

Astrofisica Nucleare e Subnucleare
Gravitational Waves

Exercise on GW

- Find recent information on the status of LIGO, Virgo, KAGRA
- Find the status of the LISA GW observatory
- Find the status of PTA GW methods

Introduzione



Gravitational wave astronomy

past, present and future

Eugenio Cocchia

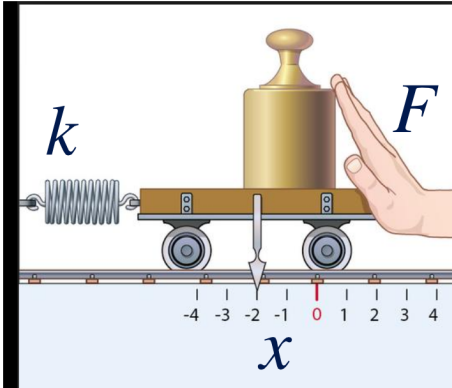
Gran Sasso Science Institute and INFN

SciNeGHE 2016

High-energy gamma-ray experiments at the dawn of gravitational wave astronomy

Pisa, 18 October 2016

Introduzione



$$G_{\mu\nu} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu}$$

$$F = -kx$$

$$F \Leftrightarrow T_{\mu\nu}$$

$$x \Leftrightarrow G_{\mu\nu}$$

$$k \Leftrightarrow \frac{c^4}{8\pi G}$$

$$c = 299\,792\,458 \text{ m/s} = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$$

$$G = 0,000\,000\,000\,066\,7 \frac{\text{m}^3}{\text{kg s}^2} = 6,67 \times 10^{-11} \frac{\text{m}^3}{\text{kg s}^2}$$

$$k \approx 10^{45} \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{s}^2} \quad \text{STIFF!}$$



2 - 13 July 2012
Paris (France)

European Doctorate School

International School of AstroParticle Physics
Multi-Messenger Approach in High Energy Astrophysics

Gravitational Waves Detection And Fourier Methods

ISAPP2012
Paris, France, July 2012

Patrice Hello

Laboratoire de l'Accélérateur Linéaire
Orsay-France



What are Gravitational Waves ?

Gravitational Waves (GW) are ripples of space-time

Theory of GW :

1. Einstein equations:

$$R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu} R = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu}$$

2. Far from sources:

$$R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu} R = 0$$

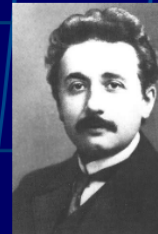
3. Linearization:

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} + h_{\mu\nu}$$

4. Gauge TT:

$$\nabla^2 h_{\mu\nu}^{TT} = 0$$

Propagation of some tensor field – h - on flat space-time



**Prediction
in 1916 !**

Gravitational Wave general properties

- GW propagate at speed of light
- GW have two polarizations “+” and “x”
- GW emission is quadrupolar at lowest order

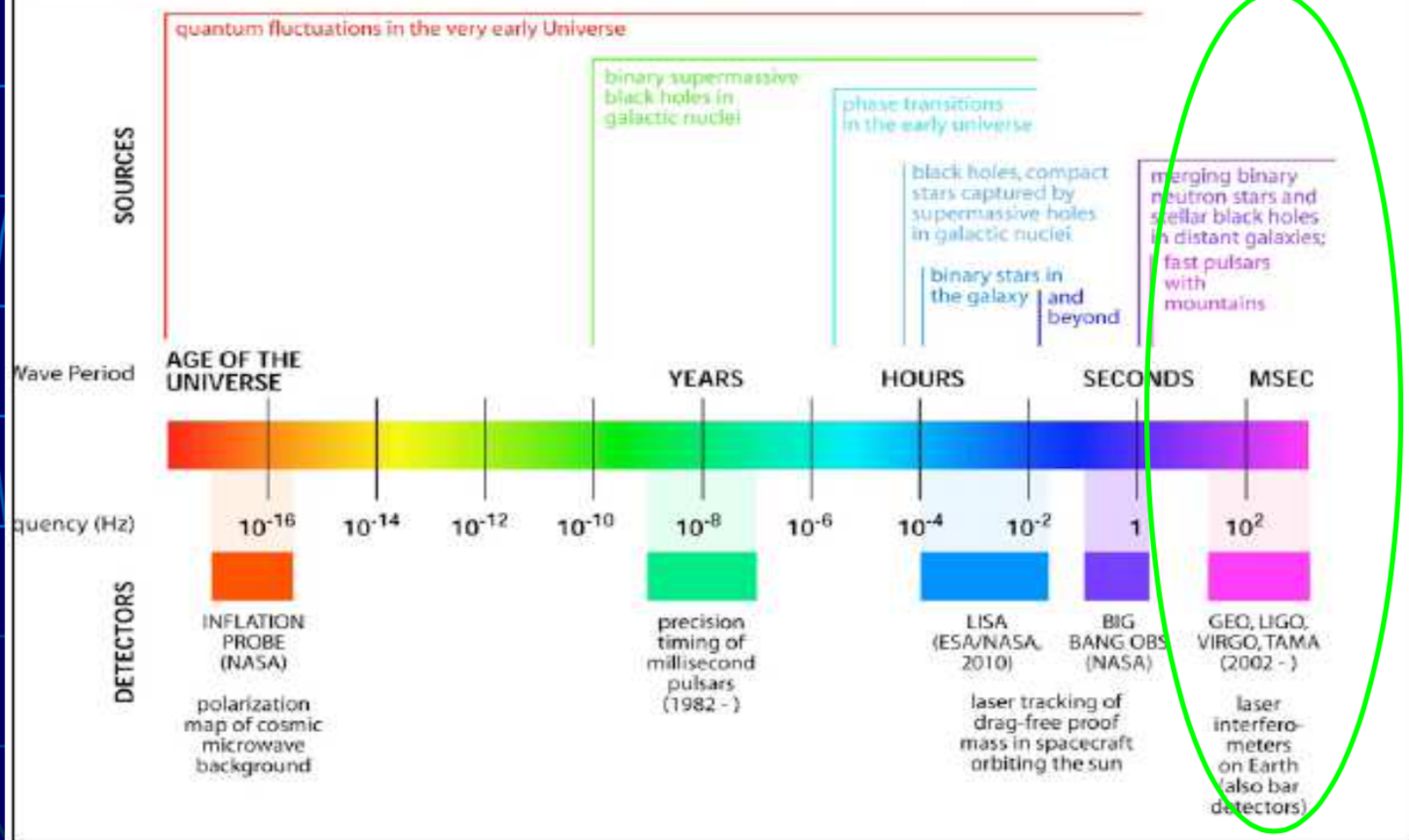
Example: plane wave propagating along z axis with 2 polarization amplitudes h_+ and h_x :

$$h_{\mu\nu}^{TT} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & h_+ & h_x & 0 \\ 0 & h_x & -h_+ & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Corresponding *Graviton* properties:

- Graviton has null mass
- Graviton has spin 2

THE GRAVITATIONAL WAVE SPECTRUM





GW (indirect) discovery PSR 1913+16



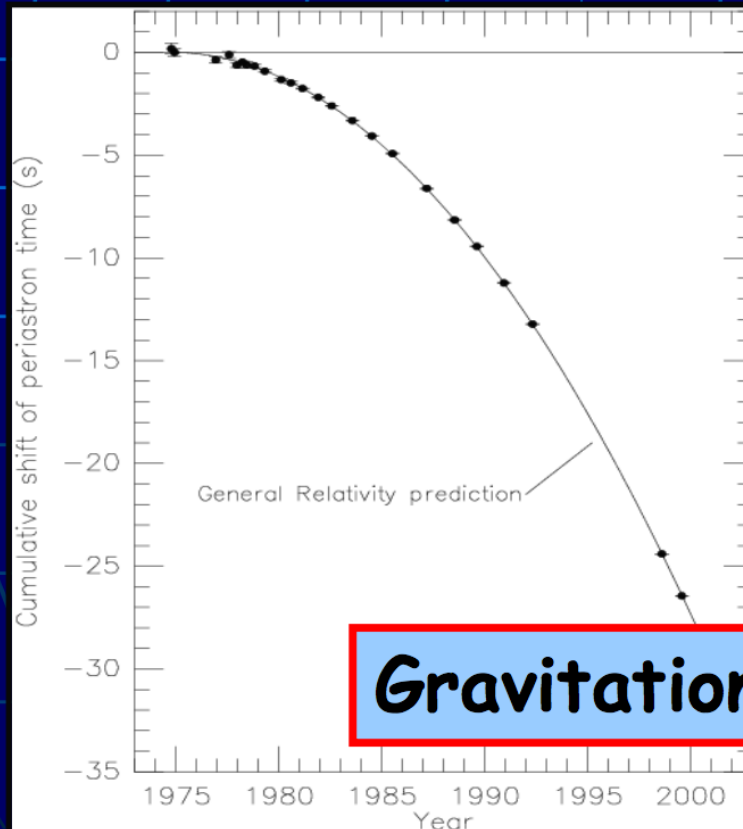
(Hulse & Taylor, Nobel'93)

PSR 1913+16 : binary pulsar (system of 2 neutron stars, one being a radio pulsar seen by radiotelescopes) at ~ 7 kpc from Earth.

⇒ tests of Gravitation theory in strong field and dynamical regime

Loss of energy by GW emission : orbital period decreases

(merge in 300 billions years)



P (s)	27906.9807807(9)
dP/dt	$-2.425(10) \cdot 10^{-12}$
$d\omega/dt$ ($^{\circ}/yr$)	4.226628(18)
M_p	$1.442 \pm 0.003 M_{\odot}$
M_c	$1.386 \pm 0.003 M_{\odot}$

Gravitational Waves do exist !

SUPAGWD

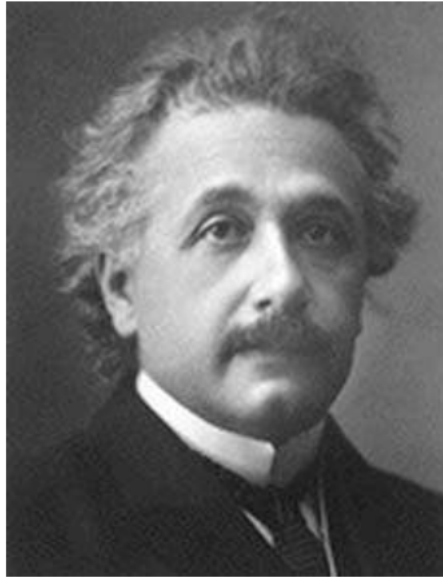
**An Introduction to
General Relativity,
Gravitational Waves
and
Detection Principles**

Prof Martin Hendry
University of Glasgow
Dept of Physics and Astronomy

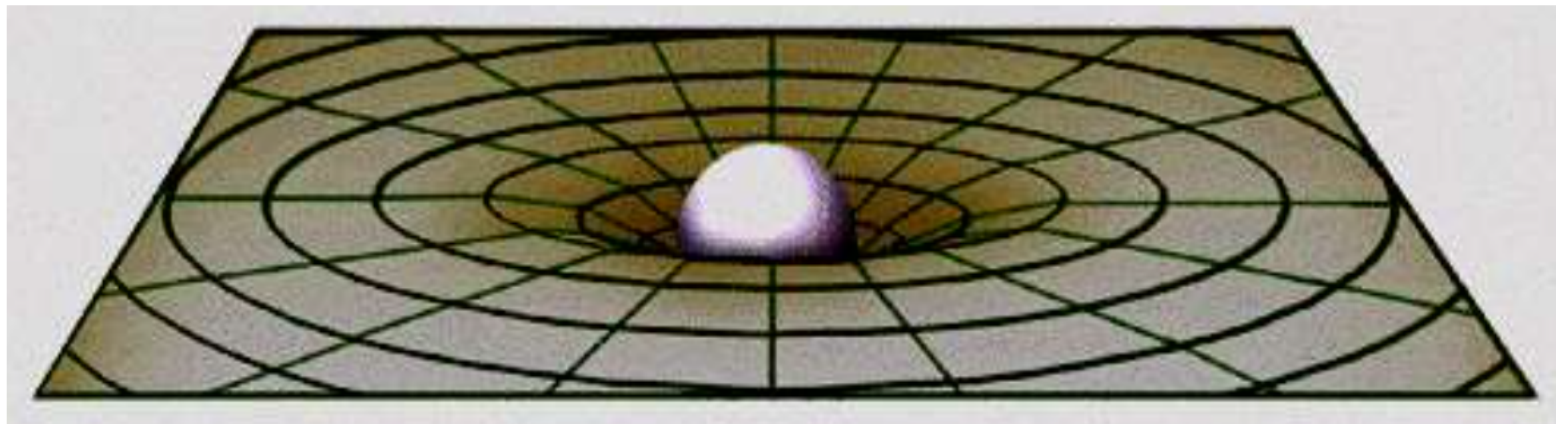
October 2012



Gravity in Einstein's Universe



Spacetime tells matter
how to move, and
matter tells spacetime
how to curve





“...joy and amazement at the beauty and grandeur of this world of which man can just form a faint notion.”

$$G_{\mu\nu} = \kappa T_{\mu\nu}$$

Spacetime
curvature

Matter
(and energy)

6. Wave Equation for Gravitational Radiation (pgs.46 - 57)

Weak gravitational fields

In the absence of a gravitational field, spacetime is flat. We define a weak gravitational field as one in which spacetime is 'nearly flat'

i.e. we can find a coord system such that

$$g_{\alpha\beta} = \eta_{\alpha\beta} + h_{\alpha\beta}$$

where $\eta_{\alpha\beta} = \text{diag}(-1, 1, 1, 1)$
 $|h_{\alpha\beta}| \ll 1$ for all α and β

This is known as a Nearly Lorentz coordinate system.

Einstein's equations for a weak gravitational field

The Einstein tensor is the (rather messy) expression

$$G_{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{2} \left[h_{\mu\alpha,\nu}{}^{,\alpha} + h_{\nu\alpha,\mu}{}^{,\alpha} - h_{\mu\nu,\alpha}{}^{,\alpha} - h_{,\mu\nu} - \eta_{\mu\nu} (h_{\alpha\beta}{}^{,\alpha\beta} - h_{,\beta}{}^{,\beta}) \right]$$

but we can simplify this by introducing $\bar{h}_{\mu\nu} \equiv h_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}\eta_{\mu\nu}h$

So that

$$G_{\mu\nu} = -\frac{1}{2} \left[\bar{h}_{\mu\nu,\alpha}{}^{,\alpha} + \eta_{\mu\nu}\bar{h}_{\alpha\beta}{}^{,\alpha\beta} - \bar{h}_{\mu\alpha,\nu}{}^{,\alpha} - \bar{h}_{\nu\alpha,\mu}{}^{,\alpha} \right]$$

And we can choose the **Lorentz gauge** to eliminate the last 3 terms

Einstein's equations for a weak gravitational field

To first order, the R-C tensor for a weak field reduces to

$$R_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta} = \frac{1}{2} (h_{\alpha\delta,\beta\gamma} + h_{\beta\gamma,\alpha\delta} - h_{\alpha\gamma,\beta\delta} - h_{\beta\delta,\alpha\gamma})$$

and is invariant under gauge transformations.

Similarly, the Ricci tensor is

$$R_{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{2} (h_{\mu,\nu\alpha}^{\alpha} + h_{\nu,\mu\alpha}^{\alpha} - h_{\mu\nu,\alpha}^{\alpha} - h_{,\mu\nu})$$

where

$$h \equiv h_{\alpha}^{\alpha} = \eta^{\alpha\beta} h_{\alpha\beta}$$

$$h_{\mu\nu,\alpha}^{\alpha} = \eta^{\alpha\sigma} (h_{\mu\nu,\alpha})_{,\sigma} = \eta^{\alpha\sigma} h_{\mu\nu,\alpha\sigma}$$

In the Lorentz gauge, then Einstein's equations are simply

$$-\bar{h}_{\mu\nu,\alpha}{}^{,\alpha} = 16\pi T_{\mu\nu}$$

And in free space this gives

$$\bar{h}_{\mu\nu,\alpha}{}^{,\alpha} = 0$$

Writing $\bar{h}_{\mu\nu,\alpha}{}^{,\alpha} \equiv \eta^{\alpha\alpha}\bar{h}_{\mu\nu,\alpha\alpha}$

or

$$\left(-\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} + \nabla^2 \right) \bar{h}_{\mu\nu} = 0$$

Remembering that we are taking $c = 1$, if instead we write

$$\eta^{00} = -\frac{1}{c^2}$$

then

$$\left(-\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} + c^2 \nabla^2 \right) \bar{h}_{\mu\nu} = 0$$

This is a key result. It has the mathematical form of a wave equation, propagating with speed c .

We have shown that the metric perturbations – the ‘ripples’ in spacetime produced by disturbing the metric – propagate at the speed of light as waves in free space.

7. The Transverse Traceless Gauge (pgs.57 - 62)

Simplest solutions of our wave equation are **plane waves**

$$\bar{h}_{\mu\nu} = \text{Re} [A_{\mu\nu} \exp (ik_{\alpha}x^{\alpha})]$$

Wave amplitude

Wave vector

Note the wave amplitude is symmetric \rightarrow 10 independent components.

Thus

$$\omega = k^t = (k_x^2 + k_y^2 + k_z^2)^{1/2}$$

Also, from the Lorentz gauge condition

$$\bar{h}^{\mu\alpha}_{,\alpha} = 0$$

which implies that

$$A_{\mu\alpha} k^\alpha = 0$$

i.e. the wave amplitude components must be orthogonal to the wave vector \mathbf{k} .

But this is 4 equations, one for each value of the index μ .

Hence, we can eliminate 4 more of the wave amplitude components.

Can we do better? **Yes**

Our choice of Lorentz gauge, chosen to simplify Einstein's equations, was not unique. We can make small adjustments to our original Lorentz gauge transformation and still satisfy the Lorentz condition.

We can choose adjustments that will make our wave amplitude components even simpler – we call this choice the **Transverse Traceless** gauge:

$$A_{\mu}^{\mu} = \eta^{\mu\nu} A_{\mu\nu} = 0 \quad (\text{traceless})$$

$$A_{\alpha t} = 0 \quad \text{for all } \alpha$$

Suppose we orient our coordinate axes so that the plane wave is travelling in the positive z direction. Then

$$k^t = \omega, \quad k^x = k^y = 0, \quad k^z = \omega$$

and

$$A_{\alpha z} = 0 \quad \text{for all } \alpha$$

i.e. there is no component of the metric perturbation in the direction of propagation of the wave. This explains the origin of the ‘Transverse’ part

In the transverse traceless gauge,

$$\bar{h}_{\mu\nu}^{(\text{TT})} = A_{\mu\nu}^{(\text{TT})} \cos[\omega(t - z)]$$

where

$$A_{\mu\nu}^{(\text{TT})} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & A_{xx}^{(\text{TT})} & A_{xy}^{(\text{TT})} & 0 \\ 0 & A_{xy}^{(\text{TT})} & -A_{xx}^{(\text{TT})} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Also, since the perturbation is traceless

$$\bar{h}_{\alpha\beta}^{(\text{TT})} = h_{\alpha\beta}^{(\text{TT})}$$

8. Effect of Gravitational Waves on Free Particles (pgs.63 - 75)

Choose Background Lorentz frame in which test particle initially at rest. Set up coordinate system according to the TT gauge.

Initial acceleration satisfies $\left(\frac{dU^\beta}{d\tau}\right)_0 = 0$

i.e. coordinates do not change, but adjust themselves as wave passes so that particles remain 'attached' to initial positions.

Coordinates are frame-dependent labels.

What about **proper distance** between neighbouring particles?

Consider two test particles, both initially at rest, one at origin and the other at $x = \epsilon, y = z = 0$

$$\Delta l = \int |g_{\alpha\beta} dx^\alpha dx^\beta|^{1/2}$$

i.e.
$$\Delta l = \int_0^\epsilon |g_{xx}|^{1/2} \simeq \sqrt{g_{xx}(x=0)} \epsilon$$

Now
$$g_{xx}(x=0) = \eta_{xx} + h_{xx}^{(TT)}(x=0)$$

so

$$\Delta l \simeq \left[1 + \frac{1}{2} h_{xx}^{(TT)}(x=0) \right] \epsilon$$

In general, this is time-varying

More formally, consider geodesic deviation ξ^α between two particles, initially at rest

i.e. initially with $U^\mu = (1, 0, 0, 0)^T$ $\xi^\beta = (0, \epsilon, 0, 0)^T$

Then
$$\frac{\partial^2 \xi^\alpha}{\partial t^2} = \epsilon R_{ttx}^\alpha = -\epsilon R_{txt}^\alpha$$

and
$$R_{txt}^x = \eta^{xx} R_{xtxt} = -\frac{1}{2} h_{xx,tt}^{(TT)}$$

$$R_{txt}^y = \eta^{yy} R_{ytxt} = -\frac{1}{2} h_{xy,tt}^{(TT)}$$

Hence

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \xi^x = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h_{xx}^{(TT)} \quad \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \xi^y = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h_{xy}^{(TT)}$$

Similarly, two test particles initially separated by ϵ in the y -direction satisfy

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \xi^x = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h_{xy}^{(\text{TT})} \quad \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \xi^y = -\frac{1}{2} \epsilon \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h_{xx}^{(\text{TT})}$$

We can further generalise to a ring of test particles: one at origin, the other initially a

$$x = \epsilon \cos \theta \quad y = \epsilon \sin \theta \quad z = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \xi^x = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \cos \theta \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h_{xx}^{(\text{TT})} + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \sin \theta \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h_{xy}^{(\text{TT})}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \xi^y = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \cos \theta \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h_{xy}^{(\text{TT})} - \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \sin \theta \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h_{xx}^{(\text{TT})}$$

Solutions are:

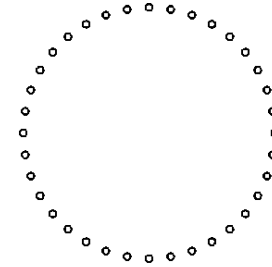
$$\xi^x = \epsilon \cos \theta + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \cos \theta A_{xx}^{(\text{TT})} \cos \omega t + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \sin \theta A_{xy}^{(\text{TT})} \cos \omega t$$

$$\xi^y = \epsilon \sin \theta + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \cos \theta A_{xy}^{(\text{TT})} \cos \omega t - \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \sin \theta A_{xx}^{(\text{TT})} \cos \omega t$$

Suppose we now vary θ between 0 and 2π , so that we are considering an initially circular ring of test particles in the x - y plane, initially equidistant from the origin.

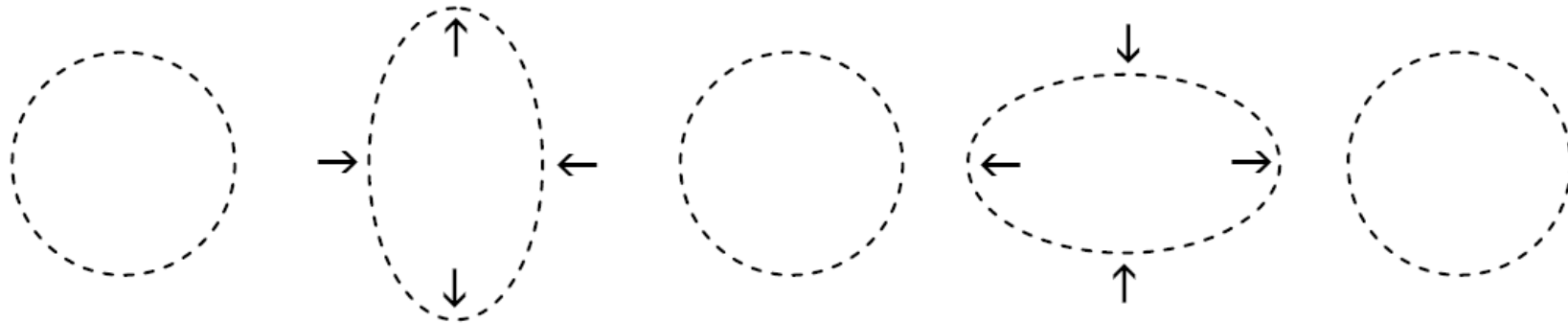
$$A_{xx}^{(TT)} \neq 0 \quad A_{xy}^{(TT)} = 0$$

$$\xi^x = \epsilon \cos \theta \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} A_{xx}^{(TT)} \cos \omega t \right)$$



$$\xi^y = \epsilon \sin \theta \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} A_{xx}^{(TT)} \cos \omega t \right)$$

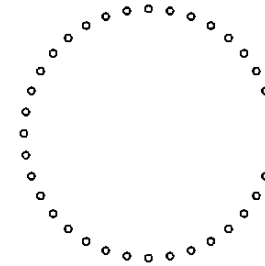
$A_{xx}^{(TT)} \neq 0$ **+ Polarisation**



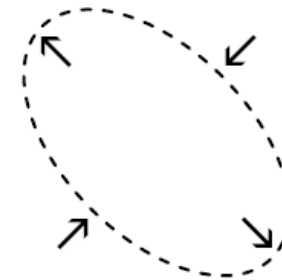
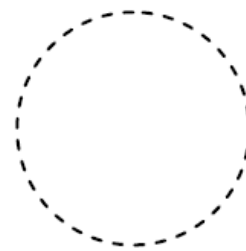
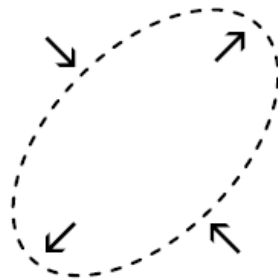
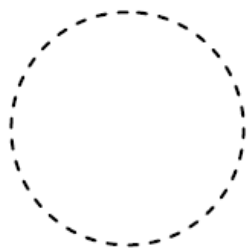
$$A_{xy}^{(TT)} \neq 0 \quad A_{xx}^{(TT)} = 0$$

$$\xi^x = \epsilon \cos \theta + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \sin \theta A_{xy}^{(TT)} \cos \omega t$$

$$\xi^y = \epsilon \sin \theta + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \cos \theta A_{xy}^{(TT)} \cos \omega t$$



$A_{xy}^{(TT)} \neq 0$ **× Polarisation**



- The two solutions, for $A_{xx}^{(\text{TT})} \neq 0$ and $A_{xy}^{(\text{TT})} \neq 0$ represent two independent gravitational wave **polarisation states**, and these states are usually denoted by ‘+’ and ‘×’ respectively. In general any gravitational wave propagating along the z -axis can be expressed as a linear combination of the ‘+’ and ‘×’ polarisations, i.e. we can write the wave as

$$\mathbf{h} = a \mathbf{e}_+ + b \mathbf{e}_\times$$

where a and b are scalar constants and the *polarisation tensors* \mathbf{e}_+ and \mathbf{e}_\times are

$$\mathbf{e}_+ = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{e}_\times = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Distortions are **quadrupolar** - consequence of fact that acceleration of geodesic deviation non-zero only for tidal gravitational field.

9. The Production of Gravitational Waves (pgs 76 - 80)

We can understand something important about the nature of gravitational radiation by drawing analogies with the formulae that describe electromagnetic radiation. This approach is crude at best since the electromagnetic field is a vector field while the gravitational field is a tensor field, but it is good enough for our present purposes. Essentially, we will take familiar electromagnetic radiation formulae and simply replace the terms which involve the Coulomb force by their gravitational analogues from Newtonian theory.

$$L_{\text{electric dipole}} \propto e^2 \ddot{\mathbf{d}}^2$$

Net electric
dipole moment

$$L_{\text{magnetic dipole}} \propto \ddot{\mu}$$

$$\mu = \sum_{q_i} (\text{position of } q_i) \times (\text{current due to } q_i)$$

Gravitational analogues?...

Mass dipole moment:

$$\mathbf{d} = \sum_{A_i} m_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

But $\dot{\mathbf{d}} = \sum_{A_i} m_i \dot{\mathbf{x}}_i \equiv \mathbf{p}$

Conservation of **linear momentum** implies no mass dipole radiation

$$L_{\text{magnetic dipole}} \propto \ddot{\mu}$$

$$\mu = \sum_{q_i} (\text{position of } q_i) \times (\text{current due to } q_i)$$

Gravitational analogues?...

$$\mu = \sum_{A_i} (\mathbf{x}_i) \times (m_i \mathbf{v}_i) \equiv \mathbf{J}$$

Conservation of **angular momentum** implies no mass dipole radiation

Also, the quadrupole of a **spherically symmetric mass distribution** is zero.

Metric perturbations which are spherically symmetric don't produce gravitational radiation.

Example: binary neutron star system.

$$h_{\mu\nu} = \frac{2G}{c^4 r} \ddot{I}_{\mu\nu}$$

where $I_{\mu\nu}$ is the **reduced quadrupole moment** defined as

$$I_{\mu\nu} = \int \rho(\vec{r}) \left(x_\mu x_\nu - \frac{1}{3} \delta_{\mu\nu} r^2 \right) dV$$

Metodi di rivelazione

Chapter 14

Measurement of Classical Gravitation Fields

Felix Pirani

Because of the principle of equivalence, one cannot ascribe a direct physical interpretation to the gravitational field insofar as it is characterized by Christoffel symbols $\Gamma_{\nu\rho}^{\mu}$. One can, however, give an invariant interpretation to the variations of the gravitational field. These variations are described by the Riemann tensor; therefore, measurements of the relative acceleration of neighboring free particles, which yield information about the variation of the field, will also yield information about the Riemann tensor.

Now the relative motion of free particles is given by the equation of geodesic deviation

$$\frac{\partial^2 \eta^\mu}{\partial \tau^2} + R_{\nu\rho\sigma}^{\mu} \eta^\nu v^\rho v^\sigma = 0 \quad (\mu, \nu, \rho, \sigma = 1, 2, 3, 4) \quad (14.1)$$

Here η^μ is the infinitesimal orthogonal displacement from the (geodesic) worldline ζ of a free particle to that of a neighboring similar particle. v^ν is the 4-velocity of the first particle, and τ the proper time along ζ . If now one introduces an orthonormal frame on ζ , v^μ being the timelike vector of the frame, and assumes that the frame is parallelly propagated along ζ (which insures that an observer using this frame will see things in as Newtonian a way as possible) then the equation of geodesic deviation (14.1) becomes

$$\frac{\partial^2 \eta^a}{\partial \tau^2} + R_{0b0}^a \eta^b = 0 \quad (a, b = 1, 2, 3,) \quad (14.2)$$

Here η^a are the physical components of the infinitesimal displacement and R_{0b0}^a some of the physical components of the Riemann tensor, referred to the orthonormal frame.

By measurements of the relative accelerations of several different pairs of particles, one may obtain full details about the Riemann tensor. One

can thus very easily imagine an experiment for measuring the physical components of the Riemann tensor.

Now the Newtonian equation corresponding to (14.2) is

$$\frac{\partial^2 \eta^a}{\partial \tau^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^a \partial x^b} \eta^b = 0 \quad (14.3)$$

It is interesting that the empty-space field equations in the Newtonian and general relativity theories take the same form when one recognizes the correspondence $R_{0b0}^a \sim \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^a \partial x^b}$ between equations (14.2) and (14.3), for the respective empty-space equations may be written $R_{0a0}^a = 0$ and $\frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^a \partial x^b} = 0$. (Details of this work are in the course of publication in *Acta Physica Polonica*.)

BONDI: Can one construct in this way an absorber for gravitational energy by inserting a $\frac{d\eta}{d\tau}$ term, to learn what part of the Riemann tensor would be the energy producing one, because it is that part that we want to isolate to study gravitational waves?

PIRANI: I have not put in an absorption term, but I have put in a "spring." You can invent a system with such a term quite easily.

LICHNEROWICZ: Is it possible to study stability problems for η ?

PIRANI: It is the same as the stability problem in classical mechanics, but I haven't tried to see for which kind of Riemann tensor it would blow up.

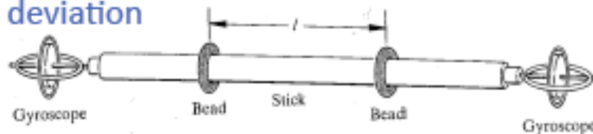
Metodi di rivelazione



F.A.E. Pirani,
GW geodesic
deviation



H. Bondi : beads on
rod, energy in GW



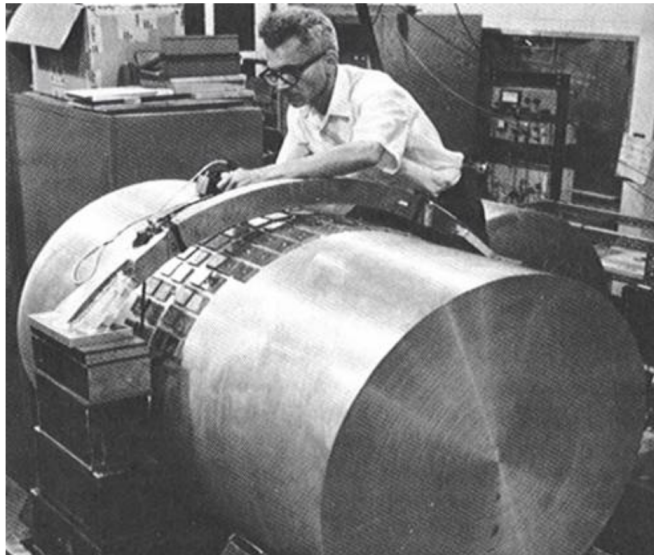
The main point of this presentation was that it is relative accelerations of neighboring free particles that are the physically meaningful (i.e., measurable) ways to observe gravitational effects. Pirani points out the transparent connection between the equation of geodesic deviation and Newton's Second Law, as long as one identifies R_{a0b0} with the second derivative of the Newtonian potential (i.e., as the tidal field.)

To make sure everyone sees how important and simple this is, he remarks, “By measurements of the relative accelerations of several different pairs of particles, one may obtain full details about the Riemann tensor. One can thus very easily imagine an experiment for measuring the physical components of the Riemann tensor”.

from: P. Saulson, *Gen Relativ Gravit* (2011) 43:3289–3299

Metodi di rivelazione

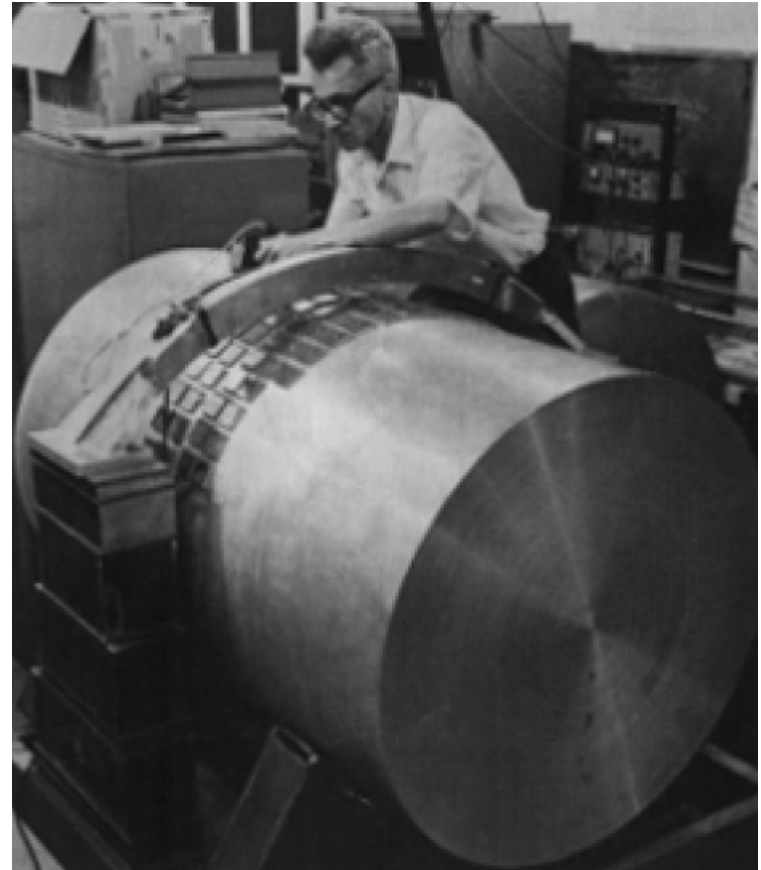
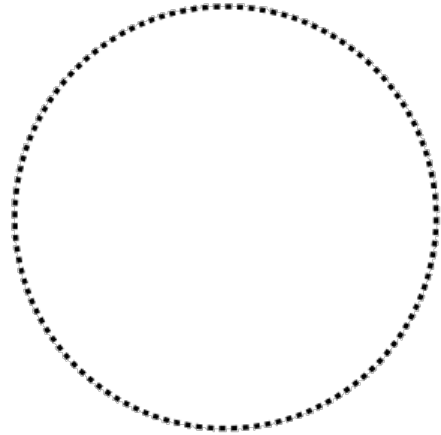
Weber's bar



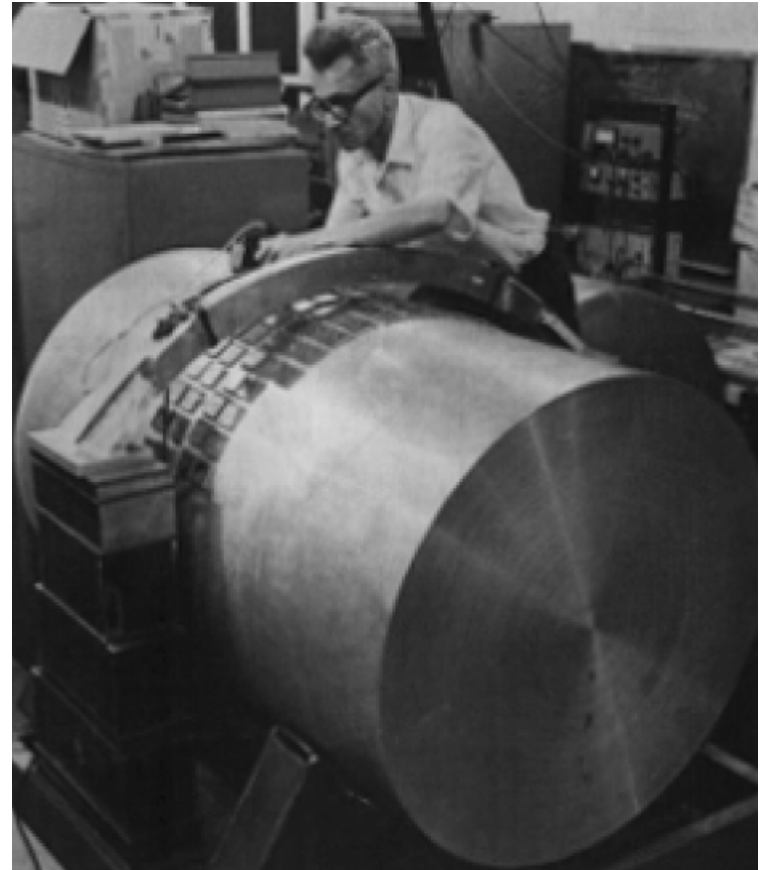
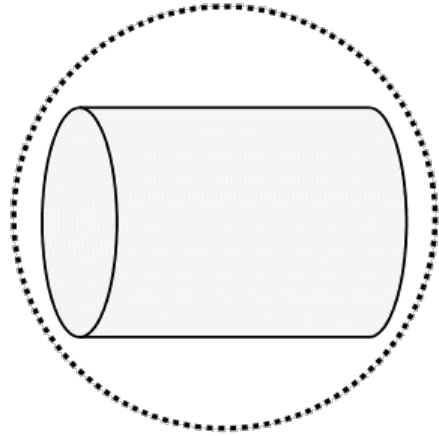
Weber's detector embodied Pirani's *gedankenexperiment*.

It was a cylinder of aluminum, each end of which is like a test mass, while the center is like a spring. PZT's around the midline absorb energy to send to an electrical amplifier.

Design of gravitational wave detectors



Design of gravitational wave detectors



Metodi di rivelazione

Weber started seeing things

In 1969, Weber made his first of many announcements that he was seeing coincident excitations of two detectors.

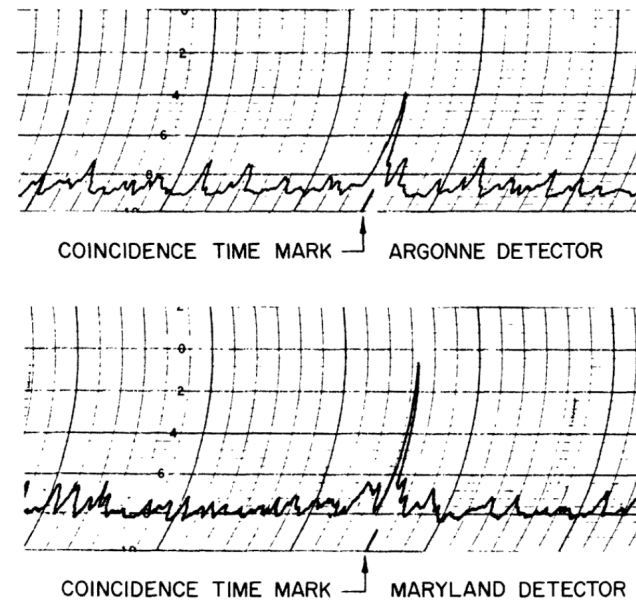
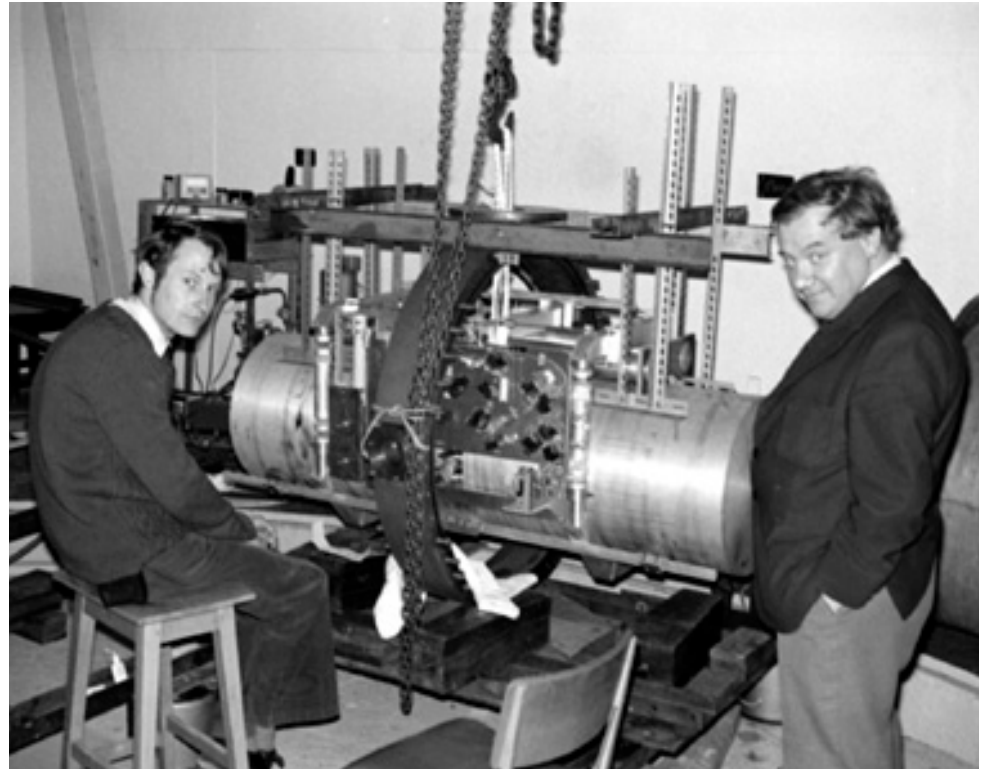
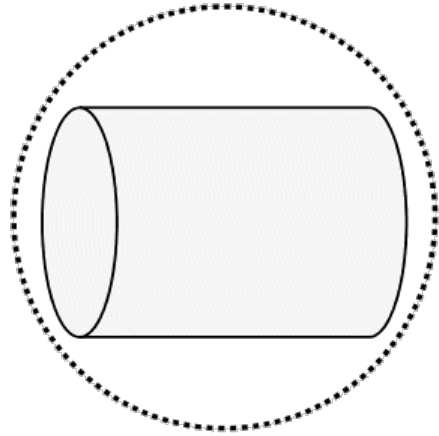
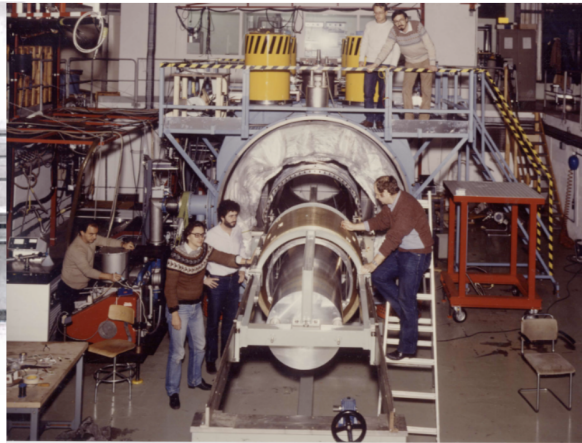


FIG. 2. Argonne National Laboratory and University of Maryland detector coincidence.

Design of gravitational wave detectors



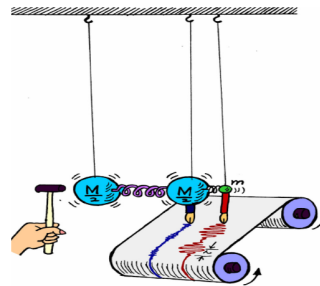
Metodi di rivelazione



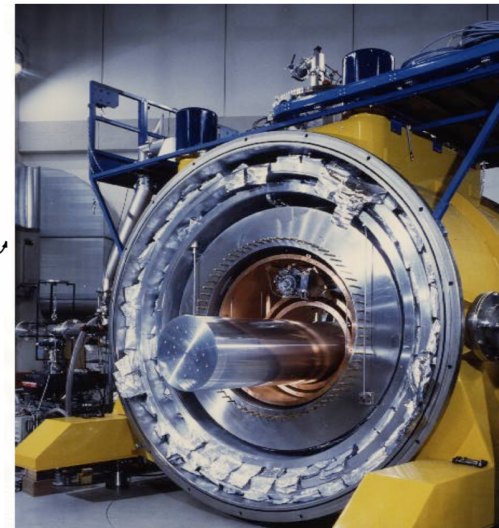
Explorer, CERN



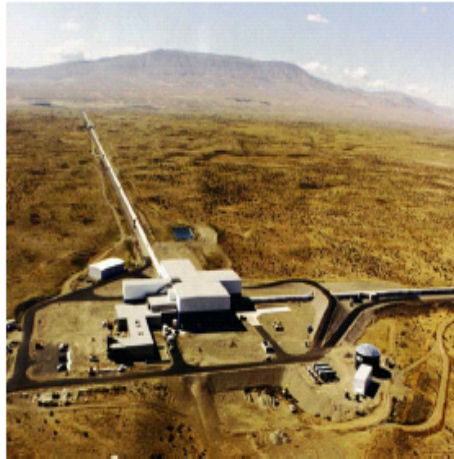
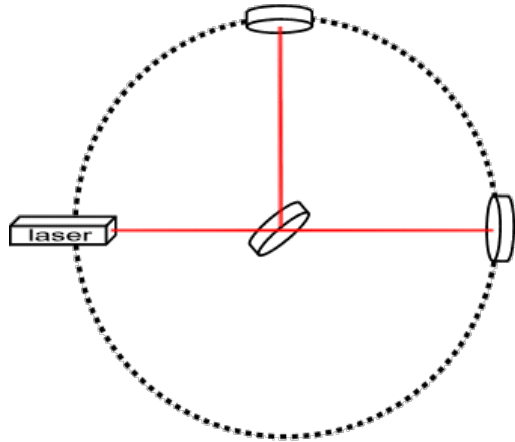
Nautilus, LNF

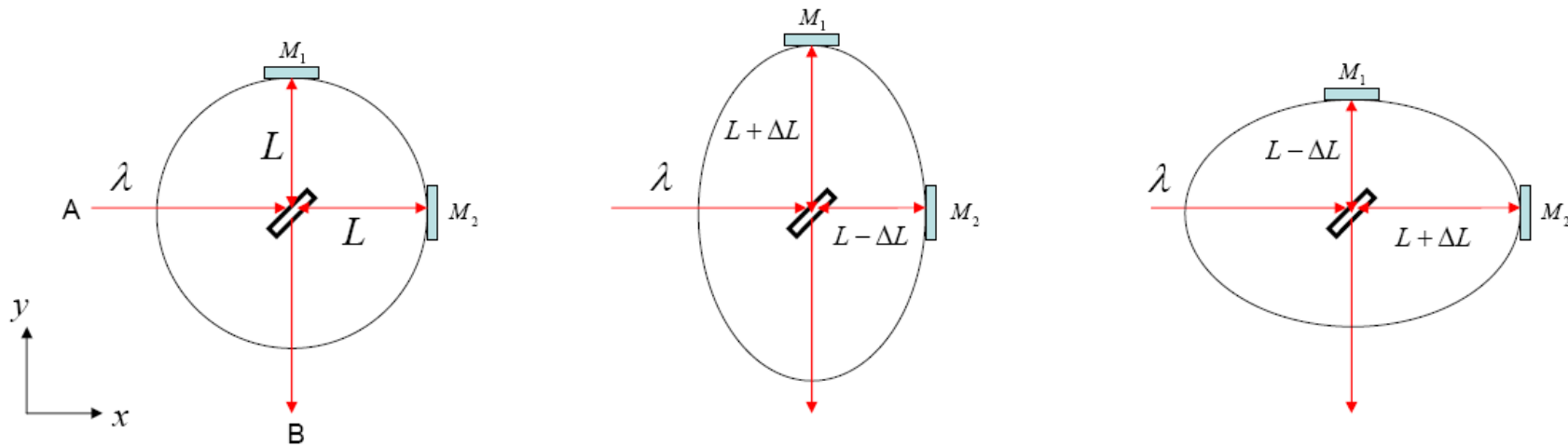


Auriga, LNL



34 yrs on - Interferometric ground-based detectors





Gravitational wave $\mathbf{h} = h\mathbf{e}_+$ propagating along z axis.

Fractional change in proper separation

$$\frac{\Delta L}{L} = \frac{h}{2}$$

More generally, for $\mathbf{h} = h \mathbf{e}_+$

Detector 'sees'

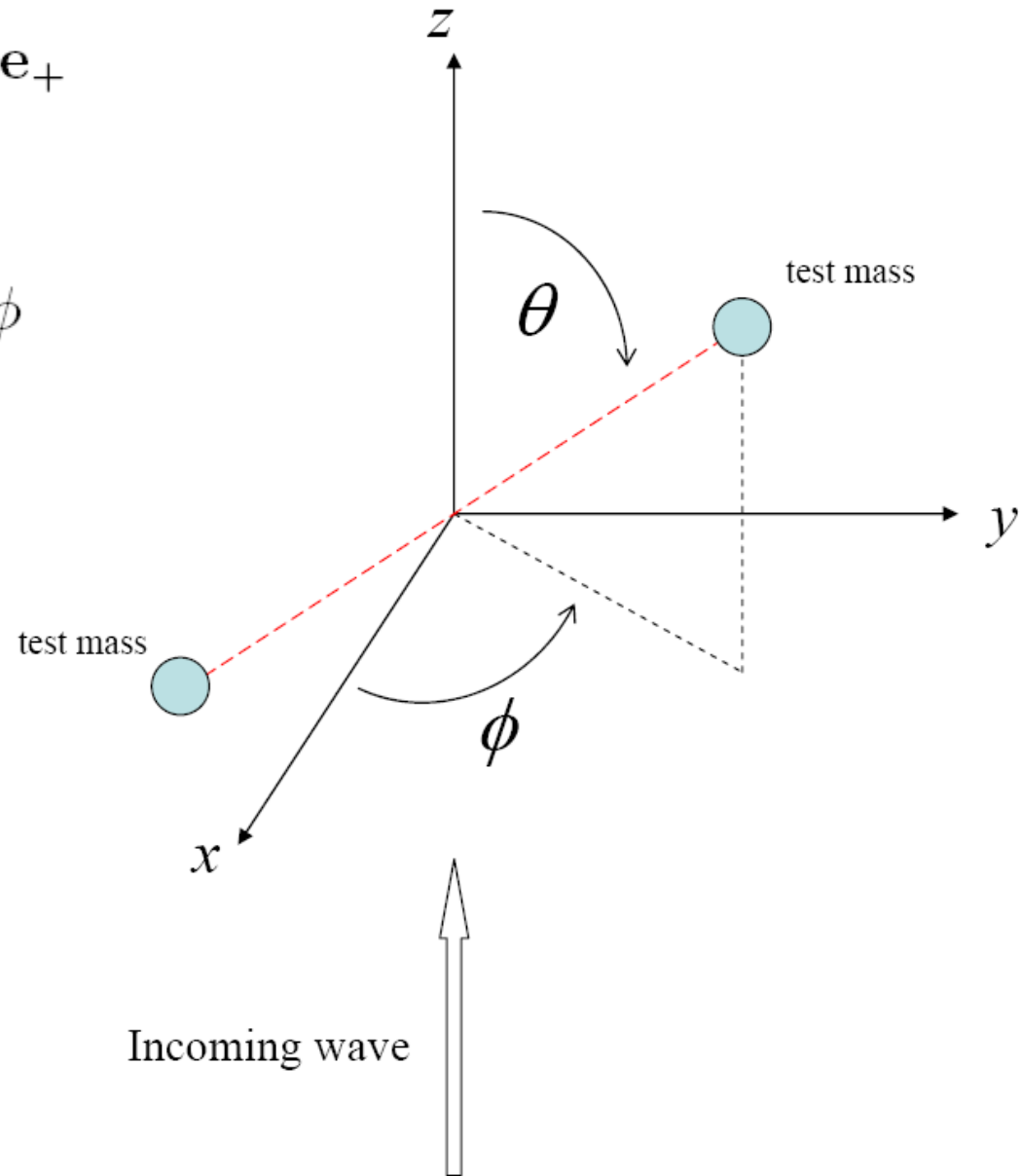
$$h_+ = h \sin^2 \theta \cos 2\phi$$

Maximum response for

$$\theta = \pi/2 \quad \phi = 0$$

Null response for

$$\theta = 0 \quad \phi = \pi/4$$



More generally, for $\mathbf{h} = h \mathbf{e}_x$

Detector 'sees'

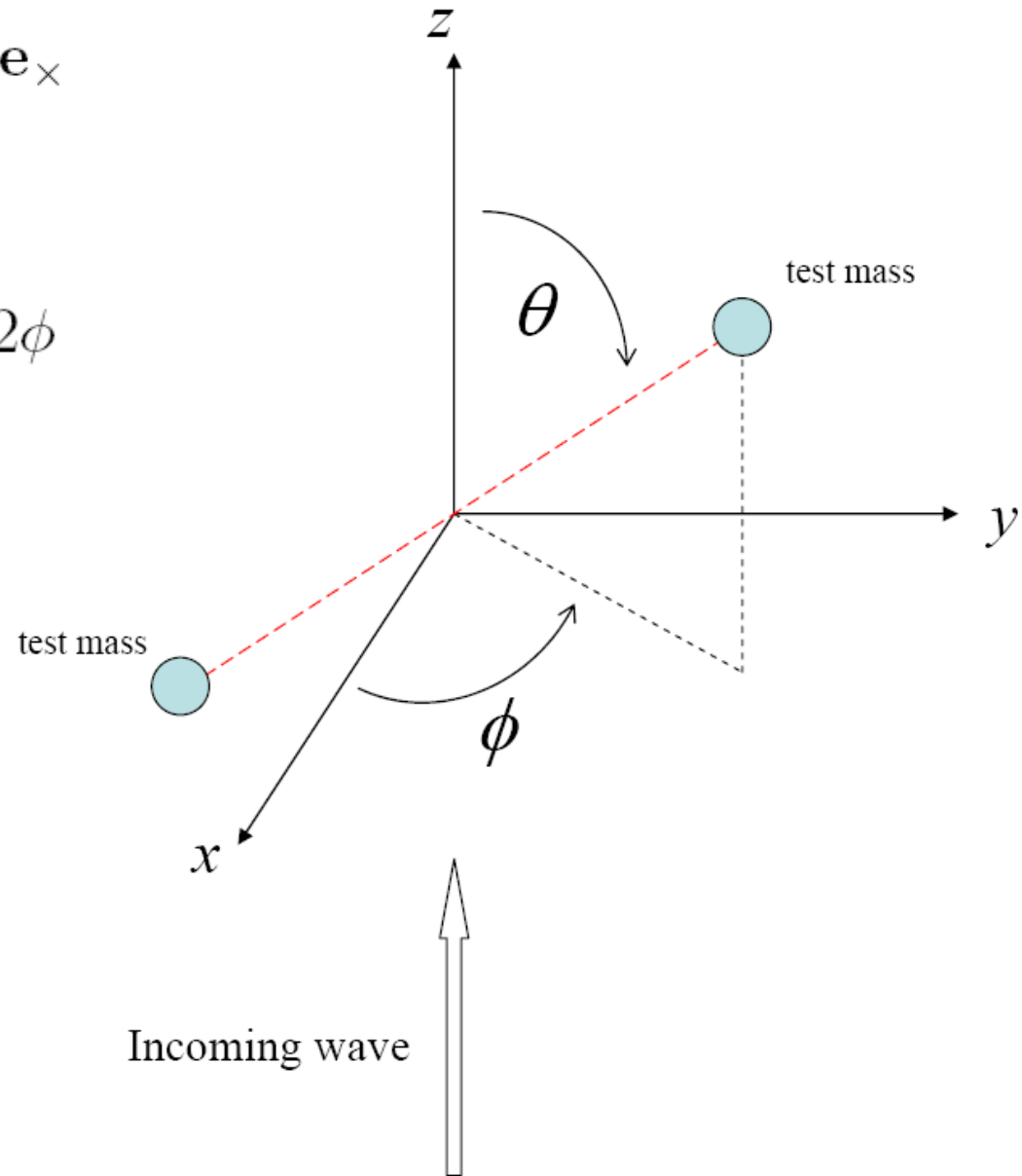
$$h_x = h \sin^2 \theta \sin 2\phi$$

Maximum response for

$$\theta = \pi/2 \quad \phi = \pi/4$$

Null response for

$$\theta = 0 \quad \phi = 0$$



Astrofisica Nucleare e Subnucleare

Sources of GW

Gravitational Wave emission (quadrupole formalism)

Emission equation in the TT Gauge: $\nabla^2 h_{\mu\nu}^{TT} = -\frac{16\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu}$

Retarded solution: $h_{\mu\nu}^{TT}(\vec{x}, t) = \frac{2G}{Rc^4} \ddot{Q}_{\mu\nu}^{TT}(t - R/c)$

Hence: $h_+^{TT}(\vec{x}, t) = \frac{G}{Rc^4} [\ddot{Q}_{11}^{TT} - \ddot{Q}_{22}^{TT}](t - R/c)$ $h_{\times}^{TT}(\vec{x}, t) = \frac{2G}{Rc^4} [\ddot{Q}_{12}^{TT}](t - R/c)$

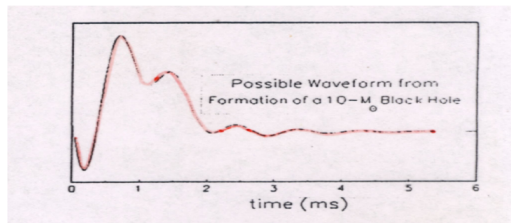
Where the **reduced quadrupole** moment:

$$Q_{\mu\nu}^{TT} = \iiint d^3x \rho (x_{\mu} x_{\nu} - \frac{1}{3} \delta_{\mu\nu} r^2)$$

Regular quadrupole (inertia) moment: $q_{\mu\nu} = \iiint d^3x \rho x_{\mu} x_{\nu}$

$\rho \sim T_{00}/c^2$: density of the source

Tipi di segnale

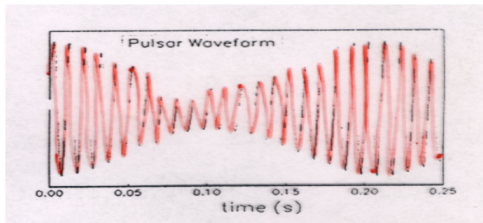


SUPERNOVAE.

If the collapse core is non-symmetrical, the event can give off considerable radiation in a millisecond timescale.

Information

Inner detailed dynamics of supernova
See NS and BH being formed
Nuclear physics at high density

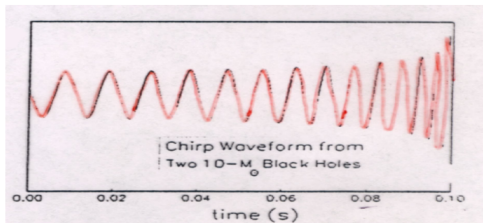


SPINNING NEUTRON STARS.

Pulsars are rapidly spinning neutron stars. If they have an irregular shape, they give off a signal at constant frequency (prec./Dpl.)

Information

Neutron star locations near the Earth
Neutron star Physics
Pulsar evolution

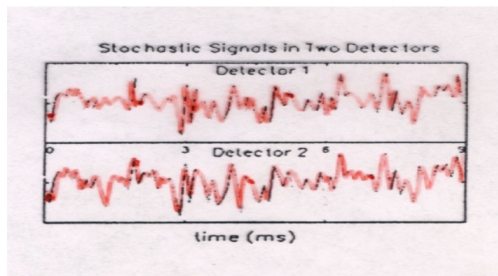


COALESCING BINARIES.

Two compact objects (NS or BH) spiraling together from a binary orbit give a chirp signal, whose shape identifies the masses and the distance

Information

Masses of the objects
BH identification
Distance to the system
Hubble constant
Test of strong-field general relativity



STOCHASTIC BACKGROUND.

Random background, relic of the early universe and depending on unknown particle physics. It will look like noise in any one detector, but two detectors will be correlated.

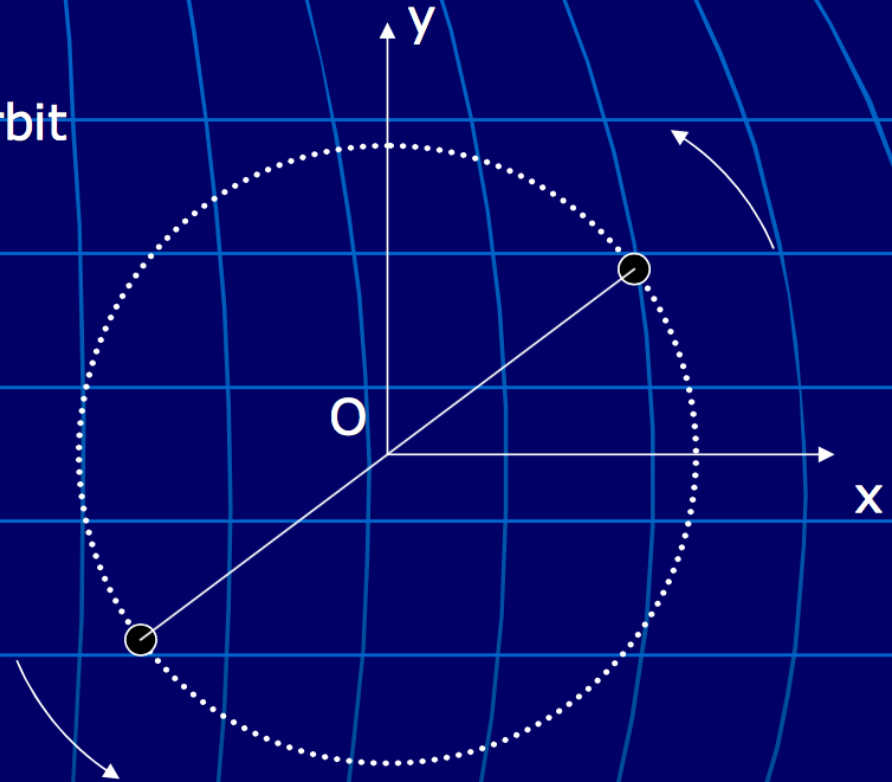
Information

Confirmation of Big Bang, and inflation
Unique probe to the Planck epoch
Existence of cosmic strings

Gravitational Wave emission: an example

2 identical point masses in circular orbit
around their center of mass

- Orbital plane : xOy
- Mass : M
- Orbit radius : a
- Orbital frequency : $f_0 = 2\pi\omega_0$



Q: Compute the 2 amplitudes $h_+(t)$ and $h_x(t)$ at a distance r on the z axis
(without taking into account the radiation reaction !)

Gravitational Wave emission: an example

Positions of the two masses:

$$x_1(t) = a \cos(\omega_0 t)$$

$$x_2(t) = -a \cos(\omega_0 t)$$

$$y_1(t) = a \sin(\omega_0 t)$$

$$y_2(t) = -a \sin(\omega_0 t)$$

So compute the reduced inertia tensor:

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} ma^2 \left(\frac{1}{3} + \cos(2\omega_0 t) \right) & ma^2 \sin(2\omega_0 t) & 0 \\ ma^2 \sin(2\omega_0 t) & ma^2 \left(\frac{1}{3} - \cos(2\omega_0 t) \right) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

After projection on the z direction:

$$h_+(t) = -\frac{2G}{rc} ma^2 \omega^2 \cos(\omega(t - r/c))$$

$$h_x(t) = -\frac{2G}{rc} ma^2 \omega^2 \sin(\omega(t - r/c))$$

Where $\omega = 2\omega_0$ is **TWICE** the orbital angular frequency

Note that if we look on the x direction:

$$h_+(t) = -\frac{G}{rc} ma^2 \omega^2 \cos(\omega(t - r/c))$$

$$h_x(t) = 0$$

Face-on binary => **circular** polarization

Edge-on binary => **linear** polarization

Gravitational Wave emission: Orders of magnitude

source	distance	h
Steel bar, 500 T, $\varnothing = 2$ m L = 20 m, 5 cycles/s	1 m	2×10^{-34}
H bomb, 1 megatonne Asymmetry 10%	10 km	2×10^{-39}
Supernova $10 M_{\odot}$ asymmetry 3%	10 Mpc	10^{-21}
Coalescence 2 black holes $10 M_{\odot}$	10 Mpc	10^{-20}

Hertz experiment is impossible for GWs ...

Gravitational Wave sources

Compact stars

“High frequency” sources ($f > 1$ Hz)

- supernovae (bursts)
- binary inspirals (chirps)
- black holes ringdowns (damped sine)
- isolated neutron stars, pulsars (periodic sources)
- stochastic background (stochastic)
- ...

Amplitudes $h(t)$ on Earth ?
Rate of events ?

Gravitational Supernovae

type II SN = gravitational collapse of the core (Fe) of a massive star ($> 10 M_{\odot}$) after having burned all the H fuel \rightarrow neutron star formation

GW Emission ? Depends on asymmetry (**poorly known**)

Sources of asymmetry

- fast rotation (instabilities)
- companion star

Modern models :

$h \sim 10^{-23}$ @ 10 Mpc
 f peaks between 0.3 and 1 kHz
1 SN/ 40 yrs / galaxy

Black hole formation:

Progenitor too massive \rightarrow collapse \rightarrow black hole

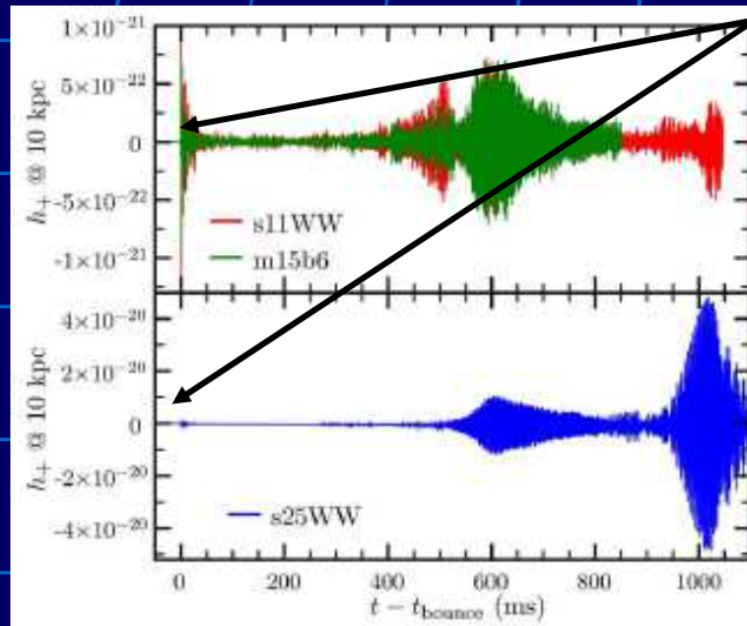
$h \sim 10^{-22}$ @ 10 Mpc
 $f > 1$ kHz

+ oscillations...

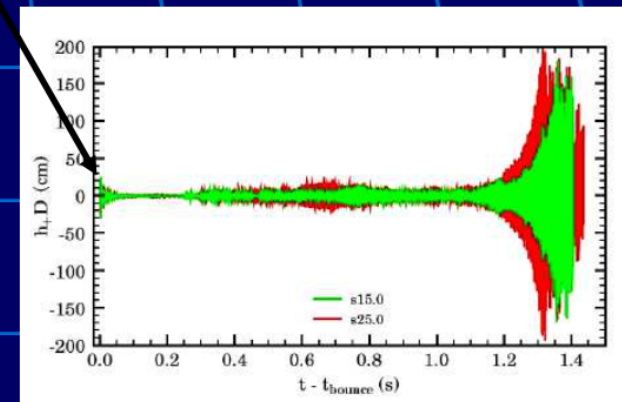
Gravitational Supernovae: GW amplitudes

+ coupling between the proto-neutron star and the envelope
(rotation instabilities induced by turbulence and accretion)

collapse



Ott and Burrows, 2006.



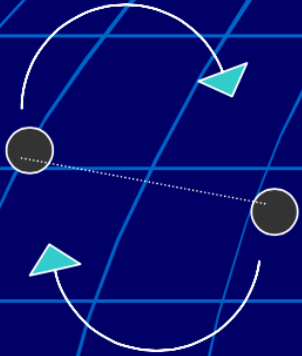
Marek et al., 2008.

Main conclusions:

+ Waveforms not well predicted

+ weak amplitudes -> only Galactic Supernova detectable ?

Binary inspirals: GW amplitudes



System of 2 close compact stars

- Varying quadrupole -> GW emission
- GW emission -> loss of energy and angular momentum
- Loss of (gravitational) energy -> stars become closer
- Finally 2 stars merge (or disrupt)

Spiraling phase
(lowest order)

$$h_+^{TT}(t) = \frac{4(GM)^{5/3}}{Rc^4} \frac{1 + \cos^2 i}{2} (\pi f(t))^{2/3} \cos \varphi(t)$$

$$h_x^{TT}(t) = \frac{4(GM)^{5/3}}{Rc^4} \cos i (\pi f(t))^{2/3} \sin \varphi(t)$$

A "chirp"

$$h(t) \propto (t_c - t)^{-1/4}$$

where

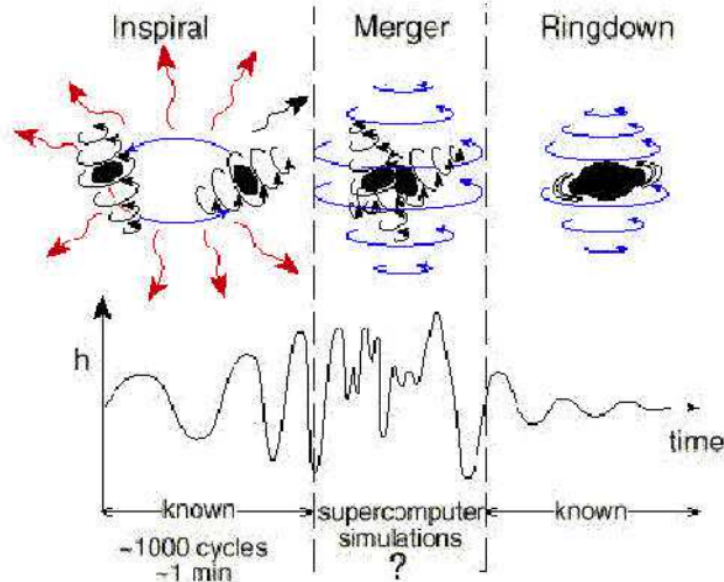
- Chirp mass: $M = \mu^{3/5} M_{tot}^{2/5}$

- frequency: $f(t) = \frac{1}{\pi} \left(\frac{256 (GM)^{5/3}}{5 c^5} (t_c - t) \right)^{-3/8}$

t_c : coalescence time

- Phase: $\varphi(t) = -2 \left(\frac{G^{5/3}}{c^5} \right)^{-3/8} \left(\frac{t_c - t}{5M} \right)^{5/8} + cste$

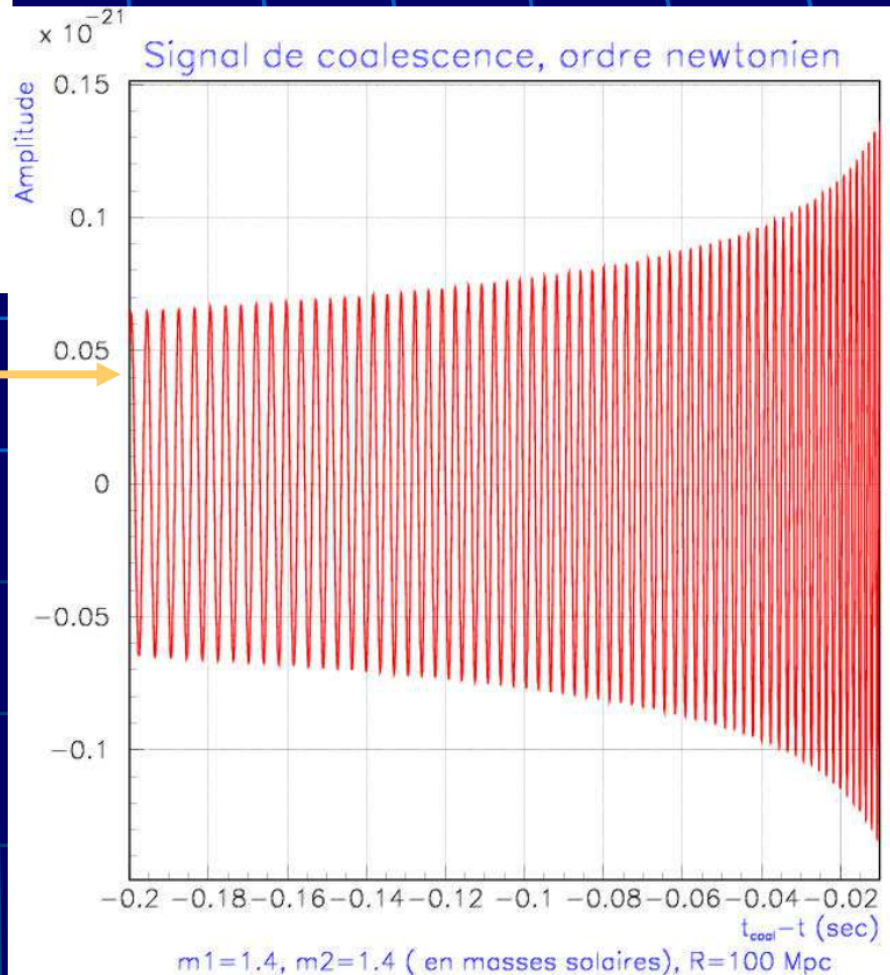
Binary inspirals: the chirp signal



2 neutron stars @ 10Mpc

$$h_{max} \sim 10^{-21}$$

f_{max} (last stable orbit) ~ 1 kHz



- « inspiral » : $h(t)$ is a chirp
- « merger » : recent numerical progress
- « ringdown » : black hole quasi normal modes

Binary inspirals: rate of events (first generation detectors)

- **NS-NS:** $1.4M_{\odot} + 1.4M_{\odot}$ (Kalogera et al astro-ph/0111452)
 - 0.001 – 1 / yr → 20 Mpc
 - **NS-BH:** $1.4M_{\odot} + 10M_{\odot}$
 - 0.001 – 1 / yr → 43 Mpc
 - **BH-BH:** $10M_{\odot} + 10M_{\odot}$
 - 0.001– 1 / yr → 100 Mpc
- **Gain Factor 10** on detector sensitivity
→ gain **factor 1000** on the event rate

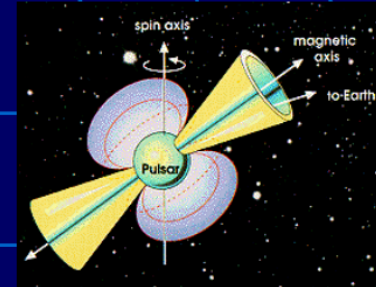
Other sources

Pulsars and rotating Neutron Stars

10^5 pulsars in the Galaxy, several thousands rapidly rotating.

Source of asymmetry ?

- rotation instabilities
- magnetic stress
- "mountains" on the solid crust ...



Radio-astronomy observation of pulsar slowdown sets upper limits on GW emission and neutron star asymmetry (if rate of slowdown totally assigned to GW emission)

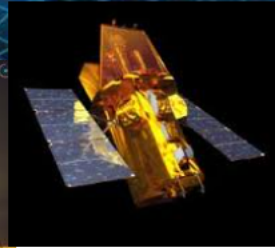
⇒ Expected amplitudes are weak ($h < 10^{-24}$)

$$h \sim 10^{-26} \left(\frac{10 \text{ kpc}}{\text{distance}} \right) \left(\frac{f}{100 \text{ Hz}} \right)^2 \left(\frac{\epsilon}{10^{-6}} \right)$$

But the signal is periodic ! ("simple" Fourier analysis)

Signal to noise ratio $S/N \propto \sqrt{T}$ where T is the observation time

Astrofisica Nucleare e Subnucleare
Ground Detectors for GW



Gravitational waves – Experiments and sources I PART



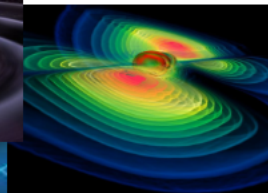
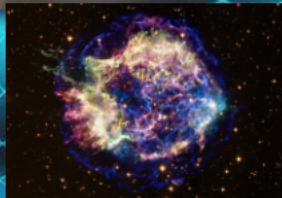
M. Branchesi



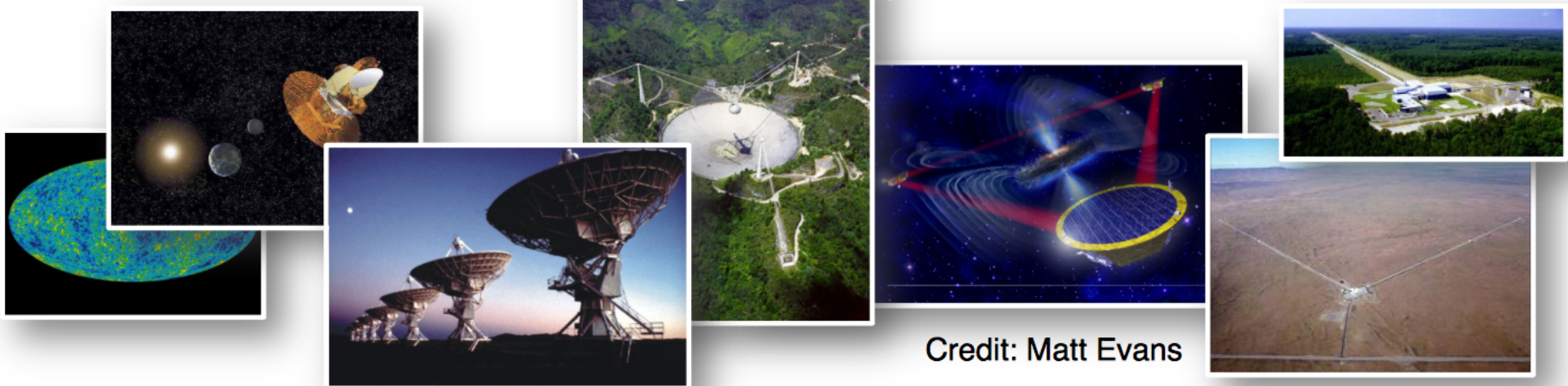
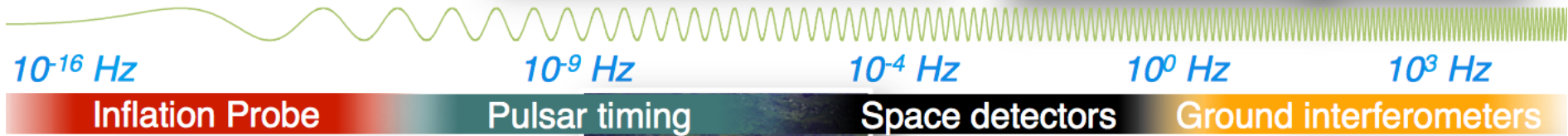
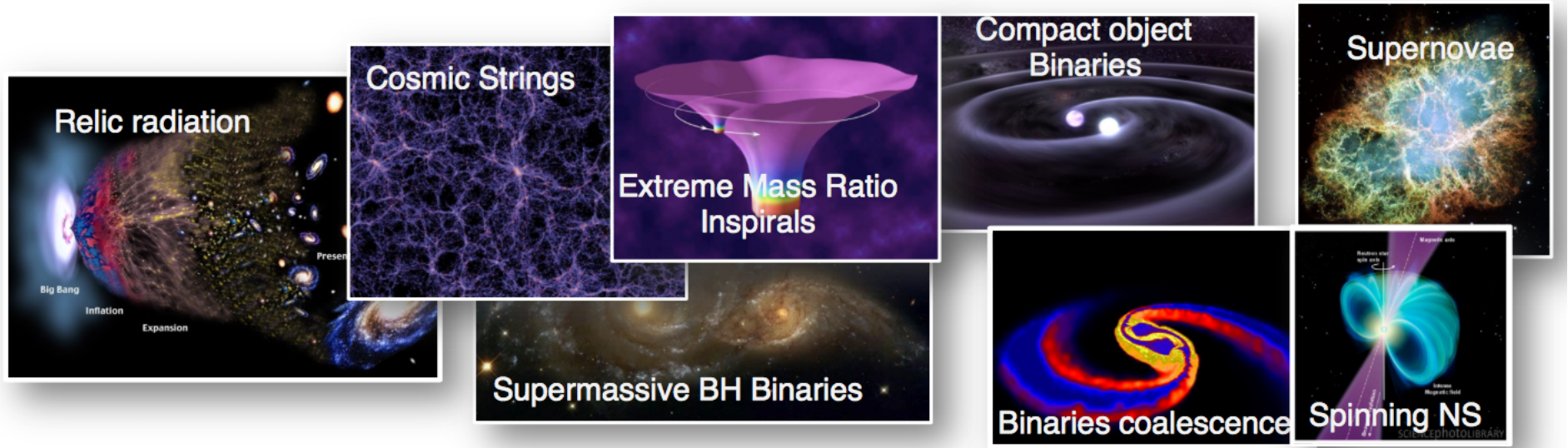
(Università di Urbino/INFN Sezione di Firenze)



FIRST ICTP
**ADVANCED SCHOOL ON
 COSMOLOGY**
 18-29 MAY 2015
 Trieste, Italy

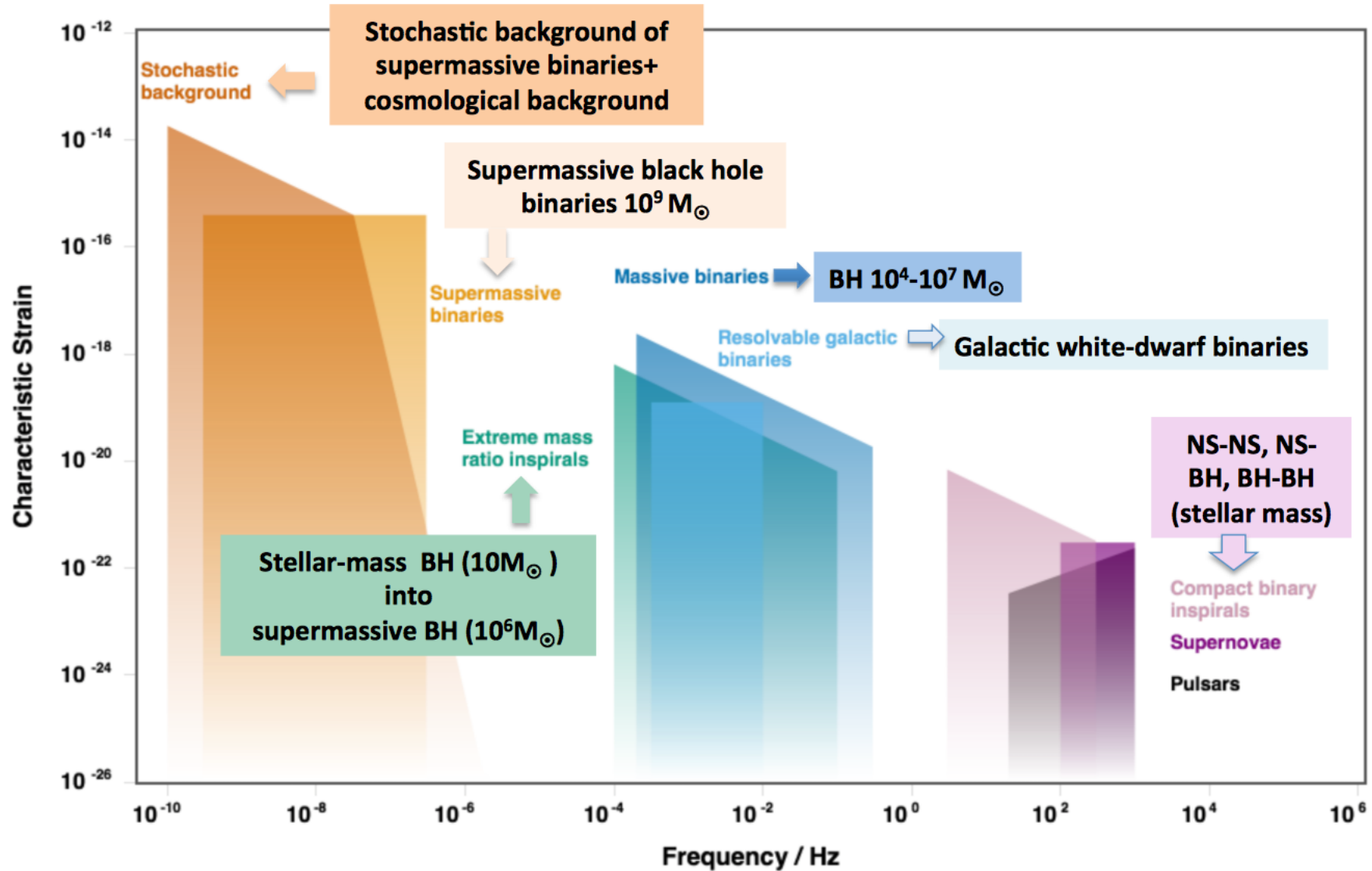


The GW Spectrum



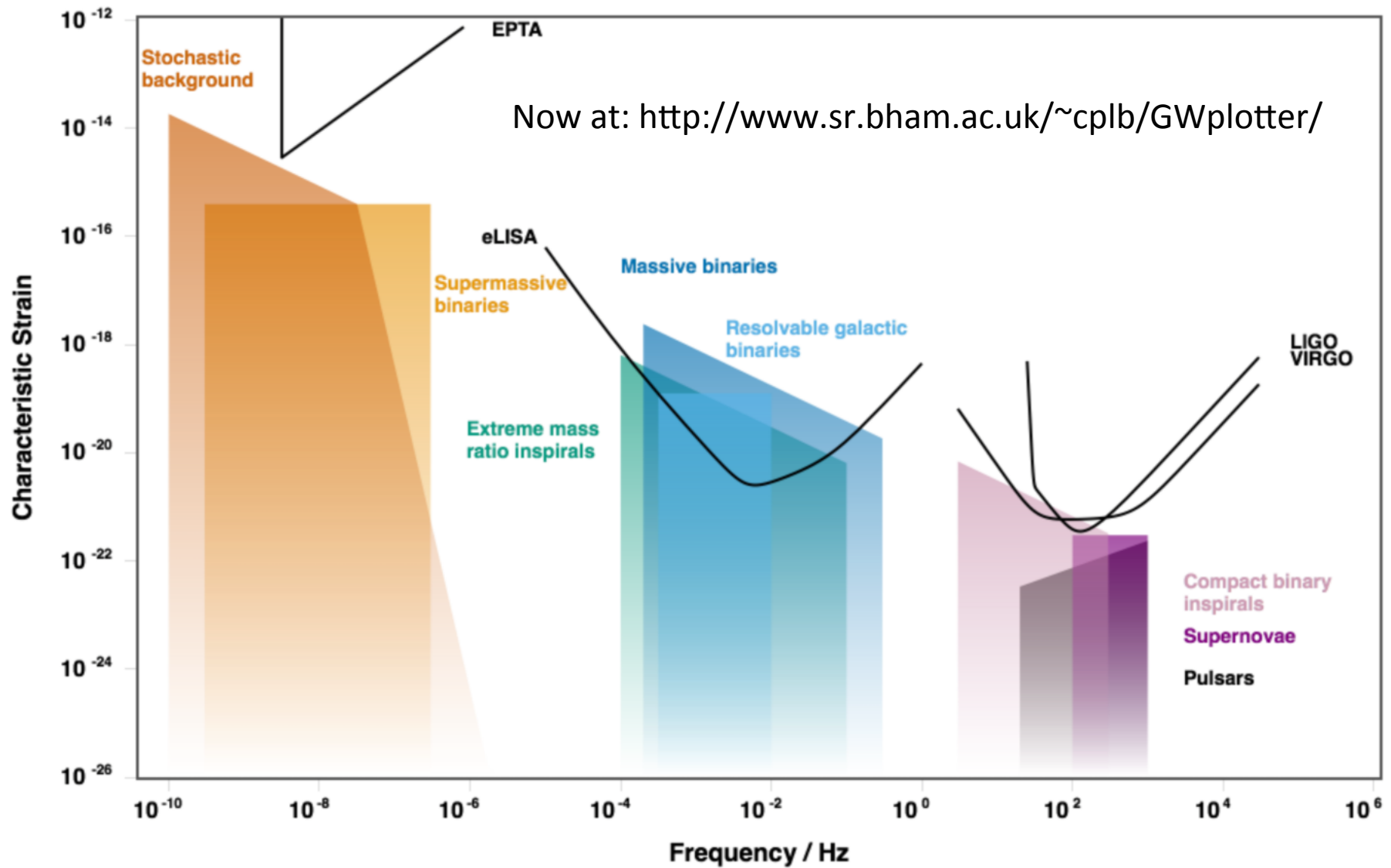
Astrophysical Sources

Now at: <http://www.sr.bham.ac.uk/~cplb/GWplotter/>



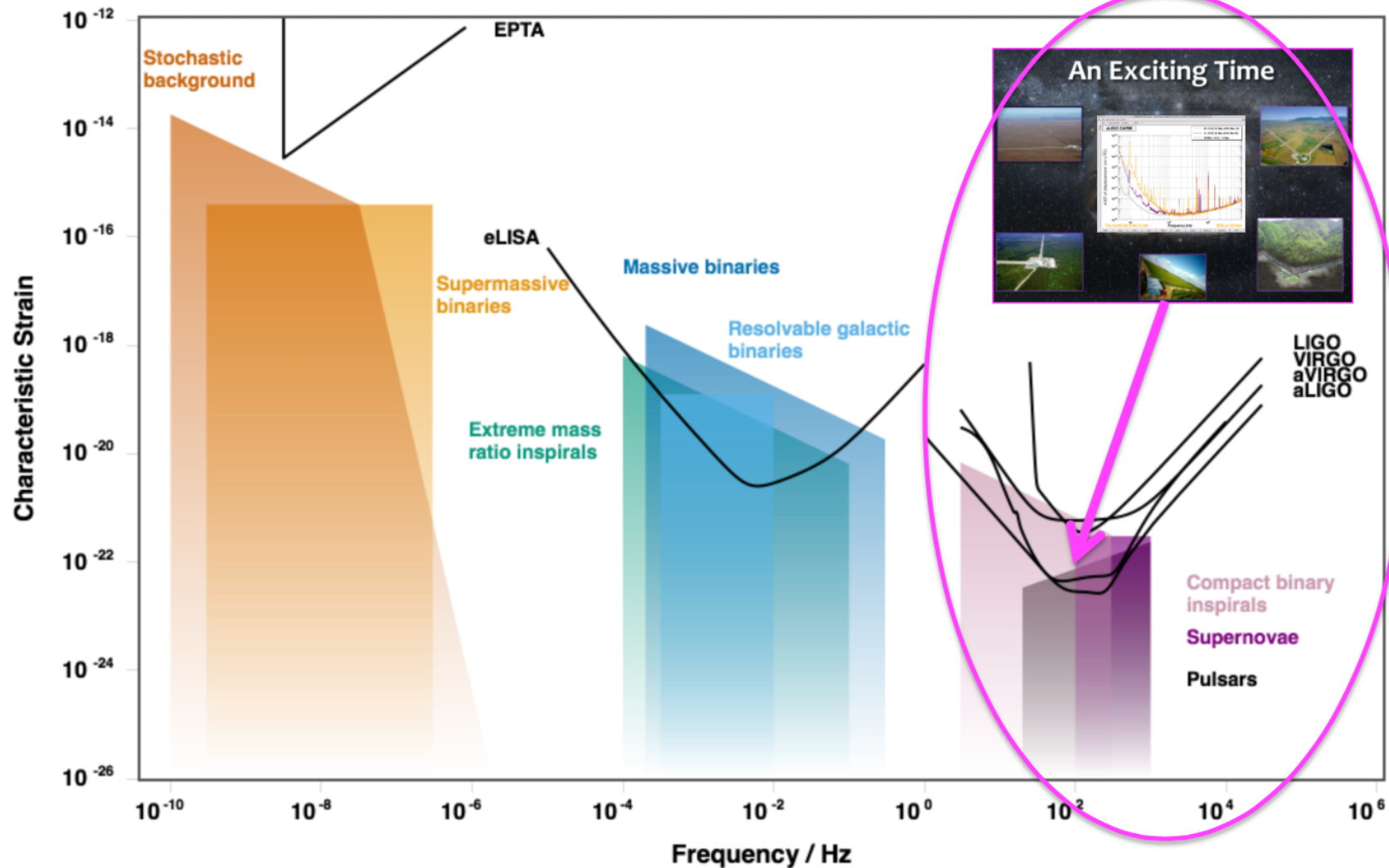
<http://rhcole.com/apps/GWplotter/>

Astrophysical Sources



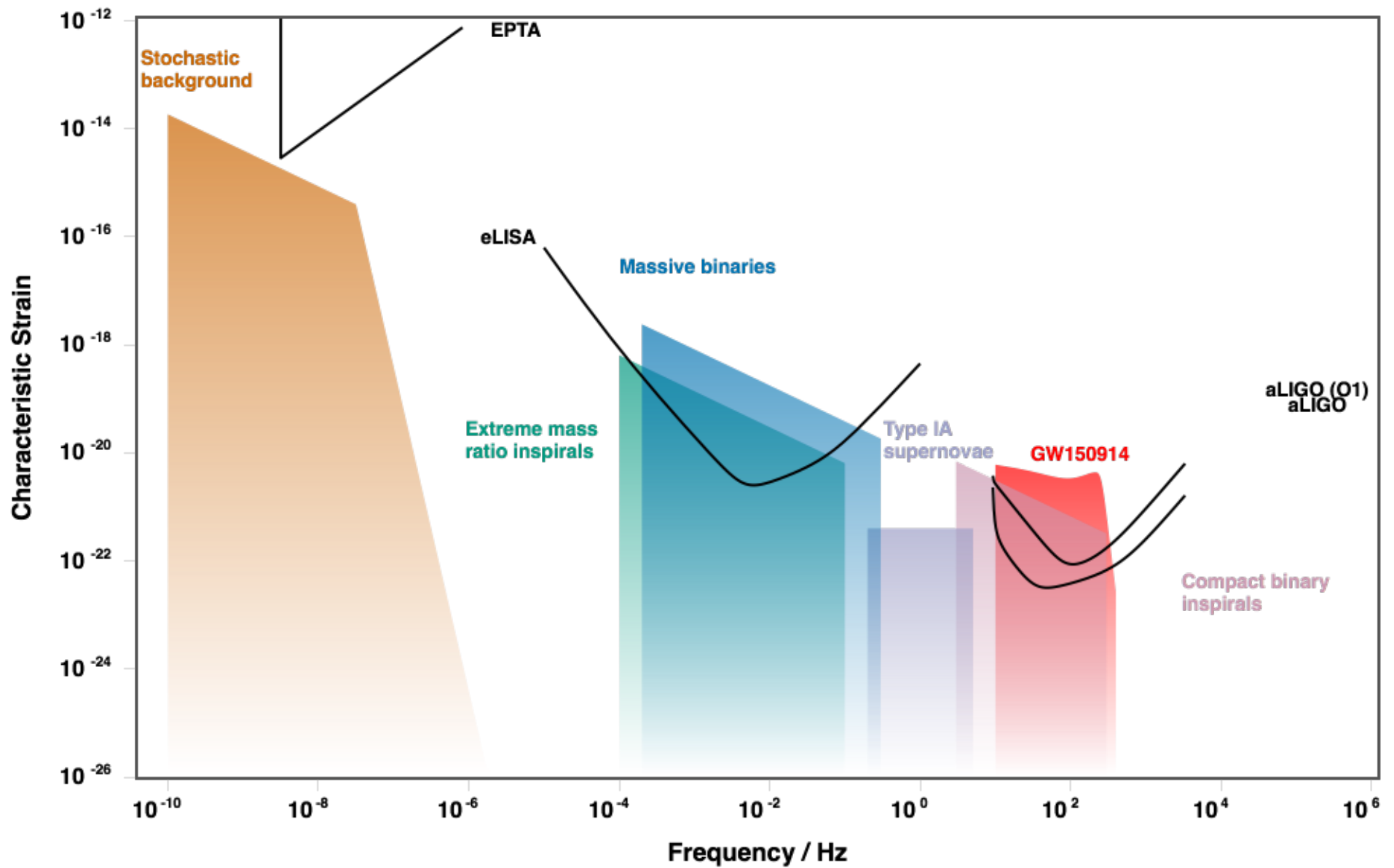
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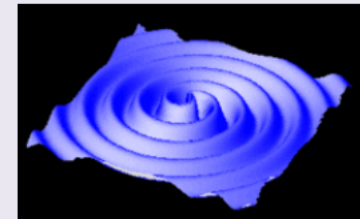
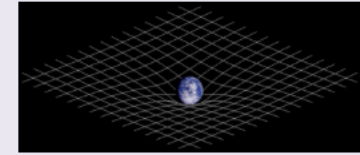
To reiterate:



1916 → Einstein's theory of relativity predicts the existence of a new type of wave: the gravitational waves

GWs are perturbations of the space-time metric:

- Generated by mass distributions with time-varying quadrupole moments
- Propagating at the speed of light
- Change in the distance between stationary (inertial) masses



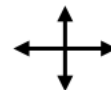
According to GR, GWs have two independent polarization states

Each GW signal can be described as a linear combination of them:

$$h = A_+ h_+(t) + A_x h_x(t)$$



Polarization "Plus" h_+



"Cross" h_x



How can GWs be detected?

A GW deforms space

$$\Delta L = \frac{1}{2} L h(t)$$

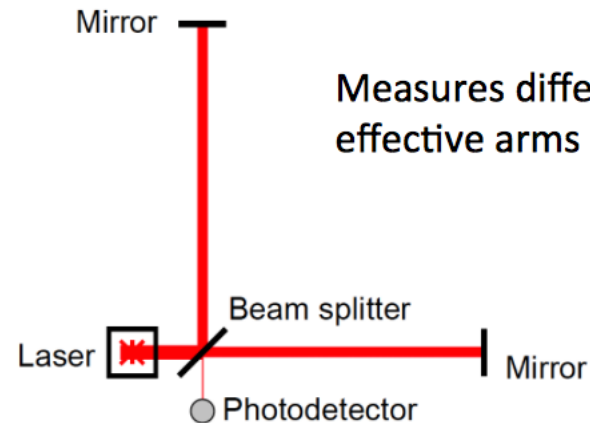
*The displacement is proportional to length:
it is a **strain!***

Do we know how to detect displacement?

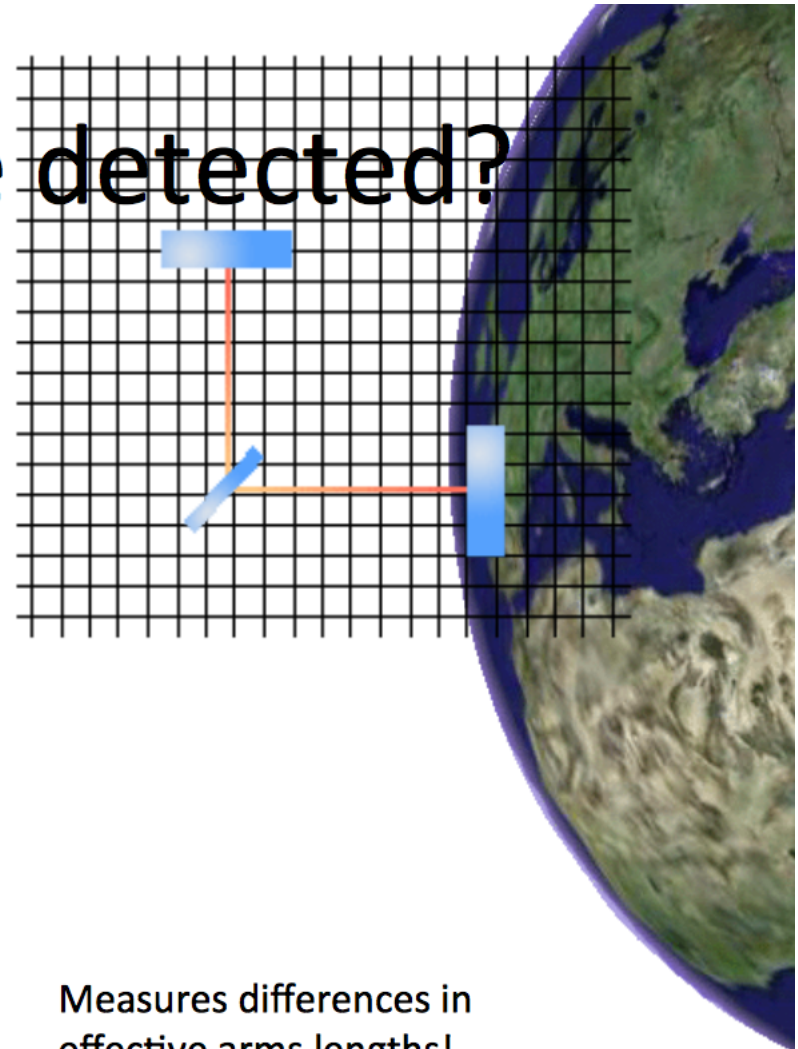
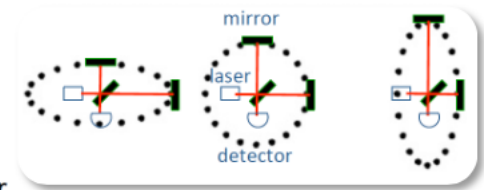


Michelson

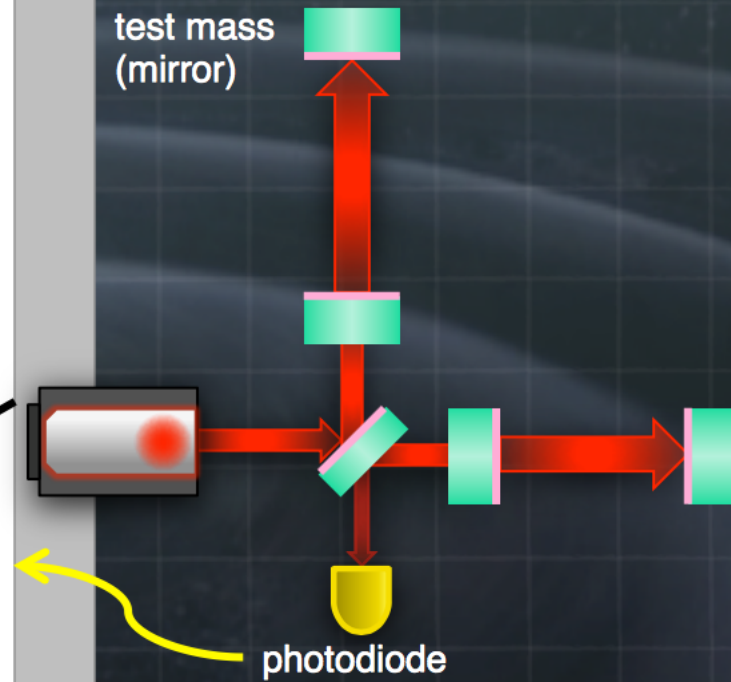
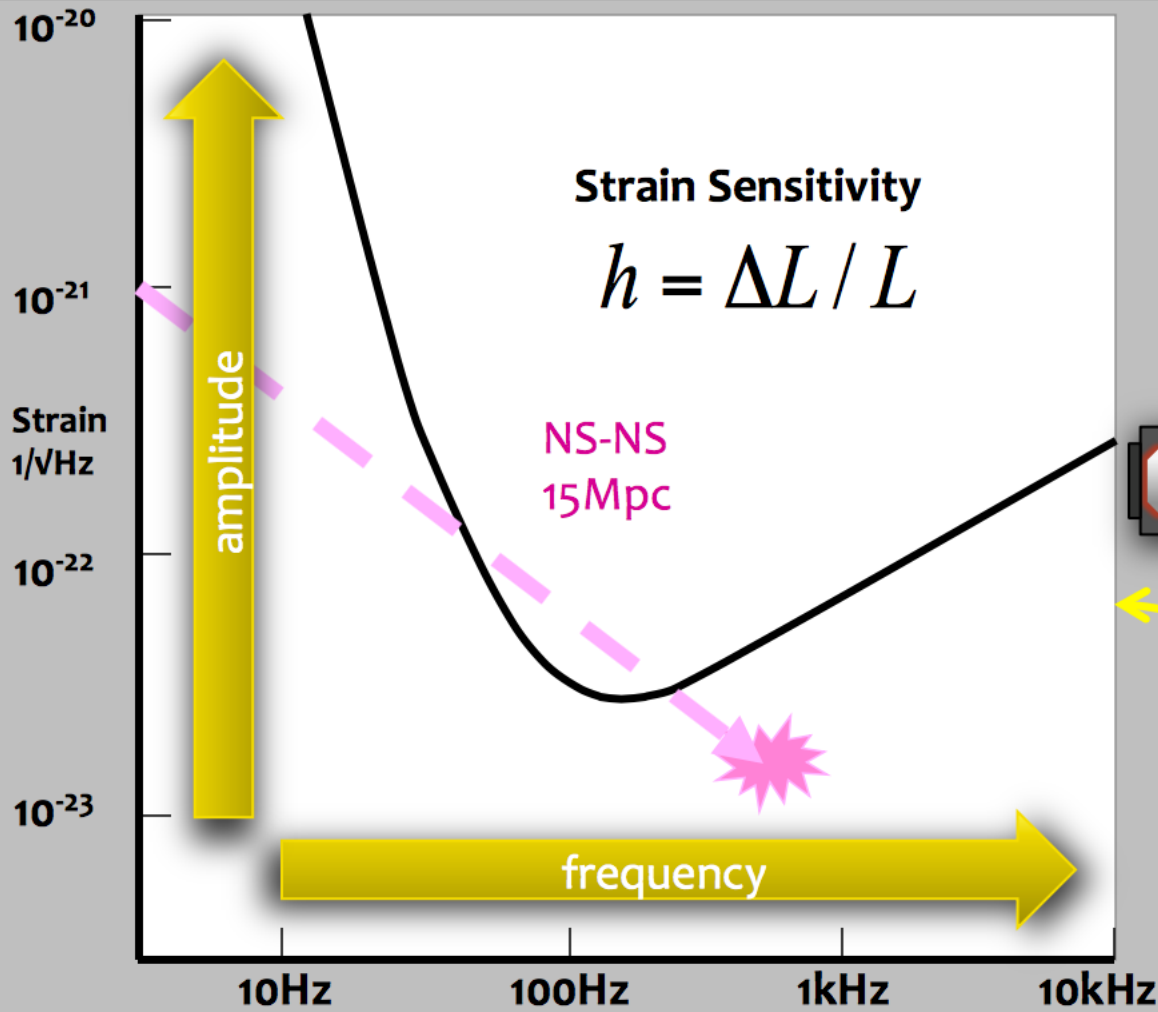
*The length change is measured **interferometrically** by using a **laser light beam***



Measures differences in effective arms lengths!

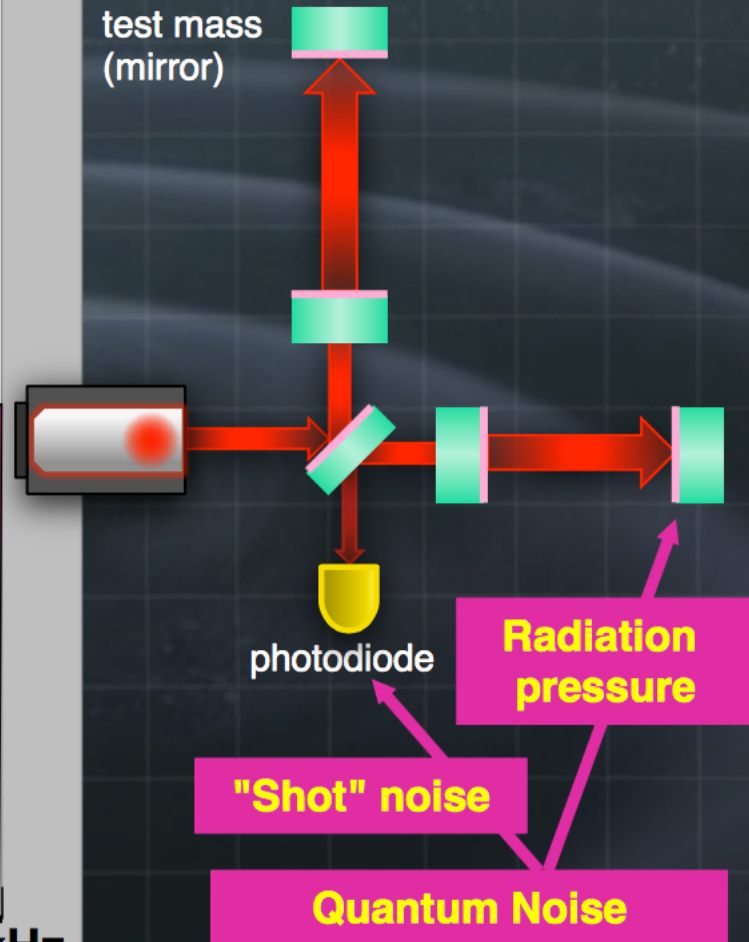
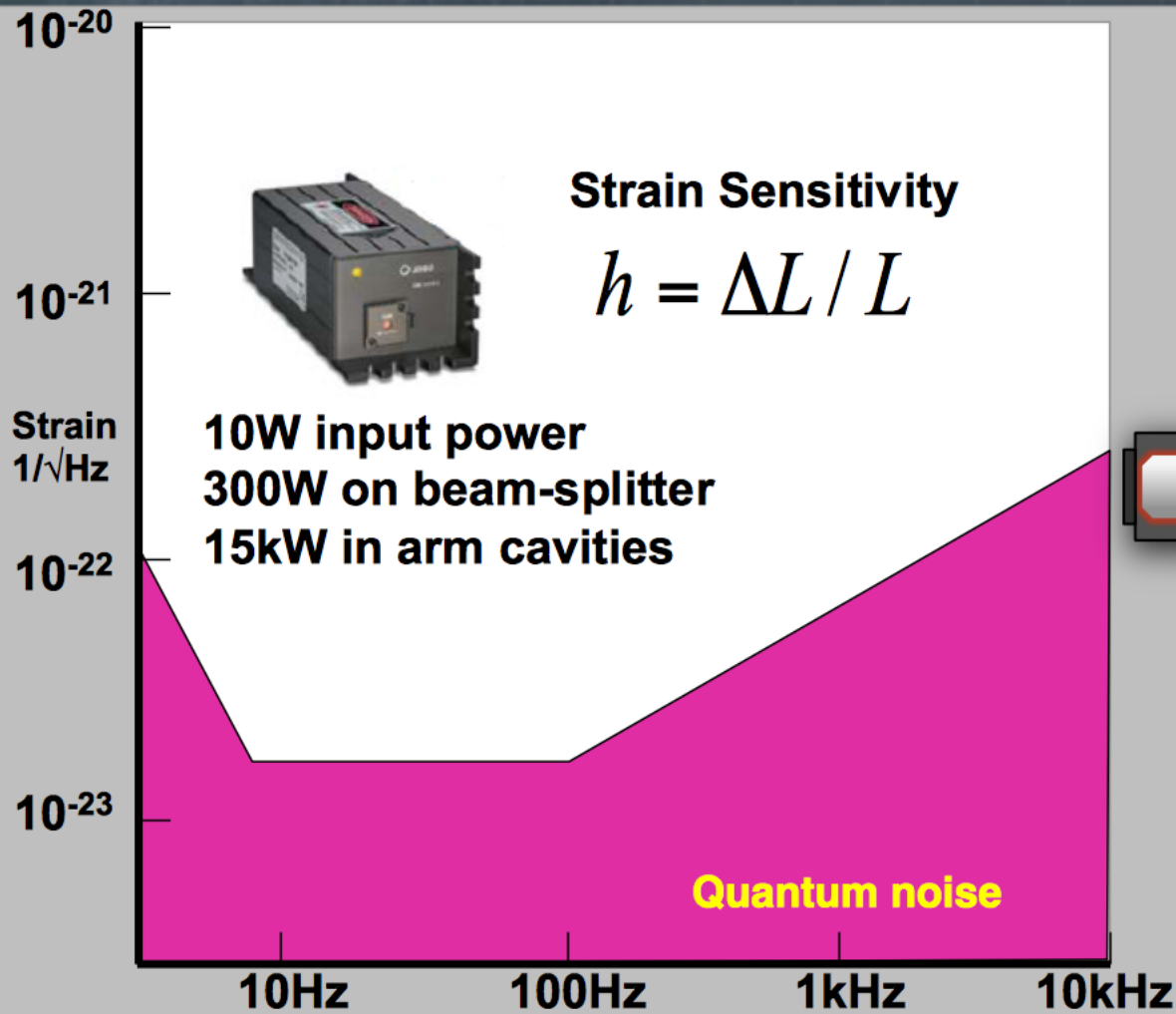


First Generation Sensitivity



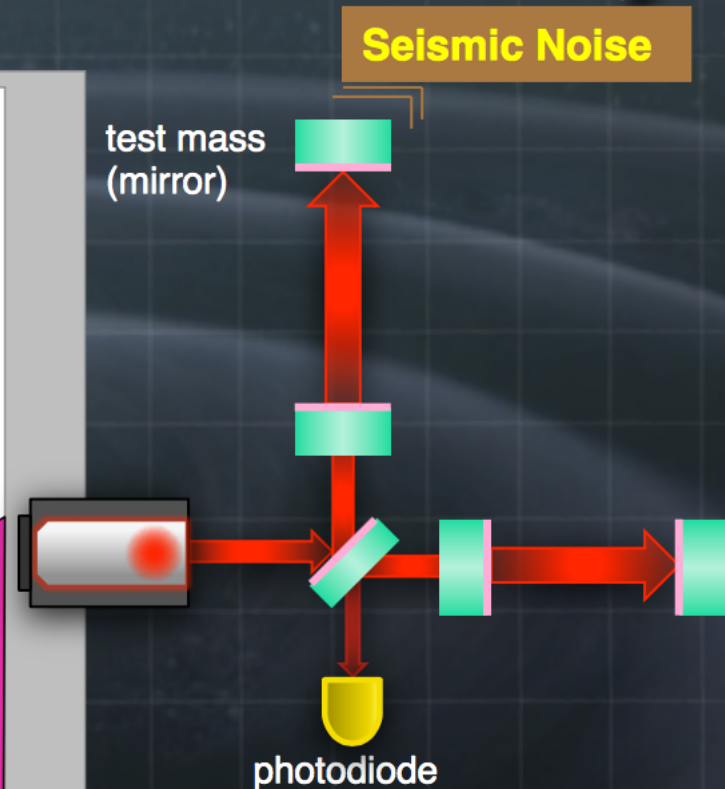
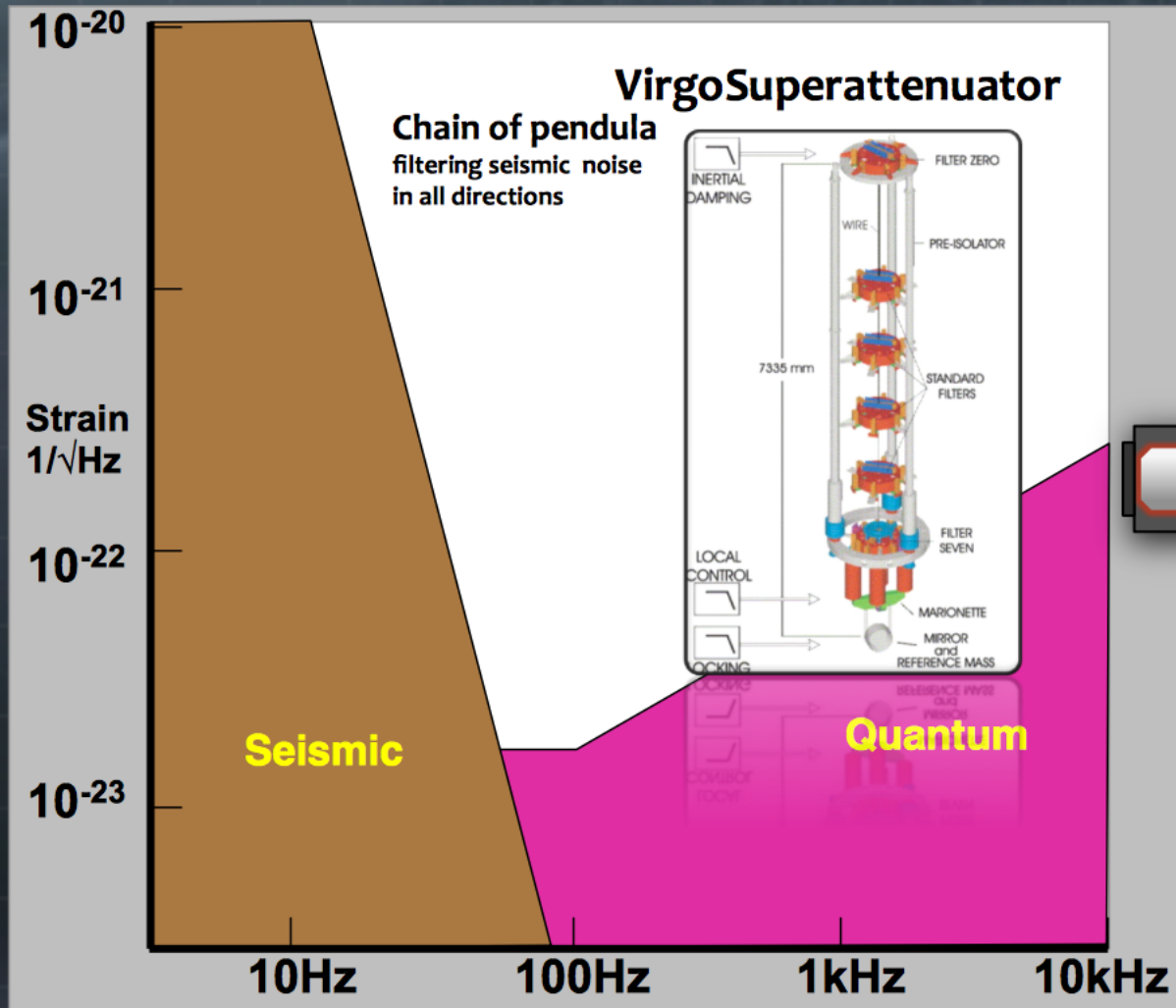
Slide Credit M. Evans,
Amaldi 10

First Generation Sensitivity



Slide Credit M. Evans,
Amaldi 10

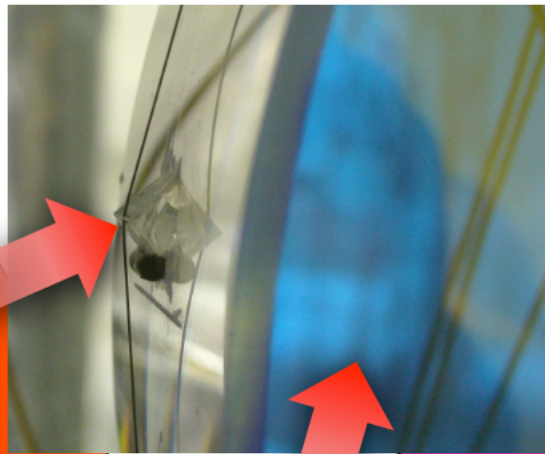
First Generation Sensitivity



Slide Credit M. Evans,
Amaldi 10

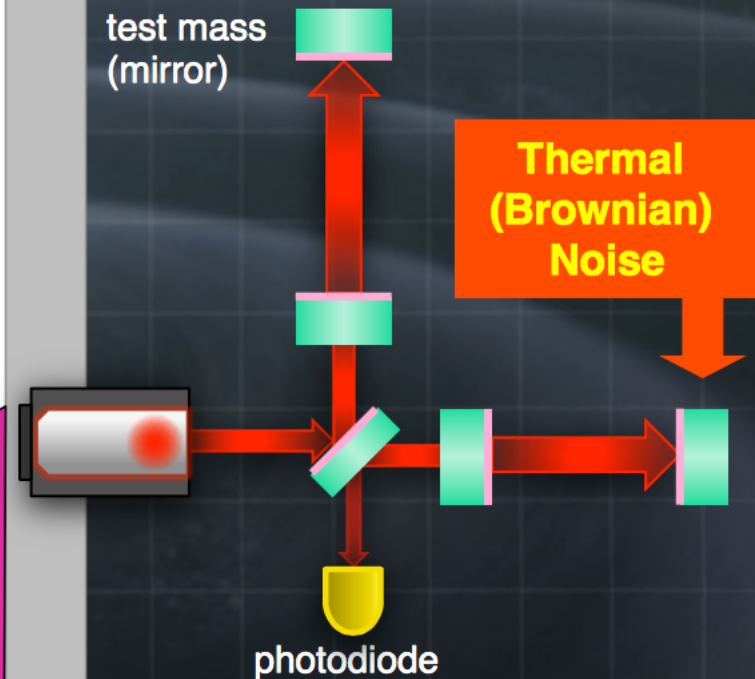
First Generation Sensitivity

Wire Suspensions, $Q \sim 100k$
Fused Silica Test-Mass, 10kg



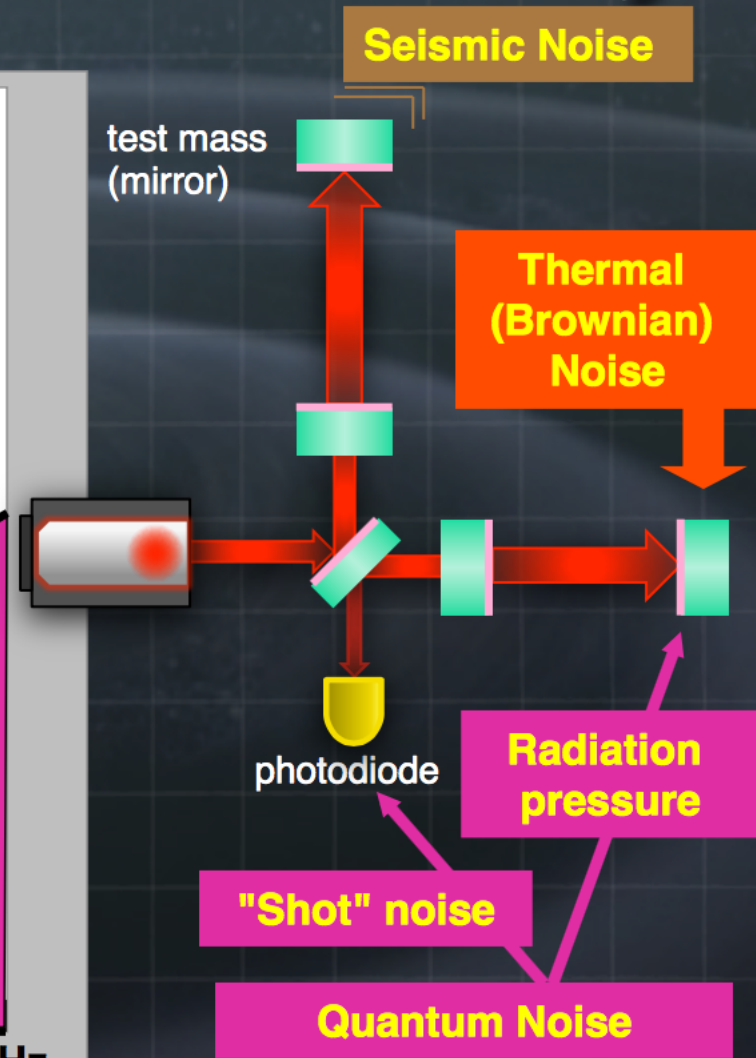
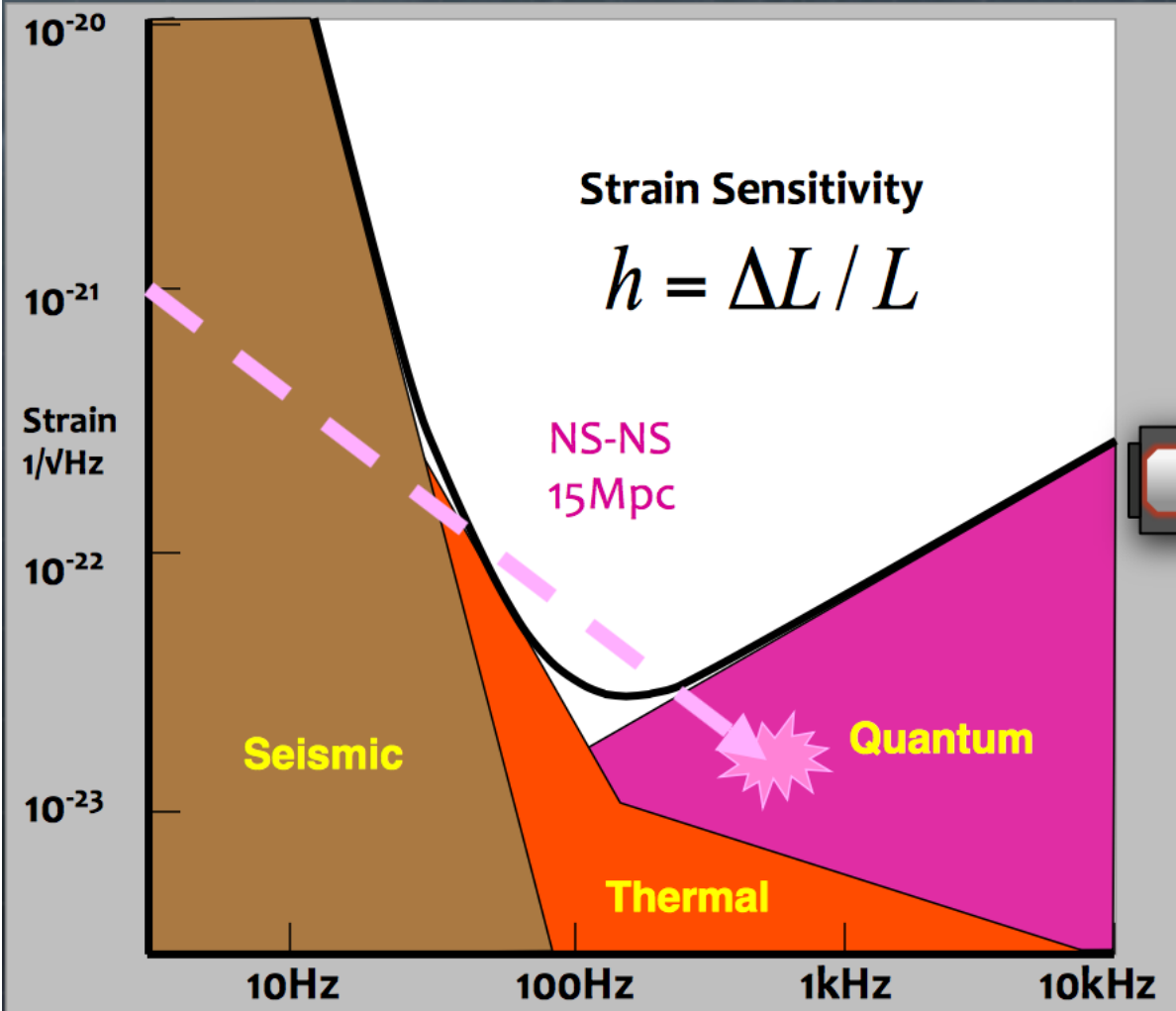
Thermal

Quantum

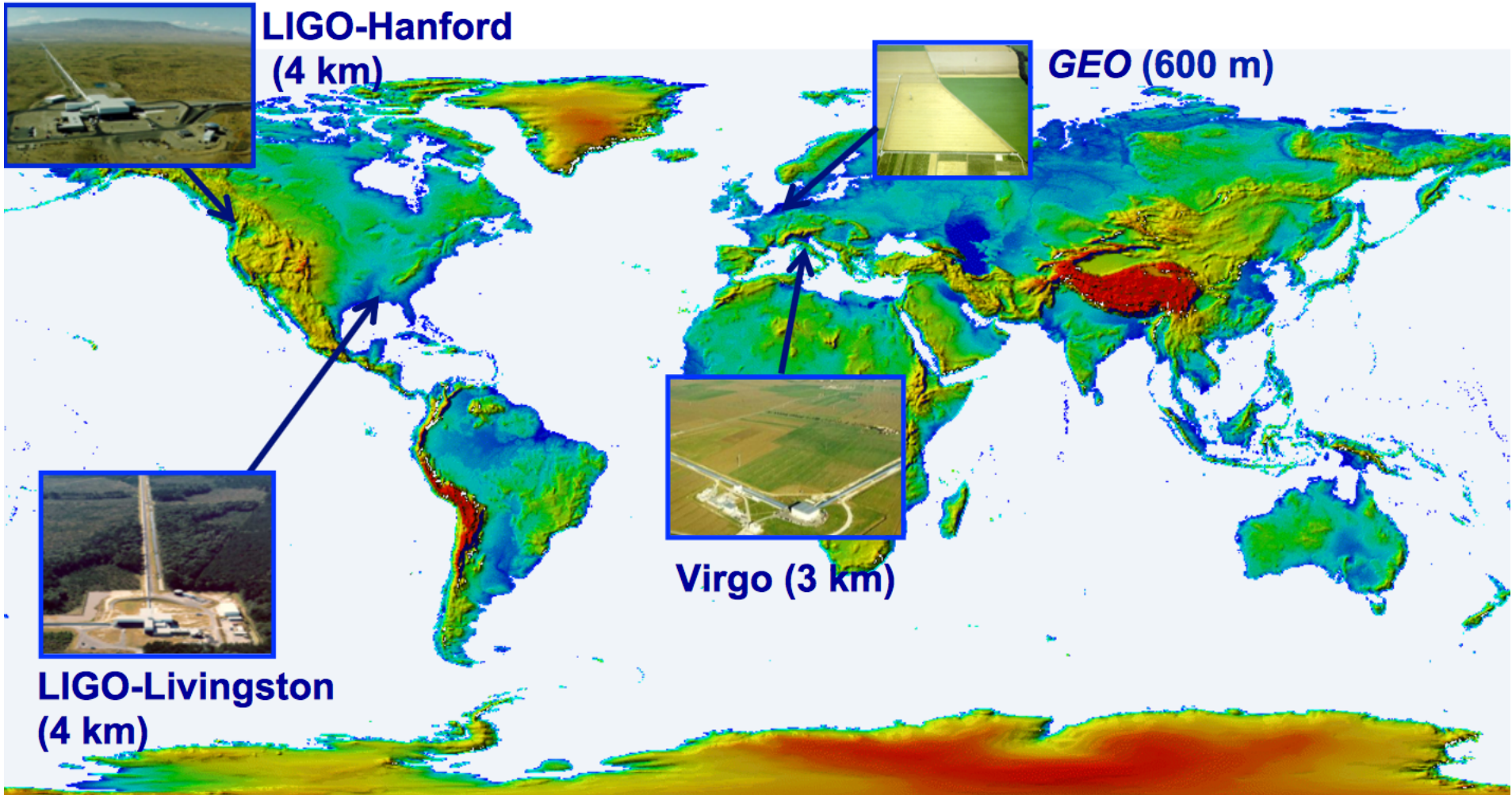


Slide Credit M. Evans,
Amaldi 10

First Generation Sensitivity

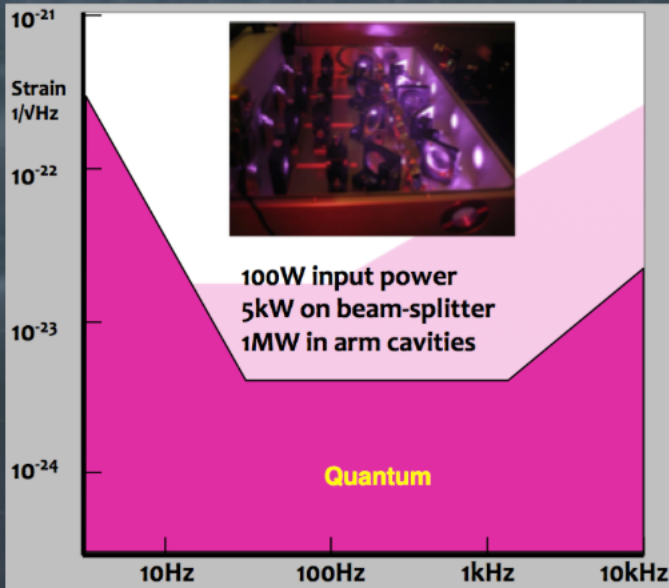


Ground-based Gravitational Wave Detectors

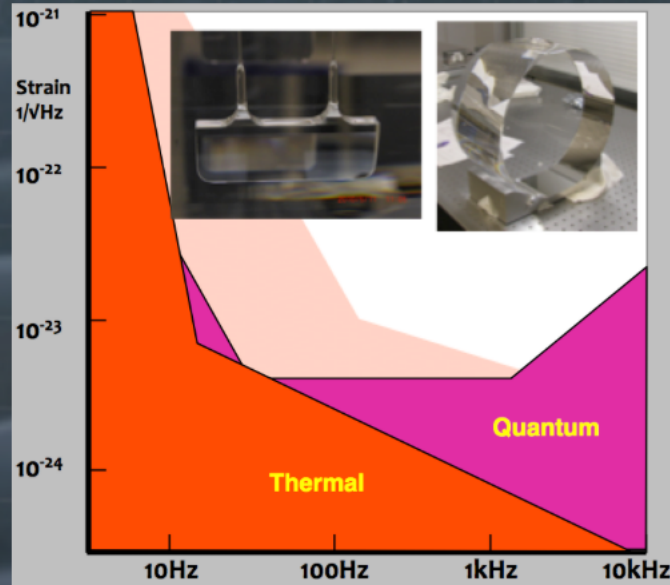


Advanced GW detectors

More Laser Power...

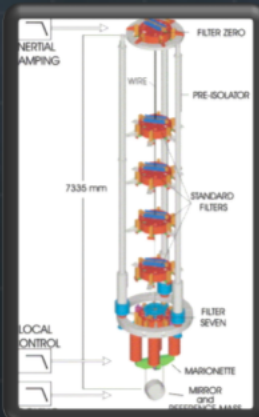


Better mechanical quality...

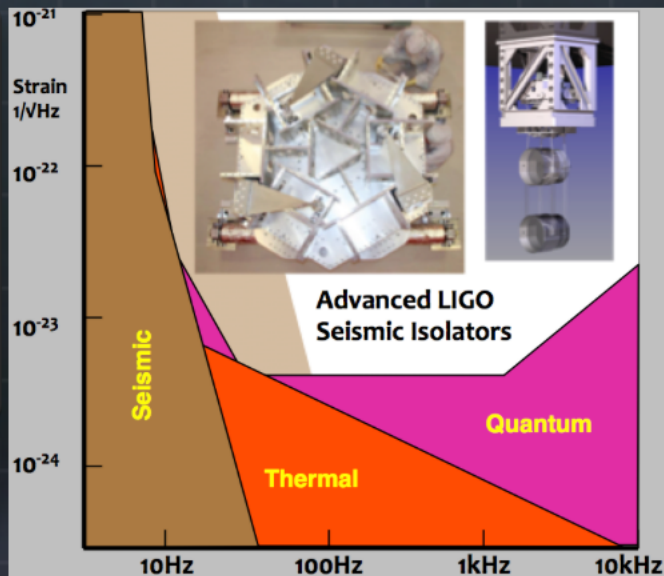


Test mass of 40kg
suspended by 400
micron glass
fibers...

...and better isolation



Virgo Super Attenuator



Advanced GW detectors

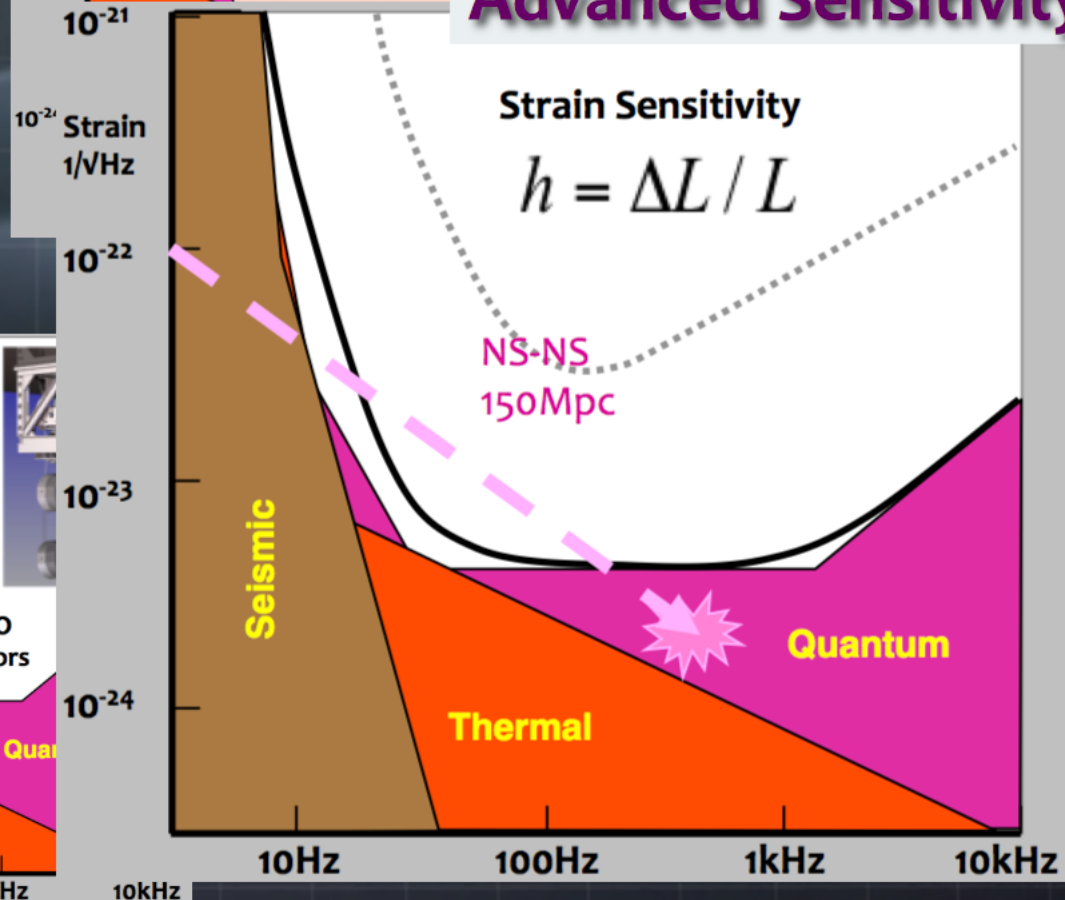
More Laser Power...



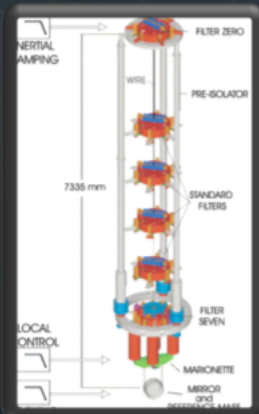
Better mechanical quality...



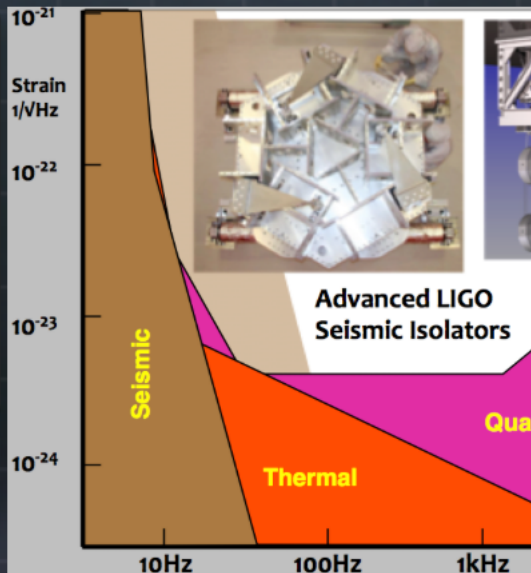
Advanced Sensitivity



...and better isolation



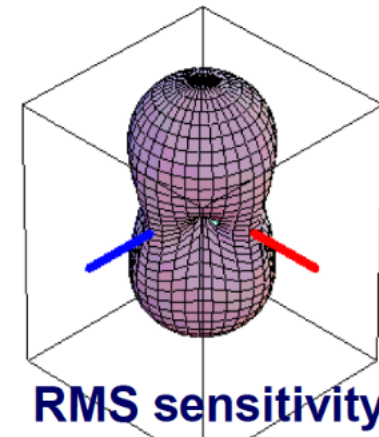
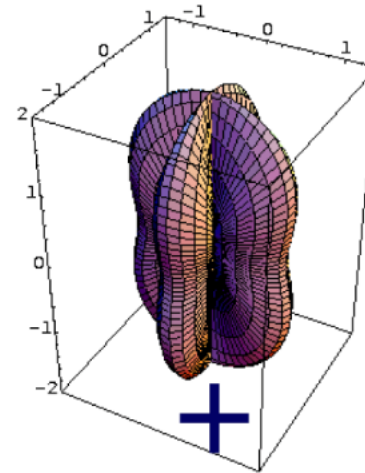
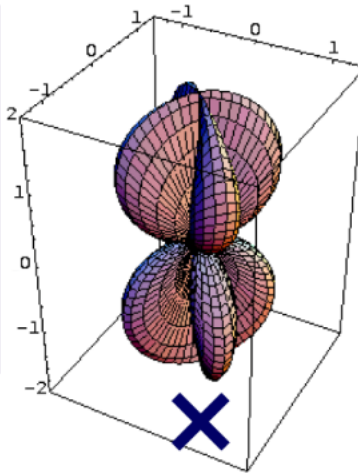
Virgo Super Attenuator



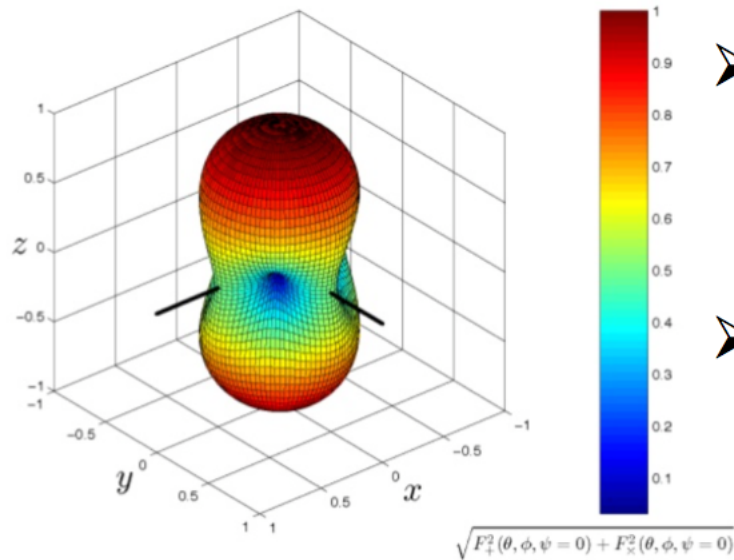
Single GW detector directional sensitivity

$$\frac{\Delta L}{L} = h_{\text{det}}(t) = F_+ h_+(t) + F_x h_x(t)$$

The **antenna pattern** depends on the polarization in a certain (x,+) basis.



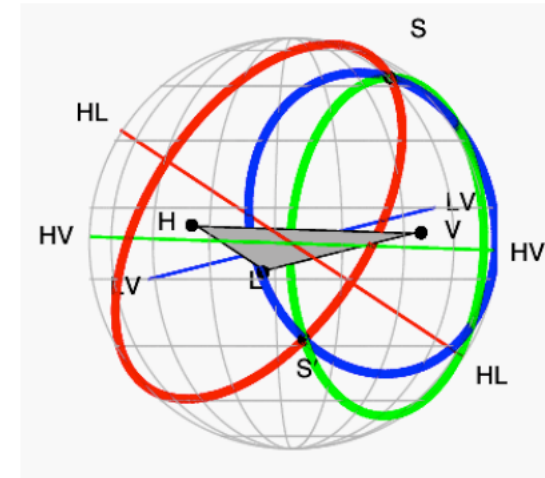
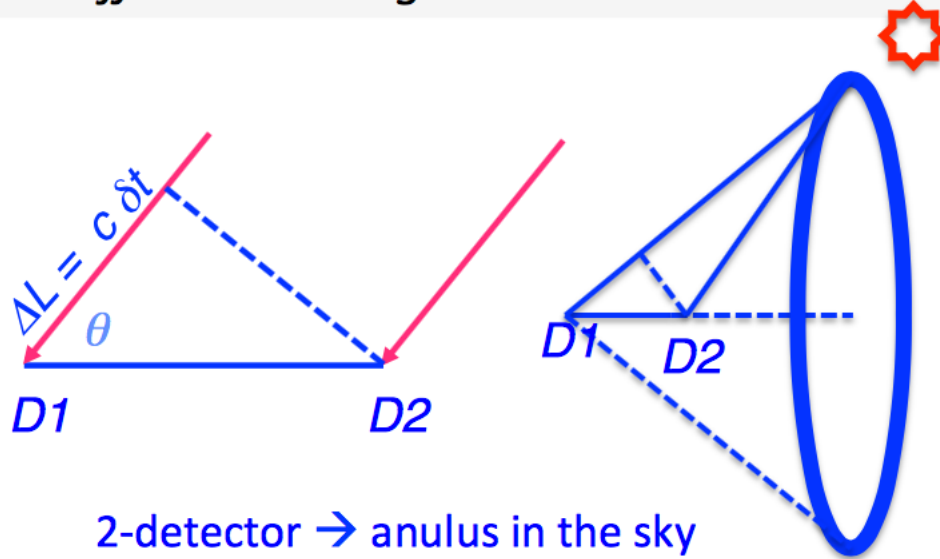
$$\sqrt{F_+(\theta, \phi)^2 + F_x(\theta, \phi)^2}$$



- Single GW detector is a **good all-sky monitor**, nearly omni-directional (the transparency of Earth to GWs)
- But does not have good directional sensitivity, **not a pointing instrument!** It has a very poor angular resolution (about 100 degrees)

The source localization requires a network of GW detectors

The **sky position** of a GW source is mainly **evaluated by triangulation**, measuring the differences in signal arrival times at the different network detector sites

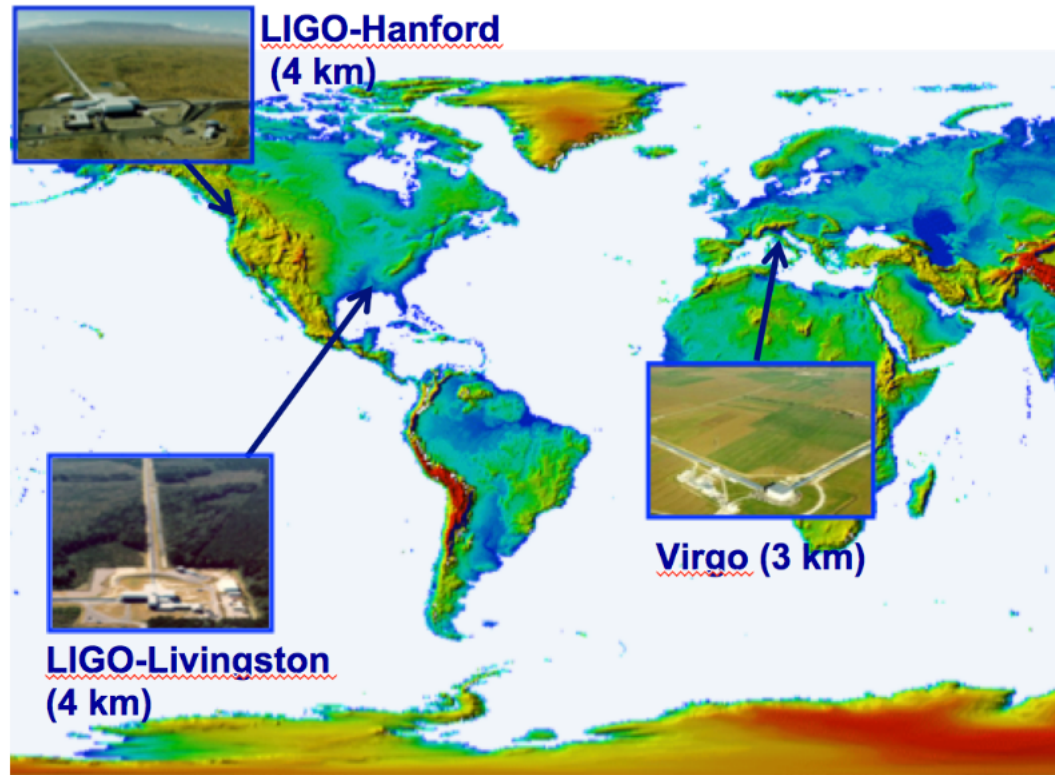


Detector baseline $D = 3 \cdot 10^3 \text{ km}$
 Wavelength $\lambda \sim 3 \cdot 10^2 \text{ km}$
 Angular resolution $\frac{\lambda}{D} \sim 60^\circ$

The GW lengths are comparable to Earth diameter

→ longer baseline and greater number of the sites distributed worldwide significantly improve the sky-localization capabilities!

Other benefits of a network of GW detectors



Improvements:

- ❖ Sensitivity
- ❖ Observation time, and sky coverage
- ❖ In determining the polarization
- ❖ Ability to reconstruct the GW source parameters
- ❖ False alarm rejection thanks to coincidence

Virgo and the LIGO Scientific Collaborations have signed a MoA for full data exchange and joint data analysis and publication policy

Advanced LIGOs and Virgo will observe the sky (10-1000 Hz) as a **single network** aiming at the **first direct detection of GWs**

Example of sky-localization capabilities

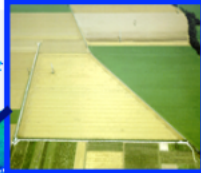
NS-NS with SNR=7 in each of the LIGOs and Virgo:

- best case localization of **20 deg²**
(signal is directly over the plane of network)
- median of **40 deg²** (Fairhurst 2009)

Near Future Gravitational Wave Detectors



LIGO-Hanford
(4 km)



GEO (600 m)



Virgo (3 km)



KAGRA



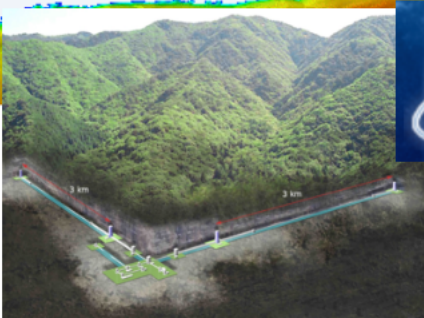
LIGO-India
(2022+)



LIGO-Livingston
(4 km)



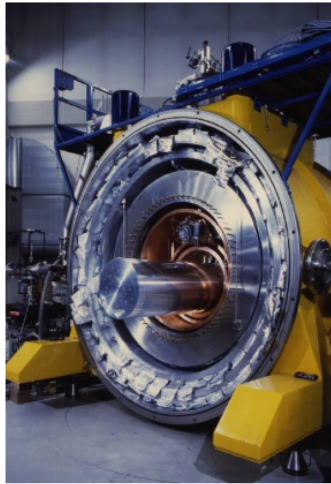
Move one of the two LIGO detectors in Hanford to India



Underground detector in the Kamioka mine: 3km length, – Cryogenic mirrors (2nd phase)

Astrofisica Nucleare e Subnucleare
Other Detectors for GW

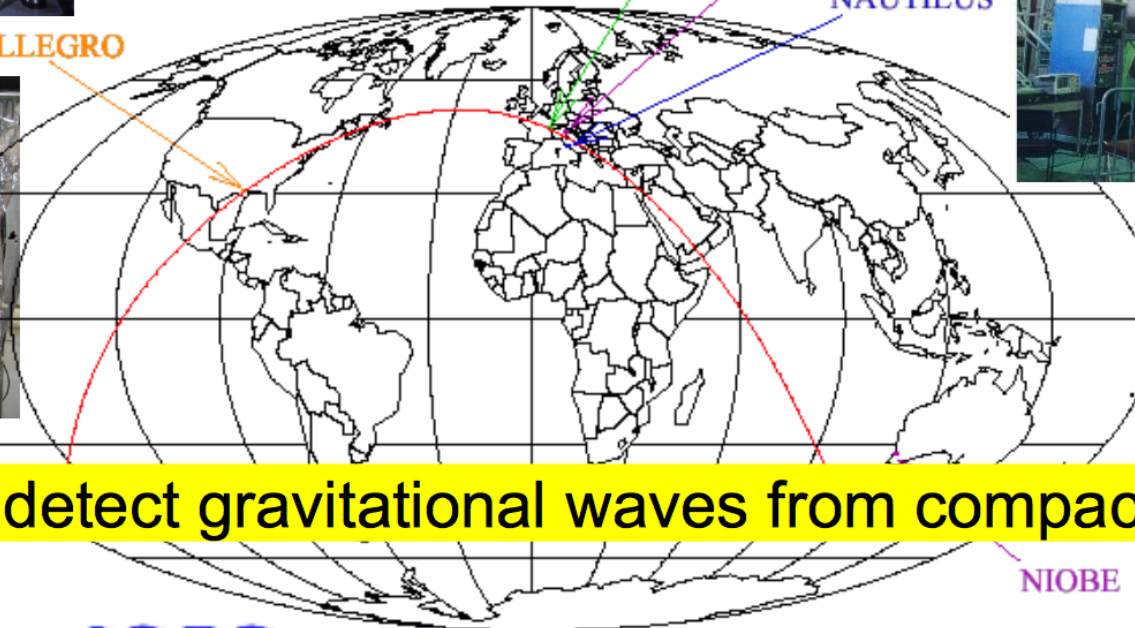
Bar detectors: IGEC collaboration



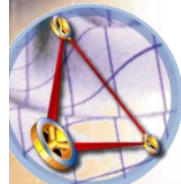
ALLEGRO

AURIGA

NAUTILUS



Built to detect gravitational waves from compact objects

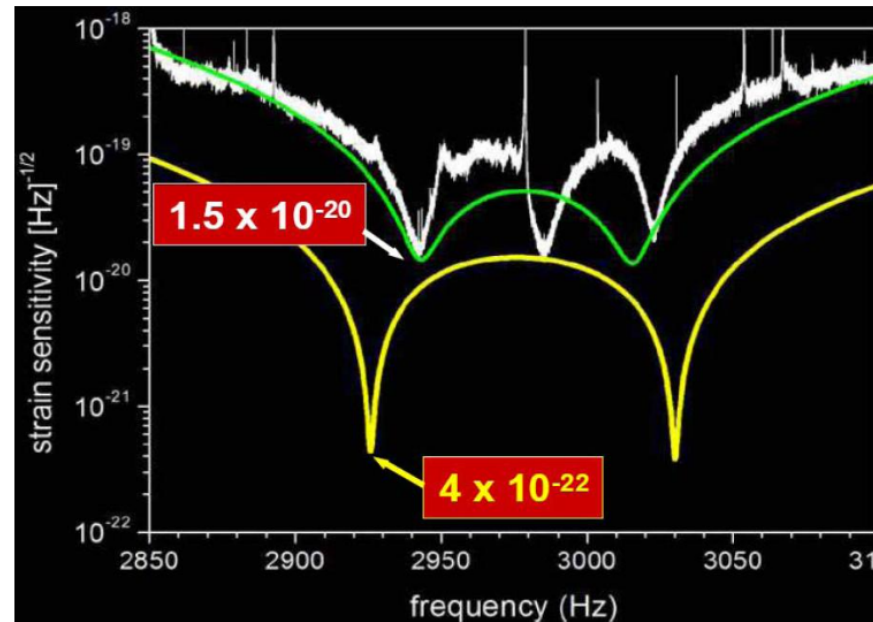
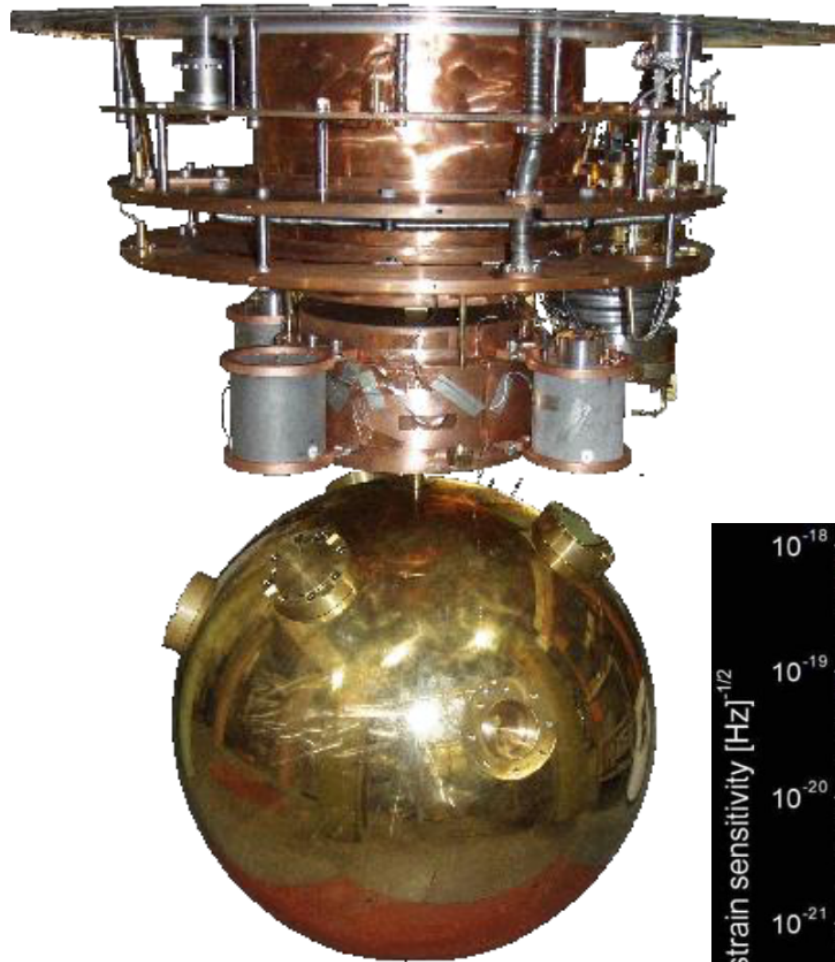


IGEC

Ladbrokes.com



Mini-GRAIL: a spherical 'bar' in Leiden



eLISA: THE MISSION

LISA PATHFINDER

NEW ASTRONOMY

CONTEXT 2028

eLISA COMMUNITY



A New Astronomy

Gravitational waves directly observed for first time

The first gravitational wave signal was observed from the highly relativistic merger of two massive black holes. GW150914 is the beginning of a new era of astronomy.

Login

Register

Username:

Password:

Login

If you forgot your password you can request a new one [here](#).

Register above to receive the eLISA newsletter.

LISA Pathfinder on Twitter

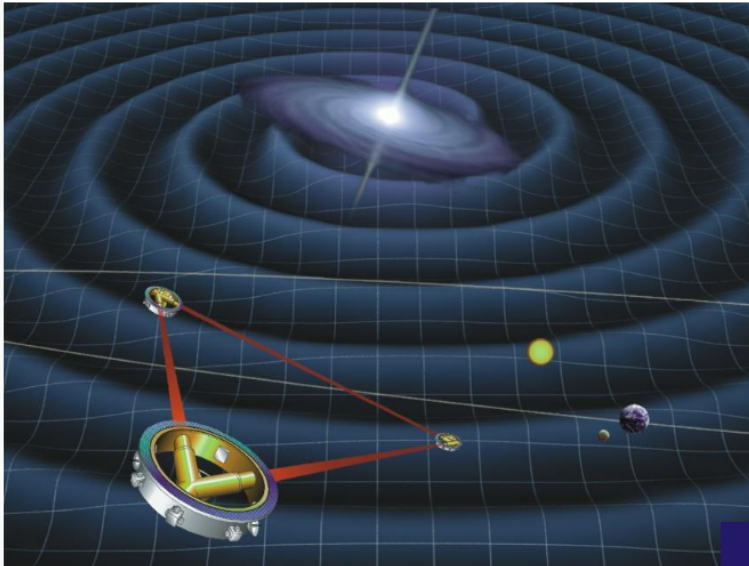
@ESA_LPF: Follow LPF and get the latest news, information and developments from the groundbreaking mission!

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

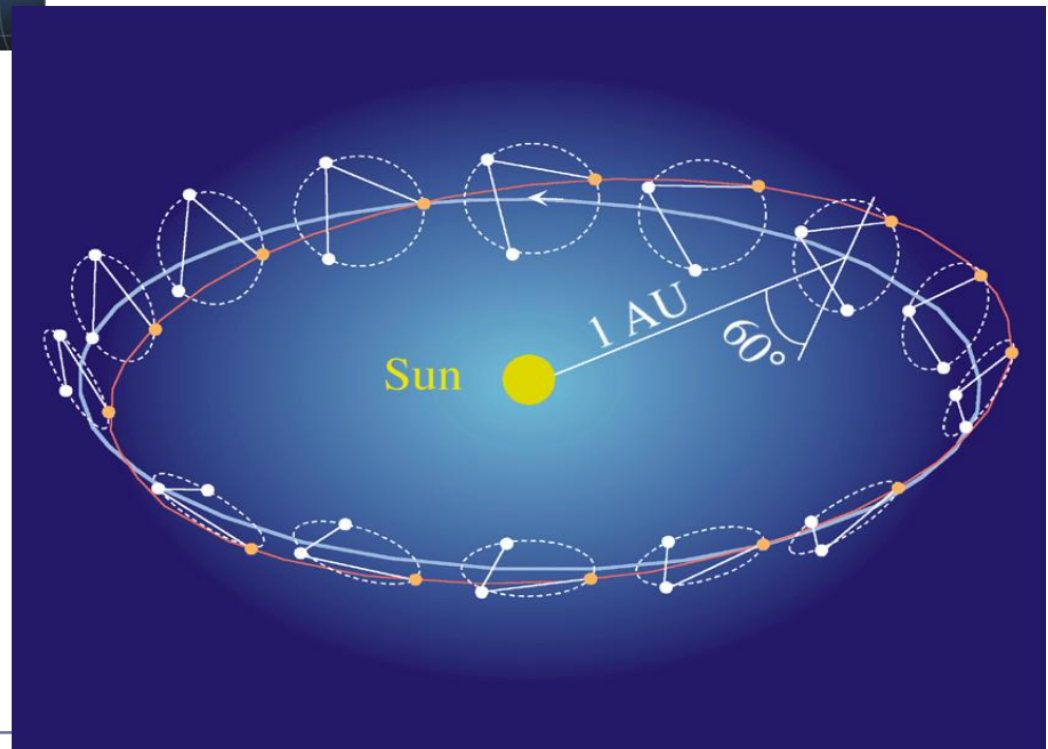
First detection also proves existence of BH binaries. Numerical simulation of GW150914 by SXS

»» News Overview: Latest news and consortium activities, conferences, publications, positions.

Gravitational wave antenna in space - LISA

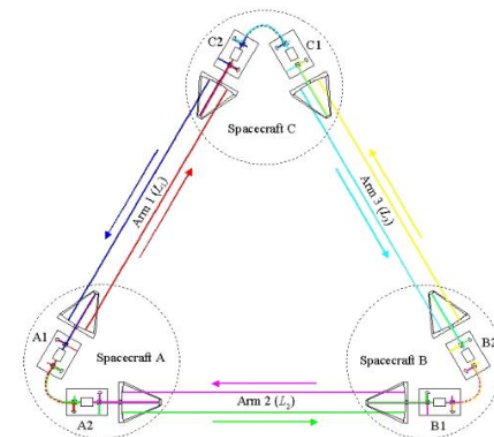
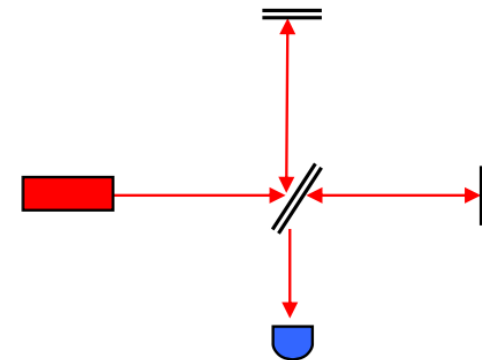
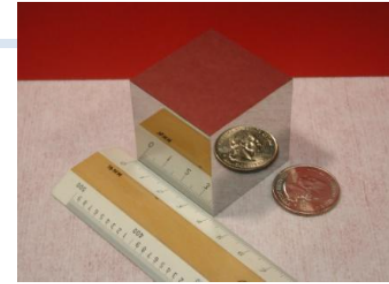


- *3 spacecraft in Earth-trailing solar orbit separated by 5×10^6 km.*
- *Measure changes in distance between fiducial masses in each spacecraft*
- *Partnership between NASA and ESA*



LISA interferometry

- “LISA is essentially a Michelson Interferometer in Space”
- However
 - No beam splitter
 - No end mirrors
 - Arm lengths are not equal
 - Arm lengths change continuously
 - Light travel time ~ 17 seconds
 - Constellation is rotating and translating in space



EINSTEIN TELESCOPE

gravitational wave observatory

CENTRAL FACILITY

COMPUTING CENTRE

DETECTOR STATION

Creation of Adam - Michelangelo

Design Study Proposal approved by EU within FP7
Large part of the European GW community involved
EGO, INFN, MPI, CNRS, NIKHEF, Univ. Birmingham, Cardiff, Glasgow

Recommended in Aspera / Appec roadmap

END STATION

TUNNEL \varnothing ~5 m

length ~10 km



Astrofisica Nucleare e Subnucleare

PTA Detector for GW

What is a PTA?

PTA = Pulsar Timing Array

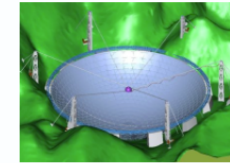
Term first described by Romani (1989) and Foster & Backer (1990)

First major realisation of a PTA was the Parkes Pulsar Timing Array project started by R. Manchester

Main goals: 1) **detect gravitational waves**, 2) search for irregularities in terrestrial time standards and 3) improve the Solar System planetary ephemeris

Numerous secondary goals ...

PTAs in 2015



CPTA



ASKAP



Meerkat



SKA

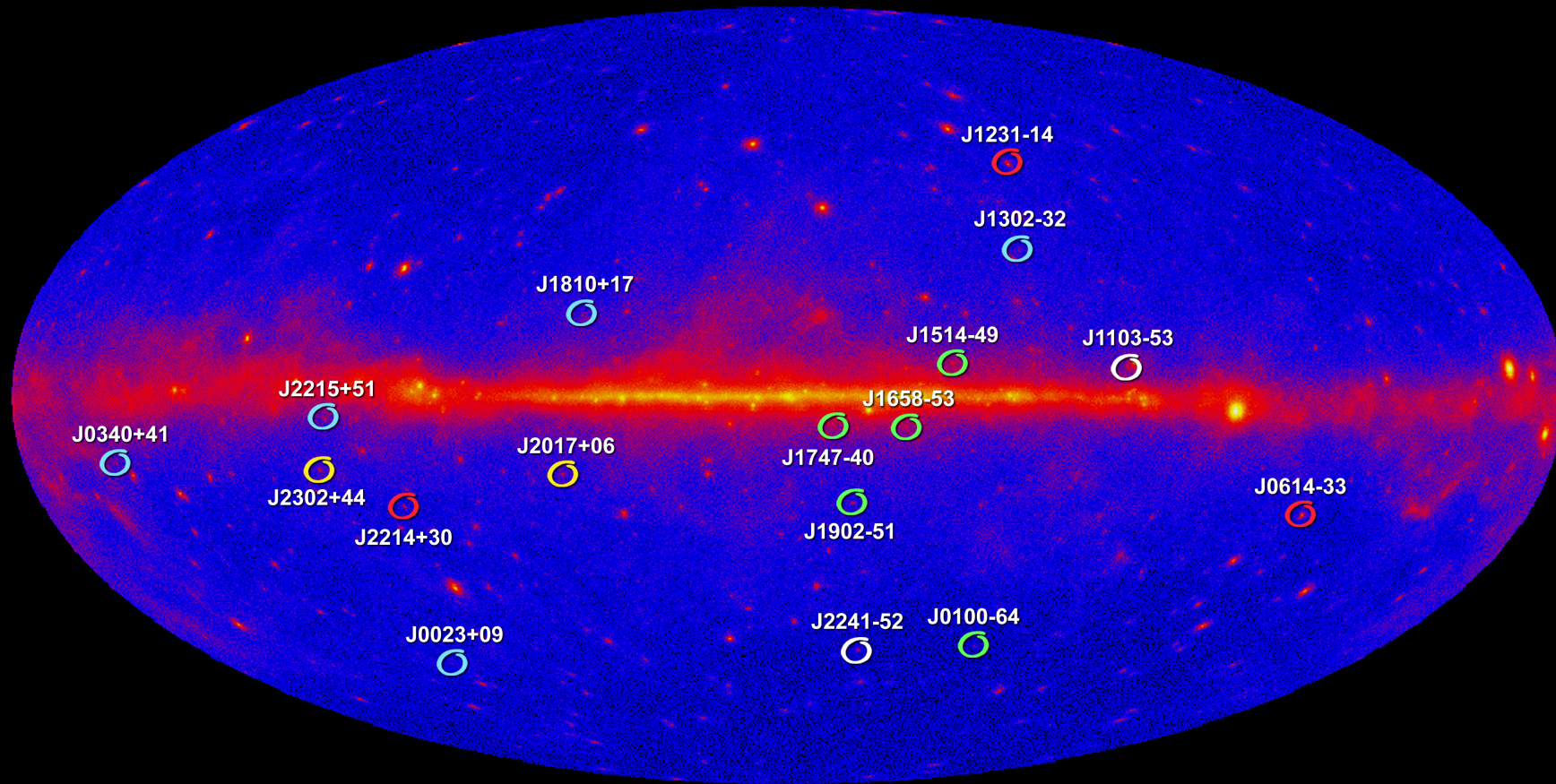
IPTA






Interest in pulsar community

Interest in gravitational wave community



New Millisecond Radio Pulsars Found in Fermi LAT Unidentified Sources



-  Led by Fernando Camilo (Columbia Univ.) using Australia's CSIRO Parkes Observatory
-  Led by Mallory Roberts (Eureka Scientific/GMU/NRL) using the NRAO's Green Bank Telescope
-  Led by Scott Ransom (NRAO) using the Green Bank Telescope
-  Led by Ismael Cognard (CNRS) using France's Nançay Radio Telescope
-  Led by Mike Keith (ATNF) using Parkes Observatory



Fermi Large Area Telescope first year map of the gamma-ray sky at energies above 100 MeV with the locations of the new millisecond pulsars shown. The symbols are color coded according to the discovery team: red led by Scott Ransom (NRAO) using NRAO's Green Bank Telescope (GBT), cyan led by Mallory Roberts (Eureka Scientific/GMU/NRL) also using the GBT, green led by Fernando Camilo (Columbia University) using Australia's CSIRO Parkes Observatory, white led by Mike Keith (ATNF) also using Parkes, and yellow led by Ismael Cognard (CNRS) using France's Nançay Radio Telescope. (Credit: NASA/DOE/Fermi LAT Collaboration)

Astrofisica Nucleare e Subnucleare

GRB and GW

Advanced Era GW-detectors (ADE)

LIGO-H



LIGO-L

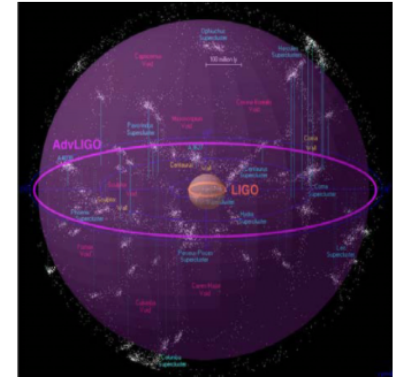


Virgo

LIGO and Virgo detectors are currently being upgraded



boost of sensitivity
by a factor of ten
(of 10^3 in number of detectable sources)



Advanced era Detection rates of compact binary coalescences

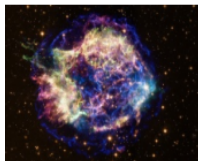
	Source	Low yr ⁻¹	Real yr ⁻¹	High yr ⁻¹	Max yr ⁻¹
Advanced	NS-NS	0.4	40	400	1000
	NS-BH	0.2	10	300	
	BH-BH	0.4	20	1000	

(Abadie et al. 2010, CQG 27)

Mass: NS = 1.4 Mo
BH = 10 Mo

Advanced era
Sky location and orientation
averaged range

197 Mpc for NS-NS
410 Mpc for NS-BH
968 Mpc for BH-BH



Core-Collapse Supernovae

2-4 yr⁻¹ EM-observed within 20 Mpc

Rate of GW-detectable events unknown

GW-signal detectable

Optimistic models

< Milky Way (Ott et al. 2012, Phy.R.D.)
few Mpc (Fryer et al. 2002, ApJ, 565)

10 - 100 Mpc (Piro & Pfahl 2007)

(Fryer & New 2011)

Electromagnetic emission

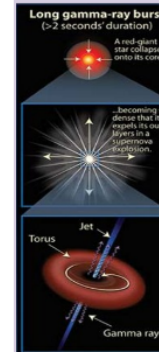
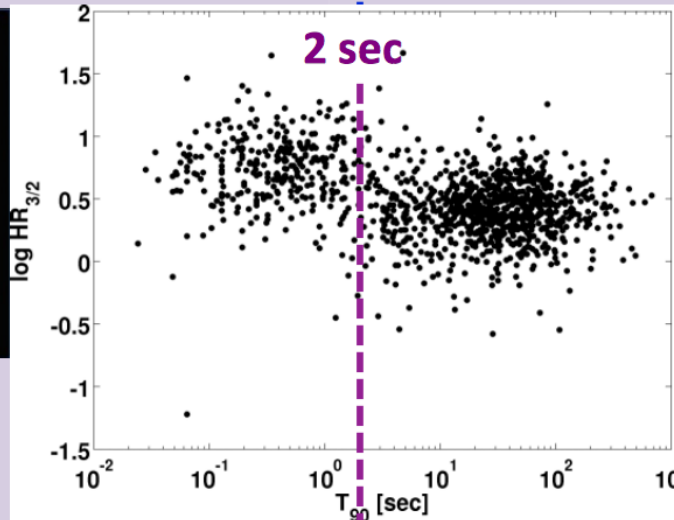
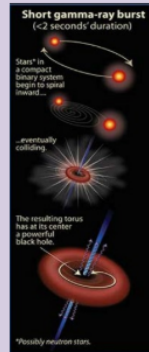
Merger of NS-NS / NS-BH

Core collapse of massive star



Gamma-Ray Burst

Short Hard GRB



Long Soft GRB

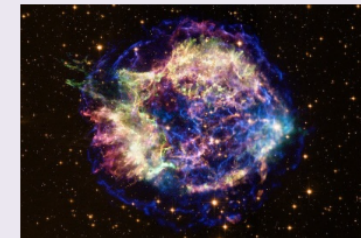
Kilonovae

(Optical/IR, radio remnant)



Supernovae

Type II, Ib/c



Short GRBs: how many on-axis/off-axis

Observed on-axis SHORT GRBs

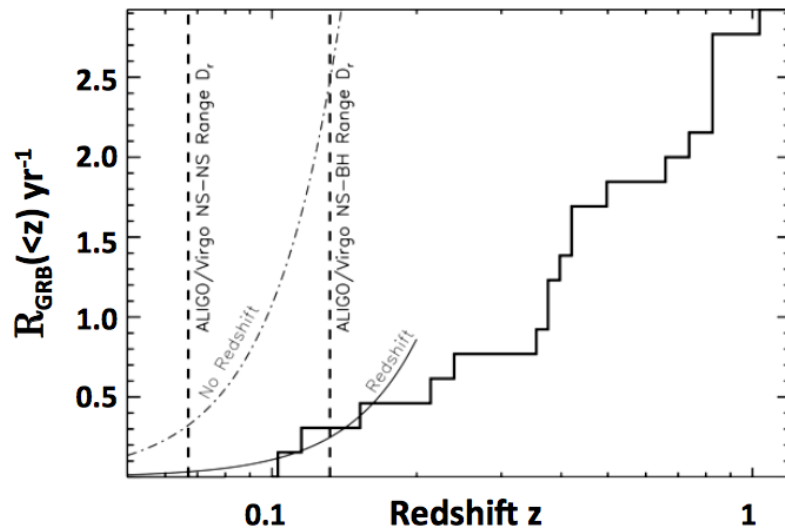
So far **~100** of which **~20** at known distance

$\langle z \rangle = 0.5$ = 3 Gpc

$z_{\min} = 0.12$ = 560 Mpc

Energy = 10^{48-52} erg

GW/on-axis short GRB detection rate



All-sky gamma-ray monitor

→ **0.3 short GRBs per year** (NS-NS range)

→ **3 short GRBs per year** (NS-BH range)

Metzger & Berger 2012, ApJ 746

The number of off-axis wrt on-axis short GRB depend on the beaming angle that is very poorly constrained: only two measures → 7 and 14 degree

Advanced LIGO and Virgo NS-NS detection rate based on short GRB observations

Assuming that the progenitor of all the short GRBs observed are NS-NS merger:

Short GRB observations → NS-NS merger rate

$$R_{\text{NS-NS}} = R_{\text{GRB}} / (1 - \cos(\theta))$$

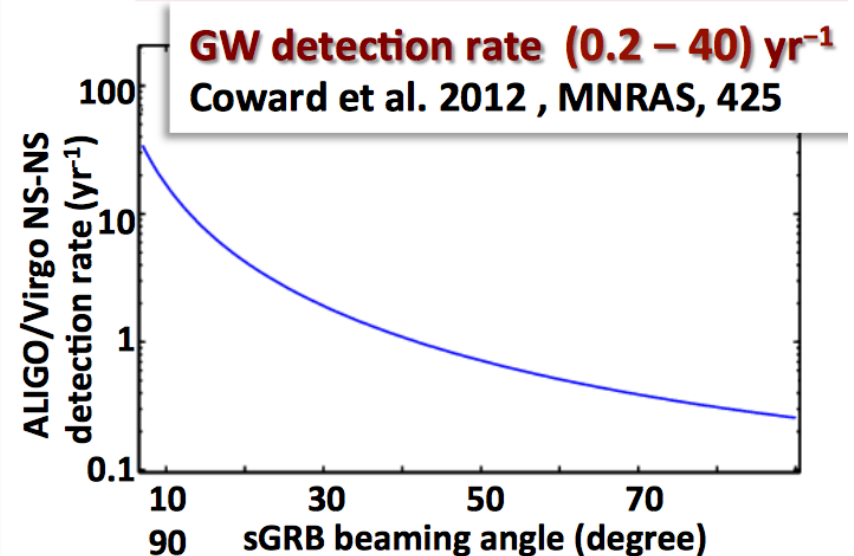
$R_{\text{NS-NS}}$

8 - 1100 Gpc⁻³yr⁻¹ (Coward et al. 2012)

92 - 1154 Gpc⁻³ yr⁻¹ (Siellez et al. 2013)

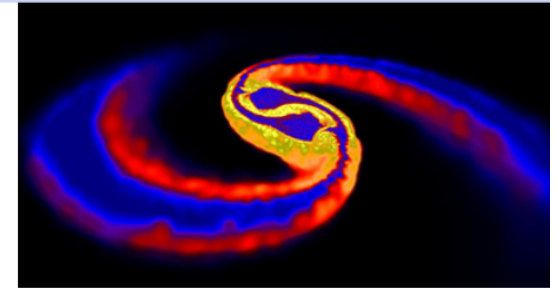
Theoretical prediction

10 - 10000 Gpc⁻³ yr⁻¹ (Abadie et al. 2010)



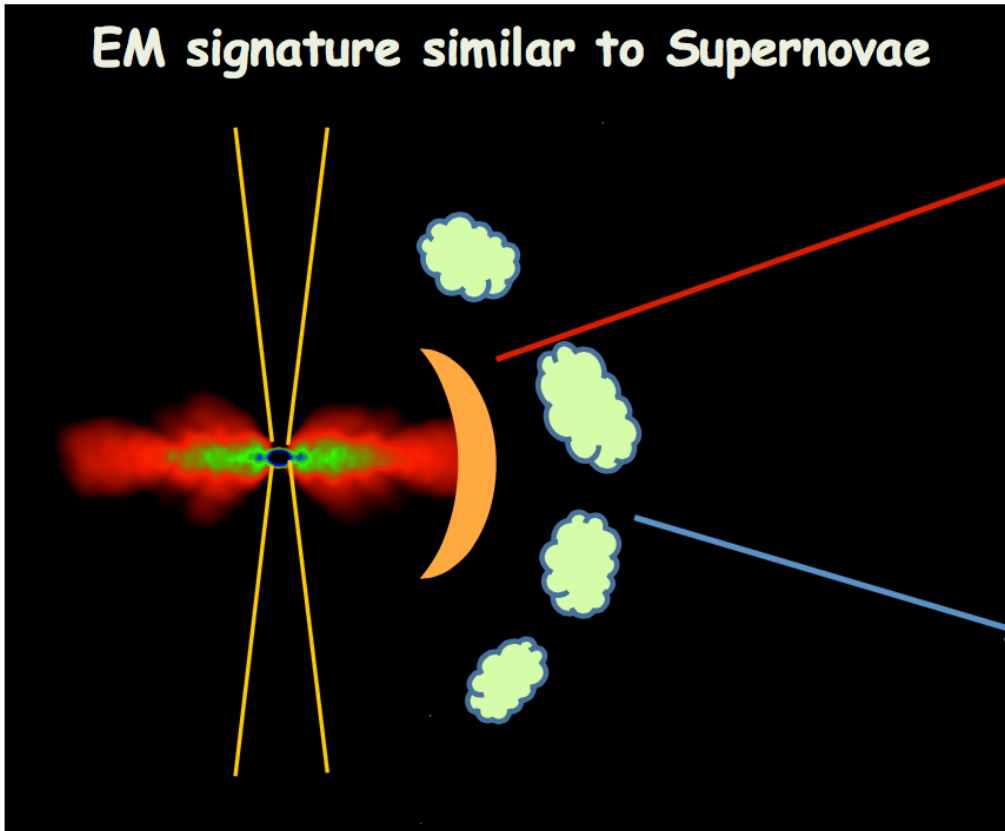
Kilonovae

Significant mass ($0.01-0.1 M_{\odot}$) is dynamically ejected during NS-NS NS-BH mergers at sub-relativistic velocity ($0.1-0.2 c$)



(Piran et al. 2013, MNRAS, 430; Rosswog et al. 2013, MNRAS, 430)

EM signature similar to Supernovae



Macronova – Kilonova

short lived IR-UV signal (days) powered by the radioactive decay of heavy elements synthesized in the ejected outflow

Kulkarni 2005, astro-ph0510256;
Li & Paczynski 1998, ApJL, 507
Metzger et al. 2010, MNRAS, 406;
Piran et al. 2013, MNRAS, 430

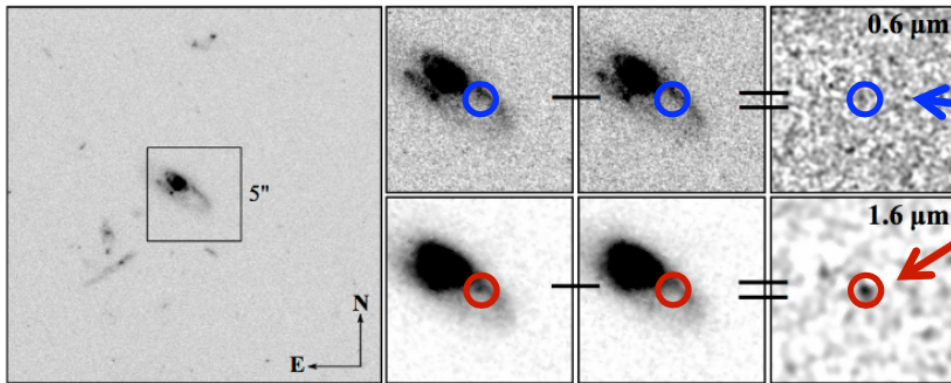
RADIO REMNANT

long lasting radio signals (years) produced by interaction of ejected sub-relativistic outflow with surrounding matter

Piran et al. 2013, MNRAS, 430

Possible HST kilonova detection for short GRB 130603B after 9.4 days

Tanvir et al. 2013, Nature, 500



HST two epochs (9d, 30d) observations

F606W/optical

NIR/F160W

Afterglow and host galaxy $z=0.356$

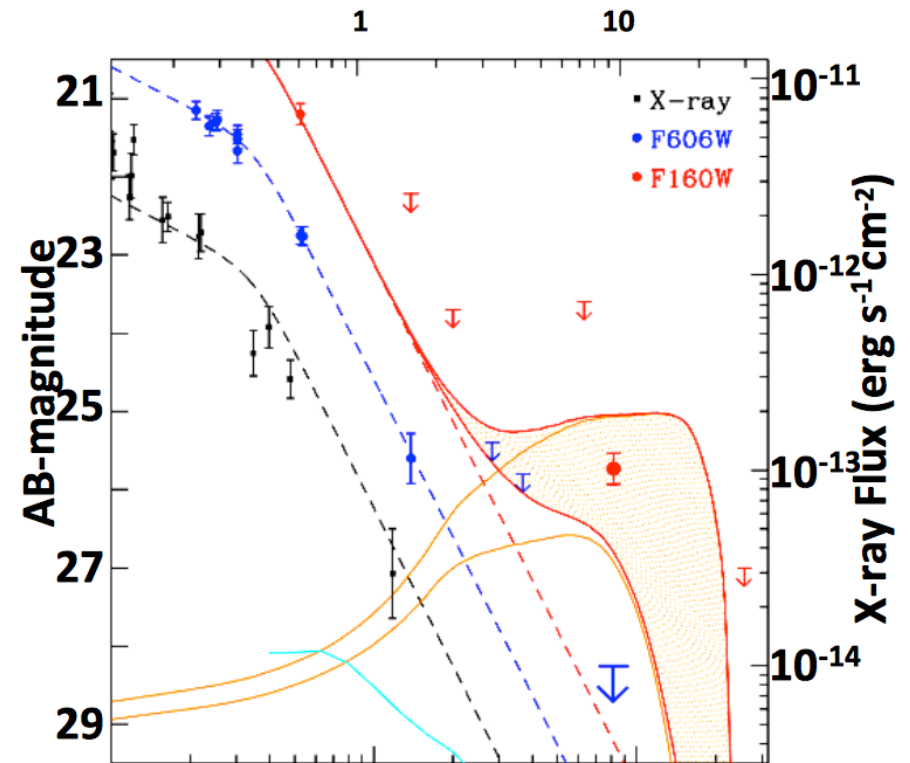
Orange curves → kilonova NIR model

ejected masses of 10^{-2} Mo and 10^{-1} Mo

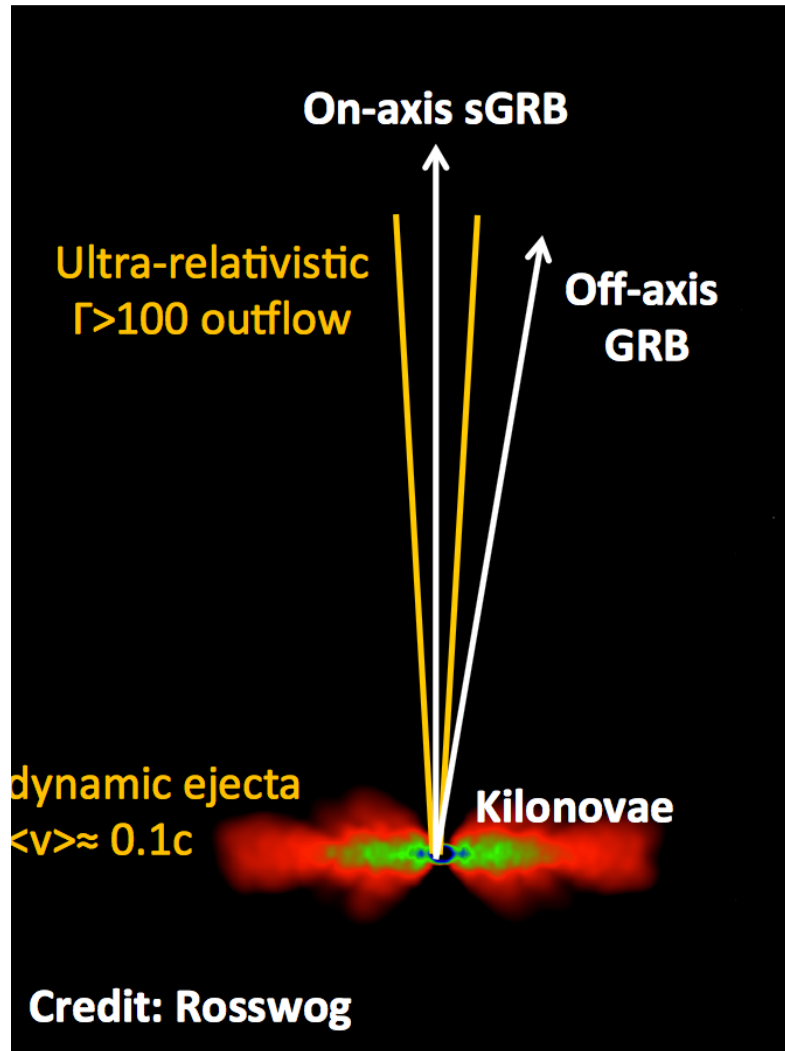
Solid red curves → afterglow + kilonova

Cyan curve → kilonova optical model

Time since GRB 130603B (days)



EM signals from NS-NS/NS-BH merger and massive star core-collapse



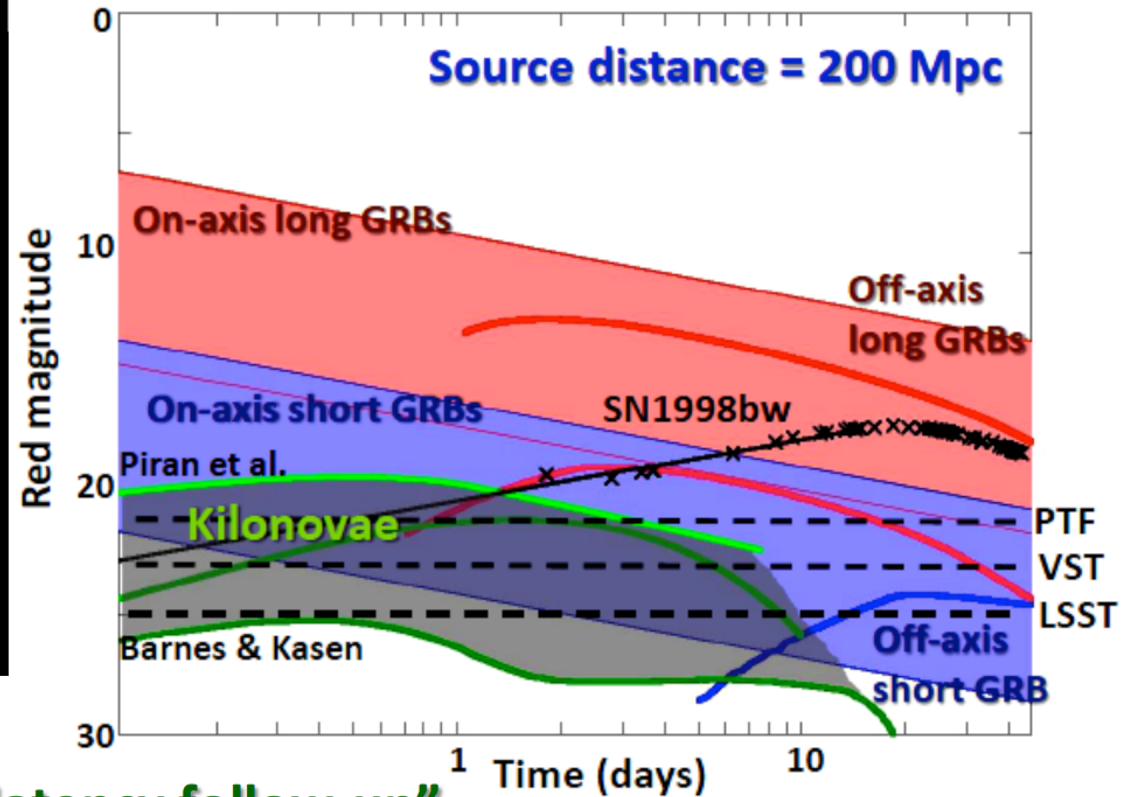
❖ Prompt γ -ray emission (beamed):

GRB \rightarrow GW search **“GRB Triggered analysis”**

❖ GRB afterglow emission, kilonovae:

GW trigger \rightarrow EM search

“Low-latency EM follow-up”

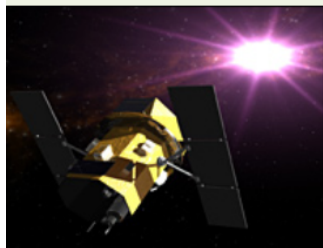


❖ Radio:

GW trigger \rightarrow radio search **“High-latency follow-up”**

Blind radio search \rightarrow GW search **“Triggered off-line analysis”**

GRB prompt emission → TRIGGERED GW SEARCH

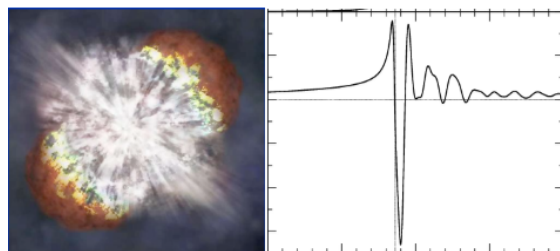


Known **GRB event time** and **sky position**:

- **reduction in search parameter space**
- **gain in search sensitivity**



GW transient searches

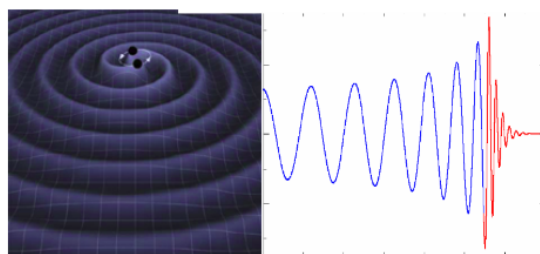


Unmodeled GW burst

(< 1 sec duration)

Arbitrary waveform

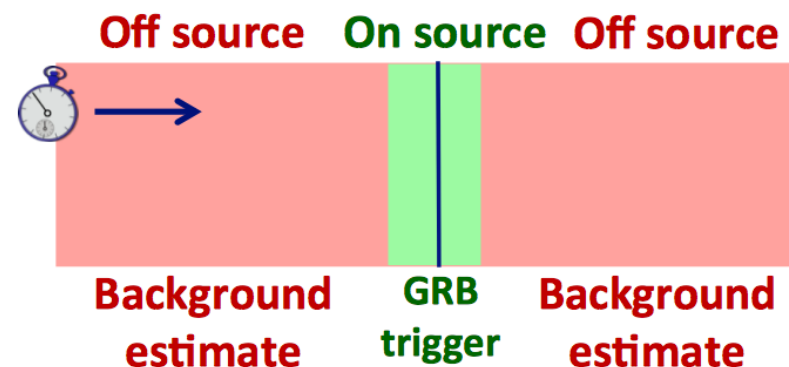
→ **Excess power**



Compact Binary Coalescence

Known waveform

→ **Matched filter**



Analyzed 154 GRBs detected by gamma-ray satellites during **2009-2010**

while 2 or 3 LIGO/Virgo detectors were taken good data

No evidence for gravitational-wave counterparts Abadie et al. 2012, ApJ, 760

Astrophysical non-detection results for single events

Short GRB070201 / GRB051103

➤ gamma-ray emission:

- GRB070201 sky position overlaps with M31 (Andromeda, **770 kpc**)
- GRB051103 sky position overlaps with M81 (**3.6 Mpc**)

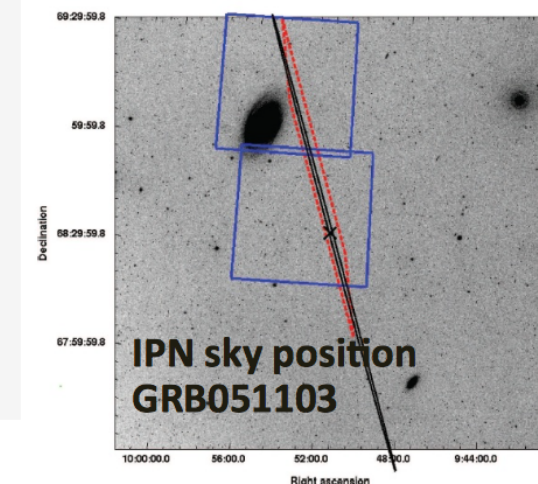
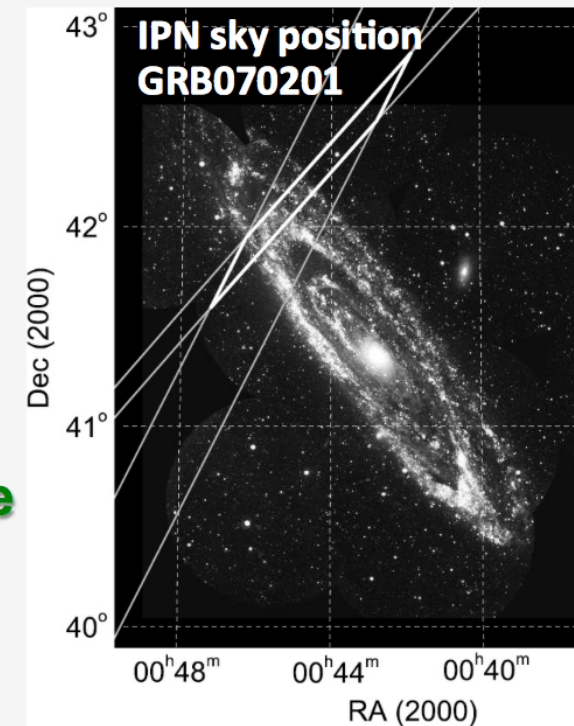
➤ Non detection of GWs from binary coalescence

- compact binary progenitor in M31 excluded at 99% c.l.
- compact binary progenitor in M81 excluded at 98% c.l.

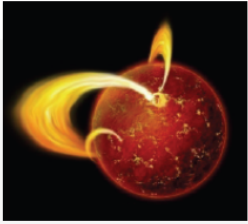
➤ Non detection of GW burst sets limits on emitted energy compatible with:

- soft gamma-ray repeater giant flare
- coalescence in galaxy more distant than M31/M81

Abbott et al 2008, ApJ, 681; Abadie et al. 2012, ApJ, 755



Other EM Triggered GW Searches



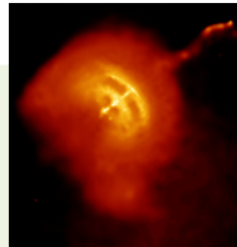
Soft Gamma Ray Repeaters & Anomalous X-ray Pulsars

- Magnetars which emit **hard X-ray/gamma repetitive 0.1 sec flares** (10^{42} erg/s) & **giant flares** (10^{47} erg/s)
- Maximum **energy available for GWs:**
 - Crust-cracking 10^{-7} - 10^{-4} Moc^2
 - Magnetic rearrangement 10^{-9} - 10^{-6} Moc^2

Abbott et al. 2008, PRL, 21110

Abbott et al. 2009, ApJ, 701

Abadie et al. 2011, ApJ, 734



Pulsar glitches:

sudden increase in the NS rotational phase, frequency or frequency derivatives observable in **radio and gamma-ray pulsars**

Expected energy in GW: 10^{-16} - 10^{-12} Moc^2

Abadie et al. 2011 PhRvD, 83

Core-Collapse Supernovae

- Energy in GW 10^{-8} - 10^{-4} Moc^2
- 2-4 yr⁻¹ EM-observed within 20 Mpc
- Challenges in EM: **nightly/weekly optical/X-ray survey** of nearby galaxies
- Low-energy neutrinos



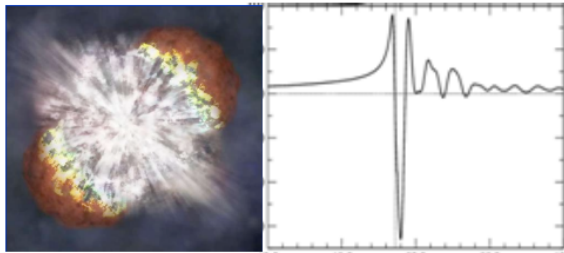
SN1987a

2009-2010 first Electromagnetic follow-up of candidate GW events

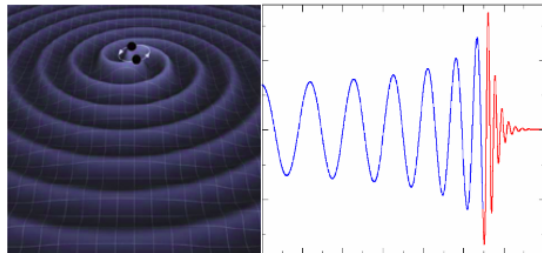


Low-latency GW data analysis pipelines

GW transient searches



Unmodeled GW burst
(< 1 sec duration)
Arbitrary waveform
→ **Excess power**



**Compact Binary
Coalescence**
Known waveform
→ **Matched filter**

enabled us to:

- 1) identify GW candidates in “real time”**
- 2) obtain prompt EM observations**

Abadie et al. 2012, A&A 539

Abadie et al. 2012, A&A 541

GW triggers

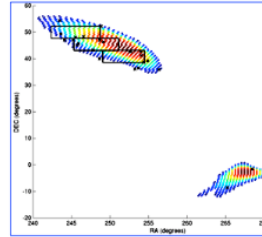
LIGO-H LIGO-L



Virgo



Sky Pointing Position



EM facilities



Event validation

“Search Algorithms”
to identify the GW-triggers

“Software” to identify
GW-trigger for the EM follow-up:

- select statistically significant triggers wrt background
- determine telescope pointing



Abadie et al. 2012, A&A 539
Abadie et al. 2012, A&A 541
Evans et al. 2012, ApJS 203
Aasi et al. 2014, ApJS, 211

~ 10 min.

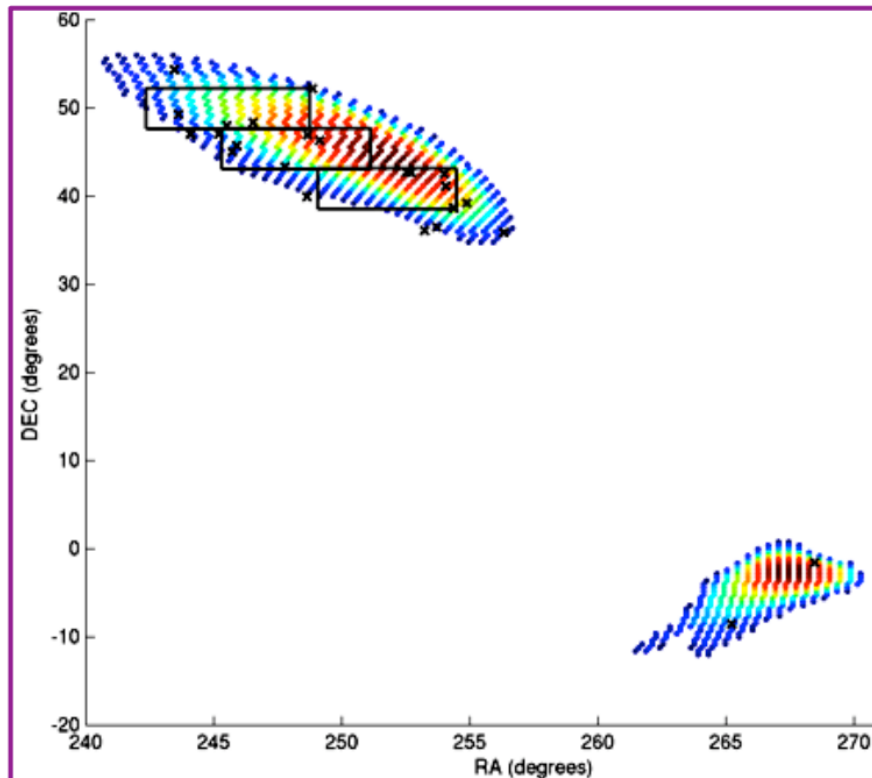
~ 30 min.

Advanced detector era latency expected to be improved to few minutes!

Additional priors to improve the localization accuracy and increase the chance to observe the EM counterpart

To determine each telescope pointing position:

The probability skymap of each GW trigger was 'weighted'



→ taking into account **luminosity** and **distance** of galaxies within the **LIGO/Virgo horizon** for binary containing a NS 50 Mpc

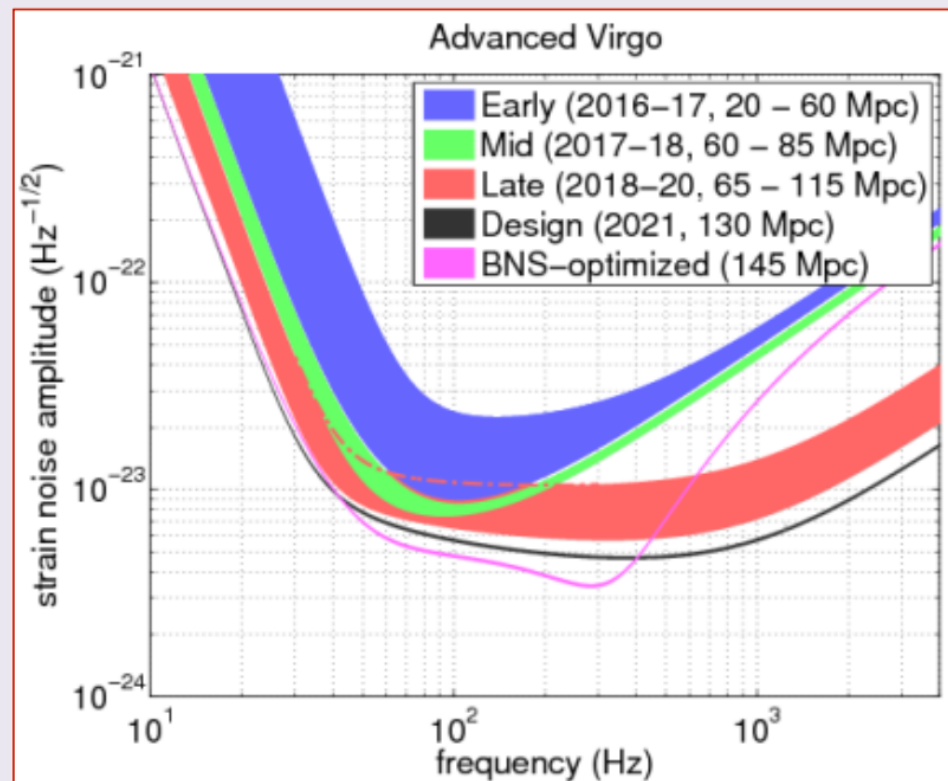
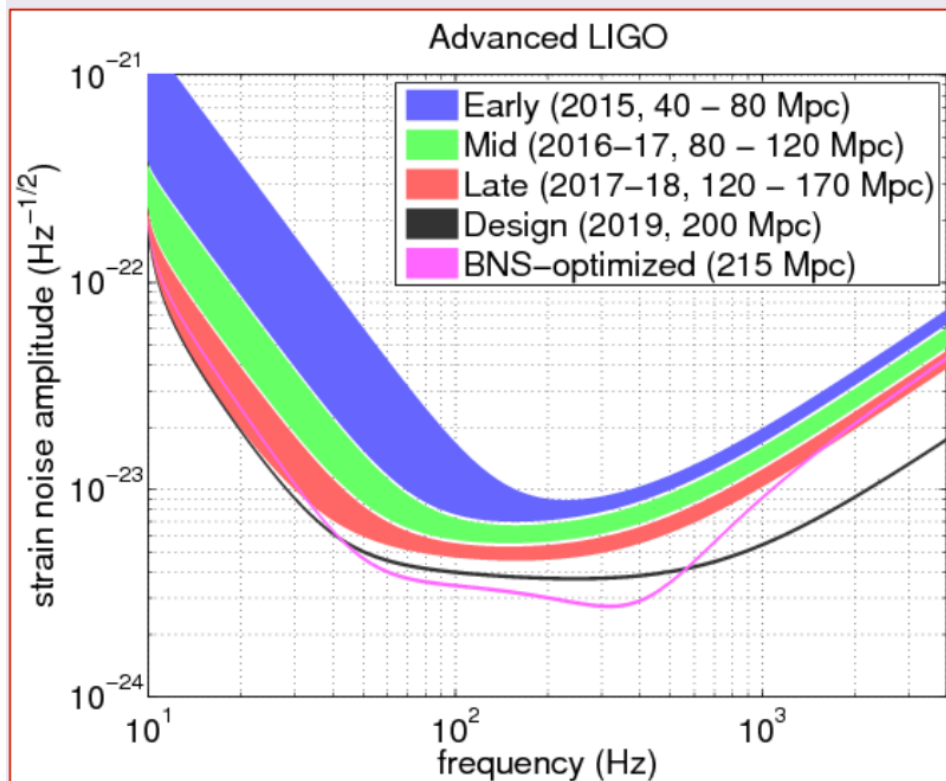


Galaxy targeting strategy

Advanced Detector Era Observing Scenario

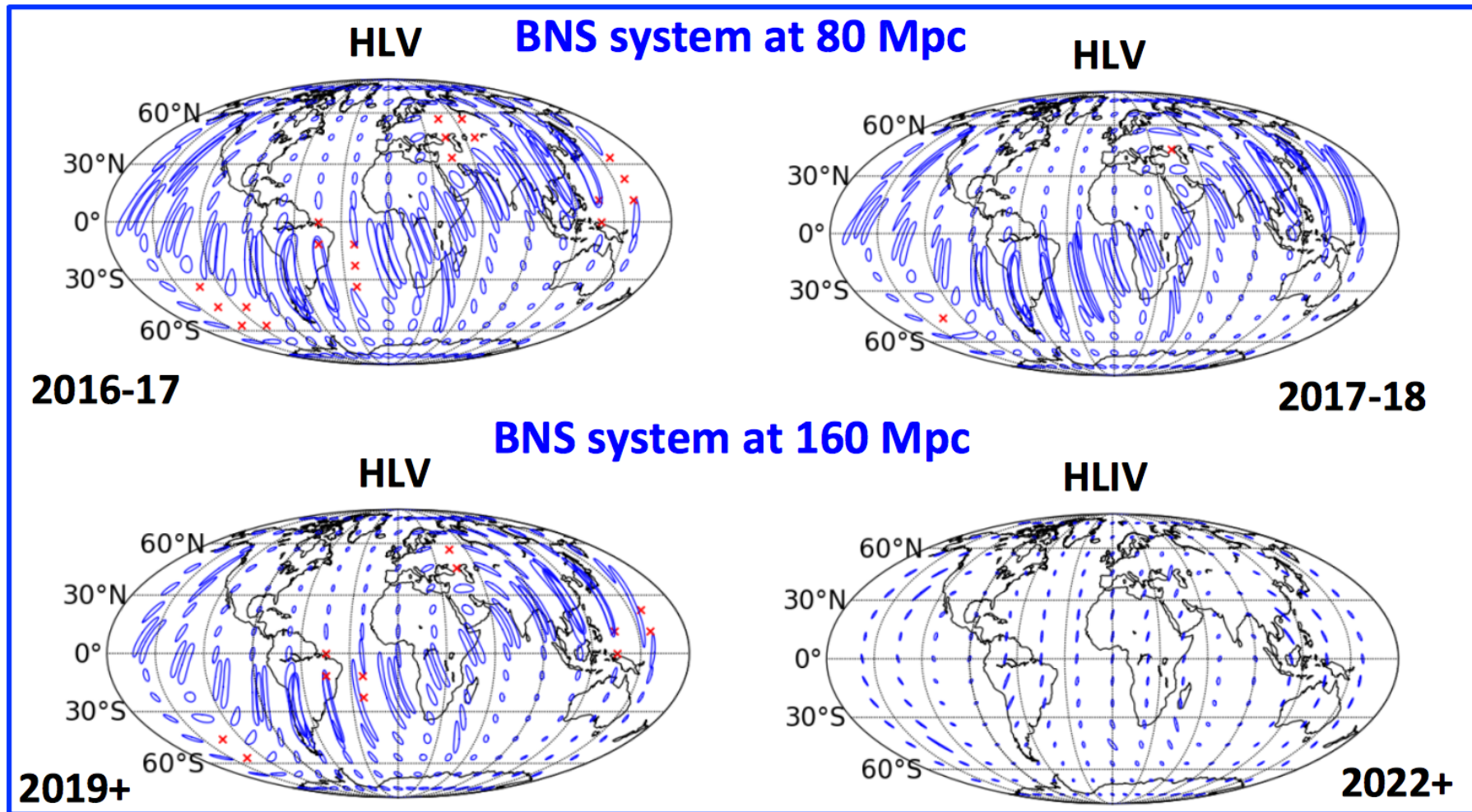
LSC & Virgo Collaborations, arXiv:1304.0670

Progression of sensitivity and range for Binary Neutron Stars





Larger GW-detectable Universe

Sky Localization of Gravitational-Wave Transients



Position uncertainties
with areas of **tens to
hundreds of sq. degrees**

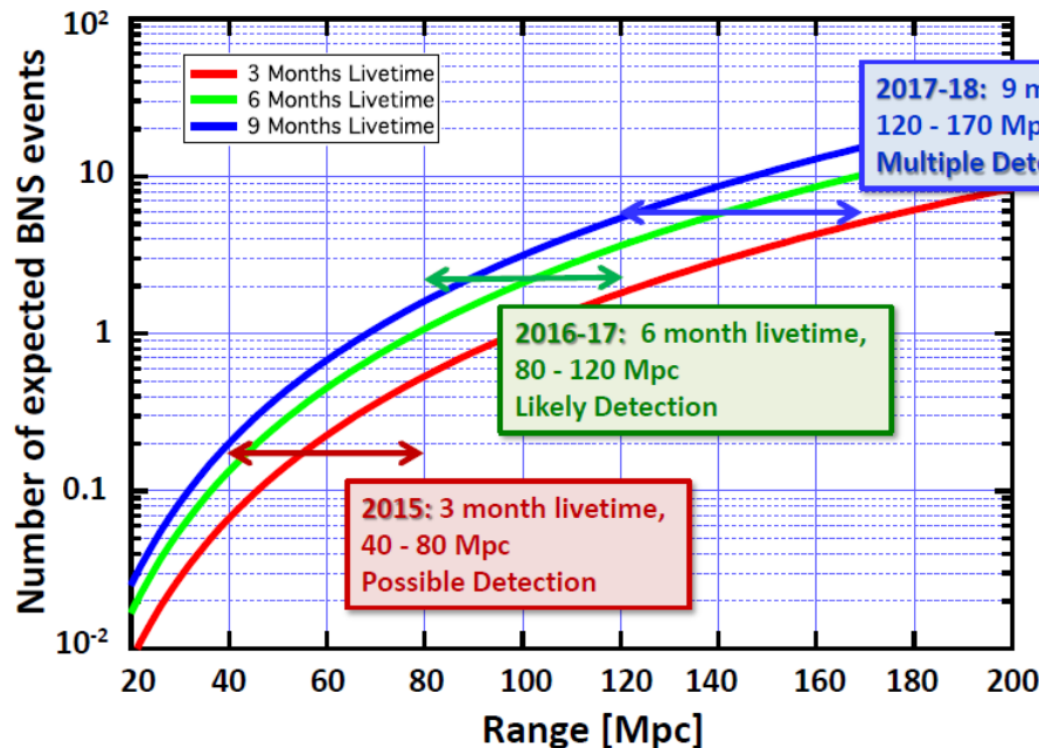
-  → 90% confidence localization areas
-  → signal not confidently detected

Summary of plausible observing scenario

LSC & Virgo collaboration
arXiv:1304.0670

aLIGO/Virgo Range	Rate	Localization
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Epoch	Estimated Run Duration	$E_{GW} = 10^{-2} M_{\odot} c^2$ Burst Range (Mpc)		BNS Range (Mpc)		Number of BNS Detections	% BNS Localized within	
		LIGO	Virgo	LIGO	Virgo		5 deg ²	20 deg ²
2015	3 months	40 – 60	–	40 – 80	–	0.0004 – 3	–	–
2016–17	6 months	60 – 75	20 – 40	80 – 120	20 – 60	0.006 – 20	2	5 – 12
2017–18	9 months	75 – 90	40 – 50	120 – 170	60 – 85	0.04 – 100	1 – 2	10 – 12
2019+	(per year)	105	40 – 80	200	65 – 130	0.2 – 200	3 – 8	8 – 28
2022+ (India)	(per year)	105	80	200	130	0.4 – 400	17	48



Assuming BNS merger rate
of $1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ Mpc}^{-3} \text{ year}^{-1}$