Building Quantum Machines with Light



Marcelo Martinelli Laboratório de Manipulação Coerente de Átomos e Luz







Measuring the field



Marcelo Martinelli Laboratório de Manipulação Coerente de Átomos e Luz







Slow varying EM Field can be detected by an antenna:

- \rightarrow conversion of electric field in electronic displacement.
- \rightarrow amplification, recording, analysis of the signal.
- \rightarrow electronic readly available.

Example: 3 K cosmic background (Penzias & Wilson).

Problems:

 \rightarrow Even this tiny field accounts for a strong photon density.

→Every measurement needs to account for thermal background (e.g. Haroche *et al.*).









Fast varying EM Field cannot be measured directly.

We often detect the mean value of the Poynting vector: ${f S}=arepsilon_0{f E} imes{f B}$

Photoelectric effect converts photons into ejected electrons

We measure photo-electrons

 \rightarrow individually with APDs or photomultipliers – a single electron is converted in a strong pulse – discrete variable domain,

 \rightarrow in a strong flux with photodiodes, where the photocurrent is converted into a

voltage – continuous variable domain.

Advantages: in this domain, photons are energetic enough:

 \rightarrow in a small flux, every photon counts.

 \rightarrow for the eV region (visible and NIR), presence of background photons is

negligible: measurements are nearly the same in L-He or at room temperature.



And detectors are cheap!







Discrete output:

- Photomultipliers
- Avalanche photodiodes
- Superconducting nanowire single photon detectors
- Number resolvingn photodetectors

Continuous output:

- PIN photodiodes



We can easily measure photon flux: field intensity





Author: Kirnehkrib (under C. Commons)

(or more appropriate, optical power)

$$I = \langle E^* E \rangle = \alpha^* \alpha$$

$$\hat{n} = \hat{a}^{\dagger} \hat{a}$$

For a filtered input, it selects a mode of the field, and counts the photon number in that mode → discrete spectra

JOURNAL OF THE OPTICAL SOCIETY OF AMERICA

VOLUME 47, NUMBER 10

OCTOBER, 1957

Two-Beam Interference with Partially Coherent Light

B. J. THOMPSON, Physics Department, The College of Science and Technology, University of Manchester, Manchester, England

AND

E. WOLF, The Physical Laboratories, University of Manchester, Manchester, England* (Received December 17, 1956)

Two-beam interference with partially coherent light is discussed. A new proof of the general interference law for partially coherent fields is obtained and is illustrated by means of simple and direct experiments. Photographs are given which show the changes in the visibility of the fringes as the degree of coherence is varied and the results are compared with the predictions of the theory.



FIG. 3. The diffractometer.





(d)





Figure 12.13 Double-beam interference patterns. Here the aperture separation was held constant, thereby yielding a constant number of fringes per unit displacement in each photo. The visibility was altered by varying the size of the primary incoherent source. (B.J. Thompson, J. Soc. Photo. Inst. Engr. 4, 7 [1965])



Figure 12.17 Michelson stellar interferometer.

NATURE November 10, 1956 VOL. 178

A TEST OF A NEW TYPE OF STELLAR INTERFEROMETER ON SIRIUS

By R. HANBURY BROWN

Jodrell Bank Experimental Station, University of Manchester

AND

DR. R. Q. TWISS Services Electronics Research Laboratory, Baldock



Figure 12.20 Stellar correlation interferometer.

1046

1046

NATURE November 10, 1956 VOL. 178

A TEST OF A NEW TYPE OF STELLAR INTERFEROMETER ON SIRIUS

By R. HANBURY BROWN

Jodrell Bank Experimental Station, University of Manchester

AND

DR. R. Q. TWISS Services Electronics Research Laboratory, Baldock



Fig. 2. Comparison between the values of the normalized correlation coefficient $l^{2}(d)$ observed from Sirius and the theoretical values for a star of angular diameter $0.0063^{"}$. The errors shown are the probable errors of the observations



Figure 12.20 Stellar correlation interferometer.

NO. 4497 January 7, 1956 NATURE 2 CORRELATION BETWEEN PHOTONS IN TWO COHERENT BEAMS OF LIGHT

By R. HANBURY BROWN

University of Manchester, Jodrell Bank Experimental Station

AND

R. Q. TWISS Services Electronics Research Laboratory, Baldock



Fig. 1. A new type of radio interferometer (a), together with its analogue (b) at optical wave-lengths

27

Table 1.

1

23

4

Se(0)/Ne

+ 7.4

+ 6.6

+ 7.6

+ 4.2

S(0)/N

+ 8.4

+ 8.0

+ 8.4

+ 5.2

NATURE No. 4497 January 7, 1956 27 CORRELATION BETWEEN PHOTONS IN TWO COHERENT BEAMS OF LIGHT

By R. HANBURY BROWN

University of Manchester, Jodrell Bank Experimental Station

AND

R. O. TWISS Services Electronics Research Laboratory, Baldock

Se(d)/Ne

-0.4

+ 0.5

+ 1.7

- 0.3

S(d)/N

~0

~0

~0

~0





Correlation .F fieldi (Inforference $C_{g}^{(2)}(\zeta) = \overline{C_{n}(H)} \overline{C_{p}(H+Z)}$ Double-Slit.

Correlation of Interistics p2 order $C_{T}^{(2)}(z) = \overline{I}_{1}(t) \overline{I}_{2}(t+\overline{a})$ HBET $C_{\varepsilon}^{(49)}(z) = E_{\Lambda}(4)E_{\Lambda}(z)E_{\nu}(t+z)E_{\nu}^{*}(t+z)$ (54^{\pm}) order

PHYSICAL REVIEW

VOLUME 130, NUMBER 6

15 JUNE 1963

The Quantum Theory of Optical Coherence*

ROY J. GLAUBER Lyman Laboratory of Physics, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts (Received 11 February 1963)

Correlation Functions: x: -> (Fi, ti)

 $G^{(n)}(\chi_{n,\ldots},\chi_{n},\chi_{n,m},\chi_{2n}) \equiv$ $T_{r} \mathcal{L} \rho E^{-}(x_{n}) \dots E^{-}(x_{n}) E^{+}(x_{n-1}) \dots E^{+}(x_{n}) e^{-}(x_{n}) e^{-}(x_{n$ with $E^{\dagger}(x_i) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \hat{a}_k U_k(\vec{r}_i) e^{-iMt} \hat{e}_j^{\dagger}$

Application Interference: G^(A)(34,342)=TrApE[34A]E(342) Henburg-Brown & Twiss $vry - Brown \& Twiss \\ G^{(2)}(x_1, x_2, x_2, v(y) = Tr d p E(vry) E(x_2) E^{\dagger}(x_2) E^{\dagger}(vy)) e^{\dagger}(vy) e^{\dagger}(vy)$

$$\frac{\text{Photon correlation}}{\text{Normalized second order correlation:}}$$

$$g^{(2)}(\overline{c}) = \frac{G^{(2)}(\overline{c})}{|G^{(2)}(0)|^2}$$

Dealing with a single mode of the field

$$g^{(2)}(0) = \frac{(a^{\dagger}a^{\dagger}aa)}{(a^{\dagger}a)^{2}}$$
using $a c^{\dagger} - c^{\dagger}a^{-1}$

$$g^{(2)}(0) = \frac{(a^{\dagger}a \cdot a^{\dagger}a)}{(a^{\dagger}a)^{2}} - \frac{(a^{\dagger}a)}{(a^{\dagger}a)^{2}} = \frac{(n^{2})}{(n^{2})^{2}} - \frac{(n^{2})}{(n^{2})^{2}}$$
Defining $b^{2}n = (2n^{2}) - (2n)^{2}$

$$g^{(2)}(0) = 1 + \frac{(2^{2}n - (2n))^{2}}{(n^{2})^{2}} = 1 + \frac{(n^{2})^{2}}{(n^{2})^{2}}$$

$$M_{an} hel \left(Q - factor\right) = \frac{(2^{2}n - (2n))^{2}}{(n^{2})^{2}} = \frac{(2n)^{2}}{(n^{2})^{2}}$$

$$\left[PR \mid_{2}, \frac{(19)}{(136)}, \frac{136}{(1982)}\right]$$

$$\left(deviation From = Poissonian distribution\right)$$

$$\frac{\sum \operatorname{camples}: \operatorname{Thermal state}: P = e^{-\kappa l^{2}/\kappa}}{\Re n}$$

$$\frac{2 \operatorname{ctot} \operatorname{co} = \int P = \int \frac{2}{\kappa} \int \frac{1}{\kappa} \int \frac{1}{$$

$$Q = \frac{b^n - z^n}{z^n}$$

$$= \frac{\vec{n}^2 - \vec{n}}{\vec{n}} =$$







Coherent state: p=12>cal $2\alpha^{\dagger}\alpha^{\prime}2 = 2\alpha(\alpha^{\dagger}\hat{\alpha}^{\prime}\omega) = 1\alpha^{\prime}$ 20107= 1212 g⁽²⁾(0)=1 Number State: 14>=1n> 2) n = 0 $g^{(2)}(0) = 1 - 1 < 1$ Anti-bunching

Coherent state: p=12>cal 201°07= 22101202= 1214 $2 c^{4} c^{7} = |x|^{2}$ $q^{(2)}(0) = 1$ Q = 0Number State: 14>= [n> Q= 2n-n=-1 2n=0 $g^{(2)}(0)=1-\frac{1}{n}<1$ n>1Anti-bunching

Squeezed State 12,5?? Squeezed Vacuum 10,5??

PHYSICAL REVIEW LETTERS

Photon Antibunching in Resonance Fluorescence

H. J. Kimble,^(a) M. Dagenais, and L. Mandel

Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Rochester, Rochester, New York 14627 (Received 22 July 1977)



PHYSICAL REVIEW LETTERS

Photon Antibunching in Resonance Fluorescence

H. J. Kimble,^(a) M. Dagenais, and L. Mandel

Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Rochester, Rochester, New York 14627 (Received 22 July 1977)







FIG. 3. Values of $1 + \lambda(\tau)$ derived from the data. The broken curve shows the theoretically expected form of $\langle \hat{I}_G(\tau) \rangle$ (with $\Omega/\beta = 4$) for a single atom, arbitrarily normalized to the same peak.

We can easily measure photon flux: field intensity

$$\hat{n} = |\alpha|^2 + |\alpha|\delta\hat{p} + O(2)$$

(or more appropriate, optical power)

$$I = \langle E^* E \rangle = \alpha^* \alpha$$

We can easily measure photon flux: field intensity

$$\hat{n} = |\alpha|^2 + |\alpha|\delta\hat{p} + O(2)$$

(or more appropriate, optical power)

$$I = \langle E^* E \rangle = \alpha^* \alpha$$

OK, we got the amplitude measurement, but that is only part of the history! Amplitude is directly related to the measurement of the number of photon, (or the photon counting rate, if you wish).

This leaves an unmeasured quadrature, that can be related to the phase of the field.

But there is not such an evident "phase operator"!

Still, there is a way to convert phase into amplitude: interference

and interferometers.



OK, we got the amplitude measurement, but that is only part of the history!

Amplitude is directly related to the measurement of the number of photon, (or the photon counting rate, if you wish).

This leaves an unmeasured quadrature, that can be related to the phase of the field.

But there is not such an evident "phase operator"!

Still, there is a way to convert phase into amplitude: interference conflicteda

and interferometers.

$$S_{i}^{i} = e^{i\Psi} S_{a}^{iT} + e^{-i\Psi} S_{a}^{i}$$

$$F^{volvetine}$$

$$S_{i}^{i} = -i(e^{i\Psi} S_{a}^{iT} - e^{-i\Psi} S_{a}) \rightarrow Phose associated$$

$$S_{i}^{i} = -i(e^{i\Psi} S_{a}^{iT} - e^{-i\Psi} S_{a}) \rightarrow Phose associated$$

$$S_{i}^{i} = -i(e^{i\Psi} S_{a}^{iT} - e^{-i\Psi} S_{a}) \rightarrow Phose associated$$

Building an Interferometer – The Beam Splitter



$$\hat{n}_c = \frac{\hat{n}_a + \hat{n}_b + \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{b} + \hat{b}^\dagger \hat{a}}{2}$$

$$\hat{n}_d = \frac{\hat{n}_a + \hat{n}_b - \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{b} - \hat{b}^\dagger \hat{a}}{2}$$

Building an Interferometer – The Beam Splitter



Homodyning

$$\begin{split} & \text{if } < |\hat{a}| > << < |\hat{b}| > \\ & \hat{n}_{-}(t) = |\beta| \left[\hat{a}(t)e^{-i\theta} + \hat{a}^{\dagger}(t)e^{i\theta} \right] = |\beta|\hat{X}_{a}(\theta) \end{split}$$

Vacuum Homodyning

$$\hat{n}_{+} = \hat{n}_{b}$$
 $\langle \hat{n}_{-} \rangle = 0$ $\Delta^{2} \hat{n}_{-} = \langle \hat{n}_{b} \rangle$

Calibration of the Standard Quantum Level

Vacuum Homodyning allows the calibration of the detection, producing a Poissonian distribution in the output (just like a coherent state).

$$|\alpha\rangle = exp(-|\alpha|^2/2) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha^n}{\sqrt{n!}} |n\rangle$$
$$p_n = |\langle \hat{n} |\alpha \rangle|^2 = exp(-|\alpha|^2) \frac{|\alpha|^{2n}}{n!}$$

Field Quadratures – Quantum Optics

$$\left[\hat{X}(\theta), \hat{X}\left(\theta + \frac{\pi}{2}\right)\right] = 2i$$
 Thus, $\Delta X \Delta Y \ge 1$



Uncertainty relation implies in a probability distribution for a given pair of quadrature measurements

Field quadratures behave just as position and momentum operators!

Field Quadratures – Quantum Optics

$$\left[\hat{X}(\theta), \hat{X}\left(\theta + \frac{\pi}{2}\right)\right] = 2i$$
 Thus, $\Delta X \Delta Y \ge 1$



Measurement of the Field in the time domain



Measurement of the Field in the frequency domain





Measurement of the Field in the frequency domain

$$\hat{a}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{a}(\Omega) \exp(-i\Omega t) \ d\Omega.$$

$$\hat{a}(\Omega) = \hat{x}(\Omega) + i\hat{y}(\Omega)$$



Measurement of the Field in the frequency domain



 $E(t) = A \operatorname{Re}\{i\kappa \exp[i(\omega - \Omega)t] + \exp(i\omega t) + i\kappa \exp[i(\omega + \Omega)t]\}$

Phase Rotation of Noise Ellipse



Alessandro S. Villar, The conversion of phase to amplitude fluctuations of a light beam by an optical cavity American Journal of Physics **76**, pp. 922-929 (2008).

