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**The EPR-Bohm Paradox and Kent's One-World Solution**

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## Chapter 1

### Introduction

Many ideas in quantum physics are expressed in mathematical terms. I will do my best to avoid unnecessary mathematical jargon, but in order to explain the ideas of this thesis, a certain amount of mathematics is unavoidable. I will therefore endeavor to explain all the mathematical terminology as I go along. However, there will be some sections which may be very challenging to readers who do not have a mathematics or physics background. These sections will be marked with an asterisk <sup>meaning</sup>\*. There is also a lot of terminology from theoretical physics that we will need to invoke. To aid the reader, I will therefore use the convention of putting terminology in bold typeface whenever the terminology is first defined.

## Chapter 2

### Confronting the EPR-Bohm Paradox<sup>BellChapter</sup>

In recent times, it has become increasingly common for popularizers of quantum physics to tell us that we need to let go of our naïve common sense understanding of reality. We're told we must replace this common sense understanding with something that at first seems very bizarre and counter-intuitive: a many-worlds interpretation of reality. This is the idea that whenever there is quantum indeterminacy among several possibilities, then all these possibilities are realized, and the actualization of these possibilities can be extrapolated up to the macroscopic level. Thus, many-worlds advocates, when reflecting on the famous Schrödinger's Cat thought experiment do not question the foundations of quantum mechanics on which the thought experiment is based, but rather they embrace the seemingly absurd conclusion of Schrödinger that a cat could be both dead and alive. They thus speak of the cat being dead in one world and the cat being alive in another world that is just as real as the first. We will be examining the many-worlds interpretation of quantum physics in chapter 3, but in this chapter, we will consider why some people are so keen to reject a one-world interpretation of quantum physics.

The central challenge that one-world interpretations of quantum physics must face is how to account for the mysterious correlations of the so-called EPR-Bohm paradox in a way that is consistent with Einstein's theory of special relativity. In this chapter, no prior knowledge of quantum theory will be assumed. We will therefore need to describe some key ideas of quantum theory, and this we will do in the context

of the Stern-Gerlach experiment. We will then describe the EPR-Bohm paradox and the difficulty the traditional Copenhagen interpretation of quantum physics has in dealing with this paradox. A seemingly natural way to overcome this paradox is to supplement standard quantum theory with hidden variables. We will thus describe one way in which this can be done, and we will show how this leads to the remarkable inequality first derived by Bell. However, Bell's inequality is known to be experimentally violated. This means there must be something wrong with Bell's assumptions. We will therefore consider Shimony's analysis of the proof of Bell's inequality in which Shimony draws a distinction between parameter independence and outcome independence. Finally, following Butterfield, we will briefly explain why Shimony's analysis does not adequately resolve the EPR-Bohm Paradox.

## 2.1 Quantum Physics Basics and the Stern-Gerlach Experiment

Some of the key features of quantum physics are exhibited in the Stern-Gerlach experiment (see figure 2.1). In this experiment, silver atoms are heated in a furnace which randomly emerge from the furnace with various velocities. By aligning two plates with circular holes near the furnace, it is possible to select a subset of the emerging silver atoms having (approximately) the same momentum to form a beam in one direction, the other silver atoms having been absorbed by the two plates. This beam of silver atoms is then directed between two magnets with the north pole of one magnet being aligned toward the south pole of the other magnet as shown in figure 2.1. Now silver atoms have a property somewhat analogous to the classical notion of

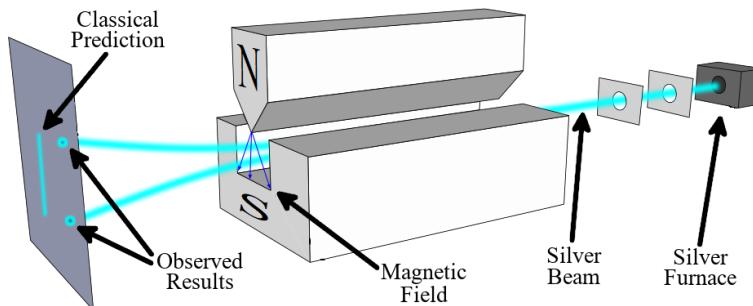


Figure 2.1: The Stern-Gerlach Experiment.<sup>1</sup>

stern

angular momentum. For instance, a spinning top has angular momentum as shown in figure 2.2. Angular momentum is a vector, so it has direction and magnitude. In the case of a spinning top, the direction of the angular momentum would be parallel to the axis of rotation, pointing one way or the other depending on whether the rotation was clockwise or counterclockwise. The magnitude of the angular momentum would then be proportional to the angular velocity of the spinning top.

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<sup>1</sup>Original diagram drawn by Theresa Knott. Labeling was modified for use in this dissertation. This image is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution-Share Alike 4.0 International license. Source: [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Stern-Gerlach\\_experiment.svg.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Stern-Gerlach_experiment.svg.svg)

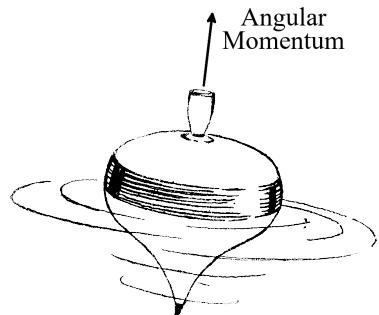


Figure 2.2: Angular Momentum of a Spinning Top.<sup>2</sup> [spintop](#)

Now if we tried to understand the angular momentum of a silver atom classically, we would expect the magnetic field of the two magnets to interact with the silver atom in a way that was determined by the relative direction of the silver atom's angular momentum compared to the direction of the magnetic field. Since we would expect the silver atom to have an entirely random angular momentum, we would expect it to be deflected by varying degrees either up or down in the direction of the magnetic field. Thus, if a detection screen were placed beyond the two magnets which the silver atoms would hit, we would expect there to be a whole continuum of possible locations where the silver atoms would be detected. However, in reality, it is found that there are precisely two locations where the silver atoms hit the screen. It is as though the particles can spin either clockwise or anticlockwise, but that there is absolutely no variance in the angular speed at which they rotate. This is surprising. The angular momentum appears to be **quantized** in one of two directions, either parallel to the magnetic field or antiparallel to it.<sup>3</sup> Corresponding to this quantization of angular

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<sup>2</sup>Drawing by Pearson Scott Foresman, Public domain, via Wikimedia Commons. Labeling was added for use in this dissertation. Original: [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Top\\_\(PSF\).png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Top_(PSF).png).

<sup>3</sup>See figure 2.3 for what is meant be antiparallel.

momentum, we say that the atom is either in the spin up state or the spin down state with respect to the direction of the magnetic field.

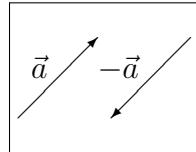


Figure 2.3: Meaning of antiparallel: the arrows in opposite directions are said to be antiparallel to one another. antiparallel

If the direction of the magnetic field is implicitly understood, we write  $|+\rangle$  and  $|-\rangle$  for the spin up and spin down states of the atom respectively. We refer to the symbols  $|+\rangle$  and  $|-\rangle$  as **ket-vectors**, or simply as kets. We can think of the ket  $|+\rangle$  for instance as shorthand for the proposition “the particle is in the spin up state.” If we knew this proposition to be true, we would know which of the two locations on the detection screen the particle would end up if it were to travel between the two magnets of the Stern-Gerlach apparatus. If we need to specify the spin with respect to a particular direction of the magnetic field, say in the  $\hat{a}$ -direction, we write the corresponding spin up and down states as  $|\hat{a}+\rangle$  and  $|\hat{a}-\rangle$ . For convenience, we write  $\hat{a}+$  and  $\hat{a}-$  respectively for the location that the particle would hit the detection screen.

The question then arises as to what happens when we rotate the magnetic field around the axis of the particle beam in the Stern-Gerlach experimental setup. It turns out that when we do this, the atoms are again detected in only one of two locations (see figure 2.4).

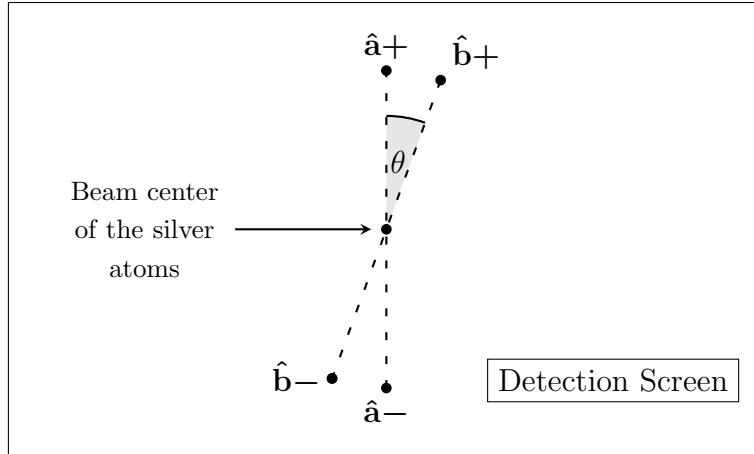


Figure 2.4: Locations of detections before and after rotating the magnetic field by an angle  $\theta$ . Before rotation, the particles can be detected at either location  $\hat{a}+$  or location  $\hat{a}-$ . After the rotation, particles can be detected at either location  $\hat{b}+$  or  $\hat{b}-$ .

So suppose we knew the particle was in a spin state such that it was on course to arrive at location  $\hat{a}+$  because we had previously directed it through another magnetic field in the  $\hat{a}$ -direction. For example, see figure 2.5 for how this might be done. In

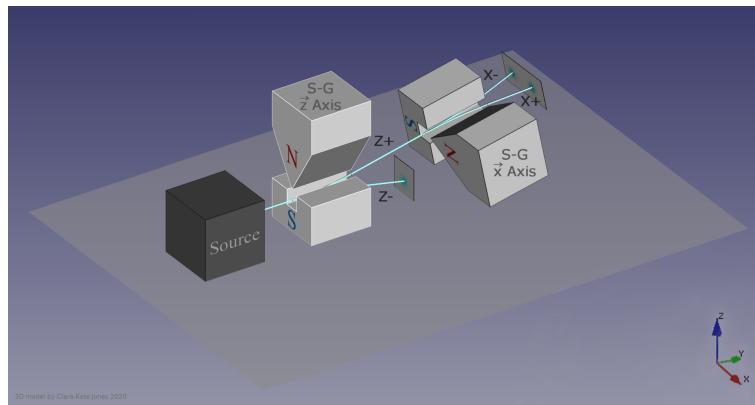


Figure 2.5: Two Stern-Gerlach experiments in sequence. By directing the beam of particles through one magnetic field first, the particles emerging in one of the two beams will be in a known spin state before they enter the second magnetic field.<sup>4</sup>

this experimental setup, the second magnetic field has been rotated by an angle of

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<sup>4</sup>Diagram by MJasK. This file is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 4.0 International license. Source: [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Stern-Gerlach\\_Analyzer\\_Sequential\\_Series\\_E2.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Stern-Gerlach_Analyzer_Sequential_Series_E2.png).

90° with respect to the first magnetic field. But suppose we just rotated the second magnetic field by a very small angle  $\theta$  with respect to the first magnetic field. Then we would expect the particle now to arrive at a location  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}+$  close by to  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}+$  as shown in figure 2.4. And this is what we notice experimentally for the most part. However, occasionally, the particle will arrive at location  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}-$ . The frequency of this occurrence becomes less and less the less and less the magnetic field is rotated (i.e. the smaller  $\theta$  is), so that if the magnetic field is not rotated at all, i.e.  $\theta = 0$ , the particle will always arrive at location  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}+$ . To capture the probabilistic nature of these outcomes, we use the bra-ket notation. Thus, if  $|\psi\rangle$  stands for either the  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$  or the  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle$ -state, and  $|\chi\rangle$  stands for either the  $|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle$  or the  $|\hat{\mathbf{b}}-\rangle$ -state, then we define the bra-ket  $\langle\psi|\chi\rangle \in \mathbb{C}$  to be a complex number<sup>5</sup> that satisfies the **Born Rule**,<sup>bornrule</sup> namely the rule that  $|\langle\psi|\chi\rangle|^2$  is the probability that the particle will be found to be in state  $|\psi\rangle$  given that we know that the particle is in state  $|\chi\rangle$ . For example, if  $|\langle\psi|\chi\rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{4}$ , and we performed the experiment a 1000 times with the particle initially prepared in the  $|\chi\rangle$ -state, then we would expect the particle to be found in the  $|\psi\rangle$ -state in around 250 runs of the experiment. We would thus expect  $|\langle\hat{\mathbf{a}}-|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle|^2$  to be 0, from which it will follow that  $\langle\hat{\mathbf{a}}-|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$  has to be 0. The Born Rule also implies that  $|\langle\hat{\mathbf{a}}+|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle|^2 = 1$ . We will also insist that  $\langle\psi|\chi\rangle = \overline{\langle\chi|\psi\rangle}$ ,<sup>6</sup> from which it will follow

<sup>5</sup>With regards to the set of complex numbers  $\mathbb{C}$ , we will use the notation  $i = \sqrt{-1}$ . Complex conjugation will be denoted by an overline so that  $\overline{x+iy} = x-iy$  for real numbers  $x$  and  $y$ . The modulus of a complex number  $z = x+iy$  will then be given by  $|z| = \sqrt{z\bar{z}} = \sqrt{x^2+y^2}$ . Since the defining property of  $\langle\psi|\chi\rangle$  is that  $|\langle\psi|\chi\rangle|^2$  is the probability that the particle will be found to be in state  $|\psi\rangle$  given that we know that the particle is in state  $|\chi\rangle$ , we have to choose an arbitrary phase to fully determine  $\langle\psi|\chi\rangle$ .

<sup>6</sup>Note that this conditions implies time symmetry: the probability a particle transitions from a state  $|\chi\rangle$  to a state  $|\psi\rangle$  will be the same as the probability a particle transitions from the state  $|\psi\rangle$  to the state  $|\chi\rangle$ . This is in accord with the observation that closed quantum systems are symmetric on time-reversal. This might at first seem surprising in the light of the fact that phenomena such as radioactive decay are not obviously time-symmetric. However, it turns out that this time asymmetry results from the quantum system not being closed. For more details, see Saverio Pascazio, “All you

that  $\langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle$  is a real number of modulus 1 (i.e. +1 or -1). By convention, we choose  $\langle \psi | \chi \rangle$  such that  $\langle \psi | \psi \rangle$  is a real and positive number, in which case we must have  $\langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle = 1$ . If we now rotate the magnetic field by an angle  $\theta$  as indicated in figure 2.4, the particle will be detected either at location  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}+$  or location  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}-$ . We can then ask the question “given that the particle is in state  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$ , what is the probability that the particle will be found to be in state  $|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle$ ?”. According to the notation discussed above, this probability will be  $|\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle|^2$  where  $\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle$  is a complex number such that  $\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle = 1$  when  $\theta = 0$  and  $\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle = 0$  when  $\theta = 180^\circ$ . We would likewise expect  $\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle = 0$  when  $\theta = 0$  and  $\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle = 1$  when  $\theta = 180^\circ$ . Since  $\cos 0^\circ = \sin 90^\circ = 1$  and  $\cos 90^\circ = \sin 0^\circ = 0$ , we might guess that in general  $|\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle| = |\cos(\theta/2)|$  and  $|\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle| = |\sin(\theta/2)|$ . Experimentation shows us that this guess is correct. This suggests that we can express the state  $|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle$  in terms of the states  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$  and  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle$ . We thus suppose that<sup>vectoradd</sup>

$$|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle = \alpha |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle + \beta |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle \quad \text{\{vectoradd1\}} \quad (2.1a)$$

$$|\hat{\mathbf{b}}-\rangle = \bar{\alpha} |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle - \bar{\beta} |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle \quad \text{\{vectoradd2\}} \quad (2.1b)$$

for complex numbers  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$  such that  $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$ , and we suppose that the bra-ket has the **linearity**<sup>linearity</sup> property so that  $\langle \psi | \hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle = \alpha \langle \psi | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle + \beta \langle \psi | \hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle$  and  $\langle \psi | \hat{\mathbf{b}}-\rangle = \bar{\alpha} \langle \psi | \hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle - \bar{\beta} \langle \psi | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$  for any state  $|\psi\rangle$ . Then it will follow that  $\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{b}}-\rangle = 0$ ,<sup>7</sup> and that  $\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle = \langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}- | \hat{\mathbf{b}}-\rangle = 1$ .<sup>8</sup> If we then put  $\alpha = \cos(\theta/2)$  and  $\beta = \sin(\theta/2)$ , it

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ever wanted to know about the quantum Zeno effect in 70 minutes,” *44th Symposium on Mathematical Physics on New Developments in the Theory of Open Quantum Systems*, 2013, <https://doi.org/10.1142/S123016121440071>, eprint: arXiv:1311.6645v1[quant-ph].

<sup>7</sup>To see this, by putting  $|\psi\rangle = |\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle$ , we will have  $\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{b}}-\rangle = \bar{\alpha} \langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle - \bar{\beta} \langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$  by equation (2.1b). Since  $\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle = \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}- | \hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle$  we have  $\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle = \bar{\beta}$  by equation (2.1a), and likewise, since  $\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle = \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle$ , we have  $\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle = \bar{\alpha}$ . Therefore  $\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{b}}-\rangle = \bar{\alpha}\bar{\beta} - \bar{\beta}\bar{\alpha} = 0$ .

<sup>8</sup>To see this, by putting  $|\psi\rangle = |\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle$  and using equation (2.1a), we will have  $\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle = \alpha \langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle + \beta \langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle = \alpha\bar{\alpha} + \beta\bar{\beta} = |\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$ . By a similar calculation, we also see  $\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}- | \hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle = 1$ .

will follow that  $|\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle| = |\cos(\theta/2)|$  and  $|\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle| = |\sin(\theta/2)|$ ,<sup>9</sup> and so with these values for  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  we will have<sup>spintrans</sup>

$$|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle = \cos(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle + \sin(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle, \quad \begin{matrix} \{\text{spintrans1}\} \\ (2.2\text{a}) \end{matrix}$$

$$|\hat{\mathbf{b}}-\rangle = \cos(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle - \sin(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle. \quad \begin{matrix} \{\text{spintrans2}\} \\ (2.2\text{b}) \end{matrix}$$

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<sup>9</sup>To satisfy these criteria,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are only determined up to rotation by a complex number. Rotating a complex number  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  just means multiplying it by a complex number  $\lambda$  of modulus 1 (i.e.  $|\lambda| = 1$ ) to get  $\lambda z$ . We would need to take into account this rotation factor if we considered the three-dimensional situation. Then, without loss of generality,  $\alpha = \cos(\theta/2)$  and  $\beta = e^{i\phi} \sin(\theta/2)$  where  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  are the polar and azimuthal angles respectively.

## 2.2 The Copenhagen Interpretation and the EPR-Bohm Paradox<sup>eprsec</sup>

Given the equations (2.2a) and (2.2b) that relate the states  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}\pm\rangle$  and  $|\hat{\mathbf{b}}\pm\rangle$  to each other, we can calculate probabilities such as the probability a particle will be measured to be in the  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$ -state given that it is in the  $|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle$ -state. There however arises the question of what the physical meaning of one of these states is. Clearly, the  $|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle$ -state says something about the spin of a particle; but is this a complete description of the particle's spin state? For the  $|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle$ -state only tells us what the outcome of a spin measurement would be along one particular axis  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ . For a spin measurement along another axis  $\hat{\mathbf{a}} \neq \pm\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ ,  $|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle$  only tells us the probabilities (via equation (2.2a) and the Born Rule) that the measurement outcome would be  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$  or  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle$  – but the  $|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle$ -state doesn't determine either of these outcomes. So we want to know whether this indetermination of the measurement outcome along the  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ -axis is merely a reflection of our lack of knowledge of a more complete specification of the particle's spin state, or alternatively, whether the  $|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle$ -state is a complete description of the spin state of the particle so that there is no fact of the matter about what spin state the particle would be found to be in along the  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ -axis until a measurement of spin along the  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ -axis is made.

Now Bohr and Heisenberg believed the latter to be the case. This was because their mathematical formalism of quantum physics implied that there are physical quantities of particles that couldn't be simultaneously determined. For example, their mathematical formalism is incapable of representing a particle which has a definite spin in both the  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ -direction and the  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ -direction when  $\hat{\mathbf{a}} \neq \pm\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ . So when a particle that is in the  $|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle$ -state is measured along the  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ -axis and is found to be in the  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$ -state,

there is a so-called collapse of the  $|\hat{b}+\rangle$ -state:

$$|\hat{b}+\rangle = \cos(\theta/2) |\hat{a}+\rangle + \sin(\theta/2) |\hat{a}-\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{Collapse!!}} |\hat{a}+\rangle$$

so that after the measurement, the particle is no longer in the  $|\hat{b}+\rangle$ -state. This interpretation of the quantum state as a complete physical description in which the state collapses to another state upon measurement is known as the **Copenhagen Interpretation.**

Einstein, Podolsky, and Rosen, however, strongly objected to the Copenhagen Interpretation, and they introduced their EPR paradox to explain what troubled them.<sup>10</sup> The EPR paradox was originally expressed in terms of the position and momentum of a particle, but it was Bohm who translated the EPR paradox to the context of spin,<sup>11</sup> and this is the version we will consider here.

The EPR-Bohm paradox arises in the context of particle pairs known as spin singlets. A **spin singlet** describes the state of two particles which a single particle of zero spin has decayed into. For example, a high energy **photon**, that is, a particle of light, can decay into a negatively charged electron, and a positively charged positron (where a **positron** is a fundamental particle like an electron but of opposite charge). Since spin is a conserved physical quantity, the spin of the two particles  $q_A$  and  $q_B$  of a spin singlet state must be equal and opposite when measured along the same axis, no matter what direction this axis happens to point in. The existence of spin singlet states thus raises the question of what the physical mechanism or principle

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<sup>10</sup>See <sup>c bx@2</sup>A. Einstein, B. Podolsky, and N. Rosen, “Can Quantum-Mechanical Description of Physical Reality Be Considered Complete?,” *Physical review* 47, no. 10 (1935): 777–780.

<sup>11</sup>e.g. see <sup>c bx@3</sup>D. Bohm, *Quantum Theory* (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1951), p. 29, Ch. 5 sec. 3, and Ch. 22 sec. 19.

is that ensures two experimenters, Alice and Bob say, will always obtain opposite spin measurement results if Alice measures the spin of particle  $q_A$ , and Bob measures the spin of particle  $q_B$  along the same axis. There is of course no experiment that could prove that Alice and Bob will always obtain opposite spin measurements, and there are some interpretations of quantum physics such as the GRW spontaneous collapse theory<sup>12</sup> which predict that very occasionally Alice and Bob would obtain the same spin measurement result. But in this dissertation, we will assume that all measurements are consistent with **standard quantum theory**. In other words, we assume that the physical world can be described by quantum states<sup>13</sup> that evolve over time according to the Schrödinger equation, and that the probability of a system being found to be in one state given that it is in another state will be given by the Born Rule. In particular, under the assumption of standard quantum theory, it will follow that Alice and Bob will always obtain opposite spin results when performing measurements along the same axis of two particles in the spin singlet state.

Now naively, one would expect that if the spin of  $q_A$  were to be measured, then this would have no effect on any spin-measurement of  $q_B$ . This assumption is a special case of **Einstein's locality principle**: For two spatially separated systems  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ , the real factual situation of the system  $S_2$  should be independent of what is done to the system  $S_1$ .<sup>14</sup> If Einstein's locality principle holds, we would be able to attribute a state

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<sup>12</sup>See Giancarlo Ghirardi and Angelo Bassi, “Collapse Theories,” in *The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy*, Summer 2020, ed. Edward N. Zalta (Metaphysics Research Lab, Stanford University, 2020).

<sup>13</sup>In standard quantum theory, we remain agnostic as to whether a quantum state provides a complete description of the physical world, or whether it needs to be supplemented by some additional information in order to obtain a complete description.

<sup>14</sup>Einstein expressed this locality principle in his autobiographical notes: “But on one supposition we should, in my opinion, absolutely hold fast: the real factual situation of the system  $S_2$  is

$|\alpha\rangle_A$  to particle  $q_A$ , and a state  $|\beta\rangle_B$  to particle  $q_B$ , so that if Alice were to perform a Stern-Gerlach experiment on particle  $q_A$  in which one of the possible outcomes was a spin state  $|\alpha'\rangle_A$ , then by the Born Rule, the probability Alice would find  $q_A$  to be in state  $|\alpha'\rangle_A$  would be  $|\langle\alpha'|\alpha\rangle_A|^2$ . Likewise, if Bob were to perform a Stern-Gerlach experiment on particle  $q_B$  in which one of the possible outcomes was a spin state  $|\beta'\rangle$ , then the probability Bob would find  $q_B$  to be in state  $|\beta'\rangle_B$  would be  $|\langle\beta'|\beta\rangle_B|^2$ .

Now in order to decide how to represent the joint state of the particles  $q_A$  and  $q_B$ , we recall that in probability theory, we say that two events  $X$  and  $Y$  are **statistically independent** if and only if

$$P(X, Y) = P(X)P(Y) \quad \text{\{indep\}} \quad (2.3)$$

where  $P(X)$  is the probability that  $X$  occurs,  $P(Y)$  is the probability that  $Y$  occurs, and  $P(X, Y)$  is the probability that both  $X$  and  $Y$  both occur. We define the **conditional probability**  $P(X|Y)$  of  $X$  given  $Y$  to be

$$P(X|Y) = \frac{P(X, Y)}{P(Y)}. \quad \text{\{conditionprob\}} \quad (2.4)$$

From (2.3), it is easy to see that when  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent,  $P(X|Y) = P(X)$ . We also say that two events  $X$  and  $Y$  are **conditionally independent** given some third event  $Z$  if and only if

$$P(X, Y|Z) = P(X|Z)P(Y|Z) \quad \text{\{indepcond\}} \quad (2.5)$$

where  $P(X|Z)$  is the conditional probability that  $X$  occurs given  $Z$ ,  $P(Y|Z)$  is the conditional probability that  $Y$  occurs given  $Z$ , and  $P(X, Y|Z)$  is the conditional probability that both  $X$  and  $Y$  occur given  $Z$ .

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independent of what is done with the system  $S_1$ , which is spatially separated from the former.”

Now if  $q_A$  can be described by the  $|\alpha\rangle_A$ -state and  $q_B$  can be described by the  $|\beta\rangle_B$ -state, the Born Rule implies that the conditional probability that Alice would measure her particle to be in the state  $|\alpha'\rangle_A$  is not going to depend on  $|\beta\rangle_B$ , and so  $P(\alpha'|\alpha, \beta) = P(\alpha'|\alpha)$ . Likewise,  $P(\beta'|\alpha, \beta) = P(\beta'|\beta)$ . Therefore, if Alice and Bob's measurement outcomes are conditionally independent, then according to (2.5) and the Born Rule, we would obtain the conditional probability

$$P_{AB}(\alpha', \beta'|\alpha, \beta) = |\langle\alpha'|\alpha\rangle_A|^2 \times |\langle\beta'|\beta\rangle_B|^2 = |\langle\alpha'|\alpha\rangle_A \langle\beta'|\beta\rangle_B|^2. \quad (2.6)$$

This suggests that if we write  $|\alpha\rangle_A |\beta\rangle_B$  for the state of the composite system of both particles, then the bra-ket of  $|\alpha'\rangle_A |\beta'\rangle_B$  and  $|\alpha\rangle_A |\beta\rangle_B$  would be

$$_B \langle\beta'|_A \langle\alpha'|\alpha\rangle_A |\beta\rangle_B = \langle\alpha'|\alpha\rangle_A \langle\beta'|\beta\rangle_B, \quad (2.7)$$

and we extend this bracket to sums of states so that it satisfies the linearity property (see page 13). However, when the particles  $q_A$  and  $q_B$  form a spin singlet, it will not be possible to express their joint state as  $|\alpha\rangle_A |\beta\rangle_B$  because otherwise, according to (2.6), we will always be able to find a direction  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$  such that  $P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{a}}+|\alpha, \beta) \neq 0$ , whereas in reality, the state  $Z$  describing the singlet has to satisfy  $P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{a}}+|Z) = 0$  for all  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ . But it turns out that the summation of states:

$$|\Psi_{\text{Bell}}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_B - |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_B). \quad (2.8)$$

can describe the singlet state of the two particles. We refer to the state (2.8) as a **Bell state**.<sup>15</sup> If the composite system is in the Bell state  $|\Psi_{\text{Bell}}\rangle$ , then according to the Born Rule, the probability that Alice measures her particle to be in state  $|\alpha\rangle$  and

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<sup>cbx@5</sup>Albert Einstein, *Albert Einstein, Philosopher Scientist*, ed. P. A. Schilp (Evanston, Illinois: Library of Living Philosophers, 1949), p. 85.

<sup>15</sup>By convention, the states  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_B + |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_B)$ ,  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_B - |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_B)$ , and  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_B + |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_B)$  are also referred to as Bell states.

Bob measures his particle to be in the state  $|\beta\rangle$  will be:

$$\begin{aligned} P_{AB}(\alpha, \beta | \Psi_{\text{Bell}}) &= |\langle_B \beta | \langle_A \alpha | \Psi_{\text{Bell}} \rangle|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} |\langle \alpha | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle_A \langle \beta | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_B - \langle \alpha | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_A \langle \beta | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle_B|^2 \end{aligned} \quad (2.9)$$

This means that whatever axis Bob decides to measure along, if Alice measures her particle along the  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ -axis, then the Born Rule predicts that she will measure the particle to be in either the  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_A$ -state or the  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_A$ -state, each with probability of  $\frac{1}{2}$ .<sup>16</sup> But also, the Born Rule implies that if both Alice and Bob measure their respective particles along the same  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ -axis, then the probability Bob will measure his particle to have the same spin as Alice's particle will be zero, and the probability that Bob measures his particle to have the opposite spin from Alice's particle will be one.<sup>17</sup>

These probabilities predicted by the Born Rule using the Bell state  $|\Psi_{\text{Bell}}\rangle$  correspond

<sup>16</sup>To see this, suppose Bob performs his measurement along an arbitrary axis  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ . Then the probability Alice measures her particle to be in the  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$ -state will be

$$\begin{aligned} P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \Psi_{\text{Bell}}) + P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}- | \Psi_{\text{Bell}}) &= \\ &= \frac{1}{2} |\langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle_A \langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_B - \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_A \langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle_B|^2 \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} |\langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle_A \langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}- | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_B - \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_A \langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}- | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle_B|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} |\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_B|^2 + \frac{1}{2} |\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}- | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_B|^2 = \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned} \quad (2.10)$$

where on the last line we have used the fact that

$$|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_B = |\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle_B \langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_B + |\hat{\mathbf{b}}-\rangle \langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}- | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_B$$

and

$$\langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}- | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_B = 1, \quad \langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}\pm | \hat{\mathbf{b}}\pm \rangle_B = 1, \quad \text{and} \quad \langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}\pm | \hat{\mathbf{b}}\mp \rangle_B = 0$$

so that

$$|\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_B|^2 + |\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}- | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_B|^2 = 1.$$

<sup>17</sup>This is because the probability Alice and Bob will measure their particles to have the same spin will be

$$\begin{aligned} P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \Psi_{\text{Bell}}) + P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}-, \hat{\mathbf{a}}- | \Psi_{\text{Bell}}) &= \\ &= \frac{1}{2} |\langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle_A \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_B - \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_A \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle_B|^2 \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} |\langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}- | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle_A \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}- | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_B - \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}- | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_A \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}- | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle_B|^2 = 0, \end{aligned}$$

to the probabilities observed experimentally. Also note that despite the appearance the formula (2.8),  $|\Psi_{\text{Bell}}\rangle$  is independent of the axis  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ . That is, for any other direction  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ , it can be shown that,

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_B - |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_B) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{b}}-\rangle_B - |\hat{\mathbf{b}}-\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle_B).^{18} \quad (2.11)$$

Therefore, if Alice had chosen to measure her particle along the  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ -axis rather than the  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ -axis, she would still obtain equal probabilities for finding her particle to be in either the state  $|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle_A$  or  $|\hat{\mathbf{b}}-\rangle_A$ , and the same equal probabilities for Bob's measurement outcomes hold as well.

Now although attributing the state  $|\Psi_{\text{Bell}}\rangle$  successfully determines the experimentally observed probabilities for Alice and Bob's spin measurement outcomes, this fact spells trouble for the Copenhagen interpretation. For if we stipulate that  $|\Psi_{\text{Bell}}\rangle$  is a

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and the probability Alice and Bob will measure their particles to have different spins will be

$$\begin{aligned} P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{a}}- | \Psi_{\text{Bell}}) + P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}-, \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \Psi_{\text{Bell}}) &= \\ &= \frac{1}{2} |\langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle_A \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}- | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_B - \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_A \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}- | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle_B|^2 \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} |\langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}- | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle_A \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_B - \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}- | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle_A \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle_B|^2 = 1. \end{aligned}$$

<sup>18</sup>**bellstate2pf** To see this, using the transformation rules given in equation (2.2) we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(&|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle |\hat{\mathbf{b}}-\rangle - |\hat{\mathbf{b}}-\rangle |\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}((\cos(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle + \sin(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle)(\cos(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle - \sin(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle) \\ &\quad - (\cos(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle - \sin(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle)(\cos(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle + \sin(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle)) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\cos(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle \cos(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle - \cos(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle \sin(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle \\ &\quad + \sin(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle \cos(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle - \sin(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle \sin(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle \\ &\quad - \cos(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle \cos(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle - \cos(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle \sin(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle \\ &\quad + \sin(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle \cos(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle + \sin(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle \sin(\theta/2) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}((\cos^2(\theta/2) + \sin^2(\theta/2)) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle - (\cos^2(\theta/2) + \sin^2(\theta/2)) |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle - |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle). \end{aligned}$$

complete description of the spin state of the spin-singlet, then assuming Alice makes her measurement first and obtains the measurement outcome  $|\hat{a}+\rangle_A$ , then as this measurement outcome is established there will be a collapse of the state

$$|\Psi_{\text{Bell}}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{a}+\rangle_A |\hat{a}-\rangle_B - |\hat{a}-\rangle_A |\hat{a}+\rangle_B) \xrightarrow{\text{Collapse!!}} |\hat{a}+\rangle_A |\hat{a}-\rangle_B^{\{\text{BellCollapse1}\}}, \quad (2.12)$$

whereas if Alice makes her measurement first and obtains the measurement outcome  $|\hat{a}-\rangle_A$ , there will be a state collapse

$$|\Psi_{\text{Bell}}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{a}+\rangle_A |\hat{a}-\rangle_B - |\hat{a}-\rangle_A |\hat{a}+\rangle_B) \xrightarrow{\text{Collapse!!}} |\hat{a}-\rangle_A |\hat{a}+\rangle_B^{\{\text{BellCollapse2}\}}. \quad (2.13)$$

Thus, according to the Copenhagen interpretation, prior to Alice's measurement, the real factual situation of particle  $q_B$  will be indeterminate, but once Alice has made her measurement, if she obtains the outcome  $|\hat{a}+\rangle_A$ , the real factual situation of particle  $q_B$  will be expressed by the determinate state  $|\hat{a}-\rangle_B$ , and if she obtains the outcome  $|\hat{a}-\rangle_A$ , the real factual situation of particle  $q_B$  will be expressed by the determinate state  $|\hat{a}+\rangle_B$ . But in either case, in the state collapse that Alice brings about via her measurement, there is a violation of Einstein's locality principle.

But things get even worse when we take Einstein's theory of special relativity into consideration. For according to Einstein's theory of relativity, the order in which Alice and Bob perform their measurements is going to depend on which inertial frame of reference one is in.<sup>19</sup> Thus, if we are moving at one velocity, it may appear that Alice makes her measurement first meaning that Alice causes the state collapse and thus

<sup>19</sup>In special relativity, an inertial frame of reference is a spacetime coordinate system  $(t, x, y, z)$  in which all objects which have no forces acting on them have trajectories that are straight lines. Thus, we can move to another inertial frame by moving to a reference frame with constant velocity  $\mathbf{v}$  with respect to the first reference frame. In the case when  $\mathbf{v} = (v, 0, 0)$ , Einstein's theory of special relativity tells us that under such a “boost”, spacetime coordinates will transform as  $(t, \mathbf{x}) \rightarrow (t', x', y', z') = (\gamma(t - \frac{vx}{c^2}), \gamma(x - vt), y, z)$  where  $c$  is the speed of light and  $\gamma = \left(\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}\right)^{-1}$ .

affects the state of Bob's particle, whereas if we are moving at another velocity, it may appear that Bob makes his measurement first causing the state to collapse and thus affects the state of Alice's particle. Once the collapse has occurred, there is no further collapse when the second experimenter makes his or her measurement along the same axis as the first experimenter. Thus, the thesis of the Copenhagen interpretation that it is the act of measurement that causes the state to collapse is not compatible with Einstein's theory of special relativity, for if special relativity is correct, then one and the same measurement both will and will not cause the state to collapse depending upon which frame of reference one is in.

Therefore, if one is more convinced (as most physicists are) of the truth of Einstein's theory of relativity than the truth of the Copenhagen interpretation, then one must reject the Copenhagen interpretation. Thus, in the light of the EPR-Bohm paradox we need an alternative to the Copenhagen interpretation of quantum states that can account for how the two experimenters of the paradox always obtain opposite results when they make their measurement along the same axis. The obvious approach to take is to suppose that the quantum state  $|\Psi_{\text{Bell}}\rangle$  is an incomplete description of the spin state of the two particles. This is the hidden variables approach, but as we will see shortly, this approach is also problematic. But before we consider the hidden variables approach, we will turn to what is traditionally considered to be one of the most troubling aspect of the Copenhagen interpretation, namely the possibility of scenarios exemplified by Schrödinger's cat thought experiment.

### 2.3 Schrödinger's Cat<sup>SchrondingersCat</sup>

Schrödinger's famous thought experiment was first discussed in a 1935 paper in the context of the EPR paradox and the inherent problems it raised for the Copenhagen interpretation.<sup>20</sup> According to the Copenhagen interpretation, given the Bell state

$$|\Psi_{\text{Bell}}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_B - |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_B), \quad (2.8 \text{ revisited})$$

there is no fact of the matter as to whether particle  $q_A$  is spin up and particle  $q_B$  is spin down (or vice versa) until an observation is made.

Now the strange goings-on at subatomic level might not initially give us much cause for concern about the nature of reality. For one might say that although it is an interesting curiosity that facts about subatomic particles are a bit fuzzy, our observation of definite facts in everyday life should convince us that such fuzziness can be brought into focus when we zoom out from the subatomic level to the macroscopic level. That is, we might suppose that the very many indefinite things on the small scale average out to give us something definite on the large scale. However, the Schrödinger's Cat thought experiment suggests that our confidence in there being definite facts at the macroscopic level is seriously undermined if the Copenhagen interpretation is correct. Schrödinger himself described the scenario in his thought experiment as ridiculous<sup>21</sup> indicating that he didn't think we should doubt the definiteness of facts at the macroscopic

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<sup>20</sup>For Schrödinger's original reference to his thought experiment, see E. Schrödinger, "Die gegenwärtige Situation in der Quantenmechanik," *Die Naturwissenschaften* 23, no. 48 (November 1935): 807–812. For an English translation, see John D. Trimmer, "The Present Situation in Quantum Mechanics: A Translation of Schrödinger's "Cat Paradox" Paper" [in eng], *Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society* 124, no. 5 (1980): 323–338.

<sup>21</sup>See Trimmer, p. 328.

level; rather, we should call into question the reasonableness of the Copenhagen interpretation.

The Schrödinger's cat thought experiment invites us to consider a scenario like the one depicted in (2.12) and (2.13), but instead of having two microscopic particles coupled together, we have a microscopic particle such as a radioactive atom coupled together with a macroscopic object such as a cat. Schrödinger suggests how this might be done. A cat is enclosed in a steel chamber in which there is a Geiger counter that is directed towards a small radioactive source, so that in the course of an hour, there is a probability of  $\frac{1}{2}$  that the Geiger counter will click indicating that one of the radioactive atoms has decayed, and there is a probability of  $\frac{1}{2}$  that the Geiger counter doesn't click because none of the radioactive atoms decay over the course of an hour. The Geiger counter itself is hooked up to a relay such that if the Geiger counter clicks, it releases a hammer which shatters a small flask of hydrocyanic acid causing the cat to die. The two possibilities are depicted in figure 4.5.

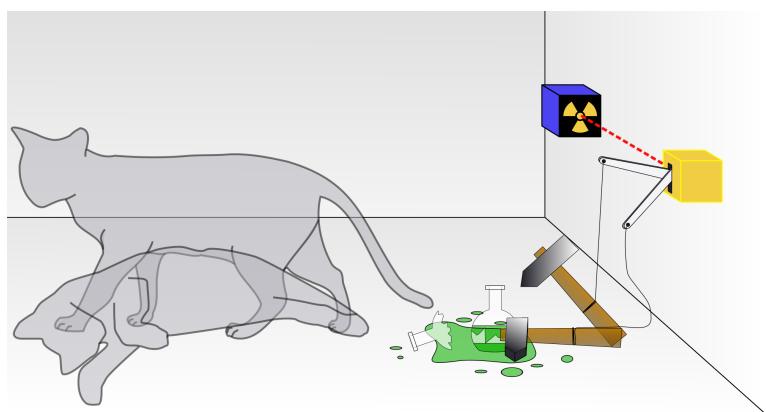


Figure 2.6: A depiction of Schrödinger's cat being both dead and alive.<sup>22</sup> [deadlivecat](#)

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<sup>22</sup>Original by Dhatfield. This image is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution-Share Alike 3.0 Unported license. Source: [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Schrödingers\\_cat.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Schrödingers_cat.svg)

According to the Copenhagen interpretation, the cat will only enter into a determinate state once the box is opened at the end of the hour and an observation is made. Thus, there are two possibilities analogous to (2.12) and (2.13): either

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( | \text{No atoms decay} \rangle | \text{Cat Alive} \rangle - | \text{Atom decays} \rangle | \text{Cat Dead} \rangle \right)$$

$$\xrightarrow{\text{Collapse!!}} | \text{No atoms decay} \rangle | \text{Cat Alive} \rangle,$$

or

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( | \text{No atoms decay} \rangle | \text{Cat Alive} \rangle - | \text{Atom decays} \rangle | \text{Cat Dead} \rangle \right)$$

$$\xrightarrow{\text{Collapse!!}} | \text{Atom decays} \rangle | \text{Cat Dead} \rangle.$$

But before the box is opened and any measurement is made, the state of the cat and the atom will be not be determinate, just as in the case of the spin-singlet where the spin states of the two particles are not determined to a definite value before any measurement is made. The Schrödinger's Cat thought experiment thus highlights that under the Copenhagen interpretation, there is no good reason to restrict indeterminacy to the microscopic level. If there is any indeterminacy at the microscopic level, then we should expect it at the macroscopic level as well, in which case it should be possible for a cat to be in an indeterminate state of being alive and dead. It is this possibility that Schrödinger found ridiculous.

## 2.4 Hidden Variables and Bell's Inequality<sup>hiddenbellsection</sup>

Given the problem with the Copenhagen interpretation that the EPR-Bohm paradox and Schrödinger's Cat highlight, it is tempting to suppose that states such as  $|\hat{a}+\rangle$  and  $|\hat{a}-\rangle$  merely represents our limited knowledge of a more complete physical state that would also include a specification of the particle's spin state along other axes besides the  $\hat{a}$ -axis. If we were to make this supposition, there would be a fact of the matter, albeit unknown to us, concerning what spin state the particle would be found to be in were we to measure its spin along some  $\hat{b}$ -axis for  $\hat{b} \neq \hat{a}$ . And even though we might decide not to measure the spin of the particle along the  $\hat{b}$ -axis, there would still be this hidden fact about the particle's spin in this direction. Furthermore, since there would be no reason to suppose there was anything special about the  $\hat{a}$  or  $\hat{b}$ -axes, it would then be reasonable to suppose that there were hidden facts about what spin direction the particle would be found to be in for every possible axis orientation. This would mean that a complete description of the particle's spin state would require an infinite list of outcomes for all the possible orientations we could configure the magnetic field of our Stern-Gerlach apparatus to be in. For example, the complete spin state of a particle which according to our limited knowledge was in the  $|\hat{b}+\rangle$ -state could be depicted as  $|\hat{a}+, \hat{b}+, \dots\rangle$  or  $|\hat{a}-, \hat{b}+, \dots\rangle$ , etc. where the ellipses would range over one of the two possible measurement outcomes for every other magnetic field orientation. However, because we would never in practice be able to perform all these experiments, and since only one such experiment would be needed to alter this infinite list,<sup>23</sup> nearly all of the entries in this infinite list would remain forever hidden.

<sup>23</sup>In other words, it is assumed that directly measuring the particle will involve perturbing it so that its state will change.

Hence, this would be an example of a **hidden variables** interpretation of quantum theory. Moreover, if we're assuming Einstein's locality principle, it follows that any changes in these hidden spin outcomes for possible measurements of a specific particle can't affect the hidden variables of any other spatially separated localized particles. Therefore, given Einstein's locality principle, it is appropriate to refer to these hidden variables as **local** hidden variables.

Now although a local hidden variables theory seems rather intuitive, in 1964, John Bell derived an inequality based on the local hidden variables theory just described.<sup>24</sup> Moreover, it is now known that Bell's inequality can be violated experimentally.<sup>25</sup> This doesn't mean we must abandon all hidden variables theories. Rather it just means we need to abandon local hidden variables theories like the one Bell used in deriving his inequality. It is nevertheless somewhat paradoxical that local hidden variables cannot account for the correlations between the measurement outcomes of spin singlets in the EPR-Bohm paradox. Local hidden variables were meant to resolve the EPR-Bohm paradox, and so the violation of Bell's inequality really heightens this paradox. Therefore, any satisfactory interpretation of quantum physics has to face up to and resolve this paradox by offering a suitable alternative to a local hidden variables theory.

In order to describe Bell's inequality, we again consider two experimenters Alice and Bob making spin measurements on a spin singlet as described in section 2.2. So in

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<sup>24</sup>In providing a derivation of Bell's inequality, we will follow Jim J. Napolitano and J. J. Sakurai, *Modern Quantum Mechanics* (Pearson Education, 2013), 241–249.

<sup>25</sup>Aspect, Clauser and Zeilinger received the 2022 physics Nobel Prize for establishing the experimental violation of Bell's inequality. See "Press Release: The Nobel Prize in Physics 2022," *Nobel Prize*

each run of the experiment, a spin singlet consisting of two particles  $q_A$  and  $q_B$  will be generated with particle  $q_A$  being sent to Alice who measures  $q_A$ 's spin in a direction of her choosing, and with particle  $q_B$  being sent to Bob who measures  $q_B$ 's spin in a direction of his choosing. But now, instead of describing the two particles by the state  $|\Psi_{\text{Bell}}\rangle$ , we describe particles  $q_A$  and  $q_B$  in terms of all the spin outcomes one would obtain for every possible measurement axis in such a way that if  $q_A$  is spin up with respect to an axis  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ , then  $q_B$  would be spin down with respect to this axis. For example, if the complete spin state for  $q_A$  was given by  $|\Psi_A\rangle = |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}-, \dots\rangle_A$ , then the complete spin state for  $q_B$  would be given by  $|\Psi_B\rangle = |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-, \hat{\mathbf{b}}-, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \dots\rangle_B$ .

We also assume that in each run of the experiment, Alice and Bob independently measure the spin of their particles along one of three possible directions  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ ,  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ , and  $\hat{\mathbf{c}}$ , and that Einstein's locality principle holds. Furthermore, we assume that in each run of the experiment, the outcome of Alice's measurement will be statistically independent of any of the other measurement outcomes for different runs of the experiment, and for any of the three axes she measures along, she will get a spin up outcome or a spin down outcome with equal probability of  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Likewise, we assume Bob's measurement outcomes are also similarly independent between different runs of the experiment. We also assume that the  $8 = 2^3$  states  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}\pm, \hat{\mathbf{b}}\pm, \hat{\mathbf{c}}\pm\rangle_A$  exhaust all the possible states for Alice's particles that can be distinguished from one another by making one of the three possible measurement choices available. Thus, Alice can distinguish between the  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+\rangle_A$ -state and the  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}-\rangle_A$ -state by making a measurement along the  $\hat{\mathbf{c}}$ -axis, though if she happened to make her measurement along the  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$  or  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ -axis,

she wouldn't be able to distinguish between these two states. But in principle, she can distinguish between these two states if she happens to make her measurement along the right axis, in this case the  $\hat{\mathbf{c}}$ -axis. We similarly assume the states  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}\pm, \hat{\mathbf{b}}\pm, \hat{\mathbf{c}}\pm\rangle_B$  exhaust all the possible states for Bob's particles that he can distinguish between, and we assume that if Alice and Bob measure the particle along the same axis, they will always obtain opposite results from one another. For instance, if Alice's particle is in state  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+\rangle_A$ , then Bob's particle must be in state  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-, \hat{\mathbf{b}}-, \hat{\mathbf{c}}-\rangle_B$ . Now suppose the experiment is run  $N$  times for large  $N$ ,<sup>26</sup> and let  $N_i$  be the number of times particle  $q_A$  is in the  $i$ th state so that<sup>27</sup>  $N = \sum_{i=1}^8 N_i$  as shown in table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Spin-components of particles  $q_A$  and  $q_B$  in the hidden-variable theory

Population	Particle $q_A$	Particle $q_B$
$N_1$	$ \hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+\rangle_A$	$ \hat{\mathbf{a}}-, \hat{\mathbf{b}}-, \hat{\mathbf{c}}-\rangle_B$
$N_2$	$ \hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}-\rangle_A$	$ \hat{\mathbf{a}}-, \hat{\mathbf{b}}-, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+\rangle_B$
$N_3$	$ \hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}-, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+\rangle_A$	$ \hat{\mathbf{a}}-, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}-\rangle_B$
$N_4$	$ \hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}-, \hat{\mathbf{c}}-\rangle_A$	$ \hat{\mathbf{a}}-, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+\rangle_B$
$N_5$	$ \hat{\mathbf{a}}-, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+\rangle_A$	$ \hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}-, \hat{\mathbf{c}}-\rangle_B$
$N_6$	$ \hat{\mathbf{a}}-, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}-\rangle_A$	$ \hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}-, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+\rangle_B$
$N_7$	$ \hat{\mathbf{a}}-, \hat{\mathbf{b}}-, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+\rangle_A$	$ \hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}-\rangle_B$
$N_8$	$ \hat{\mathbf{a}}-, \hat{\mathbf{b}}-, \hat{\mathbf{c}}-\rangle_A$	$ \hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+\rangle_B$

As in section 2.2, we define  $P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+)$  to be the probability that Alice measures particle  $q_A$  to be at location  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}+$  on her detection screen and Bob measures particle  $q_B$  to be at location  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}+$  on his detection screen. We similarly define the probabilities for all other combinations of detection locations. It is relatively easy to calculate all these probabilities in terms of the values  $N_i$  from table 2.1,<sup>28</sup> or alternatively by simply measuring the frequency of these different outcomes for where Alice and Bob detect

<sup>26</sup> $N$  has to be large since a frequentist definition of probability is being assumed.

<sup>27</sup>The notation  $\sum_{i=1}^8 N_i$  is shorthand for  $N_1 + N_2 + N_3 + N_4 + N_5 + N_6 + N_7 + N_8$ .

<sup>28</sup>e.g.  $P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) = \frac{N_3+N_4}{N}$ ,  $P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+) = \frac{N_2+N_4}{N}$ ,  $P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) = \frac{N_3+N_7}{N}$

their particles. Note that the values of  $N_i$  will be unknown, but on the assumption that there is a fact of the matter of which states in table 2.1 obtain, and on the assumption that the states to which the  $N_i$  correspond exhaust all the possible states for Alice's and Bob's particles, we can show that<sup>29</sup>

$$P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) \leq P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+) + P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+). \quad \text{Bell inequality} \quad (2.14)$$

This inequality is known as **Bell's inequality**, and it follows from Einstein's locality principle. However, as already mentioned, when this experiment is actually performed, we can choose the three axes so that Bell's inequality is violated. Nevertheless, it also turns out that this violation of Bell's inequality is entirely predictable if we assume that the state of the spin singlet consisting of the two particles  $q_A$  and  $q_B$  is given by the Bell state:

$$|\Psi_{\text{Bell}}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_B - |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_B). \quad (2.15)$$

When the spin singlet is in the  $|\Psi_{\text{Bell}}\rangle$ -state, it can be shown that

$$P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) = \frac{1}{2} \sin^2(\theta/2)$$

where  $\theta$  is the angle between the  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ -axis and  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ -axis.<sup>30</sup> Then taking the angle between the  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ -axes to be  $90^\circ$ , and the  $\hat{\mathbf{c}}$ -axis to be at  $45^\circ$  to both the  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ -axes, we

<sup>29</sup>This inequality follows since

$$P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) = \frac{N_3 + N_4}{N} \leq \frac{N_2 + N_4 + N_3 + N_7}{N} = P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+) + P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+).$$

<sup>30</sup>To see why this is, let  $P_A(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+)$  be the probability that Alice would detect her particle at location  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}+$  given that she is making a measurement along the  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ -axis, and let  $P_{BA}(\hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+)$  be the probability that Bob will detect his particle at location  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}+$  given that he is making a measurement along the  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ -axis and Alice has detected her particle at location  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}+$ . Given that the joint state of the particles is given by equation (2.8),  $P_A(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+) = \frac{1}{2}$ . But also note that if Alice has detected her particle at location  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}+$ , then Bob's particle must be in state  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle$ . From the Born Rule (see page 12) and equation (2.2a) it follows that

$$P_{BA}(\hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+) = |\langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}- \rangle|^2 = \sin^2(\theta/2).$$

would find that  $P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) = \frac{1}{4}$  and  $P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+) + P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) = 0.1464\dots$ , and so Bell's inequality would be violated if we assumed that the probability of each outcome is determined by the Bell state (2.8).

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Therefore,

$$P_{AB}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) = P_A(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+)P_{BA}(\hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+) = \frac{1}{2} \sin^2(\theta/2).$$

## 2.5 Isolating the Culprit

Given the experimental violation of Bell's inequality, a strategy some philosophers of physics take is to reexamine the assumptions that lead to Bell's Inequality. Because of the violation of Bell's inequality, one of these assumptions will have to be discarded. The false assumption that is used to prove Bell's Inequality is sometimes referred to as **the culprit**.<sup>31</sup> We therefore need to isolate the culprit, that is, we need to decide which assumption we should discard while keeping in mind that we wish to maintain a theory that is compatible with the experimental findings of quantum physics and special relativity.

Shimony noticed that there are two key assumptions in the proof of Bell's Inequality that might be identified as the culprit. He refers to one assumption as Outcome Independence (OI), and to the other assumption as Parameter Independence (PI).<sup>32</sup> Shimony argued that if we only denied OI, then the proof of Bell's Inequality would fail to go through. Yet by continuing to assume PI, there is a sense in which special relativity is not obviously violated. Shimony therefore thought that denying OI and assuming PI was sufficient to ensure peaceful coexistence between quantum theory and special relativity. In other words, Shimony thought OI was the culprit.

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<sup>31</sup>This is the terminology Butterfield uses following Abner Shimony. e.g. see Jeremy Butterfield, “Peaceful Coexistence: Examining Kent’s Relativistic Solution to the Quantum Measurement Problem,” 2017, 1, eprint: arXiv:1710.07844. cbx@11

<sup>32</sup>See A. Shimony, “Events and processes in the quantum world,” in *Search for a Naturalistic World View: Volume II: natural science and metaphysics* (1986; Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1993), 146–147. cbx@12

## 2.6 Parameter Independence<sup>PISec</sup>

To explain Shimony's<sup>33</sup> notion of Parameter Independence, we suppose we have an experimental setup similar to the experimental setup described in the previous section. Thus, we suppose there are two particles labeled  $q_A$ , and  $q_B$ , and that a measurement can be made on particle  $q_A$  at one location (e.g. Alice's laboratory), and a measurement can be made on particle  $q_B$  at some other location (e.g. Bob's laboratory). We will assume that Alice can make a choice of one of  $n$  measurements to be made. These are labeled  $a_1, \dots, a_n$ . For example,  $a_1$  might be a measurement of  $q_A$ 's spin along the  $z$ -axis, whereas  $a_2$  might be the measurement of  $q_A$ 's spin along an axis that is at a  $45^\circ$  angle to the  $z$ -axis etc. We use the variable  $x$  to denote Alice's choice so that  $x = a_i$  for some  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ . If Alice chooses to make measurement  $a_i$  (i.e.  $x = a_i$ ), the measurement outcome is labeled  $A_i$ , and this outcome can take values  $+1$  or  $-1$ . For example, Alice could use the convention in which  $+1$  corresponds to a spin up outcome, and  $-1$  corresponds to a spin down outcome. We will use the variable  $X$  to denote the measurement outcome Alice obtains, so for example, if Alice chooses to make the  $a_1$  measurement so that  $x = a_1$  and obtains the outcome  $A_1 = 1$ , then  $X = 1$ . Similarly, we use the notation  $b_i$ ,  $y$ , and  $B_i$ ,  $Y$  to correspond to the measurement choices and measurement outcomes for Bob.

We now suppose that there is a complete state  $\lambda \in \Lambda$  describing both  $q_A$  and  $q_B$  that is independent of Alice and Bob's measurement choices, but that encodes all other features that would influence the corresponding measurement outcomes. Here, the domain  $\Lambda$  of all such complete states will depend on how the two particles are

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<sup>33</sup>See Shimony, "Events and processes in the quantum world," 146–147 and Butterfield, "Peaceful Coexistence: Examining Kent's Relativistic Solution to the Quantum Measurement Problem," 7–9.

prepared and the model we are assuming. We also assume that  $q_A$  and  $q_B$  are initially coupled together in such a way that Alice and Bob would always get opposite results when they made their measurements in the same direction. For instance, for  $n = 3$ , we might assume a model in which

$$\Lambda = \{(A_1, A_2, A_3, B_1, B_2, B_3) : A_1, A_2, A_3 = \pm 1, B_i = -A_i\}. \quad \text{||(2.16)||}^{\text{bellLambda}}$$

In this case,  $\lambda \in \Lambda$  would fully determine Alice and Bob's measurement outcomes along the three axes. This would be like the model described in the proof of Bell's Inequality with all the states of  $\Lambda$  being described in table 2.1 of section 2.2.

However, in general, we don't insist on such determinism. Rather, we suppose that given a complete state  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ , and given that Alice makes a measurement choice  $x$  and Bob makes a measurement choice  $y$ , then there will be a probability  $P_{\lambda,x,y}(X, Y)$  representing the probability Alice gets outcome  $X$  and Bob gets outcome  $Y$ . In deterministic models,  $P_{\lambda,x,y}(X, Y)$  will have values restricted to either 0 or 1. In non-deterministic models, there will have to be some situations when  $P_{\lambda,x,y}(X, Y)$  has a value strictly between 0 and 1. For example, if we assume the Copenhagen interpretation model, we could take  $\lambda$  to be the Bell state (2.8). Then it follows from equation (2.11) that as long as Alice's and Bob's measurement choices  $x$  and  $y$  are in the same direction, then  $P_{\lambda,x,y}(1, -1) = 1/2$ . Incidentally, we also note that equation (2.11) implies the domain  $\Lambda$  consists of a single state:

$$\Lambda = \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|\hat{a}+\rangle_A |\hat{a}-\rangle_B - |\hat{a}-\rangle_A |\hat{a}+\rangle_B) \right\}. \quad \text{||(2.17)||}^{\text{quantumLambda}}$$

In both models (2.16) and (2.17), we see that if we define

$$P_{A,\lambda,x,y}(X) = P_{\lambda,x,y}(X, 1) + P_{\lambda,x,y}(X, -1), \quad \text{PI}_{(2.18)}^{\text{one}}$$

$$P_{B,\lambda,x,y}(Y) = P_{\lambda,x,y}(1, Y) + P_{\lambda,x,y}(-1, Y), \quad \text{PI}_{(2.19)}^{\text{two}}$$

then  $P_{A,\lambda,x,y}(X)$  is independent of Bob's choice of measurement  $y$ , and  $P_{B,\lambda,x,y}(Y)$  is independent of Alice's choice of measurement  $x$ .<sup>34</sup> In other models, however, it's possible that such independence does not hold. So to distinguish between such possibilities, we say a model satisfies **Parameter Independence** (PI) if and only if  $P_{A,\lambda,x,y}(X)$  is independent of  $y$ , and  $P_{B,\lambda,x,y}(Y)$  is independent of  $x$ . In particular, PI holds in the model (2.16) in the Copenhagen interpretation model (2.17). In other words, PI holds if and only if (2.18) and (2.19) hold for all  $\lambda, x, y, X$ , and  $Y$ . If PI fails to hold in a model, we say that the model satisfies **Parameter Dependence** (PD).

<sup>34</sup>To see that this is true for model (2.16), it is obvious that  $P_{A,\lambda,x,y}(X) = 1$  or  $0$  regardless of what  $y$  is. As for model (2.17), it is straightforward to show that  $P_{A,\lambda,x,y}(X) = 1/2$  and  $P_{B,\lambda,x,y}(Y) = 1/2$  for any  $X, Y$ . E.g. for  $x = \hat{\mathbf{a}}$  and  $y = \hat{\mathbf{b}}$ , by (2.11), we can assume the two particles are in the state

$$|\zeta\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{b}}-\rangle_B - |\hat{\mathbf{b}}-\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle_B).$$

Since the inner product on the composite system is given by  $\langle \xi' | \xi \rangle = \langle \psi' | \psi \rangle_A \langle \chi' | \chi \rangle_B$  for  $|\xi\rangle = |\psi\rangle_A |\chi\rangle_B$  and  $|\xi'\rangle = |\psi'\rangle_A |\chi'\rangle_B$ , it follows that

$${}_A \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | {}_B \langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}\pm | \zeta \rangle = \mp \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{b}}\mp \rangle_A.$$

Therefore, by the Born Rule (see page 12)

$$P_{\lambda,\hat{\mathbf{a}},\hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) + P_{\lambda,\hat{\mathbf{a}},\hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}-) = \frac{1}{2} | \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{b}}- \rangle_A |^2 + \frac{1}{2} | \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ \rangle_A |^2.$$

But since

$$| \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle_A = \langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle_A | \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ \rangle_A + \langle \hat{\mathbf{b}}- | \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ \rangle_A | \hat{\mathbf{b}}- \rangle_A$$

it follows that

$$| \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{b}}+ \rangle_A |^2 + | \langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}+ | \hat{\mathbf{b}}- \rangle_A |^2 = 1.$$

Therefore,

$$P_{\lambda,\hat{\mathbf{a}},\hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) + P_{\lambda,x,y}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}-) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

## 2.7 Parameter Dependence in the Pilot Wave Model\*

One model which exhibits PD is the **pilot wave interpretation** of quantum mechanics.

In this interpretation, it is assumed that at any instant of time  $t$ , the particles  $q_A$  and  $q_B$  will have definite positions  $\mathbf{x}_A$  and  $\mathbf{x}_B$  and definite momenta  $\mathbf{p}_A$  and  $\mathbf{p}_B$  respectively. But in addition to the positions and momenta of the particles, it is also assumed that there is a so-called **pilot wave**

$$\psi(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B, t) = r(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B, t)e^{iS(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B, t)} \quad \text{(2.20)}$$

where  $r(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B, t) > 0$  is the modulus of  $\psi(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B, t)$ , and the real-valued function  $S(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B, t)$  is the complex phase<sup>35</sup> of  $\psi(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B, t)$ . The time evolution of the pilot wave is deterministically governed by the Schrödinger equation, and the phase  $S(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B, t)$  relates the positions  $\mathbf{x}_A$  and  $\mathbf{x}_B$  to the momenta  $\mathbf{p}_A$  and  $\mathbf{p}_B$  via the gradient of  $S$ :

$$\mathbf{p}_A = \nabla_A S(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B), \quad \mathbf{p}_B = \nabla_B S(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B). \quad (2.21)$$

In other words, if we fix  $\mathbf{x}_B$  and consider  $S$  to be just a function of  $\mathbf{x}_A$ , then the momentum  $\mathbf{p}_A$  is in the direction and has the magnitude of the steepest ascent of  $S$  considered as a function of  $\mathbf{x}_A$ . The momentum  $\mathbf{p}_B$  is determined similarly.

In reality, we don't know the exact positions of all the particles, but based on what we know about an experimental setup, we can average over our uncertainty and recover exactly the same predictions that quantum mechanics would make.<sup>36</sup> So for instance, our knowledge of the experimental setup above should enable us to know that  $q_A$  and

<sup>35</sup>The **phase** of a complex number  $z$  is the angle  $\theta$  (in radians) such that  $z = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$  where  $r > 0$  is a real number called the **modulus**. Since  $\cos \theta + i \sin \theta = e^{i\theta}$ , it follows from (2.20) that  $r(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B, t) > 0$  is the modulus of  $\psi(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B, t)$ , and  $S(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B, t)$  is the phase of  $\psi(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B, t)$ .

<sup>36</sup>See David Bohm, "A Suggested Interpretation of the Quantum Theory in Terms of "Hidden" Variables. I," *Physical review* 85, no. 2 (1952): 166–179 and David Bohm, "A Suggested Interpretation of the Quantum Theory in Terms of "Hidden" Variables. II," *Physical review* 85, no. 2 (1952): 180–193.

$q_B$  are contained within a region  $V$ , and the experimental setup should also enable us to work out the probability  $p(V_i, V_j)$  that particle  $q_A$  will be in a region  $V_i$ , and  $q_B$  will be in a region  $V_j$ , where the  $V_i$  are small non-overlapping regions such that  $V = \bigcup_i V_i$ . If we are interested in some physical quantity  $O(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B)$  that depends on the positions  $\mathbf{x}_A$  and  $\mathbf{x}_B$  of the two particles, then when the regions  $V_i$  are sufficiently small so that almost everywhere,<sup>37</sup>  $O(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$  varies negligibly for any  $\mathbf{x}_i \in V_i$  and  $\mathbf{x}_j \in V_j$ , the average value (also known as the **expectation value**)

$$\langle O \rangle = \sum_{i,j} p(V_i, V_j) O(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) \quad \text{\{bohmconsistency\}} \quad (2.22)$$

calculated in the pilot wave interpretation turns out to be the same as the expectation value<sup>38</sup> for  $O$  predicted by standard quantum theory.<sup>39</sup>

To see why PI fails to hold in the pilot wave interpretation, we first note that since the pilot wave interpretation makes the same predictions as quantum mechanics when averaged over all the hidden variables, the violation of Bell's inequality (2.14) implies there must be some hidden variable  $\lambda$  and choices of measurement directions  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}$ , and  $\hat{\mathbf{c}}$  such that

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) > P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+) + P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) \quad \text{\{bellinequality2\}} \quad (2.23)$$

<sup>37</sup>When  $O(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B)$  is discontinuous, there may be some  $V_i \times V_j$  cells in which  $O(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B)$  varies non-negligibly for  $(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B) \in V_i \times V_j$ . But we assume that the sum of the  $p(V_i, V_j) \max_{(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) \in V_i \times V_j} |O(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)|$  terms for such cells is negligible.

<sup>38</sup>See (3.1) for the definition of the expectation value of an observable in standard quantum theory.

<sup>39</sup>In this explanation, I've refrained from using measure theory, but basically this explanation is saying that when we construct a measure  $\mu$  on  $V \times V$  based on our knowledge of the experimental setup,  $\int_{V \times V} O(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) d\mu$  will be the same as the expectation value for  $O$  predicted by standard quantum theory.

Since physics in the pilot wave interpretation is deterministic, probabilities must be either 0 or 1. Therefore, the only way (2.23) can be satisfied is for

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{b}}(\hat{a}+, \hat{b}+) = 1, \quad \text{PIPDproof1} \quad (2.27)$$

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{c}}(\hat{a}+, \hat{c}+) = 0, \quad \text{PIPDproof2} \quad (2.28)$$

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{c}, \hat{b}}(\hat{c}+, \hat{b}+) = 0. \quad \text{PIPDproof3} \quad (2.29)$$

We suppose that PI holds, and we will try to arrive at a contradiction. If both Alice and Bob make their measurement in the  $\hat{c}$ -direction, there are two possibilities: either Alice measures  $q_A$  to be in the state  $\hat{c}-$  and Bob measures  $q_B$  to be in the state  $\hat{c}+$ , or Alice measures  $q_A$  to be in the state  $\hat{c}+$  and Bob measures  $q_B$  to be in the state  $\hat{c}-$ . So expressed in terms of probabilities, these two possibilities are equivalent to either

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{c}, \hat{c}}(\hat{c}-, \hat{c}+) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad P_{\lambda, \hat{c}, \hat{c}}(\hat{c}+, \hat{c}-) = 0. \quad \text{PIDproofofcase1} \quad (2.30)$$

or

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{c}, \hat{c}}(\hat{c}+, \hat{c}-) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad P_{\lambda, \hat{c}, \hat{c}}(\hat{c}-, \hat{c}+) = 0. \quad \text{PIDproofofcase2} \quad (2.31)$$

Let's first consider case (2.30). Note that

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{c}, \hat{c}}(\hat{c}+, \hat{c}-) + P_{\lambda, \hat{c}, \hat{c}}(\hat{c}-, \hat{c}-) = 0. \quad (2.32)$$

<sup>40</sup>To see why this is, we consider the observable  $O_{\hat{a}+, \hat{b}+}(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B)$  which returns 1 if and only if the particle  $q_A$  will end up at location  $\hat{a}+$  and particle  $q_B$  will end up at location  $\hat{b}+$  as determined by the pilot wave, and otherwise  $O_{\hat{a}+, \hat{b}+}(\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B)$  returns 0. Then by (2.22),

$$P_{AB}(\hat{a}+, \hat{b}+) = \sum_{\lambda} p_{\lambda} P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{b}}(\hat{a}+, \hat{b}+) \quad \text{PIbohmconsistency2} \quad (2.24)$$

where  $P_{AB}(\hat{a}+, \hat{b}+)$  is the probability described in section 2.4,  $\lambda$  ranges over the pairs of indices  $(i, j)$  corresponding to the cell  $V_i \times V_j$ ,  $p_{\lambda} = p(V_i, V_j)$  for  $\lambda = (i, j)$ , and we have used the fact that  $P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{b}}(\hat{a}+, \hat{b}+) = O_{\hat{a}+, \hat{b}+}(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$  for almost all  $(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) \in V_i \times V_j$ . Now if (2.23) is false, then for all  $\lambda$ ,  $\hat{a}$ , and  $\hat{b}$ ,

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{b}}(\hat{a}+, \hat{b}+) \leq P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{c}}(\hat{a}+, \hat{c}+) + P_{\lambda, \hat{c}, \hat{b}}(\hat{c}+, \hat{b}+) \quad \text{PIfalsebellinequality2} \quad (2.25)$$

Therefore, since we are assuming PI,

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{c}}(\hat{a}+, \hat{c}-) + P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{c}}(\hat{a}-, \hat{c}-) = 0. \quad (2.33)$$

In particular,

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{c}}(\hat{a}+, \hat{c}-) = 0. \quad \text{(2.34)} \quad \{\text{PDproof4}\}$$

But by (2.27), we know that

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{b}}(\hat{a}+, \hat{b}+) + P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{b}}(\hat{a}+, \hat{b}-) = 1, \quad (2.35)$$

so using this together with PI, we must have

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{c}}(\hat{a}+, \hat{c}+) + P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{c}}(\hat{a}+, \hat{c}-) = 1. \quad \text{(2.36)} \quad \{\text{PDproof5}\}$$

But by (2.28) and (2.34)

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{c}}(\hat{a}+, \hat{c}+) + P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{c}}(\hat{a}+, \hat{c}-) = 0. \quad \text{(2.37)} \quad \{\text{PDproof6}\}$$

Since (2.36) contradicts (2.37), the assumption (2.30) must be false if PI is to hold.

So we now consider the alternative case when (2.31) holds. We will again see that this assumption leads to a contradiction. First note that

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{c}, \hat{c}}(\hat{c}-, \hat{c}+) + P_{\lambda, \hat{c}, \hat{c}}(\hat{c}-, \hat{c}-) = 0. \quad (2.38)$$

By PI

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{c}, \hat{b}}(\hat{c}-, \hat{b}+) + P_{\lambda, \hat{c}, \hat{b}}(\hat{c}-, \hat{b}-) = 0. \quad (2.39)$$

In particular,

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{c}, \hat{b}}(\hat{c}-, \hat{b}+) = 0. \quad \text{(2.40)} \quad \{\text{PDproof8}\}$$

Therefore, since  $p_\lambda \geq 0$ , it follows that

$$\sum_{\lambda} p_\lambda P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{b}}(\hat{a}+, \hat{b}+) \leq \sum_{\lambda} p_\lambda P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{c}}(\hat{a}+, \hat{c}+) + \sum_{\lambda} p_\lambda P_{\lambda, \hat{c}, \hat{b}}(\hat{c}+, \hat{b}+). \quad \text{(2.26)} \quad \{\text{falsebellinequality3}\}$$

But by (2.27), we know that

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) + P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}-, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) = 1, \quad (2.41)$$

so using this together with PI, we must have

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) + P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}-, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) = 1. \quad \text{tPDproof7} \quad (2.42)$$

But by (2.29) and (2.40)

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) + P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}-, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) = 0. \quad \text{tPDproof9} \quad (2.43)$$

Since (2.42) contradicts (2.43), the assumption (2.31) must also be false if PI is to hold. So we can only conclude that PI fails to hold in the pilot wave interpretation. But we can conclude even more than that: any deterministic hidden variable model that gives the same predictions as quantum mechanics when averaged over the hidden variables must violate PI.<sup>1</sup>

Now the violation of PI in the pilot wave interpretation does not sit easily with Einstein's theory of relativity, for according to Einstein's theory, it should be impossible to send signals faster than the speed of light. However, if PI is violated, then if Alice happened to know what  $\lambda$  was for each run of the experiment, and if Bob made the same measurement, then because the distribution of Alice's outcomes will depend on Bob's choice of measurement, with enough runs of the experiment, Alice should be able to work out what measurement Bob is making. And this should be possible even if Alice and Bob are separated by many light years. So it seems faster than light

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<sup>1</sup>It would therefore follow from (2.26) and (2.24) that Bell's inequality (2.14) would hold. But since (2.14) is experimentally violated, it is not the case that (2.25) holds for all  $\lambda$ ,  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ , and  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ . Hence, there must be some  $\lambda$ ,  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ , and  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ , for which (2.23) holds.

communication would be possible. The only thing preventing such communication would be Alice's lack of knowledge of  $\lambda$ .<sup>41</sup>

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<sup>41</sup>One might respond to this argument against PD by saying that in reality, Alice does not know anything about  $\lambda$  and hence it won't be possible for Bob to send signals faster than the speed of light to Alice. However, it would nevertheless be very strange if the validity of Einstein's theory of relativity hung on what human beings were capable of knowing rather than on the laws that actually governed physical reality itself. Also, the condition that Alice knows nothing about  $\lambda$  is not obviously a metaphysical necessity, and so until it shown that it is metaphysically necessary that Alice can know nothing about the  $\lambda$  of a theory in which PI is violated, adherents of Einstein's theory of relativity are right to have deep reservations about such a theory.

## 2.8 Outcome Independence<sup>OISec</sup>

Although a PI violation can account for the violation of Bell's Inequality, this is not the only possible culprit to consider. Another assumption of Bell's Inequality that might be violated is **Outcome Independence** (OI). Outcome independence is the assumption

$$P_{\lambda,x,y}(X, Y) = P_{A,\lambda,x,y}(X) \cdot P_{B,\lambda,x,y}(Y), \quad (2.44)$$

where  $P_{A,\lambda,x,y}(X)$  and  $P_{B,\lambda,x,y}(Y)$  are defined in equations (2.18) and (2.19) respectively.

So the difference between OI and PI is the following: with OI, given Alice and Bob's choice of measurements  $x$  and  $y$ , and the hidden variable  $\lambda$ , Alice and Bob's measurement outcomes will be statistically independent from one another, whereas with PI, given Alice's choice of measurement  $x$  and the hidden variable  $\lambda$ , whatever measurement choice Bob makes, this will have absolutely no effect on the probabilities of Alice's measurement outcomes, and similarly, Alice's choice of measurement will have absolutely no effect on the probabilities of Bob's measurement outcomes.

Now we can see that if OI holds in any model which gives the same predictions as standard quantum theory when averaged over the hidden variables, then PI must be violated in such a model. For if both PI and OI hold, then for any measurement

choices  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ ,  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ , and  $\hat{\mathbf{c}}$ , and hidden variable  $\lambda$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned}
P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+) &= P_{A, \lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+) \cdot P_{B, \lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+) \\
&= \left( P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+) + P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}-) \right) \cdot \left( P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+) + P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}-, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+) \right) \\
&= \left( P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+) + P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}-) \right) \cdot \left( \underbrace{P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+)}_0 + P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}-, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+) \right) \\
&= \left( P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) + P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}-) \right) \cdot P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}-, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+) \\
&\geq P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) \cdot P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}-, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+)
\end{aligned} \tag{2.45}$$

Similarly, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) &= P_{A, \lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+) \cdot P_{B, \lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{b}}+) \\
&= \left( P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) + P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}-) \right) \cdot \left( P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) + P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}-, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) \right) \\
&= \left( \underbrace{P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+)}_0 + P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}-) \right) \cdot \left( P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) + P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}-, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) \right) \\
&= P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}-) \cdot \left( P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) + P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}-, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) \right) \\
&\geq P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}-) \cdot P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+).
\end{aligned} \tag{2.46}$$

But since the hidden variable  $\lambda$  is assumed to be independent of Alice and Bob's measurement, and since Alice and Bob will always get opposite results when they make the same choice of measurement, it follows that

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}-) + P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}-, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+) = 1 \tag{2.47}$$

Therefore, putting (2.45), (2.46), and (2.47) together, we have

$$P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{c}}+) + P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{c}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+) \geq P_{\lambda, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{b}}+). \tag{2.48}$$

We have thus proved that OI and PI together imply Bell's Inequality (2.23). But since Bell's Inequality does not hold in reality, it follows that if OI is always true, then PI must be violated.<sup>42</sup>

**OIdet**

In the case of deterministic models in which there are outcomes,<sup>42</sup> OI necessarily holds.

To see why, we first note that for deterministic models, either  $P_{\lambda,x,y}(X, Y) = 1$  or  $P_{\lambda,x,y}(X, Y) = 0$ . When  $P_{\lambda,x,y}(X, Y) = 1$ , then by (2.18),  $P_{A,\lambda,x,y}(X) = 1$ , and by (2.19),  $P_{B,\lambda,x,y}(Y) = 1$ , so (2.44) is seen to hold in this case. On the other hand, when  $P_{\lambda,x,y}(X, Y) = 0$ , if  $P_{A,\lambda,x,y}(X) = 1$ , then by (2.18),  $P_{\lambda,x,y}(X, -Y) = 1$  so that by (2.19),  $P_{B,\lambda,x,y}(-Y) = 1$ , and hence  $P_{B,\lambda,x,y}(Y) = 0$  in which case (2.44) holds. And similarly, if  $P_{B,\lambda,x,y}(Y) = 1$ , by (2.19),  $P_{\lambda,x,y}(-X, Y) = 1$  so that by (2.18),  $P_{A,\lambda,x,y}(-X) = 1$ , and hence  $P_{A,\lambda,x,y}(X) = 0$ , so again (2.44) holds. And (2.44) obviously holds when  $P_{A,\lambda,x,y}(X) = P_{B,\lambda,x,y}(Y) = 0$ . It therefore follows that OI holds in any deterministic model. In particular, OI holds under the pilot wave interpretation.

When it comes to the Copenhagen interpretation of quantum physics, however, OI fails to hold. For instance, if  $x = y = \hat{\mathbf{a}}$ , then  $P_{\lambda,\hat{\mathbf{a}},\hat{\mathbf{a}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, \hat{\mathbf{a}}+) = 0$ , but  $P_{A,\lambda,\hat{\mathbf{a}},\hat{\mathbf{a}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+) = P_{B,\lambda,\hat{\mathbf{a}},\hat{\mathbf{a}}}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}+) = 1/2$ .<sup>43</sup> Hence, OI fails.

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<sup>42</sup>For deterministic models in which there are outcomes, the probability of a particular outcome given a complete description of a system will be either 0 or 1. For models in which there are no outcomes, such as the many-worlds interpretation which will be discussed in the next chapter, we can't speak of outcome independence.

<sup>43</sup>See footnote 34.

## 2.9 Peaceful Coexistence of Special Relativity and Quantum Physics

So far we've seen that PI holds in the Copenhagen interpretation (section 2.6), that OI holds in the pilot wave interpretation (section 2.8), and that due to the violation of Bell's inequality, it is not possible for both OI and PI to hold in a model that is consistent with physical reality (section 2.8). Nevertheless, as long as PI holds, the failure of OI does not enable Bob to send messages to Alice faster than light because Bob only has control over the measurement choice he makes rather than the outcome he observes. Assuming Bob's mental states have no effect on the measurement outcome, there is nothing he can do to influence his outcome, so although Alice will be able to work out Bob's measurement outcome if she already happens to know which choice of measurement he has made, she will not be able to work out which measurement Bob makes (or even whether Bob has made a measurement at all) by measuring the outcome of her particle. For Shimony,<sup>44</sup> this inability to send super-luminal messages between Alice and Bob when PI holds and OI is violated was deemed sufficient for the theories of standard quantum physics and special relativity to peacefully coexist.

However, Butterfield is not satisfied with Shimony's solution to peaceful coexistence.<sup>45</sup> Firstly, he notes that proofs of non-super-luminal signaling<sup>46</sup> make no assumptions about spacetime locations. One would have thought that any proof that super-luminal signalling between two points is impossible would have to show that a signal cannot

<sup>44</sup>See Shimony, "Events and processes in the quantum world," 146–147.

<sup>45</sup>See Butterfield, "Peaceful Coexistence: Examining Kent's Relativistic Solution to the Quantum Measurement Problem," p. 12.

<sup>46</sup>e.g. see Michael Redhead, *Incompleteness, nonlocality, and realism : a prolegomenon to the philosophy of quantum mechanics* (Oxford : New York: Clarendon Press ; Oxford University Press, 1987), p. 113–116; David Bohm and B. J Hiley, *The undivided universe : an ontological interpretation of quantum theory* (London: Routledge, 1993), p. 139–140

be transmitted from one point to the other in less time than the time it takes light to travel between the two points. But if nothing is said about the location of these two points or what is so special about the speed of light compared to the speed of any other particle, then there does not seem to be enough information in the premises to draw the desired conclusion that super-luminal signaling is impossible in quantum physics.

Secondly, Butterfield notes that Shimony thinks peaceful coexistence of quantum physics and special relativity is guaranteed by the denial of OI and the acceptance of PI. However, OI itself depends on the (often) rather vague notion of what an outcome really is. For instance, in the many-worlds interpretation, it is not clear that there are any outcomes at all. Rather, there is just a universal quantum state that tells us the probability of certain outcomes, if there were such things as outcomes – it doesn't tell us that there really are any outcomes. In the next chapter, we will discuss the many-worlds interpretation and why denying the reality of outcomes is such an unsatisfactory way of guarantying peaceful coexistence of quantum physics and special relativity. But as is clear from other interpretations of quantum physics, the notion of what an outcome is doesn't have to be vague. In the pilot wave interpretation of quantum physics, it is very clear what an outcome of an experiment is since all the particles have definite positions and momenta. Because of this, the pointers and displays of measuring devices which are made up of particles will have definite readouts which will correspond to the definite positions of particles being measured (assuming the measurement device is working properly). So unlike the many-worlds interpretation, measurements in the pilot wave interpretation have definite outcomes,

and hence there is only a single world in the pilot wave interpretation of quantum physics. But as we've just seen, the problem with the pilot wave interpretation is the violation of PI.

Thus, a satisfactory account of the peaceful coexistence of quantum physics and special relativity requires an interpretation of quantum physics in which not only PI holds, but also an interpretation of quantum physics that has special relativity built into it (thus satisfying Butterfield's first objection), and in which we can make sense of what it means to be an outcome (thus satisfying Butterfield's second objection).

To fully address Butterfield's first objection would require quantum field theory, and this would be beyond the scope of this dissertation. But a more modest aspiration that would go some way to address Butterfield's first objection would be to insist on an interpretation of quantum physics which has a clear notion of outcome and which also has a property known as Lorentz invariance. This provides a motivation for the consideration of Kent's theory of quantum physics that has this property of Lorentz invariance. But before we consider Kent's theory, in the next chapter we will examine the many-worlds interpretation of quantum physics discussing both its appeal and its drawbacks.

## 2.10 Summary

In this chapter, we have considered the EPR-Bohm paradox and the problem it raises of how to account for the mysterious correlations between the measurement outcomes of two observers measuring the spin properties of spin singlets. The question the

EPR-Bohm paradox raises is how one can account for these correlations in a way that is consistent with special relativity and the predictions of standard quantum theory.

The Copenhagen interpretation in which the act of observation causes the quantum state to collapse does not seem to be consistent with special relativity. Theories such as the GRW interpretation which posit the spontaneous collapse of quantum states make predictions that violate the predictions of standard quantum theory, and to date, there is no experimental evidence for such violations.

If the proposed theory posits the existence of hidden variables in addition to the traditional quantum state of standard quantum theory, then it is not possible for the theory to satisfy both Parameter Independence (PI) and Outcome Independence (OI) because otherwise, Bell's inequality would hold in this theory, and this is not consistent with the violation of Bell's inequality in physical reality. A denial of PI would allow for the superluminal propagation of signals if one knew the hidden variables, and so without a compelling reason for why these hidden variables must be unknown, denying PI does not sit easily with special relativity in which superluminal signalling is impossible. The denial of OI seems more promising, but this approach by itself is not sufficient to provide an adequate account of the mysterious correlations of the EPR-Bohm paradox since it does not address the thorny issue of what we mean by outcome or whether there is in fact any physical reality to outcomes at all.

One theory that denies the reality of experimental outcomes is the many-worlds interpretation. In the next chapter, we will discuss the many-worlds interpretation

in some detail, and we will see why it does not provide a satisfactory account of the correlations of the EPR-Bohm paradox.

## Chapter 3

### The Measurement Problem and the Many-Worlds Interpretation<sup>measprobchap</sup>

In the previous chapter we discussed the EPR-Bohm paradox which exhibits the mysterious correlations of measurement outcomes made on spin singlets by two different observers. We saw that the standard Copenhagen interpretation of quantum physics (which posits that upon measurement an instantaneous state collapse to a definite measurement outcome occurs) must be rejected if one is to accept Einstein's theory of special relativity. Furthermore, we saw that the experimental violation of Bell's inequality implies that a local hidden variables theory must also be rejected. We also discussed Shimony's suggestion that it would be acceptable to have non-local hidden variables so long as they satisfied Parameter Independence (PI) but failed to satisfy Outcome Independence (OI), since Bell's inequality wouldn't then follow from these two assumptions, and the denial of OI is a sufficiently weak form of non-locality that it doesn't imply superluminal singaling. Thus, Shimony argued that accepting PI and denying OI was sufficient for the peaceful coexistence of quantum physics and special relativity. However, Shimony's solution rests on there being a clear notion of what an outcome is. But the question of what an outcome is and even whether there are such things as measurement outcomes is very controversial and forms an important part of what is known as the measurement problem.

The measurement problem actually consists of three parts: (1) the preferred basis problem, (2) the nonobservability of interference at the macroscopic level, and (3) the

problem of outcomes.<sup>1</sup> Decoherence theory is able to resolve parts (1) and (2) of the measurement problem, and following Schlosshauer, we will explain how this is done, but as we will see (also following Schlosshauer), decoherence theory is not able to resolve the part (3) of the measurement problem, the problem of outcomes.

The problem of outcomes arises when we suppose that the quantum state gives a complete description of the system it is describing.<sup>2</sup> Throughout this chapter we will make this assumption, that is, we will assume there are no hidden variables, whether local or otherwise; rather, a quantum state whose evolution is described by the Schrödinger equation provides the most complete description possible of a physical system.

In this chapter, we will be discussing the measurement problem in some detail, and in particular, we will be examining the many-worlds interpretation of quantum physics which attempts to sidestep the problem of outcomes by refusing to acknowledge the reality of outcomes. Although the many-worlds interpretation is mathematically appealing, we'll see that from a philosophical point of view, it is woefully inadequate. Hence, any account of the mysterious correlations of the EPR-Bohm paradox (as described in chapter 2) that depended on the many-worlds interpretation would be unsatisfactory. Nevertheless, an understanding of the many-worlds interpretation and

<sup>1</sup>See Maximilian Schlosshauer, *Decoherence and the Quantum-to-Classical Transition* (Berlin: Springer-Verlag, 2007), 50

<sup>2</sup>We need to make a small caveat here – the example of the quantum states we have described so far such as  $|\hat{a}\rangle$  and  $|\Psi_{\text{Bell}}\rangle$  only give a complete description of the spin state of a system. These states don't say anything about the position of the system's particles. Nevertheless, we could in principle write down an expression for the state that did include this positional information. We will therefore think of the expressions such as  $|\hat{a}\rangle$  and  $|\Psi_{\text{Bell}}\rangle$  as abbreviations for quantum states that also include a complete specification of the particle positions which in the context of quantum physics will be a wave function that determines the probability the particles can be detected in a particular region.

how it relates to the problem of outcomes will prove helpful when we come to evaluate Kent's theory of quantum physics in the following chapter.

### 3.1 A preliminary consideration of the many-worlds interpretation

In the previous chapter, we saw that in order to calculate the probabilities of the various measurement outcomes of an experiment, we can do this by positing that the state describing the item being measured is in a superposition of two states each of which corresponds to a definite measurement outcome. For example, in the case of a spin singlet, the quantum state of the two particles can be expressed as the Bell state

$$|\Psi_{\text{Bell}}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_B - |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_B). \quad (2.8 \text{ revisited})$$

which is a superposition of the two definite measurement outcome states  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_B$  and  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_B$ . But at this stage in our line of reasoning, it is too early to resort to a many-worlds interpretation of the Bell state where the first component corresponds to a world in which Alice detects her particle at location  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}+$  and Bob detects his particle at location  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}-$ , and where the second component corresponds to a world in which Alice detects her particle at location  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}-$  and Bob detects his particle at location  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}+$ . Such an interpretation would be premature because as mentioned on page 21, for any other axis  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ , the transformation rules in equation (2.2) imply that

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_B - |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_B) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{b}}-\rangle_B - |\hat{\mathbf{b}}-\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle_B). \end{aligned} \quad (2.11 \text{ revisited})$$

Similarly, given the transformation rules in equation (2.2), we should resist the temptation to interpret a state of the form  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle + |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle)$  as representing two worlds, one in which the particle is in the state  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$ , and another in which the particle is in the state  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle$ . For according to equation (2.2a), the much more obvious

interpretation is that this state just describes one world in which the particle is in the state  $|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle$  where the angle between the  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$  and the  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$  axis is  $90^\circ$ .<sup>3</sup>

In order to make a case for a many-worlds interpretation, we need to discuss decoherence theory. Decoherence theory considers how a system interacts with its environment, and it allows us to understand what kinds of measurements can be made on the system. In order to discuss decoherence theory and its relevance to the many-worlds interpretation, we first need to introduce the mathematical formalism of quantum mechanics.

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<sup>3</sup>This is because when  $\theta = 90^\circ$ ,  $\sin(\theta/2) = \cos(\theta/2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ , so  $|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle + |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle)$  in equation (2.2a) with  $\theta = 90^\circ$ .

### 3.2 The mathematical formalism of quantum mechanics

Given a possible kind of measurement (e.g. measuring the spin of a particle along a particular axis), there will be a mathematical object called an **observable** which encodes all the possible measurement outcomes for this particular kind of measurement. The precise mathematical definition of an observable is as follows: an observable of a physical system is a Hermitian operator that acts on the Hilbert space of states describing the physical system. In order to understand what this definition means, there are a number of things we need to explain: what a Hilbert space is, what a Hermitian operator is, and how a Hermitian operator relates to a particular kind of measurement. In order to explain all this, it will be helpful to keep in mind the simple example of an experimenter Alice making a spin measurement on a particle along an axis  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ . In performing this measurement, we suppose she has a physical measurement device which we denote as  $O_{\hat{\mathbf{a}}+}$  and which outputs 1 if the particle is in the spin  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$ -state and 0 if the particle is in the spin  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle$ -state. This measurement device will have a corresponding observable which we will denote by  $\hat{O}_{\hat{\mathbf{a}}+}$  and which we will describe shortly once we have defined what a Hilbert space is.<sup>4</sup>

To motivate the definition of a Hilber space, recall that the states  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$  and  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle$  representing the spin of a particle can be added to give the spin state  $|\hat{\mathbf{b}}+\rangle$  and  $|\hat{\mathbf{b}}-\rangle$  as seen in equation (2.2). Also, recall that if we have two states  $|\psi\rangle$  and  $|\chi\rangle$ , we can define their bra-ket  $\langle\chi|\psi\rangle$  to be a complex number satisfying the Born Rule so that  $|\langle\chi|\psi\rangle|^2$  is the probability  $P(\chi|\psi)$  that the particle will be found to be in state  $|\chi\rangle$

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<sup>4</sup>Note that in contrast to the physical object  $O_{\hat{\mathbf{a}}+}$ , we're taking  $\hat{O}_{\hat{\mathbf{a}}+}$  to be a mathematical object, a Hermitian operator on a Hilbert space.

given that we know that the particle is in state  $|\psi\rangle$ . We thus imposed the assumption that  $\langle\psi|\psi\rangle = 1$  for any state  $|\psi\rangle$ .

Now in order to arrive at a definition of a Hilbert space, we first need to relax this normalization condition  $\langle\psi|\psi\rangle = 1$ . Thus, if  $|\psi\rangle$  is a state and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  is any non-zero complex number, then we allow  $|\psi'\rangle = \lambda|\psi\rangle$  also to be a state with the caveat that  $|\psi'\rangle$  represents exactly the same physical state as  $|\psi\rangle$ , and that  $\langle\psi'|\psi'\rangle = |\lambda|^2 \langle\psi|\psi\rangle$ . We define  $\|\psi\| = \sqrt{\langle\psi|\psi\rangle}$  and we say that  $|\psi\rangle$  has been **normalized** when  $\|\psi\| = 1$ . Now when calculating probabilities, we need to remember to include a normalization factor. Thus, the probability that the particle will be found to be in state  $|\chi\rangle$  given that we know that the particle is in state  $|\psi\rangle$  will now be  $P(\chi|\psi) = \frac{|\langle\chi|\psi\rangle|^2}{\|\psi\|\|\chi\|}$ .<sup>5</sup> It is dropping the assumption  $\|\psi\| = 1$  on the states of a physical system that gives rise to the mathematical structure known as a Hilbert Space.

A **Hilbert space** is a set  $H$  in which

1. any two members of  $H$  can be added to obtain another member of  $H$ ,
2. any member of  $H$  can be multiplied by any complex number to obtain another member of  $H$ ,
3. one can take the bra-ket of any two members of  $H$  to obtain a complex number

subject to some natural axioms.<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>5</sup>If there is no such normalization factor because  $\|\psi\| = 0$ , then  $|\psi\rangle$  does not represent a physical state, so the probability the system is ever in this state will be zero, and so in this case we will set  $P(\chi|\psi) = P(\psi|\chi) = 0$ .

A very simple example of a Hilbert space would be the set of states

$$\{\alpha |\hat{a}+\rangle + \beta |\hat{a}-\rangle : \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}\}.$$

As we will soon see, the observable corresponding to the measurement device  $O_{\hat{a}+}$  will be the operator  $\hat{O}_{\hat{a}+}$  that sends the state  $\alpha |\hat{a}+\rangle + \beta |\hat{a}-\rangle$  to the state  $\alpha |\hat{a}+\rangle$ .

More generally, suppose we have an experimental setup (for example the Stern-Gerlach experiment) where a physical system can be in one of several measurable states  $|\psi_1\rangle, \dots, |\psi_N\rangle \in H$ . The physical system could also be in a state described by a sum of some of the  $|\psi_1\rangle, \dots, |\psi_N\rangle$ , but by saying the system is in one of these  $|\psi_1\rangle, \dots, |\psi_N\rangle$  measurable states, we mean that there is a measuring device that will always give the same measurement outcome whenever the system is in the same

<sup>6</sup>More formally, a complex Hilbert space  $H$  is a complex vector space possessing a bra-ket. By a **complex vector space**, we mean a set  $V$  such that the following axioms are satisfied

- $\psi + (\chi + \zeta) = (\psi + \chi) + \zeta, \forall \lambda, \chi, \zeta \in V$
- $\psi + \chi = \chi + \psi, \forall \psi, \chi \in V$
- there exists an element  $\mathbf{0} \in V$  such that  $\psi + \mathbf{0} = \psi, \forall \psi \in V$ .
- $\forall \psi \in V$  there exists an element  $-\psi \in V$  such that  $\psi + (-\psi) = \mathbf{0}$ .
- $\forall \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{C}$  (i.e. in the set of complex numbers – this is why it is called a *complex* vector space), and  $\psi \in V$ ,  $\lambda(\mu\psi) = (\lambda\mu)\psi$ .
- for the scalar  $1 \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $1\psi = \psi, \forall \psi \in V$
- $\lambda(\psi + \chi) = \lambda\psi + \lambda\chi, \forall \psi, \chi \in V$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$
- $(\lambda + \mu)\psi = \lambda\psi + \mu\psi, \forall \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $\psi \in V$ .

A **Hilbert space**  $H$  is a complex vector space possessing a bra-ket. Strictly speaking, a Hilbert space also has a property called completeness, but this property need not concern us here. In quantum theory, elements of  $H$  are expressed in terms of kets,  $|\cdot\rangle$ . Kets behave like vectors, so for  $|\psi\rangle, |\chi\rangle \in H$  and  $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{C}$ , we have  $\lambda|\psi\rangle + \mu|\chi\rangle = |\lambda\psi + \mu\chi\rangle$ . The bra-ket of  $|\psi\rangle$  and  $|\chi\rangle$  is then written as  $\langle\psi|\chi\rangle$ , and it satisfies the following axioms:

- $\langle\psi|\chi\rangle \in \mathbb{C}, \forall \psi, \chi \in H$ .
- $\langle\psi|\chi\rangle = \overline{\langle\chi|\psi\rangle}, \forall \psi, \chi \in H$ .
- $\langle\psi|\psi\rangle \geq 0, \forall |\psi\rangle \in H$  and  $\langle\psi|\psi\rangle = 0$  if and only if  $|\psi\rangle = \mathbf{0}$ .
- $\langle\zeta|\lambda\psi + \mu\chi\rangle = \lambda\langle\zeta|\psi\rangle + \mu\langle\zeta|\chi\rangle, \forall |\psi\rangle, |\chi\rangle, |\zeta\rangle \in H$  and  $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{C}$ .

measurable state.<sup>7</sup> We also assume **orthonormality**, that is we assume  $\langle \psi_i | \psi_i \rangle = 1$  and  $\langle \psi_i | \psi_j \rangle = 0$  for  $i \neq j$  so that if the system is measured to be in the  $|\psi_j\rangle$ -state, then there would be zero probability that it could then be measured to be in the  $|\psi_i\rangle$ -state for  $i \neq j$ .

Now suppose that for each measurable state  $|\psi_i\rangle$ , we assign a real number  $o_i$ . There might be a very natural way of doing this, such as assigning  $o_i$  to be the angle by which a pointer of a measurement device is deflected when the system is in the state  $|\psi_i\rangle$ , but the assignment could be as ad hoc as we wished – we can just think of it as the measurement value an experimenter records when he or she observes a particular measurement outcome. Given such an assignment of measurement values, the corresponding observable  $\hat{O}$  would be a mapping of states to states satisfying the following rules:

1.  $\hat{O} |\psi_i\rangle = o_i |\psi_i\rangle$
2.  $\hat{O}(\lambda |\psi\rangle + \mu |\chi\rangle) = \lambda \hat{O} |\psi\rangle + \mu \hat{O} |\chi\rangle$  for all states  $|\psi\rangle, |\chi\rangle \in H$  and complex numbers  $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{C}$ .

When a mapping  $\hat{O}$  satisfies rule 2., we refer to  $\hat{O}$  as an **operator** on  $H$ . Since the measurement device  $O_{\hat{\mathbf{a}}+}$  outputs a value of 1 when the particle is in the  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$ -state and 0 when the particle is in the  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle$ -state, it is now clear from rule 1 and 2 why the corresponding observable  $\hat{O}_{\hat{\mathbf{a}}+}$  will be the operator that sends the state  $\alpha |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle + \beta |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle$  to  $\alpha |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$ .

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<sup>7</sup>When the state is described as a non-trivial sum of the measurable states, we no longer have such certainty, and instead we can only speak of probabilities based on the coefficients on the measurable states.

For a given physical state  $|\psi\rangle \in H$ , we define the expected measurement value (usually referred to as the **expectation value**) of  $\hat{O}$  to be

$$\langle \hat{O} \rangle_{\psi} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{i=1}^N p_i o_i, \quad \{ \text{expectation2} \}_{(3.1)}$$

where  $p_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, N$  is the probability the particle will be found to be in the state  $|\psi_i\rangle$  given that it is in the state  $|\psi\rangle$  so that  $\sum_{i=1}^N p_i = 1$ . If we were to perform the same measurement corresponding to the observable  $\hat{O}$  on many systems that were in the state  $|\psi\rangle$  and calculated the average measurement outcome from all these measurements, then this average should be approximately equal to the value given in (3.1) if the standard theory of quantum mechanics is correct. Because this expectation value  $\langle \hat{O} \rangle_{\psi}$  will depend on the state  $|\psi\rangle$  the system is in, we include the subscript  $\psi$ . For instance, if the system is in the  $|\psi_i\rangle$ -state, then the expectation value of the measurement will be  $o_i$  since the probability that the state is in the state  $|\psi_i\rangle$  will be 1, so that  $p_i = 1$  and  $p_j = 0$  for all  $j \neq i$ . But more generally, if the system was in an arbitrary state  $|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i |\psi_i\rangle$  with  $\|\psi\| = 1$ , then it turns out that

$$\langle \hat{O} \rangle_{\psi} = \langle \psi | \hat{O} | \psi \rangle. \quad \{ \text{evey} \}_{(3.2)}$$

We can see that this formula is correct in the simple example when the system is in the  $|\psi_i\rangle$ -state, for in this case, the expectation value should be  $o_i$ , and we clearly have  $\langle \psi_i | \hat{O} | \psi_i \rangle = o_i$  since  $\hat{O} |\psi_i\rangle = o_i |\psi_i\rangle$  and  $\langle \psi_i | \psi_i \rangle = 1$ . Hence,  $\langle \hat{O} \rangle_{\psi_i} = \langle \psi_i | \hat{O} | \psi_i \rangle$  as expected.

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<sup>8</sup>**footnote\_1** To see this, note that  $\alpha_i = \langle \psi_i | \psi \rangle$  from which it follows that if we define the mapping  $I = \sum_{i=1}^N |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i|$  then  $I |\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^N |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i| \psi \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^N \langle \psi_i | \psi \rangle |\psi_i\rangle = |\psi\rangle$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi | \hat{O} | \psi \rangle &= \langle \psi | \hat{O} I | \psi \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^N \langle \psi | \hat{O} | \psi_i \rangle \langle \psi_i | \psi \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^N o_i \langle \psi | \psi_i \rangle \langle \psi_i | \psi \rangle \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N o_i |\langle \psi_i | \psi \rangle|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N o_i p_i = \langle \hat{O} \rangle_{\psi}. \end{aligned}$$

To say that  $\hat{O}$  is **Hermitian** is to say that  $\langle \psi | \hat{O} | \psi \rangle$  is a real number for any arbitrary state  $|\psi\rangle$ . Thus, the observable  $\hat{O}$  defined by the two criteria above is a Hermitian operator acting on the Hilbert space of states  $H$  since we are assuming the  $o_i$  are all real numbers. Roughly speaking, we can assume<sup>9</sup> that given a Hermitian operator  $\hat{O}$  on a Hilbert space of states  $H$ , any state  $|\psi\rangle \in H$  can be expressed as a (possibly infinite) sum

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i |\psi_i\rangle \quad \text{\{span\}} \quad (3.3)$$

where  $\hat{O} |\psi_i\rangle = o_i |\psi_i\rangle$  for some set of states  $|\psi_i\rangle$  referred to as **eigenstates** of  $\hat{O}$ , and real numbers  $o_i$  referred to as **eigenvalues** of  $\hat{O}$ . We will typically assume that the  $|\psi_i\rangle$  are orthonormal. Orthonormality of the  $|\psi_i\rangle$  will entail that the coefficients  $\alpha_i$  will be uniquely determined by the formula  $\alpha_i = \langle \psi_i | \psi \rangle$ . Thus, this set of eigenstates  $\{|\psi_1\rangle, \dots, |\psi_N\rangle\}$  satisfies the criterion for being a **basis** of the Hilbert space of states  $H$ , namely, every state  $|\psi\rangle \in H$  can be uniquely expressed by a summation of the form given in equation (3.3).<sup>10</sup> We refer to an expression of the form (3.3) as a **linear combination** of the basis  $\{|\psi_1\rangle, \dots, |\psi_N\rangle\}$ .

<sup>9</sup>Strictly speaking, we require a Hermitian operator to have a property known as compactness for this assumption to hold.

<sup>10</sup>Note that although for a given basis, equation (3.3) will be unique, there will be many different bases, and the  $\alpha_i$  coefficients will depend on which basis is chosen.

### 3.3 The Preferred Basis Problem<sup>11</sup>

Now just because we can have an observable  $\hat{O}$ , there is no guarantee that there is a measuring device that could determine whether the system was in one of the eigenstates of  $\hat{O}$ . For instance, if  $|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle$  is the physical state in which a cat is alive, and  $|\text{Cat Dead}\rangle$  is the physical state in which the same cat is dead, then although there are measuring devices that can distinguish between the  $|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle$ -state and the  $|\text{Cat Dead}\rangle$ -state,<sup>12</sup> there are no known measuring devices that can distinguish between the  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle + |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle)$ -state and the  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle - |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle)$ -state. On the other hand, there are measuring devices that can distinguish between the  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle + |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle)$ -state and the  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle - |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle)$ -state in a Stern-Gerlach experiment.

Why the difference?

This question is at the heart of the **preferred basis problem**. As mentioned already, a basis is just a set of states via which all other states of the system can be uniquely expressed. For instance, we can express the state  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle + |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle)$  uniquely as a sum of elements from the basis  $\{|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle, |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle\}$ , and thus we think of  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle + |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle)$  as being a superposition of the  $|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle$  and  $|\text{Cat Dead}\rangle$  basis states. However, we can also uniquely express  $|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle$  in terms of the basis  $\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle + |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle), \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle - |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle)\}$ .<sup>13</sup> Nevertheless, we would not tend to think of  $|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle$  as being in a superposition of the  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle + |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle)$  and  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle - |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle)$  basis states. That is, we have a preference for the basis  $\{|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle, |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle\}$  over the basis

<sup>11</sup>See Schlosshauer, *Decoherence and the Quantum-to-Classical Transition*, 53–55.

<sup>12</sup>For example, we assume that human beings can be thought of as such measuring devices.

<sup>13</sup>i.e.  $|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle + |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle)\right) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle - |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle)\right)$ .

$\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle + |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle), \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle - |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle)\}$ . We refer to a basis whose basis states our measuring device can distinguish between as a **preferred basis**.

As will be shown in section 3.5, decoherence theory offers a very elegant solution to the preferred basis problem.

### 3.4 Decoherence theory<sup>decotheory</sup><sup>14</sup>

Before we can show how decoherence theory solves the preferred basis problem, we will first need to look at decoherence theory in general. To understand what's going on in decoherence theory, there are a number of things we need to discuss, namely

1. composite systems
2. entanglement
3. density matrices and traces
4. coherence
5. partial traces and reduced density matrices
6. the von Neumann measurement scheme
7. decoherence

#### 3.4.1 Composite Systems

First we need to consider **composite systems**. We thus assume there is a distinction between what is being measured and the rest of physical reality. We denote the system that is being measured by  $\mathcal{S}$  and the rest of physical reality by  $\mathcal{E}$ . We will refer to  $\mathcal{E}$  as the environment, and we will denote the composite system of  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$  by  $\mathcal{U}$ . We will often indicate that  $\mathcal{U}$  is a composite of systems  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$  by writing  $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{S} + \mathcal{E}$ . The system  $\mathcal{S}$  could be something microscopic like a silver atom, or something much bigger such as a cat or even a planet or galaxy.

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\* As mentioned in the introduction on page 5, sections marked with an asterisk may be challenging to readers who do not have a mathematics or physics background.

<sup>14</sup>For more details see Schlosshauer, *Decoherence and the Quantum-to-Classical Transition*, ch. 2.

Now suppose we have an observable (i.e. any Hermitian operator)  $\hat{O}_S$  that acts on the Hilbert space  $H_S$  of states of  $\mathcal{S}$ . As already mentioned, this means that we can find orthonormal eigenstates  $|\psi_i\rangle_S$  of  $\hat{O}_S$  and corresponding eigenvalues  $o_i$  such that any state  $|\psi\rangle_S \in H_S$  can be uniquely expressed as a sum  $|\psi\rangle_S = \sum_{i=1}^M \alpha_i |\psi_i\rangle_S$ . We will often include the subscript  $S$  on the ket-vectors in order to make it clear that these ket-vectors belong to the Hilbert space  $H_S$ . At other times we will omit these subscripts when it is clear what system we are talking about, but for the time being, we will keep these subscripts in place.

Now let us suppose we have a basis of normalized (but not necessarily orthonormal) states  $\{|\chi_i\rangle_\mathcal{E} : i\}$  for the state space  $H_\mathcal{E}$  of  $\mathcal{E}$ . In other words, every state  $|\chi\rangle_\mathcal{E} \in H_\mathcal{E}$  can be uniquely expressed as a linear combination  $|\chi\rangle_\mathcal{E} = \sum_{i=1}^N \beta_i |\chi_i\rangle_\mathcal{E}$ . It is then assumed we will be able to express every state  $|\xi\rangle_U \in H_U$  of the composite system  $\mathcal{U}$  as a linear combination

$$|\xi\rangle_U = \sum_{i=1}^M \sum_{j=1}^N \gamma_{i,j} |\psi_i\rangle_S |\chi_j\rangle_\mathcal{E}. \quad \text{(3.4)} \quad \text{\{entangled\}}$$

Thus, we assume there are no emergent physical properties describing the composite system  $\mathcal{U}$  that couldn't be expressed in terms of the component subsystems  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$ . The Hilbert space  $H_U$  is endowed with the bra-ket  $\langle\xi'|\xi\rangle_U$  such that if  $|\xi\rangle_U = |\psi\rangle_S |\chi\rangle_\mathcal{E}$  and  $|\xi'\rangle_U = |\psi'\rangle_S |\chi'\rangle_\mathcal{E}$ , then  $\langle\xi'|\xi\rangle_U = \langle\psi'|\psi\rangle_S \langle\chi'|\chi\rangle_\mathcal{E}$  where we have again used subscripts to indicate which Hilbert space the bra-ket corresponds to.

### 3.4.2 Entanglement

By defining the bra-ket on the Hilbert space  $H_U$  as we have done, we are making the assumption that if we define  $P(\psi', \chi'|\psi, \chi)$  to be the probability the composite

system would be measured to be in the  $|\psi'\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |\chi'\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ -state given that the composite system was known to be in the  $|\psi\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |\chi\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ -state, then  $P(\psi', \chi'|\psi, \chi) = P(\psi'|\psi)P(\chi'|\chi)$ . A consequence of this assumption is that if the composite system is in the  $|\psi\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |\chi\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ -state, the probability of finding system  $\mathcal{S}$  to be in any particular state in  $H_{\mathcal{S}}$  will be independent<sup>15</sup> of the state in  $H_{\mathcal{E}}$  describing  $\mathcal{E}$ . For this reason, when the state  $|\xi\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} \in H_{\mathcal{U}}$  describing the composite system  $\mathcal{U}$  is expressible as a product state  $|\xi\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} = |\psi\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |\chi\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ , we say that  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$  are **not entangled** with one another. On the other hand, when the state  $|\xi\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} \in H_{\mathcal{U}}$  of the composite system  $\mathcal{U}$  cannot be expressed as a product state, we say that  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$  are **entangled**. For example, if  $|\xi\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\psi_1\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |\chi_1\rangle_{\mathcal{E}} + |\psi_2\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |\chi_2\rangle_{\mathcal{E}})$  with  $|\psi_1\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} \not\propto |\psi_2\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}$  and  $|\chi_1\rangle_{\mathcal{E}} \not\propto |\chi_2\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ ,<sup>16</sup> then  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$  would be entangled with one another.

Now given the observable  $\hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}}$  acting on  $H_{\mathcal{S}}$ , we can naturally define the observable  $\hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}}$  acting on  $H_{\mathcal{U}}$  so that

$$\hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}} |\xi\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} = \sum_{i=1}^M \sum_{j=1}^N \gamma_{i,j} \hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}} |\psi_i\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |\chi_j\rangle_{\mathcal{E}} = \sum_{i=1}^M \sum_{j=1}^N \gamma_{i,j} o_i |\psi_i\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |\chi_j\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}. \quad (3.5)$$

Just as in equation (3.2), for a given normalized state  $|\xi\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} \in H_{\mathcal{U}}$ , the expectation value of the observable  $\hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}}$  will be  $\langle \hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}} \rangle_{\xi} = \langle \xi | \hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}} | \xi \rangle_{\mathcal{U}}$ . It is easy to see that if  $|\xi\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} = |\psi\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |\chi\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$  (i.e.  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$  are not entangled), then  $\langle \hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}} \rangle_{\xi} = \langle \hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}} \rangle_{\psi}$ .<sup>17</sup> Thus, when  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$  are not entangled with one another, it is possible to say things about  $\mathcal{S}$

<sup>15</sup>Here we are using the standard probabilistic definition of independence as given by (2.3) on page 18: two events  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent if and only if  $P(X \text{ and } Y \text{ occur}) = P(X \text{ occurs})P(Y \text{ occurs})$ .

<sup>16</sup>Here the notation  $|\psi_1\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} \propto |\psi_2\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}$  means there exists some  $\alpha$  such that  $|\psi_1\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} = \alpha |\psi_2\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}$ , in which case  $|\xi\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\alpha |\chi_1\rangle_{\mathcal{E}} + |\chi_2\rangle_{\mathcal{E}})$ . Thus, if  $|\psi_1\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} \propto |\psi_2\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}$ , then  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$  would not be entangled. This is why in the above example, we assume  $|\psi_1\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} \not\propto |\psi_2\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}$ , that is, we assume there is no such  $\alpha$  such that  $|\psi_1\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} = \alpha |\psi_2\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}$ , and for the same reason we assume  $|\chi_1\rangle_{\mathcal{E}} \not\propto |\chi_2\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ .

<sup>17</sup>This is because by definition, if  $|\xi\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} = |\psi\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |\chi\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$  and  $|\xi'\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} = |\psi'\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |\chi'\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ , then  $\langle \xi' | \xi \rangle_{\mathcal{U}} = \langle \psi' | \psi \rangle_{\mathcal{S}} \langle \chi' | \chi \rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ . We will also have  $\hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}} |\xi\rangle = \hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}} |\psi\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |\chi\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ . Thus, assuming both  $|\psi\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}$  and  $|\chi\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$  are normalized, we have  $\langle \hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}} \rangle_{\xi} = \langle \xi | \hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}} | \xi \rangle = \langle \psi | \hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}} | \psi \rangle_{\mathcal{S}} \langle \chi | \chi \rangle_{\mathcal{E}} = \langle \hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}} \rangle_{\psi}$ .

independently of the current state of the environment  $\mathcal{E}$ . In this case we need have no knowledge of the information about  $\mathcal{E}$  encapsulated in the state  $|\chi\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$  to determine the expectation value  $\langle \hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}} \rangle_{\xi}$ .

However, for a general entangled state  $|\xi\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} = \sum_{i=1}^M \sum_{j=1}^N \gamma_{i,j} |\psi_i\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |\chi_j\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ ,  $\langle \hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}} \rangle_{\xi}$  will typically depend on the  $|\chi_j\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ -states and the coefficients  $\gamma_{i,j}$ . Nevertheless, despite there being a huge amount of information contained within these  $|\chi_j\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ -states and the  $\gamma_{i,j}$ , if we are only interested in making measurements on the system  $\mathcal{S}$ , nearly all this information can be discarded. In order to see how this is done, we need to generalize the notion of a state to that of a density matrix.

### 3.4.3 Density Matrices and Traces

Given a normalized state  $|\psi\rangle$  in any Hilbert space  $H$ , its density matrix will be the operator  $\hat{\rho}_{\psi} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$  which acts on  $H$  by sending an arbitrary state  $|\psi'\rangle$  to  $\langle\psi|\psi'\rangle |\psi\rangle$ . Note that  $\hat{\rho}_{\psi}$  is a Hermitian operator.<sup>18</sup> Also note that if we had a measuring device that returned the output 1 if a system was in the state  $|\psi\rangle$  and 0 if the system was in a state  $|\chi\rangle$  with  $\langle\psi|\chi\rangle = 0$ , the density matrix  $\hat{\rho}_{\psi}$  would be the observable corresponding to this measurement. The expectation value of this measurement for an initial normalized state  $|\psi'\rangle$  would then be  $\langle\psi'|\hat{\rho}_{\psi}|\psi'\rangle = |\langle\psi|\psi'\rangle|^2 = P(\psi|\psi')$ . In particular, if the system was initially in the state  $|\psi\rangle$ , the expectation value of this measurement would be 1.

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<sup>18</sup>This is because for any arbitrary state  $|\psi'\rangle$ ,  $\langle\psi'|\hat{\rho}_{\psi}|\psi'\rangle = \langle\psi'|\psi\rangle \langle\psi|\psi'\rangle = \overline{\langle\psi|\psi'\rangle} \langle\psi|\psi'\rangle = |\langle\psi|\psi'\rangle|^2$ , and so  $\langle\psi'|\hat{\rho}_{\psi}|\psi'\rangle$  is real, and from this it follows that  $\hat{\rho}_{\psi}$  is Hermitian.

Now it turns out that if we have an arbitrary orthonormal basis  $\{|\phi_i\rangle : i\}$  of  $H$  and any observable  $\hat{O}$  on  $H$ , then

$$\langle \hat{O} \rangle_{\psi} = \sum_i \langle \phi_i | \hat{\rho}_{\psi} \hat{O} | \phi_i \rangle. \quad \text{(\text{3.6})}^{19}$$

Since this expression can be shown to be independent of which basis we choose,<sup>20</sup> we have a well-defined function called the **trace**, written as  $\text{Tr}(\cdot)$ , which maps any operator  $\hat{A}$  acting on  $H$  to a value in  $\mathbb{C}$  according to the formula

$$\text{Tr}(\hat{A}) = \sum_i \langle \phi_i | \hat{A} | \phi_i \rangle. \quad \text{(\text{3.7})}^{21}$$

Thus, it follows from equations (3.6) and (3.7) that

$$\langle \hat{O} \rangle_{\psi} = \text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}_{\psi} \hat{O}). \quad \text{(\text{3.8})}^{22}$$

So far we have defined the density matrix  $\hat{\rho}_{\psi}$  corresponding to a normalized state  $|\psi\rangle$ . More generally, a **density matrix**  $\hat{\rho}$  is defined to be a Hermitian operator with positive eigenvalues such that  $\text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}) = 1$ . We will write  $M(H)$  for the set of all density matrices on  $H$ . Since we are assuming<sup>21</sup> that for any Hermitian operator,

<sup>19</sup>To see this, as we saw in footnote 8, if we define the mapping  $I = \sum_{i=1}^N |\phi_i\rangle\langle\phi_i|$  then  $I|\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$ . Therefore,  $\langle \hat{O} \rangle_{\psi} = \langle \psi | \hat{O} | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \hat{O} I | \psi \rangle = \sum_i \langle \psi | \hat{O} | \phi_i \rangle \langle \phi_i | \psi \rangle = \sum_i \langle \phi_i | \psi \rangle \langle \psi | \hat{O} | \phi_i \rangle = \sum_i \langle \phi_i | \hat{\rho}_{\psi} \hat{O} | \phi_i \rangle$ .

<sup>20</sup>To see this, we first note that for any orthonormal basis  $\{|\phi_i\rangle : i\}$  of  $H$ , and any two operators  $\hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}$  acting on  $H$ , using the fact that  $I = \sum_i |\phi_i\rangle\langle\phi_i|$  is the identity operator on  $H$ , we have the commutativity property

$$\sum_i \langle \phi_i | \hat{A} \hat{B} | \phi_i \rangle = \sum_i \langle \phi_i | \hat{A} \sum_j |\phi_j\rangle\langle\phi_j| \hat{B} | \phi_i \rangle = \sum_{ij} \langle \phi_j | \hat{B} | \phi_i \rangle \langle \phi_i | \hat{A} | \phi_j \rangle = \sum_j \langle \phi_j | \hat{B} \hat{A} | \phi_j \rangle.$$

Now suppose that  $\{|\phi'_i\rangle : i\}$  is another orthonormal basis of  $H$ . Then we can define the operator  $\hat{U}$  such that  $\hat{U}|\phi_i\rangle = |\phi'_i\rangle$ . We can also define the operator  $\hat{U}^*$  such that  $\langle \phi'_i | \psi \rangle = \langle \phi_i | \hat{U}^* | \psi \rangle$  for any state  $|\psi\rangle \in H$ . Since  $\langle \phi'_i | \phi'_j \rangle = \langle \phi_i | \hat{U}^* | \phi'_j \rangle$  for all  $i, j$ , it will follow that  $\hat{U}^*|\phi'_j\rangle = |\phi_j\rangle$ . Therefore,  $\hat{U}\hat{U}^* = I$ . Using this fact together with the commutativity property, we have

$$\sum_i \langle \phi'_i | \hat{O} | \phi'_i \rangle = \sum_i \langle \phi_i | \hat{U}^* \hat{O} \hat{U} | \phi_i \rangle = \sum_i \langle \phi_i | \hat{O} \hat{U} \hat{U}^* | \phi_i \rangle = \sum_i \langle \phi_i | \hat{O} | \phi_i \rangle.$$

<sup>21</sup>As mentioned earlier, we are making the assumption that Hermitian operators are compact.

there is an orthonormal basis of the Hilbert space consisting of eigenstates of the Hermitian operator, we can find an orthonormal basis  $\{|\psi_i\rangle : i\}$  of eigenstates of  $\hat{\rho}$  with corresponding eigenvalues  $p_i$  such that

$$\hat{\rho} = \sum_i p_i |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|. \quad \text{\{rhodiag\}} \quad (3.9)$$

The condition  $\text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}) = 1$  will then imply that  $\sum_i p_i = 1$ . Now we could think of the operator  $\hat{\rho}$  as corresponding to a measurement which gave the output  $p_i$  when the system was in the state  $|\psi_i\rangle$ . However, we can alternatively think of  $\hat{\rho}$  as describing a system which is known to be in one of the  $|\psi_i\rangle$ -states, but that we only know it is in the  $|\psi_i\rangle$ -state with probability  $p_i$ . Then given that  $\hat{\rho}$  describes all we know about the system, the expectation value  $\langle\hat{O}\rangle_{\rho}$  for an observable  $\hat{O}$  on the system can be shown to be

$$\langle\hat{O}\rangle_{\rho} = \text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}\hat{O}), \quad \text{\{expdensity\}} \quad (3.10)$$

which is a generalization of (3.8). Thus, we can think of a density matrix  $\hat{\rho} \in M(H)$  as a generalization  $\text{genket}$  of a state ket-vector  $|\psi\rangle \in H$ , since for every  $|\psi\rangle \in H$  there corresponds a density matrix  $\hat{\rho} = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi| \in M(H)$ . Because of this identification,  $\hat{\rho} = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$  is referred to as a **pure state**. On the other hand, the converse does not hold: if  $\hat{\rho} = \sum_i p_i |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i| \in M(H)$  with more than one of the  $p_i > 0$ , then there will not be a corresponding  $|\psi\rangle \in H$  such that  $\hat{\rho} = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$ . In this case, when  $\hat{\rho}$  is interpreted as describing a system that is definitely in one of the  $|\psi_i\rangle$ -states with probability  $p_i$ , then we will refer to  $\hat{\rho}$  as a **mixed state**. $\text{mixedstate}$

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<sup>22</sup>This follows since  $\text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}\hat{O}) = \sum_i p_i \text{Tr}(|\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i| \hat{O}) = \sum_i p_i \langle\hat{O}\rangle_{\psi_i}$  which will be the expectation value of  $\hat{O}$  given that  $\hat{\rho}$  encapsulates our knowledge of the system.

### 3.4.4 Coherence

Now suppose that the system  $\mathcal{S}$  is initially in a superposition state  $|\psi\rangle = \sum_i c_i |s_i\rangle$  with  $\sum_i |c_i|^2 = 1$ . Then the corresponding density matrix on  $\mathcal{S}$  will be

$$|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| = \sum_{ij} c_i \bar{c}_j |s_i\rangle\langle s_j|.$$

When a density matrix has non-zero  $|s_i\rangle\langle s_j|$ -components for  $i \neq j$ , we say that there is **coherence** between the  $|s_i\rangle$  and  $|s_j\rangle$ -states.<sup>23</sup> Thus, for the density matrix  $|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$  there will be coherence between the  $|s_i\rangle$  and  $|s_j\rangle$ -states so long as both  $c_i$  and  $c_j$  are non-zero. Decoherence is a process (to be described shortly) by which the  $|s_i\rangle\langle s_j|$ -components (for  $i \neq j$ ) of a density matrix restricted to a subsystem of a composite system appear to vanish.

### 3.4.5 Partial Traces and Reduced Density Matrices

As already mentioned, if we have a general entangled state on a composite system  $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{S} + \mathcal{E}$  of the form  $|\xi\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} = \sum_{i,j} \gamma_{i,j} |\psi_i\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |\chi_j\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ , there is a huge amount of information in all the  $\gamma_{i,j}$ . However, most of this information can be discarded if we are only interested in making measurements on the system  $\mathcal{S}$ . We can't typically encapsulate this information in the form of a state  $|\psi\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{S}}$ , but we can encapsulate this information in the form of a density matrix  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}} \in M(H_{\mathcal{S}})$  which as mentioned on

<sup>23</sup>The fact that a density matrix can be written out in terms of  $|s_i\rangle\langle s_j|$ -components explains why we refer to a density matrix as a density *matrix*. For example, if our state space has a basis of just two states  $\{|s_1\rangle, |s_2\rangle\}$ , and if  $\hat{\rho} = a |s_1\rangle\langle s_1| + b |s_1\rangle\langle s_2| + c |s_2\rangle\langle s_1| + d |s_2\rangle\langle s_2|$ , then we can identify  $\hat{\rho}$  with the matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ . If we then identify the state  $|\psi\rangle = x |s_1\rangle + y |s_2\rangle$  with the column vector  $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$ , then the state  $\hat{\rho}|\psi\rangle$  would be identified with the column vector under matrix multiplication  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ax + by \\ cx + dy \end{pmatrix}$ . The trace of a density matrix is then just the sum of the diagonal elements (top left to bottom right) of the matrix. Decoherence with respect to a particular basis occurs when the off-diagonal elements of the density matrix vanish.

page 69 can be thought of as a generalization of a state ket-vector  $|\psi\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{S}}$ . In this subsection, we will show how the density matrix  $\hat{\rho} = |\xi\rangle\langle\xi| \in M(H_{\mathcal{U}})$  can be reduced to a density matrix  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}} \in M(H_{\mathcal{S}})$  which encapsulates all the information needed to calculate expectation values of observables on  $\mathcal{S}$ . The reduced density matrix  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}}$  is derived from  $\hat{\rho}$  via an operation called the partial trace.

In the context of a composite system  $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{S} + \mathcal{E}$ , when taking traces, we will need to be more specific over which basis we are taking the trace over. If  $\{|\psi_i\rangle : i\}$  is an orthonormal basis of  $H_{\mathcal{S}}$  and  $\{|\chi_j\rangle : j\}$  is an orthonormal basis of  $H_{\mathcal{E}}$ , then  $\{|\xi_{ij}\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |\psi_i\rangle|\chi_j\rangle : i, j\}$  will be an orthonormal basis of  $H_{\mathcal{U}}$ . For an operator  $\hat{A}_{\mathcal{S}}$  of  $H_{\mathcal{S}}$ , we define

$$\text{Tr}_{\mathcal{S}}(\hat{A}_{\mathcal{S}}) = \sum_i \langle \psi_i | \hat{A}_{\mathcal{S}} | \psi_i \rangle,$$

and for an operator  $\hat{A}_{\mathcal{U}}$  of  $H_{\mathcal{U}}$ , we define

$$\text{Tr}_{\mathcal{U}}(\hat{A}_{\mathcal{U}}) = \sum_{ij} \langle \xi_{ij} | \hat{A}_{\mathcal{U}} | \xi_{ij} \rangle.$$

This is just what we would expect the traces to be for operators on  $H_{\mathcal{S}}$  and on  $H_{\mathcal{U}}$  respectively. But we also need the notion of a **partial trace** for an operator  $\hat{A}_{\mathcal{U}}$  on  $H_{\mathcal{U}}$ :

$$\text{Tr}_{\mathcal{E}}(\hat{A}_{\mathcal{U}}) = \sum_j \langle \chi_j | \hat{A}_{\mathcal{U}} | \chi_j \rangle. \quad \text{\{partialtrace\}} \quad (3.11)$$

Note that whereas  $\text{Tr}_{\mathcal{U}}(\hat{A}_{\mathcal{U}})$  is just a number, the partial trace  $\text{Tr}_{\mathcal{E}}(\hat{A}_{\mathcal{U}})$  is an operator that acts on  $H_{\mathcal{S}}$ . To see why this is, consider the simple example of when  $\hat{A}_{\mathcal{U}} = |\xi_{ij}\rangle\langle\xi_{lk}|$ . The operator  $\hat{A}_{\mathcal{U}}$  would send the state  $|\xi_{lk}\rangle$  to  $|\xi_{ij}\rangle$  and all the other  $|\xi_{l'k'}\rangle$ -states of  $H_{\mathcal{U}}$  to 0. But in order to define the partial trace as given in equation (3.11), we need to know what  $\hat{A}_{\mathcal{U}}|\chi\rangle$  is and then what  $\langle\chi|\hat{A}_{\mathcal{U}}|\chi\rangle$  is. In the case when  $\hat{A}_{\mathcal{U}} = |\xi_{ij}\rangle\langle\xi_{lk}|$ ,

we stipulate that  $\hat{A}_{\mathcal{U}} |\chi\rangle$  is the operator that sends the state  $|\psi\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{S}}$  to the state  $\langle\psi_l|\psi\rangle \langle\chi_k|\chi\rangle |\xi_{ij}\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{U}}$ . Furthermore, if we stipulate that  $\langle\chi|\xi_{ij}\rangle = \langle\chi|\chi_j\rangle \langle\chi_k|\chi\rangle |\psi_i\rangle \langle\psi_l| \in H_{\mathcal{S}}$ , it follows that  $\langle\chi|\hat{A}_{\mathcal{U}}|\chi\rangle$  will be the operator  $\langle\chi|\chi_j\rangle \langle\chi_k|\chi\rangle |\psi_i\rangle \langle\psi_l|$  that sends the state  $|\psi\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{S}}$  to the state  $\langle\chi|\chi_j\rangle \langle\chi_k|\chi\rangle \langle\psi_l|\psi\rangle |\psi_i\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{S}}$ . By (3.11), we therefore find that

$$\text{Tr}_{\mathcal{E}}(|\xi_{ij}\rangle \langle\xi_{lk}|) = \begin{cases} |\psi_i\rangle \langle\psi_l| & \text{if } j = k, \\ 0 & \text{if } j \neq k. \end{cases} \quad \{\text{partialtrace2}\} \quad (3.12)$$

And since any arbitrary operator  $\hat{A}_{\mathcal{U}}$  on  $H_{\mathcal{U}}$  can be expressed as a sum

$$\hat{A}_{\mathcal{U}} = \sum_{ijkl} \mu_{ijkl} |\xi_{ij}\rangle \langle\xi_{lk}|,$$

we can use equation (3.12) to find that

$$\text{Tr}_{\mathcal{E}}(\hat{A}_{\mathcal{U}}) = \sum_{ijl} \mu_{ijjl} |\psi_i\rangle \langle\psi_l|.$$

Now it turns out that given a density matrix  $\hat{\rho}$  on  $H_{\mathcal{U}}$  and an observable  $\hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}}$  of  $H_{\mathcal{S}}$  (which induces an observable  $\hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}}$  on  $H_{\mathcal{U}}$  in the obvious way, e.g.  $\hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}} |\xi_{ij}\rangle = (\hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}} |\psi_i\rangle) |\chi_j\rangle$ ), we have the important formula

$$\langle\hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}}\rangle_{\rho} = \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{S}}(\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}} \hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}}) \quad \{\text{reducedev}\} \quad (3.13)$$

where  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}} = \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{E}}(\hat{\rho})$ .<sup>24</sup> We refer to  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}}$  as the **reduced density matrix** of  $\hat{\rho}$ .

<sup>24</sup>To see this, following Schlosshauer, *Decoherence and the Quantum-to-Classical Transition*, 46, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle\hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}}\rangle_{\rho} &= \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{U}}(\hat{\rho} \hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}}) = \sum_{ij} \langle\xi_{ij}|\hat{\rho} \hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}}|\xi_{ij}\rangle = \sum_i \langle\psi_i| \left( \sum_j \langle\chi_j|\hat{\rho}|\chi_j\rangle \right) \hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}} |\psi_i\rangle \\ &= \sum_i \langle\psi_i| \hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}} \hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}} |\psi_i\rangle = \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{S}}(\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}} \hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}}). \end{aligned}$$

Note that if  $\hat{\rho} = |\xi\rangle\langle\xi|$  with  $|\xi\rangle = |\psi\rangle|\chi\rangle$  so that  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$  are not entangled, then  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}} = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$ .<sup>25</sup> This is what we should expect, since if  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$  are not entangled, then the expectation values of observables defined on  $\mathcal{S}$  should be independent of the state of  $\mathcal{E}$ , and by equation (3.13), this independence is seen to hold when  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}}$  is independent of any states on  $\mathcal{E}$ .

More generally, <sup>subtle</sup> for an entangled state  $|\xi\rangle = \sum_{i,j} \gamma_{i,j} |\psi_i\rangle|\chi_j\rangle$ , from equations (3.10) and (3.13), we have  $\langle\hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}}\rangle_{\rho} = \langle\hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}}\rangle_{\rho_{\mathcal{S}}}$ . This means that when it comes to taking expectation values of measurements on a subsystem  $\mathcal{S}$  that is part of a composite system  $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{S} + \mathcal{E}$  which is in the state  $|\xi\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{U}}$ , the subsystem  $\mathcal{S}$  behaves as though it was described by the density matrix  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}}$ . However, there is a rather subtle point one needs to be aware of here.<sup>26</sup> For in general, as we saw in equation (3.9), any density matrix  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}} \in M(H_{\mathcal{S}})$  can be expressed as a sum  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}} = \sum_i p_i |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|$ , and this can be *thought of* as corresponding to the system  $\mathcal{S}$  being in one of the  $|\psi_i\rangle$ -states, but that we only know it is in the  $|\psi_i\rangle$ -state with probability  $p_i$ . If this was the correct interpretation of  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}}$ , then as explained on page 69, we would refer to  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}}$  as a *mixed state*. But just because we can think of  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}}$  in this way, it doesn't follow that  $\mathcal{S}$  really is in one of these  $|\psi_i\rangle$ -states and that we are only ignorant of which state it is. When  $\mathcal{S}$  is entangled with  $\mathcal{E}$  there is no fact of the matter regarding which state  $\mathcal{S}$  is in. Rather, there are only facts of the matter for the composite system  $\mathcal{U}$ , e.g. the fact of

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<sup>25</sup>**untanglepartialtrace** To see this, we recall that the partial trace  $\text{Tr}_{\mathcal{E}}$  is independent of which orthonormal basis  $\{|\chi_j\rangle : j\}$  we choose for  $\mathcal{E}$ . Therefore, if  $\hat{\rho} = |\xi\rangle\langle\xi|$  with  $|\xi\rangle = |\psi\rangle|\chi\rangle$ , we can choose  $|\chi_1\rangle = |\chi\rangle$  and all other  $|\chi_i\rangle$  such that  $\langle\chi_i|\chi\rangle = 0$ . Then  $\text{Tr}_{\mathcal{E}}(\hat{\rho}) = \sum_j \langle\chi_j|\hat{\rho}|\chi_j\rangle = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$ .

<sup>26</sup>It is unfortunate that many physicists fail to pick up on this subtlety with the result that they form the erroneous belief that decoherence can by itself solve the measurement problem (of outcomes) when in fact it can't. For a further discussion of the problem of outcomes, see Schlosshauer, *Decoherence and the Quantum-to-Classical Transition*, 57–60.

the matter is that  $\mathcal{U}$  is in the state  $|\xi\rangle$  rather than some other state of  $H_{\mathcal{U}}$ . Therefore,  $\mathcal{U}$  is really in a pure state with density matrix  $|\xi\rangle\langle\xi|$ . Because we cannot give an ignorance interpretation to  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}}$ , d'Espagnat<sup>Espagnat</sup> referred to density matrices of this sort as being **improper mixtures**.<sup>27</sup> But despite this subtle distinction between mixed states and improper mixtures, we have nevertheless succeeded in showing how a density matrix  $\hat{\rho} = |\xi\rangle\langle\xi| \in M(H_{\mathcal{U}})$  can be reduced to a density matrix  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}} \in M(H_{\mathcal{S}})$  which encapsulates all the information needed to calculate expectation values of observables on  $\mathcal{S}$ .<sup>subtleend</sup>

#### vonNeumannMeasurement

##### 3.4.6 The von Neumann Measurement Scheme

We are now in a position to consider the **von Neumann measurement scheme**.<sup>28</sup> Instead of considering the whole of physical reality, for the time being, we just consider a physical system  $\mathcal{S}$  and a measuring device  $\mathcal{A}$ . This division reflects the fact that a scientist doesn't measure the system  $\mathcal{S}$  directly, but rather observes a measuring device  $\mathcal{A}$  that is affected by  $\mathcal{S}$ . The measuring device  $\mathcal{A}$  has the characteristic that it has a normalized ready state  $|a_r(t_0)\rangle$  at initial time  $t_0$  and that there is an orthonormal basis  $\{|s_i\rangle : i\}$  of  $H_{\mathcal{S}}$ , and normalized states  $|a_i(t)\rangle$  of  $\mathcal{A}$  such that

1. for any  $t \geq t_0$  we have the evolution of the states  $|\langle s_i | a_r(t_0) \rangle \xrightarrow{\text{vonNeumannMeasurement1}}$

$|s_i\rangle |a_i(t)\rangle$  so that  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{A}$  do not become entangled when  $\mathcal{S}$  is initially in

state  $|s_i\rangle$  and  $\mathcal{A}$  is initially in state  $|a_i(t_0)\rangle$ .

vonNeumannMeasurement2

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<sup>27</sup>See <sup>Cbx@26</sup>Bernard d' Espagnat, *Conceptual foundations of quantum mechanics*, 2nd ed., completely rev., enl., reset., Mathematical physics monograph series ; 20 (Reading, Mass.; London: W. A. Benjamin, 1976), ch. 6.2 – cited in Butterfield, “Peaceful Coexistence: Examining Kent's Relativistic Solution to the Quantum Measurement Problem,” p. 19.

<sup>28</sup>See Schlosshauer, *Decoherence and the Quantum-to-Classical Transition*, 50–53 for more details.

2. there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $t > t_0 + \delta$ , then  $\langle a_i(t) | a_j(t) \rangle \approx 0$  for  $i \neq j$ .<sup>29</sup>

These two criteria characterize the von Neumann measurement scheme. The orthonormal basis  $\{|s_i\rangle : i\}$  of  $H_S$  for which these two criteria hold are called **pointer states**<sup>pointer</sup> of

$\mathcal{A}$ . These pointer states will be determined by the dynamics of the composite system  $\mathcal{S} + \mathcal{A}$  as well as the relative configuration of  $\mathcal{S}$  with respect to  $\mathcal{A}$ . For instance, if  $\mathcal{S}$  is a silver atom and  $\mathcal{A}$  is a Stern-Gerlach apparatus, then the configuration and dynamics of the system will determine a fixed axis  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$  relative to the Stern-Gerlach configuration  $\mathcal{A}$  such that the states  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$  and  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle$  of  $\mathcal{S}$  don't get entangled with  $\mathcal{A}$ , that is, there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}\pm\rangle |a_r(t_0)\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{time evolution}} |\hat{\mathbf{a}}\pm\rangle |a_\pm(t)\rangle$  with  $\langle a_+(t) | a_-(t) \rangle \approx 0$  for  $t > t_0 + \delta$ .<sup>30, 31</sup> Since no entanglement occurs with the silver atom and the Stern-Gerlach apparatus when the silver atom is in the  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}\pm\rangle$ -state, then in this situation, we can interact with the apparatus to find out whether the particle is in the  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$ -state or the  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle$ -state without changing the spin state of the silver atom. Indeed, we should expect an experimental apparatus to have this property of non-entanglement with the measurement outcomes it reports, for otherwise, every scientist who looked at the measurement device couldn't be sure that the spin state of the silver atom being measured remained unchanged whenever the apparatus was

<sup>29</sup><sub>approx</sub> More precisely, we should say that for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $t > t_0 + \delta$ , then  $|\langle a_i(t) | a_j(t) \rangle| < \epsilon$  for  $i \neq j$ .

<sup>30</sup>Strictly speaking, we would need more information to describe states in  $H_S$  besides the spin, so we should really express this scenario in terms of  $\{|s_{i,+}\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+, i\rangle : i\} \cup \{|s_{i,-}\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-, i\rangle : i\}$  and  $\{|a_{i,+}(t)\rangle : i\} \cup \{|a_{i,-}(t)\rangle : i\}$  where the  $i$ -indices encode all the additional information beyond spin.

<sup>31</sup><sub>nearzero</sub> Although we only require that  $\langle a_+(t) | a_-(t) \rangle \approx 0$  for  $t > t_0 + \delta$  rather than demanding  $\langle a_+(t) | a_-(t) \rangle = 0$ , we can think of the scientist who observes the apparatus as determining whether the apparatus is either in one of two normalized states  $|a'_+(t)\rangle$  or  $|a'_-(t)\rangle$  where  $\langle a'_+(t) | a'_-(t) \rangle = 0$  and  $\langle a'_\pm(t) | a'_\pm(t) \rangle \approx 1$ , so that the scientist can confidently assert that the particle is in the state  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$  if for instance the measurement device is found to be in the state  $|a'_+(t)\rangle$ . Because  $\langle a'_+(t) | a_-(t) \rangle$  is only very small, but not identically zero, in theory, the particle could be in the  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle$ -state, but we're assuming that such a possibility would be as likely as a violation of the Second Law of Thermodynamics, say.

observed, and so the scientists couldn't expect there to be any agreement among themselves regarding which spin-state the silver atom was in. Thus, the basis of  $H_{\mathcal{S}}$  for which entanglement doesn't occur is a preferred basis. However, if we were to consider a different basis, say  $\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle + |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle), \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle - |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle)\}$ ,<sup>32</sup> then assuming that the configuration of  $\mathcal{A}$  remained unchanged, entanglement between  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{A}$  would occur since then  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle \pm |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle) |a_r(t_0)\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{time evolution}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle |a_+(t)\rangle \pm |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle |a_-(t)\rangle)$ . Thus,  $\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle + |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle), \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle - |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle)\}$  would not be a preferred basis. In this case, if  $\mathcal{S}$  was in the  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle + |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle)$ -state, a scientist would measure  $\mathcal{A}$  to be in the  $|a_+(t)\rangle$ -state with probability  $\frac{1}{2}$ . But having measured  $\mathcal{A}$  to be in the  $|a_+(t)\rangle$ -state, the scientist would continue to observe  $\mathcal{A}$  to be in the  $|a_+(t)\rangle$ -state because of the subsequent non-entanglement of  $\mathcal{S}$  with  $\mathcal{A}$  when  $\mathcal{S}$  is in the  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$ -state and  $\mathcal{A}$  is in the  $|a_+(t)\rangle$ -state. Note that this situation is somewhat analogous to when we have the Bell-state (2.8), so that when Bob measures his particle to be in the  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle$ -state, he knows that Alice's particle is in the  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$ -state. Likewise, in the von Neumann measurement scheme, if the scientist measures  $\mathcal{A}$  to be in the  $|a_+(t)\rangle$ -state for  $t > t_0 + \delta$ , he will then (almost certainly) know<sup>33</sup> that the system  $\mathcal{S}$  will be in the  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$ -state.

In the case where  $\mathcal{S}$  has more than two states, we can write a generic normalized state of the composite system  $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{S} + \mathcal{A}$  as  $|\Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_i c_i |\xi_i(t)\rangle$  where  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle = |s_i\rangle |a_i(t)\rangle$ . There will then be coherence between  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle$  and  $|\xi_j(t)\rangle$  for the density matrix  $\hat{\rho}(t) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |\Psi(t)\rangle\langle\Psi(t)|$  so long as both  $c_i$  and  $c_j$  are non-zero. However, if we are only interested in observables  $\hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}}$  on  $H_{\mathcal{S}}$ , then we only need to consider the reduced

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<sup>32</sup>According to equation (2.2), this basis would correspond to measuring the spin in an axis at right angles to  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ .

<sup>33</sup>We say that Bob is *almost* certain rather than *completely* certain because  $\langle a_+(t)|a_-(t)\rangle$  will be very nearly zero rather than identically zero as discussed in footnote 31.

density matrix  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}}(t) = \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{A}}(\hat{\rho}(t))$ . Initially, at time  $t_0$  we have  $|a_i(t_0)\rangle = |a_r(t_0)\rangle$  so  $|\Psi(t_0)\rangle = |\psi\rangle |a_r(t_0)\rangle$  where  $|\psi\rangle = \sum_i c_i |s_i\rangle$  which we assume to be normalized. Thus, initially,  $\mathcal{S}$  would not be entangled with  $\mathcal{A}$ , and therefore the density matrix describing  $\mathcal{S}$  would be  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}}(t_0) = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$ .<sup>34</sup> Hence, if we consider  $\hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}} = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$  as an observable on  $\mathcal{S}$  corresponding to a measurement<sup>35</sup> that records the value 1 if the system is in the  $|\psi\rangle$  and 0 if the system is in a state  $|\psi'\rangle$  with  $\langle\psi'|\psi\rangle = 0$ , then both intuitively<sup>36</sup> and by equation (3.13),<sup>37</sup> we would have  $\langle\hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}}\rangle_{\rho(t_0)} = 1$ . But if the scientist is to measure  $\mathcal{S}$  to be in the  $|\psi\rangle$ -state, the expectation value  $\langle\hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}}\rangle_{\rho(t)}$  would have to be 1 for times  $t$  discernibly greater than  $t_0$ .

However, if more than one of the  $c_i$  are non-zero, then the scientist will not be able to measure the system  $\mathcal{S}$  to be in the  $|\psi\rangle$ -state for any discernible length of time. To see why this is, we first note that

$$\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}}(t) = \sum_i |c_i|^2 |s_i\rangle\langle s_i| + \sum_{i \neq j} c_i \bar{c}_j \langle a_j(t)|a_i(t)\rangle |s_i\rangle\langle s_j|. \quad \begin{matrix} \{ \text{reduced} \} \\ (3.14) \end{matrix}$$

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<sup>34</sup>Recall if  $|\xi\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} = |\psi\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |\chi\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$  (i.e.  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$  are not entangled), then  $\langle\hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}}\rangle_{\xi} = \langle\hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}}\rangle_{\psi}$  as explained in footnote 25.

<sup>35</sup>This is a measurement we conduct by some means other than looking at the apparatus  $\mathcal{A}$ .

<sup>36</sup>I.e. we would expect the expectation value of  $\hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}}$  to be 1 if we knew that  $\mathcal{S}$  was in the state  $|\psi\rangle$  with probability 1.

<sup>37</sup>I.e. given that  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}}(t_0) = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi| = \hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}}$ , and that  $\hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}}^2 = \hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}}$ , and  $\text{Tr}_{\mathcal{S}}(\hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}}) = 1$ , it follows that  $\langle\hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}}\rangle_{\rho(t_0)} = \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{S}}(\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}}(t_0)\hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}}) = \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{S}}(\hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}}) = 1$ .

Now because  $\langle a_j(t) | a_i(t) \rangle \approx 0$  for  $t > t_0 + \delta$ , it follows that  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}} \approx \sum_i |c_i|^2 |s_i\rangle\langle s_i|$  for  $t > t_0 + \delta$ . It will then follow that  $\langle \hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}} \rangle_{\rho(t)} = \sum_i |c_i|^4$ <sup>39</sup> and this will only be 1 if only one of the  $c_i$  is 1 and all the other  $c_i$  are 0. Hence, if more than one of the  $c_i$  are non-zero, the scientist will not be able to measure the system  $\mathcal{S}$  to be in the  $|\psi\rangle$ -state for any discernible length of time.

### 3.4.7 Decoherence

Note that although for the original density matrix  $|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$  there is coherence between the states  $|s_i\rangle$  and  $|s_j\rangle$ , this coherence effectively disappears when the system  $\mathcal{S}$  interacts with the measuring device  $\mathcal{A}$  (i.e. the  $|s_i\rangle\langle s_j|$ -coefficients of  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}}$  are approximately zero for  $t > t_0 + \delta$ ). This is what we mean by **decoherence**: the coherence has effectively disappeared. The **decoherence time**  $\delta$  which is the time it takes for  $\langle a_i(t) | a_j(t) \rangle$  to go from 1 when  $t = t_0$  to approximately zero when  $t = t_0 + \delta$  will depend on what situation we are considering, but very often this time will be extremely small. For instance if we were measuring neurons firing in the brain, the decoherence time will

<sup>38</sup>To see this, it is sufficient to show that  $\text{Tr}_{\mathcal{A}}(|\xi_i(t)\rangle\langle\xi_j(t)|) = \langle a_j(t) | a_i(t) \rangle |s_i\rangle\langle s_j|$  for then we will obtain the first summand of  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}}$  from the fact that  $|a_i(t)\rangle$  are normalized, and we will obtain the second summand by linearity of  $\text{Tr}_{\mathcal{A}}(\cdot)$ . Well, taking  $\{|\phi_k\rangle : k\}$  to be an orthonormal basis of  $H_{\mathcal{A}}$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{A}}(|\xi_i(t)\rangle\langle\xi_j(t)|) &= \sum_k \langle \phi_k | \left( |\xi_i(t)\rangle\langle\xi_j(t)| \right) | \phi_k \rangle = \sum_k \langle \phi_k | a_i(t) \rangle \langle a_j(t) | \phi_k \rangle |s_i\rangle\langle s_j| \\ &= \langle a_j(t) | \left( \sum_k |\phi_k\rangle\langle\phi_k| \right) | a_i(t) \rangle |s_i\rangle\langle s_j| = \langle a_j(t) | a_i(t) \rangle |s_i\rangle\langle s_j|, \end{aligned}$$

where we have used the fact that  $I = \sum_k |\phi_k\rangle\langle\phi_k|$  is the identity operator on  $H_{\mathcal{A}}$ .

<sup>39</sup>This is because

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{S}}(\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}} |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|) &\approx \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{S}} \left( \sum_i |c_i|^2 |s_i\rangle\langle s_i| \sum_{jk} c_j \overline{c_k} |s_j\rangle\langle s_k| \right) \\ &= \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{S}} \left( \sum_{ik} |c_i|^2 c_i \overline{c_k} |s_i\rangle\langle s_k| \right) = \sum_l \sum_{ik} \langle s_l | |c_i|^2 c_i \overline{c_k} |s_i\rangle \langle s_k | s_l \rangle = \sum_i |c_i|^4. \end{aligned}$$

typically be of the order  $\delta = 10^{-19}$  s.<sup>40</sup> It is because of decoherence that we can't expect the system  $\mathcal{S}$  to remain in the state  $|\psi\rangle = \sum_i c_i |s_i\rangle$  for any discernible length of time, unless  $|\psi\rangle$  is proportional to one of the  $|s_i\rangle$ -states.

Also note that when decoherence occurs, we say the coherence *effectively* disappears, insofar as the coherence will not be measurable if we only consider observables just acting on  $H_{\mathcal{S}}$ . Thus, after decoherence has taken place, if we restrict our attention to the system  $\mathcal{S}$  alone, it will be experimentally indistinguishable<sup>41</sup> from the situation where  $\mathcal{S}$  is known to be in one of the  $|s_i\rangle$ -states, but that we only know that it is in the  $|s_i\rangle$ -state with probability  $|c_i|^2$ . Nevertheless, the coherence is still there, since if we chose to consider more general observables on the composite  $\mathcal{S} + \mathcal{A}$ , the  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle\langle\xi_j(t)|$ -coefficients of  $\hat{\rho}$  will continue to be  $c_i \bar{c}_j$  which will in general will be non-zero, and as a whole, at time  $t$  the composite system will be in the state  $|\Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_i c_i |\xi_i(t)\rangle$  with probability 1.

### 3.5 sectionPreferredBasis A Solution to the Preferred Basis Problem<sup>42</sup>

We can now see how decoherence theory solves the preferred basis problem. Although up to this point we have been focusing on how a system  $\mathcal{S}$  interacts with a measuring apparatus  $\mathcal{A}$ , we can generalize to the situation in which a system  $\mathcal{S}$  interacts with its environment  $\mathcal{E}$ . We can still define pointer states in the same way as we did on page 75. These pointer states will then make up the preferred basis. The two defining

<sup>40</sup>For details of this estimate see Schlosshauer, *Decoherence and the Quantum-to-Classical Transition*, 370.

<sup>41</sup>Recall the discussion following equation (3.9) on page 69 as well as the discussion on page 73.

<sup>42</sup>For more details, see Schlosshauer, *Decoherence and the Quantum-to-Classical Transition*, 71–84

criteria of pointer states entail that pointer states will remain stable and immune to decoherence effects.

Since physicists have a good understanding of how different systems interact, they are able to explain what it is about a basis that makes it a preferred basis. The details of their analysis need not concern us here, but it's possible to show that for macroscopic and mesoscopic objects, states specified in terms of position decohere with one another very rapidly.<sup>43</sup> This explains why we don't detect  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle + |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle)$  and  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle - |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle)$ -states, but we do detect  $|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle$  and  $|\text{Cat Dead}\rangle$ -states. Also note that  $|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle$  does indeed have the property that it is immune to decoherence effects, for if we were to express  $|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle$  in terms of the basis  $\{|\psi_+\rangle, |\psi_-\rangle\}$  where  $|\psi_{\pm}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle \pm |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle)$ , then  $|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\psi_+\rangle + |\psi_-\rangle)$ . The corresponding density matrix would then be

$$|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle\langle\text{Cat Alive}| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\psi_+\rangle\langle\psi_+| + |\psi_-\rangle\langle\psi_-| + |\psi_+\rangle\langle\psi_-| + |\psi_-\rangle\langle\psi_+|). \quad (3.15)$$

Since in normal situations, the left-hand side of equation (3.15) will remain unperturbed by the environment, the coefficients of the off-diagonal terms  $|\psi_{\pm}\rangle\langle\psi_{\mp}|$  will also remain as they are; that is,  $|\psi_{\pm}\rangle$  and  $|\psi_{\mp}\rangle$  will not decohere with one another. It is only in very contrived situations such as when the cat's environment is a poison releasing device coupled to a radioactive atom that  $|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle$  will no longer be a pointer state with respect to this environment.

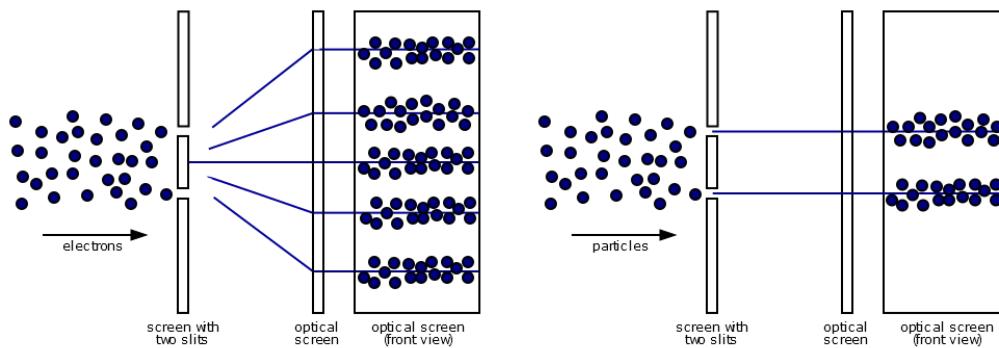
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<sup>43</sup>e.g. See the discussion in Schlosshauer, *Decoherence and the Quantum-to-Classical Transition*, 94.

### 3.6 <sup>Nonobservability</sup> The Problem of Nonobservability of Interference and its Solution<sup>44</sup>

Before we consider the many-worlds interpretation in detail, it will be helpful to consider the role that decoherence plays in the removal of quantum interference at the macroscopic scale, as it is this lack of quantum interference between mutually exclusive states that justifies our belief that a system is in a definite state rather than in a superposition of alternative realities. The question of why quantum interference typically disappears at macroscopic scales is referred to as the problem of the nonobservability of interference.

We can explain this problem in the context of the double slit experiment: As figure 3.1



(A) Particles exhibiting interference. (B) Particles not exhibiting interference.

Figure 3.1: The Double-Slit Experiment. Particles are incident on a double slit. In diagram (A), the particles are exhibiting an interference pattern, whereas in diagram (B), the particles are not exhibiting an interference pattern. Whether or not there is interference will depend on factors such as the size of the particles and whether it can be ascertained which slit the particle went through. The larger the particles are, or the more information available as to which slit the particle went through, the less likely the particles will exhibit interference.<sup>45</sup>

DoubleSlit

indicates, when a beam of particles is incident on a double slit, the particles that are detected on the detection screen are distributed according to a distribution pattern which either exhibits quantum interference as shown on the left in the figure, or does

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<sup>44</sup>See Schlosshauer, *Decoherence and the Quantum-to-Classical Transition*, 55–57, 63–65.

not exhibit such interference as shown on the right. Small particles like electrons and photons will tend to exhibit quantum interference, whereas mesoscopic particles will not typically exhibit quantum interference.<sup>46</sup>

To explain what is going on, we suppose that when just the top slit is open, the normalized state of the particle is  $|\psi_1\rangle$ ,<sup>47</sup> whereas if just the bottom slit is open, we suppose that the normalized state of the particle is  $|\psi_2\rangle$ , and when both slits are open, we suppose that the state of the particle will be  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\psi_1\rangle + |\psi_2\rangle)$ . Now let the variable  $x$  describe the position on the detection screen. For instance, we might take  $x = 0$  to be the center of the detection screen, and take positive values of  $x$  as corresponding to positions on the upper part of the screen, and negative values of  $x$  as corresponding to positions on the lower part of the screen, but the precise convention we adopt won't matter. Then we define the  $|x\rangle$ -state<sup>47</sup> as the physical state describing the particle to be exactly located at position  $x$  on the screen. Note that the state  $|x\rangle$  is indexed by a continuous parameter,  $x$ . This is in contrast to the basis of states  $|s_i\rangle$  which we have been considering up until now which are indexed by discrete values of  $i$  such as  $i = 1, 2, \dots$ . Because of this difference, we need to use calculus to deal with  $|x\rangle$ -states in a rigorous manner, but such details will not concern us here. In reality, because of the Heisenberg uncertainty principle, a particle is never in just one  $|x\rangle$ -state, but rather the particle will be in a superposition of many  $|x\rangle$ -states, which may or may

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<sup>46</sup>There are exceptions to this rule. For example, a **Superconducting Quantum Interference Devices (SQUID)** can demonstrate quantum interference even at macroscopic scales where a large superconductor can enter into a superposition of two states with the current flowing in opposite directions in each state. See Schlosshauer, *Decoherence and the Quantum-to-Classical Transition*, ch. 6.

<sup>47</sup>Diagrams (A) and (B) are by inductiveload, and are Public domain, via Wikimedia Commons. Sources: [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Two-Slit\\_Experiment\\_Electrons.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Two-Slit_Experiment_Electrons.svg) and [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Two-Slit\\_Experiment\\_Particles.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Two-Slit_Experiment_Particles.svg).

not be concentrated around a particular location,  $x_0$  say. The more concentrated these  $|x\rangle$ -states of this superposition are concentrated around a particular location  $x_0$ , the more the particle will have the particle-like characteristic of being localized in one place. But if the  $|x\rangle$ -states of this superposition are more spread out, the particle will have more wave-like characteristics. So when physicists speak of particles, often they are not thinking of physical entities that are very localized in position, as non-physicists would think. Nevertheless, at the moment the particle is detected on the detection screen, it does seem to be highly localized.

Given a state  $|\psi\rangle$  for a so-called particle, we define the function  $\psi(x) = \langle x|\psi\rangle$ . Because of the continuous nature of the variable  $x$  (in contrast to the discrete nature of  $i$  in a basis  $\{|s_i\rangle : i\}$ ), the function

$$\rho(x) = |\psi(x)|^2 \quad \text{rhodensity} \quad (3.17)$$

determines a probability density for a range of outcomes rather than a probability for a specific outcome. Here, we do not need to go into the details of probability densities,<sup>48</sup> but roughly speaking, the greater the value of  $\rho(x)$ , the greater will be the relative probability of detecting the particle in the vicinity of location  $x$ . Thus, if

<sup>47</sup>ketx  $|x\rangle$  is not really a state in the proper sense. With the states we've seen so far, when  $|\phi\rangle$  and  $|\psi\rangle$  have been normalized, then  $|\langle\phi|\psi\rangle|^2$  will be a conditional probability, and hence at most 1. However,  $|x\rangle$  cannot be normalized. This is because the bracket  $\langle x|y\rangle$  is defined to be  $\langle x|y\rangle = \delta(x - y)$  where  $\delta(x)$  is the Dirac delta function such that

$$\delta(x) = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } x = 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x \neq 0, \end{cases} \quad (3.16)$$

and has the property that  $\int dx \delta(x) f(x) = f(0)$  for any continuous function  $f(x)$ .<sup>48</sup> The theory of distributions allows one to deal rigorously with Dirac delta functions. E.g. see Walter Rudin, *Functional Analysis*, Second Edition (McGraw-Hill, 1991), ch. 6.

<sup>48</sup>But if you are interested, a probability density  $\rho(x)$  for a random variable  $X$  that has real values is a function such that  $\rho(x) \geq 0 \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ , and that  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} \rho(x)dx = 1$  and the probability that  $X$  has a value in the subset  $U \subset \mathbb{R}$  is  $\int_U \rho(x)dx$ .

$\rho(x') = 0$  for all  $x'$  in the vicinity of  $x$ , then the particle would not be detected in the vicinity of location  $x$ .

Now if  $|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\psi_1\rangle + |\psi_2\rangle)$ , then  $\psi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\psi_1(x) + \psi_2(x))$ . Therefore, the corresponding probability density will be

$$|\psi(x)|^2 = \frac{1}{2}(|\psi_1(x)|^2 + |\psi_2(x)|^2 + 2 \operatorname{Re}(\overline{\psi_1(x)}\psi_2(x))).^{49}$$

Now when the detection screen is far away from the double slits, we will have  $|\psi_1(x)|^2 \approx |\psi_2(x)|^2$  for  $x$  near the center point on the screen. However, depending on slight changes in the value of  $x$  from the center point on the screen, sometimes  $\psi_1(x)$  and  $\psi_2(x)$  will be in phase so that  $\psi_1(x) \approx \psi_2(x)$ , in which case  $|\psi(x)|^2 \approx 2|\psi_1(x)|^2$ . But sometimes  $\psi_1(x)$  and  $\psi_2(x)$  will be out of phase so that  $\psi_1(x) \approx -\psi_2(x)$ , in which case  $|\psi(x)|^2 \approx 0$ . Hence, we get the interference pattern as shown in figure 3.1 (A).

Now in order to consider how decoherence affects interference, we let

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\psi_1\rangle |E_1(t)\rangle + |\psi_2\rangle |E_2(t)\rangle)$$

be the state of the composite system  $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{S} + \mathcal{E}$  where  $\mathcal{S}$  is a particle that has gone through the double slit and will be detected on the detection screen, and  $\mathcal{E}$  is the local environment of the experimental set up. The expression for  $|\Psi(t)\rangle$  indicates that we are assuming  $\mathcal{S}$  doesn't become entangled with  $\mathcal{E}$  when  $\mathcal{S}$  is in the state  $|\psi_1\rangle$  or  $|\psi_2\rangle$ .

Corresponding to  $|\Psi(t)\rangle$ , we can define the density matrix  $\hat{\rho}(t) = |\Psi(t)\rangle\langle\Psi(t)|$ . We can

<sup>49</sup>Here  $\operatorname{Re}$  means the real part of a complex number. Thus, if the complex number  $z = \alpha + i\beta$  for real numbers  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , then  $\operatorname{Re}(z) = \alpha$ . To see why the above equation holds, we recall that  $|z|^2 = z\bar{z}$  and that  $\operatorname{Re}(z) = \frac{1}{2}(z + \bar{z})$ . Therefore, if  $z = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(v + w)$  for complex number  $v$  and  $w$ , then  $|z|^2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(v + w)\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\overline{(v + w)} = \frac{1}{2}(v + w)\overline{(v + w)} = \frac{1}{2}(v\bar{v} + w\bar{w} + v\bar{w} + w\bar{v}) = \frac{1}{2}(|v|^2 + |w|^2 + w\bar{v} + \bar{w}\bar{v}) = \frac{1}{2}(|v|^2 + |w|^2 + 2 \operatorname{Re}(v\bar{w}))$ .

also define the observable<sup>50</sup>  $|x\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{S}}$  for the system  $\mathcal{S}$  so that  $|x\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{S}}|\psi\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} = \psi(x)|x\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}$ .

As we saw in equation (3.5) on page 66, we can naturally extend the action of  $|x\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{S}}$  to  $H_{\mathcal{U}}$ .<sup>51</sup> This allows us to define

$$\rho_{\mathcal{U}}(x, t) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{U}}(\hat{\rho}(t)_{\mathcal{U}} |x\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{U}}).$$

In the specific case when  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$  are not entangled so that  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{U}}(t) = |\xi(t)\rangle\langle\xi(t)|_{\mathcal{U}}$  with  $|\xi(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} = |\psi\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}|E(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$  for normalized states  $|\psi\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}$  and  $|E(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ , we have  $\rho_{\mathcal{U}}(x, t) = |\psi(x)|^2$  which is equal to the probability density function  $\rho(x)$  we saw in equation (3.17).<sup>52</sup> However, if  $|E_1(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$  is not proportional to  $|E_2(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ , then  $|\Psi(t)\rangle$  will be an entangled state of  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$ . But whether or not  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$  are entangled, we can still use equation (3.14) to calculate the partial trace:

$$\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}}(t) = \frac{1}{2}(|\psi_1\rangle\langle\psi_1|_{\mathcal{S}} + |\psi_2\rangle\langle\psi_2|_{\mathcal{S}} + \langle E_2(t)|E_1(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}|\psi_1\rangle\langle\psi_2|_{\mathcal{S}} + \langle E_1(t)|E_2(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}|\psi_2\rangle\langle\psi_1|_{\mathcal{S}}).$$

By equations (3.10) and (3.13), we therefore have

$$\rho_{\mathcal{U}}(x, t) = \frac{1}{2}\left(|\psi_1(x)|^2 + |\psi_2(x)|^2 + 2 \operatorname{Re} \left( \langle E_2(t)|E_1(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}} \overline{\psi_2(x)}\psi_1(x) \right)\right).^{53} \quad (3.18)$$

<sup>50</sup>Note that we only call  $|x\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{S}}$  an observable in an analogical sense since it is not a compact Hermitian operator acting on the Hilbert space of states  $H_{\mathcal{S}}$ . If we were being more rigorous, we would need to consider a Hermitian operator of the form  $\int \sigma(x)|x\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{S}} dx$  for an appropriate test function  $\sigma(x)$ .

<sup>51</sup>Strictly speaking, it is not  $|x\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{S}}$  that is extended to act on  $H_{\mathcal{U}}$ , but rather a Hermitian operator of the form  $\int \sigma(x)|x\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{S}} dx$  for an appropriate test function  $\sigma(x)$  that is extended to  $H_{\mathcal{U}}$ . For a state  $|\xi\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} = |\psi\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}|E\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ , the action of  $|x\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{U}}$  on  $|\xi\rangle_{\mathcal{U}}$  gives the ‘state’  $|x\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{U}}|\xi\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \psi(x)|x\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}|E\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ , but since this is not normalizable, we have to ‘smear’ it by integrating it with respect to the test function  $\sigma(x)$ .

<sup>52</sup>To see this, note that we can ignore  $\mathcal{E}$  in calculating  $\langle|x\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{U}}\rangle_{\xi}$  since when  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$  are not entangled,  $\langle|x\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{U}}\rangle_{\xi} = \langle|x\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{S}}\rangle_{\psi}$  as explained in footnote 17. We can therefore just consider  $\mathcal{S}$  and drop the subscripts. Furthermore, as we saw in equation (3.10),  $\langle\hat{O}\rangle_{\psi} = \text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}\hat{O})$  where  $\hat{\rho} = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$ . We can thus take an orthonormal basis  $\{|\psi_1\rangle, |\psi_2\rangle, \dots\}$  of  $H_{\mathcal{S}}$  with  $|\psi_1\rangle = |\psi\rangle$ . Then  $\rho(x) = \text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}|x\rangle\langle x|) = \text{Tr}(|\psi\rangle\langle\psi||x\rangle\langle x|) = \sum_i \langle\psi_i|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|x\rangle\langle x|\psi_i\rangle = \langle\psi_1|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|x\rangle\langle x|\psi_1\rangle = \langle\psi|x\rangle\langle x|\psi\rangle = \overline{\langle x|\psi\rangle}\langle x|\psi\rangle = |\langle x|\psi\rangle|^2 = |\psi(x)|^2$ .

Thus, if  $\langle E_1(t)|E_2(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}} \approx 0$  then  $\rho_{\mathcal{U}}(x, t) \approx \frac{1}{2}(|\psi_1(x)|^2 + |\psi_2(x)|^2)$  and so we would observe a distribution pattern not exhibiting interference as shown in figure 3.1 (B). On the other hand, if  $\langle E_1(t)|E_2(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}} \not\approx 0$  we would get a distribution pattern exhibiting interference as shown in figure 3.1 (B). Therefore, since it is often possible to determine the asymptotic behavior of  $\langle E_1(t)|E_2(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ ,<sup>54</sup> decoherence theory gives us a means of determining whether or not quantum interference will be exhibited.

`probOutcomes`

### 3.7 The Problem of Outcomes

In the last two sections we have seen how decoherence theory solves the preferred basis problem and the problem of the nonobservability of interference. However, there is a third fundamental problem in quantum physics which decoherence theory is unable to solve. This is the problem of outcomes. As discussed in subsection 3.4.6, in the von Neumann measurement scheme, it is supposed that for the measurement of a physical system  $\mathcal{S}$  to take place, it must interact with a measuring device  $\mathcal{A}$  which

<sup>53</sup>The calculation is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
\rho_{\mathcal{U}}(x, t) &= \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{U}}(\hat{\rho}(t)_{\mathcal{U}} |x\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{U}}) = \langle |x\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{U}} \rangle_{\rho(t)} = \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{S}}(\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}}(t) |x\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{S}}) \\
&= \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{S}}\left(\frac{1}{2}(|\psi_1\rangle\langle\psi_1|_{\mathcal{S}} + |\psi_2\rangle\langle\psi_2|_{\mathcal{S}}\right. \\
&\quad \left.+ \langle E_2(t)|E_1(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}} |\psi_1\rangle\langle\psi_2|_{\mathcal{S}} + \langle E_1(t)|E_2(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}} |\psi_2\rangle\langle\psi_1|_{\mathcal{S}}) |x\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{S}}\right) \\
&= \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{S}}\left(\frac{1}{2}(\langle\psi_1|x\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |\psi_1\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{S}} + \langle\psi_2|x\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |\psi_2\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{S}}\right. \\
&\quad \left.+ \langle E_2(t)|E_1(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}} \langle\psi_2|x\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |\psi_1\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{S}} + \langle E_1(t)|E_2(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}} \langle\psi_1|x\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |\psi_2\rangle\langle x|_{\mathcal{S}})\right) \\
&= \frac{1}{2}\left(\langle\psi_1|x\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} \langle x|\psi_1\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} + \langle\psi_2|x\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} \langle x|\psi_2\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}\right. \\
&\quad \left.+ \langle E_2(t)|E_1(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}} \langle\psi_2|x\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} \langle x|\psi_1\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} + \langle E_1(t)|E_2(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}} \langle\psi_1|x\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} \langle x|\psi_2\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}\right) \\
&= \frac{1}{2}\left(\overline{\langle x|\psi_1\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}} \langle x|\psi_1\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} + \overline{\langle x|\psi_2\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}} \langle x|\psi_2\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}\right. \\
&\quad \left.+ \langle E_2(t)|E_1(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}} \overline{\langle x|\psi_2\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}} \langle x|\psi_1\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} + \overline{\langle E_2(t)|E_1(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}} \overline{\langle x|\psi_2\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}} \langle x|\psi_1\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}\right) \\
&= \frac{1}{2}\left(|\psi_1(x)|^2 + |\psi_2(x)|^2 + 2 \operatorname{Re}(\langle E_2(t)|E_1(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}} \overline{\psi_2(x)}\psi_1(x))\right).
\end{aligned}$$

<sup>54</sup>i.e. whether or not  $\langle E_1(t)|E_2(t)\rangle_{\mathcal{E}} \rightarrow 0$  as  $t \rightarrow \infty$  and how fast this convergence might take place.

together satisfy the conditions 1. and 2. on page 74. If  $\mathcal{S}$  is initially in a superposition of states  $|\psi\rangle = \sum_i c_i |s_i\rangle$  then for  $\mathcal{A}$  to measure  $\mathcal{S}$ , it is necessary for the combined system  $\mathcal{S} + \mathcal{A}$  to enter into a superposition

$$|\psi\rangle |a_r(t_0)\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{time evolution}} \sum_i c_i |s_i\rangle |a_i(t)\rangle. \quad \{\text{vNevolution}\} \quad (3.19)$$

However, although the evolution described in (3.19) must take place if  $\mathcal{A}$  is to measure  $\mathcal{S}$ , it is not sufficient. When one takes the partial trace of  $|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$  over  $\mathcal{A}$ , then according to (3.14),

$$\text{tr}_{\mathcal{A}}(|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|) \xrightarrow{\text{time evolution}} \sum_i |c_i|^2 |s_i\rangle\langle s_i|. \quad \{\text{vNevolution2}\} \quad (3.20)$$

But as noted on page 74, we cannot give an ignorance interpretation to  $\sum_i |c_i|^2 |s_i\rangle\langle s_i|$  for as d'Espagnat puts it, this is an improper mixture. When considered together, the system  $\mathcal{S}$  and the apparatus  $\mathcal{A}$  remain in the superposition described by (3.19), and so none of the measurement outcomes from the set of possible outcomes  $\{|s_i\rangle : i\}$  have actually occurred. The problem of explaining how the composite system  $\mathcal{S} + \mathcal{A}$  goes from being in the state  $\sum_i c_i |s_i\rangle |a_i(t)\rangle$  to a state  $|s_i\rangle |a_i(t)\rangle$  is known as the **problem of outcomes**.

### 3.8 The Many-Worlds Interpretation

Not everyone is convinced that the problem of outcomes is a genuine problem. In particular, people who endorse the many-worlds interpretation of quantum physics effectively argue that there are no outcomes in the traditional sense. In this section, we give an account of the many-worlds interpretation of quantum physics and why physicists find it attractive. To this end, let us consider a physical universe  $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{S} + \mathcal{A} + \mathcal{P}_A + \mathcal{P}_B + \mathcal{E}$  consisting of subsystems  $\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}_A, \mathcal{P}_B$  and  $\mathcal{E}$ .  $\mathcal{S}$  is the physical system under investigation;  $\mathcal{A}$  is some measuring apparatus that interacts with  $\mathcal{S}$ ;  $\mathcal{P}_A$  and  $\mathcal{P}_B$  are the physical systems corresponding to two scientists, Alice and Bob who observed the apparatus  $\mathcal{A}$ ; and  $\mathcal{E}$  is the remainder of the physical universe  $\mathcal{U}$ . For convenience, we define the composite subsystem  $\mathcal{V} = \mathcal{S} + \mathcal{A} + \mathcal{P}_A + \mathcal{P}_B$  so that  $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{V} + \mathcal{E}$ .

As above on page 75, we assume that there is an orthonormal basis  $\{|s_i\rangle : i\}$  of  $H_{\mathcal{S}}$  which we again refer to as pointer states, but now we assume that there are ready states  $|a_r(t)\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{A}}, |p_{r,A}(t)\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{P}_A}, |p_{r,B}(t)\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{P}_B}$ , and  $|E_r(t)\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{E}}$  and that for each  $i$ , there are normalized states  $|a_i(t)\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{A}}, |p_{i,A}(t)\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{P}_A}, |p_{i,B}(t)\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{P}_B}$ , and  $|E_i(t)\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{E}}$  such that

1. for any  $t \geq 0$  we have the evolution of the states

$$\begin{aligned} &|s_i\rangle |a_r(t)\rangle |p_{r,A}(t)\rangle |p_{r,B}(t)\rangle |E_r(t)\rangle \\ &\xrightarrow{\text{time evolution}} |s_i\rangle |a_i(t)\rangle |p_{i,A}(t)\rangle |p_{i,B}(t)\rangle |E_i(t)\rangle, \end{aligned}$$

2. there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $t > t_0 + \delta$ , then for  $i \neq j$ ,  $\langle a_i(t)|a_j(t)\rangle \approx 0$ ,

$$\langle p_{i,A}(t)|p_{j,A}(t)\rangle \approx 0, \langle p_{i,B}(t)|p_{j,B}(t)\rangle \approx 0 \text{ and } \langle E_i(t)|E_j(t)\rangle \approx 0.$$
<sup>55</sup>

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<sup>55</sup>Again, recall footnote 29.

We also suppose that the  $|p_{i,A}(t)\rangle$ -state would describe actions of Alice consistent with her observing the apparatus being in the  $|a_i(t)\rangle$ -state, for example, her writing down in her log book that the apparatus is in the  $|a_i(t)\rangle$ -state or telling her colleague that this is the case. Likewise, we assume the  $|p_{i,B}(t)\rangle$ -state is consistent with Bob also observing the apparatus to be in the  $|a_i(t)\rangle$ -state.

Now suppose the initial (normalized) state of  $\mathcal{S}$  is  $|\psi\rangle = \sum_i c_i |s_i\rangle$ , so that the state for the composite system  $\mathcal{U}$  is  $|\Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_i c_i |\xi_i(t)\rangle |E_i(t)\rangle$  where  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle = |s_i\rangle |a_i(t)\rangle |p_{i,A}(t)\rangle |p_{i,B}(t)\rangle$ . We also define the corresponding density matrix for the composite system  $\hat{\rho} = |\Psi\rangle\langle\Psi|$ . If we were unable to make any observations on  $\mathcal{E}$ , then the partial trace  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{V}}(t) = \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{E}}(\hat{\rho}(t))$  will contain all the information we need to work out the expectation values for any observables of  $\mathcal{V}$ . So just as with equation (3.14), we will have

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{V}}(t) &= \sum_i |c_i|^2 |\xi_i(t)\rangle\langle\xi_i(t)| + \sum_{i \neq j} c_i \bar{c}_j \langle E_j(t)|E_i(t)\rangle |\xi_i(t)\rangle\langle\xi_j(t)| \\ &\approx \sum_i |c_i|^2 |\xi_i(t)\rangle\langle\xi_i(t)|\end{aligned}\quad \begin{matrix} \{\text{reduced}\} \\ (3.21) \end{matrix}$$

for  $t > t_0 + \delta$ . Then the expectation values of any observables on  $\mathcal{V}$  will be indistinguishable from the scenario in which  $\mathcal{V}$  is actually in one of the  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle$ -states with probability  $|c_i|^2$ .<sup>56</sup> It would nevertheless be incorrect for us to conclude on the basis of decoherence theory alone that  $\mathcal{V}$  actually was in one of those  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle$ -states, since equation (3.21) is based on a subjective distinction between  $\mathcal{V}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$  in the decomposition  $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{V} + \mathcal{E}$ . Human scientists make this distinction to reflect the fact that they

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<sup>56</sup>Again recall the discussion following equation (3.9) on page 69. There is the question of uniqueness of  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{V}} = \sum_i |c_i|^2 |\xi_i(t)\rangle\langle\xi_i(t)|$ . If all the  $|c_i|^2$  are unique, then if we have another decomposition  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}+\mathcal{A}+\mathcal{P}_A+\mathcal{P}_B} = \sum_i |c'_i|^2 |\xi'_i(t)\rangle\langle\xi'_i(t)|$  it follows that  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle \propto |\xi'_i(t)\rangle$ . But even if some of the  $|c_i|^2$  are the same, criteria 1 and 2 above will ensure that states with the same value of  $|c_i|^2$  will be determined up to permutation.

can only perform measurements on  $\mathcal{V}$  and can't measure  $\mathcal{E}$ . But if a super-intelligent being could measure everything in  $\mathcal{U}$ , then such a being would not say that  $\mathcal{V}$  was in one of the  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle$ -states, but rather that  $\mathcal{U}$  was in the state  $|\Psi(t)\rangle$ . As we have already discussed on pages 73–74, the density matrix  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{V}}(t)$  is not a mixed state, but is an improper mixture.

Now if we define the observables  $\hat{O}_{i,\mathcal{A}}(t) = |p_{i,A}(t)\rangle\langle p_{i,A}(t)|$  that would measure the behavior of Alice, and the observables  $\hat{O}_{i,\mathcal{B}}(t) = |p_{i,B}(t)\rangle\langle p_{i,B}(t)|$  that would measure the behavior of Bob, then for  $t > t_0 + \delta$ , we see that  $\hat{O}_{i,\mathcal{A}}(t)\hat{O}_{j,\mathcal{B}}(t)|\Psi(t)\rangle \approx 0$ , when  $i \neq j$ . This means that when we consider  $\hat{O}_{i,\mathcal{A}}(t)\hat{O}_{j,\mathcal{B}}(t)$  as an observable acting on  $\mathcal{V}$ , the expectation value  $\langle \hat{O}_{i,\mathcal{A}}(t)\hat{O}_{j,\mathcal{B}}(t) \rangle_{\rho_{\mathcal{V}}(t)}$  will be approximately zero for  $i \neq j$ . What this means is that if we consider ourselves as observing Alice and Bob observing the apparatus, then after time  $t_0 + \delta$ , the probability we would see Alice and Bob disagreeing with each other concerning their observations of the apparatus would be approximately 0. On the other hand, since  $\hat{O}_{i,\mathcal{A}}(t)\hat{O}_{i,\mathcal{B}}(t)|\Psi(t)\rangle \approx c_i |\xi_i(t)\rangle |E_i(t)\rangle$  for  $t > t_0 + \delta$ , it follows that  $\langle \hat{O}_{i,\mathcal{A}}(t)\hat{O}_{i,\mathcal{B}}(t) \rangle_{\rho_{\mathcal{V}}(t)} = |c_i|^2$ . We would thus observe Alice and Bob observing the apparatus to be in the  $|a_i(t)\rangle$ -state with probability  $|c_i|^2$ .

But note that on the assumption that there are no hidden variables, if we did actually make such an observation and this observation corresponded to reality, then the quantum state  $|\Psi(t)\rangle$  would have had to have changed to  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle |E_i(t)\rangle$ , since before our observation when  $|\Psi(t)\rangle$  was a complete description of  $\mathcal{U}$ , we would say Alice and Bob will measure the  $|a_i(t)\rangle$ -state with probability  $|c_i|^2$ , but when we are actually seeing them measuring the  $|a_i(t)\rangle$ -state, we would have to say that now the probability

they are measuring the  $|a_i(t)\rangle$ -state is 1, and hence we would say that the system was in the  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle |E_i(t)\rangle$ -state. Whether or not the process of the state going from  $|\Psi(t)\rangle$  to  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle |E_i(t)\rangle$  was instantaneous or took a non-infinitesimal amount of time, this interpretation would be susceptible to the problems already discussed with the Copenhagen interpretation in section 2.2.

But in the **many-worlds interpretation**, rather than assuming that  $|\Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_i c_i |\xi_i(t)\rangle |E_i(t)\rangle$  is the complete description of  $\mathcal{U}$  that enables us to work the probability of certain outcomes, we simply say that  $|\Psi(t)\rangle$  is a complete description of the state of  $\mathcal{U}$ , and we drop the assumption that we need to interpret this state as describing probabilities of outcomes. Thus a many-worlds adherent would say we can understand what the state of  $\mathcal{U}$  is on its own terms without the need to appeal to any other extrinsic principle such as measurement. Just as we don't puzzle over how to interpret what a sphere is in terms of an extrinsic principle, we don't need to puzzle over how to interpret the space of states of  $\mathcal{U}$ . We can think of the mathematical formalism  $|\Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_i c_i |\xi_i(t)\rangle |E_i(t)\rangle$  describing the state of  $\mathcal{U}$  as being somewhat akin to a point lying on a sphere given by the equation  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$ .<sup>57</sup> Although we might be tempted to interpret  $|\Psi(t)\rangle$  as describing the probability of outcomes, we are not obliged to do so, since these probabilities can instead be understood to be grounded in the symmetries the system possesses rather than in terms of the frequency of how many measurement outcomes are likely to occur. For instance, when we see a coin and judge that it will come up heads with probability  $\frac{1}{2}$  and tails with probability  $\frac{1}{2}$ , we intuit this by looking at the symmetry of the coin rather than tossing the coin

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<sup>57</sup>On the assumption that  $|\Psi(t)\rangle$  is normalized, we could think of  $|\Psi(t)\rangle$  as specifying a point on the (possibly infinite-dimensional) hypersphere  $\{(c_1, c_2 \dots) : \sum_i |c_i|^2 = 1\}$ .

millions of times and counting how often it comes up heads and how often it comes up tails. Thus, we might suppose  $|\Psi(t)\rangle$  has analogous symmetries that allow us to determine its  $c_i$  coefficients without the need to posit any of the  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle |E_i(t)\rangle$  measurement outcomes being realized.

As for the decomposition  $|\Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_i c_i |\xi_i(t)\rangle |E_i(t)\rangle$  in terms of the  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle |E_i(t)\rangle$  basis states, decoherence theory gives us a natural account of why we should choose this basis rather than any other. When  $\mathcal{U}$  is in the state  $|\Psi(t_0)\rangle = \left( \sum_i c_i |\xi_i(t_0)\rangle \right) |E_r(t_0)\rangle$ , we can think of this state as describing one world,  $W$  say. But once  $t > t_0 + \delta$  so that  $\langle E_i(t)|E_j(t)\rangle \approx 0$  for  $i \neq j$ , we can think of each  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle |E_i(t)\rangle$ -component as a different world  $W_i$ . Thus, for  $t > t_0 + \delta$ , we say the world  $W$  has **branched** into as many-worlds  $W_i$  for which the  $c_i$  are non-zero.

But why should we think that there are literally many worlds? Well, from an ontological point of view, one might very well think that there is really only one world and that this world is described by  $|\Psi(t)\rangle$ ; it would be a rather weird world since the entanglement between  $\mathcal{V}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$  would mean there wouldn't be any absolute matters of fact describing  $\mathcal{V}$ . But it might not be a bad thing to say that the “many” in the many-worlds interpretation is really just a figure of speech that we shouldn't take too literally. After all, a common objection to the many-worlds interpretation is that it is ontologically extravagant and that we should appeal to Occam's Razor. But if we just say that there is actually only one world described by  $|\Psi(t)\rangle$  then this “many”-worlds interpretation is actually rather parsimonious from an ontological point of view.

But if by literal, we mean descriptive rather than ontological, it does seem rather natural to say that there are literally many worlds. For even though we might initially suspect that the worlds  $W_i$  and  $W_j$  are not clearly delineated given the fact that  $\langle E_i(t)|E_j(t)\rangle$  is very small but not zero for  $i \neq j$ , we can nevertheless expect  $\langle \xi_i(t)|\xi_j(t)\rangle$  to be identically zero for  $i \neq j$ , just as we can expect  $\langle \hat{a}+|\hat{a}-\rangle$  to be identically zero.<sup>58</sup> Thus, if we define  $|W_i(t)\rangle = |\xi_i(t)\rangle |E_i(t)\rangle$ , then the  $\langle W_i(t)|W_j(t)\rangle$  will be identically zero for  $i \neq j$ , and so we would in fact be able to clearly delineate these worlds.

Still, the supposition that  $|\Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_i c_i |W_i(t)\rangle$  with  $\langle W_i|W_j\rangle = 0$  for  $i \neq j$  is not of itself sufficient justification for describing the state  $|\Psi(t)\rangle$  as a composition of mutually exclusive world descriptions given by the  $|W_i(t)\rangle$ . After all, the fact that

$$\begin{aligned} |\text{Cat Alive}\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle + |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle) \right) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle - |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle) \right). \end{aligned}$$

does not incline us to think of the state  $|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle$  as being composed of the mutually exclusive cat states  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle + |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle)$  and  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle - |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle)$ .

But the key justification for describing the state  $|\Psi(t)\rangle$  as a composition of the mutually exclusive  $|W_i(t)\rangle$ -states is the fact that the states  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle$  and  $|\xi_j(t)\rangle$  decohere for  $i \neq j$ , that is, the off-diagonal entries  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle\langle\xi_j(t)|$  of the reduced density matrix  $\hat{\rho}_V(t)$  will tend to zero, and as we saw in section 3.6, it will follow that quantum interference effects between  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle$  and  $|\xi_j(t)\rangle$  will then tend to zero. Thus, when it comes to

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<sup>58</sup>It is also reasonable to suppose that in situations such as the double-slit experiment described on page 82 that  $\langle \psi_1(t)|\psi_2(t)\rangle$  is identically zero. This is because  $\langle \psi_1(t)|\psi_2(t)\rangle$  when  $t$  is the time at which the particle is going through the slit, and this will remain zero because of a property of the time evolution operator known as unitarity.

observables defined on  $\mathcal{V}$ , using equations (3.13) and (3.21), we can calculate the expectation value of an observable  $\hat{O}_\mathcal{V}$  as a weighted sum of expectation values for each of the states  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle$ :

$$\langle \hat{O}_\mathcal{U} \rangle_{\Psi(t)} \approx \sum_i |c_i|^2 \langle \hat{O}_\mathcal{V} \rangle_{\xi_i(t)}. \quad \text{\{manyapprox\}} \quad (3.22)$$

The fact that (3.22) is only an approximation suggests that the time at which branching occurs is not well-defined. All that we can do is choose a sufficiently large time interval  $\delta$  such that for  $t > t_0 + \delta$ , the approximation (3.22) meets our desired level of accuracy.

Despite this vagueness on when branching occurs, we can still form a natural and well-defined notion of worlds according to the following definition: <sup>rigorousworld</sup> a set  $\{W_i : i\}$  is the set of worlds for a universe  $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{V} + \mathcal{E}$  when

1.  $W_i$  is a description of  $\mathcal{U}$  given by  $|W_i(t)\rangle = |\xi_i(t)\rangle |E_i(t)\rangle$  where  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle$  is a state of  $\mathcal{V}$  and  $|E_i(t)\rangle$  is a state of  $\mathcal{E}$ ,
2.  $\mathcal{U}$  is in the state  $|\Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_i c_i |W_i(t)\rangle$  with all  $c_i \neq 0$ .
3.  $\langle \xi_i(t) | \xi_j(t) \rangle = 0$  for  $i \neq j$ ,
4.  $\langle E_i(t) | E_j(t) \rangle \rightarrow 0$  as  $t \rightarrow \infty$  for  $i \neq j$ , and the convergence is such that for any observable  $\hat{O}_\mathcal{V}$  defined on  $\mathcal{V}$ ,  $\langle \hat{O}_\mathcal{U} \rangle_{\Psi(t)} \rightarrow \sum_i |c_i|^2 \langle \hat{O}_\mathcal{V} \rangle_{\xi_i(t)}$ .

Note that according to this definition, the description  $|\Psi(t)\rangle$  is rather trivially a world – we just take the environment  $\mathcal{E}$  to be empty so that there would be only one  $|E_i(t)\rangle$  which would be the vacuum state. So there is at least one world according to this definition. There is a question of whether there could be more than one world, and this would depend on whether we could really have a non-trivial decomposition  $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{V} + \mathcal{E}$ ,

for the supposition that there is such a decomposition requires that it is possible to distinguish  $\mathcal{V}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$ . But this might not in fact be possible. For instance, if the ultimate fate of the universe was that it would collapse into a singularity, then there would come a point at which it wouldn't be possible to make a distinction between  $\mathcal{V}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$ . But despite this possible concern, the above definition makes it seem plausible that there could be many well-defined worlds  $W_i$ .<sup>59</sup>

When we look at a particular  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle$ , it will look like it is describing a fairly classical world with scientists performing their measurements and agreeing about what they measure. And as long as the  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle$ -states remain pointer states with respect to  $|E_i(t)\rangle$ , no branching will occur. But typically, a  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle$ -state will not indefinitely remain a pointer state with respect to  $|E_i(t)\rangle$ . We can think of how this happens with the Stern-Gerlach experiment. For if one Stern-Gerlach apparatus has its magnetic field orientated in the  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ -direction, then  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$  and  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle$  will be pointer states for a silver atom in the vicinity of this apparatus. But if the same silver atom then travels onward to another Stern-Gerlach apparatus with its magnetic field now orientated in the  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ -direction with  $\hat{\mathbf{b}} \neq \hat{\mathbf{a}}$ ,  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle$  and  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle$  will no longer be pointer states with respect to their environment, and so branching will occur. But this is not necessarily a problem for the definition of many-worlds given above on page 94, for when a  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle$ -state does not indefinitely remain a pointer state with respect to  $|E_i(t)\rangle$ , we can just rewrite  $|\xi_i(t)\rangle$  as a sum of pointer states  $|\xi_{ij}(t)\rangle$  and  $|E_i(t)\rangle$  as a sum of their respective environments  $|E_{ij}(t)\rangle$ , and then  $|E_i(t)\rangle$  will be like a ready state for the

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<sup>59</sup>For the purposes of this chapter, plausibility is enough. I am only trying to show why physicists might find the many-worlds interpretation of quantum physics attractive. I am certainly not trying to show that the many-worlds interpretation is the most convincing and satisfactory interpretation of quantum physics.

$|E_{ij}(t)\rangle$ . Assuming we can do this so that the  $|\xi_{ij}(t)\rangle$  are orthogonal to the  $|\xi_{i'j'}(t)\rangle$  when  $i' \neq i$  or  $j' \neq j$ , then we would still be able to have well-defined worlds according to the definition given above.

### 3.9 The Many-Worlds Solution to the EPR-Bohm Paradox

We are now in a position to consider how proponents of the many-worlds interpretation attempt to resolve the EPR-Bohm paradox. We thus suppose there is a spin-singlet as described in section 2.2 consisting of two particles  $q_A$  and  $q_B$  that are in the entangled Bell state

$$|\Psi_{\text{Bell}}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_B - |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_B). \quad (2.8 \text{ revisited})$$

If we assume that the two experimenters Alice and Bob (themselves constituting physical systems  $\mathcal{P}_A$  and  $\mathcal{P}_B$  respectively) set their Stern-Gerlach apparatuses  $\mathcal{A}_A$  and  $\mathcal{A}_B$  to measure their respective particles along the same axis, then by (2.11), we can assume they both perform their measurements along the  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ -axis. This means that  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_B$  and  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_B$  will be pointer states of the composite system  $\mathcal{A}_A + \mathcal{A}_B + \mathcal{P}_A + \mathcal{P}_B$ . There will thus be ready states  $|a_{r,A}(t)\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{A}_A}$ ,  $|a_{r,B}(t)\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{A}_B}$ ,  $|p_{r,A}(t)\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{P}_A}$  and  $|p_{r,B}(t)\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{P}_B}$ , and normalized states  $|a_{\pm,A}(t)\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{A}_A}$ ,  $|a_{\pm,B}(t)\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{A}_B}$ ,  $|p_{\pm,A}(t)\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{P}_A}$  and  $|p_{\pm,B}(t)\rangle \in H_{\mathcal{P}_B}$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} & |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_B |a_{r,A}(t)\rangle |a_{r,B}(t)\rangle |p_{r,A}(t)\rangle |p_{r,B}(t)\rangle \\ & \xrightarrow{\text{time evolution}} |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_B |a_{+,A}(t)\rangle |a_{-,B}(t)\rangle |p_{+,A}(t)\rangle |p_{-,B}(t)\rangle, \end{aligned}$$

and similarly

$$\begin{aligned} & |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_B |a_{r,A}(t)\rangle |a_{r,B}(t)\rangle |p_{r,A}(t)\rangle |p_{r,B}(t)\rangle \\ & \xrightarrow{\text{time evolution}} |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_B |a_{-,A}(t)\rangle |a_{+,B}(t)\rangle |p_{-,A}(t)\rangle |p_{+,B}(t)\rangle. \end{aligned}$$

It will therefore follow that

$$\begin{aligned}
 & |\Psi_{\text{Bell}}\rangle |a_{r,A}(t)\rangle |a_{r,B}(t)\rangle |p_{r,A}(t)\rangle |p_{r,B}(t)\rangle \\
 & \xrightarrow{\text{time evolution}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_B |a_{+,A}(t)\rangle |a_{-,B}(t)\rangle |p_{+,A}(t)\rangle |p_{-,B}(t)\rangle^{\{\text{many worlds EPR}\}} \quad (3.23) \\
 & + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_A |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_B |a_{-,A}(t)\rangle |a_{+,B}(t)\rangle |p_{-,A}(t)\rangle |p_{+,B}(t)\rangle.
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, in the language of the many-worlds interpretation, the first summand of (3.23) corresponds to a world in which Alice observes her particle to be spin up, and Bob observes his particle to be spin down, and the second summand of (3.23) corresponds to a world in which Alice observes her particle to be spin down, and Bob observes his particle to be spin up. So in each world, Alice and Bob obtain opposite results. But if on the other hand, Bob chooses to make his measurement along a different axis, then  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_B$  and  $|\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_B$  won't be pointer states for the composite system  $\mathcal{A}_B + \mathcal{P}_B$ , and so if  $|a'_{r,B}(t)\rangle |p'_{r,B}(t)\rangle$  is the ready state for Bob's measurement choice, we must assume that

$$|\hat{\mathbf{a}}\pm\rangle_B |a'_{r,B}(t)\rangle |p'_{r,B}(t)\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{time evolution}} |E_{\pm,B}(t)\rangle$$

for some entangled state  $|E_{\pm,B}(t)\rangle$  of the composite system  $q_B + \mathcal{A}_B + \mathcal{P}_B$  with  $\langle E_{\pm,B}(t)|E_{\pm,B}(t)\rangle = 1$  and  $\langle E_{\pm,B}(t)|E_{\mp,B}(t)\rangle = 0$ . It will then follow that

$$\begin{aligned}
 & |\Psi_{\text{Bell}}\rangle |a_{r,A}(t)\rangle |a'_{r,B}(t)\rangle |p_{r,A}(t)\rangle |p'_{r,B}(t)\rangle \\
 & \xrightarrow{\text{time evolution}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |\hat{\mathbf{a}}+\rangle_A |a_{+,A}(t)\rangle |p_{+,A}(t)\rangle |E_{-,B}(t)\rangle^{\{\text{many worlds EPR2}\}} \quad (3.24) \\
 & + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |\hat{\mathbf{a}}-\rangle_A |a_{-,A}(t)\rangle |p_{-,A}(t)\rangle |E_{+,B}(t)\rangle.
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, treating  $q_B + \mathcal{A}_B + \mathcal{P}_B$  as though it were an environment of  $q_A + \mathcal{A}_A + \mathcal{P}_A$ , then according to the definition of a world on page 94, the first summand of (3.24) will correspond to a world in which Alice observes her particle to be spin up, and

the second summand of (3.24) will correspond to a world in which Alice observes her particle to be spin down, and this will be the case regardless of what axis Bob chooses to make his measurement along. Moreover, since there is no state collapse when Bob makes his measurement, and since Bob's choice has no effect on the state

$$|\xi_{\pm,A}(t)\rangle = |\hat{\mathbf{a}}\pm\rangle_A |a_{\pm,A}(t)\rangle |p_{\pm,A}(t)\rangle$$

describing Alice's observation, the many-worlds interpretation gives us no reason to worry about there being a violation of special relativity. So that is how proponents of the many-worlds interpretation attempt to resolve the EPR-Bohm paradox.

### 3.10 Evaluating the Many-Worlds Interpretation

Given the account in the previous two sections of the many-worlds interpretation of quantum physics and how it attempts to resolve the EPR-Bohm paradox, it does seem understandable why physicists would find it so attractive. Although we can't specify an exact moment at which branching occurs, the idea of branching and of there being many worlds itself is not particularly mysterious. This can all be explained in terms of the dynamics of the system and the environment, and decoherence theory allows us to understand why the interference effects that are the hallmark of quantum physics generally disappear on the macroscopic level.

There are other advantages of the many-worlds interpretation besides these which we need not discuss here.<sup>60</sup> But for all the advantages of the many-worlds hypothesis, there is one fundamental problem, and that is its patent absurdity. It seems that we should be able to say whether a cat is alive or dead without having to say what state the rest of the universe is in. However, the many-worlds interpretation suggests that for any subsystem of the universe, we will in general only be able to say what state it is in with respect to the state of the rest of the universe. For example, if the state  $\mathcal{S}$  is the system constituting a cat-wise configuration of particles and  $\mathcal{E}$  is the rest of the universe, then given that the composite system  $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{S} + \mathcal{E}$  is described by the state

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{Cat Alive}\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}|E_{\text{Cat Alive}}\rangle_{\mathcal{E}} + |\text{Cat Dead}\rangle_{\mathcal{S}}|E_{\text{Cat Dead}}\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}),$$

then we are in no position to make an absolute matter of fact claim about the system  $\mathcal{S}$  and say the cat is dead or the cat is alive. Rather we have to say with respect to

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<sup>60</sup>More details can be found in Schlosshauer, *Decoherence and the Quantum-to-Classical Transition* and E. Joos et al., *Decoherence and the Appearance of a Classical World in Quantum Theory* (Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 2013).

the environment described by  $|E_{\text{Cat Alive}}\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ , the cat is alive, and with respect to the environment  $|E_{\text{Cat Dead}}\rangle_{\mathcal{E}}$ , the cat is dead. Moreover, according to the many-worlds hypothesis, the branching into multiple worlds doesn't just occur in rare instances, such as in Schrödinger's cat-type experiments. On the contrary, branching is supposed to be happening all the time.

In order to convey how ubiquitous branching is in the many-worlds interpretation, one just has to consider the behavior of an electron. If we suppose that a free electron is initially described by a wave packet whose width is around  $10^{-10}$  m (which is of the order of the width of an atom), then according to the Schrödinger equation which governs how wave packets evolve over time, after one second the width of the wave packet will have spread to a width of around 1000 km.<sup>61</sup> The only reason electrons remain localized rather than spreading out to such vast distances is because the electron is continually interacting with its environment. But according to the many-worlds interpretation, these continual interactions of the electron with its environment will result in a continual branching out of worlds corresponding to the possible locations the environment localizes the particle to. Therefore, because the electron rapidly gets entangled with its environment, we cannot establish matter of fact claims about where the electron is localized to – we can only establish matter of fact claims about the composite system of the electron and its environment which expands with astonishing rapidity.

Because of the ubiquity of branching in the many-worlds interpretation, this interpretation appears to undermine the conditions for the possibility of doing science,

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<sup>61</sup>See Schlosshauer, *Decoherence and the Quantum-to-Classical Transition*, 117.

for surely one of the conditions for the possibility of doing science is that measuring devices exist, but it doesn't look like there are such things as measuring devices in the many-worlds interpretation. To see why, consider the properties a measuring device should possess. Firstly, it must be capable of interacting either directly or indirectly<sup>62</sup> with another entity which is the thing to be measured. Secondly, there must be some kind of correspondence between the range of states the measuring device can be in and the range of states the thing being measured can be in. Thirdly, when the measuring device interacts with the thing being measured, the measuring device should enter into the state that corresponds to the state of the thing being measured.<sup>63</sup> But according to the many-worlds interpretation, what is taken to be a measuring device will in general become entangled with the thing that is being measured, and so there will be no fact of the matter regarding what state the measuring device is in. Rather there will at the very most only be a fact of the matter regarding the state of the composite system that includes both the measuring device and the thing being measured.<sup>64</sup> Thus, in the many-worlds interpretation, there are no measuring devices satisfying the criteria one would expect a measuring device to satisfy. And so without such measuring devices, it does not appear to be possible to do science according to what we normally mean by science.

<sup>62</sup>It is acceptable for a measuring device to interact with an environment that has interacted with the thing that is being measured.

<sup>63</sup>Although the act of measuring may change the state of the thing being measured, a measuring device should still be able to tell us what the state of the thing being measured is in immediately after the measuring device has interacted with it.

<sup>64</sup>In fact, it is questionable whether we can even make a matter of fact claim about there being a measuring device at all – rather, in the many-worlds interpretation, we can only say there is a superposition of states in which there is a measuring device in existence with respect to some environments, and of states in which there is not a measuring device with respect to other environments.

Another reason for rejecting the many-worlds interpretation is that intuitively, it seems obvious that I can know I am alive without needing to know the state of the rest of the universe, but the many-worlds interpretation does not allow me to make this absolute matter of fact claim. So from both a common sense point of view and a scientific point of view, the many-worlds interpretation really is absurd.

Of course some hypotheses may initially seem absurd, but once the hypothesis has been fully explained, it can appear far more plausible. For instance, time dilation in special relativity might initially sound absurd to some people, but once one has a better grasp of special relativity and is open to the possibility that systems moving close to the speed of light with respect to ourselves might have properties rather different to systems that move with much slower speeds, then special relativity doesn't seem absurd at all. However, the many-worlds interpretation as presented here is different in this regard since it is not hypothesizing about some extreme situation. It is hypothesizing about ordinary situations. In order to accept the many-worlds interpretation, the arguments in its favor would have to be at least as convincing as the common sense beliefs it is calling into question such as the belief that we can do science and my own personal belief that I am alive. But arguments for the many-worlds interpretation clearly fail to meet this criterion. Some people may choose to embrace the absurdity of the many-worlds interpretation and reject the most basic notions of common sense. But when a hypothesis entails an absurd conclusion, a reasonable person would surely think it better to reject the hypothesis rather than embrace the absurdity.

But in rejecting a hypothesis because of its absurd consequences, it doesn't mean that absolutely everything in the hypothesis needs to be rejected, for a hypothesis might be formulated in terms of sub-hypotheses, some of which might be very plausible and which don't of themselves entail absurdities, in which case something of the original hypothesis might be salvageable. In the case of the many-worlds hypothesis, I believe it does have something that is salvageable, namely decoherence theory. In the next chapter I will consider Adrian Kent's one-world interpretation of quantum physics in which the basic ideas of decoherence theory remain intact.

## Chapter 4

### A description of Kent's Theory of Quantum Physics<sup>kentchapterdesc</sup>

In this chapter, I will describe Kent's theory of quantum physics, but before doing this, it is worth briefly reminding ourselves of the problem in quantum physics that we wish to address.

In chapter 2, we discussed the EPR-Bohm paradox and the problem of trying to account for the mysterious correlation of spin measurements on two spatially separated particles. We saw that the Copenhagen interpretation of quantum physics is unable to satisfactorily resolve this paradox because it posits that there is an instantaneous collapse of the state upon measurement, but the idea of an instantaneous collapse does not make sense in special relativity where there is no such thing as an instant of time.

We also saw that any local hidden variables theory, that is, any theory in which parameter independence (PI) and outcome independence (OI) hold, will imply Bell's inequality, and this inequality is known to be experimentally violated. Shimony proposed that quantum theory and special relativity could peacefully coexist if we accepted PI and rejected OI, but as Butterfield<sup>1</sup> points out, Shimony's proposal does not address the problem of what an outcome is despite his proposal relying on there being outcomes.

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<sup>1</sup>See Butterfield, "Peaceful Coexistence: Examining Kent's Relativistic Solution to the Quantum Measurement Problem"

As discussed in chapter 3, the problem of outcomes remains an unresolved part of the measurement problem, and the many-worlds interpretation that attempts to sidestep the problem of outcomes is deeply unsatisfactory. But as well as critiquing Shimony's proposal, Butterfield thinks that a suitable interpretation of quantum physics could provide what is missing in Shimony's account. It is for this reason that Butterfield highlights Kent's theory of quantum physics.

In this chapter, we will just focus on describing Kent's theory, and we will postpone our evaluation of whether Kent's theory can adequately resolve the EPR-Bohm paradox until chapter 5. In describing Kent's theory of quantum physics, we will focus on the ideas Kent presents in his 2014 paper.<sup>2</sup>

Kent's theory of quantum physics has some similarities in common with the pilot wave interpretation. Firstly, there is no quantum state collapse in Kent's theory. Secondly, some additional values beyond standard quantum theory (i.e. in addition to the quantum state) are included in Kent's theory. And thirdly, Kent's theory is a one-world interpretation of quantum physics. I'll consider these three features of Kent's theory in some detail as I describe his theory. I'll then present an account of his toy model that provides a simple example of how the ideas of his theory fit together.

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<sup>2</sup>Adrian Kent, "Lorentzian Quantum Reality: Postulates and Toy Models," 2014, <https://doi.org/10.1098/rsta.2014.0241>, eprint: arXiv:1411.2957.

#### 4.1 The No-collapse Feature of Kent's theory

We first consider the no-collapse feature of Kent's theory. This is a feature that belongs both to the many-worlds interpretation and to the pilot wave interpretation. In all three interpretations, the quantum state deterministically evolves according to the Schrödinger equation. The Schrödinger equation itself describes how a quantum state evolves over time when there are no outside influences. The precise formula for the Schrödinger equation need not concern us here, but all we need to know is that the Schrödinger equation determines a so-called **unitary operator**  $U(t', t)$ . What this means is that if a system is in a state  $|\psi\rangle$  at time  $t$ , then it will be in the state  $|\psi'\rangle = U(t', t)|\psi\rangle$  at time  $t'$ . A unitary operator  $U$  has the property that if  $|\psi'\rangle = U|\psi\rangle$  and  $|\chi'\rangle = U|\chi\rangle$ , then

$$\langle \chi' | \psi' \rangle = \langle \chi | \psi \rangle. \quad \text{\{unitarycond\}} \quad (4.1)$$

Under the Copenhagen interpretation, a system will evolve unitarily for the most part, but there will typically be a non-unitary change in the state describing the system whenever there is a measurement.<sup>4</sup> However, in non-collapse models such as the pilot wave interpretation, the many-worlds interpretation, and Kent's theory, the quantum state always evolves unitarily.

<sup>3</sup>A unitary operator  $U$  must also be linear so that for any two states  $|\psi\rangle$  and  $|\phi\rangle$  and complex numbers  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , we have

$$U(\alpha|\psi\rangle + \beta|\phi\rangle) = \alpha U|\psi\rangle + \beta U|\phi\rangle,$$

and furthermore, a unitary operator must have the property that it is invertible: there is a linear operator  $U^{-1}$  such that  $UU^{-1}$  and  $U^{-1}U$  are the identity operator  $I$ , i.e.  $U^{-1}U|\psi\rangle = UU^{-1}|\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$  for any state  $|\psi\rangle$ .

<sup>4</sup>Note that to say that the change in a state is non-unitary when a measurement is made is not to say that there is a non-unitary collapse operator that maps the quantum state to an eigenstate of some observable. Such a mapping would not make sense, since the collapse is not deterministic given the initial state. However, one could have a well-defined mapping from a time value  $t$  to the quantum state of the system  $|\psi(t)\rangle$  at time  $t$ . We then say that a system changes unitarily if and only if there is a unitary operator  $U(t_1, t_0)$  for any two times  $t_0$  and  $t_1$  such that whenever the state of the system at time  $t_0$  is given by  $|\psi(t_0)\rangle$ , then the state of the system at time  $t_1$  must be given by

## 4.2 The Additional Values of Kent's theory<sup>\*additional</sup>

The second similarity Kent's theory has in common with the pilot wave interpretation is that it posits the reality of some additional values beyond standard quantum theory (i.e. in addition to the quantum state<sup>5</sup>). In the pilot wave interpretation, these additional values are the positions and momenta of all the particles, whereas in Kent's

$|\psi(t_1)\rangle = U(t_1, t_0) |\psi(t_0)\rangle$ , and that for an intermediate time  $t$ ,  $U(t_1, t_0) = U(t_1, t)U(t, t_0)$ . So to say that the change in a state is non-unitary when a measurement is made is to say that the state  $|\psi(t)\rangle$  describing the system does not change unitarily in the process of making a measurement. Now to see why this is the case under the Copenhagen interpretation, we suppose that at time  $t_0$  a system is in the state  $|\psi(t_0)\rangle$  and that as long as no measurements are made up until a time  $t \geq t_0$ , the state evolves to a state  $|\psi^{(U)}(t)\rangle = U(t, t_0) |\psi(t_0)\rangle$  where  $U(t, t_0)$  is a unitary operator determined by Schrödinger's equation. Furthermore, we suppose that there is a measurable quantity with which we associate an observable  $\hat{O}$  so that whenever the state of the system is an eigenstate of  $\hat{O}$ , the value of the measurable quantity for the system will be a determinate value and equal to the corresponding eigenvalue of  $\hat{O}$ . At time  $t_0$ , we can express  $|\psi(t_0)\rangle$  as a linear combination

$$|\psi(t_0)\rangle = \sum_i c_i |s_i(t_0)\rangle$$

where the  $|s_i(t_0)\rangle$  are eigenstates of  $\hat{O}$  with distinct eigenvalues. As long as no measurement is made, this will evolve as

$$|\psi^{(U)}(t)\rangle = \sum_i c_i U(t, t_0) |s_i(t_0)\rangle.$$

We assume that as the state  $|s_i(t_0)\rangle$  evolves to the state  $|s_i(t_1)\rangle$  from time  $t_0$  to  $t_1$ , it remains an eigenstate of  $\hat{O}$  with approximately the same eigenvalue. This assumption is based on the principle that in practice, performing a measurement is not instantaneous, but rather must take place over a time interval, and so the eigenstate and eigenvalue must be stable enough over this time interval so as to specify a definite outcome. We also assume that when the system is already in an eigenstate  $|s_i(t_0)\rangle$  of the observable  $\hat{O}$ , it will evolve unitarily as  $|s_i(t)\rangle = U(t, t_0) |s_i(t_0)\rangle$  for  $t$  between  $t_0$  and  $t_1$ , and that performing the measurement corresponding to  $\hat{O}$  will have no effect on the system when it is an eigenstate  $|s_i(t)\rangle$  of  $\hat{O}$  – otherwise we couldn't be sure that whenever we looked at the measurement readout that we weren't changing the value of the quantity we were trying to measure.

Now according to the Copenhagen interpretation, when the measurement corresponding to  $\hat{O}$  is made, the system must enter into one of the eigenstates of the observable  $\hat{O}$ , and at time  $t_1$  shortly after the measurement has been made, the probability the system will be in the  $|s_i(t_1)\rangle$ -state given that it was in the  $|\psi(t_0)\rangle$ -state at time  $t_0$  will be  $|\langle s_i(t_1) | \psi^{(U)}(t_1) \rangle|^2$  in accordance with the Born rule. So taking  $|\psi(t_1)\rangle$  to be proportional to  $|s_i(t_1)\rangle$  for some  $i$ , we see that for  $j \neq i$ ,  $\langle s_j(t_1) | \psi(t_1) \rangle = 0$ . This is because eigenstates of a Hermitian operator that have different eigenvalues must be orthogonal. However, since  $U(t_1, t_0)$  is unitary,

$$\langle s_j(t_1) | \psi^{(U)}(t_1) \rangle = \langle s_j(t_0) | \psi^{(U)}(t_0) \rangle = c_j.$$

So we see that  $|\psi^{(U)}(t_1)\rangle \neq |\psi(t_1)\rangle$  if  $\psi(t_0)$  is not initially in an eigenstate of  $\hat{O}$ , and hence  $|\psi(t)\rangle$  doesn't evolve unitarily up to time  $t_1$  as  $|\psi^{(U)}(t)\rangle$  does.

<sup>5</sup>We may wish to think of these additional values as hidden variables, but we are not obliged to since we don't speculate on whether these additional variables are necessarily unknowable. Rather, we just see them as supplementing the quantum state so as to provide a complete description of the system.

theory, the additional values specify the mass-energy density on a three-dimensional distant future spacelike hypersurface in spacetime to be described shortly. We let  $S$  denote this spacelike hypersurface.

To describe the nature of this three-dimensional hyperspace  $S$ , we will need some terminology and notation used in special relativity. A **spacetime location** is a point  $(x^1, x^2, x^3)$  in three-dimensional space at a particular instant of time  $t$ , and hence described by four numbers  $(x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3)$  where  $x^0 = ct$  and where  $c$  is the speed of light.<sup>6</sup> We will use the convention of boldface type to depict spatial locations, e.g.  $\mathbf{x} = (x^1, x^2, x^3)$ , and non-boldface type to depict a spacetime location, e.g.  $x = (x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3)$ .

Now a key insight of special relativity is that there is no such thing as absolute time. So for instance, two spacetime locations might seem to be simultaneous from one frame of reference, but another person travelling at a different velocity would judge with equal propriety the same two spacetime locations to be non-simultaneous. But it is not the case that for any two spacetime locations we can always find a frame of reference in which the two spacetime locations are simultaneous – sometimes this is not possible. But we refer to spacetime locations that could be simultaneous in some frame of references as being **spacelike-separated**. For example, the two spacetime locations  $o$  and  $a$  in figure 4.1 are spacelike-separated.

There are also spacetime locations in spacetime that could be connected by a beam of light such as the two spacetime locations  $o$  and  $b$  in figure 4.1. Such spacetime

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<sup>6</sup>Multiplying time by the speed of light means that  $x^0$  is a distance like  $x^1, x^2$ , and  $x^3$ .

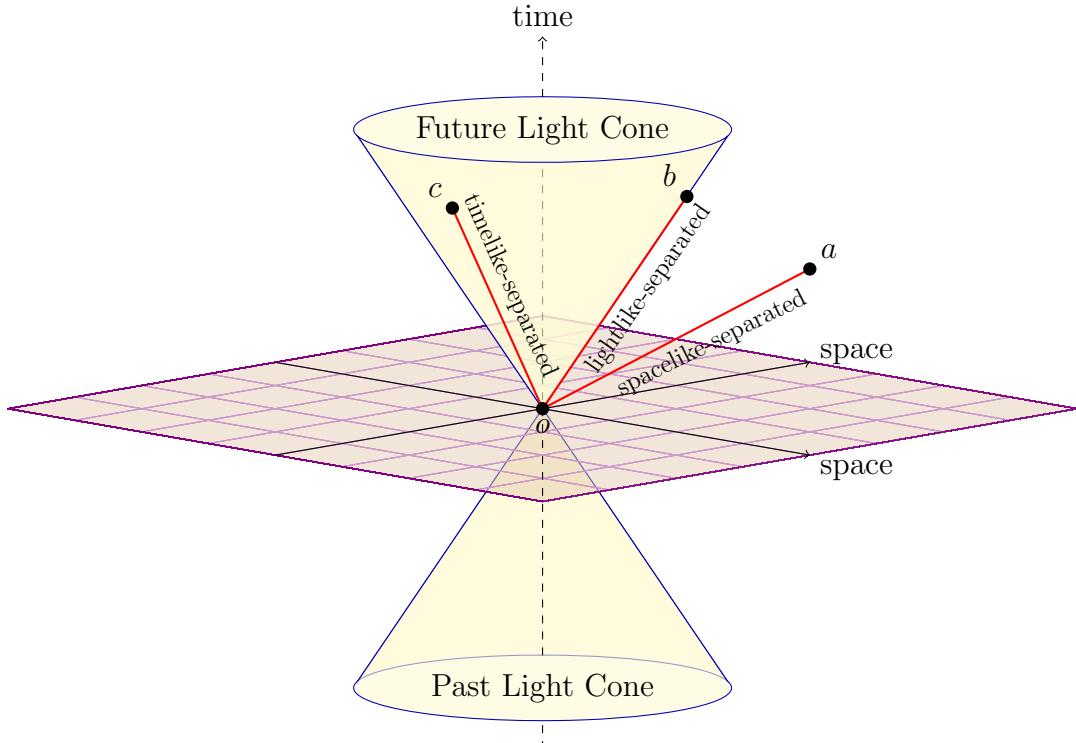


Figure 4.1: The meaning of spacelike, timelike and lightlike-separation when there are two space dimensions and one time dimension.

cone

locations are referred to as being **lightlike-separated**. For any given spacetime location, the spacetime locations that are lightlike-separated from it form two cones<sup>7</sup> called the future light cone and the past light cone as shown in figure 4.1. Because light appears to travel at the same speed no matter what frame of reference one uses, the light cone of a spacetime location remains invariant when one changes from one reference frame to another. In other words, if another spacetime location lies on the light cone of a spacetime location in one frame of reference, then it must lie on the light cone of this spacetime location in every frame of reference.

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<sup>7</sup>Strictly speaking, the set of spacetime locations that are lightlike-separated from a give spacetime location form the surface of a cone rather than a cone (which is a convex object). But among physicists, the terminology light cone has stuck.

Figure 4.1 also depicts two spacetime locations  $o$  and  $c$  that are **timelike-separated**.

Such spacetime locations lie within the light cones of each other, and when two spacetime locations are timelike-separated, it is always possible to choose a frame of reference in which the two spacetime locations are located at the same point in space, but with one spacetime location occurring after the other depending on which spacetime location is in the future light cone of the other.

Now a three-dimensional spacelike hypersurface  $S$  in spacetime is a maximal<sup>8</sup> three-dimensional surface in which all the spacetime locations of  $S$  are spacelike-separated. Kent assumes that this spacelike hypersurface  $S$  is in the distant future of an expanding universe so that nearly all the particles that can decay have already done so, and that all the particles that are not bound together are very far from each other so that the probability of any particle collisions is very small. In other words, all the interesting physics in the universe has played its course before  $S$ .

At every spacetime location  $x \in S$ , there is a quantity  $T_S(x)$  called the **mass-energy density**.<sup>9</sup> The important thing to note about  $T_S(x)$  is that it does not depend on which frame of reference one is in.<sup>10</sup> This property is in contrast to many physical properties that do depend on which frame of reference one is in. For example, the kinetic energy of an object will depend on the calculated velocity of the object, and this velocity will in turn depend on the frame of reference in which this calculation is done.

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<sup>8</sup>That is, it cannot be extended any further along any of its three dimensions, so it is not a small local surface contained within a boundary.

<sup>9</sup>The definition of  $T_S(x)$  will be discussed in section 4.2.

<sup>10</sup>The reason for why this is will be discussed in section 4.2.

Now in order to specify the additional values that Kent's theory requires, we need to discuss the Tomonaga-Schwinger picture of relativistic quantum physics.<sup>11</sup> In order to explain their formulation, it is helpful to consider first the distinction between the Heisenberg picture and the Schrödinger picture of quantum mechanics.

In the **Heisenberg picture**, the states describing a system do not change over time. Rather, the observables change over time. So for instance, if there is a time-independent state  $|\Phi\rangle$  describing a system and there is some measurable quantity whose expectation value we wish to know at time  $t$  given the state  $|\Phi\rangle$ , then we will need a time dependent observable  $\hat{O}(t)$ ,<sup>12</sup> say, corresponding to the measurable quantity at time  $t$  from which we can calculate the expectation value  $\langle\Phi|\hat{O}(t)|\Phi\rangle$  at time  $t$  given the system is in state  $|\Phi\rangle$ . In the context of quantum field theory, any observable  $\hat{O}(t)$  in the Heisenberg picture will be expressible as a sum (or integral) of observables of the form  $\hat{O}(t, \mathbf{x})$ , where  $\hat{O}(t, \mathbf{x})$  is an observable of some quantity at a particular time  $t$  and spatial location  $\mathbf{x}$ .<sup>13</sup>

The Heisenberg picture is contrasted with the **Schrödinger picture** in which the observables do not change over time, but rather the states change over time. So for instance, if there is a time-dependent state  $|\Phi(t)\rangle$  describing a system at a specific time

<sup>11</sup>See Julian Schwinger, "Quantum Electrodynamics. I. A Covariant Formulation," *Physical review* 74, no. 10 (1948): 1439–1461; S. Tomonaga, "On a Relativistically Invariant Formulation of the Quantum Theory of Wave Fields," *Progress of theoretical physics* (Tokyo) 1, no. 2 (1946): 27–42

<sup>12</sup>See footnote 15 for an explanation of the convention of using a boldface font for this observable.

<sup>13</sup>For example, in quantum electrodynamics (which is one kind of quantum field theory), the observables will be expressible in terms of fields such as the four-vector potential  $A^\mu(x)$  and the bispinor field  $\psi(x)$  which are defined at all spacetime locations  $(t, \mathbf{x}) = (t, x^1, x^2, x^3)$ . The four-vector potential  $A^\mu(x)$  can be used to determine the electromagnetic field, and the bispinor field  $\psi(x)$  can be used to determine the electric current density. In the Heisenberg picture, these fields will have corresponding Hilbert space operators at each spacetime location  $x$  from which expectation values can be calculated at the spacetime location  $x$  for a given time-independent state.

$t$  and there is some measurable quantity whose expectation value we wish to know at time  $t$  given the state  $|\Phi(t)\rangle$ , then we will only require a time-independent observable  $\hat{O}$ , say, corresponding to the measurable quantity from which we can calculate the expectation value  $\langle\Phi(t)|\hat{O}|\Phi(t)\rangle$ . As in the Heisenberg picture, we can introduce a spatial dependence into the observables so that any observable  $\hat{O}$  is expressible as a sum (or integral) of observables of the form  $\hat{O}(\mathbf{x})$  where  $\hat{O}(\mathbf{x})$  is an observable of some quantity at a particular spatial location  $\mathbf{x}$ .

Now despite the Schrödinger and Heisenberg pictures taking these different perspectives, they are nevertheless physically equivalent. This is because in both pictures, there is a unitary operator  $U(\Delta t)$  for any time interval  $\Delta t$  such that  $U(\Delta t)|\Phi(t)\rangle = |\Phi(t + \Delta t)\rangle$ , and  $U(\Delta t)\hat{O}(t, \mathbf{x})U(\Delta t)^{-1} = \hat{O}(t + \Delta t, \mathbf{x})$ . Thus, given the Schrödinger picture, to get the Heisenberg picture, all we need to do is the following: firstly, we fix a time  $t_0$  and let all the states of the form  $|\Phi(t_0)\rangle$  at time  $t_0$  in the Schrödinger picture be the state space for the Heisenberg picture; then for any Schrödinger picture observable  $\hat{O}(\mathbf{x})$ , we define the corresponding Heisenberg picture time-dependent observable

$$\hat{O}(t, \mathbf{x}) = U(t - t_0)\hat{O}(\mathbf{x})U(t - t_0)^{-1}.$$

Conversely, to move from the Heisenberg picture to the Schrödinger, we first fix a reference time  $t_0$ . Then for any state  $|\Phi\rangle$  and observable  $\hat{O}(\mathbf{x}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \hat{O}(t, \mathbf{x})$  in the Heisenberg picture, the corresponding Schrödinger picture time-dependent state at time  $t$  will be  $U(t - t_0)|\Phi\rangle$ , and the corresponding Schrödinger picture time-independent observable will be  $\hat{O}(t_0, \mathbf{x})$ .

Now if there is a quantity we wish to measure at time  $t_0$  with corresponding observable  $\hat{O}(\mathbf{x}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \hat{O}(t_0, \mathbf{x})$ , then in both pictures, the expectation value of this measurable quantity given  $|\Phi\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |\Phi(t_0)\rangle$  will be

$$\langle\Phi(t_0)|\hat{O}(\mathbf{x})|\Phi(t_0)\rangle = \langle\Phi(t_0)|\hat{O}(t_0, \mathbf{x})|\Phi(t_0)\rangle = \langle\Phi|\hat{O}(t_0, \mathbf{x})|\Phi\rangle^{\{\text{heisshrodeg}\}} \quad (4.2)$$

Since the left-hand side of (4.2) is the Schrödinger picture expectation value of  $\hat{O}(\mathbf{x})$ , and the right-hand side of (4.2) is the Heisenberg picture expectation value of  $\hat{O}(t_0, \mathbf{x})$ , it follows that whatever picture we choose, it will make no difference to the calculated expectation values of observables – in other words, the two pictures are physically equivalent.

Now although it is easy to move between both the Schrödinger and Heisenberg pictures, they both give a privileged status to spacelike hypersurfaces of the form  $t = \text{const}$ . However, according to special relativity, there are no privileged spacelike hypersurfaces. One of the advantages of the Tomonaga-Schwinger picture is that it gives no privileged status to any class of spacelike hypersurfaces, but rather all spacelike hypersurfaces are placed on the same footing. We are going to see that the expectation value  $\langle\Phi(t_0)|\hat{O}(t_0, \mathbf{x})|\Phi(t_0)\rangle$  of equation (4.2) is a special case of what Tomonaga and Schwinger consider more generally.

We first note that if we can calculate  $\langle\Phi(t_0)|\hat{O}(t_0, \mathbf{x})|\Phi(t_0)\rangle$  for any  $t_0$  and any  $\mathbf{x}$ , then we can calculate all the expectation values that might interest us. But we also note that in the expectation value  $\langle\Phi(t_0)|\hat{O}(t_0, \mathbf{x})|\Phi(t_0)\rangle$ , the  $|\Phi(t_0)\rangle$ -state is the state of a spacelike hypersurface  $t = t_0$ , and  $(t_0, \mathbf{x})$  is a spacetime location on this spacelike hypersurface. Now if we are to place all spacelike hypersurfaces on the same footing,

then in specifying expectation values, we should be just as content in specifying expectation values of the form  $\langle \Psi[S] | \hat{O}(x) | \Psi[S] \rangle$ , where  $S$  is any hypersurface,  $|\Psi[S]\rangle$  is any state of this spacelike hypersurface,<sup>14</sup>  $x$  is any spacetime location on the spacelike hypersurface  $S$ , and where  $\hat{O}(x)$  is any observable of  $S$ .<sup>15</sup> The Tomonaga-Schwinger picture thus works with states of the form  $|\Psi[S]\rangle$  for any spacelike hypersurface  $S$ , and observables of the form  $\hat{O}(x)$  with  $x \in S$  acting on the state space of the spacelike hypersurface  $S$  from which one can calculate the expectation value  $\langle \Psi[S] | \hat{O}(x) | \Psi[S] \rangle$ .

In order to construct  $|\Psi[S]\rangle$  and  $\hat{O}(x)$ , Schwinger introduces a unitary operator  $U[S]$  that maps the  $|\Phi\rangle$ -state of the Heisenberg picture to the corresponding  $|\Psi[S]\rangle$ -state that describes the state of the spacelike hypersurface  $S$ , i.e.  $|\Psi[S]\rangle = U[S] |\Phi\rangle$ . Schwinger then defines the observable

$$\hat{O}(x) = U[S] \hat{O}(x) U[S]^{-1} \quad \{\text{tsobservable}\} \quad (4.3)$$

on  $S$  where  $x$  is any spacetime location on  $S$ , and where  $\hat{O}(x)$  is any Heisenberg picture observable. Ostensibly,  $\hat{O}(x)$  depends on the surface  $S$ , but Schwinger shows that under conditions that are readily satisfied,  $\hat{O}(x)$  is independent of the spacelike

<sup>14</sup>The convention of using square brackets such as in  $|\Psi[S]\rangle$  indicates that the thing in question is a functional. Functions and functionals are closely related. A function  $f$  is a mapping from one set (the domain) to another set (the codomain), such that each input yields a single output. The typical convention is to use round brackets to denote the output, e.g.  $f(x)$  where  $x$  is the input. A functional  $g$ , on the other hand, is a function that maps a space of functions or other mathematical objects (such as surfaces or volumes) to a some value. The typical convention is to use square brackets to denote the output, e.g.  $g[y]$  where  $y$  is the input function or other mathematical object. So in the present case,  $|\Phi[\cdot]\rangle$  is a functional that takes a surface  $S$  as input to produce a state  $|\Phi[S]\rangle$  as output.

<sup>15</sup>boldref Here I am following the convention of Schwinger of always using non-boldface type to indicate Tomonaga-Schwinger picture observables, and boldface type to indicate Heisenberg picture and Schrödinger picture observables.

hypersurface  $S$ .<sup>16</sup> Also, since

$$\langle \Psi[S] | \hat{O}(x) | \Psi[S] \rangle = \langle \Phi | \hat{O}(x) | \Phi \rangle ,$$

the Tomonaga-Schwinger picture will give the same physics as the Heisenberg and Schrödinger picture. In order to avoid our notation becoming cluttered, we will write  $|\Psi\rangle$  instead of  $|\Psi[S]\rangle$ , and say that  $|\Psi\rangle$  is a state of the spacelike hypersurface  $S$ , and we will speak of the Hilbert space  $H_S$  of all such states of the spacelike hypersurface  $S$  so that we can write  $|\Psi\rangle \in H_S$ .<sup>17</sup>

We are now in a position to come back to the question of what the additional values of Kent's theory are. As mentioned on page 110, for a given spacelike hypersurface  $S$ , there will be a mass-energy density  $T_S(x)$ . Corresponding to this, there will be a Heisenberg picture observable  $\hat{\mathbf{T}}_S(x)$ , and from this we can construct the Tomonaga-Schwinger observable  $\hat{T}_S(x) = U[S] \hat{\mathbf{T}}_S(x) U[S]^{-1}$ .<sup>18</sup> These mass-energy density observables have

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<sup>16</sup>The required condition is that

$$i\hbar \frac{\delta U[S]}{\delta S(x)} = \mathcal{H}(x)U[S]$$

where  $\mathcal{H}(x)$  is a Hermitian operator that is a Lorentz invariant function of the field quantities at the spacetime location  $x$  and has the dimensions of an energy density, and where the functional derivative  $U[S]$  is given by

$$\frac{\delta U[S]}{\delta S(x)} = \lim_{\delta\omega \rightarrow 0} \frac{U[S'] - U[S]}{\delta\omega}$$

where  $S'$  is a surface that only differs from  $S$  in the vicinity of  $x$ , and where  $\delta\omega$  is the volume enclosed by  $S$  and  $S'$ . The Hermitian operator

$$\mathcal{H}(x) = -(1/c)j^\mu(x)A_\mu(x)$$

has the desired property where  $j^\mu(x)$  is the current density and where  $A^\mu(x)$  is the four-vector potential of the electromagnetic field. With this choice for  $\hat{\mathcal{H}}(x)$ , Schwinger shows that  $\square A^\mu(x) = 0$  and  $\partial_\mu A^\mu(x) |\Psi[S]\rangle = 0$ , where  $\square = \partial_\mu \partial^\mu$  is the d'Alembert operator – see Schwinger, “Quantum Electrodynamics. I. A Covariant Formulation,” p. 1449-1450.

<sup>17</sup>Though to be clear, the  $H_S$  are really identical for all spacelike hypersurfaces  $S$  since each  $H_S$  is the image of the unitary operator  $U[S]$  acting on the Heisenberg-picture Hilbert space, and the image of a unitary operator is always equal to the Hilbert space it is acting on.

<sup>18</sup>Note that  $\hat{T}_S(x)$  will depend on  $S$ . The remark above about  $\hat{O}(x)$  not depending on  $S$  does not apply here since the independence of  $\hat{O}(x)$  from  $S$  assumes that the Heisenberg picture observable  $\hat{O}(x)$  is independent of  $S$ , but this is not the case for  $\hat{\mathbf{T}}_S(x)$ . However,  $\hat{T}_S(x)$  will only depend on  $S$  in the vicinity of  $x$ , so if  $S'$  only differs from  $S$  outside a neighborhood of  $x$ , then  $\hat{T}_S(x) = \hat{T}_{S'}(x)$ .

the property that if  $x$  and  $y$  are any two spacetime locations of  $S$ , then  $\hat{T}_S(x)$  and  $\hat{T}_S(y)$  will commute. In other words,

$$\hat{T}_S(x)\hat{T}_S(y) = \hat{T}_S(y)\hat{T}_S(x).$$

The commutativity of all the  $\hat{T}_S(x)$  for  $x \in S$  means that if  $|\Psi\rangle \in H_S$  is an eigenstate of  $\hat{T}_S(x)$ , then for any  $y \in S$ ,  $\hat{T}_S(y)|\Psi\rangle$  is also an eigenstate of  $\hat{T}_S(x)$  with the same eigenvalue as  $|\Psi\rangle$ . The invariance of any  $\hat{T}_S(x)$ -eigenspace<sup>19</sup> under the action of  $\hat{T}_S(y)$  means that we can create an orthonormal basis of  $H_S$  consisting of simultaneous eigenstates of both  $\hat{T}_S(x)$  and  $\hat{T}_S(y)$ , albeit with different eigenvalues.<sup>20</sup> Moreover, for reasons that we need not go into, these eigenvalues must be greater than or equal to 0.<sup>21</sup> But because  $x$  and  $y$  are arbitrary points of  $S$ , this means we can construct an orthonormal basis  $\{|\Psi^{(i)}\rangle : i\}$  of  $H_S$  such that  $\hat{T}_S(x)|\Psi^{(i)}\rangle = \tau_S^{(i)}(x)|\Psi^{(i)}\rangle$  for all  $x \in S$ , where  $\tau_S^{(i)}(x) \geq 0$  is a possible energy-density measurement defined for every  $x$  in  $S$ . We will refer to a state  $|\Psi\rangle$  as a **simultaneous  $\hat{T}_S$ -eigenstate**, and a real valued function  $\tau_S$  defined on the whole of  $S$  as a **simultaneous  $\hat{T}_S$ -eigenvalue** if and only if  $\hat{T}_S(x)|\Psi\rangle = \tau_S(x)|\Psi\rangle$  for all  $x \in S$ .<sup>22</sup>

At this point, it might be objected that there will be uncountably many simultaneous  $\hat{T}_S$ -eigenstates and  $\hat{T}_S$ -eigenvalues so that we won't be able to form an orthonormal basis of states  $\{|\Psi^{(i)}\rangle : i\}$  with the index  $i$  being taken over the whole numbers.

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However, we can overcome this objection to some extent by supposing that in physical

<sup>19</sup>An eigenspace of a Hermitian operator  $\hat{O}$  acting on a Hilbert space  $H$  is just the space of all the eigenstates of  $\hat{O}$  in  $H$  which have the same eigenvalue.

<sup>20</sup>This is because any  $\hat{T}_S(x)$ -eigenspace is itself a Hilbert space on which  $\hat{T}_S(y)$  acts as a Hermitian operator, so by (3.3), we can find an orthonormal basis of states  $\{|\psi_1\rangle, \dots, |\psi_N\rangle\}$  of the  $\hat{T}_S(x)$ -eigenspace and real numbers  $\tau^{(1)}(y), \dots, \tau^{(N)}(y)$  such that  $\hat{T}_S(y)|\psi_i\rangle = \tau^{(i)}(y)|\psi_i\rangle$  for  $i = 1, \dots, N$ . Hence each of the  $|\psi_i\rangle$  will be a simultaneous eigenstate of both  $\hat{T}_S(x)$  and  $\hat{T}_S(y)$ .

<sup>21</sup>In other words, we are not going to concern ourselves with theories that allow for negative mass-energy densities.

reality there will be a limit on how great the mass-energy density  $\tau_S(x)$  can be and how rapidly it can change with respect to  $x$ . Although such an assumption will mean this theory will break down in extreme situations such as in the case of black holes, this theory won't be any worse off than quantum field theory which also breaks down in extreme situations.

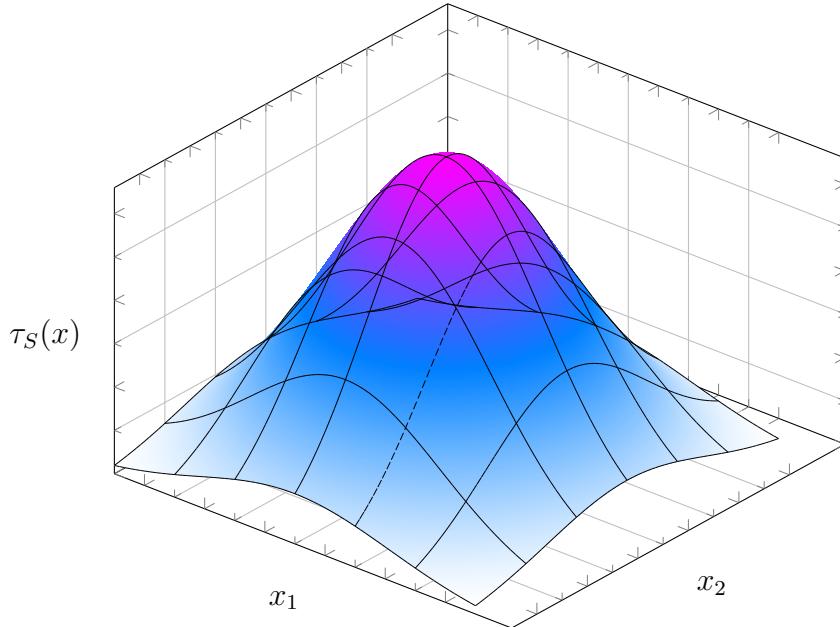


Figure 4.2: An example of an arbitrary mass-energy density  $\tau_S$  plotted against two dimension  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  belonging to the spacelike hypersurface  $S$ .

`tauSexample`

We can then suppose that with a suitably fine mesh on  $S$ ,<sup>22</sup> any mass energy density  $\tau_S(x)$  (e.g. such as the one depicted in figure 4.2) can be approximated to a function (e.g. like the one depicted in figure 4.3) that has constant values on each cell of this mesh and such that the approximation value at a cell belongs to a finite pool of possible values. For instance, if  $c_x$  is the cell which contains  $x \in S$ , and  $\tau_{\max}$  is the maximum possible value the mass-energy density could be, then we could define the

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<sup>22</sup>Note that the mesh is only a mesh in  $S$ , so the cells of the mesh are cube-like subsets of  $S$ . The time might not be constant across each cell because of the possible curvature of  $S$ .

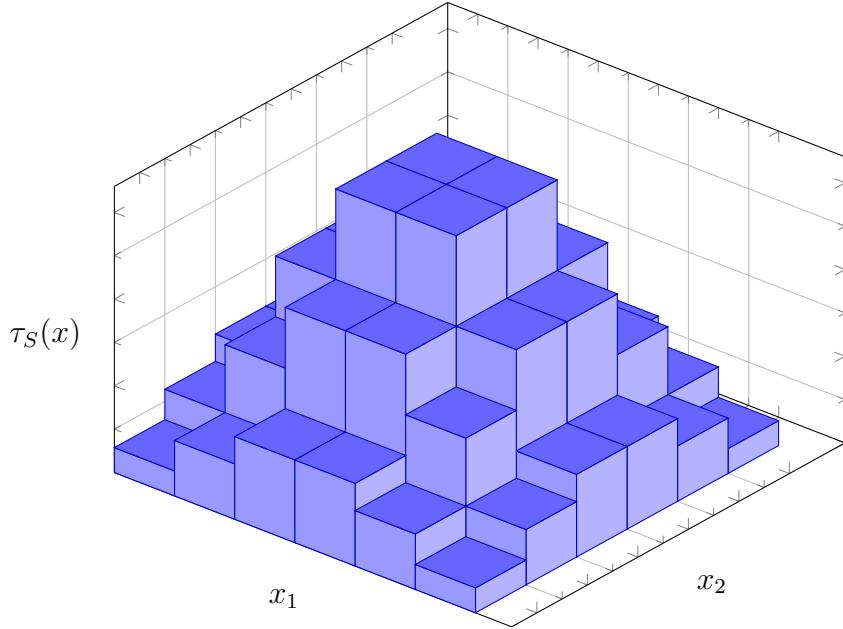


Figure 4.3: Here, the arbitrary mass-energy density  $\tau_S$  depicted in figure 4.2 has been approximated by a function which is constant in each mesh cell. tauSapprox

approximation to  $\tau_S(x)$  at cell  $c_x$  to be

$$\tau_S(c_x) = \frac{\tau_{\max}}{N} \left[ N \left( \frac{\text{average of } \tau_S \text{ over } c_x}{\tau_{\max}} \right) + 0.5 \right] \quad \{ \text{tauapproxformula} \} (4.4)$$

where  $\lfloor z \rfloor$  is the biggest integer  $n \leq z$ , and where  $N$  is a fixed large number. Then  $\tau_S(c_x)$  will have  $N + 1$  possible values between 0 and  $\tau_{\max}$ . There will then only need to be a countable number of approximations  $\tau_S^{(i)}$  to approximate any arbitrary mass-energy density  $\tau_S$  on  $S$ . As long as we choose the cells in the mesh to be sufficiently small and  $N$  to be sufficiently large, we can describe physical reality up to our desired level of accuracy. Thus, we assume that for each of the countable states in the orthonormal basis  $\{ |\Psi^{(i)}\rangle : i \}$ , there will be a corresponding function  $\tau_S^{(i)}$  defined on  $S$  which is constant on every cell of  $S$  and in which

$$\hat{T}_S(c_x) |\Psi^{(i)}\rangle = \tau_S^{(i)}(c_x) |\Psi^{(i)}\rangle \quad \{ \text{approxeigen} \} (4.5)$$

for all  $x \in S$  where  $\tau_S^{(i)}(c_x) = \tau_S^{(i)}(x)$  and where  $\hat{T}_S(c_x)$  is the observable corresponding to the average approximated value of the physical quantity  $T_S(x)$  over the cell  $c_x$  (approximated as in (4.4) with  $\tau_S$  replaced by  $T_S$ ), but we will normally just write

$$\hat{T}_S(x) |\Psi^{(i)}\rangle = \tau_S^{(i)}(x) |\Psi^{(i)}\rangle \quad \text{\{approxeigen2\}}_{(4.6)}$$

with the implicit understanding that by (4.6) we really mean (4.5), and that when we speak of  $|\Psi^{(i)}\rangle$  and  $\tau_S^{(i)}$  as simultaneous  $\hat{T}_S$ -eigenstates and simultaneous  $\hat{T}_S$ -eigenvalues respectively, we implicitly understand  $\hat{T}_S$  and  $\tau_S^{(i)}$  to be defined over cells of the form  $c_x \subset S$  rather than over spacetime locations  $x \in S$ .

Now the additional values beyond standard quantum theory that are included in Kent's theory are given by one of these simultaneous  $\hat{T}_S$ -eigenvalues  $\tau_S^{(i)}$  that (approximately) describe a possible outcome for an energy-density measurement over the whole of  $S$ . But although we speak of the measurement of  $T_S(x)$  as being  $\tau_S^{(i)}(x)$ , this is only a notional measurement. Thus, we speak of the measurement of  $T_S(x)$  only to mean that  $T_S(x)$  has a determinate value for every  $x \in S$  despite the quantum state of  $S$  in general being in a superposition of  $\hat{T}_S(x)$ -eigenstates for any given  $x \in S$ . How this determination of  $T_S(x)$  comes about is up to one's philosophical preferences. For example, one could suppose that it was simply by divine fiat that this determination of  $T_S(x)$  came about.<sup>23</sup>

Nevertheless, the particular density  $\tau_S(x)$  which is found to describe  $S$  can't be absolutely anything. Rather, we suppose there is a much earlier spacelike hypersurface  $S_0$  which is described by a state  $|\Psi_0\rangle$  belonging to a Hilbert space  $H_{S_0}$  as shown in

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<sup>23</sup>I will discuss my philosophical preference in the final chapter.

figure 4.4. It is assumed that all physics that we wish to describe takes place between these two spacelike hypersurfaces  $S_0$  and  $S$ . In figure 4.4, we therefore let  $y$  depicts a generic spacetime location that we wish to describe.

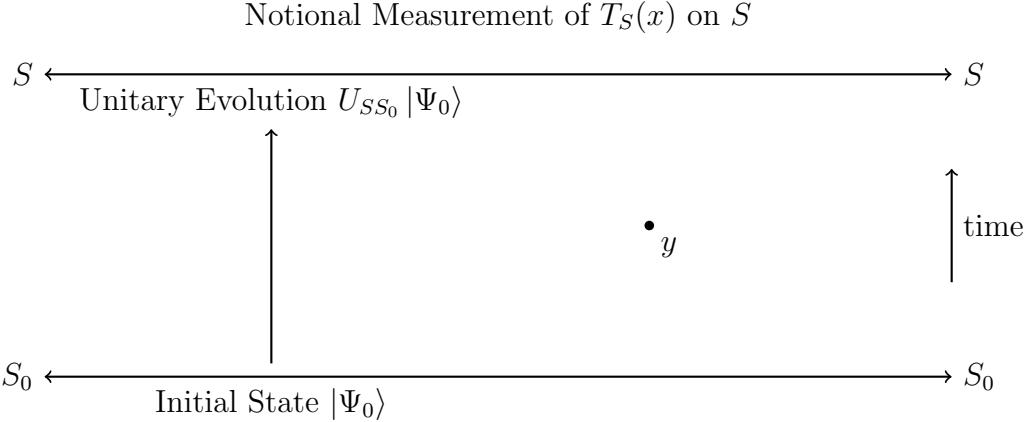


Figure 4.4: A notional measurement of  $T_S(x)$  is made for all  $x \in S$ . The simultaneous  $\hat{T}_S$ -eigenstate  $|\Psi\rangle$  with  $\hat{T}_S(x)|\Psi\rangle = \tau_S(x)|\Psi\rangle$  is selected with probability  $|\langle\Psi|U_{SS_0}|\Psi_0\rangle|^2$ . The values  $\tau_S(x)$  obtained for  $T_S(x)$  are then used to calculate the physical properties at the spacetime location  $y$ .

s1

If we now define  $U_{SS_0} = U[S]U[S_0]^{-1}$ ,<sup>SchwingerUnitaryOP</sup> then  $U_{SS_0}$  will be a unitary operator that maps states in  $H_{S_0}$  such as  $|\Psi_0\rangle$  to states in  $H_S$ . Then the probability  $P(\Psi|\Psi_0)$  that  $S$  will be found to be in the state  $|\Psi\rangle$  with mass-energy density  $\tau_S(x)$  given that  $S_0$  was initially in the state  $|\Psi_0\rangle$  will be given by the Born Rule (see page 12):

$$P(\Psi|\Psi_0) = |\langle\Psi|U_{SS_0}|\Psi_0\rangle|^2. \quad \{ \text{bornpsi} \}_{(4.7)}$$

It's possible that there might be several different states of  $H_S$  that have the same mass-energy density  $\tau_S(x)$  for all  $x \in S$ , but one of these states is still realized with probability given by equation (4.7). But it is the mass-energy density  $\tau_S$  itself rather than one of the eigenstates with mass-energy density  $\tau_S$  that constitute the additional values that Kent adds to standard quantum theory.

Also note that if every simultaneous  $\hat{T}_S$ -eigenstate  $|\Psi\rangle$  with simultaneous  $\hat{T}_S$ -eigenvalue  $\tau_S$  satisfies  $|\langle\Psi|U_{SS_0}|\Psi_0\rangle|=0$ , then by (4.7),  $\tau_S$  will not be a possible measurement outcome for  $T_S$  given  $|\Psi_0\rangle$ . It is for this reason that we can't expect the measurement outcome of  $T_S$  on  $S$  to be absolutely anything.

### 4.3 The One-World Feature of Kent's theory

The third similarity Kent's theory shares with the pilot wave interpretation is that it is a one-world interpretation of quantum physics. It will be helpful to contrast this with the many-worlds interpretation.

Unlike the many-worlds interpretation, Kent's theory does not allow for indeterminate states of macroscopic objects such as cats. In the many-worlds interpretation, Schrödinger will still only observe his cat to be either dead or alive, and not both dead and alive. However, Schrödinger himself goes into a superposition of observing his cat to be alive and his cat to be dead. In the many-worlds interpretation, there is thus a difference between observing something to be so, and something actually being so: the observation is of a particular physical scenario, but the reality is a superposition of different physical scenarios.

To capture this distinction between observation and reality, Bell speaks of **beables**.<sup>24</sup>

Bell introduces the term beable when speculating on what would be a more satisfactory physical theory than what quantum physics currently has to offer.<sup>24</sup> Bell says that such a theory should be able to say of a system not only that such and such is observed to be so, but that such and such be so. In other words, a more satisfactory theory

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<sup>24</sup>See J. S. Bell, "Subject and Object," in *Speakable and unspeakable in quantum mechanics*, 2nd ed. (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2004), 40–44.

would be a theory of beables rather than a theory of observables. On the macroscopic level, these beables should be the underlying reality that gives rise to all the familiar things in the world around us, things like cats, laboratories, procedures, and so on. For example proponents of the pilot wave interpretation believe that the beables are all the particles each with their precise position and momentum. But whatever these beables are, it is because of them that a scientist can observe a physical system to be in such and such a state. Thus, observables are ontologically dependent on beables.

Now the beables in Kent's one world interpretation are expressed in terms of a physical quantity called the **stress-energy tensor**  $T^{\mu\nu}(y)$ .<sup>25</sup> For any spacetime location  $y$ , the stress-energy tensor  $T^{\mu\nu}(y)$  is an array of 16 values corresponding to each combination of  $\mu, \nu = 0, 1, 2$ , or  $3$ . The value  $T^{00}(y)$  is the energy density at  $y$  divided by  $c^2$ ,<sup>25</sup> whereas the other values of  $T^{\mu\nu}(y)$  indicate how much energy and momentum flow across different surfaces in the neighborhood of  $y$ .

It was mentioned in the previous section that for any spacetime location  $x \in S$ , there is an observable  $\hat{T}_S(x)$  acting on  $H_S$  corresponding to the mass-energy density of the surface  $S$  at  $x$ . It turns out that for any  $\mu, \nu = 0, 1, 2$ , or  $3$ , there is also an observable  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(x)$  acting on  $H_S$ , such that if  $|\Psi\rangle \in H_S$  is a simultaneous eigenstate of  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(x)$  with eigenvalue  $\tau^{\mu\nu}(x)$  for all  $x \in S$ , then  $|\Psi\rangle$  corresponds to a state of  $S$  in which  $T^{\mu\nu}(x)$  is  $\tau^{\mu\nu}(x)$  for all  $x \in S$ .<sup>26</sup> Moreover, the observable  $\hat{T}_S(x)$  is expressible in terms of the

<sup>25</sup>This is not to be confused with the mass-energy density  $T_S(x)$  defined for  $x$  on a spacelike hypersurface  $S$ . As will be shown in section 5.1, all 16 elements of  $T^{\mu\nu}(x)$  will typically be needed to calculate  $T_S(x)$ .

<sup>26</sup>Note however, that such a simultaneous eigenstate is only for a fixed choice of  $\mu$  and  $\nu$ , since in general,  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(x)$  and  $\hat{T}^{\mu'\nu'}(x)$  will not commute for  $\mu \neq \mu'$  or  $\nu \neq \nu'$ .

$\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(x)$ -observables.<sup>27,28</sup> Now the beables in Kent's theory are defined at each spacetime location  $y$  that occurs after  $S_0$  and before  $S$ . For such a spacetime location  $y$ , the beables will be determinate values of the stress-energy tensor  $T^{\mu\nu}(y)$ , but calculated from the expectation of the observable  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$  conditional on the energy-density on  $S$  being given by  $\tau_S(x)$  for all  $x \in S$  but outside the light cone of  $y$ . In section 4.4, we will come back to the question of why we can't include any information about  $\tau_S(x)$  for  $x \in S$  within the light cone of  $y$  when we discuss how these conditional expectations are calculated. But before we do that, we first consider why we should need conditional expectations at all in order to provide a one world description of reality.

To this end, we recall the definition of expectation in equation (3.1) and the expectation formula (3.2) for an observable. In a theory that posited the beables to be the expectation values of  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$  for any  $y$  located between  $S_0$  and  $S$  without conditioning on the value of the energy-density on  $S$ , then the  $T^{\mu\nu}(y)$ -beable would just be  $\langle \Psi' | \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y) | \Psi' \rangle$  where  $|\Psi'\rangle = U_{S'S_0} |\Psi_0\rangle$  for any spacelike hypersurface  $S'$  that goes through  $y$ .<sup>29</sup> However, such a beable would give a description of reality that was very different from what we observe. For instance, in a Schrödinger cat-like experiment (see section 2.3), there would be a stress-energy tensor distribution corresponding to both the cat being alive and the cat being dead in the same world as depicted in figure 4.5.

<sup>27</sup>See section 5.1 for an explanation for why this is so.

<sup>28</sup>As in (4.6), we have the same implicit understanding of  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(x)$  and  $\tau^{\mu\nu}(x)$  as being defined over cells  $c_x \subset S$  rather than at spacetime locations  $x \in S$ , though we will often speak of them as being defined at spacetime locations.

<sup>29</sup>This can be done such that  $\langle \Psi' | \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y) | \Psi' \rangle$  does not depend on the spacelike hypersurface  $S'$  other than the fact that it contains  $y$ . For more details see Schwinger, "Quantum Electrodynamics. I. A Covariant Formulation."

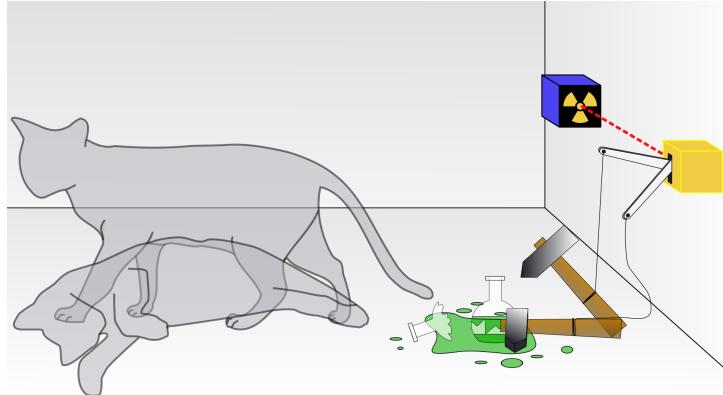


Figure 4.5: A depiction of Schrödinger's cat being both dead and alive<sup>30</sup> [deadlivecat](#)

Such a distribution arises in this context because initially there is an atom that is in a superposition of decayed and non-decayed states, and so the expectation of  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$  will have non-zero components both in the location where the non-decayed atom would be, and also in the locations of the decayed atom and the particle the atom emitted. As the decayed atom part of the state interacts with the poison releasing device, this device will also enter into a superposition so that in both the location of the poison containing flask and in the locations of all the poison atoms in the container containing the cat and into which the poison is released, the expectation of  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$  will have non-zero components. And then the cat will enter into a superposition of being in a dead state and an alive state, and so that the expectation of  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$  will have non-zero components in locations where the dead cat ends up and where the living cat happens to be. So the expectation of  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$  in the locations of the container containing the cat will be very different from what someone would actually observe.

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<sup>30</sup>Original by Dhatfield. This image is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution-Share Alike 3.0 Unported license. Source: [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Schrödingers\\_cat.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Schrödingers_cat.svg)

To overcome this defect, information about the mass-energy density on  $S$  is used, specifically the values of  $\tau_S(x)$  for  $x \in S^1(y)$  where  $S^1(y)$  is defined to consist of all the spacetime locations of  $S$  outside the light cone of  $y$  as depicted in figure 4.6.

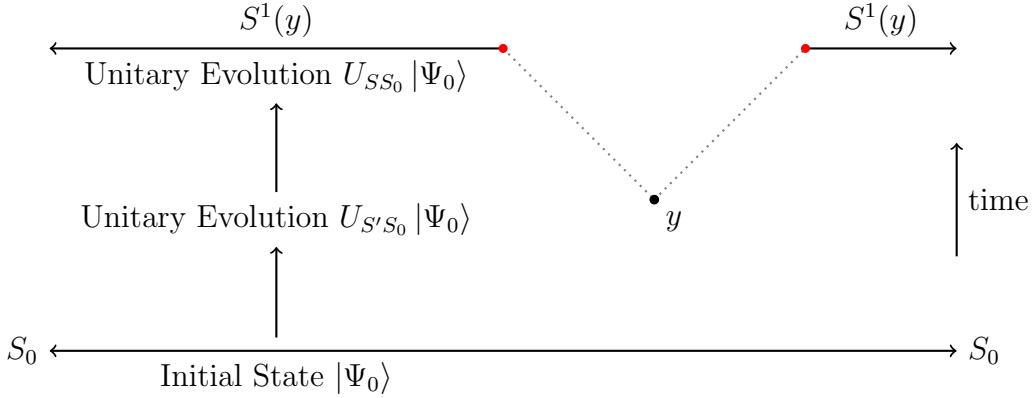


Figure 4.6: The set  $S^1(y)$  consists of all the spacetime locations of  $S$  outside the light cone of  $y$ . The  $T^{\mu\nu}(y)$ -beables are calculated using the initial state  $|\Psi_0\rangle$  together with the values of  $\tau_S(x)$  for  $x \in S^1(y)$ .  
s2

So in the case of Schrödinger's cat, if the cat were dead, light reflecting off the dead cat and going off into outer space would eventually intersect the spacelike hypersurface  $S$ , and the light distribution on  $S$  would register the inanimate status of the cat. On the other hand, if the cat were alive, the light reflecting off the living cat and going off into outer space would also intersect  $S$ , but now the light distribution on  $S$  would register the different locations the living cat was in as it moved about. Because light travels at a constant speed in a vacuum, the state of the cat at earlier times would be described by light distributions in regions on  $S$  that were further away from the cat than those light distributions in regions of  $S$  that described the cat in more recent times.

Now if the cat was in a superposition of dead and alive states, then assuming there is no intermediate collapse of the global quantum state, the spacelike hypersurface

$S$  would also enter into a superposition of different states corresponding to these different distributions of light registered on  $S$ . But if a notional measurement on  $S$  is made that determines which of these distributions is actually realized on  $S$ , then this determination will determine which history was actualized, and hence determine whether the cat actually survived Schrödinger's experiment or whether it perished. Thus, by conditioning on one of these two distributions on  $S$  being actualized, the conditional expectation of the stress-energy tensor in the vicinity of where Schrödinger's cat might be will not describe a situation like the one depicted in figure 4.5. Rather, it will either describe a situation like the one depicted in figure 4.7, or it will describe a situation like the one depicted in figure 4.8. Which of these two situations occur will be determined by whether the measurement outcome on  $S$  corresponds to a light distribution reflected from a living cat, or to a light distribution reflected from a dead cat.

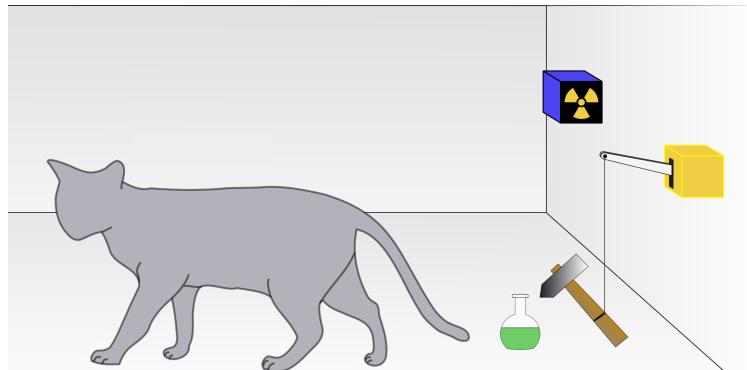


Figure 4.7: A depiction of Schrödinger's cat being alive.<sup>31</sup>

livecat

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<sup>31</sup>Original by Dhatfield. This image is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution-Share Alike 3.0 Unported license. Source: [https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/archive/9/91/20080627113554!Schrodingers\\_cat.svg](https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/archive/9/91/20080627113554!Schrodingers_cat.svg)

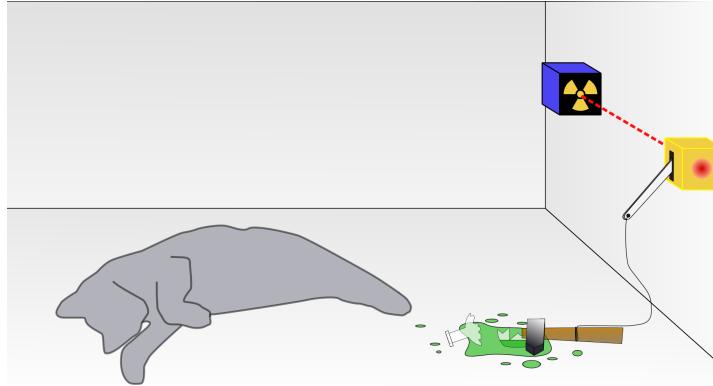


Figure 4.8: A depiction of Schrödinger's cat being dead.<sup>32</sup> deadcat

We assume that the outcome of the notional measurement (which determines which mass-energy distribution on  $S$  is realized) occurs with a probability given by the Born rule. Under this assumption, we would then expect that in the history conditioned on this notional measurement, any scientists who performed measurements (in the normal sense of measurement) would measure average values of physical quantities consistent with the expectation values predicted by standard quantum mechanics. This intuition will be discussed in more detail in section 5.6.

#### 4.4 Calculating Kent's $T^{\mu\nu}(y)$ -beables\* $\uparrow^{\text{kentcalculation}}$

Having given a qualitative description in the last section of how a measurement outcome on  $S$  determines which facts obtain in reality such as whether Schrödinger's cat is alive or dead, we now give a more quantitative description of how Kent's beables are calculated. Kent's beables specify  $T^{\mu\nu}(y)$  values for all  $y$  between  $S_0$  and  $S$ , and for all  $\mu, \nu = 0, 1, 2$ , and  $3$ . Kent's  $T^{\mu\nu}(y)$ -beables are conditional expectation values, and the conditional expectation that we need to calculate depends on the notion of **conditional probability**. In probability theory, the conditional probability  $P(q|r)$

<sup>32</sup>Original by Dhatfield. Altered by removing numbers and making into two separate figures. This image is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution-Share Alike 3.0 Unported license. Source: [https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/archive/9/91/20080627113554!Schrodingers\\_cat.svg](https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/archive/9/91/20080627113554!Schrodingers_cat.svg)

that a statement  $q$  is true given that a statement  $r$  is true is given by the formula

$$P(q|r) = \frac{P(q \& r)}{P(r)}, \quad \{\text{conditional probability}\} \quad (4.8)$$

where  $P(r)$  is the probability  $r$  is true, and  $P(q \& r)$  is the probability both  $q$  and  $r$  are true. If we now define  $q(\tau)$  to be the statement that some quantity  $T$  takes the value  $\tau$ , then the **conditional expectation** of  $T$  given  $r$  will be given by the formula

$$\langle T \rangle_r \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{\tau} P(q(\tau)|r)\tau \quad \{\text{conditional expectation}\} \quad (4.9)$$

where the summation is over all the possible values  $\tau$  that  $T$  can take.

The recipe for defining Kent's  $T^{\mu\nu}(y)$ -beable is first to select an outcome  $\tau_S$  that is defined over all of  $S$ . The outcome  $\tau_S$  is selected with probability determined by the Born rule using equation (4.7).<sup>33</sup> Then Kent's  $T^{\mu\nu}(y)$ -beable for any  $y$  between  $S_0$  and  $S$  is defined to be  $\langle T^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_S} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \langle T^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{r(\tau_S, y)}$ <sup>Kent beable</sup> where  $r(\tau_S, y)$  is the statement that  $T_S(x)$  has the determinate value  $\tau_S(x)$  for all  $x \in S^1(y)$ ,<sup>34</sup> and where  $q(\tau)$  in equation (4.9) is the statement that  $T^{\mu\nu}(y)$  (understood in the conventional non-Kentian sense) takes the value  $\tau$ .<sup>35</sup> It is these  $T^{\mu\nu}(y)$ -beables  $\langle T^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_S}$  that give a one-world picture of reality in Kent's theory.

<sup>33</sup>If there is only one state  $|\Psi\rangle$  such that  $\hat{T}_S(x)|\Psi\rangle = \tau_S(x)|\Psi\rangle$  for all  $x \in S$ , then the probability  $P(\tau_S)$  that  $\tau_S$  is selected will be precisely the probability given by equation (4.7). But if there are several states  $\{|\Psi_\alpha\rangle : \alpha\}$  such that  $\hat{T}_S(x)|\Psi_\alpha\rangle = \tau_S(x)|\Psi_\alpha\rangle$ , then the probability  $P(\tau_S)$  that  $\tau_S$  is selected will be

$$P(\tau_S) = \sum_{\alpha} |\langle \Psi_\alpha | U_{SS_0} | \Psi_0 \rangle|^2.$$

Also note that while no one outcome for  $\tau_S$  is going to be very likely, having the outcome  $\tau_S$  shouldn't be highly improbable relative to other possible mass-energy density outcomes. That is, if  $P(\tau_S) \ll P(\tau'_S)$ , then  $\tau_S$  shouldn't be selected.

<sup>34</sup>Strictly speaking, we should say that  $r(\tau_S, y)$  is the statement that the approximation of the mass-energy density  $T_S(x)$  given by equation (4.4) has the value  $\tau_S(c_x)$  for every cell  $c_x$  in  $S$  outside the light cone of  $y$ .

<sup>35</sup>Again, we assume that  $T^{\mu\nu}(y)$  is averaged over a small three-dimensional cell  $c_y$  of spacelike separated spacetime locations (with  $y \in c_y$ ), and approximated to a finite pool of values as in equation (4.4).

We can see how the formula (4.9) relates to the Schödinger's cat scenario. The distribution of light reflected off the cat that intersects  $S^1(y)$  when “measured” will determine a definite statement  $r(\tau_S, y)$  about the mass-energy density on  $S^1(y)$ . This in turn will determine the range of  $\tau$  for which  $P(q(\tau)|r(\tau_S, y))$  is not close to zero, and hence where the stress-energy distribution  $\langle T^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_S}$  is not zero. This stress-energy distribution will then correspond either to that of a living cat or to that of a dead cat, but not both.

Coming back to the question of why we don't include any information about  $\tau_S(x)$  for  $x \in S$  from within the light cone of  $y$ , we need to consider in more detail how we would calculate  $\langle T^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_S}$ . From (4.8) and (4.9), we will be able to perform this calculation so long as we can calculate  $P(q(\tau) \& r(\tau_S, y))$  and  $P(r(\tau_S, y))$ .

Calculating  $P(r(\tau_S, y))$  is relatively straightforward. As described on page 116, we can find an orthonormal basis  $\{|\Psi^{(i)}\rangle : i\}$  of  $H_S$  consisting of simultaneous  $\hat{T}_S$ -eigenstates and simultaneous  $\hat{T}_S$ -eigenvalues  $\tau_S^{(i)}$  respectively. The probability  $P(r(\tau_S, y))$  will then be

$$P(r(\tau_S, y)) = \sum_{\substack{i \text{ such that} \\ \tau_S^{(i)}(x) = \tau_S(x) \\ \text{for all } x \in S^1(y)}} |\langle \Psi^{(i)} | U_{SS_0} | \Psi_0 \rangle|^2 \quad \{ \text{rProb} \}_{(4.10)}$$

where we have used equation (4.7).

But calculating  $P(q(\tau) \& r(\tau_S, y))$  is a bit more involved because in the Tomonaga-Schwinger picture, the definition of observables via

$$\hat{O}(x) = U[S] \hat{O}(x) U[S]^{-1} \quad (4.3 \text{ revisted})$$

requires that  $x \in S$ . This means that we can't define  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$  according to (4.3) since  $y \notin S$ .<sup>36</sup> However, we do not face such restrictions in the Heisenberg picture, so one approach would be to calculate  $P(q(\tau) \& r(\tau_S, y))$  in the Heisenberg picture. As we will see shortly, this is not the approach that Kent takes, but nevertheless, in the Heisenberg picture, it is easier to see why we don't include information from  $S$  within the light cone (without begging the question of why we don't) when calculating  $P(q(\tau) \& r(\tau_S, y))$ .

To see why this is so, consider the simpler case of just two measurable quantities  $F$  and  $G$  which we assume to have a discrete range of possible values and for which we wish to calculate the joint probability  $P((F = f) \& (G = g))$ . To do this in the Heisenberg picture, we need an orthonormal basis of the state space  $\{|\Phi^{(i)}\rangle : i\}$  consisting of simultaneous eigenstate of the observables  $\hat{F}$  and  $\hat{G}$  with eigenvalues  $f^{(i)}$  and  $g^{(i)}$  respectively so that  $\hat{F}|\Phi^{(i)}\rangle = f^{(i)}|\Phi^{(i)}\rangle$  and  $\hat{G}|\Phi^{(i)}\rangle = g^{(i)}|\Phi^{(i)}\rangle$ , and when the system is in the state  $|\Phi^{(i)}\rangle$ , the quantity  $F$  will have the value  $f^{(i)}$ , and the quantity  $G$  will have the value  $g^{(i)}$ . Given that the system is in the state  $|\Phi\rangle$ , the joint probability  $P((F = f) \& (G = g))$  can then be calculated using the Born rule to get

$$P((F = f) \& (G = g)) = \sum_{\substack{i \text{ such that} \\ f^{(i)}=f \text{ and } g^{(i)}=g}} |\langle \Phi^{(i)} | \Phi \rangle|^2.$$

But in order for such an orthonormal basis to exist, it is necessary that  $\hat{F}$  and  $\hat{G}$  commute.<sup>37</sup> This means that if  $\hat{F}$  and  $\hat{G}$  do not commute, then we cannot define the joint probability  $P((F = f) \& (G = g))$ .

<sup>36</sup>If we did attempt to use (4.3) to define  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y) = U[S]\hat{\mathbf{T}}^{\mu\nu}(y)U[S]^{-1}$ , then  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$  would have a (non-local) dependence on  $S$ , and such a dependence would not be desirable.

<sup>37</sup>This is because given such an orthonormal basis  $\{|\Phi^{(i)}\rangle : i\}$  of simultaneous eigenstates of  $\hat{F}$  and  $\hat{G}$ , we have

$$\hat{F}\hat{G}|\Phi^{(i)}\rangle = f^{(i)}g^{(i)}|\Phi^{(i)}\rangle = g^{(i)}f^{(i)}|\Phi^{(i)}\rangle = \hat{G}\hat{F}|\Phi^{(i)}\rangle$$

Now quantum field theory is so constructed that  $\hat{\mathbf{T}}^{00}(x)$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{T}}^{\mu\nu}(y)$  will not commute when  $x$  and  $y$  are not spacelike separated, but  $\hat{\mathbf{T}}^{\mu'\nu'}(x)$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{T}}^{\mu\nu}(y)$  will commute when  $x$  and  $y$  are spacelike separated.<sup>38</sup> As we will see on page 151,  $T_S(x)$  will have a  $T^{00}(x)$  component, and so we can only be sure that  $\hat{\mathbf{T}}_S(x)$  will commute with  $\hat{\mathbf{T}}^{\mu\nu}(y)$  if  $x$  and  $y$  are spacelike separated. In other words,  $\hat{\mathbf{T}}_S(x)$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{T}}^{\mu\nu}(y)$  will commute if  $x$  is outside the light cone of  $y$ . Extending this argument to multiple  $x \in S$ , we see that we can only guarantee that the conditional expectation of  $T^{\mu\nu}(y)$  is definable if we restrict our conditioning on the value of  $T_S(x)$  to  $x \in S^1(y)$ , that is, to  $x$  in  $S$  outside the light cone of  $y$ .

Having explained why we don't include any information about  $\tau_S(x)$  for  $x \in S$  from within the light cone of  $y$ , we can now proceed to calculate  $P(q(\tau) \& r(\tau_S, y))$ . Now although there is no spacelike hypersurface that contains both  $y$  and  $S^1(y)$ , we can find a sequence of spacelike hypersurfaces  $S_n(y)$  each of which contains<sup>39</sup>  $y$  such that<sup>saydef</sup>  $S_n(y) \subset S_{n'}(y)$  for  $n < n'$ , and such that for any  $x \in S^1(y)$ , there exists  $n$  and an open subset  $U_n(x) \subset S$  containing  $x$  such that  $U_n(x) \subset S_n(y)$ . It will also be convenient to require that  $S \setminus S_n(y)$  is bounded. An example of one such  $S_n(y)$  is shown in figure

so for any arbitrary state  $|\Phi\rangle = \sum_i c_i |\Phi^{(i)}\rangle$ , we have

$$\hat{\mathbf{F}}\hat{\mathbf{G}}|\Phi\rangle = \sum_i c_i \hat{\mathbf{F}}\hat{\mathbf{G}}|\Phi^{(i)}\rangle = \sum_i c_i \hat{\mathbf{G}}\hat{\mathbf{F}}|\Phi^{(i)}\rangle = \hat{\mathbf{G}}\hat{\mathbf{F}}|\Phi\rangle.$$

<sup>38</sup>The proof of this statement need not concern us, but one can see that this is the case by considering the four potential commutation relations and the decomposition of the stress-energy tensors as in terms of the four-potentials – see Schwinger, “Quantum Electrodynamics. I. A Covariant Formulation,” p. 1443–1444.

<sup>39</sup>More precisely, we should say each hypersurface  $S_n(y)$  contains  $c_y$  where  $c_y$  is the cell contain  $y$  mentioned in footnote 35. We make  $c_y$  sufficiently small so that the  $c_x$  cells of  $S$  outside the light cone of  $y$  are identical to the  $c_x$  cells of  $S$  outside the light cone of  $c_y$ . We can do this on the assumption that  $c_y$  and the  $c_x$  are closed sets, since outside the light cone of  $y$  is an open set, so none of the  $c_x$  will touch the boundary of the light cone in  $S$ .

4.9. When there is no ambiguity, we will drop the  $y$  and write  $S_n$  instead of  $S_n(y)$ .

Such a sequence  $S_n$  of hypersurfaces will be sufficient to calculate  $P(q(\tau) \& r(\tau_S, y))$ .

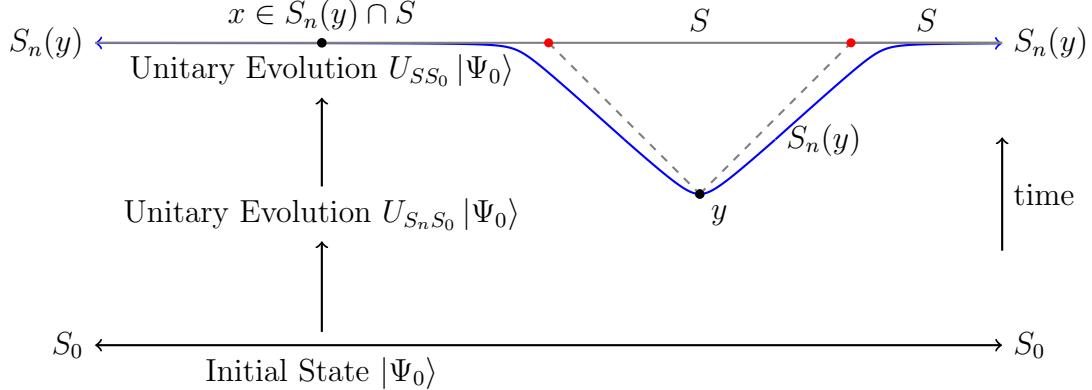


Figure 4.9:  $S_n \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} S_n(y)$  is a spacelike hypersurface containing  $y$  and all of  $S^1(y)$  in the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .  
s3

So let us define  $r_n$  to be the statement that  $T_S(x)$  has the determinate value  $\tau_S(x)$

for all  $x \in S_n \cap S$ .<sup>40</sup> We recall that in the Tomonaga-Schwinger formulation of

relativistic quantum physics, the operators  $\hat{T}_S(x)$  and  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$  for fixed  $\mu, \nu$  commute

when  $x$  and  $y$  are spacelike-separated. It therefore follows that we can express any

state of  $H_{S_n}$  as a superposition of simultaneous eigenstates of  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$  and  $\hat{T}_S(x)$  for

$x \in S_n \cap S$ .<sup>41</sup> For a particular choice of  $\mu, \nu$ , we can then form an orthonormal

basis  $\{|\Psi_n^{(i)}\rangle : i\}$  of  $H_{S_n}$  consisting of simultaneous  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$ ,  $\hat{T}_S(x)$ -eigenstates so that

$$\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y) |\Psi_n^{(i)}\rangle = \tau^{(i)} |\Psi_n^{(i)}\rangle \text{ and } \hat{T}_S(x) |\Psi_n^{(i)}\rangle = \tau_S^{(i)}(x) |\Psi_n^{(i)}\rangle \text{ for } x \in S_n \cap S,$$

where  $\tau^{(i)}$  and  $\tau_S^{(i)}(x)$  are the corresponding eigenvalues. The probability  $P(q(\tau) \& r_n)$  will then

<sup>40</sup>A possible worry someone might have about this statement  $r_n$  is that  $\tau_S(x)$  is the value of the beable  $T_S(x)$  for  $x$  in  $S^1(y) \cap S$  but it's not the value of the beable  $T_{S_n}(x)$  for  $x$  in  $S_n \cap S$ . Such a worry would be valid if the beable  $T_S(x)$  depended on the whole of  $S$  and the beable  $T_{S_n}(x)$  depended on the whole of  $S_n$ . However, the Tomonaga-Schwinger formulation of relativistic quantum physics guarantees that  $T_S(x)$  and  $T_{S_n}(x)$  will only have a local dependence on the hypersurfaces  $S$  and  $S_n$  respectively in the vicinity of  $x$ . Since we assume that for any  $x \in S^1(y)$ , there exists an open subset  $U_n(x) \subset S$  containing  $x$  such that  $U_n(x) \subset S_n(y)$ , the hypersurfaces  $S$  and  $S_n$  will be identical in the vicinity of  $x$  which includes the open set  $U_n(x)$ , and hence the beables  $T_S(x)$  and  $T_{S_n}(x)$  will also be identical.

<sup>41</sup>Strictly speaking we should say simultaneous eigenstates of  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(c_y)$  and  $\hat{T}_S(c_x)$  for all  $c_x \subset S_n \cap S$ .

be

$$P(q(\tau) \& r_n) = \sum_{\substack{i \text{ such that } \tau^{(i)} = \tau \\ \text{and } \tau_S^{(i)}(x) = \tau_S(x) \\ \text{for all } x \in S_n \cap S}} \left| \langle \Psi_n^{(i)} | U_{SS_0} | \Psi_0 \rangle \right|^2.$$

Taking the limit as  $n$  tends to infinity, we can calculate the probability  $P(q(\tau) \& r(\tau_S, y))$

to be

$$P(q(\tau) \& r(\tau_S, y)) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(q(\tau) \& r_n).^{42} \quad \text{\{qrProb\}}_{(4.11)}$$

Assuming  $\tau_S$  is selected in accordance with the Born rule so that  $P(r) > 0$ , we can plug

(4.10) and (4.11) into (4.8) to calculate the conditional probability  $P(q(\tau)|r(\tau_S, y))$ ,

and hence the conditional expectation  $\langle T^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_S} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \langle T^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{r(\tau_S, y)}$  via equation (4.9).

We thus obtain

$$\langle T^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_S} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{\tau} \frac{P(q(\tau) \& r_n)\tau}{P(r_n)}. \quad \text{\{beable1\}}_{(4.12)}$$

In section 5.1, we will give a more detailed description of this calculation in order to show that the predictions Kent's theory makes are consistent with standard quantum physics.

## 4.5 Kent's toy example

`toysection`

To get a feel for how all the elements of Kent's theory fit together, we will conclude this chapter by describing Kent's toy model example that he discusses in his 2014 paper.<sup>43</sup> In his toy model, Kent considers a system in one spatial dimension which

<sup>42</sup>In fact, there will be a finite  $n'$  such that  $P(q(\tau) \& r(\tau_S, y)) = P(q(\tau) \& r_{n'})$ . This is because for any  $n$  we are assuming  $S \setminus S_n$  is bounded, so there will be a finite number of  $c_x$  cells of  $S$  outside the light cone of  $c_y$  that are not contained in  $S_n$ , and so the union of all these cells  $U$  will be compact. But for any  $x \in U$ , we can find  $n''$  such that the open set  $U_{n''}(x)$  containing  $x$  with  $U_{n''}(x) \subset S$  and  $U_{n''}(x) \subset S_n$ . These  $U_{n''}(x)$  will then form an open cover of  $U$ , and by the definition of compactness, every open cover has a finite subcover. If we therefore choose  $n'$  to be the maximum  $n''$  of this finite subcover, then  $S_{n'}$  will contain all of  $U$  since  $S_{n''} \subset S_{n'}$  for  $n'' < n'$ . Then by definition of the statements  $r(\tau_S, y)$  and  $r_n$ , it follows that  $r(\tau_S, y) = r_{n'}$ .

<sup>43</sup>See Kent, “Lorentzian Quantum Reality: Postulates and Toy Models,” p. 3–4.

is the superposition of two localized states/wave functions<sup>44</sup>  $\psi_0^{\text{sys}} = c_1\psi_1^{\text{sys}} + c_2\psi_2^{\text{sys}}$  where  $\psi_1^{\text{sys}}$  is localized at spatial location  $z_1$ ,  $\psi_2^{\text{sys}}$  is localized at spatial location  $z_2$ , and  $|c_1|^2 + |c_2|^2 = 1$ . According to the Copenhagen interpretation, a measurement on this system would collapse the wave function of  $\psi_0^{\text{sys}}$  to the wave function of  $\psi_1^{\text{sys}}$  with probability  $|c_1|^2$ , and to the wave function of  $\psi_2^{\text{sys}}$  with probability  $|c_2|^2$ . The purpose of Kent's toy model is to show that within his interpretation, there is something analogous to wave function collapse. In order for this "collapse" to happen, one needs to consider how the system interacts with light. Thus, Kent supposes that a photon (which is modelled as a point particle) comes in from the left, and as it interacts with the two states  $\psi_1^{\text{sys}}$  and  $\psi_2^{\text{sys}}$ , the photon enters into a superposition of states, corresponding to whether the photon reflects off the localized  $\psi_1^{\text{sys}}$ -state at time  $t_1$  or the localized  $\psi_2^{\text{sys}}$ -state at time  $t_2$ . The photon in superposition then travels to the left and eventually reaches the one dimensional spacelike hypersurface  $S$  at locations  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  as shown in figure 4.10.

We now suppose that when the mass-energy density  $S$  is "measured", the energy of the photon is found to be at  $\gamma_1$  rather than at  $\gamma_2$ . We then consider the mass-density at early spacetime locations  $y_1^a = (z_1, t_a)$  and  $y_2^a = (z_2, t_a)$  as shown in figure 4.11 (a) and (b).

<sup>44</sup>So far in this chapter, we have been describing systems in terms of their quantum states rather than their **quantum wave functions**. It is easiest to understand what a quantum wave function is in the context of a single particle system. In the Schrödinger picture, a particle in state  $|\psi(t)\rangle$  allows us to calculate the expectation value of a quantity  $O$  belonging to the particle via the formula  $\langle\psi(t)|\hat{O}|\psi(t)\rangle$  where  $\hat{O}$  is the observable corresponding to  $O$ . One such quantity is the particle's spatial location. If the particle is at spatial location  $\mathbf{x}$ , then the particle will be in the state  $|\mathbf{x}\rangle$  (c.f. the definition of  $|x\rangle$  in footnote 47 on page 83.) where the position observable  $\hat{\mathbf{X}}_i$  satisfies  $\hat{\mathbf{X}}_i|\mathbf{x}\rangle = x_i|\mathbf{x}\rangle$  for  $i = 1, 2$ , or 3. The corresponding wave function for this particle is then  $\psi(\mathbf{x}, t) = \langle\mathbf{x}|\psi(t)\rangle$ . For a particle restricted to one spatial dimension, the particle would have a wave function  $\psi(z, t) = \langle z|\psi(t)\rangle$  where  $z$  is now just a single number that specifies the particle's possible position. We will write  $\psi$  to denote the wave function itself, and  $\psi(z, t)$  to denote the value of the wave function  $\psi$  at spacetime location  $(z, t)$ .

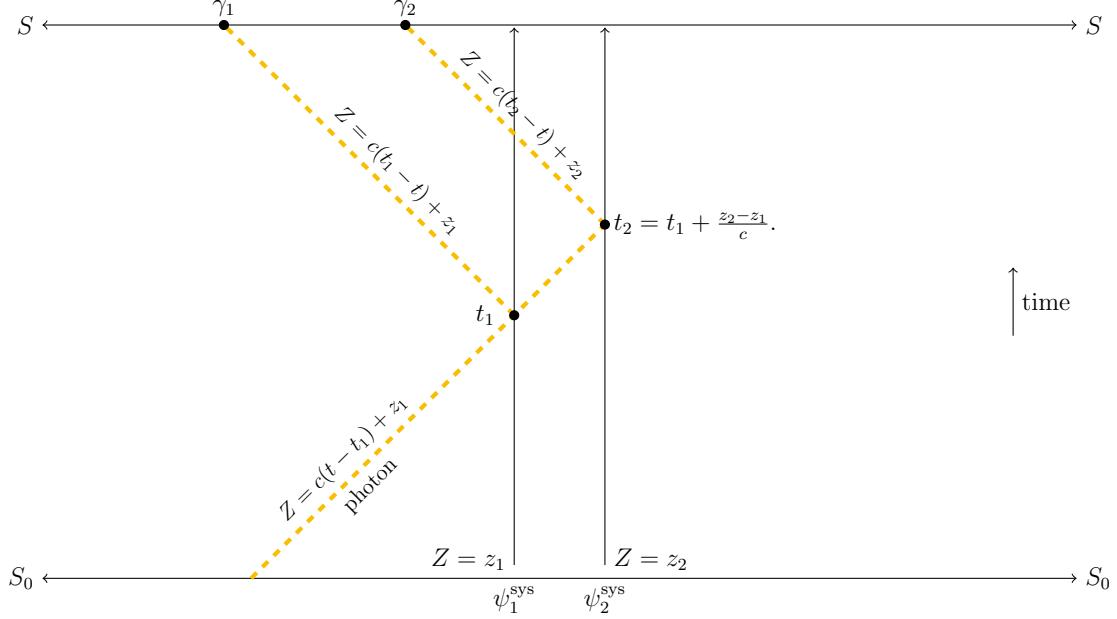
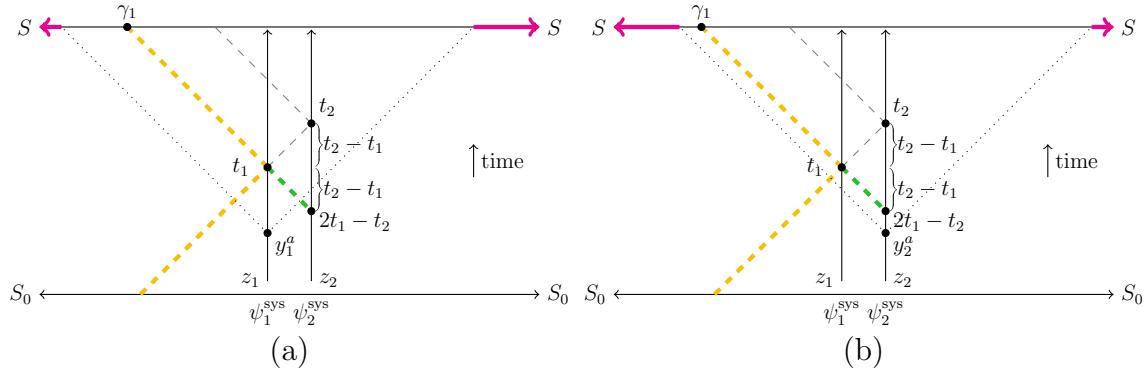


Figure 4.10: Kent's toy model

TM1

Figure 4.11: (a) highlights the part of  $S$  used to calculate the energy density at  $y_1^a$  whose time is less than  $2t_1 - t_2$ . (b) highlights the part of  $S$  used to calculate the energy density at  $y_2^a$  whose time is less than  $2t_1 - t_2$ .

TM2

By early, we mean that  $t_a < 2t_1 - t_2$ . This will mean that the possible detection locations  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  will be inside the forward light cones of  $y_1^a$  and  $y_2^a$ . Hence,  $S^1(y_1^a) \cap S$  and  $S^1(y_2^a) \cap S$  contain no additional information beyond standard quantum theory by which we could calculate the conditional expectation values of the energy at  $y_1^a$  and  $y_2^a$ . Hence, according to Kent's theory, the total energy at time  $t_a$  will be divided between the two spatial locations with a proportion of  $|c_1|^2$  at  $z_1$  and a proportion of  $|c_2|^2$  at  $z_2$ .

However, the situation is different for two spacetime locations  $y_1^b = (z_1, t_b)$  and  $y_2^b = (z_2, t_b)$  with  $t_b$  slightly after  $2t_1 - t_2$  as depicted in figure 4.12.

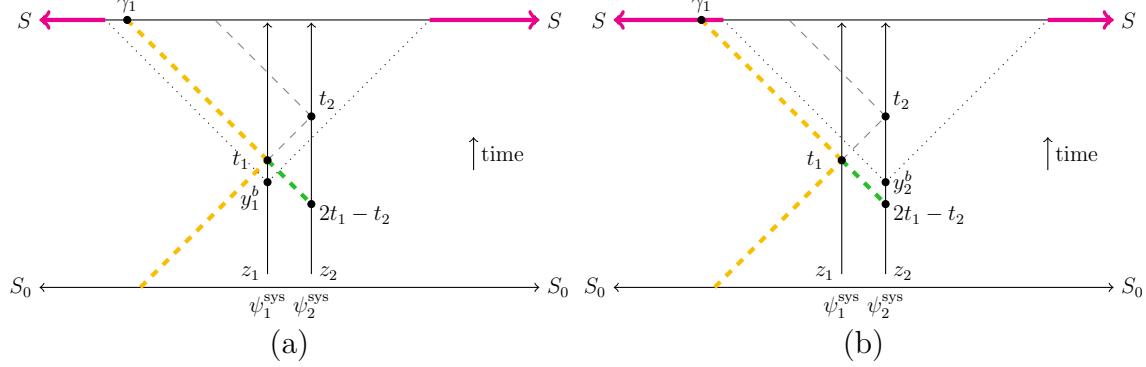


Figure 4.12: (a) highlights the part of  $S$  used to calculate the energy density at  $y_1^b$  whose time is greater than  $2t_1 - t_2$ . (b) highlights the part of  $S$  used to calculate the energy density at  $y_2^b$  whose time is greater than  $2t_1 - t_2$ .

TM3

In this situation, when we consider the location  $y_1^b$ , there is no additional information in  $S^1(y_1^b) \cap S$  beyond standard quantum theory, so there will be a proportion of  $|c_1|^2$  of the total initial energy of the system at  $y_1^b$ . But at location  $y_2^b$ , the information in  $S^1(y_2^b) \cap S$  shows that the photon has reflected from the localized  $\psi_1^{\text{sys}}$ -state, and so this additional information tells us that after time  $t_b$ , there is no energy localized at  $z_2$  since from the perspective of  $y_2^b$ , the energy is known to be localized at  $z_1$ . So it is as though the information of  $S^1(y_2^b) \cap S$  has determined that we are in a world in which there is an energy density of zero at  $y_2^b$ , and there are no other worlds in which the energy density at  $y_2^b$  is non-zero since all worlds have to be consistent with the notional measurement made on  $S$ . So for a short time the total energy of the system is reduced by  $|c_1|^2$ .

However, as shown in figure 4.13, for times  $t_c$  greater than  $t_1$ , the total energy of the system is once again restored to the initial energy the system had when in the state  $\psi_0^{\text{sys}}$ .

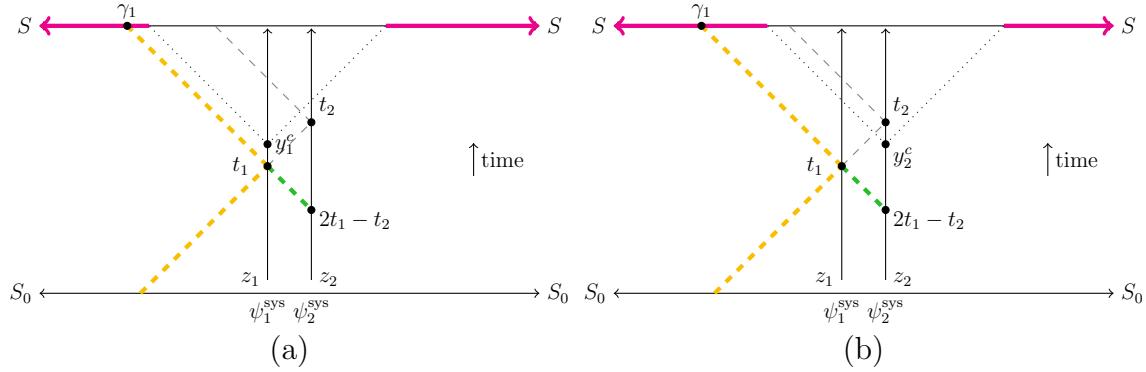


Figure 4.13: (a) highlights the part of  $S$  used to calculate the energy density at  $y_1^c$  whose time is greater than  $t_1$ . (b) highlights the part of  $S$  used to calculate the energy density at  $y_2^c$  whose time is greater than  $t_1$ .

TM4

In this situation, there is now information in  $S^1(y_1^c) \cap S$  that determines that the photon reflected off the localized  $\psi_1^{\text{sys}}$ -state. This means that when the conditional expectation of the energy density of  $y_1^c$  is calculated, the extra information in  $S^1(y_1^c) \cap S$  determines that all the energy of the system is located at location  $z_1$  for times  $t_c$  greater than  $t_1$ , and the energy is equal to the initial energy of the system so that energy is conserved.

## Chapter 5

### Evaluating Kent's Theory<sup>KentEval</sup>

In order to evaluate Kent's theory of quantum physics, it will first be helpful to remind ourselves of the problem we are trying to solve.

In chapter 2, we discussed the EPR-Bohm paradox and the problem of explaining the mysterious correlations between measurement outcomes of spin singlets in a way consistent with special relativity and the predictions of standard quantum theory. We saw that the Copenhagen interpretation does not seem to be consistent with special relativity. We also discussed Shimony's distinction between Outcome Independence (OI) and Parameter Independence (PI) and Shimony's idea that we should only accept a theory in which OI is false and PI is true. Since PI is false in the pilot-wave theory, we should reject it according to Shimony's criterion.

But although Shimony's criterion is a promising line of inquiry, by itself, it is not sufficient to resolve the EPR-Bohm paradox. This is because Shimony's criterion doesn't address the controversial issue of what is meant by an outcome. In chapter 3, we discussed this controversy over outcomes and why the many-worlds interpretation that denies the reality of outcomes is unsatisfactory. This motivated the discussion of Kent's theory in chapter 3 in the hope that it might provide a satisfactory solution to the EPR-Bohm paradox. In the previous chapter, we only got as far as describing the key features of Kent's theory such as it being a one-world theory which posits additional variables to standard quantum theory.

So having now reminded ourselves of the problem at hand, we see that there are several issues that we need to consider in order to evaluate whether Kent's theory provides a satisfactory solution to this problem. Firstly, we should consider whether the predictions of Kent's theory are consistent with the predictions of quantum theory that have been experimentally validated. Since standard quantum theory (that is a theory of states whose evolution is determined by the Schrödinger equation) predicts the correlations observed in the EPR-Bohm paradox, then if Kent's theory is consistent with standard quantum theory, these EPR-Bohm correlations will also be exhibited in Kent's theory.

Secondly, since a satisfactory solution to our problem must be consistent with special relativity, we need to consider whether such consistency holds in Kent's theory. Consistency with special relativity is guaranteed in a theory if and only if it is invariant under a group of symmetries called Lorentz transformations. We therefore need to consider whether Kent's theory satisfies Lorentz invariance.

Thirdly, since a satisfactory theory must be one in which there are outcomes, we need to consider whether Kent succeeds in giving us a convincing account of what an outcome is. In doing this, we will examine how Kent's theory ties in with decoherence theory and d'Espagnat's objection about improper mixtures.

Butterfield has also emphasized the need to understand Kent's theory in the light of an important theorem proved in recent years, the so-called Collbeck-Renner Theorem<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>See Gijs Leegwater, “An impossibility theorem for parameter independent hidden-variable theories,” *Studies in History and Philosophy of Modern Physics* 54 (2016): 18–34, Roger Colbeck and Renato Renner, “No extension of quantum theory can have improved predictive power,” *Nature communications* (England) 2, no. 1 (2011): 411–411, Roger Colbeck and Renato Renner, “The completeness of

which says that if a theory satisfies PI together with what is called a ‘no conspiracy’ criterion, then this theory is reducible to standard quantum theory without any hidden variables. On the assumption that a violation of ‘no conspiracy’ would not be acceptable, this then suggests that any theory that satisfactorily addresses the EPR-Bohm paradox can’t be a hidden-variables theory. We will therefore need to consider whether Kent’s model can be an interpretation of quantum physics without it being a hidden-variables theory.

I will argue that in the light all these considerations, Kent’s theory does provide a satisfactory solution to the EPR-Bohm paradox. There are still questions concerning the nature of Kent’s beables, and Kent’s theory may also strike us as rather counter-intuitive given that his theory posits that present events should be conditioned on far-distant future states of affairs. We will therefore conclude this chapter by discussing how Kent’s theory could be made to appear less counter-intuitive.

### 5.1 Consistency of Kent’s Theory with Standard Quantum Physics<sup>\*</sup>

If we are to take Kent’s theory seriously, it should be just as good at making predictions as standard quantum theory, and it had better not contradict empirical observations. Over the last century, standard quantum theory has been firmly established scientifically, and so far, it has not been contradicted by any experimental observations. Standard quantum theory allows us to form a quantum state description of a physical

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quantum theory for predicting measurement outcomes,” 2012, K Landsman, “On the Colbeck–Renner theorem,” *Journal of mathematical physics* (United States) 56, no. 12 (2015): 122103, and Klaas Landsman, *Foundations of Quantum Theory : From Classical Concepts to Operator Algebras (Volume 188.0)*, vol. 188, Fundamental Theories of Physics (Cham: Springer Open, 2017).

\*As mentioned in the introduction on page 5, sections marked with an asterisk may be challenging to readers who do not have a background in physics.

system based on how the system was set up in an experimental environment, and then Schrödinger's equation can be used to evolve this state forwards in time, and finally, we can calculate expectation values for various physical quantities belonging to this physical system, and these agree with the average values measured on the system when the experiment is performed many times. In other words, standard quantum theory is **empirically adequate**<sup>2</sup> in its domain of applicability. Thus, if we can show that Kent's theory is just as good at making predictions as standard quantum theory, then it too will be empirically adequate to the same degree. This doesn't necessarily mean that Kent's theory will make exactly the same predictions as standard quantum physics, for the additional information that Kent's theory requires beyond standard quantum theory may alter these predictions. Indeed, if this additional information made absolutely no difference to the predictions of standard quantum theory, then it would seem rather redundant. But we should nevertheless be able to derive the predictions of standard quantum theory from Kent's theory by averaging over the unknown variables that describe the additional information in Kent's theory.

In order to show that Kent's theory is just as good as standard quantum theory, we recall the preliminary calculation of  $\langle T^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_S}$  given in section 4.4:

$$\langle T^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_S} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{\tau} \frac{P(q(\tau) \& r_n) \tau}{P(r_n)}. \quad (4.12 \text{ revisited})$$

We will therefore proceed to calculate  $P(r_n)$  and  $P(q(\tau) \& r_n)$  in order to calculate  $\langle T^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_S}$ . First, we note that since  $S_n$  is a spacelike hypersurface, there will exist a unitary operator  $U_{S_n S_0}$  which maps the Hilbert space of states  $H_{S_0}$  describing  $S_0$  to the Hilbert space of states  $H_{S_n}$ <sup>HSidef</sup> describing  $S_n$  in accord with how the states of

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<sup>2</sup>See p. 171 for a more formal definition of empirical adequacy.

$H_{S_0}$  evolve over time. Now let  $H_{S_n, \tau_S} \subset H_{S_n}$  be the subspace of states  $|\xi\rangle$  for which  $\hat{T}_S(x)|\xi\rangle = \tau_S(x)|\xi\rangle$  for all  $x \in S_n \cap S$ , and let  $\{|\xi_1\rangle, |\xi_2\rangle, \dots\}$  be an orthonormal basis of  $H_{S_n, \tau_S}$ . Given that the initial state of the world is  $|\Psi_0\rangle$ , the probability  $P(r_n)$  of “measuring” the value of  $T_S(x)$  on  $S_n \cap S$  to be  $\tau_S(x)$  will be

$$P(r_n) = \sum_j |\langle \xi_j | \Psi_n \rangle|^2, \quad \text{\{Pr}\}_{(5.1)}$$

where  $|\Psi_n\rangle = U_{S_n S_0} |\Psi_0\rangle$ , and this probability will be independent of the particular orthonormal basis  $\{|\xi_j\rangle : j\}$  of  $H_{S_n, \tau_S}$ .<sup>3</sup> If we define

$$\pi_n = \sum_j |\xi_j\rangle \langle \xi_j|, \quad \text{\{tauprojection}\}_{(5.2)}$$

then it is easy to see that

$$P(r_n) = \langle \Psi_n | \pi_n | \Psi_n \rangle. \quad \text{\{Prn}\}_{(5.3)}$$

We also see that  $\pi_n$  is Hermitian (i.e. has real eigenvalues) and that  $\pi_n \pi_n = \pi_n$ . Any Hermitian operator  $\pi$  with  $\pi^2 = \pi$  is called a **projection**. We thus see that  $\pi_n$  is a projection.

Turning to the calculation of  $P(q(\tau), r_n)$ , note that for the Tomonaga-Schwinger formulation of relativistic quantum physics, the operators  $\hat{T}_S(x)$  and  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$  for fixed  $\mu, \nu$  commute when  $x$  and  $y$  are spacelike-separated. It therefore follows that we can

<sup>3</sup>To see why this is, we note that we can extend the orthonormal set  $\{|\xi_1\rangle, |\xi_2\rangle, \dots\}$  to an orthonormal basis  $\{|\xi_1\rangle, |\xi_2\rangle, \dots\} \cup \{|\zeta_1\rangle, |\zeta_2\rangle, \dots\}$  of  $H_{S_n}$  which consists entirely of  $\hat{T}_S$ -eigenstates. We can think of each of the states of this orthonormal basis as the possible measurement outcomes when making the notional measurement of  $T_S(x)$  on  $S_n \cap S$ . By the Born Rule, it therefore follows that  $P(r_n) = \sum_j |\langle \xi_j | \Psi_n \rangle|^2$ . But to see that this probability is independent of the particular basis, we can uniquely write  $|\Psi_n\rangle$  as a sum  $|\Psi_n\rangle = |\xi\rangle + |\zeta\rangle$  where  $|\xi\rangle$  belongs to the span of  $\{|\xi_j\rangle : j\}$  and  $|\zeta\rangle$  belongs to the span of  $\{|\zeta_j\rangle : j\}$ . Then since  $|\xi\rangle = \sum_j \langle \xi_j | \Psi_n \rangle |\xi_j\rangle$ , it follows that

$$\langle \xi | \xi \rangle = \sum_j |\langle \xi_j | \Psi_n \rangle|^2 = P(r_n).$$

Therefore, since  $\langle \xi | \xi \rangle$  is independent of the particular basis chosen of  $H_{S_n, \tau_S}$ , then so is  $P(r_n)$ . **priproof**

express any state of  $H_{S_n}$  as a superposition of simultaneous eigenstates of  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$  and  $\hat{T}_S(x)$  for  $x \in S_n \cap S$ .<sup>4</sup> For a particular choice of  $\mu, \nu$ , we can then form an orthonormal basis  $\{|\eta_j\rangle : j\}$  of  $H_{S_n}$  consisting of simultaneous  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y), \hat{T}_S(x)$ -eigenstates so that  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y) |\eta_j\rangle = \tau^{(j)} |\eta_j\rangle$  and  $\hat{T}_S(x) |\eta_j\rangle = \tau_S^{(j)}(x) |\eta_j\rangle$  for  $x \in S_n \cap S$ , where  $\tau^{(j)}$  and  $\tau_S^{(j)}(x)$  are the corresponding eigenstates. If we define  $\pi_{n,\tau} = \sum_j |\chi_{j,\tau}\rangle \langle \chi_{j,\tau}|$  where  $\{|\chi_{j,\tau}\rangle : j\}$  is the subset of  $\{|\eta_j\rangle : j\}$  such that  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y) |\chi_{j,\tau}\rangle = \tau |\chi_{j,\tau}\rangle$  and  $\hat{T}_S(x) |\chi_{j,\tau}\rangle = \tau_S(x) |\chi_{j,\tau}\rangle$  for all  $x \in S_n \cap S$ , then

$$P(q(\tau), r_n) = \sum_j |\langle \chi_{j,\tau} | \Psi_n \rangle|^2 = \langle \Psi_n | \pi_{n,\tau} | \Psi_n \rangle. \quad \text{pqtauri} \quad (5.4)$$

But if we define  $\pi_\tau = \sum_j |\eta_{j,\tau}\rangle \langle \eta_{j,\tau}|$  where  $\{|\eta_{j,\tau}\rangle : j\}$  is the subset of  $\{|\eta_j\rangle : j\}$  with  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y) |\eta_{j,\tau}\rangle = \tau |\eta_{j,\tau}\rangle$ , then we also have  $\pi_{n,\tau} = \pi_n \pi_\tau$ .<sup>5</sup> Hence,

$$P(q(\tau), r_n) = \langle \Psi_n | \pi_n \pi_\tau | \Psi_n \rangle. \quad \text{pqtauri2} \quad (5.5)$$

But clearly  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y) = \sum_\tau \tau \pi_\tau$ . Therefore, combining (4.12), (5.4), and (5.5), we have

$$\langle T^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_S} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sum_\tau \langle \Psi_n | \pi_n \pi_\tau | \Psi_n \rangle \tau}{\langle \Psi_n | \pi_n | \Psi_n \rangle} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\langle \Psi_n | \pi_n \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y) | \Psi_n \rangle}{\langle \Psi_n | \pi_n | \Psi_n \rangle}. \quad \text{pqtauri consistency0} \quad (5.6)$$

partially repeated section \*\*\*\*\* We are now in a position to show that Kent's theory is consistent with standard quantum theory. First let us consider what we need to show.

In the pilot wave interpretation, its consistency with standard quantum theory requires that if one averages the expectation values of an observable over the hidden variables (i.e. the positions and the momenta of all the particles) then one obtains the expectation

<sup>4</sup>We make the same approximation as depicted in figure 4.3 on page 118.

<sup>5</sup>The proof of this is very similar to the proof given in footnote 3.

<sup>6</sup>To see why this is, we first show that  $\pi_n = \sum_j |h_{n,j}\rangle \langle h_{n,j}|$  where  $\{|h_{n,j}\rangle : j\}$  is the subset of  $\{|\eta_j\rangle : j\}$  for which  $|h_{n,j}\rangle \in H_{S_n, \tau_S}$ . Note that  $\pi_n |h_{n,j}\rangle = |h_{n,j}\rangle$  since  $\{|\xi_j\rangle : j\}$  is a basis for  $H_{S_n, \tau_S}$  and  $|h_{n,j}\rangle \in H_{S_n, \tau_S}$ . Therefore,  $\pi_n \pi_{n,h} = \pi_{n,h}$  where  $\pi_{n,h} = \sum_j |h_{n,j}\rangle \langle h_{n,j}|$ . But  $\pi_{n,h} |\xi_j\rangle = |\xi_j\rangle$  since

value of the observable given by standard quantum theory as indicated in equation (2.22).

Now in Kent's theory, the hidden variables on which his beables  $\langle T^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_S}$  depend are the values  $\tau_S(x)$  of  $T_S(x)$  for  $x \in S^1(y) \cap S$ . The operator  $\pi_n$  in equation (5.6) in the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  encapsulates this hidden information. To remind ourselves of  $\pi_n$ 's dependency on  $\tau_S$  restricted to  $S_n \cap S$ , we will now write  $\pi_n(\tau_{S_n \cap S})$  for  $\pi_n$  where  $\tau_{S_n \cap S}$  is the function  $\tau_S$  restricted to  $S_n \cap S$ . Likewise, we will write  $r_n(\tau_{S_n \cap S})$  for  $r_n$ , the statement that  $T_S(x) = \tau_S(x)$  for all  $x \in S_n(y) \cap S$ . If we let  $j$  index all possible functions  $\tau_{S_n \cap S}^{(j)}$  taking real values on  $S_n \cap S$ , then the analogue of (2.22) requires us to show that

$$\langle \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_j P(r_n(\tau_{S_n \cap S}^{(j)})) \langle T^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_{S_n \cap S}^{(j)}} \quad \{ \text{kentconsistency} \} \quad (5.7)$$

for all  $y$  lying between  $S_0$  and  $S$ , where the left-hand side of (5.7) is just the expectation value of  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$  predicted by standard quantum theory. Equation (5.7) is sufficient to establish consistency with standard quantum theory because ultimately, all observables are going to be reducible to expressions dependent on  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$ , since once we know what to expect for  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$ , we will know what to expect for the energy and momentum densities for all measuring apparatus readouts etc. and hence what to expect for all measurement outcomes. But from (5.3) and (5.6), we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_j P(r_n(\tau_{S_n \cap S}^{(j)})) \langle T^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_{S_n \cap S}^{(j)}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_j \langle \Psi_n | \pi_n(\tau_{S_n \cap S}^{(j)}) T^{\mu\nu}(y) | \Psi_n \rangle \quad \{ \text{kentconsistency1} \} \quad (5.8)$$

Since there is an orthonormal basis  $\{|\eta_j\rangle : j\}$  of  $H_{S_n}$  consisting of simultaneous  $\hat{T}_S(x)$ -eigenstates so that  $\hat{T}_S(x)|\eta_j\rangle = \tau_{S_n \cap S}^{(j)}(x)|\eta_j\rangle$  for all  $x \in S_n \cap S$ , it follows that

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$\{|h_{n,j}\rangle : j\}$  is a basis for  $H_{S_n, \tau_S}$  and  $|\xi_j\rangle \in H_{S_n, \tau_S}$ . Therefore,  $\pi_{n,h}\pi_n = \pi_n$ . But  $\pi_{n,h}\pi_n = \pi_n\pi_{n,h}$  since  $\pi_n$  and  $\pi_{n,h}$  are Hermitian. Hence,  $\pi_n = \pi_{n,h}$ . Now the summands of  $\pi_n\pi_\tau$  are only going to

$\sum_j \pi_n(\tau_{S_n \cap S}^{(j)}) = I$ . Therefore, equation (5.7) follows from (5.8) which is what we were aiming to show for standard quantum consistency to hold.

## 5.2 Kent's Theory and Lorentz Invariance

In order to explain what it means for Kent's theory to be Lorentz invariant, we first need to explain how spacetime coordinates look to different observers.

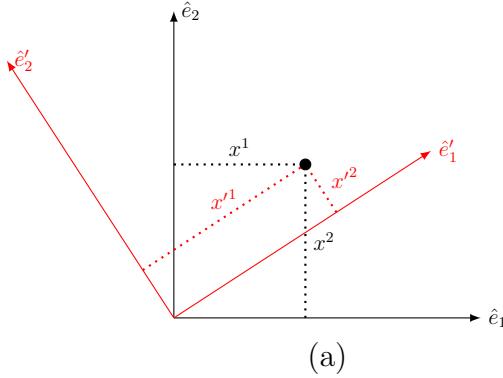
A spacetime location is represented by a four-tuple  $(x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3)$  where  $(x^i)_{i=1}^3$  are spatial coordinates, and where  $x^0 = ct$  with  $c$  being equal to the speed of light and  $t$  being the time. If  $(1, 0, 0, 0)$  corresponds to the spacetime location  $\hat{e}_0$ , and  $(0, 1, 0, 0)$  corresponds to the spacetime location  $\hat{e}_1$ , etc., then we can express any other spacetime location as a sum  $\sum_{\mu=0}^3 x^\mu \hat{e}_\mu$ . We will use the so-called **Einstein summation convention** of dropping the summation sign and implicitly assuming that there is a summation whenever an upper index and a lower index are the same so that we can write  $x^\mu \hat{e}_\mu$  instead of  $\sum_{\mu=0}^3 x^\mu \hat{e}_\mu$ .

Now suppose an observer  $O$  expresses spacetime locations in terms of  $\{\hat{e}_\mu : \mu = 0, \dots, 3\}$  and hence uses the coordinates  $(x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3)$  to describe various spacetime locations. For another observer  $O'$ , it may be more natural to express spacetime locations in terms of a different set of spacetime locations  $\{\hat{e}'_\mu : \mu = 0, \dots, 3\}$  so that the location described by  $O$  as  $(x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3)$  would be described by  $O'$  as  $(x'^0, x'^1, x'^2, x'^3)$  where  $x'^\mu \hat{e}'_\mu = x^\mu \hat{e}_\mu$ . For instance if  $O$  and  $O'$  are moving with respect to each other, they may both want to use coordinates in which their own spatial coordinates are fixed and in which the spatial coordinates of the other observer are changing. As

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consist of those  $|\eta_j\rangle\langle\eta_j|$  for which  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)|\eta_j\rangle = \tau|\eta_j\rangle$  and for which  $\hat{T}_S(x)|\eta_j\rangle = \tau_S(x)|\eta_j\rangle$  for all  $x \in S_n \cap S$ , and these are just the  $|\chi_{j,\tau}\rangle\langle\chi_{j,\tau}|$  which are the summands of  $\pi_{n,\tau}$ . Hence,  $\pi_n \pi_\tau = \pi_{n,\tau}$ .

another example, figure 5.1 shows how the  $(x^1, x^2)$ -coordinates transform under a spatial rotation.



(a)

Figure 5.1: Shows how a location (marked as  $\bullet$ ) can be expressed either in coordinates  $(x^1, x^2)$  with respect to the basis  $\{\hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2\}$  or in coordinates  $(x'^1, x'^2)$  with respect to the basis  $\{\hat{e}'_1, \hat{e}'_2\}$ . rotfigure

Now the key fact about all observers is that they must always observe light in a vacuum to have a constant speed  $c$ . Thus, for a photon that goes through the spacetime locations  $(0, 0, 0, 0)$  and  $(x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3)$  in the coordinates of  $O$ , we must have  $(x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3) = (ct, tv^1, tv^2, tv^3)$  where

$$\sqrt{(v^1)^2 + (v^2)^2 + (v^3)^2} = c.$$

But if  $(0, 0, 0, 0)$  and  $(x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3)$  corresponds to  $(0, 0, 0, 0)$  and  $(x'^0, x'^1, x'^2, x'^3)$  respectively in the coordinates of another observer  $O'$ , then we must also have  $(x'^0, x'^1, x'^2, x'^3) = (ct', t'v'^1, t'v'^2, t'v'^3)$  where

$$\sqrt{(v'^1)^2 + (v'^2)^2 + (v'^3)^2} = c.$$

In either case, we must have

$$(x^0)^2 - (x^1)^2 - (x^2)^2 - (x^3)^2 = (x'^0)^2 - (x'^1)^2 - (x'^2)^2 - (x'^3)^2 = 0. \quad \text{[invariant]} \quad (5.9)$$

If we define  $\eta_{00} = 1$ ,  $\eta_{ni} = -1$  for  $i = 1, 2, 3$  and  $\eta_{\mu\nu} = 0$  for  $\mu \neq \nu$ , then using the Einstein summation convention as well as the convention of lowering indices so that we define  $x_\mu \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \eta_{\mu\nu}x^\nu$ , then (5.9) is equivalent to

$$x_\mu x^\mu = x'_\mu x'^\mu = 0.$$

Thus, for any coordinate transformation  $x \rightarrow x'$  such that  $x_\mu x^\mu = x'_\mu x'^\mu$ , if the speed of light is  $c$  in the  $x$ -coordinates, then the speed of light is also guaranteed to be  $c$  in the  $x'$ -coordinates. A **Lorentz transformation**  $\Lambda$  is any coordinate transformation of the form  $x'^\mu = \Lambda^\mu_\nu x^\nu$  such that  $x_\mu x^\mu = x'_\mu x'^\mu$ . Since a Lorentz transformation must satisfy

$$x_\mu x^\mu = \eta_{\mu\rho} \Lambda^\rho_\sigma x^\sigma \Lambda^\mu_\nu x^\nu$$

for all  $x$ , it follows that

$$\Lambda^\rho_\mu \eta_{\rho\sigma} \Lambda^\sigma_\nu = \eta_{\mu\nu}. \quad \text{\{lorentztrans\}} \quad (5.10)$$

Having considered how the coordinates of a spacetime location viewed by one observer relate to the coordinates of the same spacetime location viewed by a different observer, we can now consider how physical quantities viewed by different observers relate to each other. The simplest kind of physical quantity is called a **scalar**. A scalar defined at a particular spacetime location has the same value no matter what frame of reference an observer uses. One example of a scalar is an object's **rest mass** which is the mass an

<sup>7</sup>To see why this is, note that if  $x_\mu x^\mu = x'_\mu x'^\mu$  for all  $x$ , then for any other spacetime location  $y$ , we have  $(x+y)_\mu (x+y)^\mu = (x'+y')_\mu (x'+y')^\mu$ . If we expand this out and cancel  $x_\mu x^\mu$  with  $x'_\mu x'^\mu$  and cancel  $y_\mu y^\mu$  with  $y'_\mu y'^\mu$ , and using the fact that  $y_\mu x^\mu = x_\mu y^\mu$ , etc. we find that  $x_\mu y^\mu = x'_\mu y'^\mu$  for all  $x$  and  $y$ . Hence,

$$\eta_{\nu\mu} x^\mu y^\nu = x_\mu y^\mu = \eta_{\sigma\rho} \Lambda^\rho_\mu \Lambda^\sigma_\nu x^\mu y^\nu.$$

Since we can choose  $x$  such that  $x^\mu = 1$  and  $x^\alpha = 0$  for  $\alpha \neq \mu$ , and can choose  $y$  such that  $y^\nu = 1$  and  $y^\beta = 0$  for  $\beta \neq \nu$ . Then we get

$$\eta_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\sigma\rho} \Lambda^\rho_\mu \Lambda^\sigma_\nu,$$

and hence the result follows.

object would have if it had no velocity. There is still a transformation rule for scalars since the spacetime location at which the scalar is measured is usually expressed in terms of an observer's coordinate system, and the coordinates of such a location will differ for different observers. Thus, if  $\phi(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \phi(x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3)$  is the value of a scalar defined at the spacetime location  $(x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3)$  as described by an observer  $O$ , then another observer  $O'$  using a different set of coordinate  $(x'^0, x'^1, x'^2, x'^3)$  to describe the location  $(x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3)$  will describe this same scalar as  $\phi'(x') \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \phi'(x'^0, x'^1, x'^2, x'^3)$  where  $\phi'(x') = \phi(x)$ . Since  $\phi'$  is just a function of the four numbers  $x'^0, x'^1, x'^2$ , and  $x'^3$ , we can rename these numbers  $x^0, x^1, x^2$ , and  $x^3$ , and then

$$\phi'(x) = \phi(\Lambda^{-1}x) \quad \text{\{lorentzscalar\}} \quad (5.11)$$

where  $\Lambda^{-1}$  is the inverse Lorentz transformation that takes the coordinates  $x' = (x'^0, x'^1, x'^2, x'^3)$  of a location to the coordinates  $x = (x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3)$  describing that location. Thus, equation (5.11) shows us how a scalar transforms under a Lorentz transformation  $\Lambda$ .

Many physical quantities, however, are not scalars and so will look different to different observers. For instance, the energy of an object has a kinetic component that depends on the velocity the object has relative to an observer. However, it turns out that if an observer  $O$  considers an object's energy  $E$  together with its three components of momentum  $p^1, p^2$ , and  $p^3$  (in the directions  $\hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2$ , and  $\hat{e}_3$  respectively) to form the four-tuple  $p \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (E/c, p^1, p^2, p^3)$  known as the object's **four-momentum**, then  $p$  transforms in the same way as spacetime coordinates transform between different observers. In other words, a different observer  $O'$  whose coordinates are given by  $x'^\mu = \Lambda^\mu_\nu x^\nu$  would

observe the object's four-momentum to be  $p'^\mu = \Lambda^\mu_\nu p^\nu$ .<sup>8</sup> More generally, any list of four physical quantities  $(\varphi^0, \varphi^1, \varphi^2, \varphi^3)$  that transforms as  $\varphi \rightarrow \varphi'$  with  $\varphi'^\mu = \Lambda^\mu_\nu \varphi^\nu$  is called a **four-vector**. Figure 5.2 shows how (two of) the components of a four-vector

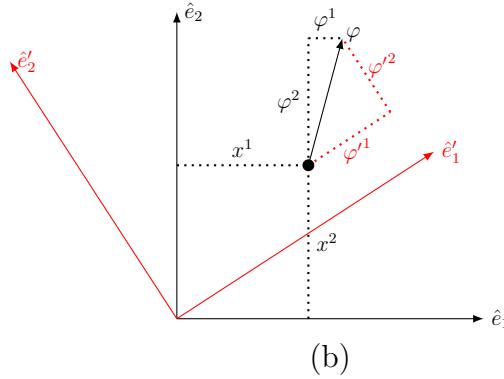


Figure 5.2: Shows how a four-vector  $\varphi$  (of which only two components are shown) defined at a spacetime location (indicated by  $\bullet$ ) can be expressed either as  $(\varphi^1, \varphi^2)$  with respect to the basis  $\{\hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2\}$  or as  $(\varphi'^1, \varphi'^2)$  with respect to the basis  $\{\hat{e}'_1, \hat{e}'_2\}$ .

$\varphi$  at a particular location will differ for different observers under a spatial rotation of the coordinates. A four-vector  $\varphi^\mu(x)$  defined at every spacetime location  $x$  is called a **four-vector field**. If  $O$  observes this vector-field  $\varphi^\mu(x)$ , and  $O'$  is another observer whose coordinates are related to the coordinates  $O$  via the Lorentz transformation  $\Lambda$ ,

<sup>8</sup>In order for  $p$  to transform in this way, we have to redefine what we mean by energy and momentum. In classical mechanics, the momentum of an object is the product of the object's mass and its velocity. In the context of special relativity, however, the four-momentum of an object is defined to be the product of its rest mass  $m_0$  and its **four-velocity** where the four velocity of an object is a four-tuple  $(u^0, u^1, u^2, u^3)$  with  $u_\mu u^\mu = c^2$  such that the object's velocity (in the classical sense) is the vector  $(c \frac{u^1}{u^0}, c \frac{u^2}{u^0}, c \frac{u^3}{u^0})$ . The motivation for this definition can be seen by considering an object whose classical velocity is  $\mathbf{v} = (v^1, v^2, v^3)$  that goes through  $(0, 0, 0, 0)$ . It will have a spacetime trajectory  $x(t) = (ct, v^1 t, v^2 t, v^3 t)$ .  $u$  is just the four-vector proportional to  $x(1)$  with  $u_\mu u^\mu = c^2$ . We can easily work out the four-velocity  $u$  of an object whose classical velocity is  $\mathbf{v}$ . For we must have  $u^i = \frac{v^i u^0}{c}$ , for  $i = 1$  to 3. Therefore, since  $u_\mu u^\mu = c^2$ , we must have  $(u^0)^2 (1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}) = c^2$  where  $v = \sqrt{(v^1)^2 + (v^2)^2 + (v^3)^2}$ . Thus, if we define  $\beta = v/c$  and  $\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$ , then  $u^0 = c\gamma$  and  $u^i = \gamma v^i$  for  $i = 1$  to 3, and hence the four-velocity of the object must be  $u = \gamma(c, v^1, v^2, v^3)$ . From this, we see that the object's four-momentum will be  $\gamma m_0(c, v^1, v^2, v^3)$ . If the object's velocity is very small compared to the speed of light, then  $\gamma \approx 1 + \frac{v^2}{2c^2}$ , and hence the object's four-momentum  $(E/c, p^1, p^2, p^3)$  will be approximately  $(m_0 c + \frac{1}{2} m_0 v^2/c, m_0 v^1, m_0 v^2, m_0 v^3)$ . Therefore,  $(p^1, p^2, p^3)$  is approximately equal to the classical momentum. However, the energy is now  $E = m_0 c^2 + \frac{1}{2} m_0 v^2$ . Thus, in addition to the kinetic energy term  $\frac{1}{2} m_0 v^2$ , there is a rest mass energy  $m_0 c^2$ . If we define the **relativistic mass**  $m = \gamma m_0$ , then we obtain Einstein's famous formula  $E = mc^2$ .

then  $O'$  will describe this vector-field as  $\varphi'^\mu(x') \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \Lambda^\mu_\nu \varphi^\nu(x)$ . Hence, under the Lorentz transformation  $\Lambda$ , a vector field  $\varphi^\mu(x)$  transforms as  $\varphi^\mu(x) \rightarrow \varphi'^\mu(x')$  where

$$\varphi'^\mu(x) = \Lambda^\mu_\nu \varphi^\nu(\Lambda^{-1}x). \quad \text{\{lorentzvector\}}_{(5.12)}$$

From a four-vector  $\varphi^\mu$ , we can also define the so-called **four-covector**:

$$\varphi_\mu \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \eta_{\mu\nu} \varphi^\nu. \quad \text{\{covector\}}_{(5.13)}$$

To see how four-covectors transform under a Lorentz transformation  $\Lambda$ , it will be helpful to define

$$\Lambda_\mu^\nu \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \eta_{\mu\rho} \eta^{\nu\sigma} \Lambda^\rho_\sigma \quad \text{\{colambda\}}_{(5.14)}$$

where  $\eta^{\nu\sigma} = \eta_{\nu\sigma}$ . If we also define the **Kronecker-delta**  $\delta_\mu^\nu$  such that  $\delta_\mu^\nu = 1$  when  $\mu = \nu$  and  $\delta_\mu^\nu = 0$  otherwise, then using the fact that  $\eta_{\mu\rho} \eta^{\nu\rho} = \delta_\mu^\nu$  together with equation (5.10), we have

$$\Lambda^\rho_\mu \Lambda_\rho^\nu = \delta_\mu^\nu. \quad \text{\{lambdainverse\}}_{(5.15)}$$

Since by definition, the inverse of  $\Lambda^{-1}$  satisfies  $(\Lambda^{-1})_\rho^\nu \Lambda^\rho_\mu = \delta_\mu^\nu$ , we have  $(\Lambda^{-1})_\rho^\nu = \Lambda_\rho^\nu$ . From (5.12), (5.13), and (5.14), we therefore see that under a Lorentz transformation  $\Lambda$ , a four-covector field  $\varphi_\mu(x)$  transforms as  $\varphi_\mu(x) \rightarrow \varphi'_\mu(x')$  where

$$\varphi'_\mu(x) = \Lambda_\mu^\nu \varphi_\nu(\Lambda^{-1}x) \quad \text{\{lorentzcovector\}}_{(5.16)}$$

Besides scalars, four-vectors, and four-covectors, we also need to consider physical quantities called rank-two tensors. The stress-energy tensor  $T^{\mu\nu}$  mentioned on page 122 is an example of a rank-two tensor. The defining property of a rank-two tensor field  $\varphi^{\mu\nu}(x)$  is that under a Lorentz transformation  $\Lambda$ , it transforms as  $\varphi^{\mu\nu}(x) \rightarrow \varphi'^{\mu\nu}(x')$

where

$$\varphi'^{\mu\nu}(x) = \Lambda^\mu{}_\rho \Lambda^\nu{}_\sigma \varphi^{\rho\sigma}(\Lambda^{-1}x). \quad \{\text{lorentz tensor}\}_{(5.17)}$$

On page 110, we introduced the mass-energy density  $T_S(x)$  on a spacelike hypersurface  $S$ . As explained in section 4.2, the values of  $T_S(x)$  are the additional values that Kent uses to supplement standard quantum theory. It was mentioned in passing that  $T_S(x)$  does not depend on which frame of reference one is in. In other words,  $T_S(x)$  is a scalar. I will now explain why this is so.

We first need to consider the precise definition of  $T_S(x)$ . At each spacetime location on the spacelike hypersurface  $S$  which an observer  $O$  describes as having coordinates  $x = (x^\mu)_{\mu=0}^3$ , we define  $\eta^\mu(x)$  to be the future-directed unit four-vector at  $x$  that is orthogonal to  $S$ . In other words,  $\eta^0(x) > 0$ ,  $\eta_\mu(x)\eta^\mu(x) = 1$ , and if  $y \in S$  is very close to  $x$ , then  $\frac{(x-y)_\mu \eta^\mu(x)}{\sqrt{(x-y)_\nu(x-y)^\nu}} \approx 0$ .  $T_S(x)$  is then given by the formula

$$T_S(x) = T^{\mu\nu}(x)\eta_\mu(x)\eta_\nu(x). \quad \{\text{TSdef}\}_{(5.18)}$$

For example, if  $S$  was the spacelike hypersurface consisting of all spacetime locations  $x = (0, x^1, x^2, x^3)$ , then  $(\eta^0(x), \eta^1(x), \eta^2(x), \eta^3(x)) = (1, 0, 0, 0)$ , and hence  $T_S(x) = T^{00}(x)$  which is the density of relativistic mass at  $x$ , i.e. the energy density at  $x$  divided by  $c^2$ .

To see why  $T_S(x)$  is a scalar, suppose that  $\Lambda$  is a Lorentz transformation such that  $\Lambda^0{}_\mu \eta^\mu > 0$  for any future-directed unit four-vector vector  $\eta^\mu$ . We refer to a  $\Lambda$  with this property as an **orthochronous** Lorentz transformation. Also, suppose that  $O$  and  $O'$  are two observers such that spacetime locations that observer  $O$  describes as having coordinates  $x = (x^\mu)_{\mu=0}^3$  are described by  $O'$  as having coordinates

$x' = (\Lambda^\mu_\nu x^\nu)_{\mu=0}^3$ . Then since  $x'_\mu y'^\mu = x_\mu y^\mu$ , it follows that the future-directed unit four-vector orthogonal to  $S$  at  $x$  which  $O$  describes as  $\eta^\mu(x)$  will be described by  $O'$  as  $\eta'^\mu(x') = \Lambda^\mu_\nu \eta^\nu(x)$ . Thus, for any location in  $S$  that  $O'$  describes as having coordinates  $x'$  with corresponding future-directed  $S$ -orthogonal unit four-vector  $\eta'^\mu(x')$ ,  $O'$  can construct a function  $T'_S(x')$  with

$$T'_S(x') = T'^{\mu\nu}(x') \eta'_\mu(x') \eta'_\nu(x'). \quad \text{TSprime def} \quad (5.19)$$

Then using (5.16) and (5.17) on the right-hand side of (5.19), we have

$$\begin{aligned} T'_S(x') &= \Lambda^\mu_\rho \Lambda^\nu_\sigma T^{\rho\sigma}(x) \Lambda_\mu^\alpha \eta_\alpha(x) \Lambda_\nu^\beta \eta_\beta(x) \\ &= \Lambda^\mu_\rho \Lambda_\mu^\alpha \Lambda^\nu_\sigma \Lambda_\nu^\beta T^{\rho\sigma}(x) \eta_\alpha(x) \eta_\beta(x) \\ &= \delta_\rho^\alpha \delta_\sigma^\beta T^{\rho\sigma}(x) \eta_\alpha(x) \eta_\beta(x) \quad \text{invariant TS1} \quad (5.20) \\ &= T^{\alpha\beta}(x) \eta_\alpha(x) \eta_\beta(x) \\ &= T_S(x) \end{aligned}$$

where on the third line we have used (5.15), and on the last line we have used (5.18). To obtain (5.20), we assumed that  $\Lambda$  is orthochronous, but if  $\Lambda$  is non-orthochronous, we would need to take the negations of  $\eta'^\mu(x')$  to get the future-directed  $S$ -orthogonal unit four-vector. But clearly this will not affect the equality in (5.20), so (5.20) holds for all Lorentz transformations, whether they are orthochronous or non-orthochronous. We thus see that  $T_S(x)$  is a scalar.

Let us now consider the Hilbert space  $H_{S_n}$  as defined on page 141 for a spacelike hypersurface  $S_n$ . Given that  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(x)$  is the observable whose eigenstates with eigenvalues  $\tau$  are the states of  $S_n$  for which an observer  $O$  observes the stress-energy tensor  $T^{\mu\nu}(x)$

to take the value  $\tau$  at  $x$ , it follows from (5.18) that

$$\hat{T}_S(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(x)\eta_\mu(x)\eta_\nu(x) \quad \{\text{TShat}\}_{(5.21)}$$

will be the observable whose eigenstates with eigenvalues  $\tau_S(x)$  are the states of  $S_n$  for which an observer  $O$  observes  $T_S(x)$  to take the value  $\tau_S(x)$  at  $x$ . Two observers  $O$  and  $O'$  will typically assign different physical states to  $S_n$  based on their frame of reference. E.g. if  $O$  and  $O'$  are traveling at different speeds, they will attribute different energy levels and momenta to the spacetime locations of  $S_n$ . For the Lorentz transformation that relates the coordinates of  $O'$  to the coordinates of  $O$ , i.e.  $x' = \Lambda x$ , there will then be a unitary operator  $U(\Lambda) : H_{S_n} \rightarrow H_{S_n}$  such that if  $O$  observes  $S_n$  to be in the state  $|\psi_n\rangle \in H_{S_n}$ , then  $O'$  will observe  $S_n$  to be in the state  $U(\Lambda)|\psi_n\rangle$ . But in order for  $U(\Lambda)|\psi_n\rangle$  to be meaningful, we need to specify how the Hermitian operators that act on  $U(\Lambda)|\psi_n\rangle$  correspond to the physical quantities that  $O'$  observes. So we specify that the Hermitian operator

$$\hat{T}'^{\mu\nu}(x') = \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(x') \quad \{\text{Thatprime}\}_{(5.22)}$$

will be the observable whose eigenstates with eigenvalues  $\tau'$  are the states of  $S_n$  for which  $O'$  observes the stress-energy tensor  $T'^{\mu\nu}(x')$  to take the value  $\tau'$  at  $x'$ . Since  $T^{\mu\nu}(x)$  transforms according to (5.17), it will follow that

$$U(\Lambda)^{-1}\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(x)U(\Lambda) = \Lambda^\mu{}_\rho\Lambda^\nu{}_\sigma\hat{T}^{\rho\sigma}(\Lambda^{-1}x). \quad \{\text{TUrrelation}\}_{(5.23)}$$

We also insist that  $U(\Lambda)$  is unitary because this means that if  $O$  calculates the probability  $S_n$  transitions from state  $|\psi_n\rangle$  to state  $|\chi_n\rangle$ , then  $O'$  would calculate the

same probability for the corresponding transition from the state  $|\psi'_n\rangle = U(\Lambda)|\psi_n\rangle$  to the state  $|\chi'_n\rangle = U(\Lambda)|\chi_n\rangle$ .<sup>9</sup>

Now to say that Kent's model is Lorentz invariant, is to say that (5.6) defines a rank-two tensor, for then this quantity and the quantities on which it depends will transform in the way that physical quantities should transform under a Lorentz transformation. Thus, in order to show that Kent's model is Lorentz invariant, we need to show that if  $\{|\xi_j\rangle : j\}$  is an orthonormal basis of the Hilbert space of states  $H_{S_n, \tau_S}$  for which  $O$  observes  $T_S(x)$  to be  $\tau_S(x)$  for all  $x \in S_n(y) \cap S$ , and if  $\{|\xi'_j\rangle : j\}$  is an orthonormal basis of the Hilbert space of states  $H_{S_n, \tau'_S}$  for which  $O'$  observes  $T'_S(x')$  to be  $\tau'_S(x')$  for all  $x' \in S_n(y') \cap S$ , then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\langle \Psi'_n | \pi'_n \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y') | \Psi'_n \rangle}{\langle \Psi'_n | \pi'_n | \Psi'_n \rangle} = \Lambda^\mu{}_\rho \Lambda^\nu{}_\sigma \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\langle \Psi_n | \pi_n \hat{T}^{\rho\sigma}(y) | \Psi_n \rangle}{\langle \Psi_n | \pi_n | \Psi_n \rangle} \quad (5.24)$$

where  $\pi_n = \sum_j |\xi_j\rangle\langle\xi_j|$ ,  $\pi'_n = \sum_j |\xi'_j\rangle\langle\xi'_j|$ , and  $|\Psi'_n\rangle = U(\Lambda)|\Psi_n\rangle$ .

To see why (5.24) holds, we first recall that  $\pi'_n$  will be independent of which orthonormal basis we choose for  $H_{S_n, \tau'_S}$ .<sup>10</sup> Therefore, if we can show that  $\{|\xi'_j\rangle\} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} U(\Lambda)|\xi_j\rangle : j\}$  is an orthonormal basis of  $H_{S_n, \tau'_S}$ , it will follow that  $\pi'_n = U(\Lambda)\pi_nU(\Lambda)^{-1}$ .

That the elements of  $\{U(\Lambda)|\xi_j\rangle : j\}$  are orthonormal follows from the unitarity of  $U(\Lambda)$  together with the orthonormality of  $\{|\xi_j\rangle : j\}$ . Since  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(x')$  is the observable whose eigenstates with eigenvalue  $\tau'$  are the states of  $S_n(y')$  for which  $O'$  observes the stress-energy tensor  $T'^{\mu\nu}(x')$  to take the value  $\tau'$  at  $x'$ , it follows from (5.19) and

<sup>9</sup>This follows from (4.1) which implies  $|\langle\chi'_n|\psi'_n\rangle|^2 = |\langle\chi_n|\psi_n\rangle|^2$ , together with the Born Rule given on page 12.

<sup>10</sup>We showed this was the case for  $\pi_n$  in footnote 3 on page 142.

(5.22) that

$$\hat{T}'_S(x') \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \eta'_\mu(x')\eta'_\nu(x')\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(x') \quad \{T\text{Shatprime}\}_{(5.25)}$$

will be the observable whose eigenstates with eigenvalue  $\tau'_S$  are the states of  $S_n(y')$  for which  $O'$  observes  $T'_S(x')$  to take the value  $\tau'_S$  at  $x'$ , where as usual,  $\eta'^\mu(x')$  is the unit four-vector orthogonal to  $S_n(y')$  at  $x'$ . Now if  $x' \in S_n(y') \cap S$  in the coordinates of  $O'$ , then  $x = \Lambda^{-1}x' \in S_n(y) \cap S$  in the coordinates of  $O$ . Using the same calculation as in (5.20) together with (5.16), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{T}_S(x) &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \eta_\mu(x)\eta_\nu(x)\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(x) \\ &= \eta'_\mu(x')\eta'_\nu(x')\Lambda^\mu{}_\rho\Lambda^\nu{}_\sigma\hat{T}^{\rho\sigma}(x). \end{aligned} \quad \{T\text{SLambda}\}_{(5.26)}$$

By (5.23) we have

$$U(\Lambda)^{-1}\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(x') = \Lambda^\mu{}_\rho\Lambda^\nu{}_\sigma\hat{T}^{\rho\sigma}(x)U(\Lambda)^{-1}, \quad (5.27)$$

so using this with (5.26) and (5.25), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{T}_S(x)U(\Lambda)^{-1} &= \eta'_\mu(x')\eta'_\nu(x')\Lambda^\mu{}_\rho\Lambda^\nu{}_\sigma\hat{T}^{\rho\sigma}(x)U(\Lambda)^{-1} \\ &= U(\Lambda)^{-1}\eta'_\mu(x')\eta'_\nu(x')\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(x') \\ &= U(\Lambda)^{-1}\hat{T}'_S(x'). \end{aligned} \quad \{T\text{SU}\}_{(5.28)}$$

Now suppose that  $|\xi'\rangle$  is a state for which  $O'$  observes  $T'_S(x')$  to be  $\tau'_S(x')$  for all  $x' \in S_n(y') \cap S$ . Then  $\hat{T}'_S(x')|\xi'\rangle = \tau'_S(x')|\xi'\rangle$ , and so by (5.28),

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{T}_S(x)U(\Lambda)^{-1}|\xi'\rangle &= U(\Lambda)^{-1}\hat{T}'_S(x')|\xi'\rangle \\ &= \tau'_S(x')U(\Lambda)^{-1}|\xi'\rangle \\ &= \tau_S(x)U(\Lambda)^{-1}|\xi'\rangle \end{aligned} \quad \{T\text{SUxi}\}_{(5.29)}$$

where on the last line we have used the fact that  $T_S(x)$  is a scalar. Therefore,  $U(\Lambda)^{-1}|\xi'\rangle$  can be expressed as a linear combination of the basis elements  $\{|\xi_j\rangle : j\}$

of  $H_{S_n, \tau_S}$ , and hence  $|\xi'\rangle$  can be expressed as a linear combination of  $\{U(\Lambda)|\xi_j\rangle : j\}$ .

From (5.28) we also see that  $U(\Lambda)\hat{T}_S(x) = \hat{T}'_S(x')U(\Lambda)$ , so

$$\hat{T}'_S(x')U(\Lambda)|\xi_j\rangle = U(\Lambda)\hat{T}_S(x)|\xi_j\rangle = \tau_S(x)U(\Lambda)|\xi_j\rangle = \tau'_S(x')U(\Lambda)|\xi_j\rangle$$

for all  $x' \in S_n(y') \cap S$ . Therefore,  $U(\Lambda)|\xi_j\rangle \in H_{S_n, \tau'_S}$ . Since  $\{|\xi'_j\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} U(\Lambda)|\xi_j\rangle : j\}$  is a spanning orthonormal subset of  $H_{S_n, \tau'_S}$ , it must therefore be an orthonormal basis of  $H_{S_n, \tau'_S}$ . From this it follows that  $\pi'_n = U(\Lambda)\pi_n U(\Lambda)^{-1}$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\langle \Psi'_n | \pi'_n \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y') | \Psi'_n \rangle}{\langle \Psi'_n | \pi'_n | \Psi'_n \rangle} &= \frac{\langle \Psi_n | U(\Lambda)^{-1} U(\Lambda) \pi_n U(\Lambda)^{-1} \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y') U(\Lambda) | \Psi_n \rangle}{\langle \Psi_n | U(\Lambda)^{-1} U(\Lambda) \pi_n U(\Lambda)^{-1} U(\Lambda) | \Psi_n \rangle} \\ &= \frac{\langle \Psi_n | \pi_n U(\Lambda)^{-1} \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y') U(\Lambda) | \Psi_n \rangle}{\langle \Psi_n | \pi_n | \Psi_n \rangle} \quad \text{\{kentlorentz2\}} \\ &= \frac{\langle \Psi_n | \pi_n \Lambda^\mu_\rho \Lambda^\nu_\sigma \hat{T}^{\rho\sigma}(y) | \Psi_n \rangle}{\langle \Psi_n | \pi_n | \Psi_n \rangle} \end{aligned} \tag{5.30}$$

where on the last line we have used (5.23). Thus, equation (5.24) holds, and hence Kent's model is Lorentz invariant.

Note that in this proof of Lorentz invariance, we don't need to take the limit of  $S_n$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . That is, we could remove the  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty}$  from equation (5.6) and consider a particular  $S_n$ , and the corresponding  $\langle T^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_S}$  would still be a rank-two tensor. Butterfield tells us that Kent's theory is Lorentz invariant because his algorithm respects the light cone structure of  $y$ .<sup>11</sup> However, this statement could be slightly misleading because we don't need to consider the subset  $S^1(y) \subset S$  of locations outside the light cone of  $y$  in order to obtain a Lorentz invariant model. Doing the calculation on any Tomonaga-Schwinger spacelike hypersurface is sufficient to guarantee Lorentz invariance since any such spacelike hypersurface (e.g.  $S_n$ ) is not altered at all by a Lorentz transformation – only its coordinate description changes under a Lorentz

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<sup>11</sup>See Butterfield, “Peaceful Coexistence: Examining Kent’s Relativistic Solution to the Quantum Measurement Problem,” 30.

transformation, and so the additional information of the scalar  $\tau_S(x)$  on  $S_n \cap S$  is Lorentz invariant. The only reason we need to consider the limit  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n$  and hence  $S^1(y) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n \cap S$  is that it is only in the limit that we use all the available information in  $\tau_S(x)$  to calculate  $\langle T^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_S}$ .

### 5.3 Kent's Theory<sup>Kentdecoherencesection</sup> and Decoherence Theory\*

In section 3.7 we saw that decoherence theory by itself does not offer a solution to the problem of outcomes. In this section, we consider how the additional information in Kent's theory is sufficient to address this problem. We will explain this by again considering Kent's toy model discussed in section 4.5.

We thus suppose that a system is in a superposition  $\psi_0^{\text{sys}} = c_1\psi_1^{\text{sys}} + c_2\psi_2^{\text{sys}}$  of two local states  $\psi_1^{\text{sys}}$  and  $\psi_2^{\text{sys}}$  where  $|c_1|^2 + |c_2|^2 = 1$ , and that there is a photon coming in from the left that interacts with the system. We also suppose that  $y_1$  is a spacetime location with spatial location  $z_1$  between the two spacelike hypersurfaces  $S_0$  and  $S$ , and we consider a spacelike hypersurface  $S_n = S_n(y_1)$  in a sequence of spacelike hypersurfaces that each contain  $y_1$  as described on page 131.

In order to obtain a sufficiently simple description of the state  $|\Psi_n\rangle \in H_{S_n}$  of  $S_n$  for which we can use the formula (5.6) to calculate Kent's beable, we will use a coarse-grained model so that  $S_n$  is treated as a mesh of tiny cells labeled by a sequence  $(y_k)_{k=1}^\infty$ . Thus, for each cell  $y_k$  there will be a Hilbert space  $H_k$  describing the state of that cell. We can think of each of these  $y_k$  as systems that can become entangled with one another, but we will assume that  $y_1$  is entangled with only a finite number  $M$  of the other  $y_k$ . What this means is that the most general expression for  $|\Psi_n\rangle$  will

be of the form

$$|\Psi_n\rangle = \left( \sum_j \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}^M} c_{j,n} |\xi_{1,j}\rangle \prod_{l=1}^M |\xi_{k_l, n_l}\rangle \right) \Xi. \quad \text{\{Sistate\}} \quad (5.31)$$

In this expression,  $\{|\xi_{1,j}\rangle : j\}$  is an orthonormal basis of  $H_1$ ,  $\mathbb{N}^M$  means the set of all lists  $(n_1, \dots, n_M)$  with each  $n_l \in \mathbb{N}$  where  $\mathbb{N}$  is the set of positive integers greater than 0. The set of states  $\{|\xi_{k_l, n_l}\rangle : n_l \in \mathbb{N}\}$  form an orthonormal basis of  $H_{k_l}$  for each  $k_l$ , and the  $k_l$  are all distinct from each other and from 1. Also,  $M$  is chosen to be as small as possible so that any common factors of  $|\Psi_n\rangle$  belong to  $\Xi$  which is a sum of states of the form  $\prod_l |\xi_{\kappa_l}\rangle$  where the states  $|\xi_{\kappa_l}\rangle \in H_{\kappa_l}$  ranging over all the cells of  $S_n$  not included in the set  $\{k_l : l = 1, \dots, M\}$ . We also assume that each summand  $c_{j,n} |\xi_{1,j}\rangle \prod_{l=1}^M |\xi_{k_l, n_l}\rangle \Xi$  of  $\Psi_n$  contains a state in each  $H_k$  for every cell  $k$  of  $S_n$ . In other words if  $k \neq 1$  and does not belong to the set  $\{k_l : l = 1, \dots, M\}$  then  $k$  belongs to the set  $\{\kappa_l : l\}$ . Also, we will give  $H_{S_n}$  an inner product so that if

$$|\Psi'_n\rangle = \left( \sum_j \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}^M} c'_{j,n} |\xi_{1,j}\rangle \prod_{l=1}^M |\xi_{k_l, n_l}\rangle \right) \Xi',$$

then

$$\langle \Psi'_n | \Psi_n \rangle = \left( \sum_j \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}^M} \overline{c'_{j,n}} c_{j,n} \right) \langle \Xi' | \Xi \rangle$$

where  $\langle \Xi' | \Xi \rangle$  is defined in the obvious way. With this inner product, we will assume that  $|\Psi_n\rangle$  is appropriately normalized so that  $\langle \Psi_n | \Psi_n \rangle = 1$ . If we also assume that  $\langle \Xi | \Xi \rangle = 1$ , it will follow that  $\sum_j \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}^M} |c_{j,n}|^2 = 1$ .

We now consider several scenarios from Kent's toy model. In each scenario, we will use the decomposition (5.31) of  $|\Psi_n\rangle$  to calculate the partial trace encapsulating all the information needed to calculate expectation values at different spacetime locations.

First, consider Figure 5.3 which depicts the spacelike hypersurface  $S_n(y_1^a)$  for a spacetime location  $y_1^a$  that occurs before the photon has interacted with the system.

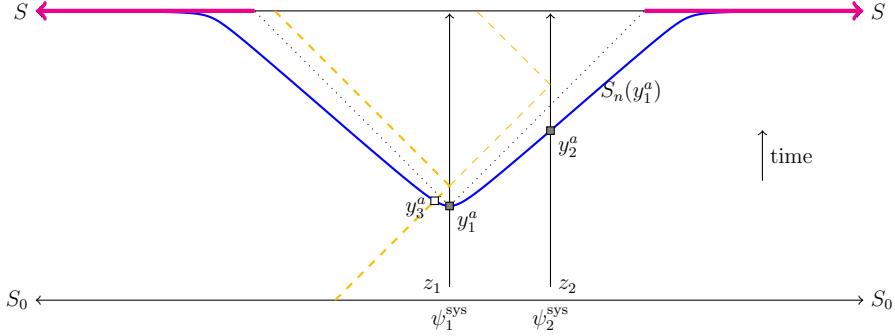


Figure 5.3: Depiction of a superposition of two local states at  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  before the photon has interacted with them. The gray squares indicate cells in  $S^1(y_1^a)$  whose states are among the summands in (5.31) rather than in  $\Xi$ . The white square indicates a cell in  $S_n(y_1^a)$  whose state is a factor in  $\Xi$ .

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The gray squares correspond to the summands that appear in (5.31). If the system were in the  $\psi_1^{\text{sys}}$ -state, then the state describing  $S_n(y_1^a)$  would have a factor  $|\psi_1^{\text{sys}}\rangle \in H_1$  indicating that there is a non-zero mass at the  $y_1^a$ -cell, and there would also be a factor  $|0_2\rangle \in H_2$  which we use to indicate that there is zero mass/energy at  $y_2^a$ . There is also an incoming photon at the  $y_3^a$ -cell, and so we use  $|\gamma_3\rangle$  to indicate that there is a photon there. Thus, if the system were in the  $\psi_1^{\text{sys}}$ -state, we would write the state of  $S_n(y_1^a)$  as  $|\Psi_n\rangle = |\psi_1^{\text{sys}}\rangle |0_2\rangle |\gamma_3\rangle \Xi'$ , where  $\Xi'$  describes the states of all the other cells of  $S_n(y_1^a)$ . In this very simple scenario,  $\Xi' = \sum_{k \neq 1,2,3} |0_k\rangle$  indicating that there is zero mass/energy at all the other  $y_k$ .

Alternatively, if the system were in the state  $\psi_2^{\text{sys}}$ , then the state describing  $S_n(y_1^a)$  would have a factor  $|\psi_2^{\text{sys}}\rangle \in H_2$  indicating that there is a non-zero mass at the  $y_2^a$ -cell, and there would also be a factor  $|0_1\rangle \in H_1$  which we use to indicate that there is zero mass at  $y_1^a$ , and again the  $y_3^a$ -cell would be in the  $|\gamma_3\rangle$ , and every

other cell would be described by  $\Xi'$  just as if the system had been in the  $\psi_1^{\text{sys}}$ -state.

Therefore, when the system is in the state  $\psi_2^{\text{sys}}$ , we would write the state of  $S_n(y_1^a)$  as

$$|\Psi_n\rangle = |0_1\rangle |\psi_2^{\text{sys}}\rangle |\gamma_3\rangle \Xi'.$$

Now since the system is actually in a superposition  $\psi_0^{\text{sys}} = c_1\psi_1^{\text{sys}} + c_2\psi_2^{\text{sys}}$ , the state of  $S_n(y_1^a)$  will be

$$|\Psi_n\rangle = (c_1 |\psi_1^{\text{sys}}\rangle |0_2\rangle + c_2 |0_1\rangle |\psi_2^{\text{sys}}\rangle) |\gamma_3\rangle \Xi' = (c_1 |\psi_1^{\text{sys}}\rangle |0_2\rangle + c_2 |0_1\rangle |\psi_2^{\text{sys}}\rangle) \Xi$$

where we have absorbed the  $|\gamma_3\rangle$ -state into  $\Xi$  (i.e.  $\Xi = |\gamma_3\rangle \Xi'$ ).

Now as it stands, the state  $|\Psi_n\rangle$  describing  $S_n(y_1^a)$  has a definite mass-energy density  $\tau_S(x)$  for  $x \in S_n(y_1^a) \cap S$ , namely 0. Thus, if  $\pi_n$  is the operator featuring in (5.6) that corresponds to this definite mass-energy density, then  $\pi_n |\Psi_n\rangle = |\Psi_n\rangle$ . Therefore, equation (5.6) for Kent's beables tells us that

$$\langle T^{\mu\nu}(y_1^a) \rangle_{\tau_S} = \langle \Psi_n | \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y_1^a) | \Psi_n \rangle,$$

where we have also used the fact that  $\langle \Psi_n | \Psi_n \rangle = 1$ .

Now as we saw in section 3.4, if we are interested only in the expectation values of observables for a system  $\mathcal{S}$  contained within a universe  $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{S} + \mathcal{E}$ , then the information needed to do this can be encapsulated in the reduced density matrix for  $\mathcal{S}$ . Thus, if the universe is described by a state  $|\Psi\rangle = \sum_j c_j |\psi_j\rangle_{\mathcal{S}} |E_j\rangle$  with corresponding density matrix  $\hat{\rho} = |\Psi\rangle\langle\Psi| \in M(H_{\mathcal{U}})$ , then the reduced density matrix  $\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}} \in M(H_{\mathcal{S}})$  is the Hermitian operator acting on the state space  $H_{\mathcal{S}}$  with the property that

$$\langle \hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}} \rangle_{\rho} = \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{S}}(\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{S}} \hat{O}_{\mathcal{S}}) \quad (3.13 \text{ revisited})$$

where  $\hat{O}_S$  is an observable on  $H_S$ , and  $\hat{O}_{\mathcal{U}}$  is the corresponding observable on  $H_{\mathcal{U}}$ .

Furthermore, we also have

$$\hat{\rho}_S = \sum_j |c_j|^2 |\psi_j\rangle\langle\psi_j| + \sum_{j \neq k} c_j \overline{c_k} \langle E_k | E_j \rangle |\psi_j\rangle\langle\psi_k|.^{12} \quad \text{(5.32)}^{\{\text{reduced2}\}}$$

We can thus apply this to the situation at hand by taking  $S_n$  to be our universe  $\mathcal{U}$  and  $y_1^a$  to be the system  $\mathcal{S}$ , and  $S_n \setminus \{y_1^a\}$  to be the environment  $\mathcal{E}$ . If we assume that  $\langle 0_2 | \psi_2^{\text{sys}} \rangle = 0$ , then by (5.32), the corresponding reduced density matrix  $\hat{\rho}_{y_1^a}$  takes the form of an improper mixture

$$\hat{\rho}_{y_1^a} = |c_1|^2 |\psi_1^{\text{sys}}\rangle\langle\psi_1^{\text{sys}}| + |c_2|^2 |0_1\rangle\langle 0_1|. \quad \text{(5.33)}^{\{\text{kentred}\}}$$

Kent's beables at  $y_1^a$  will thus take the form

$$\begin{aligned} \langle T^{\mu\nu}(y_1^a) \rangle_{\tau_S} &= \text{Tr}_{y_1^a}(\hat{\rho}_{y_1^a} \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y_1^a)) \\ &= |c_1|^2 \langle \psi_1^{\text{sys}} | \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y_1^a) | \psi_1^{\text{sys}} \rangle + |c_2|^2 \langle 0_1 | \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y_1^a) | 0_1 \rangle. \end{aligned} \quad \text{(5.34)}^{\{\text{kentbe}\}}$$

Let us now consider Kent's beables at the spacetime location  $y_1^b$  depicted in figure 5.4.

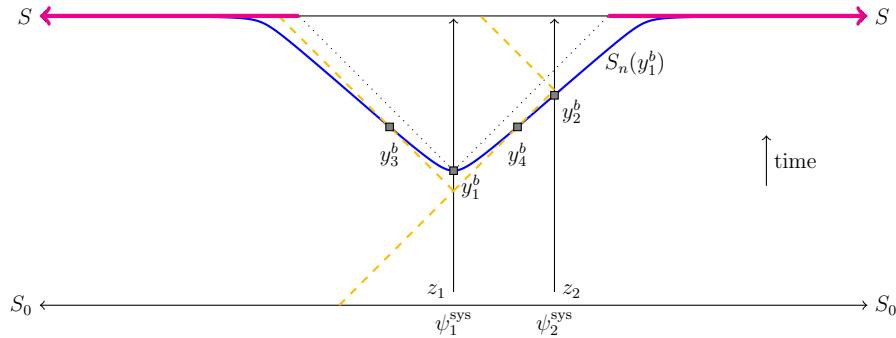


Figure 5.4: Depiction of a superposition of two local states at  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  with  $S_n(y_1^b)$  being after the photon has interacted without the photon intersecting  $S_n(y_1^b) \cap S$ . The gray squares indicate cells in  $S^1(y_1^b)$  whose states are among the summands in (5.31).  
kentdecom

The state of  $S_n(y_1^b)$  will then be

$$|\Psi_n\rangle = (c_1 |\psi_1^{\text{sys}}\rangle |0_2\rangle |\gamma_3\rangle |0_4\rangle + c_2 |0_1\rangle |\psi_2^{\text{sys}}\rangle |0_3\rangle |\gamma_4\rangle) \Xi$$

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<sup>12</sup>cf. (3.14)

where the notation is analogous to that in the previous example. Since no photon detections are registered on  $S_n(y_1^b) \cap S$ , we again have  $\pi_n |\Psi_n\rangle = |\Psi_n\rangle$  so that the reduced density matrix  $\hat{\rho}_{y_1^b}$  will again be given by (5.33) with  $y_1^a$  replaced by  $y_1^b$ . However, in this case, Kent's beables  $\langle T^{\mu\nu}(y_1^b) \rangle_{\tau_S}$  will not be given by (5.34) because in the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , the photon *will* be registered on  $S_n(y_1^b) \cap S$ .

To deal with the case when a photon is registered on  $S_n(y_1^b) \cap S$ , we consider a third example as depicted in figure 5.5.

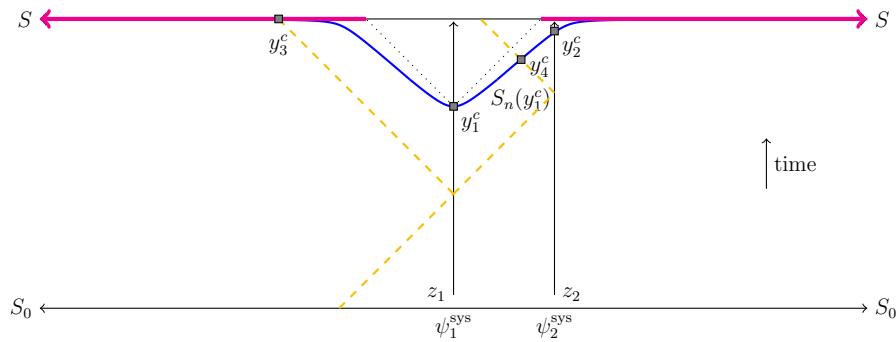


Figure 5.5: Depiction of a superposition of two local states at  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  with  $y_1^c$  sufficiently late that the photon intersects  $S_n(y_1^c) \cap S$ . The gray squares indicate cells in  $S^1(y_1^c)$  whose states are among the summands in (5.31)

kentdecoh3

In this case, the state of  $S_n(y_1^c)$  will be

$$|\Psi_n\rangle = (c_1 |\psi_1^{\text{sys}}\rangle |0_2\rangle |\gamma_3\rangle |0_4\rangle + c_2 |0_1\rangle |\psi_2^{\text{sys}}\rangle |0_3\rangle |\gamma_4\rangle) \Xi$$

but now we have to consider the fact that the photon intersects  $S_n(y_1^c) \cap S$ . There are two possible (notional) measurement outcomes that can occur on  $S_n(y_1^c) \cap S$ : either  $T_S = \tau_{S,1}$  where  $\tau_{S,1}(y_3^c) \neq 0$ , or  $T_S = \tau_{S,2}$  where  $\tau_{S,2}(y_3^c) = 0$ .

The case  $T_S = \tau_{S,1}$  indicates that there is a photon detection at  $y_3^c$  so that the local state at the  $y_3^c$ -cell is  $|\gamma_3\rangle$ . Therefore, if we write  $\pi_{n,1}$  for the operator  $\pi_n$ , we have

$$\pi_{n,1} |\Psi_n\rangle = c_1 |\psi_1^{\text{sys}}\rangle |0_2\rangle |\gamma_3\rangle |0_4\rangle \Xi.$$

Therefore,  $\langle \Psi_n | \pi_{n,1} \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y_1^c) | \Psi_n \rangle = |c_1|^2 \langle \psi_1^{\text{sys}} | \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y_1^c) | \psi_1^{\text{sys}} \rangle$  and  $\langle \Psi_n | \pi_{n,1} | \Psi_n \rangle = |c_1|^2$ .

Hence, by (5.6), Kent's beables at  $y_1^c$  will be

$$\langle T^{\mu\nu}(y_1^c) \rangle_{\tau_{S,1}} = \langle \psi_1^{\text{sys}} | \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y_1^c) | \psi_1^{\text{sys}} \rangle.$$

From this, it follows that the reduced density matrix at  $y_1^c$  will take the form of a pure state:

$$\hat{\rho}_{y_1^c} = |\psi_1^{\text{sys}}\rangle\langle\psi_1^{\text{sys}}|. \quad \text{pure rho} \quad (5.35)$$

On the other hand, for the case when  $T_S = \tau_{S,2}$ , this indicates that there is no photon detection at  $y_3^c$ , so that the local state at the  $y_3^c$ -cell will be  $|0_3\rangle$ . So if we now write  $\pi_{n,2}$  for the operator  $\pi_n$ , we have

$$\pi_{n,2} |\Psi_n\rangle = c_2 |0_1\rangle |\psi_2^{\text{sys}}\rangle |0_3\rangle |\gamma_4\rangle \Xi.$$

Therefore,  $\langle \Psi_n | \pi_{n,2} \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y_1^c) | \Psi_n \rangle = |c_2|^2 \langle 0_1 | \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y_1^c) | 0_1 \rangle$  and  $\langle \Psi_n | \pi_{n,2} | \Psi_n \rangle = |c_2|^2$ , and so by (5.6), Kent's beables at  $y_1^c$  will be

$$\langle T^{\mu\nu}(y_1^c) \rangle_{\tau_{S,2}} = \langle 0_1 | \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y_1^c) | 0_1 \rangle.$$

In this case, the reduced density matrix at  $y_1^c$  will be

$$\hat{\rho}_{y_1^c} = |0_1\rangle\langle 0_1|, \quad (5.36)$$

which is again a pure state.

In these examples we have therefore seen how the additional information concerning photon detection on  $S_n(y_1) \cap S$  is able to determine whether the reduced density matrix at  $y_1$  is a pure state or an improper mixture. Hence, Kent's theory offers an answer to d'Espagnat's problem of outcomes. As mentioned in section 3.7, d'Espagnat noticed that with decoherence theory alone, we are not entitled to give an ignorance

interpretation to the reduced density matrix for a system that is an improper mixture, and thus we are not able to conclude from the reduced density matrix alone that an outcome has occurred. However, if the reduced density matrix of a system goes from being an improper mixture to a pure state of the form  $|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$  as it does when Kent's additional information is taken into account, then we can say that an outcome has occurred, namely the outcome of the system being in the state  $|\psi\rangle$ .

#### **5.4 Butterfield's Analysis of Outcome Independence in Kent's theory**

Let us now consider Kent's theory in the light of Shimony's notion of Outcome Independence (OI) as defined in section 2.8.

Butterfield<sup>13</sup> tries to answer the question of whether OI holds in Kent's theory by considering an example that builds on Kent's toy model. Butterfield's example is designed to capture the salient features of a Bell experiment where two spatially separated observers always observe opposite outcomes of some measurement. Following Kent, Butterfield thus considers a universe in one spatial dimensional. In this universe, there are two entangled systems, a left-system and a right-system as depicted in figure 5.6.

Two locations  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  with  $z_2 > z_1$  belong to a left-system, and there are two possible outcomes for a measurement on the left-system: either all the mass/energy of the left-system is localized at  $z_1$  or all the mass/energy of the left-system is localized at  $z_2$ . These two possibilities are analogous to a spin up or a spin down measurement outcome in a Stern-Gerlach statement. Likewise, two locations  $z_3$  and  $z_4$  with  $z_3 < z_4$

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<sup>13</sup>See Butterfield, "Peaceful Coexistence: Examining Kent's Relativistic Solution to the Quantum Measurement Problem," 30–32

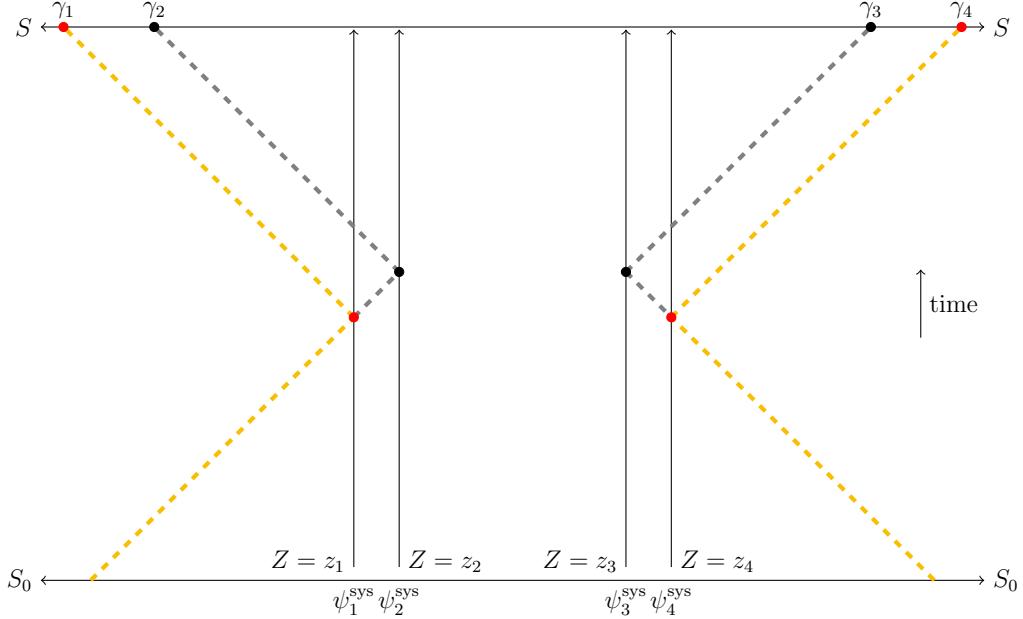


Figure 5.6: Butterfield’s thought experiment for analyzing OI<sub>Butterfield</sub>OI

and  $z_3 \gg z_2$  belong to a right-system, and again, there are two possible measurement outcomes: either all the mass/energy of the right-system is localized at  $z_3$  or all the mass/energy of the right-system is localized at  $z_4$ .

The initial joint state of the two systems is  $a\psi_1\psi_4 + b\psi_2\psi_3$ . This means that the left-system will be found to be localized at  $z_1$  with probability  $|a|^2$ , and at  $z_2$  with probability  $|b|^2$ , and if the left-system is localized at  $z_1$ , the right system must be localized at  $z_4$ , whereas if the left-system is localized at  $z_2$ , then the right system must be localized at  $z_3$ .

Now Butterfield supposes that there are two photons, one coming in from the left that interacts with the left system, and one coming in from the right that interacts with the right system. As in Kent’s toy model, there is a late time spacelike hypersurface  $S$ , on which the photons are “measured”. Since the joint state of the two systems is in superposition, there will be two possible measurement outcomes for the two photons

that arrive at  $S$ . Either the left-photon is measured at  $\gamma_1$  and the right-photon is measured at  $\gamma_4$ , or the left-photon is measured at  $\gamma_2$  and the right photon is measured at  $\gamma_3$ . Thus, if we suppose that the (notional) measurement for  $T_S(x)$  yields an energy distribution  $\tau_S(x)$  that is nonzero at  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_4$ , but is zero at  $\gamma_2$  and  $\gamma_3$ , then we can say that the outcome of the measurement on the two systems is that the left system is localized at  $z_1$  and the right system is localized at  $z_4$ . Moreover, the probability of this outcome is 1 given that the (notional) measurement of  $T_S(x)$  on  $S$  is  $\tau_S(x)$ . In other words, this model is deterministic. But as we saw on page 45, if a model is deterministic, then OI must hold. This is the conclusion that Butterfield draws.

Now if Kent's theory is to be consistent with special relativity, OI being satisfied might initially seem concerning. Indeed, we saw in section 43 that OI implies the negation of PI, and the negation of PI is not consistent with special relativity. However, there is one salient feature of a Bell experiment that is not captured in Butterfield's scenario, namely, in a Bell experiment, one can perform different measurements. PI and its negation only make sense when there are parameters that can be changed. Furthermore, in the proof that OI implies the negation of PI,<sup>14</sup> it is assumed that the choice of parameter is not determined by the hidden variable  $\lambda$ . If the choice of parameters did depend on  $\lambda$ , then for  $\hat{a} \neq \hat{b}$ , at least one of the probabilities  $P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{c}}(\hat{a}+, \hat{c}+)$ ,  $P_{\lambda, \hat{c}, \hat{b}}(\hat{c}+, \hat{b}+)$  or  $P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{b}}(\hat{a}+, \hat{b}+)$  would not be well-defined.<sup>15</sup> Even though Butterfield is only considering OI in his thought experiment, a proper analysis of OI shouldn't be undertaken without considering an experiment with parameters (e.g.

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<sup>14</sup>The proof that determinism implies the negation of PI (on pages 38 to 41), also assumes that the choice of parameter is not determined by the hidden variable  $\lambda$ .

<sup>15</sup>For example, if we thought of  $P_{\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{b}}(X, Y)$  as a conditional probability  $P(X, Y|\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{b})$  and the probability  $P(\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{b}) = 0$ , then according to the definition of conditional probability,  $P(X, Y|\lambda, \hat{a}, \hat{b}) = \frac{0}{0}$ .

knob settings that correspond to measurement axes of a Stern-Gerlach experiment).

This is because the determination of whether OI holds will depend on what one counts as being the hidden variable of a system, and we need the hidden variable of a system to be such that the notion of PI is well-defined. Otherwise, one's verdict on OI will be irrelevant to Shimony's analysis of why Bell's inequality fails to hold.

### 5.5 Hidden variables and the Colbeck-Renner theorem

Butterfield assumes that the hidden variables in Kent's theory consist in the outcome  $\tau_S(x)$  of  $T_S(x)$  over the whole of  $S$ , and so far, I haven't questioned this assumption. However, this assumption is going to cause difficulties in the context of Shimony's analysis. This is because in Kent's theory, the information in  $\tau_S(x)$  over the whole of  $S$  clearly would determine which parameters are chosen in a Bell experiment, for this information would determine where a silver atom coming out of a Stern-Gerlach apparatus would be detected on a detection screen (as depicted in figure 2.4), and from the position of this detection, one could determine the orientation of the magnetic field used in the Stern-Gerlach experiment. So if we stipulated that  $\lambda = \tau_S$  is the hidden variable of every system in Kent's theory, then Kent's theory wouldn't satisfy the preconditions necessary for defining OI and PI. This would make Kent's theory radically different from the pilot wave interpretation where one can define OI and PI because the hidden variables, being the positions and momenta of the particles, are independent of the measurement choices. An unfortunate consequence of not being able to define OI and PI is that we wouldn't be able to evaluate Kent's theory in the light of Shimony's analysis of why Bell's inequality fails to hold.

But it is not obvious that we should stipulate that  $\lambda = \tau_S$  is the hidden variable of every system in Kent's theory. Just because we give  $\tau_S$  a single label  $\lambda$ , it doesn't follow that  $\tau_S$  is a single piece of information. There is typically going to be a huge amount of information in  $\tau_S$ , and for a given system  $\mathcal{S}$ , we should discern carefully what collection of information in  $\tau_S$  should be stipulated as being the hidden variable  $\lambda$  of  $\mathcal{S}$ . The criteria on which we should make such a decision should at least include the following:

1. all the information of  $\lambda$  is about  $\mathcal{S}$  so that a change in  $\lambda$  corresponds to a change in the system  $\mathcal{S}$ .<sup>hidden1</sup>

In the pilot wave interpretation, the positions and momenta of the particles that constitute a system would fulfil this criterion. On the other hand, all the information in  $\tau_S$  of Kent's theory would not fulfil this criterion unless of course  $\mathcal{S}$  was the whole universe.

Note, however, that we don't insist that a difference in  $\mathcal{S}$  entails a difference in  $\lambda$ . This is because a hidden-variables theory is envisaged as augmenting standard quantum theory. So in the case when  $\mathcal{S}$  is not entangled with any other system, there will be a quantum state describing  $\mathcal{S}$ , and this quantum state can be other than it is (indicating that  $\mathcal{S}$  can be in a different physical state) whilst the hidden variable remains the same. We thus impose a second criterion for a hidden-variables theory:<sup>hidden3</sup>

2. If  $\lambda$  is the hidden variable of a system  $\mathcal{S}$  and if  $|\phi\rangle$  is the quantum state of  $\mathcal{S}$  or of some composite system  $\mathcal{U}$  that contains  $\mathcal{S}$  as a subsystem, then it

is possible for there to be a different quantum state  $|\phi'\rangle$  of  $\mathcal{S}$  (or  $\mathcal{U}$ ) while the hidden variable  $\lambda$  remains unchanged, and it is possible for there to be a different hidden variable  $\lambda$  while  $|\phi\rangle$  remains unchanged.

This criterion is satisfied in the pilot wave interpretation, since the quantum state is the pilot wave itself. The pilot could be other than it is without any of the positions and momenta of the particles changing, but changing the pilot wave would result in a physical change of the system since the pilot wave governs how the positions and the momenta of the particles subsequently evolve over time.

Another criterion for a collection of information  $\lambda$  to constitute the hidden variable of a system  $\mathcal{S}$  is the following:

hidden2

3. it should be possible to change the measurement parameters when measuring  $\mathcal{S}$  without this having any affect on  $\lambda$ .

If this criterion doesn't hold, we cannot even begin to consider whether PI holds in a given theory. In the pilot wave interpretation, the positions and momenta of the particles that constitute a system would fulfil this criterion, whereas all the information in  $\tau_S$  of Kent's theory would not. We used this criterion when showing that OI implies the negation of PI.

Closely related to criterion 3 is the following criterion:

hidden5

4. If  $p_\lambda$  is the probability that a system  $\mathcal{S}$  has hidden variable  $\lambda$ , then  $p_\lambda$  must be independent of any choice of measurement made on  $\mathcal{S}$ .

We are thus assuming there is a whole range of possibilities for the hidden variable  $\lambda$ , but because we don't know what the hidden variable  $\lambda$  is, we can only assign it a probability. Knowledge of the quantum state of the system may help us assign such a probability, but this probability cannot depend on the choice of any future measurement we might make on the system. Butterfield refers to criterion 4 as the 'no-conspiracy' assumption, though he adds that this is a rather unfair label since there wouldn't necessarily be anything conspiratorial if this assumption was violated.<sup>16</sup>

We should also state explicitly a fifth criterion:

hidden4

5. Suppose  $\mathcal{A}$  is any system that is entangled with  $\mathcal{S}$ , and that the quantum state of the composite system  $\mathcal{S} + \mathcal{A}$  is  $|\phi\rangle_{\mathcal{S}+\mathcal{A}}$ . Then for any measurement  $O_{\mathcal{S}}$  on  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $O_{\mathcal{A}}$  on  $\mathcal{A}$ , there is a probability  $P_{\lambda}^{|\phi\rangle_{\mathcal{S}+\mathcal{A}}}(O_{\mathcal{S}} = o_{\mathcal{S}}, O_{\mathcal{A}} = o_{\mathcal{A}})$  for the joint measurement of  $O_{\mathcal{S}}$  and  $O_{\mathcal{A}}$  on  $\mathcal{S} + \mathcal{A}$  that is a function of  $\lambda$  despite  $\lambda$  only referring to the system  $\mathcal{S}$ .

In addition to these five criteria for a hidden variable  $\lambda$  of a system  $\mathcal{S}$ , it is also desirable for a hidden-variables theory to satisfy PI and empirical adequacy. We defined PI for a two-outcome measurement on page 36, but it is easy to generalize the definition of PI for measurements with more than two outcomes. Thus, using the notation of criterion 5 and letting  $O'_{\mathcal{A}}$  denote a second choice of measurement on  $\mathcal{A}$ , PI states that

$$\sum_{o_{\mathcal{A}}} P_{\lambda}^{|\phi\rangle_{\mathcal{S}+\mathcal{A}}}(O_{\mathcal{S}} = o_{\mathcal{S}}, O_{\mathcal{A}} = o_{\mathcal{A}}) = \sum_{o'_{\mathcal{A}}} P_{\lambda}^{|\phi\rangle_{\mathcal{S}+\mathcal{A}}}(O_{\mathcal{S}} = o_{\mathcal{S}}, O'_{\mathcal{A}} = o'_{\mathcal{A}}) \quad (\text{PI})$$

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<sup>16</sup>See Butterfield, "Peaceful Coexistence: Examining Kent's Relativistic Solution to the Quantum Measurement Problem," 34.

where the summations on both sides are over all the possible measurement outcomes of  $O_{\mathcal{A}}$  and  $O'_{\mathcal{A}}$  respectively.

As for the definition of **empirical adequacy** (EA), using the notation of criteria 4 and 5, this states that

$$\sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda} p_{\lambda} P_{\lambda}^{|\phi\rangle_{S+A}}(O_S = o_S, O_{\mathcal{A}} = o_{\mathcal{A}}) = P^{|\phi\rangle_{S+A}}(O_S = o_S, O_{\mathcal{A}} = o_{\mathcal{A}}) \quad \{\text{adeq}\}_{(\text{EA})}$$

where  $\Lambda$  is the set of all hidden variables so that  $\sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda} p_{\lambda} = 1$ , and where

$$P^{|\phi\rangle_{S+A}}(O_S = o_S, O_{\mathcal{A}} = o_{\mathcal{A}})$$

is the standard probability calculated using the Born Rule with the eigenstates of the observables  $\hat{O}_S$  and  $\hat{O}_{\mathcal{A}}$  and the quantum state  $|\phi\rangle_{S+A}$ . EA is essentially the same as equation (2.22). It also has some similarities with (5.7), though the main difference is the range of the summation – the index of the summands of (5.7) does not parametrize hidden variables that satisfy criteria 1 to 5 above.

Now it turns out that criteria 1 to 5 together with the conditions of PI and EA are very restrictive. In his 2016 paper, Leegwater proves a version of the Colbeck-Renner theorem.<sup>17</sup> Leegwater's version takes the following form: if one defines hidden variables according to criteria 1 to 5, then in any hidden-variables theory for which PI and EA hold, the hidden variables are redundant. In other words, in the notation of criterion 5,

$$P_{\lambda}^{|\phi\rangle_{S+A}}(O_S = o_S, O_{\mathcal{A}} = o_{\mathcal{A}}) = P^{|\phi\rangle_{S+A}}(O_S = o_S, O_{\mathcal{A}} = o_{\mathcal{A}}) \quad \{\text{colbeckrenner}\}_{(5.37)}$$

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<sup>17</sup>See Leegwater, “An impossibility theorem for parameter independent hidden-variable theories.”

for any measurement  $O_S$  on  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $O_A$  on  $\mathcal{A}$ .<sup>18</sup>

Thus, the Colbeck-Renner theorem means that we cannot hope to make Kent's theory into a hidden-variables theory that satisfies PI and AE by simply defining more carefully what the hidden variables should be, for the information in Kent's theory is clearly non-redundant.

But nevertheless, it still seems that we should be able to make some kind of sense of PI and AE in Kent's theory and that we should be able to evaluate Kent's theory on the basis of whether these notions of PI and EA are true in this context. To achieve this aim, one strategy would be to relax one of the five criteria for a hidden variable. Since we still want to be able to make sense of PI and AE, a process of elimination suggests that the most obvious hidden variable criterion to drop would be criterion 2. In other words, instead of thinking of  $\tau_S$  as an augmentation of standard quantum theory, we could instead think of  $\tau_S$  as a rather elaborate way of stipulating the initial quantum states of experiments as well as the quantum states of measurement outcomes. The information of  $\tau_S$  would then be non-redundant. Moreover, if we could appropriately partition the information in  $\tau_S(x)$  on the basis of whether it determined the quantum state of the particle, or the quantum state of the apparatus, or the quantum state of the rest of the universe, we could then consider whether Kent's theory gave the same predictions as standard quantum theory. If it did, then PI and AE would hold in Kent's theory, since these both hold in standard quantum theory. And since Kent's

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<sup>18</sup>Strictly speaking, we should say that equation (5.37) holds for almost all  $\lambda$ , but we need not concern ourselves here with the details of measure theory that would be needed to make sense of this qualification.

theory is formulated in the Lorentz invariant setting of Schwinger and Tomonaga, this would mean that Kent's theory is a solution to the measurement problem!

## 5.6 Kent's Theory and standard quantum theory\*<sup>|KentconsistentQT</sup>

In this section, I will show that Kent's theory does indeed give the same predictions as standard quantum theory in the case of an experimental apparatus  $\mathcal{A}$  measuring the properties of a particle  $\mathcal{S}$ .

Let's assume that the apparatus has already interacted with many photons during its existence up until the time  $t_i$ . Likewise, let's assume the particle has interacted with many photons up until this time. Now suppose that the spacelike hypersurface  $S$  has energy density  $\tau_S(x)$  indicating that some photons have been “measured” on  $S$  to be in a state  $|\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A})}\rangle$  which is correlated with the apparatus being in a state  $|a\rangle$  shortly before time  $t_i$  and in the vicinity of spatial location  $z_1$  as depicted in figure 5.7. Similarly, we suppose that  $\tau_S(x)$  also indicates that some photons have been “measured” on  $S$  to be in a state  $|\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{S})}\rangle$  which is correlated with the particle being in a state  $|s\rangle$  also shortly before time  $t_i$  and in the vicinity of spatial location  $z_1$ . We assume that the time  $t_i$  is just before the particle enters the apparatus (given the measurement of  $|\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{S})}\rangle$  and  $|\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A})}\rangle$  on  $S$ ) and that no more photons are measured on  $S$  that have become entangled with particle or the apparatus until the particle emerges from the apparatus at time  $t_f$ . Then some more photons interact with the apparatus  $\mathcal{A}$  and get entangled with it shortly before time  $t_m$ , and these photons are detected on  $S$  to be in a state  $|\gamma_f''\rangle$ , and this state is correlated with the apparatus now being in a state  $|a_f\rangle$ , and hence the particle being in state  $|s_f\rangle$ .

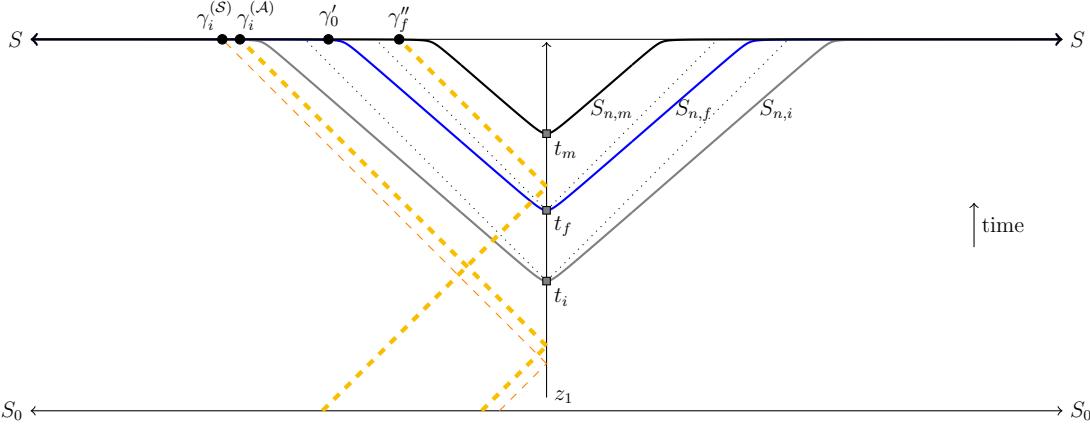


Figure 5.7: Depicts an experiment where the state of some photons  $\gamma_i^{(S)}$  and  $\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A})}$  on the spacelike hypersurface  $S$  determines the initial conditions of an experimental setup of a particle  $\mathcal{S}$  and apparatus  $\mathcal{A}$  in the vicinity of the spacetime location  $(z_1, t_i)$ . The state of the photons  $\gamma''_f$  on the spacelike hypersurface  $S$  determines the final state of the apparatus after the particle has left it at time  $t_f$  so that the apparatus at time  $t_m$  displays a definite measurement outcome. It is assumed that no incoming photons have become entangled with the experiment after the  $\gamma_i^{(S)}$  and  $\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A})}$  photons and before the  $\gamma''_f$  photons have become entangled with the experiment.

`pisolution`

We aim to show that within Kent's theory, we can calculate the probability the particle emerges from the measuring apparatus  $\mathcal{A}$  in state  $|s_f\rangle$  given that it enters  $\mathcal{A}$  in state  $|s\rangle$ , and that this probability is the same as if one ignored  $S$  and just applied the Born Rule to  $|s\rangle$  and  $|s_f\rangle$ .

In order to show this, let us choose a sequence of spacelike hypersurfaces  $S_{n,i}$  which go through the spacetime location  $y_i = (t_i, z_1)$  such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{n,i} \cap S = S^1(y_i)$ , where as usual,  $S^1(y_i)$  consists of all the spacetime locations of  $S$  outside the light cone of  $y_i$ .

Let us assume that  $n$  is sufficiently large so that the photons described by  $|\gamma_i^{(S)}\rangle$  and  $|\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A})}\rangle$  belong to  $S_{n,i}$ . The spacelike hypersurface  $S_{n,i}$  and the photons being reflected from the vicinity of  $z_1$  just before time  $t_i$  are also depicted in figure 5.7.

Typically, the quantum state  $|\Psi_{n,i}\rangle = U_{S_{n,i}, S_0} |\Psi_0\rangle$  of the spacelike hypersurface  $S_{n,i}$  (where  $U_{S_{n,i}, S_0}$  is the unitary operator relating the states of two spacelike hypersur-

faces as discussed on page 120) will also include photon correlations with  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{A}$  corresponding to other possible “measurements” of  $T_S(x)$  besides  $\tau_S(x)$ . So in general, we would expect the state of  $S_{n,i}$  to be of the form

$$|\Psi_{n,i}\rangle = \sum_{j,k} c_{j,k} |\sigma_j\rangle |\alpha_k\rangle |\gamma_j^{(\mathcal{S})}\rangle |\gamma_k^{(\mathcal{A})}\rangle,$$

where  $\{|\sigma_j\rangle : j\}$  is an orthonormal basis of states for the particle  $\mathcal{S}$  with  $|s\rangle \in \{|\sigma_j\rangle : j\}$ ,  $\{|\alpha_k\rangle : k\}$  is an orthonormal basis of states describing the apparatus  $\mathcal{A}$  with  $|a\rangle \in \{|\alpha_k\rangle : k\}$ ,  $\{|\gamma_j^{(\mathcal{S})}\rangle : j\}$  are normalized states of photons in  $S_{n,i} \cap S$  that are entangled with the particle  $\mathcal{S}$  such that  $\langle \gamma_j^{(\mathcal{S})} | \gamma_{j'}^{(\mathcal{S})} \rangle \approx 0$  for  $j \neq j'$ ,  $\{|\gamma_k^{(\mathcal{A})}\rangle : k\}$  are normalized states of photons in  $S_{n,i} \cap S$  that are entangled with the apparatus  $\mathcal{A}$  such that  $\langle \gamma_k^{(\mathcal{A})} | \gamma_{k'}^{(\mathcal{A})} \rangle \approx 0$  for  $k \neq k'$ , and for clarity, we have absorbed any other environmental information into the states  $|\alpha_k\rangle$ .

If we now define the projection  $\pi_{n,i}$  corresponding to the “measurement outcome”  $\tau_S(x)$  on  $S_{n,i} \cap S$  as in equation (5.2), and if we also assume that the bases are indexed so that  $|s\rangle = |\sigma_i\rangle$  and  $|a\rangle = |\alpha_i\rangle$  then

$$\pi_{n,i} |\Psi_{n,i}\rangle \approx c |s\rangle |a\rangle |\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{S})}\rangle |\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A})}\rangle \quad \{\text{piph}\}_{(5.38)}$$

where  $c = c_{i,i}$ . For convenience, we will omit the reference to  $n$  and write  $S_i$  for  $S_{n,i}$  and  $\pi_i$  for  $\pi_{n,i}$ . We will also write  $|\Phi_i\rangle$  for the normalized state of  $\pi_i |\Psi_i\rangle$  so that

$$|\Phi_i\rangle \approx |s\rangle |a\rangle |\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{S})}\rangle |\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A})}\rangle. \quad \{\text{phii}\}_{(5.39)}$$

We now suppose that at time  $t_i$ ,  $|a\rangle$  is the ready state of the apparatus with pointer states  $\{|a_j\rangle : j\}$  so that if  $|s\rangle = \sum_i c_j |s_j\rangle$ , then under Schrödinger evolution from time

$t_i$  to  $t_f$ ,

$$|s\rangle |a\rangle \rightarrow \sum_j c_j |s_j\rangle |a_j\rangle.$$

We assume that before time  $t_f$ , no photons have had a chance to get entangled with  $\mathcal{S} + \mathcal{A}$ . It is only by time  $t_m$  that we assume a measurement of photons in state  $|\gamma''_f\rangle$  on  $S$  outside the light cone of  $(t_m, z_1)$  is able to determine that the apparatus is in state  $|a_f\rangle$  and hence that the particle is in state  $|s_f\rangle$ . Although the measurement outcome  $\tau_S(x)$  on the whole of  $S$  determines with probability 1 that the apparatus and the particle will be in the states  $|a_f\rangle$  and  $|s_f\rangle$  respectively at time  $t_m$ , if we consider the probability  $P(f||\Phi_i\rangle)$  that this outcome occurs based just on the state  $|\Phi_i\rangle$ , then typically this probability is going to be less than 1.

To calculate this probability, we first consider the evolution of  $|\Phi_i\rangle$  to  $U_{S_f, S_i} |\Phi_i\rangle$ . It's possible that there may be photons "measured" on  $S$  between the spacelike hypersurfaces  $S_i$  and  $S_f$  as indicated in figure 5.7 (i.e. on  $(S \cap S_f) \setminus (S \cap S_i)$ ), but we are assuming that they do not get entangled with the different pointer states of the apparatus. In other words,  $|\Phi_i\rangle$  will evolve to a state of the form

$$U_{S_f, S_i} |\Phi_i\rangle \approx \sum_j c_j |s_j\rangle |a_j\rangle |\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{S})}\rangle |\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A})}\rangle \sum_k g_k |\gamma'_k\rangle, \quad \text{\{USfievolye1\}} \quad (5.40)$$

where  $|\gamma'_k\rangle$  correspond to the possible measurements of  $T_S(x)$  on  $(S \cap S_f) \setminus (S \cap S_i)$ , and  $\sum_k |g_k|^2 = 1$ .

But from time  $t_f$  to  $t_m$ , we assume that the apparatus does get entangled with photons which are measured on  $S \cap S_m$ . Thus, if  $\{|\gamma''_j\rangle : j\}$  are the normalized states representing the possible measurements outcomes of these photons such that

$\langle \gamma_j'' | \gamma_k'' \rangle \approx 0$  for  $j \neq k$ , then

$$U_{S_m, S_f} U_{S_f, S_i} |\Phi_i\rangle \approx \sum_j c_j |s_j\rangle |a_j\rangle |\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{S})}\rangle |\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A})}\rangle \sum_k g_k |\gamma'_k\rangle |\gamma''_j\rangle.$$

Since we are assuming that at time  $t_m$  a measurement of photons on  $S \cap S_m$  is able to determine that the apparatus is in state  $|a_f\rangle$ , this can only happen if  $U_{S_m, S_f} U_{S_f, S_i} |\Phi_i\rangle$  is found to be in one of the states  $|\Phi_{k,f}\rangle$  for some  $k$  where

$$|\Phi_{k,j}\rangle = |s_j\rangle |a_j\rangle |\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{S})}\rangle |\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A})}\rangle |\gamma'_k\rangle |\gamma''_j\rangle.$$

By the Born Rule, the probability  $|\Phi_i\rangle$  will be found to be in state  $|\Phi_{k,j}\rangle$  will be

$$|\langle \Phi_{k,j} | \Phi_i \rangle| = |c_j|^2 |g_k|^2.$$

Therefore,

$$P(f | |\Phi_i\rangle) = \sum_k |\langle \Phi_{k,f} | \Phi_i \rangle| = |c_f|^2 = |\langle s_f | s \rangle|^2.$$

Hence, the probability that a complete measurement of  $T_S(x)$  on  $S$  will give a measurement outcome of the particle being in state  $|s_f\rangle$  given the partial measurement of  $T_S(x)$  on  $S_i \cap S$  determines the particle to be initially in the state  $|s\rangle$  will be the same as the standard Born Rule probability  $|\langle s_f | s \rangle|^2$  of  $|s\rangle$  being found to be in state  $|s_f\rangle$ .

We can also recover this probability using Kent's conditional expectation. To do this, we recall that in standard quantum theory, if for some state  $|\psi\rangle$  of a system we define the operator  $[\psi] = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$ , then when the system is in some initial state  $|\chi\rangle$ , the Born Rule implies that  $\langle\chi|[\psi]|\chi\rangle = P(\psi|\chi)$ , where  $P(\psi|\chi)$  is the probability that the system will be found to be in state  $|\psi\rangle$  given that it was initially in state  $|\chi\rangle$ .

But by (3.2),  $\langle \chi | [\psi] | \chi \rangle$  is just the expectation  $\langle \psi \rangle_\chi$  of  $[\psi]$  when  $[\psi]$  is treated as an observable.

Now in equation (5.6), we saw how to calculate the expectation value  $\langle T^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_S}$  of the observable  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$  given the notional measurement  $\tau_S$  on  $S$  outside the light cone of  $y$ . This suggests that the expectation value of any observable  $\hat{O}$  defined at spacetime location  $(t_i, z_1)$  given the notional measurement  $\tau_S$  on  $S$  outside the light cone of  $(t_i, z_1)$  is going to be

$$\langle \hat{O} \rangle_{\tau_S} = \frac{\langle \Psi_i | \pi_i \hat{O} | \Psi_i \rangle}{\langle \Psi_i | \pi_i | \Psi_i \rangle}.$$

By (5.38),  $\langle \Psi_i | \pi_i | \Psi_i \rangle = |c|^2$ , and so taking  $\hat{O}$  to be  $[s_f]$  we have

$$\langle [s_f] \rangle_{\tau_S} = \frac{|c|^2 |\langle s_f | s \rangle|^2}{|c|^2} = |\langle s_f | s \rangle|^2.$$

Thus, Kent's conditional expectation  $\langle [s_f] \rangle_{\tau_S}$  gives us the same probability  $|\langle s_f | s \rangle|^2$  for a particle transitioning from state  $|s\rangle$  to state  $|s_f\rangle$  as in standard quantum theory.

Also note that we can typically expect the  $|\gamma_i^{(S)}\rangle$ -state to be independent of the  $|\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A})}\rangle$ -state. Therefore, since  $|\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A})}\rangle$  will determine the measurement choice, and since  $|\gamma_i^{(S)}\rangle$  determines the initial state of the particle, we can expect the state of the particle to be independent of the measurement choice in Kent's theory. Thus, we can fulfil one of the necessary criteria (i.e. criterion 3) for PI to be a well-defined notion.

## 5.7 Kent's Theory and Parameter Independence<sup>kentpi</sup>

In addition to criterion 3 being satisfied, criterion 5 must also be true if PI is to be a well-defined notion. In the previous section, we saw how we can generalize Kent's beable  $\langle \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_S}$  to calculate conditional expectations  $\langle \hat{O} \rangle_{\tau_S}$  for any observable  $\hat{O}$

defined at a particular spacetime location  $(t_i, z_1)$ . Calculating the probability for two measurements requires calculating the conditional expectation of an observable that depends on two spacetime locations. In order to do this, we need to make a further adaption to Kent's theory. In this section, we will describe this adaption and show that with it, Kent's theory allows us to calculate probabilities for Bell-type experiments, and that these probabilities are the same as in standard quantum theory. Since PI holds in standard quantum theory, a consequence of Kent's theory agreeing with standard quantum theory is that PI will also hold in Kent's theory.

So let's consider figure 5.8 which depicts a one-dimensional view of a Bell-type experiment. There is a left wing of the experiment located in the vicinity of  $z_L$ , and

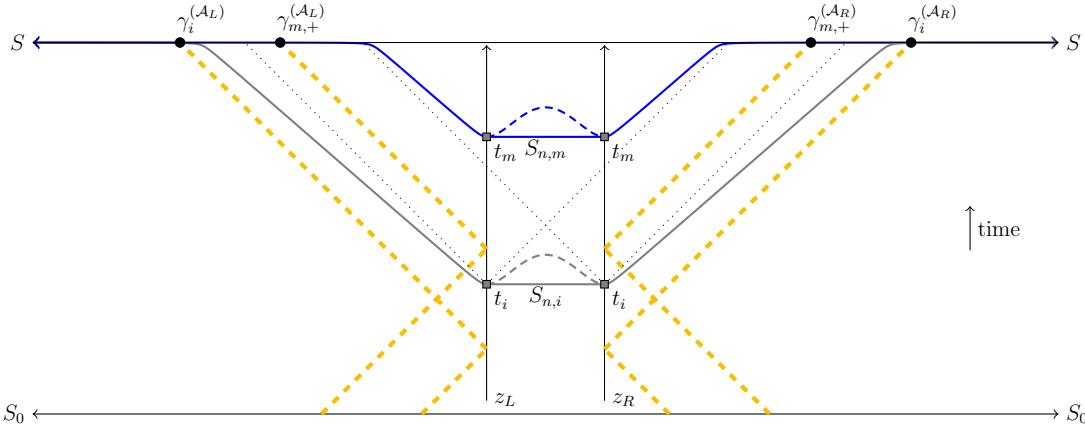


Figure 5.8: Depicts a Bell-type experiment where the state of some photons  $\gamma_i^{(A_L)}$  and  $\gamma_i^{(A_R)}$  on the spacelike hypersurface  $S$  determines the choice of measurement parameters of the left wing and right wing of the experiment respectively, and some photons  $\gamma_{m,+}^{(A_L)}$  and  $\gamma_{m,+}^{(A_R)}$  on the spacelike hypersurface  $S$  determine the measurement outcome of the experiment on the left wing and the right wing respectively. The dashed lines on the spacelike hypersurfaces  $S_{n,m}$  and  $S_{n,i}$  indicate other choices for the spacelike hypersurfaces, but they still lead to the same probability being calculated. bellisolution

a right wing of the experiment located in the vicinity of  $z_R$ . Shortly before time  $t_i$ , photons interact with a Stern-Gerlach apparatus on the left wing and a Stern-Gerlach

apparatus on the right wing, with the result that the photons being measured on a spacelike hypersurface  $S_{n,i} \cap S$  to be in states  $|\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A}_L)}\rangle$  and  $|\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A}_R)}\rangle$  determine the measurement parameters of the apparatuses on the left wing and the right wing of the experiment respectively.

We need to adapt Kent's sequences of spacelike hypersurfaces in order to proceed. Sequences of spacelike hypersurfaces  $S_{n,i}$  are chosen so that they all contain the spacetime locations  $y_L = (t_i, z_L)$  and  $y_R = (t_i, z_R)$ , and that in the limit,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{n,i}$  contains as much of  $S^1(y_L)$  and  $S^1(y_R)$  as possible, where as usual,  $S^1(y)$  denotes the subset of  $S$  lying outside the light cone of  $y$ . Ultimately, this limit (unlike the limit of Kent's spacelike hypersurfaces) will not contain the whole of  $S^1(y_L)$  or  $S^1(y_R)$ , but only serves to guarantee that we use as much of the information in  $S$  as possible in calculating the expectation values of observables at  $(t_i, z_L)$  and  $(t_i, z_R)$ . There will be some degree of freedom in what we choose for the spacelike hypersurface between  $(t_i, z_L)$  and  $(t_i, z_R)$  as depicted by the dashed line in the figure. However, such freedom will have no effect on the probabilities calculated, because under the assumption that the spacelike hypersurface is very far into the future, there will be no choice of spacelike hypersurface in this region that would give us more information in  $S$  to condition on. Also, we recall that the stress-energy operators in the Tomonaga-Schwinger formulation of relativistic quantum physics are chosen so that they are invariant under perturbations of the spacelike hypersurface, so under the assumption that all physical observables will be ultimately expressible in terms of the stress-energy operators, the arbitrary choice of the spacelike hypersurfaces in regions that can't intersect with  $S$  will have no effect of the probabilities calculated.

On the spacelike hypersurface  $S_{n,i}$ , we assume that there are some photons “measured” on it to be in the states  $|\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A}_L)}\rangle$  and  $|\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A}_R)}\rangle$  that determine the choice of measurement axes for the left and right wings of the experiment respectively. We assume that the axis of orientation of the right wing Stern-Gerlach apparatus makes an angle  $\theta$  with the axis of the left wing apparatus.

We also assume that there are two particles that together form a Bell-state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{s}+\rangle_L |\hat{s}-\rangle_R - |\hat{s}-\rangle_L |\hat{s}+\rangle_R). \quad \text{\{bellstatePI\}} \quad (5.41)$$

We saw in footnote 18 on page 21 that a Bell state does not depend on the orientation of  $\hat{s}$ , so without loss of generality, we can suppose that the  $|\hat{s}+\rangle_L$  and  $|\hat{s}-\rangle_L$  are pointer states for the apparatus on the left-wing of the experiment. This means there will be a ready state  $|a\rangle_L$  as well as two states  $|a+\rangle_L$  and  $|a-\rangle_L$  of the left wing apparatus such that

$$|\hat{s}\pm\rangle_L |a\rangle_L \rightarrow |\hat{s}\pm\rangle_L |a\pm\rangle_L.$$

As for the right wing of the experiment, we let  $|\hat{s}_\theta+\rangle_R$  and  $|\hat{s}_\theta-\rangle_R$  be pointer states for the apparatus so that there is a ready state  $|a\rangle_R$  as well as two states  $|a_\theta+\rangle_R$  and  $|a_\theta-\rangle_R$  of the right wing apparatus such that

$$|\hat{s}_\theta\pm\rangle_R |a\rangle_R \rightarrow |\hat{s}_\theta\pm\rangle_R |a_\theta\pm\rangle_R.$$

As in approximation (5.39), the detections of the photons on  $S_{n,i} \cap S$  being in state  $|\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A}_L)}\rangle$  and  $|\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A}_R)}\rangle$  determine the two particles and the apparatuses on both wings of the experiment to be in the state

$$|\Phi_i\rangle \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\hat{s}+\rangle_L |\hat{s}-\rangle_R - |\hat{s}-\rangle_L |\hat{s}+\rangle_R) |a\rangle_L |a\rangle_R |\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A}_L)}\rangle |\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A}_R)}\rangle. \quad \text{\{bellstatePI2\}} \quad (5.42)$$

As in equations (2.2a) and (2.2b), we have

$$|\hat{s}+\rangle_R = \alpha_\theta |\hat{s}_\theta+\rangle_R + \beta_\theta |\hat{s}_\theta-\rangle_R,$$

$$|\hat{s}-\rangle_R = \alpha_\theta |\hat{s}_\theta-\rangle_R - \beta_\theta |\hat{s}_\theta+\rangle_R,$$

where  $\alpha_\theta = \cos(\theta/2)$ , and  $\beta_\theta = \sin(\theta/2)$ . Substituting this into (5.42), we can express the state of the two particles as

$$\begin{aligned} |\Phi_{n,i}\rangle &\approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\alpha_\theta |\hat{s}+\rangle_L |\hat{s}_\theta-\rangle_R - \beta_\theta |\hat{s}+\rangle_L |\hat{s}_\theta+\rangle_R \\ &\quad - \alpha_\theta |\hat{s}-\rangle_L |\hat{s}_\theta+\rangle_R - \beta_\theta |\hat{s}-\rangle_L |\hat{s}_\theta-\rangle_R) |a\rangle_L |a\rangle_R |\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A}_L)}\rangle |\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A}_R)}\rangle. \end{aligned} \quad \text{\{bellstatePI3\}} \quad (5.43)$$

If we apply the unitary operator  $U_{S_{n,m}, S_{n,i}}$  to each of the terms of (5.43), we get

$$\begin{aligned} U_{S_{n,m}, S_{n,i}} |\hat{s}\pm\rangle_L |\hat{s}_\theta\pm'\rangle_R |a\rangle_L |a\rangle_R |\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A}_L)}\rangle |\gamma_i^{(\mathcal{A}_R)}\rangle \\ = |\hat{s}\pm\rangle_L |\hat{s}_\theta\pm'\rangle_R |a\pm\rangle_L |a_\theta\pm'\rangle_R |\gamma_{m,\pm}^{(\mathcal{A}_L)}\rangle |\gamma_{m,\pm'}^{(\mathcal{A}_R)}\rangle \end{aligned} \quad (5.44)$$

where  $|\gamma_{m,\pm}^{(\mathcal{A}_L)}\rangle$  are the states of possible detections of photons on  $S_{n,m}$  that would determine the left wing apparatus to be in the state  $|a\pm\rangle_L$ , and where  $|\gamma_{m,\pm}^{(\mathcal{A}_R)}\rangle$  are the states of possible detections of photons on  $S_{n,m}$  that would determine the right wing apparatus to be in the state  $|a_\theta\pm'\rangle_R$ . Using the Born Rule, we therefore see that given a measurement of  $T_S(x)$  determines the state of the spacelike hypersurface  $S_{n,i}$  to be in state  $|\Phi_{n,i}\rangle$ , the probability that the spacelike hypersurface  $S_{n,m}$  will be found to be in the state

$$|\hat{s}+\rangle_L |\hat{s}_\theta+\rangle_R |a+\rangle_L |a_\theta+\rangle_R |\gamma_{m,+}^{(\mathcal{A}_L)}\rangle |\gamma_{m,+}^{(\mathcal{A}_R)}\rangle$$

will be

$$\frac{1}{2} |\beta_\theta|^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sin^2(\theta/2)$$

From this it follows that the probability that the left wing particle will be in state  $|\hat{s}+\rangle_L$  and that the right wing particle will be in state  $|\hat{s}_\theta+\rangle_R$  given the initial

conditions will also be  $\frac{1}{2} \sin^2(\theta/2)$ . This is the same probability as that given by standard quantum theory on page 31.

Also note that if we define the observable  $[\hat{s}+]_L = |\hat{s}+\rangle_L \langle \hat{s}+|$  that depends on spacetime location  $(t_1, z_L)$ , and the observable  $[\hat{s}_\theta+]_R = |\hat{s}_\theta+\rangle_R \langle \hat{s}_\theta+|$  that depends on spacetime location  $(t_1, z_R)$ , then we can construct the observable  $[\hat{s}+]_L [\hat{s}_\theta+]_R$ , and with the adapted sequence  $S_{n,i}$  of spacelike hypersurfaces, we can calculate the conditional expectation

$$\langle [\hat{s}+]_L [\hat{s}_\theta+]_R \rangle_{\tau_S} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\langle \Psi_{n,i} | \pi_{n,i} [\hat{s}+]_L [\hat{s}_\theta+]_R | \Psi_{n,i} \rangle}{\langle \Psi_{n,i} | \pi_{n,i} | \Psi_{n,i} \rangle}.$$

With this adaption and the notional measurement of  $T_S(x)$  on  $S$  described in this section, it is easy to see that

$$\langle [\hat{s}+]_L [\hat{s}_\theta+]_R \rangle_{\tau_S} = \frac{1}{2} \sin^2(\theta/2)$$

which is the joint probability for finding the left wing particle in state  $|\hat{s}+\rangle_L$  and the right wing particle in state  $|\hat{s}_\theta+\rangle_R$ . Thus, we can adapt Kent's model so that criterion 5 of page 170 is satisfied and such that Kent's model gives the same probabilities as standard quantum theory. Hence, PI holds in Kent's theory.<sup>kentpiend</sup>

## 5.8 An Alternative to Kent's Beables

A final question to consider in this chapter is the nature of Kent's beables. As discussed on page 121, Bell hoped for a more satisfactory theory than standard quantum theory. This more satisfactory theory was to be a theory of beables rather than a theory of observables, and these beables would form the underlying reality that gives rise to all the familiar things in the world around us.

Now in the context of Kent's theory, the definite mass/energy density  $\tau_S(x)$  at a location  $x \in S$  seems like a good candidate to be a beable. But what is less obvious is what the beables should be for a spacetime locations prior to  $S$ . Kent seems to be saying that the beables at a spacetime location  $y$  prior to  $S$  would consist in the stress-energy tensor whose values were given by the conditional expectation value  $\langle \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_S}$  for all the different combinations of  $\mu$  and  $\nu$ .

In some situations, the definite values of  $\tau_S(x)$  on  $S$  will give rise to  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$ -eigenstates at  $y$ , in which case the conditional expectation  $\langle \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_S}$  will be identical to a definite value for  $T^{\mu\nu}(y)$  as normally understood in standard quantum theory. But there will inevitably be situations in which the definite values of  $\tau_S(x)$  on  $S$  will not give rise to  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$ -eigenstates at  $y$ . In other words, in the notation defined in section 5.1 on page 142, we may find that the state  $\pi_n |\Psi_n\rangle$  at  $y$  is in a superposition of eigenstates of  $\hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y)$ . But in that case, it seems very dubious to claim that the expectation value  $\langle \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_S}$  is the true state of reality and hence the beable at  $y$ . As an analogy, it seems a bit like saying if the throw of a six-sided dice was described quantum mechanically, then the dice could yield a beable of 3.5 for its outcome since 3.5 is the expectation value for the throw of a six-sided dice. In Kent's theory, there would of course nearly always be sufficient information in  $\tau_S$  on the spacelike hypersurface  $S$  to determine that the dice had an integer outcome between 1 and 6. But this still allows for the remote possibility that this information might not be sufficient. It nevertheless seems unnecessary to insist that physical reality is so definite that we have to allow for the possibility of a six-sided dice having 3.5 as an outcome.

One way to avoid such a possibility would be to suppose that there are degrees of definiteness in physical reality. In the context of Kent's theory, one could still suppose that the mass/energy density  $\tau_S(x)$  on  $S$  was perfectly definite, and that some definite facts about physical reality would flow from the definite facts about  $S$ . But there would also be much indefiniteness about physical reality. This would occur whenever the information in  $\tau_S(x)$  was insufficient to determine whether the state  $\pi_n |\Psi_n\rangle$  was an eigenstate of some observable. If light were to interact with the location  $y$  in a different way, then this might be able to settle the question of which eigenstate  $\pi_n |\Psi_n\rangle$  was in, but this definite outcome would then result in  $y$  being indefinite with respect to other observables. But even though there would inevitably be many physical quantities of a system that lacked definiteness, we would still be able to make claims about how mass/energy *might* have been measured on  $S$  and hence how likely a physical quantity might have had a particular value corresponding to this possible measurement on  $S$ .

Another issue that should concern us is the question of what should be the subject of the beables. Any beable presupposes a subject as well as a property that belongs to the subject. So in the case of Kent's beables, the spacetime location  $y$  would be the subject and  $\langle \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle_{\tau_S}$  would be a property of the subject. However, in section 5.7 (pages 178–183), we found that in order to deal with joint probabilities in Bell-type experiments, it was necessary to calculate expectation values for observables that depended on two spacetime locations rather than just one spacetime location.

Now perhaps some people would argue that joint probabilities are not beables and they might therefore conclude that the need to use multiple spacetime locations in

determining joint probabilities is irrelevant when it comes to deciding what the subject of a beable should be. But in defense of their relevance, it does seem that joint probabilities are saying something about reality. Moreover, in the absence of hidden variables, these joint probabilities can't be reduced to some more basic reality whose components only depend on single spacetime locations. It therefore doesn't seem unreasonable to attribute beability to probabilities, and if a probability could count as being a beable, then when that probability depended on more than one location, we would obviously have a beable whose subject consisted in more than one location.

But there is another reason for allowing beables whose subject consists in multiple locations, for by allowing this, we can avoid some of the strange consequences that occur if we only allow a single location to be the subject of a beable. For consider figure 5.9. We suppose that initially the state of  $S_0$  is

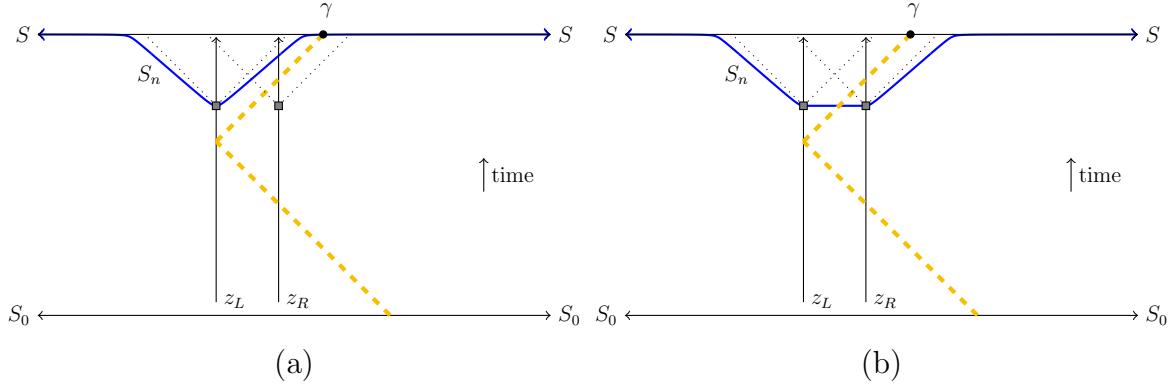


Figure 5.9: (a) and (b) show how conditional expectations are going to depend on the subject. In (a) the subject consists of spacetime locations  $(t, z_L)$  and  $(t, z_R)$ , whereas in (b) the subject is just  $(t, z_L)$ .

$$|\Psi_0\rangle = a |\psi\rangle_L |0\rangle_R + b |0\rangle_L |\psi\rangle_R$$

with  $|a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1$  (and where we have omitted all other terms corresponding to other spacetime locations). A photon then interacts with the joint system and is “measured”

on  $S$  to be in state  $|\gamma\rangle$  thus determining the mass of the composite system to be located at  $z_L$ . Now we consider the observable  $[\psi]_L$  and suppose its corresponding beable has as its subject a single spacetime location  $(t, z_L)$ , so that the expectation of  $[\psi]_L$  is conditioned on the information in  $S_n \cap S$  (taking the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  as usual) as depicted in figure 5.9 (a). Then as soon as the photon has interacted with the mass centered at  $z_L$ , we can say that the system has collapsed to this mass center (since the photon will be detected on  $S_n \cap S$  when we take the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ). But if the photon registers at a location on  $S$  that is within the light cone of  $(t, z_R)$ , and we consider the observable  $[\psi]_R$  and its corresponding  $(t, z_R)$ -beable, then there is nothing to condition on in  $S$  when calculating the expectation value of  $[\psi]_R$ , and so we will obtain a non-zero answer for this  $(t, z_R)$ -beable suggesting that there is some matter/energy at  $z_R$  at time  $t$ , even though according to the  $(t, z_L)$ -beable all the mass/energy is located at  $z_L$  at time  $t$ . This seems very strange.

However, if we consider the beable whose subject consists of both  $(t, z_L)$  and  $(t, z_R)$ , then because we have to choose a spacelike hypersurface that contains both  $(t, z_L)$  and  $(t, z_R)$  as depicted in figure 5.9 (b), the system won't collapse to the mass center at  $z_L$  as soon as the photon interacts with it. Rather, it will only collapse to this mass center once the photon registered on  $S$  is outside the light cones of both  $(t', z_L)$  and  $(t', z_R)$  for some  $t' > t$ . Once this time  $t'$  has occurred,  $z_L$  and the  $z_R$  will no longer be entangled, and so we would be able to consider beables whose subjects were the single spacetime locations at  $(t', z_L)$  and  $(t', z_R)$ .

This suggests we should take all the spacetime locations in an entangled system to be the subject of a beable where entanglement is determined by the information in  $\tau_S$  as well as the initial state  $|\Psi_0\rangle$ . As the initial state evolves, particle interactions and particle spreading will tend to induce entanglement between spacetime locations, but “measurement” on  $S$  will tend to disentangle spacetime locations. For example, if we have an entangled state of the form

$$a |\psi_1^a\rangle_L |\psi_2^a\rangle_R |\gamma_a\rangle + b |\psi_1^b\rangle_L |\psi_2^b\rangle_R |\gamma_b\rangle$$

then once the  $|\gamma\rangle$ -state is measured on  $S$  outside the light cone of these two locations, then the state will disentangle to either

$$|\psi_1^a\rangle_L |\psi_2^a\rangle_R |\gamma_a\rangle$$

or

$$|\psi_1^b\rangle_L |\psi_2^b\rangle_R |\gamma_b\rangle.$$

So with all this entanglement and disentanglement going on, we can expect there to be many different beable-subjects.

In dealing with subjects that contain multiple spacetime locations, the issue of simultaneity needs to be considered carefully, for if all the spacetime locations are simultaneous in one frame of reference, they are not going to be simultaneous in another frame of reference. Moreover, what we deem to be simultaneous in a subject is going to affect which spacelike hypersurfaces  $S_n$  contain the subject, and these spacelike hypersurfaces will in turn determine the state  $\pi_n |\Psi_n\rangle$  and hence affect what spacetime locations are entangled. Since entanglement is being proposed as the criterion for spacetime locations to belong to the same subject, we therefore need to

consider carefully what is the most appropriate frame of reference for the subject such that its spacetime locations are simultaneous.

A natural candidate for such a frame of reference would be one in which the expectation value of the center of mass of the subject had zero velocity. We still need to be careful, since for greater  $n$ , the intersection between  $S$  and the spacelike hypersurface  $S_n$  that contains the subject is going to increase, and so there is typically going to be more information in  $\tau_S$  available to condition on. This additional information could then possibly lead to disentanglement of regions that were previously entangled for smaller  $n$ . If such disentanglement occurred, we would then need to choose one of these new (and smaller) entangled regions and choose a frame of reference in which the new entangled region was simultaneous and in which the center of mass of the entangled region had zero velocity. So we would have to proceed in an iterative manner, but one would hope that eventually we would obtain a set of entangled locations that could serve as the natural subject of a beable. Hopefully, the corresponding beables of this entangled system would be Lorentz invariant in a way analogous to the rest mass of a particle being Lorentz invariant.

In addition to specifying what the subject of a beable should be, we would also need to consider what the beable itself should be. A guiding principle in specifying what the beables should be is to think about what the beables would be in the many-worlds interpretation, and then consider in this light what the most natural beables would be when one introduces a spacelike hypersurface  $S$  with its “measured” value of  $T_S$ .

Now proponents of the many-worlds interpretation often speak as though there is nothing more to reality than the universal state  $|\Psi\rangle$  of the universe. If this state were to factorize as

$$|\Psi\rangle = \prod_j |\Psi_j\rangle \quad \text{\{PhiBeables\}}_{(5.45)}$$

where  $|\Psi_j\rangle$  cannot be factorized further, one might be inclined to say that the beables would be the states  $|\Psi_j\rangle$  since these states could be specified independently of each other. But as soon as the systems these states described interacted with each other, they would become entangled, and since there is no principle of disentanglement in the many-worlds interpretation, eventually all systems would get entangled with one another. It would thus seem natural to say there was only one beable in the many-worlds interpretation, namely  $|\Psi\rangle$ , and that its subject was the whole of physical reality. But once we have a principle by which disentanglement can occur, then we can expect a factorization of  $|\Psi\rangle$  as in equation (5.45), and we could then deem the  $|\Psi_j\rangle$  to be the beables, and the subject of each  $|\Psi_j\rangle$  would be the entangled region in spacetime that it described.

In the context of Kent's theory, I am thus proposing that the beables would be of two sorts. Firstly, there would be the beables at every spacetime location  $x$  of  $S$ , and the value of each beable would be the “measured” value  $\tau_S(x)$  of  $T_S(x)$ . Here, I am in agreement with Kent.

Secondly, there would be a beable for every region of spacetime  $B$  that satisfied the following conditions:

1. the spacetime locations of  $B$  are all spacelike separated from one another,
2. there is a Lorentz transformation under which all the members of  $B$  become simultaneous,
3. if  $S_B$  is any spacelike hypersurface that contains  $B$ , and  $S_B$  is tiled with equally sized cells that can serve as a course-graining for  $S_B$ , then  $B$  will consist of a finite number of cells,
4. given a course-graining of  $S_B$  in which  $B$  consists of  $M$  cells, there will be a sequence of spacelike hypersurfaces  $S_n$  containing  $B$  and corresponding projections  $\pi_n$  (as described on page 142) such that for sufficiently large  $n$ ,  $\pi_n |\Psi_n\rangle$  will have an irreducible factor of the form

$$|\Psi_B\rangle = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}^M} c_n \prod_{l=1}^M |\xi_{k_l, n_l}\rangle$$

where the set  $\{k_l : l\}$  indexes the cells of  $B$  and where we use the notation of page 158,

5. when the Lorentz transformation is applied that makes all the members of  $B$  simultaneous, the center of mass of the region  $B$  calculated using  $|\Psi_B\rangle$  will have zero velocity.

If these conditions hold, then I propose that  $|\Psi_B\rangle$  is the beable with  $B$  as its subject. This in contrast to Kent's beable  $\langle \hat{T}^{\mu\nu}(y) \rangle$  whose subject is the single location  $y$ .

Given the first kind of beable  $\tau_S(x)$ , the second kind of beable,  $|\Psi_B\rangle$ , will not be superfluous, since  $|\Psi_B\rangle$  will say something about the manner in which  $\tau_S(x)$  could

have been other than it is. For if other photons had interacted with  $B$  at different times, the manner in which they interacted with  $B$  would depend on  $|\Psi_B\rangle$ , and from  $|\Psi_B\rangle$  we would be able to calculate other possible “measurements” of  $T_S(x)$  (and their probability) that could have made on  $S$ .

Despite the possible shortcomings of Kent’s account of beables that have been mentioned in this section, Kent nevertheless provides a very valuable interpretation of quantum physics: it is Lorentz invariant, it makes predictions consistent with standard quantum theory, it is an interpretation in which parameter independence holds, and it is a one world interpretation. Since parameter independence holds, Kent’s theory is superior to the pilot wave interpretation, and since it is a one-world interpretation, it avoids the absurdities of the many-worlds interpretation. Kent’s theory therefore deserves to be taken very seriously as a possible solution to the measurement problem.

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