# Complexity of multiphoton interferometry

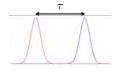
Hubert de Guise

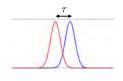
Lakehead University

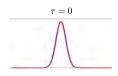
25 February 2016

# What is the question?

Distinguishability of photons results in different coincidence rates of the interfering photons.

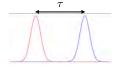


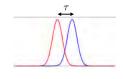


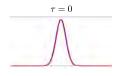


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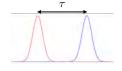


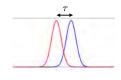


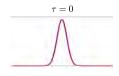
Some coincidence rates in interferometry are related to matrix functions.

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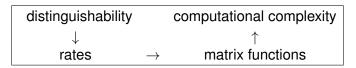
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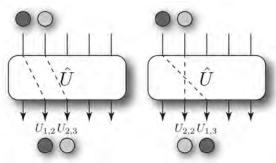


- Some coincidence rates in interferometry are related to matrix functions.
- Some of these matrix functions have known computational complexity.



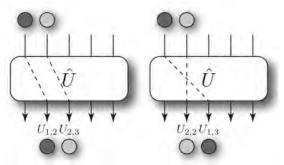
# Indistinguishability and permanents

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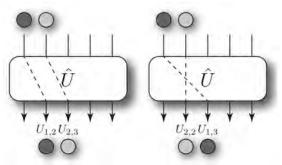
The scattering amplitude is:

$$U_{12}U_{23} + U_{13}U_{22} = \text{Per}\left( egin{array}{cc} U_{12} & U_{13} \ U_{22} & U_{23} \end{array} 
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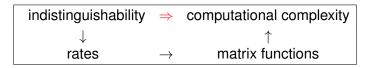


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▶ The probability  $P((1,2) \rightarrow (2,3)) \sim |\text{Per}|^2$ .

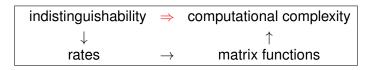




► The matrix function is the permanent of a scattering submatrix, and permanents of a complex matrix are known to be "hard" to compute.

```
\begin{array}{ccc} \text{indistinguishability} & \Rightarrow & \text{computational complexity} \\ \downarrow & & \uparrow \\ \text{rates} & \rightarrow & \text{matrix functions} \end{array}
```

- The matrix function is the permanent of a scattering submatrix, and permanents of a complex matrix are known to be "hard" to compute.
- ▶ If there exists a polynomial-time classical algorithm that samples from the same probability distribution as a linear-optical network (fed with indistinguishable photons), then lots of problems thought to be "hard" can be solved using this algorithm (unlikely!).



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- Linear-optical networks function as "restricted" quantum computers to establish "quantum computational supremacy" over classical computers.



### The Computational Complexity of Linear Optics

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#### PHYSICAL REVIEW LETTERS

2 NOVEMBER 1987

### Measurement of Subpicosecond Time Intervals between Two Photons by Interference

C. K. Hong, Z. Y. Ou, and L. Mandel

Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Rochester, Rochester, New York 14627
(Received 10 July 1987)

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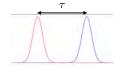
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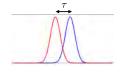
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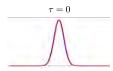
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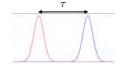
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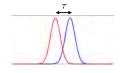
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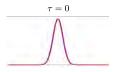
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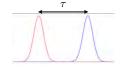
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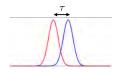
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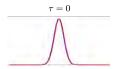
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2 pulses are injected in distinct input channels of an interferometer:







- ▶ There is a controllable delay  $\tau = \tau_1 \tau_2$  between pulses.
- ► The experiment counts the rate at which photons exit from two different output channels:

$$\sum_{a}^{b} = \bigoplus_{a'}^{b'} + \boxed{+} \boxed{+} \boxed{+}$$

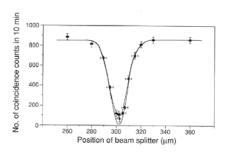
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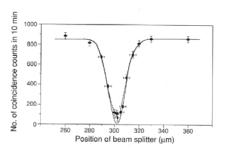
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► This ties the indistinguishability features of the input pulses with the matrix function Per(*U*).



What is a permanent?  
Look at 
$$U = \begin{pmatrix} U_{11} & U_{12} & U_{13} \\ U_{21} & U_{22} & U_{23} \\ U_{31} & U_{32} & U_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$

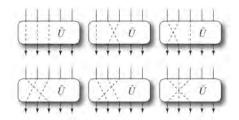


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▶ The permanent of *U* has the expansion

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{Per}(U) &= U_{11}(U_{22}U_{33} + U_{23}U_{32}) \\ &+ U_{12}(U_{21}U_{33} + U_{23}U_{31}) \\ &+ U_{13}(U_{21}U_{32} + U_{22}U_{31}) \end{aligned}$$

PERMANENTS

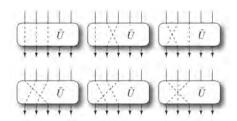


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PERMANENTS



▶ It contains 6 = 3! terms and 18 multiplications.

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- ▶ Best method known for permanents of "arbitrary" complex matrices: Ryser's formula involves  $(n-1)(2^n-1)$  multiplications.



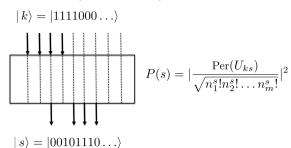
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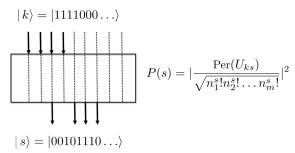


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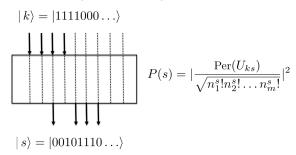


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- Special cases exists if the matrix is not completely "arbitrary".
- Permanents of hermitian semi-definite matrices are well-studied (lots of connection with graph theory).

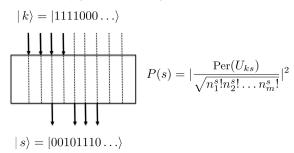




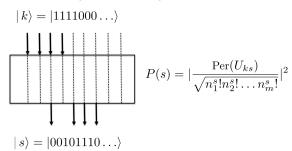
For *n* photons in *m* modes there are  $\binom{n+m-1}{n}$  possible output configurations (some having more than one photons per output mode).



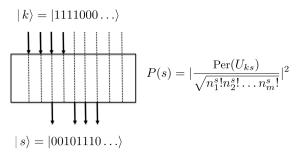
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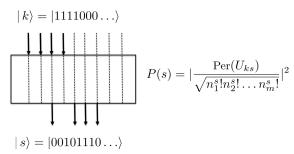
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  - ▶ For m = 10 and n = 10:  $\sim 9 \times 10^4$  possible output modes,
  - ▶ For m = 100 and n = 10:  $\sim 10^{23}$  possible output modes
- ► The probability of each output configuration is  $|Per(U_s)|^2$ , the permanent of a specified  $n \times n$  submatrix of the scattering matrix U.

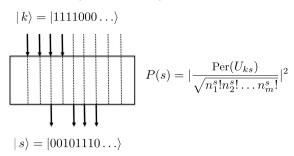


 A particular output is unlikely to get significant statistics unless the number of photons increases at the same (exponential) rate at the number of output configurations.

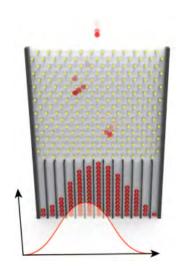


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- Using the interferometer as a permanent calculator is not efficient.

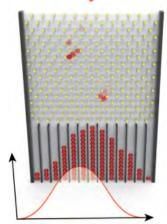
# Interferometer: a (quantum) permanent calculator?



- A particular output is unlikely to get significant statistics unless the number of photons increases at the same (exponential) rate at the number of output configurations.
- Using the interferometer as a permanent calculator is not efficient.
- Solution: transform the problem into a sampling problem where one looks at the distribution of photons in all output modes.

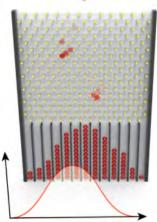


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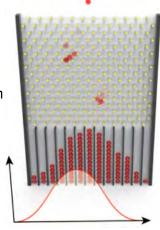
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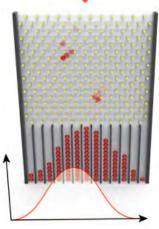
▶ The error in the "sampling" of the distribution is measured by the 1-norm distance  $\|\mathcal{D} - \mathcal{P}\| = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i |d_i - p_i|$  between the "experimental" (or measured) distribution and the (ideal) binomial distribution.



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- The Galton board demonstrates classical random walk.





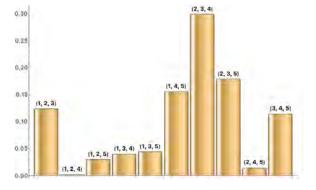
After sending many n-tuples of indistinguishable photons in the interferometer the "output" distribution of the photons will "approximate" an ideal distribution.



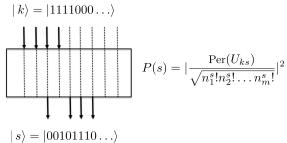
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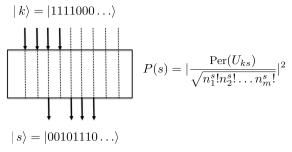
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- ▶ This paradigm is BosonSampling.



- Assume the unitary transformation is known.
  - Characterizing this unitary can be very time-consuming.

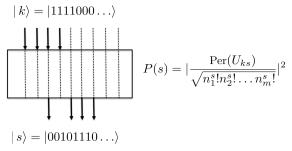


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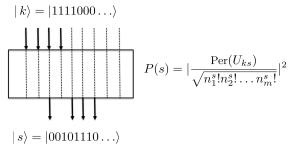
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  - The experimentalist is guaranteed that this output will occur with probability  $\frac{|\text{Per}(U_{ks})|^2}{n_1^s! n_2^2 \dots n_m^s!}$ .

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  - The experimentalist is guaranteed that this output will occur with probability  $\frac{|\text{Per}(U_{ks})|^2}{n_s^{s_1}n_s^{s_2}\dots n_s^{s_s}}$ .
  - ▶ if two (or more) photons come out the same channel reject:
    U<sub>ks</sub> is not a submatrix of the original unitary.

➤ The theorist needs to construct an efficient (i.e. polynomial in resources) algorithm so that

$$P(s) = |\operatorname{Per}(U_{ks})|^2$$

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(whatever this algorithm is).

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  - This is hard to do because calculating permanents involves an exponential number of operations using Ryser's method.
- ▶ This algorithm can be used to solve other "hard" problems.
- As of now, only brute force method known, i.e. actually calculate all the permanents.
  - ▶ given computer running at  $100 \times 10^{15}$  FLOPS, 15 photons in 275 channels implies  $\sim 10^{29}$  multiplications and  $\sim 33000$  years of runtime.

- ► The interferometer functions as an elementary "quantum computer".
  - ▶ it is *not* a programmable (universal) computer

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- The "computation" is one of sampling the distribution of permanents.
- Requires only linear optics, photon sources and photon detectors.
- This is a rather "useless" practical problem but
- can still be used to demonstrate the superiority of the quantum vs classical computer.



#### Experimental boson sampling

Max Tillmann<sup>1,2</sup>\*, Borivoje Dakić<sup>1</sup>, Renė Heilmann<sup>2</sup>, Stefan Nolte<sup>3</sup>, Alexander Szameit<sup>3</sup> and Philip Walther<sup>1,2</sup>\*





#### Experimental boson sampling

Max Tillmann<sup>12</sup>\*, Borivoje Dakić<sup>1</sup>, Renė Heilmann<sup>2</sup>, Stefan Nolte<sup>1</sup>, Alexander Szameit<sup>1</sup> and Philip Walther<sup>12</sup>\*

#### Boson Sampling on a Photonic Chip

Justin B. Spring, <sup>3</sup>- Benjamin J. Metcalf, <sup>3</sup> Peter C. Humphreys, <sup>3</sup> W. Steven Kolthammer, <sup>1</sup> Xian-Min Jin, <sup>3</sup>- Marco Barbieri, <sup>3</sup> Animesh Datta, <sup>3</sup> Nicholas Thomas-Petez, <sup>3</sup> Nathan K. Langford, <sup>1,3</sup> Dmytro Kundys, <sup>3</sup> James C. Gates, <sup>8</sup> Brian J. Smith, <sup>5</sup> Peter G. R. Smith, <sup>5</sup> Har A. Walmsley<sup>3</sup> +

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#### **Photonic Boson Sampling** in a Tunable Circuit

Matthew A. Broome, 1,2. Alessandro Fedrizzi, 1,2 Saleh Rahimi-Keshari, 2 Justin Dove, 3 Scott Aaronson,3 Timothy C. Ralph,2 Andrew G. White3,2

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#### Integrated multimode interferometers with arbitrary designs for photonic boson sampling

Andrea Crespi12, Roberto Osellame12\*, Roberta Ramponi12, Daniel J. Brod3, Ernesto F. Galvão3\*, Nicolò Spagnolo<sup>4</sup>, Chiara Vitelli<sup>45</sup>, Enrico Majorino<sup>4</sup>, Paolo Mataloni<sup>4</sup> and Fabio Sciarrino<sup>4\*</sup>

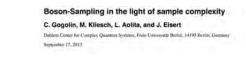
How to verify that classically intractable quantum devices perform as expected?

Boson-Sampling in the light of sample complexity

C. Gogolin, M. Kliesch, L. Aolita, and J. Eisert

Duhlem Center for Complex Quantum Systems, Freie Umsersität Berlin. 14195 Berlin. Germany September 17, 2013

How to verify that classically intractable quantum devices perform as expected?





There DOES exist an efficient test based on

$$P = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |U_{ij}|^2 > \left(\frac{n}{m}\right)^n$$
.

to certify the interferometer works correctly.

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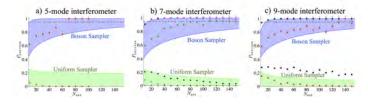
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# Experimental validation of photonic boson sampling

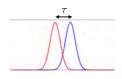
Nicoló Spagnolo<sup>1</sup>, Chiara Vitelli<sup>12</sup>, Marco Bentivegna<sup>1</sup>, Daniel J. Brod<sup>2</sup>, Andrea Crespi<sup>45</sup>, Fulvio Flamini<sup>1</sup>, Sandro Giacomini<sup>1</sup>, Giorgio Milani<sup>1</sup>, Roberta Ramponi<sup>45</sup>, Paolo Mataloni<sup>1</sup>, Roberto Sellame<sup>45</sup>\*, Frensto F. Galvão<sup>1\*</sup> and Fabio Sciarino<sup>1\*</sup>



# Partial distinguishability

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$$|\text{out}\rangle = \int d\omega_1 d\omega_2 \phi(\omega_1) \phi(\omega_2) \, \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i}\omega_2 \tau}$$

$$|\operatorname{out}\rangle = \int d\omega_1 d\omega_2 \phi(\omega_1) \phi(\omega_2) e^{i\omega_2} \times \left[ U_{11} a_1^{\dagger}(\omega_1) + U_{21} a_2^{\dagger}(\omega_1) \right] \left[ U_{12} a_1^{\dagger}(\omega_2) + U_{22} a_2^{\dagger}(\omega_2) \right] |0\rangle$$

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$$|\mathsf{out}
angle = \int d\omega_1 d\omega_2 \phi(\omega_1) \phi(\omega_2) \, \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i}\omega_2 au} \ imes \left[ U_{11} a_1^\dagger(\omega_1) + U_{21} a_2^\dagger(\omega_1) \right] \left[ U_{12} a_1^\dagger(\omega_2) + U_{22} a_2^\dagger(\omega_2) \right] |0
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$$a_1^{\dagger}(\omega_1)a_2^{\dagger}(\omega_2) = \frac{1}{2}\left(a_1^{\dagger}(\omega_1)a_2^{\dagger}(\omega_2) + a_1^{\dagger}(\omega_1)a_2^{\dagger}(\omega_2)\right) + \frac{1}{2}\left(a_1^{\dagger}(\omega_1)a_2^{\dagger}(\omega_2) - a_1^{\dagger}(\omega_1)a_2^{\dagger}(\omega_2)\right)$$

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- With  $P_{12}: \omega_1 \leftrightarrow \omega_2$

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$$+\frac{1}{2}\left(a_1^{\dagger}(\omega_1)a_2^{\dagger}(\omega_2)-a_1^{\dagger}(\omega_1)a_2^{\dagger}(\omega_2)\right)$$

- ▶ With  $P_{12}: \omega_1 \leftrightarrow \omega_2$ ▶ there is a symmetric  $\square$  part:
  - P<sub>12</sub>  $= + \square$



- Look now at arbitrary delays.
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$$\begin{aligned} |\mathsf{out}\rangle &= \int d\omega_1 d\omega_2 \phi(\omega_1) \phi(\omega_2) \, \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i}\omega_2 \tau} \\ &\times \left[ U_{11} a_1^\dagger(\omega_1) + U_{21} a_2^\dagger(\omega_1) \right] \left[ U_{12} a_1^\dagger(\omega_2) + U_{22} a_2^\dagger(\omega_2) \right] |0\rangle \end{aligned}$$

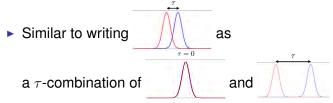
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Similar to writing as as a  $\tau$ -combination of and



▶ The coincidence rate  $R(\tau)$  eventually yields

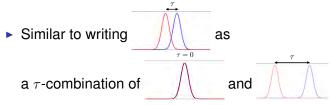
$$R(\tau) = \frac{1}{2} |\text{con}|^2 (1 + e^{-\sigma^2 \tau^2}) + \frac{1}{2} |\text{con}|^2 (1 - e^{-\sigma^2 \tau^2})$$



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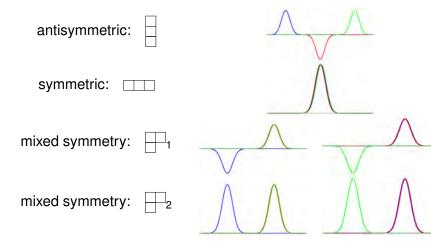
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- For partially distinguishable photons, there is more than just a permanent.
- ▶ Note that, for  $\tau = 0$ , only  $|\Box\Box|^2$  survives.

• for 3 photons there are 3! terms in the decomposition of  $a_{\alpha}^{\dagger}(\omega_1)a_{\beta}^{\dagger}(\omega_2)a_{\gamma}^{\dagger}(\omega_3)$ .

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- for 3 photons there are 3! terms in the decomposition of  $a_{\alpha}^{\dagger}(\omega_1)a_{\beta}^{\dagger}(\omega_2)a_{\gamma}^{\dagger}(\omega_3)$ .
- ► 3! possible permutations: 11, P<sub>12</sub>, P<sub>23</sub>, P<sub>13</sub>, P<sub>123</sub>, P<sub>132</sub>.
- 3! possible "basis configurations":



The proposal of A&A contains five sources of "errors" that will not make an experimental realization ideal.

Imperfect preparation of the input Fock state

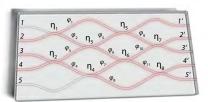
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Inject 3 photons at the input of an interferometer.



- Inject 3 photons at the input of an interferometer.
- Select 3 output channels





thereby selecting a 3  $\times$  3 submatrix of the 5  $\times$  5 scattering matrix.

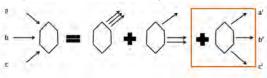
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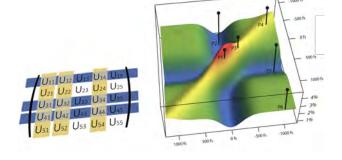


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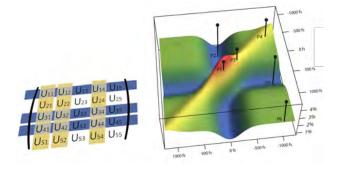
Record the coincidence counts as are function of the 2 relative delays w/r to a reference photon.



The result is a 2-D landscape in delay space

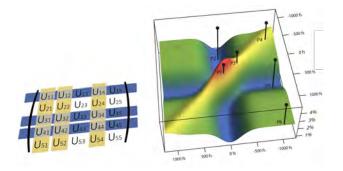


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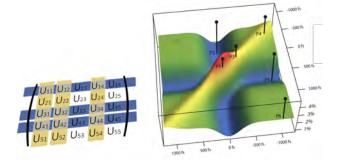
There are plateaus in 2 corners:

The result is a 2-D landscape in delay space



- There are plateaus in 2 corners:
  - ► These are areas where the two relative delays are large.

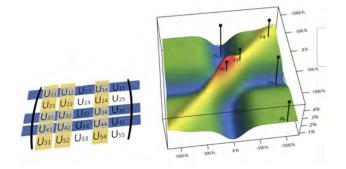
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- ► There are plateaus in 2 corners:
  - ► These are areas where the two relative delays are large.
  - ▶ These correspond to 3 distinct pulses

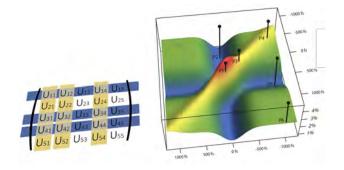


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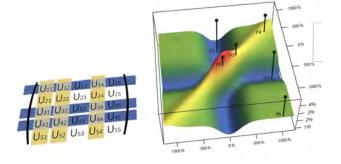
There are two valleys and one ridge:

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- There are two valleys and one ridge:
  - This occurs when one of the delay is 0.

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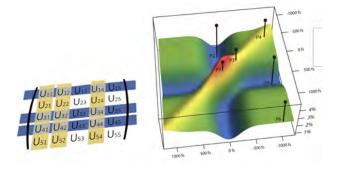


- ▶ There are two valleys and one ridge:
  - This occurs when one of the delay is 0.
  - ► This corresponds to 2 indistinguishable photons, with the

third partially distinguishable



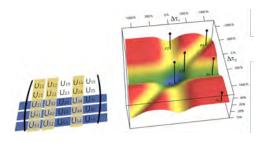
The result is a 2-D landscape in delay space



- ▶ There is a single point at the center:
  - This occurs when both delays are 0:.
  - ▶ This corresponds to 3 indistinguishable photons

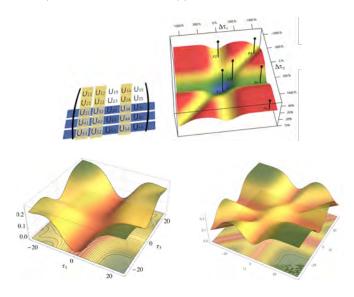
### Typical landscape features

All landscapes have the same typical features.



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First pair:

$$\begin{split} |\frac{13}{2}\rangle_1 &= \left[a_1^\dagger(\omega_1)a_2^\dagger(\omega_2) - a_1^\dagger(\omega_2)a_2^\dagger(\omega_1)\right]a_3^\dagger(\omega_3)|0\rangle \\ &+ \left[a_1^\dagger(\omega_3)a_2^\dagger(\omega_2) - a_1^\dagger(\omega_2)a_2^\dagger(\omega_3)\right]a_3^\dagger(\omega_1)|0\rangle \\ |\frac{12}{3}\rangle_1 &= P_{23}|\frac{13}{2}\rangle_1\,, \end{split}$$

where  $P_{ij}$  interchanges  $\omega_i \leftrightarrow \omega_j$ 

First pair:

$$\begin{split} |\frac{1|3}{2|}\rangle_1 &= \left[a_1^\dagger(\omega_1)a_2^\dagger(\omega_2) - a_1^\dagger(\omega_2)a_2^\dagger(\omega_1)\right]a_3^\dagger(\omega_3)|0\rangle \\ &+ \left[a_1^\dagger(\omega_3)a_2^\dagger(\omega_2) - a_1^\dagger(\omega_2)a_2^\dagger(\omega_3)\right]a_3^\dagger(\omega_1)|0\rangle \\ |\frac{1|2}{3|}\rangle_1 &= P_{23}|\frac{1|3}{2|}\rangle_1\,, \end{split}$$

where  $P_{ij}$  interchanges  $\omega_i \leftrightarrow \omega_j$ 

$$P_{13} \begin{vmatrix} \boxed{13} \\ 2 \end{vmatrix} \rangle_1 = + \begin{vmatrix} \boxed{13} \\ 2 \end{vmatrix} \rangle_1$$

$$P_{12} \begin{vmatrix} \boxed{12} \\ 3 \end{vmatrix} \rangle_1 = + \begin{vmatrix} \boxed{12} \\ 3 \end{vmatrix} \rangle_1$$

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but

$$P_{12}|_{\boxed{2}}^{\boxed{13}}\rangle_1 = -|_{\boxed{2}}^{\boxed{13}}\rangle_1 - |_{\boxed{3}}^{\boxed{12}}\rangle_1$$

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$$\begin{split} |\frac{1|3}{2|}\rangle_1 &= \left[a_1^\dagger(\omega_1)a_2^\dagger(\omega_2) - a_1^\dagger(\omega_2)a_2^\dagger(\omega_1)\right]a_3^\dagger(\omega_3)|0\rangle \\ &+ \left[a_1^\dagger(\omega_3)a_2^\dagger(\omega_2) - a_1^\dagger(\omega_2)a_2^\dagger(\omega_3)\right]a_3^\dagger(\omega_1)|0\rangle \\ |\frac{1|2}{3}\rangle_1 &= P_{23}|\frac{1|3}{2}\rangle_1 \;, \end{split}$$

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but

$$P_{12}|_{2}^{\boxed{13}}\rangle_{1}=-|_{2}^{\boxed{13}}\rangle_{1}-|_{3}^{\boxed{12}}\rangle_{1}$$

Similar properties holds for the second pair of states

To go along with mixed symmetry states are mixed symmetry matrix functions called *immanants*.

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The are constructed in a group-theoretical way using characters.

1	P <sub>12</sub>	P <sub>13</sub>	P <sub>23</sub>	P <sub>123</sub>	P <sub>132</sub>	
1	1	1	1	1	1	Permanent
1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	Determinant
2	0	0	0	-1	-1	(2,1)-Immanant

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1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	Determinant
2	0	0	0	-1	-1	(2,1)-Immanant

To compute the permanent:

$$\begin{split} \mathsf{Per}(U) &= U_{11} U_{22} U_{33} + U_{12} U_{21} U_{33} + U_{13} U_{22} U_{31} \\ &+ U_{11} U_{23} U_{32} + U_{12} U_{23} U_{31} + U_{13} U_{21} U_{32} \,, \\ &= \sum \chi^{\square\square}(\sigma) \left[ U_{1\sigma(1)} U_{2\sigma(2)} U_{3\sigma(3)} \right] \end{split}$$

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Note that  $P_{ij}$ Per(U) = +Per(U): permuting any two columns of U does not change the permanent.

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1	P <sub>12</sub>	P <sub>13</sub>	P <sub>23</sub>	P <sub>123</sub>	P <sub>132</sub>	
1	1	1	1	1	1	permanent
1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	Determinant
2	0	0	0	-1	-1	(2,1)-Immanant

To compute the determinant:

$$\begin{split} \mathsf{Det}(U) &= U_{11} U_{22} U_{33} - U_{12} U_{21} U_{33} - U_{13} U_{22} U_{31} \\ &- U_{11} U_{23} U_{32} + U_{12} U_{23} U_{31} + U_{13} U_{21} U_{32} \,, \\ &= \sum \chi^{\boxed{1}}(\sigma) \left[ U_{1\sigma(1)} U_{2\sigma(2)} U_{3\sigma(3)} \right] \end{split}$$

To go along with mixed symmetry states are mixed symmetry matrix functions called *immanants*.

The are constructed in a group-theoretical way using characters.

	1	P <sub>12</sub>	P <sub>13</sub>	P <sub>23</sub>	P <sub>123</sub>	P <sub>132</sub>	
	1	1	1	1	1	1	permanent
	1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	Determinant
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Note that  $P_{ij}\text{Det}(U) = -\text{Det}(U)$ : permuting any two columns of U multiplies the determinant by -1.

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To compute the (2-1)-immanant:

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- ► Permuting any two columns of *U* does not change the immanant back to itself.
- ► In fact there are 4 linearly independent immanants:

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- this must be so because the rate is a scalar (a number).

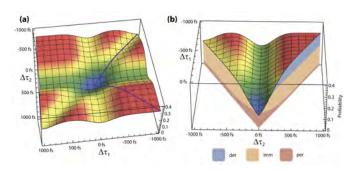
## Experimental results beyond permanents

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#### Generalized Multiphoton Quantum Interference

Max Tillmann, 1st. Si. Hui Tan, 2st. Stocckl, 1st. Barry C. Sanders, 3st. Hubert de Guise, 3 René Helimann, 2stefan Nolle, 2st. Alexander Szameit, 2st. and Philip Walther 1st. Faculty of Physics, University of Vienna, Boltzmanngasse 5, A-1090 Vienna, Austria 2singapore University of Technology and Design, 20 Dover Drive, 138682 Singapore Singapore University of Technology and Design, 20 Dover Drive, 138682 Singapore Calgary, Alberta, Tan 1st. Alexandra Calgary, Calgary, Alberta, Tan 1st. Ganada 2rgram in Quantum Information Science, Canadian Institute for Advanced Research, Toronto, Ontario, MSG 128 Canada 3Department of Physics, Lukhead University, Thundre Buy, Omario, P7B SEI Canada 2st. Lukhead University, Thundre Buy, Omario, P7B SEI Canada 2st. Maxwell Physics, Abbe Center of Photomics, Friedrich-Schiller Universität Jena, Maxweller Platz I. Do7743 Jena, German

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#### THE COMPUTATIONAL COMPLEXITY OF IMMANANTS\*

#### PETER BÜRGISSER†

Abstract. Permanents and determinants are special cases of immanants. The latter are polynomial matrix functions defined in terms of characters of symmetric groups and corresponding to Young diagrams. Valiant has proved that the evaluation of permanents is a complete problem in both the Turing machine model (#P-completeness) as well as in his algebraic model (VNP-completeness). We show that the evaluation of immanants corresponding to hook diagrams or rectangular diagrams of polynomially growing width is both #P-complete and VNP-complete.

Many immanants are in the same complexity class as permanents. For n photons immanants are labeled by a diagram with n boxes in at most n rows:

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Many immanants are in the same complexity class as permanents. For n photons immanants are labeled by a diagram with n boxes in at most n rows:

- Immanants of the type ☐☐ . . . ☐ are "just about equally hard" to compute as permanents.
- There is a sliding scale of hardness but if one or more of the rows gets "very long" in comparison with the total number of rows then the associated immanant is "hard".

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  - n − 2 photons photons arriving at the same time: □□...□ with n − 2 boxes.
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  - etc for the other diagrams.

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#### Coincidence landscapes for three-channel linear optical networks

Hubert de Guise, 1<sup>n</sup> Si-Hui Tan, 2<sup>n</sup> Issac P. Poulin, 1 and Barry C. Sanders 1<sup>n</sup> 1
Department of Physics, Lukehead University, Thunder Bay, Ontario PTB 5E1, Canada 1
Singapor University of Technology, 20 Doner Drive, Singapore 138682

\*Institute for Quantum Science and Technology, University of Calgary, Calgary, Alberta T2N 1N4, Canada 1
Program in Quantum Information Science, Canadian Institute for Advanced Research, Toronto, Ontario M5G 128, Canada (Received 13 February 2014; published 23 June 2014)

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Hurdles to get clean "immanant signals"

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  - Si-Hui Tan (Singapore)
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