Generalized Bekenstein-Hawking System : Logarithmic Correction

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The present work is a generalization of the recent work [arXiv.no.1206.1420] on the modified Hawking temperature on the event horizon. Here the Hawking temperature is generalized by multiplying the modified Hawking temperature by a variable parameter \( \alpha \) representing the ratio of the growth rate of the apparent horizon to that of event horizon. It is found that both the first and the generalized second law of thermodynamics are valid on the event horizon for any fluid distribution. Subsequently, Bekenstein entropy is modified on the event horizon and thermodynamical laws are examined. Finally, interpretation of the parameters involved has been presented.

PACS : 98.80.-k, 98.80.Cq

I. INTRODUCTION

In black hole physics a semi classical description shows that a black hole behaves as a black body emitting thermal radiation with temperature (known as Hawking temperature) and entropy (known as Bekenstein entropy) proportional to the surface gravity at the horizon and area of the horizon [1, 2] respectively. Further, this Hawking temperature, and Bekenstein entropy are related to the mass of the black hole through the first law of thermodynamics [3]. Due to this inter relationship between the physical parameters (namely, entropy, temperature) and the geometry of the horizon, there is natural speculation about the inter relationship between the black hole thermodynamics and the Einstein field equations. A first step in this direction was put forward by Jacobson [4] who derived the Einstein field equations from the first law of thermodynamics : \( \delta Q = T dS \) for all locally Rindler causal horizons with \( \delta Q \) and \( T \) as the energy flux and Unruh temperature measured by an accelerated observer just inside the horizon. Subsequently, Padmanabhan [5] from the other side was able to derive the first law of thermodynamics on the horizon starting from Einstein equations for a general static spherically symmetric space time.

This idea of equivalence between Einstein field equations and the thermodynamical laws has been extended in the context of cosmology. Usually, universe bounded by the apparent horizon is assumed to be a thermodynamical system with Hawking temperature and the entropy as,

\[
T_A = \frac{1}{2\pi R_A} \\
S_A = \frac{\pi R_A^2}{G}
\]

where \( R_A \) is the radius of the apparent horizon. It was shown that the first law of thermodynamics on the apparent horizon and the Friedmann equations are equivalent [6]. Subsequently, this equivalent idea was extended to higher dimensional space-time namely gravity theory with Gauss-Bonnet term and for the lovelock gravity theory [6–8]. It is presumed that such a inherent relationship between the thermodynamics at the apparent horizon and the Einstein field equations may lead to some clue on the properties of dark energy.

Although, the cosmological event horizon does not exist in the usual standard big bang cosmology, but in the perspective of the recent observations [9–11], the universe is in an accelerating phase dominated by dark energy (\( \omega_d < -1/3 \)) and the event horizon distinct from the apparent horizon. By defining the entropy and temperature on the event horizon similar to those for the apparent horizon (given above) Wang et al [12] showed that both the first and the second law of thermodynamics breakdown on the cosmological event horizon. They justified it arguing that the first law is applicable to nearby states of local thermodynamic equilibrium while the event horizon reflects the global features of space-time. As a result, the thermodynamical parameters on the non-equilibrium configuration of the event horizon may not be as simple as on the apparent horizon. Further, they speculated that the region bounded by

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the apparent horizon may be taken as the Bekenstein system i.e. Bekenstein’s entropy or mass bound: 
\[ S < 2\Pi R_E \] and entropy or area bound: 
\[ S < \frac{A}{4} \] are satisfied in this region. Now due to universality of the Bekenstein bounds and as all gravitationally stable special regions with weak self-gravity should satisfy the above Bekenstein bounds so the corresponding thermodynamical system is termed as a Bekenstein system. Further, due to larger radius of the event horizon than the apparent horizon, Wang et al [12] termed the universe bounded by the event horizon as a non-Bekenstein system.

In recent past there were a series of works [13–16] investigating the validity of the generalized second law of thermodynamics of the universe bounded by the event horizon for Einstein gravity [13, 14] and in other gravity theories [13–15] and for different fluid systems [13, 14, 16] (including dark energy [14, 16]). In these works the validity of the first law of thermodynamics on the event horizon was assumed and it was possible to show the validity of the generalized second law of thermodynamics with some reasonable restrictions. However, validity of the first law of thermodynamics on the event horizon was still in a question mark. Very recently, the author [17] is able to show that the first law of thermodynamics is satisfied on the event horizon with a modified Hawking temperature for two specific examples of single DE fluids. The present work is a further extension of it. Here by generalizing the Hawking temperature, or modifying Bekenstein entropy it is possible to show that both the first and the generalized second law of thermodynamics (GSLT) are always satisfied on the event horizon. The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 deals with basic equations related to earlier works. Thermodynamical laws with generalized Hawking temperature and modified Bekenstein entropy has been studied respectively in section 3 and in section 4. Interpretation of the parameters involved in generalized Hawking temperature and modified Bekenstein entropy has been analyzed in section 5. Finally, summary of the work and possible conclusions are presented in section 6.

II. BASIC EQUATIONS AND EARLIER WORKS

The homogeneous and isotropic FRW model of the Universe can locally be expressed by the metric as

\[ ds^2 = h_{ij}(x^i)dx^idx^j + R^2d\Omega_2^2 \]  
(2)

where \( i,j \) can take values 0 and 1, the two dimensional metric tensor \( h_{ij} \), known as normal metric is given by

\[ h_{ij} = \text{diag}(-1, a^2/1 - kr^2) \]  
(3)

with \( x^i \) being associated co-ordinates \( (x^0 = t, x^1 = r) \). \( R = ar \) is the area radius and is considered as a scalar field in the normal 2D space. Another relevant scalar quantity on this normal space is

\[ \chi(x) = h^{ij}(x)\partial_iR\partial_jR = 1 - (H^2 + k/a^2)R^2 \]  
(4)

where \( k = 0, \pm 1 \) stands for flat, closed or open model of the Universe. The Friedmann equations are

\[ H^2 + \frac{k}{a^2} = \frac{8\Pi G\rho}{3} \]  
(5)

and

\[ \dot{H} - \frac{k}{a^2} = -4\Pi G(\rho + p) \]  
(6)

where the energy density \( \rho \) and the thermodynamic pressure \( p \) of the matter distribution obey the conservation relation

\[ \dot{\rho} + 3H(\rho + p) = 0 \]  
(7)

Usually, the apparent horizon is defined at the vanishing of the scalar i.e. \( \chi(x) = 0 \), which gives

\[ R_A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{H^2 + \frac{k}{a^2}}} \]  
(8)

Now the surface gravity on the apparent horizon is defined as

\[ \kappa_A = -\frac{\partial \chi}{\partial R} \bigg|_{R=R_A} = \frac{1}{R_A} \]  
(9)
So the usual Hawking temperature on the apparent horizon is given by (as in equation (1))

\[ T_A = \frac{\|\kappa_A\|}{2\Pi} = \frac{1}{2\Pi R_A} \]  

(10)

It has been shown by Wang et al [12] and others [6, 7, 18] that Universe bounded by the apparent horizon (with parameters given by equation (1)) is a thermodynamical system satisfying both the first and the second law of thermodynamics not only in Einstein gravity but also in any other gravity theory and also for baryonic as well as for exotic matter.

On the other hand, the difficulty starts from the very definition of the event horizon. The infinite integral in the definition

\[ R_E = a \int t^{\infty} \frac{dt}{a} \]  

(11)

converges only if \( a \sim t^\alpha \) with \( \alpha > 1 \) i.e. the event horizon does not exist in the decelerating phase, it has only relevance in the present accelerating era. In the literature, the Hawking temperature on the event horizon is usually taken similar to the apparent horizon (replacing \( R_A \) by \( R_E \)) as (see eq. (10))

\[ T_E = \frac{1}{2\Pi R_E} \]  

(12)

This choice is also supported from the measurement of the temperature by a freely falling detector in a de-Sitter background (where both the horizons coincide) using quantum field theory [19]. But unfortunately, with this choice of temperature and the entropy in the form of Bekenstein i.e.

\[ T_E = \frac{1}{2\Pi R_E}, \quad S_E = \frac{\Pi R_E^2}{G} \]  

(13)

the universe bounded by the event horizon is not a realistic thermodynamical system as both the thermodynamical laws fail to hold there [12].

Recently, the surface gravity on the event horizon is defined similar to that on the apparent horizon (see eq. (9)) as [17]

\[ \kappa_E = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial X}{\partial R}\bigg|_{R=R_E} = \frac{R_E}{R_A} \]  

(14)

and as a result the modified Hawking temperature on the event horizon becomes

\[ T_E^m = \frac{\|\kappa_E\|}{2\Pi} = \frac{R_E}{2\Pi R_A^2} \]  

(15)

which for flat FRW model (i.e. \( k = 0 \)) becomes

\[ T_E = \frac{H^2 R_E}{2\Pi} \]  

(16)

As the two horizons are related by the inequality

\[ R_A < R_E \]  

(17)

so we always have

\[ T_A < T_E \]  

(18)

Using this modified Hawking temperature the author [17] is able to show the validity of the first law of thermodynamics on the event horizon for two specific single fluid DE model.
III. GENERALIZED HAWKING TEMPERATURE AND THERMODYNAMICAL LAWS

In this section to proceed further for a general prescription, we start with a generalization of the modified Hawking temperature in the form

$$T_E^g = \frac{\alpha R_E}{2\pi R_A^2}$$

(19)

where the dimensionless parameter $\alpha$ is to be determined so that $\alpha = 1$ on the apparent horizon.

The amount of energy flux across a horizon within the time interval $dt$ is [6, 20]

$$-dE_h = 4\pi R_h^2 T_{ab} k^a k^b dt,$$

(20)

with $k^a$, a null vector. So for the event horizon we get

$$-dE = 4\pi R_E^3 H(\rho + p) dt.$$  

(21)

Now using the Einstein field equation (6) and the definition of the apparent horizon (i.e. eq(8)), the above expression for energy flux simplifies to

$$-dE = \left(\frac{R_E}{R_A}\right)^3 \frac{\dot{R}_A}{G} dt.$$  

(22)

From the Bekenstein’s entropy -area relation (see eq(13)) we have

$$T_E dS_E = \alpha \left(\frac{R_E}{R_A}\right)^2 \frac{\dot{R}_E}{G} dt.$$  

(23)

Hence for the validity of the first law of thermodynamics i.e.

$$-dE = dQ = T_E dS_E,$$

(24)

we have

$$\alpha = \frac{\dot{R}_A/R_A}{\dot{R}_E/R_E}.$$  

(25)

Thus reciprocal of $\alpha$ gives the relative growth rate of the radius of the event horizon to the apparent horizon.

For the generalized second law of thermodynamics, we start with the Gibb’s law [12, 21] to find the entropy variation of the bounded fluid distribution:

$$T_f dS_f = dE + pdV,$$

(26)

where $T_f$ and $S_f$ are the temperature and entropy of the given fluid distribution respectively. $V = 4\pi R_f^3/3$ and $E = \rho V$. The above equation explicitly takes the form

$$T_f dS_f = 4\pi R_f^2 (\rho + p)(\dot{R}_E - H R_E) dt$$

(27)

Also using the first law (i.e. eq(24)) we have from (21)

$$T_E dS_E = 4\pi R_E^3 H(\rho + p) dt$$

(28)
Now for equilibrium distribution, we assume $T_f = T_E^g$ i.e. the inside matter has the same temperature as the bounding surface and we obtain

$$T_E dS_T = 4\Pi R_E^2 (\rho + p) R_E dt$$  \hspace{1cm} (29)$$

with $S_T = S_E + S_f$, the total entropy of the universal system. Again using the Einstein field equation (6), conservation relation (7) and the equation (8) we have on simplification

$$T_E \frac{dS_T}{dt} = \frac{(R_E/ R_A)^2}{GHR_A} \frac{\dot{R}_A \dot{R}_E}{GHR_A}$$  \hspace{1cm} (30)$$

Now using the generalized Hawking temperature (19) the time variation of the total entropy becomes

$$\frac{dS_T}{dt} = \frac{2\Pi}{GHR_E^2}$$  \hspace{1cm} (31)$$

which is positive definite for expanding Universe and hence the generalized second law of thermodynamics always holds on the event horizon.

**IV. MODIFIED BEKENSTEIN ENTROPY AND THERMODYNAMICAL LAWS**

In the previous section we have generalized the Hawking temperature, keeping the Bekenstein entropy-area relation unchanged and we are able to show the validity of both the first law of thermodynamics and GSLT on the event horizon, irrespective of any fluid distribution and we may termed universe bounded by the event horizon as a generalized Bekenstein system. However, it is possible to have two other modifications of entropy and temperature on the event horizon as

a) $S_E^{(m)} = \beta S_E^{(B)}, T_E = T_E^{(m)}$ and
b) $S_E^{(m)} = \delta S_E^{(B)}, T_E = \frac{1}{\delta} T_E^{(m)}$.

We shall now examine the validity of the thermodynamical laws for these choices:

a) $S_E^{(m)} = \beta S_E^{(B)}$ and $T_E = T_E^{(m)}$

Here $S_E^{(m)}$ and $S_E^{(B)}$ are respectively the modified entropy and the usual Bekenstein entropy on the event horizon, $T_E^{(m)}$ is the modified Hawking temperature on the event horizon (given in equation (15) or (16)) and $\beta$ is a parameter having value unity on the apparent horizon. Then as before from the validity of the Clausius relation $\beta$ can be determined as

$$\beta = \frac{2}{R_E^2} \int R_E^2 \frac{dR_A}{R_A}$$  \hspace{1cm} (32)$$

Thus for this choice of $\beta$ the above modified entropy and modified Hawking temperature satisfy first law of thermodynamics on the event horizon. Now we shall examine the validity of the generalized second law of thermodynamics (GSLT) on the event horizon for this choice of entropy and temperature on the horizon. Proceeding as before (assuming the temperature of the inside fluid is same as modified Hawking temperature for thermodynamical equilibrium) we have

$$\frac{dS_T}{dt} = \frac{2\Pi}{GHR_A^2} \frac{R_E}{R_A} \dot{R}_A \dot{R}_E$$  \hspace{1cm} (33)$$

Thus validity of GSLT depends on the evolution of the two horizons (apparent and event)- if both the horizons increase or decrease simultaneously the GSLT is always satisfied. However, as long as weak energy condition (WEC) is satisfied $\dot{R}_A > 0$ and $\dot{R}_E > 0$ if $R_E > R_A$ and GSLT is satisfied. But if WEC is violated then $\dot{R}_A < 0$ and $\dot{R}_E < 0$ if $R_E < R_A$, which may be possible only in phantom era. Hence for this choice of entropy and temperature on the event horizon GSLT is always satisfied as long as WEC is satisfied and when WEC is violated then GSLT will be valid if $R_E < R_A$. Further, it should be noted that if we choose the temperature on the event horizon as the generalized Hawking temperature (i.e. $T_E^g$) then $\beta$ turns out to be unity i.e. we get back to the previous
TABLE I: A Comparative Study of The Horizons

| Horizon               | Location or Definition       | Causal Character          | Velocity             | Acceleration                      |
|-----------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Apparent Horizon      | \( R_A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{H^2 + \frac{\kappa}{a^2}}} \) | Time like if \(-1 < \omega < \frac{1}{3}\), Null if \(\omega = -1\), Space like if \(\omega > \frac{1}{3}\). | \(4\Pi H R_A^2 (\rho + p) = \frac{3}{2}(1 + \frac{\rho}{p}) \) | \(\left(\frac{p}{\rho} - \frac{\kappa}{a^2}\right)\) |
| Event Horizon         | \( R_E = a \int_{\frac{1}{a}}^{\infty} \frac{dt}{2(t^2)} \) | Null                     | \(H R_E - 1\)         | \(-H(1 + q H R_E)\)              |

generalized Bekenstein system (in section 3).

b) \(S_E^{(m)} = \delta S_E^{(B)}, T_E = \frac{1}{2}T_E^{(m)}\)

As before the parameter \(\delta\) should be unity on the apparent horizon to match with the Bekenstein system. Again for the validity of the first law of thermodynamics (i.e. Clausius relation) \(\delta\) turns out to be \(R_A^2 / R_E^2\) and as a result the entropy on the event horizon becomes constant (to that at the apparent horizon). So this choice of entropy - temperature is not of much physical interest.

V. INTERPRETATION OF THE PARAMETERS \(\alpha\) AND \(\beta\)

I) \(\alpha\)- parameter

In this section we shall try to make some implications of the factor \(\alpha\). Note that \(\alpha\) can be termed as the ratio of the expansion rate of the two horizons. If we compare the expansion rate of the expanding matter with that for both the horizons, we have

\[
\frac{\dot{R}_E}{R_E} - H = -\frac{1}{R_E^2} \frac{\dot{R}_A}{R_A} - H = \left(\frac{3\omega + 1}{2}\right)H
\]

(34)

where the matter in the universe is chosen as a barotropic fluid with equation of state \(\rho = \omega \rho\). As event horizon exists only for accelerating phase so \(\omega < -\frac{1}{3}\). Hence both the horizons expand slower than comoving. So expansion rate of both the horizons coincide (i.e. \(\alpha = 1\)) when

\[
H R_E = -\frac{2}{3(\omega + 1)}
\]

(35)

Before proceeding further, we present a comparative characterization of the two horizons in table I. We shall now try to estimate the parameter \(\alpha\) for some known fluid system:

a) Perfect fluid with constant equation of state \(\omega(-\frac{1}{3})\):

For flat FRW model, the cosmological solution is

\[
a(t) = a_0 t^{\frac{2}{3(\omega + 1)}}
\]

i.e.

\[
H(t) = \frac{2}{3(\omega + 1)t} \quad \text{(36)}
\]

and

\[
R_E(t) = \frac{3(1 + \omega)}{(1 + 3\omega)} t.
\]

(37)

Hence
i.e. eq.(33) is identically satisfied for all \( \omega < -\frac{1}{3} \). So for perfect fluid with constant equation of state \( < -\frac{1}{3} \) we always have \( \alpha = 1 \) and hence the expansion rate of both the horizons are identical throughout the evolution. Thus the Universe bounded by the event horizon with modified/generalized Hawking temperature (given by equation (15)/(19)) is a Bekenstein system and it supports the results in ref [17].

**b Interacting holographic dark energy fluid :**

We shall now study interacting holographic dark energy (HDE) model consists of dark matter in the form of dust (of energy density \( \rho_m \)) and HDE in the form of perfect fluid : \( p_d = \omega_d \rho_d \). The interaction between them is chosen as \( 3b^2 H(\rho_m + \rho_d) \) with \( b^2 \) the coupling constant. If \( R_E \) is taken as the I.R. cut off then the radius of the event horizon \( (R_E) \) and the equation of state parameter \( \omega_d \) are given by [22]

\[
R_E = \frac{c}{\sqrt{\Omega_d} \bar{H}} \quad (39)
\]

and

\[
\omega_d = -\frac{1}{3} - \frac{2\sqrt{\Omega_d}}{3c} - \frac{b^2}{\Omega_d} \quad (40)
\]

where \( \Omega_d = \rho_d/(3H^2) \) is the density parameter for dark energy and the dimensionless parameter 'c' carries the uncertainties of the theory and is assumed to be constant. In this case equation (33) modifies as

\[
HR_E = -\frac{2}{(1 + 3\omega)} \quad (38)
\]

with

\[
\omega = \frac{p_d}{(\rho_m + \rho_d)} = \omega_d \Omega_d. \quad (42)
\]

We shall now examine whether for this model relation (39) is satisfied or not. Using relations (37),(38) and (40) in equation (39) we obtain a cubic equation in \( x = \sqrt{\Omega_d} \)

\[
2x^3 + cx^2 - 2x - (1 - b^2)c = 0. \quad (43)
\]

This cubic equation has a positive root \( (x_p) \) if \( b^2 < 1 \) (the other two roots are either both negative or a pair of complex conjugate). In the following table we present the value of \( x \) for different choices of \( b \) and \( c \) within observational bound:

The table shows that for interacting DE fluids it is possible to have identical expansion rate (i.e.\( \alpha = 1 \)) for both the horizons within observational limit of \( \Omega_d \) and \( c \).

**II) \( \beta \)- parameter**

To interpret the parameter \( \beta \) we consider thermal fluctuation of the apparent horizon so that area changes by an infinitesimal amount i.e. \( A_a^{(m)} = A_a + \epsilon \), then entropy and temperature of the modified apparent horizon can be written as (from the choice (a)) \( S_a^{(m)} = \beta S^B_a \), \( T_a = T_a^{(m)} \).

Now the modified radius of the apparent horizon is related to the original radius as (in the first approximation)
TABLE II: Value of $x$ for different values of $c$ and $b^2$ from eq. (41)

| $c$  | $b^2$ | $\Omega_d$ | $x$  |
|------|-------|------------|------|
| 0.7  | 0.92  | 0.73       | 0.85 |
| 0.8  | 0.84  | 0.73       | 0.85 |
| 0.82 | 0.91  | 0.70       | 0.84 |
| 0.76 | 0.8   | 0.76       | 0.87 |

\[ R_a^{(m)} = R_a + \frac{e^t}{2\Pi R_a}, \quad e^t = \frac{e}{4} \]  

and $\beta$ approximates to

\[ \beta = 1 - \frac{e^t}{\Pi R_a^2} + \frac{2e^t}{\Pi R_a^2} \ln R_a \]  

Hence we have

\[ S_a^{(m)} = S_a^{(B)} + \frac{2e^t}{G} \ln R_a \]  

and

\[ T_a = \frac{1}{2\Pi R_a} + \frac{e^t}{2\Pi R_a^3} \]  

Thus there is a logarithmic correction to the Bekenstein entropy and the Hawking temperature is corrected by a term proportional to $R_a^{-3}$ due to this thermal fluctuation. However, if we consider the infinitesimal change in the radius of the apparent horizon due to the thermal fluctuation i.e. $R_a^{(m)} = R_a + \epsilon$ then modified entropy and temperature on the horizon becomes

\[ S_a^{(m)} = S_a^{(B)} + \frac{4\Pi e R_a}{G}, \quad T_a = T_a^{H} + \frac{\epsilon}{2\Pi R_a^2} \]  

i.e. correction to Bekenstein entropy is proportional to the radius of the horizon and that of the temperature is proportional to the inverse square of the radius.

VI. SUMMARY AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this work we have studied thermodynamical laws on the event horizon for the following three choices of entropy and temperature on the event horizon:

1) $S_E = S_E^{(B)}, T_E = T_E^{(g)}$,  
2) $S_E = \beta S_E^{(B)}, T_E = T_E^{(m)}$,  
3) $S_E = \delta S_E^{(B)}, T_E = \frac{1}{2} T_E^{(m)}$,

where $S_E^{(B)}$ and $T_E^{(m)}$ are respectively the usual Bekenstein entropy and modified Hawking temperature (given in eq.(15) or (16)) and the parameters $\alpha$, $\beta$ and $\delta$ are evaluated using Clausius relation. It is found that the parameters take value unity on the apparent horizon so that all the three choices reduce to Bekenstein- Hawking system on the apparent horizon. However, for the 3rd choice the entropy on the event horizon turns out to be constant (equal to that on the apparent horizon) and hence it is not of much physical interest. So we have not discussed it further. On the other hand, both the thermodynamical laws hold on the event horizon unconditionally for any fluid distribution for the first choice while for the second choice of entropy and temperature on the event horizon we must have $R_E < R_A$ in the phantom era for the validity of the GSLT. Hence we call universe bounded by the event horizon (for the above two choices of entropy and temperature) as a generalized Bekenstein- Hawking thermodynamical system. Also some
interpretations of the parameters $\alpha$ and $\beta$ has been presented in section 5. Lastly, if the present model of the universal thermodynamics is in thermal equilibrium with CMB photons then the temperature of the horizon must coincide with the CMB temperature ($\simeq 2.73 K$) today\cite{23,24}. Now restoring the dimension, the temperature of the event horizon (see eq.(19)) can be written as (in Kelvin)\cite{24}

$$T_E^{(g)} = \frac{(1 + q) H^3 R_E^3}{HR_E - 1} \frac{1}{2\pi R_E} \left(\frac{\hbar c}{k_B}\right)$$  \ (49)

where, $q = -(1 + H/H^2)$ is the usual deceleration parameter, $\hbar = 1.05 \times 10^{-27}$ erg-sec, $c = 3 \times 10^{10}$ cm/sec and $k_B = 1.38 \times 10^{-16}$ erg/K are respectively the Planck’s constant, speed of light and Boltzmann’s constant.

In particular, if we choose the cosmic fluid as holographic dark energy, then from Eq. (39) we get

$$HR_E = c/\sqrt{\Omega_d}$$

and we have

$$T_E^{(g)} = \left(\frac{1 + q}{\Omega_d(c - \sqrt{\Omega_d})}\right) \frac{0.23}{2\pi R_E} K$$  \ (50)

Now using the observed values of $c$, $\omega_d$, $q$ and choosing $R_E$ appropriately, it is always possible to match $T_E^{(g)}$ with the temperature of CMB photons. Finally, the conclusions are presented below as point wise:

\begin{enumerate}
  \item The Universe bounded by the event horizon (generalized Bekenstein-Hawking system) is a realistic thermodynamical system where both the thermodynamical laws hold for any matter system within it.
  \item In deriving the thermodynamical laws we have used the second Friedmann equation (6) and the energy conservation relation (7). On the other way assuming the first law of thermodynamics it is possible to derive the Einstein field equations. So we may conclude that the first law of thermodynamics and the Einstein field equations are equivalent (i.e. one can be derived from the other) on the event horizon irrespective of any fluid distribution.
  \item The generalized Bekenstein-Hawking system i.e. universe bounded by the event horizon supports the recent observations i.e. results of the present work are compatible (qualitatively) to the present observed data.
  \item If due to some thermal fluctuation the apparent horizon is modified so that its area changes infinitesimally then upto first order of approximation the Bekenstein entropy is corrected by a logarithmic term and the correction to Hawking temperature is proportional to the inverse cube of the radius of the apparent horizon.
  \item The horizon temperature can be in thermal equilibrium with CMB photons by appropriate choice of the parameters involved.
\end{enumerate}

For future work one may consider the following issues:

\begin{enumerate}
  \item The validity of the thermodynamical laws on the event horizon for other gravity theories.
  \item Is this generalized Hawking temperature or the modified Bekenstein valid for other horizons (if exists) of the Universal thermodynamical system?
  \item Further, physical and geometrical implication of the parameters $\alpha$ and $\beta$ may be interesting.
  \item Is the present generalized Bekenstein-Hawking system i.e., $S_E = S_E^{(B)}, T_E = T_E^{(g)}$ or $S_E = \beta S_E^{(B)}, T_E = T_E^{(m)}$ or some other modified version on the event horizon physically more realistic?
\end{enumerate}

Acknowledgement: The work is done during a visit to IUCAA under its associateship programme. The author is thankful to IUCAA for warm hospitality and facilities at its Library. The author is thankful to UGC-DRS programme in the Dept. of Mathematics, Jadavpur University.
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