I. INTRODUCTION

In quantum optics a downconversion process may be visualized as the decay of a pump photon into a pair of signal and idler photons of lower frequency. Provided the pumping is sufficiently strong and phase matching takes place, the energy of the spontaneously downconverted light monotonously increases and that of the pump beam monotonously decreases. From this point of view the downconversion process may be looked at as the decay process of an unstable system. It is well known that frequent monitoring of a quantum system leads to inhibition of its evolution. This phenomenon is called quantum Zeno effect [1, 2]. Recently, a thought experiment has been suggested [3], in which it is possible to determine the place where the conversion of the pump photon took place inside the nonlinear crystal. The idea goes as follows. The nonlinear crystal is transversely cut in \( N \) pieces which are then carefully aligned so that the signal and pump photons leaving, say, the \( k \)th slice become the input signal and pump photons to the \((k+1)\)th slice of the crystal. The idler photons, on the other hand, are removed after each slice, allowing thus for a future measurement to be performed on them. If, for example, an ideal detector placed into the path of the idler mode after the \( k \)th slice clicks, it is then obvious that the decay of a pump photon never occurs. It has also been shown [4, 5] that provided the phase matching condition is not fulfilled in the process of downconversion, the observation may, on the contrary, enhance the emission for a properly chosen \( N \) (anti-Zeno or inverse Zeno effect). This Zeno anti-Zeno interplay has a simple explanation in terms of destructive and constructive interference of subsequent emissions inside the nonlinear crystal [3–5]. Here we shall demonstrate that a Zeno-like behaviour occurs also when instead of cutting the crystal we couple one of the downconverted beams with an auxiliary mode. Although, strictly speaking, such a linear coupling cannot be interpreted as being the realization of a measurement a la von Neumann, the dynamics of the nonlinear coupler mimics very well the Zeno behaviour of the arrangement in [3]. It is worth noting, in this context, that the idea of considering the continuous interaction with an external agent as a sort of “steady gaze” at the system goes back to Kraus [6] and has recently been revived in relation with the quantum Zeno effect [7]. Schulman [8], in particular, has even provided a quantitative relation between the Zeno effect produced by pulsed measurements (in the sense of [2]) and continuous observation (in the sense discussed above) performed by an external system.

The paper is organized as follows. In the second section a theoretical model of the nonlinear coupler is introduces. In the third section the Zeno-like behavior of the nonlinear coupler is demonstrated. In the fourth section the dressed modes picture of the device under investigation is developed and a formal analogy between a phase mismatch and the coupling of the downconversion process to an auxiliary mode is explored.
Finally, the observed Zeno and anti-Zeno effects are thoroughly discussed in the fifth section, by using the obtained results.

2. MODEL

Consider a nonlinear coupler made up of two waveguides, through which four modes, pump \( p \), signal \( s \), idler \( i \), and auxiliary mode \( b \) propagate in the same direction, see Fig. 1. The nonlinear waveguide is filled with a second-order nonlinear medium in which ultraviolet pump photons are downconverted to signal and idler photons of lower frequency. In addition, the idler mode is allowed to exchange energy, e.g. by means of evanescent waves, with the auxiliary mode \( b \) propagating through a linear medium.

In the following we will assume that all four modes are monochromatic and their frequencies are fixed, e.g. by placing narrow interference filters in front of detectors. Provided the amplitudes of the fields inside the coupler vary little during an optical period (SVEA approximation), and provided the linear coupling is sufficiently weak so that it can be described by coupled modes theory (Born approximation) \cite{9}, the effective Hamiltonian of our device reads (\( \hbar = 1 \))

\[
H = \omega_p a_p^\dagger a_p + \omega_i a_i^\dagger a_i + \omega_s a_s^\dagger a_s + \omega_b b^\dagger b + \nonumber \]

\[+ (\Gamma a_p^\dagger a_i e^{i\Delta t} + \kappa a_i^\dagger b + \text{h.c.}). \tag{1} \]

Here \( \omega_\alpha \) is the frequency of mode \( \alpha \), \( \Delta = (\mathbf{k}_p - \mathbf{k}_i - \mathbf{k}_b) \) is the nonlinear phase mismatch, \( \Gamma \) and \( \kappa \) are the non-linear and linear coupling constants, respectively, and the propagation variable \( z \) has been replaced with the evolution parameter \( t \). Usually, \( \kappa \) is proportional to the overlap between the idler and auxiliary modes \cite{9}, whereas the nonlinear coupling constant \( \Gamma \) is proportional to the second order nonlinear susceptibility \( \chi^{(2)} \) \cite{10}. It is convenient to split the Hamiltonian (1) into free and interaction parts

\[
H = H_0 + H_I. \tag{2} \]

In order to get rid of the free evolution in the Heisenberg equations of motion

\[
a = -i[a, H_0 + H_I], \tag{3} \]

where \( a \) is the annihilation operator of a particular mode, we introduce the new field operators

\[
a_\alpha^\dagger = e^{i\omega_\alpha t} a_\alpha, \quad \alpha = p, s, i \tag{4} \]

and analogously for \( b \). Substituting these new variables together with the Hamiltonian (2) into Eq. (3), we arrive at the equations of motion

\[
a = -i[a', H_I], \tag{5} \]

where

\[
H_I = \Gamma a_p^\dagger a_i e^{i\Delta t} - i(\omega_p - \omega_i - \omega_b)t + \kappa a_i^\dagger b + \text{h.c.} \tag{6} \]

Because the Hamiltonian (1) contains products of three operators, the equations of motion (3) and (5) are non-linear. The nonlinearity accounts mainly for saturation effects and must be taken into account whenever the pump beam becomes depleted (e.g. medium in a cavity). On the other hand, if the pumping is sufficiently strong and if the nonlinear interaction is weak so that only a small fraction of the pump photons is removed from the input beam, we can simplify our problem by describing the strong pump wave in classical terms, i.e. we let \( a_p = \xi \exp(i\omega_p t) \), where \( \xi \) and \( \omega_p \) denote the complex amplitude and the frequency of the classical pump wave, respectively. With the help of the strong pump wave approximation the interaction Hamiltonian of our problem (6) is simplified as follows

\[
H_I = \Gamma a_i^\dagger a_i e^{i\Delta t} + \kappa a_i^\dagger b + \text{h.c.}, \tag{7} \]

where we assumed that the frequency matching conditions hold: \( \omega_p - \omega_i - \omega_b = 0 \) and \( \omega_b = \omega_i \). The amplitude \( \xi \) has been absorbed in coupling constant \( \Gamma \) and all operators are written without apostrophes, for simplicity. The dynamics of the nonlinear coupler (7) reduces to the dynamics of the phase matched spontaneous downconversion process provided that \( \kappa = \Delta = 0 \) and the initial state is taken as \( |\Psi_0\rangle = |\text{vac}\rangle \otimes |\text{vac}\rangle \). As we already mentioned in the introduction, the average number of signal and idler photons originating in the crystal of length \( L \),

\[
\langle a_i^\dagger a_i \rangle_{\text{vac}} = s h^2 \Gamma L, \quad (\kappa = \Delta = 0) \tag{8} \]

is then an (exponentially) increasing function of \( L \).

3. LINEAR COUPLING TURNED ON

The behaviour of the downconversion process dramatically changes when one of the two downconverted modes (e.g. the idler mode) is coupled to an auxiliary
mode via a linear interaction. The Hamiltonian (7) yields, when \( \Delta = 0 \) (phase matching),

\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{a}_i &= -i \Gamma a_i^\dagger, \\
\dot{a}_s &= -i \Gamma a_s^\dagger - i \kappa b, \\
\dot{b} &= -i \kappa a_s,
\end{align*}
\]

(9)

and we are interested in the regime of weak nonlinearity, expressed by the condition \( \kappa > \Gamma \). Notice that two opposite tendencies compete in Eqs. (9): an elliptic structure, leading to oscillatory behavior, governed by the coupling parameter \( \kappa \),

\[
\tilde{a}_i = -\kappa^2 a_i, \quad \tilde{b} = -\kappa^2 b
\]

(10)

and a hyperbolic structure, yielding exponential behavior, governed by the nonlinear parameter \( \Gamma \),

\[
\tilde{a}_s = \Gamma^2 a_s, \quad \tilde{a}_i = \Gamma^2 a_i,
\]

(11)

The threshold between these two regimes occurs for \( \Gamma = \kappa \).

The system of equations (9) is easily solved and the number of output signal photons, which is the same as the number of pump photons decays, reads

\[
\langle a_s^\dagger a_s \rangle_{\text{vac}} = \frac{\Gamma^2}{\kappa^2} \sin^2 \chi L + \frac{\kappa^2 \Gamma^2}{\kappa^2} \left( 1 - \cos \chi L \right)^2,
\]

(12)

where \( \chi = \sqrt{\kappa^2 - \Gamma^2} \). Hereafter, the symbol \( \langle \ldots \rangle_{\text{vac}} \) denotes averaging with respect to the initial vacuum state \( |\Psi_0\rangle = |\text{vac}\rangle \otimes |\text{vac}\rangle \). Unlike the case of phase matched downconversion (8), the exchange of energy between all modes now becomes periodic when \( \kappa > \Gamma \). As the linear coupling becomes stronger, the period of the oscillations gets shorter and the amplitude of the oscillations decreases as \( \kappa^{-2} \), namely

\[
\langle a_s^\dagger a_s \rangle_{\text{vac}} = \frac{\Gamma^2}{\kappa^2} \sin^2 \chi L + \frac{\Gamma^2}{\kappa^2} \left( 1 - \cos \chi L \right)^2 = \frac{4 \Gamma^2 \sin^2 \chi L}{\kappa^2},
\]

(13)

For very strong coupling\(^2\) the downconversion process is completely frozen, the medium becomes effectively linear and the pump photons propagate through it without “decay”. Notice that in this situation, even if \( L \) is increased, the number of downconverted photons is bounded [compare with the opposite case (8)]. This can be interpreted as a manifestation of quantum Zeno effect in the following sense: by increasing the coupling with the auxiliary mode, one performs a better “observation” of the idler mode and therefore of the “decay” of the pump. The hindering of the evolution results. There is an intuitive explanation of this behavior: since the linear coupling changes the phases of the amplitudes of the interacting modes, the constructive interference yielding exponential increase of the converted energy (8) is destroyed, and downconversion becomes frozen. We shall come back to this point and corroborate this intuitive picture in the next section.

The proposed interpretation in terms of quantum Zeno effect is readily understandable and rather appealing. On the other hand, one should remark that since only the output fields are accessible to measurement in the experimental setup in Fig. 1, no relevant information is readily available about the place where the signal and idler photon are created\(^3\). In this sense, no bona fide measurement is being performed on the fields. The situation would be different if we provided the auxiliary waveguide with some photodetection device like an array of highly efficient photodetectors. For sufficiently strong linear coupling, the decay product (the idler photon) would enter the auxiliary mode soon after the emission, it could then be detected by a pixel of the photodetection array and we could thereafter infer the place where the emission had taken place. As there is no such a detection device present in the setup in question, the coherent superposition of the two possibilities: “the idler photon is in the idler mode” and “the idler photon is in the auxiliary mode”, is maintained throughout the evolution and no decomposition of the wave function occurs. Nevertheless, it is still possible (and useful) to speak about quantum Zeno effect in the more general sense given above. A discussion of this point is given in [11] in connection with the experiment performed by Itano et al. [12].

4. DRESSED MODES

We now look for the modes dressed by the interaction \( \kappa \). This will provide an alternative interpretation and a more rigorous explanation of the result obtained above. Let us diagonalize the Hamiltonian (1) with respect to the linear coupling. By setting \( \omega_1 = \omega_0, \) and \( \kappa \) real, it is easy to see that in terms of the dressed modes

\[
\begin{align*}
c &= (a_i + b)/\sqrt{2}, \\
d &= (a_i - b)/\sqrt{2},
\end{align*}
\]

(14)

the Hamiltonian (1) reads

\[
H = \omega_p a_p^\dagger a_p + \omega_s a_s^\dagger a_s + \omega_c c^\dagger c + \omega_d d^\dagger d + \\
+ \frac{\Gamma}{\sqrt{2}} a_p c^\dagger e^{i \Delta t} + \frac{\Gamma}{\sqrt{2}} a_d a_s^\dagger e^{i \Delta t} + \text{h.c.},
\]

(15)

\(^1\)Other choices of the initial state are possible as well. Different input states of mode b then correspond to different input states of the pointer of a measuring apparatus.

\(^2\)In the regime of very large \( \kappa \), however, the coupled modes theory breaks down and some other experimental realization of the Hamiltonian (1) should be found.

\(^3\)The possibility of the existence of an observable playing a role similar to the phase in Ref. [4], and yielding some information about the place of downconversion is not excluded, though: A. Luis, private communication.
where the dressed energies are
\[ \omega_c = \omega_i + \kappa, \]
\[ \omega_d = \omega_i - \kappa. \]  
(16)

If \( \Delta = 0 \), in the strong pump limit, by following the same procedure of section 2, instead of (7), we get the following interaction Hamiltonian
\[ H_I = \frac{\Gamma}{\sqrt{2}} a_d^\dagger e^{i\Delta t} + \frac{\Gamma}{\sqrt{2}} a_i^\dagger e^{-i\kappa t} + \text{h.c.}, \quad (\Delta = 0) \]  
(17)

where we assumed as before that the frequency matching conditions holds: \( \omega_c - \omega_d - \omega_i = 0 \). By comparing the Hamiltonian (7) when \( \kappa = 0 \):
\[ H_I = \Gamma a_i^\dagger a_i e^{i\Delta t} + \text{h.c.}, \quad (\kappa = 0) \]  
(18)
describing downconversion with phase mismatch \( \Delta \), it is apparent that the coupling and the phase mismatch influence the downconversion process in the same way. In fact for large values of the phase mismatch \( \Delta \) it is easy to find that
\[ \langle a_i^\dagger a_i \rangle_{\text{vac}} - \frac{4\Gamma^2}{\Delta^2} \sin^2 \frac{2\Delta t}{\lambda} \quad (\Delta \gg \Gamma), \]  
(19)
which is to be compared with Eq. (13). The coupling of the idler mode \( a_i \) with the auxiliary mode \( b \) yields two dressed modes \( c \) and \( d \) the pump photon can decay to. They are completely decoupled and due to their energy shift (16), exhibit a phase mismatch \( \pm \kappa \). Since the phase mismatch effectively shortens the time during which a fixed phase relation holds between the interacting beams, the amount of converted energy is smaller than in the ideal case of perfectly phase matched interaction. This explains the results of section 3. A strong linear coupling then makes the subsequent emissions of converted photons interfere destructively and the nonlinear interaction is frozen. In this respect the disturbances caused by the coupling and by frequently repeated measurements are similar and we can interpret the phenomenon as a quantum Zeno effect.

5. COMPETITION BETWEEN THE COUPLING AND THE MISMATCH

In the previous section we saw that the nonlinear interaction was affected by both linear coupling and phase mismatch in the same way. Namely, the effectiveness of the nonlinear process dropped down under their action. In this section we show that when both disturbing elements are present in the dynamics of the downconversion process, the linear coupling can, rather surprisingly, compensate for the phase mismatch and vice versa, so that the probability of emission of the signal and idler photons can almost return back to its undisturbed value.

We start from the equations of motion generated by the full interaction Hamiltonian (7)
\[ \dot{a}_i = -i\Gamma a_i^\dagger e^{i\Delta t}, \]
\[ \dot{a}_i = -i\Gamma a_i^\dagger e^{i\Delta t} - ikb, \quad (\Delta \neq 0, \kappa \neq 0) \]  
(20)
\[ \dot{b} = -i\kappa a_i, \]

Although it is easy to write down the explicit solution of the system (20), we shall here provide only a qualitative discussion of the solution. The main features are then best demonstrated with the help of a few figures. Elimination idler and auxiliary mode variables from Eq. (20) we get a differential equation of the third order for the annihilation operator of the signal mode. Its characteristic polynomial (upon substitution \( a_i(t) = a_i(0)\exp(i\lambda t) \))
\[ \lambda^3 + 2\Delta \lambda^2 + (\Delta^2 - \kappa^2 + \Gamma^2)\lambda + \Delta \Gamma^2 - 3\kappa^2 \]  
(21)
is recognized as a cubic polynomial in \( \lambda \) with real coefficients. An oscillatory behaviour of the signal mode occurs only provided the polynomial (21) has three real roots (causus irreducibilis), i.e. its determinant \( D \) must obey the condition \( D \leq 0 \). Expanding the determinant in the small nonlinear coupling parameter \( \Gamma \) and keeping terms up to the second order in \( \Gamma \) we obtain
\[ D = -\frac{\kappa^2}{27} \left[ (\kappa^2 - \Delta^2)^2 - (5\Delta^2 + 3\kappa^2)^2 \right]. \]  
(22)
\[ \Gamma \ll \Delta, \kappa. \]

It is seen that a mismatched downconversion behaves in either oscillatory or hyperbolic way, depending on the strength of the coupling with the auxiliary mode. The values of \( \kappa \) lying at the boundary between these two types of dynamics are determined by solving the equation \( D = 0 \). The only two nontrivial solutions are
\[ \kappa_{1,2} = \frac{\Delta^2 + \frac{3}{2} \Gamma^2 \pm \sqrt{8}}{8} \Delta \Gamma. \]  
(23)

The case \( \Delta \gg \Gamma \) is of main interest in this section (otherwise we have the situation already described in section 3). Hence we can, eventually, drop \( \Gamma^2 \) in Eq. (23). The resulting intervals are
\[ \kappa \in \langle \Delta - \sqrt{2}\Gamma, \Delta + \sqrt{2}\Gamma \rangle; \]
oscillatory behaviour:
\[ \kappa \in \langle 0, \Delta - \sqrt{2}\Gamma \rangle \cup (\Delta + \sqrt{2}\Gamma, \infty). \]  
(24)

The behaviour of the mismatched downconversion process is shown in Fig. 2 for a particular choice of \( \Delta \). In absence of linear coupling the downconverted light shows oscillations and the overall effectiveness of the nonlinear process is small due to the presence of phase mismatch \( \Delta \). However, ad we switch on the coupling between the idler and auxiliary mode, the situation changes. By increasing the strength of the coupling the period of the oscillations gets longer and its amplitude gets larger. When \( \kappa \) becomes larger than \( \Delta - \sqrt{2}\Gamma \) the...
anti-Zeno effect. In correspondence with the observation of signal photons is a clear manifestation of an ear coupling is illustrated in Fig. 3. A significant production of signal photons is a clear manifestation of an anti-Zeno effect. In correspondence with the observation of the Zeno and anti-Zeno effects observed in a sliced nonlinear crystal (Fig. 1 in [5]). It can be seen that the coupling parameter $\kappa$ here plays a role similar to the number of slices $N$, into which the crystal is cut in the latter scheme. Moreover, the sharpness of the “observation” ($\kappa$ or $N$), at which a maximum output intensity occurs, is approximately a linear function of the introduced phase mismatch in both schemes. There are, however, also some points of difference. For example, the maximum output intensity obtainable for a given $\Delta$ by slicing the crystal decreases with increasing phase mismatch $\Delta$ [5]. On the other hand, no matter how strong the mismatch is, it can always be removed with the help of a suitable linear coupling (and vice versa). This difference is due to the $1/N$ scaling of intensities of output light generated by a process under observation [3–5]. An analogous factor is missing here, in Eq. (12).

Several intuitive explanations of the anti-Zeno like behaviour seen in Fig. 3 are at hand. From the point of view of constructive and destructive interference one can say that since the linear coupling effectively changes the phase relations among interacting modes, the destructive interference of subsequent pump photon decays caused by phase mismatch is suppressed in the same way as the constructive interference has been suppressed in the case of perfectly matched interaction.

Fig. 3 can also be interpreted in a quantitative way in analogy with the dressed state description of interaction of atoms with intense light [13]. In terms of the dressed modes $c$ and $d$ of Eq. (14), if $\Delta \neq 0$, in place of the Hamiltonian (17) one gets

$$H_I = \Gamma \frac{a^+_s}{\sqrt{2}} e^{i(\Delta + \kappa) t} + \frac{\Gamma}{\sqrt{2}} a^+_d e^{i(\Delta - \kappa) t} + \text{h.c.}$$

that yields the equations of motion

$$\dot{a}_s = -i \frac{\Gamma}{\sqrt{2}} c^+ e^{i(\Delta + \kappa) t} - i \frac{\Gamma}{\sqrt{2}} d^+ e^{i(\Delta - \kappa) t},$$

$$\dot{c} = -i \frac{\Gamma}{\sqrt{2}} a^+_s e^{i(\Delta + \kappa) t},$$

$$\dot{d} = -i \frac{\Gamma}{\sqrt{2}} a^+_d e^{i(\Delta - \kappa) t}.$$  

The energy scheme implied by Eq. (26) is shown in Fig. 4. Under the influence of the coupling with the auxiliary mode $b$ the mismatched downconversion splits into two dressed energy-shifted interactions. It is apparent that when $\kappa = \pm \Delta$ one of the two interactions becomes resonant. The other one is “counterrotating” and acquires a phase mismatch $2\Delta$, yielding oscillations. Also, the amplitude of such oscillations decreases as $\Delta^{-2}$ and the mode output becomes negligible compared to the other one. The use of the rotating wave ap-
This occurs when the ability of pump photon decay can be greatly enhanced.

In this way the probability spectrum changes. A careful adjustment of the coupling switched on the system gets dressed and the energy the decay took place. When the linear interaction is mismatched means that the nonlinear process is out of resonance in the sense that the momentum process is mismatched. The non-linear coupling coefficient. Periodic change of sign of the angular modulation yields the effective coupling coefficient. The linear coupling to an auxiliary mode compensates for the phase mismatch up to a change in the effective nonlinear coupling strength \( \Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma/\sqrt{2} \).

As a matter of fact, the condition \( \kappa = \pm \Delta \) can be interpreted also as a condition for achieving the so-called quasi-phase matching in the nonlinear process. A quasi-phase-matched regime of generation [14] is usually forced by creating an artificial lattice inside a nonlinear medium, e.g. by periodic modulation of the nonlinear coupling coefficient. Periodic change of sign of \( \Gamma \) (rectangular modulation) yields the effective coupling strength \( \Gamma \rightarrow 2\Gamma/\pi [14] \), where, as before, \( \Gamma \) is the coupling strength of the phase-matched interaction. Thus the continuous “observation” of the idler mode even gives a slightly better enhancement of the decay rate than the most common quasi-phase-matching technique.

To summarize, the statement “the downconversion process is mismatched” means that the nonlinear process is out of resonance in the sense that the momentum of the decay products (signal and idler photons) differs from the momentum carried by the pump photon before the decay took place. When the linear interaction is switched on the system gets dressed and the energy spectrum changes. A careful adjustment of the coupling strength \( \kappa \) makes then possible to tune the nonlinear interaction back to resonance. In this way the probability of pump photon decay can be greatly enhanced. This occurs when \( \kappa = \pm \Delta \) and explains why the anti-Zeno effect takes place along the line \( \kappa = \Delta \) in Fig. 3.

6. CONCLUSION

In this article a downconversion process disturbed by the presence of a linear coupling between the idler and some auxiliary mode has been discussed. Although, strictly speaking, such a coupling is not a measurement in von Neumann’s sense, we found a striking similarity between the dynamics of our system and the dynamics of the downconversion processes taking place in a sliced nonlinear crystal, where a Zeno interpretation is feasible and appealing.

In some sense, the Zeno effect is a consequence of the new dynamical features introduced by the coupling with an external agent that (through its interaction) “looks closely” at the system. When this interaction can be effectively described as a projection operator a la von Neumann, we obtain the usual formulation of the quantum Zeno effect in the limit of very frequent measurements. In general, the description in terms of projection operators may not apply, but the dynamics can be modified in a way that is strongly reminiscent of Zeno. Examples of the type analyzed in this paper call for a broader definition of “quantum Zeno effect”.

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