Hydrogen Atoms Facilitate Superconductivity

An international team of researchers has discovered the hydrogen atoms in a metal hydride material are much more tightly spaced than had been predicted for decades—a feature that could possibly facilitate superconductivity at or near room temperature and pressure. [21]

That's why physicists at the U.S. Department of Energy's (DOE) Brookhaven National Laboratory studying a well-known cuprate containing layers made of bismuth oxide, strontium oxide, calcium, and copper oxide (BSCCO) decided to focus on the less complicated "overdoped" side, doping the material so much so that superconductivity eventually disappears. [20]

Scientists at the U.S. Department of Energy's Ames Laboratory have developed a method to accurately measure the "exact edge" or onset at which a magnetic field enters a superconducting material. [19]

TU Wien has now made a major advance towards achieving this goal and, at the same time, has furthered an understanding of why conventional materials only become superconducting at around -200°C [18]

The emerging field of spintronics leverages electron spin and magnetization. [17]

The first known superconductor in which spin-3/2 quasiparticles form Cooper pairs has been created by physicists in the US and New Zealand. [16]

Now a team of researchers from the University of Maryland (UMD) Department of Physics together with collaborators has seen exotic superconductivity that relies on highly unusual electron interactions. [15]

A group of researchers from institutions in Korea and the United States has determined how to employ a type of electron microscopy to cause regions within an iron-based superconductor to flip between superconducting and non-superconducting states. [14]

In new research, scientists at the University of Minnesota used a first-of-its-kind device to demonstrate a way to control the direction of the photocurrent without deploying an electric voltage. [13]

Brown University researchers have demonstrated for the first time a method of substantially changing the spatial coherence of light. [12]

Researchers at the University of Central Florida have generated what is being deemed the fastest light pulse ever developed. [11]

Physicists at Chalmers University of Technology and Free University of Brussels have now found a method to significantly enhance optical force. [10]

Nature Communications today published research by a team comprising Scottish and South African researchers, demonstrating entanglement swapping and teleportation of orbital angular momentum 'patterns' of light. [9]

While physicists are continually looking for ways to unify the theory of relativity, which describes large-scale phenomena, with quantum theory, which describes small-scale phenomena, computer scientists are searching for technologies to build the quantum computer using Quantum Information.

In August 2013, the achievement of "fully deterministic" quantum teleportation, using a hybrid technique, was reported. On 29 May 2014, scientists announced a reliable way of transferring data by quantum teleportation. Quantum teleportation of data had been done before but with highly unreliable methods.

The accelerating electrons explain not only the Maxwell Equations and the Special Relativity, but the Heisenberg Uncertainty Relation, the Wave-Particle Duality and the electron's spin also, building the Bridge between the Classical and Quantum Theories.

The Planck Distribution Law of the electromagnetic oscillators explains the electron/proton mass rate and the Weak and Strong Interactions by the diffraction patterns. The Weak Interaction changes the diffraction patterns by moving the electric charge from one side to the other side of the diffraction pattern, which violates the CP and Time reversal symmetry.

The diffraction patterns and the locality of the self-maintaining electromagnetic potential explains also the Quantum Entanglement, giving it as a natural part of the Relativistic Quantum Theory and making possible to build the Quantum Computer with the help of Quantum Information.

Contents

Author: George Rajna

Preface

While physicists are continually looking for ways to unify the theory of relativity, which describes large-scale phenomena, with quantum theory, which describes small-scale phenomena, computer scientists are searching for technologies to build the quantum computer.

Australian engineers detect in real-time the quantum spin properties of a pair of atoms inside a silicon chip, and disclose new method to perform quantum logic operations between two atoms. [5]

Quantum entanglement is a physical phenomenon that occurs when pairs or groups of particles are generated or interact in ways such that the quantum state of each particle cannot be described independently – instead, a quantum state may be given for the system as a whole. [4]

I think that we have a simple bridge between the classical and quantum mechanics by understanding the Heisenberg Uncertainty Relations. It makes clear that the particles are not point like but have a dx and dp uncertainty.

Closely spaced hydrogen atoms could facilitate superconductivity in ambient conditions

An international team of researchers has discovered the hydrogen atoms in a metal hydride material are much more tightly spaced than had been predicted for decades—a feature that could possibly facilitate superconductivity at or near room temperature and pressure.

Such a superconducting material, carrying electricity without any energy loss due to resistance, would revolutionize energy efficiency in a broad range of consumer and industrial applications.

The scientists conducted neutron scattering experiments at the Department of Energy's Oak Ridge National Laboratory on samples of zirconium vanadium hydride at atmospheric pressure and at temperatures from -450 degrees Fahrenheit (5 K) to as high as -10 degrees Fahrenheit (250 K)—much higher than the temperatures where superconductivity is expected to occur in these conditions.

Their findings, published in the *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, detail the first observations of such small hydrogen-hydrogen atomic distances in the metal hydride, as small as 1.6 angstroms, compared to the 2.1 angstrom distances predicted for these metals.

This interatomic arrangement is remarkably promising since the hydrogen contained in metals affects their electronic properties. Other materials with similar hydrogen arrangements have been found to start superconducting, but only at very high pressures.

The research team included scientists from the Empa research institute (Swiss Federal Laboratories for Materials Science and Technology), the University of Zurich, Polish Academy of Sciences, the University of Illinois at Chicago, and ORNL.

"Some of the most promising 'high-temperature' superconductors, such as lanthanum decahydride, can start superconducting at about 8.0 degrees Fahrenheit, but unfortunately also require enormous pressures as high as 22 million pounds per square inch, or nearly 1,400 times the pressure exerted by water at the deepest part of Earth's deepest ocean," said Russell J. Hemley, Professor and Distinguished Chair in the Natural Sciences at the University of Illinois at Chicago. "For decades, the 'holy grail' for scientists has been to find or make a material that superconducts at room temperature and atmospheric pressure, which would allow engineers to design it into conventional electrical systems and devices. We're hopeful that an inexpensive, stable metal like zirconium vanadium hydride can be tailored to provide just such a superconducting material."

Researchers had probed the hydrogen interactions in the well-studied metal hydride with high-resolution, inelastic neutron vibrational spectroscopy on the VISION beamline at ORNL's Spallation Neutron Source. However, the resulting spectral signal, including a prominent peak at around 50 millielectronvolts, did not agree with what the models predicted.

The breakthrough in understanding occurred after the team began working with the Oak Ridge Leadership Computing Facility to develop a strategy for evaluating the data. The OLCF at the time was home to Titan, one of the world's fastest supercomputers, a Cray XK7 system that operated at speeds up to 27 petaflops (27 quadrillion floating point operations per second).

"ORNL is the only place in the world that boasts both a world-leading neutron source and one of the world's fastest supercomputers," said Timmy Ramirez-Cuesta, team lead for ORNL's chemical spectroscopy team. "Combining the capabilities of these facilities allowed us to compile the neutron spectroscopy data and devise a way to calculate the origin of the anomalous signal we encountered. It took an ensemble of 3,200 individual simulations, a massive task that occupied around 17% of Titan's immense processing capacity for nearly a week—something a conventional computer would have required ten to twenty years to do."

These computer simulations, along with additional experiments ruling out alternative explanations, proved conclusively that the unexpected spectral intensity occurs only when distances between hydrogen atoms are closer than 2.0 angstroms, which had never been observed in a metal hydride at ambient pressure and temperature. The team's findings represent the first known exception to the Switendick criterion in a bimetallic alloy, a rule that holds for stable hydrides at ambient temperature and pressure the hydrogen-hydrogen distance is never less than 2.1 angstroms.

"An important question is whether or not the observed effect is limited specifically to zirconium vanadium hydride," said Andreas Borgschulte, group leader for hydrogen spectroscopy at Empa. "Our calculations for the material—when excluding the Switendick limit—were able to reproduce the peak, supporting the notion that in vanadium hydride, hydrogen-hydrogen pairs with distances below 2.1 angstroms do occur."

In future experiments, the researchers plan to add more hydrogen to zirconium vanadium hydride at various pressures to evaluate the material's potential for electrical conductivity. ORNL's Summit supercomputer—which at 200 petaflops is over 7 times faster than Titan and since June 2018 has been No. 1 on the TOP500 List, a semiannual ranking of the world's fastest computing systems—could provide the additional computing power that will be required to analyze these new experiments. [21]

Making high-temperature superconductivity disappear to understand its origin

When there are several processes going on at once, establishing cause-and-effect relationships is difficult. This scenario holds true for a class of high-temperature superconductors known as the cuprates. Discovered nearly 35 years ago, these copper-oxygen compounds can conduct electricity without resistance under certain conditions. They must be chemically modified ("doped") with additional atoms that introduce electrons or holes (electron vacancies) into the copper-oxide layers and cooled to temperatures below 100 Kelvin—significantly warmer temperatures than those needed for conventional superconductors. But exactly how electrons overcome their mutual repulsion and pair up to flow freely in these materials remains one of the biggest questions in condensed matter physics. High-temperature superconductivity (HTS) is among many phenomena occurring due to strong interactions between electrons, making it difficult to determine where it comes from.

That's why physicists at the U.S. Department of Energy's (DOE) Brookhaven National Laboratory studying a well-known cuprate containing layers made of bismuth oxide, strontium oxide, calcium, and copper oxide (BSCCO) decided to focus on the less complicated "overdoped" side, doping the material so much so that superconductivity eventually disappears. As they reported in a paper published on Jan. 29 in *Nature Communications*, this approach enabled them to identify that purely electronic interactions likely lead to HTS.

"Superconductivity in cuprates usually coexists with periodic arrangements of electric charge or spin and many other phenomena that can either compete with or aid superconductivity, complicating the picture," explained first author Tonica Valla, a physicist in the Electron Spectroscopy Group of Brookhaven Lab's Condensed Matter Physics and Materials Science Division. "But these phenomena weaken or completely vanish with overdoping, leaving nothing but superconductivity. Thus, this is the perfect region to study the origin of superconductivity. Our experiments have uncovered an interaction between electrons in BSCCO that correlates one to one with superconductivity. Superconductivity emerges exactly when this interaction first appears and becomes stronger as the interaction strengthens."

Only very recently has it become possible to overdope cuprate samples beyond the point where superconductivity vanishes. Previously, a bulk crystal of the material would be annealed (heated) in high-pressure oxygen gas to increase the concentration of oxygen (the dopant material). The new method—which Valla and other Brookhaven scientists first demonstrated about a year ago at OASIS, a new on-site instrument for sample preparation and characterization—uses ozone instead of oxygen to anneal cleaved samples. Cleaving refers to breaking the crystal in vacuum to create perfectly flat and clean surfaces.

"The oxidation power of ozone, or its ability to accept electrons, is much stronger than that of molecular oxygen," explained coauthor Ilya Drozdov, a physicist in the division's Oxide Molecular Beam Epitaxy (OMBE) Group. "This means we can bring more oxygen into the crystal to create more holes in the copper-oxide planes, where superconductivity occurs. At OASIS, we can overdope surface layers of the material all the way to the nonsuperconducting region and study the resulting electronic excitations."

OASIS combines an OMBE system for growing oxide thin films with angle-resolved photoemission spectroscopy (ARPES) and spectroscopic imaging-scanning tunneling microscopy (SI-STM) instruments for studying the electronic structure of these films. Here, materials can be grown and studied using the same connected ultrahigh vacuum system to avoid oxidation and contamination by carbon dioxide, water, and other molecules in the atmosphere. Because ARPES and SI-STM are extremely surface-sensitive techniques, pristine surfaces are critical to obtaining accurate measurements.

For this study, coauthor Genda Gu, a physicist in the division's Neutron Scattering Group, grew bulk BSCCO crystals. Drozdov annealed the cleaved crystals in ozone in the OMBE chamber at OASIS to increase the doping until superconductivity was completely lost. The same sample was then annealed in vacuum in order to gradually reduce the doping and increase the transition temperature at which superconductivity emerges. Valla analyzed the electronic structure of BSCCO across this doping-temperature phase diagram through ARPES.

"ARPES gives you the most direct picture of the electronic structure of any material," said Valla. "Light excites electrons from a sample, and by measuring their energy and the angle at which they escape, you can recreate the energy and momentum of the electrons while they were still in the crystal."

In measuring this energy-versus-momentum relationship, Valla detected a kink (anomaly) in the electronic structure that follows the superconducting transition temperature. The kink becomes more pronounced and shifts to higher energies as this temperature increases and superconductivity gets stronger, but disappears outside of the superconducting state. On the basis of this information, he knew that the interaction creating the electron pairs required for superconductivity could not be electron-phonon coupling, as theorized for conventional superconductors. Under this theory, phonons, or vibrations of atoms in the crystal lattice, serve as an attractive force for otherwise repulsive electrons through the exchange of momentum and energy.

"Our result allowed us to rule out electron-phonon coupling because atoms in the lattice can vibrate and electrons can interact with those vibrations, regardless of whether the material is superconducting or not," said Valla. "If phonons were involved, we would expect to see the kink in both the superconducting and normal state, and the kink would not be changing with doping."

The team believes that something similar to electron-phonon coupling is going on in this case, but instead of phonons, another excitation gets exchanged between electrons. It appears that electrons are interacting through spin fluctuations, which are related to electrons themselves. Spin fluctuations are changes in electron spin, or the way that electrons point either up or down as tiny magnets.

Moreover, the scientists found that the energy of the kink is less than that of a characteristic energy at which a sharp peak (resonance) in the spin fluctuation spectrum appears. Their finding suggests that the onset of spin fluctuations (instead of the resonance peak) is responsible for the observed kink and may be the "glue" that binds electrons into the pairs required for HTS.

Next, the team plans to collect additional evidence showing that spin fluctuations are related to superconductivity by obtaining SI-STM measurements. They will also perform similar experiments on another well-known cuprate, lanthanum strontium copper oxide (LSCO).

"For the first time, we are seeing something that strongly correlates with superconductivity," said Valla. "After all these years, we now have a better grasp of what may be causing superconductivity in not only BSCCO but also other cuprates." [20]

Scientists measure exact edge between superconducting and magnetic states

Scientists at the U.S. Department of Energy's Ames Laboratory have developed a method to accurately measure the "exact edge" or onset at which a magnetic field enters a superconducting material. The knowledge of this threshold— called the lower critical field— plays a crucial role in untangling the difficulties that have prevented the broader use of superconductivity in new technologies.

In condensed matter physics, scientists distinguish between various superconducting states. When placed in a magnetic field, the upper critical field is the strength at which it completely destroys superconducting behavior in a material. The Meissner effect can be thought of as its opposite, which happens when a material transitions into a superconducting state, completely expelling a magnetic field from its interior, so that it is reduced to zero at a small (typically less than a micrometer) characteristic length called the London penetration depth.

But what happens in the gray area between the two? Practically all superconductors are classified as type II, meaning that at larger magnetic fields, they do not show a complete Meissner effect. Instead, they develop a mixed state, with quantized magnetic vortices—called Abrikosov vortices— threading the material, forming a two-dimensional vortex lattice, and significantly affecting the behavior of superconductors. Most importantly, these vortices can be pushed around by flowing electrical current, causing superconductivity to dissipate.

The point when these vortices first begin to penetrate a superconductor is called the lower critical field, one that's been notoriously difficult to measure due to a distortion of the magnetic field near sample edges. However, knowledge of this field is needed for better understanding and controlling superconductors for use in applications.

"The boundary line, the temperature-dependent value of the magnetic field at which this happens, is very important; the presence of Abrikosov vortices changes the behavior of the superconductor a great deal," said Ruslan Prozorov, an Ames Laboratory physicist who is an expert in superconductivity and magnetism. "Many of the applications for which we'd like to use superconductivity, like the transmission of electricity, are hindered by the existence of this vortex phase."

To validate the novel technique developed to measure this boundary line, Prozorov and his team probed three already well-studied superconducting materials. They used a recently developed optical magnetometer that takes advantage of the quantum state of a particular kind of an atomic defect, called nitrogen-vacancy (NV) centers, in diamond. The highly sensitive instrument allowed the scientists to measure very small deviations in the magnetic signal very close to the sample edge detecting the onset of vortices penetration.

"Our method is non-invasive, very precise and has better spatial resolution than previously used methods," said Prozorov.

In addition, theoretical calculations conducted together with another Ames Laboratory scientist, Vladimir Kogan, allowed extraction of the lower critical field values from the measured onset of vortex penetration. [19]

Superconduction—why does it have to be so cold?

Currently, there is no precise computation method to describe superconducting materials. TU Wien has now made a major advance towards achieving this goal and, at the same time, has furthered an understanding of why conventional materials only become superconducting at around -200°C

Why does it always have to be so cold? We now know of a whole range of materials that – under certain conditions – conduct electrical current entirely without resistance. We call this phenomenon superconduction. All these materials do nonetheless experience a common problem: they only become superconducting at extremely low temperatures. The search to find theoretical computational methods to represent and understand this fact has been going on for many years. As yet, no one has fully succeeded in finding the solution. However, TU Wien has now developed a new method that enables a significantly better understanding of superconduction.

Many particles, complex computation

"Actually, it's surprising that superconduction only occurs at extremely low temperatures," says Professor Karsten Held of the Institute of Solid State Physics at TU Wien. "When you consider the energy released by the electrons involved in superconduction, you would actually expect superconduction to be possible at much higher temperatures as well."

In response to this conundrum, he and his team set about looking for a better method of representing superconduction theoretically. Dr. Motoharu Kitatani is the lead author of a new publication that brings forward significant improvements and enables a more in-depth understanding of high-temperature superconductivity.

It is not possible to understand superconduction by imagining the electrons in the material like tiny spheres following a distinct trajectory like balls on a snooker table. The only way you can explain superconduction is by applying the laws of quantum physics. "The problem is that many particles are involved in the phenomenon of superconduction, all at the same time," explains Held. "This makes the computations extremely complex."

The individual electrons in the material cannot be considered as objects that are independent of one another; they need to be treated together. Yet this task is so complex that it would not be possible to solve it accurately, even using the biggest computers in the world. "However, there are various approximation methods that can help us to represent the complex quantum correlations between the electrons," according to Held. One of these is the "dynamical mean-field theory" that is ideal for situations where computing the quantum correlations between the electrons is particularly difficult.

Improved representation of interactions

The research group at TU Wien is now presenting an addition to the existing theory that relies on a new 'Feynman diagram' calculation. Feynman diagrams – devised by Nobel prize winner Richard Feynman – are a way of representing the interactions between particles. All possible interactions –

such as when particles collide, but also the emission or absorption of particles – are represented in diagrams and can be used to make very precise calculations.

Feynman developed this method for use in studying individual particles in a vacuum, however it can also be used to depict complex interactions between particles in solid objects. The problem in solid state physics is that you need to allow for a huge number of Feynman diagrams, because the interaction between the electrons is so intense. "In a method developed by Professor Toschi and myself, we no longer use the Feynman diagrams solely to depict interactions, but also use a complex, time-dependent vertex as a component," explains Held. "This vertex itself consists of an infinite number of Feynman diagrams, but using a clever trick, it can still be used for calculations on a supercomputer."

Painstaking detective work

This has created an extended form of the dynamical mean-field-theory that enables a good approximation of the complex quantum interaction of the particles to be calculated. "The exciting thing in terms of physics is that we can show it is actually the time dependence of the vertex that means superconduction is only possible at low temperatures." Following a great deal of painstaking detective work, Motoharu Kitatani and Professor Held were even able to identify the orthodox Feynman diagram that shows why conventional materials only become superconducting at -200°C and not at room temperature.

In conjunction with experiments currently being carried out at the Institute of Solid State Physics in a working group headed up by Professor Barisic, the new method should make a significant contribution to the better understanding of superconduction and so enable the development of even better superconducting materials. Identifying a material that is also superconducting at room temperature would be a huge breakthrough, and would enable a whole series of revolutionary technological innovations. [18]

Underlying mechanism discovered for magnetic effect in superconducting spintronics

The emerging field of spintronics leverages electron spin and magnetization. This could enhance the storage capacity of computer hard drives and potentially play an important role in quantum computing's future. Superconductor-ferromagnet (SF) structures are widely regarded as the building blocks of this superconducting spintronic technology. More conventional spintronic devices typically require large currents, so researchers are investigating the viability of low-resistance superconductors. Their new results could answer longstanding questions about how SF structures interact.

An international team of researchers recently revealed a general mechanism of the long-range electromagnetic proximity effect in SF structures in *Applied Physics Letters*. They explain that SF interactions led to a strong spread of stray magnetic field to the superconductor from the ferromagnet. The group's findings could help determine why ferromagnetic films transferred magnetic fields to their corresponding superconductors at distances longer than theoretically predicted.

"We expect our work will not only explain the existing puzzling experimental data on electrodynamics of superconductor-ferromagnet structures but also will provide the basis for the analysis of electrodynamics of any device of superconducting spintronics," Alexander Buzdin and Alexander Mel'nikov, co-authors of the paper, said in a joint statement.

Magnetic layers are used in spintronic devices to change and read the spin signals of an electron in an adjacent conducting material. In extremely low-temperature superconducting spintronics, bound electrons, called Cooper pairs, penetrate the ferromagnet layer. This in turn accelerates superconducting carriers to induce a current in the superconductor.

Scientists previously thought that the interplay between the system's superconducting and ferromagnetic components occurred solely from superconducting Cooper pairs penetrating into the adjacent ferromagnet. Buzdin explained how in the case of normal, nonsuperconducting metal, for example, the spread of the magnetic field in the opposite direction from the ferromagnet into the metal layers is possible only at the atomic length scale. "For a superconducting material, it was believed that the scale of this spread [small] is of the order of the size of the Cooper pair, about 10 nanometers," said Buzdin.

Recent experimental results by other groups, however, showed a magnetic field could be present in the superconductor at distances one order of magnitude greater than expected. To start solving this puzzle, the group modeled a SF bilayer system before and after its superconductor and ferromagnet components came into contact. They found that screening currents accompanied the penetrating magnetic field, whereas these stray fields are absent in the superconductor's normal state.

Themagnetic vector potential, which is commonly used to describe the local magnetic field, was the only non-zero electromagnetic characteristic in the region of the stray fields in the superconductor. The vector potential is generally not observable in a normal metal in these conditions. This led Buzdin and his colleagues to conclude that the penetration of Cooper pairs into the ferromagnet through the direct proximity effect is responsible for supercurrent flow inside the ferromagnet and the resulting appearance of the compensating supercurrents that generate magnetic fields inside the superconducting component.

The team plans to further study the electrodynamics of SF structures and use their findings to one day create new types of spin valves, which can be used in magnetic sensors and computer memory devices. [17]

Spin-3/2 superconductor is a first, say physicists

The first known superconductor in which spin-3/2 quasiparticles form Cooper pairs has been created by physicists in the US and New Zealand. The unconventional superconductor is an alloy of yttrium, platinum and bismuth, which is normally a topological semimetal.

The research was done by Johnpierre Paglione and colleagues at the University of Maryland, Iowa State's Ames Laboratory, the Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory and the Universities of Otago and Wisconsin.

Conventional superconductivity arises in a material when spin-1/2 electrons form “Cooper pairs” because of interactions between the electrons and vibrations of the material’s crystalline lattice. These pairs are bosons with integer (usually zero) spin, which means that at very low temperatures they can condense to form a state that conducts electrical current with no resistance.

Spin-orbit interaction

In the alloy studied by Paglione and colleagues, charge is carried by particle-like quasiparticles with spin-3/2. These quasiparticles arise from interactions between the spins of electrons and the positive charges of the atoms that make up the alloy. This effect is called spin-orbit coupling and is particularly strong in this material. The result is that the spin-3/2 state – which combines spin and orbital angular momentum – is the lowest energy state.

When the team cooled the material, they found that it is a superconductor at temperatures below about 800 mK. This came as a surprise because this temperature is nearly 1000 times higher than expected if the superconductivity involved conventional Cooper pairs.

Paglione and colleagues also studied how magnetic fields penetrate the material. Superconductors can expel magnetic fields but the process is not perfect, with some magnetic field lines penetrating the surface of the material and persisting to small depths. Measuring this penetration effect gives important details about the nature of the pairing responsible for superconductivity.

Mind the gap

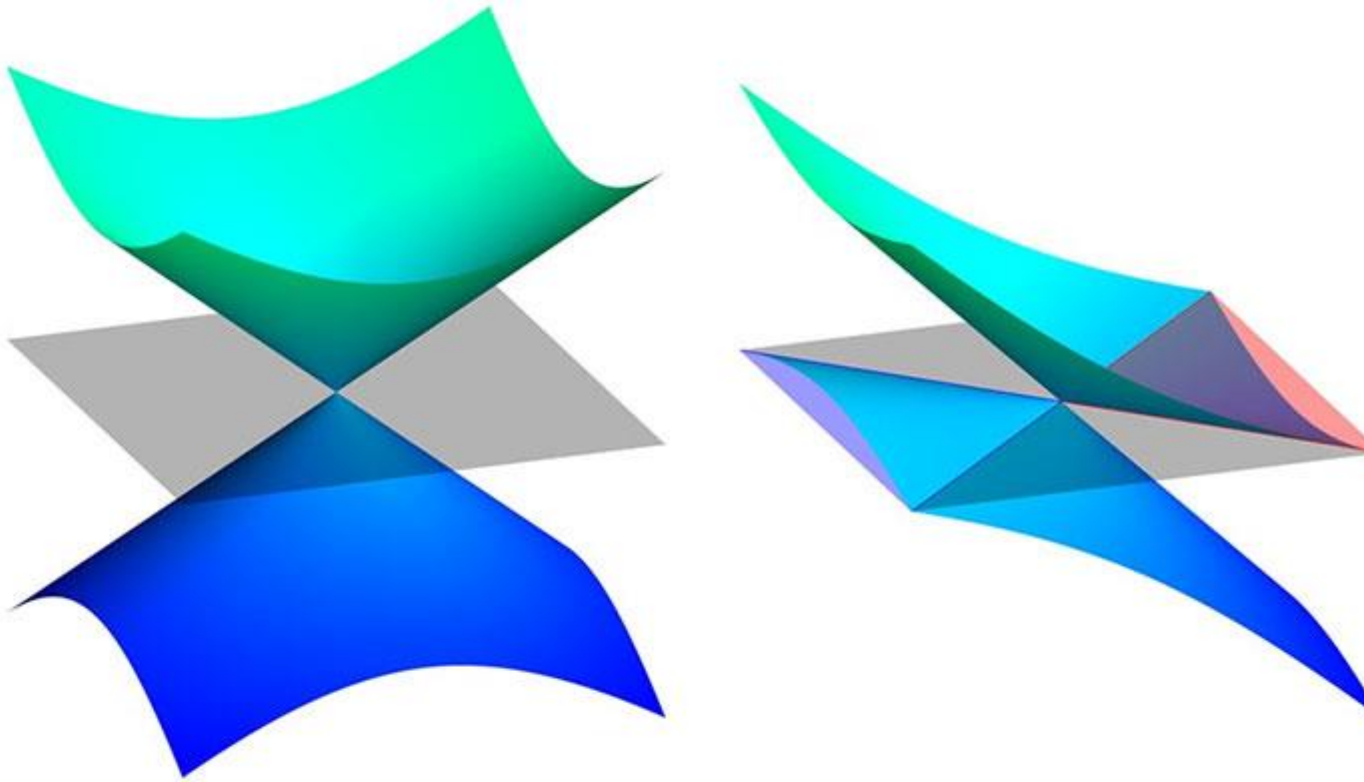
When the team measured the penetration depth as a function of temperature, they found that it increased linearly rather than exponentially – the latter being a characteristic of a conventional superconductor. This suggests that the energy gap between the superconducting and normal states of the material is not isotropic in space, as is the case in conventional superconductors.

This rule out spin-1/2 Cooper pairs so the team investigated other possibilities. They found that all possible pairings of spin-1/2 and spin-3/2 s in the alloy resulted in isotropic gaps except the case where two spin-3/2 quasiparticles join to make a pair with a combined spin of 3.

“No one had really thought that this was possible in solid materials,” says Paglione, adding it “was quite a surprise given the simplicity of the electronic structure in this system”.

Non-trivial topology

What is particularly exciting about the material, say the researchers, is the topological nature of how the superconductivity arises. The spin-3/2 quasiparticles are a result of topology related to the strong spin-orbit coupling. Paglione also says, “the superconductivity that forms may itself have a non-trivial topology”. “This is a more subtle thing and harder to prove,” he adds, “but essentially the phase of the superconducting wave function may have a ‘twist’ in it that gives a non-trivial (chiral) topology. This has profound implications, such as possibility of Majorana fermion excitations from the superconducting condensate.”



Type-II Dirac fermions spotted in two different materials

Paglione says that spin-3/2 superconductivity could exist in other materials and the phenomenon could have technological and fundamental applications. If such superconductors are indeed topological, he believes that they could form the basis for fault-tolerant quantum computers. On a fundamental level, he says that spin-3/2 fermions provide a very rich spectrum of possible pairing configurations for physicists to study – adding that their work has already garnered significant interest from other physicists.

Indeed, an important fundamental question, says Paglione, is how the spin-3/2 fermions pair up in the first place. "What's the glue that holds these pairs together?" he asks. "There are some ideas of what might be happening, but fundamental questions remain – which makes it even more fascinating."

The research is described in *Science Advances*. [16]

A different spin on superconductivity—Unusual particle interactions open up new possibilities in exotic materials

Now a team of researchers from the University of Maryland (UMD) Department of Physics together with collaborators has seen exotic superconductivity that relies on highly unusual electron interactions. While predicted to occur in other non-material systems, this type of behavior has remained elusive. The team's research, published in the April 6 issue of *Science Advances*, reveals effects that are profoundly different from anything that has been seen before with superconductivity.

Electron interactions in superconductors are dictated by a quantum property called spin. In an ordinary superconductor, electrons, which carry a spin of ½, pair up and flow uninhibited with the help of vibrations in the atomic structure. This theory is well-tested and can describe the behavior of most superconductors. In this new research, the team uncovers evidence for a new type of superconductivity in the material YPtBi, one that seems to arise from spin-3/2 particles.

"No one had really thought that this was possible in solid materials," explains Johnpierre Paglione, a UMD physics professor and senior author on the study. "High-spin states in individual atoms are possible but once you put the atoms together in a solid, these states usually break apart and you end up with spin one-half. "

Finding that YPtBi was a superconductor surprised the researchers in the first place. Most superconductors start out as reasonably good conductors, with a lot of mobile electrons—an ingredient that YPtBi is lacking. According to the conventional theory, YPtBi would need about a thousand times more mobile electrons in order to become superconducting at temperatures below 0.8 Kelvin. And yet, upon cooling the material to this temperature, the team saw superconductivity happen anyway. This was a first sign that something exotic was going on inside this material.

After discovering the anomalous superconducting transition, researchers made measurements that gave them insight into the underlying electron pairing. They studied a telling feature of superconductors—their interaction with magnetic fields. As the material undergoes the transition to a superconductor, it will try to expel any added magnetic field from its interior. But the expulsion is not completely perfect. Near the surface, the magnetic field can still enter the material but then quickly decays away. How far it goes in depends on the nature of the electron pairing, and changes as the material is cooled down further and further.

To probe this effect, the researchers varied the temperature in a small sample of the material while exposing it to a magnetic field more than ten times weaker than the Earth's. A copper coil surrounding the sample detected changes to the superconductor's magnetic properties and allowed the team to sensitively measure tiny variations in how deep the magnetic field reached inside the superconductor.

The measurement revealed an unusual magnetic intrusion. As the material warmed from absolute zero, the field penetration depth for YPtBi increased linearly instead of exponentially as it would for a conventional superconductor. This effect, combined with other measurements and theory calculations, constrained the possible ways that electrons could pair up. The researchers concluded that the best explanation for the superconductivity was electrons disguised as particles with a higher spin—a possibility that hadn't even been considered before in the framework of conventional superconductivity.

The discovery of this high-spin superconductor has given a new direction for this research field. "We used to be confined to pairing with spin one-half particles," says Hyunsoo Kim, lead author and a UMD assistant research scientist. "But if we start considering higher spin, then the landscape of this superconducting research expands and just gets more interesting."

For now, many open questions remain, including how such pairing could occur in the first place. "When you have this high-spin pairing, what's the glue that holds these pairs together?" says Paglione. "There are some ideas of what might be happening, but fundamental questions remain-which makes it even more fascinating." [15]

Scientists control superconductivity using spin currents

A group of researchers from institutions in Korea and the United States has determined how to employ a type of electron microscopy to cause regions within an iron-based superconductor to flip between superconducting and non-superconducting states. This study, published in the December 1 edition of *Physical Review Letters*, is the first of its kind, and it opens a door to a new way of manipulating and learning about superconductors.

The iron-based superconductors, one of which was studied in this work, are one of several classes of these fascinating materials, which have the ability to conduct electricity with virtually zero resistance below a certain temperature. Scientists are still working out the complex atomic-level details that underlie these materials' electronic and magnetic behaviors. The iron-based materials, in particular, are known to display intriguing phenomena related to co-existing superconducting and magnetic states.

Here, researchers studied a compound composed of strontium (Sr), vanadium (V), oxygen (O), iron (Fe), and arsenic (As), with a structure consisting of alternating FeAs and Sr_2VO_3 layers. They probed its magnetic and electronic properties with a spin-polarized scanning tunneling microscope (SPSTM), a device that passes an atomically sharp metal tip – just a few atoms wide – over the surface of a sample. The tip and the sample do not touch but are brought in quantum-scale proximity to each other so that a bias voltage applied between them causes a current to flow between the tip and the sample. In this case, the current is spin-polarized, meaning its electrons tend to have the same spin – the tiny magnetic field carried by an electron that points either "up" or "down," like a bar magnet.

Typically, this material's FeAs layer is strongly superconducting and prefers a certain magnetic order, dubbed C_2 order, that refers to how the magnetic fields of its atoms (which are due, in turn, to electron spins) are arranged. Results of the SPSTM scan show that the injected spin-polarized current, when sufficiently high, induces a different magnetic order, C_4 order, in the FeAs layer. In that same local area, superconductivity somehow magically disappears.

"To our knowledge, our study is the first report of a direct real-space observation of this type of control by a local probe, as well as the first atomic-scale demonstration of the correlation between magnetism and superconductivity," said the paper's corresponding author, Jhinhwan Lee, a physicist at the Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology, to *Phys.org*.

Lee and his group introduced new ways to perform SPSTM using an antiferromagnetic chromium (Cr) tip. An antiferromagnet is a material in which the magnetic fields of its atoms are ordered in an alternating up-down pattern such that it has a minimal stray magnetic field that can inadvertently kill local superconductivity (which can happen with ferromagnetic tips, such as Fe tips, that other SPSTM researchers use). They compared these Cr tip scans with those taken with an unpolarized tungsten (W) tip. At low bias voltages, the surface scans were qualitatively identical. But as the voltage was increased using the Cr tip, the surface started to change, revealing the C_4 magnetic symmetry. The C_4 order held even when the voltage was lowered again, although was erased when thermally annealed (heat-treated) beyond a specific temperature above which any magnetic order in the FeAs layer disappears.

To study the connection between the C_4 magnetic order and the suppression of superconductivity, Lee and his group performed high-resolution SPSTM scans of the C_4 state with Cr tips and compared them with simulations. The results led them to suggest one possible explanation: that the low-energy spin fluctuations in the C_4 state cannot mediate pairing between electrons. This is critical because this pairing of electrons, defying their natural urge to repel each other, leads to superconductivity.

Spin-fluctuation-based pairing is one theory of electron pairing in iron-based superconductors; another set of theories assume that fluctuations in the electron orbitals are the key. Lee and his group believe that their results seem to support the former, at least in this superconductor.

"Our findings may be extended to future studies where magnetism and superconductivity are manipulated using spin-polarized and unpolarized currents, leading to novel antiferromagnetic memory devices and transistors controlling superconductivity," said Lee. [14]

Researchers steer the flow of electrical current with spinning light

Light can generate an electrical current in semiconductor materials. This is how solar cells generate electricity from sunlight and how smart phone cameras can take photographs. To collect the generated electrical current, called photocurrent, an electric voltage is needed to force the current to flow in only one direction.

In new research, scientists at the University of Minnesota used a first-of-its-kind device to demonstrate a way to control the direction of the photocurrent without deploying an electric voltage. The new study was recently published in the scientific journal *Nature Communications*.

The study reveals that control is effected by the direction in which the particles of light, called photons, are spinning—clockwise or counterclockwise. The photocurrent generated by the spinning light is also spin-polarized, which means there are more electrons with spin in one direction than in the other. This new device holds significant potential for use in the next generation of microelectronics using electron spin as the fundamental unit of information. It could also be used for energy efficient optical communication in data centers.

"The observed effect is very strong and robust in our devices, even at room temperature and in open air," said Mo Li, a University of Minnesota electrical and computer engineering associate professor and a lead author of the study. "Therefore, the device we demonstrate has great potential for being implemented in next-generation computation and communication systems."

Optical spin and topological insulators

Light is a form of electromagnetic wave. The way the electric field oscillates, either in a straight line or rotating, is called polarization. (Your polarized sunglasses block part of the unpleasant reflected light that is polarized along a straight line.) In circularly polarized light, the electric field can spin in the clockwise or counterclockwise direction. In such a state, the particle of light (photon) is said to have positive or negative optical spin angular momentum. This optical spin is analogous to the spin of electrons, and endows magnetic properties to materials.

Recently, a new category of materials, called topological insulators (TI), was discovered to have an intriguing property not found in common semiconductor materials. Imagine a road on which red cars only drive on the left lane, and blue cars only in the right lane. Similarly, on the surface of a TI, the electrons with their spins pointing one way always flow in one direction. This effect is called spin-momentum locking—the spin of the electrons is locked in the direction they travel.

Interestingly, shining a circularly polarized light on a TI can free electrons from its inside to flow on its surface in a selective way, for example, clockwise light for spin-up electrons and counterclockwise for spin-down electrons. Because of this effect, the generated photocurrent on the surface of the TI material spontaneously flows in one direction, requiring no electric voltage. This particular feature is significant for controlling the direction of a photocurrent. Because most of the electrons in this current have their spins pointing in a single direction, this current is spin-polarized.

Controlling direction and polarization

To fabricate their unique device that can change the direction of a photocurrent without the use of an electric voltage, the University's research team integrated a thin film of a TI material, bismuth selenide, on an optical waveguide made of silicon. Light flows through the waveguide (a tiny wire measuring 1.5 microns wide and 0.22 micron high) just like electrical current flows through a copper wire. Because light is tightly squeezed in the waveguide, it tends to be circularly polarized along a direction normal to the direction in which it flows. This is akin to the spin-momentum locking effect of the electrons in a TI material.

The scientists supposed that integrating a TI material with the optical waveguide will induce strong coupling between the light in the waveguide and the electrons in the TI material, both having the same, intriguing spin-momentum locking effect. The coupling will result in a unique optoelectronic effect—light flowing along one direction in the waveguide generates an electrical current flowing in the same direction with electron spin polarized.

Reversing the light direction reverses both the direction of the current and its spin polarization. And this is exactly what the team observed in their devices. Other possible causes of the observed effect, such as heat generated by the light, have been ruled out through careful experiments.

Future prospects

The outcome of the research is exciting for the researchers. It bears enormous potential for possible applications.

"Our devices generate a spin-polarized current flowing on the surface of a topological insulator. They can be used as a current source for spintronic devices, which use electron spin to transmit and process information with very low energy cost," said Li He, a University of Minnesota physics graduate student and an author of the paper.

"Our research bridges two important fields of nanotechnology: spintronics and nanophotonics. It is fully integrated with a silicon photonic circuit that can be manufactured on a large scale and has already been widely used in optical communication in data centers," He added. [13]

Research demonstrates method to alter coherence of light

Brown University researchers have demonstrated for the first time a method of substantially changing the spatial coherence of light.

In a paper published in the journal Science Advances, the researchers show that they can use surface plasmon polaritons—propagating electromagnetic waves confined at a metal-dielectric interface—to transform light from completely incoherent to almost fully coherent and vice versa. The ability to modulate coherence could be useful in a wide variety of applications from structural coloration and optical communication to beam shaping and microscopic imaging.

"There had been some theoretical work suggesting that coherence modulation was possible, and some experimental results showing small amounts of modulation," said Dongfang Li, a postdoctoral researcher in Brown's School of Engineering and the study's lead author. "But this is the first time very strong modulation of coherence has been realized experimentally."

Coherence deals with the extent to which propagating electromagnetic waves are correlated with each other. Lasers, for example, emit light that's highly coherent, meaning the waves are strongly correlated. The sun and incandescent light bulbs emit weakly correlated waves, which are generally said to be "incoherent", although, more precisely, they are characterized by low yet measurable degrees of coherence.

"Coherence, like color and polarization, is a fundamental property of light," said Domenico Pacifici, an associate professor of engineering and physics at Brown and coauthor of the research. "We have filters that can manipulate the color of light and we have things like polarizing sunglasses that can manipulate polarization. The goal with this work was to find a way to manipulate coherence like we can these other properties."

To do that, Li and Pacifici took a classic experiment used to measure coherence, Young's double slit, and turned it into a device that can modulate coherence of light by controlling and finely tuning the interactions between light and electrons in metal films.

In the classic double-slit experiment, an opaque barrier is placed between a light source and a detector. The light passes through two parallel slits in the barrier to reach the detector on the other side. If the light shown on the barrier is coherent, the rays emanating from the slits will interfere with each other, creating an interference pattern on the detector—a series of bright and dark bands called interference fringes. The extent to which the light is coherent can be measured by the intensity of bands. If the light is incoherent, no bands will be visible.

"As this is normally done, the double-slit experiment simply measures the coherence of light rather than changing it," Pacifici said. "But by introducing surface plasmon polaritons, Young's double slits become a tool not just for measurement but also modulation."

To do that, the researchers used a thin metal film as the barrier in the double slit experiment. When the light strikes the film, surface plasmon polaritons—ripples of electron density created when the electrons are excited by light—are generated at each slit and propagate toward the opposite slit.

"The surface plasmon polaritons open up a channel for the light at each slit to talk to each other," Li said. "By connecting the two, we're able to change the mutual correlations between them and therefore change the coherence of light."

In essence, surface plasmon polaritons are able to create correlation where there was none, or to cancel any existing correlation that was there, depending on the nature of the light coming in and the distance between the slits.

One of the study's key results is the strength of the modulation they achieved. The technique is able to modulate coherence across a range from 0 percent (totally incoherent) to 80 percent (nearly full coherent). Modulation of such strength has never been achieved before, the researchers say, and it was made possible by using nanofabrication methods that allowed to maximize the generation efficiencies of surface plasmon polaritons existing on both surfaces of the slitted screen.

This initial proof-of-concept work was done at the micrometer scale, but Pacifici and Li say there's no reason why this couldn't be scaled up for use in a variety of settings.

"We've broken a barrier in showing that it's possible to do this," Pacifici said. "This clears the way for new two-dimensional beam shapers, filters and lenses that can manipulate entire optical beams by using the coherence of light as a powerful tuning knob." [12]

53 attoseconds: Research produces shortest light pulse ever developed

Researchers at the University of Central Florida have generated what is being deemed the fastest light pulse ever developed.

The 53-attosecond pulse, obtained by Professor Zenhgu Chang, UCF trustee chair and professor in the Center for Research and Education in Optics and Lasers, College of Optics and Photonics, and Department of Physics, and his group at the university, was funded by the U.S. Army Research Laboratory's Army Research Office.

Specifically, it was funded by ARO's Multidisciplinary University Research Initiative titled "Post-BornOppenheimer Dynamics Using Isolated Attosecond Pulses," headed by ARO's Jim Parker and Rich Hammond.

This beats the team's record of a 67-attosecond extreme ultraviolet light pulse set in 2012.

Attosecond light pulses allow scientists to capture images of fast-moving electrons in atoms and molecules with unprecedented sharpness, enabling advancements in solar panel technology, logic and memory chips for mobile phones and computers, and in the military in terms of increasing the speed of electronics and sensors, as well as threat identification.

"This is the shortest laser pulse ever produced," Hammond said. "It opens new doors in spectroscopy, allowing the identification of pernicious substances and explosive residue."

Hammond noted that this achievement is also a new and very effective tool to understand the dynamics of atoms and molecules, allowing observations of how molecules form and how electrons in atoms and molecules behave.

"This can also be extended to condensed matter systems, allowing unprecedented accuracy and detail of atomic, molecular, and even phase, changes," Hammond said. "This sets the stage for many new kinds of experiments, and pushes physics forward with the ability to understand matter better than ever before."

Chang echoed Hammond's sentiments about this achievement being a game-changer for continued research in this field.

"The photon energy of the attosecond X-ray pulses is two times higher than previous attosecond light sources and reached the carbon K-edge (284 eV), which makes it possible to probe and control core electron dynamics such as Auger processes," Chang said. "In condensed matter physics, the ultrafast electronic process in carbon containing materials, such as graphene and diamond, can be studied via core to valence transitions. In chemistry, electron dynamics in carbon containing molecules, such as carbon dioxide, Acetylene, Methane, etc., may now be studied by attosecond transient absorption, taking advantage of the element specificity."

This development is the culmination of years of ARO funding of attosecond science.

It all started with an ARO MURI about eight years ago titled "Attosecond Optical Technology Based on Recollision and Gating" from the Physics Division. This was followed by single investigator awards, Defense University Research Instrumentation Programs and finally an ARO MURI titled "Attosecond Electron Dynamics" from the Chemistry Division.

From the ARL/ARO perspective, Hammond said that this achievement, which included researchers from around the globe, shows how continued funding into fundamental research using several instruments, such as MURIs, DURIPS, and single investigator awards, can be used in a coherent and meaningful way to push the forward the frontiers of science.

Chang's team includes Jie Li, Xiaoming Ren, Yanchun Yin, Andrew Chew, Yan Cheng, Eric Cunningham, Yang Wang, Shuyuan Hu, and Yi Wu, who are all affiliated with the Institute for the

Frontier of Attosecond Science and Technology, or iFAST; Kun Zhao, who is also affiliated with the Chinese Academy of Sciences, and Michael Chini with the UCF Department of Physics. [11]

Method to significantly enhance optical force

Light consists of a flow of photons. If two waveguides – cables for light – are side by side, they attract or repel each other. The interaction is due to the optical force, but the effect is usually extremely small. Physicists at Chalmers University of Technology and Free University of Brussels have now found a method to significantly enhance optical force. The method opens new possibilities within sensor technology and nanoscience. The results were recently published in Physical Review Letters.

To make light behave in a completely new way, the scientists have studied waveguides made of an artificial material to trick the photons. The specially designed material makes all the photons move to one side of the waveguide. When the photons in a nearby waveguide do the same, a collection of photons suddenly gather very closely. This enhances the force between the waveguides up to 10 times.

"We have found a way to trick the photons so that they cluster together at the inner sides of the waveguides. Photons normally don't prefer left or right, but our metamaterial creates exactly that effect," says Philippe Tassin, Associate Professor at the Department of Physics at Chalmers University of Technology.

Philippe Tassin and Sophie Viaene at Chalmers and Lana Descheemaeker and Vincent Ginis at Free University of Brussels have developed a method to use the optical force in a completely new way. It can, for example, be used in sensors or to drive nanomotors. In the future, such motors might be used to sort cells or separate particles in medical technology.

"Our method opens up new opportunities for the use of waveguides in a range of technical applications. It is really exciting that man-made materials can change the basic characteristics of light propagation so dramatically," says Vincent Ginis, assistant professor at the Department of Physics at Free University of Brussels. [10]

Researchers demonstrate quantum teleportation of patterns of light

Nature Communications today published research by a team comprising Scottish and South African researchers, demonstrating entanglement swapping and teleportation of orbital angular momentum 'patterns' of light. This is a crucial step towards realizing a quantum repeater for high-dimensional entangled states.

Quantum communication over long distances is integral to information security and has been demonstrated in free space and fibre with two-dimensional states, recently over distances exceeding 1200 km between satellites. But using only two states reduces the information capacity of the photons, so the link is secure but slow. To make it secure and fast requires a higher-dimensional alphabet, for example, using patterns of light, of which there are an infinite number. One such pattern set is the orbital angular momentum (OAM) of light. Increased bit rates can be achieved by using OAM as the carrier of information. However, such photon states decay when transmitted over long distances, for example, due to mode coupling in fibre or turbulence in free space, thus requiring a way to amplify the signal. Unfortunately such "amplification" is not allowed in the quantum world, but it is possible to create an analogy, called a quantum repeater, akin to optical fibre repeaters in classical optical networks.

An integral part of a quantum repeater is the ability to entangle two photons that have never interacted - a process referred to as "entanglement swapping". This is accomplished by interfering two photons from independent entangled pairs, resulting in the remaining two photons becoming entangled. This allows the establishment of entanglement between two distant points without requiring one photon to travel the entire distance, thus reducing the effects of decay and loss. It also means that you don't have to have a line of sight between the two places.

An outcome of this is that the information of one photon can be transferred to the other, a process called teleportation. Like in the science fiction series, Star Trek, where people are "beamed" from one place to another, information is "teleported" from one place to another. If two photons are entangled and you change a value on one of them, then other one automatically changes too. This happens even though the two photons are never connected and, in fact, are in two completely different places.

In this latest work, the team performed the first experimental demonstration of entanglement swapping and teleportation for orbital angular momentum (OAM) states of light. They showed that quantum correlations could be established between previously independent photons, and that this could be used to send information across a virtual link. Importantly, the scheme is scalable to higher dimensions, paving the way for long-distance quantum communication with high information capacity.

Background

Present communication systems are very fast, but not fundamentally secure. To make them secure researchers use the laws of Nature for the encoding by exploiting the quirky properties of the quantum world. One such property is entanglement. When two particles are entangled they are connected in a spooky sense: a measurement on one immediately changes the state of the other no matter how far apart they are. Entanglement is one of the core resources needed to realise a quantum network.

Yet a secure quantum communication link over long distance is very challenging: Quantum links using patterns of light languish at short distances precisely because there is no way to protect the link against noise without detecting the photons, yet once they are detected their usefulness is destroyed. To overcome this one can have a repeating station at intermediate distances - this allows one to share information across a much longer distance without the need for the information to physically flow over that link. The core ingredient is to get independent photons to become entangled. While this has been demonstrated previously with two-dimensional states, in this work the team showed the first demonstration with OAM and in high-dimensional spaces. [9]

How to Win at Bridge Using Quantum Physics

Contract bridge is the chess of card games. You might know it as some stuffy old game your grandparents play, but it requires major brainpower, and preferably an obsession with rules and strategy. So how to make it even geekier? Throw in some quantum mechanics to try to gain a competitive advantage. The idea here is to use the quantum magic of entangled photons–which are essentially twins, sharing every property–to transmit two bits of information to your bridge partner for the price of one. Understanding how to do this is not an easy task, but it will help elucidate some basic building blocks of quantum information theory. It's also kind of fun to consider whether or not such tactics could ever be allowed in professional sports. [6]

Quantum Information

In quantum mechanics, quantum information is physical information that is held in the "state" of a quantum system. The most popular unit of quantum information is the qubit, a two-level quantum system. However, unlike classical digital states (which are discrete), a two-state quantum system can actually be in a superposition of the two states at any given time.

Quantum information differs from classical information in several respects, among which we note the following:

However, despite this, the amount of information that can be retrieved in a single qubit is equal to one bit. It is in the processing of information (quantum computation) that a difference occurs.

The ability to manipulate quantum information enables us to perform tasks that would be unachievable in a classical context, such as unconditionally secure transmission of information. Quantum information processing is the most general field that is concerned with quantum information. There are certain tasks which classical computers cannot perform "efficiently" (that is, in polynomial time) according to any known algorithm. However, a quantum computer can compute the answer to some of these problems in polynomial time; one well-known example of this is Shor's factoring algorithm. Other algorithms can speed up a task less dramatically - for example, Grover's search algorithm which gives a quadratic speed-up over the best possible classical algorithm.

Quantum information, and changes in quantum information, can be quantitatively measured by using an analogue of Shannon entropy. Given a statistical ensemble of quantum mechanical systems with the density matrix S, it is given by.

Many of the same entropy measures in classical information theory can also be generalized to the quantum case, such as the conditional quantum entropy. [7]

Quantum Teleportation

Quantum teleportation is a process by which quantum information (e.g. the exact state of an atom or photon) can be transmitted (exactly, in principle) from one location to another, with the help of classical communication and previously shared quantum entanglement between the sending and receiving location. Because it depends on classical communication, which can proceed no faster than the speed of light, it cannot be used for superluminal transport or communication of classical bits. It also cannot be used to make copies of a system, as this violates the no-cloning theorem. Although the name is inspired by the teleportation commonly used in fiction, current technology provides no possibility of anything resembling the fictional form of teleportation. While it is possible to teleport one or more qubits of information between two (entangled) atoms, this has not yet been achieved between molecules or anything larger. One may think of teleportation either as a kind of transportation, or as a kind of communication; it provides a way of transporting a qubit from one location to another, without having to move a physical particle along with it.

The seminal paper first expounding the idea was published by C. H. Bennett, G. Brassard, C. Crépeau, R. Jozsa, A. Peres and W. K. Wootters in 1993. Since then, quantum teleportation has been realized in various physical systems. Presently, the record distance for quantum teleportation is 143 km (89 mi) with photons, and 21 m with material systems. In August 2013, the achievement of "fully deterministic" quantum teleportation, using a hybrid technique, was reported. On 29 May 2014, scientists announced a reliable way of transferring data by quantum teleportation. Quantum teleportation of data had been done before but with highly unreliable methods. [8]

Quantum Computing

A team of electrical engineers at UNSW Australia has observed the unique quantum behavior of a pair of spins in silicon and designed a new method to use them for "2-bit" quantum logic operations.

These milestones bring researchers a step closer to building a quantum computer, which promises dramatic data processing improvements.

Quantum bits, or qubits, are the building blocks of quantum computers. While many ways to create a qubits exist, the Australian team has focused on the use of single atoms of phosphorus, embedded inside a silicon chip similar to those used in normal computers.

The first author on the experimental work, PhD student Juan Pablo Dehollain, recalls the first time he realized what he was looking at.

"We clearly saw these two distinct quantum states, but they behaved very differently from what we were used to with a single atom. We had a real 'Eureka!' moment when we realized what was happening – we were seeing in real time the `entangled' quantum states of a pair of atoms." [5]

Quantum Entanglement

Measurements of physical properties such as position, momentum, spin, polarization, etc. performed on entangled particles are found to be appropriately correlated. For example, if a pair of particles is generated in such a way that their total spin is known to be zero, and one particle is found to have clockwise spin on a certain axis, then the spin of the other particle, measured on the same axis, will be found to be counterclockwise. Because of the nature of quantum measurement, however, this behavior gives rise to effects that can appear paradoxical: any measurement of a property of a particle can be seen as acting on that particle (e.g. by collapsing a number of superimposed states); and in the case of entangled particles, such action must be on the entangled system as a whole. It thus appears that one particle of an entangled pair "knows" what measurement has been performed on the other, and with what outcome, even though there is no known means for such information to be communicated between the particles, which at the time of measurement may be separated by arbitrarily large distances. [4]

The Bridge

The accelerating electrons explain not only the Maxwell Equations and the Special Relativity, but the Heisenberg Uncertainty Relation, the wave particle duality and the electron's spin also, building the bridge between the Classical and Quantum Theories. [1]

Accelerating charges

The moving charges are self maintain the electromagnetic field locally, causing their movement and this is the result of their acceleration under the force of this field. In the classical physics the charges will distributed along the electric current so that the electric potential lowering along the current, by linearly increasing the way they take every next time period because this accelerated motion. The same thing happens on the atomic scale giving a dp impulse difference and a dx way difference between the different part of the not point like particles.

Relativistic effect

Another bridge between the classical and quantum mechanics in the realm of relativity is that the charge distribution is lowering in the reference frame of the accelerating charges linearly: ds/dt = at (time coordinate), but in the reference frame of the current it is parabolic: $s = a/2\ t^2$ (geometric coordinate).

Heisenberg Uncertainty Relation

In the atomic scale the Heisenberg uncertainty relation gives the same result, since the moving electron in the atom accelerating in the electric field of the proton, causing a charge distribution on delta x position difference and with a delta p momentum difference such a way that they product is about the half Planck reduced constant. For the proton this delta x much less in the nucleon, than in the orbit of the electron in the atom, the delta p is much higher because of the greater proton mass.

This means that the electron and proton are not point like particles, but has a real charge distribution.

Wave – Particle Duality

The accelerating electrons explains the wave – particle duality of the electrons and photons, since the elementary charges are distributed on delta x position with delta p impulse and creating a wave packet of the electron. The photon gives the electromagnetic particle of the mediating force of the electrons electromagnetic field with the same distribution of wavelengths.

Atomic model

The constantly accelerating electron in the Hydrogen atom is moving on the equipotential line of the proton and it's kinetic and potential energy will be constant. Its energy will change only when it is changing its way to another equipotential line with another value of potential energy or getting free with enough kinetic energy. This means that the Rutherford-Bohr atomic model is right and only that changing acceleration of the electric charge causes radiation, not the steady acceleration. The steady acceleration of the charges only creates a centric parabolic steady electric field around the charge, the magnetic field. This gives the magnetic moment of the atoms, summing up the proton and electron magnetic moments caused by their circular motions and spins.

The Relativistic Bridge

Commonly accepted idea that the relativistic effect on the particle physics it is the fermions' spin - another unresolved problem in the classical concepts. If the electric charges can move only with accelerated motions in the self maintaining electromagnetic field, once upon a time they would reach the velocity of the electromagnetic field. The resolution of this problem is the spinning particle, constantly accelerating and not reaching the velocity of light because the acceleration is radial. One origin of the Quantum Physics is the Planck Distribution Law of the electromagnetic oscillators, giving equal intensity for 2 different wavelengths on any temperature. Any of these two wavelengths will give equal intensity diffraction patterns, building different asymmetric constructions, for example proton - electron structures (atoms), molecules, etc. Since the particles are centers of diffraction patterns they also have particle – wave duality as the electromagnetic waves have. [2]

The weak interaction

The weak interaction transforms an electric charge in the diffraction pattern from one side to the other side, causing an electric dipole momentum change, which violates the CP and time reversal symmetry. The Electroweak Interaction shows that the Weak Interaction is basically electromagnetic in nature. The arrow of time shows the entropy grows by changing the temperature dependent diffraction patterns of the electromagnetic oscillators.

Another important issue of the quark model is when one quark changes its flavor such that a linear oscillation transforms into plane oscillation or vice versa, changing the charge value with 1 or -1. This kind of change in the oscillation mode requires not only parity change, but also charge and time changes (CPT symmetry) resulting a right handed anti-neutrino or a left handed neutrino.

The right handed anti-neutrino and the left handed neutrino exist only because changing back the quark flavor could happen only in reverse, because they are different geometrical constructions, the u is 2 dimensional and positively charged and the d is 1 dimensional and negatively charged. It needs also a time reversal, because anti particle (anti neutrino) is involved.

The neutrino is a 1/2spin creator particle to make equal the spins of the weak interaction, for example neutron decay to 2 fermions, every particle is fermions with ½ spin. The weak interaction changes the entropy since more or less particles will give more or less freedom of movement. The entropy change is a result of temperature change and breaks the equality of oscillator diffraction intensity of the Maxwell–Boltzmann statistics. This way it changes the time coordinate measure and
makes possible a different time dilation as of the special relativity.

The limit of the velocity of particles as the speed of light appropriate only for electrical charged particles, since the accelerated charges are self maintaining locally the accelerating electric force. The neutrinos are CP symmetry breaking particles compensated by time in the CPT symmetry, that is the time coordinate not works as in the electromagnetic interactions, consequently the speed of neutrinos is not limited by the speed of light.

The weak interaction T-asymmetry is in conjunction with the T-asymmetry of the second law of thermodynamics, meaning that locally lowering entropy (on extremely high temperature) causes the
weak interaction, for example the Hydrogen fusion.

Probably because it is a spin creating movement changing linear oscillation to 2 dimensional oscillation by changing d to u quark and creating anti neutrino going back in time relative to the proton and electron created from the neutron, it seems that the anti neutrino fastest then the velocity of the photons created also in this weak interaction?

A quark flavor changing shows that it is a reflection changes movement and the CP- and T-symmetry breaking!!! This flavor changing oscillation could prove that it could be also on higher level such as atoms, molecules, probably big biological significant molecules and responsible on the aging of the life.
Important to mention that the weak interaction is always contains particles and antiparticles, where the neutrinos (antineutrinos) present the opposite side. It means by Feynman's interpretation that these particles present the backward time and probably because this they seem to move faster than the speed of light in the reference frame of the other side.

Finally since the weak interaction is an electric dipole change with ½ spin creating; it is limited by the velocity of the electromagnetic wave, so the neutrino's velocity cannot exceed the velocity of light.

The General Weak Interaction

The Weak Interactions T-asymmetry is in conjunction with the T-asymmetry of the Second Law of Thermodynamics, meaning that locally lowering entropy (on extremely high temperature) causes for example the Hydrogen fusion. The arrow of time by the Second Law of Thermodynamics shows the increasing entropy and decreasing information by the Weak Interaction, changing the temperature dependent diffraction patterns. A good example of this is the neutron decay, creating more particles with less known information about them.

The neutrino oscillation of the Weak Interaction shows that it is a general electric dipole change and it is possible to any other temperature dependent entropy and information changing diffraction pattern of atoms, molecules and even complicated biological living structures.

We can generalize the weak interaction on all of the decaying matter constructions, even on the biological too. This gives the limited lifetime for the biological constructions also by the arrow of time. There should be a new research space of the Quantum Information Science the 'general neutrino oscillation' for the greater then subatomic matter structures as an electric dipole change. There is also connection between statistical physics and evolutionary biology, since the arrow of time is working in the biological evolution also.
The Fluctuation Theorem says that there is a probability that entropy will flow in a direction opposite to that dictated by the Second Law of Thermodynamics. In this case the Information is growing that is the matter formulas are emerging from the chaos. So the Weak Interaction has two directions, samples for one direction is the Neutron decay, and Hydrogen fusion is the opposite direction.

Fermions and Bosons

The fermions are the diffraction patterns of the bosons such a way that they are both sides of the same thing.

Van Der Waals force

Named after the Dutch scientist Johannes Diderik van der Waals – who first proposed it in 1873 to explain the behaviour of gases – it is a very weak force that only becomes relevant when atoms and molecules are very close together. Fluctuations in the electronic cloud of an atom mean that it will have an instantaneous dipole moment. This can induce a dipole moment in a nearby atom, the result being an attractive dipole–dipole interaction.

Electromagnetic inertia and mass

Electromagnetic Induction

Since the magnetic induction creates a negative electric field as a result of the changing acceleration, it works as an electromagnetic inertia, causing an electromagnetic mass. [1]

Relativistic change of mass

The increasing mass of the electric charges the result of the increasing inductive electric force acting against the accelerating force. The decreasing mass of the decreasing acceleration is the result of the inductive electric force acting against the decreasing force. This is the relativistic mass change explanation, especially importantly explaining the mass reduction in case of velocity decrease.

The frequency dependence of mass

Since $\boldsymbol{E = hv}$ and $\boldsymbol{E = mc^2}$, $\boldsymbol{m = hv / c^2}$ that is the $\boldsymbol{m}$ depends only on the $\boldsymbol{v}$ frequency. It means that the mass of the proton and electron are electromagnetic and the result of the electromagnetic induction, caused by the changing acceleration of the spinning and moving charge! It could be that the $\boldsymbol{m_o}$ inertial mass is the result of the spin, since this is the only accelerating motion of the electric charge. Since the accelerating motion has different frequency for the electron in the atom and the proton, they masses are different, also as the wavelengths on both sides of the diffraction pattern, giving equal intensity of radiation.

Electron – Proton mass rate

The Planck distribution law explains the different frequencies of the proton and electron, giving equal intensity to different lambda wavelengths! Also since the particles are diffraction patterns they have some closeness to each other – can be seen as a gravitational force. [2]

There is an asymmetry between the mass of the electric charges, for example proton and electron, can understood by the asymmetrical Planck Distribution Law. This temperature dependent energy distribution is asymmetric around the maximum intensity, where the annihilation of matter and antimatter is a high probability event. The asymmetric sides are creating different frequencies of electromagnetic radiations being in the same intensity level and compensating each other. One of these compensating ratios is the electron – proton mass ratio. The lower energy side has no compensating intensity level, it is the dark energy and the corresponding matter is the dark matter.

Gravity from the point of view of quantum physics

The Gravitational force

The gravitational attractive force is basically a magnetic force.

The same electric charges can attract one another by the magnetic force if they are moving parallel in the same direction. Since the electrically neutral matter is composed of negative and positive charges they need 2 photons to mediate this attractive force, one per charges. The Bing Bang caused parallel moving of the matter gives this magnetic force, experienced as gravitational force.

Since graviton is a tensor field, it has spin = 2, could be 2 photons with spin = 1 together.

You can think about photons as virtual electron – positron pairs, obtaining the necessary virtual mass for gravity.

The mass as seen before a result of the diffraction, for example the proton – electron mass rate Mp=1840 Me. In order to move one of these diffraction maximum (electron or proton) we need to intervene into the diffraction pattern with a force appropriate to the intensity of this diffraction maximum, means its intensity or mass.

The Big Bang caused acceleration created radial currents of the matter, and since the matter is composed of negative and positive charges, these currents are creating magnetic field and attracting forces between the parallel moving electric currents. This is the gravitational force experienced by the matter, and also the mass is result of the electromagnetic forces between the charged particles. The positive and negative charged currents attracts each other or by the magnetic forces or by the much stronger electrostatic forces!?

The gravitational force attracting the matter, causing concentration of the matter in a small space and leaving much space with low matter concentration: dark matter and energy.
There is an asymmetry between the mass of the electric charges, for example proton and electron, can understood by the asymmetrical Planck Distribution Law. This temperature dependent energy distribution is asymmetric around the maximum intensity, where the annihilation of matter and antimatter is a high probability event. The asymmetric sides are creating different frequencies of electromagnetic radiations being in the same intensity level and compensating each other. One of these compensating ratios is the electron – proton mass ratio. The lower energy side has no compensating intensity level, it is the dark energy and the corresponding matter is the dark matter.

The Higgs boson

By March 2013, the particle had been proven to behave, interact and decay in many of the expected ways predicted by the Standard Model, and was also tentatively confirmed to have + parity and zero spin, two fundamental criteria of a Higgs boson, making it also the first known scalar particle to be discovered in nature, although a number of other properties were not fully proven and some partial results do not yet precisely match those expected; in some cases data is also still awaited or being analyzed.

Since the Higgs boson is necessary to the W and Z bosons, the dipole change of the Weak interaction and the change in the magnetic effect caused gravitation must be conducted. The Wien law is also important to explain the Weak interaction, since it describes the T_{max} change and the diffraction patterns change. [2]

Higgs mechanism and Quantum Gravity

The magnetic induction creates a negative electric field, causing an electromagnetic inertia. Probably it is the mysterious Higgs field giving mass to the charged particles? We can think about the photon as an electron-positron pair, they have mass. The neutral particles are built from negative and positive charges, for example the neutron, decaying to proton and electron. The wave – particle duality makes sure that the particles are oscillating and creating magnetic induction as an inertial mass, explaining also the relativistic mass change. Higher frequency creates stronger magnetic induction, smaller frequency results lesser magnetic induction. It seems to me that the magnetic induction is the secret of the Higgs field.

In particle physics, the Higgs mechanism is a kind of mass generation mechanism, a process that gives mass to elementary particles. According to this theory, particles gain mass by interacting with the Higgs field that permeates all space. More precisely, the Higgs mechanism endows gauge bosons in a gauge theory with mass through absorption of Nambu–Goldstone bosons arising in spontaneous symmetry breaking.

The simplest implementation of the mechanism adds an extra Higgs field to the gauge theory. The spontaneous symmetry breaking of the underlying local symmetry triggers conversion of components of this Higgs field to Goldstone bosons which interact with (at least some of) the other fields in the theory, so as to produce mass terms for (at least some of) the gauge bosons. This mechanism may also leave behind elementary scalar (spin-0) particles, known as Higgs bosons.

In the Standard Model, the phrase "Higgs mechanism" refers specifically to the generation of masses for the $W^{\pm}$, and Z weak gauge bosons through electroweak symmetry breaking. The Large Hadron Collider at CERN announced results consistent with the Higgs particle on July 4, 2012 but stressed that further testing is needed to confirm the Standard Model.

What is the Spin?

So we know already that the new particle has spin zero or spin two and we could tell which one if we could detect the polarizations of the photons produced. Unfortunately this is difficult and neither ATLAS nor CMS are able to measure polarizations. The only direct and sure way to confirm that the particle is indeed a scalar is to plot the angular distribution of the photons in the rest frame of the centre of mass. A spin zero particles like the Higgs carries no directional information away from the original collision so the distribution will be even in all directions. This test will be possible when a much larger number of events have been observed. In the mean time we can settle for less certain indirect indicators.

The Graviton

In physics, the graviton is a hypothetical elementary particle that mediates the force of gravitation in the framework of quantum field theory. If it exists, the graviton is expected to be massless (because the gravitational force appears to have unlimited range) and must be a spin-2 boson. The spin follows from the fact that the source of gravitation is the stress-energy tensor, a second-rank tensor (compared to electromagnetism's spin-1 photon, the source of which is the four-current, a first-rank tensor). Additionally, it can be shown that any massless spin-2 field would give rise to a force indistinguishable from gravitation, because a massless spin-2 field must couple to (interact with) the stress-energy tensor in the same way that the gravitational field does. This result suggests that, if a massless spin-2 particle is discovered, it must be the graviton, so that the only experimental verification needed for the graviton may simply be the discovery of a massless spin-2 particle. [3]

Conclusions

In August 2013, the achievement of "fully deterministic" quantum teleportation, using a hybrid technique, was reported. On 29 May 2014, scientists announced a reliable way of transferring data by quantum teleportation. Quantum teleportation of data had been done before but with highly unreliable methods. [8]

One of the most important conclusions is that the electric charges are moving in an accelerated way and even if their velocity is constant, they have an intrinsic acceleration anyway, the so called spin, since they need at least an intrinsic acceleration to make possible they movement .

The accelerated charges self-maintaining potential shows the locality of the relativity, working on the quantum level also. [1]
The bridge between the classical and quantum theory is based on this intrinsic acceleration of the spin, explaining also the Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle. The particle – wave duality of the electric charges and the photon makes certain that they are both sides of the same thing. The Secret of Quantum Entanglement that the particles are diffraction patterns of the electromagnetic waves and this way their quantum states every time is the result of the quantum state of the intermediate electromagnetic waves. [2]
The key breakthrough to arrive at this new idea to build qubits was to exploit the ability to control the nuclear spin of each atom. With that insight, the team has now conceived a unique way to use the nuclei as facilitators for the quantum logic operation between the electrons. [5]
Basing the gravitational force on the accelerating Universe caused magnetic force and the Planck Distribution Law of the electromagnetic waves caused diffraction gives us the basis to build a Unified Theory of the physical interactions also.

References

[1] The Magnetic field of the Electric current and the Magnetic induction http://academia.edu/3833335/The_Magnetic_field_of_the_Electric_current

[2] 3 Dimensional String Theory http://academia.edu/3834454/3_Dimensional_String_Theory

[3] Graviton Production By Two Photon and Electron-Photon Processes In Kaluza-Klein Theories With Large Extra Dimensions http://arxiv.org/abs/hep-ph/9909392 [4] Quantum Entanglement http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Quantum_entanglement [5] Pairing up single atoms in silicon for quantum computing http://phys.org/news/2014-06-pairing-atoms-silicon-quantum.html#nwlt

[6] How to Win at Bridge Using Quantum Physics http://www.wired.com/2014/06/bridge-quantum-mechanics/

[7] Information Entropy-Theory of Physics https://www.academia.edu/3836084/Information_-_Entropy_Theory_of_Physics

[8] Quantum Teleportation http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Quantum_teleportation

[9] Researchers demonstrate quantum teleportation of patterns of light https://phys.org/news/2017-09-quantum-teleportation-patterns.html

[10] Method to significantly enhance optical force https://phys.org/news/2017-10-method-significantly-optical.html

[11] 53 attoseconds: Research produces shortest light pulse ever developed

https://phys.org/news/2017-10-attoseconds-shortest-pulse.html

[12] Research demonstrates method to alter coherence of light

https://phys.org/news/2017-10-method-coherence.html

[13] Researchers steer the flow of electrical current with spinning light

https://phys.org/news/2017-12-electrical-current.html

[14] Scientists control superconductivity using spin currents

https://phys.org/news/2017-12-scientists-superconductivity-currents.html

[15] A different spin on superconductivity—Unusual particle interactions open up new possibilities in exotic materials

https://phys.org/news/2018-04-superconductivityunusual-particle-interactions-possibilities-exotic.html

[16] Spin-3/2 superconductor is a first, say physicists

https://physicsworld.com/a/spin-3-2-superconductor-is-a-first-say-physicists/

[17] Underlying mechanism discovered for magnetic effect in superconducting spintronics

https://phys.org/news/2018-07-underlying-mechanism-magnetic-effect-superconducting.html

[18] Superconduction—why does it have to be so cold?

https://phys.org/news/2019-02-superconductionwhy-cold.html

[19] Scientists measure exact edge between superconducting and magnetic states

https://phys.org/news/2019-02-scientists-exact-edge-superconducting-magnetic.html

[20] Making high-temperature superconductivity disappear to understand its origin

https://phys.org/news/2020-02-high-temperature-superconductivity.html

[21] Closely spaced hydrogen atoms could facilitate superconductivity in ambient conditions

https://phys.org/news/2020-02-spaced-hydrogen-atoms-superconductivity-ambient.html