

1 A theoretical and experimental case for state vector physicality

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5 **Abstract:** A physical description of the state vector is developed. The role of complex variables in
6 this description is discussed in both a historical context of number set acceptance, and in an
7 examination of inherent mathematical properties. The Afshar experimental results are presented and
8 are demonstrated to give real evidence that the state vector is a standing wave along lightlike paths
9 in Minkowski space time. © 2009 Physics Essays Publication. [DOI: 10.4006/1.3262492]

10 **Résumé:** Une description physique du vecteur d'état est développée. Le rôle des variables com-
11 plexes dans cette description est discuté dans un contexte historique d'acceptation de groupe de
12 nombre, et dans un examen de leurs propriétés mathématiques inhérentes. Les résultats expérimen-
13 taux d'Afshar sont présentés. Ces résultats donnent la vraie évidence que le vecteur d'état est une
14 onde stationnaire le long de chemins de la lumière dans l'espace temps de Minkowski.

15 Key words: State Vector; Afshar Experiment; Transactional Interpretation of Quantum Mechanics; Real Numbers; Imagi-
16 nary Numbers; Complex Numbers; Minkowski Space Time.

17

18 I. INTRODUCTION

19 One of the criticisms by Einstein and countless others of
20 the current matrix probability method of quantum mechanics
21 is that it lacks of an overall coherent visualization. A physical
22 model of the state vector would contribute largely to this
23 goal. The imaginary number representation of the state vec-
24 tor and the inability of Schrödinger's wave packet to explain
25 wave front collapse are two main reasons for refuting state
26 vector physicality. These reasons are here investigated and
27 are found to allow for a physical model. A discussion on the
28 mathematical nature of the complex plane and recent evi-
29 dence from the Afshar experiment lend credence to a modi-
30 fied version of the transactional interpretation's model of the
31 state vector.

32 II. NAMING AND ACCEPTANCE OF NUMBER SETS

33 One of the main arguments against state vector physical-
34 ity is that the state vector contains an imaginary number and,
35 therefore, cannot be a real quantity. By investigating the his-
36 tory of negative numbers and complex numbers, one can
37 show that the term imaginary is a misnomer. This is rein-
38 forced by the related terms real and complex. By investigat-
39 ing the functionality and inherent nature of complex numbers
40 one can determine that their proper applied mathematics is a
41 description of time.

42 One can look at the history of other number sets and see
43 the reluctance to accept them based on the fact that the ap-
44 plication of these numbers was not yet known. One can em-
45 pathize with this reluctance if there is no applied mathemat-
46 ics associated at the time of its development. The original
47 purpose for numbers was simply to count. Negative numbers
48 are absurd for counting oxen; one cannot have -12 oxen.
49 Although negative numbers were used in China, this concept

did not begin to appear in the west until well after 628 A.D. 50
when the Indian mathematician Brahmagupta, in 51
Brahma-Sphuta-Siddhanta,¹ referred to negative numbers as 52
debts. Negative numbers finally started to make some sense. 53

Negatives also do not make sense when constructing ar- 54
chitecture. One cannot have a side of length -60 . During the 55
third century A.D., Diophantus in *Arithmetica* referred to an 56
equation with a negative solution as absurd. As late as the 57
18th century, negative numbers were considered as having an 58
evil influence. In A.D. 1759, Francis Maseres wrote that 59
negative numbers "darken the very whole doctrines of the 60
equations and make dark of the things that are in their nature 61
excessively obvious and simple."² He came to the conclusion 62
that negative numbers were nonsensical. 63

However, negative numbers do make sense in terms of 64
debt. They also make sense in terms of a Cartesian space 65
coordinate system and, most importantly, as a defined vector 66
direction. The terms "real numbers" and "imaginary num- 67
bers" were originally used for the now ubiquitous DesCartes 68
geometry.³ It was not until much later that the terms were 69
adopted for complex numbers. 70

71 III. INVESTIGATION INTO COMPLEX, REAL, AND 72 73 IMAGINARY NUMBERS

Many physicists are comfortable working with complex 73
numbers today. They have become so commonplace that 74
they are routinely used in Fourier analysis, Laplace trans- 75
forms, electrical engineering, quantum mechanics, and rela- 76
tivity. In the cases typically used by engineers, the waves 77
could be wholly represented by sin and cosine functions, but 78
are expressed in the complex plane through Euler's identity 79
for calculative convenience. This is demonstrated in imped- 80
ance and reactance. The physical quantity does not exist in 81
the complex plane, but does exist in Euclidean space. 82

This evolved in quantum mechanics. Schrödinger's wave 83
packet theory⁴ used the same calculative convenience of 84

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85 classical mechanics phase space. Originally the wave func-
 86 tion ψ was constructed as $A \cos(kx - \omega t)$; however, it is cal-
 87 culative convenience if the wave function is of the form ψ
 88 $= Ae^{i(kx - \omega t)}$. Allowing A to be complex simply provides an
 89 easy way to handle phase factors between interfering waves.
 90 When the amplitude A is real, the intensity is still the square
 91 of the amplitude; when A is complex, the intensity is the
 92 square of the absolute value of A , or $|A^*A|$, which is still a
 93 real number. To describe the experimental results with the
 94 actual cosine would cause the wave front to collapse at a
 95 velocity greater than c , so a real physical wave that exists in
 96 Euclidean three dimensions was not possible. The fact that
 97 Schrödinger's wave packet is described using a complex
 98 number and cannot be described using a "real" number is the
 99 reason given that the wave function, itself, cannot be real.
 100 We are instructed not to worry about this fact.⁵ Fuchs and
 101 Peres⁶ stated the case of the Copenhagen interpretation well.
 102 "... In classical mechanics phase space points correspond to
 103 objective data, whereas in quantum mechanics Hilbert space
 104 points correspond to quantum states. The analogy is mislead-
 105 ing: Attributing reality to quantum states leads to a host of
 106 "quantum paradoxes." (*Hilbert space* is complex.) The word
 107 reality is misleading here. It does not consider the possibility
 108 of a four-vector standing wave in the complex plane. This
 109 would not be real it would be "imaginary." The Copenhagen
 110 interpretation rests its reputation on correctly refuting the
 111 classical *phase space* of a Schrödinger wave packet, and not
 112 on rejecting a four-vector standing wave.

113 The case of special relativity (SR) is completely differ-
 114 ent. Here the complex plane is not used for convenience, but
 115 is a direct result of solutions to the Lorentz transformation
 116 equations. In SR, the complex plane as described by
 117 Minkowski space time is necessary. It is used to represent an
 118 actual physical model. "A physical entity ... is called a
 119 4-vector, ... corresponding in their relations of reality and
 120 the properties of transformation."⁷ Unlike the state vector
 121 SV, this common usage of the complex number enjoys al-
 122 most universal acceptance, despite the fact that it represents
 123 actual physical entities.

124 A. Real and imaginary versus algebraic and 125 geometric

126 When a real number is squared, there are two types of
 127 mathematics that are represented. x^2 can be algebraic or it
 128 can be geometric. The algebraic aspect is simple multiplica-
 129 tion of real numbers. The geometric aspect is displayed when
 130 x^2 denotes two dimensions instead of one. The power repre-
 131 sents the dimensionality. We know by connotation whether
 132 x^2 is algebraic or geometric. With complex numbers the al-
 133 gebraic and geometric notions are no longer a connotation
 134 but naturally separated. The real and imaginary components
 135 are here analyzed.

136 Whenever there is a multiplication by the imaginary
 137 component of a complex number, there is always a rotation
 138 of the axis. For example, $i(4 + 5i)$ becomes $4i - 5$. This is a
 139 90°CCW rotation and, therefore, a geometric change. One
 140 can see that this rotation displays a system of infinite coor-
 141 dinates systems. i is also called the rotation operator.

In contrast, multiplication by the real component of the
 complex number does not cause a rotation of the vector. This
 represents the scalar or algebraic part of multiplication. If
 one multiplies a complex vector by a real number then the
 complex vector will change its magnitude or direction only.
 For example, $3(4 + 5i)$ results in a scalar change to $12 + 15i$.
 Hence, this last result can be viewed as representative of the
 algebraic or scalar properties.

The mathematician Nathan Altshiller Court sums up the
 misnomer of imaginary numbers.⁸

Just as the Holy Roman Empire was not holy Roman
 nor an empire, imaginary points are not imaginary
 and they are not points... There is nothing imaginary
 about them except the name... They are obviously
 not points, since an imaginary point is, by definition,
 an infinite collection of points. One is reminded of
 the fact that an irrational number, and even a rational
 number, may be defined in terms of an infinite num-
 ber of rational numbers (the Dedekind cut).

One can see from this short review that complex num-
 bers are not a real versus imaginary issue at all, but are better
 described as an algebraic versus geometric issue. To advance
 this concept is beyond the scope of this paper; however, the
 purpose of this exercise is to present the true meaning of
 complex numbers. It is also presented to demonstrate the
 confusion that the terms *real* and *imaginary* have caused
 quantum mechanics when discussing *reality*.

B. The square root function and complex numbers

It is well known that complex numbers are derived from
 the investigation of the limits of the square root function
 with regard to negative numbers. An investigation into this
 operation reveals its potential usefulness further. The square
 root is an operation defined as follows: "What is the original
 number, when multiplied by itself gives the presented num-
 ber?" This definition implies cause and effect: "The pre-
 sented number was the effect produced by a causal num-
 ber(s) multiplied by itself." The cause and effect nature of
 this definition gives the square root an inherent reverse time
 quality. The square root is unlike other operations. It is, by its
 very nature, an operation that is *defined as reversed in time*.
 In my humble opinion, this fact is greatly underappreciated.

What assumptions are wrong in physics today? Smolin⁹
 stated the following: "... it involves two things: the founda-
 tions of quantum mechanics and the nature of time." As the
 proper applied mathematics for negative numbers was even-
 tually discovered to be debt and vector direction, maybe we
 should consider the possibility that the proper applied math-
 ematics for imaginary numbers is time. This is reasonable
 when one considers their inherent timelike properties. This
 notion is reinforced with Minkowski space time representing
 real phenomena. Additionally, we have found that the state
 vector is represented in the time dependent Schrödinger
 equation by a complex amplitude only. This is also the direct
 result of observed phenomena. Taken together one can make
 a cogent case that the state vector as a real physical quantity
 in the complex plane should not be discounted.

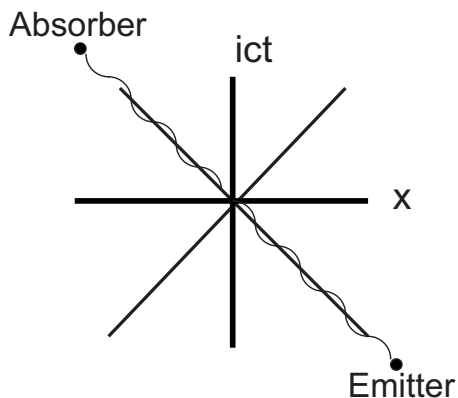


FIG. 1. State vector as a standing wave in Minkowski space time.

198 IV. EXPERIMENTAL DEVELOPMENT OF A PHYSICAL 199 STATE VECTOR

200 A. The transactional interpretation and the state 201 vector

202 The transactional interpretation (TI) of quantum
203 mechanics¹⁰ gives physicality to the state vector. It is consis-
204 tent with the double slit and other quantum experiments. In
205 TI, the state vector is a standing wave that forms along the
206 lightlike paths in complex Minkowski space time. It is a
207 four-vector (x, y, z, ict) standing wave, which connects an
208 emitter with an absorber.

209 The common model of light is of a photon/wave that
210 travels at c . This is different in TI. In TI, photon energy is
211 transferred at c when a four-vector standing wave is gener-
212 ated between an emitter and an absorber. The emitter sends
213 out the offer wave ψ and receives confirmation waves ψ^*
214 back from all possible absorbers. This transaction produces
215 the final four-vector standing wave. The four-vector standing
216 wave is the state vector. See Fig. 1. The concept of a four-
217 vector standing wave was first introduced by Wheeler and
218 Feynman.¹¹

219 This four-vector standing wave exists along the positive
220 and negative lightlike paths in Minkowski space time. This
221 makes it inherently nonlocal and atemporal. It therefore does
222 not have a problem with wave front collapse.

223 The offer wave ψ and the confirmation wave ψ^* overlap
224 and naturally derive the Born probability law. $\langle x \rangle$
225 $= \int_{\text{vol}} \psi^* X \psi dv$. This is an average over space of the possible
226 values of x , which the operator X projects from the compo-
227 nents of the offer wave.

228 In TI, there is a pseudotime that arises as the offer and
229 advanced waves travel to each other to create the standing
230 wave, which then causes a transaction of energy transfer.
231 This concept is underdeveloped.¹² As with apples, we do not
232 need to throw out the whole bunch or, in this case theory,
233 because of one perceived bad apple of pseudotime. The con-
234 cept of the state vector as a standing wave between emitter
235 and absorber in space time can stand alone with or without
236 pseudotime.

237 TI has several advantages over the Copenhagen interpre-
238 tation.

239 (1) Since the TI state vector model is nonlocal and atempo-
240 ral, it does not need to invoke arbitrary collapse triggers

such a consciousness, etc., because it is the absorber 241
rather than the observer that precipitates the collapse of 242
the state vector. 243

- (2) TI explains the Wheeler delayed choice experiment, 244
which hints at a standing wave. 245
- (3) The Born probability function is derived from the physi- 246
cal model and not just stated as an axiom as in the 247
Copenhagen interpretation. 248
- (4) Most importantly, TI is experimentally proven to be pre- 249
ferred to the CI and the many-worlds interpretation 250
(MWI) by the Afshar experiment.¹³ 251

V. THE AFSHAR EXPERIMENT 252

In the famous Bohr–Einstein debates at the 1930 Solvay 253
conference,¹⁴ Einstein proposed several Gedanken experi- 254
ments to challenge the Copenhagen interpretation of quan- 255
tum mechanics. It appears from these debates that Einstein, 256
although unsuccessful, was attempting to propose a nonde- 257
structive test that would allow conjugate variables to be mea- 258
sured. In fact, later in the EPR paper,¹⁵ the following was 259
stated. 260

If, without in any way disturbing a system, we can 261
predict with certainty (i.e., with probability equal to 262
unity) the value of a physical quantity, then there 263
exists an element of physical reality corresponding 264
to this physical quantity. 265

The debate continues as Fuchs and Peres recently stated 266
the following: “If quantum theory had been in a crisis, ex- 267
perimenters would have informed us long ago.”¹⁶ This opin- 268
ion is open to question once again. The debate now has an 269
experimental test of complementarity that Einstein was 270
searching for. 271

The Afshar experiment has successfully proven to vio- 272
late Bohr’s principle of complementarity (BCP). Afshar uses 273
nondestructive testing of wave minima to determine wave- 274
length along with a lens to determine which way information 275
in a double slit welcher-weg experiment. A wire grid is 276
placed in front of the lens where the presence of interference 277
minima should be located. With the spacing of the minima 278
one can calculate the wavelength. Once a photon is detected 279
by a detector on the screen, its trajectory can be traced due to 280
lens focusing and linear momentum. The flux versus screen 281
position is measured for the various testing configurations. 282

The results are shown in Fig. 2. Configuration (a) dis- 283
plays the setup and results with both slits open and no wire 284
grid. Configuration (b) shows the setup and results with both 285
slits open and a wire grid. Configuration (c) shows the setup 286
and results with a wire grid and hole A blocked. Configura- 287
tion (d) shows the setup and results a wire grid and hole B 288
blocked. When either slit is individually blocked the wire 289
grid produces scattering and reduces the total flux at the de- 290
tectors. When no hole is blocked, with or without the wire 291
grid in place, negligible scattering is measured. This demon- 292
strates the presence of interference when both holes are open 293
and the wire grid is present. Since both photon wavelength 294
and visibility are measured to 98%, this violates the 295

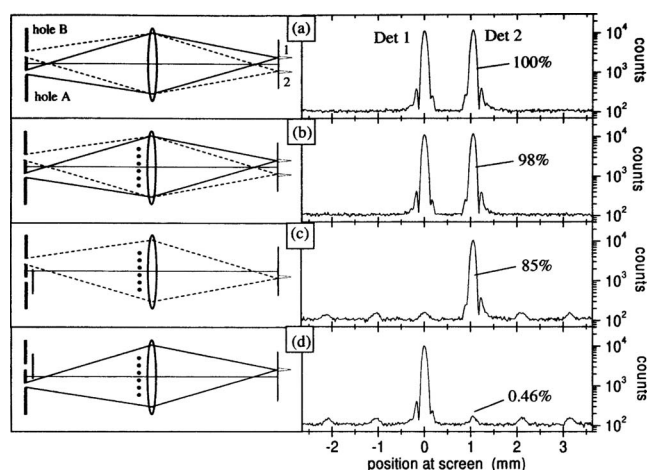


FIG. 2. Afshar experimental results.

296 Greenberger–Yasin¹⁶ inequality $V^2 + K^2 \leq 1$, where V is the
297 normalized wave visibility and K is the normalized particle
298 position. This is the quantification of BCP.

299 One criticism of the Afshar experiment is that it does not
300 apply to BCP as it utilizes a nondestructive test to determine
301 wavelength. This argument applies a double standard and can
302 be discredited. One can see from any accepted textbook de-
303 scription of the welcher-weg double slit experiment that *par-*
304 *ticle* position in the plane of the slits has always been mea-
305 sured indirectly. Particle position is measured
306 nondestructively by using a light flash from an electron in
307 the vicinity of the slits,¹⁷ tracing the path to the slit using the
308 linear momentum deduced from detector position, and mea-
309 suring slit size while assuming a particle had to go through
310 either of the apertures. These inferences proceed with as
311 much, if not less, rigor than the wavelength measurement
312 using Afshar’s wire grid minima detection method.

313 Another criticism of the Afshar experiment comes from
314 Kastner.¹⁸ She presented a quantum state analysis of a mul-
315 tiple Stern–Gerlach experiment, which is in many ways
316 analogous to the Afshar double slit setup. She derives the
317 wavelength pattern measured by the wire grid as approxi-
318 mately 1, but the which-way information as 0 and therefore
319 the Greenberger–YaSin inequality is fulfilled with $V^2 + K^2$
320 ≤ 1 . Essentially, Kastner contended that the lens decomposes
321 the quantum state. Afshar’s fellow researchers Flores and
322 Knoessel¹⁹ addressed this criticism in full with an analysis of
323 a modified Afshar experiment. In their setup shown in Fig. 3,
324 the double slit is replaced with two separate coherent laser
325 beams that overlap under a small angle. A wire grid is placed
326 at minima in the overlap region to measure wavelength. The

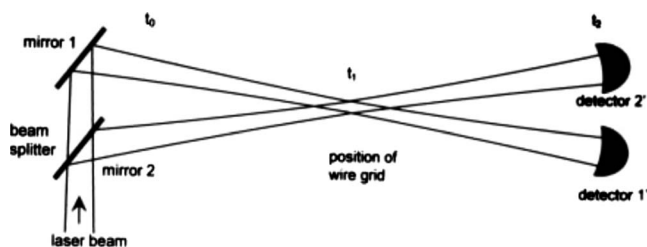


FIG. 3. Modified Afshar experiment.

angle of the beams separates them in the far field without the
use of a lens system. Which-way information is determined
through momentum conservation and a study of the electric
fields involved. By removing the lens and the double slit,
Flores and Knoessel removed the contention of Kastner.

VI. THE AFSHAR EXPERIMENT AND QUANTUM MECHANICAL INTERPRETATIONS

The Copenhagen interpretation predicts that the wires
should intercept the same percent of the light as they do for
uniform illumination due to Greenberger–Yasin and BCP.
This was shown to be violated in the above discussion.

The relative state formulation of quantum mechanics²⁰ is
sometimes referred to as the many-worlds interpretation.²¹ In
these models the wave function obeys the empirically de-
rived standard linear model at all times. The observer plays
no special role in the theory and therefore there is no col-
lapse of the wave function. The wave function is a real
physical quantity that exists in a different real universe. Each
measurement causes a decomposition of the wave function
into *noninteracting* and *noninterfering* branches, histories, or
worlds. In the MWI description of the double slit experi-
ment, a photon detected at detector 1 is in universe M, while
the same photon detected at detector 2 is in universe S. The
detection of the photon at detector 1 in universe M does not
allow for interaction or *interference* with the photon detected
at detector 2 in universe S. This does not agree with the
results of the Afshar experiment.

In the MWI popularized by Deusth,²² he described the
double slit experiment slightly differently. When a photon
has a choice of two holes to go through, the universe divides
in two, and in one world the photon goes one way, while
in the other it goes the other way. One brings the two possible
paths the photon could have followed back together again at
a detector screen, so that they interfere and produce the in-
terference pattern. One has made the two versions of reality
fuse back together. They only existed as separate realities
during the time that the photon was traveling through the
experiment. Again with this version of the MWI, there is a
contradiction with the Afshar experiment. An interference
pattern was detected during the time that the photon was
traveling.

However, the result is fully consistent with the transac-
tional interpretation. The physical standing wave between
emitter and absorber in Minkowski space time would be ex-
pected to produce interference minima. Therefore, the Afshar
experiment gives experimental proof that the transactional
interpretation version of the state vector has predictive power
over both the Copenhagen interpretation and the many-
worlds interpretation.

VII. CONCLUSION

The Copenhagen interpretation correctly refuted a clas-
sical phase space state vector, but we may have stumbled on
a previously unknown physical quantity, namely, the four-
vector standing wave. One can make a cogent argument that
the state vector is a standing wave along lightlike paths in
Minkowski space time. It requires acknowledging the misno-

mer of imaginary numbers. It requires examining their inherent timelike nature. It also benefits from awareness that the usefulness of complex numbers has its preeminence with measurements involving time. Most importantly, it requires ontology learned from the Afshar experiment that gives predictive power to the transactional interpretation over other quantum mechanical interpretations. It does not hinge on TI's underdeveloped concept of pseudotime, although it allows for it, if its development becomes clearer.

There has been much debate over the need for visualization in quantum mechanics. Both sides have legitimate points to be made. Those against would say that visualizations are not always successful. One needs only to look at Maxwell's demon²³ or Jaynes'²⁴ view that entropy is a subjective quantity to see them as unsuccessful. The opposing view would say that this does not mean that visualizations never bear fruit. I would say that visualizations have proven their usefulness. All of Newton's and Einstein's major contributions were developed using this technique. Visualizations are part of the brainstorming process and should not be discouraged—just examined. They can also go beyond simply being a model or a brainstorming activity. They can be correct. Consider this quote.

To be sure, the [author's] hypotheses' are not necessarily true; they need not even be probable. It is completely sufficient that they lead to a computation that is in accordance with the astronomical observations.

This quote is Osiander's preface to Copernicus's famous heliocentric solar system publication.²⁵ Stopping at the suf-

iciency to calculate would have robbed science of one of its crowning achievements. This visualization proved to be invaluablely correct.

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