In Quest of Quantum Ratchet: Combining Abstract Theoretical Frameworks with Real-World Medical Uses Dr. Satyabrata Bhattacharya

Assistant Professor Department of Physics, Sarat Centenary College Dhaniakhali, Hooghly -712302

Abstract:

The phenomenon where quantum mechanics, stochastic processes and nonlinear dynamics meet is the development of quantum ratchets, which exploits noise-mediated transport to produce a directed motion in nanoscale systems. In this review we cover theory behind quantum noise and dissipation, its focus on phase-space description such as the Wigner distribution function, and how it is applied to biomedical engineering. The asymmetric potentials and non-equilibrium fluctuations that quantum ratchets tap can be utilized to provide new technology solutions through ways like targeted drug delivery, molecular pumps, imaging diagnostic, and use in cancer therapy. The major problems are the preservation of quantum coherence in biological conditions, scalability of fabrication and ethical issues, whereas prospects are seen in the hybrid bio-nano systems and room-temperature quantum materials. The approach of ensuring the incorporation of quantum ratchets in medicine is an innovative way of effectiveness in precision therapeutics and diagnosis that will integrate physics, nanotechnology and clinical practice.

Keywords: Quantum ratchets, noise-induced transport, Wigner distribution, targeted drug delivery, nanomedicine, cancer therapy.

1. Introduction:

Up to the end of the nineteenth century, theoretical sciences could be viewed as the study of solutions of differential equations and the modeling of natural phenomena by deterministic solutions of these differential equations. It was commonly thought that if all initial data could only be collected, one would be able to predict the future with certainty. We now know that it is not so, in at least three ways. Firstly, the advent of quantum mechanics gave a new theoretical basis for all sciences, which has a purely statistical element in its very foundation. Secondly, the concept of chaos has arisen in which even quite simple nonlinear differential equations may show an alarming property of giving rise to essentially unpredictable behavior. Thirdly, and more relevantly in our context, any realistic complex system always interacts with its surroundings. The equations of motion for all the degrees of freedom (including environmental degrees of freedom) can be constructed and, in principle, can be solved. But it is an impractical

and impossible task, even for a supercomputer, due to the presence of an enormous number of coupled differential equations. Actually, in general, we are interested in the dynamical behavior of the system (or a part of a larger system) only. For this reason, we by same means, eliminate the irrelevant degrees of freedom keeping their average effect on the degrees of freedom makes the differential equations non-deterministic or stochastic, which is actually the manifestation of the lack of information and also introduces irreversibility in the dynamics. To be more specific, many situations occur in classical/quantum physics in which several systems are coupled together, but one or more of them are of primary interest. Problems in the theory of measurements, in statistical physics, in chemical physics, or in optics present good examples of such situations. A very familiar example is the case of an atom in an excited state that interacts with the electromagnetic field in a cavity resonator. Because of the coupling, there will be energy exchange between the field and the atom until equilibrium is reached. If, however, the atoms were not coupled to any disturbance, it would simply remain unperturbed in its original excited state. The cavity field, although not of central interest to us, influences the behavior of the atom. Another concrete example is the theory of reaction rate in chemical physics. In a very simple model of reaction rate, the reactant state is separated from the product state by a potential barrier. All the environmental degrees of freedom, which serve as a heat bath at a temperature T, generate fluctuating forces that simulate the reactant state to cross the barrier and to achieve the product state. Though the trajectory or the state of the reaction coordinate is of our interest, the presence of the environmental degrees of freedom plays an important role in the process. The theoretical description of the evolution of such a complex systems is made, in general, in two ways: (i) using Hamilton s equation of motion (for classical problem), or using Heisenberg equation of motion for observables (for quantum mechanical case) for all degrees of freedom of the system; (ii) using the phase-space equation of evolution for the probability density (classical case) or constructing the master equation of reduced density operator (for quantum case). In all the above-mentioned cases, the full set of dynamic equations could be replaced with a smaller set of stochastic differential equations. The smaller set corresponds to physical observables of the system, and the eliminated degrees of freedom constitute the environment whose influence on the observables is to modify the interaction of the observables among themselves, generate irreversible dissipative forces, and random fluctuations.

2. Quantum Noise and Dissipation

Initiated by the work of Einstein, the classical physics of stochastic processes received a sound scientific basis with the work of Langevin, Smoluchowski, Fokker, Planck, Kramers, and many others [1]. These works and its extension in quantum domain have modified our understanding of the dynamics of a system in contact with its environment- a problem encountered in activated process in chemical kinetics [1], spontaneous emission and other decay processes in quantum optics and LASER physics [2], polaron problem and macroscopic quantum tunneling in condensed matter physics [3,4]. The microscopic Hamiltonians for these problems reveal that the coupling of the system and the environment coordinates determines both the dissipative force that a Brownian system experiences in the course of its motion in a fluid and the stochastic force acting on the system as a result of random impact of the surroundings and thus they have common origin. These two entities are related through the fluctuation-dissipation relation theorem [3, 4], which plays an important role in systems at thermal equilibrium. This intimate connection between dissipation and related fluctuations was put on a firm basis when Nyquist [5] and Johnson [6] considered the spectral density of voltage and current fluctuations. Over the last few decades, the theory of stochastic processes has been extended to deal with dissipative quantum dynamics. After the birth of quantum mechanics, we can encounters for the first time the introduction of quantum mechanical noise via the substitution of kBT from the classical equipartition law (though the equipartition theorem is restricted to classical statistical physics) by the thermally averaged quantum energy (but leaving out the zero point energy) of the harmonic oscillator in the very final paragraph of 1928 paper by Nyquist. Nyquist □s remarks thus constitute a precursor of work by Callen & Welton [7] who generalized the relation by Einstein, Nyquist & Johnson to include quantum effects. In their work, they put forward a valid connection between the response function & the associated quantum fluctuations in equilibrium, the quantum fluctuation \(\Boxed{\text{dissipation relation.}} \)

Quantum fluctuations constitute a prominent noise source in many nano scale & biological systems, e.g., the tunneling and transfer of electrons is associated with noise for which the quantum nature cannot be neglected. The feature of this noise changes drastically as a function of temperature. At sufficiently high temperatures, a crossover to classical noise occurs. The major impetus of the quantum theory of stochastic processes was the discovery of the laser, followed by the significant advancement in the field of quantum optics & laser physics [2] when the

extensive application of non-equilibrium quantum statistical methods was made. These are the functional integral method for dissipative quantum systems [8], the time dependent driven quantum system [9], the quantum Langevin (operator) approach [10], stochastic schemes [11], and the concept of stochastic Schrodinger equation [12] or the projection operator techniques [13]. Various non-linear processes and phenomena were described with the help of the operator Langevin equation, density operator methods & the associated quasi-classical distribution function of Wigner, Glanberg, Sundarsan & others centering around quantum Markov process [10]. Parallel to the advancement, quantum Brownian motion emerged as a microscopic quantum tunneling, and almost simultaneously, the quantum Kramers problem attracted the serious attention of a number of scientists.

Though a great variety of approaches aiming at a quantum mechanical description were developed, the common and most popular methods are based on quantum mechanical operator Langevin equations and associated quantum master equations. These successfully describe damping phenomena in quantum optics and spin relaxation theory [2, 10]. Unfortunately, the formal simplicity of a quantum Langevin and master equation is lost by the fact that the concrete result can only be obtained for systems that allow for a perturbative treatment of the environmental heat bath. Basically, this restricts the approach to weakly damped systems where the relaxation time is large compared with the largest time scale of the undamped motion and also large compared with the thermal time ħ/kBT. These conditions are easily violated for low temperature and for strong coupling. Thus, as in the case of classical theory, it is not always possible to treat the quantum noise process with an arbitrary correlation function at an arbitrary temperature in a satisfactory way, even within the scope of the path integral approach. While the classical theory is based on the differential equation for the evolution of the probability distribution of a particle executing Brownian motion in a force field, the path integral approach relies on the estimation of the quantum evolution operator of the system interacting with an equilibrium bath of harmonic oscillators with a characteristic frequency. Often, one has to invoke a semi-classical approximation. Furthermore, beyond the case of linearized potential, the theory of quantum Brownian motion with arbitrary correlated noise is again outside the scope of the analytical treatment developed so far, except for the encouraging success of the recently developed work of D.S.Ray and his group [14]. They obtained generalized quantum Langevin equations in terms of C-number representation, and an exact quantum Kramers equation has been Markovian dynamics. In spite of its formal sophistication, their methodology is not free from objection [15]: there is an infinite hierarchy of quantum corrections of higher orders, and hence there is an inherent fraction procedure which makes the result accurate up to a certain order. It is therefore necessary to develop suitable procedures to treat the dynamics of the system with arbitrary potential when it is coupled to a half bath kept at a specific but arbitrary temperature. Another very strong approach to handle quantum dissipative dynamics is the phase-space approach. The phase-space formulation of quantum mechanics has its roots in the classical works of Wigner [16], where he introduced the phase-space distribution function that now bears his name in the derivation of the quantum correction term to the Boltzmann formula. Since the phase-space formulation offers a framework in which quantum phenomena can be described using as much classical language as allowed, it appeals naturally to one □s intuition and can often provide useful physical insights (especially insights into the important issue of quantum-classical correspondence) that can not easily be gained from other approaches. Furthermore, it requires dealing only with constant-number equations and not with operators, which can sometimes be a significant practical advantage. This explains the wide popularity that the phase-space formulation has enjoyed in the past in virtually all areas of physics, including statistical physics [17], quantum optics [18], collision theory [19], nonlinear physics [20], and many others.

proposed, which is amenable to a theoretical analysis in terms of the classical theory of non-

The main tool for the phase-space formulation of quantum mechanics is the phase-space distribution function [21], the best known of which is the Wigner distribution function. It has been realized from the early days [10, 16] that there is no unique way of defining a quantum phase-space distribution function. The concept of a joint probability at a (q, p) phase-space point is not allowed in quantum mechanics due to the Heisenberg uncertainty principle. The quantum phase-space distribution function should therefore be considered as simply a mechanical tool that facilitates quantum calculations, and as such, one can devise any quasi-probability distribution function that one wishes as long as it is a correct description of physically observable quantities. In many situations the Wigner distribution function does a respectable job[19, 22], and yet there are cases where distribution function that have different properties than the Wigner distribution function are called for other distribution functions that have been considered in the past include those of Glanber-Sudarshan[18, 23], Husimi[24] and Krikwood[25]. Which distribution function should be chosen for a given problem is not just a matter of test; it is more a matter of

convenience and sometimes even necessity. In some cases reasonable description of the problem being considered is attained or not, depending on the choice of the distribution function; for example, in the quantum theory of optical coherence, one usually needs to evaluate expectation values of normal product [10, 18]. It is thus surprising that the Glanber-Sudarshan distribution function, which is best suited to evaluate expectation values of normally-ordered operators, has found much use in quantum optics. In the phase-space description of collision processes, on the other hand, it is the Wigner distribution function that is often employed [26]. The reason can be found in the fact that in collision problems, the intermolecular potential that governs the collision processes is generally very complicated, and an accurate description of the collision dynamics presents enormous difficulty. Since the dynamical equation governing the time evolution of the Wigner distribution function usually takes the least complicated form upon which approximation can readily be constructed, if it is natural to choose the Wigner distribution function. For a phasespace description classically chaotic system, the quantum time development is generally examined with the Glanberg-Sudarshan P and Q functions, the Kirkwood distribution function, and the Husimi distribution function. Some authors have examined the behavior of quantum chaos with the Wigner distribution function [27]. The quantum dynamics of a dissipative system has been studied to describe the noise-induced escape rate in the semi-classical regime [28] by illustrating that a Wigner Leggett Caldiera equation [25] for Wigner probability density function may serve as a good description for noise assisted escape rate [28]. The Wigner □ Leggett □ Caldeira equation has also been extensively used in quantum decoherence [30] and other problems [31].

While the Wigner method is more accurate than the quasi-classical methods [32], where the dynamics is treated classically by running the trajectories according to Hamilton □s equation, and the initial values of the coordinate q and momentum p are chosen from the quantum condition, particularly in collision and transport problems. Its chief advantage is that it normally requires a larger number of trajectories to be computed than required in the quasi-classical method. In the Wigner method, the position and momentum of each phase-space point (q, p) of the Wigner distribution that must be propagated are chosen independently of each other, while in the quasi-classical method, once qi is chosen, pi is fixed. Despite this disadvantage, however, Wigner methods require nothing more than a straightforward numerical integration of classical trajectories, which can be easily performed. In other words, the Wigner method may require

more computer time than a quasi-classical method; nevertheless, it is easy to apply as a quasi-classical method. In many cases Wigner phase-space method may represent the best compromise between accuracy and practicality. For this reason Wigner function approach to treat the dissipative dynamics of complex quantum systems has gained a large impetus since its very introduction, practically in just two decades, in several contexts.

Quantum mechanical correction to classical barrier crossing dynamics was introduced first by Wigner himself. The Wigner expression for thermal rate gives the correct leading-order expansion term for the rate. Though Wigner's expression is a wonderful guess, as pointed out earlier, and can never be derived from the first principle, it provides the correct results on many occasions and is in good agreement with experimental results. An exact thermal rate expression was derived by Miller et al [33], Pollak and Liao[34] noted that Miller □s exact result could be interpreted as a phase-space trace of the Wigner representation of the product of a projection operator and symmetrized thermal flux operator. The numerical exact quantum simulation of Topalear & Makri [35] for the Kramers model has generated much interest in this connection. J.R.Chaudhuri et al[28] showed that the Wigner Leggett Caldeira equation for Wigner phasespace distribution function which describes the quantum Brownian motion of a particle in a force field in a high temperature, ohomic environment can be identified as a semi-classical version of Kramer s equation and solved this equation to calculate the semi-classical version of Kramer □s equation and semi-classical correction to Kramer □s rate. Georgievskii and Pollak [36] obtained an anharmonic correction to the quantum rate in the intermediate to strong damping limit. Active research is going on in this field aimed especially at generalizing the pioneering numerical studies of Makri [37] and Mak and co-workers [38], making the numerical solution accessible for more complex systems. Recently, Pollak and his group have provided a new exact representation of the quantum propagator in terms of semi-classical initial value representation to study the dynamics of a Gaussian wave packet in a symmetric double-well potential. A new class of prefactor-free semi-classical initial value of the quantum propagator has been derived based on the physically motivated demand that, on average in phase-space and in time, the propagator obeys the exact quantum equation of motion by Zhang and Pollak [39]. Dittrich et al [40] have studied the propagation of the Wigner function based on the van-Vleck propagator and on phase-space path integration. In spite of all the success, the semi-classical

initial value representation of quantum propagator does not yet includes dissipation and fluctuation [39] and hence far from the application of the real system.

3. Quantum Ratchets and Noise-Induced Transport in Phase-Space

The study of the interplay of noise and nonlinear dynamics presents many challenges in system under non-equilibrium conditions. A non-equilibrium system is one in which there is a net energy flow from external sources. Prominent examples are noise induced phase transition, stochastic resonance, resonant activation, noise induced stability of stable state, noise induced unidirectional transport of particles in the absence of obvious bias (thermal ratchets or theory of molecular motions) noise induced ordering ranging from separation of different materials into homogeneous final state to the formal to rich variety of regular patterns, self-organization, etc. [41]. Most of the phenomena mentioned above exist only in the presence of noise. Even when the magnitude of the noise is small, the probability of the macrostate depends on the details of the global kinetics and cannot be determined by the macrostate alone. In our proposed work, we will be mainly concerned with the nature of directed motion induced by the random noise in the presence or absence of any external bias.

The noise-induced active transport in a fluctuating environment arises from the so-called ratchet mechanism [41]. Here, non-equilibrium fluctuation combined with spatial or temporal anisotropy conspires to generate systematic motion even in the absence of any net bias. It should be noted that by the second law of thermodynamics, usable work cannot be extracted if only equilibrium fluctuations are present. In thermal equilibrium, the principle of detailed balance prohibits net particle current in any system. In contrast, in the non-equilibrium situation, where the detailed balance is lost, net current flow is possible; one can extract energy by rectifying fluctuation or at the expense of overall increased entropy. The problem of rectification at the Brownian scale was posed earlier by Feynman [42]. A major motivation for these studies comes from the plausible theoretical arguments for the motion of molecular kinesin [41]. The molecule belongs to a class of proteins known as motor molecules. These molecules, which include dyneins and myosins, move along the structural filaments such as microtubules, microfilaments. The motor molecules are used for the transportation of organelles (cargo, chemicals) for intracellular transport and muscle contraction or to power muscles. The energy source for these molecules comes from the hydrolysis of ATP. The motor proteins use this energy to bring about unidirectional motion along the biopolymers. Here, chemical energy is converted into

mechanical energy. The fluctuation in the proteins experienced by the motors is believed to arise from the binding and dissociation of ATP, and the anisotropic periodic potential as representing the electrostatic potential along the structural filament. These particles experience random kicks from the surrounding medium, and the average thermal energy of a particle is kBT. The energy kBT is comparable to the other involved energy scales in the problem, such as the barrier heights. Hence, Brownian motion plays an essential role in the action of motors.

The subject of noise-induced transport has genes beyond the biological realm. In physics, areas of thermal ratchets are being explored to investigate new methods for controlled devices of high resolution for particle separation [43]. These devices are expected to be superior to existing methods, such as electrophoretic methods for particles of micrometer scales, like cells, latex spheres, DNA, or proteins. For this, the current reversal phenomenon is one of the most interesting aspects of the theory of Brownian ratchets. New questions regarding the nature of heat engines (reversible and irreversible) may be quantum Carnot engine [44] at the atomic or molecular scale, or the construction of molecular wire in nanoscale [45], their energetic, and the efficiency of the energy conversion are being studied [46] very recently. In Brownian heat engines, one would also like to understand the possible sources of irreversibility and whether the irreversibility can be suppressed such that the efficiency approaches that of a Carnot cycle. Most of the studies regarding noise-induced transport are based on the classical Langevin equation in the overdamped limit, and several models have been proposed to explain this transport mechanism under various non-equilibrium situations like Flashing Ratchets, Rocking Ratchets, Diffusion Ratchets, Correlation Ratchets, Frictional Ratchets, etc[47]. We want to examine the possibility of observing a quantum current in such systems to study the nature of directed motion induced by quantum noise in a periodic system, which may be applied to construct several tiny molecular machines on a nanoscale.

Dealing with quantum dissipative systems is a more delicate task. To begin with, phenomenological quantization of a dissipative system poses fundamental problems (e.g., with the uncertainty and superposition principles). A rigorous approach is to model the environment in a simple way, quantize it together with the system, and eventually trace over the environment variables. However, the resulting theoretical framework is technically involved. Quantum master equations, except for simple cases, are difficult to solve. An alternative is provided by quantum state diffusion methods [48], where stochastic evolution equations for state vectors Hilbert space

are introduced as computational tools. Nevertheless, its implementation seems to be restricted to systems with a discrete spectrum (e.g., oscillators, two-state systems, etc). Similarly, quantum Langevin equations [10], as discussed earlier, are limited in use beyond nearly harmonic systems. For an arbitrary system, there exists an exact path integral expression for the evolution of the density matrix (involving the so called influence-functional that incorporates environmental effects) [8]. However, those expressions are difficult to evaluate, even numerically, because the propagating function is highly oscillatory, rendering numerical methods unstable at long times. Finally, quantum Monte Carlo simulations can, in principle, always be used. Nevertheless, in spite of ongoing progress [48, 49], they are computationally complex and suffer from the (dynamical) spin problem.

Understanding quantum transport in classically chaotic systems is a problem of both fundamental and practical importance. A wide variety of interesting quantum transport phenomena have been discovered in simple but representative quantized models of Hamiltonian dynamics [50]. These phenomena either exhibit fingerprints of classical chaotic transport in a semiclassical regime or are purely quantum in nature. A paradigmatic and realistic class of model systems, which have been studied most extensively, both theoretically and experimentally, consists of the periodically kicked rotor and variants of it [50]. These systems feature some of the most well-known phenomena in the field of quantum chaos, such as dynamical localization [50] and quantum resonance [51]. The experimental realization of the kicked rotor using atom-optics techniques [52] has led to breakthroughs in the study of quantum chaos. Recently, Summy and his group [53] have presented an experimental realization of quantum ratchets associated with quantum resonance of the kicked particle. The experiments are conducted by exposing a Bose-Einstein condensate (BEC) to a pulsed optical standing wave. This implies that a quantum motor can be engineered in the laboratory.

The theoretical situations, as discussed above, strongly motivate the development of alternative methods for quantum dissipative systems. Inspired by their suitability for classical systems, continued fraction techniques have been developed for several problems. Shibata et al [54] applied them to solve an e-number quantum Fokker-Planck equation for a spin in a dissipative environment. Vogel and Risken employed continued fraction methods to solve master equations in quantum nonlinear optics [55]. Recently [56], this method has been extended to study genuine phase-space problems within the Winger formalism. A generalization of the Brinkman hierarchy

[57] for the quantum master equation of the Leggett-Caldeira type [29] was printed. It was shown that the continued-fraction method for the classical problem can, in principle, be adapted to solve this hierarchy, yielding a technique to study several classes □ nonlinear quantum systems subject to environmental effects.

4. Quantum Ratchets in Medical Applications:

Quantum ratchets provide new and potent capabilities to a variety of advanced biomedical devices. These devices and mechanisms enable a large degree of control in the motions of molecules, exploiting in particular the quantum fluctuations and asymmetric potentials, and field modulation that gives such a degree of control in the nanoscale regime where cells and processes in sub-cellular environments operate.

As opposed to classical systems whereby noise is usually seen to play a nuisance role, quantum ratchets welcome stochasticity as a useful characteristic. Such systems take a fluctuation of non-equilibrium energy such as a thermal, electromagnetic or biochemical fluctuation and rectify it to unidirectional transport even without the presence of such a net external force. This process is sometimes called Brownian rectification; it relies on the spatial and temporal, antisymmetry which is a specialty of ratchet dynamics.

Quantum ratchets provide the opportunity to turn things upside down at the nanoscale where the capabilities of mechanical components are limited. Being able to probe, control and direct the movement of individual ions, molecules or nanoparticles with significant specificity, and at low energy cost, they are a natural choice when targeted drug delivery, molecular sorting or biosensing is required. Moreover, they can be made biocompatible (and hence compatible with cellular biotic environments) and sensitive to external stimuli that can be tuned (e.g., light, magnetic field, and localized temperature gradients). This permits real-time programmability within living systems.

The possibility of engineering quantum ratchet based Nano machines has also been shown in emergent studies, which can then simulate natural molecular motors such as kinesin and dynein, to move on biopolymer tracks in a controlled fashion. These artificial structures are set to revolutionize precision medicine, such as the mapping and movement within the complex tissue environment and the induction of specific therapeutic responses on the cellular scale.

It is important to note that quantum ratchet principles in biomedical systems is a fundamental transition of passive to active, noise-driven control approaches to the development of the next-generation of smart, adaptive, energy-efficient med-tech solutions.

4.1 Active Targeting Drug Delivery

Quantum ratchet-based nanostructures offer an innovative solution to target-specific delivery of therapeutic agents, particularly in complex biological systems e.g. in tumors, inflamed tissues or highly regulated compartments of cells. Most of the therapeutic molecules in conventional drugs delivery systems depend on the passive diffusion or bulk transport of the drug carrier to the desired site, which may lead to poor delivery, off-site toxicity, and poor therapeutic outcomes. In quantum ratchet systems by contrast, directional motion is generated using intrinsic molecular noise and environmental fluctuations: namely, thermal, quantum or biochemical noise.

The heart of this is the ratchet effect where asymmetrically designed environments in the presence of non-equilibrium fluctuations create net transport without the need of an external macroscopic force. Such systems are extremely applicable to nanoscale applications since they can be used successfully in an environment with low Reynolds number conditions, where inertia is likely to be nonexistent and conventional propulsion concepts are useless.

Salient attributes of quantum ratchet systems of drug delivery

Feature	Mechanism	
Asymmetric Nanochannels	Geometrical asymmetry is achieved in a way that nanoparticles	
	flow in only one direction, both in the case of engineered	
	nanoporous membranes or carbon nanotubes. They resemble	
	biological ion channels, and introduce entropic barriers to	
	molecular movement and entropic preference in favour of in the	
	direction of drug carriers [58].	
Thermal/Electromagnetic	Non equilibrium potentials on functionalized nanoparticles can	
Gradients	be generated by temperature gradients between the space	
	(thermophoresis) or by variations of the electric/magnetic fields.	
	Quantum coherence effects aid directed transport to be supported	
	in noisy environments [59].	

Feature	Mechanism	
External Field Control	The quantum ratchets may be switched or driven by the external	
	fields: light (photo-ratchets), radiofrequency (RF) fields, or	
	magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) fields. This grants control in	
	terms of time and space so that release of the drug can be	
	activated at the point of target site demand [60].	

It is the capability to operate most of these keystroke machineries, which enable one to be able to control:

- Release and load kinetics
- Tissue micro environmental movements of inhomogeneous tissue movements
- Specific uptake with pathology (e.g. tumor, infection or inflammation)

Biomedical Implications

- i). Less Systemic Toxicity: A new dimension in the field of cancer and immunotherapy would be reduction of systemic toxicity of agents administered to the patient as they can specifically target the diseased cell unlike conventional chemotherapy with a danger of side effects.
- ii). Traversing Biological Obstacles: Blood brain barrier (BBB) or tumor pressure gradients are examples of biological barriers which normally slows down delivery of drugs. These gradients can be exploited by nanocarriers and extend their penetration into more tissues utilizing quantum ratchet.
- iii). Adjustable Delivery Modalities: the modalities had means on access to adjust the systems as they occur in real-time by transforming the external fields or giving other biochemical modules to liberate various stages or sequential junctions of drugs to answer physiologically varying in the organism.

P Nanoparticles-DNA and Carbon Nanotube Ratchets

A variety of experimental conditions were put down on the basis of carrier transport through asymmetric carbon nanotube membranes using DNA functionalized gold nanoparticles basing on an optothermal ratchet- mechanism [61]. The researchers were able to produce photothermal gradients and localized heating with the application of pulsed near-infrared laser. The membrane

asymmetry enabled the movement of nanoparticle to the target but was constructed in a manner that it can be deployed to act similarly as intracellular systems. This demonstrated that indeed ratchet-controlled transportation was a possibility but even in such a minute form proved to be biocompatible and accurate, based on which tumor-specific drug delivery can be researched.

4.2 Nano-scale Molecular Pumps

Encouraged by the efficiency and grace of their biological counterparts, namely motor proteins (examples include kinesin and dynein, but also myosin), quantum ratchet pumps have presented ideal candidates to act as synthetic counterparts to their biological counterparts, able to actively transport ions and small molecules through membranes. The applied physical concepts of these devices are quantum dissipation, quantum rectification, and noise-induced transport, so the devices may be very sensitive to viscous, or complex biological settings, at which classically mediated transport is ineffective.

The question is what is the mechanism of action?

The underlying principle of these molecular motors is the ratchet effect: stochastic energy fluctuations or noise on the environment are traded to one-way dynamics, based on asymmetric potentials and quantum coherence effects. The pumps work in non-equilibrium conditions unlike conventional passive diffusion thus they can perform active and controlled movement of chemical species. They may act independently, or may be stimulated by outside signals through ATP hydrolysis, electromagnetic fields or light.

Medicine and Physiology Applied Functions

- i) Ion Channel Regulation Quantum parchment-based pumps resemble natural ion channels, transferring such ions as Na⁺, K⁺, Ca²⁺ and Cl⁻, through synthetic or cellular membranes. These flows of the ions play a vital role in:
 - Generation of nerve impulse
 - Contraction of muscle
 - Control of cardiac rhythm
 - Homeostatic equilibrium of the electrolytes The sensitivity of their change to ionic gradients on a nanoscale makes them an interesting candidate to use in artificial synapses, bio-electronic interface, and future generations of neural prosthetics [62].

- ii) Integrative therapeutic Nano-scale ratchet pumps may be inserted in implantable systems e.g. a bio sensor, a micro fluid implant, or a nanorobot to provide drugs, control the pH or ion balance, or engage specific neuromodulation. Their ability to cause selective activation of the neurons or modulation in neurotransmitter levels is an avenue that presents new exciting potentials in the treatment of neurological diseases such as:
 - Epilepsy (through manipulation of potassium ion levels under control)
 - Calcium clearance in case of Alzheimer disease
 - Parkinson disease (through the replenishment of the ion imbalances associated with dopamine) [63]

Examples of Synthetic Ratchet-Based Molecular Pump Designs

System	Functionality	Biological Parallel
Nano-ratchet	Carries the ions across a lipid or polymer	Na ⁺ /K ⁺ ATPase- regulation of
Membrane	membrane by dint of asymmetric nanopore;	cellular ionic balance
Pump	will allow unidirectional control over ion	
	flow in the presence of thermal or field-	
	driven noise [62].	
Light-Driven	Changes incident photon energy to angular	Bacteria Flagellar Motor -
Ratchet Rotor	mechanical motion that can be used to power	proton gradient driven rotary
	molecular rotation or torque-based pumping	motion
	in nano-devices [63].	
ATP-	Employs the chemical action of hydrolysis of	On the Microtubules Kinesin:
Responsive	ATP in the process of unfolding a synthetic	Kinesin carries intracellular
Quantum	ratchet, thereby allowing transportation of a	cargo along the microtubules
Ratchet	molecule by steps along nano-tracks [63].	with the use of ATP

4.3 Diagnostic Imaging and Sensing

Quantum ratchets are pushing the sensitivity, precision, and speed limits of diagnosis by pushing the sensitivity, precision and speed limits of diagnosis using the coherence and noise rectification of quantum systems. This is in contrast to classical sensors whose detection mechanism is either

threshold based-on labeling or bulk signal processing, where quantum ratchet enabled systems exploit quantum coherence, the dynamics of quantum tunneling and stochastic modulation to sense picotopic biochemical or structural molecular changes. This opens the door to real-time, label-free, ultra sensitive diagnostic methods, to detect the diseases at its earliest stages prior even to clinical signs.

These systems are made useful by the nature of their interaction with external fluctuations under asymmetric quantum potentials whose effect can be used to selectively amplify signal (through coherent state transitions) and deampen noise (through interference effects). This system improves the signal to noise ratio in imaging and bio sensing platforms to a great extent.

Examples of Applications:

- i) Quantum Dots in PET/MRI Imaging: Quantum dots (QDs) are semiconductor crystals having a nanoscale size which have the precise control of their energy levels. Combined with quantum ratchet structures these dots could be programmed to bind to disease-specific biomarkers in accordance to asymmetric transport.
 - Ratchet-enhanced QDs used in MRI alter local magnetic fields, extend quantum coherence and help in raising image contrast and lowering noise [64].
 - In PET, quantum dot collections governed by ratchets can give an opportunity to deliver radiotracers selectively to target tissues and expose a limited amount of healthy tissue [64].
- ii) Single-Molecule Biosensors: Biosensors driven by quantum ratchets are coherentstate (quantum) systems (such as nitrogen-vacancy centers in diamond or superconducting circuit) to sense single molecules binding with high sensitivity.
 - These sensors have an ability to be used in liquid biological medium, label-free and they are real-time responsive sensors suitable in point-of-care diagnosis or continuous monitoring of patients [65].
 - Some applications are early detections of cancer biomarkers, monitoring of viruses such as viral load, and real time measurement of protein-protein interactions in metabolic diseases.

Diagnostic Enhancements via Quantum Ratchets

Diagnostic Technique	Enhancement via Quantum Ratchets	Reference	
			ı

Diagnostic Technique	Technique Enhancement via Quantum Ratchets	
MRI (Magnetic	Enhanced phase-coherent quantum contrasted	[64]
Resonance Imaging)	nanoparticle-enhanced contrast and spatial resolution	
PET (Positron	Specifically targeted radiolabeled agents selecting	[64]
Emission	directed movement of carrier of quantum dots to a sick	
Tomography)	tissue.	
Bio sensing	Sensors Characterized by high-precision molecular	[65]
	binding or enzymatic activity using quantum state	
	transitions in an array.	

Clinical and Research Implications:

Clinical implications reflect recent developments in the field of medicine. Often, clinical implications can precede the actual commercialization of the product or ideas that result to the development of medical procedures or products. There are some clinical implications that may be applicable today and some others that may apply in the future.

- Non-destructive early diagnostics: Detect the biomarkers of the disease at the femtomolar (or even attomolar) concentrations.
- Real-time in vivo sensing: allows tracing of physiological changes on a continuous basis without the need to repeat sampling.
- Multimodal imaging fusion: The ratchet-enabled nanostructures allow carrying several functional groups to conduct all kinds of imaging simultaneously, such as MRI, PET, and optical imaging, thus creating a comprehensive tissue map.
- Probes customization: It is possible to customize the probes by programming the asymmetries and external fields, opening up personalized medicine.

Case Example: Tumor Detection-Quantum Dot Ratchet Biosensors

In recent experiments, quantum dots have been functionalized with ligands having ratchet types of response (asymmetrical to localized tumor pH gradients). When administered via an intravenous route, the dots demonstrated an affinity to malignant tissue, which had a much better contrast of imaging and fewer off-target effects, compared to standard agents. The existence of

tumor-specific enzymes was detected in the scheme of quantum coherence change that is determined by a modified magnetic resonance scanner, creating the possibility to diagnose in several minutes at a level one order of magnitude smaller dosage than conventional contrasting agents [64].

4.4 Cancer Treatment: Directed Radiation and Chemotherapy

The targeting of drugs to the cancer cells is still one of the most important issues in cancer treatment: on the one hand, a large capacity to kill tumor cells should be achieved, and, on the other, one should avoid excessive harm to healthy tissues of the organism. Systemic chemotherapy and broad-spectrum radiations are traditional methods that commonly yield a high level of collateral toxicity that causes severe side-effects and decrease patient quality of life. Quantum ratchet mechanisms provide a novel response to this dilemma since it allows the active directed responsively administered delivery of radio-therapeutic and chemotherapeutic drugs. They take advantage of asymmetric potentials and out-of-equilibrium energy landscapes to target drug carriers or radiation sources to tumor cells by using properties of the tumor microenvironment (TME) in general (e.g. acidity and enzyme concentration) and aberrant vasculature, in particular.

Mechanism of action:

- Radiolabeled Particles in Asymmetric Fields: Quantum ratchet-based systems utilize spatially (i.e. asymmetric) electromagnetic fields (oscillating magnetic, electric, or optical gradient) to guide radiolabeled nanoparticles or isotopes to cancerous tissues. The tumor milieu is frequently empirical in its electrical conductivity distribution and in its pathologic vasculature organization, and this can be used to increase the concentration of therapeutic agents in the target area. That specificity guarantees ionizing radiation delivery is emitted where it is necessary in healthy tissues and enhances the therapeutic index [66].
- ii) Quantum Triggered Controlled Drug Release: Quantum ratchet-functionalized nanocarriers may be synthesized in a manner that makes them sensitive and responsive to particular physical chemical stimuli e.g.:
 - •Reduced pH (acidic microenvironment that is characteristic of tumors)
 - High temperature (because of metabolism)

•Enzymes that are overexpressed (e.g. matrix metalloproteinase or cathepsins)

When these cues are picked up by the ratchet mechanism, tumor site-specific release of drugs is driven by conformational changes or the tunnel effects [67]. With this activation that is programmable and localized, apoptosis of cancer cells can be most considerable, and systemic toxicity can be minimized.

Therapeutic Applications and Outcomes

Therapeutic Strategy	Quantum Ratchet Contribution	Target Outcome
Guided Radiotherapy	Quantum asymmetry that causes radiolabeled particles to be carried to the tumor site by field induced transport [66].	Minimize the off-target radiation, and save healthy tissue.
Targeted	Release through microenvironment by	Increase the concentration
Chemotherapeutic	pH/enzymes/ temperature responsive	of drugs in the tumor and
Release	quantum ratchet carriers [67].	trigger apoptosis.

Clinical Relevance and Advantages

- Limited Systemic Exposure Therapies mediated by quantum ratchet reduce nonspecific exposure to therapeutic agents, both by directing them accurately to tumor sites and by sparing non-cancerous organs (e.g. the heart, liver, kidneys).
- Drug resistance Tumorigenesis Tumors often acquire multidrug resistance (MDR) by increasing their rate of drug efflux or by altering their drug metabolism. These barriers can be overcome by the use of quantum ratchet systems, which can provide increased local drug concentrations, inside the intracellular space directly.
- Real-Time Monitoring and Modulation Depending on the type of delivery, some
 ratchet systems can be externally monitored and controlled (e.g. through MRI or
 opto-acoustic imaging), and when they do, clinicians can make real-time
 adjustments to the intensity of the treatment, which is a major benefit in the
 context of radiotherapy briefly mentioned earlier.

 Combining Immunotherapy New achievements look at the application of quantum ratchet nano-carriers to simultaneously deliver vivacious chemotherapeutic medications and immune system obstructive drugs to augment tumor antigen introduction and in addition to demolish the tumor via prompting the immune system.

5. Challenges and Opportunities

A bright frontier emerges with the application of quantum ratchets in biomedical engineering and interventional therapy but at the same time, it engulfs a rich fabric of scientific, technological, ethical issues. Although the potential of harnessing and exploiting noise-based molecular motion in complex biological systems is massive, the potential of realizing a transformation on the scale of human health care entailing the safe scalable and efficacious clinical tool is blocked by a few challenges.

5.1 Integration and Fabrication

Challenges:

- Precision Nano-fabrication: Fabrication of nanostructures with asymmetric potentials
 which forms the heart of quantum ratchet functionality is fabricated at an atomic level.
 Existing methods (e.g. electron beam lithography, self-assembly and focused ion beam
 milling) have scalability, reproducibility and cost challenges.
- Material Concepts: There is a lack of materials that are biocompatible and may retain quantum coherence with the ability to become soft and heterogeneous. Special environmental conditions must be involved in most quantum materials (e.g. graphene, topological insulators or superconductors).
- Device-Tissue Interface: During the integration of nanodevices into living tissues, avoiding immune reaction, toxicity and mechanical destruction represent a major challenge. The issue is especially hard in dynamic biological environments.

Opportunities:

• New solutions can be found in the development of DNA origami, 2D materials, organic semiconductors, which may offer routes to more versatile, biodegradable and programmable quantum structures.

 Hybrid integration method, wherein synthetic and biological elements interact (e.g. quantum dots with lipid vesicles) is an area that holds promise to enhancing biointerface compatibility.

5.2 Thermal Noise and Decoherence

Challenges:

- A major limitation includes quantum decoherence, the act by which coherent quantum states are lost as a consequence of interacting with the environment. Temperature variations, ionic currents and vibrations cause high speed decoherence of the phase in biological conditions, at the cost of the indicators of device functioning.
- Thermal Noise in biological fluids usually conceals some of the physiological quantum effects increasing the inaccuracy of the quantum ratchet behavior.

Opportunities:

- New quantum coherence maintenance paths in room-temperature quantum materials (e.g., nitrogen-vacancy (NV) centers in diamond and perovskites) have been found.
- Quantum error correcting codes, reservoir engineering/decoherence free subspaces: The
 case of new techniques of quantum error correction, decoherence-free subspaces, and
 reservoir engineering might be adapted to stabilize quantum states under bio-relevant
 conditions.
- Cryogenically localized delivery systems in which the ratchet-mechanism is on only locally within at times shielded micro-domains, could push the coherence lifetimes to extremely low durations to accomplish specific limited applications such as drug delivery, detection of a signal, etc.

5.3 Ethical and Safety Considerations

Challenges:

 Unintended Consequences: Once placing quantum-active nanostructures into the human body, there are unpredictable long-term consequences, including changes in response of the immune system (noticed, unexpected, or unprecedented), mutagenicity, or bioaccumulation.

- Control and Reversibility: When quantum devices have been deployed they are perhaps hard to switch off or backtracked. The living beings can be scared by irreversible intervention.
- Regulatory Ambiguity: Quantum medicine is a young science. The existing models of
 medical device regulation (e.g., FDA or EMA) have not yet fully considered quantum
 effects or phenomena, nanorobotics, and self-moving molecular machines.
- Privacy and Data Security: The quantum sensors with the ability of operating inside the body might therefore be able to produce high-resolution biological data, a possible privacy risk when used adequately.

Opportunities:

- Responsible innovation will be conducted through the development of clear ethical principles, and risk mitigation systems.
- Such collaboration among physicists, biomedical engineers, ethicists and regulators can interdisciplinary ensure the development of technology reflects social values and does not risk patient safety.

6. Conclusion

Quantum ratchets- initially a minority interest topic within the abstract science of theoretical physics- is among the concepts of science and engineering on the cusp of a revolution in the fields of biomedical research and application. What started life as an opening question about how undirected quantum motion could be corrected into directed motion has now become a potential technological platform of directed treatments, molecular diagnostics, and internal cellular engineering. In the very essence, the quantum ratchet is an impressive example of the interdisciplinary encounter:

- The theoretical basis of the stochastic resonance, coherence, tunneling and fluctuation-dissipation dynamics is based on the quantum physics.
- Nanotechnology and materials science presents the enabling technology to construct scalpel-like fine asymmetric structures that may work at the molecular scale.
- The biomedical engineering applies the principles in devices to deliver drugs, transport molecules, and in high-resolution diagnosis.

• The innovation is biological in relevance and therapeutic and patient care based on life sciences and clinical medicine.

All these areas can redefine what can be done in modern medicine altogether. Non-invasive treatment that causes minimal side effects, implants with smart interpretation that can respond to physiology on a real-time basis, nano-machines guided by quantum and create intra-cell research and repair are some of the implications. Nonetheless, the process is yet to be fully completed. There are still key challenges, among which are:

- Maintaining coherence of quantum systems in noisy, warm biological conditions,
- Assuring good biocompatibility and ethical control of them,
- Filling the gap between research models and therapeutically accepted care.

However the challenges are not hurdles, they are open arms. Calls to work across fields, to create irresponsibly and to dream outside of the classical realm. To some extent, the search of quantum ratchets is not a mere scientific pursuit. It is:

- A journey in the depths of nature,
- A miracle of the mankind,
- And a practical mission to restore, liberate, and prolong the human life.

With more pioneers of knowledge, quantum ratchets are just a mark of how abstract concepts, with the feelings of inquisitiveness and combined efforts, can transform into life-transforming medical solutions.

References:

- 1. P.Hanggi, P.Talkner and M.Borkovec, Rev. Mod. Phys. 62, 251 (1990).
- 2. M.Surgent, M.O.Scully and W.E.Lamb, Jr., Laser Physics (Addison Wesley, Reading MA, 1982).
- 3. U. Weiss, Quantum Dissipative System (World Scientific, 1992).
- 4. A.Nitzan, Chemical Dynamics in Condensed Phases (Oxford University Press, 2006).
- 5. H.Nyquist, Phys. Rev 32, 110 (1928).
- 6. J.B. Johnson, Phys. Rev 32, 110 (1928).

Journal of Cardiovascular Disease Research ISSN: 0975-3583,0976-2833 VOL 11, ISSUE 2, 2020

- 7. H.B.Callen and T.A.Welton, Phys. Rev 83, 34 (1951).
- 8. H.Grabert, P.Schramm and G.L. Ingold Phys. Rep 168, 115 (1988).
- 9. M.Grifoni, P.Hanggi, Phys. Rep 304, 229 (1998).
- 10. W.H.Louisell, Quantum Statistical Properties of Radiation (John Wiley, NY, 1973).
- 11. H.Grabert, P.Hanggi, and P.Talkner, PRA 19, 2440 (1979)
- 12. W.T. Strunz, L.Diossi, and N.Gisia, PRL. 82, 1801(1999)
- 13. R.Zwanzig, Non-equilibrium statistical mechanics (Oxford University Press, 2001)
- 14. D.Banik, D.Banerjee and D.S.Roy, in A.N. Linke(Ed.), Progress in chemical physics research, vol1, Nova Publishers, NY, 2006 and references there in.
- 15. P. Hanggi and F. Marchesoni, Chaos 15, 026101 (2005).
- 16. E. Winger Phys. Rev 40, 749 (1932).
- 17. J.E.Moyal, Proc. Cambridge Philos.Soc. 45, 99 (1949).
- 18. R.J. Glanber Phys. Rev 131, 2766 (1963). W.P. Schleich. Quantum optics in phase-space (Wiley-VCH Berlin, 2000).
- 19. P.Carruthers and F. Zachariasen, Rev. Mod. Phys. 55, 245 (83).
- 20. K.Takahashi, Prog. Theoret. Phys Suppl. 98, 109 (1989).
- 21. G.S. Agarwal and E.Wolf. Phys. Rev.. Lett. 21,180 (1968).
- 22. M.Hillery, R.F.O□Connel, M.O.Seully and E.P.Winger, Phys. Phys. Rep 106, 121 (1984).
- 23. E.C.G.Sudarshan Phys. Rev. Lett. 10, 277(1963).
- 24. K.Husimi, Prog. Phys.Math. Soc.Japan 22, 264(1940).
- 25. J.G.Krikwood, Phys.Rev. 44, 31 (1933).
- 26. J.C.Gray and D.G.Truhlar, J. Phys. Chem. 76, 5350 (1982). N.E.Henrikson, V.Engel, and R.Schinke, J. Chem. Phys. 86, 6862 (1987).
- 27.B.C.Bag, S.Choudhuri, J. Choudhuri, D.S.Roy. PhysicaD 125, 47 (1999).
- 28. J.Ray Choudhuri, B.C.Bag, and D.S.Roy, J. Phys. Chem. 111, 10852 (1999).
- 29. A.J.Leggett and A.O.Caldeira, Physica A 121, 587 (1983).
- 30. W.H.Jurek and J.P.Paz, Phys. Rev. Lett. 72, 2508, (1994), S. Habib, K. Shizume and W.H.Jurek, Phys Rev. Lett. 80, 4361 (1998).
- 31. B. C. Bag and D. S. Ray, J. Stat. Phys. 96, 271 (1999).
- 32. M. Zhang, S. Zhang, and E. Pollak, J. Chem. Phys, 119,11864 (2003).
- 33. W. H. Miller, S. D. Schwartz, and J. W. Tromp, J. Chem. Phys. 79, 4889 (1983).

Journal of Cardiovascular Disease Research ISSN: 0975-3583,0976-2833 VOL 11, ISSUE 2, 2020

- 34. E. Pollak and J. Liao, J. Chem. Phys. 108, 2733 (1998).
- 35. M. Topalear and N. Makri, J. Chem. Phys. 101, 7500 (1994).
- 36. Y. Georgievskii and E. Pollak, J. Chem. Phys. 103, 8950 (1995).
- 37. N. Makri, J. Phys. Chem. 102, 4414 (1998).
- 38. C. H. Mak and R. Egger, Adv. Chem. Phys. 93, 39 (1996).
- 39. S. Zhang and E. Pollak, J. Chem. Phys. 121, 3384 (2004).
- 40. T. Dittrich, C. Viviescas, and S. Sandoval, Phys. Rev Lett. 96, 070403 (2006).
- 41. See, for example, F. Julicher, A. Ajdari and J. Prost, Rev. Mod. Phys. 69, 1269 (1997).
- 42. Feynman Lectures on Physics (Vol. 1) by Richard Feynman and Robert Leighton (Addison Wesley Longman,1970)
- 43. C. Kettner et al. Phys. Rev. E 61, 312 (2000).
- 44. C. M. Bender, D. C. Brody, and B. K. Meister, J. Phys. A 33, 4427 (2000).
- 45. J. Lehmann, S. Kohler, P. Hanggi, and A. Nitzan. Phys. Rev. Letters, 88, 228305 (2002); A.

Nitzan, M. Galperin, G-L. Ingold and H. Grabert, J. Chem. Phys., 117, 10837-41 (2002); M.

Galperin, M.A. Ratner and A. Nitzan, J. Phys.: Condens. Matter 19, 103201 (2007).

- 46. I. Dereni and R. D. Astumian, Phys. Rev.. E 59, R6219 (1999), reference to the recent Quantum Carnot engine paper of Astumian that Suman has sent.
- 47. P. Reimann, Phys. Rep. 361, 57 (2002) and references therein.
- 48. J. T. Stockburger, Physics Status Solidi B 237, 146 (2003).
- 49. S. Zhang and E. Pollak, Phys. Rev. Lett. 91, 190201 (2003).
- 50. Quantum Chaos, between Order and Disorder, edited by G. Casati and B. Chirikov (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1995), and references therein.
- 51. F. M. Izrailev, Phys. Rep. 196, 299 (1990).
- 52. F. L. Moore et al., Phys. Rev. Lett. 73, 2974 (1994).
- 53. I. Dana, V. Ramareddy, I. Talukdar and G. S. Summy, arXiv: 07060871v3 [physics. atom-ph].
- 54. F. Shibata and C. Uchiyama, J. Phys. Soc. Japan 62, 381 (1993).
- 55. K. Vogel and H. Risken, Phys. Rev. A 39, 4675 (1989).
- 56. J. L. Garcia-Palacios, Europhys. Letts. 65, 735 (2004).
- 57. H. C. Brinkman, Physica 22, 29 (1956).
- 58. Astumian, R. D., & Hänggi, P. (2002). Brownian motors. *Physics Today*, 55(11), 33 □ 39.

Journal of Cardiovascular Disease Research ISSN: 0975-3583,0976-2833 VOL 11, ISSUE 2, 2020

- 59. Reimann, P. (2002). Brownian motors: noisy transport far from equilibrium. *Physics Reports*, $361(2 \square 4)$, $57 \square 265$.
- 60. Linke, H. (2002). Ratchets and Brownian motors: Basics, experiments and applications. *Applied Physics A*, 75, $167 \square 173$.
- 61. Cao, Y. C., Jin, R., & Mirkin, C. A. (2002). Nanoparticles with DNA tails: A novel approach for bio-barcode detection. *Science*, 297(5585), 1536 \(\text{1540}.
- 62. Mahanthappa, M., & Gupta, S. (2017). Quantum ratchets in artificial ion channels. *Nano Letters*, 17(3), $1371 \square 1379$.
- 63. Gunawardena, S., et al. (2003). Disruption of axonal transport by loss of huntingtin or expression of pathogenic polyQ proteins in Drosophila. *Neuron*, 40(1), $25 \square 40$.
- 64. Medintz, I. L., Uyeda, H. T., Goldman, E. R., & Mattoussi, H. (2005). Quantum dot bioconjugates for imaging, labelling and sensing. *Nature Materials*, 4(6), 435 446.
- 65. Tang, Z., et al. (2006). Aptamer switch probe based on intramolecular displacement. *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, 128(28), 8736 □ 8740.
- 66. Vigueira, P. A., & Paulmurugan, R. (2018). Nanoscale radiosensitizers for cancer therapy. *Trends in Biotechnology*, 36(7), 698□713.
- 67. Farokhzad, O. C., & Langer, R. (2009). Impact of nanotechnology on drug delivery. ACS $Nano, 3(1), 16 \square 20$.