

Quantum-classical point processes.

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General situation

$(X, \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{B}_0)$ is a general phase space. $\mathfrak{X} = \mathcal{M}_f^+(X)$ denotes the collection of configurations in X , i.e. the finite point measures in X .

The point of departure is a complex measure L on \mathfrak{X} satisfying $L\{o\} = 0$. It is the generator of the main object

$$\mathfrak{S}_L = \exp(L - L(1)\Delta_o).$$

Here the right hand side is defined as $\exp K = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} K^{*n}$. \mathfrak{S}_L is a complex measure which is normalized in the sense $\mathfrak{S}_L \mathbf{1} = 1$, and has the representation

$$(1) \quad \mathfrak{S}_L = \frac{1}{\Xi} \exp L, \quad \Xi = \exp L \mathbf{1}.$$

We are only interested in the case where \mathfrak{S}_L is a law, i.e. a probability P on \mathfrak{X} , i.e. a finite point process in X .

In typical situations a canonical procedure allows to extend these laws to processes with infinitely many particles.

Interpretation of \mathfrak{S}_L According to (1) \mathfrak{S}_L then realizes finite configurations of particles in X which are the result of finitely many independent superpositions of finite clusters (which are generated by L).

A special class of L : Quantum processes

We are given a *quantum interaction* κ , i.e. a Hermitean kernel κ of positive type (=positive definit) together with $z > 0$ and

$\varepsilon \in \{-1, +1\}$. We then consider the complex pseudomeasure

$$(2) \quad \mathbb{L} \varphi = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \varepsilon^{m-1} \frac{z^m}{m} \int_{X^m} \varphi(\delta_{x_1} + \cdots + \delta_{x_m}) \kappa(x_1, x_2) \kappa(x_2, x_3) \cdots \kappa(x_m, x_1) \, dx_1 \dots dx_m.$$

Here and in the sequel $\lambda(dx) = dx$ denotes a locally finite reference measure in the phase space. Under general and natural additional integrability assumptions on κ one then can show for z small enough the existence of an infinitely extended point process $P = \mathfrak{S}_{\mathbb{L}}$ in X , which is locally specified by the measures

$$(3) \quad \varrho_k(dx_1 \dots dx_k) = z^k \varphi_{\varepsilon}^{\kappa}(\delta_{x_1} + \cdots + \delta_{x_k}) \, dx_1 \dots dx_k.$$

The density $\varphi_{\varepsilon}^{\kappa}$ is the *immanant* of (κ, ε) ; i.e. in the case $\varepsilon = -1$ the determinant $\det \left(\kappa(x_i, x_j) \right)_{i,j=1}^k$ and if $\varepsilon = +1$ the permanent of this matrix. This process $P = \mathfrak{S}_{\mathbb{L}}$ we call *quantum process specified by (κ, ε)* .

One can show that L is of first order, and thereby P satisfies the so-called *cluster equation*

$$(4) \quad \mathcal{C}_P = \mathcal{C}_L \star P,$$

which in some sense replaces the DLR-equation in the case of classical systems. Here \mathcal{C}_P denotes the *Campbell measure of P* which contains the information of all moment measures of P . The operation \star is some version of a convolution.

The cluster equation immediately implies that the intensity of P is

$$\nu_P^1(dx) = \nu_L^1(dx) = K_\kappa^\varepsilon(x, x) \cdot dx$$

Here

$$K_\kappa^\varepsilon = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \varepsilon^{m-1} z^m \kappa^{\star m}$$

is the so-called *correlation kernel* for κ .

Consider the factorial moment measures $\tilde{\nu}_P^k$ of order $k \geq 2$ of P . They are defined by

$$\tilde{\nu}_P^k f = \int_{\mathcal{M}^{\cdot}(X)} \tilde{\mu}^k(f) P(d\mu), \quad f \in \mathcal{K}(X).$$

Here

$$\tilde{\mu}^k(d x_1 \dots d x_k) = \mu(d x_1) (\mu - \delta_{x_1})(d x_2) \dots \left(\mu - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \delta_{x_j} \right) (d x_k).$$

One can show that they are dominated by λ^k :

$$(5) \quad \tilde{\nu}_P^k(d x_1 \dots d x_k) = \wp_{\varepsilon}^{K_{\kappa}^{\varepsilon}}(\delta_{x_1} + \dots + \delta_{x_k}) \cdot d x_1 \dots d x_k.$$

The immanant appearing as a density is the correlation function of P . Equation (5) signifies that P is an immanantal process for

K_{κ}^{ε} , thus a permanental process if $\varepsilon = +1$ and a determinantal process if $\varepsilon = -1$.

To summarize:

Proposition 1 *Quantum processes specified by κ are immanantal processes for the associated correlation kernel.*

A direct consequence of this basic result is for instance simplicity of determinantal processes.

Examples

Example 1 Quantum Pólya processes. (cf. Bach and Zessin[?], (2017))

We consider the realm of early quantum mechanics: X is an infinite discrete space and λ a point measure on X which is bounded in the sense that $\sup_y \lambda(y) < \infty$. The quantum interaction is the kernel

$$\kappa(x, y) = \mathbf{1}_{\{0\}}(x - y), \quad x, y \in X.$$

Its cluster measure is

$$\mathbb{L} \varphi = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \varepsilon^{m-1} \frac{z^m}{m} \sum_{x \in X} \varphi(m\delta_x) \lambda(x)^m.$$

The corresponding point process in X exists for $z < 1$ small enough and is called the Pólya process. Its correlation kernel is

$$K_{\kappa}^{\varepsilon} = \frac{z}{1 - \varepsilon z} \kappa;$$

and its correlation function is

$$(x_1, \dots, x_k) \mapsto \left(\frac{z}{1 - \varepsilon z} \right)^k \wp_{\varepsilon}^{\kappa}(\delta_{x_1} + \dots + \delta_{x_k}).$$

The particle number ζ_B in a finite subset B of X has the distribution

$$P(\zeta_B = k) = (1 - \varepsilon z)^{\lambda(B)} \frac{z^k}{k!} \lambda(B)^{\varepsilon[k]},$$

where $a^{\varepsilon[k]} = a(a + 1\varepsilon)(a + 2\varepsilon) \cdots (a + (k-1)\varepsilon)$. If $\varepsilon = +1$ this law is negative binomial and otherwise binomial for the parameters $(\lambda(B), \frac{1-z}{z})$.

Example 2 Ideal Bosons and Fermions. (cf. Ginibre[?], JMP 6 (1965))

$X = \mathbb{R}^d$ with Lebesgue's measure λ . Ginibre isolated the quantum interaction

$$\kappa(x, y) = \frac{1}{w^d} \exp\left(-\frac{|x - y|^2}{2\beta}\right), \quad x, y \in X.$$

β is the inverse temperature, $w = \sqrt{2\pi\beta}$ the thermal wave length. For $z < 1$ the associated point process exists and is called the ideal Bose gas if $\varepsilon = +1$, otherwise the ideal Fermi gas.

Example 3 Quantum renewal processes. (cf. Macchi [?])

$X = \mathbb{R}$ with Lebesgue measure λ . Macchi considered the quantum interaction

$$\kappa(x, y) = \exp\left(-\frac{|x - y|}{\alpha}\right), \quad \alpha > 0.$$

The associated process is a Quantum renewal process. Again these are immanantal processes with a correlation kernel having the same form as κ .

Example 4 Quantum Ginibre processes. (Ginibre[?], JMP 6 (1965))

$X = \mathbb{C}$ with $\lambda(dx) = \exp(-|x|^2) \frac{1}{\pi} dx$ the standard Gaussian measure on \mathbb{C} . Ginibre considered the \mathbb{C} -valued exponential kernel

$$\kappa(x, y) = \exp x\bar{y}, \quad x, y \in \mathbb{C}.$$

Note that all other examples until now are real-valued and thereby also classical pair interactions. The associated process \mathfrak{G} built on the exponential kernel exists for all $0 < z < 1$ and is an immanantal process with correlation kernel

$$K = \frac{z}{1 - \varepsilon z} \kappa.$$

\mathfrak{G} is the Quantum Ginibre process. Its intensity measure is $\nu_{\mathfrak{G}}^1(dx) = \frac{z}{1 - \varepsilon z} \frac{1}{\pi} dx$.

Some implications of Quantum interactions

Consider again a Quantum process $P = \mathfrak{S}_L$ in $X = \mathbb{R}^d$ with Lebesgue's measure λ . By Proposition 1 we know already that P is an immanantal process. Thus we know in principle all correlation functions.

P is invariant under Euclidean motions, we then say that P is stationary, if L has this property. In all our examples one can show that L is stationary so that the associated Quantum process has this property too. Moreover, in all examples the Quantum process is mixing, in particular ergodic. This implies an ergodic behaviour for a large class of additive functionals of the process; in particular laws of large numbers for the particle density of quantum processes. Finally, all examples are mixing in the sense of Brillinger, so that even central limit theorems for a large class of additive functionals hold true.

A problem. In the case of classical systems the immanant is replaced by the Boltzmann factor $\exp -E_\phi(\delta_{x_1} + \dots + \delta_{x_k})$ for a given classical potential ϕ . The first three quantum interactions from above are also classical stable potentials (by an observation in Ruelle's book); and one can construct for them Gibbs processes by another procedure than we used to obtain the Quantum processes.

Question. What is the difference between a Quantum and a Gibbs process for a given interaction?

Modification. For the exponential interaction the modulus is a classical stable potential. What is the difference between the Quantum process for the exponential interaction and the Gibbs process for its modulus?

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