

# Is there Room in Quantum Ontology for a Genuine Causal Role for Consciousness?

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*It may be said, indeed, that without bones and muscles and the other parts of the body I cannot execute my purposes. But to say that I do as I do because of them, and that this is the way in which the mind acts, and not from the choice of the best, is a very careless and idle mode of speaking. I wonder that they cannot distinguish the cause from the condition, which the many, feeling about in the dark, are always mistaking and misnaming.* (Plato, The Phaedo)

## 1 Introduction

Does consciousness have causal powers? Does it make a difference to the effects of information processing whether or not the system is conscious of a given item of information? Are our actions at least sometimes determined

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by our conscious free will? Since Libet's (1985) work on the neuroscience of free will, the notion that the conscious will is not the original determinant of action has won increasing support. For example, Velmans's (1991) work suggests that consciousness "is neither necessary for any type of mental ability nor does it occur early enough to act as a cause of the acts or processes typically thought to be its effects" (Van Gulick 2014, p. 36). The radical upshot of this line of thinking is the claim that "the sorts of mental abilities that are typically thought to require consciousness can all be realized unconsciously in the absence of the supposedly required self-awareness" (ibid.). In Libet's famous studies, conscious self-awareness is present, but Van Gulick notes that many claim that it occurs too late to be the cause of the relevant actions: "self-awareness or meta-mental consciousness according to these arguments turns out to be a psychological after-effect rather than an initiating cause, more like a *post facto* printout" (ibid.). Van Gulick adds, however, that the arguments are controversial and that many theorists regard the empirical data as no real threat to the causal status of consciousness (for a recent discussion of the issue from various viewpoints, see e.g. Pockett et al. 2006).

But how are we to understand the causal status of consciousness? In philosophy of mind there has been a long debate about the problem of mental causation. Many philosophers assume that consciousness is in some sense a nonphysical property. But this immediately gives rise to the problem of understanding how something nonphysical could possibly influence something physical. A key idea to be explored in this chapter is that the ontological interpretation of quantum theory might throw new light upon this perennial issue. This interpretation suggests that a new type of active information is playing a key causal role in physical processes at the quantum level. Now, when one examines the various suggestions about the putative causal powers of consciousness, many of them refer to the role of information, in one way or another. This then suggests a strategy for the present chapter. We will first consider how the various suggestions about the causal status of consciousness involve information before asking whether such information in mental and conscious states could be connected to information at the quantum level. In this way we could begin to understand mental causation, and the causal role of conscious experiences in particular, in a new way. Of course, this is a big and difficult issue and we can only sketch the solution in a single chapter. However, even this sketch will hopefully illustrate the great potential of quantum theory when trying to meet some of the grand challenges facing the social sciences.

## 2 Van Gulick and Revonsuo on the Causal Efficacy of Consciousness

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In his useful review of the suggestions about the causal role of consciousness Van Gulick (2014, pp. 34–42) says that consciousness is thought to provide the organism with (a) more flexible control; (b) better social coordination; (c) more integrated representation; (d) more global informational access; (e) increased freedom of will; and (f) intrinsic motivation. In this section I will briefly explicate these (as well as some of Revonsuo's 2006 related ideas) and then, in the next section, discuss how they connect with the notion of information. Note that the aim in this chapter is not to evaluate critically these suggestions. The aim is rather to indicate, for the sake of the discussions that follows, that there is at least a reasonable possibility that consciousness has a genuine causal role, and that this connects strongly with the notion of information. For a more detailed discussion the reader is advised to consult the references given below, as well as in Van Gulick (2014, pp. 35–42) and Revonsuo (2006). Let us now consider a number of suggestions about the causal role of consciousness.

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It is common to claim that conscious mental processes provide a flexible and adaptive type of control, as opposed to unconscious automatic processes (Anderson 1983). Even if these latter can be quick, they are also relatively fixed and predetermined, and thus not particularly effective in unexpected situations (Penfield 1975). Also, when the challenge is to learn new skills, conscious attention is typically assumed to be important at the early stages of learning (Shiffrin and Schneider 1977).

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It has been suggested that organisms that are conscious of their own and others' mental states have a better ability to interact, cooperate, and communicate. The idea is that such meta-mental or "higher-order" consciousness would enable a better capacity for social coordination, which in turn can be thought to provide adaptive advantage (Humphreys 1982; Van Gulick 2014, p. 38).

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It has further been suggested that conscious experiences enable a more unified and integrated representation of reality, which allows for a more flexible response in various situations (Campbell 1994; Van Gulick 2014, pp. 38–39; Tononi and Koch 2015).

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It is a well-known suggestion that information in conscious mental states is globally available to a number of different mental subsystems or "modules", and can thus be made use of in many different ways in behavior (Baars 1988). In contrast, it is argued that non-conscious information is usually available

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only to special mental modules and has a more limited effect upon behavior and action (Fodor 1983). (However, Rosenthal 2009 thinks it is unclear that a state's potential to have global effects coincides with its being conscious.)

When it comes to free will, it seems that conscious experience not only presents us with the options to choose from (at least sometimes), it also seems to be a prerequisite for such freedom. Mustn't one be conscious to be able to make a free choice at all (Van Gulick 2014, p. 41)? One should note that researchers such as Velmans have suggested that there can be unconscious free will; but it is not obvious that a decision made unconsciously can be considered truly free.

Finally, it has been suggested that certain conscious states, such as pleasure and pain, have an intrinsic motivating force (e.g., attraction) as an indivisible part of the experience itself. The idea is that such a force cannot be reduced to nonconscious properties (for a brief account of the various viewpoints on this issue, see Van Gulick 2014, pp. 41–2).

Revonsuo (2006) has considered the causal powers of consciousness (or the “phenomenal level” as he calls it) in the light of various studies on blindsight, implicit perception, nonconscious visually guided actions, and similar phenomena. He acknowledges that there are complex information processing mechanisms in the brain that in themselves are nonconscious or, in his terms, “realize no phenomenal level of organization.” However, he emphasizes that such nonconscious “zombie systems” seem to have only limited causal powers in guiding organism–environment interaction, whereas the contribution of consciousness (or the “phenomenal level”) seems to be decisive for meaningful interactions with our environment.

He further considers disorders, such as epileptic automatism and sleepwalking, which seem to turn the whole person into a nonconscious zombie, and notes that a careful examination of such zombies reveals that nonconscious organism–environment interaction, while complex, is typically pointless. He concludes (2006, pp. xxiii–xxiv):

other types of disorders show that the simulated phenomenal world in the brain has unique causal powers in determining the behavioral trajectories of our physical bodies. In the light of the evidence from these disorders, consciousness surfaces as a causally potent biological system with unique causal powers. Therefore, we need not worry about epiphenomenalism any longer.

We note here that Revonsuo's reference to the way in which the simulated phenomenal world in the brain determines behavioral trajectories of bodies

is interestingly analogous to Bohm's notion that active information encoded in the quantum field determines the trajectories of particles at the quantum level (we will discuss this latter idea below). We also note that to avoid truly epiphenomenalism or reductionism, Revonsuo needs to show how conscious experiences *qua* conscious could possibly play a genuine causal role in guiding the physical organism without violating the laws of physics (or the causal closure of the physical domain). This is of course connected to the problem of mental causation, a solution to which we are trying to sketch in this chapter.

### 3 How the Causal Efficacy of Consciousness Connects with Information

Let us now see how the above suggestions make a link between consciousness and information. We can understand "more flexible control" as flexibility in the way that information can be used to guide the organism. It seems that consciousness makes possible such flexibility. Unconscious information just "acts" when it is activated, according to an automatic routine. If there are items of unconscious information that imply mutually exclusive actions, then presumably the "stronger" information wins, and this may take place without conscious experience ("stronger" here may be assumed to correspond to e.g. a higher level of neural activity). However, it seems possible that when a person is conscious of an item of information, at least some (automatic) activity of that information can be suspended. Also, it seems obvious that at least in some situations a person can review a number of different options, and choose the one that seems best in the given situation. (In this way consciousness, flexible control, and free will seem related.) Of course, which option is in the end chosen may not be the result of a completely "free" choice, but is instead determined by some further information which arises when reviewing the options, with a content like "it is reasonable to do X" (cf. Bohm 1990).

We also noted that it has been suggested that organisms that are conscious of their own and others' mental states have a better ability to interact, cooperate, and communicate. "Conscious of" can here be understood to include "having meta-level information about." This connects with higher order theories of consciousness which assume that what makes a given mental state conscious is that there exists a higher level of (typically) unconscious mental state, which has the content that one is in the first-order mental state or activity (Rosenthal 1997). Thus, consciousness is not assumed to be a neural or computational

property, but rather something that arises when initially nonconscious mental states are related in a suitable way. It seems quite natural to think about such meta-mentality in terms of information. We could say that meta-mentality involves higher-order “information about information” rather than just first-order “information about the environment.” In these terms, higher-order theories of consciousness suggest that consciousness essentially involves information about information. A simple possibility would be to postulate that what makes a given informational state conscious is that there exists a higher level of (typically) unconscious information, which has the content that one is in the first-order informational state. When it comes to the causal efficacy of consciousness, the question is whether having meta-level information (and consciousness) in this sense implies a better ability to interact, cooperate, and communicate. Below I will briefly note how in the Bohmian scheme active information at a given level can organize the behavior of elements at a lower level. The challenge here, too, is to find out whether being conscious of active information gives the organism some special advantages when it comes to interaction, cooperation, and communication.

We further mentioned the suggestion that conscious experiences enable a more unified and integrated representation of reality, which allows for a more flexible response in various situations. To understand this feature better, we can usefully quote van Gulick (2014, pp. 38–9):

Conscious experience presents us with a world of objects independently existing in space and time. Those objects are typically present to us in a multi-modal fashion that involves the integration of information from various sensory channels as well as from background knowledge and memory. Conscious experience presents us not with isolated properties or features but with objects and events situated in an ongoing independent world, and it does so by embodying in its experiential organization and dynamics the dense network of relations and interconnections that collectively constitute the meaningful structure of a world of objects.

This reminds us about the fact that the information we meet in consciousness is highly integrated and structured and also meaningful in various ways. Van Gulick acknowledges that non-experiential sensory information can also have an adaptive effect on behavior (e.g., as seen in reflexes). However, he draws attention to the work of Lorenz (1977) and Gallistel (1990), which suggest that conscious experience provides a more integrated representation of reality, which in turn enables more flexible responses. If we consider this feature in informational terms, it seems that a certain kind of information only becomes available and, especially, flexibly usable to the organism in conscious

experience. This connects with the previously mentioned issues of flexible control and free will, in the sense that consciousness, flexible control, free will, and unified and integrated representations are all interconnected. Unified and integrated representations, especially when consciously experienced, provide the “free will” rich information about the available options which enables flexibility in the control of the organism.

There are a number of other researchers who emphasize that consciousness involves an integrated representation in the form of a “virtual reality” or “world-simulation.” Revonsuo, for example, characterizes conscious experience in dreams as a complex, organized, temporally progressing world-simulation. During waking we also experience subjectively an internal, phenomenal, simulated world, which we take to be the “real” world, when consciousness happens to be online with the external physical world (Revonsuo 2015, p. 65).

And as we have already seen, for Revonsuo the simulated phenomenal world in the brain is causally efficacious in that it determines the behavioral trajectories of our physical bodies. Here we can ask what the nature of a world-simulation is. It seems natural to think of it as some kind of structure of information that is meaningful and has phenomenal properties. And given that this world-simulation guides the organism, it is natural to think of it as a kind of active information in the Bohmian sense that will be explained later.

Let us then move on to consider the suggestion that information in conscious mental states is globally available to a number of different mental subsystems or “modules” and can thus be made use of in many different ways in behavior. This feature, together with the issues discussed previously, helps to explain the flexible control that consciousness seems to enable. We saw above that information in conscious experience is typically very rich in its content—it is unified and integrated. If consciousness further means that such information becomes globally available to many different subsystems, it clearly becomes easier to understand why consciousness enables more flexible control. To put it briefly, the idea is that consciousness both enables the sort of information that flexible control requires, and it also makes it possible for such information to reach the subsystems that are required in the execution of the control.

In recent years much attention has been given to Tononi’s integrated information theory of consciousness (Tononi and Koch 2015; Oizumi et al. 2014). There are various reasons why Tononi thinks the concept of information is needed in a theory of consciousness. To account for the fact that consciousness is differentiated (i.e., that each experience has a specific set of phenomenological distinctions), a system of mechanisms must specify a



differentiated conceptual structure via a process of in-forming (we will see 239  
later that Bohm's notion of active information likewise refers to a process 240  
of in-forming, though in a somewhat different sense). Tononi further says 241  
that to account for the irreducible unity of consciousness (i.e., that each 242  
experience is irreducible to non-interdependent components), there has to be 243  
integrated information, in the sense that the conceptual structure specified by 244  
the system is irreducible to that specified by non-interdependent subsystems. 245  
More technically, the presence of integration (characterized by big phi or  $\Phi$ ) 246  
means that a partitioning of a system of mechanisms would destroy several 247  
cause–effect repertoires and change others. 248

Tononi's theory tries to explain what consciousness is in terms of the 249  
notion of information. But the theory also suggests that consciousness as 250  
integrated information makes a difference to the behavior of the organism. 251  
Tononi and Koch (2015, p. 11) write: “a brain having a high capacity for 252  
information integration will better match an environment with a complex 253  
causal structure varying across multiple time scales, than a network made 254  
of many modules that are informationally encapsulated.” And given the 255  
hypothesis that consciousness is integrated information, this implies that it 256  
enables a better match with the environment and consequently more adaptive 257  
behavior. 258

We have already briefly considered the relation of free will and consciousness 259  
above, and will return to this issue below. Van Gulick's review also drew 260  
attention to the suggestion that certain conscious states, such as pleasure and 261  
pain, have an intrinsic motivating force (e.g., attraction) as an indivisible part 262  
of the experience itself. The idea is that such force cannot be reduced to 263  
nonconscious properties. This suggests that consciousness not only enables 264  
information to be integrated and globally available, but that it also involves 265  
(perhaps gives rise to) “forces,” such as attraction. Again, we will return below 266  
to consider this interesting suggestion when discussing the notion of active 267  
information. 268

Van Gulick's review (as well as Revonsuo's and Tononi's theories) make 269  
a reasonably strong case for the idea that consciousness has genuine causal 270  
powers. Now, presumably each particular argument for such causal efficacy 271  
is subject to potentially serious criticisms, but I think that it is fair to say 272  
that together they imply that the question is at least an open one. It at least 273  
*seems* to make a difference to the behavior of an organism whether or not it 274  
is conscious. I have also drawn attention to the way many of the suggestions 275  
about the causal efficacy of consciousness involve a link between consciousness 276  
and information. In the rest of the chapter I will try to understand this link 277  
better by discussing it in the context of a new notion of active information that 278



is extended all the way into physics. However, before doing that I want to meet 279  
briefly another challenge. For as was already hinted at above, contemporary 280  
philosophers of mind often suggest that consciousness cannot have genuinely 281  
causal powers if we stay within the physicalist scientific world picture. We need 282  
to address this issue briefly before proceeding. 283

#### 4 Philosophy of Mind: Does Consciousness 284 Have No Causal Power? 285

Much of contemporary Anglo-American analytical philosophy is committed 286  
to physicalism, which means that philosophers assume that everything is 287  
physical, or everything is in an appropriate way dependent (or “supervenient”) 288  
upon the physical. However, many philosophers find it difficult to simply 289  
reduce the mental to the physical, and they thus defend a doctrine known 290  
as “nonreductive physicalism.” This typically holds that mental properties are 291  
nonphysical properties that, however, depend or supervene upon the physical. 292  
Note that “mental” here is not taken to be synonymous with “conscious,” but 293  
includes even such possibly nonconscious properties as intentionality (in the 294  
sense of the “directedness” or “aboutness” of mental states). 295

The trouble with nonreductive physicalism is that it seems to leave the men- 296  
tal as causally inefficacious or epiphenomenal. If the mental is nonphysical, it 297  
seems impossible to understand how it could be the cause of physical effects. 298  
Even the notion of mental-physical dependence or supervenience doesn’t 299  
seem to help here. Some philosophers (e.g., Stephen Yablo, David Lewis, 300  
and Jaegwon Kim) have developed some ingenious ways to make the idea of 301  
genuine mental causation plausible (see Ritchie 2008). However, it seems that 302  
even these fail to tell us how mental properties (conceived as nonphysical) 303  
could possibly influence the physical course of events. There thus seems to 304  
be no genuine causal role for mental properties in contemporary nonreductive 305  
physicalism. This is a very unsatisfactory situation. However, to go back to, say, 306  
interactive substance dualism seems equally unsatisfactory. Nagel (2005) has 307  
succinctly summarized the situation: “neither dualism nor materialism seems 308  
likely to be true, but it is not clear what the alternatives are.” 309

Note that this apparent epiphenomenalism of the mental is particularly 310  
troublesome for our above discussion about the causal role of conscious 311  
experience. It is not at all obvious that conscious experiences are physical or 312  
material in any traditional sense (remember e.g. Chalmers’s 1996 discussion 313  
of the “hard problem” of consciousness). Thus contemporary nonreductive 314  
physicalism seems forced to declare consciousness to be an epiphenomenon. 315

Reductive physicalism resolves the issue trivially by assuming that conscious 316  
experiences are physical states. But for those who do not understand how 317  
conscious experience could possibly be a physical state, this “resolution” is not 318  
of much value. 319

We have noted that nonreductive physicalism implies that consciousness 320  
is epiphenomenal, but how seriously should we take the nonreductive phys- 321  
icalists’ arguments? For if one examines the views of many of the leading 322  
physicalists (whether reductive or nonreductive), one is struck by the fact that 323  
hardly any attention is given to what seems to be the most fundamental of the 324  
natural sciences, namely (fundamental) physics. This seems to be in violation 325  
of the very principles the physicalists have usually set themselves, namely that 326  
they ought to base their metaphysics upon the best theories in the natural 327  
sciences. A particularly sharp criticism of such tendencies in philosophy has 328  
recently been made by Ladyman and Ross (2007, p. vii). They write, for 329  
example, that “standard analytic metaphysics (or ‘neo-scholastic’ metaphysics 330  
as we call it) contributes nothing to human knowledge and, where it has any 331  
impact at all, systematically misrepresents the relative significance of what 332  
we do know on the basis of science.” Such “neo-scholastic” metaphysics also 333  
includes analytic philosophy of mind, in so far as this gives little attention to 334  
the results of modern science, including fundamental physics. Ladyman and 335  
Ross’s view is extreme, but I think they are correct in drawing attention to 336  
certain weak points in contemporary philosophy of mind. If we want to claim 337  
that the physical world leaves no room for the causal powers of consciousness, 338  
we should justify our view on the basis of the best theories in physics. And as we 339  
will see in the next section, it is not clear that, say, quantum theory excludes 340  
in principle the causal powers of consciousness. On the contrary, a natural 341  
extension of quantum theory might well make room for mental properties 342  
and even conscious experience in our scientific world picture. 343

## 5 Information in the Ontological 344 Interpretation of Quantum Theory 345

Can quantum theory throw any new light upon the nature of information, 346  
which might also help us to understand the relationship between consciousness 347  
and information, and the causal powers of consciousness? I suggest that the 348  
best place to start exploring this issue is David Bohm’s interpretation of 349  
quantum theory, in its later form developed in cooperation with Basil Hiley 350

(Bohm and Hiley 1987, 1993; see also Pylkkänen et al. 2016; for Bohm's early work on quantum theory and the mind, see Pylkkänen 2014).

To understand the significance of Bohm's work for the mind–matter problem it is necessary to understand the development of physics in the twentieth century. When quantum theory was emerging, physicists were trying to make sense of puzzling features such as wave–particle duality and, a little later, entanglement. In particular they were attempting to develop ontological models of quantum systems such as electrons. In the 1920s Louis de Broglie came up with the idea of an electron being a particle guided by a pilot wave, while Schrödinger was trying to describe the electron as some kind of a physical field. These models had some difficulties, though in retrospect we can see that at least de Broglie's ideas could have been developed further (Bacciagaluppi and Valentini 2009). What happened however was that the so-called “Copenhagen interpretation” won the day in the 1920s. There are actually many different versions of this interpretation, but it is typical of them that they emphasize epistemology—in the sense of our ability to predict the statistical results of measurement—rather than ontology—in the sense of a model of what quantum reality may be like, including when we are not making measurements. As a result, physicists were not able to offer a new notion of objective physical reality, which philosophers could then use when discussing ontological issues, such as the mind–matter relationship.

It is here that Bohm comes in. In the early 1950s, after discussions with Einstein in Princeton, he independently rediscovered de Broglie's theory and formulated it in a more coherent way, providing a first consistent realistic model of quantum systems (Bohm 1952). Bohm's interpretation was initially resisted, but is today more and more widely acknowledged as one of the key possible interpretations of quantum theory. Later on further ontological models were proposed, for example Everett's (1957) “many worlds” interpretation and Ghirardi et al.'s (1986) objective collapse theory, and currently the nature of quantum reality is intensively debated within the philosophy of physics community (see e.g. the anthology *The Wave Function: Essays on the Metaphysics of Quantum Mechanics*, edited by Alyssa Ney and David Albert (2013)). We do not know which ontological interpretation (if any) is correct, but each may reveal something significant about the nature of physical reality at a very fundamental level. One should note that there are by now also different versions of the Bohm theory. Much attention has in recent years been given to a minimalist version known as “Bohmian mechanics” (see e.g. Goldstein 2013; for a balanced discussion of the relation between de Broglie's

and Bohm's approaches, see Holland (2011)). Bohm himself developed from 389  
the mid-1970s, with Basil Hiley, a philosophically more radical version they 390  
called the "ontological interpretation," culminating in their 1993 book *The* 391  
*Undivided Universe*. 392

How, then, might Bohm's theory be relevant to the mind–matter rela- 393  
tionship and to the causal status of consciousness in particular? The theory 394  
postulates that an electron is a particle, always accompanied by a new type of 395  
field, which guides its behavior—thus the name "pilot wave theory" which 396  
is sometimes used. Jack Sarfatti has characterized the Bohmian electron 397  
imaginatively by saying that it consists of a "thought-like" pilot wave, guiding a 398  
"rock-like" particle. This metaphor suggests that matter at the quantum level is 399  
fundamentally different from the sort of mechanical matter of classical physics 400  
that is presupposed in philosophy of mind by typical materialists. If even the 401  
basic elements that constitute us have "thought-like" and "rock-like" aspects, 402  
then it is perhaps not so surprising that a very complex aggregate of such 403  
elements (such as a human being) has a body, accompanied by a mind that 404  
guides it. 405

But, one might think, this is merely a vague metaphor. Now, Bohm himself 406  
realized in the early 1980s that the pilot wave might be more literally "thought- 407  
like" in a very interesting sense. He considered the mathematical expression of 408  
the so-called quantum potential, which describes the way the pilot wave affects 409  
the particle. He realized that the quantum potential, and thus the effect of the 410  
wave upon the particle, only depends on the form or shape of the wave, not 411  
on the size or amplitude of the wave (mathematically, the quantum potential 412  
depends only on the second spatial derivative of the amplitude of the wave). 413  
He went on to suggest that the quantum wave is literally putting form into, or 414  
in-forming, the motion of the particle along its trajectory, rather than pushing 415  
and pulling it mechanically. 416

Note that we are here talking about information for the electron, not 417  
information for us—we are thus thinking about information as an objective 418  
commodity that exists out there in the world, independently of us, guiding 419  
and organizing physical processes. The form of the quantum wave reflects the 420  
form of the environment of the particle—for example the presence of slits in 421  
the famous two-slit experiment. In this experiment, electrons arrive one by one 422  
at the detecting screen at localized points, suggesting that they are particles. Yet 423  
as we keep on watching, the individual spots build up an interference pattern, 424  
suggesting that each individual electron *also* has wave properties. Remember 425  
that in the Bohm theory the electron is seen as a particle *and* a wave. In the 426  
two-slit experiment the particle goes through one of the slits. The wave goes 427

through both slits, interferes and guides or in-forms the particle in such a way 428  
that an interference pattern is formed as many electrons pass through the slit 429  
system. It thus seems that with the help of the notion of active information 430  
we can have a realist interpretation of the quantum theory, without the usual 431  
puzzles, such as Schrödinger's cats, many worlds, or the consciousness of the 432  
observer producing physical reality (for details see Bohm and Hiley 1987, 433  
1993). 434

What happens with the electron is somewhat analogous to a ship on 435  
autopilot, guided by radar waves that carry information about the environment 436  
of the ship. The radar waves are not pushing and pulling the ship, but rather 437  
in-forming the much greater energy of the ship. Bohm generalized this into 438  
a notion of "active information"—which applies in situations where a form 439  
with smaller energy enters and informs a larger energy. We see this not only 440  
with various artificial devices, but also in the way the form of the DNA 441  
molecule informs biological processes, and even in the way forms act in human 442  
subjective experience (for example, seeing the form of a shadow in a dark night 443  
and interpreting it as "danger" may give rise to a powerful psychosomatic 444  
reaction). Indeed, Bohm (1990) sketched out how the active information 445  
approach could be developed into a theory of mind and matter. 446

While the radar-wave analogy helps us to understand the Bohmian electron, 447  
it is important to realize that the quantum potential has some radically holistic 448  
properties that go beyond what is implied by such mechanical analogies. 449  
In particular, in the many-body system there can be a nonlocal connection 450  
between particles that depends on the quantum state of the whole, in a way 451  
that cannot be expressed in terms of the relationships of the particles alone. 452  
Bearing in mind that this quantum state involves active information, we can 453  
note an interesting connection to Tononi's idea of integrated information. It 454  
is likely that the many-body quantum state involves the most radically holistic 455  
(integrated) information that science has thus far detected, thus making it 456  
interesting to consider its role when trying to understand consciousness as 457  
integrated information. 458

## 6 Bohm's Sketch for a Theory of the Relation 459 of Mind and Matter 460

Bohm proposed that we understand mental states as involving a hierarchy of 461  
levels of active information. We typically not merely think about objects in the 462  
external world, but we can also become aware of our thinking. He suggested 463

that such meta-level awareness typically involves a higher level of thought. This higher level gathers information about the lower level. But because its essential nature is active information, it not merely makes a passive representation of the lower level. Rather, the higher level also acts to organize the lower level, somewhat analogously to the way the active information in the pilot wave acts to organize the movement of the particle. (In particular, the higher level of thought can organize the content in the lower level into a coherent whole. This could be seen as a kind of “integrated information” and suggests yet another connection with Tononi’s integrated information theory of consciousness.) And of course, we can become aware of this higher level of thought from a yet higher level, and so on.

How then does mind, understood as a hierarchy of levels of active information, connect with matter in the Bohmian scheme? First of all, he suggested that it is natural to extend the quantum ontology. So just as there is a pilot wave that guides the particle, there can be a super-pilot wave that guides the first-order pilot wave, and so on. (He claimed that such an extension is “natural” from the mathematical point of view.) Now it seems that we have two hierarchies, one for mind and another for matter. His next step was to postulate that these are the same hierarchy, so that there is only one hierarchy. This then allows, at least in principle, for a new way of understanding how mind can affect the body. Information at a given level of active information in the mind can act downwards, all the way to the active information in the pilot waves of particles in, say, the synapses or neural microtubules, and this influence can then be amplified to signals in the motor cortex, leading to a physical movement of the body.

Bohm’s proposal differs strongly from the usual theories in cognitive neuroscience. Most neuroscientists ignore quantum considerations and seek the “neural correlates of consciousness” in some macroscopic neural phenomena, which can presumably be understood in terms of classical physics. Yet Bohm is proposing that mind, understood as a hierarchy of levels of active information, is implemented in (or perhaps even identical with) a hierarchy of super-quantum fields. However, these fields are not separate from the macroscopic neural processes. On the contrary, the role of the fields is in the end to gather information about the manifest neural processes and, on the basis of what this information means, to organize and guide them.

One should acknowledge that it is a tremendous challenge to work out an empirically testable theory along the Bohmian lines. The ideas described above provide a scheme for such an endeavor, rather than a fully developed theory. Bohm and Pykkänen (1992) were discussing ways to develop the scheme in the late 1980s and early 1990s. In a later development, Hiley and Pykkänen

(2005) discussed the prospects of applying the Bohm scheme to Beck and Eccles's quantum model of synaptic exocytosis (for a review of Beck and Eccles's model, as well as other quantum approaches to consciousness, see Atmanspacher 2011). While this may be a small step forward, problems remain. For example, Henry Stapp (2005) has pointed out that the sort of interference of the mind upon the laws of quantum mechanics that the Bohmian scheme involves can lead to serious problems with special relativity. This is a challenge that future research along Bohmian lines needs to face. A possible way for meeting this challenge is opened up by a recent study on the nature of nonlocal quantum information transfer by Walliczek and Grössing (2016).

While the possibility of non-negligible quantum effects in the brain is often dismissed as implausible, there are interesting recent advances in quantum biology. And it is already part of mainstream neuroscience that the retina acts to amplify the effects of individual photons. Also, researchers such as Roger Penrose and Stuart Hameroff have discussed in great detail how quantum effects might play a role in neural processes via quantum coherence and collapse in neural microtubules. Connecting the Hameroff–Penrose work with the Bohm scheme is one potentially fruitful line for future research. Indeed I have begun to explore these connections together with Hameroff and the philosopher Rocco Gennaro, who is a specialist on higher-order (HO) theories of consciousness (which seem to fit together with Bohm's idea of the mind as a hierarchy of levels of information). (For an early result of this cooperation, focusing on combining HO theories with Penrose and Hameroff's orchestrated objective reduction (ORCH-OR) hypothesis, leading to "deeper order thought" (DOT), see Hameroff et al. 2014.)

Note that Bohm introduced a new category, namely information, to the debate. Is information physical or mental? He suggested that it is simultaneously both physical and mental, or has these two as its aspects. This sort of view is called a double-aspect theory in philosophy of mind. The traditional worry with double-aspect views is that the underlying thing, which has the aspects, is left as a mystery. The hypothesis that information is the fundamental, underlying feature of reality can be seen as a way to alleviate this worry.

## 7 Understanding Consciousness in the Active Information Scheme

A common criticism of contemporary theories in the philosophy of mind—such as identity theory and functionalism—is that they leave out conscious experience, instead of explaining it (Searle 1992). How might conscious



experience fit into the active information scheme? In particular, is it possible to understand the causal status of consciousness in this scheme? While Bohm saw nature as a dynamic process where information and meaning play a key dynamic role, he assumed that “99.99 per cent” of our meanings are not conscious (Bohm in discussion with Renée Weber 1987, p. 439). Thus, for example, he thought it obvious that the particles of physics are not conscious. But how can one then address the problem of consciousness in this scheme? In other words, why is there sometimes conscious experience associated with the activity of information (as seems obvious at least with humans and higher animals)? Why doesn’t all the activity of information in humans proceed “in the dark,” as it seems to do in physical and biological processes in general? And does the presence of consciousness make a causal difference? Bohm himself did not say much about the hard problem of consciousness (he died a little before the hard problem was made the center of attention by David Chalmers in the 1994 Tucson consciousness conference). However, I have suggested that the most natural context to explore this issue is some version of an HO theory of consciousness (Pyllkkänen 2007, p. 247). Let us here expand somewhat on this idea.

As we saw above, the basic idea of higher-order theories of consciousness, when expressed in terms of the notion of information, is to postulate that what makes a given mental state (or level of information or mental activity) conscious is that there exists a higher level of (typically) unconscious information, which has the content that one is in the first-order mental state or activity.

Note also that David Chalmers famously suggested that we tackle the hard problem of consciousness with a double-aspect theory of information. The idea is that information is a fundamental feature of the world, which always has both a phenomenal and a physical aspect. Now, we could take this idea to the Bohm scheme and postulate that active information, too, has phenomenal properties. This then raises the question about what we should think about the active information in the pilot wave of an electron. Does it, too, have phenomenal properties in some sense? Bohm went as far as to say that electrons have a “primitive mind-like quality,” but by “mind” he was here referring to the “activity of form,” rather than conscious phenomenal experience in any full sense.

I think that it is reasonable to combine Chalmers’s hypothesis to active information, but we need to restrict the hypothesis. For example, we could say that a certain kind of active information (e.g., a holistic active information that is analogous to quantum active information) has the potentiality for phenomenal properties, but a potentiality that is actualized only in suitable

circumstances (e.g., when a given level of active information is the intentional 581  
target of a higher level of active information; or if we want to follow an 582  
approach similar to that of Tononi, we could say that suitably integrated active 583  
information is conscious). Of course, this also opens up the possibility for 584  
genuine artificial consciousness. If we could implement quantum-like holistic 585  
active information in an artificial system and set up a suitable higher-order 586  
relationship of levels in the system, phenomenal properties should actualize 587  
themselves, according to this hypothesis. (Or, in a Tononian approach, if 588  
active information is suitably integrated in an artificial context, it would be 589  
conscious.) 590

We should acknowledge that Bohm and Hiley's proposal about active infor- 591  
mation at the quantum level is radical and somewhat controversial, for they are 592  
in effect suggesting that this type of information ought to be acknowledged as 593  
a fundamental—perhaps *the* fundamental—category of physics. Indeed, they 594  
wrote in 1984: “the notion of a particle responding actively to information in 595  
the [quantum] field is . . . far more subtle and dynamic than any others that 596  
have hitherto been supposed to be fundamental in physics.” This proposal is 597  
still mostly ignored within the physics community. There are some technical 598  
issues with the proposal, but in my view a major reason for its being ignored 599  
is that it goes so much against the prevalent mechanistic way of thinking 600  
in physics. However, some leading thinkers do take it seriously, for example 601  
Smith (2003). Also, an interesting adaptation of the active information scheme 602  
to neuroscience has been proposed by Filk (2012). In the field of the social 603  
sciences, Khrennikov (2004) has made imaginative use of the proposal and 604  
the Bohm theory has also been applied to financial processes by Choustova 605  
(2007) and Haven (2005). Of course, the notion of “quantum information” 606  
has been widely discussed in recent years (see e.g. Bouwmeester et al. 2000). 607  
The advantages of the concept of active information over quantum informa- 608  
tion, when discussing some quantum experiments, have been argued for by 609  
Maroney (2002); see also Maroney and Hiley (1999). 610

To summarize: Bohm's suggestion was that a natural extension of his 611  
ontological interpretation of the quantum theory can include mental processes 612  
and even conscious experience into a single coherent view. From the point 613  
of view of the question about the causal powers of consciousness this view 614  
is particularly promising, for it makes it—at least in principle—possible to 615  
understand how conscious experience, via its effects upon information, could 616  
make a difference to physical processes. If we can provide an intelligible theory 617  
about how conscious experience can make a difference to information, this 618  
scheme provides a view of how such informational differences can then affect 619  
manifest physical processes (see also Hiley and Pylkkänen 2005). We have 620

hinted that this question can be approached within some of the already existing 621  
available theories of consciousness—for example, higher order theories or 622  
Tononi’s integrated information theory. 623

## 8 Active Information and the Causal Powers 624 of Consciousness 625

The view described above sketches out how information content might affect 626  
manifest physical processes (e.g., bodily behavior) in a way that is coherent 627  
with the principles of physics. We have already touched on the question of 628  
the causal role of consciousness in the active information scheme. Let us now 629  
consider this role in more detail. First of all, how can we understand the 630  
idea that consciousness enables more flexible control in the context of the 631  
active information view? More flexible control means, for example, that the 632  
organism is able to choose from among different options the one that best fits 633  
the situation, instead of having to follow mechanically one of the options. 634  
In Bohmian terms this means that consciousness enables the organism to 635  
suspend the activity of information. The way this works is that one is aware of 636  
information that means something like “It is reasonable to consider different 637  
options before acting.” And when one finally acts, this is based on information 638  
that means “It is reasonable to do X.” In other words, flexible control in the 639  
Bohmian view seems to involve higher-order, meta-level information that we 640  
are conscious of (while typically, according to higher order theories, we need 641  
not be conscious of the higher-order thought itself). 642

When it comes to better social coordination, Bohm’s view involves a 643  
notion he calls “common pools of information” (Bohm 1990). This notion 644  
applies strikingly well at the quantum level (e.g., in the Bohmian view of 645  
superconductivity) where the behavior of a system of particles can in some 646  
situations be organized by information in the so called many-body wave 647  
function. The particles act together in an organized way (e.g., electrons may 648  
pass obstacles in a wire, which results in very low resistance). Information at the 649  
level of human cognition operates presumably according to different principles 650  
from information at the quantum level. However, when a group of people 651  
communicate with each other (e.g., in a group discussion) they begin to build 652  
up a common pool of information. This enables the group to develop common 653  
intentions and carry out common actions (see e.g. Tuomela 2013). Suppose, 654  
for example, that a group of eight people need to carry a very heavy grand piano 655  
upstairs along a narrow staircase. They need to exchange information and 656

make sure that they each understand what they are supposed to do. Again, it is hard to imagine that such joint tasks requiring collective coordination could take place without some consciousness of the shared information. However, it is an experimental question to ask to what extent such collective action is possible without conscious awareness. Going back to our above example, it does seem difficult to act without conscious awareness at least in a situation where the group needs to carry the piano through a very narrow opening. While the mainstream literature in the field of collective or shared intentionality does not consider quantum principles, there is at the very least an interesting analogy between Bohm's notion of common pools of information at the quantum level and the notion of collective intentionality in social ontology. Some researchers have even explored whether social phenomena might involve quantum principles more literally. See, for example, Alexander Wendt's (2015) recent ground-breaking study, as well as Flender et al.'s (2009) radical approach to the shared intentionality of the mother-infant relationship, making use of quantum principles in a phenomenological context.

We have also considered the suggestion that consciousness enables more unified and integrated representation. The tricky question here is whether the information first gets unified and integrated in preconscious processes, and is then presented to consciousness; or whether consciousness plays a role in the very unification and integration of the information (Van Gulick seems to favor the latter alternative). I am inclined to think that much of the unification and integration takes place (largely) without consciousness, but that consciousness is needed for such information to be flexibly usable in the control of behavior (of course, in the Tononian approach one would say that sufficiently integrated information *constitutes* consciousness). In the Bohmian picture it is assumed that typically such information tends to act, even if it is not consciously attended to. Conscious attention may then make the response of information stronger, or lead to the suspension of action and reflection of the different options.

The idea that consciousness involves more global access can also be naturally understood in terms of the notion of active information. If information is consciously attended to, this may start what Bohm (2003) calls a "signasomatic" flow: the significance of the information acts somatically toward a more manifest level in the brain. Global access means that the significance can affect many different modules.

When it comes to free will, Bohm used to emphasize that true freedom is typically limited by our lack of knowledge—both about the consequences of one's actions and about our true motives. He refers to Schopenhauer when

he writes: “though we may perhaps be free to choose as we will, we are not free to will *the content of the will* . . . Is there any meaning to freedom of will when the content of this will is . . . determined by false knowledge of what is possible” (Bohm 1986). In a more positive vein, he writes:

How, then, is it possible for there to be the self-awareness that is required for true freedom? . . . I propose that self-awareness requires that consciousness sink into its implicate (and now mainly unconscious) order. It may then be possible to be directly aware, in the present, of the actual activity of past knowledge, and especially of that knowledge which is . . . false . . . Then the mind may be free of its bondage to the active confusion that is enfolded in its past. (Ibid.)

By “the implicate order” Bohm above refers (roughly) to the more subtle levels of active information which include long-term memory and from which the part of the content of conscious experience unfolds. It is clear that for Bohm free will requires consciousness. However, it is not enough that we are conscious of the options that we typically face in a situation when we are about to make a choice. We also need to be aware of—and thus free from—falsity in the past knowledge that we typically unconsciously hold and on the basis of which we tend to react and make our choices.

Let us finally consider intrinsic motivation in the light of the Bohmian view. What is interesting here is that Bohm emphasizes that information is typically active (while passive information is a special case). One possibility is that the presence of consciousness increases the level of activity of the information. Thus, for example, consciousness of information with an attractive content may be needed to awaken desire or make that desire more intense. At the same time conscious awareness of the negative consequences of carrying out a particular desire may lead to the suspension of action. In Bohmian terms, all these phases involve active information. For example, desire informs us to carry out a certain action X, while information about the consequences of the action may result in information with the content “It is not reasonable to do X.”

## 9 Concluding Discussion

I have drawn on fundamental physics to support the idea that conscious experiences can, at least in principle, be causally efficacious in a physical world, contrary to what much of contemporary physicalism suggests. Yet we have admittedly only scratched the surface of this difficult topic. Basically, I have assumed that consciousness (understood as something that arises due to higher

order information and/or information integration) can influence lower-level information, and information in turn can influence physical processes “signal-somatically,” as Bohm would put it.

The Bohmian view we considered suggests that nature can be understood as a two-way movement between the aspects of soma (the physical) and significance (information, meaning, the mental). Consciousness comes in here, but only at the higher, subtler levels, where, say, suitable higher-order relations (and/or a sufficient degree of information integration) prevail, depending upon which theory of consciousness we are relying upon. Thus the active information view is consistent with the idea—also supported by recent experimental work—that much of our most sophisticated brain functions work totally independently of consciousness. Yet the active information view also makes room for the genuine causal powers of consciousness, and in this way can accommodate such causal efficacy of consciousness as is suggested by Van Gulick, Revonsuo, and others. Bohm himself did not address very explicitly the causal powers of consciousness, but I think it is reasonable to assume that his scheme makes such powers in principle possible. To explain that scheme fully is, however, not possible here, and the interested reader is referred to a more detailed study (Pylkkänen 2007).

One important potential criticism of the active information approach has to do with the notion of information that is presupposed. Is it really justified to use the term “information” to describe the sorts of processes connected to the quantum field? One could examine this question in the light of the recent developments in the philosophy of information (e.g., Floridi 2015). Floridi distinguishes between environmental and semantic information; and semantic information can be further distinguished into factual and instructional information. The quantum active information is *about* something (the environment, slits, etc.), it is *for* the particle and it helps to *bring about* something (a certain movement of the particle). This suggests that it is semantic and has both factual and instructional aspects, though this issue needs to be explored more carefully in future research. Also, Maleeh and Amani (2012) have usefully considered active information in relation to Roederer’s (2005) notion of pragmatic information, suggesting that only biological systems are capable of “genuine” information processing. I think one can argue that Bohmian quantum information potential involves genuine information processing (indeed, the most fundamental kind of genuine information processing science has thus far discovered), but this will also need to be explored in future research.

I would like to end by reflecting upon the quote from Plato’s *Phaedo* (1892) provided at the start of the chapter. Plato there thinks it obvious that

our physical actions depend upon “the choice of the best,” while a typical materialist would say that insofar as physical actions are determined, they are determined by the physical state in a previous moment (including “bones and muscles”). Now, I think that the active information view allows for a naturalistic grounding of Plato’s view. In their 1984 article Bohm and Hiley note that there are good reasons for expecting that quantum theory, and therefore the notion of a quantum information potential, would be relevant when we are studying consciousness itself, as based on the material structure of the brain and nervous system:

it may well be that in our mental processes, the quantum information potential is significant (as is, for example, suggested by the fact that information regarded as correct is active in determining our behaviour, while as soon as it is regarded as incorrect, it ceases to be active). The quantum theory may then play a key part in understanding this domain. (1984, p. 269)

The above implies that our veridicality judgments play a key role in determining whether or not information acts. For example, if I judge a shadow in a dark night to mean “an assailant” and thus “danger,” this typically gives rise to a powerful psychosomatic reaction; if I a little later notice that it was merely a shadow of a branch (i.e., that the earlier judgment was incorrect), I will typically calm down. We could expand the idea toward Plato by assuming that our ethical judgments (e.g., “the choice of the best”) can typically also affect the way information is activated, and consequently our behavior. The quantum theoretical active information scheme enables such activity of information to reach all the way to the level of fundamental physics, and in this way we can begin, in a new way, to make sense of a perennial puzzle in Western philosophy, namely the place and role of minds, meanings, and morals in the physical world.

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