Ion-Based Quantum Sensor for Optical Cavity Photon Numbers

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We dispersively couple a single trapped ion to an optical cavity to extract information about the cavity photon-number distribution in a nondestructive way. The photon-number-dependent ac Stark shift experienced by the ion is measured via Ramsey spectroscopy. We use these measurements first to obtain the ion-cavity interaction strength. Next, we reconstruct the cavity photon-number distribution for coherent states and for a state with mixed thermal-coherent statistics, finding overlaps above 99% with the calibrated states.

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Cavity quantum electrodynamics (cavity QED) provides a conceptually simple and powerful platform for probing the quantized interaction between light and matter [1]. Early experiments opened a window into the dynamics of coherent atom–photon interactions, first through observations of collective Rabi oscillations and vacuum Rabi splittings [2–5] and later at the single-atom level [6–11]. More recently, building on measurements of the cavity field via the atomic phase [12, 13], cavity photon statistics have been analyzed in experiments with Rydberg atoms or superconducting qubits in microwave resonators [14–17], culminating in the generation and stabilization of nonclassical cavity field states [18–24]. These experiments operate in a dispersive regime, in which information about the cavity field can be extracted via the qubits with minimal disturbance to the field [1].

Dispersive experiments often operate in a regime in which one photon induces a significant atomic phase shift, the so-called strong pull regime [25]. However, interesting physical phenomena have also been explored with microwave cavities in the weak-pull regime, in which the small phase shift allows partial information about the atomic state to be acquired without collapse onto an eigenstate. Examples include the observation of quantum trajectories [26], the stabilization of Rabi oscillations via quantum feedback [27], and the entanglement of remote qubits [28].

In parallel, it was pointed out that the Jaynes–Cummings Hamiltonian that describes cavity QED also describes the interaction of light and ions in a harmonic trapping potential [29]. This interaction underpins the generation of nonclassical states of motion [30–33] and the implementation of gates between trapped ions [34]. In analogy to the phase shifts experienced by qubits due to the cavity field, ions experience quantized ac Stark shifts due to their coupling to the harmonic trap potential [35]. These shifts have been characterized using techniques similar to those introduced in Ref. [12]. Here, we have transferred the principle of dispersive measurement to an ion qubit coupled to a cavity. In contrast to experiments with flying Rydberg atoms, the ion is strongly confined; in contrast to both Rydberg and superconducting-qubit experiments, our cavity operates in the optical regime.

We employ a single trapped 40Ca+ ion as a quantum sensor [36] to extract information about cavity photons without destroying them. Via Ramsey spectroscopy of the ion, we measure the phase shift and dephasing of the ion’s state, both of which result from the interaction of the ion with the cavity field. The mean phase shift is proportional to the mean cavity photon occupation number, due to the ac Stark effect, and the dephasing is due to the cavity photon state not being a pure number state. Reconstructing the cavity photon-number distribution from these measurements allows us to determine the mean and the width of the distribution and thus to distinguish between states with coherent photons statistics and mixed thermal-coherent statistics.

The ion is modelled as a three-level system in which two states, |S⟩ = |4S1/2, J = 1⟩ and |D⟩ = |3D5/2, J = 1⟩, comprise a qubit (Fig. 1). The cavity is dispersively coupled to the transition between |D⟩ and the third state, |P⟩ = |4P3/2, J = 1⟩, with a detuning Δ = 2π × 125 MHz. The quantization axis is defined by a magnetic field of 4.06 G in the plane perpendicular to the cavity axis. The relevant ion–cavity parameters are given by \( (g, \kappa, \gamma) = 2\pi \times (0.968, 0.068, 11.5) \) MHz, where \( g \) is the ion–cavity coupling strength calculated from the cavity properties and the atomic transition, \( \kappa \) is the cavity field decay rate, and \( \gamma \) is the atomic decay rate of state |P⟩. Here, we assume that the ion is positioned at the waist and in an antinode of a TEM00 mode of the cavity [38, 39]. The expected frequency shift of the cavity resonance induced by the dispersively coupled ion is \( g^2/\Delta = 2\pi \times 7.50 \) kHz, which is much smaller than \( \kappa \), such that we operate in the weak-
FIG. 1. (a) Experimental set-up. A single ion is coupled to the cavity, which is driven by a weak laser field (cavity drive). The cavity drive laser (along \( \hat{y} \)) is polarized parallel to the quantization axis, in the direction \( \hat{x} + \hat{z} \). The Ramsey spectroscopy laser propagates along \( -\hat{y} \). Cavity output photons are detected by a single-photon-counting module (SPCM). (b) Energy level diagram of the \( ^{40}\text{Ca}^+ \) with the relevant levels \( |S\rangle, |D\rangle, |P\rangle, |P'\rangle \equiv |3^2D_{3/2}, m_J = +3/2\rangle \). Levels \( |D\rangle, |P\rangle, |P'\rangle \) experience photon-number-dependent ac Stark shifts due to the cavity field, indicated in grey. The frequencies of the bare cavity and the drive laser are \( \omega_C \) and \( \omega_L \), respectively, and \( \Delta \) is the difference between \( \omega_C \) and the transition frequency from \( |D\rangle \) to \( |P\rangle \).

250 times for each phase to obtain the ion population in \( |D\rangle \).

The mean population in \( |D\rangle \) as a function of the phase \( \phi \) is plotted in Fig. 2(a) for three values of \( \langle n \rangle \). As \( \langle n \rangle \) is increased, two features emerge: the Ramsey fringe is shifted, and its contrast is reduced. The phase shift is directly proportional to \( \langle n \rangle \), as shown in Fig. 2(b), with proportionality factor \( g^2/\Delta \). For \( \langle n \rangle = 0.8(2) \) and 1.6(3), the phase of the qubit is shifted by 0.57(3)\( \pi \) and 1.12(7)\( \pi \), respectively. A single photon only interacts with the ion during its time in the cavity, which has a mean value \( \tau_C \), corresponding to a phase shift of the ion by \( \tau_C g^2/\Delta = 0.018\pi \). The accumulated effect of all successive photons injected into the cavity accounts for the total phase shift of the qubit.

The measured phase shift as a function of \( \langle n \rangle \) can be used to determine the ion-cavity coupling strength. This method is independent of the single-atom cooperativity and thus is valid also for systems in intermediate and even weak coupling regimes. In such regimes, observing the vacuum Rabi splitting is not possible, making it difficult to measure the coupling strength directly. As we have independently determined all ion-cavity parameters and calibrated the photo-detection efficiency, we fit a theoretical model to the data with the coupling strength as the only free parameter. In this way, we extract the experimental value of \( g = 2\pi \times 0.96(4) \) MHz from the data displayed in Fig. 2(b), in agreement with the theoretical value of \( g = 2\pi \times 0.968 \) MHz. We performed the same set of measurements on another \( ^{40}\text{Ca}^+ \) transition, using the states \( |S\rangle, |D'\rangle \equiv |3^2D_{3/2}, m_J = +3/2\rangle \), and \( |P'\rangle \equiv |4^2P_{3/2}, m_J = +3/2\rangle \) (Fig. 2(c)); the coherence time for the transition \( |S\rangle - |D'\rangle \) is 510 \( \mu \)s. For the transition \( |D'\rangle - |P'\rangle \), we expect \( g' = 2\pi \times 0.790 \) MHz and extract \( g'_{\text{exp}} = 2\pi \times 0.77(4) \) MHz. From the two independent measurements on two transitions, we thus see that this new method determines the atom-cavity coupling strength in agreement with theory.
that could be accessed, e.g., with homodyne or heterodyne detection. All such quantum measurements imply some amount of backaction [25], which in our case takes the form of qubit decoherence. Note that in the absence of a cavity, photons would also induce an ac Stark shift of the ion’s states, but due to the weakness of the free-space interaction, the effect would be too small to be measured at the single-photon level.

Spontaneous emission contributes to decoherence for both the cavity-drive measurement of Fig. 2 and free-space measurements. We quantify this effect in a reference measurement using an “ion-drive” configuration: The cavity is translated by a few mm along \( \hat{x} \) in order to decouple it from the ion. The ion is driven with a laser beam with frequency \( \omega_L = \omega_C \). We perform Ramsey measurements with the cavity interaction replaced by the interaction of the ion with this ion-drive laser. The Ramsey fringe contrast is reduced due to off-resonant excitation of the population from \( |D\rangle \) to \( |P\rangle \), followed by spontaneous emission. Fig. 3 compares the Ramsey fringe contrast as a function of the phase shift for both the ion-drive and cavity-drive measurements. A given phase shift corresponds to the same ac Stark shift at the ion in both measurements. The contrast of the cavity-drive data is smaller than that of the ion-drive data because in the former case, both spontaneous emission and decoherence induced by the cavity photons play a role. We therefore conclude from this reference measurement that decoherence is not just caused by spontaneous emission; rather, a significant contribution to decoherence of the ion qubit stems from interaction with the cavity field via the backaction of the cavity photons on the ion.

Next, we reconstruct the cavity photon number distribution with a maximum likelihood algorithm [37]. This algorithm finds the photon number distribution that is most likely to have interacted with the ion. It is based on a model, in which the coherent cavity drive with mean photon number \( n_{\text{coh}} \) is described by an amplitude \( \eta = \kappa \sqrt{n_{\text{coh}}} \), and additional number fluctuations are described by a thermal bath with mean photon number \( n_{\text{th}} \) corresponding to an incoherent contribution to the driving [41]. The photon number distribution of the intracavity field is then determined by the two parameters \( \eta \) and \( n_{\text{th}} \). The result of the reconstruction is shown in Fig. 4. For the three Ramsey fringes measured on the \( |D\rangle - |P\rangle \) transition, displayed in Fig. 2(a), the reconstruction yields a squared statistical overlap (SSO) \( \left( \sum_n \sqrt{p_{\text{rec}}(n)p_{\text{cal}}(n)} \right)^2 \) between the reconstructed distribution \( p_{\text{rec}}(n) \) and the independently calibrated input state distribution \( p_{\text{cal}}(n) \) above 99% (Figs. 4(a)-(c)). The reconstructed state shown in Fig. 4(a) cor-
responds to the vacuum state, and the states in Fig. 4(b) and (c) are coherent states, with Mandel $Q$ parameters $Q = \left(\langle n^2 \rangle - \langle n \rangle^2 \right) / \langle n \rangle - 1$ of $0.00^{+0.02}_{-0.01}$, $-0.03^{+0.07}_{-0.07}$, and $0.04^{+0.04}_{-0.05}$, respectively [42]. The uncertainty of the reconstructed distribution is dominated by quantum projection noise in the Ramsey measurement [37].

This reconstruction method is also applied to a fourth state which is generated by applying amplitude noise to the cavity drive laser via an acousto-optic modulator. The noise has a bandwidth of 10 MHz $\gg 2\kappa$ and can therefore be considered as white noise. The reconstructed state, shown in Fig. 4(d), can be described by mixed coherent and thermal statistics: From the calibration of the added noise [37], a value of $Q = 0.64^{+0.06}_{-0.05}$ is expected, while the reconstruction yields $Q = 0.70^{+0.07}_{-0.10}$. The result thus shows super-Poissonian intracavity photon statistics caused by the added thermal noise and is clearly distinct from the statistics of a coherent state. Note that our sensing technique is nondestructive because the dispersive interaction with the ion does not annihilate the measured intracavity photons.

An extension of this work would be to reconstruct the full density matrix of arbitrary states of the cavity field. For this purpose, we require a displacement operation of the cavity field, as has been demonstrated in microwave cavities [18]. With the target field to be measured populating the cavity, a second field as a local oscillator would be sent to the cavity. The total field interacting with the ion would be the sum of the known (local oscillator) and unknown (target) fields, and by varying the known field and measuring the state of the ion, one would be able to extract the full target field density matrix.

We have focused here on measuring the ion’s state to extract information about the cavity field. However, the scenario can be reversed: quantum nondemolition measurements of the ion’s state become possible in our setup via heterodyne measurement of the cavity output field, allowing single quantum trajectories of the ion’s electronic state to be monitored and the qubit state to be stabilized, as demonstrated with superconducting qubits [26, 27]. Furthermore, the strong-pull regime ($\gamma^2/\Delta > \kappa$) would be accessible with a higher finesse cavity [25, 26, 37]. In this regime, the qubit spectrum splits into several lines, each corresponding to a different photon-number component [15, 43], providing a route to engineer nonclassical cavity-field states in the optical domain. Other possible extensions include increasing the sensitivity of the measurement by using several ions via their collective coupling to the cavity [44] or via their entanglement [45].
In summary, we have implemented an ion-based analyzer for the statistics of optical photons that does not destroy the photons. Information about the intracavity photon number is imprinted onto the state of an ion qubit via a dispersive interaction. Ramsey spectroscopy and the maximum likelihood method are used to reconstruct the intracavity photon statistics, yielding results in excellent agreement with the expected distributions. Our work represents the first such nondestructive probing of cavity photon distributions in the optical domain, providing tools for the generation of nonclassical optical states.

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[37] See Supplemental Material at [URL will be inserted by publisher] for details on how the system is modelled; the reconstruction algorithm; the photon number calibration, including thermal drive; an estimation of the phase resolution; an estimation of spontaneous emission; and a parameter estimation in the strong-pull regime. Supplemental Material includes Refs. [35], [41], and [46-55].


