



PAPER

Parity-enhanced quantum optimal measurements

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citation and DOI.**Abstract**

In quantum metrology, measurement and estimation schemes are vital for achieving higher precision, along with initial state preparation. This article presents the compound measurement of parity and particle number, which is optimal for a broad range of states named *equator states* (ESs). ES encompasses most pure input states used in current studies and, more significantly, a wide range of mixed states. Moreover, the ES can be prepared directly using non-demolition parity measurement. We thus propose an improved quantum phase estimation protocol applicable to arbitrary input states, ensuring precision consistently surpassing that of the standard protocol. The proposed scheme is also demonstrated using a nonlinear interferometer, with the realization of the non-demolition parity measurement in atomic condensates.

1. Introduction

Parameter estimation lies at the heart of the interferometries. In typical interferometry setups, parameters are encoded into the sensor's input state and later inferred from the measurement results through suitable estimators [1–5]. The estimation precision is upper bounded by quantum Cramér–Rao (CR) inequality, in terms of the quantum Fisher information (QFI) [1–5]. It is known that CR bound can be significantly increased by utilizing quantum resources, such as entanglement and squeezing [3–16]. The quantum-enhanced measurement precision has been experimentally demonstrated in various systems [17–23] and has also been applied to the estimates of time [24–28], magnetic field [29–32], gravitational field [33, 34], and gravitational wave [35–38].

Nevertheless, saturating the upper CR bound still requires elusive optimal measurements (OMs) and a suitable estimation scheme [1, 2, 39, 40]. Generally speaking, OMs depend on the states of the system and even on the value of the parameter under estimation [1, 2, 39, 40]. Consequently, OMs are usually achieved via feeding back the estimated parameter and updating the measurement adaptively [41, 42]. For the two most commonly used measurements, number counting and parity [43, 44], in quantum metrology, there have been extensive theoretical and experimental studies on their optimality. Parity measurement was shown optimal for the NOON state [45–47] and a few other specific states [17, 43, 44, 48–50]. A similar situation happens for number counting [51–55], except that Hofmann found a class of path-symmetric states (PSSs) which, independent of the specific phase shift, allows the CR bound to be achieved [56]. However, the PSSs were only defined for pure states in conventional SU(2) interferometers [57]. While schemes widely used are variants of the SU(2) interferometry, the states are mixed states induced by the inevitable noises.

In this paper, we identify a large class of states which, regardless of the encoded phase, achieves the CR bound under the compound of parity and particle number measurements. These states cover all PSSs and some non-PSS ones. More remarkably, they can be generalized to include the mixed states, which is more relevant to experimental preparations of the input states. We propose a complete quantum phase estimation

protocol with an arbitrary input state. The precision achieved through this protocol is always higher than or equal to that obtained via the original input state. We also demonstrate the implementation of the proposed OM scheme using a nonlinear interferometer and show the realization of the parity measurement in atomic condensates.

2. Pure state case

In the standard quantum metrology process [4], parameter θ is encoded into the phase of a quantum state $|\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle$ through a unitary transformation

$$|\psi(\theta)\rangle = e^{-i\theta\hat{G}}|\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle, \quad (1)$$

where the phase-shift generator \hat{G} is a Hermitian operator. The eigenvalue and the corresponding eigenvector of \hat{G} are denoted, respectively, as g_m and $|m\rangle$. Furthermore, we assume that the eigenvalues satisfy $g_m = -g_{-m}$, a condition fulfilled by SU(2) interferometry [57] and its widely used variants [14, 19, 58–61]. For convenience, we introduce the index $n \equiv |m|$. The phase-shift generator can be decomposed into

$$\hat{G} = \sum_{n>0} g_n (|\uparrow\rangle_n \langle\uparrow| - |\downarrow\rangle_n \langle\downarrow|), \quad (2)$$

where $|\uparrow\rangle_n \equiv |n\rangle$ and $|\downarrow\rangle_n \equiv |-n\rangle$. The possible $|n=0\rangle$ term has been dropped in equation (2) due to $g_0 = 0$ based on our assumption. Moreover, as shall become clear below, this term does not contribute to the QFI and is irrelevant to the discussion about OM. Therefore, we shall always assume that $n > 0$ in all summations over n . We note that the phase-shift operator defined by equation (2) also covers the nonlinear generators \hat{S}_z^3 [62] and the Ising type Hamiltonian [63–66]. Additionally, for those multi-particle cases, \hat{G} usually acts on the whole system concerned, leading $|\uparrow\rangle_n$ ($|\downarrow\rangle_n$) to illustrate a state of multiple particles instead of a single one. Now, independent of the measurement operator, the precision of θ 's estimator is bounded by the CR inequality [1, 2]

$$\delta^2\theta \geq \frac{1}{\nu F(|\psi(\theta)\rangle, \hat{G})}, \quad (3)$$

where ν is the repetitions of the measurement, and $F(|\psi(\theta)\rangle, \hat{G}) = 4\langle\psi_{\text{in}}|\hat{G}^2|\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle - 4\langle\psi_{\text{in}}|\hat{G}|\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle^2$ is the QFI that measures the variance of \hat{G} with respect to $|\psi(\theta)\rangle$. Clearly, achieving higher precision for the estimation of θ relies not only on the initial state, which can lead to larger $F(|\psi(\theta)\rangle, \hat{G})$, but also on the measurement and estimation scheme, which allows the CR lower bound to be attained [1, 2, 39, 40]. Below, by explicitly constructing a set of measurement operators and the corresponding estimators, we show that an OM scheme exists for a large class of input states.

To this end, we partition the Hilbert space into a set of qubits, with the n th 'qubit' being defined by two basis states as $\mathcal{H}_n = \text{span}\{|\uparrow\rangle_n, |\downarrow\rangle_n\}$, where n labels the qubit, and the range of n is determined by the spectrum of \hat{G}^2 . We mention that: (i) the qubit \mathcal{H}_n illustrates states of the whole system concerned instead of a single two-level particle; (ii) the whole Hilbert space is composed by the *direct sum*, instead of the direct product, of these qubits. Thus, a general input state can be expanded as the superposition of qubit states, i.e.,

$$|\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle = \sum_n \sqrt{p_n} e^{i\varphi_n} |\alpha_n, \beta_n\rangle_n, \quad (4)$$

where $|\alpha_n, \beta_n\rangle_n = \cos\frac{\alpha_n}{2} e^{-i\beta_n/2} |\uparrow\rangle_n + \sin\frac{\alpha_n}{2} e^{i\beta_n/2} |\downarrow\rangle_n$ is the wave function of the n th qubit and $\sqrt{p_n} e^{i\varphi_n}$ is the probability amplitude with p_n (subjected to the constraint $\sum_n p_n = 1$) being the probability and φ_n being the phase.

The QFI of $|\psi(\theta)\rangle$ can be analytically evaluated to be

$$F(|\psi(\theta)\rangle, \hat{G}) = 4 \sum_n p_n g_n^2 - 4 \left(\sum_n p_n g_n \cos\alpha_n \right)^2, \quad (5)$$

where the first and second terms originate from $\langle\psi_{\text{in}}|\hat{G}^2|\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle$ and $\langle\psi_{\text{in}}|\hat{G}|\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle^2$, respectively. For a given set of $\{p_n\}$, a sufficient condition to maximize the QFI is $\alpha_n = \pi/2$, under which each qubit lies on the equator of its own Bloch sphere. The resulting input state,

$$|\psi_{\text{E}}\rangle = \sum_n \sqrt{p_n} e^{i\varphi_n} \left| \frac{\pi}{2}, \beta_n \right\rangle_n, \quad (6)$$

is a superposition of equatorial qubits and is referred to as *equatorial state* (ES). As a comparison, the PSSs require that the global phase of the qubit φ_n is independent of n [56]. Therefore, $|\psi_E\rangle$ covers not only all PSSs [56] but also the non-path-symmetric ones, such as the entangled coherent states [9, 10] and the one-axis twisting spin-squeezed states [12–14], as shown in appendix A. More importantly, as shall be shown, the ESs can also be generalized to the mixed state case.

To construct a projective measurement, we introduce a parity operator

$$\mathcal{P}_0 = \sum_n (|\downarrow\rangle_{nn}\langle\uparrow| + |\uparrow\rangle_{nn}\langle\downarrow|). \quad (7)$$

It can be easily verified that $\mathcal{P}_0^2 = 1$ and the eigenvalues of \mathcal{P}_0 are $p = \pm 1$. Physically, \mathcal{P}_0 inverts the spectrum of \hat{G} as $\mathcal{P}_0 \hat{G} \mathcal{P}_0 = -\hat{G}$. Next, we introduce a new set of basis states for the n th qubit as $|\mathbf{x}^{(+)}\rangle_n \equiv |\pi/2, 0\rangle_n$ and $|\mathbf{x}^{(-)}\rangle_n \equiv |\pi/2, \pi\rangle_n$, which are of even ($p = 1$) and odd ($p = -1$) parities, respectively. We then define the projection operators

$$\Pi_n^{(p)} = |\mathbf{x}^{(p)}\rangle_{nn}\langle\mathbf{x}^{(p)}|, \quad (8)$$

satisfying $\Pi_n^{(p)} \Pi_n^{(p')} = \delta_{pp'} \Pi_n^{(p)}$ and $\sum_{p=\pm} \Pi_n^{(p)} = 1$. Apparently, $\{\Pi_n^{(p)}\}$ represents the compound measurements of \mathcal{P}_0 and \hat{G}^2 , i.e. $\{\Pi^{(\pm)}\}$ with $\Pi^{(\pm)} = \sum_n \Pi_n^{(\pm)}$ and $\{\Pi_n\}$ with $\Pi_n = \sum_{p=\pm} \Pi_n^{(p)}$. In fact, they can be measured both simultaneously and sequentially since $[\mathcal{P}_0, \hat{G}^2] = 0$.

Now, let us perform the measurement on an ensemble of the identical states $e^{-i\theta\hat{G}}|\psi_E\rangle$ and denote the number of the outcomes corresponding to $\Pi_n^{(p)}$ after total ν repeated measurements as $\nu_n^{(p)}$. The construction of the optimal estimator can be proceeded as follows. For each set of the binary outcomes corresponding to $\{\Pi_n^{(+)}, \Pi_n^{(-)}\}$, we construct an unbiased estimator Θ_n based on the maximum likelihood estimation. The variance of Θ_n is $\delta^2\Theta_n = 1/(\nu_n F_n)$ with $\nu_n = \nu_n^{(+)} + \nu_n^{(-)}$ and $F_n = 4g_n^2$ [67]. When repetition $\nu \rightarrow \infty$, we have $\delta^2\Theta_n \rightarrow 1/(\nu p_n F_n)$. Then, we choose the total estimator as the linear combination of all single-qubit estimators, i.e.

$$\Theta = \sum_n w_n \Theta_n, \quad (9)$$

where the weights w_n satisfy $w_n \geq 0$ and $\sum_n w_n = 1$. Apparently, Θ is still unbiased and its variance is $\delta^2\Theta = \sum_n w_n^2 \delta^2\Theta_n$. It can be further shown that $\delta^2\Theta$ is minimized if $w_n = p_n F_n / F$, where $F = \sum_n p_n F_n$ is the QFI of $e^{-i\theta\hat{G}}|\psi_E\rangle$. The minimal variance,

$$(\delta^2\Theta)_{\min} = \frac{1}{\nu F}, \quad (10)$$

is exactly the CR lower bound, which proves that $\{\Pi_n^{(p)}\}$ indeed represents an OM.

We comment that the optimal measurability achieved in the above scheme can be attributed to the following reasons: (i) For ESs, the QFI of the individual qubit is maximized and the parity measurement is optimal; (ii) The contributions to the total QFI from distinct qubits are decoupled (see equation (5)) such that we may perform the OM on individual qubits and construct estimator separately; (iii) The weight w_n in the total estimator in equation (9) is inversely proportional to $\delta^2\Theta_n$, which warrants the efficient usage of all resources.

3. Mixed state case

The pure state results can be generalized to the mixed state case straightforwardly. In order to find the desired density matrix ρ_E for the input state, we recall that one of the reasons the proposed scheme works for pure states is that every qubit is an ES. Therefore, the minimum requirement for ρ_E is that one should obtain an equatorial qubit when projected to an arbitrary qubit subspace, i.e.

$$\Pi_n \rho_E \Pi_n \propto \left| \frac{\pi}{2}, \beta_n \right\rangle_{nn} \left\langle \frac{\pi}{2}, \beta_n \right| \quad (11)$$

for any $\Pi_n = \Pi_n^{(+)} + \Pi_n^{(-)}$. Correspondingly, the explicit form of the density matrix is

$$\rho_E = \sum_n p_n \left| \frac{\pi}{2}, \beta_n \right\rangle_{nn} \left\langle \frac{\pi}{2}, \beta_n \right| + \sum_{m \neq n} \left(\gamma_{mn} \left| \frac{\pi}{2}, \beta_m \right\rangle_{mn} \left\langle \frac{\pi}{2}, \beta_n \right| + \text{h.c.} \right), \quad (12)$$

where $|\gamma_{mn}|^2 \leq p_n p_m$ due to the decoherence. This equation merely states that ρ_E is supported by a *unique* ES of each qubit subspace.

To see that the OM can be attained with ρ_E , we evaluate the QFI of the parametrized state $\rho(\theta) = e^{-i\theta\hat{G}}\rho_E e^{i\theta\hat{G}}$, i.e. $F(\rho(\theta), \hat{G}) = \text{tr}(\rho(\theta)L^2)$, where L is the symmetric logarithmic derivative of ρ that satisfies $\partial_\theta\rho(\theta) = \frac{1}{2}(L\rho + \rho L)$ and $L^\dagger = L$ [2]. It can be directly verified that, in the \hat{G} representation,

$$L = 2i \sum_n g_n \left[e^{i(2g_n\theta + \beta_n)} |\downarrow\rangle_{nn} \langle\uparrow| - \text{h.c.} \right] \quad (13)$$

fulfills our purpose. Straightforward calculations give rise to $F(\rho_E, \hat{G}) = 4 \sum_n p_n g_n^2$, which is again the sum of QFI of individual qubit. Now, by applying the measurement $\{\Pi_n^{(p)}\}$ and constructing the same estimators $\{\Theta_n\}$ and Θ as in the pure-state case, we can also attain the minimum variance of Θ (equation (10)), which confirms the optimality of the compound measurements for mixed state ρ_E .

We note that ρ_E may be treated as the mixed state decohered from the pure state $|\psi_E\rangle$. The fact that these two states have equal QFI given the same set of $\{p_n\}$ indicates that not all quantum coherence is usable for improving the precision of phase estimation. This can also be seen from the symmetric logarithmic derivative, equation (13), in which γ_{mn} is completely absent. Additionally, in the construction of Θ , all estimators Θ_n and weights w_n are independent of γ_{mn} , which implies that the coherence between distinct qubits is irrelevant to the phase estimation.

Since the system-bath couplings that induce the decoherence are unavoidable, it is interesting to find the condition under which the optimal measurability of the input state, $|\psi_E\rangle$ or ρ_E , is maintained. To this end, we formally express the overall Hamiltonian (system plus bath) as

$$H = \sum_\kappa H_\kappa \otimes B_\kappa, \quad (14)$$

where H_κ and B_κ are operators defined on the Hilbert spaces for system and bath, respectively, and B_κ are linearly independent [68]. We then define a generalized state-dependent parity operator

$$\mathcal{P}_\beta = \sum_n (e^{i\beta_n} |\downarrow\rangle_{nn} \langle\uparrow| + e^{-i\beta_n} |\uparrow\rangle_{nn} \langle\downarrow|), \quad (15)$$

where β_n are given by the state $|\psi_E\rangle$ or ρ_E . It can be shown that a sufficient condition for equation (11) being satisfied by the density matrix of the system is

$$[H_\kappa, \mathcal{P}_\beta] = 0 \text{ for any } \kappa. \quad (16)$$

Remarkably, even if this condition is not satisfied, the optimal measurability can still be approximately preserved through dynamical decoupling [68, 69]. In fact, by noting that \mathcal{P}_β is a unitary operator, we introduce the so-called \mathcal{P}_β pulse, which transforms a state of the system according to $\rho \rightarrow \mathcal{P}_\beta \rho \mathcal{P}_\beta$. Then, by applying a sequence of \mathcal{P}_β pulses with a sufficiently small inter-pulse interval, the time evolution of the system and bath is driven by the effective overall Hamiltonian $\bar{H} = \sum_\kappa \bar{H}_\kappa \otimes B_\kappa$, where $\bar{H}_\kappa = \frac{1}{2} [H_\kappa + \mathcal{P}_\beta H_\kappa \mathcal{P}_\beta]$. Clearly, the optimal measurability is maintained since $[\bar{H}_\kappa, \mathcal{P}_\beta] = 0$ for any κ . We comment that the possible scenarios for applying dynamical decoupling include the input state preparation and the state storage, for which the system is very likely exposed to the environment.

4. Parity-enhanced phase-estimation scheme

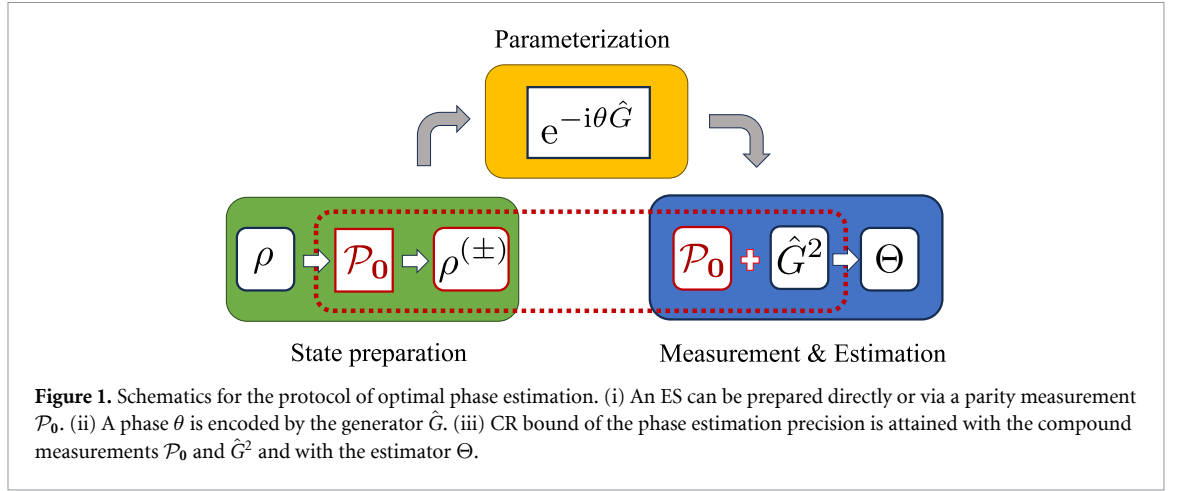
In addition to being used for measurement and estimation, parity measurement also increases the QFI of the input state. To see this, we consider a general state ρ whose QFI satisfies the inequality $F(\rho, \hat{G}) \leq 4\text{tr}(\rho\hat{G}^2) - 4\text{tr}(\rho\hat{G})^2$. After performing the parity measurement \mathcal{P}_0 on ρ , the state collapses into the ESs

$$\rho^{(\pm)} = \Pi^{(\pm)} \rho \Pi^{(\pm)} / q^{(\pm)}, \quad (17)$$

where $\Pi^{(\pm)} = \sum_n \Pi_n^{(\pm)}$ are projections to the even- and odd-parity subspaces, respectively, and $q^{(\pm)} = \text{tr}(\rho \Pi^{(\pm)})$ are the probabilities to obtain the outcomes ± 1 . The average QFI of the resulting states is

$$\bar{F} = \sum_{p=\pm} q^{(p)} F(\rho^{(p)}, \hat{G}) = 4\text{tr}(\rho\hat{G}^2) \geq F(\rho, \hat{G}), \quad (18)$$

which indicates that the measuring \mathcal{P}_0 indeed improves the quality of the input state.



In figure 1, we schematically summarize the protocol for optimal phase estimation. Interestingly, for state preparation, if the input state is an eigenstate of \hat{G} , say $|\uparrow\rangle_n$, a parity measurement would yield an ES, $|\mathbf{x}^{(\pm)}\rangle_n$, in the n th qubit subspace. Correspondingly, the QFI of the input state is increased from zero to $4g_n^2$. In particular, the QFI is maximized if g_n^2 is the largest eigenvalue of \hat{G}^2 . Therefore, the efficiency of parity measurement for input state preparation can be extremely high. It is worth mentioning that, besides being used for state preparation and measurement, parity is also useful for state storage as discussed in section 3.

5. Nonlinear

To demonstrate the applications of the proposed scheme, we consider a nonlinear interferometer modeled by the Hamiltonian

$$H_{\text{NI}}(t) = -\chi \hat{S}_z^2 - B_x(t) \hat{S}_x - B_z \hat{S}_z, \quad (19)$$

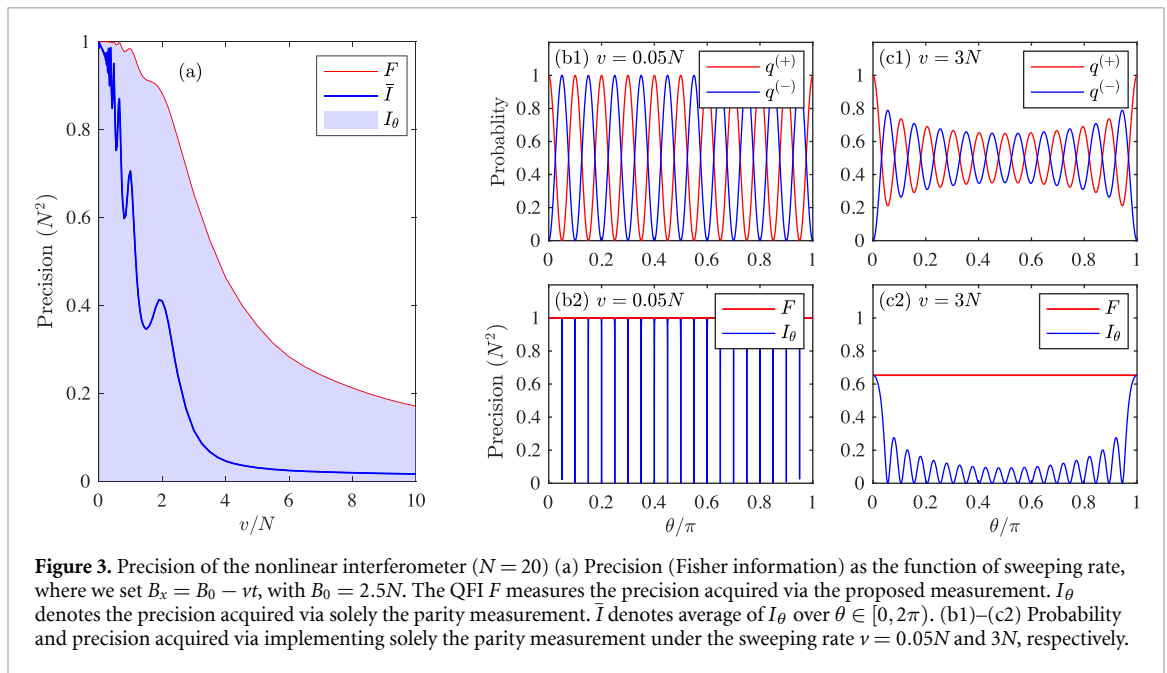
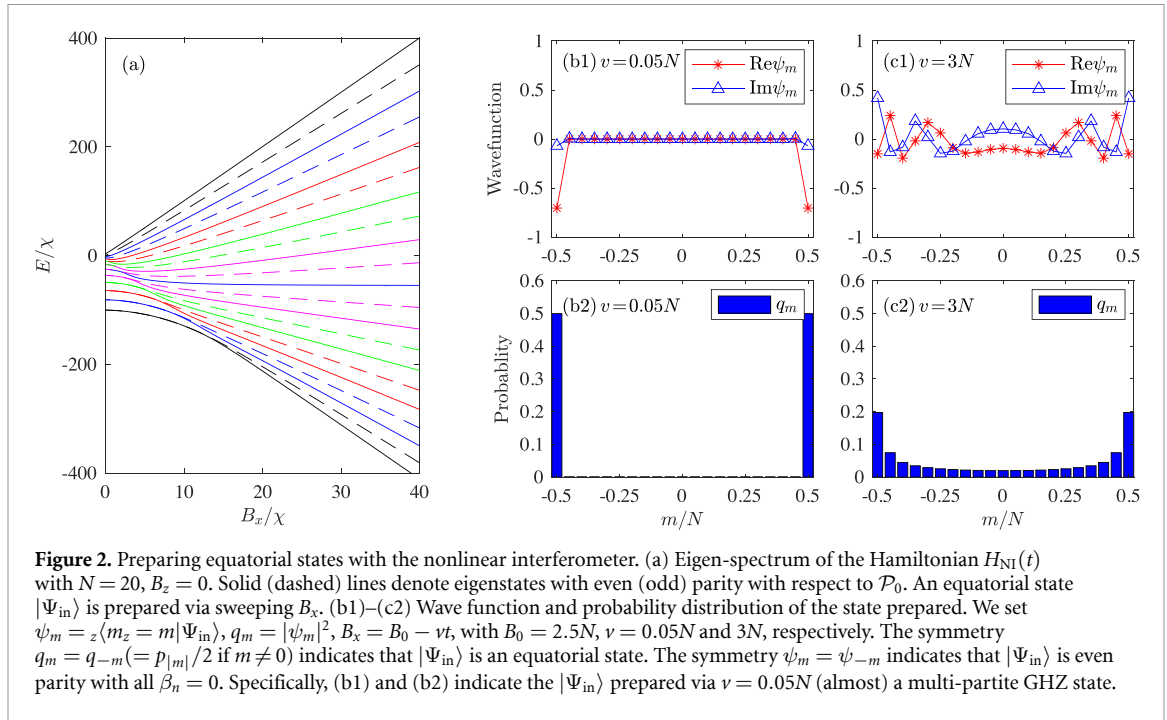
where, for a two-mode system, say modes a and b , the angular momentum operators are defined as $\hat{S}_x = (\hat{a}^\dagger \hat{b} + \hat{b}^\dagger \hat{a})/2$, $\hat{S}_y = (\hat{a}^\dagger \hat{b} - \hat{b}^\dagger \hat{a})/(2i)$, and $\hat{S}_z = (\hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} - \hat{b}^\dagger \hat{b})/2$ with \hat{a} and \hat{b} being the annihilation operators for modes a and b , respectively, and \hat{S}_z is the phase generator. Furthermore, χ (>0) is the nonlinear coupling strength, B_x and B_z are transverse and longitudinal fields, respectively. We point out that Hamiltonian (19) can be realized by either external or internal states of N Bose condensed atoms [19, 58–61]. In the following discussions, we take N even without losing the generality. Considering $\hat{G}(=\hat{S}_z)$ is a collective spin operator, the qubit \mathcal{H}_n illustrates states of all N atoms with $|\uparrow\rangle_n(|\downarrow\rangle_n) = |m_z = \pm n\rangle_z$.

To start, let us first briefly recall the eigen-spectrum of H_{NI} in the absence of the longitudinal field B_z [58, 61], says H_{Pre} , as shown in figure 2(a). For $B_x \gg N\chi$, the eigenstates of H_{Pre} are those of \hat{S}_x , i.e. $|m_x = m\rangle_x$ with $m = -N/2, -N/2 + 1, \dots, N/2$. In particular, the parity of $|m_x\rangle_x$ with respect to \mathcal{P}_0 is $(-1)^{N/2 - m_x}$. Actually, the k th excited state of H_{Pre} has a certain parity $(-1)^k$ for arbitrary $B_x \neq 0$, with $k = 1, 2, \dots, N$, and $k = 0$ denoting the ground state. While at the $B_x = 0$, the eigenstates of H_{Pre} are those of \hat{S}_z^2 which are doubly degenerate. By varying B_x , the two sets of spectra with $B_x \gg N\chi$ and $B_x = 0$ are adiabatically connected according to

$$|\mathbf{x}^{(\pm)}\rangle_n \leftrightarrow |m_x = 2n - (N + 1 \mp 1)/2\rangle_x, \quad (20)$$

with $|\mathbf{x}^{(+)}\rangle_0 = |m_z = 0\rangle_z$ additionally. The nonlinear interferometry is generally operated as follows. Initially, the system is prepared in state $|\Psi_0\rangle = |m_x = N/2\rangle_x$ under a large B_x . The transverse field is then swept to zero, which gives rise to the input state for the interferometry $|\Psi_{\text{in}}\rangle = \sum_n c_n |\mathbf{x}^{(+)}\rangle_n$, where c_n depend on the sweeping rate $\nu = -dB_x/dt$. Clearly, $|\Psi_{\text{in}}\rangle$ is an ES with all $\beta_n = 0$, as exemplified in figure 2. We remark that $|\Psi_{\text{in}}\rangle$ has the same even parity as that of $|\Psi_0\rangle$ since the Hamiltonian H_{Pre} for input preparation conserves \mathcal{P}_0 . Furthermore, as discussed in section 3, even in the presence of stray fields, the parity conservation can be recovered via dynamical decoupling with $\mathcal{P}_0 = (-1)^{N/2} e^{-i\pi \hat{S}_x}$ pulse.

To proceed further, we turn on the longitudinal field for a time interval Δt , which encodes the phase $\theta = -B_z \Delta t$ into the wave function through $|\Psi(\theta)\rangle = e^{-i\Delta t H_{\text{NI}}} |\Psi_{\text{in}}\rangle$ with $B_x = 0$. We remark that $|\Psi(\theta)\rangle$ is still an ES since the nonlinear term \hat{S}_z^2 only contributes a global phase, $e^{-i\Delta t \chi \hat{S}_z^2}$, to each qubit. However, it is not a PSS due to this phase by following the discussions below equation (6). Finally, we adiabatically increase



B_x to a value much larger than $N\chi$, which maps $|\mathbf{x}^{(\pm)}\rangle_n$ back to the eigenstate of \hat{S}_x based on equation (20). The measurement $\{\Pi_n^{(\pm)}\}$ can then be realized by measuring \hat{S}_x with the resulting state.

We point out that $\{\Pi_n^{(\pm)}\}$ is intrinsically a collective measurement of all N condensed atoms. Its realization relies on two conditions: (i) the energy spectrum of H_{NI} is nondegenerate, which is generally true unless there exist accidental degeneracies; (ii) \hat{S}_x is directly measurable by, e.g. the Stern–Gerlach apparatus. Otherwise, one can also apply more sophisticated approaches, such as the scheme proposed in [58], or the compound measurement will be discussed in section 6.

Next, we show the performance of the proposed scheme in figures 2 and 3, where its precision is characterized via the QFI $F(|\Psi(\theta)\rangle, \hat{S}_z)$ for its optimality. When sweeping the transverse field almost adiabatically (e.g. $v = 0.05N$), the prepared input state $|\Psi_{in}\rangle$ is almost a NOON state, and the precision is at the Heisenberg level. The precision is decreased at a large sweeping rate, e.g. $v = 3N$. It is induced by the redistribution of probability over the qubits, as shown by $p_n (= q_n + q_{-n})$ in figure 2(c2).

We mention that optimality of the proposed measurement scheme is independent of the encoded phase θ and the sweeping rate v . It is priory to implement solely the parity measurement \mathcal{P}_0 , i.e. $\{\Pi^{(\pm)}\}$ on $|\Psi(\theta)\rangle$

under large sweeping speed ν , as shown in figure 3. Specifically, we quantify the precision of solely parity measurement with the classical Fisher information $I_\theta = \sum_{p=\pm} (\partial_\theta q^{(p)})^2 / q^{(p)}$ correspondingly, with $q^{(\pm)} = \langle \Psi(\theta) | \Pi^{(\pm)} | \Psi(\theta) \rangle$. As shown by figure 3(b2), the solely parity measurement is almost optimal ($I_\theta \approx F$) for all θ when $|\Psi_{\text{in}}\rangle$ is prepared almost adiabatically. However, for states $|\Psi_{\text{in}}\rangle$ prepared with large ν , I_θ highly depends on the parameter θ and is only optimal with $\theta \rightarrow k\pi$. The average precision $\bar{I} := \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta I_\theta$ is thus drastically decreased with the increase of ν .

Additionally, we emphasize that the transverse field B_x is not necessarily swept linearly in the state preparation process, for the critical points are: (i) the conservation of parity, which guarantees the prepared input state is an ES; (ii) $\chi > 0$, which leads the qubits with larger QFI (eigenvalue g_n^2) has larger population probability. Recently, a machine optimization method has been applied in [70] to manipulate the transverse field in a state preparation Hamiltonian similar to H_{Pre} . The input state they prepared, named the spin cat state, is also an ES resulting from conserving \mathcal{P}_0 equivalently.

6. Realization of non-demolition parity measurement

Suppose $\{\Pi_n^{(\pm)}\}$ cannot be implemented as a single measurement. In that case, one may measure \mathcal{P}_0 and \hat{G}^2 sequentially, which requires that the measurement of \mathcal{P}_0 is non-demolition as those experimentally realized in various systems [71–75]. Here, as an example, we demonstrate its realization in a two-mode atomic system, for which the parity operator becomes

$$\mathcal{P}_0 = (-1)^{S-\hat{S}_x} = e^{-i\pi\hat{S}_y/2} (-1)^{\hat{b}^\dagger\hat{b}} e^{i\pi\hat{S}_y/2}. \quad (21)$$

As can be seen, other than the $\pi/2$ rotations around the y -axis, the measurement of \mathcal{P}_0 is reduced to that of $(-1)^{\hat{b}^\dagger\hat{b}}$ which, in analogue to the parity measurement of the photon number in a cavity [72], can be realized by introducing an ancilla qubit coupling to mode \hat{b} of the system. Specifically, we assume the qubit-system coupling Hamiltonian takes the form

$$H_{\text{qs}}/\hbar = \omega_q |e\rangle\langle e| + \chi_{\text{qs}} \hat{b}^\dagger \hat{b} |e\rangle\langle e|, \quad (22)$$

where $\hbar\omega_q$ is the energy difference between the ground state, $|g\rangle$, and the excited state, $|e\rangle$, of the qubit, and χ_{qs} is the qubit-system coupling strength. In appendix B, we show how to engineer Hamiltonian equation (22) with the internal states of atoms. In the rotating frame of the qubit, the excited state of the qubit acquires a phase $\Phi = \chi_{\text{qs}} \hat{b}^\dagger \hat{b} t$ proportional to the atom number in mode \hat{b} . By carefully choosing the evolution time t such that $\chi_{\text{qs}} t = \pi$, we realize the operation $U_\pi = (-1)^{\hat{b}^\dagger\hat{b}} \otimes |e\rangle\langle e| + \hat{I}_s \otimes |g\rangle\langle g|$, where \hat{I}_s is the identity operator of the system. Then, by inserting U_π between $\pi/2$ and $-\pi/2$ rotations around the y axis for both qubit and system, we realize a controlled- X gate

$$\begin{aligned} C_X &= \left[e^{-i\pi\hat{S}_y/2} \otimes R_y^\dagger\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) \right] U_\pi \left[e^{i\pi\hat{S}_y/2} \otimes R_y\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) \right] \\ &= \Pi^{(+)} \otimes \hat{I}_q + \Pi^{(-)} \otimes \hat{\sigma}_x, \end{aligned} \quad (23)$$

where $R_y(\pi/2)$ is the $\pi/2$ rotation of the qubit around the y -axis, \hat{I}_q is the identity operator of the qubit, and $\hat{\sigma}_x = (|e\rangle\langle g| + |g\rangle\langle e|)$ flips the qubit. To perform the measurement, we may prepare the qubit in $|g\rangle$ state initially, C_X then couples the even (odd) parity state of the system to $|g\rangle$ ($|e\rangle$). A subsequent projective measurement $\{|g\rangle\langle g|, |e\rangle\langle e|\}$ on the qubit will leave the system in a parity-definite state, which completes the measurement $\{\Pi^{(+)}, \Pi^{(-)}\}$, i.e. \mathcal{P}_0 on the system.

Additionally, measuring \hat{G}^2 indicates a set of projectors $\{\Pi_n\}$. However, if the non-demolition parity measurement has been performed, one can measure the operator $\hat{G} = \hat{S}_z$, i.e. $\{|m_z\rangle\langle m_z|\}$ instead. It can be realized by counting the particle number difference between mode \hat{a} and \hat{b} .

7. Conclusions

We have proposed an OM scheme for the pure and mixed ESs, which cover a wide range of the input states in various interferometry. Based on the compound measurement of parity and particle number, the scheme allows us to unveil more information about the states than the single measurement of either one. We have also proposed a protocol for phase estimation by including the state preparation using parity measurement, in which the precision achieved consistently surpasses that of the standard protocol. We also demonstrate the implementation of the proposed OM scheme using nonlinear interferometry and show the realization of the parity measurement in atomic condensates.

Data availability statement

All data that support the findings of this study are included within the article (and any supplementary files).

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Appendix A. Examples of equatorial states

A.1. Path-symmetric states

Hofmann formalizes the PSSs in the conventional SU(2) interferometry, where the phase generator reads $\hat{G} = \hat{S}_z$ [56]. In \hat{S}_z 's representation, the PSS is defined as a state $|\psi\rangle$ satisfying ${}_z\langle m_z | \psi \rangle = {}_z\langle -m_z | \psi \rangle^* e^{-2i\chi_0}$ for all of the eigenstates $|m_z\rangle_z$ of \hat{S}_z . It is equivalent to letting $\alpha_n = \frac{\pi}{2}$, $\varphi_n = -\chi_0$ up to $k_n\pi$, for all $n > 0$ (and $n = 0$ if $|0\rangle$ exists) in equation (4), with $k_n \in \mathbb{Z}$. We mention that the ES is defined in equation (6) via constraining $\alpha_n = \frac{\pi}{2}$ for all $n > 0$. It indicates that the PSS is a particular subclass of the ES with additional constraints on $\{\varphi_n\}$. Exemplified by the system with even particle number N , we have the PSS

$$\begin{aligned} |\text{PSS}\rangle_\theta &= e^{-i\hat{G}\theta} \left[\sum_{n>0} (-1)^{k_n} \sqrt{p_n} e^{-i\chi_0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(e^{-i\beta_n/2} |n\rangle + e^{i\beta_n/2} |-n\rangle \right) + (-1)^{k_0} \sqrt{p_0} e^{-i\chi_0} |0\rangle \right] \\ &= \sum_{n>0} (-1)^{k_n} \sqrt{p_n} e^{-i\chi_0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(e^{-i(g_n\theta + \beta_n/2)} |n\rangle + e^{i(g_n\theta + \beta_n/2)} |-n\rangle \right) \\ &\quad + (-1)^{k_0} \sqrt{p_0} e^{-i\chi_0} |0\rangle, \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.1})$$

and the qubit $\mathcal{H}_n = \text{span}\{|n\rangle, |-n\rangle\}$, where $|\pm n\rangle = |m_z = \pm n\rangle_z$ with $g_{\pm n} = \pm n$ and the additional state $|0\rangle = |m_z = 0\rangle_z$ with $g_0 = 0$.

A.2. Examples of equatorial states

In this subsection, we formalize four classes of widely used quantum states to the ESs form, which contains both the path-symmetric and non-PSSs. Without losing the generality, we set N even in the following examples.

- (i) Spin coherent states (spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ system) with phase generator $\hat{G} = \sum_{l=1}^N \hat{S}_z^{(l)}$.

$$\begin{aligned} |\text{SCS}\rangle_\theta &= e^{-i\hat{G}\theta} \otimes_{l=1}^N \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\left| m_z^{(l)} = \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle_l + \left| m_z^{(l)} = -\frac{1}{2} \right\rangle_l \right) \\ &= \sum_{m=1}^{N/2} \frac{c_m}{\sqrt{2}} \left(e^{-im\theta} \left| \frac{N}{2}, m \right\rangle_z + e^{im\theta} \left| \frac{N}{2}, -m \right\rangle_z \right) \\ &\quad + \frac{c_0}{\sqrt{2}} \left| \frac{N}{2}, 0 \right\rangle_z, \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.2})$$

with $c_m = 2^{-(N-1)/2} \binom{N}{N/2+m}^{1/2}$. The n th qubit \mathcal{H}_n is defined as

$$\mathcal{H}_n = \text{span} \left\{ \left| \frac{N}{2}, n \right\rangle_z, \left| \frac{N}{2}, -n \right\rangle_z \right\}, \quad (\text{A.3})$$

with probability $p_n = 2^{1-N} \binom{N}{N/2+n}$ for $n = 1, \dots, \frac{N}{2}$, and $\mathcal{H}_0 = \left\{ \left| \frac{N}{2}, 0 \right\rangle_z \right\}$ with $p_0 = 2^{-N} \binom{N}{N/2}$. The QFI of $|\text{SCS}\rangle_\theta$ is $F = 4 \sum_n p_n n^2 = N$, which indicates the precision is still in the standard quantum limit. It is captured by figure A1(a), which shows that $\{p_n\}$ mainly distributes around qubits with small eigenvalues.

- (ii) One-axes twisting spin squeezed states. We follow the definition in [13] and take the phase generator as $\hat{G} = \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} - N/2$. The squeezed state reads

$$\begin{aligned}
|\text{SS}\rangle_\theta &= e^{-i\theta\hat{G}}\hat{R}_x(-\nu)e^{-i\hat{H}_{\text{SS}}t}\hat{R}_y\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)|N\rangle_a|0\rangle_b \\
&= \sum_{m=0}^{N/2-1} \frac{c_m}{\sqrt{2}} \left(e^{-i\theta(m-\frac{N}{2})} |m\rangle_a |N-m\rangle_b + e^{i\theta(m-\frac{N}{2})} |N-m\rangle_a |m\rangle_b \right) \\
&\quad + \frac{c_{N/2}}{\sqrt{2}} \left| \frac{N}{2} \right\rangle_a \left| \frac{N}{2} \right\rangle_b,
\end{aligned} \tag{A.4}$$

where the squeezing operator is $\hat{H}_{\text{SS}} = \chi\hat{S}_z^2$ with the squeezing parameter $\mu = 2\chi t$, $c_m = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{N-1}}} \sum_{k,\omega} \binom{N}{k} \binom{N-k}{m-\omega} \binom{N}{m}^{-1/2} e^{-ih(\cos[\frac{\nu}{2}])^{N-g} (i\sin[\frac{\nu}{2}])^g}$ with $g = k + m - 2\omega$ and $h = \mu(N-2k)^2/8$. We mention that c_m generally carries a m -dependent phase. It makes $|\text{SS}\rangle_\theta$ generally a non-PSS. The n th qubit is defined as

$$\mathcal{H}_n = \text{span} \left\{ \left| \frac{N}{2} + n \right\rangle_a \left| \frac{N}{2} - n \right\rangle_b, \left| \frac{N}{2} - n \right\rangle_a \left| \frac{N}{2} + n \right\rangle_b \right\}, \tag{A.5}$$

for $n = 1, 2, \dots, \frac{N}{2}$. The phase θ is encoded as $\beta_n(\theta) = 2n\theta$. The probability of $|\text{SS}\rangle_\theta$ projected to \mathcal{H}_n reads $p_n = 2^{-\delta_{n,0}} c_{n+N/2}^2$. In figure A1(b), we illustrated p_n with $\mu = \pi/2$ and $\nu = \pi/2$.

- (iii) Twin Fock states with state preparation $\hat{R}_y(\frac{\pi}{2}) = \exp[\pi(\hat{b}^\dagger\hat{a} - \hat{a}^\dagger\hat{b})/4]$ and phase generator $\hat{G} = \hat{a}^\dagger\hat{a} - N$.

$$\begin{aligned}
|\text{TF}\rangle_\theta &= e^{-i\theta\hat{G}}\hat{R}_y\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)|N\rangle_a|N\rangle_b \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{N/2-1} \frac{c_k}{\sqrt{2}} \left(e^{i\theta(N-2k)} |2k\rangle_a |2N-2k\rangle_b + e^{-i\theta(N-2k)} |2N-2k\rangle_a |2k\rangle_b \right) \\
&\quad + \frac{c_{N/2}}{\sqrt{2}} |N\rangle_a |N\rangle_b,
\end{aligned} \tag{A.6}$$

with $c_k = \frac{(-1)^k}{2^{N-1/2}} \left[\binom{2k}{k} \binom{2N-2k}{N-k} \right]^{1/2}$. The qubit is defined as

$$\mathcal{H}_n = \text{span} \left\{ |N+n\rangle_a |N-n\rangle_b, |N-n\rangle_a |N+n\rangle_b \right\}, \tag{A.7}$$

with the corresponding probability $p_n = [c_{(N-n)/2}]^2/2^{\delta_{n,0}}$ if n is even, and $p_n = 0$ if n is odd. We plot the distribution p_n in figure A1(c). It shows that qubits with larger eigenvalues (g_n^2) are more likely to be occupied, such that the twin Fock states have larger QFI than $|\text{SCS}\rangle_\theta$.

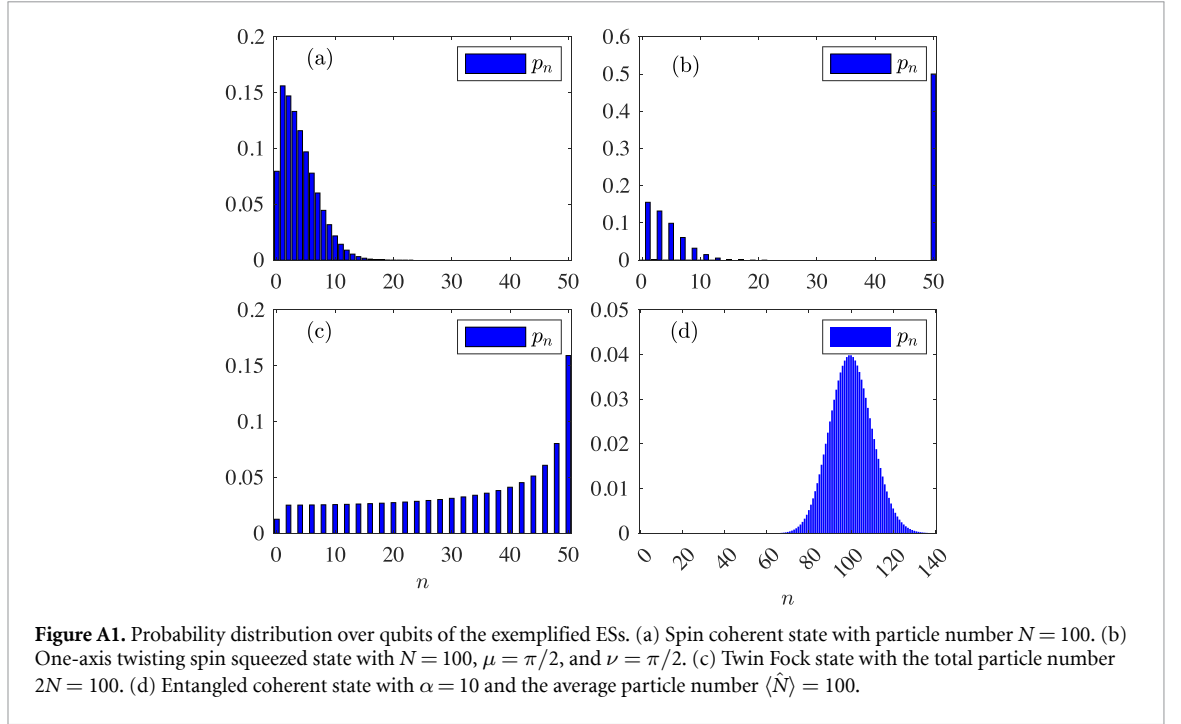
- (iv) Entangled coherent states with phase generator $\hat{G} = \hat{a}^\dagger\hat{a} - \hat{b}^\dagger\hat{b}$.

$$\begin{aligned}
|\text{ECS}\rangle_\theta &= r^{-1/2} e^{-|\alpha|^2/2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha^n}{n!} \left[\hat{a}^\dagger n e^{-in\theta} + \hat{b}^\dagger n e^{in\theta} \right] |0\rangle_a |0\rangle_b \\
&= r^{-1/2} e^{-|\alpha|^2/2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha^n}{(n!)^{1/2}} \left(e^{-in\theta} |n\rangle_a |0\rangle_b + e^{in\theta} |0\rangle_a |n\rangle_b \right) \\
&\quad + 2r^{-1/2} e^{-|\alpha|^2/2} |0\rangle_a |0\rangle_b
\end{aligned} \tag{A.8}$$

with $r = 2(1 + e^{-|\alpha|^2})$. The qubit is defined as

$$\mathcal{H}_n = \text{span} \left\{ |n\rangle_a |0\rangle_b, |0\rangle_a |n\rangle_b \right\}, \tag{A.9}$$

and the phase is encoded as $\beta_n(\theta) = 2n\theta$, with $n = 1, \dots, \infty$. The corresponding probability reads $p_n = 2r^{-1} e^{-|\alpha|^2} |\alpha|^{2n} / n!$. As shown in figure A1(d), though the spectrum of \hat{G} is boundless, p_n is centered with mean particle number, which induces a finite QFI. We mention that α is generally a complex number. It brings a n -dependent phase to n th qubit, making $|\text{ECS}\rangle_\theta$ generally a non-PSS.



Appendix B. Engineering of Hamiltonian equation (22)

Here, we demonstrate how to engineer the Hamiltonian equation (22) in the main text with an impurity qubit immersed in a two-component condensate. The coupled qubit-system Hamiltonian consists of three parts: $H = H_S + H_Q + H_I$, where H_S , H_Q , and H_I describe the condensate, qubit, and qubit-system coupling, respectively. Specifically, for the condensate part, we have

$$H_S = \sum_{i=a,b} \int d\mathbf{r} \psi_i^\dagger(\mathbf{r}) \left[\frac{\mathbf{p}^2}{2m_S} + \mathcal{E}_i + V_S(\mathbf{r}) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{4\pi\hbar^2 a_{ii}}{m_S} \psi_i^\dagger(\mathbf{r}) \psi_i(\mathbf{r}) \right] \psi_i(\mathbf{r}) + \frac{4\pi\hbar^2 a_{ab}}{m_S} \int d\mathbf{r} \psi_a^\dagger(\mathbf{r}) \psi_b^\dagger(\mathbf{r}) \psi_b(\mathbf{r}) \psi_a(\mathbf{r}), \quad (\text{B.1})$$

where $\psi_i(\mathbf{r})$ is the field operator for the atoms in i th mode, \mathcal{E}_i is the energy of the i th mode, m_S is the mass of the atom, $V_S(\mathbf{r})$ the external potential for condensate atoms, a_{ii} the intra-species scattering lengths, and a_{ab} the inter-species scattering length. For simplicity, we assume that $\mathcal{E}_a = \mathcal{E}_b = \mathcal{E}$ and $a_{ij} = a_S$ for any i and j . The field operators are then simplified to $\psi_a(\mathbf{r}) = \psi(\mathbf{r})\hat{a}$ and $\psi_b(\mathbf{r}) = \psi(\mathbf{r})\hat{b}$ with $\psi(\mathbf{r})$ being the mode function. The condensate Hamiltonian now reduces to

$$H_S = (\mathcal{E}' - g)N + gN^2 \quad (\text{B.2})$$

where $N = \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} + \hat{b}^\dagger \hat{b}$ is the total particle number operator, $\mathcal{E}' = \int d\mathbf{r} \psi^*(\mathbf{r}) \left[\mathbf{p}^2/(2m_S) + \mathcal{E} + V_S(\mathbf{r}) \right] \psi(\mathbf{r})$, and $g = (4\pi\hbar^2 a_S/m_S) \int d\mathbf{r} |\psi(\mathbf{r})|^4$.

Next, we turn to consider the qubit Hamiltonian, which is simply

$$H_Q = \sum_{\sigma=e,g} \int d\mathbf{r} \phi_\sigma^\dagger(\mathbf{r}) \left[\frac{\mathbf{p}^2}{2m_Q} + \varepsilon_\sigma + V_Q(\mathbf{r}) \right] \phi_\sigma(\mathbf{r}), \quad (\text{B.3})$$

where $\phi_\sigma(\mathbf{r})$ is the field operators for the excited (e) and ground (g) states, ε_σ are the corresponding energies, m_Q is the mass of the impurity atom, and $V_Q(\mathbf{r})$ is the confining potential. Generally, the trapping potential for the impurity atom is very tight such that the center of mass motion of the qubit is frozen to the ground state of V_Q , say $\phi(\mathbf{r})$. The qubit Hamiltonian then reduces to

$$H_Q = \varepsilon'_e |e\rangle\langle e| + \varepsilon'_g |g\rangle\langle g|, \quad (\text{B.4})$$

where $\varepsilon'_\sigma = \int d\mathbf{r} \phi^*(\mathbf{r}) \left[\mathbf{p}^2/(2m_Q) + \varepsilon_\sigma + V_Q(\mathbf{r}) \right] \phi(\mathbf{r})$.

Finally, for the qubit-system coupling, we assume that only the excited state of the qubit interacts with the condensate atom in mode b with a scattering length is a_{eb} . Therefore, the interaction Hamiltonian is

$$H_I = \frac{2\pi\hbar^2 a_{eb}}{\bar{m}} \int d\mathbf{r} \psi_b^\dagger(\mathbf{r}) \phi_e^\dagger(\mathbf{r}) \phi_e(\mathbf{r}) \psi_b(\mathbf{r}) = \chi_{qs} |e\rangle \langle e| \hat{b}^\dagger \hat{b}, \quad (\text{B.5})$$

where $\bar{m} = m_s m_Q / (m_s + m_Q)$ is the reduced mass and $\chi_{qs} = (2\pi\hbar^2 a_{eb} / \bar{m}) \int d\mathbf{r} |\psi(\mathbf{r})|^2 |\phi(\mathbf{r})|^2$.

Now put everything back together, we have

$$H = (\mathcal{E}' - g)N + gN^2 + \varepsilon'_e |e\rangle \langle e| + \varepsilon'_g |g\rangle \langle g| + \chi_{qs} |e\rangle \langle e| \hat{b}^\dagger \hat{b}. \quad (\text{B.6})$$

After dropping the constant N and N^2 terms and setting ε'_g as the zero energy, we have

$$H_{qs} = \hbar\omega_q |e\rangle \langle e| + \chi_{qs} |e\rangle \langle e| \hat{b}^\dagger \hat{b}. \quad (\text{B.7})$$

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