# A generalized Pancharatnam geometric phase formula for three level quantum systems

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We describe a recently developed generalisation of the Poincaré sphere method, to represent pure states of a three-level quantum system in a convenient geometrical manner. The construction depends on the properties of the group SU(3) and its generators in the defining representation, and uses geometrical objects and operations in an eight dimensional real Euclidean space. This construction is then used to develop a generalisation of the well known Pancharatnam geometric phase formula, for evolution of a three-level system along a geodesic triangle in state space.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Sometime after the discovery by Berry in 1984 of the quantum mechanical geometric phase in the framework of cyclic adiabatic evolution [1], Ramaseshan and Nityananda pointed out in an important paper [2] that as early as 1956 Pancharatnam had put forward closely related ideas in the context of polarisation optics [3]. Subsequently Berry himself analysed the significance of Pancharatnam's work in the light of later developments [4]. The more recent quantum kinematic approach to the geometric phase brings out in fully transparent fashion the way in which a phase essentially identified by Pancharatnam is one of the two basic ingredients involved in the very definition of the quantum geometric phase, the other being the so called dynamical phase [5].

Pancharatnam's work made essential use of the Poincare sphere representation for the manifold of pure polarisation

states of a plane electromagnetic wave [6]. As is well known, diametrically opposite points on the Poincare' sphere correspond to mutually orthogonal polarisation states incapable of interfering with one another. For two states of polarisation not mutually orthogonal in this sense Pancharatnam introduced a physically motivated convention or rule which would tell us when these two states are " in phase ", i.e., capable of interfering constructively to the maximum possible extent. More precisely, this relationship is defined at the level of field amplitudes mapping onto given points on the Poincare' sphere. He then went on to show that this relation of being " in phase " is not transitive. That is, if we take three polarisation states A, B, C on the Poincare' sphere, and arrange that the fields mapping onto A and Bare "in phase", and similarly those mapping onto B and C are "in phase", then in general the fields mapping onto Aand C are not "in phase". He also calculated the extent to which these last two fields are "out of phase" and showed that this "phase difference" equals one half the solid angle on the Poincare' sphere subtended by the spherical triangle ABC obtained by joining the vertices A, B and C by great circle arcs (geodesic arcs) on the sphere.

This fundamental and early result of Pancharatnam has found a natural interpretation in the context of two-level quantum systems, for which the space of pure state density matrices is again the sphere  $S^2$ . In the modern terminology for geometric phases, one is (most often) interested in cyclic evolution in the state space, and the calculation of the associated geometric phase. Evolution along a great circle arc on  $S^2$  is particularly simple in that it can be generated by a constant (i.e., time-independent) Hamiltonian in such a way that the dynamical phase vanishes. A geodesic triangle on  $S^2$  is then the simplest and most elementary yet nontrivial cyclic evolution one can imagine for a two-level system; it can be produced by a piecewise constant Hamiltonian, and the dynamical phase can be arranged to vanish identically. Then the meaning of Pancharatnam's result is that the resulting geometric phase is one half the solid angle on  $S^2$  subtended by the triangle [7].

We may note in passing that while Pancharatnam's original result refers principally to the vertices A, B, C of a spherical triangle on  $S^2$ , and calculates the degree of nontransitiveness of the relation of two field amplitudes being "in phase", in casting it into the modern geometric phase language we are equally concerned with the great circle arcs connecting these vertices, since we deal with continuous cyclic unitary or Hamiltonian evolution of pure quantum states. It is for such evolutions that geometric phases are customarily calculated. Two more remarks are not out of place at this point. One is that in fact geometric phases can be perfectly well defined for noncyclic (and even nonunitary) evolutions, though in this paper we shall not be concerned with them [8]. The other is that for piecewise geodesic and overall cyclic evolutions in a general quantum system, geometric phases get related to certain invariants introduced by Bargmann long ago [9], and these invariants are in conception very close to Pancharatnam's original motivations.

We shall refer to the "half the solid angle" result as the Pancharatnam formula for geometric phases for two-level systems undergoing piecewise geodesic cyclic evolution along a spherical triangle on  $S^2$ . The main purposes of this paper are to: (i) present a recently developed generalisation of the Poincaré sphere representation for pure states of three-level quantum systems [10]; and (ii) to then obtain a generalisation of the Pancharatnam formula for such systems.

The material of this paper is arranged as follows: Section II outlines the generalisation of the Poincare sphere for three-level systems. The Poincaré sphere  $S^2$  gets replaced by a certain four-dimensional simply connected region  $\mathcal{O}$  contained wholly within the unit sphere  $S^7$  in eight dimensional real Euclidean space. The transitive action of SU(3) on  $\mathcal{O}$ , via eight dimensional orthogonal rotations, some intrinsic properties of  $\mathcal{O}$ , and a local coordinate system for  $\mathcal{O}$ , are described so as to assist in forming a picture of this object. Section III recalls very briefly the main features of the quantum kinematic approach to the geometric phase of a general quantum system. Both the roles of ray space geodesics and the Bargmann invariants are highlighted. The case of two-level systems, and the statement of the Pancharatnam formula, are then given. It is pointed out that it is a fortunate circumstance that ray space geodesics and geodesics on  $S^2$  happen to coincide in the case of two-level systems. Finally the general formula for the geometric phase for any cyclic evolution of the three-level system is given. Section IV discusses the properties of ray space geodesics for three-level systems, and their representation as curves in  $\mathcal{O}$ . We find that the latter, while they are plane curves, are not geodesics in the geometrical sense on  $S^7$ . We also find that it is possible to construct constant Hamiltonians which would give rise to evolution along any such geodesics. Section V puts together the ingredients of the previous Sections to develop the generalised Pancharatnam formula for three-level systems. This involves describing the most general geodesic triangle for a three-level system state space, and then computing its geometric phase. Whereas a geodesic triangle on  $S^2$  involves three independent intrinsic parameters, for a geodesic triangle in  $\mathcal{O}$  it turns out that four independent intrinsic parameters are needed. The geometric phase then depends on all four of these parameters, and this is borne out by the explicit formula for the phase. Section VI contains some concluding remarks.

# II. GENERALISATION OF THE POINCARE SPHERE REPRESENTATION FOR THREE-LEVEL SYSTEMS

We recall very briefly the salient features of the Poincaré sphere representation for two level systems, using throughout the notations and terminology of quantum mechanics [11]. We deal with a two-dimensional complex Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}^{(2)}$ , unit vectors in which are denoted by  $\psi, \psi' \cdots$ . The density matrix corresponding to a pure state  $\psi$  is given by the projection  $\rho = \psi \psi^{\dagger}$ . Its expansion in terms of the Pauli matrices  $\sigma_i$  leads to the Poincaré sphere construction:

$$\rho = \psi \psi^{\dagger} = \frac{1}{2} (1 + \mathbf{n}.\boldsymbol{\sigma}),$$
  

$$\rho^{\dagger} = \rho^{2} = \rho \ge 0, \operatorname{Tr}\rho = 1 \Leftrightarrow$$
  

$$\mathbf{n}^{\star} = \mathbf{n}, \ \mathbf{n}.\mathbf{n} = 1 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{n} \in S^{2}.$$
(2.1)

Thus each pure state in the quantum mechanical sense, or normalised ray, corresponds in a one-to-one manner to a point on the 2-dimensional unit sphere  $S^2$  embedded in Euclidean three dimensional space  $\mathcal{R}^3$ . Since

$$\rho = \psi \psi^{\dagger} = \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \mathbf{n}.\boldsymbol{\sigma} \right) \quad , \quad \rho' = \psi' \psi'^{\dagger} = \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \mathbf{n}'.\boldsymbol{\sigma} \right) \Rightarrow$$
$$\operatorname{Tr}(\rho'\rho) = |(\psi',\psi)|^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \mathbf{n}'.\mathbf{n} \right) \tag{2.2}$$

we see that diametrically opposite points on  $S^2$  correspond to mutually orthogonal rays or Hilbert space vectors. Here  $(\psi', \psi)$  is the inner product in  $\mathcal{H}^{(2)}$ . Finally, if a vector  $\psi \in \mathcal{H}^{(2)}$  is subjected to a transformation  $u \in SU(2)$ , the representative point  $\mathbf{n} \in S^2$  undergoes an orthogonal rotation belonging to SO(3):

$$\psi' = u\psi, \quad u \in SU(2) \Rightarrow$$

$$n'_{j} = R_{jk}(u)n_{k},$$

$$R_{jk}(u) = \frac{1}{2}\operatorname{Tr}(\sigma_{j}u\sigma_{k}u^{\dagger}), R(u) \in SO(3).$$
(2.3)

As is well known, all elements  $\mathcal{R} \in SO(3)$  are realised in this way, and we have the coset space identifications  $S^2 = SU(2)/U(1) = SO(3)/SO(2)$ .

Now we present the natural generalisation of this construction to three-level systems. We deal with a 3-dimensional complex Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}^{(3)}$ , elements of which will be again denoted by  $\psi, \psi', \cdots$ . The roles of SU(2) and the Pauli matrices  $\sigma_j$  are now played by the group SU(3) via its defining representation, and the eight hermitian generators  $\lambda_r$  in this representation [12]:

$$SU(3) = \left\{ A = 3 \times 3 \text{ complex matrix } | A^{\dagger} A = 1, \det A = 1 \right\};$$

$$(2.4a)$$

$$\lambda_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \lambda_{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \lambda_{3} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \lambda_{4} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\lambda_{5} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \lambda_{6} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \lambda_{7} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \lambda_{8} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}.$$
(2.4b)

The matrices  $\lambda_r$  obey characteristic commutation and anticommutation relations:

$$\begin{aligned} [\lambda_r, \lambda_s] &= 2if_{rst}\lambda_t, \quad \{\lambda_r, \lambda_s\} = \frac{4}{3}\delta_{rs} + 2d_{rst}\lambda_t; \\ f_{123} &= 1, f_{458} = f_{678} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, f_{147} = f_{246} = f_{257} = f_{345} = f_{516} = f_{637} = \frac{1}{2}; \\ d_{118} &= d_{228} = d_{338} = -d_{888} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, d_{448} = d_{558} = d_{668} = d_{778} = -\frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}}, \\ d_{146} &= d_{157} = -d_{247} = d_{256} = d_{344} = d_{355} = -d_{366} = -d_{377} = \frac{1}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

$$(2.5)$$

Here we have given the independent nonvanishing components of the completely antisymmetric  $f_{rst}$  and the completely symmetric  $d_{rst}$ ; the former are the SU(3) structure constants. These f and d symbols allow us to define both antisymmetric and symmetric products among real vectors  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \cdots$  in real eight dimensional Euclidean space  $\mathcal{R}^8$ , the result in each case being another such vector [10]:

$$(\mathbf{a}_{\wedge}\mathbf{b})_{r} = f_{rst}a_{s}b_{t}, \quad \mathbf{a}_{\wedge}\mathbf{b} = -\mathbf{b}_{\wedge}\mathbf{a}; (\mathbf{a} \star \mathbf{b})_{r} = \sqrt{3}d_{rst}a_{s}b_{t}, \quad \mathbf{a} \star \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} \star \mathbf{a}.$$
(2.6)

The significance of these definitions is that  $\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b}$  and  $\mathbf{a} \star \mathbf{b}$  transform just as  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  do, under the eight dimensional adjoint representation of SU(3). The matrices of this representation are defined similarly to eq.(2.3):

$$A \in SU(3) \to D_{rs}(A) = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}(\lambda_r A \lambda_s A^{\dagger}),$$
  

$$D(A')D(A) = D(A'A),$$
  

$$D(A) \in SO(8).$$
(2.7)

However in contrast to the SU(2) - SO(3) case, here the matrices D(A) that arise are only an eight-parameter family, and so a very small portion indeed of the full twenty-eight-parameter group SO(8). In any case the required properties of the products (2.6) are:

$$D(A)\mathbf{a}_{\wedge}D(A)\mathbf{b} = D(A)(\mathbf{a}_{\wedge}\mathbf{b}),$$
  

$$D(A)\mathbf{a} \star D(A)\mathbf{b} = D(A)(\mathbf{a} \star \mathbf{b}).$$
(2.8)

With this background, we can handle general pure state density matrices for three level systems [10]. Given a normalised  $\psi \in \mathcal{H}^{(3)}$ , we form the density matrix  $\rho = \psi \psi^{\dagger}$  and expand it in terms of the unit matrix and the  $\lambda_r$ :

$$\psi \in \mathcal{H}^3 , \quad (\psi, \psi) = 1 :$$

$$\rho = \psi \psi^{\dagger} = \frac{1}{3} (1 + \sqrt{3} \mathbf{n} \cdot \boldsymbol{\lambda}).$$
(2.9)

We then find in place of eq (2.2):

$$\rho^{\dagger} = \rho^2 = \rho \ge 0, \text{Tr}\rho = 1 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{n}^* = \mathbf{n}, \, \mathbf{n}.\mathbf{n} = 1, \, \mathbf{n} \star \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{n}$$
(2.10)

Thus each normalised ray for the three level system corresponds uniquely in a one-to-one manner to a unit vector  $\mathbf{n} \in S^7$ , the seven dimensional unit sphere in  $\mathcal{R}^8$ , which moreover obeys the condition  $\mathbf{n} \star \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{n}$ . The set of all such real unit vectors in  $\mathcal{R}^8$ , a subset of  $S^7$ , is the analogue of the Poincar' sphere for three-level systems. Since it is in fact a very small part of  $S^7$ , we give it a special symbol:

$$\mathcal{O} = \left\{ \mathbf{n} \in \mathcal{R}^8 | \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{n} = 1, \quad \mathbf{n} \star \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{n} \right\} \subset S^7 \subset \mathcal{R}^8.$$
(2.11)

This set  $\mathcal{O}$  is a connected, simply connected four dimensional region contained in  $S^7$ , and its points correspond one-to-one to pure states of a three-level system. It is in fact a representation of the coset space SU(3)/U(2)

Some interesting geometric properties of  $\mathcal{O}$  may be mentioned. For two unit vectors  $\psi, \psi' \in \mathcal{H}^{(3)}$ , we find:

$$\rho = \psi \psi^{\dagger}, \ \rho' = \psi' \psi'^{\dagger} \Rightarrow \operatorname{Tr}(\rho' \rho) = |(\psi', \psi)|^{2} = \frac{1}{3}(1 + 2\mathbf{n}'.\mathbf{n}),$$
$$0 \le \operatorname{Tr}(\rho' \rho) \le 1 \Leftrightarrow 0 \le \cos^{-1}(\mathbf{n}'.\mathbf{n}) \le \frac{2\pi}{3}.$$
(2.12)

Thus mutually orthogonal vectors in  $\mathcal{H}^{(3)}$  do not lead to antipodal or diametrically opposite points on  $\mathcal{O}$ , but rather to points with a maximum opening angle of  $\frac{2\pi}{3}$  radians. Indeed, if  $\mathbf{n} \in \mathcal{O}$ , then  $-\mathbf{n} \notin \mathcal{O}$ . If one takes the three canonical basis vectors of  $\mathcal{H}^{(3)}$  as usual, they lead to three distinguished points or "poles" on  $\mathcal{O}$ :

$$(1,0,0)^T \to n_3 = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, n_8 = \frac{1}{2}$$
, rest zero;  
 $(0,1,0)^T \to n_3 = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, n_8 = \frac{1}{2}$ , rest zero;  
 $(0,0,1)^T \to n_8 = -1$ , rest zero, (2.13)

each making an angle of  $\frac{2\pi}{3}$  with any other. These properties of  $\mathcal{O}$  may help one make some sort of mental picture of this geometrical object embedded in  $S^7$ .

The action of SU(3) on vectors in  $\mathcal{H}^{(3)}$  leads to adjoint action on  $\mathcal{O}$ :

$$A \in SU(3) \quad : \quad \psi' = A\psi \Rightarrow \mathbf{n}' = D(A)\mathbf{n}. \tag{2.14}$$

Thus one has here a (small set of) rigid eight-dimensional orthogonal rotations, which will prove convenient later on. Moreover, since  $\mathcal{O}$  is the coset space SU(3)/U(2), this adjoint action of SU(3) on  $\mathcal{O}$  is transitive. This will also be exploited later. General SO(8) rotations of course do not preserve the region  $\mathcal{O}$  of  $S^7$ .

For practical calculations it is convenient to introduce four independent local angle type variables which can be used as coordinates over (almost all of)  $\mathcal{O}$ . Let us write a general unit vetor  $\psi \in \mathcal{H}^{(3)}$  as:

$$\psi = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_1 \\ \psi_2 \\ \psi_3 \end{pmatrix}, \ \psi^{\dagger} \psi = |\psi_1|^2 + |\psi_2|^2 + |\psi_3|^2 = 1.$$
(2.15)

Then omitting the part of  $\mathcal{O}$  corresponding to  $\psi_3 = 0$  (this is a two-dimensional region, essentially an  $S^2$ , see below), over the rest of  $\mathcal{O}$  we introduce  $\theta, \phi, \chi_1, \chi_2$  in this way [13]:

$$(\psi_1, \psi_2, \psi_3) = (\text{overall phase}) \left( e^{i\chi_1} \sin \theta \cos \phi, e^{i\chi_2} \sin \theta \sin \phi, \cos \theta \right)$$
$$0 \le \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}, \ 0 \le \phi \le \frac{\pi}{2}, \ 0 \le \chi_1, \chi_2 < 2\pi.$$
(2.16)

The limits on  $\theta$ ,  $\phi$  reflect the nonvanishing of  $\psi_3$ , and the fact that the real three-dimensional unit vector  $(|\psi_1|, |\psi_2|, |\psi_3|)$  has non-negative components. Thus  $\theta$ ,  $\phi$  denotes a point on the first octant of an  $S^2$ . Given  $|\psi_3| > 0$ ,  $\chi_1$  is the phase of  $\psi_1$  relative to  $\psi_3$  ( and is well defined except when  $\phi = \frac{\pi}{2}$ ); and  $\chi_2$  is the phase of  $\psi_2$  relative to  $\psi_3$  ( and is well defined except when  $\phi = \frac{\pi}{2}$ ); and  $\chi_2$  is the phase of  $\psi_2$  relative to  $\psi_3$  ( and is well defined except when  $\phi = \frac{\pi}{2}$ ); and  $\chi_2$  is the phase of  $\psi_2$  relative to  $\psi_3$  ( and is well defined except when  $\phi = \frac{\pi}{2}$ ); and  $\chi_2$  is the phase of  $\psi_2$  relative to  $\psi_3$  ( and is well defined except when  $\phi = 0$ ). All this is shown in Fig.1. We need to remember that  $\theta$ ,  $\phi$  determine the magnitudes of the components of  $\psi$ , while  $\chi_1, \chi_2$  give their relative phases. All four taken together determine one point in the portion of  $\mathcal{O}$  with  $\psi_3 \neq 0$ .

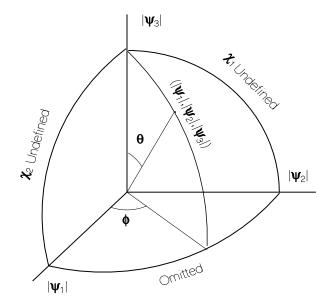


FIG. 1. A pictorial description of almost all of the space  $\mathcal{O}$  (the space of all states of the three-level system). The local coordinates  $\theta, \phi, \chi_1, \chi_2$  are such that  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  define a point in the positive octant of  $S^2$  i.e.  $0 \le \theta, \phi \le \frac{\pi}{2}$  and for a given point on this octant we have a torus defined by two angle variable  $0 \le \chi_1, \chi_2 < 2\pi$ .

We can easily obtain the expressions for  $n_r$  in these local coordinates. Combining eqs. (2.9, 2.16) we get:

$$n_{r} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \psi^{\dagger} \lambda_{r} \psi :$$

$$\mathbf{n} = \sqrt{3} \left( \sin^{2} \theta \sin \phi \cos \phi \cos (\chi_{2} - \chi_{1}), \sin^{2} \theta \sin \phi \cos \phi \sin (\chi_{2} - \chi_{1}), \frac{1}{2} \sin^{2} \theta (\cos^{2} \phi - \sin^{2} \phi), \sin \theta \cos \theta \cos \phi \cos \chi_{1}, -\sin \theta \cos \theta \cos \phi \sin \chi_{1}, \sin \theta \cos \theta \sin \phi \cos \chi_{2}, -\sin \theta \cos \theta \sin \phi \sin \chi_{2}, \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}} (1 - 3 \cos^{2} \theta) \right).$$

$$(2.17)$$

The recovery of the Poincaré sphere  $S^2$  for a two-dimensional subspace of  $\mathcal{H}^{(3)}$  is straightforward. Consider as an example vectors  $\psi \in \mathcal{H}^{(3)}$  with vanishing third component (just the points of  $\mathcal{O}$  omitted in the local coordinatisation (2.16) of  $\mathcal{O}$ ):

$$\psi = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_1 \\ \psi_2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} e^{i\chi_1} \cos \phi \\ e^{i\chi_2} \sin \phi \\ 0 \end{pmatrix},$$
  
$$0 \le \phi \le \frac{\pi}{2}, 0 \le \chi_1, \, \chi_2 < 2\pi$$
(2.18)

Then the eight-vector  $\mathbf{n}$  has only four nonvanishing components:

$$(n_1, n_2, n_3) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \left( \sin 2\phi \cos \left(\chi_2 - \chi_1\right), \sin 2\phi \sin \left(\chi_2 - \chi_1\right), \cos 2\phi \right), \\ n_8 = \frac{1}{2}, \\ n_4 = n_5 = n_6 = n_7 = 0.$$
(2.19)

As  $\phi$  and  $(\chi_2 - \chi_1)$  vary in the appropriate ranges, we see that we obtain a certain sphere  $S^2$  embedded within  $\mathcal{O}$ , centred on the point  $(0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, \frac{1}{2})$ , of radius  $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ , and contained entirely within the 1 - 2 - 3 - 8 subspace of  $\mathcal{R}^8$ . If we consider two dimensional subspaces in  $\mathcal{H}^{(3)}$  different from (2.18), we clearly obtain SU(3) transforms of the above situation. All these various  $S^2$ 's are off-centre in  $\mathcal{R}^8$ : indeed their centres lie on a sphere in  $\mathcal{R}^8$  centred at the origin of  $\mathcal{R}^8$  and of radius  $\frac{1}{2}$ 

#### III. BACKGROUND TO THE GEOMETRIC PHASE AND PANCHARATNAM'S FORMULA

Consider a general quantum mechanical system whose pure states are described by unit vectors in a complex Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  of any dimension. The corresponding ray space will be denoted by  $\mathcal{R}$ . Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a continuous piecewise smooth parametrised curve of unit vectors in  $\mathcal{H}$ :

$$\mathcal{C} = \{\psi(s) | s_1 \le s \le s_2\} \subset \mathcal{H},\tag{3.1}$$

and let C be its image in  $\mathcal{R}$ , likewise continuous and piecewise smooth:

$$C = \left\{ \rho(s) = \psi(s)\psi(s)^{\dagger} | s_1 \le s \le s_2 \right\} \subset \mathcal{R}.$$

$$(3.2)$$

In case  $\psi(s_2)$  and  $\psi(s_1)$  determine the same ray, and in particular  $\psi(s_2) = \psi(s_1)$  in which case C is closed, the image C is closed; however in general we need not assume this. The geometric phase associated with C is the difference between a total (or Pancharatnam) phase and a dynamical phase, each of which is a functional of C [5]:

$$\varphi_{g}[C] = \varphi_{p}[\mathcal{C}] - \varphi_{dyn}[\mathcal{C}],$$
  

$$\varphi_{p}[\mathcal{C}] = \arg(\psi(s_{1}), \psi(s_{2})),$$
  

$$\varphi_{dyn}[\mathcal{C}] = \operatorname{Im} \int_{s_{1}}^{s_{2}} ds(\psi(s), \dot{\psi}(s)).$$
(3.3)

The quantity  $\varphi_g[C]$  is invariant under both local smooth phase changes in  $\psi(s)$ , and under smooth reparametrisations - for these reasons it is a geometric quantity dependent on C rather than on  $\mathcal{C}$ .

In this context an important role is played by geodesics in the space  $\mathcal{R}$  [5]. Given the continuous curve  $C \subset \mathcal{R}($ with nonorthogonal end points for definiteness), a nondegenerate positive definite length functional  $\mathcal{L}[C]$  can be set up, which is also reparametrisation invariant:

$$\mathcal{L}[C] = \int_{s_1}^{s_2} ds \left\{ (\dot{\psi}(s), \dot{\psi}(s)) - (\psi(s), \dot{\psi}(s))(\dot{\psi}(s), \psi(s)) \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$
(3.4)

Extremising this functional (with fixed end points), we arrive at the concept of geodesics in  $\mathcal{R}$ . Any Hilbert space lift of such a geodesic, with any choice of parametrisation, may then be called a geodesic in  $\mathcal{H}$ . It then turns out that every geodesic in  $\mathcal{R}$  has vanishing geometric phase:

$$C = \text{geodesic in } \mathcal{R} \Rightarrow \varphi_q[C] = 0, \tag{3.5}$$

and this accounts for their importance. The simplest description of a geodesic, which can always be achieved, is as follows. Let the end points of C be  $\rho^{(1)}$  and  $\rho^{(2)}$ , assumed nonorthogonal, and choose unit vectors  $\psi^{(1)}, \psi^{(2)}$  such that:

$$\rho^{(1)} = \psi^{(1)}\psi^{(1)\dagger} , \qquad \rho^{(2)} = \psi^{(2)}\psi^{(2)\dagger} 
(\psi^{(1)}, \psi^{(2)}) = \text{real positive.}$$
(3.6)

Thus  $\psi^{(1)}$  and  $\psi^{(2)}$  are "in phase" in the Pancharatnam sense. Then the geodesic  $C_{\text{geo}} \subset \mathcal{R}$  connecting  $\rho^{(1)}$  to  $\rho^{(2)}$  is the ray space image of the following curve  $\mathcal{C}_{\text{geo}} \subset \mathcal{H}$ :

$$\mathcal{C}_{\text{geo}} = \{\psi(s)|0 \le s \le s_0\}, 
\psi(s) = \psi(0)\cos s + \dot{\psi}(0)\sin s, 
\psi(0) = \psi^{(1)}, \quad \dot{\psi}(0) = \left(\psi^{(2)} - \psi^{(1)}(\psi^{(1)}, \psi^{(2)})\right) / \left(1 - (\psi^{(1)}, \psi^{(2)})^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}, 
s_0 = \cos^{-1}(\psi^{(1)}, \psi^{(2)}).$$
(3.7)

Exploiting the fundamental result (3.5) we obtain a very attractive expression for the geometric phase in the following particular situation. Choose a set of points  $\rho^{(1)}, \rho^{(2)}, \dots, \rho^{(n)} \in \mathcal{R}$  in a definite sequence, assume for definiteness that no two consecutive points are mutually orthogonal, and also that  $\rho^{(n)}$  and  $\rho^{(1)}$  are nonorthogonal. Connect  $\rho^{(1)}$  to  $\rho^{(2)}, \rho^{(2)}$  to  $\rho^{(3)}, \dots, \rho^{(n)}$  to  $\rho^{(1)}$  by geodesic arcs, so that we obtain a closed curve  $C \subset \mathcal{R}$  in the form of an *n*-sided polygon made up of geodesic pieces. Then we have [5]:

$$C = \text{geodesic polygon in } \mathcal{R} \text{ with vertices } \rho^{(1)}, \rho^{(2)}, \dots, \rho^{(n)} :$$
  

$$\varphi_g[C] = -\arg(\psi^{(1)}, \psi^{(2)})(\psi^{(2)}, \psi^{(3)}) \cdots (\psi^{(n)}, \psi^{(1)})$$
  

$$= -\arg\operatorname{Tr}(\rho^{(1)}\rho^{(2)} \cdots \rho^{(n)}),$$
  

$$\rho^{(1)} = \psi^{(1)}\psi^{(1)\dagger}, \ \rho^{(2)} = \psi^{(2)}\psi^{(2)\dagger}, \dots, \rho^{(n)} = \psi^{(n)}\psi^{(n)\dagger}.$$
(3.8)

Here it is evident that the phases of the vectors  $\psi^{(1)}, \psi^{(2)}, \dots, \psi^{(n)}$  can be freely chosen. The result (3.8) connects the geometric phase for a closed polygon to the Bargmann invariant of quantum mechanics, the expression  $(\psi^{(1)}, \psi^{(2)})(\psi^{(2)}, \psi^{(3)}) \cdots (\psi^{(n)}, \psi^{(1)})$ , namely: the former is the negative of the argument of the latter. The point to emphasize is that the definition of the Bargmann invariant requires specifying just the vertices of the polygon, while the definition of the geometric phase requires also connecting them in sequence by geodesic arcs so that we have a closed loop  $C \subset \mathcal{R}$ .

With this background from the general theory of the geometric phase we relate these results to the case of two level systems, quote the Pancharatnam formula and then give the general expression for  $\varphi_q[C]$  for three-level systems.

For two-level systems we have seen that the space  $\mathcal{R}$  is the Poincar' sphere  $S^2$ . It is now a happy coincidence that geodesics in  $\mathcal{R}$  map exactly on to geodesics on  $S^2$  in the more familiar Euclidean sense. This can be seen as follows. Without loss of generality, by using a suitable SU(2) transformation, we may assume that the points  $\rho^{(1)}, \rho^{(2)}$  to be connected by a geodesic are the points  $\mathbf{n}^{(1)} = (0, 0, 1), \mathbf{n}^{(2)} = (\sin 2\alpha, 0, \cos 2\alpha)$  on  $S^2$ , with representative vectors  $\psi^{(1)}, \psi^{(2)} \in \mathcal{H}^{(2)}$  chosen as follows:

$$\psi^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \psi^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\alpha\\\sin\alpha \end{pmatrix}.$$
(3.9)

Then applying the result (3.7), the ray space geodesic connecting  $\rho^{(1)}$  to  $\rho^{(2)}$  is determined as follows:

$$\psi(s) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos s \\ \sin s \end{pmatrix};$$
  

$$\mathbf{n}(s) = \operatorname{Tr}\rho(s)\boldsymbol{\sigma} = (\psi(s), \boldsymbol{\sigma}\psi(s))$$
  

$$= (\sin 2s, 0, \cos 2s), \quad 0 \le s \le \alpha.$$
(3.10)

We see that the curve described by  $\mathbf{n}(s)$  on  $S^2$  is indeed a great circle arc, a part of the "Greenwich meridian"; and by the action of SU(2) on  $\mathcal{R}$  translated into the action of SO(3) on  $S^2$ , we conclude that any ray space geodesic in  $\mathcal{R}$  appears as some great circle arc on  $S^2$ . Thus the two definitions of geodesics do coincide in this case.

Let now A, B, and C be any three points on  $S^2$ , no two being diametrically opposite to one another. Joining them by great circle arcs (each less than  $\pi$  in extent) we get a geodesic triangle  $\triangle(A, B, C)$  on  $S^2$ . Then the Pancharatnam formula [3] [4] [2] is the statement that for any two level system:

$$\varphi_g[\triangle(A, B, C)] = \frac{1}{2}\Omega,$$

$$\Omega = \text{solid angle subtended by the triangle } A, B, C \text{ at the origin of } S^2.$$
(3.11)

Here the right hand side is interpreted to be positive(negative) if, as viewed from outside of  $S^2$ , the triangle ABC is described in the counter clockwise (clockwise) sense. It is this formula that we shall generalise in Section V.

Now we give the general formula for geometric phases for three level systems [10]. Consider a closed loop  $C \subset \mathcal{O}$ , and assume for definiteness that  $\psi_3 \neq 0$  throughout. Then  $\varphi_g[C]$  is given by the following integral along C:

$$\varphi_g[C] = -\oint_{C \subset \mathcal{O}} \sin^2 \theta(\cos^2 \phi d\chi_1 + \sin^2 \phi d\chi_2)$$
(3.12)

We note that this formula holds when C is a closed loop. In the succeeding Sections we develop the properties of geodesics in  $\mathcal{O}$  and then generalise eq. (3.11)

# IV. RAY SPACE GEODESICS FOR THREE-LEVEL SYSTEMS

We have seen that the transitive action of SU(3) on the ray space  $\mathcal{O}$  for three-level systems is given by (an eightparameter subset of) rigid orthogonal rotations in real Euclidean eight dimensional space, when points of  $\mathcal{O}$  are identified with vectors **n** as in eq (2.11). Based on this we may describe the details of any one conveniently chosen geodesic in  $\mathcal{O}$ ; and then any other would be a suitable SO(8) transform of this one, so that the geometrical shape and structure in an intrinsic sense are unaltered.

Guided by the constructions of Section III, eq. (3.9, 3.10) let us choose two points in  $\mathcal{O}$  corresponding to the following two unit vectors in  $\mathcal{H}^{(3)}$ :

$$\psi^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\0\\1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \psi^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\\sin\alpha\\\cos\alpha \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{n}^{(1)} = (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, -1)$$
$$\mathbf{n}^{(2)} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \left( 0, 0, -\sin^2\alpha, 0, 0, 2\sin\alpha\cos\alpha, 0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(1 - 3\cos^2\alpha) \right)$$
(4.1)

It is easy to see that, given any pair of three level pure state density matrices  $\rho^{(1)}$  and  $\rho^{(2)}$  such that  $\text{Tr}(\rho^{(1)}\rho^{(2)}) = \cos^2 \alpha > 0$ , we can exploit the action of SU(3) on  $\mathcal{H}^{(3)}$ , and freedom of phases, to put  $\rho^{(1)}$  and  $\rho^{(2)}$  into the configurations corresponding to the vectors  $\psi^{(1)}$  and  $\psi^{(2)}$  above. Then the ray space geodesic  $C_{\text{geo}}^{(0)}$  connecting  $\mathbf{n}^{(1)}$  and  $\mathbf{n}^{(2)}$  is easily found on the basis of the general formula (3.7):

$$\psi(s) = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\ \sin s\\ \cos s \end{pmatrix};$$

$$C_{\text{geo}}^{(0)}: \quad \mathbf{n}(s) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\psi(s)^{\dagger}\lambda\psi(s)$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\left(0, 0, -\sin^{2}s, 0, 0, 2\sin s\cos s, 0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(1 - 3\cos^{2}s)\right), 0 \le s \le \alpha.$$
(4.2)

This curve  $\{\mathbf{n}(s)\} \subset \mathcal{O}$  has only three nonvanishing components, namely,  $n_3(s), n_6(s)$  and  $n_8(s)$ . The interesting questions are whether it is a plane curve, whether it coincides with a geodesic arc as defined in the sense of eight dimensional Euclidean geometry on  $S^7$ , and whether it has any other important geometric features.

The first observation we may make is that since the components  $n_1, n_2, n_4, n_5, n_7$  all vanish, this curve  $C_{\text{geo}}^{(0)}$  lies entirely in a three dimensional subspace of  $\mathcal{R}^8$ . By SU(3) action this statement is then true for all ray space geodesics  $C_{\text{geo}}$  when drawn in  $\mathcal{O}$ . Next we remark that a geodesic on  $S^7$  in the Euclidean sense would be part of the intersection of a two dimensional plane in  $\mathcal{R}^8$  passing through the origin, with  $S^7$ . We can immediately see that  $C_{\text{geo}}^{(0)}$  is not of this kind; for example, the three vectors  $\mathbf{n}(0), \mathbf{n}(\frac{\alpha}{2}), \mathbf{n}(\alpha)$  are easily checked to be linearly independent. Thus in striking

contrast to the situation on the Poincare' sphere  $S^2$  for two level systems, here ray space geodesics on  $\mathcal{O}$  are not geodesic arcs in the sense of Euclidean eight dimensional geometry.

Nevertheless we can show that  $C_{\text{geo}}^{(0)}$  is a plane curve, though the plane on which it lies is off center in  $\mathcal{R}^8$ , i.e. it does not pass through the origin or the center of  $S^7$ . For this we need to work with the combinations  $\frac{\sqrt{3}n_3 + n_8}{2}$ ,  $\frac{n_3 - \sqrt{3}n_8}{2}$ obtained from  $n_3$ ,  $n_8$  by an orthogonal transformation. Then we find:

$$\frac{\sqrt{3}n_3(s) + n_8(s)}{2} = -\frac{1}{2},$$
  

$$n_6(s) = \sqrt{3}\sin s \cos s,$$
  

$$\frac{n_3(s) - \sqrt{3}n_8(s)}{2} = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}(1 - 2\cos^2 s)$$
(4.3)

Thus, in the three dimensional  $n_3 - n_6 - n_8$  subspace, this geodesic  $C_{\text{geo}}^{(0)}$  is a curve lying in the two dimensional plane  $\frac{\sqrt{3}n_3 + n_8}{2} = -\frac{1}{2}$ . Ray space geodesics  $C_{\text{geo}}$  for three level systems, when described as curves  $\{\mathbf{n}(s)\} \subset \mathcal{O}$ , are really like arcs of constant latitude on  $S^2$ , and not geodesic arcs at all. For this reason, hereafter the term geodesic will refer exclusively to ray space geodesics, with no further qualification.

In the description of  $\mathcal{O}$  using coordinates  $\theta, \phi, \chi_1, \chi_2$  the geodesic  $C_{\text{geo}}^{(0)}$  appears as follows:

$$C_{\text{geo}}^{(0)}$$
 :  $\theta(s) = s, \ \phi(s) = \frac{\pi}{2}, \ \chi_1(s)$  undefined,  $\chi_2(s) = 0, \ 0 \le s \le \alpha.$  (4.4)

Thus the projection of  $C_{\text{geo}}^{(0)}$  onto the octant of  $S^2$  with spherical polar angles  $\theta, \phi$  happens to be a great circle arc in the usual sense. However this is not expected to be true for a general geodesic  $C_{\text{geo}} \subset \mathcal{O}$ .

One can now ask for the most general three level system Hamiltonian which reproduces the evolution of  $\psi(s)$  with respect to s, as already specified in eq. (4.2), and whether it can be independent of s. A general hermitian Hamiltonian can be written in terms of nine real functions of s as:

$$H(s) = h_0(s) + \mathbf{h}(s).\boldsymbol{\lambda},\tag{4.5}$$

while the quantum mechanical evolution equations for  $\psi(s)$  and  $\rho(s)$  become:

$$i\frac{d}{ds}\psi(s) = H(s)\psi(s),$$
  
$$\frac{d}{ds}\mathbf{n}(s) = 2\mathbf{h}(s)\wedge\mathbf{n}(s).$$
 (4.6)

An easy calculation shows that the most general H(s) has four independent real arbitrary functions of s, namely a(s), b(s), c(s), d(s) in:

$$\mathbf{h}(s) = \left(a(s)\cos s, b(s)\cos s, \sqrt{3}c(s) + d(s)(\cos^2 s - \sin^2 s), -a(s)\sin s, -b(s)\sin s, d(s)\cos s\sin s, -1, c(s)\right)$$
$$h_0(s) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}c(s) - d(s)\sin^2 s.$$
(4.7)

Moreover we also find with this general Hamiltonian :

$$\operatorname{Tr}(\rho(s)H(s)) = (\psi(s), H(s)\psi(s))$$
$$= h_0(s) + \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}\mathbf{n}(s).\mathbf{h}(s)$$
$$= 0. \tag{4.8}$$

This is consistent with the vanishing of the dynamical phase as the state evolves along  $\{\psi(s)\}$  of eq (4.2), which is directly checked to be true. If we in addition wish to have a constant Hamiltonian producing this evolution, we must set a(s) = b(s) = d(s) = 0,  $c(s) = c_0 = \text{constant}$  and then we get:

$$H_{\text{const.}}^{(0)} = \left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}\mathbf{1} + \sqrt{3}\lambda_3 + \lambda_8\right)c_0 - \lambda_7.$$
(4.9)

It is possible to express this simple constant Hamiltonian directly in terms of the end points  $\mathbf{n}^{(1)}, \mathbf{n}^{(2)}$  of the geodesic  $C_{\text{geo}}^{(0)}$  given in eq. (4.1). Namely one finds:

$$(\mathbf{n}^{(1)} \wedge \mathbf{n}^{(2)})_r = -\frac{3}{2} \left(\sin\alpha\cos\alpha\right) \delta_{r7} \tag{4.10}$$

which, if we set the constant  $c_0$  to zero, leads to:

$$H_{const.}^{(0)} = \frac{\mathbf{n}^{(1)} \wedge \mathbf{n}^{(2)} \cdot \boldsymbol{\lambda}}{|\mathbf{n}^{(1)} \wedge \mathbf{n}^{(2)}|} \,. \tag{4.11}$$

We can now generalise these results to any geodesic  $C_{\text{geo}} \subset \mathcal{O}$  connecting any two points  $\mathbf{n}, \mathbf{n}' \in \mathcal{O}$ . Writing  $\mathbf{n}.\mathbf{n}' = \frac{1}{2}(3\cos^2\alpha - 1)$ , we have the result that the constant Hamiltonian

$$H_{const.} = \frac{2 \mathbf{n}_{\wedge} \mathbf{n}' . \boldsymbol{\lambda}}{3 \sin \alpha \cos \alpha},\tag{4.12}$$

can produce evolution along the geodesic  $C_{\text{geo}}$ . This generalises well known results in the case of two-level systems [7].

#### V. THE PANCHARATNAM GEOMETRIC PHASE FORMULA FOR THREE-LEVEL SYSTEMS

The purpose of this Section is to obtain the generalisation of the result (3.11) for three-level systems. For this we must determine the geometrical description of the most general geodesic triangle on  $\mathcal{O}$ , upto an overall SU(3) transformation, and then use the general connection (3.8) to find the geometric phase associated with this triangle.

Let A, B and C be three general points in  $\mathcal{O}$  such that no two of them enclose an angle of  $\frac{2\pi}{3}$  radians. Using the freedom of common SU(3) action we can transport A to a position  $A^{(0)}$  with a representative vector of the form  $\psi^{(1)}$  of eq (4.1). In this process let B and C move to locations B' and C':

$$A, B, C \xrightarrow{SU(3)} A^{(0)}, B', C' :$$

$$A^{(0)} \to \rho^{(1)} = \psi^{(1)} \psi^{(1)\dagger} , \quad \psi^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(5.1)$$

This  $\rho^{(1)}(\psi^{(1)})$  is invariant under an U(2)(SU(2)) subgroup of SU(3). Exploiting this we can next transport B' to a position  $B^{(0)}$  while leaving  $A^{(0)}$  fixed, and simultaneously C' to some C'', such that:

$$A^{(0)}, B', C' \xrightarrow{U(2)} A^{(0)}, B^{(0)}, C'' :$$
  
$$B^{(0)} \to \rho^{(2)} = \psi^{(2)} \psi^{(2)\dagger}, \quad \psi^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\ \sin\xi\\ \cos\xi \end{pmatrix}, \ 0 < \xi < \frac{\pi}{2},$$
(5.2)

thereby introducing the angle  $\xi$ . We have also secured that  $(\psi^{(1)}, \psi^{(2)})$  is real positive. Now these two density matrices  $\rho^{(1)}, \rho^{(2)}$  are invariant under a particular diagonal U(1) subgroup of SU(3), whose elements are:

$$d(\beta) = \operatorname{diag}\left(e^{-2i\beta}, \ e^{i\beta}, e^{i\beta}\right) \in SU(3), \ 0 \le \beta < 2\pi.$$
(5.3)

We now have the freedom of transformations  $d(\beta)$ , which leave  $A^{(0)}$  and  $B^{(0)}$  unchanged, to move C'' to a convenient position  $C^{(0)}$ . A little thought shows that this can be achieved as follows:

$$A^{(0)}, B^{(0)}, C'' \xrightarrow{U(1)} A^{(0)}, B^{(0)}, C^{(0)} :$$

$$C^{(0)} \to \psi^{(3)} = \begin{pmatrix} \sin \eta \cos \zeta \\ e^{i\chi_2} \sin \eta \sin \zeta \\ \cos \eta \end{pmatrix}, \quad 0 < \eta < \frac{\pi}{2}, \ 0 \le \zeta \le \frac{\pi}{2}, \quad 0 \le \chi_2 < 2\pi.$$
(5.4)

We have parametrised  $\psi^{(3)}$  in the manner of eq. (2.16): the U(1) freedom allows us to transform the phase  $\chi_1$  to zero, and an overall phase freedom has been used to make  $(\psi^{(1)}, \psi^{(3)})$  real positive. We now see that the description of the most general geodesic triangle in  $\mathcal{O}$ , upto an overall SU(3) transformation, involves the four angle parameters  $\xi, \eta, \zeta, \chi_2$ . These are therefore intrinsic to the shape and size of the triangle. This counting agrees with the fact that SU(3) is eight dimensional, and choosing three points on  $\mathcal{O}$  independently involves choosing twelve independent coordinates. Now we consider the geometric phase for the geodesic triangle  $A^{(0)}, B^{(0)}, C^{(0)}$ . Using the result (3.8) based on the Bargmann invariant, and the conveniently chosen representative vectors in eqs. (5.1, 5.2, 5.4), we find:

$$\varphi_{g}[A^{(0)}B^{(0)}C^{(0)}] = -\arg(\psi^{(1)},\psi^{(2)})(\psi^{(2)},\psi^{(3)})(\psi^{(3)},\psi^{(1)})$$
  
=  $+\arg(\psi^{(3)},\psi^{(2)})$   
=  $\arg(\cos\xi\cos\eta + \sin\xi\sin\eta\sin\zeta e^{-i\chi_{2}})$   
=  $\arg(1 + \tan\xi\tan\eta\sin\zeta e^{-i\chi_{2}})$  (5.5)

This is the generalisation of the Pancharatnam formula (3.11). We see that the phase  $\chi_2$  plays an important role:  $\varphi_g[A^{(0)}B^{(0)}C^{(0)}]$  can be nonzero only if  $\chi_2$  is nonzero.

We can also express this geometric phase directly in terms of the vectors  $\mathbf{n}^{(1)}, \mathbf{n}^{(2)}, \mathbf{n}^{(3)} \in \mathcal{O}$  corresponding to the vertices  $A^{(0)}, B^{(0)}, C^{(0)}$  of the geodesic triangle:

$$\varphi_{g}[A^{(0)}B^{(0)}C^{(0)}] = -\arg \operatorname{Tr}(\rho^{(1)}\rho^{(2)}\rho^{(3)}) = -\tan^{-1}\left[\frac{2\sqrt{3}\mathbf{n}^{(1)}\cdot\mathbf{n}^{(2)}\wedge\mathbf{n}^{(3)}}{(\mathbf{n}^{(1)}+\mathbf{n}^{(2)}+\mathbf{n}^{(3)})^{2}+2\mathbf{n}^{(1)}\cdot\mathbf{n}^{(2)}\star\mathbf{n}^{(3)}-2}\right].$$
(5.6)

In this form the SU(3) invariance is explicit.

We may collect our results of this and the previous Section to say: given any geodesic triangle in the ray space  $\mathcal{O}$  for three-level systems, it is possible to find a piecewise constant Hamiltonian to produce evolution along this triangle, such that the dynamical phase vanishes, and the geometric phase is then given by the intrinsic expressions (5.5, 5.6).

# VI. CONCLUDING REMARKS

We have exploited the newly constructed extension of the Poincaré sphere representation from two to three-level quantum systems, to develop a generalisation of the Pancharatnam geometric phase formula for cyclic evolution of such a system along a geodesic triangle in state space. We have found that such a triangle is intrinsically defined by four angle type parameters in contrast to the three needed for defining a triangle on the Poincaré sphere  $S^2$ ; and have obtained the explicit and simple expression for the geometric phase in terms of them

It is easy to check that the original Pancharatnam formula (3.11) emerges form eq (5.5) as a particular case. Namely if we take  $\zeta = \frac{\pi}{2}$ , the three Hilbert space vectors  $\psi^{(1)}, \psi^{(2)}, \psi^{(3)}$  of eqs (5.1, 5.2, 5.4) all lie in the two dimensional 2-3 subspace of  $\mathcal{H}^{(3)}$ , and involve just three angle parameters  $\xi, \eta, \chi_2$ :

$$\psi^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\0\\1 \end{pmatrix}, \ \psi^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\\sin\xi\\\cos\xi \end{pmatrix}, \ \psi^{(3)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\e^{i\chi_2}\sin\eta\\\cos\eta \end{pmatrix}.$$
(6.1)

Let the corresponding rays be represented by unit vectors  $\mathbf{n}_1, \mathbf{n}_2, \mathbf{n}_3$  on an  $S^2$  and let the sides of the corresponding spherical triangle be a, b and c. Then from eq (2.1), we have:

$$\mathbf{n}_{1} \cdot \mathbf{n}_{2} = \cos a = 2|(\psi^{(1)}, \psi^{(2)})|^{2} - 1 = \cos 2\xi ,$$
  

$$\mathbf{n}_{1} \cdot \mathbf{n}_{3} = \cos b = 2|(\psi^{(1)}, \psi^{(3)})|^{2} - 1 = \cos 2\eta ,$$
  

$$\mathbf{n}_{2} \cdot \mathbf{n}_{3} = \cos c = 2|(\psi^{(2)}, \psi^{(3)})|^{2} - 1 = 2|\cos \xi \cos \eta + \sin \xi \sin \eta e^{i\chi_{2}}|^{2} - 1.$$
(6.2)

Thus  $a = 2\xi$ ,  $b = 2\eta$  and in the case of the angle c we have

$$\cos\frac{c}{2} = |\cos\xi\cos\eta + \sin\xi\sin\eta e^{i\chi_2}|. \tag{6.3}$$

Now from eq (5.5) the geometric phase in this case is given by:

$$\varphi_g[A^{(0)}B^{(0)}C^{(0)}] = \arg(\cos\xi\cos\eta + \sin\xi\sin\eta e^{-i\chi_2}), \tag{6.4}$$

or equally well (apart from the sign) by:

$$\cos(\varphi_g[A^{(0)}B^{(0)}C^{(0)}]) = \frac{\cos\xi\cos\eta + \sin\xi\sin\eta\cos\chi_2}{|\cos\xi\cos\eta + \sin\xi\sin\eta e^{i\chi_2}|}.$$
(6.5)

Focussing on the  $\chi_2$  dependence here (and as we have seen earlier this is the crucial aspect), and using eq. (6.2) we have:

$$\cos\xi \cos\eta + \sin\xi \sin\eta \cos\chi_2 = \frac{(1 + \cos a + \cos b + \cos c)}{4\cos a/2\cos b/2},$$
(6.6)

leading to

$$\cos(\varphi_g[A^{(0)}B^{(0)}C^{(0)}]) = \frac{(1+\cos a + \cos b + \cos c)}{4\cos a/2\cos b/2\cos c/2}.$$
(6.7)

However the right hand side here is precisely  $\cos \frac{1}{2} \triangle(a, b, c)$ , where  $\triangle(a, b, c)$  is the solid angle subtended at the origin of  $S^2$  by the spherical triangle with sides a, b and c. In this way the Pancharatnam result  $\varphi_g[A^{(0)}B^{(0)}C^{(0)}] = \frac{1}{2} \triangle(a, b, c)$  is recovered. (The sign can also be recovered with some additional effort).

This same verification leads us to the following significant remark: as long as one is interested in cyclic evolution of any quantum system along a geodesic triangle in ray space, however large the dimension of the Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  may be, our result (5.5) for the geometric phase is applicable and is completely general. This is because a triangle involves (at most) three independent vectors  $\psi^{(1)}, \psi^{(2)}, \psi^{(3)} \in \mathcal{H}$ , and these always lie in some three dimensional subspace of  $\mathcal{H}$ . Thus nothing additional is needed to handle geometric phases for cyclic evolutions along geodesic triangles for N-level systems, for any  $N \geq 4$ . In this sense the original Pancharatnam result (3.11) deals with a degenerate case, since it is concerned with evolution along a triangle but for a two-level system. There is then no place for the additional angle variable  $\zeta$  to appear as it does in the fully general formula (5.5).

A discussion of feasible experimental schemes to check the validity of our main result (5.5), at least in some nontrivial cases which do go beyond the two-level situation, will be the subject of a forthcoming publication.

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