

Quantum Computation

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1 Lecture 1

1.1 Review of Shor's algorithm/quantum period finding algorithm

Polynomial time hierarchy: // Computation with input of size n , and we are interested in the number of steps/gates (classical or quantum). When we say $O(\text{poly}(n))$ steps we regard this as an "efficient computation".

Shor's algorithm solves the factoring problem:

Given an integer N needing $O(\log N)$ bits, we want to find a non-trivial factor in $O(\text{poly}(n))$ time.

The best known classical algorithm (number sieve): $e^{O(n^{\frac{1}{3}}(\log n)^{\frac{1}{3}})}$
Shor's algorithm takes $O(n^3)$

1.1.1 Quantum factoring algorithm (summary)

1. First, convert factoring into periodicity determination. Given N , choose $a < N$ s.t. a is coprime (this is easy classically can be seen in part II lecture notes). Consider $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N$ $f(x) = a^x \bmod N$. **Euler's Theorem:** if f is periodic with period r , then it is called 'order of $a \bmod N$ '.
2. In order to find r we need a quantum implementation of f . We are always working on finite size registers so restricting $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ to $x \in \mathbb{Z}_M$ (for some large enough M): $f : \mathbb{Z}_M \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N$. f will no longer be exactly periodic but this would have negligible effect if M is sufficiently large e.g. $M = O(N^2)$
3. Using the classical theory of continued fractions. Define Hilbert spaces $\mathcal{H}_M \rightarrow \{|i\rangle\}_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_M}$, $\mathcal{H}_N \rightarrow \{|i\rangle\}_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_N}$.
4. $|x\rangle \rightarrow |f(x)\rangle$ is not generally a valid quantum operator, so we make it a unitary operation which can be implemented:

$$U_f : \mathcal{H}_M \otimes \mathcal{H}_N \rightarrow \mathbb{H}_M \otimes \mathbb{H}_N$$

$$U_f : |i\rangle |k\rangle \rightarrow |i\rangle |k + f(i)\rangle$$

5. if $x \rightarrow f(x)$ can be classically computed in $O(poly(m))$ time ($m = \log M$), then U_f can be implemented in $poly(m)$ time quantumly too
6. We will sometimes view U_f as a black box/oracle and we will count the number of times the algorithm invokes the oracle.
7. Back to factoring to get r we'll use the quantum algorithm for periodicity determination:
8. Given an oracle U_f with the promise that f is periodic of some unknown period $r \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ so that $f(x + r) = f(x)$ and f is one-to-one in this period (for all $0 \leq x_1 < x_2 < r$ $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$)
9. To find r in $O(poly(n))$ with any prescribed success probability $1 - \epsilon$ we use the following algorithm:

- Step 1: Create the state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} |i\rangle |0\rangle$$

- Step 2: Apply U_f to get

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} |i\rangle |f(i)\rangle$$

- Step 3: Measure the 2nd register to get y . By the born rule the first register collapses to all those i : $f(i) = y$ i.e. $i = x_0, x_0 + r, x_0 + 2r, \dots, x_0 + (A-1)r, 0 \leq x_0 < r$.

Discard the second register to get the following state:

$$|per\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{A}} \sum_{j=0}^{A-1} |x_0 + jr\rangle$$

If we measure $|per\rangle$ in computation basis we will get a value of one of these states $x_0 + jr$ for uniformly random j . This only gives us a random element of \mathbb{Z}_M with no information about r .

- Step 4: Apply quantum fourier transform mod M (QFT). Lets recap what QFT does:

$$|x\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{y=0}^{M-1} \omega^{xy} |y\rangle, \forall x \in \mathbb{Z}_M, \omega = e^{2\pi i/M}$$

This can be implemented in $O(m^2)$ time and gives state:

$$QFT |per\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{MA}} \sum_{j=0}^{A-1} \sum_{y=0}^{M-1} \omega^{(x_0+jr)y} |y\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{MA}} \sum_{y=0}^{M-1} \omega^{x_0 y} \left[\sum_{j=0}^{A-1} \omega^{jry} |y\rangle \right]$$

The square brackets will be:

$$\begin{cases} A & \text{if } y = KA = k\frac{M}{r}, x = 0, 1, \dots, r-1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

So gives final state:

$$QFT |per\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{A}{M}} \sum_{k=0}^{A-1} \omega^{x_0 k \frac{N}{r}} |k\frac{M}{r}\rangle$$

Now the random shift x_0 only appears in the phase not in the ket labels. So now the measurement probabilities will be independent of x_0 . When we measure this we get some value $c = \frac{k_0 M}{r}$ with k_0 uniformly random in range $0 \leq k_0 < r$

$$\frac{k_0}{r} = \frac{c}{M}$$

As c and M are known, and k_0 is unknown but random in the given range. We want to find r and so we recall several classical facts.

Co-primality Theorem: The number of integers less than r that are coprime to r grows with $O(\frac{r}{\log \log r})$

Therefore, the probability of k_0 being coprime to r is $O(\frac{1}{\log \log r})$.

Lemma: If a single trial has success probability p then if one repeats it M^* times, for any $0 < 1 - \epsilon < 1$. We get probability of at least one success in M^* trials is greater than $1 - \epsilon$ if $M^* = \frac{-\log \epsilon}{p}$. i.e. roughly $O(1/p)$ trials suffice to achieve probability of success $> 1 - \epsilon$

- After step 4 cancel $\frac{c}{M}$ down to an irreducible algorithm $\frac{a}{b}$ there is an efficient algorithm ($O(\text{polyn})$) for this. This will give us r as denominator b if k_0 is coprime to r with probability $O(\frac{1}{\log \log r})$. So check b value by computing $f(0)$ and $f(b)$ and $b = r \iff f(0) = f(b)$.

By repeating this process $M^* = O(\log \log r)$ times this will give us r with any desired probability $1 - \epsilon$. Since $r < M$ the whole algorithm takes $O(\text{polym})$ time!

10. From learning the period r we can use number theory to find a factor of N

1.1.2 Further insights to QFT

Now let's think about the implications of QFT. What does applying quantum fourier transform really achieve?

Let's consider a function: $f : \mathbb{Z}_M \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N$ with period $r \in \mathbb{Z}_M$, $A = \frac{M}{r}$. Define:

$$R = \{0, r, 2r, 3r, \dots, (A-1)r\} \subset \mathbb{Z}_M$$

$$|R\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{A}} \sum_{k=0}^{A-1} |kr\rangle$$

$$|per\rangle = |x_0 + R\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{A}} \sum_{k=0}^{A-1} |x_0 + rk\rangle$$

The problem was this random shift x_0 when measuring $|per\rangle$. For each $x_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_M$ consider a mapping $k \rightarrow k + x_0$. "Shift by x_0 ". It is a 1-1 invertible map, and can define a unitary version $U(x_0)$ on \mathcal{H}_M : $U(x_0) |k\rangle = |k + x_0\rangle$.

$$|x_0 + R\rangle = U(x_0) |R\rangle$$

Since $(\mathbb{Z}_M, +)$ is an abelian group $U(x_0)U(x_1) = U(x_0 + x_1) = U(x_1)U(x_0)$. So all $U(x_i)$ commute as operators on \mathcal{H}_M . Therefore they have an orthonormal basis of common eigenvectors $\{|\chi_k\rangle\}_{k \in \mathbb{Z}_M}$. These are called shift invariant states as $U(x_0) |\chi_k\rangle = \omega(x_0, k) |\chi_k\rangle$ for all $x_0, k \in \mathbb{Z}_M$ with the important caveat that $|\omega(x_0, k)| = 1$.

Consider $|R\rangle$ written in $\{|\chi_k\rangle\}$ basis:

$$|R\rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} a_k |\chi_k\rangle$$

a_k only depend on r not on x_0 . Then:

$$|per\rangle = U(x_0) |R\rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} a_k \omega(x_0, k) |\chi_k\rangle$$

Here it can be seen that the probability of measuring k is

$$prob(k) = |a_k \omega(x_0, k)|^2 = |a_k|^2$$

So this is all independent of x_0 and depends only on r . So measuring in this basis gives us some information about r . So one can think of QFT as the unitary mapping that rotates χ basis into the standard computational basis. So can define QFT as:

$$QFT |\chi_k\rangle = |k\rangle$$

How do these mysterious shift invariant states look?

1.1.3 Explicit form of shift invariant shapes

$$|\chi_k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{l=0}^{M-1} e^{-2\pi i l \frac{k}{M}} |l\rangle$$

$$U(x_0) |\chi_k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{l=0}^{M-1} e^{-2\pi i l \frac{k}{M}} |l+x_0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{\tilde{l}=0}^{M-1} e^{-2\pi i (\tilde{l}-x_0) \frac{k}{M}} |\tilde{l}\rangle = e^{2\pi i k \frac{x_0}{M}} |\chi_k\rangle$$

giving eigenvalue: $\omega(x_0, k) = e^{2\pi i k \frac{x_0}{M}}$. From this we could reconstruct the basis of QFT:

$$[QFT]_{kl} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} e^{2\pi i \frac{kl}{M}}$$

2 Lecture 3

2.1 Hidden Subgroup Problem

Let G be a finite group of size $|G|$. We are given an oracle $f : G \rightarrow X$ with X just some set. We are promised there is a subgroup $K < G$ s.t.

f is constant on (left) cosets of K in G

f is distinct on distinct cosets

Problem: 'Determine' the 'hidden subgroup' K (e.g. output a set of generators or sample uniformly from elements of K)

We want to solve in time $O(\text{poly}(\log |G|))$ (efficient algorithm) with any consistent probability $1 - \epsilon$. **Examples of problems that can be cast as HSP**
Periodicity finding $f : \mathbb{Z}_M \rightarrow X$ periodic, period r 1-1 in period

$$G = \mathbb{Z}_M, K = \{0, r, 2r, \dots, (A-1)r\} < G$$

Discrete Logarithm Problem: p - prime number, \mathbb{Z}_p^* group of integers with multiplication mod p , $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ to be a generator (or primitive root mod p). If $\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \{g^0, g^1, \dots, g^{p-2}\}$ and we have $g^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$. Fact: These always exist for p is prime. Any $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ can be written as $x = g^y$ for some $y \in \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}$, $y = \log_g x$ is called the discrete log of x to base g . Discrete log problem is given a generator g , $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ we want to compute $y = \log_g x$. To express this as the HSP:

$$f : \mathbb{Z}_{p-1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p^*$$

$$f(a, b) = g^a x^{-b} \pmod{p} = g^{a-yb} \pmod{p}$$

Can check if $f(a_1, b_1) = f(a_2, b_2) \iff (a_1, b_1) = (a_2, b_2) + \lambda(y, 1), \lambda \in \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}$:

$$G = \mathbb{Z}_{p-1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}$$

$$K = \{\lambda(y, 1) : \lambda \in \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}\} < G$$

Then f is constant and distinct on cosets of K and generator $(y, 1)$ of K gives $y = \log_g x$

Graph Problems:

So we can solve problems like those above where G is abelian, but we can also solve graph problems.

Consider graph $A = (V, E)$, $|V| = n$ let's say that the graph is undirected and there is at most one edge between any two vertices. Vertices here are labelled by numbers from 1 to n .

Let's define an adjacency matrix M_A : $[M_A]_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \iff (i, j) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$. The permutation group of $[n]$, $|P_n| = n!$, $\log |P_n| \sim O(n \log n)$. Define a group of automorphisms of group A which is a set of permutations with the following property: $\pi \in P_n$ s.t. $\forall i, j (i, j) \text{ is an edge in } A \iff (\pi(i), \pi(j)) \text{ is also an edge in } A$.

An associated HSP (the case of non-abelian G):

$$G = P_n, X = \text{set of all labelled graphs on } n \text{ vertices}$$

For any $A \in X$, define $f_A : G \rightarrow X$, $f_A(\pi) = "A \text{ with vertex labels permuted by } \pi"$

$$K = \text{Aut}(A)$$

(Check $f(K)$ is constant and distinct on cosets of $\text{Aut}(A)$)

Applications:

If we can sample uniformly from K , then we can solve Graph Isomorphism problem (GI). This has a number of different applications in areas of computer science. Two labelled graphs A and B with n vertices are isomorphic if there is a 1-1 map (i.e. permutation) $\pi[n] \rightarrow [n]$ s.t. $\forall i, j \in [n] (i, j) \text{ is an edge in } A \iff (\pi(i), \pi(j)) \text{ is an edge in } B$. The GI problem is given two graphs A and B and deciding if they are isomorphic. This can be represented as a non-abelian HSP. There is no known poly(m) time classical algorithm to solve this problem, so GI is clearly in NP but not believed to be NP-complete (a class of problems such that every problem in NP can be reduced to an NP-complete problem these are the hardest NP problems). In 2017, L Babai presented a quasi-polynomial algorithm for GI runtime $n^{O((\log n)^2)}$. This ranks in between polynomial runtime and exponential algorithms.

3 Lecture 4

Quantum algorithm for finite abelian HSPs - Generalisation of period-finding algorithm

Write our abelian group $(G, +)$ additively

Construction of shift-invariant states and Fourier transform for G .

Representations of abelian G :

Consider the mapping $\chi : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^* = \mathbb{C} - \{0\}$ with multiplication that satisfies:

$$\chi(g_1 + g_2) = \chi(g_1)\chi(g_2), \forall g_1, g_2 \in G$$

χ is a group homomorphism from G to \mathbb{C}^* . Such χ 's are called irreducible representations of G . They have the following properties: **Theorem 1:**

- 1) any value $\chi(g)$ is a $|G|$ -th root of unity ($\chi \in S^1$ the unit circle)
- 2) Schur's lemma (orthogonality): If χ_i, χ_j satisfy (HOM) then

$$\frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \chi_i(g) \bar{\chi}_j(g) = \delta_{ij}$$

There are always exactly $|G|$ different functions χ satisfying (HOM).

Examples: $\chi(g) = 1, \forall g \in G$ is an irrep/ called a trivial irrep

Label the trivial irrep as $\chi_0, 0 \in G$. Then for any other irrep $\chi \neq \chi_0$ orthonality to χ_0 gives:

$$\sum_{g \in G} \chi(g) = 0 \text{ if } \chi \neq \chi_0$$

Going back to constructing shift-invariant states

3.0.1 Shift-invariant states

Consider a state space $\mathcal{H}_G, \dim \mathcal{H}_G = |G|$ with basis $\{|g\rangle\}_{g \in G}$. Now introduce shift operators $U(k)$ for $k \in G$ defined as follows:

$$U(k) : |g\rangle \rightarrow |g + k\rangle, g, k \in G$$

All shift operators commute so there exists a simultaneous eigenbasis.

For each $\chi_k, k \in G$:

$$|\chi_k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|G|}} \sum_{g \in G} \bar{\chi}_k(g) |g\rangle$$

By theorem 1 $\{\chi_k\}$ form an orthonormal basis.

$$U(g) |\chi_k\rangle = \chi_k(g) |\chi_k\rangle$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} U(g) |\chi_k\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{|G|}} \sum_{h \in G} \bar{\chi}_k(h) |h + g\rangle \\ \{h' = h + g\} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{|G|}} \sum_{h' \in G} \bar{\chi}_k(h' - g) |h'\rangle \end{aligned}$$

using HOM $\chi_k(-g) = \chi_k(g)^{-1} = \bar{\chi}_k(g) \implies \chi_k(h' - g) = \bar{\chi}_k(h')\bar{\chi}_k(-g) = \bar{\chi}_k(h')\chi_k(g)$. Therefore,

$$U(g) |\chi_k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|G|}} \sum_{h' \in G} \chi_k(g) \bar{\chi}_k(h') |h'\rangle = \chi_k(g) |\chi_k\rangle$$

So $|\chi_k\rangle$'s form a common eigenbasis

Introduce Fourier transform QFT for a group G

- consider a unitary mapping on \mathcal{H}_G mapping $|\chi_k\rangle$ basis to $|g\rangle$ basis

$$QFT |\chi_g\rangle = |g\rangle, \forall g \in G$$

$$QFT^{-1} |g\rangle = |\chi_g\rangle$$

k -th column of QFT^{-1} in $|g\rangle$ basis is mode of components of $|\chi_k\rangle$:

$$[QFT^{-1}]_{gk} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|G|}} \bar{\chi}_k(g)$$

Example: $G = \mathbb{Z}_M \mathbb{L}$

Check $\chi_a(b) = e^{\frac{2\pi i a b}{M}}$, $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_M$ satisfies HOM and has its irreps labelled by $a \in \mathbb{Z}_M$ with $\chi_0(b) = 1 \forall b \in \mathbb{Z}_m$.

$$G = \mathbb{Z}_{M_1} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{M_r}$$

$$(a_1, \dots, a_r) = g_1, (b_1, \dots, b_r) = g_2$$

$$\chi_{g_1}(g_2) = e^{2\pi i (\frac{a_1 b_1}{M_1} + \dots + \frac{a_r b_r}{M_r})}$$

This satisfies HOM and our $QFT_G = QFT_{M_1} \otimes \dots \otimes QFT_{M_r}$ on $\mathcal{H}_G = \mathcal{H}_{M_1} \otimes \dots \otimes \mathcal{H}_{M_r}$.

This second example is exhaustive since we have a classification theorem:

Classification theorem: Any finite abelian group G is isomorphic to a direct product of the form $G = \mathbb{Z}_{M_1} \otimes \dots \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{M_r}$. So M_1 can be taken in a form $p_1^{s_1}, \dots, p_r^{s_r}$.

3.0.2 Quantum algorithm

$$f : G \rightarrow X$$

with hidden subgroup K and cosets $k = 0 + k, g_2 + k, \dots, g_m + k$, $m = \frac{|G|}{|K|}$. we will work on $\mathcal{H}_{|G|} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{|X|}, \{|g\rangle |x\rangle\}_{g \in G, x \in X}$.

Create a state $\frac{1}{\sqrt{|G|}} \sum_{g \in G} |g\rangle |0\rangle$

Apply U_f and $\frac{1}{\sqrt{|G|}} \sum_{g \in G} |g\rangle |f(g)\rangle$

Measure the second register to get $f(g_0)$. The first register will not give the coset state:

$$|g_0 + k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|K|}} \sum_{k \in K} |g_0 + k\rangle = U(g_0) |K\rangle$$

apply QFT and measure to get a result $g \in G$

4 Lecture 6

We can write $|K\rangle$ in the shift-invariant basis $\{\chi_g\}_{g \in G}$

$$|K\rangle = \sum_g a_g |\chi_g\rangle$$

$$|g_0 + K\rangle = U(g_0) |K\rangle = \sum_g a_g \chi_g(g_0) |\chi_g\rangle$$

as $QFT |\chi_g\rangle = |g\rangle$ so after we apply QFT

$$prob(g) = |a_g \chi_g(g_0)|^2 = |a_g|^2, |\chi_g(g_0)| = 1$$

$$QFT |K\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|G|}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{|K|}} \sum_{l \in G} \left(\sum_{k \in K} \chi_l(k) |l\rangle \right)$$

$\sum_{k \in K} \chi_l(k) |l\rangle$ involves irreps χ_l of G restricted to subgroup $K < G$, and each such object is itself an irrep in K . Hence we have the following relation:

$$\sum_{k \in K} \chi_l(k) = \begin{cases} |K| & \text{if } \chi_l \text{ restricts to the trivial irrep of } K \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$QFT |K\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{|K|}{|G|}} \sum_{l \in G} |l\rangle$$

Then a measurement gives a uniformly random choice of l s.t. $\chi_l(k) = 1$.

If k has generators k_1, \dots, k_n where $M = O(\log(K)) = O(\log|G|)$. Then the output of a measurement gives us $\chi_l(k) = 1 \forall i$.

It can be shown that if $O(\log(|G|))$ values of l chosen uniformly at random then with probability $> \frac{2}{3}$ they will suffice to determine a generating set for k via the equations $\chi_l(k) = 1$.

Example: $G = \mathbb{Z}_{M_1} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{M_l}$

$l = (l_1, \dots, l_q) \in G$, $g = (b_1, \dots, b_q) \in G$ gives $\chi_l(g) = e^{2\pi i (\frac{l_1 b_1}{M_1} + \dots + \frac{l_q b_q}{M_q})}$

For $k = (k_1, \dots, k_q) \in K$ with $\chi_l(k) = 1 \implies \frac{l_1 k_1}{M_1} + \dots + \frac{l_q k_q}{M_q} = 0 \pmod{1}$. This is a homogenous linear equation on k and $O(\log(k))$ such equations determine k as null space.

4.0.1 Remarks on HSP for non-abelian groups G

Now we will consider multiplicative shifts. As before we can generate a bunch of coset states but it is curious to investigate what breaks down.

$$|g_0 K\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|K|}} \sum_{k \in K} |g_0 k\rangle, g_0 \in G \text{ is chosen randomly}$$

The real problem with QFT construction is that there is no good basis of shift invariant states. This is because $U(g_0)$ don't commute.

Construction of non-abelian QFT

Consider a d -dimensional representation of G and a group homomorphism $\chi : G \rightarrow U(d)$

χ is irreducible if no subset of \mathbb{C}^d is left invariant by all matrices $\chi(g), g \in G$. (i.e. we cannot simulatenously block-diagonalize all of $\chi(g)$'s by a simple basis change)

Let's define a complete set of irreps. It is a set χ_1, \dots, χ_m s.t. that any irrep is unitarily equivalent to one of them. e.g. $\chi \sim \chi' = V\chi CV^{-1}, V \in U(d)$

Example: G is abelian, all irreps have $d = 1$, since all $\chi(g)$ commute. Theorem(non-abelian analogue of Theorem 1) (consult Fulton and Harde's "Representation Theory" for more information)

If d_1, \dots, d_m are the dimensions of a complete set of irreps χ_1, \dots, χ_m then:

- 1) $d_1^2 + \dots + d_m^2 = |G|$
- 2) $\chi_{i,jk}(g)$ is (j, k) th matrix entry of $\chi_i(g)$ then by Schur orthogonality:

$$\sum_g \chi_{i,jk}(g) \bar{\chi}_{i',j'k'}(g) = |G| \delta_{ii'} \delta_{jj'} \delta_{kk'}$$

Now if we look at the states that correspond to these irreps $\chi_{i,jk} = \sum_g \in G \bar{\chi}_{i,jk}(g) |g\rangle$ they form an orthonormal basis.

QFT on G is defined to be a unitary rotation between two basis of $\{\chi_{i,jk}\}$ basis $\rightarrow \{|g\rangle\}_{g \in G}$.

These takes $|\chi_{i,jk}\rangle$ are not shift-invariant for all $U(g_0)$ so this implies that measuring coset state $|g_0 k\rangle$ in the $\{|\chi\rangle\}$ basis results in an output distribution that is not independant of g_0 .

A "partial" shift-invariance survives. Consider a measurement M_{rep} on $|g_0 k\rangle$ this measurement will only distinguish the irreps (i values) and not all (i, j, k) 's. the outcome i will be associated with d_i^2 dimensional orthogonal subspaces that are spanned by $\{\chi_{i,jk}\}_{j,k=1}^{d_i}$.

Then $\chi_i(g_1 g_2) = \chi_i(g_1) \chi_i(g_2) \implies$ the output distribution of i values is indeed independant of g_0 .