Session 2

Quantum Mechanics

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2.1 Rapporteur talk: Generalizing Quantum Mechanics, by James B. Hartle

Note: The rapporteur talk was prepared by James Hartle but delivered by David Gross and Murray Gell-Mann as Jim was unable to attend the conference. The text below has been prepared by James Hartle.

2.1.1 Abstract

Familiar textbook quantum mechanics assumes a fixed background spacetime to define states on spacelike surfaces and their unitary evolution between them. Quantum theory has changed as our conceptions of space and time have evolved. But quantum mechanics needs to be generalized further for quantum gravity where spacetime geometry is fluctuating and without definite value. This paper reviews a fully four-dimensional, sum-over-histories, generalized quantum mechanics of cosmological spacetime geometry. This generalization is constructed within the framework of generalized quantum theory. This is a minimal set of principles for quantum theory abstracted from the modern quantum mechanics of closed systems, most generally the universe. In this generalization, states of fields on spacelike surfaces and their unitary evolution are emergent properties appropriate when spacetime geometry behaves approximately classically. The principles of generalized quantum theory allow for the further generalization that would be necessary were spacetime not fundamental. Emergent spacetime phenomena are discussed in general and illustrated with the example of the classical spacetime geometries with large spacelike surfaces that emerge from the 'no-boundary' wave function of the universe. These

must be Lorentzian with one, and only one, time direction. The essay concludes by raising the question of whether quantum mechanics itself is emergent.

2.1.2 Introduction

Does quantum mechanics apply to spacetime? This is the question the organizers asked me to address. It is an old issue. The renowned Belgian physicist Léon Rosenfeld wrote one of the first papers on quantum gravity [1], but late in his career came to the conclusion that the quantization of the gravitational field would be meaningless¹ [3, 4]. Today, there are probably more colleagues of the opinion that quantum theory needs to be replaced than there are who think that it doesn't apply to spacetime. But in the end this is an experimental question as Rosenfeld stressed.

This lecture will answer the question as follows: Quantum mechanics can be applied to spacetime provided that the usual textbook formulation of quantum theory is suitably generalized. A generalization is necessary because, in one way or another, the usual formulations rely on a fixed spacetime geometry to define states on spacelike surfaces and the time in which they evolve unitarily one surface to another. But in a quantum theory of gravity, spacetime geometry is generally fluctuating and without definite value. The usual formulations are emergent from a more general perspective when geometry is approximately classical and can supply the requisite fixed notions of space and time.

A framework for investigating generalizations of usual quantum mechanics can be abstracted from the modern quantum mechanics of closed systems [5–7] which enables quantum mechanics to be applied to cosmology. The resulting framework — generalized quantum theory [8–10] — defines a broad class of generalizations of usual quantum mechanics.

A generalized quantum theory of a physical system (most generally the universe) is built on three elements which can be very crudely characterized as follows:

- The possible fine-grained descriptions of the system.
- The coarse-grained descriptions constructed from the fine-grained ones.
- A measure of the quantum interference between different coarse-grained descriptions incorporating the principle of superposition.

We will define these elements more precisely in Section 6, explain how they are used to predict probabilities, and provide examples. But, in the meantime, the two-slit experiment shown in Figure 1 provides an immediate, concrete illustration.

A set of possible fine-grained descriptions of an electron moving through the two-slit apparatus are its Feynman paths in time (histories) from the source to the

¹Rosenfeld considered the example of classical geometry curved by the expected value of the stress-energy of quantum fields. Some of the difficulties with this proposal, including experimental inconsistencies, are discussed by Page and Geilker [2].

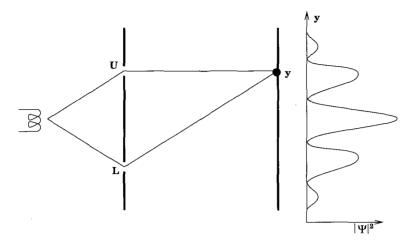


Fig. 2.1 The two-slit experiment. An electron gun at left emits an electron traveling towards a screen with two slits, U and L, its progress in space recapitulating its evolution in time. The electron is detected at a further screen in a small interval Δ about the position y. It is not possible to assign probabilities to the alternative histories of the electron in which it went through the upper slit U on the way to y, or through the lower slit L on the way to y because of the quantum interference between these two histories.

detecting screen. One coarse-grained description is by which slit the electron went through on its way to detection in an interval Δ about a position y on the screen at a later time. Amplitudes $\psi_U(y)$ and $\psi_L(y)$ for the two coarse-grained histories where the electron goes through the upper or lower slit and arrives at a point y on the screen can be computed as a sum over paths in the usual way (Section 4). The natural measure of interference between these two histories is the overlap of these two amplitudes integrated over the interval Δ in which the electron is detected. In this way usual quantum mechanics is a special case of generalized quantum theory.

Probabilities cannot be assigned to the two coarse-grained histories illustrated in Figure 1 because they interfere. The probability to arrive at y should be the sum of the probabilities to go by way of the upper or lower slit. But in quantum theory, probabilities are squares of amplitudes and

$$|\psi_U(y) + \psi_L(y)|^2 \neq |\psi_U(y)|^2 + |\psi_L(y)|^2$$
. (1)

Probabilities can only be predicted for sets of alternative coarse-grained histories for which the quantum interference is negligible between every pair of coarse-grained histories in the set (decoherence).

Usual quantum mechanics is not the only way of implementing the three elements of generalized quantum theory. Section 7 sketches a sum-over-histories generalized quantum theory of spacetime. The fine-grained histories are the set of four-dimensional cosmological spacetimes with matter fields on them. A coarse graining is a partition of this set into (diffeomorphism invariant) classes. A natural measure of interference is described. This is a fully four-dimensional quantum

theory without an equivalent 3+1 formulation in terms of states on spacelike surfaces and their unitary evolution between them. Rather, the usual 3+1 formulation is emergent for those situations, and for those coarse grainings, where spacetime geometry behaves approximately classically. The intent of this development is not to propose a new quantum theory of gravity. This essentially low energy theory suffers from the usual ultraviolet difficulties. Rather, it is to employ this theory as a model to discuss how quantum mechanics can be generalized to deal with quantum geometry.

A common expectation is that spacetime is itself emergent from something more fundamental. In that case a generalization of usual quantum mechanics will surely be needed and generalized quantum theory can provide a framework for discovering it (Section 8). Emergence in quantum theory is discussed generally in Section 9. Section 10 describes the emergence of Lorentz signatured classical spacetimes from the no-boundary quantum state of the universe.

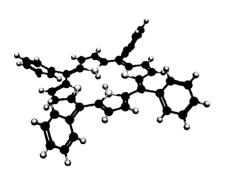
Section 11 concludes with some thoughts about whether quantum mechanics itself could be emergent from something deeper. But before starting on the path of extending quantum theory so far we first offer some remarks on where it is today in Section 2.

2.1.3 Quantum Mechanics Today

Three features of quantum theory are striking from the present perspective: its success, its rejection by some of our deepest thinkers, and the absence of compelling alternatives.

Quantum mechanics must be counted as one of the most successful of all physical theories. Within the framework it provides, a truly vast range of phenomena can be understood and that understanding is confirmed by precision experiment. We perhaps have little evidence for peculiarly quantum phenomena on large and even familiar scales, but there is no evidence that all the phenomena we do see, from the smallest scales to the largest of the universe, cannot be described in quantum mechanical terms and explained by quantum mechanical laws. Indeed, the frontier to which quantum interference is confirmed experimentally is advancing to ever larger, more 'macroscopic' systems². The textbook electron two-slit experiment shown schematically in Fig. 1 has been realized in the laboratory [12]. Interference has been confirmed for the biomolecule tetraphenylporphyrin (C₄₄H₃₀N₄) and the flurofullerine ($C_{60}F_{48}$) in analogous experiments [13] (Figure 2). Experiments with superconducting squids have demonstrated the coherent superposition of macroscopic currents [14-16]. In particular, the experiment of Friedman, et al. [16] exhibited the coherent superposition of two circulating currents whose magnetic moments were of order $10^{10}\mu_B$ (where $\mu_B = e\hbar/2m_e c$ is the Bohr magneton). Experiments under development will extend the boundary further [17]. Experiments of increasing

²For an insightful and lucid review see [11].



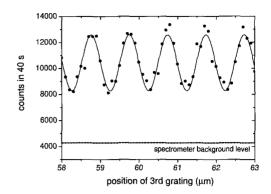


Fig. 2.2 Interference of Biomolecules. The molecule tetraphenylporphyrin $(C_{44}H_{30}N_4)$ is shown at left. Its quantum interference fringes in a Talbot-Lau interferometer are shown at right from experiment carried out in Anton Zeilinger's group (Hackermüller, et al (2002)).

ingenuity and sophistication have extended the regime in which quantum mechanics has been tested. No limit to its validity has yet emerged.

Even while acknowledging its undoubted empirical success, many of our greatest minds have rejected quantum mechanics as a framework for fundamental theory. Among the pioneers, the names of Einstein, Schrödinger, DeBroglie, and Bohm stand out in this regard. Among our distinguished contemporaries, Adler, Leggett, Penrose, and 't Hooft could probably be counted in this category. Much of this thought has in common the intuition that quantum mechanics is an effective approximation of a more fundamental theory built on a notion of reality closer to that classical physics.

Remarkably, despite eighty years of unease with its basic premises, and despite having been tested only in a limited, largely microscopic, domain, no fully satisfactory alternative to quantum theory has emerged. By fully satisfactory we mean not only consistent with existing experiment, but also incorporating other seemingly secure parts of modern physics such as special relativity, field theory, and the standard model of elementary particle interactions. As Steve Weinberg summarized the situation, "It is striking that it has not so far been possible to find a logically consistent theory that is close to quantum mechanics other than quantum mechanics itself" [18]. Alternatives to quantum theory meeting the above criteria would be of great interest if only to guide experiment.

There are several directions under investigation today which aim at a theory from which quantum mechanics would be emergent. Neither space nor the author's competence permit an extensive discussion of these ideas. But we can mention some of the more important ones.³

Bohmian mechanics [20] in its most representative form is a deterministic but

³The references to these ideas are obviously not exhaustive, nor are they necessarily current. Rather, they are to typical sources. For an encyclopedic survey of different interpretations and alternatives to quantum mechanics, see [19].

highly non-classical theory of particle dynamics whose statistical predictions largely coincide with quantum theory [21]. Fundamental noise [22] or spontaneous dynamical collapse of the wave function [23, 24] are the underlying ideas of another class of model theories whose predictions are distinguishable from those of quantum theory, in principle. Steve Adler has proposed a statistical mechanics of deterministic matrix models from which quantum mechanics is emergent [25]. Gerard 't Hooft has a different set of ideas for a determinism beneath quantum mechanism that are explained in his article in this volume [26]. Roger Penrose has championed a role for gravity in state vector reduction [27, 28]. This has not yet developed into a detailed alternative theory, but has suggested experimental situations in which the decay of quantum superpositions could be observed [28, 17].

In the face of an increasing domain of confirmed predictions of quantum theory and the absence as yet of compelling alternatives, it seems natural to extend quantum theory as far as it will go — to the largest scales of the universe and the smallest of quantum gravity. That is the course we shall follow in this paper. But as mentioned in the introduction, usual quantum theory must be generalized to apply to cosmology and quantum spacetime. We amplify on the reasons in the next section.

2.1.4 Spacetime and Quantum Theory

Usual, textbook quantum theory incorporates definite assumptions about the nature of space and time. These assumptions are readily evident in the two laws of evolution for the quantum state Ψ . The Schrödinger equation describes its unitary evolution between measurements.

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = H\Psi \ . \tag{2}$$

At the time of an ideal measurement, the state is projected on the outcome and renormalized

$$\Psi \to \frac{P\Psi}{\|P\Psi\|} \ . \tag{3}$$

The Schrödinger equation (2) assumes a fixed notion of time. In the non-relativistic theory, t is the absolute time of Newtonian mechanics. In the flat space-time of special relativity, it is the time of any Lorentz frame. Thus, there are many times but results obtained in different Lorentz frames, are unitarily equivalent.

The projection in the second law of evolution (3) is in Hilbert space. But in field theory or particle mechanics, the Hilbert space is constructed from configurations of fields or position in physical *space*. In that sense it is the state on a spacelike surface that is projected (3).

Because quantum theory incorporates notions of space and time, it has changed as our ideas of space and time have evolved. The accompanying table briefly summarizes this co-evolution. It is possible to view this evolution as a process of increasing Table 2.1 A Short History of Spacetime and Quantum Theory

Newtonian Physics	Table 2.1 A Short History of Spacetime and Quantum Theory		
Newtonian Physics	Fixed 3-d space and	Non-relativistic Quantum	
	a single universal time t .	Theory:	
	l time l .	The Schrödinger equation	
		$i\hbar(\partial\Psi/\partial t)=H\Psi$	
		holds between measurements in the	
		Newtonian time t .	
Special Relativity	Fixed flat, 4-d	Relativistic Quantum Field	
	spacetime with	Theory:	
	many different	Choose a Lorentz frame with time t .	
	timelike directions.	Then (between measurements)	
		$i\hbar(\partial\Psi/\partial t)=H\Psi$.	
		The results are unitarily equivalent to	
	,	those from any other choice of Lorentz	
		frame.	
General Relativity	Fixed, but curved	Quantum Field Theory in Curved	
	spacetime geometry.	Spacetime:	
		Choose a foliating family of spacelike	
		surfaces labeled by t . Then (between	
		measurements)	
		$i\hbar(\partial\Psi/\partial t)=H\Psi$.	
		But the results are not generally	
		unitarily equivalent to other choices.	
Quantum Gravity	Geometry is not	The Problem of Time:	
	fixed, but rather a	What replaces the Schrödinger	
	quantum variable	equation when there is no fixed	
1	1	notion of time(s)?	
		(-)	
M-theory, Loop	Spacetime is not		
1	even a fundamental	7	
quantum gravity,	I	<u> </u>	
Posets, etc.	variable	•	

generalization of the concepts in the usual theory. Certainly the two laws of evolution (2) and (3) have to be generalized somehow if spacetime geometry is not fixed. One such generalization is offered in this paper, but there have been many other ideas [29]. And if spacetime geometry is emergent from some yet more fundamental description, we can certainly expect that a further generalization — free of any reference to spacetime — will be needed to describe that emergence. The rest of this article is concerned with these generalizations.

2.1.5 The Quantum Mechanics of Closed Systems

This section reviews, very briefly, the elements of the modern quantum mechanics of closed systems⁴ aimed at a quantum mechanics for cosmology. To keep the present

⁴See, e.g. [5-7] for by now classic expositions at length or [30] for a shorter summary.

discussion manageable we focus on a simple model universe of particles moving in a very large box (say $\gtrsim 20,000$ Mpc in linear dimension). Everything is contained within the box, in particular galaxies, stars, planets, observers and observed (if any), measured subsystems, and the apparatus that measures them.

We assume a fixed background spacetime supplying well-defined notions of time. The usual apparatus of Hilbert space, states, operators, Feynman paths, etc. can then be employed in a quantum description of the contents of the box. The essential theoretical inputs to the process of prediction are the Hamiltonian H and the initial quantum state $|\Psi\rangle$ (the 'wave function of the universe'). These are assumed to be fixed and given.

The most general objective of a quantum theory for the box is the prediction of the probabilities of exhaustive sets of coarse-grained alternative time histories of the particles in the closed system. For instance, we might be interested in the probabilities of an alternative set of histories describing the progress of the Earth around the Sun. Histories of interest here are typically very coarse-grained for at least three reasons: They deal with the position of the Earth's center-of-mass and not with the positions of all the particles in the universe. The center-of-mass position is not specified to arbitrary accuracy, but to the error we might observe it. The center-of-mass position is not specified at all times, but typically at a series of times.

But, as described in the Introduction, not every set of alternative histories that may be described can be assigned consistent probabilities because of quantum interference. Any quantum theory must therefore not only specify the sets of alternative coarse-grained histories, but also give a rule identifying which sets of histories can be consistently assigned probabilities as well as what those probabilities are. In the quantum mechanics of closed systems, that rule is simple: probabilities can be assigned to just those sets of histories for which the quantum interference between its members is negligible as a consequence of the Hamiltonian H and the initial state $|\Psi\rangle$. We now make this specific for our model universe of particles in a box.

Three elements specify this quantum theory. To facilitate later discussion, we give these in a spacetime sum-over-histories formulation.

- (1) Fine-grained histories: The most refined description of the particles from the initial time t = 0 to a suitably large final time t = T gives their position at all times in between, *i.e.* their Feynman paths. We denote these simply by x(t).
- (2) Coarse-graining: The general notion of coarse-graining is a partition of the fine-grained paths into an exhaustive set of mutually exclusive classes $\{c_{\alpha}\}, \alpha = 1, 2, \cdots$. For instance, we might partition the fine-grained histories of the center-of-mass of the Earth by which of an exhaustive and exclusive set of position intervals $\{\Delta_{\alpha}\}, \alpha = 1, 2, \cdots$ the center-of-mass passes through at a series of times $t_1, \cdots t_n$. Each coarse-grained history consists of the bundle of fine-grained paths that pass through a specified sequence of intervals at the series of times.

Each coarse-grained history specifies an orbit where the center-of-mass position is localized to a certain accuracy at a sequence of times.

(3) Measure of Interference: Branch state vectors $|\Psi_{\alpha}\rangle$ can be defined for each coarse-grained history in a partition of the fine-grained histories into classes $\{c_{\alpha}\}$ as follows

$$\langle x|\Psi_{\alpha}\rangle = \int_{c_{\alpha}} \delta x \, \exp(iS[x(t)]/\hbar) \, \langle x'|\Psi\rangle \,.$$
 (4)

Here, S[x(t)] is the action for the Hamiltonian H. The integral is over all paths starting at x' at t=0, ending at x at t=T, and contained in the class c_{α} . This includes an integral over x'. (For those preferring the Heisenberg picture, this is equivalently

$$|\Psi_{\alpha}\rangle = e^{-iHT/\hbar} P_{\alpha_n}^n(t_n) \cdots P_{\alpha_1}^1(t_1) |\Psi\rangle$$
 (5)

when the class consists of restrictions to position intervals at a series of times and the P's are the projection operators representing them.)

The measure of quantum interference between two coarse-grained histories is the overlap of their branch state vectors

$$D(\alpha', \alpha) \equiv \langle \Psi_{\alpha'} | \Psi_{\alpha} \rangle. \tag{6}$$

This is called the decoherence functional.

When the interference between each pair of histories in a coarse-grained set is negligible

$$\langle \Psi_{\alpha} | \Psi_{\beta} \rangle \approx 0 \text{ all } \alpha \neq \beta,$$
 (7)

the set of histories is said to decohere⁵. The probability of an individual history in a decoherent set is

$$p(\alpha) = \| |\Psi_{\alpha}\rangle \|^2. \tag{8}$$

The decoherence condition (6) is a sufficient condition for the probabilities (7) to be consistent with the rules of probability theory. Specifically, the p's obey the sum rules

$$p(\bar{\alpha}) \approx \sum_{\alpha \in \bar{\alpha}} p(\alpha) \tag{9}$$

where $\{\bar{c}_{\bar{\alpha}}\}$ is any coarse-graining of the set $\{c_{\alpha}\}$, *i.e.* a further partition into coarser classes. It was the failure of such a sum rule that prevented consistent probabilities from being assigned to the two histories previously discussed in the two-slit experiment (Figure 1). That set of histories does not decohere.

Decoherence of familiar quasiclassical variables is widespread in the universe. Imagine, for instance, a dust grain in a superposition of two positions, a multimeter apart, deep in intergalactic space. The 10^{11} cosmic background photons that scatter

⁵This is the *medium* decoherence condition. For a discussion of other conditions, see, e.g. [31–33].

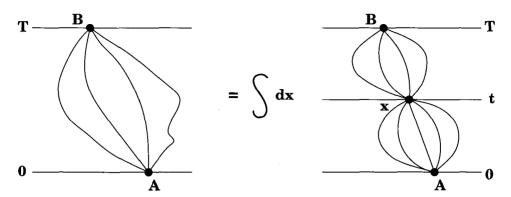


Fig. 2.3 The origin of states on a spacelike surface. These spacetime diagrams are a schematic representation of Eq. (10). The amplitude for a particle to pass from point A at time t=0 to a point B at t=T is a sum over all paths connecting them weighted by $\exp(iS[x(t)])$. That sum can be factored across an intermediate constant time surface as shown at right into product of a sum from A to x on the surface and a sum from x to B followed by a sum over all x. The sums in the product define states on the surface of constant time at t. The integral over x defines the inner product between such states, and the path integral construction guarantees their unitary evolution in t. Such factorization is possible only if the paths are single valued functions of time.

off the dust grain every second dissipate the phase coherence between the branches corresponding to the two locations on the time scale of about a nanosecond [34].

Measurements and observers play no fundamental role in this generalization of usual quantum theory. The probabilities of measured outcomes can, of course, be computed and are given to an excellent approximation by the usual story.⁶ But, in a set of histories where they decohere, probabilities can be assigned to the position of the Moon when it is not being observed and to the values of density fluctuations in the early universe when there were neither measurements taking place nor observers to carry them out.

2.1.6 Quantum Theory in 3+1 Form

The quantum theory of the model universe in a box in the previous section is in fully 4-dimensional spacetime form. The fine-grained histories are paths in spacetime, the coarse-grainings were partitions of these, and the measure of interference was constructed by spacetime path integrals. No mention was made of states on spacelike surfaces or their unitary evolution.

However, as originally shown by Feynman [35, 36], this spacetime formulation is equivalent to the familiar 3+1 formulation in terms of states on spacelike surfaces and their unitary evolution through a foliating family of such surfaces. This section briefly sketches that equivalence emphasizing properties of spacetime and the fine-grained histories that are necessary for it to hold.

The key observation is illustrated in Figure 3. Sums-over-histories that are

⁶See, e.g. [8], Section II.10.

single-valued in time can be factored across constant time surfaces. A formula expressing this idea is

$$\int_{[A,B]} \delta x \, e^{iS[x(t)]/\hbar} = \int dx \, \psi_B^*(x,t) \psi_A(x,t) \,. \tag{10}$$

The sum on the left is over all paths from A at t=0 to B at t=T. The amplitude $\psi_A(x,t)$ is the sum of $\exp\{iS[x(t)]\}$ over all paths from A at t=0 to x at a time t between 0 and T. The amplitude $\psi_B(x,t)$ is similarly constructed from the paths between x at t to B at T.

The wave function $\psi_A(x,t)$ defines a state on constant time surfaces. Unitary evolution by the Schrödinger equation follows from its path integral construction.⁷ The inner product between states defining a Hilbert space is specified by (10). In this way, the familiar 3+1 formulation of quantum mechanics is recovered from its spacetime form.

The equivalence represented in (10) relies on several special assumptions about the nature of spacetime and the fine-grained histories. In particular, it requires⁸:

- A fixed Lorentzian spacetime geometry to define timelike and spacelike directions.
- A foliating family of spacelike surfaces through which states can evolve.
- Fine-grained histories that are single-valued in the time labeling the spacelike surfaces in the foliating family.

As an illustrative example where the equivalence does not hold, consider quantum field theory in a fixed background spacetime with closed timelike curves (CTCs) such as those that can occur in wormhole spacetimes [39]. The fine-grained histories are four-dimensional field configurations that are single-valued on spacetime. But there is no foliating family of spacelike surfaces with which to define the Hamiltonian evolution of a quantum state. Thus, there is no usual 3+1 formulation of the quantum mechanics of fields in spacetimes with CTCs.

However, there is a four-dimensional sum-over-histories formulation of field theory in spacetimes with CTCs [40–42]. The resulting theory has some unattractive properties such as acausality and non-unitarity. But it does illustrate how closely usual quantum theory incorporates particular assumptions about spacetime, and also how these requirements can be relaxed in a suitable generalization of the usual theory.

⁷Reduction of the state vector (3) also follows from the path integral construction [37] when histories are coarse-grained by intervals of position at various times.

⁸The usual 3+1 formulation is also restricted to coarse-grained histories specified by alternatives at definite moments of time. More general spacetime coarse-grainings that are defined by quantities that extend over time can be used in the spacetime formulation. (See, e.g. [38] and references therein.) Spacetime alternatives are the only ones available in a diffeomorphism invariant quantum graviity.

2.1.7 Generalized Quantum Theory

In generalizing usual quantum mechanics to deal with quantum spacetime, some of its features will have to be left behind and others retained. What are the minimal essential features that characterize a quantum mechanical theory? The generalized quantum theory framework [8, 30, 10] provides one answer to this question. Just three elements abstracted from the quantum mechanics of closed systems in Section 4 define a generalized quantum theory.

- Fine-grained Histories: The sets of alternative fine-grained histories of the closed system which are the most refined descriptions of it physically possible.
- Coarse-grained Histories: These are partitions of a set of fine-grained histories into an exhaustive set of exclusive classes $\{c_{\alpha}\}, \alpha = 1, 2 \cdots$. Each class is a coarse-grained history.
- Decoherence Functional: A measure of quantum interference $D(\alpha, \alpha')$ between pairs of histories in a coarse-grained set, meeting the following conditions:
 - i. Hermiticity: $D(\alpha, \alpha') = D^*(\alpha', \alpha)$
 - ii. Positivity: $D(\alpha, \alpha) \ge 0$
 - iii. Normalization: $\Sigma_{\alpha\alpha'}D(\alpha,\alpha')=1$
 - iv. Principle of superposition: If $\{\bar{c}_{\bar{\alpha}}\}$ is a further coarse-graining of $\{c_{\alpha}\}$, then

$$ar{D}(ar{lpha},ar{lpha}') = \sum_{egin{array}{c} lpha \in ar{lpha}' \ lpha' \in ar{lpha}' \ \end{array}} D(lpha,lpha')$$

Probabilities $p(\alpha)$ are assigned to sets of coarse-grained histories when they decohere according to the basic relation

$$D(\alpha, \alpha') \approx \delta_{\alpha\alpha'} p(\alpha)$$
. (11)

These $p(\alpha)$ satisfy the basic requirements for probabilities as a consequence of i)-iv) above. In particular, they satisfy the sum rule

$$p(\bar{\alpha}) = \sum_{\alpha \in \bar{\alpha}} p(\alpha) \tag{12}$$

as a consequence of i)-iv) and decoherence. For instance, the probabilities of an exhaustive set of alternatives always sum to 1.

The sum-over-histories formulation of usual quantum mechanics given in Section 4 is a particular example of a generalized quantum theory. The decoherence functional (4) satisfies the requirements i)—iv). But its particular form is not the only way of constructing a decoherence functional. Therein lies the possibility of generalization.

2.1.8 A Quantum Theory of Spacetime Geometry

The low energy, effective theory of quantum gravity is a quantum version of general relativity with a spacetime metric $g_{\alpha\beta}(x)$ coupled to matter fields. Of course, the divergences of this effective theory have to be regulated to extract predictions from it.⁹. These predictions can therefore be expected to be accurate only for limited coarse-grainings and certain states. But this effective theory does supply an instructive model for generalizations of quantum theory that can accommodate quantum spacetime. This generalization is sketched in this section.

The key idea is that the fine-grained histories do not have to represent evolution in spacetime. Rather they can be histories of spacetime. For this discussion we take these histories to be spatially closed cosmological four-geometries represented by metrics $g_{\alpha\beta}(x)$ on a fixed manifold $M = \mathbf{R} \times M^3$ where M^3 is a closed 3-manifold. For simplicity, we restrict attention to a single scalar matter field $\phi(x)$.

The three ingredients of a generalized quantum theory for spacetime geometry are then as follows:

- Fine-grained Histories: A fine-grained history is defined by a four-dimensional metric and matter field configuration on M.
- Coarse-grainings: The allowed coarse-grainings are partitions of the metrics and matter fields into four-dimensional diffeomorphism invariant classes $\{c_{\alpha}\}$.
- Decoherence Functional: A decoherence functional constructed on sum-overhistory principles analogous to that described for usual quantum theory in Section 4. Schematically, branch state vectors $|\Psi_{\alpha}\rangle$ can be constructed for each coarse-grained history by summing over the metrics and fields in the corresponding class c_{α} of fine-grained histories, viz.

$$|\Psi_{\alpha}\rangle = \int_{c_{\alpha}} \delta g \delta \phi \, \exp\{iS[g,\phi]/\hbar\} \, |\Psi\rangle \,.$$
 (13)

A decoherence functional satisfying the requirements of Section 6 is

$$D(\alpha', \alpha) = \langle \Psi_{\alpha'} | \Psi_{\alpha} \rangle. \tag{14}$$

Here, $S[g,\phi]$ is the action for general relativity coupled to the field $\phi(x)$, and $|\Psi\rangle$ is the initial cosmological state. The construction is only schematic because we did not spell out how the functional integrals are defined or regulated, nor did we specify the product between states that is implicit in both (13) and (14). These details can be made specific in models [9, 45, 46], but they will not be needed for the subsequent discussion.

A few remarks about the coarse-grained histories may be helpful. To every physical assertion that can be made about the geometry of the universe and the fields within, there corresponds a diffeomorphism invariant partition of the fine-grained histories into the class where the assertion is true and the class where it is

⁹Perhaps, most naturally by discrete approximations to geometry such as the Regge calculus (see, e.g. [43, 44])

false. The notion of coarse-grained history described above therefore supplies the most general notion of alternative describable in spacetime form. Among these we do not expect to find local alternatives because there is no diffeomorphism invariant notion of locality. In particular, we do not expect to find alternatives specified at a moment of time. We do expect to find alternatives referring to the kind of relational observables discussed in [47] and the references therein. We also expect to find observables referring to global properties of the universe such as the maximum size achieved over the history of its expansion.

This generalized quantum mechanics of spacetime geometry is in fully spacetime form with alternatives described by partitions of four-dimensional histories and a decoherence functional defined by sums over those histories. It is analogous to the spacetime formulation of usual quantum theory reviewed in Section 4.

However, unlike the theory in Section 4, we cannot expect an equivalent 3+1 formulation, of the kind described in Section 5, expressed in terms of states on spacelike surfaces and their unitary evolution between these surfaces. The fine-grained histories are not 'single-valued' in any geometrically defined variable labeling a spacelike surface. They therefore cannot be factored across a spacelike surface as in (10). More precisely, there is no geometrical variable that picks out a unique spacelike surface in all geometries.¹⁰

Even without a unitary evolution of states the generalized quantum theory is fully predictive because it assigns probabilities to the most general sets of coarsegrained alternative histories described in spacetime terms when these are decoherent.

How then is usual quantum theory used every day, with its unitarily evolving states, connected to this generalized quantum theory that is free from them? The answer is that usual quantum theory is an approximation to the more general framework that is appropriate for those coarse-grainings and initial state $|\Psi\rangle$ for which spacetime behaves classically. One equation will show the origin of this relation. Suppose we have a coarse-graining that distinguishes between fine-grained geometries only by their behavior on scales well above the Planck scale. Then, for suitable states $|\Psi\rangle$ we expect that the integral over metrics in (14) can be well approximated semiclassically by the method of steepest descents. Suppose further for simplicity that only a single classical geometry with metric $\hat{g}_{\alpha\beta}$ dominates the semiclassical approximation. Then, (14) becomes

$$|\Psi_{\alpha}\rangle \approx \int_{\hat{c}_{\alpha}} \delta\phi \, \exp\{iS[\hat{g},\phi]/\hbar\} \, |\Psi\rangle$$
 (15)

where \hat{c}_{α} is the coarse-graining of $\phi(x)$ arising from c_{α} and the restriction of $g_{\alpha\beta}(x)$ to $\hat{g}_{\alpha\beta}(x)$. Eq. (15) effectively defines a quantum theory of the field $\phi(x)$ in the

 $^{^{10}}$ Spacelike surfaces labeled by the trace of the extrinsic curvature K foliate certain classes of classical spacetimes obeying the Einstein equation [48]. However, there is no reason to require that non-classical histories be foliable in this way. It is easy to construct geometries where surfaces of a given K occur arbitrarily often.

fixed background spacetime with the geometry specified by $\hat{g}_{\alpha\beta}(x)$. This is familiar territory. Field histories are single valued on spacetime. Sums-over-fields can thus be factored across spacelike surfaces in the geometry \hat{g} as in (10) to define field states on spacelike surfaces, their unitary evolution, and their Hilbert space product. Usual quantum theory is thus recovered when spacetime behaves classically and provides the fixed spacetime geometry on which usual quantum theory relies.

From this perspective, familiar quantum theory and its unitary evolution of states is an effective approximation to a more general sum-over-histories formulation of quantum theory. The approximation is appropriate for those coarse-grainings and initial states in which spacetime geometry behaves classically.

2.1.9 Beyond Spacetime

The generalized quantum theory of spacetime sketched in the previous section assumed that geometry was a fundamental variable — part of the description of the fine-grained histories. But on almost every frontier in quantum gravity one finds the idea that continuum geometry is not fundamental, but will be replaced by something more fundamental. This is true for string theory [49], loop quantum gravity [50], and the causal set program [51, 52] although space does not permit a review of these speculations.

Can generalized quantum theory serve as a framework for theories where spacetime is emergent rather than fundamental? Certainly we cannot expect to have a notion of 'history'. But we can expect some fine-grained description, or a family of equivalent ones, and that is enough. A generalized quantum theory needs:

- The possible fine-grained descriptions of the system.
- The coarse-grained descriptions constructed from the fine-grained ones.
- A measure of quantum interference between different coarse-grained descriptions respecting conditions i)—iv) in Section VI.

Generalized quantum theory requires neither space nor time and can therefore serve as the basis for a quantum theory in which spacetime is emergent.

2.1.10 Emergence/Excess Baggage

The word 'emergent' appears in a number of places in the previous discussion. It probably has many meanings. This section aims at a more precise understanding of what is meant by the term in this essay.

Suppose we have a quantum theory defined by certain sets of fine-grained histories, coarse-grainings, and a decoherence functional. Let's call this the *fundamental* theory. It may happen that the decoherence and probabilities of limited kinds of sets of coarse-grained histories are given approximately by a second, *effective* theory. The two theories are related in the following way:

- Every fine-grained history of the effective theory is a coarse-grained history of the fundamental theory.
- The decoherence functionals approximately agree on a limited class of sets of coarse-grained histories.

$$D^{\text{fund}}(\alpha', \alpha) \approx D^{\text{eff}}(\alpha', \alpha)$$
. (16)

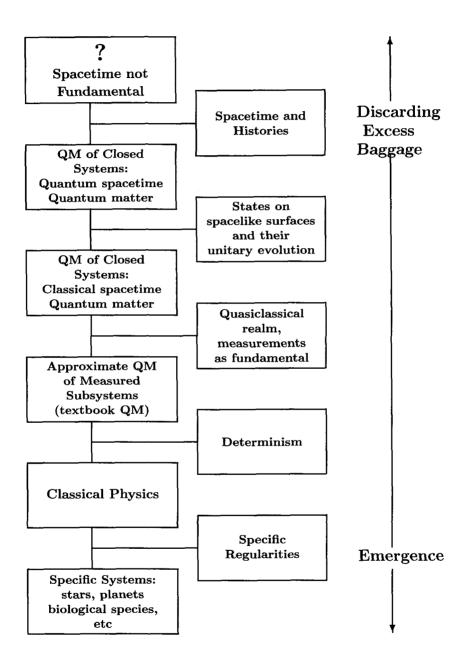
On the right, α' and α refer to the fine-grained histories of the effective theory. On the left, they refer to the corresponding coarse-grained histories of the fundamental theory.

When two theories are related in this way we can say that the effective theory is *emergent* from the fundamental theory. Loosely we can say that the restrictions, and the concepts that characterize them, are emergent. It should be emphasized that an approximate equality like (16) can be expected to hold, not just as a consequence of the particular dynamics incorporated into decoherence functionals, but also only for particular states.

Several examples of emergence in this sense have been considered in this essay: There is the possible emergence of a generalized quantum theory of spacetime geometry from a theory in which spacetime is not fundamental. There is the emergence of a 3+1 quantum theory of fields in a fixed background geometry from a four-dimensional generalized quantum theory in which geometry is a quantum variable. There is the emergence of the approximate quantum mechanics of measured subsystems (textbook quantum theory) from the quantum mechanics of the universe. And there is the emergence of classical physics from quantum physics.

Instead of looking at an effective theory as a restriction of a more fundamental one, we may look at the fundamental theory as a generalization of the effective one. That perspective is important because generalization is a way of searching for more comprehensive theories of nature. In passing from the specific to the more general some ideas have to be discarded. They are often ideas that were once perceived to be general because of our special place in the universe and the limited range of our experience. But, in fact, they arise from special situations in a more general theory. They are 'excess baggage' that has to be discarded to reach a more comprehensive theory [53]. Emergence and excess baggage are two ways of looking at the same thing.

Physics is replete with examples of emergence and excess baggage ranging from Earth-centered theories of the solar system to quantum electrodynamics. The chart on the next page helps understand the stages of emergence and generalization in quantum mechanics discussed in this essay provided it is not taken too rigidly or without qualification.



The chart can be read in two ways. Reading from the bottom up, the boxes on the left describe a path of generalization — from the specific to the general. Starting from the regularities of specific systems such as the planetary orbits, we move up to the general laws of classical physics, to textbook quantum theory, through various stages of assumptions about spacetime, to a yet unknown theory where spacetime is not fundamental. The excess baggage that must be jettisoned at each stage to reach a more general perspective is indicated in the middle tower of boxes.

Reading from the top down the chart tells a story of emergence. Each box on the left stands in the relation of an effective theory to the one before it. The middle boxes now describe phenomena = that are emergent at each stage.

2.1.11 Emergence of Signature

Classical spacetime has Lorentz signature. At each point it is possible to choose one timelike direction and three orthogonal spacelike ones. There are no physical spacetimes with zero timelike directions or with *two* timelike directions. But is such a seemingly basic property fundamental, or is it rather, emergent from a quantum theory of spacetime which allows for all possible signatures? This section sketches a simple model where that happens.

Classical behavior requires particular states [54]. Let's consider the possible classical behaviors of cosmological geometry assuming the 'no-boundary' quantum state of the universe [55] in a theory with only gravity and a cosmological constant Λ . The no-boundary wave function is given by a sum-over-geometries of the schematic form

$$\Psi\left[h\right] = \int_{e} \delta g \, e^{-I\left[g\right]/\hbar} \,. \tag{17}$$

For simplicity, we consider $a = \text{fixed manifold}^{11} M$. The key requirement is that it be compact with one boundary for the argument of the wave function and no other boundary. The functional I[g] is the Euclidean action for metric defining the geometry on M. The sum is over a complex contour \mathcal{C} of g's that have finite action and match the three-metric h on the boundary that is the argument of Ψ .

Quantum theory predicts classical behavior when it predicts high probability for histories exhibiting the correlations in time implied by classical deterministic laws [58, 54]. The state Ψ is an input to the process of predicting those probabilities as described in Section 7. However, plausibly the output for the predicted classical spacetimes in this model are the extrema of the action in (17). We will assume this (see [9] for some justification). Further, to keep the discussion manageable, we will restrict it to the *real* extrema. These are the real tunneling geometries discussed in a much wider context in [59].

Let us ask for the semiclassical geometries which become large, i.e. contain

¹¹Even the notion of manifold may be emergent in a more general theory of certain complexes [56, 57].

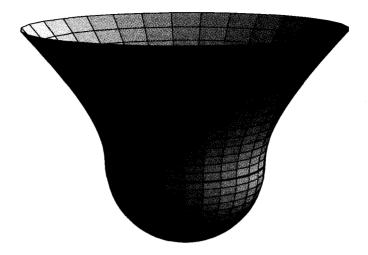


Fig. 2.4 The emergence of the Lorentz signature (-,+,+,+) of spacetime. The semiclassical geometry describing a classical spacetime which becomes large according to the 'no-boundary' proposal for the universe's quantum state. The model is pure gravity and a cosmological constant. Purely Euclidean geometries (+,+,+,+) or purely Lorentzian geometries are not allowed as described in the text. What is allowed is the real tunneling geometry illustrated above consisting of half a Euclidean four-sphere joined smoothly onto an expanding Lorentzian de Sitter space at the moment of maximum contraction. This can be described as the nucleation of classical Lorentz signatured spacetime. There is no similar nucleation of a classical geometry with signature (-,-,+,+) because it could not match the Euclidean one across a spacelike surface.

symmetric three surfaces with size much larger than $(1/\Lambda)^{1/2}$. There are none with Euclidean signature. The purely Euclidean extremum is the round four-sphere with linear size $(1/\Lambda)^{1/2}$ and contains no symmetric three surfaces with larger size. There are none with purely Lorentzian signature either because these cannot be regular on M. There are, however, tunneling solutions of the kind illustrated in Figure 4 in which half of a Euclidean four-sphere is matched to expanding DeSitter space across a surface of vanishing extrinsic curvature.

Could a spacetime with two time and two space directions be nucleated in this way? The answer is 'no' because the geometry on a surface could not have the three spacelike directions necessary to match onto the half of a four-sphere.

Thus, in this very simple model, with many assumptions, if we live in a large universe it must have one time and three space dimensions. The Lorentzian signature of classical spacetime is an emergent property from an underlying theory not committed to this signature.

2.1.12 Beyond Quantum Theory

The path of generalization in the previous sections began with the textbook quantum mechanics of measurement outcomes in a fixed spacetime and ended in a quantum

tum theory where neither measurements nor spacetime are fundamental. In this journey, the principles of generalized quantum theory are preserved, in particular the idea of quantum interference and the linearity inherent in the principle of superposition. But the end of this path is strikingly different from its beginning.

The founders of quantum theory thought that the indeterminacy of quantum theory "reflected the unavoidable interference in measurement dictated by the magnitude of the quantum of the action" (Bohr). But what then is the origin of quantum indeterminacy in a closed quantum universe which is never measured? Why enforce the principle of superposition in a framework for prediction of the universe which has but a single quantum state? In short, the endpoint of this journey of generalization forces us to ask John Wheeler's famous question, "How come the quantum?" [60].

Could quantum theory itself be an emergent effective theory? Many have thought so (Section 2). Extending quantum mechanics until it breaks could be one route to finding out. 'Traveler, there are no paths, paths are made by walking.'

2.1.13 Conclusion

Does quantum mechanics apply to spacetime? The answer is 'yes' provided that its familiar textbook formulation is suitably generalized. It must be generalized in two directions. First, to a quantum mechanics of closed systems, free from a fundamental role for measurements and observers and therefore applicable to cosmology. Second, it must be generalized so that it is free from any assumption of a fixed spacetime geometry and therefore applicable when spacetime geometry is a quantum variable.

Generalized quantum theory built on the pillars of fine-grained histories, coarse-graining, and decoherence provides a framework for investigating such generalizations. The fully, four-dimensional sum-over-histories effective quantum theory of spacetime geometry sketched in Section 7 is one example. In such fully four-dimensional generalizations of the usual theory, we cannot expect to recover an equivalent 3+1 formulation in terms of the unitary evolution of states on spacelike surfaces. There is no fixed notion of spacelike surface. Rather, the usual 3+1 formulation emerges as an effective approximation to the more general story for those coarse grainings and initial states in which spacetime geometry behaves classically.

If spacetime geometry is not fundamental, quantum mechanics will need further generalization and generalized quantum theory provides one framework for exploring that.

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2.2 Discussion

- G. Gibbons If Hartle were here I would ask him the question that I always ask him. He lists the axioms of generalized quantum mechanics and one of them is that the decoherence functional should be complex valued and has to satisfy hermiticity. But it seems to me that the most vulnerable thing about quantum mechanics in quantum gravity is the idea that we have a complex Hilbert space with unitary evolution. We introduce the complex numbers precisely so that we have a first order equation of motion, and as Jim pointed out in his overheads, you do not have a unique notion of time in general relativity. So it seems to me that a good candidate for one of the things we should jettison in quantum mechanics is the complex structure of quantum mechanics.
- D. Gross Do you mean we should go back to the real numbers?
- **G. Gibbons** Basically, return to the real numbers and only get to the complex numbers in some approximation when we have a well defined notion of time.
- S. Weinberg I have a very elementary question which goes back to Gell-Mann's talk. I agree completely that the textbook interpretation of quantum mechanics is absurd but I am worried whether the formalism of decoherent histories, that Hartle, Gell-Mann and others have developed, is a satisfactory resting place, or a satisfactory alternative. It has to do with the word probability, which still appears. Gell-Mann talked about the probabilities of different decoherent histories, or coarse grained histories. But what does the word probability mean? To me, it means what happens when an experimenter does an experiment a number of times. If half the time he gets the spin up and half the time he gets the spin down then we say that the probability is one half. Now, if it does not mean that, if Gell-Mann has some other meaning to the word probability, then there is a responsibility to relate his probability to the probability that is used in the textbooks. In other words, even if you replace the textbook interpretation, then you have to explain why the textbook interpretation works so well. That is a responsibility that has not, it seems to me, been met. The apparatus, and the observer, and the Physical Review journal in which these results are published are all described by a wave function. It is necessary, by using the deterministic evolution of the wave function, to explain how the observer, or the reader of the journal article, becomes convinced that the probability is one half, in the situation where it is one half. This is not a subject on which I am an expert, but it seems to me that Abner Shimony and Sidney Coleman have taken steps in this direction, even though the work is not completed. In other words, the work I am describing is to explain how, within a deterministic framework of the evolution of the wave function, observers who are also described by wave functions get convinced about probabilities having certain values. I would like to ask Gell-Mann whether he thinks that is in a satisfactory state or not.
- M. Gell-Mann I think it is, but there is one direction in which it can be improved,

and you are right in saying that Coleman and collaborators were pursuing that. The probabilities are a priori probabilities, we do not always deal with reproducible situations. When you make a personal decision of some kind, it is not usually a statistical sample that you are dealing with, you anticipate a certain outcome on the basis of the theory, and an individual case does not have to be statistical. You can then show that in a statistical situation the a priori probability becomes the statistical probability. In the course of doing that, there is a mathematical point that needs further elaboration, and that one was being worked on by Coleman and others. I am sure that some day it will be improved somewhat. The general idea, I think, is very simple: the a priori probability becomes a statistical one in a statistical situation.

- A. Polyakov I think that, as far as we are talking about normal physics, the problem is there is no problem. All these things which I call many worlds interpretation of quantum mechanics are completely unnecessary, a single world is enough. But I am really worried, just as Weinberg, about the notion of probability which we have to discuss. The notion of probability is inevitably subjective. If we ask why probability theory describes the natural world, the answer in the classical world is very obvious. It is because when we throw a dice, it is described by some chaotic differential equation, so some small uncertainty develops. But what is this small uncertainty in the case of the Universe? Who decoheres the whole Universe as a closed system? I think that a possible answer to this could be that, if we view the Universe in the Euclidean signature and obtain physical results by analytic continuation, in the Euclidean signature the Feynman principle looks precisely as the Boltzmann-Gibbs principle. We know that the Gibbs distribution is not a fundamental concept, it is an approximation to underlying dynamics. So it is not unthinkable that we will need a similar more fundamental approach in the case of the Universe or spacetime: we have some differential equation with sensitive dependence on the initial conditions which eventually may or may not lead to the statistical description in terms of the Gibbs distribution. In this case the notion of probability itself does not arise. Basically my confusion is that I see probability as a self-referential notion, a subjective notion. I think the best definition of probability was given by Poincaré who said that it is the measure of our ignorance. What would be the objective counterpart of that, I do not know. Maybe we will hear something about it.
- **D. Gross** It is fascinating that some of the discussions here could have been made 70 years ago.
- **A. Polyakov** That is right. Actually I think that Einstein's point of view was that quantum mechanics was just a statistical approximation.
- **D.** Gross What I meant was that it is interesting, and perhaps discouraging, that we are still engaged in these discussions.
- A. Strominger I am not so interested in the probability or interpretation issue,

I like what Hartle said about it in private though maybe not in his talks: it is the word problem in physics. That is, it is not about the measurement that you do or the calculation that you do, but the words that you say while you are doing them. So that does not really seem so interesting to me, but what is interesting to me is what I view as the likely possibility that quantum mechanics is deeply wrong in some very fundamental way. For a long time it looked as though in the context of black holes there might be some problems with quantum mechanics. But now, though I do not think the nail is quite in the coffin, it seems that all the behavior of black holes, at least when we use results from string theory, is consistent with quantum mechanics. But I do not see any reason why quantum mechanics should not, maybe relatively soon, go the way of all our other cherished notions in physics, that is, need to undergo some basic renovation. One reason why we might believe this is what I view as a kind of white elephant standing in the room, which is the Big Bang. If you believe in unitary evolution, you can take your quantum state and evolve it forever. On the other hand we believe that the Universe had a beginning (of course there is the expyrotic or other kinds of infinitely existing universes), but that seems to me inconsistent with quantum mechanics which does not allow for a beginning of time. More generally, I just think that because the Schrödinger equation involves d/dt in such a preferred way is very much against the spirit of general relativity. So I think the more interesting question is: is it time now for quantum mechanics to be modified, or is that something that is still ahead of us in the future? I think we should be open to the possibility of a very deep modification of quantum mechanics.

- **D. Gross** To some extent, I think that Hartle dealt with some of those issues, and I have not heard anything that refutes his statement in your discussion. You do not need to formulate quantum mechanics in terms of the Schrödinger equation with d/dt. Normally, the initial conditions can be separated from the kinematical framework.
- J. Maldacena I like this hypothesis of radical conservatism, because we do not have anything better to replace quantum mechanics with. We just have to assume that it is correct and get as far as we can. I am not sure there is a problem with time, because as Hartle said, time could emerge. In the example of the Hartle-Hawking wave function, time is some kind of emergent property and you can describe this de Sitter universe in a perfectly consistent fashion. It looks like we need some framework which allows us to compute for example quantum corrections to that. I think we probably need to put that whole discussion in the string theory framework.
- **D.** Gross The one problem I wonder about is: in the absence of spacetime, how do we recover a causal structure and in particular a sequence that would be the equivalent of histories without this underlying spacetime?
- M. Gell-Mann You said it yourself a little while ago, and I am sure Hartle would

have said the same thing: if time fades away a bit in describing spacetime as emergent from something different, we still have left this sequence which in the straightforward quantum mechanics of today is a sequence of projection operators in the histories. In the future it might be something slightly more subtle, but that gives the "nacheinander" quality of time, one thing after another, that we need. It can in many cases replace the role of time. In today's situation we have a dual role: we have the time and we have the succession. They are aligned with each other but if time fades a bit, we still have the succession, and that has to be kept. It is the answer to several questions that people have asked.

- M. Douglas I have a different question which could not have been asked seventy or even twenty years ago. Many people are trying to build quantum computers, systems that would maintain what seem to be very complicated quantum superpositions, that actually do things that you might not be able to do, or do so quickly, with classical physics, like factoring. Should we regard these as interesting new experimental probes of quantum mechanics at this level? If one believes that quantum mechanics is not fundamental does that suggest in any way that such a computer might not be possible, or will a surprise be seen in these attempts? These are questions for all the speakers.
- G. 't Hooft This is definitely a question which came to my mind of course and I think I have a rather precise answer. Maybe people will not like it so much, but that is the one prediction I can give from my theory. If indeed there is something more deterministic underlying quantum mechanics, you could call it a hidden variable theory or whatever, then it should be possible to mimic that on a quantum computer. So the conjecture I am making, which in principle can be falsified by people who construct really good quantum computers, is that no quantum computer will work in a way better than if you take a classical computer and you scale it up. Even if it is impossible in practice, in the imagination we could scale up the performance of a classical computer, say its bits and bytes are acting at the Planck scale. That classical computer should work better than any quantum computer anybody will ever make. This of course will not make the search for a quantum computer futile because nobody can make such a classical Planck scale thing. That is why quantum computers can probably do miracles that no other computer can do. The miracle will not be truly exponential, non-polynomial, but there will be a limit set by the Planck scale to what the quantum computer can perform. Now that is a prediction, at least one prediction I can make which can in principle be falsified.
- **F. Wilczek** I would like to make a comment, it is not so much a question. The thing that has always bothered me about quantum mechanics is that it is not unified with the rest of physics. In the standard model and other applications of quantum mechanics you formulate some symmetry principles and then quantize, namely you separately postulate commutation relations. It is suspicious that

the commutation relations take the same form as symmetry relations where you have commutators and Lie algebras. So I suspect that the separation of quantum mechanics and the rest of physics is something we will have to get beyond. Another sign of this is in line with Planck's units, which originally were c, G and \hbar . But they could have been c, G and e, the charge of the electron. Those are perfectly adequate to link the mass and the time, and if you take that attitude, you should be able to derive \hbar .

- D. Gross I have often thought, and this ties in with what Strominger said, that we are probably headed toward a situation where kinematics and dynamics are not separated. We have quantum mechanics or quantum field theory on the one hand and specific dynamical models on the other hand. Such a separation seems bizarre. In string theory, in fact, we seemed to be headed towards a unification of the kinematical and dynamical schemes, since it appears that any consistent generally relativistic quantum theory is part of string theory. The fact that there might be no separation between kinematics and dynamics might very well tie into the issue of the initial conditions as well. In that sense our view of quantum mechanics might change but I doubt that it will become more deterministic. It might become as much a part of our total physical theory as the dynamical scheme, and as such might be less mysterious or disturbing.
- E. Rabinovici We were told that you come to the Solvay conference to reexamine your prejudices. So one of my prejudices is against the anthropic principle. But as I hear the talks, it is not clear to me actually what the arguments are that quantum mechanics does not come out of an anthropic principle. It seems that, if I had been here seventy or eighty years ago and heard about the quantization levels and that the hydrogen atom is stable, I would have learned that quantization leads to it. So why should we not add to these things that we reexamine using the anthropic principle also quantum mechanics. I suggest we do that.
- **D.** Gross We undoubtedly will get to the anthropic principle later, but I hope that we will not imagine that the laws of mathematics and logic and quantum mechanics are up for grabs anthropically as well.
- S. Weinberg I will make two comments. First of all, quantum mechanics is deterministic. Until we begin worrying about the nature of time, it is the theory of the deterministic evolution of the wave function. The secret agenda behind my earlier question was the following: if by studying the linear evolution of the wave function as Coleman and others do we can understand why observers who are part of this wave function come to the conclusion that probabilities have certain values, then we do not need the probabilistic assumption as a separate assumption within quantum mechanics. I still think you need something about Hilbert space. Namely, following what I understand of what Coleman and Shimony have done, you need an idea of what it means for one state vector to be close to another state vector. That is where the Hilbert space norm comes

- in. All this business about particle trajectories and so on, none of that is real. What is real is the wave function. It evolves deterministically. There are no probabilities and we should get off that subject. The other point I wanted to make is an experimental point, which I thought might be refreshing. Although it is very hard to think of alternatives to quantum mechanics, there have been efforts to test the linearity of the evolution of the wave function in simple atomic systems. In particular, one prediction of the linear quality of the wave function is that the precession frequency of an atomic spin around a magnetic field does not depend on the angle that the spin makes with the magnetic field. That is a principle underlying atomic clocks and has been tested to much better than one part in ten to the twentieth.
- B. Greene I think a lot of the discussion is about some nature of time in a quantum mechanical framework, but of course it has also to do with the nature of space. One of the developments the Solvay conferences have given part of the solution of, is the notion of non locality as a fundamental feature of quantum mechanics. You can argue that the interpretation of the measurement problem is just about words. But it is actually more than just about words because different interpretations of quantum mechanics do have different views on whether non-locality is an essential feature of space in a quantum mechanical context. I think that this is the issue that ultimately needs to be resolved. I know Gell-Mann has already raised his hand and has his views on this, which I do not really agree with. But I think that there really is something there, there is a real implication of this interpretation which is not just words.
- **L. Faddeev** In relation with Wilczek's statement: I think that there is a great difference between h and the charge of the electron. h is a parameter of deformation of unstable degenerate classical mechanics to quantum mechanics. The same role is played by c and G. So these three parameters are certainly distinguished.
- N. Seiberg I would really like to address Wilczek's point. The view that we have a classical system, which is later quantized, is the way we were taught physics. But we have many examples in string theory where this is not the case. The theory is intrinsically quantum mechanical and does not have a parameter like \hbar . For example, there are self-dual fields which do not come from the quantization of any system. Eleven dimensional supergravity does not have an \hbar . The conifold is another example where part of the system is intrinsically quantum mechanical. I think this goes a long way to show that quantum mechanics is really part of the story and not something that is an add-on to classical string theory.
- **F. Wilczek** If you can calculate the fine structure constant, which is what this amounts to, then I will be impressed.
- M. Gell-Mann I would like to make a couple of brief comments. One is that people like Coleman and many others, who were unhappy about a probability

postulate in quantum mechanics, have imagined, for purposes of argument, that the universe is reproduced in many copies independent of one another. They then look at the quantum mechanical behavior of each system and they show that the statistical weight in this hypothetical set of universes, the statistical weight of a given situation, is what is called the probability. In other words, the calculation of the two things is the same. Therefore you do not have to worry. You do not have to agonize about this independent probability postulate. It just follows from identifying probability with the result of this artificially created statistical situation. The second comment I would like to make is about the so-called non-locality of quantum mechanics. I think it is simply a misnomer. What people have noticed is that, if you try for example in the Einstein-Rosen-Podolsky-Bohm experiment as performed by many people in the laboratory, to interpret the results classically, then you would need either non-locality or negative probabilities. But you do not interpret them classically. You interpret them in quantum mechanics and in that case there is no non-locality of any kind whatsoever.

D. Gross Especially since we use local quantum field theory to describe these experiments.