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Optimized Steering: Quantum State Engineering and Exceptional Points

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The state of a quantum system may be steered towards a pre-designated target state, employing a sequence of weak *blind* measurements (where the detector's readouts are traced out). Here we analyze the steering of a two-level system using the interplay of a system Hamiltonian and weak measurements, and show that *any* pure or mixed state can be targeted. We show that the optimization of such a steering protocol is underlain by the presence of Liouvillian exceptional points. More specifically, for high purity target states, optimal steering implies purely relaxational dynamics marked by a second-order exceptional point, while for low purity target states, it implies an oscillatory approach to the target state. The dynamical phase transition between these two regimes is characterized by a third-order exceptional point.

Steering of a quantum system towards a pre-designated target state can be achieved either by drive-and-dissipation schemes [1–14] or through measurement-based protocols [15–21]. The former employ a dissipative environment to relax the quantum system into the target state, while in the latter case relaxation (as well as back-action on the system) is achieved by measurements. Optimizing the rate of convergence towards the target state is important to render it of practical importance and minimize external perturbations. Refs [22, 23] comprise a mathematical analysis of the steady states and the convergence speed. Exceptional points (EPs), referring to non-Hermitian degeneracies where two or more eigenvectors of the evolution operator coalesce [24–28], play an important role in a variety of optimization problems [29–35]. Such degeneracies are of particular interest in dynamics with complex eigenvalues where unitary dynamics competes with dissipation or gain, and may be generalized from non-Hermitian Hamiltonians to Liouvillian dynamics [36, 37]. In recent years, it has been recognized that operating near an EP enables unique functionality such as unidirectional invisibility [38–41] or enhanced sensitivity [42–47].

Here, we propose a family of protocols for steering a two-level quantum system towards desired target states. The system's initial state is assumed unknown to us. In our protocol, the quantum system is subject to both a Hamiltonian evolution and a measurement-induced evolution, and the combined effect of both can be described by a Liouvillian superoperator. The system's target state is given by the Liouvillian eigenstate having zero eigenvalue, and is uniquely determined (along with its purity) by the interplay between the Hamiltonian and the measurement protocol. When optimizing our steering [48] protocol in the sense that the target state is reached as fast as possible, we find that the optimal steering for high purity target states is dominated by the measurement-induced dynamics and described by second-order exceptional points, while optimal protocols for low purity tar-

get states are dominated by the system-Hamiltonian-induced dynamics. The transition between these two regimes is characterized by a third-order EP, where all three nonzero eigenvalues of the Liouvillian superoperator coalesce, and the optimal convergence dynamics of the system changes from non-oscillatory to oscillatory, reminiscent of a spontaneous breaking of \mathcal{PT} -symmetry [26, 49–53]. We note that, with a small cost in the target state purity, the steering rate can be significantly enhanced. In addition, we present an argument that the appearance of a higher-order exceptional point in the context of optimization is generic and applies to many-body systems as well.

On a more technical level, representing the system state on or within the Bloch sphere by a vector \mathbf{s} , its purity is characterized by $P \equiv (1 + \mathbf{s}^2)/2$. We find that the optimal steering dynamics can be characterized by three different regimes, summarized in Fig. 2. In the low purity regime with $P \leq 7/8$, the convergence rate becomes optimal by choosing the Zeeman field in the system Hamiltonian as large as possible, and convergence towards the target state is oscillatory. In the medium purity regime, $7/8 < P \leq 127/128$, optimum convergence is achieved when all three non-vanishing eigenvalues of the Liouvillian superoperator have equal real parts; the optimal convergence rate is independent of P , while the convergence dynamics remains oscillatory, similar to the low purity regime. The transition to the high purity regime with $127/128 < P \leq 1$ occurs at a third-order EP where all three nonzero eigenvalues of the Liouvillian superoperator coalesce. In the high purity regime, the optimal convergence dynamics is non-oscillatory since all three nonzero eigenvalues of the superoperator are real, and two of them are degenerate, placing the superoperator at a conventional second-order EP.

System evolution and the steady state.— Consider a two-level quantum system represented by the density matrix ρ_s whose dynamics comprises two contributions: the unitary evolution and the measurement evolution. The

former is governed by the following Hamiltonian acting in the system's Hilbert space

$$H_s = \omega \hat{n} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma}, \quad \hat{n} = (\cos \phi \sin \theta, \sin \phi \sin \theta, \cos \theta), \quad (1)$$

where ω is the Zeeman energy of the two levels, θ , ϕ are spherical coordinates parametrizing the unit vector \hat{n} , and $\boldsymbol{\sigma} = (\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z)$ is the vector of Pauli matrices.

For the measurement evolution, the system needs to couple with the detector, which is chosen to be a two-level quantum object prepared in the state $\rho_d^0 = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbb{I} + \hat{m} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma})$, where \hat{m} is the detector state initialization direction. Before they interact, the joint system-detector state is $\rho(t) = \rho_s(t) \otimes \rho_d^0$. At later times, the joint state $\rho(t)$ evolves with the system-detector interaction Hamiltonian

$$H_{s-d} = J [\boldsymbol{\sigma}^s \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma}^d - (\hat{m} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma}^s)(\hat{m} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma}^d)], \quad (2)$$

where J is the coupling parameter, and $\boldsymbol{\sigma}^s$, $\boldsymbol{\sigma}^d$ are the pseudo-spin operators of the system and detector, respectively. Then the interaction is switched off, and the detector state is measured projectively; disentangling the composite system-detector state and generating a measurement back-action on the system state $\rho_s(t)$. In our *blind measurement* protocol [20], the detector readouts are discarded (i.e., traced out). After each measurement step, the detector state is reset to ρ_d^0 . We note that the system-detector interaction is chosen to be anisotropic, such that only the system's spin direction orthogonal to the detector state initialization direction is coupled.

In our dynamics, the Hamiltonian evolution (cf. Eq. (1)) and the measurement evolution (cf. Eq. (2)) happen simultaneously. Over a small time step dt , the two processes do not interfere with each other (up to $O(dt)$). An infinitesimal time step evolution of the system is given by $\rho_s(t+dt) = \text{tr}_d[e^{-iHdt}\rho(t)e^{iHdt}]$ where $H = H_s \otimes \mathbb{I} + H_{s-d}$. In the continuous time limit $dt \rightarrow 0$, and using a scaling of J such that $J^2 dt = \text{const} \equiv \alpha$, we obtain [20, 21]

$$\frac{d\rho_s}{dt} = \mathcal{L}[\rho_s] = i[\rho_s, H_s] - 2\alpha(L^\dagger L \rho_s + \rho_s L^\dagger L - 2L \rho_s L^\dagger), \quad (3)$$

where \mathcal{L} is the Liouvillian superoperator, α specifies the measurement strength, and $L = |\hat{m}_+\rangle\langle\hat{m}_-|$ is the Lindblad jump operator with $|\hat{m}_\pm\rangle$ as the eigenstates of the operator $\hat{m} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ with eigenvalues ± 1 .

The combined unitary and weak-measurement time evolution ultimately steer the system towards a steady state determined by the condition $d\rho_s^{(T)}/dt = \mathcal{L}[\rho_s^{(T)}] = 0$. We parameterize the steady state as $\rho_s^{(T)} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbb{I} + \mathbf{s} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma})$ where $\mathbf{s} = (s_x, s_y, s_z)$ is the steady state Bloch vector. Assuming a detector state initialization $\hat{m} = (0, 0, 1)$, this steady state is given by

$$s_x = \frac{2\Omega \sin \theta (\Omega \cos \theta \cos \phi + \sin \phi)}{2 + \Omega^2 (\cos^2 \theta + 1)}, \quad (4a)$$

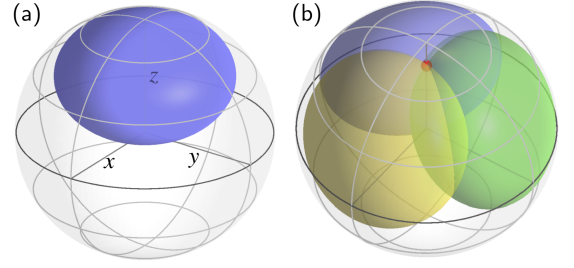


Figure 1. (a) Steady state ellipsoid for the detector state initialization direction $\hat{m} = (0, 0, 1)^T$, see Eq. (4). (b) The steady state ellipsoid can be rotated by rotating the detector state initialization direction. Hence, any target state (red) on or inside the Bloch sphere can be reached, as it lies on one or several rotated ellipsoids (e.g. blue, green, yellow).

$$s_y = \frac{2\Omega \sin \theta (\Omega \cos \theta \sin \phi - \cos \phi)}{2 + \Omega^2 (\cos^2 \theta + 1)}, \quad (4b)$$

$$s_z = \frac{2(1 + \Omega^2 \cos^2 \theta)}{2 + \Omega^2 (\cos^2 \theta + 1)}, \quad (4c)$$

where $\Omega = \omega/\alpha$. The steady state coordinates (cf. Eq. (4)) form an ellipsoid centered at the point $\hat{m}/2$, in this case $s_x^2 + s_y^2 + 2(s_z - 1/2)^2 = 1/2$; conversely, every state on this ellipsoid is obtained for at least one choice of the Zeeman field (Ω, θ, ϕ) [Fig. 1(a)]. The main features of the steady state ellipsoid are as follows: (i) it remains fully confined within the Bloch sphere, (ii) its shape remains independent of the protocol parameters, (iii) its minor axis starts from the center of the Bloch sphere and ends on its surface, coinciding with the detector state initialization direction \hat{m} , implying that there exists only one pure target state on a given ellipsoid. Each specific choice of protocol parameters (Ω, θ, ϕ) steers the system to a unique steady state on this ellipsoid, but the converse is not true as a given target state may be stabilized by several distinct sets (Ω, θ, ϕ) . Furthermore, a given steady state may belong to several ellipsoids with different \hat{m} , and in that case, the minor axis (which is determined by \hat{m}) of each of these ellipsoids must have a fixed angle with regard to the Bloch vector \mathbf{s} of the steady state (cf. Fig. 1(b)).

Rotating the detector state initialization direction \hat{m} , rotates the ellipsoid. Using all possible \hat{m} , the entire Bloch sphere (both surface and interior) can be covered by the ellipsoids, cf. Fig. 1(b). Therefore, any state, irrespective of its purity, can be targeted using our protocol.

Optimal steering.— Our aim now is to optimize the protocol such that the target state is reached as fast as possible. While the target state $\rho_s^{(T)}$ corresponds to the eigenvector with zero eigenvalue of the Liouvillian, $\mathcal{L}[\rho_s^{(T)}] = \lambda_0 \rho_s^{(T)}$ with $\lambda_0 = 0$, the dynamical evolution of an arbitrary state is governed by the eigenvectors $\rho_s^{(j)}$ with nonzero eigenvalues λ_j , i.e. $\rho_s(t) =$

$\rho_s^{(T)} + \sum_j c_j \rho_s^{(j)} e^{\lambda_j t}$ where the coefficients c_j are determined by the system's initial state $\rho_s(0)$. Therefore, the deviations from the target state decay exponentially in time, and the decay rates are determined by the real parts of the nonzero eigenvalues of the superoperator \mathcal{L} . The smallest (in magnitude) nonzero real part, i.e. the inverse of the Liouvillian gap, determines the slowest convergence rate (Γ), and our aim is to maximize it by choosing appropriate parameters in the protocol. At first sight, a straightforward way to speed up the steering process would be to increase the measurement strength α , as the Liouvillian eigenvalues are directly proportional to it. However, $\alpha = J^2 dt$ is generically limited by the weak measurement constraint $(Jdt)^2 \ll 1$ and by the fact that the experimental measurement and readout time dt cannot be made arbitrarily short. Therefore, we consider α to be fixed at some maximum strength. The protocol parameters that can still be optimized are the initialization direction \hat{m} and the system Hamiltonian specified by Ω , θ and ϕ . These, however, are partially constrained by the choice of a specific target state. The optimization problem simplifies further by noting that the Liouvillian eigenvalues remain invariant under a unitary rotation of the system state [54]. Thus, without loss of generality, we analyze the problem by selecting $\hat{m} = (0, 0, 1)$, for which the steady state is given by Eq. (4) with the corresponding steady state ellipsoid shown in Fig. 1(a). Since different states having the same purity are related via a unitary transformation, all target states on a given ellipsoid having the same purity possess the same convergence rate. This leaves us with two significant parameters: θ and Ω . We treat Ω as an independent parameter, while θ is determined by Ω and the target state purity P . Note that, using the ellipsoid equation, the purity of a steady state can be expressed as $P = 1 - (1 - s_z)^2/2$. For each target state purity P , we aim to tune the free parameter Ω such that the convergence rate Γ becomes optimal. However, we note that, for a given target state, there exists a lower bound on the allowed values of Ω , which is an important constraint on the optimization problem [54].

The optimal convergence rate and its dependence on the target state purity are obtained numerically, and are shown in Fig. 2(a). We solve the eigenvalue equation $\mathcal{L}[\rho_s] = \lambda \rho_s$ and focus on the eigenvalue having smallest (in magnitude) real part which we maximize over all admissible values of Ω . We find that the conditions for optimal convergence depend on the degree of purity of the target state — we identify a low, medium and high purity regime, Fig. 2(a). In the low purity regime, the convergence rate becomes bigger the further Ω is increased, implying that steering becomes optimal by choosing Ω as large as possible, Fig. 2(b). In the medium purity regime, we find a critical Ω at which all three nonzero eigenvalues of \mathcal{L} have equal real part, and the convergence rate becomes optimal at this critical Ω , Fig. 2(c). The transition from the medium to the high purity regime is marked by

the fact that at this critical Ω , not only the real parts, but also the imaginary parts of the three nonzero eigenvalues of \mathcal{L} coincide — the convergence rate becomes optimal at a third-order EP where all three nonzero eigenvalues of \mathcal{L} coincide, Fig. 2(d). In the high purity regime, we find optimal convergence for a critical Ω where \mathcal{L} encounters a second-order EP, Fig. 2(e). Intuitively, one can understand the optimized convergence rate behavior in the following way. The protocol targeting any mixed state (with purity P less than 1) involves an interplay of the relaxation to a pure state (controlled by α) and Hamiltonian rotation (controlled by ω). Relaxation happening probabilistically at different moments in time, combined with the Hamiltonian rotation of the newly-relaxed states, leads to the desired mixed state. For target states with sufficiently large purities, there is an optimal ratio $\Omega = \omega/\alpha$, when the convergence is the fastest. Whereas for sufficiently small purities, the approach to the target state is limited by the speed of “mixing”, so that it is the faster, the larger Ω is. The optimal approach to the target state is oscillatory in the low and medium purity regimes, as two of the eigenvalues have nonzero imaginary parts for all values of Ω , Fig. 2(b,c). By contrast, the optimal approach to the target state becomes non-oscillatory (exponential decay) in the high purity regime, because all three eigenvalues of the Liouvillian are real at the optimal value of Ω , Fig. 2(e). Analytical results for the transitions between regimes and the optimal convergence rates are presented in the supplemental material [54].

We highlight that the central feature of our system is a dynamical phase transition at the target state purity $P = 127/128$ from Hamiltonian-dominated, oscillatory to measurement-dominated, non-oscillatory dynamics. This transition proceeds through a *third-order* EP where all three nonzero eigenvalues of the Liouvillian superoperator coincide; the eigenvalues are obtained as [54]: $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = -8\alpha/3$. While dynamical phase transitions have been associated with second-order EPs, for instance in \mathcal{PT} -symmetric systems [26, 51, 55], the natural appearance of a third-order EP seems striking.

To understand why optimal steering is related to a third-order EP, we now present a general principle for optimization. To explain this principle, we first shift our perspective and ask: Comparing the target states in different regimes, what is the fastest possible convergence rate that can be achieved? It can be shown that, in general, the *average* of the decay rates (i.e., the trace of the Liouvillian superoperator) depends only on the dissipative channels and not on the system Hamiltonian [56]. In our protocol we fix the average to be $8\alpha/3$. Evidently, if one decay rate is above average, then another one is necessarily below average; therefore, the optimum convergence rate is achieved when all decay rates are equal (to this average) which naturally happens at the EPs. In our protocol this is realized in the medium purity regime

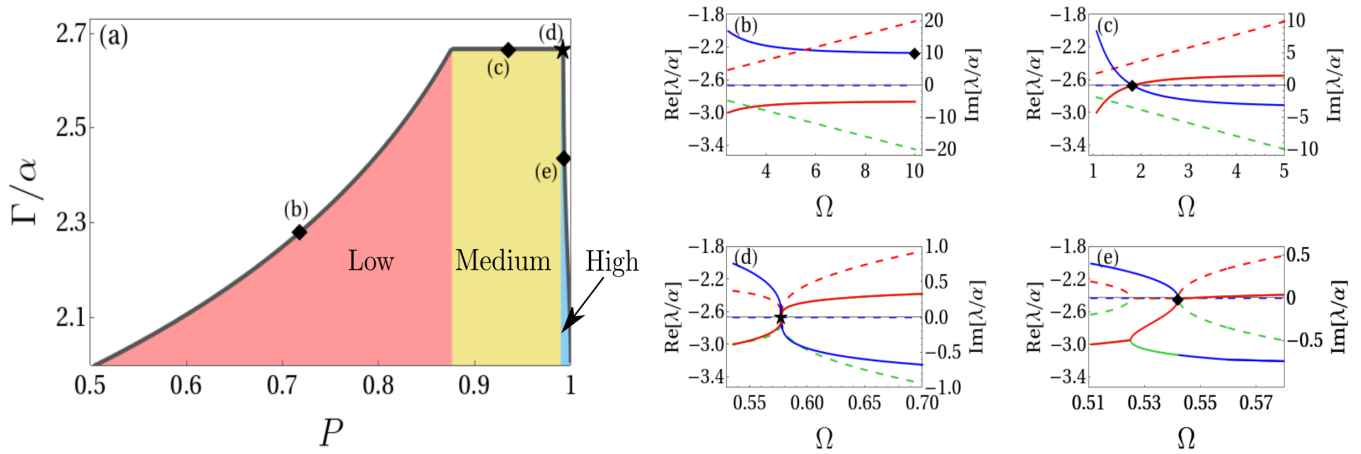


Figure 2. Optimal convergence rate Γ in units of the measurement strength α as a function of target state purity P (a). We identify three regimes: A low purity regime $1/2 \leq P \leq 7/8$, a medium purity regime $7/8 < P \leq 127/128$, and a high purity regime $127/128 < P \leq 1$. Choosing one target state from each different purity regime (marked by \blacklozenge in (a)), we plot the real (solid) and imaginary (dashed) parts of the nonzero eigenvalues λ of the Liouvillian superoperator as a function of Ω in (b), (c) and (e). Here, $\Omega = \omega/\alpha$ is the ratio of the Zeeman energy ω of the system Hamiltonian, Eq. (1), to the measurement strength α , Eq. (3). Note that the eigenvalues λ may be real or come in complex-conjugate pairs; in the latter case, the red and the green lines, showing $\text{Re } \lambda$ of the two complex-conjugate eigenvalues, coincide. Panel (e) contains a segment where all three eigenvalues are real; there all three colors appear explicitly in the plot. Steering becomes optimal when the parameter Ω is tuned such that the topmost real part (solid) becomes as negative as possible (marked by \blacklozenge). At the transition from the medium to the high purity (marked by \star in (a)), the optimal convergence rate occurs at a third-order EP shown in (d).

(cf. Fig 2(a)). In fact, in this regime the convergence rate plateaus at an upper limit that is given by the *average* of the decay rates. In the other regimes, there is no value of Ω for which all three decay rates become equal simultaneously. We thus conclude that steering is necessarily optimal at the third-order EP, because the equality of all three nonzero eigenvalues entails the equality of the decay rates.

One expects the above considerations to be applicable to broad classes of systems, including dissipative many-body platforms [56]. The presence of additional (unwanted) dissipative channels beyond those required by the protocol can modify the optimal steering rate. However, we still expect the optimality to be associated with an exceptional point.

Experimental implementation.—Our protocol can be implemented in a variety of experimental platforms. The main ingredient of our protocol, blind measurements stabilizing the system at a specific pure state, is particularly natural for implementation in cold atomic systems such as cold ions [57] or Rydberg atoms [58], but is also supported by fluxonium [59–61] and transmon qubits [35]. High-fidelity coherent Hamiltonian manipulation in these systems is now routinely performed in many laboratories [62–64]. Combining the ingredients and implementing our protocol in these systems appears straightforward. Checking our predictions for the steering optimality and its relation to EPs, however, will require a degree of control and stability in the system beyond the standard levels, as the system sensitivity to perturbations in the vicin-

ity of EPs is expected to be enhanced [42, 44, 45, 65].

Conclusion.— We have proposed a steering protocol which uses the interplay of a unitary and a weak-measurement-induced evolution to steer a two-level quantum system towards any desired target state on or within the Bloch sphere. The resulting Lindbladian dominates the steering towards high purity states, while the Hamiltonian dynamics dominates the optimal steering towards low purity mixed states. In all cases the optimum convergence rate is linked with exceptional points of the Liouvillian. The latter exhibits a dynamical phase transition such that the dynamics changes from oscillatory to exponential decaying. This transition is characterized by the presence of a third-order EP.

The convergence rate optimization analysis in our work suggests that a significant speedup can be achieved with a slight compromise in the target state purity. This implies that it may be beneficial to target a state that is not exactly the desired one (e.g., has 99% purity), so that convergence can be sped up significantly. Faster convergence will leave less time for unavoidable noise to affect the system dynamics, thus improving the target state fidelity. This may prove significant for recent state stabilization protocols [8–10, 14].

Note added.— In a recent work [66], Khandelwal et al. have discussed the relevance of EPs for optimal operation of quantum thermal machines.

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