

Positron Luminescence

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Researchers from Tomsk Polytechnic University (Russia) and Bangor University (UK) have experimentally verified anomalous amplitude apodization for non-spherical particles for the first time. This phenomenon makes it possible to boost the magnifying power of microscopes and to record molecules and viruses more effectively. [25]

With a thin probe and a burst of microwaves, doctors can eradicate cancer cells without opening up a patient for surgery. [24]

A new source of intense terahertz (THz) radiation, which could offer a less harmful alternative to X-rays and has strong potential for use in industry, is being developed by scientists at the University of Strathclyde and Capital Normal University in Beijing. [23]

Biomedical engineers at the University of California, Davis, have developed a new technique for measuring blood flow in the human brain, which could be used in patients with stroke or traumatic brain injury, for example. [22]

According to a new study in Cell, it may be possible to teach machines how to pick out features in neurons and other cells that have not been stained or undergone other damaging treatments. [21]

The possibility of cognitive nuclear-spin processing came to Fisher in part through studies performed in the 1980s that reported a remarkable lithium isotope dependence on the behavior of mother rats. [20]

And as will be presented today at the 25th annual meeting of the Cognitive Neuroscience Society (CNS), cognitive neuroscientists increasingly are using those emerging artificial networks to enhance their understanding of one of the most elusive intelligence systems, the human brain. [19]

U.S. Army Research Laboratory scientists have discovered a way to leverage emerging brain-like computer architectures for an age-old number-theoretic problem known as integer factorization. [18]

Now researchers at the Department of Energy's Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory (Berkeley Lab) and UC Berkeley have come up with a novel machine learning method that

enables scientists to derive insights from systems of previously intractable complexity in record time. [17]

Quantum computers can be made to utilize effects such as quantum coherence and entanglement to accelerate machine learning. [16]

Neural networks learn how to carry out certain tasks by analyzing large amounts of data displayed to them. [15]

*Who is the better experimentalist, a human or a robot? When it comes to exploring synthetic and crystallization conditions for inorganic gigantic molecules, actively learning machines are clearly ahead, as demonstrated by British Scientists in an experiment with polyoxometalates published in the journal *Angewandte Chemie*. [14]*

Machine learning algorithms are designed to improve as they encounter more data, making them a versatile technology for understanding large sets of photos such as those accessible from Google Images. Elizabeth Holm, professor of materials science and engineering at Carnegie Mellon University, is leveraging this technology to better understand the enormous number of research images accumulated in the field of materials science. [13]

With the help of artificial intelligence, chemists from the University of Basel in Switzerland have computed the characteristics of about two million crystals made up of four chemical elements. The researchers were able to identify 90 previously unknown thermodynamically stable crystals that can be regarded as new materials. [12]

The artificial intelligence system's ability to set itself up quickly every morning and compensate for any overnight fluctuations would make this fragile technology much more useful for field measurements, said co-lead researcher Dr Michael Hush from UNSW ADFA. [11]

Quantum physicist Mario Krenn and his colleagues in the group of Anton Zeilinger from the Faculty of Physics at the University of Vienna and the Austrian Academy of Sciences have developed an algorithm which designs new useful quantum experiments. As the computer does not rely on human intuition, it finds novel unfamiliar solutions. [10]

Researchers at the University of Chicago's Institute for Molecular Engineering and the University of Konstanz have demonstrated the ability to generate a quantum logic operation, or rotation of the qubit, that - surprisingly—is intrinsically resilient to noise as well as to variations in the strength or duration of the control. Their achievement is based on a geometric concept known as the Berry phase and is implemented through entirely optical means within a single electronic spin in diamond. [9]

New research demonstrates that particles at the quantum level can in fact be seen as behaving something like billiard balls rolling along a table, and not merely as the

probabilistic smears that the standard interpretation of quantum mechanics suggests. But there's a catch - the tracks the particles follow do not always behave as one would expect from "realistic" trajectories, but often in a fashion that has been termed "surrealistic." [8]

Quantum entanglement—which occurs when two or more particles are correlated in such a way that they can influence each other even across large distances—is not an all-or-nothing phenomenon, but occurs in various degrees. The more a quantum state is entangled with its partner, the better the states will perform in quantum information applications. Unfortunately, quantifying entanglement is a difficult process involving complex optimization problems that give even physicists headaches. [7]

A trio of physicists in Europe has come up with an idea that they believe would allow a person to actually witness entanglement. Valentina Caprara Vivoli, with the University of Geneva, Pavel Sekatski, with the University of Innsbruck and Nicolas Sangouard, with the University of Basel, have together written a paper describing a scenario where a human subject would be able to witness an instance of entanglement—they have uploaded it to the arXiv server for review by others. [6]

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.

Contents

Preface	5
Positron luminescence outshines that of electrons.....	6
Scientists verify a way of how to improve resolution of most powerful microscopes	7
Study shines light on alternative medical imaging techniques	8
Radiation technique could offer less harmful alternative to X-rays	10
New technology for measuring brain blood flow with light.....	11
Interference to boost signal	12

Scientists teach computers how to analyze brain cells	12
Are we quantum computers? International collaboration will investigate the brain's potential for quantum computation	14
Biochemical Qubits	15
Entangled Neurons	15
Dissecting artificial intelligence to better understand the human brain	16
Army's brain-like computers moving closer to cracking codes	17
Teaching computers to guide science: Machine learning method sees forests and trees....	19
Rise of the quantum thinking machines	21
A Machine Learning Systems That Called Neural Networks Perform Tasks by Analyzing Huge Volumes of Data	22
Active machine learning for the discovery and crystallization of gigantic polyoxometalate molecules	23
Using machine learning to understand materials.....	24
Artificial intelligence helps in the discovery of new materials	25
Machine learning aids statistical analysis.....	25
Unknown materials with interesting characteristics.....	26
Physicists are putting themselves out of a job, using artificial intelligence to run a complex experiment.....	26
Quantum experiments designed by machines.....	27
Moving electrons around loops with light: A quantum device based on geometry	28
Quantum geometry	28
A light touch	28
A noisy path	29
Researchers demonstrate 'quantum surrealism'	29
Physicists discover easy way to measure entanglement—on a sphere	31
An idea for allowing the human eye to observe an instance of entanglement.....	32
Quantum entanglement.....	33
The Bridge	33
Accelerating charges	33
Relativistic effect	33
Heisenberg Uncertainty Relation	34
Wave – Particle Duality	34
Atomic model.....	34
The Relativistic Bridge	34

The weak interaction	35
The General Weak Interaction.....	36
Fermions and Bosons	36
Van Der Waals force	36
Electromagnetic inertia and mass.....	37
Electromagnetic Induction	37
Relativistic change of mass	37
The frequency dependence of mass	37
Electron – Proton mass rate	37
Gravity from the point of view of quantum physics	37
The Gravitational force.....	37
The Higgs boson	38
Higgs mechanism and Quantum Gravity	39
What is the Spin?.....	39
The Graviton	39
The Secret of Quantum Entanglement	40
Conclusions.....	40
References	40

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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.

Positron luminescence outshines that of electrons

In old cathode ray TVs, a picture is generated when an electron beam excites a phosphor screen, causing the phosphor to radiate light. Now in a new study, researchers have found that a beam of positrons (positively charged anti-electrons) incident on a phosphor screen produces significantly more luminescence than an electron beam does.

When the researchers began their research, they expected the applications to be primarily utilitarian: mainly, to understand the differences between using positrons and electrons when performing experiments with phosphor screens as [positron](#) diagnostics. However, the differences were much more interesting than they expected, which may extend the potential applications to areas such as designing new diagnostic systems as well as learning more about the properties of luminescent materials.

The scientists, E. V. Stenson, U. Hergenbahn, M. R. Stoneking, and T. Sunn Pedersen, at the Max Planck Institute for Plasma Physics, among other institutes, have published a paper on their comparison of positron and electron [luminescence](#) in a recent issue of *Physical Review Letters*.

In their experiments, the researchers compared the luminescence excited by a positron [beam](#) with that excited by an [electron beam](#) for two different phosphors (ZnS:Ag and ZnO:Zn). For both phosphors, the overall results were similar. As the beam energy increased from zero, the amount of positron-induced luminescence rose rapidly, while the amount of electron-induced luminescence increased much more gradually. Above a certain level of beam energy, both types of luminescence grew in a linear fashion at approximately the same rate. So at very high beam energy levels, the difference between positron- and electron-induced luminescence became negligible.

Instead, the most striking difference occurred at the lower beam energy levels. For example, in order to produce the same amount of luminescence that is produced by an electron beam with several thousand electron volts of energy, a positron beam required only a few tens of electron volts (eV) for ZnS:Ag, and for ZnO:Zn, even less than 10 eV. As the researchers explain, the huge difference arises from positron annihilation, which produces greater numbers of excited states in the phosphor materials.

As positrons can be used as a tool for learning about phosphors, and phosphors can be used as a tool for learning about positrons, the researchers expect that the results will be interesting for both areas.

"For researchers who look at positrons incident on materials, it's the positrons that are the object of interest," Stenson told *Phys.org*. "In this case, a [phosphor](#) screen is seen as just a tool for learning about the positrons—for example, something as simple as how many of them you have available as ingredients for making anti-atoms or matter-antimatter plasmas.

"For other researchers, it is the other way around, where positrons are a tool for learning about some material. One can do this, for example, by looking at how long it takes positrons to annihilate with a particular solid or liquid or gas, at what angles positrons scatter off a material, or the energy spectrum of electrons that are emitted from a material in which a positron beam annihilates."

Because of the striking difference between electrons and positrons, the results also offer a new tool for understanding the properties of luminescent materials in general.

"Luminescent materials have a long history, having been used for decades in things like cathode ray tubes, and they are still being developed for a variety of new applications," Stenson said.

"Luminescent materials have applications ranging from consumer goods (displays, afterglow materials) to specialized detectors (gas sensors, scintillators) to nanoparticles used for cancer treatment."

Stenson explained that, despite these materials having such a long history, there are still open questions about important aspects of the physics of luminescent [materials](#). These questions include the structure of luminescence centers, the excitation and relaxation pathways for cathodoluminescence, and the origin of the 'dead voltage'—that is, why electrons with less than a keV or two of energy don't produce detectable luminescence in many phosphors.

"I expect that further studies of positron-induced luminescence (for example, comparing the spectrum of light produced by low-energy positrons vs. high-energy positrons vs. high-energy electrons) will be a valuable means of investigating these open questions, especially when combined with other approaches that are already in use for studying [luminescent materials](#)," Stenson said. [26]

Scientists verify a way of how to improve resolution of most powerful microscopes

Researchers from Tomsk Polytechnic University (Russia) and Bangor University (UK) have experimentally verified anomalous amplitude apodization for non-spherical particles for the first time. This phenomenon makes it possible to boost the magnifying power of microscopes and to record molecules and viruses more effectively. The study results were reported in *Journal of Infrared, Millimeter, and Terahertz Waves*.

"If we mask part of an ordinary lens surface with an optical filter, it will increase the magnifying [power](#) of the lens. But peak field intensity drops dramatically. The same effect is typical of spherical particle-lenses in nanoscopes or high-definition optical microscopes with a magnifying power of 50 nanometers. If we use non-spherical [particles](#), including cylinders with illuminated butt-ends, as lenses, and if we mask part of the surface, it will simultaneously boost their magnifying power and peak field intensity. This is called the amplitude mask apodization effect," Professor Igor Minin from Tomsk Polytechnic University's faculty of electronic engineering noted.

Non-spherical particles function as super-lenses accumulating evanescent (damp) waves that can form an image with unprecedentedly high definition levels.

In their work, scientists cite experimental data confirming the existence of the amplitude mask apodization effect in the millimeter waveband. During their experiments, cuboid dielectric particles,

part of whose surfaces (about 45 percent) are covered with a copper amplitude mask, showed a 36-percent increase in magnifying power, with peak field intensity levels increasing by over 30 percent.

You could say that spherical particle-lenses boost the magnifying power of nano-scopes only through the loss of energy. But when we use non-spherical particles, the magnifying power increases at a rate commensurate with the greater peak field intensity levels," Minin added. The long-term development of this technique will make it possible to obtain images of large biological molecules, viruses and the internal elements of living cells using non-spherical particles.

Experts will no longer have to painstakingly prepare various samples. For example, this is an important aspect of fluorescent microscopy. The [amplitude](#) mask apodization effect has a wide range of applications where sub-wavelength focusing is required. These are medicine, non-destructive testing, flaw detection, on chip processing and data transfer systems, etc. [25]

Study shines light on alternative medical imaging techniques

With a thin probe and a burst of microwaves, doctors can eradicate cancer cells without opening up a patient for surgery.

But when you're trying to cook a tiny amount of precancerous [tissue](#) to death in an area as delicate as, say, the esophagus—where muscles control the flow of food into the stomach—precision is paramount.

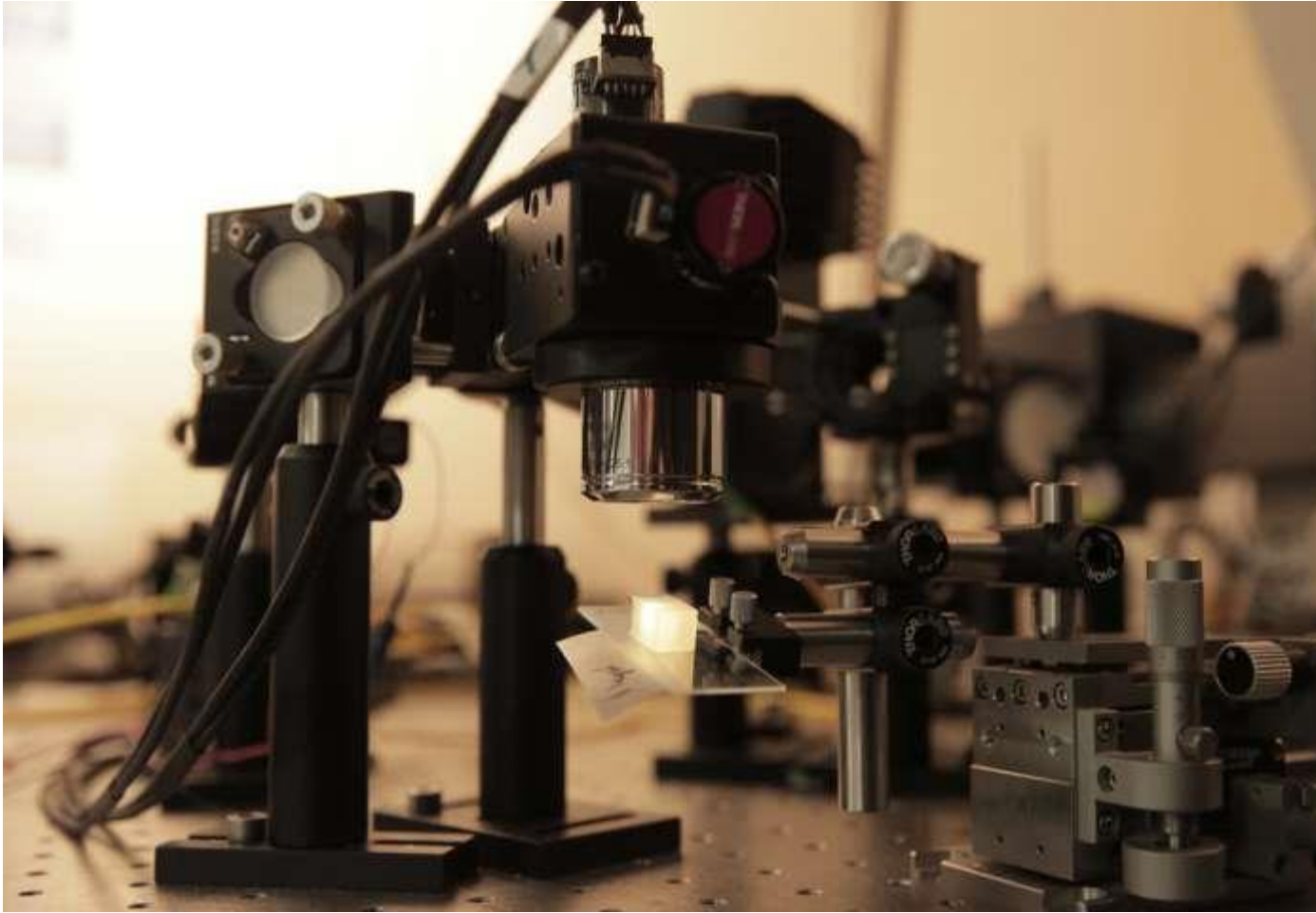
A team of University of Wisconsin-Madison biomedical engineers is working to hone new imaging techniques that could allow for finer monitoring of this kind of minimally invasive ablation treatment.

In an exploratory study recently published in the journal *Biomedical Optics Express*, College of Engineering graduate students Ryan Niemeier, Sevede Etoz and Daniel Gil and faculty members Jeremy Rogers, Melissa Skala and Christopher Brace analyzed how two different methods of [optical coherence tomography](#) (OCT) could provide valuable, quantitative imaging data on tissue that's been ablated and the surrounding areas.

Unlike ablations of tumors in organs such as the liver or lung, where the measurements are in centimeters, procedures in areas like the esophagus work in scales of fractions of a millimeter.

"Traditional medical imaging doesn't really work well for that," says Brace, an associate professor of biomedical engineering who led the ablation side of the study. "Traditional optical visualization might give you a sense of what's happened on the surface, but you can't quite tell how deep it got."

To explore an alternative method, the UW-Madison engineers used a traditional weakness of optical technology to their advantage. When [light](#) is beamed into tissue, it scatters, limiting the depth and contrast of the resulting image.



This custom-built optical coherence tomography instrument uses visible light to view tissue. Credit: Renee Meiller

"At the same time, it's also an opportunity," says Rogers, an assistant professor of [biomedical engineering](#) whose lab focuses on biomedical optics. "Scattered light actually contains a lot of information. So by making use of that scattering signal, we can actually turn that into a source of contrast."

OCT, which Rogers likens to the optical version of ultrasound, typically uses [near-infrared light](#), which scatters less and penetrates deeper than visible light. But since the group was expressly interested in examining changes in scattering, the visible wavelength offered intriguing potential.

Rogers and his optics team custom built an OCT instrument that uses [visible light](#) and then compared the images to those taken with a commercially developed system employing near-infrared light.

"What we've seen with this is that they actually contain complementary information. Each has certain advantages and disadvantages," says Rogers, noting the near-infrared tool sees deeper and has a better signal-to-noise ratio, while the visible instrument yields a higher resolution.

"We also know from theory of scattering that these different wavelength ranges are going to actually be sensitive to different structures in the tissue."

Thus, detecting changes in scattering could indicate physical tissue changes, such as cell death in the case of ablation treatments. With further exploration, that could mean real-time monitoring of procedures, which could increase efficiency—no more waiting on lab work to confirm results.

"It suggests we might be able to use this type of technique to look more interactively at what's happening in the tissue," says Brace. [24]

Radiation technique could offer less harmful alternative to X-rays

A new source of intense terahertz (THz) radiation, which could offer a less harmful alternative to X-rays and has strong potential for use in industry, is being developed by scientists at the University of Strathclyde and Capital Normal University in Beijing.

Unlike visible light, THz radiation penetrates materials such as plastic, cardboard, wood and composite materials, making it an excellent replacement for harmful X-rays used in imaging, and security.

Although it is well known that THz electromagnetic waves can carry ultra-high bandwidth communications, far exceeding those of Wi-Fi, it is less well-known that it is a highly useful probe for detecting molecules and analysing semiconductors.

A research team led by Professor Dino Jaroszynski, of Strathclyde's Department of Physics, has shown experimentally that unprecedentedly high-charge bunches of relativistic electrons can be produced by a laser wakefield accelerator (LWFA). These are produced in addition to the usual high-energy, low-charge beams that are emitted.

The team showed that when an intense ultra-short laser pulse is focussed into helium gas, a plasma bubble moving at the nearly the speed of light is formed. These high-charge beams of electrons are distinct from the usual low-charge (picocolomb), high-energy (100s MeV to GeV), femtosecond duration electron bunches that are commonly observed from the LWFA.

The research has been published in the *New Journal of Physics*.

Professor Jaroszynski, Director of the Scottish Centre for the Application Plasma-based Accelerators (SCAPA), who initiated the project, said: "This is an unprecedented efficiency at these THz energies. The increasing availability of intense THz sources will lead to completely new avenues in science and technology.

"New tools for scientists lead to new advances. The interaction of intense THz radiation with matter allows access to nonlinear processes, which enables the identification of normally hidden phenomena, and also unique control of matter, such as aligning molecules using high THz fields or distorting band structure in semiconductors.

"SCAPA provides an ideal environment for investigating these phenomena, which should lead to new advances in science. Our theoretical studies are the first steps in this exciting new direction."

Dr. Enrico Brunetti, of Strathclyde's Department of Physics, carried out most of the simulations in the research. He said: "Since the charge of wide-angle beams increases linearly with laser intensity and plasma density, the energy of THz radiation will scale to milijoule-levels, which would make an intense source of THz radiation with peak powers in excess of GW, which is comparable with that of a far-infrared free-electron laser. An optical to terahertz conversion efficiency of the order of 1% can be reached."

Dr. Xue Yang, a researcher in the project from Capital Normal University, said: "When electrons cross an interface between two media of different dielectric constant, transition radiation is emitted over a wide range of frequencies."

"Simulations show that wide-angle electron beams emitted by laser-wakefield accelerators can produce coherent terahertz radiation with 10s μ J to 100s μ J energy when passed through a thin metal foil or at the plasma-vacuum boundary of the accelerator."

THz radiation is far-infrared electromagnetic radiation that has a frequency between 0.1 THz and 10 THz (1 THz = 10^{12} Hz), which fits between the mid-infrared and microwave spectra. The vibrational and rotational spectral fingerprints of large molecules coincide with the THz band, which makes THz spectroscopy a powerful tool for identifying hazardous substances, such as drugs and explosives. Moreover, THz radiation is important for biology and medicine because many biological macromolecules, such as DNA and proteins, have their collective motion at THz frequencies.

THz radiation can also be used to uncover the intricacies of semiconductors and nanostructures, and therefore are important tools for developing new electro-mechanical devices and solar cells.

Many different methods of generating THz radiation exist, including driving photocurrents in semiconductor antennas, excitation of quantum wells and optical rectification in electro-optic crystals. However, their maximum power is restricted because of damage to the optical materials at high powers. Plasma, in contrast, has no such limitation, as it is already broken

The new research shows that these high-charge—nanocoloumb-, and relatively low energy (MeV), sub-picosecond duration electron bunches are emitted in a hollow cone with an opening angle of nearly 45 degrees to the laser beam axis. The researchers show that laser energy can be efficiently transferred to a very intense pulse of THz [radiation](#). [23]

New technology for measuring brain blood flow with light

Biomedical engineers at the University of California, Davis, have developed a new technique for measuring blood flow in the human brain, which could be used in patients with stroke or traumatic brain injury, for example. The new technique, based on conventional digital camera technology, could be significantly cheaper and more robust than prior methods.

The work is described in a paper published April 26 in the journal *Optica*.

"Our setup is very promising, and the cost should be lower," said Wenjun Zhou, a postdoctoral researcher working with Vivek Srinivasan, associate professor at the UC Davis Department of Biomedical Engineering.

If you shine a [light](#) into a cloudy solution, light particles, or photons, will be scattered in different directions. An experimental technique called diffuse correlation spectroscopy, or DCS, uses essentially this approach to look inside someone's skull. Laser light is shined on the head; as photons from the laser pass through the skull and [brain](#), they are scattered by blood and tissue. A detector placed elsewhere on the head, where the photons make their way out again, picks up the light fluctuations due to blood motion. These fluctuations provide information about blood flow.

The light signal is very weak, and the further it passes through the skull and brain tissue, the weaker it gets. So DCS requires a number of very sensitive, expensive single photon counting detectors. Boosting the light going in risks burning the patient's skin.

Interference to boost signal

Zhou and Srinivasan took a different approach, based on the fact that overlapping light waves will reinforce or cancel each other out, like overlapping ripples on a pond.

They first split the light beam into "sample" and "reference" paths. The sample beam goes into the patient's head and another, stronger, reference beam is routed so that it reconnects with the sample beam before going to the detector. This boosts the signal, meaning that instead of needing about 20 photon-counting detectors that cost a few thousand dollars each, the researchers could use a single CMOS-based digital camera chip for a fraction of the price.

"The strong reference light enhances the weaker signal from the sample," Zhou said.

They call the method interferometric diffusing wave spectroscopy, or iDWS. An added advantage is that they do not need to turn off the room lights while making measurements with iDWS, Zhou said. Eventually, they may even be able to monitor brain [blood flow](#) outdoors, under bright sunlight.

So far, the team has tested their device by making brain recordings from volunteers in the laboratory. They are working with Dr. Bruce Lyeth and Dr. Lara Zimmermann in the UC Davis Department of Neurological Surgery to validate and adapt the technology for eventual use in neurocritical care. UC Davis has applied for a provisional patent on the technology. [22]

Scientists teach computers how to analyze brain cells

In the early days of neuroscience research, scientists painstakingly stained brain cells and drew by hand what they saw in a microscope. Fast forward to 2018 and machines may be able to learn how to do that work. According to a new study in *Cell*, it may be possible to teach machines how to pick out features in neurons and other cells that have not been stained or undergone other damaging treatments. The study was partially funded by the National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke (NINDS), part of the National Institutes of Health.

"This approach has the potential to revolutionize biomedical research," said Margaret Sutherland, Ph.D., program director at the NINDS. "Researchers are now generating extraordinary amounts of data. For neuroscientists, this means that training machines to help analyze this information can help speed up our understanding of how the cells of the brain are put together and in applications related to drug development."

A dish, or culture, of neuronal cells appears uniform to the naked eye and the different, individual cells in it cannot be seen. Ever since the late nineteenth century when pioneering neuroscientists, Santiago Ramon y Cajal and Camillo Golgi, drew the earliest maps of the nervous system, scientists have been developing dyes and staining methods to help distinguish the structures in the brain, including different types of cells and their state of health. However, many of these methods involve harsh chemicals that fix, or freeze, cells in an unnatural state or damage living cells after multiple stains have been applied. The traditional techniques also limit the details scientists can observe.

A team led by Steven Finkbeiner, M.D., Ph.D., director and senior investigator at the Gladstone Institutes in San Francisco, and professor of neurology and physiology at the University of California, San Francisco, explored whether computers could be trained to identify structures in unstained cells.

"Every day our lab had been creating hundreds of images, much more than we could look at and analyze ourselves. One day, a couple of researchers from Google knocked on our door to see if they could help us," said Dr. Finkbeiner, the senior author of the study.

The researchers used a method called Deep Learning, which relies on principles of machine learning, a type of artificial intelligence in which machines can learn from data and make decisions. Facial recognition software is an example of machine learning.

Using Deep Learning, Dr. Finkbeiner's team trained a computer program to analyze brain cells by showing it stained and unstained images. Then, to test whether the program had learned anything, the researchers challenged it with new unlabeled images.

After the first round of training, the program identified where cells were located in the culture dish by learning to spot a cell's nucleus, a round structure that contains genetic information and serves as the cell's command center. During additional experiments, Dr. Finkbeiner's group increased the complexity of the features the program was looking for and successfully trained it to distinguish dead cells from living cells, as well as to identify specific types of brain cells. In addition, the program learned to differentiate between axons and dendrites, which are two specific types of extensions on neurons. According to the results, the program was successful in predicting structures in unlabeled tissue.

"Deep Learning takes an algorithm, or a set of rules, and structures it in layers, identifying simple features from parts of the image, and then passes the information to other layers that recognize increasingly complex features, such as patterns and structures. This is reminiscent of how our brain processes visual information," said Dr. Finkbeiner. "Deep Learning methods are able to uncover much more information than can be seen with the human eye."

Dr. Finkbeiner and his team noted that the main drawback to using this technology is that the training datasets need to be very large, ideally around 15,000 images. In addition, there may be a

risk to overtraining the programs, that they become so specialized they can only identify structures in a particular set of images or in images generated in a particular way, and not make predictions about more general images, which could limit the use of this technology.

Dr. Finkbeiner and his colleagues plan to apply these methods to disease-focused research.

"Now that we showed that this technology works, we can start using it in disease research. Deep Learning may spot something in cells that could help predict clinical outcomes and can help us screen potential treatments," said Dr. Finkbeiner.

More research is needed to refine the technology and make it more widely available. [21]

Are we quantum computers? International collaboration will investigate the brain's potential for quantum computation

Much has been made of quantum computing processes using ultracold atoms and ions, superconducting junctions and defects in diamonds, but could we be performing them in our own brains?

It's a question UC Santa Barbara theoretical physicist [Matthew Fisher](#) has been asking for years. Now, as scientific director of the new Quantum Brain Project (QuBrain), he is seeking to put this inquiry through rigorous experimental tests.

"Might we, ourselves, be [quantum](#) computers, rather than just clever robots who are designing and building quantum computers?" Fisher asks.

Some functions the [brain](#) performs continue to elude neuroscience—the substrate that "holds" very long-term memories and how it operates, for example. Quantum mechanics, which deals with the behavior of nature at atomic and subatomic levels, may be able to unlock some clues. And that in turn could have major implications on many levels, from quantum computing and materials sciences to biology, mental health and even what it is to be human.

The idea of [quantum computing](#) in our brains is not a new one. In fact, it has been making the rounds for a while with some scientists, as well as those with less scientific leanings. But Fisher, a world-renowned expert in the field of quantum mechanics, has identified a precise—and unique—set of biological components and key mechanisms that could provide the basis for quantum processing in the brain. With \$1.2 million in grant funding over three years from the Heising-Simons Foundation, Fisher will launch the QuBrain collaboration at UCSB. Composed of an international team of leading scientists spanning quantum physics, molecular biology, biochemistry, colloid science and behavioral neuroscience, the project will seek explicit experimental evidence to answer whether we might in fact be quantum computers.

"We are extremely grateful to the Heising-Simons Foundation for the bold vision in granting this project at the very frontier of quantum- and neuroscience," said UC Santa Barbara Chancellor Henry T. Yang. "Professor Matthew Fisher is an exceptional quantum physicist as evidenced by the Oliver

E. Buckley Prize he shared in 2015 for his research on quantum phase transitions. Now he is stepping out of his traditional theoretical research framework, assembling an international team of experts to develop an experimentally based research program that will determine if quantum processes exist in the brain. Their research could shed new light on how the brain works, which might lead to novel mental health treatment protocols. As such, we eagerly anticipate the results of QuBrain's collaborative research endeavors in the years to come."

"If the question of whether quantum processes take place in the brain is answered in the affirmative, it could revolutionize our understanding and treatment of brain function and human cognition," said Matt Helgeson, a UCSB professor of chemical engineering and associate director at QuBrain.

Biochemical Qubits

The hallmarks of quantum computers lie in the behaviors of the infinitesimal systems of atoms and ions, which can manifest "qubits" (e.g. "spins") that exhibit quantum entanglement. Multiple qubits can form networks that encode, store and transmit information, analogous to the digital bits in a conventional computer. In the quantum computers we are trying to build, these effects are generated and maintained in highly controlled and isolated environments and at low temperatures. So the warm, wet brain is not considered a conducive environment to exhibit quantum effects as they should be easily "washed out" by the thermal motion of atoms and molecules.

However, Fisher asserts that nuclear spins (at the core of the atom, rather than the surrounding electrons) provide an exception to the rule.

"Extremely well-isolated nuclear spins can store—and perhaps process—quantum information on human time scales of hours or longer," he said. Fisher posits that phosphorus atoms—one of the most abundant elements in the body—have the requisite nuclear spin that could serve as a biochemical qubit. One of the experimental thrusts of the collaboration will be to monitor the quantum properties of phosphorus atoms, particularly entanglement between two phosphorus nuclear spins when bonded together in a molecule undergoing biochemical processes.

Meanwhile, Helgeson and Alexej Jerschow, a professor of chemistry at New York University, will investigate the dynamics and nuclear spin of Posner molecules—spherically shaped calcium phosphate nano-clusters—and whether they have the ability to protect the nuclear spins of the phosphorus atom qubits, which could promote the storage of quantum information. They will also explore the potential for non-local quantum information processing that could be enabled by pair-binding and disassociation of Posner molecules.

Entangled Neurons

In another set of experiments, Tobias Fromme, a scientist at the Technical University of Munich, will study the potential contribution of mitochondria to entanglement and their quantum coupling to neurons. He will determine if these cellular organelles—responsible for functions such as metabolism and cell signaling—can transport Posner molecules within and between neurons via their tubular networks. Fusing and fissioning of mitochondria could allow for establishment of non-local intra- and intercellular quantum entanglement. Subsequent disassociation of Posner molecules could trigger release of calcium, correlated across the mitochondrial network, activating

neurotransmitter release and subsequent synaptic firing across what would essentially be a quantum coupled network of neurons—a phenomena that Fromme will seek to emulate in vitro.

The possibility of cognitive nuclear-spin processing came to Fisher in part through studies performed in the 1980s that reported a remarkable lithium isotope dependence on the behavior of mother rats. Though given the same element, their behavior changed dramatically depending on the number of neutrons in the lithium nuclei. What to most people would be a negligible difference was to a quantum physicist like Fisher a fundamentally significant disparity, suggesting the importance of [nuclear spins](#). Aaron Ettenberg, UCSB Distinguished Professor of Psychological & Brain Sciences, will lead investigations that seek to replicate and extend these lithium isotope experiments.

"However likely you judge Matthew Fisher's hypothesis, by testing it through QuBrain's collaborative research approach we will explore neuronal function with state-of-the-art technology from completely new angles and with enormous potential for discovery," said Fromme. Similarly, according to Helgeson, the research conducted by QuBrain has the potential for breakthroughs in the fields of biomaterials, biochemical catalysis, [quantum entanglement](#) in solution chemistry and mood disorders in humans, regardless of whether or not quantum processes indeed take place in the brain. [20]

Dissecting artificial intelligence to better understand the human brain

In the natural world, intelligence takes many forms. It could be a bat using echolocation to expertly navigate in the dark, or an octopus quickly adapting its behavior to survive in the deep ocean. Likewise, in the computer science world, multiple forms of artificial intelligence are emerging - different networks each trained to excel in a different task. And as will be presented today at the 25th annual meeting of the Cognitive Neuroscience Society (CNS), cognitive neuroscientists increasingly are using those emerging artificial networks to enhance their understanding of one of the most elusive intelligence systems, the human brain.

"The fundamental questions cognitive neuroscientists and computer scientists seek to answer are similar," says Aude Oliva of MIT. "They have a complex system made of components - for one, it's called [neurons](#) and for the other, it's called units - and we are doing experiments to try to determine what those components calculate."

In Oliva's work, which she is presenting at the CNS symposium, neuroscientists are learning much about the role of contextual clues in human image recognition. By using "artificial neurons" - essentially lines of code, software - with neural [network](#) models, they can parse out the various elements that go into recognizing a specific place or object.

"The brain is a deep and complex neural network," says Nikolaus Kriegeskorte of Columbia University, who is chairing the symposium. "Neural network models are brain-inspired models that are now state-of-the-art in many artificial intelligence applications, such as computer vision."

In one recent study of more than 10 million images, Oliva and colleagues taught an artificial network to recognize 350 different places, such as a kitchen, bedroom, park, living room, etc. They expected the network to learn objects such as a bed associated with a bedroom. What they didn't

expect was that the network would learn to recognize people and animals, for example dogs at parks and cats in living rooms.

The machine [intelligence](#) programs learn very quickly when given lots of data, which is what enables them to parse contextual learning at such a fine level, Oliva says. While it is not possible to dissect human neurons at such a level, the computer [model](#) performing a similar task is entirely transparent. The [artificial neural networks](#) serve as "mini-brains that can be studied, changed, evaluated, compared against responses given by human neural networks, so the cognitive neuroscientists have some sort of sketch of how a real brain may function."

Indeed, Kriegeskorte says that these models have helped neuroscientists understand how people can recognize the objects around them in the blink of an eye. "This involves millions of signals emanating from the retina, that sweep through a sequence of layers of neurons, extracting semantic information, for example that we're looking at a street scene with several people and a dog," he says. "Current neural network models can perform this kind of task using only computations that biological neurons can perform. Moreover, these neural network models can predict to some extent how a neuron deep in the brain will respond to any image."

Using computer science to understand the human brain is a relatively new field that is expanding rapidly thanks to advancements in computing speed and power, along with neuroscience imaging tools. The artificial networks cannot yet replicate human visual abilities, Kriegeskorte says, but by modeling the human brain, they are furthering understanding of both cognition and [artificial intelligence](#). "It's a uniquely exciting time to be working at the intersection of neuroscience, cognitive science, and AI," he says.

Indeed, Oliva says; "Human cognitive and computational neuroscience is a fast-growing area of research, and knowledge about how the [human brain](#) is able to see, hear, feel, think, remember, and predict is mandatory to develop better diagnostic tools, to repair the [brain](#), and to make sure it develops well." [19]

Army's brain-like computers moving closer to cracking codes

U.S. Army Research Laboratory scientists have discovered a way to leverage emerging brain-like computer architectures for an age-old number-theoretic problem known as integer factorization.

By mimicking the brain functions of mammals in computing, Army scientists are opening up a new solution space that moves away from traditional computing architectures and towards devices that are able to operate within extreme size-, weight-, and power-constrained environments.

"With more computing power in the battlefield, we can process information and solve computationally-hard problems quicker," said Dr. John V. "Vinnie" Monaco, an ARL computer scientist. "Programming the type of devices that fit these criteria, for example, brain-inspired computers, is challenging, and cracking crypto codes is just one application that shows we know how to do this."

The problem itself can be stated in simple terms. Take a composite integer N and express it as the product of its prime components. Most people have completed this task at some point in grade

school, often an exercise in elementary arithmetic. For example, 55 can be expressed as 5×11 and 63 as $3 \times 3 \times 7$. What many didn't realize is they were performing a task that if completed quickly enough for large numbers, could break much of the modern day internet.

Public key encryption is a method of secure communication used widely today, based on the RSA algorithm developed by Rivest, Shamir, and Adleman in 1978. The security of the RSA algorithm relies on the difficulty of factoring a large composite integer N , the public key, which is distributed by the receiver to anyone who wants to send an encrypted message. If N can be factored into its prime components, then the private key, needed to decrypt the message, can be recovered. However, the difficulty in factoring large integers quickly becomes apparent.

As the size of N increases by a single digit, the time it would take to factor N by trying all possible combinations of prime factors is approximately doubled. This means that if a number with ten digits takes 1 minute to factor, a number with twenty digits will take about 17 hours and a number with 30 digits about two years, an exponential growth in effort. This difficulty underlies the security of the RSA algorithm.

Challenging this, Monaco and his colleague Dr. Manuel Vindiola, of the lab's Computational Sciences Division, demonstrated how brain-like computers lend a speedup to the currently best known algorithms for factoring integers.

The team of researchers have devised a way to factor large composite integers by harnessing the massive parallelism of novel computer architectures that mimic the functioning of the mammalian brain. So called [neuromorphic computers](#) operate under vastly different principles than conventional computers, such as laptops and mobile devices, all based on an architecture described by John von Neumann in 1945.

In the von Neumann architecture, memory is separate from the central processing unit, or CPU, which must read and write to memory over a bus. This bus has a limited bandwidth, and much of the time, the CPU is waiting to access memory, often referred to as the von Neumann bottleneck.

Neuromorphic computers, on the other hand, do not suffer from a von Neumann bottleneck. There is no CPU, memory, or bus. Instead, they incorporate many individual computation units, much like neurons in the brain.

These units are connected by physical or simulated pathways for passing data around, analogous to synaptic connections between neurons. Many neuromorphic devices operate based on the physical response properties of the underlying material, such as graphene lasers or magnetic tunnel junctions. Because of this, these devices consume orders of magnitude less energy than their von Neumann counterparts and can operate on a molecular time scale. As such, any algorithm capable of running on these devices stands to benefit from their capabilities.

The speedup acquired by the ARL researchers is due to the formulation of a method for integer factorization with the help of a neuromorphic co-processor. The current fastest algorithms for factoring integers consist primarily of two stages, sieving and a matrix reduction, and the sieving stage comprises most of the computational effort.

Sieving involves searching for many integers that satisfy a certain property called B-smooth, integers that don't contain a prime factor greater than B. Monaco and Vindiola were able to construct a neural network that discovers B-smooth numbers quicker and with greater accuracy than on a von Neumann architecture. Their algorithm leverages the massive parallelism of brain-inspired computers and the innate ability of individual neurons to perform arithmetic operations, such as addition. As neuromorphic architectures continue to increase in size and speed, not limited by Moore's Law, their ability to tackle larger integer factorization problems also grows. In their work, it's estimated that 1024-bit keys could be broken in about a year, a task once thought to be out of reach. For comparison, the current record, a 232 decimal digit number (RSA-768) took about 2,000 years of computing time over the course of several years.

From a broader perspective, this discovery pushes us to question how a shift in computing paradigm might affect some of our most basic security assumptions. As emerging devices shift to incorporate massive parallelism and harness material physics to compute, the computational hardness underlying some security protocols may be challenged in ways not previously imagined. This work also opens the door to new research areas of emerging computer architectures, in terms of algorithm design and function representation, alongside low-power machine learning and artificial intelligence applications.

"Encrypted messages in warfare often have an expiration date, when their contents become un-actionable," Monaco said. "There is an urgency to decrypt enemy communications, especially those at the field level, since these expire the quickest, compared to communication at higher echelons. In field conditions, power and connectivity are extremely limited. This is a strong motivating factor for using a brain-inspired [computer](#) for such a task where conventional computers are not practical." [18]

Teaching computers to guide science: Machine learning method sees forests and trees

While it may be the era of supercomputers and "big data," without smart methods to mine all that data, it's only so much digital detritus. Now researchers at the Department of Energy's Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory (Berkeley Lab) and UC Berkeley have come up with a novel machine learning method that enables scientists to derive insights from systems of previously intractable complexity in record time.

In a paper published recently in the *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences (PNAS)*, the researchers describe a technique called "iterative Random Forests," which they say could have a transformative effect on any area of [science](#) or engineering with [complex systems](#), including biology, precision medicine, materials science, environmental science, and manufacturing, to name a few.

"Take a human cell, for example. There are 10^{170} possible molecular interactions in a single cell. That creates considerable computing challenges in searching for relationships," said Ben Brown, head of

Berkeley Lab's Molecular Ecosystems Biology Department. "Our method enables the identification of interactions of high order at the same computational cost as main effects - even when those interactions are local with weak marginal effects."

Brown and Bin Yu of UC Berkeley are lead senior authors of "Iterative Random Forests to Discover Predictive and Stable High-Order Interactions." The co-first authors are Sumanta Basu (formerly a joint postdoc of Brown and Yu and now an assistant professor at Cornell University) and Karl Kumbier (a Ph.D. student of Yu in the UC Berkeley Statistics Department). The paper is the culmination of three years of work that the authors believe will transform the way science is done. "With our method we can gain radically richer information than we've ever been able to gain from a learning machine," Brown said.

The needs of [machine learning](#) in science are different from that of industry, where machine learning has been used for things like playing chess, making self-driving cars, and predicting the stock market.

"The machine learning developed by industry is great if you want to do high-frequency trading on the [stock market](#)," Brown said. "You don't care why you're able to predict the stock will go up or down. You just want to know that you can make the predictions."

But in science, questions surrounding why a process behaves in certain ways are critical. Understanding "why" allows scientists to model or even engineer processes to improve or attain a desired outcome. As a result, machine learning for science needs to peer inside the black box and understand why and how computers reached the conclusions they reached. A long-term goal is to use this kind of information to model or engineer systems to obtain desired outcomes.

In highly complex systems - whether it's a single cell, the human body, or even an entire ecosystem - there are a large number of variables interacting in nonlinear ways. That makes it difficult if not impossible to build a model that can determine cause and effect. "Unfortunately, in biology, you come across interactions of order 30, 40, 60 all the time," Brown said. "It's completely intractable with traditional approaches to statistical learning."

The method developed by the team led by Brown and Yu, iterative Random Forests (iRF), builds on an algorithm called random forests, a popular and effective predictive modeling tool, translating the internal states of the black box learner into a human-interpretable form. Their approach allows researchers to search for complex interactions by decoupling the order, or size, of interactions from the computational cost of identification.

"There is no difference in the computational cost of detecting an interaction of order 30 versus an interaction of order two," Brown said. "And that's a sea change."

In the PNAS paper, the scientists demonstrated their method on two genomics problems, the role of gene enhancers in the fruit fly embryo and alternative splicing in a human-derived cell line. In both cases, using iRF confirmed previous findings while also uncovering previously unidentified higher-order interactions for follow-up study.

Brown said they're now using their method for designing phased array laser systems and optimizing sustainable agriculture systems.

"We believe this is a different paradigm for doing science," said Yu, a professor in the departments of Statistics and Electrical Engineering & Computer Science at UC Berkeley. "We do prediction, but we introduce stability on top of prediction in iRF to more reliably learn the underlying structure in the predictors."

"This enables us to learn how to engineer systems for goal-oriented optimization and more accurately targeted simulations and follow-up experiments," Brown added.

In a [PNAS commentary](#) on the technique, Danielle Denisko and Michael Hoffman of the University of Toronto wrote: "iRF holds much promise as a new and effective way of detecting interactions in a variety of settings, and its use will help us ensure no branch or leaf is ever left unturned." [17]

Rise of the quantum thinking machines

Quantum computers can be made to utilize effects such as quantum coherence and entanglement to accelerate machine learning.

Although we typically view information as being an abstract or virtual entity, information, of course, must be stored in a physical medium. Information processing devices such as computers and phones are therefore fundamentally governed by the laws of physics. In this way, the fundamental physical limits of an agent's ability to learn are governed by the laws of physics. The best known theory of physics is quantum theory, which ultimately must be used to determine the absolute physical limits of a machine's ability to learn.

A quantum algorithm is a stepwise procedure performed on a quantum computer to solve a problem such as searching a database. Quantum machine learning software makes use of quantum algorithms to process information in ways that classical computers cannot. These quantum effects open up exciting new avenues which can, in principle, outperform the best known classical algorithms when solving certain machine learning problems. This is known as quantum enhanced machine learning.

Machine learning methods use mathematical algorithms to search for certain patterns in large data sets. Machine learning is widely used in biotechnology, pharmaceuticals, particle physics and many other fields. Thanks to the ability to adapt to new data, machine learning greatly exceeds the ability of people. Despite this, machine learning cannot cope with certain difficult tasks.

Quantum enhancement is predicted to be possible for a host of machine learning tasks, ranging from optimization to quantum enhanced deep learning.

In the new paper published in Nature, a group of scientists led by Skoltech Associate Professor Jacob Biamonte produced a feasibility analysis outlining what steps can be taken for practical quantum enhanced machine learning.

The prospects of using quantum computers to accelerate machine learning has generated recent excitement due to the increasing capabilities of quantum computers. This includes a commercially

available 2000 spin quantum accelerated annealing by the Canada-based company D-Wave Systems Inc. and a 16 qubit universal quantum processor by IBM which is accessible via a (currently free) cloud service.

The availability of these devices has led to increased interest from the machine learning community. The interest comes as a bit of a shock to the traditional quantum physics community, in which researchers have thought that the primary applications of quantum computers would be using quantum computers to simulate chemical physics, which can be used in the pharmaceutical industry for drug discovery. However, certain quantum systems can be mapped to certain machine learning models, particularly deep learning models. Quantum machine learning can be used to work in tandem with these existing methods for quantum chemical emulation, leading to even greater capabilities for a new era of quantum technology.

"Early on, the team burned the midnight oil over Skype, debating what the field even was—our synthesis will hopefully solidify topical importance. We submitted our draft to Nature, going forward subject to significant changes. All in all, we ended up writing three versions over eight months with nothing more than the title in common," said lead study author Biamonte. [16]

A Machine Learning Systems That Called Neural Networks Perform Tasks by Analyzing Huge Volumes of Data

Neural networks learn how to carry out certain tasks by analyzing large amounts of data displayed to them. These machine learning systems continually learn and readjust to be able to carry out the task set out before them. Understanding how neural networks work helps researchers to develop better applications and uses for them.

At the 2017 Conference on Empirical Methods on Natural Language Processing earlier this month, MIT researchers demonstrated a new general-purpose technique for making sense of neural networks that are able to carry out natural language processing tasks where they attempt to extract data written in normal text opposed to something of a structured language like database-query language.

The new technique works great in any system that reads the text as input and produces symbols as the output. One such example of this can be seen in an automatic translator. It works without the need to access any underlying software too. Tommi Jaakkola is Professor of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science at MIT and one of the authors on the paper. He says, "I can't just do a simple randomization. And what you are predicting is now a more complex object, like a sentence, so what does it mean to give an explanation?"

As part of the research, Jaakkola, and colleague David Alvarez-Melis, an MIT graduate student in electrical engineering and computer science and first author on the paper, used a black-box neural net in which to generate test sentences to feed black-box neural nets. The duo began by teaching the network to compress and decompress natural sentences. As the training continues the encoder and decoder get evaluated simultaneously depending on how closely the decoder's output matches up with the encoder's input.

Neural nets work on probabilities. For example, an object-recognition system could be fed an image of a cat, and it would process that image as it saying 75 percent probability of being a cat, while still having a 25 percent probability that it's a dog. Along with that same line, Jaakkola and Alvarez-Melis' sentence compressing network has alternative words for each of those in a decoded sentence along with the probability that each is correct. So, once the system has generated a list of closely related sentences they're then fed to a black-box natural language processor. This then allows the researchers to analyze and determine which inputs have an effect on which outputs.

During the research, the pair applied this technique to three different types of a natural language processing system. The first one inferred the way in which words were pronounced; the second was a set of translators, and the third was a simple computer dialogue system which tried to provide adequate responses to questions or remarks. In looking at the results, it was clear and pretty obvious that the translation systems had strong dependencies on individual words of both the input and output sentences. A little more surprising, however, was the identification of gender biases in the texts on which the machine translation systems were trained. The dialogue system was too small to take advantage of the training set.

"The other experiment we do is in flawed systems," says Alvarez-Melis. "If you have a black-box model that is not doing a good job, can you first use this kind of approach to identify problems? A motivating application of this kind of interpretability is to fix systems, to improve systems, by understanding what they're getting wrong and why." [15]

Active machine learning for the discovery and crystallization of gigantic polyoxometalate molecules

Who is the better experimentalist, a human or a robot? When it comes to exploring synthetic and crystallization conditions for inorganic gigantic molecules, actively learning machines are clearly ahead, as demonstrated by British Scientists in an experiment with polyoxometalates published in the journal *Angewandte Chemie*.

Polyoxometalates form through self-assembly of a large number of metal atoms bridged by oxygen atoms. Potential uses include catalysis, electronics, and medicine. Insights into the self-organization processes could also be of use in developing functional chemical systems like "molecular machines".

Polyoxometalates offer a nearly unlimited variety of structures. However, it is not easy to find new ones, because the aggregation of complex inorganic molecules to gigantic molecules is a process that is difficult to predict. It is necessary to find conditions under which the building blocks aggregate and then also crystallize, so that they can be characterized.

A team led by Leroy Cronin at the University of Glasgow (UK) has now developed a new approach to define the range of suitable conditions for the synthesis and crystallization of polyoxometalates. It is based on recent advances in machine learning, known as active learning. They allowed their trained machine to compete against the intuition of experienced experimenters. The test example was $\text{Na}(6)[\text{Mo}(120)\text{Ce}(6)\text{O}(366)\text{H}(12)(\text{H}(2)\text{O})(78)] \cdot 200 \text{H}(2)\text{O}$, a new, ring-shaped polyoxometalate cluster that was recently discovered by the researchers' automated chemical robot.

In the experiment, the relative quantities of the three necessary reagent solutions were to be varied while the protocol was otherwise prescribed. The starting point was a set of data from successful and unsuccessful crystallization experiments. The aim was to plan ten experiments and then use the results from these to proceed to the next set of ten experiments - a total of one hundred crystallization attempts.

Although the flesh-and-blood experimenters were able to produce more successful crystallizations, the far more "adventurous" machine algorithm was superior on balance because it covered a significantly broader domain of the "crystallization space". The quality of the prediction of whether an experiment would lead to crystallization was improved significantly more by the machine than the human experimenters. A series of 100 purely random experiments resulted in no improvement. In addition, the machine discovered a range of conditions that led to crystals which would not have been expected based on pure intuition. This "unbiased" automated method makes the discovery of novel compounds more probably than reliance on human intuition. The researchers are now looking for ways to make especially efficient "teams" of man and machine. [14]

Using machine learning to understand materials

Whether you realize it or not, machine learning is making your online experience more efficient. The technology, designed by computer scientists, is used to better understand, analyze, and categorize data. When you tag your friend on Facebook, clear your spam filter, or click on a suggested YouTube video, you're benefitting from machine learning algorithms.

Machine learning algorithms are designed to improve as they encounter more data, making them a versatile technology for understanding large sets of photos such as those accessible from Google Images. Elizabeth Holm, professor of materials science and engineering at Carnegie Mellon University, is leveraging this technology to better understand the enormous number of research images accumulated in the field of materials science. This unique application is an interdisciplinary approach to machine learning that hasn't been explored before.

"Just like you might search for cute cat pictures on the internet, or Facebook recognizes the faces of your friends, we are creating a system that allows a computer to automatically understand the visual data of materials science," explains Holm.

The field of materials science usually relies on human experts to identify research images by hand. Using machine learning algorithms, Holm and her group have created a system that automatically recognizes and categorizes microstructural images of materials. Her goal is to make it more efficient for materials scientists to search, sort, classify, and identify important information in their visual data.

"In materials science, one of our fundamental data is pictures," explains Holm. "Images contain information that we recognize, even when we find it difficult to quantify numerically."

Holm's machine learning system has several different applications within the materials science field including research, industry, publishing, and academia. For example, the system could be used to create a visual search of a scientific journal archives so that a researcher could find out whether a similar image had ever been published. Similarly, the system can be used to automatically search

and categorize image archives in industries or research labs. "Big companies can have archives of 600,000 or more research images. No one wants to look through those, but they want to use that data to better understand their products," explains Holm. "This system has the power to unlock those archives."

Holm and her group have been working on this research for about three years and are continuing to grow the project, especially as it relates to the metal 3-D printing field. For example, they are beginning to compile a database of experimental and simulated metal powder micrographs in order to better understand what types of raw materials are best suited for 3-D printing processes.

Holm published an article about this research in the December 2015 issue of Computational Materials Science titled "A computer vision approach for automated analysis and classification of microstructural image data." [13]

Artificial intelligence helps in the discovery of new materials

With the help of artificial intelligence, chemists from the University of Basel in Switzerland have computed the characteristics of about two million crystals made up of four chemical elements. The researchers were able to identify 90 previously unknown thermodynamically stable crystals that can be regarded as new materials.

They report on their findings in the scientific journal Physical Review Letters.

Elpasolite is a glassy, transparent, shiny and soft mineral with a cubic crystal structure. First discovered in El Paso County (Colorado, USA), it can also be found in the Rocky Mountains, Virginia and the Apennines (Italy). In experimental databases, elpasolite is one of the most frequently found quaternary crystals (crystals made up of four chemical elements). Depending on its composition, it can be a metallic conductor, a semi-conductor or an insulator, and may also emit light when exposed to radiation.

These characteristics make elpasolite an interesting candidate for use in scintillators (certain aspects of which can already be demonstrated) and other applications. Its chemical complexity means that, mathematically speaking, it is practically impossible to use quantum mechanics to predict every theoretically viable combination of the four elements in the structure of elpasolite.

Machine learning aids statistical analysis

Thanks to modern artificial intelligence, Felix Faber, a doctoral student in Prof. Anatole von Lilienfeld's group at the University of Basel's Department of Chemistry, has now succeeded in solving this material design problem. First, using quantum mechanics, he generated predictions for thousands of elpasolite crystals with randomly determined chemical compositions. He then used the results to train statistical machine learning models (ML models). The improved algorithmic strategy achieved a predictive accuracy equivalent to that of standard quantum mechanical approaches.

ML models have the advantage of being several orders of magnitude quicker than corresponding quantum mechanical calculations. Within a day, the ML model was able to predict the formation energy – an indicator of chemical stability – of all two million elpasolite crystals that theoretically

can be obtained from the main group elements of the periodic table. In contrast, performance of the calculations by quantum mechanical means would have taken a supercomputer more than 20 million hours.

Unknown materials with interesting characteristics

An analysis of the characteristics computed by the model offers new insights into this class of materials. The researchers were able to detect basic trends in formation energy and identify 90 previously unknown crystals that should be thermodynamically stable, according to quantum mechanical predictions.

On the basis of these potential characteristics, elpasolite has been entered into the Materials Project material database, which plays a key role in the Materials Genome Initiative. The initiative was launched by the US government in 2011 with the aim of using computational support to accelerate the discovery and the experimental synthesis of interesting new materials.

Some of the newly discovered elpasolite crystals display exotic electronic characteristics and unusual compositions. "The combination of artificial intelligence, big data, quantum mechanics and supercomputing opens up promising new avenues for deepening our understanding of materials and discovering new ones that we would not consider if we relied solely on human intuition," says study director von Lilienfeld. [12]

Physicists are putting themselves out of a job, using artificial intelligence to run a complex experiment

The experiment, developed by physicists from The Australian National University (ANU) and UNSW ADFA, created an extremely cold gas trapped in a laser beam, known as a Bose-Einstein condensate, replicating the experiment that won the 2001 Nobel Prize.

"I didn't expect the machine could learn to do the experiment itself, from scratch, in under an hour," said co-lead researcher Paul Wigley from the ANU Research School of Physics and Engineering.

"A simple computer program would have taken longer than the age of the Universe to run through all the combinations and work this out."

Bose-Einstein condensates are some of the coldest places in the Universe, far colder than outer space, typically less than a billionth of a degree above absolute zero.

They could be used for mineral exploration or navigation systems as they are extremely sensitive to external disturbances, which allows them to make very precise measurements such as tiny changes in the Earth's magnetic field or gravity.

The artificial intelligence system's ability to set itself up quickly every morning and compensate for any overnight fluctuations would make this fragile technology much more useful for field measurements, said co-lead researcher Dr Michael Hush from UNSW ADFA.

"You could make a working device to measure gravity that you could take in the back of a car, and the artificial intelligence would recalibrate and fix itself no matter what," he said.

"It's cheaper than taking a physicist everywhere with you."

The team cooled the gas to around 1 microkelvin, and then handed control of the three laser beams over to the artificial intelligence to cool the trapped gas down to nanokelvin.

Researchers were surprised by the methods the system came up with to ramp down the power of the lasers.

"It did things a person wouldn't guess, such as changing one laser's power up and down, and compensating with another," said Mr Wigley.

"It may be able to come up with complicated ways humans haven't thought of to get experiments colder and make measurements more precise.

The new technique will lead to bigger and better experiments, said Dr Hush.

"Next we plan to employ the artificial intelligence to build an even larger Bose-Einstein condensate faster than we've seen ever before," he said.

The research is published in the Nature group journal Scientific Reports. [11]

Quantum experiments designed by machines

The idea was developed when the physicists wanted to create new quantum states in the laboratory, but were unable to conceive of methods to do so. "After many unsuccessful attempts to come up with an experimental implementation, we came to the conclusion that our intuition about these phenomena seems to be wrong. We realized that in the end we were just trying random arrangements of quantum building blocks. And that is what a computer can do as well - but thousands of times faster", explains Mario Krenn, PhD student in Anton Zeilinger's group and first author research.

After a few hours of calculation, their algorithm - which they call Melvin - found the recipe to the question they were unable to solve, and its structure surprised them. Zeilinger says: "Suppose I want build an experiment realizing a specific quantum state I am interested in. Then humans intuitively consider setups reflecting the symmetries of the state. Yet Melvin found out that the most simple realization can be asymmetric and therefore counterintuitive. A human would probably never come up with that solution."

The physicists applied the idea to several other questions and got dozens of new and surprising answers. "The solutions are difficult to understand, but we were able to extract some new experimental tricks we have not thought of before. Some of these computer-designed experiments are being built at the moment in our laboratories", says Krenn.

Melvin not only tries random arrangements of experimental components, but also learns from previous successful attempts, which significantly speeds up the discovery rate for more complex solutions. In the future, the authors want to apply their algorithm to even more general questions in quantum physics, and hope it helps to investigate new phenomena in laboratories. [10]

Moving electrons around loops with light: A quantum device based on geometry

Researchers at the University of Chicago's Institute for Molecular Engineering and the University of Konstanz have demonstrated the ability to generate a quantum logic operation, or rotation of the qubit, that - surprisingly—is intrinsically resilient to noise as well as to variations in the strength or duration of the control. Their achievement is based on a geometric concept known as the Berry phase and is implemented through entirely optical means within a single electronic spin in diamond.

Their findings were published online Feb. 15, 2016, in *Nature Photonics* and will appear in the March print issue. "We tend to view quantum operations as very fragile and susceptible to noise, especially when compared to conventional electronics," remarked David Awschalom, the Liew Family Professor of Molecular Engineering and senior scientist at Argonne National Laboratory, who led the research. "In contrast, our approach shows incredible resilience to external influences and fulfills a key requirement for any practical quantum technology."

Quantum geometry

When a quantum mechanical object, such as an electron, is cycled along some loop, it retains a memory of the path that it travelled, the Berry phase. To better understand this concept, the Foucault pendulum, a common staple of science museums helps to give some intuition. A pendulum, like those in a grandfather clock, typically oscillates back and forth within a fixed plane. However, a Foucault pendulum oscillates along a plane that gradually rotates over the course of a day due to Earth's rotation, and in turn knocks over a series of pins encircling the pendulum.

The number of knocked-over pins is a direct measure of the total angular shift of the pendulum's oscillation plane, its acquired geometric phase. Essentially, this shift is directly related to the location of the pendulum on Earth's surface as the rotation of Earth transports the pendulum along a specific closed path, its circle of latitude. While this angular shift depends on the particular path traveled, Awschalom said, it remarkably does not depend on the rotational speed of Earth or the oscillation frequency of the pendulum.

"Likewise, the Berry phase is a similar path-dependent rotation of the internal state of a quantum system, and it shows promise in quantum information processing as a robust means to manipulate qubit states," he said.

A light touch

In this experiment, the researchers manipulated the Berry phase of a quantum state within a nitrogen-vacancy (NV) center, an atomic-scale defect in diamond. Over the past decade and a half, its electronic spin state has garnered great interest as a potential qubit. In their experiments, the team members developed a method with which to draw paths for this defect's spin by varying the applied laser light. To demonstrate Berry phase, they traced loops similar to that of a tangerine slice within the quantum space of all of the potential combinations of spin states.

"Essentially, the area of the tangerine slice's peel that we drew dictated the amount of Berry phase that we were able to accumulate," said Christopher Yale, a postdoctoral scholar in Awschalom's laboratory, and one of the co-lead authors of the project.

This approach using laser light to fully control the path of the electronic spin is in contrast to more common techniques that control the NV center spin, through the application of microwave fields. Such an approach may one day be useful in developing photonic networks of these defects, linked and controlled entirely by light, as a way to both process and transmit quantum information.

A noisy path

A key feature of Berry phase that makes it a robust quantum logic operation is its resilience to noise sources. To test the robustness of their Berry phase operations, the researchers intentionally added noise to the laser light controlling the path. As a result, the spin state would travel along its intended path in an erratic fashion.

However, as long as the total area of the path remained the same, so did the Berry phase that they measured.

"In particular, we found the Berry phase to be insensitive to fluctuations in the intensity of the laser. Noise like this is normally a bane for quantum control," said Brian Zhou, a postdoctoral scholar in the group, and co-lead author.

"Imagine you're hiking along the shore of a lake, and even though you continually leave the path to go take pictures, you eventually finish hiking around the lake," said F. Joseph Heremans, co-lead author, and now a staff scientist at Argonne National Laboratory. "You've still hiked the entire loop regardless of the bizarre path you took, and so the area enclosed remains virtually the same."

These optically controlled Berry phases within diamond suggest a route toward robust and fault-tolerant quantum information processing, noted Guido Burkard, professor of physics at the University of Konstanz and theory collaborator on the project.

"Though its technological applications are still nascent, Berry phases have a rich underlying mathematical framework that makes them a fascinating area of study," Burkard said. [9]

Researchers demonstrate 'quantum surrealism'

In a new version of an old experiment, CIFAR Senior Fellow Aephraim Steinberg (University of Toronto) and colleagues tracked the trajectories of photons as the particles traced a path through one of two slits and onto a screen. But the researchers went further, and observed the "nonlocal" influence of another photon that the first photon had been entangled with.

The results counter a long-standing criticism of an interpretation of quantum mechanics called the De Broglie-Bohm theory. Detractors of this interpretation had faulted it for failing to explain the behaviour of entangled photons realistically. For Steinberg, the results are important because they give us a way of visualizing quantum mechanics that's just as valid as the standard interpretation, and perhaps more intuitive.

"I'm less interested in focusing on the philosophical question of what's 'really' out there. I think the fruitful question is more down to earth. Rather than thinking about different metaphysical interpretations, I would phrase it in terms of having different pictures. Different pictures can be useful. They can help shape better intuitions."

At stake is what is "really" happening at the quantum level. The uncertainty principle tells us that we can never know both a particle's position and momentum with complete certainty. And when we do interact with a quantum system, for instance by measuring it, we disturb the system. So if we fire a photon at a screen and want to know where it will hit, we'll never know for sure exactly where it will hit or what path it will take to get there.

The standard interpretation of quantum mechanics holds that this uncertainty means that there is no "real" trajectory between the light source and the screen. The best we can do is to calculate a "wave function" that shows the odds of the photon being in any one place at any time, but won't tell us where it is until we make a measurement.

Yet another interpretation, called the De Broglie-Bohm theory, says that the photons do have real trajectories that are guided by a "pilot wave" that accompanies the particle. The wave is still probabilistic, but the particle takes a real trajectory from source to target. It doesn't simply "collapse" into a particular location once it's measured.

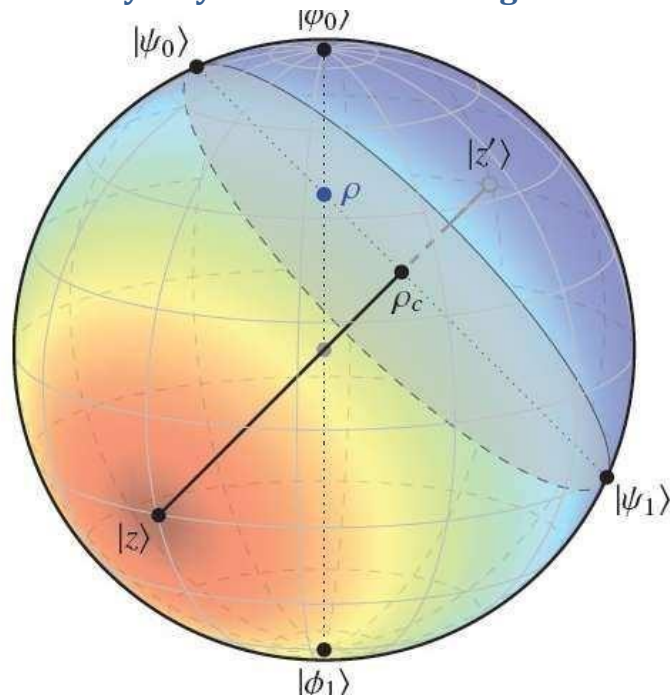
In 2011 Steinberg and his colleagues showed that they could follow trajectories for photons by subjecting many identical particles to measurements so weak that the particles were barely disturbed, and then averaging out the information. This method showed trajectories that looked similar to classical ones - say, those of balls flying through the air.

But critics had pointed out a problem with this viewpoint. Quantum mechanics also tells us that two particles can be entangled, so that a measurement of one particle affects the other. The critics complained that in some cases, a measurement of one particle would lead to an incorrect prediction of the trajectory of the entangled particle. They coined the term "surreal trajectories" to describe them.

In the most recent experiment, Steinberg and colleagues showed that the surrealism was a consequence of non-locality - the fact that the particles were able to influence one another instantaneously at a distance. In fact, the "incorrect" predictions of trajectories by the entangled photon were actually a consequence of where in their course the entangled particles were measured. Considering both particles together, the measurements made sense and were consistent with real trajectories.

Steinberg points out that both the standard interpretation of quantum mechanics and the De Broglie-Bohm interpretation are consistent with experimental evidence, and are mathematically equivalent. But it is helpful in some circumstances to visualize real trajectories, rather than wave function collapses, he says. [8]

Physicists discover easy way to measure entanglement—on a sphere



Entanglement on a sphere: This Bloch sphere shows entanglement for the one-root state ρ and its radial state ρ_c . The color on the sphere corresponds to the value of the entanglement, which is determined by the distance from the root state z , the point at which there is no entanglement (red); the further from z , the greater the entanglement (blue). Credit: Regula and Adesso. ©2016 American Physical Society

Now in a new paper to be published in Physical Review Letters, mathematical physicists Bartosz Regula and Gerardo Adesso at The University of Nottingham have greatly simplified the problem of measuring entanglement.

To do this, the scientists turned the difficult analytical problem into an easy geometrical one. They showed that, in many cases, the amount of entanglement between states corresponds to the distance between two points on a Bloch sphere, which is basically a normal 3D sphere that physicists use to model quantum states.

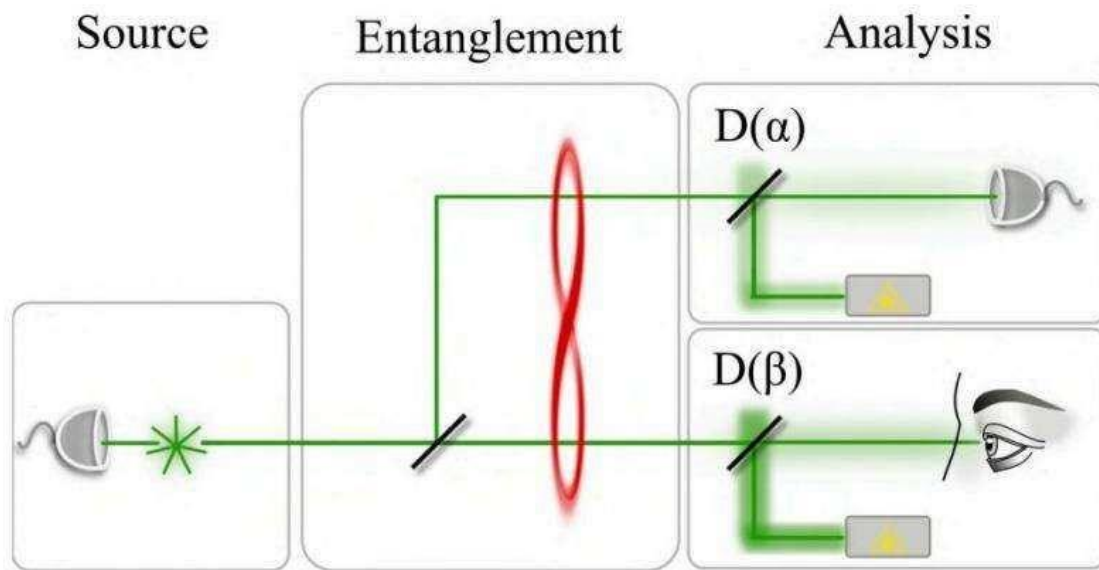
As the scientists explain, the traditionally difficult part of the math problem is that it requires finding the optimal decomposition of mixed states into pure states. The geometrical approach completely eliminates this requirement by reducing the many possible ways that states could decompose down to a single point on the sphere at which there is zero entanglement. The approach requires that there be only one such point, or "root," of zero entanglement, prompting the physicists to describe the method as "one root to rule them all."

The scientists explain that the "one root" property is common among quantum states and can be easily verified, transforming a formidable math problem into one that is trivially easy. They demonstrated that the new approach works for many types of two-, three- and four-qubit entangled states.

"This method reveals an intriguing and previously unexplored connection between the quantum features of a state and classical geometry, allowing all one-root states to enjoy a convenient visual representation which considerably simplifies the study and understanding of their properties," the researchers explained.

The simple way of measuring a state's entanglement could have applications in many technological areas, such as quantum cryptography, computation, and communication. It could also provide insight into understanding the foundations of thermodynamics, condensed matter physics, and biology. [7]

An idea for allowing the human eye to observe an instance of entanglement



Scheme of the proposal for detecting entanglement with the human eye. Credit: arXiv:1602.01907

Entanglement, is of course, where two quantum particles are intrinsically linked to the extent that they actually share the same existence, even though they can be separated and moved apart. The idea was first proposed nearly a century ago, and it has not only been proven, but researchers routinely cause it to occur, but, to date, not one single person has ever actually seen it happen—they only know it happens by conducting a series of experiments. It is not clear if anyone has ever actually tried to see it happen, but in this new effort, the research trio claim to have found a way to make it happen—if only someone else will carry out the experiment on a willing volunteer.

The idea involves using a beam splitter and two beams of light—an initial beam of coherent photons fired at the beam splitter and a secondary beam of coherent photons that interferes with the photons in the first beam causing a change of phase, forcing the light to be reflected rather than transmitted. In such a scenario, the secondary beam would not need to be as intense as the first, and could in fact be just a single coherent photon—if it were entangled, it could be used to allow a person to see the more powerful beam while still preserving the entanglement of the original photon.

The researchers suggest the technology to carry out such an experiment exists today, but also acknowledge that it would take a special person to volunteer for such an assignment because to prove that they had seen entanglement taking place would involve shooting a large number of photons in series, into a person's eye, whereby the resolute volunteer would announce whether they had seen the light on the order of thousands of times. [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 their product is about the half Planck reduced constant. For the proton this Δx is 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 its 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 than 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 Bing Bang caused parallel moving of the matter gives this magnetic force, experienced as gravitational force.

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

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

The mass as seen before a result of the diffraction, for example the proton – electron mass 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]

The Secret of Quantum Entanglement

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] When one of the entangled particles wave function is collapses by measurement, the intermediate photon also collapses and transforms its state to the second entangled particle giving it the continuity of this entanglement. Since the accelerated charges are self-maintaining their potential locally causing their acceleration, it seems that they entanglement is a spooky action at a distance.

Conclusions

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

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.

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

The 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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