LASER PUMPED FREQUENCY STANDARDS

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The objective of the research program is an investigation into the feasibility of using the stimulated resonance Raman effect in an atomic beam for time and frequency standards, as well as spectroscopic applications in the microwave to the far infrared frequency range.
I. Introduction

There has been much recent interest in the development of highly stable and portable clocks for such diverse applications as navigation and communications. At present, cesium beam clocks are the commercially available portable clocks with the best long term accuracy. In this research project, we have been investigating the possibility of using a stimulated resonance Raman interaction to develop more stable cesium beam clocks that are smaller, lighter and less expensive than existing commercial cesium clocks.

Preliminary results show that short term fractional frequency stabilities achievable using a Raman transition in a sodium atomic beam are comparable to those of commercially available portable cesium beam clocks when differences in transition frequency and transit time are taken into consideration. These preliminary results are very encouraging and it is anticipated that if the resonance Raman technique were applied to cesium the goal of significantly smaller and less expensive portable Cs beam clocks, with good long term accuracy, could be achieved.

II. Background

Fig. 1(a) shows schematically a stimulated resonance Raman interaction between two long lived states, 1 and 3, induced by two laser fields $\omega_1$ and $\omega_2$. The net effect of this two-photon Raman process is the same as for direct microwave excitation in that population is transferred
Fig. 1  (a) Schematic of laser-induced resonance Raman interaction.
(b) Schematic illustrating Ramsey's separated field excitation.
between states 1 and 3. In an atomic beam, the Raman transition linewidth for copropagating laser fields is determined by the decay rates of states 1 and 3, with a negligible contribution from state 2, i.e. the linewidth is limited by laser jitter and transit time since states 1 and 3 are long lived. Moreover, symmetry arguments show that correlated laser jitter ($\omega_1$ and $\omega_2$ jittering together) also does not contribute to the Raman linewidth. Thus, under appropriate experimental conditions, the Raman linewidth is transit time limited, just as for microwaves.

To obtain a small transit time linewidth we use Ramsey's method of separated oscillatory fields, as illustrated in Fig. 1(b), in analogy with conventional microwave techniques. In separated field excitation, an atom-field superposition state created in interaction zone A interferes with a superposition state created in zone B. The resulting interference fringes, which can be observed in zone B only when zone A is present, have frequency widths which are characteristic of the transit time between interaction zones.

III. Experimental Setup

A simplified diagram of our experimental Raman clock setup is shown in Fig. 2. In these preliminary experiments, sodium was used, where states 1 and 3 corresponded to the $F=1$ and $F=2$ hyperfine sublevels of the $3^2S_1$ ground state which are separated by 1772 MHz, and state 2 was chosen to be
Fig. 2 Experimental Raman clock setup.
the $3^2P_{1/2} (F=2)$ excited state. The sodium atomic beam is produced by heating sodium to 370°C in an oven equipped with a 0.5 mm diameter exit pinhole and a second 0.5 mm diameter collimating pinhole 30 cm downstream, as illustrated in the Fig. 2. The laser at frequency $\omega_1$ is obtained from a single mode dye laser, locked to the $1\leftrightarrow 2$ transition ($D_1$), near 5896Å, using fluorescence from the atomic beam. The laser field at frequency $\omega_2$ was generated directly from that at $\omega_1$ using an acousto optic frequency shifter (A/O), driven with a quartz stabilized microwave oscillator near 1772 MHz. In this way the frequency jitters of $\omega_1$ and $\omega_2$ were correlated so as to obtain a highly stable difference frequency $\omega_1 - \omega_2$. After leaving the A/O the laser beams at $\omega_1$ and $\omega_2$ are combined, passed through a linear polarizer and directed into a polarization preserving single mode optical fiber. At the fiber output the copropagating laser beams are sent through a second linear polarizer followed by a 50% beamsplitter, which produces two optical fields, each having frequencies $\omega_1$ and $\omega_2$. These two optical fields are then circularly polarized before exciting the atomic beam at the two Ramsey interaction zones, as shown in Fig. 2. The earth's magnetic field is cancelled over the entire interaction length by a set of three-axis Helmholtz coils, not shown.

IV. Lineshape Data

Typical Raman lineshapes obtained with this
The experimental setup are shown in Fig. 3. These are obtained by monitoring the fluorescence, induced in zone B, with a photomultiplier while $\omega_2$ is scanned over the $3 \leftrightarrow 2$ transition frequency with $\omega_1$ locked to the $1 \leftrightarrow 2$ transition. The broad feature in Fig. 3(a) corresponds to the 10 MHz wide $D_1$ transition in sodium. The Raman lineshape (with beam A blocked) appears as three dips in the center of this broad lineshape. There are three dips instead of only one because we applied a 300 mG magnetic Zeeman field along the laser propagation direction. The central dip corresponds to the $m_F = 0, \Delta m_F = 0$ Raman "clock" transition.

These three dips appear with an expanded frequency scale in Fig. 3(b), (beam A unblocked). The narrow feature in the middle of the central dip are Ramsey fringes obtained using an L=15 cm Ramsey interaction zone separation. An expanded scan of these fringes appears in Fig. 3(c). The dotted curve superimposed on the data corresponds to the theoretical Ramsey fringe lineshape predicted for a thermal atomic beam velocity distribution. This theoretical lineshape is identical to that predicted for direct microwave excitation.

Optimized fringes for L = 15 cm appear in Fig. 4(a). To maximize fringe amplitude, circular polarization was made better than 95% and both laser fields (at $\omega_1$ and $\omega_2$) were adjusted to have 40 $\mu$W of power each with 2mm (FWHM) beam diameters at each of the two interaction zones. At these power levels, the Raman transition saturates and no large
Fig. 3  
(a) Resonance Raman interaction in sodium.  
(b) Ramsey fringes for 15 cm interaction zone separation.  
(c) Dotted curve is theory.
Fig. 4  (a) Typical Raman/Ramsey fringe lineshape for 15 cm Ramsey zone separation.

(b) Discriminant corresponding to (a).
increase in fringe amplitude results for increased laser power. The fringes in Fig. 4(a) have a signal to shot noise ratio of about 1200 for $\tau = 1$ sec.

To stabilize a microwave oscillator to the central fringe of Fig. 4(a), a discriminant is needed. This discriminant, which is shown in Fig. 4(b), is obtained by frequency modulating the microwave source at a rate $f_m = 610$ Hz and demodulating the zone 8 fluorescence signal with a lock-in amplifier. The output of the lock-in amplifier is then used in a feedback loop to hold the microwave oscillator frequency at the central zero of the discriminant. The stability of this oscillator is then measured by comparing it with a commercial cesium clock, as shown in Fig. 2.

V. Allan Variance

Fig. 5 shows a plot of the measured fractional frequency stability vs. averaging time for the stabilized microwave oscillator. For $\tau = 100$ sec, the stability is about $3 \times 10^{-11}$. The dashed line superimposed on the data has a slope of $-\frac{1}{2}$ which is the predicted slope for shot noise limited stability. The data in this plot are close to the shot noise limit. To obtain this data, a Ramsey fringe having a signal to shot noise ratio of 4800 was used. This higher signal to shot noise ratio was obtained by enlarging both the oven and collimating apertures in the atomic beam.
Allan variance plot

\[ \sigma_y(\tau) \]

\[ 10^{-9} \quad 10^{-10} \quad 10^{-11} \quad 10^{-12} \]

\[ 10^0 \quad 10^1 \quad 10^2 \quad 10^3 \quad 10^4 \]

\[ \Delta \text{ Portable HP cesium clock} \]

Fig. 5  Plot of measured fractional frequency stability vs. averaging time.
apparatus from 0.5 mm to 1.0 mm diameter, thereby increasing the sodium throughput in the atomic beam.

To compare the stability data of Fig. 5 with conventional cesium clocks, it is necessary to include a factor 16 to account for the higher transition frequency and longer typical transit time of cesium. The lower dashed line in Fig. 5 is the projected stability if cesium were used in place of sodium in our setup with everything else being equal. It is the upper dashed line divided by 16. The triangles are the specifications of a commercial H-P cesium clock (L = 7 cm) and are included for comparison. As can be seen, the projected sodium results compare favorably with commercial cesium clocks.

VI. Frequency Error Sources

For averaging times greater than about 100 sec., the fractional frequency stability, Fig. 5, no longer decreases as $\tau^{-1}$, indicating the presence of long term frequency drifts.

Preliminary investigations have been made of some of the more important frequency error sources and experimental techniques have been developed to reduce their influence. These error sources include:

(i) Relative Misalignment of Laser Beams

One source of frequency error arises from relative misalignments of the shifted ($\omega_2$) and unshifted ($\omega_1$) laser beams away from copropagating the
interaction regions. In a single interaction region, such errors can be explained in terms of different Doppler shifts for the two laser frequencies. To greatly reduce the effects of relative misalignments the laser beams at both frequencies were made exactly copropagating by directing them into the same single mode optical fiber.

(ii) Optical Phase Shifts

Frequency error can also be produced by any effect that alters the relative phases of the shifted and unshifted laser beams at the interaction regions. Such phase shifts can occur, for example, if there are birefringent optics present and the shifted and unshifted laser beams have different polarizations. To reduce such optical phase shift effects, the polarizations of the shifted and unshifted laser beams are made identical by directing them through a common linear polarizer, as shown in Fig. 2.

(iii) Path Length Phase Shifts

Just as in microwave excitation, changes in optical path length can produce frequency errors in the Raman scheme. We reduced these phase shifts by using standing wave excitation. This is analogous to the use of a cavity in the case of microwaves. For the Raman scheme, however, there
is a possibility of obtaining a higher quality standing wave than is possible using microwaves. For example, microwave cavities have Q's of about 100, while optical cavities can have Q's in excess of 10,000.

(iv) Laser Detuning Shifts
Frequency errors can also occur if the laser, at frequency, $\omega_1$, is not exactly on resonance with the $1 \leftrightarrow 2$ transition. It was found that such errors could be greatly reduced by using optical pumping techniques. However, laser detuning effects are still under investigation and it is possible that additional techniques will be developed for reducing their influence.

(v) Laser Beam Pointing Stability
In order to achieve good long term stability it is necessary to have constant laser beam intensity and alignment at the interaction regions. In the past, such long term intensity and alignment stability was limited by the mechanical stability and temperature sensitivity of the fiber mounts. To reduce such effects, more rigid fiber mounts having less temperature sensitivity were constructed and a fiber with a larger core diameter was used. Still greater stability was achieved by installing a servo to stabilize the laser power transmitted by the fiber. With these
improvements, a long term laser beam alignment stability of 5 µrad/10⁴ sec and a laser intensity stability of 1%/10⁴ sec at the interaction regions have been achieved. This leads to expected frequency drifts, related to pointing instabilities, of smaller than 10⁻¹²/10⁴ sec, for L = 15 cm.

(vi) Magnetic Field Effects
Changes in the direction or magnitude of stray magnetic fields (including earth’s field) present in the laboratory can also cause long term frequency drift. To reduce such drifts, µ-metal shielding was used. In addition, the magnetic holding field (generated by Helmholtz coils inside the shielded region) was also stabilized by using a very low drift current source. With these improvements, the long term frequency drifts due to changes in the magnetic field were reduced to better than 10⁻¹²/10⁴ sec.

(vii) Other Frequency Error Sources
Additional frequency error sources not yet studied in detail include: (a) atomic beam misalignments, (b) single region slope effects, (c) effects of nearby atomic levels, (d) fluorescence propagating along the atomic beam, (e) optical atomic recoil, (f) second order Doppler shift, etc.
VII. Summary and Suggestions for Future Work

The stimulated resonance Raman effect has been demonstrated in a sodium atomic beam. Ramsey fringes as narrow as 1.3 kHz (FWHM), corresponding to an L = 30 cm interaction region separation, have been observed in the second region fluorescence signal. Moreover, the amplitude of these narrow fringes has been observed to be the same as for fringes corresponding to smaller interaction region separations, indicating that transit time is the primary broadening mechanism, just as for microwaves.

A microwave oscillator has been stabilized using Raman/Ramsey fringes corresponding to L = 15 cm and fractional frequency stabilities as good as $3 \times 10^{-11}$, for $\tau = 100$ second averaging time, have been achieved. These stabilities, which are near the shot noise limit, compare favorably with commercial cesium clock stabilities when differences in transit time and transition frequency are taken into consideration.

Sources of long term frequency drift were partially studied. The major frequency error sources have been identified and experimental techniques have been found to reduce them. It is highly recommended that the study of frequency error sources be continued so that the remaining frequency error sources can also be identified and reduced until the long term stability of the Raman clock becomes comparable to conventional microwave clocks.
It is also recommended that the stimulated resonance Raman technique be used with a cesium atomic beam. Aside from an expected factor of 16 better stability over sodium, there is the possibility developing a much smaller and lighter atomic beam clock by replacing the dye laser with a semiconductor laser. "Off the shelf" GaAs lasers can be obtained, which operate at the 852 nm cesium $\overset{1}{D}_1$ transition frequency. Moreover, using the Raman technique, there would be no need for state selection magnets, microwave cavities or hot wire detectors. This would result in less expensive, smaller, lighter and more reliable cesium beam clocks with equal or better stability than commercially available portable clocks.
VIII. Publications


IX. Theses Completed

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