

## Efficient Quantification of Non-Gaussian Spin Distributions

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We study theoretically and experimentally the quantification of non-Gaussian distributions via non-destructive measurements. Using the theory of cumulants, their unbiased estimators, and the uncertainties of these estimators, we describe a quantification which is simultaneously efficient, unbiased by measurement noise, and suitable for hypothesis tests, e.g., to detect nonclassical states. The theory is applied to cold <sup>87</sup>Rb spin ensembles prepared in non-Gaussian states by optical pumping and measured by nondestructive Faraday rotation probing. We find an optimal use of measurement resources under realistic conditions, e.g., in atomic ensemble quantum memories.

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**Introduction.**—Non-Gaussian states are an essential requirement for universal quantum computation [1,2] and several quantum communication tasks with continuous variables, including improving the fidelity of quantum teleportation [3] and entanglement distillation [4,5]. Optical non-Gaussian states have been demonstrated [6–10] and proposals in atomic systems [11–14] are being actively pursued. In photonic systems, histograms [15] and state tomography [6,7,9,10] have been used to show non-Gaussianity, but require a large number of measurements. For material systems with longer time-scales these approaches may be prohibitively expensive. Here we demonstrate the use of cumulants, global measures of distribution shape, to show non-Gaussianity in an atomic spin ensemble. Cumulants can be used to show nonclassicality [16–18], can be estimated with few measurements and have known uncertainties, a critical requirement for proofs of nonclassicality.

**Approach.**—Quantification or testing of distributions has features not encountered in quantification of observables. For example, experimental measurement noise appears as a distortion of the distribution that cannot be “averaged away” by additional measurements. As will be discussed later, the theory of cumulants naturally handles this situation. We focus on the fourth-order cumulant  $\kappa_4$ , the lowest-order indicator of non-Gaussianity in symmetric distributions such as Fock [19] and “Schrödinger kitten” states [7,11]. We study theoretically and experimentally the noise properties of Fisher’s unbiased estimator of  $\kappa_4$ , i.e., the fourth “ $k$  statistic”  $k_4$ , and find optimal measurement conditions. Because  $\kappa_4$  is related to the negativity of the Wigner function [16], this estimation is of direct relevance to detection of nonclassical states. We employ quantum nondemolition measurement, a key technique for generation and measurement of nonclassical states in

atomic spin ensembles [20,21] and nanomechanical oscillators [22].

**Moments, cumulants, and estimators.**—A continuous random variable  $X$  with probability distribution function  $P(X)$  is completely characterized by its moments  $\mu_k \equiv \int X^k P(X) dX$  or cumulants  $\kappa_n = \mu_n - \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k-1} \mu_{n-k} \kappa_k$ , where  $\binom{n}{k}$  is the binomial coefficient.

Since Gaussian distributions have  $\kappa_{n>2} = 0$ , estimation of  $\kappa_4$ , (or  $\kappa_3$  for nonsymmetric distributions), is a natural test for non-Gaussianity. In an experiment, a finite sample  $\{X_1 \dots X_N\}$  from  $P$  is used to estimate the  $\kappa$ ’s. Fisher’s unbiased estimators, known as “ $k$  statistics”  $k_n$ , give the correct expectation values  $\langle k_n \rangle = \kappa_n$  for finite  $N$  [23]. Defining  $S_n = \sum_i X_i^n$  we have

$$k_3 = (2S_1^3 - 3NS_1S_2 + N^2S_3)/N_{(2)}, \quad (1)$$

$$k_4 = (-6S_1^4 + 12NS_1^2S_2 - 3N(N-1)S_2^2 - 4N(N-1)S_1S_3 + N^2(N+1)S_4)/N_{(3)}, \quad (2)$$

where  $N_{(m)} \equiv N(N-1) \dots (N-m)$ .

We need the uncertainty in the cumulant estimation to test for non-Gaussianity, or to compare non-Gaussianity between distributions. For hypothesis testing and maximum-likelihood approaches, we need the variances of  $k_3$ ,  $k_4$  for a given  $P$ . These are found by combinatorial methods and given in Ref. [23]:

$$\text{var}(k_3) = \kappa_6/N + 9N(\kappa_2\kappa_4 + \kappa_3^2)/N_{(1)} + 6N^2\kappa_2^3/N_{(2)}, \quad (3)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(k_4) = & \kappa_8/N + 2N(8\kappa_6\kappa_2 + 24\kappa_5\kappa_3 + 17\kappa_4^2)/N_{(1)} \\ & + 72N^2(\kappa_4\kappa_2^2 + 2\kappa_3^2\kappa_2)/N_{(2)} \\ & + 24N^2(N+1)\kappa_2^4/N_{(3)}. \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

It is also possible to estimate the uncertainty in  $k_4$  from data  $\{X\}$  using estimators of higher order cumulants [23]. The efficiency of cumulant estimation is illustrated in Fig. 1.

**Measurement noise.**—When the measured signal is  $Z = X + Y$ , where  $X$  is the true value and  $Y$  is uncorrelated noise, the measured distribution is the convolution  $P(Z) = P(X) \otimes P(Y)$ . The effect of this distortion on cumulants is the following: for independent variables, cumulants accumulate (i.e., add) [23], so that  $\kappa_n^{(Z)} = \kappa_n^{(X)} + \kappa_n^{(Y)}$ , where  $\kappa_n^{(Q)}$ ,  $k_n^{(Q)}$  indicate  $\kappa_n$ ,  $k_n$  for distribution  $P(Q)$ . The extremely important case of uncorrelated, zero-mean Gaussian noise,  $\kappa_2^{(Y)} = \sigma_Y^2$  and other cumulants zero, is thus very simple:  $\kappa_n^{(Z)} = \kappa_n^{(X)}$  except for  $\kappa_2^{(Z)} = \kappa_2^{(X)} + \sigma_Y^2$ . Critically, added Gaussian noise does not alter the observed  $\kappa_3$ ,  $\kappa_4$ .

**Experimental system and state preparation.**—We test this approach in a highly realistic experiment in order to understand the role of experimental imperfections by estimating classical non-Gaussian spin distributions in an atomic ensemble, similar to ensemble systems being developed for quantum networking with non-Gaussian states [24]. The collective spin component  $F_z$  is measured by Faraday rotation using optical pulses (where  $z$  is the optical propagation axis). The detected Stokes operator is  $S_y^{(\text{out})} = S_y^{(\text{in})} + GN_L F_z/2$ , where  $G$  is a coupling constant,  $N_L$  is the number of photons, and  $S_y^{(\text{in})}$  is the input Stokes operator, which contributes quantum noise. In the above formulation  $X = F_z$ ,  $Y = 2S_y^{(\text{in})}/(GN_L)$  and  $Z = 2S_y^{(\text{out})}/(GN_L)$ .

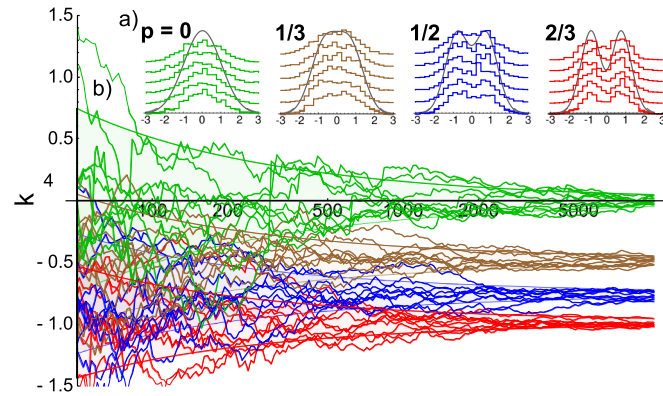


FIG. 1 (color online). Simulated estimator  $k_4$  as a function of sample size  $N$ . (a) (insets) black curves show quadrature distributions of states  $\rho = (1-p)|0\rangle\langle 0| + p|1\rangle\langle 1|$ , scaled to unit variance, and six  $N = 1000$  histograms (offset for clarity) for  $p = 0$  (green),  $1/3$  (brown),  $1/2$  (blue) and  $2/3$  (red). (b) Ten realizations of  $k_4$  versus  $N$  drawn from each of the four distributions. Shaded regions show  $\kappa_4 \pm \sqrt{\text{var}(k_4)}$ , from Eqs. (2) and (4). With  $N = 1000$ ,  $k_4$  distinguishes  $p = 1/2$  (blue) from  $p = 0$  (green, Gaussian) with  $>7\sigma$  significance, even though the histograms look similar “to the eye.” This shows the efficiency relative to histogram-based detection [15].

The experimental system is described in detail in references [21,25,26]. An ensemble of  $\sim 10^6$   $^{87}\text{Rb}$  atoms is trapped in an elongated dipole trap made from a weakly focused 1030 nm beam and cooled to 25  $\mu\text{K}$ . A nondestructive measurement of the atomic state is made using pulses of linearly polarized light detuned 800 MHz to the red of the  $F = 1 \rightarrow F' = 0$  transition of the  $D_2$  line and sent through the atoms in a beam matched to the transverse cloud size. The pulses are of 1  $\mu\text{s}$  duration, contain  $3.7 \times 10^6$  photons on average, and are spaced by 10  $\mu\text{s}$  to allow individual detection. The 240:1 aspect ratio of the atomic cloud creates a strong paramagnetic Faraday interaction with measured coupling  $G \approx 6 \times 10^{-8}$  rad/spin. After interaction with the atoms,  $S_y^{(\text{out})}$  is detected with a shot-noise-limited (SNL) balanced polarimeter in the  $\pm 45^\circ$  basis.  $N_L$  is measured with a beam-splitter and reference detector before the atoms. The probing-plus-detection system is shot-noise-limited above  $3 \times 10^5$  photons/pulse. Previous work with this system has demonstrated QND measurement of the collective spin  $F_z$  with an uncertainty of  $\sim 500$  spins [21,26].

We generate Gaussian and non-Gaussian distributions with the following strategy: we prepare a “thermal state” (TS), an equal mixture of the  $F = 1$ ,  $m_F = -1, 0, 1$  ground states, by repeated unpolarized optical pumping between the  $F = 1$  and  $F = 2$  hyperfine levels, finishing in  $F = 1$  [26]. By the central limit theorem, the TS of  $10^6$  atoms is nearly Gaussian with  $\langle F_z \rangle = 0$  and  $\text{var}(F_z) = \sigma^2 = 2N_A/3$ . By optical pumping with pulses of circularly polarized light we displace this to  $\langle F_z \rangle = \alpha$ , with negligible change in  $\text{var}(F_z)$  [27], to produce  $P_\alpha(F_z) = (\sigma\sqrt{2\pi})^{-1} \times \exp[-(F_z - \alpha)^2/(2\sigma^2)]$ . By displacing different TS alternately to  $\alpha_+$  and  $\alpha_-$ , we produce an equal statistical mixture of the two displaced states,  $P_\alpha^{(\text{NG})}(F_z) = [P_{\alpha_+}(F_z) + P_{\alpha_-}(F_z)]/2$ . With properly chosen  $\alpha_\pm$ ,  $P_\alpha^{(\text{NG})}(F_z)$  closely approximates marginal distributions of mixtures of  $n = 0, 1$  Fock states and  $m = N, N - 1$  symmetric Dicke states. The experimental sequence is shown in Fig. 2.

**Detection, analysis, and results.**—For each preparation, 100 measurements of  $F_z$  are made, with readings (i.e., estimated  $F_z$  values by numerical integration of the measured signal)  $m_i = 2S_y^{(\text{out},i)}/N_L^{(i)}$ . Because the measurement is nondestructive and shot-noise limited, we can combine  $N_R$  readings in a “meta pulse”, i.e., a train of individual pulses, with reading  $M \equiv \sum m_i$ . Varying the number of individual pulses combined in this way, we vary the total number of photons and thus the sensitivity of the meta-pulse, while preserving the quantum noise features [26]. These readings have the distribution  $P_{\alpha_\pm}(M) = \exp[-(M - \alpha_\pm)^2/(2\sigma_M^2)]/(\sigma_M\sqrt{2\pi})$  where the variance  $\sigma_M^2 = \sigma_A^2 N_A'^2 N_R^2 + \sigma_R^2$  includes atomic noise  $\sigma_A^2 N_A'^2$  and readout noise,  $\sigma_R^2 = N_R/N_L$  with  $N_A' = N_A/N_A^{\text{MAX}}$ . The variance  $\sigma_A^2$  is determined from the scaling of  $\text{var}(M)$  with

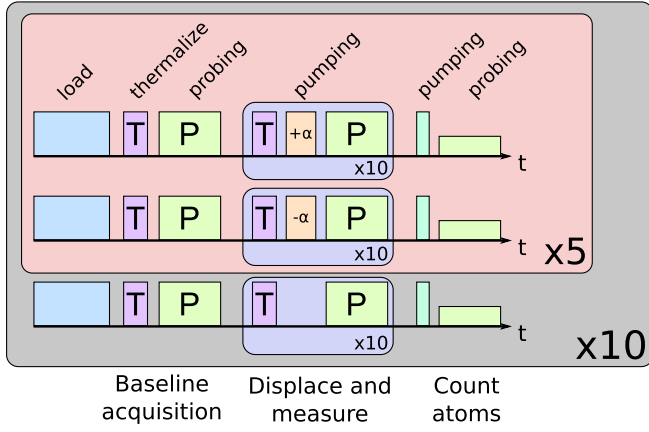


FIG. 2 (color online). Experimental sequence: The experimental sequence divides into distinct tasks. Baseline acquisition: prepare the thermal state and probe to measure the residual rotation. Displace and measure (DM[ $\alpha$ ]): prepare the thermal state, displace by  $\alpha$  and probe. Thanks to atom loss at each thermalization, the atom number is varied by repeating DM several times. Measure number of atoms  $N_A$ : by pumping the atoms into  $F = 1$ ,  $m_F = 1$  and probing we measure the number of atoms in the trap. To correct for drifts, a sequence without displacement (DM[0]) is performed every 11 runs. We perform the sequence varying the displacement to acquire a dataset of quantum-noise-limited measurements of  $P_{\alpha}^{(\text{NG})}(S_y^{(\text{out})})$  for different  $\alpha$ . The duration of a single displace and measure event is about 1 ms, comparable to quantum memory storage times [28], and orders of magnitude longer than the ns or ps time-scales typical of optical quantum state preparation [6,15].

$N_A$  and  $N_R$ , as in [26]. The readout noise can be varied over 2 orders of magnitude by appropriate choice of  $N_R$ . For one probe pulse and the maximum number of atoms we have  $\sigma_R^2/\sigma_A^2 = 84.7$ .

To produce a non-Gaussian distribution, we compose metapulses from  $N_R$  samples drawn from displaced thermal state (DM[ $\alpha_+$ ] or DM[ $\alpha_-$ ]) preparations with equal probability, giving distribution  $P_{\alpha}^{(\text{NG})}(M) = [P_{\alpha_+}(M) + P_{\alpha_-}(M)]/2$ . With  $\alpha_M \equiv (\alpha_+ - \alpha_-)/2$ , the distribution has  $\kappa_{2n+1} = 0$ ,  $\kappa_2 = \alpha_M^2 + \sigma_M^2$ ,  $\kappa_4 = -2\alpha_M^4$ ,  $\kappa_6 = 16\alpha_M^6$ ,  $\kappa_8 = -272\alpha_M^8$ . Our ability to measure the non-Gaussianity is determined by  $\langle k_4 \rangle = \kappa_4$  and from Eq. (4)

$$\text{var}(k_4) = 136N\alpha_M^8/N_{(1)} - 144N^2\alpha_M^4(\alpha_M^2 + \sigma_M^2)^2/N_{(2)} + 24N^2(N+1)(\alpha_M^2 + \sigma_M^2)^4/N_{(3)}. \quad (5)$$

As shown in Fig. 3, the experimentally obtained values agree well with theory, and confirm the independence from measurement noise.

The “signal-to-noise ratio” for  $\kappa_4$ ,  $S = \kappa_4^2/\text{var}(k_4)$ , is computed using Eq. (5),  $\kappa_4 = -2\alpha_M^4$ , and experimental  $\alpha_M$ ,  $N_R$ ,  $\sigma_R$ , is shown as curves in Fig. 4. We can confirm this  $S$  experimentally by computing  $S_N \equiv \langle k_4 \rangle^2/\text{var}(k_4)$  using  $k_4$  values derived from several realizations of the experiment, each sampling  $P_{\alpha}^{(\text{NG})}$   $N$  times. In the limit of

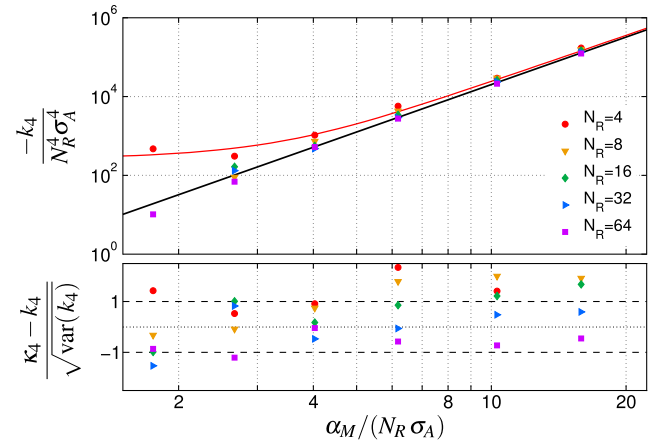


FIG. 3 (color online). Measured and predicted  $k_4$  with residuals for non-Gaussian distributions of different  $\alpha$ . Readout noise is varied by the choice of  $N_R$ . Data is normalized to  $N_R$  and  $\sigma_A$ . Top: Points show normalized  $-k_4$  calculated from  $N = 100$  preparations of the ensemble with different  $\alpha$  (horizontal axis), and  $N_R$  (colors). Black line indicates expected  $-k_4$ , red line (top) shows  $-k_4 + \sqrt{\text{var}(k_4)}$  calculated from the distribution parameters for the largest readout noise. Some points have negative values and are not shown because of the logarithmic scale. Bottom: normalized residuals  $(-k_4 + \kappa_4)/\sqrt{\text{var}(k_4)}$ . The normalization is done with the expected  $\text{var}(k_4)$  for each  $N_R$ . Measured  $k_4$  agrees well with theory, in particular, measurement noise increases the observed variance, but not the expectation.

many realizations  $S_N \rightarrow S$ . We employ a bootstrapping technique: From 100 samples of  $P_{\alpha}^{(\text{NG})}(M)$  for given parameters  $\alpha_M$ ,  $N_R$  and  $N_A$ , we derive 33  $N = 20$  realizations by random sampling without replacement, and compute  $\langle k_4 \rangle$  and  $\text{var}(k_4)$  on the realizations. As shown in Fig. 4, reasonable agreement with theory is observed over a wide range of parameters. Without evaluating still higher order statistics it is difficult to say if the remaining differences are statistical or systematic.

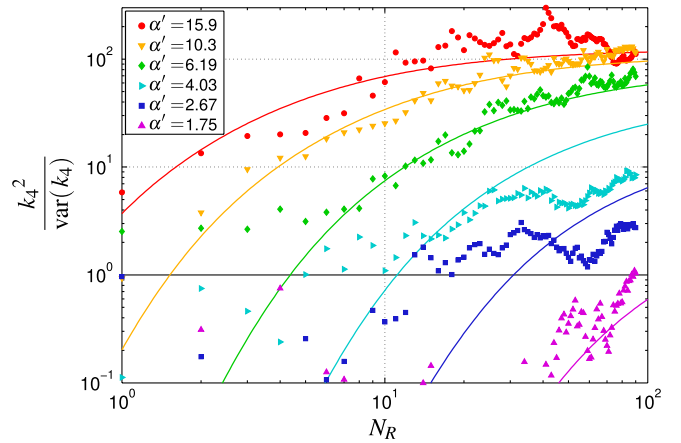


FIG. 4 (color online). Signal-to-noise in estimation of  $\kappa_4$  versus readout noise for different  $\alpha' = \alpha_M/(N_R \sigma_A)$ . Points show measurement results, lines show theory. (details in the text)



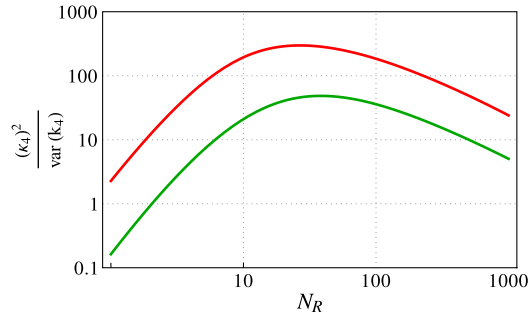


FIG. 5 (color online). Signal-to noise-ratio  $S$  versus  $N_R$  for a fixed probe number  $N_M N_R = 1 \times 10^5$  for the probability distribution associated with Fock state mixture described in the text with a normalized  $n = 0$  width  $\sigma_0 = 1$ . Red curve (top):  $p = 1$ . Green curve (bottom):  $p = 0.5$  with SNL measurement:  $\sigma_R = \sqrt{20/N_R}$ .

*Optimum estimation of non-Gaussian distributions.*—Finally, we note that in scenarios where measurements are expensive relative to state preparation (as might be the case for QND measurements of optical fields or for testing the successful storage of a single photon in a quantum memory), optimal use of measurement resources (e.g. measurement time) avoids both too few preparations and too few probings.

We consider a scenario of practical interest for quantum networking: a heralded single-photon state is produced and stored in an atomic ensemble quantum memory. Assuming the ensemble is initially polarized in the  $\hat{X}$  direction, the storage process maps the quadrature components  $X, P$  onto the corresponding atomic spin operators  $X_A, P_A \propto F_z, -F_y$ , respectively. QND measurements of  $F_z$  are used to estimate  $X_A$ , and thus the non-Gaussianity of the stored single photon. Because of imperfect storage, this will have the distribution of a mixture of  $n = 0$  and  $n = 1$  Fock states:  $\rho = (1 - p)|0\rangle\langle 0| + p|1\rangle\langle 1|$ . For a quadrature  $X$ , we have the following probability distribution  $P_p(X) = \exp[-x^2/(2\sigma_0^2)](px^2/\sigma_0^2 + 1 - p)/(\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_0)$ , where  $\sigma_0$  is the width of the  $n = 0$  state.

Taking in account the readout noise  $\sigma_R^2$ , the cumulants are  $\kappa_{\text{odd}} = 0$ ,  $\kappa_2 = (2p + 1)\sigma_H^2 + \sigma_R^2$ ,  $\kappa_4 = -12p^2\sigma_H^4$ ,  $\kappa_6 = 240p^3\sigma_H^6$ ,  $\kappa_8 = -10080p^4\sigma_H^8$ , where the readout noise  $\sigma_R^2$  is included as above. Here,  $\kappa_4$  is directly related to the classicality of the state, since  $p > 0.5$  implies a negative Wigner distribution [19].

For a fixed total number of measurement resources  $N_M N_R$ , an optimal distribution of resources per measurement  $N_R$  exists as shown in Fig. 5. With increasing  $N_R$ , the signal-to-noise first increases due to the improvement of the measurement precision. Then, once the increased measurement precision no longer gives extra information about  $k_4$ , the precision decreases due to reduced statistics because of the limited total number of probes. For a large total number of measurements, we can derive a simplified

expression of this optimum. We derive asymptotic expressions of  $S$ :  $S_L$  ( $S_H$ ) for  $\sigma_R \ll \sigma_0$  ( $\sigma_R \gg \sigma_0$ ). The optimal  $N_R$  is found by solving  $S_L = S_R$  giving  $\sigma_R^8 \approx \sigma_0^8(1 + 8p - 12p^2 + 48p^3 - 24p^4)$ . For this optimal  $\sigma_R$ , the measurement noise is in the same order of magnitude as the characteristic width of the non-Gaussian distribution.

*Conclusion.*—The cumulant-based methods described here should be very attractive for experiments with non-Gaussian states of material systems such as atomic ensembles and nanoresonators, for which the state preparation time is intrinsically longer, and for which measurement noise is a greater challenge than in optical systems. Cumulant-based estimation is simultaneously efficient, requiring few preparations and measurements, accommodates measurement noise in a natural way, and facilitates statistically-meaningful tests, e.g., of nonclassicality. Experimental tests with a cold atomic ensemble demonstrate the method in a system highly suitable for quantum networking, while the theory applies equally to other quantum systems of current interest.

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