



BOOKS: ASTROPHYSICS

Black Hole Horizons

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Subrahmanyan Chandrasekhar (Chandra) died in August 1995, ending a career that began in 1931 with the stunning discovery that there is an upper mass limit for White Dwarf stars. For such stars with masses over 1.4 times that of the sun, gravitational forces overcome the quantum mechanical pressure of degenerate electrons. Today we blithely say that stars exceeding the Chandrasekhar mass collapse to neutron

Black Holes and Relativistic Stars

Robert M. Wald, Ed.

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stars—or even further, to black holes. In 1931 the renowned astrophysicist A. S. Eddington (whom Chandra had come to Britain to work with) remarked “that this was almost a *reducto ad absurdum* of the relativistic degeneracy formula. Various accidents may intervene to save the star, but I want more protection than that. I think there should be a law of nature to prevent a star from behaving in this absurd way!” (Quoted by Chandra’s widow, Lalitha Chandrasekhar, p. 274.)

Although Chandra retained his respect for Eddington, after the controversy he redirected his interests, as he would do repeatedly throughout his life. Indeed, according to Lalitha Chandrasekhar, he believed it was because of Eddington that he worked as he did, moving on after each field was explored. Chandra’s approach was to pick a field, consult the seminal references, complete a thorough analysis, and in the end produce a compact, self-contained monograph that set the standard for the field.

Black Holes and Relativistic Stars is based on a December 1996 symposium held in honor of Chandrasekhar (1). It follows the symposium’s division into sections on classical and astrophysical black holes (an area Chandra was closely interested in), and on black holes as quantum objects (emphasizing their thermodynamical and information theoretical properties). The book ends with written versions of talks Kameshwar Wali (Chandra’s biographer) and Lalitha Chandrasekhar gave at the symposium banquet.

Two of the classical and astrophysical

papers are very closely related to Chandra’s work: Ferrari discusses the perturbation of black holes and extends concepts from Chandra’s *Mathematical Theory of Black Holes* to stars. Friedman considers rapidly rotating stars and instabilities due to gravitational radiation. Two others summarize the (nearly) current observational context for black hole studies: Rees reviews astrophysical evidence for black holes (x-ray sources in binary systems and in active galactic nuclei). Thorne discusses the use of gravitational radiation to probe the interaction of condensed objects (neutron stars and black holes) and view the universe out to redshifts of ~ 1 .

Teukolsky’s chapter on numerical relativity (numerical solution of Einstein’s equations) rounds out the astrophysical contributions. He discusses insights from computer simulations of collapsing matter and black hole collisions. These show the surprising possibility of toroidal black holes and aid the analysis of the geometry of event horizons (the light-like surfaces dividing light rays that reach to infinity from those that do not). Israel instead discusses the internal structure of black holes, concentrating on the stability (or lack thereof) of the Cauchy horizon within black holes that are charged or rotating. This horizon must be crossed in tunneling through (to emerge into “another universe”). Because the studies to date assume symmetries in space-time, a full understanding of black hole interiors and whether we could, in principle, tunnel through a black hole awaits further analysis.

The remaining classical contribution, by Penrose, consists of a long discussion of cosmic censorship—the idea that in generic gravitational collapses the resulting space-time singularities are hidden from view of distant observers. The formal idea is that of a black hole horizon, which “clothes” the singularity inside the black hole. The picture is that gravity is so strong that those light rays inside the horizon are pulled back toward the singularity. Hence if there is such a horizon, the singularity is clothed. In its broadest sense, cosmic censorship fails.

In Newtonian gravity, it is easy to find infinite-density effects (shell crossings) in spherical systems; these persist and are not clothed when one redoes the computation in general relativity. So one must specify a number of conditions to have even a chance of cosmic censorship holding. Thus, Penrose gives a trial formulation of a “principle of *strong cosmic censorship* as the assertion that naked singularities or points at infinity ... do not occur in generic space times, where it is assumed that Einstein’s equations hold with some reasonable equation of state for the matter.” “Generic” and “reasonable” are left without specific meanings until the appearance of rigorous theorems on cosmic censorship, which will necessarily give precise definitions for them. (Stephen Hawking’s recent, widely celebrated concession, forced by M. Choptuik’s computations, arose because Hawking failed to specify “generic” when he bet that

naked singularities do not exist.) Although Penrose suggests several directions to search for a proof of an appropriately formulated censorship theorem, no one has had even tentative success.

The chapters concerning thermodynamical and quantum aspects of black holes provide a stage for the unresolved debate on recent results in string theory, which in a low energy limit is ten-dimensional

(10D) supergravity theory. In such a theory one can construct black holes in a 10D geometry described by a curved metric g_{ab} . A separate limit, the weak coupling limit, admits soliton-like (coherent wave) solutions called D-branes. Horowitz discusses the relationship between these two limits as well as other applications of string theory to the quantum mechanics of black holes. For instance, certain weak coupling states comprised of D-branes can be identified with certain black hole solutions of the low energy limit (“duality”). The entropy of the D-branes (ordinary degrees of freedom in a flat space-time background) can be computed by standard formulae (“mode counting”). In some cases the resulting value agrees with that obtained via Hawking’s approach of the duality-related black hole—remarkably, because there is no apparent degree-of-freedom counting for the black hole case.

This observation has led to a surge of activity on string theory. Although 10D supergravity is not directly a theory of gravity for the 4D (space plus time) world we in-



Black hole home. Gas and dust at the center of the nearby elliptical galaxy NGC 4261 (photographed with the Hubble Space Telescope) appear to be falling into a massive black hole.

habit, the coincidence has also raised excitement in the gravitational community. Hawking's article in this volume, however, contains a strong critique of the D-brane computation of the entropy. Hawking finds that correctly including curvature effects changes the boundary behavior of the D-brane, so there is no real conservation of information from early to late times. (The bounding hypersurfaces become null, that is, light-like.) Generic information from the past bounding surface cannot be measured across the future one, and so, Hawking argues, the D-brane entropy calculation fails.

Wald (the volume's editor) provides an elegant introduction to black hole thermodynamics and entropy from the 4D point of view. From this perspective, it is extremely difficult to see any connection with mode counting. Information that falls into the black hole appears to be lost, because what emerges from an evaporating black hole is thermal radiation (by definition, uncorrelated). We cannot recover this information because there are modes inside the horizon that are inaccessible to the outside observer. Hawking's thermal radiation computation is on very solid footing for black holes above the Planck mass, $\sim 10^{-5}$ gram (2). Thus it is unlikely that the information is emitted prior to this "Planck era." Then, if the black hole finally evaporates under Hawking radiation, there is a presumably momentary singularity (a "thunderbolt"), which must be given a quantum gravity description. More importantly, most of the information that fell into the hole appears to have been lost, unless it can escape during the quantum era. It seems impossible that it could escape then, because the Hawking temperature of a 10^{-5} -gram black hole corresponds to a single thermal photon having enough energy to carry away all the remaining 10^{-5} gram mass of the black hole, and one photon cannot carry out all the classical information that fell into the black hole. Hence, either the information disappears (there is a "thunderbolt"), or the evaporation stops roughly at the Planck scale and one can view the information as being stored forever in surviving 10^{-5} -gram "nuggets." These seem to be the only possibilities.

Hartle proposes that we ought to be satisfied with a 4D view of the situation (in which we do not demand that a particular time contains all the information), but that our exterior knowledge must be enhanced by using knowledge from within the black hole (before it evaporated). Sorkin suggests ways in which the information in the black hole can in principle be stored, and discusses why the entropy is proportional to the black hole's surface area rather than to its volume.

The contributors have produced a sur-

prisingly readable and topical volume; still, there is definitely room for a broader survey of work inspired by Chandrasekhar. Wali mentions Chandra's works on Newton's *Principia* and on aesthetics in science, but these are not discussed. Chandra made extensive contributions to stellar astronomy and was for many years the editor of the *Astrophysical Journal*. (Legend has it that he read every submission; from personal experience, I believe this is true.) The position reflected his expertise in all aspects of "classical" astronomy, as well as in the more exotic astrophysics that are the focus of the current volume. So we can hope to see other tributes to Chandra, concentrating on substantially different areas of discourse. If they match the standards of *Black Holes and Relativistic Stars*, they too will be very valuable contributions to the current research literature.

References and Notes

1. J. Glanz, *Science* **275**, 476 (1997).
2. For the Planck mass, the Compton wavelength and horizon radius are equal. The Compton wavelength (referring to quantum-mechanical properties) gets larger as the mass gets smaller, while the horizon radius is proportional to the mass. For black holes smaller than the Planck mass, quantum effects are at least as important as gravitational effects and a correct description requires a still unspecified quantum gravity.

NEW MEDIA: SOFTWARE

Statistics, Fast and Easy

John Wass

The large number of statistics software products on the market is a mixed blessing. Although the variety of options is welcomed by statisticians, identifying an easy-to-use package for the average laboratory can be a problem. In contrast to sophisticated software like STATISTICA, InStat takes a kinder, gentler approach. Its stated aim is to "help the experimental or clinical scientist analyze small amounts of data." In spite of its limitations—a lack of data manipulation capabilities and an inability to manage large databases with many variables—what InStat does, it does extremely well.

InStat works optimally on single queries with small data sets. All prompts to the user are in plain English and simple to follow. The program guides the user through a four-step process: defining the data type,

entering data, choosing a statistical test, and presenting the results. First, the user defines a goal and describes its data type, which means letting the program know, for example, whether to compare means or medians (with raw or averaged data), do a regression or correlation (with x/y type data), or build a contingency table. The test menu is short but contains important, basic functions such as paired t test, ANOVA, and Bonferroni test.

The program offers several options for regression-correlation analysis, including multiple regression and Pearson correlation. Regression lines with 95% confidence intervals are easily generated. Tests providing analysis of contingency tables include Fisher's exact test, chi-square test, relative risk, odds ratio, and the difference of two proportions—all with 95% confidence intervals.

The data screen, or worksheet, is also simple. Data are easily cut and pasted from common spreadsheets, or can be imported. Columns or rows may be tagged for numerical format change, mathematical transformation, or a combination. Buttons provide instant advice and descriptions for importing and arranging data, moving quickly through the analysis, and viewing and editing notes.

The user navigates easily through these steps, to a lucid and complete output format. The output sheet for an unpaired t test provides sections for the 95% confidence interval, the assumptions underlying use of the test, and a data summary. The analysis checklists are a masterstroke, explaining how tests are made and suggesting methods to test the assumptions or treat the data for specific needs.

The "small, yet powerful" philosophy of the package extends to the documentation. Subtitled *The InStat Guide to Choosing and Interpreting Statistical Tests*, this 153-page tome explains in simple terms some of the elementary concepts underlying statistical analysis, as well as the mechanics of doing a test, pitfalls and common errors, and interpretations of the results. The bundled package includes the GraphPad StatMate guide (an even simpler helpmate) and the deluxe option adds Harvey Motulsky's delightful book entitled *Intuitive Biostatistics*.

This small, but effective package is highly recommended to users with modest needs and limited skills in advanced statistics. Although technically a beginner's package, the range of tests and the excellent texts expand the set of InStat users from undergraduates wishing to learn the basics quickly to research scientists with a variety of analytic needs.

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