Abstract: The measurability notion introduced previously in a quantum theory on the basis of a minimal length in this paper is defined in thermodynamics on the basis of a minimal inverse temperature. Based on this notion, some inferences are made for gravitational thermodynamics of horizon spaces and, specifically, for black holes with the Schwarzschild metric.

Keywords: Minimal Length, Minimal Inverse Temperature, Measurability

PACS (2010): 03.65; 05.20

1 Introduction.

This paper is a continuation of the earlier works published by the author [1],[2]. The main idea and target of these works is to construct a correct quantum theory and gravity in terms of the variations (increments) dependent on the existent energies. It is clear that such a theory should not involve infinitesimal space-time variations

\[ dt, dx_i, i = 1, \ldots, 3. \]  

(1)

Besides, as shown in [2], with the involvement of some universal units of the minimal length \( l_{\text{min}} \) and time \( t_{\text{min}} \), this theory will be discrete and dependent on the explicitly defined discrete parameters but very close to the initial continuous theory at low energies. The notion of measurability introduced by the author in [2] is essential for the above-mentioned discrete theory.

This paper demonstrates that an analogous notion may be introduced in thermodynamics on the basis of the minimal inverse temperature. Based on the obtained results, the
inferences for gravitational thermodynamics of horizon spaces and, specifically, for black holes with the Schwarzschild metric are introduced. All aspects of the authors motivation were given in detail in [1] and, in particular, in [2]. In short, the motivation is as follows. According to the present-day views, both quantum theory and gravity in the ultraviolet region is related to some new parameters defined at high (apparently Planck) energies (for example [3]). But at low energies, this relationship is not apparent due to its insignificant effect in this case, on the one hand, and due to the mathematical apparatus of continuous space-time, where the existent theories are considered, on the other hand.

By the author’s opinion, the correct definition of a dynamics of the above-mentioned relationship at all the energy scales will enable us to find the key to solutions of all the problems given below:

1.1 ultraviolet and infra-red divergences in a quantum field theory;
1.2 correct transition to the high-energy (quantum) region for gravity;
1.3 and possibility of the existence of “nonphysical” solutions for the General Relativity (for example, the solutions involving the Closed Time-like Curves (CTC) [6]–[9]).

To make this paper maximally self-contained, the author includes all the required earlier obtained results precisely with the corresponding references in Subsection 2.1 and at the beginning of Subsection 2.2.

New results are presented in the second half of Subsection 2.2., and also in Subsection 2.3. and in Section 3.

2 Minimal Length, Minimal Inverse Temperature, and Measurability

2.1 Generalized Uncertainty Principles in Quantum Theory and Thermodynamics

In this Subsection the author presents some of the results from Section 2 of the paper [10], because they are important for this work.

It is well known that in thermodynamics an inequality for the pair interior energy - inverse temperature that is completely analogous to the standard uncertainty relation in quantum mechanics [11] can be written [14] – [19]. The only (but essential) difference of this inequality from the quantum mechanical one is that the main quadratic fluctuation is defined by means of the classical partition function rather than by the quantum mechanical expectation values. In the last years a lot of papers appeared in which the usual momentum-coordinate uncertainty relation has been modified at very high energies on the order of the Planck energy $E_p$ [20]–[31]. In this note we propose simple reasons for modifying the thermodynamic uncertainty relation at Planck energies. This modification results in existence of the minimal possible main quadratic fluctuation of the inverse temperature. Of course we assume that all the thermodynamic quantities used are properly defined so that they have physical sense at such high energies.
We start with usual Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle (relation) [11] for momentum-coordinate:

\[ \Delta x \geq \frac{\hbar}{\Delta p}. \] (2)

It was shown that at the Planck scale a high-energy term must appear:

\[ \Delta x \sim \Delta p + \alpha' \frac{l_p^2 \Delta p}{\hbar} \] (3)

where \( l_p \) is the Planck length \( l_p^2 = G \hbar / c^3 \approx 1.6 \times 10^{-35} m \) and \( \alpha' \) is a constant. In [20] this term is derived from the string theory, in [23] it follows from the simple estimates of Newtonian gravity and quantum mechanics, in [27] it comes from the black hole physics, other methods can also be used [26],[28],[29]. Relation (3) is quadratic in \( \Delta p \)

\[ \alpha' l_p^2 (\Delta p)^2 - \hbar \Delta x \Delta p + \hbar^2 \leq 0 \] (4)

and therefore leads to the fundamental length

\[ \Delta x_{\min} = 2\alpha' l_p \] (5)

Inequality (3) is called the Generalized Uncertainty Principle (GUP) in Quantum Theory. Using relations (3) it is easy to obtain a similar relation for the energy-time pair. Indeed (3) gives

\[ \frac{\Delta x}{c} \geq \frac{\hbar}{\Delta pc} + \alpha' \frac{l_p^2 \Delta p}{c \hbar}, \] (6)

then

\[ \Delta t \geq \frac{\hbar}{\Delta E} + \alpha' \frac{l_p^2 \Delta pc}{c^2 \hbar} = \frac{\hbar}{\Delta E} + \alpha' \frac{l_p^2 \Delta E}{c \hbar}, \] (7)

where the smallness of \( l_p \) is taken into account so that the difference between \( \Delta E \) and \( \Delta(pc) \) can be neglected and \( t_p \) is the Planck time \( t_p = l_p / c = \sqrt{G \hbar / c^3} \approx 0.54 \times 10^{-43} \text{sec} \). Inequality (7) gives analogously to (3) the lower boundary for time \( \Delta t \geq 2t_p \), determining the fundamental time

\[ t_{\min} = 2\alpha' t_p. \] (8)

Thus, the inequalities discussed can be rewritten in a standard form

\[
\begin{aligned}
\Delta x &\geq \frac{\hbar}{\Delta p} + \alpha' \left( \frac{\Delta p}{P_{pl}} \right) \frac{\hbar}{P_{pl}} \\
\Delta t &\geq \frac{\hbar}{\Delta E} + \alpha' \left( \frac{\Delta E}{E_p} \right) \frac{\hbar}{E_p}
\end{aligned}
\] (9)

where \( P_{pl} = E_p / c = \sqrt{\hbar c^3 / G} \). Now we consider the thermodynamic uncertainty relations between the inverse temperature and interior energy of a macroscopic ensemble

\[ \Delta \frac{1}{T} \geq \frac{k_B}{\Delta U}, \] (10)
where $k_B$ is the Boltzmann constant.

N. Bohr [12] and W. Heisenberg [13] first pointed out that such kind of uncertainty principle should take place in thermodynamics. The thermodynamic uncertainty relations (10) were proved by many authors and in various ways [14]–[19]. Therefore their validity does raise no doubts. Nevertheless, relation (10) was proved in view of the standard model of the infinite-capacity heat bath encompassing the ensemble. But it is obvious from the above inequalities that at very high energies the capacity of the heat bath can no longer be assumed infinite at the Planck scale. Indeed, the total energy of the pair heat bath-ensemble may be arbitrary large but finite, merely as the Universe was born at a finite energy. Hence the quantity that can be interpreted as the temperature of the ensemble must have the upper limit and so does its main quadratic deviation. In other words, the quantity $\Delta (1/T)$ must be bounded from below. But in this case an additional term should be introduced into (10)

$$\Delta \frac{1}{T} \geq \frac{k_B}{\Delta U} + \eta \Delta U$$

where $\eta$ is a coefficient. Dimension and symmetry reasons give

$$\eta \sim \frac{k_B}{E_p^2} \quad \text{or} \quad \eta = \alpha \frac{k_B}{E_p^2}$$

As in the previous cases, inequality (11) leads to the fundamental (inverse) temperature

$$T_{\text{max}} = \frac{\hbar}{2\sqrt{\alpha' t_p k_B}} = \frac{E_p}{2\sqrt{\alpha' k_B}} = \frac{T_p}{2\sqrt{\alpha' t_p k_B}} = \frac{\hbar}{t_{\text{min}} k_B},$$

$$\beta_{\text{min}} = \frac{1}{k_B T_{\text{max}}} = \frac{t_{\text{min}}}{\hbar}.$$ (13)

In the work [32] the black hole horizon temperature has been measured with the use of the Gedanken experiment. In the process the Generalized Uncertainty Relations in Thermodynamics (11) have been derived also. Expression (11) has been considered in the monograph [33] within the scope of the mathematical physics methods.

Thus, we obtain a system of the generalized uncertainty relations in the symmetric form

$$\begin{align*}
\Delta x & \geq \frac{\hbar}{\Delta p} + \alpha' \left( \frac{\Delta p}{E_p^2} \right) \frac{\hbar}{E_p^2} + ... \\
\Delta t & \geq \frac{\hbar}{\Delta E} + \alpha' \left( \frac{\Delta E}{E_p} \right) \frac{\hbar}{E_p} + ... \\
\Delta \frac{1}{T} & \geq \frac{k_B}{\Delta U} + \alpha' \left( \frac{\Delta U}{E_p} \right) \frac{k_B}{E_p} + ...
\end{align*}$$

or in the equivalent form
\begin{align}
\Delta x & \geq \frac{\hbar}{\Delta p} + \alpha' l_p^2 \frac{\Delta p}{\hbar} + ... \\
\Delta t & \geq \frac{\hbar}{\Delta E} + \alpha' l_p^2 \frac{\Delta E}{\hbar} + ... \\
\Delta \frac{1}{T} & \geq \frac{k_B}{\Delta U} + \alpha' \frac{1}{T_p^2} \frac{\Delta U}{k_B} + ... ,
\end{align}

where the dots mean the existence of higher order corrections as in [34]. Here $T_p$ is the Planck temperature: $T_p = E_p/k_B$.

In literature the relation (10) is referred to as the Uncertainty Principle in Thermodynamics (UPT). Let us call the relation (11) the Generalized Uncertainty Principle in Thermodynamics (GUPT).

In this case, without the loss of generality and for symmetry, it is assumed that a dimensionless constant in the right-hand side of GUP (formula (3)) and in the right-hand side of GUPT (formula (11)) is the same $- \alpha'$.

2.2 Minimal Length and Measurability Notion in Quantum Theory

First, we consider in this Subsection the principal definitions from [1],[2] which are required to derive the key formulae in the second part of the Subsection and to obtain further results.

**Definition I.** Let us call as **primarily measurable variation** any small variation (increment) $\Delta x_\mu$ of any spatial coordinate $x_\mu$ of the arbitrary point $x_\mu, \mu = 1, ..., 3$ in some space-time system $R$ if it may be realized in the form of the uncertainty (standard deviation) $\Delta x_\mu$ when this coordinate is measured within the scope of Heisenberg’s Uncertainty Principle (HUP) [11] (formula (2) in the general case):

$$\Delta x_\mu = \Delta x_\mu, \Delta x_\mu \simeq \frac{\hbar}{\Delta p_\mu}, \mu = 1, 2, 3$$

for some $\Delta p_\mu \neq 0$.

Similarly, at $\mu = 0$ for pair “time-energy” ($t, E$), let us call any small variation (increment) the **primarily measurable variation** in the value of time $t_0 = \Delta t_0$ if it may be realized in the form of the uncertainty (standard deviation) $\Delta x_0 = \Delta t$ and then

$$\Delta t = \Delta t, \Delta t \simeq \frac{\hbar}{\Delta E}$$

for some $\Delta E \neq 0$. Formula (17) is nothing else but as formula (7) for $\Delta E \ll E_p$.

Here HUP is given for the nonrelativistic case. In the relativistic case HUP has the distinctive features [35] which, however, are of no significance for the general formulation of **Definition I.**, being associated only with particular alterations in the right-hand side
It is clear that at low energies $E \ll E_P$ (momenta $P \ll P_{pl}$) **Definition I.** sets a lower bound for the *primarily measurable variation* $\Delta x_\mu$ of any space-time coordinate $x_\mu$. At high energies $E$ (momenta $P$) this is not the case if $E$ ($P$) has no upper limit. But, according to the modern knowledge, $E$ ($P$) is bounded by some maximal quantities $E_{\text{max}}$, ($P_{\text{max}}$)

$$E \leq E_{\text{max}}, \quad P \leq P_{\text{max}},$$

where, in general, $E_{\text{max}}, P_{\text{max}}$ may be on the order of the Planck quantities $E_{\text{max}} \propto E_P, P_{\text{max}} \propto P_{pl}$ and also may be the trans-Planck’s quantities.

In any case the quantities $P_{\text{max}}$ and $E_{\text{max}}$ lead to the introduction of the minimal length $l_{\text{min}}$ and of the minimal time $t_{\text{min}}$.

**Supposition II.** There is the minimal length $l_{\text{min}}$ as a *minimal measurement unit* for all *primarily measurable variations* having the dimension of length, whereas the minimal time $t_{\text{min}} = l_{\text{min}}/c$ as a *minimal measurement unit* for all quantities or *primarily measurable variations* (increments) having the dimension of time, where $c$ is the speed of light.

$l_{\text{min}}$ and $t_{\text{min}}$ are naturally introduced as $\Delta x_\mu, \mu = 1, 2, 3$ and $\Delta t$ in Equations (16) and (17) for $\Delta p_\mu = P_{\text{max}}$ and $\Delta E = E_{\text{max}}$.

For definiteness, we consider that $E_{\text{max}}$ and $P_{\text{max}}$ are the quantities on the order of the Planck quantities, then $l_{\text{min}}$ and $t_{\text{min}}$ are also on the order of the Planck quantities $l_{\text{min}} \propto l_P$, $t_{\text{min}} \propto t_P$.

**Definition I.** and **Supposition II.** are quite natural in the sense that there are no physical principles with which they are inconsistent.

The combination of **Definition I.** and **Supposition II.** will be called the **Principle of Bounded Primarily Measurable Space-Time Variations (Increments)** or for short **Principle of Bounded Space-Time Variations (Increments)** with abbreviation (PBSTV).

As the minimal unit of measurement $l_{\text{min}}$ is available for all the *primarily measurable variations* $\Delta L$ having the dimensions of length, the “Integrality Condition” (IC) is the case

$$\Delta L = N_{\Delta L} l_{\text{min}},$$

where $N_{\Delta L} > 0$ is an integer number.

In a like manner, the same “Integrality Condition” (IC) is the case for all the *primarily measurable variations* $\Delta t$ having the dimensions of time. And similar to Equation (19), we get the following expression for any time $\Delta t$

$$\Delta t \equiv \Delta t(N_t) = N_{\Delta t} t_{\text{min}},$$

where similarly $N_{\Delta t} > 0$ is an integer number too.

**Definition 1 (Primary or Elementary Measurability.)**

(1) *In accordance with the PBSTV, let us define the quantity having the dimensions of length or time as primarily (or elementarily) measurable, when it satisfies the*
relation Equation (19) (and respectively Equation (20)).

(2) Let us define any physical quantity **primarily (or elementarily) measurable, when its value is consistent with points (1) of this Definition.**

It is convenient to use the deformation parameter \( a \). This parameter has been introduced earlier in the papers [36],[10],[37]–[40] as a **deformation parameter** (in terms of paper [41]) on going from the canonical quantum mechanics to the quantum mechanics at Planck’s scales (Early Universe) that is considered to be the quantum mechanics with the minimal length (QMML):

\[
\alpha_a = \frac{l^2_{\text{min}}}{a^2},
\]

where \( a \) is the measuring scale. It is easily seen that the parameter \( \alpha_a \) from Equation (21) is discrete as it is nothing else but

\[
\alpha_a = \frac{l^2_{\text{min}}}{a^2} = \frac{l^2_{\text{min}}}{N_a^2 l^2_{\text{min}}} = \frac{1}{N_a^2}.
\]

At the same time, from Equation (22) it is evident that \( \alpha_a \) is irregularly discrete.

It should be noted that physical quantities complying with **Definition 1** are inadequate for the research of physical systems.

Indeed, such a variable as

\[
\alpha_{N_a l_{\text{min}}} (N_a l_{\text{min}}) = p(N_a) \frac{l^2_{\text{min}}}{\hbar} = l_{\text{min}}/N_a,
\]

where \( \alpha_{N_a l_{\text{min}}} = \alpha_a \) is taken from formula (22 at \( a = N_a l_{\text{min}} \), and \( p(N_a) = \frac{\hbar}{N_a l_{\text{min}}} \) is the corresponding **primarily measurable** momentum), is fully expressed in terms of only **Primarily Measurable Quantities** of **Definition 1** and that’s why it hence may appear at any stage of calculations, but apparently does not complying with **Definition 1**. Because of this it is necessary to introduce the following definition generalizing **Definition 1**:  

**Definition 2. Generalized Measurability**

We shall call any physical quantity as **generalized-measurable** or for simplicity **measurable** if any of its values may be obtained in terms of **Primarily Measurable Quantities** of **Definition 1**.

In what follows, for simplicity, we will use the term *Measurability* instead of *Generalized Measurability*.

It is evident that any **primarily measurable quantity** (PMQ) is measurable. Generally speaking, the contrary is not correct as indicated by formula (23).

The **generalized-measurable** quantities follow from the **Generalized Uncertainty Principle (GUP)** (formula (3)) that naturally leads to the minimal length \( l_{\text{min}} \) [20]–[31]:

\[
\Delta x_{\text{min}} = 2\sqrt{\alpha' l_p} \doteq l_{\text{min}},
\]

\( \Delta x_{\text{min}} \) being the **primarily measurable** uncertainty of \( x \).
For convenience, we denote the minimal length \( l_{\text{min}} \neq 0 \) by \( \ell \) and \( t_{\text{min}} \neq 0 \) by \( \tau = \ell/c \).

Solving inequality (3), in the case of equality we obtain the apparent formula

\[
\Delta p = \frac{\sqrt{(\Delta x)^2 - 4\alpha^2 l_p^2}}{2\alpha^2 l_p^2} \hbar. \tag{25}
\]

Next, into this formula we substitute the right-hand part of formula (19) for \( L = x \). Considering (24), we can derive the following:

\[
\Delta p = \frac{2\hbar}{N(\Delta x) + \sqrt{N^2_{\Delta x} - 1}} \ell. \tag{26}
\]

But it is evident that at low energies \( E \ll E_p; N_{\Delta x} \gg 1 \) the plus sign in the nominator (26) leads to the contradiction as it results in very high (much greater than the Planck) values of \( \Delta p \). Because of this, it is necessary to select the minus sign in the numerator (26). Then, multiplying the left and right sides of (26) by the same number \( N(\Delta x) \), we get

\[
\Delta p = \frac{2\hbar}{N(\Delta x) + \sqrt{N^2_{\Delta x} - 1}} \ell. \tag{27}
\]

\( \Delta p \) from formula (27) is the \textit{generalized-measurable} quantity in the sense of \textbf{Definition 2}. However, it is clear that at low energies \( E \ll E_p \), i.e. for \( N_{\Delta x} \gg 1 \), we have \( \sqrt{N^2_{\Delta x} - 1} \approx N_{\Delta x} \). Moreover, we have

\[
\lim_{N_{\Delta x} \to \infty} \sqrt{N^2_{\Delta x} - 1} = N_{\Delta x}. \tag{28}
\]

Therefore, in this case (27) may be written as follows:

\[
\Delta p \doteq \Delta p(N_{\Delta x}, HUP) = \frac{\hbar}{1/2(N_{\Delta x} + \sqrt{N^2_{\Delta x} - 1}) \ell} \approx \frac{\hbar}{N_{\Delta x} \ell} = \frac{\hbar}{\Delta x}; N_{\Delta x} \gg 1, \tag{29}
\]

in complete conformity with HUP. Besides, \( \Delta p \doteq \Delta p(N_{\Delta x}, HUP) \), to a high accuracy, is a \textit{primarily measurable} quantity in the sense of \textbf{Definition 1}.

And vice versa it is obvious that at high energies \( E \approx E_p \), i.e. for \( N_{\Delta x} \approx 1 \), there is no way to transform formula (27) and we can write

\[
\Delta p \doteq \Delta p(N_{\Delta x}, GUP) = \frac{\hbar}{1/2(N_{\Delta x} + \sqrt{N^2_{\Delta x} - 1}) \ell}; N_{\Delta x} \approx 1. \tag{30}
\]

At the same time, \( \Delta p \doteq \Delta p(N_{\Delta x}, GUP) \) is a \textbf{Generalized Measurable} quantity in the sense of \textbf{Definition 2}.

Thus, we have

\[
GUP \to HUP \tag{31}
\]
for

\[(N_{\Delta x} \approx 1) \rightarrow (N_{\Delta x} \gg 1).\]  

(32)

Also, we have

\[\Delta p(N_{\Delta x}, \text{GUP}) \rightarrow \Delta p(N_{\Delta x}, \text{HUP}),\]  

(33)

where \(\Delta p(N_{\Delta x}, \text{GUP})\) is taken from formula (30), whereas \(\Delta p(N_{\Delta x}, \text{HUP})\) – from formula (29).

**Comment 2*. 
From the above formulae it follows that, within GUP, the primarily measurable variations (quantities) are derived to a high accuracy from the generalized-measurable variations (quantities) only in the low-energy limit \(E \ll E_p\).

Next, within the scope of GUP, we can correct a value of the parameter \(\alpha_a\) from formula (22) substituting \(a\) for \(\Delta x\) in the expression \(1/2(N_{\Delta x} + \sqrt{N_{\Delta x}^2 - 1})\ell\).

Then at low energies \(E \ll E_p\) we have the primarily measurable quantity \(\alpha_a(\text{HUP})\)

\[\alpha_a \doteq \alpha_a(\text{HUP}) = \frac{1}{[1/2(N_a + \sqrt{N_a^2 - 1})]^2} \approx \frac{1}{N_a^2}; N_a \gg 1,\]  

(34)

that corresponds, to a high accuracy, to the value from formula (22).

Accordingly, at high energies we have \(E \approx E_p\)

\[\alpha_a \doteq \alpha_a(\text{GUP}) = \frac{1}{[1/2(N_a + \sqrt{N_a^2 - 1})]^2}; N_a \approx 1.\]  

(35)

When going from high energies \(E \approx E_p\) to low energies \(E \ll E_p\), we can write

\[\alpha_a(\text{GUP}) \xrightarrow{(N_a \approx 1) \rightarrow (N_a \gg 1)} \alpha_a(\text{HUP})\]  

(36)

in complete conformity to Comment 2*.

2.3 Minimal Inverse Temperature and Measurability

Now, let us return to the thermodynamic relation (11) in the case of equality:

\[\Delta \frac{1}{T} = \frac{k_B}{\Delta U} + \eta \Delta U,\]  

(37)

that is equivalent to the quadratic equation

\[\eta (\Delta U)^2 - \Delta \frac{1}{T} \Delta U + k_B = 0.\]  

(38)

The discriminant of this equation, with due regard for formula (12), is equal to

\[D = (\Delta \frac{1}{T})^2 - 4\eta k_B = (\Delta \frac{1}{T})^2 - 4\alpha' \frac{k_B^2}{E_p^2} \geq 0,\]  

(39)
leading directly to \((\Delta \frac{1}{T})_{min}\)

\[
(\Delta \frac{1}{T})_{min} = 2\sqrt{\alpha'} \frac{k_B}{E_p}
\]  
(40)

or, due to the fact that \(k_B\) is constant, we have

\[
(\Delta \frac{1}{k_B T})_{min} = \frac{2\sqrt{\alpha'}}{E_p}.
\]  
(41)

It is clear that \((\Delta \frac{1}{T})_{min}\) corresponds to \(T_{max}\) from formula (13)

\[
T_{max} \approx T_p \gg 0.
\]  
(42)

In this case \(\Delta \frac{1}{T} \approx \frac{1}{T}\) and, of course, we can assume that

\[
(\frac{1}{T})_{min} \doteq \frac{1}{T_{max}} = \frac{1}{T_{max}}.
\]  
(43)

Trying to find from formula (43) a minimal unit of measurability for the inverse temperature and introducing the “Integrality Condition” (IC) in line with the conditions (19),(20)

\[
\frac{1}{T} = N_{1/T} \tau,
\]  
(44)

where \(N_{1/T} > 0\) is an integer number, we can introduce an analog of the primary measurability notion into thermodynamics.

**Definition 3 (Primary Thermodynamic Measurability)**

1. Let us define a quantity having the dimensions of inverse temperature as primarily measurable when it satisfies the relation (44).
2. Let us define any physical quantity in thermodynamics as primarily measurable when its value is consistent with point (1) of this Definition.

**Definition 3** in thermodynamics is analogous to the Primary Measurability in a quantum theory (Definition 1).

Now we consider the quadratic equation (38) in terms of measurable quantities in the sense of Definition 3. In accordance with this definition and with formula (44) \(\Delta (1/T)\), we can write

\[
\Delta \frac{1}{T} = N_{\Delta (1/T)} \tau,
\]  
(45)

where \(N_{\Delta (1/T)} > 0\) is an integer number.

The quadratic equation (38) takes the following form:

\[
\eta (\Delta U)^2 - N_{\Delta (1/T)} \tau \Delta U + k_B = 0.
\]  
(46)
Then, due to formula (41), we can find the "measurable" roots of equation (46) for $\Delta U$ as follows:

$$(\Delta U)_{\text{meas},\pm} = \frac{[N_{\Delta(1/T)} \pm \sqrt{N_{\Delta(1/T)}^2 - 1}]\tau}{2\hbar} = \frac{2k_B[N_{\Delta(1/T)} \pm \sqrt{N_{\Delta(1/T)}^2 - 1}]\tau}{\tau^2} = \frac{2k_B[N_{\Delta(1/T)} \pm \sqrt{N_{\Delta(1/T)}^2 - 1}]}{\tau}. \quad (47)$$

The last line in (47) is associated with the obvious relation $2\hbar = \frac{\tau^2}{2k_B}$.

In this way we derive a complete analog of the corresponding relation (26) from a quantum theory by replacement

$$\Delta p \Rightarrow \Delta U_{\text{meas,}\pm}; N_{\Delta x} \Rightarrow N_{\Delta(1/T)}; \hbar \Rightarrow k_B. \quad (48)$$

As, for low temperatures and energies, $T \ll T_{\text{max}} \propto T_p$, we have $1/T \gg 1/T_p$ and hence $\Delta(1/T) \gg 1/T_p$ and $N_{\Delta(1/T)} \gg 1$.

Next, in analogy with Subsection 2.2, in formula (47) we can have only the minus-sign root, otherwise, at sufficiently high $N_{\Delta(1/T)} \gg 1$ for $(\Delta U)_{\text{meas,}+}$ we can get $(\Delta U)_{\text{meas,}+} \gg E_p$. But this is impossible for low temperatures (energies).

On the contrary, the minus sign in (47) is consistent with high and low energies.

So, taking the root value in (47) corresponding to this sign and multiplying the nominator and denominator in (47) by $N_{\Delta(1/T)} + \sqrt{N_{\Delta(1/T)}^2 - 1}$, we obtain

$$(\Delta U)_{\text{meas}} = \frac{2k_B}{(N_{\Delta(1/T)} + \sqrt{N_{\Delta(1/T)}^2 - 1})\tau}. \quad (49)$$

to have a complete analog of the corresponding relation from (27) in a quantum theory by substitution according to formula (48).

Then it is clear that, in analogy with Subsection 2.2, for low energies and temperatures $N_{\Delta(1/T)} \gg 1$ (49) may be rewritten as

$$(\Delta U)_{\text{meas}} \doteq (\Delta U)_{\text{meas}}(T \ll T_{\text{max}}) = \frac{2k_B}{(N_{\Delta(1/T)} + \sqrt{N_{\Delta(1/T)}^2 - 1})\tau} \approx \frac{k_B}{N_{\Delta(1/T)}\tau}, N_{\Delta(1/T)} \gg 1, \quad (50)$$

i.e. the Uncertainty Principle in Thermodynamics (UPT, formula (10)) is involved. In this case, due to the last formula, $\Delta U_{\text{meas}}$ represents a primarily measurable thermodynamic quantity in the sense of Definition 3 to a high accuracy.
Of course, at high energies the last term in the formula (50) is lacking and, for \( T \approx T_{\text{max}} \); \( N_{\Delta(1/T)} \approx 1 \), we have:

\[
(\Delta U)_{\text{meas}} - (\Delta U)_{\text{meas}}(T \approx T_{\text{max}}) = \frac{k_B}{1/2(N_{\Delta(1/T)} + \sqrt{N_{\Delta(1/T)}^2 - 1})},
\]

\[
N_{\Delta(1/T)} \approx 1.
\] (51)

From (51) it follows that at high temperatures (energies) \( (\Delta U)_{\text{meas}} \) could hardly be a primarily measurable thermodynamic quantity. Because of this, it is expedient to use a counterpart of Definition 2.

**Definition 4. Generalized Measurability in Thermodynamics**

Any physical quantity in thermodynamics may be referred to as generalized-measurable or, for simplicity, measurable if any of its values may be obtained in terms of the Primary Thermodynamic Measurability of Definition 3.

In this way \((\Delta U)_{\text{meas}}\) from the formula (51) is a measurable quantity.

Based on the preceding formulae, it is clear that we have the limiting transition

\[
(\Delta U)_{\text{meas}}(T \approx T_{\text{max}}) \xrightarrow{(N_{\Delta(1/T)} \approx 1)} (\Delta U)_{\text{meas}}(T \ll T_{\text{max}} \propto T_p),
\] (52)

that is analogous to the corresponding formula (36) in a quantum theory.

Therefore, in this case the analog of Comment 2* in Subsection 2.2 is valid.

**Comment 2* Thermodynamics**

From the above formulae it follows that, within GUPT (11), the primarily measurable variations (quantities) are derived, to a high accuracy, from the generalized-measurable variations (quantities) only in the low-temperature limit \( T \ll T_{\text{max}} \propto T_p \).

To conclude this Section, it seems logical to make several important remarks.

**R2.1** It is obvious that all the calculations associated with measurability of inverse temperature \( 1/T \) are valid for \( \beta = \frac{1}{k_B T} \) as well. Specifically, introducing \( \beta_{\text{min}} = \frac{\tilde{\tau}}{k_B} \), we can rewrite all the corresponding formulae in the "measurable" variant with appropriate replacement.

**R2.2.** Naturally, the problem of compatibility between the measurability definitions in quantum theory and in thermodynamics arises: is there any contradiction between Definition 1 from Subsection 2.2 and Definitions 3 from Subsection 2.3?

On the basis of the formulae (13) from Subsection 2.1 and (43) from Subsection 2.3 we can state:

measurability in quantum theory and thermodynamic measurability are completely compatible and consistent as the minimal unit of inverse temperature \( \tilde{\tau} \) is nothing else but the minimal time \( t_{\text{min}} = \tau \) up to a constant factor. And hence \( N_{1/T}, (N_{\Delta(1/T)}) \) is nothing else but \( N_1, (N_{\Delta}) \) in (20). Then it is clear that \( N_1 = N_{a=t_c} \).
Finally, from the above formulae (50), (51) it follows that the measurable temperature $T$ is varying as follows:

$$T = \frac{T_{\text{max}}}{N_{1/T}}, T \ll T_{\text{max}} / T_p, N_{1/T} \gg 1;$$

$$T = \frac{T_{\text{max}}}{1/2(N_{1/T} + \sqrt{N_{1/T}^2 - 1})}, T \approx T_{\text{max}} / T_p, N_{1/T} \approx 1. \quad (53)$$

In such a way measurable temperature is a discrete quantity but at low energies it is almost constantly varying, so the theoretical calculations are very similar to those of the well-known continuous theory. In the reality, discreteness manifests itself in the case of high energies only.

### 3 Black Holes and Measurability

Now let us show the applicability of the results from Section 2 to a quantum theory of black holes. Consider the case of Schwarzschild black hole. It seems logical to support the idea suggested in the Introduction to the recent overview presented by seven authors [42]: “Since for (asymptotically flat Schwarzschild) black holes the temperatures increase as their masses decrease, soon after Hawkings discovery, it became clear that a complete description of the evaporation process would ultimately require a consistent quantum theory of gravity. This is necessary as the semiclassical formulation of the emission process breaks down during the final stages of the evaporation as characterized by Planckian values of the temperature and spacetime curvature”. Naturally, it is important to study the transition from low to high energies in the indicated case.

In this Section consideration is given to gravitational dynamics at low $E \ll E_p$ and at high $E \approx E_p$ energies in the case of the Schwarzschild black hole and in a more general case of the space with static spherically-symmetric horizon in space-time in terms of measurable quantities from the previous Section.

It should be noted that such spaces and even considerably more general cases have been thoroughly studied from the viewpoint of gravitational thermodynamics in remarkable works of professor T.Padmanbhan [43]–[54] (the list of references may be much longer). First, the author has studied the above-mentioned case in [55] and from the suggested viewpoint in [1]. But, proceeding from Section 2 of the present paper, it is possible to extend the results from [1].

In what follows we use the symbols from [54] which have been also used in [1]. The case of a static spherically-symmetric horizon in space-time is considered, the horizon being described by the metric

$$ds^2 = -f(r)c^2 dt^2 + f^{-1}(r)dr^2 + r^2d\Omega^2. \quad (54)$$

The horizon location will be given by a simple zero of the function $f(r)$, at the radius $r = a$. 
Then at the horizon \( r = a \) Einstein’s field equations ([54], eq.(117)) take the form

\[
\frac{c^4}{G} \left[ \frac{1}{2} f'(a)a - \frac{1}{2} \right] = 4\pi P a^2
\]  

(55)

where \( P = T_r \) is the trace of the momentum-energy tensor and radial pressure. Therewith, the condition \( f(a) = 0 \) and \( f'(a) \neq 0 \) must be fulfilled.

On the other hand, it is known that for horizon spaces one can introduce the temperature that can be identified with an analytic continuation to imaginary time. In the case under consideration ([54], eq.(116))

\[ k_B T = \frac{\hbar c f'(a)}{4\pi} \]  

(56)

In [54] it is shown that in the initial (continuous) theory the Einstein Equation for horizon spaces in the differential form may be written as a thermodynamic identity (the first principle of thermodynamics) ([54], formula (119)):

\[
\frac{\hbar c f'(a)}{4\pi} \frac{c^3}{G \hbar} d \left( \frac{1}{4} 4\pi a^2 \right) - \frac{1}{2} \frac{c^4 da}{G} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{dE}{dS} = P d \left( \frac{4\pi}{3} a^3 \right)
\]  

(57)

where, as noted above, \( T \) – temperature of the horizon surface, \( S \) – corresponding entropy, \( E \) – internal energy, \( V \) – space volume.

It is impossible to use (57) in the formalism under consideration because, as follows from the results given in the previous section and in [1], \( da, dS, dE, dV \) are not measurable quantities.

First, we assume that a value of the radius \( r \) at the point \( a \) is a primarily measurable quantity in the sense of Definition 1 from Subsection 2.2., i.e. \( a = a_{\text{meas}} = N_a \ell \), where \( N_a > 0 \) - integer, and the temperature \( T \) from the left-hand side of (56) is the measurable temperature \( T = T_{\text{meas}} \) in the sense of Definition 3 from Subsection 2.2.3.

Then, in terms of measurable quantities, first we can rewrite (55) as

\[
\frac{c^4}{G} \left[ \frac{2\pi k_B T}{\hbar c} a_{\text{meas}} - \frac{1}{2} \right] = 4\pi P a_{\text{meas}}^2.
\]  

(58)

We express \( a = a_{\text{meas}} \) in terms of the deformation parameter \( \alpha_a \) (formula (21)) as

\[ a = \ell \alpha_a^{-1/2}; \]  

(59)

the temperature \( T \) is expressed in terms of \( T_{\text{max}} \propto T_p \) from (53).

Then, considering that \( T_p = E_p/k_B \), equation (58) may be given as

\[
\frac{c^4}{G} \left[ \frac{\pi E_p}{\sqrt{\alpha' N_{1/T}} \hbar c} \ell \alpha_a^{1/2} - \frac{1}{2} \alpha_a \right] = 4\pi P \ell^2.
\]  

(60)

Because \( \ell = 2\sqrt{\alpha' l_p} \) and \( l_p = \frac{\hbar c}{E_p} \), we have

\[
\frac{c^4}{G} \left[ \frac{2\pi E_p}{N_{1/T} \hbar c} l_p \alpha_a^{1/2} - \frac{1}{2} \alpha_a \right] = \frac{c^4}{G} \left[ \frac{2\pi}{N_{1/T}} \alpha_a^{1/2} - \frac{1}{2} \alpha_a \right] = 4\pi P \ell^2.
\]  

(61)
Note that in its initial form \[54\] the equation (55) has been considered in a continuous theory, i.e. at low energies \(E \ll E_p\). Consequently, in the present formalism it is implicitly meant that the "measurable counterpart" of equation (55) – (58) (or the same (60),(61)) is also initially considered at low energies, in particular, \(N_a \gg 1, N_{1/T} \gg 1\).

Let us consider the possibility of generalizing (60),(61) to high energies taking two different cases.

3.1. Measurable case for low energies: \(E \ll E_p\). Due to formula (29), \(a = a_{\text{meas}} = N_a \ell\), where the integer number is \(N_a \gg 1\) or similarly \(N_{1/T} \gg 1\). In this case GUP, to a high accuracy, is extended to HUP (formula (31),(32)).

As this takes place, \(\alpha_a = \alpha_a(HUP)\) is a primarily measurable quantity (Definition 1), \(\alpha_a \approx N_a^{-2}\), though taking a discrete series of values but varying smoothly, in fact continuously. (60) is a quadratic equation with respect to \(\alpha_a^{1/2} \approx N_a^{-1}\) having the two parameters \(N_{1/T}\) and \(P\). In this terms, the equation (61) may be rewritten as

\[
\frac{\ell^4}{G} \left[ \frac{2\pi}{N_{1/T}} \alpha_a^{1/2}(HUP) - \frac{1}{2} \alpha_a(HUP) \right] = 4\pi P \ell^2. \tag{62}
\]

So, at low energies the equation (61) (or (62)) written for the discretely-varying \(\alpha_a\) may be considered in a continuous theory.

As a result, in the case under study we can use the basic formulae from a continuous theory considering them valid to a high accuracy.

In particular, in the notation used for Schwarzschild’s black hole [56], we have

\[
\begin{align*}
    r_s &= N_a \ell = \frac{2GM}{c^2}; \\
    M &= \frac{N_a \ell c^2}{2G}. \tag{63}
\end{align*}
\]

As its temperature is given by the formula

\[
T_H = \frac{\hbar c^3}{8\pi GMk_B}, \tag{64}
\]

at once we get

\[
T_H = \frac{\hbar c}{4\pi k_B N_a \ell} = \frac{\hbar \alpha_a^{1/2}}{4\pi k_B \ell}. \tag{65}
\]

Comparing this expression to the expression with high \(N_{1/T}\) (\(N_{1/T} \gg 1\)) for temperature from the equation (53) that is involved in (58), we can find that at low energies \(E \ll E_p\), due to comment R2.2. from Subsection 2.3, the number \(N_{1/T}\) is actually coincident with the number \(N_a\):

\[
N_{1/T} = N_a = \alpha_a^{-1/2}(HUP). \tag{66}
\]

The substitution of the last expression from formula (65) into the quadratic equation (60) for \(\alpha_a^{1/2}\) makes it a linear equation for \(\alpha_a\) with a single parameter \(P\).

3.2. Measurable case for high energies:: \(E \approx E_p\). Then, due to (30), \(a\) is the generalized
measurable quantity \( a = a_{meas} = 1/2(N_a + \sqrt{N_a^2 - 1})\ell \), with the integer \( N_a \approx 1 \).

The quantity

\[
\Delta a_{meas}(q) = 1/2(N_a + \sqrt{N_a^2 - 1})\ell - N_a\ell = 1/2(\sqrt{N_a^2 - 1} - N_a)\ell
\]  

(67)

may be considered as a quantum correction for the measurable radius \( r = a_{meas} \), that is infinitesimal at low energies \( E \ll E_p \) and not infinitesimal for high energies \( E \approx E_p \).

In this case there is no possibility to replace GUP by HUP. In equation (60) \( \alpha_a = \alpha_a(GUP) \) is a generalized measurable quantity (Definition 2).

As noted in formula (53) of Comment R2.3, in this case the number \( N_{1/T} \) in equation (61) is replaced by \( 1/2(N_{1/T} + \sqrt{N_{1/T}^2 - 1}) \), i.e. the equation is of the form

\[
\frac{e^4}{G} 1/2(N_{1/T} + \sqrt{N_{1/T}^2 - 1}) \alpha_a^{1/2}(GUP) - \frac{1}{2} \alpha_a(GUP) = 4\pi P\ell^2. 
\]  

(68)

In so doing the theory becomes really discrete, and the solutions of (68) take a discrete series of values for every \( N_a \) or \( (a_a(GUP)) \) sufficiently close to 1.

In this formalism for a ”quantum” Schwarzschild black hole (i.e. at high energies \( E \approx E_p \)) formula (65) is replaced by

\[
T_H(Q) = \frac{hc}{4\pi k_B 1/2(N_a + \sqrt{N_a^2 - 1})\ell} = \frac{hc\alpha_a^{1/2}(GUP)}{4\pi k_B \ell}. 
\]  

(69)

We should make several remarks which are important.

**Remark 3.3.**

As noted in [1], the parameter \( \alpha_a = \alpha_a(HUP) \), within constant factors, is coincident with the Gaussian curvature \( K_a \) [57] corresponding to primary measurable \( a = N_a\ell \):

\[
\alpha_a = \frac{\ell^2}{a^2} = \ell^2 K_a. 
\]  

(70)

Because of this, the transition from \( \alpha_a(HUP) \) to \( \alpha_a(GUP) \) may be considered as a basis for ”quantum corrections” to the Gaussian curvature \( K_a \) in the high-energy region \( E \approx E_p \):  

\[
\alpha_a(GUP) - \alpha_a(HUP) = \ell^2 \left[ \frac{1}{1/4(N_a + \sqrt{N_a^2 - 1})^2\ell^2} - \frac{1}{N_a^2\ell^2} \right] = \ell^2(K_a^Q - K_a),
\]  

(71)

where the ”measurable quantum Gaussian curvature ” \( K_a^Q \) is defined as

\[
K_a^Q \equiv \frac{1}{1/4(N_a + \sqrt{N_a^2 - 1})^2\ell^2}. 
\]  

(72)
In a similar way, with the use of formulae (65) and (64), we can derive a "measurable quantum correction" for the mass $M$ of a Schwarzschild black hole at high energies.

**Remark 3.4.**
It is readily seen that a minimal value of $N_a = 1$ is *unattainable* because in formula (30) we can obtain a value of the length $l$ that is below the minimum $l < \ell$ for the momenta and energies above the maximal ones, and that is impossible. Thus, we always have $N_a \geq 2$. This fact was indicated in [36],[10], however, based on the other approach.

**Remark 3.5.** It is clear that we have the following transition:

$$Eq.(68)(E \approx E_p) \xrightarrow{(N_a \approx 1) \rightarrow (N_a \gg 1)} Eq.(62)(E \ll E_p).$$

**Remark 3.6.** So, all the members of the gravitational equation (61) (and (68), respectively), apart from $P$, are expressed in terms of the measurable parameter $\alpha_a$. From this it follows that $P$ should be also expressed in terms of the measurable parameter $\alpha_a$, i.e. $P = P(\alpha_a)$. $E \ll E_p$, $P = P[\alpha_a(HUP)]$ at low energies and $E \approx E_p, P = P[\alpha_a(GUP)]$ at high energies. Then, due to the above formulae, we can have for a "quantum" Schwarzschild black hole the horizon gravitational equation in terms of measurable quantities

$$(4\pi - 1)\frac{c^4}{G}\alpha_a(GUP) = 8\pi P[\alpha_a(GUP)]\ell^2, \quad (73)$$

where $\alpha_a(GUP)$ takes a discrete series of the values $\alpha_a(GUP) = (1/2(N_a + \sqrt{N_a^2 - 1}))^{-2}$; $N_a = 2$ is a small integer.

### 4 Conclusion

Taking a simple case as an example, in this paper the author has successfully expressed almost all of the members in the gravitational equation (excepting $P$) in terms of measurable quantities. In the general case the problem at hand is as follows:

*the formulation of Gravity in terms of measurable quantities and also the derivation of a solution in terms of measurable quantities.*

Proceeding from the results obtained in [1], [2], such a "measurable" Gravity – discrete theory that is practically continuous at low energies $E \ll E_p$ and very close to the Einstein theory, though with some principal differences. By authors opinion, in the low-energy "measurable" variant of Gravity we should have no solutions without physical meaning, specifically Godel’s solution [6].

At high energies $E \approx E_p$ this "measurable" Gravity should be really a discrete theory enabling the transition to the low-energy "measurable" variant of Gravity.

Still it is obvious that, to construct a measurable variant of Gravity at all the energy scales, in the general case we need both the primarily measurable variations $\Delta p(N_{\Delta x}, HUP)$ (formula (29)) and the generalized-measurable variations $\Delta p(N_{\Delta x}, GUP)$
from formula (30). The author believes that such construction should be realized jointly with a construction of a measurable variant for Quantum Theory (QT).

Conflict of Interests

The author declares that there is no conflict of interests regarding the publication of this paper.

References

[1] A.E. Shalyt-Margolin, Adv. in High Energy Phys. 2014, 8(2014).
[2] Alexander Shalyt-Margolin, Entropy 18(3), 80(2016).
[3] G. Amelino-Camelia, Living Rev. Relativ. 16, 5(2013).
[4] M.E. Peskin, D.V. Schroeder, An Introduction to Quantum Field Theory, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1995.
[5] R.M. Wald, General Relativity, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Ill, USA, 1984.
[6] K. Godel, Rev. Mod. Phys. 21, 447(1949).
[7] M. S. Morris, K. S. Thorne, and U. Yurtsever, Phys. Rev. Lett. 61, 1446(1988).
[8] W.B. Bonnor, Int. J. Mod. Phys. D, 12, 1705(2003).
[9] Francisco S. N. Lobo, Closed timelike curves and causality violation, Classical and Quantum Gravity: Theory, Analysis and Applications, chap. 6, (2012), 283–310. Nova Science Publishers.
[10] A.E. Shalyt-Margolin and A.Ya. Tregubovich, Mod. Phys. Lett. A, 19, 71(2004).
[11] W. Heisenberg, Z. Phys. 43, 172(1927). (In German)
[12] N. Bohr, Faraday Lectures pp. 349-384, 376-377 Chemical Society, London (1932)
[13] W. Heisenberg, Der Teil und Das Ganze ch 9 R. Piper, Munchen, 1969.
[14] J. Lindhard, Complementarity between energy and temperature. In: The Lesson of Quantum Theory; Ed. by J. de Boer, E. Dal and O. Ulfbeck North-Holland, Amsterdam 1986.
[15] B. Lavenda, Statistical Physics: a Probabilistic Approach. J. Wiley and Sons, N.Y., 1991.
[16] B. Mandelbrot, IRE Trans. Inform. Theory, IT-2, 190(1956).
[17] L. Rosenfeld In Ergodic theories; Ed. by P. Caldiriola Academic Press, N.Y., 1961.
[18] F. Schlogl, J. Phys. Chem. Solids, 49, 679(1988).
[19] J. Uffink; J. Lith-van Dis, Found. of Phys. 29, 655(1999).
[20] G. A. Veneziano, Europhys. Lett., 2, 199(1986).
[21] D. Amati, M. Ciafaloni and G. A. Veneziano, Phys. Lett. B, 216, 41(1989).
[22] E. Witten, Phys. Today, 49, 24(1996).
[23] R. J. Adler and D. I. Santiago, Mod. Phys. Lett. A, 14, 1371(1999).
[24] D. V. Ahluwalia, Phys. Lett. A, A275, 31(2000).
[25] D.V.Ahluwalia, Mod. Phys. Lett. A, **A17**, 1135(2002).
[26] M. Maggiore, Phys. Lett. B., **319**, 83(1993).
[27] M. Maggiore, Phys. Rev. D., **49**, 2918(1994).
[28] M. Maggiore, Phys. Rev. D., **48**, 65(1993).
[29] S.Capozziello,G.Lambiase and G.Scarpetta, Int. J. Theor. Phys., **39**, 15(2000).
[30] A. Kempf, G. Mangano and R.B. Mann, Phys. Rev. D., **52**, 1108(1995).
[31] K.Nozi and A.Etemadi, Phys. Rev. D., **85**, 104029(2012).
[32] A.Farmany,Acta Phys. Pol. B., **40**, 1569(2009).
[33] R. Carroll, Fluctuations, Information, Gravity and the Quantum Potential. *Fundam. Theor. Phys. 148*, Springer, N.Y., 2006; 454pp.
[34] S.F. Hassan and M.S.Martin Sloth,Nucl.Phys.B., **674**, 434(2003).
[35] V.B. Berestetskii,E.M. Lifshitz,L.P.Pitaevskii, *Relativistic Quantum Theory*, Pergamon, Oxford, UK, 1971.
[36] A.E.Shalyt-Margolin, J.G. Suarez,Int. J. Mod. Phys. D., **12**, 1265(2003).
[37] A.E.Shalyt-Margolin, Mod. Phys. Lett. A., **19**, 391(2004).
[38] A.E.Shalyt-Margolin, Mod. Phys. Lett. A., **19**, 2037(2004).
[39] A.E.Shalyt-Margolin, Int. J. Mod. Phys. D., **13**, 853(2004).
[40] A.E.Shalyt-Margolin, Int. J. Mod. Phys. A., **20**, 4951(2005).
[41] L.Faddeev,Priroda, **5**, 11(1989).
[42] Gerard t Hooft, Steven B. Giddings, Carlo Rovelli, Piero Nicolini, Jonas Mureika, Matthias Kaminski, and Marcus Bleicher, The Good, the Bad, and the Ugly of Gravity and Information, [arXiv:1609.01725v1 [hep-th] 6 Sep 2016]
[43] T. Padmanabhan, Class.Quant.Grav., **19**, 5387(2002).
[44] T. Padmanabhan, International Journal of Modern Physics D., **14**, 2263(2005).
[45] T. Padmanabhan, General Relativity and Gravitation,**34**, 2029(2002).
[46] T. Padmanabhan, Brazilian Journal of Physics,**35**, 362(2005).
[47] T. Padmanabhan,International Journal of Modern Physics D.,**15**, 1659(2006).
[48] A. Mukhopadhyay and T. Padmanabhan, Physical Review D., **74**, ID 124023(2006).
[49] T. Padmanabhan, General Relativity and Gravitation,**40**, 529(2008).
[50] T. Padmanabhan and A. Paranjape, Physical Review D, **75**, ID 064004(2007).
[51] T. Padmanabhan, AIP Conference Proceedings,**939**, 114(2007).
[52] T. Padmanabhan, Physics Reports,**406**, 49(2005).
[53] A. Paranjape, S. Sarkar, and T. Padmanabhan, Physical Review D,**74**, ID 104015(2006).
[54] T. Padmanabhan, Reports on Progress in Physics,**74**, ID 046901(2010).
[55] A. E. Shalyt-Margolin, International Journal of Modern Physics D, 21, ID 1250013(2012).

[56] Valery P. Frolov and Igor D. Novikov, *Black Hole Physics: Basic Concepts and New Developments*, Springer-Verlag, 1998.

[57] S. Kobayashi, K. Nomizu, *Foundations of Differential Geometry*, V. II, Interscience Publishers, New York-London-Sydney 1969.