

## Control of the laser-induced vacuum decay by electronic phases

D. D. Su,<sup>1</sup> C. K. Li,<sup>2</sup> Q. Su,<sup>3</sup> and R. Grobe<sup>3</sup><sup>1</sup>Key Laboratory for Laser Plasmas and Department of Physics and Astronomy, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, Shanghai 200240, China<sup>2</sup>State Key Laboratory for GeoMechanics and Deep Underground Engineering,

China University of Mining and Technology, Beijing 100083, China

<sup>3</sup>Intense Laser Physics Theory Unit and Department of Physics, Illinois State University, Normal, Illinois 61790-4560, USA

(Received 5 January 2022; accepted 4 April 2022; published xxxxxxxxx)

We examine the laser-assisted electron-positron pair-creation process from the quantum vacuum in the presence of a binding potential with one optically active bound electron. If this core electron is initially prepared in a coherent superposition state of two resonant bound states, the electronic phase properties between both state excitations can be transferred to the positron during the pair-creation process. For example, the periodic Rabi population exchange between both electronic states modulates the temporal growth of the pair-creation probability and also leads to an Autler-Townes split positron energy spectra. Even more astonishing, for the case of different phases, for which the internal electronic dynamics (in the absence of pair creation) is identical, the positron's creation probability is different, suggesting that the vacuum decay process can "sense" the phase and not just the occupation number of the core electron. The field theoretical model of the laser assisted pair-creation process with subsequent electron capture can be mapped exactly onto two mutually independent (single-electron) ionization-like processes. This mathematical equivalency permits us to derive analytical solutions for the time evolution of the vacuum decay process under the rotating-wave approximation.

DOI: 10.1103/PhysRevA.00.003100

There are two main and independent mechanisms in quantum electrodynamics by which two fermions can affect each other. The first mode of interaction is based on a direct exchange of photons, leading to the Coulomb force in the classical limit. The second mode is based on the Pauli exclusion principle, which prohibits any multiple occupation of a fermionic quantum state. Here the resulting Pauli blocking provides an alternative avenue by which the presence of one fermion can affect the state of another fermion without relying on any photons. To include the photonic exchange into quantum field theoretical descriptions is often difficult. For example, in nearly all models of the strong-field induced vacuum decay processes [1], where an external electromagnetic (or static electric) field is predicted to break down the quantum vacuum and create electron-positron pairs [2], the complicated photon-fermion couplings are approximated by the classical field approximation. Here only the Pauli-blocking mechanism induces multiparticle correlations. A well-known example of such a blocking effect is the Klein paradox [3,4], where an initial electron that has been injected into the spatially localized supercritical electric field region can suppress the positron creation probability during the scattering process, as the required final states of the associated created electron are already initially occupied (blocked) by the scattering electron.

In this paper, we suggest that, in addition to photon exchanges or the occupation number-based Pauli blocking, there is a third and nontrivial mechanism by which an already existing electron can modify the dynamics of the field-induced vacuum decay process. It turns out that the temporal growth

pattern of the created electron-positron pairs can even be controlled by the *phase* information of this electron [5–7].

In order to illustrate this phase transfer mechanism in its simplest possible form, we examine the vacuum's decay in the presence of a highly charged nucleus, which carries an initial core electron (see Fig. 1) and can capture the created electrons. If this core electron is prepared in a coherent superposition of the nucleus' two resonant bound states, the electronic phase properties between both state excitations can be transferred to the positron during the pair-creation process beyond the usual (occupation number-based) Pauli-blocking mechanism [8]. In fact, the vacuum can even distinguish between those electronic phases that lead to identical occupation numbers, and (in the absence of pair creation) would preserve these occupation numbers at all times.

Let us begin our discussion by specifying the dynamics of the core electron in the *absence* of any pair creation. Here we assume that this optically active electron is initially prepared in the linear superposition quantum state  $[\exp(i\phi)|1\rangle + |2\rangle]2^{-1/2}$  of the ground state  $|1\rangle$  of energy  $E_1$  and the first excited state  $|2\rangle$  of energy  $E_2$ . The corresponding time dependence of the amplitudes under the action of the resonant laser field for the state  $C_1(t)|1\rangle + C_2(t)|2\rangle$  is described by the well-known [9,10] two-level equations  $i\hbar dC_1/dt = E_1 C_1 + \hbar\Omega_0 \sin(\omega t) C_2$  and  $i\hbar dC_2/dt = E_2 C_2 + \hbar\Omega_0 \sin(\omega t) C_1$ , where  $\Omega_0$  denotes the product of the electric field amplitude and the coupling strength between the two states. If we assume full resonance,  $E_2 - E_1 = \hbar\omega$ , the evolution of the occupation number  $|C_1(t)|^2$  depends crucially on the choice of the electron's initial phase  $\phi$  relative to the initial

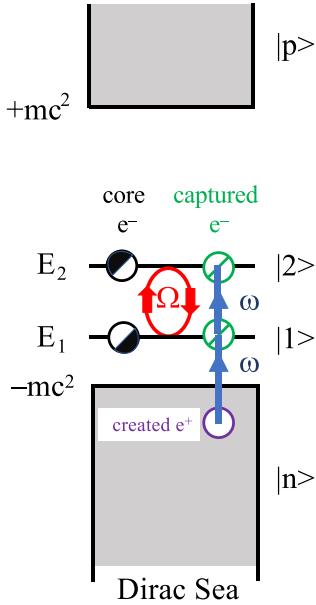


FIG. 1. The relevant continuum and discrete energy levels describing the laser field-induced electron-positron creation process from the quantum vacuum in the presence of a nuclear potential, which supports two bound states. While the created positron (hole in the Dirac sea) can escape to infinity, the associated created electron (green circle) is captured by the nucleus, which binds already one resonantly driven core electron (black circle). The parameters in our numerical simulations are  $E_1 = -0.9 mc^2$ ,  $E_2 = -0.4 mc^2$  and the laser's time dependence is given by  $\Omega(t) = \Omega_0 \sin(\omega t)$  with (scaled) amplitude  $\Omega_0 = 0.005 mc^2/\hbar$  and frequency  $\omega = 0.5 mc^2/\hbar$ .

phase of the laser field, as we illustrate in Fig. 2 for the four choices:  $\phi = 0, \pi/2, \pi$ , and  $3\pi/2$ .

The direct comparison with the probabilities obtained from the rotating-wave approximation (RWA) shows that this

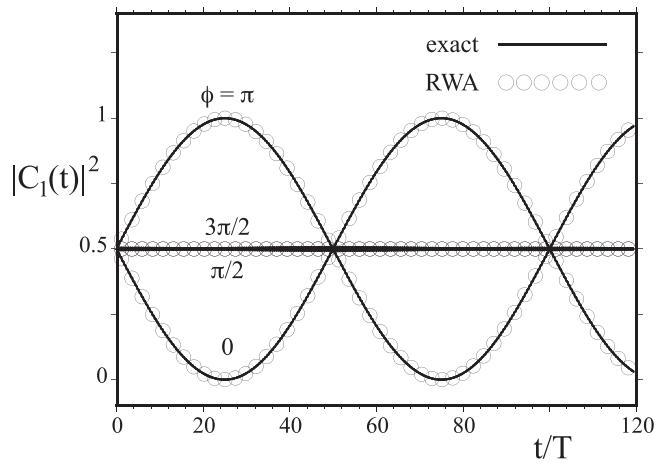


FIG. 2. The time evolution of the probability  $|C_1(t)|^2$  to find the core electron in state  $|1\rangle$ . For the initial excitation amplitudes we chose  $C_1(t=0) = \exp(i\phi)/2^{1/2}$  and  $C_2(t=0) = 1/2^{1/2}$ , with the four phases  $\phi = 0, \pi/2, \pi$ , and  $3\pi/2$ . The predictions based on the rotating-wave approximation are indicated by the open circles. The time is in units of the laser period  $T = 2\pi/\omega$  with all parameters as in Fig. 1.

assumption is valid for our parameters. In fact, here we would derive  $|c_1(t)|^2 = [1 - \sin(\Omega_0 t)]/2$ ,  $1/2$ ,  $[1 + \sin(\Omega_0 t)]/2$  and  $1/2$ , for the four choices:  $\phi = 0, \pi/2, \pi$ , and  $3\pi/2$ , respectively. We have used the lowercase letter  $c_1$  for the rotating frame. We note that the constant population  $|c_1(t)|^2 = 1/2$  for  $\phi = \pi/2$  (and similarly for  $3\pi/2$ ) can be explained by the fact that this initial state matches exactly one of the two dressed states, and not a superposition of both.

Next, we include the vacuum decay process, where we assume that the created electron can be captured by the bound state  $|1\rangle$ , while the associated created positron can escape to infinity. If the vacuum's decay rate is less than  $\Omega_0$ , then at early times the pair-creation process affects the dynamics of the core electron only minimally. This means that the created electrons find their final state partially occupied with a time-dependent occupation number  $|c_1(t)|^2$ . If the Pauli blocking was the only interaction mode between the initially bound core electron and the vacuum decay process, then this mechanism would suggest that for times close to a quarter of the Rabi period  $\pi/(2\Omega_0)$  the initial electronic phase  $\phi = 0$  would *increase* the positron creation probability as the blocking population (proportional to  $|c_1(t)|^2$ ) decreases. Similarly, the initial increase of  $|c_1(t)|^2$  for the other phase  $\phi = \pi$  should *decrease* the positron creation. The most important question in this paper, however, is whether the positron's creation probability can even detect any difference between those two phase choices ( $\phi = \pi/2$  and  $3\pi/2$ ), for which the “Pauli-blocking” occupation number  $|c_1(t)|^2 = 1/2$  is identical and even remains so at all times.

To address this intriguing question, we have to change from the simple quantum-mechanical approach, which was sufficient to describe the single-particle dynamics of the core electron, to a fully quantum field theoretical formalism in order to predict the vacuum decay process. In the framework of computational quantum field theory [11], all dynamical features of the pair-creation process are modeled by the electron-positron field operator  $\Psi$ , whose space-time evolution is obtained by the Dirac equation  $i\hbar \partial \Psi / \partial t = H\Psi$ , with the usual Hamiltonian [1] given by

$$H = c \boldsymbol{\alpha} \cdot [\mathbf{p} - e \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}, t)/c] + mc^2 \boldsymbol{\beta} + eV(\mathbf{r}). \quad (1)$$

The energy eigenstates of the Hamiltonian  $H_0 \equiv c \boldsymbol{\alpha} \cdot \mathbf{p} + mc^2 \boldsymbol{\beta} + eV(\mathbf{r})$  in the absence of the time-dependent field  $\mathbf{A}$ , defined by  $H_0|\alpha\rangle = E_\alpha|\alpha\rangle$ , can be categorized according to their energy into three groups. If  $E_\alpha \geq mc^2$ , we denote these positive continuum energy states as  $|p\rangle$ , if their energy is inside the mass gap  $-mc^2 < E_\alpha < mc^2$ , we denote these discrete electronic bound states as  $|i\rangle$ , and if their energy  $E_\alpha \leq -mc^2$  is part of the negative energy continuum, we denote these states as  $|n\rangle$ . If we introduce the sets of (anticommuting) creation operators  $(B_p^\dagger, B_i^\dagger, D_n^\dagger)$  and annihilation operators  $(B_p, B_i, D_n)$  associated with these states, the mode expansion of the quantum field operator is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi(t) &= \sum_p B_p(t)|p\rangle + \sum_i B_i(t)|i\rangle + \sum_n D_n(t)^\dagger|n\rangle \\ &= \sum_p B_p|p(t)\rangle + \sum_i B_i|i(t)\rangle + \sum_n D_n^\dagger|n(t)\rangle, \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where  $|\alpha(t)\rangle$  is the single-particle solution to  $i\hbar \partial|\alpha(t)\rangle / \partial t = H|\alpha(t)\rangle$  with the initial state  $|\alpha(t=0)\rangle = \alpha$ . We note that this particular mode expansion is different from the traditional

141 approach [11], where one usually uses field-free states of  $H_0$   
 142 with  $\mathbf{A} = V = 0$ , labeled by their (conserved) momentum. If  
 143 we use the orthogonality among the dressed eigenstates, we  
 144 can find for the time evolution of the operators

$$B_p(t) = \Sigma_{p'} B_{p'} \langle p | p'(t) \rangle + \Sigma_i B_i \langle p | i(t) \rangle + \Sigma_n D_n^\dagger \langle p | n(t) \rangle, \quad (3a)$$

$$B_i(t) = \Sigma_{p'} B_{p'} \langle i | p'(t) \rangle + \Sigma_{i'} B_{i'} \langle i | i'(t) \rangle + \Sigma_n D_n^\dagger \langle i | n(t) \rangle, \quad (3b)$$

$$D_n(t)^\dagger = \Sigma_{p'} B_{p'} \langle n | p'(t) \rangle + \Sigma_i B_i \langle n | i(t) \rangle + \Sigma_{n'} D_{n'}^\dagger \langle n | n'(t) \rangle. \quad (3c)$$

145 We see that the matrix elements  $U_{\alpha',\alpha}(t) \equiv \langle \alpha' | \alpha(t) \rangle$  of the  
 146 unitary time evolution operator are the basic building blocks  
 147 of computational quantum field theory.

148 The initial quantum field theoretical state is given  
 149 here by the superposition  $|\Phi(t=0)\rangle = [B_1^\dagger \exp(i\phi) +$   
 150  $B_2^\dagger] 2^{-1/2} |\text{vac}\rangle$ . Here  $|\text{vac}\rangle$  denotes the vacuum state,  
 151 defined as  $B_p |\text{vac}\rangle = B_i |\text{vac}\rangle = D_n |\text{vac}\rangle = 0$ . In its  
 152 quantum-mechanical (single-particle) analog, the field  
 153 theoretical state  $|\Phi(t=0)\rangle$  would correspond to the  
 154 one-electron quantum state given by the superposition  
 155  $[\exp(i\phi)|1\rangle + |2\rangle]/2^{1/2}$  as discussed above.

156 The total number of electrons  $N(e^-, t)$  and positrons  
 157  $N(e^+, t)$  follow from the quantum field theoretical expectation  
 158 values:

$$N(e^-, t) = \langle \Phi(t=0) | \Sigma_p B_p(t)^\dagger B_p(t) + \Sigma_i B_i(t)^\dagger B_i(t) | \Phi(t=0) \rangle, \quad (4a)$$

$$N(e^+, t) = \langle \Phi(t=0) | \Sigma_n D_n(t)^\dagger D_n(t) | \Phi(t=0) \rangle, \quad (4b)$$

159 where we consistently have  $N(e^-, t) = N(e^+, t) + 1$  as the  
 160 result of the total charge conservation. If we insert the specific  
 161 initial state  $|\Phi(t=0)\rangle = [B_1^\dagger \exp(i\phi) + B_2^\dagger] 2^{-1/2} |\text{vac}\rangle$  into  
 162 these expressions and use the solutions Eqs. (3), we obtain  
 163  $N(e^-, t) = N(e^-, 1, t) + N(e^-, 2, t) + \Sigma p \Sigma n |U_{pn}(t)|^2/2$ , where  
 164 the occupation numbers of the two electronic bound states  $|1\rangle$   
 165 and  $|2\rangle$  can be derived as

$$N(e^-, 1, t) \equiv \langle \Phi(0) | B_1(t)^\dagger B_1(t) | \Phi(0) \rangle = |\exp(i\phi) U_{1,1}(t) + U_{1,2}(t)|^2/2 + \Sigma_n |U_{1,n}(t)|^2, \quad (5a)$$

$$N(e^-, 2, t) \equiv \langle \Phi(0) | B_2(t)^\dagger B_2(t) | \Phi(0) \rangle = |\exp(i\phi) U_{2,1}(t) + U_{2,2}(t)|^2/2 + \Sigma_n |U_{2,n}(t)|^2. \quad (5b)$$

166 These expressions rely on all transition matrix elements  
 167  $U_{\alpha,n}(t)$  and  $U_{\alpha,i}(t)$  and therefore illustrate the complex  
 168 many-body character of the vacuum. For example, in this  
 169 description, the vacuum state is formally described by all  
 170 states  $|n\rangle$  with energy  $E < -mc^2$  to be initially fully occupied  
 171 (see the Dirac sea in Fig. 1).

172 If we assume that the nucleus is highly charged such that  
 173 the two electronic states are deeply bound, we can neglect the  
 174 creation of any uncaptured electrons, i.e.,  $\Sigma p \Sigma n |U_{pn}(t)|^2 \approx$   
 175 0 and the total number of created positrons can be obtained  
 176 as  $N(e^+, t) = N(e^-, 1, t) + N(e^-, 2, t) - 1$ . Furthermore, due

177 to the resulting completeness of the basis states, we have  
 178  $\Sigma_n |U_{1,n}(t)|^2 = 1 - |U_{1,1}(t)| - |U_{1,2}(t)|^2$ , such that we derive for  
 179 the two occupation numbers the final remarkably simple ex-  
 180 pressions:

$$N(e^-, 1, t; \phi) = 1 - |\exp(i\phi) U_{1,1}(t) - U_{1,2}(t)|^2/2, \quad (6a)$$

$$N(e^-, 2, t; \phi) = 1 - |\exp(i\phi) U_{2,1}(t) - U_{2,2}(t)|^2/2. \quad (6b)$$

181 As the computation of the time evolution of each of the  
 182 continuum energy states  $|n(t)\rangle$  is no longer required, the  
 183 vacuum decay can be obtained solely from the time evo-  
 184 lution of the two initial states  $|1\rangle$  and  $|2\rangle$ . This means we  
 185 have successfully mapped the vacuum decay process to the  
 186 (mathematically fully equivalent) description in terms of two  
 187 mutually independent (single-electron) “ionization-like” pro-  
 188 cesses with two different sets of initial conditions. We use  
 189 the initial conditions  $\{C_1(0) = 1, C_2(0) = 0\}$  to determine  
 190  $\{U_{1,1}(t), U_{2,1}(t)\} = \{C_1(t), C_2(t)\}$  and the second set  $\{C_1(0) =$   
 191  $0, C_2(0) = 1\}$  to determine  $\{U_{1,2}(t), U_{2,2}(t)\} = \{C_1(t), C_2(t)\}$ . Note that the knowledge of the important phase  $\phi$  (characteristic  
 192 of the quantum field theoretical initial state) is *not required*  
 193 at this particular first calculational stage.

194 The required set of amplitudes can be obtained as solutions  
 195 to the following set of Dirac equations:

$$i\hbar dC_2(t)/dt = E_2 C_2(t) + \hbar \Omega_0 \sin(\omega t) C_1(t), \quad (7a)$$

$$i\hbar dC_1(t)/dt = E_1 C_1(t) + \hbar \Omega_0 \sin(\omega t) C_2(t) + \int_{-\infty}^{-mc^2} dE \sin(\omega t) \kappa(E) C_E(t), \quad (7b)$$

$$i\hbar dC_E(t)/dt = E C_E(t) + \sin(\omega t) \kappa(E) C_1(t), \quad (7c)$$

196 where the energy-dependent factor  $\kappa(E) =$   
 197  $\kappa_0 [1 + (E + mc^2)^2 / (m^2 c^4)]^{-1}$  models the density of the  
 198 negative continuum states and their coupling strength to the  
 199 ground state. We also neglected any multiphoton transitions.

200 In Fig. 3 we present our main results. We show the resulting  
 201 number of created positrons  $N(e^+, t; \phi) = N(e^-, 1, t; \phi) +$   
 202  $N(e^-, 2, t; \phi) - 1$  as a function of time for the four differently  
 203 prepared superposition states of the initial core electron.

204 The observed largest growth of the positron number  
 205  $N(e^+, t)$  occurs for the phase  $\phi = 0$ . This is fully consistent  
 206 with our expectation as here the Rabi oscillation depletes  
 207 the level  $|1\rangle$ ; therefore, the amount of the Pauli blocking de-  
 208 creases, which increases the capture probability for the created  
 209 electron. The opposite pattern is observed for  $\phi = \pi$ , where  
 210 the growth of the positron’s creation probability  $N(e^+, t; \phi =$   
 211  $\pi)$  comes even momentarily to a halt after a time of about  
 212  $\pi / (2\Omega_0)$ , when the occupation number of the ground state  
 213  $|c_1(t)|^2$  approaches unity and we have perfect Pauli blocking.

214 For this paper, the most important observation is that  
 215  $N(e^+, t; \phi)$  is *different* for those two phases ( $\phi = \pi/2$  and  
 216  $\phi = 3\pi/2$ ), which originally led to an *identical occupation*  
 217  $|c_1(t)|^2 = 1/2$  for  $\kappa_0 = 0$  (see Fig. 2). This unexpected re-  
 218 sponse suggests that—even if the underlying Pauli-blocking  
 219 strength is identical—the decay of the quantum vacuum  
 220 state can “sense” the electronic phase  $\phi$ . Quite interestingly,  
 221 while for  $\kappa_0 = 0$  the solution  $|c_1(t)|^2 = 1/2$  is valid for any

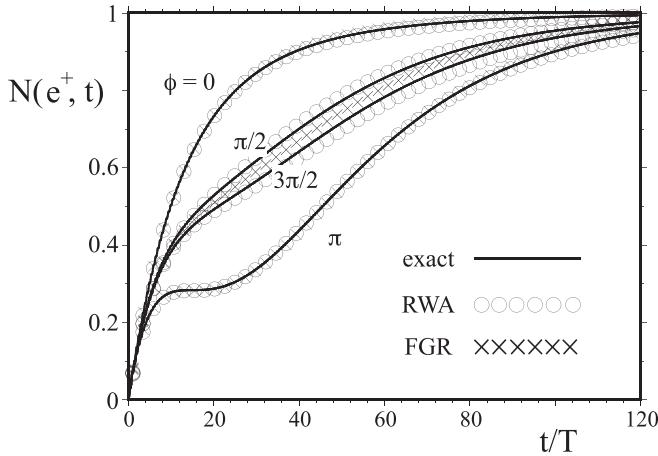


FIG. 3. The time dependence of the created positrons as a function of time (in units of the laser period  $T = 2\pi/\omega$ )  $N(e^+, t) = N(e^-, 1, t) + N(e^-, 2, t) - 1$ . Here the initially bound electron was in the superposition state  $[\exp(i\phi)|1\rangle + |2\rangle]/2^{1/2}$  with four different initial phases  $\phi$ . All other parameters as in Fig. 1, except that  $\kappa_0 = 0.1 m^{1/2}c$ . The open circles represent the predictions based on the rotating-wave approximation and the crosses are the analytical predictions based on Fermi golden rule given by Eqs. (6) and (9), where the vacuum decay constant is  $\Gamma \equiv 2\pi[\kappa(E_r)/2]^2/\hbar$ , with  $E_r = -1.4 mc^2$ .

223  $\Omega_0$ , the detected difference between  $N(e^+, t; \phi = \pi/2)$  and  
 224  $N(e^+, t; \phi = 3\pi/2)$  does depend on  $\Omega_0$ . This reflects the crucial  
 225 importance of the time dependence of the actual *phase* of  
 226 the complex amplitude  $c_1(t) = \exp[i\phi(t)]2^{-1/2}$  in contrast to  
 227 the mere occupation number  $|c_1(t)|^2$ .

228 In order to shine some more light on this observed  
 229 phase dependence, we examine its robustness with regard to  
 230 two standard theoretical approximation schemes. In Fig. 3  
 231 the exact predictions for  $N(e^+, t; \phi)$  were compared with  
 232 those obtained based on the rotating-wave approximation to  
 233 Eqs. (7). The good agreement of the data in Fig. 3 (especially  
 234 for  $\phi = 0$  and  $\phi = \pi$ ) suggests that the RWA can describe the  
 235 positron number  $N(e^+, t; \phi)$  very well.

236 The third set of comparative data (crosses) was obtained  
 237 under the additional single-pole (Fermi golden rule) approxi-  
 238 mation, which permits even a fully analytical solution for  
 239  $N(e^+, t; \phi)$ . If we solve Eq. (7c) under the RWA for  $c_E(t)$   
 240 as a function of  $c_1(t)$ , and insert this solution into the RWA  
 241 version of Eq. (7b), we obtain the set of integrodifferential  
 242 equations:

$$i\hbar dc_2/dt = -\hbar\Omega_0/(2i)c_1(t), \quad (8a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} i\hbar dc_1/dt &= -\hbar\Omega_0/(2i)c_2(t) + \kappa_0^2/(4i\hbar) \\ &\times \int_{-\infty}^{-mc^2} dE \rho(E) \int_0^t d\tau \\ &\times \exp[-i(E - E_r)(t - \tau)/\hbar] c_1(\tau), \end{aligned} \quad (8b)$$

243 where the resonant continuum energy is  $E_r \equiv E_1 - \hbar\omega$ . Under  
 244 the usual single-pole approximation, we can assume  
 245 that the integration kernel in Eq. (8b) is real and propor-  
 246 tional to  $\hbar\pi\delta(t - \tau)$ . This simplifies Eq. (8b) to  $i\hbar dc_1/dt =$   
 247  $\hbar\Omega_0/(2i)c_2(t) - i\hbar\Gamma/2 c_1(t)$ , where the Fermi golden rule  
 248 (FGR) inverse timescale  $\Gamma \equiv 2\pi(\kappa(E_r)/2)^2/\hbar$  is the vac-  
 249 uum's decay rate. The resulting set of two coupled equations  
 250 can be solved analytically, leading to

$$u_{1,1}(t) = \exp(-\Gamma t/4)[\cos(\Omega t/2) - \Gamma \sin(\Omega t/2)/(2\Omega)], \quad (9a)$$

$$u_{1,2}(t) = u_{2,1}(t) = \exp(-\Gamma t/4)\Omega_0 \sin(\Omega t/2)/\Omega, \quad (9b)$$

$$u_{2,2}(t) = \exp(-\Gamma t/4)[\cos(\Omega t/2) + \Gamma \sin(\Omega t/2)/(2\Omega)], \quad (9c)$$

251 where the vacuum decay process modifies the Rabi fre-  
 252 quency to  $\Omega \equiv [\Omega_0^2 - (\Gamma/2)^2]^{1/2}$ . While these analytical  
 253 solutions (crosses in Fig. 3) approximate  $N(e^+, t; \phi = 0)$   
 254 and  $N(e^+, t; \phi = \pi)$  remarkably well, they incorrectly pre-  
 255 dict  $N(e^+, t; \phi = \pi/2) = N(e^+, t; \phi = 3\pi/2)$ . This means  
 256 that the important observed sensitivity of the vacuum, to  
 257 be able to distinguish between the two phases  $\phi = \pi/2$   
 258 and  $3\pi/2$ , has disappeared under this standard (FGR) ap-  
 259 proximation, which is usually rather accurate in ionization  
 260 applications. This sheds also some light on the dynamical  
 261 significance of the imaginary part of the integration kernel in  
 262 Eq. (8b).

263 In summary, as this study has introduced a phase-based  
 264 mechanism by which a coherently prepared electron can af-  
 265 fect the vacuum decay process, it provides naturally many  
 266 challenges. For example, as the phase  $\phi$  has a clear temporal  
 267 impact on  $N(e^+, t)$ , we would also expect energetic impli-  
 268 cations with regard to the positronic spectrum beyond the  
 269 Autler-Townes splitting [12–14], by which the core electron's  
 270 coherence manifests itself in the positron's momenta and an-  
 271 gular distributions as well as other electron-positron and likely  
 272 spin-related correlation properties.

273 This work has been supported by the U.S. National Sci-  
 274 ence Foundation (Grant No. PHY-2106585), the National Key  
 275 R&D program (Grant No. 2018YFA0404802), and the NSFC  
 276 (Grant No. 11974419) of China.

277 Both D.D.S. and C.K.L. are co-first authors.

[1] W. Greiner, B. Müller, and J. Rafelski, *Quantum Electrodynamics of Strong Fields* (Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 1985).  
 [2] For a review, see B. S. Xie, Z. L. Li, and S. Tang, *Mat. Rad. Extrem.* **2**, 225 (2017).  
 [3] N. Dombey and A. Calogeracos, *Phys. Rep.* **315**, 41 (1999).  
 [4] P. Krekora, Q. Su, and R. Grobe, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **92**, 040406 (2004).

[5] J. Braß, R. Milbradt, S. Villalba-Chávez, G. G. Paulus, and C. Müller, *Phys. Rev. A* **101**, 043401 (2020).  
 [6] M. Han, P. Ge, Y. Shao, Q. Gong, and Y. Liu, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **120**, 073202 (2018).  
 [7] M. Han, P. Ge, J. Wang, Z. Guo, Y. Fang, X. Ma, X. Yu, Y. Deng, H. J. Wörner, Q. Gong, and Y. Liu, *Nat. Photonics* **15**, 765 (2021).

- [8] P. Krekora, K. Cooley, Q. Su, and R. Grobe, [Phys. Rev. Lett.](#) **95**, 070403 (2005).
- [9] L. Allen and J. H. Eberly, *Optical Resonance and Two-level Atoms* (John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1975).
- [10] For a review, see, e.g., C. C. Gerry and P. L. Knight, *Introductory Quantum Optics* (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 2004); online, 2012.
- [11] T. Cheng, Q. Su, and R. Grobe, [Cont. Phys.](#) **51**, 315 (2010).
- [12] C. Müller and A. B. Voitkiv, [Phys. Rev. Lett.](#) **107**, 013001 (2011).
- [13] D. D. Su, Y. T. Li, Q. Su, and R. Grobe, [Phys. Rev. D](#) **103**, 074513 (2021).
- [14] C. Müller, A. B. Voitkiv, and N. Grün, [Phys. Rev. Lett.](#) **91**, 223601 (2003).