

Lesson 11 A

B-H Thermodynamics

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The Penrose process and Black Hole Thermodynamics^a

^aThis lesson follows mostly Chapter 6 from S. Carroll's book

We will study geodesics in the Kerr metric. Remembering that we have $T = \partial/\partial t$ and $R = \partial/\partial\phi$ as Killing vectors we can study the conserved quantities associated with them. The four momentum:

$$p^\mu = m \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} \quad (1)$$

where m is a particle's rest mass. We can construct the energy:

$$E = -T_\mu p^\mu = m \left(1 - \frac{2GMr}{\rho^2} \right) \frac{dt}{d\tau} + \frac{2mGMar}{\rho^2} \sin^2 \theta \frac{d\phi}{d\tau} \quad (2)$$

and the angular momentum associated with R . With $L = R_\mu p^\mu$

$$L = -\frac{2mGMar}{\rho^2} \sin^2 \theta \frac{dt}{d\tau} + \frac{m(r^2 + a^2)^2 - m\Delta a^2 \sin^2 \theta}{\rho^2} \sin^2 \theta \frac{d\phi}{d\tau} \quad (3)$$

The minus sign in eq (2) reflects the fact that at infinity both T^μ and p^μ are timelike so their inner product is negative, but we need the energy to be positive. But inside the ergosphere T^μ becomes spacelike. So we can think of particles for which

$$E = -T_\mu p^\mu < 0 \quad (4)$$

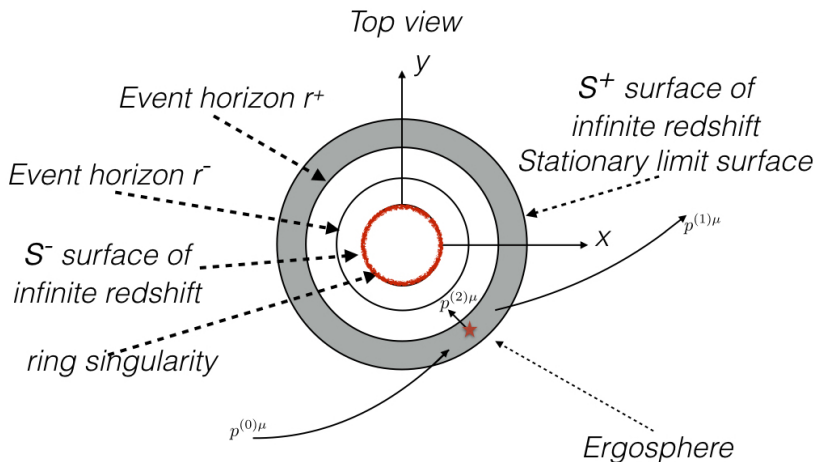
The Penrose process rests on a simple idea: from outside the ergosphere we can have an observer with a massive rock. The momentum of the system observer plus rock is $p^{(0)\mu}$. The energy $E^{(0)} = -T_\mu p^{(0)\mu}$ is positive. The observer and rock momenta are $p^{(1)\mu}$ and $p^{(2)\mu}$ respectively

$$p^{(0)\mu} = p^{(1)\mu} + p^{(2)\mu} \quad (5)$$

contracting with the Killing vector their energy is

$$E^{(0)} = E^{(1)} + E^{(2)} \quad (6)$$

If the rock is thrown beyond the stationary surface into the inner E-H of the B-H with $E^{(2)} < 0$



The Penrose process: an object breaks down in two as it falls into the ergosphere, within the stationary limit but outside the outer event horizon.

At the end

$$E^{(1)} > E^{(0)} \quad (7)$$

Killing Horizons

A null hypersurface at which a Killing vector field χ^μ becomes null is called a **Killing Horizon** (K-H). How does it relate to event horizons (E-H)?

- 1 Every E-H Σ in a stationary, asymptotically flat S-T is a K-H for some Killing vector field χ^μ .
- 2 If the S-T is static, the χ^μ will be the Killing vector field $T^\mu = (\partial/\partial t)^\mu$ representing time translations at infinity.
- 3 If the S-T is stationary $\chi^\mu = T^\mu + \Omega_H R^\mu$ where Ω_H is some constant and T^μ is as in 2) and $R^\mu = (\partial/\partial \phi)^\mu$.

Note: there could exist K-H even when no E-H exist: in Minkowski there are no E-H. A Killing vector $\chi = x\partial_t + t\partial_x$ (it generates boosts in the x-direction) has norm $\chi^\mu \chi_\mu = -x^2 + t^2$ which goes null at $x = \pm t$.

There is energy gained: the Penrose process extracts energy from the rotating B-H by decreasing its angular momentum: the object has to be thrown against the hole's rotation. For Kerr B-H an E-H is a K-H for $\chi^\mu = T^\mu + \Omega_H R^\mu$ where $\Omega_H = \frac{a}{r_+^2 + a^2}$ is the angular velocity of the horizon (r_+ is defined in eq 115, slide 54). The angular velocity can be obtained by studying the trajectory of a photon emitted in the ϕ direction in the equatorial plane ($\theta = \pi/2$). In this case $ds^2 = 0 = g_{tt}dt^2 + 2g_{t\phi}dtd\phi + g_{\phi\phi}d\phi^2$ which yields $\frac{d\phi}{dt} = -\frac{g_{t\phi}}{g_{\phi\phi}} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{g_{t\phi}}{g_{\phi\phi}}\right)^2 - \frac{g_{tt}}{g_{\phi\phi}}}$. AT the stationary limit $g_{tt} = 0$ and we can define it a the E-H by evaluating it at r_+ .

$$\Omega_H = \frac{a}{r_+^2 + a^2} \quad (8)$$

χ^μ becomes null at the outer E-H by construction. The thrown object will be crossing the E-H forward in time, which implies $\rho^{(2)\mu}\chi_\mu < 0$. Using (2) and (3) this latter condition becomes $\rho^{(2)\mu}T_\mu + \Omega_H\rho^{(2)\mu}R_\mu = -E^{(2)} + \Omega_H L^{(2)}$. from this we get:

$$L^{(2)} < \frac{E^{(2)}}{\Omega_H} \quad (9)$$

But we required $E^{(2)}$ to be negative (and Ω_H is positive) which means then that $L^{(2)}$ is negative and the particle must have negative angular momentum, i.e. move against the hole's rotation. But the mass and angular momentum of the hole will change proportionally i.e. $\delta M = E^{(2)}$ and $\delta J = L^{(2)}$, where $J = Ma$ is the angular momentum of the B-H. Then (9) gives us a limit on how much can we decrease the angular momentum

$$\delta J < \frac{\delta M}{\Omega_H}. \quad (10)$$

In a "perfect" process this can become an identity. But M can not be decreased beyond a fundamental limit.

The area Theorem

The area of the outer E-H is located at

$$r_+ = M + \sqrt{M^2 - a^2} \quad (11)$$

and can be calculated over θ, ϕ with $dt = dr = 0$ in the Kerr metric

$$ds^2(r = r_+) = (r_+^2 + a^2 \cos^2 \theta) d\theta^2 + \left[\frac{(r_+^2 + a^2)^2 \sin^2 \theta}{r_+^2 + a^2 \cos^2 \theta} \right] d\phi^2. \quad (12)$$

The horizon area is given by the integral of the induced volume element $ds^2 = \gamma_{ij} dx^i dx^j$ in (12) as

$$A = \int \sqrt{|\gamma|} d\theta d\phi. \quad (13)$$

The determinant $|\gamma| = (r_+^2 + a^2)^2 \sin^2 \theta$, so $A = 4\pi(r_+^2 + a^2)$

Let's define now the **irreducible mass** of the B-H $M_{irr}^2 = A$. The reason for the name will become clear soon.

$$\begin{aligned} M_{irr}^2 = A &= 4\pi(r_+^2 + a^2) = \\ &= 8\pi \left(M^2 + \sqrt{M^4 - J^2} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

where we use eq(11) and $J = Ma$. Differentiating we can calculate a variation in the irreducible mass:

$$\delta M_{irr} = \frac{8\pi a}{\sqrt{M^2 - a^2}} \left(\frac{\delta M}{\Omega_H} - \delta J \right). \quad (15)$$

And we see from (10) that we get

$$\delta M_{irr} > 0. \quad (16)$$

the maximum of energy we can extract from a Kerr B-H is

$$M - M_{irr} = M - \left[8\pi \left(M^2 + \sqrt{M^4 - J^2} \right) \right]^{1/2} \quad (17)$$

The result will be a Schwarzschild B-H of mass M_{irr} . From (14) we can calculate δA and we get

$$\delta M = \kappa \delta A + \Omega_H \delta J \quad (18)$$

where

$$\kappa = \frac{\sqrt{M^2 - a^2}}{16\pi M(M + \sqrt{M^2 - a^2})} \quad (19)$$

κ is called the surface gravity. Eq (18) is highly reminiscent of

$$dE = TdS - pdV \quad (20)$$

from thermodynamics. We can think of $\Omega_H \delta J$ in (18) as work done on the hole by throwing "mass" at it.

This would quickly lead to associate

$$\begin{aligned}E &\leftrightarrow M \\ S &\leftrightarrow 8\pi A \\ T &\leftrightarrow \alpha\kappa\end{aligned}\tag{21}$$

We can enunciate then the Laws of B-H thermodynamics:

- 1 Zero law: Stationary B-Hs have constant surface gravity on the entire horizon (equivalent to the temperature being constant in a system in thermal equilibrium).
- 2 First law will be (18) which is equivalent to (20).
- 3 Second law: the area of a horizon never decreases (equivalent to the entropy).
- 4 a Third law doesn't quite exist for B-H due to the fact that $\kappa = 0$ -the equivalent to $T = 0$ - corresponds to extreme B-Hs while in classical thermodynamics $T = 0$ cannot be reached.

The correspondence (21) has some caveats. But Hawking showed that quantum fields in a curved background allow the B-H to radiate at a $T \propto \kappa$. With this result it is completely appropriate to interpret then A as proportional to the entropy of the B-H. Bekenstein proposed a generalized 2nd law

$$\delta \left(S + \frac{A}{4G} \right) \geq 0 \quad (22)$$

This latter result in units where $\hbar = c = k = 1$. If we want to cast this result in terms of information theory (entropy proportional to the number of quantum states accessible to the B-H) there seems to be a contradiction with the fact that only mass and spin (and charge) characterize the B-H. This indicates a need for a quantum theory of gravity, which we don't have yet.