# Quantum Nanotube Array as Photonic Repeater and Sensor: A Novel Architecture for Quantum Communication, Sensing, and Decentralization

#### Paraxiom

March 25, 2025

#### Abstract

This document outlines a conceptual architecture for a quantum repeater and quantum sensor based on arrays of carbon nanotubes with embedded gas cavities and externally coated reflective surfaces. Each nanotube acts as a microscopic cavity capable of maintaining a photon in resonance. The system operates at room temperature without requiring cryogenic cooling, and its polymer matrix provides natural acoustic isolation from environmental vibrations. The system's collective output, when properly aligned, can be externally monitored via interference patterns or field perturbations, making it a candidate for distributed quantum communication, decentralized sensing, and substrate-based quantum information processing.

## 1 Introduction

Quantum communication systems demand devices capable of preserving entanglement and signal integrity over long distances. Nanotube-based architectures may offer new opportunities by enabling extremely compact resonant cavities with scalable array layouts. This document refines our understanding of how such a device could act as both a quantum repeater and a sensor, while embedding decentralization directly into the photonic layer.

## 2 Nanotube Structure

Each nanotube:

- Is cylindrical with a hollow interior.
- Contains a sealed quantum gas (e.g., noble gas or tailored molecular compound).
- Is externally coated with a reflective material (e.g., silver or platinum nanoparticle-based film) to act as a mirror.
- May be positioned in an electromagnetic field for alignment or modulation.
- Is embedded in a polymer matrix to ensure spatial stability, heat dissipation, and mechanical integrity.

#### 2.1 Alternative Materials

Beyond carbon nanotubes, materials such as boron nitride nanotubes (BNNTs) and transition metal dichalcogenide (TMDC) nanotubes (e.g., WS<sub>2</sub>) offer unique properties. BNNTs exhibit excellent thermal stability and can host spin defects suitable for quantum sensing applications [1]. TMDC nanotubes provide diverse electronic and optical characteristics beneficial for various applications [2].

#### 2.2 Geometric Parameters

• Diameter: 1 nm to 10 nm

 $\bullet$  Length:  $100\,\mathrm{nm}$  to  $500\,\mathrm{nm}$ 

• Density: up to  $10^9$  per cm<sup>2</sup>

# 3 Repeating Mechanism

The repeating function arises from the emission, trapping, and re-emission of photons in the nanotube array:

- 1. A photon enters a tube and interacts with the quantum gas.
- 2. Partial absorption and re-emission occur due to quantum transitions.
- 3. Coherent emission is encouraged by synchronized excitation (e.g., electromagnetic or acoustic wavefronts).
- 4. Reflective coatings maintain internal resonance.
- 5. Emission from the ensemble is redirected via carefully shaped geometry.

This allows information-bearing photons to be replicated coherently, acting as a form of quantum repeater.

#### 3.1 Piezoelectric Excitation

To stimulate synchronization across the nanotube ensemble, mechanical excitation may be introduced through embedded piezoelectric layers beneath the polymer matrix. These actuators can generate acoustic wavefronts at precise frequencies, coupling directly into the matrix and modulating the resonance condition of the quantum gas-photon system within each tube. This approach allows non-invasive, field-driven control over emission timing and coherence, and may serve as a viable alternative to laser pumping or external field alignment in decentralized or passive implementations.

# 4 Quantum Sensor Properties

As quantum resonators:

• The tubes are sensitive to external perturbations such as electric fields, pressure, magnetic variations, and acoustic vibrations.

- Frequency shifts in emission spectra can be correlated to physical quantities.
- Coherent ensembles can amplify weak signals through interference.

This renders the array an ultra-sensitive quantum sensor capable of distributed measurement.

## 5 External Readout and Monitoring

Due to the vast number of nanotubes:

- Direct measurement of each tube is impractical.
- Aggregate optical interference (far-field pattern) can be measured via CCD or photodiode array.
- Electrical changes (e.g., capacitance, inductance) across the substrate may be monitored.

The collective emission or field effect of the array offers an ensemble output that encodes global system state.

## 6 Optical Transparency and Diffraction Control

#### 6.1 Matrix Transparency

The surrounding matrix must be optically transparent at the operational wavelengths (e.g., 1310 nm or 1550 nm) to allow for the injection and readout of photons. Suitable matrix materials include optically clear resins or polymers such as polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA), polycarbonate (PC), or silica-infused composites, which do not significantly scatter or absorb light at telecom wavelengths.

#### 6.2 Diffraction-Based Sensing

The collective geometry of the nanotube array introduces natural diffraction effects, which can be harnessed to:

- Encode information via far-field interference patterns.
- Amplify weak signals through constructive interference.
- Detect perturbations in phase or wavelength due to external physical fields.

The array can be designed with regular spacing (akin to a diffraction grating), enabling precise angular dispersion of the output beam. This output can then be analyzed to infer internal state changes or external interactions.

#### 6.3 Photonic Bandgap Control

By varying the spacing, coating thickness, and refractive index contrast between tubes and the matrix, a photonic bandgap structure can be engineered to control light propagation within the composite. This could enable filtering, delay lines, or wavelength-selective resonance within the repeater or sensor system.

#### 6.4 Phonon-Photon Interactions

Within the nanotube architecture, phonons—quantized lattice vibrations—play a crucial role in both the repeating and sensing functions. The interaction between phonons and photons within the CNTs enables additional mechanisms for signal modulation and detection:

- Electro-Phonon Modulation: Electric fields can excite specific phonon modes, which in turn modulate the optical properties of the CNTs, allowing for dynamic tuning of the photonic response without direct optical intervention.
- Thermo-Phononic Effects: Local heating can generate phonons that interact with photons, enabling temperature-dependent control of photonic signals and providing an additional channel for information encoding.
- Phonon-Based Quantum Sensing: The sensitivity of CNTs to phononic interactions enhances sensing capabilities:
  - Strain fluctuations alter phonon modes, enabling detection of mechanical deformations at the nanoscale.
  - Phonon populations vary with temperature, allowing CNTs to function as precise thermal sensors through changes in phonon-induced optical properties.
- **Phonon Engineering:** By designing CNTs with specific chiralities and controlled defect structures, phonon modes can be tailored for optimal interactions with photons, enhancing both signal fidelity and sensing resolution.

The polymer matrix surrounding the nanotubes further mediates phonon propagation, creating collective phononic states that can be leveraged for synchronized excitation across the array. This phonon-mediated approach complements the piezoelectric mechanisms and provides additional pathways for room-temperature quantum operations without requiring cryogenic isolation.

# 7 Potential Applications

- Quantum repeater for long-distance entanglement distribution.
- Ultra-compact QKD nodes embedded in passive surfaces.
- Ambient quantum sensors for magnetic, thermal, vibrational, or acoustic fields.
- Substrate-level quantum state memory for NFTs or identity binding.
- Decentralized optical mesh networks using passive photonic surfaces.

### 8 Conclusion

The proposed carbon nanotube architecture acts as both a quantum repeater and a quantum sensor by leveraging its collective optical and electromagnetic response. It offers a framework for decentralized quantum communication and environmental sensing, embedding quantum functionality directly into substrates. Although still theoretical, this design outlines a plausible low-power, scalable path toward optically-driven, distributed quantum infrastructure.

# Appendix: Decentralized Optical Mesh Networks

Decentralized optical mesh networks are non-hierarchical communication infrastructures wherein optical signals (transmitted via fiber or free-space optics) propagate across a dynamically routed mesh of interconnected nodes. These systems are designed to operate without centralized control, offering fault tolerance, low latency, and resilient communication even under node or link failure.

#### **Key Features**

- Mesh Topology: Each node connects to multiple neighbors, enabling alternative routing paths in case of disruption.
- Local Decision-Making: Routing and failure recovery are managed at the node level using distributed protocols.
- **Self-Healing:** The network autonomously adapts to failures or congestion without requiring a central authority.
- Optical Backbone: High-speed, low-latency communication is achieved using light transmission, either via fiber or free-space.
- Integration with Quantum Systems: Quantum key distribution (QKD) and entangled repeater systems can be embedded into the mesh nodes for enhanced security and coordination.

## Relation to Paraxiom Repeater Array

The proposed carbon nanotube-based repeater arrays are well-suited for deployment within decentralized optical mesh networks due to their:

- Compact, passive architecture enabling node-level integration.
- Sensitivity to environmental and electromagnetic signals.
- Ability to coherently replicate or modulate photonic signals.
- Compatibility with quantum synchronization and QKD schemes.

This architecture enables a substrate-level implementation of distributed quantum communication, further supporting Paraxiom's mission to create decentralized, post-quantum network infrastructures.

### References

- [1] Xingyu Gao, Sumukh Vaidya, Saakshi Dikshit, Peng Ju, Kunhong Shen, Yuanbin Jin, Shixiong Zhang, and Tongcang Li, "Nanotube spin defects for omnidirectional magnetic field sensing," *Nature Communications*, vol. 15, no. 1, p. 7697, 2024. Available: https://www.nature.com/articles/s41467-024-51941-2
- [2] Lena Yadgarov and Reshef Tenne, "Nanotubes from Transition Metal Dichalcogenides: Recent Progress in the Synthesis, Characterization and Electrooptical Properties," *Small*, vol. 16, no. 32, p. 200503, 2020. Available: https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/sml1.202400503

- [3] S.G. Balasubramani et al., "Noble gas encapsulation into carbon nanotubes: Predictions from analytical model and DFT studies," *J. Chem. Phys.*, 141, 184304 (2014).
- [4] D.L. Chen et al., "Gas desorption energies on metallic and semiconducting SWCNTs," *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 135, 7768 (2013).
- [5] B.J. Cox et al., "Mechanics of atoms and fullerenes in SWCNTs," *Proc. R. Soc. A*, 463, 461–477 (2007).
- [6] A.T. Nasrabadi and M. Foroutan, "Polymer interaction with boron nitride nanotubes," *J. Phys. Chem. B*, 114, 15429 (2010).
- [7] M. Foroutan, "Interfacial binding in carbon nanotube-polymer systems," J. Phys. Chem. B, 114, 5320 (2010).
- [8] Nanorh.com, "Platinum coated carbon nanotubes: Applications in catalysis and energy storage," Retrieved 2025-03-25. https://www.nanorh.com/product/platinum-coated-carbon-nanotubes-pt-cnt/