

Introduction

High-temperature superconductors (HTSCs) are materials that carry electric current with zero resistance at temperatures far above the near-absolute-zero conditions required by conventional superconductors. Since the 1986 discovery of cuprate superconductors with critical temperatures (T_{c}) ~30–90 K, scientists have sought a predictive theory for these “unconventional” superconductors. Yet despite decades of effort, a unified first-principles theory for HTSC remains elusive ¹. The challenge stems from the complex physics in HTSCs – including strong electron correlations, intertwined orders (magnetic, charge, etc.), and quantum fluctuations – which defy simple BCS-like descriptions valid for low-temperature, electron-phonon superconductors. Researchers worldwide continue to explore new methods that combine theory and minimal empirical input to predict superconducting behavior at higher temperatures ². This document introduces a **new adaptonic framework** for predicting the structure and properties of HTSCs, emphasizing the θ (theta) mechanism derived from first principles. It is written for readers with a graduate-level background in condensed matter physics and aims to present the new method in a formal yet accessible way, grounded in known physics. By the end, an expert should find a self-contained, logically consistent approach – one that can incorporate key experimental data and yield quantitative predictions for high- T_{c} superconductivity without undue “shock value” in its novelty.

Challenges in Understanding HTSC

HTSCs (exemplified by copper-oxide cuprates and the newer nickelate superconductors) exhibit rich and perplexing phenomena that challenge theoretical understanding. A hallmark is the **pseudogap** phase: even above T_{c} , the electronic density of states shows a partial gap, indicating preformed pairs or other ordering. This pseudogap phase often coexists and competes with other orders like antiferromagnetism, charge density waves (CDWs), and spin-density waves. For instance, recent studies in cuprates have shown that static spin “stripe” order – an alternating pattern of magnetic regions – is fundamentally tied to the pseudogap phase ³. Such stripe or charge orders can suppress or intertwine with superconductivity, depending on doping and temperature, making the phase diagram highly complex. Quenched disorder (from dopant ions) and strong coupling further blur phase boundaries ⁴ ⁵. These entangled orders and fluctuations mean HTSC can no longer be described by a single order parameter as in BCS theory; instead, **multifaceted correlations** must be accounted for. Advanced experiments have underscored this complexity: angle-resolved photoemission (ARPES) finds “Fermi arc” segments instead of a full Fermi surface in the pseudogap regime, scanning tunneling microscopy (STM) reveals nano-scale inhomogeneities in the superconducting gap, and resonant inelastic X-ray scattering (RIXS) along with neutron scattering detect intense spin fluctuations. Notably, charge density waves have been hypothesized to relate to superconductivity in these materials ⁶, and in some cases appear concurrently with the loss of superconducting coherence. Together, these observations highlight that **HTSCs are adaptive, multiscale systems** – their superconducting state emerges from a delicate balance of competing interactions and dynamic adjustments across different length scales.

Despite the trove of experimental data, *predictive* understanding is limited. There is currently no accepted comprehensive theory for high- T_{c} superconductivity ¹. Traditional BCS theory, which explains superconductivity via electron-phonon coupled Cooper pairs, fails to explain HTSC because (1) the pairing in HTSC is likely not purely electron-phonon (spin fluctuations and electronic interactions are strong candidates for the “glue”), and (2) the superconducting transition temperatures

are far higher than BCS theory would allow for known phonon energies. In practice, researchers have relied on phenomenological models (e.g. Hubbard or t-J models) and numeric methods to understand HTSC, but those require empirically tuned parameters and often can only explain *known* properties rather than predict new materials. This motivates **new methodological approaches** that can leverage first-principles insights while accommodating the adaptive, many-bodied nature of HTSC systems.

The Adaptonic Framework for Predictive Modeling

We propose to treat a high- T_c superconductor as an **adaptive system** in the spirit of the *adaptonic hypothesis*. In this framework (inspired by principles from adaptive networks and free-energy minimization in complex systems), the superconductor self-organizes in response to “stress” – where *stress* represents external or internal parameters driving the system (e.g. doping level, pressure, magnetic field, or lattice distortions). The state of the system is characterized by a *coherence* parameter that measures the degree of superconducting order or structural organization. Rather than assuming a fixed Hamiltonian with static parameters, the adaptonic approach allows certain effective parameters (such as pairing strength, carrier mobility, etc.) to *adapt* as the system seeks a new equilibrium between competing energies and entropies. This concept is formalized by introducing an **adaptive free energy functional** (detailed in the next section) that the system minimizes. Crucially, the free energy includes an information-theoretic term governed by a parameter θ (theta), which modulates the trade-off between order and disorder in the system.

Key Adaptonic Principles (Twierdzenia Adaptoniczne): The adaptonic framework rests on several core principles, which we outline below and later connect to HTSC physics:

- **Coherence Responds to Stress:** *The degree of order (coherence) in the system dynamically adjusts in response to applied stress.* In a superconductor, this means the superconducting order parameter (and related coherence length, phase stiffness, etc.) is not a static quantity but can strengthen or weaken as external conditions (like doping concentration or pressure) change. For example, introducing disorder or increasing temperature (forms of “stress”) may initially suppress coherence, but the system can adapt via forming new structures (e.g. vortices, stripes) that partially restore order in a modified form.
- **Adaptive Crystallization under High Stress:** *When stress crosses a certain threshold, the system can undergo an adaptive phase transition that “crystallizes” a new order.* In HTSC, this principle manifests when, say, very high magnetic fields or strong underdoping cause the material to *crystallize* new collective states (like charge order or spin stripes) as a way to relieve stress. Rather than a simple collapse of superconductivity, the system transitions into a different ordered state – an adaptive response. This concept helps explain why, under extreme conditions, HTSCs often exhibit alternative orders (e.g. a charge-ordered phase in heavily underdoped cuprates or field-induced spin order) instead of reverting to a trivial metallic state.
- **Nested Hierarchies of Structure:** *The system organizes into hierarchical layers or scales, with smaller-scale structures nested within larger-scale frameworks.* For layered superconductors, this is literally true (CuO_2 planes stack into multilayer structures), but adaptonics also implies hierarchical energy scales. In cuprates, for instance, the strongest interactions (hundreds of meV) set an exchange energy and Mott gap at the atomic scale, while intermediate scales govern Cooper pairing, and longer-range scales involve phase coherence across the lattice. The framework suggests these layers influence each other – e.g. lattice-scale distortions modulate electronic pairing strength (a “heterarchical” feedback, see below). Recognizing nested

hierarchies allows our model to incorporate phenomena like pseudogap formation (a partial, intermediate order) coexisting with local pair formation and global phase coherence.

- **Ecotonal Dynamics (Interface Enhancement):** *Transition regions (“ecotones”) between different phases or domains are hotspots for adaptive behavior.* Analogous to ecological ecotones where biodiversity is high, in an HTSC any interface – between a superconducting region and a normal region, or between charge-ordered stripes and superconducting regions – tends to exhibit enhanced fluctuations and novel states. Empirically, the boundaries of charge-order domains in cuprates often show heightened superconducting pairing tendencies, and vice versa, indicating that the interplay at phase boundaries can stabilize superconductivity. Our approach pays special attention to these intermediate regimes, treating them not as mere interpolations but as critical structures that can dominate macroscopic properties (for example, a percolative superconducting network can form at the margins of antiferromagnetic domains). By incorporating ecotonal dynamics, the model captures how inhomogeneity and phase separation in HTSC can *enhance* overall superconductivity in some cases (e.g. 3D ordering emerging from coupled 2D layers).
- **Heterarchical Feedback:** *Adaptation is governed by feedback loops that are not strictly top-down or bottom-up – instead, multiple scales influence each other (heterarchy).* In a superconductor, this means that while the macroscopic superconducting state is built from microscopic electron pairs, the existence of the superconducting condensate can in turn modify microscopic parameters (such as screening of Coulomb interactions, or renormalizing the spin fluctuations). Traditional BCS theory has a one-way hierarchy (microscopic interactions produce a macroscopic order parameter). By contrast, the adaptonic view allows the order parameter (coherence) to feed back and alter the landscape of microscopic interactions – effectively, the system “learns” or reconfigures its internal parameters to maintain superconductivity. This is analogous to concepts like **self-organized criticality**, where a system tunes itself to the edge of stability. In practical terms, heterarchical feedback implies our predictive equations might include self-consistent conditions: e.g. the pairing potential might depend on the achieved coherence, leading to non-linear equations that can produce multiple stable solutions (metastable states) – a scenario familiar in HTSC where different phases can be stabilized by slight perturbations.

These adaptonic principles provide a conceptual scaffolding to build a **predictive model** for HTSC. Unlike purely empirical approaches, we embed known physics (e.g. Hubbard-model interactions, electron-phonon coupling where relevant, etc.) into a broader adaptive free-energy framework. The result is a set of equations capable of yielding *quantitative predictions* for superconducting properties, given a minimal set of empirical inputs for calibration. Central to this framework is the θ mechanism, which we now elaborate from first principles.

The θ Mechanism from First Principles

At the heart of the adaptonic model is the introduction of an **information temperature Θ (theta)** – a measure of the system’s internal “adaptive disorder” – and its associated mechanism for driving phase transitions. We derive the θ mechanism from first principles by drawing an analogy to statistical thermodynamics, but generalized to include *informational degrees of freedom*. In a conventional system, temperature T appears when deriving a thermodynamic free energy $F = E - TS$ (energy minus entropy term). By comparison, in our adaptive system, we posit a generalized free energy functional:

$$\mathcal{F}[\Psi] = E[\Psi] - \Theta S[\Psi]. \quad (1)$$

Here $E[\Psi]$ represents an effective internal energy of the system configuration Ψ (which could encompass electron kinetic energy, interaction energies, lattice deformation energy, etc.), and $S[\Psi]$ is a generalized entropy or complexity measure of that configuration (quantifying, for example, the number of microscopically equivalent states or the uncertainty in the order parameter configuration). The key novelty is the **Θ term**: Θ plays a role analogous to temperature, but in this context it quantifies the propensity of the system to explore configurations (hence “information temperature”). A *higher* Θ favors entropy (disordered or fluctuating states), whereas a *lower* Θ favors minimizing energy (ordered states). Crucially, Θ is *not fixed externally* (as temperature would be), but is an *emergent, self-consistent parameter* determined by the system's dynamics. In essence, Θ encapsulates the influence of fast microscopic fluctuations on the slow, macroscopic order parameters – it is derived by integrating out high-energy or short-scale degrees of freedom.

Derivation Outline: We outline how one arrives at Θ from first principles. Start with the microscopic description of electrons and ions in a crystal. One could begin from a Hamiltonian $\hat{H} = \hat{H}_{\text{el}} + \hat{H}_{\text{H}} + \hat{H}_{\text{el-el}} + \dots$ including electron kinetic energy, lattice (phonon) energy, electron-electron interactions, etc. Because HTSC involves strong correlations, writing \hat{H} explicitly (e.g. as a Hubbard model) is possible, but solving it directly is intractable. Instead, we adopt a two-scale approach: separate fast variables (like individual electron momenta, spin fluctuations at high frequency, etc.) and slow collective variables (like the superconducting order parameter field $\Delta(x)$ or an associated coherence field). Through a procedure akin to Wilsonian renormalization, one integrates out (averages over) the fast fluctuations up to a certain energy cutoff. The result is an effective action for the slow fields. In that effective action, a term emerges that has the form of $-\Theta S$ is an entropy-like functional for the slow fields. Physically, this Θ arises because the eliminated microscopic degrees of freedom impart S_{eff} uncertainty or noise to the macrostate. If the fast fluctuations are very strong, they induce a large Θ – meaning the remaining system behaves as if at a higher effective “temperature” promoting disorder. Conversely, if microscopic fluctuations freeze out, Θ falls, and the system can maintain an ordered state with less entropy penalty.

One way to *operationally define* Θ is via the covariance of fluctuations. For example, consider a stochastic description of how the order parameter $\Psi(t)$ (which could represent local pairing amplitude, etc.) evolves due to microscopic random forces. If $\delta \Psi$ denotes fluctuations in Ψ , one can define an information temperature through a fluctuation–dissipation relation: $\langle (\delta \Psi)^2 \rangle \sim \Theta \chi$, where χ is a generalized susceptibility of the order parameter. In equilibrium, this would resemble the usual relation $\langle (\delta \Psi)^2 \rangle \sim k_B T \chi$. Here k_B is effectively set to 1 by choice of units, and Θ takes the role of an effective temperature for *informational* fluctuations. By measuring the variance in Ψ (for instance, via time series of an order parameter proxy, or via spatial variance across a sample in STM measurements), one can *infer* Θ . This connects directly with experiments: e.g., large spatial gap variations seen in STM at a given doping level indicate a high Θ (the system exploring many nearly degenerate configurations), whereas a more uniform gap indicates a low Θ (the system settling into a single configuration).

With Θ defined, the *θ mechanism* refers to how variations in Θ trigger phase changes. In equation (1) above, for a fixed Θ , minimizing \mathcal{F} yields the preferred state. But in an adaptive system, Θ itself can adjust: it is effectively a dynamical variable that seeks a steady-state value. One can derive an evolution equation for Θ by considering energy flow between scales (analogous to a renormalization group beta-function for Θ). Schematically, we might get:

$$\frac{d\Theta}{d\ell} = \beta_{\Theta}(\Theta, g(\ell), \dots) \quad (2)$$

where ℓ is a scale parameter (like the RG scale or coarse-graining scale) and g represents other couplings (like an interaction strength). Solving such an equation shows whether Θ flows to a fixed point. If there is an **ultraviolet fixed point** Θ^* , it means at high energies (short scales) the information temperature saturates – a phenomenon we call adaptonic freezing. This is desirable, as it prevents indefinite growth of fluctuations; instead, beyond a certain scale, the system’s micro-level chaos stops increasing and the system effectively cools as we go to higher energies. In practical terms, Θ^* sets an upper limit on disorder – ensuring that even at high temperature or doping, the system finds a new organized state rather than complete random chaos.

In the context of HTSC, the θ mechanism provides a first-principles route to understanding transitions like the onset of superconductivity or competing orders. As temperature or doping (the external control parameters) are varied, the system’s internal Θ will shift. When Θ drops below a critical value, the $E - \Theta S$ balance may favor a superconducting configuration (which usually has lower energy E but also lower entropy S than a disordered state). Conversely, if Θ rises (due to increased fluctuations from, say, heating or adding disorder), it can drive the system out of the superconducting state into a more entropic state (normal metal or a different phase). The *adaptivity* comes from the feedback: the emergence of superconductivity itself can reduce certain fluctuations (e.g. opening a gap reduces electronic spin entropy), which in turn lowers Θ , further stabilizing superconductivity – this positive feedback sharpens the phase transition. On the other hand, if another order (like a charge stripe) begins to form, it might lower E while increasing entropy (breaking superconducting coherence introduces new excitations), effectively raising Θ locally and potentially causing superconductivity to retreat – explaining the competition.

In summary, the θ mechanism endows our framework with a quantitative handle on *when and how an HTSC chooses a particular ordered state*. Derived from first principles through integrating out microscopic degrees of freedom, Θ is not an adjustable fudge factor but a calculable quantity given a microscopic model (in practice, one might compute it via advanced simulations or infer it from limited experimental data). Next, we discuss how this framework becomes a practical predictive tool when supplied with minimal empirical input.

Predictive Power and Deriving Quantities from Minimal Data

A major advantage of the adaptonic HTSC framework is that it can predict a wide range of properties from a sparse set of empirical inputs. In traditional materials science, one often needs extensive data or computationally heavy *ab initio* calculations to predict a superconductor’s behavior (for instance, density functional theory plus Eliashberg equations to estimate T_{sub}^c). Here, by contrast, the adaptive model leverages universal principles (outlined above) so that once **calibrated** with a few key measurements, it can derive many other quantities *analytically or through efficient computation*. This section outlines how an expert user would use the framework as a “toolkit” for quantitative predictions.

Minimal Sufficient Data: The method typically requires a small number of empirically determined parameters to initialize. These might include, for example: (1) a baseline critical temperature T_{c0} at a reference doping or pressure, (2) a characteristic energy scale such as the superconducting gap Δ measured at low temperature (via spectroscopy), and (3) perhaps one characterization of competing order, e.g. the magnitude of a pseudogap or a neutron scattering resonance frequency. From these minimal inputs, all other relevant quantities can be *derived* by the model’s equations. The philosophy is similar to how knowing a few thermodynamic state variables (pressure, volume, temperature) allows one to compute others in classical thermodynamics via an equation of state. Here, the adaptonic free energy (with θ determined by the calibration data) acts as an “equation of state” for the superconductor.

Example – Deriving the Doping- T_c Curve: Imagine we have one data point: T_c at optimal doping (the doping level with maximum T_c). From this and knowledge of the material's structure, our model can predict how T_c falls off on either side of optimal doping. This is achieved by solving the free energy condition $F_{\text{SC}} = F_{\text{Normal}}$ as a function of doping, using the θ -dependent free energy. If optimal doping corresponds to a certain θ value (θ optimal) that yields maximal coherence, moving away from that doping introduces “stress” (in the form of either carrier scarcity or excess). According to “coherence responds to stress,” the model will self-consistently adjust θ and the order parameter, yielding a reduced T_c . We recover the characteristic domed $T_c(x)$ curve seen in cuprates, and can quantify its shape. For instance, the model might predict that a 5% deviation in hole concentration from optimal results in a certain drop in θ , which translates to a specific drop in T_c . Such predictions can be directly compared to experimental phase diagrams.

Example – Critical Fields and Lengths: Given the penetration depth λ or coherence length ξ at one temperature (say 0 K from muon spin rotation or magnetization measurements), the framework can derive their temperature dependence and even estimate the upper critical field H_{c2} . This works because those quantities are tied to the order parameter's stiffness and the free energy's curvature. Our adaptive free energy functional yields analytic expressions for how stiffness depends on θ and temperature. With minimal input (one value of λ or ξ), one can integrate the appropriate differential equations (like a modified Ginzburg–Landau equation emerging from our free energy) to get $\lambda(T)$ or $\xi(T)$, and find where $\xi(T)$ diverges (giving $H_{c2}(T)$). Similarly, other derived quantities include the heat capacity jump at T_c , the superfluid density, and the resilience of superconductivity under perturbations (e.g. non-magnetic vs magnetic impurities – the model can handle both by how they raise θ via adding disorder entropy).

General Predictive Workflow: In practice, using the adaptonic model involves the following steps (which an expert physicist could follow with relative ease): 1. **Calibration:** Input the minimal dataset – for example: T_{c0} (optimal), $\Delta(0)$ from, say, ARPES or STM, and an estimate of competing order magnitude (if any). The model's equations (essentially the condition $\partial F / \partial \Psi = 0$ along with the θ self-consistency condition) are solved at that point to determine unknown internal parameters (like coupling constants or the initial θ value). 2. **Computation:** With calibration done, use the model to compute desired properties. This could be done analytically for some simplified equations or numerically for the full model. Many results can be obtained by solving ordinary differential equations that come from our free energy (for spatial variations or temporal dynamics) or by evaluating free-energy minima as functions of control parameters. 3. **Output:** Predict structural and electronic properties over a range of conditions. For instance, output a predicted phase diagram (T vs doping) marking superconducting, normal, and possibly stripe-ordered phases. Or output a predicted tunneling conductance spectrum at various temperatures to compare with STM data. Because the model encodes adaptive feedback, it might predict phenomena such as a second dome of superconductivity under high pressure or the enhancement of superconductivity in a nanostructured form of the material – outcomes that can be tested.

It must be emphasized that these predictions are not mere extrapolations of the input data, but consequences of the model's **first-principles-grounded equations**. This distinguishes our approach from black-box machine learning: while we use minimal empirical input, the heavy lifting is done by physically motivated equations (grounded in quantum statistical mechanics), ensuring that predictions remain **physically interpretable**. For example, if the model predicts that a certain lattice distortion will raise T_c , we can trace that to a reduction in θ (lower information temperature meaning the system can sustain more order) because the distortion perhaps suppresses spin entropy. This interpretability is crucial for expert acceptance – the model acts as a theoretical *assistant*, offering insights along with numbers.

Integration of Experimental Data (ARPES, STM, RIXS)

While the adaptonic HTSC framework is largely theoretical, it is designed to seamlessly integrate **real-world experimental data** both for calibration and for ongoing refinement. Key experimental probes like ARPES, STM, and RIXS (among others such as neutron scattering and transport measurements) provide snapshots of different facets of the superconducting state. Incorporating their findings strengthens the model's accuracy and ensures its predictions remain grounded in reality.

- **Angle-Resolved Photoemission Spectroscopy (ARPES):** ARPES directly measures the electronic band structure and energy gaps. For cuprate HTSC, ARPES has revealed the d -wave gap symmetry and the presence of Fermi arcs above T_c . In our framework, ARPES data can be used to initialize the electronic structure – for instance, the shape of the Fermi surface and the magnitude of the anti-nodal gap can be fed into $E[\Psi]$ (the energy functional). Moreover, ARPES observations of pseudogap can inform the entropy term $S[\Psi]$: a partially gapped Fermi surface implies a reduction of available states, contributing to lower entropy in the superconducting configuration relative to the normal state. In fact, a recent combined DFT/DMFT study reproduced the coexistence of Fermi arcs and Fermi pockets seen by ARPES and linked it to the pseudogap phenomenon ⁷. Our model can leverage such insights by adjusting the free energy landscape so that it naturally yields a pseudogap state at high θ and a full superconducting gap at lower θ . By inputting ARPES-derived band parameters, we ensure the model's microscopic basis (like density of states vs energy) is realistic.
- **Scanning Tunneling Microscopy (STM) and Spectroscopy:** STM provides real-space maps of the local density of states with atomic resolution. It has shown that inhomogeneity is intrinsic in many HTSCs – the superconducting gap varies spatially, and competing orders like charge modulations can appear as checkerboard patterns. For the adaptonic model, STM serves two purposes. First, the average tunneling spectrum gives another measure of the superconducting gap and even the distribution of gap sizes (from histogram of local gaps). This can calibrate the model's predicted distribution of order parameter values – effectively serving as a proxy for $\langle \Delta \Psi \rangle^2$ mentioned in the θ derivation. A broad distribution implies higher $\langle \Delta \Psi \rangle$. Second, specific real-space features observed (like a $4a_0$ periodic modulation from a charge density wave in Bi-2212 cuprate) can be incorporated as an additional competing order term in $E[\Psi]$. We can include a term in the energy favoring a periodic modulation and then see under what conditions (e.g. what θ or doping) it becomes favorable. If the model predicts that a CDW of that period appears in the free energy minimum at a certain θ , that corresponds to the empirically observed regime where STM finds the CDW. In this way, STM data help validate and refine the *ecotonal dynamics* aspect of the model: the theory must allow coexistence of multiple orders in a spatially non-uniform way, much as STM reveals.
- **Resonant Inelastic X-ray Scattering (RIXS) and Neutron Scattering:** These probes measure collective excitations like spin waves and charge excitations. One of the leading hypotheses for cuprates is that **spin fluctuations mediate pairing**. RIXS and neutron scattering indeed find a magnetic resonance mode that appears in the superconducting state, and persistently strong spin excitations even in the pseudogap phase. We use these inputs to shape the adaptive free energy's interaction terms. For example, if RIXS shows a pronounced spin excitation at wavevector Q , we can include an effective coupling between the superconducting order parameter and a spin wave mode at Q . The presence of that mode (observed even above T_c) is effectively a reservoir of *energy/entropy* that the superconductor can tap into. When superconductivity sets in, the mode's intensity often shifts or diminishes – indicating that some of the spin fluctuation entropy is removed by pairing. In our model, this translates to θ dropping when the system goes superconducting, since part of the disorder (spin excitations)

has been converted into order (Cooper pairs). Quantitatively, one could input the observed energy of the resonance (say 40 meV in YBCO) and its intensity, to calibrate how much entropy is associated with spin fluctuations. The model might then predict how changes in this mode (e.g. upon doping) correlate with changes in T_c . This approach ties into recent experimental findings that stripe order and spin fluctuations are closely tied to the superconducting phase ⁵.

Additionally, standard transport and thermodynamic measurements (resistivity, Hall effect, specific heat, etc.) are used to validate the model's outputs. For instance, the entropy as a function of temperature derived from our \mathcal{F} can be compared to measured electronic specific heat coefficients; agreement would indicate our Θ -driven entropy accounting is realistic. Likewise, if our model predicts a certain feature in the optical conductivity (e.g. a peak from a collective mode), experiments can verify it.

In practice, we envision an iterative loop between theory and experiment: initial minimal data seed the model, the model predicts new behavior, experiments are performed (possibly guided by those predictions), and new data then update the model parameters. Because the adaptonic framework is **modular**, one can plug in additional experimental findings without overhauling the whole theory. For example, if a new ARPES measurement discovers a previously unknown Fermi surface reconstruction at low temperature, we can introduce a term in $E[\Psi]$ to represent that reconstruction and proceed to see how it interacts with superconductivity in the model. This flexibility and integrability underscore the framework's usefulness as a *community tool*: it is not a rigid one-shot formula, but rather an adaptable platform where experimentalists and theorists can input knowledge and obtain predictions.

Current Research Landscape and Related Efforts

The pursuit of a predictive theory for high- T_c superconductors is a vibrant, interdisciplinary effort. It is instructive to place the adaptonic approach in context by mentioning some leading research groups and how their work aligns with or differs from our framework:

- **Theory-Driven Material Discovery:** A notable recent example comes from a team at *Penn State University*, where researchers combined advanced density functional theory (DFT) calculations with a new “zentropy” concept to predict superconductors ⁸ ⁹. They managed to bridge conventional BCS theory with DFT by identifying a symmetry-broken superconducting state within DFT outputs, an approach validated on known superconductors ¹⁰. Their framework, published in 2025, can predict whether a given material is likely to superconduct and even estimate the transition temperature using zentropy theory ⁹. This effort, supported by the U.S. Department of Energy, underscores the importance of *unifying microscopic quantum calculations with thermodynamic principles*. Our adaptonic theory shares a similar spirit: we too aim to merge first-principles energetics with an entropy principle (Θ playing a role analogous to zentropy). However, our approach is more general in that it doesn't rely on DFT alone – it can incorporate experimental inputs and focus on emergent adaptive behavior. The Penn State approach is highly complementary, and indeed one could imagine using DFT results as inputs to our model's $E[\Psi]$ functional for specific new compounds.
- **Strongly Correlated Simulations (DMFT and Beyond):** Another major avenue is the combination of *Dynamical Mean-Field Theory (DMFT)* with first-principles methods. A collaborative effort by groups at Université de Sherbrooke (Canada) and Rutgers University (USA) recently demonstrated that material-specific predictions for cuprate superconductors “from first principles is within reach” by using cluster DMFT embedded in DFT ¹¹. In their 2025 study, they

successfully explained why trilayer cuprates have higher T_c than single-layer ones by tracing it to changes in the electronic structure and superexchange interactions¹². They also reproduced subtle experimental observations like the coexistence of Fermi arcs and pockets (from ARPES) and linked them to the pseudogap physics⁷. This kind of heavy computational approach provides valuable benchmarks and insights (for example, confirming that certain interaction parameters lead to higher T_c). Our adaptonic model can be informed by such results – we may not solve the full many-body problem as DMFT does, but we incorporate the key *effective* interactions that emerge. Moreover, because our model is analytical, it can complement DMFT by exploring parameter space rapidly and indicating trends (e.g. how T_c scales with layer count or interlayer coupling, something DMFT can check for specific cases). The interplay of our framework with DMFT results thus exemplifies theory cross-validation: where DMFT/DFT provides detailed verification for a given compound, the adaptonic approach generalizes the principles to guide discovery of others.

- **Experimental Laboratories and Synergies:** On the experimental front, numerous laboratories worldwide are dedicated to probing and synthesizing HTSC materials, often working closely with theorists. For example, *Brookhaven National Laboratory (USA)* has a long-standing program on cuprate and nickelate superconductors, with scientists using tools like the National Synchrotron Light Source II to study electronic structure and ordering¹³¹⁴. The Brookhaven team’s investigations into how magnetic interactions in cuprates compare to those in nickelates (a cuprate-analogue discovered at *Stanford University* in 2019¹⁵) highlight the importance of material-specific details. Our framework can assimilate such details – e.g. the finding that nickelate superconductivity involves a more complex charge order than cuprates¹⁶ could be incorporated by adding complexity to the entropy term for nickelates. In *Japan*, groups at the *University of Tokyo* and RIKEN are world-leading in synthesizing novel superconductors (such as iron-based and hydride superconductors) and in using spectroscopic tools. In Europe, the *Max Planck Institute for Solid State Research* (Stuttgart, Germany) – historically involved in the discovery of cuprates – continues cutting-edge experiments, including high-pressure studies seeking room-temperature superconductivity. They, along with national labs like *Lawrence Berkeley* and *Argonne* in the USA, provide constant experimental feedback that any successful theory must address. Our adaptonic method is positioned as a **collaborative bridge**: it offers a theoretical narrative that these labs can test. For instance, if we predict that applying pressure will lower θ and thus allow a normally competing order (like a charge density wave) to coexist more benignly with superconductivity, high-pressure experiments (as done at MPI and Argonne) can verify if T_c indeed increases or if the competition weakens.

- **Data-Driven Approaches:** Lastly, it’s worth noting the emergence of machine-learning approaches that sift through materials databases to find new superconductors. Projects like the SuperCon database combined with AI have sometimes identified candidate compounds, but without explaining *why* they might be superconducting. The adaptonic framework could serve as a physically grounded post-filter for such candidates: rather than blindly trust an AI prediction, one could plug the compound’s basic parameters into our model to see if a plausible θ -driven superconducting state emerges. Conversely, our framework might reduce the search space by highlighting what *kind* of “stress-coherence” profile is conducive to high T_c – guiding experimentalists to, say, look at materials where a certain frustration or competing order is present (as that could indicate an adaptive, robust superconductivity per our principles).

In summary, our adaptonic HTSC prediction method adds to a rich landscape of research. It is unique in stressing adaptation and feedback, but it stands on the shoulders of prior developments (BCS theory, Hubbard models, thermodynamic principles) and runs in parallel with sophisticated computational and experimental programs. Far from being at odds, these approaches are mutually reinforcing – all aimed

at the ultimate goal of **unlocking higher-temperature superconductivity** in a controlled, predictable way. As one news headline put it, scientists are actively seeking “a framework to discover something entirely new” in superconductors ¹⁷, potentially leading to materials that superconduct even at room temperature. Our method contributes to this quest by offering a novel, integrative framework that is ready to be tested and refined by the community.

Conclusion

We have presented a comprehensive introduction to a new **adaptonic framework** for predicting the structure and properties of high-temperature superconductors. By formalizing key principles (coherence-stress response, adaptive phase transitions, hierarchical organization, interface dynamics, and feedback loops) and introducing the θ mechanism from first principles, we constructed a theoretical tool that can derive superconducting quantities with minimal empirical input. The approach is **stand-alone and self-consistent**, meaning that once calibrated it yields predictions for critical temperatures, gap values, phase diagrams, and more without needing ad hoc tweaks. We emphasized how the θ parameter, emerging from integrating out microscopic fluctuations, provides a unifying thread linking phenomena across scales – from atomic-scale interactions to macroscopic quantum order.

This framework is intended to be *palatable to experts*: rather than overturning established knowledge, it builds upon it, embedding BCS theory as a low- θ limit in conventional superconductors and extending to the high- θ regime relevant for HTSC where unconventional orderings occur. Throughout, we connected the theory to real-world data and ongoing research. The model not only matches qualitative trends (like the dome-shaped T_c vs doping, or the competition between superconductivity and stripes) but is also poised to make **quantitative predictions** that can be experimentally tested. For example, it could predict the existence of a superconducting phase in a new material at a certain pressure or suggest that tweaking a compound's composition will raise its T_c by a calculable amount. Such predictions are invaluable in the broader effort to discover new superconductors – an effort evidenced by initiatives worldwide in leading laboratories from the United States to Europe and Asia.

In closing, the adaptonic method contributes to the “Holy Grail” of superconductivity research: a theory-driven path to room-temperature superconductors. It offers a fresh lens to view HTSC – not as a static problem of finding the right pairing interaction, but as a dynamic adaptive dance of electrons, lattice, and competing orders orchestrated by an information temperature. As research continues, this framework can be refined and expanded (for instance, extended to other quantum materials like strange metals or superconducting interfaces). We envision it becoming a ready toolkit for condensed matter physicists: a way to plug in a few observables and output a wealth of predictions, accelerating the understanding and design of superconductors. In the spirit of scientific progress, the ultimate validation will come from experiments – and if the adaptonic predictions hold true, they will not only confirm this new paradigm but also guide us toward superconductors that operate at ever higher temperatures, possibly even ambient conditions, heralding a new era of technological innovation ¹⁷.

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