

Physics & Quantum Computers at hiMolde

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Molde University College

Per Kristian Rekdal, 31st August 2011



Outline

- Presentation of myself
- My next 3 years at hiMolde
- Theoretical physics: Quantum Optics
- Quantum computers:
 - superposition
 - entanglement
- Decoherence
 - Lifetime of an atom chip (PRL 97, 070401 (2006))
- Collaborators
- Summary



Presentation

- Name: Per Kristian Rekdal
- Age: 38
- Education:
 - M. Sci.: theoretical physics, NTNU, (1992-1997)
 - Ph.D.: quantum optics, NTNU, (1998-2001)
 - Post Doc: quantum optics, Imperial C., (2002-2004)
 - Post Doc: quantum optics, UniGraz, (2005-2006)
- # published papers: 14
- h-index : 6

- **Master of Science:** (1992-1997)

NTNU

Thesis:

“Coherent Electron Transport in Two-Dimensional Quantum Dot-Structures in a Magnetic Field”

Supervisor: Eivind Hiis Hauge





- **Doctoral fellow:** (1997-2001)

NTNU

Dr. Ing. Thesis:

“Some Non-Perturbative Results in Modern Quantum Optics”

Supervisor: Prof. Bo-Sture Skagerstam





- **Doctoral fellow:** (1997-2001)

NTNU

Dr. Ing. Thesis:

“Some Non-Perturbative Results in Modern Quantum Optics”

Supervisor: Prof. Bo-Sture Skagerstam



- **Post doctoral fellow:** (2002-2004)

Imperial College London, England

Co-workers:

Dr. S. Scheel, Prof. E. Hinds and Prof. P. Knight



- **Doctoral fellow:** (2005-2006)
Karl-Franzens-Universität Graz, (Austria)
Co-workers:
Ulrich Hohenester



Non-academic work experience:

- Axess A/S, Molde (2007-2011)
- Structural Engineer
 - analysis and calculation
 - FEM analysis
 - “hand calculation”
- IT responsible (2007-2010)
 - strategical decisions
 - some technical issues



Structural Engineer, analysis and calculation, (2007-2011):



Project:	Borgland Dolphin – Upgrade of Riser Handling Crane	Project no.:	1436			
Client:	Dolphin AS	Prepared	Date:	Sign.:	Doc. no.:	
			14.08.09	PKR	1436-250-01_02	
Subjects:	Structural strength analysis	Verified	Date:	Sign.:	Rev.:	Page / of:
			14.08.09	ONE	02	28 / 50

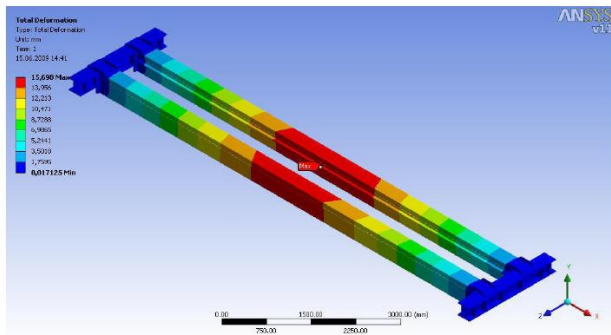


Figure 7-5: Deflection of bridge beam for load combination I. Max deflection is 15.6mm.



Structural Engineer, analysis and calculation, (2007-2011):



Project:	Borgland Dolphin – Upgrade of Riser Handling Crane	Project no.:	1436		
Client:	Dolphin AS	Prepared	Date:	Sign.:	Doc. no.:
Subjects:	Structural strength analysis	Verified	14.08.09	PKR	1436-250-01_02
			14.08.09	ONE	Rev.: 02 Page / of 18 / 50

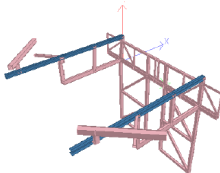


Figure 5-1: The structure as modelled in STAAD.Pro.

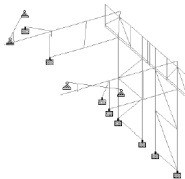


Figure 5-2: Eight nodes in the STAAD.Pro model are "fixed support". Four nodes are modelled with "pinned support".



Structural Engineer, analysis and calculation, (2007-2011):

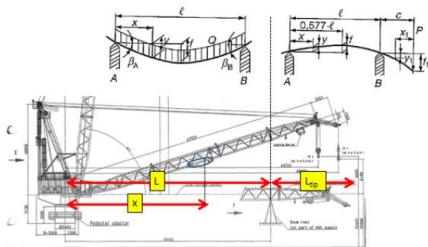


Figure 2.1: Model of boom for calculation.

$$x := 22 \text{ m}$$

$$l_{\text{bo}} := (34475 - 2300) \text{ mm} = 32.175 \text{ m}$$

$$L_{\text{tip}} := (48000 - 36090) \text{ mm} = 11.91 \text{ m}$$

$$q := 500 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}}$$

$$Q = q \cdot L = 16.087 \text{ t}$$

$$Q_{\text{tip}} = q \cdot L_{\text{tip}} = 5.955 \text{ t}$$

$$M = Q \cdot \frac{x}{2} \left(1 - \frac{x}{L} \right) = 548.805 \text{ kNm}$$

$$M_{\text{tip}} = \frac{(Q_{\text{tip}} \cdot y) \cdot \frac{L_{\text{tip}}}{2} \cdot x}{L} = 237.787 \text{ kNm}$$

position of damage, Ref. \R1\

length of boom, Ref. drawing \D1\ (see Fig. 2.1)

length of boom tip, Ref. drawing \D1\ (see Fig. 2.1)

estimated weight of boom per meter
(SolidWorks)

weight of boom between axle and boom rest

weight of boom tip (see Fig. 2.1)

bending moment between king and boom rest

bending moment due to weight of boom tip
(assume point load at $L_{\text{tip}}/2$)



Present position:

- Associate Professor II at Molde University College ("Førsteamanuensis II")
- 20 % position
- Period: 3 years
- External funding
- Unit: Økonomi-, informatikk- og samfunnsfag (ØIS)

Intentions for the next 3 years:

- 1) **research** and publication at hiMolde
 - “*Memory Effects in Spontaneous and Stimulated Emission Processes*”
 - “*Casimir Polder Force for an Atom above a superconductor at finite temperature T* ”
 - “*Interference Effects for Emission Processes with Arbitrary Initial State*”
- 2) research **collaboration** with groups at hiMolde
 - e.g. optimization group (Arne Løkketangen)
- 3) **teaching**
 - MAT001 Forkurs i matematikk, 2011
 - Written a compendium



Paper currently under preparation:

Memory Effects in Spontaneous and Stimulated Emission Processes

Asle Heide Vaskinn,^{1,*} Arne Løhre Grimsmo,^{1,†} Per Kristian Rekdal,^{2,‡} and Bo-Sture Skagerstam^{1,§}

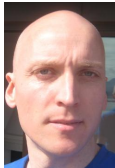
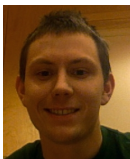
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(Dated: May 15, 2011)

We consider a quantum-mechanical analysis of a decaying systems in terms of an effective two-level system. The analysis is in principle exact, even though presented as a numerical solution of the time-evolution including memory effects, and is confronted with previous results as discussed in the literature in terms of e.g. approximative Laplace transform techniques. At large times as compared to the life-time of spontaneous emission we find large deviations of the exact analysis. We argue that different renormalization procedure actually influences the large-time behaviour of the decaying system. In the presence of physical boundaries the conclusions remains the same (?)

PACS numbers: 34.35.+a, 03.65.Yz, 03.75.Be, 42.50.Ct



Memory Effects in Spontaneous and Stimulated Emission Processes

Aale Heide Vaskinn,^{1,*} Arne Löhre Grimsmo,^{1,†} Per Kristian Hekkilä,^{2,‡} and Bo-Sture Skagerstam,^{1,§}¹Department of Physics, The Norwegian University of Science and Technology, N-7491 Trondheim, Norway
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We consider a quantum-mechanical analysis of a decaying system in terms of an effective two-level system. The analysis is in principle exact, even though presented as a numerical solution of the time-evolution including memory effects, and is confronted with previous results as discussed in the literature in terms of e.g. approximative Laplace transform techniques. At large times as compared to the life-time of spontaneous emission we find large deviations of the exact analysis. We argue that different renormalization procedure actually influences the large-time behaviour of the decaying system. In the presence of physical boundaries the conclusions remains the same (7)

PACS numbers: 34.35.+a, 03.65.Yz, 03.75.Be, 42.50.Cz

I. INTRODUCTION

The development concerning the manipulation of single atoms and their interaction with the electro-magnetic field has reached an impressive state of the in recent years (see e.g. Refs. [1–3]). Experimental studies have e.g. shown that artificial atoms can lead to a Lamb shift of the order of a few percent of the typical emission line [4]. Rather old issues concerning necessary deviations from exponential decay [5–15] may therefore be confronted with our current theoretical experimental understanding of decaying quantum systems. Concerning experimental studies of deviations from the conventional exponential decay we notice the study of decaying τ -leptons [16], the observed deviations in quantum-mechanical tunneling processes [17] and the power-law behaviour of the decay at times-scales larger than twenty life-times in dissolved organic materials [18]. In nuclear physics the decay of thorium has also been suggested as a potential target for large-time deviations [19].

In the context elementary particle physics gauge invariant definitions of observable quantities are of importance and the definition of a the decay width of an unstable particle is highly non-trivial (see e.g. [20]) in this respect. In studies of a possible proton decay in Nature the time-dependence of decaying systems may also play an important role [21].

The paper is organized as follows. In the next section we outline the theoretical framework. In order to obtain

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II. GENERAL THEORY

Let us consider a neutral atom at a fixed position \mathbf{r}_A . We will consider, in order to be specific, hyper-fine interactions but the results obtained can easily be rephrased in terms of electric-dipole interactions. The magnetic moment of the atom interacts with the quantized magnetic field via a conventional Zeeman coupling. The total, unrenormalized, Hamiltonian is then the standard form

$$H = \sum_{\alpha} \hbar\omega_{\alpha} |\alpha\rangle\langle\alpha| + \int d^3r \int_0^{\infty} d\omega \hbar\omega \hat{\Gamma}^{\dagger}(\mathbf{r}, \omega) \cdot \hat{\Gamma}(\mathbf{r}, \omega) + H', \quad (1)$$

where the effective interaction part is

$$H' = - \sum_{\alpha} \sum_{\beta} |\alpha\rangle\langle\beta| \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\alpha\beta} \cdot \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r}_A). \quad (2)$$

Here $\hat{\Gamma}(\mathbf{r}, \omega)$ is an annihilation operator for the quantized magnetic field, $|\alpha\rangle$ denotes the atomic state and E_{α} is the corresponding energy. We assume non-degenerate states, i.e. $E_{\alpha} \neq E_{\beta}$ for $\alpha \neq \beta$. The magnetic moment of the atom is $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\alpha\beta} = \langle\alpha|\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}|\beta\rangle$, where $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}$ is the magnetic moment operator. The magnetic field $\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r}) = \mathbf{B}^{(+)}(\mathbf{r}) + \mathbf{B}^{(-)}(\mathbf{r})$ is written $\mathbf{B}^{(+)}(\mathbf{r}) = \nabla \times \mathbf{A}^{(+)}(\mathbf{r})$, where $\mathbf{B}^{(-)}(\mathbf{r}) = (\mathbf{B}^{(+)}(\mathbf{r}))^{\dagger}$ and where the vector potential is

$$\mathbf{A}^{(+)}(\mathbf{r}) = \mu_0 \int d\omega' \int d^3r' \omega' \sqrt{\frac{\hbar\omega'}{\pi}} \mathbf{e}_2(\mathbf{r}', \omega') \times \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}', \omega') \cdot \hat{\Gamma}(\mathbf{r}', \omega'). \quad (3)$$

Here the imaginary part of the complex permittivity is $\epsilon_2(\mathbf{r}, \omega)$. The dyadic Green tensor $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}', \omega)$ is the unique solution to the Helmholtz equation

$$\nabla \times \nabla \times \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}', \omega) - \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} \epsilon(\mathbf{r}, \omega) \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}', \omega) = \delta(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}') \mathbf{1}, \quad (4)$$

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where the arrow in ∇ denotes a derivation with respect to the first argument in the dyadic Greens function. Since the Helmholtz equation is a linear differential equation, the associated Green's tensor can be written as a sum according to

$$\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}', \omega) = \mathbf{G}^0(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}', \omega) + \mathbf{G}^S(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}', \omega), \quad (5)$$

where $\mathbf{G}^0(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}', \omega)$ represents the contribution of the direct waves from the radiation sources in an unbounded medium, which is vacuum in our case, and $\mathbf{G}^S(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}', \omega)$ describes the scattering contribution of multiple reflection waves from the body under consideration. The presence of the vacuum part $\mathbf{G}^0(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}', \omega)$ in Eq.(5) will in general give rise to divergences in the energy shifts to be calculated below. A renormalization prescription is therefore required. We subtract the vacuum part $\mathbf{G}^0(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}', \omega)$, i.e. we neglect possible finite corrections due to this vacuum subtraction like conventional vacuum-induced Lamb shifts. Since we, in the end, are going to consider CP forces all additive coordinate independent corrections to energy shifts will, anyway, not contribute. (When we below refer to a renormalization prescription the procedure above is what we then have in mind.

For reason of simplicity, we now limited our attention to a two-level atom approximation, i.e. an atom with an excited state and a ground state with the frequency transition $\omega_A \equiv (E_+ - E_-)/\hbar > 0$. We consider the Hamiltonian in Eq.(1) and apply the well-known Weisskopf-Wigner theory for the transitions $e \rightarrow g$. The solution to the time-dependent Schrödinger equation in the rotating-wave approximation (RWA), i.e. applying $\hbar \approx \hbar \omega_A$, where

$$\hbar \omega_A = -|e\rangle\langle g| \boldsymbol{\mu}_{eg} \cdot \mathbf{B}^{(+)}(\mathbf{r}_A) + \text{h.c.}, \quad (6)$$

is then ($\omega_e \equiv E_g/\hbar$)

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi(t)\rangle &= c_e(t) e^{-i\omega_e t} |e\rangle \otimes |0\rangle \\ &+ \int d^3\mathbf{r} \int_0^\infty d\omega \sum_{m=1}^3 \\ &\times c_g(\mathbf{r}, \omega, m) e^{-i(\omega - \omega_e + i\eta)t} |g\rangle \otimes |\mathbf{r}, \omega, m\rangle, \quad (7) \end{aligned}$$

as we have ignored any higher order photon state than the 0-photon and 1-photon state. Here $|e\rangle$ and $|g\rangle$ are the excited state and ground state for the atom, respectively. Furthermore, $|0\rangle$ denotes the vacuum of the electro-magnetic field and $|\mathbf{r}, \omega, m\rangle = \hat{f}_{\mathbf{r}, \omega}^{(m)} |\mathbf{r}, \omega, m\rangle |0\rangle$ is a one photon state. The probability amplitudes $c_e(t)$ and $c_g(\mathbf{r}, \omega, m)$ must then obey the unitarity condition

$$|c_e(t)|^2 + \int d^3\mathbf{r} \int_0^\infty d\omega \sum_{m=1}^3 |c_g(\mathbf{r}, \omega, m)|^2 = 1. \quad (8)$$

In the present paper we will restrict ourselves to the initial conditions $c_e(0) = 1$ and $c_g(\mathbf{r}, \omega, m)(t=0) = 0$ and consider more general initial conditions elsewhere. The

probability amplitude for the excited atomic state $c_e(t)$ is then determined by (see e.g. Refs.[22, 23])

$$\dot{c}_e(t) = \int_0^t dt' K(t-t') c_e(t'), \quad (9)$$

where the kernel $K(t)$ is

$$K(t) = -\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^\infty d\omega e^{-i(\omega - \omega_e)t} \Gamma(\mathbf{r}_A, \omega). \quad (10)$$

Here we have made use of the conventional spin-flip decay rate for spontaneous emission as given by

$$\Gamma(\mathbf{r}, \omega) = \frac{2\mu_0}{\hbar} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{eg} \cdot \text{Im}[\nabla \times \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}, \omega) \times \nabla] \cdot \boldsymbol{\mu}_{ge}, \quad (11)$$

where the arrow in ∇ now denotes a derivation with respect to the second argument in the dyadic Greens function. We also have that

$$\begin{aligned} c_g(\mathbf{r}, \omega, m)(t) &= \\ \frac{i}{\hbar} \frac{\mu_0}{\sqrt{V}} (\boldsymbol{\mu}_{ge}^* \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{G}^*(\mathbf{r}', \mathbf{r}, \omega)|_{\mathbf{r}=\mathbf{r}_A}))_m I(\omega - \omega_A, t), \quad (12) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$I(\omega, t) = \int_0^t dt' e^{i\omega t'} c_e(t'). \quad (13)$$

The useful identity

$$\int d^3\mathbf{r}' \omega^2 \epsilon_2(\mathbf{r}, \omega) G_{jm}(\mathbf{r}', \mathbf{r}) G_{lm}(\mathbf{r}'', \mathbf{r}) = \text{Im} G_{jl}(\mathbf{r}'', \mathbf{r}'), \quad (14)$$

and Eq.(12) now leads to

$$\begin{aligned} \int d^3\mathbf{r} \int_0^\infty d\omega \sum_{m=1}^3 |c_g(\mathbf{r}, \omega, m)(t)|^2 &= \\ \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^\infty d\omega \Gamma(\mathbf{r}_A, \omega) |I(\omega - \omega_A, t)|^2. \quad (15) \end{aligned}$$

It now follows from Eqs.(9) and (15) that

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(|c_e(t)|^2 + \int d^3\mathbf{r} \int_0^\infty d\omega \sum_{m=1}^3 |c_g(\mathbf{r}, \omega, m)(t)|^2 \right) = 0, \quad (16)$$

i.e. the unitarity condition Eq.(8) is fulfilled for all times as it should.

Eq.(9), a well-known Volterra integral equation of second kind, may be integrated with respect to time. The result is then

$$c_e(t) = 1 + \int_0^t dt' \kappa(t-t') c_e(t'), \quad (17)$$



Next 3 years (cont.)

where $\kappa(t) \equiv \int_0^t dt' K(t')$ is the integrated kernel, i.e.

$$\kappa(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^\infty d\omega \frac{e^{-i(\omega-\omega_A)t} - 1}{i(\omega - \omega_A)} \Gamma(r_A, \omega). \quad (18)$$

By passing, we mention that a rate similar to Eq.(11) may be derived for electric dipole transitions (see e.g. Refs.[33, 34]). In that case, the spontaneous decay rate $\Gamma(r, \omega)$ should be replaced by

$$\Gamma_E(r, \omega) = \frac{2\omega_A^3}{\hbar \epsilon_0 c^3} \mathbf{d}_{g_j} \cdot \text{Im}[\mathbf{G}(r, r, \omega)] \cdot \mathbf{d}_{g_j}, \quad (19)$$

where \mathbf{d}_{g_j} is the electric dipole moment for the transition $e \rightarrow g$.

III. VACUUM

A. Exact

The Green tensor for vacuum is (see e.g. Refs.[23, 24])

$$\text{Im}[\bar{\nabla} \times \mathbf{G}^0(r, r, \omega) \times \bar{\nabla}] = \frac{\omega^3}{6\pi c^3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (20)$$

In this case, the kernel for vacuum $\kappa_0(t)$ reads (c.f. Eq.(18))

$$\kappa_0(t) = \frac{\Gamma_0}{2\pi} \int_0^\infty d\omega \frac{\omega^3}{\omega_A^3} \frac{e^{-i(\omega-\omega_A)t} - 1}{i(\omega - \omega_A)}. \quad (21)$$

Following Ref.[24], we restrict our attention to a two-level atom with no angular momentum and negligible nuclear moment. The decay rate of magnetic spin-flip transition for such an atom in free space is then (see also Refs.[34])

$$\Gamma_0 = \Gamma_0 S^2, \quad (22)$$

with

$$\Gamma_0 = \mu_0 \frac{(\mu_B g)^2}{3\pi \hbar} k_A^3, \quad (23)$$

and $k_A = \omega_A/c$ is the wave number in vacuum. Here we have introduced the dimensionless spin factor $S^2 \equiv S_1^2 + S_2^2 + S_3^2$, where $S_j = (g \hat{S}_j / \hbar) e_i$ is the dimensionless component of the electron spin operators \hat{S}_j corresponding to the transition $|e\rangle \rightarrow |g\rangle$, with $j = x, y, z$. Furthermore, μ_B is the Bohr magneton, $g_B \approx 2$ is the electron spin g factor.

Clearly, the kernel in Eq.(21) is divergent. As the case for magnetic dipole transition is analogue to the electric

transition, we follow the same argument as far as renormalization concerns, i.e. applying Bethe's mass renormalization [36]. In the electric case, the kernel is renormalized such that the energy shift is reduced to a logarithmic divergence in the frequency ω . Following this idea in the present magnetic case, we subtract the second order expansion of the denominator in Eq.(18) for $\omega \gg \omega_A$, i.e.

$$\frac{1}{\omega - \omega_A} \rightarrow \frac{1}{\omega - \omega_A} - \left(\frac{1}{\omega} + \frac{\omega_A}{\omega^2} + \frac{\omega_A^2}{\omega^3} \right), \quad (24)$$

which leaves us with the following renormalized version of the kernel Eq.(21):

$$\kappa_0^R(t) = \frac{\Gamma_0}{2\pi} \int_0^\infty d\omega \frac{e^{-i(\omega-\omega_A)t} - 1}{i(\omega - \omega_A)}. \quad (25)$$

Here we have introduced a cut-off frequency ω_c in order to make the frequency integral should be finite. Since our calculation is non-relativistic we identify this cut-off with $m_e c^2 / \hbar$ and we introduce a dimensionless parameter is

$$\Lambda \equiv \frac{m_e c^2}{\hbar \omega_A}. \quad (26)$$

This renormalization procedure enables us to extract the leading logarithmic dependence of the cut-off parameter Λ in the renormalized kernel, i.e.

$$\kappa_0^R(t) = -\frac{\Gamma_0}{2\pi} \int_{\omega_A}^{(\Lambda-1)\omega_A} dx \frac{\sin(\pi x)}{x} - \frac{\Gamma_0}{2\pi} \int_{\omega_A}^{(\Lambda-1)\omega_A} dx \frac{\cos(\pi x)}{x} + \frac{\Gamma_0}{2\pi} \ln(\Lambda - 1). \quad (27)$$

The imaginary logarithmic term in this equation corresponds to a Lamb shift which therefore can be removed by introducing the energy shift

$$\tilde{\omega}_A \equiv \omega_A - \frac{\Gamma_0}{2\pi} \ln(\Lambda - 1), \quad (28)$$

and applying the transformation

$$c_e(t) \rightarrow \tilde{c}_e(t) \equiv c_e(t) \exp \left[-i \frac{\Gamma_0 t}{2\pi} \ln(\Lambda - 1) \right]. \quad (29)$$

We also define a kernel

$$\tilde{\kappa}_0^R(t) = -\frac{\Gamma_0}{2\pi} \left[\text{Si}[(\Lambda - 1)\tilde{\omega}_A t] + \text{Si}[\tilde{\omega}_A t] \right] - \frac{\Gamma_0}{2\pi} \left[\text{Ci}[(\Lambda - 1)\tilde{\omega}_A t] - \text{Ci}[\tilde{\omega}_A t] \right], \quad (30)$$

where $\text{Ci}(x)$ and $\text{Si}(x)$ are the Cosine and Sine integral, respectively (see e.g. Ref.[26]). The probability amplitude $\tilde{c}_e(t)$ is now a solution to the integral equation Eq.(17) provided the kernel $\kappa_0^R(t)$ is replaced by $\tilde{\kappa}_0^R(t)$. The solutions of the corresponding integral equation cannot be obtained in closed form and therefore we will resort to numerical considerations.



B. Approximations

It is convenient to define a dimensionless time parameter $\tau \equiv \Gamma_0 t$ as well as the parameter $\tilde{b} \equiv \tilde{\omega}_A/\Gamma_0$. Let us now consider small times $(\Lambda - 1)\tilde{b}\tau \ll 1$ and $\tilde{b}\tau \ll 1$. Such small times are basically of academic interest as $t \ll \hbar/m\alpha c^2 = 1.2810^{-21}$ s. Virtual particles may then be created and our theory is not strictly valid. The leading series expansion of the kernel $\tilde{h}_0^R(t)$, as given by Eq.(30), for such small time parameters is:

$$\tilde{h}_0^R(\tau) \approx -\frac{\Gamma_0}{2\pi} \Lambda \tilde{b}\tau - i\frac{\Gamma_0}{2\pi} \ln(\Lambda - 1). \quad (31)$$

Apart from a sign, the imaginary part of this kernel is the same as the last imaginary part of Eq.(27). It is therefore convenient to invert the transformation Eq.(29) and consider the probability amplitude $c_e(\tau)$. Substituting the kernel $\tilde{h}_0^R(\tau)$ into Eq.(17), we obtain

$$c_e(\tau) \approx 1 - \frac{\Lambda}{4\pi\tilde{b}} (b\tilde{b}\tau)^2, \quad (32)$$

using the approximation $c_e(\tau') \approx 1$ in Eq.(17) since time is small. Notice that, in Eq.(32), it is the parameter $\tilde{b} \equiv \tilde{\omega}_A/\Gamma_0$ that enters and not the $\tilde{b} \equiv \tilde{\omega}_A/T_0$. In passing, we mention that an expansion for small times is also given in Ref.[31], with the result

$$c_e(\tau) \approx 1 - \frac{\Lambda^2}{8\pi} (b\tilde{b}\tau)^2. \quad (33)$$

The discrepancy between these last two expressions is easily explained by the fact that different renormalization procedures have been applied.

Let us still consider small times $\tilde{b}\tau \ll 1$ but $(\Lambda - 1)\tilde{b}\tau \gg 1$. For such intermediate times, the kernel in Eq.(30) is reduced to

$$\tilde{h}_0^R(\tau) \approx -\frac{\Gamma_0}{4} + i\frac{\Gamma_0}{2\pi} [\gamma_E + \ln(\tilde{b}\tau)], \quad (34)$$

where $\gamma_E \approx 0.577216$ is Euler's constant. Substituting Eq.(34) into the Eq.(17), expressed in terms of $\tilde{c}_e(\tau)$ and using $\tilde{c}_e(\tau') \approx 1$, we may then carry out the time integration, with the result

$$\tilde{c}_e(\tau) \approx 1 - \frac{\tau}{4} + i\frac{\tau}{2\pi} (\gamma_E + \ln(\tilde{b}\tau) - 1). \quad (35)$$

The corresponding probability $|\tilde{c}_e(\tau)|^2 = |c_e(\tau)|^2$ is plotted in Fig.1 (dotted line) together with the exact numerical solution, i.e. the numerical solution of Eq.(17) with the exact kernel Eq.(30) (solid line).

Finally, for large times as compared to the shifted atomic frequency transition, i.e. $\tilde{b}\tau \gg 1$, and also $(\Lambda - 1)\tilde{b}\tau \gg 1$, the kernel Eq.(30) is, to first leading order

$$\tilde{h}_0^R(\tau) \approx -\frac{\Gamma_0}{2} + \frac{\Gamma_0}{2\pi} \frac{e^{i\tilde{b}\tau}}{\tilde{b}\tau}. \quad (36)$$

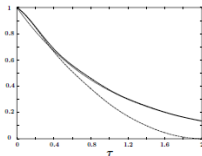


FIG. 1: The probability $|c_e(\tau)|^2 = |\tilde{c}_e(\tau)|^2$ as a function of $\tau \equiv \Gamma_0 t$. The solid line corresponds to the exact numerical solution, i.e. solution of Eq.(17) with the kernel Eq.(27) for a two-level system in vacuum. The dash-dotted line corresponds to the small-time expansion Eq.(35). The latter case is valid for $\tilde{b}\tau \ll 1$. The dotted line corresponds to the exponential decay $\exp(-\tau)$ with expected deviations at small τ . The values of the relevant parameters are $\tilde{b} \equiv \tilde{\omega}_A/T_0 = 10$ and $\Lambda = 1000$.

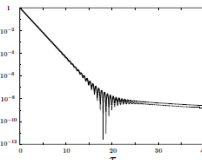


FIG. 2: The probability $|c_e(\tau)|^2 = |\tilde{c}_e(\tau)|^2$ as a function of $\tau \equiv \Gamma_0 t$. The solid line corresponds to the exact numerical solution, i.e. solution of Eq.(17) with the kernel Eq.(27) for a two-level system in vacuum. The dotted line corresponds to Eq.(37). The values of the relevant parameters are $\tilde{b} \equiv \tilde{\omega}_A/T_0 = 10$ and $\Lambda = 1000$.

This approximation serves as a motivation for the fitting formula

$$\tilde{c}_e(\tau) \approx e^{-\tau/2} + \frac{e^{i\tilde{b}\tau}}{2\pi i(b-1)\tau}. \quad (37)$$

This solution includes the well-known exponential decay as well as a correction term. Eq.(37) is plotted in Fig. 2



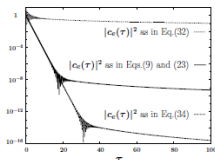


FIG. 3. The probability $|c_e(\tau)|^2$ as a function of $\tau \equiv \Gamma_0 t$. The solid line corresponds to the exact numerical solution, i.e. solution of Eq.(17) with the kernel Eq.(39) for a two-level system in vacuum. The dotted line corresponds to the main result in Ref.[29], i.e. Eq.(39), and the dashed-dotted line corresponds Eq.(41). The values of the relevant parameters are $c_e(0) = 1$, $\delta = \omega_A/\Gamma_0 = 10$ and $\Lambda = 1000$. With these choices, $\tilde{\delta} = \tilde{\omega}_A/\Gamma_0 = 9.959303$.

(dotted line) together with the exact numerical solution (solid line). The last term in Eq.(37) will dominate over the exponential for times $\tau \gtrsim \tau^*$, where τ^* is determined by the transcendental equation

$$e^{-\tau^*/2} = \frac{1}{2\tilde{\delta}(\tilde{\delta}-1)\tau^*}. \quad (38)$$

For $\tilde{\delta} = 10$ as in Fig. 3, the solution of this equation is $\tau^* \approx 18.5$.

C. Comparison with Refs.[29, 31]

The subject concerning deviation from exponential decay for atomic spontaneous emission has been studied in the literature by several people (see e.g. Refs.[29–32]). In many cases, approximations have been applied in order to obtain analytical expressions for the expansion coefficient, as e.g. in Refs.[29, 31, 32]. In particular, several approximations have been applied by Knight and Milonni in Ref.[29], e.g. an equivalent to a rotation wave approximation, in order to obtain the following explicit expression for the probability amplitude:

$$c_e(\tau) = e^{-\tau/2} - \frac{e^{-\delta\tau}}{2\tilde{\delta}} + \int_0^\infty dx \left\{ \frac{e^{-\Lambda x + \tau}}{x - \frac{1}{\tilde{\delta}} + i\frac{\tilde{\delta}}{2} - \frac{\tilde{\delta}}{2\tilde{\delta}\Lambda} \ln|x - i\frac{1}{\tilde{\delta}}|} + \frac{e^{-\Lambda x + \tau}}{x - \frac{1}{\tilde{\delta}} - \frac{\tilde{\delta}}{2\tilde{\delta}\Lambda} \ln|x + i\frac{1}{\tilde{\delta}}|} \right\}, \quad (39)$$

where $\tilde{\Delta} = \delta\omega/\omega_A$ and

$$\delta\omega = \frac{\Gamma_0}{2\pi} \ln \Lambda, \quad (40)$$

is the ‘energy shift’ for the excited state $|e\rangle$. In this case, the initial condition is $c_e(0) = 1$. For large times, i.e. $\delta\tau \gg 1$, this expression is reduced to [29]

$$c_e(\tau) \approx e^{-\tau/2} + \frac{1}{2\tilde{\delta}} \frac{1}{(\delta\tau)^{3/2}} e^{-\delta\tau}. \quad (41)$$

Notice the deviation between this equation and Eq.(37). For comparison, Eqs.(39) and (41) are plotted together with the exact numerical solution, see Fig.(3). We observe that, for small τ , the absolute value of Eq.(39) is above unity. In addition, the asymptotic expression Eq.(41) seems to have wrong scaling in τ as compared to Eq.(39).

In Ref.[31], Söke and Herfort have considered the integral equation Eq.(17) for the vacuum case. The kernel applied in this case is analogous to Eq.(21), but with the integrand factor ω/ω_A rather than ω^2/ω_A^2 . The kernel may be written in terms of $\kappa_0^{\tilde{\delta}}(\tau)$ as given by Eq.(25):

$$\eta(\tau) = \kappa_0^{\tilde{\delta}}(\tau) + \frac{\Gamma_0}{2\pi\tilde{\delta}\tau} \left(e^{-i(\Lambda-1)\tau} - e^{-i\Lambda\tau} \right) + i\frac{\Gamma_0}{2\pi} \Lambda \quad (42)$$

In contrast $\kappa_0^{\tilde{\delta}}(\tau)$, the kernel $\eta(\tau)$ is linear in the dimensionless cut-off frequency rather logarithmic as in Eq.(27). The linear Λ -term may be absorbed in a energy shift such that the kernel may be written

$$\eta(\tau) \rightarrow \eta(\tau) = \kappa_0^{\tilde{\delta}}(\tau) + \frac{1}{2\pi\tilde{\delta}\tau} \left(e^{-i(\Lambda-1)\tau} - e^{-i\Lambda'\tau} \right), \quad (43)$$

where $\Lambda' \equiv \omega'_A/\Gamma_0$, and

$$\omega'_A \equiv \omega_A - \frac{\Gamma_0}{2\pi} \Lambda, \quad (44)$$

In Fig. 4 we have plotted the solution of Eq.(17) with the kernel Eq.(43). At least for $\tau \gtrsim \tau^*$, the solution of Söke and Herfort has some addition oscillations.

IV. ATOM NEAR A NON-MAGNETIC SLAB

Let us now consider the geometry semi-infinite non-magnetic slab with finite thickness, i.e. the same geometry as in Ref.[25] (Fig. 1). The components of the equal position dyadic Green tensor for such a slab is a diagonal matrix given by (see e.g. Ref.[25])

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \mathbf{G}^{\pm}(\mathbf{r}, \tau, \omega) \times \vec{\nabla} = \frac{i}{4\pi} \begin{bmatrix} I_1(\omega) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & I_2(\omega) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & I_3(\omega) \end{bmatrix}, \quad (45)$$



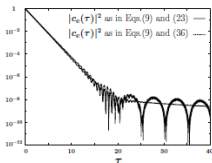


FIG. 4: The probability $|c_e(\tau)|^2$ as a function of $\tau \equiv \Gamma t$. The solid line corresponds to the exact numerical solution, i.e. solution of Eq.(17) with the kernel Eq.(30) for a two-level system in vacuum. The dotted line corresponds to the solution of the Volterra equation as considered in Ref.[31], i.e. the solution of Eq.(17) with the kernel Eq.(43). The values of the relevant parameters are $c_e(0) = 1$, $\tilde{\nu} \equiv \tilde{\omega}_e/\Gamma_0 = 10$ and $A = 10$. With these choices, $\tilde{\nu} \equiv \omega_e/\Gamma_0 = 8.75815$.

where ω is real and $\overline{\nabla}$ indicates that the position derivative shall operate to the right. In the same fashion, $\overline{\nabla}$ means that the position derivative shall operate to the left. The elements of the matrix are the integrals

$$I_{\parallel}(\omega) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\infty} d\lambda \frac{\lambda}{\eta_0(\lambda)} e^{2i\omega(\lambda)s} \times \left(\frac{\omega^2}{c^2} C_V(\lambda) - \eta_0^2(\lambda) C_M(\lambda) \right), \quad (46)$$

$$I_{\perp}(\omega) = \int_0^{\infty} d\lambda \frac{\lambda^3}{\eta_0(\lambda)} e^{2i\omega(\lambda)s} C_M(\lambda), \quad (47)$$

with the Fresnel coefficients

$$C_V(\lambda) = r_p(\lambda) \frac{1 - e^{2i\omega(\lambda)h}}{1 - r_p^2(\lambda) e^{2i\omega(\lambda)h}}, \quad (48)$$

$$C_M(\lambda) = r_s(\lambda) \frac{1 - e^{2i\omega(\lambda)h}}{1 - r_s^2(\lambda) e^{2i\omega(\lambda)h}}, \quad (49)$$

and

$$r_s(\lambda) = \frac{\eta_0(\lambda) - \eta(\lambda)}{\eta_0(\lambda) + \eta(\lambda)}, \quad (50)$$

$$r_p(\lambda) = \frac{\epsilon(\omega)\eta_0(\lambda) - \eta(\lambda)}{\epsilon(\omega)\eta_0(\lambda) + \eta(\lambda)}, \quad (51)$$

where $\eta(\lambda) = \sqrt{k^2\epsilon(\omega) - \lambda^2}$ and $\eta_0(\lambda) = \sqrt{k^2 - \lambda^2}$. The distance h is the thickness of the slab, and $z \geq 0$ is the distance of the atom from the surface of the slab. The dielectric function is denoted $\epsilon(\omega)$. Both this function and the Green tensor are analytic in the upper half of the complex frequency plane.

V. PERFECT CONDUCTING SLAB

The Volterra Eq.(17) for a two-level atom in the vicinity of a semi-infinite slab is hard to solve for a general dielectric function. Let us therefore consider a simpler special case, a perfect conductor, corresponding to the limit $\epsilon(\omega) \rightarrow \infty$ for all frequencies ω . Strictly speaking, this limit is illegal as, for sufficiently large ω , the dielectric function approaches $\epsilon(\omega)/\epsilon_0 \rightarrow 1$ and the Green tensor for the slab vanishes. Let us, however, assume that the perfect conductor limit may be performed before the frequency integrals are carried out, in which case we may apply the distributional identity

$$\int_0^{\infty} dk e^{ikx} = \pi \delta(x) \pm iP \frac{1}{x}, \quad (52)$$

where P indicates the principal value. Eq.(17) can then be written

$$c_e(t) - c_e(0) \approx \int_0^t dt' \kappa_0(t-t') c_e(t') + k_s \int_{2t}^t dt' c_e(t' - 2t) + \int_0^t dt' \kappa_s(t-t') c_e(t'), \quad (53)$$

where

$$k_s \equiv \frac{3}{2} \bar{\Gamma}_0 e^{2k_s s} \times \left[(S_2^2 + S_0^2) \frac{1}{2k_s z} + [S_2^2 + \frac{1}{2}(S_2^2 + S_0^2)] \frac{2i(2k_s z - 1)}{(2k_s z)^3} \right], \quad (54)$$

as well as $\kappa_s(t-t') = \int_0^t dt_s K_s(t_s - t')$, and

$$K_s(t) = \frac{1}{8\pi^2} \frac{\mu}{h} (\mu n \Gamma_0)^2 e^{i\omega s t} \times \left\{ -[S_2^2 + S_0^2] \frac{(ik_s)^2}{2s} P_{-}(t) + [S_2^2 + \frac{1}{2}(S_2^2 + S_0^2)] \frac{2}{(2s)^3} \times [i2k_s z P_s(t) - P_{-}(t)] \right\}, \quad (55)$$

with

$$P_{\pm}(t) \equiv \frac{P}{t - \frac{ic}{k_s}} \pm \frac{1}{t + \frac{ic}{k_s}}. \quad (56)$$

The distance- and frequency parameter k_s , i.e. Eq.(54), corresponds to the contribution from the δ -function in



Eq.(52) and $K_s(t)$ in Eq.(55) corresponds to the principal value contribution.

In passing, we mention that the slab contribution in Eq.(53) originating from the δ -function is consistent with causality. This fact is revealed by the argument in the coefficient $e_s(t - 2z/c)$ and the lower limit $2z/c$ of the integral, i.e. no contribution from this term for small times $t < 2z/c$.

Eq.(54) may be re-written in the form

$$k_s = -\frac{1}{4}\Gamma_{pc} - i\delta\omega_{pc}, \quad (57)$$

where we have introduced

$$\frac{\Gamma_{pc}}{\Gamma_0} \approx \frac{3}{2}F_{||}(k_A z)(S_x^2 + S_y^2) + 3P_{\perp}(k_A z)S_x^2, \quad (58)$$

$$\frac{\delta\omega_{pc}}{\Gamma_0} \approx \frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{3}{2}G_{||}(k_A z)(S_x^2 + S_y^2) + 3G_{\perp}(k_A z)S_x^2\right), \quad (59)$$

and

$$F_{||}(x) = \frac{\sin(2x)}{2x} + F_{\perp}(x), \quad (60)$$

$$F_{\perp}(x) = \frac{2x \cos(2x) - \sin(2x)}{(2x)^3}, \quad (61)$$

$$G_{||}(x) = -\frac{\cos(2x)}{2x} + G_{\perp}(x), \quad (62)$$

$$G_{\perp}(x) = \frac{2x \sin(2x) + \cos(2x)}{(2x)^3}. \quad (63)$$

Writing k_s in this fashion, we may easily compare its real part and imaginary parts with known results. If we ignore the vacuum term as well as the principal term in Eq.(53), we realize that the real part of k_s corresponds to the decay rate and the imaginary part corresponds to the frequency shift. Actually, the term Γ_{pc} as given in Eq.(58) coincide exactly with the spin-flip rate for an atom above a perfectly conducting slab (see e.g. Eq.(20) in Ref.[37]).

For short distances (nonretarded limit) $k_A z \ll 1$, the parameter k_s may be expanded, with the result (c.f. Eq.(57)):

$$\frac{\Gamma_{pc}}{\Gamma_0} \approx S_x^2 + S_y^2 - S_z^2 - \frac{2(k_A z)^2}{5} \left(2(S_x^2 + S_y^2) - S_z^2\right) 64$$

$$\frac{\delta\omega_{pc}}{\Gamma_0} \approx \frac{3}{64} \frac{S_x^2 + S_y^2 + 2S_z^2}{(k_A z)^3}. \quad (65)$$

Notice that for the choice $S_x^2 + S_y^2 - S_z^2 = 0$, then $\Gamma_{pc}/\Gamma_0 \rightarrow 0$ for $k_A z \rightarrow 0$. The imaginary part of k_s in this limit, i.e. Eq.(65), is in exact agreement with the

magnetic frequency shift (see e.g. Ref.[25]). In the opposite limit, i.e. long distance (retarded) limit $k_A z \gg 1$, Eq.(54) may be written

$$\frac{\Gamma_{pc}}{\Gamma_0} \approx \frac{(S_x^2 + S_y^2) \sin(2k_A z)}{8k_A z} + \frac{S_z^2 \cos(2k_A z)}{16(k_A z)^2}, \quad (66)$$

$$\frac{\delta\omega_{pc}}{\Gamma_0} \approx \frac{(S_x^2 + S_y^2) \cos(2k_A z)}{8k_A z} - \frac{S_z^2 \sin(2k_A z)}{16(k_A z)^2}. \quad (67)$$

From Eq.(66) we realize that the sign of Γ_{pc} depends on the choice of $k_A z$ in this limit. The imaginary part of k_s , i.e. Eq.(67), is not consistent with the frequency shift in Ref.[25] for large $k_A z$.

VII. THE DRUDE MODEL

In vacuum, the Drude dispersion relation may be written (see e.g. Ref. [28])

$$\epsilon(\omega) = 1 - \frac{\omega_p^2}{\omega(\omega + i\nu)}, \quad (68)$$

where for gold the plasma frequency is $\omega_p = 9.0$ eV and the relaxation frequency is $\nu = 35$ meV.

VII. FINAL REMARKS

In addition to ...

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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APPENDIX A: GREEN'S TENSOR FOR A SLAB

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Next 3 years (cont.)

Eksempel: (2. gradligning med parameter a)

$$x^2 - 2x + a = 0 \quad (1.275)$$

$$x = \frac{-(-2) \pm \sqrt{(-2)^2 - 4 \cdot 1 \cdot a}}{2 \cdot 1} = \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{4(1-a)}}{2} = \underline{1 \pm \sqrt{1-a}} \quad (1.276)$$

Vi må skille mellom $a = 1$, $a < 1$ og $a > 1$:

$$x = \begin{cases} 1 & , \text{ når } a = 1 & (\text{kun en løsning}) \\ 1 \pm \sqrt{1-a} & , \text{ når } a < 1 & (\text{to løsninger}) \\ \emptyset & , \text{ når } a > 1 & (\text{ingen løsning}) \end{cases} \quad (1.277)$$

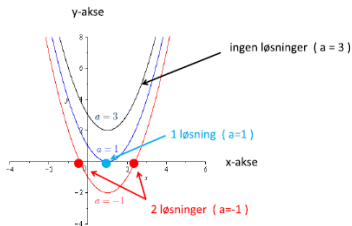


Figure 1.8: Plott av parabelen $f(x) = x^2 - 2x + a$ for $a = -1$, $a = 1$ and $a = 3$.

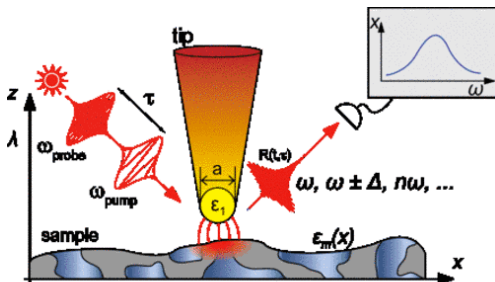


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Field of research: Quantum Optics

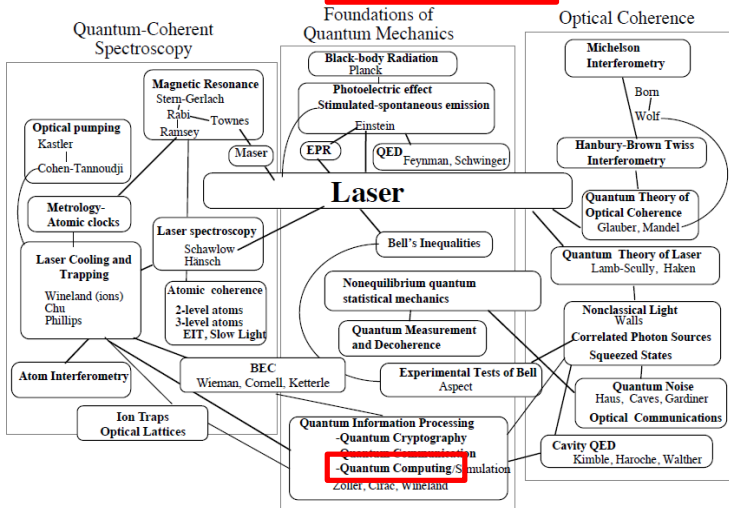
Quantum Optics: (definition)

a field of research in physics, dealing with the application of quantum mechanics to phenomena involving **light and its interactions with matter**.

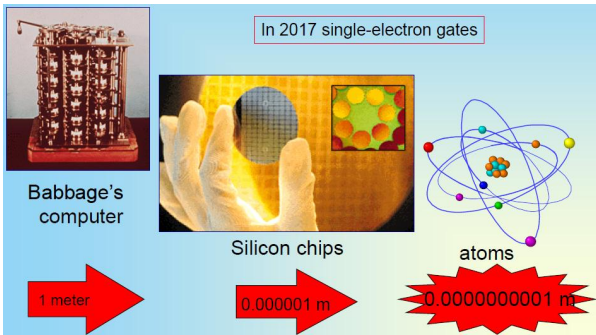


Quantum Optics

Map of Quantum Optics



Physics of computing

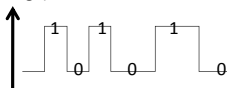


- Classical computer vs quantum computer:
mechanical/circuits/transistors vs atoms
(bit vs qubit)

Bit vs Qubit



V
(voltage)

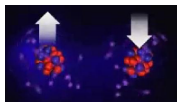
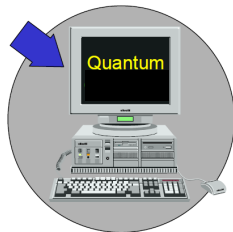


(electric)

BIT

(classical)

0 OR 1



atom

QUBIT

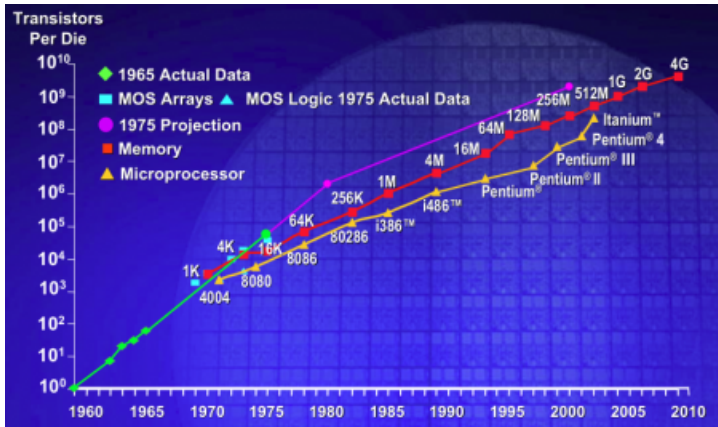
(quantum mechanical)

$$|qubit\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[|0\rangle + |1\rangle \right]$$

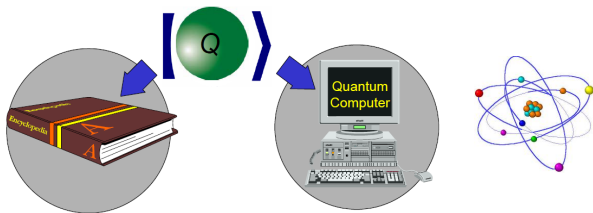
Moore's Law

Moore:

The number of transistors on a chip doubles every \sim two years



Quantum Computer



Quantum computer: (definition)

Video 01 (2 min. 24 sec.)

computer that makes direct use of quantum mechanical phenomena, such as

- superposition
- entanglement

that can perform tasks **beyond** the capability of any conceivable **classical computer**.

Applications of QC

- **Faster** calculations
- Perform detailed **search** more quickly
 - search in a database
 - traveling salesman (c.f. video)
- Simulate quantum mechanics better
 - chemistry and nanotechnology rely on understanding quantum system
 - simulate molecules for improvement of **medical properties**
- Quantum **cryptography**
 - credit cards
 - military secrets
 - Shor's algorithm (q. algorithm for integer factorization)
- lasers
- sensors

(Video 02 (2 min. 2 sec.) , Video 03 (1 min. 59 sec.))



Two Properties

Two peculiar properties:

- 1) **superposition** , mixture of all possible states
- 2) **entanglement** , “coupling” of quantum systems

1) Superposition

a) Classical computer: ($n = 3$ bits register, i.e. $2^n = 8$ alt.)

000 , 001 , 010 , 011 , 100 , 101 , 110 , 111

b) Quantum computer:

$$|\psi\rangle_{in} = c_1|000\rangle + c_2|001\rangle + c_3|010\rangle + c_4|011\rangle \\ + c_5|100\rangle + c_6|101\rangle + c_7|110\rangle + c_8|111\rangle$$

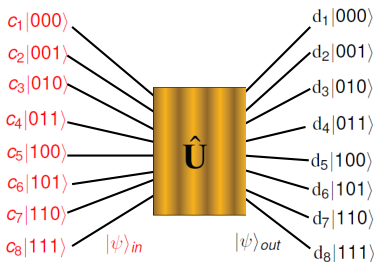
where $\sum_{i=1}^8 |c_i|^2 = 1$

1) Superposition (cont.)

Unitary operation: (map)

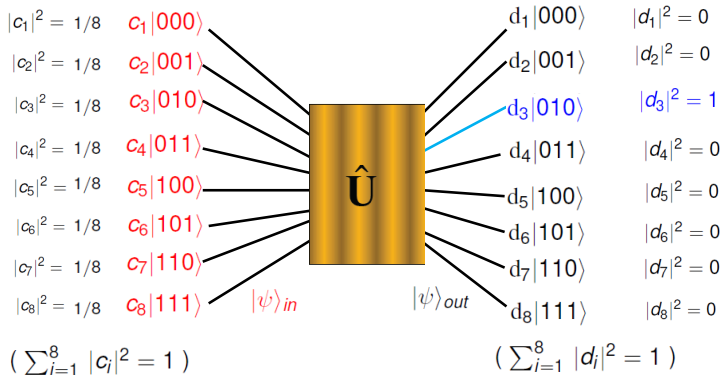
$$\begin{aligned} |\psi\rangle_{out} &= \hat{U} |\psi\rangle_{in} \\ &= d_1|000\rangle + d_2|001\rangle + d_3|010\rangle + d_4|011\rangle \\ &\quad + d_5|100\rangle + d_6|101\rangle + d_7|110\rangle + d_8|111\rangle \end{aligned}$$

where $\sum_{i=1}^8 |d_i|^2 = 1$



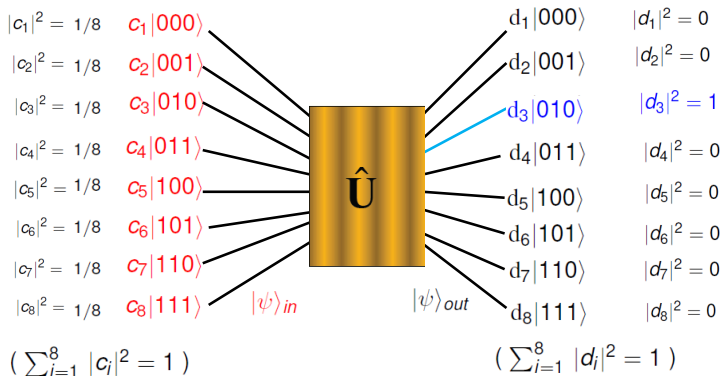
1) Superposition (cont.)

Example:



1) Superposition (cont.)

Example:



constructive / destructive interference



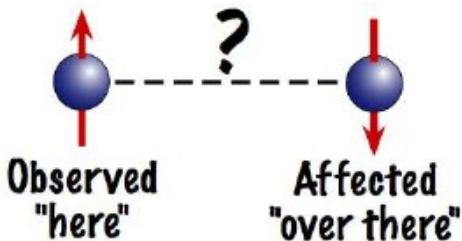
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2) Entanglement

Entanglement: (definition)

when two quantum systems interact and become irreversibly **linked/coupled**, or entangled.



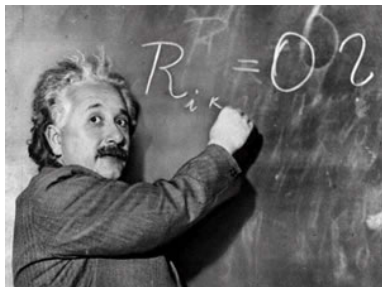
Video 04 (1 min. 2 sec.)



2) Entanglement (cont.)

Einstein:

“Spooky action at a distance”



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Observations

Opinion, arguments & analyses from the editors of Scientific American

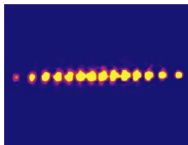
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Physicists entangle a record-breaking 14 quantum bits

By John Matson | Apr 5, 2011 04:18 PM | [5](#)

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Quantum information science is a bit like classroom management—the larger the group, the harder it is to keep everything together.

But to build a practical quantum computer physicists will need many particles working in synchrony as quantum bits, or qubits. Each qubit can be a 0 and a 1 simultaneously, vaulting the number-crunching power of a

hypothetical quantum computer well past that of ordinary computers. With each qubit in a superposition, a quantum computer can manipulate an exponentially large quantity of numbers at once— 2^n numbers for a system of n qubits. So each step toward generating large sets of qubits pushes practical quantum computing closer to reality.



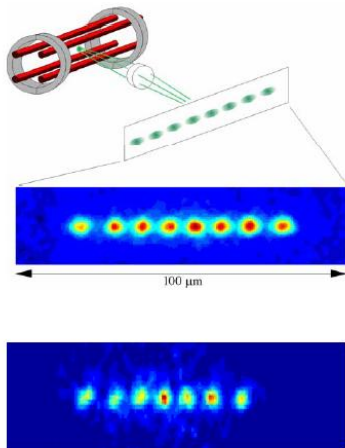
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Zoo of quantum optics systems

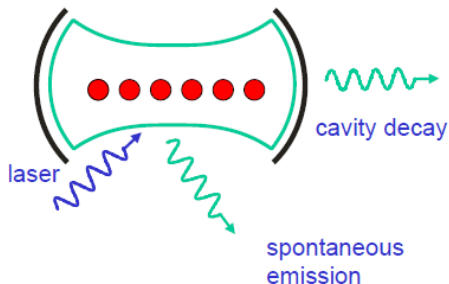
Zoo of quantum optics systems

Ions in magnetic traps: (quantum register)

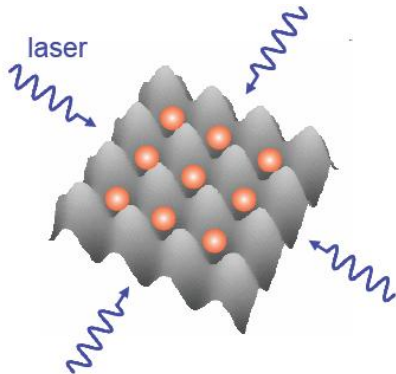


collective modes

Atoms trapped in a cavity: (atoms are qubits)



Optical lattice as array of microtraps for atoms:



Decoherence

(loss of superposition , loss of ordering)

Spin Decoherence in Superconducting Atom Chips

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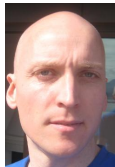
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Spin Decoherence in Superconducting Atom Chips

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Coherent manipulation of matter waves is one of the ultimate goals of atom optics. Trapping and manipulating cold neutral atoms in microtraps near surfaces of atomic chips is a promising approach towards full control of matter waves on small scales [1]. The subject of atom optics is making rapid progress, driven both by the fundamental interest in quantum systems and by the prospect of new devices based on quantum manipulations of neutral atoms.

With lithographic or other surface-patterning processes complex atom chips can be built which combine many traps, waveguides, and other elements, in order to realize controllable composite quantum systems [2] as needed, e.g., for the implementation of quantum information devices [3]. Such microstructured surfaces have been highly successful and form the basis of a growing number of experiments [4]. However, due to the proximity of the cold atom cloud to the macroscopic substrate additional decoherence channels are introduced which limit the performance of such atom chips. Most importantly, Johnson-noise currents in the material cause electromagnetic field fluctuations and hence threaten to decohere the quantum state of the atoms. This effect arises because the finite temperature and resistivity of the surface material are always accompanied by field fluctuations, as a consequence of the fluctuation-dissipation theorem. Several experimental [5–7] as well as theoretical [8–11] studies have recently shown that if spin-flip transitions are the main source of decoherence for atoms situated close to metallic or dielectric bodies. Upon making spin-flip transitions, the atoms become more weakly trapped or even lost from the microtrap.

In Ref. [10] it was shown that to reduce the spin decoherence of atoms outside a metal in the normal state, one should avoid materials whose skin depth at the spin-flip transition frequency is comparable with the atom-surface distance. For typical values of these parameters used in experiments, however, this worst-case scenario occurs [5–

7]. To overcome this deficiency, it was envisioned [9] that superconductors might be beneficial in this respect because of their efficient screening properties, although this conclusion was not backed by a proper theoretical analysis. It is the purpose of this letter to present a consistent theoretical description of atomic spin-flip transitions in the vicinity of superconducting bodies, using a proper quantum-mechanical treatment for the electromagnetic radiation, and to reexamine Johnson-noise induced decoherence for superconductors. We find that below the superconducting transition temperature T_c the spin-flip lifetime becomes boosted by several orders of magnitude, a remarkable finding which is attributed to: (1) the opening of the superconducting gap and the resulting inability to deposit energy into the superconductor, (2) the highly efficient screening properties of superconductors, and (3) the small active volume within which current fluctuations can contribute to field fluctuations. Our results thus suggest that current-noise induced decoherence in atomic chips can be completely diminished by using superconductors instead of normal metals.

We begin by considering an atom in an initial state $|i\rangle$ and trapped at position \mathbf{r}_A in vacuum, near a dielectric body. The rate of spontaneous and thermally stimulated magnetic spin-flip transition into a final state $|f\rangle$ has been derived in Ref. [10],

$$\Gamma^{\text{th}} = \mu_0 \frac{2(\mu_B g_e)^2}{\hbar} \sum_{j=1}^3 \langle f|\hat{S}_j|i\rangle \langle i|\hat{S}_j|f\rangle \\ \times \text{Im}[\nabla \times \nabla \times \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}_A, \mathbf{r}_A, \omega)]_j (\tilde{n}_j + 1). \quad (1)$$

Here μ_B is the Bohr magneton, $g_e = 2$ is the electron spin g factor, $\langle f|\hat{S}_j|i\rangle$ is the matrix element of the electron spin operator corresponding to the transition $|i\rangle \rightarrow |f\rangle$, and $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}_A, \mathbf{r}_A, \omega)$ is the dyadic Green tensor of Maxwell's theory. Equation (1) follows from a consistent quantum-mechanical treatment of electromagnetic radiation in the

presence of absorbing bodies [11,12]. Thermal excitations of the electromagnetic field modes are accounted for by the factor $(\bar{n}_\omega + 1)$, where $\bar{n}_\omega = 1/(e^{\hbar\omega/k_B T} - 1)$ is the mean number of thermal photons per mode at frequency ω of the spin-flip transition. The dyadic Green tensor is the unique solution to the Helmholtz equation

$$\nabla \times \nabla \times \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}', \omega) - k^2 \mathbf{e}(\mathbf{r}, \omega) \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}', \omega) = \delta(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}') \mathbf{I}, \quad (2)$$

with appropriate boundary conditions. Here $k = \omega/c$ is the wave number in vacuum, c is the speed of light and \mathbf{I} is the unit dyad. This quantity contains all relevant information about the geometry of the material and, through the electric permittivity $\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{r}, \omega)$, about its dielectric properties.

The current density in superconducting media is commonly described by the Mattis-Bardene theory [13]. To simplify the physical picture, let us limit the discussion to low but nonzero frequencies $0 < \omega \ll \omega_p = 2\Delta(0)/\hbar$, where ω is the angular frequency and $\Delta(0)$ is the energy gap of the superconductor at zero temperature. In this limit, the current density is well described by means of a two-fluid model [14,15]. At finite temperature T , the current density consists of two types of carriers, superconducting Cooper pairs and normal conducting electrons. The total current density is equal to the sum of a superconducting current density and a normal conducting current density, i.e., $\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \mathbf{J}_s(\mathbf{r}, t) + \mathbf{J}_n(\mathbf{r}, t)$. Let us furthermore assume that the superconducting as well as the normal conducting part of the current density responds linearly and locally to the electric field [16], in which case the current densities are given by the London equation and Ohm's law, respectively,

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{J}_s(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t} = \frac{\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\mu_0 \lambda_L^2(T)}, \quad \mathbf{J}_n(\mathbf{r}, t) = \sigma_n(T) \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t). \quad (3)$$

The London penetration length and the normal conductivity are given by,

$$\lambda_L^2(T) = \frac{m}{\mu_0 n_s(T) e^2}, \quad \sigma_n(T) = \frac{n_n(T)}{n_0} \sigma. \quad (4)$$

Here σ is the electrical conductivity of the metal in the normal state, m is the electron mass, e is the electron charge, and $n_s(T)$ and $n_n(T)$ are the electron densities in the superconducting and normal state, respectively, at a given temperature T . Following London [14], we assume that the total density is constant and given by $n_0 = n_s(T) + n_n(T)$, where $n_s(T) = n_0$ for $T = 0$ and $n_n(T) = n_0$ for $T > T_c$. For a London superconductor with the assumptions as mentioned above, the dielectric function $\epsilon(\omega)$ in the low-frequency regime reads

$$\epsilon(\omega) = 1 - \frac{1}{k^2 \lambda_L^2(T)} + i \frac{2}{k^2 \delta(T)} \quad (5)$$

where $\delta(T) = \sqrt{2}/\omega \mu_0 \sigma_n(T)$ is the skin depth associated

with the normal conducting electrons. The optical conductivity corresponding to Eq. (5) is $\sigma(T) = 2/\omega \mu_0 \delta^2(T) + i/\omega \mu_0 \lambda_L^2(T)$.

In the following we apply our model to the geometry shown in Fig. 1, where an atom is located in vacuum at a distance z away from a superconducting slab. We consider, in correspondence to recent experiments [5–7], ^{85}Rb atoms that are initially pumped into the $|S_{1/2}, F=2, m_F=2\rangle = |2, 2\rangle$ state. Fluctuations of the magnetic field may then cause the atoms to evolve into hyperfine sublevels with lower m_F . Upon making a spin-flip transition to the $m_F = 1$ state, the atoms are more weakly trapped and are largely lost from the region of observation, causing the measured atom number to decay with rate Γ_{21}^{sp} associated with the rate-limiting transition $|2, 2\rangle \rightarrow |2, 1\rangle$. The transition rate $\Gamma_{21}^{\text{sp}} = (\Gamma_{21}^{\text{sp}} + \Gamma_{21}^{\text{sp}0})/2$ can be decomposed into a free part and a part purely due to the presence of the slab. The free-space spin-flip rate at zero temperature is $\Gamma_{21}^{\text{sp}0} = \mu_0 \frac{4\pi \omega^2}{3} k^3$ [10]. The slab-contribution can be obtained by matching the electromagnetic fields at the vacuum-superconductor interface. With the same spin orientation as in Ref. [9], i.e., $|\langle f|\hat{S}_z|f\rangle\rangle^2 = |\langle f|\hat{S}_x|f\rangle\rangle^2$ and $\langle f|\hat{S}_y|f\rangle = 0$, the spin-flip rate is $\Gamma_{21}^{\text{sp}} = \Gamma_{21}^{\text{sp}0} (I_{\parallel} + I_{\perp})$, with the atom-spin-orientation dependent integrals

$$I_{\parallel} = \frac{2}{8} \text{Re} \left(\int_0^{\infty} dq \frac{q}{\eta_0} e^{2\eta_0 z} [\epsilon_r(q) - \eta_0^2 \epsilon(q)] \right), \quad (6)$$

$$I_{\perp} = \frac{3}{4} \text{Re} \left(\int_0^{\infty} dq \frac{q^2}{\eta_0} e^{2\eta_0 z} \epsilon_r(q) \right) \quad (7)$$

and the electromagnetic field polarization dependent Fresnel coefficients

$$\epsilon_r(q) = \frac{\eta_0 - \eta(\omega)}{\eta_0 + \eta(\omega)}, \quad \epsilon(q) = \frac{\epsilon(\omega)\eta_0 - \eta(\omega)}{\epsilon(\omega)\eta_0 + \eta(\omega)}. \quad (8)$$

Here we have $\eta(\omega) = \sqrt{\epsilon(\omega) - q^2}$ and $\eta_0 = \sqrt{1 - q^2}$. In

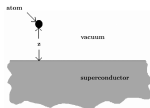


FIG. 1. Schematic picture of the setup considered in our calculations. An atom inside a magnetic microtrap is located in vacuum at a distance z away from a thick superconducting slab, i.e., a semi-infinite plane. Upon making a spin-flip transition, the atom becomes more weakly trapped and is eventually lost.

particular, above the transition temperature T_c , the dielectric function in Eq. (5) reduces to the well-known Drude form. Because of the efficient screening properties of superconductors, in most cases of interest the inequality $\lambda_d(T) \ll \delta(T)$ holds. Assuming furthermore the near-field case $\lambda_d(T) \ll z \ll \lambda$, where $\lambda = 2\pi/k$ is the wavelength associated to the spin-flip transition, which holds true in practically all cases of interest, we can compute the integrals in Eqs. (6)–(8) analytically to finally obtain

$$\Gamma_{21}^n = \Gamma_{21}^n(\epsilon_{\text{nb}} + 1) \left[1 + 2 \left(\frac{\lambda}{z} \right)^2 \frac{1 - \lambda_d^2(T)}{z^2} \right] \quad (9)$$

For a superconductor at $T = 0$, in which case there are no normal conducting electrons, it is seen from Eq. (9) that the lifetime is given by the unbounded free-space lifetime $\tau_0 = 1/\Gamma_{21}^n$.

Equation (9) is the central result of our Letter. To inquire into its details, we compute the spin-flip rate for the superconductor niobium (Nb) and for a typical atomic transition frequency $\nu = \omega/2\pi = 560$ kHz [5]. We keep the atom-surface distance fixed at $z = 50$ μm , and use the Gorter-Casimir [15] temperature dependence

$$\frac{n_s(T)}{n_0} = 1 - \frac{n_s(T)}{n_0} = 1 - \left(\frac{T}{T_c} \right)^4 \quad (10)$$

for the superconducting electron density. Figure 2 shows the spin-flip lifetime $\tau_s = 1/\Gamma_{21}^n$ of the atom as a function of temperature: over a wide temperature range τ_s remains as large as 10^{10} sec. In comparison to the normal-metal lifetime τ_n , which is obtained for aluminum with its quite small skin depth $\delta = 110$ μm and using the results of Refs. [9, 10], we observe that the lifetime becomes boosted by almost 10 orders of magnitude in the superconducting state. In particular, for $T = 0$ the ratio between τ_s and τ_n is even 10^{27} . From the scaling behavior Eq. (9) we thus observe that decoherence induced by current fluctuations in the superconducting state remains completely negligible even for small atom-surface distances around 1 μm , in strong contrast to the normal state where such decoherence would limit the performance of atomic chips.

The scaling behavior of the spin-flip rate Eq. (9) can be understood qualitatively on the basis of Eq. (1). The fluctuation-dissipation theorem [11,12] relates the imaginary part of the Green tensor and $\epsilon(\omega)$ by $\text{Im}G = G \text{Im}[\epsilon(\omega)] G^*$, assuming a suitable real-space convolution, and allows to bring the scattering rate Eq. (1) to a form reminiscent of Fermi's golden rule. The magnetic dipole of the atom at \mathbf{r}_a couples to a current fluctuation at point \mathbf{r} in the superconductor through $G(\mathbf{r}_a, \mathbf{r}, \omega)$. The propagation of the current fluctuation is described by the dielectric function $\epsilon(\omega)$, and finally a backaction on the atomic dipole occurs via $G(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}_a, \omega)$. For the near-field coupling under consideration, $z \ll \lambda$, the dominant contribution of the Green tensor is $|G| \sim 1/z^2$, thus resulting in the overall z^{-4} dependence of the spin-flip rate Eq. (9).

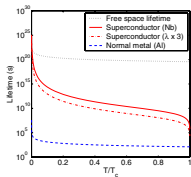


FIG. 2 (color online). Spin-flip lifetime of a trapped atom near a superconducting slab τ_s (red solid line) as a function of temperature T . The atom-surface distance is fixed at $z = 50$ μm , and the frequency of the atomic transition is $\nu = 560$ kHz. The other parameters are $\lambda_d(0) = 35$ nm [19], $\epsilon = 2 \times 10^4$ ($\Omega \text{ m})^{-1}$ [20], and $T_c = 8.31$ K [19], corresponding to superconducting Nb. The numerical value of τ_s is computed using the temperature dependence as given by Eq. (10). As a reference, we have also plotted the lifetime τ_n (blue dashed line) for an atom outside a normal conducting slab with $\delta = 110$ μm , corresponding to Al. The red dashed-dotted line is the lifetime for the same parameters as mentioned above but $\lambda_d(0) = 3 \times 35$ nm, i.e. where we have taken into account the fact that the London length is modified due to mesoscale effects. The dotted line corresponds to the lifetime $\tau_n/(\epsilon_{\text{nb}} + 1)$ for a perfect normal conductor. The unbounded free-space lifetime at zero temperature is $\tau_0 = 10^{27}$ s.

The imaginary part $\text{Im}[\epsilon(\omega)] \sim 1/\delta^2$ of the dielectric function Eq. (5) accounts for the loss of electromagnetic energy to the superconductor, and is only governed by electrons in the normal state, whereas electrons in the superconducting state cannot absorb energy because of the superconducting gap. Finally, the term λ^3 is due to the dielectric screening $1/\epsilon(\omega) \sim \lambda^2$ of the charge fluctuation seen by the atom, and an additional λ contribution associated to the active volume of current fluctuations which contribute to the magnetic field fluctuations at the position of the atom. Fluctuations deeper inside the superconductor are completely screened out. In comparison to the corresponding scaling $\Gamma^n \sim \delta/c^4$ for a normal metal [9], which can be qualitatively understood by a similar reasoning, the drastic lifetime enhancement in the superconducting state is thus due to the combined effects of the opening of the superconducting gap, the highly efficient screening, and the small active volume.

Let us finally briefly comment on the validity of our simplified approach, and how our results would be modified

fied if using a more refined theory for the description of the superconductor. Our theoretical approach is valid in the same parameter regime as London's theory, that is $\lambda(T) \gg \xi(T)$. It is well known that nonlocal effects modify the London length in Nb from $\lambda_L(0) \approx 35$ nm to $\lambda(0) \approx 90$ nm [17], and the coherence length $\xi(T)$, according to Pippard's theory [18], from the BCS value ξ_0 to $1/\xi(T) = 1/\xi_0 + 1/\lambda(T)$, where α is of the order one and $\lambda(T)$ is the mean free path. For Nb, $\xi_0 = 39$ nm and $\lambda(T) \leq 9$ K) ≈ 9 nm [19], and the London condition $\lambda(T) \gg \xi(T)$ is thus satisfied. Furthermore, at the atomic transition frequency the conductivity is $\sigma \approx 2 \times 10^9$ ($\Omega^{-1} \text{m}^{-1}$) [20] and the corresponding skin depth is $\delta = \sqrt{2/\omega\mu_0\sigma} \approx 15$ $\mu\text{m} \ll \delta(T)$, such that Ohm's law is also valid since $\delta(T) \gg \lambda(T)$ [21]. It is important to realize that other possible modifications of the parameters used in our calculations, as, e.g., a modification of Eq. (10) for $T/T_c \ll 0.5$ [22,23] will by no means drastically change our findings, which only rely on the generic superconductor properties of the efficient screening and the opening of the energy gap, and that our conclusions will also prevail for other superconductor materials.

We also mention that for both a superconductor at $T = 0$ and a perfect normal conductor, i.e. $\delta = 0$, the lifetime is given by the unbounded free-space lifetime τ_0 . In passing, we notice that for an electric dipole transition and for a perfect normal conductor, as, e.g., discussed in Refs. [24], the correction to the vacuum rate is in general opposite in sign as compared to that of a magnetic dipole transition. Elsewhere decay processes in the vicinity of a thin superconducting film will be discussed in detail [25].

To summarize, we have used a consistent quantum theoretical description of the magnetic spin-flip scatterings of a neutral two-level atom trapped in the vicinity of a superconducting body. We have derived a simple scaling law for the corresponding spin-flip lifetime for a superconducting thick slab. For temperatures below the superconducting transition temperature T_c , the lifetime has been found to be enhanced by several orders of magnitude in comparison to the case of a normal conducting slab. We believe that this result represents an important step towards the design of atomic chips for high-quality quantum information processing.

We are grateful to Heinz Krenn for helpful discussions. This work has been supported in part by the Austrian Science Fund (FWF).

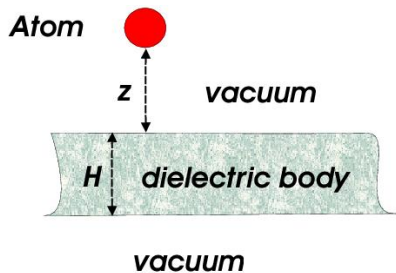
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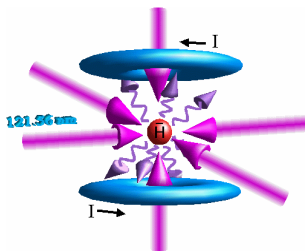
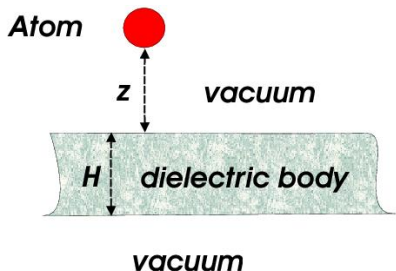
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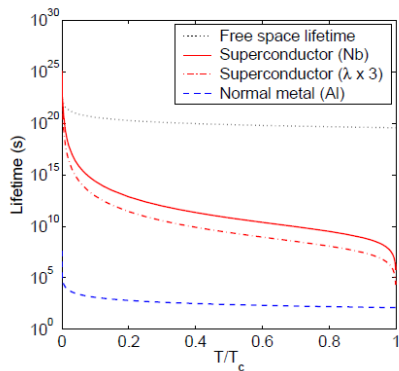
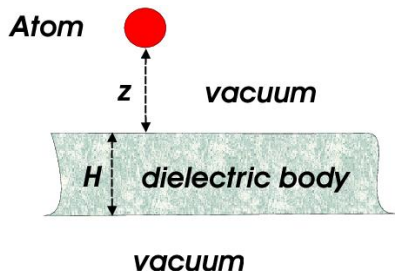
Lifetime of an Atom Chip



Lifetime of an Atom Chip



Lifetime of an Atom Chip



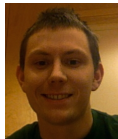
Collaborators

Currently am I working with the following persons:

Prof. Bo-Sture Skagerstam, NTNU



Asle Heide Vaskinn, Ph. D. student, NTNU



Arne Løhre Grimsmo, Ph. D. student, NTNU



Summary

- My research concerns:
 - theoretical physics
 - quantum optics (QO)
- Possible applications of QO:
 - chemistry, nanotechnology, sensors and lasers
 - simulate molecules for improvement of medical properties
 - quantum computers, quantum cryptography
- Possible practical application for hiMolde:
 - research project, sensor technique for real time monitoring
 - research project funded by “RFF Midt-Norge”?
 - collaboration with offshore engineering companies in Molde?
- My next 3 years at hiMolde
 - 1) **research** and publication at hiMolde (“level 2”)
 - 2) research **collaboration** with groups at hiMolde
 - 3) **teaching**

