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Stochastic phase-space methods have many applications for ...
previous results. ...

time crystals. Exact solutions for quantum optical

le interacting BECs. Dynamical simulations of million-mo

ations of optomechanical entanglement. Simi

onic problems are even more challenging: there is usually no Ferm

s to sample the density matrix probabilistically. In this talk me

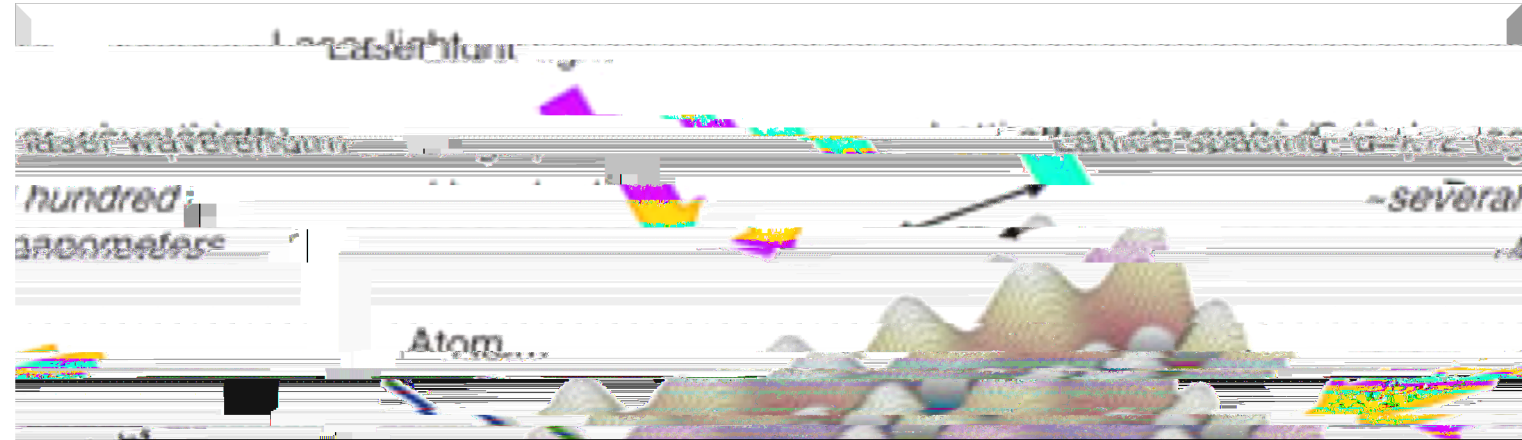
recent advances for fermions will be treated, including son

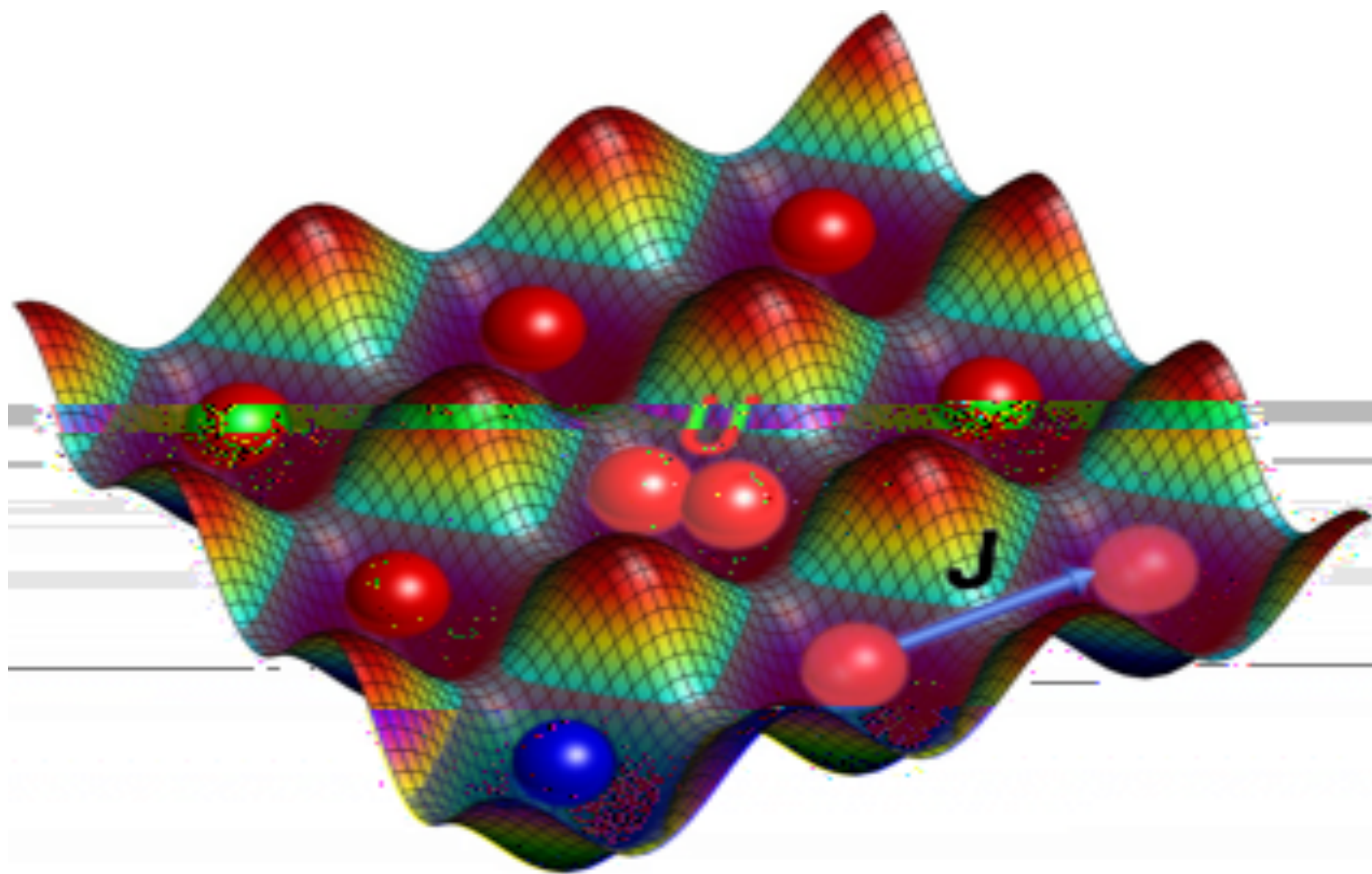
a generalized Q and P-function definition applied to fermions ■

identities for mapping fermionic operators ■

xamples: finite temperature shock waves, collective modes ■

What about many-body fermion and majorana systems?





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Suppose we have a positive definite, hermitian operator basis

$\hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda})$ defined in a Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$ of a quantum mechanical system, where $\vec{\lambda}$ is a vector in the phase space domain $\mathcal{P}$

product or $\mathcal{H} \otimes \mathcal{P}$. A generalized W-function is defined as the inner product of $\hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda})$ with the identity operator $\hat{I}$ in the Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$.

$$W(\vec{\lambda}) = \text{Tr} [\hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda}) \hat{I}]$$

$$W(\vec{\lambda}) = \text{Tr} [\hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda})]$$

Physical interpretation: this is simply the probability of finding the system in the state $\hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda})$ when observing the system.

Suppose we have an operator basis $\hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda})$ defined in a Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$ of quantum mechanical operators, where $\vec{\lambda}$ is a vector in the phase space domain $\mathcal{D}$.
 We can then define a generalized function in terms of an operator basis:

$$\hat{\rho} = \int_{\mathcal{D}} P(\vec{\lambda}) \hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda}) d\mu(\vec{\lambda}).$$

Physical interpretation in classical phase space can be given in terms of a density matrix in terms of states $\hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda})$.

$\hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda})$ and $P(\vec{\lambda})$ are not necessarily Hermitian or positive. This does not require hermiticity or positivity of $\hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda})$.
 Generally different to Q owing to non orthogonality, can use a different domain.

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Moreover, the following completeness property holds: any operator $\hat{I}$ of the Hilbert space can be resolved as an integral over the phase space, so that

$$\int_{\mathcal{D}} \hat{A}(\vec{\lambda}) d\mu(\vec{\lambda}) = \hat{I}.$$

This is called a resolution of unity.

on measure on the

Here $d\mu(\vec{\lambda})$ is an associated integratio
phase-space.

A set of identities that allows all operator moments of a physical interest $\hat{O}_n$ to be mapped into differential operators is required, so that:

$$\hat{O}_n \hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda}) = \mathcal{D}_n(\partial_{\vec{\lambda}}) \hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda})$$

Any observable in the form of an operator moment can be represented as:

Using the resolution of identity, an operator moment can be represented as:

$$\int d\vec{\lambda} \hat{O}_n \hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda}) \hat{\Lambda}^\dagger(\vec{\lambda}) = \int d\vec{\lambda} \hat{O}_n \hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda}) \hat{\Lambda}^\dagger(\vec{\lambda})$$

$$= \int d\vec{\lambda} \hat{O}_n \hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda}) \hat{\Lambda}^\dagger(\vec{\lambda})$$

Here we consider normally-ordered Gaussian operators, with unit trace:

$$\hat{\Lambda}(\underline{\sigma}) = \sqrt{\det[i\underline{\sigma}]} : \exp \left[-\hat{a}^\dagger (\underline{\sigma}^{-1} - 2\underline{\bar{I}}) \hat{a} / 2 \right] :,$$

with:

$$\underline{\bar{I}} = \begin{bmatrix} -\mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{\sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{n}^T - \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{m} \\ -\mathbf{m}^* & \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{n} \end{bmatrix}.$$

The $2M \times 2M$ matrix $\underline{\sigma}$ is the covariance matrix expressed in terms of an $M \times M$ hermitian matrix $\mathbf{n}$ and a complex antisymmetric $M \times M$ matrix $\mathbf{m}$.

we define a "stretched" variable $\underline{\zeta}$ as

$$\underline{\zeta} = \underline{\bar{I}} - 2\underline{\sigma} = \underline{\tilde{\sigma}} - \underline{\sigma}.$$

We also define a normalized Gaussian basis $\hat{A}^N$ in terms of these variables is:

$$\underline{\zeta}] \rangle \mathcal{S}(\underline{\zeta}^2). \quad \hat{A}^N(\underline{\zeta}) = \frac{1}{N} \hat{A}\left(\frac{1}{2}[\underline{\bar{I}} - \underline{\sigma} - \underline{\zeta}]\right)$$

ing function, invariant under $\mathcal{S}(\underline{\zeta}^2)$ is an even, positive scalar

operator, invariant under unitary transformations. These

At present, the value of the symmetry introduced by



The Gaussian operator $\hat{\Lambda}^N(\underline{\zeta})$ are the basis for the fermionic Ω -function. This is a positive hermitian basis function. We have proved the following

$$\hat{I} = \int_{\mathcal{D}} d\underline{\zeta} \hat{\Lambda}^N(\underline{\zeta})$$

in the symmetric space, where $d\underline{\zeta}$ is the Riemannian measure on

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70'\$0%MS%GS%8)401"4690\$0#"B%!S%&S%&S,:)'\$*01%)=!254/.4%E%46B%T\UTR`%OTRX`QS%

The fermionic Q-function is defined for any density matrix, in terms of the Gaussian basis, as

$$Q(\underline{\zeta}) = \text{Tr} [\hat{\rho} \hat{\Lambda}^N(\underline{\zeta})].$$

• The Gaussian operators and the density matrix are positive

definite hence the Q-function is positive.

to • From the resolution of unity, the Q-function is normalized unity: $\int d\underline{\zeta} Q(\underline{\zeta}) = 1.$

• This fermionic Q-function is a non-negative probability distribution, and is normalized to unity, for any density-matrix.

In the extended variables observables can be expressed in normal, antinormal or nested ordering. We consider the antinormal form of the observables, which are given by:

$$\langle \{ \hat{a} \hat{a}^\dagger \} \rangle = \text{Tr} [\hat{\rho} \left(\begin{array}{cc} \hat{a} \hat{a}^\dagger & \hat{a} \hat{a}^T \\ \hat{a}^\dagger T \hat{a}^\dagger & (\hat{a}^\dagger T \hat{a}^T)^T \end{array} \right)]$$

Using the resolution of unity, the observables can be expressed

$$\langle \{ \hat{a} \hat{a}^\dagger \} \rangle = \text{Tr} [\hat{\rho} \int \hat{a} \delta \hat{p}^\dagger \hat{a}^\dagger \delta \hat{p}]$$

We prove the following differential identity:

$$\Lambda^N \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \underline{\underline{\sigma}} = \{ \underline{\underline{\hat{a}}} : \underline{\underline{\hat{a}}}^\dagger \Lambda^N : \} = - \underline{\underline{\sigma}} \Lambda^N - \underline{\underline{\sigma}} \frac{\partial \Lambda^N}{\partial \sigma} \underline{\underline{\sigma}} + \underline{\underline{\sigma}} \Lambda^N \underline{\underline{\sigma}}$$

the normalization function. Considering the explicit form for the variables are given by ζ in the limit $S \rightarrow 1$ the observable

$$\rho(\underline{\underline{\zeta}}) d\underline{\underline{\zeta}} = \frac{1}{2} \bar{I}, \quad \langle \{ \underline{\underline{\hat{a}}} \underline{\underline{\hat{a}}}^\dagger \} \rangle = C_M \int_V \underline{\underline{\zeta}} Q$$

$$C_M = (2M - 1/2)$$

Thermal Q-function

The density matrix of a thermal state is:

$$\hat{\rho}_{th} = \frac{1}{Z_{th}} \exp \left[-\frac{\hbar \omega}{2} (a^\dagger + a) \right] := \hat{\Lambda}_{th}(n_{th}),$$

- In this case the Q-function is:

Next we consider Majorana operators, with:

$$\gamma_1 = a + a^\dagger$$

$$\gamma_2 = i(a^\dagger - a)$$

trace Gaussian operator:



$$\hat{\Lambda}(\underline{x}) = N(\underline{x}) : \exp \left[i \hat{\phi}^T \tau \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & (\mathcal{I}_M - I)^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \hat{\phi} \right] :$$

$$\underline{\hat{\phi}}(\underline{x}) = \frac{1}{2^M} \sqrt{\det [\underline{\mathcal{I}} - \underline{x}]}, \quad \underline{\mathcal{I}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I \\ -I & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \underline{I} \text{ is the } 2M \times 2M \text{ identity matrix.}$$

Here $N(\underline{x})$

~~$$\int_{D_C} \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \right)^2 \right] dx$$~~

We use the unordered differential identities derived from those given previously to obtain the observable function $\hat{X}_{\mu\nu}$. We consider the correlation function $\hat{X}_{\mu\nu}$ given by:

$$\hat{X}_{\mu\nu} \equiv \frac{i}{2} [\gamma_\mu, \gamma_\nu].$$

$$\langle \hat{X} \rangle = \int \underline{x} P(\underline{x}) d\underline{x},$$

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Classical domains of E. Cartan



1. The domain $\mathcal{R}_I$ of $m \times n$ complex matrices with:
 $\underline{\underline{I}}^{(m)} - \underline{\underline{ZZ}}^\dagger > 0$.
2. The domain $\mathcal{R}_{II}$ of $n \times n$ symmetric complex matrices with:
 $\underline{\underline{I}} - \underline{\underline{ZZ}}^* > 0$.
3. The domain $\mathcal{R}_{III}$ of $n \times n$ skew-symmetric (anti-symmetric) complex matrices with: $\underline{\underline{I}} + \underline{\underline{ZZ}}^* > 0$.

is a domain $\mathcal{R}_{IV}$ of n -dimensional vectors

z_n), where z_k are complex numbers,

$$\underline{\underline{I}} - \underline{\underline{ZZ}}^T > 0, \quad \underline{\underline{ZZ}}^T < \underline{\underline{I}}, \quad \underline{\underline{I}} - \underline{\underline{ZZ}}^T > 0$$

$$z = (z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n)$$

satisfying: $\underline{\underline{ZZ}}^T < \underline{\underline{I}}$

M-phase space

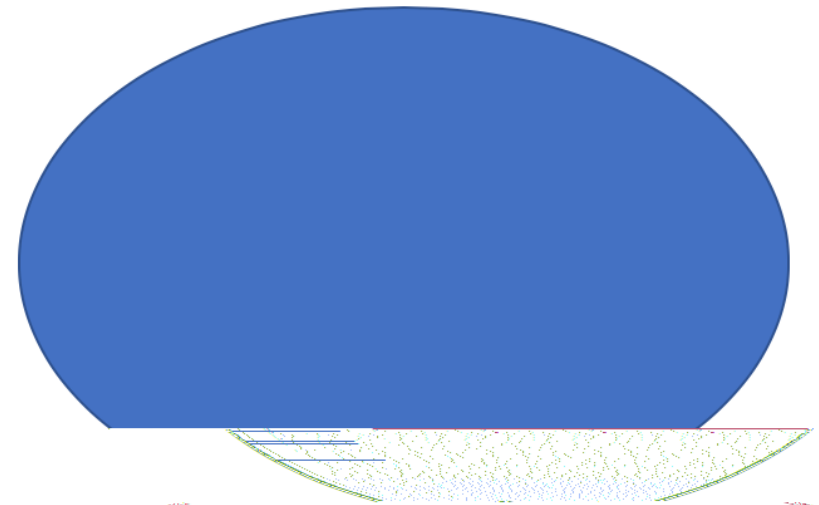
This is a REAL antisymmetric phase space:

$$\underline{\underline{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} i(\mathbf{n}^- + \mathbf{m}^-) & \mathbf{n}^+ + \mathbf{m}^+ - \mathbf{I} \\ -\mathbf{n}^+ + \mathbf{m}^+ + \mathbf{I} & i(\mathbf{n}^- - \mathbf{m}^-) \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\mathbf{n}^\pm = \mathbf{n} \pm \mathbf{n}^T$, $\mathbf{m}^\pm = \mathbf{m} \pm \mathbf{m}^*$ and $n_{ij} = \langle \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_j \rangle$,
 $m_{ij} = \langle \hat{a}_i \hat{a}_j \rangle$.

$$\underline{\underline{xx}}^T - \underline{\underline{I}} < 0$$

**Bounded real domain in
M(2M-1) = 1,6,15,28,.. dimensions:**



Hamiltonian

$$\hat{H} = \hbar\omega_{ij}\hat{a}_i^\dagger\hat{a}_j,$$

If we define the Majorana commutator as previously

$$\underline{\underline{\Omega}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \omega \\ -\omega & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

Majorana $\Rightarrow$ we can re-express the Hamiltonian in terms of operators as

$$\hat{H} = \frac{\hbar}{2}\Omega_{\mu\nu}\hat{X}_{\mu\nu}.$$

Time-evolution

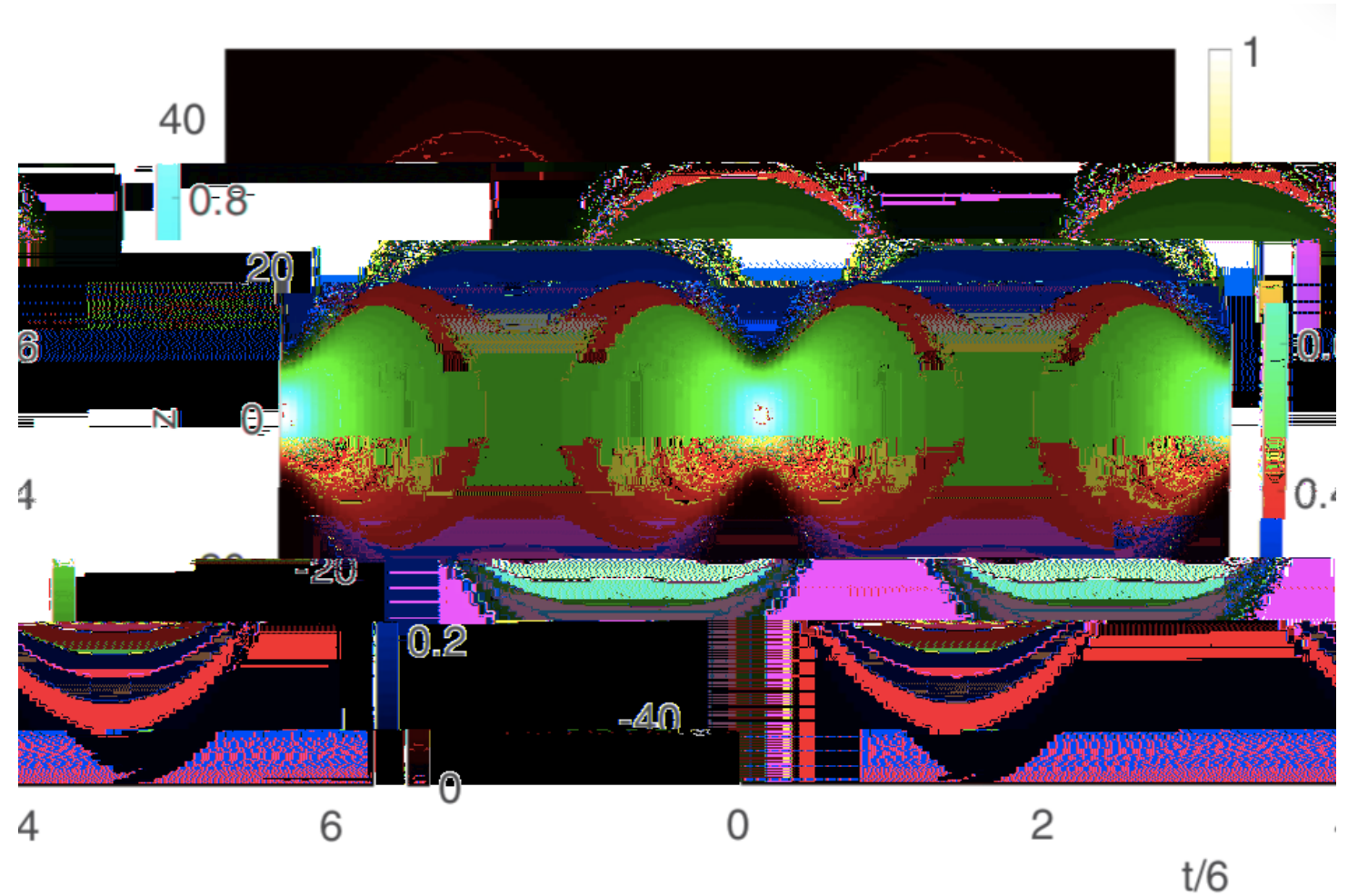
$$\frac{dQ(\underline{x})}{dt} = \Omega_{\mu\nu} \left[\frac{d}{dx_{\nu\kappa}} (x_{\mu\kappa} Q) - \frac{d}{dx_{\kappa\mu}} (x_{\kappa\nu} Q) \right].$$

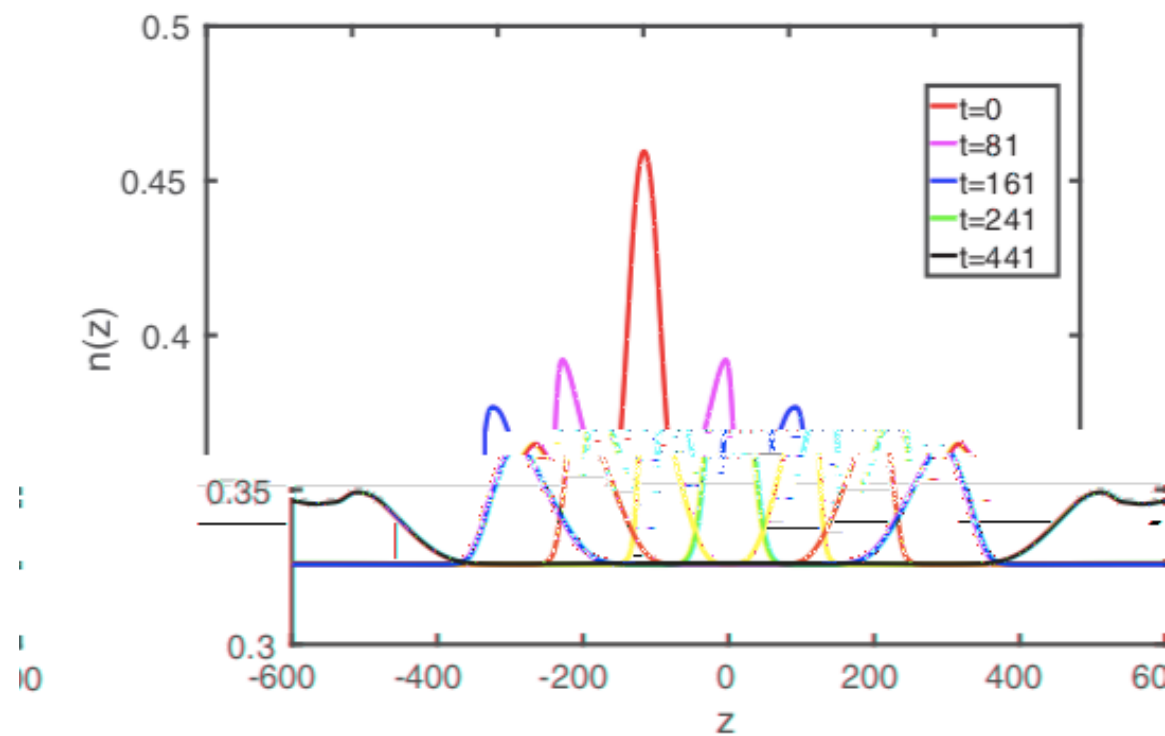
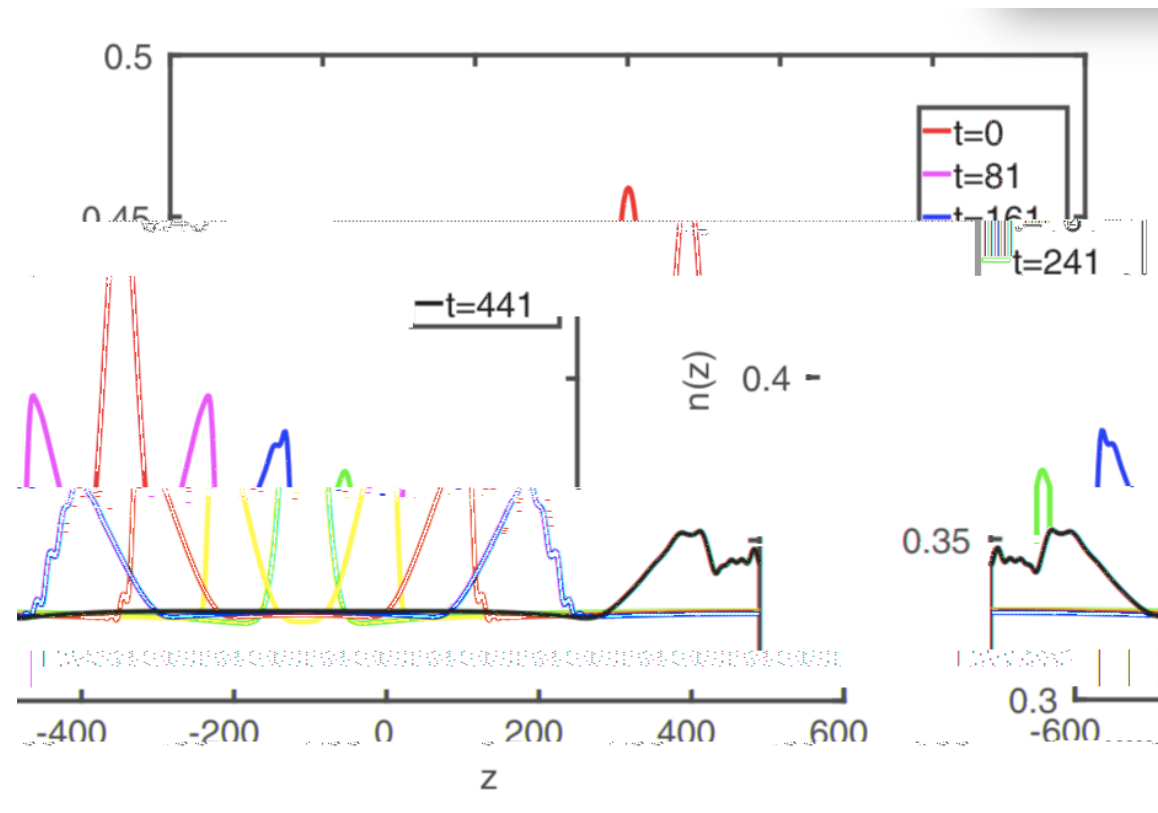
This leads to a characteristic equation for all stochastic trajectories ($\underline{P}$ or $\underline{Q}$).

$$\frac{d\underline{x}}{dt} = [\underline{\Omega}, \underline{x}].$$



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Problems with quantum measurement

projection

Measurement is regarded as a non-unitary

d? But how is a measurement defined

physics? Why is it different to unitary

quantum cosmology? What if the observer is

not solved through decoherence

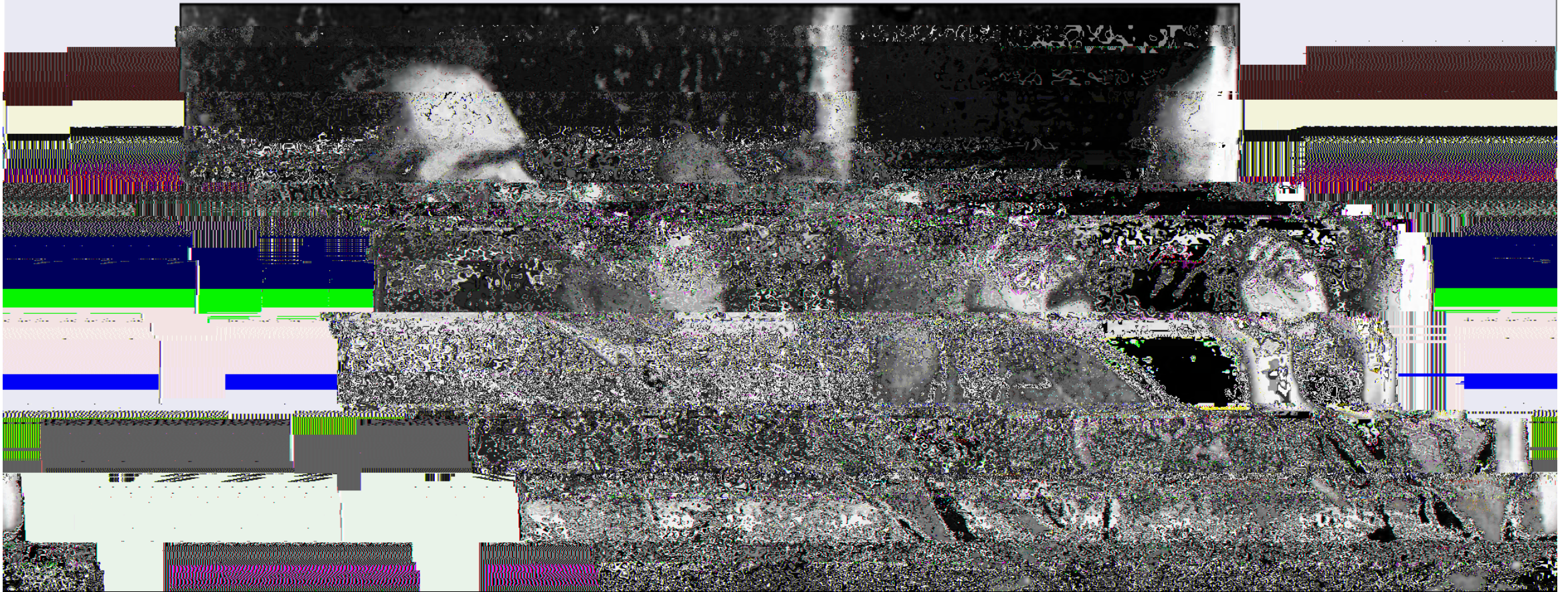
project one eigenvalue

• how do we treat

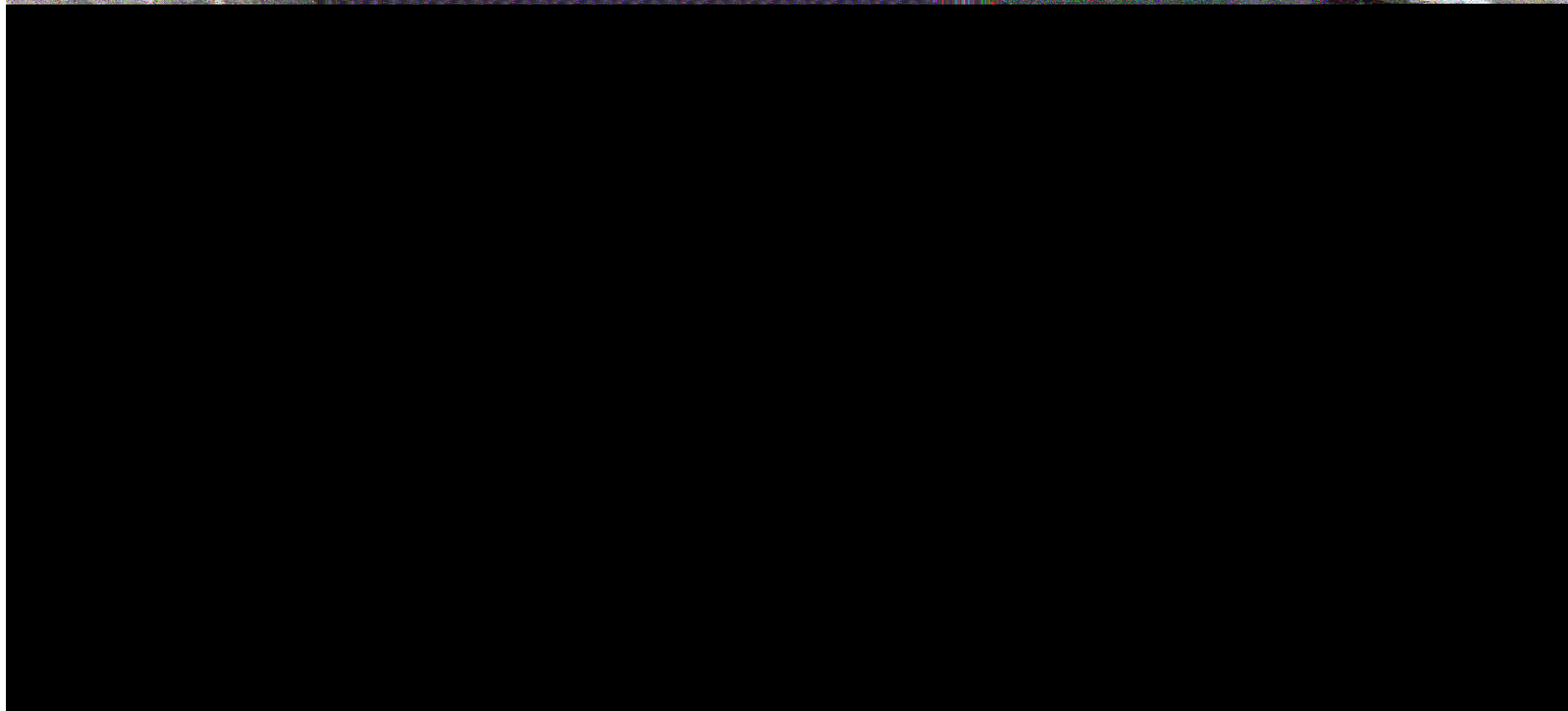
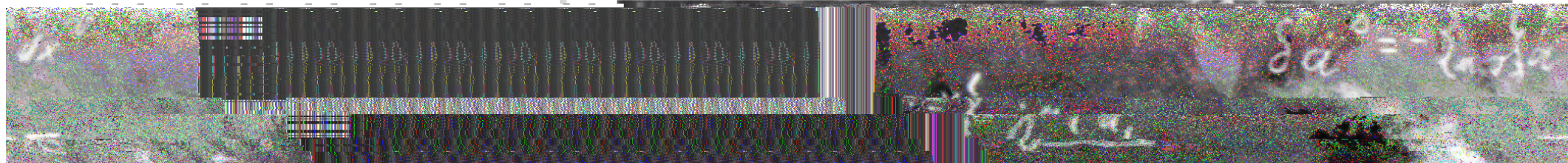
• 'Problem is not

• This does not

Quantum measurement discussed by Einstein, Bohr



What's the First Relation?



What about Bohr?



These goals are not in contradiction

Ideally, a physical theory should be

- **Objective:** external entities exist
- **Measurable:** through physical operations
- **Local:** objects are localized in spacetime
- **Consistent:** no special argument for
- **Stochastic:** we only have partial
- **Unified:** observers are part of

Q-functions

Objective models exist

The Q-function proves o

$$Q(\lambda, t) = \text{Tr} \{ \hat{\Lambda}(\lambda) \hat{\rho}(t) \},$$

the quantum density matrix,

$\{\hat{\Lambda}_b, \hat{\Lambda}_f(\psi) \hat{\Lambda}_f(x)\}$ is a positive-definite operator basis,

point in the phase-space.

we have an expansion of the Hilbert space identity operator $\hat{I}$,
with an integration measure $d\lambda$,

- $\hat{I} = \int \hat{\Lambda}(\lambda) d\lambda.$

- where $\hat{\rho}(t)$ is the

- $\hat{\Lambda}(\lambda) =$

- λ is a p

This must give
so that, given

N -component bosonic field $\hat{\psi}(r)$

- Defined with a space-time coordinate r , where
 $r = (r^1, \dots, r^d) \equiv (r, t)$.

M/N modes.

- The indices i include
- N internal degrees of freedom

Projection operators

Bosonic case

For bosonic fields, $\hat{\Lambda}$ is proportional to a coherent state projector,

$$\hat{\Lambda}(\alpha) \equiv |\alpha\rangle_c \langle \alpha|_c / \pi^M.$$

The state $|\alpha\rangle_c$ is a normalized Bargmann-Glauber coherent state with $\hat{a}|\alpha\rangle_c = \alpha|\alpha\rangle_c$ and $\langle \alpha|_c = \langle \alpha| e^{-|\alpha|^2/c} e^{\alpha \hat{a}^\dagger/c}$ and

$$\hat{\psi}(x)|\alpha\rangle_c = \psi(x)|\alpha\rangle_c,$$

Hence phase-space is composed of local fields in space

$$\lambda \rightarrow \psi(x)$$

This is a probabilistic representation

$$\int Q(\lambda) d\lambda = 1$$

$$Q(\lambda) \geq 0$$

a possible universe

fields in space time

universe

objective universe

every phase-space coordinate is

- Each $\lambda(t)$ is a set of fields

- Every $\lambda(t)$ is a possible

There is only one

Observables

compute observables in the usual way

we can com

ations $\langle \hat{O} \rangle_Q$ of ordered observables $\hat{O}$ are identical

Quantum expect

classical drop and stochastic averages $\langle O \rangle_C$ including corrections for

operator re-ordering if necessary - so that:

$$\langle \hat{O} \rangle_Q = \langle O \rangle_C = \int d\mathbf{z} Q(\mathbf{z}) O(\mathbf{z})$$

then we can also add a model of the measurement, with
a microscopic size. The models are grown on the observable to

Differential equations from operator

mappings

Hamiltonian

On operator correspondence Fokker-Planck

tion is of the form:

Fokker-Planck equation

$$\dot{\rho} = \left[\mathcal{H} - \int d\mu \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} A_{\mu} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \frac{\partial}{\partial \nu} D_{\mu\nu} \right) \right] \rho$$

is not positive definite, and in fact $\text{Tr}(\rho) = 0$ yet ρ is positive. However, D is positive definite. This is because it corresponds to a simultaneous positive and negative time evolution. This has boundary conditions in the past and the future, and has a real action principle.

Amplification

Amplification is fundamental to measurement!

From the amplified macroscopic value X , with gain G the experimentalist *infers* an eigenvalue of $\tilde{X} = X_0 + \varepsilon/G$ with a

probability distribution of

$$P(\tilde{X}) = (G/\sqrt{2\pi}) \exp(-G^2(\tilde{X} - X_0)^2/2)$$

By neglecting at large gain,

vacuum fluctuations relative

measurement

allowing eigenvalue meas

is a fundamental quantum theory

in exact quantum equations

probabilistic

requirement to collapse wave function

Q function as

- Can obtain

- Probabilities

- No requirement