

INTERACTION-FREE MEASUREMENT OF A QUANTUM OBJECT: ON THE BREEDING OF “SCHRÖDINGER CATS”

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The possibility of an “interaction-free” determination of the presence of an object was first discussed by Renninger and by Dicke,¹ who examined the effect on a quantum system due to the *non*-observation of a particular result (e.g., the non-scattering of a photon). Elitzur and Vaidman extended these ideas, so that the presence of an object modified the interference of a photon, even though the photon and object need not have interacted.² In the best case, their method works only 50% of the time. We have recently reported a different technique,³ based on the quantum Zeno effect,⁴ which allows the fraction of interaction-free measurements (IFMs) to be arbitrarily close to 1. As a result, one even has the possibility to employ multi-photon pulses for the interrogation. When the object being observed is in a quantum superposition state, one can prepare superpositions and entanglements of these macroscopic states of light.

There are many ways to perform interaction-free measurements.³ For example, consider the scheme shown in Fig. 1. A vertically-polarized photon is directed into the system at time $T = 0$, and removed after N cycles (by a fast switch, not shown). Its polarization is rotated each cycle by $\Delta\theta = \pi/2N$, e.g., with an optically active material, or a waveplate. In the absence of any absorbing/scattering object, the polarization-Michelson interferometer does not alter the polarization of the light (since the horizontal and vertical components are recombined with the same phase relationship with which they entered); the final polarization of the light after N cycles is thus horizontal. In the object’s presence, however, at each cycle the *non*-absorption of the photon by the object (with probability $\cos^2\Delta\theta$) “collapses” the photon wavefunction back into a vertically-polarized state, and the process repeats. After all N cycles, the total probability for the photon to be absorbed by the object is $1 - \eta$, where $\eta = \cos^{2N}\Delta\theta$ is the probability that the photon is still vertically-polarized; in the presence of the opaque object, there is *no* chance that the photon is found to be horizontally-polarized. Hence, the action of the IFM on the state of the photon may be written as

$$|V\rangle_{\text{photon}} \xrightarrow{\text{no object}} |H\rangle_{\text{photon}} ; \quad |V\rangle_{\text{photon}} \xrightarrow{\text{object}} \sqrt{1-\eta}|0\rangle_{\text{photon}} + \sqrt{\eta}|V\rangle_{\text{photon}} .$$

In the limit of $\eta \rightarrow 1$ ($N \rightarrow \infty$), the probability of absorbing the photon vanishes.

The above method also works when the interrogation is performed with multi-photon states. In the absence of the object, the stepwise evolution of the polarization from V to H occurs independent of the state of light used. With the object in, the probability of absorbing

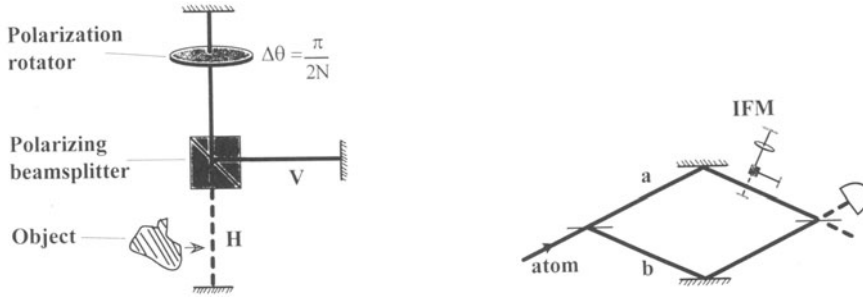


Figure 1: Interaction-free measurement scheme. Figure 2: Using IFM to examine a quantum object.

one of n photons equals $1 - \eta^n$, which can be made arbitrarily small for η sufficiently close to 1. Thus the presence of a single object may be used to control the polarization of a multi-photon input state, e.g., a number state, a coherent state, a squeezed state, etc.

We now investigate the effect of an object in a superposition state of being “there” or “not there”. Consider an atom having just passed an adjustable “beamsplitter” (Fig. 2), so that the state of the atom is given by $|\psi\rangle_{atom} = \alpha|a\rangle_{atom} + \beta|b\rangle_{atom}$. Coupling path a to an IFM device⁵ initially in state $|V\rangle_a$ gives:

$$\alpha\sqrt{1-\eta}|0\rangle_a|e\rangle_{atom} + \alpha\sqrt{\eta}|V\rangle_a|a\rangle_{atom} + \beta|H\rangle_a|b\rangle_{atom} ,$$

where the first term represents the possibility that the atom was excited by the photon into the long-lived state $|e\rangle_{atom}$. For $\eta \rightarrow 1$, this becomes $\alpha|V\rangle_a|a\rangle_{atom} + \beta|H\rangle_a|b\rangle_{atom}$, an entangled state. Similarly, using a multi-photon input state $|V, V, V, \dots\rangle_a$ yields in this limit $\alpha|V, V, V, \dots\rangle_a|a\rangle_{atom} + \beta|H, H, H, \dots\rangle_a|b\rangle_{atom}$. Now we recombine the atom beams a and b on a 50-50 beamsplitter, and correlate with a measurement of $(|a\rangle_{atom} + |b\rangle_{atom})/\sqrt{2}$, giving $|\psi\rangle_{light} = \alpha|V, V, V, \dots\rangle_a + \beta|H, H, H, \dots\rangle_a$, a “Schrödinger cat”. Via the IFM process we have managed to transfer the superposition from a single atom to a macroscopic state of light.

A straightforward extension will produce macroscopic *entangled* states of light. We need merely use a second IFM apparatus to look at the b path of the atom; its initial state $|V, V, \dots\rangle_b$ can in general be quite different from the initial state of the IFM in path a , with different photon number, statistics, etc. After the evolution, and projecting out the symmetric state of the atom, one obtains $|\psi\rangle_{light} = \alpha|V, V, V, \dots\rangle_a|H, H, \dots\rangle_b + \beta|H, H, H, \dots\rangle_a|V, V, \dots\rangle_b$, an entangled state of the multi-photon pulses. Clearly, these schemes can be generalized further and allow one to realize a wide class of interesting states of light.

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