**Regular** Article

# A sensitive and accurate atomic magnetometer based on free spin precession

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Received 5 December 2014 / Received in final form 17 March 2015 Published online 21 May 2015 – © EDP Sciences, Società Italiana di Fisica, Springer-Verlag 2015

**Abstract.** We present a laser-based atomic magnetometer that allows inferring the modulus of a magnetic field from the free Larmor precession of spin-oriented Cs vapour atoms. The detection of free spin precession (FSP) is not subject to systematic readout errors that occur in phase feedback-controlled magnetometers in which the spin precession is actively driven by an oscillating field or a modulation of light parameters, such as frequency, amplitude, or polarization. We demonstrate that an FSP-magnetometer can achieve a  $\sim 200~{\rm fT}/\sqrt{\rm Hz}$  sensitivity (<100  ${\rm fT}/\sqrt{\rm Hz}$  in the shotnoise limit) and an absolute accuracy at the same level.

# **1** Introduction

The past decade has witnessed the development of a wealth of atomic magnetometer methods deploying laser-based preparation and readout of precessing spin polarization in paramagnetic atomic vapours/gases [1]. Applications of atomic magnetometers cover the detection of magnetic fields of biological origin, such as in magnetocardiography [2,3] and magnetoencephalography [4], the detection of ultralow-field NMR [5] and ultralow-field MRI [6] as well as the monitoring of fields in fundamental symmetry experiments [7]. Most of those applications call for magnetometers with the highest possible sensitivity, i.e., the best capability to detect small magnetic field changes, where the absolute precision and accuracy of the field determination are of secondary importance.

Our team is involved in a large collaborative effort [8] searching for a permanent electric dipole moment of the neutron (nEDM experiment). In that experiment an array of Cs vapour magnetometers monitors the spatial and temporal stability of a 1  $\mu$ T magnetic field applied to an ensemble of ultracold neutrons, a task, for which both sensitivity and accuracy are primary issues. The magnetometers use optically detected magnetic resonance (MR) in the so-called  $M_x$ -geometry, in which the frequency of a weak oscillating magnetic field is actively kept in resonance with the atomic spin precession at the Larmor frequency [9,10]. Although a frequency measurement is an intrinsically very precise metrological technique, it suffers from the fact that small errors of the feedback signal's

<sup>b</sup> Present address: Instituut voor Kern- en Stralingsfysica, Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, B3001 Leuven, Belgium. phase yield systematic frequency shifts that may be orders of magnitude larger than the intrinsic magnetometer sensitivity.

Here we report on a magnetometer approach, in which an initially spin-polarized sample of Cs vapour atoms is allowed to freely precess (and decay) at the Larmor frequency in the magnetic field of interest. The free spin precession (FSP) of the atomic spin-polarization is recorded by a weak intensity probe laser beam that affects the FSP process in a minimal way. FSP magnetometry avoids systematic readout errors of feedback-driven magnetometer schemes, while maintaining all advantages associated with performing the field measurement in terms of a frequency measurement, thus offering the potential for a field determination with both high sensitivity and high accuracy.

# 2 FSP magnetometry

The first recording of an optically detected FSP signal in an atomic vapour was reported by Dehmelt [11] in 1957 who showed that the optical absorption coefficient of an atomic vapour is modulated by precessing polarized spin 1/2 atoms. Kukolich [12] extended the work of Dehmelt to spin 1 and spin 2 atoms. In more recent times pump-probe experiments recording the FSP of atomic (electronic) spin polarization were used to study collisional dynamics and light shifts in alkali vapours [13,14].

FSP signals have been deployed for specific magnetometry tasks using (nuclear) spin-polarized mercury atoms [15] and <sup>3</sup>He atoms [16,17], or (electronic) spinpolarized alkali atoms [18–20]. The good signal to noise ratio and simplicity of its implementation makes the FSP

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Fig. 1. (a) Geometry of the magnetically-silent FSP magnetometer. (b) One measurement cycle of duration T. The spin polarization is created by amplitude-modulated light with peak power  $P_p$  during a pumping time  $T_p$ , following which the FSP signal is recorded by a weak readout beam during a time  $T_r$  at constant power  $P_r$ . The top graph represents the laser power before the cell and the lower graph represents the transmitted light power detected by the photodiode (PD). Note that the power and frequency are not presented to scale for clarity.

technique based on atomic alignment (i.e., using linearly polarized light) a useful tool for the easy calibration of magnetic coils [21], or for measuring the magnetic field orientation and modulus [20]. Recently an FSP magnetometer using nuclear-spin-polarized <sup>3</sup>He gas was reported claiming a relative precision  $\Delta B_0/B_0$  below  $10^{-12}$  for the determination of fields  $B_0 > 100$  mT [16].

The FSP magnetometer described hereafter is "magnetically silent", in the sense that its operation does not require the application of an oscillating magnetic field to the sensor cell. This offers a certain advantage when the magnetometer is to be operated in harsh environments, such as in high vacuum and/or in proximity of a high voltage electrode, such as in the mentioned EDM experiment [8].

# **3 Experiments**

# 3.1 Apparatus

Figure 1a shows the layout of the magnetometer. The experiments were performed in Cs vapour using light from a single mode diode laser whose frequency is actively stabilized to the  $4 \rightarrow 3$  component of the Cs  $D_1$  transition by means of Doppler-free saturation spectroscopy. The laser light is carried to the spectroscopy cell by an optical fiber with an integrated electro-optic modulator, EOM (model AM905 from Jenoptik) that allows the electronic control of the laser power. Prior to entering the cell the light emerging from the fiber is collimated to a beam of  $\sim$ 4 mm diameter that is made circularly polarized by a polarizer and a  $\lambda/4$ -plate. A photodiode with a radiant sensitivity of ~0.54  $\mu$ A/ $\mu$ W (~75% quantum efficiency) placed after the cell detects the transmitted laser power. Cesium vapour with a saturated vapour pressure at room temperature is contained in a 30 mm diameter paraffin-coated Pyrex cell [22]. The cell is exposed to a homogeneous magnetic field  $B_0$  of  $\sim 1 \ \mu T$ , produced by a solenoid, and

oriented at 90° with respect to the light's propagation direction  $\hat{k}$ . The sensor cell, solenoid and photodetector are mounted inside of a multi-layer  $\mu$ -metal shield.

# 3.2 Recording FSP signals

A measurement cycle of duration T consists of a pump (preparation) phase of duration  $T_p$ , followed by a readout (probe) phase of duration  $T_r$  (Fig. 1b). During the pump phase atomic spin polarization is created by optical pumping with the circularly-polarized beam. Since optical pumping by cw light in a (polarization destroying) transverse magnetic field is not very efficient, we use the synchronous amplitude modulation method introduced by Bell and Bloom in 1961 [23]. That method was recently extended to excitation by an intensity-modulated laser beam combined with phase-sensitive detection [24–26]. In Bell-Bloom pumping the light intensity is modulated from "on" to "off" state by means of the EOM driven by a square wave of duty cycle  $\eta$ , meaning  $t_{on}/t_{off} = \eta/(1-\eta)$ , producing a peak power  $P_p$ . The modulation frequency is chosen to coincide with the Larmor precession frequency of the spin polarization around the transverse field  $B_0$ . The Larmor frequency of the  $F_g = 4$  Cs ground state is given by  $\omega_L = \gamma_4 |\boldsymbol{B}_0|$  where  $\gamma_4/(2\pi) \approx 3.50$  Hz/nT is the corresponding gyromagnetic ratio. After the preparation cycle the light power is lowered to a constant (i.e., unmodulated) value  $P_r$  that is sufficiently weak, so that it does not induce significant optical pumping (Fig. 1). The time dependent photodiode signal during this readout phase constitutes the signal of interest. The readout signal is recorded with 16 bit vertical resolution by a digital USB oscilloscope (model HS5 from TiePie engineering) sampling the photodiode signal at a rate of 6.25 MHz. It has the generic shape of a damped oscillation, and the extraction of its oscillation (i.e., Larmor) frequency by post-processing of the data allows the determination of the magnetic field. The method is similar to the method described by Jensen [27].

# 4 FSP signal modeling

The build-up of spin orientation by an intensitymodulated laser beam was discussed by Grujić and Weis [26]. The FSP signal originates from the fact that the absorption coefficient of the atomic medium depends on the degree and orientation of its spin polarization S. The explicit time dependence of the transmitted laser power depends on  $\hat{k} \cdot S(t)$ , i.e., on the projection of the polarization onto the light propagation direction  $\hat{k}$ .

We model the spin polarization as a vector polarization (orientation)  $\boldsymbol{S}$  that is proportional to  $\langle \boldsymbol{F} \rangle$ ,  $\boldsymbol{F}$  being the total angular momentum operator. Optical pumping with circularly polarized light produces also a tensor polarization (alignment) oriented along  $\hat{k}$ . However, it is known that alignment contributions are very small on the Cs  $4 \rightarrow 3$  transition of the  $D_1$  line [26]. Moreover, alignment contributions to the FSP signal will manifest themselves as oscillations at  $2\omega_L$  only (for  $\hat{k} \cdot \hat{B}_0 = 0$ ) that can easily be discriminated by filtering.

Neglecting alignment contributions we can model the FSP dynamics by time-dependent solutions of the Bloch equations for the spin orientation vector S

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{S}} = \boldsymbol{S} \times \boldsymbol{\omega}_L - \gamma \boldsymbol{S} + \gamma_r \left( \boldsymbol{S}_{\hat{k}} - \boldsymbol{S} \right), \tag{1}$$

where  $\gamma$  is the polarization relaxation rate (assuming equal longitudinal  $\gamma_1$  and transverse  $\gamma_2$  rates [28,29]). The last term in equation (1) takes the production of spin polarization by optical pumping (at a rate  $\gamma_r$ ) with the low power readout beam into account. The spin orientation  $S_{\hat{k}}$ , parallel to  $\hat{k}$ , would be reached asymptotically by optical pumping if there was no relaxation in the system, i.e.  $\gamma = 0$ .

We choose  $B_0 = B_0 \hat{e}_y$  and  $\hat{k} = \hat{e}_z$  (cf. Fig. 1a) and solve the Bloch equations (1) with the boundary condition  $S(t=0) = -S_0 \hat{e}_x$ . The solution for the polarization component along the light propagation direction is given by

$$S_z(t) = a_c \left( 1 - e^{-\Gamma t} \cos \omega_L t \right) + a_s e^{-\Gamma t} \sin \omega_L t, \qquad (2)$$

where the damping rate  $\gamma$  is affected by residual optical pumping (at rate  $\gamma_r$ ) by the readout beam according to

$$\Gamma = \gamma + \gamma_r. \tag{3}$$

To first order in  $\gamma_r/\gamma$ , the oscillation amplitudes are given by

$$a_c = \frac{\gamma}{\omega_L^2 + \gamma^2} \gamma_r$$
 and  $a_s = \frac{\omega_L}{\omega_L^2 + \gamma^2} \gamma_r + S_0$ , (4)

which reduce to

$$a_c \approx \frac{\gamma_r}{\gamma} \frac{1}{Q^2}$$
 and  $a_s \approx \frac{\gamma_r}{\gamma} \frac{1}{Q} + S_0$ , (5)

in the high-Q limit, where  $Q = \omega_L / \gamma$ .

Following the discussion in references [28,29] the power of a circularly polarized light beam transmitted by an Page 3 of 10

optically thin  $(\kappa_0 L \ll 1)$  ensemble of polarized atoms is given by

$$P(t) \approx P_0(1 - \kappa_0 L) + P_0 \kappa_0 L \alpha_{43}^{(1)} S_z(t), \tag{6}$$

where  $\kappa_0$  is the optical absorption coefficient of the unpolarized ensemble ( $S_z = 0$ ) at the peak of the Dopplerbroadened 4  $\rightarrow$  3 transition, and where the constant  $\alpha_{43}^{(1)}$  is a hyperfine transition specific orientation analyzing power [28,29].

Inserting (2) into (6) then yields a time dependent photocurrent of the general form

$$I(t) = I_{DC} + (I_c \cos \omega_L t + I_s \sin \omega_L t) \ e^{-\Gamma t}.$$
 (7)

The last equation has to be modified in order to take hyperfine relaxation into account. In fact, at the end of the pumping cycle, a substantial population of atoms has transferred to the  $F_g = 3$  hyperfine ground state that is not coupled to the light field therefore reducing the population  $N_4$  on the  $F_g = 4$  state to the value  $N_{4p}$ . At the end of the weak light probing period a new equilibrium will be established with population  $N_{4r}$ . The light absorption is proportional to  $\kappa_0(t) = N_4(t) \sigma_{4\to 3}$ , where  $\sigma_{4\to 3}$  is the light absorption cross section leading to a change of light absorption during the probing period with relaxation rate  $\gamma_{hf}$  between two hyperfine ground sates. The relaxation mechanism can be modeled empirically by

$$N_4(t) = N_{4r} - (N_{4r} - N_{4p}) e^{-\gamma_{hf} t}, \qquad (8)$$

where t refers to the readout process starting at t = 0. As a consequence, the time-dependent power will have the general form

$$I(t) = I_{DC} + I_{hf} e^{-\gamma_{hf}t} + (I_c \cos \omega_L t + I_s \sin \omega_L t) e^{-\Gamma t}.$$
(9)

#### 5 Data analysis and system optimization

Figure 2a shows a raw experimental FSP trace (expressed in terms of the photodiode current) that was obtained under optimized experimental conditions in a field  $B_0$ of 1  $\mu$ T. The Fourier transform of that signal (Fig. 2b) shows resonances at  $\nu_L \sim 3.5$  and  $2\nu_L \sim 7$  kHz, that represent the FSP of the orientation ( $\nu_L$ ) and alignment ( $\nu_L$  and  $2\nu_L$ ). The DC offset and the slowly decaying background from equation (9) are represented by the resonance at 0 Hz.

In order to isolate the signal of interest at  $\omega_L$  we filter the raw data (in time space) by a numerical bandpass filter that removes low frequency components (drift of the laser power, exponential decay from hyperfine relaxation) and the alignment contribution at  $2\omega_L$ , yielding the cleaned-up FSP signal shown in Figure 2c. The filter is a finite impulse response band pass that we have described earlier [21]. The filter's transfer function in the frequency



Fig. 2. (a) Typical FSP time series (raw data) in a 1  $\mu$ T magnetic field recorded by a digital oscilloscope with 16 bit vertical resolution at a 200 kHz sample rate. The inset shows 5 ms of data from the middle part of the signal. The solid line is drawn to guide the eye. (b) FFT of the data from (a) showing oscillations at  $\omega_L/(2\pi) \sim 3.5$  kHz and  $2\omega_L$  caused by precessing orientation and alignment. (c) FSP signal after offline digital filtering (in time space) by a finite response bandpass filter. The solid line represents a fit of the data by the function (11). (d) FFT of the filtered signal in (c), with inset showing the transfer function of the finite response filter  $G(\nu)$ . In both FFT graphs (b,d), the solid and dashed lines represent the average white noise level of 4.0 pA/ $\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$  near the orientation resonance and the photon shotnoise level of 0.55 pA/ $\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ , respectively.

domain (see inset of Fig. 2d) is given by

$$G(\nu) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \operatorname{erf} \left( \frac{\nu - \nu_c + \delta \nu}{\beta} \right) + \operatorname{erf} \left( \frac{\nu + \nu_c + \delta \nu}{\beta} \right) - \operatorname{erf} \left( \frac{\nu - \nu_c - \delta \nu}{\beta} \right) - \operatorname{erf} \left( \frac{\nu + \nu_c - \delta \nu}{\beta} \right) \right],$$
(10)

where  $\nu_c$  (set to  $\nu_L$ ),  $\delta\nu$ , and  $\beta$  represent the filter's center frequency, its spectral width, and the steepness of its edges, respectively.

The precession frequency  $\omega_L$ , the damping rate  $\Gamma$  and the FSP amplitude are obtained by fitting the function

$$I_F(t) = (I_c \cos \omega_L t + I_s \sin \omega_L t) e^{-\Gamma t}, \qquad (11)$$

to the filtered data. The FSP amplitude is then  $I_0 = \sqrt{I_c^2 + I_s^2}$ . We found that the use of the fit function (11) is computationally less power demanding and yields more stable fit results than the equivalent simpler expression  $I_F(t) = I_0 \sin(\omega_L t + \varphi) e^{-\Gamma t}$  with  $\tan \varphi = I_c/I_s$ .

# 5.1 Cramér-Rao lower bound for the standard deviation of $\omega_{\rm L}$

The statistical precision with which the frequency  $\omega_L$  can be extracted from the recorded time series can be expressed by  $\sigma_{\omega}$ . Estimation theory allows expressing the lower bound for  $\sigma_{\omega}$  – known as Cramér-Rao lower bound (CRLB) [30,31] – in terms of experimentally measurable parameters.

The FSP time series consists of discrete data points (photocurrent values)

$$i(n) = I_0 \cos(\omega_L n \Delta t + \varphi) e^{-\Gamma n \Delta t} + w(n), \qquad (12)$$

that are recorded by a digital oscilloscope, where w(n) represents white Gaussian noise, and where the sampling interval  $\Delta t$  is the inverse of the sampling rate. An unbiased frequency estimator, assuming constant  $B_0$  and Gaussian noise, can determine the frequency of a single FSP trace with an uncertainty  $\sigma_f = \sigma_{\omega_L}/(2\pi)$  that is no better than

$$\sigma_f \ge \frac{\sqrt{12}}{(I_0/\rho_I) \ T_r^{3/2}} \ C, \tag{13}$$

where  $I_0/\rho_I$  is the signal to noise ratio (SNR),  $\rho_I$  being the photocurrents's spectral noise density at the resonance Eur. Phys. J. D (2015) 69: 135

frequency.  $T_r$  is the length and  $N = T_r/\Delta t$  the number of data points of the time series. The correction factor Cis unity for an undamped sine wave, while for a decaying signal it is given by

$$C = \frac{N^3}{12} \frac{\left(1 - z^2\right)^3 \left(1 - z^{2N}\right)}{z^2 \left(1 - z^{2N}\right)^2 - N^2 z^{2N} \left(1 - z^2\right)^2},$$
 (14)

where  $z = e^{-\Gamma \Delta t}$  [32]. Note that C strongly depends on  $\Gamma$  and  $T_r$  while its dependence on N is negligible for a reasonably high sample rate  $1/\Delta t$ .

The standard deviation  $\sigma_f$  translates into a lower bound for the statistical uncertainty of the field determination from a single FSP by

$$\sigma_{B_0} = \frac{\sigma_{\omega_L}}{\gamma_F} = \frac{\sigma_f}{2\pi\,\gamma_F}.\tag{15}$$

Since an FSP cycle requires a total time  $T = T_p + T_r$ , the measurement bandwidth is given by  $f_{\rm bw} = 1/(2T) = 1/2 (T_p + T_r)^{-1}$ . Assuming white noise,  $\sigma_{B_0}$  can be converted to a noise density

$$\rho_{B_0} = \frac{\sigma_{B_0}}{\sqrt{f_{\text{bw}}}} = \sigma_{B_0}\sqrt{2T},\tag{16}$$

which measures the magnetometer sensitivity independent of the bandwidth  $f_{\rm bw}$ .

#### 5.2 Optimizing experimental parameters

We characterize the FSP magnetometer's sensitivity in terms of  $\rho_{B_0}$  which has the unit T/ $\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ . Equation (13) shows that the magnetometric sensitivity depends on the signal to noise ratio  $I_0/\rho_I$ , the factor C, and the total FSP recording time T. Each of these quantities depends in a non-trivial way on the experimental parameters of the pump process, viz.,  $P_p$  (the peak pump power),  $\eta$  (the duty cycle of the pulsed pump process, and  $T_p$  (the pump process duration) as well as the parameters of the probe process, viz.,  $P_r$  (the readout power, characterized by  $I_{DC}$ , the DC photocurrent) and  $T_r$  (the FSP recording time). We have carried out a systematic study of the dependence of  $\rho_{B_0}$  on those parameters.

The FSP amplitude  $I_0$  is a function of  $T_p$ ,  $P_p$ ,  $\eta$  and the residual polarization of the medium at the moment when pumping was started. Figure 3 shows the dependence of  $I_0$  on the pumping time  $T_p$ . The readout duration  $T_r$  was chosen to be several relaxation periods long, so that the ground state sublevel populations have fully thermalized before the following pump pulse train. The scattering of the data for  $T_p > 100$  ms is most likely due to laboratory temperature, i.e. Cs density variations. The dashed line represents a fit of the data with  $A = a(1 - e^{-\gamma_p T_p})$ , yielding a pump rate (during the pump process proper) of  $\gamma_p =$  $2\pi 22$  Hz. The overshoot of the data near  $T_p \sim 50$  ms is probably due to the loss of atoms in the  $F_g = 4$  state by hyperfine pumping to the uncoupled  $F_g = 3$  state.



**Fig. 3.** Dependence of the FSP amplitude  $I_0 = \sqrt{I_c^2 + I_s^2}$  on the pumping time  $T_p$  with a pump power  $P_p$  of 40  $\mu$ A, a duty cycle  $\eta$  of 30% (determined to be optimal in an auxiliary experiment) and a readout power  $P_r$  of 1  $\mu$ A.



Fig. 4. Effective FSP relaxation rate  $\Gamma = \gamma + \gamma_r$  as function of probe power  $P_r$ , represented by the DC photocurrent  $I_{DC}$ . The solid (red) line represents a second-order polynomial fit, the linear part of which is shown as dashed (black) line. The inset shows the range of low probe powers that are relevant for the FSP-magnetometer operation. The intrinsic relaxation rate, i.e.  $\Gamma(\gamma_r \to 0)$ , is  $\gamma/(2\pi) = 2.83(2)$  Hz.

#### 5.3 Performance in the shotnoise limit

The effective relaxation rate  $\Gamma = \gamma + \gamma_r$  depends, via  $\gamma_r$  (residual pump rate during the probing phase) in a linear manner on the probe power  $P_r$ . The data in Figure 4 demonstrate that this linear dependence is obeyed for  $\gamma_r < \gamma$ . The saturation behaviour observed for larger probe power levels originates from the creation of higher order atomic polarization moments [33] that are not taken in account by our model that considers only vector polarization. Large readout power levels  $(\gamma_r \gg \gamma)$  increase the correction factor C, while low probe power levels  $(\gamma_r \ll \gamma)$  reduce the signal to noise ratio  $I_0/\rho_I$  of the detected FSP.

Based on the above, one expects the magnetometric noise density  $\rho_{B_0}$  to exhibit a minimum as a function of probe power. The data in the lower part of Figure 5 demonstrate that the probe power dependence of  $\rho_{B_0}$ (evaluated in the shotnoise limit) shows indeed a shallow



Fig. 5. Shotnoise-limited magnetometer sensitivity as a function of probe power (measurement time T = 100 ms, duty cycle 30%), assuming photocurrent-shotnoise-limited performance (a) and with real world noise (b). In both graphs the blue (solid) and purple (dashed) lines represent results obtained with pump power values  $P_p$  of 30 and 15  $\mu$ A, respectively.



Fig. 6. Dependence of the shotnoise limited magnetometric sensitivity on the pumping time  $T_p$  and the pump power  $P_p$ . The measurement time was 100 ms, the probe power 1  $\mu$ A and the pump duty cycle  $\eta = 30\%$ . The experimentally determined minimum of  $\rho_{B_0}$  is below 60 fT/ $\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$  in the shotnoise limit.

minimum for  $\gamma_r \approx \gamma$ . The displayed  $\rho_{B_0}$  values were calculated from equations (13), (16) and (14) using as input parameters the experimentally determined values of  $I_0$  and  $\Gamma$  as well as the set value of  $T_r$ , while the spectral noise density  $\rho_I$  in (13) was taken to be the shotnoise value,  $\rho_I = \sqrt{2eI_{DC}}$  of the DC photocurrent  $I_{DC}$ .

Figure 6 shows contour plots of constant  $\rho_{B_0}$  values as a function of the pump power  $P_p$  and pumping time  $T_p$ , assuming shotnoise-limited detection with a probe power  $P_r$ of 1  $\mu$ A. The elongated region of best sensitivity along the  $T_p$ -direction reflects the saturation behaviour of Figure 3. We note that the pump power of  $\approx 30 \ \mu$ A required for optimal performance is  $\sim 10$  times larger than the optimal





 $ho_{\mathrm{l}}^{2}$  (pA<sup>2</sup>/Hz)

probe power,  $I_{DC}$  ( $\mu A$ )

Fig. 7. Probe power dependence of the spectral noise power density  $\rho_I^2$  of the signal as estimated from the FFT of the signal (black dots). The signal was sampled at 6.25 MHz with a 16 bit resolution. The individual contributions  $\rho_1^2 = \alpha_1 I_{DC}$ , and  $\rho_2^2 = \alpha_2 I_{DC}^2$  are shown below. The fit parameters are  $\rho_0^2 = 1.76(6) \text{ pA}^2/\text{Hz}$ ,  $\alpha_1 = 2.13(15) \text{ pA}^2/(\mu \text{A Hz})$ , and  $\alpha_2 = 1.76(6) \text{ pA}^2/(\mu \text{A}^2 \text{ Hz})$ . The line connecting the experimental data points represents a linear regression  $\sigma_{\alpha}^2 = 1.12(9)I_{DC}^2 + 2.13(15)I_{DC} + 1.76(6) \text{ pA}^2/\text{Hz}$ . The dashed (black) line presents the theoretical lower limit of the  $\sigma_{\alpha}^2$  given by the shotnoise  $2eI_{DC}$ .

power for operating the same vapor cell in the  $M_x$  magnetometer mode [10] using cw light.

### 5.4 Real world magnetometer performance

The FSP magnetometer's performance shown in Figures 5 and 6 is based on experimental parameters, assuming the spectral noise density  $\rho_I$  to be given by the shotnoise of the average photodiode current  $I_{DC}$  during the FSP recording time. In real experiments the noise level generally exceeds the fundamental shotnoise limit, sources of excess noise being technical noise of the laser power, frequency fluctuations of the laser (converted to signal amplitude fluctuations by the spectral line shape of the optical absorption line), intrinsic amplifier noise and noise from the analog/digital conversion process in the data acquisition system. The different noise contributions depend in a different manner on laser power, and a measurement of the power dependence of the signal noise density near the Fourier component of interest  $(f_L = \omega_L/(2\pi))$  is useful for identifying different noise sources. The result of such a measurement is shown in Figure 7, together with a fit by a second order polynomial  $\rho_I^2(I_{DC}) = \rho_0^2 + \rho_1^2 + \rho_2^2$ . One sees that the magnetometer noise has a large  $I_{DC}$ -independent contribution  $\rho_0^2$  of  $\approx 1.7 \text{ pA}^2/\text{Hz}$ , which we believe to originate from digitization noise that results from the interplay of the 16 bit digitizer and the 6.25 MHz sample rate. The contributions  $\rho_1^2$  and  $\rho_2^2$  are proportional to  $I_{DC}$  and  $I_{DC}^2$ , respectively. While the contribution  $\rho_2 \propto I_{DC}$  represents technical laser power noise, the contribution  $\rho_1$  is expected to represent the shotnoise  $(\rho_1 \propto \sqrt{I_{DC}})$  of the photocurrent. The data in Figure 7 show that the latter contribution is  $\sim 6$  times larger than the anticipated shotnoise contribution of  $\rho_1 = \sqrt{2eI_{DC}}$ . The mentioned digitization noise may also be responsible for this excess noise, and planned future experiments with a higher resolution digitizer may shine more light on this.

Knowing the experimental dependence of  $\rho_I$  on the probe power  $I_{DC}$  we can represent the dependence of the real-world magnetometer sensitivity on the probe power. This result is represented by the upper traces in Figure 5, from which we may claim that our present FSP magnetometer is able to measure magnetic field changes below 250 fT with a detection bandwidth of 1 Hz or, equivalently, a recording time of 0.5 s.

# 6 Precision and accuracy

The shotnoise-limited sensitivity of the FSP magnetometer reported above is typically a factor of 10 worse than the sensitivity achieved with a feedback-driven  $M_x$  magnetometer using the same cell at the same temperature [22]. The duty cycle of the FSP mode of operation, in which preparation alternates with readout (actual measurement) contributes a degradation factor of  $\sim 1.5$  to this effect. To this add contributions from the lower readout power and signal damping in the FSP mode compared to the continuous operation mode. It is precisely this aspect which motivated the research described here. Many atomic magnetometry applications, such as the recording of magnetic fields for biomedical purposes [2-4,6] call for magnetometers with the highest possible sensitivity, i.e., the best capability to detect small magnetic field changes. For such applications, the accuracy of the field determination is of secondary importance.

In our collaborative effort searching for a permanent electric dipole moment of the neutron [8] an array of Cs  $M_x$ -magnetometers monitors the spatial and temporal evolution of the magnetic field applied to an ensemble of ultracold neutrons, a task, for which sensitivity is a primary issue. However, the control of systematic effects in that experiment requires the control of magnetic field gradients, derived from readings of two magnetometers located at different positions. An accurate gradient determination sets severe constraints on the precision of those readings.

#### Precision limitation of M<sub>x</sub>-magnetometer

In an  $M_x$ -magnetometer a continuous oscillation at the Larmor frequency is sustained by active feedback [9,10]. In more detail: atomic spin polarization created by optical pumping is made to precess around the magnetic field  $\mathbf{B}_0$  of interest by driving the magnetization with a weak magnetic field  $\mathbf{B}_1(t)$  oscillating at frequency  $\omega_{rf}$  in a direction perpendicular to  $\hat{B}_0$  or rotating at that frequency around  $\hat{B}_0$  in a plane orthogonal to the field. As a consequence the transmitted light intensity oscillates at the frequency  $\omega_{rf}$ , the phase relation between the light modulation and the rf-drive being those of a classical harmonic oscillator (Fig. 8). On resonance the two oscillations



Fig. 8. Phase between rf excitation and optical response in an  $M_x$ -magnetometer that is used for the magnetometer's feedback operation. The linear dependence near resonance extends over a range of  $\pm 100$  pT (for a linewidth  $\gamma/(2\pi)$  of 3.5 Hz), over which the magnetometer has a maximal sensitivity. When an accuracy of ~100 fT is sought, the phase has to be locked to  $\varphi = -\pi/2$  with a precision of ~10 fT.

are dephased by  $-90^{\circ}$ , and near resonance  $(\omega_{rf} \approx \omega_L)$  the phase obeys

$$\varphi \approx -\frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{\delta\omega}{\gamma} = -\frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{\omega_{rf} - \omega_L}{\gamma}.$$
 (17)

This linear dependence is used as a discriminator in a feedback loop that actively locks  $\omega_{rf}$  to  $\omega_L$ .

In order to yield accurate measurement results, the feedback loop has to assure that the phase is precisely locked to  $\varphi = -\pi/2$ . A sought accuracy  $\Delta B$ , say of 10 fT, requires a phase control  $\Delta \varphi = \gamma_F \Delta B/\gamma$  of 10  $\mu$ rad, assuming a relaxation rate of  $\gamma = 2\pi 3.5$  Hz. Even if this precision in the phase setting may be achieved – noting, en passant, the requirement of a phase detector with at least 17 bit resolution to achieve this – it will be practically impossible to guarantee its stability, thinking, e.g., of temperature dependent impedance changes in the feedback circuitry.

From Figure 8 one sees that the discriminator function is linear in a range of  $\pm 100$  mrad near resonance, corresponding to several 100 pT, and the magnetometer will keep its high sensitivity, when the phase is locked within that range. An  $M_x$ -magnetometer may thus be able to measure field changes in the lower fT range, while its absolute field reading may be wrong in the upper pT range.

The Bloch-Siegert shift [34] is a major source for systematic readout errors in  $M_x$ -magnetometers. For practical reasons the rf field used to drive the magnetic resonance is usually laid out as an oscillating, rather than a rotating field. In the rotating wave approximation, one considers only the rf field component that corotates with the polarization around  $\hat{B}_0$ . The neglected counter-rotating field shifts the magnetometer's oscillation frequency by the Bloch-Siegert shift  $\delta B_{BS}$  on the order of  $\approx \gamma/2Q$ , where Q is the resonance's quality factor. As an example the Cs magnetic resonance frequency in a 1  $\mu$ T field ( $\omega_L/(2\pi) = \nu_L = 3.5$  kHz), measured with a 5 Hz linewidth, has a *Q*-factor of 700, thus shifting the resonance by  $\delta \nu_{BS} = 3.6$  mHz, corresponding to a readout error on the order of 1 pT.

# 7 Systematic effects in an FSP magnetometer

Since the FSP magnetometer described here records the free precession of the Cs spin polarization it is not subject to the above systematic shifts associated with driving the resonance in a feedback mode. Nonetheless, its precision and accuracy are affected by several systematic readout errors that we address below. To note that some of these systematic effects will also affect the  $M_x$  magnetometer, in addition to the effects discussed above.

#### 7.1 Light shift

It is well-known that circularly-polarized light may induce a magnetic sublevel shift that is proportional to the optical pumping rate  $\gamma_r$ , itself proportional to the intensity of the readout light beam. This level shift has the same characteristics as the shift induced by a magnetic field directed along the laser propagation direction k, so that the light-induced shift can be expressed in terms of an effective field  $\mathbf{b}_{LS} = b_{LS}\hat{k}$ . The effect vanishes when the laser frequency is tuned exactly to the center of the optical absorption line, and for a laser frequency that is slightly  $(\delta \omega_{opt} \ll \Gamma_D)$  detuned from the line center the light shift reads  $b_{LS} \approx (\delta \omega_{opt} / \Gamma_D) (\gamma_r / \gamma_F)$ , where  $\Gamma_D$  is the Doppler width of the optical transition. For  $\Gamma_D/(2\pi) \approx 300$  MHz,  $\delta\omega_{opt}/(2\pi) = 0.3$  MHz and  $\gamma_r/(2\pi) = 3.5$  Hz one has  $b_{LS} \approx 1$  pT. Noting that  $b_{LS}$  is nominally perpendicular to  $B_0$ , which implies, for a 1  $\mu$ T field, a shift of  $\delta B_{LS} =$  $|B_0 + b_{LS}| - B_0 \approx b_{LS}^2/2B_0$  that is below  $10^{-18}$  T and thus completely negligible for any practical application.

#### 7.2 Quadratic Zeeman effect

In very low magnetic fields the magnetic-field-induced energy spacing of adjacent magnetic sublevels  $|F_g, m_{F_g}\rangle$  and  $|F_g, m_{F_g} - 1\rangle$  are all equal and proportional to  $B_0$ . In this linear Zeeman regime, a magnetic resonance transition between magnetic sublevels of the hyperfine ground state level  $F_g$  consists of  $2F_g$  degenerate overlapping lines that represent the  $2F_g$  magnetic resonance transitions  $|F_g, m_{F_g}\rangle \rightarrow |F_g, m_{F_g} - 1\rangle$  between ground state magnetic sublevels. In larger fields the sublevel spacings acquire – by virtue of the Breit-Rabi interaction – an  $m_F^2$  dependent change that is proportional to  $B_0^2$ . This quadratic Zeeman effect (QZE) lifts the degeneracy of the overlapping lines, which manifests itself (in the general case) in an asymmetrically-broadened magnetic resonance line, assuming that quadratic shifts to be smaller than the linewidths of the individual components. As a consequence the center frequency of the magnetic resonance shifts,

leading to a magnetometric readout error, when the resonance center frequency is used (as is the case with both the FSP and the  $M_x$  magnetometers) to infer the field value. The quantitative value of this shift depends on the degree (and nature, i.e., vector vs. tensor) of the spin polarization created by optical pumping. In a 1  $\mu$ T field the maximum QZE, i.e., the shift obtained with a 100% polarized sample, is on the order of 3 pT. Since this shift can be calibrated, it can be accounted for by a (field dependent) correction of the readout signal.

We note that the magnitude of the QZE-induced shift depends on the field orientation. We have verified that under ideal geometrical conditions, i.e., for  $\mathbf{k} \perp \mathbf{B}_0$ , the FSP magnetometer is not affected by the QZE (as expected from symmetry considerations), while the oscillation frequency of a readout beam propagating along a direction making an angle  $\vartheta \neq \pi/2$  with the magnetic field is affected by a frequency shift that can be explained by the Breit-Rabi formula.

#### 7.3 Imperfect light polarization

Last, but by far not least, we mention our (puzzling) observation that the purity of circular polarization of the readout beam is crucial for avoiding systematic readout errors. We found in fact that in an non-ideal geometry where  $\mathbf{k} \not\perp \mathbf{B}_0$  – a small ellipticity of the laser beam's polarization (i.e., contamination by a finite degree of linear polarization) produces a readout error in the pT range for a ~1  $\mu$ T field. This effect and the quadratic Zeeman effect are currently under detailed study in our lab.

#### 7.4 Magnetometer accuracy

With the exception of the effect associated with light polarization (that we are not yet in a position to quantify), all discussed systematic effects are either negligible or can be corrected for when the system parameters are known. The FSP magnetometer can thus have an accuracy that is comparable to its shotnoise-limited sensitivity. Since the field determination relies on a frequency measurement, the gyromagnetic ratio  $\gamma_F$  plays the role of an atomic calibration constant and the accuracy of any inferred field value will be limited by the precision of the numerical value of  $\gamma_F$ . The gyromagnetic ratio of the  $F_g = 4$  hyperfine level of the  $6^2 S_{1/2}$  Cs ground state used in the FSP magnetometer has the experimental value of  $\gamma_4 = 2\pi 3.49862110(36)$ Hz/nT that can be derived from the ground state's electronic  $(g_J)$  and nuclear  $(g_I)$  Landé factors [35]. The relative uncertainty  $\Delta \gamma_F / \gamma_F$  of  $\sim 10^{-7}$  therefore limits the absolute accuracy of a  $\sim 1 \,\mu\text{T}$  field determination to  $\sim 100 \,\text{fT}$ , again comparable with the statistical uncertainty.

#### 8 Summary and conclusion

We have presented an atomic magnetometer based on the free spin precession of orientation in the  $F_g = 4$  hyperfine ground state of Cs atoms contained in a paraffin-coated

cell at room temperature. We have optimized the experimental parameters (power, duty cycle and duration of the pump process as well as the readout power and duration) in order to achieve an optimal magnetometric sensitivity  $\Delta B_0^{0.5 \text{ s}}$  with a 0.5 s total measurement time.

Under optimized conditions the magnetometer has a shotnoise-limited sensitivity  $\rho_{B_0} < 60 \text{ fT}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ , which represents the average fluctuation of 5 subsequent FSP signals cycles, each one 100 ms duration. Our real-world experiment yielded a sensitivity of  $\approx 200 \text{ fT}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ . The sensitivity may be enhanced by shortening the pumping time using a spectrally broader laser beam (in combination, eventually with a repumper), and expanding the laser beam to fill the whole cell.

We have addressed several systematic effects that may affect the magnetometer's absolute accuracy and cannot identify any effect that would lead to an accuracy above the current (200 fT/ $\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ ) or shotnoise limited (60 fT/ $\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ ) sensitivity of the magnetometer. We note, however, that the last statement is only valid under ideal conditions, viz.,  $\mathbf{k} \perp \mathbf{B}_0$ . We stress that an unexpected – so far unexplained – large frequency shift occurs when this condition is violated. It is very likely that the latter effect is not present in FSP magnetometers operated with linearly polarized light, i.e., detection of the free spin precession of atomic alignment. So far no quantitative studies of the accuracy of alignment-based FSP magnetometers has been performed.

Note also, that in a  $B_0 = 1 \ \mu T$  field, the relative sensitivity  $\Delta B_0^{0.5s}/B_0$  is of the same order of magnitude as the relative accuracy of the gyromagnetic ratio  $\gamma_4$  of the  $F_g = 4$  state.

We feel that FSP magnetometry will be useful for the precise measurement of ratios of gyromagnetic factors [36] in different atoms, such as Cs, <sup>3</sup>He, <sup>4</sup>He, Hg, Rb etc. We also propose to deploy an array of FSP magnetometers as the one described here (or an extension towards aligned atoms) for measuring and monitoring the spatial field distribution in experiments relying on accurate field determinations, such as nEDM experiments. All sensors of the array may be driven by beams derived from a single laser, using only a single EOM. The all-optical feature implies the absence of any galvanic connection to the sensor heads, easing the operation in harsh environments (vacuum, underwater, or near high voltage electrodes), providing that the light to the sensor head and from the head to the photodetector is carried by optical fibers.

This work was supported by the grant 200020\_140421/1 of the Swiss National Science Foundation. We are grateful to H.-C. Koch and M. Kasprzak for useful comments and discussions.

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