

# Hierarchic superradiant phases in anisotropic Dicke model

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## Abstract

We revisit the phase diagram of an anisotropic Dicke model by revealing the non-analyticity induced by underlying exceptional points (EPs). We find that, from a dynamical perspective, the conventional superradiant phase can be further separated into three regions, in which the systems are characterized by different effective Hamiltonians, including the harmonic oscillator, the inverted harmonic oscillator, and their respective counterparts. We employ the Loschmidt echo to characterize different quantum phases by analyzing the quench dynamics of a trivial initial state. Numerical simulations for finite systems confirm our predictions about the existence of hierarchic superradiant phases.

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## 1 Introduction

With the gradual development of experiments on light-matter interaction [1–4], the quantum simulation of the Dicke model [5–8] is transitioning from theory to experiment. The Dicke

model [9–13] is a fundamental model in the field of quantum optics, describing the interaction between a single-mode light field and  $N$  two-level atoms. The Dicke model has a broad prospect and great potential in the field of quantum batteries [14–20]. In the thermodynamic limit ( $N \rightarrow \infty$ ), the ground state of the Dicke model undergoes a quantum phase transition (QPT) from the normal phase (NP) to the superradiant phase (SP) [11–13, 21–23] at a certain critical coupling strength, which is referred to as the superradiant phase transition. In addition to the QPT of the ground state demonstrated above, the Dicke model also exhibits three distinct phase transitions, namely, the dissipative phase transition (non-equilibrium quantum phase transition) [24–26], the excited-state quantum phase transition [27–29], and the thermal phase transition [30, 31].

The concept of EPs [32–34], which represents the degeneracies of non-Hermitian operators, is regarded as a unique feature of non-Hermitian systems. However, subsequent research has shown that EPs exist not only in non-Hermitian systems but also in Hermitian systems [35–45]. The non-analyticity induced by EPs suggests the presence of a phase transition at this point. In previous studies, we demonstrated that the superradiant quantum phase transition in the Dicke model can be seen as the effect of two hidden second-order EPs [45, 46]. This quantum phase transition is a dynamical phase transition, because as the parameter varies, the effective form of the Hamiltonian changes, resulting in completely different dynamical behaviors on either side of the transition point. This drives us to seek a more general Dicke model to investigate its dynamical phase transitions. A more general version of the Dicke model is called the anisotropic Dicke model [20, 47–52] (ADM), in which the strengths of the rotating-wave and counter-rotating-wave terms are different. The ADM is being widely studied, including its applications in quantum batteries [20] and the ergodic-to-nonergodic transition [47, 48], as well as work related to quantum chaos [50].

In this work, we focus on the ADM Hamiltonian and identify the hidden EPs of this Hamiltonian in the thermodynamic limit. The EPs divide the parameter space into four regions. The results show that, in addition to the existing NP to SP transition, there exists a hierarchical structure within the SP phase. In each region, the original Hamiltonian consists of different combinations of equivalent Hamiltonians, including the harmonic oscillator and the inverted harmonic oscillator [53, 54]. The dynamics of such two oscillators are fundamentally different. Therefore, starting from an initial state with only a small atomic excitation, the distinct finite-time dynamical behaviors of the ADM can be used to demonstrate the existence of EPs and to discriminate between different quantum phases. The finite-time guarantee ensures that the dynamics of an ADM with a finite atom number can still be accurately described by the thermodynamic-limit ADM, an idea akin to that proposed in [55]. We employ the Loschmidt echo of quench dynamics to characterize these phase transitions. The Loschmidt echo can be measured experimentally using quantum state tomography [56–58].

The structure of this paper is as follows. In Sec. 2, we introduce the model and pointed out the hidden EPs within it. In Sec. 3, we solve the Hamiltonian exactly and present the phase diagram of the model. In Sec. 4, we utilize quench dynamics to calculate the Loschmidt echo in order to identify different dynamical phases. Finally, in Sec. 5, we provide a summary and discussion. Some details of the calculations are provided in the Appendix.

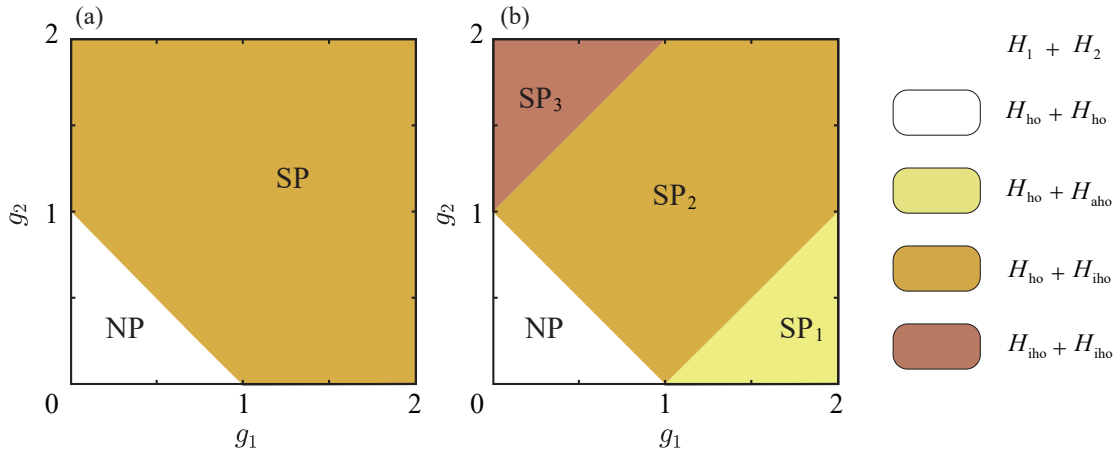


Figure 1: Phase diagrams of the Hamiltonian in Eq. (1) on the parameter  $g_1g_2$  plane, indicating the main conclusion of this work. Different colors in the diagram distinguish different phases of the system. (a) The traditional phase diagram of the anisotropic Dicke model (ADM), obtained by the mean field method, shows that the region  $g_1 + g_2 < 1$  corresponds to the normal phase (NP), and the region  $g_1 + g_2 > 1$  corresponds to the superradiant phase (SP). (b) The phase diagram of the ADM, revealed by the underlying exceptional points (EPs) of the effective Hamiltonian in Eq. (4) of the system, shows that the original superradiant phase (a) can be further divided into three distinct phases. We label these phases as  $SP_1$ ,  $SP_2$ , and  $SP_3$ , respectively. The corresponding equivalent Hamiltonians of the effective Hamiltonian in each region are indicated in the panel. Here, we assume  $\omega = \omega_0 = 1$ .

## 58 2 Model and exceptional points

59 We consider a Hamiltonian of a single-mode boson coupled to  $N$  two-level atoms, where the  
60 rotating-wave and counter-rotating-wave terms are distinct. This model is known as the ADM.

$$\begin{aligned}
 H = & \omega a^\dagger a + \omega_0 J_z + \frac{g_1}{\sqrt{N}} (a^\dagger J_- + a J_+) \\
 & + \frac{g_2}{\sqrt{N}} (a^\dagger J_+ + a J_-).
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

61 Here,  $a^\dagger$  and  $a$  represent the creation and annihilation operators of the single-mode boson,  
62 respectively.  $J_\pm$  and  $J_z$  are the collective atomic operators, and their commutation relations  
63 are as follows

$$[a, a^\dagger] = 1, [J_z, J_\pm] = \pm J_\pm, [J_+, J_-] = 2J_z. \tag{2}$$

64 The first and second terms of the Hamiltonian represent the free Hamiltonians of the light field  
65 and the  $N$  two-level atoms, respectively, with their strengths controlled by  $\omega$  and  $\omega_0$ . The third  
66 and fourth terms correspond to the rotating-wave and counter-rotating-wave coupling terms,  
67 with coupling strengths  $g_1$  and  $g_2$ , respectively. When  $g_1 = g_2$ , the model reduces to the Dicke  
68 model. For convenience, in the following derivations, we assume  $\omega = \omega_0$ ,  $g_1 > 0$ ,  $g_2 > 0$ .  
69 The phase diagram of the ADM has been conclusively established in previous studies based on  
70 the mean field method [48]. In the parameter plane of  $g_1g_2$ , the region where  $g_1 + g_2 > \omega$   
71 corresponds to the superradiant phase, while the region where  $g_1 + g_2 < \omega$  corresponds to the  
72 normal phase. The phase diagram is shown in Fig. 1(a).

73 In the following, we will show that the conventional superradiant phase can be further  
74 separated into three regions, in which the systems are characterized by different effective

Hamiltonians in large  $N$  limit, including the harmonic oscillator, the inverted harmonic oscillator, and their respective counterparts. We refer to these as hierarchic superradiant phases because the same given initial state exhibits distinct dynamic behaviors.

We introduce the Holstein-Primakoff (HP) transformation to convert the spin operators into bosonic operators  $b$

$$\begin{aligned} J_z &= b^\dagger b - \frac{N}{2}, \\ J_+ &= (J_-)^\dagger = b^\dagger \sqrt{N - b^\dagger b}, \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

In the thermodynamic limit where  $N \rightarrow \infty$  and neglecting constant terms, the Hamiltonian can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} H_{\text{eff}} &= \omega (a^\dagger a + b^\dagger b) + g_1 (a^\dagger b + a b^\dagger) \\ &\quad + g_2 (a^\dagger b^\dagger + a b). \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

$H_{\text{eff}}$  can be regarded as a two-site Hermitian bosonic Kitaev model [45,46]. In previous studies, we revealed that this model possesses hidden EPs. We introduce a linear transformation

$$d_{1,2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(a \pm b), \quad (5)$$

to decompose  $H_{\text{eff}}$  into two independent subspaces Hamiltonian can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} H_{\text{eff}} &= H_1 + H_2 \\ &= \phi_L \begin{pmatrix} h_1 & 0 \\ 0 & h_2 \end{pmatrix} \phi_R. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

The non-Hermitian Nambu spinor is defined as  $\phi_L = (d_1, -d_1^\dagger, d_2, -d_2^\dagger)$  and  $\phi_R = (d_1^\dagger, d_1, d_2^\dagger, d_2)^T$ . The forms of the two matrices are

$$h_{1,2} = \frac{1}{2}(\omega \pm g_1)\sigma_z \pm \frac{i}{2}g_2\sigma_y, \quad (7)$$

$h_{1,2}$  are non-Hermitian matrices, and  $\sigma_z$  and  $\sigma_y$  are Pauli matrices, defined as

$$\sigma_z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \sigma_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (8)$$

the eigenvalues of  $h_{1,2}$

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_1^\pm &= \pm \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{(\omega + g_1)^2 - g_2^2}, \\ \lambda_2^\pm &= \pm \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{(\omega - g_1)^2 - g_2^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

The corresponding eigenvectors are

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_1^\pm &= \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{g_2}(\omega + g_1 + 2\lambda_1^\pm) \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \\ \phi_2^\pm &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{g_2}(\omega - g_1 + 2\lambda_2^\pm) \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

From the forms of the eigenvalues and eigenvectors, we can see that the matrices possess EPs.  $h_1$  has a second-order EP when  $|\omega + g_1| = |g_2|$ , and  $h_2$  has a second-order EP when  $|\omega - g_1| = |g_2|$ . These EP can divide different regions in the  $g_1 - g_2$  parameter plane, as shown in Fig. 1(b). In the next section, we will provide the exact solutions for the diagonalized Hamiltonian in each region.

### 3 Phase diagram

The Hamiltonians  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  can be explicitly expressed as follows:

$$H_1 = (\omega + g_1) d_1^\dagger d_1 + \frac{g_2}{2} (d_1^\dagger d_1^\dagger + d_1 d_1), \quad (11)$$

and

$$H_2 = (\omega - g_1) d_2^\dagger d_2 - \frac{g_2}{2} (d_2^\dagger d_2^\dagger + d_2 d_2), \quad (12)$$

respectively. We note that the two Hamiltonians have the same form as

$$\mathcal{H} = \mu \beta^\dagger \beta + \frac{\Delta}{2} (\beta^\dagger \beta^\dagger + \beta \beta), \quad (13)$$

where  $\beta$  is the bosonic annihilation operator. In the Appendix A, we provide the derivation of the diagonalization of the Hamiltonian  $\mathcal{H}$ , based on which two Hamiltonians  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  can be reduced to different simple form in the four regions in the first quadrant of  $g_1 g_2$  plane.

Ignoring the energy constants, there exist three types of equivalent Hamiltonians, given by

$$H_{\text{ho}} = \Omega_i \left( \gamma_i^\dagger \gamma_i + \frac{1}{2} \right), \quad (14)$$

$$H_{\text{iho}} = (-1)^{i+1} \frac{\Omega_i}{2} [(\gamma_i^\dagger)^2 + \gamma_i^2], \quad (15)$$

$$H_{\text{aho}} = -\Omega_i \left( \gamma_i^\dagger \gamma_i + \frac{1}{2} \right), \quad (16)$$

with  $i = 1, 2$ , where  $\gamma_i$  are bosonic annihilation operators. The positive factor  $\Omega_i$  is given by

$$\Omega_1 = \sqrt{(\omega + g_1)^2 - g_2^2}, \quad (17)$$

$$\Omega_2 = \sqrt{(\omega - g_1)^2 - g_2^2}. \quad (18)$$

The harmonic oscillator Hamiltonian  $H_{\text{ho}}$  is the standard form of the Hamiltonian for a harmonic oscillator. The inverted harmonic oscillator Hamiltonian  $H_{\text{iho}}$  represents an inverted harmonic oscillator. This Hamiltonian describes a system with an inverted potential; its eigenenergies are continuous and unbounded, rendering the system unstable and allowing it to tunnel toward states with higher particle numbers. In Appendix B, we present a detailed account of the dynamical characteristics of this Hamiltonian. The anti-harmonic oscillator Hamiltonian  $H_{\text{aho}}$  is the negative of the standard harmonic oscillator Hamiltonian. It describes a system where the energy levels are inverted, meaning the ground state has the highest energy and the excited states have lower energies. This is also a stable system. Each of these Hamiltonians has distinct physical properties and implications for the stability and behavior of the system. The harmonic oscillator and anti-harmonic oscillators are stable, while the inverted harmonic oscillators are unstable. In the following, we present the explicit form of the equivalent Hamiltonians in each region.

(i) For  $g_1 + g_2 < \omega$ , in this region, the two Hamiltonians have the form

$$H_1 = \Omega_1 \left( \gamma_1^\dagger \gamma_1 + \frac{1}{2} \right) - \frac{1}{2} (\omega + g_1), \quad (19)$$

and

$$H_2 = \Omega_2 \left( \gamma_2^\dagger \gamma_2 + \frac{1}{2} \right) - \frac{1}{2} (\omega - g_1), \quad (20)$$

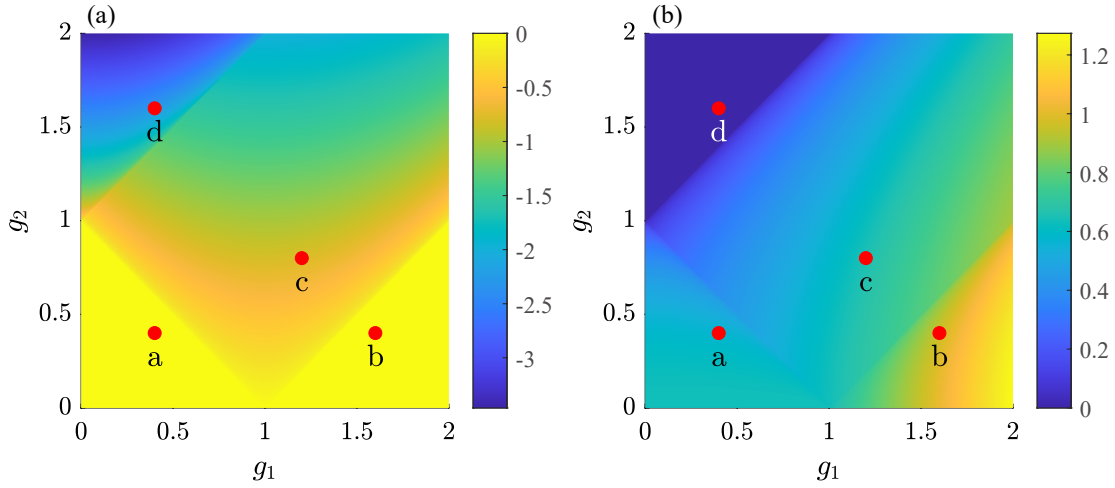


Figure 2: The plots of the decay rate  $\lambda$  in (a), given by Eq. (43) and frequency  $f$  in (b), given by Eq. (44) of the effective Hamiltonian on the  $g_1 g_2$  plane. It can be seen from the figures that there are clear distinctions between different phases in terms of  $\lambda$  and  $f$ . Four representative points in each regions are selected, indicated by red dots at the same positions in both panels, with coordinates a(0.4, 0.4), b(1.6, 0.4), c(1.2, 0.8), and d(0.4, 1.6). The corresponding quench dynamical behaviors of the original ADM in finite systems at these points, obtained by numerical simulations, are presented in Fig. 3.

119 respectively. Here,  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  are bosonic annihilation operators, given by

$$\gamma_i = \sinh \theta_i d_i^\dagger + \cosh \theta_i d_i, \quad (21)$$

120 with

$$\tanh \theta_1 = \frac{\omega + g_1 - \Omega_1}{g_2}, \quad (22)$$

121 and

$$\tanh \theta_2 = \frac{\omega - g_1 - \Omega_2}{g_2}, \quad (23)$$

122 respectively.

123 (ii) For  $g_1 + g_2 > \omega$  and  $g_2 < g_1 - \omega$ , in this region, two Hamiltonians have the form

$$H_1 = \Omega_1 \left( \gamma_1^\dagger \gamma_1 + \frac{1}{2} \right) - \frac{1}{2} (\omega + g_1), \quad (24)$$

124 and

$$H_2 = -\Omega_2 \left( \gamma_2^\dagger \gamma_2 + \frac{1}{2} \right) - \frac{1}{2} (\omega - g_1), \quad (25)$$

125 respectively. Here,  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  have the same forms in Eq. (21), still with

$$\tanh \theta_1 = \frac{\omega + g_1 - \Omega_1}{g_2}, \quad (26)$$

126 and

$$\tanh \theta_2 = \frac{\omega - g_1 + \Omega_2}{g_2}, \quad (27)$$

127 respectively.

128 (iii) For  $g_1 + g_2 > \omega$  and  $g_1 - \omega < g_2 < g_1 + \omega$ , in this region, two Hamiltonians have the  
129 form

$$H_1 = \Omega_1 \left( \gamma_1^\dagger \gamma_1 + \frac{1}{2} \right) - \frac{1}{2} (\omega + g_1), \quad (28)$$

130 and

$$H_2 = i \frac{\Omega_2}{2} \left[ (\gamma_2^\dagger)^2 + (\gamma_2)^2 \right] - \frac{1}{2} (\omega - g_1), \quad (29)$$

131 respectively. Here,  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  have the same forms in Eq. (21), but with

$$\tanh \theta_1 = \frac{(\omega + g_1) - \Omega_1}{g_2}, \quad (30)$$

132 and

$$\tanh \theta_2 = \frac{g_2 - i\Omega_2}{\omega - g_1}. \quad (31)$$

133 (iv) For  $g_1 + g_2 > \omega$  and  $g_1 + \omega < g_2$ , in this region, two Hamiltonians have the form

$$H_1 = -i \frac{\Omega_1}{2} \left[ (\gamma_2^\dagger)^2 + (\gamma_2)^2 \right] - \frac{1}{2} (\omega + g_1), \quad (32)$$

134 and

$$H_2 = i \frac{\Omega_2}{2} \left[ (\gamma_2^\dagger)^2 + (\gamma_2)^2 \right] - \frac{1}{2} (\omega - g_1), \quad (33)$$

135 respectively. Here,  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  have the same forms in Eq. (21), but with

$$\tanh \theta_1 = \frac{g_2 + i\Omega_1}{\omega + g_1}, \quad (34)$$

136 and

$$\tanh \theta_2 = \frac{g_2 - i\Omega_2}{\omega - g_1}, \quad (35)$$

137 respectively. The corresponding equivalent Hamiltonians are indicated in the phase diagram  
138 shown in Fig. 1(b). It shows that the configurations of the equivalent Hamiltonians are dif-  
139 ferent in each region. The whole superradiant phase is separated three sub-phases, which are  
140 referred to as hierarchic superradiant phases. Here, we would like to emphasize that the phase  
141 diagram presented here is not a zero-temperature phase diagram. Different equivalent Hamil-  
142 tonians exhibit different dynamics, which cannot be captured by mean-field theory. These  
143 phases have to be detected by the measurement of information in the excited state. Building  
144 upon this insight, we will propose a dynamic demonstration of the phase diagram.

## 145 4 Quench dynamics

146 In this section, we investigate the dynamic behavior of the phase diagram, including the hier-  
147 archical superradiant phases. We consider the quench dynamics under the postquench Hamil-  
148 tonian  $H$ . We conduct numerical simulations for the Loschmidt echo, defined as

$$L(t) = |\langle \psi(0) | \psi(t) \rangle|^2, \quad (36)$$

149 which is a measure of the revival for the initial state  $|\psi(0)\rangle$ . It allows us to characterize the  
150 properties of a system, provided that a proper initial state is chosen. We choose the empty  
151 state as the initial state  $|\psi(0)\rangle = |\Downarrow\rangle |0\rangle$  and calculate its evolved state

$$|\psi(t)\rangle = \exp(-iHt) |\psi(0)\rangle, \quad (37)$$

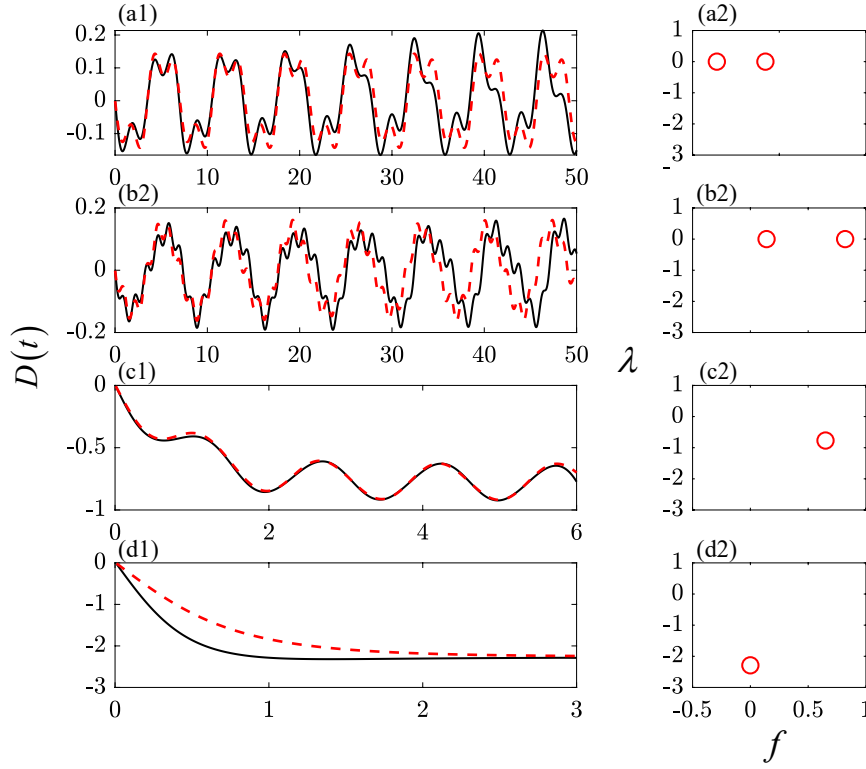


Figure 3: The plots of  $D(t)$ , given by Eq. (41), and their characteristics for the original ADM, given by Eq. (1) and effective Hamiltonian  $H_{\text{eff}}$  given by Eq. (4) in finite systems at the represented points indicated in Fig. 2. The plots in (a1)-(d1) are obtained by numerical simulations, the solid black line represents the numerical results obtained from the full ADM, whereas the red dashed line corresponds to the analytical result obtained from Eq. (38). The corresponding decay rates  $\lambda$  and frequencies  $f$ , plotted in (a2)-(d2), are extracted from the plots of  $D(t)$ . The number of atoms in the system is  $N = 100$ , and the bosonic Hilbert space is truncated at  $n_{\text{max}} = 140$ . Using a larger bosonic cutoff does not affect the system's dynamics over any finite time interval. These results are in accordance with the predictions from the analysis of the effective Hamiltonians.

where states  $|\Downarrow\rangle$  and  $|0\rangle$  are defined by  $J_z |\Downarrow\rangle = -N/2 |\Downarrow\rangle$  and  $a|0\rangle = 0$ , respectively. Before the computation for the finite ADM system, we would like to estimate the possible result.

We start with the investigation for the effective Hamiltonian  $H_{\text{eff}}$ , which can be dealt with analytically. The corresponding initial state becomes  $|\psi(0)\rangle = |0\rangle_a |0\rangle_b$  and evolved state is  $|\psi(t)\rangle = \exp(-iH_{\text{eff}}t) |\psi(0)\rangle$ , correspondingly. Note that the initial state can also be written in the form  $|\psi(0)\rangle = |0\rangle_{d_1} |0\rangle_{d_2}$ , satisfying  $d_1 |\psi(0)\rangle = d_2 |\psi(0)\rangle = 0$ , which allows the product form of  $L(t)$ . The Loschmidt echo has the following approximate expressions in each regions

$$L(t) \approx \begin{cases} \begin{bmatrix} 1 - 2A^2 \sin^2(\Omega_1 t) \\ 1 - 2A^2 \sin^2(\Omega_1 t) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 - 2B^2 \sin^2(\Omega_2 t) \\ 1 - 2B^2 \sin^2(\Omega_2 t) \end{bmatrix}, & \text{NP} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 - 2A^2 \sin^2(\Omega_1 t) \\ 1 - 2A^2 \sin^2(\Omega_1 t) \end{bmatrix} [\cosh(\Omega_2 t)]^{-1}, & \text{SP}_1 \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 - 2A^2 \sin^2(\Omega_1 t) \\ [\cosh(\Omega_1 t)]^{-1} [\cosh(\Omega_2 t)]^{-1} \end{bmatrix}, & \text{SP}_2 \\ [\cosh(\Omega_1 t)]^{-1} [\cosh(\Omega_2 t)]^{-1}, & \text{SP}_3 \end{cases}, \quad (38)$$

where the parameters  $A$  and  $B$  are given explicitly as

$$A = \frac{2}{1 + 2 \tanh^{-2} \theta_1} = \frac{2(\omega + g_1 - \text{sgn}(\omega + g_1)\Omega_1)}{(\omega + g_1 - \Omega_1)^2 + 2g_2^2}, \quad (39)$$



161 and

$$B = \frac{2}{1 + 2 \tanh^{-2} \theta_2} = \frac{2(\omega - g_1 - \text{sgn}(\omega - g_1)\Omega_1)}{(\omega - g_1 - \Omega_2)^2 + 2g_2^2}, \quad (40)$$

162 respectively. The details of the calculation can be found in Appendix B. In each region of superradiant phases,  $L(t)$  is the product of two functions, which take different configurations.  
 163 For the  $\text{SP}_1$  region, it is the product of two periodic functions. For the  $\text{SP}_2$  region, it is the  
 164 product of a periodic function and a decaying function. For the  $\text{SP}_3$  region, it is the product  
 165 of two decaying functions. The reason why the product of the two functions adopts distinct  
 166 configurations in different regions is that the underlying Hamiltonians are combined differ-  
 167 ently: whenever the effective Hamiltonian contains a harmonic or anti-harmonic oscillator, it  
 168 supplies the periodic factor, whereas the presence of an inverted harmonic oscillator provides  
 169 the decaying factor. We refer these phases to as hierarchic superradiant phases.

170 We note that the function  $[\cosh(\Omega_i t)]^{-1} \approx 2e^{-\Omega_i t}$ , decaying exponentially with rate  $\Omega_i$ ,  
 171 after long time scale. Then, the oscillating frequency and the decay rate can be the dynamic  
 172 characters of the hierarchic SPs. In order to characterize the hierarchy of the phases, we focus  
 173 on the quantity  
 174

$$D(t) = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \ln L(t), \quad (41)$$

175 because we have

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \ln e^{-\Omega_i t} = -\Omega_i. \quad (42)$$

176 It is expected that  $D(t)$  is the sum of two simple functions, which take different configurations  
 177 in each region of superradiant phases. Therefore, the factors  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  can be extracted from  
 178 the long-time behavior of  $D(t)$ . For the  $\text{SP}_1$  region,  $D(t)$  oscillates around zero, from which  
 179 two frequencies  $f_1 = \Omega_1/\pi$  and  $f_2 = \Omega_2/\pi$  can be extracted. In the  $\text{SP}_2$  region, it oscillates  
 180 around a constant, from which the oscillating frequency  $f_1$  and the balance point  $-\Omega_2$  can be  
 181 extracted. In the  $\text{SP}_3$  region, it decays to a constant, from which the decay rate  $\lambda = -(\Omega_1 + \Omega_2)$   
 182 can be extracted. What is shown in Fig. 2 is the analytical result of the decay rate

$$\lambda = -(\Omega_1 + \Omega_2), \quad (43)$$

183 and the sum of frequencies

$$f = f_1 + f_2, \quad (44)$$

184 which can be extracted from the echo of the evolved state of the effective Hamiltonian  $H_{\text{eff}}$ .  
 185 We can see the non-analytical behaviors of the plots at the phase boundaries.

186 Now, we turn to the computation of the corresponding quantities for the original ADM  
 187 Hamiltonian. For a system with a finite number of atoms, the dimension of the Hilbert space is  
 188 infinite. Therefore, the time evolution of the initial state is computed using exact diagonaliza-  
 189 tion under the truncation approximation. The computations are performed using a uniform  
 190 mesh in the time discretization for the truncated matrix. We selected four representative points  
 191 in the four phases of the ADM to perform quench dynamics verification, and the results are  
 192 shown in Fig. 3. The extracted decay rate  $\lambda$  and frequency  $f$  correspond to those in Fig. 2.  
 193 The results are in accordance with the predictions from the analysis of the effective Hamilto-  
 194 nians. This demonstrates that there indeed exist hierarchical superradiant phases within the  
 195 traditional superradiant phase of the ADM.

## 196 5 Summary

197 In summary, we have demonstrated that the conventional superradiant phase can be further  
 198 separated into three regions. The underlying mechanism is the existence of the exceptional

points in the effective Hamiltonians in the thermodynamic limit. Unlike the traditional quantum phase transitions, which usually occur in the ground state of the system, the phase separations arise from the sudden change of the complete set of eigenstates. In this sense, the proposed phase diagram is not merely a mathematical concept, but definitely results in evident observations. Numerical simulations have been performed to compute the Loschmidt echo for finite systems. The results indicate that such observables are sufficient to characterize the hierarchical superradiant phases.

## Acknowledgements

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## A Diagonalization of the Hamiltonians

In this appendix, we provide the derivation of the diagonalization of the Hamiltonian  $\mathcal{H}$ , which is equivalent to the two Hamiltonians  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  given in the main text. The Hamiltonian reads

$$\mathcal{H} = \mu\beta^\dagger\beta + \frac{\Delta}{2}(\beta^\dagger\beta^\dagger + \beta\beta), \quad (\text{A1})$$

where  $\beta$  is the bosonic annihilation operator. Here, we do not restrict the range of  $\mu$  and  $\Delta$ , and  $\mathcal{H}$  naturally satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} H_1 &= \mathcal{H}(\mu = \omega + g_1, \Delta = g_2), \\ H_2 &= \mathcal{H}(\mu = \omega - g_1, \Delta = g_2). \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A2})$$

We assume that there exists a Bogoliubov transformation

$$\gamma = \sinh \theta \beta^\dagger + \cosh \theta \beta, \quad (\text{A3})$$

that allows for the diagonalization of the Hamiltonian  $\mathcal{H}$ . Here,  $\gamma$  is also the bosonic annihilation operator and the inverse transformation is

$$\beta = \cosh \theta \gamma - \sinh \theta \gamma^\dagger. \quad (\text{A4})$$

The coefficient  $\theta$  is determined by the following process. Substituting the transformation into  $\mathcal{H}$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{H} &= \frac{1}{2}(\Delta \cosh 2\theta - \mu \sinh 2\theta)[(\gamma^\dagger)^2 + \gamma^2] \\ &\quad + \left(\mu \cosh^2 \theta - \frac{\Delta}{2} \sinh 2\theta\right)\gamma^\dagger\gamma \\ &\quad + \left(\mu \sinh^2 \theta - \frac{\Delta}{2} \sinh 2\theta\right)(1 + \gamma^\dagger\gamma). \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A5})$$

We consider the following two cases respectively.

(i)  $|\mu| > |\Delta|$ , the Hamiltonian can be written as the diagonalized form

$$\mathcal{H} = \text{sgn}(\mu)[\sqrt{\mu^2 - \Delta^2}\left(\gamma^\dagger\gamma + \frac{1}{2}\right)] - \frac{\mu}{2}, \quad (\text{A6})$$

when we take

$$\tanh \theta = \frac{\mu - \text{sgn}(\mu) \sqrt{\mu^2 - \Delta^2}}{\Delta}. \quad (\text{A7})$$

(ii)  $|\mu| < |\Delta|$ , the Hamiltonian can be written as the anti-diagonalized form

$$\mathcal{H} = \text{sgn}(\Delta) \frac{1}{2} \{ \sqrt{\Delta^2 - \mu^2} [(\gamma^\dagger)^2 + \gamma^2] \} - \frac{\mu}{2}, \quad (\text{A8})$$

when we take

$$\tanh \theta = \frac{\Delta - \text{sgn}(\Delta) \sqrt{\Delta^2 - \mu^2}}{\mu}. \quad (\text{A9})$$

## B Calculation of the Loschmidt echos

In this appendix, we present the derivations of the evolved states  $|\psi(t)\rangle$ , given in Eqs. (B.2) and (B.6), respectively, and the corresponding Loschmidt echo  $L_j$ , given in Eq. (B.7), respectively, for the initial state  $|0\rangle_{d_j}$ , which is the vacuum state of the operator  $d_j$  (where  $j = 1, 2$ ). The driven Hamiltonians are  $H_{\text{ho}}$ ,  $H_{\text{aho}}$ , and  $H_{\text{iho}}$ , given in Eqs. (14), (15) and (16), respectively.

The initial state  $|0\rangle_{d_j}$  can be spanned by the common eigenstates  $\{|l\rangle_j, l \in [0, \infty)\}$  of the Hamiltonians  $H_{\text{ho}}$ ,  $H_{\text{aho}}$  and  $H_{\text{iho}}$ , in the form

$$|0\rangle_{d_j} = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} [\tanh(\theta_j)]^l A_l |2l\rangle_j, \quad (\text{B.1})$$

where  $|l\rangle_j = \frac{1}{\sqrt{l!}} (\gamma_j^\dagger)^l |0\rangle_{\gamma_j}$  and  $|0\rangle_{\gamma_j}$  is the vacuum state of the operator  $\gamma_j$ . The coefficients  $\tanh \theta_j$  is defined in Eqs. (A7) and (A9), and given explicitly in the main text in Eqs. (22), (23), (26), (27), (30), (31), (34) and (35).  $A_l$  obey the iteration relation  $A_{l+1} \sqrt{2l+2} = A_l \sqrt{2l+1}$ , where  $A_0$  is a constant determined by normalization. Hence, the evolved states  $|\psi(t)\rangle_j$  for the Hamiltonians  $H_{\text{ho}}$  and  $H_{\text{aho}}$  can be directly obtained as

$$|\psi(t)\rangle_j = \begin{cases} \exp(-iH_{\text{ho}}t) |0\rangle_{d_j} = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \exp(-i2l\Omega_j t) [\tanh(\theta_j)]^l A_l |2l\rangle_{d_j}, \\ \exp(-iH_{\text{aho}}t) |0\rangle_{d_j} = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \exp(i2l\Omega_j t) [\tanh(\theta_j)]^l A_l |2l\rangle_{d_j}, \end{cases} \quad (\text{B.2})$$

However, the set of states  $\{|l\rangle_j\}$  are no longer the eigenstates of  $H_{\text{iho}}$ . We have to take another approach to derive the corresponding  $|\psi(t)\rangle_j$ . We note that the time evolution operator  $U(t) = \exp(-iH_{\text{iho}}t)$  is nothing but the squeezing operator in quantum optics [53, 59]. This allows us to establish the relation

$$\mathcal{H}(t)U(t)|0\rangle_{\gamma_j} = \mathcal{H}(t)|\psi(t)\rangle_j = 0, \quad (\text{B.3})$$

with

$$\mathcal{H}(t) = \gamma_j \cosh(\Omega_j t) + \gamma_j^\dagger i(-1)^{j+1} \sinh(\Omega_j t). \quad (\text{B.4})$$

This indicates that the evolved state  $|\psi(t)\rangle_j$  is the instantaneous zero-energy eigenstate of the auxiliary time-dependent Hamiltonian  $\mathcal{H}(t)$ . The evolved state can be obtained as

$$U(t)|0\rangle_{\gamma_j} = \sqrt{\text{sech}(\Omega_j t)} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{(2l)!}}{l!2^l} [(-1)^j i \tanh(|\Omega_j| t)]^l |2l\rangle_{\gamma_j}, \quad (\text{B.5})$$

by using the series method. If the initial state is the vacuum state  $|0\rangle_{d_j}$  of the operator  $d_j$ , then the evolved state can be expressed as

$$|\psi(t)\rangle_j = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^l l!}} \mathcal{H}(t)^{2l} [\tanh(\theta_j)]^l A_l U(t) |0\rangle_{\gamma_j}. \quad (\text{B.6})$$

Then the corresponding  $L_j(t)$  are obtained as

$$L_j(t) \approx \begin{cases} \left| \langle 0|_{d_j} \exp(-iH_{ho}t) |0\rangle_{d_j} \right|^2 = 1 - \frac{8 \tanh^2(\theta_j)}{[2 + \tanh^2(\theta_j)]^2} \sin^2(\Omega_j t), \\ \left| \langle 0|_{d_j} \exp(-iH_{iho}t) |0\rangle_{d_j} \right|^2 = [\cosh(\Omega_j t)]^{-1}, \\ \left| \langle 0|_{d_j} \exp(-iH_{aho}t) |0\rangle_{d_j} \right|^2 = 1 - \frac{8 \tanh^2(\theta_j)}{[2 + \tanh^2(\theta_j)]^2} \sin^2(\Omega_j t), \end{cases} \quad (\text{B.7})$$

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