

On the global existence of time

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Abstract

The existence of a global time is often taken for granted but should instead be considered as a matter of investigation. By using the tools of global Lorentzian geometry I prove that, under physically reasonable conditions, the impossibility of finding a global time implies the singularity of spacetime.

1 Introduction

Many questions on the nature of time tacitly assume that a global time does indeed exist, that a time, perhaps associated to the cosmological flow, makes sense all over the spacetime. If we put the problem of the global existence of time under scrutiny we soon realize that this problem has no simple answer because what we can know of the properties of time at very large scales must be inferred from local observations. Actually these observations are limited: we cannot push our sight too far. With the discovery of the microwave background radiation we have learned that the ‘deepest’ photons that reach us come from the last scattering surface, a region of space of huge extension that nevertheless is not expected to unbrace the whole Universe. Is it therefore hopeless to try to justify the global existence of time? Can we speak of a global time, or should we resign and treat time only as a local phenomenon? I wish to prove that a lot can be learned on the global nature of time, indeed I shall draw a connection between the existence of time as a global entity and the absence of singularities in the Universe. The possibility of obtaining such connection, apparently paradoxical given our limited observational capabilities, stands on the fact that although our observations are local, the laws that we find hold globally (a physical principle that has passed several tests, think of the proportions between the absorption lines of chemical elements, which are the same on earth as well as in distant galaxies). This local laws can therefore put global constraints on spacetime and thus say something on the existence of a global time. As we shall see, these results will be obtained by using the tools of global Lorentzian geometry, that is, that branch of mathematics which studies the global aspects of Einstein’s general theory of relativity.

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2 Times

Before we proceed it is useful to distinguish between two different concepts of time which are used in physics and in particular in general relativity. They both deserve to be called *time*, as they are actually the same in a non-relativistic (low velocity) context. However, without a clarification some confusion could arise because they differ considerably outside that limit.

The first notion of time is the one that retains the property of *reckoning*. We are used to the fact that time is measured with clocks, more precisely clocks are used to associate to any pair of successive events a dimensional number called *interval of time*. This aspect of time is often called the *metric* or the *distance* side of time. It is intimately connected with the problem of time measurement which in turn influences the very definition of this type of time concept. This notion of time in general relativity becomes path dependent, the so called *proper time*: it is meaningful to take intervals of time only along the path of an observer, mathematically represented as a timelike curve. It cannot be exported to a global entity because of the well known clock effect (twin paradox): different observers would disagree on the label to assign to a given event since different observers have in general different histories and hence a different final reading of the respective clocks.

Fortunately, time is not only reckoning, but has an even more fundamental role, and here we come to the other side of time, that of *order*. Clearly, in non-relativistic physics time can be used to order events. If events a and b are such that $t(b) - t(a) > 0$ then we say that b has happened *after* a . We see that here the order role is deduced from the reckoning role, because the order follows from the sign of the time interval $t(b) - t(a)$ (if it vanishes the events are said to be simultaneous). If we think about it we can easily realize that in non-relativistic physics the time order has a *causal* nature. If event a can influence event b then $t(b) > t(a)$. By passing to the relativistic context we want the new time to be compatible with the more complex causal structure of spacetime as it follows from the finiteness of the speed of light (i.e. from the existence of the light cones) and from the curvature of spacetime. Physicists have learned how to express this notion of time, which is compatible with causality and retains an ordering role; they call it *the time function*.

Before we give a more precise definition let us recall some basics of relativistic physics. The spacetime of general relativity, denoted (M, g) , is a 4-dimensional manifold whose elements are called *events*. This manifold is endowed with a Lorentzian metric, that is a point dependent metric of signature $(-, +, +, +)$. At a given event tangent vectors v separate into timelike, lightlike and spacelike depending on the value of $g(v, v)$, respectively negative, zero or positive. Lightlike or timelike vectors are called causal, and the terminology extends to curves depending on the character of its tangent vectors. Note that in the tangent space there are two cones of timelike vectors. It is assumed that the manifold is time oriented in the sense that at each point a continuous choice can be made of future and past cones.

Mathematically, in general relativity event a can influence event b if there

is a causal curve connecting the two events. The idea is that signals propagate on causal curves and thus their tangent vector must be contained in the future light cone. Following a customary notation, we shall write $a < b$, and call $<$ the *causality relation*. If $a < b$ or $a = b$ we write $a \leq b$, and if there is a timelike curve connecting them we write $a \ll b$. Observers and massive particles are represented by timelike curves, light beams by lightlike geodesics.

Given this definition it is now easy to define what is a time function

Definition 2.1. A *time function* is a continuous function $t : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that if $a < b$ then $t(a) < t(b)$.

It is the statement “ $a < b \Rightarrow t(a) < t(b)$ ” which conveys in mathematical terms the compatibility of time with the causal structure. It states that if a can influence b then the time of a must be less than that of b . There are, however, other properties that deserve attention. First, the domain of t is the whole M which means that it is global; second, it is continuous, and this appears as a minimal mathematical and physical requirement. Thus in rigorous terms, speaking of a global time means speaking of a time function. Note that in a spacetime there may be pairs of events (a, b) , for which neither $a \leq b$ nor $b \leq a$ hold, in contrast with the non-relativistic context. Stated in another way the relation \leq could be a partial order (this property is called causality and is equivalent to the absence of closed causal curves) but in general it is not a total (linear) ordering, that is it cannot “decide” for all pairs which event comes before and which after. Here the ordering role of time comes into play. If you have a time function you also have a new total ordering, indeed you can establish that b comes after or at the same time of a if $t(a) \leq t(b)$. The new relation is indeed a total order which is an extension of the causal \leq order.

In general if a spacetime admits a time function then this function needs not to be unique. This feature is characteristic of relativity, indeed already in special relativity each observer has its own time function. The problem of trying to build a correspondence between observers and time functions is a quite interesting problem that however will not be addressed in this work [11]. To a large extent it is in fact a problem of methodology, it involves the problem of synchronization of clocks and its limitations in a general relativistic framework [15]. However, it is not a fundamental issue on the nature of time although its study clarifies the actual methods through which observers build up a time coordinate on portions of spacetime. Instead, here we ask a more fundamental issue, because maybe the spacetime does not even admit *one* time function.

3 Time functions and causality

Does a time function always exist? This is a rephrasing of our original question. In mathematical terms the answer is negative because it is easy to construct spacetimes that do not comply this condition. Consider for instance Minkowski spacetime with the usual coordinates and the space slices $t = -1$ and $t = +1$ identified. The spacetime has a toroidal shape and admits closed timelike curves

(i.e. the curve of equation $x^i = 0$, $i = 1, 2, 3$). It is clear that any spacetime admitting a closed causal curve cannot admit a time function. Indeed, the function would have to increase all over the curve, which is impossible because the final endpoint would coincide with the starting one. Thus arbitrary spacetimes need not admit a time function, however, the reader could suggest that perhaps the just mentioned spacetime is not realistic. This criticism is not particularly convincing because this spacetime actually satisfies the Einstein equations. It turns out that in the context of general relativity it is not possible to dismiss spacetimes, like this one, which present closed timelike curves. The reason why these spacetimes are not generally accepted is mostly a philosophical one. A closed timelike curve represents an observer which is forced to live an infinite number of times the same history. It is a kind of backward time travel in which the free will of the observer seems unable to affect the physical evolution (the grandfather paradox). Most physicists take therefore the view that the spacetimes which present this chronology violation should not be regarded as physical. Other physicists claim that although that conclusion could be correct, its validity is still a matter of investigation [17]. They claim that perhaps introducing the effects of quantum mechanics it could be possible to prove that spacetimes presenting chronology violations would evolve shrinking those causality violating regions, so that in the end they would have little influence on the global aspects of spacetime. In this work I shall consider the spacetimes as free from closed timelike curves, a minimal and philosophically satisfactory assumption that is known as the *chronology condition*.

Unfortunately, even chronological or causal spacetimes may not admit a time function. In order to show this fact I present the classical [9] example of figure 1.

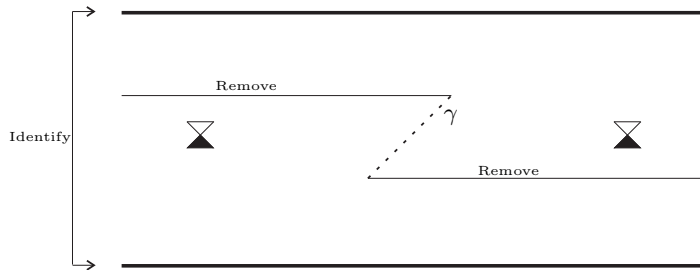


Figure 1: A chronological and causal spacetime that does not admit a time function. Past cones are depicted in black.

Here, as well as in other parts of the work, the example is obtained from 1+1 Minkowski spacetime by removing some parts and by making some identifications. The reader could be concerned that the spacetimes so obtained are not ‘realistic’; in this respect some observations are in order. These spacetimes are intended only to clarify the logical independence of some concepts; the restricted dimensionality is not important as by multiplication with a S^2 sphere

one would get 4-dimensional examples; moreover, although they seem part of a larger Minkowski spacetime (i.e. they seem to miss something), this is not really so. Indeed, as proved by Beem[1], one can always use the trick of multiplying the flat metric by a conformal factor so that the spacetimes become causally geodesically complete (every causal geodesic has an affine parameter which takes all the values of \mathbb{R}). After this operation the spacetime cannot be further extended (as corresponding to an extension one would expect the geodesics to extend to the new region and so the affine parameters of the geodesics to extend too which is impossible) and thus there are no missing points as it could be suggested by the original operation that led to their construction.

Returning to the example of figure 1 we see that no closed causal curve exists as no causal curve can cross the dotted line. The spacetime is therefore causal. The reader can try to construct a time function on this spacetime and check that despite the effort it is impossible. There is indeed a beautiful theorem by S. Hawking [7] which states that a spacetime admits a time function if and only if it is stably causal. This theorem was subsequently refined to show that the time function, whenever it exists, can always be chosen to be smooth with a timelike gradient [3]. Stable causality is a condition which is stronger than causality (which in turn is stronger than chronology) and states that not only there must not be closed causal curves on spacetime but also that it is possible to slightly open up the light cones all over the spacetime (thus changing the causal structure) without introducing closed causal curves. In the example of figure 1 opening the light cones means to allow the causal curves to tilt slightly more than the dotted line γ , a fact which allows to construct a closed causal curve. Therefore, the spacetime of figure 1 is not stably causal.

The reader may still wonder if there are spacetimes without the strange corners and removed sets of the figure which are not stably causal. Again the answer is affirmative. The spacetime of topology \mathbb{R}^4 , coordinates q_1, q_2, u, y and metric (here $r = \sqrt{q_1^2 + q_2^2}$)

$$ds^2 = dq_1^2 + dq_2^2 - du \otimes [dy - r(q_1 dq_2 - q_2 dq_1)] - [dy - r(q_1 dq_2 - q_2 dq_1)] \otimes du, \quad (1)$$

does not have a time function (even more it is non-future distinguishing, that is there are different points with the same chronological future; for another example with a nice figure see [10]).

According to our analysis and Hawking's theorem we have to prove starting from chronology that the spacetime is stably causal, a fact that the previous examples prove to be false unless we add some additional requirement. The right suggestion here comes from the mathematical field known as the "theory of relations". A general fact proved by Szpilrajn (1930) about partial orders (i.e. reflexive, transitive binary relations that satisfy the antisymmetry property $(x, z) \in R$ and $(z, x) \in R \Rightarrow x = z$), is that a partial order can be extended to a total order [5, Sect. 2.9.3]. Once applied to the causal relation \leq , taking into account that a time function provides a total ordering, this result seems to suggest that causality implies the existence of a time function. We know that this is not possible, a tricky situation which can be understood if we look at figure 2.

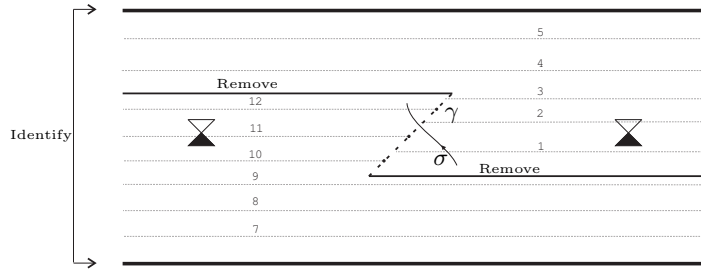


Figure 2: The constant slices of a function which increases on every causal curve. For instance it increases over the timelike curve σ , but note that this function is discontinuous all over the lightlike geodesic γ .

Here I have drawn the constant slices of a function which indeed increases on every causal curve. This function does indeed provide a total ordering for the spacetime events but it is not continuous! The continuity property is fundamental in Hawking’s theorem and in the very definition of time function. Thus Hawking’s and Szpilrajn’s results are actually compatible. The discussion suggests that perhaps if we could prove that there are no discontinuity points then we could also prove the existence of a time function. Note that in the figure the discontinuity points lie in the dotted lightlike geodesic γ . This causal curve has some further properties: it cannot be further extended neither in the past nor in the future, that is, it is inextendible, and no two points of the curve can be joined by a timelike curve. That is, this curve is what physicists call a *lightlike line*. The idea is then to add to causality the property of “absence of lightlike lines” with the hope that with this assumption one could remove all the discontinuity points and thus prove the existence of a time function. Actually, it is a trivial result that chronology plus the absence of lightlike lines implies causality [8] thus the statement to be proven is

Theorem. Chronological spacetimes without lightlike lines are stably causal.

Remarkably, recently I gave two largely independent proofs of this fact [13, 14]. The second proof also solves a long standing conjecture in causality theory, that on the possible equivalence between stable causality and K -causality [16] (see [12] for an historical perspective). The theorem is interesting in its own right as it has no Riemannian analog and involves only the light cone structure of spacetime (i.e. the reckoning aspect of time does not enter).

I shall not comment the details of the proof here. The point is, does this result say something on the existence of a global time? After all we have reduced the existence of time to that of “absence of lightlike lines” (as we accepted chronology), but is this a progress? This question is answered in the next section.

4 The positivity of the energy density

The absence of lightlike lines is implied by some physically reasonable conditions. This fact was first used by Hawking and Penrose in the proof of their singularity theorem [9].

Assume that the spacetime is

- (i) Null geodesically complete,

that is every inextendible lightlike geodesic $x(\lambda)$ has a affine parameter λ which runs from $-\infty$ to $+\infty$. This condition means that the spacetime does not end abruptly, it is therefore regarded as a non-singularity requirement. Actually, physicists consider other non-singularity requirements, for instance that which demands the spacetime to be timelike geodesically complete. These requirements are logically independent as a spacetime can be, for instance, timelike geodesically incomplete but null geodesically complete [2]. Condition (i) must be read as a weak non-singularity requirement.

The second assumption is that the spacetime satisfies the null convergence condition

- (ii) $R_{\mu\nu}n^\mu n^\nu \geq 0$ for all lightlike vectors n^μ ,

where $R_{\mu\nu}$ is the Ricci tensor. Recall that the Einstein equations are

$$R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}Rg_{\mu\nu} + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi GT_{\mu\nu}.$$

If the energy density for an observer of 4-velocity u^μ is non-negative then $T_{\mu\nu}u^\mu u^\nu \geq 0$, and since this is a reasonable assumption (in a non-quantum mechanical regime) then this inequality should hold for every timelike vector u^μ and hence, by continuity, for every lightlike vector n^μ . Using the Einstein equations and $T_{\mu\nu}n^\mu n^\nu \geq 0$ we get the assumption (ii) which can therefore be regarded as a consequence of the positivity of the energy density. Actually this assumption can also be weakened to the *averaged null convergence condition* [18, 19, 4] which allows for local violations of the positive energy condition.

The last assumption is the most technical one and is called the *null genericity condition*

- (iii) Every inextendible lightlike geodesic γ has at some point a tangent vector n such that, $n^c n^d n_{[a} R_{b]cd[e} n_{f]} \neq 0$.

Basically it states that the spacetime is not too ‘special’ in the sense that it does not have particular symmetries. This condition is physically reasonable because if violated it could be restored through an arbitrarily small perturbation of the metric along the lightlike geodesic.

A well know result by Hawking and Penrose [9] states that if (i), (ii) and (iii) hold then the spacetime does not have lightlike lines. Mathematicians have also studied what happens if (i) and (ii) hold but there are lightlike lines (because

(iii) fails). The result is that, as expected from the failure of (iii), the spacetime would have rather special features [6, Theorem IV.1]

We can understand this result by Hawking and Penrose with a Riemannian analogy. Imagine you live in a world with two space dimensions, which we model with a Riemannian manifold, and an absolute time. In this model you are not a good guy so you steal the wallet of somebody and run away. Unfortunately, you choose the wrong person so that you are immediately chased by a multitude of people running after you. They run exactly at your speed so you are forced to move along a space geodesic. Now, if the space were flat you would be able to keep the same distance between you and the people following you.

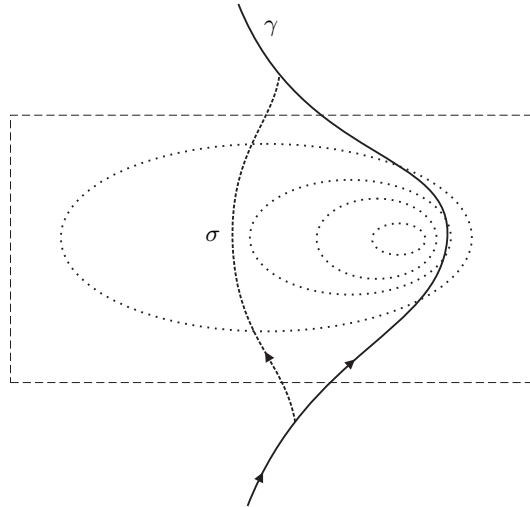


Figure 3: Your path and that of most of the people following you is the geodesic γ . The minimization property of geodesics holds locally but not necessarily globally if the space is curved. Someone of the group behind you can take advantage of the presence of the hill to follow path σ and catch up with you. This is possible if the space and hence the geodesics extends enough. If the whole space were only the portion inside the box then the geodesics would be incomplete (the space would be singular) and the followers would not catch you.

If the space is curved, however, some persons in the group behind you can choose to try a different path and surprise you. This is possible because geodesics are the paths that *locally* minimize the length between two points. However, globally the geodesics may lose this property. Figure 3 shows what could happen if in your running away you pass nearby a hill. Provided the geodesics can be extended sufficiently far this strategy will work and your followers will catch you. The energy and the genericity conditions (ii)-(iii) basically state that the universe is curved, so that the analog of the hill exists.

Putting this result together with that of the previous section, and assum-

ing chronology plus the physically reasonable conditions (ii) and (iii), we get that *under physically reasonable conditions if the universe is null geodesically complete then there is a time function*. Stated in another way, *under physically reasonable conditions if a time function does not exist then there is a singularity*. Note that this singularity theorem does not assume the existence of a time function from start, as Hawking and Penrose's does, nor it does assume the existence of a trapped surface (i.e. a surface that traps light). It is indeed in a sense a more primitive result, not directly comparable with the usual singularity theorems.

5 Conclusions

We have found that if a global time does not exist then it is possible to infer that the spacetime is singular without making any of the assumptions which are usually met in singularity theorems, for instance that the cosmological flow is diverging everywhere in the Universe, or that matter has clustered so much at some place in the Universe that there exists a trapped surface.

Moreover, even if the spacetime started from a singularity, as it can be inferred from Hawking's and Hawking and Penrose's theorems [8], it could still be that this singularity be related to the *timelike* geodesic incompleteness of spacetime which leaves open the possibility of applying the mentioned theorem in a positive way to infer, starting from null completeness, the existence of a time function. Actually, philosophically speaking, null completeness is a very attractive requirement. Indeed, it is possible to speculate that at early times the particles had no mass (the Higgs field had not yet acquired a non-vanishing expectation value), thus at early times the concept of observer as represented by a timelike curve loses its meaning. Instead, only massless particles make sense, and thus the concept of non-singularity must be expressed from the 'point of view' of massless particles. Therefore the natural non-singularity requirement seems to be that which demands a null geodesically complete Universe. In any case, either used in a 'positive' or 'negative' way, the theorem described in this work gives new insights into the problem of the global existence of time.

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