An approach for analysing time dilation in the TSR (v4. 2017-08-24)

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Abstract. We investigate time dilation within the theory of special relativity (TSR); basing the argumentation on the Lorentz transformation, and also discuss some controversies. The location of the clocks used for time registrations is essential for the magnitude of the time dilation, and we investigate various observational principles. Three principles are in focus: 1) A reference frame applying a single clock (SC); 2) Applying multiple clocks (MC); or 3) A completely symmetric situation between the two reference frames. We specify two types of simultaneity. First, there can be a direct comparison of clock readings at identical positions (‘basic’ simultaneity). Next, we consider simultaneity ‘in the perspective’ of any reference frame. By introducing auxiliary reference frames - combined with symmetry considerations – we also define ‘simultaneity at a distance’. The approach is used to present a thorough discussion of the travelling twin example, giving a concise conclusion regarding the twins’ ages.

Key words: Time dilation, Lorentz transformation; Dingle’s question; observational principle; symmetry; simultaneity; auxiliary reference frame; travelling twin.

1 Introduction
The present work explores the concept of time dilation within the theory of special relativity (TSR). Chapter 2 presents some basic literature; mainly references that present the TSR for non-experts. We further introduce main questions to be discussed in this paper. Chapter 2 also provides basic assumptions and notation.

Chapter 3 starts out to give a somewhat modified version of the Lorentz transformation. We further pinpoint the importance of the observational principle, that is, the specification of which clocks to apply for the required time comparisons. The chapter provides a unified framework for the various observational principles, and points out the most interesting special cases.

Chapter 4 gives a thorough discussion on the common statement that the ‘moving clock goes slower’. We should be very precise when interpreting this statement; the fundamental question obviously being which clocks we single out for time comparisons.

Chapter 5 introduces the concept of auxiliary reference frame, which turns out to provide a useful tool. In particular, we investigate two special cases, both with some inherent symmetry. By utilizing this symmetry, we introduce the concept ‘simultaneity at a distance’. This type of simultaneity applies in addition to ‘basic simultaneity’, (which refer to events that occur at the same instant and same place).

Overall, this work provides a tool for investigating time dilation within the framework of the TSR. In Chapter 6 we apply the approach to give a lengthy discussion on the ‘travelling twin’ example; claiming to give a logical conclusion regarding the twins’ ages. Our result will deviate from the claim commonly given in the literature. In total, the given approach will challenge the current narrative and some of the prevailing views on time dilation and simultaneity in the TSR.

Note that our main objective is to investigate the Lorentz transformation and its logical and philosophical implications. The focus is on the mathematical modelling rather than the physical.

2 Background and basic assumptions
We review some basic literature, [1]-[6], and a couple of web sites [7], [8]. Based on this we point out some questions that do not seem fully settled. We also present the basic assumptions of the current work.

2.1 Problem formulation
First, I find the literature somewhat ambiguous regarding the very interpretation of time dilation. For instance, how should we interpret the common statement: "Moving clock goes slower"? Many authors
apply the expression 'as seen' by the observer on the other reference system, perhaps indicating that it is an apparent effect, not a physical reality, but without elaborating on the interpretation of 'as seen'. Others stress that 'everything goes slower' on the 'moving system', not only the clocks; truly stating that the time dilation represents a physical reality also under the conditions of TSR (i.e. no gravitation etc.). On the other side Giulini [3] in Section 3.3 of his book states: ‘Moving clocks slow down’ is ‘potentially misleading and should not be taken too literally’. However, the expression ‘not be taken too literally’ is not very precise. So in what sense – and under which precise conditions – is time dilation to be considered a true physical phenomenon?

Regarding the concept of time dilation, I do miss a more precise discussion of the multitude of time solutions (depending on location) offered by the Lorentz transformation. It is treated by some authors, e.g. in [4], but in my opinion not in sufficient depth. In the present work we will - rather than specifying one single time dilation formula — look at the total picture of all expressions for time dilation.

As pointed out e.g. by Pössel [7] the phenomenon of time dilation stems from the fact that clocks of the two systems have to be compared at least twice, so it cannot be the same two clocks being compared. Since movement is relative, however, an interesting question is how to decide which system (clock) is moving. Mermin [4] states that what 'moves' is decided by which clocks are chosen to be synchronized. This seems to be in line with the views of the present work: the procedure of clock synchronization and clock comparison decides which reference system has the time 'moving faster/slower'.

When reference frames are moving relative to each other, the definition of simultaneity becomes crucial. The convention seems to define simultaneity across reference frames by use of light rays, but this hardly maintains the symmetry, (cf. Chapter 6 of [14]). Now we can course always consider the ‘basic’ simultaneity; i.e. simultaneity of events occurring at the same instant and same location. In addition, we can consider the simultaneity of events from the ‘perspective’ of a certain reference frame: As all clocks on a specific reference frame are synchronized, the events that occur at any location, where the clock of this reference frame show the same time, are all simultaneous in the perspective of this reference frame. We want to explore the potential also of this type of simultaneity.

The question of symmetry is also essential. The TSR actually describes a symmetric situation for the two systems/observers moving relative to each other, but the literature does not seem to be completely consistent regarding this; some references describe situations apparently involving some asymmetry. For instance - when discussing the travelling twin paradox - Hamilton [8] clearly describes a symmetric situation, while Feynman [2] does not.

Actually, the so-called travelling twins paradox, (e.g. [2], [4], [5], [8]) is well suited to highlight the above dilemmas. And even if the main-stream conclusion is that the travelling twin actually ages less than the earthbound twin, there still seem to be some opponents. The so-called Dingle’s question, [9] raises the important question of symmetry: “Which of the two clocks in uniform motion does the special theory require to work more slowly? McCausland [10] presents the full question and discusses it at length. I find this an important question, and it is rather surprising that according to [10] it has so far not been given a satisfactory answer.

Now some authors also question the validity of the TSR and the Lorentz transformation, see for instance [11]-[13]. In particular, McCausland [11] reviews various controversies on the topic (related to H. Dingle) during several decades, and gives a lot of references. Further, Phipps [12] presents a harsh critique of the TSR modelling from the standpoint of a physicist; for instance stating that the theory fails to include causes of the relative motion and thus will not capture the inherent asymmetry of the phenomenon. The scope of the present work, however, is more restricted: We investigate logical and consistent consequences of the Lorentz transformation; thus, accepting the validity of the TSR as a premise.

2.2 Basic assumptions and some notation
The basis for the discussions is the standard theoretical experiment: Two co-ordinate systems (reference frames), $K$ and $K_v$, moving relative to each other at speed, $v$. We investigate the relation between space
and time parameters, \((x, t)\) on system \(K\) and the corresponding parameters \((x_v, t_v)\) on the system \(K_v\); thus, considering just one space co-ordinate, \((x\text{-axis})\). We will base the discussions on the Lorentz transformation, including the following specifications:

- There is a complete symmetry between the two co-ordinate systems, \(K\) and \(K_v\); the systems being identical in all respects.
- On both reference frames there is an arbitrary number of identical, synchronized clocks, located at any positions where it is required to measure time.
- At time \(t = t_v = 0\), clocks at the location \(x = 0\) on \(K\) and location \(x_v = 0\) on \(K_v\) are synchronized. This represents the defining starting point, from which all events are measured: the ‘point of initiation’.
- We will choose the perspective of one of the systems, (here usually \(K\)), and refer to this as the primary system. The time on this ‘primary’ system is at any position, \(x\) given as a constant, \(t(x) \equiv t\), independent of \(x\), (all clocks being synchronized). In contrast, at a certain time, \(t\) on the primary system, the observed time, \(t_v\) on the other (‘secondary’ system(s), here \(K_v\)), will depend on the location where the clock reading is carried out. When there are several reference frames, we are free to choose any one as the primary.
- When we consider two reference frames, there can be a ‘basic’ simultaneity of events, meaning that the events occur at the same instant and at the same location. So we verify this simultaneity by reading clocks on different reference frames at an instant when they are at the same location. We postulate that all reference frames agree on this basic simultaneity.
- In addition, we have the much weaker concept of ‘simultaneity by perspective’. We will say that the events on a reference frame, which show the same time \((t)\) on its synchronized clocks are simultaneous in the perspective of this frame. It is an essential feature of the Lorentz transformation, that perceived simultaneity will differ in the perspective of the different reference frames.
- We can introduce auxiliary reference frame(s), and thus also define simultaneity in the perspective of this additional reference frame. In particular, we find it useful to define an auxiliary reference frame exhibiting a certain symmetry, which leads us to introduce the concept ‘simultaneity at a distance’; which is a specific version of ‘simultaneity by perspective’.
- We use the notation that SC refers to a reference frame utilizing a ‘single clock’ (or ‘same clock’), for the time comparisons with other reference frames; and similarly MC refers to a reference frame utilizing ‘multiple clocks’ (at various locations) for time comparisons.

3 The Lorentz transformation and special cases
We here present the Lorentz transformation, and further investigate a variant of this.

3.1 The standard formulation
The Lorentz transformation represents the fundament for our discussion of time dilation. Note that we introduce a change of the standard notation. Rather than the usual \(t'\) and \(x'\) we will write \(t_v\) and \(x_v\). Then the Lorentz transformation takes the form

\[
\begin{align*}
t_v &= \frac{t - \frac{vx}{c^2}}{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{v}{c}\right)^2}} \\
x_v &= \frac{x - vt}{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{v}{c}\right)^2}}
\end{align*}
\]

Thus the position, \(x_v\) corresponds to (has the same location as) \(x\) when the clocks at this positions show time \(t\) and \(t_v\), respectively. The formulas include the length contraction along the \(x\)-axis (Lorentz factor):

\[
k_x = \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{v}{c}\right)^2}
\]
3.2 An alternative formulation

Taking the perspective of \( K \), we may at any time \( t \) choose an ‘observational position’ equal to \( x = wt \), (for an arbitrarily chosen \( w \)). By inserting \( x = wt \) in (1) we directly get that time on \( K_v \) at this position equals:

\[
t_v(w) = \frac{1 - \frac{w^2}{c^2}}{1 - \left(\frac{v}{c}\right)^2} \cdot t
\]

(4)

Thus to pinpoint the dependence on \( w \) we here -and when appropriate- write \( t_v(w) \) rather than \( t_v \). The new time dilation formula (4) will – for a given time, \( t \), on the primary system, \( K \) - give the time, \( t_v(w) \) on the secondary system, \( K_v \), as a linear, decreasing function of \( w \). We can now introduce

\[
y_v(w) = \frac{1 - \frac{w^2}{c^2}}{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{v}{c}\right)^2}}
\]

(5)

as the ‘generalized time dilation factor’, valid for any location, (any \( w=x/t \)), i.e. any observational principle. Thus, we can write (4) as

\[
t_v(w) = y_v(w) \cdot t
\]

Fig. 1 provides an illustration of this time dilation formula; (also see the more complete figure given in [14]). The horizontal axis gives the ‘position’ \( w = x/t \) at which the clock measurement is carried out (at time \( t \) on \( K \)). The vertical axis gives the actual clock readings. We have the perspective of \( K \); thus, time on \( K \) equals \( t \) at any ‘position’, \( w \), (horizontal line). However, the clock reading on \( K_v \) (that is \( t_v(w) \)), depends on \( w \), (see decreasing straight line).

This relation presented in Fig. 1 is rather fundamental for the interpretation of relative time. Being a direct consequence of the Lorentz transformation, it is of course well-known. For instance, Feynman [2], p 175, refer to the ‘failure of simultaneity at a distance’. Further, Mermin [4] gives a thorough discussion on this relation, focusing on how the exact expression for \( t_2 - t_1 \) depends on \( x_2 - x_1 \). But perhaps they do not fully utilize the potential of this general relation.

In particular we note that the result (4), and the accompanying Fig. 1, is significant for our understanding of the concept ‘simultaneity’. As all clocks on \( K \) are synchronized, we say that all events on \( K \), (at any position \( x \)), occurring at the same time, \( t \), are simultaneous in the perspective of reference frame \( K \). So in the perspective of \( K \) also the event that time on \( K_v \) equals \( t_v(w) = y_v(w) \cdot t \) at the position corresponding to \( x = wt \) on \( K \), are simultaneous to these events, (cf. the ‘basic’ simultaneity). In the perspective of \( K_v \) we of course have quite another result, and so we clearly see the well-known result that the simultaneity in TSR is relative and depends on the perspective of the observer.

Now, similarly to letting \( x = wt \), we also define a \( w \), so that \( x_v = w_v \cdot t_v = w_v \cdot t_v(w) \). By inserting both \( x = wt \) and \( x_v = w_v \cdot t_v \), in (2), we will after some manipulations obtain

\[
w_v = \frac{x_v}{t_v(w)} = \frac{w - v}{1 - \frac{w^2}{c^2}}
\]

(6)

So equations (4), (6) represent an alternative version of Lorentz transformation, here expressed by parameters \( (t, w) \) rather than \( (t, x) \). The equation (6) has a direct interpretation. According to standard results of TSR (e.g. [1]-[4]) the velocities \( v_1 \) and \( v_2 \) sums up to \( v \), given by the formula

\[
v = v_1 \oplus v_2 \equiv \frac{v_1 + v_2}{1 + \frac{v_1 \cdot v_2}{c^2}}
\]

(7)

So by defining the operator \( \oplus \) this way, eq. (6) actually says that \( w_v = w \oplus (-v) \), or equivalently \( w = w_v \oplus v \).
Note that we do not need to think of $w$ as a velocity; rather as a way to specify a certain position $x = wt$ on $K$, representing the location of the clocks being applied at time $t$. However, we will later see that it can also be fruitful to interpret $w$ as the velocity of a third observational reference frame.

Figure 1. Time dilation: Time, $t_v(w)$, on $K_v$ as a function of $w$, see eq. (4). We have the perspective of $K$ and time all over $K$ equals, $t$. Further, $w=x/t$ gives the ‘position’ on $K$ at which we observe the time on $K_v$. The three special cases of eqs. (9), (13) and (8) are inserted; corresponding to $w = 0$, $w'$ and $v$, respectively.

3.3 Standard special cases
Focusing on time, eq. (4), there are various interesting special cases. First, if a specific clock located at $x_v = 0$ on $K_v$ is compared with the passing clocks on $K$. These clocks on $K$ must have position $x = vt$, and thus we choose $w=v$ and get the relation

$$t_v(v) = t \sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2}$$

(8)

Which equals the ‘standard’ time dilation formula. Further, when a specific clock at position $x = 0$, on $K$ is used for comparisons with various clocks on $K_v$, we must choose $w=0$ and get

$$t_v(0) = t / \sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2}$$

(9)

as the relation between $t$ and $t_v$. The two special cases (8), (9) are specified in Fig. 1, and we also return to these in Chapter 4.

Two other standard special cases are obtained by choosing $w = c$ and $w = -c$, respectively. First

$$t_v(c) = \frac{1-v/c}{\sqrt{1-(v/c)^2}} t = \frac{\sqrt{1-v/c}}{\sqrt{1+v/c}} t$$

(10)

We could observe this result by applying two clocks on both system: One at $x = 0$ and one at $x = ct$ on $K$; and similarly, one at $x_v = 0$ and one at $x_v = ct_v(c)$ on $K_v$. Now eq. (10) is valid when a light ray is emitted in the positive direction ($x > 0$); i.e. $c$ having the same direction as the velocity $v$, as seen from $K$. Similarly, emitting light in the negative direction, (choosing $x = -ct$), gives the well-known result:

$$t_v(-c) = \frac{1+v/c}{\sqrt{1-(v/c)^2}} \frac{1+v}{\sqrt{1+v/c}} t$$

(11)

The results (10), (11) seems essentially applied for two ways light flashes (‘round trips’), e.g. see [14].
3.4 The symmetric case

Now consider a fifth special case of the Lorentz transformation, (4), (6). We ask which value of \( w \) (and thus \( w_v \)) would result in \( t_v(v) = t \). We easily find that this equality is obtained by choosing \( w = w' \), where

\[
w' = \frac{c^2}{v} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (\frac{v}{c})^2}} \right) = \frac{v}{\sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2}} \quad (12)
\]

By this choice of \( w \) we also get \( w_v = -w' \). This means that if we consistently consider the positions where simultaneously \( x = w't \) and \( x_v = -w't_v = -w't' \), then no time dilation will be observed at these positions. In other words (cf. Fig. 1):

\[
t_v(v') \equiv t \quad (13)
\]

At this position \( x_v = -x \), and so we see it as the midpoint between the origins of the two reference frames; thus, providing a nice symmetry. Note that when we choose this observational principle, (12), then absolutely everything is symmetric, and it should be no surprise that we get \( t_v(v) = t \).

Also note that we could give \( w' \) a nice interpretation. Recalling the definition of the operator \( \oplus \) in eq. (7) for adding velocities in TSR, \( (v = v_1 \oplus v_2) \), it is easily verified that when \( w' \) is given by (12), then \( w \oplus w' = v \). So when (the origins of) \( K \) and \( K_v \) have speed \( w' \) and \( -w' \), respectively, relative to the chosen point of observation, then the relative speed between \( K \) and \( K_v \) becomes \( v \). Note that we could also link this observational point to an auxiliary reference frame, see Chapter 5.

4 “The moving clock”. SC vs. MC

In this chapter we investigate the special cases (8) and (9) in more detail, focusing on the concepts SC (single clock) and MC (multiple clocks),

In (8), the specific clock at position \( x_v \equiv 0 \) on \( K_v \) passes the location \( x = vt \) (on \( K \)) at time \( t \). So on \( K_v \) we just apply a single clock (SC) for the time comparisons, so in this case we say that \( K_v \) operates as a SC system. So for these SC time readings, \( t_v(v) \) of eq. (8) we now write

\[
t_v^{SC} \equiv t_v(v)
\]

Thus, eq. (8) becomes

\[
t_v^{SC} = t \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{v}{c}\right)^2}
\]

In (9) we follow a clock at \( x \equiv 0 \) on \( K \), and at this position we make comparisons with various clocks on \( K_v \) as they pass along. Now let MC indicate a reference frame utilizing multiple clocks, and so we write

\[
t_v^{MC} \equiv t_v(0)
\]

Then eq. (18) equals:

\[
t_v^{MC} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2}} t
\]

But these two cases are closely linked. When \( K_v \) operates as SC then \( K \) becomes MC and vice versa. Thus the two symmetric results, (8), (9) could be presented in a compact form as

\[
t^{SC} = t^{MC} \sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2} \quad (14)
\]

Actually, this is much more than an effective way to write eqs. (8) and (9). By eq. (14) we stress that (8) and (9) actually represent the same result. So correctly understood (14) is much more informative than (8) and (9)! It points out which of the systems operates as SC, and which as MC.

Here eq. (14) illustrates the following notation: Now there is a SC reference frame, \( K^{SC} \); i.e. we utilizes just one clock on this system, giving time reading, \( t^{SC} \) on a clock which is located at its origin, \( x^{SC} = 0 \).
Further, $t^{MC}$ is the time on a MC reference frame, $K^{MC}$. The positions of its time measurements are denoted $x^{MC}$, and this position corresponds to the single clock we have on $K^{SC}$, (at $x^{SC} = 0$).

Note that we in (14) have dropped the subscript, $v$ on both time parameters. So apparently, both systems are ‘primary’. However it just means that (14) is valid irrespective of which reference frame is chosen as ‘primary’. But, if needed, we could add a subscript $v$ to either $t^{SC}$ or $t^{MC}$, to indicate which of the systems we choose as the secondary system.

We realize that this changing of notation could seem a little messy, but it is rather cumbersome to get a language to account for both SC/MC and primary/secondary, in addition to the relevant parameters $(t, w, v)$, which can take several values. See Appendix B for a summary on the notation for time parameters.

Before we leave (14) some comments are relevant. First we stress that observers on both reference frames will agree on this result (14). Thus, I find it rather misleading to apply the phrase ‘as seen’ regarding the clock reading on ‘the other’ system; which is a formulation used by some authors. The time readings are objective, and all observers (observational equipment) on the location in question will ‘see’ the same thing. The main point is rather that observers at different reference frames will not agree regarding simultaneity of events.

Secondly, we have the formulation ‘moving clock goes slower’. It is true that an observer on a reference frame ($K^{MC}$), observing a specific clock (on $K^{SC}$) passing by, will see this clock going slower when it is compared to his own clocks. So in a certain sense this confirms the standard phrase ‘moving clock goes slower’. However, we could equally well take the perspective of the single clock, considering this to be at rest, implying that the clocks on $K^{MC}$ are moving. The point is definitely not that clock(s) on $K^{SC}$ are moving and clocks on $K^{MC}$ are not. Rather, we could look at the symmetry of the situation: We are starting out with two clocks at origin, moving relative to each other. Then the decision on which of the two clocks we will compare with a clock on the other system, (a decision that can be interchanged at random!), will decide which of the two clocks comes out as the fast one.

So, first of all, none of the clocks are more moving than the other. Further, it is the observational principle that decides which of the two clocks initially at the origin, which we observe to move slower. Therefore, I find the talk about the ‘moving clock’ rather misleading.

Further, this choice on which reference frame shall apply just a single clock is obviously crucial, and it introduces an asymmetry between the two reference frames.

We note that the insight as provided by eq. (14) is in no way new. Our concepts SC and MC for instance correspond to the concepts ‘proper’ and ‘improper’ time used by Smith [5]. In particular, eq. (14) equals eq. (3-1) of that book. However, [5] has perhaps not fully utilized the potential of this relation.

We should further stress one fact. It is not required to point at one reference frame to be SC (having ‘proper’ time), and the other to be MC (having ‘improper’ time). Actually, we can specify any clock at one of the two reference frames; and if we decide to follow this clock, we will find that it goes slower than the passing clocks on the other reference frame. Thus, we may at the same time have clock(s) on both reference frames observed to ‘go slower’. In this respect also eq. (14) could be misleading. We do not have to point at one reference frame to be SC and one to be MC. The equations just says that if we follow a specific clock, we will observe that this goes slower than the passing clocks on the other reference frame.

This point is essential, and in my opinion it gives an answer to Dingle’s question, refs. [9], [10], (cf. Section 2.1). It is not the case that the clock(s) on one of the two reference frames go(es) slower than the clock(s) on the other, (as indicated by the Dingle’s question). We could very well choose to follow both the two clocks being at the origin at time 0; which will give that both reference frames have a clock ‘going slower’. (This fact is also most relevant when we study the travelling twin example; see Chapter 6 below.) So, the result on time dilation is actually fully symmetric with respect to the two reference frames! The question is not which reference frame has a clock that ‘goes slower’; it is rather which
observational principle we have chosen. This fully demonstrates that it is rather inappropriate to apply
the statement ‘moving clock goes slower’.

Actually, Professor Dingle in his later work claimed that the TSR was inconsistent; see thorough
discussion by McCausland, [11]. However, I do not find this argumentation very convincing, as -
according to [11] - Dingle again seems to focus on the apparent inconsistency of our eqs. (8), (9), rather
than discussing the interpretation of the more relevant eq. (14).

5 Using auxiliary reference frames
In this Chapter we elaborate further on the special cases represented by (8), (9), or rather (14), in
combination with the use of an auxiliary reference frame.

5.1 An auxiliary reference frame having a fixed point of observation (‘SC system’)
We go back to relations (8), (9), and the combined result, (14). These treat the case where we follow
one clock, consistently comparing it with the adjacent clock on the other system (which thus, must apply
several clocks, i.e. acting as a MC system). One way to write this result is:

\[ t_{v}^{MC} \sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2} = t^{SC} \]

By using the subscript \( v \) our notation here indicates that we see the MC reference frame as the ‘secondary
system’, and thus the SC reference frame as the ‘primary’. Now consider a slightly different situation.
If we have two systems, \( K_1 \) and \( K_2 \) moving at relative speeds, \( v_1 \) and \( v_2 \) with respect to an auxiliary
reference frame denoted \( K \), then we similarly have

\[ t_{v_i}^{MC} \sqrt{1 - (v_i/c)^2} = t^{SC}, \ i = 1, 2 \]

As the notation here indicates, here the auxiliary system, \( K \) is SC, and \( K_1 \) and \( K_2 \) are MC. Thus, we
specify the origin of the auxiliary reference frame, \( K \), where we carry out all clock readings of \( K_1 \) and
\( K_2 \). Now we can of course eliminate \( t^{SC} \) (i.e. the time on the auxiliary system) from the two relations in
(15), and then obtain

\[ t_{v_2}^{MC} = \frac{\sqrt{1 - (v_2/c)^2} t_{v_1}^{MC}}{\sqrt{1 - (v_1/c)^2}} \]

Now (16) gives the relation between the times of the two MC reference frame \( K_1 \) and \( K_2 \), measured at a
fixed observational point on the common auxiliary system, \( K \). Here, the special case, \( v_1 = 0 \), reduces to
the standard situations, (8). (When \( v_1 = 0 \) the observational point on \( K \) is at rest with respect to \( K_1 \), and
thus \( K_1 \) reduces to a SC system in this case.) Further, the special case \( v_2 = 0 \) reduces to the other standard
situation, (9). Now we shall see that also the symmetric case (Section 3.4) comes out as a special case.

Of course the two times, \( t_{v_i}^{MC} \) of (16) are identical when \( v_1 = v_2 \). But also when we choose \( v_2 = - v_1 \) we
get the same time readings, at this common location (origin of \( K \)), i.e.

\[ t_{v_1}^{MC} = t_{-v_1}^{MC} \]

(17)

In particular we can in eq. (17) choose \( v_1 = - w' \) (which is given in (12)). In that case the relative velocity
between \( K_1 \) and \( K_2 \) becomes \( v = w' \oplus w' \) (see discussion in Section 3.4). So by choosing of \( v_1 = - w' \)
we see that the symmetric case treated in Section 3.4 comes out as a special case of (17); that is

\[ t_{-w'}^{MC} = t_{w'}^{MC} \]

(18)

which is then actually an alternative way to formulate the result (13). In addition, we also observe that
eq. (15) provides the clock reading \( t^{MC} \) of the auxiliary reference frame:

\[ t_{w'}^{MC} = t^{SC} / \sqrt{1 - (w'/c)^2} \]

(19)

This time \( t^{SC} \) is however hardly of major interest.
Fig. 2 is an analogy to Fig. 1 and illustrates the clock readings of these three reference frames. Note that we here see the auxiliary reference frame, \( K \) as the primary system: The parameter, \( w \) (horizontal axis) refers to positions on this reference frame; and the time on \( K \) is constant, see the horizontal line marked \( t \). The ‘basic’ reference frames, \( K_1 \) and \( K_2 \), move at speed \(-w'\) and \( w'\), respectively, relative to \( K \). Thus, the relative speed between \( K_1 \) and \( K_2 \) becomes \( v \) (as we want it to be).

In Fig. 2, the lines \( t_{-w'}(w) \) and \( t_{w'}(w) \) give the time measured on clocks at \( K_1 \) and \( K_2 \), respectively; as a function of the ‘position’, \( w \) (and time \( t \)) on \( K \). (Recall that we use alternative notations for these times when we will specify that the clock is used either as SC or MC.) In the figure we indicate the simultaneous clock readings of these reference frames observed at the origin of \( K \) (cf. \( 18 \)) with the letter \( a \). At this position the clocks on \( K_1 \) and \( K_2 \) show the same time, and are simultaneously located at the midpoint in between the origins of \( K_1 \) and \( K_2 \). (i.e. at the origin of \( K \)). Thus, for these measurements the reference frame \( K \) is a SC system, and its clock will appear slower than the corresponding clocks on \( K_1 \) and \( K_2 \); see the line \( t \) falling below the point \( a \).

5.2 The auxiliary reference frame being a MC system

In Section 5.1 we applied a fixed position on an auxiliary reference frame \( K \) to observe time on the two reference frames \( K_1 \) and \( K_2 \), and thus obtain the general result \( 16 \), having the situations of both Section 3.4 and Chapter 4 as special cases; but seemingly without providing essential new results.

Of course we could also do it the other way. Two single clocks on \( K_1 \) and \( K_2 \) are at any time compared with various clocks on \( K \). This approach will actually provide us with an interesting new result. In analogy with \( 15 \) and \( 16 \) we now get.

![Figure 2](image-url)

**Figure 2.** Time measurements in the perspective of the auxiliary reference frame, \( K \), where the reference frames \( K_1 \) and \( K_2 \) have speed \( \pm w' \) relative to \( K \). Time equals \( t \) all over \( K \), and times \( t_{-w'}(w) \) on \( K_1 \) and \( t_{w'}(w) \) on \( K_2 \), are given as a function of the ‘position’ \( w \) on \( K \).
We now turn to an analysis of the so-called travelling twin example. As stated for instance in [4] the travelling twin paradox shall illustrate that two identical clocks, initially in the same place and reading the same time, can end up with different readings if they move apart from each other and then back together.

6 The travelling twin

We now turn to an analysis of the so-called travelling twin example. As stated for instance in [4] the travelling twin paradox shall illustrate that two identical clocks, initially in the same place and reading the same time, can end up with different readings if they move apart from each other and then back together.

6.1 The numerical example

Reference [4] gives the following numerical example, (in his Chapter 10): “If one twin goes to a star 3 light years away in a super rocket that travels at 3/5 the speed of light, the journeys out and back each takes 5 years in the frame of the earth. But since the slowing-down factor is \(1 - (3/5)^2 = 4/5\) the

\[
t^i_{SC} / \sqrt{1 - (v_i/c)^2} = t'^{MC}, \quad i = 1, 2
\]

Here \(t^i_{SC}\) is the time at the origin of \(K_i\) (\(i = 1, 2\)), and for this application the time at any location at \(K\) is denoted \(t^{MC}\) (corresponds to \(t\) in Fig. 2). Again the observational principles (8) and (9) come out as special cases. Also a variant of the symmetric case appears by choosing \(v_2 = - v_1\). Further, we can in particular choose \(v_1 = - w'\) to achieve the relative velocity, \(v\), between \(K_1\) and \(K_2\). Thus, the analogy to (18), (19) equals

\[
t^SC_{w'} = t'^SC = t^{MC} \sqrt{1 - (w'/c)^2}
\]
twin on the rocket will age only 4 years on the outward journey, and another 4 years on the return journey. When she gets back home, she will be 2 years younger than her stay-at-home sister, who has aged the full 10 years.’ So the claim is that the referred difference in ageing occurs during the periods of the journey with a constant speed; i.e., under the conditions of the TSR, (ignoring the acceleration/deceleration periods). After all the whole argument relies on the Lorentz transformation! Thus, our discussion will fully restrict to the periods of constant velocity. Now throughout this chapter we let

\[ t = \text{time on clock of earthbound twin} \]
\[ t_v = \text{time on clock of travelling twin} \]

The distance between earth and the ‘star’ equals \( x = 3 \) light years, and the rocket has speed, \( v = (3/5)c \), giving \( \sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2} = 4/5 \). It follows that in the reference frame of the earth/star, the rocket reaches the star at time, \( t = x/v = 5 \) years. And the clock on the rocket is then located on \( x_v = 0 \), corresponding to \( x = vt \), and thus the Lorentz transformation gives that at the arrival at the star this clock reads \( t_v = t \cdot \sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2} = 4 \) years; so obviously, \( t_v/t = 0.8 \) at the star (travelling twin); and the argument is also valid for the return travel.

This is a rather convincing argument. It does follow from the Lorentz transformation that the returning clock shows 8 years when he/she returns. However, recalling the discussion of Chapters 3-5 the case is perhaps not that straightforward, and since we have made no assumption of asymmetry regarding the periods of constant velocity, we seem to have a true paradox.

Thus, we will not question the clock of the travelling twin, but take a new look at the clock of the earthbound twin, trying to look at the total situation. First, we observe - following the notation of Chapter 4 - that the above presentation describes the travelling twin as a ‘SC system’, and so the earthbound twin is located on a ‘MC system’. So, actually we could just look at eq. (14) to obtain the above result. And as observed in Appendix A this is related to the length contraction: Seen from the perspective of the travelling twin, the distance between earth and the star does not equal \( x = 3 \) light years but just \( x_v = 3 \cdot 0.8 = 2.4 \) light years; fully ‘explaining’ the reduction in travelling time.

Now the question is: Could we not similarly describe the situation as the travelling twin being located on a MC system, and the earthbound twin on a SC system (which would then have one clock located on the earth). If we insist on the symmetry of the situation, the answer must be yes. Thus, we simply assume that there is also a reference frame of the travelling twin with the required number of clocks. Say, he is equipped with rockets at appropriate and fixed distances from his own rocket, all moving with constant speed in the same direction as himself, and all equipped with a synchronized clock showing the same time, \( t_v \). Whether this is practically feasible is not relevant here. We are referring to the model of the TSR, and point out what this theory tells about clock readings, if we provide such an arrangement.

By making this assumption, we could consider the earthbound twin as travelling back and forth along the reference frame of the travelling twin. This will now give that the one way travelling time of the earthbound twin is 4 years; while the time passed for the travelling twin equals 5 years. Due to this symmetry of results, we find it required to proceed with the discussion. Now there is both a lengthy and a short argument on this paradox. We first take the lengthy. But those fully familiar with the discussion of Chapter 5, might skip Section 6.2 and go directly to Section 6.3.

### 6.2 The lengthy argument

We include this section to contemplate on the phenomenon with an open mind, without directly utilizing the simultaneity result of the previous chapter. We first follow up on the possibility of treating the earthbound twin as a SC system. Thus, he just applies his clock at the earth for time comparisons with the various travelling clocks; (therefore the reference frame of the travelling twin is equipped with several clocks at various locations). Under this assumption eq. (14) gives the result, \( t_v/t = 1/0.8 = 1.25 \) (for his observations on the earth) whatever instant we consider after departure.
We now want him to make an observation of the clocks exactly ‘at the instant’ when his traveling twin arrives at the star. However, the core of the problem is that actually we do not fully know how to define this moment on the earth that is simultaneous to this. The Lorentz transformation does not seem to give a definite answer regarding the simultaneity of events ‘at a distance’. So now let us consider various options regarding the moment at which he should choose for observing the clocks; (both his own clock positioned on the earth, and the one passing by):

1. **Perspective of the travelling twin.** At the moment when the travelling twin arrives to the star, the clock on his rocket shows 4 years. So all clocks on the reference frame of the travelling twin show time, \( t_v = 4 \) years. This is also the case for the clock which as this moment is passing the earth, \( i.e. \) at \( x = 0 \). Thus, the clock of the earthbound twin at this instant shows time \( t = t_v \times 0.8 = 3.2 \) years.

2. **Perspective of the earth/star system.** At the instant when the twin arrives at the star, the time of the earthbound system at this location equals \( t = 5 \) years. The earthbound twin could verify this by also installing a clock at the ‘star’. When he performs a clock comparison at the earth (\( x = 0 \)) at this moment, it gives that \( t_e = t \times 1.25 = 6.25 \) years for the clock which passes the earth at this moment.

3. **Symmetric solution, (Perspective of the auxiliary system, \( cf. \) Section 5.2).** The above two cases demonstrate that the two twins completely disagree about which event at the earth is simultaneous with the travelling twin’s arrival at the star; (which of course is obvious also from \( e.g. \) Figs. 1 and 2). Now consider the moment when the clock on the earth shows \( t = 4 \) years and the passing ‘travelling clock’ shows \( t_v = t \times 1.25 = 5 \) years. This instant obviously occurs in between the previous two moments, and represents a moment being completely symmetric to the event of the twin’s arrival at the star (regarding clock readings). And more important: It is the instant when the earthbound twin have carried out a ‘travel’ equivalent to the distance of the travelling twin. There is a complete symmetry! (From Section 5.2 we see that this corresponds to the perspective of the auxiliary reference frame; see Fig. 2).

In summary, when we now let the earthbound twin represent a ‘SC system’, and thus, carry out the clock comparison at the earth, we always get \( t_e/t_v = 1.25; \ i.e. \) it is the clock on the earth that ‘goes slower’. We summarize the findings in Table 1. These three ‘perspectives’ in some way all ‘correspond to’ the arrival of the travelling twin at the star, and thus, demonstrate the problem we have to define the ‘simultaneous’ event on the earth.

So how should we conclude regarding the time (clock readings) at the turning of the rocket? When now the information of Table 1 is available, let us assume that the earthbound twin is in charge. He could control his twin’s travel by sending a light signal to the star, which on arrival initiates the return of his travelling twin. How should he do this to be sure the signal arrives at the right moment? One possibility that he might consider is to send a signal that arrives at the star when his earthbound clock shows 5 years (\( i.e. \) perspective 2 in Table 1). The problem is that at this moment the clock on the travelling twin system passing the earth shows 6.25 years. Thus, one could suspect the travelling twin when he returns have aged 12.5 years (and not 8). The reason being that if he turns when his twin’s signal reaches the rocket, he may have travelled a longer distance than the intended 3 light years. A similar objection applies to using perspective 1.

**Table 1. Various clock readings (light years) at/on the earth, potentially ‘simultaneous to’ the arrival of the travelling twin at the star, (where \( t_v = 4, t = 5 \)).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location of time reading</th>
<th>‘Perspective’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.Travelling twin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travelling twin system (( t_v ))</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earth/star system (( t ))</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Actually, if the earthbound twin should be in charge, I guess the following strategy should be the most ingenious. Knowing about the length contraction, he will know that the travelling twin will observe a travelling distance to the star that equals just 2.4 light years. So the earthbound twin will adopt option 3: he sends a signal ordering to turn, such that the travelling twin will receive this signal when the clock on his own earthbound system shows 4 years, (cf. ‘perspective 3’ of Table 1). In my view the only logical and consistent result is that this is the signal that reaches the travelling twin at the moment when he arrives at the star.

Following this option, we conclude that at the local time when each of the twins now consider to be the turning of the rocket, the twins will agree on the following facts: Their own clock shows 4 years, and the adjacent clock on the other system shows 5 years. So by the direct measurements, they observe that the other twin at this moment apparently has aged more than himself by a factor 1.25. This gives a completely symmetric and consistent answer to the paradox.

Following this argument, the clocks of both twins show 4 years at the point of return. The same argument applies for the return travel, and we should conclude that by the reunion both clocks show 8 years.

Another way to put it. We can choose between three options, (all in apparent agreement with the Lorentz transformation):

1. Either the travelling twin being on a SC system giving travelling times 8 years for him and 10 for the earthbound, eq. (14), or
2. The earthbound twin is located on a SC system, giving 8 years for him and 10 for the travelling eq (14);
3. The symmetric solution, eq. (22), treating both systems as SC, giving a total duration of 8 years for both twins.

To me this choice is easy. In addition to the symmetry, it is an important point that options 1 and 2 just follow the clock of one twin, while option 3 follows both.

6.3 The short argument and further comments

The short argument utilize the symmetry of the situation and the use of an auxiliary reference frame as introduced in Chapter 5. We directly apply the simultaneity in the perspective of the auxiliary system; that is ‘simultaneity at a distance’, cf. Section 5.2 and Fig. 2. According to this result, the event \((t_v = 4\text{ years}, t = 5\text{ years})\) at the star is simultaneous in this sense to the event \((t = 4\text{ years}, t_v = 5\text{ years})\) on the earth. So by following both twins, and thus considering both systems as SC, the conclusion is that both twins have aged 4+4=8 years when they meet again. We follow both clocks in a symmetric way, from the moment when they depart (having basic simultaneity) to the moment when they are again united (again basic simultaneity). The time is reduced, compared to the result of 10 years, since SC observers experiencing a length contraction, cf. Appendix A.

This result also require that the return travels for both twins have the same duration as their outward travel. Since they are traveling exactly the same distance, at exactly the same speed, giving same length contraction, their clocks should measure the duration for the outwards and return travels.

One might still raise the question: since the simultaneity by perspective obviously differ so wildly, why should we trust the perspective of the auxiliary reference frame introduced here, and not the result of any of the other reference frames that we could come up with? Our answer is simply that this is the only perspective exhibiting the desired symmetry between the two ‘basic’ reference frames. Can we come up with an asymmetry here, requiring a certain asymmetry; we would choose an auxiliary system to accommodate for this. So far I have seen no such asymmetry. Actually, when we – as in the present work - focus on the full symmetry of the situation, it would be rather meaningless to claim that one ages slower than the other.

There are some authors searching for asymmetry to explain a difference in ageing. For instance [2], [5] argue that the acceleration required for the travelling twin when he turns, is the reason why we can
distinguish between the two twins, thus, introducing an asymmetry, and therefore infer that one of them ages slower. Others introduce the concept of polar and equatorial clocks, (see references and discussion in Appendix II of [11]). I find these attempts rather ad hoc and not very convincing.

After all, the claimed (magnitude of the) difference in ageing is calculated using the Lorentz transformation, which actually exhibits symmetry! It seems that some try to defend an asymmetric solution to a symmetric mathematical framework by adding some apparently irrelevant assumptions outside the scope of the mathematical framework. Actually, it is my claim that - when treated correctly - the Lorentz transformation does give a symmetric result.

So what is wrong with the standard argument of the twins’ ageing. It is obviously about simultaneity. The standard narrative seems implicitly to assume that the arrival of the twin at the star occurs ‘simultaneously’ with the earthbound twin having aged 5 years. I disagree with this claim. The Lorentz transformation tells that the clock of the earthbound system, which is located at the ‘star’, shows 5 years by the arrival of the traveling twin. However, that does not imply that we can say that the earthbound twin has aged 5 years ‘at the same time’. In my understanding, one cannot infer such simultaneity from the TSR.

A similar objection applies to the argumentation given in Chapter 6 of [5], which also claims that the returning twin has actually aged just 8 years and not 10, (when we apply the present numerical example). However, the various arguments starts out with statements like, 'He [the earthbound twin] thinks the whole trip took T seconds’, (where T corresponds to 5 years in our case), ‘the earth twin knows the outbound trip took T/2 seconds’, ‘the whole trip takes a time T’. So to me it seems he starts out by making an assumption that must lead to the desired conclusion, and we have a circle argument. A crucial question is the totality of information in principle available for the earthbound twin, as discussed in the previous section; cf. Table 1. Then we should not take for granted ‘what he thinks’, and he will not necessarily ‘know’ that the whole trip takes 10 years. As many authors discussing this he seems to lack a more holistic view, considering the various, apparently contradictory observations we might have. As we know, clock readings (time) depend on location, and simultaneity depends on the chosen perspective (reference frame). So we have to be careful, and the argumentation of [5] is too simplistic.

Now I have to admit, that also the solution presented here is somewhat paradoxical. (It is hard for me to follow those claiming there is no paradox at all here.) It involves apparently contradictory observations for events ‘at a distance’. However, this paradox is seemingly inherent in the Lorentz transformation. By accepting this as a model for how the world is ‘working’, I find the solution presented here consistent and logical.

### 6.4 Some numerical calculations

Now to familiarize a little further with the argument regarding the ‘simultaneity at a distance’ (in the perspective of the auxiliary reference frame) we elaborate on the above numerical example. As an illustration, we use Fig. 2, and consider this to represent the situation when the travelling twin has reached his point of destination. From the above numerical values, we will from (12) get $w' = c/3 (= 5v/9)$, being the speed between the auxiliary system and a twin. Further, we get that the ‘slowing down factor’ related to this speed equals $\sqrt{1 - (w'/c)^2} = \frac{2}{3}\sqrt{2} \approx 0.94$. Using this, the time readings of the three reference frames are:

i. The auxiliary reference frame (primary). Time is constant, $t$, (see horizontal line in Fig. 2).
ii. Travelling twin. Time is a function of $w$: $t_{wr}(w) = (\sqrt{2}/4) \cdot (3 - w/c)t$.
iii. Earthbound twin. Time is a function of $w$: $t_{er}(w) = (\sqrt{2}/4) \cdot (3 + w/c)t$.

In Fig. 2 we now let the observational point $b$ have value 4 years, (i.e. the clock readings of the travelling twins at his arrival), corresponding to $w = w' = c/3$. This gives $t = 3\sqrt{2} \approx 4.24$ years. Inserting this above, we in Fig.2 also get that point $a$ corresponds to 4.5 years and point $c$ corresponds to 5 years. So all values are in full agreement with those used in the example.
The time \( t = 3\sqrt{2} \approx 4.24 \) years of the auxiliary system seems less relevant. The main role of the auxiliary reference frame is to allow us to treat the reference frames of both twins as SC, and further to establish ‘simultaneity at a distance’ with respect to these.

7 Summary and conclusions

We discuss how to analyse time dilation between two reference frames moving relative to each other at constant speed \( v \). Starting out from the Lorentz transformation, we make the following specifications:

- There is a complete symmetry between the two reference frames.
- Each reference frame is equipped with a number of synchronized clocks, (at any required position).
- We may take the perspective of one reference frame and specify this to be the primary one.
- Basic simultaneity of events at different reference frames will refer to events occurring simultaneously at the same location (‘simultaneity by location’).
- We also introduce the concept simultaneity in the perspective of a reference frame. By introducing an auxiliary reference frame we can use this in combination with symmetry to define ‘simultaneity at a distance’, (or equivalently ‘simultaneity by symmetry’).
- We always specify the applied observational principle, which means that we specify the location of the clocks that are used for time comparisons between the reference frames. Investigations of time dilation should clearly account for the effect of the observational principle.
- We stress the distinct difference between ‘single clock’ (SC) observations – where the same clock is used for time comparisons, and ‘multiple clock’ (MC) observations – where several clocks along the \( x \)-axis of a reference frame are applied. In more complex situations (cf. travelling twin), we may consider both type of observations on both frames.
- We do not use the expression ‘as seen’ (from the other reference frame). Observers (observational equipment) on both reference frames agree on the time readings; as they are carried out ‘on location’.
- We do not describe time dilation by the expression ‘moving clock goes slower’. It is the observational principle that matters.

It is an important fact that at a given time, \( t \) on \( K \), (in the perspective of \( K \)), the time, \( t_v \), observed on a clock at \( K_v \) will depend on the position, \( x \) on \( K \). So we focus on a variant of the Lorentz transformation showing how \( t_v / t \) depends on \( w = x / c \).

From this general time dilation formula, we get the ‘standard’ time dilation result, here written as

\[
{t^{SC}} = {t^{MC}} \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{v}{c}\right)^2}
\]

This tells that when we follow a single clock (SC) on one reference frame, this is seen to go slower than the passing clocks on the other frame by a factor \( \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{v}{c}\right)^2} \). This formulation is much more informative than the potentially misleading phrase ‘moving clock goes slower’. There is no reason to see the single clock to be moving and the other clocks not. Movement is relative. In general the specification of which system(s) act as SC and which act as MC is a crucial element of the approach.

Another special case of the general time dilation formula is to permanently choose the midpoint between \( x = 0 \) and \( x_v = 0 \) as the location for time comparisons. At this position we will observe \( t_v = t \). This observational principle is symmetric with respect to the two reference frames. So when we usually observe \( t \neq t_v \), in an otherwise symmetric situation, we claim that this is caused by the asymmetry of the chosen observational principle.

We apply the approach to the travelling twin paradox. By treating this example in a completely symmetric manner, we do not arrive at the standard result. We let both twins have their single clock (SC) reference frame, which are moving relative to each other. Both twins will thus observe a length contraction and a time dilation relative to the reference frame of the other twin passing by. So they will both observe a ‘reduced time’ when they reunite. By introducing an auxiliary reference frame located ‘in between’ the twins’ frames, we will establish a ‘simultaneity at a distance’ for the turning events of
the twins. I will claim that the problem with standard arguments on the travelling twin paradox is a
failure to handle properly this simultaneity.

Further, under conditions of complete symmetry it is rather meaningless to claim a ‘true’ time dilation,
causing different ageing at the two systems. Therefore, it would be interesting to identify conditions –
e.g. departures from symmetry - that could cause time dilation to represent a physical reality. I cannot
see that such conditions are identified in the travelling twin example.

A general comment regarding our findings: An observer moving relative to a reference frame where an
event takes place could be a rather unreliable observer. Various observational principles will provide
him with different results. Thus, one should be careful to let such an ‘outside’ observer define the
phenomenon, without taking an overall view and properly consider his own position.

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Appendix A  A note on length contraction
The interpretation of $x$ and $x_v$ in (1) and (2) is rather straightforward. The position $x_v$ on $K_v$ corresponds exactly to the position $x$ on $K$ at an instant where the clock located at $x_v$ shows time $t_v$ and the clock at $x$ shows time $t$.
This means that $x$ and $x_v$ could have the following interpretation. We again consider a ‘SC system’, $K_v$ moving at relative speed along a system, $K$. Now let a distance, $x$ be marked out on $K$ in the same direction as this movement. As known, the time measured on $K_v$ for its single clock to pass this distance will imply that – as measured from $K_v$ – the length of the distance $x$ equals

$$x_v^{SC} = x \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{v}{c}\right)^2} \quad (A.1)$$

So now $x_v^{SC}$ equals the length of $x$ on $K$ ‘as seen from’ $K_v$. (In order to utilize the clock reading to observe $x_v^{SC}$ one first have to establish the relative speed, $v$, between the reference frames.) Therefore, this length contraction (A.1) corresponds exactly to the time dilation observed for a single clock moving relative to a fixed distance on the other reference frame. Thus, anyone on $K_v$ observes the distance travelled to be shorter, and so the time required to travel this distance will be observed to be shorter (both on $K$ and $K_v$). Therefore, the length contraction and time dilation are indeed two aspects of the same phenomenon.

Appendix B  Some notation
We apply a diverse notation regarding time. This Appendix provides a summary.

1. Time on the primary reference frame; also used when we do not want to specify whether we refer to a primary or a secondary system:

   $t$  Generic time; being constant all over the reference frame.
   $t^{SC}$  Clock reading at the origin ($x=0$) of this reference frame; thus, applying only a single clock.
   $t^{MC}$  Clock reading at the position corresponding to the origin of the ‘other’ (secondary) reference frame; thus, applying several clocks.

2. Time on the secondary reference frame, moving relative to the primary at speed, $v$:

   $t_v$  Generic time on this system; without specifying the position
   $t_v(w)$  Time at the position which corresponds to $w = x/t$ on the primary system
   $t_v^{SC} = t_v(v)$  Clock reading at the origin of this reference frame; thus, applying only a single clock.
   $t_v^{MC} = t_v(0)$  Clock reading at the position corresponding to the origin of the ‘other’ (primary) reference frame; thus, applying several clocks.