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Imagine a world where particles can exist in multiple places at once, where cats can be both alive and dead until you look at them, and where particles miles apart can instantly influence each other. Welcome to the realm of quantum physics a domain so bizarre that even Albert Einstein once called some of its predictions spooky action at a distance. Quantum physics is not just strange for the sake of being strange. Its the bedrock of our modern understanding of nature at its smallest scales atoms, subatomic particles, and the very fabric of reality itself. Without quantum physics, there would be no lasers, no computers, no smartphones, and no MRI machines. Its the science that makes the impossible possible.But quantum physics has a reputation: intimidating, baffling, reserved only for genius-level physicists. Thats simply not true. Anyone with curiosity and a bit of patience can grasp its essential ideas. In this beginners guide, we will journey through the quantum world, unpack its mind-bending concepts, meet the pioneers who shaped or glimpsed extraordinary technologies has inspired. Get ready; reality is about to get weird!At the dawn of the 20th century, classical physics (the physics of Isaac Newton ruled supreme. Scientists believed they had almost completely understood the laws of nature. But cracks were appearing in the foundation.One major puzzle involved blackbody radiation the way objects emit light when heated. Classical physics predicted that hot objects should emit infinite amounts of energy at short wavelengths, a paradox dubbed the ultraviolet catastrophe. Experimental data clearly disagreed.In 1900, German physicist Max Planck proposed a radical idea: energy is not emitted continuously but in discrete packets he called quanta. Plancks solution matched the experimental results perfectly but seemed merely a mathematical trick at first.Then, in 1905, Albert Einstein took Plancks idea seriously. In explaining the photoelectric effect the observation that light can eject electrons from metal surfaces Einstein proposed that light itself is made of particles, later called photons. This particle nature of light was revolutionary and earned Einstein the Nobel Prize in 1921.This began the quantum revolution, where energy and matter were no longer continuous, but came in tiny, discrete chunks. Reality, it seemed, was quantized.One of the most bewildering concepts in quantum physics is wave-particle duality the idea that particles like electrons and photons behave sometimes like particles, sometimes like waves.This was spectacularly demonstrated in the famous double-slit experiment. When light is shone through two narrow slits, it creates an interference pattern on a screen beyond a hallmark of wave behavior. But when scientists tried to detect which slit each photon went through, the interference pattern disappeared, and the photons behaved like particles.Even more shocking, when particles like electrons (traditionally thought of as tiny billiard balls) were sent one by one through the slits, they too created an interference pattern as if each electron was simultaneously passing through both slits, interfering with itself.This experiment shattered the classical idea that particles and waves are distinct. In the quantum world, entities like electrons and photons are both particle and wave a paradoxical blend with no classical analog.In 1927, German physicist Werner Heisenberg unveiled another cornerstone of quantum physics: the uncertainty principle. Heisenberg showed that certain pairs of properties like a particles position and momentum cannot both be precisely known at the same time. The more accurately you know one, the less accurately you can know the other.This isnt just a limit of our measuring instruments; its a fundamental property of nature itself. Reality at the quantum level is fuzzy and probabilistic, not sharply defined.The uncertainty principle shatters the classical idea of a clockwork universe, where knowing the present perfectly means you can predict the future perfectly. In the quantum realm, outcomes are fundamentally unpredictable. Nature does not play out like a precise script; it dances to a tune of probabilities.One of the strangest features of quantum mechanics is superposition the idea that a quantum system can exist in multiple states at once.A famous thought experiment by Erwin Schrdinger illustrates this. Schrdinger imagined a cat inside a sealed box with a mechanism triggered by a quantum event say, the decay of a radioactive atom. If the atom decays, the mechanism releases poison, killing the cat. If not, the cat lives.According to quantum mechanics, until we open the box and observe it, the cat is in a superposition of being both alive and dead. Only observation collapses the superposition into one definite state.While Schrdingers cat is a metaphor, experiments on real quantum particles confirm that superposition is real. Particles can exist in multiple states or locations simultaneously until an observation forces them into a single outcome.Perhaps the most eerie aspect of quantum physics is entanglement. When two particles become entangled, their properties become linked, no matter how far apart they are. If you measure one particle and find it spin-up, the other particle, instantly and without communication, will be found spin-down even if theyre light-years apart.This instantaneous connection seemed to violate Einsteins belief that nothing can travel faster than light.Einstein, along with Podolsky and Rosen, published the EPR paradox paper in 1935, arguing that quantum mechanics must be incomplete. But decades later, experiments confirmed entanglements reality, suggesting that the quantum world allows for connections beyond classical space and time.Entanglement is not only a fascinating quirk its the basis for emerging technologies like quantum teleportation and quantum cryptography.Quantum mechanics governs the microscopic world of atoms, electrons, photons. Classical mechanics governs the macroscopic world planets, tennis balls, cars. But how do the two fit together? Why dont we see cats in superpositions or cars entangled with each other?The boundary between quantum and classical is still a subject of intense research. One explanation is decoherence the idea that quantum superpositions rapidly collapse into definite states when interacting with the environment. In our messy, macroscopic world full of particles and radiation, quantum effects are washed out almost instantly.Nevertheless, experiments with larger and larger quantum systems continue to push the boundary, suggesting that the quantum weirdness is not confined to the micro-world alone.Far from being a mere curiosity, quantum mechanics powers some of the most important technologies of the modern era.Transistors the building blocks of computers and smartphones rely on quantum tunneling, where electrons pass through barriers they classically shouldnt cross. Lasers, MRI machines, and even GPS systems depend on quantum effects.Now, a second quantum revolution is underway. Scientists are developing quantum computers, which use quantum bits (qubits) that can exist in superpositions of 0 and 1. A quantum computer could solve certain problems exponentially faster than any classical computer.Quantum cryptography promises unbreakable communication by detecting any attempt to eavesdrop via entanglement.Quantum teleportation transmitting information about a quantum state instantaneously is already being demonstrated in laboratories, hinting at future quantum networks.Quantum mechanics works spectacularly well in practice. But what it says about reality remains deeply puzzling, leading to many competing interpretations.The Copenhagen interpretation, championed by Niels Bohr, holds that quantum systems exist in superpositions until observed, at which point the wavefunction collapses.The Many Worlds Interpretation, proposed by Hugh Everett, suggests that every quantum event spawns new parallel universes, where every possible outcome happens.Pilot-wave theory, developed by Louis de Broglie and David Bohm, posits that particles are guided by deterministic hidden variables.Each interpretation offers a different vision of reality, yet none has been definitively proven or disproven. In quantum physics, understanding how the world works remains a profound and open question.In the mid-20th century, physicists developed quantum field theory (QFT), combining quantum mechanics with special relativity. In QFT, particles are excitations in underlying fields that pervade space. The photon is a ripple in the electromagnetic field. The Higgs boson famously discovered in 2012 is an excitation of the Higgs field, which gives particles mass.QFT forms the basis of the Standard Model of particle physics, which describes all known fundamental particles and forces (except gravity) with breathtaking accuracy.Yet, mysteries remain. Gravity still resists a quantum description. Dark matter and dark energy, which make up most of the universe, remain unexplained. The quest to unify quantum physics with Einsteins general relativity the so-called theory of everything continues.Quantum physics doesnt just challenge scientific ideas it forces us to rethink the very nature of reality.Are particles real before we observe them? Does the universe split into infinite branches with every quantum event? Is reality fundamentally deterministic or probabilistic? Is consciousness somehow involved in the collapse of the wavefunction?These questions bridge physics and philosophy, suggesting that understanding the quantum world may also require understanding the nature of knowledge, existence, and consciousness itself.Quantum physics is a revolution not just in science but in our very conception of what is real. It shows that the universe is far stranger, more beautiful, and more interconnected than classical physics ever imagined.From the smallest subatomic particles to the vast mysteries of the cosmos, quantum principles weave through every corner of existence. And while we have harnessed its power for technology and innovation, we are only beginning to fathom its deeper implications.For the beginner, quantum physics may seem like stepping into a dream where the rules are upside down. But as with any great journey, the more you explore, the more you realize that the quantum world, bizarre though it may be, is the foundation of everything.It is a realm where imagination meets reality, where the impossible becomes inevitable, and where the universe whispers its most profound secrets if only we are curious enough to listen.For other uses, see Quantum (disambiguation).In physics, a quantum (pl., quanta) is the minimum amount of any physical entity involved in an interaction. The fundamental notion that a property can be "quantized" is referred to as "the hypothesis of quantization".[1] This means that the magnitude of the physical property can take on only discrete values consisting of integer multiples of one quantum. For example, a photon is a single quantum of light of a specific frequency (or of any other form of electromagnetic radiation). Similarly, the energy of an electron bound within an atom is quantized and can exist only in certain discrete values.[2] Atoms and matter in general are stable because electrons can exist only at discrete energy levels within an atom. Quantization is one of the foundations of the much broader physics of quantum mechanics. Quantization of energy and its influence on how energy and matter interact (quantum electrodynamics) is part of the fundamental framework for understanding and describing nature.German physicist and 1918 Nobel Prize for Physics recipient Max Planck (18581947)The modern concept of the quantum in physics originates from December 14, 1900, when Max Planck reported his findings to the German Physical Society. He showed that modelling harmonic oscillators with discrete energy levels resolved a longstanding problem in the theory of blackbody radiation.[3]:15[4] In his report, Planck did not use the term quantum in the modern sense. Instead, he used the term Elementarquantum to refer to the "quantum of electricity", now known as the elementary charge. For the smallest unit of energy, he employed the term Energieelement, "energy element", rather than calling it a quantum.[5]Shortly afterwards, in a paper published in Annalen der Physik,[6] Planck introduced the constant h, which he termed the "quantum of action" (elementares Wirkungsquantum) in 1906.[5] In this paper, Planck also reported more precise values for the elementary charge and the Avogadro/Loschmidt number, the number of molecules in one mole of substance.[7] The constant h is now known as the Planck constant. After his theory was validated, Planck was awarded the Nobel Prize in Physics for his discovery in 1918.[8]In 1905, Albert Einstein suggested that electromagnetic radiation exists in spatially localized packets which he called "quanta of light" (Lichtquanten).[5] Einstein was able to use this hypothesis to recast Planck's treatment of the blackbody problem in a form that also explained the voltage observed in Philipp Lenard's experiments on the photoelectric effect.[3]:23 Shortly thereafter, the term "elementary quantum" was introduced for the quantity h.[10]Main article: Quantization (physics)While quantization was first discovered in electromagnetic radiation, it describes a fundamental aspect of energy not just restricted to photons.[11] In an attempt to bring theory into agreement with experiment, Max Planck postulated that electromagnetic energy is absorbed or emitted in discrete packets, or quanta.[12]Introduction to quantum mechanicsHistory of quantum mechanics^ Wiener, N. 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The historical development of quantum theory, 4: Pt.1, the fundamental equations of quantum mechanics, 1925-1926 (1. softcover printed.). New York Heidelberg: Springer. ISBN 978-0-387-95178-2.M. Planck, A Survey of Physical Theory, transl. by R. Jones and D.H. Williams, Methuen & Co., Limited., London 1925 (Dover edition 17 May 2003, ISBN 978-0-48667867-2) including the Nobel lecture.Rodney, Brooks (14 December 2010) Fields of Color: The theory that escaped Einstein. Allegra Print & Imaging. ISBN 979-8373308427Retrieved from " Science Physics quantum mechanics, science dealing with the behaviour of matter and light on the atomic and subatomic scale. It attempts to describe and account for the properties of molecules and atoms and their constituentselectrons, protons, neutrons, and other more esoteric particles such as quarks and gluons. These properties include the interactions of the particles with one another and with electromagnetic radiation (i.e., light, X-rays, and gamma rays). The behaviour of matter and radiation on the atomic scale is often messy and the consequences of quantum mechanics are accordingly difficult to understand and to use. Its concepts frequently conflict with common sense notions derived from observations of the everyday world. There is no reason, however, why the behaviour of the atomic world should conform to that of the familiar, large-scale world. It is important to realize that quantum mechanics is a branch of physics and that the business of physics is to describe and account for the way the worldon both the large and the small scaleactually is and not how one imagines it or would like it to be.The study of quantum mechanics is rewarding for several reasons. First, it illustrates the essential methodology of physics. Second, it has been enormously successful in giving correct results in practically every situation to which it has been applied. There is, however, an intriguing paradox. In spite of the overwhelming practical success of quantum mechanics, the foundations of the subject contain unresolved problemsIn particular, problems concerning the nature of measurement. An essential feature of quantum mechanics is that it is generally impossible, even in principle, to measure a system without disturbing it; the detailed nature of this disturbance and the exact point at which it occurs are obscure and controversial. Thus, quantum mechanics attracted some of the ablest scientists of the 20th century, and they erected what is perhaps the finest intellectual edifice of the period. At a fundamental level, both radiation and matter have characteristics of particles and waves. The gradual recognition by scientists that radiation has particle-like properties and that matter has wavelike properties provided the impetus for the development of quantum mechanics. Influenced by Newton, most physicists of the 18th century believed that light consisted of particles, which they called corpuscles. From about 1800, evidence began to accumulate for a wave theory of light. At about this time Thomas Young showed that, if monochromatic light passes through a pair of slits, the two emerging beams interfere, so that a fringe pattern of alternately bright and dark bands appears on a screen. The bands are readily explained by a wave theory of light. According to the theory, a bright band is produced when the crests (or the troughs) of the waves from the two slits arrive together at the screen; a dark band is produced when the crest of one wave arrives at the same time as the trough of the other, and the effects of the two light beams cancel. Beginning in 1815, a series of experiments by Augustin-Jean Fresnel of France and others showed that, when a parallel beam of light passes through a single slit, the emerging beam is no longer parallel but starts to diverge; this phenomenon is known as diffraction. Given the wavelength of the light and the geometry of the apparatus (i.e., the separation and widths of the slits and the distance from the slits to the screen), one can use the wave theory to calculate the expected pattern in each case; the theory agrees precisely with the experimental data. By the end of the 19th century, physicists almost universally accepted the wave theory of light. However, though the ideas of classical physics explain interference and diffraction phenomena relating to the propagation of light, they do not account for the absorption and emission of light. All bodies radiate electromagnetic energy as heat; in fact, a body emits radiation at all wavelengths. The energy radiated at different wavelengths is a maximum at a wavelength that depends on the temperature of the body; the hotter the body, the shorter the wavelength for maximum radiation. Attempts to calculate the energy distribution for the radiation from a blackbody using classical ideas were unsuccessful. (A blackbody is a hypothetical ideal body or surface that absorbs and reemits all radiant energy falling on it.) One formula, proposed by Wilhelm Wien of Germany, did not agree with observations at long wavelengths, and another, proposed by Lord Rayleigh (John William Strutt) of England, disagreed with those at short wavelengths. In 1900 the German theoretical physicist Max Planck made a bold suggestion. He assumed that the radiation energy is emitted, not continuously, but rather in discrete packets called quanta. The energy E of the quantum is related to the frequency ν by E = hν. The quantity h, now known as Plancks constant, is a universal constant with the approximate value of 6.62607 1034 joulesecund. Planck showed that the calculated energy spectrum then agreed with observation over the entire wavelength range. Quantum technologies have long underpinned modern foundational technologies, including lasers, atomic clocks, transistors, and semiconductor devices. Today, advancements in quantum information science and technology (QIST) are unlocking new tools for utilizing, generating, manipulating, and reading quantum states of matter, particularly quantum phenomena such as superposition and entanglement with major potential implications on U.S. national security and economic prosperity. As a transformative platform technology, potentially on par with artificial intelligence, it is critical to understand the current state of technological development, as well as the global policy and investment landscape surrounding QIST. Research, development, and commercialization in QIST span various fields and disciplines and are progressing at varying speeds depending on the field or discipline in question. This commentary is the first in a series of three papers that explore the current state of quantum technology, the global competitive landscape as countries compete against each other to develop new QIST technologies, and considerations for U.S. quantum policy. This paper outlines five foundational areas of QIST:Quantum computing and quantum-centric supercomputing, quantum communication, quantum sensing, quantum materials, and quantum AI and quantum data centersand describes the technological readiness and strategic relevance of each to U.S. national security and economic prosperity. Since German physicist Werner Heisenberg formulated a type of quantum mechanics in 1925 based on matrices, scientists have made advances in these five areas. While commercial applications of QIST are currently limited, each area is evolving toward commercialization at a different pace. There is currently no globally recognized objective quantum technology readiness level (TRL) assessment.Among quantum technologies, some experts rate quantum magnetometers, for example, as more mature in their development stage compared to quantum computing and quantum networking. The most rudimentary quantum networking technology, quantum key distribution, has been available commercially for over two decades, but more general quantum networking is probably less advanced than quantum computing.1. Quantum Computing and Quantum Centric SupercomputingQuantum computers have the potential to solve problems that are beyond the reach of classical computers. However, significant technical and engineering challenges remain, such as scaling up qubits, developing more efficient error correction codes, and integrating with high-performance computing systems. By exploiting the principles of quantum mechanics, researchers and industry aim to use quantum computers to achieve a so-called quantum advantage. It is expected that quantum computers will be able to solve complex problems that cannot currently be solved by classical high-performance computers, even those using high-performance graphics processing units. The computational power of a quantum computer increases exponentially (relative to a binary-based computer) with the addition of more qubits, highly sensitive computing units that employ superposition to encode information. Quantum computers with more qubits can accurately perform more complex calculations, helping scientists solve difficult problems in fields like chemistry and optimization challenges related to supply chains, finance, and engineering. In the midterm, the goal is to develop and commercialize intermediate-scaled quantum computers with measurement and control systems and facilitate widespread adoption of quantum computers.However, researchers are facing numerous technical challenges as they work to achieve a quantum advantage. Unlike the semiconductor industry, which has advanced through miniaturization in line with Moores Law and 3D integration, new advances in the field of quantum computing and efforts to commercialize quantum technologies will rely heavily upon a deeper understanding of the principles of quantum physics.Researchers and industry are currently using various approaches to create high-quality qubits, each with its own strengths and challenges. For example, superconducting qubits, which are made from superconducting materials operating at extremely low temperatures, are favored for their speed in performing computations and fine-tuned control. While this approach has led to the development of higher-quality qubits, physical and engineering challenges have emerged, including the need for increasingly complex wires and ever-larger cryogenic cooling systems to manage heat. Other approaches currently being developed by researchers and industry involve using photons, neutral atoms, trapped ions, and silicon qubits. There are no clear answers on the best approach for enabling utility-scale quantum computing and its commercialization, not is there consensus on whether multiple approaches will complement each other and coexist in the future or converge on a single approach.Logical qubits, which are abstractions and encoded using a collection of physical qubits to protect against errors through quantum error correction techniques, are one meaningful indicator of quantum computing performance. Although the exact ratio depends on the approach that is used, tens of thousands of physical qubits are generally required to create 1,000 logical qubits. These logical qubits can then be used to reliably run algorithms on quantum systems. High-fidelity physical qubits at a scale and with error correction are key challenges. As of February 2024, at least eight companies have achieved logical qubits (1017), regardless of the approach used. Challenges to scale quantum computational powers include protecting qubits from external noise, mitigating and correcting errors, advancing quantum control, and adding extra qubits to encode the information to detect and correct errors.Another key challenge is performing quantum calculations.

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