Imaging the energy gap modulations of the cuprate pair-density-wave state

The exact nature of the cuprate pseudogap state has been the focus of extensive research as a route to understanding high-temperature superconductivity. Attention has recently focused on a pair-density-wave (PDW) state as a leading candidate to be the fundamental order parameter that characterizes the pseudogap. This was originally motivated by transport studies, which led to the hypothesis of 'stripe superconductivity', in which the superconducting order parameter is spatially modulated and thus a PDW. Equally, the highly unusual superconductivity in Bi2Sr2CaCu2O8+δ can be explained relatively simply by the formation of a PDW state. Indeed, a wide variety of microscopic theories based on strong, local electron–electron interactions now envisage a copper oxide (cuprate) PDW state, while experimental evidence for its existence is rapidly emerging from multiple techniques.

Characteristics of single-electron tunnelling of the PDW state

Here we focus on the challenge of detecting the cuprate PDW state using single-electron tunnelling. First, we consider a PDW, whose spatially dependent energy gap is \( \Delta(r) = F_0 \Delta_Q e^{(Qr}) + e^{-|Qr|} \), where \( \Delta_Q \) is the amplitude of gap modulations at wavevector \( Q \), \( r \) is a position and \( F_0 \) is the form factor with either \( s \)- or \( d \)-symmetry. The most obvious and immediate prediction is that the single-electron tunnelling should detect a gap in the density-of-states spectrum \( N(E) \) (where \( E \) is energy), which modulates at \( Q \). It is striking, therefore, that no such modulating \( \Delta(r) \) has ever been observed in the cuprates. Second, if such a PDW coexists with \( d \)-wave superconductivity (SC), whose homogeneous gap is \( \Delta^{d}(r) = F_sc \), where \( F_sc \) exhibits \( d \)-symmetry, then Ginzburg–Landau theory predicts the form of \( N(r,E) \) modulations generated by the interaction between the PDW \( \Delta(r) \) and the superconducting \( \Delta^{d}(r) \). These modulations are identifiable from products of these two order parameters that transform as density-like quantities. Thus, considering the product of the PDW and SC order parameters, \( \Delta_Q \Delta^{d} \) predicts \( N(r) \sim \cos(Q \cdot r) \) modulations at the PDW wavevector \( Q \), while the product of a PDW with itself \( \Delta_Q \Delta_Q^{d} \) predicts \( N(r) \sim \cos(2Q \cdot r) \) at twice the PDW wavevector. Therefore, a second unique signature of a PDW with wavevector \( Q \) in the superconducting cuprates would be the coexistence of two sets of \( N(r,E) \) modulations at \( Q \) and \( 2Q \). Finally, a topological defect with \( 2\pi \) phase winding in the induced density wave \( N(r) \sim \cos(2Q \cdot r) \) is predicted to generate a local phase winding of \( \pi \) in the PDW order, at a half-vortex (Fig. 1a). This is the topological signature of a PDW coexisting with homogeneous SC. Experimental detection of these phenomena in single-electron tunnelling would constitute compelling evidence for the PDW state.

To explore these predictions, we use spectroscopic imaging scanning tunnelling microscopy with a Bi2Sr2CaCu2O8+δ nanoflake tip to visualize the single-electron tunnelling. Utilization of the superconducting tip enhances the energy resolution due to the
convolution of spectra that sharply peak at the superconducting gap edge, in the density of states $N(r)$ of the tip and $N(r, E)$ of the sample. Thus, energy sensitivity to modulations in $\Delta(r)$ should be enhanced with this superconductor–insulator–superconductor (SIS) tunnelling technique. To enable detection of the gap modulation, a bulk single-crystal sample of Bi$_2$Sr$_2$CaCu$_2$O$_{8+\delta}$ at the hole density $p = 0.17 \pm 0.01$ (the error approximately corresponds to a transition width) and superconducting transition temperature $T_c = 91$ K is cleaved at room temperature under ultrahigh vacuum conditions ($3 \times 10^{-6}$ torr) and then inserted into the cryogenic STM head. The superconductive tip is created by picking up a nanometre-scale Bi$_2$Sr$_2$CaCu$_2$O$_{8+\delta}$ nanoflake from the sample to form the SIS junction. The SI-STM measurements throughout this study are then all performed using such SIS junctions at $T = 9$ K. A typical SIS topography is shown in Fig. 1b for a 40 nm × 40 nm field of view (FOV). The individual Bi atoms in the BiO plane with subatomic resolution are resolved as shown in the inset. The CuO$_2$ plane exists about 6 Å below the BiO plane.

**Direct visualization of the periodic energy gap modulations**

Differential SIS conductance spectra $g(r, E) = dI/dV(r, E = eV)$, where $I$ is the tunnelling current, $V$ is the bias voltage and $e$ is the elementary charge are then measured as a function of position in this FOV for the energy range from $-150$ meV to $+150$ meV. A typical such spatially averaged $g(r, E)$ spectrum is shown in red in Fig. 1c, together with a normal–insulator–superconductor metal (NIS) spectrum performed earlier on the same sample but in a different FOV. The SIS $g(r, E)$ spectrum, being a convolution of the tip $N(r)$ and sample $N(E)$ demonstrates enhanced energy resolution as expected (red in Fig. 1c). Here, as the spatially averaged NIS $g(r, E)$ spectrum peaks at ±37 meV, we estimate the average gap value on the Bi$_2$Sr$_2$CaCu$_2$O$_{8+\delta}$ nanoflake tip, $\Delta_t$, to be about 29 meV.

Next, by measuring half the magnitude of the energy that separates the SIS spectrum peaks at every location, and then subtracting $\Delta_r$, we determine the local gap energy map $\Delta(r)$ in the sample. A typical example is shown in Fig. 2a. Figure 2b shows the magnitude of the power-spectral-density Fourier transform $\Delta(q)$ of $\Delta(r)$ from Fig. 2a, where $q$ is a wavevector. Equivalent results have been achieved using SIS tunnelling with three different Bi$_2$Sr$_2$CaCu$_2$O$_{8+\delta}$ nanoflake tips, on three different samples and with two different STMs (Methods section ‘Motivation of searches for a PDW signature in $\Delta(r)$’). In Fig. 2b, $q_{\text{PDW}}$ corresponds to a wavevector of the crystal-structure supermodulation. This supermodulation does indeed produce a type of PDW detectable...
by its energy gap modulations; but this PDW is trivial, occurring due to modulation of the crystal unit-cell dimensions (Methods section 'Effect of structural supermodulation on measured Δ(r)' ). Second, there is a very broad peak in Δ(q) surrounding q = 0 due to the well known random energy-gap disorder of Bi2Sr2CaCu2O8+ . This is equivalent to the broad range of gap values in the histogram inset to Fig. 2a. Finally, there are four distinct local maxima in Δ(q) at the points indicated by black solid dots surrounding q = (0, ±0.125) and q = ±(0.125, 0)/(2n/a0), where a0 is the periodicity.

These features indicate that there is a strong, if disordered, modulation in Δ(r), running parallel to the Cu–O–Cu bonds of the CuO2 plane. This modulation exists on top of a non-periodic energy gap of about 37 meV. It exhibits well defined peaks at Qy = (2n/a0)(1/8, 0) and Qx = (2n/a0)(0, 1/8) meaning that Δ(r) is modulating with about 8a0 periodicity along both axes. Such a variation in Δ(r) can be seen directly in a series of SIS g(r, E) spectra, extracted along the line in Fig. 2a and shown in Fig. 2c. Here we see a local demonstration of the energy of maximum N(r) (that is, of the coherence peak) modulating at about 8a0 periodicity in a particle–hole symmetric fashion with an amplitude of approximately 6 meV. More fundamentally, line profiles from Δ(q) in Fig. 2b are plotted in Fig. 2d for both directions. The two well defined peaks in Fig. 2d characterize a PDW with wavevectors Qy = (0.129 ± 0.003, 0) and Qx = (2n/a0)(0, 0.118 ± 0.003). This is an observation of coherent modulation in the superconducting energy gap Δ(r), and is precisely what is expected for a PDW state. Moreover, it reveals directly that the cuprate PDW occurs at wavevectors Q = (2n/a0)(1/8, 0) and Q = (2n/a0)(0, 1/8).

### Relationship to PDW visualization using scanned Josephson tunnelling microscopy

Using the same Bi2Sr2CaCu2O8+ nanoflake tip technology, on samples at the same doping as herein but operating at millikelvin temperatures, the magnitude of the Josephson current |I(r)| is found to modulate with a wavelength of about 4a0. Thus, modulations of |I(r)| and of Δ(r) are both detectable when using nanoflake tips that are extracted from the same crystal that is being studied, and are likely in the same coexisting SC and PDW state. Because the nanoflake tip is extended, an approximation to planar tunnelling must be considered. Here f from an extended tip to the crystal is composed of two contributions: f1 due to pair tunnelling from c†c to c†c states, and f2 due to pair tunnelling from c†c to c†c states, where c† is an electron creation operator at a momentum k, which are independent of each other when pair momentum is conserved (Methods section 'Independent pair tunnelling process'). In scanned Josephson tunnelling microscopy, the circuitry measures the magnitude of Josephson critical current...
magnitude: \(|J_2^2 = |J_2^1| + |J_2^1|\), for which \(|J_2^1|\) is a roughly constant spatially but \(|J_2^1| \propto |\sin(Q_0 \delta)|\), where \(\delta\) is the spatial displacement between the PDW in the extended tip and the PDW in the sample (Methods section ‘Independent pair tunnelling process’). Under these circumstances, if the PDW has periodicity \(8d_{0}\), its gap modulates with periodicity \(8d_{0}\), but the magnitude of the total Josephson current \(|J_2|\) will have periodicity \(4d_{0}\). This is the specific phenomenology detectable using the Bi\(_{2}\)Sr\(_{2}\)Ca\(_{2}\)O\(_{7}\) nanoflake tips for SIS spectroscopy and to measure the magnitude of Josephson critical currents\(^6\), respectively. Furthermore, enhanced sensitivity to the basic energy modulations when using SIS spectroscopy is consistent with a ‘lock-in’ effect from a PDW state in the nanoflake tip (Methods section ‘Effect of \(\Delta(r)\) on nanoflake’).

**Detection of two unidirectional PDWs within distinct nanoscale domains**

Next, to explore the unidirectionality of \(\Delta(r)\), we employ a two-dimensional lock-in technique to determine the amplitude and phase of the modulations\(^7\). Thus

\[
A_{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{r}) = \int d\mathbf{R} A(\mathbf{R}) e^{i\mathbf{Q} \cdot \mathbf{R}} e^{-\frac{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}|^2}{2a^2}}
\]

\[
|A_{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{r})| = \sqrt{\text{Re} A_{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{r})^2 + \text{Im} A_{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{r})^2}
\]

\[
\Phi_{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{r}) = \tan^{-1} \frac{\text{Im} A_{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{r})}{\text{Re} A_{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{r})}
\]

where \(A(\mathbf{r})\) represents any arbitrary real space image, \(\mathbf{Q}\) the wavevector of interest and \(a\) the averaging length-scale in \(\mathbf{r}\)-space (or equivalently the cut-off length in \(q\)-space). The key ingredients of such an analysis are the amplitude \(|A_{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{r})|\) and the spatial phase \(\Phi_{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{r})\) of modulations at \(\mathbf{Q}\). Using this technique on our \(\Delta(\mathbf{r})\) data, Fig. 3a, b shows the amplitudes of the PDW for the \(x\) and \(y\) directions, \(|A_{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{r})|\), \(|A_{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{r})|\), respectively. The local ‘magnitude’ of PDW unidirectionality is then defined as

\[
F(r) = \frac{|A_{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{r})| - |A_{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{r})|}{|A_{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{r})| + |A_{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{r})|}
\]

When \(F(\mathbf{r}) > 0\), represented in orange, the PDW along the \(x\) direction is dominant, and similarly when \(F(\mathbf{r}) < 0\), represented in blue, the PDW order along the \(y\) direction is dominant. As shown in Fig. 3c, \(F(\mathbf{r})\) is spatially heterogeneous forming a domain structure indicating that the cuprate PDW \(\Delta(\mathbf{r})\) is microscopically unidirectional, with one direction predominant in any particular domain. In addition, it appears that the domain size in orange is much bigger than that of blue within the 40 nm \(\times\) 40 nm FOV, which may indicate a vestigial nematic PDW state, although one cannot be certain without independent knowledge of the shape anisotropy of the nanoflake tip. Overall, these data indicate that the cuprate PDW state is locally strongly unidirectional, and possibly in a vestigial nematic state due to quenched disorder\(^8\).

**How a coexisting PDW and superconductor induce the CDW modulations**

Although the SI-STM technique cannot be used to image a charge density \(\rho(\mathbf{r})\) or any of its modulations, a mapping of \(g(\mathbf{r}, E)\) and its ratio \(Z(\mathbf{r}, E) = g(\mathbf{r}, E) / g(\mathbf{r}, \pm E)\) enables one to study how the related \(N(\mathbf{r}, E)\) modulates. It has been found that the form-factor symmetry for the induced CDW in cuprates exhibits primarily \(d\)-symmetry\(^9\). In that case, the CDW modulation does not appear primarily at \(\mathbf{Q}\) and \(2\mathbf{Q}\) in the Fourier transform of \(g(\mathbf{r}, E)\) or \(Z(\mathbf{r}, E)\). Instead, to detect the \(d\)-symmetry form factor CDW signal at \(\mathbf{Q}\) and \(2\mathbf{Q}\), one must first use the \(d\)-symmetry...
**Fig. 4** The interplay of N(r) and PDW, and the possible half-vortices.  

**a**. The spatial variation of the N(r) amplitude $D^2_{\Delta q}(r)$ obtained by equations (1) and (2). The inset shows an azimuthal angular averaged cross-correlation coefficient as a function of distance.  

**b**. The spatial variation of the $\Delta q$ (r) amplitude obtained by equations (1) and (2).  

**c**. The magnitude of the phase-resolved Fourier transform, $|D^2(q, E = 54 \text{ meV})|$ exhibiting both $Q = (2\pi/a_0)(\pm 1/8, 0)$ and $2Q = (2\pi/a_0)(\pm 1/4, 0)$ and peaks encircled by red broken lines, respectively. Coordinates are in units of $2\pi/a_0$.  

**d**. The line cut of $|D^2(q, E = 54 \text{ meV})|$, in which the Lorentzian background is subtracted, from $(2\pi/a_0)(0,0)$ to $(2\pi/a_0)(\pm 1/4, 0)$, exhibiting well-defined peaks at $Q$ and $2Q$. Data points are fitted by Lorentzians and the obtained peak positions are $(2\pi/a_0)(0.0113 \pm 0.0002)$ and $(2\pi/a_0)(0.241 \pm 0.003)$ for $Q$ and $2Q$, respectively, with the peak widths $(2\pi/a_0)(0.016 \pm 0.004)$ and $(2\pi/a_0)(0.068 \pm 0.006)$ for $Q$ and $2Q$, respectively. **e**. The spatial phase of the $2Q$ N(r) order $\Phi^2_{\Delta q}(r)$ obtained by equation (3). 2\pi topological defects are marked by solid dots. White (black) dots indicate 2\pi phase winding along clockwise (anticlockwise). **f**. The spatial phase of the PDW $\Phi^2_q(r)$. The 2\pi topological defects in $\Phi^2_{\Delta q}(r)$ from **e** are plotted on top of $\Phi^2_q(r)$. The inset shows the distribution of $\Phi^2_q(r)$ values at all the locations where the 2\pi topological defects in $\Phi^2_{\Delta q}(r)$ are found. The blue crosses are the count and the horizontal bars represent the bin size.
sublattice-phase-resolved Fourier analysis (Methods section ‘Sublattice phase-resolved analysis’). For this reason, we apply a phase-resolved visualization of the d-symmetry modulations to our measured $Z(r, E)$ (ref. 2), extracting the value of $Z(r, E)$ at the oxygen sites within each CuO$_2$ unit cell: $O_x^2(r) = Z(r)\delta(r - r_0)$ at $O_x$ and similarly for $O_y^2(r)$ at $O_y$. We then subtract these values throughout the image to yield

$$D^2(r) = O_x^2(r) - O_y^2(r)$$ (5)

In Fig. 4a, b, we show the amplitudes of $|\Delta q(r)|$ and $|\Delta^2 q(r)|$ (at $E = 54$ meV); systematics of the q-space cut-off length used are discussed in Methods section ‘Cut-off dependence’. If we then consider the magnitude of the Fourier transform of $D^2(r, E)$ for $E = 54$ meV where SIS tunnelling has the maximum energy sensitivity (Fig. 1c), a key fact emerges. In the Fourier transform $|\Delta^2(q, 54$ meV)), we find two strong peaks at $Q$ and $2Q$ (Fig. 4c), which are the clearest in these data when presented along the line $(0, 0) - (2n/a_0)(0.4, 0)$ in Fig. 4d (from which a Lorentzian background has been subtracted). This complex density wave structure is the expected signature in $N(r, E)$ modulations of the PDW with wavevector Q coexisting with the homogeneous SC.

We then subtract these values throughout the image to yield

$$D^2(r) = O_x^2(r) - O_y^2(r)$$ (5)

Multiple single-electron signatures of a PDW coexisting with SC

To summarize, use of Bi$_2$Sr$_2$CaCu$_2$O$_{8+x}$ nanoflake scanned tips allows the detection of the spatially modulating energy gap $\Delta(r)$ with eight-unit-cell periodicity, or with axial wavevectors $Q = (2n/a_0)(1/8, 0)$ and $Q = (2n/a_0)(0, 1/8)$, in superconducting Bi$_2$Sr$_2$CaCu$_2$O$_{8+x}$ (Fig. 2). The spatial analysis of the $\Delta(r)$ modulations shows that they are rather unidirectional within nanoscale domains (Fig. 3). Simultaneous density-of-states imaging reveals two pairs of coexisting $N(r, E)$ modulations, at wavevectors $Q = (2n/a_0)(1/8, 0)$ and $Q = (2n/a_0)(0, 1/8)$, and $2Q = (2n/a_0)(1/4, 0)$ and $2Q = (2n/a_0)(0, 1/4)$ (Fig. 4c, d). Finally, the topological defects in the $N(r, E)$ density wave at 2Q are concentrated along the lines where the PDW spatial phase changes by $\pi$ (Fig. 4f). All of these phenomena are canonical signatures of a PDW coexisting with homogeneous SC. Thus, $\Delta(r)$ modulation imaging provides direct spectroscopic evidence of the existence of a PDW, at zero magnetic field in cuprates.

Online content

Any methods, additional references, Nature Research reporting summaries, source data, extended data, supplementary information, acknowledgements, peer review information; details of author contributions and competing interests; and statements of data and code availability are available at https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-020-2143-x.
**Methods**

**Sample preparation and measurement**
High-quality Bi$_2$Sr$_2$CaCu$_2$O$_{8+}$ single crystals were grown by the travelling-solvent floating zone method. Here we measured a sample with hole doping level of $p = 0.17$. The sample, covered by the Kapton tape, was loaded into the load-lock chamber with pressure better than $3 \times 10^{-6}$ torr and quickly inserted into the STM head at $T = 9$ K, after cleavage by removing the Kapton tape.

**Tip preparation and characterization**

The tip isotropy is checked by comparing the height of the Bragg peaks for $x$ and $y$ directions in the Fourier transform $T(\mathbf{q})$ of topographic images using the nanoflake tip $T(\mathbf{r})$. A 40 nm $\times$ 40 nm FOV, $T(\mathbf{r})$ and its real-part Fourier transform $\text{Re} T(\mathbf{q})$ are shown in Extended Data Fig. 1a, b, respectively. Extended Data Fig. 1c shows line profiles of $\text{Re} T(\mathbf{q})$ along the lines in Extended Data Fig. 1b across the Bragg peaks at (1, 0) and (0, 1). Bragg peak heights at (1, 0) and (0, 1) are found to be comparable within 7%.

**Motivation and model for $\Delta(\mathbf{r})$ modulation detection**

**Motivation of searches for a PDW signature in $\Delta(r)$**. Here we discuss preliminary $\Delta(r)$ data, as shown in Extended Data Fig. 4a, c, that motivated and provide reinforcement for the data presented in this study, which is completely independent of them. These data in Extended Data Fig. 4 were acquired with two different Bi$_2$Sr$_2$CaCu$_2$O$_{8+}$ nanoflake tips, on two different samples, using two different SI-STM instruments. Although experimental conditions were not optimized for detection of $\Delta(\mathbf{r})$ modulations in a PDW, the peaks in $\Delta(\mathbf{r})$ at $Q = (0, \pm 0.125)$ and $Q = (0, \pm 0.125)/(2\pi/a_0)$ are weakly visible as marked by dashed white circles in Extended Data Fig. 4b, d. Such data, along with those reported in the main text from an experiment designed and optimized for the purpose, provide the type of experimental evidence available on the existence of $\delta a_n$ modulations in $\Delta(r)$.

**Independent pair tunnelling process.** Here we discuss how the $4a_0$ modulation observed in the magnitude of the Josephson critical current and the $8a_0$ modulation observed in $\Delta(r)$ in the present study may be linked. We consider a simple model for pair tunnelling from a nanoflake Bi$_2$Sr$_2$CaCu$_2$O$_{8+}$ tip that is in the coexisting SC and PDW state, to the parallel surface of a bulk Bi$_2$Sr$_2$CaCu$_2$O$_{8+}$ crystal in the same state (Extended Data Fig. 3). Because the tip is extended and parallel to the surface, the effects of planar tunnelling must be considered. In perfect planar tunnelling, the $c_{1\perp}^{\dagger}c_{k\perp}^{\dagger}$ Cooper pairs of the homogenous SC cannot tunnel into the $c_{1\perp}^{\dagger}c_{k\perp}^{\dagger}$ Cooper pairs of the PDW, because that violates conservation of momentum. In that limit, the Josephson current $I_j$ from a Bi$_2$Sr$_2$CaCu$_2$O$_{8+}$ extended tip to the Bi$_2$Sr$_2$CaCu$_2$O$_{8+}$ crystal is composed of two independent contributions: $I_j^S$ due to pair tunnelling from $c_{1\perp}^{\dagger}c_{1\perp}^{\dagger}$ to $c_{k\perp}^{\dagger}c_{k\perp}^{\dagger}$ states, and $I_j^P$ due to pair tunnelling from $c_{1\perp}^{\dagger}c_{Q\perp}^{\dagger}$ to $c_{1\perp}^{\dagger}c_{Q\perp}^{\dagger}$ states.

Consider two PDW, one in the nanoflake tip $\Psi_1$ and one in the sample $\Psi_2$, with order parameters

$$
\Psi_1 = \Delta_1 e^{i\theta_1} (e^{i(0k+\delta)}) \quad \text{and} \quad \Psi_2 = \Delta_2 e^{i\theta_2} (e^{i(0k+\delta)})
$$

where $x$ is the position and $\theta$ is the phase of the order parameter. The Josephson coupling will be of the form

$$
K(\Psi_1\Psi_2^* + \Psi_2\Psi_1^*) = \cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) \cos(Q\delta)
$$

where $K$ is a constant and $\delta$ is the variable spatial displacement of the tip PDW relative to the sample PDW. In this case, the inter-PDW Josephson current takes the form

$$
I_j^S = \sin(\theta_1 - \theta_2) \sin(Q\delta)
$$

It is the magnitude $|I_j^S|$ that is measured as a function of transverse displacement $\delta$ between nanoflake tip and sample where $Q = 2\pi/\lambda$ and $\lambda$ is the wavelength, and this obviously modulates as $|I_j^S| = \sin(Q\delta)$ or with a periodicity of $\lambda/2$.

Our previous studies using scanned Josephson tunnelling actually measured the magnitude of the Josephson current $|I_j^S|$. Thus, if $I_j^S$ and $I_j^P$ are independent, then $|I_j^S| = |I_j^P|$. Assuming that $|I_j^S|$ is roughly constant spatially, then $|I_j^S| = \sin(Q\delta)$, where $\delta$ is the transverse displacement between the PDW in the extended tip and the PDW in the sample. Therefore, in this model for our experiment, if the PDW has true periodicity $8a_0$, then its gap modulation $\Delta(r)$ will necessarily have periodicity $4a_0$, but, critically, the modulations in magnitude of the total Josephson current $|I_j|$ will have periodicity $4a_0$.

Note that if there are two strictly independent unidirectional PDWs with wavevectors $\mathbf{Q}_1$ and $\mathbf{Q}_2$, and Cooper pair momentum of each is conserved, then the $\mathbf{Q}_1$ PDW cannot tunnel to the $\mathbf{Q}_2$ PDW and vice versa. This would pose a challenge to the above analysis. However, if the PDW state in the tip is somewhat biaxial (for example, ref. 33), then this analysis would retain validity.

**Effect of structural supermodulation on measured $\Delta(r)$.** One might ask whether there is an effect of the crystal supermodulation with $\mathbf{Q}_n = (1, 1)/2\pi/a_0$ that produces an energy gap modulation at its wavevector, on our measured $\Delta(r)$. As we reported in ref. 3, we observed the modulations both in $\Delta(r)$ and the Josephson critical current at $Q_{n=1}$. However, this is a trivial effect and its wavevector is at 45° degrees off the Cu–O–Cu direction. Most importantly, a spatial convolution between the tip and sample of their modulating $\Delta(r)$ at $Q_{n=1}$ cannot produce any additional modulations at different wavevectors. Thus, the effect of structural supermodulation does not produce any other gap modulation signals, especially at $Q = (0, \pm 0.125)$ and $Q = (0, \pm 0.125)/(2\pi/a_0)$.

**Effect of $\Delta(r)$ on nanoflake.** Here we discuss how $\Delta(r)$ modulation detection is enhanced in Bi$_2$Sr$_2$CaCu$_2$O$_{8+}$ nanoflake SIS tunneling. Here the measured $\Delta(r)$ can be regarded as a consequence of a spatial convolution between the sample and nanoflake PDW order parameters. The nanoflake is most likely in the same PDW state as it is picked up from the same sample. Thus, the order parameter on the nanoflake is approximated in a form of $\Delta_{\text{nanoflake}} = \exp(\mathbf{Q}_r \cdot \mathbf{r}) \exp\left(\frac{-1}{2\pi a_0}\right)$, where the exponential term is approximated to represent a nanoflake structure factor with size of nanoflake (about 3 nm, see Extended Data Fig. 2). This acts as a low-pass filter in the convolution between gap modulations at the same wavevector $\mathbf{Q}_r$ in the tip and in the sample. Such a convolution effect naturally works as a ‘lock-in’, mitigating the signals unrelated to the gap modulation wavevector $\mathbf{Q}_r$. This process makes the signal of $\Delta(r)$ modulation detectable.

**Data analysis**

**Sublattice phase-resolved analysis.** To reveal any possible local-density-of-states $\text{Ni}(\mathbf{r},E)$ modulations, we analyse differential conductance $g(\mathbf{r},E)$ to yield $Z(\mathbf{r},E) = g(\mathbf{r},E)/g(\mathbf{r},-E)$ (Extended Data Fig. 5 and ref. 26). Intensities at oxygen sites $\rho_0$ and $\rho_2$ are extracted separately from $Z(\mathbf{r},E = 54$ meV) and used to form two new maps, $O_0^2(\mathbf{r},E = 54$ meV) and $O_2^2(\mathbf{r},E = 54$ meV) respectively. We then calculate each sublattice-phase-resolved $Z(\mathbf{r},E)$ image and separate it into three: the first, $\text{Cu}_1$, contains only the measured values of $Z(\mathbf{r})$ at Cu sites while the other two, $O_1(\mathbf{r})$ and $O_2(\mathbf{r})$, contain only the measurements at the $x$–$y$–axis oxygen sites.

Phase-resolved Fourier transforms of the $O_1(\mathbf{r})$ and $O_2(\mathbf{r})$ sublattice images $\tilde{O}_1(\mathbf{q}) = \tilde{O}(\mathbf{q}) + i\tilde{m}(\mathbf{q})$; $\tilde{O}_2(\mathbf{q}) = \tilde{O}(\mathbf{q}) + i\tilde{m}(\mathbf{q})$, are used to determine the form factor symmetry for modulations at any $\mathbf{q}$

$$
\tilde{D}(\mathbf{q}) = (\tilde{O}_1(\mathbf{q}) - \tilde{O}_2(\mathbf{q}))/2
$$

$$
\tilde{S}(\mathbf{q}) = (\tilde{O}_2(\mathbf{q}) + \tilde{O}_1(\mathbf{q}))/2
$$
\[ S^2(q) = Cu(q) \]

Specifically, for a density wave occurring at \( q \), one can then evaluate the magnitude of its \( d \)-symmetry form factor \( D(q) \) and its \( s \)- and \( s \)'-symmetry form factors \( \tilde{S}^s(q) \) and \( \tilde{S}(q) \), respectively. In terms of the segregated sublattices, a \( d \)-form factor density wave is one for which the density wave on the \( O_1 \) sites is in antiphase with that on the \( O_2 \) sites. Studies of electronic structure in underdoped \( \text{Bi}_2\text{Sr}_2\text{CaCu}_2\text{O}_8+\delta \) and \( \text{Ca}_2\text{Na}_{0.67}\text{CuO}_{2}\text{Cl}_1 \) consistently exhibit a relative phase of \( \pi \) and therefore a \( d \)-symmetry form factor.

Hence the peaks at \( \pm \Omega \) and \( \pm \Omega_N \), present in both \( \tilde{S}^s(q) \) and \( \tilde{S}(q) \) must cancel exactly in \( \tilde{D}(q) + \tilde{D}(q) \). Therefore, if a density wave at \( q \) and \( 2Q \) has predominantly \( d \)-symmetry form factor, there is no detectable signal in \( g(r, E) \) or \( Z(r, E) \) at \( q \) and \( 2Q \), and why the \( d \)-symmetry Fourier transform \( D(q, E) \) are used in these studies. Specifically, by calculating \( D(q, E) = \text{FFT}(\tilde{D}(q, E)) \) one correctly extracts the \( d \)-symmetry density wave modulations that are occurring at \( q \) and \( 2Q \).

**Cut-off dependence.** Here we show how the images shown in Fig. 4 evolve as a function of cut-off length used in the two-dimensional lock-in technique. In Extended Data Fig. 6, both \( D_{2Q}(r, 54 \text{ meV}) \) and \( D_{Q_N}(r) \) are shown at different real-space cut-off lengths: 8, 16, 24, 32 and 40 Å. In the left column, we can see a big change between 8 and 16 Å in the spatial structure of \( D_{2Q}(r) \) as oscillatory components are vanished, while \( D_{2Q}(r) \) at 16, 24, 32 and 40 Å are virtually identical. For \( D_{Q_N}(r) \) in the right column in Extended Data Fig. 6, the oscillatory components are gone between 16 and 24 Å. Thus, the cut-off lengths used in Fig. 3, 16 and 40 Å, do not introduce erroneous oscillations by picking up irrelevant contributions from other wavevectors and are reasonable choices.

**Interplay of the eight-unit-cell periodic PDW and the four-unit-cell induced \( N(r, E) \) modulation.** To support the Fig. 4 inset, in which 2N topological defects in the induced \( N(r) \) modulation at \( 2Q \) tends to be found in the vicinity of the locus of \( \pi \) phase in \( \Phi_{Q_N}(r) \) (yellow strings), we performed an independent analysis: the distances of the white and black dots to the nearest position on the yellow strings are calculated and compared with randomly distributed results. Extended Data Fig. 7a shows the distance distribution of the total 25 topological defects in Fig. 4e. Then we generate randomly distributed 25 topological defects' inside the same FOV and calculate distances to the same yellow strings, and this process has been repeated 100 times. The average result of the 100 different configurations is shown in Extended Data Fig. 7b. It is clear that the distribution from the measured \( N(r) \) topological defects at \( 2Q \) is in a smaller range with higher magnitude compared with random results. This supports that the topological defects in the measured \( N(r) \) modulation at \( 2Q \) actually show a statistically strong tendency to be found near the locus of \( \pi \) phase in \( \Phi_{Q_N}(r) \).

**n phase winding and possible half-vortex in PDW.** In search for half-vortices in PDW, we analysed PDW phases in \( \Phi_{Q_N}(r) \) in the vicinity of the \( 2\pi \) topological defects from the induced \( N(r) \) modulation at \( 2Q \). We extracted the values along each contour surrounding the \( 2\pi \) topological defects from the induced \( N(r) \) modulation at \( 2Q \) (Extended Data Fig. 8a) and plotted an evolution of the PDW phase for each contour in Extended Data Fig. 8b. Although no singularities that have a \( \pi \) phase winding in \( \Phi_{Q_N}(r) \) are found, indeed PDW phases are changing by \( \pi \) along each contour, indicating the presence of possible half-vortices.

**Data availability**

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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**Competing interests** The authors declare no competing interests.

**Additional information**

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Extended Data Fig. 1 | Analysis of the tip isotropy. a, Topography $T(r)$ within 40 nm × 40 nm FOV. b, Real part of Fourier transform of $T(r)$. c, Line profile Re$T(q)$ along the line in the middle panel, representing nearly equal Bragg peak height (difference is less than 7%).
Extended Data Fig. 2 | Estimation of the nanoflake tip geometry.

a, Autocorrelation of $\Delta(r)$. b, Line profile measured from centre in a is azimuthal-angle averaged. The size of the nanoflake on the tip is estimated from the full-width at half-maximum and is around 3.3 nm.
Extended Data Fig. 3 | Possible process of the Josephson tunnelling.
Schematic representation of planar Josephson tunnelling in the presence of two order parameters (OPs): homogeneous SC and PDW.
Extended Data Fig. 4 | Preliminary experimental data analysis.

a, c, Preliminary Δ(r) independently measured at 4.2 K on different pieces of nearly optimally doped Bi$_2$Sr$_2$CaCu$_2$O$_{8+}$δ. b, d, The magnitude of Fourier transform of Δ(r) in a and c, respectively, representing early observations of 1/8 peaks marked by the red circles.
Extended Data Fig. 5 | Differential conductance map and its ratio. 

**a**. \( g(r, E = 54 \text{ meV}) \) map. The eight-unit-cell CDW modulation, that is, the PDW induced \( N(r) \) modulation at \( Q \), can be seen. 

**b**. \( Z(r, E = 54 \text{ meV}) \) calculated by \( Z(r, E) = g(r, E)/g(r, -E) \).
Extended Data Fig. 6 | Cut-off-length dependence of $|D_{\Delta}(r)|$ and $|\Delta_{\Delta}(r)|$. The left column shows $|D_{\Delta}(r)|$ at different cut-off lengths, similarly for the right column for $|\Delta_{\Delta}(r)|$. 
**Extended Data Fig. 7 | Distance analysis.**

**a**, A count distribution sorted by distances between the topological defects in the induced N(r) modulation at 2Q from Fig. 4b and the nearest point on the yellow strings in the PDW phase map from Fig. 4c.

**b**, Average distribution of 100 configurations, within each configuration 25 points are randomly generated in the same FOV and distances to the same yellow strings are calculated and sorted.
**Extended Data Fig. 8 | Spatial evolution of the PDW phase.**

a, A phase map $\Phi_{Qx}^\Lambda (r)$ of the PDW order. Three representative contours surrounding the $2\pi$ topological defects from $\phi_{Qx}^\Lambda (r)$ across the yellow strings. b, An evolution of the phase along each contour in a. The upside-down black triangle marks the starting point of winding and the upright black triangle marks the ending point, in correspondence with the winding directions in a. $\pi$ phase windings are clearly seen in the PDW phase surrounding the $2\pi$ topological defects from $\phi_{Qx}^\Lambda (r)$. 