Quantum imaging and metrology with incoherent light

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What metrology improvements can we achieve with incoherent light and photodetection?

- Quantum metrology is typically presented in terms of highly coherent quantum states, such as NOON states.
- Such states are susceptible to noise, and typically very difficult to make.
- Can we get metrological (quantum) improvements with incoherent light?

Considerations for incoherent sources

- Thermal sources and single-photon sources.
- Mode shapes and coherence properties become crucial.



We present a few examples of imaging and metrology with incoherent light:



Resolution beyond the Abbe limit from intensity correlations;



optical thermometry via intensity measurements;



single-photon metrology probes.

Photon correlations in multiple detectors increase the resolution beyond Abbe limit.



Measure light intensity in *N* detectors placed at very particular positions, the so-called *magic angles*.

Coincidence counts change as we sweep detector 1 through a range of angles.



The experimental setup:





Photon correlations in multiple detectors increase the resolution beyond Abbe limit.







The modulation scales with N - 1, where N is the number of detectors. This allows us to measure the distance dbetween the sources with increased precision.

We can beat the Abbe limit using higher-order photon correlations.



• Classically, the resolution limit is given by

$$d_{\min} = \lambda/(2\mathcal{A})$$

• With *M* the number of fringes, we can calculate the resolution limit as

$$d = \frac{M\lambda}{2\mathcal{A}(N-1)},$$

$$\Delta d = \Delta M \left| \frac{\partial M}{\partial d} \right|^{-1} < \frac{\lambda}{4\mathcal{A}(N-1)}.$$

The aperture is determined by the position of the detectors.





Can we use these higher order correlations for increased precision in imaging?

We image the size of a disk in the far field using intensity correlation measurements.



Uniform circular source with radius a;

pseudo-thermal, monochromatic light with wave number k; a distance d from the imaging plane.



There are a number of methods for combining data of multiple pixels.



Pearce et al., *Phys Rev A* **92**, 043831 (2015).



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Image Data Processing



Calculate:

- n-point correlations functions $g^{(n)}$ for the disk;
- covariance matrix $Cov[g^{(n)}(x),g^{(n)}(x')]$ from $g^{(n)}$;
- Fisher information $I_n(a)$ from $Cov[g^{(n)}(x),g^{(n)}(x')];$
- precision in the radius *a* from $I_n(a)$.

The *n*-point correlation functions are easily calculated.



The n-point correlation function of a disk emitting pseudo-thermal (monochromatic) light is:

$$g^{(n)}(x) = (n-1)! + (n-1)(n-1)! \left(\frac{2J_1\left(\frac{ak|x|}{d}\right)}{\left(\frac{ak|x|}{d}\right)}\right)^2$$

The visibility is given by:

$$\mathcal{V} = \frac{g_{\max}^{(n)} - g_{\min}^{(n)}}{g_{\max}^{(n)} + g_{\min}^{(n)}} = \frac{n-1}{n+1}$$

We must calculate the covariance matrix and the Fisher information



The covariance matrix between the n-point correlation functions at different positions is:

$$\mathbf{C}_{ij} = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{k} [g^{(2n)}(x_i, x_j) - g^{(n)}(x_i)g^{(n)}(x_j)]$$

= $\frac{1}{N} [g^{(2n)}(x_i, x_j) - g^{(n)}(x_i)g^{(n)}(x_j)].$

This is used to calculate the Fisher information:

$$I(\alpha) = \left(\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \alpha}\right)^T \mathbf{C}^{-1} \left(\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \alpha}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{tr} \left(\mathbf{C}^{-1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{C}}{\partial \alpha} \mathbf{C}^{-1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{C}}{\partial \alpha}\right)$$



Resolution of the disk radius



Pearce et al., Phys Rev A 92, 043831 (2015).

Distributed reference pixels give better results than fixed reference pixels.



Pixel separation has a large effect on the variance:



Pearce et al., *Phys Rev A* **92**, 043831 (2015).

Remarks



- Higher-order correlations increase the imaging resolution, even for classical light.
- However, higher orders become increasingly computationally intensive.
- The ultimately achieved precision is quite sensitive to the type of imaging considered, and to correlations in the data (such as optical coherences).
- What is the *quantum* Fisher information?

Quantum description of black body sources.



Black body sources are described by the density matrix

$$\rho = \bigotimes_{\mathbf{k}} \rho_{\mathbf{k}} \qquad \rho_{\mathbf{k}} = \sum_{m_{\mathbf{k}}=0}^{\infty} \frac{\langle \hat{n}_{\mathbf{k}} \rangle^{m_{\mathbf{k}}}}{(1 + \langle \hat{n}_{\mathbf{k}} \rangle)^{m_{\mathbf{k}}+1}} |m_{\mathbf{k}} \rangle \langle m_{\mathbf{k}}|$$

- The expectation values $\langle \hat{n}_k \rangle$ are completely determined by the temperature of the source.
- Our aim is to find the measurement that achieves the quantum Cramer-Rao bound for temperature measurements.

The state observed in the far field depends on the detection volume.





- Suppose we observe the state ρ in the far field of the radiating object.

The state observed in the far field depends on the detection volume.



- We can divide this spectrum up into independent spectral modes of spectral width $1/\tau$.
- The transverse coherence area of each spectral mode is proportional to $\Omega\nu$.
- Below a certain frequency, every spectral mode has a coherence area larger than *A*.

The state observed in the far field depends on the detection volume.



- We define mode operators \hat{a}_i , \hat{a}_i^{\dagger} for each frequency mode.
- Each mode is Gaussian so the state is completely characterised by the first and second moments,

$$\boldsymbol{a} = (\hat{a}_1, \hat{a}_1^{\dagger}, \dots, \hat{a}_n, \hat{a}_n^{\dagger})^{\mathrm{T}}$$

$$\mu = \langle a \rangle \qquad \qquad \lambda = a - \mu$$

$$\Sigma_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\langle a_i a_j \rangle + \langle a_j a_i \rangle \right]$$



• For thermal modes the first moments are all 0:

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}=0$$

• Due to the independence of each spectral mode, the covariance matrix has the form

$$\Sigma = \oplus_{\nu} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \langle \hat{n}_{\nu} \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \\ \langle \hat{n}_{\nu} \rangle + \frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- The average number of photons in the frequency mode centred on ν depends on the fraction of that mode volume inside the state ρ .



- The average number of photons in spectral mode $\boldsymbol{\nu}$ is given by

$$\langle \hat{n}_{\nu} \rangle = \frac{2\Omega_{S}A\nu^{2}}{c^{2}} \left(\frac{1}{\mathrm{e}^{\beta h\nu} - 1} \right) \qquad \qquad \Omega_{S} = \frac{A_{S}}{R^{2}}$$

- If Ω_S is also unknown, we must attempt to estimate this simultaneously.
- If we are uninterested in Ω_S , we must treat it as a nuisance parameter.

• the QFI for a Gaussian state is given by [1]

$$\left[\mathbf{I}_{Q}\right]_{ij} = \frac{1}{2}\mathfrak{M}_{\alpha\beta,\gamma\kappa}^{-1}\partial_{i}\Sigma^{\alpha\beta}\partial_{j}\Sigma^{\gamma\kappa} + \Sigma_{\alpha\beta}^{-1}\partial_{i}\mu^{\alpha}\partial_{j}\mu^{\beta}$$

$$\mathfrak{M} = \Sigma \otimes \Sigma + \frac{1}{4} \Omega \otimes \Omega \qquad \qquad \Omega = \underset{j=1}{\overset{n}{\oplus}} i \sigma_{y}$$

• The SLD for parameter θ_i is given by

$$\mathcal{L}_{i} = \frac{1}{2} \mathfrak{M}_{\gamma\kappa,\alpha\beta}^{-1} \partial_{i} \Sigma^{\alpha\beta} (\lambda^{\gamma} \lambda^{\kappa} - \Sigma^{\gamma\kappa}) + \Sigma_{\gamma\kappa}^{-1} \partial_{i} \mu^{\kappa} \lambda^{\gamma}$$

[1] Y. Gao and H. Lee, The European Physical Journal D 68, 347 (2014)



 The SLD and QFI for single mode black bodies are therefore given by

$$\mathcal{L}_{i} = \sum_{l=1}^{m} \frac{(\partial_{i} \langle n_{\nu_{l}} \rangle)(\langle n_{\nu_{l}} \rangle - \hat{n}_{\nu_{l}})}{\langle n_{\nu_{l}} \rangle + \langle n_{\nu_{l}} \rangle^{2}}$$

$$\mathbf{I}_{Q}^{(\nu)} = \sum_{l=1}^{m} \frac{1}{\langle n_{\nu_{l}} \rangle + \langle n_{\nu_{l}} \rangle^{2}} \nabla_{\theta} \langle n_{\nu_{l}} \rangle (\nabla_{\theta} \langle n_{\nu_{l}} \rangle)^{\mathrm{T}}$$

• The summation is due to the independence of modes.



• For a single spectral mode, the QFI matrix for parameters $\theta = (\Omega_S, T)^T$ is non-invertible

$$\mathbf{I}_{Q}^{(\nu)} = \frac{1}{\langle n_{\nu} \rangle + \langle n_{\nu} \rangle^{2}} \nabla_{\theta} \langle n_{\nu} \rangle (\nabla_{\theta} \langle n_{\nu} \rangle)^{\mathrm{T}}$$

 We cannot distinguish between large cold objects and small hot objects



- To estimate $\theta = (\Omega_S, T)^T$ we must use at least two spectral modes.
- The extension to multiple parameters generally increases the variance of a parameter estimation problem.
- To make a fair comparison between the two strategies we must also assume that the single parameter problem utilises two spectral modes

$$\langle (\Delta \theta_i)^2 \rangle \ge \frac{1}{\sum_{l=1}^m \mathbf{I}_Q^{(\nu_l)}} \qquad \langle (\Delta \theta_i)^2 \rangle \ge \left[\sum_{l=1}^m \mathbf{I}_Q^{(\nu_l)} \right]^{-1}$$



• We plot the single and multi-parameter variance of *T* for 2, 3, 4, and 5 spectral modes.



• The optimal measurement is still photon counting.

The temperature precision is a complicated function of the measured frequencies.



We must choose the frequency modes that optimise the precision.





Increasing the measurement time increases the precision of our estimates.



• By increasing the observation time τ , we observe more spectral modes in a given frequency interval.



Remarks



- Thermometry involves nuisance parameters that need to be taken into account when calculating the QFI.
- This requires measurements in multiple frequency modes.
- There is a broad range of frequency modes that give near optimal precision.
- Photon counting is optimal for thermometry, even in the presence of nuisance parameters.

Use multi-photon correlations to obtain increased sensing resolution.







Precisely placed photon emitters

A one-dimensional array of single photon sources.



• Consider a string of equidistant single photon sources.



• The sources have an intrinsic Gaussian uncertainty in position:

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\mathcal{N}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\boldsymbol{x} \, e^{\left[-\frac{1}{4s^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \mu_i)^2\right]} \hat{\boldsymbol{a}}^{\dagger}(\boldsymbol{x}) \cdot |\boldsymbol{0}\rangle$$

We can calculate the quantum Fisher information for the lattice constant *d*.



• The QFI is given by

$$\mathcal{I}_Q \le 4\left\{ \langle \psi'(d) | \psi'(d) \rangle - \left| \langle \psi(d) | \psi'(d) \rangle \right|^2 \right\}.$$

• and the derivative of the state with respect to d is

$$|\psi'\rangle = \frac{1}{2s^2\mathcal{N}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\boldsymbol{x} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{N} c_k (x_k - \mu_k) \right) e^{\left[-\frac{1}{4s^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \mu_i)^2 \right]} \hat{\boldsymbol{a}}^{\dagger}(\boldsymbol{x}) \cdot |\boldsymbol{0}\rangle,$$

$$|\mathcal{N}|^2 = e^{dA/2s^2} \sum_{\sigma} \int_{-L_1}^{L_1} d\mathbf{x} \, e^{-\frac{1}{2s^2} \sum_{i=1}^N \left[x_i^2 - x_i (\mu_{\sigma(i)} + \mu_i) \right]}.$$

The QFI increases steadily with larger numbers of single photon sources *N*.





Ν



The quantum Cramér-Rao bound.



How can we turn this large QFI into a practical probe system?



- There is a lot of information about the lattice distance *d* in the state of *N* photons.
- In the far field we have access to only a fraction of this information.
- What is the QFI in the far field and what is the corresponding optimal measurement?
- Stretch and skew generators?

Conclusions

- There is extra information in higher-order correlations, even in classical light.
- To get this information, we must carefully model the nuisance parameters.
- Adding single photon sources in an array gives a large increase in the QFI.
- The question is how to get it out.