Quantum Transport Enhancement by Time-Reversal Symmetry Breaking

Zoltán Zimborás\textsuperscript{1,2}, Mauro Faccin\textsuperscript{1}, Zoltán Kádár\textsuperscript{1}, James D. Whitfield\textsuperscript{1,3}, Ben P. Lanyon\textsuperscript{4} & Jacob Biamonte\textsuperscript{1,5}

\textsuperscript{1}Institute for Scientific Interchange, Via Alassio 11/c, 10126 Torino, Italy, \textsuperscript{2}Department of Theoretical Physics, University of the Basque Country UPV/EHU, P.O. Box 644, E-48080 Bilbao, Spain, \textsuperscript{3}Vienna Center For Quantum Science and Technology, Boltzmanngasse 5 1090 Vienna, Austria, \textsuperscript{4}Institut für Quantenoptik und Quanteninformation, Otto-Hilmbair-Platz 21a 6020 Innsbruck, Austria, \textsuperscript{5}Centre for Quantum Technologies, National University of Singapore, Block S15, 3 Science Drive 2, Singapore 117543.

Quantum mechanics still provides new unexpected effects when considering the transport of energy and information. Models of continuous time quantum walks, which implicitly use time-reversal symmetric Hamiltonians, have been intensely used to investigate the effectiveness of transport. Here we show how breaking time-reversal symmetry of the unitary dynamics in this model can enable directional control, enhancement, and suppression of quantum transport. Examples ranging from exciton transport to complex networks are presented. This opens new prospects for more efficient methods to transport energy and information.

Understanding quantum transport is key to developing more robust communication networks, more effective energy transmission, and improved information processing devices. Continuous time quantum walks have become a standard model to study and understand quantum transport phenomena\textsuperscript{1–5}. Time-reversal symmetric (TRS) Hamiltonians have characterized all quantum walk models to date. This symmetry implies that the site-to-site transfer probability at time $t = T$ is the same as at time $t = -T$, thereby prohibiting directional biasing. Here we introduce and study continuous time “chiral” quantum walks whose dynamics break TRS. Our findings show that the breaking of TRS offers the possibility of directional biasing in the unitary dynamics and allows one to suppress or enhance transport relative to the standard quantum walk. One subtlety of this effect is that time-reversal asymmetry cannot affect the site-to-site transport in some simple cases, such as linear chains and trees – this is proven in the Methods Section. Prior efforts in the area of quantum transport have focused on controlling and directing transport using either in situ tunable Hamiltonians\textsuperscript{6–9} or tailoring specific initial states\textsuperscript{10}. In contrast to known approaches, we consider states initially prepared in the standard site-basis and time-independent Hamiltonians that induce time-asymmetric evolutions in the unitary part of their dynamics.

While the effect of TRS breaking dynamics in the context of quantum walks has not been investigated, it has been studied intensely in the condensed matter literature. These investigations range from the very early work of Peierls\textsuperscript{11}, through the famous examples of the Hofstadter butterfly\textsuperscript{12} and the Quantum Hall\textsuperscript{13} effect, up to recent research on TRS breaking in topological insulators\textsuperscript{14} and on artificial gauge fields in optical lattice potentials\textsuperscript{15}. In contrast to the present study, these works always concentrated on many-body dynamics in regular lattices, while in the context of quantum walks, one is instead interested in characteristically different scenarios: e.g. the dynamics of single individual particles or excitons (usually starting from a single site) moving on complicated networks (sometimes with a bath included). The examples we study are from a variety of modern research topics (e.g. photosynthetic exciton transport and complex networks) and considerably extend the domain of application of known results about TRS breaking beyond solid state applications.

To demonstrate the effect of TRS breaking, we chose five examples which illustrate the main ideas of directionality, suppression and enhancement of transport. The first example is a unitary quantum switch where the phase, that is the time reversal asymmetry parameter, controls the direction of quantum transport. The second example examines transport in a linear chain of triangles, showing a 633\% transport speed-up for the chiral quantum walk. In connection with this, we also demonstrate complete suppression of chiral quantum walks on loops with an even number of sites. We then consider a system widely studied in the exciton transport literature: the Fenna-Matthew-Olsen complex (FMO). Although this naturally occurring system is highly efficient, we find that the introduction of chiral terms allows for an enhancement of transport speed by 7.68\%. It has recently been shown that the effect does appear in similar light harvesting complexes\textsuperscript{16}. Finally, to investigate the robustness of the effect of TRS breaking on transport, we consider randomly generated small-world networks. By appending...
time-reversal asymmetric terms to only the edges of the network connected to the final site, we could increase the speed of the site-to-site transport on these randomly generated graphs significantly, up to 130%.

**Results**

In the standard literature on continuous time quantum walks\(^1\)-s, the time-independent walk Hamiltonian is defined by a real weighted adjacency matrix \(J\) of an underlying undirected graph,

\[
H_{\text{QW}} = \sum_{n,m} J_{nm} |n\rangle \langle m| + |m\rangle \langle n|.
\]

(1)

The condition that the hopping weights \(J_{nm}\) are real numbers implies that the induced transitions between two sites are symmetric under time inversion. We can break this symmetry while maintaining the hermitian property of the operator by appending a complex phase to an edge: \(J_{nm} \rightarrow J_{nm} e^{i\theta_{nm}}\) resulting in a continuous time chiral quantum walk (CQW) governed by

\[
H_{\text{CQW}} = \sum_{n,m} J_{nm} e^{i\theta_{nm}} |n\rangle \langle m| + J_{nm} e^{-i\theta_{nm}} |m\rangle \langle n|.
\]

(2)

When acting on the single exciton subspace, the Hamiltonian given in Eq. (2) can be expressed in terms of the spin-half Pauli matrices:

\[
H_{\text{CQW}} = \sum_{n,m} J_{nm} \cos(\theta_{nm}) (\sigma^x_n \sigma^x_m + \sigma^y_n \sigma^y_m) + \sum_{n,m} J_{nm} \sin(\theta_{nm}) (\sigma^z_n \sigma^z_m - \sigma^y_n \sigma^y_m)
\]

(3)

which arises in a variety of physical systems when magnetic fields are considered. We explore a proof-of-concept experimental demonstration of this effect in Supplementary Information, Section S2.

In the CQW framework, we investigate coherent quantum dynamics and incoherent dynamics within the Markov approximation. Both types of evolution are included in the Lindblad equation\(^17\)-20:

\[
\frac{d}{dt} \rho(t) = \mathcal{L}\{\rho\} = -i[H_{\text{CQW}}, \rho] + \sum_k L_k \rho L_k^\dagger - \frac{1}{2} \left( L_k^\dagger L_k \rho + \rho L_k^\dagger L_k \right)
\]

(4)

where \(\rho(t)\) is the density operator describing the state of the system at time \(t\) and \(L_k\) are Lindblad operators inducing stochastic jumps between quantum states. For example, using the usual terminology of Markovian processes, we call site \(t\) a trap if it is coupled to site \(s\) by the Lindblad jump operators, \(L_k = |s\rangle \langle t|\). The site-to-site transfer probability, \(P_{n \rightarrow m}(t) = \langle m| \rho(t) |n\rangle\), gives the occupancy probability of site \(m\) at time \(t\) with initial condition \(|n\rangle\). Note that the present study, while utilizing open system dynamics, is not related to the enhancement of transport due to quantum noise\(^17\)-22 which has been well studied in the context of photosynthesis\(^22\)-23. Here the emphasis is instead on the effect the breaking time-reversal symmetry of the Hamiltonian dynamics can have on transport.

To quantify the transport properties of quantum walks, we use the half-arrival time, \(t_{1/2}\), as the earliest time when the occupancy probability of the target site is one half. We will also make use of the transport speed, \(v_{1/2}\), defined as the reciprocal of \(t_{1/2}\).

We now introduce a quantum switch which enables directed transport and could, in principle, be used to create a logic gate and offer future implementations of transport devices to store and process energy and information. Figure 1 presents an example of this switch. The value of a phase \((e^{i\theta})\) appended to a single control edge across the junction allows selective biasing of transport through the switch. The maximal biasing occurs at \(|\theta| = \pi/2\), and the sign determines the direction. The first maxima of \(P_{S \rightarrow E}(t)\) (transfer probability from site \(S\) to \(E\)) in the unitary dynamics without traps can be enhanced by 134% or suppressed to 91% with respect to the non-chiral case. When considering traps in the Lindbladian evolution, the optimal transport efficiency is 81.4% in the preferred direction. The switch violates TRS as \(P_{S \rightarrow E}(t) \neq P_{E \rightarrow S}(t)\). By using \(P_{E \rightarrow S}(t) = P_{E \rightarrow S}(t)\) and the symmetry of the configuration \(P_{E \rightarrow S}(t) = P_{E \rightarrow S}(t)\), we conclude that transport is biased towards the opposite pole when running backwards in time, see Figure 1 Note that the behaviour of the switch is largely independent of the length of the connecting wires.

We will now utilize the directional biasing of the triangle to give an example of a speed-up of chiral walks. Using the composition of eight triangular switches as depicted in Figure 2a, by simultaneously varying all phases along the red control edges to the same value, we examine the effect of time-reversal asymmetry on transport. We find that the occupation probability as a function of \(\theta\) is symmetric about \pm \pi/2 with the negative value corresponding to maximal enhancement and the positive value to maximal suppression. Unlike the occupation probability maxima in the switch, here the first apices are separated in time. When we include trapping, the half-arrival time is reduced from the non-chiral value \(t_{1/2} = 38.1\) to 5.2 which represents a 633% enhancement. To conclude this section we focus on suppression of transport by chiral quantum walks. A good example is the polygon with an even number of sites. In this case, complete suppression can be achieved by appending a phase of \(\pi\) to one of the links in the cycle; thereby rendering it impossible for the quantum walker to move to the diametrically opposite site. This is a discrete space version of a known effect in Aharonov-Bohm loops\(^23\). The proof that the site-to-site transfer probability is zero in this case for all times also in our discrete-space and open-system walks can be found in the Methods Section. However, note that the discrete even-odd effect, which implies that only loops comprised of odd particles can exhibit transport enhancement, and only even loops may exhibit complete suppression, has no known continuous analog.

In natural and synthetic excitonic networks such as photosynthetic complexxes and solar cells, we are faced with non-unitary quantum evolution due to dissipative and decoherent interaction with the environment. Studies have shown that dissipative
quantum evolution surpasses both classical and purely quantum
transport (for interesting recent examples see 20,21). A widely studied
process of such dissipative exciton transport is the one occurring in
the Fenna-Matthews-Olsen complex (FMO), which connects the
photosynthetic antenna to a reaction centre in green sulphur bac-
teria22,27–29. Due to the low light exposure of these bacteria, there is
evolutionary pressure to optimize exciton transport. Therefore, the
site energies and site-to-site couplings in the system are evolutio-
narily optimized, yielding a highly efficient transport 23. However, it
is an open question whether or not there occurs time-reversal
asymmetric hoping terms in these systems, and whether these are
optimized. Recent 2D Electronic Spectroscopy results lead to the
conclusion that , e.g., in the light harvesting complex LH2 hopping
terms with complex phases are indeed present 16. Here we ask
whether such TRS breaking interactions may further enhance the
efficiency of the light harvesting process. We consider the tra-
ditional real-hopping Hamiltonian modeling transport on the
FMO, and allow for TRS breaking by introducing complex phases
and find that the transport speed can be further increased. We
study the seven site model of the FMO using an open system
description that includes the thermal bath, trapping at the reaction
centre, and recombination of the exciton 22,26,27. By performing a
standard optimization procedure (as outlined in the Supplemen-
tary Information, Section S3) that varies the phase on a subset of
seven edges, we found a combination of phases where the transport
speed, \( n_{1/2} \), is enhanced by 7.68%. In Figure 2b, the enhancement
of the time dependent occupation probability is shown for the chiral
quantum walk. We note that optimization over only three edges
already changes the transport speed by 5.92%, see Supplementary
Information, Section S3.

Complex network theory has been used in abstract studies of
quantum information science; see for example 30,31. Here we turn to
the theory of complex networks to determine if optimization proce-
dures limited to small subsets of edges will generally lead to
improved transport in larger and possibly randomly generated net-
works. We found a positive answer when testing the site-to-site
transport between oppositely aligned nodes in the Watts-Strogatz
model32. This family of small-world networks continuously connects
a class of regular cyclic graphs to that of completely random net-
works (Erdős-Rényi models33) by changing the value of the rewiring
probability.

We numerically investigated graphs with 32 nodes, average degree
four and range over rewiring probability \( p \) considering 200 different
graph realizations for each value of \( p \). An example with \( p = 0.2 \) is
depicted in Figure 3a. Here the occupancy of a sink connected to site
\( E \) is compared between the chiral walk and its achiral counterpart.
The particle begins at site \( S \) and we perform the optimization of the
phases only on edges connected to site \( E \), which correspond to seven and three edges with an enhancement at \( \tau_{1/2} \) of 3.25% and 2.25%, respectively.

**Figure 2** | (a) Triangle chain and (b) the FMO complex. (a) The phase \( e^{i\theta} \) is applied to the red edges simultaneously in the triangle chain. The plot illustrates the occupancy probability at the end site \( E \) as a function of time for different values of the phase \( \theta \) with and without trapping (dashed and solid lines, respectively). (b) shows the occupancy difference with respect to the time reversal symmetric Hamiltonian of the FMO complex. We use an optimization procedure to enhance the transport. While holding the magnitude of the couplings constant, we optimize two sets of phases, \( A_1 \) and \( A_2 \), which correspond to seven and three edges with an enhancement at \( \tau_{1/2} \) of 3.25% and 2.25%, respectively.

**Discussion**

In all the examples studied, we found that the effect that TRS breaking has on transport is non-trivially affected by the topology of the
network. In this regard, a key observation is the following. If two Hamiltonians are related by on-site unitary transformations mapping \( |n\rangle \) to \( e^{a_n} |n\rangle \), then the site-to-site transition probabilities will be identical. This fact provides a tool to reduce the effective space of phase parameters for controlling transport. In the Methods Section, we provide a more formal treatment of this symmetry of the site-to-site transition probabilities. For instance, we prove that the site-to-site transfer probability is insensitive to phases in tree graphs. For bipartite graphs the phases can have an effect, however, the dynamics still remains time-reversal symmetric.

A further consequence is that the sums of phases along a chosen orientation of a loop are the unique invariants under on-site unitary transformations. For example, placing phases on the edges of the triangle loop of the quantum switch is equivalent to placing the sum of them on just one edge. In a wide range of cases and particularly in all examples we considered, we found strong evidence of the robustness the effect has on transport. For instance, the examples in Figure 3b show that in the Watts-Strogatz model, the transport enhancement due to the time reversal asymmetry of the Hamiltonian is insensitive to changes of the rewiring probability \( p \) and the clustering coefficient measuring the density of triangles in the graph. Finally, additional calculations show that scale free networks such as the Barabási-Albert model\(^\text{14}\), show a similar transport enhancement, indicating robustness also with respect to the degree distribution.

This study pioneers the exploration of a new degree of freedom that allows for a significant improvement of control in the engineering of quantum transport. The fact that we were able to optimize and control transport by adjusting the phase on only a few edges inside a complex network and that the effect was relevant in a host of examples adds optimism to the robustness of this approach. Experimental demonstrations of the effects we predict are within reach of existing hardware, as outlined in the Supplementary Information, Section S2.

**Methods**

**Analytical methods.** Site-to-site transfer probability. The Markovian open-system dynamics of a continuous time chiral quantum walk is given by the Kossakowski-Lindblad equation\(^\text{17-20}\):

\[
\mathcal{L}(\rho) = -i[H_{CQW}, \rho] + \sum_{\{j, m\}} \epsilon_{j m} \left( L_{j m} \rho L_{j m}^\dagger - \frac{1}{2} L_{j m}^\dagger L_{j m} \rho - \frac{1}{2} \rho L_{j m}^\dagger L_{j m} \right),
\]

where the chiral Hamiltonian \( H_{CQW} \) is defined in Eq. (2), and the Lindblad operators are given as \( L_{j m} = |j\rangle \langle m| \) with \( \epsilon_{j m} \geq 0 \). Transport from vertex \( S \) to vertex \( E \) during such dynamics is characterized by the site-to-site transfer probability (STP). In the unitary case \( (\epsilon_{j m} = 0) \) it is given by

\[
P_{S \rightarrow E}(t) = \text{Tr}(e^{-iH_{CQW}t} \rho_{S} e^{iH_{CQW}t} \rho_{E})
\]

where \( \rho_{S} = |S\rangle \langle S| \) and \( \rho_{E} = |E\rangle \langle E| \) while for the general Markovian case it is

\[
P_{S \rightarrow E}(t) = \text{Tr}(e^{iT_{H}^{\text{unit}}\rho_{S}} e^{-iT_{H}^{\text{unit}}\rho_{E}})
\]

**Time-reversal symmetry of the unitary achiral dynamics.** In the setting of quantum walks, the time-reversal operator \( T \) acts as complex conjugation (with respect to the vertex basis)\(^\text{22}\):

\[
T \sum_{n} \rho_{n} |v\rangle = \sum_{n} \rho_{n}^{*} |v\rangle
\]

The antunitarity of \( T \) and \( T^{2} = 1 \) implies that \( T^{T} = T \). The time-reversal of a Hamiltonian \( H \) is given as \( THT = THT \). The \( H \mapsto THT \) action is represented in parameter space by the replacement \( \theta_{nm} \mapsto -\theta_{nm} \) in Eq. (2). Thus exactly the achiral quantum walks are left invariant by this action. The STPs of \( H (P_{S \rightarrow E}) \) and that of \( H^{T} = \text{Tr}(T_{H} \rho_{S}) e^{-iT_{H} \rho_{E}} \) are related in the following way:

\[
P_{S \rightarrow E}(t) = P_{S \rightarrow E}(-t) \quad \text{and} \quad P_{S \rightarrow E}(t) = P_{S \rightarrow E}(-t),
\]

which can be verified using \( Tp_{T} = p_{S} \) and the cyclicity of the trace as follows:

**Figure 3** | Transport enhancement of the chiral quantum walk is robust across randomly generated Watts-Strogatz networks. An example of this small-world network, with rewiring probability \( p = 0.2 \), is depicted in (a). The transfer probability \( P \) from site \( S \) to the sink connected to site \( E \) is plotted in a realization of the network. (b) shows the average enhancement of half arrival time (\( \Delta t_{1/2} \)) for different values of \( p \).

**Figure 4** | Effect of the gauge transformation \( |n\rangle \mapsto e^{a_n} |n\rangle \) on vertex \( n \). Phases on edges can be gauge-transformed without changing the transition amplitudes, as described in the text. Here we arrange the graph as a tree rooted at \( d = 0 \).
Here we collect a few of its properties and generalize them for the case of open systems with a Markovian bath. For us the starting point will be that it leaves the STP invariant. To prove this, let us first note that any unitary basis-change $U$ would induce a transformation on the Lindblad superoperator $\mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}'$ with

$$
\mathcal{L}'(\rho) = U \mathcal{L}(U^\dagger \rho U) U^\dagger.
$$

Using this and the invariance of localized states under diagonal unitaries $(U^\dagger \rho U = \rho_n)$, we arrive at

$$
P_{S_{\text{st}}}(t) = \text{Tr}(\mathcal{L}'(\rho_0^n \rho_{1\ldots n} U_{1\ldots n}^\dagger \rho_0)) = \text{Tr}(\mathcal{L}(\rho_0^n \rho_{1\ldots n} U_{1\ldots n}^\dagger \rho_0)) = P_{S_{\text{st}}}(t),
$$

which proves the invariance of the STP under the gauge transformations defined by Eq. (8).

Under these diagonal transformations, the parameters of the quantum walk Hamiltonian transform as

$$
\theta_{mn} \rightarrow \theta_{mn} + \pi a_n - \pi a_m,
$$

as illustrated in Figure 4. The incoherent part of the Lindblad equation (5) does not change since the Lindblad operators transform as $L_{mn} \rightarrow e^{i(\pi a_n - \pi a_m)L_{mn}}$ and these phases cancel in Eq. (5), since $L_{mn}$ and $L_{nm}$ appear paired. Two important properties of the model now follow: (i) phases on tree graphs can be transformed out completely and (ii) the sum of phases along loops is invariant under gauge transformations. The first property is illustrated in Figure 4. Let us take an arbitrary tree graph and pick a vertex $m$ with only one neighbour. Redraw every other vertex on successive levels characterized by the distance $d$ of the vertexes from the given vertex $m$. Note that the number of edges connecting two vertices, $d$, is by definition, unique in tree graphs. In such an arrangement only one edge emanates downwards from a given vertex on a line of $d > 0$. Figure 4 represents the generic neighbourhood of a vertex $n$ having distance $d = 1$ from $m$. The indicated gauge transformation with $\omega_n = \arg d_{nm} - \theta_{mn}$ removes the phase from the bottom edge. Then, one iterates the procedure for all vertices at level $d = 2$ and consecutively for all levels. In this way, all phases are removed. For the second property, pick an orientation on a loop of $N$ vertexes and compute $\theta : = \sum_{n=1}^N \phi_{n+1,n}$, considering $\phi_{N+1,1} = \phi_{1,N}$. A gauge transformation $n \rightarrow -n$, according to Eq. (9), leads to:

$$
\phi_{n+1,n} \rightarrow -\phi_{n+1,n} + \pi a_n + \pi a_m, \quad \phi_{n-1,n} \rightarrow -\phi_{n-1,n} - \pi a_n - \pi a_m,
$$

so the sum $\theta$ remains unaffected.

**Numerical methods.** We used the Quantum Information Toolkit (QIT). This is a software package for the Matlab programming language. The optimization procedure used in the FMO and the Watts-Strogatz examples rely on the Interpoint-Integral Optimization algorithm of the Matlab minimization tool kit. We start the optimization procedure several times from different randomly chosen points of the parameter space, to reach the global minimum of cost function with more certainty. Source code for all simulations done in this work is available upon request.

**Acknowledgements.** We thank Michele Allegra, Stephen Clark, Seth Lloyd and Ville Bergholm for helpful comments on the draft. Parts of this work were supported by the European Commission under grants COQUIT, ERC Grant GENDENTOOP, and CHISTERA QUASAR.

**Author contributions** Z.Z., M.F., Z.K., J.W., B.L. and J.B. contributed to the development of the present study and to the drafting of the manuscript. B.L. conceived the experimental proposal. All authors assisted in the writing of the manuscript.

---

**References**

1. Farhi, E. & Gutmann, S. Quantum computation and decision trees. Phys. Rev. A 58, 915–928 (1998).
2. Childs, A. M. et al. Exponential algorithmic speedup by quantum walk. Proc. 35th Annual ACM STOC. ACM, NY, 59–68 (2003).
3. Mülken, O. & Blumen, A. Continuous-time quantum walks: Models for coherent transport on complex networks. Phys. Rep. 502, 37–87 (2011).
4. Kempe, J. Quantum random walks: an introductory overview. Contemp. Phys. 44, 307–327 (2003).
5. Kendon, V. Decoherence in quantum walks - a review. Math. Struct. in Comp. Sci 17, 1169–1220 (2006).
6. Venegas-Andraca, S. Quantum walks: a comprehensive review. Quantum Information Processing 1–92 (2012). 10.1007/s11128-012-0432-5.
7. Godsil, C. & Severini, S. Control by quantum dynamics on graphs. Phys. Rev. A 81, 052316 (2010).
8. Burgarth, D., D’Alessandro, D., Hogben, L., Severini, S. & Young, M. Zero forcing, linear and quantum controllability for systems evolving on networks. arXiv:1111.1475v1 (2011).
9. Xiang, P., Litinskaya, M., Shapiro, E. A. & Krems, R. V. Non-adiabatic control of quantum energy transfer in ordered and disordered arrays. New J. Phys. 15, 063015 (2013).
10. Eisfeld, A. Phase directed excitonic transport and its limitations due to environmental influence. Phys. Rev. B 14(6), 22392249 (1976).
11. Peierls, R. On the Theory of Diamagnetism of Conduction Electrons. Z. Phys. 80, 673791 (1933).
12. Hofstadter, D. R. Energy levels and wavefunctions of Bloch electrons in rational and irrational magnetic fields. Phys. Rev. B 14(6), 22392249 (1976).
13. Sarma, S. D. & Pinczuk, A. Perspectives in Quantum Hall Effects (Wiley-VCH, 2001).
14. Hasan, M. Z. & Kane, C. L. Topological Insulators. Rev. Mod. Phys. 82(4), 3045 (2010).
15. Dalibard, J., Gerbier, F., Juzeliunas, G. & Ohberg, P. Topological Insulators. Rev. Mod. Phys. 82(4), 3045 (2011).
16. Harel, E. & Engel, G. S. Quantum coherence spectroscopy reveals complex dynamics in bacterial light-harvesting complex 2 (LH2). PNAS 109(3), 706–711 (2012).
17. Kossakowski, A. On quantum statistical mechanics of non-Hamiltonian systems. Rep. Math. Phys. 3, 247 (1972).
18. Lindblad, G. On the generators of quantum dynamical semigroups. Commun. Math. Phys. 48, 119 (1976).
19. Breuer, H.-P. & Petruccione, F. The theory of open quantum systems (Oxford University Press, 2002).
20. Whitfield, J. D., Rodriguez-Rosario, C. A. & Aspuru-Guzik, A. Quantum stochastic walks: A generalization of classical random walks and quantum walks. Phys. Rev. A 81, 022323 (2010).
21. Sinayskiy, I., Marais, A., Petruccione, F. & Eckert, A. Decoherence-assisted transport in a dimer system. Phys. Rev. Lett. 108, 020602 (2012).
22. Mohseni, M., Rebentrost, P., Lloyd, S. & Aspuru-Guzik, A. Environment-assisted quantum walks in photosynthetic energy transfer. J. Chem. Phys. 129, 174106 (2008).
23. Lloyd, S., Mohseni, M., Shabani, A. & Rabitz, H. The quantum Goldilocks effect: on the convergence of timescales in quantum transport. arXiv:1111.4982 (2011).
24. Wigner, E. P. Group Theory and its Application to the Quantum Mechanics of Atomic Spectra (New York: Academic Press, 1959). Translation by J. J. Griffin of 1931, Gruppentheorie und ihre Anwendungen auf die Quantenmechanik der Atomspektren, Vieweg Verlag, Braunschweig.
25. Datta, S. Quantum Transport: Atom to Transistor (Cambridge University Press, 2005).
26. Plenio, M. B. & Huelga, S. F. Plenio, M. B. Dephasing assisted transport: Quantum networks and biomolecules. New Journal of Physics 10, 113019 (2008).
27. Caruso, F., Chin, A. W., Datta, A., Huelga, S. F. & Plenio, M. B. Highly efficient energy excitation transfer in light-harvesting complexes: The fundamental role of noise-assisted transport. The Journal of Chemical Physics 131, 105106 (2009).
28. Sarovar, M., Ishizaki, A., Fleming, G. R. & Whaley, K. B. Quantum entanglement in photosynthetic light-harvesting complexes. Nature Physics 6, 462–467 (2010).
29. Ringbouhm, A., Milburn, G. & Stace, T. Multiscale photosynthetic and biomimetic excitation energy transfer. Nature Physics 8, 562–567 (2012).
30. Acin, A., Cirac, J. I. & Lewenstein, M. Entanglement Percolation in Quantum Networks. Nature Physics 3, 256–259 (2007).
31. Perseguers, S., Lewenstein, M., Acín, A. & Cirac, I. J. Quantum random networks. Nature Physics 6, 539–543 (2010).
32. Watts, D. J. & Strogatz, S. H. Collective dynamics of ‘small-world’ networks. Nature 393, 409–418 (1998).
33. Erdös, P. & Rényi, A. On the Evolution of Random Graphs. In Publication of the Mathematical Institute of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences, 17–61 (1960).
34. Barabási, A.-L. & Albert, R. Emergence of scaling in random networks. Science 286, 509–512 (1999).
35. Bergholm, V. et al. Quantum Information Toolkit for MATLAB. URL http://qit.sourceforge.net/ (2009).
