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Quantum Network of Atom Clocks: A Possible Implementation with Neutral Atoms

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We propose a protocol for creating a fully entangled Greenberger-Horne-Zeilinger-type state of neutral atoms in spatially separated optical atomic clocks. In our scheme, local operations make use of the strong dipole-dipole interaction between Rydberg excitations, which give rise to fast and reliable quantum operations involving all atoms in the ensemble. The necessary entanglement between distant ensembles is mediated by single-photon quantum channels and collectively enhanced light-matter couplings. These techniques can be used to create the recently proposed quantum clock network based on neutral atom optical clocks. We specifically analyze a possible realization of this scheme using neutral Yb ensembles.

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The current record in clock accuracy is held by ytterbium and strontium clocks [1], capable of reaching $\sim 10^{-18}$ fractional frequency stability [2,3]. Apart from the enormous amount of effort and innovation, the unprecedented precision and accuracy were attainable due to the large number of clock atoms ($10^3$–$10^6$) [4]. Superstable clocks enable evaluation of the systematic frequency shift of atomic transitions with less averaging time, which is important to measure fast transients, e.g., gravitational waves and passing dark-matter clumps [5]. In our recent work [6], we showed that a quantum network of atomic clocks can result in a substantial boost of the overall precision if multiple clocks are phase locked and connected by quantum entanglement. The proposed globally entangled state, the Greenberger-Horne-Zeilinger (GHZ) state, is more sensitive to the global phase evolution of the clock atoms, and thus allows for an improved measurement of the passage of time. If the GHZ state is set up and interrogated in the optimal way [7,8], frequency measurements can asymptotically reach the Heisenberg limit [9], associated with the total number of atoms in the entire network. Significant noise reduction has recently been demonstrated with spin-squeezed states in a single ensemble of atoms in Ref. [10], which reported a 70-fold enhancement of phase measurement accuracy beyond the standard quantum limit, relying on a much larger number of atoms. Efforts are being made to make both the nonlocal [11] and local entanglement distribution [12,13] faster and more reliable. Of particular interest are applications of these ideas to neutral atom clocks.

In this Letter, we show how a nonlocal GHZ state can be created across multiple, spatially separated neutral atom clocks with high fidelity. Our protocol relies on strong Rydberg blockade for enhancing local atom-atom interaction, collective excitations for enhancing photon-atom interaction, and single photon quantum channels for reliable remote connections. We propose and analyze a realization using neutral Yb ensembles, suitable for the current atomic clock technology. We predict that thousands of atoms can be entangled to give an overall stability increase of more than an order of magnitude, compared to nonentangled clock networks. We emphasize that our protocol, although presented to be used for a network, can also be applied to a single ensemble.

We describe our protocol for $K$ identical atomic clocks arranged in a sequence, each connected to its neighbors with optical channels, and each using $Mn$ identical atoms, trapped in a magic-wavelength optical lattice, distributed in $M$ ensembles, illustrated on Fig. 1. We use the atomic levels, shown on Fig. 2(a) for our protocol: The two levels of the clock transition, $g, f$, a metastable shelving level $s$, an excited level $e$, which spontaneously decays to $g$, and two strongly interacting Rydberg levels, $r_1$ and $r_2$. We further require transitions between levels, marked with arrows, to be driven independently.

FIG. 1. Schematic of the setup. $K$ clocks, each holding $M$ atomic ensembles of size $n$ are connected. Atoms within each ensemble get entangled using long-range interaction between Rydberg atoms; ensembles in the same clock are entangled either via Rydberg interactions or via the cavity mode, while neighboring clocks are entangled through single-photon quantum channels, enhanced by optical cavities. The resulting state is a global GHZ state, $|0\rangle^\otimes N + |1\rangle^\otimes N$ of all $N = KMn$ atoms in the network.
We imagine preparing all atoms in the ground state \( g \), after which our protocol consists of five subsequent steps. First, using blockade, we create two independent collective excitations in one ensemble in each clock, using two separate atomic levels \( f \) and \( s \). Second, each excited ensemble emits single photon pulses that are entangled with one of these collective excitations. Third, the photons are sent towards the neighboring atomic clocks, and measured with a linear optics setup in the Bell basis. Fourth, upon success, each clock performs a local controlled-NOT (CNOT) operation to connect the two collective excitations. The result is a set of \( K \) entangled collective excitations, one in the first ensemble of each clock, which serve as “seeds” for a global GHZ state. In the fifth, and final, step the clocks locally “grow” a GHZ state out of each seed, extending it to all atoms in the clock, and thus a global GHZ state is obtained. In the following, we provide a detailed description and analysis of these five steps, discuss the specific realization in Yb atoms, and analyze the most important sources of imperfections and errors.

Our scheme makes use of the Rydberg blockade, which is a result of the interaction arising between atoms excited to Rydberg states in an ensemble [14–16], allowing precise quantum control. The Rydberg blockade has been proposed as an efficient tool to realize quantum gates and perform quantum information processing [13,17–21]. Efficient control requires the atoms to reside within the blockade radius of the Rydberg atom. Different ways of trapping and manipulating Rydberg states are currently under investigation both experimentally [22–26] and theoretically [27–29].

In the first step, we make use of the Rydberg blockade to create a superposition of one and zero excitation in both the \( f \) and \( s \) levels, following the approach of Refs. [13,14,17]. This is done by performing the following sequence of driving pulses: \([\pi/(2\sqrt{n})]_{g,r,1}, [\pi]_{f,r,1}, [\pi]_{f,s,1}([\pi/(2\sqrt{n})]_{g,r,1}, [\pi]_{f,r,1}\) shown in Fig. 2(a), where \( |\phi\rangle_{a,b} \) stands for a pulse with total, single-atom Rabi phase \( \phi \) between level \( a \) and \( b \). Starting from the state \( |g\rangle \otimes |0_f0_s\rangle \), this pulse sequence creates the state

\[
(1 + f^\dagger + s^\dagger + 0_f0_s) = (|0_f\rangle + |1_f\rangle)(|0_s\rangle + |1_s\rangle),
\]

where \( f^\dagger \) and \( s^\dagger \) are creation operators of the two (approximately) independent spin wave modes, supported by the two levels \( f \) and \( s \). The kets \( |n_f\rangle, |n_s\rangle \) for \( n \in \{0, 1\} \) stand for collective spin waves being excited by \( n \) quanta.

In the second step, spin-photon entangled states, using the spin wave modes \( f \) and \( s \), are created, based on an extended version of the scheme described in Ref. [30] and collective enhancement. Each spin-photon entangled state is created by the pulse sequence shown in Fig. 2(b), involving \([\pi]_{g,r,2}, [\pi/(2\sqrt{n})]_{g,r,1}, [\pi]_{c,r,1}, [\pi]_{c,r,2}\). This particular sequence results in emitting a single photon (from \( e \rightarrow g \) transition) provided that the level \( s \) is empty, i.e., \( |0_s\rangle\text{vacuum} \rightarrow |0_s\rangle |\text{photon}\rangle \). With additional pulses applied before and after this sequence flipping between \( 0_f \leftrightarrow 1_f, 0_s \leftrightarrow 1_s \), and swapping \( f \) and \( s \) waves, and proper timing, this is repeated 4 times to produce four time-bin separated light pulses, which are entangled with the two spin waves,

\[
(|0_f\rangle\langle t_2| + |1_f\rangle\langle t_4|)(|0_s\rangle\langle t_1| + |1_s\rangle\langle t_3|),
\]

where \( |t_j\rangle\langle t_k| \) is a two photon state with photons emitted at times \( t_j \) and \( t_k \).

In the third step, pairs of time-bin encoded photon pulses from two neighboring ensembles are detected by interfering the two pulses on a beam splitter and measuring two-photon coincidences [31–33]. As a result, entangled states between neighboring atomic ensembles, \( k \) and \( k + 1 \), are created [34,35],

\[
|0_{f,k}\rangle |1_{f,k+1}\rangle \pm |1_{f,k}\rangle |0_{f,k+1}\rangle,
\]

where \( |0_{f,k}\rangle, |1_{f,k}\rangle \) are the two-photon states with zero and one photon in the \( f \) channel.
where the individual kets represent the states of f and s spin waves in the two ensembles; see Fig. 2(c).

In the fourth step, the ensembles perform a local CNOT operation on the two collective degrees of freedom, \( f^s \) and \( s^t \). This is done with the following pulse sequence, \([\pi/\sqrt{n}]_{f,r1}, [\pi/\sqrt{n}]_{s,r1}, [\pi/\sqrt{n}]_{f,r2}, [\pi/\sqrt{n}]_{s,r2}\), shown on Fig. 3(a). This promotes any population in \( s \) to \( r_2 \), which then blocks the path \( g \leftrightarrow r_1 \leftrightarrow f \). The result is a conditional flip \(|0_f\rangle \leftrightarrow |1_f\rangle\), conditioned on having zero \( s^t \) excitations. If we perform \( f \leftrightarrow s \) swaps before and after this process, we get a coherent flip between \(|0_f, 0_s\rangle \leftrightarrow |0_f, 1_s\rangle\).

To understand the resulting state, let us consider two entangled links, connecting three neighboring ensembles \( k-1, k, k+1 \) as shown in Fig. 3(b). The corresponding state, before the fourth step, is

\[
(|0_{s,1}, 1_{f,1}\rangle + |1_{s,1}, 0_{f,1}\rangle) \otimes (|0_{s,2}, 1_{f,2}\rangle + |1_{s,2}, 0_{f,2}\rangle),
\]

where \(|n_{s,1}, n_{f,1}\rangle \otimes |n_{s,2}, n_{f,2}\rangle\) indicate the number of excitations in the modes \( s_{k-1}, f_k, s_{k+1}, f_{k+1} \) of the three ensembles. After the conditional flip of \( s_k \) and measurement of \( n_{s,k} \), yielding \( m \in \{0, 1\} \), the state becomes

\[
|0, 1, \ldots, 0\rangle + |1, 0\rangle,
\]

where the remaining kets stand for \(|n_{s,1}, n_{f,1}\rangle\). Depending on the outcome, either only \( f_k \) (if \( n_{s,k} = 1 \)) or the entire right-hand side (if \( n_{s,k} = 0 \)) needs to be flipped in order to obtain the desired GHZ state, \( \otimes |0_{f,1}\rangle \otimes |1_{f,1}\rangle \), of the \( f \) excitations of each clock, \( k = 1, 2, \ldots, K \).

In the fifth step, each clock locally extends the entanglement from its \( f \) degree of freedom to all atoms using a collective Rydberg gate similar to the ones introduced in Refs. [36,37]. In the case when each clock consists of a single blockaded ensemble, the pulse sequence \([\pi/\sqrt{n}]_{f,r1}, [\pi/\sqrt{n}]_{s,r1}, [\pi/\sqrt{n}]_{f,r2}, [\pi/\sqrt{n}]_{s,r2}\) for \( j = 1, 2, \ldots, n \), \([\pi/\sqrt{n}]_{f,r2}\), shown in Fig. 4(a), does exactly that. This sequence transfers the atoms one by one from \( g \) to \( f \) only if \( r_2 \) is unoccupied, and gets blocked otherwise. The result is

\[
K \sum_{k=1}^{K} |0_f\rangle_k + K \sum_{k=1}^{K} |1_f\rangle_k \rightarrow K \sum_{k=1}^{K} |f\rangle^\otimes + K \sum_{k=1}^{K} s^t |g\rangle^\otimes,
\]

where \(|f\rangle\) and \(|g\rangle\) denote the state of a single atom. Finally, we get rid of the \( s \) excitation with a series of pulses that move it back to \( g \): \([\pi/\sqrt{n}]_{s,r1}, [\pi/\sqrt{n}]_{s,r1}, [\pi/\sqrt{n}]_{s,r1}\), and end up with \(|f\rangle^\otimes K + |g\rangle^\otimes K\), a fully entangled state of all \( N = K \) atoms in the network.

In practice, lattice clocks can employ \( n = 10^3 \times 10^4 \) atoms each, that cannot be manipulated simultaneously with high fidelity using Rydberg blockade (see discussion below). In such a case, the atoms can be separated into \( M \sim 10 \) ensembles within each clock, as shown in Fig. 1. Efficient local entanglement can be achieved with techniques described in Ref. [38] or by using an individually addressed “messenger” atom, that can be moved to the vicinity of each ensemble to entangle all atoms within each clock using dipole-dipole interaction. In such a case, the messenger atom can be used first to extend the entanglement to all ensembles in each clock, resulting in a state \(|1_f\rangle^\otimes K + |0\rangle^\otimes K\), after which the procedure shown in Fig. 4(a) applied within each ensemble can be used to a fully entangled state of all \( N = KM \) atoms in the network [39].

Next, we investigate the robustness of our protocol in light of realistic physical imperfections. We assume that all imperfections decrease the coherence between the two components of the GHZ state, and therefore the fidelity can be written as \( F = [1 + \exp(-\epsilon_{\text{tot}})]/2 \), where \( \epsilon_{\text{tot}} \) is the sum of the errors. The errors arising during each nonlocal connection step \( \epsilon_{\text{nonlocal}} \) and the errors arising during a local GHZ creation in one clock \( \epsilon_{\text{local}} \) add up to the total error.

![FIG. 3. Connecting links into nonlocal GHZ state. (a) CNOT gate between the two excitations \( f \) and \( s \): If level \( s \) is occupied, then the coherent (de)excitation of the \( f \) level is blocked by the Rydberg blockade between the \( r_1 \) and \( r_2 \) intermediate levels, otherwise it succeeds. (b) Connecting two entanglement links. The local CNOT and measurement operations on ensemble \( k \) entangle the two, initially independent, parts of the system: \( s_{k-1}, f_k \) and \( s_{k+1}, f_{k+1} \). Depending on the outcome of the measurement, either only \( f_k \) or the entire right-hand side needs to be flipped in order to arrive to the proper GHZ state.](image-url)

![FIG. 4. Local GHZ creation. (a) Conditional, local GHZ state generation: Any excitation in level \( s \) prevents the transfer from \( g \) to \( f \). (b) The local entangling operation extends the GHZ state from the \( f \) spin wave to all atoms. As a result, every atom in the network gets entangled.](image-url)
This error increases linearly with the total number of atoms in the network, \( N \), and the coefficient, \( (\epsilon_{\text{nonlocal}}/M + \epsilon_{\text{local}})/n \), depends on the number of atoms, \( n \), within a single atom cloud under blockade. For a certain optimal local atom number \( n_{\text{opt}} \), the total fidelity is maximal, i.e., decreases with the slowest rate, as \( N \) increases.

To be specific, we focus on a possible implementation of our scheme with ensembles of neutral ytterbium atoms whose relevant electronic levels are shown in Fig. 5. We identify the following levels of neutral Yb relevant for our protocol: \( |g\rangle = |6s^2(1S_0)\rangle \), \( |f\rangle = |6s6p(3P_0)\rangle \), \( |s\rangle = |6s6p(3P_2)\rangle \), and \( |e\rangle = |6s6p(1P_1)\rangle \), and two Rydberg levels \( |r_1\rangle = |6s\tilde{n}p_{m=-1}(1P_1)\rangle \) and \( |r_2\rangle = |6s\tilde{n}s(3S_1)\rangle \) with the same principle quantum number \( \tilde{n} \). Collective enhancement and phase matching of the laser pulses make the emitted photons leave in a well-defined, narrow solid angle, resulting in high photon collection efficiency; see Ref. [39] for details. Because of the different symmetries of these states, the coherent coupling can be done via 1-photon transitions for \( r_1 \leftrightarrow g \) and \( r_2 \leftrightarrow s \), and requires 2-photon transitions for \( r_1 \leftrightarrow e \) and \( r_1 \leftrightarrow f \). We envision the atoms being held in position by an optical lattice with period \( a = 275.75 \text{ nm} \), each potential minimum holding exactly one Yb atom. (The lattice intensity can be modulated during the Rydberg state excitation [45]). Overall fidelity turns out to depend on the lattice geometry; it is the highest for the 3D optical lattice.

We consider the following errors in our analysis. During nonlocal connection, we take into account the finite \( r_1-r_2 \) interaction, which allows the creation of an \( r_2 \) excitation with some small probability, even if \( r_2 \) is populated, the finite lifetime of the \( s \) and \( r_2 \) levels, and the dark-count rate of photodetectors. For the local GHZ creation step, we account for the same imperfection of the \( r_1-r_2 \) blockade as for the nonlocal entangling step, the finite lifetimes of the Rydberg levels \( r_1 \) and \( r_2 \), and the imperfect self-blockade of the single excited Rydberg states \( r_1 \). (See Ref. [39] for details.) We estimate the effect of these errors, and numerically optimize the free parameters: the Rabi frequency \( \Omega \) of the transferring pulses \( g \rightarrow r_1 \) and \( r_1 \rightarrow f \), and the number of local atoms \( n \), for principle quantum numbers, \( 50 \leq \tilde{n} \leq 150 \) of the Rydberg levels, in order to find the minimal error per atom, \( E = \epsilon_{\text{opt}}/N \).

To illustrate, for Rydberg levels \( \tilde{n} = 120 \), we find that the highest fidelity is reached for \( n_{\text{opt}} \approx 146 \), and \( \Omega = 10^5 \gamma \), where \( \gamma \approx 10^3 \text{ s}^{-1} \) is the natural linewidth of the Rydberg levels, for a clock size of \( (Mn)_{\text{opt}} = 2500 \). In this case, the error per atom is \( E_{\text{min}} = [\epsilon_{\text{opt}}/N]_{\text{min}} = 1.9 \times 10^{-5} \).

Table I shows the different error sources are shown in Table I. We find that the decay of the Rydberg level and imperfect blockade cause the majority of imperfections, both arising during the critical step, local extension of the GHZ state. (See Ref. [39] for more details.)

With the optimal ensemble size \( n_{\text{opt}} \) determined above, we consider the total number of entangled atoms \( N \). Although having more atoms always results in improved clock precision, entangling all available atoms is not necessarily optimal. To see this, we compare the stability of the entangled clock network and a nonentangled network, and find an optimal entangled atom number \( N_{\text{opt}} \) by maximizing the stability gain over the nonentangled scheme,

\[
G = \frac{\sigma_{\text{non-ent}}}{\sigma_{\text{ent}}/(2F-1)} = e^{-EN\pi/8} \frac{N}{\log N},
\]

where \( \sigma_{\text{ent}} = (1/\alpha_0\tau)(8/\pi)(\sqrt{\log N}/N) \) (from Ref. [6], assuming perfect fidelity, and that \( \tau \) is smaller than the reduced atomic coherence time \( \tau_{\text{rad}}/N \)) and \( \sigma_{\text{non-ent}} = (1/\alpha_0\tau)(1/\sqrt{N}) \) (for \( N \) independent atoms) are the Allan deviations of the two schemes, where \( \alpha_0 \) is the central frequency and \( \tau \) is the total available measurement time. The additional factor of \( 2F-1 = e^{-EN} \) is due to the reduced Fisher information of a nonpure GHZ state, where \( F \) is the fidelity of the initial state. (See Supplemental Material [39] for details.) For \( E = E_{\text{min}} = 1.8 \times 10^{-5} \), Eq. (7) is maximized.
with optimal atom number \( N_{opt} \approx 1/(2E_{\text{min}}) \approx 25,000 \), where \( G_{\text{max}} \sim 12 \), and \( F = [1 + e^{-N_{opt}E_{\text{min}}}] / 2 = 0.82. \) The optimal gain is achieved by 25,000 entangled atoms distributed in \( K_{opt} = N_{opt}/(MN)_{opt} \approx 10 \) clocks.

We presented and analyzed a protocol capable of fully entangling ensembles of neutral atoms located in different atomic clocks. We showed that a realization of our scheme with neutral Yb ensembles is feasible and provides significant gain over nonentangled schemes even in the light of physical imperfections. Our results provide the first detailed proposal for a neutral atom clock network that can serve as a first prototype of the global quantum clock network outlined in Ref. [6].

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