

Note for *Quantum Optics*: Correlations

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Reference:

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Ch. 3, 4, in "*Mesoscopic Quantum Optics*," by Y. Yamamoto and A. Imamoglu.

Ch. 6, in "*The Quantum Theory of Light*," by R. Loudon.

Ch. 5, 7, in "*Introductory Quantum Optics*," by C. Gerry and P. Knight.

Ch. 5, 8, in "*Quantum Optics*," by D. Wall and G. Milburn.

I. CLASSICAL CORRELATION FUNCTIONS

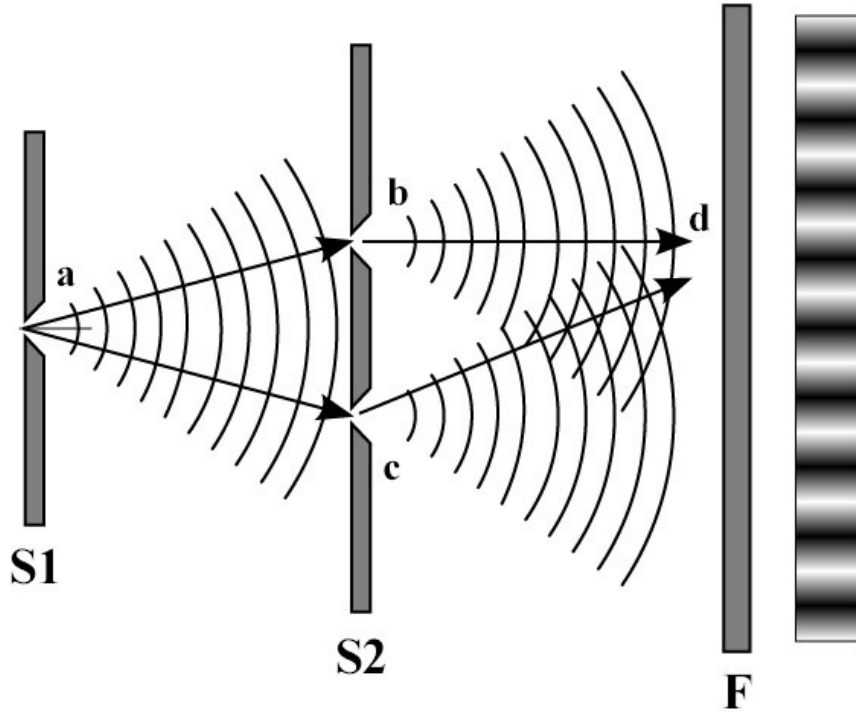


FIG. 1: Young's interferometer.

Consider Young's two-slit interference, the intensity at the output is described by

$$I(r) = \langle |E(r, t)|^2 \rangle = \langle |K_1 E(r_1, t_1) + K_2 E(r_2, t_2)|^2 \rangle, \quad (1)$$

where K_1 and K_2 are two constants, and time-average is defined as

$$\langle f(t) \rangle = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T f(t) dt, \quad (2)$$

a stationary average. The *interference* pattern has the form

$$I(r) = I_1 + I_2 + 2\sqrt{I_1 I_2} \text{Re}[\gamma^{(1)}(x_1, x_2)], \quad (3)$$

where $I_1 = |K_1|^2 \langle |E(r_1, t_1)|^2 \rangle$ and $I_2 = |K_2|^2 \langle |E(r_2, t_2)|^2 \rangle$ are the background (D.C) intensities. Here, the mutual correlation function, $\gamma^{(1)}(x_1, x_2)$ with $x_i = r_i, t_i$ is introduced:

$$\gamma^{(1)}(x_1, x_2) = \frac{\langle E^*(x_1)E(x_2) \rangle}{\sqrt{\langle |E(x_1)|^2 \rangle \langle |E(x_2)|^2 \rangle}}. \quad (4)$$

With such a correlation function, one can define the *degree of coherence* as

- complete coherence:

$$|\gamma^{(1)}(x_1, x_2)| = 1.$$

- partial coherence,

$$0 < |\gamma^{(1)}(x_1, x_2)| < 1.$$

- complete incoherence:

$$|\gamma^{(1)}(x_1, x_2)| = 0.$$

A. Chaotic light

If we apply a *Lorentzian* correlation function, that is

$$\langle E^*(t)E(t + \tau) \rangle = E_0^2 e^{-i\omega_0 t} e^{-|\tau|/\tau_0}, \quad (5)$$

then the corresponding classical correlation function

$$|\gamma(\tau)| = e^{-2|\tau|/\tau_0}. \quad (6)$$

This is a typical model for chaotic light, with a given correlation time τ_0 .

II. QUANTUM PHOTODETECTORS

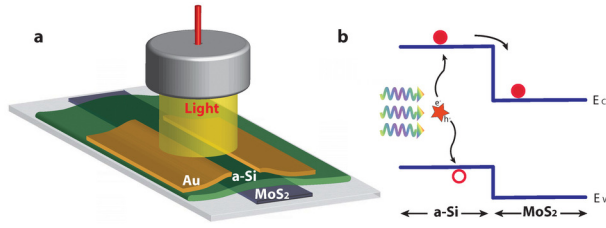


FIG. 2: A illustration of semiconductor photodetector.

With the same analogy, we consider the single-atom detector couples to the quantized field through the dipole interaction,

$$\hat{H}_I = -\hat{d} \cdot \hat{E}(r, t).$$

Here, we assume that the atom is initially in a ground state $|g\rangle$ and the field is in some state $|\beta\rangle$. Upon the absorption of radiation, the atom makes a transition to the state $|e\rangle$ and the field to the state $|f\rangle$, then

$$\langle f | \langle e | \hat{H}_I | g \rangle | i \rangle \propto -\langle e | \hat{d} | g \rangle \langle f | \hat{a} | i \rangle, \quad (7)$$

where $\hat{E}(r, t) = \sum_j c_j [\hat{a}_j(t) + \hat{a}_j^\dagger(t)] = \hat{E}^{(+)}(r, t) + \hat{E}^{(-)}(r, t)$. The term associated with $|\langle e | \hat{d} | g \rangle|^2$ is the *quantum efficiency* of a photodetector.

The probability that the detector measures all the possible final states,

$$\sum_f |\langle f | \hat{a} | i \rangle|^2 = \langle i | \hat{E}^{(-)}(r, t) \cdot \hat{E}^{(+)}(r, t) | i \rangle. \quad (8)$$

If we define a density operator,

$$\hat{\rho} = \sum_i P_i |i\rangle \langle i|, \quad (9)$$

then the expectation value can be replaced by the ensemble average,

$$\text{Tr}\{\hat{\rho} \hat{E}^{(-)}(r, t) \cdot \hat{E}^{(+)}(r, t)\} = \sum_i P_i \langle i | \hat{E}^{(-)}(r, t) \cdot \hat{E}^{(+)}(r, t) | i \rangle. \quad (10)$$

III. FIRST-ORDER QUANTUM CORRELATION FUNCTION

With the analogy to the *classical* correlation function, we have the first-order quantum correlation function by normalizing it to one:

$$g^{(1)}(x_1, x_2) = \frac{G^{(1)}(x_1, x_2)}{[G^{(1)}(x_1, x_1)G^{(1)}(x_2, x_2)]^{1/2}}, \quad (11)$$

where $G^{(1)}(x_1, x_2) = \text{Tr}\{\hat{\rho}\hat{E}^{(-)}(x_1) \cdot \hat{E}^{(+)}(x_2)\}$. Again, as the classical one, we have the degree of coherence, if

- complete coherence:

$$|g^{(1)}(x_1, x_2)| = 1.$$

- partial coherence,

$$0 < |g^{(1)}(x_1, x_2)| < 1.$$

- complete incoherence:

$$|g^{(1)}(x_1, x_2)| = 0.$$

Consider a single-mode plane wave, $\hat{E}^{(+)}(x) = iK\hat{a}e^{i(k \cdot r - \omega t)}$. Then

1. If the field is in a number state $|n\rangle$, we have

$$G^{(1)}(x, x) = K^2 n, \quad G^{(1)}(x_1, x_2) = K^2 n e^{i[k(r_1 - r_2) - \omega(t_1 - t_2)]}, \quad (12)$$

and

$$|g^{(1)}(x_1, x_2)| = 1. \quad (13)$$

2. If the field is a coherent state $|\alpha\rangle$, we have

$$G^{(1)}(x, x) = K^2 |\alpha|^2, \quad G^{(1)}(x_1, x_2) = K^2 |\alpha|^2 e^{i[k(r_1 - r_2) - \omega(t_1 - t_2)]}, \quad (14)$$

and

$$|g^{(1)}(x_1, x_2)| = 1, \quad (15)$$

IV. CLASSICAL SECOND-ORDER CORRELATION FUNCTION

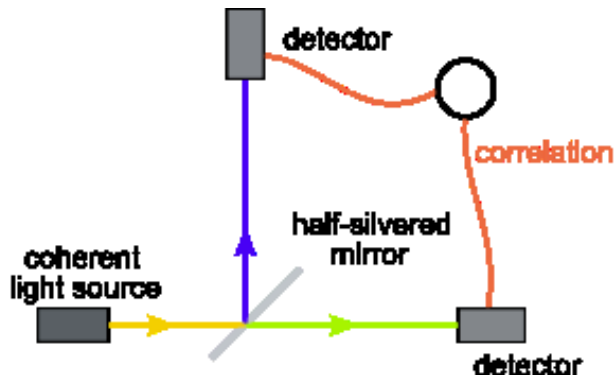


FIG. 3: Hanbury Brown and Twiss (HBT) interferometer.

We can extend the concept about correlation function to higher-orders. The classical second-order coherence function is defined as

$$\gamma^{(2)}(\tau) = \frac{\langle I(t)I(t+\tau) \rangle}{\langle I(t) \rangle^2} = \frac{\langle E^*(t)E^*(t+\tau)E(t+\tau)E(t) \rangle}{\langle E^*(t)E(t) \rangle^2}. \quad (16)$$

If the detectors are at different distances from the beam splitter,

$$\gamma^{(2)}(x_1, x_2) = \frac{\langle I(x_1)I(x_2) \rangle}{\langle I(x_1) \rangle \langle I(x_2) \rangle} = \frac{\langle E^*(x_1)E^*(x_2)E(x_2)E(x_1) \rangle}{\langle |E(x_1)|^2 \rangle \langle |E(x_2)|^2 \rangle}. \quad (17)$$

The field is said to be classical coherence to second order if $|\gamma^{(1)}(x_1, x_2)| = 1$ and $\gamma^{(2)}(x_1, x_2) = 1$, with the factorization,

$$\langle E^*(x_1)E^*(x_2)E(x_2)E(x_1) \rangle = \langle |E(x_1)|^2 \rangle \langle |E(x_2)|^2 \rangle. \quad (18)$$

For zero time-delay coherence function, we have

$$\gamma^{(2)}(0) = \frac{\langle I(t)^2 \rangle}{\langle I(t) \rangle^2}. \quad (19)$$

For a sequence of N measurements taken at times t_1, t_2, \dots, t_N ,

$$\langle I(t) \rangle = \frac{I(t_1) + I(t_2) + \dots + I(t_N)}{N}, \quad \text{and} \quad \langle I(t)^2 \rangle = \frac{I(t_1)^2 + I(t_2)^2 + \dots + I(t_N)^2}{N}. \quad (20)$$

From Cauchy's inequality, $(I_1 - I_2)^2 \geq 0$,

$$2I(t_1)I(t_2) \leq I(t_1)^2 + I(t_2)^2,$$

we have

$$\langle I(t)^2 \rangle \geq \langle I(t) \rangle^2, \quad \text{or} \quad 1 \leq \gamma^{(2)}(0) < \infty. \quad (21)$$

For non-zero delay, we have

$$[I(t_1)I(t_1+\tau) + \dots + I(t_N)I(t_N+\tau)]^2 \leq [I(t_1)^2 + \dots + I(t_N)^2][I(t_1+\tau)^2 + \dots + I(t_N+\tau)^2], \quad (22)$$

then

$$\langle I(t)I(t+\tau) \rangle \leq \langle I(t) \rangle^2, \quad \text{or} \quad 1 \leq \gamma^{(2)}(\tau) \leq \gamma^{(2)}(0), \quad (23)$$

where $1 \leq \gamma^{(2)}(0) < \infty$.

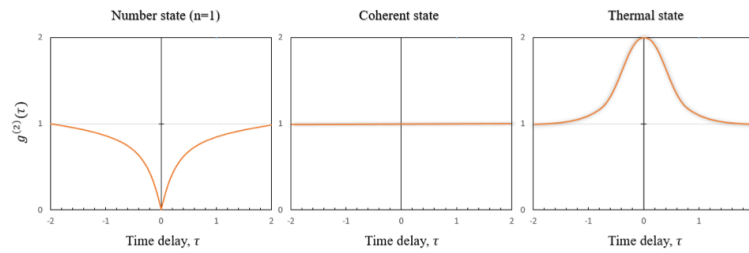


FIG. 4: Left: Photon anti-bunching effect from single photon source; Right: Photon bunching effect from thermal states.

1. For a light source containing a large number of independently photons,

$$\gamma^{(2)}(\tau) = 1 + |\gamma^{(1)}(\tau)|^2. \quad (24)$$

2. Since $0 \leq |\gamma^{(1)}(\tau)|^2 \leq 1$, it follows that for all kinds of chaotic light.

$$1 \leq \gamma^{(2)}(\tau) \leq 2. \quad (25)$$

3. For light source with a Lorentzian spectrum,

$$\gamma^{(2)}(\tau) = 1 + e^{-2|\tau|/\tau_0}. \quad (26)$$

4. For $\tau \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\gamma^{(2)}(\tau) \rightarrow 1. \quad (27)$$

5. For zero delay, $\tau \rightarrow 0$,

$$\gamma^{(2)}(\tau) \rightarrow 2. \quad (28)$$

6. Hanbury Brown and Twiss experiment shows that if the photon are emitted independently by the source, then the photons arrive in pairs at zero time delay. This is called the *photon bunching effect*.

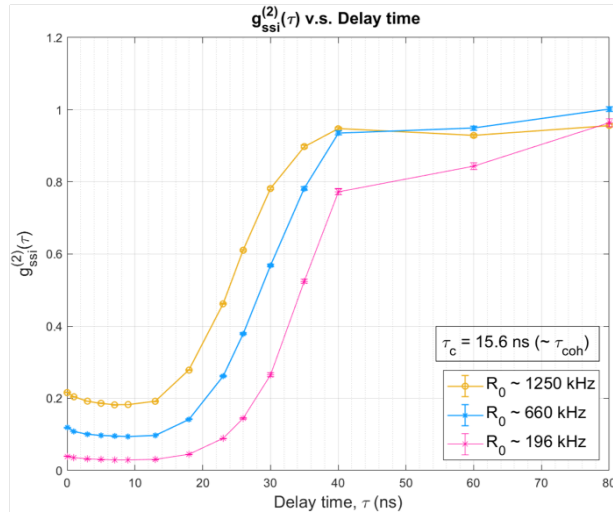


FIG. 5: Experimental data for the photon anti-bunching effect from single photon source.

V. QUANTUM SECOND-ORDER CORRELATION FUNCTION

With the same concept, we define the normalized second-order quantum correlation function,

$$g^{(2)}(x_1, x_2) = \frac{G^{(2)}(x_1, x_2)}{[G^{(1)}(x_1, x_1)G^{(1)}(x_2, x_2)]}, \quad (29)$$

where $g^{(2)}(x_1, x_2)$, is the joint probability of detecting one photon at (r_1, t_1) and (r_2, t_2) . At a fixed position, $g^{(2)}$ depends only on the time difference,

$$g^{(2)}(\tau) = \frac{\langle \hat{E}^{(-)}(t)\hat{E}^{(-)}(t+\tau)\hat{E}^{(+)}(t+\tau)\hat{E}^{(+)}(t) \rangle}{\langle \hat{E}^{(-)}(t)\hat{E}^{(-)}(t) \rangle \langle \hat{E}^{(-)}(t+\tau)\hat{E}^{(-)}(t+\tau) \rangle}. \quad (30)$$

- For a single-mode field,

$$g^{(2)}(\tau) = \frac{\langle \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} \hat{a} \rangle}{\langle \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} \rangle^2} = \frac{\langle \hat{n}(\hat{n}-1) \rangle}{\langle \hat{n} \rangle^2} = 1 + \frac{\langle \Delta \hat{n}^2 \rangle - \langle \hat{n} \rangle}{\langle \hat{n} \rangle^2}. \quad (31)$$

- For a coherent state $|\alpha\rangle$,

$$g^{(2)}(\tau) = 1, \quad (32)$$

which has a *Poisson distribution*, i.e., $\langle \Delta \hat{n}^2 \rangle = \langle \hat{n} \rangle$.

- For a single-mode thermal state, $\hat{\rho}_{\text{th}} = \frac{1}{Z} \sum \exp(-E_n/k_B T) |n\rangle \langle n|$,

$$g^{(2)}(\tau) = 2. \quad (33)$$

- For a non-classical state, with *sub-Poisson* photon number distribution, i.e., $\langle \Delta \hat{n}^2 \rangle < \langle \hat{n} \rangle$,

$$g^{(2)}(\tau) = g^{(2)}(0) < 1, \quad (34)$$

- For a Fock state $|n\rangle$,

$$g^{(2)}(0) = 1 - \frac{1}{n}. \quad (35)$$

- For a single photon source, $n = 1$,

$$g^{(2)}(0) = 0. \quad (36)$$