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# The problem of ontology for spontaneous collapse theories

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## Abstract

The question of how to interpret spontaneous collapse theories of quantum mechanics is an open one. One issue involves what link one should use to go from wave function talk to talk of ordinary macroscopic objects. Another issue involves whether that link should be taken ontologically seriously. In this paper, I argue that the link should be taken ontologically seriously; I argue against an ontology consisting solely of the wave function. I then consider three possible links: the fuzzy link, the accessible mass density link, and the mass density simpliciter link. I show that the first two links have serious anomalies which render them unacceptable. I show that the mass density simpliciter link, in contrast, is viable.

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## 1. Introduction

Spontaneous collapse theories of quantum mechanics (such as the GRW theory of Ghirardi, Rimini, and Weber, 1986) have great philosophical interest. They provide a possible way of solving the measurement problem by changing the dynamics of the theory, and they make wave function collapse philosophically respectable by having it occur independent of observers. Arguably, they can be used to solve fundamental problems in thermodynamics, explaining why entropy generally increases (Albert,

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1 1994, 2000). But before philosophers celebrate these virtues of spontaneous collapse theories, an important question should be asked: are these theories viable?

3 There has recently been an extensive philosophical debate regarding the viability of spontaneous collapse theories. The debate started with Lewis (1997) arguing that  
5 spontaneous collapse theories face what has come to be called the *counting anomaly*: arithmetic applies to ordinary macroscopic objects only as an approximation. One  
7 version of the counting anomaly runs as follows. Consider a marble in a box. Because wave functions have tails, the marble will not strictly be in the eigenstate  
9  $|\text{in}\rangle$  of being in the box, but instead will be in the state

$$11 \quad |\psi\rangle = a|\text{in}\rangle + b|\text{out}\rangle,$$

13 where  $|a| \gg |b|$ ,  $b \neq 0$ , and  $|a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1$ . According to the eigenstate–eigenvalue link, a marble in state  $|\psi\rangle$  is neither in nor out of the box, but instead is spread throughout  
15 an unbounded region of space. It is standardly thought that this is unacceptable, and that the eigenstate–eigenvalue link must be rejected in favor of some interpretative  
17 rule which entails that the marble in state  $|\psi\rangle$  is in the box.

19 Now consider a collection of  $n$  marbles in a box, each in state  $|\psi\rangle$ . By the above argument, each individual marble is in the box. But the probability of finding all the  
21 marbles in the box is  $|a|^{2n}$ , which approaches 0 as  $n$  gets large. Thus it seems that not all the marbles are in the box, even though each marble individually is in the box.  
23 This is one version of the counting anomaly.

25 Lewis (1997) maintains that this anomaly shows that spontaneous collapse theories are not viable theories of quantum mechanics. Ghirardi and Bassi (1999),  
27 Bassi and Ghirardi (1999, 2001), Frigg (2003), and Parker (2003) argue that spontaneous collapse theories can avoid the counting anomaly, while Clifton and  
29 Monton (1999, 2000) argue that even though the counting anomaly arises, this is not a problem for spontaneous collapse theories.

31 Lewis (2003a, b) has now switched his position on the viability of the spontaneous collapse theories: he argues that while spontaneous collapse theories face the  
33 counting anomaly, this is not fatal to spontaneous collapse theories. I too have switched my position: while I used to think that counting anomaly is unavoidable,  
35 now I think that it is avoidable. This is important, because I now think that were spontaneous collapse theories to face the counting anomaly, they would not be  
viable theories. (I will argue for this below.)

37 Whether the counting anomaly arises depends on what link one uses to go from wave function talk to talk of ordinary macroscopic objects. The reason Lewis is not  
39 bothered by the counting anomaly is that he sees this link as being purely pragmatic; he thinks that the fundamental ontology of spontaneous collapse theories is that of  
41 the wave function. I, on the other hand, believe that this link must have ontological import—as I will argue, understanding spontaneous collapse theories as postulating  
43 the existence of only wave functions is not viable. Spontaneous collapse theories must be understood as having ordinary objects (like elementary particles, and objects  
45 composed of elementary particles) as part of their fundamental ontology. This means that the link must be taken ontologically seriously.

1 Two different links have been discussed for spontaneous collapse theories: the  
 3 fuzzy link and the mass density link. For the fuzzy link, I maintain that the counting  
 5 anomaly does arise. I will argue (pace Lewis) that this shows that the fuzzy link is not  
 7 a viable interpretative principle. For the mass density link, matters are somewhat  
 9 more complicated. There are two different versions of the mass density link which  
 11 are not kept distinct in the literature: what I will call the *accessible mass density link*  
 and the *mass density simpliciter link*. For these two links, the counting anomaly does  
 not arise. The accessible mass density link, however, faces other anomalies, and this  
 prevents it from being a viable interpretative principle. The mass density simpliciter  
 link overcomes the problems that the accessible mass density link faces, and provides  
 a viable ontology for spontaneous collapse theories.

13

## 15 2. Wave function ontology

15

17 According to the wave function ontology, the fundamental space in which entities  
 19 evolve is not three-dimensional, but is instead  $3N$ -dimensional, where  $N$  is the  
 21 number of particles standardly thought to exist in the three-dimensional universe.  
 23 The main motivation for this ontology is that the wave function is a  $3N$ -dimensional  
 object; the wave function ontology allows one to take the wave function  
 ontologically seriously, as a field evolving in  $3N$ -dimensional space. According to  
 the wave function ontology, there is no three-dimensional space, at least not at the  
 level of fundamental reality.<sup>1</sup>

25 Clifton and Monton (1999) discuss the view that the wave function ontology is the  
 27 correct ontology for spontaneous collapse theories. In the context of the fuzzy link,  
 they write:

27

29 Fuzzy link semantics, on this view, does not add anything of ontological import to  
 31 the GRW theory, but simply provides a way of mapping our ‘particle’ language  
 onto a theory whose fundamental language concerns wavefunctions. (Clifton &  
 Monton, 1999, p. 716)

31

33 Clifton and Monton are often taken as explicitly endorsing this view, but in fact  
 35 their position is more nuanced. Their claim is a conditional one: *if* the fuzzy link can  
 legitimately be construed in accordance with the wave function ontology, *then* the  
 counting anomaly does not pose a problem for the GRW theory. That said, they do  
 seem inclined toward the antecedent of the conditional.

37

39 Lewis (2003a, b) explicitly endorses the wave function ontology for spontaneous  
 collapse theories. For example, he writes:

39

41 Spontaneous collapse theories are wavefunction-only theories, in the sense that  
 they attempt to explain the behavior of physical systems in terms of the

41

43 <sup>1</sup>Some would say that the three-dimensional space exists derivatively; they would say that it supervenes  
 45 on the  $3N$ -dimensional space. I find such claims hard to understand; how can one sort of space supervene  
 on another? Regardless of how that debate is settled, at the level of fundamental reality, there is no three-  
 dimensional space according to the wave function ontology.

1 wavefunction dynamics alone, without postulating any ontological extras...  
 2 (Lewis, 2003a, p. 168)

3  
 4 Lewis takes the fuzzy link and the mass density link to provide “a convenient  
 5 manner of speaking about the wavefunction”.

6 Monton (2002) has given one set of arguments against the wave function  
 7 ontology, and while I find these arguments persuasive, I will not repeat them here.  
 8 Instead I will present a different sort of argument against the wave function  
 9 ontology.<sup>2</sup> My argument relies on a pragmatic maxim, but it is a maxim that has  
 10 had much force in the history of science: one should not accept theories which  
 11 radically revise people’s common-sense understandings of the world when there  
 12 are other, otherwise equally acceptable theories which do not entail such extreme  
 13 revision. (The other theories are equally acceptable on grounds like simplicity, lack  
 14 of adhocness, and compatibility with other parts of science, but are more acceptable  
 15 on the ground of compatibility with common sense.) While I believe that most  
 16 readers will find this maxim plausible, I recognize that some will not; those readers  
 17 can consult Monton (2002) for alternative arguments against the wave function  
 18 ontology.

19 The reason the wave function ontology entails a radical revision of our common-  
 20 sense understanding of the world is that our common-sense understanding holds that  
 21 the world consists of objects with length, breadth, and depth evolving in a three-  
 22 dimensional space. According to the wave function ontology, claims that objects  
 23 exist in three-dimensional space are, strictly speaking, false—at the level of  
 24 fundamental reality, there is no three-dimensional space according to the wave  
 25 function ontology, there is only  $3N$ -dimensional space. Our common-sense under-  
 26 standing of the world is not simply that the world appears to us to have objects  
 27 evolving in three-dimensional space; our common-sense understanding is that the  
 28 world *does* have objects evolving in three-dimensional space. The wave function  
 29 ontology may be able to account for the appearances, but it is radically revisionary  
 30 with respect to how we take things to actually be.

31 In this respect the wave function ontology is similar to the brain in the vat  
 32 scenario: in the brain in the vat scenario, we think that the world around us is a  
 33 certain way, but it turns out that we are radically mistaken about the basic facts  
 34 regarding the world around us; we are actually all brains in vats. In fact, in some  
 35 ways the wave function ontology is even more radical than the brain in the vat  
 36 scenario: in the brain in the vat scenario, at least we are correct in thinking that we  
 37 have brains existing in a three-dimensional space. According to the wave function  
 38 ontology, even that is incorrect; all that really exists is a wave function field evolving  
 39 in a  $3N$ -dimensional space. Just as we think that there is strong prima facie reason to  
 40 reject the brain in the vat scenario, because of its radically revisionary implications  
 41 for common-sense ontology, so there is a strong prima facie reason to reject the wave  
 42 function ontology.

43  
 44 <sup>2</sup>There are parallels between my argument here against the wave function ontology and the argument of  
 45 Lewis (1997, p. 324) against the GRW theory.

1 The “prima facie” qualifier is important. I have argued that spontaneous collapse  
 3 theories with the wave function ontology are radically revisionary with respect to our  
 5 common-sense understanding of the world. But are there alternatives which are not  
 7 radically revisionary? If there are not, then arguably the empirical evidence for  
 9 quantum mechanics forces us to accept such a radically revisionary theory. But in  
 11 fact, there are less radically revisionary ontologies. I will show below that  
 13 spontaneous collapse theories can be interpreted with a more common-sensical  
 ontology than the wave function ontology. Also, there are other versions of quantum  
 mechanics which have more ordinary ontologies: a good example is Bohm’s theory.  
 According to the standard interpretation of Bohm’s theory, the world consists (at  
 least in part) of point particles evolving in a three-dimensional space. Bohm’s theory  
 can be interpreted in terms of the wave function ontology, but Bohm himself was  
 against this:

15 While our theory can be extended formally in a logically consistent way by  
 17 introducing the concept of a wave in a  $3N$ -dimensional space, it is evident that this  
 procedure is not really acceptable in a physical theory... (Bohm, 1957, p. 117)

19 While Bohm does not say it explicitly, one gathers that the reason it is not  
 21 acceptable to interpret his theory in that way is that such an understanding does not  
 23 match the world as we experience it. While it is mathematically viable to represent  
 the theory as consisting of objects evolving in  $3N$ -dimensional space, it is not  
*physically* viable, because  $3N$ -dimensional space is not an accurate representation of  
 the physical, three-dimensional world.

25 It follows that the pragmatic maxim cited above leads one to reject spontaneous  
 27 collapse theories with the wave function ontology in favor of theories which are less  
 29 revisionary with respect to our common-sense understanding of the world. These less  
 revisionary theories include spontaneous collapse theories which take ontologically  
 seriously the link one uses to go from wave function talk to talk of ordinary  
 macroscopic objects.<sup>3</sup> I will first consider the fuzzy link.

### 31 3. The fuzzy link

33 The basic idea behind the fuzzy link is that the eigenstate–eigenvalue link, at least  
 35 for the case of position, is too strict. An object should count as being located in a  
 37 region as long as most of the object’s wave function support is associated with that  
 region. More precisely, for an  $n$ -particle system, the fuzzy link says:

39 ‘Particle  $p_1$  lies in region  $R_1$  and ... and  $p_n$  lies in  $R_n$ ’ iff the proportion of the total  
 squared amplitude of  $\psi(t, \mathbf{r}_1, \dots, \mathbf{r}_n)$  that is associated with points in  $R_1 \times \dots \times R_n$   
 is greater than or equal to  $1 - \varepsilon$  (where  $0.5 < \varepsilon < 1$ ).

41 <sup>3</sup>I will not take a stand on whether these less revisionary theories include the wave function as part of  
 43 their ontology, along with objects in three-dimensional space. As an anonymous referee has pointed out to  
 me, if one were to endorse the principle that interactions that account for the behavior of a system have to  
 45 take place between elements of reality, this would naturally lead to the inclusion of the wave function as  
 part of the ontology of the less revisionary theories.

1 While there has been a fair amount of controversy about this point, I maintain  
 2 that the counting anomaly does arise for spontaneous collapse theories with the  
 3 fuzzy link ontology. Ghirardi and Bassi (1999) argue that the fuzzy link does not face  
 4 the counting anomaly, but there seems to be widespread agreement that Clifton and  
 5 Monton (1999) have shown their argument to be mistaken. In their reply to Clifton  
 6 and Monton, Bassi and Ghirardi (2001) switch the terms of the debate to the mass  
 7 density link; I will take this up in the next section. Frigg (2003) gives a different  
 8 argument for the claim that the fuzzy link does not face the counting anomaly, but I  
 9 endorse Lewis' (2003b) refutation of Frigg's argument. I have nothing to add to  
 10 refutation, so I will not go into the debate here.

11 Given that the fuzzy link faces the counting anomaly, is this a problem for the  
 12 fuzzy link? I maintain that it is a problem, and while many others agree with me,  
 13 there is a controversy about what the problem actually is. I will show that Lewis  
 14 (1997) incorrectly diagnoses the problem, and I will defend my own answer.

15 Lewis considers a system of  $n$  non-interacting marbles, each in the state  $|\psi\rangle$   
 16 discussed above. Let us call the state of such a system state  $|\Psi\rangle$ . Lewis (1997, p. 318)  
 17 maintains that state  $|\Psi\rangle$  “cannot be one in which all  $n$  marbles are in the box, since  
 18 there is almost no chance that if one looks one will find them all there”. Lewis  
 19 (2003a) elaborates on this claim, in the course of replying to Clifton and Monton's  
 20 contention that the counting anomaly can never be made manifest. Clifton and  
 21 Monton argue that a measurement of the number of marbles in the box at time  $t$  will  
 22 result in some number  $k \leq n$ , and at time  $t$  it will be the case that there are exactly  $k$   
 23 marbles in the box. Lewis (2003a, p. 167) says that this sort of measurement actually  
 24 “is precisely the means by which [the counting anomaly is] made manifest”. He says  
 25 that the fact that one will most likely get a result  $k < n$  shows that not all marbles are  
 26 in the box, even though “if one measures the position of any individual marble in  
 27 state  $|\psi\rangle$ , one will almost certainly get the result that it is the box”. Lewis  
 28 concludes that the counting anomaly can be made manifest.

29 The key to seeing the error in Lewis' reasoning is to note that, as Lewis implicitly  
 30 admits, it is not certain that a measurement of the position of a marble in state  $|\psi\rangle$   
 31 will give the result that the marble is in the box. Instead it is “almost” certain. Even  
 32 assuming a flawless measuring apparatus, there is a very small probability that the  
 33 marble will be found outside the box. This probability is the same probability that,  
 34 when the measurement occurs, the spontaneous collapses will happen in such a way  
 35 that the marble/measuring apparatus system ends up in a state where most of the  
 36 wave function support for the marble is associated with the region outside the box.  
 37 The reason this is the case is that a flawless measuring apparatus will have its pointer  
 38 perfectly correlated with the position of the marble: whatever the amplitude  
 39 associated with state  $|\text{in}\rangle$  of the marble is, that same amplitude will be associated  
 40 with the state  $|\text{in}'\rangle$  of the measuring apparatus. Thus, for a marble initially in state  
 41  $|\psi\rangle$ , just as there is a  $|b|^2$  probability of finding the marble outside the box, there is a  
 42  $|b|^2$  probability that the measuring apparatus will record that the marble is outside  
 43 the box.

44 Suppose that the measuring apparatus does record that the marble is outside the  
 45 box. What is the state of the marble/measuring apparatus system in that

1 circumstance? The state of the system is of the form

$$3 \quad c|\text{in}\rangle|\text{'in'}\rangle + d|\text{out}\rangle|\text{'out'}\rangle,$$

5 where  $|c|^2 + |d|^2 = 1$ . If it were the case that  $|c| \gg |d|$ , that would be a state where,  
7 according to the fuzzy link, the measuring apparatus records that the marble is in the  
9 box. But we are supposing that the measuring apparatus records that the marble is  
outside the box. It follows that the state must be such that  $|d| \gg |c|$ . The spontaneous  
collapses have happened in such a way that the marble is outside the box, and the  
pointer records that the marble is outside the box.

11 Moreover, there is nothing special about the measuring apparatus here—the  
13 marble, like the measuring apparatus, is a macroscopic system, and so is subject to  
frequent spontaneous collapses. Just as the marble/measuring apparatus system can  
evolve to a state where the marble is outside the box, so can the marble even when it  
has not interacted with the measuring apparatus.

15 Now we can demonstrate the incorrectness of Lewis' claim that the state  $|\Psi\rangle$   
17 “cannot be one in which all  $n$  marbles are in the box, since there is almost no chance  
that if one looks one will find them all there”. Consider an  $n$ -marble system which  
19 starts out in state  $|\Psi\rangle$ ; this is a state in which all  $n$  marbles are in the box. At some  
later time, though, the system might not be in that state; with enough marbles we can  
21 expect spontaneous collapses to happen in such a way that some end up outside the  
box. Thus, when one makes a measurement, one need not find that all the marbles  
23 are in the box, even though the system started out in a state where all the marbles  
were in the box. Supposing one does not find all the marbles in the box, the reason  
one does not is that some of the marbles are no longer in the box. It is this sort of  
25 reasoning that motivates Clifton and Monton's (1999) argument that the counting  
anomaly can never be made manifest; Lewis has not provided a good refutation of  
27 Clifton and Monton's argument.

29 So why is the counting anomaly a problem for the fuzzy link, given that the  
anomaly can never be made manifest? The reason is that what the counting anomaly  
really amounts to is a logical anomaly. On the assumption that the fuzzy link is true,  
31 spontaneous collapse theories entail a contradiction. According to the fuzzy link, an  
 $n$ -marble system in state  $|\Psi\rangle$  is one where each individual marble is in the box. For  
33 sufficiently large  $n$ , the fuzzy link entails that it is not the case that all  $n$  marbles are in  
the box. Depending on how one looks at it, this is a violation of either conjunction  
35 introduction or universal generalization: marble 1 is in the box, marble 2 is in the  
box, ..., marble  $n$  is in the box, but it is not the case that (marble 1 is in the box & ... &  
37 marble  $n$  is in the box); it is not the case that all  $n$  marbles are in the box.

39 By my lights, the fact that the fuzzy link entails a contradiction is reason enough to  
reject it. There are other options, though. One could argue that, since the wave  
41 function is all that really exists, the fuzzy link only has limited pragmatic  
applications, and hence we should not be worried that applying it sometimes leads  
43 to contradictions. As I have argued above, though, an appeal to the wave function  
ontology is inappropriate. One could instead argue that a new logic is needed, call it  
45 *collapse quantum logic*, where a classical logical principle like conjunction  
introduction or universal generalization is not permissible. Such a move would

1 raise a number of contentious issues regarding the possible a posteriori status of logic  
 2 and basic principles of belief revision. While I will not go into these issues here, I will  
 3 simply report my belief that a transition to a deviant logic should be a last resort.  
 4 Other things equal, an ontology that does not require a revision of logic and does not  
 5 entail contradictions is to be preferred. The mass density link arguably provides such  
 6 an ontology.

7  
 8  
 9 **4. The mass density link**

10 The mass density link was proposed by Ghirardi, Grassi, and Benatti (henceforth  
 11 GGB) in 1995. The basis of the ontology is the *mass density function*,  $\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{r}, t)$ . To  
 12 define this mass density function, GGB first introduce particle number density  
 13 operators, denoted by  $N^{(k)}(\mathbf{r})$ . Each operator corresponds to the number of particles  
 14 of type  $k$  that exist at point  $\mathbf{r}$  of space. Next, mass density operators are defined:

15  
 16  
 17 
$$M(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_k m_k N^{(k)}(\mathbf{r}),$$

18 where  $m_k$  is the mass of a particle of type  $k$ . (Here and elsewhere I suppress the time  
 19 variable). Where  $|\Phi\rangle$  is the universal state vector, the mass density function at  
 20 position  $\mathbf{r}$  is defined as

21  
 22 
$$\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{r}) = \langle \Phi | M(\mathbf{r}) | \Phi \rangle.$$

23 The *mass density simpliciter link* holds that the distribution of mass in the universe  
 24 is governed by  $\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{r})$ . I will defend this link below.

25 First, though, I will consider an alternative link, the *accessible mass density link*.  
 26 According to this link, only *accessible* mass density is real (where the notion of  
 27 accessibility will be defined below). I do not want to claim that anyone has endorsed  
 28 this link, but Ghirardi and his colleagues sometimes say things which have led people  
 29 to believe that they endorse this link, as I will discuss below.

30 To give their criterion for when mass is accessible, GGB start by defining the *mass  
 31 density variance*:

32  
 33 
$$\mathcal{V}(\mathbf{r}) = \langle \Phi | [M(\mathbf{r}) - \langle \Phi | M(\mathbf{r}) | \Phi \rangle]^2 | \Phi \rangle.$$

34 They then make the simplifying assumption that space is discrete, and hence  
 35 replace the functions  $\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{r})$  and  $\mathcal{V}(\mathbf{r})$  with  $\mathcal{M}_i$  and  $\mathcal{V}_i$  for the  $i$ th cell. The ratio  $\mathcal{R}_i$  is  
 36 defined by

37  
 38 
$$\mathcal{R}_i^2 = \mathcal{V}_i / \mathcal{M}_i^2.$$

39 The mass  $\mathcal{M}_i$  in the  $i$ th cell is defined as *accessible* iff

40  
 41 
$$\mathcal{R} \ll 1.$$

42 Ghirardi and his colleagues sometimes use “objective” as a synonym for  
 43 “accessible”, seemingly emphasizing the idea that only accessible mass density is real.

44 To see some of the consequences of the accessible mass density link, consider the  
 45 following example. GGB consider an  $N$ -particle system in the following state, where  
 46  $|\Psi^A\rangle$  corresponds to the system being localized in region A and  $|\Psi^B\rangle$  corresponds

1 to the system being localized in region B, spatially separated from A:

$$3 \quad |\Psi^+\rangle = 1/\sqrt{2}(|\Psi^A\rangle + |\Psi^B\rangle).$$

5 GGB consider sending a test particle between regions A and B, and point out that  
 7 such a particle will have inaccessible mass density (since in one branch of the  
 superposition it is gravitationally deflected toward region A, and in the other branch  
 it is deflected toward region B). They write:

9 nowhere in the universe is there a density corresponding to the density of the test  
 11 particle. In a sense, if one would insist in giving a meaning to the density function,  
 he would be led to conclude that the particle has been split by the interaction into  
 13 two pieces of half its density. This analysis shows that great attention should be  
 paid in attributing an ‘objective’ status to the function  $\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{r})$ . (Ghirardi, Grassi, &  
 Benatti, 1995, p. 17)

15 The problem with the accessible mass density link is that it really does have the  
 17 consequence that the test particle with inaccessible mass is nowhere in the universe:  
 since its mass density is not accessible, it is not real. For a microscopic test particle,  
 19 its mass could be inaccessible for a long time. In fact, according to the accessible  
 mass density link, objects would often be popping out of and into existence, as the  
 21 accessibility of their mass changed. While I do not have a knock-down argument as  
 to why this is unacceptable, I maintain that this is a serious anomaly. I admit that the  
 23 evolution of systems according to quantum mechanics is non-classical, but the  
 regular disappearance and reappearance of particles, where sometimes the  
 25 disappearance is for extended periods of time, moves beyond the realm of the  
 benignly non-classical and into the realm of the anomalous.

27 One might be tempted to put the concern in terms of conservation of energy:  
 energy is not conserved when the test particle goes out of, and then comes back  
 29 into, existence. But in fact proponents of spontaneous collapse theories already reject  
 the principle of conservation of energy—energy is not conserved when a GRW  
 31 collapse happens, for example. The best way to explain the anomaly is just to point  
 out how strange it is to have a physics which entails that objects regularly disappear  
 33 and reappear. While this is not a fatal blow to spontaneous collapse theories, it  
 would be better if there existed an ontology that did not have such untoward  
 35 consequences. As I will show, the mass density simpliciter link fulfills this  
 desideratum.

37 I am not the only person who endorses the mass density simpliciter link. While  
 some people have concluded from passages such as the one above that Ghirardi  
 39 endorses the accessible mass density link, in fact Ghirardi (personal communication,  
 June 2003) assures me that he endorses the mass density simpliciter link. This is not  
 41 clear, though, even in Ghirardi’s most recent writings. For example, in a long review  
 article, Bassi and Ghirardi (2003) consider the test particle with inaccessible mass  
 43 density that GGB discuss, and they write:

45 nowhere in the universe one can “detect” or “perceive” a density corresponding  
 to the density of the test particle. In a sense, if one would insist in giving a

1 meaning to the density function he would be led to conclude that the particle has  
 3 been split by the interaction into two pieces of half its density. This analysis shows  
 that great attention should be paid in assuming that the function  $\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{r})$  describes  
 the actual state of affairs. (Bassi & Ghirardi, 2003, p. 347)

5 This first sentence suggests that accessibility is a mark of what is detectable, and  
 7 this is perfectly compatible with the mass density simpliciter link: it may well be the  
 case that inaccessible mass is not detectable, but that does not mean that it is not  
 9 real. The last sentence, though, seems to reject the mass density simpliciter link.  
 According to the mass density simpliciter link,  $\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{r})$  *does* describe the actual state of  
 11 affairs. I conclude that, while Ghirardi is a proponent of the mass density simpliciter  
 link, it is not always transparent in his writings.

13 I will now turn to defending the mass density simpliciter link. Sometimes I will use  
 the term “mass density link”; in these circumstances I am referring to both the  
 15 accessible mass density link and the mass density simpliciter link. I will present four  
 lines of defense.

17 (1) I will start by showing that the mass density link is better than the fuzzy link,  
 because the mass density link does not face the counting anomaly. This point is  
 19 emphasized by Bassi and Ghirardi (1999, 2001), and is partially conceded by Clifton  
 and Monton (2000). The reason the mass density link does not face the counting  
 21 anomaly is that, for each marble in state  $|\psi\rangle$ , almost all the mass of the marble is  
 located inside the box. For an  $n$ -marble system in state  $|\Psi\rangle$  (where each marble is in  
 23 state  $|\psi\rangle$ ), it is natural to view this system as one where all  $n$  marbles are in the box  
 (since for each of the  $n$  marbles almost all the mass of the marble is located inside  
 25 the box).

27 This fact about the distribution of mass is noted by Lewis (1997, p. 327).  
 Nevertheless, Lewis maintains that the mass density link faces the counting anomaly:  
 he thinks it is illegitimate to claim that all  $n$  marbles are in the box, given that if one  
 29 were to look one almost certainly would not find all of them there. But this is an  
 instance of the erroneous reasoning I discussed in the previous section. There is a  
 31 high probability that some of the marbles will jump outside the box, so just because  
 the marbles are all in the box at a certain time, it does not follow that they will all be  
 33 in the box when one looks.

35 (2) Clifton and Monton (2000) do not believe that the mass density link is better  
 than the fuzzy link. They pose a trilemma for the mass density link:

37 either conjunction introduction fails [i.e. the counting anomaly holds], mass talk  
 must be divorced from position talk, or the intuitive connection between either of  
 39 these kinds of talk and a system’s dispositions ... must be severed. (Clifton and  
 Monton, 2000, p. 161)

41 Clifton and Monton (2000, p. 158) suggest that, if Bassi and Ghirardi accepted the  
 second or third horn of the trilemma, they would be accepting an anomaly that is as  
 43 “equally surprising” as the counting anomaly. While I used to agree with this claim,  
 I now believe that this is not the case. As discussed above, I believe that the counting  
 45 anomaly is a serious anomaly, because it generates contradictory claims about

1 fundamental ontology, while Clifton and Monton (1999) seem inclined towards the  
 3 view that the counting anomaly is not that serious. Assuming that I am right in  
 5 claiming that the counting anomaly is a serious anomaly, the second and third horns  
 7 should be preferred, as long as they do not lead to any fundamental problems. I will  
 9 now show that this is the case.

Clifton and Monton (2000) say that one can reach the second horn via the  
 following reasoning:

if one wants to maintain that all the mass of the marbles is objectively in the box,  
 together with the fact that the probability of finding them all there is vanishingly  
 small, then one is committed to a radical breach between mass and location talk.  
 (Clifton and Monton, 2000, p. 160)

In fact, this line of reasoning is incorrect. When a marble is found outside the box,  
 the reason is that its wave function support is concentrated outside the box, so  
 almost all of its mass is located outside the box. Just because almost all of the mass  
 of each marble is located in the box at some time, it does not follow that the almost  
 all of the mass of each marble is located in the box at some later time when one  
 measures the locations of the marbles.

Bassi and Ghirardi recognize that the second horn of the trilemma holds true for  
 the accessible mass density link, but their reasoning is different from that of Clifton  
 and Monton. Further, Bassi and Ghirardi hold that the second horn is not a serious  
 anomaly. Bassi and Ghirardi (2001) maintain that the reason the second horn holds  
 is that there are wave function tails:

These tails require a divorce of position talks from mass talks, but ... this divorce  
 is absolutely negligible and experimentally undetectable. (Bassi and Ghirardi,  
 2001, p. 127)

The reason the tails require a divorce of position talk from mass talk is that, when  
 the system is in state  $|\Psi\rangle$ , each marble is in the box, while it is not the case that the  
 amount of mass in the box is  $nm$ .

Is this divorce of position talk from mass talk a serious anomaly? I think that Bassi  
 and Ghirardi overstate the case: presumably there is, in principle, an experimentally  
 detectable difference between a box with contents of mass  $nm$  and a box with  
 contents of mass  $|a|^2nm$ . But I agree with their sentiment that this anomaly is not  
 serious. The claim that a marble is located in a box, while the mass of the marble in  
 the box is not the classically expected  $m$ , but instead  $|a|^2m$ , is simply not that  
 surprising of a claim, when compared to the other surprising aspects of quantum  
 mechanics. The claim becomes no more surprising when one considers an  $n$ -marble  
 system.

I will now argue that the third horn of Clifton and Monton's trilemma similarly  
 does not lead to any fundamental problems. The third horn says that the intuitive  
 connection between mass talk and a system's dispositions must be severed, and the  
 intuitive connection between position talk and a system's dispositions must be  
 severed. What Clifton and Monton have in mind is the idea that it is strange to say  
 that the mass/position of the system is such that all  $n$  marbles are in the box, given

1 that the disposition of the system (revealed by measurement) is for not all the  
 3 marbles to be in the box. But I have already shown that this way of thinking is  
 5 erroneous. The disposition of the system is to have some of the marbles jump outside  
 the box, so just because the masses/positions of the marbles are in the box at a  
 certain time, it does not follow that they will all be in the box when one looks.

7 I conclude that Clifton and Monton's trilemma is not a problem for the  
 mass density link. Endorsing the second and third horns does not cause any  
 trouble.

9 (3) I will now show that the mass density link does not face the tails problem. As I  
 11 discussed in the first section, the eigenstate–eigenvalue link entails that any particle is  
 spread throughout an unbounded region of space, since wave functions have non-  
 13 compact support (due to their 'tails'). The accessible mass density link can easily  
 evade the tails problem, because the mass density in the regions of space associated  
 15 with the wave function tails is inaccessible (Ghirardi et al., 1995, p. 25), and hence  
 not real. But what about the mass density simpliciter link?

17 It is true that, according to the mass density simpliciter link, every particle is  
 spread throughout an unbounded region of space. In this sense, the mass density  
 19 simpliciter link has the same consequence as the eigenstate/eigenvalue link. But the  
 mass density simpliciter link gives more information about the properties of a  
 21 particle than the eigenstate–eigenvalue link does. Specifically, the mass density  
 simpliciter link specifies what the mass density of a particle is throughout space. In  
 most of space, the mass density of a particle is almost zero.

23 To see whether this is enough to solve the tails problem, we have to think about  
 what the tails problem actually amounts to. The tails problem is simply the problem  
 25 that there is a *prima facie* incompatibility between the result one gets from the  
 eigenstate/eigenvalue link, that all objects are spread throughout an unbounded  
 27 region of space, and the result one gets from everyday observation, that macroscopic  
 objects are highly localized. The mass density simpliciter link resolves this *prima*  
 29 *facie* incompatibility—it can explain why macroscopic objects appear highly  
 localized. The reason macroscopic objects appear highly localized is that most all  
 31 of their mass is concentrated in a small region of space, the region where the object  
 appears to be localized.

33 I admit that, for the mass density simpliciter link to solve the tails problem, a  
 certain assumption about psychophysical parallelism needs to be made. But the  
 35 assumption is a reasonable one. According to the mass density simpliciter link, each  
 of the particles in one's brain is located in an unbounded region of space. If mental  
 37 states supervened just on particle location, then presumably the appropriate mental  
 states would not supervene on brain states—the evolution of the unbounded regions  
 39 of space in which the particles are located presumably would not be sufficient for  
 mental states to exist and evolve in the appropriate way. But there is no need to  
 41 suppose that mental states supervene just on particle location; instead we can  
 suppose that mental states supervene on the distribution of mass. Since the masses of  
 43 particles in a brain are concentrated in the appropriate regions of space, it is  
 reasonable to assume that the appropriate mental states supervene on those mass  
 45 concentrations.

1 I conclude that the mass density simpliciter link solves the tails problem. But this  
 3 does not yet show that the mass density simpliciter link is anomaly-free; there is one  
 3 final issue to consider.

5 (4) GGB implicitly present an argument against the mass density simpliciter link; I  
 5 will call this *the test particle problem*. Consider the discussion from the previous  
 7 section of the test particle interacting with a system in state  $|\Psi^+\rangle$ . GGB suggest that  
 7 it is problematic that the mass of the test particle gets split in two, with the two pieces  
 9 of matter heading in different directions.

9 Why do GGB imply that this is problematic? This evolution is certainly non-  
 11 classical, but that is not a reason to object; quantum mechanics itself is non-classical.  
 11 I take it that GGB are bothered by the fact that the mass density in regions A and B  
 13 are equal, and yet the test particle does not behave as if it is passing between two  
 13 regions of equal mass. GGB write that

15 The unacceptable features find their origin in the fact that, when the macrostate is  
 15  $|\Psi^+\rangle$ , while the density function takes the value of about  $1/2\text{g/cm}^3$  within  
 17 regions A and B, ... if a measurement like process (such as the passage of the test  
 17 particle in between A and B) occurs, things proceed in such a way that it is  
 19 incompatible with the above density value. (GGB, 19)

21 The problem here is that GGB are assuming that the future evolution of a system  
 21 is determined, at least in part, by the present distribution of mass density. But  
 23 actually, the future evolution is determined solely by the quantum state of the  
 23 system. For it to be the case that the future evolution of a system is incompatible  
 25 with the present mass distribution, one would need to give a dynamics specifying  
 25 how systems evolve given an initial distribution of mass. It is actually the case that  
 27 the dynamics of spontaneous collapse theories only depends on the quantum state;  
 27 the evolution of a quantum state does not depend on the mass density. Instead, mass  
 29 density is epiphenomenal: the mass density at a particular time is determined by the  
 29 quantum state at that time, but the mass density does not have any influence on the  
 31 future evolution of the system. Thus, GGB's claim of incompatibility is illegitimate.

31 I conclude that GGB have not given a good argument for why the mass associated  
 33 with the test particle is not real; GGB have not given a good argument against the  
 33 mass density simpliciter link. In fact, all the arguments I have considered against the  
 35 mass density simpliciter link are unsuccessful. I cannot see any other reason to reject  
 35 the link, so I conclude that the mass density simpliciter link is free of any serious  
 37 anomalies.

## 39 5. Conclusion

41 The philosophical virtues of spontaneous collapse theories raise the question of  
 41 whether these theories can be given a viable interpretation. It turns out that a viable  
 43 interpretation does exist—the mass density simpliciter link, which specifies that the  
 43 mass density in a region of the universe is proportional to the square of the wave  
 45 function amplitude corresponding to that region. The mass density simpliciter link

1 has the consequence that objects exist in ordinary three-dimensional space; this  
 2 makes it superior to the wave function ontology. The mass density simpliciter link  
 3 entails that, in a situation where each of  $n$  marbles is in a box, it is the case that all  $n$   
 4 marbles are in the box; this makes it superior to the fuzzy link. Also, the mass density  
 5 simpliciter link entails that ordinary objects normally do not go out of and then back  
 6 into existence; this makes it superior to the accessible mass density link. Moreover,  
 7 the mass density simpliciter link solves the tails problem and the test particle  
 8 problem. In sum, the mass density simpliciter link solves the problem of ontology for  
 9 spontaneous collapse theories.

11

## 12 6. Uncited reference

13

14 Monton (1999).

15

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17

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