#### Transition from classical to quantum

- 1. The Transition from Classical to Quantum Physics
- Blackbody radiation
- Photoelectric effect
- Atomic spectra
- · Failure of classical theory
- 2. Superposition Principle
- 3. Entanglement
- 4. Uncertainty Principle
- 5. Wave-Particle Duality
- 6. Classical vs Quantum Mechanics Theoretical Comparison
- 7. Quantum States and Measurement
- 8. Overview of Quantum Systems: Electrons, Photons, Atoms
- 9. The Concept of Quantization: Discrete Energy Levels
- 10. Why Quantum? Strategic, Scientific, Technological Significance
- 11. Snapshot of Quantum Technologies: Computing, Communication, Sensing
- 12. National and Global Quantum Missions (India, U ↓ EU, China)

## **■** Introduction

Classical physics—developed through the works of Newton, Maxwell, and others—was highly successful in explaining the motion of planets, projectiles, and electromagnetism. However, as scientists probed deeper into microscopic and high-energy systems, classical physics began to fail.

Quantum theory arose not out of curiosity, but out of necessity—to explain experimental results that classical theory couldn't.

## \* Failures of Classical Physics

#### 1. Blackbody Radiation

- Phenomenon: A perfect blackbody emits radiation that depends on temperature.
- Classical prediction: Rayleigh

  Jeans law predicted infinite energy at high frequencies known as the

  Ultraviolet Catastrophe.
- Resolution: Max Planck (1900) introduced quantization of energy:

$$E = nhf, \quad n = 1, 2, 3, ...$$

Impact: First major step toward quantum theory.

#### 2. Photoelectric Effect

- Phenomenon: Shining light on a metal surface ejects electrons.
- Observations (unexplained by classical wave theory):
  - No electrons are emitted below a threshold frequency, regardless of intensity.
  - · Electron energy depends on light frequency, not intensity.
- Einstein's explanation (1905):
  - Light is made of quanta (photons) with energy:

$$E = hf$$

• Electron is ejected if  $hf>\phi$  (work function).

#### Equation:

$$K.E._{\max} = hf - \phi$$

Impact: Introduced the particle nature of light.

#### 3. Atomic Spectra

- Observation: Atoms emit light at discrete wavelengths.
- Failure of Classical Model: Could not explain why only certain lines appear.
- Bohr's Postulates:

- Electrons revolve in quantized orbits.
- Energy emitted or absorbed when jumping orbits:

$$\Delta E = E_2 - E_1 = hf$$

Impact: Introduced quantized energy levels in atoms.

## Summary of Classical Failures

Phenomenon	Classical Prediction	Actual Observation	Quantum Solution
Blackbody radiation	Infinite UV energy (diverges)	Finite spectrum	Planck's quantization
Photoelectric effect	No threshold frequency	Exists, energy ∝ frequency	Photons (Einstein)
Atomic spectra	Continuous emission	Discrete spectral lines	Quantized orbits (Bohr)

# What Changed with Quantum Physics?

Classical View	Quantum View	
Energy is continuous	Energy is quantized	
Light is a wave	Light is both wave and particle	
Particles have trajectory	Particles described by wavefunction	
Measurement is passive	Measurement alters the system	

## **E** Historical Timeline

Year	Scientist	Contribution
1900	Max Planck	Energy quantization (Blackbody)
1905	Albert Einstein	Photoelectric effect (Photon theory)
1913	Niels Bohr	Quantized orbits in atoms
1924	de Broglie	Wave nature of particles
1925	Heisenberg	Matrix mechanics
1926	Schrödinger	Wave equation for particles
1927	Born	→ Probabilistic interpretation

## Why Classical Physics Still Matters

Quantum mechanics is essential at small scales, but classical physics is still accurate:

- For macroscopic objects (cars, planets, etc.).
- In the limit  $\hbar o 0$ , quantum results converge to classical ones.
- Known as the Correspondence Principle.

## Applications Arising from Quantum Thinking

- Semiconductors and electronics (transistors, diodes)
- Lasers
- Solar cells
- Quantum computers
- MRI and advanced imaging
- Atomic clocks and GPS

## Conclusion

The transition to quantum physics was a revolutionary shift driven by empirical evidence. It opened the door to a new world of understanding and has laid the foundation for today's advanced technologies.

"The quantum theory thus arose from the attempt to explain phenomena which cannot be understood on the basis of classical physics."

- Max Born

# Topic 2: Superposition Principle in Quantum Mechanics

## **Introduction**

In classical physics, a system exists in a **definite state** at any given time — a coin is either heads or tails, a switch is either ON or OFF. However, in quantum mechanics, systems can exist in **multiple states simultaneously** until measured. This fundamental idea is known as the **superposition principle**.

## 1. Conceptual Foundation

## Classical Analogy:

- A classical bit is either 0 or 1.
- A quantum bit (qubit) can be in a state  $|0\rangle$ ,  $|1\rangle$ , or any linear combination:

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$$

where  $lpha,eta\in\mathbb{C}$  and  $|lpha|^2+|eta|^2=1$ 

## **?** Interpretation:

- $\alpha$ : amplitude (complex) for measuring the system in state  $|0\rangle$
- $\beta$ : amplitude for state  $|1\rangle$
- Probabilities:

$$P(0) = |\alpha|^2, \quad P(1) = |\beta|^2$$

## ♣ Superposition ≠ Mixture:

- Superposition is a coherent linear combination.
- A mixture is probabilistic (like a coin toss); a superposition interferes like a wave.

## **2.** Mathematical Representation

Let  $\mathcal H$  be a Hilbert space (e.g.,  $\mathbb C^2$  for qubits). Any quantum state  $|\psi\rangle\in\mathcal H$  can be expressed as:

$$|\psi
angle = \sum_i lpha_i |i
angle$$

where  $\{|i
angle\}$  is an orthonormal basis and  $lpha_i\in\mathbb{C}.$ 

#### Example:

$$|\psi
angle = rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0
angle + |1
angle)$$

- Equal superposition.
- Probabilities of measuring  $|0\rangle$  or  $|1\rangle$ : each 50%.

## 3. Measurement and Collapse

## Born Rule:

Measurement in the computational basis gives:

$$P(i) = |\langle i | \psi 
angle|^2$$

## Collapse Postulate:

After measurement:

- · System collapses to the measured eigenstate.
- E.g., measuring  $|\psi\rangle=\alpha|0\rangle+\beta|1\rangle$ , you get either  $|0\rangle$  or  $|1\rangle$ , with probabilities  $|\alpha|^2$  and  $|\beta|^2$  respectively.



## 4. Quantum Interference

#### Example:

Consider the superpositions:

• 
$$|\psi_1
angle=rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0
angle+|1
angle)$$

• 
$$|\psi_2
angle=rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0
angle-|1
angle)$$

Even though probabilities of measuring 0 or 1 are same for both, they interfere differently in circuits.

## Application:

Interference is used in quantum algorithms like Grover's search and Shor's factoring.

## 5. Superposition in Quantum Computing

#### Classical vs Quantum:

Bit / Qubit	State	
Classical bit	0 or 1	
Qubit	(\alpha	

- · A single qubit in superposition can hold two basis states.
- ullet n qubits can represent  $2^n$  states simultaneously exponential growth in computational space.

## Key Gate: Hadamard Gate (H)

$$H=rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}egin{bmatrix}1&1\ 1&-1\end{bmatrix}$$

Acts on |0⟩ as:

$$H|0
angle=rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0
angle+|1
angle)$$

Creates equal superposition — essential in quantum algorithms.



## 6. Visual Representation on Bloch Sphere

Any qubit can be represented as a point on a unit sphere in 3D space.

$$|\psi
angle = \cos\left(rac{ heta}{2}
ight)|0
angle + e^{i\phi}\sin\left(rac{ heta}{2}
ight)|1
angle$$

 $\theta$ ,  $\phi$ : polar and azimuthal angles.

#### Benefits:

- Visualizes superposition and phase difference.
- Used to show evolution during quantum computation.



## 7. Real-World Analogies

- Schrödinger's Cat: Until measured, cat is in superposition of dead and alive.
- Light polarization: A photon can be in superposition of horizontal and vertical states.

## Applications of Superposition

- Quantum parallelism: Evaluate many inputs at once.
- Quantum cryptography: Secure key distribution using no-cloning theorem.
- Quantum sensors: Enhanced precision using superposition.

## Summary

- Superposition is the backbone of quantum mechanics and quantum computing.
- Enables phenomena like interference, entanglement, and exponential scaling.
- Unlike classical logic, quantum systems evolve through complex amplitudes.



# Topic 3: Entanglement



Entanglement is a purely quantum phenomenon with no classical counterpart. It refers to a situation where the quantum states of two or more particles become so deeply correlated that measuring one instantly determines the state of the other - regardless of the distance between them.

Albert Einstein called it "spooky action at a distance," yet today it's an essential resource in quantum technologies.

## 1. What Is Entanglement?

## Example: Two Qubits

Let's define a composite system of two qubits A and B.

Product (separable) state:

$$|\psi\rangle_{AB} = |\psi\rangle_A \otimes |\phi\rangle_B$$

E.g.,

$$|\psi
angle = |0
angle_A \otimes |1
angle_B = |01
angle$$

Entangled state:

$$|\Phi^+
angle=rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00
angle+|11
angle)$$

This cannot be written as  $|\psi\rangle_A\otimes|\phi\rangle_B$ .

Measurement of one qubit instantly determines the state of the other.



## 2. Bell States — Maximally Entangled States

There are four Bell states (two-qubit maximally entangled states):

$$egin{aligned} |\Phi^+
angle &= rac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|00
angle + |11
angle) \ |\Phi^-
angle &= rac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|00
angle - |11
angle) \ |\Psi^+
angle &= rac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|01
angle + |10
angle) \ |\Psi^-
angle &= rac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|01
angle - |10
angle) \end{aligned}$$

· Used in quantum teleportation, superdense coding, and entanglement swapping.

#### 3. Measurement Outcomes and Correlation

Take:

$$|\Phi^+
angle = rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00
angle + |11
angle)$$

- If you measure qubit A and get 0, qubit B must also be 0.
- If you measure A and get 1, B must be 1.

This correlation holds even if the qubits are light-years apart.



## 4. Entanglement and Non-locality

#### Bell's Theorem:

- Proves that no local hidden variable theory can reproduce quantum predictions.
- Bell inequalities are violated by entangled quantum systems.

#### CHSH Inequality (simplified version):

If the outcome correlations exceed a certain classical bound, entanglement is confirmed.



## 5. Entanglement in Quantum Circuits

## Circuit to create $|\Phi^+\rangle$ :

- 1. Start with  $|00\rangle$
- 2. Apply Hadamard (H) to first qubit:

$$H|0
angle=rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0
angle+|1
angle)$$

3. Apply CNOT (control = qubit 1, target = qubit 2)

Result: 
$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\ket{00}+\ket{11})$$

This is a simple entanglement generator.



## 6. Applications of Entanglement

Domain Application	
Quantum Computing	Enables speed-up in certain algorithms
Quantum Teleportation	Transfer quantum states using shared entanglement
Quantum Cryptography	Quantum Key Distribution (QKD) protocols like BB84
Quantum Networks	Link distant quantum processors
Quantum Sensing	Enhances measurement precision (Heisenberg scaling)



## ↑ 7. No Cloning Theorem

Due to entanglement, it is impossible to copy unknown quantum states:

No universal cloning machine:  $|\psi\rangle \nrightarrow |\psi\rangle \otimes |\psi\rangle$ 

Important for quantum security and privacy.



## **§** 8. Difference from Classical Correlation

Feature	Classical Correlation	Quantum Entanglement
Explanation	Shared hidden variables	No local hidden variables
Signal	Cannot be used to signal	Still no faster-than-light
Probability Structure	Follows Bell inequalities	Violates Bell inequalities

## Thought Experiments

## Schrödinger's Cat (entangled with poison trigger):

- The cat is entangled with the quantum trigger.
- Until measurement, the system is in a superposition of:

$$|alive\rangle + |dead\rangle$$

## EPR Paradox (Einstein-Podolsky-Rosen):

- Suggested entanglement implies incompleteness of quantum mechanics.
- Bell's theorem later ruled in favor of quantum non-locality.

# Topic 4: The Uncertainty Principle

## **Introduction**

In classical mechanics, if we had perfect instruments, we could **precisely determine** all physical quantities of a system (position, velocity, etc.).

However, in quantum mechanics, nature imposes a fundamental limit on how precisely pairs of physical properties can be known. This is not due to our lack of precision but is inherent to quantum systems.

## 1. The Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle

Formulated by Werner Heisenberg in 1927.

#### ▲ General Form:

For two observables A and B with non-commuting operators:

$$\Delta A \cdot \Delta B \geq rac{1}{2} |\langle [\hat{A},\hat{B}] 
angle |$$

## O Position-Momentum Form:

$$\Delta x \cdot \Delta p \geq rac{\hbar}{2}$$

- $\Delta x$ : standard deviation in position
- Δp: standard deviation in momentum

## 2. Mathematical Derivation (Sketch)

Let  $\hat{x}$  and  $\hat{p}$  be operators acting on a wavefunction  $\psi(x)$ . Their **commutator** is:

$$[\hat{x},\hat{p}]=i\hbar$$

Using the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, one can derive:

$$\Delta x \cdot \Delta p \geq rac{\hbar}{2}$$

Detailed derivation can be presented using Fourier transforms in advanced courses.

## 3. Wavefunction Perspective

A particle described by a wavefunction  $\psi(x)$ :

- More localized in position → broader in momentum space
- More localized in momentum → broader in position space

This wave-particle duality causes uncertainty.

## ∡ 4. Energy–Time Uncertainty

While time isn't an operator in quantum mechanics, there's a related uncertainty:

$$\Delta E \cdot \Delta t \gtrsim rac{\hbar}{2}$$

- Important in quantum transitions and decay rates.
- Short-lived excited states have large energy uncertainty → broad spectral lines.

## 5. Examples & Applications

#### Gaussian Wave Packet:

· Minimum uncertainty is achieved by a Gaussian function:

$$\Delta x \cdot \Delta p = rac{\hbar}{2}$$

. This is the most "quantum-optimal" state.

## ★ Confined Particle (e.g., in a box):

- Smaller box (smaller  $\Delta x$ )  $\rightarrow$  greater uncertainty in p
- Explains zero-point energy: particle can't be at rest even at absolute zero.

## Applications in Technology

Field	Application
Quantum Optics	Squeezed states reduce uncertainty in one variable
Semiconductors	Confinement effects (quantum wells, dots)
Laser Physics	Gain linewidth limited by uncertainty
Timekeeping	Atomic clocks rely on energy-time precision

# **Wave-Particle Duality**



In classical physics:

- · Particles have well-defined positions and velocities.
- Waves are spread out, show interference, and diffraction.

Quantum physics blurs this distinction.

- Light, once thought to be purely a wave, also behaves like a particle (photon).
- Electrons, once considered only particles, also behave like waves.

This duality is called Wave-Particle Duality.



#### 1.1. Light as a Wave

- Proven by Young's double-slit experiment (1801).
- Explained interference and diffraction.
- Maxwell's equations described light as electromagnetic waves.

## 1.2. Light as a Particle

- Photoelectric effect (Einstein, 1905): Light behaves as discrete packets photons.
- Compton scattering (1923): Photons carry momentum and undergo elastic collisions with electrons.



Light behaves as both wave and particle, depending on the experiment.

## 2. de Broglie Hypothesis (1924)

Louis de Broglie proposed that particles (like electrons) also have wave-like behavior.

#### Formula:

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p}$$

- λ: de Broglie wavelength
- h: Planck's constant
- p: momentum of the particle

## 3. Double-Slit Experiment

#### 3.1. With Light:

- Even one photon at a time produces an interference pattern on a screen.
- If a detector checks which slit the photon goes through, the pattern disappears.

#### 3.2. With Electrons:

- Same behavior: Electron interference appears if not observed.
- If you try to detect the path, it behaves like a particle (no interference).

## 4. Probability Waves

The wavefunction  $\psi(x)$  describes a probability amplitude:

•  $|\psi(x)|^2$ : probability density of finding the particle at position x.

Quantum entities are neither purely particles nor purely waves — they are **described by wavefunctions** that **collapse** upon measurement.

## 5. Experimental Evidence of Matter Waves

Particle	Observation	Experiment
Electrons	Diffraction from crystals	Davisson–Germer (1927)
Neutrons	Interference in nuclear scattering	Atomic diffraction experiments
Atoms	Interference in Bose–Einstein condensates	Laser cooling, atom interferometers

23:00

# Topic 6: Classical vs Quantum Mechanics — **Theoretical Comparison**

## **Introduction**

Classical mechanics (developed by Newton, Lagrange, and Hamilton) successfully describes the motion of macroscopic objects — cars, planets, pendulums.

Quantum mechanics arose to explain the microscopic world — electrons, atoms, photons — where classical laws fail.

The two theories describe the same universe, but from radically different perspectives.

#### 1. Side-by-Side Theoretical Comparison

Feature	Classical Mechanics	Quantum Mechanics
Determinism	Fully deterministic (future predictable)	Probabilistic (wavefunction gives probabilities)
State Description	Position and momentum $(x,p)$	State vector (
Evolution Equation	Newton's or Hamilton's equations	Schrödinger equation
Measurement	Doesn't disturb system	Collapses wavefunction to an eigenstate
Observable Values	Real values, directly measurable	Operators act on states to yield eigenvalues
nergy	Continuous values	Quantized (discrete) energy levels
nterference	Not applicable	Central to quantum behavior
uperposition	Not possible	Fundamental (e.g., qubits)
rajectories	Well-defined paths	Not defined; only probabilities
ime Evolution	Determined by forces	Determined by Hamiltonian operator



## 2. Classical Viewpoint

A system is described by:

x(t): position as a function of time

• p(t): momentum as a function of time

The evolution is governed by:

Newton's Second Law:

$$F=ma=rac{dp}{dt}$$

· Or Hamilton's equations:

$$rac{dx}{dt} = rac{\partial H}{\partial p}, \quad rac{dp}{dt} = -rac{\partial H}{\partial x}$$

Everything is predictable if initial conditions are known.

## 3. Quantum Viewpoint

A system is described by a wavefunction:

$$|\psi(t)
angle \in \mathcal{H}$$

The wavefunction evolves according to the time-dependent Schrödinger equation:

$$i\hbarrac{\partial}{\partial t}|\psi(t)
angle=\hat{H}|\psi(t)
angle$$

Key differences:

- Probabilities arise from  $|\psi(x)|^2$
- Measurement affects the system
- · Observables are operators acting on wavefunctions

## 4. Measurement: A Major Difference

#### In Classical Mechanics:

You can measure position or momentum without affecting the system.

#### In Quantum Mechanics:

- Measurement collapses the state into an eigenstate of the observable:
  - If the system is in  $|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$ , measuring in the  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$  basis gives one of them randomly, destroying the superposition.



## 5. Energy Levels: Continuous vs Discrete

#### Classical:

· A harmonic oscillator can have any energy:

$$E=rac{1}{2}mv^2+rac{1}{2}kx^2$$

#### Quantum:

Energy is quantized:

$$E_n=\left(n+rac{1}{2}
ight)\hbar\omega$$

Quantum systems can only occupy discrete energy levels.



#### 6. Superposition and Interference

- Classical particles exist in a definite state.
- Quantum states can exist in superpositions of basis states:

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle$$

Superposition leads to interference effects, absent in classical physics.

## 7. Quantum-Classical Correspondence

As system size or energy increases, quantum mechanics approaches classical behavior.

This is known as the Correspondence Principle:

"Quantum mechanics must agree with classical mechanics in the limit of large quantum numbers."

E.g., A quantum harmonic oscillator looks more classical at high energies.

## 8. Examples of Classical vs Quantum Descriptions

System	Classical Description	Quantum Description
Planetary motion	Newton's laws	Irrelevant — size too large
Harmonic oscillator	Continuous oscillation	Quantized energy levels
Atom	Electron orbits	Electron cloud, probabilistic orbitals
Double-slit experiment	Particles hit one slit	Interference from both slits
Photoelectric effect	Energy accumulates over time	Instant emission via photons

# 4 9. Where Classical Fails

Phenomenon	Classical Prediction	Experimental Observation	Quantum Explanation
Blackbody radiation	Infinite energy at UV	Finite spectrum	Planck's quantization
Photoelectric effect	Depends on intensity	Depends on frequency	Photon energy $E=hf$
Atomic spectra	Continuous emissions	Discrete lines	Quantized orbits / energy levels
Double-slit with electrons	Particle-like hits	Interference pattern	Wave-particle duality

## Quantum States and Measurement



In classical physics, a system has a definite state (e.g., a particle's exact position and momentum). In quantum physics, a system is described by a quantum state, which encodes all possible outcomes of measurements.

The act of measurement is not passive — it plays an active role in changing the state of a quantum system.

#### 1. What Is a Quantum State?

#### 1.1 State Vector

A quantum state is represented by a vector  $|\psi\rangle$  in a Hilbert space  ${\cal H}$  (a complex vector space with an inner product).

For a qubit (2-level system):

$$|\psi\rangle=lpha|0
angle+eta|1
angle, \quad {
m with}\ |lpha|^2+|eta|^2=1$$

- $|0\rangle, |1\rangle$ : computational basis states
- $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ : complex probability amplitudes

## 2. Pure vs Mixed States

#### 2.1 Pure State

A system in a definite state:

$$|\psi
angle = lpha |0
angle + eta |1
angle$$

Described completely by the state vector.

#### 2.2 Mixed State

A statistical ensemble of pure states:

$$ho = \sum_i p_i |\psi_i
angle \langle \psi_i|$$

- ρ: density matrix
- $p_i$ : classical probability

Used when the state is not known precisely.

#### 3. Measurement in Quantum Mechanics

Measurements are modeled by Hermitian operators (observables).

#### 3.1 Measurement Postulates

Let  $\hat{A}$  be an observable with eigenstates  $\{|a_i
angle\}$  and eigenvalues  $\{a_i\}$ :

- Possible outcomes of a measurement are the eigenvalues a<sub>i</sub>.
- **2.** If the system is in state  $|\psi
  angle$ , the **probability** of outcome  $a_i$  is:

$$P(a_i) = |\langle a_i | \psi \rangle|^2$$

**3.** After the measurement, the system **collapses** to the corresponding eigenstate  $|a_i\rangle$ .

#### 4. Born Rule

The Born rule gives the probability of measuring a specific value:

If  $|\psi\rangle$  is a normalized state, then the probability of finding the system in state  $|a_i\rangle$  is:

$$P(a_i) = |\langle a_i | \psi \rangle|^2$$

The sum of probabilities over all possible outcomes is always 1.

## 5. Example: Qubit Measurement in Standard Basis

Let:

$$|\psi
angle=rac{3}{5}|0
angle+rac{4}{5}|1
angle$$

Probability of measuring  $|0\rangle$ :

$$P(0) = \left| \frac{3}{5} \right|^2 = \frac{9}{25}$$

Probability of measuring |1>:

$$P(1) = \left| \frac{4}{5} \right|^2 = \frac{16}{25}$$

After the measurement, the state collapses to  $|0\rangle$  or  $|1\rangle$ .

## 6. Measurement Operators and Projective Measurements

For a complete measurement with orthonormal basis  $\{|i\rangle\}$ , we define projection operators:

$$\hat{P}_i = |i\rangle\langle i|$$

The post-measurement state (assuming outcome i) is:

$$|\psi'
angle = rac{\hat{P}_i |\psi
angle}{\sqrt{P(i)}}$$

Projective measurements are repeatable and satisfy completeness:

$$\sum_i \hat{P}_i = \mathbb{I}$$

## 7. Generalized Measurements (POVM)

In real experiments, not all measurements are projective.

Positive Operator-Valued Measurements (POVMs) allow for non-orthogonal outcomes:

$$\{E_i\}, \quad E_i \geq 0, \quad \sum_i E_i = \mathbb{I}$$

These are useful for:

- Quantum communication
- Quantum cryptography
- Noisy measurements

## 

In classical mechanics:

Measurement reveals pre-existing values.

In quantum mechanics:

- Measurement creates the outcome the state collapses.
- Measurement affects the future evolution of the system.

This difference is key to understanding quantum unpredictability.

## 9. Repeatability and Disturbance

- If you measure a system and get  $a_i$ , and immediately re-measure, you will get  $a_i$  again (assuming no time evolution).
- But after the first measurement, the wavefunction is not the original it has collapsed.

This shows how measurement disturbs the system.

# Topic 8: Overview of Quantum Systems – Electrons, Photons, Atoms

## **Introduction**

Quantum theory was developed to explain behavior of fundamental particles — electrons, photons, atoms - that defy classical explanation.

Each system exhibits unique quantum properties:

- · Electrons: wave-like nature, spin
- Photons: polarization, quantized energy
- Atoms: discrete energy levels, entanglement in multi-atom systems

These are building blocks for quantum technologies.



## 1. Electrons: Quantum Nature of Matter

#### 1.1 Wave-Particle Duality

- Electrons exhibit interference and diffraction (Davisson-Germer experiment, 1927).
- Have a de Broglie wavelength:

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p}$$

## 1.2 Quantum Tunneling

- Electrons can penetrate barriers classically forbidden.
- Used in:
  - Scanning tunneling microscopes (STM)
  - Tunnel diodes

#### 1.3 Electron Spin

- Intrinsic angular momentum:  $s=\frac{1}{2}$
- Two eigenstates:  $|\uparrow\rangle$ ,  $|\downarrow\rangle$
- · Measured using Stern-Gerlach experiment
- Crucial for:
  - Qubits in quantum computers
  - Magnetism in materials

#### 1.4 Confinement and Quantization

Electrons in atoms or quantum dots exhibit discrete energy levels.

## 2. Photons: Quantum of Light

#### 2.1 Energy Quantization

$$E = hf$$

- h: Planck's constant
- f: frequency of photon

#### Explains photoelectric effect:

· Energy depends on frequency, not intensity.

#### 2.2 Polarization

- · Polarization is a qubit-like degree of freedom:
  - Horizontal |H
    angle, Vertical |V
    angle
  - · Arbitrary superposition possible

#### 2.3 Photon Interference

Double-slit experiment with photons yields interference patterns even one photon at a time.

## 2.4 Applications

- Quantum communication (e.g., Quantum Key Distribution)
- Quantum cryptography
- · Entangled photon pairs: Bell tests, quantum teleportation



## 3. Atoms: Quantum Building Blocks of Matter

#### 3.1 Discrete Energy Levels

- · Electrons occupy quantized orbits.
- Emission and absorption only at specific frequencies.

$$E_n = -rac{13.6\,\mathrm{eV}}{n^2} \quad ext{(Hydrogen atom)}$$

#### 3.2 Atomic Transitions and Spectroscopy

- Atoms absorb/emmit photons → spectroscopy
- · Atomic clocks use highly stable transitions (e.g., cesium-133 hyperfine transition)

#### 3.3 Atomic Traps and Cooling

- Laser cooling brings atoms to near absolute zero.
- Trapped in optical lattices and magnetic traps.

#### Applications:

- Quantum simulation
- Bose-Einstein condensates (BECs)
- Ultracold atoms for quantum sensors and computing

## 4. Comparison Table

Property	Electrons	Photons	Atoms
Mass	Non-zero	Zero	Varies
Spin	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	Depends on nucleus + electrons
Observable Property	Position, momentum, spin	Energy, polarization	Energy levels, hyperfine states
Technology Use	Qubits, transistors, STM	Communication, cryptography	Clocks, sensors, simulation
Experimental Tool	Electron microscope	Polarizers, beam splitters	Optical traps, lasers

# Topic 9: Concept of Quantization – Discrete Energy Levels

## **Introduction**

In classical physics, physical quantities like energy can vary continuously.

In quantum physics, quantization means that certain physical properties — such as energy, angular momentum, and charge — can only take discrete values.

This is a direct result of wave-like behavior and boundary conditions.

## 1. What Is Quantization?

Quantization refers to the idea that only specific values of a physical quantity are allowed.

#### **Examples:**

- Electrons in atoms occupy discrete energy levels.
- Angular momentum of electrons is quantized.
- Photons have quantized energy: E = hf

Quantization is like:

Only being allowed to walk up stairs, not slide up a ramp — you can only stand on specific steps.

## 2. Classic Examples of Quantized Systems

#### 2.1. Particle in a 1D Box (Infinite Square Well)

Potential:

$$V(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 < x < L \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Solution to Schrödinger Equation:

$$\psi_n(x) = \sqrt{rac{2}{L}} \sin\left(rac{n\pi x}{L}
ight), \quad n=1,2,3,...$$

Energy levels:

$$E_n=rac{n^2h^2}{8mL^2}$$

#### Takeaways:

- Energy is not continuous.
- The quantum number n determines energy only discrete values are allowed.

#### 2.2. Quantum Harmonic Oscillator

Potential:

$$V(x)=rac{1}{2}m\omega^2x^2$$

Energy levels:

$$E_n = \left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right)\hbar\omega$$

• Even the lowest energy state has energy  $\frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega$  — this is called zero-point energy.

#### 2.3. Bohr Model of Hydrogen Atom

Quantized angular momentum:

$$L = n\hbar$$

Energy levels:

$$E_n = -\frac{13.6\,\mathrm{eV}}{n^2}$$

Spectral lines (Balmer, Lyman series) arise due to transitions between discrete levels.

## 3. Why Does Quantization Occur?

- Quantum particles behave like waves.
- To be physically allowed, wavefunctions must satisfy boundary conditions (e.g., zero at walls).
- Only certain wavelengths (and thus energies) satisfy this like standing waves on a string.

#### Analogy:

A guitar string can only vibrate at specific frequencies — similarly, electrons in a box can only have certain energies.



## 4. Visualization and Graphs

- Plot wavefunctions  $\psi_n(x)$  for the first 3 energy levels in a box.
- Show energy level diagrams for:
  - Particle in a box (increasing spacing)
  - Harmonic oscillator (equal spacing)
  - · Hydrogen atom (decreasing spacing)

Use simulations (e.g., PhET, GeoGebra, Desmos) to animate wavefunctions and energy levels.



## **○** 5. Key Properties of Quantized Energy Levels

Property	Particle in a Box	Harmonic Oscillator	Hydrogen Atom
Zero-point energy	No	Yes	Yes
Spacing of levels	Increases with $n$	Constant	Decreases with $n$
Degeneracy	None in 1D	None	Present (for orbitals)
Source of quantization	Boundary conditions	Potential shape + wave	Coulomb potential + angular
		nature	momentum



## 6. Applications of Quantization

Field	Application	
Atomic Physics	Spectral lines, atomic clocks	
Solid-State Physics	Energy bands, semiconductors, quantum wells	
Optics	Lasers (quantized photon emission)	
Nanotechnology	Quantum dots with tunable energy levels	
Quantum Computing	Qubits implemented using discrete energy levels	

## 7. Zero-Point Energy

- Even at absolute zero, systems have non-zero energy due to quantum fluctuations.
- Demonstrated in:
  - Casimir effect
  - Vacuum fluctuations
  - · Harmonic oscillator ground state

## 8. Experimental Evidence

- Atomic spectra: Emission lines are discrete (e.g., hydrogen spectrum).
- Franck-Hertz experiment: Demonstrated quantized energy absorption in mercury atoms.
- Quantum dot photoluminescence: Color of emission depends on size → energy quantization.

## 9. Quantization vs Continuum

Classical View	Quantum View
Continuous energies	Only certain discrete values
Trajectories	Probabilistic wavefunctions
Energy exchange	Can be infinitesimally small

# Topic 10: Why Quantum? Strategic, Scientific, and Technological Significance

## **Introduction**

Quantum mechanics isn't just an academic theory — it's a powerful engine of modern science and technology.

From everyday electronics to cutting-edge research, quantum mechanics enables innovation in:

- Computing
- Communication
- Sensing
- Materials
- Security and defense

## 1. Scientific Significance

#### 1.1 Explaining the Universe

- Describes atomic structure, chemical bonding, particle interactions.
- Forms the foundation of modern physics:
  - Atomic, nuclear, condensed matter, and high-energy physics.
  - Basis for the Standard Model and quantum field theory.

## 1.2 Breakthrough Discoveries

- Explains previously inexplicable phenomena:
  - Blackbody radiation
  - Photoelectric effect
  - Superconductivity
  - · Quantum tunneling
- Enabled the development of:
  - Quantum electrodynamics (QED)
  - Quantum chromodynamics (QCD)



## 2. Technological Significance

#### 2.1 Quantum Electronics

- Semiconductors and transistors rely on quantum mechanics.
- Quantum tunneling essential in flash memory and scanning tunneling microscopes.

#### 2.2 Lasers and Photonics

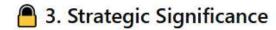
- Based on quantized energy transitions in atoms.
- Key to CD/DVD players, fiber optics, barcode scanners, and LIDAR.

#### 2.3 MRI and Imaging

- Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) relies on quantum spin behavior.
- Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) used in chemistry and drug discovery.

#### 2.4 Quantum Computers

- Use qubits to outperform classical computers in specific problems:
  - · Factorization (Shor's algorithm)
  - · Search (Grover's algorithm)
  - · Simulation of quantum systems



#### 3.1 National Security

- Quantum communication provides unbreakable encryption:
  - Quantum Key Distribution (QKD)
  - Immune to man-in-the-middle attacks

#### 3.2 Economic Leadership

- Quantum technologies are part of the next tech revolution:
  - Countries investing billions in R&D
  - · Intellectual property and quantum patents are growing

#### 3.3 Defense Applications

- Quantum radar: Stealth aircraft detection
- Navigation systems without GPS
- · Quantum sensing: Submarine detection, magnetic anomaly mapping

## 4. Quantum vs Classical Technology: A Comparison

Domain	Classical Technology	Quantum Technology
Computation	Bits (0 or 1), sequential	Qubits (superposition, entanglement)
Communication	Fiber optics, digital encryption	QKD, entangled photon channels
Sensors	Thermometers, accelerometers	Quantum-enhanced precision sensors
Cryptography	RSA encryption (vulnerable to quantum)	Post-quantum and quantum-safe algorithms

## 5. Global Technological Race

- US, China, EU, and India investing heavily in quantum research.
- Quantum supremacy is seen as a strategic milestone.
- · Collaborations between:
  - Government agencies (e.g., NASA, DRDO)
  - Universities (e.g., IITs, MIT, TU Delft)
  - Companies (e.g., IBM, Google, Intel, Honeywell)



## 6. Societal and Industrial Impact

#### 6.1 Industry Applications

Sector	Quantum Role	
Healthcare	Faster drug design, protein folding simulations	
Finance	Risk analysis, fraud detection using quantum algorithms	
Logistics	Optimized routing and scheduling	
Environment	Better models for climate, energy storage solutions	
AI/ML	Quantum machine learning, faster pattern recognition	

#### 6.2 Education and Workforce

- New job roles: quantum software engineers, cryogenic hardware specialists, quantum physicists.
- Universities launching quantum curricula and degrees.

## 7. Philosophical and Scientific Paradigm Shift

Quantum mechanics challenges our classical worldview:

- Nature is not deterministic outcomes are probabilistic.
- Observer and measurement affect the reality.
- Leads to debates on philosophy of science and interpretations of quantum theory.



## 8. Examples of Quantum Superiority

Task	Classical Best	Quantum Advantage
Factoring 300-digit number	Billions of years	Minutes (Shor's algorithm)
Searching unordered database	O(n)	$O(\sqrt{n})$ (Grover's)
Simulating molecules	Approximate	Exact (quantum simulators)

# Topic 11: Snapshot of Quantum Technologies Computing, Communication, and Sensing

## Introduction

Quantum technologies leverage principles like:

- Superposition
- Entanglement
- Measurement-induced collapse

They unlock new capabilities beyond classical limits, giving rise to:

- 1. Quantum Computing
- 2. Quantum Communication
- 3. Quantum Sensing

These are the pillars of the second quantum revolution.

## 1. Quantum Computing

#### 1.1 What is Quantum Computing?

- Instead of bits (0 or 1), quantum computers use qubits, which can be in superpositions of 0 and 1.
- Perform many calculations in parallel using quantum interference.

#### 1.2 Qubit Types

- Superconducting circuits (e.g., IBM, Google)
- Trapped ions (e.g., IonQ)
- Spin qubits, photonic qubits, topological qubits

#### 1.3 Key Concepts

Concept	Description	
Superposition	A qubit exists in a combination of states	
Entanglement	Strong correlations between qubits	
Quantum Gates	Operations on qubits (analogous to logic gates)	
Quantum Circuits	Sequence of quantum gates forming an algorithm	

## 1.4 Applications

- Cryptography (Shor's algorithm)
- Search (Grover's algorithm)
- Molecular simulation (quantum chemistry)
- · Optimization problems (logistics, finance)

#### 1.5 Limitations

- Decoherence: loss of quantum information due to environment
- Error correction: Quantum states are fragile
- Scalability: Difficult to maintain large-scale qubit systems

## 2. Quantum Communication

#### 2.1 What is Quantum Communication?

Uses quantum states (e.g., photon polarization) to encode and transfer information securely.

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. Uses quantum states (e.g., photon polarization) to encode and transfer information securely.

#### 2.2 Key Concepts

Concept	Description
QKD	Quantum Key Distribution (e.g., BB84 protocol)
No-Cloning Theorem	Quantum information can't be perfectly copied
Quantum Teleportation	State transfer using entanglement and classical communication
Entanglement Swapping	Extending entanglement over long distances

#### 2.3 Benefits

- Unbreakable encryption eavesdropping causes detectable disturbances
- Enables secure banking, defense, and communication

#### 2.4 Challenges

- · Photons get absorbed in fiber over long distances
- · Requires quantum repeaters for long-range communication

#### 2.5 Examples

- Micius satellite (China): First quantum satellite
- · Tata Institute (India): Quantum secure communication trial

## 3. Quantum Sensing

#### 3.1 What is Quantum Sensing?

Uses quantum coherence and entanglement to enhance measurement precision.

#### 3.2 Features

- Exceed classical limits set by Heisenberg uncertainty
- Operate at extreme precision, sometimes at atomic scale

## 3.3 Applications

Field	Quantum Sensor Type	Use Case
Navigation	Quantum gyroscopes	GPS-free positioning
Medicine	SQUIDs (Superconducting Quantum Interference Devices)	Brain imaging, heart diagnostics
Earth science	Quantum gravimeters, magnetometers	Oil exploration, archaeological surveys
Military	Quantum radar	Detect stealth aircraft

#### 3.4 Example Technologies

- NV centers in diamond (sensitive to magnetic fields)
- Atomic clocks (ultra-precise timekeeping)
- · Interferometers (LIGO-style setups with quantum enhancements)

## 4. Comparison Table

Aspect	Quantum Computing	Quantum Communication	Quantum Sensing
Resource	Qubits	Photons / entangled states	Coherent atomic/molecular states
Key Use	Fast processing	Secure data transfer	High-precision measurement
Physics Used	Superposition, entanglement	No-cloning, entanglement	Interference, quantum limits
Maturity	Experimental/prototype	Early-stage deployment	Commercial systems exist
Examples	IBM Q, Google Sycamore	QKD networks, Micius satellite	Quantum gravimeters, atomic clocks

## 5. Global Progress and Companies

Country	Notable Institutions / Efforts	
USA	IBM, Google, Rigetti, Honeywell, Microsoft	
China	Micius satellite, Alibaba Quantum Lab	
EU	Quantum Flagship projects, QUTECH (Netherlands)	
India	TIFR, ISRO, IITs, National Quantum Mission	

## 6. Quantum Advantage and Beyond

- Quantum Advantage: When quantum device outperforms the best classical counterpart (e.g., Google Sycamore's supremacy claim).
- Long-term vision:
  - · Quantum internet
  - Full fault-tolerant quantum computers
  - Mass-deployable quantum sensors

# Topic 12: National and Global Quantum Missions – India, EU, USA, China

## **■** Introduction

Quantum technologies have moved from labs to policy tables.

Governments worldwide are investing heavily in:

- Quantum computing
- Quantum communication
- Quantum sensing
- Quantum materials

This is not just for science, but for economic security, defense, and technological leadership.

## IN 1. India's National Quantum Mission (NQM)

#### 1.1 Launch and Vision

- Launched in April 2023 by Govt. of India
- Budget: ₹6003 crore (~\$730 million)
- Duration: 2023–2031
- Aim: Build indigenous quantum capabilities in all critical sectors.

#### 1.2 Objectives

- Develop intermediate-scale quantum computers (50–100 qubits)
- Establish 4 Thematic Hubs (T-Hubs):
  - · Quantum computing
  - Quantum communication
  - Quantum sensing and metrology
  - · Quantum materials and devices

#### 1.3 Key Institutions

- IIT Madras, IISc Bangalore, TIFR Mumbai, RRCAT Indore
- · Collaboration with DRDO, ISRO, CDAC, startups, and private industry

#### 1.4 Strategic Significance

- · Secure communication for military and critical infrastructure
- Develop quantum-based navigation and imaging systems
- Promote quantum education and skilling

## us 2. United States: National Quantum Initiative (NQI)

#### 2.1 Policy and Funding

- National Quantum Initiative Act (2018)
- Coordinated by NQI Office under White House OSTP
- Over \$1.2 billion committed over 5 years

#### 2.2 Key Agencies

Agency	Role
NSF	Quantum research & education
DOE	Quantum materials, simulation
NIST	Metrology & quantum standards
DARPA	Defense-focused quantum research

## 2.3 Major Centers

- QIS Centers: Fermilab, Oak Ridge, Berkeley, Harvard
- IBM, Google, Microsoft heavily involved

#### 2.4 Milestones

- Google's quantum supremacy claim (2019)
- Quantum networking testbeds (Chicago QLoop)

## EU 3. European Union: Quantum Flagship

#### 3.1 Overview

- Initiative launched in 2018
- Total funding: €1 billion over 10 years (2018–2028)

#### 3.2 Strategic Pillars

- 1. Quantum computing (hardware + software)
- 2. Quantum communication (EU-wide QKD network)
- 3. Quantum simulation
- 4. Quantum sensing and metrology



#### 3.3 Key Programs

- EuroQCI: European Quantum Communication Infrastructure
- Quantum Internet Alliance
- OpenSuperQ: Open-access quantum computing platform

#### 3.4 Countries Leading the Effort

Germany, France, Netherlands, Austria, Finland

## CN 4. China's Quantum Leap

#### 4.1 Government Push

- Heavy investments since early 2000s
- Estimated budget: >\$10 billion
- Building the world's largest Quantum Research Center in Hefei

#### 4.2 Milestones

- Micius Satellite (2016):
  - First quantum satellite
  - Demonstrated quantum key distribution over 1200 km
- Quantum teleportation experiments
- Claims of quantum computing performance (e.g., Jiuzhang photonic processor)

#### 4.3 Defense and Strategy

- Focused on quantum-secure military networks
- Building quantum internet prototypes
- · Actively filing patents and publishing top quantum research

## 5. Comparative Summary

Country	Initiative Name	Budget	Focus Areas
India	National Quantum Mission	₹6003 crore	Qubits, QKD, sensors, materials
USA	National Quantum Initiative	\$1.2+ billion	Computing, standards, workforce, defense
EU	Quantum Flagship	€1 billion	Computing, comm., sensing, infrastructure
China	Multiple national efforts	>\$10 billion	Quantum satellite, computing, defense, patents

## 6. Global Collaboration vs Competition

- Some collaborations exist (e.g., academic partnerships, conferences)
- · But increasing emphasis on national sovereignty and technology security
- · Quantum race is compared to the space race or nuclear race of the 20th century

## 7. Role of Academia and Industry

- Leading universities: MIT, Caltech, IITs, ETH Zurich, Oxford, Tsinghua
- Key industry players:
  - IBM Q, Google Quantum AI, Rigetti, Intel, PsiQuantum
  - Alibaba, Baidu, Xanadu, IonQ, Honeywell

Startups, open-source platforms (like Qiskit, PennyLane, Cirq) are fueling rapid development.

## 8. How Students and Researchers Can Contribute

- · Learn foundational quantum mechanics and linear algebra
- Practice programming quantum circuits (Qiskit, Cirq, PennyLane)
- · Take part in hackathons, online courses, open research projects
- Consider careers in quantum labs, companies, and interdisciplinary R&D