A guide to quantum physics

uantum physics (historically known as quantum mechanics) covers a set of physical laws that apply at microscopic scale. While fundamentally different from the majority of laws that appear to apply at our own scale, the laws of quantum physics nevertheless underpin the general basis of physics at all scales. That said, on the macroscopic scale, quantum physics in action appears to behave particularly strangely, except for a certain number of phenomena that were already curious, such as superconductivity or superfluidity, which in fact can only explained by the laws of guantum physics. Furthermore, the transition from the validating the paradoxes of quantum physics to the laws of classical physics, which we find easier to comprehend, can be explained in a very general way, as will be mentioned later.

Quantum physics gets its name from the fundamental characteristics of quantum objects: characteristics such as the angular momentum (spin) of discrete or discontinuous particles called quanta, which can only take values multiplied by an elementary quantum. There is also a quantum of action (product of a unit of energy multiplied by time) called Planck's cons-



An "artist's impression" of the Schrödinger equation.

tant (symbolized as h) which has a value of 6.626 x 10^{-34} joule second. While classical physics separates waves from particles, quantum physics somehow covers both these concepts in a third group, which goes beyond the simple wave-particle duality that Louis de Broglie imagined. When we attempt to comprehend it, it sometimes seems closer to waves, and sometimes to particles. A guantum object cannot be separated from how it is observed, and has no fixed attributes. This applies equally to a particle - which in no way can be likened to a tiny little bead following some kind of trajectory - of light (photon)

or matter (electron, proton, neutron, atom, etc.).

This is the underlying feature behind the Heisenberg uncertainty principle, which is another cornerstone of quantum physics. According to this principle (which is more *indeterminacy* than *uncertainty*), the position and the velocity of a particle cannot be measured *simultaneously* at a given point in time. Measurement remains possible, but can never be more accurate than *h*, Planck's constant. Given that these approximations have no intrinsically real value outside the observation process, this simultaneous determination of both position and velocity becomes simply impossible.

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At any moment in time, the quantum object presents the characteristic of superposing several states, in the same way that one wave can be the sum of several others. In quantum theory, the amplitude of a wave (like the peak, for example) is equal to a **probability** amplitude (or probability wave), a complex number-valued function associated with each of the possible sates of a system thus described as quantum. Mathematically speaking, a physical state in this kind of system is represented by a state vector, a function that can be added to others via superposition. In other words, the sum of two possible state vectors of a system is also a possible state vector of that system. Also, the product of two vector spaces is also the sum of the vector products, which indicates entanglement: as a state vector is generally spread through space, the notion of local objects no longer holds true. For a pair of entangled particles, *i.e.* particles created together or having already interacted, that is, described by the *product* and not the *sum* of the two individual state vectors, the fate of each particle is linked - entangled with the other, regardless of the distance between the two. This characteristic, also called quantum state entanglement, has staggering consequences, even before considering the potential applications, such as quantum cryptography or - why not? - teleportation. From this point on, the ability to predict the behaviour of a quantum system is reduced to probabilistic or statistical predictability. It is as if the quantum object is some kind of "juxtaposition of possibilities". Until it has been measured, the measurable size that supposedly quantifies the physical property under study is not strictly defined. Yet as soon as this measurement process is launched, it destroys the quantum superposition through the "collapse of the wave-packet" described by Werner Heisenberg in 1927. All the properties of a quantum system can be deduced from the equation that Erwin Schrödinger put forward the previous year. Solving the Schrödinger equation made it possible to determine the energy of a system as well as the wave function, a notion that tends to be replaced by the probability amplitude.

According to another cornerstone principle of quantum physics, the **Pauli exclusion principle**, two identical halfspin ions (fermions, particularly electrons) cannot simultaneously share the same position, spin and velocity (within the limits imposed by the uncertainty principle), *i.e.* share the same *quantum state.* **Bosons** (especially photons) do not follow this principle, and can exist in the same quantum state.

The coexistence of superposition states is what lends coherence to a guantum system. This means that the theory of **quantum decoherence** is able to explain why macroscopic objects. atoms and other particles, present "classical" behaviour whereas microscopic objects show quantum behaviour. Far more influence is exerted by the "environment" (air, background radiation, etc.) than an advanced measurement device, as the environment radically removes all superposition of states at this scale. The larger the system considered, the more it is coupled to a large number of degrees of freedom in the environment, which means the less "chance" (to stick with a probabilistic logic) it has of maintaining any degree of guantum coherence.

TO FIND OUT MORE:

Étienne Klein, *Petit voyage* dans le monde des quanta, Champs, Flammarion, 2004.