Potential Effect: Aharonov-Bohm Effect of Simply Connected Region *

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Abstract

Starting from variations on the Aharonov-Bohm effect, we suggest that any non-trivial electromagnetic potential, vector or scalar, can generate a measurable effect on charged particle. The title experiment is a realizable and clean example of this. This effect is not topological, and can be tested by a diffraction experiment inside a large-enough elongated toroidal solenoid. A wave-front theory based on four-momentum conservation is introduced as interpretation.

It took thirty-three years after the discovery of Schrödinger equation for people to realize the existence of the Aharonov-Bohm effect \[1,3\] (hereafter AB effect). It is still a vital topic today \[3,7,12\]. In this paper, we shall study a generalization of AB effect, the potential effect as described in abstract. The discussion is focused on effects in simply connected region, which obviously can not have any local field-flux. Among the published discussions about this kind of effects, it is generally agreed that this kind of effects does not exist due to gauge invariance. For example, \[15\]. However, there are also opinions that this effect is a trivial variation of AB effect and therefore there is no need to check its existence \[10\]. To my knowledge, it has never been tested. My first goal here is to supply enough theoretical reason to motivate the experimental test of this effect. I start with an intuitive derivation in \(b\), then I introduce a wave-front theory as a theoretical consideration. Logically, the existence of potential effect implies the existence of the AB effect, but not vice versa. The purpose of this paper is to provide a physical connection in the opposite direction. I wish the reader to understand from the very beginning that this is not a mathematical derivation from any existing first-principle.

a. Is the original AB effect enough for testing the importance of electromagnetic potential? Experimental tests of AB effect are still developing in order to provide more convincing results \[4,6,18\]. The major issue in experimental design is to shield the field-flux into a small

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region to ensure that it is an AB effect. This is however not easy mainly because the typical wave-length of an electron beam is only 0.03Å [18, p.101]. The construction has to be very small. In the dual version of AB effect, the Aharonov-Casher effect [5], the magnetic flux from the neutron is basically not shielded. Also, impenetrable wall is a grey concept. The incident partial wave-front is either reflected or absorbed, or both. This complicates the interpretation and boundary condition, because the reflected wave-front can carry information of the surface and then interferes with the rest of the wave-front [5]. Another problem is the effect of returning flux. In order to put this problem away, Peshkin, Talmi and Tassie [8] discussed a two-solenoids arrangement as shown in Fig.I(2). According to their calculation at several angles, they concluded that the scattering of electrons would be altered even when the returning flux was taken into consideration. Exact solutions of the ideal double-flux scattering have been attempted, but the results are so far not unique [10]. The situation was properly commented by Aharonov and Bohm themselves [1], and by Tonomura [18, p.53], that none of the experiments could be regarded as an ideal confirmation of the significance of the potentials in quantum mechanics.

The literature of the last thirty-six years indicates that the connection between AB effect and quantum mechanics is so far less than perfect. The problem is associated with the special geometry, topology and boundary conditions of the AB effect.

b. Moving the field-flux away

We start our discussion with Fig.I(3). Two flux-tubes of opposite directions are put side-by-side in front of the double-slit like a dipole. The influence of a single flux-tube, if any, must be cylindrical with respect to its center. Therefore, the effects of two non-coaxial solenoids can not possibly cancel each other out completely. There should be a remaining higher-order effect for Fig.I(3). We now move the two flux-tube out, see Fig.I(4). The geometry is changed, but based on the same argument, there should be a similar higher-order effect. We estimate qualitatively what the remaining effect should look like. The A potential for Fig.I(3) has right-left symmetry. Therefore, the change of interference pattern should also carry this symmetry, and the central maximum should not move. Also, we can expect the change to be uniform since the potential is not periodic in space. The possible change to the interference pattern is demonstrated in Fig.II.

Effects from Fig.I(3) and Fig.I(4) are obviously small because the first-order effect from single flux-tube is canceled out. There is a similarity between these designs and the toroidal ferromagnet experiments by Tonomura et al. [4]. Their experiment is a good inspiration, but the effect we wish to discuss, the change of wave-length, is too small to be detected with the deposited toroidal ferromagnet. On the other hand, although their experiment is conducted with an incident plane wave, their phase-shift is measured by counting fringes in the shaded interference region. Therefore, the effect they measured is still effectively a multi-connected AB effect.

Fig.I(5) represents an experiment that is realizable and the region is simply connected. A big-enough elongated toroidal solenoid is used to cover the experimental region after the double-slit. Fig.I(5) can be viewed as the result of moving the two flux-tube away while increasing the strength of the flux. By doing so, we effectively eliminated the flux-tube in the interference region. But is the above effect of Fig.I(3) and I(4) still there?

We use another connection to the original AB effect through Fig.I(6). In Fig.I(6), only one path is covered by the toroidal solenoid. The total flux in the whole closed path is non-zero. We can see that, as a normal AB effect, there is a phase-shift in the closed path, or,
we can equivalently say that the wave-front in the right-channel travels at a different wave-length compared to the normal left-channel. Our goal is to connect this picture (Fig.I(6)) to Fig.I(5) by cutting away the left-channel. The wave-fronts in the left-channel and the right-channel are coherent. However, we can argue that, due to causality, whatever happened to one channel would not affect the propagation behavior of the other channel. After cutting away the left-channel, we assume the wave-front in the right-channel alone still travels at the changed wave-length. This change of wave-length means a potential effect (see Fig.II) for experiment of Fig.I(5). Experiments can be done in five variations, with the toroidal solenoid covers (1) all except source, (2) region after double slit, (3) double-slit and source, (4) double-slit only, (5) source only. Whether it is positive or negative, to my knowledge, this experiment of Fig.I(5) has never been reported.

So potential effect of Fig.I(5) is an effect of changing wave-length, while AB effect of Fig.I(1) is an effect of shifting the central maximum. Obviously, both effects are field-free.

c. AB effect revisited

Ten years before Aharonov and Bohm [1], Ehrenberg and Siday [2] formulated electron optics with refractive index represented by the potentials. Fig.I(1) was their Figure 3. Here, we look for a more general observable which could be named field-free electron optics, with AB effect as a special case of it. The issue turns out to be more conceptual than numerical, to begin with. The AB effect is known to inspire discussion about the importance of phase in quantum theory. Wu and Yang [11] stated that phase-factor provides complete description of the classical electromagnetic field. Aharonov and Anandan [12] discussed the problem whether there is a preferred quantum gauge or not. They cure their preferred gauge problem by including an acceleration dependent term in the Lagrangian. The phase factor of a closed path

$$u_r = \exp \left( -\frac{ie}{\hbar} \oint A_\mu dx^\mu \right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

is clearly gauge invariant. We need phase factor for open path here, so we also need to discuss the gauge invariance problem.

There are variations on the interpretation of AB effect. Zhu and Henneberger [13] introduced \( (e/c) A \) in a Coulomb gauge as the electromagnetic momentum. Therefore, in their theory, effects of vector potential look like effects of total momentum conservation. Another inspiration comes from the interpretation of Rubio, Getino and Rojo [14]. They tried to explain the AB effect as a classical electromagnetic effect. Two particles traveling on the right and left side of the solenoid, respectively, acquire different acceleration due to an equation

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = -q \frac{\partial A}{\partial t}.$$  

Our interpretation of the AB effect, in the spirit of the previous conceptual discussion in b, is:

Vector potential A causes change in local wave-vector,
scalar potential \( \phi \) causes change in local frequency.

Although the above statements sound familiar, it is different. The key word is ”local”, which means, non-topological. The standard interpretation is topological [1]. In the standard
interpretation, the potential generates a phase-factor which is not realized until partial waves of different channels meet each other with a gauge-invariant phase-difference. This complex interpretation created a gap between quantum mechanics and the AB effect. Our interpretation is actually closer to the original interpretation of Ehrenberg and Siday [2], which is sometimes called the classical interpretation.

By our interpretation, any non-trivial electromagnetic potential, $A$ or $\phi$, can cause a measurable effect on the charged particle. In particular, it support our previous analysis of the potential effect of Fig.I(5), with its result shown in Fig.II.

d. A wave-front theory The quantum mechanics we have today is actually weak, not as effective compared to Neutonian mechanics and special relativity. We are already accustomed to its approximate solutions. No matter it is solid state physics or particle physics, we always have to depend on heavy modelings to solve problems. Usually, The modelings become so complicated that they themselves become the real theories. We used to say that everything is explained by quantum mechanics, but if we count all its modelings, the size of this theory is huge and still growing. We rarely have such problems with Neutonian mechanics. Similar logic must have inspired legends like Einstein, de Broglie, Schrödinger and so on. It is not the goal of this particular paper to establish a whole new theory, though. I merely want to develop a slightly different theory, which may eventually be resolved as a modeling over quantum mechanics, or may not. The motivation is its simplicity, and its potential generality if the effect of this paper is experimentally verified.

We of course expect AB effect to be part of a larger quantum theory. Usually, the quantum mechanics is extended through modeling to interpret effects like this. We are going to do the reverse. Let us extend the above interpretation into a full theory of field-free electromagnetic interaction:

1. A particle with charge $q$ generated at point $r_0, t_0$ travels as a probability wave of amplitude $\psi$. It starts with $\nu_0 = E_0/h$, $k_0 = p_0/h$. Probability-amplitude relation is $\rho = |\psi|^2$.

2. A region filled with electromagnetic potential behaves as a media of variable index, comparable to an optical media.

$$\nu (r, t) = \nu_0 + q (\phi (r, t) - \phi (r_0, t_0)) / h, \quad (2)$$

$$k (r, t) = k_0 + q (A (r, t) - A (r_0, t_0)) / h. \quad (3)$$

3. Any scattering problem can be solved by starting from a desired wave-front, and then see how it evolves in the media of potential, using methods similar to that of optics. Non-eigenstate of total four-momentum must be first expanded into a sum of eigenstates. Result is the sum of scattering results of its components.

4. A bounded eigenstate is a state that scatters into itself.

Conservation of energy on each point means a connection to the Klein-Gordon equation (hereafter KG equation, with Dirac equation implied). The connection is as follows:

$$[\nu (r, t) h - q \phi (r, t)]^2 - [k (r, t) h - q A (r, t)]^2 = m^2$$

$$= [\nu (r_0, t_0) h - q \phi (r_0, t_0)]^2 - [k (r_0, t_0) h - q A (r_0, t_0)]^2.$$
This connection ensures the general effectiveness of this representation. Quantum mechanics stated this way seems very suitable for computer simulations of wave-front evolution. It also provides a natural interpretation of the potential effect.

We can speculate on the resemblance between this theory and more standard quantum mechanics of Schrödinger representation and path-integral representation. It is basically the conservation of a four-momentum $k_\mu \hbar -q A_\mu$. Klein-Gordon equation means the conservation of its module: the mass. So there is a difference, but no conflict. We may need correction terms for $\text{(2,3)}$ if we do not wish to expand initial states into eigenstates of total momentum. We can expect the four-momentum to rotate in the presence of field:

$$d(\hbar k^\alpha - q A^\alpha) = \frac{q}{m} \left( \partial^\alpha A^\beta - \partial^\beta A^\alpha \right) \left( \hbar k^\beta - q A^\beta \right) d\tau.$$  

The details of this complication shall be discussed separately. We return to the field-free case.

e. Gauge invariance Many people do not believe the existence of potential effect in simply connected region because they think that the result can always be “gauged out”. This is an oversimplification. The AB effect also “disappears” under certain gauge transformations [19], despite the fact that it never disappears in experiments. When a theory gives gauge-dependent prediction, it could be that the theory itself is incomplete.

In order to show the gauge invariance of our wave-front theory, we start with a potential from a gauge transformation:

$$A(r, t) = \nabla S(r, t), \quad \phi (r, t) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} S(r, t). \quad \text{(4)}$$

By calculating the phase from (2,3), we have

$$\psi = c \exp \left( \frac{iq}{\hbar} S(r, t) \right), \quad \text{(5)}$$

This is the known uncertainty to the wave-function from the gauge invariance. It also arrives naturally in this approach. We can check that the total four-momentum is gauge-invariant: for eq.(3,4), $(i\partial^\mu - q A^\mu) \psi = 0$.

We now proceed to consider our own problem: whether the wave-front theory prediction of this potential effect is gauge-invariant or not. We assume the source is at infinity and toroidal solenoid is of finite length. We can set $A$ to zero in the interference region through a gauge transformation:

$$A'(0) = A(0) + \nabla S(0) = 0.$$

But as a result of the transformation, we also have

$$S = -\int A(0) \cdot dr, \quad \Rightarrow A'(\infty) = 0 + \nabla S = -A(0).$$

This transformation does not change the potential difference between the source and the interference region, so according to (3), it does not change the prediction of potential effect of Fig.I(5).

According to this wave-front theory, the source also changes its phase under a gauge transformation. This is the reason that our prediction is gauge invariant.
We now proceed to discuss a more critical issue, the local expectation of \( E^2 - p^2 \). Let us assume that a particle is generated at point 0 and then observed at point 1, and the people operating the generator/detector have no knowledge of the local potentials. When they generate/detect a particle of frequency \( \nu \) and wave-length \( \lambda \), they may conclude that the mass is \( (h\nu)^2 - (h/\lambda)^2 \), that is, \( m_0 \) or \( m_1 \) defined as

\[
m_0^2 = (h\nu_0)^2 - (h/\lambda_0)^2, \quad m_1^2 = (h\nu_1)^2 - (h/\lambda_1)^2.
\]

Notice that generally speaking,

\[ m \neq m_0 \neq m_1, \quad (6) \]

because \( E^2 - p^2 \) and \( (E - q\phi)^2 - (p - qA)^2 \) generally do not commute. This means \( \langle E^2 \rangle_{area} - \langle p \rangle_{area}^2 \) is area dependent for an eigenstate of KG equation. It becomes important in this approach because here we seek solution from propagating wave-front. People by the detector normally need to know potential difference between point 1 and point 0 to determine its original mass from \( \lambda_1 \) and \( \nu_1 \).

Although there might not be any preferred quantum gauge, there can certainly be more convenient quantum gauges. We can reasonably choose the gauge to let the new-born particle has zero field-momentum, so that \( m_0 = m \). Following this line, it seems that we can measure the values of local potentials with respect to the particle source in a field-free case. The value and direction of \( A \) (with respect to the particle source) can be measured by a device made after Fig.I(5), the fourth equation comes from additional \( m \) measurement by trajectory radius in a magnetic field and \( h\nu \) measurement.

f. Is there an alternative to this prediction? We can think of other theoretical possibilities before the experiment. In avoiding this problem under this wave-front picture, it is possible to have an interpretation of AB effect which denies the existence of the potential effect. For the free-of-field case: (1) Wave-front propagates with wave-length \( \lambda = 2\pi/|k_0| \) in any simply connected region. (2) Multi-connected region is divided into a minimum number of simply connected sub-region. (3) When wave-fronts from two different simply connected sub-region meet and combine, their relative phase is calculated as if the wave-fronts travelled through each with \( k = k_0 + qA/h \). Notably, the Tonomura et al. experiments can also be explained by this interpretation. This interpretation puts all emphasis on geometry. It is not as natural as the previous interpretation.

g. Conclusion and numerical prediction To conclude, we find experiment of type Fig.I(5) worthwhile. The double-slit can be replaced by a single-slit, circular opening, grating, crystal surface, or even a hologram. Any method sensitive to the wave-length can be applied, since the region is simply connected. The scalar version of this effect should be designed carefully so that no field is introduced. In an ideal design similar to Fig.I(5), no change of interference should happen to a changing \( V(t) \). The dual Aharonov-Casher like potential effect is also possible with neutron interferometry, with result Fig.II. Ideal potential effect of Fig.I(5) with a long-enough toroidal solenoid is:

\[
\Delta \left( \frac{1}{\lambda} \right) = (\text{thickness of toroidal solenoid}) \times \frac{qB}{h}.
\]

For example, 0.01m and 0.01Tesla means about 7% change to the wave-length of a 0.03Å electron. Effect on screen is basically the same as the result of moving the screen for-
ward/backward by the same percentage. At certain value of B, the interference pattern would disappear.

This effect should have important theoretical consequence. (1) There will be no need to test AB effect separately, it is implied. (2) The wave-front theory mentioned here may become a major representation of quantum theory. (3) Due to the simplicity and generality of this effect, it can have much wider application compared to that of AB effect in condensed matter physics and electron optics. A classical particle is not influenced by a curl-free vector potential because $\delta(r)$ contains equal amount of all wave-vectors. So there is no conflict with classical electrodynamics.
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FIGURE CAPTIONS

Fig. 1: (1) AB effect. (2) Peshkin et al.’s discussion about returning flux. (3-4) There should be a higher order effect remaining, which can be magnified into: (5) The title effect of this letter. (6) Cutting away the left channel should not affect the propagation property of the right.

Fig. 2: Results of ideal double-slit.
dotted: AB effect
circle: Potential effect of Fig.1(5)

Intensity on screen