

# Gradient Structures from Classical to Quantum

Oliver Tse

Eindhoven University of Technology

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*Abstract.*

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# 1 Noncommutative probability

## 1.1 From commutative to noncommutative

Consider the Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H} = L^2_{\mathbb{C}}(\Omega, \mu)$  over the complete probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ . Then any function  $f \in L^{\infty}_{\mathbb{C}}(\Omega, \mu)$  gives rise to a multiplication operator  $\mathbf{M}_f \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ :

$$\mathbf{M}_f g = fg \in \mathcal{H} \quad \forall g \in \mathcal{H},$$

with  $\|\mathbf{M}_f\|_{\infty} = \|f\|_{L^{\infty}(\mu)}$ . The collection of all such multiplication operators

$$\mathcal{A} := \{\mathbf{M}_f : f \in L^{\infty}_{\mathbb{C}}(\Omega, \mu)\} \subset \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$$

forms a *commutative* subalgebra of  $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ .

In fact, this subalgebra is a possibly noncommutative *von Neumann* algebra:

**Definition 1.1** (von Neumann algebra) A (unital) *von Neumann algebra* is a  $*$ -subalgebra  $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  that contains  $I_{\mathcal{H}}$  and is closed in the *weak operator topology* (WOT), i.e.,

$$\text{WOT-lim } \mathbf{a}_n = \mathbf{a} \iff \langle f, \mathbf{a}_n g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \rightarrow \langle f, \mathbf{a} g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \quad \forall f, g \in \mathcal{H}.$$

Equivalently, is it a  $C^*$ -algebra with a predual  $\mathcal{A}_*$  that is a Banach space.

There are sub-families of  $\mathcal{A}$  that play a distinguished role, namely,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{A}_+ &:= \{\mathbf{a} \in \mathcal{A} : \mathbf{a} \succeq 0\} && \text{(nonnegative operators)} \\ \mathcal{O} &:= \{\mathbf{a} \in \mathcal{A} : \mathbf{a}^{\dagger} = \mathbf{a}\} && \text{(Hermitian operators)} \\ \mathcal{P} &:= \{\mathbf{a} \in \mathcal{O} : \mathbf{a}^2 = \mathbf{a}\} && \text{(projection operators)} \end{aligned}$$

Here,  $\mathbf{a} \succeq 0$  if and only if  $\langle f, \mathbf{a} f \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \geq 0$  for all  $f \in \mathcal{H}$ . Additionally, for von Neumann algebras, we also have the following useful density result:

**Proposition 1.2.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a von Neumann algebra. Then*

$$\mathcal{A} = \overline{\text{span}(\mathcal{P})}^{\text{WOT}},$$

*i.e.,  $\mathcal{A}$  is the WOT-closure of the linear span of its projections.*

Let us return to our previous example with  $\mathcal{A} = \{\mathbf{M}_f : f \in L^{\infty}_{\mathbb{C}}(\Omega, \mu)\}$ . It is not difficult to see that  $\mathcal{A}$  is a  $W^*$ -algebra. Notice that since  $\mathbf{M}_f$  is self-adjoint for  $f \in L^{\infty}_{\mathbb{R}}(\Omega, \mu)$ , the family of self-adjoint operators is given by  $\mathcal{O} = \{\mathbf{M}_f : f \in L^{\infty}_{\mathbb{R}}(\Omega, \mu)\}$  and the family of projection operators is given by  $\mathcal{P} = \{\mathbf{M}_f \in \mathcal{O} : f = \mathbf{1}_A, A \in \mathcal{F}\}$ .

On a von Neumann algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ , we can talk about special types of continuous linear functionals on  $\mathcal{A}$ , called states.

**Definition 1.3** A *state* on a von Neumann algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  is a linear functional  $\psi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  that is positive and normalized, i.e.,  $\psi(\mathbf{a}^{\dagger} \mathbf{a}) \geq 0$  for all  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $\psi(I_{\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})}) = 1$ .

A state  $\psi$  is said to be

*faithful* if  $\psi(\mathbf{a}^\dagger \mathbf{a}) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{a} = 0$ ,

*tracial* if  $\psi(\mathbf{ab}) = \psi(\mathbf{ba})$  for all  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{A}$ , and

*normal* if  $\psi \in \mathcal{A}_*$ , i.e., if it is an element of the predual  $\mathcal{A}_*$ .

For any probability measure  $\nu \ll \mu$ , we set

$$\psi_\nu(\mathbf{M}_f) := \int_{\Omega} f \, d\nu, \quad f \in L_{\mathbb{C}}^\infty(\Omega, \mu),$$

we find that  $\psi$  is a linear functional that is positive and normalized, i.e.,  $\psi$  is a state. Moreover, it is tracial. It is normal if  $\omega := d\nu/d\mu \in L^1(\Omega, \mu)$  and faithful if  $\omega > 0$ .

Normal states play an essential role, serving as a counterpart to classical measures, as made explicit by the following proposition.

prop:normal-state

**Proposition 1.4.** *Let  $\psi$  be a state on a von Neumann algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ . The following are equivalent:*

(i)  $\psi$  is a normal state.

(ii) ( $\sigma$ -additivity) *If  $(\mathbf{a}_n) \subset \mathcal{P}$  are mutually orthogonal projections, i.e.,  $\mathbf{a}_n(\mathcal{H}) \perp \mathbf{a}_m(\mathcal{H})$  for all  $n \neq m$ , and  $\mathbf{a} = \vee_n \mathbf{a}_n$  being the projection on the smallest closed subspace containing  $\cup_n \mathbf{a}_n(\mathcal{H})$ , then*

$$\psi(\mathbf{a}) = \sum_n \psi(\mathbf{a}_n).$$

(iii) (*Continuity from below*) *For any increasing net  $0 \preceq \mathbf{a}_n \uparrow \mathbf{a}$  in  $\mathcal{A}_+$ , one has the increasing limit  $\psi(\mathbf{a}_n) \uparrow \psi(\mathbf{a})$ .*

(iv) *There exists a family  $\{\xi_n\} \subset \mathcal{H}$  with  $\sum_n \|\xi_n\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 = 1$  such that<sup>1</sup>*

$$\psi = \sum_n \langle \xi_n, \cdot \xi_n \rangle \quad \text{in the sense of norm convergence.}$$

Consider an arbitrary normal state  $\psi$  and set

$$\mu(A) := \psi(\mathbf{M}_{1_A}) \quad \text{for every } A \in \mathcal{F}.$$

Then, clearly,  $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$ ,  $\mu(\Omega) = \psi(I_{\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})}) = 1$  and  $\mu$  is  $\sigma$ -additive due to the equivalent characterization of a normal state given by Proposition 1.4(ii). In particular, one obtains a classical measure on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ . In this sense, a state on a noncommutative von Neumann algebra generalizes that of a classical measure.

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<sup>1</sup>[Theorem 7.1.8, Fundamentals of the Theory of Operator Algebras, V.II, Kadison-Ringrose]

## 1.2 Observables

In classical probability, we are often interested in computing expressions like  $\mathbb{P}(X \in A)$ , where  $X$  is a random variable and  $A \subset \mathbb{R}$  is a Borel set.

In the quantum world, a random variable is modelled by a Hermitian operator  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathcal{O}$  and is called an *observable*. Observables have their spectrum in  $\mathbb{R}$  and can therefore be *measured*.

Given a  $\psi$  on a von Neumann algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ , the expectation of an observable  $\mathbf{a}$  w.r.t. the state  $\psi$  is given by  $\psi(\mathbf{a})$ . Since every observable  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathcal{O}$  has a spectral decomposition

$$\mathbf{a} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \lambda E_{\mathbf{a}}(d\lambda), \quad E_{\mathbf{a}} \hat{=} \mathcal{P}\text{-valued measure},$$

we can associate a classical probability measure with the observable  $\mathbf{a}$  and state  $\psi$ :

$$\mathbb{P}_{\psi}(\mathbf{a} \in A) := \psi(E_{\mathbf{a}}(A)) \quad \text{for all Borel set } A \subset \mathbb{R}.$$

For two observables  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{O}$  that do not commute, one would like to be able to write  $\mathbb{P}_{\psi}(\mathbf{a} \in A, \mathbf{b} \in B)$  for two Borel sets  $A, B \subset \mathbb{R}$ . The simple argument for this is that if  $[\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}] \neq 0$ , then  $E_{\mathbf{a}}(A)$  and  $E_{\mathbf{b}}(B)$  may not commute for all Borel sets  $A, B$ . In particular,

$$\psi(E_{\mathbf{a}}(A)E_{\mathbf{b}}(B)) \neq \psi(E_{\mathbf{b}}(B)E_{\mathbf{a}}(A)),$$

so there is no consistent way of writing  $\mathbb{P}_{\psi}(\mathbf{a} \in A, \mathbf{b} \in B)$ . Yet, when they do commute, then  $\psi(E_{\mathbf{a}}(A)E_{\mathbf{b}}(B)) = \psi(E_{\mathbf{b}}(B)E_{\mathbf{a}}(A))$  and a joint distribution exists and we are back to the classical scenario.

However, this turns out not to be possible, as the following example portrays.

**Example 1.5** (Stern-Gerlach measurements) Take a beam of atoms (each with spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ ) and perform the following steps:

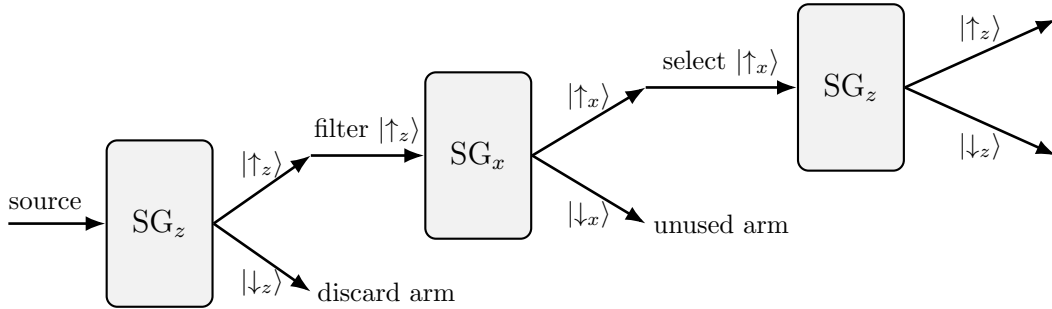


Figure 1: Stern-Gerlach experiment

**SG<sub>z</sub>** Measure spin in  $z$ -direction: Send the beam through a Stern-Gerlach magnet oriented along  $z$ . The beam splits into spin-up  $|\uparrow\rangle$  and spin-down  $|\downarrow\rangle$  paths. Keep only the spin-up branch, which gives a pure state  $|\uparrow_z\rangle$ .

**SG<sub>x</sub>** Measure spin in  $x$ -direction: Now send the filtered beam through a second magnet, oriented along  $x$ . The beam splits again into  $|\uparrow_x\rangle$  and  $|\downarrow_x\rangle$  outcomes with 50%–50% probability. So far, this can *still* be explained with classical probability.

**SG<sub>z</sub>** Measure spin in  $z$ -direction again: Send either of the filtered beams  $|\uparrow_x\rangle$  or  $|\downarrow_x\rangle$  through a  $z$ -magnet again. You do *not* get back the original result, i.e., instead of remaining spin-up, you see another 50%–50% split between  $|\uparrow_z\rangle$  and  $|\downarrow_z\rangle$

Morally, if spin- $x$  and spin- $z$  were classical random variables, measuring  $x$  would *erase* knowledge of  $z$ . In classical probability, observing one property never randomizes another unless there is *hidden causal disturbance*.

Quantum mechanically, the two observables (or random variables)

$$\sigma_z = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{spin in } z\text{-direction}, \quad \sigma_x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{spin in } x\text{-direction}.$$

do not commute, i.e.,  $[\sigma_x, \sigma_z] \neq 0$ , and measuring  $\sigma_x$  *changes* information about  $\sigma_z$ . In this sense, they cannot be jointly sampled, i.e., there is no classical joint probability  $p(\sigma_x, \sigma_z)$  for these observables, which illustrates the need for noncommutative probability.

## 2 Stochastic Dilation

### 2.1 Noncommutative random variables

def:random-variable

**Definition 2.1** A *noncommutative  $\mathfrak{X}$ -valued random variable* on a quantum probability space  $(\mathfrak{A}, \mu)$  is an identity preserving  $*$ -homomorphism

$$\mathfrak{z}: \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}.$$

Correspondingly, a *noncommutative  $\mathfrak{X}$ -valued stochastic process* on a quantum probability space  $(\mathfrak{A}, \mu)$  is a family of random variables

$$\mathfrak{z}_t: \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}, \quad t \in \mathbb{T},$$

with  $\mathbb{T}$  being a (possibly uncountable) index set.

**Example 2.2** (Classical random variable) Let  $X$  be a classical  $E$ -valued random variable on  $(\Omega, \mathbb{P})$ . Setting

$$\mathfrak{X} := B_b(E), \quad \mathfrak{A} := L^\infty(\Omega, \mathbb{P}), \quad \mu(g) := \int_{\Omega} g \, d\mathbb{P}, \quad g \in \mathfrak{A},$$

we have that

$$\mathfrak{X} \ni f \mapsto \mathfrak{z}(f) := f \circ X \in L^\infty(\Omega, \mathbb{P})$$

is a noncommutative  $\mathfrak{X}$ -valued random variable. We see here that the noncommutative notion of a random variable is ‘dual’ to the classical notion of a random variable.

ex:stochastic-classical

**Example 2.3** (Classical stochastic process) Consider the space of continuous paths (or trajectories)  $\Omega := \mathcal{C}_0(\mathbb{R}_+; E)$  starting at 0 and the Wiener measure  $\mathbb{R}$ . Let  $X = (X_t)_{t \in \mathbb{T}}$  be the canonical stochastic process  $X_t(\omega) = \omega(t)$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$ . As before, we set

$$\mathfrak{X} := B_b(E), \quad \mathfrak{A} := L^\infty(\Omega, \mathbb{R}), \quad \mu(G) := \int_{\Omega} G \, d\mathbb{R}, \quad G \in \mathfrak{A}.$$

Then,

$$\mathfrak{X} \ni f \mapsto \mathfrak{z}_t(f) := f \circ X_t \in L^\infty(\Omega, \mathbb{R})$$

defines a noncommutative  $\mathfrak{X}$ -valued stochastic process on  $(\mathfrak{A}, \mu)$ .

**Definition 2.4** A stochastic process  $\mathfrak{z}_t: \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow (\mathfrak{A}, \mu)$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{T}$  admits a *time translation* if there are  $*$ -homomorphisms  $\alpha_t: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{T}$  such that

- (1)  $\alpha_{t+s} = \alpha_t \circ \alpha_s$  for all  $s, t \in \mathbb{T}$ , and
- (2)  $\mathfrak{z}_t = \alpha_t \circ \mathfrak{z}_0$  for all  $t \in \mathbb{T}$ .

**Example 2.5** Consider the Wiener space  $(\Omega, \mathbb{R})$  in Example 2.3. Then,  $\mathbb{R}$  is stationary under the time-shift operator  $\mathfrak{s}_t \omega = \omega(\cdot - t)$ , i.e.,  $(\mathfrak{s}_t)_\# \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}$  for every  $t \in \mathbb{T}$ . Hence, the  $*$ -homomorphism

$$\alpha_t(G) = G \circ \mathfrak{s}_t, \quad G \in \mathfrak{A}, \quad t \in \mathbb{T}$$

is a time translation for the corresponding process  $(\mathfrak{z}_t)_{t \in \mathbb{T}}$  and leaves the state  $\mu$  invariant. Indeed, property (1) holds trivially, while property (2) follows from

$$\alpha_t \circ \mathfrak{z}_0(f) = f \circ X_0 \circ \mathfrak{s}_t = f \circ X_t = \mathfrak{z}_t(f), \quad f \in \mathfrak{X}.$$

Finally, we conclude with

$$\mu(\alpha_t(G)) = \int_{\Omega} \alpha_t(G) dR = \int_{\Omega} G \circ \mathfrak{s}_t dR = \int_{\Omega} G d(\mathfrak{s}_t)_{\#} R = \int_{\Omega} G dR = \mu(G),$$

thus proving the invariance of  $\mu$ .

For  $h \in L^2(\mathbb{T})$  we consider the exponential martingale

$$Z_t = \exp \left( - \int_0^t h_r dB_r - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^t |h_r|^2 dr \right), \quad t \in \mathbb{T}.$$

It is easy to see that  $(Z_t)_{t \in \mathbb{T}}$  satisfies

$$dZ_t = -h_t Z_t dB_t, \quad Z_0 = 1.$$

Setting  $Q := Z_T P$ , we claim that

$$W_t = B_t + \int_0^t h_r dr \quad \text{is a } Q\text{-martingale.}$$

To see this, we note that  $W$  is a  $Q$ -martingale if and only if  $Z_T W$  is a  $P$ -martingale. Since

$$\begin{aligned} d(Z_t W_t) &= dZ_t W_t + Z_t dW_t + d[Z, W]_t \\ &= -h_t Z_t dB_t + Z_t dB_t = -(h_t - 1) Z_t dB_t, \end{aligned}$$

we conclude that  $Z_T W$  is indeed a  $P$ -martingale.

$$dU_t = -(a^\dagger a dt + i\sqrt{2} a dB_t) U_t$$

In the classical case, the notion of adaptedness plays an important role for stochastic processes. In this regard, we choose to simply consider the natural filtration induced by a stochastic process.

**Definition 2.6** Let  $\mathfrak{z}_t: \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow (\mathfrak{A}, \mu)$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{T}$  be a stochastic process. For  $\mathbb{I} \subset \mathbb{T}$ , we denote by  $\mathfrak{A}_{\mathbb{I}}$  the subalgebra of  $\mathfrak{A}$  generated by  $\{\mathfrak{z}_t(x) : x \in \mathfrak{X}, t \in \mathbb{I}\}$ . The filtration induced by  $(\mathfrak{z}_t)_{t \in \mathbb{T}}$  is then given by  $\mathfrak{F} = (\mathfrak{A}_{[0, t]})_{t \in \mathbb{T}}$ .



## 2.2 From commutative to noncommutative

Consider the Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H} = L^2_{\mathbb{C}}(\Omega, \mu)$  over the complete probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ . Then any function  $f \in L^\infty_{\mathbb{C}}(\Omega, \mu)$  gives rise to a multiplication operator  $M_f \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ :

$$M_f g = fg \in \mathcal{H} \quad \forall g \in \mathcal{H},$$

with  $\|M_f\|_\infty = \|f\|_{L^\infty(\mu)}$ . The collection of all such multiplication operators

$$\mathcal{A} := \{M_f : f \in L^\infty_{\mathbb{C}}(\Omega, \mu)\} \subset \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$$

forms a commutative subalgebra of  $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ .

In fact, this subalgebra is a *von Neumann algebra*:

**Definition 2.7** (von Neumann algebra) A (unital) *von Neumann algebra* (or  $W^*$ -algebra) is a  $*$ -subalgebra  $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  that contains  $I_{\mathcal{H}}$  and is closed in the *weak operator topology* (WOT), i.e.,

$$\text{WOT-lim } a_n = a \iff \langle f, a_n g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \rightarrow \langle f, a g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \quad \forall f, g \in \mathcal{H}.$$

Equivalently, is it a  $C^*$ -algebra with a predual  $\mathcal{A}_*$  that is a Banach space.

There are sub-families of  $\mathcal{A}$  that play a distinguished role, namely,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{A}_+ &:= \{a \in \mathcal{A} : a \succeq 0\} && \text{(nonnegative operators)} \\ \mathcal{O} &:= \{a \in \mathcal{A} : a^\dagger = a\} && \text{(self-adjoint operators)} \\ \mathcal{P} &:= \{a \in \mathcal{O} : a^2 = a\} && \text{(projection operators)} \end{aligned}$$

Here,  $a \succeq 0$  if and only if  $\langle f, a f \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \geq 0$  for all  $f \in \mathcal{H}$ .

On a von Neumann algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ , we can talk about special types of continuous linear functionals on  $\mathcal{A}$ , called states.

**Definition 2.8** A *state* on a von Neumann algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  is a linear functional  $\psi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  that is positive and normalized, i.e.,  $\psi(a^\dagger a) \geq 0$  for all  $a \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $\psi(I_{\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})}) = 1$ .

A state  $\psi$  is said to be

*faithful* if  $\psi(a^\dagger a) = 0 \iff a = 0$ ,

*tracial* if  $\psi(ab) = \psi(ba)$  for all  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ , and

*normal* if  $\psi \in \mathcal{A}_*$ , i.e., if it is an element of the predual  $\mathcal{A}_*$ .

Let us return to our previous example with  $\mathcal{A} = \{M_f : f \in L^\infty_{\mathbb{C}}(\Omega, \mu)\}$ . It is not difficult to see that  $\mathcal{A}$  is a  $W^*$ -algebra. Notice that since  $M_f$  is self-adjoint for  $f \in L^\infty_{\mathbb{R}}(\Omega, \mu)$ , the family of self-adjoint operators is given by  $\mathcal{O} = \{M_f : f \in L^\infty_{\mathbb{R}}(\Omega, \mu)\}$  and the family of projection operators is given by  $\mathcal{P} = \{M_f : f = \mathbf{1}_A, A \in \mathcal{F}\}$ . Additionally,

For any probability measure  $\nu \ll \mu$ , we set

$$\psi_\nu(M_f) := \int_\Omega f d\nu, \quad f \in L^\infty_{\mathbb{C}}(\Omega, \mu),$$

we find that  $\psi$  is a linear functional that is positive and normalized, i.e.,  $\psi$  is a state. Moreover, it is tracial. It is normal if  $\omega := d\nu/d\mu \in L^1(\Omega, \mu)$  and faithful if  $\omega > 0$ .

Normal states play an essential role, serving as a counterpart to classical measures, as made explicit by the following proposition.

**Proposition 2.9.** *Let  $\psi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a state on a von Neumann algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ . The following are equivalent:*

- (i)  $\psi$  is a normal state.
- (ii) ( $\sigma$ -additivity) If  $(a_n) \subset \mathcal{P}$  are mutually orthogonal projections, i.e.,  $a_n(\mathcal{H}) \perp a_m(\mathcal{H})$  for all  $n \neq m$ , and  $a = \vee_n a_n$  being the projection on the smallest closed subspace containing  $\cup_n a_n(\mathcal{H})$ , then

$$\psi(a) = \sum_n \psi(a_n).$$

- (iii) (Continuity from above) For any increasing net  $0 \preceq a_n \uparrow a$  in  $\mathcal{A}_+ \Rightarrow \psi(a_n) \uparrow \psi(a)$ .

Consider an arbitrary normal state  $\psi$  and set

$$\mu(A) := \psi(\mathbf{M}_{1_A}) \quad \text{for every } A \in \mathcal{F}.$$

In particular, we recover the probability  $\mathbb{P}$  by

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \psi(\mathbf{M}_{1_A})$$

$$\psi(\mathbf{M}_{1_A} \mathbf{M}_{1_B}) = \psi(\mathbf{M}_{1_{A \cap B}}) = \mathbb{P}(A \cap B)$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\cup_i A_i) = \psi(\mathbf{M}_{1_{\cup_i A_i}}) = \psi(\sum_i \mathbf{M}_{1_{A_i}}) = \sum_i \psi(\mathbf{M}_{1_{A_i}}) = \sum_i \mathbb{P}(A_i)$$

Let  $(X_t)_{t \in \mathbb{T}}$  be a stochastic process on the Wiener space  $(\Omega, \mathbb{R})$

Consider a path measure  $\mathbf{P}$  on  $\Omega := \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R}_+; E)$  and the canonical process  $(X_t)_{t \geq 0}$  given by  $X_t(\omega) = \omega(t)$ ,  $\omega \in \Omega$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$ . Suppose that for every  $f \in B_b(E)$ ,

$$f(X_t) - f(X_0) - \int_0^t Lf(X_{r-}) dr \quad \text{is an } (\mathfrak{F}, \mathbf{P})\text{-martingale,} \quad \text{eq: classical-martingale} \quad (2.1)$$

where  $\mathfrak{F} = (\mathcal{F}_t)_{t \geq 0}$  is the canonical filtration  $\mathcal{F}_t = \sigma(X_s : s \leq t)$ , and  $L: B_b(E) \rightarrow B_b(E)$  is a bounded Markov generator such that  $L^*\pi = 0$  for some stationary measure  $\pi \in \mathcal{P}(E)$ .

We now write (2.1) in the form above. Set  $\mathfrak{X} := L^\infty(E, \pi)$  and  $\mathfrak{A} := L^\infty(\Omega, \mathbf{P}_\pi)$ , which are both commutative von Neumann algebras and where

$$\mathbf{P}_\pi(A) = \int_E \mathbf{P}(x + A) \pi(dx).$$

Now, define the stochastic process

$$\mathfrak{z}_t: \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow (\mathfrak{A}, \mu), \quad \mathfrak{z}_t(f) = f \circ X_t,$$

with the state

$$\mu(G) := \int_\Omega G(\omega) \mathbf{P}_\pi(d\omega), \quad G \in \mathfrak{A},$$

which makes  $(\mathfrak{A}, \mu)$  a quantum probability space.

$$\mathbf{E}_t[\mathfrak{z}]$$

and the  $*$ -homomorphism

$$\begin{aligned} \mathfrak{z}_t(f) - \mathfrak{z}_0(f) - \int_0^t \mathfrak{z}_{r-}(Lf) dr \\ \alpha_t(F) = F \circ \mathfrak{s}_t \\ \alpha_t \circ \mathfrak{z}_0(f) = \alpha_t(f \circ X_0 \otimes \mathbf{1}_\Omega) = f \circ X_0 \circ \mathfrak{s}_t(\omega) \\ \alpha_t: \mathcal{A} \times \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{A}; \quad \alpha_t(M_f, \omega) = M_{f \circ X_t(\omega)}. \end{aligned}$$

The martingale identity (2.1) above can then be expressed as

$$\mathfrak{m}_t[M_f] := \alpha_t(M_f) - \alpha_0(M_f) - \int_0^t \alpha_{r-}(M_{Lf}) dr.$$

Setting  $\mathcal{L}M_f := M_{Lf}$ , the previous identity allows one to write (2.1) as

$$\mathfrak{m}_t[A] = \alpha_t(A) - \alpha_0(A) - \int_0^t \alpha_{r-}(\mathcal{L}A) dr, \quad A \in \mathcal{A},$$

thereby generalizing the martingale problem to a non-commutative setting.

$$\mathfrak{m}_t[A] - \mathfrak{m}_s[A] = \alpha_t(A) - \alpha_s(A) - \int_s^t \alpha_{r-}(\mathcal{L}A) dr$$

$$\mathcal{L}_a = a^\dagger[\bullet, a] + [a^\dagger, \bullet]a$$

**Example 2.10** (Diffusion) Consider the formal example of the (possibly degenerate) diffusion process with the generator

$$Lf = \operatorname{div}(A\nabla f) - A\nabla V \cdot \nabla f, \quad f \in \mathcal{C}_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d),$$

i.e., it is the generator of the Itô diffusion

$$dX_t = -\sigma(X_t)\sigma^\top(X_t)\nabla V(X_t)dt + \sigma(X_t) \circ dB_t,$$

with  $A = \sigma\sigma^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ ,  $\sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times m}$

$$a_i = \sum_{j=1}^d \sigma_{ji} \partial_j, \quad a_i^\dagger = - \sum_{j=1}^d \partial_j (\sigma_{ji} \bullet), \quad i = 1, \dots, m.$$

It is not difficult to see that  $[a_i^\dagger, M_f] = -[a_i, M_f]$ . Moreover, for any  $g \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} a_i^\dagger[M_f, a_i]g &= \sum_{j=1}^d \partial_j(\sigma_{ji}g) \sum_{k=1}^d \sigma_{ki} \partial_k f \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^d g \partial_j(\sigma_{ji} \sum_{k=1}^d \sigma_{ki} \partial_k f) + \sum_{j,k=1}^d \sigma_{ji} \sigma_{ki} \partial_j g \partial_k f \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^d g \partial_j(\sigma_{ji} \sum_{k=1}^d \sigma_{ki} \partial_k f) - [M_f, a_i]a_i g. \end{aligned}$$

Consequently, we find that

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \mathcal{L}_{a_i}(M_f) = \sum_{i=1}^m (a_i^\dagger[M_f, a_i] + [a_i^\dagger, M_f]a_i) = M_{\operatorname{div}(A\nabla f)}$$

Moreover, setting

$$H_i = \sum_{j,k=1}^d \sigma_{ji} \sigma_{ki} \partial_j V \partial_k, \quad i = 1, \dots, m,$$

we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^m [H_i, M_f] &= M_{\sigma\sigma^\top \nabla V \cdot \nabla f} \\ [a_i, M_V][a_i, \bullet] & \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we obtain

$$\mathcal{L}M_f = \sum_{i=1}^m ([H_i, M_f] + \mathcal{L}_{a_i}M_f) = M_{L_f} \quad \forall f \in \mathcal{C}_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d).$$

However, we know that the diffusion process constitutes a gradient flow with driving energy  $\mathcal{F} = \operatorname{Ent}(\bullet|\pi)$ , where  $\pi = e^{-V} \operatorname{Leb}$  is the invariant measure. Formally, one defines a state on  $\mathcal{C}_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d)$  by

$$\tau(M_f) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f d\pi, \quad f \in \mathcal{C}_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d).$$

$$\begin{aligned}\tau_\pi(M_f M_g) &= \tau(M_f M_g M_\pi) = \tau(M_{fg\pi}) = \tau_\pi(M_g M_f) \\ \Delta_\pi A &= M_\pi A M_\pi^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}(\Delta_\pi V_j)(g) &= M_\pi V_j M_\pi^{-1} g = \pi \sum_{j=1}^d \sigma_{ji} \partial_j (\pi^{-1} g) - \sigma_{ji} \partial_j V (\pi^{-1} g) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^d \sigma_{ji} [g \partial_j V + \partial_j g] - \sigma_{ji} \partial_j V g =\end{aligned}$$

$$V_j = \sum_{j=1}^d \sigma_{ji} \partial_j - M_{\sigma_{ji} \partial_j V}$$

$$\tau_\sigma(M_g \mathcal{L} M_f) = \hat{\sigma}(M_{gLf}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} g Lf \, \mathrm{d}\sigma =$$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L} M_{e^{-V}} g &= (\operatorname{div}(A \nabla e^{-V}) + A \nabla V \cdot \nabla e^{-V}) g \\ &= (-\operatorname{div}(A \nabla V e^{-V}) - A \nabla V \cdot \nabla V e^{-V}) g\end{aligned}$$

$$[a_i, M_f]g = \sum_{j=1}^d \sigma_{ji} \partial_j (fg) - \sum_{j=1}^d f \sigma_{ji} \partial_j g = \sum_{j=1}^d \sigma_{ji} g \partial_j f = M_{a_i(f)}g$$

$$[a_i^\dagger, M_f]g = - \sum_{j=1}^d \partial_j (\sigma_{ji} fg) + \sum_{j=1}^d f \partial_j (\sigma_{ji} g) = - \sum_{j=1}^d \sigma_{ji} \partial_j fg = -M_{a_i(f)}g = -[a_i^\dagger, M_f]g$$

Consequently, we find that

$$\mathcal{L}_{a_i} M_f =$$

$$[a_i, M_f]a_i g = \sum_{j,k=1}^d \sigma_{ji} \sigma_{ki} \partial_j f \partial_k g$$

$$[a_i, M_V] = \sum_{j=1}^d \sigma_{ji} \partial_j V$$

$$[a_i, [a_i, M_f]] = [a_i, M_{a_i(f)}] = M_{a_i(a_i(f))},$$

where we used the fact that  $[a_i, M_f] = M_{a_i(f)}$  for every  $i = 1, \dots, d$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^m a_i \circ a_i(f) &= \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^d \sigma_{ji} \partial_j \left( \sum_{k=1}^d \sigma_{ki} \partial_k f \right) = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j,k=1}^d \sigma_{ji} \partial_j (\sigma_{ki} \partial_k f) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j,k=1}^d \sigma_{ji} \partial_j (\sigma_{ki} \partial_k f) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{div}(\sigma \sigma^\top \nabla f) &= \sum_{j=1}^d \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{k=1}^d \partial_j (\sigma_{ji} \sigma_{ki} \partial_k f) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^d \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{k=1}^d \partial_j (\sigma_{ji} \sigma_{ki} \partial_k f) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi | M_{L_f} | \psi \rangle &= \int (Lf)(x) |\psi(x)|^2 \pi(dx) \\ &= - \int \sigma^2 \partial_x f \partial_x (\psi^2 \pi) dx - \int \sigma^2 \partial_x f \partial_x V \psi^2 d\pi \\ &= -2 \int \sigma^2 \partial_x f \psi \partial_x \psi d\pi \\ &= -2 \int \\ &\quad a\psi = \sigma \partial_x \psi \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle \varphi | a \psi \rangle &= \int \varphi \sigma \partial_x \psi \, d\pi \\
&= - \int \partial_x (\sigma \varphi \pi) \psi(x) \, dx \\
&= - \int \partial_x (\sigma \varphi) \psi \, d\pi + \int \varphi \psi \sigma \partial_x V \, d\pi \\
&= \int [-\partial_x (\sigma \varphi) + \varphi \sigma \partial_x V] \psi \, d\pi = \langle a^\dagger \varphi | \psi \rangle
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
(a^\dagger M_f a \psi)(x) &= -\partial_x (f \sigma^2 \partial_x \psi) + f \sigma^2 \partial_x \psi \partial_x V \\
(a^\dagger a M_f \psi)(x) &= -\partial_x (\sigma^2 \partial_x (f \psi)) + \sigma^2 \partial_x (f \psi) \partial_x V \\
(M_f a^\dagger a \psi)(x) &= -f \partial (\sigma^2 \partial_x \psi) + \sigma^2 f \partial_x \psi \partial_x V
\end{aligned}$$

$$\int \psi(x) (a^\dagger M_f a \psi)(x) \, d\pi = \int f |\sigma \partial_x \psi|^2 \, d\pi$$

## 2.3 Stochastic processes on matrix algebras

In this section, we consider  $\mathfrak{X} = \text{Mat}(\mathbb{C}, n)$ . Let  $a \in \mathcal{O}(\mathfrak{X})$  be an observable on  $\mathfrak{X}$  and set

$$\mathcal{L}x = a^\dagger [x, a] + [a^\dagger, x]a, \quad x \in \mathfrak{X}.$$

We then consider the solution of the

$$d\mathcal{U}_t = (-a^\dagger a \, dt + i\sqrt{2}a \, dB_t) \mathcal{U}_t,$$

which, due to  $a = a^\dagger$ , can be explicitly expressed as

$$\mathcal{U}_t(x, e(f)) := \exp(i\sqrt{2}a B_t(\omega))x, \quad t \in \mathbb{T},$$

which is a  $*$ -automorphism on  $\mathfrak{X}$ , which extends to an isometry

$$\mathcal{U}_t: \mathfrak{X} \otimes \mathcal{A}$$

$$B \in \mathcal{A}$$

$$\mathfrak{z}_t(x) - \mathfrak{z}_0(x) - \int_0^t \mathfrak{z}_r(\mathcal{L}x) \, dr$$

## 2.4 Dilation of semigroups (Sz.Nagy)

## 2.5 Stochastic dilations: How to make a heat bath

## 2.6 Interpretation of LDPs on unitary evolutions

The task of this subsection is to reinterpret the large deviations of empirical measures in a functional analytic framework.

Consider a family of iid  $E$ -valued random variables  $(X_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$  with  $\sigma = \text{Law} X_1$ . Setting  $\Omega = E^{\mathbb{N}}$  and  $\mathbf{R} = \sigma^{\otimes \mathbb{N}}$ , we see that  $\text{Law}(X_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}} = \mathbf{R}$ . Moreover, we can disregard the initial probability space for  $X_i$  and consider instead the canonical random variable on  $\Omega$ .

For every  $f \in \mathfrak{X} := \mathcal{C}_b(E)$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we define the noncommutative random variable

$$\mathfrak{X} \ni f \mapsto \mathfrak{z}^n(f) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(X_i) \in \mathfrak{A} := L^\infty(\Omega, \mathbf{R}),$$

where  $\mathfrak{A}$  is equipped with the state  $\mu(G) = \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{R}}[G]$ ,  $G \in \mathfrak{A}$ .

$$\mu(\mathfrak{z}^n(f)) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{R}}[f(X_i)] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \int_E f \, d\sigma = \int_E f \, d\sigma = \mu(\mathfrak{z}_1(f)).$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{R}(\sup_f \{\mu^n(f) - \nu(f)\} > \varepsilon) &= \mathbf{R}(n\mu^n(f) > n(\nu(f) + \varepsilon)) \\ &= \mathbf{R}(e^{n\mu^n(f)} > e^{n(\nu(f) + \varepsilon)}) \leq e^{-n(\nu(f) + \varepsilon)} \int_{\Omega} e^{n\mu^n(f)} \, d\mathbf{R} \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathfrak{z}: \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow (\mathfrak{X} \otimes \mathfrak{C}, \text{tr} \otimes \mu)$$

$$\mathfrak{A} = \mathfrak{X} \otimes \mathfrak{C}^{\otimes \mathbb{Z}}, \quad \varphi = \text{tr} \otimes \mu^{\otimes \mathbb{Z}}$$

Let  $X_i$

$$\mathfrak{z}_i(x) = x \otimes c_i, \quad c_i = \cdots 1 \otimes c$$

$$\mathfrak{z}^n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathfrak{z}_i, \quad \mathfrak{z}_i = \cdots \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathfrak{z} \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \cdots$$

$$\varphi(\mathfrak{z}^n(x)) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \varphi(\mathfrak{z}_i(x)) = \varphi(\mathfrak{z}_1(x)) = \mu(\mathfrak{z}(x))$$

$$\mathfrak{z}_i(x) = \mathbb{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathfrak{z}(x) \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathbb{1}$$

$$\mathfrak{z}^n(x) \in \mathfrak{A} \cong \mathfrak{X} \otimes \mathfrak{Y}$$

$$\mu = \text{tr} \otimes \mu_{\mathfrak{C}}^{\otimes \mathbb{N}}$$

$$\mu(\mathbf{1}_A(\mathfrak{z}^n(x) - \mathfrak{y}_1(x))) = \mu_{\mathfrak{C}}^{\otimes \mathbb{N}}(\text{tr}[\mathbf{1}_A(\mathfrak{z}^n(x) - \mathfrak{y}(x) \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathfrak{C}^{\otimes \mathbb{N}}})])$$

$$\sup_f \{\mu^n(f) - \nu(f)\} > \varepsilon \Rightarrow \mu^n(f^\delta) - \nu(f^\delta) > \varepsilon - \delta$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{R}(\mu^n(f) - \nu(f) > \varepsilon) &= \mathbf{R}(e^{n\mu^n(f^\delta)} > e^{n(\nu(f^\delta) + \varepsilon - \delta)}) \\ &\leq e^{-n(\nu(f^\delta) + \varepsilon - \delta)} \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{R}}[e^{n\mu^n(f^\delta)}] \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned}
-\frac{1}{n} \log \mathbf{R}(\mu^n(f) - \mu(f) > \varepsilon) &\geq \mu(f) + \varepsilon - \frac{1}{n} \log \int_{\Omega} e^{n\mu^n(f)} d\mathbf{R} \\
&= \mu(f) + \varepsilon - \log \int_E e^f d\mu
\end{aligned}$$

$$-\frac{1}{n} \log \mathbf{R}(\mu^n(f) - \mu(f) > \varepsilon) \geq$$

Taking the sup

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{\Omega} e^{n\mu^n(f)} d\mathbf{R} &= \int_{\Omega} \prod_{i=1}^n e^{f(X_i)} d\mathbf{R} \\
&= \int_{E^N} \prod_{i=1}^n e^{f(x_i)} \mu(dx_1) \cdots \mu(dx_n) = \left( \int_E e^{f(x)} \mu(dx) \right)^n
\end{aligned}$$

## 2.7 Reformulation of Dawson-Gärtner

DG's rate function I: For each  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , let  $\mathbf{P}^x \in \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$ ,  $\Omega = \mathcal{C}([0, T]; \mathbb{R}^d)$  be the solution of the martingale problem and let  $\mathbf{E}^x$  be its corresponding expectation.

$$\mathcal{I}_1(\mu_{\bullet}) = \min_{\mathbf{P} \in \mathcal{P}(\Omega): \mathbf{P}_{\bullet} = \mu} \mathcal{I}_1(\mathbf{P})$$

$$\mathcal{I}_1(\mathbf{Q}) = \sup_{F \in \mathcal{C}_b(\Omega)} \left\{ \mathbf{Q}(F) - \nu(\log \mathbf{E}^{\bullet}[\exp(F)]) \right\}$$

$$\mathfrak{X} \otimes$$

Let  $\varrho \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{H})$  be state and  $(\varrho^n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subset \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{H})$  be a sequence of states. We say that  $\varrho^n \rightarrow \varrho$  setwise if

$$\varrho^n(E) \rightarrow \varrho(E) \quad \text{for all projections } E \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H}).$$

Further, let  $(\mathfrak{z}_t)_{t \in \mathbb{T}}$  be a stochastic process in the sense of Definition 2.1 with

$$\mathfrak{z}_t: \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow (\mathfrak{X} \otimes \mathfrak{C}, \varphi), \quad \varphi = \varrho \otimes \mu.$$

$$\mathfrak{z}_t(x) = \mathbf{u}_t^\dagger x \mathbf{u}_t$$

and  $\mathfrak{z}_0(x) = x \otimes 1$ ,  $x \in \mathfrak{X}$ . By construction, we have that

$$\varphi(\mathfrak{z}_0(x)) = \varphi(x \otimes 1) = \varrho(x)\mu(1) = \varrho(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathfrak{X}.$$

We suppose that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{S}(\mathfrak{X} \otimes \mathfrak{C}^{\otimes n}) &\rightarrow \mathcal{S}(\mathfrak{X} \otimes \mathfrak{C}) \\ \mu_\varphi &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \varphi_i = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \rho \otimes \varphi \\ \mathbf{x}_i: \mathfrak{C}^{\otimes n} &\rightarrow \mathfrak{C}; \quad \mathbf{x}_i(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n) = \omega_i \\ &\delta_{\mathbf{x}_i}(E) \end{aligned}$$

## 2.8 Groups to algebras

Let  $\mathbb{T}$  be the 1-dimensional torus. Further, let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space and  $\mathfrak{h} \in \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{H})$  be an observable on  $\mathcal{H}$ . Consider the unitary  $\mathbf{u}: \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H})$  such that  $\mathbf{u}(\exp(tX)) = e^{it\mathfrak{h}}$ .

$$\left. \frac{d}{dt} f(\exp(tX)) \right|_{t=0} = X(f)$$

$$dX_t =$$

$$\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}) \rightarrow L^\infty(\mathbb{T}; \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})); \quad a \mapsto \mathbf{u}^\dagger(z) a \mathbf{u}(z)$$

Let  $\rho_0 \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{H})$  be a given fixed state

$$\begin{aligned} \varrho_\mu(x) &= \int_{\mathbb{T}} \text{tr}[\mathbf{u}^\dagger(z) x \mathbf{u}(z) \varrho_0] \mu(dz) = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f_{\rho_0, x}(z) \mu(dz) \\ &= \text{tr} \left[ x \int_{\mathbb{T}} \mathbf{u}(z) \varrho_0 \mathbf{u}^\dagger(z) \mu(dz) \right] = \text{tr}[x \varrho_\mu] \end{aligned}$$

Consider iid random variables  $(Z^i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ ,  $Z^i \sim \mu \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{T})$  and the corresponding sequence of empirical measures

$$\mu^n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_{Z^i}, \quad \varrho_{\mu^n}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{u}(Z^i) \varrho_0 \mathbf{u}^\dagger(Z^i)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{n} \log \mathbb{E}[e^{n\langle f, \mu^n \rangle}] &= \frac{1}{n} \log \mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left( \sum_{i=1}^n f(Z^i) \right) \right] \\ &= \log \left( \int_{\mathbb{T}} e^{f(z)} \mu(dz) \right)\end{aligned}$$

$$\sup_{f=f_{\varrho_0, x}} \left\{ \langle f, \nu \rangle - \log \int_{\mathbb{T}} e^{f(z)} \mu(dz) \right\} = \sup_{x \in \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{H})} \left\{ \text{tr}[x \varrho_\nu] - \log \int_{\mathbb{T}} e^{\text{tr}[\mathbf{u}^\dagger(z) x \mathbf{u}(z) \varrho_0]} \mu(dz) \right\}$$

$$\begin{aligned}& \sum_{j,k} x_{jk} \text{tr}[E_{jk} \varrho_\nu] - \log \int_{\mathbb{T}} e^{\sum_{j,k} x_{jk} \text{tr}[\mathbf{u}^\dagger(z) E_{jk} \mathbf{u}(z) \varrho_0]} \mu(dz) \\ &= \sum_{j,k} x_{jk} \text{tr}[E_{jk} \varrho_\nu] - \log \int_{\mathbb{T}} \prod_{j,k} e^{x_{jk} \text{tr}[\mathbf{u}^\dagger(z) E_{jk} \mathbf{u}(z) \varrho_0]} \mu(dz)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{tr}[E_{jk} \varrho_\nu] &= \frac{1}{c} \int_{\mathbb{T}} \text{tr}[\mathbf{u}^\dagger(z) E_{jk} \mathbf{u}(z) \varrho_0] e^{\sum_{j,k} x_{jk} \text{tr}[\mathbf{u}^\dagger(z) E_{jk} \mathbf{u}(z) \varrho_0]} \mu(dz) \\ b &= \frac{1}{c} \int_{\mathbb{T}} v(z) e^{\langle \mathbf{x}, v(z) \rangle} \mu(dz)\end{aligned}$$

Consider the map

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x} &\mapsto \Lambda(\mathbf{x}) = \int_{\mathbb{T}} v(z) e^{\langle \mathbf{x}, v(z) \rangle} \mu(dz) \\ \langle \Lambda(\mathbf{x}) - \Lambda(\mathbf{y}), \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} \rangle &= \int_0^1 \langle D\Lambda((1-\tau)\mathbf{x} + \tau\mathbf{y})[\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}], \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} \rangle d\tau \geq 0 \\ \frac{d}{d\lambda} \int_{\mathbb{T}} v(z) e^{\langle \lambda, v(z) \rangle} \mu(dz) &= \int_{\mathbb{T}} v(z) \otimes v(z) e^{\langle \lambda, v(z) \rangle} \mu(dz) \\ \text{tr}[E_{jk} \mathbf{u}(z) \varrho_0 \mathbf{u}^\dagger(z)] &= \langle \psi_k | \mathbf{u}(z) \varrho_0 \mathbf{u}^\dagger(z) | \psi_j \rangle = \sum_i \lambda_i \langle \psi_k | \mathbf{u}(z) | \psi_i \rangle \langle \psi_i | \mathbf{u}^\dagger(z) | \psi_j \rangle\end{aligned}$$

If  $\varrho_0 = \mathbb{1}$ , then

$$\text{tr}[E_{jk} \mathbf{u}(z) \varrho_0 \mathbf{u}^\dagger(z)] = \delta_{kj}.$$

Hence,

$$\text{tr}[E_{jk} \varrho_\nu] = \frac{1}{c} \delta_{kj} e^{\sum_j x_j}$$

## 3 Boson Fock spaces and quantum noise

### 3.1 Boson Fock spaces

Consider a (complex) Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  with scalar product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ . The symmetric Fock space associated with  $\mathcal{H}$  is

$$\mathfrak{F} = \mathfrak{F}_{\text{sym}}(\mathcal{H}) := \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{N}_0} \mathcal{H}^{\odot n}, \quad \mathcal{H}^{\odot 0} = \mathbb{C},$$

where  $\odot$  denotes the symmetric tensor product such that

$$\mathcal{H}^{\odot n} = \left\{ f \in \mathcal{H}^{\otimes n} : f(x_{\sigma_1}, \dots, x_{\sigma_n}) = f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \text{ for every permutation } \sigma \right\}.$$

The Fock space  $\mathfrak{F}$  inherits the scalar product from  $\mathcal{H}$  defined by

$$\langle \oplus f^{(n)}, \oplus g^{(n)} \rangle_{\mathfrak{F}} = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}_0} \langle f^{(n)}, g^{(n)} \rangle_{\mathcal{H}^{\otimes n}}.$$

We define the *vacuum vector*  $\Omega = 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0^{\otimes 2} \oplus \dots \in \mathfrak{F}$ , and the *exponential vectors*

$$\mathbf{e}(f) = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{N}_0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n!}} f^{\otimes n}, \quad f \in \mathcal{H}.$$

It turns out that the family of exponential vectors  $\mathfrak{E}$  is *total* in  $\mathfrak{F}$ , i.e., the linear span of  $\mathfrak{E}$  is dense in  $\mathfrak{F}$ . This fact will be helpful for us in the future. Since,

$$\langle \mathbf{e}(f), \mathbf{e}(g) \rangle_{\mathfrak{F}} = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}_0} \frac{1}{n!} \langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}^n = e^{\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}}, \quad f, g \in \mathcal{H},$$

the exponential vectors are normalizable. These normalized exponential vectors

$$\psi(f) = e^{-\frac{1}{2}\|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2} \mathbf{e}(f), \quad f \in \mathcal{H},$$

are commonly known as *coherent vectors*.

#### 3.1.1 Weyl and field operators

For any  $f \in \mathcal{H}$ , we define the *Weyl operator* on exponential vectors by

$$\mathbf{W}(f)\mathbf{e}(g) := \exp\left(-\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} - \frac{1}{2}\|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2\right) \mathbf{e}(f+g), \quad g \in \mathcal{H}.$$

Weyl operators play an essential role in the setup of Fock spaces. For one, they generate coherent states by acting on the vacuum state, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{W}(f)\Omega = e^{-\frac{1}{2}\|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2} \mathbf{e}(f) = \psi(f), \quad f \in \mathcal{H}.$$

Moreover, they give the means to map any element  $f \in \mathcal{H}$  to unitary operators on  $\mathfrak{F}$  that satisfy the *canonical commutation relation* (CCR):

**Proposition 3.1.** *The Weyl operator  $W(f)$  is a unitary operator and satisfies*

$$(i) \quad W^\dagger(f) = W(-f).$$

$$(ii) \quad W(f)W(g) = e^{-i\text{Im}(\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}})} W(f+g) = e^{-2i\text{Im}(\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}})} W(g)W(f).$$

*Property (ii) is the Weyl form of the canonical commutation relation (CCR).*

*Proof.* For any  $g \in \mathcal{H}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle W(f)e(g), W(f)e(g) \rangle_{\mathfrak{F}} &= \exp(-2\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} - \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2) \langle e(f+g), e(f+g) \rangle_{\mathfrak{F}} \\ &= \exp(-2\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} - \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 + \|f+g\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2) \\ &= e^{\|g\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2} = \langle e(g), e(g) \rangle_{\mathfrak{F}}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $W(f)$  preserves inner products on  $\mathfrak{E}$ . Since  $\mathfrak{E}$  is dense in  $\mathfrak{F}$ ,  $W(f)$  extends uniquely to an isometry on  $\mathfrak{F}$ .

In a similar fashion, we compute

$$W(-f)W(f)e(g) = e(g) = W(f)W(-f)e(g) \quad \forall g \in \mathcal{H},$$

i.e.,  $W(-f)W(f)$  is the identity on the dense set  $\mathfrak{E}$ . In particular,  $W(f)$  is surjective and an isometry, i.e.,  $W(f)$  is unitary with  $W^\dagger(f) = W(-f)$ .

As for the last property, we observe that

$$\begin{aligned} W(f)W(g)W(-(f+g))e(h) &= e^{\langle f+g, h \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} - \frac{1}{2}\|f+g\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2} W(f)W(g)e(-(f+g)+h) \\ &= e^{\langle f+g, h \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} - \frac{1}{2}\|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 - \langle g, -f+h \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} - \text{Re}(\langle g, f \rangle_{\mathcal{H}})} W(f)e(-f+h) \\ &= e^{-i\text{Im}(\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}})} e(h), \end{aligned}$$

and hence,  $W(f)W(g)W(-(f+g)) = e^{-i\text{Im}(\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}})} I_{\mathfrak{F}}$ . We then conclude by using property (i) of Weyl operators.  $\square$

Since  $W(f)$  is unitary for every  $f \in \mathcal{H}$ , the family  $\{W(tf)\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$  forms a one-parameter (strongly continuous) group of unitaries. In particular, due to Stone's theorem, it has a corresponding Hermitian operator  $P(f)$  such that

$$W(tf) = \exp(itP(f)).$$

We further define the following operators

$$Q(f) := -P(if), \quad A^-(f) := \frac{Q(f) + iP(f)}{2}, \quad A^+(f) := \frac{Q(f) - iP(f)}{2}.$$

The operators  $A^\pm$  are called the *field operators* and will play an essential role as they form the creation/annihilation operators on Fock spaces.

**Proposition 3.2.** *The following are true: For any  $f, g \in \mathcal{H}$ ,*

$$(i) \quad \mathfrak{E} \text{ is a core for } P(f) \text{ and } [P(f), P(g)] = 2i\text{Im}(\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}})I_{\mathfrak{F}}.$$

$$(ii) \quad A^-(f)e(g) = \langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} e(g), \quad A^+(f)e(g) = \frac{d}{dt} e(g + tf)|_{t=0}.$$

$$(iii) \quad W^\dagger(f)A^-(g)W(f) = A^-(g) + \langle g, f \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \mathbf{l}_{\mathfrak{F}}, \quad W^\dagger(f)A^+(g)W(f) = A^+(g) + \langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \mathbf{l}_{\mathfrak{F}}.$$

$$(iv) \quad [A^-(f), A^-(g)] = [A^+(f), A^+(g)] = 0, \quad [A^-(f), A^+(g)] = \langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \mathbf{l}_{\mathfrak{F}},$$

i.e., the field operators  $A^\pm$  satisfy the canonical commutation relation.

**Remark 3.3** On the finite particle vectors, the field operators act as

$$A^-(f)g^{\otimes n} = \sqrt{n} \langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} g^{\otimes(n-1)}, \quad A^+(f)g^{\otimes(n-1)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} g^{\otimes k} \otimes f \otimes g^{\otimes(n-1-k)}.$$

**Example 3.4** Let  $\mathcal{H} = L_{\mathbb{C}}^2([-\pi, \pi])$  be the space of square-integrable functions. Then the countable set  $\{\psi_\ell(x) = e^{i\ell x} : \ell \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  forms an orthonormal basis for  $\mathcal{H}$ .

$$\psi(x) = \sum_{\ell} e^{i\ell x} A_{\ell}^-$$

### 3.1.2 Second quantization

The term *second quantization* is associated with the action of lifting operators on an  $k$ -particle space  $\mathcal{H}^{\otimes k}$  to an associated operator on the Fock space.

We begin our discussion with the 1-particle case. For any bounded operator  $A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  one defines the map

$$\Gamma(A) := I \oplus \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A^{\otimes n},$$

which acts on  $\mathcal{H}^{\otimes n}$  by

$$\Gamma(A)g_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes g_n = Ag_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes Ag_n.$$

Clearly, if  $A$  is unitary, then so is  $\Gamma(A)$ . Indeed, in this case, one has

$$\langle \Gamma(A)e(g), \Gamma(A)e(g) \rangle_{\mathfrak{F}(\mathcal{H})} = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}_0} \frac{1}{n!} \langle Ag, Ag \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}^n = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}_0} \frac{1}{n!} \|g\|_{\mathcal{H}}^n = \langle e(g), e(g) \rangle_{\mathfrak{F}(\mathcal{H})}.$$

Now let  $H$  be a self-adjoint operator on  $\mathcal{H}$  and  $U_t := \exp(itH)$  be its unitary evolution. Then,  $\Gamma(U_t)$  is a one-parameter group of unitary operators on  $\mathfrak{F}(\mathcal{H})$ . Stone's theorem then provides the existence of a densely defined Hermitian operator  $d\Gamma(H)$  such that

$$\Gamma(U_t) = \exp(it d\Gamma(H)).$$

The generator  $d\Gamma(H)$  is called the *second quantization of  $H$* , and takes the explicit form

$$d\Gamma(H)g^{(n)} = \sum_{j=1}^n g_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes g_{j-1} \otimes Hg_j \otimes g_{j+1} \otimes \cdots \otimes g_n = \sum_{j=1}^n H_j g^{(n)},$$

for any  $g^{(n)} = g_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes g_n \in \mathcal{H}^{\otimes n}$  with  $g_j \in D(H)$  and

$$H_j = I_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \cdots \otimes I_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes H \otimes I_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \cdots \otimes I_{\mathcal{H}},$$

where  $H$  acts on the  $j$ -th tensor product. The special case  $H = I_{\mathcal{H}}$  yields

$$\mathbf{N}g^{(n)} := d\Gamma(I_{\mathcal{H}})g^{(n)} = ng^{(n)}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N},$$

and is called the *number operator* due to its diagonal nature, with eigenvalues representing the number of particles in each configuration. Its domain is given by

$$D(\mathbf{N}) = \left\{ \{f^{(n)}\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}_0} : \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}_0} n^2 \|f^{(n)}\|_{\mathcal{H}^{\otimes n}}^2 < +\infty \right\}.$$

$$\mathbf{A}_j^- \mathbf{A}_j^+ \psi_j^{\otimes n} = \sqrt{n} \mathbf{A}_j^- \psi_j^{\otimes (n-1)} = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \psi_j^{\otimes k} \otimes \psi_j \otimes \psi_j^{\otimes (n-1-k)} = n \psi_j^{\otimes n}$$

$$\mathbf{A}_j^+ \mathbf{A}_j^- \mathbf{e}(\psi_j) = \delta_{jk} \mathbf{N}_j \mathbf{e}(\psi_j)$$

This construction can be performed similarly for the general  $k$ -particle case.

$$d\Gamma(H^{(k)})f^{(n)} = \sum_{j_1 \neq \dots \neq j_k} H_{j_1 \dots j_k} f^{(n)},$$

where  $H_{j_1, \dots, j_k}$  denotes the operator where  $H^{(k)}$  acts on the  $(j_1, \dots, j_k)$ -th tensor product.

**Example 3.5** Consider the Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H} = L_{\mathbb{C}}^2(\mathbb{T})$  and the Hamiltonians,

$$H^{(1)} = -\Delta \in \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{H}), \quad H^{(2)} = \mathbf{M}_W \in \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{H}^{\otimes 2}),$$

where  $W : \mathbb{T} \times \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is an interaction potential, and  $\mathbf{M}_f$  denotes the multiplication operator corresponding to  $f$ .

Then, their second quantization is given by

$$d\Gamma(H^{(1)}) = \sum_{j=1}^n H_j^{(1)}, \quad d\Gamma(H^{(2)}) = \sum_{j \neq \ell} H_{j\ell}^{(2)} \quad \text{on } \mathcal{H}^{\otimes n}.$$

$$d\Gamma(H^{(1)})\psi_j^{\otimes n} = nj^2\psi_j^{\otimes n} = j^2\mathbf{A}_j^+\mathbf{A}_j^-\psi_j^{\otimes n} = j^2\mathbf{A}_j^+\mathbf{A}_j^-\psi_j^{\otimes n}$$

$$\psi^{(n)} = \psi_{k_1} \otimes \dots \otimes \psi_{k_n}$$

$$d\Gamma(H^{(1)})\psi^{(n)} = \sum_{j=1}^n k_j^2 \psi^{(n)}$$

### 3.1.3 Free field operators

For each  $f \in \mathcal{H}$ , we consider the pair  $\{a^-(f), a^+(f)\}$  of operators on  $\mathfrak{F}_{\text{sym}}(\mathcal{H})$  defined by

$$a^-(f)\Psi =$$

satisfying the commutation relations: For any  $f, g \in \mathcal{H}$ ,

$$[a^\pm(f), a^\pm(g)] = 0, \quad [a^-(f), a^+(g)] = \langle f, g \rangle,$$

where  $f \mapsto a^-(f)$  is conjugate linear and  $f \mapsto a^+(f)$  is linear. Moreover, if  $\Omega \in \mathfrak{F}_{\text{sym}}(\mathcal{H})$  is the *vacuum vector*, then  $a^-(f)\Omega = 0$  for every  $f \in \mathcal{H}$ . The *field operators*  $a^-$  and  $a^+$  are called *creation* and *annihilation* operators, respectively. On appropriate domains, the field operators are adjoints of one another, i.e.,  $(a^-(f))^\dagger = a^+(f)$  for every  $f \in \mathcal{H}$ .

It is common in the physics literature to consider operator-valued distributions  $\{a_x^-, a_x^+\}$  instead, where if  $\mathcal{H} = L_{\mathbb{C}}^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ , then  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and

$$a^-(f) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \overline{f(x)} a_x dx, \quad a^+(f) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x) a_x dx.$$

The commutation relations then simply read

$$[a_x^\pm, a_y^\pm] = 0, \quad [a_x^-, a_y^+] = \delta(x - y).$$

The *number operator* is formally defined by  $N_x = a_x^+ a_x$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .

On the rigorous not, if  $\mathcal{H}$  is separable with orthonormal basis  $\{\psi_i\}$ , then one obtains a family of field operators  $\{a_i^-, a_i^+\}$  with  $a_i^\pm : a^\pm(\psi_i)$ .

### 3.1.4 Gaussian states

**Definition 3.6** (Gaussian states) A state  $\Psi$  on  $\mathfrak{F}_{\text{sym}}(\mathcal{H})$  is said to be a mean-zero *Gaussian* (or *quasi-free*) state if it can be uniquely determined from the field operators  $\{a, a^\dagger\}$  by its covariance

$$\Sigma_\Psi(f, g) := \begin{pmatrix} \Psi(a^+(f) a^-(g)) & \Psi(a^-(f) a^-(g)) \\ \Psi(a^+(f) a^+(g)) & \Psi(a^-(f) a^+(g)) \end{pmatrix}, \quad f, g \in \mathcal{H}.$$

If the off-diagonal elements of the covariance are zero, the state  $\Psi$  is called *gauge-invariant* since it is invariant under the so-called gauge transformations of the first kind, i.e.,

$$a^\pm(f) = e^{\pm i\alpha} a^\pm(f) \quad \text{for any } \alpha \in \mathbb{R}.$$

If the off-diagonal elements of the covariance are nonzero, the state  $\Psi$  is called *squeezed*.

### 3.1.5 States invariant under free evolutions

Consider a Hamiltonian  $H$  on  $\mathfrak{F}_{\text{sym}}(\mathcal{H})$  with  $\mathcal{H} = L_{\mathbb{C}}^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$  and its associated 1-parameter automorphism group

$$\mathbf{u}_t(a) = e^{itH} a e^{-itH}, \quad t \in \mathbb{R}.$$



**Definition 3.7** The Hamiltonian  $H$  on  $\mathfrak{F}_{\text{sym}}(\mathcal{H})$  is called *free* if there exists a real-valued function  $\omega: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\mathbf{u}_t(a_x^-) = e^{-it\omega(x)} a_x^-, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

In this case, the function  $\omega$  is called the *free 1-particle Hamiltonian*, and  $H$  is said to be the *second quantization* of  $\omega$ . Accordingly,  $\mathbf{u}_t$  is called a *free evolution*.

**Example 3.8** Consider a Hamiltonian on  $\mathcal{H} = L_{\mathbb{C}}^2(\mathbb{R})$  and its eigensystem  $\{(\lambda_i, \psi_i)\}_i$  such that  $\{\psi_i\}_i$  forms an orthonormal basis for  $\mathcal{H}$ . Setting  $a_i^{\pm} = a^{\pm}(\psi_i)$ , we see that

$$[a_i^{\pm}, a_j^{\pm}] = 0, \quad [a_i^-, a_j^+] = \delta_{ij},$$

i.e.,  $a_i^{\pm}$  define field operators on the symmetric Fock space  $\mathfrak{F}_{\text{sym}}(\mathcal{K})$  with  $\mathcal{K} = \ell_{\mathbb{C}}^2$ . Defining the field operators

$$a^- = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(Q + iP), \quad a^+ = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(Q - iP), \quad N := a^+ a^-$$

such that  $[a^-, a^+] = I$ , we find that

$$H = a^+ a^- + \frac{1}{2} = N + \frac{1}{2}.$$

Clearly, the eigenvectors of  $N$  and  $H$  coincide

**Definition 3.9** A Gaussian state  $\Psi$  on  $\mathfrak{F}_{\text{sym}}(\mathcal{H})$  with  $\mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$  is said to be invariant under a free evolution  $\mathbf{u}_t$  if

$$\Psi(\mathbf{u}_t(a_x^-) \mathbf{u}_s(a_y^+)) = \Psi(\mathbf{u}_{t-s}(a_x^-) a_y^+) = \Psi(a_x^- \mathbf{u}_{s-t}(a_y^+)) \quad \text{for all } t \in \mathbb{R}, x \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

A *Gaussian free state* is a Gaussian state that is invariant under *all* free evolutions.

**Theorem 3.10.** A Gaussian state  $\Psi$  on  $\mathfrak{F}_{\text{sym}}(\mathcal{H})$  is a Gaussian free state if and only if it is gauge-invariant and its diagonal correlations are supported on the diagonal, i.e.,

$$\Psi(a_x^- a_y^+) = m(x) \delta(x - y), \quad \Psi(a_x^+ a_y^-) = n(x) \delta(x - y).$$

**Theorem 3.11.** The field operators  $\{a_x^{\pm}, a_x^{\mp}\}$  satisfying the commutation relations

$$[a_x^{\pm}, a_y^{\pm}] = 0, \quad [a_x^-, a_y^+] = m(x) \delta(x - y).$$

are mean-zero Gaussian random variables w.r.t. the Fock vacuum state  $\Psi_{\Omega} = \langle \Omega, \cdot \Omega \rangle$ , where  $\Omega \in \mathfrak{F}_{\text{sym}}(\mathcal{H})$  is the Fock vacuum vector, with covariance

$$\Sigma_{\Psi}(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & m(x) \end{pmatrix} \delta(x - y), \quad x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

Conversely, if  $\{a_x^{\pm}, a_x^{\mp}\}$  are random variables with these properties, then they satisfy the commutation relations above.

### 3.1.6 Boson Fock white noise

def:boson-white-noise

**Definition 3.12** A boson Fock white noise on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  is a boson Fock field  $\{b_{t,x}^+, b_{t,x}^-\}$  on  $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$  with vacuum vector  $\Omega$  satisfying the commutation relations

$$[b_{t,x}^\pm, b_{s,y}^\pm] = 0, \quad [b_{t,x}^-, b_{s,y}^+] = \delta(t-s)m(x)\delta(x-y), \quad b_{t,x}^-\Omega = 0.$$

thm:stochastic-limit

**Theorem 3.13.** Let  $\{a_x^+, a_x^-\}$  be Gaussian free fields w.r.t. the Fock vacuum state  $\Psi_\Omega$  with

$$\mathbf{u}_t(a_x^-) = e^{-it\omega(x)}a_x^-.$$

Then the rescaled field operators

$$b_{t,x}^{\lambda,\pm} := \frac{1}{\lambda} \mathbf{u}_{t/\lambda^2}(a_x^\pm)$$

converges in the sense of correlator distributions to a boson Fock white noise, i.e.,

$$\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0} \Psi(b_{t,x}^{\lambda,\varepsilon_1} b_{t,y}^{\lambda,\varepsilon_2}) = \Psi(b_{t,x}^{\varepsilon_1} b_{t,y}^{\varepsilon_2}) \quad \varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2 \in \{+, -\},$$

where  $b_{t,x}^\pm$  as defined in Definition 3.12 with  $m = 2\pi\delta(\omega)$ .

*Proof.* Using the invariance of  $\Psi_\Omega$  under free evolutions, we find

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi_\Omega(b_{t,x}^{\lambda,-} b_{s,y}^{\lambda,+}) &= \frac{1}{\lambda^2} \Psi_\Omega(\mathbf{u}_{(t-s)/\lambda^2}(a_x^-) a_y^+) \\ &= \frac{1}{\lambda^2} e^{-i\omega(x)(t-s)/\lambda^2} \Psi_\Omega(a_x^- a_y^+) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2} e^{-i\omega(x)(t-s)/\lambda^2} \delta(x-y). \end{aligned}$$

Passing to the limit  $\lambda \rightarrow 0$  recovers the desired limit. All the other terms vanish.  $\square$

**Remark 3.14** Let  $\mathcal{K} \subset L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$  be a set of functions for which

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} |\langle f, e^{it\omega} g \rangle| dt < +\infty \quad \forall f, g \in \mathcal{K}.$$

Since  $t \mapsto \langle f, e^{it\omega} f \rangle$  is positive definite for each  $f \in \mathcal{K}$ , Bochner's theorem implies that the sesquilinear form

$$\langle f, 2\pi\delta(\omega)g \rangle := \int_{\mathbb{R}} \langle f, e^{it\omega} g \rangle dt,$$

is a pre-scalar product. With  $(\cdot|\cdot)$ , the set  $\mathcal{K}$  becomes a pre-Hilbert space, which can be completed to obtain a Hilbert space, still denoted by  $\mathcal{K}$ . The function  $m = 2\pi\delta(\omega)$  has to be understood in this sense, and only makes sense for functions in  $\mathcal{K}$ .

The operators

$$B_t^-(f) := \int_0^t \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \overline{f(x)} b_{s,x}^- dx ds, \quad B_t^+(f) := \int_0^t \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x) b_{s,x}^+ dx ds,$$

define *quantum Brownian motions*. The self-adjoint (*momentum*) operators

$$P_t(f) := \frac{1}{i} [B_t^-(f) - B_t^+(f)],$$

form a commuting family of classical random variables whose statistics in the Fock vacuum state  $\Psi_\Omega = \langle \Omega, \cdot \Omega \rangle$  is completely determined by the relation

$$\Psi(e^{iP_t(f)}) = \exp\left(-\frac{t}{2} \|f\|_{L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)}^2\right). \quad \text{check!}$$

### 3.1.7 Gaussian equilibrium states: The KMS condition

For any states  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ , the map  $t \mapsto \Psi(a \mathbf{u}_t(b))$  can be analytically continued and satisfies the so-called *KMS condition* at inverse temperature  $\beta > 0$ :

$$\Psi(a \mathbf{u}_{t+i\beta}(b)) = \Psi(\mathbf{u}_t(a) b) \quad \forall a, b \in \mathcal{A}. \quad \text{check!}$$

## 3.2 Composite systems

**Definition 3.15** A composite system of two given quantum dynamical systems  $S = \{\mathcal{H}_S, H_S\}$ ,  $R = \{\mathcal{H}_R, H_R\}$  is a quantum dynamical system of the form

$$\{\mathcal{H}_S \otimes \mathcal{H}_R, H_{SR}\}, \quad H_{SR} = H_S \otimes 1_R + 1_S \otimes H_R + H_I,$$

where  $H_I$  is called the *interaction Hamiltonian* and contains all the new physics of the composite system, while  $H_0 := H_S \otimes 1_R + 1_S \otimes H_R$  is called the free Hamiltonian.

We will consider *scaled* total Hamiltonians

$$H^\lambda := H_0 + \lambda H_I,$$

and the following unitary evolutions:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{free evolution} \quad V_t^0 &= e^{-itH_0}, & \text{total evolution} \quad V_t^\lambda &= e^{-itH^\lambda}, \\ \text{interacting representation evolution} \quad U_t^\lambda &= (V_t^0)^\dagger V_t^\lambda, \end{aligned}$$

where  $U_t^\lambda$  satisfies the Schrödinger equation in the interaction picture:

$$\partial_t U_t^\lambda = -i\lambda H_I(t) U_t^\lambda, \quad U_0^\lambda = I,$$

with the time dependent Hamiltonian  $H_I(t) = (V_t^0)^\dagger H_I V_t^0$ .

For simplicity, we will make the following assumptions on system  $S = \{\mathcal{H}_S, H_S\}$ , the reservoir  $R = \{\mathcal{H}_R, H_R\}$ , and the interaction Hamiltonian  $H_I$ .

### 3.2.1 The reservoir

The reservoir  $R = \{\mathcal{H}_R, H_R\}$  is given by the Hilbert space  $\mathfrak{H}_{\text{sym}}(\mathcal{H})$  with  $\mathcal{H} = L_{\mathbb{C}}^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ , a free Hamiltonian  $H_R$  with continuous spectrum  $\mathbb{R}$ , and a mean-zero Gaussian free state  $\Psi_R$  such that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} |\Psi_R(a_x^{\varepsilon_1} \mathbf{u}_t(a_y^{\varepsilon_2}))| dt < +\infty, \quad \varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2 \in \{+, -\}.$$

In particular,  $\Psi_R$  is characterized by the covariances

$$\Psi_R(a_x^- a_y^+) = m(x) \delta(x - y), \quad \Psi_R(a_x^+ a_y^-) = n(x) \delta(x - y).$$

Since  $H_R$  is free, there exists a function  $\omega$ , for which

$$\mathbf{u}_t(a_x^-) = e^{itH_R} a_x^- e^{-itH_R} = e^{-it\omega(x)} a_x^-,$$

where  $\omega$  describes the 1-particle evolution.

An example of a free reservoir Hamiltonian is given by

$$H_R = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \omega(x) a_x^+ a_x^- dx,$$

where  $\omega$  is a smooth cutoff function.

### 3.2.2 The system Hamiltonian

For simplicity, we shall assume that the system Hamiltonian  $H_S$  has a discrete spectrum such that

$$H_S = \sum_j \lambda_j P_j,$$

where  $\lambda_j$  are the eigenvalues and  $P_j$  are their corresponding spectral projections.

### 3.2.3 The interaction Hamiltonian

We consider dipole-type interaction Hamiltonians of the form

$$H_I = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} [D(x) \otimes a_x^+ + D^\dagger(x) \otimes a_x^-] dx,$$

where  $\{D(x) : x \in \mathbb{R}^d\}$  is a family of system operators called the *response terms*.

With the spectral projections of  $H_S$ , we may express  $H_I$  as

$$H_I = \sum_{j,k} \int_{\mathbb{R}^s} [P_j D(x) P_k \otimes a_x^+ + P_k D^\dagger(x) P_j \otimes a_x^-] dx,$$

and hence, the time-dependent Hamiltonian reads

$$\begin{aligned} H_I(t) &= \sum_{j,k} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} [P_j D(x) P_k \otimes e^{it(\omega(x)+\lambda_j-\lambda_k)} a_x^+ + P_k D^\dagger(x) P_j \otimes e^{-it(\omega(x)+\lambda_j-\lambda_k)} a_x^-] dx \\ &= \sum_q \sum_{\lambda_k-\lambda_j=\eta_q} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} [P_j D(x) P_k \otimes e^{it(\omega(x)-\eta_q)} a_x^+ + P_k D^\dagger(x) P_j \otimes e^{-it(\omega(x)-\eta_q)} a_x^-] dx \\ &= \sum_q \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} [D_q(x) \otimes e^{it(\omega(x)-\eta_q)} a_x^+ + D_q^\dagger(x) \otimes e^{-it(\omega(x)-\eta_q)} a_x^-] dx, \end{aligned}$$

where the system operators

$$D_q(x) := \sum_{\lambda_k-\lambda_j=\eta_q} P_j D(x) P_k \quad \text{satisfy} \quad e^{itH_S} D_q(x) e^{-itH_S} = e^{-it\eta_q} D_q(x).$$

To simplify things drastically, we assume that  $q = 1$  and  $D_1(x) = \chi(x)D$  for some smooth cutoff function  $\chi$  and a fixed system operator  $D$ . In this case, we obtain

$$H_I(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} [D \otimes \chi(x) e^{it(\omega(x)-\eta)} a_x^+ + D^\dagger \otimes \overline{\chi(x)} e^{-it(\omega(x)-\eta)} a_x^-] dx.$$

## 3.3 The weak interaction stochastic limit

Altogether, we arrive at the rescaled Schrödinger equation in the interaction picture

$$U_{t/\lambda^2}^\lambda = I - i \int_0^t H_I^\lambda(s) U_{s/\lambda^2}^\lambda ds, \quad \text{eq:rescaled-schrodinger-interaction} \quad (3.1)$$

with  $H_I^\lambda(t) = D \otimes b_t^{\lambda,+} + D^\dagger \otimes b_t^{\lambda,-}$ , where, due to Theorem 3.13,

$$b_t^{\lambda,\pm} = \frac{1}{\lambda} a^\pm(\chi e^{i(t/\lambda^2)(\omega-\eta)}) \longrightarrow b_t^\pm \quad \text{in the sense of correlators,}$$

and therefore,

$$H_I^\lambda(t) \longrightarrow H_t = D \otimes b_t^+ + D^\dagger \otimes b_t^-, \quad U_{t/\lambda^2}^\lambda \longrightarrow U_t,$$

where  $U_t$  satisfies the formal stochastic differential equation

$$dU_t = -i(D \otimes dB_t^+ + D^\dagger \otimes dB_t^-)U_t, \quad B_t^\pm = \int_0^t b_s^\pm ds. \quad (\text{eq:sde}) \quad (3.2)$$

Under certain assumptions on  $\omega$ , this SDE has a unique solution.

The SDE (3.2) in natural-time order (or Itô form) is the SDE given by

$$dU_t = -i(D dB_t^+ U_t + D^\dagger U_t dB_t^-) - \gamma_- D^\dagger D U_t dt, \quad (\text{eq:sde-normal}) \quad (3.3)$$

obtained by commuting  $dB_t^- U_t$  and using the fact that the solution  $U_t$  to (3.2) satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} [b_t^-, U_t] &= -i\gamma_- D U_t, \\ [U_t^\dagger, b_t^+] &= i\bar{\gamma}_- U_t^\dagger D^\dagger, \quad \text{where } \gamma_- := \int_{-\infty}^0 \langle \chi, e^{-it(\omega-\eta)} \chi \rangle dt. \\ [b_t^-, U_t^\dagger] &= i\gamma_- U_t^\dagger D, \end{aligned}$$

The additional term is known as the Itô correction term in quantum stochastic calculus. Morally, the natural-time order is the order induced by the filtration for which one expects  $U_t$  to be adapted to. **Expand on the concept of normal order!**

With the unitary evolution  $U_t$  one can derive an evolution for any system observable  $X_t = U_t^\dagger (X \otimes 1_{\mathcal{H}_R}) U_t$  given by

$$dX_t = -i dB_t^+ [D, X_t] + i [X_t, D^\dagger] dB_t^- + LX_t dt$$

where

$$LX = 2\Re(\gamma_-) D^\dagger X D - \gamma_- D^\dagger D X - \bar{\gamma}_- X D^\dagger D,$$

is the corresponding Lindblad operator.

**Remark 3.16** The rescaled equation (3.1) may be formally expressed as

$$U_{t/\lambda^2}^\lambda = I + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-i)^n \lambda^n \int_0^{t/\lambda^2} \cdots \int_0^{t_{n-1}} H_I(t_1) \cdots H_I(t_n) dt_1 \cdots dt_n.$$

In the case when  $H_I(t)$  commutes for every  $t \geq 0$ , the integrand would be a symmetric function of  $t_1, \dots, t_n$ , and gives

$$U_{t/\lambda^2}^\lambda = I + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-i)^n \frac{\lambda^n}{n!} \left( \int_0^{t/\lambda^2} H_I(s) ds \right)^n = \exp \left( -i\lambda \int_0^{t/\lambda^2} H_I(s) ds \right),$$

i.e., the expectation of  $U_{t/\lambda^2}^\lambda$  is the characteristic function of the process

$$W_t^\lambda := \lambda \int_0^{t/\lambda^2} H_I(s) ds.$$

### 3.4 Damped harmonic oscillator

We consider a simple setup in which a single atom interacts with an electromagnetic field. The total system is given by the composite of the atom and the reservoir systems

$$S = \{\mathfrak{F}_{\text{sym}}(\mathbb{C}^2), H_S\}, \quad R = \{\mathfrak{F}_{\text{sym}}(L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)), H_R\},$$

with the free Hamiltonians

$$H_S = \omega_0 c^+ c^-, \quad H_R = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \omega(x) a_x^+ a_x^- dx,$$

where  $\{c^+, c^-\}$  is the field operator for  $\mathcal{H}_S = \mathfrak{F}_{\text{sym}}(\mathbb{C}^2)$ ,  $\{a_x^+, a_x^-\}$  are the field operators for  $\mathcal{H}_R = \mathfrak{F}_{\text{sym}}(L^2(\mathbb{R}^d))$ , and  $\omega$  is a suitable cutoff function.

For the interaction Hamiltonian  $H_I$ , we consider a dipole approximation of the form

$$H_I = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \chi(x) [c^- \otimes a_x^+ + c^+ \otimes a_x^-] dx = c^- \otimes A^+ + c^+ \otimes A^-,$$

where  $\chi$  are suitable cutoff function and

$$A^\pm = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \chi(x) a_x^\pm dx.$$

such that the rescaled total Hamiltonian is given by

$$H^\lambda = H_S \otimes 1_{\mathcal{H}_R} + 1_{\mathcal{H}_S} \otimes H_R + \lambda H_I.$$

Define the evolution

$$\mathbf{u}_t^\lambda(a) = e^{itH^\lambda} a e^{-itH^\lambda}.$$

Then, the Heisenberg equation for  $c(t) = \mathbf{u}_t^\lambda(c \otimes 1_{\mathcal{H}_R})$  and  $a_x^-(t) = \mathbf{u}_t^\lambda(1_{\mathcal{H}_S} \otimes a_x^-)$  reads

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} c^-(t) &= -i\omega_0 c^-(t) - i\lambda \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \chi(x) a_x^-(t) dx \\ \frac{d}{dt} a_x^-(t) &= -i\omega(x) a_x^-(t) - \lambda \chi(x) c(t). \end{aligned}$$

Solving for  $a_x^-(t)$ , one obtains

$$a_x^-(t) = a_x^- e^{-it\omega(x)} - i\lambda \chi(x) \int_0^t e^{-i(t-s)\omega(x)} c^-(s) ds.$$

Inserting  $a_x^-(t)$  into the equation for  $c(t)$ , we find

$$\frac{d}{dt} c^-(t) = -i\omega_0 c^-(t) - \int_0^t \gamma(t-s) c^-(s) ds - i\xi_t^-.$$

where we defined the quantities

$$\gamma(r) := \lambda^2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{-ir\omega(x)} \chi^2(x) dx, \quad \xi_t^- := \lambda \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{-it\omega(x)} \chi(x) a_x^- dx.$$

Observe that  $\xi_t^-$  depends only on the reservoir field operator  $a_x^-$ , and therefore, acts as an *external force* to the atomic system.

Now let us consider the statistics of  $\xi_t^-$  for the Fock vacuum state free state  $\Psi_\Omega = \langle \Omega, \cdot \Omega \rangle$  on  $\mathcal{H}_R$ . Since  $\Psi_\Omega$  is a Gaussian free state, the statistics of  $\xi_t^-$  are uniquely determined by the 2-points correlation functions. Clearly,  $\Psi_\Omega$  has zero mean, and therefore,

$$\Psi_\Omega(\xi_t^-) = \lambda \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{-it\omega(x)} \chi(x) \Psi_\Omega(a_x^-) dx = 0, \quad \Psi_\Omega((\xi_t^-)^\dagger) = 0.$$

Moreover, we find

$$\Psi_\Omega((\xi_t^-)^\dagger \xi_s^-) = \Psi_\Omega(\xi_t^- \xi_s^-) = \Psi_\Omega((\xi_t^-)^\dagger (\xi_s^-)^\dagger) = 0,$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi_\Omega(\xi_t^- (\xi_s^-)^\dagger) &= \lambda^2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{-it(\omega(x)-\omega(y))} \chi(x) \chi(y) \Psi_\Omega(a_x^- a_y^+) dx dy \\ &= \lambda^2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{-i(t-s)\omega(x)} \chi^2(x) dx = \gamma(t-s). \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $\xi_t^-$  is a mean-zero  $\gamma$ -correlated *random process* under  $\Psi$ .

To obtain the stochastic limit, we start by rescaling time  $t \mapsto t/\lambda^2$  and consider the rescaled quantity  $c^{\lambda,\pm}(t) := c^\pm(t/\lambda^2)$ , which yields

$$\dot{c}^{\lambda,-}(t) = -i\omega_0 c^{\lambda,-}(t) - \int_0^t \gamma^\lambda(t-s) c^{\lambda,-}(s) ds - i \xi_t^{\lambda,-}, \quad \text{eq:quantum-pre-langevin} \quad (3.4)$$

with

$$\gamma^\lambda(r) := \frac{1}{\lambda^2} \langle \chi, e^{-i(r/\lambda^2)\omega} \chi \rangle, \quad \xi_t^{\lambda,-} := \lambda^{-2} \xi_{t/\lambda^2}^-.$$

From Theorem 3.13, we then establish that

$$\gamma^\lambda(r) \longrightarrow \gamma \delta(r), \quad \xi_t^{\lambda,-} \longrightarrow b_t^- \quad \text{in the sense of correlators,}$$

with  $\gamma = \langle \chi, \delta(\omega) \chi \rangle$ . Consequently, we obtain

$$dc_t^- = -(i\omega_0 + \gamma) c_t^- dt - i dB_t^-, \quad B_t^- = \int_0^t b_s^- ds.$$

$$dU_t = -i(c^- dB_t^+ U_t + c^- U_t dB_t^-) - \gamma_- c^+ c^- U_t dt$$

$$\begin{aligned} d(U_t^\dagger c^- U_t) &= i(c^- dB_t^+ U_t + c^+ U_t dB_t^-)^\dagger c^- U_t - \bar{\gamma}_- U_t^\dagger c^- c^+ c^- U_t dt \\ &\quad - iU_t^\dagger c^- (c^- dB_t^+ U_t + c^+ U_t dB_t^-) - \gamma_- U_t^\dagger c^- c^+ c^- U_t dt \\ &= iU_t^\dagger dB_t^- c^+ c^- U_t + i dB_t^+ U_t^\dagger c^- c^- U_t - \bar{\gamma}_- U_t^\dagger c^- c^+ c^- U_t dt \end{aligned}$$