

Genetically Modified Plants

Salk researchers have mapped the genomes and epigenomes of genetically modified plant lines with the highest resolution ever to reveal exactly what happens at a molecular level when a piece of foreign DNA is inserted. [32]

MIT researchers have developed a way to dramatically enhance the sensitivity of nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR), a technique used to study the structure and composition of many kinds of molecules, including proteins linked to Alzheimer's and other diseases. [31]

Electronegativity is one of the most well-known models for explaining why chemical reactions occur. [30]

Innovations in microscale electronics, medicine, combustion and scores of other technologies depend on understanding and predicting the behavior of electricity on the smallest of length scales. [29]

New research from UBC's Okanagan campus, recently published in Nature Communications, may have uncovered the key to one of the darkest secrets of light. [28]

But an international group led by Prof. Beena Kalisky and Prof. Aviad Frydman, from the Department of Physics and the Institute for Nanotechnology at Bar-Ilan University in Israel, has succeeded in imaging quantum fluctuations for the first time. [27]

To tame chaos in powerful semiconductor lasers, which causes instabilities, scientists have introduced another kind of chaos. [26]

An international team of scientists developed the world's first anti-laser for a nonlinear Bose-Einstein condensate of ultracold atoms. [25]

A kiwi physicist has discovered the energy difference between two quantum states in the helium atom with unprecedented accuracy, a ground-breaking discovery that contributes to our understanding of the universe and space-time and rivals the work of the world's most expensive physics project, the Large Hadron Collider. [24]

Physicists and material scientists have succeeded in constructing a motor and an energy storage device from one single component. [23]

Heat pipes are devices to keep critical equipment from overheating. They transfer heat from one point to another through an evaporation-condensation process and are used in everything from cell phones and laptops to air conditioners and spacecraft. [22]

Now, researchers from the Harvard John A. Paulson School of Engineering and Applied Sciences (SEAS) have developed an algorithm that can discover and optimize these materials in a matter of months, relying on solving quantum mechanical equations, without any experimental input. [21]

Researchers at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign have developed a new technology for switching heat flows 'on' or 'off'. [20]

Thermoelectric materials can use thermal differences to generate electricity. Now there is an inexpensive and environmentally friendly way of producing them with the simplest tools: a pencil, photocopy paper, and conductive paint. [19]

A team of researchers with the University of California and SRI International has developed a new type of cooling device that is both portable and efficient. [18]

Thermal conductivity is one of the most crucial physical properties of matter when it comes to understanding heat transport, hydrodynamic evolution and energy balance in systems ranging from astrophysical objects to fusion plasmas. [17]

Researchers from the Theory Department of the MPSD have realized the control of thermal and electrical currents in nanoscale devices by means of quantum local observations. [16]

Physicists have proposed a new type of Maxwell's demon—the hypothetical agent that extracts work from a system by decreasing the system's entropy—in which the demon can extract work just by making a measurement, by taking advantage of quantum fluctuations and quantum superposition. [15]

Pioneering research offers a fascinating view into the inner workings of the mind of 'Maxwell's Demon', a famous thought experiment in physics. [14]

For more than a century and a half of physics, the Second Law of Thermodynamics, which states that entropy always increases, has been as close to inviolable as any law we know. In this universe, chaos reigns supreme. [13]

Physicists have shown that the three main types of engines (four-stroke, twostroke, and continuous) are thermodynamically equivalent in a certain quantum regime, but not at the classical level. [12]

For the first time, physicists have performed an experiment confirming that thermodynamic processes are irreversible in a quantum system—meaning that, even on

the quantum level, you can't put a broken egg back into its shell. The results have implications for understanding thermodynamics in quantum systems and, in turn, designing quantum computers and other quantum information technologies. [11]

Disorder, or entropy, in a microscopic quantum system has been measured by an international group of physicists. The team hopes that the feat will shed light on the "arrow of time": the observation that time always marches towards the future. The experiment involved continually flipping the spin of carbon atoms with an oscillating magnetic field and links the emergence of the arrow of time to quantum fluctuations between one atomic spin state and another. [10]

Mark M. Wilde, Assistant Professor at Louisiana State University, has improved this theorem in a way that allows for understanding how quantum measurements can be approximately reversed under certain circumstances. The new results allow for understanding how quantum information that has been lost during a measurement can be nearly recovered, which has potential implications for a variety of quantum technologies. [9]

Today, we are capable of measuring the position of an object with unprecedented accuracy, but quantum physics and the Heisenberg uncertainty principle place fundamental limits on our ability to measure. Noise that arises as a result of the quantum nature of the fields used to make those measurements imposes what is called the "standard quantum limit." This same limit influences both the ultrasensitive measurements in nanoscale devices and the kilometer-scale gravitational wave detector at LIGO. Because of this troublesome background noise, we can never know an object's exact location, but a recent study provides a solution for rerouting some of that noise away from the measurement. [8]

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.

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Preface

Physicists are continually looking for ways to unify the theory of relativity, which describes largescale phenomena, with quantum theory, which describes small-scale phenomena. In a new proposed experiment in this area, two toaster-sized "nanosatellites" carrying entangled condensates orbit around the Earth, until one of them moves to a different orbit with different gravitational field strength. As a result of the change in gravity, the entanglement between the condensates is predicted to degrade by up to 20%. Experimentally testing the proposal may be possible in the near future. [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.

New technologies enable better-than-ever details on genetically modified plants

Salk researchers have mapped the genomes and epigenomes of genetically modified plant lines with the highest resolution ever to reveal exactly what happens at a molecular level when a piece of foreign DNA is inserted. Their findings, published in the journal *PLOS Genetics* on January 15, 2019, elucidate the routine methods used to modify plants, and offer new ways to more effectively minimize potential off-target effects.

"This was really a starting point for showing that it's possible to use the latest mapping and sequencing technologies to look at the impact of inserting [genes](#) into the [plant genome](#)," says Howard Hughes Medical Institute Investigator Joseph Ecker, a professor in Salk's Plant Molecular and Cellular Biology Laboratory and head of the Genomic Analysis Laboratory.

When a scientist wants to put a new gene into a plant—for basic research purposes or to boost the health or nutrition of a food crop—they usually rely on *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* to get the job done. *Agrobacterium* is the bacteria that causes crown gall tumors, large bulges on the trunks of trees. Decades ago, scientists discovered that when the bacteria infected a tree, it transferred some of its DNA to the tree's genome. Since then, researchers have co-opted this transfer ability of *Agrobacterium* for their own purposes, using its transfer-DNA (T-DNA) to move a desired gene into a plant.

Recently, DNA sequencing technologies had started to hint that when the *Agrobacterium* T-DNA is used to insert new genes into a plant, it may cause additional changes to the structural and chemical properties of the native DNA.

"Biotech companies spend a lot of time and effort to characterize transgenic plants and disregard candidates with unwanted changes without understanding—from a basic biological perspective—

why these changes may have occurred," says Ecker. "Our new approach offers a way to better understand these effects and may help to speed up the process."

"The biggest unknown was whether, and how many copies of, the T-DNA were inserted at the same time as the piece you wanted," says Florian Jupe, a former Salk research associate who now works at Bayer Crop Science. Jupe, Salk Staff Researcher Mark Zander and Research Assistant Angeline Rivkin are co-first authors of the new paper, along with Todd Michael of the J. Craig Venter Institute.

Since the T-DNA approach can lead to an integration of many copies of a desired gene into a plant, it can be difficult to study the final result with standard DNA sequencing, as most technologies struggle to sequence highly repetitive stretches of DNA. But Ecker and his colleagues turned to a new combination of approaches—including optical mapping and [nanopore sequencing](#)—to look at these long stretches in high resolution. They applied the technologies to four randomly selected T-DNA lines of *Arabidopsis thaliana*, a commonly used model plant in biology. (These plants are derived from a large population of T-DNA insertional mutants that were created using an *Arabidopsis* transformation method, called floral dip, to study gene function.)

Optical mapping revealed that the plants had between one and seven distinct insertions or rearrangements in their genomes, ranging in size by almost tenfold. Nanopore sequencing and reconstruction of the genomes of two lines confirmed the insertions to single-letter resolution, including whole segments of DNA that had been exchanged—or translocated—between chromosomes in one of the selected lines. Gene insertions themselves showed a variety of patterns, with the inserted DNA fragment sometimes scrambled, inverted or even silenced.

"This study was not possible even a year ago," says Michael. "Nanopore sequencing, which some refer to as the 'holy grail' of DNA sequencing, has revolutionized the reading of even the most complex regions of the genome that were completely inaccessible and unknown until now."

Finally, when the researchers studied packets of genetic material called histones they found additional changes. Histone proteins package DNA into structural units, and modifications of these histones mediate whether a gene can be accessed for use by a cell (a level of regulation called epigenetics). Depending on where T-DNA was integrated, certain nearby histone modifications appeared or disappeared potentially changing the regulation or activation of other nearby genes.

"Now we have the first high-resolution insights on how T-DNA insertions can shape the local epigenome environment," says Zander.

In an ideal world, the researchers say, T-DNA would insert one single, functional copy of a desired gene with no nearby side effects on a plant's genome. While their findings show this is rarely the case in *Arabidopsis*, their methods offer a path to a better understanding and surveillance of the effects.

"This technology is exciting because it gives us a much clearer look at what's going on in some of these transgenic *Arabidopsis* lines," says Rivkin.

"With *Arabidopsis*, it's relatively easy because it has such a small genome, but because of continued improvements in DNA sequencing technology, we expect this approach will also be possible for

crop [plants](#)," adds Ecker, who holds the Salk International Council Chair in Genetics. "Current methods require screening of hundreds of transgenic lines to find good performing ones, such as those without extra insertions, so this technology could provide a more efficient approach." [32]

Enhanced NMR reveals chemical structures in a fraction of the time

MIT researchers have developed a way to dramatically enhance the sensitivity of nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR), a technique used to study the structure and composition of many kinds of molecules, including proteins linked to Alzheimer's and other diseases.

Using this new method, scientists should be able to analyze in mere minutes structures that would previously have taken years to decipher, says Robert Griffin, the Arthur Amos Noyes Professor of Chemistry. The new approach, which relies on short pulses of microwave power, could allow researchers to determine structures for many complex proteins that have been difficult to study until now.

"This technique should open extensive new areas of chemical, biological, materials, and medical science which are presently inaccessible," says Griffin, the senior author of the study.

MIT postdoc Kong Ooi Tan is the lead author of the paper, which appears in *Sciences Advances* on Jan. 18. Former MIT postdocs Chen Yang and Guinevere Mathies, and Ralph Weber of Bruker BioSpin Corporation, are also authors of the paper.

Enhanced sensitivity

Traditional NMR uses the magnetic properties of atomic nuclei to reveal the structures of the molecules containing those nuclei. By using a [strong magnetic field](#) that interacts with the nuclear spins of hydrogen and other isotopically labelled atoms such as carbon or nitrogen, NMR measures a trait known as chemical shift for these nuclei. Those shifts are unique for each atom and thus serve as fingerprints, which can be further exploited to reveal how those atoms are connected.

The sensitivity of NMR depends on the atoms' [polarization](#)—a measurement of the difference between the population of "up" and "down" nuclear spins in each spin ensemble. The greater the polarization, the greater sensitivity that can be achieved. Typically, researchers try to increase the polarization of their samples by applying a stronger magnetic field, up to 35 tesla.

Another approach, which Griffin and Richard Temkin of MIT's Plasma Science and Fusion Center have been developing over the past 25 years, further enhances the polarization using a technique called dynamic nuclear polarization (DNP). This technique involves transferring polarization from the unpaired electrons of free radicals to hydrogen, carbon, nitrogen, or phosphorus nuclei in the sample being studied. This increases the polarization and makes it easier to discover the molecule's structural features.

DNP is usually performed by continuously irradiating the sample with high-frequency microwaves, using an instrument called a gyrotron. This improves NMR sensitivity by about 100-fold. However, this method requires a great deal of power and doesn't work well at higher magnetic fields that could offer even greater resolution improvements.

To overcome that problem, the MIT team came up with a way to deliver short pulses of microwave radiation, instead of continuous microwave exposure. By delivering these pulses at a specific frequency, they were able to enhance polarization by a factor of up to 200. This is similar to the improvement achieved with traditional DNP, but it requires only 7 percent of the power, and unlike traditional DNP, it can be implemented at higher magnetic fields.

"We can transfer the polarization in a very efficient way, through efficient use of microwave irradiation," Tan says. "With continuous-wave irradiation, you just blast microwave power, and you have no control over phases or pulse length."

Saving time

With this improvement in sensitivity, samples that would previously have taken nearly 110 years to analyze could be studied in a single day, the researchers say. In the *Sciences Advances* paper, they demonstrated the [technique](#) by using it to analyze standard test molecules such as a glycerol-water mixture, but they now plan to use it on more complex molecules.

One major area of interest is the amyloid beta protein that accumulates in the brains of Alzheimer's patients. The researchers also plan to study a variety of membrane-bound proteins, such as ion channels and rhodopsins, which are light-sensitive proteins found in bacterial membranes as well as the human retina. Because the sensitivity is so great, this method can yield useful data from a much smaller sample size, which could make it easier to study proteins that are difficult to obtain in large quantities.

The study is published in *Science Advances*. [31]

New scale for electronegativity rewrites the chemistry textbook

Electronegativity is one of the most well-known models for explaining why chemical reactions occur. Now, Martin Rahm from Chalmers University of Technology, Sweden, has redefined the concept with a new, more comprehensive scale. His work, undertaken with colleagues including a Nobel Prize-winner, has been published in the *Journal of the American Chemical Society*.

The theory of [electronegativity](#) is used to describe how strongly different atoms attract electrons. By using electronegativity scales, one can predict the approximate charge distribution in different molecules and materials, without needing to resort to complex quantum mechanical calculations or spectroscopic studies. This is vital for understanding all kinds of materials, as well as for designing new ones. Used daily by chemists and materials researchers all over the world, the concept originates from Swedish chemist Jöns Jacob Berzelius' research in the 19th century and is widely taught at high-school level.

Now, Martin Rahm, Assistant Professor in Physical Chemistry at Chalmers University of Technology, has developed a brand-new scale of electronegativity.

"The new definition is the average binding energy of the outermost and weakest bound electrons—commonly known as the valence electrons," he explains.

"We derived these values by combining experimental photoionization data with quantum mechanical calculations. By and large, most elements relate to each other in the same way as in earlier scales. But the new definition has also led to some interesting changes where atoms have switched places in the order of electronegativity. Additionally, for some elements this is the first time their electronegativity has been calculated."

													13	14	15	16	17	
2	Electronegativity of the Atoms												B	C	N	O	F	
	Average valence electron binding energy as $T \rightarrow 0K$												2s ² 2p ¹	2s ² 2p ²	2s ² 2p ³	2s ² 2p ⁴	2s ² 2p ⁵	
	eV e ⁻¹												11.4	13.9	16.9	18.6	23.3	
														Al	Si	P	S	Cl
														9.1	10.8	12.8	13.6	16.3
	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12								
Ca	Sc	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br			
4s ¹	4s ² 3d ¹	4s ² 3d ²	4s ² 3d ³	4s ¹ 3d ⁵	4s ² 3d ⁵	4s ² 3d ⁶	4s ² 3d ⁷	4s ² 3d ⁸	4s ¹ 3d ¹⁰	4s ² 3d ¹⁰	4s ² 4p ¹	4s ² 4p ²	4s ² 4p ³	4s ² 4p ⁴	4s ² 4p ⁵			
6.1	7.0	8.4	9.7	8.0	12.3	10.1	11.9	12.9	10.2	15.9	9.9	11.1	12.5	13.2	15.2			
Sr	Y	Zr	Nb	Mo	Tc	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Te	I			
5s ²	5s ² 4d ¹	5s ² 4d ²	5s ¹ 4d ⁵	5s ² 4d ⁵	5s ² 4d ⁵	5s ¹ 4d ⁷	5s ¹ 4d ⁸	4d ¹⁰	5s ¹ 4d ¹⁰	5s ² 4d ¹⁰	5s ² 5p ¹	5s ² 5p ²	5s ² 5p ³	5s ² 5p ⁴	5s ² 5p ⁵			
5.7	6.3	7.5	7.0	8.3	10.9	8.4	9.3	8.3	12.0	16.1	9.3	10.2	11.2	12.0	13.4			
Ba	Lu	Hf	Ta	W	Re	Os	Ir	Pt	Au	Hg	Tl	Pb	Bi	Po	At			
6s ²	6s ² 5d ¹	6s ² 5d ²	6s ¹ 5d ⁵	6s ² 5d ⁴	6s ¹ 5d ⁵	6s ² 5d ⁶	6s ² 5d ⁷	6s ¹ 5d ⁹	6s ¹ 5d ¹⁰	6s ² 5d ¹⁰	6s ² 6p ¹	6s ² 6p ²	6s ² 6p ³	6s ² 6p ⁴	6s ² 6p ⁵			
5.2	6.4	7.1	7.8	8.6	9.1	9.2	10.8	9.5	10.9	14.1	10.2	11.0	10.7	12.2	12.6			
Ra																		
7s ²																		
6	La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Pm	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Ho	Er	Tm	Yb				
	6s ² 5d ¹	6s ² 4f ¹ 5d ¹	6s ² 4f ²	6s ² 4f ⁴	6s ² 4f ⁶	6s ² 4f ⁶	6s ² 4f ⁷	6s ² 4f ⁷ 5d ¹	6s ² 4f ⁹	6s ² 4f ¹⁰	6s ² 4f ¹¹	6s ² 4f ¹²	6s ² 4f ¹³	6s ² 4f ¹⁴				
	6.0	7.3	6.7	7.2	7.4	8.3	9.4	13.8	7.7	8.4	8.3	7.6	9.0	10.2				
7	Ac	Th	Pa	U	Np	Pu	Am	Cm										
	7s ² 6d ¹	7s ² 6d ²	7s ² 5f ² 6d ¹	7s ² 5f ³ 6d ¹	7s ² 5f ⁴ 6d ¹	7s ² 5f ⁶	7s ² 5f ⁷	7s ² 5f ⁷ 6d ¹										
	5.8	6.4	6.3	7.5	8.2	7.3	8.3	10.9										

Periodic table showing the values of the first 96 elements in the new scale of electronegativity, published in the article in the *Journal of the American Chemical Society*. Credit: Martin Rahm/Chalmers University of Technology

For example, compared to earlier scales, oxygen and chromium have both been moved in the ranking, relative to elements closest to them in the periodic table. The new scale encompasses 96 elements, a marked increase from previous versions. The scale now runs from the first element, hydrogen, to the ninety-sixth, curium.

One motivation for the researchers to develop the new scale was that, although several different definitions of the concept exist, each is only able to cover parts of the periodic table. An additional challenge for chemists is how to explain why electronegativity is sometimes unable to predict chemical reactivity or the polarity of chemical bonds.

A further advantage of the new definition is how it fits into a wider framework that can help explain what happens when [chemical reactions](#) are not controlled by electronegativity. In these reactions, which can be hard to understand using conventional chemical models, complex interactions between electrons are at work. What ultimately determines the outcomes of most chemical reactions is the change in total energy. In the new paper, the researchers offer an equation where the total energy of an atom can be described as the sum of two values. One is electronegativity, and the second is the average electron interaction. The magnitude and character of these values as

they change over a reaction reveals the relative importance of electronegativity in influencing the chemical process.

There are endless ways to combine the atoms in the periodic table to create new materials. Electronegativity provides a first important indicator of what can be expected from these combinations.

"The scale is extensive, and I hope it will greatly affect research in chemistry and material science. Electronegativity is routinely used in chemical research and with our new scale a number of complicated quantum mechanical calculations can be avoided. The new definition of electronegativity can also be useful for analysing electronic structures calculated through [quantum mechanics](#), by making such results more comprehensible," says Martin Rahm. [30]

Researchers unravel the path of electrical discharges on phenomenally small scales

Innovations in microscale electronics, medicine, combustion and scores of other technologies depend on understanding and predicting the behavior of electricity on the smallest of length scales. Scientists already have a good grasp of a phenomenon known as "electrical breakdown," when electricity jumps across large gaps and creates plasma. However, researchers have had little insight into the behavior of electricity as it jumps across very small gaps—only a few thousandths of a millimeter—until now.

A team of researchers from the United States and China reports new research that shines light on the behavior of electrical [breakdown](#) for the smallest gap distances ever studied: a mere 5 to 10 microns. (A micron is 1/1,000 of a millimeter or about 1/400,000 of an inch.)

"Our study shows the transition between gas breakdown mechanisms, or the process by which the gas becomes conductive, and the discharge path length—essentially how the electrons flow during their collisions with gas molecules, at very small scales," said Allen Garner at Purdue University in West Lafayette, Indiana, and co-author of the paper published in the *Physics of Plasmas*.

The researchers found that at these microscopic gap distances, no obvious discharge channel formed, meaning the breakdown did not originate from the avalanche mechanism found in larger gaps. Breakdown in small gaps also involves direct ion field emission from the positively charged gap surface. They also noted that the voltage necessary for [electrical breakdown](#) decreased linearly with decreasing gap distance at these smaller scales.

To conduct their research, the team used an electrical-optical measurement system, which integrated a high-magnification optical microscope with a high-speed ICCD camera, to measure the breakdown voltages and determine breakdown morphology (discharge shape and path length) as a function of gap width.

"Understanding the fundamental mechanism of gas breakdown at microscale will have far-reaching impact on practical devices due to the numerous applications that leverage microplasmas, including excimer lamps, arrays for flat-panel light sources, medicine, environmental remediation, and

combustion," said Guodong Meng, from Xi'an Jiaotong University in China and lead author on the study.

"The importance of understanding breakdown at these smaller gaps relates these efforts to ongoing research on [electron emission](#) in vacuum electronics and motivates future work, unifying the various theories of electron emission and gas breakdown," Garner said. [29]

Understanding of light momentum: Researchers shine a light on 150-year old mystery

The idea that light has momentum is not new, but the exact nature of how light interacts with matter has remained a mystery for close to 150 years. New research from UBC's Okanagan campus, recently published in *Nature Communications*, may have uncovered the key to one of the darkest secrets of light.

Johannes Kepler, famed German astronomer and mathematician, first suggested in 1619 that pressure from sunlight could be responsible for a comet's tail always pointing away from the Sun, says study co-author and UBC Okanagan engineering professor Kenneth Chau. It wasn't until 1873 that James Clerk Maxwell predicted that this [radiation pressure](#) was due to the [momentum](#) residing within the electromagnetic fields of [light](#) itself.

"Until now, we hadn't determined how this momentum is converted into force or movement," says Chau. "Because the amount of momentum carried by light is very small, we haven't had equipment sensitive enough to solve this."

Now, technology has caught up and Chau, with his international research team from Slovenia and Brazil, are shedding light on this mystery.

To measure these extremely weak interactions between light photons, the team constructed a special [mirror](#) fitted with acoustic sensors and heat shielding to keep interference and background noise to a minimum. They then shot laser pulses at the mirror and used the sound sensors to detect [elastic waves](#) as they moved across the surface of the mirror, like watching ripples on a pond.

"We can't directly measure photon momentum, so our approach was to detect its effect on a mirror by 'listening' to the elastic waves that traveled through it," says Chau. "We were able to trace the features of those waves back to the momentum residing in the light pulse itself, which opens the door to finally defining and modelling how light momentum exists inside materials."

The discovery is important in advancing our fundamental understanding of light, but Chau also points to practical applications of radiation pressure.

"Imagine travelling to distant stars on interstellar yachts powered by solar sails," says Chau. "Or perhaps, here on Earth, developing optical tweezers that could assemble microscopic machines."

"We're not there yet, but the discovery in this work is an important step and I'm excited to see where it takes us next." [28]

Researchers succeed in imaging quantum events

Quantum technology is a growing field of physics and engineering which utilizes properties of quantum mechanics as a basis for advanced practical applications such as quantum computing, sensors, information, communication and medicine. This promises to lead to a new era of technology unlike anything we've known. Computers will be much more powerful, medical treatment will be non-invasive and far safer than today, and even teleportation can be envisioned. A phenomenon that stands at the core of this development is the Quantum phase transition.

Phase transitions are present in our day-to-day life, starting from the water boiling for our morning coffee to the melting of an ice cube in our drink. In these [phase](#) transitions between solid, liquid, and gas phases, we can directly visualize certain aspects of the transition. We see bubbles of one phase in the other—for example bubbles of air in boiling water, or droplets of water in ice slush. In order to see these phase transitions, we need nothing but our eyes. These "classic" phase transitions, with which we are all familiar, have a common characteristic which is that their driving force is temperature. Ice melts at zero degrees Celsius and evaporates at a hundred degrees. How cool would it be if instead of heating water in a kettle for a cup of tea we could take a glass of cold water and boil it by bringing it close to a magnet! In our world this is impossible but in the [quantum](#) world it works.

The scientific community has recently gained increasing interest in a different type of phase transitions—"[quantum phase transitions](#)"—which occur at the absolute zero temperature (minus two hundred and seventy three degrees). These transitions are not driven by the temperature, but by changing a different physical property such as mechanical pressure or magnetic field. Similar to classical phase transitions, quantum [phase transitions](#) are also accompanied by the presence of "bubbles" of one phase in the other. The scientific term for these bubbles is Quantum fluctuations. Unlike the classic case, where a change in the temperature is responsible for the bubbles, in the quantum case the bubbles arise due to the uncertainty principle which is one of the basic rules in quantum physics. This principle, developed by German physicist Werner Heisenberg, states that contrary to our intuition, vacuum is not empty but contains temporary changes in the amount of energy in a point in space. These changes lead to quantum bubbles of one phase into a second phase even at the absolute zero [temperature](#).

Until now it has been impossible to take pictures of these [quantum fluctuations](#). They occur at very low temperatures, and many times involve physical phases which cannot be seen by a regular microscope. Though indirect evidence for their presence appears in many measurements, no one has actually seen them. But an international group led by Prof. Beena Kalisky and Prof. Aviad Frydman, from the Department of Physics and the Institute for Nanotechnology at Bar-Ilan University in Israel, has succeeded in imaging quantum fluctuations for the first time. In their experiment, published today in *Nature Physics*, not only were quantum fluctuations visualized, but new information about the sizes, times and distributions of quantum events was extracted.

The researchers employed a unique microscope that can operate at very low temperatures to examine a material that undergoes a quantum phase transition. This microscope, called a scanning

SQUID (Superconducting QUantum Interference Device), can detect very small magnetic signals and plot a map of their location with sub-micron resolution. The microscope uses quantum phenomena to convert magnetic signals to voltage and it is an ideal tool for investigating complex phenomena at the nano-scale.

The experiment was performed by graduate student Anna Kremen who used the sensitive magnetic measurements to identify different phases in the material. At very low temperatures, close to zero, the sample was pushed towards the region where quantum behavior is expected, while the scanning SQUID microscope was used to take pictures. Remarkably, quantum bubbles appeared at random locations. They switched on and off with time or appeared sporadically at different places. We are used to this behavior of air bubbles in boiling water, but now similar bubbles can also be seen in quantum matter.

This experiment opens a door to detailed investigations of quantum events. Images allow the extraction of physical quantities such as size, dynamics, distributions, and interactions with other phenomena. This novel ability to look at quantum fluctuations is expected to be a fundamental tool for the future development of quantum technology. [27]

Physicists fight laser chaos with quantum chaos to improve laser performance

To tame chaos in powerful semiconductor lasers, which causes instabilities, scientists have introduced another kind of chaos.

High-powered semiconductor lasers are used in materials processing, biomedical imaging and industrial research, but the emitted light they produce is affected by instabilities, making it incoherent.

The instabilities in the laser are caused by optical filaments; light structures that move randomly and change with time, causing chaos. Removing these instabilities has long been a goal in physics, but previous strategies to reduce filaments have usually involved reducing the power of the laser.

This means it can no longer be used for many practical high-power applications, such as in ultrabright 3-D laser cinema or as elements in extremely bright laser systems used in fusion reactors.

Instead, researchers had to choose between a powerful semiconductor laser with poor output quality and a coherent but much less powerful laser.

Now, a research team from Imperial College London, Yale University, Nanyang Technological University and Cardiff University have come up with a new solution.

Their technique, published today in *Science*, uses 'quantum chaos' to prevent the laser filaments, which lead to the instabilities, from forming in the first place. By creating quantum (wave) chaos in the cavity used to create the laser, the laser itself remains steady.

Professor Ortwin Hess, from the Department of Physics at Imperial, contributed much of the theory, simulation and interpretation of the new system. He said: "The way the optical filaments, which cause the laser instabilities, grow and resist control is for the laser a bit like the unruly behaviour of tornadoes. Once they form, they move about chaotically, causing destruction in their wake.

"However, tornadoes are more likely to form and move about over flat country. For example, in America they form frequently in beautiful Oklahoma but not as often in hilly West Virginia. The hills appear to be a key difference—they prevent tornadoes from being able to form or move around.

"In the same way, by creating a 'hilly' optical landscape right inside our lasers using quantum chaos, we don't allow the filaments—our optical tornados—to form or grow out of control."

The laser system, manufactured at the Nanyang Technological University in Singapore, has been proven experimentally at Yale University. The team are now working to further explore and tailor the light emission, such as improving the directionality of the laser.

They say however that the breakthrough should already allow semiconductor lasers to work at higher power with high emission quality, and that the same idea could be applied to other types of lasers.

Lasers emit coherent light that can be focused in a tight beam. To produce and amplify the light, it is bounced around a cavity through special gain materials. However, when large [semiconductor lasers](#) are switched on, this bouncing back and forth creates filaments—sections of the light that swiftly begin to act chaotically.

To create a different kind of chaos—the quantum chaotic landscape—the team designed a new shape of cavity for the laser. Most cavities are cuboid in shape, but by using a D-shaped cavity, the team were able to induce quantum chaos in the light bouncing around.

This quantum chaos acts on a smaller scale than the wavelength of the light, creating the optical 'hills' that help to dispel the optical 'tornadoes'.

Professor Hui Cao, from Yale University, said: "We use wave-chaotic or disordered cavities to disrupt the formation of self-organized structures such as filaments that lead to instabilities."

The team gained insight into the processes and cavity shapes likely to create this kind of quantum [chaos](#) from theories and experiments in nanophotonics and nanoplasmonics—studying [light](#) and metals at scales of billionths of a metre.

Professor Hess added: "I have been working on spatio-temporal and quantum dynamics in lasers since my Ph.D., so it is gratifying to return to it now with the knowledge gained from nanophotonics and nanoplasmonics.

"The relationship also works the other way around—with systems like this we can offer new insights into nanophotonics and nanoplasmonics, and bring the nanoscience and [laser](#) communities together." [26]

Scientists create anti-laser for a condensate of ultracold atoms

An international team of scientists developed the world's first anti-laser for a nonlinear Bose-Einstein condensate of ultracold atoms. For the first time, scientists have demonstrated that it is possible to absorb the selected signal completely, even though the nonlinear system makes it difficult to predict the wave behaviour. The results can be used to manipulate superfluid flows, create atomic lasers, and also study nonlinear optical systems. The study was published in *Science Advances*.

Successful information transfer requires the ability to completely extinguish a selected electromagnetic signal without any reflection. This might happen only when the parameters of the electromagnetic waves and the [system](#) around them are coherent with each other. Devices that provide coherent perfect absorption of a wave with given parameters are called anti-lasers. They have been used for several years in optics, for example, to create high-precision filters or sensors. The work of standard anti-lasers is based on the destructive interference of waves incident on the absorber. If the parameters of the incident waves are matched in a certain way, then their interaction leads to [perfect absorption](#) with zero reflection.

However, until now, it was not clear whether such absorption is possible in [nonlinear systems](#), such as an optical fiber transmitting a high-intensity signal in a strong external electromagnetic field. The problem is that it is much more difficult to describe the interaction of the incident waves propagating in the nonlinear medium. At the same time, nonlinear systems can control wave frequency and shape without energy loss. This can be useful for signal distinction in optical computers. However, the problem is that nonlinear systems often turn out to be unstable, and predicting their behavior can be difficult.

Scientists from Russia, Germany and Portugal are the first to construct an anti-laser for waves propagating in a nonlinear medium. In their experiments, the scientists used a Bose-Einstein condensate of [ultracold atoms](#). A Bose-Einstein condensate is a peculiar state of matter observed when atomic gas is cooled to near-absolute zero. Under these conditions, a gas containing about 50,000 [atoms](#) condenses. This means that all atoms form a coherent cloud supporting propagation of matter waves. Strong repulsive interactions between the condensed atoms induce nonlinear properties in the system. For example, the interaction of waves ceases to obey the laws of linear interference.

To catch the condensate, the scientists used a periodic optical trap formed by the intersection of two laser beams. A focused electron beam applied to the central cell of the lattice makes the atoms leak out from this cell. Atoms from neighboring cells go to the central cell, striving to make up for the leak. As a result, two superfluid matter flows directed toward the center are formed in the condensate. Once the flows meet in the central cell, they are absorbed perfectly, without reflection.

"The laws that describe the propagation of waves in various media are universal. Therefore, our idea can be adapted to implement an anti-laser in other nonlinear systems. For example, in nonlinear optical waveguides or in condensates of quasiparticles, such as polaritons and excitons. This concept can also be used when working with nonlinear acoustic waves. For example, you can build a device that will absorb sounds of a certain frequency. Although such devices may not be

made soon, we have shown that they are possible," notes researcher Dmitry Zezyulin, member of the International Laboratory of Photoprocesses in the Mesoscopic Systems at ITMO University.

Scientists currently plan to shift to nonlinear optical systems, in which atoms are replaced with photons. "Photons, unlike atoms, are difficult to keep in the system for long. However, in this project, my colleagues managed to make a nonlinear atomic system behave as if it consisted of photons. At the same time, they managed to implement an ideal absorption in such conditions. This means that these processes are also possible in nonlinear photonic systems," says Ivan Iorsh, the head of the International Laboratory of Photoprocesses in the Mesoscopic Systems at ITMO University. [25]

Researcher accurately determines energy difference between two quantum states

A kiwi physicist has discovered the energy difference between two quantum states in the helium atom with unprecedented accuracy, a ground-breaking discovery that contributes to our understanding of the universe and space-time and rivals the work of the world's most expensive physics project, the Large Hadron Collider.

Our understanding of the universe and the forces that govern it relies on the Standard Model of particle physics. This model helps us understand space-time and the fundamental forces that hold everything in the universe in place. It is the most accurate scientific theory known to humankind.

But the Standard Model does not fully explain everything, for example it doesn't explain gravity, dark matter, dark energy, or the fact that there is way more matter than antimatter in the universe.

So scientists are continually testing the model by manipulating and controlling matter at the atomic level, looking for effects that cannot be explained directly. The research team's experiment involved the [helium atom](#), the second-simplest atom after hydrogen.

The latest experiment, carried out by Dr. Maarten Hoogerland from the University of Auckland and the Dodd-Walls Centre for Photonic and Quantum Technologies and Dr. Wim Vassen from Vrije University in the Netherlands, was to test the [helium](#) atom's transition between two states of energy. This is sometimes referred to as a quantum jump, or leap.

This significant change in energy in the helium atom was precisely measured to estimate the diameter of the nucleus. This is done in an experiment that could fit on a table top with ultra-cold gas using an ultra-stable laser, accurate to a million times a million or, if you were using this level of measurement to measure the distance from Earth to the moon, it would be accurate to within a fraction of a millimetre.

"The fact the transition occurred is rare, and a milestone for quantum physics research. It advances our knowledge of the way atoms are put together and hence contributes to our understanding of space-time," Dr. Hoogerland says

"This new result is a great test for our understanding of the Model and also allows us to determine the size of the helium nucleus and of the helium atom. This has been the subject of intensive research for decades so for our experiment to have succeeded is an incredibly exciting result."

The Large Hadron Collider is the largest machine ever built and a major international project involving hundreds of scientists looking for effects that cannot be explained by the Standard Model directly and for new particles at very high energy that do not fit the model.

The research is published today in *Nature Physics*. [24]

Motorizing fibres with geometric zero-energy modes

Physicists and material scientists have succeeded in constructing a motor and an energy storage device from one single component. They used an elastic polymer fibre closed into a ring that was made to rotate on application of an external energy supply. The researchers from the universities in Heidelberg and Strasbourg (France) hope that this mechanism will spur the development of intelligent materials with precisely defined functions. The findings were published in the journal *Nature Materials*.

"Our approach is minimalistic. We don't rely on complex, high-tech materials but instead ask ourselves how the geometry and topology of a piece of material can elicit an intelligent function, such as rotation. That's how our wheel within came about," reports Dr. Falko Ziebert of the Institute for Theoretical Physics at Heidelberg University, who co-directed the research with Dr. Igor Kulić of the Institut Charles Sadron of the University of Strasbourg. Unlike a traditional rigid wheel that travels around an axle, an elastic deformation wave forms in this wheel within, causing it to move. "Simple heat flow generates the propulsion by causing thermal expansion in the material, much like the thermal convection in our atmosphere that determines our weather and climate. This thermal deformation interacts with the prescribed deformation of the ring geometry and elicits the rotation," explains Dr. Ziebert.

With the wheel within, the researchers hit upon an extremely simple principle to set polymer materials, like a nylon thread or a rubber band, into spontaneous motion. This principle will be the basis for further research. "Right now we are still playing with different geometries, materials, and other forms of energy flow through the system," states Dr. Kulić. One vision is to develop new technical devices with robust, self-propelled elements, in the form of artificial muscles, for instance. [23]

Wickless heat pipes: New dynamics exposed in a near-weightless environment

Heat pipes are devices to keep critical equipment from overheating. They transfer heat from one point to another through an evaporation-condensation process and are used in everything from cell phones and laptops to air conditioners and spacecraft.

Normally, heat pipes contain porous metal wicks that return liquid to the heated end of the pipe where it evaporates. But engineers are working to develop wickless heat pipes that are lighter and more reliable. Researchers at Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute initiated the Constrained Vapor Bubble (CVB) project to study these wickless heat pipes for use in near-zero gravity environments for aerospace applications.

"Wick structures can be difficult to keep clean or intact over long periods of time. The problem is especially acute for applications, such as NASA's Journey to Mars mission, that put a premium on reliability and minimal maintenance," said Professor Joel Plawsky, who heads the Isermann Department of Chemical and Biological Engineering at Rensselaer.

Working with a NASA engineering team, the researchers are conducting CVB experiments at the International Space Station. Plawsky and postdoctoral research fellow Thao Nguyen recently wrote an article about the CVB project in *Physics Today*, published by the American Institute of Physics.

"The CVB project is designed to record, for the first time, the complete distribution of vapor and liquid in a heat pipe operating in microgravity. The results could lead to the development of more efficient cooling systems in microelectronics on Earth and in space," Plawsky said.

A Familiar Technology in an Unfamiliar Environment

A heat pipe is partially filled with a working fluid, such as water, and then sealed. At the heat source, or evaporator, the liquid absorbs heat and vaporizes. The vapor travels along the heat pipe to the condenser, re-liquifies and releases its latent heat, eventually returning to the evaporator, without any moving parts.

In the CVB experiment, Plawsky's team created a miniature heat pipe, using pentane (an organic liquid) in a glass cuvette with square corners. An electrical resistance heater was attached to the evaporator end. At the other end, a set of thermoelectric coolers kept the condenser temperature fixed. The transparent tube allowed the researchers to study the fluid dynamics in detail, and the sharp corners of the cuvette replaced the job of the wick.

Two main forces affect how a heat pipe performs: capillary and Marangoni forces. The capillary force is what drives the liquid back toward the evaporator. This is the same force that causes liquid to climb up a straw. The Marangoni force arises from a change in the fluid's surface tension with temperature. This force opposes the capillary force and drives liquid from the evaporator to the condenser.

A Balancing Act

When the amount of liquid evaporating is larger than what can be pumped back by the capillary force, the evaporator end of the heat pipe begins to dry out. This "capillary limit" is the most common performance limitation of a heat pipe.

The researchers expected the same thing to happen in the CVB experiment. But, instead, the evaporator flooded with the liquid. That's because the Marangoni and capillary forces were no longer fighting against gravity. As a result, the Marangoni force overpowered the capillary force, causing condensation at the evaporator end. However, the net effect was the same as if the heat pipe had dried up.

"As the flooded region grew, the pipe did a poorer job of evaporating liquid, just as would happen if the heater were drying out," Plawsky said.

The researchers have countered this problem in the next stage of the CVB project by adding a small amount of isohexane to the pentane. Isohexane boils at a higher temperature and has a higher surface tension. This change in [surface tension](#) cancels out the temperature-driven Marangoni force, restoring the heat pipe's performance.

"The School of Engineering at Rensselaer and NASA have had long-standing and productive collaborations on a number of important research projects," said Dean of Engineering Shekhar Garde. "Dr. Plawsky's [heat-pipe](#) research is a great example of our work with NASA to help translate fundamental understanding of liquids into real-world applications here on Earth and in space." [22]

Algorithm take months, not years, to find material for improved energy conversion

In even the most fuel-efficient cars, about 60 percent of the total energy of gasoline is lost through heat in the exhaust pipe and radiator. To combat this, researchers are developing new thermoelectric materials that can convert heat into electricity. These semiconducting materials could recirculate electricity back into the vehicle and improve fuel efficiency by up to 5 percent.

The challenge is, current thermoelectric materials for [waste heat recovery](#) are very expensive and time consuming to develop. One of the state of the art materials, made from a combination of hafnium and zirconium (elements most commonly used in nuclear reactors), took 15 years from its initial discovery to optimized performance.

Now, researchers from the Harvard John A. Paulson School of Engineering and Applied Sciences (SEAS) have developed an algorithm that can discover and optimize these materials in a matter of months, relying on solving quantum mechanical equations, without any experimental input.

"These thermoelectric systems are very complicated," said Boris Kozinsky, a recently appointed Associate Professor of Computational Materials Science at SEAS and senior author of the paper. "Semiconducting materials need to have very specific properties to work in this system, including [high electrical conductivity](#), high thermopower, and [low thermal conductivity](#), so that all that heat gets converted into electricity. Our goal was to find a new material that satisfies all the important properties for thermoelectric conversion while at the same time being stable and cheap."

Kozinsky co-authored the research with Georgy Samsonidze, a research engineer at the Robert Bosch Research and Technology Center in Cambridge, MA, where both authors conducted most of the research.

In order to find such a material, the team developed an algorithm that can predict [electronic transport](#) properties of a material based only on the chemical elements used in the crystalline

crystal. The key was to simplify the computational approach for electron-phonon scattering and to speed it up by about 10,000 times, compared to existing algorithms.

The new method and computational screening results are published in *Advanced Energy Materials*.

Using the improved algorithm, the researchers screened many possible crystal structures, including structures that had never been synthesized before. From those, Kozinsky and Samsonidze whittled the list down to several interesting candidates. Of those candidates, the researchers did further computational optimization and sent the top performers to the experimental team.

In an earlier effort experimentalists synthesized the top candidates suggested by these computations and found a material that was as efficient and as stable as previous thermoelectric materials but 10 times cheaper. The total time from initial screening to working devices: 15 months.

"We did in 15 months of computation and experimentation what took 15 years for previous materials to be optimized," said Kozinsky. "What's really exciting is that we're probably not fully understanding the extent of the simplification yet. We could potentially make this method even faster and cheaper."

Kozinsky said he hopes to improve the new methodology and use it to explore electronic transport in a wider class of new exotic [materials](#) such as topological insulators. [21]

Researchers develop heat switch for electronics

Researchers at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign have developed a new technology for switching heat flows 'on' or 'off'. The findings were published in the article "Millimeter-scale liquid metal droplet thermal switch," which appeared in *Applied Physics Letters*.

Switches are used to control many technical products and engineered systems. Mechanical switches are used to lock or unlock doors, or to select gears in a car's transmission system. Electrical switches are used to turn on and off the lights in a room. At a smaller scale, [electrical switches](#) in the form of transistors are used to turn electronic devices on and off, or to route logic signals within a circuit.

Engineers have long desired a switch for heat flows, especially in electronics systems where controlling heat flows can significantly improve system performance and reliability. There are however significant challenges in creating such a heat switch.

"Heat [flow](#) occurs whenever you have a region of higher temperature near a region of lower temperature," said William King, the Andersen Chair Professor in the Department of Mechanical Science and Engineering and the project co-leader. "In order to control the [heat flow](#), we engineered a specific heat flow path between the hot region and cold region, and then created a way to break the heat flow path when desired."

"The technology is based on the motion of a liquid metal droplet," said Nenad Miljkovic, Assistant Professor in the Department of Mechanical Science and Engineering and the project co-leader. "The metal droplet can be positioned to connect a heat flow path, or moved away from the heat flow path in order to limit the heat flow."

The researchers demonstrated the technology in a system modeled after modern electronics systems. On one side of the switch there was a heat source representing the power electronics component, and on the other side of the switch, there was liquid cooling for heat removal. When the switch was on, they were able to extract heat at more than 10 W/cm². When the switch was off, the heatflow dropped by nearly 100X.

Besides King and Miljkovic, other authors of the paper include Paul Braun, Racheff Professor of Materials Science and Engineering and the Director of Materials Research Laboratory; and graduate students Tianyu Yang, Beomjin Kwon and Patricia B. Weisensee (now an assistant professor at Washington University in St. Louis) from mechanical science and engineering and Jin Gu Kang and Xuejiao Li from materials science and engineering.

King says that the next step for the research is to integrate the switch with power electronics on a circuit board. The researchers will have a working prototype later this year. [20]

Converting heat into electricity with pencil and paper

Thermoelectric materials can use thermal differences to generate electricity. Now there is an inexpensive and environmentally friendly way of producing them with the simplest tools: a pencil, photocopy paper, and conductive paint. These are sufficient to convert a temperature difference into electricity via the thermoelectric effect, which has now been demonstrated by a team at the Helmholtz-Zentrum Berlin.

The thermoelectric effect was discovered almost 200 years ago by Thomas J. Seebeck. If two metals of different temperatures are brought together, they can develop an electrical voltage. This effect allows residual heat to be converted partially into electrical energy. Residual heat is a by-product of almost all technological and natural processes, such as in power plants and household appliances, not to mention the human body. It is also one of the most under-utilised energy sources in the world.

Tiny effect

However, as useful an effect as it is, it is extremely small in ordinary metals. This is because metals not only have high electrical conductivity, but high thermal conductivity as well, so that differences in temperature disappear immediately. Thermoelectric materials need to have low thermal conductivity despite their high electrical conductivity. Thermoelectric devices made of inorganic semiconductor materials such as bismuth telluride are already being used today in certain technological applications. However, such material systems are expensive and their use only pays off in certain situations. Researchers are exploring whether flexible, nontoxic organic materials based on carbon nanostructures, for example, might also be used in the human body.

The team led by Prof. Norbert Nickel at the HZB has now shown that the effect can be obtained much more simply—using a normal HB-grade [pencil](#), they covered a small area with pencil on ordinary photocopy paper. As a second material, they applied a transparent, conductive co-polymer paint (PEDOT: PSS) to the surface.

The pencil traces on the paper delivered a voltage comparable to other far more expensive nanocomposites that are currently used for flexible thermoelectric elements. And this voltage could be increased tenfold by adding indium selenide to the graphite from the pencil.

The researchers investigated graphite and co-polymer coating films using a scanning electron microscope and Raman scattering at HZB. "The results were very surprising for us as well," says Nickel. "But we have now found an explanation of why this works so well—the pencil deposit left on the paper forms a surface characterised by unordered graphite flakes, some graphene, and clay. While this only slightly reduces the electrical conductivity, heat is transported much less effectively."

These simple constituents might be usable in the future to print extremely inexpensive, environmentally friendly, and non-toxic thermoelectric components onto paper. Such tiny and flexible components could also be used directly on the body and could use body heat to operate small devices or sensors. [19]

A new efficient and portable electrocaloric cooling device

A team of researchers with the University of California and SRI International has developed a new type of cooling device that is both portable and efficient. In their paper published in the journal *Science*, the team describes their new device and possible applications for its use. Q.M. Zhang and Tian Zhang with the Pennsylvania State University offer some background on electrocaloric theory and outline the work done by the team in California in a Perspectives piece in the same journal issue.

As most everyone knows, conventional air conditioners are bulky, heavy, use a lot of electricity and often leak greenhouse gases into the atmosphere. Thus, conditions are ripe for something new. Some new devices have been developed such as thermoelectric coolers, which make use of ceramics, but they are not efficient enough to play a major role in cooling. A more recent development is the use of devices exploiting the electrocaloric effect, which is where heat moves through certain materials when an electric current is applied. In this new effort, the researchers used a polymer as the material.

The new cooling device was made by layering a polymer between a heat sink and a heat source. Applying electric current to the polymer when it was touching the heat sink caused its molecules to line up, which reduced entropy, forcing heat into the sink. The polymer was then moved into contact with the heat source while the current was turned off. The molecules relaxed, which caused the temperature to drop. Repeating this process resulted in cooling.

The researchers report that the device is extremely efficient, portable and configurable. They suggest the same technology could be used to create coolers for a chair or hat, for example, or perhaps to chill smartphone batteries. They proved this last claim by actually building such a device and using it to cool down a battery heated by ordinary use—after only five seconds, the temperature of the battery had lessened by 8° C. Comparatively, air cooling the battery reduced its temperature just 3° C in 50 seconds. [18]

Fast heat flows in warm, dense aluminum

Thermal conductivity is one of the most crucial physical properties of matter when it comes to understanding heat transport, hydrodynamic evolution and energy balance in systems ranging from astrophysical objects to fusion plasmas.

In the warm dense matter (WDM) regime, experimental data are very rare, so many theoretical models remain untested.

But LLNL researchers have tested theory by developing a platform called "differential heating" to conduct thermal conductivity measurements. Just as land and water on Earth heat up differently in sunlight, a temperature gradient can be induced between two different materials. The subsequent heat flow from the hotter material to the cooler material is detected by time-resolved diagnostics to determine thermal conductivity.

In an experiment using the Titan laser at the Lab's Jupiter Laser Facility, LLNL researchers and collaborators achieved the first measurements of thermal conductivity of warm dense aluminum—a prototype material commonly used in model development—by heating a dual-layer target of gold and aluminum with laser-generated protons.

"Two simultaneous time-resolved diagnostics provided excellent data for gold, the hotter material, and aluminum, the colder material," said Andrew Mckelvey, a graduate student from the University of Michigan and the first author of a paper appearing in *Scientific Reports*. "The systematic data sets can constrain both the release equation of state (EOS) and thermal conductivity."

By comparing the data with simulations using five existing thermal conductivity models, the team found that only two agree with the data. The most commonly used model in WDM, called the LeeMore model, did not agree with data. "I am glad to see that Purgatorio, an LLNL-based model, agrees with the data," said Phil Sterne, LLNL co-author and the group leader of EOS development and application group in the Physics Division. "This is the first time these thermal conductivity models of aluminum have been tested in the WDM regime."

"Discrepancy still exists at early time up to 15 picoseconds," said Elijah Kemp, who is responsible for the simulation efforts. "This is likely due to non-equilibrium conditions, another active research area in WDM."

The team is led by Yuan Ping through her early career project funded by the Department of Energy Office of Fusion Energy Science Early Career Program. "This platform can be applied to many pairs of materials and by various heating methods including particle and X-ray heating," Ping said. [17]

Controlling heat and particle currents in nanodevices by quantum observation

Researchers from the Theory Department of the MPSD have realized the control of thermal and electrical currents in nanoscale devices by means of quantum local observations.

Measurement plays a fundamental role in quantum mechanics. The best-known illustration of the principles of superposition and entanglement is Schrödinger's cat. Invisible from the outside, the cat resides in a coherent superposition of two states, alive and dead at the same time.

By means of a measurement, this superposition collapses to a concrete state. The cat is now either dead or alive. In this famous thought experiment, a measurement of the "quantum cat" can be seen as an interaction with a macroscopic object collapsing the superposition onto a concrete state by destroying its coherence.

In their new article published in *npj Quantum Materials*, researchers from the Max Planck Institute for the Structure and Dynamics of Matter and collaborators from the University of the Basque Country (UPV/EHU) and the Bremen Center for Computational Materials Science discovered how a microscopic quantum observer is able to control thermal and electrical currents in nanoscale devices. Local quantum observation of a system can induce continuous and dynamic changes in its quantum coherence, which allows better control of particle and energy currents in nanoscale systems.

Classical non-equilibrium thermodynamics was developed to understand the flow of particles and energy between multiple heat and particle reservoirs. The best-known example is Clausius' formulation of the second law of thermodynamics, stating that when two objects with different temperatures are brought in contact, heat will exclusively flow from the hotter to the colder one.

In macroscopic objects, the observation of this process does not influence the flow of energy and particles between them. However, in quantum devices, thermodynamical concepts need to be revisited. When a classical observer measures a quantum system, this interaction destroys most of the coherence inside the system and alters its dynamical response.

Instead, if a quantum observer acts only locally, the system quantum coherence changes continuously and dynamically, thus providing another level of control of its properties. Depending on how strong and where these local quantum observations are performed, novel and surprising quantum transport phenomena arise.

The group of Prof. Dr. Angel Rubio at the Theory Department of the MPSD, along with their colleagues, have demonstrated how the concept of quantum measurements can offer novel possibilities for a thermodynamical control of quantum transport (heat and particle). This concept offers possibilities far beyond those obtained using standard classical thermal reservoirs.

The scientists studied this idea in a theoretical quantum ratchet. Within this system, the left and right side are connected to hot and cold thermal baths, respectively. This configuration forces the energy to flow from hot to cold and the particles to flow clockwise inside the ratchet. The introduction of a quantum observer, however, inverts the particle ring-current against the natural direction of the ratchet—a phenomenon caused by the localized electronic state and the disruption of the system's symmetry.

Furthermore, the quantum observation is also able to invert the direction of the heat flow, contradicting the second law of thermodynamics. "Such heat and particle current control might open the door for different strategies to design quantum transport devices with directionality control of the injection of currents. There could be applications in thermoelectricity, spintronics, photonics, and sensing, among others. These results have been an important contribution to my PhD thesis," says Robert Biele, first author of the paper.

From a more fundamental point of view, this work highlights the role of a quantum observer. In contrast to Schrödinger's cat, where the coherent state is destroyed via the interaction with a macroscopic "observer," here, by introducing a local quantum observer, the coherence is changed locally and dynamically, allowing researchers to tune between the coherent states of the system. "This shows how thermodynamics is very different in the quantum regime. Schrödinger's cat paradox leads to new thermodynamic forces never seen before," says César A. Rodríguez Rosario.

In the near future, the researchers will apply this concept to control spins for applications in spin injection and novel magnetic memories. Angel Rubio suggests that "The quantum observer—besides controlling the particle and energy transfer at the nanoscale—could also observe spins, select individual components, and give rise to spin-polarized currents without spin-orbit coupling. Observation could be used to write a magnetic memory." [16]

Maxwell's demon extracts work from quantum measurement

Physicists have proposed a new type of Maxwell's demon—the hypothetical agent that extracts work from a system by decreasing the system's entropy—in which the demon can extract work just by making a measurement, by taking advantage of quantum fluctuations and quantum superposition.

The team of Alexia Auffèves at CNRS and Université Grenoble Alpes have published a paper on the new Maxwell's demon in a recent issue of Physical Review Letters.

"In the classical world, thermodynamics teaches us how to extract energy from thermal fluctuations induced on a large system (such as a gas or water) by coupling it to a hot source," Auffèves told Phys.org. "In the quantum world, the systems are small, and they can fluctuate—even if they are not hot, but simply because they are measured. In our paper, we show that it is possible to extract energy from these genuinely quantum fluctuations, induced by quantum measurement."

In the years since James Clerk Maxwell proposed the first demon around 1870, many other versions have been theoretically and experimentally investigated. Most recently, physicists have begun investigating Maxwell's demons that operate in the quantum regime, which could one day have implications for quantum information technologies.

Most quantum versions of the demon have a couple things in common: They are thermally driven by a heat bath, and the demon makes measurements to extract information only. The measurements do not actually extract any work, but rather the information gained by the measurements allows the demon to act on the system so that energy is always extracted from the cycle.

The new Maxwell's demon differs from previous versions in that there is no heat bath—the demon is not thermally driven, but measurement-driven. Also, the measurements have multiple purposes: They not only extract information about the state of the system, but they are also the "fuel" for extracting work from the system. This is because, when the demon performs a measurement on a qubit in the proposed system, the measurement projects the qubit from one state into a superposition of states, which provides energy to the qubit simply due to the measurement process. In their paper, the physicists proposed an experiment in which projective quantum non-demolition measurements can be performed with light pulses repeated every 70 nanoseconds or so.

Since recent experiments have already demonstrated the possibility of performing measurements at such high frequencies, the physicists expect that the new Maxwell's demon could be readily implemented using existing technology. In the future, they also plan to investigate potential applications for quantum computing.

"This engine is a perfect proof of concept evidencing that quantum measurement has some energetic footprint," Auffèves said. "Now I would like to reverse the game and use this effect to estimate the energetic cost of quantum tasks, if they are performed in the presence of some measuring entity. This is the case in a quantum computer, which is continuously 'measured' by its surroundings. This effect is called decoherence and is the biggest enemy of quantum computation. Our work provides tools to estimate the energy needed to counteract it." [15]

Physicists read Maxwell's Demon's mind

Pioneering research offers a fascinating view into the inner workings of the mind of 'Maxwell's Demon', a famous thought experiment in physics.

An international research team, including Dr Janet Anders from the University of Exeter, have used superconducting circuits to bring the 'demon' to life.

The demon, first proposed by James Clerk Maxwell in 1867, is a hypothetical being that can gain more useful energy from a thermodynamic system than one of the most fundamental laws of physics—the second law of thermodynamics—should allow.

Crucially, the team not only directly observed the gained energy for the first time, they also tracked how information gets stored in the demon's memory.

The research is published in the leading scientific journal Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences (PNAS).

The original thought experiment was first proposed by mathematical physicist James Clerk Maxwell—one of the most influential scientists in history—150 years ago.

He hypothesised that gas particles in two adjacent boxes could be filtered by a 'demon' operating a tiny door, that allowed only fast energy particles to pass in one direction and low energy particles the opposite way.

As a result, one box gains a higher average energy than the other, which creates a pressure difference. This non-equilibrium situation can be used to gain energy, not unlike the energy obtained when water stored behind a dam is released.

So although the gas was initially in equilibrium, the demon can create a non-equilibrium situation and extract energy, bypassing the second law of thermodynamics.

Dr Anders, a leading theoretical physicist from the University of Exeter's physics department adds: "In the 1980s it was discovered that this is not the full story. The information about the particles' properties remains stored in the memory of the demon. This information leads to an energetic cost which then reduces the demon's energy gain to null, resolving the paradox."

In this research, the team created a quantum Maxwell demon, manifested as a microwave cavity, that draws energy from a superconducting qubit. The team was able to fully map out the memory of the demon after its intervention, unveiling the stored information about the qubit state.

Dr Anders adds: "The fact that the system behaves quantum mechanically means that the particle can have a high and low energy at the same time, not only either of these choices as considered by Maxwell."

This ground-breaking experiment gives a fascinating peek into the interplay between quantum information and thermodynamics, and is an important step in the current development of a theory for nanoscale thermodynamic processes.

'Observing a Quantum Maxwell demon at Work' is published in PNAS. [14]

Researchers posit way to locally circumvent Second Law of Thermodynamics

For more than a century and a half of physics, the Second Law of Thermodynamics, which states that entropy always increases, has been as close to inviolable as any law we know. In this universe, chaos reigns supreme.

But researchers with the U.S. Department of Energy's (DOE's) Argonne National Laboratory announced recently that they may have discovered a little loophole in this famous maxim.

Their research, published in Scientific Reports, lays out a possible avenue to a situation where the Second Law is violated on the microscopic level.

The Second Law is underpinned by what is called the H-theorem, which says that if you open a door between two rooms, one hot and one cold, they will eventually settle into lukewarm equilibrium; the hot room will never end up hotter.

But even in the twentieth century, as our knowledge of quantum mechanics advanced, we didn't fully understand the fundamental physical origins of the H-theorem.

Recent advancements in a field called quantum information theory offered a mathematical construction in which entropy increases.

"What we did was formulate how these beautiful abstract mathematical theories could be connected to our crude reality," said Valerii Vinokur, an Argonne Distinguished Fellow and corresponding author on the study.

The scientists took quantum information theory, which is based on abstract mathematical systems, and applied it to condensed matter physics, a well-explored field with many known laws and experiments.

"This allowed us to formulate the quantum H-theorem as it related to things that could be physically observed," said Ivan Sadovskyy, a joint appointee with Argonne's Materials Science Division and the Computation Institute and another author on the paper. "It establishes a connection between well-documented quantum physics processes and the theoretical quantum channels that make up quantum information theory."

The work predicts certain conditions under which the H-theorem might be violated and entropy—in the short term—might actually decrease.

As far back as 1867, physicist James Clerk Maxwell described a hypothetical way to violate the Second Law: if a small theoretical being sat at the door between the hot and cold rooms and only let through particles traveling at a certain speed. This theoretical imp is called "Maxwell's demon."

"Although the violation is only on the local scale, the implications are far-reaching," Vinokur said. "This provides us a platform for the practical realization of a quantum Maxwell's demon, which could make possible a local quantum perpetual motion machine."

For example, he said, the principle could be designed into a "refrigerator" which could be cooled remotely—that is, the energy expended to cool it could take place anywhere.

The authors are planning to work closely with a team of experimentalists to design a proof-of-concept system, they said.

The study, "H-theorem in quantum physics," was published September 12 in Nature Scientific Reports. [13]

What is quantum in quantum thermodynamics?

A lot of attention has been given to the differences between the quantum and classical worlds. For example, quantum entanglement, superposition, and teleportation are purely quantum phenomena with no classical counterparts. However, when it comes to certain areas of thermodynamics—specifically, thermal engines and refrigerators—quantum and classical systems so far appear to be nearly identical. It seems that the same thermodynamic laws that govern the engines in our vehicles may also accurately describe the tiniest quantum engines consisting of just a single particle.

In a new study, physicists Raam Uzdin, Amikam Levy, and Ronnie Kosloff at the Hebrew University of Jerusalem have investigated whether there is anything distinctly quantum about thermodynamics at the quantum level, or if "quantum" thermodynamics is really the same as classical thermodynamics.

For the first time, they have shown a difference in the thermodynamics of heat machines on the quantum scale: in part of the quantum regime, the three main engine types (two-stroke, four-stroke, and continuous) are thermodynamically equivalent. This means that, despite operating in different ways, all three types of engines exhibit all of the same thermodynamic properties, including generating the same amounts of power and heat, and doing so at the same efficiency. This new "thermodynamical equivalence principle" is purely quantum, as it depends on quantum effects, and does not occur at the classical level.

The scientists also showed that, in this quantum regime where all engines are thermodynamically equivalent, it's possible to extract a quantum-thermodynamic signature that further confirms the presence of quantum effects. They did this by calculating an upper limit on the work output of a classical engine, so that any engine that surpasses this bound must be using a quantum effect—namely, quantum coherence—to generate the additional work. In this study, quantum coherence, which accounts for the wave-like properties of quantum particles, is shown to be critical for power generation at very fast engine cycles.

"To the best of my knowledge, this is the first time [that a difference between quantum and classical thermodynamics has been shown] in heat machines," Uzdin told Phys.org. "What has been surprising [in the past] is that the classical description has still held at the quantum level, as many authors have shown. The reasons are now understood, and in the face of this classicality, people have started to stray to other types of research, as it was believed that nothing quantum can pop up.

Thus, it was very difficult to isolate a generic effect, not just a numerical simulation of a specific case, with a complementing theory that manages to avoid the classicality and demonstrate quantum effects in thermodynamic quantities, such as work and heat."

One important implication of the new results is that quantum effects may significantly increase the performance of engines at the quantum level. While the current work deals with single-particle engines, the researchers expect that quantum effects may also emerge in multi-particle engines, where quantum entanglement between particles may play a role similar to that of coherence. [12]

Physicists confirm thermodynamic irreversibility in a quantum system

The physicists, Tiago Batalhão at the Federal University of ABC, Brazil, and coauthors, have published their paper on the experimental demonstration of quantum thermodynamic irreversibility in a recent issue of Physical Review Letters.

Irreversibility at the quantum level may seem obvious to most people because it matches our observations of the everyday, macroscopic world. However, it is not as straightforward to physicists because the microscopic laws of physics, such as the Schrödinger equation, are "time-symmetric," or reversible. In theory, forward and backward microscopic processes are indistinguishable.

In reality, however, we only observe forward processes, not reversible ones like broken egg shells being put back together. It's clear that, at the macroscopic level, the laws run counter to what we

observe. Now the new study shows that the laws don't match what happens at the quantum level, either.

Observing thermodynamic processes in a quantum system is very difficult and has not been done until now. In their experiment, the scientists measured the entropy change that occurs when applying an oscillating magnetic field to carbon-13 atoms in liquid chloroform. They first applied a magnetic field pulse that causes the atoms' nuclear spins to flip, and then applied the pulse in reverse to make the spins undergo the reversed dynamics.

If the procedure were reversible, the spins would have returned to their starting points—but they didn't. Basically, the forward and reverse magnetic pulses were applied so rapidly that the spins' flipping couldn't always keep up, so the spins were driven out of equilibrium. The measurements of the spins indicated that entropy was increasing in the isolated system, showing that the quantum thermodynamic process was irreversible.

By demonstrating that thermodynamic irreversibility occurs even at the quantum level, the results reveal that thermodynamic irreversibility emerges at a genuine microscopic scale. This finding makes the question of why the microscopic laws of physics don't match our observations even more pressing. If the laws really are reversible, then what are the physical origins of the time-asymmetric entropy production that we observe?

The physicists explain that the answer to this question lies in the choice of the initial conditions. The microscopic laws allow reversible processes only because they begin with "a genuine equilibrium process for which the entropy production vanishes at all times," the scientists write in their paper. Preparing such an ideal initial state in a physical system is extremely complex, and the initial states of all observed processes aren't at "genuine equilibrium," which is why they lead to irreversible processes.

"Our experiment shows the irreversible nature of quantum dynamics, but does not pinpoint, experimentally, what causes it at the microscopic level, what determines the onset of the arrow of time," coauthor Mauro Paternostro at Queen's University in Belfast, UK, told Phys.org. "Addressing it would clarify the ultimate reason for its emergence."

The researchers hope to apply the new understanding of thermodynamics at the quantum level to high-performance quantum technologies in the future.

"Any progress towards the management of finite-time thermodynamic processes at the quantum level is a step forward towards the realization of a fully fledged thermo-machine that can exploit the laws of quantum mechanics to overcome the performance limitations of classical devices," Paternostro said. "This work shows the implications for reversibility (or lack thereof) of nonequilibrium quantum dynamics. Once we characterize it, we can harness it at the technological level." [11]

Physicists put the arrow of time under a quantum microscope

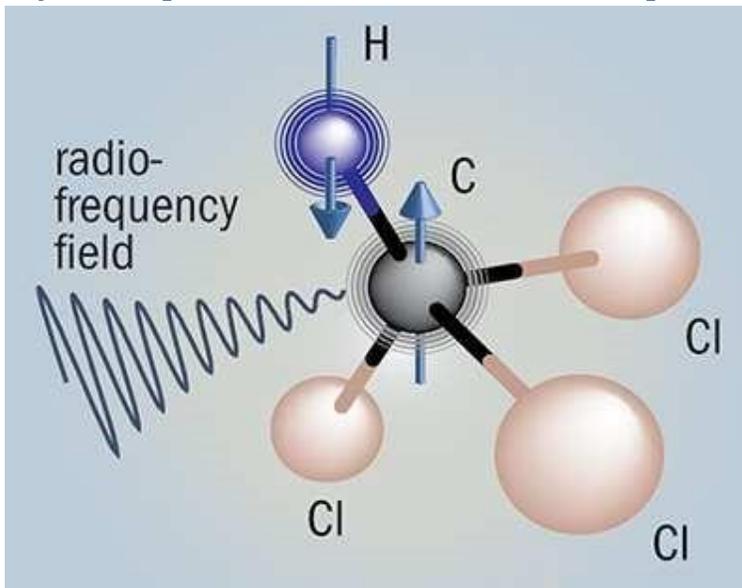


Diagram showing the spin of a carbon atom in a chloroform molecule

Disorder, or entropy, in a microscopic quantum system has been measured by an international group of physicists. The team hopes that the feat will shed light on the "arrow of time": the observation that time always marches towards the future. The experiment involved continually flipping the spin of carbon atoms with an oscillating magnetic field and links the emergence of the arrow of time to quantum fluctuations between one atomic spin state and another.

"That is why we remember yesterday and not tomorrow," explains group member Roberto Serra, a physicist specializing in quantum information at the Federal University of ABC in Santo André, Brazil. At the fundamental level, he says, quantum fluctuations are involved in the asymmetry of time.

Egging on

The arrow of time is often taken for granted in the everyday world. We see an egg breaking, for example, yet we never see the yolk, white and shell fragments come back together again to recreate the egg. It seems obvious that the laws of nature should not be reversible, yet there is nothing in the underlying physics to say so.

The dynamical equations of an egg breaking run just as well forwards as they do backwards.

Entropy, however, provides a window onto the arrow of time. Most eggs look alike, but a broken egg can take on any number of forms: it could be neatly cracked open, scrambled, splattered all over a pavement, and so on. A broken egg is a disordered state – that is, a state of greater entropy – and because there are many more disordered than ordered states, it is more likely for a system to progress towards disorder than order.

This probabilistic reasoning is encapsulated in the second law of thermodynamics, which states that the entropy of a closed system always increases over time.

According to the second law, time cannot suddenly go backwards because this would require entropy to decrease. It is a convincing argument for a complex system made up of a great many interacting particles, like an egg, but what about a system composed of just one particle?

Murky territory

Serra and colleagues have delved into this murky territory with measurements of entropy in an ensemble of carbon-13 atoms contained in a sample of liquid chloroform. Although the sample contained roughly a trillion chloroform molecules, the non-interacting quantum nature of the molecules meant that the experiment was equivalent to performing the same measurement on a single carbon atom, one trillion times.

Serra and colleagues applied an oscillating external magnetic field to the sample, which continually flipped the spin state of a carbon atom between up and down.

They ramped up the intensity of the field oscillations to increase the frequency of the spin-flipping, and then brought the intensity back down again.

Had the system been reversible, the overall distribution of carbon spin states would have been the same at the end as at the start of the process. Using nuclear magnetic resonance and quantum-state tomography, however, Serra and colleagues measured an increase in disorder among the final spins. Because of the quantum nature of the system, this was equivalent to an increase in entropy in a single carbon atom.

According to the researchers, entropy rises for a single atom because of the speed with which it is forced to flip its spin. Unable to keep up with the field-oscillation intensity, the atom begins to fluctuate randomly, like an inexperienced dancer failing to keep pace with up-tempo music. "It's easier to dance to a slow rhythm than a fast one," says Serra.

Many questions remain

The group has managed to observe the existence of the arrow of time in a quantum system, says experimentalist Mark Raizen of the University of Texas at Austin in the US, who has also studied irreversibility in quantum systems. But Raizen stresses that the group has not observed the "onset" of the arrow of time. "This [study] does not close the book on our understanding of the arrow of time, and many questions remain," he adds.

One of those questions is whether the arrow of time is linked to quantum entanglement – the phenomenon whereby two particles exhibit instantaneous correlations with each other, even when separated by vast distances. This idea is nearly 30 years old and has enjoyed a recent resurgence in popularity. However, this link is less to do with growing entropy and more to do with an unstoppable dispersion of quantum information.

Indeed, Serra believes that by harnessing quantum entanglement, it may even be possible to reverse the arrow of time in a microscopic system. "We're working on it," he says. "In the next generation of our experiments on quantum thermodynamics we will explore such aspects." [10]

Small entropy changes allow quantum measurements to be nearly reversed

In 1975, Swedish physicist Göran Lindblad developed a theorem that describes the change in entropy that occurs during a quantum measurement. Today, this theorem is a foundational component of quantum information theory, underlying such important concepts as the uncertainty principle, the second law of thermodynamics, and data transmission in quantum communication systems.

Now, 40 years later, physicist Mark M. Wilde, Assistant Professor at Louisiana State University, has improved this theorem in a way that allows for understanding how quantum measurements can be approximately reversed under certain circumstances. The new results allow for understanding how quantum information that has been lost during a measurement can be nearly recovered, which has potential implications for a variety of quantum technologies.

Quantum relative entropy never increases

Most people are familiar with entropy as a measure of disorder and the law that "entropy never decreases"—it either increases or stays the same during a thermodynamic process, according to the second law of thermodynamics. However, here the focus is on "quantum relative entropy," which in some sense is the negative of entropy, so the reverse is true: quantum relative entropy never increases, but instead only decreases or stays the same.

In fact, this was the entropy inequality theorem that Lindblad proved in 1975: that the quantum relative entropy cannot increase after a measurement. In this context, quantum relative entropy is interpreted as a measure of how well one can distinguish between two quantum states, so it's this distinguishability that can never increase. (Wilde describes a proof of Lindblad's result in greater detail in his textbook *Quantum Information Theory*, published by Cambridge University Press.)

One thing that Lindblad's proof doesn't address, however, is whether it makes any difference if the quantum relative entropy decreases by a little or by a lot after a measurement.

In the new paper, Wilde has shown that, if the quantum relative entropy decreases by only a little, then the quantum measurement (or any other type of so-called "quantum physical evolution") can be approximately reversed.

"When looking at Lindblad's entropy inequality, a natural question is to wonder what we could say if the quantum relative entropy goes down only by a little when the quantum physical evolution is applied," Wilde told Phys.org. "It is quite reasonable to suspect that we might be able to approximately reverse the evolution. This was arguably open since the work of Lindblad in 1975, addressed in an important way by Denes Petz in the late 1980s (for the case in which the quantum relative entropy stays the same under the action of the evolution), and finally formulated as a conjecture around 2008 by Andreas Winter. What my work did was to prove this result as a

theorem: if the quantum relative entropy goes down only by a little under a quantum physical evolution, then we can approximately reverse its action."

Wide implications

Wilde's improvements to Lindblad's theorem have a variety of implications, but the main one that Wilde discusses in his paper is how the new results allow for recovering quantum information.

"If the decrease in quantum relative entropy between two quantum states after a quantum physical evolution is relatively small," he said, "then it is possible to perform a recovery operation, such that one can perfectly recover one state while approximately recovering the other. This can be interpreted as quantifying how well one can reverse a quantum physical evolution." So the smaller the relative entropy decrease, the better the reversal process.

The ability to recover quantum information could prove useful for quantum error correction, which aims to protect quantum information from damaging external effects. Wilde plans to address this application more in the future with his colleagues.

As Wilde explained, Lindblad's original theorem can also be used to prove the uncertainty principle of quantum mechanics in terms of entropies, as well as the second law of thermodynamics for quantum systems, so the new results have implications in these areas, as well.

"Lindblad's entropy inequality underlies many limiting statements, in some cases said to be physical laws or principles," Wilde said. "Examples are the uncertainty principle and the second law of thermodynamics. Another example is that this entropy inequality is the core step in determining limitations on how much data we can communicate over quantum communication channels. We could go as far as to say that the above entropy inequality constitutes a fundamental law of quantum information theory, which is a direct mathematical consequence of the postulates of quantum mechanics."

Regarding the uncertainty principle, Wilde and two coauthors, Mario Berta and Stephanie Wehner, discuss this angle in a forthcoming paper. They explain that the uncertainty principle involves quantum measurements, which are a type of quantum physical evolution and therefore subject to Lindblad's theorem. In one formulation of the uncertainty principle, two experiments are performed on different copies of the same quantum state, with both experimental outcomes having some uncertainty.

"The uncertainty principle is the statement that you cannot generally make the uncertainties of both experiments arbitrarily small, i.e., there is generally a limitation," Wilde said. "It is now known that a statement of the uncertainty principle in terms of entropies can be proved by using the 'decrease of quantum relative entropy inequality.' So what the new theorem allows for doing is relating the uncertainties of the measurement outcomes to how well we could try to reverse the action of one of the measurements. That is, there is now a single mathematical inequality which captures all of these notions."

In terms of the second law of thermodynamics, Wilde explains how the new results have implications for reversing thermodynamic processes in both classical and quantum systems.

"The new theorem allows for quantifying how well we can approximately reverse a thermodynamic transition from one state to another without using any energy at all," he said.

He explained that this is possible due to the connection between entropy, energy, and work. According to the second law of thermodynamics, a thermodynamic transition from one quantum state to another is allowed only if the free energy decreases from the original state to the final state. During this process, one can gain work and store energy. This law can be rewritten as a statement involving relative entropies and can be proved as a consequence of the decrease of quantum relative entropy.

"What my new work with Stephanie Wehner and Mischa Woods allows for is a refinement of this statement," Wilde said. "We can say that if the free energy does not go down by very much under a thermodynamic transition (i.e., if there is not too much work gained in the process), then it is possible to go back approximately to the original state from the final state, without investing any work at all. The key word here is that you can go back only approximately, so we are not in violation of the second law, only providing a refinement of it."

In addition to these implications, the new theorem can also be applied to other research topics in quantum information theory, including the Holevo bound, quantum discord, and multipartite information measures.

Wilde's work was funded in part by The DARPA Quiness program (ending now), which focused on quantum key distribution, or using quantum mechanics to ensure secret communication between two parties. He describes more about this application, in particular how Alice and Bob might use a quantum state to share secrets that can be kept private from an eavesdropper Eve (and help them survive being attacked by a bear), in a recent blog post. [9]

Tricking the uncertainty principle

"If you want to know where something is, you have to scatter something off of it," explains Professor of Applied Physics Keith Schwab, who led the study. "For example, if you shine light at an object, the photons that scatter off provide information about the object. But the photons don't all hit and scatter at the same time, and the random pattern of scattering creates quantum fluctuations"—that is, noise. "If you shine more light, you have increased sensitivity, but you also have more noise. Here we were looking for a way to beat the uncertainty principle—to increase sensitivity but not noise."

Schwab and his colleagues began by developing a way to actually detect the noise produced during the scattering of microwaves—electromagnetic radiation that has a wavelength longer than that of visible light. To do this, they delivered microwaves of a specific frequency to a superconducting electronic circuit, or resonator, that vibrates at 5 gigahertz—or 5 billion times per second. The electronic circuit was then coupled to a mechanical device formed of two metal plates that vibrate at around 4 megahertz—or 4 million times per second. The researchers observed that the quantum

noise of the microwave field, due to the impact of individual photons, made the mechanical device shake randomly with an amplitude of 10-15 meters, about the diameter of a proton.

"Our mechanical device is a tiny square of aluminum—only 40 microns long, or about the diameter of a hair. We think of quantum mechanics as a good description for the behaviors of atoms and electrons and protons and all of that, but normally you don't think of these sorts of quantum effects manifesting themselves on somewhat macroscopic objects," Schwab says. "This is a physical manifestation of the uncertainty principle, seen in single photons impacting a somewhat macroscopic thing."

Once the researchers had a reliable mechanism for detecting the forces generated by the quantum fluctuations of microwaves on a macroscopic object, they could modify their electronic resonator, mechanical device, and mathematical approach to exclude the noise of the position and motion of the vibrating metal plates from their measurement.

The experiment shows that a) the noise is present and can be picked up by a detector, and b) it can be pushed to someplace that won't affect the measurement. "It's a way of tricking the uncertainty principle so that you can dial up the sensitivity of a detector without increasing the noise," Schwab says.

Although this experiment is mostly a fundamental exploration of the quantum nature of microwaves in mechanical devices, Schwab says that this line of research could one day lead to the observation of quantum mechanical effects in much larger mechanical structures. And that, he notes, could allow the demonstration of strange quantum mechanical properties like superposition and entanglement in large objects—for example, allowing a macroscopic object to exist in two places at once.

"Subatomic particles act in quantum ways—they have a wave-like nature—and so can atoms, and so can whole molecules since they're collections of atoms,"

Schwab says. "So the question then is: Can you make bigger and bigger objects behave in these weird wave-like ways? Why not? Right now we're just trying to figure out where the boundary of quantum physics is, but you never know." [8]

Particle Measurement Sidesteps the Uncertainty Principle

Quantum mechanics imposes a limit on what we can know about subatomic particles. If physicists measure a particle's position, they cannot also measure its momentum, so the theory goes. But a new experiment has managed to circumvent this rule—the so-called uncertainty principle—by ascertaining just a little bit about a particle's position, thus retaining the ability to measure its momentum, too.

The uncertainty principle, formulated by Werner Heisenberg in 1927, is a consequence of the fuzziness of the universe at microscopic scales. Quantum mechanics revealed that particles are not just tiny marbles that act like ordinary objects we can see and touch. Instead of being in a particular place at a particular time, particles actually exist in a haze of probability. Their chances of

being in any given state are described by an equation called the quantum wavefunction. Any measurement of a particle “collapses” its wavefunction, in effect forcing it to choose a value for the measured characteristic and eliminating the possibility of knowing anything about its related properties.

Recently, physicists decided to see if they could overcome this limitation by using a new engineering technique called compressive sensing. This tool for making efficient measurements has already been applied successfully in digital photographs, MRI scans and many other technologies. Normally, measuring devices would take a detailed reading and afterward compress it for ease of use. For example, cameras take large raw files and then convert them to compressed jpegs. In compressive sensing, however, engineers aim to compress a signal while measuring it, allowing them to take many fewer measurements—the equivalent of capturing images as jpegs rather than raw files.

This same technique of acquiring the minimum amount of information needed for a measurement seemed to offer a way around the uncertainty principle. To test compressive sensing in the quantum world, physicist John C. Howell and his team at the University of Rochester set out to measure the position and momentum of a photon—a particle of light. They shone a laser through a box equipped with an array of mirrors that could either point toward or away from a detector at its end. These mirrors formed a filter, allowing photons through in some places and blocking them in others. If a photon made it to the detector, the physicists knew it had been in one of the locations where the mirrors offered a throughway. The filter provided a way of measuring a particle’s position without knowing exactly where it was—without collapsing its wavefunction. “All we know is either the photon can get through that pattern, or it can’t,” says Gregory A. Howland, first author of a paper reporting the research published June 26 in *Physical Review Letters*. “It turns out that because of that we’re still able to figure out the momentum—where it’s going. The penalty that we pay is that our measurement of where it’s going gets a little bit of noise on it.” A less precise momentum measurement, however, is better than no momentum measurement at all.

The physicists stress that they have not broken any laws of physics. “We do not violate the uncertainty principle,” Howland says. “We just use it in a clever way.” The technique could prove powerful for developing technologies such as quantum cryptography and quantum computers, which aim to harness the fuzzy quantum properties of particles for technological applications. The more information quantum measurements can acquire, the better such technologies could work. Howland’s experiment offers a more efficient quantum measurement than has traditionally been possible, says Aephraim M. Steinberg, a physicist at the University of Toronto who was not involved in the research. “This is one of a number of novel techniques which seem poised to prove indispensable for economically characterizing large systems.” In other words, the physicists seem to have found a way to get more data with less measurement—or more bangs for their buck. [7]

A new experiment shows that measuring a quantum system does not necessarily introduce uncertainty

Contrary to what many students are taught, quantum uncertainty may not always be in the eye of the beholder. A new experiment shows that measuring a quantum system does not necessarily introduce uncertainty. The study overthrows a common classroom explanation of why the quantum world appears so fuzzy, but the fundamental limit to what is knowable at the smallest scales remains unchanged.

At the foundation of quantum mechanics is the Heisenberg uncertainty principle. Simply put, the principle states that there is a fundamental limit to what one can know about a quantum system. For example, the more precisely one knows a particle's position, the less one can know about its momentum, and vice versa. The limit is expressed as a simple equation that is straightforward to prove mathematically.

Heisenberg sometimes explained the uncertainty principle as a problem of making measurements. His most well-known thought experiment involved photographing an electron. To take the picture, a scientist might bounce a light particle off the electron's surface. That would reveal its position, but it would also impart energy to the electron, causing it to move. Learning about the electron's position would create uncertainty in its velocity; and the act of measurement would produce the uncertainty needed to satisfy the principle.

Physics students are still taught this measurement-disturbance version of the uncertainty principle in introductory classes, but it turns out that it's not always true. Aephraim Steinberg of the University of Toronto in Canada and his team have performed measurements on photons (particles of light) and showed that the act of measuring can introduce less uncertainty than is required by Heisenberg's principle. The total uncertainty of what can be known about the photon's properties, however, remains above Heisenberg's limit.

Delicate measurement

Steinberg's group does not measure position and momentum, but rather two different inter-related properties of a photon: its polarization states. In this case, the polarization along one plane is intrinsically tied to the polarization along the other, and by Heisenberg's principle, there is a limit to the certainty with which both states can be known.

The researchers made a 'weak' measurement of the photon's polarization in one plane — not enough to disturb it, but enough to produce a rough sense of its orientation. Next, they measured the polarization in the second plane. Then they made an exact, or 'strong', measurement of the first polarization to see whether it had been disturbed by the second measurement.

When the researchers did the experiment multiple times, they found that measurement of one polarization did not always disturb the other state as much as the uncertainty principle predicted. In the strongest case, the induced fuzziness was as little as half of what would be predicted by the uncertainty principle.

Don't get too excited: the uncertainty principle still stands, says Steinberg: "In the end, there's no way you can know [both quantum states] accurately at the same time." But the experiment shows that the act of measurement isn't always what causes the uncertainty. "If there's already a lot of uncertainty in the system, then there doesn't need to be any noise from the measurement at all," he says.

The latest experiment is the second to make a measurement below the uncertainty noise limit. Earlier this year, Yuji Hasegawa, a physicist at the Vienna University of Technology in Austria, measured groups of neutron spins and derived results well below what would be predicted if measurements were inserting all the uncertainty into the system.

But the latest results are the clearest example yet of why Heisenberg's explanation was incorrect. "This is the most direct experimental test of the Heisenberg measurement-disturbance uncertainty principle," says Howard Wiseman, a theoretical physicist at Griffith University in Brisbane, Australia. "Hopefully it will be useful for educating textbook writers so they know that the naive measurement-disturbance relation is wrong."

Shaking the old measurement-uncertainty explanation may be difficult, however. Even after doing the experiment, Steinberg still included a question about how measurements create uncertainty on a recent homework assignment for his students. "Only as I was grading it did I realize that my homework assignment was wrong," he says. "Now I have to be more careful." [6]

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 Δx position difference and with a Δp momentum difference such a way that they product is about the half Planck reduced constant. For the proton this Δx much less in the nucleon, than in the orbit of the electron in the atom, the Δp 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 Δx position with Δp 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 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 $1/2$ spin creator particle to make equal the spins of the weak interaction, for example neutron decay to 2 fermions, every particle is fermions with $1/2$ 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 $\frac{1}{2}$ 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 $E = h\nu$ and $E = mc^2$, $m = h\nu/c^2$ that is the m depends only on the ν 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 m_0 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 Big 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 ratio $M_p=1840 M_e$. 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

The accelerated charges self-maintaining potential shows the locality of the relativity, working on the quantum level also. [1]

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]

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 their movement .

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. 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.

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