

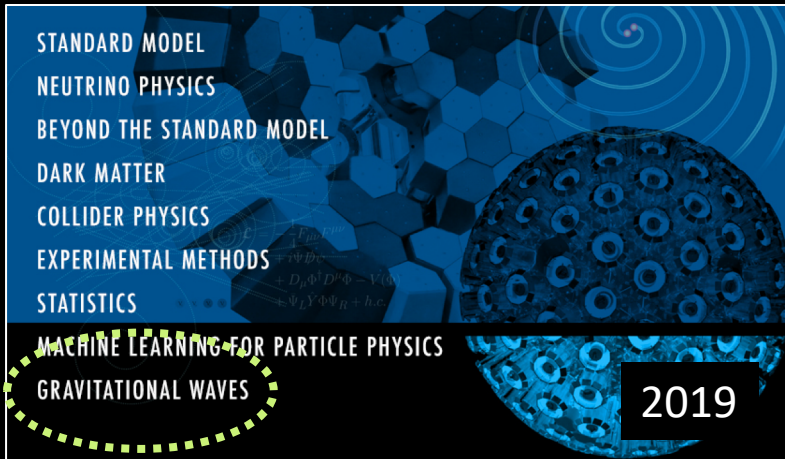
TRISEP lectures on Gravitational Waves

Djuna Croon, TRIUMF

A new era of astronomy!

- First measurement of a binary black hole merger in 2015 by LIGO
- LIGO/Virgo have detected 11+19 mergers
- Many new experiments planned
- Huge opportunity for (particle) astrophysics and cosmological research!

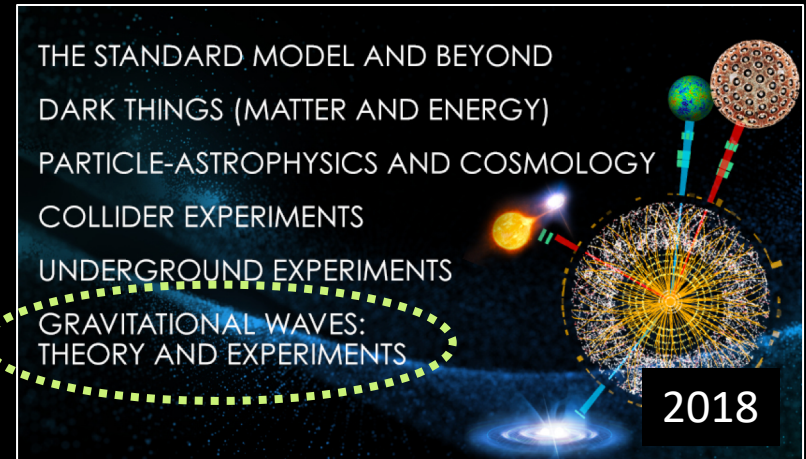
A new era of particle theory!



STANDARD MODEL
NEUTRINO PHYSICS
BEYOND THE STANDARD MODEL
DARK MATTER
COLLIDER PHYSICS
EXPERIMENTAL METHODS
STATISTICS
MACHINE LEARNING FOR PARTICLE PHYSICS
GRAVITATIONAL WAVES

2019

A slide with a blue background featuring a hexagonal pattern and a circular particle detector. The text lists various physics topics, with 'MACHINE LEARNING FOR PARTICLE PHYSICS' and 'GRAVITATIONAL WAVES' circled in a dashed green line.

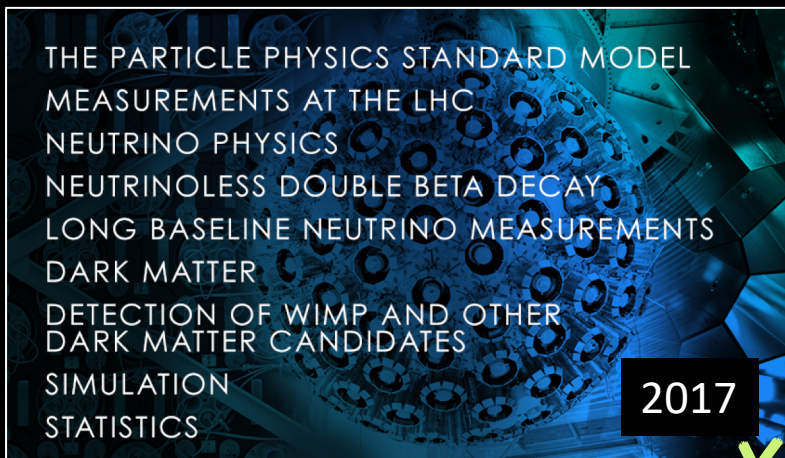


THE STANDARD MODEL AND BEYOND
DARK THINGS (MATTER AND ENERGY)
PARTICLE-ASTROPHYSICS AND COSMOLOGY
COLLIDER EXPERIMENTS
UNDERGROUND EXPERIMENTS
GRAVITATIONAL WAVES:
THEORY AND EXPERIMENTS

2018

A slide with a dark blue background featuring a particle detector and a glowing yellow sphere. The text lists various physics topics, with 'GRAVITATIONAL WAVES: THEORY AND EXPERIMENTS' circled in a dashed green line.

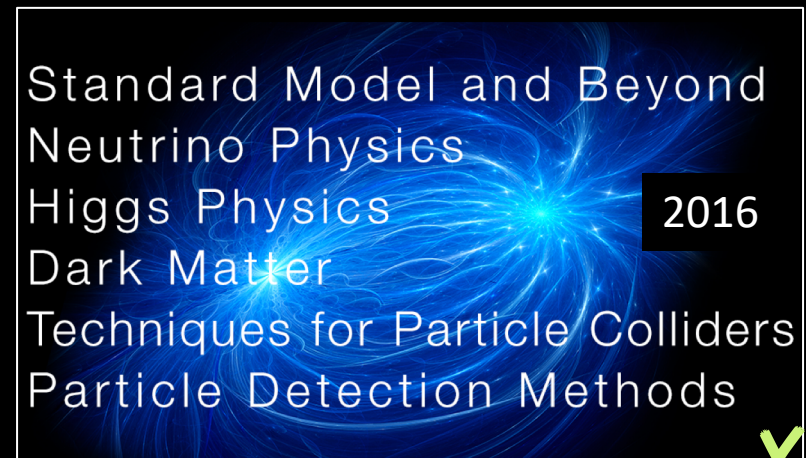
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THE PARTICLE PHYSICS STANDARD MODEL
MEASUREMENTS AT THE LHC
NEUTRINO PHYSICS
NEUTRINOLESS DOUBLE BETA DECAY
LONG BASELINE NEUTRINO MEASUREMENTS
DARK MATTER
DETECTION OF WIMP AND OTHER
DARK MATTER CANDIDATES
SIMULATION
STATISTICS

2017

A slide with a blue background featuring a particle detector. The text lists various physics topics. A large green 'X' is drawn at the bottom right of the slide.



Standard Model and Beyond
Neutrino Physics
Higgs Physics
Dark Matter
Techniques for Particle Colliders
Particle Detection Methods

2016

A slide with a blue background featuring a glowing particle detector. The text lists various physics topics. A large green 'X' is drawn at the bottom right of the slide.

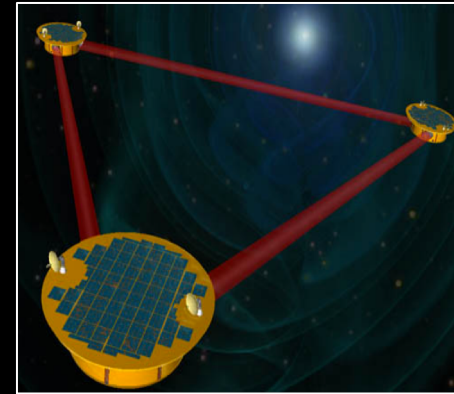
Gravitational wave timeline

- Proposed in **1905** by Poincaré *Poincaré, Sur la dynamique de l'électron, 1905*
- Predicted in **1916** by Einstein
- Indirect evidence in **1974** from the Hulse-Taylor binary pulsar (1993 Nobel Prize)
- Direct evidence (**2015** onwards)
 - Interferometer proposals: 1960s
 - First detection in 2015 (announced in 2016) by the LIGO collaboration (2017 Nobel Prize)

Current/future experiments



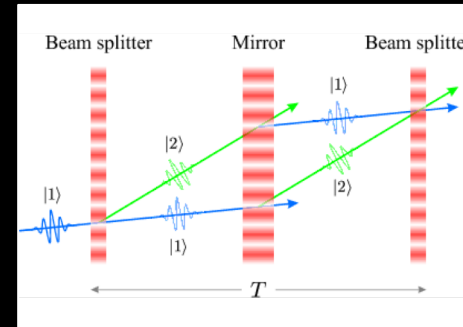
Ground-based interferometers
LIGO, Virgo,
KAGRA (now)
ET, CE (ca. 2030)



Space-based interferometers
LISA, Tianqin,
Decigo, BBO
(ca. 2035+)



Pulsar timing Arrays
EPTA, IPTA, SKA
(now)



Atom interferometry
AION, MAGIS
(ca. 2025)

These lectures

- A (brief) note on General Relativity
- Gravitational wave theory
- Binary Mergers
- Detection
- Science opportunities and prospects

A (brief) note on

GENERAL RELATIVITY

Scalars, vectors, and tensors

- I will assume you are familiar with index notation:

A Scalar

A_{μ} Vector

$A_{\mu\nu}$ Tensor (rank 2)

- Our indices will (generally) run over space and time variables: $\mu, \nu = \{t, x, y, z\}$

Einstein notation

- I will also use the following notation:
 - Covariant vector: A_μ
 - Contravariant vector: A^μ
- Greek indices (μ, ν) run over **spacetime**,
Latin indices (i, j) run over **space**
- Repeated indices are summed over,

$$x^i x_i \equiv \sum_i x^i x_i$$

“Spacetime tells matter how to move;
matter tells spacetime how to curve”

John A. Wheeler

The Einstein Field Equations

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

The Einstein Field Equations

Einstein tensor

Ricci scalar

$$G_{\mu\nu} \equiv R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}Rg_{\mu\nu} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4}T_{\mu\nu}$$

Ricci tensor

Energy-momentum
tensor

Metric

The Einstein Field Equations

Einstein tensor

Ricci scalar

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

Ricci tensor

Energy-momentum tensor

Metric

Curvature

Matter

The metric tensor

- Symmetric real rank-2 tensor $g_{\mu\nu} = g_{\nu\mu}$

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} g_{tt} & g_{tx} & g_{ty} & g_{tz} \\ g_{xt} & g_{xx} & g_{xy} & g_{xz} \\ g_{yt} & g_{yx} & g_{yy} & g_{yz} \\ g_{zt} & g_{zx} & g_{zy} & g_{zz} \end{pmatrix}$$

- Measures distance: $ds^2 = \sum_{\mu,\nu} g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$

Q: How many independent components does $g_{\mu\nu}$ have (maximally)?

The metric tensor

- Symmetric real rank-2 tensor $g_{\mu\nu} = g_{\nu\mu}$

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} g_{tt} & g_{tx} & g_{ty} & g_{tz} \\ g_{xt} & g_{xx} & g_{xy} & g_{xz} \\ g_{yt} & g_{yx} & g_{yy} & g_{yz} \\ g_{zt} & g_{zx} & g_{zy} & g_{zz} \end{pmatrix}$$

- Measures distance: $ds^2 = \sum_{\mu,\nu} g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$

Example: 2 spatial dimensions

$$\mu, \nu = \{x, y\}$$

- Distance measured as:

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= \sum_{\mu, \nu} g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu \\ &= g_{xx} dx^2 + g_{yy} dy^2 + 2g_{xy} dx dy \end{aligned}$$

Pythagoras
theorem

- Flat space: $ds^2 = dx^2 + dy^2$
So, in flat *space*, $g_{ii} = 1$, $g_{ij} = 0$ for $i \neq j$
- Flat *space-time* has $g_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} = \pm \text{diag}(-1, 1, 1, 1)$

The Ricci tensor $R_{\mu\nu}$ and scalar R

- Describe the **geometry of space-time**
- Derived from the Riemann tensor, $R^\mu{}_{\nu\sigma\rho}$

Ricci tensor: contract the first and the third index
Ricci scalar: contract the Ricci tensor (with $g^{\mu\nu}$)

- Flat spacetime: $R_{\mu\nu} = 0 = R$
 - But, remember the EFE:

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

- **Flat spacetime is empty!**

Matter \leftrightarrow curvature

- In reality, space-time is *almost* flat almost everywhere. Gravity is weak,

$$\frac{8\pi G_N}{c^4} = 2.1 \times 10^{-43} \text{ s}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$$

- For example, consider the sun:

$$\text{mass density of the sun} = 1.4 \text{ g cm}^{-3} \times c^2$$

$$\text{energy density of the sun} = 1.3 \times 10^{20} \text{ kg m}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-2}$$

$$G_{\mu\nu} = 2.6 \times 10^{-23} \text{ m}^{-2}$$

$$\sim (\text{radius of curvature})^{-2}$$

Matter \leftrightarrow curvature

- In reality, space-time is *almost* flat almost everywhere. Learn more: Repeat this exercise for different astrophysical systems (for example the Earth)

- For example, consider the sun
mass density of the sun = $1.4 \times 10^3 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$

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$\sim (\text{radius of curvature})^{-2}$



An introduction to

GRAVITATIONAL WAVES

What is a ~~gravitational~~ wave?

- A solution to a **wave equation**:

$$\square h(\vec{x}, t) = \left[\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \vec{x}^2} \right] h(\vec{x}, t) = 0$$

- Or, with a source:

$$\square h(\vec{x}, t) = [\text{source}]$$

- We will see that the EFE take this form in linearized theory

Linearized GR

- As we saw, the (Minkowski) metric of flat space-time is given by $\eta_{\mu\nu} = \pm \text{diag}(1, -1, -1, -1)$
- Imagine that
$$g_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} + h_{\mu\nu}, \quad \text{where } h_{\mu\nu} \ll g_{\mu\nu}$$
i.e., a flat metric with a small perturbation
- Now we fill this into the EFE and perform some dark magic (Convenient gauge changes)

EFE for a metric perturbation*

$$\partial^\nu h_{\mu\nu} = 0$$

Lorentz gauge

$$\square h_{\mu\nu} = -\frac{16\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu}$$

↑
Metric perturbation

↑
Source: energy
momentum tensor

Q: How many independent components does $h_{\mu\nu}$ have?

* This is actually an equation for the trace-reversed metric perturbation, but for our purposes the difference is not important

EFE for a metric perturbation*

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Metric perturbation

Source: energy
momentum tensor

A: 6 = 10 (symmetric tensor)
- 4 (Lorentz gauge)

* This is actually an equation for the trace-reversed metric perturbation, but for our purposes the difference is not important

Transverse-Traceless gauge

- Outside of the source, $\square h_{\mu\nu} = 0$
 - This gives 4 more conditions
 - $h_{\mu\nu}$ has $6-4=2$ independent components
- This is exploited in the **Transverse-Traceless gauge**,
 - $h_{\mu 0} = 0$ only spatial components
 - $h_j^j = 0$ traceless
 - $h_{ij,j} = 0$ no divergence

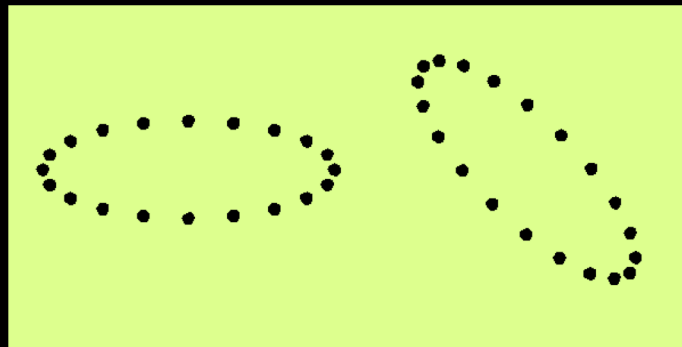
Learn more: find an example of a metric in the TT gauge

GW polarization

- Example: wave traveling down the z-axis

$$h_{ab}^{TT}(t, z) = \begin{pmatrix} h_+ & h_\times \\ h_\times & -h_+ \end{pmatrix} \cos(\omega(t - z/c))$$

- Z-axis into/out of the slide:



Solving $\square h_{\mu\nu} = -\frac{16\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu}$

- Recall that generally, linear wave equations can be solved using Green's functions:

$$\square_x G(x - x') = \delta^4(x - x')$$

- Just as in electrodynamics, we need the *retarded* Green's function (traveling forward in time)
- The solution is then,

Learn more: Verify this

$$h_{ij}^{TT}(t, \vec{x}) = \frac{4G}{c^4} \Lambda_{ij,kl} \int d^3x' \frac{1}{|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'|} T_{kl} \left(t - \frac{|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'|}{c}, \vec{x}' \right)$$

TT-projector

$$\Lambda_{ij,kl} = P_{ik}P_{jl} - \frac{1}{2}P_{ij}P_{kl}$$

Q: why is the integral over space only?

Solving $\square h_{\mu\nu} = -\frac{16\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu}$

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TT-projector

$$\Lambda_{ij,kl} = P_{ik}P_{jl} - \frac{1}{2}P_{ij}P_{kl}$$

A: the time elements are related by energy-momentum conservation

Further approximations

- To study $h_{\mu\nu}$ further, we will take two limits:
 1. The detector is **far** from the source
 2. The source is **non-relativistic**
- The detector is far (1): we can expand

$$|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'| = |\vec{r}| - \vec{x}' \cdot \hat{N}$$



Q: for a source of size d , why is $x' \leq d$?

$$h_{ij}^{TT}(t, \vec{x}) = \frac{1}{r} \frac{4G}{c^4} \Lambda_{ij,kl} \int d^3x' T_{kl} \left(t - \frac{|\vec{r}|}{c} + \frac{\vec{x}' \cdot \hat{N}}{c}, \vec{x}' \right)$$

Further approximations

- To study $h_{\mu\nu}$ further, we will take two limits:
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 2. The source is **non-relativistic**
- The detector is far (1): we can expand

$$|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'| = |\vec{r}| - \vec{x}' \cdot \hat{N}$$



A: $T_{\mu\nu}$ is only nonzero inside d

$$h_{ij}^{TT}(t, \vec{x}) = \frac{1}{r} \frac{4G}{c^4} \Lambda_{ij,kl} \int d^3x' T_{kl} \left(t - \frac{|\vec{r}|}{c} + \frac{\vec{x}' \cdot \hat{N}}{c}, \vec{x}' \right)$$

Weak field, low velocity

- For **self-gravitating** systems, $\mu = \frac{\prod_i m_i}{m_{\text{tot}}}$
Reduced mass
- $$\frac{1}{2} \mu v^2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{G_N \mu m_{\text{tot}}}{r}$$

- Such that the weak-field limit ($R_s \ll r$) **implies** the low-velocity limit,

$$\frac{v^2}{c^2} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{R_s}{r} \quad R_s = \frac{2G_N m_{\text{tot}}}{c^2}$$

Schwarzschild radius

Low velocity expansion (2)

- Imagine a source of size d and frequency ω , such that the linear velocity is $v = \omega d$
- As we will see, the GW frequency is then also $\omega_{GW} = O(\omega)$, such that

$$\lambda_{GW} \sim \frac{c}{v} d$$

- For NR systems ($c \gg v$), we find $\lambda_{GW} \gg d$
- Internal motions unimportant \rightarrow **multipole expansion** converges

Multipole expansion

- Using the expansion,

$$T_{kl} \left(t - \frac{|\vec{r}|}{c} + \frac{\vec{x}' \cdot \hat{N}}{c}, \vec{x}' \right) = T_{kl} + \frac{x'^i n_i}{c} \partial_0 T_{kl} + \dots \Big|_{(t - \frac{r}{c}, \vec{x}')}$$

- We can express h_{ij} in moments of T_{ij}

$$h_{ij}^{TT}(t, \vec{x}) = \frac{4G}{c^4} \Lambda_{ij,kl} \times \left(S^{kl} + \frac{n_m}{c} \dot{S}^{kl,m} + \dots \right)$$

$$S^{ij}(t) = \int d^3x T^{ij}(t, x)$$

$$S^{ij,k}(t) = \int d^3x T^{ij}(t, x) x^k$$

First two **moments** of T_{ij}

Mass quadrupole moment

- It can be shown using $T_{\mu\nu, \nu} = 0$

$$S^{ij} = \int d^3x T^{ij}(t, x) = \partial_0^2 \left[\frac{1}{c^2} \int d^3x T^{00}(t, x) x^i x^j \right] = \ddot{M}_{ij}$$

Learn more: Show this. Hint: remember that $T_{\mu\nu}$ vanishes outside the source

- Here M_{ij} is the mass quadrupole moment

$$h_{ij}^{TT} = [h_{ij}^{TT}]_{\text{quad}} + \dots$$

$$[h_{ij}^{TT}]_{\text{quad}} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{2G}{c^4} \Lambda_{ij,kl} \ddot{M}_{kl}(t - r/c)$$

Take-home message

- Gravitational waves are generated by **accelerated mass distributions with a nonzero mass quadrupole moment**
 - No spherically symmetric systems
 - No static or uniformly moving systems
- Observable GW sources are **huge** and **relatively close by** (or very numerous)

Take-home message

- We found the first term in the expansion to be the quadrupole moment,

$$[h_{ij}^{TT}]_{\text{quad}} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{2G}{c^4} \Lambda_{ij,kl} \ddot{M}_{kl}(t - r/c)$$

- Let's plug in some numbers...

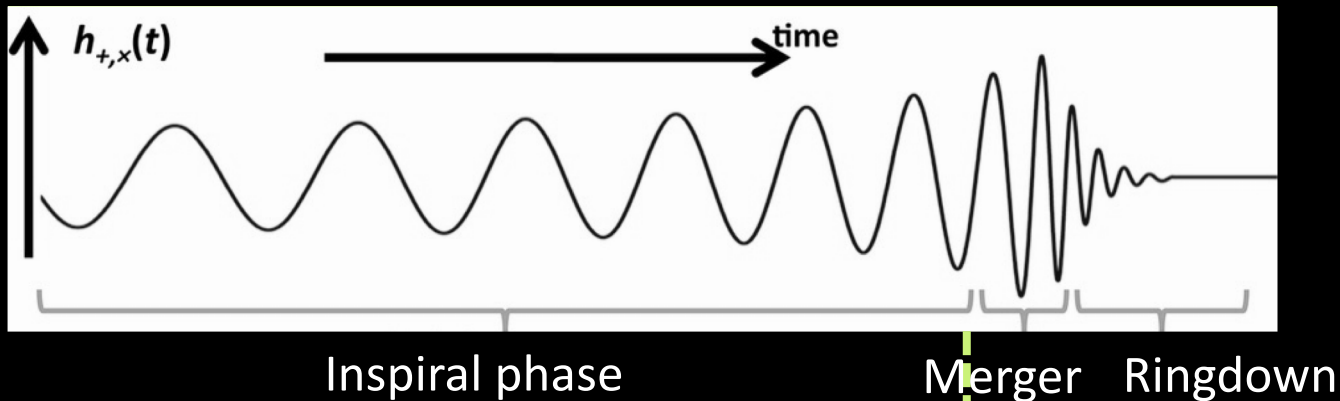
$$\left. \begin{array}{l} r = 140 \times 10^6 \text{ ly} \\ \ddot{M}_{kl} = 60M_{\odot} \times c^2 \end{array} \right\} [h_{ab}^{TT}]_{\text{quad}} \sim 10^{-19}$$

Gravitational waves from

BINARY MERGERS

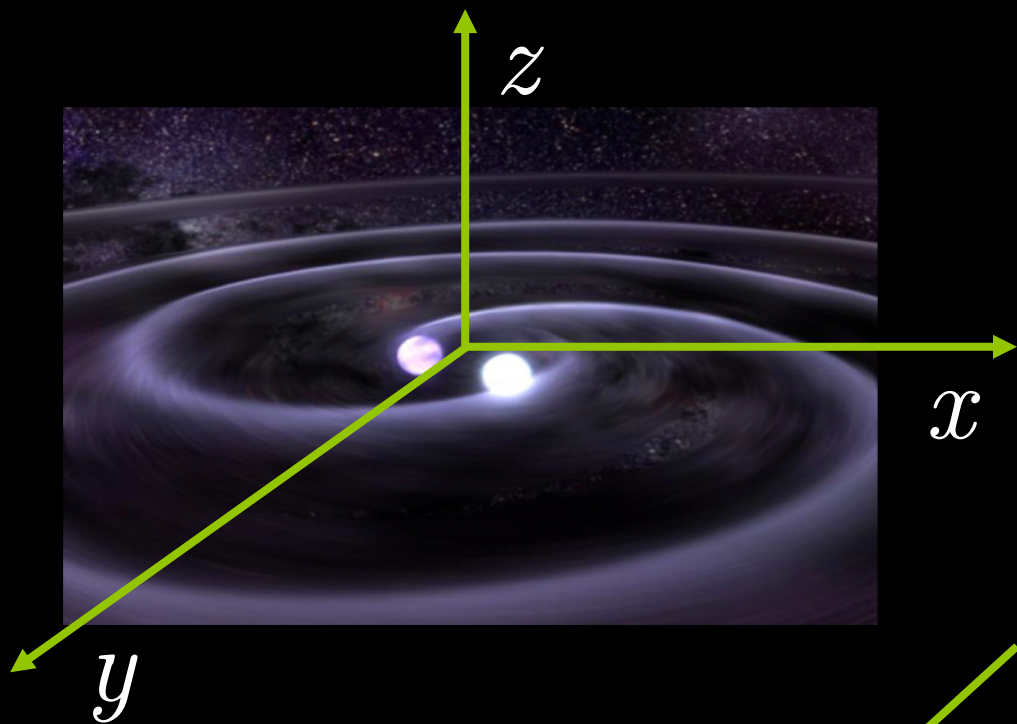
Binary mergers

The GW observed at LIGO/Virgo are from the inspiral phases of BNS and BBH mergers



In the inspiral phase, the approximations from the previous section are good

$$f_{\text{ISCO}} = \frac{C_*^{3/2}}{3^{3/2} \pi G_N (M_1 + M_2)}$$



We choose the origin of our coordinate system to be the center of mass (CM) of the binary

$$\mu = \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2} \quad \text{Reduced mass}$$

Mass density
CM frame

$$\rho(t, \vec{x}) = \mu \delta^{(3)}(\vec{x} - \vec{x}_0(t))$$



Learn more: Show this.

$$M^{ij}(t) = \mu x_0^i(t) x_0^j(t)$$

Polarization waveforms

Let's first imagine the wave propagation along

the z-axis: $[h_{ij}^{TT}]_{\text{quad}} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{2G}{c^4} \Lambda_{ij,kl} \ddot{M}_{kl}(t - r/c)$



Using the TT-projector,

$$\Lambda_{ij,kl} = P_{ik}P_{jl} - \frac{1}{2}P_{ij}P_{kl}$$

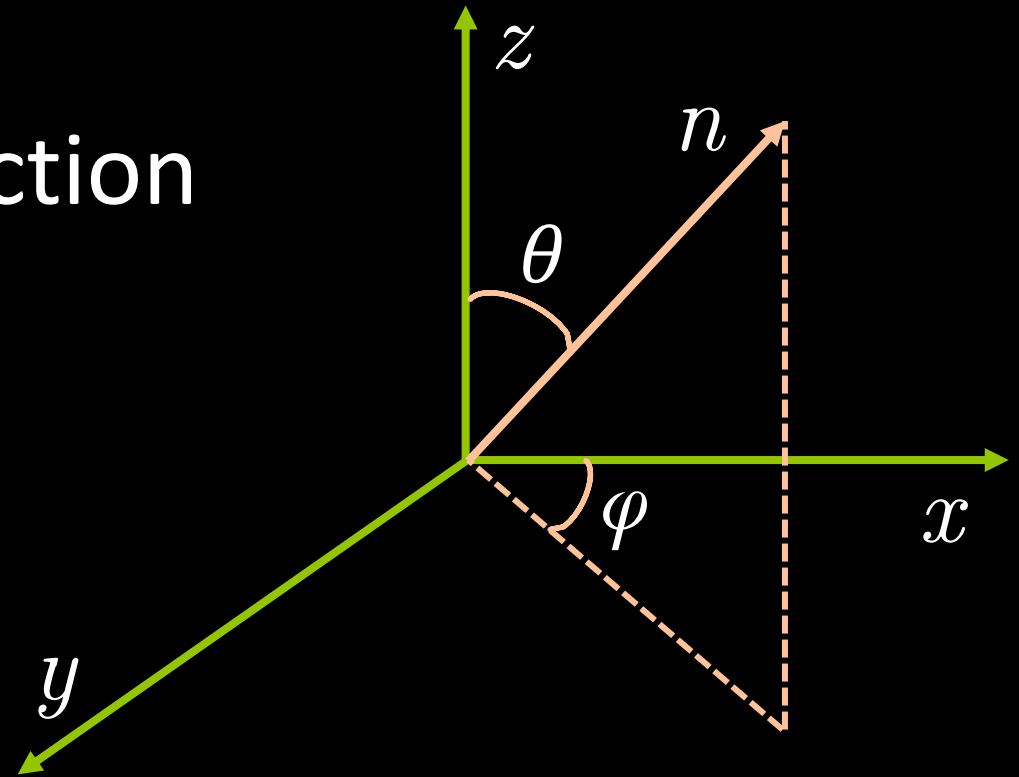
$$h_{+} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{G}{c^4} (\ddot{M}_{11} - \ddot{M}_{22})$$

$$h_{\times} = \frac{2}{r} \frac{G}{c^4} \ddot{M}_{12}$$

We can rotate our result to find results for other propagation directions

More general propagation direction

Use the rotation matrix to translate the previous result to a general direction



$$h_{+} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{G}{c^4} \left(\ddot{M}_{11} (\cos^2 \phi - \sin^2 \phi \cos^2 \theta) + \ddot{M}_{22} (\sin^2 \phi - \cos^2 \phi \cos^2 \theta) - \ddot{M}_{12} \sin 2\phi (1 + \cos^2 \theta) \right)$$

We chose an orbit in the (x, y) -plane, hence $M_{i3} = 0$

$$h_{\times} = \frac{2}{r} \frac{G}{c^4} \left((\ddot{M}_{11} - \ddot{M}_{22}) \sin 2\phi \cos \theta + \ddot{M}_{12} \cos 2\phi \cos \theta \right)$$

A simplified calculation

Further assumptions:

- $m_1 = m_2$
- Circular orbits
- No backreaction

Source motion:

$$x_0(t) = -R \sin(\omega t)$$

$$y_0(t) = R \cos(\omega t)$$

$$M^{ij}(t) = \mu x_0^i(t) x_0^j(t)$$



Learn more: Show this.

$$h_+ = \frac{1}{r} \frac{4G\mu\omega^2 R^2}{c^4} \left(\frac{1 + \cos^2 \theta}{2} \right) \cos(2\omega t + 2\phi)$$

$$h_\times = \frac{2}{r} \frac{4G\mu\omega^2 R^2}{c^4} \cos \theta \sin(2\omega t + 2\phi)$$

A simplified calculation

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Learn more: Show this.

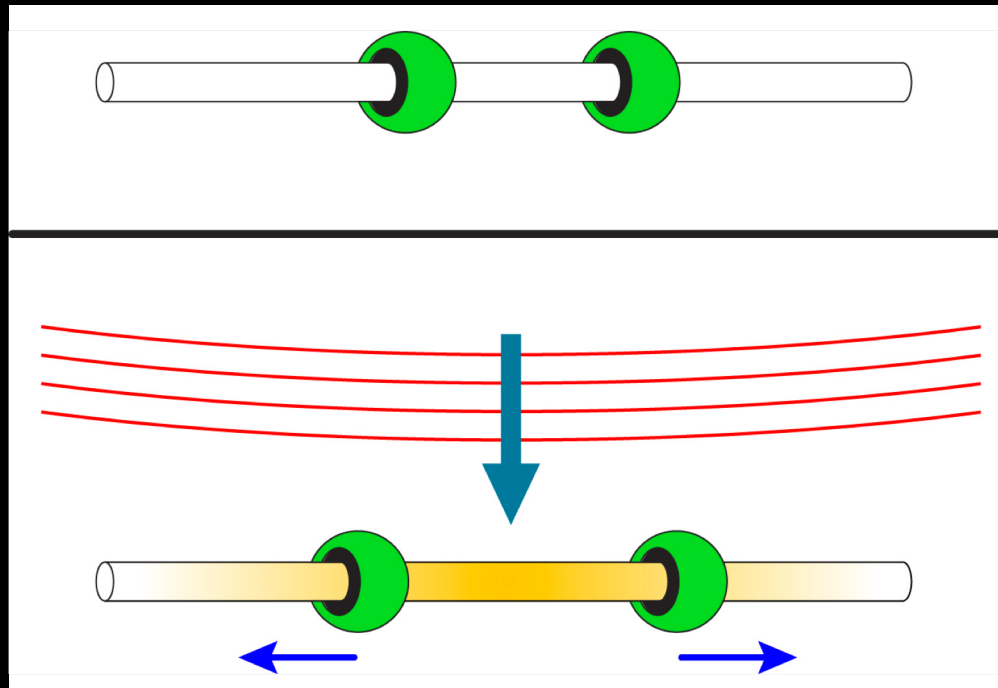
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$$h_\times = \frac{2}{r} \frac{4G\mu\omega^2 R^2}{c^4} \cos \theta \sin(2\omega t + 2\phi)$$

Twice the source frequency!

In reality, there *is* backreaction

- Gravitational waves *carry energy away* from the (binary) system
- Settled in 1957 with the *sticky bead argument*



In reality, there *is* backreaction

- Orbital frequency: Kepler's 3rd law

$$\omega^2 = G_N \frac{m_1 + m_2}{r^3}$$

- GW emission drains energy from the system,

$$P_{\text{GW}} = \dot{E}_{\text{orbit}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E_{\text{orbit}} &= E_{\text{kin}} + E_{\text{pot}} \\ &= -G \frac{m_1 m_2}{2r} \end{aligned}$$

GW emission implies that the orbital radius *decreases* and the frequency *increases*

Hanford, Washington (H1)

Livingston, Louisiana (L1)

