Time and Events

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Abstract

Time plays a special role in Standard Quantum Theory. The concept of time observable causes many controversies there. In Event Enhanced Quantum Theory (in short: EEQT) Schrödinger’s differential equation is replaced by a piecewise deterministic algorithm that describes also the timing of events. This allows us to revisit the problem of time of arrival in quantum theory.

Keywords: time, time operator, quantum measurement, time of arrival
1 Introduction

EEQT was invented to answer John Bell’s concerns about the status of the measurement problem in quantum theory (Bell 1989,1990). EEQT’s main thesis is best summarized in the following statement:

\textit{NOT ALL IS QUANTUM}

Indeed, a pure quantum world would be dead. There would be no events; nothing would ever happen. There are no dynamics in pure quantum theory that serve to explain how potentialities become actualities. And we do know that the world is not dead. We know events do happen, and they do it in finite time. This means that pure quantum theory is inadequate. John Bell realized this fact and at first he sought a solution in hidden variable theories (Bell 1987a). Rudolf Haag (Haag 1990a,1990b,1996a,1996b) takes a similar position; he calls it an ”evolutionary picture.” EEQT is motivated by the same concerns but has taken a slightly different perspective. What EEQT has in common with hidden variable theories (as well as John Bell’s ”beables” (Bell 1987b)) is the realization that

\textit{THERE IS A CLASSICAL PART OF THE UNIVERSE}

and this part can evolve. ”We” (IGUS-es) belong partly to this classical world. Once the existence of the classical part is accepted, then events can be defined as changes of state of this classical part - cf. Fig\[1\] EEQT is the only theory that we are aware of that can precisely define the two concepts:

\begin{itemize}
  \item EXPERIMENT
  \item MEASUREMENT
\end{itemize}

thus complying with the demands set by John Bell in (Bell 1989,1990). We define (cf. Jadczyk 1994))

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textbf{Experiment}: completely positive one–parameter family of maps of $\mathcal{A}_{tot}$
  \item \textbf{Measurement}: very special kind of experiment
\end{itemize}

Moreover, EEQT is the only theory where there is one–to–one correspondence between linear Liouville equation for ensembles and individual algorithm for generation of events. It is to
In other words EEQT seeks for knowledge by going beyond pure descriptive orthodox interpretation. In agreement with Rudolf Haag, we are taking an evolutionary view of Nature. This means that the Future does not yet exist; it is being continuously created, and this creation is marked by events. But how does this process of creation proceed? This is what we want to know. A hundred years ago the answer would have been: "by solving differential equations." But today, after taking lessons in relativity and quantum theory, after the computer metaphor has permeated so many areas of our lives, we propose to seek an answer to the question of "how?" in terms of an ALGORITHM. Thus we set up the hypothesis: Nature is using a certain algorithm that is yet to be discovered. Quantum theory tells us clearly: this algorithm is non-local. Relativity adds to this: non-local in space implies non-local in time. Thus we have to be prepared to meet acausalities in the individual chains of events even if they average out in big statistical samples. EEQT can be thought of as one step in this direction. It proposes its piecewise deterministic process (PDP of Ref. (Blanchard and Jadczyk, 1995)) as the algorithm for generating a sample history of an individual system. This algorithm should be thought of as a fundamental one, more basic than the Master Equation which follows from it after taking a statistical average over different possible individual histories. In EEQT it still holds that there is one–to–one correspondence between PDP and the Master Equation, and it is easy to think of an evident and unavoidable generalization of PDP, when feedback is included, which will go beyond the linear Master Equation and thus beyond linear Quantum Theory. Work in this direction is in progress.

According to the philosophy of EEQT, the quantum state vector is an auxiliary variable which is not directly observable, even in part. It is a kind of a hidden variable. But, according to EEQT, there are directly observable quantities - and they form the $A_{\text{clas}}$ part of $A_{\text{tot}}$. EEQT does not assume standard quantum mechanical postulates about results of measurements and their probabilities. All must be derived from the dissipative experiment dynamics by observing the events at the classical level i.e. by carrying out continuous observation of the state of $A_{\text{tot}}$.

An event is thus a fundamental concept in EEQT and there are two primitive event characteristics that the algorithm for event generation must provide: the "when" and the
"which," and indeed PDP is a piecewise deterministic algorithm with two "roulette" runs for generating each particular event. First the roulette is run to generate the time of event. Only then, after the timing has been decided, there is a second roulette run that decides, according to the probabilities of the moment, which of the possible events is selected to occur. Then, once these two choices have been made, the selected event happens and is accompanied by an appropriate quantum jump of the wave function. After that, continuous evolution of possibilities starts again, roulette wheels are set into motion, and the countdown begins for the next event.

2 Event Generating Algorithm

No event can ever happen unless a given quantum system is coupled to a classical system. In fact, the Reader should be warned here that this statement is not even precise. A precise statement would be: "no event can happen to a system unless it contains a classical subsystem." In many cases, however, the total system can be considered a direct product of a pure quantum system and a classical one. If we restrict ourselves to such a case, then the simplest nontrivial event generator is a "fuzzy property detector" defined as follows. Let $Q$ be a pure quantum system whose (uncoupled) dynamics are described by a self-adjoint Hamiltonian $H$ acting on a Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$. A fuzzy property detector is then characterized by a positive operator $F$ acting on $\mathcal{H}$. In the limit of a "sharp" property we would have $F^2 = \sqrt{\kappa} F$, where $\kappa$ is a numerical coupling constant (of physical dimension $t^{-1}$). That is the property becomes sharp for $F$ proportional to an orthogonal projection.

According to a general theory described in (Blanchard and Jadcztyk, 1995), a property detector is a two-state classical device, with states denoted 0 and 1 and characterized by the transition operators (using the notation of (Blanchard and Jadczykt, 1995)): $g_{01} = 0$, $g_{10} = F$. The Master Equation describing continuous time evolution of statistical states of the quantum system coupled to the detector reads:

$$
\dot{\rho}_0(t) = -i[H_0, \rho_0(t)] + F \rho_1 F
$$
$$
\dot{\rho}_1(t) = -i[H_1, \rho_1] - \frac{1}{2} \{F^2, \rho_1\}.
$$

(1)

Suppose at $t = 0$ the detector is off, that is in the state denoted by 0, and the particle state is $\psi(0)$, with $\|\psi(0)\| = 1$. Then, according to the event generating algorithm described heuristically in the previous section, the probability $P(t)$ of detection, that is of a change of state of the classical device, during time interval $(0, t)$ is equal to $1 - \|K(t) \psi(0)\|^2$, where $K(t)$
\[ K(t) = \exp(-iH_0t - \frac{\Lambda}{2}t), \] where \( \Lambda = F^2 \). It then follows that the probability that the detector will be triggered out in the time interval \((t, t+dt)\), provided it was not triggered yet, is \( p(t)dt \), where \( p(t) \) is given by

\[ p(t) = \frac{d}{dt}P(t) = \langle K(t)\psi_0, \Lambda K(t)\psi_0 \rangle. \quad (2) \]

Let us consider the case of a maximally sharp measurement. In this case we would take \( \Lambda = |a><a| \), where \( |a> \) is some Hilbert space vector. It is not assumed to be normalized; in fact its norm stands for the strength of the coupling (note that \( <a|a> \) must have physical dimension \( t^{-1} \)). From this formula it can be easily shown (Blanchard and Jadczyk, 1996) that \( p(t) = |\phi(t)|^2 \), where the Laplace transform \( \hat{\phi}(z) \) of the (complex) amplitude \( \phi(t) \) is given by the formula

\[ \hat{\phi} = \frac{2 <a|K_0|\psi_0>} {2 + <a|K_0|a>} \quad (3) \]

where \( K_0(t) = \exp(-iH_0t) \).

3 Time of Arrival

Let us consider a particular case of time of arrival (cf. Muga et al. 1995) for a recent discussion). Thus we take \( |a> \) to denote a position eigenstate localized at the point \( a \), that is \( <x|a> = \sqrt{\kappa}\delta(x-a) \), \( \kappa \) being a coupling constant representing efficiency of the detector. For the Laplace transform \( \hat{\phi} \) of the probability amplitude we obtain then

\[ \hat{\phi} = \frac{2\sqrt{\kappa}}{2 + \kappa K_0(a,a)} \tilde{\psi}_0(a) \quad (4) \]

where \( \tilde{\psi}_0 \) stands for the Laplace transform of \( K_0(t)\psi_0 \).

Let us now specialize to the case of free Schrödinger’s particle on a line. We will study response of the point counter to a Gaussian wave packet whose initial shape at \( t = 0 \) is given by:

\[ \psi_0(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{1/4}4\eta^{1/2}} \exp \left( -\frac{(x-x_0)^2}{4\eta^2} + 2ik(x-x_0) \right). \quad (5) \]

In the following it will be convenient to use dimensionless variables for measuring space, time and the strength of the coupling:

\[ \xi = \frac{x}{2\eta}, \quad \tau = \frac{\hbar_t}{2m\eta^2}, \quad \alpha = \frac{m\eta k}{\hbar} \quad (6) \]

We denote

\[ \xi_0 = x_0/2\eta, \quad \xi_c = 2\eta, \quad \eta = 2\pi \hbar. \quad (7) \]
The amplitude $\tilde{\phi}$ of Eq. (4), when rendered dimensionless reads then

$$\tilde{\phi}(z) = \left(2\pi\right)^{1/4} \alpha^{1/2} e^{-d^2 - 2i\nu d} \frac{w(u_+ + w(u_-)}{2\sqrt{i z + \alpha}} \tag{9}$$

with the function $w(u)$ defined by

$$w(u) = e^{-u^2} \text{erfc}(-iu) \tag{10}$$

The time of arrival probability curves of the counter for several values of the coupling constant are shown in Fig.2. The incoming wave packet starts at $t = 0$, $x = -4$, with velocity $v = 4$. It is seen from the plot that the average time at which the counter, placed at $x = 0$, is triggered is about one time unit, independently of the value of the coupling constant. This numerical example shows that our model of a counter can be used for measurements of time of arrival. It is to be noticed that the shape of the response curve is almost insensitive to the value of the coupling constant. It is also important to notice that in general the probability $P(\infty) = \int_{0}^{\infty} p(\tau) d\tau$ that the particle will be detected at all is less than 1. In fact, for a pointlike counter as above, the numerical maximum is $< 0.73$ - cf. (Blanchard and Jadczyk, 1996). For this reason (i.e. because of the need of normalization) the time of arrival observable is not represented by a linear operator.

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Figure 1:

The Universe

its classical part

Figure 2: Probability density of time of arrival for a Dirac’s delta counter placed at \( x = 0 \), coupling constant \( \alpha \). The incoming wave packet starts at \( t = 0, x = -4 \), with velocity \( v = 4 \).