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Wave Packet Dynamics in Synthetic Non-Abelian Gauge Fields

Mehedi Hasan⁰,^{1,2,*} Chetan Sriram Madasu⁰,^{1,2} Ketan D. Rathod,^{3,2,†} Chang Chi Kwong⁰,^{1,2}

Christian Miniatura^(a),^{2,3,4,1,5} Frédéric Chevy^(b),⁶ and David Wilkowski^(b),^{1,2,3,‡}

¹Nanyang Quantum Hub, School of Physical and Mathematical Sciences, Nanyang Technological University, 21 Nanyang Link, Singapore 637371, Singapore

²MajuLab, International Joint Research Unit IRL 3654, CNRS, Université Côte d'Azur, Sorbonne Université, National University of Singapore, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore

³Centre for Quantum Technologies, National University of Singapore, 117543 Singapore, Singapore

⁴Department of Physics, National University of Singapore, 2 Science Drive 3, Singapore 117542, Singapore ⁵Université Côte d'Azur, CNRS, INPHYNI, 06108 Nice, France

⁶Laboratoire de Physique de l'École normale supérieure, ENS, Université PSL, CNRS, Sorbonne Université, Université de Paris, F-75005 Paris, France

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It is generally admitted that in quantum mechanics, the electromagnetic potentials have physical interpretations otherwise absent in classical physics as illustrated by the Aharonov-Bohm effect. In 1984, Berry interpreted this effect as a geometrical phase factor. The same year, Wilczek and Zee generalized the concept of Berry phases to degenerate levels and showed that a non-Abelian gauge field arises in these systems. In sharp contrast with the Abelian case, spatially uniform non-Abelian gauge fields can induce particle noninertial motion. We explore this intriguing phenomenon with a degenerated Fermionic atomic gas subject to a two-dimensional synthetic SU(2) non-Abelian gauge field. We reveal the spin Hall nature of the noninertial dynamic as well as its anisotropy in amplitude and frequency due to the spin texture of the system. We finally draw the similarities and differences of the observed wave packet dynamic and the celebrated Zitterbewegung effect of the relativistic Dirac equation.

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Since the pioneering work of Lin and co-workers on synthetic magnetic fields [1], intensive works on quantum simulators such as ultracold-gas platforms [2–7] or photonic circuits [8] have been carried out to generate and explore artificial Abelian or non-Abelian gauge fields. The overarching objective is to explore geometrical and topological properties of quantum matter and materials. In particular, thanks to the noncommutative nature of the components of non-Abelian gauge fields, the eigenstates of the Hamiltonian are characterized by a momentumdependent spin texture that leads to a myriad of phenomena such as spin phase separations [9,10], topological Lifshitz transitions in a degenerate Fermi gas [11], topological phases in a Bose-Einstein condensate [12], or the Josephson-like effect for interacting quantum gases [13]. The band structure, the spin texture, and the topology properties of two-dimensional (2D) spin-orbit coupled ultracold-atom systems have been reported in [14–16].

The coupling to a non-Abelian gauge field can take the form of a spin-orbit coupling (SOC) Hamiltonian [2],

$$\hat{H}_{\rm SOC} = -\hat{\mathbf{p}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{A}}/m, \qquad (1)$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{p}}$ is the momentum operator of the particle, *m* its mass, and \hat{A} the non-Abelian gauge field operator acting in the pseudospin space. For systems under SU(2) symmetry, the wave packet dynamics of a SOC system is predicted to exhibit an oscillatory behavior, similar to the Zitterbewegung of the Dirac equation, i.e., a trembling motion of a particle associated with a quantum Rabi flopping of the pseudospin [17–24]. The oscillatory behavior of the wave packet has been experimentally studied in one-dimensional (1D) systems, where the SOC term reduces to a single component gauge field [25–28]. In this context, it has been shown that the Zitterbewegung is present if the total Hamiltonian includes a scalar potential, which does not commute with the SOC Hamiltonian [26]. In the Dirac equation the scalar term is the mass operator of the particle-antiparticle system. In the 1D SOC Hamiltonians experimentally explored in photonic platforms [25], trapped ions [26], and ultracold gases [27,28], the scalar potential is a Zeeman-like term.

In this Letter, we report on studies of the atomic wave packet dynamics in a two-dimensional (2D) spatially uniform SU(2) non-Abelian gauge field. As a key feature, the wave packet shows oscillatory dynamics coming from the SOC Hamiltonian only, i.e., without any scalar potentials. The occurrence of the dynamics can be understood by deriving the time evolution of the velocity operator $\hat{\mathbf{v}} =$ $(\hat{\mathbf{p}} - \hat{\mathbf{A}})/m$ in the Heisenberg picture. It leads to a noninertial force depending on the particle momentum,



FIG. 1. (a) Real-space configuration of the tripod laser beams. The three co-planar beams (red arrows) define the plane (Ox, Oy) orthogonal to the gravity pull. A 67 G bias magnetic field, applied along Ox, allows us to isolate the tripod system among the $({}^{1}S_{0}, F_{g} = 9/2) \rightarrow ({}^{3}P_{1}, F_{e} = 9/2)$ Zeeman manifold of the intercombination line. Counterpropagating beams 1 and 3 along Ox have opposite circular polarizations and address σ_{+} and σ_{-} transitions, respectively. The orthogonal beam 2 is linearly polarized along Ox and addresses a π transition. (b) The tripod laser beam *a* drives the transition $|a\rangle \leftrightarrow |e\rangle$ with a detuning δ_{a} (a = 1, 2, 3). The resonant Rabi frequencies are all equal to $\Omega/2\pi = 210$ kHz. (c) The internal dressed-state basis of the system features two degenerate dark states (in blue) uncoupled to the laser beams and two bright states (in red) shifted from the dark states by $\pm \sqrt{3}\hbar\Omega/2$.

$$m\frac{d\hat{\mathbf{v}}}{dt} = \frac{im}{\hbar} [\hat{H}_{\text{SOC}}, \hat{\mathbf{v}}] = -\frac{i}{m\hbar} \hat{\mathbf{p}} \times (\hat{\mathbf{A}} \times \hat{\mathbf{A}}).$$
(2)

Two important observations can be made from Eq. (2). First, even for an uniform gauge field, the 2D dynamics is strongly affected by the non-Abelian nature of the gauge field since the velocity is no longer constant when $(\hat{\mathbf{A}} \times \hat{\mathbf{A}})$ is nonzero. Second, since the velocity component along the momentum does not change in time, the nontrivial wave packet dynamics occurs in the plane transverse to the momentum. This locking of the dynamics at right angle of the momentum is reminiscent of the spin Hall effect [29,30]. Note that $\hat{\mathbf{p}}$ commutes with \hat{H}_{SOC} for spatially uniform gauge fields and is then a constant of motion. In this case, the plane of oscillations does not change with time. Another striking feature that we will demonstrate later is the anisotropy of the wave packet dynamic in momentum space induced by the spin texture of the non-Abelian Hamiltonian.

To generate our artificial non-Abelian gauge field, we use three quasiresonant, suitably polarized, laser beams; see Fig. 1(a). These lasers operate on the $({}^{1}S_{0}, F_{g} = 9/2) \rightarrow$ $({}^{3}P_{1}, F_{e} = 9/2)$ intercombination line at 689 nm (frequency linewidth $\Gamma/2\pi = 7.5$ kHz) of the fermionic strontium isotope ⁸⁷Sr. They couple, in a tripod configuration, three Zeeman bare ground states $|a\rangle \equiv |F_{g}, m_{F}\rangle$, with a = 1, 2, 3 and $m_{F} = 5/2, 7/2, 9/2$, respectively, to the same excited state $|e\rangle \equiv |F_{e}, m_{F} = 7/2\rangle$ and with equal Rabi frequencies $\Omega/2\pi = 210$ kHz, see Fig. 1(b) [31]. A bias magnetic field of 67 G along the *x* axis ensures that the states outside the tripod remain spectators (the Zeeman frequency shift of the excited state is around 7 MHz $\gg \Omega/2\pi, \Gamma/2\pi$ [32]). In the dressed-state picture, the internal Hamiltonian of the tripod system has two bright states, coupled to the laser fields, separated by $\pm \sqrt{3}\hbar\Omega/2$ from two degenerate zeroenergy dark states, see Fig. 1(c). The bright or dark state energy separation being large enough, the quantum state of the atoms remains and evolves in time in the dark state manifold [31]. The dark states representation in the barestate basis reads

$$|D_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (e^{-2ikx} |1\rangle - e^{-ik(x+y)} |2\rangle),$$
 (3)

$$|D_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} (e^{-2ikx}|1\rangle + e^{-ik(x+y)}|2\rangle - 2|3\rangle),$$
 (4)

where k is the tripod beams wave number.

For resonant excitation ($\delta_a = 0$), the Hamiltonian in the 2D dark-state manifold takes the form [2]

$$\hat{H}_0 = \frac{(\hat{\mathbf{p}} - \hat{\mathbf{A}})^2}{2m} + \hat{\Phi}.$$
 (5)

In the pseudospin representation of the dark-state manifold, the vector and scalar gauge field potentials $(\hat{\mathbf{A}}, \hat{\Phi})$ are represented by 2×2 matrices with entries $\hat{\mathbf{A}}_{jk} = i\hbar \langle D_j | \nabla D_k \rangle$ and $\hat{\Phi}_{jk} = [\hbar^2 \langle \nabla D_j | \nabla D_k \rangle - (\hat{\mathbf{A}}^2)_{jk}]/2m$ (j, k = 1, 2) [2,33].

For quasiresonant excitation $(|\delta_a| \ll \Omega)$, the laser detuning contribution in the dark-state manifold reduces to an additional scalar matrix potential. We use it for two crucial purposes: to cancel the scalar term $\hat{\mathbf{A}}^2/2m + \hat{\Phi}$ obtained by expanding the square in Eq. (5), and to perform a Galilean transformation into an inertial frame moving at an arbitrary velocity $-\mathbf{v}_0$ by adding a new term $-\mathbf{v}_0 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{A}}$ (see Sec. C in the Supplemental Material [33]). In this moving frame, and up to inessential constant terms proportional to unity, the Hamiltonian becomes

$$\hat{H} = \frac{\hat{\mathbf{q}}^2}{2m} - \frac{\hat{\mathbf{q}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{A}}}{m},\tag{6}$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{q}} = \hat{\mathbf{p}} + m\mathbf{v}_0$. We get the expected SOC Hamiltonian without scalar contribution to explore the 2D dynamical properties of this system. Note that the noninertial dynamic is not affected by the discarded spin-independent $\hat{\mathbf{q}}^2/(2m)$ term [17].

We simulate the Hamiltonian of Eq. (6) using a degenerate Fermi gas at a temperature T = 30(3) nK, with $T/T_F = 0.21(4)$, where $T_F \approx 143$ nK is the Fermi temperature of our gas. After the cooling and preparation sequences, the atoms are in the state $|3\rangle$ [33]. We switch on the tripod beams to transfer adiabatically all atoms from state $|3\rangle$ to one state in the dark-state manifold. For $v_0 = |\mathbf{v}_0| = 0$, we expect to populate the dark state $|D_2\rangle$ [33]. To assess the quality of the adiabatic transfer, we



FIG. 2. (a) Time-of-flight fluorescence image recorded at $v_0 =$ 0 after the system has been initialized in the dark state $|D_2\rangle$. The ballistic time is 9 ms. As expected from Eq. (4), the measured velocity distribution shows three peaks centered at $\mathbf{v} = 0$, $\mathbf{v} = -v_r(\hat{\mathbf{e}}_x + \hat{\mathbf{e}}_y)$, and $\mathbf{v} = -2v_r\hat{\mathbf{e}}_x$ ($v_r = \hbar k/m$ is the recoil velocity). These peaks correspond to states $|3\rangle$, $|2\rangle$, and $|1\rangle$, respectively. (b) Temporal oscillations of the Cartesian coordinates of the averaged velocity obtained for a boost velocity $(v_0 = 4\sqrt{2}v_r, \theta_0 = 0.6\pi)$. The solid lines are obtained by numerically integrating the time evolution of the system in the gauge field, initialized in $|3\rangle$. We include the 10 μ s ramping stage of the tripod beams and finite momentum distribution of our fermionic gas at T = 30(3) nK = 0.21(4) T_F . The dashed lines correspond to the plane-wave model given by Eq. (7) at $\mathbf{q} = m\mathbf{v}_0$. Conveniently the time origin is shifted to match the phase oscillations with experimental signal. This time shift is justified inasmuch as Eq. (7) does not incorporate the effect of the laser ramping stage. Its value of about 5 μ s is essentially half the ramping duration. (c) Time-of-flight fluorescence images at times $t_1 = 18$, $t_2 = 30$, $t_3 = 42$, and $t_4 = 62 \ \mu s$. These times are indicated by vertical dotted lines in (b).

abruptly switch off the tripod beams, let the atoms fall for 9 ms, record the fluorescence image of the gas that we use for a direct measurement of the velocity distribution. As expected from Eq. (4), we observe one velocity peak centered at $-2v_r\hat{\mathbf{e}}_x$ for state $|1\rangle$, a second one at $-v_r(\hat{\mathbf{e}}_x + \hat{\mathbf{e}}_y)$ for state $|2\rangle$, and a third one at the origin for state $|3\rangle$; see Fig. 2(a). By fitting each peak by a Gaussian distribution, we measure the populations P_a , which agree at a 98% level with the expected values (1/6, 1/6, and 2/3) inferred from Eq. (4). We also checked, by adiabatically switching off the tripod lasers, that 95% of the population returns back to state $|3\rangle$. This result indicates a good control of the quantum coherence during the state preparation [33].

With the tripod laser detunings, we now fix a certain mean velocity \mathbf{v}_0 of the ultracold gas in the moving frame that we characterize by its polar coordinates (v_0, θ_0) in the tripod laser plane. We let the system evolve in the gauge fields for a time t and measure the bare state populations $P_a(t)$ by the time-of-flight (TOF) technique. The experimentally inferred momentum-averaged velocity in the laboratory frame is simply $\mathbf{v}_{\exp}(t) = -v_r[(2P_1 + P_2)\hat{\mathbf{e}}_x + P_2\hat{\mathbf{e}}_y]$. The observed temporal oscillations of the velocity, along the x and y axis, are shown in Fig. 2(b) for $v_0 = 4\sqrt{2}v_r$ and $\theta_0 = 0.6\pi$. They constitute the first experimental observation of the noninertial wave packet motion induced by a 2D bulk non-Abelian gauge field on an ultracold gas, without scalar potentials. The damping of the oscillations is due to the finite momentum dispersion $\delta p \sim 0.4\hbar k$ of our degenerate Fermi gas. The solid line in Fig. 2(b) is the theoretical prediction obtained without any fitting parameters by numerically integrating the velocity operator evolutions in the Heisenberg picture, including the finite ramping sequence of the tripod beams, and averaging over the initial momentum distribution [33]. The dashed lines in Fig. 2(b) are the theoretical predictions for a wave packet in the gauge fields without any laser ramping stage in the dark state $|D_2\rangle$ and with well-defined momentum $\mathbf{q} = m\mathbf{v}_0$. The mean velocity in the laboratory frame of this plane-wave model reads [17]

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = v_r \mathbf{u}_1(\theta_0) + v_r f(\theta_0) \cos \omega t \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{\theta_0}, \tag{7}$$

where the last term captures the noninertial effect with

$$f(\theta_0) = \frac{\cos \theta_0 - \sin \theta_0}{2(2 + \cos 2\theta_0)},\tag{8}$$

and

$$\omega = \frac{2kv_0}{3}\sqrt{2 + \cos 2\theta_0}.$$
(9)

The complete derivation of Eqs. (7)–(9) and the expression for $\mathbf{u}_1(\theta_0)$ can be found in Ref. [33]. As shown in Fig. 2(b), when the boost momentum mv_0 is large compared to the momentum dispersion of the gas, $\delta p \ll mv_0$, the oscillatory motion at short time is well captured by the plane-wave model, whereas its amplitude is slightly overestimated because of the finite ramping time in the experiment [33]. We will now confront our experimental data to the planewave model only.

The other central results of this Letter are the observation of the spin-Hall nature and anisotropy of the 2D motion in momentum space. For this purpose, we vary the mean momentum of the gas in the moving frame via the tripod laser detunings [33]. We will now discuss these phenomena in detail. At first, we recall that Eqs. (2) and (7) indicate that the oscillation motion is a manifestation of a spin Hall effect. As such, the velocity oscillation is locked along a direction perpendicular to the momentum **q**, as it is shown in Fig. 3(a) for $v_0 = 4\sqrt{2}v_r$. Here, for each value of θ_0 , we measure the Cartesian coordinates of the oscillating component of the velocity and extract the



FIG. 3. Direction and amplitude of the wave packet oscillation and spin texture. (a) The oscillatory velocity direction η as function of θ_0 . The blue points are the experimental data whereas the grey plain curve represents the plane-wave model prediction. The inset shows the direction locking of the oscillation at $\eta = \theta_0 \pm \pi/2$. (b) Velocity oscillation amplitude as a function of the boost velocity polar angle θ_0 for $v_0 = 4\sqrt{2}v_r$ (points). The solid gray line is the plane-wave prediction $|f(\theta_0)|$ of Eq. (8). (c) Velocity oscillation amplitude as a function of v_0 at angles $\theta_0 = 0.6\pi$ (green points) and $\theta_0 = 0.75\pi$ (magenta points). The green and magenta solid lines are the theoretical predictions from the plane-wave model. The data points in (a), (b), and (c) are obtained with a damped-sinusoidal fit function representing the time evolution of the mean velocity of the atoms [see example in Fig. 2(b)]. All error bars represent 1 standard deviation of uncertainty. (d) Spin texture S of the lower energy branch (arrows), Eq. (10), along a circle in the (Ox, Oy) momentum plane centered at the Dirac point. The spin orientation lies in the (Ox, Oz) plane, and the color code corresponds to the amplitude of the S_x component. The central inset shows the evolution of the angle ζ of the spin texture in a Bloch sphere representation as a function of θ_0 . The angle ζ is defined with respect to the initial spin orientation $\langle D_2 | \hat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}} | D_2 \rangle$; see example on the top-left inset, where $\theta_0 = 3\pi/2$ and $\zeta = \pi/3$.

direction of the motion. We note that the velocity oscillation flips orientation at $\theta_0 = \pi/4$ and $\theta_0 = 5\pi/4$. As we will see below, the amplitude vanishes at these angles. The gray curve is the theoretical prediction from the plane-wave model.

From the Cartesian coordinates of the velocities, we compute the norm and extract the oscillation amplitude as a function of θ_0 that we compare to $v_r |f(\theta_0)|$ as shown in Fig. 3(b) for $v_0 = 4\sqrt{2}v_r$. Figure 3(c) shows how the velocity amplitude varies with the boost amplitude v_0 for two fixed values of θ_0 . When mv_0 is no longer significantly larger than δp , finite momentum dispersion effects kick in and the amplitude departs from the plane-wave model predictions.

To understand the physical origin of the momentum dependence of the velocity oscillations, we derive the local spin textures $\mathbf{S}_{\pm}(\theta_0) = \langle \varphi_{\pm} | \hat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}} | \varphi_{\pm} \rangle = \mp \mathbf{S}$, associated to the

upper- and lower-energy eigenstates $|\varphi_{\pm}\rangle$ of the SOC Hamiltonian. We have [33]

$$S_x = \frac{\sqrt{3}(\cos\theta_0 - \sin\theta_0)}{2\sqrt{2 + \cos2\theta_0}}, \quad S_z = \frac{(3\cos\theta_0 + \sin\theta_0)}{2\sqrt{2 + \cos2\theta_0}}, \quad (10)$$

and $S_v = 0$. In Fig. 3(d), we show the 3D representation spin texture S_{-} of the lower-energy branch. In the pseudospin language, the initial state $|D_2\rangle$ of our system is the lower spin state. For $\theta_0 = \pi/4$ and $\theta_0 = 5\pi/4$, the spin textures are along O_z since $S_x = 0$ and the initial state $|D_2\rangle$ identifies with $|\varphi_{-}\rangle$ and $|\varphi_{+}\rangle$, respectively [light green arrows in Fig. 3(d)]. As such, Rabi flopping of the pseudospin cannot occur and the oscillations are suppressed. At these angles, the off-diagonal components of the SOC Hamiltonian vanish. In contrast, when $\tan \theta_0 = -3$, so at angles $\theta_0 \approx 0.6\pi$ and $\theta_0 \approx 1.6\pi$, $S_z =$ 0 and the spin textures are along Ox [blue arrows in Fig. 3(d)]. At these angles the diagonal terms of the SOC Hamiltonian are equal, which corresponds to a resonant excitation in the context of two-level systems. In this case, $|D_2\rangle$ has equal weights on $|\varphi_{\pm}\rangle$ and the oscillation is large though not the largest possible because of the θ_0 dependence in the denominator of $f(\theta_0)$.

It is known that a Dirac point is characterized by a winding number that can take two values ± 1 [40]. From the plane-wave model, this topological number reads $W = (2\pi)^{-1} \oint (\mathbf{S} \times \nabla_{\theta_0} \mathbf{S})_y d\theta_0 = 1$. Seen as a mapping from a circle (θ_0 angle) to another circle (angle ζ of \mathbf{S}), this reflects the homotopy group of the circle $\pi_1(S^1) = \mathbb{Z}$ [see insets in Fig. 3(d)]. It indicates that a spin texture \mathbf{S} is found along a given direction only twice when θ_0 is circled around 2π . In particular, this given direction can be the initial spin orientation $\langle D_2 | \hat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}} | D_2 \rangle$, explaining why the oscillation amplitude should vanish at least 2 times along a general loop encircling the Dirac point.

The angular frequency $\omega \propto kv_0$, see Eq. (9) quantifies the energy difference between the upper- and lower-energy branches of the Hamiltonian [17]. By varying the boost velocity \mathbf{v}_0 , the oscillation can be tuned to a suitable frequency scale where it can be easily detected, for example, in the kHz range as shown in Fig. 2(b). The linear v_0 dependence at fixed θ_0 , predicted by Eq. (9), is shown in Fig. 4(a). Keeping now v_0 fixed and circling θ_0 around 2π , the trigonometric variation in Eq. (9) is well reproduced; see Fig. 4(b).

In conclusion, we have reported on the first experimental observation of a 2D noninertial dynamics in an ultracold atomic gas subject to a non-Abelian SU(2) gauge field. This result is consistent with predictions of Refs. [18,19]. We have analyzed in detail the anisotropy of the wave packet motion in momentum space, relating it to a spin-Hall effect. The oscillatory behavior is caused by an interference effect between two spin eigenvalues with different velocities. In a similar way, Schrödinger has interpreted the *Zitterbewegung* as interference occurring between the



FIG. 4. Oscillation frequency. (a) Variation of the oscillation frequency as a function of the magnitude v_0 of the boost velocity at fixed angles ($\theta_0 = 0.60\pi$ for the green data points and $\theta_0 = 0.75\pi$ for the magenta data points) (b) Angular variations of the frequency observed at $v_0 = 4\sqrt{2}v_r$. The solid lines in (b) and (c) are the theoretical predictions inferred from the plane-wave model given by Eq. (9). The error bars are 1 standard deviation of uncertainty.

positive an negative energy of a relativistic particle [41]. In both cases, the oscillation roots in the presence of two noncommutating terms in the Hamiltonian. For the 1D *Zitterbewegung* effect, the mass term does not commute with the spin-orbit component, whereas for the 2D non-Abelian gauge field, the noncommutation occurs between the two spin-orbit components.

Our scheme can be extended to SU(N) systems with N > 2 [42]. There, we expect several oscillations frequencies to enter the noninertial dynamics as the different energy branches will not be necessary equally spaced. Very generally, the oscillatory motion would measure the energy differences between these different branches and can develop into a powerful spectroscopic tool to map the energy-branch diagram of such multi-level systems [43], in alternative to other existing methods such as rf spectroscopy [15,16,44], Bloch oscillation [45,46], and Fourier transform spectroscopy [47–50]. One could even think of performing selective excitation among energy branches by a clever choice of initial states. Finally, the exact nature of noninertial motion in the presence of dynamic gauge fields seems a promising avenue to explore in the future [51,52].

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^{*}Cavendish Laboratory, University of Cambridge, Cambridge CB3 0HE, United Kingdom. [†]Bennett University, Greater Noida 201310, India. [‡]david.wilkowski@ntu.edu.sg

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