

# Mode mixing and losses in misaligned microcavities

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**Abstract:** We present a study on the optical losses of Fabry-Pérot cavities subject to realistic transverse mirror misalignment. We consider mirrors of the two most prevalent surface forms: idealised spherical depressions, and Gaussian profiles generated by laser ablation. We first describe the mode mixing phenomena seen in the spherical mirror case and compare to the frequently-used clipping model, observing close agreement in the predicted diffraction loss, but with the addition of protective mode mixing at transverse degeneracies. We then discuss the Gaussian mirror case, detailing how the varying surface curvature across the mirror leads to complex variations in round trip loss and mode profile. In light of the severe mode distortion and strongly elevated loss predicted for many cavity lengths and transverse alignments when using Gaussian mirrors, we suggest that the consequences of mirror surface profile are carefully considered when designing cavity experiments.

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## 1. Introduction

Fabry-Pérot optical cavities are a leading platform for enhancing and controlling light-matter interactions, enabling coherent interactions between quantised emitters and single photons [1]. This capability has been used to demonstrate deterministic single-photon production [2], atom-photon logic gates [3] and remote entanglement generation [4]. The properties of the cavity constitute the core limitation to the success and scalability of many of their applications [5–7] and, accordingly, cavity design and fabrication remains an active area of research [8–10]

Many seminal demonstrations in optical cavity QED used cavities with superpolished mirrors [11–14]. These mirrors are typically highly spherical within the milling diameter [15] and continue to be used for leading experiments [6, 16]. However, to improve the strength and efficiency of light-matter interfaces, cavities with highly curved mirrors and thus low optical mode volume are beneficial [17], and alternative mirror fabrication techniques have been developed to produce the tight curvatures required while maintaining high surface quality [18–20].

One commonly-employed method is laser ablation, during which evaporation and surface tension effects produce highly-curved substrates with low roughness [21–23]. This technique is often used to place micromirrors on the tips of optical fibres [24]. Cavities constructed in this manner have been coupled to many promising emitters for quantum information processing, including neutral atoms [9, 25, 26], ions [27, 28], quantum dots [29] and nitrogen vacancies [30–32]. However, the ablation laser generally imparts its Gaussian transverse intensity distribution into the mirror profile [33], manifesting particular consequences for the emitter-photon system that are not observed with spherical or parabolic mirrors. Firstly, ellipticity of the addressing laser leads to anisotropic profiles and thus geometric birefringence [34], which can introduce intracavity polarisation rotation [35] that may frustrate applications such as remote entanglement generation [36]. Secondly, the non-spherical mirror surface causes the well-known modes of a cavity with spherical mirrors [37] to mix with each other upon reflection [38], forming new cavity eigenmodes with distinct transverse profiles that produce significant optical losses for certain

46 geometries [39–41]. The issues related to the Gaussian shape of ablated mirrors have encouraged  
47 the development of more advanced ablation techniques [8, 40] or the use of alternative fabrication  
48 methods [42].

49 Mode hybridisation in optical cavities has been well-studied for the idealised scenario of  
50 perfectly transversely aligned mirrors [43]. However, the mirrors of an optical cavity are  
51 commonly subject to transverse misalignment, whether induced by the mirror milling process,  
52 manufacturing tolerances of the mirror substrates, or the alignment and fixing of the mirror  
53 substrates relative to each other [44, 45]. It is therefore important to understand the combined  
54 impact of mirror profile and transverse misalignment to design optical cavity systems that can  
55 function reliably under realistic misalignment.

56 Here, we use recently developed extensions [46] to the mode mixing method of Kleckner  
57 et al. [38] to model transverse misalignment with reduced numerical difficulty compared to  
58 conventional techniques. The paper is organised as follows. In Sec. 2, we summarise the theory  
59 utilised in our investigation. In Sec. 3, we present results for cavities with finite-diameter spherical  
60 mirrors, comparing the calculated losses to the classical clipping model. We then analyse cavities  
61 with Gaussian-shaped mirrors in Sec. 4, exploring how the variable surface curvature yields  
62 more complicated manifestations of mode-mixing physics. Finally, in Sec. 5, we suggest the  
63 implications of the results presented on the design of Fabry P erot microcavities.

## 64 2. Theory summary

65 This paper compares the behaviour of both finite-diameter spherical mirrors (henceforth ‘spherical  
66 cap mirrors’), and Gaussian-shaped mirrors, under transverse misalignment. The analysis  
67 performed uses first a simple geometric approach for predicting the propagation direction and  
68 central waists of the resonant cavity modes under mirror misalignment, and then uses the mode  
69 mixing method [38] to calculate the resonant modes more accurately. A summary of the geometric  
70 and mode mixing approaches to determining the cavity modes are given below.

### 71 2.1. The geometric picture

72 The geometric picture estimates the cavity mode in a simplified manner by restricting itself only  
73 to fundamental Gaussian beams. Firstly, the mode axis is chosen to be the line that intersects  
74 both mirrors orthogonal to their surface. **Secondly, the transverse structure of a fundamental  
75 mode is determined by requiring that the wavefront curvature of the predicted mode matches the  
76 local curvature of the mirror at the intersection of mode and mirror for both mirrors [47]. This  
77 procedure determines the positions and the waists of the mode in each transverse direction.**

78 **The mode predicted by this method, henceforth known as ‘the geometric prediction’ and  
79 denoted  $|\Psi_{0,0}^G\rangle$ , is useful to understand the impact of mirror geometry on mode propagation  
80 direction and central waist.** However, this method accounts for the mirror shape only through its  
81 local gradient and curvature; higher order components in the Taylor expansion of the surface  
82 profile about the intersection point, which become important to describe the surface profile away  
83 from the central intersection with the mode, are not accounted for. For spherical cap mirrors,  
84 the mirror curvature remains constant within the mirror diameter, and therefore, provided the  
85 mode axis intersects the mirror within the finite diameter, the local curvature at intersection  
86 remains constant and only the propagation direction changes upon misalignment [48]. However,  
87 for Gaussian-shaped mirrors, the local curvature varies across the surface, with a reduced and  
88 elliptical curvature away from the centre. Thus for cavities with misaligned Gaussian mirrors, the  
89 local curvature takes two principal values, both smaller than the central curvature of the mirror,  
90 but most strongly reduced in the direction of misalignment. **Detailed algebraic and numeric  
91 results for the case of Gaussian-shaped mirrors may be found in Hughes et al. [46].**

92 **2.2. Mode mixing method**

93 To understand the impact of the full shape of the mirror, a more complete method that can  
 94 account for the entire surface profile is required. A variety of methods have been developed for  
 95 this purpose, which are also relevant for optical interferometers [49]. These methods include the  
 96 iterative diffraction integral technique to determine lowest loss [50] and higher order modes [51],  
 97 or more recently the discrete linear canonical transform to calculate the effect of a cavity round  
 98 trip in the position basis [52]. This investigation employs the mode mixing method [38], which  
 99 has been used to analyse the outcomes of microcavity experiments [39, 53]. At a general level,  
 100 this method describes the action of a mirror through the scattering of input modes to output  
 101 modes in a Hermite-Gauss or Laguerre-Gauss basis, encoding this information as a matrix. A  
 102 brief overview of the principle of the method and the basis functions will be given below.

103 In a Fabry P erot cavity, Maxwell's equations are typically simplified by assuming that the  
 104 propagating field is beam-like and directed at small angles to the nominal  $z$  axis. After this  
 105 assumption, known as the paraxial approximation, the (assumed monochromatic) electric field  
 106 can be described through a simpler scalar field  $u^\pm(x, y, z)$  [54] satisfying

$$\mathbf{E}(x, y, z, t) = \boldsymbol{\epsilon} u^\pm(x, y, z) \exp(\mp ikz) \exp(i\omega t), \quad (1)$$

107 where  $\omega$  is the angular frequency,  $k = \omega/c$  the wavevector,  $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$  the constant linear polarisation of  
 108 the field, which must lie perpendicular to the  $z$ -axis, and  $\pm$  denotes propagation towards positive  
 109 or negative  $z$  respectively. The function  $u^\pm(x, y, z)$  must satisfy the paraxial wave equation

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} u^\pm(x, y, z) = \mp \frac{i}{2k} \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) u^\pm(x, y, z). \quad (2)$$

110

111 A particular set of solutions to this equation, which suit the boundary conditions imposed by  
 112 spherical cavity mirrors, are the Hermite-Gauss solutions, which for symmetric cavities narrow  
 113 to a central waist of width  $w_0$  in the plane  $z = 0$ . The individual solutions are indexed by the  $x$   
 114 and  $y$  indices  $n_x, n_y \in \mathbb{N}$  respectively and are written

$$\begin{aligned} u_{n_x, n_y}^{(\pm)}(x, y, z) = & a(z) H_{n_x} \left( \frac{\sqrt{2}x}{w(z)} \right) H_{n_y} \left( \frac{\sqrt{2}y}{w(z)} \right) \\ & \exp \left[ -\frac{x^2 + y^2}{w(z)^2} \right] \exp \left[ \mp ik \frac{x^2 + y^2}{2R_u(z)} \right] \exp \left[ \pm i(n_x + n_y + 1)\Phi_G \right], \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

115 where

$$\begin{aligned} a(z) = \frac{1}{w(z)} \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi} \frac{1}{2^{n_x+n_y} n_x! n_y!}}, \quad w(z) = w_0 \sqrt{1 + \left( \frac{z}{z_0} \right)^2}, \\ z_0 = \frac{\pi w_0^2}{\lambda}, \quad R_u(z) = z \left( 1 + \left( \frac{z_0}{z} \right)^2 \right), \quad \Phi_G(z) = \arctan \left( \frac{z}{z_0} \right), \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

116 where the wavelength  $\lambda = 2\pi/k$ ,  $H_i$  are the Hermite polynomials, and  $z_0$  is the Rayleigh range  
 117 of the beam. The set of solutions containing all  $n_x$  and  $n_y$  is complete and orthonormal for each  
 118 transverse plane separately.

119 Mirrors normal to the  $z$ -axis are described through matrices whose elements are scattering  
 120 amplitudes from ingoing modes propagating in one direction to outgoing modes propagating in  
 121 the reverse direction. These matrix elements are conventionally calculated through numerical  
 122 integration, but in this investigation we use a faster operator approach [46].

123 Once the mirror matrices (denoted  $A$  and  $B$  for the two mirrors respectively) are calculated,  
 124 the round trip matrix

$$M = BAe^{-2ikL} \quad (5)$$

125 may be found from the sequential action of both mirrors and the accumulated round trip phase.  
 126 The eigenmodes  $|\Psi_i\rangle$  of the round trip matrix are modes of the cavity. These modes will generally  
 127 not be basis states if the mirrors  $A$  and  $B$  themselves scatter amplitude between basis states.

128 As discussed earlier in this section, the mode mixing method uses basis modes derived  
 129 under the paraxial approximation, and the propagation of these modes should be modified for  
 130 high divergence angles [55, 56]. In this manuscript, the most divergent mode presented has a  
 131 divergence half angle of  $7^\circ$ , and most are considerably below this level, so the overall transverse  
 132 mode structure of most modes should be largely accurate for the majority of results, but will  
 133 not be perfectly accurate. In addition, cavities with highly-curved mirrors and sufficient finesse  
 134 may still exhibit resolvable mode splittings from non-paraxial effects even when the mode is not  
 135 highly divergent [57–59]

136 In order to parameterise the mirror shapes for comparison, Gaussian-shaped mirrors have a  
 137 depth profile

$$f_G(x, y) = D \left\{ 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 + y^2}{w_e^2}\right) \right\}, \quad (6)$$

138 taken, by convention, to have a value of zero at the centre of the depression and take more  
 139 positive values towards the edges of the mirrors, where  $x, y$  are transverse coordinates on the  
 140 mirror surface,  $D$  is the depth of the depression, and  $w_e$  is the  $1/e$ -waist of the Gaussian profile.  
 141 The central radius of curvature of such a mirror is  $R_c = w_e^2/2D$ . The mode mixing matrices  
 142 of the Gaussian-shaped mirrors can be calculated through numerical integration, but for this  
 143 investigation are calculated through the techniques detailed in [46].

144 The spherical cap mirrors are assumed to have constant curvature inside of their nominal  
 145 diameter  $D_M$ , and be completely non-reflective outside of that diameter. The spherical cap  
 146 mirror matrices are calculated by numerical integration of the overlap elements over the reflective  
 147 region.

### 148 2.3. Overview of data presented

149 The studies presented in this paper took two identical concave mirrors, either spherical cap or  
 150 Gaussian-shaped, of a specified central radius of curvature  $R_c$  and calculated the cavity mode as  
 151 a function of length  $L$ , defined as the axial length between the centre of the mirror depressions,  
 152 and the mirror misalignment. For each cavity length, two mirrors were formed on-axis, and  
 153 misalignment was then included by displacing them successively in opposite directions along  
 154 the  $x$ -axis; for this investigation, the translation operator derived in [46] was used. For each  
 155 cavity length, the basis of calculation was chosen to match the theoretical modes for a cavity with  
 156 perfectly-aligned spherical mirrors of the same central curvature as the trial mirrors. For each  
 157 mirror shape, cavity length and misalignment, the mode mixing method produces a set of cavity  
 158 eigenmodes  $\{|\Psi_i\rangle\}$  with associated round-trip eigenvalues  $\{\gamma_i\}$  that determine the round-trip  
 159 losses  $\mathcal{L}_{RT_i} = 1 - |\gamma_i|^2$  of the eigenmodes within the cavity. From these eigenmodes, a mode  
 160 of interest must be selected. We choose the mode of interest to be the one that has the greatest  
 161 overlap with the geometrical prediction  $|\Psi_{0,0}^G\rangle$ , as the geometrically expected mode possesses  
 162 the same simple transverse structure as the fundamental mode of an ideal cavity, which bestows  
 163 advantages in many applications. The choice of this approach is justified further in Supplement 1.  
 164 In our investigation, the overlap with the geometrically expected mode is calculated through the  
 165 matrix rotation methods of [46], but could also be determined by numerical integration of the  
 166 cavity mode function overlap.

167 This method of determining the eigenmodes has the additional benefit that it means certain  
 168 basis modes need not be considered by symmetry. As mirror misalignment defines the  $x$ -direction,  
 169 the cavity system remains mirror symmetric in the  $y$ -direction, and therefore cavity eigenmodes  
 170 must have odd or even  $y$ -parity. The geometrical prediction  $|\Psi_{0,0}^G\rangle$  has even  $y$ -parity, and thus the  
 171 mode of interest may only be composed of even  $y$ -parity basis states. This symmetry is exploited  
 172 here to reduce the number of matrix elements that must be calculated.

173 In addition to the magnitude, each complex eigenvalue  $\gamma_i$  has a phase, which must be zero  
 174 (modulo  $2\pi$ ) for the eigenmode to be resonant. In a spectroscopy experiment, the probe frequency  
 175 would typically be tuned to hit resonance, at which point the mode profile and loss could be  
 176 examined. However, to reduce the computational time and difficulty of interpretation, all cavities  
 177 in this investigation were studied at a single wavelength (1033 nm) under the assumption that the  
 178 mode structure would deform negligibly were the probe frequency tuned to hit resonance. This is  
 179 reasonable for our data (see Supplement 1), but for shorter cavities this may be less valid due to  
 180 the increased frequency tuning required to cover one free spectral range.

181 In order to separate the impacts of mode pointing and local curvature variation on the calculated  
 182 mode, after calculation the mode coefficients were expressed in a basis with the same waist size  
 183 and position as the calculation basis, but with direction of propagation matching the calculated  
 184 eigenmode. If the chosen eigenmode propagates at angle  $\phi_x$  from the  $z$  axis towards the  $x$  axis,  
 185 the mode propagates along the unit vector  $(\sin(\phi_x), 0, \cos(\phi_x))$ , and the "co-propagating basis"  
 186 is such that the state  $|\Psi_{n_x, n_y}^C\rangle$  has a corresponding cavity mode function  $u_{n_x, n_y}^{(\pm)}(x_m, y_m, z_m)$ ,  
 187 where

$$x_m = x \cos(\phi_x) - z \sin(\phi_x), \quad y_m = y, \quad z_m = z \cos(\phi_x) + x \sin(\phi_x) \quad (7)$$

188 are the mode coordinates, which are rotated from the standard Cartesian coordinates so that the  
 189 mode propagates along the  $z_m$  axis. Components of the cavity eigenmode can be expressed  
 190 in the co-propagating basis using the rotation matrix methods presented in [46], but could  
 191 equally be found through numerical integration of the overlap between the cavity eigenmode and  
 192 co-propagating basis state. Note that this procedure does not present the cavity eigenmode in the  
 193 basis of the geometrically expected mode, but instead the cavity eigenmode in a basis with the  
 194 same waist as the calculation basis, rotated to match the eigenmode found.

195 Cavities with spherical cap mirrors were simulated on a basis of the first 50 modes in the  
 196  $x$ -direction, and, using the  $y$  mirror symmetry discussed above, the first 25 even modes in the  
 197  $y$ -direction, making a total of 1250 modes. For cavities with Gaussian shaped mirrors, the  
 198 basis contained the first 100 modes in the  $x$  direction, and the first 50 even modes in the  $y$   
 199 direction, making a total of 5000 modes. In order to correctly model diffraction losses in the  
 200 numerical method utilised, the calculation of the Gaussian profile initially occurred in a larger  
 201 basis, containing 115 and 65 states in the  $x$  and  $y$  directions respectively, before being truncated  
 202 to the calculation size as discussed in [46]. Note that numerical integration techniques do not  
 203 need this truncation step. These basis sizes were verified to produce convergence, and using  
 204 larger bases yielded no significant changes to the results. For the purposes of comparing spherical  
 205 cap and Gaussian-shaped mirror profiles, we use  $2w_e$  of the Gaussian mirror as an analogue for  
 206 the finite diameter  $D_M$  of the spherical cap. This has the convenient implication that for a given  
 207 central radius of curvature  $R_c$  and diameter (either  $D_M$  or  $2w_e$ ), the spherical cap and Gaussian  
 208 profiles have the same depth. Further details about the algorithm and its implementation are  
 209 given in Supplement 1.

210 Finally, it should be noted here that, in this investigation, we study concave-concave cavities,  
 211 which have been employed in many experiments [4, 60], and are particularly useful when coupling  
 212 the cavity field to an emitter which must remain distant from the mirror surfaces. However, the  
 213 results presented can also be applied to plano-concave cavities, which have the advantage that  
 214 the mirrors cannot be transversely misaligned from each other, and find application in a variety

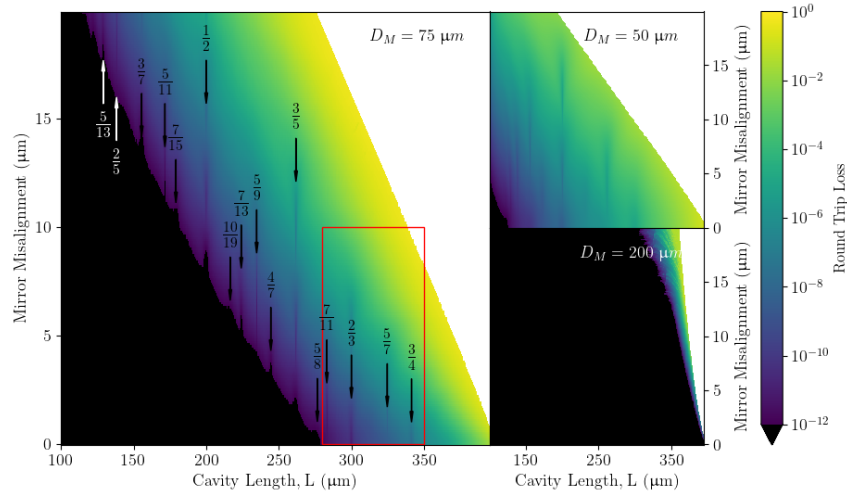


Fig. 1. Round trip loss for cavities with spherical cap mirrors as a function of cavity length and mirror misalignment. Each pair of mirrors forming the cavities has a central radius of curvature of  $200\ \mu\text{m}$ , with data shown for three different diameters  $D_M$  of the mirrors. The cavities are analysed with a wavelength of  $1033\ \text{nm}$ . Data is not calculated for translation-length combinations where the region inside one waist of the expected mode  $|\Psi_{0,0}^G\rangle$  would not be fully enclosed within the spherical cap, with this region left white. Losses below  $10^{-12}$  are not shown, as below this level numerical noise begins to become significant. In the larger plot, the sharp, low-loss bands are labelled by the integer ratio  $q/p$  of transverse mode splitting to free spectral range to which the length corresponds. The red rectangle indicates the region taken for further analysis in figure 2.

215 of contexts [61, 62]. By symmetry arguments, the round trip loss of the plano-concave cavity  
 216 with a lossless, infinite planar mirror is half the round trip loss of the concave-concave cavity  
 217 with twice the length for zero transverse misalignment. No further consideration will be given to  
 218 plano-concave designs for the remainder of the manuscript.

### 219 3. Spherical Mirror Cavities

220 In the absence of finite diameter effects, cavities with spherical mirrors constitute an ideal case  
 221 in which the behaviour of the cavity mode under transverse misalignment is treated in standard  
 222 theory [37, 63]. Here, the mode angle tilts as the mirrors are misaligned, but the mode retains its  
 223 Gaussian transverse intensity profile due to the uniform mirror curvature. It is expected that finite  
 224 diameter spherical mirrors will follow this behaviour until the mirror misalignment is sufficient  
 225 for a significant proportion of this predicted mode to fall outside of the mirror diameter.

#### 226 3.1. Loss structure

227 To investigate the behaviour of cavities with spherical cap mirrors under transverse misalignment,  
 228 cavity mirrors of radius of curvature  $200\ \mu\text{m}$  were modelled at three diameters and the cavity  
 229 eigenmodes were calculated as a function of cavity length and transverse misalignment of the  
 230 mirrors. The loss structure is presented in Fig. 1, qualitatively agreeing with the suggestion that  
 231 the calculated diffraction loss arises when the mode encounters the finite diameter of the mirror.

232 One feature not predicted by the geometric model are the isolated bands of low loss for specific  
 233 length values. These bands result from the resonant mixing of higher-order transverse modes  
 234 with the geometrically-predicted fundamental Gaussian mode and can thus be associated with



235 lengths at which particular transverse modes are degenerate. These degeneracies occur at lengths

$$L_{p,q} = 2R \left[ \frac{\tan^2\left(\frac{\pi q}{2p}\right)}{1 + \tan^2\left(\frac{\pi q}{2p}\right)} \right] \quad (8)$$

236 for integer  $p$  and  $q$ , with  $q/p$  the ratio of the transverse mode splitting to the free spectral range  
 237 (in a cavity with zero diffraction loss and the same mirror curvature) [64]. It should be noted  
 238 though that while these resonances reduce the round trip loss, for cases where the geometrically  
 239 predicted mode remains largely inside the finite diameter, the impact on the mode shape is  
 240 generally minimal.

241 The onset of clipping loss and the role of transverse resonances in reducing these losses are  
 242 investigated further in Fig. 2. Firstly, the cavity becomes higher loss as the mode approaches  
 243 the boundary of the spherical mirror. In the mode-mixing description, this loss manifests as a  
 244 cascade of occupation to ever higher order modes (Fig. 2b). Secondly, at the low loss bands, for  
 245 example in Fig. 2d), the higher-order transverse modes hybridise with the fundamental Gaussian  
 246 mode, while there is very little hybridisation away from these resonances (Fig. 2c). The modes  
 247 of  $\left\{ \left| \Psi_{n_x, n_y}^C \right\rangle \right\}$  that hybridise can be predicted from the resonance label  $q/p$  and from symmetry  
 248 considerations. First, the resonance label (in the case studied  $q/p = 2/3$ ) determines the higher  
 249 order modes that are resonant with the expected mode. These are the modes for which excitation  
 250 index  $\mathcal{I} = n_x + n_y$  is a multiple of  $p$ . Secondly, symmetry constrains that, at zero misalignment  
 251 (which is the case presented), only modes with even  $n_x$  and  $n_y$  indices have both the  $x$  and  $y$  parity  
 252 required to overlap with  $\left| \Psi_{0,0}^C \right\rangle$ . Therefore, at zero misalignment and at the  $q/p = 2/3$  resonant  
 253 length,  $\left| \Psi_{0,0}^C \right\rangle$  mixes with higher order modes for which  $\mathcal{I} = n_x + n_y$  is a multiple of 6 and  
 254 both  $n_x$  and  $n_y$  are even, as seen in the mode occupation patterns (Fig. 2d). **The accompanying**  
 255 **intensity residual plot confirms that the mode hybridises to become physically more compact on**  
 256 **the mirror, providing a mechanism for the observed reduced clipping loss.**

### 257 3.2. Comparison with classical clipping approximation

258 A frequently-used method [65–67] of estimating the losses induced by finite mirror diameter is  
 259 the clipping loss **approximation** [21]. This method calculates the round-trip loss as the power  
 260 falling outside of the bounds of the mirrors during one round trip, on the assumption that the  
 261 mode shape is unaffected by the power loss [68]. Extending the treatment of [21] to the off-axis  
 262 case as performed in [7], the clipping loss is calculated through

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{clip}} = 1 - \left( \int_{S_M} \left| u^{(G)}(x, y, z) \right|^2 dA \right)^2, \quad (9)$$

263 where  $u^{(G)}(x, y, z)$  is the cavity mode amplitude predicted by the geometric model, and  $S_M$  is  
 264 the mirror surface such that  $\int_{S_\infty} |u|^2 dA = 1$ , where  $S_\infty$  is the surface of an infinite mirror. The  
 265 squared integral in the expression for  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{clip}}$  accounts for the two reflections per round trip.

266 The round trip losses predicted by the **clipping approximation and mode mixing method** are  
 267 compared in Fig. 3. Generally, the clipping loss **approximation** underestimates the cavity loss,  
 268 although the scale of the underestimate remains within an order of magnitude throughout. The  
 269 biggest disparities between the methods occur at the transverse resonances, where the clipping  
 270 loss **approximation** overestimates the loss because the loss is reduced by transverse mode mixing,  
 271 which the clipping **approximation** cannot invoke. For particular configurations the difference can  
 272 surpass a factor of 10. Overall, the clipping loss **approximation** is sufficient to estimate the round  
 273 trip loss within an order of magnitude, with the exception of configurations of significant mixing,  
 274 for which the clipping loss estimate is conservative.

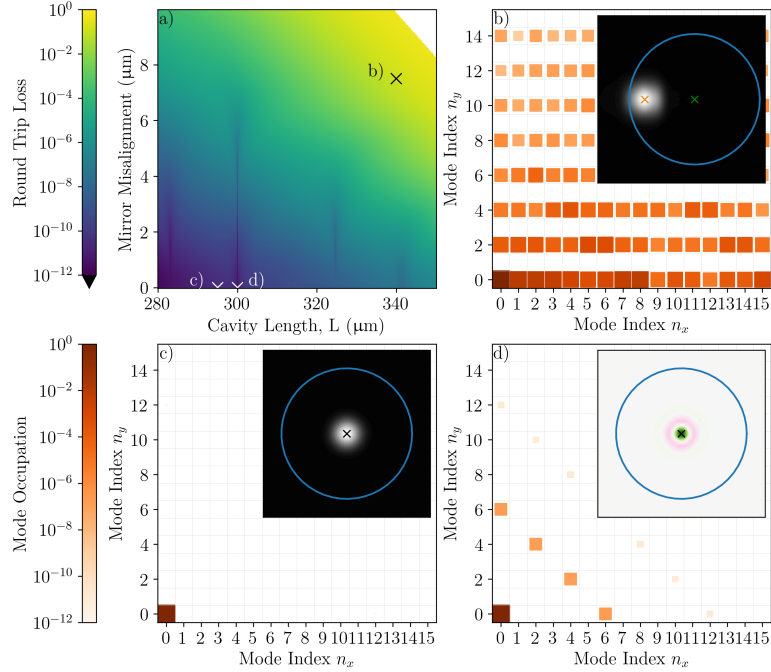


Fig. 2. Example round trip loss and cavity eigenmode data from cavities with spherical cap mirrors of diameter  $D_M = 75 \mu\text{m}$ . a): The round trip loss for different cavity configurations, marking on 3 configurations of interest explored further in the corresponding panels. b) c) and d): breakdowns of the occupations of the cavity mode in the co-propagating basis  $\{|\Psi_{n_x, n_y}^C\rangle\}$  at the configurations of interest, with insets depicting the mode in the plane of the mirror at positive  $z$ . For b) and c), the mode intensity is plotted, and for d) the difference in intensity compared to the geometric prediction  $|\Psi_{0,0}^G\rangle$  is shown. The circle imposed on these insets depicts the mirror boundary. b): The high-loss mode formed as the light begins to impinge on the flats of the mirror. c): The mode in a non-misaligned case away from sharp dips in losses d): The mode in a non-misaligned case at a resonant reduction in losses. The intensity residuals indicate the mode on the mirror is more compact than the geometrical expectation  $|\Psi_{0,0}^G\rangle$ .

#### 275 4. Gaussian Mirror Cavities

276 We now discuss mode hybridisation in cavities with misaligned Gaussian-shaped mirrors. Due to  
 277 the differences between Gaussian and spherical cap mirror profiles, the concepts and terminology  
 278 used to understand spherical cap mirrors in Sec. 3 must be adapted. Firstly, while a spherical  
 279 cap profile has a single fixed curvature within its finite diameter, a Gaussian-shaped mirror has  
 280 a variable curvature across its surface, introducing a distinction between the central radius of  
 281 curvature on the axis of the mirror, and the local radius of curvature where the mode intersects  
 282 the mirror. The expected mode  $|\Psi_{0,0}^G\rangle$  for the Gaussian case must account for the local curvature  
 283 of the mirror, and therefore, at finite misalignment, the expected mode differs between spherical  
 284 cap and Gaussian-shaped mirrors of the same central radius of curvature, though it remains a  
 285 fundamental Gaussian beam. Secondly, while the spherical cap mirror profile becomes abruptly  
 286 non-concave at the finite diameter, the concavity of the Gaussian profile gradually reduces away  
 287 from the centre. Nevertheless, in the Gaussian-shaped case, there remains a boundary outside of  
 288 which the mirror is not concave.

289 The continuously-varying curvature of the Gaussian profile leads to more complicated structures



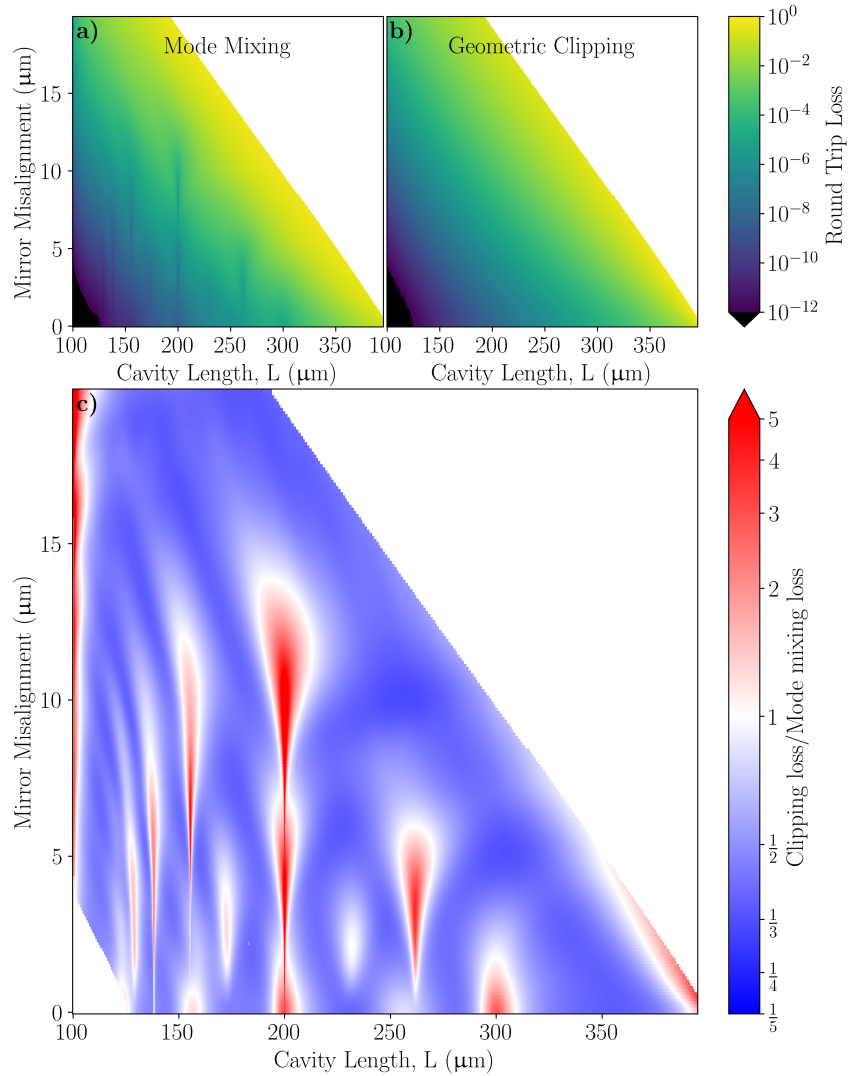


Fig. 3. Comparison of the round trip loss of cavities with spherical cap mirrors of diameter  $D_M = 50 \mu\text{m}$  predicted through both the **mode mixing method** and **classical clipping approximation**. a) The round-trip loss as a function of cavity length and misalignment for mode mixing calculations and b) classical clipping calculations. c) The ratio of the classical clipping loss to the mode mixing loss on a log scale. Red indicates that clipping loss exceeds that calculated by mode mixing, blue indicates the opposite, and white that the methods agree. Data is not shown for the case where the loss determined by either method is below  $10^{-12}$ , as these results are vulnerable to numerical noise.

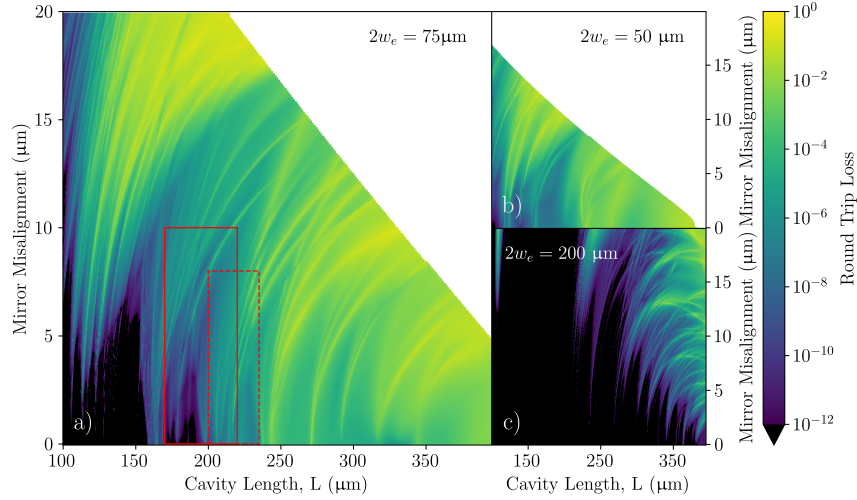


Fig. 4. Round trip loss for cavities with Gaussian mirrors as a function of cavity length and mirror misalignment. Each pair of mirrors forming the cavities has a central radius of curvature of  $R_C = 200 \mu\text{m}$ , but three different Gaussian widths (as marked on the plots) and thus depths are shown. The cavities are analysed with a wavelength of 1033 nm. Data is not shown for cases where the region inside one waist of the expected mode  $|\Psi_{0,0}^G\rangle$  would not be fully enclosed within the positive curvature region of the Gaussian mirror, with this region left white. Losses below  $10^{-12}$  are not shown, as below this level numerical noise begins to become significant. The solid (dashed) red boxes in a) indicate regions of interest that will be explored in figures 8 and 10.

290 in the dependence of round trip loss on cavity configuration, as exemplified in Fig. 4. The most  
 291 striking visual element are bands of high loss, increasing in prevalence as the mirror diameter is  
 292 reduced.

293 It is easiest to understand the physics behind these features in the  $2w_e = 200 \mu\text{m}$  case, depicted  
 294 in Fig. 5, where the mirror has a relatively large Gaussian width and thus deviates minimally from  
 295 the spherical profile for a large region about its centre. **As observed in [39, 69], occupation of  
 296 higher order transverse modes is associated with mode distortion and elevated loss, and typically  
 297 occurs at degeneracies between the high order modes and the fundamental.** In a perfect spherical  
 298 cavity, mode **degeneracy conditions** are determined by the sum of transverse indices  $n_x$  and  $n_y$ ,  
 299 and therefore we categorise the mode intensity in the co-propagating basis  $\{|\Psi_{n_x, n_y}^C\rangle\}$  according  
 300 to ‘transverse excitation’  $\mathcal{I} = n_x + n_y$ , finding that resonances are often dominated by a particular  
 301  $\mathcal{I}$ . The various behaviour seen in Fig. 5 can largely be understood through **mode degeneracy** and  
 302 symmetry, as for the spherical cap case, with the more complex behaviour a consequence of the  
 303 variable curvature across the Gaussian mirror. In the subsequent sections, the individual aspects  
 304 of the loss structures are discussed in turn.

#### 305 4.1. Mode degeneracy shifts

306 In analogy to the low loss bands observed with spherical mirrors, the high loss bands in Fig. 4 can  
 307 be attributed to **degeneracy** of the fundamental and higher-order transverse modes. For spherical  
 308 cap mirrors, the cavity lengths at which mixing features occurred were precisely the lengths of  
 309 transverse mode degeneracies in an ideal spherical mirror cavity. However, for Gaussian mirrors,  
 310 loss bands are generally shifted to greater cavity length values than expected, both with and  
 311 without mirror misalignment. This is due to the distributed intensity of the mode across the

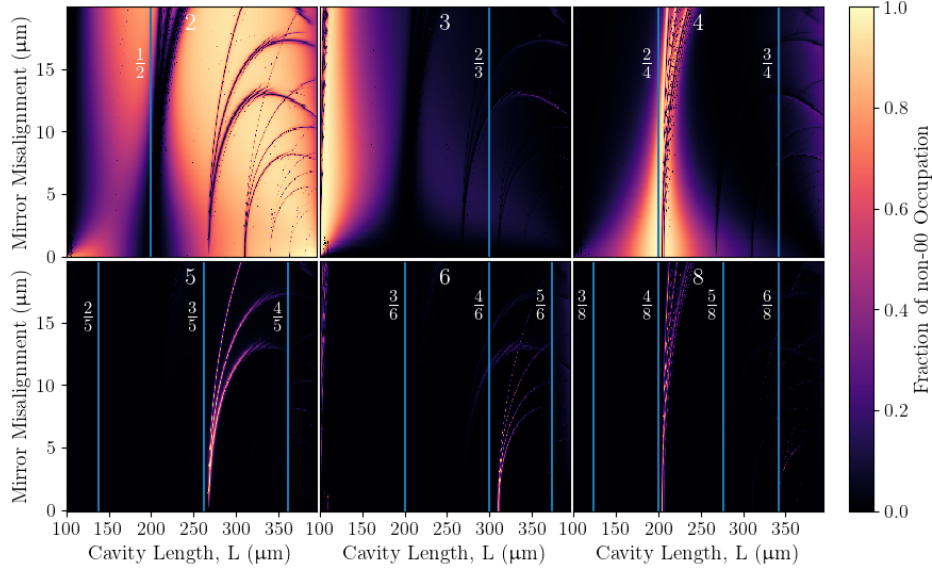


Fig. 5. Occupation of different excitation indices  $\mathcal{I}$  of the cavity mode in the co-propagating basis  $\left\{ \left| \Psi_{n_x, n_y}^C \right\rangle \right\}$  over the length-misalignment map for Gaussian mirrors of  $2w_e = 200 \mu\text{m}$  and central radius of curvature  $200 \mu\text{m}$ . Each panel corresponds to the labelled excitation index  $\mathcal{I}$ , with the lengths of resonance of each excitation index with the  $\left| \Psi_{0,0}^C \right\rangle$  marked by vertical lines with the rational ratio  $q/p$  labelled. For each  $\mathcal{I}$ , the proportion of its occupation out of all not in the  $\left| \Psi_{0,0}^C \right\rangle$  is plotted. As the mirror misalignment increases these resonances move to longer lengths and split into multiplets.

312 mirror, which means that the mode experiences an effective curvature that is some weighting of  
 313 the local curvatures it encounters across the mirror. As the maximum local curvature is found at  
 314 the centre of the mirror, the effective radius of curvature is always bigger than the nominal, central  
 315 radius of curvature, and thus transverse resonances are shifted to longer lengths. As the mode  
 316 order increases, a larger region of the mirror is explored by the mode, and the resonance length  
 317 shift is greater, as seen in Fig. 6. This contrasts with the degeneracy observed with spherical  
 318 mirrors, where by example  $\mathcal{I} = 3$ ,  $\mathcal{I} = 6$  and  $\mathcal{I} = 9$  are coincident for  $q/p = 1/3$ . Similarly, as  
 319 the diameter of the Gaussian mirror is expanded, the cavity mode addresses a region that can be  
 320 better approximated as spherical, shifting the loss bands back to their expected length value, as  
 321 shown in Fig. 7.

#### 322 4.2. Ellipticity

323 The resonances associated with high loss appear to both curve to higher cavity lengths and  
 324 to split into multiplets as the mirrors are misaligned. These aspects can again be understood  
 325 from changes in effective radius of curvature experienced by the mode upon reflection from  
 326 the Gaussian mirrors. As summarised in Sec. 2 and discussed in more detail in [46], the local  
 327 curvature of the mirror at the intersection with the centre of the expected mode decreases as  
 328 the mirror is misaligned, with the decrease much stronger in the direction of misalignment ( $x$ ).  
 329 The decrease in curvature pushes all transverse resonances to longer lengths as misalignment  
 330 increases, rather than remaining at constant length as for the resonant features of the spherical cap  
 331 mirror. At non-zero misalignment, the difference in radius of curvature in the  $x$  and  $y$  directions  
 332 splits the resonant features into multiplets; within a given  $\mathcal{I}$ , the components with higher  $n_x$

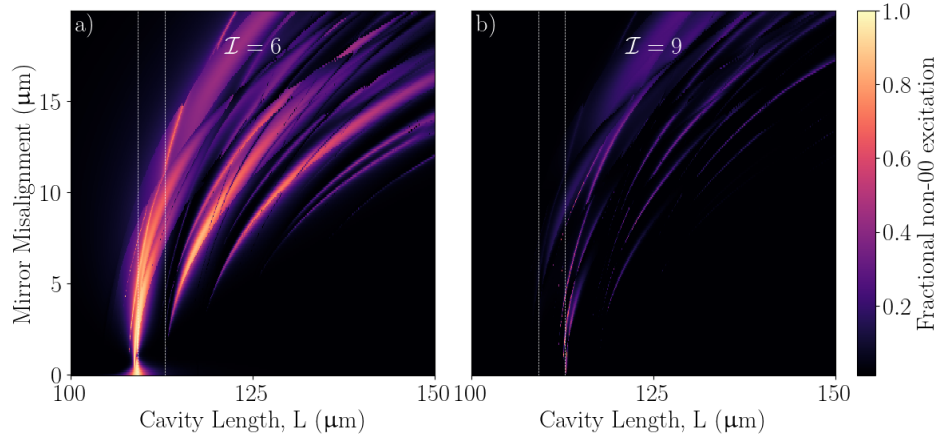


Fig. 6. Example of the resonance shift dependence on excitation index  $\mathcal{I}$ . Fraction of the non-00 occupation of  $\{|\Psi_{n_x, n_y}^C\rangle\}$  in a)  $\mathcal{I} = 6$  and b)  $\mathcal{I} = 9$  as a function of cavity length and mirror misalignment for cavities with Gaussian-shaped mirrors of  $1/e$ -diameter  $2w_e = 75 \mu\text{m}$ . The strongest occupation of  $\mathcal{I} = 6$  tends to occur at lower lengths than for  $\mathcal{I} = 9$ , as can be judged using the guide lines (white, dotted), which are in the same position on each plot

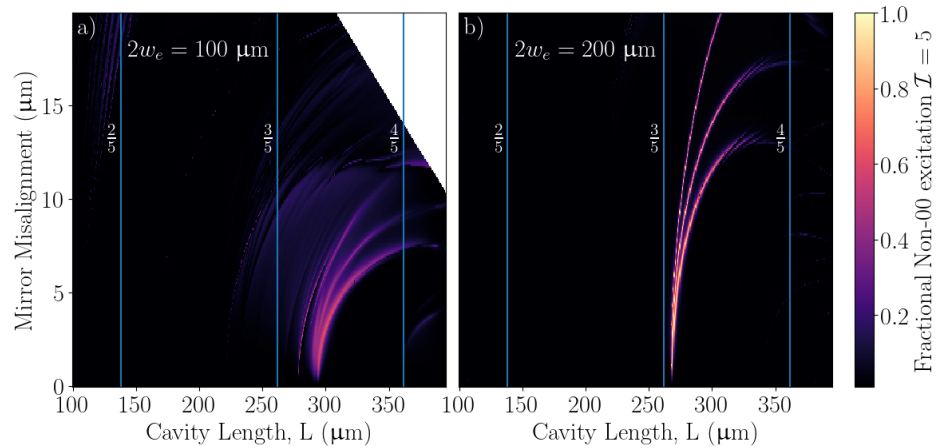


Fig. 7. Example of the resonance shift and its dependence on the Gaussian mirror width. The non-00 probability proportion in  $\mathcal{I} = 5$  of  $\{|\Psi_{n_x, n_y}^C\rangle\}$  is shown for a cavity with Gaussian mirrors of central radius of curvature  $R_c = 200 \mu\text{m}$  and  $1/e$ -diameter  $2w_e$  of a)  $100 \mu\text{m}$  and b)  $200 \mu\text{m}$ . Focusing particularly on the resonant mixing around  $p/q = 3/5$ , it is seen that the shift of this resonance to longer lengths than for cavities with spherical mirrors is much more pronounced for the mirror with the smaller  $w_e$  (panel a).

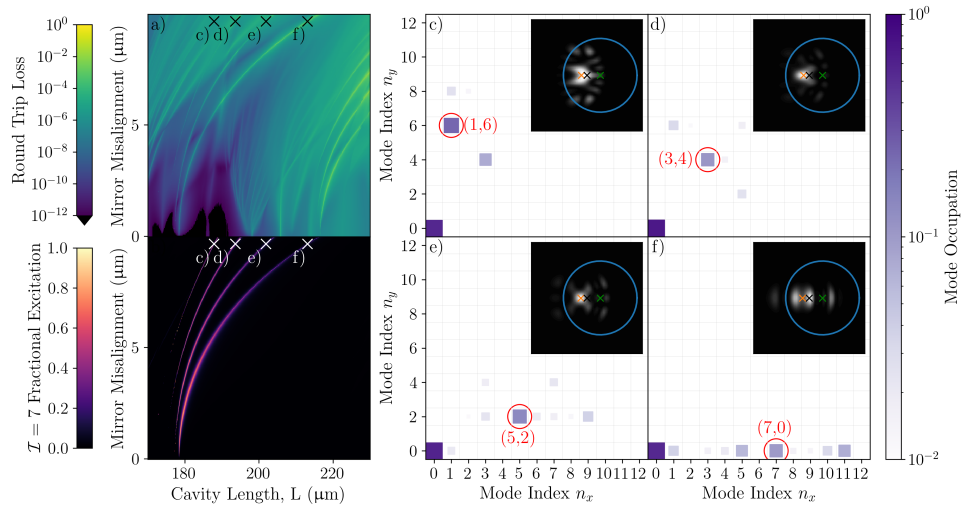


Fig. 8. Study of a resonance feature with modes of  $I = 7$  for the  $2w_e = 75 \mu\text{m}$  mirrors. a) Cavity round-trip loss as a function of length and mirror misalignment and b) fraction of the non- $|\Psi_{0,0}^C\rangle$  occupation in  $I = 7$ , showing that the multiplet has strong occupation in this excitation class. On a) and b), four example points, corresponding to panels (c-f) respectively, are marked. (c-f): Mode compositions and profiles of the configurations shown in panels (a) (b). The main axis shows the occupation of the  $\{|\Psi_{n_x, n_y}^C\rangle\}$  basis, with the inset showing the mode intensity on one of the cavity mirrors. On each figure, the basis state with the largest non- $|\Psi_{0,0}^C\rangle$  occupation is ringed and labelled according to  $(n_x, n_y)$ , with this  $n_x$  increasing across the multiplet in the direction of increasing length.

333 index are resonant at longer lengths. The multiplicity of the multiplets can thus be predicted. For  
 334 example, for the  $I = 6$  resonance, there are 7 states in the Hermite-Gauss basis, but the symmetry  
 335 of the system about the  $y$ -axis dictates that the geometrically expected mode  $|\Psi_{0,0}^G\rangle$  will only  
 336 couple with the modes with even  $n_y$ -indices. Thus this resonance splits to a quadruplet, and the  
 337  $I = 5$  peak should be a triplet, as seen in Fig 5. Finally, it should be noted that the different  
 338 effective curvatures in the  $x$  and  $y$  directions will also introduce a geometric birefringence [34],  
 339 but this phenomenon is beyond the scope of the scalar mode mixing theory.

340 To exemplify this physics, an  $I = 7$  multiplet is studied in Fig. 8. As the misalignment  
 341 increases, the feature splits into a quadruplet, determined by the number of even- $n_y$  states within  
 342  $I = 7$ . The mode composition of points in each of the four arms of the quadruplet was analysed.  
 343 The  $(n_x, n_y)$  indices of the dominant non-00 component in  $\{|\Psi_{n_x, n_y}^C\rangle\}$  for each point was, in  
 344 order of increasing resonant length at a given misalignment,  $(1, 6)$ ,  $(3, 4)$ ,  $(5, 2)$ , and  $(7, 0)$ . As  
 345 expected, the resonances with higher  $n_x$  occur at longer lengths, as these higher-order modes  
 346 are most affected by the strong reduction in curvature in the direction of misalignment. Despite  
 347 all features belonging to the  $I = 7$  resonance, each peak presents a dramatically different mode  
 348 shape, as the higher order mode that mixes most strongly changes between the peaks of the  
 349 multiplet.

### 350 4.3. Parity

351 Some of the loss bands seen in Fig. 4 emerge only at non-zero misalignment. As most easily seen in  
 352 Fig. 5, these bands correspond to odd values of  $I$ , and the phenomenon is consequently understood  
 353 through symmetry. Mode mixing occurs when the mirror mixes the  $|\Psi_{0,0}^C\rangle$  mode (which has

354 even-parity in both Cartesian directions) with a higher order mode. At zero misalignment, the  
355 Gaussian mirror has mirror symmetry in both transverse directions about the point where the  
356 mode intercepts the mirror, and therefore mixing can only occur with modes of even parity in  
357 both  $x$  and  $y$  directions. Such modes exist only for even  $\mathcal{I}$ . Therefore, features corresponding to  
358 mixing with odd  $\mathcal{I}$  cannot extend to zero misalignment. At non-zero misalignment, the mode  
359 intersects the mirror away from its nominal centre. In the direction of the misalignment, the  
360 mirror is no longer symmetric about the intersection of the mode on the mirror due to the varying  
361 radius of curvature on either side of this intersection point. This means that  $|\Psi_{0,0}^C\rangle$  can couple  
362 into modes with both odd and even parity in the direction of misalignment, allowing for coupling  
363 into states with odd  $\mathcal{I}$ . In this way, the resonant features can be classed according to odd or even  
364 symmetry in the direction of misalignment. The variable curvature of Gaussian mirrors renders  
365 the cavity mode vulnerable to odd-symmetry resonant features should the mirrors suffer residual  
366 transverse misalignment.

#### 367 4.4. Mode distortion

368 The mode of interest was selected by finding the cavity eigenmode with the greatest overlap with  
369 the geometrically expected mode  $|\Psi_{0,0}^G\rangle$ . This method was chosen on the assumption that there  
370 would usually exist a cavity eigenmode that was a perturbation of the geometrically expected  
371 mode, which retains the transverse structure of a fundamental Gaussian beam. However, as  
372 shown in Fig. 9, while such a cavity eigenmode can typically be found, there are configurations  
373 where the chosen eigenmode has an overlap of approximately 50%, or occasionally even less,  
374 with the expected mode, even for transversely aligned mirrors. This arises because the expected  
375 mode can fully hybridise with a higher order mode at transverse degeneracies, as observed in [69],  
376 meaning that the cavity eigenmode is not a small perturbation of the expected mode.

377 To investigate such cases further, in Fig. 10, we study the region around the confocal  
378 configurations of this system, where there is very strong occupation of  $\mathcal{I} = 4$  throughout, but  
379 with narrower, high loss regions within. Here, the occupation of higher order modes in the  
380 co-propagating basis is so strong as to make identifying the mode of interest challenging, as the  
381 geometrically expected mode hybridises very strongly, meaning no mode strongly resembles the  
382 expectation. The selected mode is still the one which maximises the overlap with the expectation,  
383 but, where the decision between eigenmodes is finely-balanced, the shape of the selected mode can  
384 change discontinuously across the length-misalignment space as different mode hybridisations  
385 are chosen. These highly distorted modes and discontinuous changes in the transverse profile  
386 can be seen around narrow, high loss features where the mode structure might be expected to  
387 be complex (Fig. 10 e and f), but also for regions of relatively low loss (Fig. 10 c and d). In  
388 applications requiring coupling the cavity mode to an emitter or the extraction of photons from  
389 the cavity to a single-mode fibre, strong mode distortion is, in itself, problematic. Therefore,  
390 for applications of cavities with Gaussian-shaped mirrors, it is important to consider the mode  
391 distortion as well as the round trip loss.

#### 392 4.5. Loss increase at mode degeneracy

393 An obvious point of difference between the two mirrors shapes is that, with spherical cap mirrors,  
394 mixing at mode degeneracies leads to low loss features, whereas for cavities with Gaussian-shaped  
395 mirrors, these features have elevated loss. The spherical cap mirror surface can be partitioned  
396 into one section inside the diameter, which does not mix the co-propagating basis modes, and  
397 the region outside the mirror diameter, which causes mixing and loss. At mode degeneracies,  
398 the cavity eigenmode can hybridise to reduce the intensity falling on the lossy region, causing a  
399 reduction in round trip loss. For the Gaussian mirror case, the same argument cannot be used  
400 directly, because the mirror cannot be partitioned into mixing and non-mixing areas. While



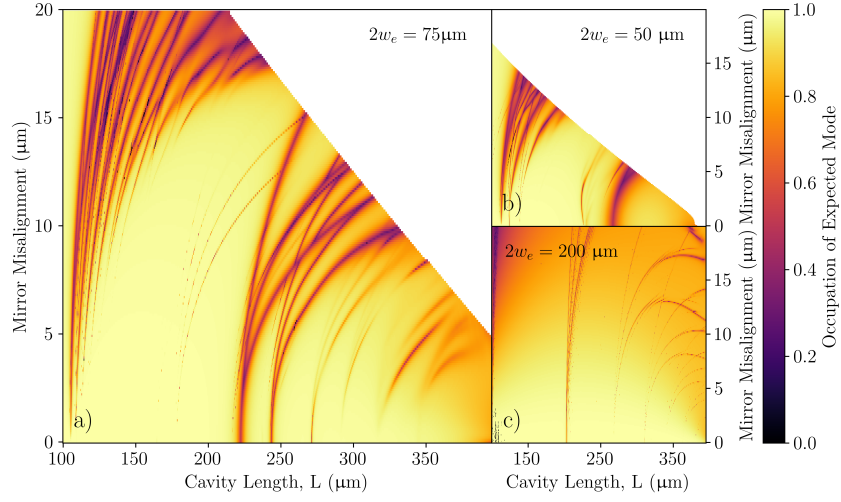


Fig. 9. Overlap of the selected cavity eigenmode with geometrically expected mode  $|\Psi_{0,0}^G\rangle$  for cavities with Gaussian mirrors as a function of cavity length and mirror misalignment. Each pair of mirrors forming the cavities has a central radius of curvature of  $R_c = 200 \mu\text{m}$ , but the plots show three different Gaussian widths (as marked on the plots) and thus depths. The cavities are analysed with a wavelength of 1033 nm. Data is not shown for cases where the region inside one waist of the expected mode  $|\Psi_{0,0}^G\rangle$  would not be fully enclosed within the positive curvature region of the Gaussian mirror, with this region left white.

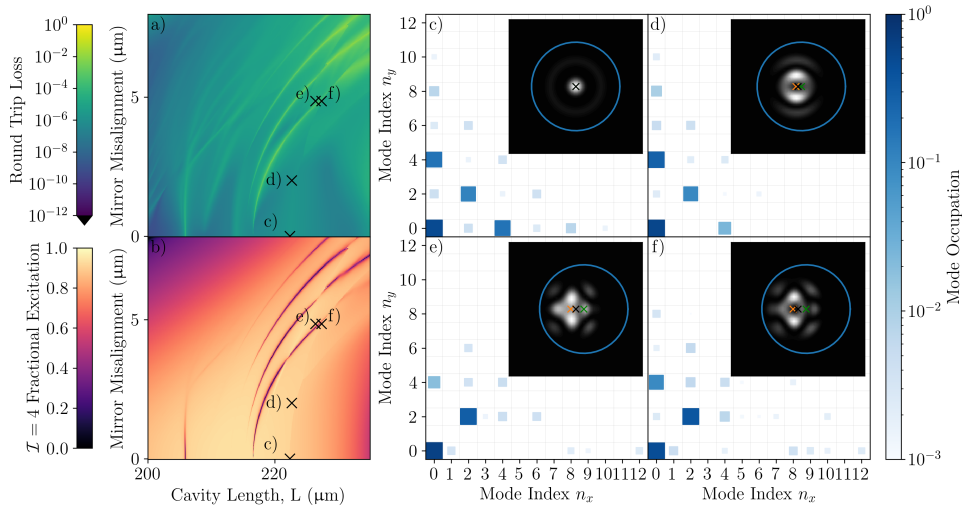


Fig. 10. Study of the confocal configurations of cavities with  $2w_e = 75 \mu\text{m}$  mirrors. a) Round-trip loss as a function of length and mirror misalignment. b) The fraction of the non-00 occupation of  $\{|\Psi_{n_x, n_y}^C\rangle\}$  with  $\mathcal{I} = 4$ ; showing a very broad peak across the configurations shown. On a) and b), four example points corresponding to (c-f) respectively, are marked. (c-f): The mode compositions on the mirror in  $\{|\Psi_{n_x, n_y}^C\rangle\}$  for the configurations shown in panels (a) (b), with insets showing mode intensity.



401 this is not a direct reason that the mixing-induced bands should be high loss for cavities with  
402 Gaussian-shaped mirrors, it does suggest that the mechanism by which loss was reduced for  
403 cavities with spherical-cap mirrors does not apply when those mirrors are Gaussian-shaped.

## 404 5. Conclusion

405 We have conducted a numerical study into the round trip losses of cavities with spherical cap and  
406 Gaussian-shaped mirrors under transverse misalignment. The diffraction losses of cavities with  
407 spherical cap mirrors were found to broadly agree with the frequently-used **classical clipping**  
408 **approximation**. Deviations from the predictions of this **approximation** are seen as sharp dips  
409 in the round trip losses at lengths **for which higher order transverse modes are degenerate with**  
410 **the expected mode**. These higher order modes hybridise with the expected mode to reduce  
411 the intensity falling outside the finite diameter mirror and reduce the losses, but the overall  
412 deformation of the mode is not significant.

413 In the case of Gaussian mirrors, however, the variation in curvature across the mirror introduces  
414 complicated hybridisation effects that distort the mode and increase the cavity loss, even when the  
415 expected mode remains well inside the concave region of the mirror. Instead of low loss bands at  
416 particular resonant lengths, the resonant features are high loss bands which split and curve over to  
417 longer length as the cavity mirrors are misaligned. This behaviour can be understood through an  
418 ‘effective mirror curvature’ seen by the cavity mode, which tends to be lower for higher order basis  
419 states, and to reduce away from the central axis (most prominently in the direction of translation,  
420 but also in the orthogonal direction). These two effects alter the positions of resonance, shifting  
421 them to higher cavity lengths for zero misalignment and curving to longer lengths with increasing  
422 misalignment, while splitting into multiplets. The multiplicity of the resonance can be predicted  
423 by counting the number of symmetry-allowed couplings of the relevant excitation index. These  
424 resonances possess either odd or even character, with the odd resonances only observable when  
425 the cavity is misaligned. For particular configurations, the mixing induced by the Gaussian  
426 mirror may be so strong that no cavity eigenmode resembles a fundamental Gaussian mode.

427 With regards to the use of Gaussian shaped mirrors for quantum technologies, our results  
428 indicate that care must be taken to ensure that the light matter interface would function as  
429 expected, which is not simply a case of ensuring that the expected mode lies within the confining  
430 part of the mirror. In contrast to the spherical cap case where the mixing features are beneficial,  
431 sparse, and do not distort the cavity mode significantly, the Gaussian mirror case has high-loss  
432 regions littered throughout the length-misalignment landscape. These regions can be broad (for  
433 example at lengths just exceeding the confocal length), or very sharp, and the cavity length values  
434 that result in high loss depend strongly on the shape of the mirror and the transverse misalignment.  
435 Misalignment, in addition to bringing the mode closer to the edge of the confining region of  
436 the mirror, brings an extra deleterious effect as the mode is also vulnerable to odd-character  
437 transverse resonances. We anticipate that these observations will find use in the selection of  
438 cavity construction techniques for future cavity QED experiments, and that the methods and  
439 techniques presented will advance understanding of losses in cavities with Gaussian-shaped  
440 mirrors.

## 441 6. Backmatter

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448 **Data availability.** Data underlying the results presented in this paper are available in Ref. DOI added on  
449 **acceptance.** The code that generated the data may be obtained from the authors at reasonable request.

450 **Supplemental document.** See Supplement 1 for supporting content.

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