### **Gravitational Waves**

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### M81 galaxy



### A New Window on the Universe







ALLEGRO AURIGA EXPLORER NAUTILUS NIOBE





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### The GW detector network

#### GEO600 (German-British) Hannover, Germany



TAMA (Japan) Mitaka





LIGO (USA) Hanford, WA & Livingston, LA





AIGO (Australia), Wallingup Plaig<sub>HEP</sub>erth



VIRGO (French-Italian) Cascina, Italy

### About the lectures...

Theory of Gravitational Waves

- Gravitational Wave Detectors
  - Signal Analysis

Sources of Gravitational Waves

## **Gravitational Waves**

### Why Gravitational Waves?

- Fundamental aspect of General Relativity
- Originate in the most violent events in the Universe
- Major challenge to present technology

### • Why we have not seen them yet?

- They carry enormous amount of energy but
- They couple very weakly to detectors.

### • How we will detect them?

- Resonant Detectors (Bars & Spheres)
- Interferometric Detectors on Earth
- Interferometers in Space

### Gravitational vs E-M Waves

- EM waves are radiated by individual particles, GWs are due to nonspherical bulk motion of matter. I.e. the information carried by EM waves is stochastic in nature, while the GWs provide insights into coherent mass currents.
- The EM will have been scattered many times. In contrast, GWs interact weakly with matter and arrive at the Earth in pristine condition. Therefore, GWs can be used to probe regions of space that are opaque to EM waves. Stiil, the weak interaction with matter also makes the GWs fiendishly hard to detect.
- Standard astronomy is based on deep imaging of small fields of view, while gravitational-wave detectors cover virtually the entire sky.
- EM radiation has a wavelength smaller than the size of the emitter, while the wavelength of a GW is usually larger than the size of the source. Therefore, we cannot use GW data to create an image of the source. GW observations are more like audio than visual.

Morale: GWs carry information which would be difficult to get by other means.

### **Uncertainties and Benefits**

#### • Uncertainties

- The strength of the sources (may be orders of magnitude)
- The rate of occurrence of the various events
- The existence of the sources

#### • Benefits

- Information about the Universe that we are unlikely ever to obtain in any other way
- Experimental tests of fundamental laws of physics which cannot be tested in any other way
- The first detection of GWs will directly verify their existence
- By comparing the arrival times of EM and GW bursts we can measure their speed with a fractional accuracy ~10<sup>-11</sup>
- From their polarization properties of the GWs we can verify GR prediction that the waves are transverse and traceless
- From the waveforms we can directly identify the existence of blackholes.

## Information carried by GWs

• Frequency

$$f \sim 10^4 \,\mathrm{Hz} \rightarrow \rho \sim 10^{16} \,\mathrm{gr/cm^3}$$

 $f \sim 10^{-4} \,\mathrm{Hz} \rightarrow \rho \sim 1 \,\mathrm{gr/cm^3}$ 

• Rate of frequency change

$$f_{dyn} \sim \left(\frac{GM}{R^3}\right)^{1/2} \sim (G\rho)^{1/2}$$

$$\dot{f}/f \sim (M_1, M_2)$$
  
 $au \sim M^3/R^4$ 

- Damping
- Polarization
  - Inclination of the symmetry plane of the source
  - Test of general relativity
- Amplitude
  - Information about the strength and the distance of the source (h~1/r).
- Phase
  - Especially useful for detection of binary systems.

### Gravitational Dynamics



### **GW Frequency Bands**

- High-Frequency: 1 Hz 10 kHz
  - (Earth Detectors)
- Low-Frequency: 10<sup>-4</sup> 1 Hz
  - (Space Detectors)
- Very-Low-Frequency: 10<sup>-7</sup> 10<sup>-9</sup> Hz
  - (Pulsar Timing)
- Extremely-Low-Frequency:10<sup>-15</sup>-10<sup>-18</sup> Hz
  - (COBE, WMAP, Planck)

### **Gravitation & Spacetime Curvature**



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### **Linearized Gravity**

- Assume a **small perturbation** on the background metric:
- The perturbed Einstein's equations are:

$$\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu} = g_{\mu\nu} + h_{\mu\nu}, \quad |h_{\mu\nu}| \ll 1$$

$$h_{\alpha\beta;\mu}^{\ ;\mu} + g_{\alpha\beta} h^{\mu\nu}_{\ ;\nu\mu} - 2h_{\mu(\alpha}^{\ ;\mu}_{\ ;\beta)} + 2R_{\mu\alpha\nu\beta} h^{\mu\nu} - 2R_{\mu(\alpha} h_{\beta)}^{\ \mu} = kT_{\alpha\beta}$$

limit)...

- And by choosing a gauge:
- Simple wave equation:

$$\tilde{h}_{\mu\nu} \equiv h_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} n_{\mu\nu} h_{\alpha}^{\ \alpha} \qquad \tilde{h}$$

$${ ilde{h}^{\mu
u}}_{;\mu}=0$$

$$-\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} + \nabla^2 \bigg) \tilde{h}^{\mu\nu} \equiv \partial_{\lambda} \partial^{\lambda} \tilde{h}^{\mu\nu} = kT^{\mu\nu}$$

ISHER - Loorentz or Hilbert or De Donder gauge

## Transverse-Traceless (TT)-gauge

• Plane wave solution

$$\widetilde{h}^{\mu\nu} = A^{\mu\nu} e^{ik_a x^a}$$

TT-gauge (wave propagating in the z-direction)

$$A^{\mu\nu} = h_{+}\varepsilon_{+}^{\mu\nu} + h_{\times}\varepsilon_{\times}^{\mu\nu} \varepsilon_{+}^{\mu\nu}$$

- **Riemann tensor**
- **Geodesic deviation** 
  - ...and the tidal force

 $\Lambda^{\mu\nu} h = 0$ 

### **Gravitational Waves II**

$$\frac{h^{\mu\nu} = h_{+}\varepsilon_{+}^{\mu\nu}\cos[\omega(t-z)]}{\Delta x = -\frac{1}{2}h_{+}\cos[\omega(t-z)]x}$$

$$\Delta y = \frac{1}{2}h_{+}\cos[\omega(t-z)]y$$
...in other words
$$\frac{\Delta \ell}{\ell} = h$$

$$\widetilde{\ell}$$

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## **GW Polarizations**



## Stress-Energy carried by GWs

 $t_{\mu\nu}$ 

GWs exert forces and do work, they must carry energy and momentum

- The energymomentum tensor in an arbitrary gauge
- …in the TT-gauge:
- ...it is divergence free
- For waves propagating in the z-direction
- for a SN exploding in Virgo cluster the energy flux on Earth
- The corresponding EM energy flux is:

$$^{GW)} = \frac{1}{32\pi} \left\langle \tilde{h}_{\alpha\beta;\mu} \tilde{h}_{;\nu}^{\alpha\beta} - \frac{1}{2} \tilde{h}_{;\mu} \tilde{h}_{;\nu} - \tilde{h}_{;\beta}^{\alpha\beta} \tilde{h}_{\alpha\mu;\nu} - \tilde{h}_{;\beta}^{\alpha\beta} \tilde{h}_{\alpha\nu;\mu} \right\rangle$$

$$t_{\mu\nu}^{(GW)} = \frac{1}{32\pi} \left\langle \tilde{h}_{;\mu}^{jk} TT \cdot \tilde{h}_{jk;\nu}^{TT} \right\rangle$$
$$t_{\mu;\nu}^{\nu}^{(GW)} = 0$$

$$t_{00}^{(GW)} = -\frac{1}{c} t_{0z}^{(GW)} = \frac{1}{c^2} t_{zz}^{(GW)} = \frac{1}{16\pi} \frac{c^2}{G} \left\langle \dot{h}_{+}^2 + \dot{h}_{\times}^2 \right\rangle$$

$$h_{Dz}^{(GW)} \approx \frac{\pi}{4} \frac{c^3}{G} f^2 \left\langle h_+^2 + h_{\times}^2 \right\rangle = 320 \times \left(\frac{f}{1kHz}\right)^2 \left(\frac{h}{10^{-21}}\right)^2 \frac{\text{ergs}}{\text{cm}^2 \text{sec}}$$

$$\sim 10^{-9} \mathrm{erg} \cdot \mathrm{cm}^{-2} \cdot \mathrm{sec}^{-1}$$

## **Wave-Propagation Effects**

### GWs affected by the large scale structure of the spacetime exactly as the EM waves

- The magnitude of  $h_{ik}^{TT}$  falls of as 1/r
- The polarization, like that of light in vacuum, is parallel transported radially from source to earth
- The time dependence of the waveform is unchanged by propagation except for a frequency-independent redshift

#### We expect

- Absorption, scattering and dispersion
- Scattering by the background curvature and tails
- Gravitational focusing
- Diffraction
- Parametric amplification
- Non-linear coupling of the GWs (frequency doubling)
- Generation of background curvature by the waves



## The emission of grav. radiation

If the energy-momentum tensor is varying with time, GWs will be emitted

• The retarded solution for the linear field equation

$$\left(-\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} + \nabla^2\right)\tilde{h}^{\mu\nu} = kT^{\mu\nu}_{(\text{matter})}$$

$$h^{\mu\nu} = 2\int \frac{T^{\mu\nu}(t - |\vec{x} - \vec{x}'|, \vec{x}')}{|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'|} d^3x$$

• For a point in the radiation zone in the slow-motion approximation  $h^{\mu\nu} \approx \frac{2}{\int} T^{\mu\nu}(t)$ 

$$v \approx \frac{2}{r} \int T^{\mu\nu}(t-r,\vec{x}') d^3x' \sim \frac{2}{r} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \left[ Q^{jk}(t-r) \right]^{TT}$$

Power emitted in GWs

$$Q^{kl} \equiv \int \rho(t, x^k) \left( x^k x^l - \frac{1}{3} r^2 \delta^{kl} \right) d^3 x$$

$$L_{GW} = -\frac{dE}{dt} = \frac{1}{5} \frac{G}{c^5} \sum_{ii} \left\langle \ddot{Q}_{ij} \cdot \dot{Q}_{ij} \right\rangle$$

### Angular and Linear momentum emission

Angular momentum
 emission

 $\frac{dJ_{i}^{GW}}{dt} = \frac{2}{5} \sum_{jkl} \varepsilon_{ijk} \left\langle \ddot{Q}_{jl} \cdot \ddot{Q}_{lk} \right\rangle$ 

Linear momentum
 emission

$$\frac{dP_{i}^{GW}}{dt} = \frac{2}{63} \sum_{jk} \left\langle \ddot{Q}_{jk} \cdot \ddot{Q}_{jki} \right\rangle + \frac{16}{45} \sum_{jkl} \varepsilon_{ijk} \left\langle \ddot{Q}_{jl} \cdot \ddot{P}_{lk} \right\rangle$$



- : mass octupole moment
- $P_{ii}$  : current quadrupole moment

### Linearized GR vs Maxwell

	Einstein	Maxwell
Potentials	$h_{\alpha\beta}(x)$	$\left(\Phi(x), \vec{A}(x)\right)$
Sources	$T_{lphaeta}$	$\left(  ho_{ ext{elect}},ec{J}  ight)$
Lorentz gauge	${ ilde{h}^{lphaeta}}_{;lpha}{=}0$	$\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} + \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = 0$
Wave equation	$\Box  ilde{h}_{ij} = -8\pi T_{ij}$	$\Box \vec{A} = -4\pi \vec{J}$
Solution	$\tilde{h}^{ij} = 2 \int d^3 x  \left  \frac{[T^{ij}]_{ret}}{ \vec{x} - \vec{x}' } \right $	$\vec{A} = \int d^3x' \frac{[\vec{J}]_{ret}}{ \vec{x} - \vec{x}' }$
Solution (asymp)	$\tilde{h}^{ij} = 2 \frac{\left[\ddot{\mathcal{Q}}^{ij}\right]_{ret}}{r}$	$\vec{A} = rac{\left[ \dot{\vec{P}} \right]_{ret}}{r}$
Radiated Power	$\frac{dE}{dt} = \frac{1}{5} \left\langle \ddot{Q}_{ij} \cdot \ddot{Q}^{ij} \right\rangle$	$\frac{dE}{dt} = \frac{2}{3} \left\langle \ddot{\vec{p}}^2 \right\rangle$

### Back of the envelope calculations!

- Characteristic time-scale for a mass element to move from one side of the system to another is:
- The **quadrupole moment** is approximately:
- Luminosity

$$T \sim \frac{R}{\upsilon} \sim \frac{R}{\left(M/R\right)^{1/2}} = \left(\frac{R^3}{M}\right)^1$$

$$\ddot{Q}_{ij} \sim \frac{MR^2}{T^3} \sim \frac{M\upsilon^2}{T} \sim \frac{E_{ns}}{T} \sim \left(\frac{M}{R}\right)^{5/2}$$

$$L_{GW} \sim \frac{G}{c^5} \left(\frac{M}{R}\right)^5 \sim \frac{G}{c^5} \left(\frac{M}{R}\right)^2 \upsilon^6 \sim \frac{c^5}{G} \left(\frac{R_{Sch}}{R}\right)^2 \left(\frac{\upsilon}{c}\right)^6$$
$$\frac{c^5}{G} = 3.63 \times 10^{59} \, erg \, / \, s = 2.03 \times 10^5 \, M_{\odot} \, c^2 \, / \, s$$

- The amplitude of GWs at a distance r (R~R<sub>Schw</sub>~10Km and r~10Mpc~3x10<sup>19</sup>km):
- Radiation damping

$$h \sim \frac{\ddot{Q}}{r} \sim \frac{1}{r} \left(\frac{MR^2}{T^2}\right) \sim \frac{1}{r} \frac{M^2}{R} \sim \dots \sim 10^{-19}$$

 $\tau_{react} = \frac{E_{kin}}{L_{cw}} \sim \left(\frac{R}{M}\right)^{5/2} T \sim \left(\frac{\upsilon}{C}\right) \left(\frac{R}{R_{cw}}\right)^{5} T$ 

G

### What we should remember...



## Vibrating Quadrupole

- The position of the two masses
- The quadrupole moment of the system is



- The radiated gravitational field is
- The emitted power
- And the damping rate of the oscillator is

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \pm [x_0 + \xi \sin(\omega t)] \quad , \quad x_0 \ll \xi \\ Q^{kl}(t-r) &\approx \left[ 1 + \frac{2\xi}{x_0} \sin \omega (t-r) \right] Q^{kl}_0 \\ Q^{kl}_0 &= \begin{pmatrix} -2mx_0^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2mx_0^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4mx_0^2 \end{pmatrix} \\ h^{kl} &= \frac{2}{3} \left( \frac{\xi}{x_0} \right) \frac{\omega^2}{r} \sin[\omega(t-r)] Q^{kl}_0 \\ -\frac{dE}{dt} &= \frac{G}{45c^5} \left\langle \ddot{Q}_{kl} \ddot{Q}_{kl} \right\rangle = \frac{16}{15} \frac{G}{c^5} (mx_0\xi)^2 \omega^6 \\ \gamma_{rad} &= -\frac{1}{E} \left\langle \frac{dE}{dt} \right\rangle = \frac{16}{15} \frac{G}{c^5} mx_0^2 \omega^4 \end{aligned}$$

### **Two-body collision**



### Rotating Quadrupole (a binary system)

#### THE BEST SOURCE FOR GWs

- Radiated power
- Energy loss leads to shrinking of their orbital separation
- Period changes with rate
- ...and the system will coalesce after
- The total energy loss is
- Typical amplitude of GWs



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## First verification of GWs



### Binary systems (examples)



### An interesting observation

• The observed frequency change will be:

$$\dot{f} \sim f^{11/3} M_{chirp}^{5/3}$$

$$M_{chirp}^{5/3} = \mu M^{2/3}$$

• The corresponding amplitude will be :

$$h \sim \frac{M_{chirp}^{5/3} f^{2/3}}{r} = \frac{\dot{f}}{f^3 r}$$

•Since both frequency and its rate of change are measurable quantities, we can immediately compute the chirp mass.

•The third relation provides us with a direct estimate of the distance of the source

Post-Newtonian relations can provide the individual masses



### **DETECTION** of GWs



## **Quadrupole Detector Limitations**

#### Problems

- Very small cross section  $\sim 3x10^{-19} cm^2$ .
- Sensitive to periodic GWs **tuned** in the right frequency of the detector
- Sensitive to bursts only if the pulse has a substantial component at the resonant frequency
- The width of the resonance is:

$$\Delta v \sim \gamma / 2\pi \sim 10^{-2} Hz$$

•Thermal noise limits our ability to detect the energy of GWs.

•The excitation energy has to be greater than the thermal fluctuations  $E \gtrsim kT$ 

$$h_{\min} \ge \frac{1}{\omega_0 LQ} \sqrt{\frac{15kT}{M}} \sim 10^{-20}$$

#### **BURSTS**

•Periodic signals which match the resonant frequency of the detector are extremely rare.

•A great number of events produces short pulses which spread radiation over a wide range of frequencies.

•The minimum detectable amplitude is

$$h_{\min} \ge \frac{1}{\omega_0 L} \sqrt{\frac{30kT_{eff}}{\pi M}} \sim 10^{-16}$$

The total energy of a pulse from the Galactic center (r=10kpc) which will provide an amplitude of  $h\sim 10^{-16}$  or energy flux  $\sim 10^9$  erg/cm<sup>2</sup>.

$$4\pi r^2 \times 10^9 erg / cm^2 = 10^{55} erg \approx 10 M_{\odot} c^2 !!!$$

### Improvements to resonant detectors

- Have higher Q
- Operate in extremely low temperatures (mK)
- Larger masses
- Different geometry
- Better electronic sensors



### **Modern Bar Detectors**

	WEBER	NAUTILUS
mass(kg)	1410	2270
Length(m)	1.53	2.97
$\omega_0(Hz)$	1660	910
$Q = \omega / \gamma$	$2 \times 10^5$	$2.3 \times 10^{6}$
$\sigma (\omega_0)_{abs} (cm^2)$	$2 \times 10^{-19}$	$70 \times 10^{-19}$
Typical pulse sensitivity $h$	$10^{-16}$	$9 \times 10^{-19}$





# Exploiting the resonant-mass detector technique: the spherical detector

M = 1-100 tons Sensitivity:  $10^{-23} - 10^{-24} \text{Hz}^{-1/2};$ h ~  $10^{-21} - 10^{-22}$ 

Omnidirectional
Capable of detecting source position
Capable of measuring polarization



MINIGRAIL Leiden (Netherlands)

MARIO SHENBERG Sao Paulo (Brasil)

**SFERA** Frascati (Italy)

CuAl(6%) sphere Diameter= 65 cm Frequency = 3 kHz Mass = 1 ton

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### Laser Interferometers

• The output of the detector is

 $\frac{\Delta L}{L} = F_+ h_+(t) + F_\times h_\times(t) = h(t)$ 

- Technology allows measurements  $\Delta L \sim 10^{-16} cm$ .
- For signals with  $h \sim 10^{-21} \cdot 10^{-22}$  we need arm lengths  $L \sim 1 \cdot 10^{km}$ .
- Change in the arm length by *∆L* corresponds to a phase change

$$\Delta \varphi = \frac{4\pi b \Delta L}{\lambda} \sim 10^{-9} \, \text{rad}$$

• The number of photons reaching the photo-detector is proportional to laser-beam's intensity  $[-\sin^2(\Delta \varphi/2)]$ 

$$N_{\rm out} = N_{\rm input} \sin^2(\Delta \varphi/2)$$



#### **OPTIMAL CONFIGURATION**

- •Long arm length L
- Large number of reflections b
  Large number of photons (but be aware of radiation pressure)
  Operate at interface minimum cos(2πbΔL/λ)=1.

## International Network interferometers



#### Simultaneously detect signal (within msec)

#### detection confidence

- locate the sources
- decompose polarization of gravitational waves

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### Noise Sources I

### Photon Shot Noise

- The number of emerging photons is subject to statistical fluctuations
- Implies an uncertainty in the measurement of <u>AL</u>.

### Radiation Pressure Noise

- Lasers produce radiation pressure on the mirrors
- Uncertainty in the measurement of the deposited momentum leads to an uncertainty in the position of the mirrors

#### Quantum Limit

- If we try to minimize PSN and RPN with respect to laser power we get a minimum detectable stain
- Heisenberg's principle sets an additional uncertainty in the measurement of ΔL (ΔL Δp≳ħ, if Δp~m ΔL/τ ...) and the minimum detectable strain is

$$\delta N_{out} \sim \sqrt{N_{out}}$$

$$h_{\min} = \frac{\delta(\Delta L)}{L} = \frac{\Delta L}{L} \sim \frac{1}{bL} \sqrt{\frac{\hbar c \lambda}{2\pi \tau I_0}}$$

$$h_{\min} = \frac{\tau}{m} \frac{b}{L} \sqrt{\frac{\tau \hbar I_0}{c \lambda}}$$

 $h_{\min} = \frac{1}{L} \sqrt{\frac{\tau\hbar}{m}}$ 

## LIGO/Virgo Sensitivity

### Seismic Noise

- Important below 60Hz.
   Dominates over all other types of noise.
- Residual gas-phase noise
  - Statistical fluctuations in the residual gas density induce fluctuations of the refraction index and as a result on the monitored phase shift.
  - Vacuum pipes (~10⁻⁰ torr) 10<sup>∞</sup>1



### About the noise in the detectors

#### The sensitivity of gravitational wave detectors is limited by noise

- The non-Gaussian noise may occur several times per day (e.g. strain releases in the suspension systems) and can be removed via comparisons of the data streams from various detectors
- The Gaussian noise obeys Gaussian probability distribution and characterized by a power spectral density  $S_n(f)$  (dimensions of time :Hz<sup>-1</sup>)  $\langle n^2(t) \rangle = 2 \int S_n(f) df$
- The noise amplitude is the square root of  $S_n(f)$
- The dimensionless quantity  $h_n^2(f) \equiv fS_n(f)$  is called effective noise
- Displacement or strain noise  $h_L(f) \equiv Lh_n(f)$  and the corresponding noise spectrum  $S_{I}(f) \equiv L^{2}S_{n}(f)$
- The observed signal o(t) at the output of a detector consists of the true gravitational wave h(t) strain and of Gaussian noise n(t).
- If a signal is present in the data
- Long lived signals are easier to recognize than short bursts of the same amplitude

$$h_{\rm eff} = h\sqrt{n}$$

$$o(t) = n(t) + h(t)$$

$$\left(\frac{S}{N}\right)_{opt}^{2} = 2\int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{\left|\tilde{h}(f)\right|^{2}}{S_{n}(f)} df$$

## Current Sensitivity of Virgo and LIGO

- Very good progress over the past 3 years and we are fast approaching the designed sensitivity goals
- TAMA reached the designed sensitivity (2003)
- LIGO (and GEO600) have reached within a factor of ~2 of their design sensitivity
- Currently focussing on:
  - upper limit studies
  - testing data analysis pipelines
  - detector characterization
  - VIRGO is following very fast



## Current sensitivities 12 Sep 05



Figure 1. The LIGO design sensitivity curve and the spectrum of the simulated data.



Figure 2. The Virgo design sensitivity curve and the spectrum of the simulated data.

### **Future Gravitational Wave Antennas**

### Advanced LIGO

- 2006-2008; planning under way
- 10-15 times more sensitive than initial LIGO
- High Frequency GEO
  - 2008? Neutron star physics, BH quasi-normal modes
- EGO: European Gravitational Wave Observatory
  - 2012? Cosmology



## LISA the space interferometer

- •LISA is low frequency detector.
- •With arm lengths 5,000,000 km targets at 0.1mHz 0.1Hz.
- •Some sources are very well known (close binary systems in our galaxy).
- •Some other sources are extremely strong (SM-BH binaries)
- •LISA's sensitivity is roughly the same as that of LIGO, but at 10<sup>5</sup> times lower frequency.
- •Since the gravitational waves energy flux scales as  $F \sim f^2 \cdot h^2$ , it has 10 orders better energy sensitivity than LIGO.



## LISA Outline Lay-Out



## LISA Highlights

- Mapping the location of *all* binary compact objects in the galaxy (up to 1yr detection threshold).
- Detecting massive BH mergers anywhere in the universe
- Testing theories of MBH creation
- Compact objects around massive black holes (highly unequal mass systems)
  - allows probing of GR near the event horizon
  - easier to model and understand theoretically (perturbative approach)
  - as the compact object spirals in, it's gravity radiation gives us a "map" of spacetime near the MBH horizon

## LISA's Sensitivity

- At frequencies f > 10<sup>-3</sup>Hz, LISA's noise is due to photon counting noise (shot noise).
- The sensitivity curve steepens at *f~3x 10<sup>2</sup>Hz* because at larger *f* the waves' period is shorter than the round-trip light travel time in each arm.
- For f < 10<sup>3</sup>Hz, the noise is due to buffeting-induced random motions of the spacecraft, that cannot removed by the dragcompensation system.



### Frequency range of astrophysics sources



### Grav. Wave Polarization I

- A GW detector measures the local components of a symmetric 3x3 tensor, (the "electric" components of the Riemann tensor, R<sub>0i0j</sub>.
- The 6 independent components can be expressed in terms of polarizations (modes with specific transformation properties under null rotations).
- 2 representing quadrupolar deformations
- **3** are transverse to the direction of propagation
- 1 representing a monopole ``breathing" deformation.
- GR predicts only the first 2 transverse quadrupolar modes, independently of the source

#### Gravitational–Wave Polarization



## The END of the 1<sup>st</sup> day

