Space, Time and Quantum Mechanics: A Process Approach

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Abstract

Since the time of Newton, physicists have imagined a background "stage" called space and time (later spacetime) permeating the entire universe. The contents of the world around us are then seen as objects embedded in this background at a defined location, and with a defined size and other properties (color, mass, spin etc.). We refer to this traditional view as the Objects in Space and Time (OST) model. It works very well for picturing classical physics; but once we move into the quantum domain it is no longer of much use. In the quantum realm objects no longer have defined locations at all times, their properties can become entangled and undefined until observed. In this paper, we seek to present an alternative to the OST model in which the "weirdness" of quantum phenomena goes away and is replaced by clarity, obviousness and inescapability. In this model the world is viewed as a network of fundamental processes by which indivisible units called *tomas* bring each other into and out of existence. We show that this model yields the same equations and predictions as the current OST-based formalism of quantum mechanics. While not contradicting the success of quantum theory, the toma model lets us get rid of the "weirdness" of the quantum world and understand reality at a deeper level than the OST model. We illustrate this by discussing two classic quantum experiments and their interpretations.

Keywords: spacetime, quantum mechanics, process philosophy, philosophy of physics, toma, ontic network, quantic network.

1. Introduction

The near-universal view of the nature of reality among physicists and most scientists is what we refer to as the *Objects in Space and Time* (OST) model. In it, we imagine an all-pervasive, all-penetrating background "stage" called space and time (or spacetime). Embedded in this background are the everyday physical objects making up the world. These objects all have independent continuous existence, a defined location on the "stage" of spacetime, a defined size and defined properties (color, mass, spin, etc.). The OST model is the foundation for materialism and atomism and is taken to be so obvious, intuitive and successful that it is rarely questioned. Indeed, for many physicists it is a sort of dogma, and the OST model, which is just a *model* we have made up in our heads, is often confused with, and taken to be the same as, reality.

Yet cracks in the universal applicability of OST are numerous. In the domain of physics, this is evidenced by how "weird" quantum phenomena appear when viewed through the OST lens. How can a particle be in two places at once? How can a cat be in a superposition of being dead and alive? How can properties of particles become dependent on each other (entangled) even when no information can travel between them at the speed of light? How can properties be undefined until measured by an "observer" at which point they are chosen at random according to some probability distribution? How can the choice of what we measure affect the very properties we measure?

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At a more fundamental level, the OST model is an inadequate explanation of the universe. It does not explain what spacetime is, nor what atoms or particles are, nor fields or forces. Their existence is just taken as an axiom of the model. Yet no one has ever seen or experienced a particle, a field, or spacetime itself—these are all our inventions. What, fundamentally, is space made of? What is a vacuum? These questions are not answerable by the OST model.

At a deeper level still, in the realm of metaphysics and philosophy, the OST model is weaker yet. Where do thoughts reside? Is love made of particles? Where does a perfect Platonic triangle exist? Does math exist in spacetime or outside it—if so, what is outside spacetime? What are feelings? Is consciousness made up of particles? The OST model has nearly no explanatory power when it comes to these sorts of questions. Yet, if we are serious about the project of physics, we should want one fundamental model of nature that has the potential to encompass all these layers, from physics to biology to psychology to philosophy.

The OST model, while successful in many domains, simply cannot be the last word on the nature of reality. There must exist a deeper reality, a way we can understand nature at a more fundamental level. As Quine [1] notes, physical objects, things, particles "are postulated entities which round out and simplify our account of the flux of existence ... The conceptual scheme of physical objects is a convenient myth, simpler than the literal truth and yet containing that literal truth as a scattered part."

It is the goal of this paper to present such a deeper model of reality. To be successful this new model must first of all match the experimentally-verified predictions of existing physics, specifically quantum mechanics, as viewed using the OST model. It must provide a structure of reality that makes the "weirdness" of quantum phenomena understandable. Most important, it must bring a new vantage point, a deeper reality, a new set of techniques to bear on the project of physics, so that we have a chance of making new discoveries and predictions which are unreachable from within the OST model.

So, how do we begin to construct an alternative to OST? What is the "literal truth" to which Quine refers to? How can we describe a theory without, or at a deeper level than, particles, space and time? In answering this question, we initially find common ground with Wheeler [2]: "Can we deduce the *quantum* from an understanding of *existence*?". Wheeler makes progress on this goal by stating the following working hypothesis: **It From Bit**. "... every **it**—every particle, every field of force, even the spacetime continuum itself—derives its function, its meaning, its very existence entirely—even if in some contexts indirectly—from the apparatus-elicited answers to yes or no questions, binary choices, **bits**.".

We strongly agree with a foundational role of yes-or-no questions in the nature of the literal truth of reality. Wheeler goes on to ask, "But how come existence? Its as bits, yes; and physics as information, yes; but *whose* information? How does the vision of one world arise out of the information-gathering activities of many observer-participants?" Now this is problematic: what is an "observer-participant?" A "conscious" being? And what, precisely, is that? How can different observer-participants agree on one world? Or does each one exist in solipsistic isolation, each with their own truth about the world?

It is at this point where we part company with Wheeler in our thinking. Our key idea is to answer the question "*whose* information" not with "observer-participants' ", but "reality's". By this we mean, that if the **bit** is 1, the **it** is a fundamental indivisible entity which *exists*—which manifests in reality, is an *actuality*. **It** *is*. If the **bit** is 0, the **it** does not exist—does not manifest in reality, it is a *potentiality*. **It** *is not*.

We will call this **it** which exists if the **bit** is 1 a *toma*. A "toma" is like the philosopher's "atom", in that it is a fundamental indivisible unit of existence, but different in that it can pop into and out of existence. It is not eternal.

Where to now? How do we develop "a *derivation* of the structure of quantum theory from the requirement that everything have a way to come into being[?] ... We can ask ourselves if it is not absolutely preposterous to put into a formula anything at first sight so vague as law without law and substance without substance. How can we hope to move forward with no solid ground at all under our feet?" [3]

We propose to meet this challenge by founding our theory of reality on the *Principle of Dependent Origination* [4]: "Every toma depends for its existence on the existence of other tomas." Recall a toma is a **bit** which, when 1, becomes an **it**, a unit which exists. The principle of dependent origination states that the values of all these **bits** depend on each other. That is, there exist Boolean functions which determine the status of each **bit** taking as input the state of some set of **bits**. As these Boolean functions get evaluated, the status of the **bits** is updated, and the corresponding **its** come into existence or cease to be. Instead of the static, eternal philosopher's "atoms", we have dynamic, interdependent fundamental units, "tomas".

By Occam's razor, there is no global "clock" to synchronize the evaluation of all these Boolean functions. The functions can be evaluated at any time, in any order. The universe, in our view, is just a vast asynchronous network of logical dependencies between tomas.

You may quite reasonably ask, who or what "evaluates" these Boolean functions? By assuming that something must exist which does the evaluating, this question reveals how ingrained the OST model is in our thinking, especially in the form of materialism. A contrasting view, *process philosophy*, with roots in ancient Eastern philosophy [5], has been developed by Whitehead [6] and others [7]. It claims that *processes*, change, relationships are fundamental, and substance or matter, if it even exists and is not mythical as per Quine, is secondary.

In the OST model, *matter* (atoms, particles) is taken as fundamental, and it just happens to undergo change through the occurrence of *processes*. In the process-based toma model, the *processes* (Boolean functions) are fundamental and there just happen to be *tomas* which these processes act on.

Process philosophy has developed into a very rich and complex body of work with many variants. A simple illustration should capture the basic idea at this worldview's core. Consider the question "what is a cat?". In the OST model, we would say that it is a collection of billions of atoms. A furry bag of "stuff" weighing so-and-so much and with such-and-such dimensions embedded at a given location in space. In this model, a dead cat would be essentially the same as a live cat—same dimensions, same weight, same atoms, same place in space. Clearly though, a live cat is **very** different from a dead cat. The OST model does not provide a lens through which we can clearly distinguish a live and dead cat - therefore the OST model is simply incomplete.

Process philosophy answers this question differently. We don't take the cat to be a furry bag of atoms. Instead, we look at it as a *network of processes*: respiration, digestion, circulation, movement, cognition and so on. In this view, a dead cat consists of a dramatically different network of processes to the live cat: cooling, cell breakdown and so on. By placing *process* as the foundation, we can correctly identify the dramatic difference between a live cat and a dead cat.

The contrast between process philosophy and the OST model is even more stark when we consider everyday inanimate objects. Consider a box of matches [8]. On the OST view, this is an arrangement of real physical inanimate matter made up of individual atomic units at defined locations in space which endures in time. In contrast, on the process view, the box of matches is the result of, that is depends on, many processes by which it was manufactured, as well as a set of processes it can give rise to. Thus, the flame which results when a match from the box is struck is already contained in the process description of the box of matches. On the OST view, we see the box of matches *is* some "stuff" somewhere "out there" in space. On the process view, the box of matches is a description of everything that needs to be *done* to create it, and everything it can *do*. Matter *is*, processes *do*.

An analogy with computer science is appropriate. One way to describe a computer program is as a map from the set of all possible input sequences of bits to the set of output sequences of bits which the program generates for each possible input sequence. This corresponds to the OST model—the program takes the form of arrangements of "stuff," bits in this case, of inanimate, concrete units. But there is another way to represent a program, as an *algorithm*—a set of *processes*, transformations, which take place depending on the input and each other and give rise to to the output of the program. This corresponds to the process view—there is no inanimate "stuff", no "matter", but only a network of interdependent processes, a description of how things are created and what they can create. An algorithm, or a network of processes, can be equally well executed on a computer, or with pencil and paper, or using an abacus—it is the network of *processes* that is key, not the "stuff" which performs the processes.

The central tenet of process philosophy can thus be expressed as follows: If you completely describe what an object *does* in relation to what all other objects *do*, that description is a complete specification of what that object *is*—no further specification is necessary *or possible*.

In physics, we almost exclusively look at the world as arrangements of units of matter, of physical "stuff" in space and not at the algorithm, the network of interdependent processes taking place all around us. It is the goal of this paper to show that such a process description of reality can lead to a mathematically precise model of reality which matches the predictions of the current best OST-based fundamental theory of motion—quantum mechanics.

The reader may well still insist that we must provide in the process model something corresponding to physical objects in a physical space. Even if we are to view everyday physical objects (chairs, boxes of matches, socks) as networks of processes, we still must explain why they seem to have a physical size, a physical extension and location in some sort of space. We answer this potential criticism by taking Bohm's [9] view of perception. Bohm points out that we never perceive matter as a thing in itself. What we do perceive are *invariants*. For example, we never "see" a whole pencil, all sides and the interior of it at the same time. Instead, from multiple views of it we infer that the endpoints of the pencil are, say, 20 cm apart in space. This model of perception allows us to view physical objects not as arrangements of "matter" somewhere "out there", but as a set of invariants, or *relationships*, among their parts. On the process view, these relationships or dependencies between the parts of a physical object are a network of processes, which is only one subnetwork of the complete description of the object, which also includes all the processes that give rise to it and it can give rise to, such as the flame contained in the box of matches. We will see in section 5 of this paper that any network of relationships among parts naturally leads to observations (measurements) of the parts being located at points separated by invariant

distances in a three dimensional space. Thus we will recover physical extension in space as a consequence of one part of the description of an object in our process model of reality.

Many authors have noted that adopting a process philosophy viewpoint may be useful in creating a theory of reality that makes sense of quantum phenomena. Folse [10] compares Whitehead's process philosophy with Bohr's principle of complementarity [11]. He summarizes his conclusion thus: "In stipulating that what is described by the state equations of quantum mechanics is not the properties of a substance but a process of interaction which cannot be unarbitrarily subdivided into separate physical systems in determinate states, the framework of complementarity essentially puts the notion of process at the heart of its characterization of the ontological status of the objects of experimental observation, or in other words, of experience." There is a large body of work trying to reframe quantum mechanics in terms of process philosophy, a sample of which is given in the references [12 - 14], but none of these attempts to date which we are aware of have, in our view, been entirely satisfying.

Our model of interdependent tomas is an instance of process philosophy. So, back to the question, "who, or what, evaluates the Boolean functions that determine the status of all the **bits** and **its**?" Answer: nobody—processes are all that there is—they are the fundamental building blocks of reality. The tomas are secondary, a by-product of the processes having to have something to act on.

We develop these ideas as they apply to space, time and quantum mechanics in the remainder of this paper. We begin by introducing a mathematical model of interdependent tomas called an "ontic network" in section 2. We then reinterpret the number system in process terms thus creating the "quantic networks" of section 3. In section 4 we examine the *process* of measurement as being one by which a number (in a quantic network) depends on the state of a system (an ontic network). In section 5 we build on to this to understand what motion is in the process worldview and how velocity can be measured. In the final section, we discuss two key "mysteries" of quantum mechanics: Schrödinger's cat and entanglement, and how these can be straightforwardly understood by taking processes, not substance, as fundamental.

2. Ontic Networks

So far, we have argued that the universe is an interdependent set of tomas which depend on each other to come into, or out of, existence. We will refer to such a set of tomas and dependencies as an *ontic network*. The word "ontic" signifies "related to existence" and the word "network" captures the dependencies among the tomas. We define the terms toma and process dependency as follows:

A *toma* is an entity which can be in one of two states:

  "1" - when it is an indivisible unit which manifests in reality, or *exists*—an *actuality*.
  "0" - when it does not manifest in reality—a *potentiality*.

A *process dependency* is a Boolean function of the states of some subset of all tomas in the ontic network (the *input tomas*) and which is associated with one specific toma, the *dependant* toma.

An *update* is when a dependency function is evaluated, the values of the arguments being the current states of the input tomas. At least one of the input tomas must be in state 1; an update can only occur if at least one input toma exists. The result of the evaluation of the function is

assigned to the dependant toma, replacing its previous state. Through such an update, a toma may come into existence or cease to be. The evolution of the state of an ontic network is the occurrence of an ongoing sequence of updates. The order in which the updates are performed, that is to say, in what order the dependency functions are evaluated, is random, with each possible update having equal probability of being selected to occur next. We justify this mechanism by symmetry: since in accord with process philosophy we view every process as a fundamental and indivisible entity, there is nothing to favor the selection of any one specific process over any other one. If a toma is the dependent toma of more than one process, then its state is the result of the dependency function which was evaluated last: the most recent update "wins."

Each process dependency can be thought of in two ways. First, as a *process*, it is something that brings a toma into or out of existence. Secondly, as a *dependency*, it is that by which a toma's state depends on other tomas' states. Using the term "process" emphasizes the "forward" aspect of a process dependency, from input to the dependant toma. The term "dependency" emphasizes the "reverse" aspect, from the dependant to the input tomas. Both terms, however, should be understood to refer to the same construct, a process dependency.

In order to be able to talk about a specific toma or dependency we will need to refer to it by some label. The primary label of a toma or dependency will be how we refer to it in text and diagrams. For a toma, it will typically be a Latin letter or short piece of descriptive text; while for a dependency it will typically be a lower case Greek letter or short piece of descriptive text.

All tomas and processes in a given ontic network also have a unique *index label* which is a natural number. Consider an ontic network with n tomas and m processes. The tomas' index labels will range from 1 to n, while those of the processes will range from 1 to m. We are not particularly interested in the specific mapping of the tomas to particular values of these numbers. Rather, we will denote the index label of a toma as its primary label indexed with the symbol #. For example, if we have an ontic network with $n = 3$ tomas with primary labels A, B and C, then we refer to their index labels by $A_\#$, $B_\#$ and $C_\#$ respectively. The actual index labels will be 1, 2 and 3, although which specific numerical value corresponds to which specific toma is not important to us. Similarly, a process's index label will be referred to by its primary label indexed with a #.

The state of an ontic network with n tomas is given by a column vector $\boldsymbol{\Theta} \in \mathbb{B}^n$. The entry at row i of $\boldsymbol{\Theta}$ will be denoted $\boldsymbol{\Theta}[i]$. The state of a toma, for example toma B, will be given by $\boldsymbol{\Theta}[B_\#]$. Here, "B" is the primary label of the toma. By adding a # index we make reference to this toma's index label, a unique number which we then use to index the state vector. Thus, if $\boldsymbol{\Theta}[B_\#] = 1$ then toma B exists, and if $\boldsymbol{\Theta}[B_\#] = 0$, it does not.

There is an important nuance here, in that the state of a real ontic network (e.g. the universe) at an instant is, in general, not knowable. Since the network is asynchronous—the updates are performed in a random order—there is no way for any one part of the network to learn the instantaneous state of every other toma in the network. From within the network, therefore, there is no way to capture a global snapshot of the entire network's state.

The only time it makes sense to talk about the state of an ontic network, and to give a specific value for the vector $\boldsymbol{\Theta}$, is when we are dealing with the simulation of such a network (e.g. performed on a computer), or when we study a hypothetical ontic network mathematically. The state of the network is only "visible" from a vantage point "outside" the network, and is meaningless if no such place exists.

Ontic networks lend themselves easily to being visualized. We can draw each toma as an oval with its primary label inside it. Connecting the tomas are the dependencies represented by arrows from the input tomas to the dependent toma. These arrows may, optionally, display the dependency's primary label. Different Boolean dependency functions are represented using standard logic gate symbols. If we wish to indicate the state of a toma, we write a 0 or 1 in a circle placed at the left side of the interior of the oval representing the toma. If the circle is omitted or left blank, the state of the toma is not known, or not significant for the discussion at hand. Examples of diagrams of ontic networks are presented in figures 1 - 4. Note that nothing prevents there being more than one dependency between two tomas, as illustrated in figure 5.

Fig. 1: a) Toma A is in state 1, toma B is in state 0. The function μ is $\boldsymbol{\Theta}[B_\#] := \boldsymbol{\Theta}[A_\#]$.
b) When μ is selected for an update, this function is evaluated and the state of toma B changes to 1.

Fig. 2: A small bubble represents a logical NOT:
a) Tomas A and B are both in state 1. The function μ is $\boldsymbol{\Theta}[B_\#] := \neg\boldsymbol{\Theta}[A_\#]$.
b) When μ is selected for an update, this function is evaluated and the state of toma B changes to 0.

Fig. 3: The logic gate representing the AND operation:
a) Toma A is in state 0, tomas B and C are in state 1. The function μ is
$\boldsymbol{\Theta}[C_\#] := \boldsymbol{\Theta}[A_\#] \wedge \boldsymbol{\Theta}[B_\#]$.
b) When μ is selected for an update, this function is evaluated and the state of toma C changes to 0.

Fig. 4: The logic gate representing the OR operation:
a) Toma B is in state 1, tomas A and C are in state 0. The function μ is
$\boldsymbol{\Theta}[C_\#] := \boldsymbol{\Theta}[A_\#] \vee \boldsymbol{\Theta}[B_\#]$
b) When μ is selected for an update, this function is evaluated and the state of toma C changes to 1.

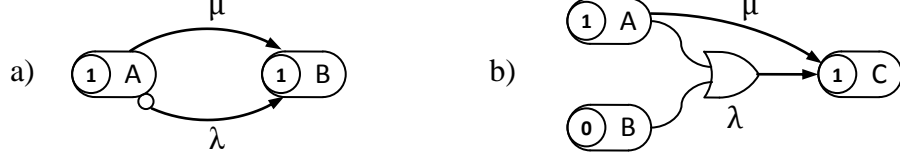Fig. 5: There can be more than one dependency between two tomas:

    a) Tomas A and B are in state 1. The function μ is $\boldsymbol{\Theta}[B_\#] := \boldsymbol{\Theta}[A_\#]$ and λ is $\boldsymbol{\Theta}[B_\#] := \neg\boldsymbol{\Theta}[A_\#]$. Either μ or λ can be randomly selected for an update. If μ is selected, B remains in state 1 but if λ is selected, it changes to state 0. The evolution of the state of the network continues through an ongoing sequence of such selections and updates.

    b) Tomas A and C are in state 1, toma B is in state 0. The function μ is $\boldsymbol{\Theta}[C_\#] := \boldsymbol{\Theta}[A_\#]$ and λ is $\boldsymbol{\Theta}[C_\#] := \boldsymbol{\Theta}[A_\#] \vee \boldsymbol{\Theta}[B_\#]$. Either one can be randomly selected for an update, and the state of the network continues to evolve through an ongoing sequence of such selections and updates.

3. Quantic Networks

To build our ontic network based theory of reality we will first need to develop an ontic network version of the number system, wherein each toma corresponds to a specific numerical value. We will call such an ontic network version of the number system a *quantic network*, indicating that the tomas in this network correspond to specific *quant*ities.

In detail, a quantic network is an ontic network with *n* tomas and *m* processes, together with two functions, $N(i)$ and $D(j)$. For every toma t in the network, $N(t_\#)$ gives the specific numerical value this toma corresponds to. Since ontic networks are fundamentally discrete structures, these values will be integers or vectors of integers.

Furthermore, in a quantic network all the processes are of a very simple kind. Every process has exactly one input toma and one dependant toma. Let the input toma be denoted by p and the dependant toma by q, and let the process's primary label be μ_{pq}. Then all the processes in a quantic network are functions $\boldsymbol{\Theta}[q_\#] := \boldsymbol{\Theta}[p_\#]$. For every process μ_{pq} in the quantic network, $D(\mu_{pq\#})$ gives the difference between the numerical values corresponding to tomas p and q. Specifically:

$$D(\mu_{pq\#}) = N(q_\#) - N(p_\#) \tag{1}$$

An example of a quantic network is shown in figure 6. Let us suppose the state $\boldsymbol{\Theta}$ of the network starts off equal to zero—no tomas exist. We take this as corresponding to a null set of integers. Suppose a process from outside this network, not shown in the figure, brings toma C into existence, by setting $\boldsymbol{\Theta}[C_\#] = 1$. The value corresponding to toma C is 2 because $N(C_\#) = 2$. We take this network as corresponding to the set of integers {2}. Now if process μ_{CA} is selected for an update, toma A will come into existence, and the network will correspond to the set {0, 2}, since $N(A_\#) = 0$. Then if, for example μ_{AB} is selected for an update, toma B will come into existence and the network will correspond to the set {0, 1, 2}. Thus we see each toma can be thought of as a specific value of a number, and each process an increase or decrease of this number by a specific value.

Thus far we have used integers as the specific numerical values which the tomas correspond to. It is straightforward to use vectors of integers of a given dimension instead. Each toma

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will then correspond to a specific value of a vector—that is one in which every entry is a specific value of an integer. The processes connecting the tomas then correspond to vector differences between the vectors corresponding to the tomas. Figure 7 shows an example of such a quantic network, in which the tomas correspond to specific values of two-dimensional vectors of integers.
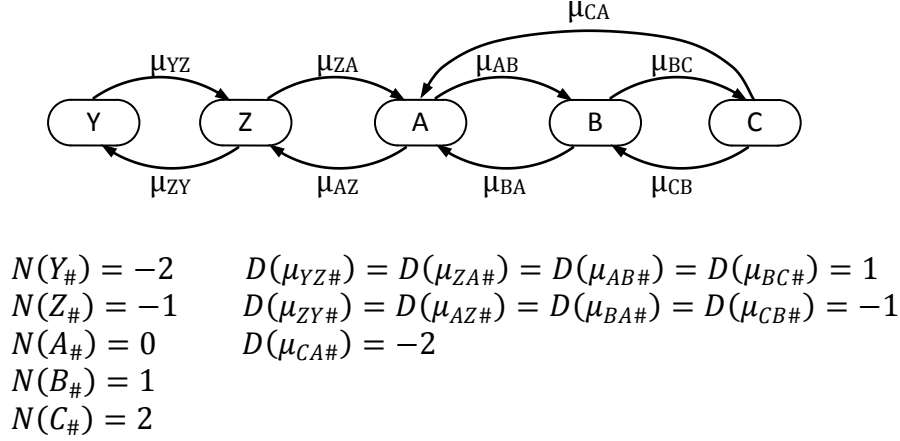

$$N(Y_\#) = -2 \qquad D(\mu_{YZ\#}) = D(\mu_{ZA\#}) = D(\mu_{AB\#}) = D(\mu_{BC\#}) = 1$$
$$N(Z_\#) = -1 \qquad D(\mu_{ZY\#}) = D(\mu_{AZ\#}) = D(\mu_{BA\#}) = D(\mu_{CB\#}) = -1$$
$$N(A_\#) = 0 \qquad D(\mu_{CA\#}) = -2$$
$$N(B_\#) = 1$$
$$N(C_\#) = 2$$

Fig. 6: A quantic network with 6 tomas and 9 processes.

$$N(A_\#) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad D(\mu_{AB\#}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$N(B_\#) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad D(\mu_{AC\#}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$N(C_\#) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad D(\mu_{CD\#}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
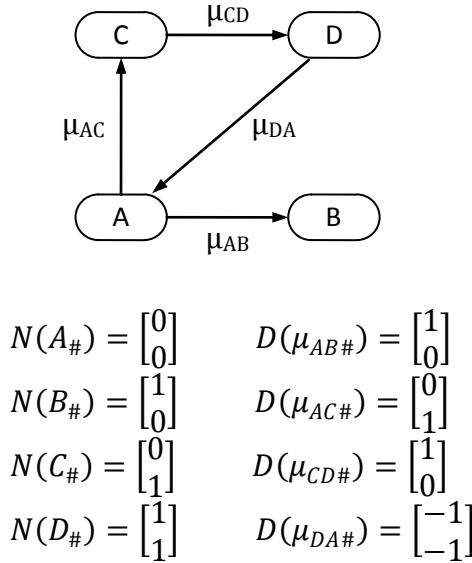$$N(D_\#) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad D(\mu_{DA\#}) = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Fig. 7: A quantic network wherein each toma corresponds to a specific value of two-dimensional vector of integers.

4. Measurement

In physics we perform experiments. In these, a *result* is a numerical quantity that depends on the state of a *system* through a *process of measurement*. Let us now examine each of these three key parts of every experiment in our process worldview using ontic and quantic networks.

A *system* can be defined as a "regularly interacting or interdependent group of items forming a unified whole." [15] This is exactly what an ontic network is—a set of interdependent

items. We will refer to this system ontic network by the script letter $\mathbb{S}$ and its state vector by $\boldsymbol{\theta}$.

A *result* is a numerical quantity; that is, it corresponds to a toma in a quantic network. Only one result can exist at a time, and once a result exists it cannot cease to exist. Therefore, we must use a special type of quantic network. In this type of quantic network, all the tomas start off in state 0, non existing. The dependencies in the network are arranged so that each toma depends for its existence on all the other tomas not existing. Additionally, the dependencies are such that once a toma comes into existence it cannot then cease to exist—it "latches on". We will call such a network a *mutually exclusive*, or for short a *mex* quantic network. We will refer to the mex quantic network in which the result is a toma by the script letter $\mathcal{R}$. Its state vector will be denoted by $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$. If no result exists, as before an experiment is performed, then $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$ is zero. Once a result comes into existence, $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$ will contain exactly one entry equal to 1, with all the other entries 0. The result of the experiment will be the numerical value which corresponds to the toma with the entry equal to 1 through the function $N(i)$ as discussed in section 3.

We define *measurement* as a set of dependencies by which result tomas in $\mathcal{R}$ depend on the system tomas in $\mathbb{S}$. We will call this set of dependencies the *interconnect* and denote it by the script letter $\mathcal{M}$, standing for measurement.

Consider the experiment shown in figure 8. The system $\mathbb{S}$ consists of two tomas A and B each of which can be in state 0 or 1. These states are determined by processes which prepare the system prior to the measurement; they are not shown here as we are only interested in the measurement itself. The state of the system is given by the vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ which may or may not be known to the experimenter.
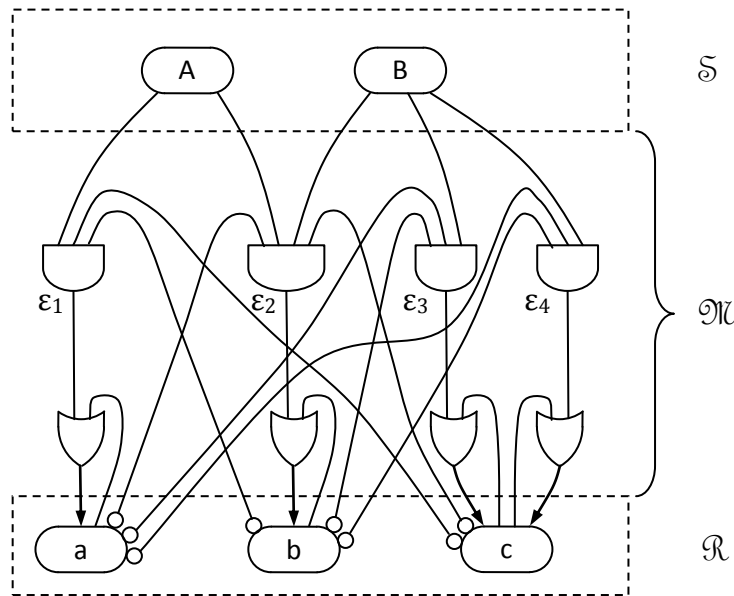

Fig. 8: A measurement of a system $\mathbb{S}$ with two tomas and three possible results in the result quantic network $\mathcal{R}$. The interconnect $\mathcal{M}$ consists of the dependencies of the result tomas on the system tomas. The dashed boxes delimit the tomas belonging to the networks $\mathbb{S}$ and $\mathcal{R}$. Dependencies between tomas within $\mathcal{R}$ have been omitted for

clarity. The OR gates ensure that once a toma in $\mathfrak{R}$ comes to exist it cannot then cease to exist, while the AND gates ensure only one toma in $\mathfrak{R}$ can exist.

The three possible results of this experiment are 1, 2 and 3, corresponding to the tomas a, b and c in the quantic network $\mathfrak{R}$. We denote the state of this network by $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$. Before a measurement is made, the state of this network is zero—no tomas exist in $\mathfrak{R}$; before a measurement is made, there is no result. When a measurement is made, exactly one toma will come into existence. The numerical value corresponding to this toma is what we call the result of the measurement.

While the logic of the mex network $\mathfrak{R}$ is simple, it leads to visual clutter as can be seen in figure 8. We therefore introduce a simplified representation of a mex network in figure 9.
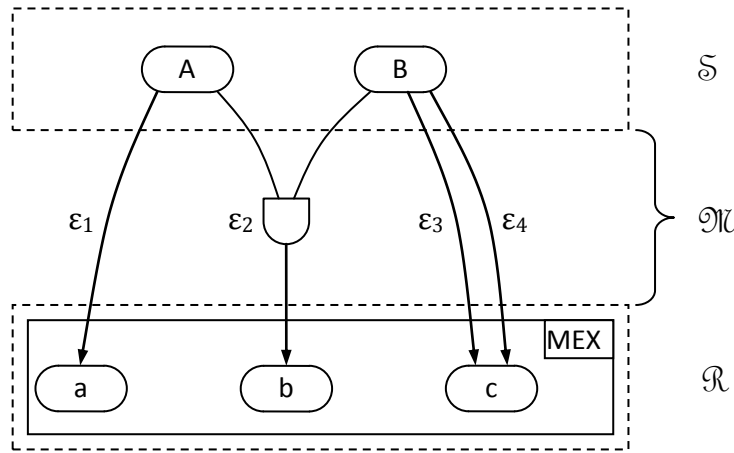

Fig. 9: To reduce visual clutter, we use a solid box labelled mex to indicate the dependencies of the tomas contained in it are structured so that at most one of them can exist, and once it exists it cannot cease to exist. The network shown here is logically identical to that of figure 8.

In our example experiment, there are four processes $\varepsilon_1 \ldots \varepsilon_4$ which constitute the interconnect $\mathfrak{M}$. Through these processes the states of the result tomas in $\mathfrak{R}$ depend on the states of the system tomas in $\mathfrak{S}$. Recall that according to the toma model and process philosophy these processes are the fundamental units of reality and that, by symmetry, any one of them can be selected at random with equal probability for an update during the evolution of the state of the network. That is, any one of these four processes can "happen" first. When one of them does happen, it will bring one toma in $\mathfrak{R}$ into existence. Because $\mathfrak{R}$ is mex, this toma cannot then cease to exist and no other result toma can come into existence. The first result to come into existence is thus "latched on". This corresponds to the common sense notion that once we have made a measurement, the result is fixed.

We see therefore that in the toma model the result of measurement depends on the state of the system in a fundamentally non-deterministic fashion. The core reason for this is that there is nothing to distinguish any one process in the interconnect $\mathfrak{M}$ from any other one, as they are all considered fundamental indivisible units of reality. Thus which process happens first and whose result is "latched on" by the mex network $\mathfrak{R}$ is random. However, since the different result tomas in $\mathfrak{R}$ depend on different subsets and through different Boolean functions of the

system tomas, the state of the system affects the probabilities of each result coming into existence, by affecting which of the processes in $\mathfrak{M}$ can bring a result toma into existence.

Let us examine this in more detail and develop some formalism to keep track of these changing probabilities in our example. The system $\mathfrak{S}$ can be in one of four possible states:

$$\boldsymbol{\Theta}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \boldsymbol{\Theta}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \boldsymbol{\Theta}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \boldsymbol{\Theta}_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{2}$$

where we use the index labels $A_\# = 1$ and $B_\# = 2$ to index the vectors. For the network $\mathfrak{R}$ we will use the index labels $a_\# = 1$, $b_\# = 2$ and $c_\# = 3$.

Let us take each one of these system states in turn. With the system in state $\boldsymbol{\Theta}_1$, both system tomas A and B do not exist. Thus there is no way for any of the result tomas to come into existence. We define the *ways vector* $\boldsymbol{\Phi}$ as a column vector with the same dimensions as the state vector $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$ of the result network $\mathfrak{R}$. The entry at a given row in $\boldsymbol{\Phi}$ is a non-negative integer equal to the number of ways the toma with this row's index label can come into existence with the system in a given state. This is just the number of processes in $\mathfrak{M}$ which can bring the result toma into existence with the system in a given state. In our example, with the system in state $\boldsymbol{\Theta}_1$, the corresponding ways vector will be zero:

$$\boldsymbol{\Phi}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \tag{3}$$

In the system state $\boldsymbol{\Theta}_2$, toma A exists and B does not. The only possible result toma that can come to exist is a, via the process ε_1. Thus the ways vector with the system in this state is:

$$\boldsymbol{\Phi}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \tag{4}$$

In the system state $\boldsymbol{\Theta}_3$, toma B exists but toma A does not. The only result toma that can come into existence is c, and it can do so through either of two processes ε_3 or ε_4. Thus the ways vector with the system in this state is:

$$\boldsymbol{\Phi}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \tag{5}$$

Finally, with the system in state $\boldsymbol{\Theta}_4$ both tomas A and B exist. Any of the result tomas can come into existence. Toma a can do so through one process ε_1, toma b through one process ε_2 and toma c through either of two processes ε_3 or ε_4. The ways vector with the system in this state is therefore:

$$\boldsymbol{\Phi}_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \tag{6}$$

Let r be the number of tomas in the result network $\mathfrak{R}$. In our example from figures 8 and 9, $r = 3$. We define the 1-normalized ways vector $\boldsymbol{\Phi}'$ as:

$$\Phi' = \frac{\Phi}{\sum_{i=1}^{r} \Phi[i]} \tag{7}$$

Given a result toma t, the entry $\Phi'[t_\#]$ gives the probability that toma t will come into existence first and become "latched on" in the mex result network. Thus, this entry is the probability that the result of the measurement is the numerical value corresponding to t, namely $N(t_\#)$. We represent this probability by $P(N(t_\#))$ so that:

$$P(N(t_\#)) = \Phi'[t_\#] \tag{8}$$

In our example, the 1-normalized ways vectors corresponding to each of the four possible system states are:

$$\Phi'_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \Phi'_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \Phi'_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \Phi'_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.25 \\ 0.25 \\ 0.5 \end{bmatrix} \tag{9}$$

With the system in state Θ_1 we see Φ'_1 is zero and so no result toma can come into existence. We see from Φ'_2 that with the system in state Θ_2 toma a will come to exist with probability 1. With the system in state Θ_3 we see from Φ'_3 that toma c will come to exist with probability 1, Examining Φ'_4 we see that when the system is in state Θ_4, result tomas a and b each have a 0.25 probability of coming into existence, while toma c has a 0.5 probability of doing so. Therefore, in a large number of runs of the experiment with the system in state Θ_4 we expect the result of the measurement to be 1 in a quarter of the runs, 2 in another quarter, and 3 in the remaining half of the runs. These results (1, 2, 3) are the numerical values corresponding to each result toma, respectively: $N(a_\#)$, $N(b_\#)$ and $N(c_\#)$.

When working with vectors it is more common to normalize them using the 2-norm:

$$|a| = \sqrt{\sum_i (a[i])^2} \tag{10}$$

rather than the 1-norm as we used in equation (7). So that we can rewrite that equation using the 2-norm, we define a vector Ψ, called the *wavefunction*, of the same dimensions as the ways vector Φ and with elements given by:

$$\forall_{i \in \{1,2,...,r\}} \quad \Psi[i] = \sqrt{\Phi[i]} \tag{11}$$

We can normalize the wavefunction Ψ using the 2-norm:

$$\widehat{\Psi} = \frac{\Psi}{|\Psi|} \tag{12}$$

Given a toma t in the result network $\mathfrak{R}$ and using equations (10), (11) and (12) we find that:

$$\widehat{\Psi}[t_\#] = \frac{\Psi[t_\#]}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{r}(\Psi[i])^2}} = \frac{\sqrt{\Phi[t_\#]}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{r} \Phi[i]}} \tag{13}$$

and so using equations (7), (8) and (13) we have:

$$\left(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}[t_\#]\right)^2 = \frac{\boldsymbol{\Phi}[t_\#]}{\sum_{i=1}^{r} \boldsymbol{\Phi}[i]} = \boldsymbol{\Phi}'[t_\#] = P(N(t_\#)) \qquad (14)$$

Now let us define an $r{\times}r$ diagonal matrix $\boldsymbol{X}$ as follows:

$$\boldsymbol{X} = \begin{bmatrix} N(1) & & & \\ & N(2) & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & N(r) \end{bmatrix}_{r{\times}r} \qquad (15)$$

The entries on the diagonal of $\boldsymbol{X}$ are the numerical values corresponding to each result toma in the quantic network $\mathfrak{R}$. This matrix has r eigenvectors $\boldsymbol{\Psi}_1 \dots \boldsymbol{\Psi}_r$ such that:

$$\forall_{i \in \{1,2,\dots,r\}} \quad \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\Psi}_i = N(i)\boldsymbol{\Psi}_i \qquad (16)$$

where the eigenvectors are given by:

$$\forall_{i,j \in \{1,2,\dots,r\}} \quad \boldsymbol{\Psi}_i[j] = \begin{cases} 1 & if \quad i = j \\ 0 & if \quad i \neq j \end{cases} \qquad (17)$$

We note that for any normalized wavefunction $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}$ we have:

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}\boldsymbol{X}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}} = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}[i]N(i)\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}[i] = \sum_{i=1}^{r} N(i)P(N(i)) \qquad (18)$$

which is the average numerical result of measurement we expect to obtain from a large number of runs of the experiment. We refer to this average as the *expectation value* and denote it by $\langle X \rangle$ so that:

$$\langle X \rangle = \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}\boldsymbol{X}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}} \qquad (19)$$

Let us now summarize the above toma-based theory of measurement and compare it to the quantum mechanical idea of the "collapse of the wavefunction". In the toma model of measurement, there is no result until the measurement is made. This is a radical departure from the OST model, in which we believe all things have well-defined properties, whether or not we have measured them. We see in the toma model that a result of measurement comes into existence only as a result of a *process* happening in the measurement interconnect $\mathfrak{M}$. Which of these processes happens is, by symmetry, random, thus explaining the deep reason why measurement is non-deterministic. The probability of obtaining a given result with the system in a given state is given by the square of the corresponding entry in the normalized wavefunction—see equation (14). If the wavefunction is one of the eigenvectors $\boldsymbol{\Psi}_i$, we know the result of measurement will be $N(i)$ with probability 1. The average result we would obtain in a large number of runs of the experiment is the expectation value given by equation (19), which is the toma model equivalent of the quantum mechanical equation for the expectation value:

$$\langle X \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{\Psi}|\boldsymbol{X}|\boldsymbol{\Psi} \rangle \qquad (20)$$

In the toma model, the wavefunction is related via equation (11) to the number of processes in $\mathfrak{M}$ that can bring each result toma into existence. In quantum mechanics, we call the

wavefunction the "state of the system". In the toma model, it is more accurate to call it the "state of the experiment", this encompassing the entire ontic network made up of the system network $\mathbb{S}$, the result network $\mathfrak{R}$ and the interconnect $\mathfrak{M}$.

In the OST model, when we measure, say, x = 42, we think x must "be" 42 "out there" as a property of some physical "stuff." We believe that our *model* of the world "x = 42," derived from observations, is how things *really* are "out there." In the process view, "x = 42" is not a property of any "stuff" but just one possible toma that can come to exist depending on what processes happen, and how they relate to each other.

In quantum mechanics, we would call a wavefunction with more than one non-zero entry a "superposition of states" or a "mixed state". Then, when a measurement is made, we would say that the wavefunction "collapsed" so it only has one non-zero entry, corresponding to the actual value of measurement obtained. This terminology is influenced heavily by the OST model, wherein every thing, every system, "has" a determinate state. In contrast, in the toma model, we don't view such a mixed wavefunction as a superposition of system states; rather we see it as as accounting of the number of different processes in the interconnect $\mathfrak{M}$ which can bring each result toma into existence. The wavefunction, in the toma view, is a distillation of the structure of the experimental ontic network composed of $\mathbb{S}$, $\mathfrak{R}$ and $\mathfrak{M}$ which contains only the information needed to compute the probabilities of each result through equation (14).

The wavefunction as discussed in this section is a vector of real numbers, while we know that in quantum mechanics the wavefunction is a complex vector. The reason for this is that in this section we have not considered motion or time. In the next section we see how we can understand motion and time in the toma model. We will derive time-evolution equations and find these equations introduce an imaginary component to the wavefunction, and so we will end up with complex wavefunctions as in quantum theory.

5. Motion, Space and Time

Motion is a process in a system $\mathbb{S}$. A key property of motion is that it has a start and an end—a motion is from *here* to *there*. That is, motion is a process in the network $\mathbb{S}$ from a single specified input toma A to a specific dependant toma B. Recall from section 2 that in general a process in an ontic network can have any number of input tomas. Therefore, not all processes in the network can be considered to be motion. In this section of this paper, we will focus on how to measure *motion-type processes*, that is those with just one input toma.

The simplest such process between two tomas A and B is one with the dependency function $\boldsymbol{\Theta}[B_\#] := \boldsymbol{\Theta}[A_\#]$. This we call a *1-hop* motion and it is illustrated in figure 10a. We can also have a motion-type process made up of several 1-hop motions in series, as shown in figure 10b. If such a *multi-hop* motion is made up of h 1-hop motions, we call it an *h-hop* motion.

Fig. 10: Examples of motion-type processes:
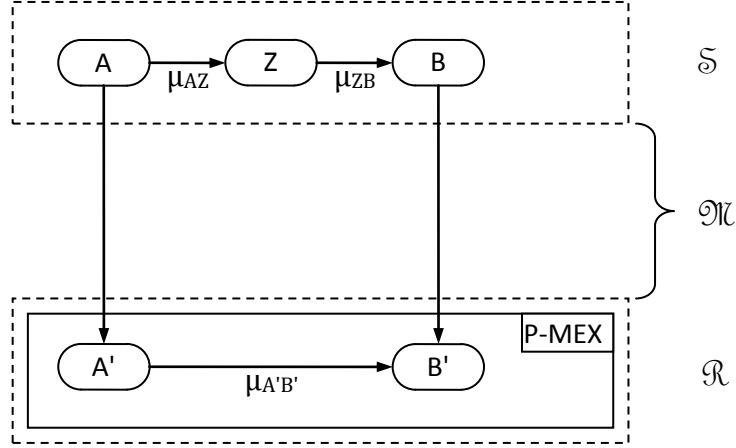   a) a 1-hop motion from A to B,
       b) a 3-hop motion from A to B.

Fig. 11: A simple system $\mathbb{S}$ consists of one 2-hop motion from A to B. These endpoints give rise to two numerical results in the quantic network $\mathfrak{R}$ through the interconnect $\mathfrak{M}$. The p-mex nature of $\mathfrak{R}$ ensures the two results always correspond to the endpoints of the *same* motion-type process in $\mathbb{S}$ in cases where the system consists of more than just one motion-type process as shown here. See text for details.

To measure a motion-type process, we need to make two measurements, one of the start toma and one of the end toma. Therefore, the result network $\mathfrak{R}$ must be structured so that at most *two* tomas corresponding to numerical quantities can come to exist in it. Consider figure 11 which illustrates a measurement of a process. As before, the network $\mathfrak{R}$ starts with all tomas in state 0, without existence. When a process in $\mathfrak{M}$ occurs, with its input toma in the system denoted A, a toma, denoted A', will come into existence in $\mathfrak{R}$ and become "latched on". The interconnect $\mathfrak{M}$ is structured so that this toma's existence will disable all processes in $\mathfrak{M}$ except those whose input tomas are the end tomas of motion-type processes in the system with the start toma A, such as toma B in figure 11. One of the remaining processes which has not been disabled will occur and another toma in $\mathfrak{R}$, denoted B', will come into existence and be "latched on". The logic of the network $\mathfrak{R}$ ensures that once two tomas in it exist, no more can come to exist. We call a network structured in this way for measuring *processes* a *p-mex* network, and indicate it visually as a box labelled P-MEX as in figure 11. The key point of this paragraph is that to measure a process of motion, we make *two* numerical measurements, one of the start toma and one of the end toma of the *same* motion-type process.

Now that we know that to measure motion we use a p-mex network $\mathfrak{R}$, let us discuss the type of numerical values and changes in values that correspond via the functions $N(i)$ and $D(j)$ to the tomas and processes in $\mathfrak{R}$.

The guiding principle in structuring $\mathfrak{R}$ is what we call *faithfulness*: for any motion-type process in $\mathbb{S}$ there exists a corresponding process of change in numerical value in $\mathfrak{R}$. That is, there is a map from the set of all motion-type processes in $\mathbb{S}$ to the set of all change-of-numerical-value processes in $\mathfrak{R}$. Consider any two tomas A and B in $\mathbb{S}$ with a process μ_{AB} connecting them. A' and B' are tomas in $\mathfrak{R}$ which depend on A and B respectively through $\mathfrak{M}$. Faithfulness requires that there is a change-of-numerical-value process $\mu_{A'B'}$ in $\mathfrak{R}$ such that $|D(\mu_{A'B'\#})| > 0$. This must hold for all pairs of tomas in $\mathbb{S}$ with a process connecting them.

We justify the principle of faithfulness by noting that not all possible interconnects between a system and a network of results will yield useful measurements. A theoretical physicist in the lab may successfully form a network of dependencies between results and a system; yet if the experiment is not well-conducted, the results will not reflect the processes taking place in the system; the results will not be faithful. In theoretical work, we assume that $\mathfrak{S}$, $\mathfrak{M}$ and $\mathfrak{R}$ are structured to be faithful.

A further important point about the result quantic network $\mathfrak{R}$ is that no processes of change in numerical value in it can "intersect". To explain what we mean by this, consider any pair of motion-type processes in $\mathfrak{S}$, μ_{AB} (from A to B) and μ_{CD} (from C to D). These are faithful via $\mathfrak{M}$ to two processes of change in numerical value $\mu_{A'B'}$ and $\mu_{C'D'}$ in $\mathfrak{R}$. If the numerical quantity corresponding to each toma in $\mathfrak{R}$ is an n-dimensional vector, then we can think of the processes $\mu_{A'B'}$ and $\mu_{C'D'}$ as line segments with endpoints $\left(N(A'_\#), N(B'_\#)\right)$ and $\left(N(C'_\#), N(D'_\#)\right)$ in n-dimensional space. We require that for any pair of motion-type process in $\mathfrak{S}$, which have no tomas in common, the corresponding line segments in the n-dimensional space do not intersect. This is because if there existed a point of intersection in common to both line segments, it would correspond to a numerical value which belongs to both motions μ_{AB} and μ_{CD}; yet we assumed these motions have nothing (i.e. no tomas) in common. The lowest dimension in which such a non-intersecting faithfulness can be maintained between an arbitrary system network and a quantic network whose tomas correspond to n-dimensional vectors is $n = 3$. This follows from the standard result in graph theory that any network can be embedded in 3-dimensional space with no links crossing, but not in a space of less than 3 dimensions.

So far, we have argued that the tomas in $\mathfrak{R}$ should correspond to 3-vectors. Each toma then corresponds to a point in a 3D space, and each motion in the system to a line segment connecting the endpoints. There is, however, one more property of every motion-type process in the system which we need to measure. This is the number of hops h in the motion-type process between the start and the end system tomas. Only when we include the quantity h in our results in the network $\mathfrak{R}$ can we say we have measured everything there is to know about a motion in a system.

Let us refer back to figure 11. Consider the two result tomas A' and B', and especially the process of change in numerical value $\mu_{A'B'}$ connecting them. This process must now reflect parallel changes in two quantities: the change in the 3-vector corresponding to the start and end tomas (i.e. $D(\mu_{A'B'\#})$), and the change Δh in the number of hops that have occurred in the motion ($\Delta h = 2$ in the example of figure 11). That is, B' must be able to be thought of, equivalently, as Δh hops away from A' or as a point $N(B'_\#)$ in 3-space separated by $D(\mu_{A'B'\#})$ from the point $N(A'_\#)$.

This naturally leads us to consider using 4-vectors instead of the 3-vectors as the numerical values which correspond to the tomas in the result network $\mathfrak{R}$. The 4-vector corresponding to toma A' in $\mathfrak{R}$ is given by the function $N_4(A')$ and the change in value corresponding to a process $\mu_{A'B'}$ by $D_4(\mu_{A'B'\#})$. If the components of the 3-vector corresponding to a toma A' are x, y and z:

$$N(A'_\#) = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} \tag{21}$$

then the 4-vector $N_4(A'_\#)$ is given by:

$$N_4(A'_\#) = \begin{bmatrix} sh \\ x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} \tag{22}$$

where *s* is a constant. It is as if we are gluing together one "ruler" for measuring the number of hops, and one for measuring the distance in 3-space. The constant *s* is the relative size (scaling) of the distances between the graduations of one ruler with respect to those of the other.

As discussed above, B' must be Δh hops away from A'. Taking the scaling into consideration, we obtain:

$$N_4(B'_\#) = N_4(A'_\#) + \begin{bmatrix} s\Delta h \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \tag{23}$$

and, equivalently, B' must be $D(\mu_{A'B'\#}) = \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x \\ \Delta y \\ \Delta z \end{bmatrix}$ away from A' in 3-space:

$$N'_4(B'_\#) = N_4(A'_\#) + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \Delta x \\ \Delta y \\ \Delta z \end{bmatrix} \tag{24}$$

The distance between a point and itself in this space must be 0, so we must have:

$$|N_4(B'_\#) - N'_4(B'_\#)| = 0 \tag{25}$$

Substituting equation (23) and (24) into the above gives:

$$\left\| \begin{bmatrix} s\Delta h \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \Delta x \\ \Delta y \\ \Delta z \end{bmatrix} \right\| = 0 \tag{26}$$

so:

$$(s\Delta h)^2 + (\Delta x)^2 + (\Delta y)^2 + (\Delta z)^2 = 0 \tag{27}$$

Given that $\Delta h \geq 1$ for any motion-type process, equation (27) can only hold if one or more of the variables in it is complex. We choose by convention to make *h* purely imaginary, and keep *x*, *y* and *z* real. We do this by making the substitution $h = it$ where $i = \sqrt{-1}$.
Our 4-vectors now become:

$$N_4(A'_\#) = \begin{bmatrix} ist \\ x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} \tag{28}$$

and equation (27) becomes:

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$$-(s\Delta t)^2 + (\Delta x)^2 + (\Delta y)^2 + (\Delta z)^2 = 0 \tag{29}$$

which can hold even if $\Delta t \geq 1$. Rearranging, we obtain:

$$(\Delta x)^2 + (\Delta y)^2 + (\Delta z)^2 = (s\Delta t)^2 \tag{30}$$

or:

$$|D(\mu_{A'\,B'\,\#})| = s\Delta t \tag{31}$$

We recognize this is the fundamental equation of Newtonian kinematics: the magnitude of the displacement in 3-space is equal to a real number s times the change in time. We thus identify s as the *speed* of the motion. We also recognize we are working in a Newtonian space of three dimensions and, as we are only considering a single motion, a single global fourth time dimension. Starting with equation (29) we could develop a Minkowskian spacetime instead, but this would take us beyond the focus of the present paper on non-relativistic quantum mechanics, and so will be deferred to a future paper.

The fundamental reason time enters equation (29) with a negative sign is that the end of a motion must be "reachable" both through a passage of time or a change in position in space. If we imagine ourselves "at" the start of a motion, we can either make h hops (i.e. wait a duration of time) or we can change our position in space; yet in both cases we must end up at the same end point. Motion in spacetime is thus the parallel occurrence of two processes: a change of position $D(\mu_{A'\,B'\,\#})$ and a change in time Δt, both of which terminate at the same endpoint. Spacetime is simply the set of all possible numerical results of measurements of motion in a system. The system is not a "thing" *in* spacetime as the OST model has it. Rather, in the toma model, the system is an ontic network which is depended on by, that is gives rise to, a quantic network of possible results of measurements of motion—and it is this result quantic network which corresponds to the "spacetime" of the OST model.

Let us now use the insights of section 4 of this paper to study the probabilities of obtaining the various possible results of measurements of motion. As discussed in that section, the structure of the networks $\mathfrak{S}$, $\mathfrak{M}$ and $\mathfrak{R}$ can be distilled down to a wavefunction $\boldsymbol{\Psi}$ such that the probability of getting a result corresponding to toma A', given that previously no result tomas existed, is:

$$P\big(N(A'_{\#})\big) = \big(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}[A'_{\#}]\big)^2 \tag{32}$$

Unlike in section 4, in this section our result network is p-mex. Given that the first result toma to come to exist in $\mathfrak{R}$ is A', only one of a subset of all remaining tomas may now come into existence. Recall that the first result toma A' (which depends on the system toma A) coming into existence has the effect of disabling all the processes in $\mathfrak{M}$ other than those starting at tomas which are end tomas for motion-type processes starting at A. That is, both results have to belong to the endpoints of the same motion in the system, so once a specific start toma is measured (via a process in $\mathfrak{M}$ happening), only end tomas of motions sharing this start toma may be measured.

Thus, the probabilities of which second result toma will come to exist depend on which first result toma came to exist. To keep track of this, let us define an $r \times r$ matrix $\boldsymbol{F}$, where r is the number of tomas in the result network $\mathfrak{R}$:

$$\boldsymbol{F} \equiv [F_{jk}]_{r \times r} \tag{33}$$

where F_{jk} is 1 if the result toma with index label equal to k is not disabled from coming into existence if the first result toma to come to exist was the one with index label equal to j, and 0 otherwise. The matrix $\boldsymbol{F}$ captures the structure of which end tomas are connected to which start tomas by motion-type processes in the system. Let us now define another $r \times r$ matrix $\boldsymbol{G}$:

$$\boldsymbol{G} \equiv [G_{jk}]_{r \times r} \tag{34}$$

where the elements are given by:

$$G_{jk} = \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}[j]F_{jk}\,\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}[k] \tag{35}$$

By equation (32) we see that:

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}[j]G_{jk}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}[k] = P\big(N(j)\big)P\big(N(k)\big)F_{jk} \tag{36}$$

Consider the quantity given by:

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}\boldsymbol{GX}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}} = \sum_{j=1}^{r}\sum_{k=1}^{r} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}[j]G_{jk}\,N(k)\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}[k] = \sum_{j=1}^{r}\sum_{k=1}^{r} P\big(N(j)\big)P\big(N(k)\big)F_{jk}\,N(k) \tag{37}$$

with $\boldsymbol{X}$ defined in formula (15). Let us introduce the notation:

$$P(j \to k) \equiv P\big(N(j)\big)P\big(N(k)\big)F_{jk} \tag{38}$$

which gives the probability of the two tomas with index labels j and k both coming into existence in $\Re$, these being measurements of the endpoints of the same motion-type process in the system. Using this notation, we can write equation (37) as:

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}\boldsymbol{GX}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}} = \sum_{j=1}^{r}\sum_{k=1}^{r} P(j \to k)N(k) \tag{39}$$

Similarly, it can be shown that:

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}\boldsymbol{XG}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}} = \sum_{j=1}^{r}\sum_{k=1}^{r} P(j \to k)N(j) \tag{40}$$

Therefore:

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}(\boldsymbol{GX} - \boldsymbol{XG})\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}} = \sum_{j=1}^{r}\sum_{k=1}^{r} P(j \to k)(N(k) - N(j)) \tag{41}$$

Now, $N(k) - N(j)$ is the change between the 3-vectors corresponding to the start and end tomas, which we denote:

$$\Delta X(j \to k) \equiv N(k) - N(j) \tag{42}$$

Also, let:

$$[G, X] \equiv XG - XG \tag{43}$$

We can now write equation (41) as:

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}[\boldsymbol{G}, \boldsymbol{X}]\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}} = \sum_{j=1}^{r} \sum_{k=1}^{r} P(j \to k)\Delta X(j \to k) \tag{44}$$

This is just the average change ΔX we expect to measure in a large number of runs of the experiment. We denote this average by (compare with equation (19)):

$$\langle \Delta X \rangle = \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}[\boldsymbol{G}, \boldsymbol{X}]\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}} \tag{45}$$

So far, we have only looked at changes in the 3-vectors corresponding to the start and end tomas. Let us now incorporate the fourth dimension we discussed above, namely the number of hops in a motion. We denote this change between two result tomas with index labels j and k as follows:

$$\Delta h(j \to k) \equiv N_4(k)[0] - N_4(j)[0] \tag{46}$$

Now let us define one more $r \times r$ matrix:

$$\boldsymbol{H} \equiv [H_{jk}]_{\boldsymbol{r} \times \boldsymbol{r}} \tag{47}$$

with elements:

$$H_{jk} = \frac{G_{jk}}{\Delta h(j \to k)} \tag{48}$$

By a derivation similar to that of equation (41), it can be shown that:

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}[\boldsymbol{H}, \boldsymbol{X}]\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}} = \sum_{j=1}^{r} \sum_{k=1}^{r} P(j \to k)\frac{\Delta X(j \to k)}{\Delta h(j \to k)} \tag{49}$$

which is the average change between the 3-vectors corresponding to the start and end tomas divided by the number of hops between them. Using $h = it$, we can define the average velocity:

$$\langle V \rangle \equiv \left\langle \frac{\Delta X}{\Delta t} \right\rangle = i \left\langle \frac{\Delta X}{\Delta h} \right\rangle = \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}(i[\boldsymbol{H}, \boldsymbol{X}])\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}} \tag{50}$$

By following a similar derivation, but considering two sequential motion-type processes in the system instead of just one as we did above, we can show the expectation value of the acceleration to be:

$$\langle A \rangle = \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}(i[\boldsymbol{H}, \boldsymbol{V}])\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}} \tag{51}$$

where:

$$\boldsymbol{V} = i[\boldsymbol{H}, \boldsymbol{X}] \tag{52}$$

We recognize equations (50) and (51) as the Heisenberg picture equations of motion of quantum mechanics, with *H* as the Hamiltonian, and units chosen so that $\hbar = 1$. We have thus derived the equations underpinning quantum mechanics, from which Schrödinger's equation follows, by viewing the universe as an ontic network of processes.

Note that in our model time is discrete, not continuous. That is, every change in time Δt is small but finite and the velocity and acceleration given by equations (50) and (51) are not true derivatives. They are not "instantaneous" measurements over an "infinitesimal" change in the system, but rather over a finite discrete process. This has important consequences. To measure the velocity or acceleration we will necessarily take measurements a finite time apart; therefore, we will obtain different results if we first measure position, then velocity, or velocity first, then position. The Heisenberg uncertainty principle follows directly from this non-commutation of velocity and position [16]. By viewing the universe as a vast network of finite discrete processes we see the deep reason why this non-commutation is inescapable, why there is no such property of an object as a determined "instantaneous" velocity of it through some background all-permeating "space", and thus why quantum mechanics must be true.

6. Discussion

In this section we discuss two situations where the "weirdness" of quantum mechanics is most clearly manifested: the Schrödinger's cat thought experiment and quantum entanglement. We will see in all these cases that the "weirdness" arises only because we are accustomed to using the Objects in Space and Time (OST) model of reality. We will show how switching to using the process-based ontic network model resolves this weirdness, and, in our view, makes quantum phenomena appear intuitive and inescapable.

Let us begin with the Schrödinger's cat thought experiment: "A cat is placed in a steel chamber, together with the following hellish contraption ... In a Geiger counter there is a tiny amount of radioactive substance, so tiny that maybe within an hour one of the atoms decays, but equally probably none of them decays. If one decays then the counter triggers and via a relay activates a little hammer which breaks a container of cyanide. If one has left this entire system for an hour, then one would say the cat is living if no atom decayed. The first decay would have poisoned it. The wave function of the entire system would express this by *containing equal parts of the living and dead cat.*" [17] (italics added)

When we use the OST model, we picture that there is a cat made of physical "stuff" somewhere "out there" with its own independent physical existence, and in a well-defined state: either dead *or* alive. Yet, as Schrödinger points out, the wavefunction describing this system contains equal parts of live and dead cat. This superposition of two mutually exclusive states for a cat to be in is simply nonsensical when seen in the OST model. We conclude, therefore, that the OST model is an incorrect account of reality and switch to the process-based ontic network model we introduced in this paper.

In the process view, the Schrödinger's cat apparatus is not to be thought of as physical "stuff" in space and time. Instead, we focus on the key *processes* in the apparatus and how they depend on each other. One of two things can happen with the radioactive atoms: there can be a radioactive decay (which process we denote by α) or there can be no radioactive decay (which process we denote β). Only one of these two processes can happen - if one happens, the other is barred from happening by its logical structure (dependency function). The cat is involved in two possible processes: if there is no decay, the cat will live (which process we

label γ), or if there is a decay, the cat will be poisoned (which process we label by δ). From these four key processes, we can build an ontic network model of the thought experiment, as is shown in figure 12.

In the ontic network model, the process α is the function
$\boldsymbol{\Theta}[NOT\_DECAYED_{\#}] := \boldsymbol{\Theta}[ATOMS_{\#}] \wedge \neg\boldsymbol{\Theta}[DECAYED_{\#}]$.
Process β is $\boldsymbol{\Theta}[DECAYED_{\#}] := \boldsymbol{\Theta}[ATOMS_{\#}] \wedge \neg\boldsymbol{\Theta}[NOT\_DECAYED_{\#}]$.
Meanwhile, process γ is $\boldsymbol{\Theta}[LIVED_{\#}] := \boldsymbol{\Theta}[CAT_{\#}] \wedge \boldsymbol{\Theta}[NOT\_DECAYED_{\#}]$
and δ is $\boldsymbol{\Theta}[DIED_{\#}] := \boldsymbol{\Theta}[CAT_{\#}] \wedge \boldsymbol{\Theta}[DECAYED_{\#}]$.
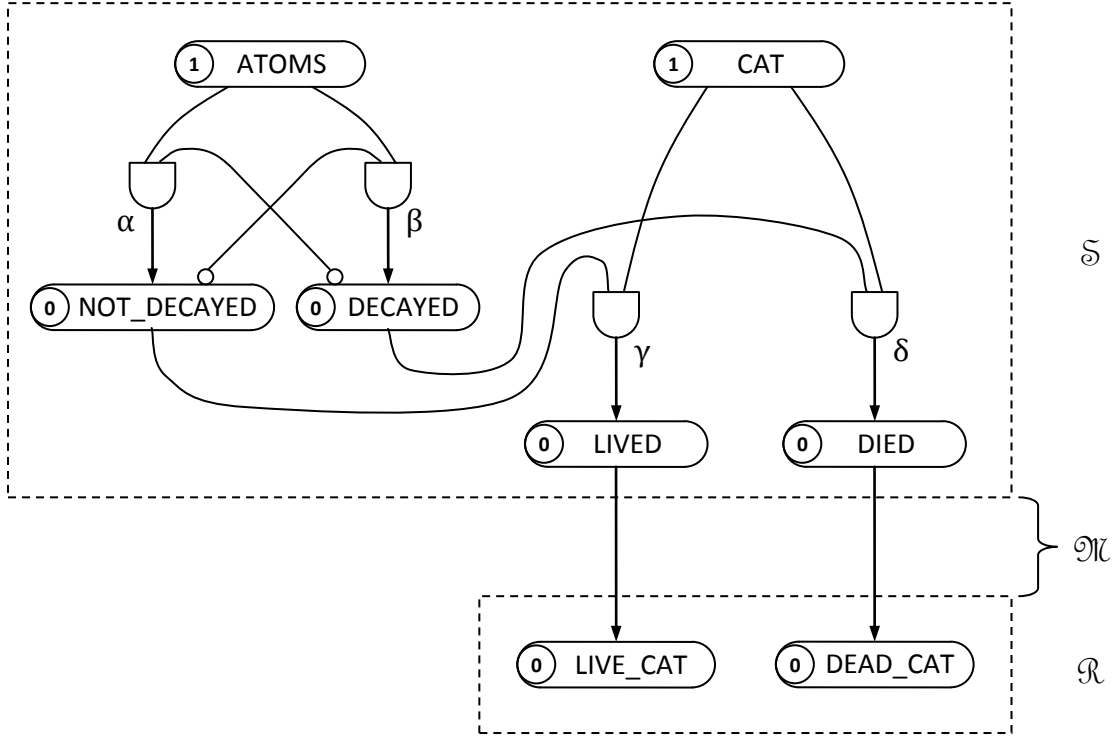

Fig. 12: An ontic network model of the Schrödinger's cat thought experiment, showing the states of the tomas at the start of the experiment. See text for details.

In contrast, in the OST model, β corresponds to one of the atoms undergoing decay at some determinate instant of time between the start time and the end time of the experiment. Meanwhile, α corresponds to there being no decay for the entire duration of the experiment. In the process view, we do not picture the atoms "out there" sitting in space and time and decaying at some specific time. Instead, we take the two processes that can happen as fundamental, and demote space and time to being just a quantic network of results of measurement.

The CAT and ATOMS tomas, as all tomas, should not be thought of as physical objects somewhere "out there." Rather, they are just placeholders whose only ontological status is as anchors, or endpoints, for processes. It is the processes that carry the entire ontological burden in our model; the tomas are just a convenient tool, a type of notation we use to describe the relations among the processes.

We see that at the start of the experiment, only the ATOMS and CAT tomas exist. Given this starting state, the only processes that can happen are β bringing DECAYED into existence, or α bringing NOT_DECAYED into existence. Once one of these two processes happens, at

random with equal probability, the other is precluded from happening by the logic of these processes. Thus the tomas DECAYED and NOT_DECAYED are mutually exclusive.

Meanwhile, the cat will live for the whole experiment (γ) only if α happens, but will be poisoned and die (δ) only if β happens. Us seeing a live cat when we open the box (LIVE_CAT) depends on γ happening, and seeing a dead cat (DEAD_CAT) depends on δ happening. Taken as a whole network, and given the starting state shown in figure 12, we see there is one way for the result LIVE_CAT to come to exist, and one way for the result DEAD_CAT to come to exist, and these results are mutually exclusive due to the logic of α and β.

Now recall from section 4 that the wavefunction is just an appropriately normalized ways vector accounting for the number of ways each result can come into existence. Thus the wavefunction in our analysis does contain equal parts of the two possible results, in accord with the italicized portion of the Schrödinger quote above. However, in the ontic network model, unlike in the OST model, it is not the physical cat that is in a nonsensical "superposition" of being alive and dead simultaneously. Rather, we see the wavefunction as an accounting for there being two possible mutually exclusive *processes* that can take place: the cat living and the cat, having lived, being poisoned and dying. It is these potential processes that are in a "superposition", until one of them *happens* at random, thereby bringing a result (observation) toma into existence and thereby "collapsing the wavefunction". It is not that the cat *is* dead or alive; it is that it can *do* one of two things: live or die. It is wrong to think, as the OST model insists, that the cat exists "out there" even if it is in a closed chamber. All we really know about the chamber which we have built for this experiment is what processes can happen in it and how they depend on each other. The OST view that there "is" a cat in the chamber "out there" is a model in our heads of the world around us; it is not the world itself. The real world in itself is the network of processes that can take place in the experiment.

The OST model's insistence on the independent reality and fundamental nature of some physical "stuff" somewhere "out there" is what Whitehead, a key process philosopher, referred to as the *fallacy of misplaced concreteness* [18, 19]. It is by committing this fallacy that the OST model introduces the "weirdness" into the Schrödinger's cat thought experiment. If some physical states of some substance are fundamental, then clearly it makes no sense to talk about a cat that is in two states at once. Instead, in the process view, we understand that it is the two possible processes which are in a "superposition" until one of them happens. In our view, it is the processes that are fundamental and *the* basic ontological unit. We do not arbitrarily introduce the existence of matter, thereby committing the fallacy of misplaced concreteness, and then become puzzled when this invented physical matter seems to act weirdly and exist in a nonsensical "superposition". As we stated in the introduction of this paper, once you describe all the possible processes and their interactions, that suffices as a complete description of any system. You do not need to invent some "stuff" existing "out there" with its own independent existence.

Now we will consider quantum entanglement in an EPR-Bohm [20, 21] type of experiment. An ontic network model of an EPR-Bohm style experiment is shown in figure 13, with the states of the tomas as they are at the start of the experiment. Consider the system toma A which exists. From this toma two motion-type processes emerge, μ_L towards the left, ending at toma L, and μ_R towards the right, ending at toma R. As this ontic network evolves through updates, two motions take place, one to L and one to R.
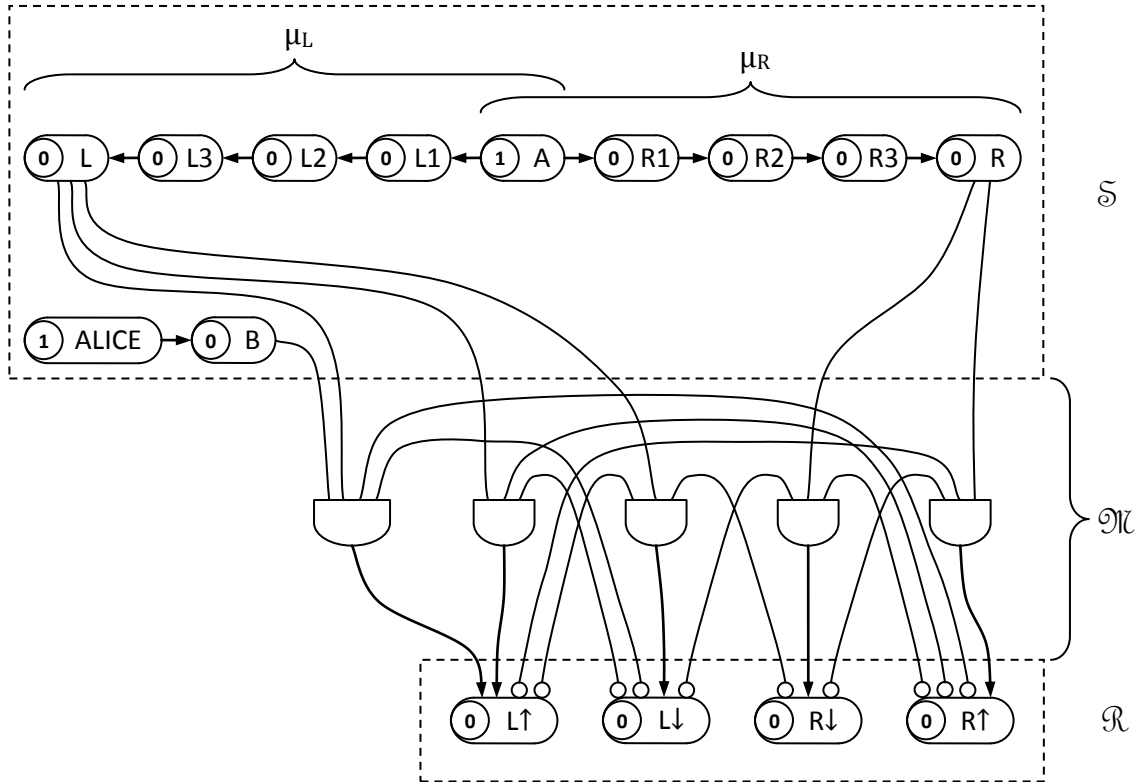
Fig. 13: An ontic network model for an EPR-Bohm type of experiment. See text for details.

Once toma L comes into existence, we perform a measurement with two possible mutually exclusive results: L↑ and L↓ (and likewise with L replaced by R). The interconnect is so structured that if L↑ exists then R↑ cannot come into existence and vice versa, and if L↓ exists then R↓ cannot come into existence and vice versa. In plain words, we know *a priori* that if we obtain a ↑ result at either L or R, we will get a ↓ result at the other end, R or L respectively.

If we try to think about this experiment using the OST model, we imagine that there "really" is a "particle" at a location A in spacetime. We then imagine that this particle splits into two daughter "particles", which move in opposite directions in the spacetime (we could make measurements of these "particles'" locations and velocities by introducing a quantic network and interconnect to it from $\mathbb{S}$ as in sections 4 and 5). Whitehead called thinking in this way the *fallacy of simple location* [18, 19]: believing that things exist "out there" independently and at a simple defined location on some background "stage."

Now we commit the next fallacy, that of misplaced concreteness. Each daughter particle, one travelling to the left, one to the right, has a well-defined state called, say, "spin", which is either ↑ or ↓ , and the two daughter particles are each in a different state of spin—one is ↑ and the other is ↓.

So far, whether we use the OST model or the ontic network model, we will make the same prediction regarding the results we observe: we shall either observe (L↑ and R↓) or (L↓ and R↑) with equal probability.

But now notice on the left of figure 13 we have an existing system toma ALICE. She can make a choice to bring toma B into existence before toma L3 exists, but after L1 exists—that

is, in the OST view, once the daughter particle has started its motion but has not yet arrived at L. If B exists before L3 exists, the probabilities of obtaining the different results now change, as there now is an extra way that L↑ can come into existence. We will now observe the result (L↑ and R↓) 3/5 of the time, and (L↓ and R↑) 2/5 of the time. That is, R will be ↑ 2/5 of the time, not 1/2 of the time as before. ALICE, by making a change of the experiment at L, has instantaneously changed the probabilities of the results at R as well as at L.

This behavior is in accord with the violation of Bell's inequality [22] which violation has been experimentally verified [23]. The reason we are puzzled by this violation is because we think using the OST model. Having committed both of Whitehead's fallacies, we wonder how one daughter particle can "know" what experiment the other daughter particle is going through, even if the spacetime interval between them is such that no information can travel between them at the speed of light. Thus we imagine there must be some "spooky action-at-a-distance" entangling these two particles.

In the ontic network model of reality, in contrast, we know the results we obtain at L and R are connected to each other by process dependencies which are *separate from* those between results of measurements of position and velocity of the motion-type processes in $\mathbb{S}$. We do not picture particles "inside" a spacetime but we picture the experiment as a network of *processes* which give rise to a quantic network of results of measurements of motion (the "spacetime") as well as dependencies among results of different types of measurement (such as of "spin").

Conclusion:

We began this paper by claiming that the OST model, a way of seeing the world as being composed of physical objects with definite properties embedded at defined locations in a background spacetime, while widely held, is not up to the challenge of making sense of the "weirdness" of quantum mechanics. It also is inadequate as a basis for answering deeper metaphysical and philosophical questions about the nature of reality and our place in it. We presented an alternative worldview, the ontic network model, which by viewing processes, not matter, as fundamental, makes sense of the quantum world. We showed that our model leads to equations which match those of the OST-model-based existing formalism of quantum mechanics, namely the Heisenberg picture equations of motion. The ontic network model should not be thought of as a replacement for quantum mechanics; rather it is a replacement for the OST model of reality. Ontic networks of processes, we claim, are the true fundamental nature of reality, and we showed how, by starting with this model, we can derive the main equations of quantum mechanics.

The ontic network model is based on a fundamentally different structure (a network) from that on which the OST model is based (a continuous manifold). Thus, it brings different mathematical tools, such as network analysis and graph theory, to bear on the fundamental problems of physics. We hope in this way to provide a new point of view, a new set of ideas, to apply to trying to reconcile quantum field theory and general relativity. The first step along this path will be to create ontic network based models of these two theories and see if they can be made to mesh in a meaningful way. We also imagine the ontic network based model will be useful in some higher-level disciplines such as biology and psychology and in trying to unify them with physics; after all, these disciplines are at their core studies of *processes* (life, evolution, cognition) not of concrete inanimate *matter*.

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