Quantum Field Theory on Spacetimes with a Compactly Generated Cauchy Horizon

Bernard S. Kay (bsk2@york.ac.uk) Marek J. Radzikowski* (radzikow@mail.desy.de)

Department of Mathematics, University of York, Heslington, York YO1 5DD, U.K.

(*Present address: II. Institut für Theoretische Physik, Universität Hamburg, Luruper Chaussee 149, D-22761 Hamburg, Germany)

Robert M. Wald (rmwa@midway.uchicago.edu)
Enrico Fermi Institute, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois 60637, U.S.A.

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Abstract

We prove two theorems which concern difficulties in the formulation of the quantum theory of a linear scalar field on a spacetime, (M, g_{ab}) , with a compactly generated Cauchy horizon. These theorems demonstrate the breakdown of the theory at certain base points of the Cauchy horizon, which are defined as 'past terminal accumulation points' of the horizon generators. Thus, the theorems may be interpreted as giving support to Hawking's 'Chronology Protection Conjecture', according to which the laws of physics prevent one from manufacturing a 'time machine'. Specifically, we prove:

Theorem 1. There is no extension to (M, g_{ab}) of the usual field algebra on the initial globally hyperbolic region which satisfies the condition of F-locality at any base point. In other words, any extension of the field algebra must, in any globally hyperbolic neighbourhood of any base point, differ from the algebra one would define on that neighbourhood according to the rules for globally hyperbolic spacetimes.

Theorem 2. The two-point distribution for any Hadamard state defined on the initial globally hyperbolic region must (when extended to a distributional bisolution of the covariant Klein-Gordon equation on the full spacetime) be singular at every base point x in the sense that the difference between this two point distribution and a local Hadamard distribution cannot be given by a bounded function in any neighbourhood (in $M \times M$) of (x, x).

In consequence of Theorem 2, quantities such as the renormalized expectation value of ϕ^2 or of the stress-energy tensor are necessarily ill-defined or singular at any base point.

The proof of these theorems relies on the 'Propagation of Singularities' theorems of Duistermaat and Hörmander.

1 Introduction

In recent years, there has been considerable interest in the question whether it is possible, in principle, to manufacture a 'time machine' – i.e., whether, by performing operations in a bounded region of an initially 'ordinary' spacetime, it is possible to bring about a 'future' in which there will be closed timelike curves. Heuristic arguments by Morris, Thorne and Yurtsever [40] suggested in 1988 that this might be possible with a suitable configuration of relatively moving wormholes, and alternative ideas also have been suggested by others (see e.g., [17]). For reviews and further references, see e.g., [49, 52].

A precise, general class of classical spacetimes, (M, g_{ab}) , in which a time machine is 'manufactured' in a nonsingular manner within a bounded region of space is comprised by those with a compactly generated Cauchy horizon [23]. By this is meant, first, that (M, g_{ab}) is time orientable and possesses a closed achronal edgeless set S (often referred to as a partial Cauchy surface) such that $D^+(S) \neq I^+(S)$, where $D^+(S)$ denotes the future domain of dependence of S, and $I^+(S)$ denotes the chronological future of S. (Often we shall refer to the full domain of dependence, D(S), of S as the initial globally hyperbolic region.) However, it is additionally required that there exists a compact set K such that all the past-directed null generators of the future Cauchy horizon, $H^+(S)$, eventually enter and remain within K. It is not difficult to see that any spacetime obtained by starting with a globally hyperbolic spacetime and then smoothly deforming the metric in a compact region so that the spacetime admits closed timelike curves must possess a

compactly generated Cauchy horizon. Conversely, as we shall discuss further in Sect. 2, any spacetime with a compactly generated Cauchy horizon necessarily violates strong causality, and, thus, is at least 'on the verge' of creating a time machine. Thus, we will, in the following discussion, identify the notions of 'manufacturing a time machine' and 'producing a spacetime with a compactly generated Cauchy horizon'.

It follows from the 'Topological Censorship Theorem' [16] that in order to produce a spacetime with a compactly generated Cauchy horizon by means of a traversable wormhole it is necessary to violate the weak energy condition. More generally, the weak energy condition must be violated in any spacetime with a compactly generated Cauchy horizon with noncompact partial Cauchy surface S [23]. Physically realistic classical matter fields satisfy the weak energy condition, but this condition can be violated in quantum field theory. Thus, 'quantum matter' undoubtedly would be needed to produce a spacetime with a compactly generated Cauchy horizon.

The above considerations provide motivation for the study of quantum field theory on spacetimes with a compactly generated Cauchy horizon. In attempting to carry out such a study however, one immediately encounters the problem that, even for linear field theories, we only have a clear and undisputed set of rules for quantum field theory in curved spacetime in the case that the spacetime is globally hyperbolic. In this case, there is a well-established construction of a field algebra based on standard theorems on the well-posedness of the corresponding classical Cauchy problem. Friedman and Morris [14] have recently established that there exists a well defined classical dynamics on a simple model spacetime with closed timelike curves, and they have conjectured that classical dynamics will be suitably well posed on a wide class of spacetimes with compactly generated Cauchy horizons. Thus for spacetimes in this class one might expect it to be possible to mimic the standard construction and obtain a sensible quantum field theory.

It should be noted that even if no difficulties were to arise in the formulation of quantum field theory on spacetimes with compactly generated Cauchy horizons, there still would likely be very serious obstacles to manufacturing time machines, since it is far from clear that any solutions to the semiclassical field equations can exist which correspond to time machine production. In particular, not only the (pointwise) weak energy condition but the averaged null energy condition must be violated with any time machine produced with 'traversable wormholes' [16]. Under some additional assumptions, violation of the averaged null energy condition also must occur in any spacetime with a compactly generated Cauchy horizon in which the partial Cauchy surface S is noncompact [23]. Although the averaged null energy condition can be violated in quantum field theory in curved spacetime, there is recent evidence to suggest that it may come 'close enough' to holding to provide a serious impediment to the construction of a time machine [13, 12].

However, in the present paper, we shall not concern ourselves with issues such as whether sufficiently strong violations of energy conditions can occur to even create the conditions needed to produce a spacetime with a compactly generated Cauchy horizon. Rather we will focus on the more basic issue of whether a sensible, nonsingular quantum field theory of a linear field can be defined at all on such spacetimes. There is, of course, no difficulty in defining quantum field theory in the initial globally hyperbolic region D(S), but there is evidence suggesting that quantum effects occurring as one approaches the Cauchy horizon must become unboundedly large, resulting in singular behaviour of the theory. Analyses by Kim and Thorne [33] and others [23, 52] have indicated that for all/many physically relevant states the renormalized expectation value of the stress-energy tensor, $\langle T_{ab} \rangle$, of a linear quantum field, defined on the initial globally hyperbolic region D(S), must blow up as one approaches a compactly generated Cauchy horizon. However, these arguments are heuristic in nature, and examples recently have been given by Krasnikov [37] and Sushkov [46, 47] of states for certain linear quantum field models on the initial globally hyperbolic region of (two and four dimensional) Misner space (see e.g., [24] or [23]) for which $\langle T_{ab} \rangle$ remains finite as one approaches the Cauchy horizon. This raises the issue of whether a quantum field necessarily becomes singular at all on a compactly generated Cauchy horizon, and, if so, in what sense it must be 'singular'.

The purpose of this paper is to give a mathematically precise answer to this question. As we shall describe further in Sect. 2, every compactly generated Cauchy horizon, $H^+(S)$, contains a nonempty set, \mathcal{B} of 'base points' having the property that every generator of $H^+(S)$ approaches arbitrarily close to \mathcal{B} in the past, and strong causality is violated at every $x \in \mathcal{B}$. We shall prove the following two theorems concerning quantum field theory on spacetimes with compactly generated Cauchy horizons. (Full statements are given in Sect. 5. See also Sect. 6 for further discussion.):

¹ A first result in this direction was obtained as early as 1982 by Hiscock and Konkowski [25] who constructed a natural quantum state for a linear scalar field on the initial globally hyperbolic portion of four dimensional Misner space and showed that its stress energy tensor diverges as one approaches the Cauchy horizon.

Theorem 1: There is no extension to (M, g_{ab}) of the usual field algebra on the initial globally hyperbolic region D(S) which satisfies the condition of F-locality [30]. (The F-locality condition necessarily breaks down at any $x \in \mathcal{B}$.)

Theorem 2: The two-point distribution for any Hadamard state of the covariant Klein-Gordon field defined on the initial globally hyperbolic region of a spacetime with a compactly generated Cauchy horizon must (when extended to a distributional bisolution on the full spacetime) be singular at every $x \in \mathcal{B}$ in the sense that the difference between this two point distribution and a local Hadamard distribution cannot be given by a bounded function in any neighbourhood (in $M \times M$) of (x, x).

Theorem 1 shows that on a spacetime with a compactly generated Cauchy horizon the quantum field theory must be locally different from the corresponding theory on a globally hyperbolic spacetime. Theorem 2 establishes that even if $\langle T_{ab} \rangle$ remains finite as one approaches the Cauchy horizon as in the examples of Krasnikov and Sushkov [37, 46, 47]² it nevertheless must always (i.e., for any Hadamard state on the initial globally hyperbolic region) be the case that $\langle T_{ab} \rangle$ is ill defined or singular at all points of \mathcal{B} , since the limit which defines $\langle T_{ab} \rangle$ via the point-splitting prescription cannot exist, and in fact must diverge in some directions.

Our theorems show that very serious difficulties arise when attempting to define the quantum field theory of a linear field on a spacetime with a compactly generated Cauchy horizon. In particular, our results may be interpreted as indicating that in order to manufacture a time machine, it would be necessary at the very least to enter a regime where quantum effects of gravity itself will be dominant. Thus, our results may be viewed as supportive of Hawking's 'Chronology Protection Conjecture' [23], although we shall refrain from speculating as to whether the difficulties we find might somehow be evaded in a complete theory where gravity itself is quantized.

² Sushkov's examples involve a mild generalization of the quantum field model discussed here to the case of complex automorphic fields [46, 47]. While our theorems strictly don't apply as stated to automorphic fields, we remark that we expect everything we do to generalize to this case. (See also the final sentence of Sect. 2.) Moreover, Cramer and Kay [7] have recently shown directly that the conclusions of Theorem 2 are valid for the state discussed by Sushkov in [47]. Note that, as we discuss further in Sect. 6 below, reference [7] also points out a similar situation for the states discussed by Boulware [3] for Gott space and Tanaka and Hiscock [48] for Grant space.

The proofs of the above two theorems will be based upon the 'Propagation of Singularities' theorems of Duistermaat and Hörmander [9, 28]. In particular, these theorems will allow us to conclude that the two-point distribution of a Hadamard state is not locally in $L^2(M \times M)$ in a neighbourhood of any $(x,y) \in M \times M$ such that x and y can be joined by a null geodesic. This fact directly gives rise to the singular behaviour of Theorem 2 at \mathcal{B} . It should be noted that similar singular behaviour will occur in essentially all (but – see Sect. 6 – not quite all) situations where one has a closed or 'almost closed' or self-intersecting null geodesic, so the results obtained here for spacetimes with compactly generated Cauchy horizons can be generalized to additional wide classes of causality violating spacetimes. (See Sect. 6.)

We shall begin in Sect. 2 by establishing two geometrical propositions on spacetimes with compactly generated Cauchy horizons. In Sect. 3, after a brief review of the essential background on distributions and microlocal analysis required for their statement, we review the Propagation of Singularities theorems of Duistermaat and Hörmander for linear partial differential operators. In Sect. 4 we shall briefly review some relevant aspects of linear quantum field theory in globally hyperbolic spacetimes and discuss how one can approach the question of what it might mean to quantize a (linear) quantum field on a non-globally hyperbolic spacetime. In particular, the notion of F-locality, introduced in [30], will be briefly reviewed there. In Sect. 5 we shall state and prove our theorems on the singular behaviour of quantum fields. In a final discussion section (Sect. 6) we shall discuss further the significance and interpretation of our theorems and mention some directions in which they may be generalized.

We remark that while we explicitly treat only the covariant Klein-Gordon equation, we expect appropriate analogues of Theorems 1 and 2 to hold for arbitrary linear quantum field theories. Moreover, it seems possible that the singular behaviour we find for linear quantum fields on the Cauchy horizon may be related to pathologies found in the calculation of the S-matrix for nonlinear fields [15].

2 Some Properties of Compactly Generated Cauchy Horizons

In this section, we shall establish some geometrical properties of spacetimes possessing compactly generated Cauchy horizons. We begin by recalling several basic definitions and theorems, all of which can be found, e.g., in [24, 55].

Let (M, g_{ab}) be a time orientable spacetime, and let S be a closed, achronal subset of M. We define the future domain of dependence of S (denoted, $D^+(S)$) to consist of all $x \in M$ having the property that every past inextendible causal curve through x intersects S. The past domain of dependence is defined similarly. It then follows that int $D^+(S) = I^-[D^+(S)] \cap I^+(S)$, where I^- denotes the chronological past. Thus, if $x \in D^+(S)$ but $x \notin S$, then every past directed timelike curve from x immediately enters int $D^+(S)$ and remains in int $D^+(S)$ until it intersects S.

The future Cauchy horizon of S (denoted $H^+(S)$) is defined by $H^+(S) = \overline{D^+(S)} - I^-[D^+(S)]$, where $\overline{D^+(S)}$ denotes the closure of $D^+(S)$. It follows immediately that $H^+(S)$ is achronal and closed. A standard theorem [24, 55] establishes that every $x \in H^+(S)$ lies on a null geodesic contained within $H^+(S)$ which either is past inextendible or has an endpoint on the edge of S. Thus, if S is edgeless (in which case S is referred to as a partial Cauchy surface or slice), then $H^+(S)$ is generated by null geodesics which may have future endpoints (i.e., they may 'exit' $H^+(S)$ going into the future) but cannot have past endpoints. Note that this implies that $H^+(S) \cap D^+(S) = \emptyset$. Since similar results hold for $H^-(S)$, it follows that for any partial Cauchy surface S, the full domain of dependence, $D(S) \equiv D^+(S) \cup D^-(S)$, is open.

Now, let S be a partial Cauchy surface. We say that the future Cauchy horizon, $H^+(S)$, of S is compactly generated [23] if there exists a compact subset, K, of M, such that for each past directed null geodesic generator, λ , of $H^+(S)$ there exists a parameter value s_0 (in the domain of definition of λ) such that $\lambda(s) \in K$ for all $s > s_0$. In other words, when followed into the past, all null generators of $H^+(S)$ enter and remain forever in K.

We now introduce some new terminology. Let $\lambda: I \to M$ be any continuous curve defined on an open interval, $I \subset \mathcal{R}$, which may be infinite or semi-infinite. We say that $x \in M$ is a terminal accumulation point of λ if for every open neighbourhood \mathcal{O} of x and every $t_0 \in I$ there exists $t \in I$ with $t > t_0$ such that $\lambda(t) \in \mathcal{O}$. (By contrast, x would be called an endpoint of λ if

for every open neighbourhood \mathcal{O} of x there exists $t_0 \in I$ such that $\lambda(t) \in \mathcal{O}$ for all $t > t_0$. Thus, an endpoint is automatically a terminal accumulation point, but not vice-versa.) Equivalently, x is a terminal accumulation point of λ if there exists a monotone increasing sequence $\{t_i\} \in I$ without limit in I such that $\lambda(t_i)$ converges to x. When λ is a causal curve, we shall call x a past terminal accumulation point if it is a terminal accumulation point when λ is parametrized so as to make it past-directed. Note that if x is a past terminal accumulation point of a causal curve λ but x is not a past endpoint of λ , then strong causality must be violated at x.

Let $H^+(S)$ be a compactly generated future Cauchy horizon. We define the base set, \mathcal{B} , of $H^+(S)$ by

$$\mathcal{B} = \{ x \in H^+(S) \mid \text{ there exists a null generator, } \lambda, \text{ of } H^+(S) \text{ such that } x$$
 is a past terminal accumulation point of $\lambda \}$. (1)

Since the null generators of $H^+(S)$ cannot have past endpoints, it follows that strong causality must be violated at each $x \in \mathcal{B}$. The following proposition (part of which corresponds closely to the second theorem stated in Sect. V of [23]) justifies the terminology 'base set':

Proposition 1. The base set, \mathcal{B} , of any compactly generated Cauchy horizon, $H^+(S)$, always is a nonempty subset of K. In addition, all the generators of $H^+(S)$ asymptotically approach \mathcal{B} in the sense that for each past-directed generator, λ , of $H^+(S)$ and each open neighbourhood \mathcal{O} of \mathcal{B} , there exists a $t_0 \in I$ (where I is the interval of definition of λ) such that $\lambda(t) \in \mathcal{O}$ for all $t > t_0$. Finally, \mathcal{B} is comprised by null geodesic generators, γ , of $H^+(S)$ which are contained entirely within \mathcal{B} and are both past and future inextendible.

Proof. Let λ be a past directed null generator of $H^+(S)$ and let $\{t_i\}$ be any monotone increasing sequence without limit on I. Then $\lambda(t_i) \in K$ for infinitely many i. It follows immediately that $\{\lambda(t_i)\}$ must have an accumulation point, x, which must lie on $H^+(S)$ since $H^+(S)$ is closed. It follows that $x \in \mathcal{B}$, and hence \mathcal{B} is nonempty. The proof that $\mathcal{B} \subset K$ is entirely straightforward. If one could find a generator λ and an open neighbourhood \mathcal{O} of \mathcal{B} such that for all $t_0 \in I$, we can find a $t > t_0$ such that $\lambda(t) \notin \mathcal{O}$, then, using compactness of K, we would be able to find a past terminal accumulation point of λ lying outside of \mathcal{O} and, hence, outside of \mathcal{B} , which would contradict the definition of \mathcal{B} .

To prove the last statement in the proposition, it is useful to introduce (using the paracompactness of M) a smooth Riemannian metric, e_{ab} , on M. We shall parametrize all curves in M by arc length, s, with respect to this Riemannian metric.

Let $x \in \mathcal{B}$. We wish to show that there exists a null geodesic, γ , through x which is both past and future inextendible and is contained in \mathcal{B} . Since $x \in \mathcal{B}$, there exists a null generator, λ , of $H^+(S)$ such that x is a past terminal accumulation point of λ . We parametrize λ so that its arc length parameter, s, increases in the past direction. Since λ is past inextendible and K is compact, s must extend to infinite values (even though the geodesic affine parameter of λ in the Lorentz metric g_{ab} might only extend to finite values). Thus, there exists a sequence $\{s_i\}$ diverging to infinity such that $\lambda(s_i)$ converges to x. Let $(k_i)^a$ denote the tangent to λ at s_i in the arc length parametrization, so that $(k_i)^a$ has unit norm with respect to e_{ab} . Since the subset of the tangent bundle of M comprised by points in K together with tangent vectors with unit norm with respect to e_{ab} is compact, it follows that - passing to a subsequence, if necessary - there must exist a tangent vector k^a at x such that $\{(\lambda(s_i), (k_i)^a)\}$ converges to (x, k^a) . Since each $(k_i)^a$ is null in the Lorentz metric g_{ab} , it follows by continuity that k^a also must be null with respect to g_{ab} .

Let γ be the maximally extended (in M, in both future and past directions) null geodesic determined by (x, k^a) . We parametrize γ by arc length with respect to e_{ab} , with increasing s corresponding to going into the past and with s = 0 at x. Let $y \in \gamma$ and let s denote the arc length parameter of y. Since the sequence $\{s_i\}$ diverges to infinity, it follows that for sufficiently large i, $(s+s_i)$ will be in the interval of definition of λ . Since $\{(\lambda(s_i), (k_i)^a)\}$ converges to (x, k^a) , it follows by continuity of both the exponential map (with respect to g_{ab}) and the arc length parametrization (with respect to e_{ab}) that $\{\lambda(s+s_i)\}$ converges to y. Thus, $y \in \mathcal{B}$, as we desired to show. \square

In some simple examples (see, e.g., [52]), \mathcal{B} consists of a single closed null geodesic, referred to as a 'fountain'. However, it appears that, generically, \mathcal{B} may contain null geodesics which are not closed [6].

Our final result on \mathcal{B} , which will be needed in Sect. 5, is the following.

Proposition 2. Let $H^+(S)$ be a compactly generated Cauchy horizon, and let \mathcal{B} be its base set. Let $x \in \mathcal{B}$, and let \mathcal{U} be any globally hyperbolic open neighbourhood of x. Then there exist points $y, z \in \mathcal{U} \cap \operatorname{int} D^+(S)$ such that y and z are connected by a null geodesic in the spacetime (M, g_{ab}) , but cannot

be connected by a causal curve lying within \mathcal{U} .

Proof. As in the proof of the previous proposition, we introduce a smooth Riemannian metric, e_{ab} , on M and parametrize curves in M by arc length, s, with respect to e_{ab} with increasing s corresponding to going into the past. Let λ and $\{s_i\}$ be as in the proof of the previous theorem. There cannot exist an s_0 such that $\lambda(s) \in \mathcal{U}$ for all $s > s_0$, since otherwise strong causality would be violated at x in the spacetime (\mathcal{U}, g_{ab}) , thereby contradicting the global hyperbolicity of (\mathcal{U}, g_{ab}) . Thus, there exist integers i, j with $s_i < s_j$ such that $\lambda(s_i), \lambda(s_i) \in \mathcal{U}$ but for some s with $s_i < s < s_i$ we have $\lambda(s) \notin \mathcal{U}$. By passing to a smaller interval around s if necessary, we may assume without loss of generality that λ is one-to-one in $[s_i, s_j]$ (so that, in particular, $\lambda(s_i) \neq \lambda(s_j)$). It then follows from the achronality of $H^+(S)$ that any past-directed causal curve in (M, g_{ab}) which starts at $\lambda(s_i)$ and ends at $\lambda(s_i)$ must coincide with (or contain) this segment of λ . (If not, then there would exist two distinct, past-directed, null geodesics connecting $\lambda(s_i)$ with $\lambda(s_i)$, and it would be possible to obtain a timelike curve joining $\lambda(s_i)$ to $\lambda(s_j+1)$.) Consequently, $\lambda(s_i)$ cannot be joined to $\lambda(s_i)$ by any past-directed causal curve contained within \mathcal{U} .

Since in any globally hyperbolic spacetime, the causal past of any point is closed, it follows that there exist open neighbourhoods, $\mathcal{O}_i \subset \mathcal{U}$ and $\mathcal{O}_j \subset \mathcal{U}$, of $\lambda(s_i)$ and of $\lambda(s_j)$, respectively, such that no point of \mathcal{O}_i can be joined to a point of \mathcal{O}_j by a past-directed causal curve lying within \mathcal{U} . Without loss of generality, we may assume that \mathcal{O}_i and \mathcal{O}_j are contained in $I^+(S)$ (since otherwise we could take their intersection with $I^+(S)$).

Our aim, now, is to deform λ suitably to get a null geodesic in (M, g_{ab}) which joins a point $y \in \mathcal{O}_i \cap \operatorname{int} D^+(S)$ to a point $z \in \mathcal{O}_j \cap \operatorname{int} D^+(S)$. To do so, we choose along λ (in a neighbourhood of $\lambda(s_i)$), a past-directed null vector field, l^a , and a spacelike vector field w^a satisfying $g_{ab}l^ak^b = -1$, $g_{ab}w^ak^b = g_{ab}w^al^b = 0$, and $g_{ab}w^aw^b = 1$, where k^a denotes the tangent to λ (in the arc length parametrization with respect to e_{ab}). Let $\epsilon > 0$ and consider the null geodesic α starting at point $\lambda(s_i + \epsilon)$ with null tangent $k^a + \frac{1}{2}\epsilon^2l^a + \epsilon w^a$. By continuity, for sufficiently small ϵ , $y = \alpha(\epsilon)$ will lie in \mathcal{O}_i and $z = \alpha(s_j - s_i)$ will lie in \mathcal{O}_j . Since y and z can be connected to $\lambda(s_i)$ by a past-directed broken null geodesic, they each lie in $I^-[H^+(S)]$. Since they also each lie in $I^+(S)$, it follows that $y, z \in \operatorname{int} D^+(S)$. As shown above, y cannot be connected to z by a past-directed causal curve lying within \mathcal{U} . However, since $y \in \operatorname{int} D^+(S)$, it follows that there cannot exist any future-

directed causal curve, σ , in M, connecting y to z, since, otherwise we would obtain a closed causal curve through y by adjoining σ to (the time reverse of) α . Thus, we have $y, z \in \mathcal{U} \cap \text{int } D^+(S)$ such that y and z are connected by the null geodesic α in the spacetime (M, g_{ab}) , but they cannot be connected by any causal curve lying within \mathcal{U} . \square

To end this section, we remark, following [7], that Propositions 1 and 2 (and hence also the theorems of Sect. 5) will also clearly apply to any spacetime (such as four dimensional Misner space) which, while having a Cauchy horizon which is not compactly generated, arises as the product with a flat 4-d dimensional Euclidean space of some spacetime with compactly generated Cauchy horizon of lower dimension d.

3 Microlocal Analysis and Propagation of Singularities

In this section, we shall review results of Hörmander and Duistermaat and Hörmander [9, 27, 28] concerning the propagation of singularities in distributional solutions to partial differential equations. These results do not appear to be widely known or used in the physics literature, and we shall attempt to make them somewhat more accessible by stating them in the simpler case of differential operators rather than in the more general setting of pseudod-ifferential operators.

We begin by recalling that on an arbitrary smooth (paracompact) n-dimensional manifold, M, elements of the vector space, $\mathcal{D}(M)$, of smooth (C^{∞}) (and in this paper, we shall assume real-valued) functions of compact support are referred to as test functions. A topology is defined on $\mathcal{D}(M)$ as follows.

First, we introduce a Riemannian metric, e_{ab} , and a derivative operator, ∇_a , on M. Next, we fix a compact set, K, and focus attention on the subspace, $\mathcal{D}_K(M)$, of $\mathcal{D}(M)$ consisting of test functions with support in K. On this subspace, we define the family of seminorms, $\{||\cdot||_k\}$, by

$$||f||_k = \sup_{x \in K} |\nabla_{a_1} ... \nabla_{a_k} f|,$$
 (2)

where by the 'absolute value' of the tensor appearing on the right side of this equation we mean its norm as computed using the Riemannian metric e_{ab} . We define the topology of $\mathcal{D}_K(M)$ to be the weakest topology which make all of these seminorms as well as the operations of addition and multiplication

by scalars continuous. It may be verified that this topology is independent of the choices of e_{ab} and ∇_a . This gives each $\mathcal{D}_K(M)$ the structure of being a locally convex space. Finally, we express M as a countable union of compact sets, K_i which form an increasing family $(K_i \subset K_{i+1})$ – thereby expressing $\mathcal{D}(M)$ as a countable union of the $\mathcal{D}_{K_i}(M)$ – and take the topology of $\mathcal{D}(M)$ to be given by the strict inductive limit [44] of the locally convex spaces $\mathcal{D}_{K_i}(M)$. It may be verified that the topology thereby obtained on $\mathcal{D}(M)$ is independent of the choice of compact sets K_i .

A distribution, u, on M, is simply a linear map from $\mathcal{D}(M)$ into the real numbers, \mathcal{R} , which is continuous in the topology on $\mathcal{D}(M)$ defined in the previous paragraph. The vector space of distributions on M is denoted $\mathcal{D}'(M)$. Denote by $L^1_{\mathrm{loc}}(M)$ the collection of measurable functions on M whose restriction to any compact set, K, is integrable with respect to a smooth volume element η introduced on M. (The definition of $L^1_{\mathrm{loc}}(M)$ clearly is independent of the choice of η .) If $F \in L^1_{\mathrm{loc}}(M)$, then the linear map $u: \mathcal{D}(M) \to \mathcal{R}$ given by

$$u(f) = \int_{M} F f \eta \tag{3}$$

defines a distribution on M. We remark that in the presence of a preferred volume element, such as provided by the natural volume element

$$\eta = |\det g|^{1/2} dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n \tag{4}$$

associated with the metric g_{ab} in the case where M is a spacetime manifold, we may identify the function F with the distribution u. A distribution $u \in \mathcal{D}'(M)$ will be said to be smooth if there exists a C^{∞} function, F, on M such that Eq. (3) holds. A distribution, u, will be said to be smooth at $x \in M$ if there exists a test function, g, with $g(x) \neq 0$ such that gu is smooth, where the distribution gu is defined by

$$gu(f) = u(gf) . (5)$$

The set of points $y \in M$ at which u fails to be smooth is referred to as the singular support of u in M.

A key idea in the analysis of the propagation of singularities is to refine the notion of the singular support of u in M to a notion of the wave front set of u, which can be thought of as describing the singular support of uin the cotangent bundle, $T^*(M)$, of M. This notion can be defined most conveniently in terms of the Fourier transform of distributions. To begin, let u be a distribution on \mathbb{R}^n which is of compact support, i.e., there exists a compact set K such that u(f) = 0 whenever the support of f does not intersect K. We define the Fourier transform, \hat{u} of u to be the distribution given by

$$\hat{u}(f) = u(g\hat{f}) , \qquad (6)$$

where g is any test function such that g = 1 on K. (The obvious extension of u to act on complex test functions is understood here; \hat{u} is a complex-valued distribution, but its real and imaginary parts define real-valued distributions.) It follows that \hat{u} is always smooth (indeed, analytic), and the smooth function corresponding to \hat{u} via Eq. (3) (which we also shall denote by \hat{u}) satisfies the property that it and all of its derivatives are polynomially bounded at infinity (see Theorem IX.5 of [45]). Furthermore, it follows from the fact that the Fourier transform maps Schwartz space onto itself that the distribution u itself will be smooth if and only if for every positive integer m there exists a constant C_m such that

$$|\hat{u}(k)| \le C_m (1+|k|)^{-m}$$
 (7)

Now let $u \in \mathcal{D}'(M)$ be a distribution on an n-dimensional manifold, M. Let $x \in M$ and let \mathcal{O} be an open neighbourhood of x which can be covered by a single coordinate patch, i.e., there exists a diffeomorphism $\psi: \mathcal{O} \to \mathcal{U} \subset \mathcal{R}^n$. Let g be a test function with support contained within \mathcal{O} such that $g(x) \neq 0$. The distribution gu may then be viewed as a distribution on \mathcal{R}^n which is of compact support. Hence, for the given choice of coordinates, the Fourier transform, \widehat{gu} , of gu is well defined as a distribution on \mathcal{R}^n and satisfies the properties of the previous paragraph. We may use the local coordinates at x to identify the cotangent space at x with \mathcal{R}^n by associating with each cotangent vector p_a the point in \mathcal{R}^n given by the components of p_a in these coordinates. In this manner, we may view \widehat{gu} as a distribution on the cotangent space at x.

Now let p_a be a nonzero cotangent vector at x. We say that u is smooth at $(x, p_a) \in T^*(M)$ if there exists a test function, g with support contained within \mathcal{O} satisfying $g(x) \neq 0$ and there exists an open neighbourhood, \mathcal{Q} , of p_a in the cotangent space at x such that for each positive integer m, there exists a constant C_m such that for all $\rho_a \in \mathcal{Q}$ and all $\lambda \geq 0$ we have,

$$|\widehat{gu}(\lambda \rho_a)| \le C_m (1+|\lambda|)^{-m} . \tag{8}$$

It can be shown that this notion of smoothness of u at (x, p_a) is independent of the choice of local coordinates at x, and, thus, is a well defined property of u (see part (f) of Theorem IX.44 of [45]). Let $\mathcal{S} \subset T^*(M)$ denote the set of points in $T^*(M)$ at which u is smooth. It follows directly from its definition that \mathcal{S} is open and is 'conic' in the sense that if $p_a \in \mathcal{S}$, then $\lambda p_a \in \mathcal{S}$ for all $\lambda > 0$. The wave front set of u, denoted WF(u), is defined to be the complement of \mathcal{S} in $T^*(M) \setminus 0$, where '0' denotes the 'zero section' of $T^*(M)$

$$WF(u) = [T^*(M) \setminus 0] \setminus S.$$
(9)

In other words, $(x, p_a) \in T^*(M)$ lies in WF(u) if and only if $p_a \neq 0$ and u fails to be smooth at (x, p_a) . It can be shown (see, e.g., Theorem IX.44 of [45]) that $x \in M$ is in the singular support of u if and only if there exists a cotangent vector p_a at x such that $(x, p_a) \in WF(u)$.

It is essential that we view WF(u) to be a subset of the cotangent bundle (rather than, e.g., the tangent bundle) in order that it be independent of the choice of coordinates used to define Fourier transforms. Some further insight into the meaning of the above definitions and the reason why it is the cotangent bundle which is relevant for the definition can be obtained from the following considerations. Let $(x, p_a) \in T^*(M)$ with $p_a \neq 0$. Then p_a determines (by orthogonality) a hyperplane in the tangent space at x. In a sufficiently small open neighbourhood of x, we can introduce coordinates $(t, x^1, ..., x^{n-1})$ so that the hypersurface of constant t passing through x is tangent to this hyperplane. These coordinates can be used to factorize an open sub-neighbourhood of x as the product manifold $\mathcal{R} \times \mathcal{R}^{n-1}$. Hence, any distribution, u, defined on this sub-neighbourhood can be viewed as a bi-distribution on $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$. In particular, for any test function, f, on \mathbb{R}^{n-1} , $u(\cdot, f)$ defines a distribution on \mathcal{R} . Then, it is not difficult to verify that if a real-valued distribution u is smooth at $(x, p_a) \in T^*(M) \setminus 0$, then there exists a $g \in \mathcal{D}(M)$ with $g(x) \neq 0$ such that for any test function f, on \mathcal{R}^{n-1} , the distribution $gu(\cdot, f)$ on \mathcal{R} is smooth.

The notion of smoothness or the lack of smoothness of a distribution, u, at $(x, p_a) \in T^*(M) \setminus 0$ can be further refined as follows. First, for any real number s, a distribution u will be said to lie in the local Sobolev space $H^s_{loc}(x)$ associated with a point $x \in M$ if there exists a test function, g, with $g(x) \neq 0$ and the support of g contained within a single coordinate patch, such that gu (viewed as a distribution of compact support on \mathbb{R}^n) satisfies

$$\int (1+|k|^2)^s |\widehat{gu}|^2 d^n k < \infty . \tag{10}$$

It is easy to see that the space so-defined is independent of the choice of function g and of the choice of coordinate patch containing its support. When s is a non-negative integer, this condition is equivalent to requiring that gu and all of its (weak) derivatives up to order s are given by square integrable functions. (It is easy to see that this result holds independently of the choice of derivative operator and independently of the choice of (smooth) volume element.) Note that u lies in $H^s_{loc}(x)$ for all s if and only if u is smooth at x. Following [27], we say that a distribution u lies in the local Sobolev space $H^s_{loc}(x,p_a)$ associated with $(x,p_a) \in T^*(M) \setminus 0$ if we can express u as $u = u_1 + u_2$, where u_1 lies in $H^s_{loc}(x)$ and $(x,p_a) \notin WF(u_2)$. It can be shown (see Theorem 18.1.31 of [27]) that we have $u \in H^s_{loc}(x)$ if and only if $u \in H^s_{loc}(x,p_a)$ for all nonvanishing cotangent vectors p_a at x. Furthermore, we have $u \in H^s_{loc}(x,p_a)$ for all s if and only if u is smooth at (x,p_a) .

Next, we introduce some key definitions for linear partial differential operators. Let A be an arbitrary linear partial differential operator of order m on M, so that A can be expressed as

$$A = \sum_{i=0}^{m} \alpha_{(i)}^{a_1 \dots a_i} \nabla_{a_1} \dots \nabla_{a_i} , \qquad (11)$$

where ∇_a is an arbitrary derivative operator on M and each $\alpha_{(i)}^{a_1...a_i}$ is a smooth tensor field. We define the *principal symbol*, H, of A to be the map $H: T^*(M) \to \mathcal{R}$ given by

$$H(x, p_a) = \alpha_{(m)}^{a_1...a_m}(x)p_{a_1}...p_{a_m} . (12)$$

It is easily checked that H is independent of the choice of derivative operator ∇_a .

Now, $T^*(M)$ has the natural structure of a symplectic manifold, so it can be viewed as the 'phase space' of a classical dynamical system. By choosing H to be the Hamiltonian of this system, we thereby associate a classical mechanics problem to each linear partial differential operator, A, on M. In particular, associated with A, we obtain a vector field h^a on $T^*(M)$ whose integral curves correspond to solutions of Hamilton's equations of motion on $T^*(M)$ with Hamiltonian H. We define the characteristic set of A, denoted char(A), to be the subset of $T^*(M) \setminus 0$ (where, again, 0 denotes the zero-section of $T^*(M)$) satisfying $H(x, p_a) = 0$. (In other words, the characteristic set of A consists of the states in phase space with zero energy but nonvanishing momentum.) We refer to the integral curves of h^a in $T^*(M) \setminus 0$

starting from points in the characteristic set as the *bicharacteristics* of A. (Often, these curves are called 'bicharacteristic strips', and the projection of a bicharacteristic to M is called a 'bicharacteristic curve'.) By 'conservation of energy', all bicharacteristics are contained in the characteristic set.

We now are in a position to state the Propagation of Singularities Theorem which will be used to prove our main results. First recall that, in the presence of a preferred volume element η , if A is a linear partial differential operator, the adjoint of A, denoted A^{\dagger} , is defined to be the linear partial differential operator determined by the condition that

$$\int gAf\boldsymbol{\eta} = \int fA^{\dagger}g\boldsymbol{\eta} \tag{13}$$

for all test functions f, g. A distribution u will be said to satisfy the equation Au = 0 if for every test function f, we have

$$u(A^{\dagger}f) = 0. (14)$$

We have the following theorem, which is obtained by restricting Theorems 26.1.1 and 26.1.4 of [28] (from the case of pseudodifferential operators) to the simpler case of linear partial differential operators (and vanishing source term).

Propagation of Singularities Theorem. Let M be an n-dimensional manifold, with preferred volume element η . Let A be a linear partial differential operator of order m on M and suppose $u \in \mathcal{D}'(M)$ satisfies the equation Au = 0. Then, we have (i) WF $(u) \subset \operatorname{char}(A)$ and (ii) For any $(x, p_a) \in \operatorname{char}(A)$, we have $u \in H^s_{\operatorname{loc}}(x, p_a)$ if and only if $u \in H^s_{\operatorname{loc}}(x', p'_a)$ for all (x', p'_a) lying on the same bicharacteristic as (x, p_a) . Thus, in particular, if $(x, p_a) \in \operatorname{WF}(u)$, then the entire bicharacteristic through (x, p_a) lies in WF(u).

(Part (i) of the above theorem together with the final sentence incorporate the content of Theorem 26.1.1 of [28], while Part (ii) corresponds to Theorem 26.1.4.)

In the present paper, the partial differential operator in which we are particularly interested is the covariant Klein-Gordon operator

$$A = \Box_g - m^2 \tag{15}$$

on a given curved spacetime (M, g_{ab}) . Here, \square_g denotes the Laplace Beltrami operator for the metric g. We remark that if we take (as we shall from now on)

our preferred volume element η to be the natural spacetime volume element (4) associated with the metric, this operator satisfies $A^{\dagger} = A$. Clearly, its principal symbol is

$$H(x,p) = g^{ab}(x)p_a p_b (16)$$

which is well known to be a Hamiltonian for geodesics. The characteristic set thus consists of the points of $T^*(M)$ whose covector is null and nonvanishing, and the bicharacteristics are curves $t \mapsto (x(t), p_a(t))$ in the cotangent bundle for which $t \mapsto x(t)$ is an affinely parametrized null geodesic, and, at each value of the parameter t, $p_a(t)$ is the cotangent vector obtained by using the metric to 'lower an index' on the tangent vector to the geodesic. (Below, we shall say that the cotangent vector $p_a(t)$ is 'tangent' to the geodesic.) In other words, in this case, the bicharacteristics are the lifts to the cotangent bundle of affinely parametrized null geodesics.

In the proof of the theorems of the present paper we shall be concerned with certain distributional bisolutions to the covariant Klein-Gordon equation which, as we shall discuss further in the next section, occur in quantum field theory on a curved spacetime (M, g_{ab}) . The above Propagation of Singularities Theorem will be used to obtain information on the global nature of the singularities in these two-point functions given information about the singularities when the two points on which they depend are close together. Roughly speaking, we shall be able to conclude from the above theorem that, if such a distributional bisolution is singular for sufficiently nearby pairs of points on a given null geodesic, then it will necessarily remain singular for all pairs of points on that null geodesic. Moreover the theorem assures us that the 'strength' of the singularity (as measured by the indices of the local Sobolev spaces in which the distribution fails to lie) cannot diminish.

One may define a distributional bisolution to be a bidistribution on M which is a distributional solution to the covariant Klein-Gordon equation in each variable. Here, by a bidistribution G on M we mean a (real or complex valued) functional on $\mathcal{D}(M) \times \mathcal{D}(M)$ which is separately linear and continuous in each variable and to say that G is a solution to the Klein-Gordon equation in each variable means that $G((\Box_g - m^2)f, h) = 0$ and $G(f, (\Box_g - m^2)h) = 0$ for all $f, h \in \mathcal{D}(M)$. A bidistribution G on G is then necessarily jointly continuous and arises from a distribution G on the product manifold G in the sense that $G(f, g) = G(f \otimes g)$, where, if G and G are each test functions in G in G denotes the test function in G with values G denotes the test function in G in G with values G denotes the proof of these assertions, see

e.g., the proof of the Schwartz Kernel Theorem in Sect. 5.2 in [26].) To say that G is a distributional bisolution on M may thus be expressed by saying that \tilde{G} is a distributional solution to each of the pair of partial differential equations $A_1\tilde{G}=0$, $A_2\tilde{G}=0$ on $M\times M$, where (in an obvious notation) A_1 and A_2 are the partial differential operators

$$A_1 = (\Box_g - m^2) \otimes I, \quad A_2 = I \otimes (\Box_g - m^2). \tag{17}$$

It is this latter way of regarding distributional bisolutions which permits direct application of the Propagation of Singularity Theorem. (From now on, we shall adopt an informal point of view in which we do not distinguish between G and \tilde{G} .) Thus, a point $(x, p_a; y, q_b)$ in the cotangent bundle $T^*(M \times M) \setminus 0$ of $M \times M$ will belong to the characteristic set of both A_1 and A_2 if and only if both p_a and q_b are null (and at least one of them is non-zero). Thus we conclude by Part (i) of the above theorem that the wave front set of a distributional bisolution \tilde{G} must consist of a subset of such 'doubly null' points. Moreover, if the wave front set of a given distributional bisolution \tilde{G} includes such a doubly null point $(x, p_a; y, q_b)$ then, applying e.g., the last sentence of the Propagation of Singularities Theorem to the operator A_1 we conclude that it must also include all points $(x', p'_a; y, q_b)$ for which (x', p'_a) lies on the same lifted null geodesic as (x, p_a) . Similarly, applying the theorem to A_2 , we conclude that it must also include all points $(x, p_a; y', q'_b)$ for which (y', q'_b) lies on the same lifted null geodesic as (y, q_b) .

Next, we discuss some particular distributional bisolutions to the covariant Klein-Gordon equation which will play an important role both in our discussion of quantum field theory below, and in our theorems. Firstly, given any globally hyperbolic spacetime (M, g_{ab}) , then the advanced and retarded fundamental solutions $\triangle_A(x,y)$, $\triangle_R(x,y)$ of the inhomogeneous Klein-Gordon equation exist as 2-point distributions and are uniquely defined with respect to their support properties [38, 39, 5]. Their difference $\triangle = \triangle_A - \triangle_R$ is then a preferred distributional bisolution to the (homogeneous) covariant Klein-Gordon equation. It is clearly antisymmetric, i.e., $\triangle(f,g) = -\triangle(g,f)$ and, as we discuss in the next section, plays the role of the 'commutator function' in the quantum theory. One may show that its wave front set consists of all elements $(x, p_a; y, q_b)$ of $T^*(M \times M) \setminus 0$ for which x and y lie on a single null geodesic, for which p_a and q_b are tangent to that geodesic, and for which p_a , when parallel transported along that null geodesic from x to y equals $-q_a$. (One way to obtain this result is to notice that the advanced and retarded fundamental solutions are special cases of advanced and retarded

'distinguished parametrices' in the sense of [9] from which the wave front set may be read off. See also [41, 43].)

Secondly, for any curved spacetime (M, g_{ab}) , we shall be interested in a class of symmetric (i.e., G(f,g) = G(g,f)) distributional bisolutions G to the covariant Klein-Gordon equation which are what we shall call locally weakly Hadamard. (These will arise in the quantum field theory – see Sect. 4 – as (twice) the symmetrized two-point functions of 'Hadamard states'.) This notion – which is either weaker or equivalent to the various versions of the Hadamard condition which occur in the literature on quantum field theory in curved spacetime – is defined as follows: First, we require that G be locally smooth for non-null related pairs of points in the sense that every point xin the spacetime has a convex normal neighbourhood (see e.g., [24, 55]) N_x such that the singular support of G in $N_x \times N_x$ consists only of pairs of null related points. In consequence of this (cf. the discussion around Eq. (3) above) on the complement, C_x , in $N_x \times N_x$ of this singular support (so C_x consists of all pairs of non-null separated points in $N_x \times N_x$) there will be a smooth two-point function, which we shall denote by the symbol G_s , with the property that, for all test functions F supported in C_x ,

$$G(F) = \int_{C_{\sigma}} G_s(y, z) F(y, z) \boldsymbol{\eta}(y) \boldsymbol{\eta}(z) , \qquad (18)$$

where we recall that η denotes the natural volume element (4) associated with the metric. It is easy to see that, on C_x , G_s must be a smooth bisolution to the covariant Klein-Gordon equation. If G is locally smooth for non-null related pairs of points, then we say that G is locally weakly Hadamard if for each point x in M, on the corresponding C_x , the G_s as defined above takes the 'Hadamard form' [19, 8, 53, 54, 32]. This latter condition is traditionally expressed by demanding that there exists some smooth function w on $N_x \times N_x$ such that the following equation holds on C_x (in 4 dimensions, with similar expressions for other dimensions)

$$G_s(x,y) = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{\Delta^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\sigma} + v \ln(|\sigma|) + w \right) , \qquad (19)$$

where σ denotes the square of the geodesic distance between x and y (which is well defined in C_x since N_x is a convex normal neighbourhood), $\Delta^{\frac{1}{2}}$ is the van Vleck-Morette determinant [8] and v is given by a power series in σ with

partial sums

$$v^{(n)}(x,y) = \sum_{m=0}^{n} v_m(x,y)\sigma^m , \qquad (20)$$

where each v_m is uniquely determined by the Hadamard recursion relations [19, 8]. This statement cannot be interpreted literally because the power series defining v does not in general converge. We overcome this problem and make the notion of locally weakly Hadamard precise by replacing the above statement of Hadamard form by the demand that, for each $x \in M$ and each integer n, there exists a C^n function $w^{(n)}$ on $N_x \times N_x$ such that, on C_x

$$G_s(x,y) = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{\Delta^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\sigma} + v^{(n)} \ln(|\sigma|) + w^{(n)} \right) . \tag{21}$$

The above notion of locally weakly Hadamard corresponds to the notion of 'Hadamard form' implicit in many references (e.g., [53, 54, 1]). However, we remark that the notion (sometimes referred to as globally Hadamard) of 'Hadamard' as defined (for the case of globally hyperbolic spacetimes) in [32] (when suitably interpreted as a condition on a general symmetric distributional bisolution on a globally hyperbolic spacetime) is a stronger notion inasmuch as (a) it specifies, for each x, the local behaviour of the distribution G on test functions supported in $N_x \times N_x$ whose support is not confined to C_x , by what amounts essentially to a 'principle part' prescription, (b) it explicitly rules out the possible occurrence of so-called 'non-local spacelike singularities'. (See [32] for details.)³

Clearly, since (on any convex normal neighbourhood) $\sigma(x, y)$ is smooth and vanishes if and only if x and y are null related, the singular support of any locally weakly Hadamard distributional bisolution G, when restricted to $N_x \times N_x$ for any of the neighbourhoods N_x will consist precisely of all pairs of null related points. Hence the wave front set of such a G, when

³ Actually, it was conjectured by Kay [29, 20] and proved by Radzikowski by microlocal analysis methods [41, 42] that if the symmetrized two point function of a quantum state on the field algebra (see Sect. 4) for the covariant Klein-Gordon equation on a globally hyperbolic spacetime satisfies the global Hadamard condition of Kay and Wald *locally* (i.e., on each element of an open cover) then it is globally Hadamard. Thus, in the presence of the positivity conditions required for a (symmetric) distributional bisolution (on a globally hyperbolic spacetime) to be the symmetrized two-point function of a quantum state, the strengthening of the Hadamard notion indicated in point (b) here is automatic given that indicated in point (a).

restricted to $T^*(N_x \times N_x) \setminus 0$ will include, for each such null pair, at least one point $(y, p_a; z, q_b)$, where at least one of p_a and q_b is non-zero and where both p_a and q_b are null covectors which are tangent to the null geodesic connecting y and z.⁴ (If they were not tangent, one could get a contradiction with the smoothness of G at non-null related pairs of points by applying the Propagation of Singularities Theorem.)⁵

In fact, one can show more than this: Namely, given any (symmetric) locally weakly Hadamard distributional bisolution G, for each point x in M and each pair of null related points $(y,z) \in N_x \times N_x$ with $y \neq z$ there exist null covectors p_a at y and q_b at z which are each tangent to the null geodesic connecting y and z and which are not both zero (see Footnote 4) such that G fails to belong to $L^2_{\text{loc}}(y,p_a;z,q_b)$ (i.e., to $H^0_{\text{loc}}(y,p_a;z,q_b)$). To prove this result, it suffices to show that $1/\sigma$, and hence, easily, also G fails to belong to $L^2_{\text{loc}}(y,z)$ for any pair, (y,z), of distinct null-related points in $N_x \times N_x$, since then we have $G \notin L^2_{\text{loc}}(y,p_a;z,q_b)$ for some covectors p_a at y and q_b at z which are restricted by arguments of the previous paragraph. However, the fact that $G \notin L^2_{\text{loc}}(y,z)$ follows immediately from the following lemma [where we identify L with $M \times M$, h with σ , and X with (y,z)]:

Lemma. Let L be a manifold, and let h be a smooth function on L which vanishes at a point $X \in L$ but whose gradient is nonvanishing at X. Then 1/h (or, more precisely, any distribution which agrees with 1/h for $h \neq 0$) fails to be locally L^2 at X.

(The proof is immediate once one chooses a coordinate chart around X in which the function h is one of the coordinate functions.)

⁴ Of course, since G is symmetric, if the point $(y, p_a; z, q_b)$ is in its wave front set, then the point $(z, q_b; y, p_a)$ will also be in its wave front set.

⁵ More is known about the wave front set of the (unsymmetrized) two-point functions of quantum states (see Sect. 4) on globally hyperbolic spacetimes which are (globally) Hadamard in the stronger sense of [32]: Radzikowski [41, 43] (see also [34, 4, 35, 36] for recent further developments in this direction) has shown that the wave front set of any such two point function consists precisely of all elements $(x, p_a; y, q_b)$ of $T^*(M \times M) \setminus 0$ for which x and y lie on a single null geodesic, for which p_a is tangent to that null geodesic and future pointing, and for which q_a , when parallel transported along that null geodesic from y to x equals $-p_a$.

4 The Quantum Covariant Klein-Gordon Equation on a Curved Spacetime

In our discussion of quantum field theory, we shall restrict our interest to a linear Hermitian scalar field, satisfying the covariant Klein-Gordon equation

$$(\Box_q - m^2)\phi = 0 \tag{22}$$

on a curved spacetime (M, g_{ab}) . We shall now outline a suitable mathematical description of this theory in terms of the algebraic approach to quantum field theory. For further discussions of this, and closely related, approaches see e.g., [32, 30, 56].

In the case that (M, g_{ab}) is globally hyperbolic, we may take the field algebra to be the *-algebra with identity I generated by polynomials in 'smeared fields' $\phi(f)$, where f ranges over the space $C_0^{\infty}(M)$ of smooth real valued functions compactly supported on M, which satisfy the following relations (for all $f_1, f_2 \in C_0^{\infty}(M)$ and for all pairs of real numbers λ_1, λ_2):

- 1. $\phi(f) = \phi(f)^*$
- 2. $\phi(\lambda_1 f_1 + \lambda_2 f_2) = \lambda_1 \phi(f_1) + \lambda_2 \phi(f_2)$
- 3. $\phi((\Box_g m^2)f) = 0$
- 4. $[\phi(f_1), \phi(f_2)] = i \triangle (f_1, f_2)I$,

where \triangle denotes the classical 'advanced minus retarded' fundamental solution (or 'commutator function') discussed in the previous section. (Of Relations (1)-(4), it is thus only Relation (4) which becomes problematic when we attempt to go beyond the class of globally hyperbolic spacetimes. We shall return to this point below in our discussion of 'F-locality'.)

To be precise, what we mean by the above statement is that we regard the set of polynomials, over the field of complex numbers, of the abstract objects, $\phi(f)$, with $f \in C_0^{\infty}(M)$ as a free *-algebra with identity and then quotient by the *-ideal generated by the above relations.

We have referred above to $\phi(f)$ as a 'smeared quantum field'. While, in our mathematical definition above, this is to be thought of as a single abstract object, we of course interpret it heuristically as related to the 'field at a point' ' $\phi(x)$ ' by

$$\phi(f) = \int_{M} \phi(x)f(x)\boldsymbol{\eta} , \qquad (23)$$

where η is the natural volume element (4) defined in the previous section. Of course we proceed in this way since the 'field at a point' is not expected by itself to be a mathematically well defined entity. This failure of the 'field at a point' to exist is of course closely related to the singular nature of the commutator function discussed in the previous section.

Quantum states are defined to be positive, normalized (i.e., $\omega(I) = 1$) linear functionals on this field algebra. (Here, a state ω is said to be positive if we have $\omega(A^*A) \geq 0$ for all A belonging to the field algebra.) A state ω is thus specified by specifying the set of all its 'smeared n-point functions'

$$\omega(\phi(f_1)\dots\phi(f_n)). \tag{24}$$

One expects states of interest to at least be sufficiently regular for these smeared n-point functions to be distributions – i.e., one expects the expression above to be a continuous functional of each of the quantities f_1, \ldots, f_n when the space $C_0^{\infty}(M)$ is topologized in the \mathcal{D} topology. By the Schwartz Kernel Theorem (see the previous section) we may equivalently regard the n point functions as distributions on $M \times \cdots \times M$.

By condition (4) above, for any state ω , twice the antisymmetric part of the two point function, $\omega(\phi(f_1)\phi(f_2))$, is simply i Δ (f_1, f_2) , which is smooth at all (y, z) which cannot be connected by a null geodesic. Furthermore, for the reasons discussed, e.g., in [32, 30, 56] and briefly reviewed below, we require that (twice) the symmetrized two-point function (i.e., $\omega(\phi(f_1)\phi(f_2) + \phi(f_2)\phi(f_1))$ should (at least) be a locally weakly Hadamard distributional bisolution as defined in Sect. 3. In this paper, we shall refer to states satisfying this condition as 'Hadamard states'. Note that this notion only restricts the two-point function and does not restrict the other n-point functions; we shall not need to concern ourselves here with the question of what should be required of the short distance behaviour of other n-point functions in order for a state to be physically realistic.

The main reason for requiring that a state satisfy this Hadamard condition is that it is necessary in order that the following 'point-splitting procedure' yield well-defined, finite values at each point y for quantities such as the renormalized expectation value in that state of ϕ^2 or of the quantum stress-energy tensor T_{ab} :⁶ We define the expectation value of $\phi^2(y)$ at a point

⁶ Note also that, on a globally hyperbolic spacetime, the quasi-free Hadamard states satisfy a number of desirable properties [51] including local quasiequivalence.

y by taking the neighbourhood N_y of y as in the previous section and setting

$$\omega(\phi^{2}(y)) = \lim_{(x,x')\to(y,y)} \frac{1}{2} (\omega(\phi(x)\phi(x') + \phi(x')\phi(x)) - H^{(n)}(x,x')), \qquad (25)$$

where $H^{(n)}(x, x')$ is an appropriate locally constructed Hadamard parametrix, i.e., it is a function – defined on the neighbourhood C_y consisting of all pairs of non-null related pairs of points in N_y – of the form (21) with a particular, locally defined algorithm used to obtain $w^{(n)}$ (see, e.g., [56] for further discussion). In Eq. (25), it is understood that, before taking the limit, each of the terms in the outer parentheses is defined initially on C_y (where they make sense as smooth functions). Because the state is assumed to satisfy the above Hadamard condition, the full term in parentheses will then clearly extend to a continuous (in fact, C^n) function on $N_y \times N_y$, thus ensuring that the limit will be well defined. There is a similar, but more complicated, formula corresponding to (25) for $\omega(T_{ab}(y))$ involving suitable (first and second) derivatives with respect to x and x' in the terms in parentheses and also involving the addition of a certain local correction term [54, 56]. The resulting prescription for $\omega(T_{ab}(y))$ then satisfies a list of desired properties which uniquely determines it up to certain finite renormalization ambiguities [53, 56]. This justifies the use of the point-splitting procedure, thus leading to the conclusion that the (locally weakly) Hadamard condition on a state must be satisfied in order to ensure that the expectation values of the stress-energy tensor be well-defined.⁷

Next we turn to consider what it might mean to quantize the covariant Klein-Gordon equation on a spacetime (M, g_{ab}) which is not globally hyperbolic. Our approach will be to postulate what might be regarded as 'reasonable candidates for minimal necessary conditions' for any such theory. In other words, we consider statements which begin with the phrase 'Whatever else a quantum field theory (on a given non-globally hyperbolic spacetime) consists of, it should at least involve . . .' We shall consider independently two candidate conditions of this type:

⁷ In fact, since one only requires the difference between the two point function and the locally constructed Hadamard parametrix, H, to be C^2 , it would clearly suffice for the well-definedness of expectation values of the renormalized stress-energy tensor to replace the condition of being locally weakly Hadamard (see before (21)) by a weaker condition where one only demands that $w^{(n)}$ be C^2 for n > 2. We remark that it is easy to see that our Theorem 2 would continue to hold with such a further weakening of the Hadamard condition.

Candidate Condition 1. Whatever else a quantum field theory consists of, it should at least involve a field algebra satisfying F-locality [30]. In other words (see [30] for more details) it should involve a field algebra which is a star algebra consisting of polynomials in 'smeared quantum fields' $\phi(f)$ which, just as in the globally hyperbolic case, satisfies the Relations (1), (2) and (3) listed above. Additionally, (this is the F-locality condition of [30]) one postulates that Relation (4) (which, as we mentioned above is the one relation for which the assumption of global hyperbolicity is needed) should still hold in the following local sense: Every point in M should have a globally hyperbolic neighbourhood \mathcal{U} such that, for all $f_1, f_2 \in C_0^{\infty}(\mathcal{U})$, Relation (4) holds with \triangle replaced by $\triangle_{\mathcal{U}}$, where, by $\triangle_{\mathcal{U}}$, we mean the advanced minus retarded fundamental solution for the region \mathcal{U} , regarded as a globally hyperbolic spacetime in its own right.⁸

In defence of such a condition, let us simply say here (see [30] for further discussion) that it is motivated by the philosophical bias (related to the equivalence principle) that, on an arbitrary spacetime, the 'laws in the small' for quantum field theory should be the same as the familiar laws for globally hyperbolic spacetimes. We remark that it is easy to see that the familiar laws for globally hyperbolic spacetimes, as given above, are themselves F-local. It is also known that there do exist some non-globally hyperbolic spacetimes which admit field algebras satisfying F-locality. (In the language of [30], there exist some non-globally hyperbolic F-quantum compatible spacetimes.) In particular there do exist F-quantum compatible spacetimes with closed timelike curves, for example the spacelike cylinder – i.e., the region of Minkowski space (say with Minkowski coordinates (t, x, y, z)) between two times – say t_1 and t_2 – with the (x, y, z) coordinates of opposite edges identified. (See [30] for the case of the massless Klein-Gordon equation, and [10] for the massive case.)

Of course, as anticipated in [30], the above philosophical bias could be used to argue for a slightly different and possibly weaker locality notion. In this connection, we remark that, since a first version of this paper was written, evidence has emerged [11] that the examples of F-quantum compatible

⁸ In [30] the F-locality condition was stated slightly differently; namely that every neighbourhood of every point in M should contain a globally hyperbolic subneighbourhood \mathcal{U} such that, for all $f_1, f_2 \in C_0^{\infty}(\mathcal{U})$, Relation (4) holds with \triangle replaced by $\triangle_{\mathcal{U}}$. However, it is clear from the F-locality in this latter sense of the usual field algebra on a globally hyperbolic spacetime (see [30]) that this is equivalent to the condition given here.

chronology violating spacetimes mentioned above are unstable in the sense that there are arbitrarily small perturbations of these spacetimes which fail to be F-quantum compatible. On the other hand, as is also pointed out in [11], if one replaces the condition of F-locality by the weaker notion of F-locality modulo $C^{\infty 9}$, then these examples of allowed chronology violating spacetimes would become stable and there would be many other stable examples (i.e., of chronology violating spacetimes which admit field algebras which are F-local modulo C^{∞}).

Candidate Condition 2. Whatever else a quantum field theory consists of, it should at least involve a field algebra satisfying Relations (1), (2) and (3) listed above, and, in addition, there should exist states for which (twice) the symmetrized two-point function is a locally weakly Hadamard distributional bisolution $G(f_1, f_2)$.

The motivation for requiring the existence of a field algebra satisfying (1)-(3) is, of course, the same as for Candidate Condition 1. One also can motivate the requirement of the existence of Hadamard states by a philosophical bias similar to that motivating the F-locality condition: The theory should admit 'physically acceptable states', and these physically acceptable states should have the same local character as in the globally hyperbolic case. However, there is additional strong motivation for requiring the existence of Hadamard states: Let (M, g_{ab}) and (M', g'_{ab}) be spacetimes – one or both of which may be non-globally-hyperbolic – for which there exist open regions $\mathcal{O} \subset M$ and $\mathcal{O}' \subset M'$ which are isometric. Let ω be a state on the field algebra of (M, g_{ab}) and let ω' be a state on the field algebra of (M', g'_{ab}) . Use the isometry between \mathcal{O} and \mathcal{O}' to identify these two regions. Then, it is natural to postulate that – under this identification – for all $y \in \mathcal{O}$ the difference between $\omega(T_{ab}(y))$ and $\omega'(T_{ab}(y))$ should be given by the pointsplitting formula in terms of the difference between the symmetrized twopoint functions of ω and ω' whenever this formula makes sense; furthermore, when this formula does not make sense, the difference between $\omega(T_{ab}(y))$ and $\omega'(T_{ab}(y))$ is ill defined or singular. (This postulate may be viewed as a generalization to non-globally-hyperbolic spacetimes of the main content of the stress-energy axioms (1) and (2) of [56].) If so, and if in the globally hyperbolic case $\omega(T_{ab}(y))$ is given by the point-splitting prescription as described

⁹I.e., for which the above italicized definition holds when one replaces $\Delta_{\mathcal{U}}$ by $\Delta_{\mathcal{U}} + F$ for some (antisymmetric) $F \in C^{\infty}(\mathcal{U} \times \mathcal{U})$.

above, then the locally weakly Hadamard condition on the symmetric part of the two-point function – or slight weakenings thereof (see Footnote 7) – must be satisfied in order to have an everywhere defined, nonsingular $\omega(T_{ab})$. If $\omega(T_{ab})$ were singular for every state ω , the theory clearly would be unacceptable on physical grounds, since singular 'back reaction' effects would necessarily occur for all states, thereby invalidating the original background spacetime upon which the quantum field theory was based.

5 Theorems

We are now ready to state and prove our main theorems, which establish that neither of the two Candidate Conditions of the previous section can be satisfied by a Klein-Gordon field on a spacetime, (M, g_{ab}) , with compactly generated Cauchy horizon. These theorems are direct consequences of the Propagation of Singularities Theorem of Sect. 3 (applied to the relevant distributional bisolutions) in combination with the geometrical property of base points expressed in Proposition 2 of Sect. 2.

Theorem 1. There is no extension to (M, g_{ab}) of the usual field algebra on the initial globally hyperbolic region D(S) which satisfies F-locality at any base point (see Sect. 2) of the Cauchy horizon.

Proof. Let $x \in \mathcal{B}$ and let \mathcal{U} be any globally hyperbolic neighbourhood of x. To prove the claimed violation of F-locality, it clearly suffices to prove that the restrictions of $\Delta_{D(S)}$ and $\Delta_{\mathcal{U}}$ to $\mathcal{U} \cap D(S)$ cannot coincide, where $\Delta_{D(S)}$ denotes the advanced minus retarded fundamental solution for the initial globally hyperbolic region D(S), and $\Delta_{\mathcal{U}}$ denotes the advanced minus retarded fundamental solution for \mathcal{U} . However, this follows immediately from the fact that these two quantities cannot take the same values at the pair of points (y, z) of Proposition 2 of Sect. 2. Indeed, since (y, z) are spacelike related in the intrinsic geometry of \mathcal{U} , $\Delta_{\mathcal{U}}$ must clearly vanish at this pair of points. On the other hand, it follows from the explicit description of the wave-front set of the advanced minus retarded fundamental solution on any globally hyperbolic spacetime, as given in Sect. 3, that $\Delta_{D(S)}$ must be singular at the pair (y, z) because they are null related in the spacetime D(S).

By repeating this argument with $\Delta_{D(S)}(F_1, F_2)$ replaced by the commutator $\omega(\phi(F_1)\phi(F_2) - \phi(F_2)\phi(F_1))$ and using the Propagation of Singularities

Theorem, the following closely related theorem also can be readily proven:

Theorem 1'. Under the mild extra technical condition that the algebra admits at least one state ω for which the smeared two point function $\omega(\phi(f_1)\phi(f_2))$ is distributional, then there is no field algebra whatsoever which satisfies F-locality (i.e., in the language of [30], spacetimes with compactly generated Cauchy horizons are non-F-quantum compatible.)

We remark that it is easy to see that Theorems 1 and 1' will continue to hold if one replaces the notion of F-locality by the weaker notion (see Sect. 4) of F-locality modulo C^{∞} . (See [11] for further discussion.)

We note that, in the very special case of the massless two-dimensional Klein-Gordon equation on two-dimensional Misner space, Theorems 1 and 1' had been obtained previously by relying on the explicitly known propagation of the two-dimensional wave equation. (See [30].)

The following theorem establishes that Candidate Condition 2 cannot hold:

Theorem 2. Let G be a distributional bisolution on (M, g_{ab}) which is everywhere locally weakly Hadamard on the initial globally hyperbolic region D(S). Then G fails to be locally weakly Hadamard at any $x \in \mathcal{B}$ in the following severe sense: The difference between G and any locally constructed Hadamard parametrix $H^{(n)}$ (see Eq. (25) above) will fail to be given by a locally L^2 function on $N \times N$, where N is any convex normal neighbourhood of x (so that $H^{(n)}$ is well defined on $N \times N$). Thus, for any n, $G - H^{(n)}$ cannot be given by a continuous, nor even by a bounded function on $N \times N$, and quantities such as the renormalized expectation value of ϕ^2 or the renormalized stress-energy tensor must be singular or ill defined at any base point of the Cauchy horizon.

Proof. Let \mathcal{U} be a globally hyperbolic subset of N containing x. Let (y,z) be as in Proposition 2 of Sect. 2, so that y and z are spacelike-separated in (\mathcal{U}, g_{ab}) but are joined by a null geodesic, α , in M. Let $y' \in \mathcal{U}$ lie along α sufficiently near to y to be contained within the convex normal neighbourhood of y appearing in the locally weakly Hadamard property of G. Then we know by the discussion at the end of Sect. 3 that G must fail to belong to the space $L^2_{\text{loc}}(y, p_a; y', p'_b)$ for some pair p_a at y and p'_b at y' of null tangents to this null geodesic, which moreover cannot both be zero. Assuming that p_a does not vanish (otherwise, in what follows replace (y, p_a) by (y', p'_a)) we may conclude by Part (ii) of the Propagation of Singularities Theorem of Sect. 3 that G cannot belong to the space $L^2_{\text{loc}}(y, p_a; z, q_b)$ for some null covector q_b

at z. It follows that G cannot belong to $L^2_{loc}(y,z)$. On the other hand, $H^{(n)}$ is non-singular at the pair (y,z), since y and z are spacelike-separated in \mathcal{U} . We conclude that $G-H^{(n)}$ cannot arise from a locally L^2 function on $N\times N$.

It is clear from the proof of Theorem 2 that the failure to be locally L^2 must already occur if one restricts attention to the part of the neighbourhood N which lies in the initial globally hyperbolic region D(S). In fact we have:

Theorem 2' (slightly stronger than Theorem 2). Let G be a distributional bisolution on (M, g_{ab}) which is everywhere locally weakly Hadamard on the initial globally hyperbolic region D(S) and let N be any convex normal neighbourhood of any $x \in \mathcal{B}$. Then $G - H^{(n)}$ fails to be given by a locally L^2 function on $N \cap D(S)$.

This is now a statement entirely about the behaviour of the quantum theory on the initial globally hyperbolic region D(S) as one approaches a base point. Thus it seems fair to conclude from this theorem that something must go seriously wrong with the quantum field theory on the Cauchy horizon almost independently of any assumptions (cf. e.g., 'Candidate Condition 2' in the previous section) about what would constitute an extension of the quantum field theory beyond the initial globally hyperbolic region.

It is also worth remarking that nowhere in the proof of Theorem 2 have we made any use of the positivity conditions (see e.g., [29, 20, 30]) required of a symmetric distributional bisolution (on a globally hyperbolic spacetime) in order for it to arise as (twice) the symmetrized two-point function of a quantum state on the field algebra of Sect. 4. Also, it should be noted that Theorem 2 would continue to hold if one were to weaken the notion of 'locally weakly Hadamard' along the lines indicated in Footnote 7.

Finally we recall (see end of Sect. 2) that the theorems of this section will also hold for any spacetime (such as four dimensional Misner space) which arises as the product with a Euclidean 4-d space of a spacetime with compactly generated Cauchy horizon of lower dimension d.

6 Discussion

In this section, we make some remarks concerning the significance of our theorems, and also discuss a number of directions in which these theorems may be further generalized.

First, we attempt to clarify the significance of our theorems by contrasting the situation for quantum field theory on spacetimes with compactly generated Cauchy horizons with that on spacetimes with Killing horizons. Theorems 1 and 2 here are concerned with a particular instance of a situation where one asks about the extension of a quantum field theory (in our case, the covariant Klein-Gordon field) from some given globally hyperbolic spacetime (N, h_{ab}) to a larger spacetime (M, g_{ab}) . In the situation addressed by Theorems 1 and 2, (M, g_{ab}) is a spacetime with compactly generated Cauchy horizon, and (N, h_{ab}) its initial globally hyperbolic region D(S). However, another, familiar (see e.g., [18, 50, 2, 32, 56]) instance of such a situation is the case where (M, g_{ab}) is Minkowski spacetime and (N, h_{ab}) the Rindler wedge. (Equally, we could take the case where (M, g_{ab}) is the Kruskal spacetime and (N, h_{ab}) the exterior Schwarzschild spacetime, etc.) It is interesting to contrast these two situations. In the Minkowski-Rindler wedge case, of course, both spacetimes are globally hyperbolic and it is clear that the field algebra one would construct for the Rindler wedge – regarding it as a globally hyperbolic spacetime in its own right – is naturally identified with the subalgebra of the Minkowski spacetime field algebra associated with the Rindler wedge region. Thus the field algebra on Minkowski spacetime (which is, of course, F-local) certainly constitutes an F-local extension of the field algebra for the Rindler wedge. Thus there is no analogue of Theorem 1 in this case. Let us next turn to the question of whether there are any Hadamard states on the Rindler wedge algebra whose symmetrized two point distributions extend to everywhere locally weakly Hadamard (symmetric) distributional bisolutions on the whole of Minkowski space. (We shall refer to this, from now on, as the question whether 'Hadamard states have Hadamard extensions'). It is certainly the case that most Hadamard states on the Rindler wedge have no Hadamard extension to the whole of Minkowski space. For example, the Fulling vacuum (i.e., the ground state for the one-parameter group of wedge-preserving Lorentz boosts), as well as the KMS states with respect to the group of wedge-preserving Lorentz boosts at all 'temperatures' except $T=1/2\pi$ (which corresponds to the Minkowski vacuum state) fail to have Hadamard extensions.¹⁰ In fact, it is well known that, for all these states,

¹⁰ In fact, as proven in [32, 31], the Minkowski vacuum state is the only globally Hadamard state (satisfying a 'no zero mode' condition) on Minkowski space which is globally invariant under the same group of Lorentz boosts and an analogous result holds for the analogous Kruskal-Schwarzschild situation and a wide range of other analogous situations involving spacetimes with bifurcate Killing horizons.

the expectation value of the stress-energy tensor diverges as one approaches the horizon. Nevertheless, there do of course exist Hadamard states on the Rindler wedge which have Hadamard extensions to the whole of Minkowski spacetime and for which the stress-energy tensor is bounded: namely the restrictions to the Rindler wedge algebra of Hadamard states on Minkowski space! Prior to the results in the present paper, it was unclear to what extent the situation was analogous for Hadamard extensions of Hadamard states on the initial globally hyperbolic region D(S) of a spacetime (M, g_{ab}) with a compactly generated Cauchy horizon. The work of Kim and Thorne [33], Hawking [23], Visser [52], and others strongly suggested that (just as in the Rindler-Minkowski situation) most Hadamard states on D(S) have a stress-energy tensor which diverges on the Cauchy horizon. However, there were also examples – albeit in the context of two-dimensional models [37], or for special models involving automorphic fields [46, 47] (see Sect. 1) – of states on D(S) for which the stress-energy tensor vanished. Thus one might have thought that (as in the Rindler-Minkowski situation) there could still be some/many Hadamard states on D(S) with Hadamard extensions to (M, g_{ab}) . Theorem 2 proves that this is not the case. Furthermore, while it does not rule out the possible existence of Hadamard states on D(S) for which the stress energy tensor is bounded, it still implies that any such state must have a stress-energy tensor which is singular at the base points of the Cauchy horizon. In this important sense, the situation for spacetimes with compactly generated Cauchy horizons is thus quite distinct from the Minkowski-Rindler situation.

Finally, we point out that theorems similar to Theorems 1 and 2 will clearly hold in any spacetime (not necessarily with a compactly generated Cauchy horizon) which contains an almost closed (but not closed) null geodesic or a self-intersecting (but not closed) null geodesic (since, clearly, the same conclusions that hold for the base points of Proposition 2 of Sect. 2 will hold for any accumulation point, respectively for any intersection point). Thus, in particular, analogues of Theorems 1 and 2 will hold for points on the 'polarized hypersurfaces' in the time-machine models discussed by Kim and Thorne [33], Gott [21], Grant [22], and others since these contain self-intersecting null geodesics. For further discussion, see [7] where it is pointed out that, because of the accumulation of polarized hypersurfaces at the chronology horizons of these models, analogues of Theorem 2 – but not Theorem 2' – will hold for points on the chronology horizons of Gott and Grant space. As remarked in [7], this result holds notwithstanding the existence of the states exhibited by

Boulware [3] (for sufficiently massive fields on the initial globally hyperbolic region of Gott space) and Tanaka and Hiscock [48] (for sufficiently massive fields on the initial globally hyperbolic region of Grant space) for which the stress-energy tensor is bounded (i.e., on the initial globally hyperbolic region). Moreover analogues of Theorems 1 and 2 are expected to hold in most spacetimes which contain a closed null geodesic since generically, the same conclusions as hold for the base points in Proposition 2 of Sect. 2 will hold for each point on such a geodesic. However, we remark that there do exist very special cases of spacetimes with closed null geodesics for which (for suitable field theories) F-local field algebras do exist and everywhere locally Hadamard (symmetric) distributional bisolutions do exist. One such special spacetime is the double covering of compactified Minkowski space. (We are grateful to Roger Penrose for pointing this example out to us.) The special feature of this spacetime which makes it possible to evade the conclusions of Proposition 2 of Sect. 2 and hence to evade the arguments of Theorems 1 and 2 is that the entire light cone through any point, when globally extended, refocuses back onto that point. It is not difficult to see that, on this spacetime, the field algebra obtained by conformally mapping the field algebra for the massless Klein Gordon equation in Minkowski space extends to an F-local field algebra (i.e., for the conformally coupled massless Klein-Gordon equation). Equally, (twice) the conformally mapped symmetrized two-point function for the massless Klein-Gordon equation on Minkowski space extends, on this spacetime to an everywhere locally Hadamard distributional bisolution (again of the conformally coupled massless Klein-Gordon equation). A two-dimensional example with similar behaviour is provided by the two-dimensional massless Klein-Gordon equation on the two-dimensional 'null strip' – i.e., the region between two parallel null lines in two-dimensional Minkowski space with opposite edges identified (by identifying points intersected by the same null lines).

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