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Emergent dynamic chirality in a thermally driven artificial spin ratchet

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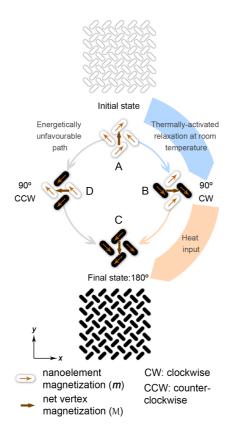
Modern nanofabrication techniques have opened the possibility to create novel 18 functional materials, whose properties transcend that of their constituent 19 elements. In particular, tuning the magnetostatic interactions in geometrically-20 frustrated arrangements of nanoelements called artificial spin ice^{1,2} can lead to 21 specific collective behaviour³ including emergent magnetic monopoles^{4,5}, 22 charge screening^{6,7} and transport^{8,9} as well as magnonic response¹⁰⁻¹². Here, we 23 demonstrate a spin-ice based active material in which energy is converted into 24 unidirectional dynamics. Using x-ray photoemission electron microscopy we 25 26 show that the collective rotation of the average magnetisation proceeds in a unique sense during thermal relaxation. Our simulations demonstrate that this 27 emergent chiral behaviour is driven by the topology of the magnetostatic field 28

at the edges of the nanomagnet array, resulting in an asymmetric energy landscape. In addition, a bias field can be used to modify the sense of rotation of the average magnetisation. This opens the possibility of implementing a magnetic Brownian ratchet¹³⁻¹⁴, which may find applications in novel nanoscale devices, such as magnetic nanomotors, actuators, sensors or memory cells.

Chirality is a ubiquitous phenomenon in nature present in a variety of systems, from 34 elementary particles, through the charge-parity violation of the weak interaction, to 35 biomolecules whose function is defined by their handedness. In artificial systems, such 36 as optical metamaterials, structural chirality can be exploited to control light-matter 37 interactions and produce circularly polarized light¹⁵. In ferromagnets and 38 antiferromagnets, the Dzyaloshinskii-Moriya interaction can give rise to chiral spin 39 textures¹⁶ and lead to non-reciprocal dynamics¹⁷. While most studied phenomena rely 40 on a static view of chirality - Is a system superimposable to its mirror image? - this 41 definition can be extended to include electric and magnetic fields as well as dynamic 42 properties¹⁸. In this context, *dynamic* chirality is a property of both chiral as well as 43 44 achiral objects that display a preferred sense of rotation. In classical mechanics, an 45 example is the rattleback: a spinning top that only rotates in one direction, while in chemistry, the interactions between an adsorbed molecule and a crystal surface can 46 lead to the rotation of the molecule in a preferred direction¹⁹. 47

Here we present an example of emergent dynamic chirality in an artificial spin ice 48 system - a 'chiral ice'. Schematically represented in Fig. 1, the system consists of a 49 two-dimensional arrangement of lithographically patterned single-domain 50 nanomagnets in which the magnetisation points in one of two orientations along the 51 52 magnet long axis due to shape anisotropy¹. The choice of the array design is such that it is structurally chiral, *i.e.* it cannot be superimposed onto its mirror image, when 53 considering the edges of the array. The two-dimensional character of the system is 54 constrained by the shape anisotropy of the nanomagnets (see Methods). Each vertex 55

56 is associated with four nanomagnets oriented at a 90° angle with respect to each other and the net magnetisation is the sum of the individual magnetisation vectors of the four 57 elements within a vertex. We observe that, after applying and removing a sufficiently 58 59 large external field to saturate the array (see Methods), the thermally activated 60 relaxation at room temperature is characterized by the rotation of the net magnetisation 61 at the individual vertices in a unique direction: from state A to state B, as illustrated in 62 Fig. 1. No statistically significant fraction of the vertices evolves from state A to state 63 D, thus defining a ratchet in which the magnetostatic energy supplied by the saturating 64 field is transformed into the clockwise rotation of the average magnetisation. This is a realisation of active matter: an out of equilibrium system that locally converts energy 65 into directed motion^{20,21}. In thermal equilibrium, a preferred direction of rotation does 66 not occur due to microscopic reversibility. Chiral evolution is however possible if the 67 68 system is far from equilibrium and in the presence of an asymmetric potential²². Using micromagnetic simulations, we find that an asymmetry is indeed generated in our 69 system as a result of the topology of the stray field of the nanomagnet array. At the 70 edges of the array, the stray field gives rise to emergent patterns, whose specific 71 72 rearrangement during the thermal evolution can decrease the energy of the system, reminiscent of the role of magnetic surface charges in a ferromagnet. It is the energy 73 decrease that accompanies the reordering of these 'emergent charges' that drives the 74 chiral dynamics of the system during the thermal relaxation. Moreover, in the presence 75 of a small bias field, heating allows the vertices to evolve into state C (Fig 1). 76



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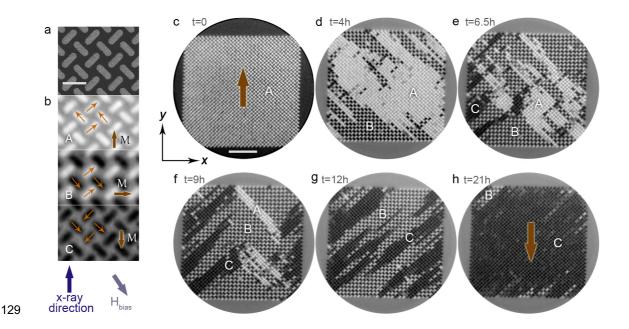
78 Fig. 1: Schematic representation of the chiral ice and evolution of the net magnetization at 79 individual vertices within the array. The thermally activated evolution after initial saturation along the 80 +y direction (state A) is illustrated, with the white or black colour, respectively indicating the direction of 81 the magnetisation m toward the positive or negative y axis. The thin orange arrows represent the 82 magnetization within the nanoelements while the net magnetisation at each individual vertex, M, is 83 indicated by the large brown arrows at the centre of the vertices. The thermal relaxation at room 84 temperature takes place stepwise via a clockwise (CW) rotation of the net magnetisation by 90° to state 85 B and is indicated by the blue arrows. When the system is heated above room temperature in the presence 86 of a bias field, the average magnetisation can locally rotate further (orange arrows), to state C. Considering 87 the evolution from state A, state D statistically occurs with very low probability. The net vertex 88 magnetisation therefore consistently rotates clockwise.

The experimental system consists of a finite array of elongated Permalloy nanomagnets arranged on a square grid as shown in Fig. 2a. An image of the full array is shown in Supplementary Information S1. We combine photoemission electron microscopy (PEEM) with x-ray magnetic circular dichroism (XMCD) to image the magnetic state of the individual nanomagnets. In the XMCD images (Fig. 2b), the nanomagnets in which the magnetisation is parallel to the propagation direction of the x-rays display a bright contrast, whereas nanomagnets in which the magnetisation is

96 reversed display a dark contrast. The homogeneous XMCD contrast for each 97 nanomagnet confirms that they are in a single-domain state. The nanomagnets are sufficiently thin (see Methods), such that thermal energy can overcome the energy 98 barrier to switch between the two possible single domain states at room temperature. 99 100 The thickness is chosen so that the switching rates are comparable to the PEEM measurement time scale^{23,24}. We first apply a saturating magnetic field, H_{sat} (see 101 Methods), such that, after its removal, the average remanent magnetisation of the 102 103 array points along the positive y direction (Fig. 2c, where all nanomagnets display a 104 bright contrast). The measured time evolution of the magnetisation over a period of 21 hours is shown in Fig. 2d-h in the presence of a weak bias field, as indicated in Fig. 2 105 (see Methods). The formation of regions with 'checkerboard' magnetic contrast pattern 106 observed in Fig. 2d indicates that the average magnetisation at these vertices has 107 108 evolved from state A to state B (see also Fig. 2b for a detailed view of state B), and have hence rotated by 90° in the clockwise (CW) direction. The evolution slows down 109 considerably after ca. 4 hours, indicating that the system approaches thermal 110 equilibrium, as explained in Supplementary Information S2. Heating the sample by a 111 few Kelvin ensures that the thermal evolution, and therefore the rotation of vertices 112 from state A to B, continues while vertices already in state B evolve into state C (dark 113 contrast regions in Fig. 2e where the net magnetisation has locally rotated by 180°). 114 Throughout the evolution, the rotation of the net vertex magnetisation M (see Fig. 2b) 115 starts at the edges of the array and propagates towards its centre. The heat-assisted 116 rotation continues until the magnetisation in the array has mostly rotated by 180° with 117 respect to state A (Fig. 2h). The quantitative evolution of the different vertex types (A, 118

B and C) as well as the heating schedule are shown in Supplementary Information S3.

To confirm that the observed chiral behaviour is a magnetostatically-driven effect, we performed similar measurements on systems with a larger relative distance between nanomagnets, in which the strength of the magnetostatic interaction was reduced, and found that the thermal evolution became achiral (see Supplementary Information S4). We also note that we did not observe any preferred direction of rotation in structures consisting of a single vertex with four nanomagnets, despite their structural chirality. A chiral structure by itself is therefore not sufficient to generate the observed dynamics: in the following we show that the dynamics is driven by the existence of an emergent asymmetric magnetostatic energy landscape.



130 Fig. 2: Measured clockwise evolution of the magnetisation following saturation along the +y131 direction. (a) Top: Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image of a region of the investigated array. The 132 scale bar represents 600 nm. (b) XMCD contrast for states A, B and C, with arrows showing the orientation 133 of the magnetisation for selected nanomagnets and the net vertex magnetisation in each case, indicated 134 with a larger brown arrow and denoted M. (c) XMCD image of the array following saturation along the +y135 direction. The vertices are in state A with the average magnetisation within the array indicated by the large 136 brown arrow. The detailed magnetic configuration of state A is shown in (b). The scalebar represents 5 137 µm and the field of view is of 25 µm. The contrast was adjusted for better visibility. (d-h) Time evolution of 138 the magnetisation in the presence of a bias field. The magnitude of H_{bias} is between 50 µT and 80 µT, in 139 the indicated direction. In (d), thermal relaxation at room temperature gives rise to domains of vertices in 140 state B, mainly nucleating from the array edges and whose detailed magnetic configuration is shown in 141 (b). The sample temperature was subsequently increased by a few Kelvin for four hours to ensure that 142 the magnetisation reversals continue, as seen in (e-g). In (e), domains of vertices in state C [shown in 143 panel (b)] nucleate from the edges of the array. Around t = 15 hours, the sample was heated again to 144 achieve a close-to-complete 180° reversal of the magnetisation, observed in (h).

We performed micromagnetic simulations to qualitatively understand why the clockwise evolution of the magnetisation is favoured over the counterclockwise 147 evolution. The simulated system is a finite system identical to the one shown in Fig. 1, 148 with the same geometry as the experimentally studied one, but with fewer magnets due to the computational cost of simulating the entire experimental array (see 149 Methods). We consider the system without the bias field in order to determine its 150 151 intrinsic thermal behaviour. Fig. 3a is a close-up of a section of the simulated array, following saturation and removal of the field H_{sat} (equivalent to state A in Fig. 2). The 152 magnetostatic volume charges, $\rho = -\nabla \cdot M$, are plotted inside the nanomagnets along 153 with the generated stray field outside the nanomagnets. The stray field displays a 154 complex topology owing to the presence of antivortex patterns. Antivortices are two-155 dimensional structures characterised by a field distribution in which the direction of the 156 field revolves clockwise around a central point²⁵ as schematically illustrated in the inset 157 of Fig. 3a, where the centre of the structure is indicated with an orange dot. Because 158 antivortices typically occur inside ferromagnets, we refer to the observed stray field 159 patterns as virtual antivortices, *i.e.* whose centre is located outside the nanomagnets²⁶. 160 Such virtual structures have previously been reported to play a role in the stability of 161 magnetisation patterns²⁵ as well as in the dynamics of coupled systems²⁷. Considering 162 the entire simulated array (Fig. 3b), the distribution of the virtual antivortices within the 163 system following saturation is plotted in Fig. 3c. The overall stray field topology 164 effectively forms a virtual antivortex crystal, in which the antivortices, represented by 165 orange dots, display an ordered arrangement within the bulk of the array. At the edges, 166 167 the distribution of the virtual antivortices breaks the symmetry of the bulk arrangement. Moreover, the distribution of the virtual antivortices along the horizontal edges (top and 168 bottom; highlighted in blue) is different from the distribution along with the vertical 169 edges (left and right; highlighted in red). The virtual antivortex distribution for a partial 170 clockwise rotation of the vertex magnetisation by 90° (state B) along four diagonals of 171 the array is given in Fig 3d. This corresponds to the magnetic state labelled 'CW 1' in 172 173 Fig. 3f where the four diagonals can be seen and is representative of experimentally observed configurations. Within the bulk of the simulated array, the arrangement of the 174

175 virtual antivortices is modified: in domains where the net vertex magnetisation has rotated by 90° (dark grey regions), the antivortex stray field patterns are also rotated 176 by 90°. At the edges of such domains (light grey regions), the antivortices are rotated 177 by 45°, mirroring the rotation of the average magnetisation of those vertices. It is, 178 179 however, along the array edges that the most significant changes take place: while the number of virtual antivortices remains constant, they have been rearranged compared 180 181 to Fig. 3c. This is analogous to the situation in a finite-sized ferromagnet, where the 182 stray field energy can be minimised through the rearrangement of surface charges, 183 $\sigma = \mathbf{M} \cdot \mathbf{n}$ (where \mathbf{n} is a normal vector to the surface), and result in the formation of domains within the ferromagnet. The rearrangement of the virtual antivortices in 184 185 alternating patterns along the array edges is thus reminiscent of the pole avoidance principle in ferromagnets, which leads to the minimization of the magnetostatic energy 186 through a reduction of the total magnetic charge. In the studied system the virtual 187 188 antivortices thus function as emergent surface charges whose rearrangement, through the rotation of the magnetisation, minimises the total energy of the system during 189 relaxation. In Fig. 3e, the emergent charge distribution is given for a system with four 190 diagonals along which the average magnetisation has rotated counterclockwise. This 191 distribution corresponds to the magnetic state labelled 'CCW 1' in Fig. 3f, where the 192 vertices along those diagonals are in state D (see Fig. 1). When compared to Fig. 3d, 193 the overall virtual antivortex structure is generally mirrored (along an axis defined by 194 195 the saturation direction, y), except at the edges, where their distribution is not mirrored. Our simulations show that these differences lead to an asymmetric energy landscape 196 in which the energy of the system decreases more efficiently through the clockwise 197 (CW) rotation of the net vertex magnetisation at the edges than through the 198 counterclockwise (CCW) rotation. We plot in Fig. 3f the relative difference in energy 199 barriers at 300 K between the initial state (Fig. 3c) and the states in Figs. 3d and e, 200 which are labelled as 'CW 1' and 'CCW 1'. The energy barrier to access the clockwise 201 state is lower, thus making it more probable. The energy barriers are also plotted for 202

203 configurations in which nanomagnets at the edges of the array have not switched. We 204 find that, in these cases, the energy barriers for the clockwise and counterclockwise 205 rotations of the net vertex magnetisation become equal. These results demonstrate 206 that the chiral behaviour is driven by the edges of the system and that the observed 207 initial clockwise rotation of the net vertex magnetisation following saturation is due to 208 the intrinsically asymmetric energy landscape of the system.

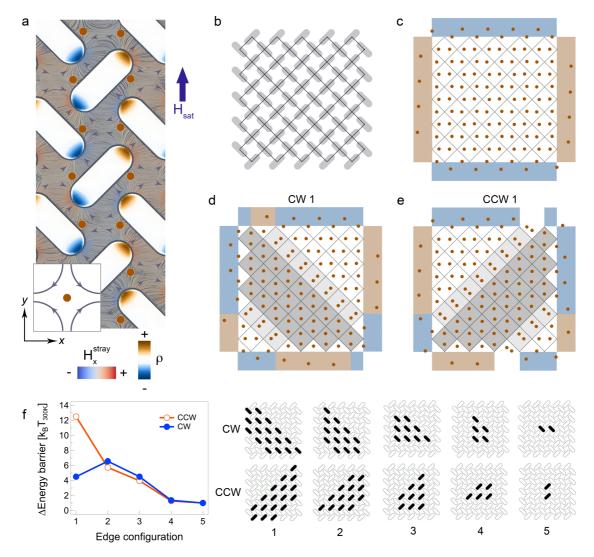




Fig. 3: Simulated stray field structure and energy barriers for clockwise and counterclockwise rotations of the average magnetisation. (a) Stray field configuration for a portion of the simulated nanomagnet array in state A, following saturation with the field H_{sat} . The centres of the virtual antivortices are highlighted by orange dots and the magnetic volume charges (ρ) within the single-domain nanomagnets are plotted using the blue-brown colormap. The *x* component of the stray field, H_x^{stray} , is indicated by the blue-red colormap. An antivortex structure is schematically shown in the bottom inset. (b) Wire frame representation of the array lattice. (c) Distribution of the virtual antivortices (orange dots) in

217 the array in state A, following saturation along the +y direction. The different antivortex distributions along 218 the array edges are highlighted in red and blue. In (d), the virtual antivortex distribution is plotted for a 219 configuration in which the net magnetisation along four diagonals (dark grey regions) was rotated 220 clockwise by 90° (state B). The corresponding magnetic state of the array is given in (f): configuration 'CW 221 1'. (e) Virtual antivortex distribution for a configuration in which the net vertex magnetisation along four 222 diagonals is rotated counterclockwise by 90°, corresponding to the magnetic state 'CCW 1' in (f). In the 223 white regions along the array edges in (e), the stray field distribution is identical to the one in the bulk. (f) 224 Relative energy barriers, starting from the remanent state (a), for the shown configurations 1 - 5 in which 225 the reversal of the magnetisation in edge nanoelements is gradually set back. The nanomagnets in black 226 have switched (see Fig. 1 for colour convention). The energies are normalized to the barrier required to 227 switch two nanomagnets in configuration 5, where the barrier is the same for the CW and CCW rotations.

228 The evolution of the average magnetisation during relaxation at room temperature eventually leads to thermal equilibrium. The measured continuous clockwise evolution 229 of the magnetisation in the experiment towards state C is thus enabled by the bias 230 field, which effectively modifies the energy landscape, such that the system can access 231 232 state C upon moderate heating. We have also found that the bias field can, in some cases, be used to reverse the sense of rotation of the net vertex magnetisation. Indeed, 233 after saturating a system with identical geometry to the one in Fig. 2 (see Methods) 234 along the -y direction (Fig. 4a) we observe that, in the presence of H_{bias} , the thermal 235 236 evolution can proceed through the counterclockwise rotation of the net vertex magnetisation (Fig. 4b-d). Depending on the saturation direction, it is thus in principle 237 possible to use a bias field to reinforce the 'built-in' clockwise rotation or to favour the 238 counterclockwise sense of rotation of the average magnetisation. 239

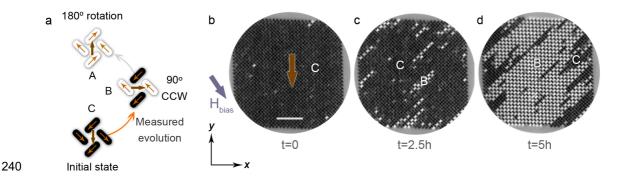


Fig. 4: Counterclockwise evolution of the system following saturation in the -y direction. (a) After saturating the array along the -y direction, the magnetisation evolves counterclockwise, *i.e.* from state C to state B (orange arrow), in the presence of the bias field H_{bias} . (b-d) Measured time-evolution of the magnetisation. In (b), the array is in state C after saturation and the average magnetisation is indicated

by the large brown arrow. The evolution towards the sate shown in (c) occurs at room temperature. By heating the sample for 2.5 hours, the state shown in (d) can be accessed. The rotation from state B to state A was not observed owing to the orientation of the bias field. We note that the counterclockwise rotation from state C to state B is observed in about 20% of the measured samples. Indeed, starting from state C, the counterclockwise evolution favoured by the bias field competes with the natural clockwise evolution of the system and can cause the array to remain, on average, in state C. The scalebar represents 5 μm.

The magnetostatic interaction offers a known route for symmetry breaking at the 252 surface of ferromagnets that can lead to rich behaviour, such as surface and curvature-253 induced non-reciprocal spin wave^{28,29} and domain wall^{30,31} propagation. Similarly, in 254 the studied artificial spin system the origin of the thermally activated unidirectional 255 256 rotation of the average magnetisation is due to the dynamic rearrangement of emergent magnetic surface charges, which result from the geometry of the array 257 edges, demonstrating how magnetostatically-coupled nanomagnet arrays can be 258 designed to harness thermal fluctuations of the magnetisation. This opens the 259 260 possibility of exploiting artificial spin ices with tailored edge geometry and field-tunable dynamics as functional, active materials within devices that convert heat into motion, 261 such as mesoscopic motors^{20,22} and rotors³² or within hybrid multistacks, used for 262 example for magnetic memory applications³³, where the chiral array would form the 263 active layer in which the rotation of the magnetisation could be triggered by laser 264 pulses. 265

266 Methods

267 Sample Fabrication

Finite arrays of Permalloy (Ni₈₃Fe₁₇) nanomagnets were prepared on a silicon (100) substrate using electron beam lithography in conjunction with thermal evaporation at room temperature and a base pressure of 2×10^{-7} mbar followed by lift-off. The evaporation resulted in a nanocrystalline Permalloy film, which was capped by a 3 nm aluminium layer to protect against oxidation. The Permalloy film was evaporated with a thickness gradient along the sample in order to ensure the presence of a thermally

active region at room temperature adequate for the PEEM measurements²⁴. Array 274 thicknesses were measured using Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM). The thermally 275 active arrays in Fig. 2 and 4 had identical geometries and were manufactured from 276 nanomagnets with length and width of 470 nm and 170 nm, and with a lattice constant 277 278 of 425 nm (centre-to-centre distance of neighbouring nanomagnets: see Supplementary Information S1). The measured thickness of the arrays was: 2.2 nm in 279 Fig.1 and 2.7 nm in Fig. 4. The thicknesses were uniform across each array. The 280 281 magnetisation in both arrays rotated clockwise after saturating along the +y direction, 282 demonstrating that the thickness variation between the arrays did not affect the sense of rotation of the magnetisation. The array in Supplementary Information S3 had a 283 284 thickness of 2.4 nm. The chiral structure of the system is defined by the geometry of the array edges as well as by its two-dimensional character where the shape 285 286 anisotropy induced by the low Permalloy thickness ensures that the magnetisation is confined to the plane of the sample. 287

288

289 Experiment

Magnetic imaging was carried out with the photoemission electron microscopy 290 endstation³⁴ at the Surface/Interface: Microscopy (SIM) beamline of the Swiss Light 291 292 Source, Paul Scherrer Institute and at the PEEM-3 photoemission electron microscope 293 at beamline 11.0.1 of the Advanced Light Source, Berkeley National Laboratory. Employing XMCD, the system was imaged by tuning the x-ray energy to the Fe L₃-294 edge. The magnetic contrast images were obtained by pixelwise division of two 295 consecutive images recorded with right and left circular polarizations. The resulting 296 297 contrast is proportional to $\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{m}$, where \mathbf{k} is the propagation vector of the x-rays and \mathbf{m} the local magnetisation vector³⁵. The sample orientation was optimized to maximize 298 the contrast. The uniform contrast within the nanomagnets indicates that they were in 299 300 a single-domain state. Nanomagnets with grey contrast were switching faster than the

301 measurement time. For observations of the magnetisation reversal at the Swiss Light 302 Source, the samples were mounted on a copper (nonmagnetic) holder that allowed radiative heating of the sample and the temperature was measured using a PT100 303 sensor placed close to the sample. During the experiments the sample was exposed 304 305 to a small constant bias field (H_{bias}) with an estimated in-plane magnitude of 50 – 80 µT based on Hall probe measurements. The arrays were saturated in-situ using a 306 307 permanent magnet inserted into the PEEM chamber. The saturating field strength at 308 the location of the sample was of H_{sat} =15 mT in the plane of the sample. The magnet 309 was retracted from the chamber after saturation. Measurements at the Advanced Light Source were carried out by saturating the sample both *ex-situ* as well as in a holder 310 with a built-in electromagnet, which allowed us to apply fields up to 20 mT. 311

312 Micromagnetic simulations

Fully three-dimensional micromagnetic simulations based on a hybrid finite-313 element/boundary-element method^{36,37} have been carried out on a system of 60 314 nanomagnets, each with lateral dimensions 235 nm × 85 nm (50% of experimental 315 size) and 2 nm thick. The structure was discretized using a tetrahedral mesh with an 316 317 average edge length of 1 nm. The material parameters for Permalloy were: saturation polarization $\mu_0 M_{\rm S}$ = 1 T, exchange constant A = 1.3 × 10⁻¹¹ J/m and zero 318 magnetocrystalline anisotropy $K = 0 J/m^3$. The total Gibbs magnetic free energy is 319 given by: 320

321
$$E(\boldsymbol{m}) = \int \left(A \left[\sum_{k}^{x,y,z} (\nabla m_k)^2 \right] + K[1 - (\boldsymbol{m} \cdot \boldsymbol{a})^2] - \frac{1}{2} \mu_0 M_S(\boldsymbol{H}_{\text{dem}} \cdot \boldsymbol{m}) \right)$$

322
$$-\mu_0 M_S(\boldsymbol{H}_{\text{ext}} \cdot \boldsymbol{m}) \Bigg) dV.$$

E is the sum of the exchange energy, the anisotropy energy, the demagnetising energy, and the Zeeman energy. $m = M/M_S$ is the reduced magnetisation, A is the exchange constant, *K* the magnetocrystalline anisotropy, **a** is a unit vector along the magnetocrystalline anisotropy direction, H_{dem} is the demagnetising field and H_{ext} an external field. The integral is over the magnetic volume. In the performed simulations $H_{ext}=0$.

To understand the thermal stability and transition probability from the remanent state, 329 following the application of a saturating field, to different magnetic states, *i.e.* 330 331 configurations resulting from clockwise and counterclockwise rotations, we used the nudged elastic band method to find the lowest possible energy transition path between 332 the two states³⁸. We start from a magnetisation state, M_1 , where the magnetic system 333 occupies a local minimum. Through thermal activation, the system can overcome the 334 335 local energy barrier and move towards a different minimum state, M_2 , following either 336 clockwise or counterclockwise rotation of the vertex magnetisation. The difference 337 between the local minima and the saddle point in the energy path gives the energy barrier that has to be overcome to move to the next local minima; this determines the 338 339 stability of the magnetic state. An optimization algorithm is applied until, at any point along the path, the gradient of the energy is only pointing along the path. This 340 341 represents the path with the greatest statistical weight. The state with the lowest 342 energy barrier has the highest probability of being reached.

343 Data availability

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

346 Contributions

RLS and SG conceived the spin ice geometry and the experiment. SG, AF, CD and JC prepared the samples. SG, CD, JC, JB, AK, AF, RC, EK, AS, and NB performed the experiments and analysed the experimental data. GH, SG and JB performed and

evaluated the micromagnetic simulations. SG, RLS, GH, JB, CD, AK, YM and LJH
interpreted the results. SG wrote the manuscript with input from all coauthors. All
authors discussed the results and commented on the manuscript.

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373 The authors have no competing financial interests.

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