Why Feynman Path Integration?

Jaime Nava¹, Juan Ferret², and Vladik Kreinovich¹

¹Department of Computer Science ²Department of Philosophy University of Texas at El Paso 500 W. University El Paso, TX 79968, USA jenava@miners.utep.edu jferret@utep.edu vladik@utep.edu Why Use Quantum...

Need for Quantization

Feynman's Approach:...

First Idea: An...

Second Idea:...

Third Idea: Maximal...

Fourth Idea:...



1. Why Use Quantum Effects in Computing?

- Fact: computers are fast.
- Challenge: computer are not yet fast enough:
 - to predict weather more accurately and earlier,
 - to run industrial robots more efficiently,
 - to power complex simulations of forest fires,

and for many other applications, we need higher computing speed.

- *How:* to increase the computing speed, we must make signals travel faster between computer components.
- Limitation: signals cannot travel faster than the speed of light, and they already travel at about that speed.
- Conclusion: the size of computer components must be reduced.



2. Why Quantum Effects in Computing? (cont-d)

- Reminder: the size of computer components must be reduced.
- Fact: the sizes of these components have almost reached the sizes of atoms and molecules.
- Fact: these molecules follow the rules of quantum mechanics.
- Conclusion: quantum computing is necessary.
- Resulting question: how to describe these quantum effects?



3. Need for Quantization

- Since the early 1900s, we know that we need to take into account quantum effects. Thus:
 - for every non-quantum physical theory describing a certain phenomenon, be it
 - * mechanics
 - * or electrodynamics
 - * or gravitation theory,
 - we must come up with an appropriate quantum theory.
- Traditional quantization methods: replace the scalar physical quantities with the corresponding operators.
- *Problem:* operators are non-commutative, $px \neq xp$.
- Conclusion: several different quantum versions of each classical theory.



4. Towards Feynman's Approach: Least Action Principle

- Laws of physics have been traditionally described in terms of differential equations.
- For *fundamental* physical phenomena, not all differential equations make sense.
- Example: we need conservation of fundamental physical quantities (energy, momentum, etc.)
- It turns out that
 - all known fundamental physical equations can be described in terms of minimization, and
 - in general, equations following from a minimization principle lead to conservation laws.



5. Towards Feynman's Approach: Least Action Principle (cont-d)

- *Idea:* we can assign, to each trajectory $\gamma(t)$, we can assign a value $S(\gamma)$ such that
 - among all possible trajectories,
 - the actual one is the one for which the value $S(\gamma)$ is the smallest possible.
- This value $S(\gamma)$ is called *action*.
- The principle that action is minimized along the actual trajectory is called the *minimal action principle*.
- Feynman's idea: the probability to get from the state $\underline{\gamma}$ to the state $\overline{\gamma}$ is proportional to $|\psi(\underline{\gamma} \to \overline{\gamma})|^2$, where

$$\psi = \sum_{\gamma: \gamma \to \overline{\gamma}} \exp\left(i \cdot \frac{S(\gamma)}{\hbar}\right).$$



6. Feynman's Approach: Successes and Challenges

- Successes: Feynman's approach is an efficient computing tool:
 - we can expand the corresponding expression, and
 - represent the resulting probability as a sum of an infinite series.
- Each term of this series can be described by an appropriate graph called *Feynman diagram*.
- Foundational challenge: why the above formula?
- What we do in this talk: we provide a natural explanation for Feynman's path integration formula.



7. First Idea: An Alternative Representation of the Original Theory

- Reminder: a physical theory is a functional S that assigns, to every path γ , the value of the action $S(\gamma)$.
- From this viewpoint, a priori, all the paths are equivalent, they only differ by the corresponding values $S(\gamma)$.
- In other words, what is important is the frequency with which we encounter different values $S(\gamma)$:
 - if among N paths, only one has this value of the action, this frequency is 1/N,
 - if two, the frequency is 2/N, etc.
- In mathematical terms, this means that we consider the action $S(\gamma)$ as a random variable.
- One possible way to describe a random variable α is by its characteristic function $\chi_{\alpha}(\omega) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} E[\exp(i \cdot \omega \cdot \alpha)].$



8. An Alternative Representation of the Original Theory (cont-d)

- Reminder: we consider $\alpha = S(\gamma)$ as a random variable.
- Reminder: we describe α via its characteristics function $\chi_{\alpha}(\omega) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} E[\exp(i \cdot \omega \cdot \alpha)].$
- Conclusion:

$$\chi(\omega) = \frac{1}{N} \cdot \sum_{\gamma} \exp(i \cdot S(\gamma) \cdot \omega).$$

• Reminder: Feynman's formula

$$\psi = \sum_{\gamma: \gamma \to \overline{\gamma}} \exp\left(i \cdot \frac{S(\gamma)}{\hbar}\right).$$

- Observation: Feynman's formula is $\chi(1/\hbar)$.
- Comment: this is not yet a derivation, since there are many ways to represent a random variable.



9. Second Idea: Appropriate Behavior for Independent Physical Systems

- Objective: derive a formula that transforms a functional $S(\gamma)$ into transition probabilities.
- Typical situation: the physical system consists of two subsystems.
- In this case, each state γ of the composite system is a pair $\gamma = (\gamma_1, \gamma_2)$ consisting of
 - a state γ_1 of the first subsystem and
 - the state γ_2 of the second subsystem.
- Often, these subsystems are independent.
- Due to this independence,

$$P((\gamma_1, \gamma_2) \to (\gamma_1', \gamma_2')) = P_1(\gamma_1 \to \gamma_1') \cdot P_2(\gamma_2 \to \gamma_2').$$



10. Independent Physical Systems (cont-d)

• Reminder:

$$P((\gamma_1, \gamma_2) \to (\gamma_1', \gamma_2')) = P_1(\gamma_1 \to \gamma_1') \cdot P_2(\gamma_2 \to \gamma_2').$$

• In physics, independence is usually described as

$$S((\gamma_1, \gamma_2)) = S_1(\gamma_1) + S_2(\gamma_2).$$

- In probabilistic terms, this means that we have the sum of two independent random variables. So:
 - the probability corresponding to the sum of independent random variables
 - is equal to the product of corresponding probabilities.
- Fact: for the sum, characteristic functions multiply:

$$\chi_{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2}(\omega) = \chi_{\alpha_1}(\omega) \cdot \chi_{\alpha_2}(\omega).$$

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11. Independent Physical Systems (cont-d)

- Reminder: we have $p(\chi_1 \cdot \chi_2) = p(\chi_1) \cdot p(\chi_2)$, i.e., to $p(\chi_1(\omega_1) \cdot \chi_2(\omega_1), \dots, \chi_1(\omega_n) \cdot \chi_2(\omega_n), \dots) = p(\chi_1(\omega_1), \dots, \chi_1(\omega_n), \dots) \cdot p(\chi_2(\omega_1), \dots, \chi_2(\omega_n), \dots).$
- To simplify: use log-log scale:
 - $P \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \ln(p)$ as the new dependent variable, and
 - the values $Z_i = X_i + i \cdot Y_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \ln(\chi(\omega_i))$ as the new independent variables:

$$P(Z_1,\ldots,Z_n,\ldots)=\ln p(\exp(Z_1),\ldots,\exp(Z_n),\ldots)$$

• Then, P(Z + Z') = P(Z) + P(Z'), so P is linear:

$$P(Z) = \sum_{i} (a(\omega_i) \cdot X(\omega_i) + b(\omega_i) \cdot Y(\omega_i)).$$

• Thus, $p(\chi) = \exp(P(\ln(\chi))) = \prod_{i} |\chi(\omega_i)|^{a_i}$.

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12. Third Idea: Maximal Set of Possible Future States

- Reminder: $p(\chi) = \prod_{i} |\chi(\omega_i)|^{a_i}$.
- Reminder: each value $\chi(\omega_i)$ is equal to the Feynman sum, with $\hbar_i = 1/\omega_i$.
- Question: why only one such term?
- In classical physics: once we know the initial state γ , we can uniquely predict all future states γ' .
- In quantum physics: we can only predict probabilities.
- Sometimes: $\psi(x) = 0$, so the state x is not possible.
- *Idea*: select a theory for which the set I of inaccessible states γ' is the smallest possible.
- Fact: a state is inaccessible if $\chi(\omega_i) = 0$ for some i.
- Conclusion: the set I is the smallest when we have only one such term: $p(\chi) = |\chi(\omega)|^a$.



13. Fourth Idea: Analyticity and Simplicity

- Reminder: $p(\chi) = |\chi(\omega)|^a$ for some a.
- In physics: most dependencies are real-analytical, i.e., expandable in convergent Taylor series.
- For $z = x + i \cdot y$: we have

$$|z|^a = \left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}\right)^a = \left(x^2 + y^2\right)^{a/2}.$$

- This expression is analytical at z = 0 if and only if a is an even natural number (a = 0, 2, 4, ...)
- Fact: case a = 0 is trivial: all transition probabilities are the same.
- Conclusion: the simplest non-trivial case is a = 2.
- Thus: we have indeed justified Feynman integration.



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