Phase-space tomography of matter-wave diffraction in the Talbot regime

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\textbf{Abstract.} We report on the theoretical investigation of the Wigner distribution function (WDF) reconstruction of the motional quantum state of large molecules in de Broglie interference. de Broglie interference of fullerenes and the like already proves the wavelike behaviour of these heavy particles, while we aim to extract more quantitative information about the superposition quantum state in motion. We simulate the reconstruction of the WDF numerically based on an analytic probability distribution and investigate its properties by the variation of parameters which are relevant for the experiment. Even though the WDF described in the near-field experiment cannot be reconstructed completely, we observe negativity even in the partially reconstructed WDF. We further consider incoherent factors to simulate the experimental situation, such as a finite number of slits, collimation and particle-slit van der Waals interaction. From this we find experimental conditions to reconstruct the WDF from Talbot interference fringes in molecule Talbot–Lau interferometry.
1. Introduction

The reconstruction of a quantum state, is in general, important for testing potential quantum systems on their properties such as entanglement, superposition and coherence and on their applicability to emerging quantum technologies. Furthermore, massive and spatially extended quantum systems, such as complex molecules and nanoparticles in quantum superposition, are the proposed test embodiments for universal boundaries of the validity of quantum theory with strong relevance for future nanotechnology [1, 2]. The wave nature of molecular motional states (as massive as ten \( \text{C}_{60} \) molecules) has been demonstrated [3] and to make a step further, we now want to characterize the quantum state of motion of molecules in the Talbot–Lau interferometry.

The wave function cannot be observed directly, but by using the Wigner distribution function (WDF) we have an alternative perspective on quantum dynamics, as the WDF is equivalent to the density matrix [4, 5]. Quantum states have the unique property that they can generate negative values of this quasi-probability function. On the one hand, the negativity of the Wigner function is seen as a proof of the quantum nature of the state under consideration. A fully reconstructed Wigner function contains complete information about the measured state. The process to evaluate the state is called phase-space tomography.

Phase-space tomography for the Wigner function was pointed out in the general context by Bertrand and Bertrand [6] and independently by Vogel and Risken [7], applied in photonics [8] where quantum state tomography is an established experimental tool for quantifying the quantum state of light [9]. It has recently been used to demonstrate the state squeezing of atomic Bose condensates [10], and to quantify the motional quantum state of a trapped \( \text{Be}^+ \) ion [11]. An early experiment for characterizing the quantum nature of atomic motion in de Broglie interference was the Wigner function reconstruction of meta-stable He atoms diffracted at a double slit [12], as theoretically proposed earlier [13]. The Wigner function reconstruction been has also proposed to be useful in proving the quantum nature of the superposition of
very massive particles [14] and even macroscopic opto-mechanical systems [15]. Furthermore, to prove entanglement in superconducting qubits, quantum state tomography has been applied [16]. In more technical terms, the Wigner function is a quasi-probability distribution of states in phase space. In the case of de Broglie interference of molecules, the quantum state is projected on to the spatial coordinate, which is the spatial number distribution of particles after the diffraction grating (see figure 1). This spatial distribution is needed for different rotational angles of the quantum state in phase space. This rotation in phase space comes naturally from free space propagation of a particle beam after diffraction and can be evaluated by measuring the spatial distribution at different distances after the grating. The inverse Radon transformation of collected data of density distributions will give the Wigner function. In the experiment the spatial coherence is prepared by another grating placed in front of the diffraction grating. Then many coherent sources constructively contribute to the same interference pattern due to the Lau effect. The multigrating configuration is the so-called Talbot–Lau interferometer (TLI) and is explained in detail elsewhere [17, 18].

Here, we discuss the Wigner function reconstruction of matter waves in the near-field Talbot regime with illumination of the grating by a single coherent source. If the spatial coherence of the matter wave is high, which means that plane waves are reaching the grating, then the Talbot simulations presented here are valid for the Talbot–Lau scheme and reconstruction gives the same Wigner function.

We theoretically perform phase-space tomography of the centre-of-mass motion quantum state of massive molecules in a near-field TLI [19]. Near-field means that the interference pattern is on the same size scale as the diffraction grating period. In contrast, the far-field (Fraunhofer) interference patterns are much larger than the grating (for the illustration, see Hornberger et al [20]). Earlier investigations of de Broglie quantum states have dealt with far-field pattern reconstruction [12, 13]. From light and matter-wave optics it is known that complex diffraction patterns can be expected in this near-field regime. Those structures are sometimes called
quantum carpets [21, 22]. Recently, optical quantum carpets have been experimentally observed by Case et al [23]. Talbot carpets were applied for computation as number factorization [24–26].

2. Theoretical model

2.1. Phase-space tomography

The WDF \( W(x, p) \) of a complex signal \( \psi(x) \) is defined by [4]

\[
W(x, p) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi^*(x-x')\psi(x+x')e^{-ipx'} dx'
\] (1)

with momentum \( p \) and position \( x \). Throughout the paper we set \( \hbar = 1 \). Experimentally, we measure the spatial intensity pattern that corresponds to the projection of the WDF onto the space coordinate. This is formulated by integration of the WDF over the momentum variable:

\[
P(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} W(x, p) \, dp.
\] (2)

If the WDF is rotated by an angle \( \theta \) in phase space, it becomes

\[
W_\theta(x, p) = W(x \cos \theta - p \sin \theta, x \sin \theta + p \cos \theta),
\] (3)

and in analogy to equation (2) the spatial intensity pattern \( P_\theta(x) \) or the marginal probability can be obtained by

\[
P_\theta(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} W_\theta(x, p) \, dp.
\] (4)

This intensity pattern with various angles of rotation can be obtained from diffraction pattern like a quantum carpet for a grating with an infinite number of slits. Phase-space tomography is based on the transformation of equation (4), resulting in a reconstructed WDF:

\[
W(x, p) = \frac{1}{4\pi^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \int_{0}^{\pi} d\theta P_\theta(x') \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dr |r| e^{i r (x' - x \cos \theta - p \sin \theta)},
\] (5)

which is the inverse Radon transformation. Equation (4) can be written as

\[
P_\theta(x) = \sum_n p_n |\psi_{n,\theta}(x)|^2
\] (6)

with

\[
\psi_{n,\theta}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi i \sin \theta}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \ e^{-i\frac{\pi}{2 \theta}x^2 - \frac{1}{2} \cot(\theta x^2)} \psi_n(x'),
\] (7)

which points to the fact that active rotation of the Wigner function can be done by fractional Fourier transformation in the Fresnel diffusion theory, and was derived in [13].

2.2. Wigner function reconstruction for free space propagation

A full reconstruction of the WDF requires spatial probability distributions \( P_\theta(x) \) for every angle \( \theta \) between 0 and \( \pi \). The easiest way to rotate the WDF is by the free space propagation of the
particles. The rotation angle then depends on the distance \( z \) between the diffraction grating and the detector. The free propagation of the diffracted wave function is, according to the Fresnel diffraction theory, given by

\[
\psi(x, z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{i\lambda z}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx e^{i\frac{\lambda}{2z}(x-x')^2} \psi(x', 0),
\]

where \( k = 2\pi/\lambda \) is equivalent to momentum, with \( \hbar = 1 \), and \( \lambda \) is the de Broglie wavelength. We rescale the \( x \)-axis and get the expression

\[
\psi\left(\frac{x}{s}, z\right) = e^{-i\frac{k}{2s^2}x^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx e^{-ik\left(\frac{x-x'}{2s} - \frac{x'^2}{2}\right)} \psi(x', 0).
\]

Comparing equations (7) and (9) gives \( s = k \sin(\theta)/z \) for the rescaling of the \( x \)-axis, and \( \cot(\theta) = k/z \) for the dependence of the rotation angle \( \theta \) on the distance \( z \). As a first result we find that free space propagation does not lead to a full rotation over \( \pi \) for finite \( z \). Sufficient rotation to fully reconstruct the WDF can be achieved by a lens. Such a lens has been implemented for atomic matter waves by a Fresnel zone plate [27, 28] or a standing light wave [29]. In [13] it was shown theoretically that a \( \pi/2 \)-rotation and therefore the Fourier transform is accessible for finite values of \( z \) by using a lens. Since the realization of such a lens has not been demonstrated for molecular matter waves, we here consider the simplest case of rotation, which is free space propagation. However, it is possible to increase the accessible angle of rotation and therefore the amount of information about the quantum state by additional symmetry assumptions on the investigated WDF [30], which we will use in section 3.1. We will investigate the partial reconstruction of WDF in the Talbot regime for \( \Theta \) between 0 and \( \pi/2 \). As a figure of merit, we use the appearance of negativity of WDF.

Technically, we numerically reconstructed WDF using the filtered back-projection algorithm [31] for the inverse Radon transformation:

\[
W(x, p) = \int_0^\pi d\theta \int_{-x_m}^{x_m} dx P_\theta(x') g(x' - x \cos \theta - p \sin \theta)
\]

with

\[
g(x) \approx 2 \left( -\frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{\cos(r_c x)}{x^2} + \frac{r_c \sin(r_c x)}{x} \right),
\]

which is approximated from \( g(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dr |r| e^{i r x} \), where \( x_m \) is a real range of the transverse \( x \)-axis and \( r_c \) is a cut-off frequency.

2.3. Wigner distribution function (WDF) of the ideal quantum carpet and the Talbot effect

The WDF for a quantum superposition state as in the classic double-slit arrangement, a cat state, is well known. Here, we are interested in the WDF of an ideal quantum carpet, the near-field wave diffraction pattern after a grating with many slits. We start with a grating with an infinite number of slits, as it gives a nice analytical expression. The wave function \( \psi(x) \) after the grating is

\[
\psi(x) = t_c(x) \otimes \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x - nd),
\]

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where $d$ is the grating period, $t_c(x)$ is the grating transmission function for a single slit $(-d/2 \leq x \leq d/2)$ and $\otimes$ denotes convolution: $(f \otimes g)(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x-x') g(x') \, dx$. An infinite train of $\delta$-function, a comb functions, can be expressed as $\frac{1}{d} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i2\pi n(x/d)}$. With that we rewrite equation (12) to

$$\psi(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} A_n e^{i2\pi n(x/d)}, \tag{13}$$

where $A_n = d^{-1} \int_{-d/2}^{d/2} dx t_c(x) e^{-i2\pi nx/d}$. The wave function along $z$ is then in the form of equation (9) given by

$$\psi(x,z) \sim \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} A_n e^{-i2\pi n(x/d)} e^{-i\pi n^2(\lambda/d^2)}. \tag{14}$$

The second exponential term generates a periodic appearance of the identical pattern at different positions in the $z$-direction. This is the Talbot effect. Self-images of the grating revolve at multiples of the Talbot distance $z_T = 2d^2/\lambda$. The probability distribution of this Talbot effect is shown in figure 1. We note that self-images are also revived at multiples of $z_T/2$ with a $d/2$ displacement in the $x$-direction. It is this $d/2$ shift which carries non-classical information about the motional state and generates negative values of WDF. WDF reconstruction will therefore need to include especially such $z$-positions. In the following we define the diffracted wave function in units of the Talbot distance, since the self-image is repeated at multiples of $z_T$. We note that the number of near-field Talbot self-images typically depends on the number of contributing (coherently illuminated) grating slits. Experimentally, five Talbot lengths $z_T$ are easy to achieve [20].

The exact WDF for the infinitely periodic input is obtained from equation (1) as

$$W(x,p) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n'=-\infty}^{\infty} A_n A_{n'}^* e^{i2\pi(n-n')(x/d)} \delta\left(\frac{p}{2\pi} - \frac{n+n'}{2d}\right). \tag{15}$$

The WDF of the $\delta$-comb function, which is the mathematically simplest guess is obtained by substituting $m = n + n'$ and setting $A_n = 1/d$:

$$W(x,p) = \frac{1}{d^2} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i2\pi(2n)(x/d)} \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i2\pi(m)(x/d)} \delta\left(\frac{p}{2\pi} - \frac{m}{2d}\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2d} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} (-1)^m \delta\left(x - i\lambda\right) \delta\left(\frac{p}{2\pi} - \frac{m}{2d}\right), \tag{16}$$

and plotted in phase space as shown in figure 2(a). The WDF is the sum of $\delta$-function in momentum, as seen in equation (15). These $\delta$-function peaks, however, do not appear in the experimental physical system where we have a finite number of slits of finite width. A grating with a finite slit width is formulated with the Fourier coefficient $A_n = f_0 \text{sinc}(n\pi f_0)$ and is plotted in figure 2(b). We note the negative peaks (bright spots) in the WDF, showing the non-classical character of the state. We observe that the peak width in momentum becomes narrower as the number of slits increases.
Figure 2. The exact Wigner distribution function of (a) the $\delta$-function comb wave and (b) the rectangular wave. These correspond to the WDF of infinite gratings. The symbols $+$, $-$ in panel (a) indicate positive, negative $\delta$-peaks and the bar in panel (b) indicates greyscale of WDF in the contour plot.

3. Simulations: limits for finding negativity in WDF

Here we simulate the effects of experimental limitations on the quality of the reconstructed WDF, which include

- the range of rotation angles,
- spatial detector resolution,
- an incoherent source (in terms of collimation of the molecule beam, spatial coherence),
- finite gratings,
- van der Waals interaction (interaction between molecules and material gratings),
- visibility.

We will conclude each section with the feasibility of these limits for the experiment. For numerical simulations, the grating period $d$ is set as unit length and $1/d$ is set as unit momentum. All parameters $(x, z, \lambda, p)$ become dimensionless by rescaling: $x \rightarrow x/d$, $z \rightarrow z/d$, $\lambda \rightarrow \lambda/d$ and $p \rightarrow pd$. The wavelength is chosen to be $\lambda = 10^{-5}d$ and the open fraction of the gratings is set to $f_0 = 0.3$. This choice of parameters adapts the simulation to molecule interferometry experiments, which are at the centre of our interest [18]. However, our results are universal and can easily be tuned to represent the same diffraction effects in the Talbot regime for other electromagnetic or matter waves. The cut-off frequency $r_c$ as defined in equation (11) was optimized to $r_c = 30$ to show the structure of the WDF without high-frequency computational noise. The WDF is reconstructed based on the normalized probability distribution and will be plotted as contour maps in all following figures, where the grey scale bar indicates the value of WDF. The scale bar allows for comparison of the different effects as the intensity scale has been normalized for each effect. For some WDF plots, we show a cross section of the contour plot to visualize the negativity.
3.1. Rotation angle

The WDF is rotated by free space propagation. In the experiment, the rotation angle is described by the distance $z$ after the grating:

$$z = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \tan \theta.$$  \quad (17)

Since we use $z$ and $\lambda$ in units of $d$, equation (17) becomes $z/z_T = \pi \tan \theta$, which is illustrated in figure 3(a). As a result, a rotation of close to $\pi/2$ can be achieved with several Talbot distances $z_T$, although a rotation of exactly $\pi/2$ corresponds to infinite distance. A full reconstruction of the WDF is therefore not feasible, and we now investigate the partial reconstruction for limited rotation angles to investigate whether this still leads to negativity of WDF. In figure 3, we compare the full reconstruction (b), partial reconstruction of WDF with rotation angle $[0,4z_T]$ (c) and [0, $z_T$] (d). We observe tilting of WDF for partial reconstruction, but the position of the peaks and the negativity remain the same. When partially reconstructing the WDF, negative peaks appear when including the displaced self-images, which are truly due to interference. We conclude, therefore, that these negative peaks in the partially reconstructed WDF show non-classical behaviour. In the following, we choose rotation angles between 0 and $4z_T$ that
Figure 4. Partial reconstruction of WDF between 0 and $4z_T$ varying resolution of the $x$-axis, which corresponds to the spatial resolution of the detector in the experiment. (a) Contour plot for $dx = 0.01d$, (b) Cross-section plot for WDF at $(p/2\pi)d = 0.5d$ for $dx = 0.01d$ (red solid line), $dx = 0.05d$ (green dotted line) and $dx = 0.1d$ (blue dash-dotted line), where $N_\theta = 100$ and $f_0 = 0.3$.

correspond to rotation angles between 0 and $\arctan[4/\pi]$ according to equation (17). We note that the rotation angle depends on the unit length and the corresponding WDF is also expressed as a function of the unit length [30].

3.2. Resolution in $x$ and $z$

In the last section, we investigated the range of rotation angles necessary for observing negativity in the WDF. Now, our interest is in the dependence on the resolution in the $x$- and the $z$-direction. The resolution in the $x$-direction corresponds to the spatial resolution of the detector. Simulations are shown in figure 4, where we compare $dx = 0.01d$, $dx = 0.05d$ and $dx = 0.1d$. We conclude that a resolution of ten measurement points per grating period $d$ (and possibly even less) is sufficient to reconstruct the negativity of WDF. This resolution is typically achieved in state-of-the-art molecule interference experiments. However, the structure of the reconstructed WDF becomes more pronounced for higher $x$-resolution. We chose $dx = 0.1d$ for the following simulations.

We find that an important parameter is the number of rotation angles $N_\theta$, which corresponds to the propagation distance $z$, as discussed in section 3.1. On the other hand, the resolution of the $z$-direction itself is not critical and we show simulations in figure 5 to prove this statement. We keep the total distance $z$ constant, but change the resolution, which is the number of scans within $z$. In figure 5(a), the reconstructed WDF for $N_\theta = 20$ within $4z_T$ is shown. The structure is very similar compared to figure 3(c), which is over the same $z$-distance. We then vary the resolution further and show cross-sections of the contour plot of the WDF at $(p/2\pi)d = 0.5$ for $N_\theta = 20, 50$ and 100 in figure 5(b). The periodic negative and positive peaks are almost independent of $N_\theta$. Therefore, data taken at the self-image planes are sufficient to reconstruct WDF. That means, that when measuring only the self-image planes, we need to measure until $4z_T$ to find negativity in the reconstructed WDF. We note, that displaced self-images taken at integer multiples of $z_T/2$ are crucial for generating negative peaks.
3.3. Incoherent source

Effects of temporal coherence, which correspond to the longitudinal $z$-velocity selection of the molecular beam, are taken into account by a reduction of the visibility for a given distance $z$ in section 3.6. Here, we discuss the effect of an incoherent source with respect to spatial coherence of the molecular matter waves. This corresponds to the transverse $x$-velocity selection by collimation of the molecular beam. Assuming an incident collimation of angle $\alpha$ (see figure 1), the wave function is found by averaging over all incident angles $\alpha$:

$$\psi(x, z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} A_n \exp \left[ i \left( k_\alpha + \frac{2\pi}{d} x \right) + i \left( k - \frac{(k_\alpha + n \frac{2\pi}{d} x)^2}{2k} \right) z \right] ,$$

where $k = (k_z^2 + (k_\alpha + n \frac{2\pi}{d} x)^2)^{1/2}$ and $k_\alpha = k \sin(\alpha)$. The variation of the beam collimation is implemented mathematically by the standard deviation of a Gaussian distribution of $\sigma = 0.1\alpha_{max}$, with $\alpha_{max}$ being the total range of incident collimation angles. The wave function is then averaged between $[-\alpha_{max}/2, \alpha_{max}/2]$ with Gaussian weight. The Talbot effect can be observed in the limit $\alpha < d/z_T$, which means that the diffraction is dominating collimation. The probability distribution is plotted in figure 6(a) for incident angle $\alpha_{max} = \pi \times 10^{-6}$, which is easy to achieve in the experiment by collimation at the first grating in a Talbot interferometer and a TLI. We observe that interference contrast is washed out rapidly with increasing $z$. We reconstruct the WDF as shown in figure 6(b) and it still shows negative peaks between positive peaks. However, we observe a significant loss of contrast of WDF for increased collimation angle $\alpha_{max}$, as shown in figures 6(c) and (d). Since the interference pattern are very sensitive to the spatial coherence, the TLI configuration is used in experiments. Here, an additional grating placed in front of the diffraction grating increases the spatial coherence of the matter waves, and Talbot images can be well revived even with a molecular beam source of relatively poor spatial coherence [19].

Figure 5. Partial reconstruction of WDF from 0 to $4z_T$ varying the number of rotation angles (a) Contour plot for $N_\theta = 20$, (b) Cross-section plot for WDF at $(p/2\pi)d = 0.5$ for $N_\theta = 100$ (red solid line), $N_\theta = 50$ (green dotted line) and $N_\theta = 20$ (blue dash-dotted line), where $f_0 = 0.3$ and $dx = 0.1$. 
3.4. Finite gratings

The grating has been assumed to have an infinite number of slits until now. Experimentally, the effective number of involved slits is finite, but sufficiently large to observe the Talbot effect. Talbot self-images, however, are washed out after some multiples of Talbot distance $z_T$ as an effect of the finite number of slits [20]. To study this effect quantitatively, we define the wave function for a finite number of slits as

$$\psi(x) = t_c(x) \otimes \sum_{n=-N_s}^{N_s} \delta(x - nd),$$

(19)

with $2N_s$ slits. The wave function after the grating in free space propagation is then given by:

$$\psi(x, z) = t_c(x) \otimes \sum_{n=-N_s}^{N_s} e^{i(\pi/\lambda z)(x - nd)^2}.$$  

(20)

We simulate the density distribution and WDF for various numbers of slits. Contrast in the density distribution is still visible in figure 7(a) for as few as ten grating slits $N_s$ contributing to diffraction for up to three Talbot distances and we can still reconstruct WDF with negativity in
Figure 7. Probability distribution (a) and partial reconstruction of the WDF (b) for a finite number of slits, $N_s=10$ for $[0, 4z_T]$, where $N_0 = 100$, $f_0 = 0.3$ and $dx = 0.1$.

Both, the visibility of positive and negative peaks of WDF as well as the distance (number of $z_T$), where near-field pattern can be seen in the density distribution, increase as the number of slits increases.

3.5. van der Waals interaction

Here we investigate the effect of the interaction between the grating and molecules on the WDF reconstruction. Dispersion forces, such as van der Waals (vdW) forces in the short-range limit (of the order of 100 nm between molecules and the grating wall) and Casimir–Polder (CP) forces in the long-range limit (for larger distances than some 100 nm), are known to affect the molecule interference pattern [17] if the gratings are realized from material structures made of metals (gold (Au)) or semiconductors (silicon nitride, SiNx). Dispersion forces will therefore have a large effect on the quantum carpet structure and we have to test the respective limits of WDF reconstruction. We implement the grating wall–molecule interaction as a phase term $\phi(x)$ to the transmission function $t'_c(x) = t_c(x)\phi(x)$ in equation (12):

$$\phi(x) = e^{i\frac{m}{\hbar} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dz V(x,z)},$$

with the mass $m$ of the molecule and the vdW potential $V = -C_3/x^3$, which we exclusively discuss here for simplicity. The $1/x^3$ scaling of the potential with distance $x$ is typical for a point-like particle in front of a surface. The vdW interaction constant $C_3$ is dependent on the dielectric properties of the molecule and the grating over the full electromagnetic spectrum. For our simulations we use $C_3 = 10$ meV nm$^3$ for a fullerene C$_{60}$ molecule close to a gold surface in agreement with the literature [17]. Figure 8 shows reconstructed WDF (a) without and (b) with vdW interaction and it shows a small change in visibility and structure. We note that density distribution (quantum carpet) and WDF with vdW are very similar to simulations with smaller open fraction $f_0 = 0.1$ without vdW. This is in agreement with the known effect that the always attractive vdW interaction effectively reduces the slit width of the diffraction grating [18]. The reduced visibility in the density distribution and the reduced negativity of WDF in figure 8(b) are explained by dephasing.
Figure 8. The partial reconstructed WDF for \([0, 4z_T]\) without vdW interaction (a) and with vdW interaction (b) where open fraction \(f_0 = 0.44\), \(dx = 0.1d\) and \(N_\theta = 80\).

Figure 9. (a) Contour plot of partially reconstructed WDF for \([0, 4z_T]\) with visibility \(V = 0.5\) and (b) cross section plot of the WDF at \((p/2\pi)d = 0.5\) for \(V = 1\) (red solid line), \(V = 0.75\) (green dotted line) and \(V = 0.5\) (blue dash-dotted line), where \(N_\theta = 100\), \(f_0 = 0.3\) and \(dx = 0.1d\).

3.6. Visibility

Another parameter which will be investigated here is the visibility \(V = (I_{\text{max}} - I_{\text{min}})/(I_{\text{max}} + I_{\text{min}})\), where \(I\) is the intensity of the quantum carpet structure illustrated by the greyscale in the plots. The visibility is the most sensitive parameter of the pattern and is easily influenced by different effects. For instance, a low-velocity selection of the molecular beam resulting in a low longitudinal or temporal coherence of the matter wave reduces the visibility of the carpet. The negativity of the WDF is therefore also reduced. Furthermore, as already mentioned in section 3.3, the Talbot effect is experimentally usually observed in the TLI. The main difference between Talbot and Talbot–Lau from the theoretical point of view is a reduction in interference fringe visibility for the TLI. This means that our discussion on WDF reconstruction in the Talbot regime can be also extended to the Talbot–Lau regime if we investigate the effect of visibility reduction. To include the visibility in the probability distribution (quantum carpet) we modify...
the density distribution $P(x,z)$ to be: $I_{\min} + (1 - I_{\min})P(x,z)$, with $I_{\min} = (1 - \mathcal{V})/(1 + \mathcal{V})$. We reconstruct the WDF and the plot in figure 9(a), vary the visibility and find that with a visibility of $\mathcal{V} = 0.5$ we can still identify negative parts of the WDF although the contrast is reduced as shown in figure 9(b). The analysis of visibility by WDF reconstruction will become a useful tool to investigate decoherence effects and mechanisms in molecule quantum optics.

4. Conclusion

We have numerically analyzed the partial (WDF) reconstruction of near-field optical quantum carpets for free space propagation of the wave. In our study, we considered all the major experimental inefficiencies. Most importantly, we find that negativity can be observed in the reconstructed Wigner distribution function in the Talbot and Talbot–Lau regimes under such realistic conditions with today’s technologies. All investigated parameters and effects instil hope for the realization of molecular quantum optics tomography. Crucial for reconstructing WDF is to collect data of quantum carpets at half-integer multiples of Talbot distances. The Talbot regime is important for molecule interferometry as the conceptually simpler double slit and far-field interference are much harder to perform due to experimental difficulties. The here presented tomography of the motional quantum state will become an important analytic tool in molecule quantum optics, as it gives a handle to directly detect the superposition state of the centre of mass motion. Furthermore, WDF reconstruction may be used to investigate wave function dephasing effects such as vdW or CP interactions of the particles as well as to study decoherence effects which reduce the visibility $\mathcal{V}$. Further work should conduct experimental tomography of the discussed quantum state, while the main challenge remains to generate an intense beam of large particles while keeping sufficient coherence, which requires high phase-space density. The tomographic analysis described here is also applicable to the investigation of the quantum superposition of the centre of mass motion of even larger nanoparticles and clusters as well as for electromagnetic waves such as x-rays [32].

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