Mutually Unbiased Bases

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Definition 1.1 (Mutually Unbiased Bases): Two bases $\mathcal{U} = \{|u_i\rangle\}_{i=0}^{d-1}$ and $\mathcal{V} = \{|v_j\rangle\}_{j=0}^{d-1}$ of the Hilbert space $\mathbb{C}^d$ are called mutually unbiased when:

$$|\langle u_i | v_j \rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{d}$$

Definition 1.2 (Set of Mutually Unbiased Bases): A set of n bases $S = \{U_i\}_{i=0}^{n-1}$ is called a set of mutually unbiased bases when for each pair of bases (U_i, U_j) in S, U_i and U_j are mutually unbiased bases.

Theorem 1.1 (Horodecki [1]): There are no more than $d + 1$ mutually unbiased bases in the Hilbert space $\mathbb{C}^d$.

Proof: ...

$\square$

Theorem 1.2 (Horodecki [1]): There is a set of three, but not four, mutually unbiased bases in the Hilbert space $\mathbb{C}^d$ for $d \geq 2$.

Proof: Suppose we take $d = 2$. Then, according to Theorem 1.1, no more than three mutually unbiased bases exist in $\mathcal{H}_2$ (= $\mathbb{C}^2$), the Hilbert space of dimension two. First we identify a set U of the three mutually unbiased bases U_0, U_1, and U_2 so that:

$$U = \{U_0, U_1, U_2\}$$

Then we will show that any other basis can not be unbiased with all three of them.

Step 1: Defining the first basis (The computational basis)

Our first basis, U_0, will be the orthonormal computational basis:

$$U_0 = \{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$$

This basis corresponds to the eigenbasis of the Pauli-Z operator.

Step 2: Defining a second mutually unbiased basis

Our second basis must be mutually orthogonal to U_0:

$$\left|\langle u_i^0 | u_j^1 \rangle\right|^2 = \frac{1}{d} = \frac{1}{2}$$

for all $u_i \in U_0$ and $u_j \in U_1$.

It is commonly known [2] that the eigenbases of the Pauli operators are mutually unbiased. So, a good candidate is the Hadamard basis, which corresponds to the eigenbasis of the Pauli-X operator:

$$U_1 = \{|+\rangle, |-\rangle\}$$

where $|+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)$ and $|-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$.

The bases U_0 and U_1 are then mutually unbiased:

$$|\langle 0|+\rangle|^2 = \left|\left\langle 0 \left| \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)\right.\right\rangle\right|^2 = \left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right|^2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$|\langle 0|-\rangle|^2 = \left|\left\langle 0 \left| \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)\right.\right\rangle\right|^2 = \left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right|^2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$|\langle 1|+\rangle|^2 = \left|\left\langle 1 \left| \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)\right.\right\rangle\right|^2 = \left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right|^2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$|\langle 1|-\rangle|^2 = \left|\left\langle 1 \left| \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)\right.\right\rangle\right|^2 = \left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right|^2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

Since the condition holds for all pairs from U_0 and U_1, they are mutually unbiased.

Step 3: Defining a third mutually unbiased basis

Now, we seek a third basis U_2 that is unbiased with both U_0 and U_1. Again, the eigenbasis of the Pauli-Y operator works.

$$U_2 = \{|+i\rangle, |-i\rangle\}$$

where $|+i\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + i|1\rangle)$ and $|-i\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - i|1\rangle)$. Then U_2 is mutually unbiased with U_0:

$$|\langle 0|{+}i\rangle|^2 = \left|\left\langle \left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + i|1\rangle)\right.\right\rangle\right|^2 = \left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right|^2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$|\langle 0|{-}i\rangle|^2 = \left|\left\langle 0\left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - i|1\rangle)\right.\right\rangle\right|^2 = \left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right|^2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$|\langle 1|{+}i\rangle|^2 = \left|\left\langle 1\left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + i|1\rangle)\right.\right\rangle\right|^2 = \left|\frac{i}{\sqrt{2}}\right|^2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$|\langle 1|{-}i\rangle|^2 = \left|\left\langle 1\left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - i|1\rangle)\right.\right\rangle\right|^2 = \left|-\frac{i}{\sqrt{2}}\right|^2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

Likewise, U_2 is mutually unbiased with U_1:

$$|\langle +|{+}i\rangle|^2 = \left|\left\langle \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)\left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + i|1\rangle)\right.\right\rangle\right|^2 = \left|\frac{1+i}{2}\right|^2 = \frac{|1|^2 + |1|^2}{2^2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$|\langle +|{-}i\rangle|^2 = \left|\left\langle \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)\left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - i|1\rangle)\right.\right\rangle\right|^2 = \left|\frac{1-i}{2}\right|^2 = \frac{|1|^2 + |1|^2}{2^2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$|\langle -|{+}i\rangle|^2 = \left|\left\langle \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)\left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + i|1\rangle)\right.\right\rangle\right|^2 = \left|\frac{1-i}{2}\right|^2 = \frac{|1|^2 + |1|^2}{2^2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$|\langle -|{-}i\rangle|^2 = \left|\left\langle \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)\left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - i|1\rangle)\right.\right\rangle\right|^2 = \left|\frac{1+i}{2}\right|^2 = \frac{|1|^2 + |1|^2}{2^2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Thus, we have found three mutually unbiased bases for $d = 2$

Step 4: Proving a fourth mutually unbiased basis is impossible

Now we show that it's impossible to construct a fourth basis, U_3, that is unbiased with U_0, U_1, and U_2.

For any new basis to be unbiased with U_0, its states must be of the form:

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + e^{i\varphi}|1\rangle)$$

where $0 \le \varphi < 2\pi$ is a real number.

For this state to also be unbiased with U_1, we must have

$$|\langle +|\psi\rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{2} \quad \forall \ |\psi\rangle \in U_2$$

We can then derive the following equation:

$$|\langle + | \psi \rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{1}{2} (\langle 0| + \langle 1|)(|0\rangle + e^{i\varphi}|1\rangle) \right|^2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{1 + e^{i\varphi}}{2} \right|^2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2^2} \left| (1 + e^{i\varphi}) \right|^2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| (1 + e^{i\varphi}) \right|^2 = 2$$

$$\Rightarrow |(1 + \cos(\varphi) + i\sin(\varphi))|^2 = 2$$

$$\Rightarrow (1 + \cos(\varphi))^2 + (\sin(\varphi))^2 = 2$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 + 2\cos(\varphi) + \cos^2(\varphi) + \sin^2(\varphi) = 2$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 + 2\cos(\varphi) + 1 = 2$$

$$\Rightarrow \cos(\varphi) = 0$$

Therefore any element $|\psi\rangle$ in U_3 must be of the form:

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + e^{i\varphi}|1\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}}|1\rangle) \text{ or } \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + e^{i\frac{3\pi}{2}}|1\rangle)$$

Finally, for the state to also be unbiased with U_2. Checking the condition for $\varphi = \frac{\pi}{2}$ we get:

$$|\psi\rangle = |0\rangle + i|1\rangle = |+i\rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow |\langle +i|\psi\rangle|^2 = \left| \frac{1}{2} (\langle 0| - i\langle 1|)(|0\rangle + i|1\rangle) \right|^2$$

$$= \left| \frac{1 - i^2}{2} \right|^2 = 1$$

For a mutually unbiased basis, this should equal $\frac{1}{2}$. Therefore, $|\psi\rangle$ cannot be an element of U_2.

Likewise:

$$|\psi\rangle = |0\rangle - i|1\rangle = |-i\rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow |\langle +i|\psi\rangle|^2 = \left| \frac{1}{2} (\langle 0| - i\langle 1|)(|0\rangle - i|1\rangle) \right|^2$$

$$= \left| \frac{1 + i^2}{2} \right|^2 = 1$$

Therefore, no 4th basis for d=2 can exist. □

1.0.1 Mutually unbiased bases for $d = 3$

We can construct mutually unbiased bases for $d = 3$ with various well established methods, such as:

1.0.2 Weyl-Heisenberg (or generalized Pauli operator):

It is the standard technique for prime dimensions. It uses the shift and phase operators X and Z, along with their products XZ^a for $a = 0, 1, ..., d-1$, to generate eigenbases that are mutually unbiased. This method scales well with prime d and is algebraically elegant.

Generalized Pauli (Weyl) operators on C^3

$$\omega = e^{2\pi \frac{i}{3}}$$

$$X = [(0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1), (1, 0, 0),]$$

$$Z = [(1, 0, 0), (0, \omega, 0), (0, 0, \omega^2),]$$

$$B_Z = [(1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1),$$

$$B_X = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} * [(1, 1, 1), (1, \omega, \omega^2), (1, \omega^2, \omega),]$$

$$B_{\{XZ\}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} * [(1, 1, 1), (1, \omega, \omega^2), (\omega, 1, \omega^2),]$$

$$B_{\{XZ^2\}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} * [(1, 1, 1), (1, \omega, \omega^2), (\omega^2, \omega, 1),]$$

1.0.3 Finite field (Galois Field) method:

It is another powerful approach, particularly useful for both prime and prime power dimensions. This method uses structure from finite fields F_d, which exist for prime d. It defines MUB vectors using field-theoretic constructions involving quadratic and linear phase terms. This method is highly generalizable and connects quantum information with abstract algebra.

1.0.4 Geometric approach:

It is based on finite projective planes and complex Hadamard matrices, provides a combinatorial and geometric perspective. MUBs correspond to lines in projective geometry over finite fields. While this method is mathematically rich and generalizable, it is often more suitable for larger or composite dimensions.

1.0.5 Fourier matrix and its diagonal phase-shifted versions:

Starting with the Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) matrix F, one can multiply it by diagonal matrices of the form $D_a = \{\text{diag}\}(1, \omega^a, \omega^{2a}$ to generate additional MUBs. This is particularly convenient for small dimensions like $d = 3$, though less structured for general cases.

The **Fourier matrix** and simple phase shifts. For $d = 3$, the Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) matrix is

$$F = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} * [(1,1,1),(1,\omega,\omega^2),(1,\omega^2,\omega)]$$

where $\omega = e^{2\pi\frac{i}{3}}$ is a primitive third root of unity. The columns of F form one unbiased basis.

To generate more bases, we multiply F by diagonal matrices of the form

$$D_a = \mathrm{diag}(1,\omega^a,\omega^{2a}), \quad a = 1,2.$$

The sets of vectors from F, FD_1, and FD_2 give the remaining mutually unbiased bases, together with the standard computational basis.

This approach is straightforward for small prime dimensions like $d = 3$.

Computational basis B_0

$$B_0 = [(1,0,0),(0,1,0),(0,0,1)]$$

Fourier basis B_1 (columns of F)

$$B_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} * [(1,1,1),(1,\omega,\omega^2),(1,\omega^2,\omega)]$$

Quadratic-phase Fourier $B_2 = \mathrm{diag}(1,\omega,\omega) \times B_1$

$$B_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} * [(1,1,1),(\omega,\omega^2,1),(\omega,1,\omega^2)]$$

Quadratic-phase Fourier $B_3 = \mathrm{diag}(1,\omega^2,\omega^2) \times B_1$

$$B_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} * [(1,1,1),(\omega^2,1,\omega),(\omega^2,\omega,1)]$$

1.0.6 Brute-force numerical or symbolic approach

It is possible to use a brute-force numerical or symbolic approach, solving the orthonormality and unbiasedness conditions directly. While this method offers hands-on intuition and is useful for validation, it becomes computationally impractical as the dimension increases.

1.0.7 Construction of Mutually Unbiased Bases in $d = 4$ via the Two-Qubit Pauli/ Stabilizer Method

For a Hilbert space of dimension d, at most $d + 1$ mutually unbiased bases (MUBs) can exist; this maximum is achieved for prime powers. Since $4 = 2^2$, we can construct five MUBs in C^4.

Let the single-qubit Pauli operators be

$X = [[0, 1], [1, 0]],$

$Y = [[0, -i], [i, 0]],$

$Z = [[1, 0], [0, -1]].$

The computational basis for two qubits ordered as: $|00\rangle, |01\rangle, |10\rangle, |11\rangle$.

1.0.8 Commuting partition used

One convenient disjoint partition of the 15 non-identity Paulis into five maximal commuting sets is:

$$S_1 = \{Z \otimes I, I \otimes Z, Z \otimes Z\}$$
$$S_2 = \{X \otimes I, I \otimes X, X \otimes X\}$$
$$S_3 = \{Y \otimes I, I \otimes Y, Y \otimes Y\}$$
$$S_4 = \{X \otimes Y, Y \otimes Z, Z \otimes X\}$$
$$S_5 = \{X \otimes Z, Z \otimes Y, Y \otimes X\}$$

Proof that at least three MUBs exist in any dimensions.

> **Theorem 2.1** (At least three mutually unbiased bases exist [3], [4], [5]): For any dimension $d \geq 2$, there exist three pairwise mutually unbiased bases (MUBs) in Hilbert space $\mathbb{C}^d$.

Proof:

Road-map for proof:

1. Constructing 3 MUBs for all powers of 2, $d = 2^a$ using Pauli eigenbases $\{X, Y, Z\}$ on a qubits.

2. Constructing 3 MUBs for all odd dimensions $d = m$ using Weyl operators and a quadratic Gauss-sum argument

- (Weyl operators are generalized Pauli matrices X, Z)
- (A Gauss sum is a finite sum of roots of unity).

3. Using a tensor-product lemma to combine the odd and even parts will give new 3 pairwise MUBs for any $d = 2^a m$ where m is odd.

Everything here in point 1 and 2 is in MUBs literature separately, we just need to combine them using the tensor-product lemma in point 3.

Step 1: Power of 2, $d = 2^a$ (Even dimensions)

For a single qubit ($d = 2$), the eigenbases of Z, X, and Y are pairwise MUB.

For a qubits ($d = 2^a$), take product bases

$$\mathcal{B}_z^{(a)} = \text{eigenbases of } Z^{\otimes a}, \quad \mathcal{B}_x^{(a)} = \text{eigenbases of } X^{\otimes a}, \quad \mathcal{B}_y^{(a)} = \text{eigenbases of } Y^{\otimes a}$$

If $|\Phi\rangle$ and $|\psi\rangle$ are single qubit vectors from different Pauli eigenbases, $|\langle\Phi|\psi\rangle|^2 = 1/\sqrt{2}$ and for tensor products across a qubits, the inner products factorize, so the magnitude becomes $\left(1/\sqrt{2}\right)^a = 1/\sqrt{2^a}$. Thus these three bases MUB in 2^a.

Step 2: three MUBs from Odd dimensions, $d = m$ from $\{Z, X, XZ\}$

General Pauli operators (Weyl operators) on $\mathbb{C}^d$, We fix computational Z - basis $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle, ..., |d-1\rangle\}$ with $\langle j|l\rangle = \delta_{j,l}$ (Kronecker delta) and $\omega = e^{2\pi i/d}$.

$$Z|j\rangle = \omega^j |j\rangle \quad X|j\rangle = |(j+1) \bmod d\rangle$$

Two immediate facts:

1. Z is diagonal in the computational basis.
2. X is cyclic shift operator (unitary, $X^d = I$), and $XZ = \omega ZX$.

Phase operator Z

Its matrix form is $Z = \mathrm{diag}\{\omega^0, \omega^1, ..., \omega^{\{d-1\}}\}$

Suppose $d = 3$, then $Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \omega & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \omega^2 \end{pmatrix}$

Shift operator X

suppose $d = 3$, then $X|0\rangle = |1\rangle$, $X|1\rangle = |2\rangle$, $X|2\rangle = |0\rangle$.

$X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ For convenience the X matrix is often written as $X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

2.0.1 Z and X are mutually Unbiased:

Fourier Vectors (i.e. X-eigenbasis)

$$|x_k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} \sum_{j=0}^{d-1} \omega^{lk} |l\rangle$$

Compute $\langle j|x_k\rangle$

$$\langle j|x_k\rangle = \langle j| \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} \sum_{l=0}^{d-1} \omega^{lk} |l\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} \sum_{l=0}^{d-1} \omega^{jk} \langle j|l\rangle.$$

use orthonormality $\langle j|l\rangle = \delta_{j,l}$ to pick out $l = j$ term:

$$\langle j|x_k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} \omega^{jk} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}}.$$

because $|\omega^{jk}| = 1$, its magnitude squared is

$$|\langle j|x_k\rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{d}.$$

the kronecker delta makes every term zero except when $j = l$, and the remaining term has unit modulus.

Similarly, it also works for reverse overlap: $\langle x_{k'}|j\rangle = (\langle j|x_{k'}\rangle)^* = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} \omega^{-jk}$. same magnitude $1/\sqrt{d}$.

In terms of Matrices: The $d \times d$ Fourier matrix F columns are the X-eigenbasis, with entries $F_{j,k} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} \omega^{jk}$. The vector $|x_k\rangle$ is just the k-th column of F, so $\langle j|x_k\rangle$ is the (j, k) entry of $\frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} \omega^{jk}$.

Suppose $d = 3$, then $|x_0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $|x_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega \\ \omega^2 \end{pmatrix}$, $|x_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega^2 \\ \omega \end{pmatrix}$.

then e.g. $\langle 2|x_1\rangle$ is the third component of $|x_1\rangle$, which is $\langle 2|x_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\omega^{2.1}$, whose magnitude is $1/\sqrt{3}$ $\quad \forall \omega^2 = 1$.

Hence Z and X are mutually unbiased.

Third basis by diagonalizing XZ (odd d)

For the third basis, we use eigenvectors of XZ and one convenient eigenbasis is formed by quadratic chirps.

The trick is a quadratic phase ("Chirp"):

$$\left| u_k^{(r)} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} \sum_{l=0}^{d-1} \omega^{rl^2 + kl} |l\rangle, \qquad k = 0, 1, ..., d-1$$

Since d is odd, 2 has a multiplicative inverse modulo d. Choose $r \in \{0, 1, ..., d-1\}$ such that $2r \equiv 1 \bmod(d)$. Equivalently, $r \equiv \frac{1}{2} \bmod(d)$.

Quick examples:

$d = 3 : r = (3+1)/2 = 2.$ Check $2 \cdot 2 = 4 \equiv 1 (\bmod\, 3)$

$d = 5 : r = (5+1)/2 = 3.$ Check $2 \cdot 3 = 6 \equiv 1 (\bmod\, 5)$

$d = 7 : r = (7+1)/2 = 4.$ Check $2 \cdot 4 = 8 \equiv 1 (\bmod\, 7)$

These will be eigenvectors of XZ. Compute $XZ|l\rangle = Z|l+1\rangle = \omega^{l+1}|l+1\rangle$, then

$$XZ|u_k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} \sum_{l=0}^{d-1} \omega^{rl^2 + kl} Z|l+1\rangle$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} \sum_{l=0}^{d-1} \omega^{rl^2 + kl} \omega^{l+1} |l+1\rangle$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} \sum_{m=0}^{d-1} \omega^{r(m-1)^2 + k(m-1)} \omega^m |m\rangle \qquad \forall l = m-1,$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} \sum_{m=0}^{d-1} \omega^{rm^2 - 2rm + r + km - k} \omega^m |m\rangle$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} \sum_{m=0}^{d-1} \omega^{rm^2 + (k-2r+1)m + (r-k)} |m\rangle$$

Because $2r \equiv 1 \bmod(d)$, the coefficient of m simplifies: $-2r + k + 1 \equiv k (\bmod\, d)$.

Hence

$$XZ|u_k\rangle = \omega^{r-k}\frac{1}{\sqrt{d}}\sum_m \omega^{rm^2+km}|m\rangle = \omega^{r-k}|u_k\rangle. \quad \forall \quad m \to l.$$

so $|u_k\rangle$ is an eigenvector of XZ. Vectors $\{|u_k\rangle\}_{k=0}^{\{d-1\}}$ form the eigenbasis.

Unbiasedness of Z - basis and XZ - basis:

$$\langle j|u_k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}}\omega^{r+j^2+kj} \quad \Rightarrow \quad |\langle j|u_k\rangle| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}}\omega^{-jk} \qquad \forall \omega^{-jk} = 1$$

Unbiasedness of X - basis and XZ - basis:

X - bases are $|x_{k'}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}}\sum_{l=0}^{d-1}\omega^{lk'}|l\rangle$

XZ - bases are $|u_k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}}\sum_{l=0}^{d-1}\omega^{rl^2+kl}|l\rangle$

$$\langle x_{k'}|u_k\rangle = \left\langle \left(\left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{d}}\sum_{l=0}^{d-1}\omega^{lk'}|l\rangle\right\rangle\right)\left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{d}}\sum_{l=0}^{d-1}\omega^{rl^2+kl}|l\rangle\right.\right\rangle$$

$$\langle x_{k'}|u_k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{d}}\sum_{l=0}^{d-1}\omega^{(lk')+(rl^2+kl)}$$

$$\langle x_{k'}|u_k\rangle = \frac{1}{d}\sum_{l=0}^{d-1}\omega^{rl^2+(k-k')l}$$

Simplifying the power of ω using completing the square technique:

$$rl^2 + (k-k')l = r\left(l + \frac{k-k'}{2r}\right)^2 - \frac{(k-k')^2}{4r}$$

so

$$\langle x_{k'}|u_k\rangle = \frac{\omega^{-\frac{(k-k')^2}{4r}}}{d}\sum_{j=0}^{d-1}\omega^{r\left(l+\frac{k-k'}{2r}\right)^2} = \frac{\omega^{-\frac{(k-k')^2}{4r}}}{d}\sum_{j=0}^{d-1}G(r;d)$$

where $G(r;d) = \sum_{j=0}^{d-1}\omega^{rj^2}$ is a quadratic Gauss sum. For odd d, with gcd(r,d)=1,

$$|G(r;d)| = \sqrt{d}$$

Therefore

$$|\langle x_{k'}|u_k\rangle| = \left(\frac{|G(r;d)|}{d}\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}}$$

This proves that XZ-eigenbasis unbiased with the X-eigenbasis. Putting it all together, for odd d, the three bases Z-eigenbasis, X-eigenbasis, and XZ-eigenbasis are pairwise mutually unbiased.

Step 3: Tensor-product lemma to combine even and odd parts $\Rightarrow$ any $d2^a m$ (with m odd)

Lemma (Tensor-product MUB):

If $\{A\}_{i=0}^r$ are MUBs in dimension d_1 and $\{B\}_{i=0}^r$ are MUBs in dimension d_2, then $\{A_i \otimes B_i\}_{i=0}^r$ are MUBs in dimension $d_1 d_2$.

Proof of lemma: Pick unit vectors $a \in A_i, a' \in A_j$ and $b \in B_i, b' \in B_j$. Then

$$\langle a \otimes b | a' \otimes b' \rangle = \langle a | a' \rangle \langle b | b' \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d_1}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{d_2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d_1 d_2}} \quad \forall i \neq j$$

Now we can write any dimension d as $d = 2^a m$ (with m odd).

- Using step 1, to get three MUBs $\{A_1, A_2, A_3\}$ in 2^a.
- Using step 2, to get three MUBs $\{B_1, B_2, B_3\}$ in m.
- Applying the tensor-product lemma, we get three MUBs $\{A_i \otimes B_i\}_{i=1}^3$ in $d = 2^a m$.

$\square$

2.1 Proof for $d + 1$ Mutually Unbiased Bases exist for any dimension d (when d is Prime p or Power of Prime p^n).

Here We try to prove that there exist complete set $(d + 1)$ mutually unbiased bases in any dimension d when d is a prime or a power of a prime.

For other dimensions (e.g. $6, 10, 12, \ldots$), a full set of MUBs is not known, the problem is still open.

We start with the case when d is a prime p:

> **Theorem 2.1.1** (Complete set of MUBs for prime dimensions p [3]): For any prime dimension $d = p$, there exist at most $d + 1$ pairwise mutually unbiased bases (MUBs) in Hilbert space $\mathbb{C}^d$ or $\mathbb{C}^p$.

We want $p + 1$ orthonormal bases of $\mathbb{C}^p$ such that any two different bases are mutually unbiased (every cross-overlap has magnitude $\frac{1}{\sqrt{p}}$).

We will get them as:

One standard (computational) basis, and p "quadratic chirp" bases, one for each parameter $r \in \{0, 1, \ldots, p - 1\}$, together they become $p + 1$ MUBs.

Proof: **Step 1: The standard (computational) basis**

The standard basis is the eigenbasis of the Z operator:

$$\mathcal{B}_z = \{|0\rangle, |1\rangle, ..., |p-1\rangle\}$$

where $Z|j\rangle = \omega^j |j\rangle$ and $\omega = e^{2\pi \frac{i}{p}}$ is a primitive p-th root of unity.

Step 2: The quadratic chirp bases

For each $r \in \{0, 1, ..., p-1\}$, define a basis

$$\mathcal{B}_r = \left\{ \left| u_k^{(r)} \right\rangle \right\}_{k=0}^{p-1}$$

where vectors are given by

$$\left| u_k^{(r)} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sum_{l=0}^{p-1} \omega^{rl^2+kl} |l\rangle$$

- $r = 0$ gives the Fourier basis (no l^2 term, just ω^{kl}).

- $r = 1, 2, ..., p-1$ give the quadratic-phase ("chirp") bases.

  These are the eigenbases of the operators XZ^r, where X is the cyclic shift operator defined by $X|j\rangle = |(j+1) \bmod p\rangle$.

Step 3: Proving mutual unbiasedness

We need to show that each $\mathcal{B}_r$ basis is orthonormal basis.

For fixed r, lets compute

$$\left\langle u_k^{(r)} \middle| u_{k'}^{(r)} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{l=0}^{p-1} \omega^{rl^2+kl-rl^2-k'l} = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{l=0}^{p-1} \omega^{(k-k')l}$$

The ω^{rl^2} factor cancels inside the inner product because it appears with its complex conjugate and using orthonormality $\langle l|l \rangle = \delta_{l,l}$, (Kronecker delta), we get:

If $k = k'$, this is $\frac{1}{p} \sum_{l=0}^{p-1} 1 = \frac{1}{p}(p) = 1$.

If $k \neq k'$, this is a geometric series with ratio $\omega^{k-k'} \neq 1$, so the sum is zero. Thus, each $\mathcal{B}_r$ is an orthonormal basis with p vectors.

Each $\mathcal{B}_r$ is mutually unbiased with the standard basis $\mathcal{B}_z$

Unbiasedness between $\mathcal{B}_z$ and $\mathcal{B}_r$:

Compute the overlap:

$$\left\langle j \middle| u_k^{(r)} \right\rangle = \langle j | \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sum_{l=0}^{p-1} \omega^{rl^2+kl} |l\rangle \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \omega^{rj^2+kj}$$

The magnitude squared is:

$$\left|\left\langle j \middle| u_k^{(r)} \right\rangle\right|^2 = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{p}}\right)^2 \left|\omega^{rj^2+kj}\right|^2 = \frac{1}{p}$$

since $\left|\omega^{\text{anything}}\right| = 1$. Thus, $\mathcal{B}_z$ and $\mathcal{B}_r$ are mutually unbiased.

Any two different quadratic chirp bases $\mathcal{B}_r$ and $\mathcal{B}_{r'}$ (for $r \neq r'$) are mutually unbiased.

For $r \neq r'$, compute the overlap:

$$\left\langle u_k^{(r)} \middle| u_{k'}^{(r')} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{l=0}^{p-1} \omega^{(r-r')l^2+(k-k')l}$$

$$= \frac{1}{p}(\sqrt{p}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}}$$

This is a quadratic Gauss sum with nonzero quadratic coefficient $(r - r')$ (since $r \neq r'$) and p prime. Such Gauss sums have magnitude $\sqrt{p}$ as per classical number theory. Thus, $\mathcal{B}_r$ and $\mathcal{B}_{r'}$ are mutually unbiased because absolute square of their inner product becomes $\frac{1}{p}$.

Example ($p = 5$)

For $p = 5$, we have $5 + 1 = 6$ MUBs:

1. The standard basis

$$\mathcal{B}_z = \{|0\rangle, |1\rangle, |2\rangle, |3\rangle, |4\rangle\}$$

2. The Fourier basis $\mathcal{B}_{r=0} = \left\{ \left| u_k^{(0)} \right\rangle \right\}_{\{k=0\}}^{\{4\}}$

$$= \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \sum_{l=0}^{4} \omega^{0l^2+kl}|l\rangle \right\} = \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \sum_{l=0}^{4} \omega^{kl}|l\rangle \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega \\ \omega^2 \\ \omega^3 \\ \omega^4 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega^2 \\ \omega^4 \\ \omega \\ \omega^3 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega^3 \\ \omega \\ \omega^4 \\ \omega^2 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega^4 \\ \omega^3 \\ \omega^2 \\ \omega \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

where $\omega = e^{2\pi i/5}$ is a primitive fifth root of unity, r show the basis, k is column vector and l is the component of the vector k.

3. The quadratic chirp bases $\mathcal{B}_1, \mathcal{B}_2, \mathcal{B}_3, \mathcal{B}_4$

$$\mathcal{B}_1 = \left\{ \left| u_k^1 \right\rangle \right\}_{\{k=0\}}^{\{4\}} = \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \sum_{l=0}^{4} \omega^{1l^2+kl} \left| l \right\rangle \right\}$$

$$\left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega \\ \omega^4 \\ \omega^4 \\ \omega \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega^2 \\ \omega \\ \omega^2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega^3 \\ \omega^3 \\ 1 \\ \omega^4 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega^4 \\ 1 \\ \omega^3 \\ \omega^3 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \omega^2 \\ \omega \\ \omega^2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$$\mathcal{B}_2 = \left\{ \left| u_k^2 \right\rangle \right\}_{\{k=0\}}^{\{4\}} = \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \sum_{l=0}^{4} \omega^{2l^2+kl} \left| l \right\rangle \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega^2 \\ \omega^3 \\ \omega^3 \\ \omega^2 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega^3 \\ 1 \\ \omega \\ \omega \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega^4 \\ \omega^2 \\ \omega^4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \omega^4 \\ \omega^2 \\ \omega^4 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega \\ \omega \\ 1 \\ \omega^3 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$$\mathcal{B}_3 = \left\{ \left| u_k^3 \right\rangle \right\}_{\{k=0\}}^{\{4\}} = \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \sum_{l=0}^{4} \omega^{3l^2+kl} \left| l \right\rangle \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega^3 \\ \omega^2 \\ \omega^2 \\ \omega^3 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega^4 \\ \omega^4 \\ 1 \\ \omega^2 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \omega \\ \omega^3 \\ \omega \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega \\ \omega^3 \\ \omega \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega^2 \\ 1 \\ \omega^4 \\ \omega^4 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$$\mathcal{B}_4 = \left\{ \left| u_k^4 \right\rangle \right\}_{\{k=0\}}^{\{4\}} = \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \sum_{l=0}^{4} \omega^{4l^2+kl} \left| l \right\rangle \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega^4 \\ \omega \\ \omega \\ \omega^4 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \omega^3 \\ \omega^4 \\ \omega^3 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega \\ 1 \\ \omega^2 \\ \omega^2 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega^2 \\ \omega^2 \\ 1 \\ \omega \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \omega^3 \\ \omega^4 \\ \omega^3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

Now we there are no more that $p + 1$ MUBs in dimension p (prime). Let suppose there is a 7th basis $\mathcal{B}_x$ which we create randomly, such that it is orthonormal then verify if that is mutually unbiased with the previous 6 bases.

The basis $\mathcal{B}_X$ is given by the set of five vectors $\left\{ \left| v_k \right\rangle \right\}_{\{k=0\}}^{4}$, where $\omega = e^{2\pi \frac{i}{5}}$.

$$\mathcal{B}_X = \left\{ \left| v_k \right\rangle \right\}_{\{k=0\}}^{4}$$

$$\left| v_0 \right\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(1, \omega, \omega^3, \omega^2, \omega^4 \right)$$

$$|v_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(1, \omega^2, \omega, \omega^4, \omega^3)$$

$$|v_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(1, \omega^3, \omega^4, \omega, \omega^2)$$

$$|v_3\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(1, \omega^4, \omega^2, \omega^3, \omega)$$

$$|v_4\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(1, 1, 1, 1, 1)$$

We can check that $\mathcal{B}_X$ is orthonormal, but it is mutually unbiased with the standard basis $\mathcal{B}_z$ only, but not with the other 5 bases. For example, check with Fourier basis $\mathcal{B}_0, k = 1$:

$$|v_0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(1, \omega, \omega^3, \omega^2, \omega^4)$$

$$|u_1^0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(1, \omega, \omega^2, \omega^3, \omega^4)$$

$\langle v_0|u_1^0\rangle = \frac{1}{5}(1 + \omega^{-1}\omega^1 + \omega^{-3}\omega^2 + \omega^{-2}\omega^3 + \omega^{-4}\omega^4)$

$= \frac{1}{5}(1 + 1 + \omega^{-1} + \omega^1 + 1)$

$= \frac{1}{5}(3 + \omega^{-1} + \omega^1)$

Taking the absolute square of the inner product:

$$|\langle v_0|u_1^0\rangle|^2 = \left|\frac{1}{5}(3 + \omega^{-1} + \omega^1)\right|^2$$

Recall that $\omega = e^{2\pi\frac{i}{5}} = \cos\left(2\frac{\pi}{5}\right) + i\sin\left(2\frac{\pi}{5}\right)$ and $\omega^{-1} = \cos\left(2\frac{\pi}{5}\right) - i\sin\left(2\frac{\pi}{5}\right)$, so

$$\omega^{-1} + \omega^1 = 2\cos\left(2\frac{\pi}{5}\right)$$

$$\left|\frac{1}{5}\left(3 + 2\cos\left(2\frac{\pi}{5}\right)\right)\right|^2 = \frac{1}{25}\left(3 + \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2}\right)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{25}\left(\frac{5+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^2$$

$$= 0.7236... > \frac{1}{5} = 0.2$$

overlap is greater than $\frac{1}{5}$, so these two bases are not mutually unbiased.

Thus, we have shown that for prime dimension p, there exist exactly $p + 1$ mutually unbiased bases, and no more. $\qquad\square$

Theorem 2.1.2 (Complete set of MUBs for prime power dimensions p^n [3]): For any prime power dimension $d = p^n$, there exist at most $d + 1$ pairwise mutually unbiased bases (MUBs) in Hilbert space $\mathbb{C}^d$ or $\mathbb{C}^{p^n}$.

Proof: The proof for prime power dimensions $d = p^n$ uses finite field theory and properties of generalized Pauli operators (Weyl operators) in higher dimensions.

$\qquad\square$

Connection between mutually unbiased bases (MUBs) and quantum Latin squares (QLSs)

Definition 3.1 (Quantum Latin Square [6]): A quantum Latin square (QLS) of order n is an $n \times n$ array of elements of Hilbert space $\mathbb{C}^n$, such that every row and every column is an orthonormal basis.

Example: We can construct a quantum Latin square or a set of quantum Latin squares from Fourier bases for any dimensions d when d is a prime p.

From given equation of Fourier basis for prime p where $r = 0$:

$$\left| u_k^{(r)} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sum_{l=0}^{p-1} \omega^{rl^2 + kl} |l\rangle$$

$$\left| u_k^{(0)} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sum_{l=0}^{p-1} \omega^{kl} |l\rangle$$

If we take $p = 5$, then we get the following Fourier basis $\mathcal{B}_0$:

$$k = 0: \quad \left| u_0^{(0)} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (1|0\rangle, 1|1\rangle, 1|2\rangle, 1|3\rangle, 1|4\rangle)$$

$$k = 1: \quad \left| u_1^{(0)} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (1|0\rangle, \omega|1\rangle, \omega^2|2\rangle, \omega^3|3\rangle, \omega^4|4\rangle)$$

$$k = 2: \quad \left| u_2^{(0)} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (1|0\rangle, \omega^2|1\rangle, \omega^4|2\rangle, \omega|3\rangle, \omega^3|4\rangle)$$

$$k = 3: \quad \left| u_3^{(0)} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (1|0\rangle, \omega^3|1\rangle, \omega|2\rangle, \omega^4|3\rangle, \omega^2|4\rangle)$$

$$k = 4: \quad \left| u_4^{(0)} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (1|0\rangle, \omega^4|1\rangle, \omega^3|2\rangle, \omega^2|3\rangle, \omega|4\rangle)$$

where $\omega = e^{2\pi \frac{i}{5}}$ is a primitive fifth root of unity.

We can arrange these vectors in a 5×5 array, where each row corresponds to a vector $\left| u_k^{(0)} \right\rangle$ for $k = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4$:

	$k=0$	$k=1$	$k=2$	$k=3$	$k=4$
	$1\lvert 0\rangle$	$1\lvert 0\rangle$	$1\lvert 0\rangle$	$1\lvert 0\rangle$	$1\lvert 0\rangle$
	$1\lvert 1\rangle$	$\omega\lvert 1\rangle$	$\omega^2\lvert 1\rangle$	$\omega^3\lvert 1\rangle$	$\omega^4\lvert 1\rangle$
l	$1\lvert 2\rangle$	$\omega^2\lvert 2\rangle$	$\omega^4\lvert 2\rangle$	$\omega\lvert 2\rangle$	$\omega^3\lvert 2\rangle$
	$1\lvert 3\rangle$	$\omega^3\lvert 3\rangle$	$\omega\lvert 3\rangle$	$\omega^4\lvert 3\rangle$	$\omega^2\lvert 3\rangle$
	$1\lvert 4\rangle$	$\omega^4\lvert 4\rangle$	$\omega^3\lvert 4\rangle$	$\omega^2\lvert 4\rangle$	$\omega\lvert 4\rangle$

We get the set of following vectors from Fourier bases $\mathcal{B}_0$ of dimension $p = 5$:

$$\mathcal{B}_0 = \{\lvert u_0\rangle, \lvert u_1\rangle, \lvert u_2\rangle, \lvert u_3\rangle, \lvert u_4\rangle\}$$

We can construct a quantum Latin square of order 5 using these vectors as follows (each vector is a orthonormal quantum state):

$\lvert u_0\rangle$	$\lvert u_1\rangle$	$\lvert u_2\rangle$	$\lvert u_3\rangle$	$\lvert u_4\rangle$
$\lvert u_1\rangle$	$\lvert u_2\rangle$	$\lvert u_3\rangle$	$\lvert u_4\rangle$	$\lvert u_0\rangle$
$\lvert u_2\rangle$	$\lvert u_3\rangle$	$\lvert u_4\rangle$	$\lvert u_0\rangle$	$\lvert u_1\rangle$
$\lvert u_3\rangle$	$\lvert u_4\rangle$	$\lvert u_0\rangle$	$\lvert u_1\rangle$	$\lvert u_2\rangle$
$\lvert u_4\rangle$	$\lvert u_0\rangle$	$\lvert u_1\rangle$	$\lvert u_2\rangle$	$\lvert u_3\rangle$

This array is a quantum Latin square because each row and each column contains an orthonormal basis of $\mathbb{C}^5$.

Questions:

1. How many distinct quantum Latin squares can we construct from the set of vectors of Fourier basis $\mathcal{B}_0$ for prime p and how many of then will be mutually orthogonal?

2. Similarly we can construct a quantum Latin square from the set of vectors of standard basis $\mathcal{B}_z$ and from the set of vectors of each bases in quadratic chirp for any prime dimension p $\mathcal{B}_1, \mathcal{B}_2, \mathcal{B}_3, ..., \mathcal{B}_{p-1}$.

3. There is not straightforward way to count the number of distinct classical Latin squares but there exist some techniques to estimate the number of classical Latin squares.

Let l_N be the number of reduced Latin squares of order N. Any reduced square can be "un-reduced" to generate a larger set of general Latin squares by permuting its rows and columns. Specifically, we can:

1. Permute the N columns in $N!$ ways.
2. Permute the last $N-1$ rows (keeping the first row fixed) in $(N-1)!$ ways.

This gives us a direct relationship between the number of reduced squares (l_N) and the total number of Latin squares (L_N):

$$L_N = N! \times (N-1)! \times l_N$$

4. However the counting of quantum Latin squares is more complex than classical Latin squares but we try to make relationship with classical Latin squares for counting QLS

I think we can construct at least $p + 1$ times more quantum Latin squares than the classical Latin squares for any prime dimension p.

4. However the counting of quantum Latin squares is more complex than classical Latin squares but we try to make relationship with classical Latin squares for counting QLS.
   - For example, in the above example of prime $p = 5$, we can construct a quantum Latin squares from the fourier basis $\mathcal{B}_0$,
   - Similarly, we can construct QLS from the standard basis $\mathcal{B}_z$ and from each of the four quadratic chirp bases $\mathcal{B}_1, \mathcal{B}_2, \mathcal{B}_3, \mathcal{B}_4$.
   - If we assume we can get as many QLS from each basis as we can get classical Latin squares in same dimensions which is ($L_N = N! \times (N-1)! \times l_N$), so for each bases $\mathcal{B}_z, \mathcal{B}_0, ..., \mathcal{B}_4$ we can construct at least $p + 1$ times more quantum Latin squares than classical Latin squares.

$$L_N^{\{(QLS)\}} = (p + 1) \times N! \times (N-1)! \times l_N$$

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