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1D Magneto-Optical Trap of Polyatomic Molecules
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Laser cooling and evaporative cooling are key tools of atomic, molecular, and optical physics that are used to produce ultracold atomic and molecular samples [1, 2]. Ultracold atoms have enabled the study of degenerate quantum gases [3], high-precision clocks [4], quantum many-body physics, and quantum simulation of condensed matter systems [5]. Polar molecules, with their additional internal degrees of freedom and long-range interactions, promise further access to novel phenomena in the ultracold regime [6]. For example, diatomic molecules have been identified for applications that include precise searches for physics beyond the Standard Model [7–10], quantum simulation [11–13], studies of fundamental collisional [14] and chemical [15–17] processes, and production of exotic ultracold atoms through photodissociation of ultracold molecules [18, 19]. While diatomic molecules are a rich resource (and are only beginning to be explored), polyatomic molecules have qualitatively distinct advantages at the frontier of quantum science. Ultracold polyatomic molecules have been identified for applications including improved precision searches for the electron EDM [20] and for dark matter [21], novel quantum computation [22–24] and quantum simulation platforms [25, 26], the control of the primordial chemical reactions that gave rise to life [27], the study of biomolecular chirality [28, 29], and the study of ultracold collisions and quantum chemistry in increasingly complex systems, while maintaining single quantum state control [30, 31].

With such promise, there have been intense efforts to cool molecules. “Indirect” approaches, such as association techniques, like coherent adiabatic binding of laser-cooled atoms, have led to a variety of ultracold diatomic bialkali samples including a quantum degenerate Fermi gas of KRb [32, 33]. “Direct” cooling approaches use electromagnetic fields (e.g. lasers or pulsed external fields) to slow and cool molecules [34–42]. These techniques include Sisyphus-type approaches, which have, for example, produced samples of H$_2$CO as cold as 420 μK [43, 44]. Laser cooling has been identified as being potentially applicable to a variety of molecular structures [6, 45–51], including polyatomic species composed of a single metal atom bound to an electronegative radical, called “MOR” molecules [52–54]. Crucially, laser cooling offers a path to trapped μK samples of molecules in single internal and motional quantum states. SrF [41, 55–60], CaF [42, 61–66], and YO [67–69] have all been laser cooled and loaded into magneto-optical traps (MOTs). SrF and CaF have been cooled below the Doppler limit and transferred to optical or magnetic traps [70–72]. Sisyphus laser cooling of the polyatomic molecules SrOH and YbOH has been achieved [73, 74], and coherent optical forces have been applied to SrOH [75].

In this Letter, we demonstrate radio frequency (RF) magneto-optical (MO) cooling and compression (1D MOT) of a beam of the polyatomic molecule $^{40}$Ca$^{16}$OH, an archetypal example of the broader class of MOR molecules. In doing so, we realize a cycling scheme capable of scattering ~ 10$^5$ photons. We characterize the MO forces applied here by extracting force constants and damping rates. A concomitant on-axis increase in molecular density is observed. This demonstration of MO cooling establishes a route towards deep laser cooling and optical trapping for numerous species of polyatomic molecules.

Effective MO cooling and compression requires scattering many photons without losing population to states that do not couple to the laser light (“dark states”). Establishing such a cycling transition in molecules requires closing both vibrational and rotational degrees of freedom, as depicted in Fig 1. Vibrational decay is not governed by rigorous selection rules but instead by wavefunction overlap, which is quantified by Franck–Condon factors (FCFs). CaOH is an example of a broad class of polyatomic molecules that have been identified as promising candidates for laser cooling due to their diagonal FCFs and strong electronic transitions [52, 77]. The main laser cooling transition in CaOH is the $^2\Sigma^+$ $^2\Pi_1/2$ (000) → $^2\Pi_1/2$ (000) transition with a natural linewidth of $2\pi \times 6.4$ MHz at 626 nm [78]. The highly diagonal FCFs of the $^2\Pi_1/2$ (000) state suppress spontaneous decay to higher vibrational states during a single scattering event; nonetheless, significant optical pumping into excited vibrational states can occur when many photons are scattered. CaOH has three vibrational modes: a symmetric stretch, a doubly degenerate bend, and an antisymmetric stretch. These vibrational modes are labeled with four quantum numbers ($v_1$, $v_2$, $v_3$), where $v_1$, $v_2$, and $v_3$ indicate the number of quanta in the symmetric stretching mode, the bending mode, and the antisymmetric stretching mode, respectively. $l$ labels the nuclear orbital angular momentum in the bending mode and takes values of $l = -v_2, -v_2 + 2, ..., v_2$ [79]. Five repumping lasers, listed in Table I, are used to establish a quasi-closed cycling scheme.
and recover population in these states, as depicted in Fig. 1. Branching ratios within this cycling scheme are reported in the Supplemental Material.

Notably, both the $\tilde{X}^2\Sigma^+$ (011) and $\tilde{X}^2\Sigma^+$ (020) states need to be repumped. Decays to these states are nominally forbidden by an approximate $\Delta l = 0$ selection rule that originates from the separation of electronic and vibrational degrees of freedom in the Born-Oppenheimer approximation. The breakdown of this selection rule has been observed previously for $\Delta l = 1$ transitions in CaOH (and other similar systems) and is attributed to a second order process involving Renner-Teller mixing and spin-orbit coupling leading to intensity borrowing via the $B^2\Sigma^+ (000)$ state [77, 80, 81]. Decay to the $\tilde{X}^2\Sigma^+$ (020) state was previously unobserved. We attribute the magnitude of this decay to a similar mechanism that relies on the mixing of vibrational states within the $\tilde{A}^2\Pi_{1/2}$ manifold (see Supplemental Material). We measure the branching ratio out of this cycling scheme to be $4.5(7) \times 10^{-4}$, which is predicted to be dominated by decay to the $\tilde{X}^2\Sigma^+ (120)$, $\tilde{X}^2\Sigma^+ (122)$, and $\tilde{X}^2\Sigma^+ (300)$ vibrational states. Details of this measurement will be the subject of a subsequent publication.

To avoid populating rotational dark states, each laser beam (main and all repumpers) contains two frequency components separated by the spin-rotation (SR) splitting of 52 MHz depicted in Fig 1 (b). The hyperfine splitting is below the natural linewidth of the main cooling transition and does not require additional frequency sidebands [76]. This type of transition ($J \rightarrow J' = J - 1$) causes rapid optical pumping into magnetic dark states, significantly reducing the cooling and confining forces in molecular MOTs [82]. We address this by simultaneously switching both the laser polarization and the sign of the magnetic field gradient during cooling, which evokes magnetic dark states into bright states, as previously demonstrated in diatomic systems [59, 62, 67].

CaOH molecules are produced using a cryogenic buffer gas source [83, 84] as depicted in Fig 2. Hot calcium atoms are produced by laser ablation of a metallic calcium target inside of a copper cell held at $\sim 2$ K while flowing 6 standard cubic centimeters per minute (SCCM) of helium buffer gas. We simultaneously flow a small amount ($\sim 0.01$ SCCM) of methanol vapor into the cell through a thermally isolated capillary at $\sim 250$ K. Methanol molecules react with calcium atoms to produce CaOH. The CaOH molecules rapidly cool via collisions with the helium buffer gas. This produces CaOH at densities of $\sim 10^{10}$ cm$^{-3}$ in a single rotational state, as measured by laser absorption in the cell. The cold CaOH molecules are entrained in the buffer gas flow and extracted from a two-stage cell into a cryogenic buffer-gas beam (CBGB) with a mean forward velocity of $v_f \sim 100$ m/s and a transverse velocity spread of $v_\perp \sim 20$ m/s [83]. The CBGB is collimated by a 3 mm square aperture located 35.5 cm from

| Transition | Wavelength (nm) |
|------------|-----------------|
| $\tilde{X}^2\Sigma^+ (000) \rightarrow \tilde{A}^2\Pi_{1/2} (000)$ | 626.4 |
| $\tilde{X}^2\Sigma^+ (100) \rightarrow \tilde{B}^2\Sigma^+ (000)$ | 574.3 |
| $\tilde{X}^2\Sigma^+ (200) \rightarrow \tilde{A}^2\Pi_{1/2} (100)$ | 650.4 |
| $\tilde{X}^2\Sigma^+ (020) \rightarrow \tilde{A}^2\Pi_{1/2} (100)$ | 629.0 |
| $\tilde{X}^2\Sigma^+ (020) \rightarrow \tilde{A}^2\Pi_{1/2} (100)$ | 630.0 |
| $\tilde{X}^2\Sigma^+ (011) \rightarrow \tilde{B}^2\Sigma^+ (000)$ | 566.0 |

Table I. Optical transitions and corresponding wavelengths driven to form a quasi-closed cycling transition in CaOH. The $\tilde{X}^2\Sigma^+ (000) \rightarrow \tilde{A}^2\Pi_{1/2} (000)$ transition is the main cooling line while the other five frequencies correspond to vibrational repumping lasers.
the exit of the buffer-gas cell, resulting in a transverse temperature $T_{\perp} \approx 8.4 \text{ mK}$.

After exiting the aperture, the collimated molecular beam enters the interaction region containing six distinct wave-lengths of light (main plus five repumpers). The combined laser light, with a beam diameter of 25 mm, makes 5 round trip passes through the interaction region as well as through a pair of $\lambda/4$ waveplates for 12.5 cm of total interaction length. The main laser cooling light is circularly polarized and retroreflected in a $\sigma^+ - \sigma^-$ configuration. Details are provided in the Supplemental Material. The handedness of the polarization is rapidly switched using a voltage-variable waveplate (Pockels cell). A quadrupole magnetic field is generated with a pair of in-vacuum anti-Helmholtz coils and sinusoidally driven at the same frequency as the laser polarization switching with a controllable phase offset.

Following the interaction region, where MO cooling and compression take place, repumping lasers are applied to recover population from excited vibrational states. The molecules expand ballistically while propagating to the detection region, mapping the momentum distribution onto the spatial extent of the molecular beam. The molecules are then excited with lasers addressing the $\tilde{X}^2\Sigma^+$ (000) $\rightarrow \tilde{B}^2\Sigma^+$ (000) and $\tilde{X}^2\Sigma^+$ (100) $\rightarrow \tilde{B}^2\Sigma^+$ (000) lines with the resulting laser-induced fluorescence imaged onto an EMCCD camera. The collection efficiency of the imaging system is measured to be constant over the region occupied by the molecules. The resulting image is integrated along the direction of molecule propagation to produce a spatial beam profile, which we fit to a Gaussian distribution. We parameterize the width of the molecular beam by the standard deviation of the Gaussian fit. MO cooling and compression are seen as a narrowing of this width, as shown in Fig 3. The main cooling laser intensity was 1.6 mW/cm$^2$ for the data in Fig 3 and 3.3 mW/cm$^2$ for the data in Fig 4. All data were collected with an RF switching frequency of 530 kHz, a detuning of -7 MHz, and an RF voltage applied to the coils corresponding to a root-mean-square magnetic field gradient of 17 Gauss/cm. Further details on the apparatus are contained in the Supplemental Material.

In order to differentiate Doppler and MO effects, we scan the phase of the polarization switching relative to the magnetic field gradient switching, as shown in Fig 4. The greatest compression of the beam occurs at a phase of 0 degrees and corresponds to the MOT configuration, while at a phase of 180 degrees we see expansion of the beam, corresponding to the anti-MOT. The observed phase dependence is a clear signature of the application of MO forces in addition to the effects of Doppler cooling alone, represented by the gray shaded region in the figure. By measuring the loss of molecules to vibrational dark states as a function of cooling light intensity and by comparing to the known branching ratios of repumped vibrational levels, we are able to determine the number of photons scattered by the cooling process. We find that we can scatter up to 920 $^{\pm} 170$ photons during the cooling process, limited primarily by interaction time. The beam compression saturates after $\sim 550$ photons are scattered. We attribute this saturation to a Gaussian distribution. We parameterize the width of the molecular beam by the standard deviation of the Gaussian fit. MO cooling and compression are seen as a narrowing of this width, as shown in Fig 3. The main cooling laser intensity was 1.6 mW/cm$^2$ for the data in Fig 3 and 3.3 mW/cm$^2$ for the data in Fig 4. All data were collected with an RF switching frequency of 530 kHz, a detuning of -7 MHz, and an RF voltage applied to the coils corresponding to a root-mean-square magnetic field gradient of 17 Gauss/cm. Further details on the apparatus are contained in the Supplemental Material.
to a combination of sub-Doppler heating and MO overfocus-
ing of the molecular beam.

As a means of characterizing our system we use a Monte Carlo simulation to model molecular propagation and cooling dynamics. The MO forces are described by an effective rate-equation model developed previously in diatomic systems [59, 85] and described in detail in the Supplemental Material. The resulting forces can be linearized in the form $F_{MO}/m \approx -\beta v - \omega^2 r$, where $m$ is the molecular mass, $r$ and $v$ are the position and velocity of the molecules, $\omega$ is the MO oscillation frequency, and $\beta$ is the damping constant. By fitting the results of this model to our data we extract MO cooling parameters $\omega \approx 2\pi \times 90$ Hz and $\beta \approx 400$ s$^{-1}$. These values are comparable to those observed for 2D and 3D MOTs of diatomic molecules [58, 62, 64, 67]. By fitting the final velocity distribution of the molecular cloud after propagation through the simulated cooling region, we extract transverse beam temperatures. After Doppler cooling alone we find $T = 3.1(1)$ mK (from an initial temperature of $T = 8.4(2)$ mK); with MO cooling and compression the temperature is further reduced to $T = 1.4(1)$ mK. The simulated MOT force is then used to extract an on-axis capture velocity of $\sim 7$ m/s for a 3D MOT of CaOH, which is similar to that measured in diatomic molecules [63].

In summary, we demonstrate magneto-optical cooling and compression of polyatomic CaOH molecules. We establish a cycling transition and scatter up to $\sim 10^3$ photons, limited primarily by interaction time. We also observe cooling from 8.4 mK to 1.4 mK. This technique could be used as a means of increasing beam brightness to substantially enhance molecule numbers loaded into a 3D MOT. Demonstrating this degree of photon cycling sets the stage for optical slowing of a molecular beam and ultimately the realization of a full 3D MOT. As a result, this work represents a significant step forward in extending cooling and trapping techniques to larger, more complicated molecular species, which will allow the production of ultracold polyatomic molecular samples and deep cooling into the $\mu$K regime.

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