

# Oracle **BQP** vs. **PH**

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## 1 Introduction

Given two complexity classes  $A$  and  $B$ , an *oracle separation of  $A$  from  $B$*  is a construction of an oracle  $\mathcal{O}$  such that  $A^{\mathcal{O}} \not\subseteq B^{\mathcal{O}}$ , i.e., such that there is a problem “solvable by  $A$ -computations with an oracle for  $\mathcal{O}$ ” but “not solvable by  $B$ -computations with an oracle for  $\mathcal{O}$ ”. Gill, Baker, and Solovay [BGS75] constructed an oracle relative to which  $\mathbf{P} \subsetneq \mathbf{NP}$ , and observed that if  $\mathcal{O}$  is a **PSPACE**-complete function, we have  $\mathbf{PSPACE} = \mathbf{P}^{\mathcal{O}} \subseteq \mathbf{NP}^{\mathcal{O}} \subseteq \mathbf{PSPACE}^{\mathcal{O}} = \mathbf{PSPACE}$ . Oracle separations are both weak evidence for (unrelativized) separations and “lower bounds in a concrete computational model [(query complexity)] that is natural and well-motivated in [its] own right” [Aar10].

In the quantum world, when Bernstein and Vazirani defined the class **BQP**, they also constructed an oracle relative to which  $\mathbf{BPP} \subsetneq \mathbf{BQP}$  [BV93]. Subsequently, Bennett, Bernstein, Brassard, and Vazirani [Ben+97] constructed an oracle relative to which  $\mathbf{NP} \cap \mathbf{coNP} \not\subseteq \mathbf{BQP}$ . Aaronson [Aar10] conjectured the existence of an oracle separating **BQP** from **PH**. Earlier, a series of works initiated by Furst, Saxe, and Sipser [FSS81; Yao85; Hås86] had constructed oracles relative to which  $\mathbf{PSPACE} \not\subseteq \mathbf{PH}$  by “scaling down” and instead proving circuit lower bounds for the class  $\mathbf{AC}^0$ . Aaronson [Aar10] proposed to construct an oracle separating **BQP** from **PH** by “scaling down” and instead constructing pseudorandom distributions for  $\mathbf{AC}^0$ .

Raz and Tal [RT19] recently constructed such an oracle, and the goal of this paper is to outline the major ideas in this line of work. In §2, we describe the “scaling down” paradigm; it suffices to construct a distribution  $\mathcal{D}$  which is “more pseudorandom” for  $\mathbf{AC}^0$  circuits than for **BQLOGTIME** algorithms. Then, we present the necessary analysis in two steps. In §3, we present the distribution  $\mathcal{D}$ , which will be a truncated Gaussian and its Fourier transform, as well as its quantum distinguishing circuit. In §4, we present a simpler proof due to Wu [Wu20] of a lower bound on  $\mathbf{AC}_0$  circuits distinguishing  $\mathcal{D}$ ; the proof views  $\mathcal{D}$  as the result of brownian motion and combines tools from stochastic calculus with bounds due to Tal [Tal17] on second-level fourier coefficients of  $\mathbf{AC}^0$  circuits.

## 2 Lower bounds for $\mathbf{AC}^0$ and oracle separations of **PH**

The class **PH** is closely related to  $\mathbf{AC}^0$  circuits; informally, the constant number of alternating  $\exists$  and  $\forall$  quantifiers in a **PH** computation graph correspond to a constant-depth circuit built from

$\vee$  and  $\wedge$  gates, respectively. This relationship may be leveraged to translate hardness results for  $\mathbf{AC}^0$  circuits into hardness results for  $\mathbf{PH}$  oracle classes by encoding a length- $2^k$  input for the  $\mathbf{AC}^0$  task as a function from  $\{0,1\}^k \rightarrow \{0,1\}$  computed by an oracle [FSS81]. The following lemma instantiates this paradigm for the  $\mathbf{BQP}$  vs.  $\mathbf{PH}$  problem; essentially, it “scales down” the  $\mathbf{BQP}$  vs.  $\mathbf{PH}$  problem by “taking the logarithm of both sides” to become  $\mathbf{BQLOGTIME}$  vs.  $\mathbf{AC}^0$ . A proof can be found in [RT19, Appendix A], but the lemma is attributed to Aaronson [Aar10] and Fefferman, Shaltiel, Umans, and Viola [Fef+12].

**Lemma 1** (Scaling down for  $\mathbf{BQP}$  vs.  $\mathbf{PH}$ ). *Suppose that (for every  $N$ ) there exists a distribution  $\mathcal{D}$  on  $\{0,1\}^N$ , such that:*

1. **Classical lower bound:** *For every function  $f : \{0,1\}^N \rightarrow \{0,1\}$  computable by an  $\mathbf{AC}_0$  circuit,*

$$|\mathbb{E}[f(\mathcal{D})] - \mathbb{E}[f(\mathcal{U}_N)]| \leq O\left(\frac{\text{polylog}(N)}{\sqrt{N}}\right).$$

2. **Quantum upper bound:** *There exists an efficient quantum algorithm  $Q$  that runs in time  $O(\log(N))$  such that,*

$$|\mathbb{E}[Q(\mathcal{D})] - \mathbb{E}[Q(\mathcal{U}_N)]| \geq \Omega\left(\frac{1}{\log(N)}\right).$$

*Then, there exists an oracle  $\mathcal{O}$  such that  $\mathbf{BQP}^{\mathcal{O}} \not\subseteq \mathbf{PH}^{\mathcal{O}}$ .*

In what follows, we define the distribution  $\mathcal{D}$  in Definition 3, and prove the quantum upper and classical lower bounds in Theorem 1 and Theorem 3, respectively.

### 3 Quantum upper bound

In this section, we define the distribution  $\mathcal{D}$  and prove the appropriate quantum upper bound (Theorem 1 below). We introduce the quantum circuit first to motivate the definition of  $\mathcal{D}$ .

#### 3.1 Efficient quantum circuit

Aaronson [Aar10] showed that the 2-query quantum circuit in Figure 1 distinguishes a certain distribution  $(F, G) \sim \mathcal{F}$  which they called the *forrelation* distribution. Aaronson and Ambainis [AA15] optimize this to a single-query circuit<sup>1</sup>.

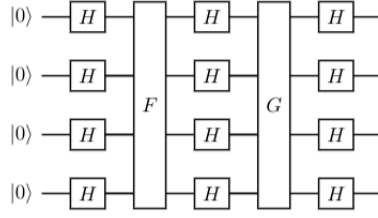
**Lemma 2** (Optimized forrelation circuit). *[AA15] give a single-query quantum circuit such that, for every  $F, G : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$  and  $N = 2^n$ , the circuit accepts with probability  $\frac{1+\phi(F,G)}{2}$ , where*

$$\phi(F, G) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i,j \in \{0,1\}^N} F(i) H_{i,j} G(j).$$

This circuit distinguishes a distribution  $\mathcal{D}$  if  $E_{(F,G) \sim \mathcal{D}}[\phi(F, G)]$  and  $E_{(F,G) \sim \mathcal{U}_{2N}}[\phi(F, G)]$  differ sufficiently<sup>2</sup>. This circuit takes  $\log N$  time, so it acts as the quantum algorithm in Condition (2) of Lemma 1.  $\phi(F, G)$  measures the correlation between  $F$  and  $G$  in the Fourier space, motivating the choice of a Gaussian and its Fourier transform as a separating distribution.

<sup>1</sup>The optimized circuit first prepares a control qubit in the state  $|+\rangle$ . If the control is  $|1\rangle$ , it applies  $H^{\oplus N} \rightarrow U_F$ . If the control qubit is  $|0\rangle$ , it applies  $H^{\oplus N} \rightarrow U_F \rightarrow H^{\oplus N}$ . It accepts if the control qubit is in the state  $|+\rangle$

<sup>2</sup> $\mathcal{U}_{2N}$  denotes the uniform distribution over  $\{\pm 1\}^{2N}$



**Figure 1:** The naive forrelation circuit for  $n = 4, N = 2^4$

### 3.2 The distribution $\mathcal{D}$

Raz and Tal [RT19] construct the distribution  $\mathcal{D}$  by modifying the forrelation distribution  $\mathcal{F}$  [Aar10] in a way that turns out to be crucial for the classical analysis.

**Definition 1** ( $\mathcal{G}$ : Alternate forrelation distribution).  $z = (F, G) \sim \mathcal{G}$  where  $F \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)^N$  and  $G = H_N F$ .<sup>3</sup>

Aaronson uses the sign of  $\mathcal{G}$  to create a discrete forrelation distribution  $\mathcal{F}$  (i.e., over  $\{\pm 1\}$ ). Raz and Tal create a different discrete distribution  $\mathcal{D}$  by transforming  $\mathcal{G}$ , then truncating.

**Definition 2** (The distribution  $\mathcal{G}'$ ). Let  $\epsilon = 1/(24 \ln N)$ .  $z' \sim \mathcal{G}'$  if  $z' = \sqrt{\epsilon} z$  where  $z \sim \mathcal{G}$ .

$\mathcal{G}'$  becomes a discrete distribution by truncation:

**Definition 3** (The distribution  $\mathcal{D}$ ).  $z' \sim \mathcal{D}$  if, for  $z \sim \mathcal{G}'$ ,  $\Pr[z'_i = 1] = \frac{1 + \text{trunc}(z_i)}{2}$  where  $\text{trunc}(z_i)$  truncates  $z_i$  to the interval  $[-1, 1]$ .

Truncation is tricky to analyze, so Raz and Tal will analyze  $\mathcal{G}'$  instead of  $\mathcal{D}$ .  $\mathcal{G}'$  is a multi-variate Gaussian distribution over  $\mathbb{R}^{2N}$  with covariance matrix  $\epsilon \cdot \begin{pmatrix} I_N & H_N \\ H_N & I_N \end{pmatrix}$ .

#### 3.2.1 Quantum circuit distinguishing $\mathcal{U}$ and $\mathcal{D}$

**Theorem 1** (Quantum algorithm distinguishing  $\mathcal{U}$  and  $\mathcal{D}$ ). Let  $Q$  be the 1-query quantum algorithm described by Aaronson and Ambainis.

$$\left| \mathbb{E}_{(F,G) \sim \mathcal{D}} [Q(F, G)] - \mathbb{E}_{(F,G) \sim \mathcal{U}_{2N}} [Q(F, G)] \right| \geq \epsilon/2.$$

$\mathbb{E}_{(F,G) \sim \mathcal{U}_{2N}} [\phi(F, G)] = 0$  follows by linearity of expectation because  $\forall i, j \in [N], \mathbb{E}[F(i)G(j)] = 0$  since  $F(i)$  and  $G(j)$  are independent. To simplify their analysis of  $\mathbb{E}_{(F,G) \sim \mathcal{D}} [\phi(F, G)]$ , Raz and Tal show a lemma that allows them to replace  $\mathcal{D}$  with  $\mathcal{G}'$ .

<sup>3</sup> $H_N \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$  is the Hadamard transform, where  $H_N[i][j] = N^{-1/2}(-1)^{\langle i, j \rangle}$ . A quantum circuit can compute  $H_N$  in  $\log(N)$  time by applying a Hadamard gate to each input qubit.  $H_N \cdot F$  computes the discrete Fourier transform of  $F$ .

**Lemma 3** (Multilinear functions on  $\mathcal{D}$  and  $\mathcal{G}$ ). Consider positive  $p$  and  $p_0$  such that  $p + p_0 = 1$ . Let  $F : \mathbb{R}^{2N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a multilinear function<sup>4</sup> that maps  $\{-1, 1\}^{2N}$  to  $[-1, 1]$ . Let  $z_0 \in [-p_0, p_0]^{2N}$ . Then,

$$\mathbb{E}_{z \in \mathcal{G}'} [|F(\text{trunc}(z_0 + p \cdot z)) - F(z_0 + p \cdot z)|] \leq 8 \cdot N^{-2}.$$

For small  $\epsilon$ ,  $F(x)$  is in  $[-1, 1]$  with high probability, so truncation has little impact on the expectation.

*Proof of Theorem 1.*  $\mathbb{E}_{(F,G) \sim \mathcal{G}'} [\phi(F, G)] = \epsilon$  by the definition of  $\mathcal{G}'$  and the fact that the Hadamard transform is its own inverse. If  $p_0 = 0, p = 1$ , then by Lemma 3,

$$\left| \mathbb{E}_{(F,G) \sim \mathcal{G}'} [\phi(F, G)] - \mathbb{E}_{(F,G) \sim \mathcal{D}} [\phi(F, G)] \right| \leq 8 \cdot N^{-2}.$$

This yields  $\mathbb{E}_{(F,G) \sim \mathcal{D}} [\phi(F, G)] \geq \epsilon/2$ , completing the proof.  $\square$

The choice of  $\epsilon$  is Raz and Tal's key modification to Aaronson's Forrelation distribution  $\mathcal{F}$ . Condition (2) of Lemma 1 requires that  $\epsilon$  is large (i.e.  $\Omega(\frac{1}{\log(N)})$ ) so that the quantum algorithm has sufficient advantage in distinguishing  $\mathcal{D}$ . On the other hand, in order to replace  $\mathcal{D}$  with  $\mathcal{G}'$  in the classical and quantum analysis,  $\epsilon$  must be small enough that truncation is rare and Lemma 3 holds. Raz and Tal's choice of  $\epsilon = \Theta(\frac{1}{\log(N)})$  satisfies both these conditions.

## 4 Classical lower bound

In this section, we describe the lower bound (see Theorem 3 below) on the ability of  $\text{AC}^0$  circuits to distinguish the forrelation distribution  $\mathcal{D}$  (see Definition 3) from the uniform distribution on  $N$  bits; first, we review some mathematical preliminaries.

### 4.1 Facts from boolean function analysis

**Definition 4** (Fourier expansion). Every boolean function  $f : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$  can be written as a linear sum of parity functions,

$$f = \sum_{S \subseteq [n]} \hat{f}(S) \chi_S,$$

where  $\chi_S = \prod_{i \in S} x_i$ .

In the above definition, the characteristic function  $\chi_S$  corresponding to a set  $S \subseteq [n]$  is given by the product of the bits  $\{x_i\}_{i \in S}$  on any given input  $x$ . These form an orthogonal basis, which can be made orthonormal by scaling every coefficient  $\hat{f}(S)$  by a factor of  $2^n$ . We define the  $\ell_1$ -norm of the level-2 fourier coefficients of  $f : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$  as  $W_1^2[f] = \sum_{S \subseteq [n], |S|=2} |\hat{f}(S)|$ .

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<sup>4</sup> $F : \mathbb{R}^{2N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a multilinear function if  $F(z) = \sum_{S \subseteq [2N]} \hat{F}(S) \cdot \prod_{i \in S} z_i$  where  $\hat{F}(S) \in \mathbb{R}$  and denotes the fourier coefficients of  $F$ .

## 4.2 Facts from stochastic calculus

**Definition 5** (Brownian stochastic process). A brownian stochastic process is a continuous-time stochastic process  $\{B_t\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}^+}$ , such that,

$$\begin{aligned} B_0 &= 0 \text{ \& } B_t \text{ is continuous almost surely.} \\ \forall s > 0, B_{t+s} - B_t &\text{ is distributed as } \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, s\mathcal{I}^{n \times n}). \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

The above states that a brownian stochastic process behaves like a continuous  $n$ -dimensional random walk starting at the origin in the limit that a large number of steps have been taken. More importantly, any truncated multi-variate gaussian — and in particular, the forrelation distribution  $\mathcal{D}$ , see [Definition 3](#) — may be viewed as the distribution induced by a multi-dimensional brownian walk stopped at an appropriate time (known as the *stopping time*).

**Theorem 2** (Dynkin's formula). Given a stochastic process  $\{X_t\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}^+}$  obtained by solving a stochastic differential equation of the form,

$$dX_t = b(X_t)dt + \sigma(X_t)dX_t,$$

with a stopping time  $\tau$  having finite expected value, and a twice-differentiable vector-valued function  $f : \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$  acting on  $\{X_t\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}^+}$ , for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the expected value of the function of the stopped process is,

$$\mathbb{E}^x[f(X_\tau)] = f(x) + \mathbb{E}^x \left[ \int_0^\tau Af(X_s)ds \right],$$

where  $\mathbb{E}^x$  is an expectation over a walk starting at initial position  $x$ , and

$$Af(x) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbb{E}^x[f(X_t)] - f(x)}{t}.$$

Dynkin's theorem is used crucially in the proof of [Theorem 4](#) below (since brownian motion is obtained by solving such an equation; we set  $X_t = B_t$  and  $x = 0$ ). The operator  $A$  may be seen as parameterizing the "rate of change" of the action of the function  $f$  on the stochastic process  $\{X_t\}$ .

## 4.3 BQP vs PH

It remains to prove the following theorem (for convenience, we view  $\mathcal{D}$  as a distribution on  $N$  instead of  $2N$  bits):

**Theorem 3** (Classical lower bound). Let  $f : \{\pm 1\}^N \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$  be computable by an  $\mathbf{AC}^0$  circuit. Then

$$|\mathbb{E}[f(\mathcal{D})] - \mathbb{E}[f(\mathcal{U})]| \leq \frac{\text{polylog}(N)}{\sqrt{N}}.$$

The key insight in the proof by [\[Wu20\]](#) of this theorem is to reframe the fooling distribution  $\mathcal{D}$  defined above. Now, we view it as the final distribution of an appropriate  $N$ -dimensional brownian walk  $B_t$  for  $\epsilon = O(\frac{1}{\ln(N)})$  steps (taking the covariance matrix given in [§3.2](#) above).<sup>5</sup> As

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<sup>5</sup>We must implement some appropriate stopping condition which corresponds to truncation as well, which may slightly change the definition of  $\mathcal{D}$ . However, the underlying non-truncated distribution (i.e.,  $\mathcal{G}'$ ) will be the same and essentially the same quantum upper bound will hold.

shown below, if we can get a desirably small deviation in the expected behavior of a function  $f$  (under  $B_t$  and  $\mathcal{U}_N$ ) when  $W_1^2[f]$  is small, then we easily obtain that  $\mathcal{D} = B_\epsilon$  is a fooling distribution for any function  $f$  computable by a  $\mathbf{AC}_0$  circuit by parametrizing the deviation with an earlier result of [Tal17] which relates the gate size and depth of an  $\mathbf{AC}_0$  circuit for  $f$  to  $W_1^2[f]$ .

More concretely, we first present the following theorem of Wu [Wu20], which shows that a boolean function  $f : \{\pm 1\}^N \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$  with  $W_1^2[f] \leq t$  has a deviation no more than  $O(\epsilon\gamma t)$  between its action on inputs drawn from an eagerly terminated brownian walk in  $N$ -dimensions and the uniform distribution on the  $N$ -dimensional hypercube. Here,  $\epsilon$  is the stopping time for the walk and  $\gamma$  the upper bound on the pair-wise covariance of any two one-dimensional walks.

**Theorem 4** (Indistinguishability of mixed brownian walk &  $\mathcal{U}_N$ ). *Let  $f : \{\pm 1\}^N \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$  be a boolean function such that, for some  $t > 0$ , for any restriction  $\rho$  of  $f$ ,  $W_1^2[f_\rho] \leq t$ . Consider  $N$ -dimensional brownian motion  $\{B_t\}$  with mean 0 and pairwise covariance  $\leq \gamma$  mixed till a stopping time  $\tau$ ,*

$$\tau = \min \left\{ \epsilon, B_t \text{ exits } \left[ -\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right]^N \right\}.$$

*Then,  $F$  cannot distinguish  $B_\tau$  from  $\mathcal{U}_{\{\pm 1\}^N}$  on average:*

$$|\mathbb{E}[f(B_\tau)] - \mathbb{E}[f(\mathcal{U}_N)]| \leq 2\epsilon\gamma t.$$

**Theorem 4** is proved using Dynkin's formula (**Theorem 2**) and is a consequence of the following two facts: (1) the operator  $A$  described in **Theorem 2** applied to  $f$  results in an expression involving  $f$ 's second-order partial derivatives evaluated at  $x = 0$ , and (2) if  $f$  is a multilinear polynomial, its second-order partial derivatives evaluated at  $x = 0$  equal its second-level fourier coefficients. This application of Dynkin's formula allows Wu [Wu20] to simplify the original proof of Raz and Tal [RT19] considerably.

We now combine **Theorem 4** with the fooling distribution  $\mathcal{D} = B_\tau$  with a result (**Theorem 5**) shown by [Tal17] bounding the  $k$ -th level fourier coefficients of boolean functions computable by  $\mathbf{AC}^0$  circuits vis-a-vis their size and depth.

**Theorem 5** ( $\mathbf{AC}^0$  computability & fourier weight, [Tal17]). *Given  $\ell, d > 0$ , every boolean function  $f$  on  $N$  variables computable by an  $\mathbf{AC}^0$  circuit with no more than  $\ln(N)^\ell$  gates and depth  $d$  satisfies*

$$W_1^2[f] \leq (c \cdot \ln^\ell(N))^{2(d-1)}.$$

*Proof sketch of Theorem 3.* Instantiate **Theorem 4** by setting  $t$  to be the RHS from **Theorem 5** and choosing a stopping time  $\epsilon = \frac{1}{8\ln(N)}$  and pairwise covariance bound  $\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$  to obtain the desired fooling of  $\mathbf{AC}^0$  circuits as expressed in **Lemma 1**. The above step also uses the fact that  $\mathbf{AC}^0$  is closed under restrictions.  $\square$

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