

Protecting Quantum Information via Destructive Interference of Correlated Noise

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Decoherence and imperfect control are crucial challenges for quantum technologies. Common protection strategies rely on noise temporal autocorrelation, which is not optimal if other correlations are present. We develop and demonstrate experimentally a strategy that uses the cross-correlation of two noise sources. Utilizing destructive interference of cross-correlated noise extends the coherence time tenfold, improves control fidelity, and surpasses the state-of-the-art sensitivity for high frequency quantum sensing, significantly expanding the applicability of noise protection strategies.

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Introduction.—Decoherence, typically caused by unwanted couplings to the environment and control noise [1,2], remains a major challenge for quantum technologies. Quantum computation requires reducing its effect to achieve the long memory time and high gate fidelity required for fault tolerance [3,4]. The sensitivity of quantum sensors typically scales with the sensor’s coherence time and is thus also limited by decoherence [5]. While fabrication efforts focus on minimizing noise in quantum devices [6] and quantum error correction techniques allow detection and correction of noise-induced errors [7,8], several important strategies, such as decoherence-free spaces [9], clock transitions [10], dynamical decoupling [11], and composite pulses [12–19], reduce the effect of noise, lowering decoherence and control error rates [20].

Each strategy takes advantage of a “resource” to protect quantum information. Decoherence-free subspaces, for example, employ symmetries in system-bath coupling by storing quantum information in subspaces with low noise susceptibility. Temporal autocorrelations of noise constitute another resource, which dynamical decoupling and composite pulses utilize to partially refocus the effect of system-environment interactions and control noise.

In this work, we propose and experimentally demonstrate a protection strategy that relies on a different kind of resource—the cross-correlation of two noise sources, e.g., control fields. Such cross-correlations exist when the

control fields are generated from the same source or pass through the same transmission line. As an example, we modify the concatenated continuous dynamical decoupling control scheme [21], which has been experimentally demonstrated for coherence protection and quantum sensing [22–32]. As we show, introducing a frequency shift to one of the control fields, which is proportional to the degree of cross-correlation, results in destructive interference of the cross-correlated noise. Our scheme gives an order-of-magnitude enhancement of coherence time, compared to the standard technique, and is limited mainly by the lifetime of the qubit. We use it for improved quantum sensing and robust qubit operations, demonstrating its advantages and broad applicability. Beyond concatenated decoupling, utilizing noise correlations can also be beneficial for other systems and experimental protocols, e.g., for optimization of refocusing pulses and robust coherent control of two- and three-state quantum systems [33].

Theory.—We consider a two-level system with a Hamiltonian ($\hbar = 1$)

$$H = \frac{1}{2}[\omega_0 + \delta(t)]\sigma_z + \Omega_1[1 + \epsilon_1(t)]\cos(\omega_0 t)\sigma_x - 2\Omega_2[1 + \epsilon_2(t)]\sin(\omega_0 t)\cos(\tilde{\Omega}_1 t)\sigma_x, \quad (1)$$

where ω_0 is the qubit bare energy gap, $\delta(t)$ is an environment-induced noise term, Ω_1 is the Rabi frequency of a protective field, perpendicular to the noise [21], with $\epsilon_1(t)$ its relative error [33]. We compensate the first field noise by a second field with Rabi frequency Ω_2 , modulation frequency $\tilde{\Omega}_1$, and relative error $\epsilon_2(t)$. The noise terms are assumed stationary with equal, subunity variance $\overline{\epsilon_i(t)} = 0$, $\sigma^2 \equiv \overline{\epsilon_i(t)^2} \ll 1$; overbar indicates average over

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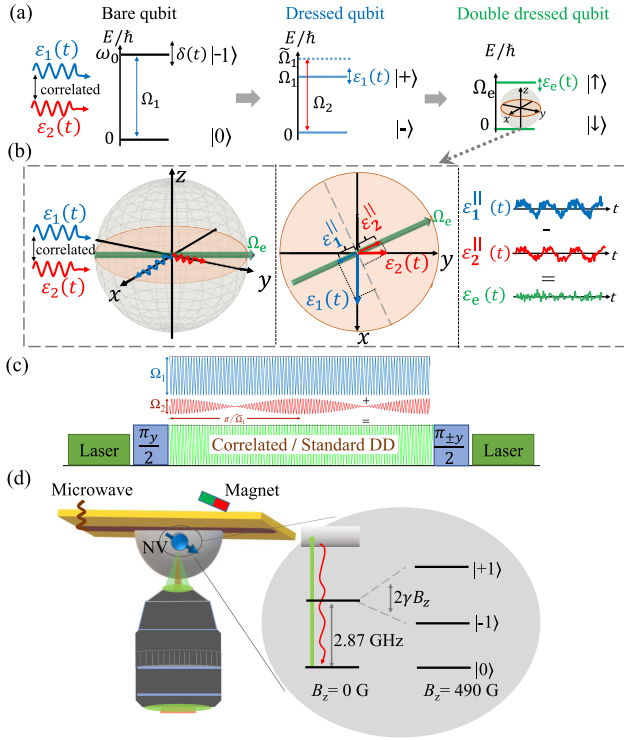


FIG. 1. Schematic representation of destructive interference of cross-correlated noise, control sequences, and experimental setup. (a) The qubit is subjected to environmental noise $\delta(t)$. Applying a resonant drive with Rabi frequency Ω_1 creates a protected dressed qubit which decoheres mainly due to $\epsilon_1(t)$ —the noise in Ω_1 . Applying a second drive with modulation frequency $\tilde{\Omega}_1$, Rabi frequency Ω_2 , and noise $\epsilon_2(t)$ reduces decoherence due to $\epsilon_1(t)$. (b) If the cross-correlation c of $\epsilon_1(t)$ and $\epsilon_2(t)$ is nonzero, a detuning $\tilde{\Omega}_1 - \Omega_1 = c\Omega_2^2/\Omega_1$ tilts the effective-drive axis and induces a destructive interference of the cross-correlated noise, resulting in a doubly dressed qubit with a longer coherence time. (c) Measurement sequences for standard and correlated double drive (DD). The only difference is the value of the modulation frequency of the second driving field $\tilde{\Omega}_1$, which is Ω_1 for standard DD and according to Eq. (3) for correlated DD. The two fields are generated using the same channel of an arbitrary waveform generator and combined into one waveform. (d) Experimental setup and level scheme of the NV center.

experimental runs]. The equal variance assumption is experimentally motivated [33,57], but can be relaxed.

The standard double drive [21,22] relies on the mechanism of continuous dynamical decoupling [see Fig. 1(a) and [33]]. We abbreviate double drive to DD further on (not to be confused with dynamical decoupling). Disregarding potential cross-correlations, the noise of the first field $\epsilon_1(t)$ is optimally decoupled at the standard resonance condition $\tilde{\Omega}_1 = \Omega_1$, but the system suffers from the second field noise $\epsilon_2(t)$ [21,22,33].

Detuning $\tilde{\Omega}_1$ from resonance reintroduces the effect of $\epsilon_1(t)$ when there is no cross-correlation between the noise terms, i.e., $\overline{\epsilon_1(t)\epsilon_2(t)} = 0$. However, nonzero

cross-correlations are expected when the fields share control hardware. Then, reintroduction of $\epsilon_1(t)$ is beneficial, if it is set to destructively interfere with $\epsilon_2(t)$. To show this, we transform H into a doubly rotating frame at $\omega_0\sigma_z/2$ and then $\tilde{\Omega}_1\sigma_x/2$, and apply the rotating-wave approximation $\Omega_2 \ll \Omega_1, \tilde{\Omega}_1 \ll \omega_0$ to obtain [33]

$$H_{\text{II}} = \frac{(\Omega_1 - \tilde{\Omega}_1) + \Omega_1\epsilon_1(t)}{2}\sigma_x + \frac{\Omega_2}{2}[1 + \epsilon_2(t)]\sigma_y. \quad (2)$$

To prolong the doubly dressed [58] qubit's coherence time, we choose $\tilde{\Omega}_1$ to minimize the variance of its energy gap. The resulting detuning $(\tilde{\Omega}_1 - \Omega_1)$ tilts the effective-drive axis to a correlation-dependent angle. Then, the projections of the correlated noise terms on this axis, which affect decoherence to first order, destructively interfere [see Fig. 1(b) and [33] for analysis and further discussion on cross-spectral densities]. The optimal modulation frequency of the second drive, to leading order in $\Omega_2 \ll \Omega_1$, reads

$$\tilde{\Omega}_1 \approx \Omega_1 + c \frac{\Omega_2^2}{\Omega_1}, \quad \text{where } c \equiv \frac{\overline{\epsilon_1(t)\epsilon_2(t)}}{\sigma^2} \quad (3)$$

is the cross-correlation of the fields' fluctuations. Note that this correlation-induced frequency shift is not related to the Bloch-Siegert shift ($\Omega_2^2/4\Omega_1$) [59,60]. It has a different magnitude and physical origin and exists with circularly polarized control fields, where the latter is zero because there are no counter-rotating terms. A complete treatment of both effects requires substituting $c \rightarrow (c + \frac{1}{4})$ into Eq. (3) [33].

The *correlated noise shift* in Eq. (3) [with the $c \rightarrow (c + \frac{1}{4})$ correction] is the main result of this section and defines the correlated DD protocol. Typically, c is system dependent, suggesting to scan the detuning and optimize the coherence time [33]. By doing so, we observe an almost perfect correlation ($c \approx 1$) in our experimental setup, which allows complete noise suppression to first order as the doubly dressed states become (dynamic) clock states [33] (see Supplemental Material Eq. S.15 for coherence time analysis). The resulting stability of the dressed qubit is better than simply the stability of its components, that is, the bare qubit or the control. As Eq. (3) reduces to the standard DD for $c = 0$ we conclude that the destructive interference principle is compatible with dynamical decoupling. We distinguish the contribution of the two-field cross-correlation from the standard DD effect by comparing the two protocols. In the following, we demonstrate the superiority of correlated DD for (1) quantum memory, (2) quantum sensing, and (3) robust coherent control.

Quantum memory.—We experimentally demonstrate correlated DD for a quantum memory in a single nitrogen-vacancy (NV) center in diamond. The diamond sample is

produced by chemical vapor deposition (CVD) and polished into a hemisphere, acting as a solid immersion lens and enhancing photon collection efficiency [33,61,62]. To create NV centers, the surface is overgrown with 100 nm layer of isotopically enriched ^{12}C (99.999%) by plasma-enhanced CVD [63]. The NV center's negative charge state allows optical detection and polarization of its electron spin [64,65]. We apply a bias magnetic field of 490 G parallel to the NV axis to lift the degeneracy of the $m_s = \pm 1$ ground states [Fig. 1(d)] and polarize the nitrogen nuclear spin [66]. We use a 532 nm laser to initialize the system in $|0\rangle$. We prepare a superposition state between $| -1\rangle$ and $|0\rangle$ by a microwave $\pi/2$ pulse, apply a control scheme, and then another $\pi/2$ pulse with a phase that alternates between 0° and 180° , to map coherences back onto populations [Fig. 1(c)]. We estimate the final populations from the difference between the signals, reducing errors due to charge-state and count-rate fluctuations [67]. All control fields originate from the same arbitrary waveform generator and amplifier.

We first consider a Ramsey measurement [33] resulting in a coherence time of $T_2^* = 28.1 \pm 1.8 \mu\text{s}$ (estimates are reported \pm their standard error throughout the text). Decoupling by one continuous field, resonant with the $|0\rangle \leftrightarrow | -1\rangle$ transition, with $\Omega_1 = (2\pi)4.305 \text{ MHz} \pm 3 \text{ kHz}$, increases the coherence time to $T_{2\rho, \text{single drive}} = 114.1 \pm 1.3 \mu\text{s}$. We then use standard DD with $\Omega_1 = (2\pi)4.470 \text{ MHz} \pm 2 \text{ kHz}$ and $\Omega_2 = (2\pi)0.896 \text{ MHz} \pm 2 \text{ kHz}$. We record a sinusoidal trace with frequency Ω_2 , which decays with $T_{2\rho, \text{standard DD}} = 256 \pm 8 \mu\text{s}$ [see Figs. 2(a), 2(b), and 2(c)]. For correlated DD, we first have to determine c and thus the modulation frequency $\tilde{\Omega}_1$. We do so by experimentally varying $\tilde{\Omega}_1$ from Ω_1 to $\Omega_1 + \frac{6}{4}(\Omega_2^2/\Omega_1)$ and measuring the respective coherence times [33]. This specific range is given by Eq. (3) with the $c \rightarrow c + \frac{1}{4}$ correction (recalling $|c| \leq 1$). We find that the optimal $\tilde{\Omega}_1 = (2\pi)4.697 \text{ MHz}$ corresponds to $c \approx 1$ [33], which corroborates our expectation for high noise cross-correlation. The coherence time reaches $T_{2\rho, \text{correlated DD}} \approx 2.8 \text{ ms}$ —an improvement of more than an order of magnitude over standard DD [Fig. 2(a), 2(b) and 2(d)]. It is also 20% higher than the widely used XY8 pulsed dynamical decoupling sequence, which gives 2.32 ms [33]. Given the proximity to the single-drive coherence time limit (cf. $T_{1\rho} \approx 3 \text{ ms}$ [24,68]), it is informative to estimate the relaxation-free coherence time of the two schemes, which demonstrates a greater improvement of 67% [33]. We note that this is achieved without optimizing the Rabi amplitudes, which can further prolong the coherence time [33,69]. In addition, continuous dynamical decoupling has several advantages over pulsed methods, such as uninterrupted protection, negligible memory access latency, and typically lower peak power [70,71].

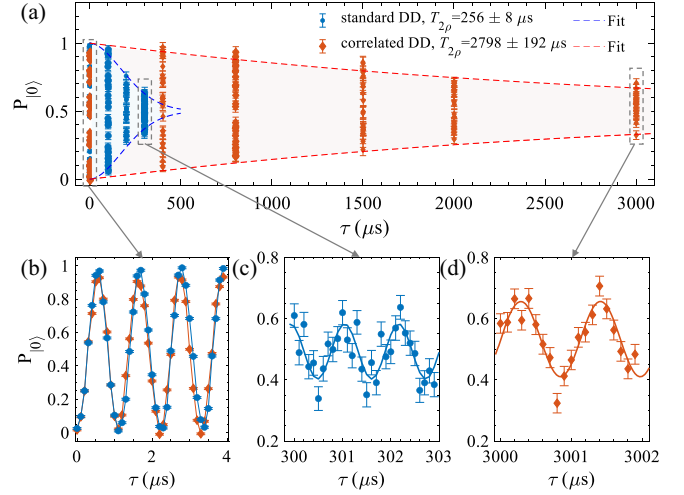


FIG. 2. Experimental measurements of the population of state $|0\rangle$ ($P_{|0\rangle}$) vs experimental time τ , demonstrating improved quantum memory. (a) We fit a stretched exponential function $\exp[-(\tau/T_2)^\beta]$ to the difference between the higher and lower signal envelopes and obtain $T_{2\rho} = 256 \pm 8 \mu\text{s}$ ($\beta = 1.86 \pm 0.17$) for standard DD (blue), which is extended twelvefold to $T_{2\rho} = 2.798 \pm 0.192 \text{ ms}$ ($\beta = 1.04 \pm 0.11$) for correlated DD (red). The higher and lower envelope fits are shown with dashed lines. For correlated DD we shift the modulation frequency, $\tilde{\Omega}_1$, according to Eq. (3) with $c \approx 1$, and the $c \rightarrow c + \frac{1}{4}$ correction. (b)–(d) Close-up views of measurements at $1 \mu\text{s}$, $300 \mu\text{s}$ and 3 ms . The frequency of the signal oscillation in the lab frame is $\approx \Omega_2$, as expected from theory.

To further support our findings, we compare standard and correlated DD by a numerical simulation of a qubit subject to environmental noise, typical of NV centers, and correlated field noise, modeled with Ornstein-Uhlenbeck processes [21,33,72–75]. Correlated DD achieves a coherence time of 3.8 ms, an improvement of twenty times over standard DD [33]. The simulation does not account for relaxation and uses lower Rabi frequencies, resulting in longer coherence times and greater improvement than in the experiment, highlighting the potential capabilities of correlated DD. Figure 3 demonstrates the improvement of correlated and standard DD compared to single-drive decoupling for different correlation times of the amplitude noise. Correlated DD outperforms the standard scheme for all correlation times (and corresponding noise spectra), highlighting its broad applicability.

Quantum sensing.—Standard DD has been used for sensing high-frequency (GHz) [22] and low-frequency (sub-MHz) [25] signals with NV centers. The sensitivity, typically limited by photon-shot noise, effective phase accumulation rate, and coherence time [5,22,33,76–78], reads

$$\eta(\tau) = \frac{2}{\gamma_{\text{NV}} \alpha C(\tau) \sqrt{N_{\text{ph}} \tau}}, \quad (4)$$

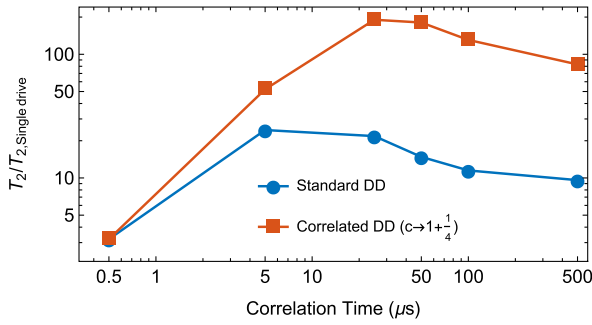


FIG. 3. Simulation of the improvement of coherence time $T_{2\rho}$ for standard and correlated DD in comparison to the single-drive $T_{2\rho} \approx 22.3 \mu\text{s}$ for different noise correlation times [33].

where the optimal measurement time $\tau \approx T_{2\rho}/2$ [5,33,77], $\gamma_{\text{NV}}/2\pi = 28 \text{ Hz/nT}$ is the gyromagnetic ratio of the NV electron spin, $C(\tau)$ is the signal contrast at time τ [33], and N_{ph} represents the average number of photons per measurement. The attenuation factor α quantifies the effective phase accumulation rate $g' = \alpha g_0$, where g_0 is the amplitude of the sensed field [5,33,79]. One challenge for DD based sensing is this signal attenuation, that is, having a low α .

Previous work [22] has demonstrated sensing of a high-frequency ($\omega_g \sim \text{GHz}$) signal by meeting the resonance condition $\omega_g = \omega_0 - \tilde{\Omega}_1 - \Omega_e$, where $\Omega_e \equiv \sqrt{\Omega_2^2 + (\Omega_1 - \tilde{\Omega}_1)^2}$, which has an attenuation factor $\alpha = \frac{1}{4}$. We label this the “high-attenuation” scheme. We demonstrate a “low-attenuation” alternative with $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$, a twofold improvement in sensitivity, using the resonance condition $\omega_g = \omega_0 - \Omega_e$ [33]. This improvement also confers an advantage for quantum computing schemes that rely on dressed qubits [21].

Figure 4 shows a comparison of standard and correlated DD for quantum sensing. The parameters are $\Omega_1 = (2\pi)4.327 \text{ MHz} \pm 3 \text{ kHz}$, $\Omega_2 = (2\pi)0.863 \text{ MHz} \pm 2 \text{ kHz}$, and $\tilde{\Omega}_1 = (2\pi)4.523 \text{ MHz}$. Standard DD yields a coherence time of $T_{2\rho} = 0.496 \pm 0.142 \text{ ms}$ and an effective signal amplitude of $g' = (2\pi)1.54 \pm 0.11 \text{ kHz}$. Correlated DD yields $T_{2\rho} = 1.681 \pm 0.288 \text{ ms}$ and $g' = (2\pi)1.251 \pm 0.016 \text{ kHz}$. We note that $\tilde{\Omega}_1$ does not include the $c \rightarrow (c + \frac{1}{4})$ correction, resulting in slightly lower coherence times than the quantum memory experiments. Standard DD’s susceptibility to amplitude noise necessitated data postselection (about 33% was used) to detect signal-induced oscillations, increasing threefold the total measurement time. This was not necessary for correlated DD due to its robustness. We estimate a correlated DD photon-shot noise limited sensitivity of $\eta \approx 13 \text{ nT}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$, which is approximately 3.3 times better than with standard DD due to the longer coherence time and less overhead [33]. To our knowledge, this sensitivity is better than the state-of-the-art values for high-frequency (GHz) sensing with a single NV center, which are typically in the range of a few

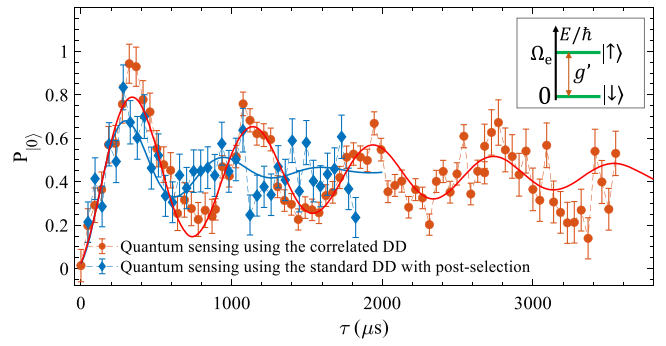


FIG. 4. Quantum sensing measurements of an external high-frequency $[(2\pi)1.487 \text{ GHz}]$ signal of amplitude g_0 using standard and correlated DD with the “low-attenuation” scheme, demonstrating improved sensitivity. We measure the NV state stroboscopically at multiples of $\tau_{\Omega_2} = 2\pi/\Omega_2$, observing Rabi oscillations with angular frequency $g' \approx g_0/2$ in the lab frame. Standard DD’s susceptibility to amplitude noise necessitated data postselection. Inset: a schematic of sensing an external signal using the DD protocols.

hundred [22,80,81] to several tens of $\text{nT}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ [82]. Further refinement in terms of Rabi frequency optimization [24] and photon collection efficiency, can improve sensitivity further.

Robust coherent control.—Coherent control manipulates quantum systems but noise reduces its fidelity. We demonstrate improved robustness to control noise with correlated DD, compared to a conventional π pulse (based on the single drive) and standard DD, in a population transfer simulation in Fig. 5. Note that the speed of operations for each protocol, i.e., the inverse of the pulse duration, is proportional to the effective Rabi frequency of the dressed qubit. Since the amplitude noise scales with the latter, standard DD prolongs the pulse duration and the coherence time by the same factor, compared to the single-drive pulse.

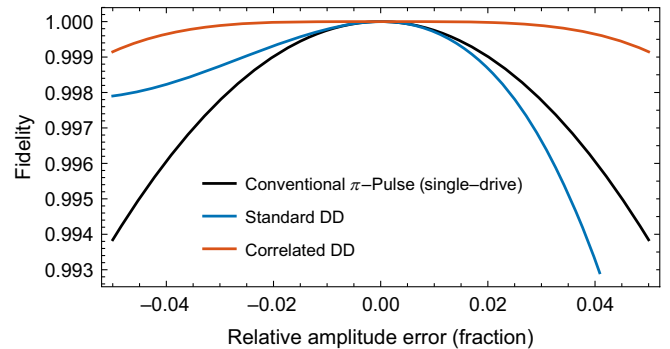


FIG. 5. Simulation of fidelity of population transfer for: conventional π pulse [using a single-drive, black, pulse time $T = (\pi/\Omega_1)$], standard DD [using H_{II} in Eq. (2) and $\tilde{\Omega}_1 = \Omega_1$, blue, pulse time $= 4T$, $(\Omega_2/\Omega_1) = 0.25$], and correlated DD [using H_{II} in Eq. (2) and $\tilde{\Omega}_1 = \Omega_1 + (\Omega_2^2/\Omega_1)$, red, pulse time $= 3.75T$, $(\Omega_2/\Omega_1) = (1/\sqrt{15}) \approx 0.258$]. Correlated DD shows superior robustness.

This results in similar robustness for both protocols, as is evident in Fig. 5. On the contrary, correlated DD improves the aforementioned scaling by using destructive interference of errors, which results in better robustness.

Discussion.—Noise cross-correlations emerge naturally in experiments and should be taken into account [33,83]. Examples include amplitude noise and its respective Bloch-Siegert shift, noise in the flux-bias and drive amplitude of a flux qubit [84], and noisy energy shifts and splittings in multilevel systems using multiple control tones [72,85]. Cross-correlations are also present in qubit spatial ensembles addressed by global control fields. Specifically, compensation of amplitude (B_1) inhomogeneity in NV ensembles is feasible with correlated DD. In addition to improving continuous double drive, utilizing cross-correlations can be useful for a wide range of experimental techniques, e.g., for optimization of pulsed decoupling by replacing the standard π pulse with correlated DD (see Fig. 5) and robust coherent control of two- and three-state quantum systems [33]. Furthermore, fluctuations in global operations in ensembles can be addressed using the method presented here, such as the parallel entanglement of Rydberg atoms, as discussed in [86]. Spatiotemporal environmental cross-correlations and cross-talk in coupled multiqubit systems [87–90] also offer possibilities for optimizing multiqubit control by destructive interference of correlated noise.

Conclusion.—In this Letter, we developed and demonstrated experimentally a destructive interference-based noise protection strategy, which relies on the cross-correlation of two noise sources. We achieve an order-of-magnitude extension of coherence times, allowing for longer quantum memories, improved coherent control, and state-of-the-art sensitivity of quantum sensing. Correlated DD expands the range of applicable control amplitudes, since such protocols are typically upper limited by control noise. Implications include higher dynamic range for sensing protocols, faster operations, and improved protection.

The proposed scheme is general and applicable to a wide range of physical systems, including trapped atoms and ions, solid-state defects, and superconducting qubits. Utilizing noise correlations can improve coherent control beyond correlated double drive. Our protocol can be combined with refocusing-based methods. For example, using it within a rotary echo sequence can correct for the slow spectral components of the uncorrelated part of the amplitude noise, if such exists. Composite pulses, pulsed dynamical decoupling, and optimal control can in principle also be optimized with our method when cross-correlated noise is present.

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