Quantum dark optics of axions: how can dark matter axion generate quantized photons?

Akira Miyazaki

From wikipedia Standard Model of Elementary Particles







Clear need for new physics: e.g. Dark Matter (DM)



Neutrino?

Dark astrophysical objects?

Modified gravity?^{van Dokkum, et} al. Nature 555, 629–632 Primordial black holes?



Hypothetical new particles linked to intrinsic issues in the Standard Model?

My main business: Radio Frequency cavities for accelerators



Pros: any present and future accelerators would include superconducting RF cavities Cons: Timeline (decades?) costs (>>BEUR?) still no promise for *new physics*

Road map for the NEXT colliders



 $M\frac{\partial^2 \boldsymbol{u}}{\partial t^2} + \eta \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{u}}{\partial t} - \epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \boldsymbol{u}}{\partial z^2} + \nabla U(z, \boldsymbol{u}) = \boldsymbol{J}_{RF}(z, \boldsymbol{u}) \times \boldsymbol{B}_{\text{ext}}$

Hot Spot

Approximate depth (nm)

EP - spot #2

75/120C 48 hrs - spot #1 75/120C 48 hrs - spot #2

 σ_N

1000

qN/.0

cavities for the precision measurement of Higgs boson 5



Outline

- Background: classical to quantum detection of axions
- Motivation of this talk: classical to quantum??
- Rigorous proof of classical to quantum
- Applications: coherence & homodyne with polarization
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Axions: a byproduct to cancel the strong CP

Quantum Chromodynamics (theory of strong force)

$$L_{QCD} \supset -\frac{1}{4} G^{a}_{\mu\nu} G^{\mu\nu a} + \frac{g_s^2}{32\pi^2} \Theta G^{a}_{\mu\nu} \tilde{G}^{\mu\nu a}$$

This term generates electric dipole moment in neutron

- Theory: $d_n \sim 4.5 \times 10^{-15} \theta$ ecm
- Experiment: $|d_n| < 2.9 \times 10^{-29} \text{ ecm}$ $\rightarrow |\theta| < 0.7 \times 10^{-11} \ll 1$

Naturalness without anthropic solution Introduce a new global chiral U(1) field *a*

$$\frac{g_s^2}{32\pi^2} \left(\theta + \frac{a}{F_a}\right) G^a_{\mu\nu} \tilde{G}^{\mu\nu a} \to 0 \text{ (after SSB)}$$

SSB \rightarrow A pNG boson appears as a byproduct = axioi



-axion (NG boson)

Axion gains mass from QCD $m_a f_a \sim m_\pi f_\pi$



Figure 3: "Sombrero" potential of the Peccei-Quinn field Φ is shown schematically before (left) and after (right) the QCD phase transition. The axion corresponds to the angular direction of this potential, shown by the orange line. The state of the field is given by a point in the potential. Low energy configurations are favoured. For illustration, the potential on the right is shown for a scenario with a large amount of PQ symmetry breaking. More details are given in appendix A.2.

F. Chadha-Day, J. Ellis, D. J. E. Marsh, "Axion Dark Matter: What is it and Why Now?" arXiv:2105.01406

Axion as dark matter (PQ scale > inflation)

Axion loses kinetic energy *non-thermally* by coherent oscillation in the PQ potential



axion field

Misalignment mechanism

$$\frac{d^2a}{dt^2} + 3H(t)\frac{da}{dt} + m_a(T)^2a = 0$$

Hubble constant: friction \rightarrow cooling down

De Broglie wavelength λ_B vs density of DM $ar{n}$

- We are moving in the galaxy halo of dark matter with speed of 220 km/s $\rightarrow \beta \sim 0.07\%$
- **De Broglie wavelength** $\lambda_B = 196 \text{ MeVfm}/mv$
- Galaxy halo of dark matter density $\rho \sim 0.4 \text{ GeV/cm}^3$



<u>WIMP: *m*~1 TeV (?)</u>

$$\lambda_B \sim \frac{196 \text{ MeVfm}}{0.7 \text{ GeV}} = 0.3 \text{ fm}$$
$$\bar{n} \sim \frac{0.4 \text{ GeV/cm}^3}{1 \text{ TeV}} \sim 10^{-3} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$
$$\rightarrow \bar{n} \ll \frac{1}{\lambda^3}$$

Axions: $m \sim 10 \ \mu eV$

 $\lambda_B \sim \frac{2 \times 10^{-7} \text{ eVm}}{7 \text{ neV}} = 28 \text{ cm}$

 $\bar{n} \sim \frac{0.4 \text{ GeV/cm}^3}{10 \,\mu\text{eV}} \sim 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-3}$

https://www.symmetrymagazine.org/article/wimps-in-the-dark-matter -wind Artwork by Sandbox Studio, Chicago with Corinne Mucha



$$E_{cl}^{2} = \frac{\overline{n}}{\lambda} \gg \frac{1}{\lambda^{4}} \sim \langle 0 | \widehat{E} \cdot \widehat{E} | 0 \rangle$$

WIMP behaves as a particle

 $\rightarrow \overline{n} \gg \frac{1}{\lambda^3}$ DM Axions
behave as a wave

Standard model of dark matter axion distribution function

Velocity dispersion of Milky way





$$f(\omega) = P_0 \theta(\omega - m_a) 2\omega_0^{-\frac{3}{2}} \sqrt{\frac{\omega - m_a}{\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{\omega - m_a}{\omega_0}\right)$$

If $m_a = 10 \text{ GHz}$



Classical electrodynamics is the mean to hunt axions



Wave detection vs photon (energy) detection



Jonsson Nyquist Noise



 \rightarrow "Blackbody radiation" of electromagnetic waves inside a 1D conductor

Quantum mechanical derivation H. B. Callen and T. A. Welton Phys Rev 1 34 (1951)

$$P_N = \left(\frac{h\nu}{2} + \frac{h\nu}{e^{h\nu/k_BT} - 1}\right) \quad [W/Hz]$$
Zero-point energy

Standard Quantum Limit from the Kennard inequality

$$\begin{split} [p,q] &= \frac{i\hbar}{2} \rightarrow \langle \Delta p^2 \rangle \langle \Delta q^2 \rangle \geq |\langle [p,q] \rangle|^2 = \frac{\hbar}{4} \quad \text{(Kennard)} \\ [p_i,q_i] &= \frac{i\hbar}{2} = [p_f,q_f] : \text{before and after the amplifier chain} \\ q_f &= Gq_i + q_g \quad p_f = Gp_i + p_g \\ [p_f,q_f] &= [Gp_0,Gq_0] + [p_g,q_g] = \frac{iG^2\hbar}{2} + [p_g,q_g] = \frac{i\hbar}{2} \\ \rightarrow [p_g,q_g] &= \frac{i(1-G^2)\hbar}{2} \rightarrow \langle \Delta p_g^2 \rangle \langle \Delta q_g^2 \rangle \geq \frac{(G^2-1)\hbar^2}{4} \\ &\quad \text{Amplifier uncertainty principle} \\ P &\geq \frac{1}{G^2} \left[\frac{G^2h\nu}{2} + \frac{(G^2-1)h\nu}{2} \right] \stackrel{G\gg1}{\longrightarrow} 2 \times \frac{h\nu}{2} = h\nu \\ &\quad P_{SQL} = h\nu : \text{standard quantum limit} \end{split}$$

S.K. Lamoreaux et al Phys Rev D 98 035020 (2013) C. M. Caves PRD 26 8 1817 1982 Ex) $h \times 1 \text{ GHz} = 6.6 \times 10^{-25} \text{ W/Hz}$



Photon detectors to overcome SQL



Single photon sensors may be a solution in the future

 \rightarrow Although one loses phase information, zero background at cold may be better \rightarrow Lower noise in higher frequency \rightarrow where is the cross-over? 10 GHz? 100 GHz??

Summary: pros and cons in wave vs particle

- Wave detection
 - Pros
 - Enormous enhancement of S/N by using narrow band nature of axion signal
 - Signal: narrow band of 20 kHz out of 20 GHz center frequency
 - Noise: broad band
 - Simple and established through commercial devices
 - OK at warm or 4 K level (in other words no use to be at mK)
 - Cons
 - Standard Quantum Limit (\rightarrow Vacuum squeezing to mitigate it...)
- Quantum / particle / energy detection
 - Pros
 - Free from SQL
 - Cons
 - No phase information \rightarrow FFT not possible for narrow-band / broad band signal selection
 - Narrow band-pass filter / antenna is limited (resonator Q is the best)
 - Need cooling down way lower than wave detection (< 100 mK)

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abla} \cdot oldsymbol{ ext{E}} &=
ho - g_{a\gamma} oldsymbol{ ext{B}}_{ ext{e}} \cdot oldsymbol{
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abla} imes oldsymbol{ ext{H}} - \dot{oldsymbol{ ext{E}}} &= oldsymbol{ ext{J}} + g_{a\gamma} oldsymbol{ ext{B}}_{ ext{e}} \dot{a} \,, \ - oldsymbol{
abla}^2 a + m_a^2 a &= g_{a\gamma} oldsymbol{ ext{E}} \cdot oldsymbol{ ext{B}}_{ ext{e}} \,, \end{aligned}$$

ä

What is the quantum statistical distribution of detected photons? \rightarrow Goal: Monte Carlo

- Can we obtain quantum statistical distribution without assuming quantum nature in the source?
- Can we assume a Poisson distribution?
- What kind of quantum state gives Poisson distribution



Der stetige Übergang von der Mikro- zur Makromechanik. Von E. Schrödinger, Zürich.

$$\frac{m}{2} \left(\frac{dq}{dt} \right)^{2} + 2 \pi^{2} v_{0}^{2} m q^{2}$$

$$\psi_{n} = e^{-\frac{x^{2}}{2}} H_{n}(x) e^{2 \pi i v_{n} t}$$

$$\left(v_{n} = \frac{2 n + 1}{2} v_{0}; n = 0, 1, 2, 3 \dots \right) \right\} (3)$$

Die H_n sind die nach HERMITE benannten

 $=e^{\pi i v_0 t} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{A}{2} e^{2\pi i v_0 t}\right)^n \frac{\mathbf{I}}{n!} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} H_n(x) \,.$

0

+5

 $\psi = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{A}{2}\right)^n \frac{\psi_n}{n!}$



Naturwissenschaften 14 (28)

Very classical quantum state: Schrödinger's wave packet

$$\Psi(x_1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x_1 - \alpha \cos \omega t)^2}$$
$$\alpha \Psi(x_1) = \left[x_1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dx_1} \right] \Psi(x_1)$$

 α : eigenvalue of annihilation operator

 $\hat{a} \equiv \hat{x}_1 + i\hat{x}_2$ $a|\alpha\rangle = \alpha |\alpha\rangle$

Hints for derivation

$$\Psi(x_1) \equiv \langle x_1 | \alpha \rangle$$

$$\langle x_1 | \hat{x}_1 | x_1 \rangle = x_1$$

$$[\hat{x}_1, \hat{x}_2] = \frac{i}{2} \rightarrow \langle x_1 | \hat{x}_2 | x_1 \rangle \equiv \frac{1}{2i} \frac{d}{dx_1}$$



By Ashton Bradley Aspir8 (talk) -Own work, CC BY-SA 4.0, https://commons.wikimedia.org/ w/index.php?curid=149671045 $x = x_1$ $p = \frac{\partial H}{\partial x} = x_2$

Modern representation of wave packet: coherent state

$$|\alpha\rangle = e^{-|\alpha|^2/2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha^n}{\sqrt{n!}} |n\rangle$$

Displacement operator

$$D(\alpha) \equiv \exp(\alpha \hat{a}^{\dagger} - \alpha^{*} \hat{a})$$
$$|\alpha\rangle = D(\alpha)|0\rangle$$

Electric field operator

$$\hat{\mathcal{E}}(\boldsymbol{r},t) = i \sqrt{\frac{\hbar\omega}{2\epsilon_0 V}} \left[\hat{a}e^{-i(\omega t - \boldsymbol{k}\cdot\boldsymbol{r})} - \hat{a}^{\dagger}e^{i(\omega t - \boldsymbol{k}\cdot\boldsymbol{r})} \right]$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} E \equiv \langle \alpha | \hat{\mathcal{E}}(\mathbf{r}, t) | \alpha \rangle = i \sqrt{\frac{\hbar \omega}{2\epsilon_0 V}} \left[\alpha e^{-i(\omega t - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r})} - \alpha^* e^{+i(\omega t - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r})} \right] : \text{Plane wave solution of Maxwell equation} \\ P(n) = |\langle n | \alpha \rangle|^2 = \frac{(|\alpha|^2)^n}{n!} e^{-|\alpha|^2} : \text{Poisson distribution} \end{aligned}$$

$$x_{2}$$

$$\hat{x}_{2} = \frac{1}{2i}(\hat{a} - \hat{a}^{\dagger})$$
Quantum 1/2
fluctuation
$$1/2$$

$$1/2$$

$$\psi(t) = |\alpha e^{-i\omega t}$$

$$\hat{x}_{1} = \frac{1}{2}(\hat{a} + \hat{a}^{\dagger})^{-x_{1}}$$

Don't we need a quantum state of axion?



- Mean is OK but standard deviation depends on the assumptions on the source
- Simplest example: coherent state \rightarrow coherent state: $|\alpha_a, \alpha_\gamma\rangle = (1 + U_{a\gamma}\alpha_a\alpha_\gamma^{\dagger})|\alpha_a, 0_{25}$

Example of quantum nature of axions 1: squeezing



 $t_{
m Ehr} \, [
m yr]$

Phys. Rev. D 106, 043517, 2022

Example quantum nature of axions 2: thermalization

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{L}[a,\chi] &= \frac{1}{2} \,\partial_{\mu} a(x) \partial^{\mu} a(x) - \frac{1}{2} \,m_{a}^{2} \,a^{2}(x) - \underline{ga(x) \,\mathcal{O}_{\chi}(x) + \mathcal{L}_{\chi}} & \text{Interaction to} \\ \mathrm{environment} \,(\mathrm{SM}) \\ a(\vec{x},t=0) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{V}} \sum_{\vec{k}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\omega_{k}}} \Big[b_{\vec{k}} \,e^{i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{x}} + b_{\vec{k}}^{\dagger} \,e^{-i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{x}} \Big] \end{split}$$

 $\hat{\rho}(t) = e^{-iHt}\hat{\rho}(0)e^{iHt}$

Time evolution of density matrix

$$\begin{split} \rho(0) &= \rho_a(0) \otimes \rho_{\chi}(0) & \mbox{Initial condition:} \\ axion x environment \\ \rho_{\chi}(0) &= \frac{e^{-\beta H_{\chi}}}{\text{Tr}e^{-\beta H_{\chi}}} & \mbox{Environment: thermal} \\ bath (CMB) \end{split}$$

 $ho_a(0) = |\Delta\rangle\langle\Delta|$ Initial axion: coherent state from misalignment mechanism

 $|\Delta\rangle = \prod_{\vec{k}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}|\Delta_{\vec{k}}|^2} e^{-\Delta_{\vec{k}} b_{\vec{k}}^{\dagger}} |0\rangle$

Quantum master equation

→ Initial coherent axions become decoherent due to thermalization

$$\mathcal{E}(t) = \frac{1}{V} \sum_{\vec{q}} N_q(t) \omega_q = \frac{1}{2} \left[\overline{\pi}^2 + m_a^2 \,\overline{a}^2 \right] e^{-\gamma_0 t} + \int \frac{d^3 q}{(2\pi)^3} \,\omega_q \, n(\omega_q) \left(1 - e^{-\gamma_q t} \,\overline{a}^2 \,\overline{a}^2 \,\overline{a}^2 \,\overline{a}^2 \,\overline{a}^2 \,\overline{a}^2 \,\overline{a}^2 \,\overline{a}^2 \,\overline{a}^2 \right] e^{-\gamma_0 t} + \int \frac{d^3 q}{(2\pi)^3} \,\omega_q \, n(\omega_q) \left(1 - e^{-\gamma_q t} \,\overline{a}^2 \,\overline{a$$

Coherent term decays Thermal term grows

 $n(\omega_q) = \frac{1}{e^{\beta \, \omega_q} - 1}$

Decay rate:
$$\gamma_q = \Gamma_q(\infty) = rac{g^2}{2\omega_q} \,
ho(\omega_q,q)$$

Phys. Rev. D 107, 063518 (2023)

Example quantum nature of axions 3: decay products



記象っほし

 $E_{cl}^{2} = \frac{\bar{n}}{\lambda} \gg \frac{1}{\lambda^{4}} \sim \langle 0 | \hat{E} \cdot \hat{E} | 0 \rangle$



J. J. Sakura

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Glauber's theorem: classical \rightarrow quantum

PHYSICAL REVIEW

VOLUME 131, NUMBER 6

15 SEPTEMBER 1963

Coherent and Incoherent States of the Radiation Field*

ROY J. GLAUBER Lyman Laboratory of Physics, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts (Received 29 April 1963)

 $H_1(t) = -\frac{1}{c} \int \mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r}, t) \cdot \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}, t) d\mathbf{r}. \qquad (9.16)$

The introduction of an explicitly time-dependent interaction of this type means that the state vector for the field, $|\rangle$, which previously was fixed (corresponding to the Heisenberg picture) will begin to change with time in accordance with the Schrödinger equation

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t}|\rangle = H_1(t)|\rangle,$$
 (9.17)

which is the one appropriate to the interaction representation. The solution of this equation is easily found.²⁰ If we assume that the initial state of the field at time $t=-\infty$ is one empty of all photons, then the state of the field at time t may be written in the form

$$|t\rangle = \exp\left\{\frac{i}{\hbar c} \int_{-\infty}^{t} dt' \int \mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r},t') \cdot \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r},t') d\mathbf{r} + i\varphi(t)\right\} |\operatorname{vac}\rangle.$$
(9.18)

$$D_k(\beta_k) = \exp[\beta_k \alpha_k^{\dagger} - \beta_k^* \alpha_k]. \qquad (9.19)$$

Then it is clear from the expansion (2.10) for the vector potential that we may write

$$\exp\left\{\frac{i}{\hbar c}\int_{-\infty}^{t} dt' \int \mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r},t') \cdot \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r},t') d\mathbf{r}\right\} = \prod_{k} D_{k} [\alpha_{k}(t)], \quad (9.20)$$

where the time-dependent amplitudes $\alpha_k(t)$ are given by

$$\alpha_k(t) = \frac{i}{(2\hbar\omega)^{1/2}} \int_{-\infty}^t dt' \int d\mathbf{r} \, \mathbf{u}_k^*(\mathbf{r}) \cdot \mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r},t') e^{i\omega t'}. \quad (9.21)$$

Photo: J.Reed





Any classical axion generates photons in a quantum coherent state



Key takeaways

- Interaction term is linear in \widehat{b}^{\dagger} and \widehat{b}
 - Rigorous solution is given by a displacement operator and a phase shift
- The displacement operator generates a coherent state from vacuum
 - With complex amplitude $\beta(t)$ given by time integral of the classical axion field f(t)
- Photon statistic in a coherent state is given by a Poisson distribution
 - With mean number of photons $\bar{n} = |\beta(t)|^2$
- Valid for any classical axions and any initial state of photons not only the vacuum state

Initially in the vacuum state \rightarrow coherent state

$$|\psi(t)\rangle = \exp(-iC_1(t))\widehat{D}(\beta(t))|0\rangle = \exp(-iC_1(t))|\beta(t)\rangle$$

<u>Photon counting (Projective measurement of photon numbers)</u>

Definition of the label of the coherent state

$$\beta(t) = \exp(-i\omega t) \int_0^t dt' f(t') \exp(i\omega t')$$

Property of a coherent state

$$P_n = |\langle n|\psi(t)\rangle|^2 = |\langle \psi(t)|\hat{n}|\psi(t)\rangle|^2 = \langle \beta(t)|\hat{n}|\beta(t)\rangle = \frac{e^{-|\beta(t)|^2}|\beta(t)|^{2n}}{n!} \qquad |\beta\rangle = \exp\left(-\frac{|\beta|^2}{2}\right)\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\frac{\beta^n}{\sqrt{n!}}|n\rangle$$

- The number of photons from classical axion conversion obeys **Poisson distribution of time varying mean**
- The time variation is purely from the time integral of classical axion field ٠

Field measurement (Projective measurement of field operator)

 $\hat{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{r},t) = i \sqrt{\frac{\hbar\omega}{2\epsilon_0 V}} \left[\hat{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{r},t) | \psi(t) \right\rangle = i \sqrt{\frac{\hbar\omega}{2\epsilon_0 V}} \left[\beta(t) e^{-i(\omega t - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r})} - \beta^*(t) e^{+i(\omega t - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r})} \right]$ • This is the classical electric field (Electric field operator

- The line-width information is implemented inside $\beta(t) \rightarrow$ time varying amplitude in time domain
- Integration time t (FFT time) needs to be selected depending on the coherent time of the classical axion field a(t)

Initially in the squeezed vacuum state



Initially in a thermal state \rightarrow coherent thermal state



Statistics of photons

$$\frac{zons}{\bar{n}} = |\beta(t)|^2 + \bar{n}_{th} = Poisson + Planck$$

$$\sigma^2 = \sigma_{th}^2 + |\beta|^2 \left(1 + 2\left\langle b^{\dagger}b\right\rangle_{th}\right) \neq Poisson + Planck$$

 \rightarrow Naïve additive Monte Carlo (Poissonian signal + thermal noise) is wrong! ³⁶

Cf) Multi-mode Planck \rightarrow reduction to Poissonian

M. Fox "Quantum Optics" p.85

$$\mathcal{P}_{\omega}(n) = \frac{1}{\overline{n}+1} \left(\frac{\overline{n}}{\overline{n}+1}\right)^n. \tag{5.29}$$

This distribution is called the **Bose–Einstein distribution**. From eqn 5.26 we can see that $\mathcal{P}_{\omega}(n)$ is always largest for n = 0, and decreases exponentially for increasing n.

Figure 5.5 compares the photon statistics for a single mode of thermal light with the Bose–Einstein distribution to those of a Poisson distribution with the same value of \overline{n} . It is apparent that the distribution of photon numbers for thermal light is much broader than for Poissonian light. This is hardly surprising, given the nature of thermal energy fluctuations. The variance of the Bose–Einstein distribution can be found by inserting $\mathcal{P}_{\omega}(n)$ from eqn 5.29 into eqn 5.14, giving (see Exercise 5.3):

$$(\Delta n)^2 = \overline{n} + \overline{n}^2. \tag{5.30}$$

This shows that the variance of the Bose–Einstein distribution is always larger than that of a Poisson distribution (cf. eqn 5.15), and that thermal light therefore falls into the category of super-Poissonian light defined



Fig. 5.5 Comparison of the photon statistics for a single mode of a thermal source and a Poisson distribution with the same value of $\overline{n} = 10$.

STD of thermal noise



$$\sigma^2 \to \overline{n}$$

Open question: what is the standard deviation of thermal coherent state under realistic bandwidth of our quantum detector? \rightarrow This could be Poisson in the end...

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Temporal coherence of axion DM



Coherent stochastic: Rayleigh fading

Random phase in classical microwaves \rightarrow temporal coherency



Telecommunication



 $P(x) = 2xe^{-x^2} \,\mathrm{d}x$

What happens to the quantum detector response



- The photon number obeys Poisson distribution of varying mean
- Depends on integral of classical axion amplitude over temporal coherency
 - $\Delta t \rightarrow$ response time of quantum sensor? Or DAQ?



Modulation in *classical* axion amplitude

$$\widehat{H} = \hbar \omega \left(\widehat{b}^{\dagger} \widehat{b} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \hbar \left[f(t) \widehat{b}^{\dagger} + f^{*}(t) \widehat{b} \right] \qquad f(t) = g_{a\gamma\gamma} a(t) \int (\boldsymbol{E}(x) \cdot \boldsymbol{B}_{0}) d^{3}x$$

Not only intrinsic axion amplitude's temporal variation, one can manipulate modulation

Idea 1 (ADMX is also thinking)

$$g_{a\gamma\gamma}a(t)\int (\boldsymbol{E}(x)\cdot\boldsymbol{B}_0\cos(\omega_{mod}t))d^3x$$

Modulation in magnetic field Speed would be limited in SC magnet

 \rightarrow Basic theory for homodyne detection (Lock-in method) \rightarrow Enhance S/N even though losing bandwidth in quantum detection $_{42}$

Idea 2 (MADMAX original)

$$\hbar [f(t)\hat{b}^{\dagger} + f^{*}(t)\hat{b}] \frac{P\cos(\omega_{mod}t)}{P\cos(\omega_{mod}t)}$$

Modulation in *classical* axion amplitude



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Conclusion and outlook

- Any classical axion field generates quantum coherent states of microwave photons
 - Rigorous proof with little assumptions (classicality of DM axions)
 - In photon counting type experiment, Poisson distribution of varying mean number of photons appear
 - The quantum state of our system is "coherent thermal state" ≠ coherent signal + thermal noise (standard deviation of photon numbers is not a naïve sum)
- The above theorem ensures classical argument in time variation of axion signal
 - Temporal coherency of axion amplitude
 - Artificial modulation \rightarrow homodyne detection
- To be answered
 - Projective measurement \rightarrow realistic quantum model of detectors
 - Detector requirement \rightarrow material property, what to measure?
 - Is the assumption in classical axions truly reasonable?
 - How to optimize the time integral \rightarrow depending on coherence time of axion?
 - Can we reconstruct time-varying photon distribution via finite sampling of a photon detector?
- To be developed
 - Correct Monte Carlo simulation
 - Response time, detection efficiency of the detectors

backup

Three ways to study dark matter candidates

Production in lab

Signal from astrophysics

DM from galaxy halo



→ Common techniques: particle detection, reconstruction, PID, etc



full knowledge in source uncertainty in astrophysical models Uncertainty in cosmological models

→ Common techniques: magnets & photon science

Quantum electrodynamics (single mode)

With creation annihilation operators

With Hermitian quantized amplitudes

Positive real number

Uncertainty relations

General displacement operators -> The Cauchy-Schwartz's inequality leads to Schrodinger's uncertainty relation

$$\Delta \hat{A} = \hat{A} - \langle \phi | \hat{A} | \phi \rangle$$

$$\langle \phi | \Delta \hat{A}^2 | \phi \rangle \langle \phi | \Delta \hat{B}^2 | \phi \rangle \geq \frac{1}{4} \left| \langle \phi | \{ \Delta \hat{A}, \Delta \hat{B} \} | \phi \rangle \right|^2 + \frac{1}{4} \left| \langle \phi | [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] | \phi \rangle \right|^2$$

$$\Delta \hat{B} = \hat{B} - \langle \phi | \hat{B} | \phi \rangle$$

$$dispersion dispersion$$

Applying to the amplitude operators leads to

$$\sigma_1^2 \sigma_2^2 \equiv \langle \phi | \Delta \hat{x}_1^2 | \phi \rangle \langle \phi | \Delta \hat{x}_2^2 | \phi \rangle \geq \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | \{ \Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2 \} | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | \{ \Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2 \} | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{\frac{16}{48}} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{\frac{16}{48}} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{\frac{16}{48}} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{\frac{16}{48}} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{\frac{16}{48}} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{\frac{16}{48}} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1}{4} |\langle \phi | [\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2] | \phi \rangle|^2 + \frac{1$$

Minimum uncertainty states $|\phi_{min}\rangle$

The minimum uncertainty

$$\sigma_1 \sigma_2 = \frac{1}{4}$$

can be obtained if

 $\begin{cases} \Delta \hat{x}_2 |\phi_{min}\rangle = z \Delta \hat{x}_1 |\phi_{min}\rangle \ (z \in \mathbb{C}) & \text{From Cauchy-Schwartz} \\ \langle \phi_{min} | \{\Delta \hat{x}_1, \Delta \hat{x}_2\} | \phi_{min}\rangle = 0 \end{cases}$

are applied. These conditions give

$$0 = \langle \phi_{min} | \Delta \hat{x}_1 \Delta \hat{x}_2 | \phi_{min} \rangle + \langle \phi_{min} | \Delta \hat{x}_2 \Delta \hat{x}_1 | \phi_{min} \rangle = (z + z^*) \langle \phi_{min} | \Delta \hat{x}_1^2 | \phi_{min} \rangle$$

$$\rightarrow z + z^* = 0 \rightarrow z = i\lambda \ (\lambda \in R)$$

Substitute this condition to z

$$\Delta \hat{x}_2 |\phi_{min}\rangle = i\lambda \Delta \hat{x}_1 |\phi_{min}\rangle$$

From the definition

$$(\hat{x}_2 - \langle \phi_{min} | \hat{x}_2 | \phi_{min} \rangle) | \phi_{min} \rangle = i\lambda (\hat{x}_1 - \langle \phi_{min} | \hat{x}_1 | \phi_{min} \rangle) | \phi_{min} \rangle \rightarrow (\lambda \hat{x}_1 + i \hat{x}_2) | \phi_{min} \rangle = [\lambda \langle \phi_{min} | \hat{x}_1 | \phi_{min} \rangle + i \langle \phi_{min} | \hat{x}_2 | \phi_{min} \rangle] | \phi_{min} \rangle$$

If we select $\lambda = 1$, we can obtain one of the minimum uncertainty states $|\alpha\rangle$: $(\hat{x}_1 + i\hat{x}_2)|\phi_{min}\rangle = [\langle \phi_{min}|\hat{x}_1|\phi_{min}\rangle + i\langle \phi_{min}|\hat{x}_2|\phi_{min}\rangle]|\phi_{min}\rangle$

 $\rightarrow \hat{a} | \alpha \rangle = \alpha | \alpha \rangle \ (\alpha \in \mathbb{C})$

as an eigenstate of the annihilation operator \hat{a} , which minimizes the uncertainty of the amplitude operators \hat{x}_1 and \hat{x}_2

Coherent state $|\alpha\rangle$ $|\alpha\rangle$ is called coherent state. Its explicit representation with number states can be given by

$$|\alpha\rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n |n\rangle$$

and applying \hat{a} gives

$$\alpha \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n |n\rangle = \alpha |\alpha\rangle = \hat{a} |\alpha\rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n \hat{a} |n\rangle = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \sqrt{n} |n-1\rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_{n+1} \sqrt{n+1} |n\rangle$$

Comparing the coefficients gives

$$c_{n+1} = \frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{n+1}} c_n$$

The coefficient can be recursively determined

$$c_n = \frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{n}}c_{n-1} = \frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{n}}\frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{n-1}}c_{n-2} = \frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{n}}\frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{n-1}}\dots\frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{1}}c_0 = \frac{\alpha^n}{\sqrt{n!}}c_0$$

The normalization condition gives

$$1 = \langle \alpha | \alpha \rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} c_m^* c_n \langle m | n \rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha^{*m}}{\sqrt{m!}} \frac{\alpha^n}{\sqrt{n!}} c_0^* c_0 \delta_{mn} = |c_0|^2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{|\alpha|^{2n}}{n!} = |c_0|^2 e^{|\alpha|^2} \rightarrow |c_0| = e^{-|\alpha|^2/2}$$
Selecting one phase $c_0 = e^{-|\alpha|^2/2}$ leads to
$$|\alpha\rangle = e^{-|\alpha|^2/2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha^n}{\sqrt{n!}} |n\rangle$$
Expectation value of # of photons
$$\langle \alpha | \hat{a}^{\dagger} \hat{a} | \alpha \rangle = \alpha^* \alpha \langle \alpha | \alpha \rangle = |\alpha|^2 \equiv \mu$$

Projection of
$$|\alpha\rangle$$
 onto $|x_1\rangle$ returns a Gaussian
 $\langle x_1|\alpha\rangle = \frac{1}{\alpha}\langle x_1|\alpha|\alpha\rangle = \frac{1}{\alpha}\langle x_1|\hat{a}|\alpha\rangle = \frac{1}{\alpha}\langle x_1|(\hat{x}_1 + i\hat{x}_2)|\alpha\rangle = \frac{1}{\alpha}\int dx'_1\langle x_1|(\hat{x}_1 + i\hat{x}_2)|x'_1\rangle\langle x'_1|\alpha\rangle$
"Position" representation (Schrodinger representation)
Wave function: $\Psi(x_1) \equiv \langle x_1|\alpha\rangle$
"Position" operator: $\langle x_1|\hat{x}_1|x_1\rangle = x_1$
 i d d d $\psi(x_1) = \left[x_1 + \frac{1}{2}\frac{d}{dx}\right]\Psi(x_1)$

"Momentum" operator:
$$[\hat{x}_1, \hat{x}_2] = \frac{i}{2} \rightarrow \langle x_1 | \hat{x}_2 | x_1 \rangle \equiv \frac{1}{2i} \frac{d}{dx_1}$$

*i u (x_1) (x_1) (x_1 + \frac{1}{2}) \frac{d}{dx_1}
*Eigenv**

Eigenvalue problem

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A particular solution of this 1st order linear ordinary differential equation is Gaussian

$$\frac{\Psi(x_1) = \exp(Ax_1^2 + Bx_1 + C)}{d\Psi(x_1)} = [2Ax_1 + B]\Psi(x_1) \qquad A = -1 \\ B = 2\alpha \qquad \Psi(x_1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-(x_1 - \alpha)^2}$$

The same would be applied for the "momentum" representation

Wave function: $\Phi(x_2) \equiv \langle x_2 | \alpha \rangle$ "Position" operator: $\langle x_2 | \hat{x}_2 | x_2 \rangle = x_2$ "Momentum" operator: $[\hat{x}_1, \hat{x}_2] = \frac{i}{2} \rightarrow \langle x_2 | \hat{x}_1 | x_2 \rangle \equiv \frac{i}{2} \frac{d}{dx_2}$ $\alpha \Phi(x_2) = \left[\frac{i}{2} \frac{d}{dx_2} + ix_2\right] \Phi(x_2)$ $\phi(x_2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x_2 + i\alpha)^2}$

Projection of $|\alpha\rangle$ onto $|n\rangle$ returns a Poisson distribution

When one performs photon counting experiment (for example with PMT), probability of observing n photon is

$$P(n) = |\langle n|\alpha \rangle|^{2} = \left| e^{-|\alpha|^{2}/2} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha^{m}}{\sqrt{m!}} \langle n|m \rangle \right|^{2} = \left| e^{-|\alpha|^{2}/2} \frac{\alpha^{n}}{\sqrt{n!}} \right|^{2} = \frac{(|\alpha|^{2})^{n}}{n!} e^{-|\alpha|^{2}}$$

This is a Poisson distribution with mean number of photons $\mu = |\alpha|^2$

$$P(n;\mu) = \frac{\mu^n}{n!} e^{-\mu}$$

E. H. Bellamy, NIMA 339 468-476 (1994)

It is well-known that we observed a Poisson distribution from LED, convoluted with a response function of dynodes in PMT

