

Elliptic de Sitter space: dS/\mathbb{Z}_2

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We propose that, for every event in de Sitter space, there is a *CPT*-conjugate event at its antipode. Such an “elliptic” \mathbb{Z}_2 identification of de Sitter space provides a concrete realization of observer complementarity: every observer has complete information. It is possible to define the analogue of an *S* matrix for quantum gravity in elliptic de Sitter space that is measurable by all observers. In a holographic description, *S*-matrix elements may be represented by correlation functions of a dual (conformal field) theory that lives on the single boundary sphere. *S*-matrix elements are de Sitter invariant, but have different interpretations for different observers. We argue that Hilbert states do not necessarily form representations of the full de Sitter group, but just of the subgroup of rotations. As a result, the Hilbert space can be finite dimensional and still have a positive norm. We also discuss the elliptic interpretation of de Sitter space in the context of type IIB* string theory.

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I. INTRODUCTION

In a monograph first published in 1956, Schrödinger [1] describes a troubling consequence of the exponential expansion of space in a de Sitter universe, namely, that different observers would be swept out of each other’s event horizons: “It does seem rather odd that two or more observers, even such as ‘sat on the same school bench’ in the remote past, should in future, when they have ‘followed different paths in life,’ experience different worlds, so that eventually certain parts of the experienced world of one of them should remain *by principle* inaccessible to the other and vice versa.” The separation of spacetime into causally inaccessible regions is not just unaesthetic, but conceptually problematic. It suggests, for instance, that pure states could evolve into mixed states, as degrees of freedom disappear across the horizon. For an observer in de Sitter space this would manifest itself as quantum decoherence and a loss of information.

Similar issues arose in the study of the information loss problem for black holes. Gedanken experiments in that context essentially led to the conclusion that unitarity could be preserved for all observers if one allowed for a duplication of information on either side of the horizon. According to this “principle of black hole complementarity,” [2–4] the freely falling observer and the external observer would both be able to perform quantum mechanics experiments without any loss of coherence, but their interpretation of the physics would be quite different.

The arguments that led to black hole complementarity can

also be applied to other types of event horizons, in particular to cosmological event horizons. A better name therefore would be “observer complementarity.” In its strongest form it postulates that each observer has complete information, and can in principle describe everything that happens within his/her cosmological horizon using pure states. This information may appear to different observers in different—complementary—guises: one observer may pass smoothly through the horizon, whereas another observer may see there a source of hot radiation. Although these drastically different realities may seem to be inconsistent, it is important to recognize that paradoxes arise only when one takes the unphysical perspective of a global superobserver.

The question now is, is there a way to implement observer complementarity in de Sitter space? There is, as was already noted by Schrödinger. In his “elliptic interpretation”¹ of de Sitter space, Schrödinger proposed a simple \mathbb{Z}_2 identification of spacetime by declaring antipodes to represent the same event. Schrödinger’s motivation was indeed to give all observers complete information about all events, and thus in a way he argued already in 1956 in favor of observer complementarity. In this paper, we consider the consequences of the elliptic interpretation. We find that elliptic de Sitter space has some rather remarkable properties. Indeed, not only does it lead to a concrete realization of observer complementarity, it also improves the nature of many of the severe theoretical challenges that de Sitter space presents. The main aim of this paper therefore is to rediscuss, in the context of this elliptic interpretation, the conceptual issues raised in the recent lit-

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¹The term “elliptic” refers to the fact that identified points are related by elliptic, i.e., spacelike, generators, as distinct from hyperbolic (timelike) or parabolic (null) generators.

erature. In particular, we would like to readdress the problem of defining an S -like matrix in a quantum gravity theory in asymptotic de Sitter space.

Let us briefly review the puzzles that arise in conventional de Sitter space. We have already mentioned observer complementarity. Another issue is that of holography. We would like to have a holographic dual description of gravity for all of the various asymptotic geometries. Recently, we have learned to describe string theory in spacetimes that asymptotically approach an anti-de Sitter geometry. The AdS conformal field theory (CFT) correspondence is by now well established, and in principle gives a nice holographic description of string theory in these backgrounds. In Minkowski space too, there are reasons to believe that a holographic description may exist that involves holographic screens at past and future null infinity [5,6]. But de Sitter space requires yet another type of holography, because there is no spatial or null infinity. Various authors have argued that it should be a kind of timelike holography, for which the holographic screens are spacelike surfaces in the asymptotic past or future of global de Sitter space. Strominger, most notably, has proposed a dS/CFT correspondence [7] similar to AdS/CFT correspondence.

A somewhat confusing aspect of holography in global de Sitter space, however, is that it has two disconnected boundaries. If we think of the dual CFT as living on these boundaries, then we have to somehow compute correlation functions of operators some of which may be inserted on one boundary, while others may act on another boundary. Not only is it unclear how to compute such correlation functions, it is also unclear what their physical interpretation is.

A related problem arises in trying to define the analogue of an S matrix. In quantum field theory, asymptotic incoming and outgoing states are properly defined only in the asymptotic regions of spacetime. But for de Sitter space these regions are spacelike, and there is no single observer who can determine the states both at past infinity as well as at future infinity. Consequently, the matrix elements of S -like matrices in de Sitter space are not measurable quantities; they are mere metaobservables, rather than observables. When one considers quantum gravity in asymptotically de Sitter space, the situation becomes even more serious. As has been pointed out by Witten, the only available pairing between in states and out states, CPT , is used to obtain an inner product for the Hilbert space [8]. There does not seem to be an additional pairing between in and out states that could be used to arrive at an S matrix. As the conventional formulation of string theory is based on the existence of an S matrix, the lack of an analogue of an S matrix is worrisome.

Finally, we come to the question of the de Sitter entropy [9]. Conventional global de Sitter space makes it hard to understand the finiteness of the entropy, for, in the far past, the asymptotic geometry is that of an enormous sphere, which can be perturbed in very many ways. The vast majority of these perturbations do not lead to a spacetime that is asymptotically de Sitter in the future; instead, singularities and black holes form. How the finite number of states that do lead to asymptotically de Sitter in the future are characterized is still a mystery.

This paper is organized as follows. In Sec. II we briefly describe de Sitter space and point out, by way of motivation, some facts about de Sitter space that support the proposed \mathbb{Z}_2 identification. In Sec. III, we define Schrödinger's antipodal identification, and refine it to include CPT . We then discuss its classical properties and show that elliptic de Sitter space does not suffer from any obvious problems, such as closed timelike curves. Next, in Sec. IV, we consider quantum fields propagating in this space. In particular, we discuss the vacuum state in the Fock space of a free scalar field. In Sec. V, we consider holography. It is here that the advantages of the elliptic interpretation are perhaps most evident; conceptually, the holographic theory seems to have a more natural interpretation with the \mathbb{Z}_2 identification than without. In Sec. VI, we discuss how elliptic de Sitter space might be realized in string theory. We conclude in Sec. VII.

II. MIRROR IMAGES IN de SITTER SPACE

Empty de Sitter space is the unique spacetime with maximal symmetry and constant positive curvature. In D spacetime dimensions, it is locally characterized by

$$R_{ab} = \frac{D-1}{R^2} g_{ab}, \quad (1)$$

where R is the radius of curvature of de Sitter space, and by the vanishing of the Weyl tensor. The cosmological constant Λ is a function of R . With the local geometry fixed, the only remaining freedom lies in choosing the global topology.

It is convenient to think of de Sitter space as a timelike hyperboloid embedded in $(D+1)$ -dimensional Minkowski space. The embedding equation is

$$-X_0^2 + X_1^2 + \dots + X_D^2 = R^2, \quad (2)$$

where X_I are Cartesian coordinates in Minkowski space. Equation (2) makes the $O(1,D)$ isometry group of de Sitter space manifest. Note that $O(1,D)$, the Lorentz group in $D+1$ spacetime dimensions, has four disconnected components. These are the proper orthochronous Lorentz group and its composition with the discrete symmetries of P and T , i.e., with parity and time reversal. By parity we will always mean a reflection in a hyperplane of one spatial codimension rather than spatial inversion through the origin; the discussion is therefore unaffected by whether the spacetime dimension is odd or even.

For a given point on de Sitter space at embedding coordinate X , we define the *antipodal point* to be the point obtained by reflection through the origin of Minkowski space, i.e., the point with embedding coordinate $-X$. We then define *elliptic de Sitter space* to be the spacetime in which for every physical event at any point on de Sitter space there is a CPT -conjugate event at the antipodal point. Hence we are using our freedom of topology to impose a \mathbb{Z}_2 identification of de Sitter space. Note that the connected part of the isometry group remains unchanged after the identification; the \mathbb{Z}_2 identification mods out by a center of the de Sitter group. The preservation of all local isometries justifies the appellation "de Sitter space."

In the remainder of this section, we consider various properties of global de Sitter space that suggest that information on one side of the horizon is mirrored on the other side. We do not claim that de Sitter space *must* be antipodally identified; rather, the examples should be seen as circumstantial evidence that elliptic de Sitter space may be more natural than global de Sitter space. For a detailed description of the classical properties of de Sitter space, see [10]; for a recent review, see [11].

A. Mirror singularities

The great circles, or geodesics, of a sphere are determined by the intersection of the sphere with planes that pass through the origin. Similarly, the spatial geodesics of de Sitter space can be obtained by intersecting it with spacelike planes through the origin of Minkowski space. It is clear then that *every* spatial geodesic that passes through a point must also pass through its antipode, because if X lies in a plane through the origin then so does $-X$. These geodesics form ellipses which are related to each other by de Sitter transformations. If we think of null rays as degenerate spatial geodesics, and if we allow them to “bounce off” null infinity, then *all* light rays leaving a point converge on the antipodal point. This last fact affects the singularity structure of Green’s functions of quantum fields.

Consider a scalar field in de Sitter space. It is convenient to express de Sitter-invariant equations in terms of a dimensionless de Sitter-invariant variable Z . We can define such a variable by

$$Z(X, Y) = \frac{1}{R^2} X \cdot Y, \quad (3)$$

where the dot product is given by the Minkowski metric. Obviously Z is Lorentz invariant in $D+1$ dimensions, and therefore de Sitter invariant in D dimensions. For points that are connected by geodesics, $R \arccos Z$ corresponds to the geodesic distance. In particular, for any given X if Y is on the light cone of X , then $Y = X + N$ with $N^2 = 0$. Since X and Y must both lie on the same de Sitter hypersurface, $X^2 = Y^2 = R^2$, and therefore $Z = +1$. On the other hand, if Y is on the light cone of the antipodal point, $Y = -X + N$, and so here Z takes the value -1 .

The wave equation for a massive scalar field written in terms of Z is

$$\left((1-Z^2) \frac{d^2}{dZ^2} - DZ \frac{d}{dZ} - m^2/R^2 \right) \phi(Z) = 0. \quad (4)$$

The Wightman functions obey this equation. The precise form of the solution, a hypergeometric function, is immaterial; the key point is that it is singular at $Z = 1$. This is analogous to the usual short-distance singularity at $\sigma = 0$ that one has in Minkowski space along the light cones. But now the wave equation is symmetric under $Z \rightarrow -Z$. Therefore in de Sitter space there is a second solution to Eq. (4) with a singularity at $Z = -1$, i.e., on the light cones of the antipode. Hence we see that, in contrast to Minkowski space, singularities of Green’s functions in de Sitter space seem to come

in pairs. The mirror singularity along the antipodal light cones is our first example of duplication in de Sitter space.

B. Mirror black holes

As a second example, consider a Schwarzschild–de Sitter black hole in $D = d+1$ spacetime dimensions. The line element has the form

$$ds^2 = -F(r)dt^2 + F^{-1}(r)dr^2 + r^2 d\Omega_{d-1}^2, \quad (5)$$

$$F(r) = 1 - \frac{2M}{r^{d-2}} - \frac{r^2}{R^2}. \quad (6)$$

If $0 < M < M_{\max}$,² there are two horizons: a cosmological horizon at $r = r_c$ and a black hole horizon at $r = r_{\text{BH}}$, where $r_c > r_{\text{BH}}$. We will show that, when the solution is analytically extended, there is a mirror black hole on the other side of the cosmological horizon. Let us introduce Kruskal-Szekeres-type coordinates and analytically continue the metric beyond the cosmological horizon. Note that *a priori* the coordinates in Eq. (5) are only valid for $r_{\text{BH}} < r < r_c$.

In terms of its roots, the function $F(r)$ can be written as

$$F(r) = -\frac{1}{R^2 r^{d-2}} (r - r_c)(r - r_{\text{BH}}) \prod_{n=3}^d (r - r_n), \quad (7)$$

where r_c and r_{BH} are the only real positive roots. Hence

$$F^{-1}(r) = \frac{c_1}{r - r_c} + \frac{c_2}{r - r_{\text{BH}}} + \sum_{n=3}^d \frac{c_n}{r - r_n}, \quad (8)$$

for certain constants c_n . We define Eddington-Finkelstein coordinates through

$$dx^\pm = dt \pm \frac{dr}{F(r)}, \quad (9)$$

which, using Eq. (8), is easily integrated to give

$$x^\pm = t \pm \left\{ c_1 \ln(r - r_c) + c_2 \ln(r - r_{\text{BH}}) + \sum_{n=3}^d c_n \ln(r - r_n) \right\}. \quad (10)$$

In terms of these coordinates, the metric takes the form

$$ds^2 = -F(r)dx^+ dx^- + r^2 d\Omega_{d-1}^2. \quad (11)$$

Finally, we introduce Kruskal-Szekeres coordinates through

$$\begin{aligned} U &= e^{-x^-/2c_1}, \\ V &= -e^{x^+/2c_1}, \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

where it is clear that $U > 0$ and $V < 0$. The metric becomes

² $M_{\max} = (1/d)[(d-2)(d-1)/2\Lambda]^{(d-2)/2}$ is the maximal mass. At this value the black hole and cosmological horizons coincide.

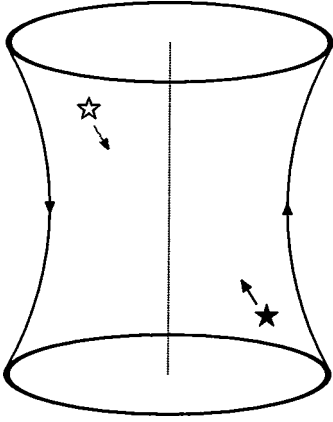


FIG. 1. The antipodal map reverses the local arrow of time.

$$ds^2 = 4c_1^2 \frac{F(r)}{UV} dU dV + r^2(U, V) d\Omega_{d-1}^2. \quad (13)$$

In terms of these coordinates the metric is regular at $r=r_c$ and we can analytically continue to the full range $-\infty < U, V < \infty$. Note from Eqs. (10) and (12) that $r(U, V) = r(UV)$ and thus $F(r) = F(UV)$. Hence, if $F(UV)$ is zero for certain nonzero values of U and V , e.g., at the black hole horizon, then it will also be zero at $-U$ and $-V$. This second horizon is antipodal from the first and thus we find that black holes in de Sitter space come in antipodal pairs. Actually this is a choice: instead of extending the metric analytically entirely to the other side, we could have replaced the antipodal black hole by a static, spherically symmetric mass distribution with the same total mass.

Now consider adding charge to the de Sitter black hole [12]. de Sitter space cannot support Noether charges because its spatial sections are compact. The total charge has to add up to zero; the antipodal black hole therefore necessarily carries equal but opposite charge. Moreover, for the same reason there cannot be any net angular momentum. This leads us to propose that the antipodal map must be combined with charge conjugation C .

III. THE ELLIPTIC INTERPRETATION OF de SITTER SPACE

The elliptic interpretation of de Sitter space consists of identifying points that are related by the antipodal map

$$X^I \rightarrow -X^I, \quad (14)$$

with $I=0,1,\dots,D$, together with charge conjugation C . We will see that this means that particles and/or events at X^I and $-X^I$ are related by CPT. We thus have an involution, a \mathbb{Z}_2 map. The fixed point of the map, $X^I=0$, is not itself in de Sitter space, so this is a freely acting symmetry. The quotient space dS/\mathbb{Z}_2 is therefore a homogeneous space with no special points.

Note that the antipodal map also inverts the direction of time; see Fig. 1. For example, consider global coordinates. The line element reads

$$ds^2 = -dT^2 + R^2 \cosh^2(T/R) (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\Omega_{D-2}^2). \quad (15)$$

In these coordinates the antipodal map is given by

$$T \rightarrow -T, \quad \theta \rightarrow \pi - \theta, \quad \Omega \rightarrow \Omega^A, \quad (16)$$

where Ω^A are the angular coordinates of the point antipodal on the $(D-2)$ -dimensional sphere to the point labeled by Ω , and time is reversed, $T \rightarrow -T$. In the rest of this section, we show that elliptic de Sitter space is nevertheless classically consistent, with no problems of causality or closed timelike curves. We will also demonstrate that the map between a particle and its antipodal image is CPT.

A. Causality

The antipodal map identifies points at positive T with points at negative T , and so one may wonder whether there are problems with causality or closed timelike curves. That such problems do not arise was explained by Schrödinger [1]. We just give here our version of the argument.

First, let us go to the embedding space. It is easily seen that two antipodal points at X and $-X$ are always spacelike separated, since $X^2 = R^2 > 0$. Moreover, the intersection of the two light cones that start at antipodal points never intersect the de Sitter hypersurfaces, because if Y is the embedding coordinate of a common point on the light cones emanating from X and $-X$, then

$$(Y+X)^2 = (Y-X)^2 = 0 \Rightarrow Y^2 = -R^2, \quad (17)$$

so Y does not lie on the de Sitter hypersurface. This means that the light cones of two antipodal points within de Sitter space do not intersect. Therefore a pair of events that take place at antipodal points cannot both influence the same event in their past and future. In particular, there are no closed timelike curves after \mathbb{Z}_2 identification.

What about closed null curves? A point on \mathcal{I}^- is connected by a lightlike trajectory to its antipodal image on \mathcal{I}^+ . So at first this appears to give rise to an infinity of closed lightlike trajectories. However, these light rays do not constitute closed trajectories in de Sitter space for three important reasons. First of all, ‘‘points’’ at \mathcal{I}^+ and \mathcal{I}^- are not really points in de Sitter space. They have to be added as points at ‘‘infinity,’’ and so they are only part of a formal compactification of de Sitter space. de Sitter space itself is noncompact and does not include these points. A second, related reason is that the affine parameter along the seemingly closed lightlike trajectory is actually infinite, essentially because the points are at \mathcal{I} . Finally, a third reason that the lightlike trajectory is not really closed is that one cannot continue along the trajectory a second time, third time, etc., without reversing direction each time one is at the end points on \mathcal{I}^+ or \mathcal{I}^- . This is not what happens on a usual closed trajectory, such as on a timelike S^1 .

It is also useful to analyze the antipodal identification from the point of view of inertial observers. All points inside the casual diamond of an observer have antipodal points outside the casual diamond. The antipodal points belong to the

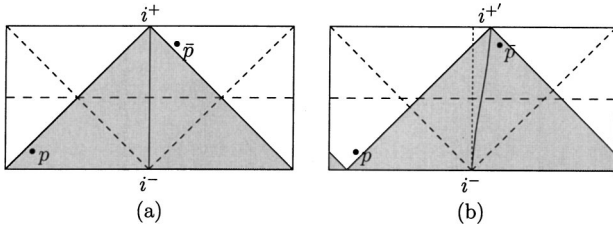


FIG. 2. These Penrose diagrams of de Sitter space have been opened up to make all antipodal points distinct. The left and right edges of a diagram are identified, and every point in the interior (except on the central vertical line) now signifies an RP^{D-2} , instead of an S^{D-2} . The antipode of a given point is reached by reflecting about the dashed horizontal line, and moving horizontally by half the width of the diagram. Two antipodes, marked p and \bar{p} , are shown. In (a) an observer traveling from i^- to i^+ has p but not \bar{p} in his causal past (shaded), while in (b) an observer with a different worldline can see \bar{p} but not p . The antipodal image of a shaded region is the unshaded region, giving every observer complete information after the \mathbb{Z}_2 identification.

causal diamond of the antipodal observer, on the inaccessible “dark side of the moon.” Therefore exactly one of every pair of antipodal events is observable. Which event of each pair is observed depends on the location of the observer; see Fig. 2. For example, the observer living at the south pole will see precisely all antipodal images of the events that his colleague at the north pole sees. Other observers will see something in between, namely, for some part “northern” events, and for the rest “southern” events, but every event is observed once and no more than once.

What about events that take place outside the causal diamonds of the observer at the south and the north poles? These are the events that take place at the upper and lower parts of the Penrose diagram near past and future infinity. In the elliptic interpretation of de Sitter space these upper and lower regions are identified. The usual square Penrose diagram for de Sitter space is somewhat misleading in the sense that it seems to indicate that all points in the upper region are in the causal future of points of the lower region. But one has to remember that every point represents a $(D-2)$ -dimensional sphere, and points that are identified by the antipodal map are on opposite sides of these spheres. A clearer way to see the causal structure of elliptic de Sitter space is to represent the $(D-2)$ -dimensional spheres as two points, each of which is a real projective sphere; see Fig. 2. Now one can see that a geodesic that connects two identified points in the upper and lower regions has to travel forward in time, but also has to go around the sphere. Since all antipodal points are spacelike separated, the resulting geodesic is indeed spacelike.

Next consider the horizon itself. Without loss of generality we may consider an observer at the “north pole” $\theta=0$ of the spatial $(D-1)$ -dimensional sphere S^{D-1} . His past and future event horizons are given by $\theta=2 \arg(i+e^{\pm T/R})$, and intersect at $T=0$ at the equator of his $(D-1)$ -dimensional sphere, described by the $(D-2)$ -dimensional sphere at $\theta=\pi/2$. The intersection takes place at the midpoint of the square Penrose diagram. Therefore only by sending a signal at $T=-\infty$ can he contact the equator in time for a signal to

come back to him precisely at $T=\infty$. Hence, if we exclude the points at infinity, there is no way that the observer can communicate (sending a question and getting a reply) with points on the equator. Events that happen right on the equator are identified with the events that happen at the antipode of the equator itself. But this fact only becomes apparent to the observer at the north pole (or south pole) at $T=\infty$ (or $T=-\infty$). We conclude that at no finite time can any observer ever directly detect the duplication of events in elliptic de Sitter space.

Finally, note that the asymptotic geometry of elliptic de Sitter space consists of a single S^{D-1} , since the \mathbb{Z}_2 identification maps \mathcal{I}^+ and \mathcal{I}^- to each other. This property will be useful when we consider the holographic theory.

B. CPT

Any two antipodal points can be mapped to the north and south poles corresponding to $X^D=\pm R$, $X^k=0$ for $k=0,1,\dots,D-1$. Without loss of generality, consider a particle with trajectory $X^I(\tau)$, $I=0,1,\dots,D$, in the embedding space passing through the north pole at $\tau=0$. Its antipodal image is $-X^I(\tau)$ and passes through the south pole. Let us apply time reversal to the antipodal image:

$$T: -X^I(\tau) \rightarrow -X^I(-\tau). \quad (18)$$

The relativistic momentum of the particle at the north pole is $p^I=X^I$. Note that $p^D=0$ at $\tau=0$. At the south pole the momentum is also given by p^I since it is $-X^I(-\tau)$ differentiated with respect to τ at $\tau=0$. So in the embedding space the momentum is pointing in the same direction. However, in order to compare this to the momentum at the north pole, we have to parallel transport the vector from the south pole to the north pole. There are many ways of doing this because there are an infinite number of spatial geodesics passing through both the north and the south poles. Let us pick one of them, say the one that appears when we intersect de Sitter space with the two-dimensional plane $X^m=0$ for $m=0,1,\dots,D-2$. This gives as a geodesic $X^{D-1}=R \sin \theta$, $X^D=R \cos \theta$. At $\theta=0$ we are at the north pole, at $\theta=\pi$ at the south pole. Parallel transport of the momentum p^I along this trajectory gives a momentum $(p')^I$ which satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} (p')^m &= p^m, \quad m=0,\dots,D-2, \\ (p')^{D-1} &= -p^{D-1}. \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

We see that one of the spatial components of the momentum has changed sign. That is the result of a reflection in a $(D-2)$ -spatial-dimensional hyperplane. Thus it corresponds to parity, even though in the embedding space $X^I \rightarrow -X^I$ corresponds to an inversion. The plane of reflection in this case is the plane $X^{D-1}=0$. Had we chosen a different geodesic it would have been another plane. Note that this is consistent, because parallel transport along two different geodesics differs by a rotation equal to the integrated curvature between the geodesics. This is precisely what one finds if one composes the two reflections in the planes associated with those geodesics.

Therefore going around from a point in de Sitter space to its antipodal point has the effect of acting on the tangent space by PT . Since our \mathbb{Z}_2 map also requires that we act with charge conjugation C , the cumulative effect is to relate antipodal points by CPT .

C. The arrow of time

The antipodal map $X^I \rightarrow -X^I$ changes the sign of the time coordinate of the embedding space, and also that of the direction of time in de Sitter space. The resulting quotient space dS/\mathbb{Z}_2 is as a consequence not time orientable: although one can locally distinguish past and future, there is no global direction of time. This fact clearly changes many standard notions about space and time that we are accustomed to. For instance, it is impossible to choose a Cauchy surface for elliptic de Sitter space that divides spacetime into a future and a past region.

Since the microscopic laws of physics are generally time reversible, that is, CPT invariant, there is no problem with time unorientability at a microscopic level. It is more subtle, however, to formulate macroscopic laws of physics on a time unorientable spacetime. For example, the evolution of stars clearly shows a direction of time; one never observes a neutron star turning into a massive star through the enormous implosion of a stellar envelope, yet this is what the antipodal image of a type II supernova would look like.

For sufficiently simple situations, a single observer can always choose a preferred direction of time in the observable part of the universe, consistent with the second law of thermodynamics. Consider an isolated thermodynamic system in configuration A , with antipodal image A' , which evolves into system B , with antipodal image B' . If the entropies are such that $S(B) \gg S(A)$, an observer who observed both A and B would say that A preceded B . Since the primed and unprimed systems have the same entropy, this would mean that an observer who observed both A' and B' would say that A' preceded B' , and would therefore have time flowing in the opposite direction. Finally, an observer who saw, say, A and B' would see them as two distant, spacelike-separated systems, rather than one system evolving into another. For this observer the choice of the arrow of time is independent of the relative entropies of the two systems. In this simple scenario, no problems arise for any observer.

However, now consider a second thermodynamic system in states C and D . For example, A , B and C , D could describe the configurations before and after two supernova explosions. It is easy to check that, if both C and D are outside the past light cone of B , then there is always at least one observer who witnesses a dramatic violation of the second law, irrespective of the choice of time arrow. This is not fatal because, after all, the underlying dynamics do enjoy a CPT symmetry. Rather, the issue is of what the allowable initial conditions are. One consistent treatment is to say that there are simply no highly ordered systems present. (This would include, unfortunately, realistic observers.) Indeed, there are reasons to believe that our observed macroscopic arrow of time may be related to boundary conditions at cosmological singularities. It would be very interesting to see if there are

cosmological scenarios [13] that can be built out of elliptic de Sitter space.

An alternate and quite different viewpoint is to argue that before one can even assign events in spacetime, one should first choose an observer. Indeed, even classically, different observers can have rather different interpretations of local physics, as happens in the membrane paradigm for black holes [2,14,15]. Then for a given observer one can always arrange events to be consistent with the observer's preferred arrow of time. One only runs into trouble if one tries to consider many observers, who all choose a preferred time direction. But such considerations are against the notion of observer complementarity, which forbids simultaneous consideration of observers on opposite sides of an event horizon.

D. The $\Lambda \rightarrow 0$ limit

An interesting limit of de Sitter space is the limit in which the cosmological constant is sent to zero, so that spacetime locally becomes Minkowski space. This limit has to be treated with care; the quantities of interest should vary smoothly as $\Lambda \rightarrow 0$. For elliptic de Sitter space, the $\Lambda \rightarrow 0$ limit seems sensible. The causal properties of the \mathbb{Z}_2 quotient space for any finite Λ are similar to those of Minkowski space, in the sense that every observer who waits long enough has the chance to observe (and emit signals to) any event in spacetime, just as in Minkowski space. The main difference is that elliptic de Sitter space is not time orientable. However, as the cosmological constant goes to zero this difference disappears to the null boundaries.

Now, if elliptic de Sitter space goes to Minkowski space in this limit, it seems to imply that global de Sitter space, being its twofold cover, in fact goes to *two* copies of Minkowski space, where the second copy is the CPT conjugate of the first. The significance of these remarks will be more clear once we discuss the de Sitter analogue of an S matrix which, we will argue, exists in elliptic de Sitter space but does not appear to exist in global de Sitter space.

IV. QUANTUM FIELDS IN ELLIPTIC de SITTER SPACE

In this section, we study the quantization properties of a scalar field propagating in elliptic de Sitter space. Some aspects of the quantum field theory of a free scalar field in elliptic de Sitter space have previously been discussed in [16,17].³

Elliptic de Sitter space is not simply connected; there are closed spacelike curves going from a point to the antipodal point that are noncontractible. Therefore tensor fields on elliptic de Sitter space can be sections of a twisted bundle over spacetime. Since the first homotopy group is $\pi_1(dS_n/\mathbb{Z}_2) = \mathbb{Z}_2$, we can essentially choose a sign for the phase of a tensor field as the field is carried around a noncontractible loop. Consider then a complex scalar field. We can choose either periodic or antiperiodic boundary conditions. If we

³After this work had been posted, a paper [18] related to this section appeared on the archive.

choose periodic conditions, the condition a complex field must satisfy takes the form

$$\Phi_{\pm}(\bar{x}) = \pm \Phi_{\pm}^*(x), \quad (20)$$

where \bar{x} denotes the antipodal point to x , and the subscript \pm indicates whether we have chosen periodic or antiperiodic boundary conditions. If we write $\Phi_{\pm}(x) = \Phi_1(x) + i\Phi_2(x)$, then the real and imaginary parts have periodic (antiperiodic) and antiperiodic (periodic) boundary conditions, respectively, for the plus (minus) subscript.

Globally, one can expand a scalar field in terms of ‘‘Euclidean’’ modes. These are field configurations that satisfy the wave equation, with boundary conditions that are such that the modes can be analytically continued from the spherical harmonics on a sphere. A property of the Euclidean modes is that they can be chosen to obey

$$\phi_n^E(\bar{x}) = \phi_n^{E*}(x), \quad (21)$$

and we will assume that our modes satisfy this condition. Normally, one expands the field in terms of its modes as

$$\Phi_{\pm}(x) = \sum_n [a_{n,\pm} \phi_n^E(x) + a_{n,\pm}^{\dagger} \phi_n^{E*}(x)]. \quad (22)$$

In elliptic de Sitter space, however, the field must additionally obey the periodicity condition Eq. (20). This implies that

$$a_{n,\pm}^{\dagger} = \pm a_{n,\pm}, \quad (23)$$

indicating that the global quantization scheme breaks down. As a result, a global Fock space no longer exists; any creation operator acting on a vacuum state would annihilate it. Intuitively, this happens because the identified spacetime is not time orientable. Creation and annihilation operators create and destroy quanta of positive energy, but if the spacetime is not time orientable positive energy cannot be defined globally. For essentially the same reason, the inner product of modes over a spatial slice Σ through elliptic de Sitter space always gives zero. This is because the Klein-Gordon inner product

$$(\phi_m, \phi_n) = -i \int_{\Sigma} (\phi_m \partial_t \phi_n^* - \phi_n^* \partial_t \phi_m) \quad (24)$$

vanishes as a consequence of the flipping of the direction of time.

The vanishing of the norm and the lack of a nontrivial Fock space may seem like serious afflictions, but actually in elliptic de Sitter space it is more natural to build a Fock space with oscillators defined on a static patch. To see this, note that under the antipodal identification Cauchy surfaces for the static patch constitute Cauchy surfaces for the whole space, as shown in Fig. 3. Consider the static patch associated with an observer at the south pole, region I in Fig. 3. In this region there is a well-defined direction of time (except precisely at the horizon) and Fock space operators $a_{\omega}^{(I)}$ can consequently be defined. The vacuum is then defined in the usual way,

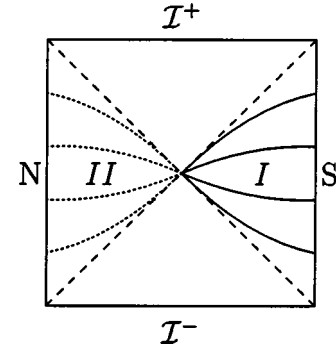


FIG. 3. Penrose diagram of de Sitter space. Region I (II) corresponds to the static patch of an observer on the south (north) pole. The solid lines indicate equal time slices in the static time; they are Cauchy surfaces for region I. The dotted lines are their antipodal images, and constitute Cauchy surfaces for region II. When a solid line is continued through the horizon, onto its antipodal image, it constitutes a Cauchy surface for the whole space.

$$a_{\omega}^I |vac\rangle = 0, \quad \forall \omega > 0, \quad (25)$$

and a Fock space can be constructed. The antipodal map identifies

$$a_{\omega}^{I(II)} \leftrightarrow a_{\omega}^{\dagger II(I)}, \quad (26)$$

i.e., creation (annihilation) operators in region I are identified with annihilation (creation) operators in region II; cf. Eq. (23). It would be interesting to work out the behavior of higher spin fields and, in particular, fermions in elliptic de Sitter space.

Different observers are related by Bogoliubov transformations. These are invertible, mapping pure states onto pure states. We expect no de Sitter-invariant pure states; in particular the vacuum state is not invariant, as is obvious by considering observers that are antipodal to each other. There are nevertheless de Sitter-invariant mixed states. These states correspond to de Sitter-invariant pure states in the global Fock space, traced over the modes behind the horizon. In particular, there is a state that is observed as a thermal state by any observer moving along a timelike geodesic $x(\tau)$. To see this, consider a real scalar field on the identified spacetime, given in terms of a scalar field on the unidentified space as

$$\Phi_{\pm}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [\Phi(x) \pm \Phi(\bar{x})]. \quad (27)$$

This field satisfies the condition Eq. (20) for a real field. The Wightman function takes the form [17]

$$G_{\pm}^0(x(\tau), x(\tau')) = G^0(x(\tau), x(\tau')) \pm G^0(x(\tau), \overline{x(\tau')}), \quad (28)$$

where $G^0(x, x')$ is the Euclidean Green’s function on the unidentified de Sitter space. In obtaining this we have used the fact that $G(x, x') = G(\bar{x}, \bar{x}')$, which holds because, under $x \rightarrow \bar{x}$ and $x' \rightarrow \bar{x}'$, the de Sitter-invariant quantity Z remains unchanged, and $G^0(x, x')$ is a function only of $Z(x, x')$ (see

Sec. II A) since the Wightman functions are de Sitter invariant. Assuming, without loss of generality, that the observer remains static on the south pole, $Z(x(\tau), x(\tau'))$ is given in terms of static coordinates by $\cosh[(\tau - \tau')/R]$ when τ is the proper time. The Green's function thus takes the form

$$G_{\pm}(x(\tau), x(\tau')) = G^0(\cosh[(\tau - \tau')/R]) \pm G^0(-\cosh[(\tau - \tau')/R]). \quad (29)$$

This is a thermal Green's function at a temperature $1/2\pi R$. So even though every observer in elliptic de Sitter space has complete information, one still has thermal states at the de Sitter temperature. This is because thermal emission of particles (which can be viewed as quanta that have tunneled through the horizon) is a process which only requires half of global de Sitter space [19–21]. Unlike the unidentifed case, however, there is no frame for which this Green's function corresponds to a pure vacuum state.

As discussed in [22–25], there is a one-parameter family of de Sitter-invariant Green's functions in unidentifed de Sitter space, parametrized by α , with the Euclidean Green's function corresponding (in the parametrization of [26]) to $\alpha = 0$. The existence of such a family stems from the fact that on de Sitter space one can add an antipodal source, as we saw in Sec. II A. The corresponding modes are related by Bogoliubov transformations:

$$\phi_n^{\alpha}(x) = \cosh \alpha \phi_n^E(x) + \sinh \alpha \phi_n^E(\bar{x}). \quad (30)$$

By Eq. (21), the new modes mix the old positive and negative energy modes and therefore define a new, inequivalent vacuum. The α vacua $|\alpha\rangle$, called Mottola-Allen states [26,27], form a one-parameter family of de Sitter-invariant vacua. Presumably, they correspond to (nonthermal) de Sitter-invariant states on the elliptically identified space. The α vacua have Green's functions given by

$$G^{\alpha}(x, x') = \langle \alpha | \Phi(x) \Phi(x') | \alpha \rangle. \quad (31)$$

Substituting the mode expansion and the Bogoliubov transformation for a field satisfying Eq. (20), the α Wightman function on the identified space takes the form [17]

$$G_{\pm}^{\alpha}(x, x') = e^{\pm 2\alpha} G_{\pm}^0(x, x'), \quad (32)$$

where $G_{\pm}^0(x, x')$ is given by Eq. (28), which corresponds to $\alpha = 0$. In elliptic de Sitter space the Green's functions for the different α vacua differ by an overall normalization (ignoring subtleties involving $i\epsilon$ prescriptions). We regard the Mottola-Allen states for $\alpha \neq 0$ as unphysical, since their Green's functions do not have the short-distance singularities that we expect from Minkowski space. The Green's function on elliptic de Sitter space has singularities on the light cone as well as on the light cone of the antipode, even for $\alpha = 0$. The singularities have equal strength but can have a relative plus or minus sign due to the double-valuedness of the phase.

V. HOLOGRAPHY IN ELLIPTIC de SITTER SPACE

Now we turn to the theory on the boundary. An immediate consequence of taking a \mathbb{Z}_2 quotient is that every observer now has access to all of elliptic de Sitter space. Moreover, the antipodal identification implies that the spacetime now has only a single spacelike boundary. Hence the holographic dual theory is a Euclidean conformal field theory on a *single* sphere. In the spirit of the dS/CFT correspondence we shall consider first the general features of the holographic CFT, independent of the details of the theory. The discussion does not need the corresponding bulk fields to be free; indeed, it applies also to gravity. We will find that the holographic properties of elliptic de Sitter space are very good, with satisfying implications for observer complementarity, the existence of an S matrix, and a possible explanation of the finiteness of the de Sitter entropy.

A. Holographic time evolution

Even though we do not know what the interior of quantum de Sitter space looks like, we can still say the following. Classically, the past and future light cones of an observer intersect the $(D-1)$ -dimensional spheres at asymptotic infinity on $(D-2)$ -dimensional spheres. In fact, after identification both light cones intersect the *same* sphere. The polar angle at which the light cones emanating from time T (at the north pole) intersect the S^{D-2} at \mathcal{I} is given by

$$\theta(T) = 2 \arctan\left(\tanh \frac{T}{2}\right) + \frac{\pi}{2}. \quad (33)$$

At $T = -\infty$ this is zero. At $T = 0$, $\theta = \pi/2$, and at $T = \infty$ it is π . So by choosing an S^{D-2} at a certain radius on \mathcal{I} we are basically taking the point of view of an observer who is in the middle of de Sitter space at a certain time T . This is holography at work: we do not need to go to the interior of de Sitter space to describe time evolution, we do it at the boundary. Even in quantum theory, since the metric near the boundary still looks like classical de Sitter space, and we have the $SO(1, D)$ de Sitter group acting, we can use the global time T to measure the distance from the \mathcal{I}^{\pm} to the poles.

Now, time translations increase the distance with respect to the north pole, and decrease the distance to the south pole. In fact, this is precisely what scale transformations do. To see this, map the north pole patch to flat Euclidean space, and similarly for a neighborhood of the south pole. Then the transition function that glues the two together is the inversion $\vec{x} \rightarrow \vec{y} = \vec{x}/|\vec{x}|^2$, which is a conformal transformation. But now note that scaling up in x is equivalent to scaling down in y , exactly like time translations in the bulk.

That time evolution in the bulk leads to scale transformations in the boundary was already emphasized by Strominger [7]. In planar coordinates covering, say, the causal past, the line element is $ds^2 = -dt^2 + \exp(-2t/R) dx^2$, and it follows that

$$t \rightarrow t\lambda, \quad x \rightarrow e^{\lambda/R} x, \quad (34)$$

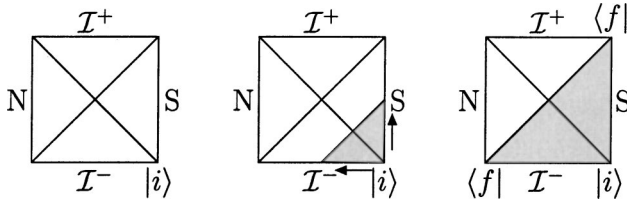


FIG. 4. In the far past, an observer at the south pole might describe the state of the world by an initial state $|i\rangle$ on \mathcal{I}^- . This evolves in time until it becomes a final state $\langle f|$ on \mathcal{I}^+ . The antipodal map relates this again to a state on \mathcal{I}^- . In and out states are therefore associated with a single surface, as in a conventional CFT.

is an isometry of the metric. Alternatively, one can use static coordinates in the upper or lower region of the Penrose diagram. The line element is

$$ds^2 = (r^2/R^2 - 1)dt_s^2 - \frac{dr^2}{r^2/R^2 - 1} + r^2 d\Omega_{D-2}^2, \quad (35)$$

and the ‘‘Hamiltonian’’ $\partial/\partial t_s$ is manifestly a Killing vector. In fact, it generates the same isometry as Eq. (34), as can be seen by transforming to $r = |\bar{x}|\exp(-t/R)$ and $t_s = t + 1/2R \ln(r^2/R^2 - 1)$. From the metric it is clear that this is now a spacelike vector, as indeed it should be since it now corresponds to dilations of the boundary sphere. We note in passing that there is, however, an important difference between the patches covered by these coordinates and elliptic de Sitter space: the boundary of the inflationary patch has the topology \mathbb{R}^{D-1} , while elliptic de Sitter space has S^{D-1} , which contains an extra point.

This leads to a nice picture of how an observer would view the CFT. Consider an observer in elliptic de Sitter space. By means of de Sitter transformations, the worldline of any inertial observer can be mapped to the time axis, say at the south pole. In the far past, such an observer would characterize the world by an in state $|i\rangle$. As in conventional CFT with radial quantization, we would like to assign incoming states to the origin. Here we choose the origin as the point where the observer’s worldline intersects \mathcal{I}^- . Correspondingly, we associate an in state at the south pole of the boundary sphere. As time passes, the observer moves vertically along the Penrose diagram. As we have seen this corresponds to a dilation on the sphere. Finally, in the far future, the observer describes the world by an out state $\langle f|$. This is where the elliptic interpretation comes in: the out state is mapped to the antipodal point on the same S^{D-1} as the in state; see Fig. 4. For an inertial observer, the out state is inserted precisely at the extra point (the north pole) that S^{D-1} has compared with \mathbb{R}^{D-1} . In a stereographic projection of the sphere to flat Euclidean space, the outgoing state would be at infinity.

The corresponding situation on the boundary is depicted in Fig. 5. In conclusion, the \mathbb{Z}_2 identification implies that the holographic CFT is simply a theory with conventional radial quantization on an ordinary sphere. We will see, however, that the Hermiticity conditions of the theory are somewhat unusual.

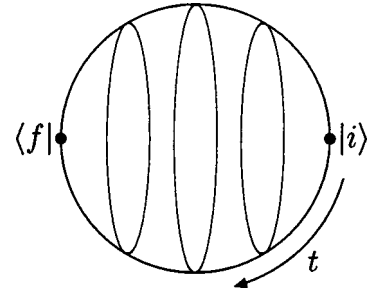


FIG. 5. Radial quantization on an S^{D-1} . In states and out states are at antipodal points. The Hamiltonian is the dilation operator. Each surface corresponding to constant time for the observer in the bulk is an S^{D-2} .

B. The existence of an S matrix and holography

Defining an S matrix for quantum gravity in global de Sitter space is tricky. The problem is that, having defined in and out states on two disconnected surfaces (\mathcal{I}^- and \mathcal{I}^+), the only available pairing between them, CPT , is used merely to define an inner product. Since in quantum gravity the spacetime between these two boundaries fluctuates, there does not seem to be another way to map states on \mathcal{I}^- to \mathcal{I}^+ . Hence it is not obviously clear how to define an S matrix. If we consider only the quantum field theory of matter (and neglect back reactions) with the geometry fixed, then we are able to define an S matrix, but even then its matrix elements are not physically measurable, since no observer can determine the state at both \mathcal{I}^- and \mathcal{I}^+ , even in the far future.

In elliptic de Sitter space the situation is different. The past and future asymptotic regions have been identified, so initial and final states can be defined in the same asymptotic region, where the fluctuations of the metric are set to zero. It is useful to think about the initial and final states in terms of the asymptotic boundary conditions of various fields, including the metric, in this single asymptotic region. As discussed in the previous subsection, an observer positioned at the north pole will use the asymptotic data on the northern hemisphere to define the in state and the data on the southern hemisphere to define the out state. First, to define an inner product one can use the canonical map from the north to the south pole which associates to a state $|\Psi_i\rangle$ its CPT conjugate state $\langle\Psi_i|$. Next, to define the S matrix one uses the combined asymptotic data provided in the in and out states $|\Psi_i\rangle$ and $\langle\Psi_f|$ as boundary conditions for the ‘‘functional integral’’ over all fields in the bulk of the quantum de Sitter space. This produces a number that can then be identified with the S matrix element $\langle\Psi_f|\Psi_i\rangle$.

We will now discuss how these S matrix elements would possibly be described in a holographic description of de Sitter space. So let us suppose that elliptic de Sitter space allows a holographic description in terms of a dual theory, which for concreteness we assume to be a conformal field theory. Since there is only one asymptotic region one is dealing with a single Euclidean CFT living on a $(D-1)$ -sphere, which one can think of as the S^{D-1} at \mathcal{I}^+ or \mathcal{I}^- . In a CFT states can be defined using radial quantization. They are created by the action of some (local) operator at the origin:

$$|j\rangle = \mathcal{O}_j(0)|\text{vac}\rangle, \quad (36)$$

where we have used the operator-state correspondence. The state $|\text{vac}\rangle$ is the “vacuum,” by which we mean not necessarily the state of lowest energy (since energy is harder to define in de Sitter space), but rather a de Sitter-invariant state. Similarly, we can define a final state as

$$|j\rangle = \langle \text{vac} | \mathcal{O}_j^*(\infty). \quad (37)$$

Notice that this also involves complex conjugation, since our \mathbb{Z}_2 map includes charge conjugation C . Now we can define an inner product via

$$\langle \mathcal{O}_i^*(\infty) \mathcal{O}_j(0) \rangle_{X^{D-1}} \equiv \delta_{ij}. \quad (38)$$

This pairing of an operator with its CPT conjugate provides an inner product in the sense of being a map $\mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ that is linear in one argument and antilinear in the other.

If indeed there is a CFT dual of (elliptic) de Sitter space then, intuitively, one expects that interactions (and hence S matrix elements) are encoded in the correlation functions and/or the operator product expansion. It is important to note that a CFT by itself does not have an S matrix. Therefore, instead of studying just the asymptotic states, let us consider operator insertions at points other than the origin and infinity. There are an infinite number of such operators since we can associate an operator with every point on the sphere. So in principle one could define an infinite set of in states by considering strings of operators acting on the in vacuum,

$$|\Psi_i\rangle = \mathcal{O}_{j_1}(x_1) \cdots \mathcal{O}_{j_n}(x_n) |\text{vac}\rangle, \quad (39)$$

and similarly for the out states. S matrix elements are then expressed as correlation functions where part of the operators, those on the northern hemisphere, represent the in state, while the other operators on the southern hemisphere represent the out state. Note, however, that not all of these states are independent, because there are operator product relations. For example, two operators \mathcal{O}_i and \mathcal{O}_j inserted at different points have an operator product relation of the form

$$\mathcal{O}_i(x_i) \mathcal{O}_j(x_j) = \sum_k \frac{c_{ij}^k}{|x_i - x_j|^{\Delta_i + \Delta_j - \Delta_k}} \mathcal{O}_k(x_j). \quad (40)$$

Here the sum on the right hand side includes (quasi)primary operators as well as their descendants. If one allows descendants of arbitrary conformal dimension, then all operators can be moved to one preferred point by simply using the Taylor expansion. One natural way to reduce the redundancy in the states is to consider only quasiprimary operators. Note that, since the conformal dimension of an operator corresponds to the energy as seen by an observer in de Sitter space, it is physically reasonable to consider only operators with conformal dimensions that are below a certain threshold. The number of (quasi)primary fields below a certain conformal dimension is finite. It is natural to conjecture that this fact is related to the finiteness of the de Sitter entropy. However, note that when one allows the operators to be inserted at arbitrary points on the sphere, this still gives an

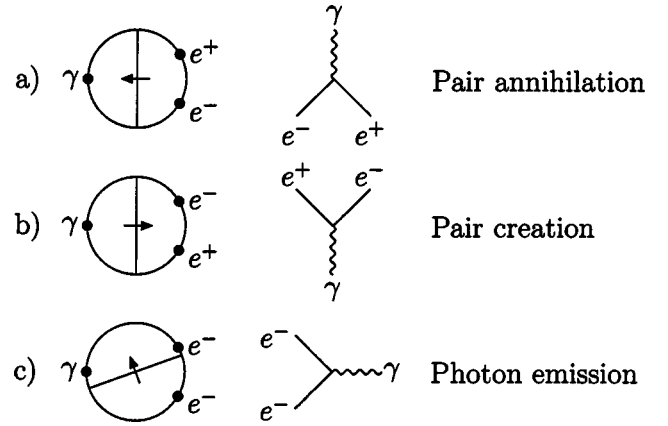


FIG. 6. Complementarity in action: the same correlation function as interpreted by an observer (a) at the south pole, (b) at the north pole, and (c) at an intermediate point. The circle denotes the sphere on which the dual theory lives, the dots are operator insertions, the arrow indicates the observer’s direction of time, and the equator divides the in states from the out states. On the right are the corresponding processes in spacetime.

infinite number of states. It may very well be that there are additional requirements that one has to impose, but without a more definite and concrete theoretical foundation one can only guess what these requirements could be.

The most specific proposal that we have for the de Sitter “ S matrix” is that it is given by the overlap of the initial and final states:

$$S_{fi} = \langle \Psi_f | \Psi_i \rangle, \quad (41)$$

where both $|\Psi_i\rangle$ and $\langle \Psi_f|$ are expressed as in Eq. (39) in terms of (quasi)primary operators with restricted conformal dimensions. Hence the S matrix elements are just given by the correlation functions of the boundary conformal field theory. This proposal is truly holographic, since the correlation functions are computed in terms of the CFT at the boundary.

C. Observer complementarity

How do different observers interpret these S matrix elements? In fact, the same operator insertions at the boundary are interpreted differently by different observers in the bulk. This is because the physical states defined above depend on the choice of origin. For any observer, the incoming states are those that correspond to insertions made on the hemisphere closest to the origin, while outgoing states are created by operator insertions in the hemisphere nearest to the antipode of the origin, i.e., at infinity. Different observers have different origins so this leads to different interpretations of a given set of operator insertions. This is observer complementarity.

Consider, for example, the situation indicated in Fig. 6. A south pole observer would describe this as pair annihilation: an electron and a positron come in, and annihilate to give a photon. On the other hand, a north pole observer, being antipodal to the south pole observer, would see the same events happening in a CPT mirror. In this case, it would describe the

CPT-conjugate process of pair creation: an incoming photon decays into an electron and a positron. A different observer in between these two poles would see yet another situation, for example, an incoming electron emitting a photon. All these processes have the same amplitude.

D. A little group theory

A striking consequence of the preceding discussion is that, although the S matrix itself is de Sitter invariant, the in states themselves are not. de Sitter transformations that take one observer into another generically transform in states into out states, and vice versa. Hence the asymptotic Hilbert space does not decompose into irreducible representations of the de Sitter group. This is important because there is a well-known theorem which states that (nontrivial) unitary representations of noncompact groups must be infinite dimensional. This theorem is in tension with the finiteness of the de Sitter entropy. If the de Sitter entropy enumerates the microscopic degrees of freedom underlying a quantum description of de Sitter space, then we would expect it to form a (possibly reducible) representation of some group. Were that group to be the noncompact de Sitter group $O(1,D)$, then the holographic theory could not be unitary. For elliptic de Sitter space, the entropy is presumably also given by the Bekenstein-Hawking formula:

$$S = \frac{A}{4} = \frac{\pi^{(D-1)/2} R^{D-2}}{4\Gamma((D-1)/2)}, \quad (42)$$

where the ‘‘area’’ A is the volume of the horizon which is now a $(D-2)$ -dimensional real projective sphere RP^{D-2} . The important point here is that this is again finite. But as we saw, the states in elliptic de Sitter space do not transform under representations of the full de Sitter group. Instead, they only transform under the subgroup that preserves the asymptotic position of an observer. Since asymptotically an observer is a point on a $(D-1)$ -dimensional sphere (and in the future, a possibly different point on the same sphere), the relevant group is actually $SO(D-1)$. We propose that the entropy of de Sitter space is related to representations of this compact group.

Another way to make the same point is as follows. The Bekenstein-Hawking entropy refers to the area of a holographic screen bounding a given region of spacetime. For de Sitter space, a horizon is actually the holographic screen of a particular observer in the far future. But the screen accessible to any single observer must furnish a representation of the *little group* of that observer. This is precisely the rotation group $SO(D-1)$.

A given physical state is therefore labeled by its conformal weight, its angular momenta, and the quantum numbers of any internal symmetries. Nevertheless it is still a great challenge to show that the number of such states is precisely $\exp(A/4)$. In principle, the conformal weights and angular momenta could be arbitrarily high, leading to representations that would be too big. One possibility might be to restrict the maximum scaling dimension

$$\Delta_i \leq \Delta_{\max} \quad (43)$$

of any state $|i\rangle$. Here the idea is that the scaling weight is the eigenvalue of the CFT Hamiltonian, but we know that energy in de Sitter space is bounded by the mass of the largest black hole that can fit within the de Sitter horizon. This suggests that we should only consider those states that have scaling dimension below some maximum.

E. Hermiticity

It is usually accepted that the holographic dual to de Sitter space must be a nonunitary theory. The argument considers fields propagating in the bulk spacetime. We can take the field to be a massive scalar field; higher spin fields are qualitatively similar. In planar coordinates valid near \mathcal{I}^- , the line element is

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + e^{-2t/R} dx_d^2, \quad (44)$$

and the scalar wave equation is

$$-\partial_t^2 \phi + \frac{d}{R} \partial_t \phi + e^{2t/R} \nabla^2 \phi - m^2 \phi = 0. \quad (45)$$

Near \mathcal{I}^- , as $t \rightarrow -\infty$ the field asymptotically behaves like $\phi(t,x) \sim e^{h_+ t/R} f(x) + e^{h_- t/R} g(x)$, where

$$h_{\pm} = \frac{1}{2} (d \pm \sqrt{d^2 - 4m^2 R^2}). \quad (46)$$

Notice that for sufficiently high mass this is complex. In terms of the boundary theory, there seem to be operators with complex scaling dimension in the CFT. This would suggest that the theory contains states of negative norm. Let us review the reasoning that leads to this conclusion.

Consider, first, three-dimensional de Sitter space. The conformal field theory lives on a two-sphere, or the complex plane. Recall that with radial quantization on the complex plane, the in and out states are related by Belavin-Polyakov-Zamolodchikov (BPZ) conjugation, a purely analytic (or purely antianalytic) map:

$$z \rightarrow -1/z. \quad (47)$$

The BPZ map takes the origin to complex infinity while preserving the upper half plane, allowing us to define a relation between bras and kets:

$$|\phi\rangle = \phi(0,0)|0\rangle \rightarrow \langle 0|\phi(\infty,\infty) = \langle \phi| \equiv |\phi\rangle^\dagger. \quad (48)$$

In other words, the BPZ map motivates the usual choice of Hermitian conjugation for the Virasoro generators:

$$L_n^\dagger = L_{-n}, \quad \bar{L}_n^\dagger = \bar{L}_{-n}. \quad (49)$$

A direct consequence of this is that primary fields with complex conformal weights lead to descendants with complex norm:

$$\|L_{-1}|h\rangle\|^2 = \langle h|L_1 L_{-1}|h\rangle = 2h\langle h|h\rangle. \quad (50)$$

Thus a sufficiently massive scalar field in de Sitter space seems to lead to a nonunitary conformal field theory.

Now consider the antipodal identification. We can express the line element in global coordinates as

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + 4R^2 \cosh^2(t/R) \frac{dz d\bar{z}}{(1+|z|^2)^2}. \quad (51)$$

The antipodal map is

$$t \rightarrow -t, \quad z \rightarrow -1/\bar{z}, \quad \bar{z} \rightarrow -1/z. \quad (52)$$

Holomorphic and antiholomorphic coordinates are interchanged. Incoming states created by holomorphic fields at $t = -\infty$ are taken to antiholomorphic final states at $t = +\infty$, and vice versa. Hence

$$L_n^\dagger = L_{-n}, \quad \bar{L}_n^\dagger = L_{-n}. \quad (53)$$

With this definition of Hermitian conjugation, certain states with complex conformal weights now have positive norm. Such a Hermiticity condition was also proposed in [28]. Consider a primary field with complex conjugate weights h_\pm . Acting on the corresponding state with $L_{-n}\bar{L}_n$ gives a state of the form $|\phi\rangle = L_{-n}\bar{L}_n$. Its norm is

$$\langle \phi | \phi \rangle = \left(4n^2|h|^2 + \frac{c^2}{144}(n^3-n)^2 + \frac{c}{6}(n^4-n^2)(h+\bar{h}) \right) \times \langle h, \bar{h} | h, \bar{h} \rangle, \quad (54)$$

which is real and positive, even though h may be complex. The rule is that to have positive norm, the total level of L and \bar{L} must be the same. States for which the levels of L and \bar{L} do not match have zero norm. These include states like $L_{-1}|h, \bar{h}\rangle$, which would have had positive norm (for real h, \bar{h}) with the conventional definition of Hermitian conjugation. However, linear combinations of zero norm states can still lead to states of negative norm. So there is still the danger that the dual CFT is nonunitary.

We note, however, that nonunitarity in the spectrum of descendants of the CFT may not necessarily be a problem for its use as a dual for elliptic de Sitter space. This is because, as we discussed above, states that have a physical meaning in this context may have to satisfy additional requirements, such as that they are quasiprimary. In this case, states like $L_{-n}\bar{L}_{-n}|h, \bar{h}\rangle$ are not physical states. For example, the fact that L_{-1} acting on a physical state does not lead to a physical state could be a consequence of the fact that translations of the entire state of the universe are not represented in the Hilbert space of a single observer, since such translations also change the location of the observer. If one considers only the highest weight states (those created by quasiprimary operators acting on the vacuum), then there is no problem of negative norm states. Note that restriction to the highest weight states reduces the number of states: it effectively subtracts 1 from the total central charge. But since we expect $c \gg 1$ this does not change the counting of states significantly.

The generalization of this discussion to higher dimensions is straightforward. Writing the de Sitter line element as

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + 4R^2 \cosh^2(t/R) \frac{dx^2}{(1+r^2)^2}, \quad (55)$$

where $r^2 = |\vec{x}|^2$, the antipodal map takes

$$t \rightarrow -t, \quad x^i \rightarrow -\frac{x^i}{r^2}. \quad (56)$$

The conformal generators in higher dimensions are D , the dilatation operator, K_a , the special conformal transformations, as well as the rotations J_{ab} and the translations P_a . The antipodal map suggests that the Hermiticity properties should be

$$D^\dagger = D, \quad J_{ab}^\dagger = J_{ab}, \quad P_a^\dagger = K_a, \quad K_a^\dagger = P_a. \quad (57)$$

Once again, the translations and special conformal transformations do not preserve the set of physical states. The physical states are labeled by the Hermitian operators which are labeled by the simultaneous eigenvalues of D, J_{ab} , and a Cartan set of any internal symmetry group.

VI. ON A STRING REALIZATION

Our discussion of the elliptic interpretation of de Sitter space and its holographic implementation has been rather intuitive. Clearly, to make things more precise one needs a concrete realization of these ideas in a working theory of quantum gravity, such as string theory (or perhaps loop gravity [29]). It has been surprisingly hard to find a realization of de Sitter space in string theory. One obstacle to a satisfactory string-theoretic description of de Sitter space is the lack of supersymmetry. Intuitively, de Sitter space cannot be supersymmetric because it is thermal; at finite temperature bosons and fermions have different statistics. More formally, there is no superalgebra that contains the de Sitter isometry group and is represented by Hermitian supercharges. The known superextensions of the de Sitter isometry group [30] involve nonpositive quadratic forms and have no unitary representations. This difficulty can be traced back to the fact that there is no globally defined timelike Killing vector in de Sitter space, and hence there is no positive-definite Hamiltonian H . This same non-positive-definite nature shows up in attempts to construct de Sitter space using timelike T duality and/or compactifications on noncompact Euclidean manifolds [31,32]. The resulting gauged supergravity theories allow de Sitter space as a solution but have ghosts, i.e., fields with kinetic terms of the wrong sign.

The nature of these problems changes in elliptic de Sitter space, mainly because it is not a time-orientable space. In fact, we would like to believe that the only possible realization of de Sitter space in string theory is in its elliptic form. The failure to find a de Sitter solution in string theory may well be that one should perhaps have been looking at string backgrounds that are not time orientable. Clearly, time unorientability poses new challenges for string theory, and it is not immediately obvious how it can be defined consistently [33]. In this respect, it is interesting that de Sitter space arises in type IIB* string theory after a timelike T duality, which

can be thought of as a change of sign of the left- (or right-)moving part of the worldsheet scalar X^0 corresponding to time. Hence, after a T duality it is as if the right (or left) movers go forward in time, while the left (or right) movers go backward in time. Perhaps this means that type IIB* string theory has to be quantized in a different way so that worldsheets and/or the spacetime background have to be time unorientable. This may change the problem with ghost-like fields and perhaps solve it. We hope to report on this issue in the future.

Now let us make some observations on the candidate conformal field theory dual of five-dimensional elliptic de Sitter space as suggested by its realization in IIB* string theory. Type IIB* theory can be thought of as arising through a timelike T duality of type IIA theory [31,32]. The low energy limit of IIB* theory is IIB* supergravity which has Dirichlet brane solutions that have purely spatial extent; they are called E_p -branes when their worldvolume is p dimensional. Following Hull we consider the near-horizon geometry of a stack of N E4-branes, which are the Euclidean analogues of the D3-branes of type IIB theory. The metric resembles that of the D3-brane,

$$ds^2 = H^{-1/2}(\rho) dx_{\parallel}^2 + H^{1/2}(\rho) dx_{\perp}^2, \quad (58)$$

where $H(\rho)$ is the usual harmonic function,

$$H(\rho) = 1 + \frac{4\pi\alpha'^2 gN}{P^4}, \quad (59)$$

except that, because the branes are Euclidean, the transverse ‘‘radius’’ also includes time:

$$\rho^2 = x_{\perp}^2 = \tilde{x}^2 - t^2. \quad (60)$$

The horizon is at $\rho=0$. Now we would like to take the near-horizon limit. Since ρ depends on time, there are two ways we can approach the horizon, where ρ is timelike and where ρ is spacelike. For spacelike ρ the transverse geometry is

$$dx_{\perp}^2 = -dt^2 + d\tilde{x}^2 = d\rho^2 + \rho^2 ds_{dS_5}^2, \quad (61)$$

where $ds_{dS_5}^2$ is the line element of five-dimensional de Sitter space. For timelike ρ we get instead

$$dx_{\perp}^2 = -d\rho^2 + \rho^2 ds_{H^5}^2, \quad (62)$$

where H^5 is the five-dimensional hyperbolic (Lobachevsky) plane (i.e., Euclidean anti-de Sitter space). In the near-horizon limit we drop the 1 in $H(\rho)$ to obtain, for spacelike ρ ,

$$ds^2 \left(\sqrt{4\pi\alpha'^2 gN} \frac{d\rho^2}{\rho^2} + \frac{\rho^2}{\sqrt{4\pi\alpha'^2 gN}} dx_{\parallel}^2 \right) + \sqrt{4\pi\alpha'^2 gN} ds_{dS_5}^2. \quad (63)$$

The geometry is therefore locally that of $H^5 \times dS_5$. For timelike ρ we obtain

$$ds^2 \left(\sqrt{4\pi\alpha'^2 gN} \frac{-d\rho^2}{\rho^2} + \frac{\rho^2}{\sqrt{4\pi\alpha'^2 gN}} dx_{\parallel}^2 \right) + \sqrt{4\pi\alpha'^2 gN} ds_{H^5}^2. \quad (64)$$

This too is $dS_5 \times H^5$. So again we get the same local geometry. However, there are some important differences between the two. For spacelike ρ , the branes are part of H^5 , and de Sitter space is part of the transverse space; that is not what we want. For timelike ρ , the branes are part of de Sitter space and H^5 is transverse. So we should choose ρ to be timelike. The E4-branes are now on the boundary of de Sitter space, at \mathcal{I} . But now note that there are two disconnected branches because in foliating Minkowski space into spacelike slices (which corresponds to timelike ρ) one can have $t > 0$ or $t < 0$. In order to have a connected geometry, we should really identify these two branches by making a \mathbb{Z}_2 identification. In that case the metric that we just described must be modded out by a \mathbb{Z}_2 that maps $t \rightarrow -t$. Since the line element on de Sitter space in Eq. (64) covers one inflationary patch, an identification of t and $-t$ suggests that the near-horizon geometry becomes $edS_5 \times H^5$. A \mathbb{Z}_2 identification of the transverse geometry implies that the E4-branes are on a T orientifold, the purely spatial counterpart of a conventional orientifold. Indeed, elliptic de Sitter space is the analytic continuation of the RP^5 that arises (instead of an S^5) in the transverse geometry of D3-branes on an orientifold plane.

The theory on the worldvolume of the E4-brane is Euclidean $\mathcal{N}=4$ Super Yang-Mills (SYM) theory. This theory is obtained from $\mathcal{N}=1$ SYM theory in $D=9+1$ by dimensional reduction, where one of the compactification directions is time. So one of the six scalars in the E4 worldvolume theory comes from the timelike component of the $(9+1)$ -dimensional gauge field. This becomes a scalar with the wrong sign kinetic operator, and therefore we are dealing with a conformal field theory with a ghost. In fact, there are several reasons to expect such ghost fields to be present in a CFT dual to de Sitter space. First, the six scalars form a vector $(\phi_0, \vec{\phi})$ of the $SO(1,5)$ R symmetry of the Euclidean theory; invariance under the R symmetry already implies that one scalar has the wrong sign kinetic term. A second reason is the following.

Just as in AdS/CFT correspondence one expects the holographic direction to correspond to the renormalization group (RG) scale of the dual field theory. But unlike in AdS/CFT correspondence, the holographic direction is timelike in de Sitter space. This timelike nature of the RG scale is directly related to the presence of the ghost scalar; namely, the energy scale μ of the theory can be defined in terms of the values of the scalar fields as

$$\langle \vec{\phi}^2 - \phi_0^2 \rangle = \pm \mu^2. \quad (65)$$

Let us now fix the energy scale μ . The scalar fields are then restricted to a five-dimensional scalar manifold. Here we have a choice: for the $-$ sign the resulting scalar manifold is the Lobachevsky plane, while for the $+$ sign it is de Sitter space. If we take the $+$ sign the ϕ_0 field still has fluctuations

with the wrong sign. However, if we take the $-$ sign, all the fluctuations of the scalar field have the correct sign in their kinetic terms.

The parameter μ becomes the renormalization group scale, and in fact is the same as the holographic time coordinate ρ : together with the four Euclidean coordinates on the E4-brane, it leads to de Sitter space. As we noted, the scalar manifold has two disconnected branches, corresponding to $\phi_0 > 0$ and $\phi_0 < 0$. Now here there is a difference between $U(N)$ and $SO(N)$ SYM theory. In the latter case one can use the gauge symmetry to map ϕ to $-\phi$. This identifies the two branches of the scalar manifold. A $SO(N)$ gauge group arises if we put N coincident E4-branes on top of a T -orientifold plane. This is precisely what we argued for earlier. In the near-horizon limit we get antipodally identified de Sitter space. So finally we come to the following conjecture: the large- N limit of $SO(N)$ SYM theory, with conformal group $SO(1,5)$ and R -symmetry group $SO(1, 5)$, in the phase described by the $-$ sign in the scalar equation, is the holographic dual of $edS_5 \times H^5$, or elliptic de Sitter space times a hyperbolic five-plane. There is now only one boundary, an S^4 , and that is the boundary on which the CFT lives.

VII. CONCLUSION

In this paper we studied de Sitter space in its elliptic interpretation with antipodal points identified. We discussed several conceptual issues in the context of the elliptic interpretation, especially questions regarding holography and the definition of an S matrix. Our conclusions support the view that the antipodal identification does make sense and in fact may even be required to arrive at a consistent description of de Sitter quantum gravity. The arguments presented in favor of the antipodal identification range from suggestive to rather compelling; they are not yet sufficient to claim that antipodal identification is the only way to view quantum de Sitter space.

From our point of view the most convincing arguments supporting the elliptic de Sitter space are (a) the implementation of observer complementarity: all observers have com-

plete information, but have different interpretations, and (b) the realization of holography: for every observer time evolution and the S matrix are naturally described in terms of a dual theory on a single boundary. The most serious challenge to elliptic de Sitter space is the issue of possible closed timelike curves after including the back reaction. Once gravitational back reaction is taken into account, the Penrose diagram of perturbed de Sitter space becomes a “tall” rectangle [34,35]. This implies that certain antipodal points come into causal contact. The resulting closed timelike curves are contained in the bulk of de Sitter space, and therefore it is not immediately obvious how it would affect the theory on the boundary. One point of view is that the perturbation of de Sitter space should be described by an appropriately perturbed CFT, for which the holographic reconstruction breaks down at some point in the bulk. The prescriptions for the time evolution of a single observer and for his/her observable S matrix are, however, defined purely in terms of the boundary and could still make sense. Clearly this issue needs further study.

Finally, the most pressing open issue is whether one can find a consistent description of de Sitter space in string theory, or perhaps in some other working theory of quantum gravity. There are many reasons to believe that such a description would be holographic and will incorporate a version of observer complementarity. We are hopeful that the ideas presented in this paper will then be fully realized in some form.

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