



Gravitational waves data analysis

Walter Del Pozzo

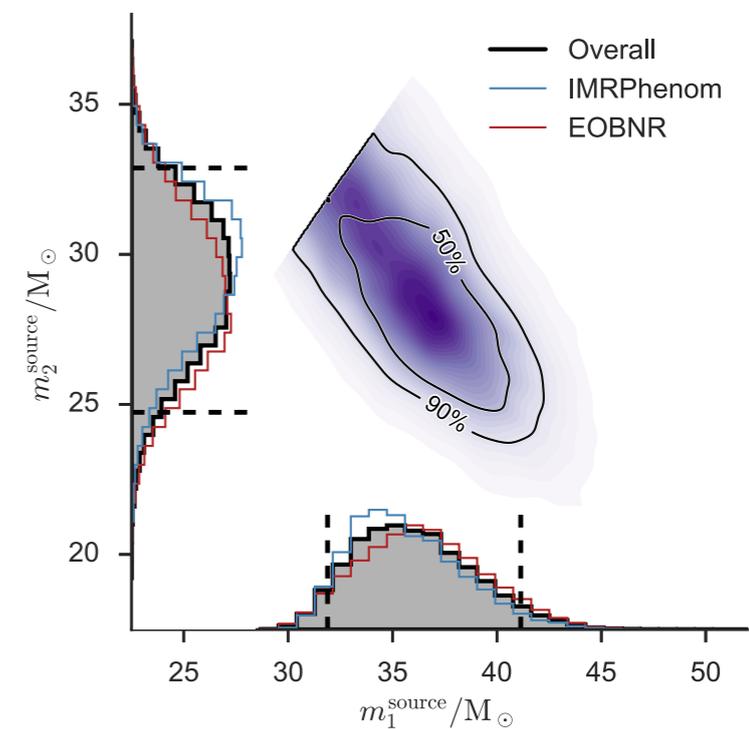
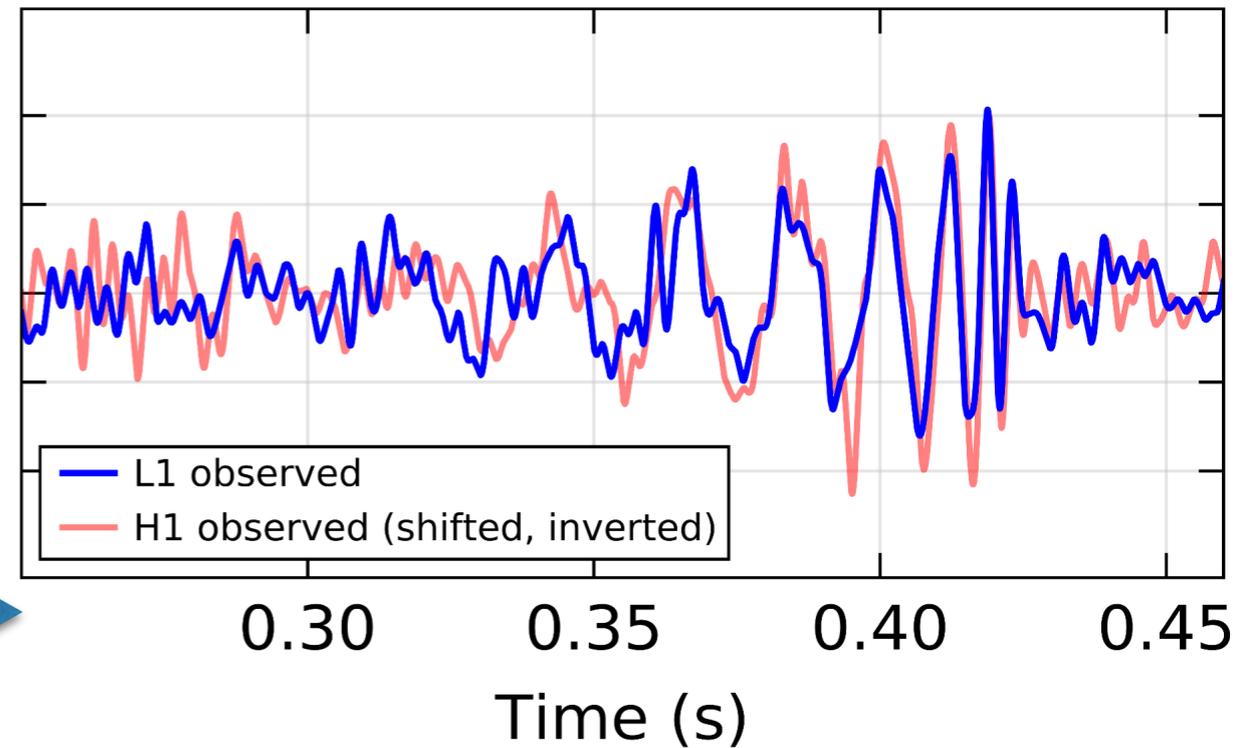
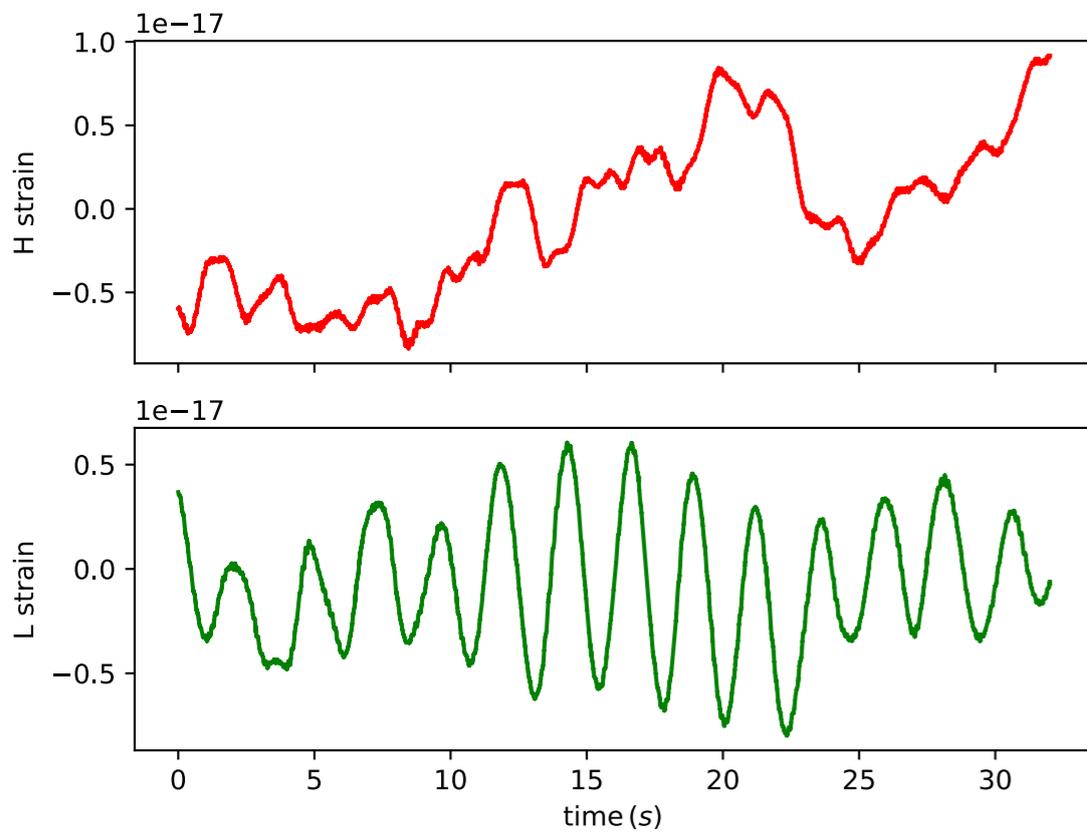


Outline

- Part 1: fundamentals of probability theory
- Part 2: stochastic processes
- Part 3: (modelled) detection of gravitational wave signals
- Part 4: inference of gravitational wave physics
- Part 5: overview of (selected) tests of general relativity

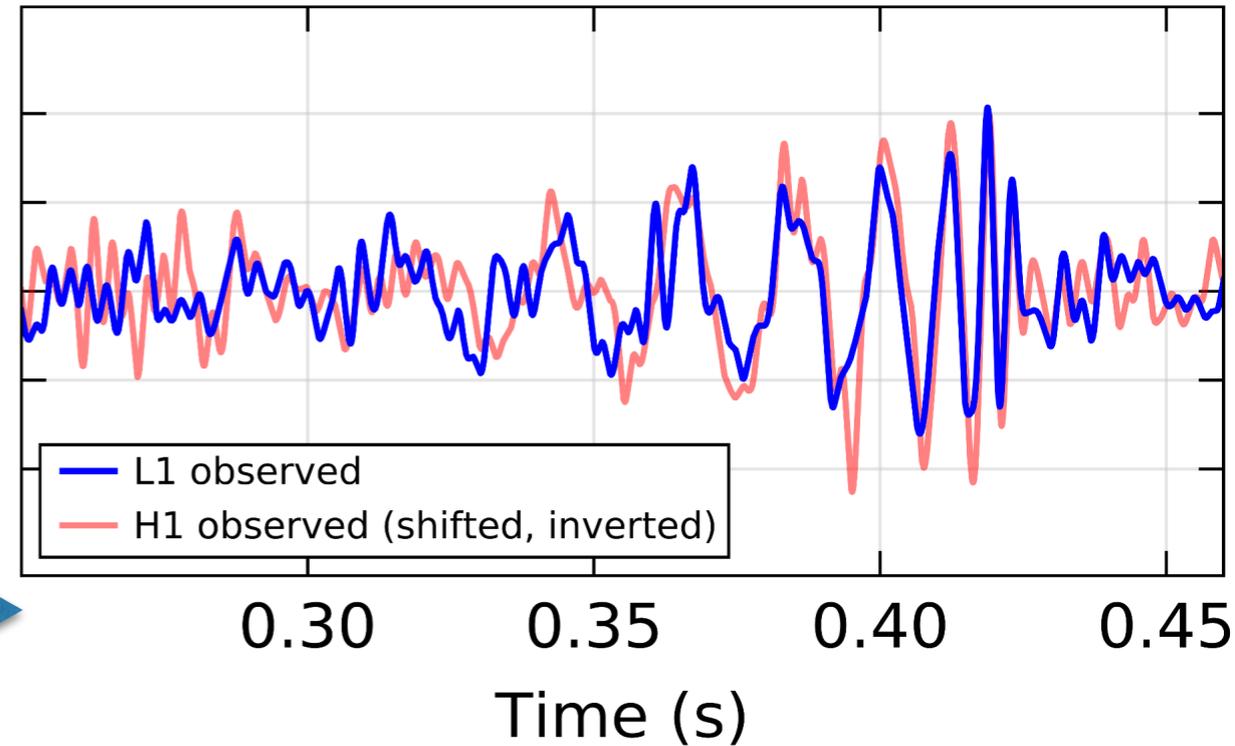
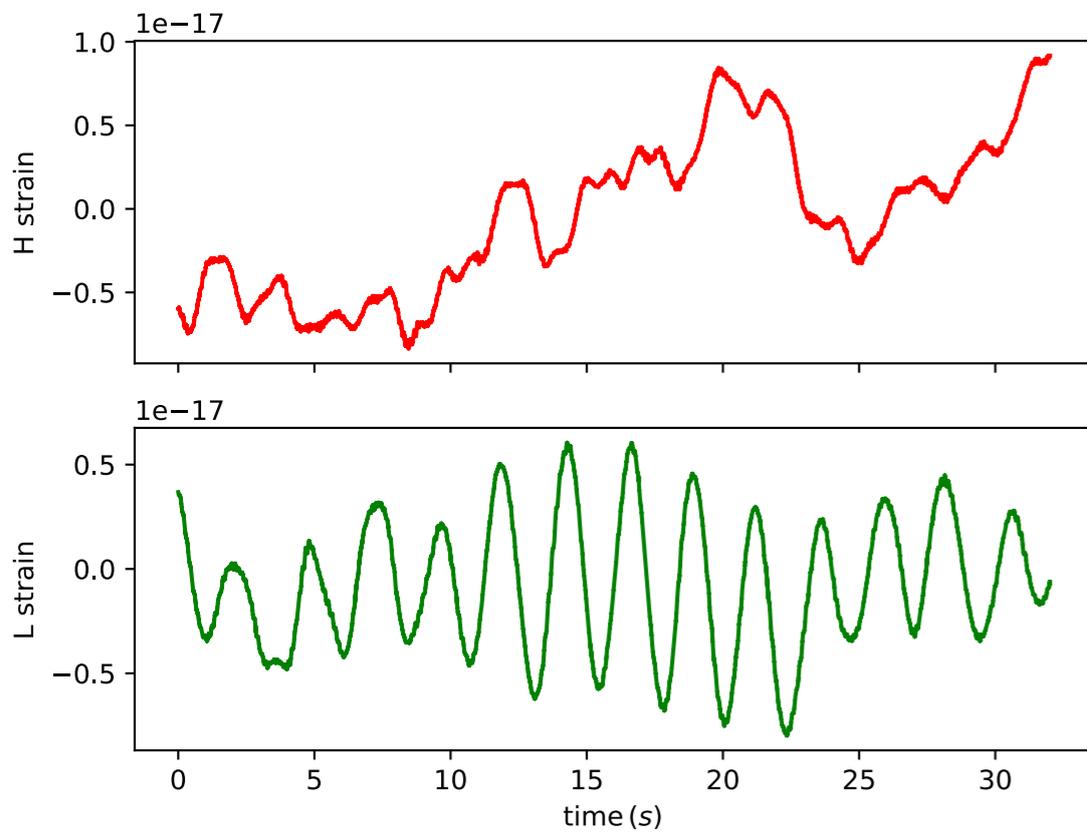


What is “data analysis”?

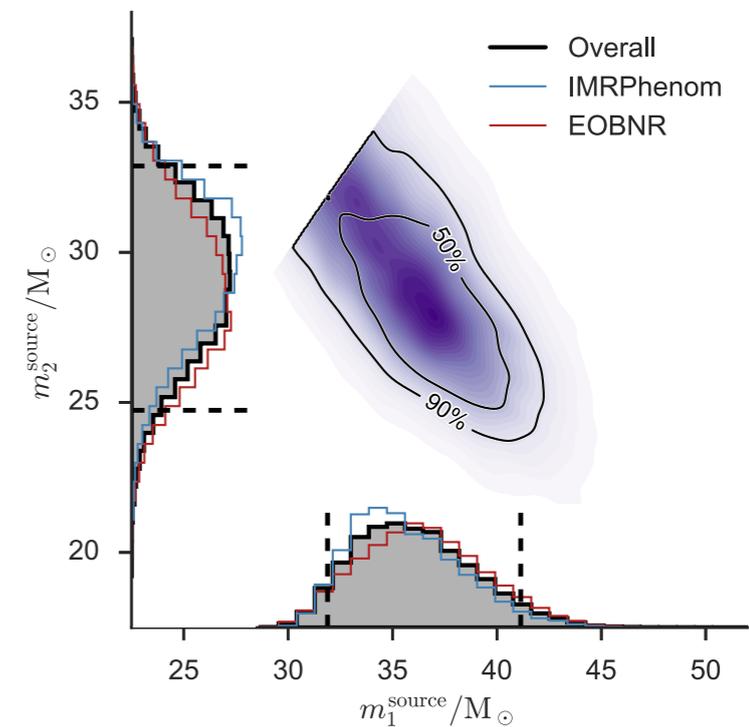




What is “data analysis”?



$$p(H|DI) = p(H|I) \frac{p(D|HI)}{p(D|I)}$$



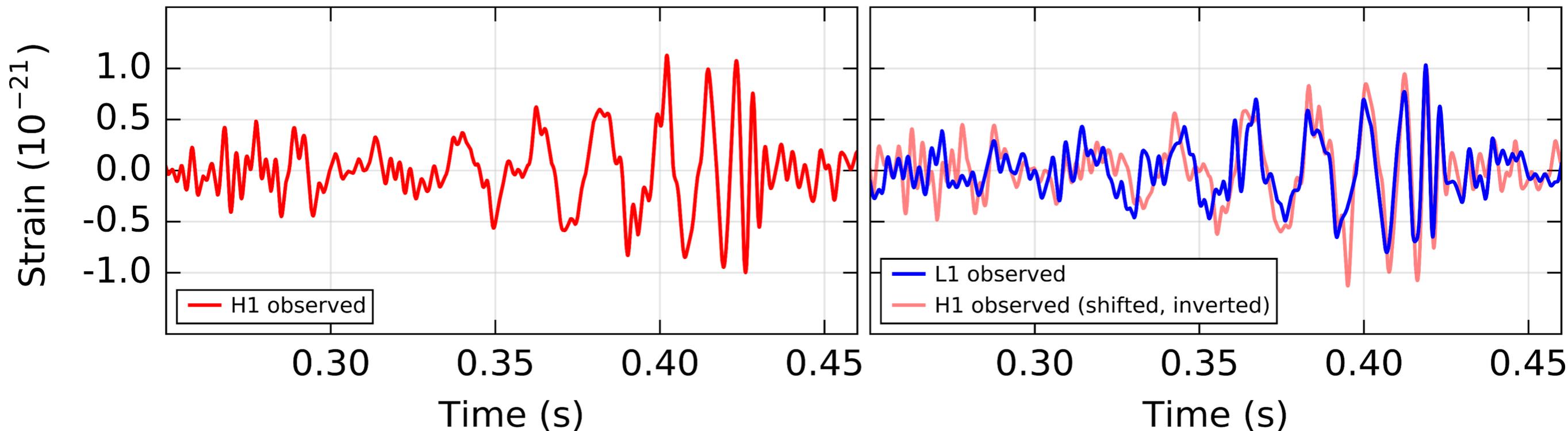


Why Bayes' theorem?

- Gravitational wave events are rare
- Noise dominated detectors
- Need to know what we are looking for VERY well to detect it/measure its properties
 - Matched filtering

Hanford, Washington (H1)

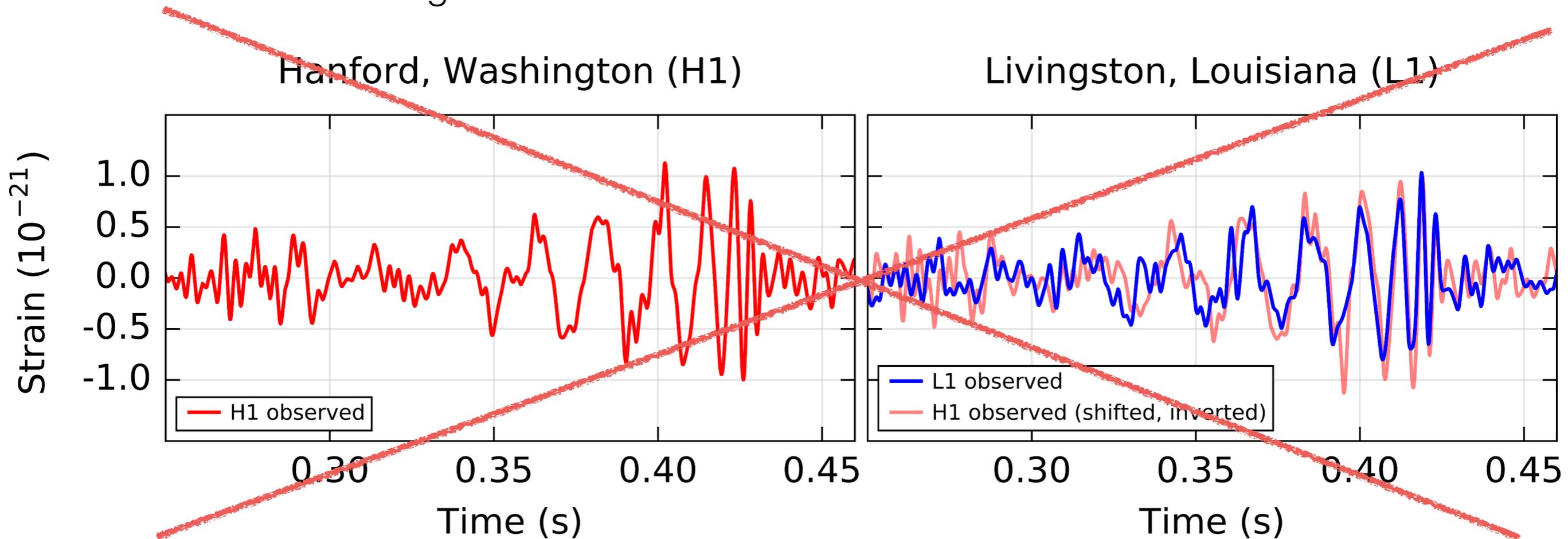
Livingston, Louisiana (L1)





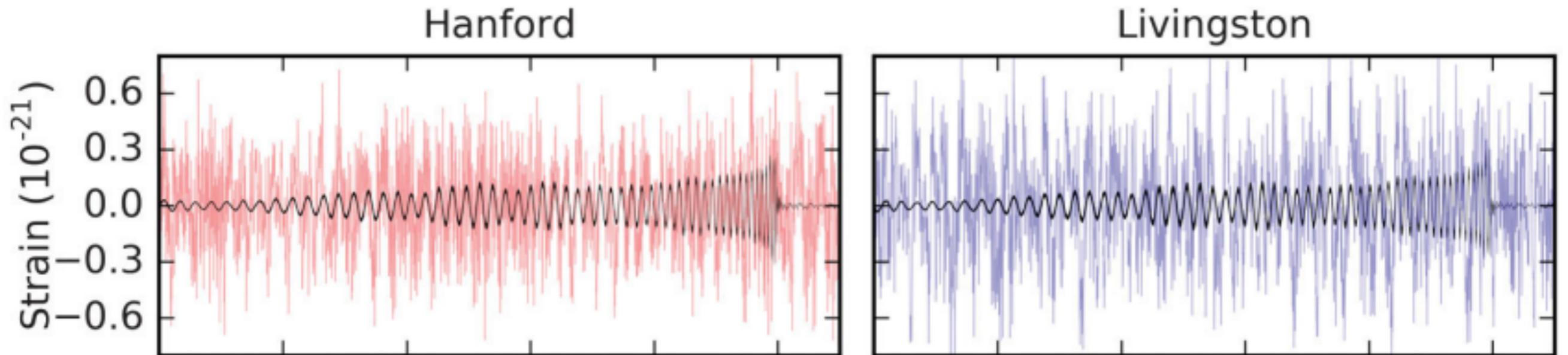
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Why Bayes' theorem?



- Need for accurate predictions to dig into the noise floor
 - Faithful models for the coalescence of compact binaries
 - effective-one-body family
 - numerical relativity
 - phenomenological models
 - surrogate models



Part 1

Fundamentals of probability theory

“Probability is a property of the observer”



Fundamentals

- Logical propositions:
 - Statements to which one can assign a True (1) or False (0) value
 - A = “The sun is a star”
 - B = “The total mass of GW150914 was 70 Msun”



Logical operations

- Arbitrarily complex sentences constructed via basic operations
- Negation (NOT): \bar{A}
- Conjunction (AND): $A \cdot B \equiv AB$
- Disjunction (OR): $A + B$



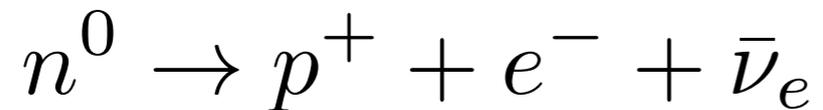
Inference

- Deductive inference
 - Strong syllogism:
 - major premise: if A is true then B is true
 - minor premise: A is true
 - conclusion: B is true
- Inductive inference
 - Weak syllogism:
 - major premise: if A is true then B is true
 - minor premise: B is true
 - conclusion: A is more plausible

$$(A = AB) \equiv (A \implies B)$$

Deductive inference

- Major premise (assumption):



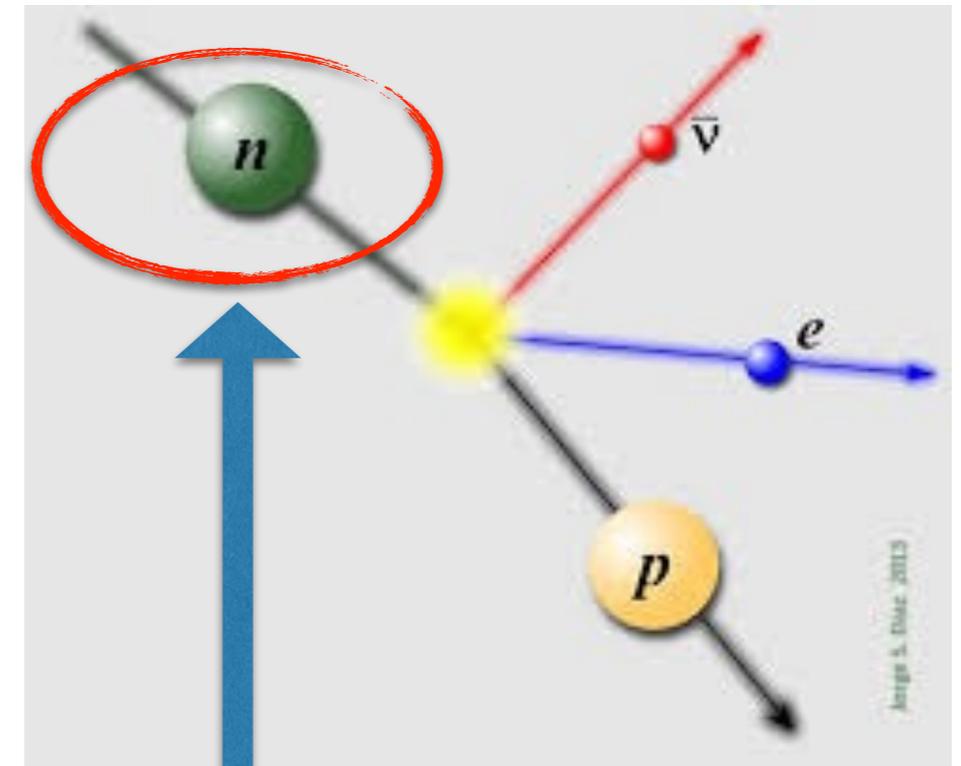
- Minor premise (observation):

- particle x is a neutron $x \equiv n^0$

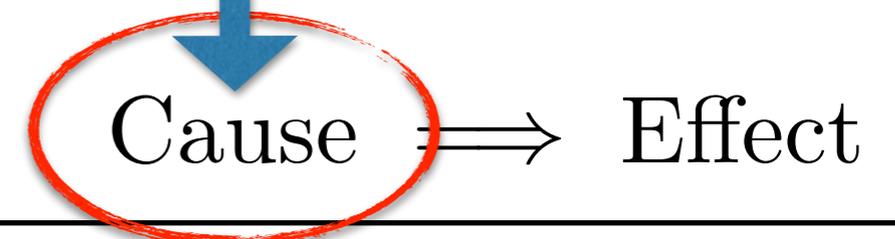
- Conclusion (inference):



- Deductive inference is based on the certainty that a cause implies an effect and that one observes the cause

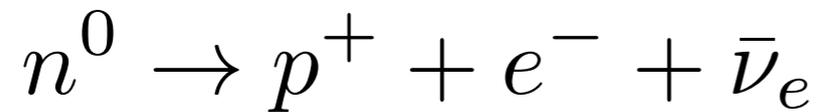


observation

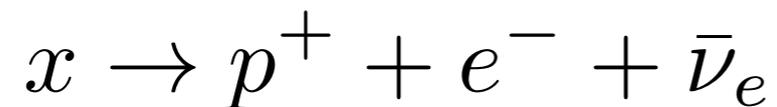


Inductive inference

- Major premise (assumption):



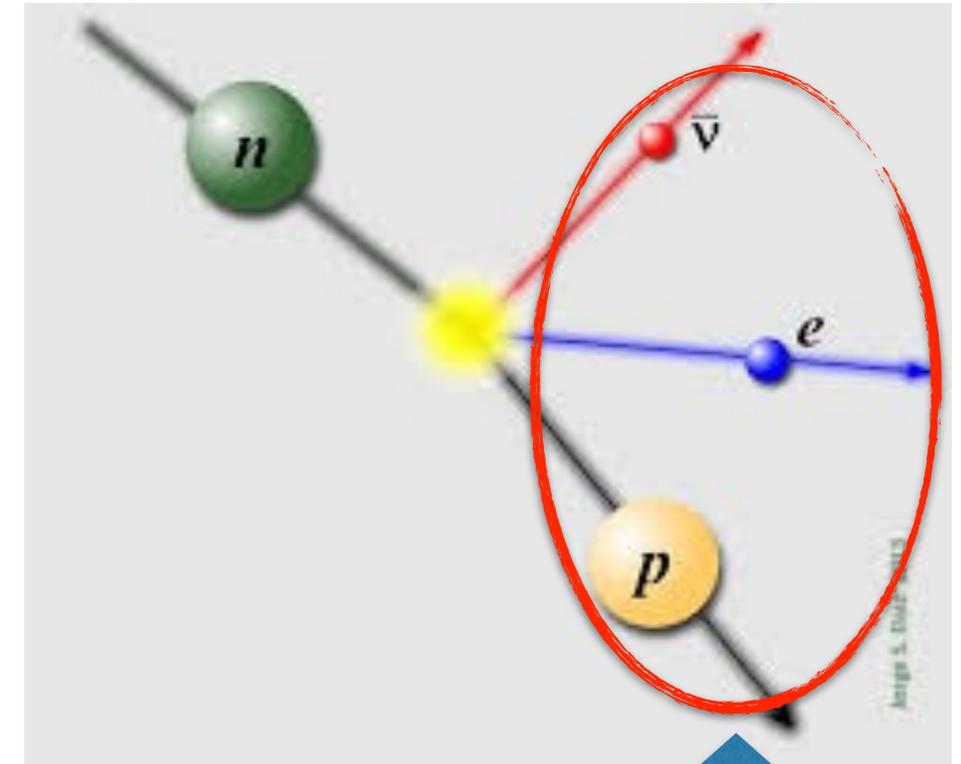
- Minor premise (observation):



- Conclusion (inference):

- x is plausibly a neutron

- Inductive inference is based on observation of an effect and tries to reconstruct the cause



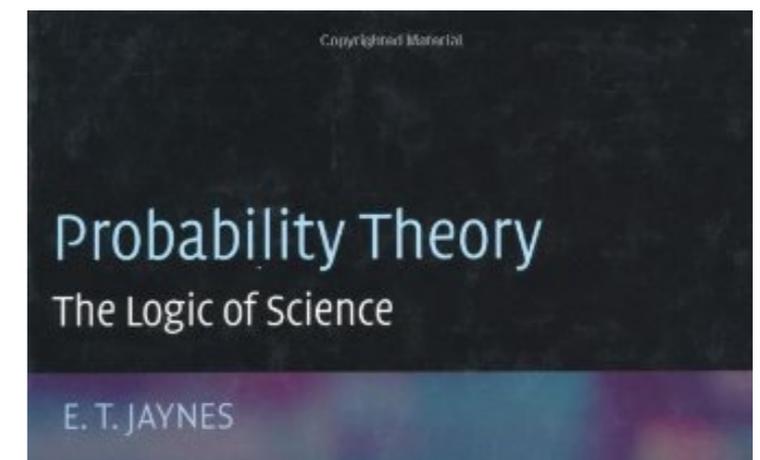
Cause \Rightarrow Effect

observation



Bayesian theory: desiderata

- Bayesian theory is based on a set of “desiderata”:
 - Degrees of plausibility are represented by real numbers
 - Plausibility must be in qualitative agreement with rationality and common sense
 - Consistency:
 - if a conclusion can be reached in more than one way, every possible way must lead to the same result
 - the theory must account for all relevant information available
 - equivalent states of knowledge must lead to the same degree of plausibility assignment
- Probability is a map of degree of plausibility to $[0, 1]$





Information based inference

- **Probabilities are always conditional**
 - Probability assignments depend on the “background information”



I : The die is unbiased

$$p(6|I) = \frac{1}{6}$$



I' : The die is biased

$$p(6|I') > \frac{1}{6}$$



The quantitative rules

- Basic rules:

- Product rule

$$p(AB|C) = p(A|BC)p(B|C)$$

- Sum rule

$$\begin{aligned} p(A + B|C) &= p(A|C) + p(B|C) - p(AB|C) \\ &= p(A|C) + p(B|C) \iff p(AB|C) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

A and B are mutually exclusive (on the information C)



Bayes theorem

- From the product rule

$$\begin{aligned} p(AB|C) &= p(A|BC)p(B|C) \\ &= p(B|AC)p(A|C) \end{aligned}$$

- Bayes theorem:

$$p(A|BC) = \frac{p(B|AC)p(A|C)}{p(B|C)}$$





Bayes theorem

- Define the following statements:
 - $A = H$: hypothesis
 - $B = D$: observation
 - $C = I$: whatever relevant information

$$p(H|DI) = p(H|I) \frac{p(D|HI)}{p(D|I)}$$

posterior prior likelihood
evidence

$$p(D|I) = \sum_i p(H_i|I) p(D|H_i I)$$

marginalisation



Example

- To the (bat) board!





Model selection

- Consider 2 competing hypotheses (models)

H_1, H_2

- Given an observation D , which model is to be preferred?

$$p(H_1|DI) = p(H_1|I) \frac{p(D|H_1I)}{p(D|I)}$$

$$p(H_2|DI) = p(H_2|I) \frac{p(D|H_2I)}{p(D|I)}$$



Model selection

- The troublesome term

$$p(D|I) = \sum_i p(H_i|I)p(D|H_iI)$$

- Simplifies taking the ratio

$$O_{12} = \frac{p(H_1|I)p(D|H_1I)}{p(H_2|I)p(D|H_2I)} = \frac{p(H_1|I)}{p(H_2|I)} B_{12}$$

prior odds



Bayes' factor





Exhaustivity

- Note, the models might be exhaustive

$$\sum_j p(H_j|I) = 1$$

- But in general they are not
- Notable exception, “null test hypothesis”

$$p(H_1|I) + p(H_2|I) = 1 \implies H_1 = \overline{H_2}$$



Model selection

- If the model H_i depends on a set of parameters θ_i need to *marginalise* over them

$$p(D|H_i I) = \int_{\Theta} d\theta_i p(\theta_i|H_i I) p(D|\theta_i H_i I)$$

- Odds

$$O_{ij} = \frac{p(H_i|I) \int_{\Theta_i} d\theta_i p(\theta_i|H_i I) p(D|\theta_i H_i I)}{p(H_j|I) \int_{\Theta_j} d\theta_j p(\theta_j|H_j I) p(D|\theta_j H_j I)}$$



Assigning probabilities

- **Indifference principle:** “if among the possible outcomes, there is no reason to prefer any of them over any other, then all outcomes should be equally probable.”



Assigning probabilities

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- **Invariance arguments:** $p(\sigma|I)d\sigma = p(\sigma'|I)d\sigma'$
 $\sigma' = k\sigma \iff p(\sigma|I) \propto \sigma^{-1}$



Assigning probabilities

- **Indifference principle:** “if among the possible outcomes, there is no reason to prefer any of them over any other, then all outcomes should be equally probable.”
- **Invariance arguments:** $p(\sigma|I)d\sigma = p(\sigma'|I)d\sigma'$
 $\sigma' = k\sigma \iff p(\sigma|I) \propto \sigma^{-1}$
- **Maximum entropy:** $H(p) = - \sum_j p_j \log \left(\frac{p_j}{m_j} \right)$



Indifference principle

- Take a 6-face die, if you have no reason to suspect the die is biased

$$\sum_{i=1}^6 p_i = 1 \quad p_i = p_j \quad \forall i, j \quad p_i = \frac{1}{6}$$

- In general, for N equally probable cases

$$p_i = \frac{1}{N}$$



Invariance

- I: we live in Friedmann-Robertson-Walker-LeMaitre Universe, how should I expect GW sources to be distributed (ignoring evolutionary effects)?

$$N = \int dV \frac{dN}{dV}$$

$$\frac{dN}{dV} = n_0$$

$$dV = D_L^2 \cos(\theta) dD_L d\theta d\phi; \quad z \ll 1$$

$$p(D_L, \theta, \phi | I) \propto D_L^2 \cos(\theta)$$



Uniform distribution

$$H(p) = - \sum_{j=1}^N p_j \log \left(\frac{p_j}{m_j} \right)$$

We want to maximise the entropy with some constraint

$$\sum_j p_j = 1 \quad \text{Only constraint}$$

$$\delta \left[- \sum_{j=1}^N p_j \log \left(\frac{p_j}{m_j} \right) - \lambda \left(\sum_{j=1}^N p_j - 1 \right) \right] = 0$$

...

$$\lambda = -1$$

$$p_j = m_j$$

$$m_j = \frac{1}{N}$$

Lagrange multiplier



Gaussian distribution

- Similar calculation shows that if the constraint is

$$\sum_j p_j = 1$$

$$\sum_j (x_j - \mu)^2 p_j = \sigma^2$$

- The maximum entropy distribution is

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$



Gaussian distribution

- Similar calculation shows that if the constraint is

$$\sum_j (x_j - \mu)^2 = \sigma^2$$

- The maximum likelihood distribution is

If the only known constraint is the variance, the Gaussian distribution is the least informative probability distribution.

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$



Assigning likelihoods

- Assume the hypothesis H depends on parameters θ
- The likelihood: $p(D|\theta HI)$
- Data $D = D_1, \dots, D_n = d_1, \dots, d_n$
- $H = X_1, \dots, X_n$: datum d_i in $[x_i, x_i + dx_i]$
- $E = E_1, \dots, E_n$: the error on d_i in $[e_i, e_i + de_i]$



Assigning likelihoods

- One can write $d_i = x_i + e_i$

$$p(X_i | \theta H I) \equiv f(x_i)$$

$$p(E_i | \theta H I) \equiv g(e_i)$$

- Consider joint distribution for D_i, E_i, X_i $p(D_i E_i X_i | \theta H I)$

- Marginalise over E_i, X_i

$$p(D_i | \theta H I) = \int dE_i dX_i p(D_i E_i X_i | \theta H I)$$

$$= \int dE_i dX_i p(D_i | E_i X_i \theta H I) p(E_i | \theta H I) p(X_i | \theta H I)$$



Assigning likelihoods

$$d_i = x_i + e_i \implies p(D_i | E_i X_i \theta H I) = \delta(d_i - x_i - e_i)$$

$$\begin{aligned} p(D_i | \theta H I) &= \int dx_i f(x_i) \int de_i g(e_i) \delta(d_i - x_i - e_i) \\ &= \int dx_i f(x_i) g(d_i - x_i) \end{aligned}$$

- Deterministic models $f(x_i) = \delta(x_i - m(x_i; \theta))$

$$p(D_i | \theta H I) = g(d_i - m(x_i; \theta))$$

- If the errors are independent

$$p(D | \theta H I) = \prod_{i=1}^N g(d_i - m(x_i; \theta))$$



Assigning likelihoods

$$d_i = x_i + e_i \implies p(D_i | E_i X_i \theta H I) = \delta(d_i - x_i - e_i)$$

$$\begin{aligned} p(D_i | \theta H I) &= \int dx_i f(x_i) \int de_i g(e_i) \delta(d_i - x_i - e_i) \\ &= \int dx_i f(x_i) g(d_i - x_i) \end{aligned}$$

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$$p(D_i | \theta H I) = g(d_i - m(x_i; \theta))$$

- If the errors are independent

$$p(D | \theta H I) = \prod_{i=1}^N g(d_i - m(x_i; \theta))$$

The noise probability distribution defines the likelihood function



Part 2

Stochastic processes



Stochastic processes

- Stochastic process is a family of random variables

$$\{X(t) \ t \in T\}$$

- We will deal with discrete time processes where the set of time samples is potentially infinite, but countable

$$\{x(t_1), \dots, x(t_n)\} \equiv \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$$

- The state space (the set of possible realisations of the process) is infinite



Process properties

- Process is characterised by its statistics
 - Mean: $\langle n(t) \rangle = \mu(t)$
 - Autocovariance: $\langle n(t)n(t') \rangle = C(t, t')$
- If the statistics do not depend on time we have a stationary process
 - e.g. white noise Gaussian process



Wide-sense stationarity

- For a wide sense stationary process

$$\langle n(t) \rangle = \mu(t) = \mu(t + \tau)$$

$$\langle n(t)n(t') \rangle = C(t - t', 0)$$

- Constant mean
- Covariance function depends only on the time difference



Detector output process

- GW detector output is modelled as a wide-sense stationary stochastic process
- Given a set of (regularly spaced) times $\{t_1, \dots, t_n\}$
- The detector registers $\{d_1, \dots, d_n\}$
- In the absence of a GW signal

$$d_i = n_i \quad \forall i$$

- When (if) a signal is present $d_i = n_i + h_i(\theta)$

$$h_i(\theta) = h(t_i, \theta)$$

see also Finn, arXiv:9209010



Noise distribution

- Assume that the only non-null moment of the probability distribution for the process realisation is the second (the autocovariance)
- Using the maximum entropy principle

$$p(\vec{n}|I) \propto e^{-\frac{1}{2}\vec{n}^t C^{-1}\vec{n}}, \quad \vec{n} = n(t_1), \dots, n(t_K)$$

$$\langle \vec{n} \rangle = 0$$



The noise model

- The matrix C is the covariance matrix

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} C(t_1, t_1) & C(t_1, t_2) & \cdots & C(t_1, t_K) \\ C(t_2, t_1) & C(t_2, t_2) & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ C(t_K, t_1) & \cdots & \cdots & C(t_K, t_K) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$C(t_i, t_j) = \langle n(t_i)n(t_j) \rangle$$



The noise model

- In general, the auto-covariance function depends on 2 time values (non-stationary process)
- However, we assumed that $n(t)$ is a wide-sense stationary process

$$C(t_i, t_j) \equiv C(t_i - t_j, 0) \equiv C(\tau) \equiv \langle n(t)n(t + \tau) \rangle$$

- Assume now that we are sampling the process $n(t)$ at regular intervals

$$t_j = t_0 + j\Delta t$$



The noise model

- The covariance matrix becomes a Toeplitz matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} C(0) & C(\Delta t) & \cdots & C(K\Delta t) \\ C(-\Delta t) & C(0) & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ C(-K\Delta t) & \cdots & \cdots & C(0) \end{pmatrix}$$

- Toeplitz matrices are asymptotically equivalent to circulant matrices

- Diagonalised by same base in the limit $K \rightarrow \infty$



Circulant matrices

- Circulant matrices have the general form

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_0 & a_{n-1} & \cdots & a_1 \\ a_1 & a_0 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n-1} & \cdots & \cdots & a_0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- All circulant matrices have the same eigenvectors and eigenvalues



Eigenvalues & eigenvectors

- They are:

$$v_j = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} (1, \omega_j, \omega_j^2, \dots, \omega_j^{n-1})^t$$

$$\omega_j = e^{-\frac{2ij\pi}{n}}$$

$$\lambda_j = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k e^{-2ij\pi \frac{k}{n}}$$

- Which are nothing more than the Discrete Fourier Transform series



Fourier Matrix

- The DFT matrix

$$F = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega & \omega^2 & \dots & \omega^{K-1} \\ \vdots & \omega^2 & \omega^4 & \dots & \omega^{2(K-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \omega^{K-1} & \omega^{2(K-1)} & \dots & \omega^{(K-1)(K-1)} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$F \cdot F^{-1} = F^{-1} \cdot F = I \quad F^{-1} = F^\dagger$$

$$\det(F) = 1$$

- diagonalises any circulant matrix and thus any wide-sense stationary process covariance matrix



Diagonalised circulant matrix

- It thus follows that any circulant matrix is diagonalised as

$$F^{-1}AF = \text{Diag}\left(\sum_{j=0}^{K-1} a_j e^{-2\pi i n \frac{j}{K}}\right)$$

- It follows that the same is true for a wide-sense stationary covariance matrix
- The elements of a diagonalised covariance matrix are the DFT of the autocorrelation function



The noise distribution

- We have then:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{n}^t C^{-1} \vec{n} &= \vec{n}^t (F^\dagger F) C^{-1} (F^\dagger F) \vec{n} = \\ &= (F \vec{n})^\dagger (F C^{-1} F^\dagger) (F \vec{n}) = \\ &= \tilde{\vec{n}}^t S^{-1} \tilde{\vec{n}}\end{aligned}$$

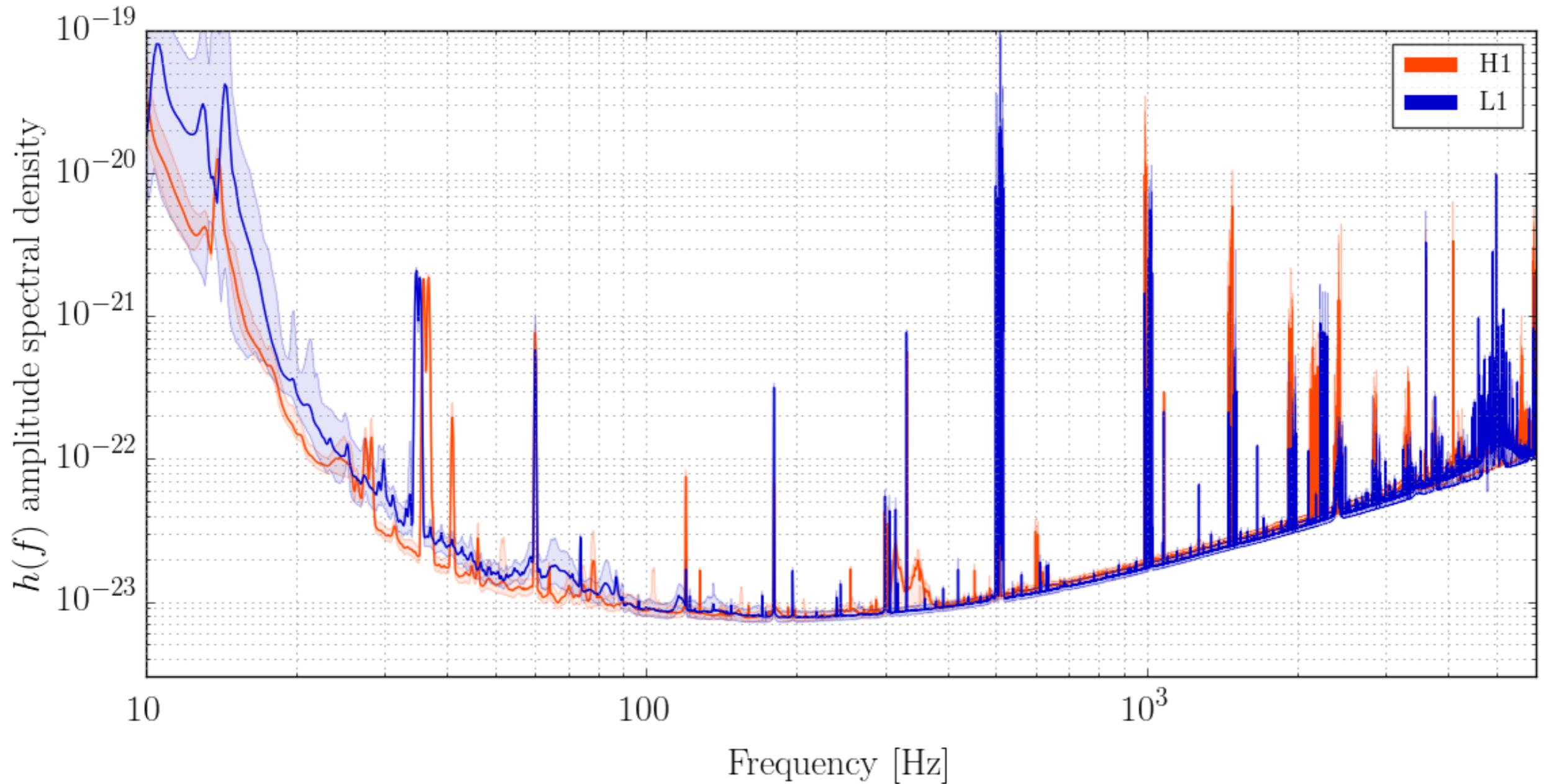
- And $S_n = \sum_{j=0}^{K-1} C_{nj} e^{-2\pi i n \frac{j}{K}}$
- Parseval's Theorem

$$\langle n(t)n(t + \tau) \rangle = C(\tau)$$

$$\langle \tilde{n}(f)\tilde{n}(f') \rangle = \frac{1}{2} S_n(f) \delta(f - f')$$



Power spectral density





Matched filtering

- Detector output $d = h + n$

- Filter $A(t) = \int d\tau F(t + \tau)a(\tau) = \int df \tilde{F}^*(f)\tilde{a}(f)$

- Filtered output

$$\int df \tilde{F}^*(f)\tilde{d}(f) = \int df \tilde{F}^*(f)\tilde{h}(f) + \int df \tilde{F}^*(f)\tilde{n}(f)$$

$$D = H + N$$

- signal-to-noise ratio

$$SNR \equiv \rho = \frac{H^2}{\langle N^2 \rangle}$$



Matched filtering

$$\langle N^2 \rangle = \int df |\tilde{F}(f)|^2 S_n(f)$$

$$|H|^2 = \left| \int df \tilde{F}^*(f) \tilde{h}(f) \right|^2$$

- Multiply and divide numerator by $\sqrt{S_n(f)}$ and use the Schwarz inequality
- Optimal filter

$$\tilde{F}^*(f) = C \frac{\tilde{h}(f)}{S_n(f)}$$



Signal-to-noise ratio

- Use optimal filter to define a scalar product

$$(a|b) = 4\text{Re} \int df \frac{\tilde{a}^* \tilde{b} + \tilde{a} \tilde{b}^*}{S_n(f)}$$

- matched filter SNR $\rho^2 = (d|h)$

- optimal SNR $\rho_{opt}^2 = (h|h)$

- Frequency domain Likelihood

$$p(D|\theta HI) = e^{-\frac{(d-h|d-h)}{2}}$$



Multiple detectors

- Easily generalised to several detectors

$$p(D_1, \dots, D_k | \theta HI) = \prod_j p(D_j | \theta HI)$$

- Network SNRs

$$\rho^2 = \sum_j (d_j | h_j)$$

$$\rho_{opt}^2 = \sum_j (h_j | h_j)$$





Match

- Distance in the waveform manifold

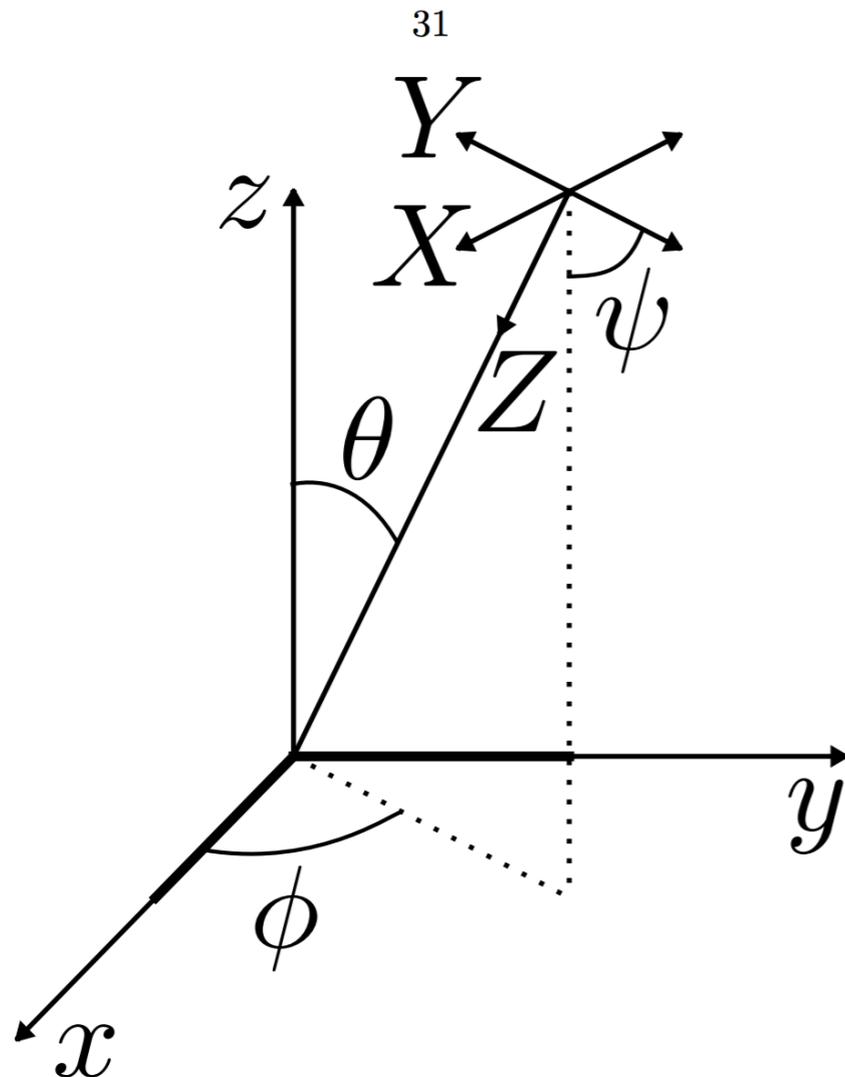
$$M = \frac{(h_1(\theta)|h_2(\theta))}{\sqrt{(h_1(\theta)|h_1(\theta))(h_2(\theta)|h_2(\theta))}}$$

- Maximise over time and phase: faithfulness
- Maximise over θ : fitting factor

$$\rho = M\rho_t \implies f_{lost} = 1 - M^3$$



Signal projection



$$F_{+} = \frac{1}{2} (1 + \cos^2 \theta) \cos 2\phi \cos 2\psi + \cos \theta \sin 2\phi \sin 2\psi$$

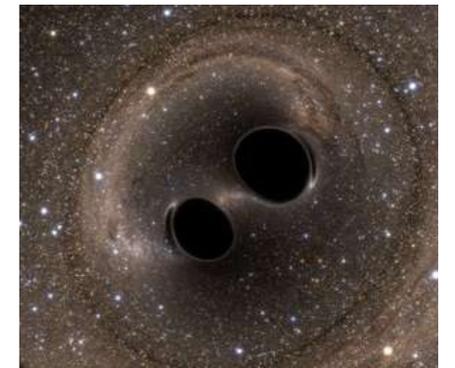
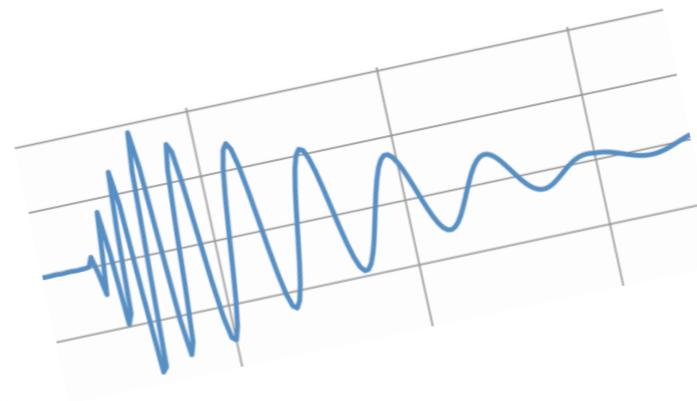
$$F_{\times} = \frac{1}{2} (1 + \cos^2 \theta) \cos 2\phi \sin 2\psi + \cos \theta \sin 2\phi \cos 2\psi$$



Signal projection

- Each detector sees a different signal

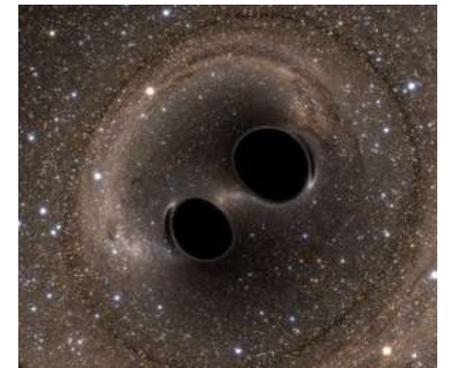
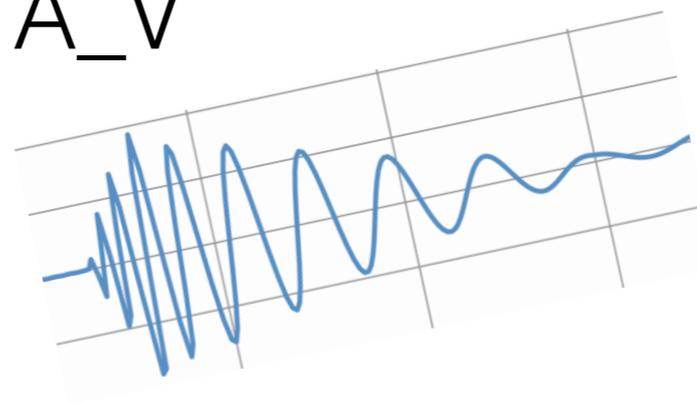
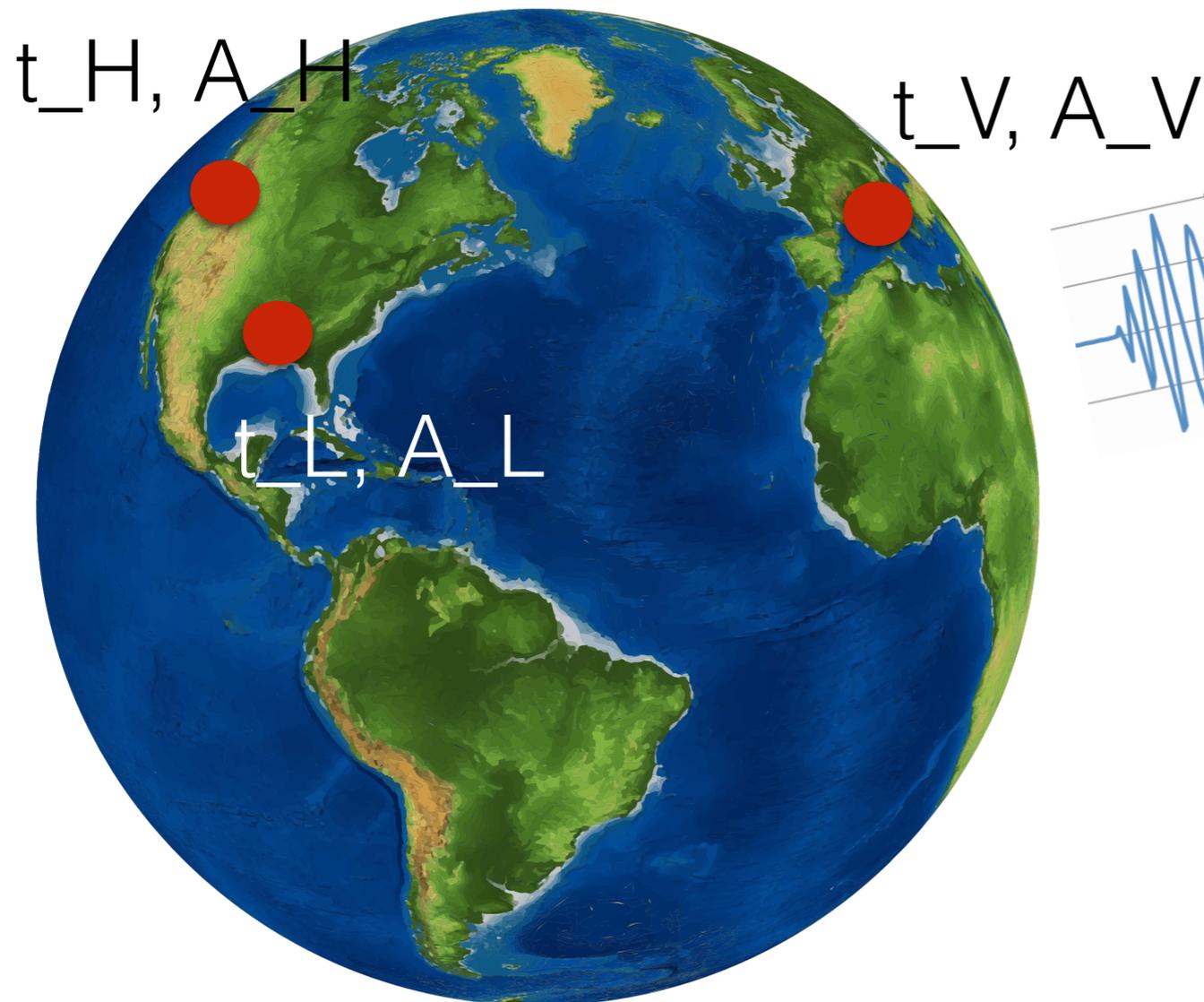
$$h = e^{2\pi i \vec{r} \cdot \vec{n} f} [F_+ h_+(\theta, f) + F_\times h_\times(\theta, f)]$$



Signal projection

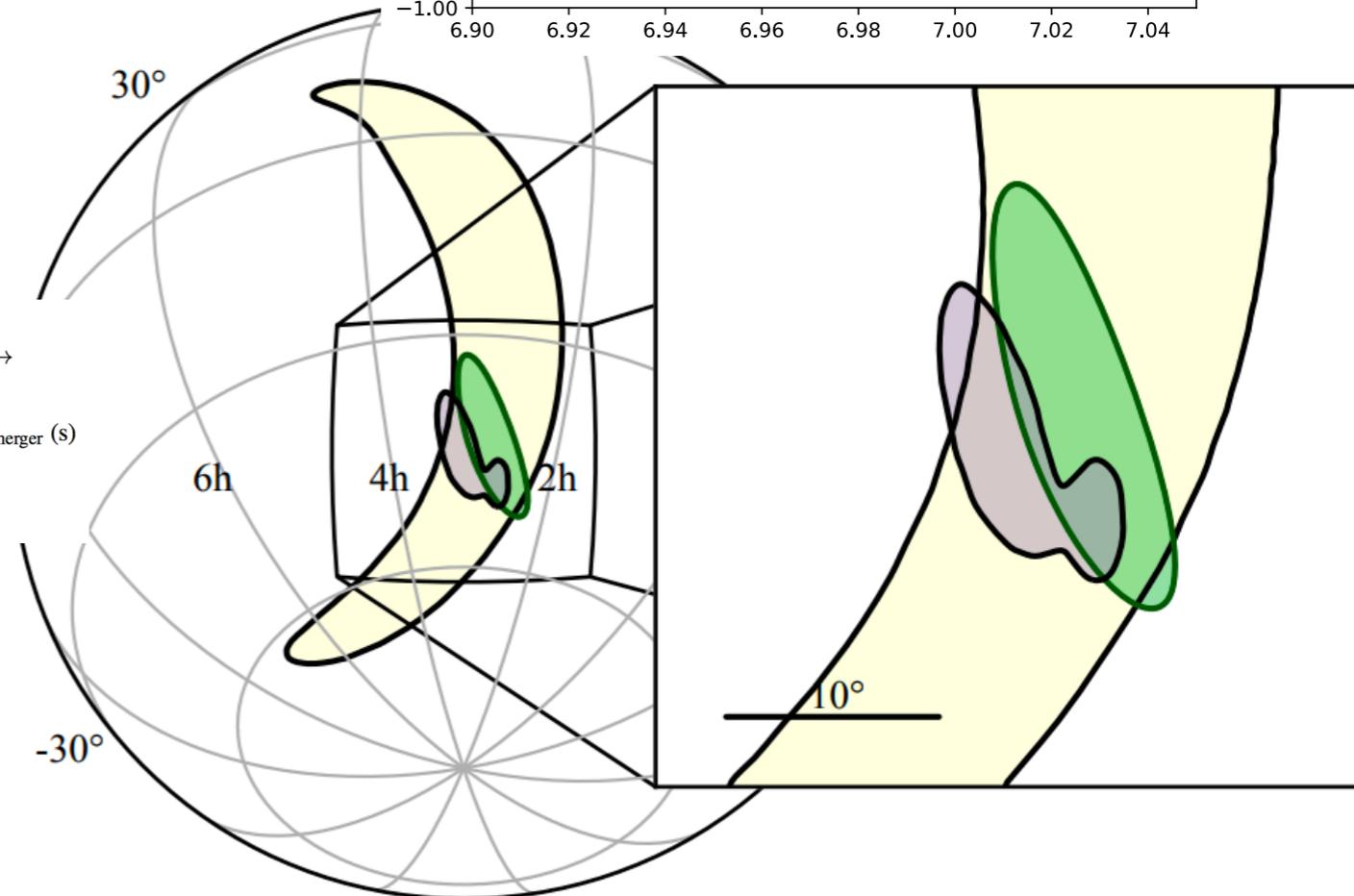
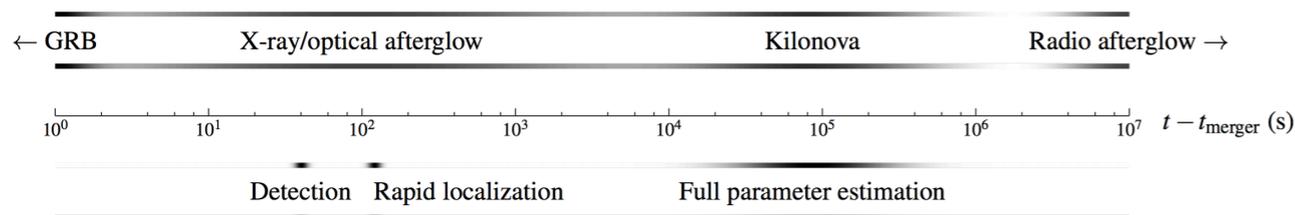
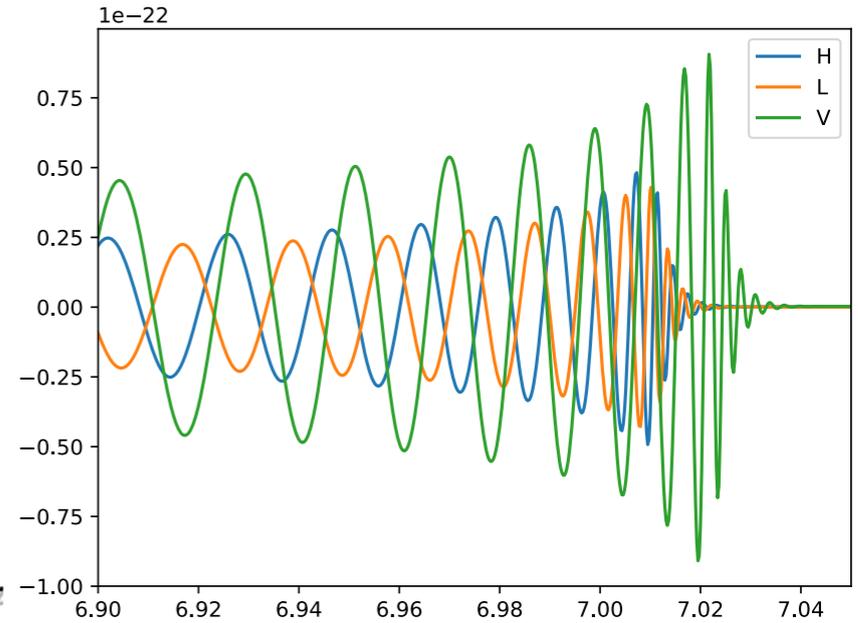
- Each detector sees a different signal

$$h = e^{2\pi i \vec{r} \cdot \vec{n} f} [F_+ h_+(\theta, f) + F_\times h_\times(\theta, f)]$$



Quick localisation

- Relative amplitudes and time differences allow for rapid localisation $O(100)$ s





Part 3

Detection of GW

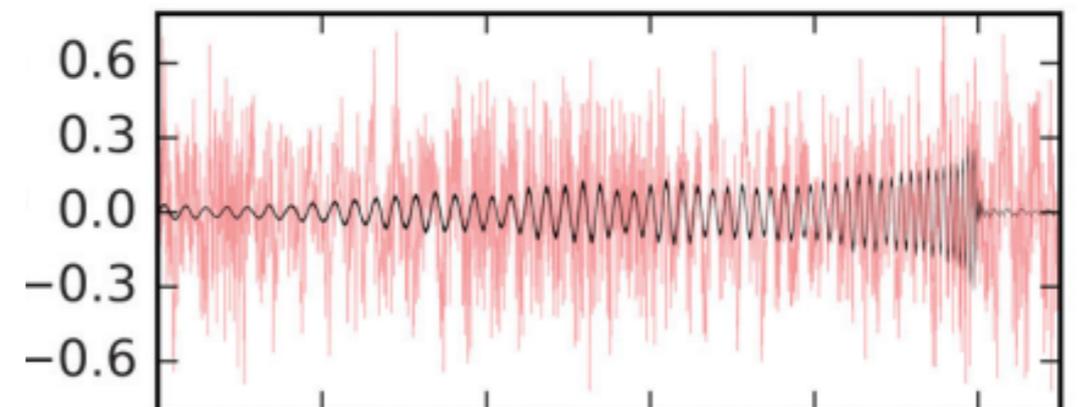
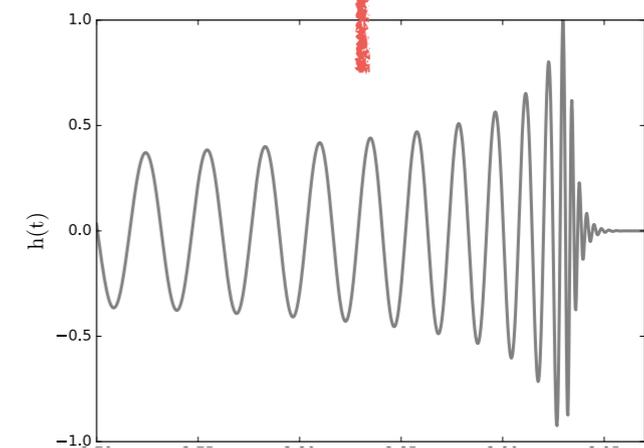
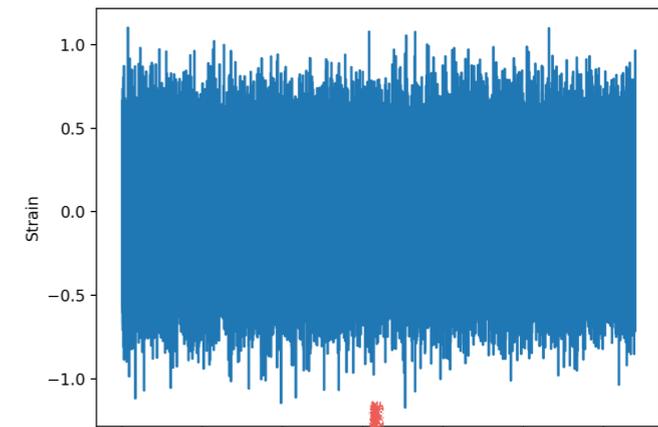


Detector model

- The detector output is linear

$$d(t) = h(t; \theta) + n(t)$$

- where $h(t; \theta)$ is the gravitational wave strain and $n(t)$ is the noise time series





Detection of GW

- Compute odds ratio for the hypotheses
 - S: (Unknown) signal plus noise
 - N: pure noise

$$O_{SN} = \frac{p(S|I)}{p(N|I)} \frac{\int_{\Theta} d\theta p(\theta|SI)p(D|\theta SI)}{p(D|NI)}$$

- Computationally unfeasible, yet
- Instead of marginalising, maximise the likelihood

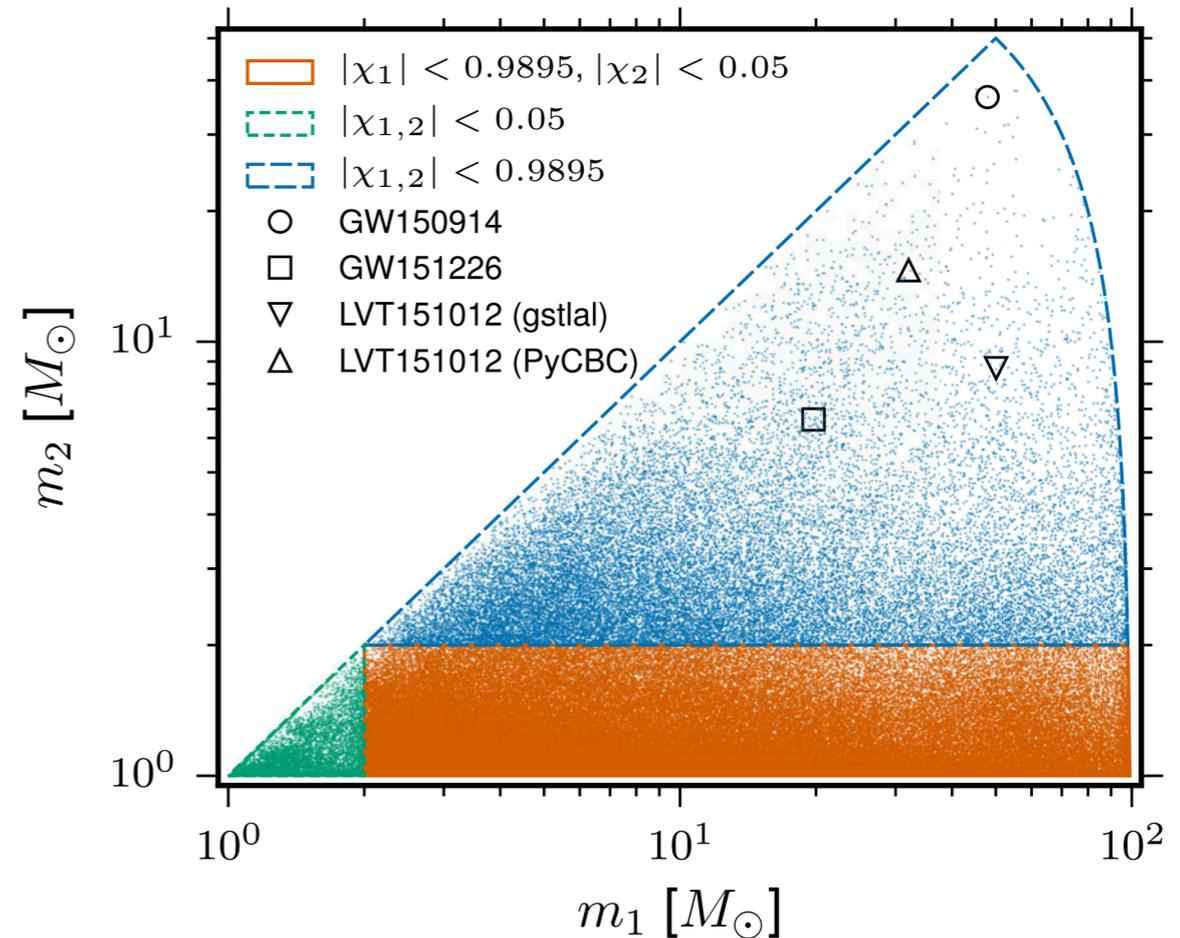
$$p(D|\theta SI) = e^{-\frac{(d-h|d-h)}{2}}$$



Template banks

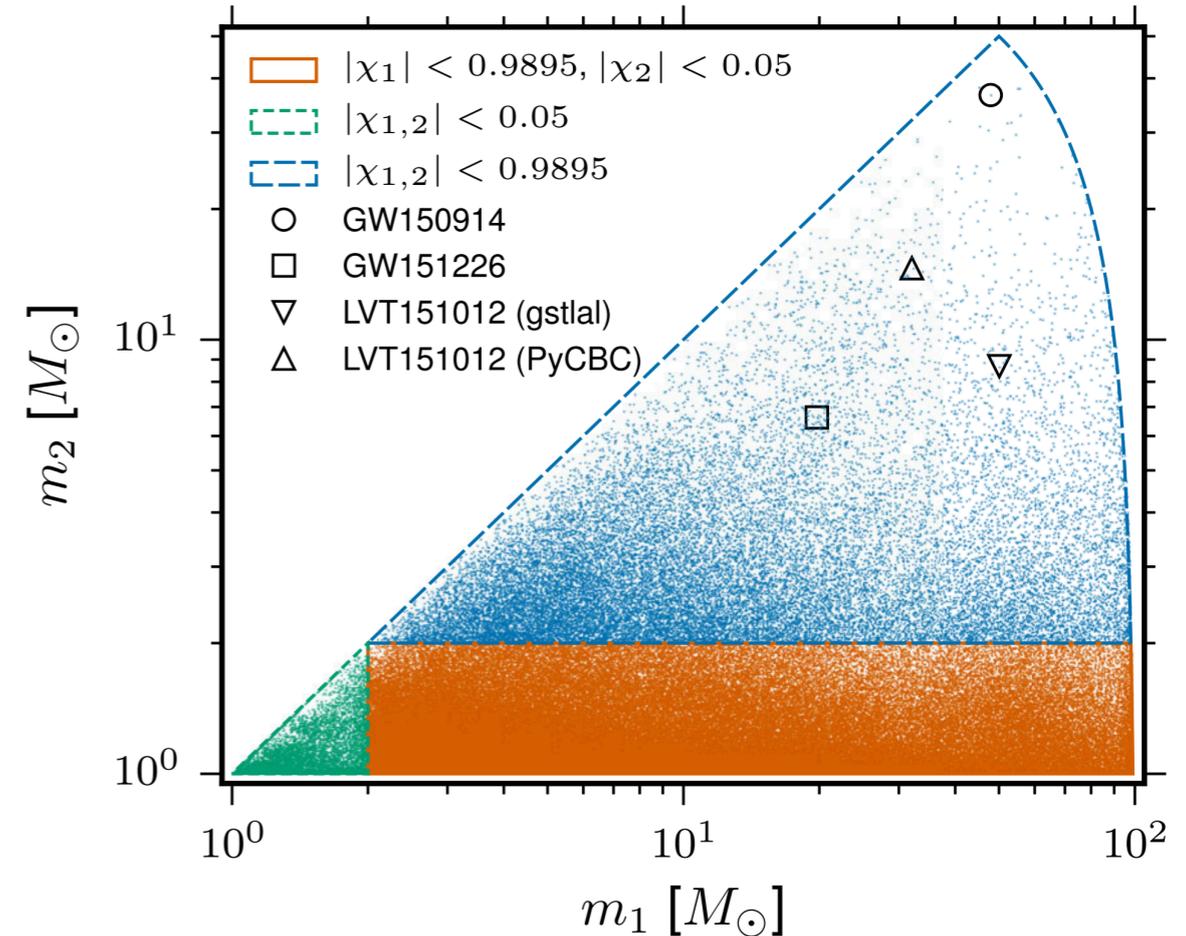
- Construct template banks
 $O(200000)$ templates
- Template distribution
 - Following some intrinsic metric
 - Stochastically
- Spacing between templates such that

$$\max(1 - M) \leq 0.03 \implies \text{less than 10\% loss in event rate}$$



Filtering

- Data are filtered against banks of $O(200000)$ templates
- Compute SNR for each template
- Compute sanity check statistics (energy distribution per frequency octave)
- Rank the templates according to the detection statistics



$$\hat{\rho} = \begin{cases} \rho / [(1 + (\chi_r^2)^3)/2]^{1/6}, & \text{if } \chi_r^2 > 1, \\ \rho, & \text{if } \chi_r^2 \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

$$\chi^2 = p \sum_{i=1}^p \left[\left(\frac{\rho_{\cos}^2}{p} - \rho_{\cos,i}^2 \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\rho_{\sin}^2}{p} - \rho_{\sin,i}^2 \right)^2 \right]$$

$$\chi_r^2 = \frac{\chi^2}{(2p - 2)}$$



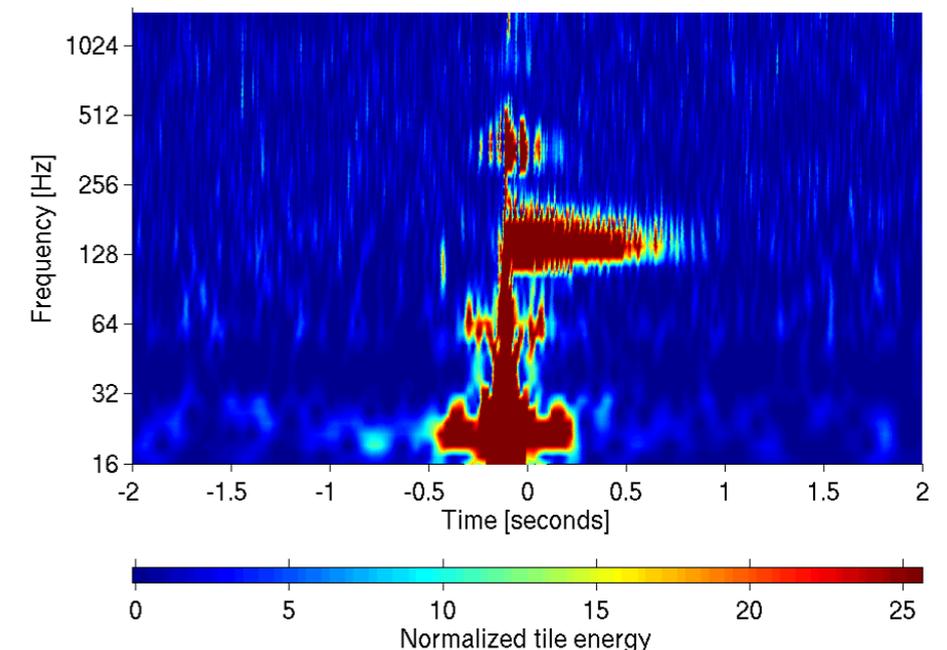
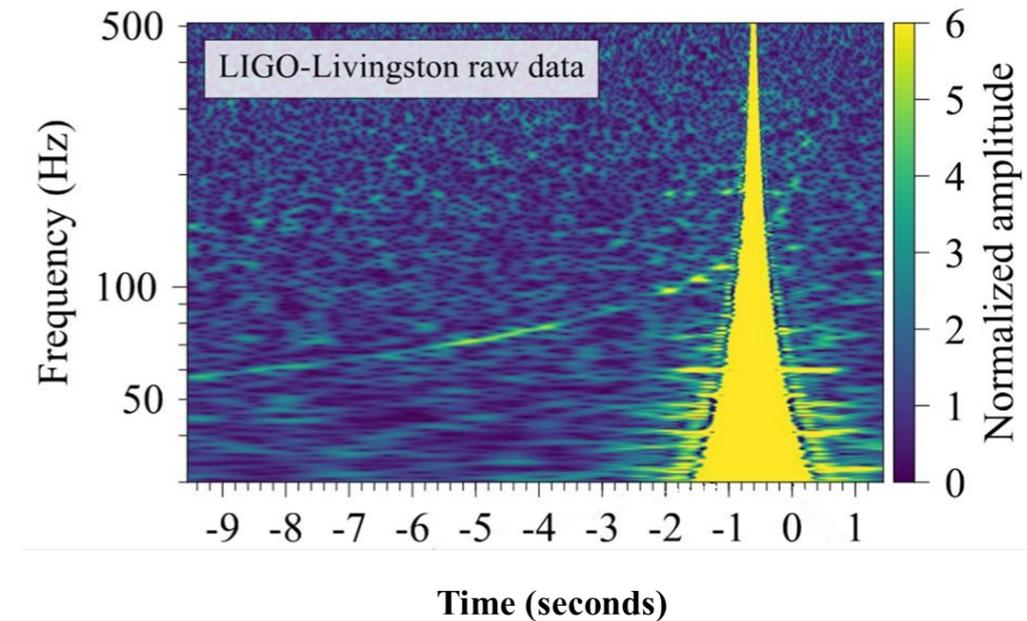
Significance estimation

- Significance of detection is evaluated against the hypothesis that noise could give rise to random trigger
- GW150914: 5.3 sigma, FAR $< 6 \times 10^{-7}$ yr⁻¹
- O1 had 51.5 days of data. How is it possible?
- Timeslides



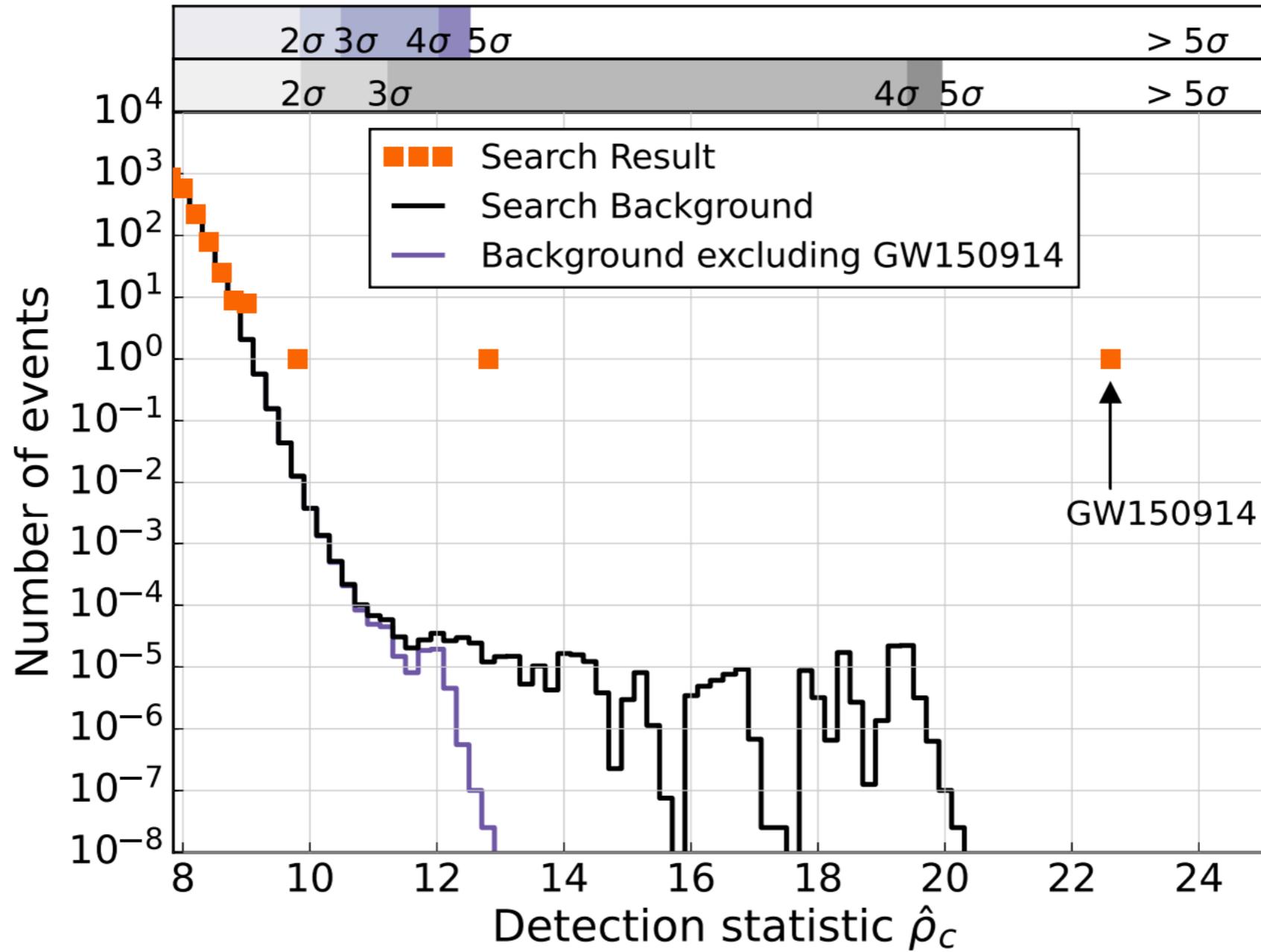
Timeslides

- Pure Gaussian noise $p(\rho|I) \propto e^{-\frac{1}{2}\rho^2}$
- The noise is not exactly Gaussian (glitches)
- Construct the empirical distribution of your detection statistics
 - Synthetic, incoherent noise realisations
 - Background distribution





Significance





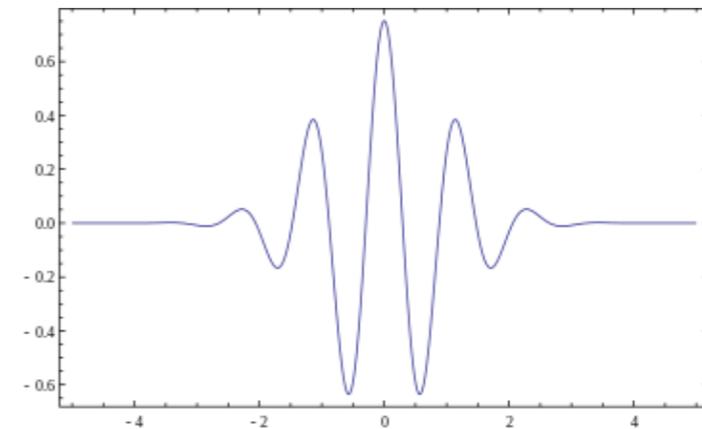
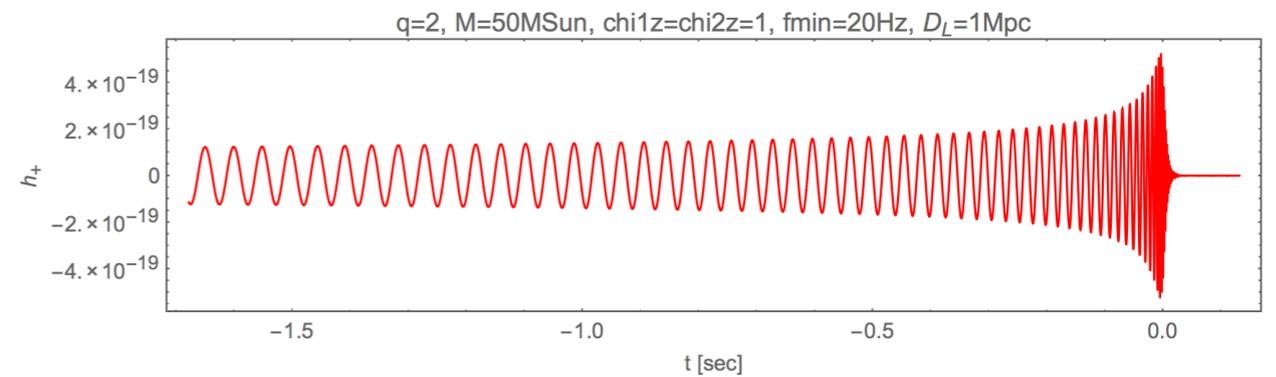
Part 4

Inference of parameters



Signal model

- Signal model is any deterministic signal which is not noise
 - Accurate prediction (e.g. EOB)
 - Superposition of some basis function (wavelets)
- Signal depends on a set of parameters
 - physical for GR models
 - coefficients of projection on basis for unmodelled





Parameter estimation

- $h(t; \theta)$ depends on a set of parameters θ
 - $D=9$ for non-spinning binaries: masses, orientation, sky location, reference time and phase, luminosity distance
 - $D=15$ in general: spin vectors
 - More parameters for extra physics (e.g. BH charges, tests of GR, tidal effects, etc...)



Parameter estimation

- Parameters are estimated computing the posterior distribution for all of them
- joint distribution

$$p(\theta|DSI) = \frac{p(\theta|SI)p(D|\theta SI)}{\int_{\Theta} p(\theta|SI)p(D|\theta SI)}$$

Large dimensional integral
numerical methods



Assigning confidence

- In addition to posteriors, one can compute the odds between the noise and signal + noise hypotheses

$$O_{SN} = \frac{p(S|I)}{p(N|I)} \frac{\int_{\Theta} d\theta p(\theta|SI)p(D|\theta SI)}{p(D|NI)}$$

Bayes' factor



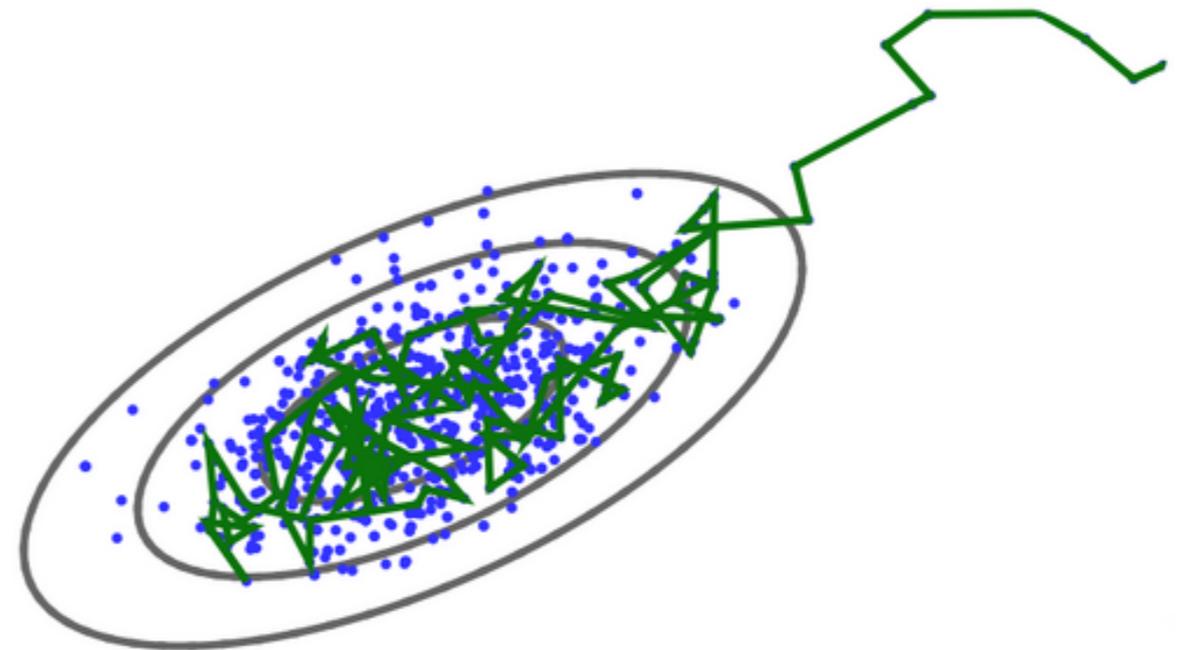


Numerical implementations

- The LVKC parameter estimation algorithms and necessary infrastructure are implemented in the LALInference package as part of the LIGO Algorithm Library (LAL)
- Parallel tempering Markov Chain Monte Carlo
- Nested Sampling

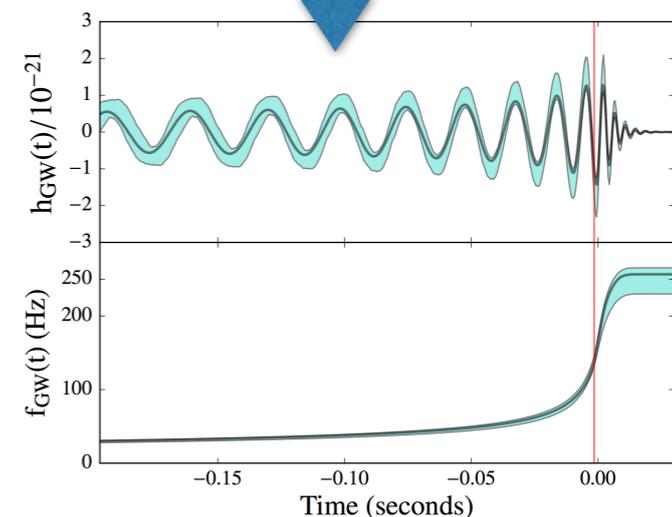
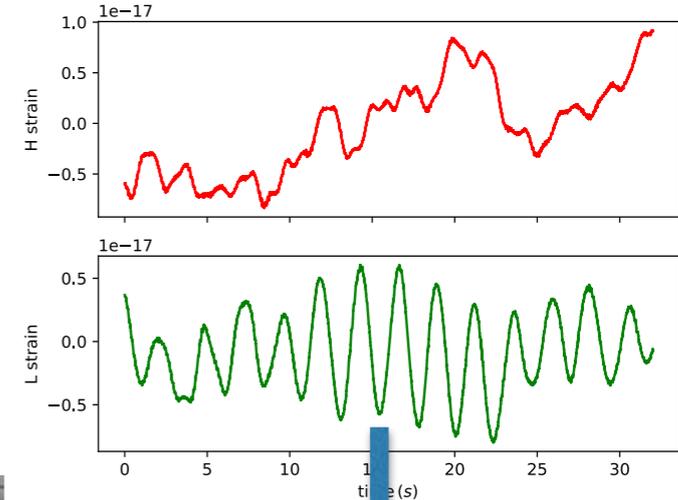
MCMC in a nutshell

- while you are not done:
 - pick a value of the parameters (sample) as prescribed
 - predict the waveform
 - subtract it from the data
 - if it looks like noise:
 - keep it and pick the next one “around” it
 - else:
 - pick the next one somewhere else



Some numbers

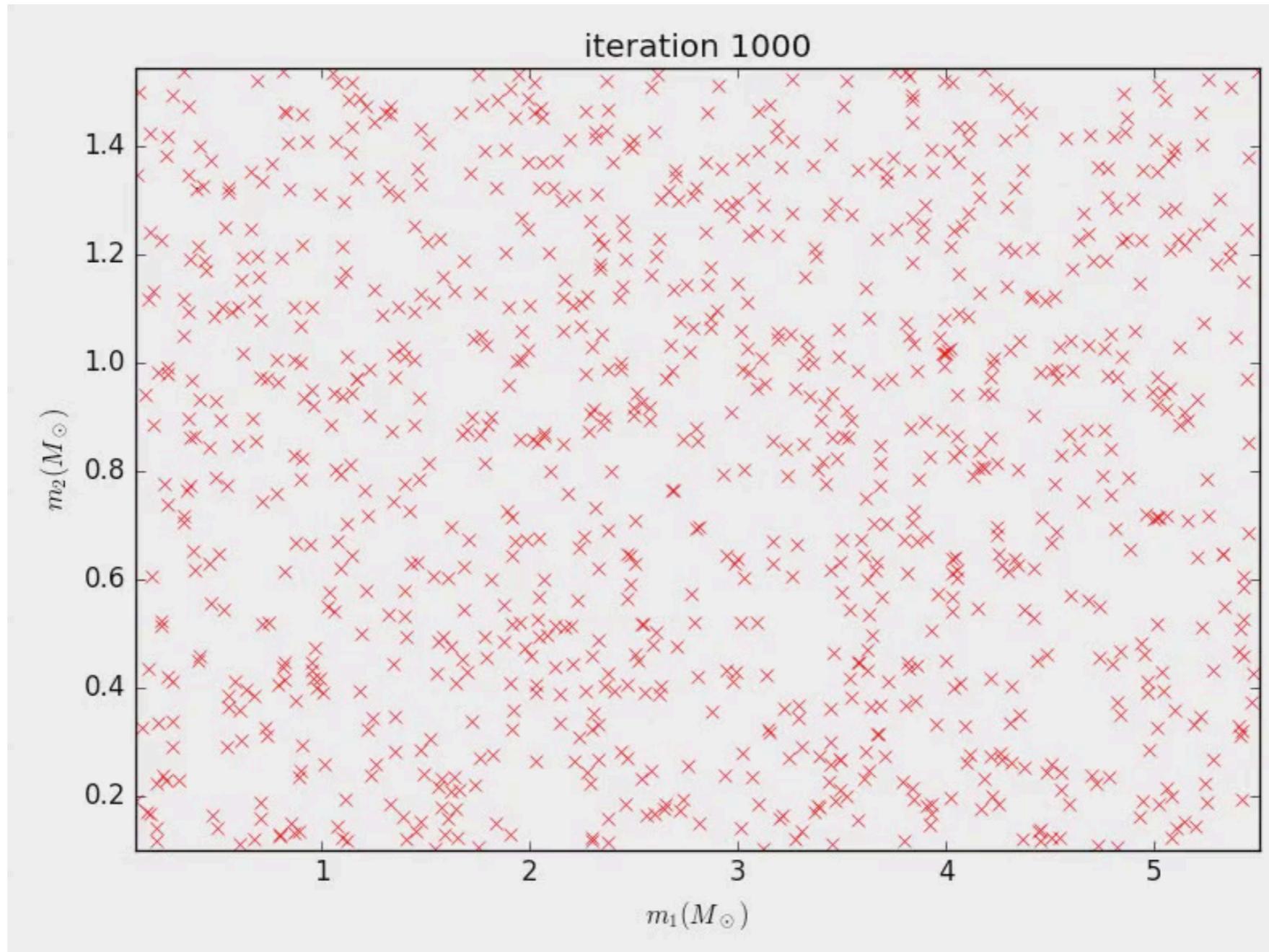
- Parameter estimation is an expensive business
- Generation of $O(10^7)$ templates
- If a template takes 1s to generate $\implies \tau \sim$ months
- Need for fast AND accurate waveform models
- EOBNR(ROM) & Phenom





Exploring the parameter space

- nested sampling algorithm



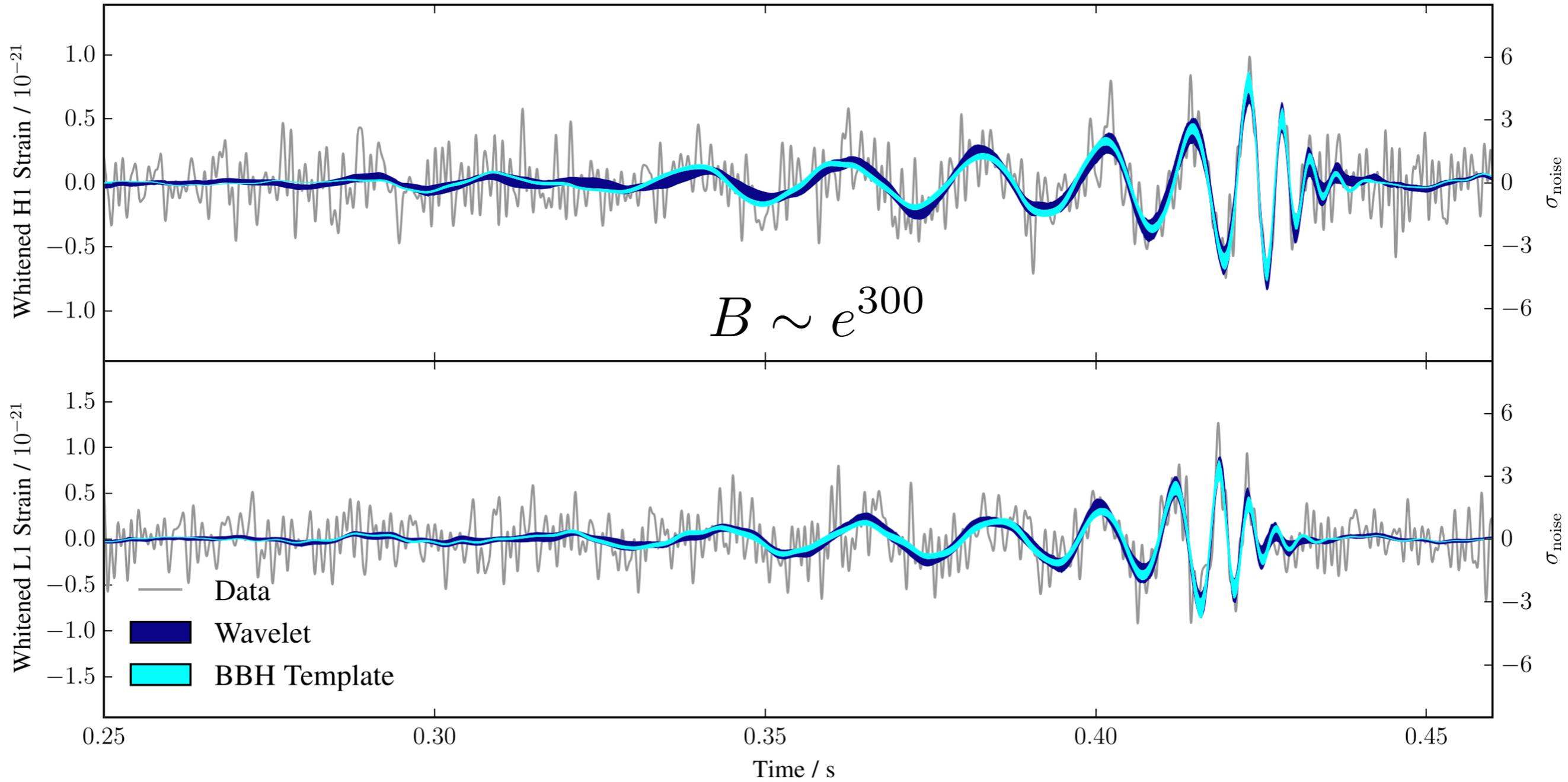


Part 5

Selected posterior distributions

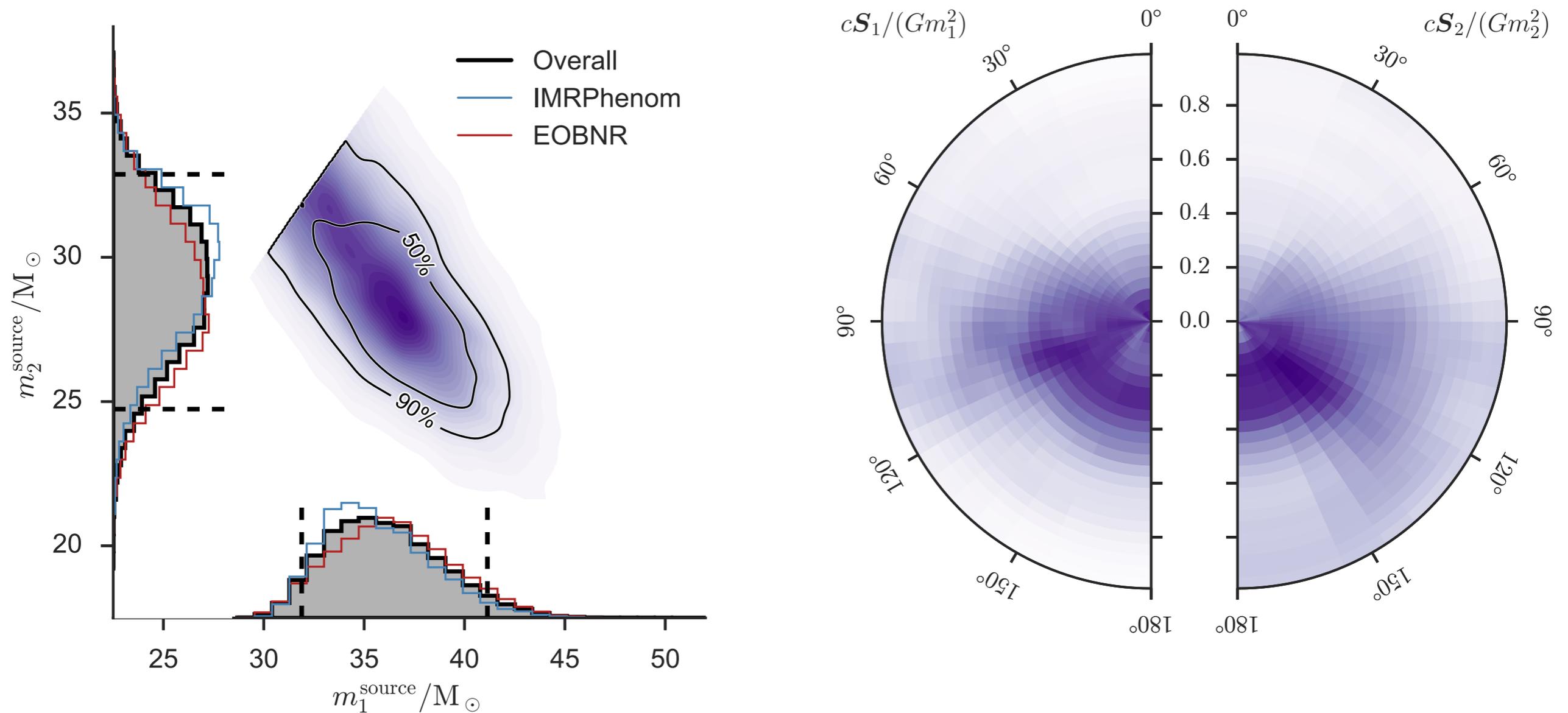


GW150914





GW150914



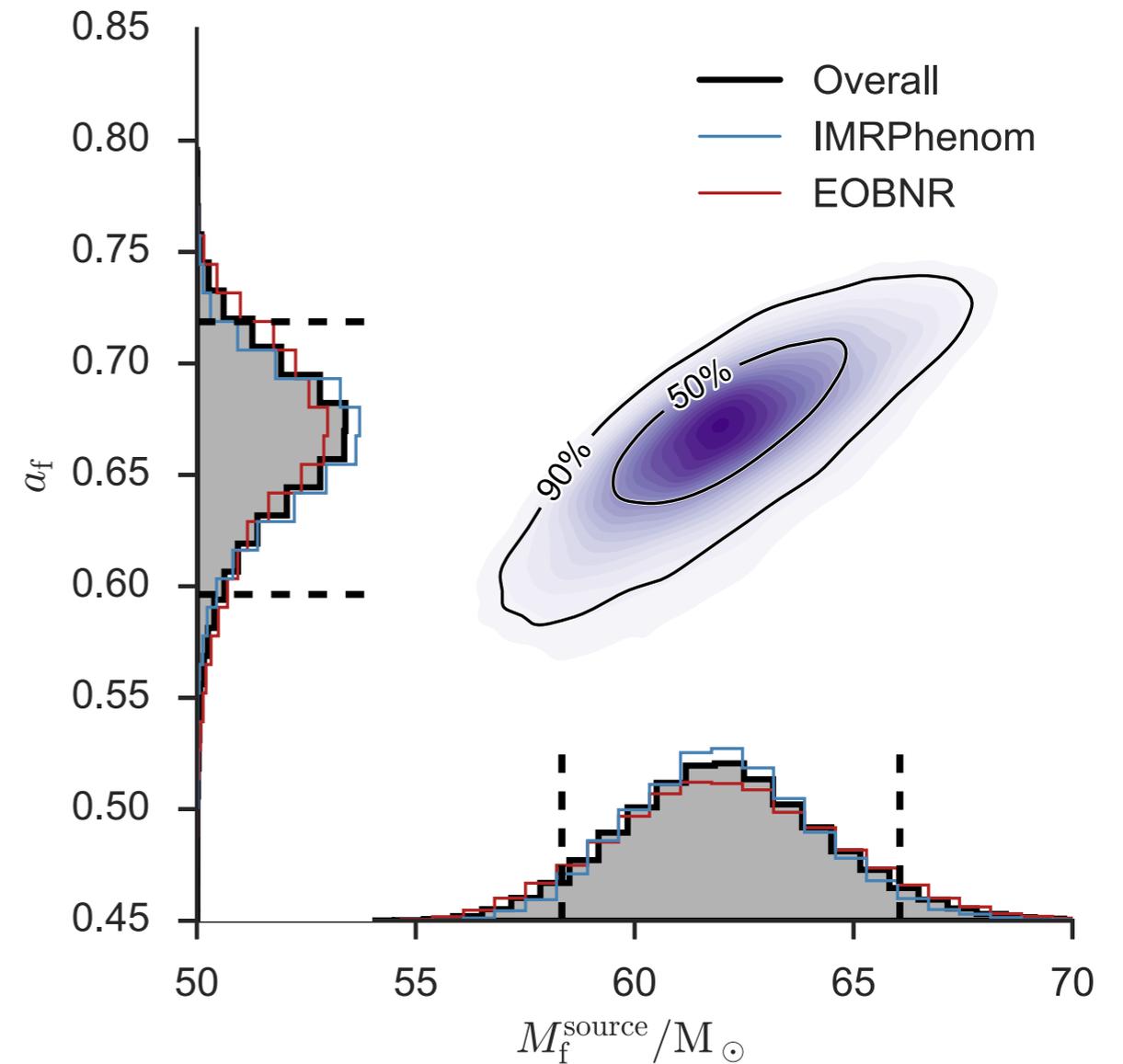
Abbott et al, arXiv:1602.03840



GW150914

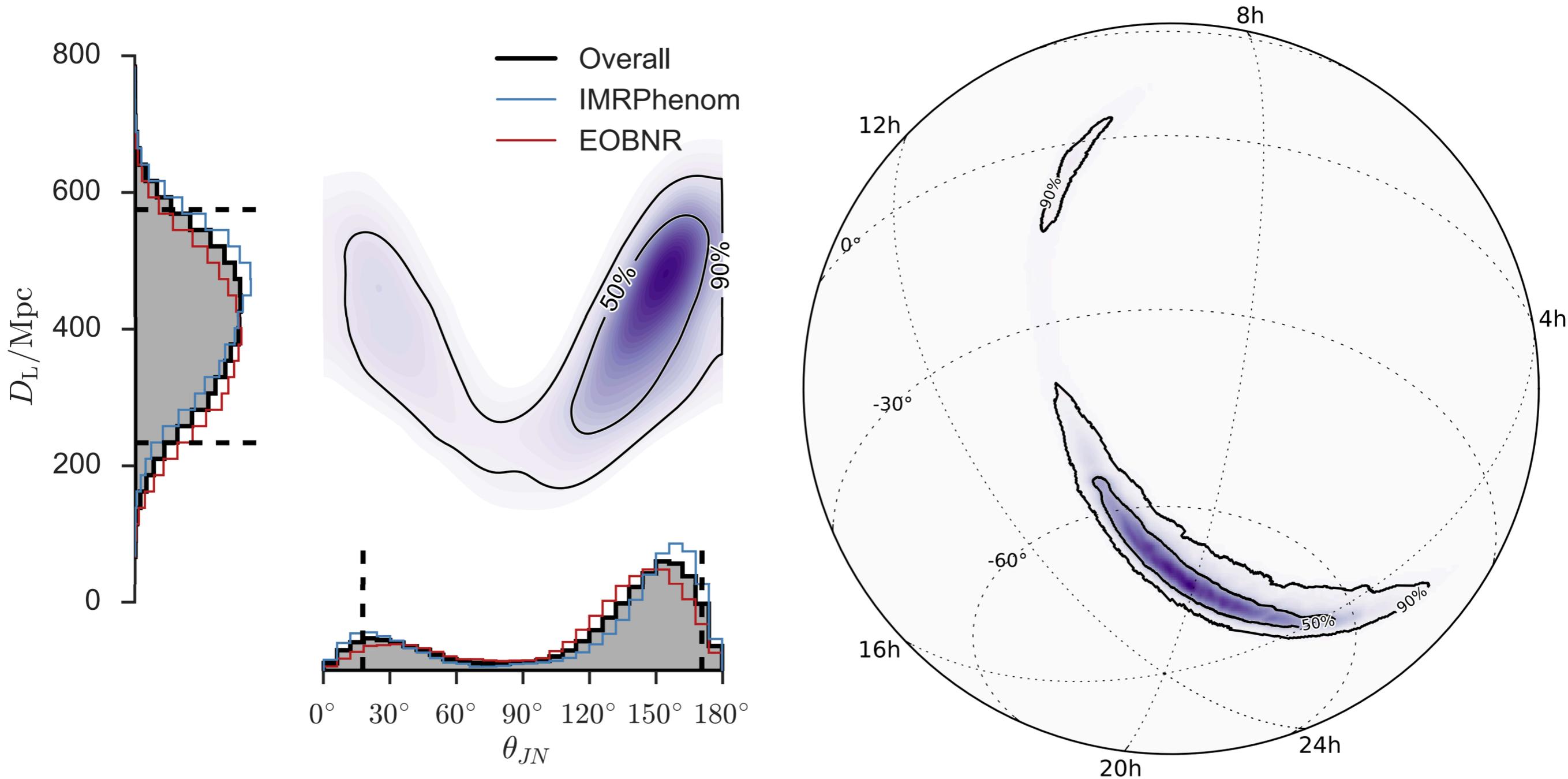
- Accurate measurements require accurate and precise predictions

“Inference is as good as the information you put into it”



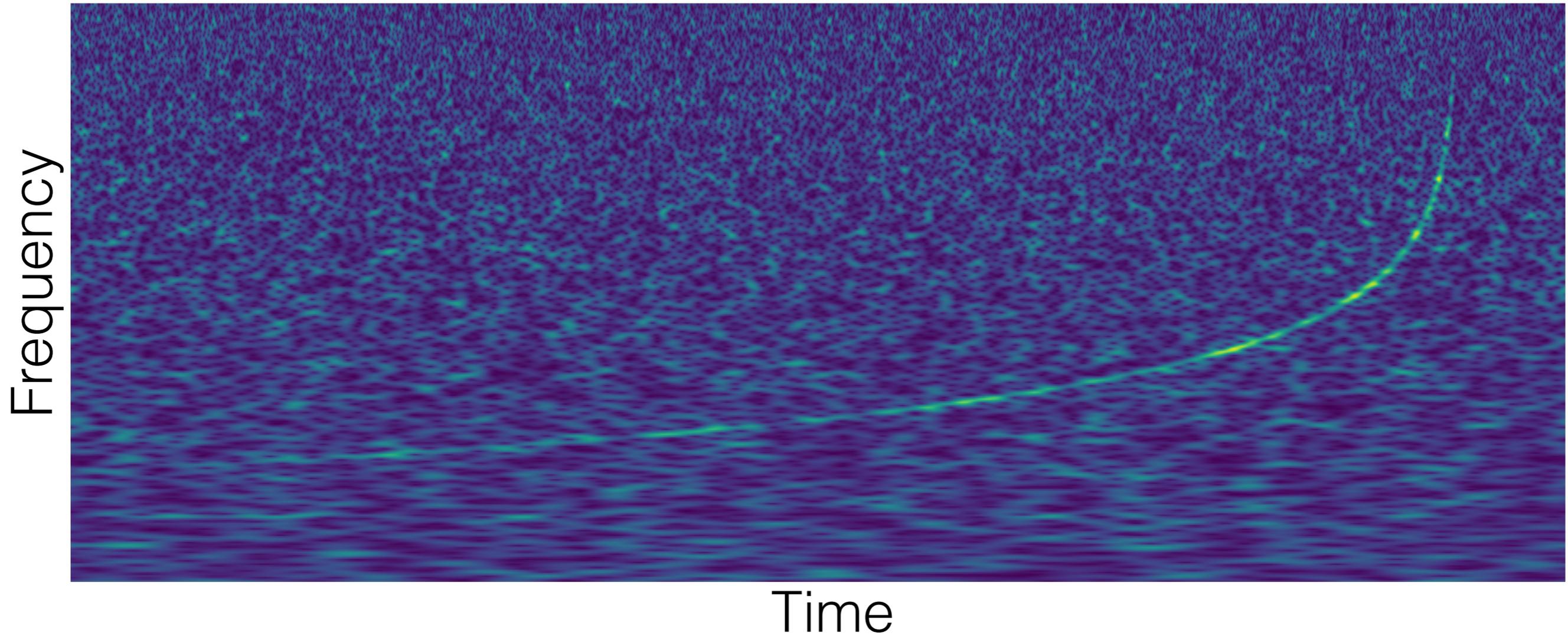


GW150914





GW170817

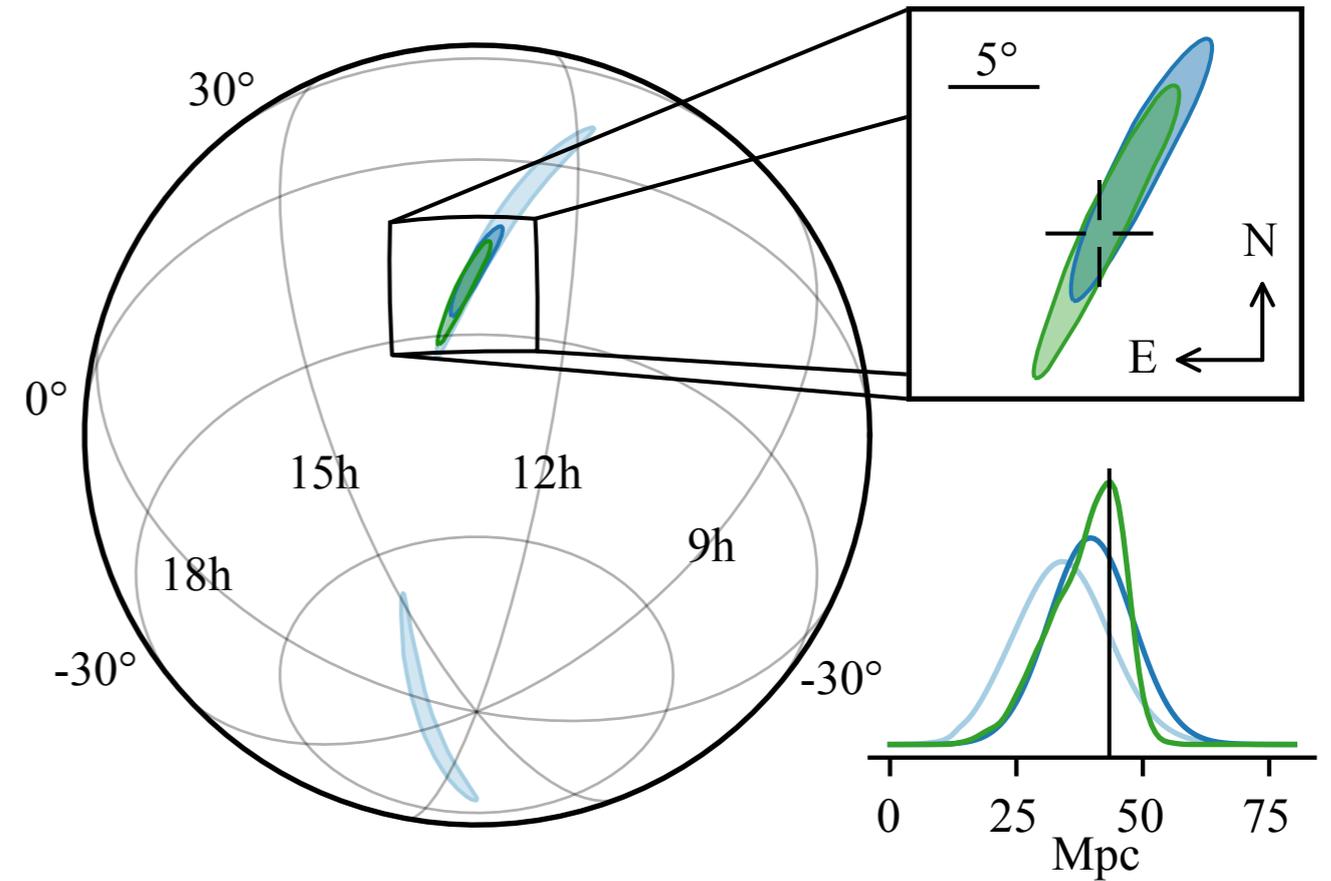




GW170817

	Low-spin priors ($ \chi \leq 0.05$)	High-spin priors ($ \chi \leq 0.89$)
Primary mass m_1	$1.36 - 1.60 M_\odot$	$1.36 - 2.26 M_\odot$
Secondary mass m_2	$1.17 - 1.36 M_\odot$	$0.86 - 1.36 M_\odot$
Chirp mass \mathcal{M}	$1.188_{-0.002}^{+0.004} M_\odot$	$1.188_{-0.002}^{+0.004} M_\odot$
Mass ratio m_2/m_1	$0.7 - 1.0$	$0.4 - 1.0$
Total mass m_{tot}	$2.74_{-0.01}^{+0.04} M_\odot$	$2.82_{-0.09}^{+0.47} M_\odot$
Radiated energy E_{rad}	$> 0.025 M_\odot c^2$	$> 0.025 M_\odot c^2$
Luminosity distance D_L	$40_{-14}^{+8} \text{ Mpc}$	$40_{-14}^{+8} \text{ Mpc}$
Viewing angle Θ	$\leq 55^\circ$	$\leq 56^\circ$
using NGC 4993 location	$\leq 28^\circ$	$\leq 28^\circ$
Combined dimensionless tidal deformability $\tilde{\Lambda}$	≤ 800	≤ 700
Dimensionless tidal deformability $\Lambda(1.4M_\odot)$	≤ 800	≤ 1400

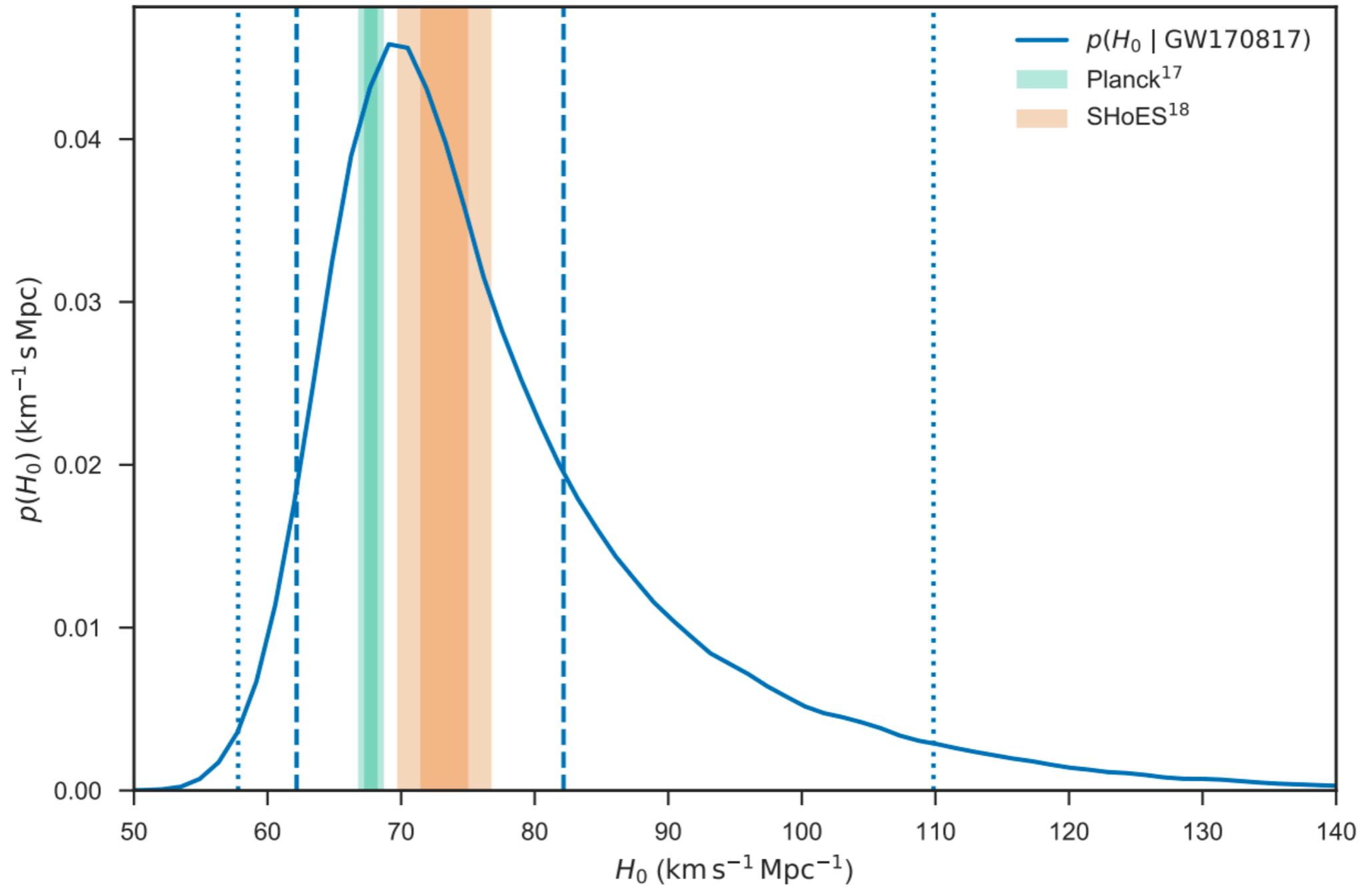
GW170817



- Electromagnetic counterpart!



GW170817



LVC, arXiv:1710.05835

Cosmography with GW

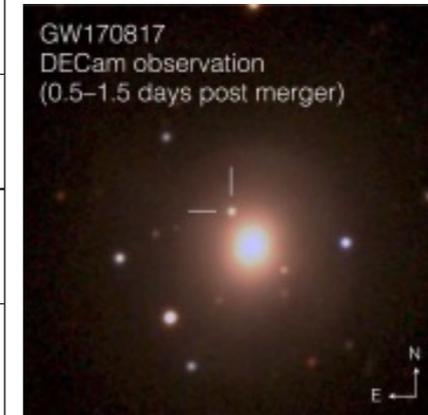
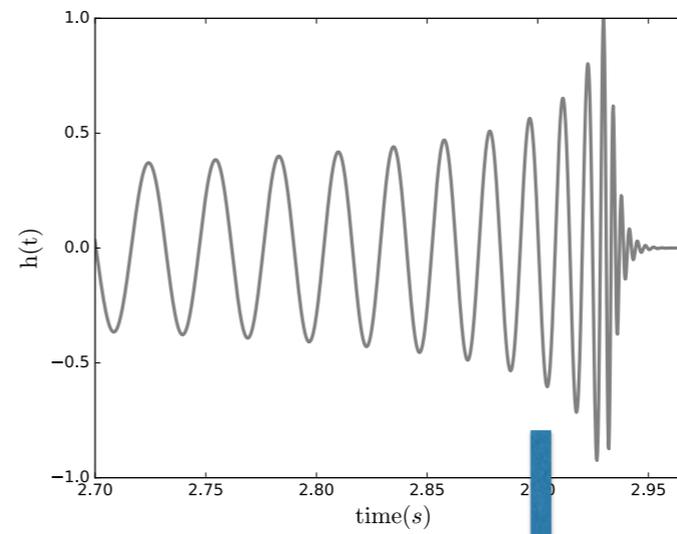
- GW are self-calibrating

$$h \sim D_L^{-1}$$

- Direct measurement of luminosity distance

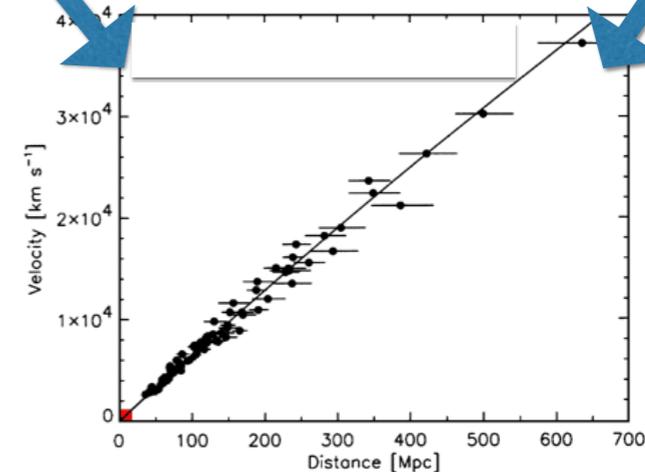
- “Standard sirens”

- In general, no redshift from GWs



D_L

z





Hierarchical models

- How to infer the Hubble constant?

$$p(H_0|DSI) = p(H_0|SI) \frac{p(D|H_0SI)}{p(D|SI)}$$

$$p(D|H_0SI) = \int dD_L dz p(D_L z|H_0SI) p(D|D_L z H_0SI)$$

$$= \int dD_L dz p(D_L|z H_0SI) p(z|H_0SI) p(D|D_L z H_0SI)$$

$$D_L = \frac{cz}{H_0} \implies p(D_L|z H_0SI) = \delta\left(D_L - \frac{cz}{H_0}\right)$$



Hierarchical models

- Independent measurement of the redshift

$$p(z|H_0 SI) = p(z|I) = \delta(z - z_g) \quad \text{ignoring uncertainty on redshift from galaxy proper motions, etc...}$$

- Say that

$$p(D|D_L z H_0 SI) = p(D|D_L SI)$$

$$p(D|D_L SI) = e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{(D_L - \mu)}{\sigma} \right)^2}$$

- We get

$$p(H_0|DSI) \propto p(H_0|I) e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\left(\frac{cz}{H_0} - \mu \right)}{\sigma} \right]^2}$$



Joint posteriors

- We have a measurement of a “global” parameter λ
- We measured N events

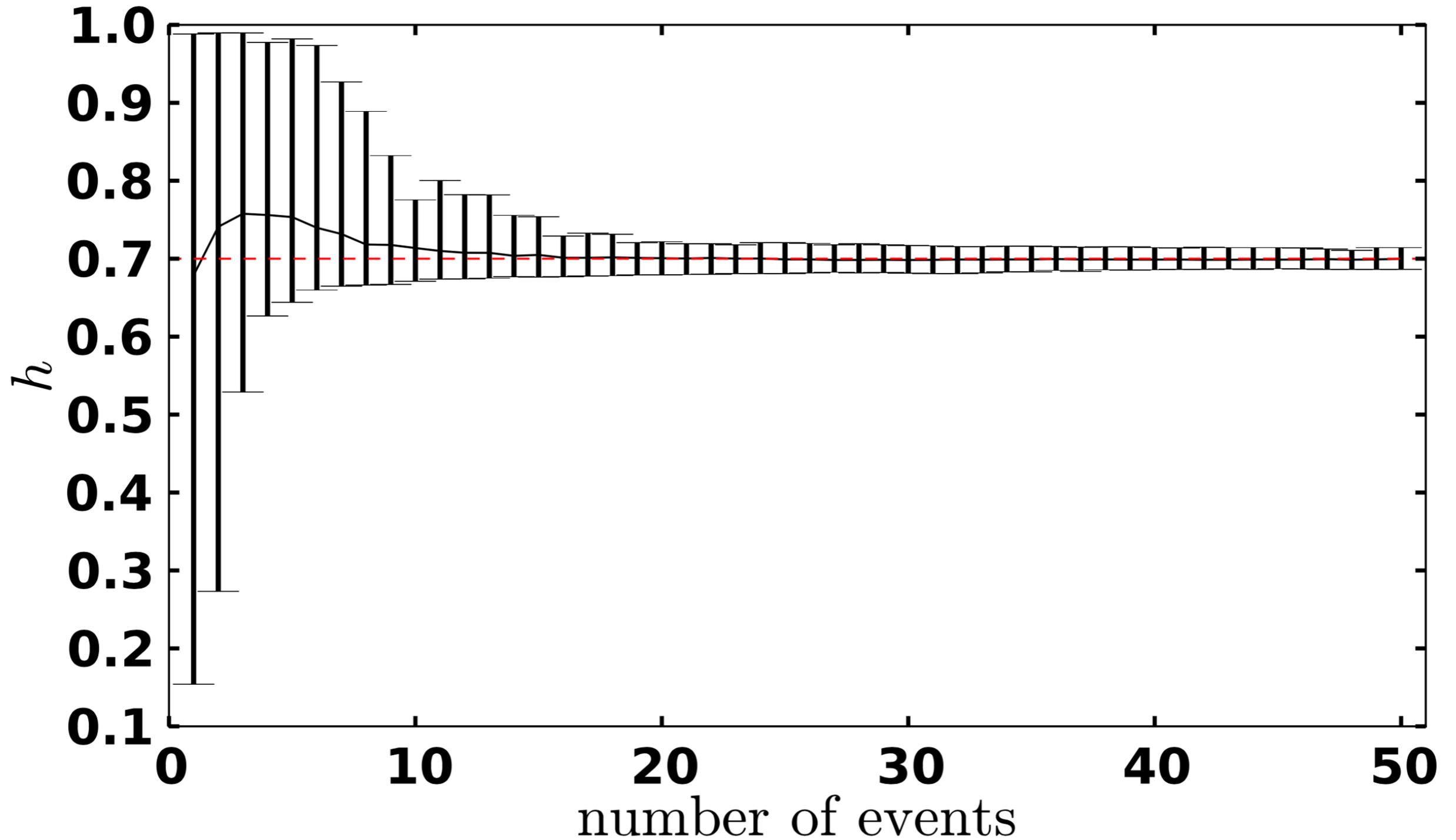
$$p(\lambda|D_1 \dots D_N SI) = p(\lambda|SI) \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{p(D_i|\lambda SI)}{p(D_i|SI)}$$

- Each individual likelihood

$$p(D_i|\lambda SI) = \int_{\Theta_i} d\theta_i p(\theta_i|\lambda SI)p(D_i|\theta_i \lambda SI)$$



Hubble constant





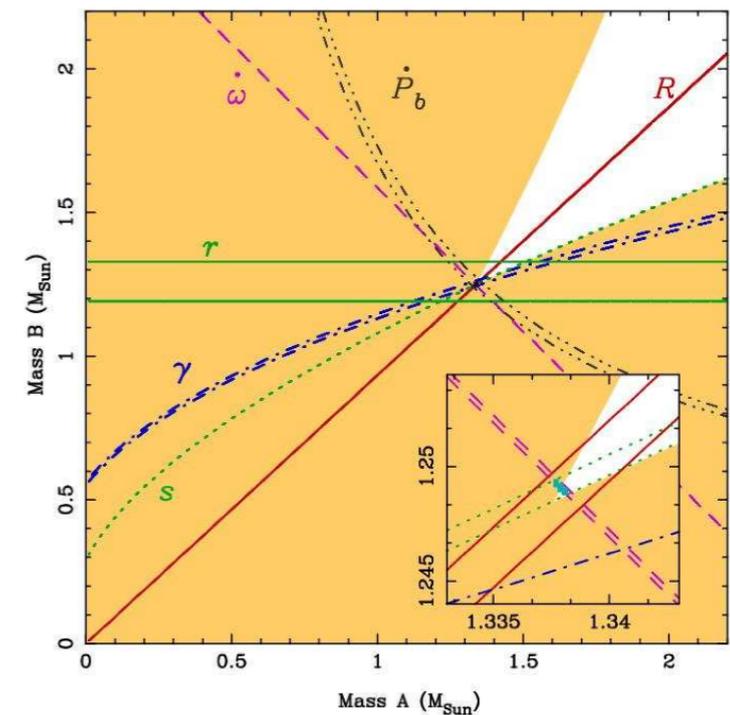
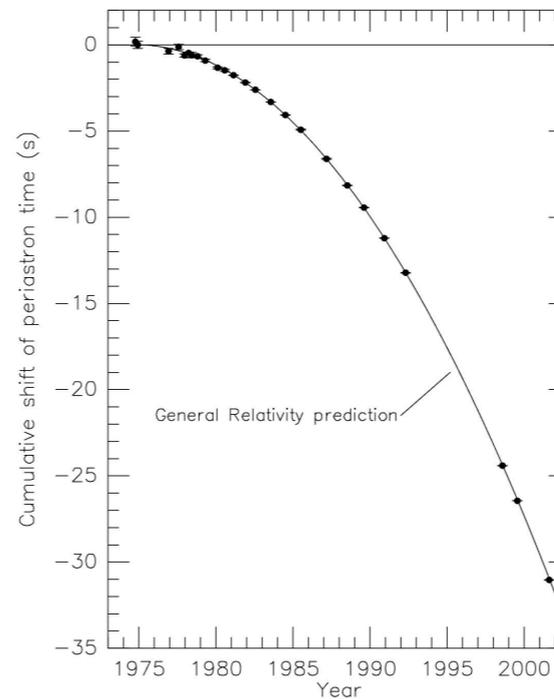
Part 5

Tests of general relativity and black hole nature



Dynamics of space-time

- GR is non renormalisable
 - higher order terms in the action
- Dark matter & dark energy
 - signature of modified gravity?
- GR is extremely well tested in between these regimes (Will, arXiv:1403.7377, Psaltis, arXiv:0806.1531)



Weisberg & Taylor, arXiv:0407149
Kramer+, arXiv:0609417



Gravitational strong-field

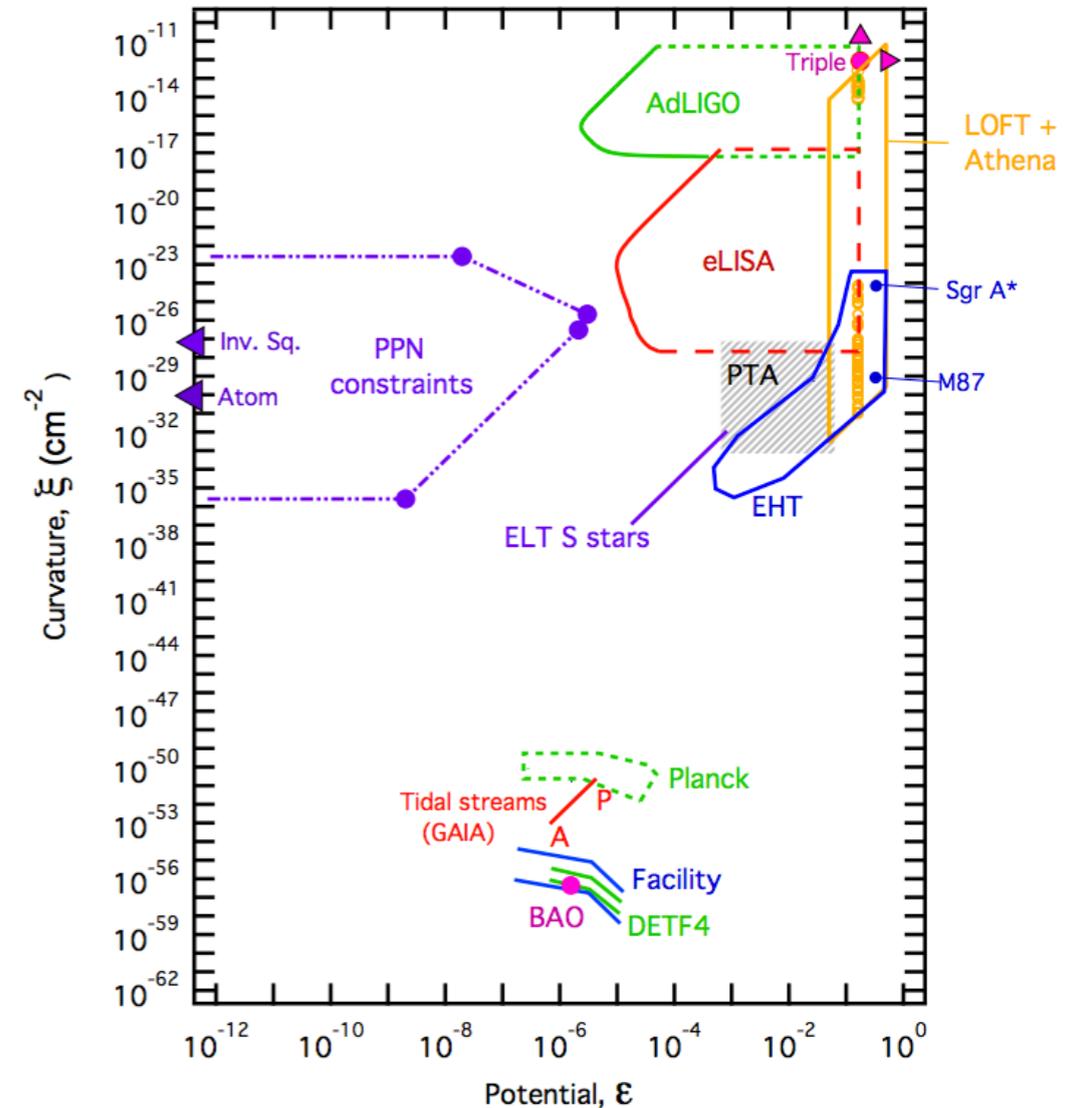
- Field strength

$$\epsilon = \frac{GM}{c^2 R}$$

- Curvature
(Kretschmann scalar)

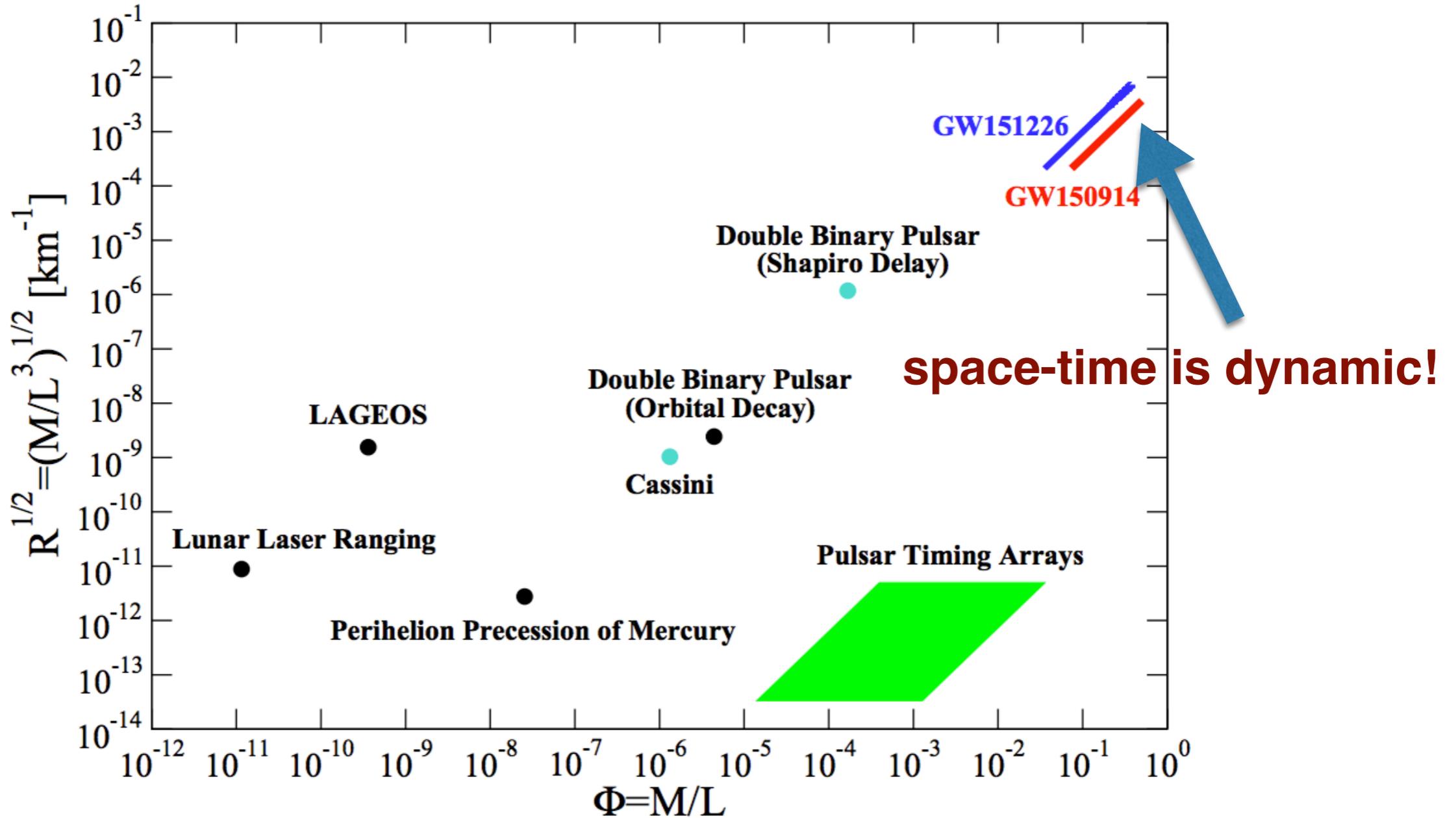
$$\xi = (R_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta}R^{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta})^{1/2}$$

- Gravitational waves from binary black holes are the optimal probes





Gravitational strong-field

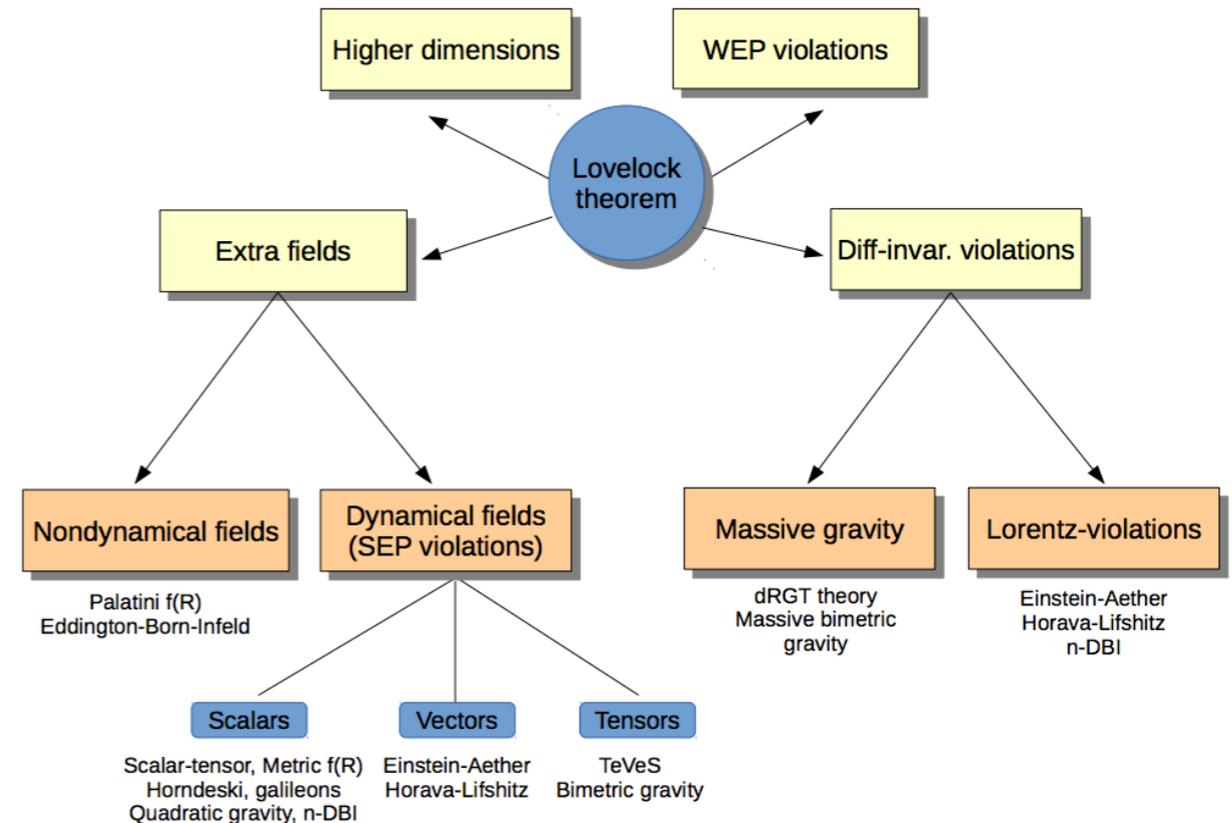




Extensions of GR

- Alternative theories
 - Introduce extra degrees of freedom:
 - additional fields
 - higher-curvature terms
 - Challenge GR assumptions:
 - Lorentz invariance
 - Equivalence principle
- Need tests in the strong-field

Lovelock theorem: In 4D, the only divergence free symmetric rank-2 tensor constructed only by the metric and its derivatives up to 2nd order and preserving diffeomorphism invariance is the Einstein tensor plus a constant.





non-GR effects on the waveform

- Alternative theories of gravity modify the waveform
 - change the φ coefficients by introducing additional parameters
 - e.g. “massive gravity”
 - add extra orders not present in the GR waveform
 - e.g. Brans-Dicke
- Non-BHs show different merger and ringdown spectra

$$h(f) = A(f)e^{i\Phi(f)}$$

$$\Phi(f) = \sum_{k=1}^7 (\varphi_k + \varphi_k^l \log(f)) f^{(5-k)/3} + \sum_{i \neq k} \varphi_i f^i$$

$$\varphi_j \equiv \varphi_j(m_1, m_2, \vec{s}_1, \vec{s}_2) \quad \forall j = k, i$$

$$\Phi_{MG}(v) = \Phi_{GR}(v) - \frac{\pi^2 DM}{\lambda_g^2 (1+z)} v^{-1}$$

$$\Phi_{BD}(v) = \Phi_{GR}(v) - \frac{5S^2}{84\omega_{BD}} v^{-2}$$



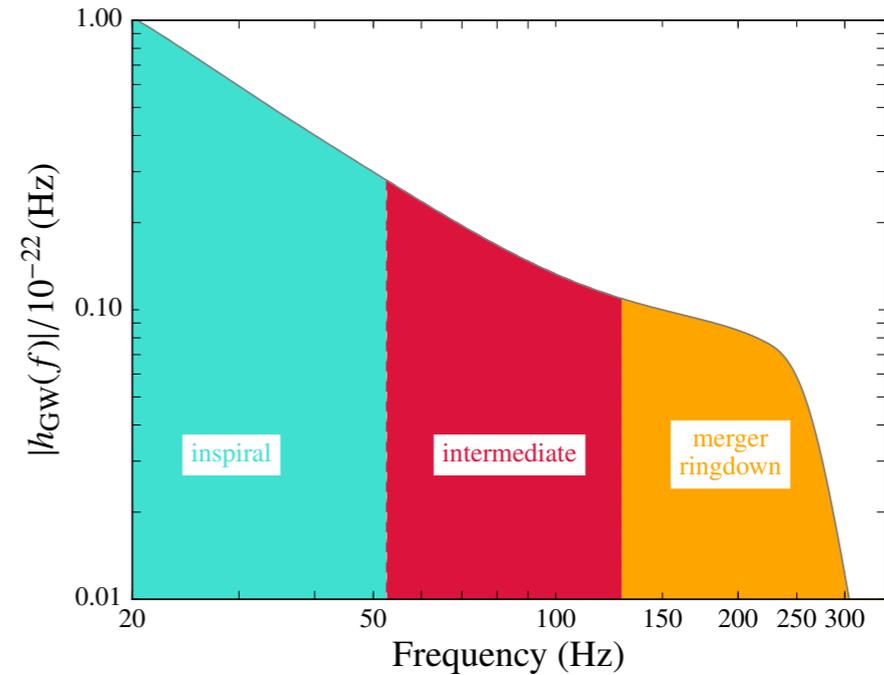
Strategies

- Two strategies to test GR
 1. Self-consistency tests: perturb around GR and check for evidence of inconsistencies
 2. Targeted tests: assume an alternative theory of gravity and constrain its parameters



Parametrised tests of GR

- Waveform models are described by post-Newtonian and phenomenological coefficients
- Allow for fractional changes with respect to the GR value



$$\hat{\varphi}_j \equiv \varphi^{\text{GR}} (1 + \delta\hat{\varphi}_j)$$

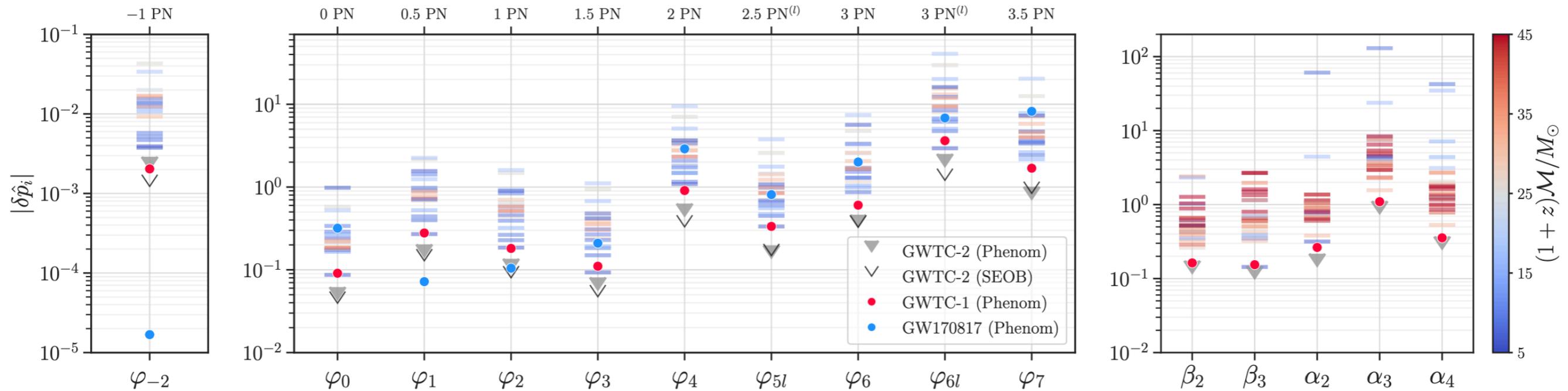
- Obtain constraints on “generic” deviations from GR (Li, Del Pozzo et al 2012, Agathos, Del Pozzo et al 2013)

waveform regime	parameter	f -dependence
early-inspiral regime	$\delta\hat{\varphi}_0$	$f^{-5/3}$
	$\delta\hat{\varphi}_1$	$f^{-4/3}$
	$\delta\hat{\varphi}_2$	f^{-1}
	$\delta\hat{\varphi}_3$	$f^{-2/3}$
	$\delta\hat{\varphi}_4$	$f^{-1/3}$
	$\delta\hat{\varphi}_{5l}$	$\log(f)$
	$\delta\hat{\varphi}_6$	$f^{1/3}$
	$\delta\hat{\varphi}_{6l}$	$f^{1/3} \log(f)$
intermediate regime	$\delta\hat{\beta}_2$	$\log f$
	$\delta\hat{\beta}_3$	f^{-3}
merger-ringdown regime	$\delta\hat{\alpha}_2$	f^{-1}
	$\delta\hat{\alpha}_3$	$f^{3/4}$
	$\delta\hat{\alpha}_4$	$\tan^{-1}(af + b)$



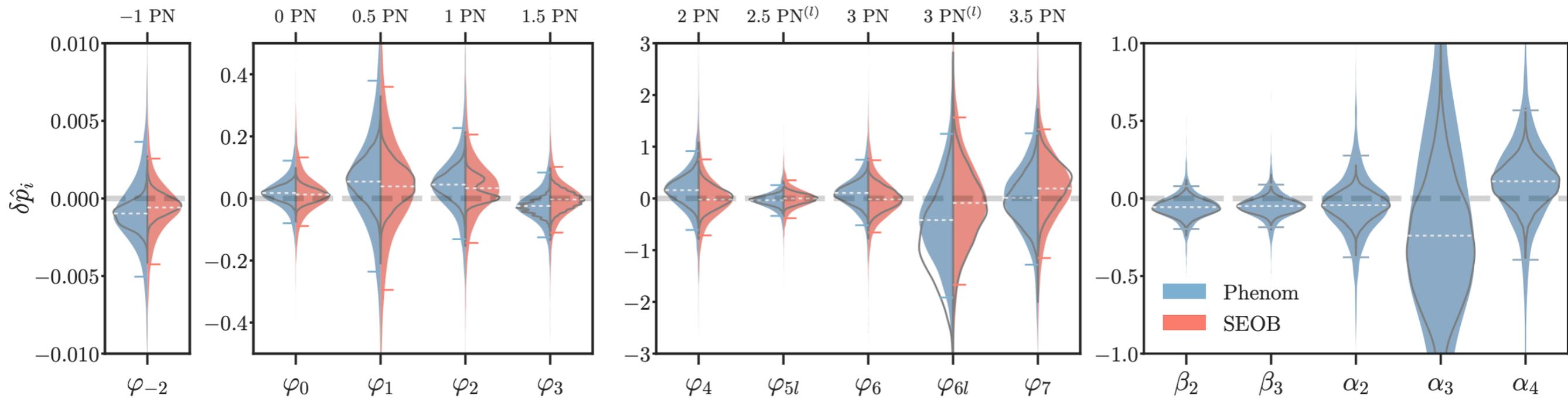
post-Newtonian series

- Dynamical constraints on post-Newtonian series
- Constraints on non-linear dynamics of space-time during the inspiral





Parametrised tests of GR



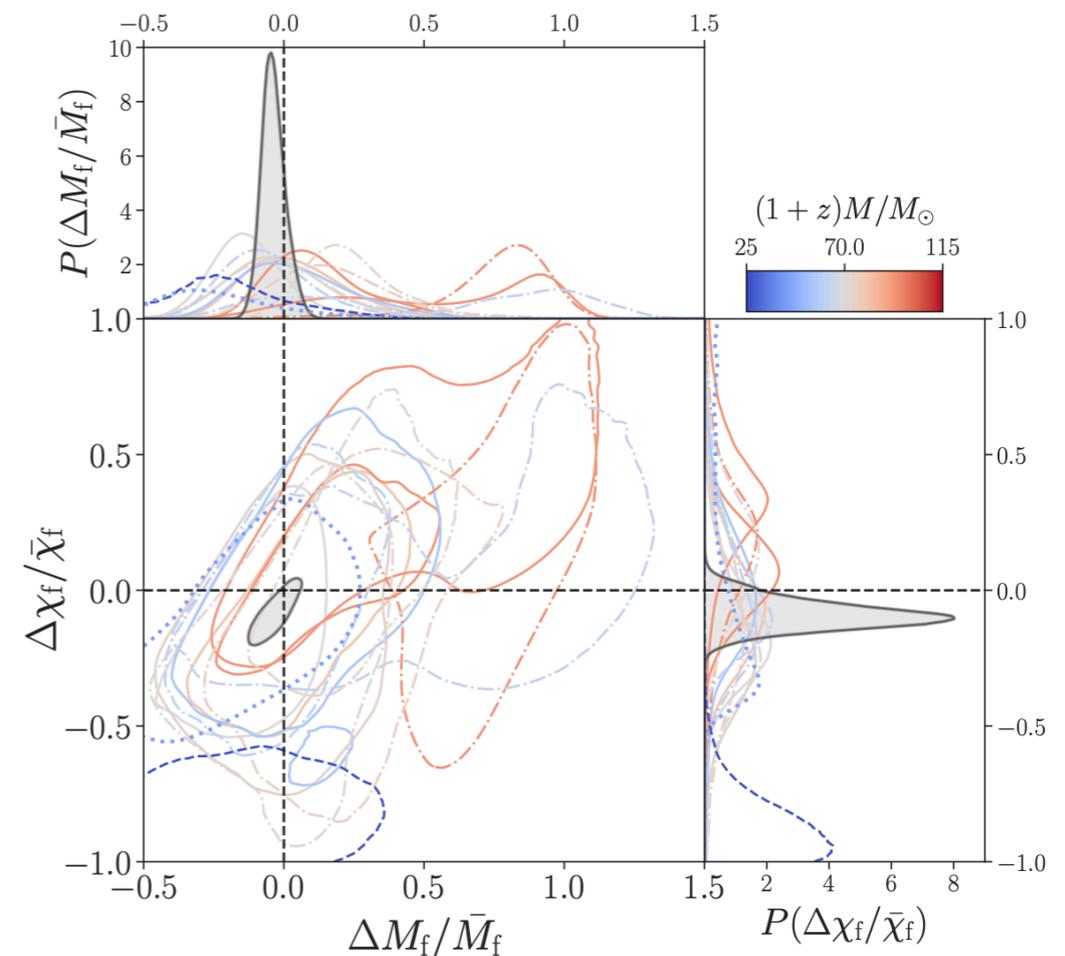
Energy/Frequency 



Reconstructed waveform consistency

- If GR is verified, the recovered GR waveform must be self-consistent
- Numerical solution provide predictions for spin and mass of remnant starting from the parents ones (e.g. Healy+, 1406.7295)
- Verify self-consistency by comparing final mass and spin predicted from the “inspiral” with the ones inferred from the “post-inspiral” (Ghosh+, 1602.02453)

$$\begin{cases} \Delta M_f / M_f = 0 \\ \Delta a_f / a_f = 0 \end{cases} \iff GR$$





Propagation tests: massive gravity

- Families of alternative theories modify the propagation of GW

- Massive gravity (e.g. Will, arXiv:9709011)

$$E^2 = p^2 v_g^2 + m_g^2 c^4$$

$$v_g^2/c^2 \simeq 1 - \frac{h^2 c^2}{\lambda_g^2 E^2}$$

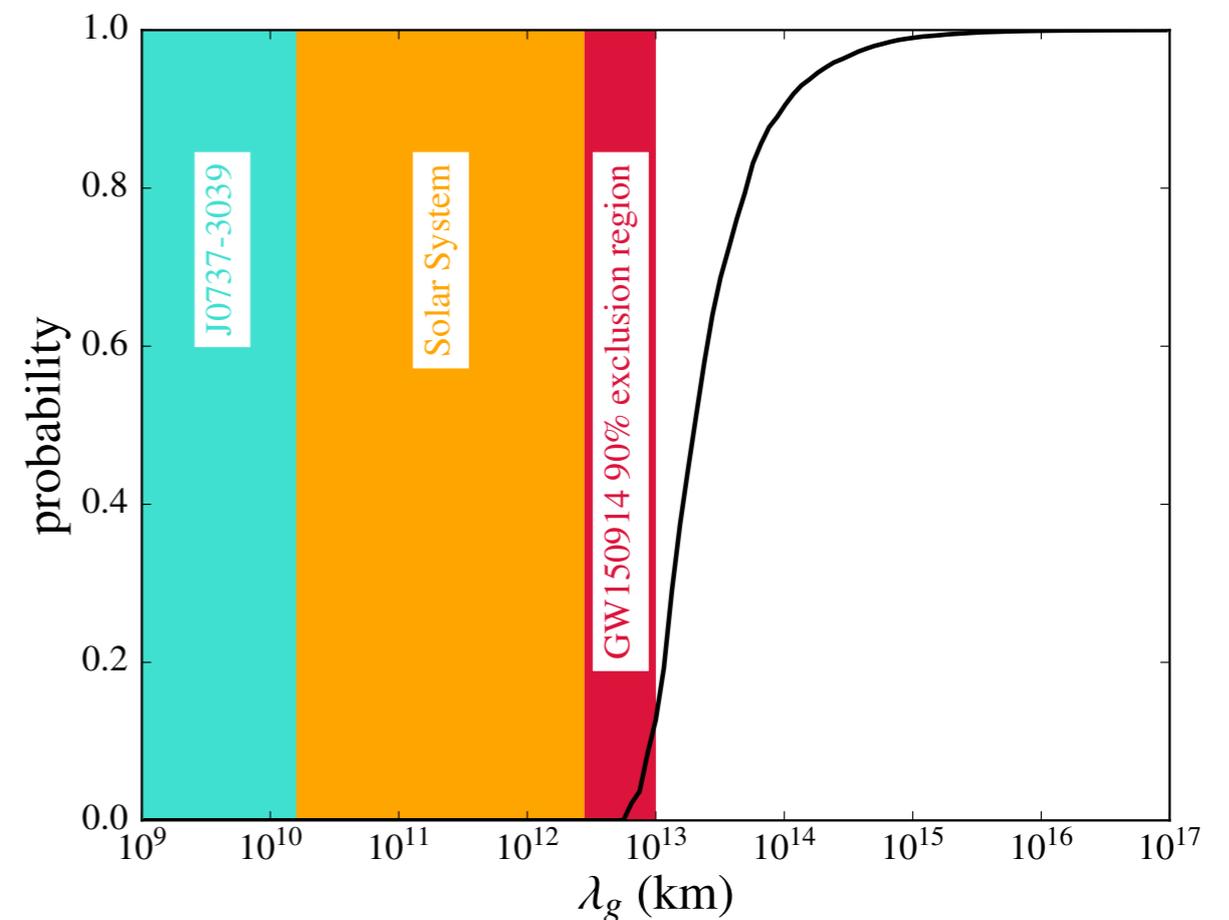
$$\lambda_g = \frac{h}{m_g c}$$

- GW phase affected

$$\Delta\Phi = -\frac{\pi^2 DM}{\lambda_g^2 (1+z)}$$

- GW constrains gravitons Compton wavelength

LVC, arXiv:1602.03841



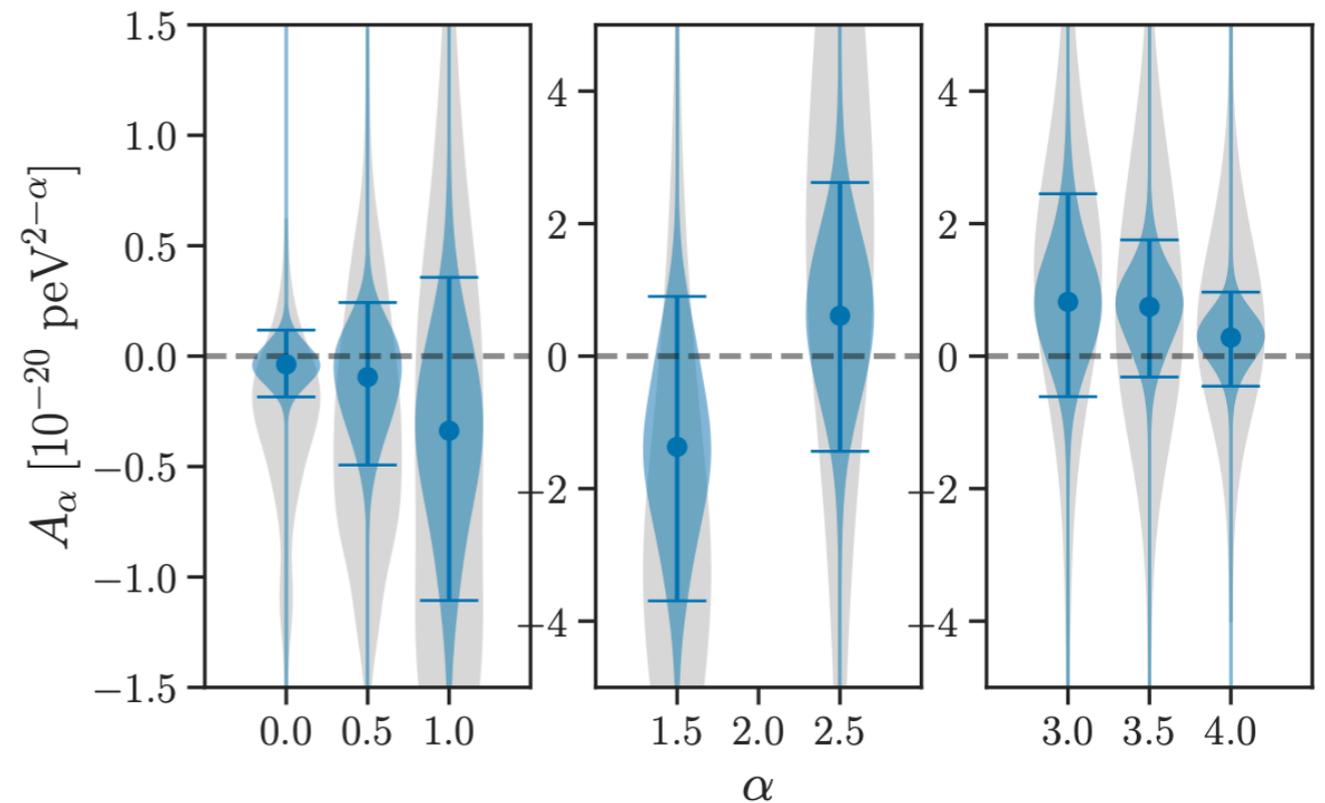


Tests of Lorentz Invariance Violations

- Further generalised (e.g. Mirshekari et al, arXiv:1110.2720)

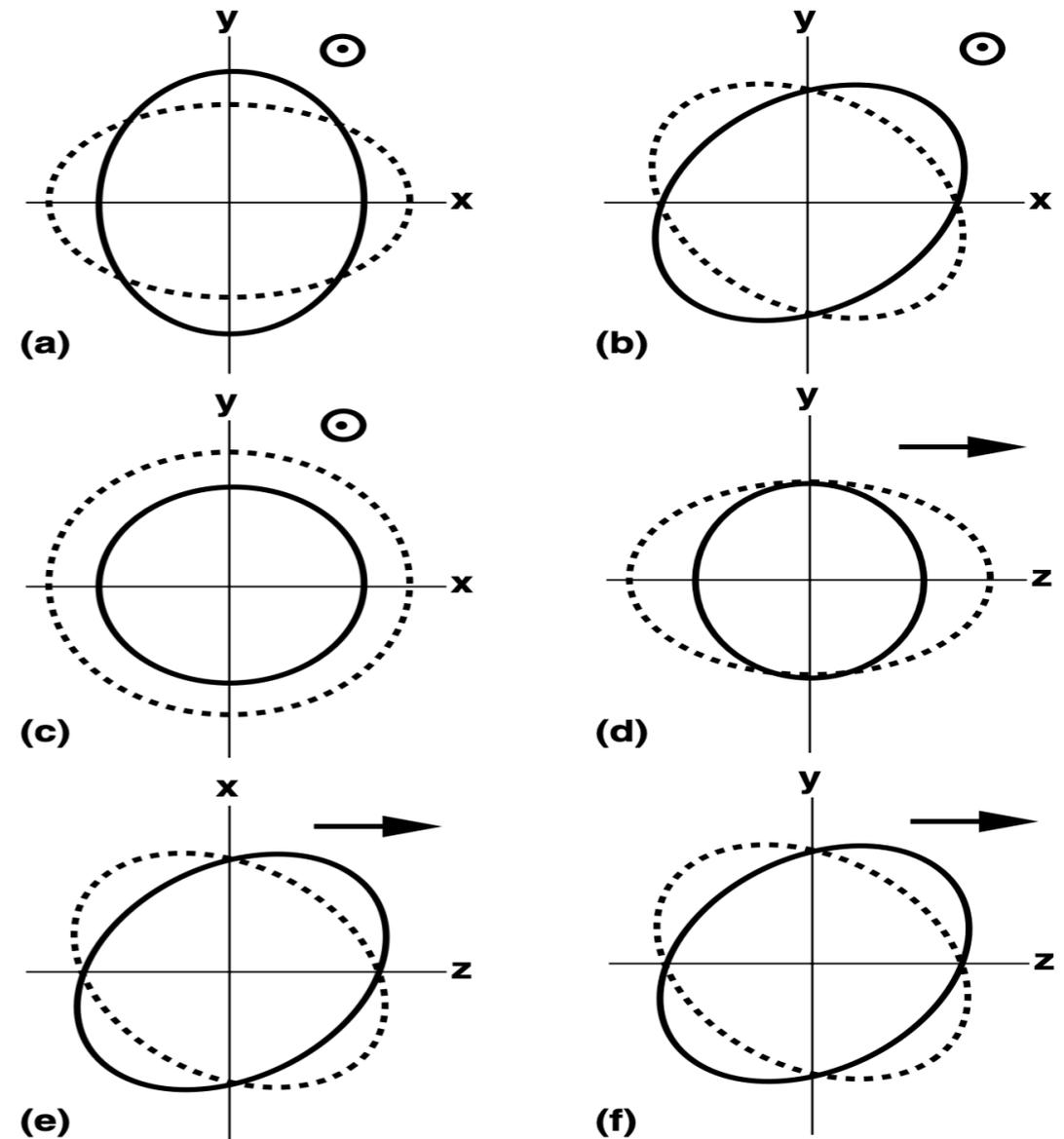
$$E^2 = p^2 c^2 + A p^\alpha c^\alpha \quad \alpha \geq 0$$
$$v_g/c = 1 + (\alpha - 1) A E^{\alpha-2} / 2$$

- first bounds derived from GW
- first tests of superluminal propagation in the gravitational sector



Gravitational wave polarisation states

- Gravitational waves in general relativity are transverse, tensorial waves
- Extensions to general relativity predict up to six polarisation states
 - Two transverse tensor states
 - Two longitudinal vector states
 - Two scalar states, one longitudinal and one “breathing”

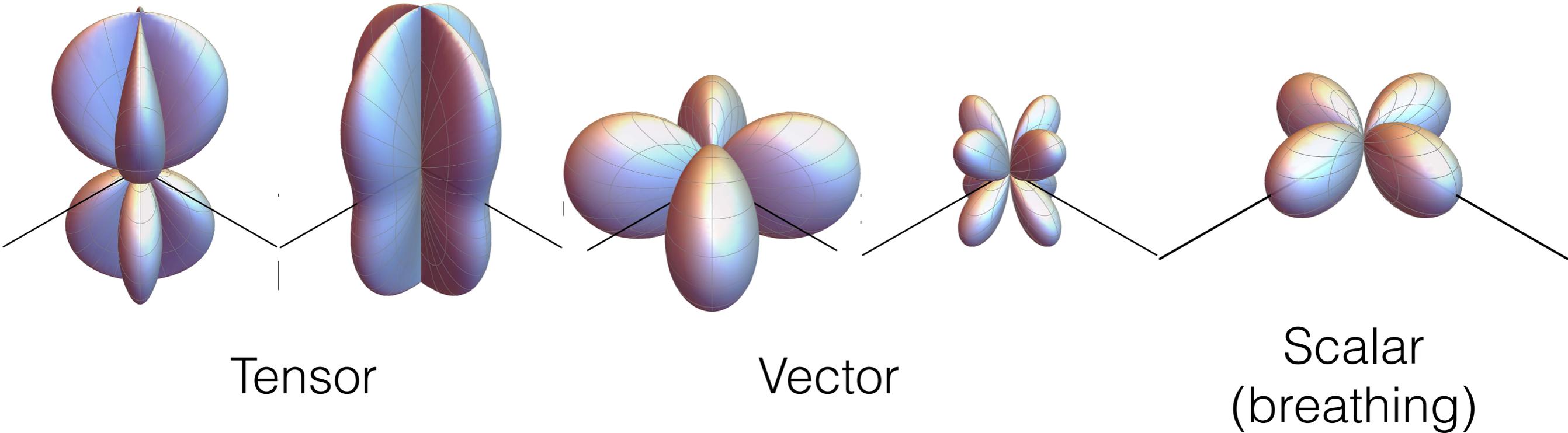




Detector response to polarisation states

Antenna response functions F_k

$$h = \sum_{k=1}^6 F_k h_k$$



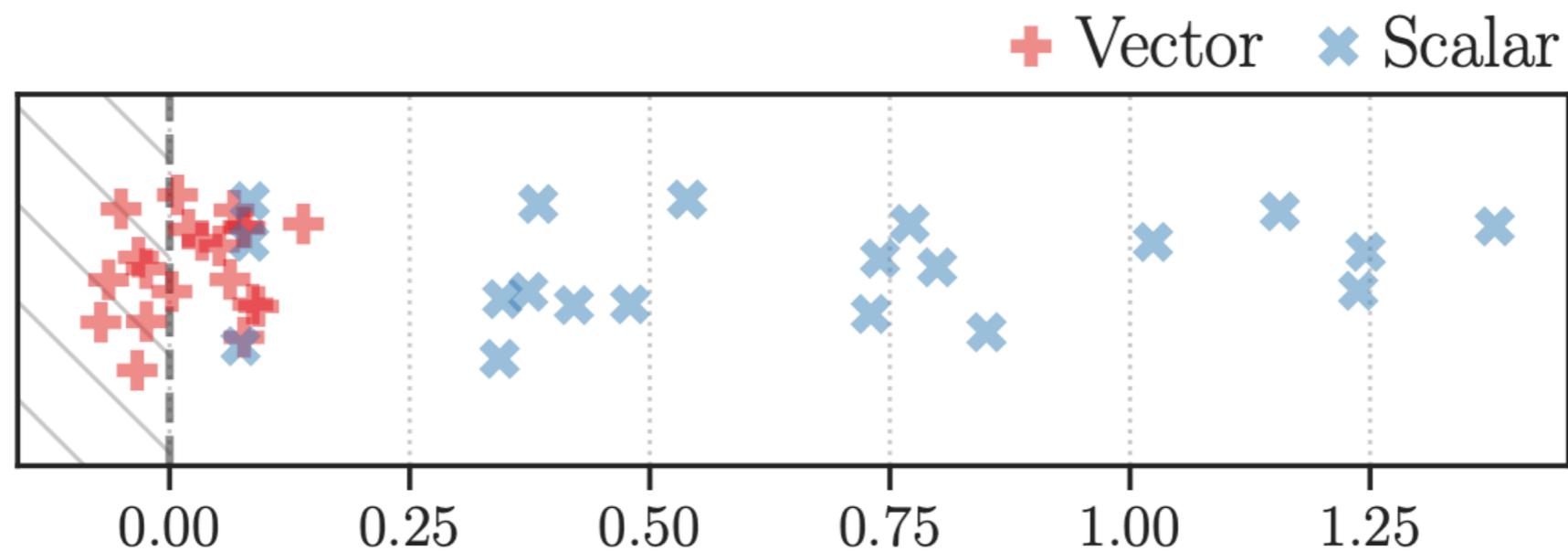
- In principle detectable with more than one detector

Courtesy of Max Isi



Two detectors sensitivity to polarisation states

- The two LIGO detectors cannot not discriminate among different polarisation states
- With Virgo detector and/or an electromagnetic counterpart we can



$\log_{10} \mathcal{B}_{V/S}^T$ (tensor vs non-tensor)



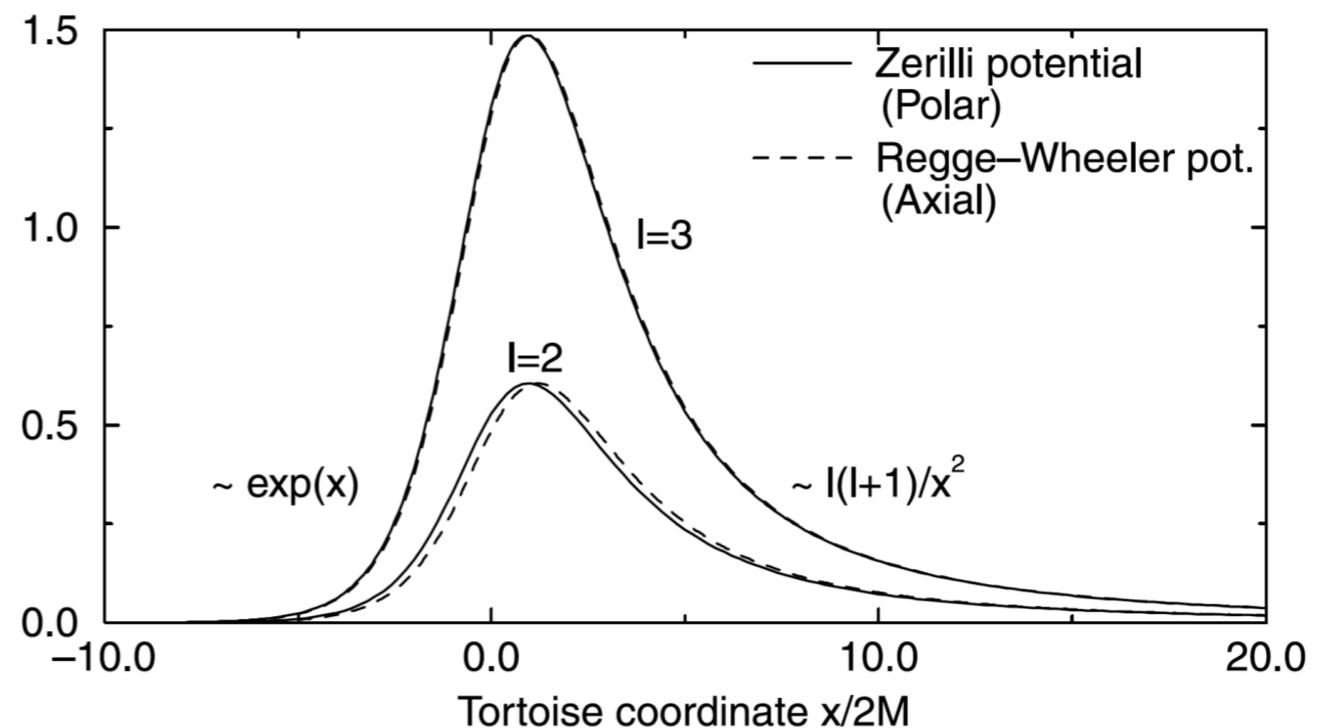
On the nature of black holes



BH perturbation theory

- Study linear perturbation around Schwarzschild and Kerr metrics
- Perturbations obey Schrodinger-like equation (Regge & Wheeler 56, Zerilli 70, Teukolski 72)
- Potential barrier around a BH

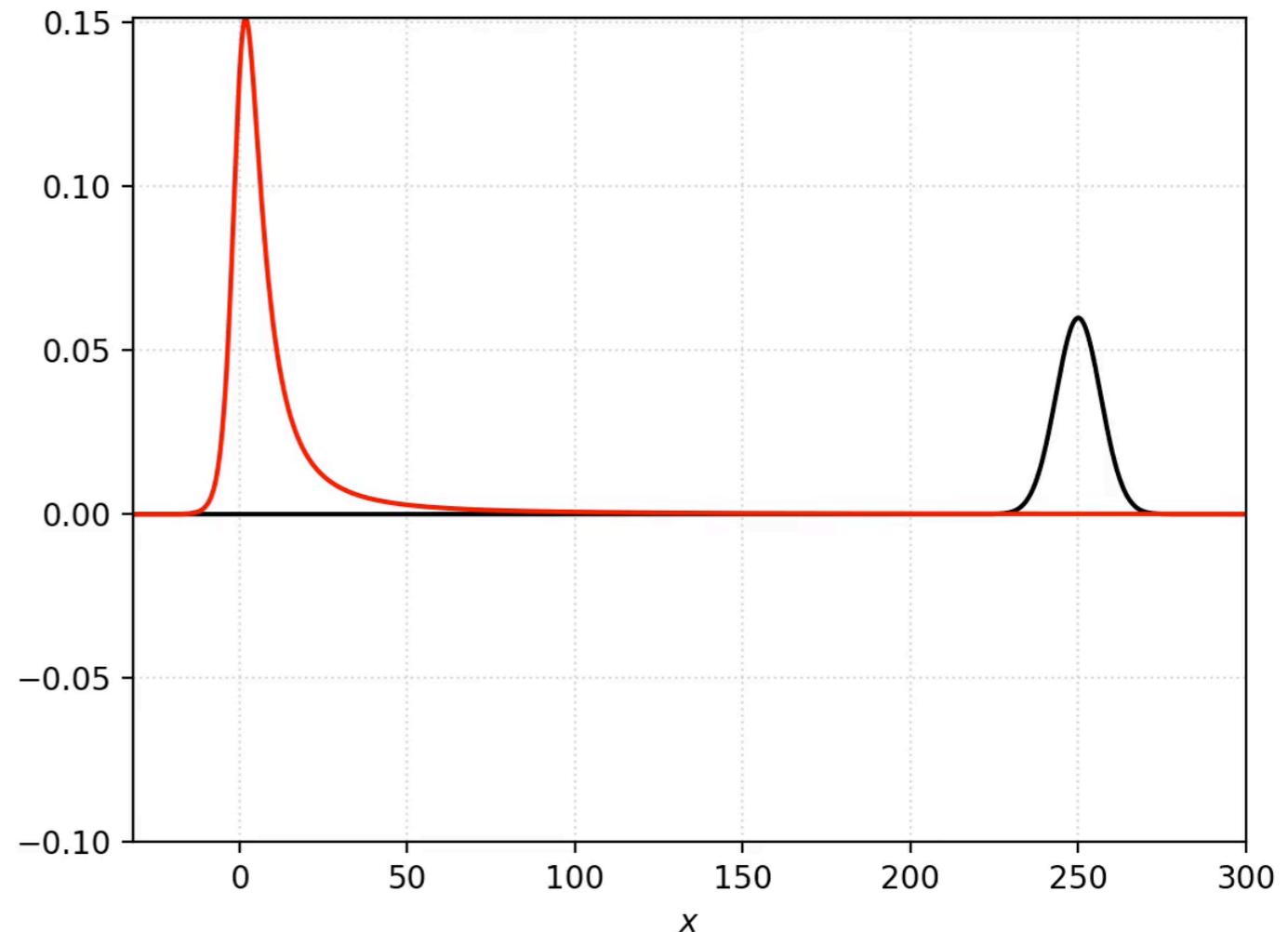
$$\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V_{lm}(x) \right) \psi_{lm}(x, t) = 0$$





Quasi-normal modes

- BH responds to perturbations by “ringing” (Vishveshwara 70, Press 71, Ruffini et al, 72, Chandrasekhar 75)
- Quasi-normal modes excited by light-ring crossing (Goebel 72)

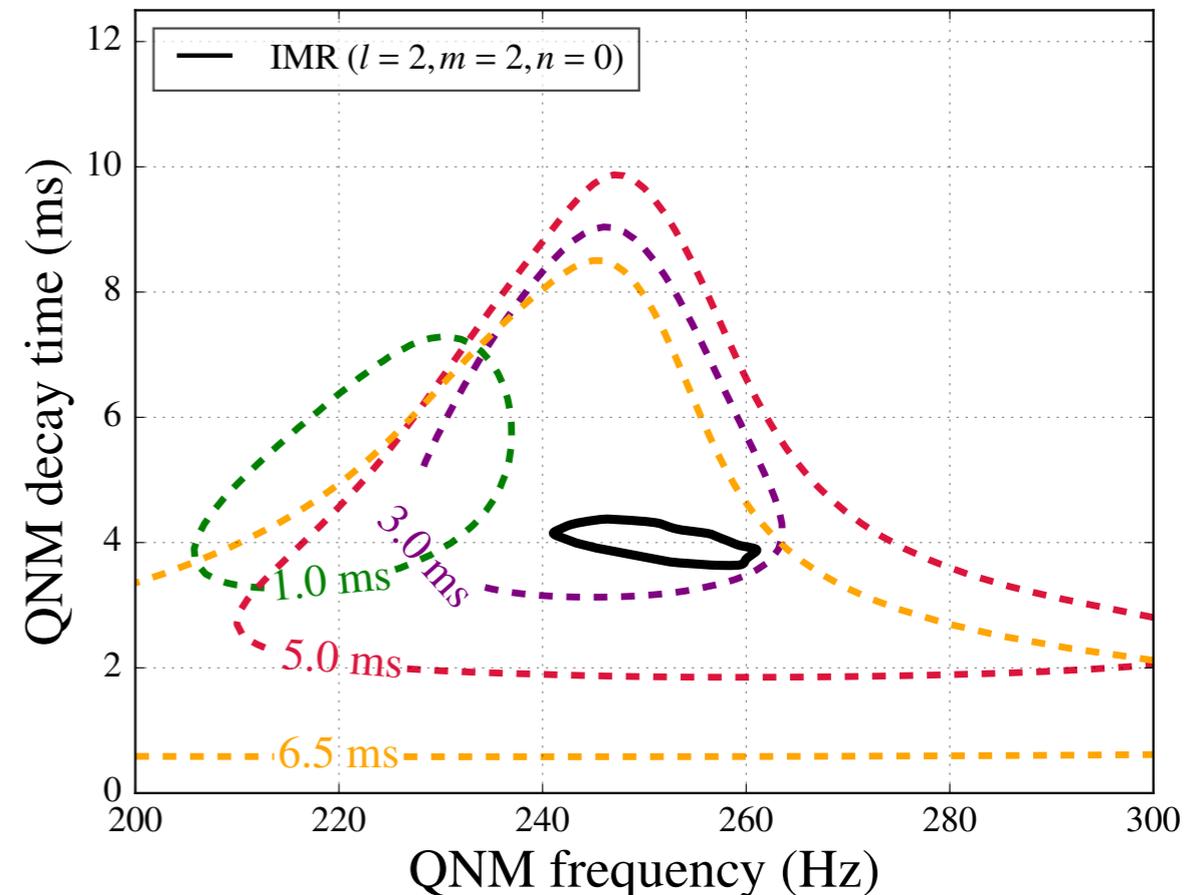


- Waveform
$$h(t) = \sum_{nlm} A_{nlm} e^{-\frac{t-t_0}{\tau_{nlm}}} \cos(\omega_{nlm}(t-t_0) + \varphi_{nlm})$$



The nature of the final object

- Central frequencies ω_{nlm} and decay times τ_{nlm} are functions of BH mass and spin only (manifestation of the BH uniqueness hypothesis, Berti et al, arXiv:0512160)
- Need at least two modes detected to test BH nature and “no-hair” theorem (e.g. Gossan et al, arXiv:1111.5819, Meidam et al, arXiv:1406.3201)

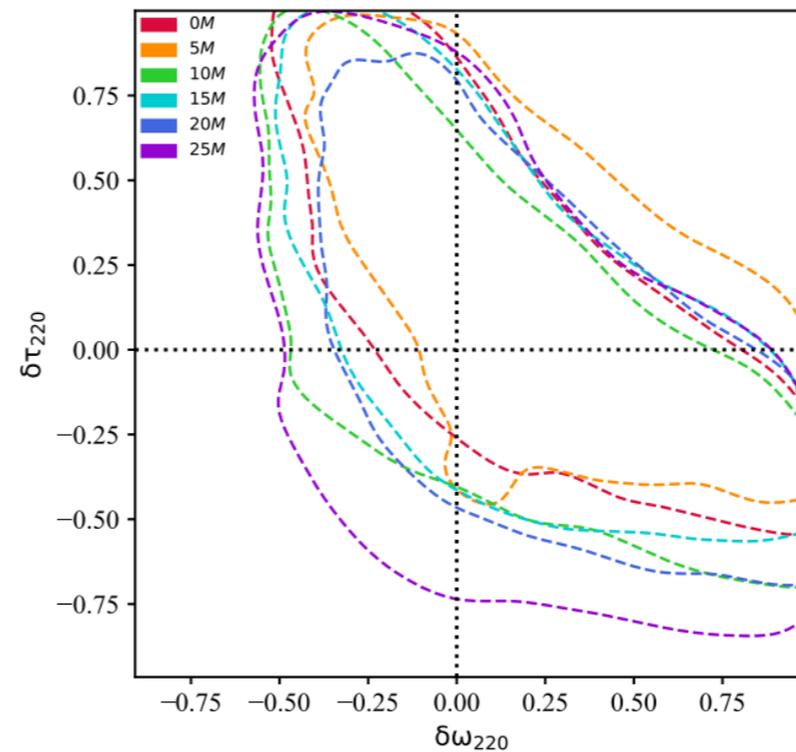
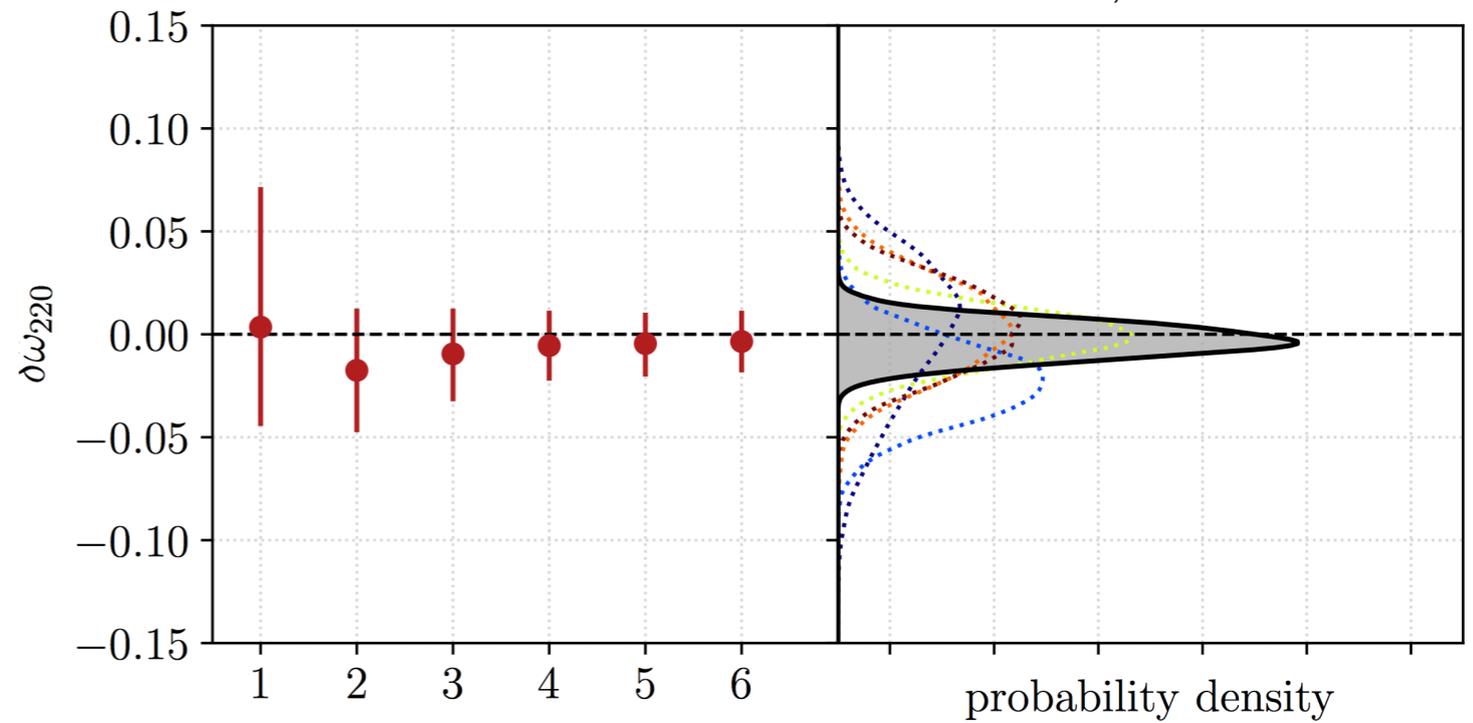
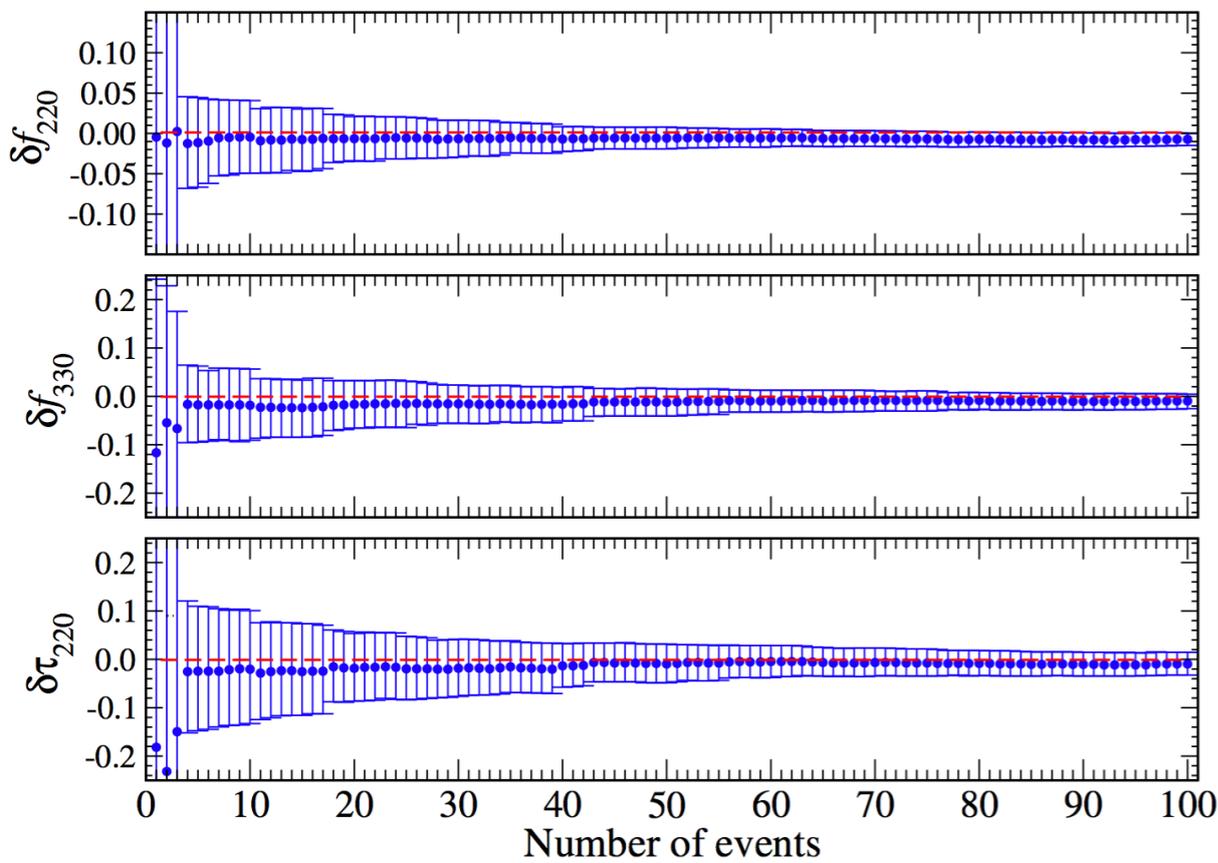




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Prospects for ringdown constraints

Carullo et al, arXiv:1805.04760

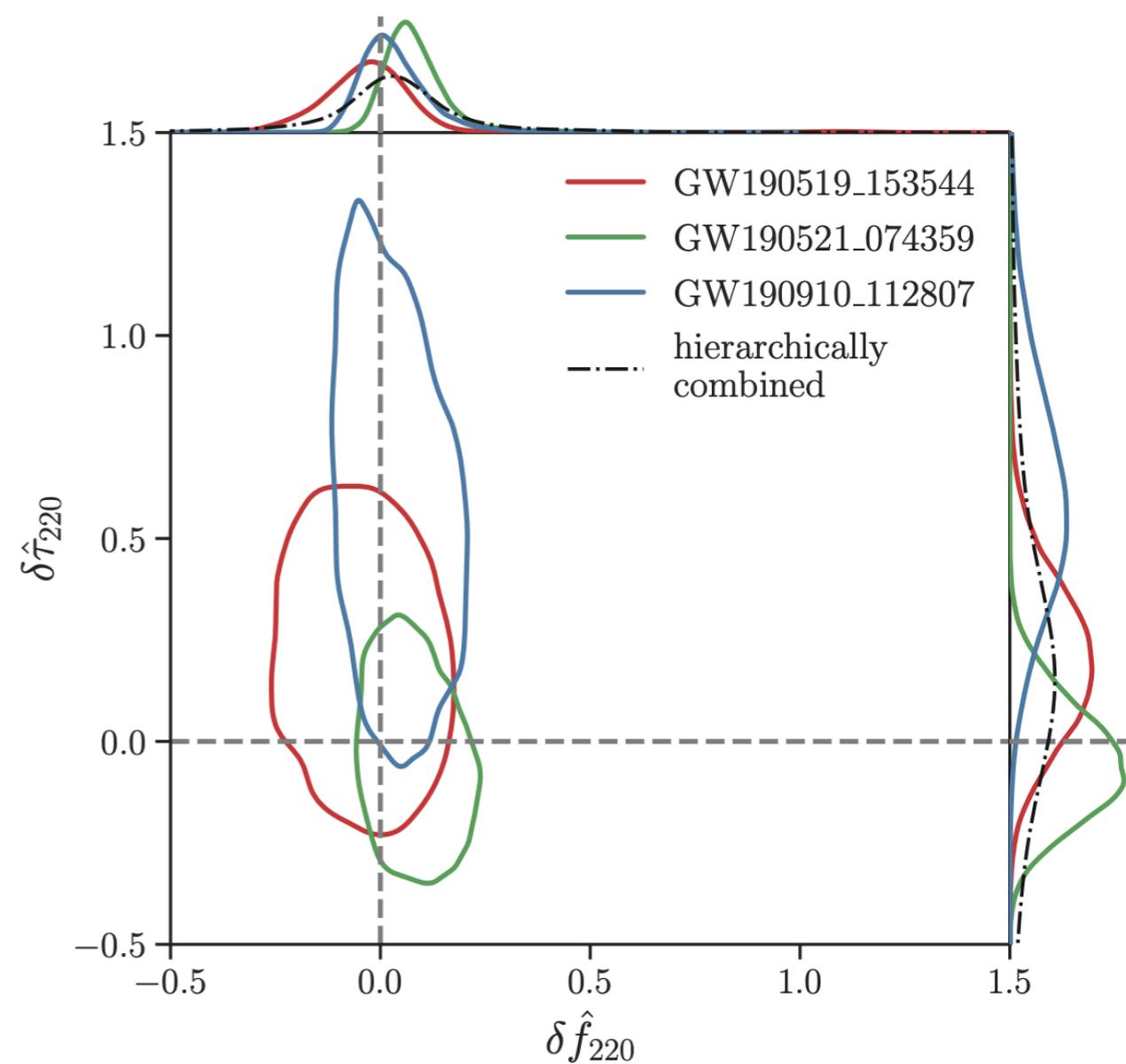
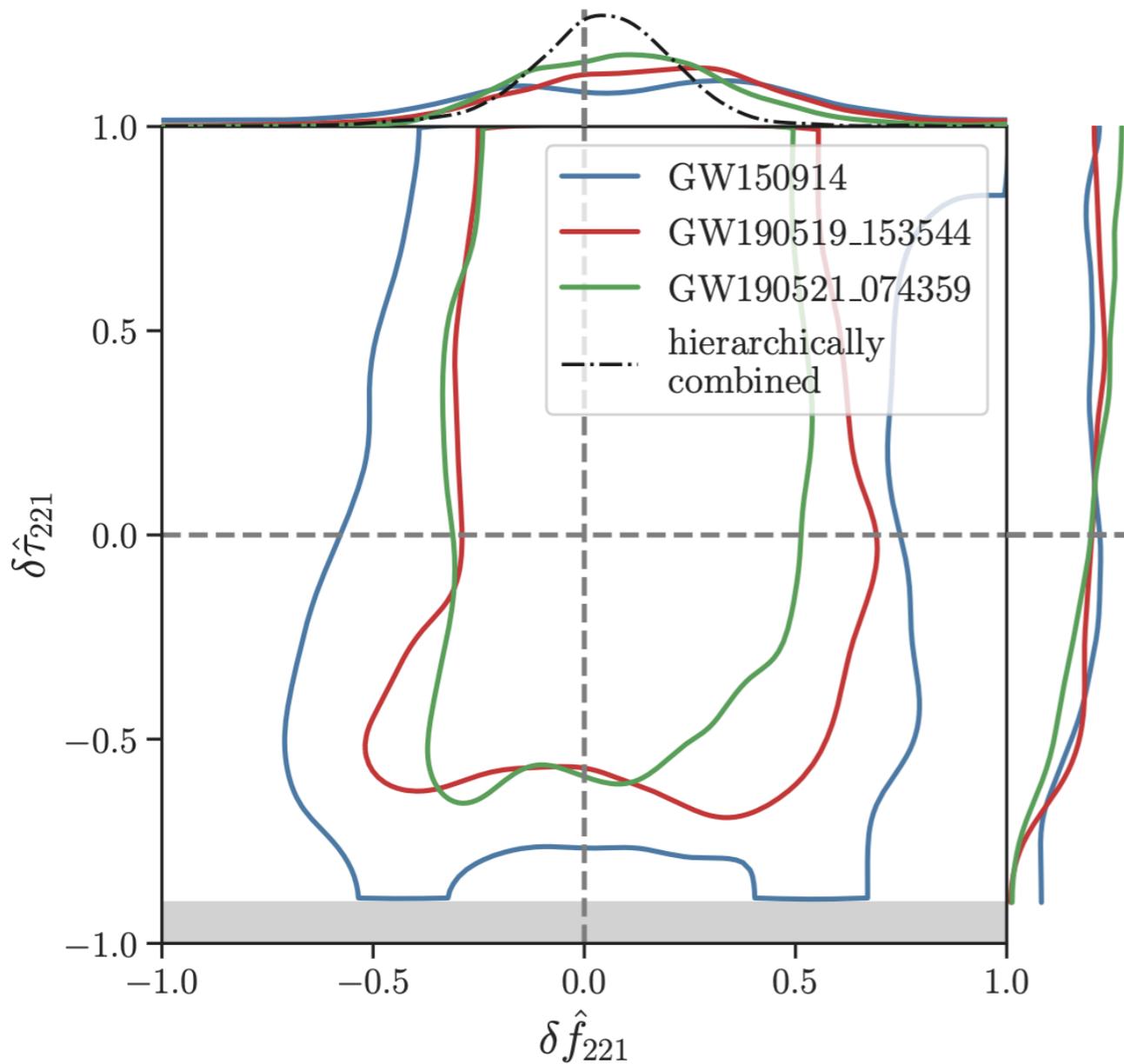


Brito et al, arXiv:1805.00293

Carullo et al, arXiv:1902.07527



Current ringdown constraints





Conclusions

- Gravitational wave astrophysics: the experimental study of the properties of dynamical space-time and black holes
 - Implications for nuclear physics (e.g. nuclear equation of state, interplay with sGRB, ...)
 - Potential for studies of the large scale structure of the Universe
 - CBCs are tracers of the star formation and cosmic evolution
- Access to the most extreme regions (known) in the Universe



Some useful references

- Sivia & Skilling, Data Analysis: A Bayesian Tutorial
- Jaynes, Probability Theory: The Logic of Science
- Gregory, Bayesian Logical Data Analysis for the Physical Sciences