A Novel Derivation of the Reissner-Nordstrom and Kerr-Newman Black Hole Entropy from truly Charge Spinning Point Mass Sources

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Abstract

Recently we have shown how the Schwarzschild Black Hole Entropy in all dimensions emerges from truly point mass sources at r = 0 due to a non-vanishing scalar curvature \mathcal{R} involving the Dirac delta distribution in the computation of the Euclidean Einstein-Hilbert action. As usual, it is required to take the inverse Hawking temperature β as the length of the circle S_{β}^{1} obtained from a compactification of the Euclidean time in thermal field theory which results after a Wick rotation, $it = \tau$, to imaginary time. In this work we extend our novel procedure to evaluate both the Reissner-Nordstrom and Kerr-Newman black hole entropy from truly charge spinning point mass sources.

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Recently we have shown how the Schwarzschild Black Hole Entropy (in all dimensions) emerges from truly point mass sources at r = 0 due to a nonvanishing scalar curvature involving the Dirac delta distribution [8]. It is the density and *anisotropic* pressure components associated with the point mass delta function source at the origin r = 0 which furnish the Schwarzschild black hole entropy in all dimensions $D \ge 4$ after evaluating the Euclidean Einstein-Hilbert action. As usual, it is required to take the inverse Hawking temperature β as the length of the circle S^1_{β} obtained from a compactification of the Euclidean time in thermal field theory which results after a Wick rotation, $it = \tau$, to imaginary time. The appealing and salient result is that there is *no* need to introduce the Gibbons-Hawking-York boundary term [5], [6] in order to arrive at the black hole entropy because in our case one has that $\mathcal{R} \neq 0$. Furthermore, there is no need to introduce a complex integration contour to *avoid* the singularity as shown by Gibbons and Hawking. On the contrary, the source of the black hole entropy stems entirely from the scalar curvature *singularity* at the origin r = 0. In this work we show how to generalize our construction in order to derive the Reissner-Nordstrom [10] and Kerr-Newman [13] black hole entropy. The physical implications of this finding warrants further investigation since it suggests a profound connection between the notion of gravitational entropy and spacetime singularities.

We shall use throughout this work the units of $\hbar = c = k_B = 1$. The higher-dimensional extension of the Schwarzschild metric [2], [3] was found by Tangherlini [4] and is given by

$$ds^{2} = -f(r) (dt)^{2} + \frac{(dr)^{2}}{f(r)} + r^{2} (d\Omega_{D-2})^{2}, \quad f(r) = 1 - \frac{16\pi G_{D}M}{(D-2)\Omega_{D-2}r^{D-3}}$$
(1)

where G_D is the *D*-dim Newton's constant, *M* the black hole mass. The solid angle of a D - 2-dim hypersphere is $\Omega_{D-2} = 2\pi^{\frac{D-1}{2}}/\Gamma(\frac{D-1}{2})$. The horizon radius is determined from the condition $f(r_h) = 0$ giving

$$r_{h} = \left(\frac{16\pi G_{D}M}{(D-2)\ \Omega_{D-2}}\right)^{\frac{1}{D-3}}$$
(2)

such that the metric (1) can be rewritten as

$$ds^{2} = -\left[1 - \left(\frac{r_{h}}{r}\right)^{D-3}\right] (dt)^{2} + \left[1 - \left(\frac{r_{h}}{r}\right)^{D-3}\right]^{-1} (dr)^{2} + r^{2} (d\Omega_{D-2})^{2} (3)$$

The Schwarzschild metric leads to a vanishing Ricci tensor and scalar curvature $\mathcal{R} = 0$, hence in order to arrive at a key delta function singularity at the origin one has to replace r for |r| in the metric (1). More precisely, one needs to make the replacement $f(r) \rightarrow f(|r|)$ in (3) as follows

$$1 - (\frac{r_h}{r})^{D-3} \to 1 - (\frac{r_h}{|r|})^{D-3} = 1 - [(\frac{r_h}{r})(\frac{r}{|r|})]^{D-3} = 1 - [(\frac{r_h}{r})sgn(r)]^{D-3}$$
(4)

The ratio $\frac{r}{|r|} = \frac{|r|sgn(r)}{|r|} = sgn(r)$ can be expressed in terms of sign function sgn(r), and which is defined by sgn(r) = 1, for r > 0; sgn(r) = -1, for r < 0; and sgn(r = 0) = 0, the arithmetic mean of 1, -1, and it will be instrumental in deriving the non-zero scalar curvature. The derivative of the sign function is $\frac{d}{dr}sgn(r) = 2\delta(r)^{-1}$. It is the derivatives of the sign function appearing in eq-(4) which will generate the key $\delta(r)$ terms in the scalar curvature. If one wishes to be mathematically rigorous in using distributions in nonlinear theories like

¹The factor of 2 is due to the jump of 2 from -1 to +1

general relativity one needs to recur to the Colombeau's theory of distributions [7] instead of the Dirac delta distributions.

Therefore the metric one shall be working with is

$$ds^{2} = -f(|r|) (dt)^{2} + \frac{(dr)^{2}}{f(|r|)} + |r|^{2} (d\Omega_{D-2})^{2} = -(1-(\frac{r_{h}}{|r|})^{D-3}) (dt)^{2} + (1-(\frac{r_{h}}{|r|})^{D-3})^{-1} (dr)^{2} + |r|^{2} (d\Omega_{D-2})^{2}$$
(5)

After a very lengthy and laborious calculation one learns that the scalar curvature associated is given by

$$\mathcal{R} = \frac{d^2 f}{dr^2} + \frac{2(D-2)}{r} \frac{df}{dr} - \frac{(D-2)(D-3)}{r^2} (1-f)$$
(6)

Taking into account now that $\frac{d|r|}{dr} = sgn(r)^2$ where sgn(r) is the sign function it leads to the following results

$$\frac{d}{dr}sgn(r) = 2 \ \delta(r), \quad \frac{df}{dr} = (D-3) \ r_h^{D-3} \ \frac{sgn(r)}{|r|^{D-2}},$$
$$\frac{d^2f}{dr^2} = - (D-2) \ (D-3) \ r_h^{D-3} \ \frac{1}{|r|^{D-1}} + 2(D-3) \ r_h^{D-3} \ \frac{\delta(r)}{|r|^{D-2}}$$
(7)

Inserting the results of eq-(7) into eq-(6) and taking into account the *identity* r = |r|sgn(r) which leads to key exact *cancellations*, the scalar curvature in eq-(6) turns out to be

$$\mathcal{R}_D = 2 \frac{16\pi G_D M}{(D-2)\Omega_{D-2}} (D-3) \frac{\delta(r)}{|r|^{D-2}} = 2 r_h^{D-3} (D-3) \frac{\delta(r)}{|r|^{D-2}}$$
(8)

The use of |r| in f(|r|) was instrumental in generating the delta function in (8). Had one used f(r) one would have obtained $\mathcal{R} = 0$.

As usual, it is required to take the inverse Hawking temperature β_H as the length of the circle S^1_{β} obtained from a compactification of the Euclidean time in thermal field theory which results after a Wick rotation, $it = \tau$, to imaginary time. The Hawking temperature of the *D*-dim Schwarzschild black hole is $T_D = (D-3)/4\pi r_h \Rightarrow \beta_D = 4\pi r_h/(D-3)$, so that the non-trivial Euclidean Einstein-Hilbert action in *D*-dim is given by the integral

$$I = - \frac{i}{16\pi G_D} \int_0^{\beta_D} d\tau \int_0^{\infty} \mathcal{R}_D \ \Omega_{D-2} \ r^{D-2} \ dr$$
(9)

Note the presence of an -i factor in the Euclidean action I which results from the measure $\sqrt{-g}$ piece since the determinant $g = det(g_{\mu\nu}) > 0$ is now positive due to the Euclidean signature. The minus sign -i is chosen so that $exp(iS_q) =$

²The derivative of |r| is discontinuous at r = 0, but because it jumps from -1 to +1, one may take their arithmetic mean which is 0 and which agrees with the value of sgn(r = 0) = 0

exp(-I) in the gravitational path integral $(I = -iS_g)$. In the region where $r \ge 0$ one can replace $|r|^{D-2}$ for r^{D-2} , and after taking into account that the radial integral (9) is symmetric in r due to $\delta(-r) = \delta(r)$, one has to extend the radial domain of integration as follows

$$\int_0^\infty \delta(r) dr = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^\infty \delta(r) dr = \frac{1}{2}$$
(10)

in order to fully integrate the delta function. Upon setting $\beta_D = 4\pi r_h/(D-3)$, and inserting the expression (8) for \mathcal{R}_D into (9), one arrives finally at

$$|I| = \frac{\Omega_{D-2} r_h^{D-2}}{4G_D} = \frac{\Omega_{D-2}}{4G_D} \left(\frac{16\pi G_D M}{(D-2) \Omega_{D-2}}\right)^{\frac{D-2}{D-3}}$$
(11)

which is the Schwarzschild black hole entropy in *D*-dimensions. When D = 4 one arrives at $4\pi (2GM)^2/4G = 4\pi GM^2$ as expected.

Next we shall find the expressions for the density and pressure of the pointmatter source leading to a non-vanishing scalar curvature and which furnishes the higher dimensional black hole entropy. Given the trace of the stress energy tensor $\mathcal{T}_D = T^{\mu}_{\mu}$, the *trace* of the Einstein tensor $G_{\mu\nu} = \mathcal{R}_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}g_{\mu\nu}\mathcal{R}$ obeys the following relation stemming from the field equations

$$-\mathcal{R}_D \frac{(D-2)}{2} = 8\pi G_D \mathcal{T}_D = -(8\pi G_D) \left(2 (D-3) \frac{M}{\Omega_{D-2}} \frac{\delta(r)}{|r|^{D-2}}\right) (12)$$

since the spherically symmetric energy-mass density ρ in D-dim for a point mass source is given by 3

$$\rho = \frac{2M}{\Omega_{D-2} |r|^{D-2}} \,\delta(r) \,\Rightarrow \,\int_0^\infty \,\rho \,\Omega_{D-2} \,r^{D-2} \,dr \,= \,2M \int_0^\infty \,\delta(r) \,dr \,= M$$
(13)

one finds that the trace of the stress energy tensor is

$$\mathcal{T}_{D} = - (D-3) \left[\frac{2M}{\Omega_{D-2} |r|^{D-2}} \,\delta(r) \right] = - (D-3) \,\rho \tag{14}$$

Due to the (hyper) spherical symmetry, the D-2 transverse pressure components p_{\perp} to the radial direction are all equal, then the expression in (14) leads to

$$\mathcal{T}_D = -\rho + p_r + (D-2) p_{\perp} = - (D-3) \rho$$
 (15)

One must supplement eq-(15) with the Einstein field equations in order to determine ρ, p_r and the D-2 transverse pressure components $p_{\perp} = p_{\theta_i}, i = 1, 2, \dots, D-2$,

³Note the key extra factor of 2 in eq-(13) that is required to evaluate the integral of $\delta(r)$

$$\mathcal{R}_t^t - \frac{1}{2} \,\delta_t^t \,\mathcal{R} = 8\pi G_D T_t^t = -8\pi G_D \,\rho, \quad \mathcal{R}_r^r - \frac{1}{2} \,\delta_r^r \,\mathcal{R} = 8\pi G_D T_r^r = 8\pi G_D \,p_r \tag{21}$$

$$\mathcal{R}_{\perp}^{\perp} - \frac{1}{2} \,\delta_{\perp}^{\perp} \,\mathcal{R} = 8\pi G_D T_{\perp}^{\perp} = 8\pi G_D \,p_{\perp} \tag{16}$$

After a lengthy but straightforward algebra one finds that the density and pressure components are

$$\rho = \frac{2M}{\Omega_{D-2} |r|^{D-2}} \,\delta(r), \quad p_r = -\frac{2(D-3)}{(D-2)} \,\rho,$$

$$p_{\perp} = \left(\frac{(4-D)(D-2) + 2(D-3)}{(D-2)^2}\right) \,\rho \Rightarrow -\rho + p_r + (D-2)p_{\perp} = -(D-3)\rho$$
(17)

The solutions (17) satisfy the *strong* energy conditions $\rho + \sum p_i \ge 0$ but not the weak energy conditions $\rho + p_i \ge 0$ for all $i = 1, 2, \dots, D-1$.

One may object to the above expressions (17) because the angular coordinates are not well defined at r = 0. This is not a problem because one can simply perform a coordinate change of the stress energy tensor $T_{\mu\nu}$ to Cartesian coordinates which are well defined at r = 0⁴. The solutions (17) are consistent with the conservation equation of the stress energy tensor $\nabla_{\mu}T^{\mu\nu} = 0$. It can be more easily verified in D = 4 where one arrives at

$$\rho = -p_r = \frac{2M}{4\pi r^2} \,\delta(r), \ p_\perp = \frac{1}{2} \,\rho = \frac{M}{4\pi r^2} \,\delta(r) \tag{18}$$

One can check that the expressions (18) are consistent with the conservation equation

$$\nabla_{\mu}T^{\mu\nu} = 0 \Rightarrow p_{\perp} + \rho + \frac{r}{2}\frac{d\rho}{dr} = 0$$
(19)

and which can be verified explicitly after using the identities $r\frac{d}{dr}(\delta(r)) = -\delta(r)$; $r^n \frac{d^n}{dr^n}(\delta(r)) = (-1)^n n! \delta(r)$. Similar results as those found in eqs-(18,19) were obtained in [9] by choosing a mass density given by a Gaussian $M(\sigma)^{-3/2} exp(-r^2/\sigma)$ where the Gaussian width $\sqrt{\sigma}$ was related to the noncommutativity parameter associated with the noncommutative spacetime coordinates $[\hat{x}^{\mu}, \hat{x}^{\nu}] = i\Theta^{\mu\nu}\mathbf{1}$ after equating the norm to $\sigma : \sqrt{\Theta_{\mu\nu}\Theta^{\mu\nu}} = \sigma$.

After this discussion one concludes that the expressions (17) are the density and *anisotropic* pressure components associated with the point mass delta function source at the origin r = 0 and which furnish the Schwarzschild black hole entropy (up to a factor of -i) in all dimensions $D \ge 4$ by a direct evaluation of the Euclidean Einstein-Hilbert action.

⁴In Cartesian coordinates the stress energy tensor will have off-diagonal components

Let us derive now the black hole entropy for the four-dim Reissner-Nordstrom charged black hole of mass M and charge q [10]. After replacing $r \to |r|$ it yields

$$ds^{2} = -\left(1 - \frac{2GM}{|r|} + \frac{q^{2}}{r^{2}}\right)(dt)^{2} + \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{|r|} + \frac{q^{2}}{r^{2}}\right)^{-1}(dr)^{2} + r^{2}(d\Omega)^{2}, r^{2} = |r|^{2}$$
(20)

where the solid angle infinitesimal element is $(d\Omega)^2 = (d\theta)^2 + \sin^2(\theta)(d\phi)^2$.

In D = 4 the Maxwell action is conformally invariant and as a result the electromagnetic stress energy tensor is traceless since under infinitesimal conformal scalings of the metric one has $\delta g^{\mu\nu} = \lambda g^{\mu\nu}$ so that $\delta \mathcal{L}_{EM} = (\frac{\delta \mathcal{L}_{EM}}{\delta g^{\mu\nu}}) \delta g^{\mu\nu} = -\lambda \frac{\sqrt{-g}}{2} T_{\mu\nu}^{(EM)} g^{\mu\nu} = -\lambda \frac{\sqrt{-g}}{2} T^{(EM)} = 0$, hence one finds that the trace $T^{(EM)} = 0$. Therefore there is no contribution to the scalar curvature scalar \mathcal{R} from the EM field, so the value of \mathcal{R} is due entirely to the point-mass delta function source and given by $\mathcal{R} = 4GM \frac{\delta(r)}{r^2}$. The inverse Hawking temperature for the Reissner-Nordstrom black hole is given in terms of the outer horizon radius r_+ as [12]

$$\beta = \frac{2\pi (r_+)^3}{G(Mr_+ - q^2)}, \quad r_+ = GM + \sqrt{(GM)^2 - q^2G}$$
(21)

therefore, the Euclidean Einstein-Hilbert action becomes

$$I = -\frac{i}{16\pi G} \int_0^\beta d\tau \int_0^\infty \mathcal{R} 4\pi r^2 dr = -\frac{i}{2} \beta M = -i \frac{\pi (r_+)^3 M}{G(Mr_+ - q^2)}$$
(22)

One must add now the EM contribution to the Euclidean action. The canonical action is $S_{EM} = -\frac{1}{4} \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} F^2$. However, when one combines the gravitational action S_g with the EM action one must take into account a multiplicative factor α such that the variation of the combined system is $\delta[\frac{1}{16\pi G}S_g + \alpha S_{EM}] = 0$ and is consistent with the Einstein field equations $\mathcal{R}_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}g_{\mu\nu}\mathcal{R} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}$. The multiplicative factor α which is consistent with the following expression for the EM stress energy tensor

$$T_{\mu\nu}^{(EM)} = \frac{1}{4\pi} \left[F_{\mu\sigma} F^{\sigma}_{\ \nu} - \frac{1}{4} g_{\mu\nu} F_{\alpha\beta} F^{\alpha\beta} \right]$$
(23)

turns out to be $\alpha = \frac{1}{4\pi}$. For further details of the need to introduce a multiplicative factor α see [12] (Appendix E). Therefore one must evaluate the integral after the Wick rotation to Euclidean time,

$$I_{EM} = (-i) \alpha S_{EM} = \frac{i}{16\pi} \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} F_{\alpha\beta} F^{\alpha\beta}$$
(24)

The solution for the components of A_{μ} corresponding to the Einstein-Maxwell system is $A_{\mu} = (\frac{q}{|r|}, 0, 0, 0)$ (one does not include the magnetic monopole solution) and the only non-vanishing component of $F_{\mu\nu}$ is $F_{rt} = \nabla_r A_t - \nabla_t A_r = \partial_r A_t - \partial_t A_r = \frac{-qsgn(r)}{r^2}$. Substituting F_{rt} into (24) and taking into account that for the Euclidean metric one has $F_{rt}F^{rt} = F_{rt}F_{rt}g^{rr}g^{tt} = (F_{rt})^2$, it gives

$$I_{EM} = i \beta \left(\frac{1}{4} \int_0^\infty \frac{q^2}{r^2} dr\right) = -i \beta \frac{1}{4} \left[\frac{q^2}{r}\right]_0^\infty$$
(25)

The I_{EM} diverges as expected due to the singularity at r = 0. We are going to introduce an ultraviolet cutoff ϵ and split the integral domain into $[\epsilon, r_o]$ and $[r_o, \infty]$, where r_o is given by $r_o = \frac{r_+}{2}$ (inside the outer horizon). In doing so one has

$$\left[\frac{q^2}{r}\right]^{\infty}_{\epsilon} = \left[\frac{q^2}{r}\right]^{r_o}_{\epsilon} + \left[\frac{q^2}{r}\right]^{\infty}_{r_o} = \left(\frac{2q^2}{r_+} - \frac{q^2}{\epsilon}\right) + \left(0 - \frac{2q^2}{r_+}\right) = C - \frac{2q^2}{r_+}$$
(26a)

with

$$C \equiv \frac{2q^2}{r_+} - \frac{q^2}{\epsilon} = \frac{2q^2}{r_+} (1 - \frac{r_+}{2\epsilon})$$
(26b)

such that $\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} C \to -\infty$. After introducing the cutoff one arrives at

$$I_{EM} = -i \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \left(-\frac{q^2}{r_+} \right) + \frac{\beta C}{4} \right]$$
(27)

Upon substituting the value of β given by eq-(21) into eq-(27), the net contribution $I = I_g + I_{EM}$ becomes

$$I = -i \left[\frac{\beta}{2} \left(M - \frac{q^2}{r_+} \right) + \frac{\beta C}{4} \right] = -i \left[\frac{4\pi (r_+)^2}{4G} + \frac{\beta C}{4} \right]$$
(28)

Therefore the magnitude turns out to be

$$|I| = \frac{4\pi (r_{+})^{2}}{4G} + \frac{\beta C}{4} = \frac{A(r_{+})}{4L_{P}^{2}} + \frac{\beta C}{4}$$
(29)

where the area of the outer horizon is $4\pi(r_+)^2$ and $G = L_P^2$ (L_P is the Planck length in four-dim). The end result is that |I| given by eq-(29) agrees with the Reissner-Nordstrom black hole entropy up to an *additive* constant, which diverges in the $\epsilon = 0$ limit. For a detailed discussion of the relevance of an additive constant in the evaluation of entropy see [19]. One is then forced to perform a *subtraction* in order to remove the divergent piece of (29) and arrive at the finite value for the Reissner-Nordstrom black hole entropy $A(r_+)/4G$. This was *not* necessary to do so in the Schwarzschild black hole entropy case as shown in eq-(11). One should emphasize that the classical divergence of the EM field at r = 0 is responsible for the divergence of |I| in eq-(29), whereas the ultraviolet divergences in the entanglement entropy between two spacetime regions are due to non-local correlations in QFT, see [17] for a very recent discussion.

Gibbons and Hawking [6] followed a very *different* procedure than the one taken in this work. In order to overcome the singularities that black hole metrics have they complexified the metric and evaluated the action on a contour which

avoids the singularities. In particular, they also were required to perform a gauge transformation in order to obtain a regular potential at the horizon, and arrived at $|I| = \frac{\beta}{2}(M - \frac{q^2}{r_+})$ which also agrees with the magnitude of the finite part of eq-(28).

Let us analyze the behavior of the additive constant $\frac{\beta C}{4}$ as $M \to 0, q^2 \to 0$ due to a Hawking evaporation process and verify that the entropy increases from a very large initial negative value $(-\infty \text{ in the } \epsilon \to 0 \text{ limit})$ to a zero final value. Since the area $A(r_+)$ also shrinks to zero at the end of the evaporation, the final entropy (29) reaches zero and no violation of the second law takes place since $\Delta S > 0$. One has that

$$\frac{\beta C}{4} = \frac{1}{4} \frac{2\pi (r_+)^3}{G(Mr_+ - q^2)} \frac{2q^2}{r_+} (1 - \frac{r_+}{2\epsilon})$$
(30)

We shall take the limits in the following form

$$M \to 0, \quad q^2 \to 0, \quad r_+ \to 0, \quad \epsilon \to 0; \quad \frac{q^2}{Mr_+} \to \frac{1}{2}, \quad \frac{r_+}{2\epsilon} = \frac{r_o}{\epsilon} \to 1$$
 (31)

so that the final value of the additive constant is zero as expected

$$\frac{\beta C}{4} \to \frac{4\pi (r_{+})^{2}}{L_{P}^{2}} (1 - \frac{r_{+}}{2\epsilon}) \to 0$$
 (32)

Most recently, a plethora of activity has been centered concerning the relation between generalized entropy $S_{gen} = \frac{A}{4G} + S_{ext}$ and von Neumann entropy such that the second law $\Delta S_{gen} \geq 0$ is obeyed at all times [16], even after Hawking evaporation takes place where the area A decreases since the thermal radiation's contribution compensates for the decrease in area. After reinstating the physical constants that were set to unity one has $S_{gen} = \frac{k_B c^3 A}{4Gh} + S_{ext}$. While the individual terms in S_{gen} are ill-defined in the semi-classical limit, their sum is well-defined if one takes into account perturbative quantum gravitational effects [18]. For a detailed discussion of von Neumann algebras, and generalized entropy see [18], [19], [15].

To finalize let us discuss the charged and rotating massive Kerr-Newman black hole whose fundamental parameters are the mass M, charge Q and angular momentum J. Gibbons and Hawking [6] extended their procedure to evaluate the Euclidean action integrals via complex contour integrals in other spacetimes which do not necessarily have a real Euclidean section like the Kerr-Newman metric solution and arrived at the expression for the black hole entropy. In our case, the EM action $-\frac{1}{16\pi}\int d^4x \sqrt{-g}F^2$ is divergent so a cut-off r_o directly related to the outer horizon radius r_+ would be needed in order to extract the finite part. The components of A_{μ} and $F_{\mu\nu}$ in Boyer-Lindquist coordinates are, respectively,

$$A_{\mu} = \left(\frac{r Q \sqrt{G}}{r^2 + a^2 \cos^2\theta}, 0, 0, -\frac{a r Q \sqrt{G} \sin^2\theta}{r^2 + a^2 \cos^2\theta}\right), \quad a \equiv \frac{J}{M}$$
(33a)

$$F_{rt} = \partial_r A_t, \quad F_{\theta t} = \partial_\theta A_t, \quad F_{r\phi} = \partial_r A_\phi, \quad F_{\theta \phi} = \partial_\theta A_\phi \tag{33b}$$

The angular rotation frequency Ω of the black hole at the horizon, and the black hole's electric potential Φ , given by the line integral of the black hole's electric field from infinity to any location on the horizon, are as follows [13]

$$\Omega = \frac{J}{M} \frac{1}{r_+^2 + (J/M)^2}, \quad \Phi = Q \frac{r_+}{r_+^2 + (J/M)^2}$$
(34)

with the outer and inner horizon radius given by

$$r_{\pm} = (GM) \pm \sqrt{(GM)^2 - GQ^2 - (J/M)^2}$$
 (35)

After choosing a judicious cut-off r_o proportional to r_+ , the finite part of the Euclidean EM action $-\frac{1}{16\pi}\int d^4x\sqrt{-g}F^2$ turns out to be $i\frac{\beta}{2}\Phi Q$ with Φ given by the Kerr-Newman black hole's electric potential in eq-(34).

Proceeding, from eq-(35) one infers that

$$GM = \frac{1}{2}(r_{+} + r_{-}), \quad \sqrt{(GM)^{2} - GQ^{2} - (J/M)^{2}} = \frac{1}{2}(r_{+} - r_{-}) \quad (36)$$

and

$$-GQ^{2} = \left(\frac{r_{+} - r_{-}}{2}\right)^{2} - \left(\frac{r_{+} + r_{-}}{2}\right)^{2} + a^{2}, \quad a \equiv \frac{J}{M}$$
(37)

The relations (36,37) are crucial in what follows. The value of the inverse Hawking temperature β is

$$\beta = \frac{1}{T} = 2\pi \frac{r_+^2 + (J/M)^2}{r_+ - GM}$$
(38)

Defining $a \equiv J/M$, and taking into account that the mass of the black hole M_H and the mass parameter M obey the relation $M = M_H + 2\Omega J \Rightarrow M_H = M - 2\Omega J$ [6], since the rotational energy contributes to the total mass, then the total Euclidean action $I = I_g + I_{EM}$ has the *same* functional form as the expression in eq-(28) for the finite part of the Reissner-Nordstrom case, and the magnitude |I| ends up being

$$|I| = \frac{\beta}{2} (M_H - \Phi Q) = \frac{\beta}{2} (M - 2\Omega J - \Phi Q) = \frac{\pi (r_+^2 + a^2)}{G} \left(\frac{GM(r_+^2 + a^2) - GQ^2r_+ - 2GMa^2}{(r_+ - GM)(r_+^2 + a^2)} \right)$$
(39)

after substituting the expressions in eqs-(34,38) for Ω , Φ and β . Using the key relations (36,37) one can show after some algebra that the quantity in the brackets in eq-(39) is precisely *unity*. Both the numerator and denominator are *equal* to

$$\frac{1}{2} \left(r_{+}^{3} - r_{+}^{2} r_{-} + a^{2} r_{+} - a^{2} r_{-} \right)$$
(40)

Therefore, one ends up with the final expression

$$|I| = \frac{4\pi (r_+^2 + a^2)}{4G} = \frac{4\pi (r_+^2 + a^2)}{4L_P^2}, \quad a = \frac{J}{M}$$
(41)

which is precisely the Kerr-Newman black hole entropy where the area of the horizon is $A = \int d\theta \int d\phi \sqrt{g_{\theta\theta}g_{\phi\phi}} = 4\pi (r_+^2 + a^2).$

Another way of explaining how this result (41) originates is to recall how Newman and Janis [13] showed that the Kerr metric could be obtained from the Schwarzschild metric by means of a coordinate transformation and allowing the radial coordinate to take on *complex* values. The Newman-Janis algorithm is based on making the replacement $r \to r + ia$. Originally, no clear reason for why the algorithm works was known and many physicists considered it to be an ad hoc procedure or a "fluke" not worthy of further investigation until Drake and Szekeres [14] gave a detailed explanation of the success of the algorithm and proved the uniqueness of certain solutions. In particular, the Kerr–Newman metric associated to a charged-rotating black hole can be obtained from the Reissner-Nordstrom metric by means of a coordinate transformation and allowing the radial coordinate to take on *complex* values. Consequently, by replacing $r_+^2 \to (r_+ + ia)(r_+ - ia) = r_+^2 + a^2$ in the quantity $4\pi r_+^2$ one recovers the Kerr-Newman black hole entropy in a straightforward fashion.

To conclude, the *crux* of all of these derivations of the back hole entropies relies in the key fact that the scalar curvature \mathcal{R} is *no* longer zero. And due to the contribution of the delta function $\delta(r)$ point mass source yields a non-trivial Euclidean Einstein-Hilbert action given by $\frac{1}{2}\beta M_H$. Since the scalar curvature involves two derivatives, by replacing *r* for |r|, one will generate the singular $\delta(r)$ terms but whose integration will be finite. Whereas the EM contribution leads to a divergence because the field strengths are given in terms of first derivatives $F_{\mu\nu} = \partial_{\mu}A_{\nu} - \partial_{\nu}A_{\mu}$, leading to the sign function sgn(r). Had there been a second derivative one would have had a delta function. For this reason one will end up with an infinite additive constant if one integrates the EM action all the way to the origin. An ultraviolet cut-off r_0 (proportional to r_+) has to be introduced. Whereas Gibbons and Hawking avoided singularities via a complex contour integration procedure [6].

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