write

$$\omega = \tau^{t_0} \sigma \tau^{t_1} \cdots \tau^{t_{i-1}} \sigma \tau^{t_i}$$

such that $|t_0| + |t_1| + \dots + |t_i| + i = t$, where t_0 and t_i may be 0 and $t_j \neq 0$ for any $1 < j < i$.

We rewrite

$$\omega = \tau^{t_0+t_1+\dots+t_i}(\tau^{-(t_1+\dots+t_i)}\sigma\tau^{t_1+\dots+t_i}) \dots (\tau^{-(t_{i-1}+t_i)}\sigma\tau^{t_{i-1}+t_i})(\tau^{-t_i}\sigma\tau^{t_i}).$$

Note that $\tau^{-(t_1+\dots+t_i)}\sigma\tau^{t_1+\dots+t_i}, \dots, \tau^{-(t_{i-1}+t_i)}\sigma\tau^{t_{i-1}+t_i}$, and $\tau^{-t_i}\sigma\tau^{t_i}$ are all adjacent transpositions. The inequality $t = |t_0| + |t_1| + \dots + |t_i| + i \geq 2i - 1$ follows from the fact that $|t_j| \geq 1$ for all $1 \leq j \leq i - 1$. Lemma 3.2 now follows. □

The following lemma describes the bumpiness of the permutation ω in Theorem 1.1. This bumpiness is the reason for the permutation to have quadratic quantum complexity lower bound (c.f. Definition 1.1, Theorem 1.2 and Remark 5.3).

Lemma 3.3. *Let ω be the permutation ω of $\{1, \dots, n\}$ in Theorem 1.1. For any $0 \leq k \leq n - 1$, if we write*

$$(\tau^k\omega)(1) = k_1, \dots, (\tau^k\omega)(n) = k_n,$$

then

$$d_1 \geq \frac{n}{2} - 1, d_2 \geq \frac{n}{2} - 1, d_3 \geq \frac{n}{2} - 2, d_4 \geq \frac{n}{2} - 2, \dots, d_{2m-1} \geq \frac{n}{2} - m, d_{2m} \geq \frac{n}{2} - m$$

for any $1 \leq m \leq \frac{n}{2}$, where d is the discrete path distance in Definition 2.1 and

$$\{d(1, k_1), d(2, k_2), \dots, d(n, k_n)\}$$

is rearranged in the following non-increasing order:

$$d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n.$$

Proof of Lemma 3.3. We identify the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ with the set of all integers modulo n . When n is odd, by the choices of $\omega(1), \dots, \omega(n)$ in Theorem 1.1, we have

$$\{\omega(1) - 1, \omega(2) - 2, \dots, \omega(n) - n\} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n - 1\},$$

where the subtraction is done modulo n . It follows that, for any integer k , we have

$$\{k + \omega(1) - 1, k + \omega(2) - 2, \dots, k + \omega(n) - n\} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n - 1\},$$

where the addition and subtraction are done modulo n . The above equality implies that

$$\begin{aligned} & \{d(1, k + \omega(1)), \quad d(2, k + \omega(2)), \quad \dots, \quad d(n, k + \omega(n))\} \\ &= \{0, 1, 2, \dots, \frac{n-1}{2}, 1, 2, \dots, \frac{n-1}{2}\} \quad (\text{counted with multiplicity}). \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof of Lemma 3.3 when n is odd. The even case is similar. □

Now we are ready to prove Theorem 1.1.

Proof of Theorem 1.1. Let ω be the permutation in Lemma 3.3. If we can write

$$\omega = \rho_1 \cdots \rho_t$$

with each ρ_j ($1 \leq j \leq t$) being a permutation from the generating set $\{\sigma, \tau, \tau^{-1}\}$, then by Lemma 3.2, we can write

$$\tau^k \omega = (l_i \ l_i + 1) \cdots (l_1 \ l_1 + 1)$$

for some integer k such that $t \geq 2i - 1$.

Choose $m = \lfloor \frac{n}{4} \rfloor$. By Lemma 3.3, we have

$$d_1 \geq \frac{n}{2} - 1, d_2 \geq \frac{n}{2} - 1, d_3 \geq \frac{n}{2} - 2, d_4 \geq \frac{n}{2} - 2, \dots,$$

$$d_{2m-1} \geq \frac{n}{2} - m, d_{2m} \geq \frac{n}{2} - m.$$

Applying Lemma 3.1 to $\tau^k \omega$, we obtain

$$i \geq (d_1 + \cdots + d_{2m}) - m^2 \geq 2((\frac{n}{2} - 1) + \cdots + (\frac{n}{2} - m)) - m^2.$$

Hence we have

$$i \geq m(n - 2m - 1) \geq \frac{n^2 - 2n - 3}{8}.$$

By Lemma 3.2, it follows that

$$t \geq 2i - 1 \geq \frac{n^2 - 2n - 7}{4}.$$

This completes the proof of Theorem 1.1. □

The following is an example of a permutation of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ which satisfies the conclusion of Lemma 3.3 for $k = 0$ but still can be implemented linearly. This example shows that in the proof of Theorem 1.1, it is essential for Lemma 3.3 to hold for all $0 \leq k \leq n - 1$.

Example 3.4. Let $n = 2j$. Define a permutation β of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ by:

$$\begin{aligned} \beta(1) &= j + 1, & \beta(2) &= j + 2, \dots, \beta(j) = 2j, & \beta(j + 1) &= 1, \\ & & & & & \\ & & & \dots, & \beta(n) &= j. \end{aligned}$$

Note $\beta = \tau^j$. Hence the permutation τ can be implemented linearly.

The proof of Theorem 1.3 is similar to that of Theorem 1.1.

Proof of Theorem 1.3. We follow the strategy of the proof for Theorem 1.1.

Choose $m = \lfloor \frac{n}{8} \rfloor$, the floor of $\frac{n}{8}$. Let d_1, d_2, \dots, d_{2m} be as in Lemma 3.1.

By Definition 1.2, we have

$$\begin{aligned} d_1 + d_2 + \dots + d_{2m} - m^2 &\geq \frac{n}{8} \left(2 \left\lfloor \frac{n}{8} \right\rfloor \right) - \left\lfloor \frac{n}{8} \right\rfloor^2 \\ &= \left(\frac{n}{4} - \left\lfloor \frac{n}{8} \right\rfloor \right) \left\lfloor \frac{n}{8} \right\rfloor = \left(\frac{n}{8} + \left(\frac{n}{8} - \left\lfloor \frac{n}{8} \right\rfloor \right) \right) \left(\frac{n}{8} - \left(\frac{n}{8} - \left\lfloor \frac{n}{8} \right\rfloor \right) \right) \\ &= \left(\frac{n}{8} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{n}{8} - \left\lfloor \frac{n}{8} \right\rfloor \right)^2 \geq \frac{n^2}{64} - 1. \end{aligned}$$

By Lemma 3.1 and Lemma 3.2, we obtain

$$l \geq 2 \left(\frac{n^2}{64} - 1 \right) - 1 \geq \frac{n^2}{32} - 3. \quad \square$$

4. All permutations have quadratic quantum complexity upper bound

In this section, we prove that all permutations in symmetric groups S_n have quadratic quantum complexity upper bound (Theorem 1.4).

We need some preparations to prove Theorem 1.4. Recall that the transposition $(k \ l)$ is the permutation switching k with l and leaves every other element in the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ unchanged.

Lemma 4.1. *For each positive integer $l \leq n$, the transposition $(1\ l)$ can be implemented linearly, more precisely, if we write*

$$(1\ l) = \rho_1 \cdots \rho_m$$

with each ρ_i ($1 \leq i \leq m$) being a permutation from the generating set $\{\sigma, \tau, \tau^{-1}\}$ and

$$m \leq 2n - 3.$$

Proof of Lemma 4.1. We have

$$(1\ l) = (1\ 2)(2\ 3) \cdots (l-2\ l-1)(l-1\ l)(l-2\ l-1)(l-3\ l-2) \cdots (2\ 3)(1\ 2).$$

Notice that

$$(2\ 3) = \tau\sigma\tau^{-1}, \dots, (l-2\ l-1) = \tau^{l-3}\sigma\tau^{-(l-3)}, (l-1\ l) = \tau^{(l-2)}\sigma\tau^{-(l-2)}.$$

Plugging these equations into the previous identity, after certain (magical) cancellations of τ and τ^{-1} , we obtain

$$(1\ l) = \underbrace{\sigma\tau\sigma\tau\sigma \cdots \tau\sigma\tau\sigma\tau^{-1}\sigma\tau^{-1}\sigma\tau^{-1} \cdots \sigma\tau^{-1}\sigma}_{4l-7}.$$

Note that there are a total of $4l - 7$ terms on the right hand side of the above equation.

We can now apply the same argument using the clockwise route from 1 to l :

$1, n, n-1, \dots, l$ (instead of the above anti-clockwise route: $1, 2, \dots, l$):

$$(1\ l) = (1\ n)(n\ n-1) \cdots (l+2\ l+1)(l+1\ l)(l+1\ l+2) \cdots (n-1\ n)(n\ 1).$$

This way, we can write $(1\ l)$ as a product of at most $4(n-l) + 3$ number of terms from the generating set $\{\sigma, \tau, \tau^{-1}\}$.

Summarizing the above discussions, we can write $(1\ l)$ as a product of at most $\min\{4l - 7, 4(n-l) + 3\}$ number of terms from the generating set $\{\sigma, \tau, \tau^{-1}\}$. From the equation

$$(4l - 7) + (4(n-l) + 3) = 4n - 4,$$

we obtain

$$\min\{4l - 7, 4(n-l) + 3\} \leq 2n - 2.$$

Since both $4l - 7$ and $4(n - l) + 3$ are odd number, we have

$$\min\{4l - 7, 4(n - l) + 3\} \leq 2n - 3.$$

This completes the proof of Lemma 4.1. □

We are now ready to prove Theorem 1.4.

Proof of Theorem 1.4. Without loss of generality, we assume that $l \geq k$. We can easily verify the formula

$$(k \ l) = \tau^{k-1}(1 \ l - (k - 1))\tau^{-(k-1)}.$$

The equation $\tau^{k-1} = \tau^{n-(k-1)}$ implies that τ^{k-1} can be implemented using at most $\frac{n}{2}$ elements from the generating set $\{\sigma, \tau, \tau^{-1}\}$. Hence by Lemma 4.1 any transposition $(k \ l)$ can be implemented by $\frac{n}{2} + (2n - 3) + \frac{n}{2} = 3(n - 1)$ elements from the generating set $\{\sigma, \tau, \tau^{-1}\}$.

We recall that a cycle $(x_1 \ x_2 \ \cdots \ x_k)$ is a permutation that sends x_j to x_{j+1} for all $1 \leq j \leq k - 1$, sends x_k to x_1 , and keeps all other elements in $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ unchanged. We define the length of the cycle $(x_1 \ x_2 \ \cdots \ x_k)$ to be k . Each permutation ω in S_n is a product of cycles $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_q$:

$$\omega = \gamma_1\gamma_2 \cdots \gamma_q$$

such that

$$l_1 + l_2 + \cdots + l_q \leq n,$$

where l_i is the length of the cycle γ_i for all $1 \leq i \leq q$.

The cycle γ_i can be expressed as the product of transpositions as follows:

$$\gamma_i = (x_1 \ x_2 \ \cdots \ x_{l_i}) = (x_1 \ x_2)(x_2 \ x_3) \cdots (x_{l_i-1} \ x_{l_i}),$$

where $1 \leq i \leq q$. This implies that γ_i can be implemented by at most $3(n - 1)(l_i - 1)$ number of elements from the generating set $\{\sigma, \tau, \tau^{-1}\}$.

Combining the above facts, we conclude that the number of elements ω needed from the generating set $\{\sigma, \tau, \tau^{-1}\}$ is at most

$$3(n - 1)(l_1 + l_2 + \cdots + l_q - q) \leq 3(n - 1)^2.$$

Hence ω can be quadratically implemented. □

5. Almost all permutations have quadratic quantum complexity lower bound

In this section, we prove that almost all permutations have quadratic quantum complexity lower bound.

Proof of Theorem 1.5. We prove Theorem 1.5 by showing that almost all permutations are very bumpy.

For each $k \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n - 1\}$, we first count the number of permutations which do not satisfy the inequality in Definition 1.2:

$$\#\{ i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\} : d(k + \omega(i), i) \geq \frac{n}{8} \} \geq \frac{n}{4} \tag{*}.$$

If a permutation ω does not satisfy the above condition (*), then there exist at least $p = n - \lceil \frac{n}{4} \rceil$ number of $i \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n - 1\}$ such that

$$d(k + \omega(i), i) < \frac{n}{8} \tag{**}.$$

Given $k \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n - 1\}$, for each subset B of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ with $\#B = p$, the number of permutations ω satisfying condition (**) for all $i \in B$ is at most

$$\left(\frac{n}{4} + 1\right)^p (n - p)!.$$

This is because for each $i \in B$, $\omega(i)$ has at most $\frac{n}{4} + 1$ possible choices of values satisfying (**), and once we fix the values of ω on B , there are $(n - p)!$ possibilities of choosing the permutations ω .

We also have $\binom{n}{p}$ ways of choosing subset B of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ satisfying the condition $\#B = p$.

In summary, for each $k \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n - 1\}$, the total number of permutations ω satisfying the above condition (**) for at least p number of i is at most

$$\binom{n}{p} \left(\frac{n}{4} + 1\right)^p (n - p)!.$$

Hence the total number of not very bumpy permutations is at most

$$n \binom{n}{p} \left(\frac{n + 4}{4}\right)^p (n - p)!.$$

Using calculus, we have the following estimate

$$\begin{aligned} \ln(p!) &= \ln 2 + \dots + \ln p \geq \int_1^p \ln x dx \\ &= (x \ln x - x)|_1^p = p \ln p - (p - 1). \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$p! \geq \frac{p^p}{e^{p-1}}.$$

Applying this formula, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{n!} n \binom{n}{p} \left(\frac{n+4}{4}\right)^p (n-p)! &= \frac{n}{p!} \left(\frac{n+4}{4}\right)^p \leq n \frac{e^{p-1}}{p^p} \left(\frac{n+4}{4}\right)^p \\ &= e^{-1} n \left(\frac{e(n+4)}{4p}\right)^p < n \left(\frac{e(n+4)}{4\left(\frac{3n}{4}-1\right)}\right)^p = n \left(\frac{e\left(1+\frac{4}{n}\right)}{3-\frac{4}{n}}\right)^p \\ &< n \left(\frac{e\left(1+\frac{1}{10}\right)}{2.999}\right)^p \leq n \left(\frac{2.992}{2.999}\right)^{\frac{3n}{4}-1} \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$, where we use the inequality $\frac{3n}{4} - 1 \leq p \leq \frac{3n}{4}$ and $e < 2.72$ in the above estimate and assume that $n \geq 4000$.

By Theorem 1.3, this completes the proof of Theorem 1.5. □

Remark 5.3. More generally, for any $0 < b < \frac{1}{2}$ and $0 < c < \min\{4b, 1\}$, we can define a permutation ω of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ to be (b, c) -bumpy if

$$\#\{ i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\} : d(k + \omega(i), i) \geq bn \} \geq cn$$

for all $k \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$. The same method can be used to prove that any (b, c) -bumpy permutation has quadratic quantum complexity lower bound (with $\frac{1}{2}(4bc - c^2)$ as the coefficient of n^2). If in addition $2eb + c < 1$, then the probability for permutations to be (b, c) -bumpy goes to 1 as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

In fact, for all positive number $c_0 < \frac{1}{2e(e+2)}$, we can find positive constants b and c satisfying the above conditions such that any (b, c) -bumpy permutation has quadratic quantum complexity lower bound with c_0 as the coefficient of n^2 and the probability for permutations to be (b, c) -bumpy goes to 1 as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Note that in Theorem 1.3 and Theorem 1.5, the constants are chosen to be $b = \frac{1}{8}$ and $c = \frac{1}{4}$.

6. Concluding remarks

In this article, we essentially obtain the optimal results on complexity upper bound for all permutations and lower bound for very bumpy permutations as both upper and lower bounds are quadratic. The method used in this article can potentially be used to study quantum complexity for more general unitaries in quantum computations. We are currently investigating the complexity problem for permutations on the set of n -strings of two bits with respect to local logic gates.

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