

John D. Schopp



Sir Ernest
Shackleton,
1874-1922

Known as “the boss,”
he never lost a member
of any of his south
polar expeditions.

He was a hero to Professor Schopp.





February 11, 2016,
Official announcement of the
discovery of gravitational waves

Gravitational waves: a prediction by Einstein, one century ago

Page quatrième.

Ce livret est de 32 pages.

Signalement. — Connotati.

Age: Né le 14. März 1879
 Alter: geb. den
 Età: nato il

Stature
 Gestalt
 Corporatura

Taille 175 Centimètres
 Höhe Centimeter
 Statura Centimetri

Cheveux schwarz, wellig
 Haare
 Capelli

Front hoch
 Stirne
 Fronte

Sourcils schwarz
 Augenbrauen
 Sopracciglia

Yeux braun Nez normal
 Augen Nase
 Occhi

Bouche mittel Menton rund
 Mund Kinn
 Bocca Mento

Visage oval
 Gesicht
 Viso

Signes particuliers
 Besondere Kennzeichen
 Segni particolari

Signature du porteur:
 Unterschrift des Inhabers: — Firma del titolare:


A. Einstein.

Vierte Seite.
 Pagina quarta.



Dieses Büchlein umfasst 32 Seiten.
 Questo libretto consta di 32 pagine.

Page cinquième.

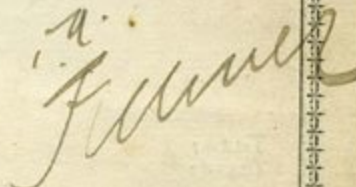
Ce livret est de 32 pages.



Albert Einstein

Es wird hiermit bescheinigt, dass
 inhaber... tatsächlich die durch die
 Photographie dargestellte Person ist und die
 Unterschrift eigenhändig vollzogen hat.
 Berlin, den 23. Juni 1923
 Der Schweizerische Consul



Dieses Büchlein umfasst 32 Seiten.
 Questo libretto consta di 32 pagine.

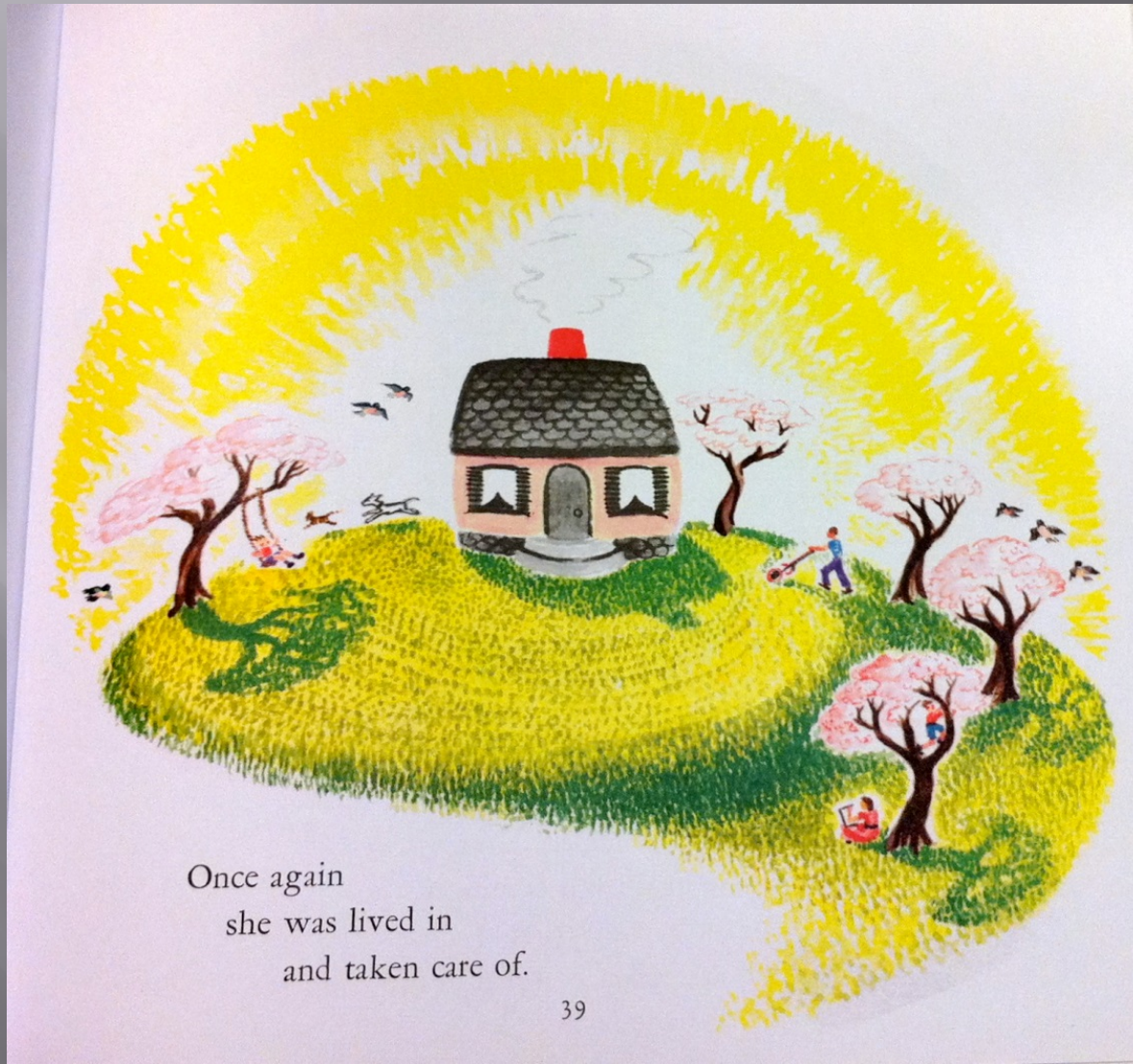
Fünfte Seite.
 Pagina quinta.

John Brown as
“Broadway,” on the
Damon Runyon Theater

As “Broadway” might
have put it about the
announcement of
gravitational waves,
“...and there is a story
that goes with it.”

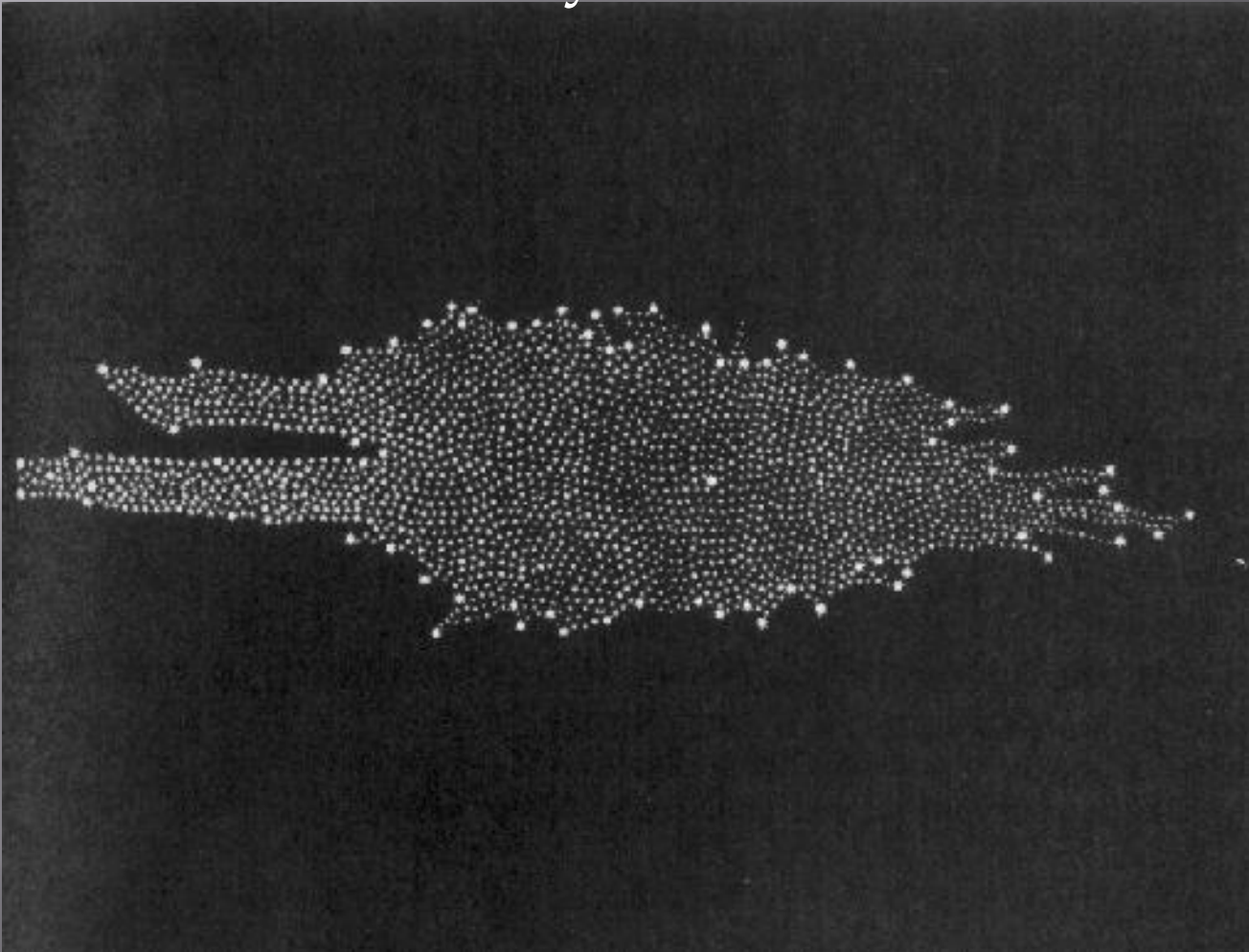


Our model of the universe, ca. 1910:
comfy, cozy, small, like
Margaret Wise Brown's *Little House*



Once again
she was lived in
and taken care of.

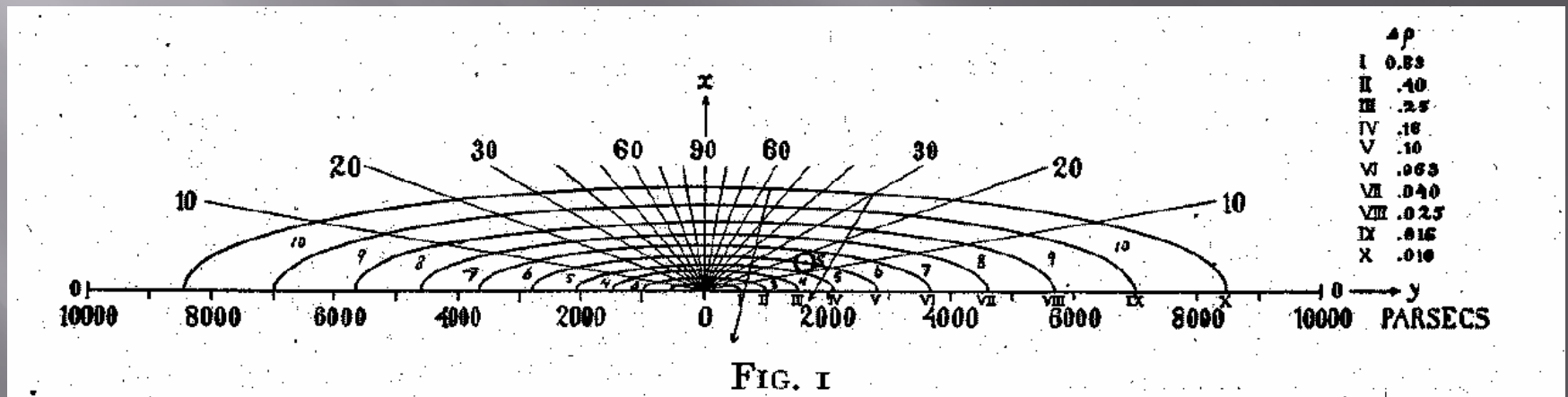
This model was based on William Herschel's 1781 conception of the universe: solitary, small, sun-centered





Jacobus (1851-1922) and Catharina Kapteyn
at the Mount Wilson Observatory

The Kapteyn Universe was an early twentieth century model much like the Herschel universe, but on a better statistical base. Alas, it made no allowance for interstellar absorption.



The Little House
was very happy
as she sat on the hill
and watched the countryside around her.
She watched the sun rise in the morning
and she watched the sun set in the evening.
Day followed day,
each one a little different
from the one before . . .
but the Little House stayed
just the same.



Einstein's theory of general relativity allows him to make exact predictions of the effects of a gravitational field.

Die Feldgleichungen der Gravitation.

VON A. EINSTEIN.

In zwei vor kurzem erschienenen Mitteilungen¹ habe ich gezeigt, wie man zu Feldgleichungen der Gravitation gelangen kann, die dem Postulat allgemeiner Relativität entsprechen, d. h. die in ihrer allgemeinen Fassung beliebigen Substitutionen der Raumzeitvariablen gegenüber kovariant sind.

Der Entwicklungsgang war dabei folgender. Zunächst fand ich Gleichungen, welche die NEWTONSCHE Theorie als Näherung enthalten und beliebigen Substitutionen von der Determinante 1 gegenüber kovariant waren. Hierauf fand ich, daß diesen Gleichungen allgemein kovariante entsprechen, falls der Skalar des Energietensors der »Materie« verschwindet. Das Koordinatensystem war dann nach der einfachen Regel zu spezialisieren, daß $\sqrt{-g}$ zu 1 gemacht wird, wodurch die Gleichungen der Theorie eine eminente Vereinfachung erfahren. Dabei mußte aber, wie erwähnt, die Hypothese eingeführt werden, daß der Skalar des Energietensors der Materie verschwinde.

Neuerdings finde ich nun, daß man ohne Hypothese über den Energietensor der Materie auskommen kann, wenn man den Energietensor der Materie in etwas anderer Weise in die Feldgleichungen einsetzt, als dies in meinen beiden früheren Mitteilungen geschehen ist. Die Feldgleichungen für das Vakuum, auf welche ich die Erklärung der Perihelbewegung des Merkur gegründet habe, bleiben von dieser Modifikation unberührt. Ich gebe hier nochmals die ganze Betrachtung, damit der Leser nicht genötigt ist, die früheren Mitteilungen unausgesetzt heranzuziehen.

Aus der bekannten RIEMANNSCHEN Kovariante vierten Ranges leitet man folgende Kovariante zweiten Ranges ab:

$$G_{im} = R_{im} + S_{im} \quad (1)$$

$$R_{im} = - \sum_l \frac{\partial \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} im \\ l \end{smallmatrix} \right\}}{\partial x_l} + \sum_{l_1} \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} il \\ \sigma \end{smallmatrix} \right\} \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} m \sigma \\ l \end{smallmatrix} \right\} \quad (1a)$$

$$S_{im} = \sum_l \frac{\partial \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} il \\ l \end{smallmatrix} \right\}}{\partial x_m} - \sum_{l_1} \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} im \\ \sigma \end{smallmatrix} \right\} \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \sigma l \\ l \end{smallmatrix} \right\} \quad (1b)$$

¹ Sitzungsber. XLIV. S. 778 und XLVI. S. 799. 1915.

Consequences of “Curved Spacetime”

Precession of the perihelion of Mercury

0.43 second of arc/century

Deflection of light by the sun

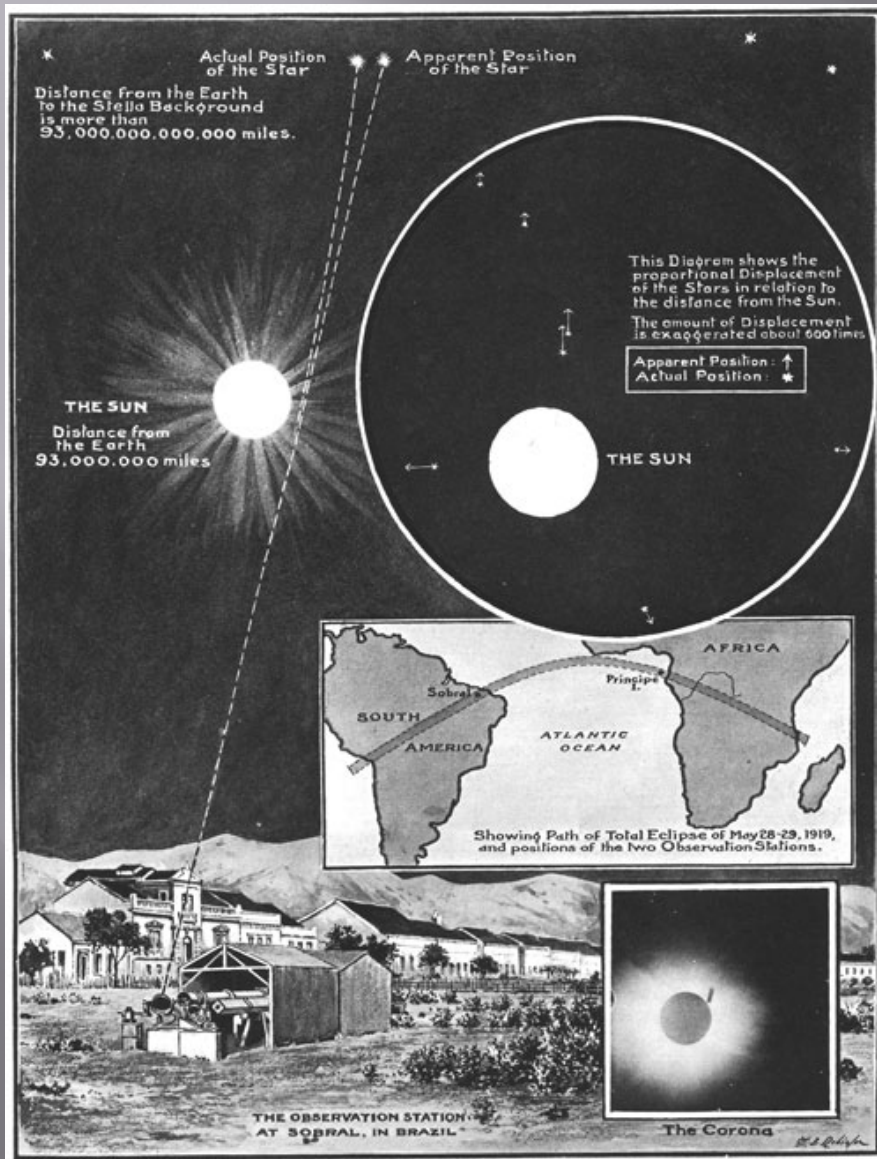
1.745 seconds of arc at the sun's limb

Gravitational redshift of light

0.01 angstroms (sun)

Tiny effects

Sir Arthur Eddington observes an effect in 1919



of general relativity among Reflection

LIGHTS ALL ASKEW IN THE HEAVENS

Special Cable to THE NEW YORK TIMES,
New York Times 1857; Nov 10, 1919; ProQuest Historical Newspapers The New York Times (1851 - 2004)
pg. 17

LIGHTS ALL ASKEW IN THE HEAVENS

Men of Science More or Less
Agog Over Results of Eclipse
Observations.

EINSTEIN THEORY TRIUMPHS

Stars Not Where They Seemed
or Were Calculated to be,
but Nobody Need Worry.

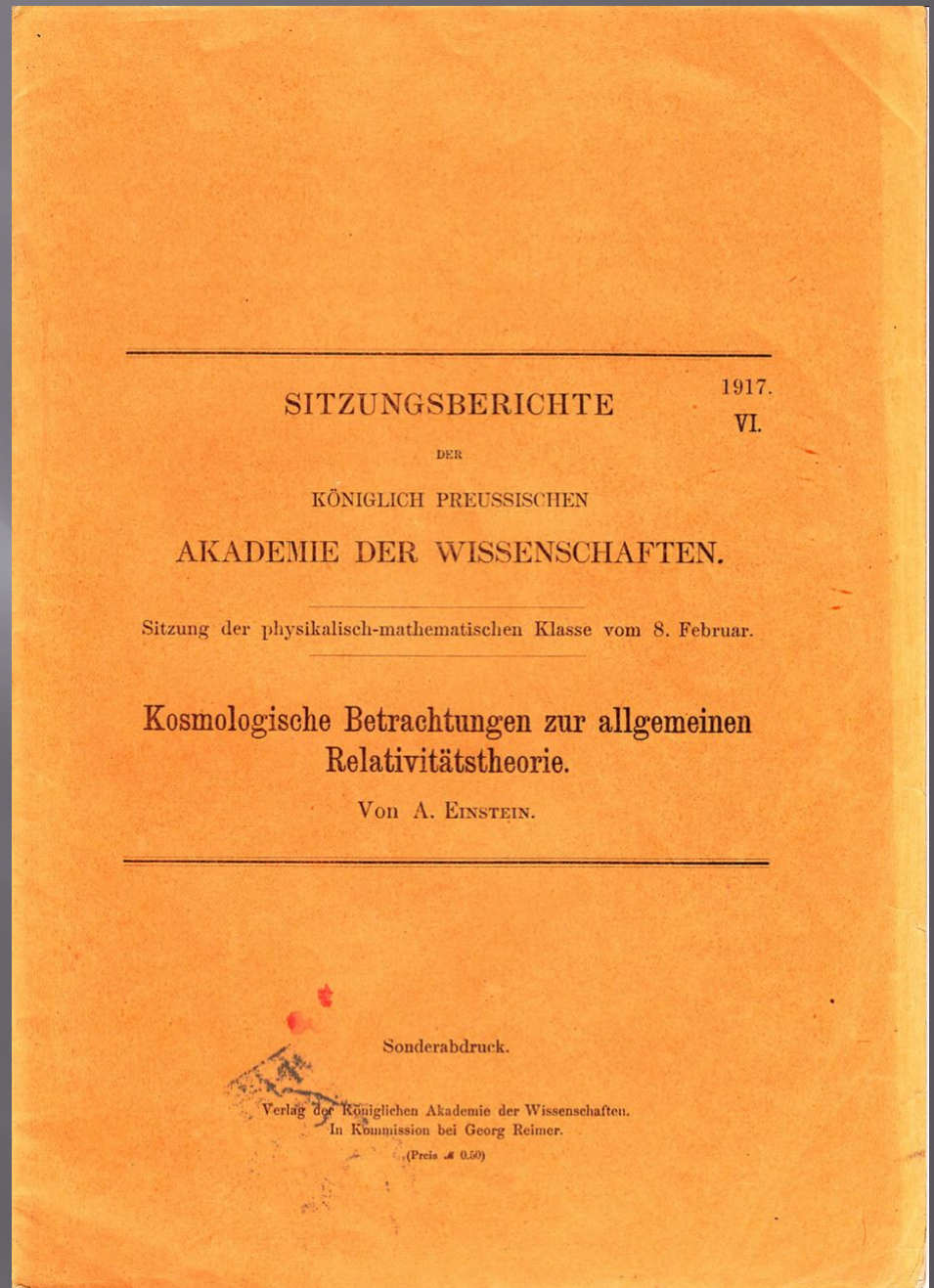
A BOOK FOR 12 WISE MEN

No More in All the World Could
Comprehend It, Said Einstein When
His Daring Publishers Accepted It.

New York Times headline of
November 10, 1919.

CLOSE X

Since gravitation is universal, a theory of gravitation should allow for a theory of the organization of the universe. So, in 1917, we have Einstein's "Cosmological Observations...."



Einstein's solution of his gravitation equations
results in

“Solution A”

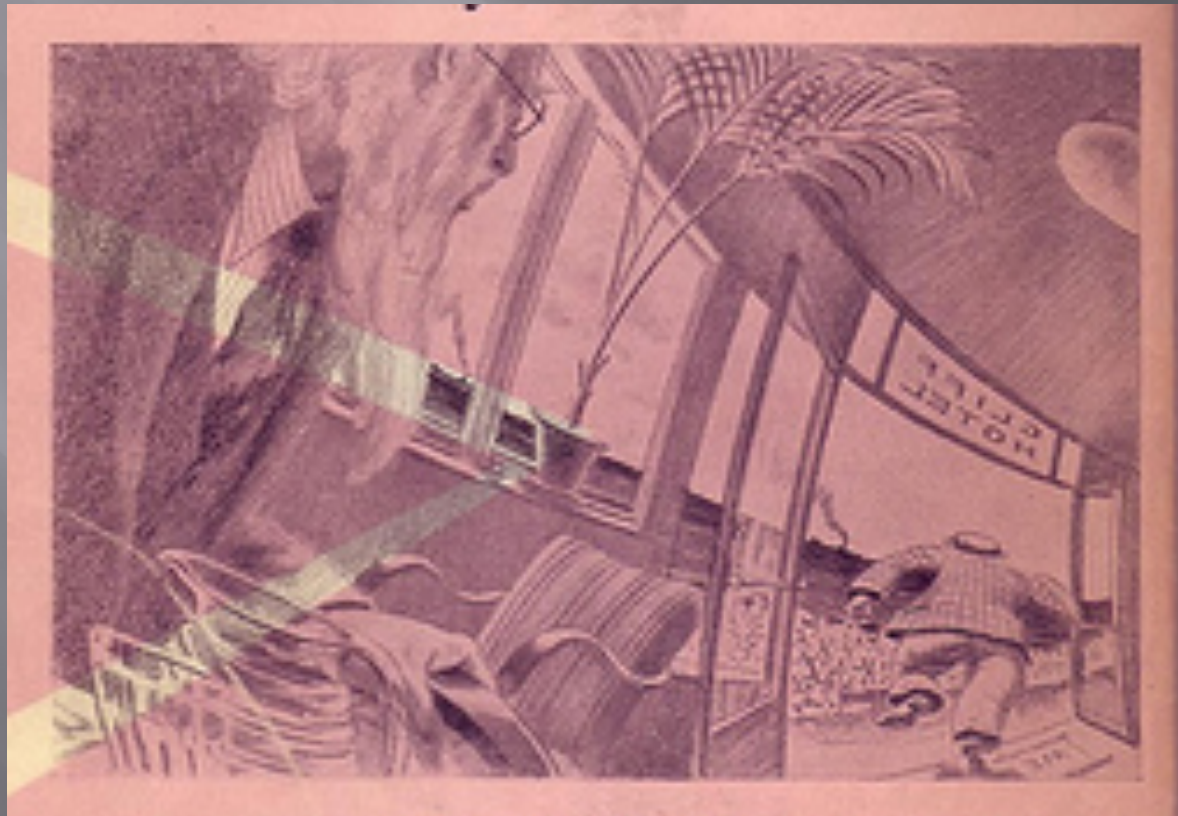
Curvature of space,
“geometry of space-time”

Matter curves space, space tells matter
how to behave

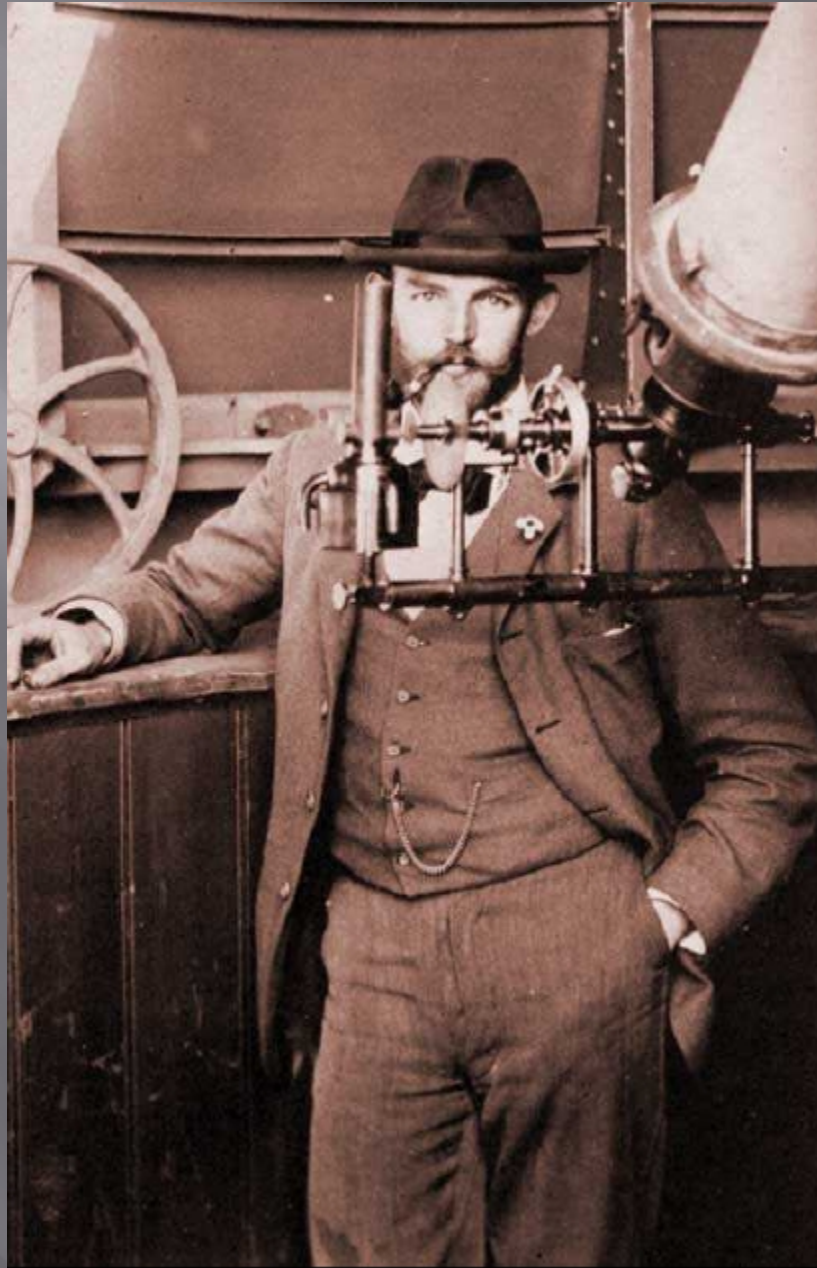
Cosmological constant, λ
to avoid a dynamic universe that expands or
contracts

“revolutionary” but also “static” or “conventional”
in the sense of a stationary universe

Einstein's notion of a curved space-time was revolutionary enough: seen here imaged in a 1939 popularization by George Gamow



Willem de Sitter,
1872-1934,
a Dutch colleague
of Einstein, made
his own solution
of Einstein's
equations.



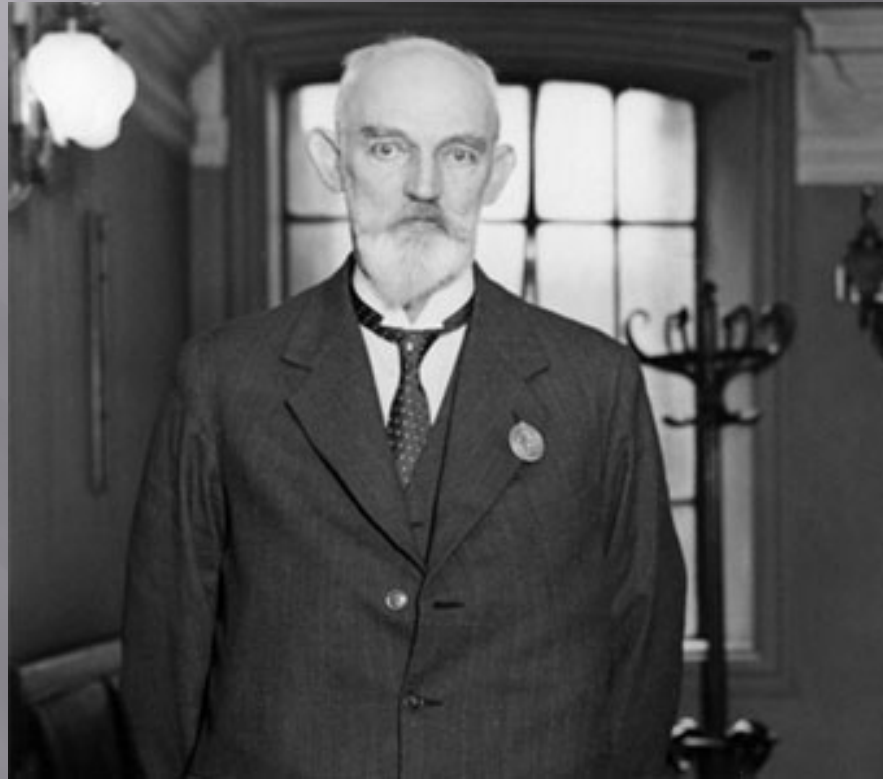
A few months after Einstein, de Sitter announces
“Solution B”

Also a static universe

A universe without matter

However, if you throw a Mars bar into
this empty universe, you would see it
seem to recede from you faster and faster.

Observer sees reddening of distant
sources of light, viz., the “De Sitter effect”





Vesto Melvin Slipher, 1875-1969

Because it was wartime in 1917, few Europeans knew that in 1914 Slipher had announced that spiral nebulae possessed very high velocities, almost all of them velocities of recession.





The de Sitter effect?

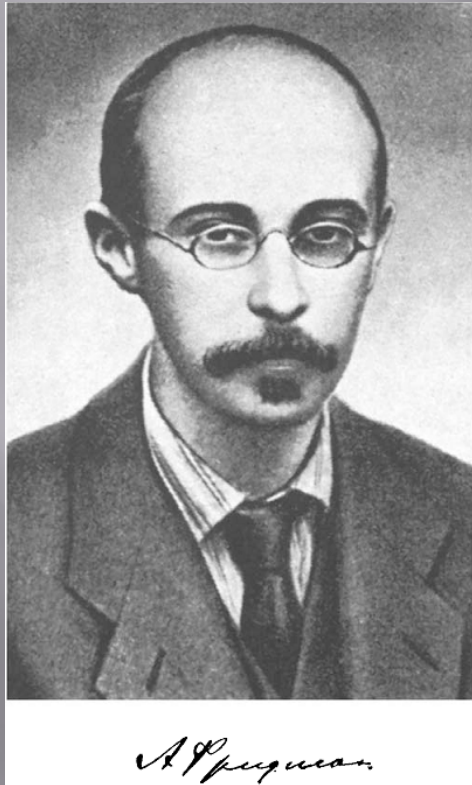
RADIAL VELOCITIES OF SPIRAL NEBULAE

+ indicates receding, - approaching

N. G. C.	R. A. h m	Dec. ° '	Rad. Vel. km. per sec.	N. G. C.	R. A. h m	Dec. ° '	Rad. Vel. km. per sec.
221	0 38	+40 26	- 300	4151*	12 6	+39 51	+ 980
224*	0 38	+40 50	- 300	4214	12 12	+36 46	+ 300
278†	0 47	+47 7	+ 650	4258	12 15	+47 45	+ 500
404	1 5	+35 17	- 25	4382†	12 21	+18 38	+ 500
584†	1 27	- 7 17	+1800	4449	12 24	+44 32	+ 200
598*	1 29	+30 15	- 260	4472	12 25	+ 8 27	+ 850
936	2 24	- 1 31	+1300	4486†	12 27	+12 50	+ 800
1023	2 35	+38 43	+ 300	4526	12 30	+ 8 9	+ 580
1068*	2 39	- 0 21	+1120	4565†	12 32	+26 26	+1100
2683	8 48	+33 43	+ 400	4594*	12 36	-11 11	+1100
2841†	9 16	+51 19	+ 600	4649	12 40	+12 0	+1090
3031	9 49	+69 27	- 30	4736	12 47	+41 33	+ 290
3034	9 49	+70 5	+ 290	4826	12 53	+22 7	+ 150
3115†	10 1	- 7 20	+ 600	5005	13 7	+37 29	+ 900
3368	10 42	+12 14	+ 940	5055	13 12	+42 37	+ 450
3379*	10 43	+13 0	+ 780	5194	13 26	+47 36	+ 270
3489†	10 56	+14 20	+ 600	5195†	13 27	+47 41	+ 240
3521	11 2	+ 0 24	+ 730	5236†	13 32	-29 27	+ 500
3623	11 15	+13 32	+ 800	5866	15 4	+56 4	+ 650
3627	11 16	+13 26	+ 650	7331	22 33	+33 23	+ 500
4111†	12 3	+43 31	+ 800				

...the reason for interest in Solution B

Aleksandr Friedmann, 1888-1925



Friedmann, in 1922, produces his own solution

A universe with matter

Examination of non-stationary models
of the universe

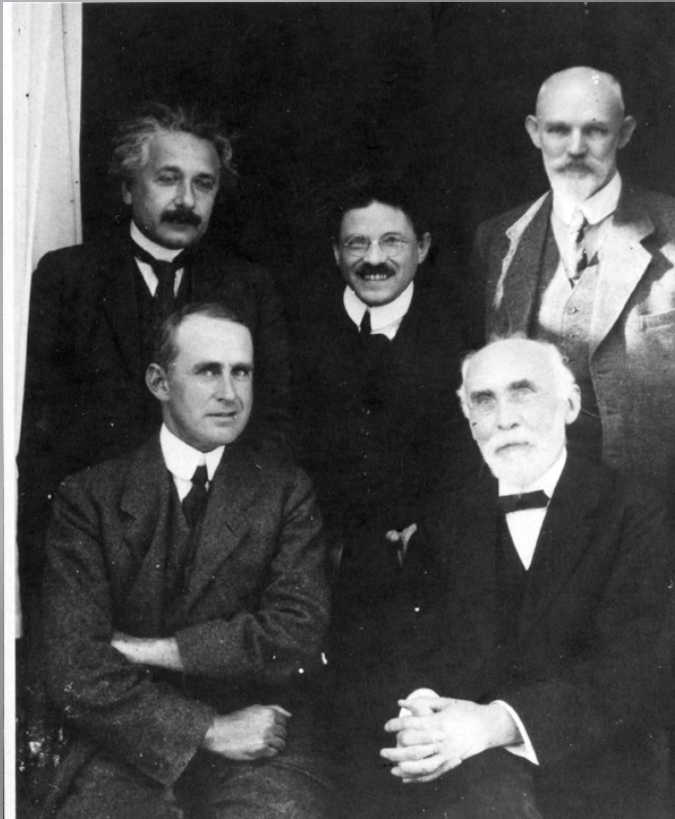
Models that expand, contract, or
oscillate

....just a mathematical exercise?

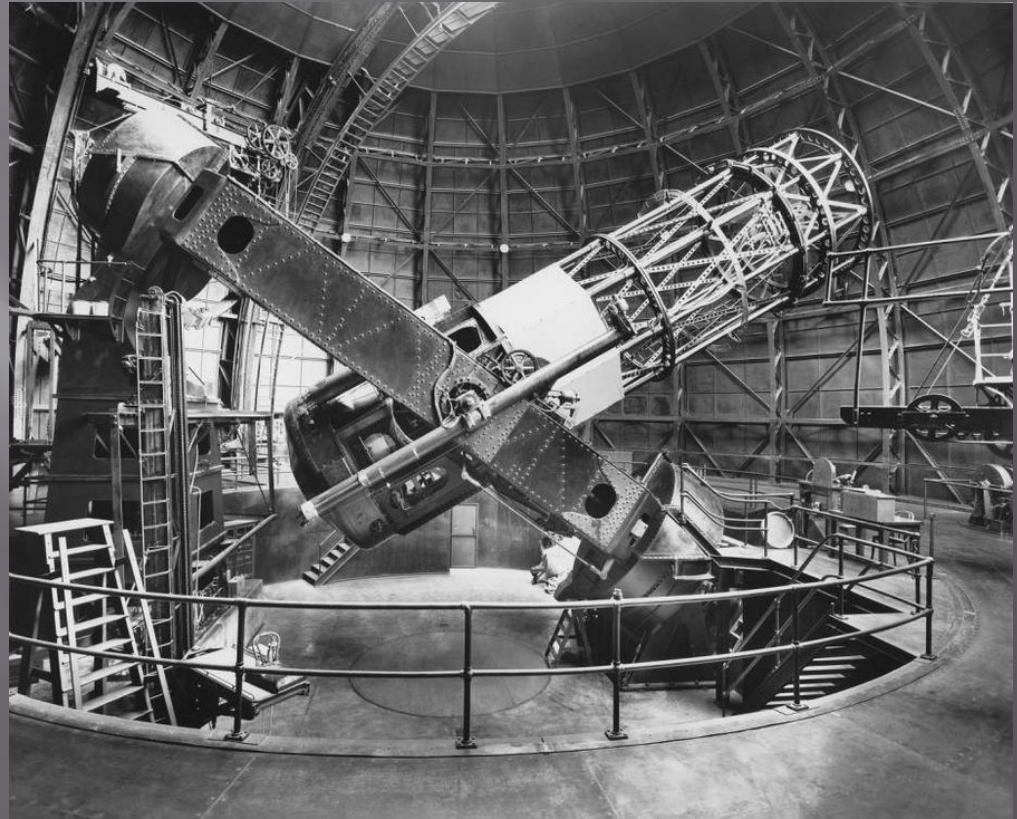
“On the Curvature of Space, “ *Zeitschrift
für Physik* (1922)

Had Friedmann lived..., he well might
have won fame as the first expounder
of an expanding universe.

European theories

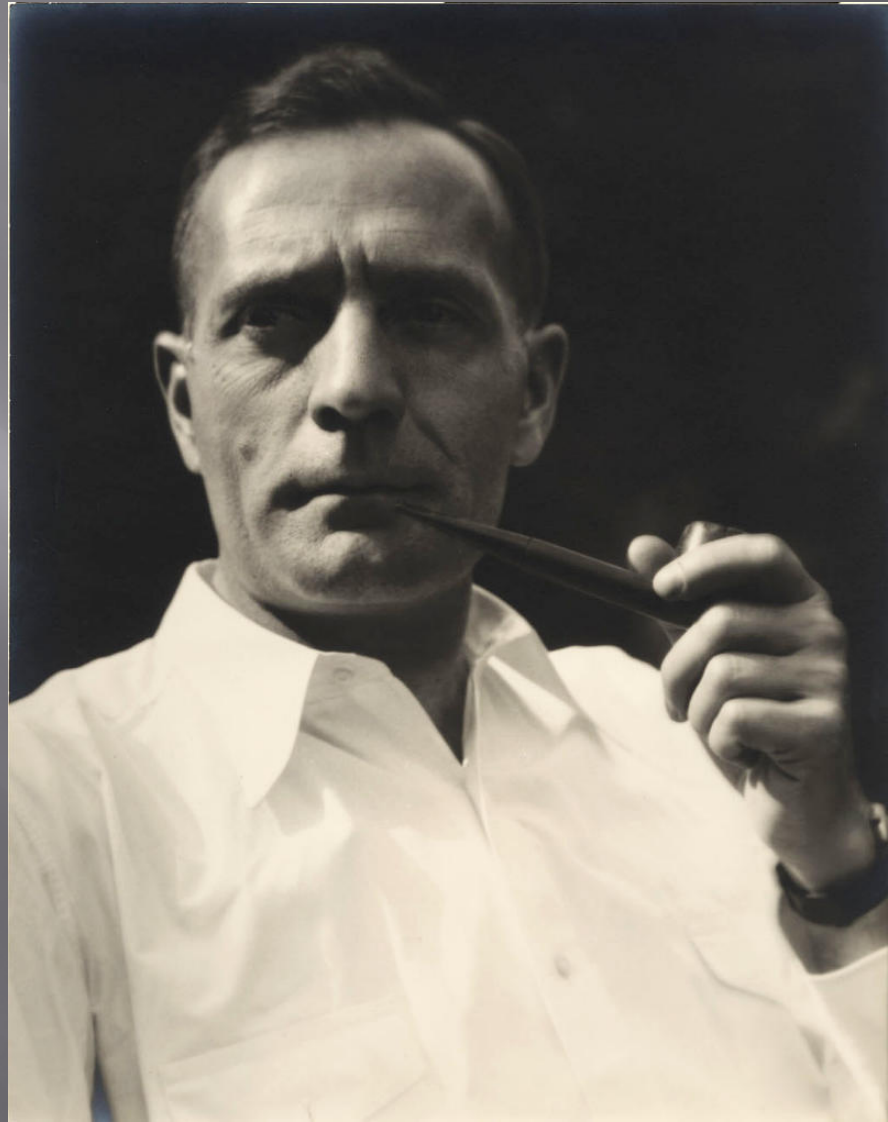


American observations



The Europeans had the theoretical experience and interest; the Americans had big telescopes and good observing conditions.

Edwin Hubble,
1889-1953



Hubble, using the great telescopes at Mt. Wilson beginning in 1919,

discovered a Cepheid variable star in the great spiral nebula in Andromeda, and this allowed him to calculate its distance, demonstrating that the spiral nebulae were separate galaxies

continued Slipher's work on the radial velocities of spiral nebulae, and, using his determinations of their distances, was able to plot a relationship between distances and velocities.

Run 3367 Col 4 Field 75

M31-V1
"Most important single object in the
history of cosmology"

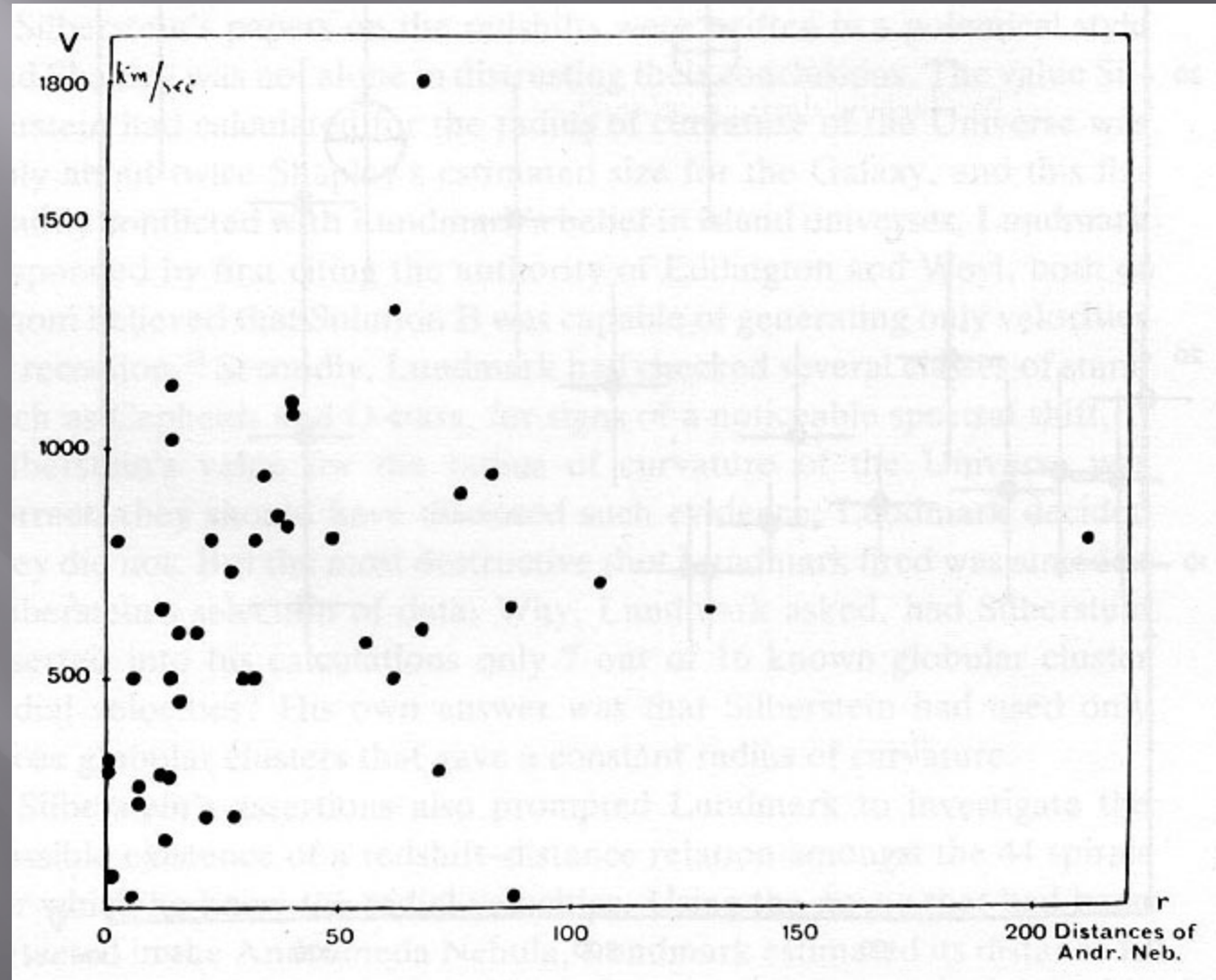


Studying galaxies as a way to decide between models of the universe



1924

There were earlier, but premature, attempts to relate distances of spirals to their velocities, but these failed due to inaccurate distances.

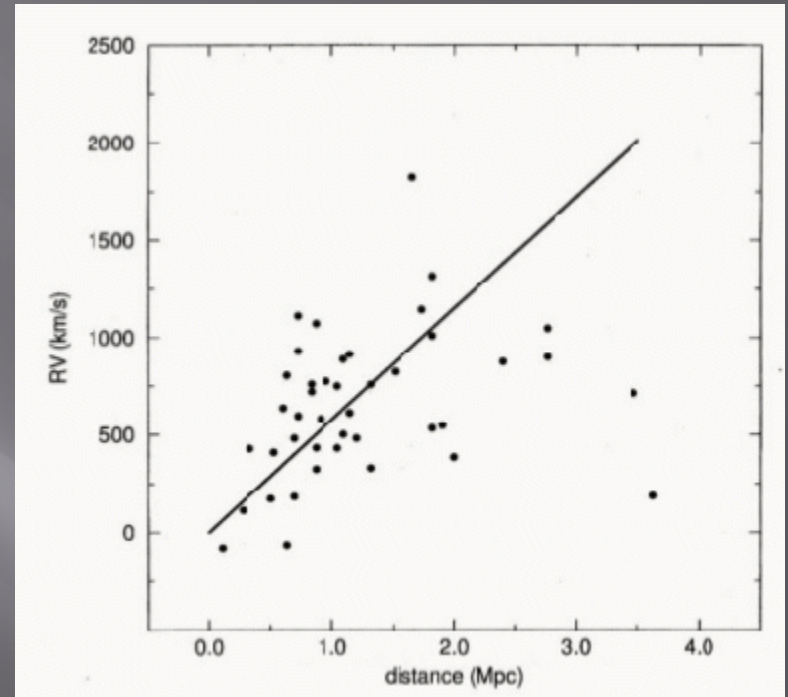


Georges Lemaître,
1894-1966



Lemaître, a Belgian priest with considerable training in mathematics and physics, developed his own solutions of Einstein's equations. They were similar to Friedmann's (he did not know Friedmann's work). In 1927 he published his theory of an expanding universe, and he even drew a graph relating the velocities of spiral nebulae to their distances.

Georges Lemaître and the graph he did *not* publish

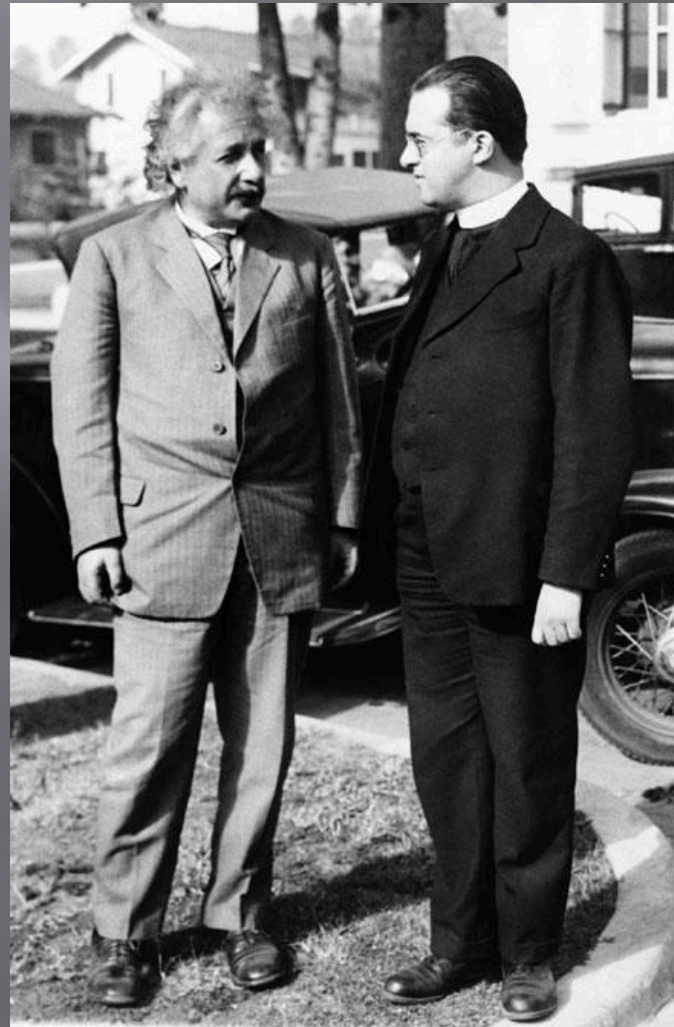


1927: re-discovery of the Friedmann universe,
an expanding universe

Annales de la Société scientifique de Bruxelles

“Your calculations are correct, but your grasp of physics is abominable.”

Einstein to Lemaître in 1927. Einstein did not know of the work of Slipher or Hubble.



Edwin Hubble
and Milton
Humason

Humason obtained
the redshifts,
Hubble obtained
the distances



Hubble and Humason are smiling because they had access to the biggest telescope in the world, and the somewhat smaller telescopes at less favored observatories were in use for other projects. Here is the 72" telescope in Victoria, British Columbia, dedicated to stellar spectroscopy.





THE 82-INCH REFLECTING TELESCOPE OF THE W. J. McDONALD OBSERVATORY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS. THE 82-INCH CONCAVE MIRROR, MADE OF PYREX GLASS, IS 11 AND THREE FOURTHS INCHES THICK AT THE EDGE AND WEIGHS ABOUT 5600 POUNDS.

Another potential competitor, dedicated however to stellar spectroscopy

Hubble and Humason, 1929

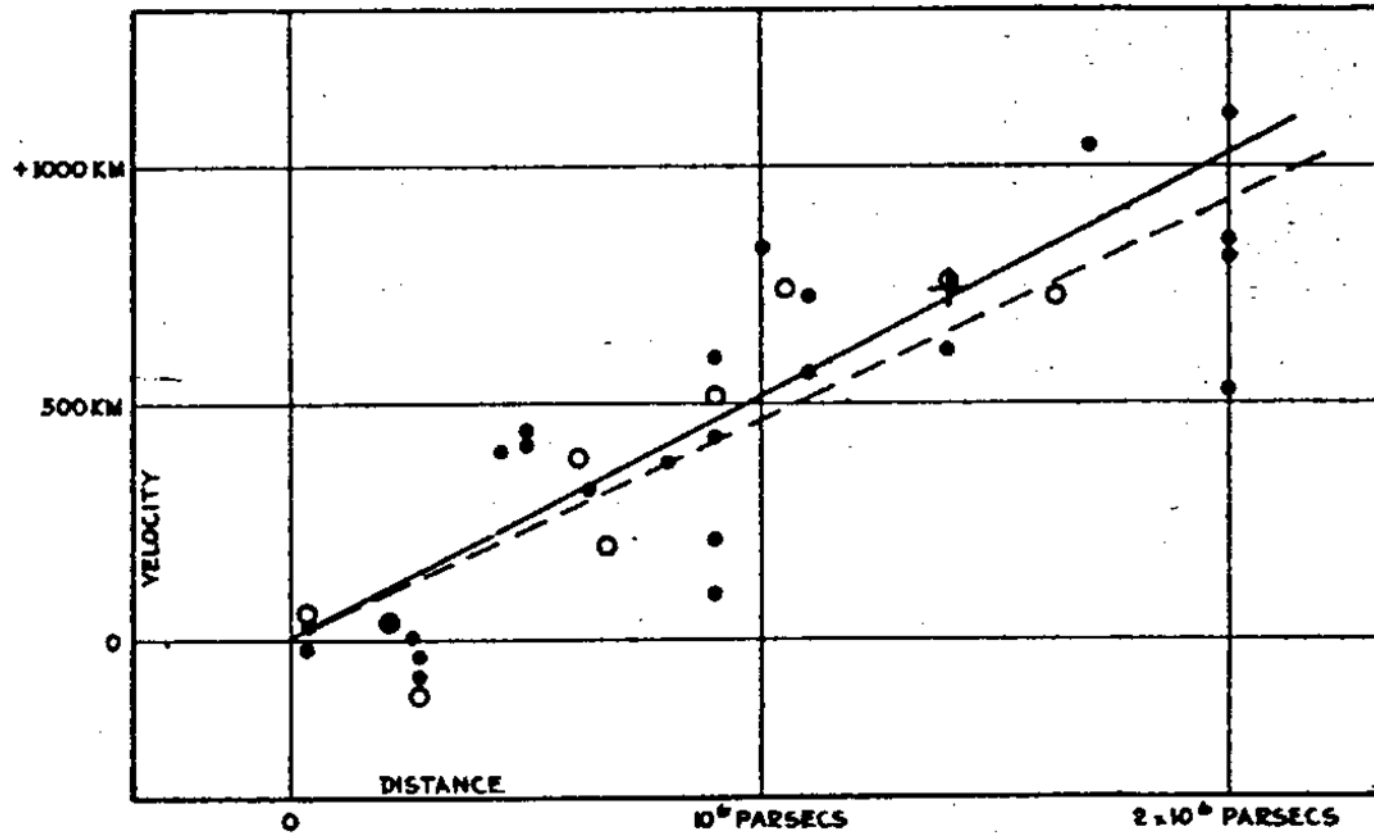
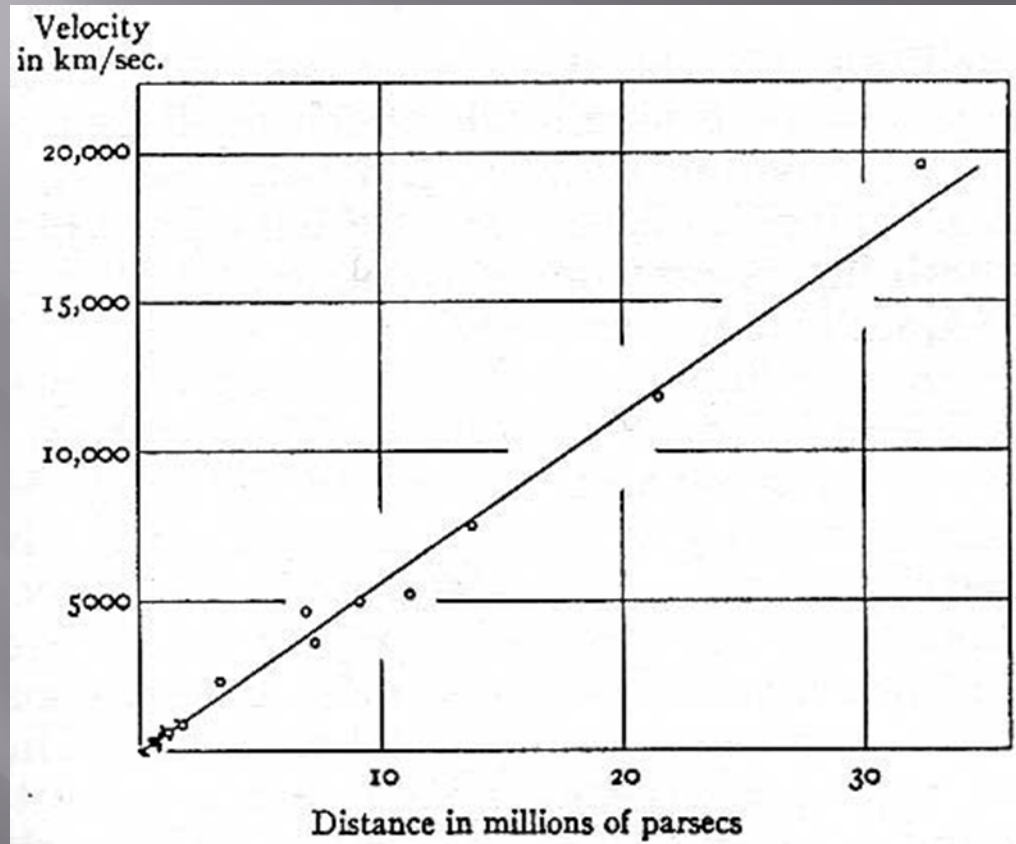


FIGURE 1

The first “Hubble Diagram” – or the second Lemaître diagram?

1931



The 1929 data are at the far lower left of the plot.

But not everybody went along on the
ride of relativistic cosmology.

Do the redshifts
reflect the de
Sitter effect?

Should we speak
of redshifts or
actual velocities?

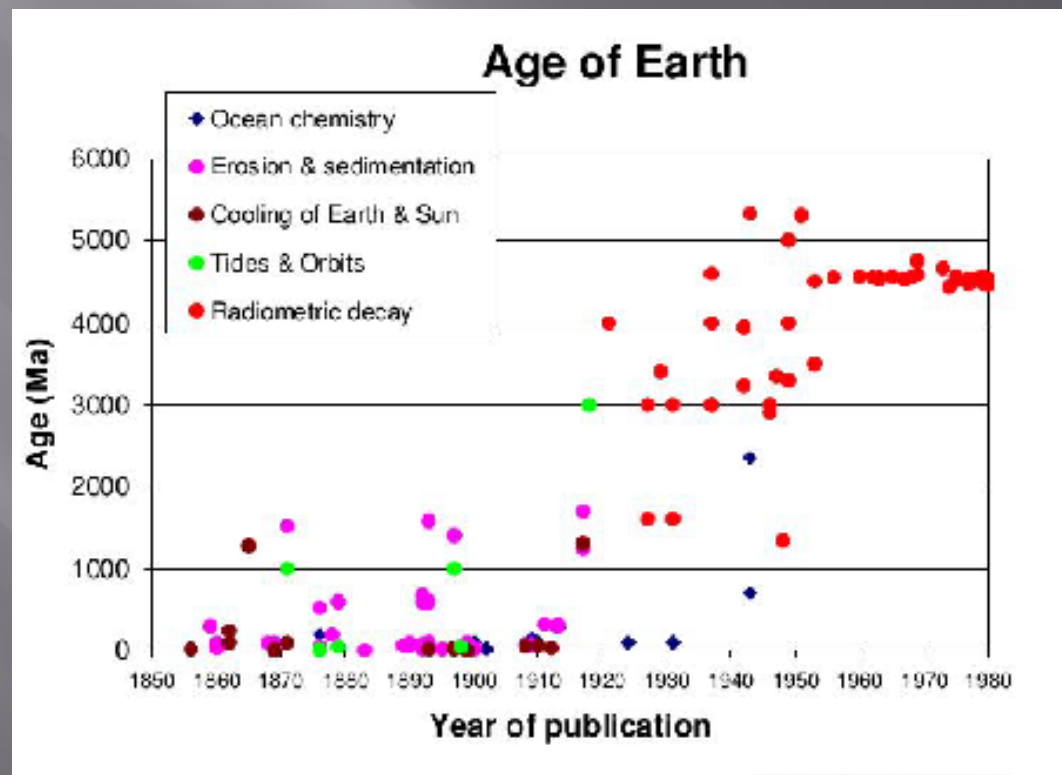
Is this real? Hubble
always had his
doubts on the matter.



Age of the universe: ~2 billion years

Age of the earth: ~3-4 billion years

The “Hubble diagram” implied an age of the universe that was younger than the earth’s age!





Fritz Zwicky, 1898-1974

He suggested that the velocities of recession were not real, but that light changed frequency as it passed over long distances

The “tired light” hypothesis did not gain many followers, as it proposed a new law of physics.



However, there were doubts...the age of the universe, the strange geometries,... beginning a long night of cosmology.



Astronomers had been forced in the past to learn spectroscopy, photography, and now, to understand Einstein, they were to master tensor calculus?

And all to what effect, since there was only one telescope in the world dedicated to relativistic cosmology....

In 1930, at a London meeting, theoretical cosmologists ponder whether a static universe is possible.



Eddington: “I suppose the trouble is that people look for static solutions.”

de Sitter: “It would be desirable to know what happens when we insert matter into the empty world represented by solution B.”

Lemaître to Eddington: “I just read....your suggestion. I made these investigations two years ago.”

1931: the expanding universe



Eddington publicizes Lemaître's work, and the expanding universe becomes a "standard" model

the universe in the form of a unique atom whose atomic weight is the total mass of the universe. This highly unstable atom ~~xxx~~ would divide in smaller and smaller atoms by a kind of super-radioactive process. Some rest of this process would, according to Sir Jeans idea, foster the heat of the stars until our low atomic number atoms may allow life to be possible.

Clearly the initial quantum could not conceal in itself the whole course of evolution; but, according to the indetermination principle, that is not necessary. Our world is now a world where something happens; the whole story of the world does not need to be written down in the first quantum as a song on the disc of a phonograph. The whole matter of the world must be present at the beginning, but the story it has to tell may be written step by step.

I think that every one who believes in a supreme being supporting every being and every acting, believes also that God is essentially hidden and may be glad to see how present physics provides a veil hiding the creation.

POPULAR SCIENCE

FOUNDED MONTHLY 1872

DECEMBER

15 CENTS

20 CENTS IN CANADA

NOW
15¢



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NEW INVENTIONS • MECHANICS • MONEY MAKING IDEAS
55 HOME WORKSHOP PLANS AND HINTS • 350 PICTURES

Blast of Giant Atom

By
Donald H.
Menzel

Harvard Observatory

OUT of a single, bursting atom came all the suns and planets of our universe!

That is the sensational theory advanced by the famous Abbe G. Lemaitre, Belgian mathematician. It has aroused the interest of astronomers throughout the world because, startling as the hypothesis is, it explains many observed and puzzling facts.

According to Lemaitre's theory, all the matter in the universe was once packed within a single, gigantic atom, which, until ten thousand millions years ago, lay dormant. Then, like a sky-rocket touched off on the Fourth of July after having remained quietly for months on a store shelf, the atom burst, its far-flung fragments forming the stars of which our universe is built.

The manner in which certain kinds of atoms explode can be seen easily in a simple experiment. If you take a radium watch into a dark room and look at the dial through a magnifying glass, you see what appears to be a brilliant display of microscopic fireworks. While you are looking at the showering sparks, remember that each flash comes from an exploding atom. In each spark, you see a small-scale reproduction of the new theory of the birth of our universe.

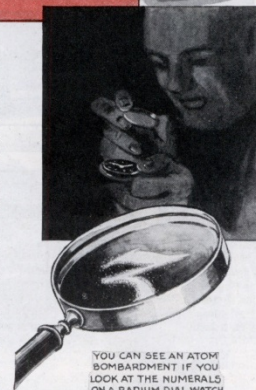
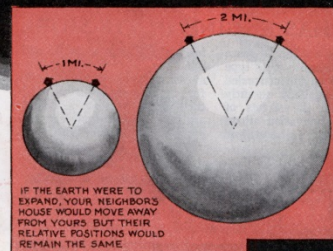
On the average, every radium atom lies dormant for about 1,730 years, after which time it explodes and shoots out particles in much the same way as the parent atom gave birth to the stars.

The new theory provides an explanation for one of the most extraordinary scientific facts ever discovered. Our tele-

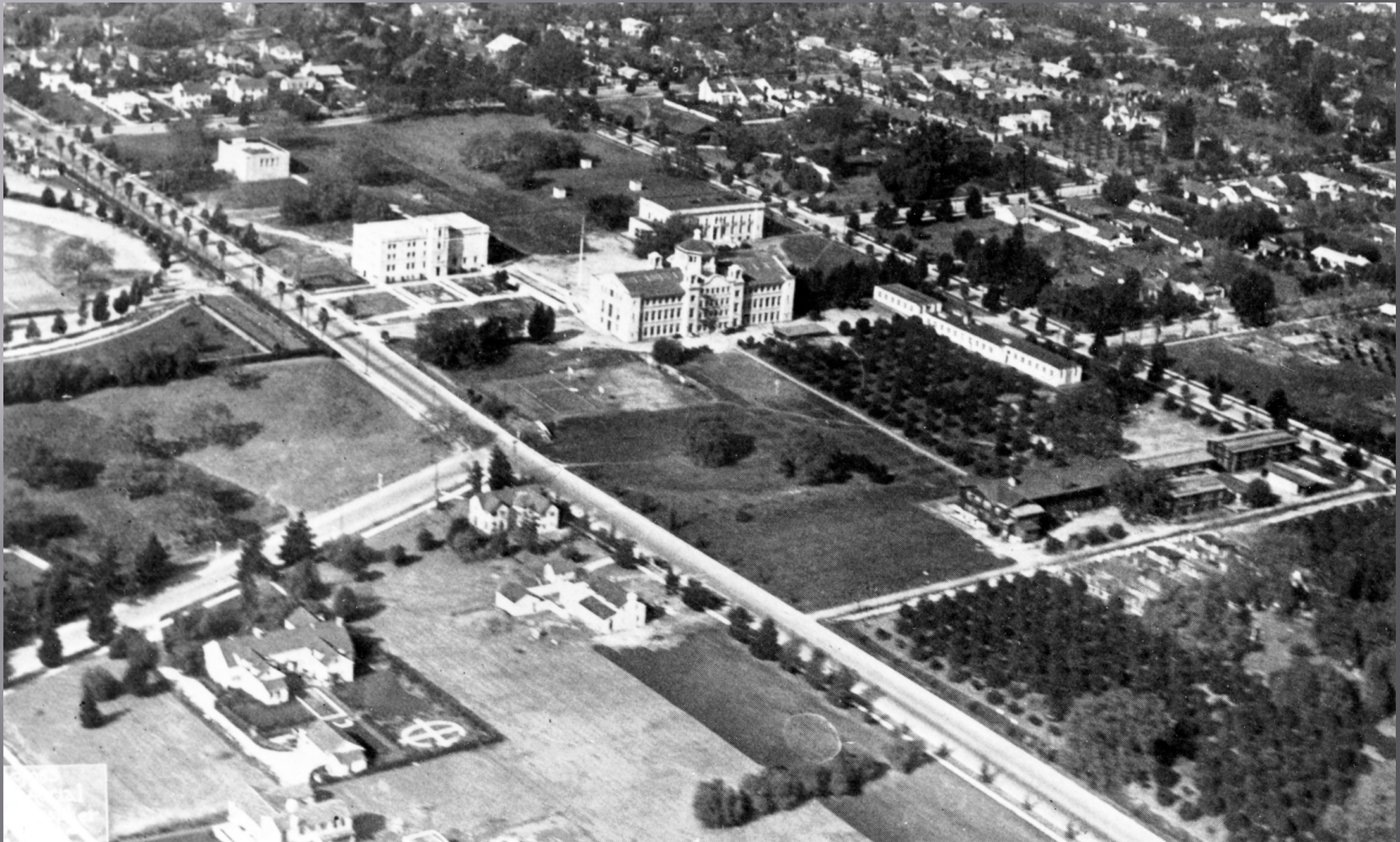
scopes show us that there are, out in space, millions of disk-shaped star-clusters known as extra-galactic nebulae. It is generally believed that our Milky Way is such an object and that our sun is but one of billions of stars that go to form it. One of the larger members of the class, the spiral nebula in Canes Venatici, is so far away that light from it takes almost a million years to reach us. Furthermore, observations indicate that every second it moves still farther away from our solar system by some 170 miles.

For every large, bright nebula there are thousands of small, faint, and presumably much more distant ones. Surveys out to one hundred million light years are in progress. The extraordinary feature referred to above is not, however, the magnitude of the figures, but the discovery that the more distant the nebula the more rapid is its motion in a direction away from us! The present record-holder is a tiny nebula whose cosmic speedometer registers in excess of twelve thousand miles a second!

Why, astronomers have asked, are the



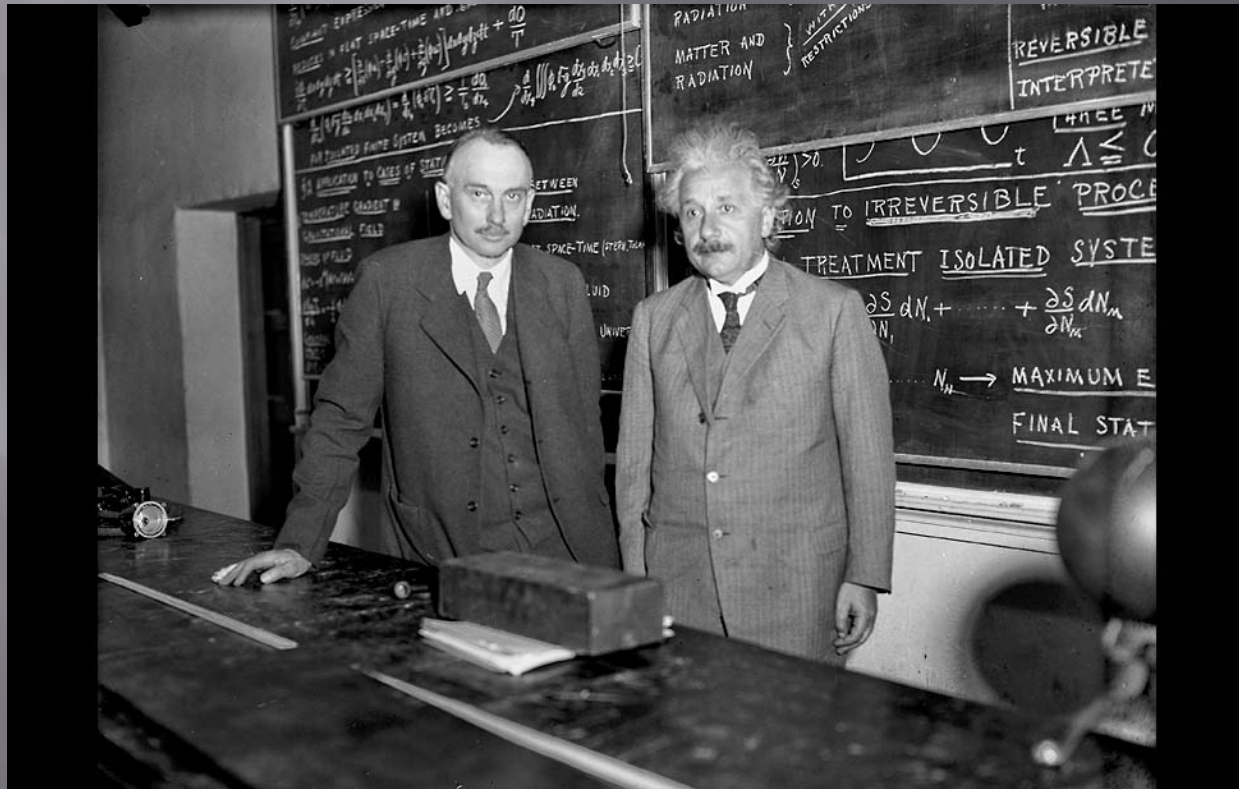
1931 An international gathering at Cal Tech



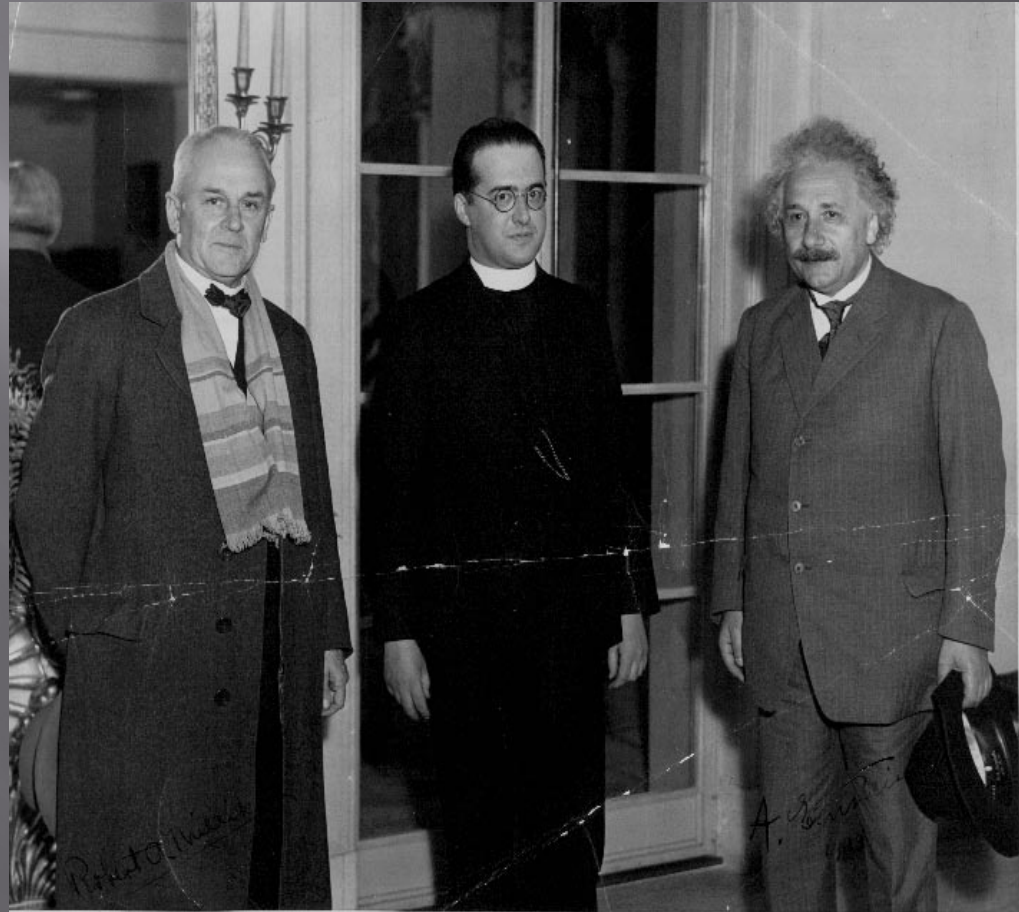
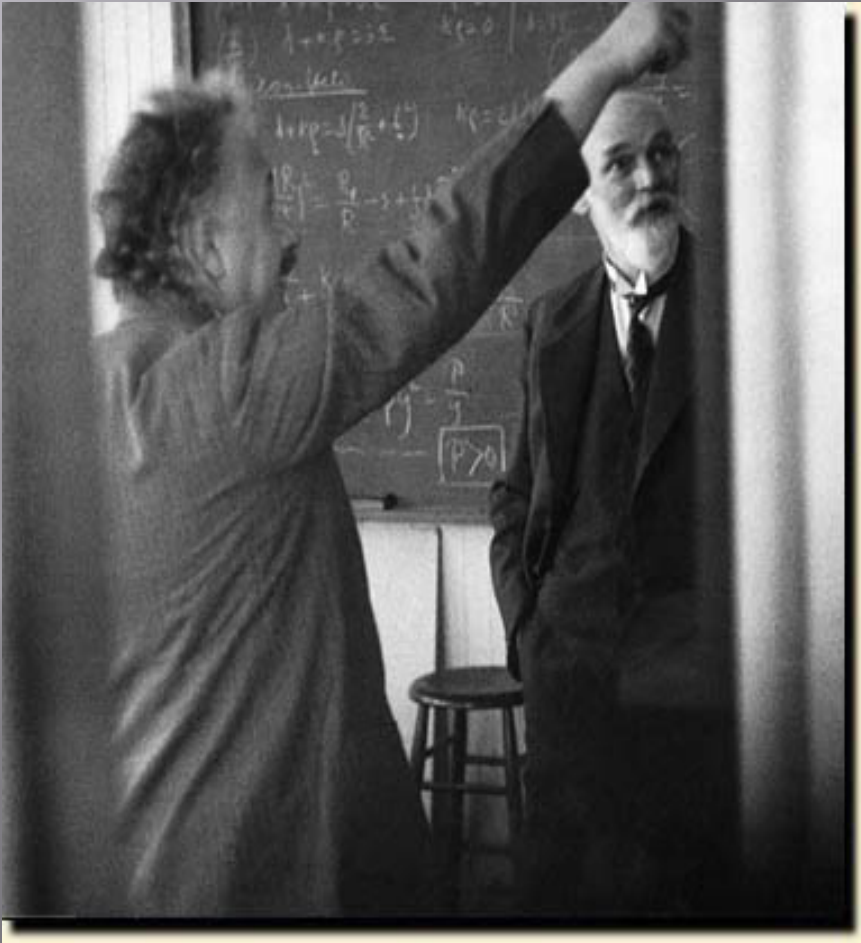
Einstein and Hubble meet, and Einstein learns of the observational evidence.



Richard C. Tolman and Einstein
Because Tolman spoke German well
and knew the theory of general relativity
well, he helped to convince Einstein.



De Sitter and Lemaître also came to Cal Tech, and they developed an expanding universe model.





M. L. Humason
Edwin Hubble

A. Einstein W. W. Campbell W. S. Adams

Nevertheless, the “long night” of relativistic cosmology was beginning. Why?



Otto Heckmann

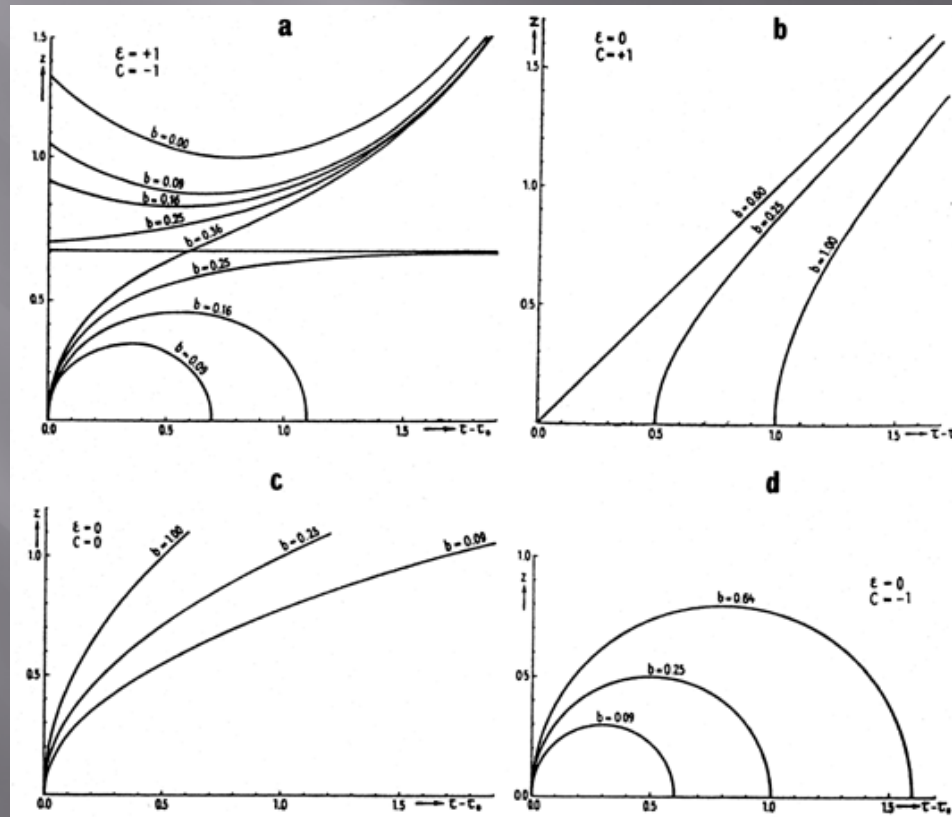


Arthur Milne



1932: alternative solutions of the equations appear...

Otto Heckmann published no fewer than twelve solutions. How were astronomers to choose between expanding, oscillating, and different philosophies of relativity?



Hubble's doubts (?) Does
redshift mean velocity?

Lack of instrumentation

Nobody else had big
telescopes.

Minute effects as measured
by the three tests

Others: why bother?

Not our circus, not our monkeys....



1938 American Astronomical Society meeting in Ann Arbor. Heber Curtis at far left. An early champion of the notion that spirals were galaxies.



However, Curtis had attempted to measure, without success, displacement of starlight at a solar eclipse.



Curtis 1938, “Lessons on Cosmogony”

- a. Alternate calculations of the precession of the perihelion of Mercury.
- b. Solar eclipse measurements have been “divinely inspired.”
- c. Too much static in the derived values of relativistic redshift in the solar spectrum.

Too many solutions.

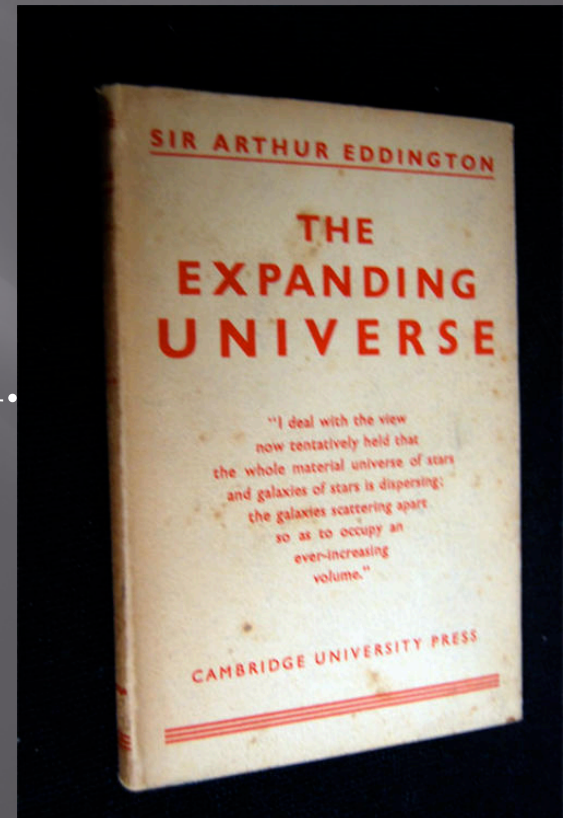
Unnecessary geometry.

Eddington “credulous.”

Age of the earth.

Eddington, who had measured the deflection of starlight at the 1919 eclipse, wrote a famous book, still in print, about relativity and the expanding universe.

But it was hard to read and contained some very strange philosophical notions, unique to Eddington.



FIFTEEN CENTS (U.S.)

April 16, 1936

TIME

The Weekly Newsmagazine



Volume XXIII

SIR ARTHUR STANLEY EDDINGTON

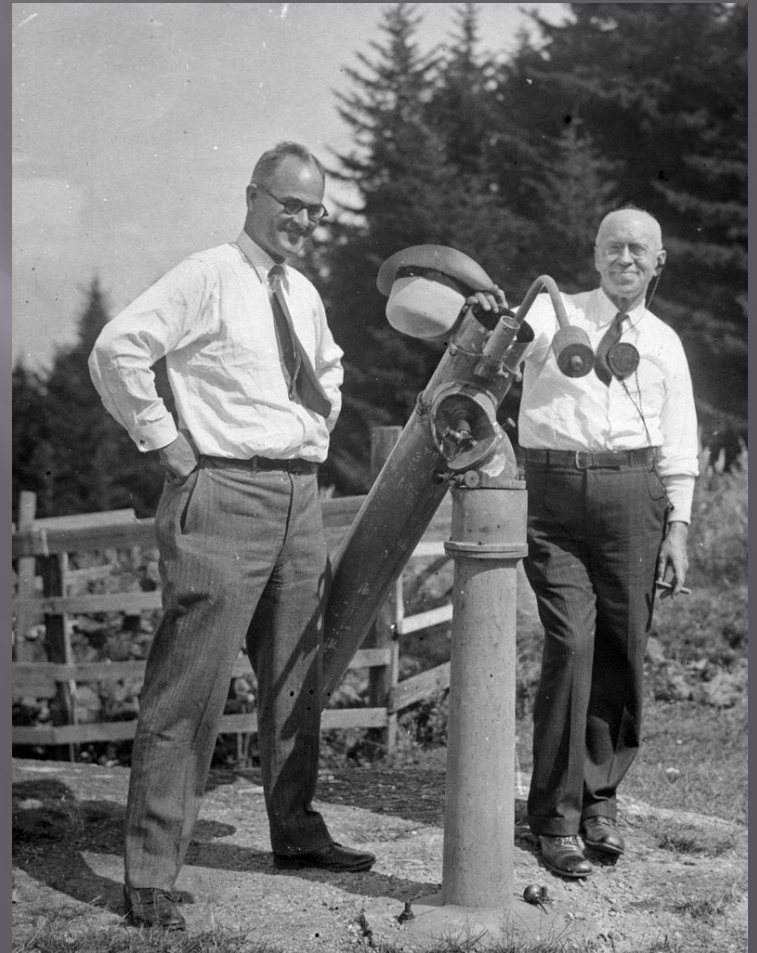
*His universe expanded into popularity.
(See Science)*

Number 16

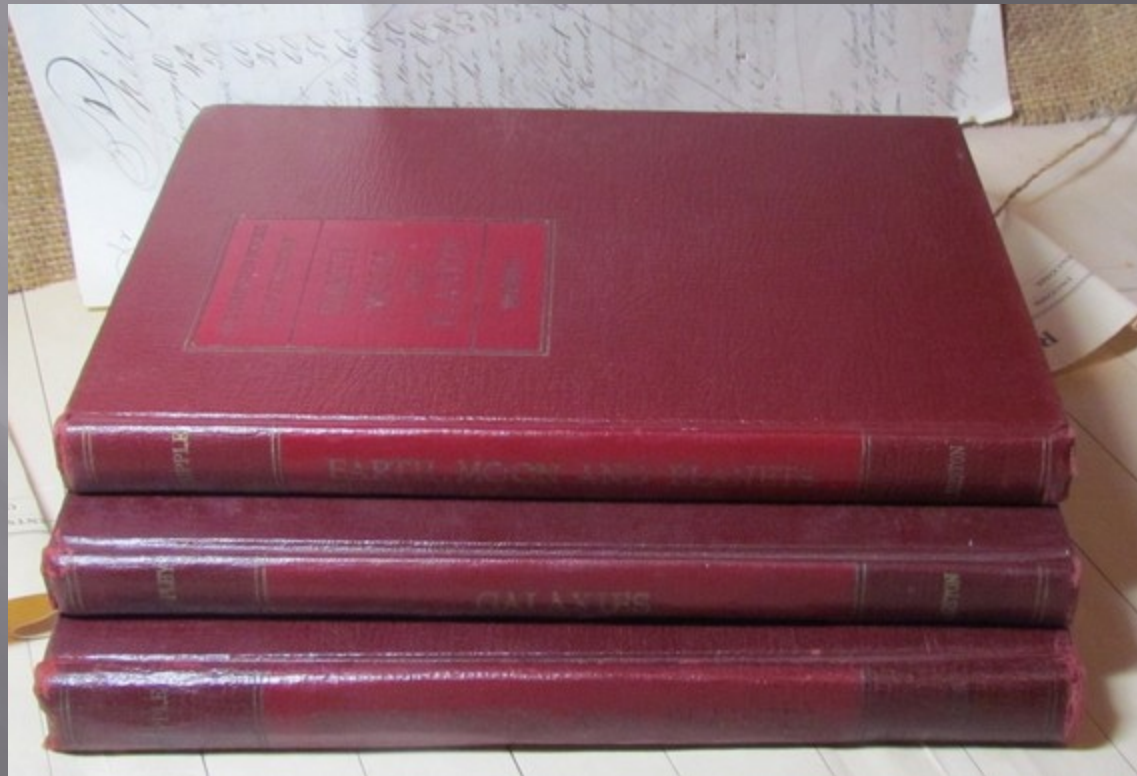
Dinsmore Alter of the Griffith Observatory, here with Alfred Hitchcock, left the whole matter out of his own textbook.



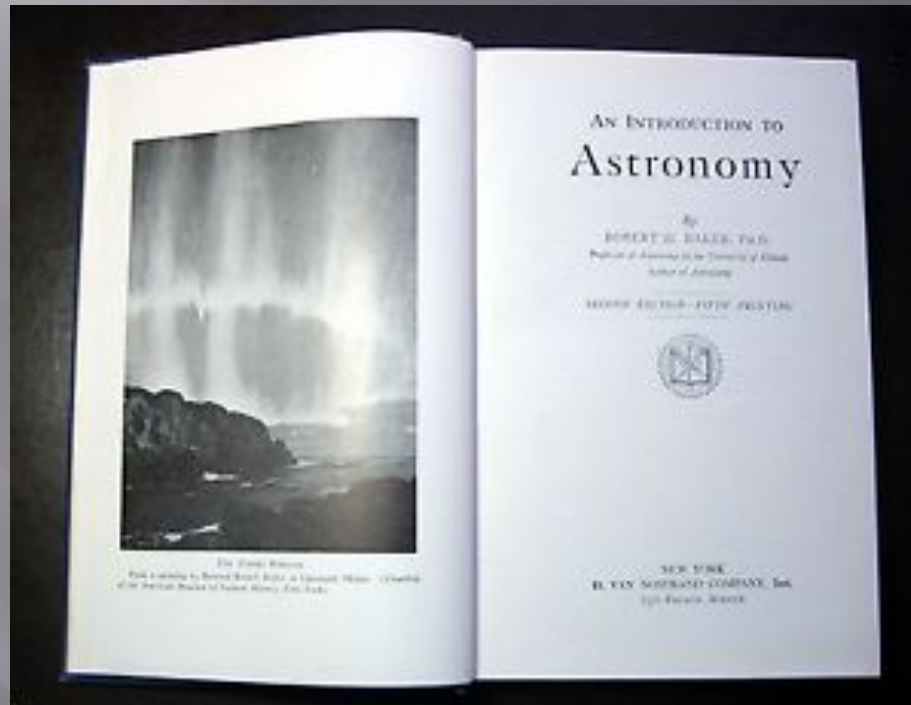
Albert Ingalls of the *Scientific American*, editor of the telescope making column and book reviewer, left cosmology out of his recommendations.



The Harvard Books on Astronomy, a very popular series for the educated public, was supposed to have a volume on relativity and cosmology, -- but it was soon cancelled.



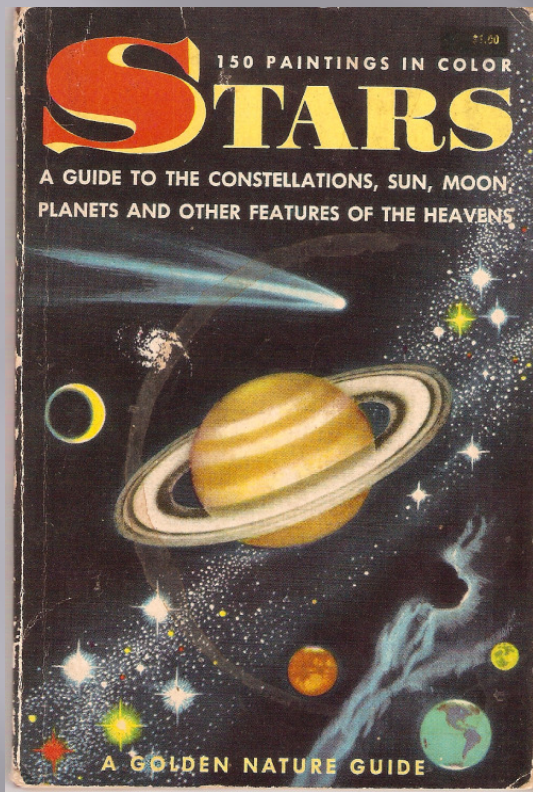
The best-selling astronomy textbook, 1930-1965



Robert H. Baker

Baker wrote the best selling textbooks over the era from 1937 to 1964: only a page on the subject.

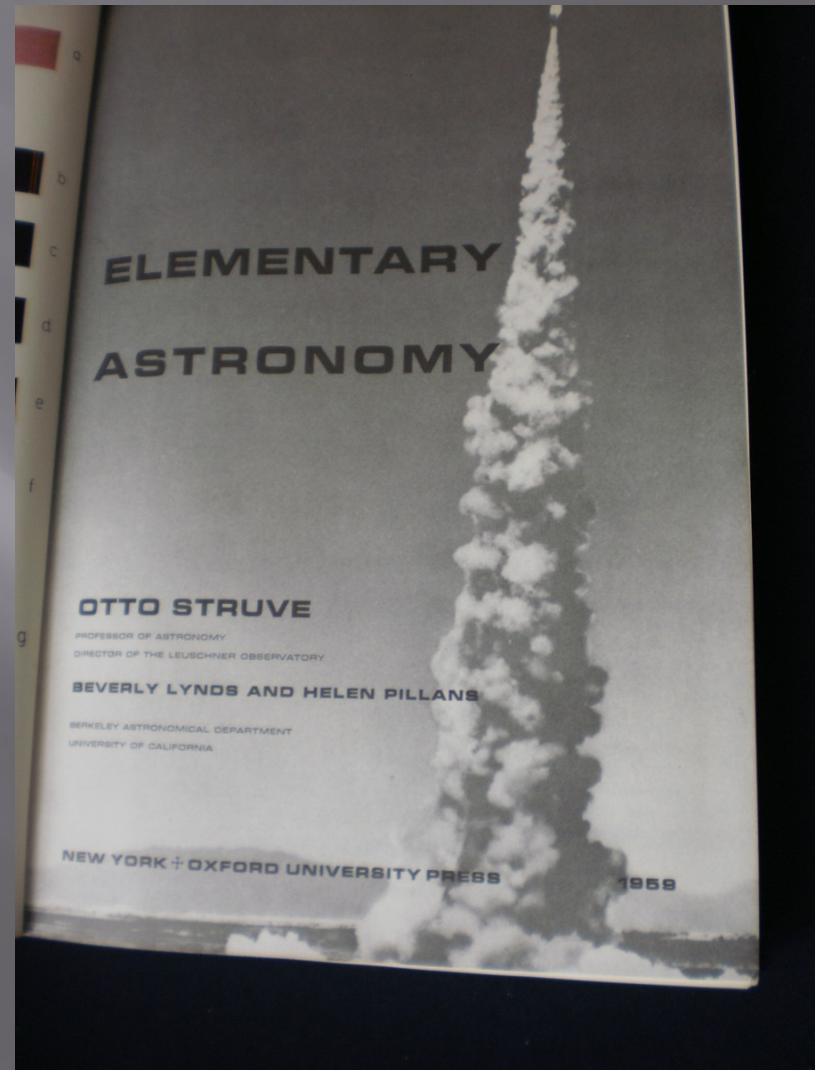




Zilch in the
best-selling
popular book



In a standard text
of 1960, only a
page or so on the
“expansion,” but
nothing on the
cosmology.





..only one glimmer
in the night



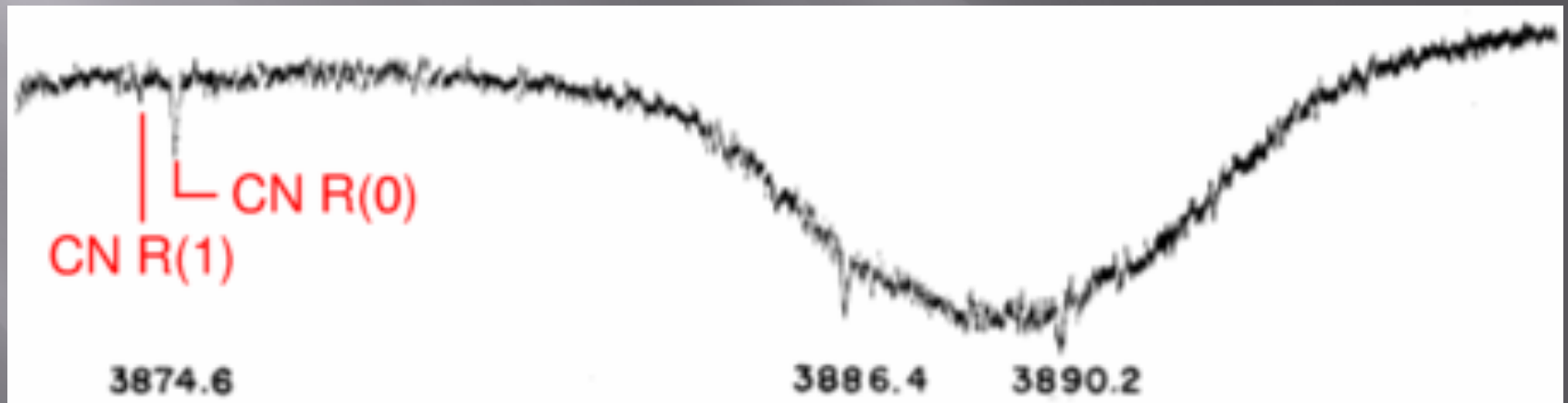
On the right: Andrew McKellar of the Dominion Astrophysical Observatory in Victoria, B.C., with the 72" mirror. McKellar was interested in stellar spectra and in interstellar clouds.



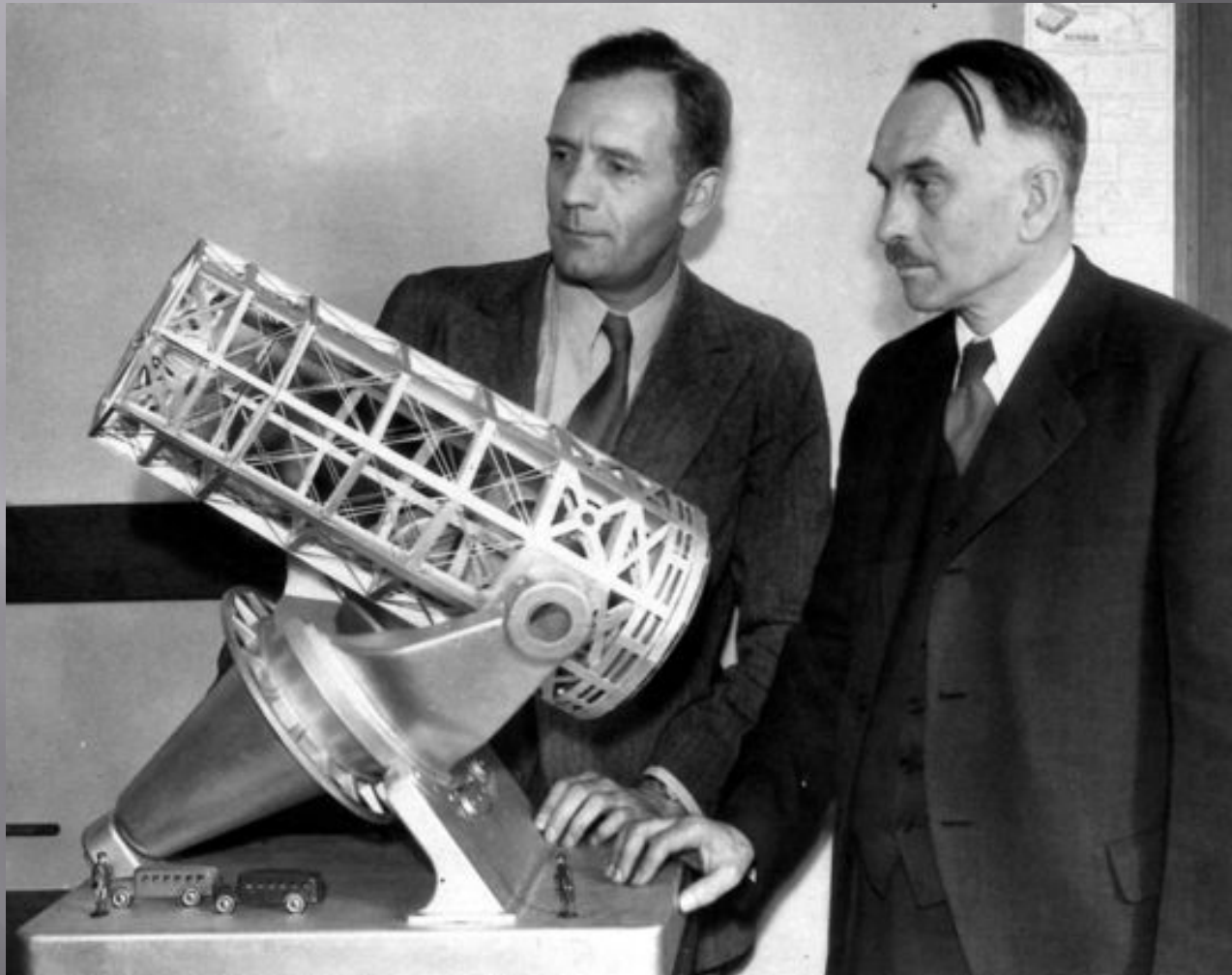
Zeta Ophiuchi: in 1938 McKellar examined the spectrum of this star and the absorption lines in the spectrum from the cloud of gas and dust lying between us and the star.



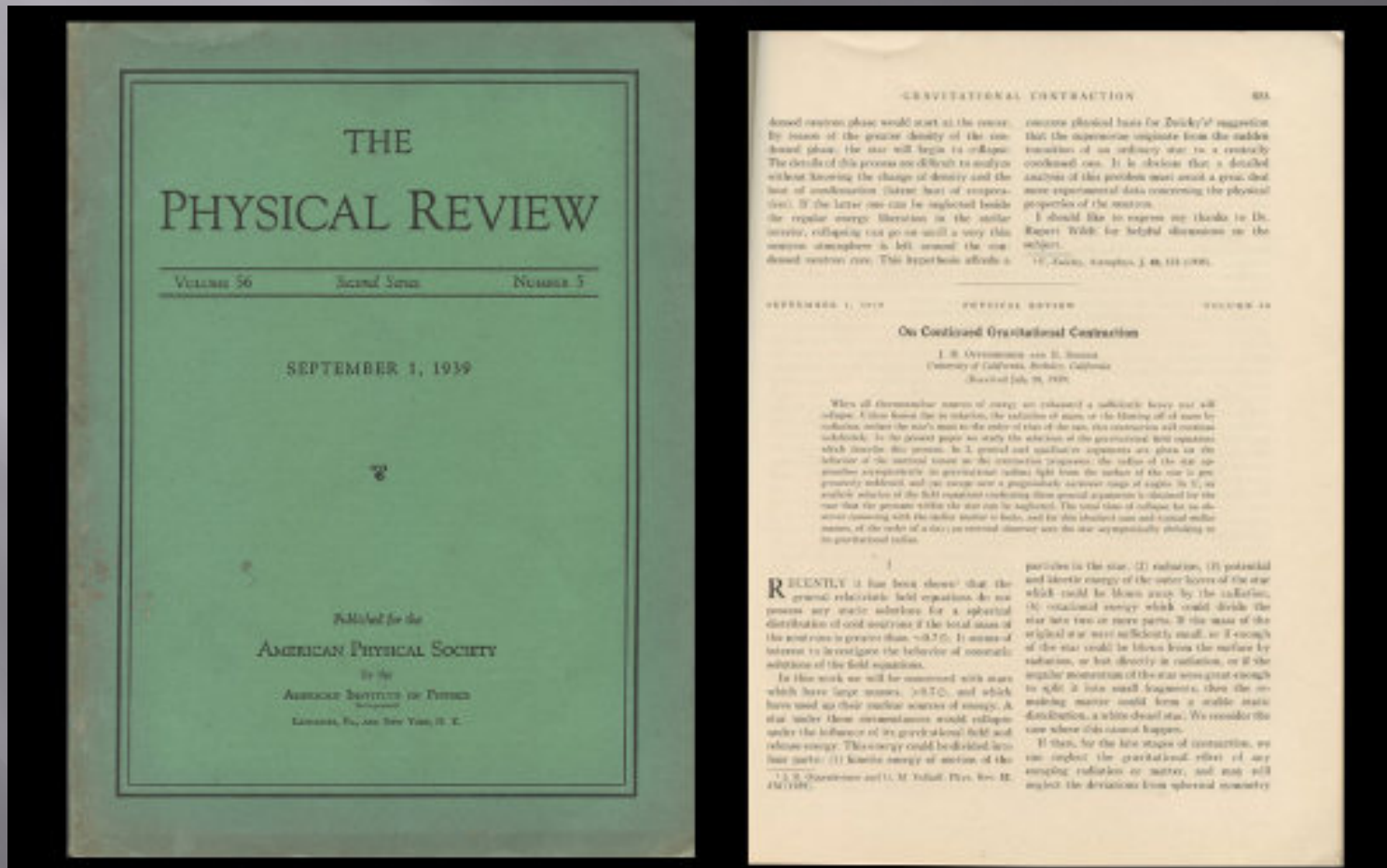
McKellar noticed the presence of Cyanogen in the interstellar cloud; but he also noticed the less intense line of Cyanogen in a state of excitement, due to a temperature of a few degrees above absolute zero. He could not explain the temperature. We now know that it represents the remnant of the Big Bang.



Here, in the late 1930s, are Hubble and Tolman in front of a model of the 200" telescope, whose construction was suffering delay after delay.



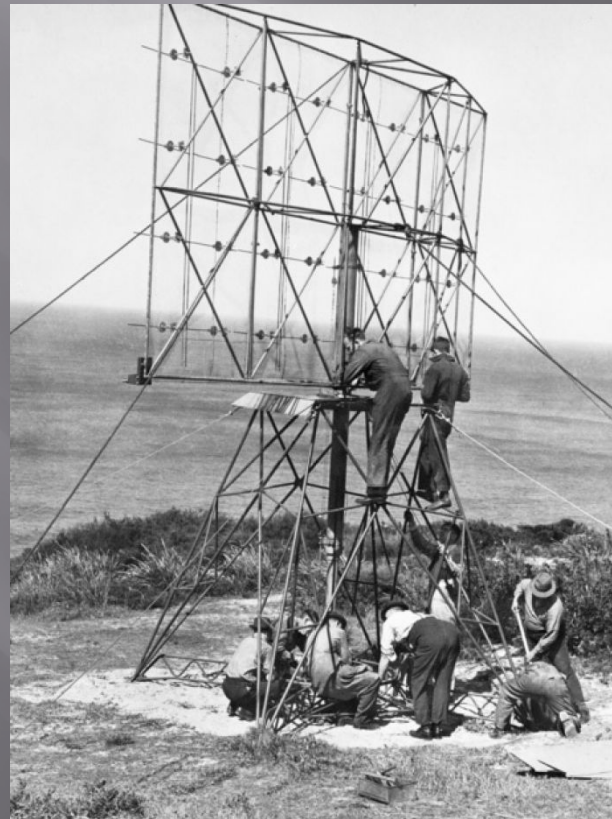
An article about what we now know as Black Holes, classic relativistic phenomena. The author might have been expected to continue: but note the date: the outbreak of war.



The article's author, J. Robert Oppenheimer, became sidelined with war work and ended up leading the scientific team that built the first atom bomb.



Another glimmer: the development of radar in World War II led to the growth of radio astronomy. In the next slide, a gathering of Australian radio astronomers, all former radar specialists. Note the sole woman.





Also as a wartime development, two new cosmological theories.

1. A “hot” Big Bang, to explain the observed abundance of elements. In this theory, there would be a remnant radiation from the original heat, perhaps a few degrees above absolute zero... but how to measure it?
2. The notion of a steady state universe, whose expansion involves the continuous creation of new matter.

Robert Hermann, George Gamow, Ralph Alpher
1946

a hot big bang, a remnant radiation, a few degrees K



Thomas Gold, Hermann Bondi,
Fred Hoyle: the steady state,
continuous creation theory



The night begins to end....



In 1950, Baade, with the Mount Wilson instruments, recalibrates the distance scale, and ends up making the universe older than the earth. Whew!



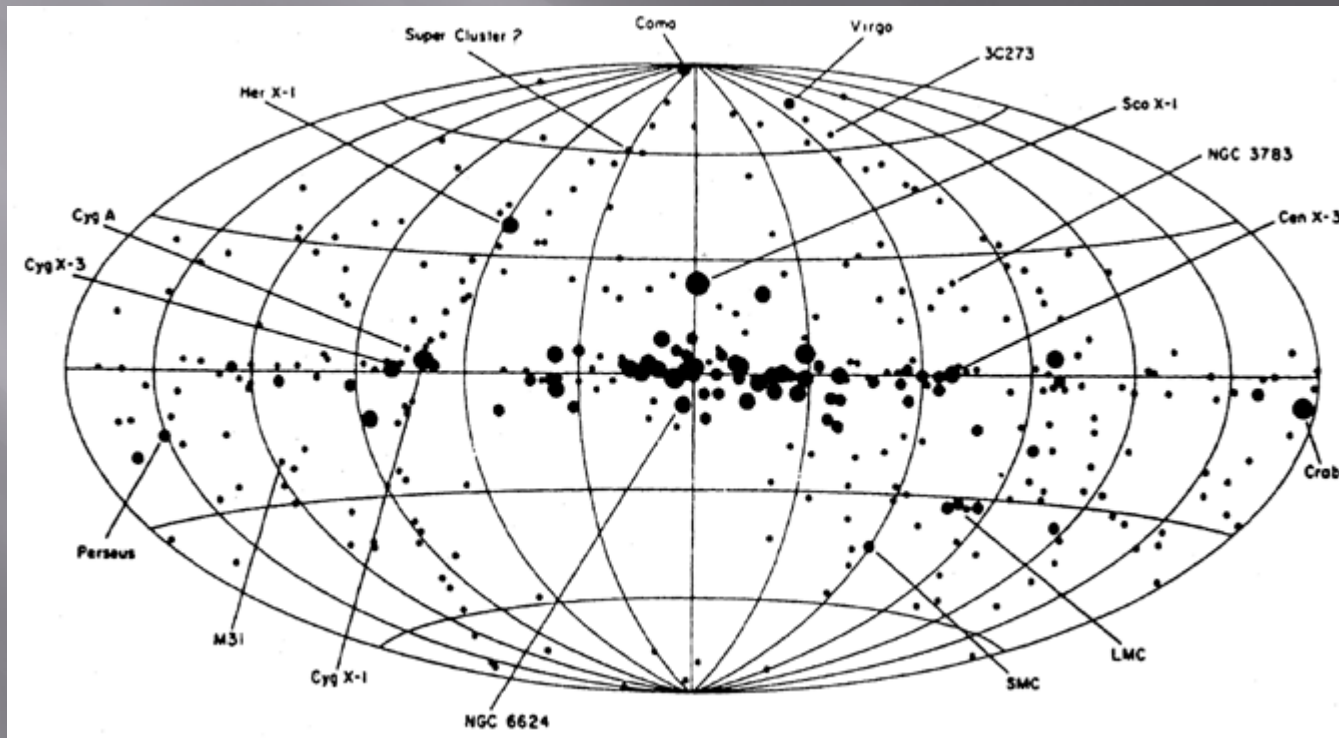
Walter Baade

Charles and Harold
Lower of 1032
Pennsylvania St.,
San Diego

These amateurs
helped to perfect
the survey
instruments on
which Baade
depended.

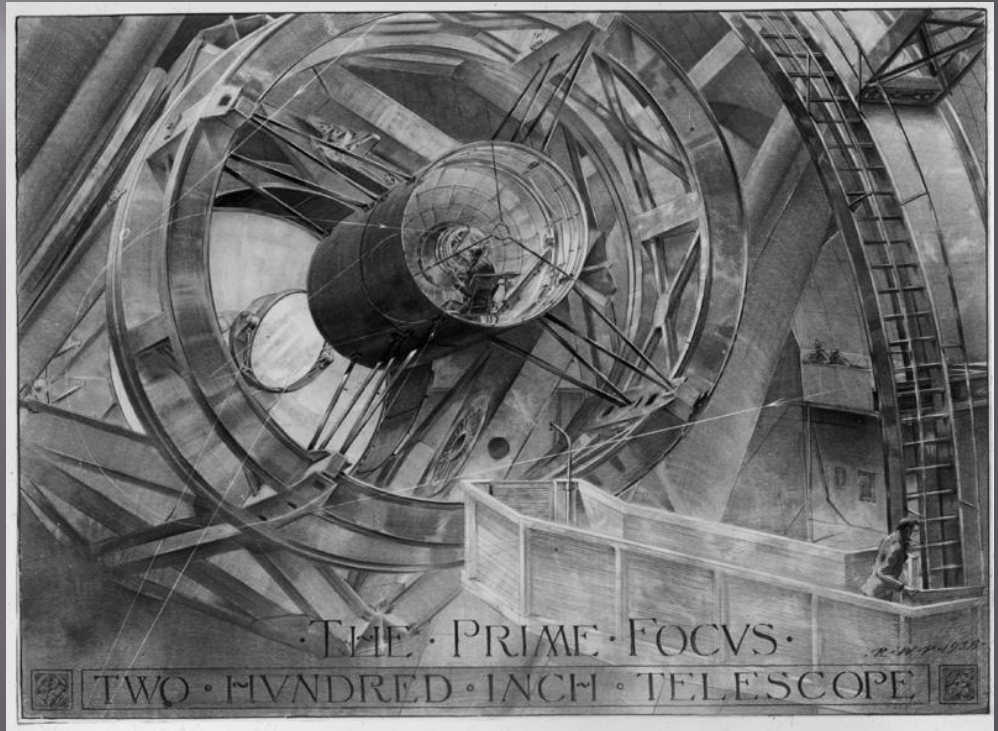


In the late 1950s and early 1960s, surveys with radio telescopes located peculiar objects of very small size emitting enormous amounts of radiation: termed quasi-stellar objects, or quasars.

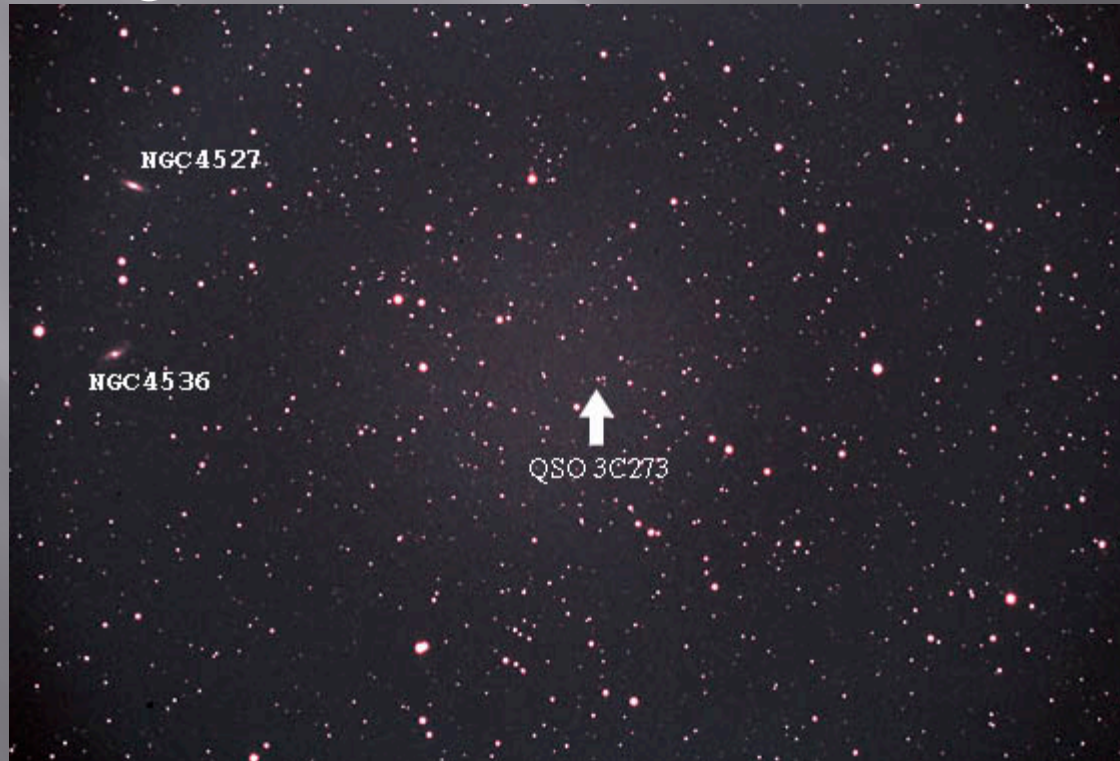


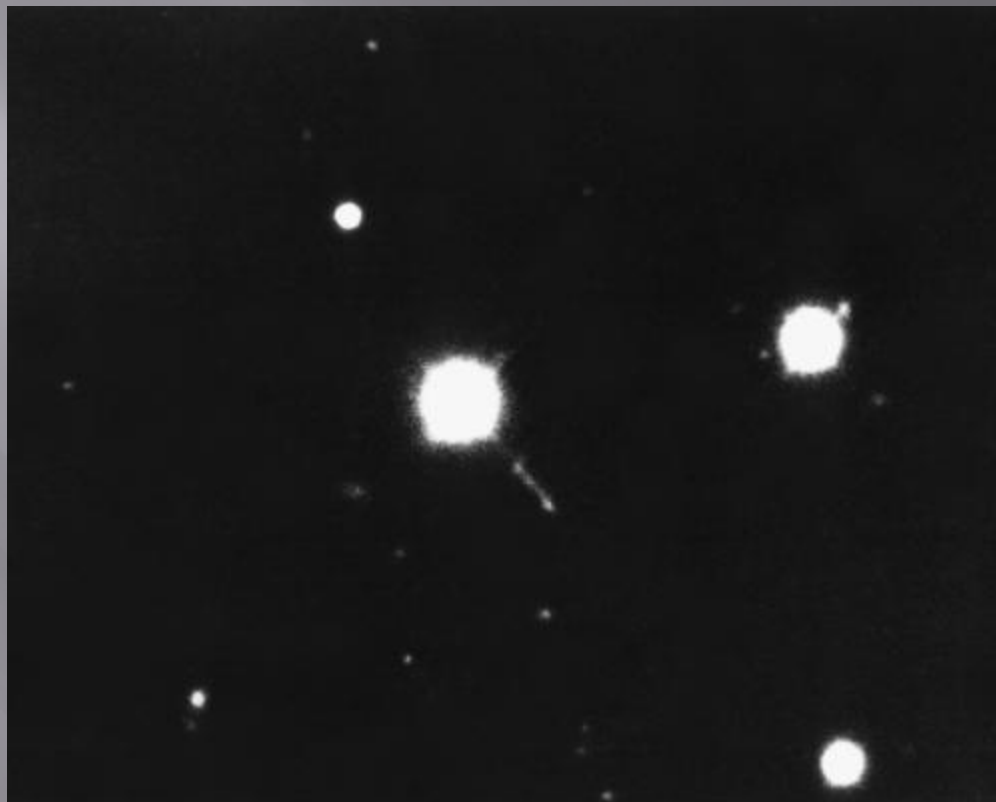


1963: rebirth



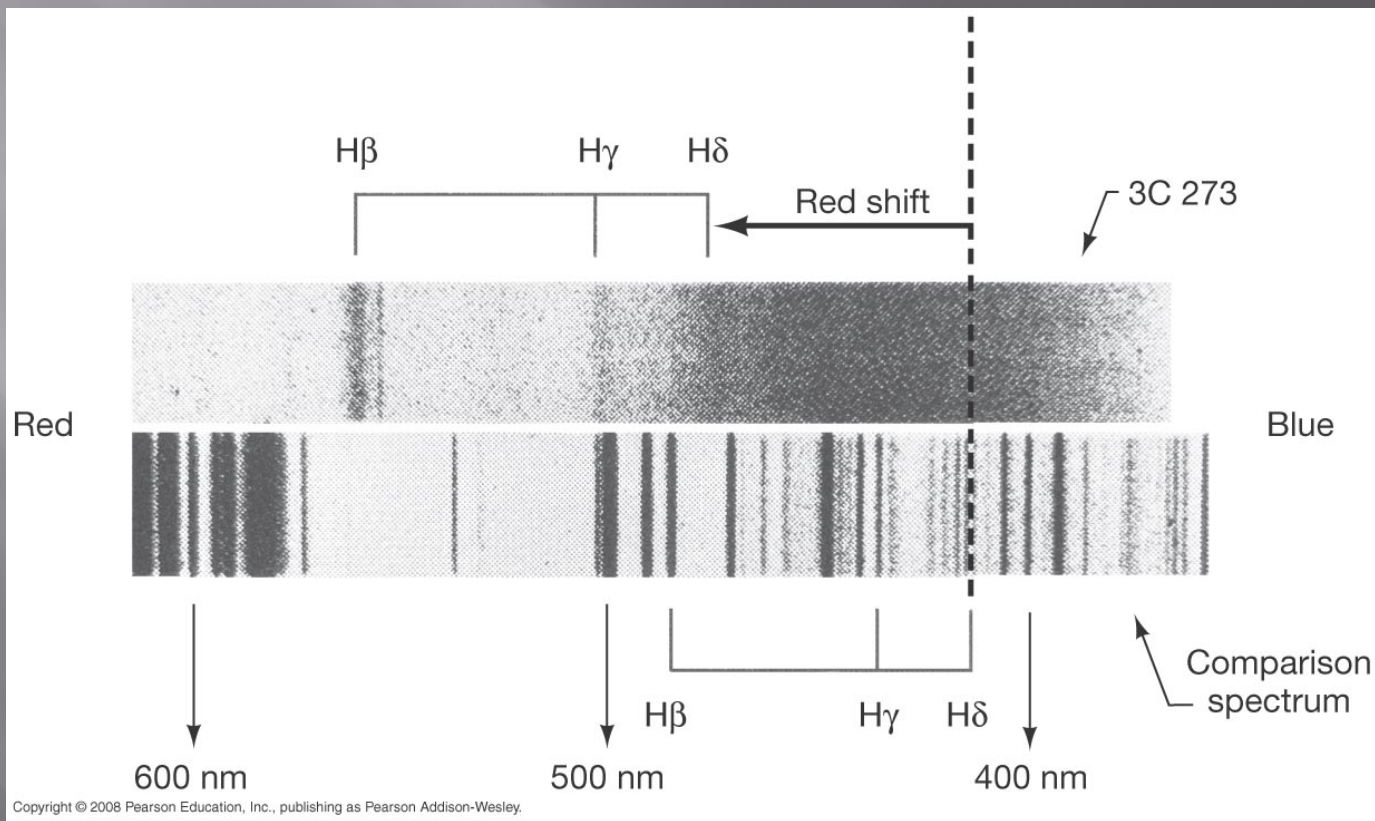
The Parkes radio telescope in Australia provided general locations for a few of these QSOs, and the 200" Palomar telescope provided photographs and spectrograms.





Bright
A jet
Small
Distant.....?

A small object, with an enormous redshift, implying a very great distance and a very great age....a cosmologically significant object, relatively bright for its size...need relativity to explain all this.



..enormous energies,
great distances,
early universe
return of relativity



1963: the rebirth of relativistic cosmology
at the First Texas Symposium on
relativistic astrophysics: note our old
friend Oppenheimer on the right.



At the symposium banquet in the Statler-Hilton Hotel, those at the head table included (left to right): Cyril Hazard, University of Sydney, Australia; Rudolph Minkowski, University of California; Thomas Matthews, California Institute of Technology; W. W. Morgan, Yerkes Observatory; P. G. Bergmann, Yeshiva University; Fred Hoyle, Cambridge University, England; Mrs. E. L. Schucking, University of Texas; and J. Robert Oppenheimer, Institute for Advanced Studies, Princeton. Unless otherwise indicated, delegate pictures with this article are by Al Mitchell, director of information, Graduate Research Center of the Southwest.

1963 quasars

1965 discovery of the cosmic microwave background radiation, as predicted by Alpher, Gamow, and Herman in 1948

1967 discovery of pulsars

All this required relativistic cosmology, which began its Renaissance.

Quasars took on a life of their own....

Quasar Color TV
by MOTOROLA



**HUGE 23" DIAG.
PICTURE
SCREEN**

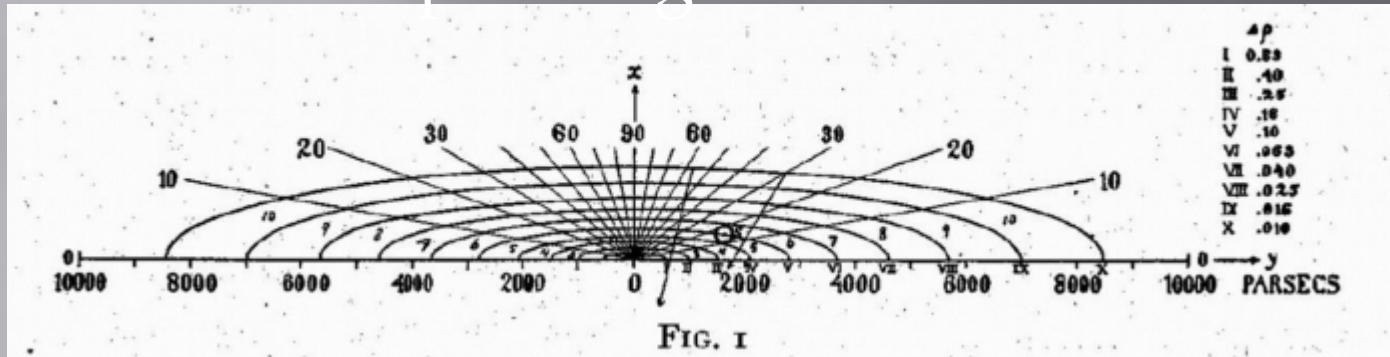
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