We analyze the short-time behavior of the survival probability in the frame of the Friedrichs model for different formfactors. We have shown that this probability is not necessary analytic at the time origin. The time when the quantum Zeno effect could be observed is found to be much smaller than usually estimated. We have also studied the anti-Zeno era and have estimated its duration.

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the very beginning of the quantum mechanics, the measurement process has been a most fundamental issue. The main characteristic feature of the quantum measurement is that the measurement changes the dynamical evolution. This is the main difference of the quantum measurement compared to its classical analogue. On this framework, Misra and Sudarshan pointed out [1] that repeated measurements can prevent an unstable system from decaying. Indeed, as the survival probability is in most cases proportional to the square of the time for short times (see, however, the discussion below), the measurement effectively projects the evolved state back to the initial state with such a high probability that the sequence of the measurements “freezes” the initial state. Led by analogy with the Zeno paradox, this effect has been called the quantum Zeno effect (QZE).

Cook [2] suggested an experiment on the QZE which was realized by Itano et al. [3]. In this experiment, the Rabi oscillations have been used in order to demonstrate that the repeated observations slow down the transition process. However, the detailed analysis [4–6] has shown that the results of this experiment could equally well be understood using a density matrix approach for the whole system. Recently, an experiment similar to [3] has been performed by Balzer et al. [7] on a single trapped ion. This experiment has removed some drawbacks usually associated with the experiment of Itano et al. [3], for example, dephasing system’s wave function caused by a large ensemble and non-recording of the results of the intermediate measurements pulses. We refer to recent reviews [8,9] for detailed discussions of these and related questions.

Both experiments [3,7] demonstrate the perturbed evolution of a coherent dynamics, as opposed to spontaneous decay. So the demonstration of the QZE for an unstable system with exponential decay, as originally proposed in [1], is still an open question. The main problem in such an experimental observation of the Zeno effect is the very short time when the quadratic behavior of the transition amplitude is valid [10,11]. On the other hand, the Zeno-type experiment could also reveal deviations from the exponential decay law and the magnitude of these deviations.

The QZE has been discussed for many physical systems including atomic physics [10–13], radioactive decay [14], mesoscopic physics [15–18], and has been even proposed as a way to control decoherence for effective quantum computations [19]. Recently, however, a quantum anti-Zeno effect has been found [20,21]. Under some conditions the repeated observations could speed up the decay of the quantum system. The anti-Zeno effect has been further analyzed in [20,21,22].

We carefully analyze here the short-time behavior of the survival probability in the frame of the Friedrichs model [26]. We have shown that this probability is not necessary analytic at zero time. Furthermore, the probability may not even be quadratic for the short times while the QZE still exists in such a case [26,27]. We have shown (see also Kofman and Kurizki [24]) that the time period within which the QZE could be observed is much smaller than previously believed. Hence we conclude that the experimental observation/realization of the QZE is quite challenging.

We have also analyzed the anti-Zeno era. While it seems that most decaying systems exhibit anti-Zeno behavior, our examples contradict the estimations of Lewenstein and Rzazewski [22]. We have studied the duration of the anti-Zeno era and have estimated this duration when possible.
II. MODEL AND EXACT SOLUTION

The Hamiltonian of the second quantised formulation of the Friedrich’s model \[26\] is

\[
H = H_0 + \lambda V,
\]

where the unperturbed Hamiltonian is defined as

\[
H_0 = \omega_1 a^\dagger a + \int_0^\infty d\omega \omega b^\dagger_\omega b_\omega,
\]

and the interaction is

\[
V = \int_0^\infty d\omega f(\omega) (a b^\dagger_\omega + a^\dagger b_\omega).
\]

(2)

Here \(a^\dagger\), \(a\) are creation and annihilation boson operators of the atom excitation, \(b^\dagger_\omega\), \(b_\omega\) are creation and annihilation boson operators of the photon with frequency \(\omega\), \(f(\omega)\) is the formfactor, \(\lambda\) is the coupling parameter, and the vacuum energy is chosen to be zero. The creation and annihilation operators satisfy the following commutation relations:

\[
[a, a^\dagger] = 1, \quad [b_\omega, b^\dagger_\omega'] = \delta(\omega - \omega').
\]

(3)

All other commutators vanish.

The Hamiltonian \(H_0\) has continuous spectrum \([0, \infty)\) of uniform multiplicity, and the discrete spectrum \(n\omega_1\) (with integer \(n\)) is embedded in the continuum. The space of the wave functions is the direct sum of the Hilbert space of the oscillator and the Fock space of the field.

For \(\omega_1 > 0\) the oscillator excitations are unstable due to the resonance between the oscillator energy levels and the energy of a photon. Therefore, the total evolution leads to the decay of a wave packet corresponding to the bare atom \(|1\rangle\). Decay is described by the survival probability \(p(t)\) to find, after time \(t\), the bare atom evolving according to the evolution \(\exp(-iHt)\) in its excited state \([1]\):

\[
p(t) \equiv |\langle 1 | e^{-iHt} | 1 \rangle|^2.
\]

(4)

The survival probability can be easily calculated in the second quantized representation:

\[
p(t) = |\langle 0 | a(0)e^{-iHt} a^\dagger(0) | 0 \rangle|^2 = |\langle 0 | e^{-iHt} e^{iHt} a(0)e^{-iHt} a^\dagger(0) | 0 \rangle|^2 = |\langle 0 | a(t) a^\dagger(0) | 0 \rangle|^2,
\]

where \(a^\dagger(0) = a^\dagger\). The time evolution of \(a(t)\) in the Heisenberg representation is presented in Appendix A. Using (A12) we obtain

\[
p(t) = |A(t)|^2,
\]

where the survival amplitude \(A(t)\) is given by (A14).

Due to the dimension argument, we can write the formfactor \(f(\omega)\) in the form

\[
f^2(\omega) = \Lambda \varphi \left( \frac{\omega}{\Lambda} \right),
\]

where \(\varphi(x)\) is a dimensionless function. Here \(\Lambda\) is a parameter with the dimension of \(\omega\). The survival amplitude \(A(t)\) in the dimensionless representation is

\[
A(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy e^{is\Lambda t} \frac{1}{\eta_\Lambda(y)},\]

(5)

where

\[
\eta_\Lambda(z) = \omega\Lambda - z - \lambda^2 \int_0^{\infty} dx \frac{\varphi(x)}{x + z + i0},
\]

and \(\omega\Lambda = \omega_1/\Lambda\).
III. SHORT-TIME BEHAVIOR AND THE ZENO REGION

The short time evolution of the model (3) depends essentially on the formfactor. In order to illustrate different types of the evolution, we shall consider two formfactors, namely:

\[ f_1^2(\omega) = \frac{\omega}{1 + \frac{\omega^2}{\Lambda^2}}, \quad \varphi_1(x) = \frac{x}{1 + x}, \quad (7) \]

and

\[ f_2^2(\omega) = \Lambda \frac{\omega}{(1 + (\frac{\omega}{\Lambda})^2)^2}, \quad \varphi_2(x) = \frac{x}{(1 + x^2)^2}, \quad (8) \]

The formfactor \( f_1 \) permits exact calculations [28,29]. It turns out that the short-time behavior is not quadratic [20,27] as anticipated by [22]. We shall also use for comparison the results presented in [10,11] for the formfactor \( \varphi_2(x) \). We shall also use for comparison the results presented in [10,11] for the formfactor \( \varphi_2(x) \). The corresponding numerical values of the parameters \( \Lambda, \omega_1 \), and \( \lambda^2 \) are listed in Table 1. We would like to emphasize that these values (as well as the model itself) are approximate estimations of the corresponding effects.

Let us discuss the short-time behavior of the survival probability \( p(t) \). We shall assume here the existence of all necessary matrix elements, and denote \( \langle \cdot \rangle = \langle 1 \cdot 1 \rangle \).

\[
p(t) = \langle e^{-iHt} \rangle = \langle 1 - iHt - \frac{1}{2}H^2t^2 + \frac{i}{6}H^3t^3 + \frac{1}{24}H^4t^4 + O(t^5) \rangle = \]

\[
1 - t^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} \langle H^2 \rangle + \frac{t^4}{24} \langle H^4 \rangle \right)^2 + t \left( \langle H \rangle - \frac{t^3}{6} \langle H^3 \rangle \right)^2 + O(t^6) = \]

\[
1 - t^2 \left( \langle H^2 \rangle - \langle H \rangle^2 \right) + t^4 \left( \frac{1}{4} \langle H^2 \rangle^2 + \frac{1}{12} \langle H^4 \rangle - \frac{1}{3} \langle H \rangle \langle H^3 \rangle \right) + O(t^6) = \]

\[
1 - t^2 + t^4 + O(t^6). \quad (9) \]

In order to calculate the parameters \( t_a \) and \( t_b \), we need to calculate the averages of the powers of \( H = H_0 + \lambda V \):

\[
\langle H \rangle = \omega_1, \]

\[
\langle H^2 \rangle = \omega_1^2 + \lambda^2 \langle V^2 \rangle, \]

\[
\langle H^3 \rangle = \omega_1^3 + 2\lambda^2 \omega_1 \langle V^2 \rangle + \lambda^2 \langle VH_0V \rangle, \]

\[
\langle H^4 \rangle = \omega_1^4 + \lambda^2 \left( 3\omega_1^2 \langle V^2 \rangle + 2\omega_1 \langle VH_0V \rangle + \langle VH_0^2V \rangle \right) + \lambda^4 \langle V^4 \rangle. \quad (10) \]

These expressions are valid in our model because of the special structure of the potential \( V \) [2]. Now we can find:

\[
\frac{1}{t_a^2} = \lambda^2 \langle V^2 \rangle = \lambda^2 \Lambda^2 I_0, \]

\[
\frac{1}{t_b^2} = \lambda^2 \left( \frac{\omega_1^3}{12} \Lambda^2 I_0 + \frac{\omega_1}{6} \Lambda^3 I_1 + \frac{\Lambda^4}{12} I_2 \right) + \lambda^4 \Lambda^4 \left( \frac{I_2^2}{4} + \int_0^\infty \varphi^2(x)dx \right), \quad (11) \]

where

\[
I_k = \int_0^\infty x^k \varphi(x)dx. \]

In the weak coupling models the following inequalities are satisfied (see Table 1):

\[
\lambda^2 \ll 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \Lambda \gg \omega_1. \quad (12) \]

In this approximation we can simplify the expression for \( t_b \):
\[ \frac{1}{t_b} \approx \frac{\lambda^2 \Lambda^4}{12} I_2. \] (13)

The parameter \( t_a \) has been called Zeno time because it has been conjectured to be related to the Zeno region, i.e. the region where the decay is slower than the exponential one and the Zeno effect can manifest. On the other hand, a more precise estimation reveals that the Zeno region is in fact orders of magnitude shorter than \( t_a \). We illustrate this in Fig. 1 where the survival probabilities for the formfactors \( \varphi_1(x) \) and \( \varphi_2(x) \) are plotted. The corresponding analytical expressions and the numerical values for different time scales are presented in Table 1. We see that \( p(t) \) is not convex already at times much shorter than the time \( t_a \).

In view of this fact, we propose another definition for the Zeno time. As one refers in discussions about the Zeno region, we find that the Zeno time \( t \) effect on the expansion of survival probability for small times, and specifically on the second term, we shall define the Zeno time \( t_Z \) as corresponding to the region where the second term dominates. Hence the introduced time \( t_Z \) is a natural boundary where the second and third terms have the same amplitude:

\[ \frac{t_Z^2}{t_a} = \frac{t_b^2}{t_a}, \quad \text{so} \quad t_Z = \frac{t_b^2}{t_a}. \] (14)

In the weak coupling models,

\[ t_Z = \frac{1}{\Lambda} \sqrt{\frac{12I_0}{I_2}}, \]

that agrees with the estimation in (11). This time is much shorter than \( t_a \) and agrees much better with the numerical estimations. For example, for the interaction \( \varphi_3(x) \) we find \( t_Z = 2\sqrt{6} \approx 5.8 \cdot 10^{-19} \text{ s} \) while \( t_a = \sqrt{\frac{6}{\Lambda}} \approx 3.6 \cdot 10^{-16} \text{ s} \) (11).

Our conclusions are in fact valid for a rather wide class of interactions. Namely, they are valid if the matrix elements (10) exist and conditions (12) are satisfied. For example, any bounded locally integrable interaction \( \varphi(x) \) decreasing as \( \varphi(x) \sim \frac{1}{x^\epsilon}, \epsilon > 0 \) at \( x \to \infty \), gives finite matrix elements (10). For the formfactor \( \varphi_1 \), already the matrix element \( \langle V^2 \rangle \) does not exist, and the short time expansion is written, Appendix B, as

\[ p(t) = 1 - \left( \frac{t}{t_a} \right)^{1.5} + \left( \frac{t}{t_b} \right)^2 + O(t^{5/2}), \]

where \( t_a = (3/(4\sqrt{2\pi}))^{2/3}/(\Lambda^{4/3} \Lambda) \), and \( t_b = 1/(\sqrt{\pi} \Lambda) \). In fact, from the representation (10) one can easily deduce that for any formfactor decreasing according to the power law when \( x \to \infty \), \( p(t) \) is not analytic at \( t = 0 \). Specifically, if the formfactor decreases as \( \varphi(x) \sim x^n \) when \( x \to \infty \), only the Taylor coefficients up to \( t^n \) with \( n < 1 + |\alpha| \) can be defined.

Following the previous discussion, for the formfactor \( \varphi_1(x) \) the Zeno time \( t_Z \) can be estimated by the condition

\[ \left( \frac{t_Z}{t_a} \right)^{1.5} = \left( \frac{t_b}{t_a} \right)^2, \quad \text{so} \quad t_Z = \frac{32}{9\pi\Lambda}. \]

For this case, one can see that the time \( t_a \) has scaling properties which differ from (11) while the Zeno time \( t_Z \) has a value similar to (14).

For \( \varphi_2 \), the matrix element \( \langle V^2 \rangle \) exists so the usual time \( t_a \) can be introduced: \( t_a = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\Lambda} \). However, \( \langle VH^2V \rangle \) does not exist and the asymptotic behavior of \( p(t) \) is (see Appendix C)

\[ p(t) = 1 - \left( \frac{t}{t_a} \right)^2 - \frac{\lambda^2}{12} \log(2\omega t) \Lambda^4 t^4 + O(t^4). \]

Repeating the arguments concerning the Zeno region, we find \( t_Z = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\Lambda \sqrt{\log(2\omega t/\Lambda)}} \). In this case one can see again that the Zeno time \( t_Z \) has a value similar to (14), and the inequality \( t_Z < \frac{t_a}{t_a} \) is satisfied.
IV. ZENO AND ANTI-ZENO EFFECTS

The probability that the state $|1\rangle$ after $N$ equally spaced measurements during the time interval $[0, T]$ has not decayed, is given by

$$p_N(T) = \langle 1 \rangle \langle 1| e^{-iHT/N} \rangle^N |1\rangle = p^N(T/N)\langle 1|1\rangle = p^N(T/N).$$  \hspace{1cm} (15)

Expression (15) is only correct for the ideal von Neumann measurements. We are interested in the behavior of $p_N(T)$ as $N \to \infty$ or, equally, when the time interval between the measurements $\tau = T/N$ goes to zero:

$$\lim_{\tau \to 0} p_N(T) = \lim_{\tau \to 0} p(\tau)^{T/\tau} = \left( \lim_{\tau \to 0} \left( 1 - \frac{1-p(\tau)}{\tau} \right)^{\frac{1}{\tau}} \right)^T = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{when } p'(0) = -\infty, \\ e^{-cT}, & \text{when } p'(0) = -c, \\ 1, & \text{when } p'(0) = 0. \end{cases}$$  \hspace{1cm} (16)

Hence for the case $p(t) = 1 - e^{-\alpha t}$ one has the Zeno effect for all $\alpha > 1$. We should notice that in case of the linear asymptotics of $p(t)$ at short times (in particular, for the purely exponential decay) there is no Zeno effect, and the probability to find the system in the initial state $|1\rangle$ decreases exponentially with the time of observation. The results (16) are found in case of continuously ongoing measurements during the entire time interval $[0, T]$. Obviously, this is an idealization. In practice we have a manifestation of the Zeno effect, if the probability (15) increases as the time interval $\tau$ between the measurements decreases. Formula (16) may be accepted as an approximation for a very short time interval $\tau \ll t_Z$. For longer times we cannot use the Taylor expansion, therefore Eq. (16) is not valid. It appears that in order to analyze longer time behavior, the long time asymptotics of the $p(t)$ are more convenient. These asymptotics can be summarized as follows (see Appendices B, C):

$$p(t) \approx |A_1|^2 e^{-4\gamma \sqrt{\omega_1} t} + \frac{\pi \lambda^4 \Lambda}{4 \omega_1^{1/2}} h_1(t) - \frac{\sqrt{\pi} \lambda^2 \Lambda^{1/2}}{\omega_1^{3/2}} |A_1| h_1(t) e^{-2\gamma \sqrt{\omega_1} t} \cos(\omega_1 t - \pi/4)$$  \hspace{1cm} (17)

when $t \gg 24/\omega_1$ for the $\varphi_1(x)$, and

$$p(t) \approx |A_2|^2 e^{-\gamma_1 t} + \frac{\lambda^4}{\omega_1^{1/2} \omega_2^{1/2}} h_2^2(t) - \frac{2 \lambda^2 e^{-\gamma_1 t}}{\omega_2^{2/2}} |A_2| h_2(t) \cos(\omega_1 t)$$  \hspace{1cm} (18)

when $t \gg 4/\omega_1$ for the $\varphi_2(x)$. Here the constants $A_1$, $A_2$ satisfy the inequality $|1 - |A_k|^2| \ll 1$, $k = 1, 2$. The functions $h_1$, $h_2$ have the following asymptotic properties:

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} h_1(t) = 1; \quad \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{h_1(t)}{\sqrt{t}} = \text{const}; \quad \lim_{t \to \infty} h_2(t) = 1; \quad \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{h_2(t)}{\sqrt{t}} = \text{const.}$$

In paper [10], an expression very similar to (18) was found for the formfactor $\varphi_2(x)$. Expressions (17,18) are analytically established only in the region $t \gg C/\omega_1$. However, the numerical investigation shows that for our choice of parameters we can use (17,18) for a qualitative description already in the region $t \sim 1/\omega_1$. Then one can see that the oscillation with the frequency $\omega_1$ starts always with the negative cosine wave. Therefore, the survival probability (1) turns out to be less than purely exponential, and one can expect decreasing of the probability $p_N(T)$ as well. We illustrate this effect in Fig. 2 for both the photodetachment process and the quantum dot. The anti-Zeno region (AZ region), i.e. the region where the probability $p_N(T)$ is less than purely exponential, is clearly seen for both systems. For $\tau \to 0$, $p_N(T)$ approaches 1 according to (11).

We should stress that the above described behavior shows that the initial quadratic behavior is not just a beginning of the first wave of oscillation as stated in [10]. This is true because the time $t_a$ is actually not the time within which $p(t)$ has quadratic behavior. In fact, the quadratic behavior is only valid for $t \ll t_Z$ and has nothing in common with the oscillations in Eqs. (17,18).

On the basis of Fig. 2 we would like to make some additional remarks. First of all, for larger observation time $T$, the AZ region is wider and the probability $p_N(T)$ in the AZ region is lower. This is natural: the bigger the time of observation is, the harder to restore the initial state of the system. Secondly, one can see that the value $t_Z$ describes very well a minimum of the probability in the AZ region. For shorter times, $p_N(T)$ increases, but it still may be much less compared to the $p_N(T)$ in the purely exponential region. Hence, the classical Zeno effect [1] could be observed only when $t \ll t_Z$. Finally, we also notice that one can sometimes observe the second wave of oscillation in (17,18) (see Fig. 2a). However, its amplitude is much less than the amplitude of the first wave.
A general consideration of the AZ region is presented in [22]. The authors conclude that the AZ region exists for all generic weakly coupled decaying systems. Under some assumptions, they have found that

$$|A_k|^2 < 1,$$

and use this condition for the explanation of the existence of the AZ region. However, some assumptions made in [22] for the derivation of (19) are not always valid. For example, for the model $\varphi_1(x)$ (the formfactor used in [22]) one calculates $|A_1|^2 \approx 1 + 1.1 \times 10^{-6} > 1$ for our choice of the parameters. For the model $\varphi_2(x)$ we have $|A_2|^2 \approx 1 + \lambda^2(3 + 2\log\omega_A) < 1$, but this effect is of the second order in the coupling while in [22] the fourth order was found. Hence the above mentioned results can not be considered as a proof of the existence of the AZ region.

Indeed, our results show that there exist two different types of the AZ region. The first case takes place as the amplitude of oscillations in (17,18) is less than $|1 - |A|^2|$, and $|A|^2 < 1$. This corresponds to the arguments of [22]. In this situation, the survival probability is always less than the “ideal” one corresponding to the pure exponential decay (except for the very short times $t \ll t_Z$). The second case arises when the amplitude of oscillations in (17,18) is bigger than $|1 - |A|^2|$ (for any $|A|^2$), or when $|A|^2 > 1$. In this case the survival probability may be lower or higher than the “ideal” one, that may result in oscillations of the probability $p_N(T)$. This is exactly the situation in Fig. 2a.

It would be very interesting to find an estimation for the duration of the AZ region. We have found that the minimum of the $p_N(T)$ is reached at $t_Z$, however the whole region is much wider. Unfortunately, we can present this estimation only for the second type of the AZ region. In order to illustrate this, we plot in Fig. 3 the value

$$N_x(T) : p(T)_{N,x}(T) = (1 - \varepsilon)p_1(T).$$

This value gives the maximum number of repeated observation such that the probability $p_N(T)$ would not be less than $p(T)$ with accuracy $\varepsilon$. The difference between two types of the AZ region is very pronounced. For the first type ($\varphi_1(x)$ interaction) $N_x(T) \sim C\varepsilon$ and is almost independent of the time $T$ of observation. It means that the anti-Zeno region $t_{AZ}$ should be described as $t_{AZ} \sim CT/\varepsilon$. So the duration depends critically on the time of observation and the accuracy, and cannot be attributed to the properties of the system itself.

For the second type ($\varphi_2(x)$ interaction) $N_x(T) \sim CT$ and is almost independent of the accuracy $\varepsilon$. This means that $t_{AZ}$ is independent of the time of the observation and the accuracy, so it can be correctly introduced. In fact, in this case $t_{AZ}$ is defined by the oscillations of the survival probability and can be estimated as $1/\omega_1$.

The estimation $t_{AZ} \ll 1/\omega_1$ was given by Kofman and Kurizki [24]. While this estimation obviously holds, it is necessary to establish more precise boundaries for $t_{AZ}$. We have found the boundary $t_{AZ} \sim 1/\omega_1$ for the $\varphi_1(x)$ interaction. However, from the results presented in Fig. 3, one can see that for the interactions $\varphi_2(x)$ and $\varphi_3(x)$ the estimation $1/\omega_1$ can hardly be used, contrary to the results of [24].

We would like to mention that the estimation $t_{DC} = 1/\omega_1$ has been obtained by Petrosky and Barsegov [38] as an upper boundary of the decoherence time marking the onset of the exponential era. As the Zeno effect cannot be realized for times larger than $t_{DC}$, Petrosky and Barsegov called $t_{DC}$ the Zeno time. In fact this is a rough estimation of the real Zeno time $t_Z$.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Let us summarize the short-time behavior of the survival probability. We introduce two regions: the very short Zeno region $t_Z$ with the scale $1/\Lambda$ and the much longer anti-Zeno region $t_{AZ}$. If one performs a Zeno-type experiment, and the time between measurements is much shorter than $t_Z$, then the Zeno effect – increasing of the survival probability – can be observed. In the time range between $t_Z$ and $t_{AZ}$, the anti Zeno effect exists, i.e. decay is accelerated by repeated measurements. That is why the Zeno time cannot be longer than $t_Z$. The previous estimations of the Zeno time $t_{AZ}$ [10,11] and $t_{DC}$ [38] are much longer than our estimation $t_Z$ for physically relevant systems [22].

While the acceleration of decay is clearly seen in all cases, it is not always possible to introduce the value $t_{AZ}$. The reason is the possible dependence of $t_{AZ}$ on the moment of the observation and on the accuracy of the observation. When this dependence is absent, one finds $t_{AZ} \sim 1/\omega_1$. Hence the anti-Zeno region is, for typical values of parameters, a few orders of magnitude longer than the Zeno region. It would be very important from the experimental point of view, to find an estimation for the anti-Zeno region in terms of the initial parameters without any reference to the constant $A_k$.

It is possible in principle that the oscillations in (17,18) may give a few successive Zeno and anti-Zeno regions. However, as the amplitude of the oscillations decreases exponentially with time, these regions are hardly visible. After the anti-Zeno region, the system decays exponentially up to the time $t_{ep}$ when the long-tail asymptotics substitutes the exponential decay.
In accordance with this picture, the experimental observation of the Zeno effect is very difficult. Indeed, the Zeno region appears to be considerably shorter than previously believed. The acceleration of the decay should be observed before the deceleration will be possible. In this connection, the proposals for using the Zeno effect for increasing of the decoherence time should be critically analyzed. We conclude that the Zeno effect may not be very appropriate for decoherence control desired for quantum computations.

There seems to be no place for the usual estimations of the Zeno time by $t_a$. There are no physical effects which can be associated with this time scale. In our opinion, the widespread expectation that the time $t_a$ describes the Zeno region, is based on a naive perturbation theory. One could assume that $p(t) = 1 - \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} c_k(\lambda^t)^k$, where $c_k$ are defined in terms of the matrix elements of the interactions and are independent of $\lambda$. In this case all terms in the series for $p(t)$ have the same order at $t_a$. However, this assumption is not true as $H_0$ and $V$ do not commute hence $\langle 1 | e^{-iHt} | 1 \rangle \neq \langle 1 | e^{-i\lambda t} | 1 \rangle$.

We would like to mention a few interesting problems related to the Zeno effect. 1) A better characterization of the anti-Zeno region. This problem is relevant to the experimental demonstration of the (anti-) Zeno behavior of the survival probability. 2) How the non-ideal measurements influence the Zeno effect? 3) Is the asymptotic quantum Zeno dynamics $\lim_{N \to \infty} p_N(T)$ governed by a unitary group or a semigroup of isometries or contractions? This question defines if the quantum Zeno dynamics introduces irreversibility in the evolution of a system.

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**APPENDIX A: TIME EVOLUTION IN THE HEISENBERG REPRESENTATION**

The second quantised form of the well-known Friedrichs model is given by the Hamiltonian [1]. For $\omega_1 > 0$ the oscillator excitations are unstable due to the resonance between the oscillator energy levels and the energy of a photon. Strong interaction however may lead to the emergence of a bound state. In weak coupling cases discussed here bound states do not arise (see [A3]) below).

The solution of the eigenvalue problem

$$[H, B^\dagger_\omega] = \omega B^\dagger_\omega \quad \text{and} \quad [H, B_\omega] = -\omega B_\omega,$$

obtained with the usual procedure of the Bogolubov transformation [25,26] is

$$\begin{align*}
(B^\dagger_\omega)_{\text{in}}/_{\text{out}} &= b^\dagger_\omega + \frac{\lambda f(\omega)}{\eta^\pm(\omega)} \int_0^\infty d\omega' \lambda f(\omega') \left( \frac{b^\dagger_{\omega'}}{\omega' - \omega \mp i0} - a^\dagger \right), \\
(B_\omega)_{\text{in}}/_{\text{out}} &= b_\omega + \frac{\lambda f(\omega)}{\eta^\pm(\omega)} \int_0^\infty d\omega' \lambda f(\omega') \left( \frac{b_{\omega'}}{\omega' - \omega \mp i0} - a \right).
\end{align*}$$

(A1)

In (A2), (A3) we used the notation $1/\eta^\pm(\omega) \equiv 1/(\eta(\omega) \pm i0)$ where the function $\eta(z)$ of the complex argument $z$ is

$$\eta(z) = \omega_1 - z - \int_0^\infty d\omega' \frac{\lambda_0^2 f^2(\omega)}{\omega - z}.\quad \text{(A4)}$$

The following condition on the formfactor $f(\omega)$

$$\omega_1 - \int_0^\infty d\omega \frac{\lambda_0^2 f^2(\omega)}{\omega} > 0 \quad \text{(A5)}$$

guarantees that the function $1/\eta(z)$ is analytic everywhere on the first sheet of the Riemann manifold except for the cut $[0, \infty)$. Therefore the total Hamiltonian $H$ has no discrete spectrum and there are no bound states.

The incoming and outgoing operators $B^\dagger_\omega$ in / out, $B_\omega$ in / out satisfy the following commutation relation

$$\left[ (B_\omega)_{\text{in}}/_{\text{out}}, (B^\dagger_{\omega'})_{\text{in}}/_{\text{out}} \right] = \delta(\omega - \omega').\quad \text{(A6)}$$
The other commutators vanish. The bare vacuum state $|0\rangle$ satisfying

$$a_1|0\rangle = b_\omega|0\rangle = 0,$$

is also the vacuum state for the new operators:

$$(B_\omega)_{\text{in}}|0\rangle = 0.$$

Therefore, the new operators diagonalise the total Hamiltonian (A1) as

$$H = \int_{0}^{\infty} d\omega \, \omega (B_\omega^\dagger)_{\text{in}} (B_\omega)_{\text{in}}.$$

Using the inverse relations

$$b_\omega^\dagger = (B_\omega^\dagger)_{\text{in}} - \lambda f(\omega) \int_{0}^{\infty} d\omega' \frac{\lambda f(\omega')}{\eta^{-} (\omega')} \frac{(B_\omega^\dagger)_{\text{in}}}{\omega' - \omega - i0},$$

$$b_\omega = (B_\omega)_{\text{in}} - \lambda f(\omega) \int_{0}^{\infty} d\omega' \frac{\lambda f(\omega')}{\eta^{+} (\omega')} \frac{(B_\omega)_{\text{in}}}{\omega' - \omega + i0},$$

$$a^\dagger = -\int_{0}^{\infty} d\omega \frac{\lambda f(\omega)}{\eta^{+} (\omega)} (B_\omega^\dagger)_{\text{in}},$$

$$a = -\int_{0}^{\infty} d\omega \frac{\lambda f(\omega)}{\eta^{-} (\omega)} (B_\omega)_{\text{in}},$$

we obtain the time evolution of the bare creation and annihilation operators in the Heisenberg representation:

$$b_\omega(t) = b_\omega^\dagger e^{i\omega t} + \lambda f(\omega) \left\{ \int_{0}^{\infty} d\omega' \lambda f(\omega') \frac{g(\omega', t) - g(\omega, t)}{\omega' - \omega} b_\omega^\dagger - g(\omega, t) a^\dagger \right\},$$

$$b_\omega(t) = b_\omega e^{-i\omega t} + \lambda f(\omega) \left\{ \int_{0}^{\infty} d\omega' \lambda f(\omega') \frac{g^*(\omega', t) - g^*(\omega, t)}{\omega' - \omega} b_\omega^\dagger - g^*(\omega, t) a^\dagger \right\},$$

$$a^\dagger(t) = \int_{0}^{\infty} d\omega \lambda f(\omega) g(\omega', t) b_\omega^\dagger + A(t)a^\dagger,$$

$$a(t) = \int_{0}^{\infty} d\omega \lambda f(\omega) g^*(\omega', t) b_\omega + A^*(t)a.$$

Except for the oscillating exponent, all time dependence of the field operators is described by the functions $g(\omega, t)$ and $A(t)$:

$$g(\omega, t) = -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\omega' \frac{1}{\eta^{-} (\omega')} \frac{e^{i\omega'} t}{\omega' - \omega - i0},$$

$$A(t) = \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \omega \right) g(\omega, t) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\omega' \frac{e^{i\omega'} t}{\eta^{-} (\omega')}.$$

**APPENDIX B: TYPE 1 FORMFACTOR**

For the formfactor $\varphi_1(x) = \frac{\sqrt{x}}{1+x}$ we have:

$$\eta_\lambda(z) = \omega_\lambda - z - \frac{\pi \lambda^2}{1 - i\sqrt{2}},$$

(B1)
where the first sheet of the complex $z$ plane corresponds to the upper half of the complex $\sqrt{z}$ plane. The exact expression for the survival amplitude is known [28, 29, 37]:

$$A(t) = \frac{i\gamma + \sqrt{\omega_\Lambda}}{2\gamma}\frac{\pi \lambda^2}{\sqrt{\omega_\Lambda}} e^{iz_2\Lambda t} + \pi e^{\frac{i \pi}{2} \lambda^2} \sum_{k=1}^{3} \left( \prod_{m \neq k} \frac{1}{z_k - z_m} \right) \sqrt{z_k} e^{iz_k\Lambda t} \left( -1 + \text{erf}(\sqrt{z_k} \Lambda t) \right).$$ (B2)

Here $z_k$ are the roots of $\eta_\Lambda(z)$ on the second sheet of $z$-plane, and $\omega_\Lambda, \gamma$ are expressed in terms of $z_k$. If conditions (12) are satisfied, we have the following approximate expressions:

$$\gamma \approx \frac{\pi}{2} \lambda^2, \quad \tilde{\omega}_\Lambda \approx \omega_\Lambda.$$ (B3)

In order to analyze the survival probability for large times, we need the asymptotics of the $A(t)$ as $t \to \infty$:

$$A(t) = \frac{2it^{-3/2}}{z_1 z_2 z_3} \left( 1 - \frac{12}{t} \sum_{k=1}^{3} \frac{1}{i z_k} + O(1/t^2) \right).$$

In the last expression, we can use the first term only when $t \gg 12 \left| \sum_{k=1}^{3} \frac{1}{i z_k} \right| \approx \frac{24}{\omega_1}$. We have in fact checked numerically, that this is valid even on shorter times.

Using (B3), we can now calculate the survival probability:

$$p(t) \approx e^{-4\gamma t \sqrt{\omega_\Lambda}} + \frac{\pi \lambda^4}{4 \sqrt{\omega_\Lambda}} - \frac{\sqrt{\pi} \lambda^2 A^{1/2}}{\omega_1^{3/2}} e^{-2\gamma t \sqrt{\omega_\Lambda}} \cos \left( \omega_1 t - \frac{\pi}{4} \right) \quad \text{when} \quad t \gg \frac{24}{\omega_1}.$$ (B4)

One can see that the survival probability decays exponentially for intermediate times, while for large times there is a power law. We can calculate the transition time $t_{ep}$ when the exponential decay is replaced by the power law. This happens when these two terms in the expression for $p(t)$ are equal. This condition leads to a transcendental equation which can be approximately solved

$$t_{ep} \approx -\frac{5 \log \left( \frac{(2\pi^4)^{0.4} \lambda^4}{\lambda \omega_1} \right)}{4\pi \sqrt{\lambda \omega_1}}.$$ 

We should notice that in the vicinity of $t_{ep}$, the survival probability oscillates with the frequency $\omega_1$.

Let us now discuss the asymptotics of the (B2) for small times $t \sim 0$. From the definition of the survival probability $p(t)$ we know that $|A(0)| = 1$. As the evolution is unitary, we know that a linear term in the expansion of $p(t)$ vanishes in the vicinity of $t = 0$. Expanding (B2) at small times, we find for the survival probability

$$p(t) \approx 1 - \left( \frac{t}{t_a} \right)^{1.5} + \left( \frac{t}{t_b} \right)^2 + O(t^{5/2}).$$ (B5)

where $t_a = (3/(4\sqrt{\pi}))^{2/3}/(\lambda^{4/3} \Lambda)$, and $t_b = 1/(\sqrt{\pi} \Lambda)$.

**APPENDIX C: TYPE 2 FORMFACTOR**

For the formfactor $\varphi_2(x) = \frac{x}{(1+x^2)^{3/2}}$ the dimensionless function $\eta_\Lambda(z)$ is

$$\eta_\Lambda(z) = \omega_\Lambda - z - \lambda^2 \frac{\pi - 2z}{4(1+z^2)} + \lambda^2 \frac{\pi z^2 + 2z(\log z - i\pi)}{2(1+z^2)^2}$$ (C1)

This function has no roots on the first Riemann sheet. The roots on the second sheet are defined by the equation

$$\eta_\Lambda(z) + \frac{2\pi iz\lambda^2}{(1+z^2)^2} = 0.$$ (C2)
Inserting (C1) into (3), we can see that the integrand vanishes at infinity at the upper half of the complex $z$ plane and we can change the contour of the integration as it is shown in Fig. 4. Hence only two roots of (C2) contribute to $A(t)$:

$$z_1 = \omega_1 + i\frac{\gamma_1}{2} \approx \omega_\Lambda + i\pi\lambda^2\omega_\Lambda,$$

$$z_2 \approx \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}}\lambda + i.$$ 

It is interesting to notice that the root $z_2$ does not approach the continuous spectrum when $\lambda \to 0$. Instead, $z_2$ “annihilates” with the root $z_3 \approx -\frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{\lambda} + i$, which however does not contribute to the survival amplitude.

Combining the pole contributions with the background integral, we have for the survival amplitude

$$A(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{2} R(z_k) e^{iz_k\Lambda t} + \lambda^2 \int_0^\infty dx \frac{x(1-x^2)^2 e^{-x\Lambda t}}{(Q(x) + \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2\pi x)(Q(x) - \frac{3}{4}\lambda^2\pi x)} = \sum_{k=1}^{2} R(z_k) e^{iz_k\Lambda t} + \lambda^2 I(t), \quad (C3)$$

where

$$Q(x) = (\omega_\Lambda - ix)(1-x^2)^2 - \frac{\lambda^2}{2}(\pi - 2ix)(1-x^2) - \frac{\lambda^2}{2}(\pi x^2 - 2ix \log x),$$

and

$$R(z) = - \left[ 1 - \lambda^2 \frac{3 - z^2 + 2\pi z}{(1 + z^2)^2} + \frac{1 - 3z^2}{(1 + z^2)^3} (\pi z + 2 \log z + 2i\pi) \right]^{-1}.$$ 

It is worth noticing that we have two exponential terms in representation (3). The first corresponds to the usual exponential decay of the system. The second decays very fast, with the time constant $1/2\lambda$. However, this term is very important for description of the survival amplitude at times $t \sim 1/\Lambda$. As shown in Section 4, in this region the Taylor expansion at $t = 0$ already cannot be used, hence the representation (3) is the only way to get results.

We would like to notice that for the interaction $\varphi(x) = \frac{\pi}{(1+x^2)}$ there are three roots contributing to the survival amplitude: $z_1 \approx \omega_\Lambda + i\pi\lambda^2\omega_\Lambda$, $z_2 \approx i(1 - \sqrt{\lambda} \sqrt{2\pi} e^{\pi i/8})$, and $z_3 \approx \frac{1}{2} e^{3\pi i/8}$. Hence, the expressions for the survival amplitude previously obtained [10][11] cannot be used for arbitrary time $t$ and should be corrected for $t \sim 1/\Lambda$ with adding two additional exponential terms.

Let us calculate first the long-time asymptotics. For the integral term in the $A(t)$ we have

$$I(t) = \frac{1}{Q^2(0)\lambda^2 t^2} \left( 1 + \frac{4i}{t\Lambda Q(0)} + O(1/(\Lambda t)^2) \right).$$

As in Appendix B, we can use only one term of the asymptotics when $t \gg 4/\omega_1$. In this region, the survival probability can be written as

$$p(t) \approx e^{-\gamma_1\Lambda t} + \frac{\lambda^4}{Q^4(0)\Lambda^4 t^4} - \frac{2\lambda^2 e^{-\gamma_1\Lambda t/2}}{Q^2(0)\Lambda^2 t^2} \cos(\omega_1 t). \quad (C4)$$

Here again we can see two regions: intermediate with exponential behaviour and long tail with power law decay. The transition time $t_{ep}$ can also be calculated:

$$t_{ep} = -\frac{4}{\gamma_1} \log \frac{\lambda^4}{Q(0)\Lambda}. $$

In order to calculate the short-time asymptotics we expand $I(t)$ into the series at $t = 0$:

$$I(t) \approx C_0 + C_1 t + C_2 t^2 + C_3 t^3 + \int_0^\infty dx \frac{x(-x\Lambda)^4(1-x^2)^2 e^{-x\Lambda t}}{(Q(x) + \frac{1}{2}2\lambda^2\pi x)(Q(x) + \frac{3}{4}2\lambda^2\pi x)}, \quad (C5)$$

where $C_i$ are constants. The asymptotics of the integral term in the last expression can be easily found [88]:

$$I^{(4)}(t) \approx -\Lambda^4 \int_0^\infty dx \frac{e^{-x\Lambda t}}{x + 2i\omega_\Lambda} = \Lambda^4 \log(2i\omega_\Lambda t) + O(1).$$
Combining these results with Eq. (9), we get
\[
p(t) = 1 - \left( \frac{t}{t_a} \right)^2 - \frac{\lambda^2}{12} \log (2\omega t) \Lambda^4 t^4 + O(t^4),
\] (C6)
where \( t_a = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\lambda \Lambda}} \).

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Figure captions

Fig. 1. The survival probability $p(t)$ for the photodetachment model ($\varphi_1(x) = \sqrt{x}$, the dashed line), and for the quantum dot model ($\varphi_2(x) = \frac{x}{1+x^2}$, the solid line). The Zeno time $t_Z$ is indicated. Time is in units of the decay time $t_d$.

Fig. 2. The probability $p_N(T)$ (Eq. (15)) as a function of the duration $\tau$ between measurements. From above, the curves correspond to the time of observation $T = 10^{-4}, 10^{-3}, 10^{-2},$ and $10^{-1}$, respectively. $T$ and $\tau$ are in units of the decay time $t_d$. The photodetachment model ($\varphi_1(x) = \frac{x}{1+x^2}$) (Fig. 2a) and the quantum dot model ($\varphi_2(x) = \frac{x}{1+x^2}$) (Fig. 2b) are presented.

Fig. 3. The value $N_\varepsilon(T)$ (Eq. (20)) as a function of observation time $T$. From above, the curves correspond to the accuracy $\varepsilon = 10^{-2}, 3\times10^{-3}$, and $10^{-3}$, respectively. The solid lines are for the photodetachment model ($\varphi_1(x) = \frac{x}{1+x^2}$), and the dashed lines are for the quantum dot model ($\varphi_2(x) = \frac{x}{1+x^2}$). $T$ is in units of the decay time $t_d$.

Fig. 4. The contour of integration.
Table 1. The Zeno time $t_Z$, the time $t_a$, the decay time $t_d$, and the time $t_{ep}$ of the transition from the exponential to power law decay for different model of interactions and for different physical systems. Numerical values are given in seconds and in units of $t_d$.

| Formfactor $\varphi(x)$ | $\frac{\sqrt{x}}{x+x}$ | $\frac{x}{(1+x^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}}$ | $\frac{x}{(1+x^2)^{\frac{5}{4}}}$ |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| $t_Z$                   | $\frac{Z}{\sqrt{\pi}}$ | $\Lambda \sqrt{\log \left( \frac{2 \sqrt{6}}{\Lambda} \right)}$ | $\frac{2 \sqrt{6}}{\Lambda}$ |
| $t_a$                   | $\frac{(1+1/16)^{2/3}}{\Lambda^{1/3}}$ | $\sqrt{\frac{2}{\Lambda}}$ | $\sqrt{\frac{2}{\Lambda}}$ |
| $t_d$                   | $\frac{\pi \Lambda^7 / \sqrt{\omega_1}}{5 \log (\Lambda^{1/4})}$ | $\frac{2 \pi \Lambda^2 \omega_1}{2 \pi \lambda^2 \omega_1}$ | $\frac{2 \pi \lambda^2 \omega_1}{2 \pi \lambda^2 \omega_1}$ |
| $t_{ep}$                | $-\frac{1}{Z \Lambda^{1/4} / \sqrt{\omega_1}}$ | $-\frac{2 \log (2 \pi \lambda^2)}{2 \pi \lambda^2 \omega_1}$ | $-\frac{2 \log (2 \pi \lambda^2)}{2 \pi \lambda^2 \omega_1}$ |

| System                  | Photodetachment | Quantum Dot | Hydrogen Atom |
|-------------------------|-----------------|-------------|---------------|
| $\Lambda$, $s^{-1}$     | $1.0 \times 10^{10}$ | $1.67 \times 10^{16}$ | $8.498 \times 10^{18}$ |
| $\omega_1$, $s^{-1}$    | $2.0 \times 10^{4}$ | $7.25 \times 10^{12}$ | $1.55 \times 10^{16}$ |
| $\lambda^2$            | $3.18 \times 10^{-7}$ | $3.58 \times 10^{-6}$ | $6.43 \times 10^{-9}$ |

| $t_Z$, s ($t_d$)        | $1.1 \times 10^{-10}$ (1.1 $\times 10^{-9}$) | $5.9 \times 10^{-11}$ (9.7 $\times 10^{-9}$) | $5.76 \times 10^{-19}$ (3.6 $\times 10^{-19}$) |
| $t_a$, s ($t_d$)        | $9.6 \times 10^{-7}$ (9.6 $\times 10^{-6}$) | $4.5 \times 10^{-14}$ (7.4 $\times 10^{-6}$) | $3.59 \times 10^{-15}$ (2.2 $\times 10^{-6}$) |
| $t_d$, s ($t_d$)        | $0.1$ (1) | $6.1 \times 10^{-9}$ (1) | $1.60 \times 10^{-9}$ (1) |
| $t_{ep}$, s ($t_d$)     | $1.7$ (17) | $4.2 \times 10^{-7}$ (69) | $1.69 \times 10^{-7}$ (110) |
\[ P_n(T) \]

\[ \tau \text{ (units of } \tau_0) \]
$N_\varepsilon(T)$

$T$ (units of $\tau_d$)
