

BEYOND EINSTEIN:
from the Big Bang to Black Holes

SEU Roadmap Team

August 27, 2002

Introduction

0.1 Preface

Giant $E = mc^2$ in background.

At the beginning of time, the universe was energy. This energy transformed into the matter of which we and all we touch are made. We have recently learned that the universe is transforming back to energy. We have evidence of these transformations, but do not yet know how or why they happen. This theme repeats on a multitude of scales. The universe is organized out of cycles of matter and energy. Even as the Universe relentlessly expands from its Big Bang origin, gravity pulls pockets of its constituents together: into stars, and compact objects such as black holes. Energy copiously produced by the collapse and resulting nucleosynthesis work to fling this material back, and the cycle begins again. The Structure and Evolution of the Universe (SEU) theme within NASA's Office of Space Science seeks to map out and understand this dynamic, evolving, and active place—the cosmic manifestation of the web of biological and physical interactions that determine the future of our planet.

The spirit of exploration is at the foundation of our culture. Investment in this spirit has never failed to strengthen us and improve our quality of life. While our curiosity drives us to explore frontiers—oceans and continents, bacteria and the brain, the common thread is a desire to uncover the richness of the world in which we live, a richness that is inevitably valuable and transforming. Our efforts to date have revealed our Universe to be an awesomely rich and diverse place. By looking out at it we see things that we have never seen before. These challenge our understanding and our imagination, and we are committed to bring these challenges to the whole country through our outreach efforts. With questions that excite the human spirit, we inspire the next generation of explorers, scientists and engineers—as only NASA can.

Achieving the objectives of the SEU theme requires efforts on a broad front of technical and astrophysical venues. As the science community has made clear through workshops, roadmaps, and studies, there are many high priority science objectives within the theme, and many of them can be accomplished within the next 25 years. This SEU Roadmap draws upon this community input and incorporates the recommendations of the community and of the National Academy of Sciences. This roadmap identifies NASA's science objectives for the SEU theme for the next 25 years.

This roadmap also recognizes that, within the resources available, not all of these science objectives can be realized immediately. Constructing a roadmap entails making choices.

The science objectives described in the *Beyond Einstein* program (Part I) are the highest priority science objectives for SEU at this time, and a roadmap is presented for realizing these objectives with the understanding that this program should be undertaken now.

The science objectives described in the Cycles of Matter and Energy program are also presented (Part II), as these are also high priority science objectives for SEU. The beginning of the roadmap for realizing these science objectives is presented with the understanding that this program will be undertaken after the *Beyond Einstein* program has begun.

Part III describes the SEU activities which are vital to maintaining the technical base to implement these missions and develop future ones: the Research and Analysis program, the Explorer program, and critical factors.

0.2 BEYOND EINSTEIN: From the Big Bang to Black Holes

How did the Universe begin? Does time have a beginning and an end? Does space have edges?

Einstein's theory of relativity made three startling predictions about these questions: that the Universe is expanding from a Big Bang, that Black Holes so distort space and time that time stops at their edges, and that a Dark Energy might be pulling space apart. Observations confirm these startling predictions, the last only 3 years ago. Yet Einstein's legacy is incomplete, for his theory fails to explain the very places to which it led us:

1. What powered the Big Bang?
2. What happens to space, time and matter at the edge of a Black Hole?
3. What is the mysterious Dark Energy pulling the universe apart?

The *Beyond Einstein* program aims to answer these questions, using a series of missions linked by new technologies and complimentary approaches to shared science goals.

1. "Einstein Great Observatories": Facility-class Missions
 - Constellation-X: Uses X-ray-emitting atoms as clocks to follow the fate of matter falling into black holes.
 - LISA: Uses gravitational waves to measure the dynamic activity of space and time around black holes.

These missions will also pioneer technologies and approaches needed for the Vision Missions.

2. "Einstein Probes": Fully competed, moderate-sized, PI-class missions launched every three years
 - Dark Energy Probe: Determine the properties of the Dark Energy that dominates the Universe.
 - Inflation Probe: Detect the imprints left by gravitational waves at the beginning of the Big Bang.
 - Black Hole Probe: Take a census of Black Holes of all sizes in the local Universe.

These will answer sharply focussed critical questions. Competition ensures flexibility, and keeps costs low: by competing methods and technologies for readiness, and reordering the missions to reflect that readiness.

3. Programs of technology and research to enable the above missions, and prepare for two "Vision Missions", reaching to the farthest reaches of space and time:
 - A Big Bang Observatory to directly detect gravitational waves echoing from the earliest moments of the Big Bang.

- A Black Hole Imager to make direct images of matter near the edge of a black hole.

To enable the goals of *Beyond Einstein* will require a substantial development effort in technology, research, theory and analysis.

The public has demonstrated enthusiasm for the science objectives of *Beyond Einstein*. *Beyond Einstein* includes an education component that is aligned with science education standards and science literacy benchmarks.

Contents

0.1	Preface	2
0.2	BEYOND EINSTEIN: From the Big Bang to Black Holes	3
1	Beyond Einstein: Executive Summary	8
1.1	Executive Summary: Beyond Einstein Science	9
1.1.1	What powered the Big Bang?	9
1.1.2	What happens to space, time and matter at the edge of a black hole?	9
1.1.3	What is the mysterious dark energy pulling the universe apart?	10
1.1.4	Einstein’s Vision	11
1.2	Executive Summary: Beyond Einstein Missions	11
1.2.1	Einstein Great Observatories	12
1.2.2	Einstein Probes	12
1.2.3	Vision Missions	13
1.2.4	Technology	14
1.2.5	Research and Analysis	14
1.2.6	Education and Public Outreach	14
2	Beyond Einstein: Scientific Goals and Missions	16
2.1	Beyond Einstein: The Science	17
2.1.1	The Beginning of Time	17
2.1.2	Edges of Spacetime and Black Hole Horizons	19
2.1.3	Cosmic Cacophony: Gravitational Waves	22
2.1.4	Dark Energy and the Accelerating Universe	23
2.2	Beyond Einstein: The Program	27
2.2.1	The Einstein Great Observatories	28
2.2.2	The Einstein Probes	29
2.2.3	Advanced Technology and Theory	29
2.2.4	An Integrated Program	30
2.3	Beyond Einstein: The Missions	31
2.3.1	Constellation X	32
2.3.2	LISA: the Laser Interferometer Space Antenna	34
2.3.3	Dark Energy Probe	37
2.3.4	Inflation Probe	39
2.3.5	Black Hole Finder	40
2.3.6	Vision: A Big Bang Observatory	42
2.3.7	Vision: A Black Hole Imager	44

3	Beyond Einstein: Technology Roadmap	45
3.1	Technology Roadmap: Beyond Einstein	46
3.2	Einstein Great Observatory Technologies	46
3.2.1	Constellation-X	46
3.2.2	LISA	47
3.3	Technology Development for the Einstein Probes	49
3.3.1	Dark Energy Probe	49
3.3.2	Inflation Probe	50
3.3.3	Black Hole Finder Probe	50
3.4	Beyond Einstein Vision Mission Technologies	50
3.4.1	Big Bang Observatory	51
3.4.2	Black Hole Imager	51
4	Beyond Einstein: Research and Analysis	53
4.0.3	Theory	54
4.0.4	Ground-Based R & A	54
5	Education and Public Outreach	56
5.1	Education, Outreach and the Public Mandate	57
6	Science Objectives: Cycles of Matter and Energy	61
6.1	A Rich and Diverse Universe	63
6.2	Stars: Engines of Change in an Evolving Universe	64
6.3	Galaxies: Bringing it all Together	65
6.4	The Space Astronomy Imperative	66
6.5	Of New Stars and New Galaxies	66
6.6	The Explosive Enrichment of Galaxies	68
6.7	Light and Wind from the Heart of the Beasts	70
6.8	Understanding Nature’s Flash Bulbs to Measure the Universe	74
6.9	Visions of Annihilation	75
6.10	The Mystery of the Missing Matter	76
6.11	Bullets of the Cosmos	78
7	Technology Roadmap: Cycles of Matter and Energy	80
7.1	Large, Lightweight Optics	81
7.2	Detectors	82
7.2.1	Radio Interferometry	82
7.2.2	Submillimeter/Far Infrared:	82
7.2.3	Near Infrared/Optical:	82
7.2.4	Ultraviolet:	83
7.2.5	X-Ray:	83
7.2.6	Gamma-Ray:	83
7.2.7	Cosmic Rays:	83
7.3	Spacecraft systems	83

8	The Explorer Program	86
8.1	The Explorer Program	87
9	Research and Analysis	88
9.1	Research and Analysis	89
9.1.1	Experimental Research: Creating the Tools of Investigation	89
9.1.2	Theory, Observations, and Data Analysis: Reaping the Benefits of Investment	92
10	Critical Factors	94
10.1	Critical factors/External Assessment/GPRA	95
11	Last Word	97
11.1	Last Word: SCIENCE BEYOND EINSTEIN	98
A	Appendices	99
A.1	Acronyms, Glossary	99
A.2	Contributors to the Roadmap:	100
A.3	Index?	102

Part I: Beyond Einstein

Beyond Einstein Objectives and RFAs.

1. What powered the Big Bang?

A Search for gravitational waves from inflation and phase transitions in the Big Bang.

B Determine the size, shape, age and energy content of the Universe.

2. What happens to space, time and matter at the edge of a Black Hole?

C Perform a census of black holes throughout the universe.

D Determine how black holes are formed, and how they evolve. (can be merged w/ prev by how → how/when/where).

E Map spacetime throughout the Universe and near the event horizons of black holes.

F Observe stars and gas plunging into black holes

3. What is the mysterious dark energy pulling the Universe apart?

B Determine the size, shape, age and energy content of the Universe.

G Determine the cosmic evolution of the dark energy pulling the Universe apart.

Chapter 1

Beyond Einstein: Executive Summary

1.1 Executive Summary: Beyond Einstein Science

How did the universe begin? Does time have a beginning and an end? Does space have edges? The questions are clear, and deceptively simple. They are as old as human curiosity. But the answers have always seemed beyond the reach of scientific observation. Until now.

In their attempts to understand how space, time, and matter are connected, Einstein and his successors in the 20th century made three predictions about space and time. First, space is expanding from a big bang; second, space and time can tie themselves into contorted knots called “black holes” where time actually comes to a halt; third, space itself contains a strange new form of dark energy that is pulling the universe apart. Each of these three predictions seemed so fantastic when they were made that no one, including Einstein, thought they could possibly be true. Incredibly, each of these predictions has been shown to be true: in the last 40 years, the big bang; in the last 20 years, black holes; and in the last 3 years, dark energy. Yet Einstein’s legacy to us is one of deep mystery, because Einstein’s theory fails to explain the very places to which his work led us: 1) What powered the Big Bang? 2) What happens to space, time and matter at the edge of a Black Hole? 3) What is the mysterious Dark Energy pulling the universe apart? Einstein is silent on all of these.

Modern theories, such as the inflationary universe and string theory, go beyond the work of Einstein. Like Einstein’s theory, they make fantastic predictions that seem hard to believe. Predictions of new unseen dimensions and entire universes beyond our own are beyond even Einstein’s vision of the universe. We must find facts to confront and guide these new theories.

Here is where the Beyond Einstein story starts. By exploring the three deep mysteries of space and time that are Einstein’s legacy, we begin the next revolution in understanding our universe.

We chart our way forward using clues from recent observations and from new ideas connecting the world of the very small and the very large.

1.1.1 What powered the Big Bang?

During the last decade, sky maps of the radiation relic of the Big Bang —first by NASA’s Cosmic Background Explorer (COBE) satellite, and more recently by other experiments including Antarctic balloon flights and NASA’s MAP spacecraft now collecting data— have given us a direct view of wrinkles imprinted on the universe by fundamental particles at the first moments of the big bang. The wrinkles COBE discovered include distinct contributions from two kinds of primordial particles— the inflaton particles of the energy field that drove the Big Bang, and the gravitons that are fundamental particles of space and time themselves. A new level of technology for measuring polarization will allow a sharper separation of these different contributions, and allow us to piece together the story of how time, space, and energy worked together to create the Big Bang.

1.1.2 What happens to space, time and matter at the edge of a black hole?

The greatest extremes of gravity in the universe today are the black holes formed at the centers of galaxies and by the collapse of stars. Today, their properties are beginning to

be deduced from close study of matter swirling into them. New data from X-ray satellites such as NASA’s Chandra X-ray Observatory and ESA’s XMM-Newton show spectral signs of matter whizzing about black holes at close to the speed of light, displaying the slowing of time as it approaches and plunges into the event horizon, beyond which there is no escape. The missions in our roadmap will perform a census of black holes throughout the universe, and give increasingly detailed pictures of these roiling vortices. They will also listen for the sounds of spacetime carried by a new form of energy, predicted by Einstein but not yet directly detected, called gravitational waves. We will hear the booming, hissing, and humming of colliding and merging black holes and other extreme flows of matter throughout the universe, detailing the conversion of matter and energy into warpage of space and time.

“The black holes of nature are the most perfect macroscopic objects there are in the universe: the only elements in their construction are our concepts of space and time.” —Subrahmanyan Chandrasekhar [Nobel prize, 1983]

In Einstein’s theory, the curvature of spacetime has energy, and so also mass because $E = mc^2$. A black hole is a knot in spacetime so curved that the mass-energy of the curvature can keep the knot from unravelling. In Einstein’s theory, black holes which are not very simple quickly radiate their complications as gravitational waves, and settle down to a very simple form. To describe everything about a calm black hole, one needs only two numbers: its mass, and its spin. No other deviations from smooth perfection are possible: no mountains, nor magnetic fields, nor anything else.

The mathematical proof of this is called the “black holes have no hair theorem.” [*suggested graphic: picture of smooth and shaggy black hole with X thru it*] Because of this theorem, we predict that the orbits of stars and other bodies around black holes are determined entirely by the mass and spin of the black hole. Measuring the properties of these orbits will test this hypothesis, and determine if the shape of the knots in spacetime that we call black holes are as predicted by Einstein’s theory.

1.1.3 What is the mysterious dark energy pulling the universe apart?

Because he originally thought the universe was static, Einstein conjectured that even the emptiest possible space, devoid of matter and radiation might still have a dark energy, which he called a “Cosmological Constant.” When Edwin Hubble discovered the expansion of the universe, Einstein rejected his own idea, calling it his greatest blunder, and saying “I am unable to believe that such an ugly thing should be realized in nature.”

Possible Sidebar or box. Phinney has obtained permission from Hebrew University & Einstein Papers Project for us to quote from a Sept 26, 1947 letter from Einstein to Lemaître “I found it very ugly indeed that the field law of gravitation should be composed of two logically independent terms which are connected by addition. About the justification of such feelings concerning logical simplicity it is difficult to argue. I cannot help to feel it strongly and I am unable to believe that such an ugly thing should be realized in nature.” [acknowledgement should read “permission granted by the Albert Einstein Archives, the Hebrew University of Jerusalem, as well as by the Einstein Papers Project.”] For more details on Einstein and Lemaître and a possible image, see <http://www.its.caltech.edu/~esp/esp/EinsteinLem.pdf>

As Richard Feynman and others developed the quantum theory of matter which governs the operation of computers and everything else around us, they realised that “empty space” was full of temporary (“virtual”) particles continually forming and destroying themselves, and physicists began to suspect that indeed the vacuum ought to have dark energy, but they could not predict its magnitude.

Through recent measurements of its effect on the expansion of the universe, astronomers have discovered that some form of dark energy does indeed appear to dominate the total mass-energy content of the Universe, and that its weird repulsive gravity is pulling the universe apart. A mission in our roadmap will study the expansion closely enough to determine details about the form of this energy, for example whether it is simply a constant property of empty space (as Einstein conjectured) or whether it shows signs of a richer structure now thought to be possible in string theory.

1.1.4 Einstein’s Vision

Einstein sought— but never achieved— an understanding of how nature works at its deepest level. We now seek the next level of understanding through a concrete program of missions we can conceive and design today, and carry to completion over the next decade. In the far future we may extend these ventures, in the “vision missions” of this roadmap, even closer to the edges of space and time. We aim to create detailed images of matter right down to the very brink of the event horizons of black holes, and to detect the gravitational quanta from inflation— the smallest detectable “particles of time”, left over from the beginning of time— directly. Our vision, following that of Einstein, is to establish a program that will use NASA’s technology to reveal the uttermost extremities of existence.

1.2 Executive Summary: Beyond Einstein Missions

Two facility-class missions, Constellation-X and LISA, together with a line of PI-class moderate-sized probes, and a forward-looking program of technology and theory development lead towards our farthest imaginable vision: to directly detect those gravitational waves which have been travelling toward us unchanged since the universe was 10^{-34} seconds old, and to directly image matter near the edge of a black hole.

1.2.1 Einstein Great Observatories

The Constellation-X mission will consist of four 1.6m X-ray telescopes orbiting the earth/sun system at L2, providing nearly 100 times the collecting area of previous instruments. They will be instrumented with detectors covering a range of more than a factor of 100 in X-ray energy, with unprecedented energy resolution.

Constellation-X will address the question “What happens to matter at the edge of a black hole”. Gas near a black hole moves at nearly light speed, and when gas streams collide, they become so hot that their atoms emit X-rays. The atomic vibrations, which we see as the frequency of the X-ray light, act as clocks that we can use to trace the motions of the gas and the distortions of space and time near the hole. The great sensitivity of Constellation-X will allow us to track these rapidly moving, changing gas streams by making “movies” of the gas spectra at a high frame rate. Current instruments are not sensitive enough to detect the X-rays in the short exposures needed to freeze the motion around the black hole. Constellation-X will enable us to make movies, and replay them in slow-motion to understand what is happening to the matter.

The Laser Interferometer Space Antenna (LISA) will consist of three spacecraft orbiting the sun, separated from each other by 5 million kilometers. Each spacecraft contains freely falling ‘proof masses’ protected within the spacecraft from all forces except for gravity. The relative motion of the masses is measured, to sub-nanometer precision, by combining laser beams shining between the spacecraft. As passing gravitational waves ripple space and time, they will reveal their presence by changing the relative velocities of the proof masses.

When we talk about observing the sky in radio waves or X-rays we talk about “seeing” things, even though our eyes cannot see radio waves or X-rays. Similarly, we will refer to “hearing” gravitational waves even though they are propagating distortions of spacetime, not the distortions of water or air that our ears hear.

LISA will answer the question “What happens to space and time at the edge of a black hole?”, by directly listening to the sounds of vibrating spacetime: the booming roar of supermassive black holes merging, the chorus of death cries from stars on close orbits around holes, the ripping noise of zipping singularities, and possibly even whispers from the time in the early universe when our three-dimensional space formed within the true unseen space of six or seven dimensions that still surrounds us. LISA will make precision measurements of the orbits of stars around holes and determine whether Einstein’s predictions apply to these extreme environments. Together, LISA and Constellation-X will help us to understand where the giant black holes in the centers of galaxies came from, and how they grew.

1.2.2 Einstein Probes

Besides these facility-class missions, a series of smaller scale missions PI-class missions will enable NASA to respond to exciting new science more quickly than the decade timescales of National Academy reviews. For these missions, the science question to be addressed will be defined, but the scientific approach and technology will be determined by peer review.

The question “How did the universe begin” is in many physicists’ minds answered by “inflation”: a period when the universe expanded so rapidly that parts of it began to separate

from other parts faster than the speed of light. This expansion is believed by many to have been driven by a quantum-mechanical energy of the vacuum similar to the dark energy today. But the evidence for all of this is circumstantial at best. One way to find out if this is really true is to look for relics of this quantum mechanical activity in the form of fluctuations. Gravitational waves are the most direct relics since they penetrate the heat and density of those early days. It is technically feasible to look for the quantum effect of gravitational waves (“gravitons”) nearly as big as the universe, and distinguish them from the quantum effects of the primordial energy (“inflaton”), by examining their distinctive effects on the polarization of the cosmic microwave background. An “Inflation Probe” with this capability would help to define the nature of the vacuum which drove inflation.

“What is the mysterious energy pulling the universe apart” is a question that would not have been asked five years ago: there was then no evidence that the universe was being pulled apart. Now there is, and it is provoking a crisis in physics. To understand the nature of this energy, we need to understand if and how it changes with time, which in turn requires measuring the expansion of the universe with high precision both now and at much earlier times. We must find and exploit suitably precise cosmic yardsticks for this purpose. Several ideas for space missions have been proposed—for example, precision measurement of distant supernovae by a wide-field space telescope. The best of these methods will be competitively chosen for a “Dark Energy Probe.”

“How did black holes form and grow?” Most astronomers believe that the black holes in the centers of galaxies grew by swallowing stars and gas from their galactic hosts, in the process emitting light. Yet today there is an accounting problem: the light which we see from the black holes in active galaxies does not seem to explain the growth of the black holes which we find at the centers of nearby galaxies. There are hints that much of the growth occurred in dark galaxies enshrouded in dust. To see into these dark corners, we must look using the most penetrating of X-rays. The “Black Hole Finder Probe” will perform a census of the black holes hiding their growth. Combining this census with the studies of accretion by Constellation-X and of black hole merging by LISA will tell us how the giant black holes formed and grew in galaxies.

1.2.3 Vision Missions

Technology development in support of these projects, including tools of hardware, software and astrophysical theory, will also lead the way forward to two visions in the decades ahead:

To fully decode the beginning of time, a “Big Bang Observatory” will *directly* measure graviton quanta coherently amplified from inflation and still present in the universe today, with periods of order 1 second. Unlike the frozen images of vastly longer waves affecting the microwave background, these will be observed still in their original form, vibrating as gravitational waves. To do this, all the astrophysical sources of waves since the Big Bang in this frequency band will have to be decoded as well.

Constellation-X will tell us how fast gas moves around a black hole, and LISA will give us the tune to which stars dance around a black hole. But to really be sure that we understand the motions in the complicated space-time, there can be no substitute for a direct picture of things moving around the black hole. A “Black Hole Imager” based on X-ray interferometry could bring us such a direct view.

1.2.4 Technology

Technology must be developed to enable us to master the challenges of the Beyond Einstein program. Constellation-X requires precision machining of lightweight optics and development of cryogenic X-ray calorimeter arrays. To keep the sensors within the LISA spacecraft free of nongravitational forces requires development of a sensitive measurement system coupled to microNewton thrusters. To measure the relative motions caused by gravitational waves requires development of stable laser measurement systems. The vision missions Black Hole Imager and Big Bang Observatory require still greater precision in spacecraft pointing and control. The Einstein Probes require investigation of a broad range of technologies, so that the most scientifically and cost-effective approach to their science goals can be chosen.

1.2.5 Research and Analysis

The R&A program has long been the cradle for the technology and theory of SEU's strategic missions. The R&A program is the first step in a development sequence that turns theoretical concepts into SEU missions, and the final step which turns missions into scientific advances. NASA's R&A program is also a principal vehicle for the involvement of universities, providing an additional return on investment: The training and education of the students who become the architects and builders of future generations of space missions. The Einstein Probes require new generations of detectors, and ground-based and balloon tests of these will be essential. Understanding the richness of data from Constellation-X will require laboratory measurements of hot plasmas.

Theory provides the intellectual context for any scientific enterprise, without which progress is impossible. Theoretical work has been, and will continue to be essential to the conception and design of missions, and to the interpretation of the results from the missions —most especially in the *Beyond Einstein* program, since most of its missions are aimed at testing startling theoretical predictions: MAP, LISA, Constellation-X, the Dark Energy Probe, the Inflation Probe, and the vision missions.

1.2.6 Education and Public Outreach

The *Beyond Einstein* program offers an unparalleled opportunity to involve the public in the excitement of cosmic exploration, and especially to inspire and cultivate the next generation of scientists. The public's eagerness to share this adventure is reflected in part by the many Hollywood movies, television series, best-selling books, and popular articles that draw on the *Beyond Einstein* theme. The origin of the Universe and black holes are central themes of national K-12 science literacy standards and curricula. The television shows and educational materials for "Live from a Black Hole" and "Live from the Edge of Space," reached an estimated 5 million students. Either directly or indirectly, the *Beyond Einstein* theme now provides much of, and soon the *majority* of, all materials on these subjects in our nation's schools.

Beyond Einstein missions will weave an ongoing story that is considered one of the most compelling in all science. Public television's NOVA show on dark energy (*Runaway Universe*) was seen by more than 2.1 million Americans — almost as many as watch all three cable

news networks combined. More Americans visit science museums and planetariums than attend all sporting events combined — more than 120 million in 2001 — and the *Beyond Einstein* theme remains a favorite there.

Picture: What is GR, how do we know it is right? GP-B, solar system tests (including Beyond Einstein ones -explorer class). Beyond Einstein goes further: nonlinear gravity, cosmic censorship, quantum, dark energy. LIGO. Flow chart: which missions answer which RFAs, how do answers combine to make big picture, what holes are left? [Paul Hertz has a version].

Chapter 2

Beyond Einstein: Scientific Goals and Missions

2.1 Beyond Einstein: The Science

“The most beautiful thing we can experience is the mysterious. It is the source of all true art and science. Those to whom this emotion is a stranger, who can no longer pause to wonder and stand rapt in awe, are as good as dead: their eyes are closed.”

—*Albert Einstein*

A century ago, Albert Einstein began creating his theory of relativity—the ideas we use to understand space, time and gravity—and took some of the first steps towards the theory of quantum mechanics, the ideas we use to understand matter and energy. Einstein was named the “Person of the Century” because his ideas transformed civilization, but his work is not finished: spacetime is not yet reconciled with the quantum.

Einstein’s theory of General Relativity made predictions about the extremities of existence which were unbelievable at the time, but which have all been subsequently confirmed: that the whole universe began in a hot, dense big bang from which all of space expanded; that dense matter and energy could tie spacetime into tangled knots, called black holes; that “empty” space might contain energy with repulsive gravity. Despite the success of these predictions, we still do not understand what conditions prevailed at the beginning of the universe, how space and time behave at the edge of a black hole, or why distant galaxies are accelerating away from us. These phenomena represent the most extreme configurations of the world, and the most exaggerated interactions of spacetime with matter and energy. They are the places to look for clues to the next fundamental revolution in understanding—Beyond Einstein.

2.1.1 The Beginning of Time

The universe is expanding, and abundant evidence now shows that it began in a hot, dense, rapidly expanding early state—the Big Bang. Einstein’s Theory of General Relativity explains how the expanding universe works, but on its own it does not explain what made the Big Bang happen in the first place. For many years it was necessary to postulate that time and expanding space simply began abruptly.

We now know more about the early universe, and are correspondingly more ambitious. Observations of large-scale structure and of temperature fluctuations in the Cosmic Microwave Background have provided substantial support for the idea that the matter content of the universe, while remarkably smooth on very large scales, is imprinted with perturbations which originate at the very earliest times, and which have subsequently grown into the stars, galaxies, and clusters which illuminate our sky today. We are therefore faced with a sharp set of questions: Why is the universe so smooth on large scales? And why is it nevertheless not perfectly smooth, but perturbed in a specific way?

In 1978 Arno Penzias and Robert Wilson received the Nobel prize for their 1965 discovery of the cosmic microwave background (CMB), which showed that our Universe began with a hot, and nearly uniform Big Bang. This microwave radiation has been propagating towards us since the atoms in the universe formed, when the universe was 300,000 years old.

Within a few years of Penzias and Wilson's discovery, theoretical astrophysicists (Sachs & Wolfe 1968, Peebles & Yu 1970, Sunyaev & Zeldovich 1970) had predicted that because the universe today is not uniform, the CMB could not be precisely uniform either: it must show evidence for ancient small fluctuations in the density of the universe which gravity pulled together to make galaxies and clusters of galaxies. In 1989, NASA launched the Cosmic Background Explorer (COBE), and in 1992 George Smoot and collaborators announced its discovery of these predicted nonuniformities in the microwave background.

Preferred image:

http://aether.lbl.gov/www/projects/cobe/COBE_Home/dmr_4yr_cmb_stereo.gif

In 2001, a NASA balloon flight, BOOMERanG, for the first time mapped the microwave background fluctuations on small enough scales to see the effects of matter and the structure of the universe on them.

Preferred image:

http://www.physics.ucsb.edu/~boomerang/press_images/raw_images/cmb_sky.jpg

The Microwave Anisotropy Probe (MAP), an SEU MIDEX mission launched in June 2001, is making differential measurements of the CMB temperature on the full sky using pseudo-correlation radiometers coupled to back-to-back 1.4×1.6 meter primary Gregorian reflectors. Five frequency bands from 22 GHz to 90 GHz allow emission from the Galaxy to be modeled and removed. The resulting map of the sky should allow an unambiguous determination of the geometry of the Universe and of the spectrum and nature of primordial perturbations. MAP will also provide unique information that will help determine the baryon density, Hubble constant, dark-matter density, and dark energy density.

“Inflationary cosmology” is one set of simple ideas proposed to explain why the universe is both very smooth but not perfectly so. The interactions of a new postulated field, called the inflaton, lead to repulsive gravity, a force that causes the early universe to expand at a fantastic rate. This accelerated expansion stretches any existing inhomogeneities in spacetime, creating a highly smoothed universe.

At the same time, however, quantum effects lead to a subtle but direct imprint of inflation on the present day universe. The inflaton field was not perfectly smooth, but contained imperfections or “fluctuations”. The subatomic inflaton that created the universe, like all energy fields of nature, was a quantum field. All such fields fluctuate even in “empty” space—the physical vacuum is a roiling sea of such fluctuating fields. The primordial inflaton fluctuations led to imperfections in the cosmic expansion—the big bang got a slightly bigger kick in some locations than in others. The effect of a single inflaton quantum was enormously

inflated, in the same way that the universe itself was, so a single inflaton quantum left its influence on an astronomically vast tract of space.

Small primordial fluctuations in the density of matter are the reason that the universe eventually broke up into galaxies, stars and planets. The overdense regions eventually collapsed due to gravity. Without these perturbations, the universe would still be perfectly smooth today. In the inflationary scenario, every galaxy we see, even whole clusters of galaxies, ultimately derives from about one elementary inflaton particle in the early universe. In addition to the inflaton perturbations, quanta of another field are created during inflation: those of gravity itself, called gravitons. These may also leave imprints on spacetime (and background anisotropy) today, in the form of large scale gravitational waves. They are direct imprints of single quanta—single “particles of spacetime”—that fluctuated during the inflationary period.

Sky maps of the primordial background radiation provide persuasive evidence that the density fluctuations in our universe are very much like those predicted by inflation. This cosmic background of light appears almost but not perfectly uniform in all directions, with a blackbody temperature of 2.725 degrees above absolute zero. The gravitational effect of the primordial perturbations, in addition to creating structures like galaxies, also creates patterns on the sky of very slightly hot and cold spots. They are very subtle—temperature differences of less than a part in ten thousand—but the pattern preserves considerable primordial information and so far, at the present level of experimental precision, agrees very well with the predictions of inflation.

Nevertheless, we are far from certain that the inflationary scenario is correct; the possibility remains open that a completely different process influenced the initial conditions of our universe. Even if inflation is the right story, the detailed implementation of this idea remains a mystery. We need new data to help decide whether the early universe underwent a period of rapid inflation, and if so what mechanism was responsible for driving it.

The “Inflation Probe” will use the best available technology to decode the information in the primordial pattern painted on the sky. One specific proposal is to study polarization in the anisotropic radiation. Certain patterns of polarization can only be created by the gravitons (not inflatons) so polarization experiments have the potential to disentangle the two contributions. The detection of single graviton quanta, a plausible outcome of this program, would correspond to detecting the primordial excitations of time itself.

2.1.2 Edges of Spacetime and Black Hole Horizons

Gravity is the one universal force connecting all forms of mass and energy. Einstein saw that this universal character arises because it is a behavior of space and time itself. At the same time, gravity, and therefore space and time, also are themselves forms of energy. While we are used to thinking of the large things of the world, like planets and stars, being made of (many) small things, like atoms, very strong gravity creates exceptional circumstances where the opposite is true. Because gravity can squeeze anything to almost zero size, it can also make small things out of big things. This process, and its time reverse in the early universe, really happens in nature.

Gravity appears in its purest form—on its own, so to speak—in dense knots of curved spacetime called black holes (as well as in vibrations of spacetime called gravitational ra-

diation, discussed below). A black hole has mass and spin but no matter— it is made of pure gravitational energy. Its structure is entirely determined by Einstein's theory of gravity, so although we have not yet seen one in any detail we have a good mathematical idea of what it should be like. At the heart of a black hole is a singularity, a point or a ring where the spacetime curvature is infinite and energy is infinitely concentrated. Surrounding the singularity is a region of no escape, where time and space have reversed roles and anything must inevitably fall into the singularity. The edge of this region, called the event horizon, is the boundary of space outside of which escape is possible. Time is highly warped. An observer falling in with a watch will look outside and see everything appear to be happening quickly, yet if we observe the watch falling into a black hole, we see it appear to slow down. If it crosses the event horizon at high noon local time, we observing from far away see the watch gradually fade from view, slowing down forever as the hands creep towards but never reach noon.

Gravity leads to transformation of energy— that is why things fall down— and the extreme gravity around black holes leads to extreme transformations of many kinds. Matter falls in and accelerates to great speed; when it runs into other matter, it heats up and radiates light. The energy available from a given amount of mass far exceeds even nuclear energy; a car powered with a black hole engine would get a billion miles to the gallon. Energy not radiated falls into the hole, adding to its mass and spin— thereby converting into purely gravitational form. The spin of the hole can give matter nearby a kick, and with the aid of magnetic fields can even accelerate it into powerful jets of outflowing particles.

The Chandra X-ray observatory, a NASA SEU mission, launched in 1999. It is named after Subrahmanyan Chandrasekhar, the theoretical astrophysicist who predicted the existence of white dwarfs (for which he received the Nobel prize in 1983, also the year of publication of his final great work, *The Mathematical Theory of Black Holes*). The many discoveries of this mission have influenced the whole diversity of modern astrophysics. In the field of black holes, highlights of Chandra X-ray observatory's discoveries include:

- Evidence for black holes of mass intermediate between those of stars (around ten times the mass of the sun) and those of the supermassive black holes in galactic nuclei (millions of times the mass of the sun).

<http://chandra.harvard.edu/photo/cycle1/m82bh/index.html>

- Evidence that the X-ray background, and perhaps most of the accretion by black holes in the universe is produced by black holes so obscured by gas and dust as to be invisible to optical telescopes.

<http://chandra.harvard.edu/photo/cycle1/cdfs/index.html>

- Evidence for astonishingly bright clumps or rings of matter in the disks of matter falling into black holes.
- Evidence that the black holes in binary star systems have no solid surface—as predicted by Einstein's theory of relativity, their 'surface' is a bottomless hole, and event horizon where time stops.

To date, our most detailed information about the behavior of gravity comes from experiments within the Solar System, where gravity is weak but our observations are precise. Close to a black hole, the strength of gravity is immeasurably greater. Within the context of Einstein's theory, we can reliably predict how spacetime should behave in this extreme region; however, it is necessary to collect data directly in this regime if we are to be sure (or perhaps discover something entirely unexpected).

We can get a detailed view of the warped spacetime near black holes by observing radiation from atoms of gas as they fall in. The frequency of the light we see traces both the orbital motion of the gas—the familiar “Doppler effect” known to ambulance chasers—and to the gravitational redshift due to spacetime curvature. Watching the spectra of these flows as they change in time should inform us of many details of the matter and its spacetime environment.

Beyond Einstein missions launch a coherent program to study this X-ray emission: Black Hole Finder will survey the universe seeking the X-ray signature of matter falling into holes, presenting us with the locations of black holes; Constellation X will study the spectra of atoms in the dynamic infalling flows; in the distant future, Black Hole Imager will create actual moving images of the swirling matter right down to the edge of the event horizon.

2.1.3 Cosmic Cacophony: Gravitational Waves

In addition to studying black holes by watching the matter falling in, we can also study them by listening directly to the “sounds” created by their dynamic spacetime. The sounds of black holes are emitted as a new form of energy predicted by Einstein, the tiny vibrations in spacetime called gravitational radiation.

Since ancient times, astronomers have used the same form of energy to study the universe that our animal eyes use to see the world. Called simply “light”, it includes X-rays and radio waves and all the colors of the rainbow in between. Light is made of vibrations of electric and magnetic fields travelling through space.

Einstein predicted that energy can also be carried by vibrations of spacetime itself. Indeed, the most powerful outflows of energy of any kind come when two black holes orbit, collide, and merge, radiating not light but gravitational radiation. During a brief interval of final merging (up to an hour or so for very large holes) just one of these mergers radiates a gravitational power of about 10^{52} watts, a million times more power than all the light from all the stars in all the galaxies in the visible universe put together. We guess (and right now this is only a guess) that on average black holes create an amount of gravitational radiation in the universe comparable to all the light. Black holes colliding and merging may also briefly expose the singularity to observation, rendering it “naked” rather than clothed by the event horizon— creating a “ripping sound” caused by the tearing of an edge of time.

In 1967, the first radio pulsar was discovered by Jocelyn Bell and Antony Hewish (for which Hewish received the Nobel Prize in 1974). Radio pulsars were quickly identified as neutron stars, the incredibly compressed remnants of the supernova explosion of stars predicted by Fritz Zwicky and Walter Baade in 1933.

In 1974 Russell Hulse and Joseph Taylor discovered the first binary pulsar PSR 1913+16: two neutron stars orbiting each other every 8 hours. Einstein’s theory of relativity predicts that as these two stars orbit each other, they ‘stir’ spacetime around them, and radiate gravitational waves. This should sap their orbital energy, causing the two stars to spiral together.

In 1993 Taylor and Hulse received the Nobel prize for their discovery that indeed, ever since 1974, the two neutron stars in PSR 1913+16 have been spiralling towards each other at precisely the rate Einstein’s theory predicts they should due to their emission of gravitational waves.

Preferred figure: page 69 of

<http://arxiv.org/pdf/gr-qc/0103036>

(Taylor may be able to supply original; I have nowhere else seen this version with points after 1996) Consider also putting here LIGO box now in section 2.3.2.

In Einstein’s theory of gravity, space and time are not fixed, static entities, but are dynamical things, responding to the mass and motions of matter and energy. Space and time are also active on their own— they can sustain waves that travel at the speed of light and themselves carry energy. In the same way that black holes are made just of space and time— pure gravitational energy holding itself together with gravity— gravitational waves

are a kind of energy also “made of” just space and time, but which cannot stand still. They interact very weakly with matter, and penetrate any astronomical body with almost no attenuation.

Gravitational waves are of great interest both for fundamental physics and for astronomy. Detecting them will give Einstein’s theory of space and time a workout like it has never had before. We know that it works pretty well in normal circumstances— without “spacetime curvature technology” in their software, airplanes using GPS navigation would be missing their runways by miles— but gravitational radiation will go far beyond this and let us listen carefully to the most violent events in the universe, the collision and mergers of black holes. What goes on there is a swirling mass of spacetime interacting mostly with itself. The sounds of the universe will tell us enough details about what is really going on in black holes to see in detail if Einstein’s theory of space and time was right. They will also let us listen to an inventory of what is going on in the universe in an entirely new way. There are even places way out there, especially the very early universe, that are literally impossible to observe with ordinary light; only the exceptionally penetrating gravitational radiation can bring us information about some kinds of possibly very violent events, such as the formation of our three dimensional space from an original space with more dimensions.

Gravitational waves can be detected using a system sensitive to exquisitely small jiggles between masses that are floating freely in space, isolated from all forces other than gravity. The distances between the masses can be monitored using laser interferometry. An early generation of such systems has now been deployed on the ground— the LIGO observatories in the US, and other similar systems worldwide. It is hoped that these systems will make the first detection of gravitational waves sometime in the next five or ten years, probably from the final few minutes of a merger of a pair of black holes in a distant galaxy, at frequencies of 100 to 1000 Hz. The LISA Observatory, sensitive to much lower frequency waves, will upon deployment almost certainly hear a strong signal— a blended cacophony of many kinds of astrophysical sources.

The most powerful sources of gravitational waves are quickly-changing systems with very strong gravity, so LISA’s strongest signals will probably be tones from a few very loud binary massive black holes. Equally importantly, LISA will detect for the first time gravitational-wave signals from astrophysical sources (such as white dwarf stars orbiting each other) which are already known and named by astronomers, who have studied their starlight.

The Big Bang Observatory vision merges the study of inflation with that of gravitational waves. For waves with periods of about 1 second, a system might be built able to hear and pick out all the strong sources of gravitational waves in the universe, so that the strongest remaining sound is the quantum noise from the inflationary universe. These new areas of science are of course changing so rapidly that both the vision and the means to achieve it will be rapidly changing over the coming years, but there will undeniably be rich new sources of information about the behavior of space and time throughout the audible universe.

2.1.4 Dark Energy and the Accelerating Universe

Einstein’s Theory of General Relativity, still our deepest theory of spacetime and its interaction with matter and energy, is nevertheless silent on one of the simplest of questions: Is empty space really empty? Einstein introduced a “cosmological constant”— a symbol, Λ ,

with an unknown value— into his equations, to represent the possibility (if Λ is not zero) that even empty space has energy and couples to gravity. The value of Λ in the real universe derives from another, deeper level of physics beyond Einstein’s theory.

The newly discovered fact that the expansion of the universe appears to be accelerating suggests the presence of a new substance, now dubbed dark energy, that drives space apart. It seems likely that we have now at least measured the value of Λ or something like it. However, unlike inflation, gravitational radiation or black holes, we have no theory of dark energy; anything we learn is an unexpected discovery. The simplest estimate of the amount of dark energy is wrong by a famous factor of 10^{120} . For this very reason, dark energy is the most exciting new development in fundamental physics. When we understand the physics of the dark energy, we will probably also understand the physics that controls the future of the universe, so we will be able to answer another simple question: will the universe last forever?

It was Edwin Hubble’s discovery of the expansion of the universe that caused Einstein to declare his introduction of the Cosmological Constant (a form of dark energy) to make the universe static “my greatest blunder”.

Ironically, it has been the Hubble Space Telescope which confirmed that the expansion of the universe is actually accelerating due to dark energy, perhaps a cosmological constant similar to that introduced by Einstein, but with a different value than he assumed.

Preferred images:

<http://opposite.stsci.edu/pubinfo/PR/2001/09/content/i0109b.jpg>

<http://opposite.stsci.edu/pubinfo/PR/2001/09/content/0109b.tif>

If the dark energy is indeed Einstein’s cosmological constant, the long-term future of space exploration is grim: by the time the Universe is about 10 times older than it is now, only the nearest few galaxies falling into our own will still be visible: all the rest of the universe will have become unobservably dim and red, frozen on the sky like objects falling into an inside-out black hole.

Although dark energy was discovered only in 1998, it is already widely acknowledged as a firmly established phenomenon because of a number of completely independent pieces of evidence. The first indication was the discovery of an ongoing increase in the expansion rate of the universe, as directly revealed by the supernova Hubble diagram. However, a broad concordance of other evidence concerning global geometry, structure formation, cosmic age, and galaxy clustering leave little doubt that in some crude sense, Einstein’s conjectural “cosmological constant” is a reality: the energy of the universe is dominated by empty space, and its gravity is repulsive.

In our best current understanding of the universe, its major constituents are ordinary matter (stars, planets, gas, and dust: approximately five percent of the total), “non-baryonic” dark matter (an as-yet-undiscovered particle, in contrast to ordinary “baryonic” matter: twenty-five percent) and the most exotic component, the dark energy (seventy percent). The total energy content of the universe is the sum of contributions from the dark energy and from the mass of the matter (since $E = mc^2$, in Einstein’s celebrated formulation). The most remarkable feature of the dark energy is its constancy; to the best of our understanding,

it is smoothly distributed throughout all of space, and evolving slowly (if at all) with time.

To learn how dark energy really works, we need to measure its properties in more detail. The gravitational effects of this energy are too weak to study in the laboratory, and must be sought in space where the effects of the dark energy accumulate enough, due to the enormous volume, to be noticed. The next step in deciphering the character of dark energy is to measure its density and pressure and how they change with time. Einstein assumed that the cosmological constant was strictly constant because it is the simplest case; but other theoretical ideas, with various different assumptions about ultrafundamental physics, make different predictions. The Dark Energy Probe will deploy the best available technology to study this effect.

We know at least one way to study the evolution of dark energy: to improve upon the supernova technique. The very small number of objects observed from space with the Hubble Space Telescope give us enough data to know that with a dedicated, special-purpose instrument in space, it would be possible to measure the bulk properties of the dark matter with good accuracy— certainly enough to distinguish whether the energy is really constant, as Einstein conjectured, or whether it has undergone significant dynamical changes over cosmic time, as conjectured by some string theorists. Real data on this question would help us discover where dark energy comes from, and where the universe in the far future is going.

Many past, present and future NASA missions have laid the groundwork for the *Beyond Einstein* program, and will complement it. NASA's *COBE* satellite discovered the first evidence for primordial density fluctuations in the microwave background. NASA's balloon program (e.g. *BOOMERanG*, *MAXIMA*) has led to the discovery of the interaction of those fluctuations with matter in the universe, allowing us to determine that the universe is flat, and that only a small fraction of the matter in the universe is the familiar matter known to mankind. NASA's *MAP* satellite, and the ESA/NASA *Planck* satellite will extend these discoveries, and make measurements of components of polarization of the microwave background, vital precursors to the proposed Inflation Probe. *Hubble Space Telescope* has helped to find and measure the distant supernovae which have forced us to accept the Dark Energy that Einstein introduced, but so disliked. The X-ray missions *Chandra*, *XMM* and *RXTE* have discovered X-ray emissions from matter spiralling near black holes, giving hints of the potential of Constellation-X. *Gravity Probe B* will test one of Einstein's exotic predictions: that the rotation of the earth drags space and time around the earth into a mild version of the tremendous vortical spin Einstein's theory predicts near a spinning black hole. *SWIFT* will study gamma-ray bursts, believed to be a result of the stellar explosions and mergers which create black holes. *SWIFT* will also test technology which could be used for the Black Hole Finder Probe. *GLAST* will study the high-energy emissions from particles accelerated into jets (astronomers believe) by the tremendous electric fields which in Einstein's theory can develop near accreting spinning black holes. *Astro-E2* will demonstrate in flight the detector technology of Constellation-X, while *ST-7* will do the same for LISA.

2.2 Beyond Einstein: The Program

The “Beyond Einstein” program contains three interlinked elements. Together they address the science challenges outlined in the previous sections, and provide coupled technology and science advances towards the long term visions of directly detecting the gravitational radiation emitted from the earliest moments of the big bang and resolving the event horizon of a black hole. The first element in this integrated program is the pair of facility-class Einstein Great Observatories, Constellation-X and LISA. These missions will investigate the nature, origin and evolution of black holes and the structure and evolution of the universe. The second element is a series of PI-class Einstein Probes that are designed to rapidly address focused and topical science issues that can have a direct bearing (technology and/or science) on the implementation approach or feasibility of the vision missions. The third element is a technology program to enable the vision missions: the Big Bang and Black Hole Observatories. Each element is dependent on the other either in terms of addressing science questions or developing a progressively more advanced technological capability. The program also maximizes competitive opportunities for mission leadership, instrument development, technology research and participation in observation programs.

National Priorities The Beyond Einstein program represents NASA’s response to the recommendations by the three most recent National Academy of Sciences reports: The Committee on the Physics of the Universe (the 2002 Turner report), the National Academy of Sciences decadal survey of Astronomy and Astrophysics (the 2000 McKee-Taylor report), and the National Academy of Sciences decadal survey of Physics (the 2001 “Physics in a New Era” report, and the 1999 “Gravitational Physics: Exploring the Structure of Space and Time”). LISA was the highest priority new mission after GLAST in the medium mission category of the McKee-Taylor report, and was endorsed by the Turner report. Constellation-X was the highest priority new mission after NGST in the McKee-Taylor report in the large mission category, and was endorsed by the Turner report. Possible implementations of the black hole finder probe (EXIST) and the Black Hole Imager (iARISE) were also endorsed as priority missions in the McKee-Taylor report. The Einstein Probes to determine the nature of dark energy and measure the signature of inflation in the microwave background were high priorities in the Turner report. The physics reports did not identify missions by name, but endorsed the science of all the Beyond Einstein missions.

Interagency Connections Astronomical discoveries are driving the frontiers of fundamental physics, and progress in fundamental physics is driving progress in understanding the universe and its contents. The needs and scientific opportunities of Beyond Einstein cut across the disciplines of physics and astronomy as well as the boundaries of DOE, NASA, and NSF. The unique capabilities of all three agencies as well as cooperation and coordination between the three will be essential to address the science questions. In 2000 All three agencies collaborated on the 2001 *Connections* report. The National Academy of Sciences Committee on the Physics of the Universe (CPU) was convened in recognition of these connections. The report and recommendations of this committee provided a key input in developing the Beyond Einstein roadmap. It is expected that inter-agency partnerships will form a key component in many of the Cosmic Probes.

International Connections Substantial international participation is a key feature of Beyond Einstein. The LISA mission is a collaborative equal venture between NASA and ESA, with the ESA participation fully approved. There is substantial international interest in the Constellation-X mission that will be realized when the instruments are competed. Likewise international participation is expected to be developed when the Einstein Probes are competed.

2.2.1 The Einstein Great Observatories

Constellation-X and LISA are facility-class missions that will use the complementary techniques of X-ray spectroscopy and gravitational waves to study black holes. They will investigate behavior of space, time and matter in the extreme environment near black holes and track their evolution with cosmic time. Both missions present great new opportunities for discovery. These two missions will be a major resource used by the entire astronomy and physics communities. Both have been identified as high priorities in the National Academy of Science (NAS) Astronomy and Astrophysics Survey Committee (AASC) as new astronomical facilities for this decade (see box).

Constellation-X increases our capability for high resolution X-ray spectroscopy by 25 to 100 times with a key goal to observe in detail spectral features emitted close to the event horizon of a black hole, and obtain detailed spectra of the faint quasars at high redshift detected by the Chandra X-ray observatory. The mission is optimized for this challenge, but also provides the ability to observe other objects with unprecedented sensitivity such as the formation of the first clusters of galaxies or supernovae in nearby galaxies.

LISA will open a new gravitational wave window on the universe. Through this window we will observe for the first time the mergers of giant black holes, and the death spirals of stars they capture and swallow. Through these, we will map the knotted structure of space and time around a black hole, and determine if the astonishing predictions of Einstein's theory are correct: the freezing of time and dragging of space around a black hole. LISA will also for the first time make a complete map of merging binary stars in our Galaxy (future

supernovae which could affect life on earth), and set important limits on any background radiation from the early universe, from catastrophic events such as phase transitions in the vacuum or changes in the dimensionality of the universe.

Competition The Einstein probes will be fully competed missions. The competition will cover not only the groups selected to lead each mission, but also the scientific and technological approach to the science question identified in this roadmap. This competed approach will ensure the most cost-effective, science-driven approach to the missions.

2.2.2 The Einstein Probes

The Einstein Probe missions are PI-class mission opportunities designed to address in a timely fashion critical science topics and mysteries identified as part of this strategic planning process. These topics are too narrowly focused for a facility-class mission. The science areas are also too specific to be consistent with the broader mandate of the Explorer missions. Also the estimated cost of an Einstein Probe mission is a factor of two to three larger than possible within the Explorer program. We envision that some Einstein Probes will include substantial contributions from other agencies (national and international). The goal is to launch one every 3 years, starting in 2010.

The first three Einstein Probe missions identified will

1. Determine the nature of the dark energy that dominates the universe.
2. Search for the signature of gravitational radiation from the big bang in the polarization of the cosmic microwave background
3. Survey the Universe for black holes.

The exciting new science challenge of dark energy only emerged recently, after the AASC had completed the bulk of its work, and this Einstein Probes line is ideal to respond rapidly to this new development. The search for polarization of the cosmic microwave background caused by the imprint of gravitational radiation from the period of inflation is a critical step in constraining the amplitude and frequency distribution of this radiation, which is essential before embarking on a much more expensive mission to detect the radiation directly. This topic is also identified as an important area for the future by the AASC report. Surveying black holes will be important to find targets for the Black Hole Imager and also to provide a monitor for transient events that can be followed up with Constellation-X and LISA. The importance of a mission to address this topic is given by its identification in the AASC report (the EXIST mission).

2.2.3 Advanced Technology and Theory

The advanced technology program will develop the capabilities required for the Black Hole and Big Bang Observatories. The technologies required for these two ambitious missions are not available today and require a focused technology development program. The mission to image a black hole requires major advances in X-ray imaging, to achieve a resolution 10

million times greater than achieved with the Chandra X-ray observatory. The most promising technique to achieve this is X-ray interferometry, a capability that was specifically called out in the AASC report as a priority for investment this decade. The advanced gravitational wave detection mission will require the capability to “null out” other sources of background to achieve sensitivities several orders of magnitude below the levels achieved by LISA.

The successes of COBE and MAP, and indeed all of the background anisotropy experiments, owe considerable debt, in all stages from initial planning to final reduction and interpretation, to theoretical studies. All of the complex programs of our roadmap require a similar highly integrated approach that includes theoretical modeling at all levels from astrophysical sources down to instrument response, and cannot rely on the traditionally modest support allocated by NASA and NSF to a relatively small community of astrophysical theorists. As recommended by the Decadal Survey, theory should be viewed as part of the forward-looking advanced technology needed for program success. Early, explicit and stable support for theory will lay the conceptual foundations of projects, develop mission-critical analysis and modeling software, foster the growth of teams and centers, provide training for a larger community, and help provide leadership in educational outreach.

2.2.4 An Integrated Program

The three elements of the “Beyond Einstein” program are critically interlinked. The vision missions will carry direct measurements to the absolute extremities of our universe—to the edge of what is physically possible. The Constellation-X and LISA missions are realizable within the next decade and address pressing near-term science questions. The answers to these questions are critical to prove the basic feasibility of the missions to follow and will significantly influence their design. They also will build the foundations for the basic technologies required for the more ambitious missions. The Einstein Probes address focused science questions that also feed into the decision process whether or not to proceed with the more ambitious missions. The overall program is knitted together by research groups in theory and technology.

The measurements of the speeds of X-ray emitting matter by Constellation-X are an essential step to both prove the feasibility of getting a clear view of X-ray emission from close to the event horizon and also to optimize the parameters for the Black Hole Imager mission (energy, bandpass, and angular resolution). The technology developed for Constellation-X is an extension of current technologies, and will contribute towards developing light weight optics and large format detectors needed for an X-ray Black Hole Imager.

LISA will pioneer gravitational radiation detection in space and will make the first direct detection of waves in the frequency range $0.1 - 0.0001$ Hz. The measurements of sources by LISA will allow us to predict the background faced by the Big Bang Observatory. Combined with the results from the Inflation Probe, these will determine the frequency range and sensitivity requirements for the Big Bang Observatory. Experience with LISA will determine its design.

2.3 Beyond Einstein: The Missions

2.3.1 Constellation X

Constellation-X consists of four separate spacecraft each containing a 1.6m diameter telescope for measuring the spectra of cosmic sources of X-rays. These will permit us to measure the velocities and conditions of matter accreting onto black holes. Use of four spacecraft reduces mission risk.

Optical astronomy transitioned into astrophysics more than a half-century ago when it became routinely possible to obtain high resolution spectra. Velocities of hundreds of kilometers per second, ubiquitous in many types of astronomical objects in the Universe, then became measurable, and key multiplets of common nuclei could be resolved to yield quantitative plasma diagnostics. The X-ray band contains lines for all of the abundant heavy elements (carbon through zinc). The X-ray line spectra are rich in diagnostics that constrain physical conditions at their point of origin (temperature, density, velocity, and abundance). As X-ray astronomy approaches its half-century anniversary, however, imaging capabilities have far outrun spectroscopy. Constellation-X is the x-ray astronomy equivalent of large ground-based optical telescopes such as the Keck and the VLT, complementing the high spatial resolution capabilities of the Chandra X-ray observatory. Constellation-X will provide a 25-100 fold increase in sensitivity over the high resolution spectroscopy capabilities of current missions such as Chandra, XMM, and ASTRO-E2. This will result in a fabulous harvest, making X-ray spectroscopy of faint X-ray sources routine and enable the use X-ray spectroscopy to probe close to the event horizon of black holes.

The major science objectives of Constellation-X include:

- Observations of broadened iron emission lines in Active Galactic Nuclei to determine black hole masses and spins. Constellation-X will study a spectral feature from iron with extremely high sensitivity and, in particular, its time variability in detail, providing a precise clock to map the vicinity of the event horizon. Line variability signatures can be interpreted within the framework of General Relativity (GR), and can be used to infer the fundamental parameters of the black hole (mass and spin).
- Investigate energy release processes close to the black hole event horizon. Using the X-ray lines, the emissivity of the inner accretion disk can be mapped out and used to test models for energy release in accretion disks. Processes more exotic than accretion are also believed to be important in at least some galactic nuclei. A spinning black hole may interact with surrounding magnetized gas - and the result can be the extraction of black hole rotational energy. These processes may be the power source for relativistic jets seen in many galactic nuclei, or may deposit large amounts of power into the inner region of the accretion disk. X-ray spectroscopic observations with XMM-Newton are already suggesting the reality of spin-energy extraction, which Constellation-X will be able to map in much more detail.
- Trace the evolution of super massive black holes in quasars and active galaxies. Constellation-X will use the many black holes being found by the Chandra X-ray observatory at high redshift to trace black hole evolution with cosmic time. The X-ray band above a few keV is relatively immune to obscuration and thus allows a clear view of AGN properties at high redshift. Constellation-X observations of the formation and evolution of black

holes in the early universe will help determine their origin and effect on the evolution of their host galaxies.

The Constellation X-ray mission has been in formulation since 1996 with a focussed technology development program underway since then. Constellation-X was included as a near term priority in the 1997 OSS Strategic Plan, and was reaffirmed in the 2000 Strategic Plan. The Constellation-X technology development effort is substantially ramping up from FY2002 through 2004 and is on track to support launches as early as 2011.

The Constellation-X design achieves its high throughput and reduces mission risk by dividing the collecting area across four separate spacecraft launched two at a time. An orbit at L2 will facilitate high observing efficiency, provide an environment optimal for cryogenic cooling, and simplify the spacecraft design. Use of identical off-the shelf spacecraft buses and a parallel production line will reduce cost.

All of the Constellation-X technologies are an evolution of existing, flight proven instruments and telescopes. On each satellite a 1.6 m diameter spectroscopy X-ray telescope (SXT) covers the 0.25–10 keV and a hard X-ray telescope (HXT) extends the energy band up to 60 keV. The SXT uses two complementary spectrometer systems to achieve the required energy resolution of 300–3000: an array of high efficiency quantum micro-calorimeters with energy resolution of $\sim 2\text{eV}$, and a set of reflection gratings feeding a CCD quantum calorimeter array with a resolution of $\sim 0.05\text{\AA}$ in the first order. The baseline field of view of the calorimeter is $2.5'$ square, with 900 pixels spatial resolution. The SXT telescope's point spread function has $15''$ half power diameter.

The Constellation-X hard X-ray telescope (HXT) baseline design has 3 telescopes per spacecraft. These will use multilayer mirrors, and be the first focusing optics for X-rays above 10 keV, increasing sensitivity by a factor of more than 100 over previous missions. The field of view is $8'$. The angular resolution is $1'$ half power diameter. There are no strong atomic lines expected above 10 keV, so the HXT will have only modest spectral resolution $R \sim 10$.

Substantial progress has been made in key areas of technology, including light-weight X-ray mirrors, improved energy resolution and construction of larger arrays of X-ray microcalorimeters, multi-layer depositions for hard X-ray telescopes, CZT detectors for hard X-rays.

2.3.2 LISA: the Laser Interferometer Space Antenna

The Laser Interferometer Space Antenna (LISA) will open a new window on the universe through the study of low frequency gravitational waves. LISA consists of three spacecraft orbiting the sun in a triangular configuration with a baseline of 5 million kilometers between spacecraft.

LISA will detect low frequency gravitational waves by measuring the changes in the relative velocity of two approximately freely-falling proof masses within each spacecraft. LISA will be the first instrument to detect gravitational waves from white dwarf binary stars already known, and these will be used to verify LISA's performance and calibration.

Sources of gravitational waves which LISA should detect include all the merging compact binaries in our own Galaxy (future supernovae or neutron stars), the merger of supermassive black holes in the cores of distant galaxies, and the inspiral of white dwarfs, neutron stars, and stellar-mass black holes into supermassive black holes. None of these can be detected by ground-based detectors, which are not sensitive to gravitational waves of periods longer than 0.03 seconds; by contrast LISA is sensitive to gravitational wave periods between 1 second and 10,000 seconds. LISA may also detect violent mass density flows in the early universe (for example due to predicted phase transitions in the energy of the vacuum, or in the number of dimensions) if their (much more uncertain) amplitude permits.

The major science objectives of LISA include:

- Detection of compact stars spiraling into supermassive black holes in galactic nuclei. The orbital trajectories precisely determine the full space-time geometry down to the horizon of the black hole, and will enable the first high-precision tests of General Relativity and the nature of black holes, including the famous "black holes have no hair" theorem. [see box in Section 1.1.2] The desire for high precision measurements of these relatively weak signals set the sensitivity goals for LISA.
- Study of the role of massive black holes (MBH) in galaxy evolution through the detection and characterization of mergers of massive black holes. LISA will be able to detect mergers of supermassive black holes in merging galaxies during an observation period lasting a year or more with total signal-to-noise ratio of over 1000 at redshifts of 1-5. This will allow precision observations of the information-rich, complex gravitational wave forms predicted by general relativity in regions where spacetime is violently knotted, and will severely test the predictions of general relativity. LISA will also detect or strongly constrain the rate of mergers of intermediate mass BHs or seed BHs, out to $z \approx 30$.
- Search for gravitational wave emission from the early universe. These will probe energy and length scales that were characteristic of the universe 10^{-15} s after the big bang.

LISA has been developed and is envisaged as a joint mission of NASA and the European Space Agency. LISA is an approved European Cornerstone Mission, with a start in 2007 and launch planned for 2010 or 2011, consistent with NASA's plans. ESA has under construction a LISA technology validation mission (SMART-2) for launch in 2006. NASA is providing its own technology validation payload for launch on the ESA spacecraft through the ST7 project of the New Millennium program.

LISA consists of three spacecraft orbiting the sun in earth-trailing orbits. The chosen orbits keep the spacecraft in a triangular configuration with separations of 5 million kilometers. At the heart of each spacecraft are two free-flying test masses which act as the reference masses for the detection of gravitational waves. Two 30-cm telescopes direct the beams from two cavity-stabilised lasers toward the other two spacecraft. The laser light received from the two distant spacecraft is combined with the light from the local lasers on each spacecraft; changes in the ‘beat note’ between the local and distant laser light are caused by changes in the relative velocity of the spacecraft: the signal of gravitational waves. Combining the signals from all the pairs of spacecraft permits detection of both polarizations of gravitational waves and also synthesis of a combination insensitive to gravitational waves which will provide an independent measure of the instrument noise.

LISA will be most sensitive to gravitational waves of periods of 100-1000 seconds, and will be able to detect gravitational wave bursts with space-time strains as small as 6×10^{-21} (5σ all sky-average), corresponding to measuring 3×10^{-12} m (1σ) changes in the 5×10^6 km separation between spacecraft over each wave period. In one year of observation LISA will detect gravitational waves from sources of $10^2 - 10^3$ s periods producing space-time strains as small as 10^{-23} (5σ detection).

LISA will simultaneously detect and study a wide variety of different sources scattered over all directions on the sky. The key to distinguishing the different sources is the different time evolution of their waveforms. The key to determining each source’s direction is the manner in which its waves’ phase and amplitude are modulated by LISA’s orbital motion around the Sun and its changes in orientation. LISA’s ability to synthesise several interferometers with differing sensitivities to gravitational waves will enable it to discriminate isotropic backgrounds from instrumental noise.

The spacecraft use sensitive position-measuring devices to monitor the position of the proof-masses within the spacecraft (“gravitational reference units”). MicroNewton thrusters will maintain drag-free control of the spacecraft about the proof masses. These two elements, viewed as the most critical to LISA’s success, will be space-tested by ESA and NASA (through the ST-7 project) on the ESA SMART-2 mission, to be launched in 2006.

LIGO, VIRGO and other ground-based laser-interferometer gravitational wave observatories are beginning operation. With technological advances during the next ten years, these detectors may become sensitive enough to detect gravitational waves directly for the first time. Although they run on general principles similar to LISA, there are important differences. Because they are on the ground, the proof masses are not freely falling, but are suspended on pendulums; because they must use an artificial vacuum (the world's largest), the arms are 4 km long, rather than LISA's 5 million km. As a result they are optimized to detect much higher frequency waves— 100 to 1000 Hz, rather than LISA's 0.1 to 10 mHz— and will therefore hear completely different sources. For example, LIGO will hear the final few minutes of radiation from merging black hole remnants of ordinary binary stars (about 10 times the mass of the sun). LISA will hear the final year's radiation from black holes (of masses ten to a million times the mass of the sun) captured by supermassive (millions of solar masses) black holes in the centers of galaxies.

2.3.3 Dark Energy Probe

The nature of the mysterious dark energy which dominates our universe is one of the most important questions facing cosmology and fundamental physics today. [see box in Section 1.1.3] Probing the dark energy amounts to measuring the evolution of the expansion rate of the universe over time. There are a number of different plausible strategies toward this goal. They include: using supernovae or other standard candles as a direct test of the distance/redshift relation; probing the evolution of linear growth of cosmological perturbations through observations of clusters and large-scale structure; or measuring the number density of objects (whose evolution must be understood) in a given volume as a function of redshift. A common feature of these strategies is the need for an optical/infrared telescope with a wide field of view and large-scale detector arrays. A mission in space is crucial to obtain high-quality data at the large redshifts ($z \sim 0.5 - 2$) necessary to probe cosmological evolution.

The leading candidate for dark energy is the cosmological constant, or vacuum energy. It has long been appreciated that our naive estimates of what the vacuum energy density should be differ from experimental limits by 10^{120} , and a conclusive demonstration of a small but nonzero cosmological constant bears directly on the search for a quantum theory of gravity. Alternatively, more dramatic candidates for dark energy include dynamically evolving fields or even a breakdown of general relativity. Choosing between these alternatives requires new observational input.

This Dark Energy Probe will be able to accomplish a number of measurements of great importance to cosmology:

- An accurate measurement of the amount of dark energy, currently believed to comprise approximately 70% of the mass-energy of the universe. Pinning down the precise value will both verify the existence of this mysterious component beyond a reasonable doubt, and in combination with results from MAP and Planck, determine whether our Universe is flat (as predicted by inflation theories), spherical, or infinite and curved.
- Greatly increase our sensitivity to time-variations in the dark energy density. If the dark energy is a true cosmological constant, the equation of state parameter $w = p/\rho$ (where p is the pressure and ρ the energy density) should be $w = -1$, and its derivative should be $w' = 0$. If these values are verified to high precision, we have discovered a nonzero vacuum energy, which is a priceless empirical clue in the quest to reconcile quantum mechanics with general relativity. If either $w \neq -1$ or $w' \neq 0$, we have discovered a new dynamical field (or a departure from Einstein's general relativity), opening the door to an entire phenomenology of dark energy.

One implementation of The Dark Energy probe involves a wide field optical/infrared space telescope with primary aperture ~ 2 m, and a field of view ~ 1 degree. The focal plane would consist of billion-pixel arrays of CCDs and near-infrared detectors (e.g. HgCdTe) collectively providing multicolor coverage over the range 0.4–1.7 microns. A mission of this type could search for large numbers of Type Ia supernovae in the redshift range 0.7–1.7, and provide follow-up spectroscopy and multicolor photometry for detected events. This could be accomplished by repeatedly scanning a limited region of sky ~ 10 sq. degree. The sensitivity would be required to allow source detection down to 29th magnitude at 1 micron, and spectroscopy and precision photometry down to 25th magnitude.

Considerable technology investment would be necessary to develop reliable detector arrays of such large format. The Department of Energy has begun such development, and is an interested partner in such a mission.

2.3.4 Inflation Probe

The “Inflation Probe” will search for the imprint of gravitational waves produced during inflation on the Cosmic Microwave background (CMB) radiation. One promising approach to the mission would comprise a 2m cooled telescope located at L2 and equipped with large arrays of polarization-sensitive detectors operating between 50 and 500 GHz.

Scattering of CMB photons by electrons just before the universe becomes neutral generates a polarization pattern related to the temperature pattern of the CMB. This pattern is not only affected by the density fluctuations that are the seeds of present day large-scale structure, but also by the gravitons produced in the early universe. Temperature anisotropy measurements of the CMB, such as those made by COBE and MAP, are insufficient to distinguish the density and gravity wave components. Fortunately, these two sources of fluctuations generate different patterns of polarization on the sky, allowing them to be separated. However, the gravitational wave component to CMB polarization is likely to be at least 100 times fainter than the dominant density component, which will be mapped to high sensitivity by the Planck Surveyor mission (to be launched in 2007).

- Map the polarization of the CMB, and determine all the sources of this polarization on both large and small scales. This will provide a test of unprecedented precision of the gravitational theory for the origin of structure in the universe.
- Search the CMB for the signature of gravitational waves from the very first moments of the universe. These observations can be used to test inflation, and/or other theories of physics, in the very early universe. Detection of the gravitational-wave component to the polarization pattern will test physics at energies that are currently inaccessible by any other means.

To detect the gravity wave component will require all-sky maps of CMB polarization with sensitivity $\sim 1\mu K$ per pixel, about 20-100 times better than Planck. This will require an equivalent improvement in the control of systematic effects. The sensitivities of the detectors that will fly on Planck are already close to fundamental quantum limits and so improvements in mapping sensitivity must come from large increases in the number of detectors, and cooling the telescope and other optics to reach the background limit of the CMB itself. The angular resolution of the maps must be a few arcminutes to allow the true gravity wave signal to be distinguished from secondary sources of polarized CMB signals, such as the lensing of the density component to CMB polarization. Consequently, the Inflation Probe will require at least a 2m class telescope, probably cooled, and equipped with focal plane arrays containing thousands of pixels. Each pixel must also be observed simultaneously from 50-500 GHz to allow astrophysical foregrounds to be subtracted from the polarization maps. The signals from inflation are likely to be mixed with confusing foregrounds and effects from gravitational lensing, so preparatory theoretical and observational work are essential to the success of this effort.

2.3.5 Black Hole Finder

Most of the black holes in the universe are as yet unknown to us, lurking quietly, or hidden by dust. The supermassive black holes at the center of our own Milky Way and its companion, the Andromeda galaxy are lurking quietly, perhaps every ten thousand years flaring brightly when they ingest a star from their surroundings. The three closest supermassive BHs now accreting gas are in the nuclei of galaxies which show no unusual signature in their optical emission.

The Black Hole Finder will perform the first all-sky imaging census of accreting black holes of all masses: from supermassive BHs in the nuclei of galaxies, to intermediate mass (~ 100 - 1000 solar mass) holes likely produced by the very first stars, to stellar mass holes in our Galaxy. Such a census is needed to determine if massive black holes are present in all galaxies and were grown by accretion during the epoch of galaxy formation, as suggested by the density of light emitted by active galactic nuclei throughout the universe.

A veil of dust and gas currently hides most accreting black holes from our view. High-energy X-rays and long wavelength infrared and radio waves can penetrate this veil. Of these, X-rays can best be distinguished from emission from stars, so one promising approach is a wide-field telescope operating in the hard X-ray band. The Black Hole Finder would enable a range of studies of black holes and the extremes of astrophysics:

- Black Hole Finder will measure the supermassive black hole content of galaxies in the local universe for a wide range of both obscuration and accretion rate. Black Hole Finder can identify the most luminous obscured black holes at larger redshifts to constrain the growth rate of massive black holes. Followup detailed studies with Constellation-X and eventually the Black Hole Imager may measure fundamental black hole properties (spin, mass) in the most optimal targets.
- Black Hole Finder will perform the first continuous variability survey for black holes in the hard X-ray band. This will enable systematic discovery of ordinary stars being torn apart as they approach too close to the black holes; LISA will see the gravitational waves from the initial phases of those these events involving small stars, and also the capture of neutron stars and black holes too small to be torn apart. The combination of these data will teach us how the destruction of, and light emission from stars near black holes depends on their motion.

The Black Hole Finder could be a hard X-ray survey mission, consisting of a very large area ($\sim 4\text{-}8\text{m}^2$) array of imaging solid-state detectors (CdZnTe; CZT) which view the sky through wide-field coded aperture masks. The required angular resolution is $\sim 3\text{-}5$ arcmin.

The Black Hole Finder should be sensitive in the 10-600 keV band. The survey flux sensitivity (20-100 keV, 5σ , 1y) should be $F_{lim} \sim 5 \times 10^{-13}\text{erg cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$, comparable to the flux limit of the all-sky soft (0.5-2.5keV) X-ray survey conducted by ROSAT. At this sensitivity level, the Black Hole Finder will reveal the black holes obscured from view in soft X-rays by gas and dust, and allow the complete spectrum of accreting black holes to be studied.

Bright sources will be located by centroiding to ~ 10 arcsec so that counterparts at optical/IR/radio wavelengths can be identified. The faintest survey sources would have 1 arcmin centroids, sufficient for identification with bright galaxies.

2.3.6 Vision: A Big Bang Observatory

Of all waves and particles known to physics, gravitational waves interact the least. Thus they carry information to us from the earliest moments of the universe, when it was so dense that neither light nor neutrinos could escape. The radio waves of the cosmic microwave background escaped on their journey to us when the universe was 300,000 years old. The hydrogen and helium around us formed when the Universe was a few minutes old. Gravitational waves escaped on a journey to us when the universe was only 10^{-34} seconds old. The ultimate goal of the Big Bang Observatory is the direct detection of these gravitational waves.

Like electromagnetic waves, gravitational waves cover a broad spectrum. LISA will observe gravitational waves frequencies 0.0001-0.01Hz; ground-based interferometers cover 30-1000Hz, and the Inflation Probe will probe around 10^{-16} Hz. Understanding the expansion history of the universe at the moments when quantum foam was becoming our familiar space and time requires measuring the gravitational wave relics from this era at at least two widely spaced frequencies. If Inflation Probe succeeds at the lowest frequencies, this program will require measurements at a much higher frequency.

At LISA frequencies and below, the confusion background from astrophysical sources (merging black holes and binary stars in our Galaxy and beyond) is hopelessly large. The expected signal from inflation decreases with increasing frequency, putting it out of reach of ground-based observatories.

In between, at frequencies of 0.01-10Hz, lies a window of opportunity: the number of astrophysical background sources drops to a resolvable number in this band: white dwarf binaries have merged and disappeared. The primary source of background signals is from neutron star binaries several months before coalescence. Yet the signal from the quantum foam of the early universe is still within reach. The ultimate vision is to reach the sensitivity required to directly detect the gravitational wave background from standard 'slow-roll' inflation. This is a technical challenge. To reduce the risks, it may be desirable to begin with a less sensitive pathfinder mission to make the first exploration of the universe in this gravitational wave frequency window, whose astrophysical sources are expected to include the seeds of black hole formation, the first stars, and galaxy formation.

- The vision Big Bang Observatory has the goal of direct detection of quanta of the gravitational field created during inflation. This could give us a direct view of the creation of space and time, and in combination with results from the Inflation Probe, determine the nature of the vacuum at energies far higher than we can hope to reach with ground-based accelerators.
- The Big Bang Observatory will reach this goal by identifying (and subtracting) the gravitational wave signals from every merging neutron star and stellar-mass black hole in the universe.
- The precision measurement of these binaries will directly determine the rate of expansion of the universe as a function of time, extending the results of the Dark Energy Probe.

- The Big Bang Observatory can also pinpoint gravitational waves from the formation or merger of intermediate mass black holes. These are believed to form from the collapse or merger of remnants of the first massive stars to form in our universe, and may have controlled galaxy formation and been the seeds from which supermassive black holes grew. These sources will also enable even finer measurements of the structure of spacetime around black holes than will be possible with LISA.

2.3.7 Vision: A Black Hole Imager

The goal of the Black Hole Imager mission will be to directly image matter falling into a black hole, on an angular scale comparable to the event horizon. An angular resolution of 0.1 micro arc second (100,000 times greater than the resolution of Hubble Space Telescope) is required to resolve the event horizon of accreting black holes at the center of nearby galaxies. This can be achieved at high radio frequencies and at X-ray wavelengths.

Obtaining a simple image, while exciting in concept, is ultimately not sufficient to study the dynamics of the inner regions. To better disentangle the complicated dynamics near the black hole will ultimately require spectroscopic features that can be used to map the speeds as well as positions of gas in the accretion flow close to the event horizon. This can be achieved, for example by doing the imaging at the wavelengths of X-ray lines.

The science objectives for a black hole imaging mission are:

- Map the space-time geometry in the vicinity of a black hole event horizon and compare it to the predictions of general relativity. The efficient and geometrically-thin disks found in higher luminosity systems (e.g., nearby Seyfert galaxies) are high surface brightness sources, with the black hole itself appearing as a central hole in the image of the disk. In this case, the dynamics of the disk can be diagnosed via imaging spectroscopy of fluorescent features from the disk surface, thereby allowing a quantitative test of strong field general relativity. The Constellation-X mission provides an important first step by demonstrating the spectroscopy of relativistically broadened X-ray lines, but without imaging, to demonstrate the basic feasibility.
- Map the release of energy in black hole accretion disks. The underlying mechanisms by which gas swirling into black holes loses energy are not well understood. A direct image of the inner disk could resolve magnetic loops and activity above the disk.
- Determine the mechanism by which relativistic jets are launched from black holes and the role of black hole spin in this process. The ultimate irony of black hole accretion is that rather than swallowing everything, somehow many black holes manage to launch relativistic jets, probably from a region very close to the event horizon. How these are formed and colimated remains a mystery. Imaging and spectroscopy will also provide the most direct route to test models which predict that magnetic fields extract energy from the black hole itself to power these jets.

Chapter 3

Beyond Einstein: Technology Roadmap

3.1 Technology Roadmap: Beyond Einstein

“On a long trek, your eyes arrive first. Your feet arrive last.”
—*African saying*

Investment in key enabling technologies for each of the Beyond Einstein missions is essential for ensuring the success of the initiative. No mission can go into full flight development before it has achieved the appropriate level of technical readiness. This requires a strategic and well-balanced technology program, in which both near-term mission needs and those appropriate to mid-term and vision missions are all vigorously pursued. Technology developments in SEU must be coordinated with those in other Space Science themes to identify leveraging and cost sharing opportunities. The program must be structured, so that technology from early missions is harnessed and extended for later more technically demanding missions. Funding should be awarded competitively, on the basis of peer reviewed proposals with strong community oversight. Since scientists are the end-users of these technologies, they must be kept intimately involved in the technology program so as to ensure that their needs are met.

3.2 Einstein Great Observatory Technologies

Both of the Einstein Great Observatory missions have been under study for several years, and have detailed technology roadmaps in place. We highlight a few of the key elements below:

3.2.1 Constellation-X

Constellation-X will open new windows in cosmology and relativistic astrophysics to test the strong gravity limit of general relativity, map the formation and evolution of dark matter, and survey the formation of the large-scale structure. The mission incorporates four identical spacecraft, flown on two launchers to achieve unprecedented collecting area for high resolution X-ray spectroscopy in pursuit of these goals.

Lightweight, grazing incidence X-ray optics Each of the four Constellation-X spacecraft will carry two sets of telescope systems: 1) a high throughput spectroscopy X-ray telescope (SXT) for the low energy band up to 10 keV, and 2) three hard X-ray telescopes (HXTs) for the high energy band. Both incorporate highly nested, grazing-incidence X-ray mirror arrays, which must simultaneously meet tight angular resolution, effective area and mass constraints. To mitigate fabrication, cost, schedule and mass risk, Constellation-X must invest sufficient resources over the next 3 to 5 years with the explicit goal of advancing one or more independent X-ray mirror fabrication/assembly technologies to TRL-5. Specific investigations should include research into material properties (CTE, creep, etc.), stress-free replication processes, stress-free athermal passive assembly techniques and low-cost mass-fabrication methods.

- X-ray Calorimeter Arrays with 2 eV spectral resolution

FIGURE

Figure 3.1: Current development under CETDP and CTD Projecting need for 5 microwatts at 50 mK; have demonstrated 6 microwatts at 50 mK controlled to 8 microKelvin rms Heat rejection to superfluid He at 1-2 K; next to 4.2 K normal He

Two detector technologies are being developed in parallel to realize the cryogenic X-ray calorimeter arrays: semi-conducting bolometers read out by JFET amplifiers and voltage-biased transition-edge superconducting (TES) thermistors read out with SQUID current amplifiers, both of which have demonstrated the potential to achieve the required energy resolution. However, fabrication issues associated with the arrays - uniformity, lifetime, yield - must still be demonstrated, with a concerted effort to build complete arrays of increasing format.

- Long-duration cooling technology to 50 mK

Constellation-X requires reliable long-life coolers operating at 5-10 K. The Advanced Cryocooler Technology Development Program (ACTDP), already in place, is pursuing this goal through the parallel development of 4 study-phase contracts, leading to a selection in 2002 of 2 candidates for construction of full demonstration coolers to be completed in 2005. The ultimate detector operating temperature of 50 mK can be provided by an ADR operating from the 6 K heat sink of the intermediate cryo-cooler. A continuous ADR, using multiple parallel chains of salt pill and heat switches to provide uninterrupted cooling with a significant reduction in refrigerant mass, is under study as an advanced option.

- Grazing incidence reflection gratings coupled to X-ray CCDs

A grating CCD combination provides imaging spectroscopy in the 0.2 - 1.5 keV energy range. The grating will either incorporate an in-plane reflection grating as an outgrowth of XMM-Newton, or an alternate off-plane grating pending. Both require development to achieve the desired resolution within the allotted tolerances. EDCCDs, Event-Driven CCDs using novel readout electronics to select and digitize pixels with X-ray hits, provide significant improvements in power dissipation and radiation hardness, less susceptibility to optical/IR radiation, and higher frame rates.

- Solid-state hard X-ray imaging detectors

At hard X-ray energies, CdZnTe detectors bonded to ASIC readouts provide < 1.2 keV resolution and high optical efficiency over the 6 - 50 keV energy range. Further development is required in materials properties to improve response at low energies and reduce the effects of electron trapping.

3.2.2 LISA

LISA will open a new window on the universe by enabling the detection of gravitational radiation from a wide variety of astronomical systems, ranging from compact Galactic binary

FIGURE

Figure 3.2: The LISA mission requires development of inertial sensors of the kind shown here.

systems, to mergers of supermassive black holes in the far reaches universe, to the inspiral of solar-mass objects into massive black holes. The observatory consists of a triangle of drag-free reference masses in solar orbit connected by a precision metrology system. The measurement of the relative motion of these drag-free masses allows us to sense the passage of gravitational waves through the solar system.

The LISA science program imposes a set of challenging technical requirements on the observatory. Observations of the capture of a compact object by a massive black hole set the sensitivity limit in the 10^{-2} to 10^{-3} Hz range, while at low frequencies, this is set by the supermassive black hole merger observations.

The key enabling technologies are those which will minimize external disturbances of the test masses, and those which allow precision measurement of the test mass separation. In the case of LISA, the disturbance reduction system is most critical in the low frequency range ($10^{-3} - 10^{-4}$ Hz), while laser power and sensor system sensitivity dominate in the $10^{-2} - 10^{-3}$ Hz range. Finally, in the high frequency range, the sensitivity is controlled by the interferometer arm length.

- Disturbance Reduction System

Significant technology development is required to provide the disturbance reduction system crucial for low frequency sensitivity, in particular, inertial sensors with noise $< 10^{-16}$ g in a 1000 s integration, and low noise microNewton thrusters which can close the loop to minimize disturbances on the test masses.

- Laser Measurement System

Changes in the 5×10^6 km test mass spacing must be measured to 10^{-12} m. That requirement can be met with lasers and detection systems at the present state of the art. Given the orbital dynamics, however, the spacing must be measured to 10^{-5} fringes while changes in spacecraft spacing create a fringe rate as large as 15 MHz. This imposes stringent requirements on the laser frequency stability, frequency correction, and precision pointing and dimensional stability of the telescopes. The phase measurement system may require improvements in ultra-stable oscillators.

- System Verification

A validation flight is planned in June 2006 on the ESA SMART-2 spacecraft, with US participation through the New Millenium mission ST-7. The validation program is essential to test the critical disturbance reduction system components, the gravitational sensors, microNewton thrusters, and the laser interferometer to measure test mass spacing.

3.3 Technology Development for the Einstein Probes

The Einstein Probe mission concepts will be competed: the best scientific and technical approaches to the goals will be chosen from the community offerings at the time each mission is selected. Nevertheless, all of the measurements planned for the three Einstein probe missions are technically very challenging, and it will be essential to validate the technical readiness of potential mission concepts before embarking on each competition. This can be accomplished by means of an Einstein Probe Technology Development line, in which technology programs associated with candidate mission concepts for the various probes are proposed and competed, in advance of the actual mission selections. The Einstein Probe Technology Development line should be instituted as early as possible to enable the most promising technical approaches for each mission to be thoroughly vetted.

To date, some mission concepts are already being studied for each of the Probe science areas. Below we discuss the technology development required for these candidate mission concepts as examples of the types of activities that might be supported by the Probe Technology Development Line.

3.3.1 Dark Energy Probe

The Dark Energy Probe will be designed to perform measurements of the geometry of space-time in the redshift range $z = 0.7 - 1.7$, where the effects of dark energy are expected to leave their most prominent signature. A particularly promising approach (and the one emphasized in the NAS Committee on the Physics of the Universe Report) is to perform highly sensitive, wide field imaging and spectrophotometry in space in the visible and near infrared bands. Such measurements could provide a large sample of Type 1a supernovae out to redshifts beyond $z = 1.5$, as well as several other independent constraints on the nature of dark energy.

A mission capable of performing such observations should incorporate a moderate aperture telescope (~ 2 m diameter), diffraction-limited down to 1 micron, and large arrays of optical and infrared imaging detectors. The telescope is challenging, in that the primary mirror must be constructed with significantly lower areal density and at much lower cost than the primary mirror flown on HST. However, the very large detector arrays raise even more serious technical concerns. Of order a billion pixels are required. For the optical detectors, silicon-based CCDs provide the most obvious candidate technologies, however the joint demands on read noise, dark current, pixel size, array size, charge transfer efficiency, spectral coverage, and radiation hardness are beyond the capabilities of current commercially available devices. Some progress has been made with alternative CCD architectures, but further development is definitely required. For the infrared detectors, low band gap (e.g. HgCdTe) detector arrays look promising, but here again the demands imposed by this application are beyond the current state-of-the-art. In both cases, there are significant risks associated with cost, production schedule, and quality assurance, considering that a large number of devices must be procured, and accurately characterized. Considering the uncertainties, significant technology investment is essential before NASA can confidently proceed with a mission of this type on a fixed budget and schedule.

3.3.2 Inflation Probe

Kahn

The Inflation Probe will be designed to detect signatures of gravitational waves (with wavelengths comparable to the size of the universe) produced by inflation via the imprint they leave on the cosmic microwave background: a weak component of polarization with non-zero projected curl. This is often referred to as “B-mode” polarization, in analogy with the magnetic field of electromagnetism.

Even for optimistic models, however, the B-mode component of polarization is very difficult to detect. Fluctuations in this component are an order of magnitude weaker than those of the curl-free component, and three orders of magnitude weaker than the fluctuations in the CMB temperature that we are measuring today with MAP. The improvement in sensitivity required is roughly 20 - 100 times better than the HFI focal plane detector on Planck, which is itself roughly 20 times more sensitive than MAP. Achieving such vast increases in sensitivity will require significant technological advances in several areas. Of particular importance will be a substantial increase in the sky coverage per frequency. That will require a large array of polarization-sensitive detectors, with frequency multiplexing to obtain coverage from 50 - 500 GHz simultaneously from each pixel. Other technical challenges include the need for cold optics and 100 mK detector operating temperatures with very stable temperature control. Significant technology development in all of these areas is required.

3.3.3 Black Hole Finder Probe

Swordy/Kal

Black Hole Finder probe will conduct a wide field survey of black holes at hard X-ray/soft γ -ray energies, where radiation emitted from these objects can penetrate any surrounding veil of gas and dust.

The survey instrument for this science needs to be sensitive over an energy range of $\sim 10\text{keV}$ - 600keV , and to have angular resolution ~ 5 arcmins. Since reflective optics provide very limited fields of view at these high energies the telescope must function using the techniques of coded aperture imaging. To provide sufficient sensitivity the detector plane must have an area of several m^2 with mm^2 sized pixels to provide the required angular resolution.

A key technology development will be the development and operation of a suitable detector array. An array of CdZnTe seems the most likely candidate. While this material has been the most promising room-temperature high-Z detector developed so far, there remain some significant technical challenges. Other technology issues include the refinement of current manufacturing techniques for the mask, and the development of a sufficiently fast data acquisition system to cope with the high trigger rate of the detector array.

3.4 Beyond Einstein Vision Mission Technologies

The ultimate visions of the Beyond Einstein program stretch well beyond what will be accomplished with either the mid-term missions or the Einstein probe missions. These stretch our imagination, both scientifically and technically. Although detailed designs for such missions cannot be constructed now, it is important that we begin addressing some of

the anticipated technology needs, if we are to be ready to realize these goals in the coming decades. Below, we discuss some possible technology development programs associated with these vision missions.

3.4.1 Big Bang Observatory

The ultimate goal of a Big Bang Observatory is to directly observe gravitational waves with sufficient sensitivity to observe the background due to the quantum fluctuations in ‘slow roll’ inflation, characterised by a fractional energy density for gravitational waves of $\Omega < 10^{-15}$. This must be accomplished in the face of a strong astrophysical foreground of gravitational waves produced by all the binary stars and black holes in the universe.

To separate these foreground sources requires extraordinary sensitivity and angular resolution. One possible solution consists of a four separate interferometers, each including three spacecraft separated by 50,000km (with peak sensitivity to gravitational waves near 0.1Hz). Three of the interferometers would be spaced in a triangle around the earth’s orbit about the sun (separations of 1.7AU), and the fourth would be collocated with one of them for independent correlation.

Such a configuration imposes many technical challenges, including:

- **Strain Sensitivity.** A significant improvement in strain sensitivity, ~ 1000 times better than that of LISA is required. This is affected by the mirror diameter, the mirror figure, the laser power, the laser frequency stability, the laser phase measurement accuracy, and the instrument pointing accuracy. Technology development should be pursued in all of these areas.
- **Acceleration Noise.** A gravitational reference sensor with acceleration noise performance 10 times lower than planned for LISA is required.

For the Big Bang Observatory, as for the Black Hole Imager, it would be technically desirable to first fly a pathfinder mission, with fewer spacecraft and more modest improvements on LISA’s technology. This could make a first exploration of the universe in the 0.03 – 10Hz region of the gravitational wave spectrum, between that studied by LISA (< 0.03 Hz) and that covered by ground-based interferometers like LIGO (> 10 Hz).

3.4.2 Black Hole Imager

The goal of the Black Hole Imager is to enable direct imaging of the distribution and motion of matter in the highly distorted space-time near the event horizon of a black hole. This will require angular resolution of a microarcsecond or better —almost five orders of magnitude beyond that of the Hubble Space Telescope. An X-ray interferometer seems naturally matched to this task, since accreting black holes are expected to have a high surface brightness in X-rays, and this, coupled with the short wavelength, allows an instrument of relatively modest aperture and baseline to be used.

An X-ray interferometer with 0.1 microarcsecond (μ as) resolution poses some outstanding technical challenges. At wavelengths near 1 nm, the required baselines are about 1 km, and focal distances must be 1000 to 10,000 km to obtain reasonable detector scales. This

means that separate spacecraft are needed with highly controlled formation flying. Nominal requirements are: position accuracy of a fraction of a nanometer, angles known to $0.1 \mu\text{as}$, and optical surfaces figured to 0.05 nm .

- Pointing. Changes in the space orientation of the line from the center of the detector spacecraft through the center of the baseline of reflector spacecraft must be known to a precision of $0.1 \mu\text{as}$, and controlled to a few hundred times that value. This is probably the greatest technical challenge, and it is shared in some form by other planned missions such as TPF. An attractive possibility is to utilize an absolute inertial reference provided by an advanced form of gyroscope.
- Mirror figuring. Grazing incidence relaxes the necessary surface figure accuracy by a factor of $1/\sin\theta$, where θ is the graze angle. Since this angle must be smaller than ~ 1 degree for broad-band X-ray mirrors, surface requirements are reduced to about 3 nm , or $1/200$ wave for visible light. This accuracy can currently be obtained for flat surfaces up to 15 cm diameter. However, given the way these flats are fabricated, extending the size even to 30 cm by 1500 cm will not be a trivial task.

To reduce the risks associated with making such large technical advances as these in one step. it would be desirable to first fly a pathfinder mission, with angular resolution requirements reduced by about two orders of magnitude, to $100 \mu\text{as}$.

Chapter 4

Beyond Einstein: Research and Analysis

4.0.3 Theory

Theoretical studies— here taken to include conceptual and analytical theory, development of software technologies supporting data exploration, astrophysical simulations, and combinations of these— were recognized by the National Academy’s Decadal survey as a central component of modern mission technology development. That survey recommended that supporting theory be explicitly funded as part of each mission funding line, because detailed modeling connecting the elements of a mission to the system under investigation is critical to design and even to conceive successful and cost-effective missions. Rigorous modeling is an important factor in reducing mission risk and evaluating competing mission strategies, and simulations can vividly demonstrate mission goals. Beyond Einstein explores to the boundaries of foundational knowledge as well as the boundaries of spacetime, so detailed and quantitative theoretical studies are indispensable, starting with the earliest design phases.

The following examples (by no means an exhaustive list) include both specific mission-critical and broader foundational theoretical studies supporting Beyond Einstein:

- Constellation-X. Models of relativistic hydrodynamic flows in accretion disks, including radiative transfer models, leading to simulated, time-dependent spectra.
- LISA. Studies and simulations of signal extraction (the “cocktail party problem”); numerical relativity, aimed at accurate calculation of predicted gravitational waveforms for the whole range of merging and orbiting systems; astrophysical modeling and simulations to connect binary population predictions with other data sets.
- Inflation Probe. Theoretical studies of early universe cosmology, including tensor and scalar mode predictions and their connection with fundamental theory; simulations of polarization effects, including the contamination effects of astrophysical foregrounds and gravitational lensing; development of optimal statistical signal extraction techniques.
- Dark Energy Probe. Theoretical studies of Type Ia supernovae and other candidate systems for calibrating cosmic distances, including simulations of statistical effects of gravitational lensing by dark matter; realistic simulation of various competing techniques (e.g. galaxy clusters, quasar clustering) to facilitate evaluation of most precise and reliable methods.
- Big Bang Observatory. Early universe cosmology and phenomenology of quantum gravity, string theory, and brane world models; models of coalescing white dwarf and neutron star binaries and populations in the 0.1 to 1 Hz range.
- Black Hole Imager. Comprehensive simulation of black hole environments, including electromagnetic field interactions with flows and the spacetime metric, and radiative transfer over many decades of dynamic range.

4.0.4 Ground-Based R & A

Beyond Einstein missions also require specialized supporting ground-based programs. As in the case of theory, these studies should start early in the program since they will influence

the optimization of the mission design parameters. In the case of the Einstein Probes, a broad effort is needed since even the mission concept will be competed.

The Inflation Probe, if it is based on microwave background anisotropy polarization, will require new generations of polarization-sensitive detectors, excellent control of systematic effects and a thorough understanding of astrophysical foregrounds. Ground-based Cosmic Microwave Background polarization experiments will be essential preparation for the Inflation Probe, both for testing of new technology, investigation of observing strategies and systematics, and for providing data to test new analysis techniques. Detector technology for COBE, MAP and Planck was a direct product of ground-based and sub-orbital programs. In the same way, a strong ground-based program is an essential precursor to the Inflation Probe.

The Dark Energy Probe, whatever technique is adopted, will require ground-based data of unusual uniformity, quality and completeness. If Type Ia supernovae are employed, space studies must be supported by detailed and precise ground-based spectra and photometry of a large, uniformly selected sample of relatively nearby supernovae. This is required both as a calibrating set for the high-redshift Hubble diagram, and as a statistical control sample to study the systematic correlations of supernova properties— the generalization of the one-parameter fits to light curve shape currently being used. Similar foundational studies are needed for other candidate techniques for the Dark Energy Probe.

Chapter 5

Education and Public Outreach

5.1 Education, Outreach and the Public Mandate

The *Beyond Einstein* program offers an unparalleled opportunity to involve the public in the excitement of cosmic exploration, and especially to inspire and cultivate the next generation of scientists. This goal comes at a critical time, when the number of American-born scientists and engineers is reported to be dwindling. The missions and research programs in *Beyond Einstein* are committed to bringing significant resources to this educational challenge, so that all Americans can share in the asking and answering of some of the most basic and far-reaching questions about the universe. The public's eagerness to share this adventure is reflected in part by the many Hollywood movies, television series, best-selling books, and popular articles that draw on the *Beyond Einstein* theme.

Beyond Einstein's education efforts are part of a comprehensive initiative coordinated by the Office of Space Science. Thanks to an efficient network of partnerships throughout the education and outreach communities, OSS products and programs now reach virtually every avenue of public interest, including the nation's schools, science museums and planetariums, media outlets, after-school programs, libraries, and community groups. Outreach programs for the *Beyond Einstein* theme will build on these existing partnerships. Special emphasis is placed on the pre-college years, including middle-school and the lower grades, a time when life-long attitudes towards science and science literacy are developed.

Among the hallmarks of *Beyond Einstein's* approach to education and outreach are: the participation of space scientists at all levels of outreach; an emphasis on the diversity of people and cultures who contribute to the questions and the quest; an emphasis on professional development of pre-service and in-service teachers; the link between technology and the advancement of science; and an emphasis on the nature of scientific inquiry, including the human drama of planning, building, and launching the great missions of exploration.

The missions and probes in the *Beyond Einstein* theme offer unique educational opportunities. For example, the origin of the universe is considered such an important part of science education — and of cultural literacy generally — that it is featured in the *National Science Education Standards*, which form the basis for most state education frameworks. Missions such as MAP, the Inflation Probe, the Big Bang Observatory, and LISA offer the opportunity to develop a comprehensive and coordinated set of materials with which teachers and students can examine evidence for the Big Bang and trace the underlying idea that scientific inquiry can address even the most ancient and difficult questions.

Similarly, black holes are cited in the *Benchmarks for Science Literacy* — published by the American Association for the Advancement of Science and widely used along with the *National Standards* — as an excellent way to introduce students to the important idea that "under extreme conditions the world may work in ways very different from our ordinary experience, and that the test of scientific theory is not how nearly it matches common sense, but how well it accounts for known observations and predicts new ones that hadn't been expected." The *Benchmarks* mandate that by the end of 12th grade, "students should know that... many predictions from Einstein's theory of relativity have been confirmed on both atomic and astronomical scales. Still, the search continues for an even more powerful theory of the architecture of the universe." Missions such as Constellation-X, LISA, and the Black Hole Finder Probe will provide students and the public with a front-row seat for one of the great scientific explorations of our time.

An area of growing importance in the classroom is the "interaction of light and matter," especially students' understanding of the various forms of light, from radio waves to gamma rays, which is central to all modern scientific exploration regardless of discipline. The *Beyond Einstein* missions span the electromagnetic spectrum, and introduce a new one (gravitational waves). They collectively provide teachers with clear, graphic, and compelling examples of the wide variety of information about our universe that light can provide. In fact, more than 10,000 teachers have already requested education materials from *Beyond Einstein* because they provide such compelling classroom examples of light beyond the visible.

Another crucial area of opportunity is technology education. Many states now require technology education in middle school, and science museums across the country are building "Current Science and Technology Centers" to address the public's interest in new technologies. The fantastic requirements of a mission like LISA — which will measure an object being jostled by less than the width of an atom — provoke the kind of excitement and questioning that draws young people into science and technology in the first place.

Educational products and programs developed for the *Beyond Einstein* theme are expected to be extremely popular, as they have been in the past. For example, the television shows and educational materials for "Live from a Black Hole" and "Live from the Edge of Space," reached an estimated 5 million students. Either directly or indirectly, the *Beyond Einstein* theme now provides much of, and soon the *majority* of, all materials on these subjects in our nation's schools.

Finally, *Beyond Einstein* missions will weave an ongoing story that is considered one of the most compelling in all science — a story that will form the raw material for museum exhibits, planetarium shows, radio programs, and other media outlets. We know that the public clamors to be involved in this story, because they vote with their feet and their pocketbooks: More Americans visit science museums and planetariums than attend all sporting events combined — more than 120 million in 2001 — and the *Beyond Einstein* theme remains a favorite there. For example, a recent planetarium show on black holes and the Big Bang (*Journey to the Edge of Space and Time*) increased attendance in both Boston and Philadelphia by more than 20% above normal. Public television's NOVA show on dark energy (*Runaway Universe*) was seen by more than 2.1 million Americans — almost as many as watch all three cable news networks combined. And a national traveling exhibition featuring mysteries from the *Beyond Einstein* theme (*Cosmic Questions*) is expected to reach up to 4 million visitors.

Possible Sidebars/ Callouts [to sprinkle elsewhere in text]

Several million people visit websites on the *Beyond Einstein* theme each year.

"Thank you for such an educational site for children. I am a homeschooler and this is so comprehensive." - Mrs. D.

"I was immediately hooked! You are stirring the imagination and interest of today's kids!" - Testimonial from user of Chandra education materials

Public interest in the Chandra X-ray Observatory has led to more than 850 newspaper articles and wire stories — including 27 in the NY Times, Washington Post, and USA Today — and more than 10 newscasts, including CNN, ABC, CBS, and NPR.

NOVA's television show on Dark Energy was watched by 2.1 million Americans—almost as many as all cable news network stations combined.

The show, *Journey to the Edge of Space and Time*, increased attendance at planetariums

in Boston and Philadelphia by more than 20

Imagine the Universe!, a website on *Beyond Einstein* themes, has been visited by millions of Americans (<http://imagine.gsfc.nasa.gov>).

The Starchild web site for elementary students was one of the first winners of the Webby award for Education. (<http://starchild.gsfc.nasa.gov>)

"I am so thankful that I just saw on TV the RUNAWAY UNIVERSE today and then discovered this website tonight. How can we be so lucky as to have these educational tools available? While I am a great-grandmother of two and have not studied chemistry, math or physics ever, I am hooked. Please keep giving this inspiring information to us and especially to the young future scientists. - Betty H., NC.

"I [attend school] in Nacogdoches, Texas. I feel that more astronomy-based learning should take place- in history and English classrooms as well as science. The heavens are very important to many cultures and I feel our studies in school do not show a true picture of these cultures without a focus on astronomy". - Bethany G., Texas

"Exploring the cosmos has been something I have been drawn to for as long as I can remember. I am most interested in learning about the beginning and end of the universe, and also exploration into black holes in terms of their role in the universe." — from a high school sophomore responding to the GLAST website

"I am a physics teacher who just started teaching astronomy and this site [Imagine the Universe] has proven quite useful. The activities are great! "

NEED STATISTICS or prominent examples of scientists and engineers who entered science through astronomy.

NEED Statistics on sales of hot BE theme books: e.g. Hawking's *A Brief History of Time*, on Times best seller list 4 years, longer than any other book ever.

NEED Examples of BE theme movies and SciFi (Black Hole, Einstein...).

"We seize only a bit of the curtain that hides the infinite from us." - Maria Mitchell

Part II: Cycles of Matter and Energy

Chapter 6

Science Objectives: Cycles of Matter and Energy

Cycles Objectives and RFAs

1. Explore the cycles of matter and energy in the evolving Universe.
 - A Explore where and when the chemical elements were made.
 - B Understand how matter, energy and magnetic fields are exchanged between stars and the gas and dust between stars.
 - C Discover how gas flows in disks and how cosmic jets are formed.
 - D Identify the sources of gamma-ray bursts and cosmic rays.
2. Understand the development of structure in the Universe.
 - E Learn what physical processes gave rise to galaxies and systems of galaxies.
 - F Explore the behavior of matter in extreme astrophysical environments.
 - G see *Beyond Einstein* A, B.

FIGURE: A web of matter and connections...

Figure 6.1: As the web of primordial material condenses into the first galaxies, the interactions of light and matter constitute a similarly complex web of interdependence. It is such a picture of our cosmic ecosystem that the SEU theme is poised to explain.

6.1 A Rich and Diverse Universe

Our efforts to understand the structure and evolution of the Universe are carried out on a broad front, with complementary clues to its origin and destiny coming from different wavelength regimes and astrophysical venues. The Universe is a dynamic, evolving, and active place – the cosmic manifestation of the web of biological and physical interactions that determine the future of our own planet. The SEU portfolio includes missions presently in flight, that have revolutionized our understanding of the cycles of matter and energy in the universe. The Chandra X-ray Observatory has been profoundly successful in this regard, opening our eyes to the richness of the x-ray universe as HST has done for the optical part of the spectrum.

This cosmic ecosystem is one of layered complexity. The Universe is organized out of cycles of matter and energy, a cosmic web of physical processes in which the chemical elements are formed and destroyed, and passed back and forth between stars and diffuse clouds. It is illuminated with the soft glow of nascent and quiescent stars, fierce irradiation from the most massive stars, and intense flashes of powerful photons from collapsed objects. Even as the Universe relentlessly expands, gravity pulls pockets of its constituents together, and the energy of their collapse and the resulting nucleosynthesis works to fling them back apart.

The aim of the SEU theme is to seek to out and understand this web of interrelationships and dependencies of the Universe. We want to know what powers it, and how that power is regulated and transmitted. We seek to understand where and when the chemical elements were made, and how these new elements, energy and magnetic fields are exchanged between stars and the interstellar medium. This involves both quiescent winds, jets, and explosive events. Our task includes uncovering the processes that lead to the formation of galaxies. Finally, we seek to understand the behavior of matter in extreme environments. Such matter bears directly on the production of gamma ray bursts and high energy cosmic rays. In the following pages, the highlights of our knowledge of stars and galaxies is reviewed, followed by our approach to the sweeping astronomical problems that remain.

While our Universe is a magnificent laboratory for studying processes of matter and energy that we cannot yet hope to duplicate on our Earth, it is a laboratory in which there are a lot of things going on simultaneously. Our understanding depends upon our ability to use new technologies and creative strategies to disentangle this cosmic web. With a nod to the best strategies of terrestrial archaeology, our perspective of exploration is based not only on the cycles of matter and energy that we can see operating right now, but on the fossil record of dead stars and their chemical constituents, which are the ashes that they leave behind.

The spirit of exploration is at the foundation of our culture. Investment in this spirit has never failed to strengthen us and improve our quality of life. While our curiosity drives us to explore diverse frontiers —oceans and continents, bacteria and the brain, the common

FIGURE: From gas to stars and back again ...

Figure 6.2: A huge, billowing pair of gas and dust clouds is captured in this Hubble telescope picture of the super-massive star Eta Carinae. Eta Carinae suffered a giant outburst about 150 years ago, when it became one of the brightest stars in the southern sky. Though the star released as much visible light as a supernova explosion, it survived the outburst, and now returns processed material to the interstellar medium in two lobes and a large, thin equatorial disk. Eta Carinae may be one of the most massive stars in our galaxy.

thread is a desire to uncover the richness of the world in which we live, a richness that is inevitably valuable and transforming. Our efforts to date have revealed our Universe to be an awesomely rich and diverse place. By looking out at it we see things that we have never seen before. We see things that challenge both our understanding and our imagination, and we are to committed to bring this challenge to the whole country though our outreach efforts. With questions that excite the human spirit, we inspire the next generation of explorers as we explore the universe —as only NASA can.

The intellectual challenge for the SEU theme encompasses the birth, death, lifecycles, and interrelationships between galaxies, stars, black holes, and the gas, dust and radiation fields that permeate the space between them.
--

6.2 Stars: Engines of Change in an Evolving Universe

Originating in dense gas clouds, which condense and fragment, stars are a critical part of the machinery of the evolving Universe. For a star, mass is destiny – the low mass stars slowly fuse hydrogen into helium, while massive stars burn fiercely for a brief cosmic moment. Stars about one half the Sun’s mass or less have a lifetime which is at least as long as the present age of the Universe: the oldest stars in the Milky Way Galaxy contain a sample of the Universe from some 12 billion years ago. These stars show that our Galaxy was once very poor in the heavy elements out of which planets and people are made. More recently formed stars, like the Sun, have inherited a legacy of atoms created in the massive stars that lived out their short life cycles when the Universe was young.

Massive stars make essentially all of the elements of our world—oxygen, calcium, iron—and they blast these new elements into the gas between the stars as they end their lives in supernova explosions. In these violent events a single dying star, as it undergoes a catastrophic collapse into a neutron star or black hole, shines as brightly as a billion Suns while accelerating cosmic rays, forming cosmic dust, and stirring the magnetic field between the stars. Such stars are the major source of energy for the interstellar medium. The accumulated products of all these complex events become the material for new stars which form from the densest regions of the interstellar gas. In these dusty and obscure venues, the atoms can combine into molecules, including organic molecules related to life.

Lower mass stars like our Sun evolve sedately. As they run out of hydrogen fuel in their cores, they slowly expand to become “red giants,” relatively cool, very large stars. When the Sun becomes a red giant in some 5 billion years, it will expand to engulf the inner planets of our Solar System. In this red-giant phase, mass is pushed off the surface of stars in “stellar

FIGURE: Fountains of new elements spraying into the Universe...

Figure 6.3: This HST snapshot of the galaxy NGC3079 reveals dramatic activities in the core where a bubble of hot gas is rising above the galaxy disk. The bubble is likely being blown by winds from a burst of star formation. Gaseous filaments at the top of the bubble are being expelled into intergalactic space. Eventually, some of this gas will rain down on the disk to form new generations of enriched stars. This picture illustrates rampant star formation in a nearby galaxy, and the exchange of processed gas with the intergalactic medium surrounding it.

winds” that are the major source of matter for the interstellar medium. Even these lower mass stars contribute to cosmic nucleosynthesis, by production of light elements like carbon and nitrogen. At the end of the red-giant phase, the star itself collapses to become a hot, planet-sized “white dwarf” which slowly cools as it radiates away its stored energy.

We can look around and assay at least the local universe, but this complicated soup that we live in today is just the product of eons of universe-building. We need a better understanding of how a chemically pristine primordial universe, composed of little more than hydrogen and helium, was seeded with the elements out of which we are made, We need to reconcile our understanding of the life cycle of stars —the factories for these elements —with their contributions to that universe-building.

Stars are the factories for new elements in the Universe and, by the energy that they deposit there, mix the raw material for succeeding generations. The SEU theme is committed to mapping the processes by which these stellar factories build up the Universe.

6.3 Galaxies: Bringing it all Together

The observable Universe contains about one hundred billion galaxies, each one an immense ensemble of about one hundred billion stars and attendant gas, all held together by gravity. Our own Milky Way is typical, but galaxies span wide ranges in sizes, shapes and demographics. How and when were galaxies first formed? Why do they have the wide range of properties that we now see in them? This is one of the most important goals in contemporary astronomy. SEU missions will trace their evolution from the primordial structure that the Universe was born with all the way to the intricate systems of the kind that we are part of today.

We know that when the Universe was a much younger and more violent place, super-massive black holes were gorging themselves with surrounding material and growing in a natal feeding frenzy as galaxies formed around them. The remaining signposts of this black-hole birthing process are the enigmatic and fascinating quasars and related active galactic nuclei. Even today relatively dormant galaxies, including our own, have massive black holes lurking at their centers. What role did these black holes play in the evolution of these galaxies? Did all galaxies suffer violent epochs, when the black holes within were devouring them from the inside?

The challenges are daunting, as we want to understand events that happened billions of

years ago in faraway places. But several approaches are promising. The first — our galaxy archaeology — involves sifting through the fossil record in nearby galaxies. Just as taking a human census would allow us to chart the history of human births over the last century, the census of stars in a galaxy allows us to determine the history of stellar births over the history of the Universe. The second approach uses telescopes as time machines. As we peer farther out into the Universe with ever more sensitive instruments, we peer back in time. This allows us to chronicle the properties of galaxies at different epochs over the history of the Universe, and thereby understand how and when galaxies were formed. The third approach is to intensively study examples of current galaxy-building in our local Universe: how do stars form in galaxies and how do these stars seed the cosmos with light, heat, and the chemical elements from which planets and life are made?

The plan for the SEU theme takes three concerted approaches – cosmic archaeology, looking at the Universe long ago and far away, and understanding contemporary mechanisms of galaxy building.

6.4 The Space Astronomy Imperative

This basic picture of the interrelationship of stars and galaxies in the cosmos begs many questions. A detailed understanding of the cycles of matter and energy in stars and galaxies – their nucleosynthesis, winds, radiation and gravity fields – constitutes the foundation of the SEU theme charter. Space based telescopes have achieved unique advantages and opportunities in this regard. Different spectral regions probe vastly different physical regimes. Rather than peering at the cosmos through narrow and limiting spectral bands that our atmosphere transmits to ground-based telescopes, we can from space choose our view based on information gathering potential. The stability of space platforms allows precision pointing, and opportunities for the clearest views of the Universe. Their thermal isolation allows for cryogenic telescopes, which can provide the highest sensitivity. This roadmap emphasizes how the maturation of our technological capabilities and research perspective has focused our attention on answering key problems that build this understanding.

6.5 Of New Stars and New Galaxies

New space observatories, notably NGST, will see the first stars form in the first galaxies, and others will provide a census of the first galaxies. Others, such as SIRTF, will detect and explore the dynamics of pre-galactic clouds as they cool and collapse into stars. We are just beginning to learn how star formation takes place locally, and similar considerations apply to the larger scale phenomena of galaxy formation, and the interaction between galaxies and the intergalactic gas. The birth of stars out of interstellar clouds has been mapped out in some detail in our own and nearby galaxies using infrared telescopes. The dusty visually opaque cocoons out of which all but the earliest generations of stars are formed are relatively transparent in the infrared, so such telescopes allow us to watch the process happen. The signatures of these epochal birthing events have now been detected in the distant Universe. There we may in fact be seeing the first such generations of stars following the formation of their host galaxies out of concentrations in the primordial soup of matter.

FIGURE: Glimmers of secrets through the murk...

Figure 6.4: The infrared transparency of a nearby dust enshrouded galaxy (Cen A) is illustrated by this HST optical image at left with the near infrared NICMOS image of the nuclear region inset at right. The central engine of this galaxy is clearly revealed at infrared wavelengths.

FIGURE: Details of a distant youth... **add a Herschel beamsize within the SIRTf circle**

Figure 6.5: The infrared beams (spatial resolution) of a 10m cold far- infrared telescope (small yellow circles) are superimposed on a simulated NGST image. Extragalactic targets for this large far infrared telescope are shown under these yellow circles, with their vast redshifts indicated. The large red circle shows the beamsize of SIRTf, which is too large to distinguish individual distant galaxies. The large cold telescope would clearly isolate, and even resolve many of the newly born galaxies at the edge of the Universe.

These measurements will build on our new understanding of the detailed distribution of the microwave background from missions like the Microwave Anisotropy Probe (MAP) and Planck, allowing us to actually see the primordial structure which is the relic from the birth of the Universe. These missions pick up the first light that escaped this Big Bang. The first generation of stars were composed of only hydrogen and helium so the penultimate stage of the first collapses of clouds into stars will be dominated by warm dense hydrogen gas, most likely in molecular form. Light from molecular hydrogen is emitted at infrared wavelengths that are detectable only outside the Earth's atmosphere. A cryogenic, large aperture infrared observatory like the Single Aperture Far Infrared (SAFIR) observatory would offer a unique window into galaxy collapse before stars form and cosmic nucleosynthesis begins. Such a mission could build upon Next Generation Space Telescope (NGST) technology and was recently endorsed as a high priority by the NAS Decadal Survey.

While missions in the *Beyond Einstein* program, such as Constellation-X will map out the element-building machinery in stars within our own and nearby galaxies, delineating the process by which chemical elements are made, we look forward to an X-ray telescope that an order of magnitude larger. Such a telescope would measure X-ray spectra of supernovae in the very early universe where we could actually watch the first metals being formed.

For such galaxies in the very early Universe, one of the first major changes after starting the stellar element-building machinery is dust grain formation. Condensable and refractory elements that come out of the first generations of stars become the smoke and soot of the interstellar medium. This interstellar dust becomes a major source of galactic opacity, absorbing much of the optical and ultraviolet light. These grains reradiate this absorbed energy in the infrared, so actively star forming galaxies are brightest at these long wavelengths. For sources at cosmological distances, the expansion of the Universe shifts their peak energy towards even longer far infrared and submillimeter wavelengths. Since the peak moves closer to these spectral bands as we look at galaxies farther away, they don't get fainter as quickly with distance as they do at other wavelengths. This remarkable property makes far infrared and submillimeter probes especially powerful as cosmological tools.

The initial seeding of infant galaxies by first generation stars with newly created elements

results in bright emission lines of light ions, such as C^+ at a wavelength of 158 microns and N^+ at 122 and 205 microns. These spectral lines are beacons that are not only superb probes of redshift distances in very remote galaxies, but are also powerful coolants of interstellar clouds. In this latter regard, they provide for diffuse clouds of material what water and CO provide for denser regions in which the collapsed has progressed further. By enhancing the cooling rate, these lines allow the clouds to collapse more quickly, thus accelerating the star formation process.

The wavelength bands from the infrared through X-rays offer a rich suite of diagnostic spectral lines for chemical characterization of interstellar and circumstellar gas out of which these stars will be formed. These bright lines offer the opportunity for high spectral resolution that will allow us to measure the orbits and flows of this gas in detail, tracing the flow from cloud to protostar. Submillimeter interferometers in space will offer orders of magnitude improvement in image clarity over that currently available, complementing the huge increases in sensitivity that the single dish instruments will provide.

Such observatories will take the next scientific leap beyond that of the Space Infrared Telescope Facility (SIRTF), the Stratospheric Observatory for Infrared Astronomy (SOFIA) and Herschel, which will set the scientific and technological stage for future efforts. They will complement the longer wavelength ground-based investments such as the Atacama Large Millimeter Array (ALMA), which is sensitive to the cold component of the interstellar star-making material. Building on the results of the Hubble Space Telescope (HST) the Far Ultraviolet Spectroscopic Explorer (FUSE), the Chandra X-ray Observatory, XMM-Newton, and Astro-E2, large aperture ultraviolet and X-ray telescopes in space will, though larger collecting area and improved detectors, greatly increase the number of detectable background sources. Constellation-X, a top priority mission in this roadmap, will meet this challenge with vastly improved spectral discrimination and sensitivity over previous X-ray missions. Looking at these distant sources allows us to probe the hot component of the interstellar medium in our own Galaxy on different lines of sight toward them.

Of fundamental importance to our program is the role that stars play in the chemical and energy evolution of the Universe. This line of inquiry is aimed at understanding both the mechanisms of stellar nucleosynthesis, and the history of stellar populations. When and how were the first stars formed, and what can contemporary star formation teach us about it— How were galaxies built, and can we chronicle the epochs of star formation in them?

Seeing the earliest stars in the earliest galaxies is now within our technological reach. We will build telescopes that will do this, and efficiently detect and assay interstellar gas out of which these stars are made.

6.6 The Explosive Enrichment of Galaxies

The structure and evolution of the Universe is strongly driven by stellar collapse and explosive events, which inject energy as well as a multitude of nuclear products into the interstellar gas. Life as we know it would not be possible without the carbon, oxygen, and heavy metals that are synthesized in stellar interiors and released in these explosions.

Supernova events that are bright enough to observe directly are relatively rare. But while the supernova event itself is revealing of the products of the explosion, the rapidly

FIGURE: Visions of new elements from a cosmic furnace...

Figure 6.6: Color composite of the supernova remnant E0102-72: X-ray (blue), optical (green), and radio (red). E0102-72 is the remnant of a star that exploded in a nearby galaxy known as the Small Magellanic Cloud. The Chandra X-ray Observatory image, shown in blue, shows gas that has been heated to millions of degrees Celsius by the rebounding, or reverse shock wave. The X-ray data show that this gas is rich in oxygen and neon. These elements were created by nuclear reactions inside the star and hurled into space by the supernova.

FIGURE: Glowing embers of galactic nucleosynthesis...

Figure 6.7: In this wide angle 1.809 MeV gamma-ray view of the Milky Way Galaxy from the Compton Observatory, bright spots made by radioactive ^{26}Al show clearly. With a half-life of about a million years—short compared with the timescale of nucleosynthesis—the bright spots that concentrate in the inner galaxy must be contemporary sites of elemental enrichment.

expanding and abundantly enriched remnant that it leaves behind cools slowly, and mixes with the surrounding interstellar medium on a similarly long time scale. The remnants thus reveal to us for centuries afterward, in high energy emission lines, what came out of the explosion and is shooting outward to eventually enrich the interstellar medium. There are a rich suite of such remnants in the vicinity of our galaxy, and Constellation-X mission of the *Beyond Einstein* program will play an important role in studying them, before they diffuse into the interstellar medium. Constellation-X will identify large numbers of X-ray spectral lines from a wide variety of elements in supernova remnants, providing essential information on chemical enrichment processes in supernovae.

Winds from massive Wolf-Rayet stars and asymptotic giant branch stars can expel dredged-up, highly enriched materials from the nuclear burning zones in a star. Radioactive elements are formed in detonation and core collapse supernovae, during nuclear burning on white dwarf novae, and even near the alchemy labs that appear in the inner accretion disks of neutron stars and black holes.

An advanced Compton telescope will be used to measure the explosion mechanisms in core-collapse supernovae, giving their use as a tracer of cosmic nucleosynthesis a more secure foundation. While pioneering efforts in this work have come out of the Compton Gamma Ray Observatory, and will be strengthened by the forthcoming INTEGRAL, a dramatic improvement in sensitivity over these instruments is required to measure more than a few supernovae, and to make the measurements on a time scale that is small compared to that of the decay lifetimes of the isotopes being looked at. Recent technical advances appear to offer the necessary improvements to increase sensitivity, lower background, and improve the energy resolution of the detectors. High-resolution maps of these radioactive decay lines in our own Galaxy will give new quantitative insights into the way nucleosynthesis is organized here at home.

Nuclear gamma-ray line telescopes will also play an important role in our understanding of classical novae, in which hydrogen rich material from a close companion is more delicately deposited on massive white dwarfs, and a localized thermonuclear runaway is produced.

Even in these much smaller explosions, large concentrations of short-lived isotopes of light elements are produced, and these should be detectable over much of the galaxy. When coupled with high-resolution maps from ^{44}Ti with a half-life of 62 years, and with maps from shorter and longer-lived radioactivities, we will learn where the building blocks of comets, planets, and life are formed.

The discovery and exploration of gamma ray bursts (GRBs) has been one of the most striking and scientifically provocative achievements of the SEU theme in the last decade. The Compton Observatory established that these GRBs were isotropic over the sky. The revolution in our understanding of gamma-ray bursts resulting from the Beppo-SAX identification of optical afterglows, and long wavelength follow-on observations measuring redshifts show that GRBs are extragalactic in origin. As a result, these bursts of high energy light from the cosmos are now understood to outshine, for minutes at a time, the galaxies in which they originate. Those with durations longer than about one second are most likely associated with massive stars and core-collapse supernovae. While the statistics are presently lean, survey missions now in development such as Swift, which will capitalize on these optical afterglows, and later GLAST, to understand the details of the gamma ray emission, will dramatically improve this picture.

If a gamma-ray burst occurs when a black hole is formed, then these flashes of gamma radiation signal both the death of a star and the birth of a black hole. Alternatively, the burst may arise from the consumption of a first generation massive star by a nearby hole, and mark the building of what would become a supermassive black holes at the center of a galaxy. In either case, stellar death need not be mourned, however, because a gamma-ray burst thus points us to the earliest sites of massive star formation. A large field-of-view, high sensitivity advanced Compton telescope, and the Black Hole Finder Probe from the *Beyond Einstein* program will carry on the fundamental studies begun with Beppo-SAX and continued by Swift and GLAST to search for dim GRBs, both nearby and distant. In coordination with ground-based and space-based optical follow-up studies, these results will examine host galaxy type and chart the star formation rate history of the universe. While GRBs can be detected at many wavelengths, using a gamma-ray telescope will avoid the difficulty of surveys at longer wavelengths where extinction can hide them.

Future telescopes will let us see nucleosynthesis happen, and chart how the Universe gets seeded with the materials out of which we are made.

6.7 Light and Wind from the Heart of the Beasts

This roadmap features a focused program (*Beyond Einstein*) on the detailed structure of compact objects and the physics of spacetime around them. These objects also play an important role in the large scale structure and evolution of the Universe, especially in its early history, and the SEU theme is committed to deciphering this role. Compact objects—white dwarfs, neutron stars, black holes, and quark stars—are the endpoints of stellar evolution that remain after a stars of different masses exhausts their fuel supply. These objects all allow us observational access to extremes of density, pressure, temperature and field energy. Pulsars and X-ray binaries provide abundant evidence for the existence of neutron stars and black holes. Evidence for quark stars is sought through X-ray observations. The density of

FIGURE: Revealing gravitational rogues inside galaxies....

Figure 6.8: The Chandra X-ray Observatory's image of the galaxy NGC 1553 reveals diffuse hot gas dotted with many point-like sources, which are due to black holes and neutron stars in binary star systems. The bright central source in NGC 1553 is probably due to a supermassive black hole in the nucleus of the galaxy. The nature of the spiral feature curling out from either side of this source is not known. It could be caused by shock waves from a pair of bubbles of high energy particles that were ejected from the vicinity of the supermassive black hole.

matter at the center of a neutron star exceeds that of atomic nuclei. The magnetic field at the surface of certain neutron stars called magnetars can reach an astonishingly high 10^{14} Gauss. Extraordinary processes, including coherent synchrotron emission from pair cascades and the magnetic-field conversion of gamma rays to electron-positron pairs, take place near these objects. These cosmic laboratories constrain our physical theories of matter under extreme conditions that we cannot reproduce on Earth.

Compact objects may be probed in many ways. For example, a cooling neutron star will be observed as a hot object in X-rays. Neutron stars formed in a supernova explosion may cool in a few thousand years, and the cooling properties and the spectrum can be used to provide information about the neutron star interior, including the equation of state. Matter falling onto a neutron star from a binary companion also heats up to a high temperature. Such accreting neutron stars sometimes ignite via thermonuclear explosions. Oscillations in the X-ray emission of compact objects reveal instabilities in the accretion disk, and even the underlying rotation period and structure of the hidden neutron-star interior. Besides the intrinsic interest in studying physics in such extreme regimes, the compact object studies pursued by missions in the SEU theme reveal the activity of high-mass stars in the Milky Way that are associated with the production of heavy elements required for life to form.

In recent years there has been abundant observational evidence, much of it garnered from SEU space missions such as the Chandra X-ray Observatory and the Compton Gamma Ray Observatory (CGRO), to support the hypothesis that gas accretes onto compact objects (black holes, neutron stars, and white dwarfs) via accretion disks. For stellar-sized objects, the gas is gravitationally sucked off of a companion star, or perhaps accreted by passage through a molecular cloud. For the massive black holes that we believe to be the central engines in all "active" galactic nuclei (AGN), which include quasars, the gaseous fuel comes both from the central star cluster and interstellar gas that simply settles into the galactic nucleus. In many cases, we believe that this fuel is diverted from stable orbits around the hole into the hole by a violent kick from a burst of nuclear star formation. As this gas falls deeper into the gravitational potential well of the black hole, its energy is converted into heat through dissipative stresses and then into powerful radiation. This radiation can be seen directly with high energy telescopes, or indirectly with infrared and radio telescopes that measure the surrounding gas that it heats. Almost half of the mass falling into a black hole can be radiated as energy, and this huge energy output can manifestly influence the galaxy that harbors the black hole.

One of the main impediments to studying these nuclear furnaces, whatever their size, is the galaxy that surrounds them. While the dust and gas in the host galaxy constitutes the

FIGURE: [Multi-scale (0.01pc-kpc) AGN diagram w/ warped disk.]

fuel for the beast, its material also veils it. For this reason, observations at long (infrared and radio) and short (X-rays and gamma rays) wavelengths that can penetrate these clouds are powerful investigative strategies. The Gamma Ray Large Area Telescope (GLAST), now in development, will use high energy gamma rays to see the most energetic regions of black hole environs. The Black Hole Finder Probe from the *Beyond Einstein* program will survey the sky and give us a complete census of the black holes in the local universe. These measurements will not only give us a better understanding of the holes themselves, and the behavior of matter across the universe in extreme environments, but will help us pin down the role that these holes have played in determining the development of galaxies.

The most powerful active galactic nuclei are called quasars. These are so bright that they outshine the surrounding galaxy, and can be used as beacons with which to probe the Universe. For many non-AGN galaxies, there is good evidence that they still harbor giant black holes at their centers. These quiescent black holes, which unlike their AGN counterparts are presently deprived of infalling fuel, may still dominate the gravitational field of the inner galaxy, and drive rampant star formation in the gravitational potential well. The high luminosities of AGN make it possible to observe these systems at very great distances, thereby providing fundamental information about the formation and early evolution of galaxies. Powerful AGN were far more common in the early Universe, and their numbers peaked during the AGN epoch at redshifts of 2 to 3, when the universe was only 20% of its present age. A more powerful visible-light successor to HST could be used to study the environments of AGN during this epoch in the rest-frame ultraviolet (the most direct probe of the young stars that might accompany the joint formation of a supermassive black hole and its host galaxy).

What is the origin of these supermassive black holes at the cores of galaxies? How did it happen that, as we now know, the size of the supermassive black hole in the center of a galaxy seems to be related to the stellar mass in the inner bulge of that galaxy? Did the holes first form from the merging of smaller black holes created at very early epochs, or were they first formed with their large masses? Did they increase in size after the formation of the galaxy by eating the host galaxy from the inside? While the Chandra X-ray Observatory has detected supermassive black holes in QSO galaxies out to $z = 5$, long before most of the stars were formed, Constellation-X from the *Beyond Einstein* program would study these galaxies in spectroscopic detail, getting information about their composition and the rate at which they are being devoured by their central black holes. Such observations would let us design an eventual vision mission an order of magnitude larger. This ambitious observatory would let us analyze even relatively quiescent galaxies at these large distances, completing our understanding of the life cycle of supermassive black holes within galaxies.

Since the accretion disk is the collector and mediator of the fuel supply onto collapsed objects, our understanding of AGN (as well as the stellar analogues noted above) depends critically on our ability to figure out how these disks work. Observations with new generation instruments from the *Beyond Einstein* program will give us visibility into the accretion disks of supermassive black holes that feed quasars.

A supplementary approach to accretion disks at the center of active galaxies is provided

FIGURE: Swirling disks of death around black holes...

Figure 6.9: In this artist's rendering, gas spirals into an accretion disk around a supermassive black hole at the core of a galaxy. The gravitational energy liberated by the infall causes the central region of the disk to become fiercely luminous, and it drives a jet of material outward along the polar axes of the galaxy, which is seen in the inset.

by very long baseline interferometry (VLBI) radio maps. The techniques have been pioneered and refined from the ground. They allow radio-emitting material in the accretion disk to be directly mapped with a resolution over a hundred times better than HST achieves at visible wavelengths. Recent VLBI maps of AGN have detected intense water emission lines, amplified by a natural maser process, from several of these local sources. This emission arises in the cool, outer parts of the accretion disk, and have enabled us to measure total masses of several nearby supermassive black holes with unprecedented accuracy.

The full power of radio interferometry will not be realized until interferometry from space can provide, through longer baselines and accessibility of shorter wavelengths, the most detailed views. While images of bremsstrahlung continuum emission from the hot inner disk would not offer kinematical information from the relativistic regions close to the hole, measurements in molecular maser lines would offer information about mass motions in the cooler, outermost part of the disk. Achievable baselines for proposed new missions such as the Advanced Radio Interferometry Between Earth and Space (ARISE) telescope, which was recently endorsed as a high priority by the community, would resolve accretion disks out to almost 200 Mpc, and probe the inner disk that surrounds the closest supermassive black hole – in the galaxy M87. Such measurements will supplement the more complete dynamical picture provided by *Beyond Einstein* missions such as Constellation-X, and especially the vision mission Black Hole Imager, which would provide monochromatic images of hot gas near the event horizon.

Of special interest in this regard is the mission solar mass black hole that sits quietly at the center of our own galaxy. As the closest supermassive black hole, this one offers some special opportunities. While this black hole seems to be accreting relatively little matter at the present time, the recent history of the hole may be reflected in the motions of the cool and hot material in proximity to it. Seen along a radius through the disk of our galaxy, this material is highly extinguished, but is easily accessible to us at the longest (radio and infrared) and shortest (X-ray) wavelengths.

Such accretion disks around black holes are understood to frequently drive powerful outflows along their polar axes. These strong winds are somehow efficiently collimated into “jets” that transport energy outward from the accretion disk and effectively clear away the raw materials of star formation in these directions. As a result, even small accretion disks can influence, in a major way, the global properties of star formation in a galaxy. Understanding how these jets are made, and what role they play in the accretion process is a major unsolved problem. Are these pencil-thin jets launched and collimated by magnetic fields, or perhaps by the powerful radiation fields in the disks? While these jets have now been observed throughout the electromagnetic spectrum, from radio observations with the VLBI telescopes from the ground and space, through the infrared and optical, all the way into the X-ray and gamma ray regime, new telescopes with vastly increased sensitivity, spectral resolution, and

FIGURE: Firing celestial beams of matter...

Figure 6.10: The large improvement in spatial resolution of space radio interferometry over that accessible from the ground allows the inner parts of nearby galactic accretion disks, and even event horizons of nearby black holes to be probed. At left is a high resolution VLA image of the jet flowing out of the supermassive black hole in the galaxy NGC4158. At right, an artists conception of the launch region of the jet, with the event horizon of the black hole at center. It is this vastly smaller scale that space interferometry will probe. Such images will give new understanding to the origin, acceleration, and collimation of the flow.

FIGURE: [artist concept of accreting binary, preferably supersoft source...]

clarity of view such as Constellation-X will be used in a coordinated way to understand how gas flows in these disks, and the acceleration and confinement mechanisms with which the jets — truly cosmic cannons — are formed.

Detailed comparison of the morphology of star formation in galaxies with active nuclei will be needed to investigate the roles that accretion disk-driven winds and point-like gravitational fields have on the formation of stars in, and the evolution of galaxies.

Peering into the hearts of galaxies, we will use new telescopes to study the powerful flows of matter and radiation that emanate from the massive black holes at their cores.

6.8 Understanding Nature's Flash Bulbs to Measure the Universe

As described above, supernovae play a profoundly important role in the chemical enrichment of the universe. But they can also help us measure it! Type Ia supernovae are uniquely important in this regard because they are very luminous and have roughly constant peak intrinsic brightness. These cosmic flash bulbs can therefore be used to measure the geometry of the Universe on large scale. Many groups are pursuing surveys for such supernovae from the ground and from space, and early results have led astronomers to the monumental realization that the expansion of our Universe is accelerating. While Type Ia supernovae (SN Ia) appear to be wonderful tools for this kind of work, and are the basis of at least one proposed implementation of the Dark Energy Probe of the *Beyond Einstein* program, our ability to use these objects as a calibrated standard candle for cosmology ultimately depends on our detailed understanding of their nature, in particular from nearby supernovae. This type of explosion is thought to be the detonation of a white dwarf that pulls so much mass off of a nearby companion that electron degeneracy pressure can no longer support the star against collapse. We lack, however, a fundamental understanding of the Ia story. We cannot understand the evolution of their properties over cosmic times without successfully modeling their nuclear burning and dynamics. Open questions include the composition and mass of the progenitor, the nature of the triggering process, the location of the initial detonation in the star, the propagation mechanism of the nuclear burning in the explosion, and the dynamics and structure of the ejecta, including the way that it is mixed.

FIGURE: [consider substitution of a graphic of a historical supernova here — people looking at the sky, accompanied by a picture of the remnant]

Figure 6.11: SN2000cx is a Type Ia Supernova in the outer part of NGC 524 at about 35 Mpc distance, below and to the right of the brightest star in the figure on the right. Gamma ray observations can determine how much of the light from the supernova (light curves shown) is powered by radioactive decays from isotopes that are formed in the event.

Explosive burning of the white dwarf can release large quantities of newly formed elements into the interstellar medium. This seeding can be traced through the nuclear line emission of radioactive isotopes, which are produced prodigiously in the explosion. We will see a 158 keV gamma-ray emission line from ^{56}Ni and a line from ^{56}Co at 847 keV as these isotopes decay. By observing and modeling such emission line production from many SN Ia per year, a nuclear line observatory in the low to moderate energy range such as an advanced Compton telescope and a hard X-ray observatory will provide a much clearer understanding of Type Ia supernovae and their use as a probe of cosmology. The promise of these new technologies is a gamma ray telescope that can detect all Type Ia supernovae out to at least the Virgo Group of galaxies, studies of which are benchmarks for modern cosmology.

We are ready to understand how the standard candles burn that will light our way to the early Universe.

6.9 Visions of Annihilation

Our Universe is asymmetric, and seems to favor normal matter over antimatter in its composition. The amount of antimatter in our Universe remains uncharted, however. While the search for baryonic antimatter can be conducted with cosmic ray and medium energy gamma-ray experiments, our Galaxy, and perhaps our Universe as a whole, is glowing in the annihilation of a lightweight form of antimatter, namely the positron (or anti-electron). In such an annihilation, an electron and its positron counterpart most often directly annihilate into two 511 keV photons. Positrons are not only formed by the decay of radioactive elements manufactured by stars, but also as secondaries in cosmic ray interactions. Large amounts of positron production are theoretically expected from black hole antimatter factories.

Low resolution maps of the Milky Way made by the Compton Gamma-Ray Observatory in the light of the 511 keV electron-positron annihilation line revealed recognizable features from the disk and inner bulge of our galaxy, as well as evidence for emission concentrated at the center of our galaxy. The origin of these positrons is unclear, but decay of radioactive nuclei is a likely source. It is clear from the annihilation maps that positrons are distributed on a galaxy-wide scale, though the morphology of annihilation radiation doesn't clearly match that of any stellar component. The annihilation emission from compact sources in the Galaxy could be highly transient, which would indicate that the emission is dominated by a few compact sources, for example, the mysteriously quiescent black hole at the dynamical center SgrA*.

We look ahead to the opportunity to build new, sensitive low-energy gamma ray telescopes that are designed specifically to search for this annihilation radiation. With vastly

FIGURE: Searching for sources of antimatter in a galactic forest...

Figure 6.12: The image of 511 keV radiation from the Compton Gamma Ray Observatory is shown in the lower image, and covers about ten degrees of the sky around our Galactic Center. This is the highest resolution positron annihilation image available. At top is the wealth of structure in the very center of this region as seen in three different parts of the spectrum. This montage is illustrative of our need for much more detailed images from new generation gamma ray telescopes to identify the sites and sources of antimatter in the inner galaxy.

FIGURE: Making missing matter appear... [let's get a Chandra version of this!]

Figure 6.13: The NGC 2300 group of galaxies contains a large reservoir of million-degree gas glowing in X-rays. A false-color X-ray image of the hot gas taken by ROSAT is superimposed here on an optical picture of the galaxy group. Gravity from the luminous parts of the galaxies alone is not enough to keep the gas in its place. There must be large quantities of dark matter whose gravity is preventing the gas from escaping.

higher spatial resolution and sensitivity than what we had in the Compton Observatory, such telescopes will reveal individual sites of positron production in our own galaxy, and measure the production rates in other nearby galaxies. Such a telescope, focused at the center of our galaxy, will establish whether a burst of star formation there is responsible for driving a superwind that is laden with positrons and newly synthesized material.

Antimatter is being produced prodigiously in at least our own Galaxy. We will locate the source and understand how it produces this extraordinary material.

6.10 The Mystery of the Missing Matter

Our models of the Universe predict, with considerable accuracy, many of the important properties that we can now measure. One astonishing exception is the amount of matter in the Universe. According to the best cosmological models the total gravitational mass of the Universe appears to vastly exceed (by about two orders of magnitude) what we can directly account for today observationally in the form of stars and interstellar gas. The “missing” matter takes two forms. The majority (roughly 90%) is in a form that is fundamentally different from the ordinary baryonic matter composed of the familiar protons and neutrons that make up the atoms from which stars, planets, and people are made. Determining the nature of this non-baryonic matter is one of the overarching quests of both physics and astronomy. It is an elusive constituent that neither emits nor absorbs light of any form, and reveals its presence only through its gravitational influence on the matter we can directly see and study. For this reason it is most often called “dark matter”. The second type of missing matter is comprised of ordinary baryons. Estimates based on the measured primordial ratios of hydrogen, helium, and deuterium lead, in a fairly straightforward prediction, to a missing baryonic component that exceeds the total mass in normal stars and interstellar gas today by a factor of 5 to 10.

FIGURE: Warped images from a clumpy universe

Figure 6.14: Light rays from distant galaxies travel a tortuous path through a universe filled with a web of clustering dark matter. Every bend in the path of a bundle of light from a distant galaxy stretches its apparent image. The orientation of the resulting elliptical images of galaxies contains information on the size and mass of the gravitational lenses distributed over the light path. Light bundles from two distant galaxies which are projected closely together on the sky follow similar paths and undergo similar gravitational deflections by intervening dark matter concentrations.

Galaxies themselves are dominated by huge halos of non-baryonic dark matter. They can be thought of as gravitational potential wells in which the stars and gas that we see are trapped. In addition to stars, elliptical galaxies contain hot X-ray emitting interstellar gas that extends to radii well beyond where we can see stars. By mapping the density and temperature of this trapped hot gas, which has been the focus of intense study using contemporary X-ray missions such as the Chandra X-ray observatory, XMM-Newton, and Astro-E2, we can develop a reliable mass model of the whole galaxy, and trace out where the dark matter resides in and around galaxies. Constellation-X, providing higher sensitivity and vastly greater spectral resolution, will give a dynamical dimension to the problem. Gravitational lensing effects provide yet another probe of dark matter, by using the unique capability of a space-based wide-field imaging telescope to map the gravitationally-distorted images of distant galaxies lying behind foreground concentrations of matter in galaxy halos, clusters of galaxies, and even larger structures.

The missing baryonic matter is also both important and elusive. Although some could be hidden from us in collapsed quiescent gas clouds or cold stars that are just too dim to see, most is now believed to lie in the vast and nearly empty regions between the galaxies in the form of very tenuous and nearly invisible clouds of gas. Some is perhaps loosely associated with galaxies themselves, and some will trace the vast cosmic web defined by the distribution of intergalactic non-baryonic dark matter. We want to find this missing baryonic material to map out its history and to understand why so little of it was used to build the stars and galaxies that we see. By 2010, galaxy surveys will have outlined the distribution of luminous baryonic matter in the contemporary Universe in fine detail, but the dominant intergalactic component will still be largely unexplored.

An efficient way to locate missing baryonic matter in the darkness of intergalactic space is to look for it spectroscopically in silhouette against the light of distant quasars. The Lyman α line is an exquisitely sensitive probe for cold hydrogen gas, more than a million times more sensitive than the radio 21cm line would be. If the baryonic dark matter is mainly primordial and unenriched by stellar nucleosynthesis such an ultraviolet detection strategy would be the only option since Lyman α is by far the most opaque spectral line associated with this primordial material —hydrogen and helium. If the gas is hot and chemically enriched, then Constellation-X and large next-generation X-ray and ultraviolet telescopes will be able to see absorption lines from such cosmically-important elements as C, N, O, Ne, and Fe from it. While these efforts are difficult, and just beginning with instruments on HST, FUSE, and the Chandra X-ray Observatory, Constellation-X and new generation ultraviolet and X-ray telescopes will be required to understand the physical, chemical, and

dynamical state of this missing baryonic matter, and chart its history.

Our models of the structure of the early Universe that lead to this conundrum are being continually refined. The “roughness” or “fluctuations” of the cosmic microwave background radiation, which is a relic of the early Universe when it was only 300,000 years old – the first photons that escaped from the Big Bang – is a powerful tool for assessing the total mass content of the Universe. First detected by the COBE a decade ago, the recently launched Microwave Anisotropy Probe (MAP) will characterize the scale sizes of the fluctuations and yield far more accurate values for cosmological parameters. The future Planck mission will extend this to smaller scales and look for polarization signatures. As these background fluctuations are on scales up to a few tens of arcminutes, it is essential that our knowledge of the distribution of dark matter be available on a comparable scale. The *Beyond Einstein* program includes an Inflation Probe that will measure the polarization of this background. This challenging measurement will, in addition to revealing the signatures of gravity waves from the Big Bang, show polarization effects that are due to gravitational lensing of the background by intervening material. These measurements will allow us to map the integrated line-of-sight distribution of matter (both light and dark) from the present time back to a redshift of about a thousand.

In the case of absorption by intergalactic baryons, the required telescope sensitivity is determined by reaching the requisite space density of quasars. Efforts in the development of dramatically more sensitive UV detectors and high throughput large and lightweight precision mirrors are promising in this regard, and realizable mission concepts have been proposed.

Once we are able to detect and characterize the missing baryonic matter, we will have the first glimpses into the role that it plays in the evolution of our Universe. How does the structure of this material determine how galaxies formed? How did its properties change as the Universe aged? How is baryonic material exchanged between galaxies and the intergalactic medium?

New generation telescopes will be able to locate and assay the both the baryonic and non-baryonic components of the missing matter, answering a longstanding problem with profound cosmological ramifications.
--

6.11 Bullets of the Cosmos

Cosmic rays are an important part of the dynamics and structure of our Galaxy. Most of these high energy nuclei are thought to be hurled to us by supernova shock fronts, perhaps from spallation off of dust grains. The overall distribution of cosmic-ray energies is remarkable in that it is almost a constant power law over at least 13 decades in energy and 31 decades in flux. A small steepening, or “knee,” in the slope of the power law energy spectrum of cosmic rays near 10¹⁵ eV is thought to be associated with the maximum possible energies achievable by direct supernova shock acceleration of cosmic rays. New missions designed to measure the composition of these cosmic rays will directly explore the connection of cosmic rays with supernovae by identifying these high energy nuclei. One such mission, ACCESS, has been recently endorsed as a high priority by the NAS decadal survey.

As we move to higher energies, the mystery deepens. In fact, we can measure the cosmic-

FIGURE: need cosmic ray airshower graphic.

ray spectrum all the way up to $\sim 10^{20}$ eV, where individual particles have the energy of a well-hit baseball! About the only conceivable sources for these particles are galactic nuclei, giant extragalactic double radio sources or the same mysterious sources as the gamma-ray bursts themselves. A related problem is that scattering off cosmic background photons should render the Universe fairly opaque to these highest energy particles. On a cosmological scale, they must come from sources that are relatively nearby. It has been suggested that these highest energy particles may come from the annihilation of topological defects formed in the early Universe. Here the problem is that the detection rate of these particles is so low that we see too few of them to describe their properties well. Space instruments capable of monitoring large areas of the Earth's atmosphere for the showers that these rare particles produce will establish the energy spectrum of these highest energy cosmic rays and are likely to determine directions to their sources.

Cosmic rays are a window into how nature can channel enormous power into individual atomic nuclei. New observatories will reveal how our Universe is able to act as an extreme particle accelerator, the power of which is unapproachable on Earth.

Chapter 7

Technology Roadmap: Cycles of Matter and Energy

The SEU science program in the area of Cycles of Matter and Energy entails a diverse array of observational strategies, encompassing measurements across the entire electromagnetic spectrum, from radio waves to gamma-rays. Order of magnitude improvements in sensitivity, spectral and spatial resolution, and collecting area will be required for each of these regimes in order to make fundamental advances. This will not be possible without vigorous technology development. In the earliest stages (TRLs 1-3), new space technologies are invented and pursued under the auspices of the R& A programs. However, as these concepts mature, detailed engineering issues associated with real space implementation must be addressed. Such investigations require more focused and more stable funding mechanisms. A dedicated technology development line for future SEU missions will meet this need.

Highlighted below are the general technologies required to implement some the future SEU missions that are currently envisioned. The discussion is organized around three major areas: optics, detectors, and spacecraft systems. By their nature, these technology areas overlap heavily and are only meant as general categories.

7.1 Large, Lightweight Optics

Continuing exploration of the universe requires bigger and better space telescopes at wavelengths from radio through optical and X-ray. Robust large-aperture lightweight optics and optical systems are not only critical to reducing launch costs, but in many cases are critical to launch feasibility itself. Technology and processes must be developed to increase apertures, lower areal density, lower operating temperatures and improve diffraction limited surface quality. But most importantly, this must all be accomplished rapidly and cost effectively.

To achieve these goals requires continuous effort in 5 technology areas: Materials, Design Architectures, Fabrication Processes, Performance Characterization and Mechanisms. The development of stiffer materials would enable larger apertures with lower areal densities. Low and uniform coefficients of thermal expansion (CTE) allow cryogenic performance without the need for cryo-null figuring. Stress free material deposition and/or curing enable low cost replication for mass production.

In the area of fabrication processes, there are multiple challenges, including the simple logistics of physically handling and manipulating large and more fragile optical components, the surface treatments required to obtain the desired surface figure quality, and the development of cryogenically cooled space optics. Future research should investigate a broader range of applications, including: electro-chemical grinding; magnetorheological fluid or water jet polishing; liquid or gaseous etch polishing; room temperature epoxy curing; chemical vapor growth of silicon carbide (SiC) or hard carbon surfaces on mandrills; etc. Also critical is the development of adequate strategies for characterizing an optic's performance, both by measurement and analysis. As optics become larger and lighter, it may no longer be possible to optically test them on the ground. In that case analytical modeling with limited experimental validation will be crucial to the success of the mission.

Finally, we must not forget about mechanisms — hinges, latches, actuators, etc. The ability of these components to function in a cryogenic space environment is also a critical enabling technology.

The purpose of NASA's mirror technology development program is to 'buy-down' tech-

nical (weight & performance) and programmatic (schedule & cost) risk associated with the design, fabrication and testing of large-aperture lightweight space qualified mirror systems. Given the leverage that optics exert on programs, small improvements in technology maturity can have a very large cost and schedule impact.

7.2 Detectors

Advances in detector technologies, in all wavebands have been dramatic in recent years, and have directly enabled most of the SEU missions that are currently flying or are nearing launch (e.g. Chandra, MAP, SIRTf, GLAST, Astro E2, and Planck). In general, a detector is categorized by its quantum efficiency, its spectral bandpass, and in some cases, its intrinsic spatial and spectral resolution. Auxiliary technologies include the read-out electronics, the digital processing units, and the detector cooling systems. The demands of upcoming missions will require major engineering advances in all of these areas. We detail a few examples below:

7.2.1 Radio Interferometry

Space-based (or space-to-ground) radio interferometry requires improved sensitivity, particularly at the shorter wavelengths. High-priority technologies include large deployable space-based apertures with sub-mm surface accuracy, wide-bandwidth telemetry and signal transport from space to ground, and cooling technologies for radio receivers in space. Since optimum imaging for space-ground baselines requires highly elliptical orbits that pass through the Earth's radiation belts, development of robust materials and electronics for a high-radiation environment is necessary. Correlation of high bandwidth signals with short coherence times will also require precise orbit determination.

7.2.2 Submillimeter/Far Infrared:

The development of large format detector arrays is critical for the submillimeter and far infrared. Both direct detectors (such as bolometers and photoconductive devices) and heterodyne instruments are required. There are challenges in improving sensitivity, scalability to large arrays, and, for heterodyne systems, local oscillators and backend electronics, especially at the highest frequencies.

7.2.3 Near Infrared/Optical:

In the near infrared and optical bands, imaging detectors based on charge coupled devices (CCDs), and low bandgap array detectors (e.g. HgCdTe), have been available for a number of years now. However, future missions will require extremely large (billion-pixel) arrays of such detectors, introducing new challenges in production yield, detector uniformity, detector packaging, high-speed readout, and on-board data storage. In addition, improvements in readout noise, quantum efficiency, spectral coverage, charge transfer efficiency, and radiation hardness will be necessary.

7.2.4 Ultraviolet:

For the ultraviolet, significant improvements in detector sensitivity must be achieved. Photocathode-based photon counting detectors, like microchannel plates (MCPs) offer the advantage of high counting rate and good background rejection, but suffer from low quantum efficiency (typically below 25 percent). UV-sensitive CCDs have higher quantum efficiency, but the read noise is currently too high to make such devices useful for faint source spectroscopy, given the low photon fluxes in the ultraviolet band. So-called “3-D” energy-resolving detectors like superconducting tunnel-junction arrays or transition-edge sensors with SQUID readout offer tremendous promise, but require increases in available array sizes.

7.2.5 X-Ray:

At X-ray energies, the development of cryogenic detectors (X-ray microcalorimeters) has revolutionized the field in recent years. 30×30 arrays of microcalorimeters are envisioned as the principal focal plane detectors for Constellation-X. However, such small arrays yield very limited fields of view when implemented behind conventional grazing incidence telescopes. For future missions, much larger array sizes (e.g. 1000×1000) are required.

7.2.6 Gamma-Ray:

The principal technical challenge for gamma-ray astronomy will be the development of an advanced Compton telescope, for the study of nuclear lines and continuum emission at MeV energies. A factor of 25–100 improvement in sensitivity is required compared to the MeV instruments flown on CGRO and INTEGRAL. The increase in sensitivity requires major improvements in angular resolution (achieved through position and energy resolution), detector effective area and field of view, and background rejection. Further advances in front-end electronics, detector cooling technology, and event processing are also required.

7.2.7 Cosmic Rays:

For cosmic ray investigations, large area, million channel, charged particle detectors will be essential for future experiments. These require low power, million channel level, acquisition electronics, with advanced, on-board intelligent data compression systems, and high-speed computing power. In addition, large field of view optics and fast, million-pixel, light detectors will be important for space-based observations of cosmic-ray showers via air fluorescence.

7.3 Spacecraft systems

Accompanying the development of novel instrumental techniques, continued advances in enabling spacecraft technologies will be crucial to meeting the SEU science goals. Several of the envisioned missions (Black Hole Imager, SPECS, iARISE) incorporate interferometric systems on separate spacecraft that involve precision formation flying systems. Stringent requirements on relative positional accuracy and pointing are beyond the state of the art.

MicroNewton thruster technologies, currently under development for LISA, will demand further study to determine their applicability to these other missions. Thermal and mechanical stability tolerances are very tight. The development of advanced inertial reference systems may be applicable. Cryogenic technology is important, especially for the submillimeter and far infrared systems where a cooled primary mirror (operating at ~ 5 K) is required.

Part III: Supporting the Roadmap

Chapter 8

The Explorer Program

8.1 The Explorer Program

NASA's Explorer program is a vital element of the SEU science enterprise. It offers frequent opportunities to carry out small and intermediate-sized missions which can be completed and launched on a short (approximately four-year) timeframe. Small and Medium-class Explorer (SMEX and MIDEX) missions, which are scientifically more focused than large-scale missions, can address some of the most significant scientific topics in the Structure and Evolution of the Universe theme. For example, the Microwave Anisotropy Probe (MAP), a MIDEX mission, will answer fundamental questions about the age and mean matter density of the Universe, and is a vital precursor to the Inflation Probe of the Beyond Einstein program. Astro-E2, a mission of opportunity on a Japanese spacecraft, will in 2005 fly for the first time the advanced spectroscopic detectors which are prototypes of those to be flown on Constellation-X. Many other proposed Explorers are relevant to the Beyond Einstein program, ranging from missions of opportunity (e.g. attaching laser ranging equipment to missions to other planets, to enable precision tests of Relativity in the solar system) to full-fledged Explorers.

Important SEU science for Cycles of Matter and Energy will be done by Astro-E2, and by other Explorers. The Galaxy Evolution Explorer (GALEX), a SMEX mission, will map the global history and probe the causes of star formation over 80% of the life of the Universe. The Spectroscopy and Photometry of the Intergalactic medium's Diffuse Radiation Explorer (SPIDR), a SMEX mission, will detect the dark matter that makes up the "cosmic web" from which the structure of the Universe evolved. SWIFT, a MIDEX mission to be launched in late 2003 is a multi-wavelength observatory dedicated to the study of gamma-ray bursts.

Contributions by future Explorer missions to our understanding of the structure and evolution of the Universe promise to be equally important. Each solicitation for proposals elicits many more high-quality experiments than can be implemented. Peer review, the ability to implement new, creative ideas and react quickly to recent scientific discoveries, is essential elements of the "faster, better, cheaper" philosophy which lies at the heart of the Explorer program. Suggesting a queue of future explorer missions would countermand this mandate.

Chapter 9

Research and Analysis

9.1 Research and Analysis

The SEU Research and Analysis (R&A) program gives scientists the opportunity to explore the new ideas that lead to better understanding of astrophysical concepts and methods. Such fundamental knowledge is crucial to achieving the scientific goals of the SEU program, and often goes on to form the basis for future mission concepts.

The R&A program has strong involvement by universities, providing an additional return on investment: The training and education of graduate students and instrument builders for future generations of space missions. Investigators who come through the suborbital program frequently go on to become Principal Investigators of flight missions, major instrument builders, and astronauts!

9.1.1 Experimental Research: Creating the Tools of Investigation

Experimental research supported by the R&A program is essential to the development of novel tools to do new and better science. Innovative concepts, technologies and techniques are tested in laboratory proof-of-concept demonstrations and validated through suborbital flights by balloon or rocket. This provides a rapid and cost-effective mechanism for bringing the latest technology to the point where it can be selected for use in a future SEU mission.

This leads to three principal types of investigation:

- Hardware Development
- Suborbital Payloads
- Laboratory Astrophysics

Hardware Development

The R&A program has long been the cradle for the technology of SEU's strategic missions. It provides the springboard for innovative concepts and seminal development of detectors, optics, gratings, coatings, filters, electronics and other devices, technologies and techniques that support SEU science and future SEU missions. The R&A program is the first step in a development sequence that turns concepts into SEU missions. As such, the R&A hardware program fosters development to the proof-of-concept level. At the point when engineering issues dominate, the SEU's Technology Line provides the resources for further development. When instrument selections are made, mission-specific funding carries the instrument development to completion. This sequence provides the means for SEU mission development in a cost-effective, efficient approach that minimizes risk.

One of the prime contributions of the R&A program has been the development of detectors. The candidate detectors for Constellation-X, X-Ray CCDs, X-Ray microcalorimeters and CdZnTe detectors, all owe their early development to the R&A program. These detectors have flown or are slated to fly on ASCA, the Chandra X-ray observatory, ASTRO-E2 and SWIFT. The R&A program is also responsible for the development of spider-web bolometers and polarization sensitive bolometers that are to be used on Herschel, Planck, and several suborbital missions. The COBE and MAP detectors are the result of previous R&A development.

Future strategic missions will rely heavily on the development of innovative optics. High Resolution Segmented Optics, used on ASCA, were first developed within the R&A program. Hard X-Ray Optics are currently being developed with the R&A program, often employing multilayer coatings to extend the energy range. Similarly, nanotechnology developed with the R&A program has enabled high-resolution spectroscopy on the Chandra X-ray observatory and will play a pivotal role in high-resolution imaging optics. These technologies are critical for Constellation-X and an X-ray Black Hole Imager.

The R&A hardware program is the natural site for new concepts, and as such will be crucial to future SEU missions. Just as it has provided the fertile ground from which have sprung the detectors, optics and other hardware of SEU's past and current missions, it will provide the technological underpinnings to support future SEU missions.

Suborbital Program

The Suborbital Program produces exciting scientific results of the highest caliber while also serving as an economical test bed for future space hardware and a training ground for future instrument and mission scientists. Data from the BOOMERanG and MAXIMA balloon payloads yielded the best measurements of the power spectrum of the CMB temperature anisotropies prior to the advent of MAP. When combined with measurements of large scale structure, these CMB data reveal a universe that is 70% dark energy, one of the most important and exciting results in cosmology.

The Suborbital Program provides the quick turnaround, low cost launch opportunities needed to develop the capabilities required for the ambitious science goals set forth by SEU. Flights via balloon or rocket test new capabilities and data products derived directly from the other elements of the R&A program. These launch opportunities have, in the past, been vital to mission development, leading to successful tests of key instruments on GLAST, FUSE, Chandra, XMM, ASTRO-E2, COBE, MAP, Herschel and Planck.

In contrast to space missions, an R&A investigation can be carried out on a short timeline. As an example, a campaign of scientific balloon flights with gamma-ray detectors developed under the R&A program was carried out to make time-critical observations of supernova 1987A, complementing HST observations to provide multiwavelength coverage.

The Suborbital Program contributes to critical path technologies such as large ultra-lightweight mirrors, cryocoolers, deployable optics and high energy detectors. Emerging programs will provide longer duration flight testing, which is crucial for technologies requiring stable thermal or positional environments. The candidate technologies for Constellation-X draw on the suborbital program: Balloon experiments carry CdZnTe detectors and hard X-ray optics, and X-Ray microcalorimeters were first demonstrated on rocket payloads. Sub-orbital flights constitute a much-needed low cost, quick turnaround option for the risk prone technologies so essential to SEU mission development.

Within the Suborbital Program is the emerging capability to carry payloads of several thousand pounds for long periods at high altitudes. For some areas of SEU science this can provide low-cost access to a near-space environment that is competitive with the current rocket launchers for many missions. The key elements of this Ultra Long Duration Balloon (ULDB) system are a superpressure balloon capable of 100 day flights without consumables. These balloons have the capability fly at any latitude, and have active trajectory control and

advanced recovery systems. The potential of the ULDB program has been widely recognized including an explicit recommendation by the NAS Decadal Survey for its development and operations costs.

Laboratory Astrophysics

By utilizing a combination of laboratory experiments, modeling, and theoretical calculations, the Laboratory Astrophysics program provides scientists with the fundamental knowledge they need in order to make sense of data collected by space missions. Laboratory Astrophysics is an essential link between raw observation and the meaningful, scientific conclusions the SEU program strives towards. The program explores a tremendous breadth of topics, from the very coldest regions deep in dark molecular clouds, to the extraordinary heat around supermassive black holes. It supports NASA's space missions from conception to completion, defining mission parameters and supporting post flight analysis.

The Laboratory Astrophysics program includes work on atomic and molecular energy levels, transition rates and other processes needed to interpret astrophysical spectra and physics. It encompasses all wavelengths as well as studies that have no particular wavelength-dependence (e.g., the measurement of collisional cross sections or chemical reaction rates or the laboratory study of high-energy-density physics). An up-to-date overview of current research and identified priorities in the Laboratory Astrophysics program can be found at

<http://web99.arc.nasa.gov/~astrochem/nasalaw/whitepaper.html>

In the high-energy realm, the Chandra X-ray observatory and XMM-Newton have clearly demonstrated the power of high resolution spectroscopy in X-Ray astronomy, and missions to come such as Astro-E2 and Constellation-X will emphasize this as well. The level of detail available in the grating spectra have uncovered discrepancies between observed cosmic x-ray line emission, laboratory measurements, and theoretical calculations. Plasma models of weak or blended features, such as the complex iron-line region, are often inadequate to represent the observed cosmic spectra. In order to physically interpret the cosmic emission with confidence, we need a sound laboratory and theoretical basis to support the observations. Laboratory Astrophysics studies are equally necessary in other wavelengths to support the goals of SEU. In the IR-submillimeter band, planned and potential future NASA missions include SIRTf, SOFIA, Herschel, NGST and SAFIR, all of which will work toward a better understanding of star formation, the galactic and extragalactic life cycle of the elements, and the molecular universe. These missions will provide observational data on spectral regions where our understanding of line wavelengths, f-values, excitation cross sections, and molecular and dust physics is incomplete. Laboratory Astrophysics work is needed over all wavelengths for determining atomic rate coefficients for physical processes, line wavelengths and the other processes needed to interpret spectra.

Another area of importance for future NASA programs and missions is the establishment and maintenance of critically compiled databases for atomic and molecular physics. In order to be of use to the general community, these data must be placed in archives and datasets that can be accessed online by the observer community. Long-term stability and on-line accessibility must be established for archival databases on atomic and molecular energy levels, rates, and other processes needed to interpret astrophysical spectra and physics.

9.1.2 Theory, Observations, and Data Analysis: Reaping the Benefits of Investment

Before any space based experiments can be designed, the scientific objectives of the SEU program must be firmly rooted in ground based observation and theoretical calculation. This, combined with later data analysis, closes the loop of scientific investigation, and is the only mechanism through which NASA can draw the conclusions that achieve the goals of the SEU program.

This requires a multi-lateral effort focusing on

- Theory
- Ground-based Observation
- Archival Research

Theory

Theoretical studies are essential to the SEU program. They contribute broad understanding of the relevant questions, in addition to establishing the framework within which those questions are asked. Such studies allow scientists to make predictions, interpret and analyze data, and fully exploit observations. Theory provides the intellectual context for any scientific enterprise, without which progress is impossible. Theory is not only needed to make sense of the observations, but is part of the process which drives mission design.

Predictions of the spectrum and anisotropy of the Cosmic Background Radiation motivated COBE, MAP and Planck. NGST has been guided by cosmological and stellar evolution theory. Theoretical work showed that high time resolution X-ray monitoring could probe the strong gravity around black holes and neutron stars, laying the scientific groundwork for RXTE. Models of collapsing stars suggest that gamma-ray bursts may be powerful probes of the very high redshift universe, whence SWIFT and GLAST. Theorists have shown how the profiles and variability of X-ray emission lines in accreting black holes can provide unique diagnostics of general relativity, motivating and shaping Constellation-X.

Present and planned missions are the fruits of bold theoretical investment in the 1980's and 1990's. Today's theoretical ideas are bolder still; their development can provide the "seed" for missions decades away. A broadly based program that encourages highly innovative research is necessary to foster the grand ideas that inspire the vision missions of the future. The R&A program is the place to nurture these visions.

Ground-based Observations

Ground-based observations play a key role in supporting SEU science in several ways. These observations contribute to the development and validation of techniques and instruments in support of space missions.

The scientific return of NASA missions can be greatly enhanced by multiwavelength observations across the electromagnetic spectrum, and many of these observations are most efficiently performed from the ground. Optical observations of gamma-ray burst afterglows

obtainable from the ground are essential to determining the distance and the nature of these sources. The nonthermal emission of active galactic nuclei is probed by the entire spectrum from radio to optical to X-ray to gamma-ray. Correlated variability on time scales of less than a day strongly constrains the emission from and the environments around massive black holes, so that contemporaneous observations are required. These are precisely the kinds of ground-based observations that will support gamma-ray burst detections by Swift, AGN observations by GLAST, and black hole studies by the Black Hole Finder Probe.

Archival Research

As data from previous and ongoing NASA missions mounts, so too does the value of archival research. Through the multiwavelength data already available in NASA's astrophysics data archives, researchers have gained a much better understanding of a variety of important and interesting astrophysical phenomena without ever needing access to a telescope. Though current wavelength-specific archives are readily available, they are growing exponentially in both content and diversity. The development of more sophisticated software tools would prove invaluable to scientists, permitting queries spanning all available archives and enabling valuable scientific investigations long after an observatory has ceased operation. The proposed National Virtual Observatory would constitute such a research capability, enabling investigations otherwise too resource-intensive to undertake.

Chapter 10

Critical Factors

10.1 Critical factors/External Assessment/GPRA

To pursue the most productive path to uncovering the fundamental laws of the universe, we must draw upon the talents and resources of the entire research and engineering communities. This will require an integration across nations, agencies, academia, and industry that will require a new model to be successful. Given the very austere budget situation as this roadmap goes to print, it is desirable to seek partnerships to ensure that we optimize the use of scarce resources in fulfilling the objectives we have before us.

It is crucial that this Roadmap incorporate the highest scientific priorities of the nation. The results of several recent and relevant studies by the National Academy of Sciences are reflected in this Roadmap. These include *Astronomy and Astrophysics in the New Millennium* (Astronomy and Astrophysics Survey Committee, C. F. McKee and J. H. Taylor, co-chairs, 2001) and *Connecting Quarks with the Cosmos: Eleven Science Questions for the New Century* (Committee on the Physics of the Universe, M. S. Turner, chair, 2002).

The manner in which we pursue science will require a greater level of integration with other disciplines. The traditional boundaries of disciplinary science will need to be broken down in order to facilitate information sharing and building of models that are broader in scale. The Beyond Einstein Program brings NASA to the frontiers of fundamental physics. Many of the envisaged missions will involve experimental and theoretical physicists supported by DOE and NSF.

A long-term partnership among government instrumentalities that includes the Department of Energy and the National Science Foundation is necessary: we share resources, and the final fruits of our research labors. There are several opportunities for collaboration that take advantage of the strength of each partner. In addition, the collective knowledge of our universities engaged in astrophysical research will be tapped to its fullest in developing the missions and using them to make discoveries. NASA will function in several ways; as the lead on some of the more complex missions, as the enabler and facilitator in several other missions, reliant upon academic, industrial and international partnerships to attain the priorities of the National Academy of Sciences. Collaborations with international partners will be sought whenever possible so as to further maximize the use of existing capabilities, and to minimize duplication of efforts. For example LISA has been proposed as a 50/50 split between NASA and the European Space Agency and its member states, with each partner bringing its greatest strengths.

New knowledge must be exported quickly to the general public and as a part of the Agency's new education initiative, we will undertake alliances with the education and communications communities to ensure that our discoveries become embedded in the lexicon and consciousness of the masses. This will require a concerted effort and investments in the processes and institutions to bring as many people along the journey of discovery as we can.

Technology is often the throttle by which the pace of progress is controlled. The Agency faces a shortfall in technology investment funds that are critical to the development of future missions. (NEED HELP HERE)

Furthermore, investments in the infrastructure necessary to communicate, organize and share the information gleaned from these new missions must be made in order to ensure the widest audience has access to the information. This will require continual investment in the Deep Space Network, supporting orbital and ground networks, data archival and distribution

networks, as well as high speed ground links.

The Agency must find new ways in which to collaborate with industry and to enable the development of critical technologies. Where shared investment makes sense, we need to create the institutions or the contractual mechanisms that will allow such initiatives to proceed expeditiously. A new paradigm is required that allows the government to continue to invest in high risk areas, but which also plants seeds for “almost ready” technologies that have both government and commercial application, and allows for leveraged investment to accelerate these innovations into the marketplace.

The availability of launch delivery systems for future probes is a continuing concern. Investments in future launch vehicles and supporting infrastructure is needed. This would include infrastructure used primarily to test new instrumentation as well as providing launch conveyances such as the orbiting Ultra-long Duration Balloons and the associated supporting ground systems. The community also relies upon Long Duration Balloons from Antarctica, and recognizes the importance of the National Science Foundation’s role in continuing to support the launch infrastructure there.

Chapter 11

Last Word

11.1 Last Word: SCIENCE BEYOND EINSTEIN

NASA's Vision:

- To improve life here,
- To extend life to there,
- To find life beyond.

NASA's Mission:

- To understand and protect our home planet.
- To explore the Universe and search for life.
- To inspire the next generation of explorers —as only NASA can.

Beyond Einstein is a bold attack on the most basic and challenging of today's science questions. It will study the underlying laws of nature that govern assemblage of the building blocks of life. It will investigate the extreme conditions near black holes. And it will uncover important relics of the birth of the universe. Together these studies will help us understand why the nature of the universe permits the existence of life, the likely future of the universe, and even the apparently complicated nature of the vacuum that remains when matter is removed.

The missions involved will enable human beings to explore environments completely different from those they experience on Earth and out into our solar system. They will extend our senses to the edges of black holes and the very beginnings of the universe itself. This quest will inspire all humanity - as only NASA can - with images and knowledge gained from this cosmic journey.

We humans have always asked questions about our Universe: where did it come from, what else is in it, how will it evolve in the future? Einstein and others provided early 20th century explanations, with implicit predictions of black holes and dark energy that have recently been verified. There remain deeper questions to be answered about the nature of our Universe and its connection with the sub-atomic quantum world, a dream that Einstein never realized. *Beyond Einstein* will provide 21st century answers to those deeper questions.

“Ah, but a man's reach should exceed his grasp, or what's a heaven for?”
--

— <i>Robert Browning</i>

“The person who cannot wonder is but a pair of spectacles behind which there is no eye”

— <i>Thomas Carlyle</i>

Appendix A

Appendices

A.1 Acronyms, Glossary

A.2 Contributors to the Roadmap:

<i>The SEU Roadmap Team</i>	
E. Sterl Phinney —Chairman	California Institute of Technology
Joel N. Bregman	University of Michigan
Sean Carroll	University of Chicago
Sarah Church	Stanford University
Lynn R. Cominsky	Sonoma State Univ.
Charles D. Dermer	Naval Research Lab
Wendy Freedman	Carnegie Observatories
Roy R. Gould	Harvard-Smithsonian Center for Astrophysics
Timothy Heckman	Johns Hopkins University
Craig J. Hogan	University of Washington
Steven M. Kahn	Columbia University
Dan Lester	University of Texas
Robert March	University of Wisconsin
Michael Shull	University of Colorado
Simon Swordy	University of Chicago
Nicholas White	NASA/Goddard Space Flight Center
Harold W. Yorke	Jet Propulsion Lab
<i>Ex-Officio Members:</i>	
Paul Hertz (SEU Theme Scientist)	NASA HQ
Rocky Kolb (SEUS Chairman)	Fermilab
Paul DeMinco	NASA/Goddard Space Flight Center
Michael Salamon	NASA HQ
Chris Schwartz	NASA/Goddard Space Flight Center
<i>Technology subgroup</i>	
Steven M. Kahn —Chairman	Columbia University
Jamie Bock	NASA/JPL
Kathryn Flanagan	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Dan McCammon	University of Wisconsin
Michael Moore	NASA HQ
Harvey Moseley	NASA/Goddard Space Flight Center
Steve O'Dell	NASA/MSFC
Chris Schwartz	NASA/Goddard Space Flight Center
Phil Stahl	NASA/Marshall Space Flight Center
Simon Swordy	University of Chicago
<i>Education/Public Outreach subgroup</i>	
Roy R. Gould —Chairman	Harvard-Smithsonian Center for Astrophysics
James Lochner	NASA/Goddard Space Flight Center

Research & Analysis Subgroup

Kathryn Flanagan —Chairwoman	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Chris Blades	Space Telescope Science Institute
Edward Cheng	NASA/Goddard Space Flight Center
Brenda Dingus	University of Wisconsin
Wilton Sanders	University of Wisconsin
Ted Snow	University of Colorado
Robin T. Stebbins	NASA/Goddard Space Flight Center
Erick Young	University of Arizona

A.3 Index?