General boundary quantum field theory: Foundations and probability interpretation

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Abstract

We elaborate on the proposed general boundary formulation as an extension of standard quantum mechanics to arbitrary (or no) backgrounds. Temporal transition amplitudes are generalized to amplitudes for arbitrary spacetime regions. State spaces are associated to general (not necessarily spacelike) hypersurfaces.

We give a detailed foundational exposition of this approach, including its probability interpretation and a list of core axioms. We explain how standard quantum mechanics arises as a special case. We include a discussion of probability conservation and unitarity, showing how these concepts are generalized in the present framework. We formulate vacuum axioms and incorporate spacetime symmetries into the framework. We show how the Schrödinger-Feynman approach is a suitable starting point for casting quantum field theories into the general boundary form. We discuss the role of operators.

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1 Introduction

A key idea behind the present work is that a quantum theory really has more structure than the standard formalism would tell us. Notably, we suppose that transition amplitudes between instants of time or spacelike hypersurfaces are only a special case of what kind of amplitudes might be considered. Rather, its should be possible to associate amplitudes with more general regions of spacetime. At the same time, instead of a single state space, we should have a state space associated to each boundary hypersurface of such a region. The single state space in the standard formalism is then only a consequence of the restriction to spacelike hypersurfaces in connection with a time translation symmetry.

Mathematically, this idea may be more or less obviously motivated from the Feynman path integral approach [1] to quantum field theory: Transition amplitudes might be represented as path integrals. But a path integral on a region of spacetime (should) have the property that it can be written as a product of path integrals over parts of this region (together with path integrals over arising boundaries). Indeed, this was the starting point for the development of topological quantum field theory. This mathematical framework incorporates many of the features of path integrals in an abstracted and idealized way. Atiyah gave an axiomatic formulation in [2]. Topological quantum field theory (and its variations) have since played an important role in quantum field theory, conformal field theory and approaches to quantum gravity. These applications, however, have generally not touched upon the nature of quantum mechanics itself.

The proposal we elaborate on here is of an entirely different nature. Namely, we contend that a particular variant of the mathematical framework of topological quantum field theory provides a suitable context to formulate the foundations of quantum mechanics in a generalized way. The concrete form of this formulation including both its formal mathematical as well as its interpretational physical aspects is what we will call the general boundary formulation.

Since the general boundary formulation is supposed to be an extension rather than just a modification of the standard formulation of quantum mechanics, it should recover standard results in standard situations. One might thus legitimately ask what it might be good for, given that we are seemingly getting along very well with the standard formulation of quantum mechanics. This is indeed true in non-relativistic quantum mechanics as well as in quantum field theory in Minkowski space. However, quantum field theory in curved spacetime and, even more seriously, attempts at a quantum theory of gravity are plagued with severe problems.

It is precisely (some of) these latter problems which motivated the present approach. Indeed, the idea of the general boundary formulation was proposed first in [3], motivated by the quantum mechanical measurement problem in the background independent context of quantum gravity. Briefly, if we want to consider a transition amplitude in quantum gravity, we cannot interpret it naively as an evolution between instances of time, since a classical background time is missing. This is the famous problem of time in (background independent) quan-
tum gravity [4]. If, on the other hand, we can meaningfully assign amplitudes to regions of spacetime having a connected boundary, we can avoid this problem as follows. The state on which the amplitude is evaluated is associated with the boundary of the region. If it is semiclassical (as we need to assume to recover a notion of space and time) it contains spatial and temporal information about all events on the boundary. Only if the boundary consists of several disconnected components (as in the case of ordinary transition amplitudes) a relation between events on different components is lost.

Another motivation for the general boundary formulation comes from its locality. Amplitudes may be associated to spacetime regions of any size. Thus, if a quantum mechanical process is localized in spacetime, states and amplitudes associated with a suitable region containing it are sufficient to describe the process. In particular, we do not need to know about physics that happens far away such as for example the asymptotic structure of spacetime at “infinity”. In contrast, the standard formulation in principle implies that we need to “know about everything in the universe”, since a state contains the information about an entire spacelike hypersurface. Of course, in non-relativistic quantum mechanics and in quantum field theory on Minkowski space we have suitable ways of treating isolated systems separately. However, this is a priori not so in quantum field theory on curved spacetime. The situation is even worse in quantum gravity due to the role of diffeomorphisms as gauge symmetries.

It seems that there are good reasons why a general boundary formulation should not be feasible. On the technical side these come from the standard quantization methods. They usually rely on a form of the initial value problem which necessitates data on spacelike hypersurfaces. At the same time they encode dynamics in a one-parameter form, requiring something like a foliation. This appears to be incompatible with the general boundary idea. However, we contend that this is indeed merely a technical problem that can be overcome. Indeed, the discussion above of the motivation from path integrals clearly points in this direction. Note also that turning this point around yields a certain notion of predictivity. Clearly, the general boundary formulation is more restrictive than the standard formulation. That is, there will be theories that are well defined theories within standard quantum mechanics, but do not admit an extension to the general boundary formulation. The contention is that those theories are not physically viable, at least not as fundamental theories.

A more fundamental reason comes from the standard interpretation of quantum mechanics. The consistent assignment of probabilities and their conservation seem to require a special role of time and to single out spacelike hypersurfaces due to causality. This appears to be in jeopardy once we try to dispense with the special role of time. Indeed, one is usually inclined (and this includes quantum mechanics) to think of probabilities in terms of something having a certain probability given that something else was the case before. However, a probability in general need not have such a temporal connotation. Rather, specifying a conditional probability that something is the case given that something else is the case can be perfectly sensible without the presence of a definite temporal relation between the facts in question. This is indeed the principle on
which the probability interpretation proposed in this work rests. The standard probability interpretation arises merely as a special case of this.

Apart from its mathematical motivation there is also a good physical reason to believe that a general boundary interpretation should exist. This comes from quantum field theory in the guise of crossing symmetry. When deriving the S-matrix in perturbative quantum field one finds that the resulting amplitude puts the incoming and outgoing particles practically on the same footing. This suggests that it is sensible to think about them as being part of the same single state space associated with the initial and final hypersurface together. What is more, it suggests that the S-matrix may be derived as the asymptotic limit of the amplitude associated with a spacetime region with connected boundary. A possible context for this is discussed in the companion paper.

A first step to elaborate on the idea of the general boundary formulation was taken in [6], with the proposal of a list of core axioms. These were formulated in such a way as to be applicable to a variety of background structures, including the possibility of no (metric) background at all. At the same time, a tentative analysis of its application to non-relativistic quantum mechanics, quantum field theory and 3-dimensional quantum gravity was performed. Unsurprisingly, the general boundary formulation much more naturally applies to quantum field theory rather than to non-relativistic quantum mechanics. This is because it is based on spacetime notions, while in non-relativistic quantum mechanics the notion of space is secondary to that of time. This motivated the choice of the name general boundary quantum field theory in the title. Unfortunately, this also means that the in other circumstances good idea of “trying out” non-relativistic theories with finitely many degrees of freedom first is not particularly useful here.

An important step in demonstrating the feasibility of the general boundary formulation was performed in [7]: It was shown that states on timelike hypersurfaces in quantum field theory are sensible. The example discussed was that of timelike hyperplanes in the Klein-Gordon theory. This example is considerably extended in the companion paper [5], where a further type of timelike hypersurfaces is considered (the hypercylinder). In particular, this provides the first example of amplitudes associated to regions with connected boundaries. All properties of the framework are tested there, including composition of amplitudes, the vacuum state, particles and the probability interpretation.

Based on these experiences, we present here a considerably deeper and more extensive treatment of the general boundary formulation, turning it from an idea into a definite framework. This includes, firstly, a refined and extended list of axioms (Section 2). The main additional structure compared to the treatment in [6] is an inner product on state spaces. This is instrumental for what we consider the most important part of the present work, namely the probability interpretation (Section 3). (Section 4 covers the recovery of the standard formulation.) Thereby, we hope to provide a physically fully satisfactory interpretation of general boundaries, which thusfar has been missing.

Further subjects covered are a proposal for an axiomatic characterization of
We then proceed to elaborate on how the Feynman path integral together with the Schrödinger representation may provide a viable approach to cast quantum field theories into general boundary form (Section 7). We also discuss to exactly which types of spacetime regions it is (or should be) permissible to associate amplitudes (Sections 8 and 9). Finally, we make some remarks on the role of operators in the formalism (Section 10). We end with some conclusions (Section 11).

2 Core axioms

The core idea of the general boundary formulation might be summarized very briefly as follows: We may think of quantum mechanical processes as taking place in regions of spacetime with the data to describe them associated to the regions’ boundaries. To make this precise we formulate a list of axioms, referred to in the following as the core axioms. These extend and refine the axioms suggested in [6]. We preserve the numbering from that paper denoting additional axioms with a “b”. The main addition consists of inner product structures. As one might suspect, these are instrumental in a probability interpretation which is the subject of Section 4.

The spacetime objects to appear in the axioms are of two kinds: regions $M$ and hypersurfaces $\Sigma$. What these are exactly depends on the background structure of the theory in question. We will discuss this in Section 6. If we are interested in standard quantum field theory, spacetime is Minkowski space. The regions $M$ are then 4-dimensional submanifolds of Minkowski space and the boundaries $\Sigma$ are oriented hypersurfaces (closed 3-dimensional submanifolds) in Minkowski space. Orientation here means that we choose a “side” of the hypersurface. Given a region $M$, its boundary is naturally oriented. To be specific, we think of this orientation as choosing the “outer side” of the boundary. Furthermore, not all 4-dimensional submanifolds are admissible as regions. However, this restriction is of secondary importance for the moment and we postpone its discussion to Section 8.

Given an oriented hypersurface $\Sigma$ we denote the same hypersurface with opposite orientation by $\bar{\Sigma}$, i.e., using an over-bar. For brevity, we use the term hypersurface to mean oriented hypersurface.

(T1) Associated to each hypersurface $\Sigma$ is a complex vector space $\mathcal{H}_\Sigma$, called the state space of $\Sigma$.

(T1b) Associated to each hypersurface $\Sigma$ is an antilinear map $\iota_\Sigma : \mathcal{H}_\Sigma \to \mathcal{H}_{\bar{\Sigma}}$. This map is an involution in the sense that $\iota_{\bar{\Sigma}} \circ \iota_\Sigma = \text{id}_\Sigma$ is the identity

To be more explicit, any 4-dimensional submanifold of Minkowski space inherits a globally chosen orientation of Minkowski space. It is this orientation that induces the orientation of the boundary. If we are in a situation of not having a globally oriented spacetime background, we need to explicitly specify an orientation of the region to induce an orientation on its boundary.
on $\mathcal{H}_\Sigma$.

(T2) Suppose the hypersurface $\Sigma$ is a disjoint union of hypersurfaces, $\Sigma = \Sigma_1 \cup \cdots \cup \Sigma_n$. Then, the state space of $\Sigma$ decomposes into a tensor product of state spaces, $\mathcal{H}_\Sigma = \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_n}$.

(T2b) The involution $\iota$ is compatible with the above decomposition. That is, under the assumption of (T2), $\iota_{\Sigma} = \iota_{\Sigma_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes \iota_{\Sigma_n}$.

(T3) For any hypersurface $\Sigma$, there is a non-degenerate bilinear pairing $(\cdot, \cdot)_\Sigma : \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma} \to \mathbb{C}$. This pairing is symmetric in the sense that $(a, b)_\Sigma = (b, a)_\Sigma$. Furthermore, the pairing is such that it induces a positive definite hermitian inner product $(\cdot, \cdot)_{\Sigma} := (\iota_{\Sigma}(\cdot), \cdot)_{\Sigma}$ on $\mathcal{H}_\Sigma$ and turns $\mathcal{H}_\Sigma$ into a Hilbert space.

(T3b) The bilinear form of (T3) is compatible with the decomposition of (T2). Thus, for a hypersurface $\Sigma$ decomposing into disconnected hypersurfaces $\Sigma_1$ and $\Sigma_2$ we have $(a_1 \otimes a_2, b_1 \otimes b_2)_\Sigma = (a_1, b_1)_{\Sigma_1} (a_2, b_2)_{\Sigma_2}$.

(T4) Associated with each region $M$ is a linear map from the state space of its boundary $\Sigma$ to the complex numbers, $\rho_M : \mathcal{H}_\Sigma \to \mathbb{C}$. This is called the amplitude map.

(T4b) Suppose $M$ is a region with boundary $\Sigma$, consisting of two disconnected components, $\Sigma = \Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2$. Suppose the amplitude map $\rho_M : \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_1} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_2} \to \mathbb{C}$ gives rise to an isomorphism of vector spaces $\tilde{\rho}_M : \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_1} \to \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_2}$. Then we require $\tilde{\rho}_M$ to preserve the inner product, i.e., be unitary.

(T5) Let $M_1$ and $M_2$ be two regions such that the union $M_1 \cup M_2$ is again a region and the intersection is a hypersurface $\Sigma$. Suppose that $M_1$ has a boundary with disconnected components $\Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2$ and $M_2$ has a boundary with disconnected components $\Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_2$. Suppose amplitude maps on $M_1$, $M_2$ and $M_1 \cup M_2$ induce maps $\tilde{\rho}_{M_1} : \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_1} \to \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_2}$, $\tilde{\rho}_{M_2} : \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_2} \to \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_2}$ and $\tilde{\rho}_{M_1 \cup M_2} : \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_1} \to \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_2}$. We require then $\tilde{\rho}_{M_1 \cup M_2} = \tilde{\rho}_{M_2} \circ \tilde{\rho}_{M_1}$.

Before coming to the physics let us make some mathematical remarks. In contrast to [6] we are here much more careful about the expected infinite dimensional nature of the state spaces. This is the reason for example for the reformulation of axiom (T3). In [6] it simply stated that the state space of an oppositely oriented hypersurface be identified with the dual of the state space of the original hypersurface. Thus, for consistency the bidual space must be identified with the original one. For an infinite dimensional space this is not the case for the naively defined dual. Here, we use the involution $\iota$ and require that a Hilbert space structure is induced on the state spaces. Note that this implies that $\mathcal{H}_{\Sigma}$ is the Hilbert space dual of $\mathcal{H}_\Sigma$ and consequently, the bidual is canonically isomorphic to the original space, as required.

\[\text{Here as in the following we commit a slight abuse of notation by using the tensor product symbol even when considering maps that are not } \mathbb{C}\text{-linear, but rather } \mathbb{C}\text{-antilinear in one or more components. However, the meaning should always be clear from the context.}\]
The tensor product in (T2) is to be understood to be the tensor product of Hilbert spaces and not merely the algebraic one. To make this more clear, (T3) might have been moved before (T2), but we decided to conserve the numbering of [6].

Note that for the amplitude map of axiom (T4) we may “dualize” boundaries (as stated explicitly in the version of [6]). This means that if the boundary Σ of a region M decomposes into disconnected components Σ₁ ∪ · · · ∪ Σₙ the amplitude map ρₘ gives rise to a map 〈ρₘ⟩ : ℋΣ₁ ⊗ · · · ⊗ ℋΣₙ → ℋΣₙ₊₁ ⊗ · · · ⊗ ℋΣₙ. This is simply obtained by dualizing the tensor components ℋΣₙ₊₁, . . . , ℋΣₙ. Actually, it is not guaranteed that 〈ρₘ⟩ exists, the obstruction being that the image of a state might not be normalizable. Such an induced map (if it exists) is used in axioms (T4b) and (T5). Note that we could formulate (T5) also with the original amplitude maps by inserting in the pair of Hilbert spaces for the common boundary a Hilbert basis times its dual.

We now turn to the physical meaning of the axioms. The state spaces of axiom (T1) are supposed to represent in some way spaces of physical situations. In contrast to the standard formalism, a state is not in general supposed to encode “the situation of the whole world”. Rather, (as we shall see in more detail in the probability interpretation) it may be thought of as encoding some “knowledge” about a physical situation or more concretely, an experiment. Furthermore, the localization in spacetime of the hypersurface to which it is associated has the connotation of localization of knowledge about a process or measurement. Another possible connotation is that of information (encoded in states) “flowing” through the hypersurface.

The axiom (T1b) serves to enable us to identify a state on a hypersurface with the state on the “other side” of that hypersurface that has the same physical meaning. Axiom (T2) tells us that the physical situations (or information) associated to disconnected hypersurfaces is a priori “independent”. (Recall that the Hilbert space of a system of two independent components in the standard formulation is the tensor product of the individual Hilbert spaces.) Axiom (T3) establishes the inner product and thus lets us decide when states (e.g., experimental circumstances) are mutually exclusive.

Axiom (T4) postulates an amplitude map. The name “amplitude” is chosen to reflect the fact that this amplitude map serves to generalize the concept of transition amplitude in the standard formulation. An amplitude here is associated to a region of spacetime. This generalizes the time interval determining a transition amplitude. The idea is that the process we are trying to describe takes place in this spacetime region. At the same time the knowledge or information we use in its description resides on the (state spaces of the) boundary.

Axiom (T4b) says roughly the following: If we take a state on Σ₁, evolve it along M to Σ₂, conjugate it via ι to Σ₂, evolve it back along M to Σ₁, conjugate again via ι to Σ₁, then we get back the original state. As we shall see, this axiom is responsible for a notion of probability conservation, generalizing the corresponding notion of temporal probability conservation in the standard formulation. Axiom (T5) may be described as follows: Given a state on Σ₁, evolving it first along M₁ to Σ and then along M₂ to Σ₂ yields the same result
as evolving it directly from $\Sigma_1$ to $\bar{\Sigma}_2$ along $M_1 \cup M_2$. This axiom describes the composition of processes and generalizes the composition of time evolutions of the standard formulation.

3 Recovering the standard formulation

The explanation of the physical meaning of the axioms so far has been rather vague. We proceed in the following to make it concrete. The first step in this is to show how exactly the standard formulation is recovered. This clarifies, in particular, in which sense the proposed formulation is an extension of the standard one, rather than a modification of it.

Suppose we are interested in a quantum process, which in the standard formalism is described through a transition amplitude from a time $t_1$ to a time $t_2$. The spacetime region $M$ associated with the process is the the time interval $[t_1, t_2]$ times all of space. The boundary $\partial M$ of $M$ consists of two disconnected components $\Sigma_1$ and $\bar{\Sigma}_2$, which are equal-time hyperplanes at $t_1$ and $t_2$ respectively. Note that they have opposite orientation. $\Sigma_1$ is oriented towards the past and $\bar{\Sigma}_2$ towards the future. This is illustrated in Figure 1. Using axiom (T2) the total state space $H_{\partial M}$ (postulated by (T1)) decomposes into the tensor product $H_{\Sigma_1} \otimes H_{\bar{\Sigma}_2}$ of state spaces associated with these hyperplanes. Thus, a state in $H_{\partial M}$ is a linear combination of states obtained as tensor products of states in $H_{\Sigma_1}$ and $H_{\bar{\Sigma}_2}$.

Now consider a state $\psi_{\Sigma_1}$ on $\Sigma_1$ and a state $\eta_{\bar{\Sigma}_2}$ on $\bar{\Sigma}_2$. We will make use of axiom (T1b) to convert $\eta_{\bar{\Sigma}_2}$ to a state $\eta_{\Sigma_2} := \iota_{\bar{\Sigma}_2}(\eta_{\bar{\Sigma}_2})$ on the same hyperplane, but with the opposite orientation (i.e., oriented as $\Sigma_1$). Consider the amplitude $\rho_M : H_{\Sigma_1} \otimes H_{\Sigma_2} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ postulated by axiom (T4). It induces a linear map
\[ \hat{\rho}_M : \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_1} \to \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_2} \] in the manner described above. We may thus rewrite the amplitude as

\[ \rho_M(\psi_{\Sigma_1} \otimes \eta_{\bar{\Sigma}_2}) = (\eta_{\bar{\Sigma}_2}, \hat{\rho}_M(\psi_{\Sigma_1}))_{\Sigma_2} = (\iota_{\Sigma_2}(\eta_{\Sigma_2}), \hat{\rho}_M(\psi_{\Sigma_1}))_{\Sigma_2} = \langle \eta_{\Sigma_2}, \hat{\rho}_M(\psi_{\Sigma_1}) \rangle_{\Sigma_2}, \]

where \((\cdot,\cdot)_{\Sigma_2}\) is the bilinear pairing of axiom (T3) and \(\langle \cdot,\cdot \rangle_{\Sigma_2}\) is the induced inner product.

The final expression represents the transition amplitude from a state \(\psi_{\Sigma_1}\) at time \(t_1\) to a state \(\eta_{\bar{\Sigma}_2}\) at time \(t_2\). What appears to be different from the standard formulation is that the two states live in different spaces (apart from the fact that one would be a ket-state and the other a bra-state). However, as we shall see later (Section 6.2), we may use time-translation symmetry to identify all state spaces associated to (past-oriented say) equal-time hypersurfaces. This is then the state space \(\mathcal{H}\) of the standard formalism. Consequently, the linear map \(\hat{\rho}_M\) is then an operator on \(\mathcal{H}\), namely the time-evolution operator. Given that \(\hat{\rho}_M\) is invertible (as it should be, see the discussion in Section 6.3) axiom (T4b) ensures its unitarity. Note that axiom (T5) ensures in this context the composition property of time-evolutions. Namely, evolving from time \(t_1\) to time \(t_2\) and then from time \(t_2\) to time \(t_3\) is the same as evolving directly from time \(t_1\) to time \(t_3\).

Thus, we have seen how to recover standard transition amplitudes and time-evolution from the present formalism. Indeed, we could restrict the allowed hypersurfaces to equal-time hyperplanes and the allowed regions to time intervals times all of space. Then, the proposed formulation would be essentially equivalent to the standard one. Of course, the whole point is that we propose to admit more general hypersurfaces and more general regions.

Starting from a theory in the standard formulation the challenge is two-fold. Firstly, we need to show that the extended structures (state spaces, amplitudes etc.) exist, are coherent (satisfy the axioms) and reduce to the standard ones as described above. This is obviously non-trivial, i.e., a given theory may or may not admit such an extension. We have argued elsewhere \[3\] that crossing symmetry of the S-matrix (as manifest for example in the LSZ reduction scheme) is a very strong hint that generic quantum field theories do admit such an extension.

Secondly, we need to give a physical interpretation to these new structures. A key element of the physical interpretation in the standard formalism is the possibility to interpret the modulus square of the transition amplitude as a probability. In the context above its is clear that \(|\rho_M(\psi_{\Sigma_1} \otimes \eta_{\bar{\Sigma}_2})|^2\) denotes the probability of observing the state \(\eta_{\bar{\Sigma}_2}\) given that the state \(\psi_{\Sigma_1}\) was prepared. Indeed, the modulus square of the amplitude function generally plays the role of an (unnormalized) probability. The details of the probability interpretation in the general boundary formulation, constituting perhaps the most significant aspect of the present work, are discussed in the following section.
4 Probability interpretation

4.1 Examples from the standard formulation

To discuss the probability interpretation we start with a review of it in the standard formulation. Let \( \psi \in \mathcal{H}_1 \) be the (normalized) ket-state of a quantum system at time \( t_1 \), \( \eta \in \mathcal{H}_2 \) a (normalized) bra-state at time \( t_2 \). The associated transition amplitude \( A \) is given by \( A = \langle \eta | U | \psi \rangle \), where \( U : \mathcal{H}_1 \to \mathcal{H}_2 \) is the time-evolution operator of the system, evolving from time \( t_1 \) to time \( t_2 \). The associated probability \( P \) is the modulus square of \( A \), i.e., \( P = |A|^2 \). What is the physical meaning of \( P \)? The simplest interpretation of this quantity is as expressing the probability of finding the state \( \eta \) at time \( t_2 \) given that the state \( \psi \) was prepared at time \( t_1 \). Thus, we are dealing with a conditional probability. To make this more explicit let us write it as \( P(\eta | \psi) \) (read: the probability of \( \eta \) conditional on \( \psi \)). An important ingredient of this interpretation is that the conditional probability of all exclusive alternatives is 1. The meaning of the latter is specified with the help of the inner product. Thus, let \( \{ \eta_i \}_{i \in I} \) be an orthonormal basis of \( \mathcal{H}_2 \), representing a complete set of mutually exclusive measurement outcomes. Then, \( \sum_{i \in I} P(\eta_i | \psi) = \sum_{i \in I} \langle \eta_i | U | \psi \rangle = 1 \).

This interpretation might be extended in obvious ways. Suppose for example that we know a priori that only certain measurement outcomes might occur. (We might select a suitable subset of performed measurements.) A way to formalize this is to say that the possible measurement outcomes lie in a (closed) subspace \( \mathcal{S}_2 \) of \( \mathcal{H}_2 \). Suppose \( \{ \eta_i \}_{i \in J} \) is an orthonormal basis of \( \mathcal{S}_2 \). We are now interested in the probability of a given outcome specified by a state \( \eta_k \) conditional both on the prepared state being \( \psi \) and knowing that the outcome must lie in \( \mathcal{S}_2 \). Denote this conditional probability by \( P(\eta_k | \psi, \mathcal{S}_2) \). To obtain it we must divide the conditional probability \( P(\eta_k | \psi) \) by the probability \( P(\mathcal{S}_2 | \psi) \) that the outcome of the measurement lies in \( \mathcal{S}_2 \) given the prepared state is \( \psi \). This is simply \( P(\mathcal{S}_2 | \psi) = \sum_{i \in J} P(\eta_i | \psi) = \sum_{i \in J} |\langle \eta_i | U | \psi \rangle|^2 \). Supposing the result is not zero (which would imply the impossibility of obtaining any measurement outcome in \( \mathcal{S}_2 \) and thus the meaninglessness of the quantity \( P(\eta_k | \psi, \mathcal{S}_2) \)),

\[
P(\eta_k | \psi, \mathcal{S}_2) = \frac{P(\eta_k | \psi)}{P(\mathcal{S}_2 | \psi)} = \frac{|\langle \eta_k | U | \psi \rangle|^2}{\sum_{i \in J} |\langle \eta_i | U | \psi \rangle|^2}.
\]

We can further modify this example by testing not against a single state, but a closed subspace \( \mathcal{A}_2 \subseteq \mathcal{S}_2 \), denoting the associated conditional probability by \( P(\mathcal{A}_2 | \psi, \mathcal{S}_2) \). This is obviously the sum of conditional probabilities \( P(\eta_k | \psi, \mathcal{S}_2) \) for an orthonormal basis \( \{ \eta_i \}_{i \in K} \) of \( \mathcal{A}_2 \) (we suppose here that the orthonormal basis of \( \mathcal{S}_2 \) is chosen such that it restricts to one of \( \mathcal{A}_2 \)). That is,

\[
P(\mathcal{A}_2 | \psi, \mathcal{S}_2) = \sum_{i \in K} |\langle \eta_i | U | \psi \rangle|^2 / \sum_{i \in J} |\langle \eta_i | U | \psi \rangle|^2.
\]

\( \mathcal{H}_2 \) indicates a space of bra-states, i.e., the Hilbert dual of the space \( \mathcal{H}_2 \) of ket-states. Usually of course one considers only one state space, i.e., \( \mathcal{H}_1 \) and \( \mathcal{H}_2 \) are canonically identified. We distinguish them here formally to aid the later comparison with the general boundary formulation.
A conceptually different extension is the following. Suppose \( \{ \psi_i \}_{i \in I} \) is an orthonormal basis of \( H_1 \). Then, the quantity \( P(\psi_k | \eta) = |\langle \eta | U | \psi_k \rangle|^2 \) describes the conditional probability of the prepared state having been \( \psi_k \) given that \( \eta \) was measured. This may be understood in the following sense. Suppose somebody prepared a large sample of measurements with random choices of initial states \( \psi_i \). We then perform measurements as to whether the final state is \( \eta \) or not (the latter meaning that it is orthogonal to \( \eta \)). The probability distribution of the the initial states \( \psi_k \) in the sample of measurements resulting in \( \eta \) is then given by \( P(\psi_k | \eta) \).

These examples are supposed to illustrate two points. Firstly, the modulus square of a transition amplitude might be interpreted as a conditional probability in various different ways. Secondly, the roles of different parts of a measurement process in respect to which is considered conditional one which other one are not fixed. In particular, the interpretation is not restricted to “final state conditional on initial state”.

4.2 Probabilities in the general boundary formulation

These considerations together with the general philosophy of the general boundary context lead us to the following formulation of the probability interpretation. Let \( H \) be the the generalized state space describing a given physical system or measurement setup (i.e., it is the state space associated with the boundary of the spacetime region where we consider the process to take place). We suppose that a certain knowledge about the process amounts to the specification of a closed subspace \( S \subset H \). That is, we assume that we know the state describing the measurement process to be part of that subspace. Say we are now interested in evaluating whether the measurement outcome corresponds to a closed subspace \( A \subseteq S \). That is, we are interested in the conditional probability \( P(A | S) \) of the measurement process being described by \( A \) given that it is described by \( S \). Let \( \{ \xi_i \}_{i \in I} \) be an orthonormal basis of \( S \) which reduces to an orthonormal basis \( \{ \xi_i \}_{i \in J \subseteq I} \) of \( A \). Then,

\[
P(A | S) = \frac{\sum_{i \in J} |\rho(\xi_i)|^2}{\sum_{i \in I} |\rho(\xi_i)|^2}.
\]

By construction, \( 0 \leq P(A | S) \leq 1 \). (Again it is assumed that the denominator is non-zero. Otherwise, the conditional probability would be physically meaningless.) One might be tempted to interpret the numerator and the denominator separately as probabilities. However, that does not appear to be meaningful in general. As a special case, if \( A \) has dimension one, being spanned by one normalized vector \( \xi \) we also write \( P(A | S) = P(\xi | S) \).

Let us see how the above examples of the probability interpretation in the standard formulation are recovered. Firstly, we have to suppose that the state

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4Here as elsewhere in the elementary discussion of probabilities we may assume for simplicity that state spaces are finite dimensional. This avoids difficulties of the infinite dimensional case which might require the introduction of probability densities etc.
space factors into a tensor product of two state spaces, $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$. Select a state $\psi \in \mathcal{H}_1$ and set $\mathcal{S}_\psi := \{\xi \in \mathcal{H} | \exists \eta \in \mathcal{H}_2 : \xi = \psi \otimes \eta \} \subset \mathcal{H}$. Let us denote by $\{\psi \otimes \eta_i\}_{i \in I}$ an orthonormal basis of $\mathcal{S}_\psi$. Then, the probability of "observing $\eta \in \mathcal{H}_2$" subject to the "preparation of $\psi \in \mathcal{H}_1$" turns out as

$$P(\psi \otimes \eta | \mathcal{S}_\psi) = \frac{|\rho(\psi \otimes \eta)|^2}{\sum_{i \in I} |\rho(\psi \otimes \eta_i)|^2}.$$  

Comparing the notation to the standard formalism, i.e., recognizing $\rho(\psi \otimes \eta) = \langle \eta | U | \psi \rangle$ shows that we recover the standard result $P(\eta | \psi)$, up to a normalization factor, depending as it seems on $\psi$.

Similarly, the second example is recovered by setting $\mathcal{S}_{(\psi, \mathcal{S}_3)} := \{\xi \in \mathcal{H} | \exists \eta \in \mathcal{S}_2 : \xi = \psi \otimes \eta \} \subset \mathcal{H}$. Taking an orthonormal basis $\{\psi \otimes \eta_k\}_{k \in J}$, we get agreement of $P(\psi \otimes \eta_k | \mathcal{S}_{(\psi, \mathcal{S}_3)})$ with $P(\eta_k | \psi, \mathcal{S}_3)$ (with correct normalization). The modified example is recovered with $\mathcal{A}_{(\psi, \mathcal{A}_2)} := \{\xi \in \mathcal{H} | \exists \eta \in \mathcal{A}_2 : \xi = \psi \otimes \eta \} \subset \mathcal{H}$ via $P(\mathcal{A}_2 | \psi, \mathcal{S}_2) = P(\mathcal{A}_{(\psi, \mathcal{A}_2)} | \mathcal{S}_{(\psi, \mathcal{S}_3)})$. For the third example set $\mathcal{S}_\eta := \{\xi \in \mathcal{H} | \exists \psi \in \mathcal{H}_1 : \xi = \psi \otimes \eta \} \subset \mathcal{H}$ and let $\{\psi_i \otimes \eta\}_{i \in I}$ be an orthonormal basis of $\mathcal{H}_1$. Then, $P(\psi_k \otimes \eta | \mathcal{S}_\eta)$ recovers $P(\psi_k \otimes \eta)$ up to a normalization factor which is the inverse of $\sum_{i \in I} |\rho(\psi_i \otimes \eta)|^2$.

### 4.3 Probability conservation

Observe now that the split of the state space $\mathcal{H}$ into the components $\mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$ in the standard geometry of parallel spacelike hyperplanes is of a rather special nature. Firstly, each of the tensor components separately has an inner product and these are such that they are compatible with the inner product on $\mathcal{H}$ in the sense that

$$(\psi \otimes \eta, \psi' \otimes \eta')_{\mathcal{H}} = (\psi, \psi')_{\mathcal{H}_1} (\eta, \eta')_{\mathcal{H}_2},$$

as guaranteed by axioms (T2b) and (T3b). Thus, in the first example we may choose $\psi$ to be normalized and $\{\eta_i\}_{i \in I}$ becomes an orthonormal basis of $\mathcal{H}_2$. Secondly, the induced map $\hat{\rho} : \mathcal{H}_1 \to \mathcal{H}_2$ should be an isomorphism (again, we refer to a discussion of this later). Thus, by axiom (T4b) it must conserve the inner product. This implies in the example that $\sum |\rho(\psi \otimes \eta_i)|^2$ equals unity since it may be written as $\sum |\langle \psi | \xi_2(\eta_i), \hat{\rho}(\psi) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_3}|^2$. By similar reasoning, the normalization factor in the third example equals unity.

The splitting of the boundary state space into a tensor product in the way just described may serve as a global way of determining some part of the measurement process as conditional on another one. This includes automatic normalizations. The map $\hat{\rho}$ may then be seen as describing an “evolution”. Its compatibility with the inner products (usually called unitarity) leads to what is known as “conservation of probability”, ensuring in this context the consistency of the interpretation. This is the deeper meaning of axiom (T4b). Note that it only applies if $\hat{\rho}$ is invertible, otherwise it makes no sense to talk about “conservation”. As shown in a concrete example in the companion paper [5], such a splitting of the state space can also occur in cases where the boundary
does not decompose into disconnected components. Of course it is then not axiomatically enforced, but part of the given theory.

The most general way of expressing “probability conservation” in the present formalism (as ensured by axiom (T4b)) may be described as follows. Let $M$ and $N$ be manifolds with disjoint interiors. Let $\Sigma$ be the boundary of the union $M \cup N$ and $\Sigma'$ be the boundary of $M$. Denote the associated state spaces with $\mathcal{H}$ and $\mathcal{H}'$. Then $\rho_N$ gives rise to a map $\tilde{\rho}_N : \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{H}'$. Suppose that this map is invertible. Let $A \subseteq S \subset \mathcal{H}$ be closed subspaces. Denote their images under $\tilde{\rho}_N$ by $A' \subseteq S' \subset \mathcal{H}'$. Then, the following equality of conditional probabilities holds,

$$P(A|S) = P(A'|S').$$

To provide an intuitive context of application for the above consider the following. Let $M$ be some spacetime region. Now consider a “small” region $N$, adjacent to $M$ such that $M \cup N$ may be considered a “deformation” of $M$, see Figure 2 for an illustration. Then, as described above, the amplitude map for $N$ gives rise to the map $\tilde{\rho}_N$ interpolating between the state spaces associated with the boundary of $M$ and its deformation $M \cup N$. Since we are dealing with a “small” deformation this map should be an isomorphism and consequently preserve the inner product. Then, we may say that probabilities are “conserved under the deformation”.

5 Vacuum axioms

The main property of the vacuum state in standard quantum field theory is its invariance under time-evolution. In the present context we expect a family of vacuum states, namely one for each oriented hypersurface. However, we will continue to talk about “the” vacuum state, since the members of this family should be related to each other through certain coherence conditions. It is quite straightforward to formulate these coherence conditions in axiomatic form.

(V1) For each hypersurface $\Sigma$ there is a distinguished state $\psi_{\Sigma,0} \in \mathcal{H}_\Sigma$, called the vacuum state.
(V2) The vacuum state is compatible with the involution. That is, for any hypersurface $\Sigma$, $\psi_{\Sigma,0} = i_\Sigma(\psi_{\Sigma,0})$.

(V3) The vacuum state is multiplicative. Suppose the hypersurface $\Sigma$ decomposes into disconnected components $\Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2$. Then $\psi_{\Sigma,0} = \psi_{\Sigma_1,0} \otimes \psi_{\Sigma_2,0}$.

(V4) The vacuum state is normalized. On any hypersurface $\Sigma$, $\langle \psi_{\Sigma,0}, \psi_{\Sigma,0} \rangle = 1$.

(V5) The amplitude of the vacuum state is unity, $\rho_M(\psi_{\partial M,0}) = 1$.

An important consequence of these properties in combination with the core axioms is that they enforce “conservation” of the vacuum under generalized evolution, generalizing time-translation invariance. Consider the situation of axiom (T4b). That is, we have a region $M$ with boundary decomposing into disconnected components $\Sigma_1$ and $\Sigma_2$ and the amplitude gives rise to an isomorphism of vector spaces $\tilde{\rho}_M : H_{\Sigma_1} \rightarrow H_{\Sigma_2}$. The image of the vacuum state $\psi_{\Sigma_1,0}$ under $i_{\Sigma_2} \circ \tilde{\rho}_M$ obviously may be written as a linear combination $\alpha \psi_{\Sigma_2,0} + \beta \psi_{\Sigma_2,1}$ where $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are complex numbers and $\psi_{\Sigma_2,1}$ is a normalized state orthogonal to the vacuum state $\psi_{\Sigma_2,0}$. On the other hand, by definition of $\tilde{\rho}_M$ we have the equality $\rho_M(\psi_{\Sigma_1,0} \otimes \psi_{\Sigma_2,0}) = \langle i_{\Sigma_2} \circ \tilde{\rho}_M(\psi_{\Sigma_1,0}), \psi_{\Sigma_2,0} \rangle_{\Sigma_2}$. Properties (V3) and (V5) of the vacuum then imply $\alpha = 1$. On the other hand axiom (T4b) implies preservation of the norm by $\tilde{\rho}_M$ and hence by $i_{\Sigma_2} \circ \tilde{\rho}_M$. Since the vacuum is normalized by axiom (V4) this forces $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$. Hence, $\beta = 0$.

Conversely, we may use this conservation property to transport the vacuum state from one hypersurface to another one. This might lead one to suggest the following prescription for the vacuum state $\psi_M$. Consider a region $M$ with boundary $\Sigma$. The amplitude $\rho_M : H_\Sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ gives rise to a linear map $\tilde{\rho}_M : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow H_\Sigma$ by dualization and hence to a state $\psi_M \in H_\Sigma$. In fact, this is “almost” true. Namely, in the general case of infinite dimensional state spaces we should expect this state $\psi_M$ not to be normalizable and hence not to exist in the strict sense. Let us ignore this problem. It is easy to see that by its very definition this state is automatically conserved via axiom (T5) in the way described above. Nevertheless, it is not a good candidate for a vacuum state in the sense of “ground state” or “no-particle state”. Namely, given such a vacuum state $\psi_{\Sigma,0} \in H_\Sigma$ there should be some “excited state” $\psi_s \in H_\Sigma$ that is orthogonal to it and produces a non-zero amplitude via $\rho_M(i_\Sigma(\psi_s)) \neq 0$. However, by construction of $\psi_M$, we have $\langle \psi_s, \psi_M \rangle_{\Sigma} = \rho_M(i_\Sigma(\psi_s)) \neq 0$. Hence $\psi_M$ cannot be (a multiple of) the vacuum state $\psi_{\Sigma,0}$. Note that to arrive at this conclusion we have used only the core axioms, but none of the properties proposed above for the vacuum.

A single, uniquely defined vacuum state per hypersurface represents merely the simplest possibility for realizing the concept of a vacuum. A rather obvious generalization would be to a subspace of “vacuum states” per hypersurface. Approaches to quantum field theory in curved space time indeed indicate that this might be required [9]. We limit ourselves here to the remark that it is rather straightforward to adapt the above axioms to such a context.
6 Backgrounds and spacetime symmetries

6.1 Background structures

The general boundary formulation is supposed to be applicable to contexts where the basic spacetime objects entering the formulation, namely regions and hypersurfaces, may have a variety of meanings. In Section 2 we already mentioned the context corresponding to standard quantum field theory. Namely, spacetime is Minkowski space, regions are 4-dimensional submanifolds and hypersurfaces are closed oriented 3-dimensional submanifolds.

The context with a minimal amount of structure is that of topological manifolds with a given dimension $d$. Thus, regions would be $d+1$-dimensional topological manifolds and hypersurfaces would be closed oriented $d$-dimensional topological manifolds. This is the context where the axioms are most closely related to topological quantum field theory \[2\]. An additional layer of structure is given by considering differentiable manifolds, i.e., we add a differentiable structure. Another layer of structure that is crucial in ordinary quantum field theory is the (usually pseudo-Riemannian) metric structure. There are a variety of other structures of potential interest in various contexts such as complex structure, spin structure, volume form etc.

Any structure additional to the topological or differentiable one is usually referred to as a background. (Sometimes this terminology includes the topological structure as well.) In addition to considering the core axioms within different types of backgrounds we can make a further choice. Namely, we might regard the regions and hypersurfaces as manifolds in their own right, each equipped with its prescribed background structure. Then, boundaries inherit the background structure from the region they bound and the gluing of regions must happen in such a way that the background structure is respected. On the other hand, we might prescribe a global spacetime in which regions and hypersurfaces appear as submanifolds of codimension 0 and 1 respectively. In this case, the spacetime manifold carries the background structure which is inherited by the regions and hypersurfaces. To distinguish the two situations we will refer to the former as a local background and to the latter as a global background. For example, in the standard quantum field theoretic context we choose a global Minkowski background.

Let us briefly discuss various background structures appropriate in a few situations of interest. As already mentioned, the natural choice for standard quantum field theory is that of a global Minkowski spacetime background. If we are interested in quantum field theory on curved spacetime we might simply replace Minkowski space with another global metric background spacetime. However, if we wish to describe quantum field theory on curved spacetimes in general, we might want to use local metric backgrounds. This would implement a locality idea inherent in the general boundary formulation, namely that processes happening in a given region of spacetime are not dependent on the structure of spacetime somewhere else. In conformal field theory we would have $d = 1$ and local complex background structures. Indeed, Segal’s axiomatization
of conformal field theory along such lines at the end of the 1980’s [10, 11] had a seminal influence on the mathematical framework of topological quantum field theory as expressed in Atiya’s formalization [2].

Finally, in a hypothetical quantum theory of general relativity there would be no metric background. Due to the background differential structure inherent in classical general relativity one might expect the same choice of background in the quantum theory, i.e., merely a local differentiable structure. It is also conceivable that one has to be more general and consider merely topological manifolds. A relevant discussion can be found in [12]. Even more exotic “sums over topologies” may be considered, going back to a proposal of Wheeler [13]. Implementing these would require a modification of the present framework.

6.2 Symmetries

Spacetime transformations act on regions and hypersurfaces. It is natural to suppose that these induce algebraic transformations on state spaces and amplitude functions. In topological quantum field theory such transformations indeed usually form an integral part of the framework [2]. On the other hand we are all familiar with the importance of the Poincaré group and its representations for quantum field theory.

Spacetime transformations are intimately related to the background structure. We may consider rather general transformations (e.g., homeomorphisms or diffeomorphisms) or only such transformations that leave a background structure invariant. Furthermore, a crucial difference arises depending on whether the background is global or local. In the former case we consider transformations of the given spacetime as a whole. These then induce transformations of or between regions and hypersurfaces considered as submanifolds. In the latter case we consider transformations of a region or hypersurface considered as a manifold with background structure in its own right. In particular, each region or hypersurface a priori comes equipped with its own transformation group.

In standard quantum field theory we consider only transformations that leave the global Minkowski background invariant. That is, the group of spacetime transformations is the group of isometries of Minkowski space, the Poincaré group. If we consider quantum field theory on another global metric background we might equally restrict spacetime transformations to isometries. More general transformations would make sense if we wish to consider an ensemble of backgrounds. Alternatively, if we are interested in quantum field theory in general curved spacetime utilizing local backgrounds we would use general transformations, too, probably diffeomorphisms. But these would be local diffeomorphisms of the regions and hypersurfaces themselves and not global ones, of a whole spacetime. The latter transformations seems also the most natural ones for a quantum theory without metric background (such as quantum general relativity). Of course, in that case there is no metric background which they modify.

Since the natural transformation properties of state spaces and amplitude functions take a somewhat different form depending on whether we are dealing with a global or a local background we will separate the two cases. We start
with the case of a global background.

6.2.1 Global backgrounds

Let $G$ be a group of transformations acting on spacetime. We demand that this group maps regions to regions and hypersurfaces to hypersurfaces. (Recall that there are generally restrictions as to what $d+1$-submanifold qualifies as a region and what closed oriented $d$-manifold qualifies as a hypersurface, see Section 9.)

Let $g \in G$. We denote the image of a hypersurface $\Sigma$ under $g$ by $g \triangleright \Sigma$. Similarly, we denote the image of a region $M$ under $g$ as $g \triangleright M$. We postulate the following axioms.

(Sg1) The action of $G$ on hypersurfaces induces an action on the ensemble of associated state spaces. That is, $g \in G$ induces a linear isomorphism $H_\Sigma \rightarrow H_{g \triangleright \Sigma}$, which we denote on elements as $\psi \mapsto g \triangleright \psi$. It has the properties of a (generalized) action, i.e., $g \triangleright (h \triangleright \psi) = (gh) \triangleright \psi$ and $e \triangleright \psi = \psi$, where $e$ is the identity of $G$.

(Sg2) The action of $G$ on state spaces is compatible with the involution. That is, $\iota_{g \triangleright \Sigma}(g \triangleright \psi) = g \triangleright \iota_{\Sigma}(\psi)$ for any $g \in G$ and any hypersurface $\Sigma$.

(Sg3) The action of $G$ on state spaces is compatible with the decomposition of hypersurfaces into disconnected components. Suppose $\Sigma = \Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2$ is such a decomposition, then we require $g \triangleright (\psi_1 \otimes \psi_2) = g \triangleright \psi_1 \otimes g \triangleright \psi_2$ for any $g \in G$, $\psi_1 \in H_{\Sigma_1}$, $\psi_2 \in H_{\Sigma_2}$.

(Sg4) The action of $G$ on state spaces is compatible with the bilinear form. That is, $(g \triangleright \psi_1, g \triangleright \psi_2)_{g \triangleright \Sigma} = (\psi_1, \psi_2)_{\Sigma}$.

(Sg5) The action of $G$ on regions leave the amplitudes invariant, i.e., $\rho_{g \triangleright M}(g \triangleright \psi) = \rho_M(\psi)$ where $M$ is any region, $\psi$ any vector in the state space associated to its boundary.

(SgV) The vacuum state is invariant under $G$, i.e., $g \triangleright \psi_{\Sigma,0} = \psi_{g \triangleright \Sigma,0}$.

6.2.2 Local backgrounds

We now turn to the case of local backgrounds. In this case we associate with each region $M$ its own transformation group $G_M$ that maps $M$ to itself (but with possibly modified background). In particular, $G_M$ preserves boundaries. Similarly, each hypersurface $\Sigma$ carries its own transformation group $G_\Sigma$, mapping $\Sigma$ to itself (again with possibly modified background). Furthermore, we demand that for any region $M$ with boundary $\Sigma$ there is a group homomorphism $G_M \rightarrow G_\Sigma$ that describes the induced action of $G_M$ on the boundary.

We denote the image of $\Sigma$ under $g \in G_\Sigma$ by $g \triangleright \Sigma$. Similarly, we denote the
image of the region $M$ under the action of $G_M$ by $g \triangleright M$. We use the same notation for the induced action on the boundary $\Sigma$ of $M$.

(S1) The action of $G_{\Sigma}$ on $\Sigma$ induces an action on the ensemble of state spaces associated with the different background structures of $\Sigma$. That is, $g \in G_{\Sigma}$ induces a linear isomorphism $H_{\Sigma} \to H_{g\triangleright \Sigma}$, which we denote on elements as $\psi \mapsto g \triangleright \psi$. It has the properties of a (generalized) action, i.e., $g \triangleright (h \triangleright \psi) = (gh) \triangleright \psi$ and $e \triangleright \psi = \psi$, where $e$ is the identity of $G_{\Sigma}$.

(S2) $G_{\Sigma}$ is compatible with the involution. That is, $G_{\Sigma} \cong G_{\bar{\Sigma}}$ are canonically identified, with $\iota_{g \triangleright \Sigma}(g \triangleright \psi) = g \triangleright \iota_{\Sigma}(\psi)$ for any $g \in G_{\Sigma}$ and any hypersurface $\Sigma$.

(S3) $G_{\Sigma}$ is compatible with the decomposition of hypersurfaces into disconnected components. Suppose $\Sigma = \Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2$ is such a decomposition. Consider the subgroup $G'_{\Sigma} \subseteq G_{\Sigma}$ that maps the components to themselves. Then, $G'_{\Sigma} = G_{\Sigma_1} \times G_{\Sigma_2}$ such that $(g_1, g_2) \triangleright (\psi_1 \otimes \psi_2) = g_1 \triangleright \psi_1 \otimes g_2 \triangleright \psi_2$ for any $g_1 \in G_{\Sigma_1}, g_2 \in G_{\Sigma_2}, \psi_1 \in H_{\Sigma_1}, \psi_2 \in H_{\Sigma_2}$.

(S4) $G_{\Sigma}$ is compatible with the bilinear form. That is, $(g \triangleright \psi_1, g \triangleright \psi_2)_{g \triangleright \Sigma} = (\psi_1, \psi_2)_{\Sigma}$.

(S5) $G_M$ leaves the amplitude $\rho_M$ invariant, i.e., $\rho_{g \triangleright M}(g \triangleright \psi) = \rho_M(\psi)$ where $M$ is any region, $\psi$ any vector in the state space associated to its boundary.

(SIV) The vacuum state is invariant under $G_{\Sigma}$, i.e., $g \triangleright \psi_{\Sigma,0} = \psi_{g \triangleright \Sigma,0}$.

These axioms, both in the global as well as in the local case are supposed to describe only the most simple situation. It might be necessary to modify them, for example introducing phases, cocycles etc.

### 6.3 Invertible evolution

Let us return to a question that has arisen in Section 3 in the context of recovering the standard formulation of quantum mechanics. Consider a time interval $[t_1, t_2]$ giving rise to a corresponding region $M$ of spacetime. Denote the two components of the bounding hypersurface by $\Sigma_1$ and $\Sigma_2$ respectively, see Figure 1. Firstly, the core axioms do not tell us that there is a (natural) isomorphism between the state spaces $H_{\Sigma_1}$ and $H_{\Sigma_2}$. However, it is clear that this is related to time translations. Indeed, we are in the context of a global metric background and suppose that its isometry group $G$ includes time translations. A time translation $g_\Delta \in G$ by the amount $\Delta = t_2 - t_1$ maps $\Sigma_1$ to $\Sigma_2$.

Thus, by axiom (Sg1) the state spaces $H_{\Sigma_1}$ and $H_{\Sigma_2}$ are identified through the induced action. Indeed, we may use time translations to identify all equal-time hypersurfaces in this way, arriving at the state space of quantum mechanics.

A second point noted in Section 3 is that even given natural isomorphisms between the state spaces, it does not follow from the core axioms that the amplitude function $\rho_M : H_{\Sigma_1} \otimes H_{\Sigma_2} \to \mathbb{C}$ yields an isomorphism of vector...
spaces $\tilde{\rho}_M : \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_1} \to \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_2}$. It should also be clear why we cannot simply enforce this on the level of the core axioms. Namely, intuitively, we only expect an isomorphism if $M$ connects in a suitable way $\Sigma_1$ and $\Sigma_2$ and if $\Sigma_1$ and $\Sigma_2$ have the “same size”. We will come back to the discussion of “sizes” of state spaces in Section 8.

Enforcing the existence of an isomorphism $\tilde{\rho}_M$ in suitable situations may be achieved along the lines of the following procedure using an isotopy. Let $G$ by the transformation group of the global background $B$ in question. Suppose there is a smooth map $\alpha : [0,1] \to G$ from the unit interval to $G$ such that $\alpha(0) = e$, ($e$ the neutral element of $G$) and $\alpha(1) \circ \Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2$. Furthermore, assume that the induced map $I \times \Sigma \to B$ has image $M$ and is a diffeomorphism (or just homeomorphism in the absence of differentiable structure) onto its image. Then, require that the amplitude map induces an isomorphism of vector spaces (and by axiom (T4b) thus of Hilbert spaces) $\tilde{\rho}_M : \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_1} \to \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_2}$. This prescription would apply in particular to the standard formulation, enforcing an invertible (and by axiom (T4b) thus unitary) time-evolution operator as required.

7 Schrödinger representation and Feynman integral

The Schrödinger representation, i.e., the representation of states in terms of wave functions, together with the Feynman path integral provide a natural context for the realization of the general boundary formulation [6, 8]. The former facilitates an intuitive implementation of the axioms relating to states, while the latter (seems to) automatically satisfy the composition axiom (T5). Let us give a rough sketch of this approach in the following.

We suppose that there is a configuration space $K_\Sigma$ associated to every hypersurface $\Sigma$. We define the state space $\mathcal{H}_\Sigma$ to be the space of (suitable) complex valued functions on $K_\Sigma$, called wave functions, providing (T1). (This was denoted (Q1) in [6].) We suppose that $K_\Sigma$ is independent of the orientation of $\Sigma$. Thus, the state spaces on $\Sigma$ and its oppositely oriented version $\bar{\Sigma}$ are the same, $\mathcal{H}_\Sigma = \mathcal{H}_{\bar{\Sigma}}$. The antilinear involution $\iota_\Sigma : \mathcal{H}_\Sigma \to \mathcal{H}_{\bar{\Sigma}}$ is given by the complex conjugation of functions. That is, for any wave function $\psi \in \mathcal{H}_\Sigma$ and any configuration $\varphi \in K_\Sigma$ we have $(\iota_\Sigma(\psi))(\varphi) = \overline{\psi(\varphi)}$, satisfying (T1b).

We suppose that the configuration space on a hypersurface $\Sigma$ consisting of disconnected components $\Sigma_1$ and $\Sigma_2$ is the product of the individual configuration spaces, $K_\Sigma = K_{\Sigma_1} \times K_{\Sigma_2}$. This implies, $\mathcal{H}_\Sigma = \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_1} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_2}$, i.e., (T2). Since the complex conjugate of a product is the product of the complex conjugates of the individual terms (T2b) follows.

Given a measure on the configuration spaces, a bilinear form $\mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_1} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma_2} \to \mathbb{C}$ is defined via

$$
(\psi, \psi')_\Sigma = \int_{K_\Sigma} D\varphi \psi(\varphi)\psi'(\varphi),
$$

(1)
This induces the inner product
\[ \langle \psi, \psi' \rangle_{\Sigma} = \int_{K_{\Sigma}} \mathcal{D} \varphi \, \overline{\psi(\varphi)} \psi'(\varphi). \] (2)

This yields (T3). Since the integral over a product of spaces is the product of the integrals over the individual spaces we have (T3b).

Let \( M \) be a region with boundary \( \Sigma \). The amplitude of a wave function \( \psi \in \mathcal{H}_{\Sigma} \) is given by the following heuristic path integral formula, providing (T4),
\[ \rho_M(\psi) = \int_{K_{\Sigma}} \mathcal{D} \varphi \, \psi(\varphi) Z_M(\varphi), \quad \text{with} \quad Z_M(\varphi) = \int_{K_{M,\varphi|_{\Sigma}=\varphi}} \mathcal{D} \phi \, e^{i S_M(\phi)}. \] (3)

(This was denoted (Q2) in [6].) The second integral is over “all field configurations” \( \phi \) in the region \( M \) that reduce to \( \varphi \) on the boundary. \( S_M \) is the action integral over the region \( M \). The quantity \( Z_M(\varphi) \) is also called the field propagator. It formally looks like a wave function and thus like a state. Indeed, this is precisely the state \( \psi_M \) briefly discussed at the end of Section 5. As already mentioned there, \( \psi_M \) is in general not normalizable and thus not a state in the strict sense.6

Consider a region \( M \) with boundary \( \Sigma \) decomposing into two disconnected components \( \Sigma_1 \) and \( \Sigma_2 \). Then, we can immediately write down the formal map \( \tilde{\rho}_M : H_{\Sigma_1} \to H_{\Sigma_2} \) induced by the amplitude map \( \rho_M \). Namely,
\[ (\tilde{\rho}_M(\psi))(\varphi') = \int_{K_{\Sigma_1}} \mathcal{D} \varphi \, \psi(\varphi) Z_M(\varphi, \varphi'), \] (4)

where \( \varphi' \in K_{\Sigma_2} \). Of course, the strict existence of the resulting state depends on its normalizability. Suppose that it does exist and that \( \tilde{\rho}_M \) provides an isomorphism of vector spaces. It is then easy to see that the validity of axiom (T4b), i.e., the preservation of the inner product \( (2) \) or unitarity would follow from the formal equality
\[ \int_{K_{\Sigma_2}} \mathcal{D} \varphi_2 \overline{Z_M(\varphi_1, \varphi_2)} Z_M(\varphi_1', \varphi_2) = \delta(\varphi_1, \varphi_1'), \] (5)

for \( \varphi_1, \varphi_1' \in K_{\Sigma_1} \). This basically says that the conjugate of the propagator describes the inverse of the original propagator.

Finally, in the context of axiom (T5) the condition \( \tilde{\rho}_{M_1 \cup M_2} = \tilde{\rho}_{M_2} \circ \tilde{\rho}_{M_1} \) translates to the following condition on propagators,
\[ \int_{K_{\Sigma}} \mathcal{D} \varphi \, Z_{M_1}(\varphi_1, \varphi) Z_{M_2}(\varphi, \varphi_2) = Z_{M_1 \cup M_2}(\varphi_1, \varphi_2), \] (6)

6In [3] the field propagator \( Z \) was denoted by \( W \). Furthermore, the word “vacuum” was used for the state \( \psi_M \). However, as explained at the end of Section 5 such a state has nothing to do with the more usual notion of vacuum considered there. We thus discourage the use of the term “vacuum” for this state.
with \( \varphi_1 \in K_{\Sigma_1} \) and \( \varphi_2 \in K_{\bar{\Sigma}_2} \). If we write the propagator in terms of the path integral (3) the validity of (6) becomes obvious. Namely, it just says that we may choose a slice in a region and split a path integral over the region as follows: One integral over configurations in the slice and an integral over the whole region restricted to configurations matching the given one on the slice. Thus, (T5) holds.

In fact, the picture presented so far, while being rather compelling, turns out to be somewhat too naive. For example, it was shown in [7] (in the context of the Klein-Gordon theory) that the configuration space on a timelike hyperplane is not simply the space of “all” field configurations, but a smaller space of physical configurations. Remarkably, the composition rule (6) works with this restricted configuration space on the intermediate slice rather than the “full” configurations space one would obtain by naively slicing the spacetime path integral. Other non-trivial issues include normalization factors, which as one might expect turn out to be generically infinite. Nevertheless, [7] and even more so the companion article [5] show (for the Klein-Gordon theory) that the Schrödinger-Feynman approach to the implementation of the general boundary formulation is a viable one.

8 The shape of regions and the size of state spaces

So far we have been rather vague about what kind of regions and what kind of hypersurfaces are actually admissible. For simplicity, let us discuss this question in the context of a global Minkowski background. It is then clear that regions are 4-dimensional submanifolds and hypersurfaces are 3-dimensional closed oriented submanifolds. In fact, given that we know which regions are admissible, we can easily say which hypersurfaces are admissible. Namely, any hypersurface is admissible that arises as the boundary of an admissible region or a connected component thereof. So, which regions are admissible?
Unfortunately, at this stage we do not have a complete answer to this question. In the following we give some partial answers that are mainly obtained through experience with the application of this framework to quantum field theory in general (along the lines of Section 7) and the Klein-Gordon theory \[7,5\] in particular. As should be clear from Section 3 a region must be such that we can associate with it a “complete measurement process”. In terms of the standard formulation this means preparation plus observation. Thus, in that formulation the type of region of main interest is a time interval times all of space (Figure 3.b).

On the other hand, consider a region consisting of the past (or future) half of Minkowski space. In this situation the standard formulation applies as well. Indeed, it tells us that no complete measurement process can be associated with just one equal-time hyperplane (Figure 3.a). This gives us two examples: A time-interval defines an admissible region while a (temporal) half-space does not define an admissible region. How can this be generalized?

It turns out that a useful way to think about admissible regions is that the configuration data on the boundary is essentially in one-to-one correspondence to classical solutions. (Recall that we use the context of Section 7.) Indeed, this correspondence is used in \[6,5\] to calculate the field propagator \[3\]. This qualifies the time-interval as admissible (knowing the field configuration at two times essentially determines a solution) while it disqualifies the half-space as inadmissible (there are many solutions restricting to the same field configuration at a given time).

In \[6\] the explicit examples of admissible regions were extended to regions enclosed between any two parallel hyperplanes (spacelike or timelike). In the companion paper \[5\] further examples are considered, in particular, a full hypercylinder. More precisely, this is a ball in space times the time axis. Again, its boundary data is in correspondence to classical solutions. Note that such a situation is impossible in a traditional context of only spacelike hypersurfaces. We have here an example where a connected boundary carries states describing a complete measurement process. In particular, this implies that there is no a priori distinction between the “prepared” and the “observed” part of the measurement process. Hence it goes beyond the applicability of the standard probability interpretation, highlighting the necessity for and meaning of a generalized interpretation as outlined in Section 4.

Since the configuration data on the hypercylinder as well as on two parallel hyperplanes correspond to classical solutions one might say that the associated state spaces have “equal size”. Let us call these state spaces of size 1. A single hyperplane carries half the data and we say the associated state space has size \(\frac{1}{2}\). In this way the size of state spaces is additive with respect to the disjoint union of the underlying hypersurfaces.

Another valid way to obtain admissible regions should be by forming a disjoint union of admissible regions. Physically, that means that we are performing several concurrent and independent measurements. (The word “concurrent” should be understood here in a logical rather than a temporal sense here.) We can reconcile this with the idea of a correspondence between boundary data and
a classical solution if we restrict the solution to the region itself, rather than it being defined globally. Indeed, this intuition receives independent confirmation from the second new example of [5]. This is a region formed by a thick spherical shell in space times the time axis. Its boundary consists of two concentric hypercylinders. It turns out that the data on the boundary is in correspondence to classical solutions defined on the region, but generically containing singularities outside. Furthermore, following this principle of correspondence yields the correct field propagator consistent with the other results. In terms of the terminology introduced above, the state space associated with the boundary of this region has size 2.

It thus appears that a region should be admissible if the configuration data on its boundary is essentially in correspondence to classical solutions defined inside the region. Note also that the size of the boundary state space of an admissible region seems to be necessarily an integer. Of course we expect the heuristic arguments put forward here, even if based on limited examples, to be substantially modified or generalized in a fully worked out theory.

Finally, our discussion was largely oriented at quantum field theory with metric backgrounds. It was argued (motivated by the problem of time) that in the context of a quantum theory of spacetime, valid measurements should correspond to regions with a connected boundary only. Thus, we might expect such a further limitation on the admissibility of regions in that context.

9 Corners and empty regions

There is another aspect concerning the shape of regions that merits attention and points to some remaining deficiencies of the treatment so far. Most experiments are constrained in space and time and so it seems most natural to describe them using finite regions of spacetime. Indeed, as it was argued in [3], the region of generic interest is that of a topological 4-ball.

The most elementary composition we might think of in this context is that of two 4-balls to another 4-ball. However, this raises an immediate problem: To merge two 4-balls into one, we would need to glue them at parts of their boundaries only. Thus, we would need to distinguish between different parts of a connected hypersurface and glue only some of them. This is clearly not covered by the composition axiom (T5) as it stands.

If the regions have not only topological, but also differentiable structure (as in almost every theory of conceivable physical interest) the problem is even more serious. Namely, we need to allow corners in the boundaries of regions to glue them consistently. One way to think about corners is as “boundaries of boundaries”. Somewhat more precisely, the places on the boundary where the normal vector changes its direction discontinuously, are the corners. A simple example of a region with corners is a 4-cube (which is topologically a 4-ball of course). It has the important property that gluing two 4-cubes in the obvious way yields another 4-cube shaped region.

We now recognize that the region $N$ in Figure 2 actually contains corners and
thus, strictly speaking, falls outside of axiom (T5). See Figure 4. In any case, what we need is a further extension of the core axioms to accommodate corners. Probably, we need to allow a splitting of state spaces along corners. This could be subtle, though, possibly involving extra data on the corner relating the two state spaces etc. In topological quantum field theory, the subject of corners already has received some attention, see e.g. [14]. However, at this point we will not speculate on how they may be implemented into the present framework.

It is interesting to note that in some situations corners can be avoided by a different generalization of regions which is rather natural in our framework. This generalization consists in allowing regions to consist partly or even entirely purely of boundaries. These regions are partly or entirely “empty”. Note that in this context an empty part should be thought of as having two distinct (and disconnected) boundary hypersurfaces, namely one for each orientation. A “completely empty” region is determined simply by one given hypersurface $\Sigma$. The “boundary” of this region is the hypersurface $\Sigma$ together with its opposite $\bar{\Sigma}$, to be thought of as disconnected in the sense of axiom (T2).

Indeed, reconsider the example of Figure 2. If we allow $N$ to be partly empty, we can avoid the need for corners. This is shown in Figure 5. Indeed, recall the example at the end of Section 4. The map $\tilde{\rho}_N$ is the map induced by the amplitude map of $N$, extended by an identity. At least this is the case in the
context with corners. In the context where \( N \) is the region shown in Figure 5, the map \( \tilde{\rho}_N \) is simply induced by the amplitude, without any extension.

The extension to “empty” regions does not require any changes in the axioms. To the contrary, it actually simplifies some axioms and makes their meaning more transparent. Of the core axioms, the main example is (T3). The bilinear form postulated for a hypersurface \( \Sigma \) is nothing but the amplitude map for the empty region defined by \( \Sigma \). The symmetry of this bilinear form is then automatic (since \( \Sigma \) defines the same empty region). Thus, axiom (T3) becomes almost entirely redundant, except for the requirement that it induces (together with the involution) a Hilbert space structure. This is simply a suitable non-degeneracy condition. This also explains why we have formulated (T3) in such a way that the bilinear form is fundamental and the inner product derived, rather than the other way round.

Axiom (T3b) is then also redundant as it arises as a special case of axiom (T5) when the intermediate hypersurface \( \Sigma \) is empty. Furthermore, axiom (T4b) is automatic for the completely empty regions, being guaranteed by what remains of axiom (T3).

Not only the core axioms are simplified. The vacuum normalization axiom (V4) becomes an automatic consequence of the unit amplitude axiom (V5). Similarly, the symmetry axiom (Sg4) now follows from (Sg5) with (Sg3) and (Sl4) follows from (Sl5) with (Sl3).

### 10 What about operators?

We seem to have avoided so far a subject of some prominence in quantum mechanics: operators. This has several reasons. Firstly, the dynamics of a quantum theory may be entirely expressed in terms of its transition amplitudes. Indeed, in quantum field theory it is (an idealization of) these which yield the S-matrix and hence the experimental predictions in terms of scattering cross sections. Secondly, all principal topics discussed so far (probability interpretation, vacuum, spacetime symmetries etc.) can indeed be formulated purely in a state/amplitude language. Thirdly, since there are now many state spaces, there are also many operator spaces. What is more, an operator in the standard picture might correspond to something that is not an operator in the present formulation.

There is one (type of) operator that we actually have discussed: The time-evolution operator. Indeed, in the present formulation it is most naturally expressed as a function rather than an operator. Note that we can do a similar reformulation with any operator of the standard formalism. It may be expressed as a function on the standard state space times its dual. This in turn might be identified (via a time translation symmetry) with the total state space of a time interval region. However, for a general operator the resulting function might not be of particular physical relevance.

Consider for example creation and annihilation operators in a Fock space context. It appears much more natural to have such operators also on tensor
product spaces rather then turning them into functions there. In the example of the Klein-Gordon theory [7, 5] such operators can indeed be constructed on state spaces of size larger than $\frac{1}{2}$. (This will be shown elsewhere.)

To describe the probability interpretation (Section 4) we might as well have used orthogonal projection operators instead of subsets. Indeed, using projection operators is more useful in expressing consecutive measurements. Note that the word “consecutive” here is not restricted to a temporal context alone. Indeed, we may sandwich projection operators (or any operators for that matter) between regions by inserting them into the composition of induced maps described in axiom (T5).

Note also that it makes perfect sense to talk about expectation values of operators in a given state. Namely, let $O$ be an operator on the Hilbert space $H_{\Sigma}$ associated with some hypersurface $\Sigma$, then its expectation value with respect to a state $\psi \in H_{\Sigma}$ may be defined in the obvious way,

$$\langle O \rangle := \langle \psi, O \psi \rangle_{\Sigma}.$$

Clearly, this reduces to the standard definition in the standard circumstances.

Let us make some general remarks concerning operators in relation to the axioms. The involution of axiom (T1b) induces for any hypersurface $\Sigma$ a canonical isomorphism between operators on the space $H_{\Sigma}$ and operators on the space $H_{\bar{\Sigma}}$ via $O \mapsto \iota \circ O \circ \iota$. In the context of axiom (T4b) the amplitude provides an isomorphism between operator spaces induced by the isomorphism of state spaces. Spacetime symmetries acting on state spaces induce actions on operator spaces in the obvious way.

Finally, we come back to the time evolution operator. Its infinitesimal form, the Hamiltonian, plays a rather important role in the standard formulation. Obviously, it is of much less importance here, as it is related to a rather particular 1-parameter deformation of particular hypersurfaces. Attempts have been made already in the 1940’s to find a generalized “Hamiltonian” related to local infinitesimal deformations of spacelike hypersurfaces [15, 16]. More recently, steps have been taken to generalize this to the general boundary formulation [8, 17, 18].

11 Conclusions and Outlook

We hope to have presented in this work a compelling picture which puts the idea of a general boundary formulation of quantum mechanics on a solid foundation. In particular, we hope to have shown convincingly, how the probability interpretation of standard quantum mechanics extends in a consistent way, including generalizations of the notions of probability conservation and unitarity. A concrete example of its application in a situation outside of the range of applicability the standard formulation can be found in the companion paper [5].

Nevertheless, we wish to emphasize that the present proposal is still tentative and should not be regarded as definitive. An obvious remaining deficiency
was elaborated on in Section 9. This is the need for corners of regions and hypersurfaces. This will certainly require a further refinement of the core axioms.

Another open issue of significant importance is that of quantization. Although we have outlined in Section 7 how a combined Schrödinger-Feynman approach provides an ansatz here, it is clearly incomplete. In particular, one would like to have a generalization of canonical quantization to the present framework. A difficulty is the lack of a simple parametrizability of “evolution”, making an infinitesimal approach through a (generalized) Hamiltonian difficult. Perhaps the “local” Hamiltonian approach mentioned at the end of Section 10 can help here, although it is not clear that it would not be plagued by ordering ambiguities.

As mentioned in the introduction, a main motivation for the general boundary formulation has been its potential ability of rendering the problem of quantization of gravity more accessible. Indeed, in the context of a mere differentiable background, one may think of it as providing a “general relativistic” version of quantum mechanics (or rather quantum field theory). Steps to apply (some form) of this framework to quantum gravity have indeed been taken, notably in the context of the loop approach to quantum gravity [8, 19, 20, 21]. The general boundary idea has also been advocated by Rovelli in his excellent book on loop quantum gravity [22]. In any case, this direction of research is still at its beginning, but we hope to have set it on a more solid foundation.

Of course, the general boundary formulation might be useful in other approaches to quantum gravity as well, such as string theory. Indeed, a hope could be that the possibility to define local amplitudes would remove the necessity to rely exclusively on the asymptotic S-matrix with its well known limitations (e.g., problems with de Sitter spacetime etc.). Of course, the technical task of implementing this might be rather challenging.

We close by pointing out a possible conceptual relation to ’t Hooft’s holographic principle [23]. As mentioned in Section 2 an intuitive way to think about states in a quantum process is as encoding the possibly available data or information about the process. We might also say that the states encode the “degrees of freedom” of the process. This is reminiscent of the holographic principle, albeit in one dimension higher. Here the degrees of freedom of a 4-volume sit on its boundary hyperarea. What is lacking at this level is of course a numerical relation between the number of degrees of freedom and (hyper)area. However, one might imagine that the relevant state space of a quantum theory of gravity can be graded by hyperarea. The holographic principle would then be a statement about the distribution of the eigenvalues of the “hyperarea operator”.

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