Interferometry with relativistic electrons

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We propose an experiment to test the influence of Lorentz contraction on the interference pattern of a beam of electrons. The electron beam is split and recombined by two pairs of bi-chromatic laser pulses, using a variation of the Kapitza-Dirac effect. Between the pairs the electrons are accelerated to relativistic speed. We show that Lorentz contraction of the distance between two partial beams will then lead to a reduction of fringe visibility. The connection of the proposal to Bell’s spaceship paradox is discussed.

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I. INTRODUCTION

The influence of Special Relativity on matter-wave interference is a long-established fact. For instance, the spatial interference pattern of atom interferometers that are based on optical Ramsey fringes \cite{1} can only be fully explained if the relativistic Doppler effect is taken into account \cite{2}. This effect is relevant even for non-relativistic velocities because the fringe pattern is very sensitive to differences between the dynamical phase factors $\exp(-iEt/\hbar)$ of different partial beams in the interferometer. The relativistic Doppler effect essentially takes into account time dilation in the dynamical phase.

On the other hand, the consequences of Lorentz contraction in matter-wave interference are much more difficult to detect. Lorentz contraction generally has only been confirmed indirectly, for instance through the compressed charge distribution in high-energy ion collisions \cite{3} and the wavelength of free-electron lasers \cite{4}. The Michelson-Morley experiment, which was the reason for the introduction of Lorentz contraction, may also be considered as an indirect confirmation. An overview about experimental tests of Lorentz contraction can be found in Ref. \cite{5}.

In this paper we suggest an experiment to observe the impact of Lorentz contraction on the spatial interference pattern of an electron interferometer. The principle idea of the proposal is that an electron beam is split, accelerated to relativistic speed and then recombined. Lorentz contraction of the distance between two partial beams will then lead to a reduction of fringe visibility. In Sec. II we will outline how to realize this scheme using a modification of the Kapitza-Dirac effect. A theoretical analysis of the interference pattern based on the Dirac equation in Sec. III is followed by an analysis of the beam splitting process in Sec. IV Numerical results for the interference pattern are presented in In Sec. V, and in Sec. VI the connection of the proposal to Bell’s spaceship paradox is discussed.

II. SKETCH OF PROPOSED EXPERIMENT

Our proposal employs the general principles of Ramsey-Bordé interferometers \cite{1, 6–8}, in which an atomic beam is split and recombined by a sequence of laser pulses. When passing through a laser pulse the atoms absorb photons, so that momentum is transferred from the pulse to the atoms. This change in the atomic center-of-mass dynamics can be used to construct atom beam splitters. In a similar way, the Kapitza-Dirac effect \cite{9–12} can be used to transfer momentum from a standing light wave to electrons. A Ramsey-Bordé interferometer for (non-relativistic) electrons that employs bi-chromatic laser pulses as beam splitters has been described in Ref. \cite{13}. Our proposal builds on this work.

A sketch of the suggested experiment is shown in Fig. 1 a). An electron beam initially moves in the $x$-direction and is then coherently split into two beams A, B that are spatially separated by a distance $\Delta z$. The splitting is accomplished by two bi-chromatic laser pulses, which are represented as dashed vertical red lines in Fig. 1 a). The first pulse (left-most dashed line) splits the electron beam into two partial beams and transfers momentum to one of the beams, thus changing their relative velocity.
between two laser pulses amounts to the replacement of \( \psi \) between two laser pulses amounts to the replacement of \( \psi \) between two laser pulses amounts to the replacement of \( \psi \) between two laser pulses amounts to the replacement of \( \psi \) between two laser pulses amounts to the replacement of \( \psi \) between two laser pulses amounts to the replacement of \( \psi \) between two laser pulses amounts to the replacement of \( \psi \) between two laser pulses amounts to the replacement of \( \psi \).

The second laser pulse reverses the momentum transfer so that beam A and B have the same momentum.

The split electron beam then enters a region with a strong electric field that accelerates it in the z-direction for a time \( T' \). After the electrons have passed through the electric field and obtained a relativistic speed \( v = \beta c \), the electrons are recombined in such a way that the spatial distance between the two beams is reduced by an amount \( \Delta z \) in their rest frame. For non-relativistic electrons this would lead to a perfect overlap, resulting in an interferometric pattern with high fringe visibility, but at relativistic speed Lorentz contraction changes this conclusion.

To understand this, consider the space-time diagram of the interferometer in Fig. 1b), which shows that, in the laboratory frame, the distance between beam A and B remains unchanged during the acceleration. However, once the electrons are moving at speed \( v \), the proper distance \( \Delta z' \) in their rest frame has to be measured simultaneously in that frame, i.e., along the lower red dashed line in Fig. 1b) (see also Sec. VI). We then have \( \Delta z' = \gamma \Delta z > \Delta z \), where \( \gamma = 1/\sqrt{1-\beta^2} \), because \( \Delta z \) is the Lorentz contraction of \( \Delta z' \). Consequently, after the recombination beam A and B would miss each other by a distance \( \Delta z' - \Delta z = (\gamma - 1) \Delta z \), which would lead to reduced fringe visibility.

### III. THEORETICAL ANALYSIS OF THE INTERFEROMETER

To estimate the achievable magnitude of the beam separation \( \Delta z' - \Delta z \) we extend the description of a Ramsey-Bordé interferometer for electrons [13] to the relativistic regime. It is assumed that the beam intensity is low enough so that space-charge effects can be neglected [14]. We first summarize the key points of the non-relativistic description.

(i) The initial electron state is expanded in terms of momentum eigenstates \( \phi_p(z) \) as

\[
\psi_{\text{init}}(z) = \int dp \, \tilde{\psi}(p) \phi_p(z). \tag{1}
\]

It is sufficient to describe the motion along the z-axis because all forces point along this direction. We consider states for which \( \tilde{\psi}(p) \) is negligible if not \( |p| \ll \hbar k_L \), with \( k_L \) the wavenumber of the laser pulses.

(ii) The free evolution of the electrons for a time \( T \) between two laser pulses amounts to the replacement of \( \tilde{\psi}(p) \) by \( \exp(-iTE(p)/\hbar) \tilde{\psi}(p) \), where \( E(p) \) is the energy of an electron with momentum \( p \).

(iii) Acceleration for a time \( T' \) amounts to a unitary transformation \( \hat{U}_a(T') \) of the form

\[
\hat{U}_a(T') \phi_p(z) = e^{-i\tau(p)} \phi_{p+\alpha T'}(z), \tag{2}
\]

\[
\tau(p) = \frac{1}{\hbar} \int_0^{T'} dt' E(p + \alpha t'). \tag{3}
\]

(iv) The first and second laser pulse induce a unitary transformation

\[
\hat{U}_- \phi_p(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\phi_p(z) + \phi_{p+2\hbar k_L}(z)) \tag{4}
\]

\[
\hat{U}_- \phi_{p+2\hbar k_L}(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-\phi_p(z) + \phi_{p-2\hbar k_L}(z)). \tag{5}
\]

The last two laser pulses produce a similar unitary transformation \( \hat{U}_+ \), which is equal to \( \hat{U}_- \) with \( k_L \) replaced by \(-k_L \). These transformations are not accurate but provide a reasonable approximation for non-relativistic electrons. We will give a detailed description of the splitting process below.

(v) Using point (i)-(iv), the electron state after passing through the interferometer evaluates to [13]

\[
\psi_{\text{final}}(z) = \frac{1}{4} \int dp \, \tilde{\psi}(p) \phi_{p+\alpha T'}(z) \times e^{-i\tau(p)} \left( e^{-i\frac{\alpha}{2} E(p+2\hbar k_L)} e^{-i\frac{\beta}{2} E(p-2\hbar k_L)} + e^{i\frac{\alpha}{2} E(p)} e^{i\frac{\beta}{2} E(p+\alpha T')} \right) + \text{rest}. \tag{6}
\]

The first term in parentheses corresponds to beam A in Fig. 1a), i.e., to electrons which receive momentum transfers \( 2\hbar k_L, -2\hbar k_L, -2\hbar k_L, 2\hbar k_L \) at the four laser pulses. The second term in parentheses corresponds to beam B, with electrons that travel through the laser pulses without changing their momentum. “Rest” refers to (seven) other partial beams that are produced in addition to beam A and B. For brevity these beams will only be included in the numerical analysis given below.

We now adapt this derivation to relativistic electrons described by the Dirac equation

\[
\hat{H} = mc^2 \beta + \hat{H}_0 + qV - c \sum_{i=1}^3 (\hat{p}_i - qA_i) \alpha_i. \tag{7}
\]

The 4 \times 4 matrices \( \beta \) and \( \alpha_i \) take their standard form [15]. The initial state can still be expanded as in Eq. (1) with \( \phi_p(z) \) replaced by spinor momentum eigenstates \( \phi_p^{(1)}(z) = \exp(ipz/\hbar) \theta^{(1)}(p) \), where

\[
\theta^{(1)}(p) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \frac{m}{E}, & 0, & \frac{p}{\sqrt{E(m+E)}}, & 0 \end{pmatrix} \tag{8}
\]

\[
\theta^{(2)}(p) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0, & 1 + \frac{m}{E}, & 0, & -\frac{p}{\sqrt{E(m+E)}} \end{pmatrix} \tag{9}
\]

\[
\theta^{(3)}(p) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \frac{m}{E}, & 0, & -\frac{p}{\sqrt{E(E-m)}}, & 0 \end{pmatrix} \tag{10}
\]

\[
\theta^{(4)}(p) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0, & 1 - \frac{m}{E}, & 0, & \frac{p}{\sqrt{E(E-m)}} \end{pmatrix}, \tag{11}
\]

with the relativistic energy \( E(p) = \sqrt{p^2c^2 + m^2c^4} \). Using this expression for \( E(p) \), the free evolution rule (ii) can also be used for relativistic electrons.
To see that the acceleration rule (iii) can still be applied we have to solve the Dirac equation with constant acceleration $a$ [16–21], corresponding to $A_i = 0$ and $qV = -ma z$ in Eq. (7). To keep a close analogy to the non-relativistic treatment of Ref. [13] we expand the wavefunction as
\[ \psi(z, t) = \sum_{r=1}^{4} \tilde{\psi}_r(t) \phi^{(r)}_{p(t)}(z), \] (12)
with $p(t) = p + mat$. Inserting this into the Dirac equation and exploiting the orthonormality of the spinors $\theta^{(r)}(p)$ we obtain
\[ i\partial_t \tilde{\psi}_r = \epsilon_r \frac{E(p(t))}{\hbar} \tilde{\psi}_r - i\epsilon_r (-1)^r \eta(t) \tilde{\psi}_{r+2\epsilon_r}, \] (13)
with
\[ \eta(t) \equiv \frac{a}{2c} \left( \frac{mc^2}{E(p(t))} \right)^2 \] (14)
and $\epsilon_r = 1(-1)$ for $r = 1, 2 (3, 4)$, respectively. $\eta(t)$ describes a coupling between positive- and negative-energy solutions that is maximal for $E(p(t)) \approx mc^2$. For constant values of $\eta$ and $E(p)$ we find that the maximal transition probability is given by $\hbar^2 \eta^2 / (E(p)^2 + \hbar^2 \eta^2)$, which is only significant for extreme accelerations of $a \approx 10^{10}$ m/s$^2$ or larger. For realistic accelerations $\eta(t)$ is negligible, so that the solution to the accelerated Dirac equation can be approximated by
\[ \tilde{\psi}_r(t) \approx e^{-\frac{T}{2} \eta(t)} \int_0^T E(p(t')) \tilde{\psi}_r(0). \] (15)
Consequently, Eq. (2) can also be used to describe the accelerated evolution of relativistic electron wavepackets.

In Sec. IV it will be shown that beam splitting rule (iv) also applies to relativistic electrons if specific conditions are met. Hence, with the appropriate replacements, rules (i)-(iv) and hence final state (6) are still valid for relativistic electrons. Compared to Ref. [13] we have admitted that the time $\tilde{T}$ between the last two pulses, and the momentum transfer $2\hbar k_L$ in the electron rest frame, differ from the respective values for the first two pulses. A factor of $\gamma$ appears in Eq. (6), which is formulated in the lab frame, because we have to perform a Lorentz transformation of the momentum transfer to obtain the momentum transfer in the lab frame.

In the non-relativistic case it is possible to evaluate Eq. (6) analytically for a Gaussian initial wavepacket of spatial width $w$, for which
\[ \tilde{\psi}(p) = \sqrt{\frac{2 w}{\pi \hbar}} e^{-p^2 w^2 / \hbar^2}. \] (16)
In the relativistic case we can obtain an approximate solution by exploiting that the momentum width of the wavepackets is still small after the acceleration. We can therefore expand all exponentials to second order in $p$ and replace the spinor $\theta^{(r)}(p + ma T')$ by $\theta^{(r)}(ma T')$. Then all integrals in Eq. (6) are of Gaussian form and can be solved analytically, leading to partial beams with a Gaussian spatial structure. The final mean positions of the two partial beams in the lab frame evaluate to
\[ z_A = \Delta z + \frac{c^2}{a} (\gamma - 1) + \tilde{T} \left( \beta c - \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \frac{2 \hbar k_L}{m} \right) \] (17)
\[ z_B = \frac{c^2}{a} (\gamma - 1) + \tilde{T} \beta c, \] (18)
where we have used $\Delta z = T \Delta v = 2T \hbar k_L / m$ for the separation induced by the first pair of laser pulses. These mean positions agree with relativistic trajectories of classical point particles in the lab frame. $c^2(\gamma - 1)/a$ corresponds to the distance travelled by the electrons during the acceleration phase. For $\gamma = 5/4$ and an acceleration of $1.8 \times 10^{16}$ m/s$^2$, which corresponds to an electric field strength of $10^9$ V/m, this distance is about 1.3 m.

Terms proportional to $\tilde{T}$ correspond to the distance travelled by the partial beams between the last two laser pulses. $\beta_c$ is the velocity of electrons with momentum $p = m\gamma \beta c$, which have not received a momentum kick. Electrons that have received a momentum kick $\Delta \tilde{p} = -2\hbar k_L$ in their rest frame possess a momentum $p + \gamma \Delta \tilde{p}$ in the lab frame. The relativistic relation between velocity and momentum is given by $\beta(p) = p / \sqrt{p^2 + m^2 c^2}$. Expanding $\beta(p + \gamma \Delta \tilde{p})$ to first order in $\Delta \tilde{p}$ produces the terms proportional to $\tilde{T}$ in Eq. (17).

To realize the proposal presented in Sec. II, $\tilde{T}$ has to be chosen in such a way that the distance between beam A and B is reduced by an amount $\Delta z$ between the last two laser pulses. If $\Delta \tilde{v} = 2 \hbar k_L / m$ denotes the relative velocity of the two partial beams in their rest frame, the proper time needed to cover this distance is given by $\tau = \Delta z / \Delta \tilde{v}$. In the lab frame, the time between the two pulses must therefore be chosen as $\tilde{T} = \gamma \tau = \gamma \Delta z m / (2 \hbar k_L)$. The final distance between the two beams in the lab frame is then given by $z_A - z_B = \Delta z (1 - \gamma^{-1})$. Lorentz contraction implies that in the rest frame of the electrons the distance is then given by $\gamma (z_A - z_B) = (\gamma - 1) \Delta z$, which is corresponds to the mismatch discussed in Sec. II.

IV. KAPITZA-DIRAC BEAM SPLITER FOR RELATIVISTIC ELECTRONS

The analysis given in Sec. III employs rule (iv), which has been derived for non-relativistic electrons [13] using a modified Kapitza-Dirac effect and is only correct in the limit of very short laser pulses. Rule (iv) is sufficient to give a rough description of the interaction of electrons with the first two laser pulses, but it needs to be reconsidered for relativistic electrons interacting with the two laser pulses after the acceleration. The relativistic Kapitza-Dirac effect has been studied in Ref. [22]. To describe the modified relativistic Kapitza-Dirac effect
for each of the four pulses we need to solve the Dirac equation (7) in the presence of two counter-propagating laser fields with different frequencies. The corresponding electromagnetic potentials are given by \( V = 0 \) and \( \vec{A} = \vec{e}(A^{(+)} + A^{(-)}) \), where

\[
A^{(+)} = -\frac{iE_1e^{i(k_1z-i\omega_1t+i\theta_1)}}{4\omega_1} - \frac{iE_2e^{-i(k_2z-i\omega_2+i\theta_2)}}{4\omega_2}
\]

(19)
is the positive-frequency part of the vector potential in the lab frame and \( A^{(-)} = (A^{(+)})^* \). \( E_i \), and \( \omega_i \) \((i = 1, 2)\) are electric field amplitude and frequency of the two counter-propagating fields and \( k_i = \omega_i/c \) their wavenumber. The unit vector \( \vec{e} \) describes the polarization direction in the \( x-y \)-plane and \( \theta_i \) are phase factors.

For non-relativistic velocities the Dirac equation can be solved using a Foldy-Wouthuysen transformation [15]. The large components of the Dirac spinor are then of the form (19) except that in the exponentials we have to make the replacements \( \omega \rightarrow \omega - \omega \delta \omega \), where \( \delta \omega \) is the positive-frequency part of the vector potential in the lab frame and \( \omega = (\omega^{(+)})^* \). \( E_i \), and \( \omega_i \) \((i = 1, 2)\) are electric field amplitude and frequency of the two counter-propagating fields and \( k_i = \omega_i/c \) their wavenumber. The unit vector \( \vec{e} \) describes the polarization direction in the \( x-y \)-plane and \( \theta_i \) are phase factors.

The Lorentz transformation of the four-vector potential \((0, \vec{A})\) can easily be accomplished by noting that its polarization is perpendicular to the direction of the boost. Consequently, the vector potential still has the form (19) except that in the exponentials we have to make the replacements \( \omega_1 \rightarrow \omega_1 = (1 - \beta)\gamma \omega_1 \) and \( \omega_2 \rightarrow \omega_2 = (1 + \beta)\gamma \omega_2 \). Therefore, detuning \( \Delta \omega \equiv \omega_2 - \omega_1 \) and average wavenumber \( k_L \equiv (k_1 + k_2)/2 \) in the lab frame need to be replaced by the respective values in the electron rest frame,

\[
\Delta \tilde{\omega} = \gamma (\Delta \omega + \beta(\omega_2 + \omega_1))
\]

(20)

\[
\tilde{k}_L = \frac{\gamma}{2c}((1 + \beta)\omega_2 + (1 - \beta)\omega_1).
\]

(21)

It was shown in Ref. [13] that rule (iv) provides a reasonable approximation for the evolution of the electron state inside a bi-chromatic laser pulse if the resonance condition

\[
\Delta \tilde{\omega} = \mp 2\frac{\hbar}{m} \tilde{k}_L^2
\]

(22)
is fulfilled. For relativistic electrons this poses a practical limitation: because of the Doppler effect (terms proportional to \( \beta \) in Eq. (20)), the detuning \( \Delta \tilde{\omega} \) in the electron rest frame may be very large. However, the Kapitza-Dirac effect requires phase locking, i.e., there must be a stable relation between the phases of the two counter-propagating laser fields [12]. In current experiments such a relation can only be established for small detunings [23] or in harmonic generation [24]. We therefore propose the following setup: laser field 2 with frequency \( \omega_2 \) is detuned by a small amount \( \delta \omega \) from, and phase-locked to, a pump laser of frequency \( \omega_3 - \delta \omega \). Laser field 1 corresponds to the \( n \)th harmonic frequency of the pump laser, so that \( \omega_1 = (n(\omega_3 - \delta \omega)) \). We then obtain

\[
\Delta \tilde{\omega} = n(1 - \beta)\gamma \delta \omega + (1 + \beta - n(1 - \beta))\gamma \omega_2
\]

(23)

\[
\tilde{k}_L = \frac{\gamma}{2c}((1 + \beta + n(1 - \beta))\omega_2 - (1 - \beta)\delta \omega).
\]

(24)

If the final velocity of the electrons takes the value \( \beta = (n - 1)/(n + 1) \) then these relations simplify to \( \Delta \tilde{\omega} = \sqrt{n} \delta \omega \) and \( \tilde{k}_L \approx \sqrt{n} \omega_2/c = \sqrt{n} k_2 \). The resonance condition can then easily be fulfilled by choosing \( \delta \omega = \mp 2\hbar\sqrt{n} k_2^2 / m \), which apart from a factor of \( \sqrt{n} \) is the same condition as in the non-relativistic case. Hence, if the electrons are accelerated to a specific velocity, rule (iv) can still be used to describe the beam splitters.

V. NUMERICAL RESULTS

In Fig. 2 we show a full numerical simulation of the interference pattern, including the full Kapitza-Dirac effect as described in Ref. [13] instead of the simplified rule (iv). We assume fourth-order harmonic generation \((n = 4)\), which corresponds to \( \beta = 3/5 \), so that electrons need to travel through an electric potential difference of 127.75 kV (see Fig. 1). The flight durations used in the simulation are \( T = 50 \) ns, \( T' = 12.5 \) ns, and \( T = 31 \) ns. The distance between wavepackets A and B of about \( 15 \) \( \mu \)m corresponds to the spatial mismatch induced by Lorentz contraction. Wavepackets with Roman numbers are labeled in the same way as in Ref. [13] and represent other partial beams.

The details of the numerical simulation are as follows. We performed all calculations in momentum space and used a grid of 10000 points for a Fourier transformation of the final wavefunction to obtain the spatial density shown in Fig. 2. Rules (i) and (ii) can be evaluated exactly in
momentum space. For the acceleration of $1.8 \times 10^{16}$ m/s$^2$ that we considered, rule (iii) provides an excellent approximation and can also be evaluated directly. To implement an accurate description of rule (iv) we use the result that each bi-chromatic pulse couples a wavefunction with momentum $p$ to wavefunctions with momentum $p \pm 2\hbar k_L$ [13]. As these momenta are coupled to other momenta, one obtains a coupling between an infinite set of momenta separated by multiples of $2\hbar k_L$. However, for a pulse duration of $t_L = \pi/(4g_1g_2) = 1.56$ ns, where $g_i$ is defined in Eq. (7) of Ref. [13], the laser intensities are so low that this coupling is very weak and can be neglected except when resonance condition (22) (or Eq. (12) of Ref. [13] for non-relativistic electrons) is fulfilled. We therefore only need to take into account the coupling between two resonant momenta, so that the unitary time evolution operator during a laser pulse can be found analytically by diagonalizing a $2 \times 2$ matrix. We remark that this procedure is more accurate than Eq. (5), which neglects the actual time evolution during the laser pulses and only describes how the electron momentum is changed.

The method presented in the preceding paragraph is non-relativistic and provides an accurate description of the electron dynamics during the first two laser pulses. To apply this procedure to the last two laser pulses we performed a Lorentz transformation of the numerical wavefunction at the end of the acceleration phase into the (mean) rest frame of the electrons in beam B, taking into account the changes to the vector potential discussed in Sec. IV. The evolution during the last two laser pulses and the free evolution between these pulses is then evaluated in the rest frame of beam B. Fig. 2 shows the final wavefunction in this frame.

To check the numerical results we have verified that the wavefunction is normalized and the mean position of all partial beams agrees with the position (in the rest frame of beam B) of a classical relativistic point particle that receives a specific momentum kick at each laser pulse. We remark that the distance between wavepackets A and B in Fig. 2 is not exactly equal to the shift $(\gamma - 1)\Delta z$ derived in Sec. II, but is rather given by

$$z_A - z_B = (\gamma - 1)\Delta z + \gamma t_L \frac{2\hbar k_L}{m} - t_L \frac{1}{m} \frac{\hbar k_L}{m}. \tag{25}$$

The reason is that Eq. (25) takes into account the finite duration $t_L$ of the laser pulses, while the discussion in Secs. II and III assumes that the momentum of the electrons changes instantaneously.

VI. BELL’S SPACESHIP PARADOX

Bell’s spaceship paradox, which was popularized by Bell [25] but originally suggested by Dewan and Beran [26], is one of the thought experiments illustrating the subtleties of Special Relativity. Two spaceships are initially at rest and connected by a taut thread. They undergo the same acceleration until they reach relativistic speed. An observer in the lab frame would conclude that the thread will not break because the distance between the spaceships would never change. However, in the reference frame of the ships Lorentz contraction would imply that the thread should break.

The paradox can be explained using the space-time diagram shown in Fig. 3. Blue solid lines describe the trajectories of two spaceships (A and B), which are initially separated by a distance $\Delta z$. They are accelerated until they reach relativistic speed. After the acceleration an observer in the lab frame would measure the distance between the ships simultaneously in her frame, along the horizontal black dashed line in Fig. 3 a). She would conclude that the distance is still given by $\Delta z$, which is the proper distance between the end points of the black dashed line. An observer on a ship would measure the distance simultaneously in his frame, along the bold dashed red line in the figure. The reason for the change in the distance is relativity of simultaneity. In the reference frame of ship A, ship B stopped to accelerate earlier and thus had more time to travel to the right.

To analyze the paradox, some authors use space-time diagrams only [27–30]. Other authors address the question whether Lorentz contraction will cause stress forces in the string to occur, which may trigger the string to break and thus provide a physical signal that resolves the paradox. The answer to this question is much more involved due to the subtleties of relativistic rigid-body dynamics and has been addressed with different methods and results [25, 26, 31–36]. Most authors came to the conclusion that the string would break.

Comparing Figs. 1b) and 3 one can see that Bell’s paradox and the proposed interference experiment are closely related. Except for the parts in which electron beam A and B are split and recombined, the two space-time diagrams coincide. In both cases, it is Lorentz contraction of the final separation $\Delta z'$ that is responsible for a physical effect: the mismatch between the final positions of beam A and B in the electron interferometer, and the break-
ing of the string in Bell’s paradox. One may say that the mismatch in the interference experiment replaces the breaking of the string as a physical signature for the resolution of the paradox.

VII. DISCUSSION

The theoretical analysis that we have presented above is based on several simplifying assumptions, including a homogeneous electric field, laser pulses that are switched on and off at specific times, and a one-dimensional analysis that ignores forces in the \(x\)- and \(y\)-direction. In this section we estimate how deviations from these assumptions may affect the proposed experiment. In doing so it is important to keep the following points in mind:

(i) Strictly speaking, the proposed experiment is not an interference experiment. The measured quantity is a displacement between to partial beams, which would also be produced for incoherent electron beams. However, if the two partial beams are partially overlapping, the fringe visibility can provide information about the displacement. Coherence is therefore helpful but not essential.

(ii) The measured observable is a relative displacement of two partial beams along the direction of the laser pulses. Any effects that affect the motion in other directions, such as forces in the \(x\)- or \(y\)-direction, do therefore not affect the result. Similarly, forces in the \(z\)-direction that affect both partial beams in the same way will not affect the displacement.

(iii) The beam splitting process is velocity-selective, i.e., the electron beam is only split or recombined for electrons within a specific velocity range.

With these remarks we can address a number of experimentally relevant questions.

Pulse timing. In our theoretical analysis the counterpropagating light pulses are switched on and off simultaneously everywhere in space. In reality, the pulses are propagating in opposite directions and will hit the fast moving partial electron beams at different times. In the proposed setup this is not a problem because only partial beam A actually interacts with the pulses, while partial beam B does not obtain a momentum transfer. In an experiment, pulse timing should therefore be designed in such a way that partial beam A interacts with the pulses at the correct time.

Pulse shape. The spatial shape of a light pulse also affects the force light exerts on charged particles. Because of point (ii) above, the transverse pulse profile will not have a significant influence on the displacement between beam A and B. As a rule of thumb, the magnitude of the momentum change due to the envelope \(E\) of a pulse is much smaller than the momentum transfer in a resonant absorption or emission process as long as the envelope changes slowly over the range of one wavelength \(\lambda\), so that \(\lambda |\nabla E| \ll |E|\) [37]. The transverse profile would therefore only generate a displacement in the \(x-y\)-plane that is much smaller than the displacement of partial beam VIII in Fig. (2). Similar remarks apply to the longitudinal pulse profile. However, the longitudinal profile must be shaped in such a way that the electron-pulse interaction is not switched on adiabatically [38].

Photon emission. It is well known that accelerated charges emit radiation. In matter-wave interferometry, even the emission of a single photon may lead to a loss of coherence [39]. While point (i) implies that this loss of coherence is not a fundamental problem, the associated change in the electron momentum may nevertheless affect the displacement between partial beams A and B. It is therefore worthwhile to estimate the probability of photon emission during the acceleration.

The photon emission probability for an accelerated electron per unit time and transverse momentum \(p_x, p_y\) is given by [40]

\[
P_{\text{em}}(p_x, p_y) = \frac{q^2 \epsilon_0^2}{\pi^2 a \epsilon_0 \hbar^2} K_1 \left( \frac{c^2}{\hbar a} \sqrt{p_x^2 + p_y^2} \right)^2,
\]

where \(K_1\) denotes the modified Bessel function of the second kind. The total probability to emit a photon can then be estimated by

\[
P_{\text{em}} = T \int dp_x \, dp_y \, P(p_x, p_y)
= 2T \int_0^\infty d_0 \, \frac{q^2 \epsilon_0^2}{\pi^2 a \epsilon_0 \hbar^2} K_1 \left( \frac{c^2}{a} k_\perp \right)^2,
\]

with \(k_\perp = \sqrt{p_x^2 + p_y^2} / \hbar\) the transverse wavenumber of the electron. This integral is logarithmically divergent for large wavelengths, \(k_\perp \to 0\). We regularize it by replacing the lower boundary by \(u a / c^2\), where \(u > 0\) parametrizes the value of the cutoff and \(c^2 / a\) corresponds to the maximal distance (the largest wavelength) that fits into a Rindler wedge [41] in the reference frame of an accelerated observer. The integral can then be performed numerically. For the parameters used in Sec. V, \(P_{\text{em}}(u)\) varies very slowly with \(u\) and is less than 5% for \(u > 10^{-4}\). We therefore expect that photon emission will not pose a problem for the proposed experiment.

Spatial field fluctuations. In the previous sections we have assumed that the electric field is homogeneous and time independent. Spatial homogeneity is not a critical assumption because it only matters that both partial beams achieve the same Lorentz factor \(\gamma\) at the end of the acceleration phase. Because both partial beams essentially follow the same path and are only separated along the \(z\)-axis, both beams would undergo the same (non-constant) acceleration before they are recombined. Hence, field fluctuations along the \(z\)-axis would not affect the experimental outcome. Transverse field fluctuations in the \(x\)- or \(y\)-direction could result in different acceleration for both beams, but this would be accompanied by a displacement of the beams in the \(x-y\) plane. For a given point in the \(x-y\) plane, the \(z\)-displacement should still be the same. The only spatial field fluctuations that would
be of concern are those which couple transverse and longitudinal motion of the electrons. They can be dealt with in a similar way as temporal fluctuations (see below).

Temporal field fluctuations. To avoid electric forces between two partial beams, the experiment should be performed in such a way that only one electron passes through the interferometer in each run. Temporal fluctuations in the electric field could significantly change the dynamics of the electrons between different runs and thus make it impossible to measure the beam displacement. Fortunately, point (iii) provides a way to overcome this problem: only electrons that are at the right time, and with the correct velocity, at the location of the laser pulse will interact with it. Thus, the resonant interaction with laser pulses selects those electrons which have obtained the proper velocity and position to contribute to the measured observable.

In the setup shown in Fig. 1, velocity-selection would only apply to partial beam A, because beam B does not interact with the laser pulses. The setup could be modified in such a way that both beams A and B would receive a momentum transfer from (possibly different) laser pulses after the acceleration. In this way, both beams would be subject to velocity-selection. Furthermore, such a modification could be used to move beam A, B away from background electrons that do not interact with the laser pulses, similarly to beam VIII in Fig. 2. A disadvantage of velocity-selection is that runs in which an electron has the wrong velocity will not contribute to the measured observable. The total number of experimental runs needed will therefore be increased.

Detection. To detect the interference pattern of electrons moving at relativistic speed, a time-of-flight measurement may be needed. Alternatively, it would be possible to decelerate the electrons after the last laser pulse and detect the electrons when they obtained non-relativistic speed. Such a deceleration phase would lead to a Lorentz contraction of the distance between the two electron beams, but it would not undo the separation.

VIII. CONCLUSION

We have proposed an experiment in which Lorentz contraction changes the interference pattern in an electron interferometer. Two partial beams, which would be perfectly overlapping for non-relativistic electrons, will miss each other by an amount \( \Delta z(\gamma - 1) \), with \( \Delta z \) the beam separation in the interferometer. The experiment is closely related to Bell’s spaceship paradox, with the mismatch of the beams replacing the breaking of a string as physical evidence for Lorentz contraction.

The key element of our proposal is the use of laser pulses to modify the electron motion via the Kapitza-Dirac effect. Using fields instead of gratings as beam splitters enables us to fix time and location of the splitting process in the rest frame of the electrons, rather than in the lab frame. In combination with the large accelerations that can be achieved for charged elementary particles in general, this method may pave the way to further tests of relativity, such as local Lorentz invariance [42] or extended relativity [43].

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