

Cavity cooling of an optically levitated submicron particle

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The coupling of a levitated submicron particle and an optical cavity field promises access to a unique parameter regime both for macroscopic quantum experiments and for high-precision force sensing. We report a demonstration of such controlled interactions by cavity cooling the center-of-mass motion of an optically trapped submicron particle. This paves the way for a light-matter interface that can enable room-temperature quantum experiments with mesoscopic mechanical systems.

optical trapping | quantum optics | cavity optomechanics | nanoparticles | nanomechanics

The ability to trap and to manipulate individual atoms is at the heart of current implementations of quantum simulations (1, 2), quantum computing (3), and long-distance quantum communication (4, 5). Controlling the motion of larger particles opens up avenues for quantum science, both for the study of fundamental quantum phenomena in the context of matter wave interference (6), and for unique sensing and transduction applications in the context of quantum optomechanics (7, 8). Specifically, it has been suggested that cavity cooling of a single submicron particle in high vacuum allows for the generation of quantum states of motion in a room-temperature environment (9–11), as well as for unprecedented force sensitivity (12, 13). Here, we take steps into this regime. We demonstrate cavity cooling of an optically levitated submicron particle consisting of $\sim 10^9$ atoms (estimated diameter of 340 nm). The particle is trapped at modest vacuum levels of a few millibars in the standing-wave field of an optical cavity and is cooled through coherent scattering into the modes of the same cavity (14, 15). We estimate that our cooling rates are sufficient for ground-state cooling, provided that optical trapping at a vacuum level of 10^{-7} mbar can be realized in the future, e.g., by using additional active-feedback schemes to stabilize the optical trap in three dimensions (16–19).

Cooling and coherent control of single atoms inside an optical cavity are well-established techniques within atomic quantum optics (20–24). The main idea of cavity cooling relies on the fact that the presence of an optical cavity can resonantly enhance scattering processes of laser light that deplete the kinetic energy of the atom, specifically those processes where a photon that is scattered from the atom is Doppler shifted to a higher frequency. It was realized early on that such cavity-enhanced scattering processes can be used to achieve laser cooling even of objects without exploitable internal level structure such as molecules and submicron particles (14, 15, 25, 26). For nanoscale objects, cavity cooling has been demonstrated in a series of recent experiments with nanobeams (27–29) and membranes of nanometer-scale thickness (e.g., refs. 30 and 31). To guarantee long interaction times with the cavity field, these objects were mechanically clamped, which however introduces additional dissipation and heating through the mechanical support structure. As a consequence, quantum signatures have thus far only been observed in a cryogenic environment (32, 33). Freely suspended particles can circumvent this limitation and allow for far better decoupling of the mesoscopic object from the environment. This has been successfully implemented for atoms driven at optical frequencies far detuned from the atomic resonances, both for the case of

optically trapped single atoms (22, 23) and for clouds of up to 10^9 ultracold atoms (34–36). In comparison to such clouds, massive solid objects provide access to a different parameter regime: on the one hand, the rigidity of the object allows to manipulate the center-of-mass (CM) motion of the whole system, thus enabling macroscopically distinct superposition states (10, 11, 37); on the other hand, the large mass density of solids concentrates many atoms in a small volume of space, which provides unique perspectives for force sensing (12, 13). In our work, we have now extended the scheme to dielectric submicron particles comprising up to 10^9 atoms. By using a high-finesse optical cavity for both optical trapping and manipulation, we demonstrate cavity-optomechanical control, including cooling, of the CM motion of a levitated solid object without internal level structure.

To understand the principle of our approach, consider a dielectric spherical particle of radius r smaller than the optical wavelength λ . Its finite polarizability $\xi = 4\pi\epsilon_0 r^3 \text{Re} \left\{ \frac{\epsilon - 1}{\epsilon + 2} \right\}$ (ϵ : dielectric constant; ϵ_0 : vacuum permittivity) results in an optical gradient force that allows to trap particles in the intensity maximum of an optical field (38). The spatial modes of an optical cavity provide a standing-wave intensity distribution along the cavity axis x . A submicron particle that enters the cavity will be pulled toward one of the intensity maxima, located a distance x_0 from the cavity center. For the case of a Gaussian (TEM₀₀) cavity mode, the spatial profile will result in radial trapping around the cavity axis, hence providing a full 3D particle confinement. In addition, Rayleigh scattering off the particle into the cavity mode induces a dispersive change in optical path length and

shifts the cavity resonance frequency by $U_0(x_0) = \frac{\omega_{cav}\xi}{2\epsilon_0 V_{cav}} \left(1 + \frac{x_0^2}{x_R^2} \right)$

(39) (ω_{cav} : cavity frequency; V_{cav} : cavity mode volume; x_R : cavity-mode Rayleigh length). This provides the underlying optomechanical coupling mechanism between the CM motion of a particle moving along the cavity axis and the photons of a Gaussian cavity mode. The resulting interaction Hamiltonian is as follows (e.g., ref. 40):

$$H_{int} = -\hbar U_0(x_0) \hat{n} \sin^2(kx_0 + k\bar{x} + k\hat{x}),$$

where we have allowed for a mean displacement \bar{x} of the submicron particle with respect to the intensity maximum x_0 (\hat{x} : CM position operator of the trapped submicron particle; $k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$: wave number of the cavity light field; \hat{n} : cavity photon number operator).

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For the case of a single optical cavity mode, the particle is trapped at an intensity maximum ($\bar{x}=0$), and, for small displacements, only coupling terms that are quadratic in \hat{x} are relevant (30). Linear coupling provides intrinsically larger coupling rates and can be exploited for various quantum control protocols (41). However, it requires to position the particle outside the intensity maximum of the field. This can be achieved for example by an optical tweezer external to the cavity (10), by harnessing gravity in a vertically mounted cavity (42) or by using a second cavity mode with longitudinally shifted intensity maxima (9, 10).

We follow the latter approach and operate the optical cavity with two longitudinal Gaussian modes of different frequency, namely, a strong “trapping field” to realize a well-localized optical trap at one of its intensity maxima, and a weaker “control field” that couples to the particle at a shifted position $\bar{x} \neq 0$. For localization in the Lamb–Dicke regime ($k^2 \langle \hat{x}^2 \rangle \ll 1$) this yields (8, 43) linear optomechanical coupling between the trapped particle and the control field at a rate $g_0 = U_0(x_0) \sin(2k\bar{x}) k \sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{m\Omega_0}}$ per photon (m : particle mass; Ω_0 : frequency of CM motion). Detuning of the control field from the cavity resonance by a frequency $\Delta = \omega_{cav} - \omega_c$ (ω_c : control field frequency) results in the well-known dynamics of cavity optomechanics (8). Specifically, the position dependence of the gradient force will change the stiffness of the optical trap, shifting Ω_0 to an effective frequency Ω_{eff} (optical spring), and the cavity-induced retardation of the force will introduce additional optomechanical (positive or negative) damping on the particle motion. From a quantum-optics viewpoint, the oscillating submicron particle scatters photons into optical sidebands of frequencies $\omega_c \pm \Omega_0$ at rates $A_{\pm} = \frac{1}{4} \frac{g_0^2(\bar{x}) \kappa}{(\kappa/2)^2 + (\Delta \pm \Omega_0)^2}$, known as Stokes and anti-Stokes scattering,

respectively (κ : FWHM cavity line width). For $\Delta > 0$ (red detuning), anti-Stokes scattering becomes resonantly enhanced by the cavity, effectively depleting the kinetic energy of the submicron particle motion via a net laser-cooling rate of $\Gamma = A_- - A_+$. In the following, we demonstrate all these effects experimentally with an optically trapped silica submicron particle.

As is shown in Fig. 1, our setup comprises a high-finesse Fabry–Perot cavity (Finesse $F = 76000$; $\kappa = 2\pi \times 180$ kHz) that is mounted inside a vacuum chamber kept at a pressure between 1 and 5 mbar. Airborne silica submicron particles (specified with radius $r = 127 \pm 13$ nm) are emitted from an isopropanol solution via an ultrasonic nebulizer and are trapped inside the cavity in the standing wave of the trapping field (*Materials and Methods*). To achieve the desired displacement between the intensity maxima of trapping field and control field ($\bar{x} \neq 0$), we use the adjacent longitudinal cavity mode for the control beam, i.e., the cavity mode shifted by approximately one free spectral range $FSR = \frac{c}{2L} \approx 13.67$ GHz in frequency from the trapping beam (c : vacuum speed of light; L : cavity length). Depending on the distance from the cavity center x_0 , the two standing-wave intensity distributions are then shifted with respect to each other by $\frac{\lambda}{2L}(x_0 + L/2)$ (Fig. 1B). For example, to achieve maximal coupling g_0 for weak control beam powers, i.e., for $\mu = \frac{P_c}{P_t} \ll 1$ [$P_{c(t)}$: power of control (trapping) beam in the cavity], the submicron particle needs to be positioned at $x_0 = L/4$, where the antinodes of the two beams are separated by $\lambda/8$ (9, 10). Note that when the control beam is strong enough to significantly contribute to the optical trap ($\mu \gtrsim 0.1$), the displacement \bar{x} and both Ω_0 and g_0 are modified when μ is changed (35). The exact dependence of these optomechanical parameters on μ depends on x_0 (*SI Text, section 1*).

The optomechanical coupling between the control field and the particle can be used to both manipulate and detect the

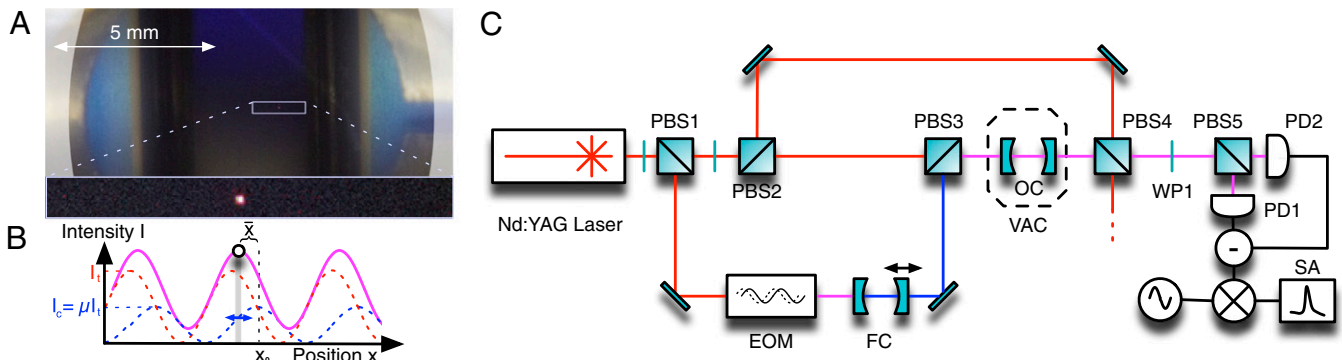


Fig. 1. Optical trapping and readout of a submicron particle in a Fabry–Perot cavity. (A) Submicron particle in a cavity. A photo of our near-confocal Fabry–Perot optical cavity (OC) [$F = 76,000$; $L = \frac{c}{2FSR} = 10.97$ mm, determined via the free spectral range (FSR)]. The white-shaded areas indicate the curvature of the cavity mirrors. The optical field between the mirrors traps a submicron particle. The enlarged *Inset* shows light scattered by the submicron particle. (B) Schematics of two-mode optical trap and dispersive coupling. Two optical fields form standing-wave intensity distributions along the optical cavity axis (dashed lines; blue: control beam; red: trapping beam). Because of their different frequencies, the intensity maxima of the two fields are displaced with respect to each other. A submicron particle is trapped at the maximum of the total intensity distribution (purple solid line). Because the trapping beam is more intense than the control beam, the submicron particle is trapped at a distance $\bar{x} \neq 0$ away from the control beam intensity maximum x_0 . As a consequence, the submicron particle oscillates within a region where the control beam intensity varies with the particle position (blue arrow), resulting in linear dispersive coupling (see main text and *SI Text, section 1*). The displacement \bar{x} depends on the ratio between the intensity maxima of the two fields. (C) Experimental setup. A Nd:YAG laser ($\lambda = 1,064$ nm) is split into three beams at the polarizing beam splitters PBS1 and PBS2. Wave plates (shown as green lines in the figure) are used to set the power of the beams. The transmitted beam is used to lock the laser to the TEM00 mode of the OC and provides the trapping field for the submicron particle. The beam reflected at PBS1 is used to prepare the control beam, which is frequency shifted by $\delta\omega$ close to the adjacent cavity resonance of the TEM00 mode, i.e., $\delta\omega = FSR + \Delta$ (Δ : detuning from cavity resonance). The single-frequency side band at $\delta\omega$ is created using an electro-optic modulator (EOM) followed by optical amplification in fiber and transmission through a filtering cavity (FC) with an FWHM line width of $2\pi \times 500$ MHz. The control and trapping beams are overlapped at PBS3 and transmitted through the OC with orthogonal polarizations. The OC is mounted inside a vacuum chamber (VAC). When a submicron particle is trapped in the optical field in the cavity, its center-of-mass (CM) motion introduces a phase modulation on the control beam. To detect this signal, we perform interferometric phase readout of the control beam: At PBS4, the control beam is separated from the trapping beam and spatially overlapped with the local oscillator (LO). Note that the LO and the control beam are orthogonally polarized. After a polarization rotation by 45° at WP1, PBS5 serves to superimpose the control beam with the LO resulting in interference in its two output ports, where high-frequency InGaAs photo detectors PD1 and PD2 detect the resulting beat signal. We mix (multiply) the difference signal of the two detectors with an ELO of frequency $FSR + \Delta$ and record the NPS of the resulting signal using a spectrum analyzer (SA) (see *Materials and Methods* and *SI Text, section 2*, for more detail).

particle motion. Specifically, the axial motion of the submicron particle generates a phase modulation of the control field, which we detect by heterodyne detection (*Materials and Methods*). We reconstruct the noise power spectrum (NPS) of the mechanical motion by taking into account the significant filtering effects exhibited by the cavity (arising from the fact that $\kappa \approx \Omega_0$) on the transmitted control beam (*SI Text, section 2*). Assuming a particle size of 170-nm radius, as inferred from the particle polarizability (see below), we estimate the position sensitivity of our readout scheme to be $4\text{pm}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$. It is likely limited by classical laser noise (see below).

The properties of our optical trap are summarized in Fig. 2. The influence of the control beam on the trapping potential is purposely kept small by choosing $\mu \approx 0.1$ and $\Delta \approx 0$. We expect that the axial mechanical frequency Ω_0 depends both on the power of the trapping beam P_t and on x_0 through the cavity beam waist $W(x_0)$ via $\Omega_0 = \sqrt{\frac{12k^2}{c\pi} \text{Re}\left(\frac{1-\epsilon-1}{\rho\epsilon+2}\right) \cdot \sqrt{\frac{P_t}{\pi W(x_0)}}}$ (9, 10), in agreement with our data. The damping γ_0 of the mechanical resonator is dominated by the ambient pressure of the background gas down to a few millibars (Fig. 2B). Below these pressures, the submicron particle is not stably trapped anymore, whereas trapping times up to several hours can be achieved at a pressure of a few millibars. This is a known, yet unexplained phenomenon (17, 18, 44). Reproducible optical trapping at lower pressure values has thus far only been reported using feedback cooling in three dimensions for the case of microparticles and nanoparticles (17, 18) or, without feedback cooling, with particles of at least $20\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ radius (45).

We finally demonstrate cavity-optomechanical control of our levitated submicron particle. All measurements have been performed with the same particle for an intracavity trapping beam power P_t of $\sim 55\text{ W}$ and at a pressure of $p \approx 4\text{ mbar}$. This corresponds to a bare mechanical frequency $\Omega_0/2\pi = 165 \pm 3\text{ kHz}$ and an intrinsic mechanical damping rate $\gamma_0/2\pi = 7.2 \pm 0.8\text{ kHz}$, respectively. Fig. 3A shows the dependence of a typical NPS of the particle's motion upon detuning of the control field. Note that the power ratio μ between trapping beam and control beam is kept constant, which is achieved by adjusting the control beam power for different detunings. The amplitude scale, as well as the temperature scale in Fig. 3E, is calibrated through the NPS measurement performed close to zero detuning ($\Delta = 1\text{ kHz}$; blue NPS in Fig. 3A) by using the equipartition theorem for $T = 293\text{ K}$. This is justified by an independent measurement that verifies thermalization of the CM mode at zero detuning for our parameter regime (*SI Text, section 4*). Both the inferred effective mechanical frequency Ω_{eff} (Fig. 3B) and the effective mechanical damping γ_{eff} (Fig. 3C) show a systematic dependence on the detuning Δ of the control beam, in good agreement with the expected dynamical backaction effects for linear optomechanical coupling (*SI Text, section 1*). A fit of the expected theory curve to the optical spring data allows estimating the strength of the optomechanical coupling for different values of μ (Fig. 3D). If the position x_0 of the submicron particle in the cavity is known, then this behavior is uniquely determined by $U_0(x_0)$. For a particle position $x_0 = 1.56 \pm 0.14\text{ mm}$, which was determined independently with a CCD camera, we find $U_0(x_0) = 2\pi \times (145 \pm 2)\text{ kHz}$. These values allow to infer a submicron particle displacement

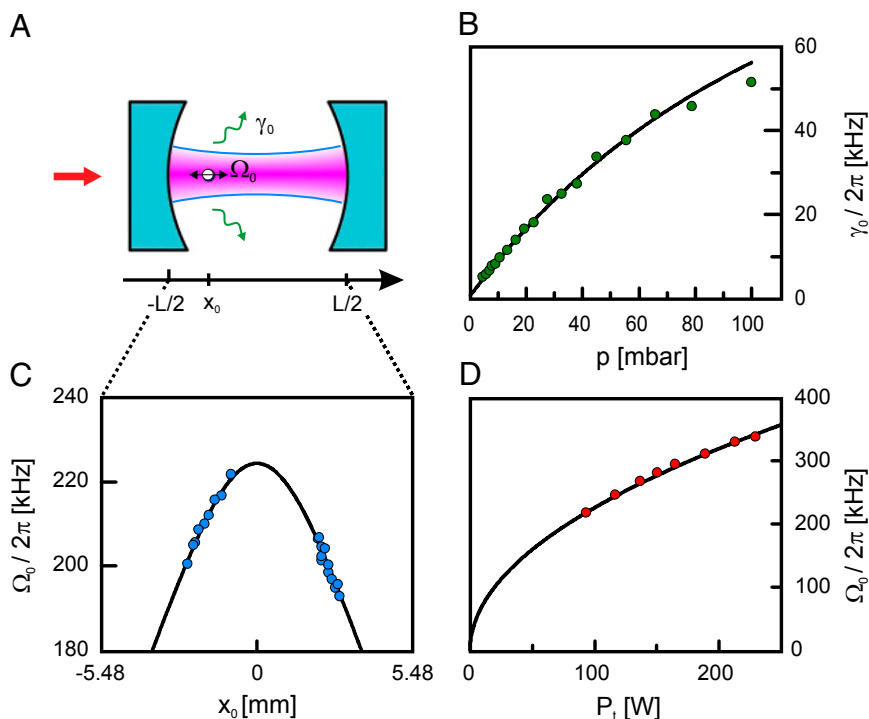


Fig. 2. Experimental characterization of the submicron particle cavity trap. (A) Schematic of the trap configuration. An optical cavity of length $L = 10.97\text{ mm}$ is driven on resonance of a Gaussian TEM00 cavity mode by a laser with a wavelength of $\lambda = 1,064\text{ nm}$. The submicron particle is optically trapped at position x_0 . Its CM motion in the axial direction of the cavity is described by a harmonic oscillator with a frequency Ω_0 and an amplitude of $\sim 10\text{ nm}$. In addition, the submicron particle experiences collisions with the surrounding gas resulting in a damping rate γ_0 . (B) Mechanical damping γ_0 as a function of pressure. The solid line is a fit of kinetic gas theory to the data (*SI Text, section 4*). (C) Position-dependent trapping frequency. The waist of the optical mode expands from $\sim 41\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ at the cavity center to $61\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ at the cavity mirrors, resulting in a position-dependent trapping potential. Here, we show the corresponding change of the trapping frequency Ω_0 with the position of the submicron particle. (D) Power-dependent trapping frequency. We experimentally show the dependence of the trapping frequency on the intracavity power P_t . The solid lines in C and D are based on the theoretical model as described in the main text, with a scaling factor as the only free fit parameter.

and 41, with new opportunities for macroscopic quantum experiments in a regime of large mass (11, 37, 46). The large degree of optomechanical control over levitated objects may also enable applications in other areas of physics such as for precision force sensing (12, 13) or for studying nonequilibrium dynamics in classical and quantum many-body systems (47).

Materials and Methods

Loading of Submicron Particles into the Optical Cavity Trap. For our experiment, we use silica nanospheres (Corpuscular) with a specified radius of $r = 127 \pm 13$ nm, which are provided in an aqueous solution with a mass concentration of 10%. We dilute the solution with isopropanol to a mass concentration of 10^{-7} and keep it for ~ 30 min in an ultrasonic bath before use. To obtain airborne submicron particles, an ultrasonic medical nebulizer (Omron Micro Air) emits droplets from the solution with ~ 3 - μ m size (44, 48). On average, the number of nanospheres per droplet is then $\sim 5 \cdot 10^{-4}$.

The nanospheres are loaded into the vacuum chamber by spraying the droplets through an inlet valve at the end of a 6-mm-thick, 90-cm-long steel tube. We keep the pressure inside the vacuum chamber between 1 and 5 mbar via manual control of both the inlet valve connected to the nebulizer and the outlet valve connected to the vacuum pumps. During the loading process, the trapping laser is kept resonant with the cavity at the desired intracavity power for optical trapping. The low pressure minimizes pressure-induced fluctuations of the optical path length, which significantly simplifies locking the laser to the cavity.

Trapping in the conservative potential of the standing-wave trap is only possible with an additional dissipative process, which is provided fully by damping due to the remaining background gas. Within a few seconds after opening the valve, nanospheres get optically trapped. The standing-wave configuration provides multiple trapping positions. Trapped submicron particles are detected by a CCD camera, which is also used to determine their position x_0 (SI Text, section 5). If initially more than one position in the cavity is occupied, blocking the trapping beam for short intervals allows losing surplus particles for our measurements. To move the trapped particle to different positions along the cavity, we blue-detune the control laser to heat the CM degree of freedom of the particle. The “hot” particle moves across the standing wave until the control beam is switched off and the particle stays trapped at its new position (Fig. 2B).

Readout of Control Beam. For the position readout of the submicron particle motion, we rely on the dispersive interaction with the control field cavity mode. The control laser beam is initially prepared with a frequency difference of $\delta\omega \approx 2\pi \times 13.67$ GHz with respect to the original laser frequency ω_0 . When the control beam is transmitted through the cavity, it experiences a phase

shift according to its detuning from the resonance ω_{cav} . Because the particle position in the cavity modifies the cavity resonance frequency ω_{cav} , a phase readout of the transmitted control beam allows reconstructing the submicron particle's motion. To detect the phase modulation introduced by the particle motion along the cavity, we spatially overlap the control beam (<0.1 mW) with an orthogonally polarized local oscillator (LO) (3.15 mW; at frequency ω_0) at PB54. A half-wave plate rotates the polarization of the beam by 45° resulting in interference of the control beam and the LO in the two output ports of PBS5 (Fig. 1). These optical signals are then detected at photodetectors PD1 and PD2 (Discovery Semiconductor; DSC-R410), which are fast enough to process the beat signal at frequency $\delta\omega$. To detect the full optical signal, we take the difference $I(t)$ of both detector outputs. This eliminates the DC part in the detection. The heterodyne measurement outcome $I(t)$ contains the beat signal with an offset phase ϕ_{opt} , which is determined by the unknown path difference between the LO and the control beam. The beat signal carries side bands representing the amplitude and phase modulation imprinted on the control beam by the optomechanical system. We demodulate $I(t)$ with an electronic local oscillator (ELO) with frequency $\delta\omega$ and phase ϕ_{ELO} (relative to the beat signal). From the resulting signal $s_{opt}(t)$, we extract the phase modulation of $I(t)$ by adjusting ϕ_{ELO} such that the total phase $\phi_{ELO} + \phi_{opt} = \pi/2$. This is achieved by locking the DC part of $\langle s_{opt}(t) \rangle$ to zero. We record the NPS of $s_{opt}(t)$ with a spectrum analyzer, which allows reconstructing the NPS of the submicron particle's motion in postprocessing.

Note Added in Proof. Related work on cavity cooling of free nanoparticles has recently been reported by P. Asenbaum et al., in arXiv:1306.4617 (49).

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