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Geometric and Renormalized Entropy in Conformal Field Theory

CHRISTOPH HOLZHEY

Finn Larsen

Department of Physics

Joseph Henry Laboratories

Princeton University

Princeton, N.J. 08544

Frank Wilczek*

School of Natural Sciences
Institute for Advanced Study
Olden Lane
Princeton, N.J. 08540

^{*} Research supported in part by DOE grant DE-FG02-90ER40542. wilczek@iassns.bitnet

ABSTRACT

In statistical physics, useful notions of entropy are defined with respect to some coarse graining procedure over a microscopic model. Here we consider some special problems that arise when the microscopic model is taken to be relativistic quantum field theory. These problems are associated with the existence of an infinite number of degrees of freedom per unit volume. Because of these the microscopic entropy can, and typically does, diverge for sharply localized states. However the difference in the entropy between two such states is better behaved, and for most purposes it is the useful quantity to consider. In particular, a renormalized entropy can be defined as the entropy relative to the ground state. We make these remarks quantitative and precise in a simple model situation: the states of a conformal quantum field theory excited by a moving mirror. From this work, we attempt to draw some lessons concerning the "information problem" in black hole physics.

1. Introduction

Despite many startling experimental discoveries and revolutionary changes in the foundations of theoretical physics, the principles of thermodynamics have remained essentially unchanged since their formulation by Carnot and Clausius in the early nineteenth century. The reason for this unique stability has, in broad terms, long been known. It is that the thermodynamic laws are statistical regularities among coarse-grained, essentially macroscopic, quantities, which follow under very general assumptions about the underlying microscopic dynamics. A particularly clear, detailed exposition of this circle of ideas can be found in Tolman's classic book [1].

Nevertheless the derivation of macroscopic thermodynamics from microscopic dynamics is not *a priori*, and one must examine it critically in the light of changes in our understanding of the microscopic dynamics. In particular, in relativistic quantum field theory there are in principle an infinite number of degrees of freedom per unit volume, and questions arise whether all these degrees of freedom can come into equilibrium in a finite time, and whether one encounters ultraviolet divergences in thermodynamic quantities (and if so whether they may be regulated and renormalized).

This tension becomes acute when one discusses the application of thermodynamics to space-time geometries containing black hole event horizons and to the closely related moving mirror model. For in these situations there is, as we shall discuss in detail below, effectively a *sharp* boundary between accessible and inaccessible regions of space-time (for a natural class of observers). In the presence of such a sharp boundary, the aforementioned ultraviolet divergences actually do arise.

Our goal in this paper is to discuss these issues concretely in the simplest possible non-trivial setting, that of conformally invariant field theory in 1+1 space-time dimensions. In the following Section 2 we shall develop appropriate technique for calculating geometric entropy in conformal field theory. In Section 3 we apply

this machinery to the moving mirror model, showing how the geometric entropy arises naturally in a dynamical context, how ultraviolet divergences arise and how a useful renormalized entropy can be defined. Finally in Section 4 we briefly review the use of the moving mirror model in black hole physics, and attempt to draw lessons from our work regarding the corresponding problems of black hole entropy.

2. Geometric Entropy in Conformal Field Theory

2.1. Geometric Entropy in General

In statistical mechanics one does not resolve, but rather averages over, physically distinct states of a system which have common values of macroscopic state variables. Many microscopically different states look alike macroscopically. Entropy is a precise measure of this lack of resolution; roughly speaking, the entropy of a macroscopic state is the logarithm of the number of microscopic states with which it is consistent.

In quantum physics there is an additional, conceptually distinct source of entropy associated with the limitation of experiments to a finite volume. Even if the universe as a whole – or an idealized "closed system" – is taken to be in a definite pure state, say the ground state, a complete description of the information available to an observer who has access only to a partial set of the observables, such as those with support in a restricted volume, will be given by a non-trivial density matrix ρ . It is natural to use the same definition of entropy in this circumstance as one uses for density matrices associated with averaging over macroscopically equivalent microscopic states in statistical mechanics, that is,

$$S = -\text{tr}\rho \ln \rho \ . \tag{2.1}$$

This entropy describes correlations between the subsystem and the rest of the universe. Roughly speaking, it the logarithm of the number of states of the inaccessible part of the universe that are consistent with all measurements restricted to

the accessible part, together with a priori knowledge that the universe as a whole is in a pure state.

In quantum field theory the principle of locality is embodied directly, and there is a particularly natural, precise concept of geometric entropy along these lines [2–8]. Explicitly, the geometric entropy of a region R relative to a state (pure or mixed) U of the universe is defined as follows. Define a complete set of commuting observables $\hat{\xi}_{in}$, $\hat{\xi}_{out}$ that are localized respectively completely within and completely outside R. The density matrix of the universe $\rho_{\rm U}$ can be expressed as a function of the eigenvalues of these variables; to wit

$$\rho_{\rm U} = \rho_{\rm U}(\xi_{\rm in}^1, \xi_{\rm out}^1 ; \xi_{\rm in}^2, \xi_{\rm out}^2).$$
(2.2)

Then the density matrix for observations restricted to the inside is

$$\rho_{\rm in}(\xi_{\rm in}^1 \; ; \; \xi_{\rm in}^2) \; = \; \Sigma_{\xi_{\rm out}} \; \rho_{\rm U}(\xi_{\rm in}^1, \xi_{\rm out} \; ; \; \xi_{\rm in}^2, \xi_{\rm out}) \; . \tag{2.3}$$

In a simple scalar field theory one could use the field operators $\hat{\phi}(x)$ (at some definite fixed time) for the required set of observables. The heart of the matter is that these operators, being defined as local functions of position, are in an obvious way either inside or outside a specified region.

Thus far our discussion has been purely abstract and formal. It is notorious that divergences can occur for formally defined quantities in relativistic quantum field theories. The most fundamental divergences of this kind, with which we shall mainly be concerned below, arise from the singular ultraviolet or short-distance behavior of the theories. In our present context of thermodynamics and information theory, it is perhaps most suggestive to say that they arise from the existence of an infinite number of degrees of freedom per unit volume. In favorable cases one knows how to regulate and renormalize, in such a way that physically meaningful quantities are assigned definite finite values in the theory. It is perhaps not obvious that geometric entropy as defined above is a directly physically meaningful quantity, that must be finite in any realistic theory. For example no realistic

measuring apparatus resolves infinitely small distances, so the sharp distinction between inside and outside might appear to be an unrealistic idealization. As we shall see, a sharp cut-off typically brings in divergent entropy from the singular short-distance behavior of relativistic quantum field theory, which implies strong correlations between observables near the boundary. Nevertheless we shall argue below that geometric entropy arises very naturally in interesting physical problems, so that its divergence is of interest in and of itself. Considering how the regularized geometric entropy of a region varies as a function of the state of the whole universe, we define finite renormalized relative entropies, that appear to be quite meaningful physically.

2.2. Evaluations in Conformal Field Theory

To make the discussion concrete and explicit, we now specialize to the case where the field theory in question is a conformal field theory in (1+1) dimensions. Furthermore, in this section we consider only the vacuum state of the theory.

Introducing an infrared cutoff Λ , we take our universe to be $\mathcal{C} = [0, \Lambda[$ with periodic boundary conditions defining the region outside \mathcal{C} . The subsystem where measurements are performed is $\mathcal{R}_1 = [0, \Sigma[$. The degrees of freedom in the region $\mathcal{R}_2 = [\Sigma, \Lambda[$ are to be traced over. Now, the entropy (2.1) turns out to be infinite, because the problem as defined so far has no ultraviolet cutoff. Therefore localized excitations arbitrarily near the boundaries of the subsystem can correlate the subsystem with the rest of the universe, and they contribute arbitrarily much to the entropy. To regulate this, we introduce a smearing at the ends of the subsystem. Specifically, we take the ends to be at $\pm \epsilon_1$ and at $\Sigma \pm \epsilon_2$, instead of at 0 and at Σ . Here ϵ_i , i = 1, 2 are coarse graining parameters that parameterize how well the observer distinguishes the subsystem from the rest of the universe. As we shall now show, the microscopic entropy grows as ϵ_i becomes smaller and it diverges as $\epsilon_i \to 0$. We will show that the divergence is logarithmic and calculate its coefficient.

Conformal field theories, of course, respond in a simple way to conformal transformations. Such transformations are implemented as unitary transformations, and the vacuum is invariant under global conformal transformations. (The representation of conformal symmetry is projective, so that strictly speaking there is no way to choose the phase of the various transforms of the vacuum in a globally consistent way. The projective nature of the representation is variously manifested in the existence of a central charge in the Virasoro algebra, the anomalous transformation law of the energy-momentum tensor, and the trace anomaly. This subtlety, though it does not affect the present argument, will play an important role both implicitly and explicitly below.) From this we readily conclude that the geometric entropy relative to the vacuum is invariant. Indeed a conformal change of coordinates simply induces a change of basis (unitary transformation) among the operators of the theory, without altering their character as inside or outside nor their spectrum, and the trace (2.1) is manifestly invariant.

Thus we can use conformal mappings to simplify our calculations. This potential is most easily exploited by introducing complex coordinates, as follows. Let $\zeta = \sigma + i\tau$, where σ is the spatial coordinate and τ is the time coordinate, with $\tau = 0$ defining the Cauchy surface \mathcal{C} . We first make the problem more symmetric and canonical by mapping

$$w = -\frac{\sin\frac{\pi}{\Lambda}(\zeta - \Sigma)}{\sin\frac{\pi}{\Lambda}\zeta} \tag{2.4}$$

This transformation maps the subsystem to the positive half-axis and the rest of the universe to the negative half-axis. In the limit where $\Sigma \ll \Lambda$ the cutoffs are mapped to $\pm \frac{\epsilon_2}{\Sigma}$ and $\pm \frac{\Sigma}{\epsilon_1}$. The infrared cutoff Λ decouples from the ultraviolet cutoffs in this limit, allowing a clean separation to be made. We extrapolate off the real axis by picking our system as an annulus restricted to the lower half-plane, having inner and outer radii $\frac{\epsilon_2}{\Sigma}$ and $\frac{\Sigma}{\epsilon_1}$, respectively. This choice amounts to a convenient specification of how the smearings of the endpoints of the subsystem are extrapolated from $\tau = 0$ into the past. Details of this extrapolation are unimportant due to conformal invariance. The only function of the extrapolation to the

past is that imposing regularity there selects the vacuum state.

Now we transform

$$z = \frac{1}{\kappa} \ln w \tag{2.5}$$

where κ is an auxiliary parameter. κ has no independent physical meaning, and hence it must not appear appear in the final result. The transformation (2.5) maps our system on to a finite strip of width $\frac{\pi}{\kappa}$ and length $L = \frac{2}{\kappa} \log \frac{\Sigma}{\epsilon}$, where for simplicity we have chosen a symmetric cutoff $\epsilon = \epsilon_1 = \epsilon_2$. (One can recover the general case by substituting $\epsilon = \sqrt{\epsilon_1 \epsilon_2}$.)

The interval \mathcal{R}_1 representing the accessible subsystem is now the upper side of the strip, and the interval \mathcal{R}_2 representing the rest of the universe is the lower side of the strip. We impose periodic boundary conditions in the length direction of the strip. This amounts to a specification of the fields within the smearing intervals at the ends of the original subsystem. We shall argue below that the details of how these fields are specified within the smearing intervals does not affect our main results. Our sequence of mappings is shown in Figure 1.

With the specified regulators in place, the wavefunction of our system is

$$\Psi_{XY} \propto \int \mathcal{D}\phi e^{-S(\phi)}.$$
 (2.6)

where ϕ denotes a complete collection of local fields on our theory. In the functional integral boundary conditions specify the fields on the Cauchy surface $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{R}_1 \cup \mathcal{R}_2$, where \mathcal{R}_1 and \mathcal{R}_2 is the upper and lower part of the strip, respectively. We take $\phi = X$ on \mathcal{R}_1 and $\phi = Y$ on \mathcal{R}_2 , where X and Y are ordinary c-number functions^{*}. The density matrix describing the subsystem on \mathcal{R}_1 after tracing over variables on \mathcal{R}_2 is

$$\rho_{XX'} = \int \mathcal{D}Y \Psi_{XY} \Psi_{YX'}^* \tag{2.7}$$

In general, after the integration ρ can no longer be written in the factorized form $\rho_{XX'} = a_X a_{X'}$ for any function a_X . Thus the system is in a mixed state.

 $[\]star$ A number of subtleties arise for fermions. They will be discussed in a separate paper.

Indeed, in the present coordinates it is described by a very specific and familiar mixed state. For the integral in (2.7) can be represented by pasting together two copies of the strip along \mathcal{R}_2 . Then we have the fields specified on two sides of a strip of width $\frac{2\pi}{\kappa}$. Interpreting the functional integral as implementing evolution in imaginary time, one realizes that we have specified the matrix element of the thermal density matrix at inverse temperature $\beta = \frac{2\pi}{\kappa}$.

For free field theory one could easily characterize the functions X and Y by their Fourier components, and carry out the evaluation of the wave functional and the density matrix explicitly. One can also make progress in more general cases. However for our present purpose of evaluating the entropy it will be sufficient to work with the foregoing abstract expressions, valid for any conformal field theory described by a Lagrangean.

Inserting (2.6) in (2.7) and normalizing we find

$$\rho_{XX'} = \frac{1}{Z(1)} \int \mathcal{D}\phi e^{-S(\phi)} . \qquad (2.8)$$

Here the functional integral is over a strip of height $\frac{2\pi}{\kappa}$ with boundary conditions $\phi = X$ on the upper side and $\phi = X'$ on the lower side. Z(1) is determined by the condition that $\operatorname{tr} \rho = 1$, so it is given by the same functional integral expression but with periodic boundary conditions on top and bottom. Since we have already imposed periodic boundary conditions in the length direction of the system, Z(1) is the partition function on a torus.

The entropy corresponding to the density matrix (2.8) is calculated using the replica trick

$$S = -\operatorname{tr}\rho \ln \rho = -(\frac{d}{dn})_{n=1}\operatorname{tr}\rho^n$$

Here ρ^n is found by first calculating ρ^n for integers n and then analytically continued to general n. In our case (2.8) gives

$$\rho_{XX'}^n = \frac{1}{Z(1)^n} \int \mathcal{D}\phi e^{-S(\phi)}$$

where the integral is over a strip with width $\frac{2\pi n}{\kappa}$. This is trivially extended to general n. Taking the trace we find

$$S = -\left(\frac{d}{dn}\right)_{n=1} \frac{Z(n)}{Z(1)^n} = (1 - n\frac{d}{dn})_{n=1} \ln Z(n) . \tag{2.9}$$

Here the symbol Z(n) denotes the partition function on a torus which measures $2\pi n/\kappa$ and L around the two cycles.

Let us illustrate this formalism by the case of free scalar (massless) bosons. The partition function is readily calculated by expanding in normal modes. Choosing periodic boundary conditions, for definiteness, one finds

$$Z(n) = \frac{1}{\eta \bar{\eta}} \tag{2.10}$$

where

$$\eta = q^{\frac{1}{24}} \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} (1 - q^k); \quad q = e^{2\pi i \tau}$$

in terms of the modular parameter $\tau=i\frac{2\pi n}{\kappa L}$. Except for the factor $(q\bar{q})^{\frac{-1}{24}}$, which we have included for a reason to be discussed presently, the partition function has the same form as that of that for free photon gas with inverse temperature n and energy levels k in appropriate units, as anticipated. Noting that $\ln q \propto n$, which is proportional to the height of the strip, i.e. the inverse temperature, we see that in the expression

$$S = (1 - \ln q \frac{\partial}{\partial \ln q} - \ln \bar{q} \frac{\partial}{\partial \ln \bar{q}}) \ln Z(1)$$
 (2.11)

the contribution from the extra prefactor cancels, so that the entropy has the the standard thermodynamic form $S = \beta(F - E)$ in appropriate units^{*}. The

^{*} We are adhering to the convention that q and \bar{q} are to be treated as independent variables. They describe the contribution of holomorphic and anti-holomorphic, or left- and right-moving, modes, respectively. Since we are treating them symmetrically, we are implicitly dealing with a non-chiral scalar field. For a free chiral scalar, the entropy is of course just half as large.

calculation of geometric entropy therefore reduces to the elementary calculation of the entropy of a thermal photon gas in one dimension. One thereby finds

$$S = \frac{1}{3} \ln \frac{\Sigma}{\epsilon} \ . \tag{2.12}$$

We note with relief that the parameter κ of the coordinate transformation does not appear in the final result. It cancels between the entropy per unit volume and the volume. The entropy is divergent as $\epsilon \to 0$, as advertised.

Now let us return to discuss the prefactor. It arises if we write the unnormalized density matrix as $\tilde{\rho} = \langle e^{-\beta H} \rangle$ and take into account the anomalous transformation law of the energy-momentum tensor. The additional c-number contribution to the Hamiltonian resulting from this transformation law resets the zero of energy. Correspondingly it changes the normalization of $\tilde{\rho}$, and the partition function, but not the normalized density matrix nor the geometric entropy, consistent with our previous argument.

In the preceding discussion we have assumed, for convenience, that $\Sigma \ll \Lambda$. One can go through the same manipulations without making this assumption; the result is

$$S = \frac{1}{3} \ln \left(\frac{\Lambda}{\epsilon} \sin \frac{\left(\frac{\pi \Sigma}{\Lambda} \right)}{\pi} \right) . \tag{2.13}$$

The entropy is the same for inside and outside (Σ and $\Lambda - \Sigma$), as it should be. In using this expression we must still assume $\Lambda - \Sigma \gg \epsilon$ and $\Sigma \gg \epsilon$. With this restriction, note that the entropy reaches a maximum when $\Sigma = \Lambda/2$, and then decreases as Σ increases further. This is as it should be – when the subsystem begins to fill most of the universe, there is less information to be lost by not measuring outside. As $\Lambda - \Sigma$ or Σ becomes comparable to ϵ the entropy becomes of $\mathcal{O}(1)$, and it looses physical meaning as it becomes dependent on the details of the regularization.

Srednicki [4,9] has reported numerical results for the geometric entropy. He also finds a logarithmic divergence and the coefficient agrees approximately with

(2.12). However, he also finds an additional term that depends on the infrared cutoff Λ . Some of this dependence may be described by (2.13), but we should also point out that our calculation has ignored 0-modes. If these are allowed by the boundary conditions, it can be argued that they add a contribution that depends on the infrared cutoff, [9–11].

The entropy may be found in a different way, that has its own intrinsic interest and does not appeal to ordinary thermodynamics as a deus ex machina. The partition function (2.10) is invariant under the modular transformation $\tau \to -\frac{1}{\tau}$, so we can take $\tau = \frac{i\kappa L}{2\pi n}$. Now $\ln q \propto 1/n$ so (2.9) gives

$$S = \left(1 + \ln q \frac{\partial}{\partial \ln q} + \ln \bar{q} \frac{\partial}{\partial \ln \bar{q}}\right) \ln Z(1)$$
 (2.14)

This differs from (2.11) by the sign of the logarithms. We find

$$S = -\frac{1}{6}\ln q - 2(1 + \ln q \frac{\partial}{\partial \ln q}) \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \ln(1 - q^k)$$

But $q = e^{-\kappa L}$ is exponentially small, so we can omit the last term and recover

$$S = -\frac{1}{6}\ln q = \frac{1}{3}\ln\frac{\Sigma}{\epsilon}.$$

The modular transformation vastly simplified the calculation: we started with a system which had an excitation spectrum like the free photon gas, and to calculate the entropy we needed to carry out the sum over all those many–particle degrees of freedom. In contrast, after the modular transformation only a seemingly inoccuous vacuum piece contributed. The presence or absence of the prefactor $(q\bar{q})^{\frac{-1}{24}}$ did not affect the original calculation since it cancels in (2.11). It does, however, ensure invariance under the modular transformation, after which the prefactor contained all the information needed. Geometrically the transformation $\tau \to -\frac{1}{\tau}$ amounts to interchange of width and length of the torus, a transformation that is simply a change in bookkeeping. However, it is well known in conformal field theory and

string theory that in the Hamiltonian interpretation of the partition function, the modular transformation relates the many highly excited states to the few low lying states in a non-trivial way. That is why, in our context, the contribution from all the many-particle states can be found with so little effort.

The latter calculation of the entropy can be generalized immediately to the general conformal field theory. We still have formula (2.14) for the entropy. For a conformal field theory with central extensions c and \bar{c} , the partition function on the torus is [12]

$$Z(\tau,\bar{\tau}) = q^{-\frac{c}{24}}\bar{q}^{-\frac{\bar{c}}{24}} \operatorname{tr} q^{L_0} \bar{q}^{\bar{L}_0}$$
(2.15)

with $q = \bar{q} = e^{-\kappa L}$. So

$$\ln Z = -\frac{c + \bar{c}}{24} \ln q + \text{Intr} q^{L_0 + \bar{L}_0}$$
 (2.16)

Now we expand

$$\operatorname{tr} q^{L_0 + \bar{L}_0} = 1 + q^{\alpha} + \dots \tag{2.17}$$

where $\alpha > 0$ and the dots denote yet higher positive powers of q. The existence of an expansion in positive powers of q is due to the requirement of positive dimensions of all fields in the theory, which is needed to ensure locality. With this expression we see that the last term in (2.16) is exponentially suppressed and we find

$$S = \frac{c + \bar{c}}{6} \ln \frac{\Sigma}{\epsilon} \tag{2.18}$$

for the general conformal field theory. The derivation shows that this expression is exact, i.e. corrections corresponding to higher powers of q vanish as $\epsilon \to 0$, rather than just being subleading.

We should emphasize that the general calculation does not assume that the partition function on the torus is invariant under the full group of modular transformations. In fact, we merely use that after the transformation $\tau \to -\frac{1}{\tau}$ the

partition function has the form (2.15) with an expansion (2.17). In our interpretation of the partition function, one of the cycles of the torus corresponds to taking the trace of ρ^n . In this direction physics demands periodic boundary conditions (for bosonic variables). In contrast extra twists along the other cycle do have a legitimate interpretation as a change of spatial boundary conditions. The modular transformation changes the cycles so as to forbid twists along the spatial cycle instead. Hence twists cannot contribute to the vacuum energy of the Hamiltonian, i.e. $L_0 + \bar{L}_0$ has 0 as eigenvalue in the vacuum state. This is exactly what we use.

There is a caveat: the discussion so far assumes that the vacuum is non-degenerate. This is amounts to ignoring 0-modes. Including them can change the normalization of the partition function by a power of the modular parameter τ . This may introduce additional, but subleading, dependence on the ultraviolet cutoff. We will continue to ignore the 0-modes.

2.3. Another Approach

The preceding derivations of (2.18) do not bring out the physical origin of the logarithmic divergence with optimal clarity. We will now therefore rederive (2.18) in a manner which stresses how the entropy arises through coarse graining in real space, without explicit use of mode expansions or modular invariance. The calculation follows ideas of Cardy [13].

We use the w coordinates, where the system is represented by an annulus restricted to the lower halfplane. The positive real axis is the subsystem where observations are made, and the negative real axis is the rest of the universe. Forming the density matrix of the accessible subsystem we trace over variables on the negative real axis. Then the density matrix is given by a functional integral over fields over the whole annulus, with the indices X and X' of $\rho_{XX'}$ specifying fields on the lower and upper side of the positive real axis. As before we use the replica trick

$$S = (1 - n\frac{d}{dn})_{n=1} \ln Z(n)$$

where $Z(n) \propto \operatorname{tr} \rho^n$ is the partition function of an annulus covered n times. Extending n analytically to be slightly less than 1, we can interpret Z(n) as the partition function on a cone with $2\pi n$ in angular circumference.

Now we coarse grain the system by taking $\epsilon \to (1+\alpha)\epsilon$. The annulus has outer radius $R_2 = \frac{\Sigma}{\epsilon}$ which decreases and inner radius $R_1 = \frac{\epsilon}{\Sigma}$ which increases. By dimensional analysis $\ln Z$ depends only on the ratio of the two radii, so we can choose to rescale only the outer radius twice as much and keep the inner one fixed. This is implemented by the rescaling $x^{\mu} \to x'^{\mu} = (1-2\alpha)x^{\mu}$, in the limit where not only α but also R_1 is treated as small, i.e. we squeeze the inner boundary to a conical singularity. Using conformal invariance of the path integral measure and the definition of the energy momentum tensor as the generator of coordinate transformations it is easy to show

$$\delta \ln Z = -\frac{1}{2\pi} \int \langle T^{\nu}_{\mu} \rangle \frac{\partial x'^{\mu}}{\partial x^{\nu}} d^2 r = \frac{\alpha}{\pi} \int \langle T^{\mu}_{\mu} \rangle d^2 r$$

With $\alpha = \frac{\delta \epsilon}{\epsilon}$ we find

$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial \ln \epsilon} = (1 - n \frac{d}{dn})_{n=1} \frac{\partial \ln Z(n)}{\partial \ln \epsilon} = (1 - n \frac{d}{dn})_{n=1} \frac{1}{\pi} \int \langle T^{\mu}_{\mu} \rangle d^2 r \tag{2.19}$$

The trace of the energy momentum tensor is related to the curvature of the manifold and its boundaries [13]. Inserting the appropriate expressions (2.18) can be recovered.

We find it illuminating to proceed slightly differently, writing

$$\int \langle T^{\mu}_{\mu} \rangle d^2 r = \int \frac{\partial x^{\mu}}{\partial x^{\nu}} \langle T^{\nu}_{\mu} \rangle d^2 r = \int x^{\mu} \langle T_{\mu\nu} \rangle dS^{\nu} = -i \int w \langle T(w) \rangle dw + \text{h.c.} \quad (2.20)$$

where we introduced complex coordinates. Performing the surface integral we are to integrate over the outer surface only. The expectation value of T(w) on a cone with angular circumference $2\pi n$ is easily found by mapping to the cone with n=1 which is simply a disc. We map $w=y^n$ and impose $\langle T(y)\rangle=0$ on the disc. This

is appropriate to our problem, since the primary object of study is the geometric entropy relative to the ground state on the disc. Using the standard transformation formula for a conformal field theory with central charge c,

$$T(w) = \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial w}\right)^2 T(f(y)) + \frac{c}{12} S_y(w); \quad S_y(w) = \frac{y''' y' - \frac{3}{2} (y'')^2}{(y')^2}$$
(2.21)

we find

$$\langle T(w) \rangle = \frac{c}{24} (1 - \frac{1}{n^2}) \frac{1}{w^2} .$$

Inserting this in (2.20), we find

$$\int \langle T^{\mu}_{\mu} \rangle d^2 r = \frac{c + \bar{c}}{24} (1 - \frac{1}{n^2}) 2\pi n$$

which we insert in (2.19) to find

$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial \ln \epsilon} = -\frac{c + \bar{c}}{6}$$

By integrating this we recover (2.18) . Notice that in this procedure a finite ϵ -independent term cannot be excluded.

In this derivation the conformal anomaly plays a crucial role. Formally, and classically, the trace of the energy-momentum tensor vanishes as a consequence of conformal invariance; but the necessity of regulating the quantum theory brings in the correction term c. This term corresponds directly to extra correlations in the products of energy-momentum tensors at short distances, appearing in the operator product

$$T(z)T(z') \rightarrow \frac{c}{2}(z-z')^{-4} + \text{less singular}.$$
 (2.22)

Thus the divergence in the geometric entropy can be traced, quite directly, to the singular short-distance behavior of quantum field theory.

3. Renormalized Entropy for Moving Mirror States

In the previous Section we have discussed the concept of geometric entropy, and evaluated it for finite intervals relative to the ground state of conformal field theories in 1+1 dimensions. We found that it diverges in the absence of an ultraviolet cutoff, and must be regulated. Since the high-energy modes responsible for the divergence are not easily excited, however, we might expect that the divergent piece of the geometric entropy will not change if we evaluate it relative to some other low-energy state. This suggests that the difference between the geometric entropy of a given state and that of the vacuum is a finite quantity characterizing an interesting physical property of the state.

Now we proceed to a simple class of excited states for which the geometric entropy is readily evaluated (and, as we shall see, has an interesting physical interpretation.) We consider a conformal field theory in 1+1 dimensions with a boundary at $\bar{z} = f(z)$, where f(z) is an arbitrary function. We require the fields in the theory to vanish on the boundary, which can therefore be interpreted as a perfectly reflecting moving mirror. For definiteness we choose to consider the model to the right of the boundary.

To an observer far to the right of the mirror, the moving mirror manifests itself as a change in the radiation field compared to the case of a stationary mirror. Thus each mirror trajectory corresponds to a state. It is natural to identify the stationary mirror with the vacuum.

The mirror model is easily solved by performing the conformal transformation $z \to f(z)$. This relates the moving mirror to a stationary mirror, which is trivial.

Let us use this procedure to calculate the microscopic entropy as seen by a distant observer. As Cauchy surface we choose a line of constant \bar{z} . This surface is light-like, so the material observer can not choose it as his or her world line; nevertheless it is possible to monitor an interval $[z_1, z_2]$ on the Cauchy surface by appropriate organization of the measuring apparatus. For right-moving modes, as

we consider, it is only necessary to monitor a surface that intersected by the same light-rays; this surface can be chosen space-like or even at a fixed time. Applying (2.18) we should take $\bar{c} = 0$ since we only consider one set of modes.

It is natural for the observer to choose the smearing at the ends of the interval symmetrically as seen in his or her coordinate system. Since

$$\epsilon_f = f'(z)\epsilon_z$$

this choice corresponds to an asymmetric choice in the f-coordinate system, where the mirror is stationary. This apparently technical point makes a world of difference, as we shall now see. Expression (2.18) for the entropy in the vacuum state is valid in the coordinate system where the mirror is stationary. Recalling $\epsilon = \sqrt{\epsilon_1 \epsilon_2}$ for an asymmetric choice of smearing, we find

$$S_{\text{bare}} = \frac{c}{6} \ln \frac{\Sigma}{\epsilon} = \frac{c}{12} \ln \frac{\Sigma^2}{\epsilon_{f,1} \epsilon_{f,2}} = \frac{c}{12} \ln \frac{(f(z_2) - f(z_1))^2}{f'(z_1) f'(z_2) \epsilon_z^2}$$

Clearly the entropy of the system is infinite in the limit $\epsilon_z \to 0$.

However, the observer would find this infinity even if the mirror were not moving at all, *i.e.* if observation were made in vacuum. It is therefore natural to define

$$S_{\rm ren} = S_{\rm bare} - S_{\rm vac}$$

where S_{vac} is the entropy expected for a stationary mirror, that is, for f(z) = z. The renormalized entropy S_{ren} is

$$S_{\text{ren}} = \frac{c}{12} \ln \frac{(f(z_2) - f(z_1))^2}{(z_2 - z_1)^2 f'(z_2) f'(z_1)}$$
(3.1)

 $S_{\rm ren}$ is independent of the smearing ϵ_z , and in particular it is finite as $\epsilon_z \to 0$. This is the physical entropy. It is a property of the state of the system, which expresses the information content of the state.

(3.1) is a central result of our analysis. As we shall see in the following Section, it has an interesting application to black hole physics. Before discussing that, however, we would like to elucidate the meaning of (3.1) by eliminating the function f in favor of physical variables directly accessible to our observer.

Consider the energy–momentum tensor T(z). We require $\langle T(f(z))\rangle = 0$ for the stationary mirror, and again invoke the transformation law

$$T(z) = f'(z)^{2}T(f(z)) + \frac{c}{12}S_{f}(z); \quad S_{f}(z) = \frac{f'''f' - \frac{3}{2}(f'')^{2}}{(f')^{2}}.$$
 (3.2)

Thus we find a non–zero $\langle T(z) \rangle$, unless $S_f(z)$ happens to vanish. A non-vanishing result corresponds to a flux of particles away from the mirror. When the moving mirror is interpreted as a model for a black hole, this is the Hawking radiation. The 2–point correlations are

$$C(z_2, z_1) \equiv \langle T(z_2) T(z_1) \rangle - \langle T(z_2) \rangle \langle T(z_1) \rangle = \frac{c}{2} \frac{f'(z_2)^2 f'(z_1)^2}{(f(z_2) - f(z_1))^4}$$

where we have used the standard result

$$\langle T(f(z_2))T(f(z_1))\rangle = \frac{c/2}{(f(z_2) - f(z_1))^4}$$

for the plane, which is also valid for the half-plane. The function $C(z_2, z_1)$ describes correlations in the energy momentum observed.

For the trajectory

$$f(z) = c_1 + c_2 e^{-z/4M} (3.3)$$

which arises when the moving mirror is used as a model for Schwarzschild geometry, the correlation function is thermal with temperature $T_H = \frac{1}{8\pi M}$. However not all of these correlations can be attributed to the Hawking radiation, since even for a stationary mirror we expect correlations, namely the vacuum correlations.

In any case, we can describe the excess of correlations relative to vacuum by dividing the correlation function $C(z_2, z_1)$ by its value $C_0(z_2, z_1)$ expected for a stationary mirror. Then an intriguing coincidence emerges:

$$S_{\rm ren} = -\frac{1}{24} \ln \frac{C}{C_0} \ . \tag{3.4}$$

(3.4) allows a heuristic interpretation of the renormalized entropy, as a measure of correlations in the observed energy—momentum tensor being in excess of the correlations expected in vacuum. Notice that if there are more correlations in the observed radiation than expected in vacuum S_{ren} is negative! This is as it should be, because it corresponds to the state being more ordered than vacuum, which has vanishing entropy. The locally negative entropy found here is very reminiscent of the locally negative energy which emerges in analyses of the Casimir effect and of vacuum polarization near black hole horizons. (3.4) is physically very reasonable, and it links the renormalized entropy to correlations in as concrete a manner as one could desire. Whether it has a useful generalization outside the immediate context of the moving mirror problem, is a question worthy of further investigation.

4. Application to Black Holes

4.1. Moving Mirrors, Collapse, and Radiance

We will now briefly review the well-known connection between the mirror model and collapse geometry, in a language consistent with our previous discussion. We use a notation that is conventional in black hole physics [14]. It differs from the conformal field theory notation used so far.

Consider for simplicity a spherically symmetric collapsing shell of matter. We have vacuum inside and outside the shell, while the shell carries a given amount of mass (and possibly other quantum numbers). Thanks to Birkhoff's theorem, we

know the metric in both regions:

$$ds^{2} = \begin{cases} dr^{2} - d\tau^{2} - r^{2}d\Omega^{2}, & \text{for } \tau + r \leq V_{s}; \\ \lambda^{2}dt^{2} - \lambda^{-2}dr^{2} - r^{2}d\Omega^{2}, & \text{for } t + r \geq v_{s}. \end{cases}$$
(4.1)

Note that in order to exhibit the metric in each region in its familiar (static) form, two different sets of coordinates had to be used. It is convenient to introduce light-cone coordinates in each region. In the interior region we use simply $U = \tau - r$ and $V = \tau + r$, whereas in the outer region we first define the tortoise-coordinate r_* through

$$\frac{dr_*}{dr} = \frac{1}{\lambda^2},\tag{4.2}$$

and then take $u = t - r_*$ and $v = t + r_*$ as light-cone coordinates. The space-time is described by the metric:

$$ds^{2} = \begin{cases} dUdV - r^{2}d\Omega^{2}, & \text{for } V \leq V_{s}; \\ \lambda^{2}dudv - r^{2}d\Omega^{2}, & \text{for } v \geq v_{s}, \end{cases}$$

$$(4.3)$$

where r is determined through the relations

$$V - U = 2r,$$
 for $V \le V_s;$
$$v - u = 2r_*(r),$$
 for $v \ge v_s.$ (4.4)

When we paste together the two coordinate systems for the interior and exterior region to form a global coordinate-system, we can choose to coincide with (4.3) either in the exterior or in the interior region. The first choice is natural from the point of view of a distant observer, while the second is more convenient to implement the boundary condition at the origin and to display the complete spacetime structure.

Let us consider first the former choice, that is using u-v-coordinates in both regions and looking for a satisfactory coordinate-transformation U(u) and V(v).

In the infinite past the space-time is flat and there is no difference between the two coordinate systems. This implies that we can choose V(v) = v. We find the function U(u) by demanding that along the worldline $v = v_s$ of the shell the coordinate r should agree in both systems, because it has a coordinate invariant meaning (it determines the area of a two-sphere at constant radius and time). Applying (4.4) along $v = v_s$ we obtain the implicit relation:

$$r_* \left(r = \frac{v_s - U(u)}{2} \right) = \frac{v_s - u}{2}.$$
 (4.5)

Differentiating this equation along the worldline of the shell we find, with the help of the defining equation (4.2) for r_* ,

$$\frac{dU}{du} = \lambda^2(u, v_s),\tag{4.6}$$

so that the metric becomes:

$$ds^{2} = \begin{cases} \lambda^{2}(u, v_{s})dudv - r^{2}d\Omega^{2}, & \text{for } v < v_{s}; \\ \lambda^{2}(u, v)dudv - r^{2}d\Omega^{2}, & \text{for } v > v_{s}, \end{cases}$$

$$(4.7)$$

which is continuous along v_s . The metric is, of course, only valid for non-negative values of r, *i.e.* for $v \ge U(u)$. The world-line of the origin is therefore described by

$$v_o(u) = U(u). (4.8)$$

Since nothing can go beyond the regular origin, *i.e.* to negative r, it acts like a perfectly reflecting mirror.

In the u-v-frame the shell never crosses the horizon since r_* and $t = v_s - r_*$ diverge as the horizon is approached. On the other hand we know that the shell reaches the origin in finite proper time. In order to describe the whole space-time, including the interior of the black hole it is convenient to use the U-V-coordinates,

which provide a complete cover since they contain the origin until the shell reaches it. The space-time is then described by

$$ds^{2} = \begin{cases} dUdV - r^{2}d\Omega^{2}, & \text{for } v \leq v_{s}; \\ \lambda^{2}(u, v)\lambda^{-2}(u, v_{s})dUdV - r^{2}d\Omega^{2}, & \text{for } v \geq v_{s}, \end{cases}$$

$$(4.9)$$

In spite of its appearance, the metric is regular on the horizon where $\lambda^2 = 0$. The origin is stationary at V = U until the shell reaches it.

For a shell of mass M one has explicitly for the tortoise coordinate

$$r_*(r) = r + 2M \ln|r - 2M| + c,$$
 (4.10)

and thus from (4.5)

$$u = U - 4M \ln |(-4M - U + v_s)/2| - 2c. \tag{4.11}$$

c is here an arbitrary integration constant. As U approaches $U_h = v_s - 4M$, u diverges, which identifies the line $U = U_h$ with the future horizon. Alternatively, the finite range of U implies according to (4.8) that the origin approaches the light-like asymptote $v = U_h$ at late times as viewed in the u-v-frame. At very early times, the origin is at rest because as $u \to -\infty$, $U \approx u$. At late times we can invert (4.11) by neglecting the linear term. We find that U(u) is of the general form

$$U(u) = c_1 + c_2 e^{-\kappa u}, (4.12)$$

where $\kappa = 1/4M$ is the surface gravity. This relation is nothing but the familiar transformation between Eddington-Finkelstein and Kruskal-coordinates:

$$U_K = -4Me^{-u/4M}. (4.13)$$

At late times our coordinate U therefore agrees with Kruskal U_K , while V equals v is always of the Eddington-Finkelstein type.

The upshot of all this is simply to justify partially but precisely the idea that the geometry of spherical collapse may be modeled by a moving mirror problem. In this model the mirror arises at the origin of coordinates (not the horizon); its "motion" is an effective representation of the distortion of space-time in the collapse. An important feature left out of the model in its simplest form is the non-trivial spatial curvature outside the shell.

4.2. Causal Structure of the Mirror Problem

In the moving mirror problem, we consider the evolution of a massless scalar field in 1+1 dimensions subject to the boundary condition

$$\phi(z(t), t) = 0 \tag{4.14}$$

along the mirror trajectory z = z(t). The scalar field is defined to vanish on the left-hand side of the mirror. The effect of the boundary condition is of course that rays incident on the mirror reflect off it.

As we have discussed, the mirror plays the role of the origin r=0 in space – the center of the hole – in the black hole problem. Thus reflection off the mirror mimics the propagation of an ingoing wave to the center and its emergence as an outgoing wave. The distortion of space-time – essentially the lengthening of space (and shortening of time) near the surface of the hole – in during collapse has a dynamical effect similar to the effect of a rapidly receding mirror in 1+1 dimensional flat space. Indeed the fundamental effect is that rays reflected off a rapidly receding mirror are severely red-shifted – as are the rays, crucial to Hawking's analysis, which barely avoid being trapped behind the incipient horizon.

Three types of mirror trajectories are illustrated in Figures 2-4.

The first trajectory type describes a mirror that accelerates away from rest at t = 0 and approaches the speed of light asymptotically. Let the asymptote light-ray be denoted A as in Figure 2. Since we are dealing, for simplicity, with a

massless field we may consider only left-moving modes. Let us define points 1, 2, 4, 5 as in the Figure, and use the same labels to distinguish the rays emanating from these points at t = 0.

We see that rays such as 1 and 2, which begin to the left of A, intersect the mirror and propagate out to spatial infinity at the right, denoted in deference to the black hole interpretation as \mathcal{I}_+ . On the other hand rays such as 4 and 5, which begin to the right of A, never intersect the mirror. They propagate to the left infinity, denoted as \mathcal{H}_+ . (This infinity may seem a little funny from the point of view of the metaphorical interpretation of z as the effective position of the black-hole origin. The point is that the effective radial distance from the point of view of wave propagation is most appropriately measured in intervals of the tortoise coordinate r_* , which diverges to $-\infty$ at the black hole horizon. By the way, these rays leave the Figure in finite affine time.)

Now consider the problem of the the evolution of a quantum state defined for z > 0 at t = 0 into the distant future. Naturally one should consider first the ground state, defined by the absence of positive-frequency modes. It is evident that the time interval between the arrival of 1 and 2 at a given point in space before they reflect is much dilated after they reflect. Thus the frequency of waves is altered, and negative-frequency wave can acquire positive-frequency components. This would be interpreted as the creation of an excited state on \mathcal{I}_+ . For an appropriate mirror trajectory, as we shall see, the state on \mathcal{I}_+ will be a thermal state, with its temperature related to the rate of acceleration of the mirror. Clearly all information concerning the state of the field ϕ in region A to the left of A at t = 0 is propagated to \mathcal{I}_+ .

Rays such as 4 and 5 beginning to the right of A propagate undisturbed to \mathcal{H}_+ . Clearly all information concerning the state of the field ϕ in the region to the right of A at t=0 is propagated to \mathcal{H}_+ . If we start with the ground state on t=0, an observer making measurements on \mathcal{H}_+ also sees his natural ground state.

Now according to basic principles of quantum mechanics, which of course are

certainly not contradicted by anything in the simple model problem under consideration, a pure state localized to the left of A would propagate into a pure state on \mathcal{I}_+ and a pure state localized to the right of A would propagate into a pure state on \mathcal{H}_+ . However, the ground state at t=0 is not pure when restricted either to either side of A. The positive-frequency condition forces consideration of modes which extend over both intervals, and introduces correlations between these intervals. Indeed, the two-point function $\langle \phi(1)\phi(3)\rangle$ at t=0, for example, certainly does not vanish. Furthermore, this correlation will propagate in a simple way into the future, introducing correlations between \mathcal{I}_+ and \mathcal{H}_+ . Thus we should not be shocked to find a mixed state if we consider \mathcal{I}_+ by itself, without regard to (tracing over) the state on \mathcal{H}_+ . And this indeed is what we do find: the correlation functions on \mathcal{I}_+ , for the appropriate trajectory of this type, are precisely thermal, and therefore certainly must be described by a mixed state on \mathcal{I}_+ .

The phenomenon that may be a shock to one's intuition is that it is correlations between the rich thermal state on \mathcal{I}_+ and the apparently barren desert on \mathcal{H}_+ which insure purity of the whole. Thus for example the expectation value of the energy-momentum tensor vanishes, and its multi-point correlators are vacuous (i.e. indistinguishable from the vacuum), when restricted to \mathcal{H}_+ – but its cross-correlators between \mathcal{H}_+ and \mathcal{I}_+ do not vanish. This peculiar phenomenon, whose existence and nature is made quite transparent by the foregoing extremely elementary observations, was noted and emphasized by Carlitz and Willey [15]. (However they somewhat obscured the issue by claiming in effect that particle creation on \mathcal{I}_+ is uniquely and locally related to particle creation on \mathcal{H}_+ , which is not the case.) It shows in as dramatic fashion as one could desire that the purity of a big complicated state with gigantic entropy (in any sense) can be restored at little – here actually at zero – cost in energy.

Now let us consider the mirror trajectory depicted in Figure 3, which is the same as the one discussed for a long interval of time, but such that the mirror eventually stops accelerating. Then all rays eventually intersect the mirror, and get reflected to \mathcal{I}_+ . Thus we obtain on \mathcal{I}_+ a pure state which looks thermal for

an arbitrarily long time. Of course once the mirror stops accelerating there is no longer any radiation emitted. The transition to zero acceleration can be done smoothly, so that only a small burst (whose magnitude is essentially independent of the length of the interval over which thermal radiation has occurred) accompanies it. Thus altogether one finds, similar to the previous case, that quantum purity comes at a small price.

The situation of Figure 3 is not yet a model for complete black hole evaporation. For although positive frequencies at late times are indeed reflected into positive frequencies, and there is no particle production, yet the frequency is highly redshifted. Thus real particles at late times will sense (in the interpretation of the mirror as the locus of the origin) a remnant that delays them for a long time and saps their energy. It is left for the reader to invent witty names for such a remnant.

Finally in Figure 4 we have the situation where the mirror returns to rest. Real particles emitted at late times, which intersect the mirror during its second period of rest, behave as if passing through the origin of empty space in the analogue problem. Thus this provides a model for a black hole that evaporates completely. From the nature of the construction, any pure initial state evolves into a pure final state.

4.3. Correlation Functions and Renormalized Entropy

For simple forms of matter, e.g. a free massless scalar field or any conformal field theory, the moving mirror problem is eminently tractable. Any quantity of interest may be calculated explicitly. For example one has for the correlation function of the fields

$$G_{vac}(1,2) \equiv \langle 0 | \phi(1)\phi(2) | 0 \rangle$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi} \ln \frac{(U_2 - U_1 + i\delta)(V_2 - V_1 + i\delta)}{(U_2 - V_1 + i\delta)(V_2 - U_1 + i\delta)}.$$
(4.15)

Indeed this function manifestly satisfies the wave equation with the correct singularity and the moving mirror boundary condition, and reduces to the correct vacuum value before the mirror motion begins. For the energy-momentum tensor describing the emitted radiation one finds, using (3.2), (4.6), (4.9)

$$\langle 0 | T_{\mu\nu} | 0 \rangle = \frac{\delta_{\mu u} \delta_{\nu u}}{12\pi} \sqrt{U'} \frac{d^2}{du^2} \sqrt{1/U'}.$$
 (4.16)

All energy *n*-point functions are determined by $\langle 0|T_{\mu\nu}|0\rangle$ and $G_{vac}(1,2)$. For example the energy two-point function

$$C_{\mu\nu,\alpha\beta}(1,2) \equiv G_{\alpha\beta,\mu\nu}^{E}(1,2) - G_{\alpha\beta}^{E}(1)G_{\mu\nu}^{E}(2).$$
 (4.17)

is evaluated to be

$$C_{uu,uu}(1,2) = \frac{1}{8\pi^2} \frac{U'(1)^2 U'(2)^2}{(U(2) - U(1))^4},$$

$$C_{vv,vv}(1,2) = \frac{1}{8\pi^2} \frac{1}{(v(2) - v(1))^4},$$

$$C_{uu,vv}(1,2) = \frac{1}{8\pi^2} \frac{U'(1)^2}{(v(2) - U(1))^4}.$$
(4.18)

Not unexpectedly, the correlations diverge for two points connected by a light-like line in the direction of the energy flux in question. Note that there are correlations between leftward and rightward flux, as anticipated. These correlations are, however, by no means sharply localized.

One may compare these expressions to the thermal correlation function (populating only right-movers) which is easily found to be

$$G_{th}(1,2) = -\frac{T}{4}(|u_1 - u_2| + |v_1 - v_2|) + \frac{1}{4\pi} \ln\left[\left(1 - e^{-2\pi T|u_1 - u_2|}\right) \left(1 - e^{-2\pi T|v_1 - v_2|}\right)\right],$$
(4.19)

and to the two-point correlation of outward flux:

$$C_{uu,uu}(1,2) = \frac{\kappa^4}{8\pi^2} \frac{e^{2\kappa|u_1 - u_2|}}{(e^{\kappa|u_1 - u_2|} - 1)^4} . \tag{4.20}$$

There is perfect agreement if we substitute for U the particular trajectory $U \propto$

 $-e^{-\kappa u}$, which we shall call the thermal trajectories. Moreover, with that choice,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2} G_{th}(1,2) = \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2} G_{vac}(1,2), \tag{4.21}$$

so that all correlations of outward energy flux will be thermal. Correlations involving T_{vv} are, of course, not thermal. In fact, we see from (4.18) that the two-point correlation $C_{vv,vv}(1,2)$ for the mirror is the ordinary correlation expected for a vacuum state.

Now let us discuss the entropy. Using (3.1) for an interval bounded by u_1 and u_2

$$S_{\text{ren}} = \frac{1}{12} \ln \frac{(U_2 - U_1)^2}{U_1' U_2' (u_1 - u_2)^2}$$
 (4.22)

Thus for the Schwarzschild trajectory $U = c_1 + c_2 e^{-\frac{1}{4M}u}$ one finds

$$S_{\text{ren}} = \frac{1}{12} \ln\left(\frac{(4M)^2}{(u_2 - u_1)^2} \left(e^{\frac{1}{8M}(u_2 - u_1)} - e^{-\frac{1}{8M}(u_2 - u_1)}\right)^2\right). \tag{4.23}$$

For $u_2 - u_1 \gg 8M$ this is approximately

$$S_{\text{ren}} \approx \frac{1}{8\pi M} \frac{\pi}{6} (u_2 - u_1) \ .$$
 (4.24)

Remarkably, this purely microscopically defined entropy agrees with the entropy one would derive by treating the Hawking radiation field as if it were thermal at temperature $T = 1/(8\pi M)$. This justifies, at least in the present context, our claim that the renormalized geometric entropy is a natural concept with a significant physical interpretation.

The renormalized entropy also behaves sensibly for other mirror trajectories. Thus for example it vanishes (trivially) for constant velocity trajectories and (less trivially) for the trajectories

$$U = c_1 + \frac{c_2}{u - c_3} \tag{4.25}$$

corresponding to extremal Reissner-Nordstrom black holes, which emit no Hawking radiation.

However there is a big difference between the *global* behavior of the renormalized geometric entropy and the behavior of the corresponding thermodynamic entropy of the radiation field, that captures in a quantitative way the physics discussed in the preceding section. As we have seen before (in the discussion around (2.13)), the renormalized geometric entropy of an interval can easily shrink as the interval expands, even in a quite non-pathological situation. Similarly one finds (essentially by the same argument) that the geometric entropy associated with mirror trajectories which asymptote to a constant velocity less than c – including, of course, 0 – rapidly approaches zero, even though it may have built up in the thermal fashion discussed above for an arbitrarily long time previously.

On the other hand if a true horizon forms the integrated renormalized geometric entropy is generally infinite, since $U_2' \to 0$ and $u_2 \to \infty$. An exception occurs if $U_2' \propto u_2^{-2}$ in this limit, which singles out the mirror trajectories appropriate to extremal black holes.

Evidently it is dangerous to think of microscopic, fine-grained entropy as a substance which can be measured locally and once created is never destroyed. This seems to us to lessen the force of one form of the "information paradox" for black holes. Semi-classical calculations of the radiation from black holes indicate that their emission is the same as one might expect from an ideal grey body. It is commonly believed that these calculations are very accurate for black holes having masses much larger than the Planck mass (and away from any extremal limit). This raises a conceptual problem that has been much discussed, as follows. One can certainly imagine forming a black hole from matter in a pure quantum state. One then finds, in an approximation which appears accurate, that it radiates to produce a mixed state. Yet the evolution of a pure into a mixed state would violate the basic principles of quantum mechanics as they are currently understood.

However, when black hole radiance is calculated semiclassically, as the response of external fields to a given space-time geometry, the calculation is essentially identical to that for the corresponding mirror problem. But in the latter problem it is unambiguously clear that the radiance is only pseudo-thermal, being in a precise sense a reflection of correlations present in the vacuum. (Indeed, this pseudo-thermal character is already implied by the appearance of the radiance for free fields, which in principle have no mechanism to enforce thermal equilibrium!) It therefore seems most plausible that the relevant entropy to consider in assessing the question whether the final state can be pure, even when going beyond the semi-classical approximation, is the renormalized geometric entropy. This is definitely not an extensive quantity, as presumed in the preceding, conventional argument which leads to an information paradox.

The important limitation of the moving mirror model is that it does no justice to the conservation of energy, since the motion of the mirror is prescribed a $pri-ori^*$. This limitation becomes particularly serious if we attempt to model complete evaporation – *i.e.* to bring the mirror to rest. Indeed if we define

$$\sqrt{U'} = e^{-g}, \tag{4.26}$$

then we obtain from (4.16) the total energy flux radiated after the thermal period in the form:

$$E = \frac{1}{12\pi} \int_{u_0}^{u_r} \left(g'^2 - g'' \right) du. \tag{4.27}$$

At u_e , the end of the thermal period, we have $g \approx \kappa u_e/2$ and $g' \approx \kappa/2$. If we demand that the mirror be at rest after $u = u_r$ (so that g = g' = 0) and minimize the integral (4.27), the g''-term leads to a constant boundary-term in the variational procedure and a linearly decreasing g is optimal. The trajectory is therefore of the thermal form (4.12) (with negative κ). The integrated flux decreases with increasing available time. If we suppose that deceleration sets in only when the hole has reached the Planck mass, then the available energy is quite small and one must stretch out the deceleration process in order to minimize the

^{*} A recent attempt to incorporate energy conservation in a mirror model can be found in [16]

radiation. Carlitz and Willey therefore concluded that the time interval over which the mirror gets back to rest, and space-time returns to normal, would have be much longer than the lifetime of the black hole.

While this sort of slowly cooling remnant appears to be a logically consistent possibility, in the absence of a specific mechanism it seems a sufficiently strange outcome that one is open to alternatives. For example, the dynamics at moments when the formal mirror trajectory is undergoing gargantuan accelerations, which according to this model yields a gargantuan burst of radiation, is unlikely to be a valid representation of reality, especially in a theory with very soft ultraviolet behavior (specifically, string theory).

Although the methods used in this paper clearly are inadequate to resolve all the problems connected with black hole quantum mechanics, we do think they clarify the nature of some of these problems. In any case, the physical significance of renormalized entropy has here been exemplified concretely in the analysis of models often used to discuss these problems. Noteworthy features of this entropy are its lack of additivity and of local positivity even in simple non-pathological situations.

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figure captions

- figure 1 Conformal mapping from a finite strip in a periodic box to two halflines and further on to the upper and lower boundary of a strip. The grey areas indicate the development from an early time that selects the vacuum state at the present.
- figure 2 A moving mirror configuration with a light–like asymptote: the mirror accelerates indefinitely asymptoting the speed of light.
- figure 3 A moving mirror with a time-like asymptote: The mirror stops accelerating after a finite time and moves at constant velocity.
 - figure 4 A moving mirror that eventually comes to rest.

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