

The EPR-Bohm Quantum Correlations Recovered from a Classical Model with Hidden Variables

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Abstract

The EPR-Bohm experiment is studied in a classical model with hidden variables. The main hypothesis of Bell about this experiment must be modified in a non-trivial way to allow for the fact that our model is not fully deterministic. We argue that our classical model is able to recover the prediction of Quantum Mechanics for the correlated measurement of spin projections on the polarizer axis. We also show that Bell's theorem, as it stands, does not apply to this class of non-fully deterministic models.

1 Introduction

The EPR-Bohm Paradox is one of the most mysterious features of Quantum Mechanics (QM). It examines the correlations of spin measurements of two intricately particles simultaneously emitted in a singlet state with opposite spins.

We are going to study this system from a classical standpoint. In particular, we will check that we can recover the quantum correlations by using a spin model with hidden variables (HV's) which is at the same time realistic, separable and local but non-linear and non-fully deterministic. Our approach is part of a particle model [1].

2 Quantum Calculation

In QM the combined measurement of spins is expressed as follows :

$$\langle \hat{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{b}} \rangle_\psi = \langle \psi | \mathbf{S}_1 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{S}_2 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{b}} | \psi \rangle \quad (2.1)$$

where the observables $\mathbf{S}_1 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{a}}$ and $\mathbf{S}_2 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{b}}$ measure spin projections in directions $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$. With $\mathbf{S} = \left(\frac{\hbar}{2}\right) \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ it gives :

$$\langle \hat{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{b}} \rangle_\psi = \left(\frac{\hbar}{2}\right)^2 \langle \psi | \boldsymbol{\sigma}_1 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{a}} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_2 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{b}} | \psi \rangle \quad (2.2)$$

Particles are produced in a singlet state for the spin wave function :

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \{ |S^1_\uparrow\rangle \otimes |S^2_\downarrow\rangle - |S^1_\downarrow\rangle \otimes |S^2_\uparrow\rangle \} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \{ |1, \uparrow\rangle |2, \downarrow\rangle - |1, \downarrow\rangle |2, \uparrow\rangle \} \end{aligned} \quad (2.3)$$

which gives :

$$\langle \hat{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{b}} \rangle_\psi = \left(\frac{\hbar}{2}\right)^2 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \{ \langle 1, \uparrow | \langle 2, \downarrow | - \langle 1, \downarrow | \langle 2, \uparrow | \} \{ \boldsymbol{\sigma}_1 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{a}} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_2 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{b}} \} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \{ |1, \uparrow\rangle |2, \downarrow\rangle - |1, \downarrow\rangle |2, \uparrow\rangle \} \} \quad (2.4)$$

Let us project the vectors in a cartesian basis :

$$\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{\sigma} &= \sigma_x \mathbf{i} + \sigma_y \mathbf{j} + \sigma_z \mathbf{k} \\ \mathbf{a} &= a_x \mathbf{i} + a_y \mathbf{j} + a_z \mathbf{k} \\ \mathbf{b} &= b_x \mathbf{i} + b_y \mathbf{j} + b_z \mathbf{k} \end{aligned} \quad (2.5)$$

One finds :

$$\langle \hat{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{b}} \rangle_\psi = - \left(\frac{\hbar}{2}\right)^2 \{ a_x b_x + a_y b_y + a_z b_z \} = - \left(\frac{\hbar}{2}\right)^2 \hat{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{b}} \quad (2.6)$$

3 Bell's theorem

Bell's theorem (see for example [2]) provides an inequality which is common to all local deterministic HV theories, but which is violated by QM measurements. In other words, it implies that no local deterministic HV theory can predict QM measurements.

Bell [3,4] supposes the existence of HV's designated collectively by λ , so that the measurement of spin $A(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \lambda)$ in direction $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ for the particles received by Alice does depend only on $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ and λ . The measurements effected by Bob on the second beam are similarly referred to as $B(\hat{\mathbf{b}}, \lambda)$. The separability principle posits that there can be no dependence between two systems which do not interact. One can formulate this principle mathematically as :

$$P(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}, \lambda) = A(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \lambda) B(\hat{\mathbf{b}}, \lambda) \quad (3.1)$$

where A et B are two deterministic functions. For spinors in QM the result of a local spin measurement is $\pm \frac{\hbar}{2}$. In classical theory, one can always measure the spin length along an axis, and the result must be the same except for a constant. One has thus :

$$A(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \lambda) = \pm \beta \frac{\hbar}{2} \quad ; \quad B(\hat{\mathbf{b}}, \lambda) = \pm \beta \frac{\hbar}{2} \quad (3.2)$$

where β is a constant. The λ dependence in the right-hand side is contained in the signs. If p_λ is the probability definition of λ , then the simultaneous measurements of spins by Alice and Bob can be computed by an expression of the type :

$$\langle \hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}} \rangle = \int d\lambda p_\lambda A(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \lambda) B(\hat{\mathbf{b}}, \lambda) \quad (3.3)$$

Indeed, since λ is hidden, one cannot measure its precise value. One can then reach the measurement of an observable only by integrating on all possible values of λ . The ponderation coefficient p_λ represents the probability to observe the configuration characterized by a particular value of λ . The total probability must be normalized to unity and thus :

$$\int d\lambda p_\lambda = 1 \quad (3.4)$$

When $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ are parallel, QM gives the following result :

$$\langle \hat{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{a}} \rangle_\psi = -\left(\frac{\hbar}{2}\right)^2 \hat{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{a}} = -\left(\frac{\hbar}{2}\right)^2 \quad (3.5)$$

that is, perfect anti-correlation. This is a verified experimental fact, and hence one can expect that this should still be true for a classical model (possibly up to a multiplicative constant β^2). But one can have $(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{a}}) = -\beta^2 \left(\frac{\hbar}{2}\right)^2$ only if $A(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \lambda) = -B(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \lambda)$ for all direction $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$. One can then write, starting from (3.3) :

$$(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}) = -\int d\lambda p_\lambda A(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \lambda)A(\hat{\mathbf{b}}, \lambda) \quad (3.6)$$

Let us now consider two possible orientations $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{c}}$ for Bob's apparatus. One computes :

$$\begin{aligned} (\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}) - (\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}) &= -\int d\lambda p_\lambda A(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \lambda)A(\hat{\mathbf{b}}, \lambda) + \int d\lambda p_\lambda A(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \lambda)A(\hat{\mathbf{c}}, \lambda) \\ &= -\int d\lambda p_\lambda A(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \lambda)A(\hat{\mathbf{b}}, \lambda) \left(1 - A(\hat{\mathbf{c}}, \lambda)A(\hat{\mathbf{b}}, \lambda) \left(\frac{2}{\beta\hbar}\right)^2\right) \end{aligned} \quad (3.7)$$

where we have used the fact that $(A(\hat{\mathbf{b}}, \lambda))^2 = \left(\beta \frac{\hbar}{2}\right)^2$. Let us then compute the absolute value of both members :

$$|(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}) - (\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}})| = \left| \int d\lambda p_\lambda A(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \lambda)A(\hat{\mathbf{b}}, \lambda) \left(1 - A(\hat{\mathbf{c}}, \lambda)A(\hat{\mathbf{b}}, \lambda) \left(\frac{2}{\beta\hbar}\right)^2\right) \right| \quad (3.8)$$

But one can also write, with (3.2) :

$$A(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \lambda)A(\hat{\mathbf{b}}, \lambda) = \pm \left(\beta \frac{\hbar}{2}\right)^2 \quad (3.9)$$

And so (3.8) becomes :

$$\begin{aligned} |(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}) - (\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}})| &\leq \int d\lambda p_\lambda |A(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \lambda)A(\hat{\mathbf{b}}, \lambda)| \left| \left(1 - A(\hat{\mathbf{c}}, \lambda)A(\hat{\mathbf{b}}, \lambda) \left(\frac{2}{\beta\hbar}\right)^2\right) \right| \\ &\leq \left(\beta \frac{\hbar}{2}\right)^2 \int d\lambda p_\lambda \left| \left(1 - A(\hat{\mathbf{c}}, \lambda)A(\hat{\mathbf{b}}, \lambda) \left(\frac{2}{\beta\hbar}\right)^2\right) \right| \\ &\leq \left(\beta \frac{\hbar}{2}\right)^2 - \int d\lambda p_\lambda (A(\hat{\mathbf{c}}, \lambda)A(\hat{\mathbf{b}}, \lambda)) \\ &\leq \left(\beta \frac{\hbar}{2}\right)^2 + (\hat{\mathbf{b}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}) \end{aligned} \quad (3.10)$$

To simplify the writing, let us take $\beta \frac{\hbar}{2}$ as length unit, that is $\beta \frac{\hbar}{2} \equiv 1$. One has thus :

$$\boxed{|(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}) - (\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}})| \leq 1 + (\hat{\mathbf{b}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}})} \quad (3.11)$$

It is under this form that Bell's inequality is usually given.

4 Classical Models of Spin Measurements

Several authors have tried to construct classical models which approach as closely as possible the quantum correlations. For example [5] contains several adjustable parameters allowing to approach the theoretical curve as close as possible (see picture below). The agreement is rather impressive.

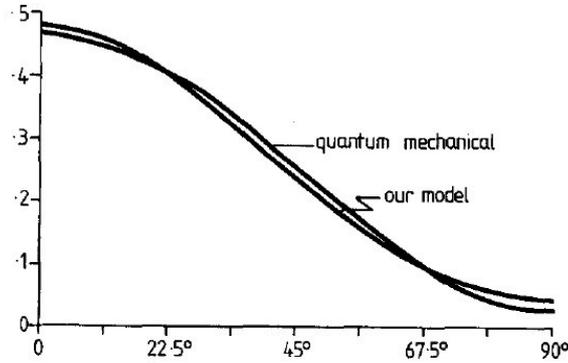


Figure 1: Adjustment of Marshall's classical calculation [5] with QM prediction.

I will base the following computation on an entirely classical spin model [1] and classical spin measurement model. Firstly, I will suppose that the spin effectively corresponds to a proper rotation of the particle around its axis. In the classical model, the spinning particle behaves like a spinning-top and tends to conserve its spin orientation by the gyroscopic effect, as long as no couple is applied.

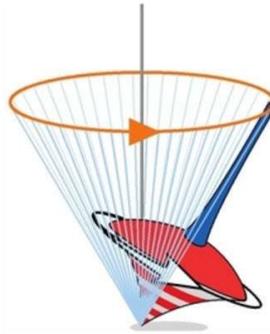


Figure 2: Due to the dipolar magnetic interaction the spin precesses around the field axis.

In the quantum framework the spin measurement always gives $\pm \hbar/2$, whatever the measurement axis. To explain that classically, one has just to imagine that the measuring apparatus (for example the magnetic field in the Stern-Gerlach device) breaks the symmetry of space and is able to act on the spin direction via a couple which forces it to precess around the apparatus symmetry axis. It is the dipolar magnetic interaction between the magnetic moment associated with the spinor and the magnetic field which forces the spin to precess. Thus, the direction of spin makes an angle with the field axis, which is such that the spin length

$$S = \sqrt{s(s+1)}\hbar = \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)}\hbar = \frac{\hbar}{2}\sqrt{3} \quad (4.1)$$

is compatible with the projection $\hbar/2$ on the field axis.

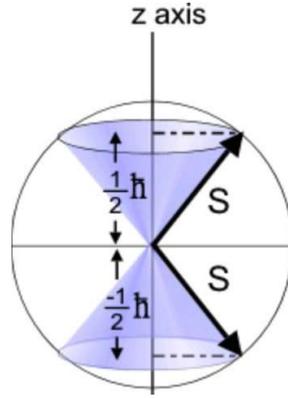


Figure 3: The spin and its projection on the field axis.

The classical interpretation of the Aspect experiment would then be : the two particles with spin $\frac{1}{2}$ are simultaneously produced with anti-correlated spins whose common axis can take any direction. This orientation is conserved (conservation of total angular momentum) whatever the particle separation so long as they propagate in the vacuum. When particle 1 arrives at the measuring apparatus A , it has a spin whose direction makes an angle with the polarizer axis, say α_A . Due to the action of the polarizer, the spin precesses around the polarizer axis.

Similarly, when particle 2 arrives at the measuring apparatus B, its spin makes an angle α_B with the polarizer axis there. The correlation between measurements at both polarizers should depend on the directions of the polarizer's axis and on the initial direction of the spins (the hidden variable).

5 Correlation Measurements revisited

Bell's theory rests on a very simple law:

$$(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}) = \int d\lambda p_\lambda A(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \lambda) B(\hat{\mathbf{b}}, \lambda) \quad (5.1)$$

where $(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}})$ is the classical averaged value of the correlated measurements of the spins along the polarizer's direction and where λ represents the set of hidden variables. But this way of representing $(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}})$ is correct only for the class of classical linear theories which are purely deterministic. It seems too restrictive for the larger class of non-fully deterministic, non-linear theories.

In such systems, very sensible to perturbations, one can only give a probability p_i for the system to be in state i . Hence the equation giving the average value of correlated measurements (5.1) becomes more complex:

$$\begin{aligned} (\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}) &= \int d\lambda p_\lambda \sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^2 p_i^1(\lambda) S_i^1(\hat{\mathbf{a}}) p_j^2(\lambda) S_j^2(\hat{\mathbf{b}}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^2 S_i^1(\hat{\mathbf{a}}) S_j^2(\hat{\mathbf{b}}) \int d\lambda p_\lambda p_i^1(\lambda) p_j^2(\lambda) \end{aligned} \quad (5.2)$$

In the expression above, p_i^1 denotes the probability to measure a particular configuration (parallel or anti-parallel) of the spin 1 with respect to the polarizer axis $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$. Similarly, p_j^2 relates to the spin 2 configuration with respect to $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$. The i index refers to all possible configurations of spin 1 after measurements. As we shall see later, its two possible values correspond to the following cases:

$$\begin{cases} i = 1 & \text{no spin flip} \\ i = 2 & \text{spin flip} \end{cases}$$

And the same for spin 2. Of course, we must have:

$$\sum_{i=1}^2 p_i^1 = 1 \quad ; \quad \sum_{j=1}^2 p_j^2 = 1 \quad (5.3)$$

In particular, for the spin measurements which interest us here, the hidden variables are the angles (θ, φ) which fix the initial direction of the spin common axis and one has for (5.2) :

$$(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}) = \int_0^{2\pi} d\varphi \int_0^\pi d\theta \sin \theta p(\theta, \varphi) \sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^2 p_i^1(\theta, \varphi) S_i^1(\hat{\mathbf{a}}) p_j^2(\theta, \varphi) S_j^2(\hat{\mathbf{b}}) \quad (5.4)$$

where $p(\theta, \varphi)$ represents the probability that the axis which supports the two anti-correlated spins be oriented in the direction (θ, φ) . But all the axis direction are equiprobable and so $p(\theta, \varphi) = p = \text{constant}$. To determine this constant, we remember that the total probability must be normalized, that is :

$$\begin{aligned} \int d\lambda p(\theta, \varphi) &= 1 \\ \int_0^{2\pi} d\varphi \int_0^\pi d\theta \sin \theta p &= 4\pi p = 1 \quad \rightarrow \quad p = \frac{1}{4\pi} \end{aligned} \quad (5.5)$$

$S_i^1(\hat{\mathbf{a}})$ is the measure of spin \hat{S}_1 , in the direction $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$, of the state (designated by index i) which the spin \hat{S}_1 takes after interacting with the polarizer. Since in our model the spins may eventually terminate in positions parallel or anti-parallel to the polarizer axis (see explanation below), one has:

$$\begin{aligned} S_1^1(\hat{\mathbf{a}}) &= +\frac{\hbar}{2}\sqrt{3} \quad ; \quad S_2^1(\hat{\mathbf{a}}) = -\frac{\hbar}{2}\sqrt{3} \\ S_1^2(\hat{\mathbf{b}}) &= +\frac{\hbar}{2}\sqrt{3} \quad ; \quad S_2^2(\hat{\mathbf{b}}) = -\frac{\hbar}{2}\sqrt{3} \end{aligned} \quad (5.6.a)$$

If the spins precess but do not align, we have:

$$S_1^1(\hat{\mathbf{a}}) = +\frac{\hbar}{2} \quad ; \quad S_2^1(\hat{\mathbf{a}}) = -\frac{\hbar}{2} \quad (5.6.b)$$

$$S_1^2(\hat{\mathbf{b}}) = +\frac{\hbar}{2} \quad ; \quad S_2^2(\hat{\mathbf{b}}) = -\frac{\hbar}{2}$$

One difficulty is to find plausible values for the probabilities $p_i^1(\theta, \varphi), p_j^2(\theta, \varphi)$. One can reasonably suppose that $p_i^1(\theta, \varphi)$ depends only on the angle α_A between \hat{s}_1 (fixed in direction by (θ, φ)) and \hat{a} . It must evolve between 0 and 1 and be equal to 1 when the direction of \hat{s}_1 coincides with that of \hat{a} . One is easily convinced that, when α_A is acute, the following can be used:

$$p_1^1 = \left(\frac{1 + \cos \alpha_A}{2} \right) = \cos^2 \left(\frac{\alpha_A}{2} \right) \quad (5.7)$$

In the obtuse case, the probability becomes:

$$p_2^1 = 1 - \left(\frac{1 + \cos \alpha_A}{2} \right) = \left(\frac{1 - \cos \alpha_A}{2} \right) = \sin^2 \left(\frac{\alpha_A}{2} \right) \quad (5.8)$$

We are now able to compute (\hat{a}, \hat{b}) .

The state before measurement is shown below:

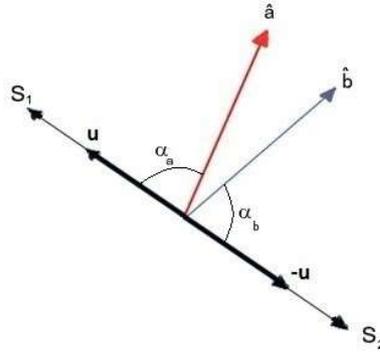


Figure 4: Original positions of the spins and the polarizers axis.

One supposes that in this state, that is just after emission of the particle pair, spin \hat{s}_1 is oriented along $\hat{u}(\theta, \varphi)$ and spin \hat{s}_2 in the anti-parallel direction, namely $\hat{u}(\pi - \theta, \varphi + \pi)$. We call α_A the measure of the angle between \hat{a} and the axis $\hat{u}(\theta, \varphi)$. Similarly, we call α_B the measure of the angle between \hat{b} and the axis $\hat{u}(\pi - \theta, \varphi + \pi) = -\hat{u}(\theta, \varphi)$.

When one interposes the polarizer fields, the respective spins which are initially anti-correlated will reorient themselves to fall in positions where they are aligned with the field axis (or precess around it). But they will fall in one of the two possible orientations (parallel or anti-parallel) with a probability which only depends on the angle between their initial position and the polarizer field axis, as we have shown above. We are thus going to make a great number of measurements with pairs oriented differently, and we will have, after measurements, four possible situations corresponding to the four graphs below:

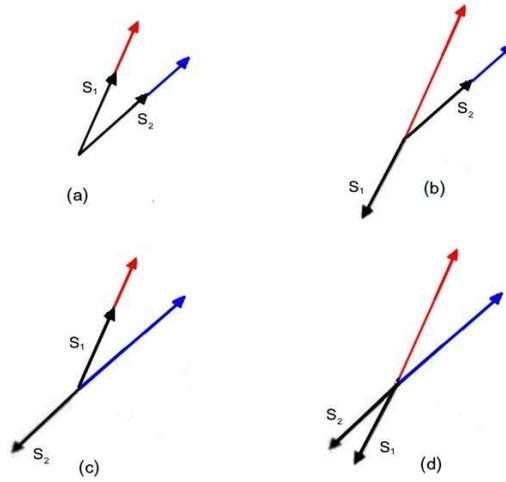


Figure 5: The four possible arrangements of the spins with respect to the polarizer's axis after interaction with the field.

They correspond respectively to the following cases:

- Case (a): no spin flip.
- Case (b): flip of spin 1.
- Case (c): flip of spin 2.
- Case (d): flip of spins 1 and 2.

Let us suppose, without loss of generality, that for the example considered here, both angles α_A and α_B are acute (one can reproduce the calculations by supposing that one of the two angles is obtuse, or both are, and one can check that this has no influence on the final result).

Let us consider initially a single initial position (θ, φ) for the common spin axis and let us sum the results of measurements by affecting to each case the adequate probability coefficient. One finds :

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^2 p_i^1(\theta, \varphi) S_i^1(\hat{\mathbf{a}}) p_j^2(\theta, \varphi) S_j^2(\hat{\mathbf{b}}) = \\
 \left(\frac{1 + \cos \alpha_A}{2} \right) \left(+\sqrt{3} \frac{\hbar}{2} \right) \left(\frac{1 + \cos \alpha_B}{2} \right) \left(+\sqrt{3} \frac{\hbar}{2} \right) \\
 + \left(\frac{1 - \cos \alpha_A}{2} \right) \left(-\sqrt{3} \frac{\hbar}{2} \right) \left(\frac{1 + \cos \alpha_B}{2} \right) \left(+\sqrt{3} \frac{\hbar}{2} \right) \\
 + \left(\frac{1 + \cos \alpha_A}{2} \right) \left(+\sqrt{3} \frac{\hbar}{2} \right) \left(\frac{1 - \cos \alpha_B}{2} \right) \left(-\sqrt{3} \frac{\hbar}{2} \right) \\
 + \left(\frac{1 - \cos \alpha_A}{2} \right) \left(-\sqrt{3} \frac{\hbar}{2} \right) \left(\frac{1 - \cos \alpha_B}{2} \right) \left(-\sqrt{3} \frac{\hbar}{2} \right) \\
 = 3 \left(\frac{\hbar}{2} \right)^2 \cos \alpha_A \cos \alpha_B
 \end{aligned} \tag{5.9}$$

This result clearly demonstrates that, in our case of a non-fully deterministic theory, it is Bell's basic assumption $A(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \lambda) = \pm \beta \frac{\hbar}{2}$ which is violated. We will also show in the next chapter that it is because we are violating this condition that we will be able to reproduce the correct angular behaviour of $(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}})$.

6 Integration on Hidden Variables

We must next integrate this result on all possible orientations (θ, φ) of the initial spin axis. But to do this we must first express α_A and α_B as a function of (θ, φ) . One has :

$$\begin{aligned} \cos \alpha_A &= \hat{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}(\theta, \varphi) = (a_x \mathbf{i} + a_y \mathbf{j} + a_z \mathbf{k}) \cdot (\sin \theta \cos \varphi \mathbf{i} + \sin \theta \sin \varphi \mathbf{j} + \cos \theta \mathbf{k}) \\ &= (a_x \sin \theta \cos \varphi + a_y \sin \theta \sin \varphi + a_z \cos \theta) \end{aligned} \quad (6.1)$$

Similarly :

$$\begin{aligned} \cos \alpha_B &= \hat{\mathbf{b}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}(\pi - \theta, \varphi + \pi) = -\hat{\mathbf{b}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}(\theta, \varphi) \\ &= -(b_x \mathbf{i} + b_y \mathbf{j} + b_z \mathbf{k}) \cdot (\sin \theta \cos \varphi \mathbf{i} + \sin \theta \sin \varphi \mathbf{j} + \cos \theta \mathbf{k}) \\ &= -(b_x \sin \theta \cos \varphi + b_y \sin \theta \sin \varphi + b_z \cos \theta) \end{aligned} \quad (6.2)$$

The statistical result of correlated measurements of the spins along the polarizers field axis will thus be, with (5.9), (6.1) and (6.2) :

$$\begin{aligned} (\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}) &= \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} d\varphi \int_0^\pi d\theta \sin \theta \ 3 \left(\frac{\hbar}{2}\right)^2 \cos \alpha_A \cos \alpha_B \\ &= -3 \left(\frac{\hbar}{2}\right)^2 \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} d\varphi \int_0^\pi d\theta \sin \theta (a_x \sin \theta \cos \varphi + a_y \sin \theta \sin \varphi + a_z \cos \theta) \\ &\quad \times (b_x \sin \theta \cos \varphi + b_y \sin \theta \sin \varphi + b_z \cos \theta) \\ &= -3 \left(\frac{\hbar}{2}\right)^2 \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} d\varphi \int_0^\pi d\theta \sin \theta \end{aligned} \quad (6.3)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\{ (a_x b_x \sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \varphi + a_x b_y \sin^2 \theta \cos \varphi \sin \varphi + a_x b_z \sin \theta \cos \theta \cos \varphi) \\ &+ (a_y b_x \sin^2 \theta \cos \varphi \sin \varphi + a_y b_y \sin^2 \theta \sin^2 \varphi + a_y b_z \sin \theta \cos \theta \sin \varphi) \\ &+ (a_z b_x \sin \theta \cos \theta \cos \varphi + a_z b_y \sin \theta \cos \theta \sin \varphi + a_z b_z \cos^2 \theta) \} \end{aligned}$$

After integration, we notice that all non-diagonal terms disappear and that all diagonal terms have the same coefficient. We thus obtain :

$$\begin{aligned} (\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}) &= -3 \left(\frac{\hbar}{2}\right)^2 \frac{1}{4\pi} \frac{4\pi}{3} \{a_x b_x + a_y b_y + a_z b_z\} \\ &= -\left(\frac{\hbar}{2}\right)^2 \hat{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{b}} \end{aligned} \quad (6.4.a)$$

If the spins precess but do not align, our classical model gives:

$$(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}) = -\left(\frac{\hbar}{2}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) \hat{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{b}} \quad (6.4.b)$$

which differs from the QM result by a factor $1/3$.

Notice that we obtain the correct angular dependence $\hat{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{b}}$ precisely because our assumptions violate Bell's hypothesis $A(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \lambda) = \pm\beta \frac{\hbar}{2}$.

7 The Case for Alignment of the Spin Axis

In this paragraph, we argue that the spin can be seen as, on average, aligned with the polarizer axis, while in fact, most of the time, it precesses around it.

But for this we must first try to understand the nature of QM. The latter shows that particles have an erratic motion and that they are accompanied by a wave. We make the hypothesis that there exists an underlying classical theory able to reproduce all predictions of QM. It will be non-linear and non-fully deterministic. Not fully deterministic because on each scale of the fractal universe there are fluctuations depending on the lower scales. Since it is impossible to know simultaneously all scales, a fully deterministic theory is not possible. Stochastic initial conditions have to be given.

A number of classical deterministic approaches try to mimic QM. For instance, Nelson [6] rederived Schrödinger's equation in terms of a conservative diffusion process. But he did not propose a physical mechanism for the quasi-Brownian motion and so had to postulate the intervention of non-classical forces on the particle. Following his seminal work, deterministic theories flourished in the '70. Davidson [7] showed that Nelson's non classical potential might arise from radiation reaction. In his view the particle diffuses on a fluctuating "vacuum" which has a very small, but not necessarily zero, temperature. He suggested that the fluctuating entity may be the cosmic background radiation field at $2.76 \text{ }^\circ\text{K}$.

The underlying classical theory would have two-time scales. Rapid fluctuations on a short time scale of the order of the Zitterbewegung characteristic time, and a longer time scale typical of atomic evolution. QM would correspond to the short time-scale average of this theory.

For example, when we examine the trajectories in phase-space of particle systems, we find limit cycles which coincide with the trajectories of quantum states. The non-linearity of the theory enables the system to move erratically from one limit cycle to another. When we take the short time scale average, what remains is the set of limit cycles characterizing the quantum system. So, we can explain why the wave function can appear as a linear combination of proper states.

The same kind of reduction via the short time average should be possible for spins placed in the magnetic field of the polarizer. Indeed, we now show that the spin can be seen at the same time as precessing and aligned. In the same way that the particle is submitted to erratic forces, its spin should feel erratic couples. Some of the latter should be able to force the spin to undergo displacements perpendicular to the conic surface, and eventually across the central position. The resulting motion of the spin is a combination of precession and erratic criss-crossing of the conic region. The QM result should be the short time average of this motion. As the positions inside the cone are equiprobable, we can, in the short-time average, view the spin as aligned with the field axis.

If this reasoning is correct, the results of the calculations via QM or HV are exactly the same.

8 Discussion

If the erratic couples are able to align (in the short-time average, the spins along the polarizer field axis, then we obtain exactly the same result in the classical and the quantum calculations.

This means that we may be able to reproduce exactly the quantum correlations in the EPR-Bohm experiment with a hidden variable model which is local and realistic. However, this does not imply that Bell's theorem is incorrect because it should be remembered that we have been forced to modify Bell's basic assumption (3.2) in a non-trivial way to encompass non-linear stochastic classical theories. So, it simply means that Bell's theorem, as it currently stands, does not apply to this larger class of theories.

9 Bibliography

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