An efficient quantum algorithm for finding hidden parabolic subgroups in the general linear group

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Abstract

In the theory of algebraic groups, parabolic subgroups form a crucial building block in the structural studies. In the case of general linear groups over a finite field \mathbb{F}_q , given a sequence of positive integers n_1, \ldots, n_k , where $n = n_1 + \cdots + n_k$, a parabolic subgroup of parameter (n_1, \ldots, n_k) in $\operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$ is a conjugate of the subgroup consisting of block lower triangular matrices where the *i*th block is of size n_i . Our main result is a quantum algorithm of time polynomial in $\log q$ and n for solving the hidden subgroup problem in $\operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$, when the hidden subgroup is promised to be a parabolic subgroup. Our algorithm works with no prior knowledge of the parameter of the hidden parabolic subgroup. Prior to this work, such an efficient quantum algorithm was only known for the case n = 2 (A. Denney, C. Moore, and A. Russell (2010), Quantum Inf. Comput., Vol. 10, pp. 282-291) and for minimal parabolic subgroups (Borel subgroups), for the case when qis not much smaller than n (G. Ivanyos: Quantum Inf. Comput., Vol. 12, pp. 661-669).

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1. Introduction

1.1. Background

The hidden subgroup problem (HSP for short) is defined as follows. A function f on a group G is said to hide a subgroup $H \leq G$, if f satisfies the following: f(x) = f(y) if and only if x and y are in the same left coset of H (that is, $x^{-1}y \in H$). When such an f is given as a black box, the HSP asks to determine the hidden subgroup H. Note that the problem when the level sets of the hiding f are demanded to be right cosets of H – that is, f(x) = f(y) if and only if $yx^{-1} \in H$ – is equivalent: composing f with taking inverses maps a hiding function via right cosets to a hiding function via left cosets, and vice versa. When we explicitly want to refer to this variant of the problem, we speak about HSP via right cosets.

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The complexity of a hidden subgroup algorithm is measured in terms of the number of bits representing the elements of the group G, which is usually $O(\log |G|)$. On classical computers, the problem has exponential query complexity even for abelian groups. In contrast, the quantum query complexity of HSP for any group is polynomial [12], and the HSP for abelian groups can be solved in polynomial time with a quantum computer [5, 23]. The latter algorithms are generalizations of Shor's result on order finding and computing discrete logarithms [26]. These algorithms can be further generalized to compute the structure of finite commutative black-box groups [8].

To go beyond the abelian groups is well-motivated by its connection with the graph isomorphism problem. Despite considerable attention, the groups for which the HSP is tractable remain close to being abelian. For example, we know polynomial-time algorithms for the following cases: groups whose derived subgroups are of constant derived length and constant exponent [13], Heisenberg groups [2, 1] and more generally two-step nilpotent groups [21], "almost Hamiltonian" groups [14], and groups with a large abelian subgroup and reducible to the abelian case [18]. The limited success in going beyond the abelian case indicates that the nonabelian HSP may be hard, and [25] shows some evidence for this by providing a connection between the HSP in dihedral groups and some supposedly difficult lattice problem.

Instead of considering various ambient groups, another direction is to pose restrictions on the possible hidden subgroups. This can result in efficient algorithms, even over fairly nonabelian ambient groups. For example, if the hidden subgroup is assumed to be normal, then HSP can be solved in quantum polynomial time in groups for which there are efficient quantum Fourier transforms [16, 17], and even in a large class of groups, including solvable groups [20]. The methods of [24, 15] are able to find sufficiently large non-normal hidden subgroups in certain semidirect products efficiently.

Some restricted subgroups of the general linear groups were also considered in this context. The result by Denney, Moore and Russell in [9] is an efficient quantum algorithm that solves the HSP in the group of 2 by 2 invertible matrices (and related groups) where the hidden subgroup is promised to be a so-called Borel subgroup. In [19], Ivanyos considered finding Borel subgroups in general linear groups of higher degree, and presented an efficient algorithm when the size of the underlying field is not much smaller than the degree.

A well-known superclass of the family of Borel subgroups is the family of parabolic subgroups, whose definition is given below. In this work, we follow the line of research in [9, 19], and consider the problem of finding parabolic subgroups in general linear groups. Our main result will be a polynomial-time quantum algorithm for this case, without restrictions on field size.

1.2. Parabolic subgroups of the general linear group

Let q be a power of a prime p. The field with q elements is denoted by \mathbb{F}_q . The vector space \mathbb{F}_q^n consists of column vectors of length n over \mathbb{F}_q . $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$ stands for the general linear group of degree n over \mathbb{F}_q . The elements of $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$ are the invertible $n \times n$ matrices with entries from \mathbb{F}_q . We also use $\mathrm{GL}(V)$ to denote the group of linear automorphisms of the \mathbb{F}_q -space V. With this notation, we have $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q) \cong \mathrm{GL}(\mathbb{F}_q^n)$ and throughout the paper we will identify these two groups. As a matrix is represented by

an array of n^2 elements from \mathbb{F}_q , an algorithm is considered efficient if its complexity is polynomial in n and $\log q$.

We now present the definition of parabolic subgroups (see [27]). For a positive integer k, and a sequence of positive integers n_1, \ldots, n_k with $n_1 + \cdots + n_k = n$, the standard parabolic subgroup of $\operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$ with parameter (n_1, \ldots, n_k) is the subgroup consisting of the invertible lower block triangular matrices of diagonal block sizes n_1, \ldots, n_k . Any conjugate of the standard parabolic subgroup is called a *parabolic subgroup*.

To see the geometric meaning of parabolic subgroups, we review the concept of flags of vector spaces. Let 0 also denote the zero vector space. For \mathbb{F}_q^n and $k \ge 1$, a flag F with the parameter (n_1, \ldots, n_k) is a nested sequence of subspaces of \mathbb{F}_q^n , that is $\mathbb{F}_q^n = U_0 > U_1 > U_2 > \cdots > U_{k-1} > U_k = 0$, such that for $0 \le i \le k-1$, $\dim(U_i) = n_{i+1} + \cdots + n_k$. k is called the length of F. For $g \in \operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$, g stabilizes the flag F if for every $i \in [k]$, $g(U_i) = U_i$. From the definition of parabolic subgroups, it is easy to see that a parabolic subgroup consists of all elements in $\operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$ stabilizing some flag F; this flag is determined by the conjugating element.

For example, the standard parabolic subgroup B in $\operatorname{GL}_5(\mathbb{F}_q)$ with parameter (2, 2, 1)consists of invertible matrices of the form $\begin{pmatrix} * & * & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ * & * & * & * & 0 \\ * & * & * & * & 0 \\ * & * & * & * & * \end{pmatrix}$. Let $\{e_1, \ldots, e_5\}$ be the standard basis of \mathbb{F}_q^5 . The flag stabilized by B is $\mathbb{F}_q^5 > \langle e_3, e_4, e_5 \rangle > \langle e_5 \rangle > 0$.

A parabolic subgroup is maximal if there are no parabolic subgroups properly containing it. It is minimal if it does not properly contain any parabolic subgroup. A parabolic subgroup B in $\operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$ is maximal if and only if it is the stabilizer of a flag of length 2, that is, it is the stabilizer of some nontrivial subspace. On the other hand, B is minimal if it stabilizes a flag of length n. Borel subgroups in $\operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$ are just minimal parabolic subgroups. They are conjugates of the subgroup of invertible lower triangular matrices.

1.3. Our results

The main result of this paper is a polynomial-time quantum algorithm for finding parabolic subgroups in general linear groups.

Theorem 1. Any hidden parabolic subgroup in $GL_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$ can be found in quantum polynomial time (i.e., in time poly $(\log q, n)$).

Note that this algorithm does not require one to know the parameter of the hidden parabolic subgroup in advance. Neither does it pose any restriction on the underlying field size, while the algorithm in [19] for finding Borel subgroups requires the field size to be large enough. The basic idea behind the algorithm is that in certain cases the superposition of the elements in a coset of the subgroup is close to a superposition of the elements of a linear space of matrices. The latter perspective allows the use of standard algorithms for abelian HSPs. Another crucial idea is to make use of the subgroup of common stabilizers of all the vectors on a random hyperplane, and examine its intersection with the hidden parabolic subgroup.

We can also consider certain subgroups of Borel subgroups, namely the *full unipotent* subgroups. They are conjugates of the subgroup of lower triangular matrices with 1's on the diagonal. Following a variant of the idea for Theorem 1, we can show that these subgroups can be efficiently found if the base field is small.

Theorem 2. Any hidden full unipotent subgroup in $GL_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$ can be found by a quantum algorithm in time poly(q, n).

Finally, we consider finding the maximal parabolic subgroups in the classical setting. We show that in the classical setting, the deterministic and randomized query complexities are exponential, in contrast to the efficient quantum algorithm as above.

Theorem 3. For $d \leq n/2$ the query complexity for a bounded-error randomized algorithm with bounded error probability ϵ to find a maximal parabolic subgroup stabilizing a ddimensional subspace in $\operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$ is $\Omega(q^{d/2})$.

The proof is based on the fact that for any $o(q^{d/2})$ matrices which are not scalar multiples of each other there are still many *d*-dimensional subspaces such that the matrices fall into pairwise distinct cosets of the corresponding maximal parabolic subgroups. As every Borel subgroup is contained in a unique maximal parabolic subgroup stabilizing an n/2-dimensional subspace, the same argument gives the following.

Corollary 4. The query complexity for a bounded-error randomized algorithm with bounded error probability ϵ to find a hidden Borel subgroup in $\operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$ is $\Omega(q^{\lfloor n/4 \rfloor})$.

The structure of the paper. In Section 2 we collect certain preliminaries for the paper. In particular, in Section 2.2 we adapt the standard algorithm for abelian HSP to linear subspaces, which forms the basis of our algorithms. We then present an efficient quantum algorithm for finding maximal parabolic subgroups in Section 3. Section 4 describes a main technical tool, a generalization of the result of [24, 9] for finding complements in affine groups. In Section 5 we present the algorithm for finding unipotent subgroups, proving Theorem 1. In Section 6 we consider the task of finding unipotent subgroups, proving Theorem 2. In Section 7 we discuss the deterministic and randomized complexities of finding hidden maximal Borel subgroups in the classical setting, proving Theorem 3 and Corollary 4. Finally in Section 8 we conclude this paper and propose some future directions.

2. Preliminaries

2.1. Notations and facts

Throughout the article, q is a prime power. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $[n] = \{1, \ldots, n\}$. $\mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$ is the set of $n \times n$ matrices over \mathbb{F}_q . For a finite group G, we will be concerned with finding a subgroup H in G, when it is promised that H is from a fixed family of subgroups \mathcal{H} . We use $\mathrm{HSP}(G, \mathcal{H})$ to denote the HSP problem with this promise, and $\mathrm{rHSP}(G, \mathcal{H})$ to denote the HSP via right cosets of $H \in \mathcal{H}$. Let V be a vector space. For a subspace $U \leq V$ and $G = \mathrm{GL}(V)$, let G_U be the subgroup in G consisting of elements that act as pointwise stabilizers on U. That is, $G_U = \{X \in \mathrm{GL}(V) : \forall u \in U, Xu = u\}$. Let $G_{\{U\}}$ be the subgroup in G consisting of elements that act as setwise stabilizers on U. That is, $G_{\{U\}} = \{X \in \mathrm{GL}(V) : XU = U\}$. Note that $\{G_{\{U\}} : 0 < U < V\}$ is just the set of maximal parabolic subgroups.

Fact 5. For every prime power q, and for every positive integers $n \ge m$, the probability for a random $n \times m$ matrix M over \mathbb{F}_q to have rank m is no less than what we have in the case of q = 2, that is $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdot \frac{7}{8} \cdots \approx 0.288788 > 1/4$.

2.2. The quantum Fourier transform of linear spaces

In this part we briefly discuss slight generalizations of the Fourier transform of linear spaces over \mathbb{F}_q considered in [19] and a version useful for certain linear spaces of matrices. Let $V \cong \mathbb{F}_q^m$ be a linear space over the field \mathbb{F}_q and assume that we are given a nondegenerate symmetric bilinear function $\phi: V \times V \to \mathbb{F}_q$. By \mathbb{C}^V we denote the Hilbert space of dimension q^m having a designated orthonormal basis consisting of the vectors $|v\rangle$ indexed by the elements $v \in \mathbb{F}_q^m$.

Let $q = p^r$ where p is a prime and let ω be the primitive pth root $e^{\frac{2\pi i}{p}}$ of unity. We define the quantum Fourier transform with respect to ϕ as the linear transformation QFT_{ϕ} of \mathbb{C}^V which maps

$$|v\rangle$$
 to $\frac{1}{\sqrt{|V|}}\sum_{u\in V}\omega^{\operatorname{Tr}(\phi(u,v))}|u\rangle,$

where $v \in V$ and Tr is the trace map from \mathbb{F}_q to \mathbb{F}_p defined as $\operatorname{Tr}(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} x^{p^i}$. Regarding the additive stucture, \mathbb{F}_q^n is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}_p^{rn} and the map $(x, y) \mapsto \operatorname{Tr}(\phi(x, y))$ is a nondegenerate bilinear map from $\mathbb{Z}_p^{rn} \times \mathbb{Z}_p^{rn}$ to \mathbb{Z}_p . Hence QFT_{ϕ} is one of the possible Fourier transforms for this group. Thus QFT_{ϕ} is a unitary map. We will choose various bilinear maps ϕ suitable for the specific applications. Notice that if the vectors from V are represented by arrays of elements from \mathbb{F}_q that are coordinates in terms of an orthonormal basis of V with respect to ϕ (that is, ϕ is the standard inner product $\sum_{i=1}^m u_i v_i$ of \mathbb{F}_q^m), then $|u\rangle = |u_1, \ldots, u_m\rangle$ is mapped to

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{q^m}} \sum_{(v_1, \dots, v_m) \in \mathbb{F}_q^m} \omega^{\operatorname{Tr}(u_1 v_1 + \dots + u_m v_m)} |v_1, \dots, v_m\rangle = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{v_1 \in \mathbb{F}_q} \omega^{\operatorname{Tr}(u_1 v_1)} |v_1\rangle\right) \otimes \dots \otimes \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{v_m \in \mathbb{F}_q} \omega^{\operatorname{Tr}(u_m v_m)} |v_m\rangle\right).$$

Therefore, QFT_{ϕ} can be implemented by applying the QFT defined in [10] for \mathbb{F}_q to the m registers independently. (This latter QFT is the linear transformation of $\mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{F}_q}$ that maps $|x\rangle$ $(x \in \mathbb{F}_q)$ to $\frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{F}_q} \omega^{\operatorname{Tr}(xy)} |y\rangle$. Polynomial time approximate implementation, based on the approximate QFT for \mathbb{Z}_p and efficient computability of the form $(x, y) \mapsto \operatorname{Tr}(xy)$, is given in Lemma 2.2 of [10].) Therefore, in this case, QFT_{ϕ} has a polynomial time approximate implementation on a quantum computer. In the general case, where elements of V are represented by coordinates in terms of a not necessarily orthonormal basis w.r.t. ϕ , the map QFT_{ϕ} can be efficiently implemented by composing the above transform with linear transformations of \mathbb{C}^V corresponding to appropriate basis changes for V.

For a subset $A \subseteq V$ we adopt the standard notation $|A\rangle$ for the uniform superposition of the elements of A, that is $|A\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|A|}} \sum_{a \in A} |a\rangle$. Assume that we receive the uniform superposition $|v_0 + W\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|W|}} \sum_{v \in W} |v_0 + v\rangle$ over the a coset $v_0 + W$ of the \mathbb{F}_q -linear subspace W of V and for some $v_0 \in V$. Let W^{\perp} stand for the subspace of V consisting of the vectors u from \mathbb{F}_q^m such that $\phi(u, v) = 0$ for every $v \in W$. By results from [19], if we measure the state after the Fourier transform, we obtain a uniformly random element of W^{\perp} . If instead of the uniform superposition over the coset $v_0 + W$ we apply the QFT to the superposition $|v_0 + W'\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|W'|}} \sum_{v \in W'} |v_0 + v\rangle$ over a subset $v_0 + W'$ for $\emptyset \neq W' \subseteq W$, the resulting state is $\sum_{u \in V} c'_u |u\rangle$, where

$$c'_{u} = \langle u | QFT_{\phi} | v_{0} + W' \rangle = \frac{\omega^{\operatorname{Tr}\phi(v_{0},u)}}{\sqrt{|W'||V|}} \sum_{v \in W'} \omega^{\operatorname{Tr}\phi(v,u)}.$$

For $u \in W^{\perp}$ we have

$$|c'_{u}| = \frac{|W'|}{\sqrt{|W'||V|}} = \frac{\sqrt{|W'|}}{\sqrt{|W|}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{|W^{\perp}|}},$$
(1)

whence, after measurement the chance of obtaining a particular $u \in W^{\perp}$ is $\frac{|W'|}{|W|}$ times as much as if we had in the case of the uniform distribution over W^{\perp} .

In this paper we consider subspaces and certain subsets of the linear space $\mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$. If we take the inner product $\phi_0(A, B) = \operatorname{tr}(AB^T)$ the elementary matrices form an orthonormal basis. It follows that QFT_{ϕ_0} , being just the n^2 th tensor power of the QFT of \mathbb{F}_q , can be efficiently approximated. However, for the purposes of this paper it turns out to be more convenient using the inner product $\phi(AB) = \operatorname{tr}(AB)$. The map QFT_{ϕ} is the composition of QFT_{ϕ_0} with taking transpose (the latter is just a permutation of the matrix entries). The main advantage of considering QFT_{ϕ} is that it is invariant in the following sense: we always obtain the same QFT_{ϕ} even if we write matrices of linear transformations of the space $V = \mathbb{F}_q^n$ in terms of various bases. In particular, in our hidden subgroup algorithms we can think of our matrices in terms of a basis a priori unknown to us in which the hidden subgroup has a natural form, for example lower block triangular.

2.3. A common procedure for HSP algorithms

Suppose we want to find some hidden subgroup H in $G = \operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$. Let $V = \mathbb{F}_q^n$. We present the standard procedure that produce a uniform superposition over a coset of the hidden subgroup. This part will be common in (most of) the hidden subgroup algorithms presented in this paper. First we show how to produce the uniform superposition over $\operatorname{GL}(V)$. The uniform superposition $\frac{1}{q^{n^2}} \sum_{X \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)} |X\rangle$ over $\mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$ can be produced using the QFT for $\mathbb{F}_q^{n^2}$. Then, in an additional qubit we compute a Boolean variable according to whether or not the determinant of X is zero. We measure this qubit, and abort if it indicates that the matrix X has determinant zero. This procedure gives the uniform superposition over $\operatorname{GL}(V)$ with success probability more than $\frac{1}{4}$.

Next we assume that we have the uniform superposition $\frac{1}{\sqrt{|\operatorname{GL}(V)|}} \sum_{X} |X\rangle|0\rangle$, summing over $X \in \operatorname{GL}(V)$. Recall that f is the function hiding the subgroup. We appended a new quantum register, initialized to zero, for holding the value of f. We compute f(X) in this second register, measure and discard it. The result is $|AH\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|H|}} \sum_{X \in H} |AX\rangle$ for some unknown $A \in \operatorname{GL}(V)$. A is actually uniformly random, but in this paper we will not make use of this fact.

3. Maximal parabolic subgroups

In this section, we settle the HSP when the hidden subgroup is a maximal parabolic subgroup, which will be used in the main algorithm in Section 5. It also helps to illustrate

the idea of approximating a subgroup in the general linear group by a subspace in the linear space of matrices.

Recall that a parabolic subgroup H is maximal if it stabilizes some subspace $0 < U < \mathbb{F}_q^n$. We mentioned in Section 2.1 that they are just setwise stabilizers of subspaces. Determining H is equivalent to finding U. Set $V = \mathbb{F}_q^n$.

Proposition 6. Let $G = \operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$, and $\mathcal{H} = \{G_{\{U\}} : 0 < U < V\}$. $\operatorname{HSP}(G, \mathcal{H})$ can be solved in quantum polynomial time.

Proof. Let H be the hidden maximal parabolic subgroup, stabilizing some (n - d)dimensional subspace $U \leq \mathbb{F}^n$. Note that d is unknown to us. Before describing the algorithm, we observe the following: checking correctness of a guess for U, and hence for H, can be done by applying the oracle to a set of generators of the stabilizer of U, as there are no inclusions between maximal parabolic subgroups.

Now we present the algorithm. First produce a coset superposition $|AH\rangle$ for unknown $A \in \operatorname{GL}(V)$, as described in Section 2.3. Let $W = \{X \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F}_q) : XU \leq U\}$. In a basis whose last n - d elements are from U, W is the subspace of the matrices of the form $\begin{pmatrix} B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix}$, where B and D are not necessarily invertible, and the empty space in the upper right corner means a $d \times (n - d)$ block of zeros. Noting that such a matrix is invertible if and only if B and D are both invertible, we have $H \subset W$ and $\frac{|AH|}{|AW|} = \frac{|H|}{|W|} > \frac{1}{4\times 4}$. Also, viewing in the same basis, $(AW)^{\perp}A = W^{\perp}$ consists of the matrices of the form $\begin{pmatrix} \\ * \end{pmatrix}$, where * stands for an arbitrary (n - d) times d matrix. This implies that $(AW)^{\perp} = \{X \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F}_q) : XV \leq U \text{ and } XU = 0\}A^{-1}$.

If $d \ge n/2$, we apply QFT to the *left* coset superposition $|AH\rangle$ and perform a measurement. For any element X in $(AW)^{\perp}$, the measurement will produce X with probability no less than $\frac{1}{16|(AW)^{\perp}|}$. It follows that XA will be a particular matrix from $(AW)^{\perp}A$ with probability at least $\frac{1}{16|(AW)^{\perp}|}$. Then more than $\frac{1}{4}$ of the $(n-d) \times d$ matrices have rank n-d. It follows that with probability at least $\frac{1}{64}$, the matrix XA will be a matrix from $(AW)^{\perp}A$ whose image is U. As XV = XAV, we can conclude that XV = U with probability more than $\frac{1}{64}$.

For the case d < n/2 we consider the HSP via *right* cosets of H, and let act matrices on row vectors from the right. Via the same procedure as above, it will reveal the dual subspace stabilized by H, which determines H uniquely as well.

Finally, though d is not known to us, depending on whether $d \ge n/2$, one of these two procedures with produce U correctly with high probability. So we perform the two procedures alternatively, and use the checking procedure to determine which produces the correct result. This concludes the algorithm.

4. A tool: finding complements in small stabilizers

In this section, we introduce and partially settle a new instance of the hidden subgroup problem. This will be an important technical tool for the main algorithm.

Consider the hidden subgroup problem in the following setting. The ambient group $G \leq \operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$ consists of the invertible matrices of the form $\begin{pmatrix} b \\ v & I \end{pmatrix}$, where $b \in \mathbb{F}_q$, v is

a column vector from \mathbb{F}_q^{n-1} , and I is the $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ identity matrix. The family of hidden subgroups \mathcal{H} consists of all conjugates of H_0 , where H_0 is the subgroup of diagonal matrices in G: $H_0 = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} b \\ I \end{pmatrix} : b \in \mathbb{F}_q^* \right\}$. Note that any conjugate of H_0 is $H_v = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} b \\ (b-1)v & I \end{pmatrix} : b \in \mathbb{F}_q^* \right\}$, for some $v \in \mathbb{F}_q^{n-1}$. We will consider the HSP via right cosets in this setting

cosets in this setting

The group G has an abelian normal subgroup N consisting of the matrices of the form $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ v & I \end{pmatrix}$ isomorphic to \mathbb{F}_q^{n-1} , and the subgroups H_v are the semidirect complements of N. For n = 2, G is the affine group $\operatorname{AGL}_1(\mathbb{F}_q)$. The HSP in $\operatorname{AGL}_1(\mathbb{F}_q)$ is solved in quantum polynomial time in [24] over prime fields and in [9] in the general case using the non-commutative Fourier transform of the group $AGL_1(\mathbb{F}_q)$. The algorithm served as the main technical ingredient in [9] for finding Borel subgroups in $\mathrm{GL}(\mathbb{F}^2_q)$. A generalization for certain similar semidirect product groups is given in [2]. To our knowledge, the first occurrence of the idea of comparing with a coset state in a related abelian group is in [2]. Here, due to the "nice" representation of the group elements, we can apply the same idea in a simpler way, while in [2] it was needed to be combined with a discrete logarithm algorithm which is not necessary here.

Proposition 7. Let G and H be as above, and suppose $q = \Omega(n/\log n)$. Then rHSP(G, H) can be solved in quantum polynomial time.

Proof. Assume that the hidden subgroup is $H = H_v$ for some $v \in \mathbb{F}_q^{n-1}$. As right cosets of H are being considered, we have superpositions over right cosets $\dot{H}A$ for some unknown $A \in G$. The actual information of each matrix X from G is contained in X - I, a matrix from the *n*-dimensional space L of matrices whose last n-1 columns are zero. We will work in L. Set

$$\widetilde{W}' = \{X - I : X \in H\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} b \\ bv \end{pmatrix} : -1 \neq b \in \mathbb{F}_q \right\} \text{ and } W = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} b \\ bv \end{pmatrix} : b \in \mathbb{F}_q \right\}.$$

Then W is a one-dimensional subspace of L. It turns out that W = WA for every matrix $A \in G$ (that is why it is convenient to consider the HSP via right cosets). It follows that $\{(Y+I)A - I : Y \in W\} = \{YA + (A - I) : Y \in W\} = W + A - I$, whence the set $\{XA - I : X \in H\}$ equals W' + A - I for $W' = \widetilde{W}'A$.

Therefore, after an application of the QFT of L to the state $|HA - I\rangle = |W' + A - I\rangle$ and a measurement, we obtain every specific element of W^{\perp} with probability at least $\frac{q-1}{q}\frac{1}{|W^{\perp}|}$. More generally, if we do the procedure for a product of n-1 superpositions over right cosets of H we obtain each specific (n-1)-tuple of vectors from W^{\perp} with probability at least $(\frac{q-1}{q})^{n-1} \frac{1}{|W^{\perp}|^{n-1}}$. Since the probability that n-1 random elements from a space of dimension n-1 over \mathbb{F}_q span the space is at least $\frac{1}{4}$, therefore, the probability of getting a basis of W^{\perp} is $\Omega((\frac{q-1}{q})^{n-1})$. Using this basis, we obtain a guess for W and H as H is the set of invertible matrices from W + I. A correct guess will be obtained with constant probability with $O((\frac{q}{q-1})^{n-1})$ repetitions. This is polynomial if q is $\Omega(n/\log n)$.

Finally we note that for constant q, or more generally for constant characteristic, [13] can be used to obtain a polynomial time algorithm. On the other hand, it is intriguing to study the case of "intermediate" values of q.

5. The main algorithm

5.1. The structure of the algorithm

In this subsection, we describe the structure of an algorithm for finding parabolic subgroups in general linear groups, proving Theorem 1. Let $G = \operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q), V = \mathbb{F}_q^n$, and the hidden parabolic subgroup H be the stabilizer of the flag $V > U_1 > U_2 > \cdots > U_{k-1} > 0$. Note that the parameter of the flag, including k, is unknown to us. The algorithm will output the hidden flag, from which a generating set of the parabolic subgroup can be constructed easily.

Let $T = U_{k-1}$ denote the smallest subspace in the flag. The algorithm relies on the following subroutines crucially. These two subroutines are described in Section 5.2 and Section 5.3, respectively.

Proposition 8. Let G, H and T be as above. There exists a quantum polynomial-time algorithm, that given access to an oracle hiding H in G, produces three subspaces W_1 , W_2 and W_3 , s.t. one of W_i is a nonzero subspace contained in T with high probability.

Proposition 9. Let G, H and T be as above. There exists a classical polynomial-time algorithm, that given access to an oracle hiding H in G, and some $0 < W \leq V$, determines whether $W \leq T$, and in the case of $W \leq T$, whether W = T.

Given these two subroutines, the algorithm proceeds as follows. It starts with checking whether k = 1, that is whether H = G. This can be done easily: produce a set of generators of G, and check whether the oracle returns the same value on all of them. If k = 1, return the trivial flag V > 0.

Otherwise, it repeatedly calls the subroutine in Proposition 8 until that subroutine produces subspaces W_1 , W_2 and W_3 , such that for some $i \in [3]$, we have $0 < W_i \leq T$. This can be verified by Proposition 9. Let W be this subspace. The second subroutine then also tells whether W = T.

After getting $0 < W \leq T$, the algorithm fixes a subspace W' to be any direct complement of W in V, and makes a recursive call to the HSP with a new ambient group G', and a new hidden subgroup H', as follows. G' is $\{X \in GL(V) : XW' \leq$ W' and $(X - I)W = 0\}$, which is isomorphic to $GL(W') \cong GL(V/W)$. H' is the stabilizer of the flag $W' > W' \cap U_1 > \cdots > W' \cap U_{k-1} \geq 0$. Note that the oracle restricted to G'realizes a hiding function for H'.

The recursive call then returns a flag in W' as $W' > U'_1 > U'_2 > \cdots > U_{k'} > 0$. Let $U_i = \langle U'_i \cup W \rangle$, $i \in [k']$. If W = T, then the algorithm outputs the flag $V > U_1 > U_2 > \cdots > U_{k'} > W > 0$. If W < T, return $V > U_1 > U_2 > \cdots > U_{k'} > 0$.

It is clear that at most n recursive calls will be made, and the algorithm runs in polynomial time given that the two subroutines run in polynomial time too. We now prove Proposition 8 and 9 in the next two subsections.

5.2. Guessing a part of the flag

In this subsection we prove Proposition 8. Recall that $G = \operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$, the hidden subgroup H stabilizes the flag $V > U_1 > \ldots > U_{k-1} > 0$, and $T = U_{k-1}$. The algorithm of [9] for finding hidden Borel subgroups in 2 by 2 matrix groups was based on computing the intersection with the stabilizer of a nonzero vector. Here we follow an extension of the idea to arbitrary dimension n. We consider the common stabilizer of n-1 linearly independent vectors.

Pick a random subspace $U' \leq V$ of dimension n-1. Recall that $G_{U'}$ denotes the group of pointwise stabilizers of U'. We also consider the group consisting of the unipotent elements of $G_{U'}$, $N = \{X \in \operatorname{GL}(V) : (X - I)V \leq U' \text{ and } X \in G_{U'}\}$. Note that N is an abelian normal subgroup of $G_{U'}$ of size q^{n-1} . Here we illustrate the form of $G_{U'}$ and N when U' is put in an appropriate basis:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & & * \\ & 1 & & * \\ & & 1 & * \\ & & & 1 & * \\ & & & & * \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & * \\ & 1 & & * \\ & & 1 & * \\ & & & 1 & * \\ & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We will describe three procedures, whose success on producing some $0 < W \leq T$ depend on $d := \dim(T)$ and the field size q. Each of these procedures only works for a certain range of d and q, but together they cover all possible cases. Thus, the algorithm runs each of these procedures, and returns the three results from them. The general idea behind these procedures is to examine the intersection of the random hyperplane U' with T. As $d = \dim(T)$, the probability that U' contains T is $\frac{q^{n-d}-1}{q^n-1} \sim \frac{1}{q^d}$. Assume first that U' does not contain T. We claim that in this case

$$\sum_{X \in H \cap G_{U'}} (X - I)V = T \tag{2}$$

and
$$\sum_{X \in H \cap N} (X - I)V = U' \cap T.$$
 (3)

To see this, pick $v_n \in T \setminus U'$, and let v_1, \ldots, v_{n-1} be a basis for U' such that for every 0 < j < k, the system $v_{n-\dim(U_j)+1}, \ldots, v_{n-\dim(U_{j+1})}$ is a basis for U_j . In the basis v_1, \ldots, v_n , the matrices of the elements of N are the matrices with ones in the diagonal, arbitrary elements in the last column except the lowest one, and zero elsewhere. Among these the matrices of the elements of intersection with H are those whose first n - d entries in the last column are also zero:

Based on the above analysis, the three procedures are as follows.

- If d > 1, then $H \cap N$ is nontrivial. As N is abelian, we can efficiently compute $H \cap N$ by the abelian hidden subgroup algorithm. Thus by Equation 3, we can use it to compute W_1 as a guess for a nontrivial subspace of T.
- If d = 1 and $q \ge n$, we can compute $H \cap G_{U'}$ in $G_{U'}$ by the algorithm in Proposition 7, and use it to compute W_2 as a guess for T by Equation 2.
- If d = 1 and q < n, with probability at least $\frac{1}{q} \frac{1}{q^2} = \Omega(\frac{1}{q}) = \Omega(\frac{1}{n})$, we have that $U' \ge T$ but U' does not contain U_{k-2} . Then we have

$$\sum_{X \in H \cap N} (X - I)V = U' \cap U_{k-2}.$$
(4)

To see this, pick $v_n \in U_{k-1} \setminus \{0\}$, $v_{n-1} \in U_{k-2} \setminus U'$, and v_1, \ldots, v_{n-2} s.t. $v_1, \ldots, v_{n-2}, v_n$ is a basis for U' and for every 0 < j < k, the system $v_{n-\dim(U_j)+1}, \ldots, v_{n-\dim(U_{j+1})}$ is a basis for U_j . In this basis the matrices for the elements of $N \cap H$ are those whose entries are zero except the ones in the diagonal and except the other lowest dim U_{k-2} entries in the next to last column:

Again, we can find $H \cap N$ by the abelian hidden subgroup algorithm and use Equation 4 to compute $V' = U' \cap U_{k-2}$. If dim V' = 1 then return $W_3 = V'$ as the guess for T. Otherwise we take a direct complement V'' of V' and restrict the HSP to the subgroup of the transformations X such that (X - I)V'' = 0 and $XV' \leq V'$ (which is isomorphic to GL(V')) and apply the method in Proposition 6 to compute a subspace W_3 as the guess for T.

5.3. Checking and recursion

In this subsection we prove Proposition 9. Recall that the goal is to determine whether some subspace $0 < W \leq V$ is contained in $T = U_{k-1}$, the last member of the flag $V > U_1 > \cdots > U_{k-1} > 0$ stabilized by the hidden parabolic subgroup H. If $W \leq V$, we'd like to know whether W = T. This can be achieved with the help of the following lemma.

Lemma 10. Let H be the stabilizer in GL(V) of the flag $V > U_1 > U_2 > ... > U_{k-1} > 0$, and let 0 < W < V. Let W' be any direct complement of W in V. Then $U_{k-1} \ge W$ if and only if $H \ge \{X \in GL(V) : (X - I)V \le W\}$. Furthermore, if $U_{k-1} \ge W$ then $U_{k-1} = W$ if and only if

$$H \cap \{X \in GL(V) : (X - I)V \le W' \text{ and } (X - I)W' = 0\} = \{I\}.$$

It is clear that this allows us to determine whether $U_{k-1} \ge W$: form a generating set of $\{X \in \operatorname{GL}(V) : (X - I)V \le W\}$, and query the oracle to see whether all element in the generating set evaluate the same. Also, if $U_{k-1} \ge W$, we can test whether $U_{k-1} = W$ by solving an instance of the abelian HSP.

Let us present an intuitive interpretation of this lemma. Consider a basis of V consisting of a basis of W', followed by a basis of W. Then the subgroup mentioned in the first part is the group of invertible matrices of the form Y + I, where the first $d = \dim W'$ rows of Y are zero. The group of the second part consists of the matrices of the form I + Y where only the upper right $d \times (n - d)$ block of Y can contain nonzero entries. This is an abelian group.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{L} = \{X \in \operatorname{GL}(V) : (X - I)V \leq W\}$. To see that $U_{k-1} \geq W \Rightarrow \mathcal{H} \geq \mathcal{L}$, we show that every $X \in \mathcal{L}$ stabilizes the flag. For $i \in \{1, \ldots, k-1\}$, and $v \in U_i$, $(X - I)v \in W \leq U_{k-1} \leq U_i$. Thus $Xv \in U_i$, and X stabilizes the flag. We prove the other direction $\mathcal{H} \geq \mathcal{L} \Rightarrow U_{k-1} \geq W$ by contradiction. That is, if $U_{k-1} \not\geq W$, then we exhibit some $X \in \mathcal{L} \setminus \mathcal{H}$. For this, choose some nonzero $b \in U_{k-1}$ and $c' \in U \setminus U_{k-1}$, and form $c = b + c' \notin U_{k-1}$. Fix a basis of V as $\{b, c, d_1, \ldots\}$. Now consider the linear map X s.t. X switches b and c, and leaves d_i 's fixed. It is straightforward to verify that $X \in \mathcal{L}$ and $X \notin \mathcal{H}$.

For the furthermore part, we set $\mathcal{L}' = \{X \in \mathrm{GL}(V) : (X-I)V \leq W' \text{ and } (X-I)W' = 0\}$. To see the if direction, assume that $U_{k-1} > W$. Then $U_{k-1} \cap W' \neq 0$ and

$$\{X \in GL(V) : (X - I)W' = 0 \text{ and } (X - I)W \le U_{k-1} \cap W'\}$$

is a nontrivial subgroup of $\mathcal{H} \cap \mathcal{L}'$. For the only if direction, assume that $W = U_{k-1}$ and that $X \in \mathcal{H} \cap \mathcal{L}'$. For any $v \in V$, $Xv - v \in W'$ by $X \in \mathcal{L}'$. We show that $Xv - v \in W$ as well. For this, write v = w + w' where $w \in W = U_{k-1}$ and $w' \in W'$, thus $Xv - v = X(w + w') - (w + w') = Xw - w \in U_{k-1} = W$ by $X \in \mathcal{H} \cap \mathcal{L}'$. This shows that for any $v \in V$, $Xv - v \in W \cap W' = 0$, so X = I.

Remark 11. Instead of considering whether a subspace W is contained in U_{k-1} , we can also decide whether W contains U_1 as follows. Let us consider the same hypotheses as in Lemma 10. Then $U_1 \leq W$ if and only if $H \geq \{X \in GL(V) : (X-I)W = 0\}$. Furthermore, if $U_1 \leq W$ then $U_1 = W$ if and only if

$$H \cap \{X \in GL(V) : (X - I)V \le W' \text{ and } (X - I)W' = 0\} = \{I\}$$

With the help of the above claim, there is another possible recursion scheme: if $V > W \ge U_1$ is found then take any direct complement W' of W in V and recurse with the smaller ambient group $\{X \in GL(V) : XW \le W \text{ and } (X - I)W' = 0\}$, which is isomorphic to GL(W).

6. Finding hidden full unipotent groups

A full unipotent group in GL(V) is the subgroup

$$H = \{ X \in GL(V) : (X - I)U_j \le U_{j+1} \ (j = 0, \dots, n-1) \}$$

for some complete flag $V = U_0 > U_1 > \ldots > U_{n-1} > U_n = 0$ of subspaces. The full unipotent groups are the *p*-Sylow subgroups of GL(V) (recall that *q* is a power of the prime *p*) and finding generators for one of them is equivalent to finding the corresponding flag. We can use a variant of the method described in Section 5.2 to find U_{n-1} in time $(q+n)^{O(1)}$.

We pick a random subspace W' of dimension n-1. Put

$$N = \{ X \in GL(V) : (X - I)V \le W' \text{ and } (X - I)W' = 0 \}.$$

With probability $\Omega(\frac{1}{q})$, we have $W' \cap U_{n-2} = U_{n-1}$. If this is the case then

$$\sum_{X \in N \cap H} (X - I)V = U_{n-1}.$$

To see this, pick $v_n \in U_{n-1} \setminus \{0\}$, $v_{n-1} \in U_{n-2} \setminus U_{n-1}$, and $v_j \in W' \cap U_{j-1} \setminus U_j$, for $j = 1, \ldots, n-2$. In this basis the matrices for the elements of $N \cap H$ are those whose

entries are zero except the ones in the diagonal and except the lowest entry in the next to last column:

Therefore we can use the abelian hidden subgroup algorithm for finding $H \cap N$ and use it to compute a guess for U_{n-1} . We can test a guess for U_{n-1} by testing a set of generators of the group

$$\{X \in GL(V) : (X - I)V \le U_{n-1} \text{ and } (X - I)U_{n-1} = 0\}$$

for membership in H and the restrict the hiding function to the subgroup

$$\{X \in \operatorname{GL}(V) : (X - I)U_{n-1} = 0\} \cong \operatorname{GL}_{n-1}(\mathbb{F}_q)$$

in order to find the other members of the flag by recursion. The complexity of the procedure is $(q+n)^{O(1)}$.

7. Maximal and minimal parabolic subgroups: classical algorithms

In this section, we consider the following HSP: the ambient group $G = \operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$, and for some integer 0 < d < n, the family of hidden subgroups is $\mathcal{H} = \{G_{\{U\}} : U \leq V, \dim(U) = d\}$, that is those subgroups setwise stabilizing *d*-dimensional subspaces. We assume that *d* is given.

7.1. A simple deterministic algorithm

Here is a simple deterministic algorithm for finding U: try every hyperplane in V until we obtain a hyperplane $W \ge U$. Once such W is obtained we recurse as described in Remark 11. It is also described in Remark 11 how to check with the oracle whether $W \ge U$. The cost is polynomial in the number of hyperplanes $q^n - 1$, which is sub-exponential in $n^2 \log q$ when n is reasonably large.

7.2. An almost tight lower bound

We now present a lower bound for the query complexity of a randomized algorithm for this HSP. First we present the lower bound for the deterministic case based on an adversary strategy. Then we argue that a minor adaptation of this works for the randomized case. We will suppose w.l.o.g that $d \leq n/2$, as otherwise we can replace with d by n - d.

7.2.1. Deterministic query complexity

Proposition 12. Let $G = \operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$, and $\mathcal{H} = \{G_{\{U\}} : U \leq V, \dim(U) = d\}$. Any deterministic algorithm for $\operatorname{HSP}(G, \mathcal{H})$ must make $\Omega(q^{d/2})$ queries.

Proof. Suppose that the deterministic algorithm queries the oracle for N group elements. The strategy of the adversary is simply to return different values (different labels of cosets) for these elements until it becomes impossible. That is, as long as there still exists a d-dimensional subspace which is *not* stabilized by any of the non-scalar quotients of pairs of the queried matrices. In other words, if during the execution of algorithm, the queries are $g_1, ..., g_N$, where assuming without loss of generality that all g_i 's are distinct, the adversary returns labels 1, 2, ..., N. Note that the answer to the t^{th} query adds at most t new pairs of quotients of g_i s. Hence there are at most $\binom{N}{2}$ such nontrivial quotients $g_i g_j^{-1}$. If g is one of the quotients, then the algorithm learns that g does not stabilize the hidden subspace. In order to continue the adversary strategy, all we need to make sure is that the quotients generated so far do not stabilize all the hidden subspaces of dimension d, i.e., there are still two d-dimensional subspaces which are not stabilized by any of the quotients. In this case the algorithm can not answer correctly on any of these two subspaces. Thus it suffices to upper bound the number of subspaces stabilized by an individual group element.

For $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$, $b \leq a$, let $\binom{a}{b}_q$ be the Gaussian binomial coefficient, which counts the number of *b*-dimensional subspaces of \mathbb{F}_q^a . If b > a then set $\binom{a}{b}_q = 0$. The analogue of the Pascal equality for binomial coefficients is $\binom{a}{b}_q = q^b \binom{a-1}{b}_q + \binom{a-1}{b-1}_q$. It is also easily deduced that $\binom{a}{b}_q = \frac{q^a-1}{q^{a-b}-1} \binom{a-1}{b}_q$.

Claim 13. For $A \in \operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$, if $A \neq \lambda I$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_q^{\times}$, then A can stabilize at most $\binom{n-1}{d}_q + \binom{n-1}{d-1}_q d$ -dimensional subspaces.

Proof. We prove by induction on n. When n = d, this can be verified easily. Suppose the claim holds for $d \le n < k$. Then for n = k, we distinguish the following cases.

Case I. Suppose there does not exist a hyperplane $P \leq V$, s.t. A acts as a scalar matrix on P. Then by induction hypothesis, for any hyperplane $P \leq V$, the restriction of A on P stabilizes at most $\binom{k-2}{d}_q + \binom{k-2}{d-1}_q$ d-dimensional subspaces. Thus the number of d-dimensional subspaces that A stabilizes is at most $\frac{q^{k}-1}{q^{k-d}-1} \cdot \binom{k-2}{d}_q + \binom{k-2}{d-1}_q \leq \binom{k-1}{d}_q + \binom{k-1}{d-1}_q$.

 $\frac{q^{k}-q}{q^{k-d}-q} \cdot {\binom{k-2}{d}}_{q} + \frac{q^{k-1}-1}{q^{k-d}-1} \cdot {\binom{k-2}{d-1}}_{q} \leq {\binom{k-1}{d}}_{q} + {\binom{k-1}{d-1}}_{q}.$ Case II. Suppose A acts on some hyperplane $P \leq V$ as λI . If A only stabilizes d-dimensional subspaces in P, A stabilizes at most ${\binom{n-1}{d}}_{q}$ d-dimensional subspaces. Otherwise, suppose A stabilizes a subspace $U \leq V$, dim(U) = d, and $U \not\leq P$. Take $v \in U \setminus P$, and suppose $Av = \mu v + w$ for $\mu \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{\times}$, and $w \in P \cap U$. We now consider the following cases.

Case II (i). If $\mu \neq \lambda$, let $\gamma = 1/(\mu - \lambda)$. Then $A(v + \gamma w) = \mu(v + \gamma w)$. Form a basis of V as $(b_1, \ldots, b_{k-1}, v + \gamma w)$, where b_1, \ldots, b_{k-1} is a basis for P. Then w.r.t. this basis A is diag $(\lambda, \ldots, \lambda, \mu)$. The number of subspaces stabilized by diag $(\lambda, \ldots, \lambda, \mu)$ is clearly $\binom{k-1}{d}_q + \binom{k-1}{d-1}_q$.

Case II (ii). If $\mu = \lambda$, first note that $w \neq 0$, since $A \neq \lambda I$. Now consider a basis of V as $(v, w, b_1, \ldots, b_{k-2})$, where $(w, b_1, \ldots, b_{k-2})$ is a basis of P. W.r.t this basis, A is of the

form

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & & & \\ 1 & \lambda & & \\ & & \lambda & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & \lambda \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then for any d-dimensional U s.t. A(U) = U and $U \leq P$, it is easy to check that U must contain w, so the number of such U is at most $\binom{k-1}{d-1}_q$, which the number of d-dimensional subspaces containing w. This concludes this case.

Therefore the quotients can hit less than $N^2 \left(\binom{n-1}{d}_q + \binom{n-1}{d-1}_q\right)$ subspaces. As $\binom{n}{d}_q = q^d \binom{n-1}{d}_q + \binom{n-1}{d-1}_q$ and $\binom{n-1}{d-1}_q \leq \binom{n-1}{d}_q$ for $d \leq n/2$, these do not give all the *d*-dimensional subspaces unless $N = \Omega(q^{d/2})$ when $d \leq n/2$. In other words, this yields a lower bound of $\Omega(q^{d/2})$ for the deterministic query complexity.

Note that when d is around $\frac{n}{2}$, this lower bound gives $\Omega(q^{n/4})$, as compared to the $q^{O(n)}$ upper bound shown in the last subsection.

7.2.2. Randomized query complexity

Recall that any randomized query algorithm R for HSP that has success probability ϵ can be viewed as a probability distribution over several deterministic query algorithms, i.e., the deterministic algorithm D_i is used with probability p_i , where $i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$ for some k.

On every input, i.e., on every d dimensional subspace V the probability that the D_i outputs correctly on V is at least $1 - \epsilon$. By a simple double-counting argument (cf. Yao's min-max principle applied to uniform distribution on inputs), there is a $j \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$ such that the deterministic algorithm $D = D_j$ outputs correctly on at least $1 - \epsilon$ fraction of the inputs. Thus in order to prove lower bound for randomized case, it suffices to show a lower bound for the deterministic algorithm that computes correctly on $1 - \epsilon$ fraction of the inputs.

Claim 14. Let $G = \operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$, $d \leq n/2$, and $\mathcal{H} = \{G_{\{U\}} : U \leq V, \dim(U) = d\}$. Let D be a deterministic algorithm for $\operatorname{HSP}(G, \mathcal{H})$ that answers correctly on at least $1 - \epsilon$ fraction (for a constant $\epsilon \geq 0$) of the d-dimensional subspaces. Then D must make at least $\Omega(q^{d/2})$ queries in worst case.

Proof. Suppose D makes N queries and computes correctly on at least $1 - \epsilon$ fraction of inputs. First we note that the adversary strategy (described in previous subsection) for the deterministic query complexity is non-adaptive, i.e., one may assume that the answers to the queries are fixed by the adversary beforehand. So we can assume without loss of generality that the adversary answers distinct coset-labels $1, 2, \ldots, N$ as long as it can be consistent with its answers. We use the same adversary strategy for D that was used for the deterministic case. Our lower bound will only be weaker by a multiplicative $1 - \epsilon$ factor.

To see this, note that after N queries D obtains information about at most $\binom{N}{2}$ quotient elements. Moreover, since D makes error on at most ϵ fraction of inputs, there

are at most ϵ fraction of the *d*-dimensional subspaces *uncovered* by the stabilizers of these $\binom{N}{2}$ quotient elements. Hence, from the point of view of the adversary, it can can continue giving different labels as answer to the queries as long as there are still ϵ fraction of the *d*-dimensional subspaces still left uncovered. Hence we get essentially the same lower bound with the multiplicative factor of $1 - \epsilon$ on the query complexity of *D*, and hence on query complexity of any randomized algorithm.

This proves Therom 3. As every Borel subgroup is contained in the stabilizer of a unique $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ -dimensional subspace, Claim 14 remains valid with $d = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ if we replace \mathcal{H} with the class of Borel subgroups, proving Corollary 4.

8. Concluding remarks

We have shown that hidden parabolic subgroups of the general linear group over a finite field can be found in quantum polynomial time. Efficient procedures for finding parabolic subgroups in related groups, that is in the (projective) special linear group can be derived using the techniques described in [19] for Borel subgroups. One possible direction for further research could be determining the complexity of $HSP(GL_n(F_q), \mathcal{H})$ for other well known classes \mathcal{H} of large subgroups of $GL_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$, e.g., where \mathcal{H} consists of (certain subclasses) the classical groups. For full unipotent groups we gave a method polynomial in n and q. Even for n = 2 it would be interesting to know whether there is an algorithm of complexity subexponential in $\log q$ (e.g., $2^{O(\sqrt{\log q})}$).

The instance of the HSP discussed in Section 4 is a problem in the flavor of the generalized hidden shift problem introduced in [6]. In our view, the existence of a quantum algorithm for this problem which also works in polynomial time where the base field is neither of constant characteristic nor sufficiently large is an interesting open question. A positive answer would also simplify the main algorithm of the present paper.

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