Characterizing quantum sensors with noise

report 2

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1. The Jaynes-Cummings model with Zeeman splitting

The Jaynes–Cummings model is the most basic model for an atom interacting with light. The model requires very little computational power, but is quite powerful, phenomenologically speaking. We start by writing down the Hamiltonian, which expresses the total energy in the system¹,

$$\mathcal{H}_{\rm JC} = \omega_c a^{\dagger} a + \frac{\Delta}{2} \sigma^z + g (a \sigma^+ + a^{\dagger} \sigma^-).$$

Essentially, an atom in a state σ^z interacts with an optical cavity which a single frequency mode ω —created by a^{\dagger} and destroyed by a—causing the atom to either absorb a photon and move to its excited state $(a\sigma^+)$ or emit a photon and move to its ground state $(a^{\dagger}\sigma^-)$.

Note two things: that $\hbar=1$ in the Hamiltonian I've written down, and $a^{\dagger}a$ makes an integer. First, \hbar is set to 1 for convenience, since having to do things at $10^{-34} \rm J \cdot s$ would be annoying. Second, first part of the Jaynes–Cummings Hamiltonian is basically saying that "the amount of energy in the system is the frequency multiplied by a number," since a frequency multiplied by \hbar just returns an energy value. (Am I making any sense?)

To make a prototypical sensor, we then just need to make the Hamiltonian reactive to something in the environment.² In this case, we'll assume that the atom has Zeeman splitting,³

$$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_{JC} - \frac{\mu}{2} \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{S}.$$

S is the total spin of the atom, which we can write as a vector $\mathbf{S} = (S^x, S^y, S^z)$, where $S^x = \frac{1}{2}\sigma^x$, $S^y = \frac{1}{2}\sigma^y$, and $S^z = \frac{1}{2}\sigma^z$. If we assume that the magnetic field is homogenous—that is, the field is the constant in the x-, y-, and z-directions, a reasonable approximation given how tiny atoms are—we can write this Hamiltonian as

$$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_{JC} - \frac{\mu}{4} B (\sigma^x + \sigma^y + \sigma^z).$$

2. Setting the simulation up

First thing's first, we need to import all of the necessary libraries that will be used in this notebook. We'll be using QuTiP to do all of the quantum mechanical calculations, numpy for its speedy mathematical capabilities, and matplotlib for its plots.

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
```

```
from qutip import *
from mpl_toolkits import mplot3d

# set a parameter to see animations in line
from matplotlib import rc
rc('animation', html='jshtml')
%matplotlib inline
```

Now we need to define the system's operators. To make life easier, these are created as global variables.

```
# set up system operators---sadly, these need to be global N = 5 # number of cavity modes a = tensor(qeye(2), destroy(N)) # cavity destruction operator \sigma m = tensor(sigmam(), qeye(N)) # atom state lowering operator \sigma z = tensor(sigmaz(), qeye(N)) # \sigma m.dagger() * \sigma m \sigma y = tensor(sigmay(), qeye(N)) #1j * (\sigma m - \sigma m.dag()) \sigma x = tensor(sigmax(), qeye(N)) # (\sigma m.dag() + \sigma m)
```

These are the system parameters that we'll use for the simulation.

Here we define the system's Hamiltonian using a few functions.

```
def jaynes_cummings(parameters):  \omega = \text{parameters}[0]   \Delta = 0.5 * \text{parameters}[1]   g = \text{parameters}[2]   H0 = \omega * \text{a.dag}() * \text{a} + \Delta * \sigma z   H1 = g * (\text{a.dag}() * \sigma m + \text{a} * \sigma m.dag())   \text{return } H0 + H1
```

3. Simulation using the Lindblad equation

Now, finally, we can set up a function to simulate the whole system. A function is useful in this instance since I'm planning on simulating systems undergoing various magnetic fields—rather than attempting to write code for *every single* field imaginable, I can just write a function that does all of the simulations for me.

Rather than using the classic Schrödinger equation, we'll use the Lindblad equation since it is specially made for open quantum systems. The Lindblad equation,⁴

$$\frac{d\rho(t)}{dt} = -i[H,\rho] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_n \left(2J_n^\dagger \rho J_n - \left\{ J_n^\dagger J_n, \rho \right\} \right).$$

The Lindblad equation solves for the *density matrix*, ρ —the density of probabilities for different states of a system—rather than the wavefunction. The J_n operator factors in some kind of process in the environment, such as a photon randomly being injected to the system or something like that. For our purposes, I'm modeling the atom being relaxed with $J_1 = \gamma_1^{1/2} \sigma^-$, and a photon being randomly destroyed or created with $J_2 = \gamma_2^{1/2} a$ and $J_3 = \gamma_3^{1/2} a^{\dagger}$, respectively.

The two parts of the equation with brackets, $[H,\rho]=H\rho-\rho H$ and $\left\{J_n^\dagger J_n,\rho\right\}=J_n^\dagger J_n\rho+\rho J_n^\dagger J_n$ are the *commutator* and *anticommutator*, respectively. These work because of the fact that operators are, fundamentally, matrices—and matrix multiplication is, in general, noncommutative.

We can then extract *correlation functions* from the Lindblad equation using a lot of math I'm too lazy to write down here. Luckily, QuTiP does

all the work for us. In general, we're interested in one function, $\langle a^\dagger(\omega_0+d\omega)a(\omega_0)\rangle$, which is the emission spectrum for the system. Since we can't measure an atom's state directly, but we *can* measure the light going in and out of the system, this functions as the emission spectrum as the "readout" for our system.

```
def simulate_system(t,
                                                # np linspace
                                               # list of floats
                    system_parameters,
                    noise_parameters,
                                                # list of floats
                    magnetic_field,
                                               # float
                                                # int
                    N,
                    initial_cavity_state = 1, # int
                    initial_atom_state = 0): # int
    # set up noise operators
    spin_relaxation = np.sqrt(noise_parameters[0]) * σm
    cavity_relaxation = np.sqrt(noise_parameters[1]) * a
    cavity_excitation = np.sqrt(noise_parameters[2]) * a.dag()
    noise_operators = [spin_relaxation, cavity_relaxation,

    cavity_excitation]

    # set up an initial state and get the Hamiltonian for the

    system

    \psi0 = tensor(basis(2, initial_atom_state), basis(N,

    initial_cavity_state))
    \rho \theta = \text{ket2dm}(\psi \theta)
    H = hamiltonian(system_parameters, magnetic_field)
    # get correlation functions for the atom and the cavity
    #cavity_correlation_function = correlation_2op_1t(H, ρ0, t,

    noise_operators,

                                                      #a.dag(), a)
    # do a Fourier transform on the correlation function
    #correlation = spectrum_correlation_fft(t,
    ⇔ cavity_correlation_function)
                          = 1 / t[-1]
    w_start
                          = 1 / t[1]
    number_of_frequencies = len(t)
    w = np.linspace(w_start, w_end, number_of_frequencies)
    correlation = spectrum(H, w, noise_operators, a.dag(), a)
    return [w, correlation]
```

These parameters control the noise in the system, which I will talk about in just a second.

Play around with the magnetic_field value in the simulate_system function and see how the correlation function changes with the magnetic field.

That last calculation likely took a while, so it's wise to save the data generated so you don't need to do those calculations again.

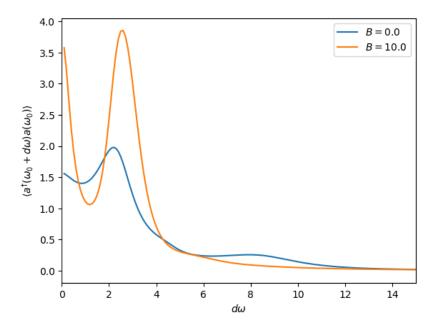


Figure 1. Correlation functions at different magnetic fields.

```
plt.legend([f'B = \{B[0]\}', f'B = \{B[-1]\}'])
plt.show()
```

4. Finding the sensor's sensitivity

Rather than do calculations over and over again, you can just load raw data—it saves quite a bit of time.

```
w = np.load('frequencies.npy')
correlation_functions = np.load('correlation_functions.npy')
magnetic_fields = np.load('magnetic_fields.npy')

def calculate_derivative(functions, coordinates):
    dx = np.diff(coordinates)[0]
    dy = np.diff(functions, axis = 0)
    return dy / dx

dadB = calculate_derivative(correlation_functions,
    magnetic_fields)
dadw = calculate_derivative(correlation_functions, w)

max_dadB = [np.amax(dadB[i]) for i in range(0, len(dadB))]
min_dadB = [np.amin(dadB[i]) for i in range(0, len(dadB))]
max_dadw = [np.amax(dadw[i]) for i in range(0, len(dadW))]
```

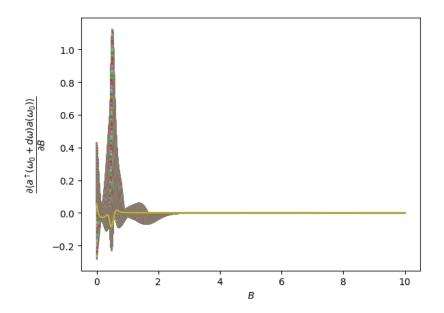


Figure 2. The derivative of the correlation function with respect to magnetic field at different magnetic field strengths.

```
d2adw2 = calculate_derivative(dadB, w)
norm_d2adw2 = d2adw2 / np.linalg.norm(d2adw2)
np.shape(d2adw2[:, :-2])
(498, 498)
#plt.plot(magnetic_fields, dadB)
fig, ax = plt.subplots()
for i in range(0, len(dadB)):
    ax.plot(magnetic_fields, dadB[i])
#ax.plot(magnetic_fields, dadB[0])
#ax.plot(magnetic_fields, dadB[-1])
plt.xlabel('$B$')
plt.ylabel(r'$\dfrac{\partial \langle a^\dagger(\omega_0 +

    d\omega) a(\omega_0) \rangle}{\partial B}$')

plt.show()
max_d2adw2 = [np.amax(d2adw2[i]) for i in range(0, len(d2adw2))]
min_d2adw2 = [np.amin(d2adw2[i]) for i in range(0, len(d2adw2))]
plt.plot(magnetic_fields[0:-1], max_dadB)
plt.xlabel(r'$B$')
plt.ylabel(r'$\max \left( \frac{\partial A}{\partial B}

  \right)$')
plt.show()
```

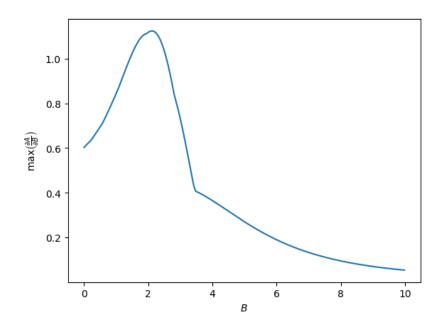


Figure 3. Maximum change in the correlation functions at different field strengths.

5. Solving an optimization problem

Now we must finally solve a constrained optimization problem for this problem. For a given sensor, we want as much sensitivity as possible while minimizing noise, in short, we want to find the closest distance from the origin for a given frequency and magnetic field level. Therefore, if we have a vector \mathbf{b} that has $\max(\partial_B \langle a^\dagger(\omega_0 + d\omega)a(\omega_0) \rangle$, then we can find the best sensitivities for the sensor.

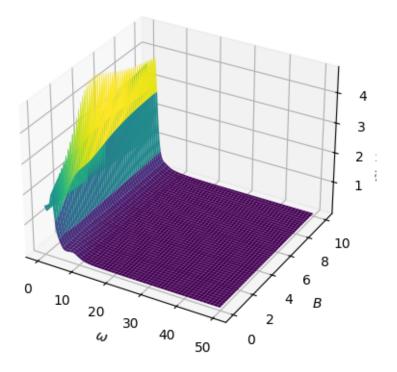


Figure 4. Correlation functions at different output frequencies and magnetic field strengths.

We wish to minimize $||\mathbf{x}||^2$ such that $A^{\mathsf{T}}A\mathbf{x} = A^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{b}$. This is made easier by first performing the singular value decomposition (SVD),

$$A = U\Sigma V^{\dagger}.$$

U and V are orthogonal vectors, and Σ has diagonal elements $\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$, except for the last element, which is zero. We can find the full vector by taking the pseudoinverse of A and multiplying it by **b**.

taking the pseudoinverse of A and multiplying it by **b**. Let $a = \frac{\partial \langle a^{\dagger}(\omega_0 + dw)a(\omega_0)}{\partial B}$, which we discretize into $A = [\mathbf{a}(B_1) \dots \mathbf{a}(B_p)]$, where $\mathbf{a}(B_p)$ is the collumn vector of the change in the correlation function given a magnetic field strength B_p . We want to find the vector \mathbf{x} such using the equation

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$$
,

```
where \mathbf{b}_i = \max(\langle a^\dagger(\omega_0 + d\omega)a(\omega_0) \rangle|_{B=B_i}).

cf = dadB[:-1, :-2] #d2adw2[:, :-2]

#cf = correlation_functions[:-1, :-1]#[:-2, :-2]
```

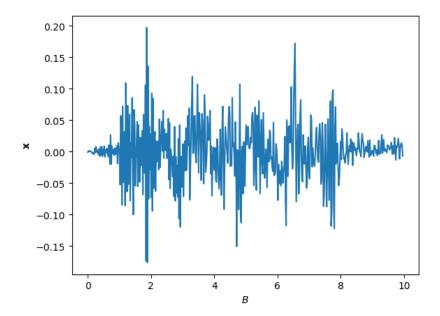


Figure 5. This figure is best left shunned and forgotten.

```
#b = max_d2adw2 #d2adw2[:, :-2]#dadB[:-1, :-2]
#b = dadB[]
b = [np.amax(y) for y in correlation_functions][:-2]
np.shape(b)
(498,)
```

We can now solve this problem by taking the pseudoinverse of the cf variable—the change in the correlation function with a given magnetic field and output frequency—and multiplying it by **b**.

```
ps = np.linalg.pinv(cf)

#x = np.matmul(ps[:-1, :-1], b)
x = np.matmul(ps, b)

x = x / np.linalg.norm(x)

plt.plot(magnetic_fields[:-2], x)
plt.xlabel('$B$')
plt.ylabel('$\mathbf{x}\$')
plt.show()
```

We can then treat \mathbf{x} as the mean change in the correlation function. Looking at it now, $||\mathbf{x}||$ is so comically massive because $\partial_B \alpha = 0$ for most of it. (Perhaps if I cut out the 0s it would be a bit better.)

This project, as you can tell, was far too ambitious given the amount of time that I had. I should have come to office hours earlier in the project, given that I was largely lost on what to choose, aside from this whole mess.

- 1. Scully, M. O. & Zubairy, M. S. *Quantum optics*. (Cambridge University Press, 1994).
- 2. Degen, C. L., Reinhard, F. & Cappellaro, P. Quantum sensing. *Rev. Mod. Phys.* **89**, 035002 (2017).
- 3. Griffiths, D. J. & Schroeter, D. F. *Introduction to quantum mechanics*. (Cambridge University Press, 2018). doi:10.1017/9781316995433.
- 4. Manzano, D. A short introduction to the lindblad master equation. *AIP Advances* **10**, 025106 (2020).