

# Current and future challenges in gravitational wave astronomy (and physics)

Lecture 1 ~ Introduction

April 21, 2026 ~ Caroline Owen

# Logistics

## Schedule

Location: U2 - 2016

Time: 10:30 am -12:30 pm

### **Week 1:**

Tuesday, April 21: Introduction

Thursday\*, April 23: Fermi Estimates and Dimensional Analysis

### **Week 2:**

Tuesday, April 28: Post Newtonian Binaries

Thursday\*, April 30: Stationary Phase Approximation and Waveform Approximants

### **Week 3:**

Tuesday, May 5: Bayesian Overview

Friday, May 8: Binary Parameter Estimation

### **Week 4:**

Tuesday, May 12: Fisher Analysis and Principal Component Analysis

Friday, May 15: Wrap up and Gravity Beyond GR

Materials will be posted to the git repo: [github.com/cbo17/CFCGWA\\_UNIMIB/](https://github.com/cbo17/CFCGWA_UNIMIB/)

Recordings will be posted to: [elearning.unimib.it/](https://elearning.unimib.it/)

## Exam

(Only for the PhD students taking the course for credit)

10-minute presentation on your own research or a published paper discussing how it relates to the techniques or topics we have discussed in this class

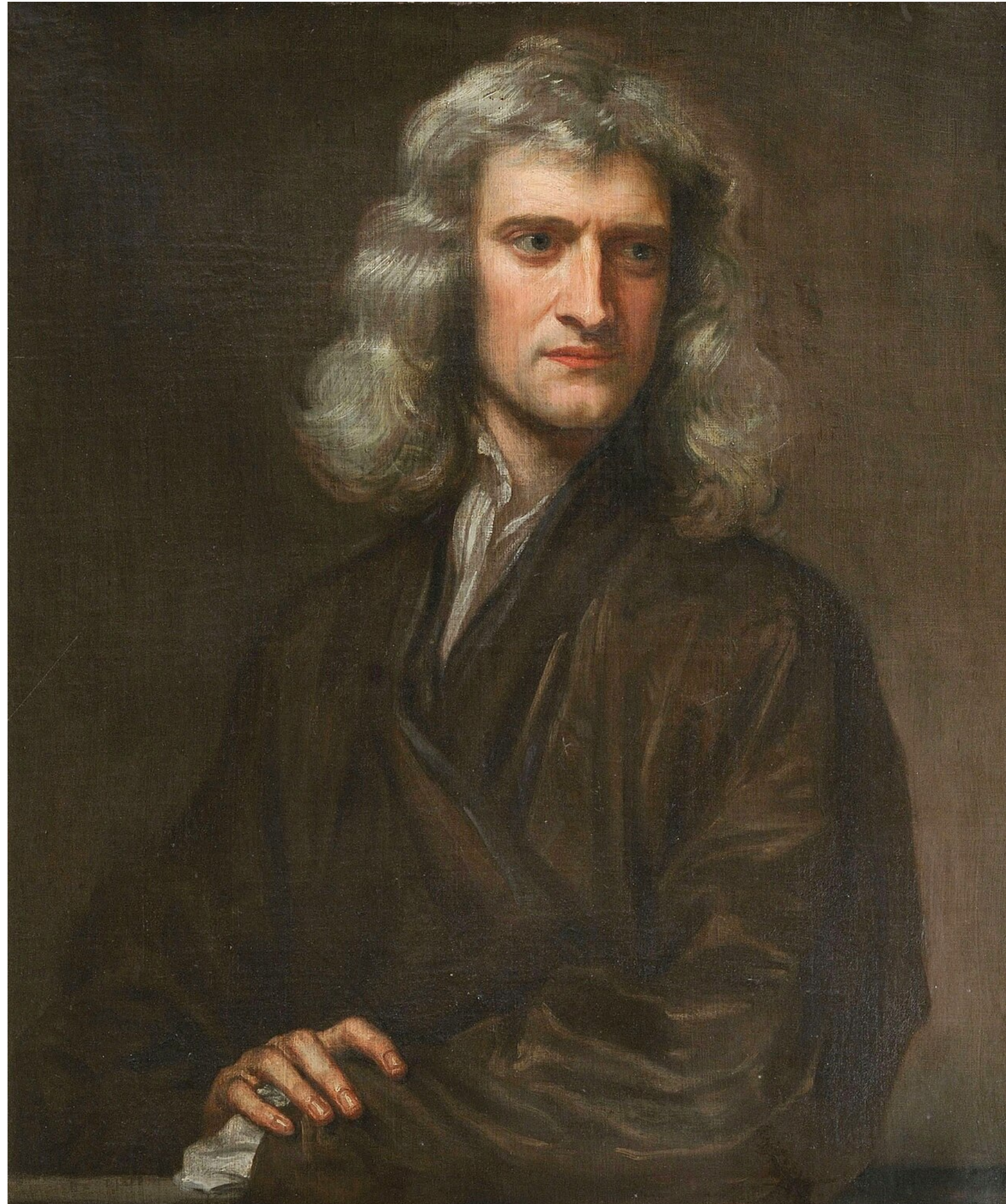
2 minutes for questions

*Note: I will be leaving Milan sometime in June, so we will need to schedule all exams before then*

# Historical overview

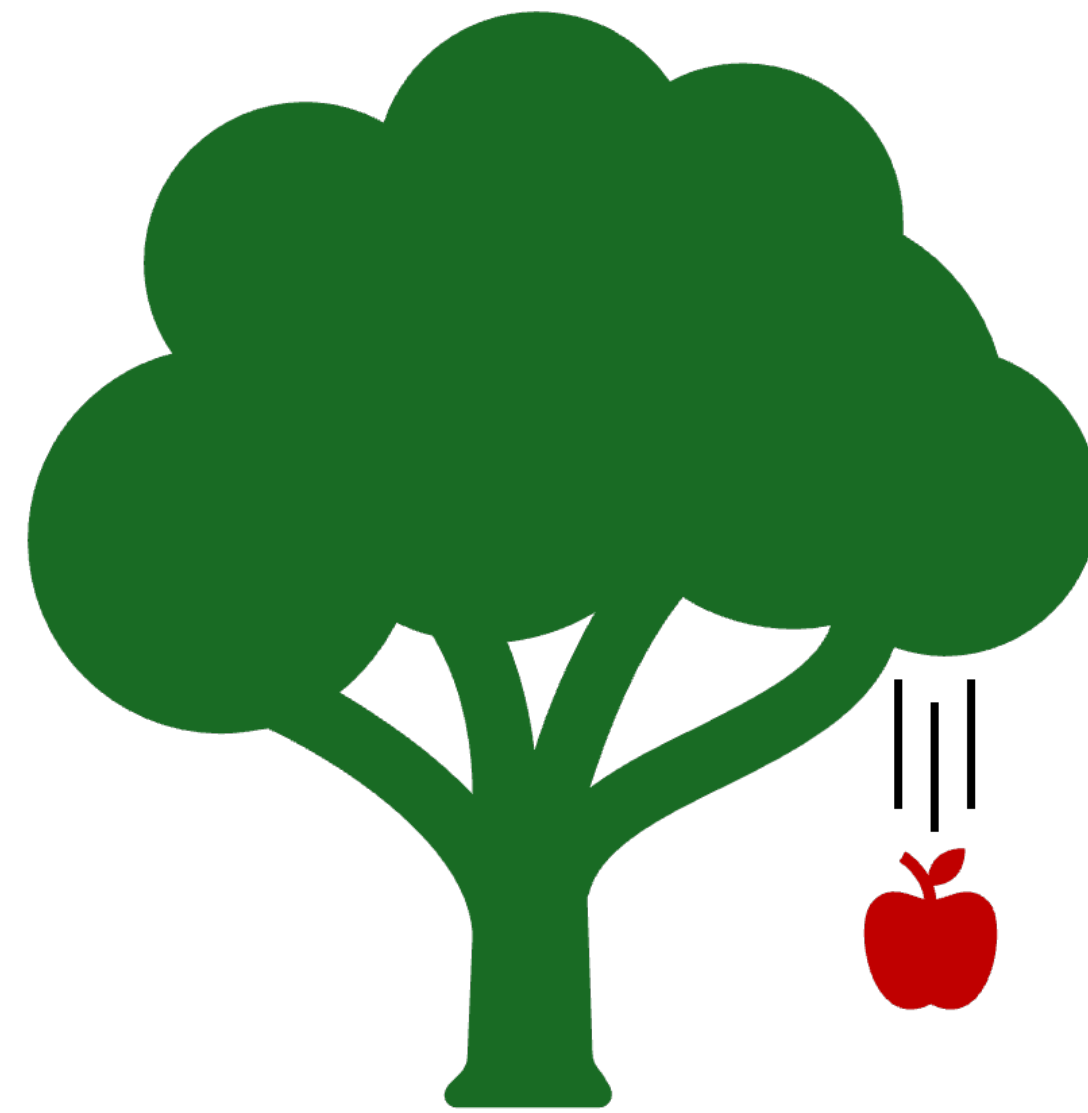
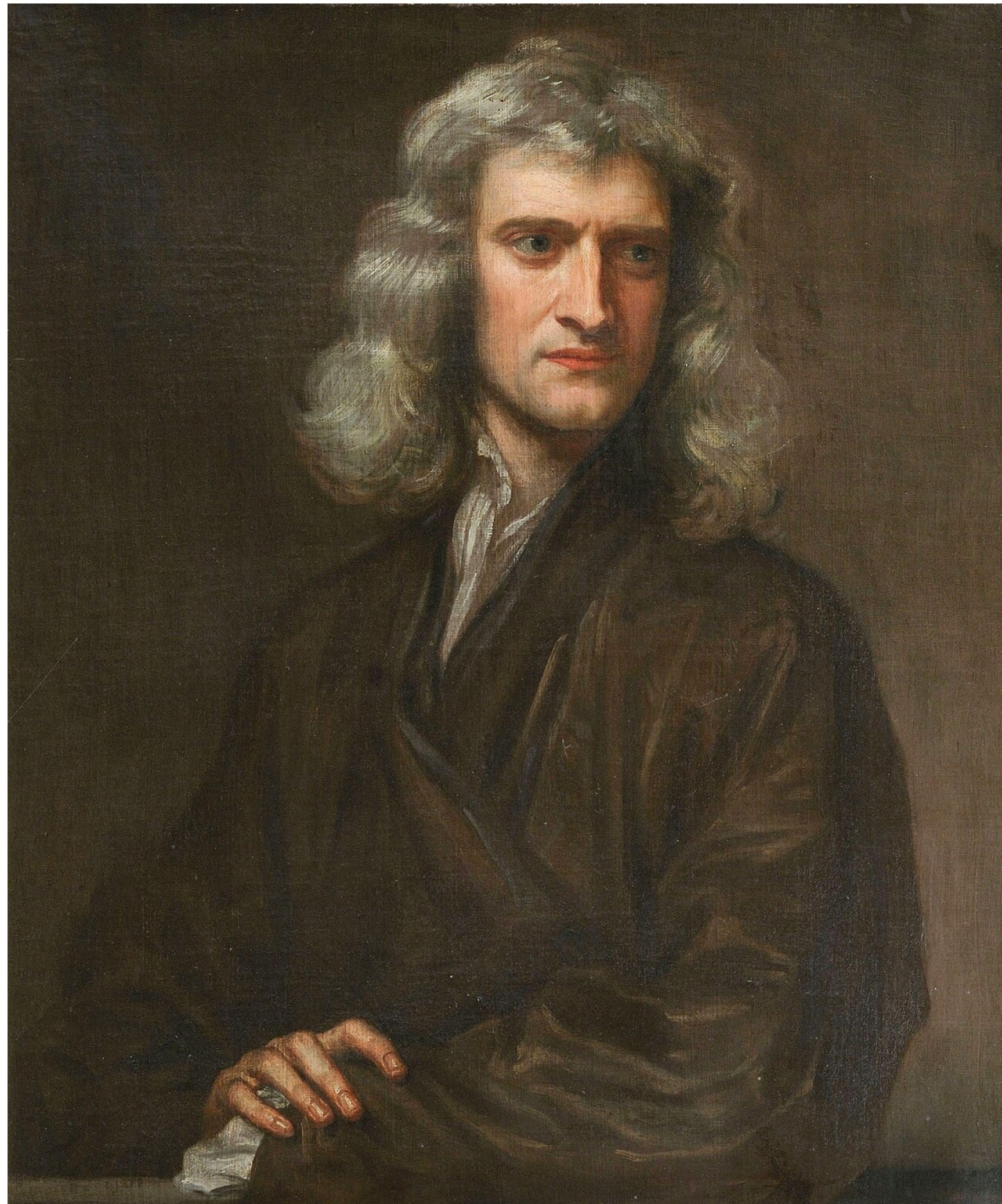
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**1687:** Philosophiæ Naturalis Principia Mathematica

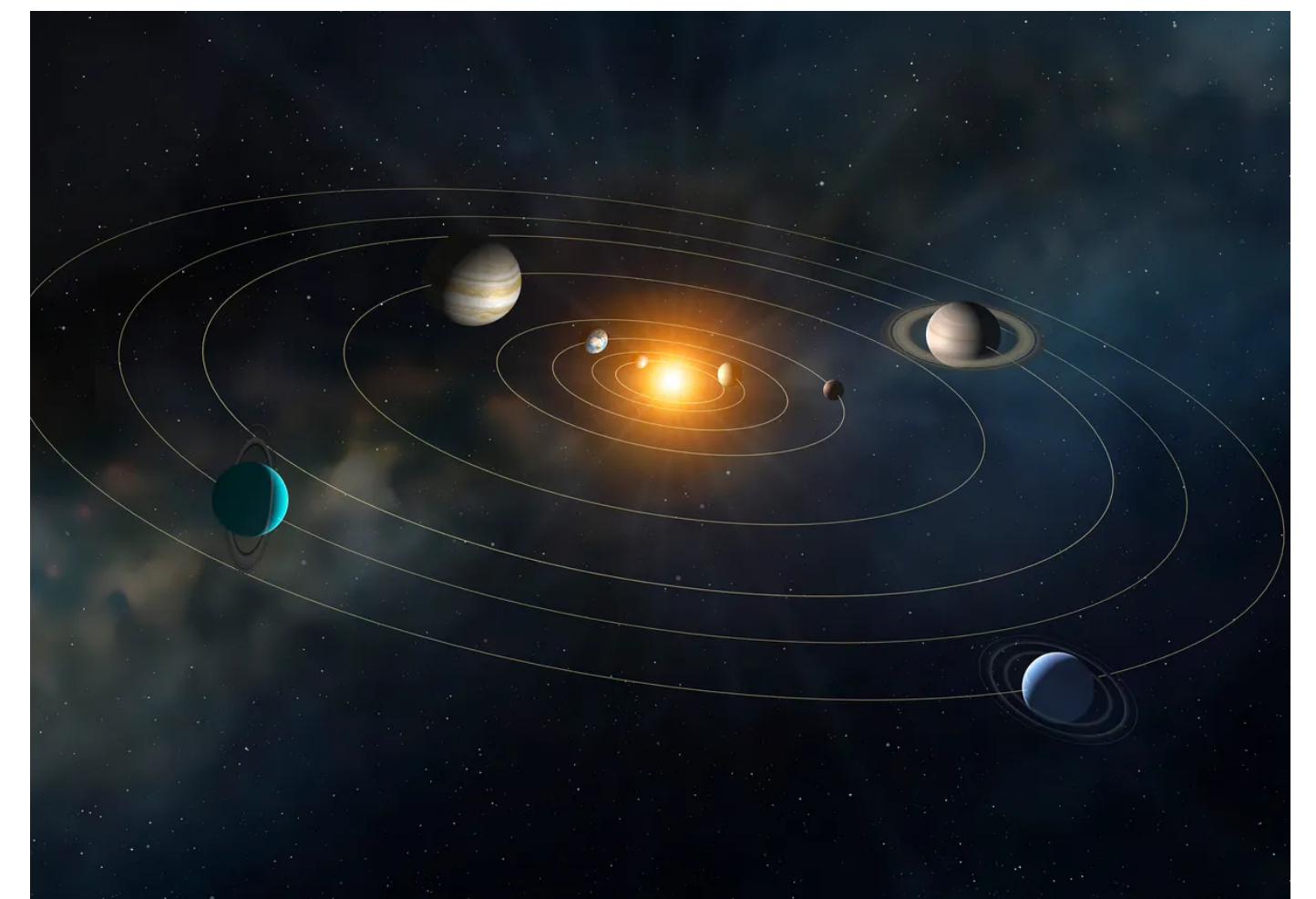


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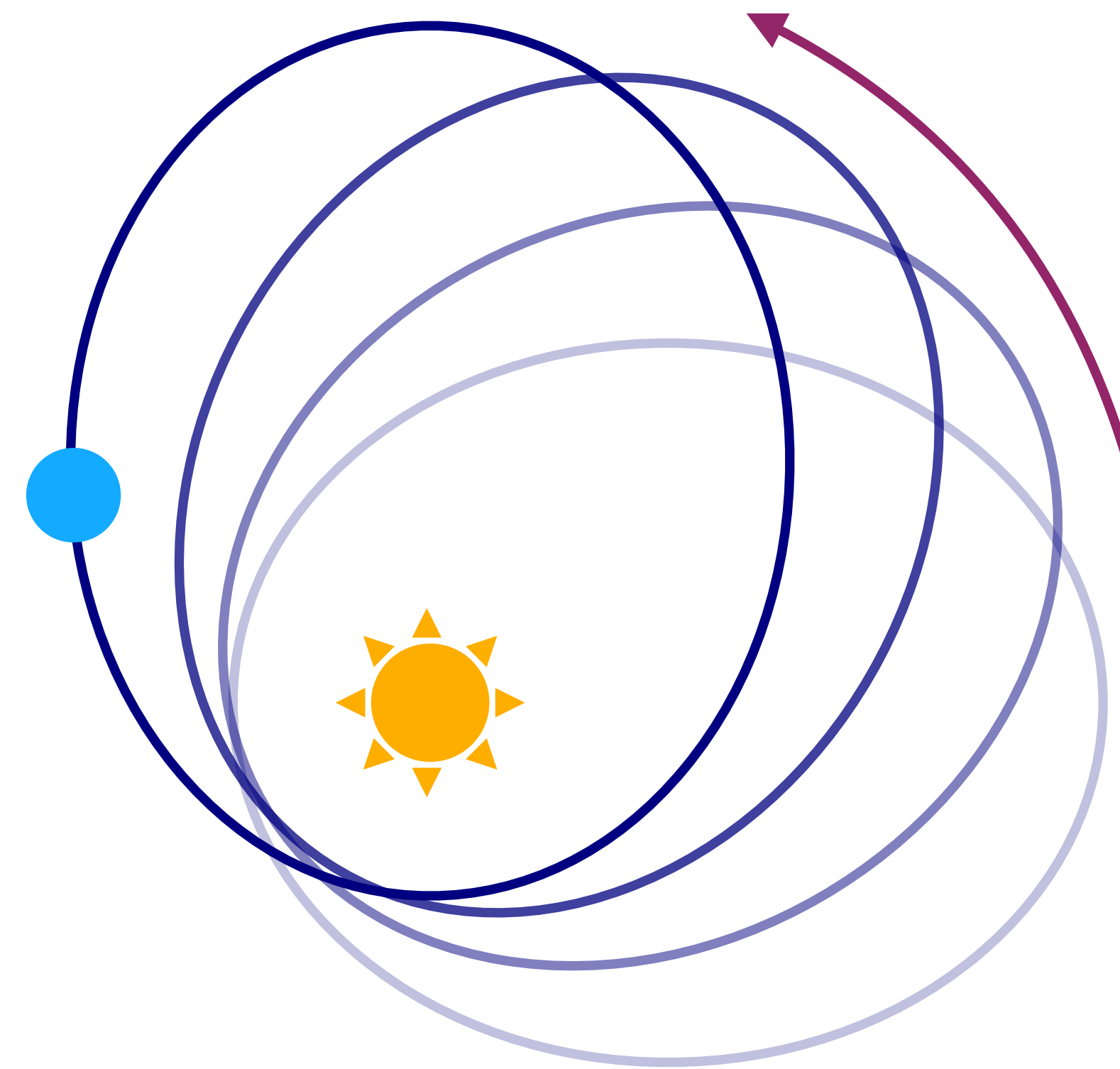
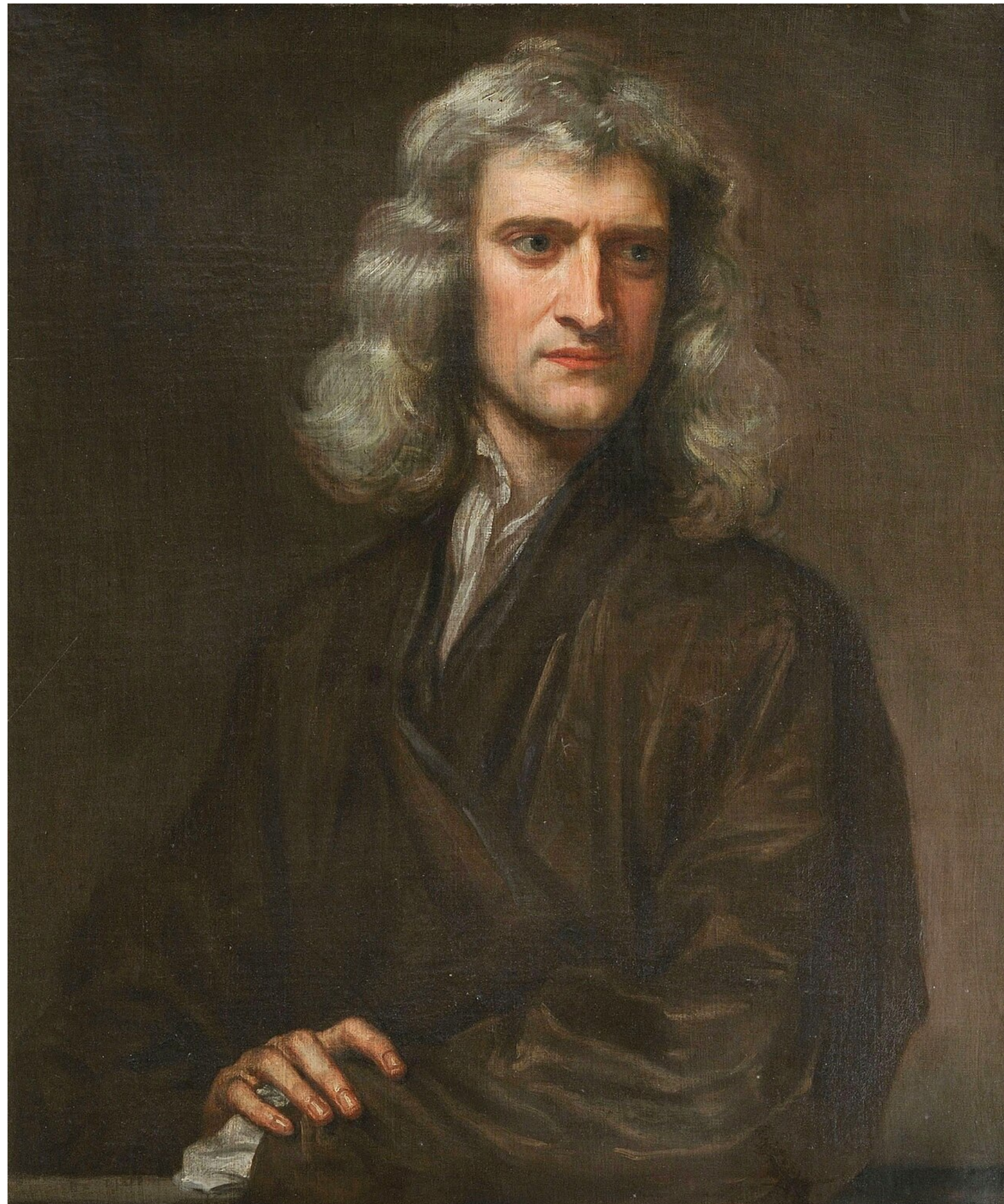


$$F = G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r^2}$$



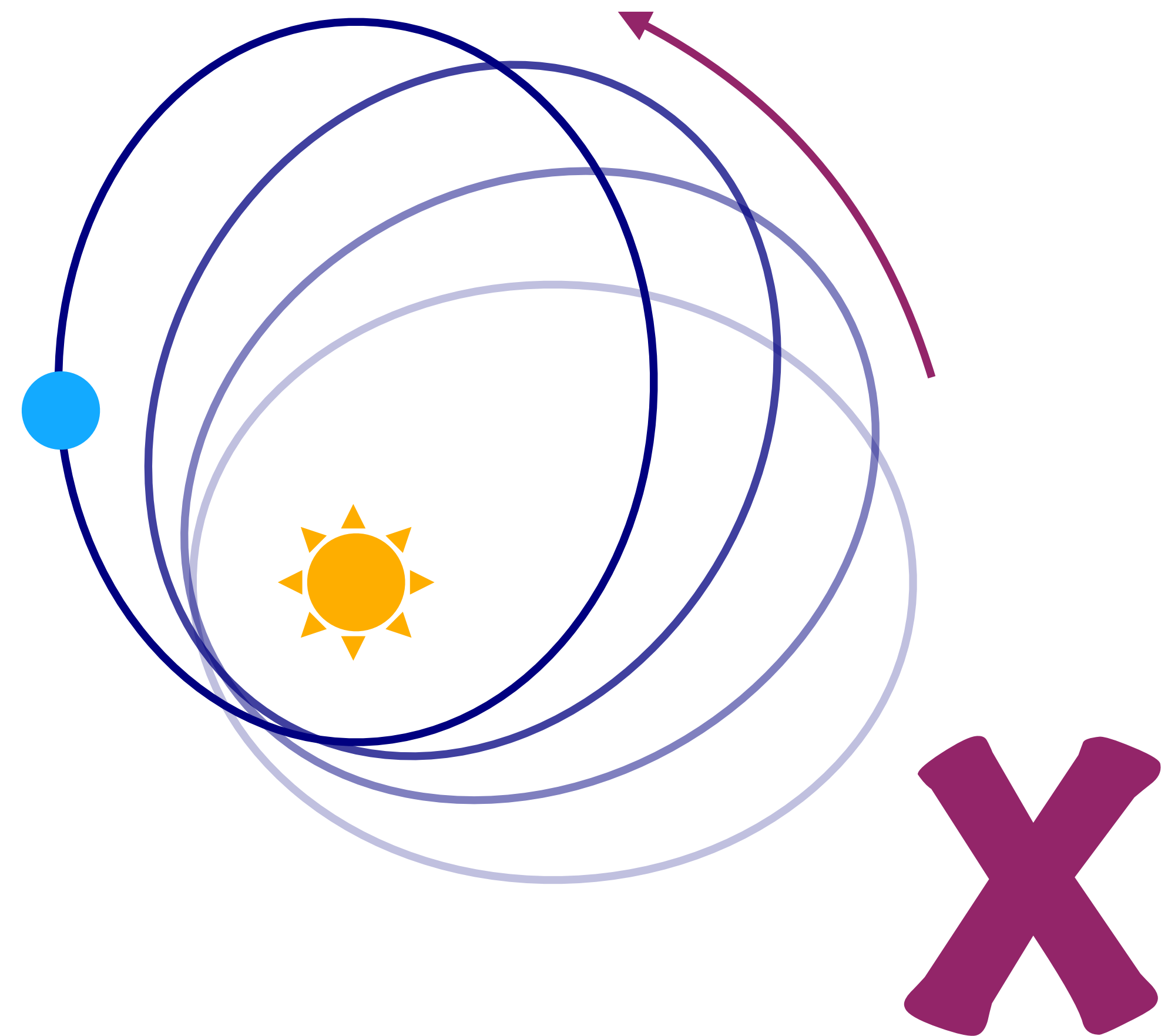
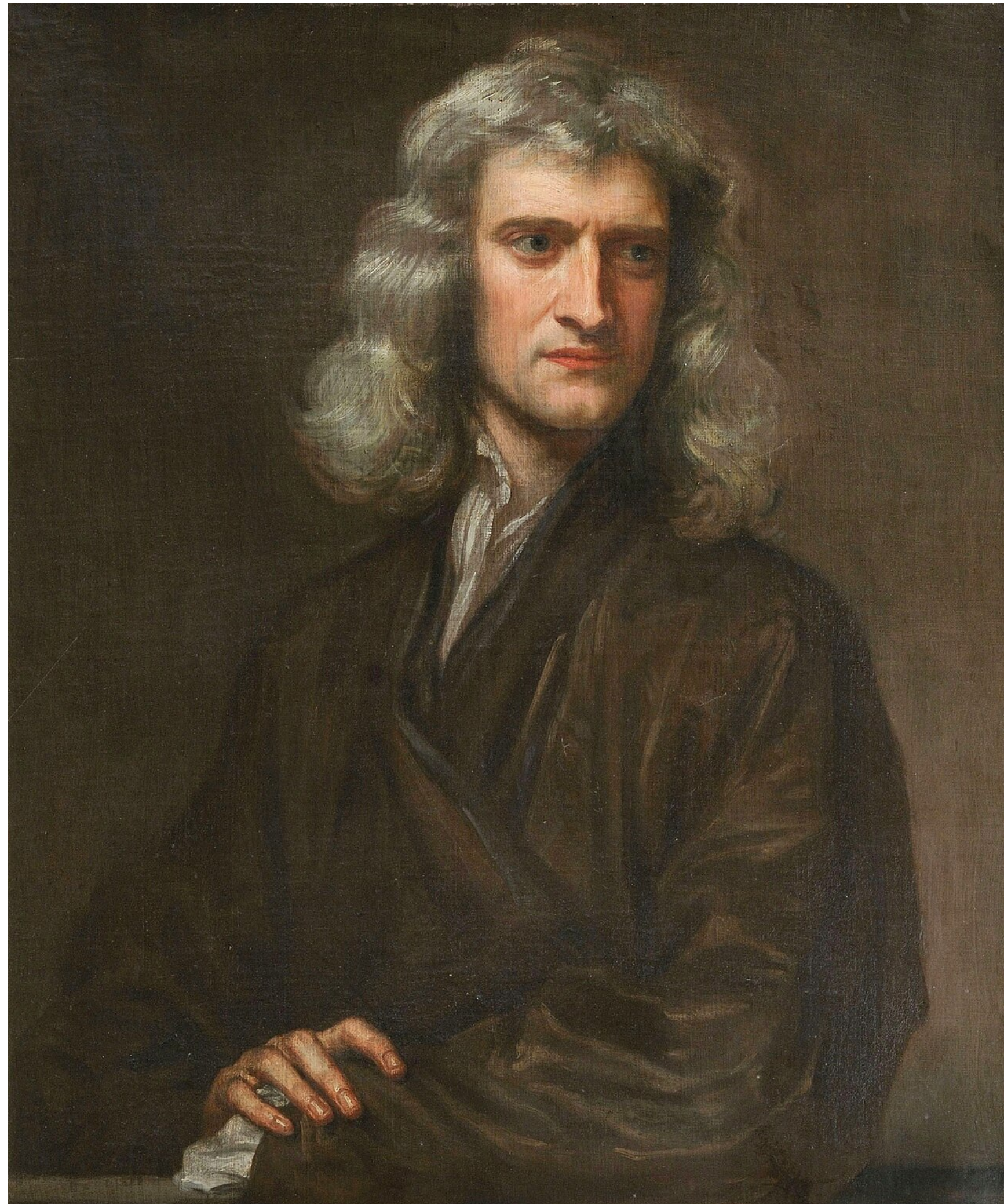
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# Historical overview

November 1915: *The Field Equations of Gravitation*, Albert Einstein

## Die Feldgleichungen der Gravitation.

Von A. EINSTEIN.

In zwei vor kurzem erschienenen Mitteilungen<sup>1</sup> habe ich gezeigt, wie man zu Feldgleichungen der Gravitation gelangen kann, die dem Postulat allgemeiner Relativität entsprechen, d. h. die in ihrer allgemeinen Fassung beliebigen Substitutionen der Raumzeitvariablen gegenüber kovariant sind.

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

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

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

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

$$R_{il} = -\sum_i \frac{\partial \{im\}}{\partial x_i} + \sum_i \{il\} \{m\} \quad (1a)$$

$$S_{im} = \sum_i \frac{\partial \{il\}}{\partial x_i} - \sum_i \{im\} \{z\} \quad (1b)$$

<sup>1</sup> Sitzungsber. XLIV, S. 778 und XLVI, S. 799, 1915.

Die allgemein kovarianten zehn Gleichungen des Gravitationsfeldes in Räumen, in denen »Materie« fehlt, erhalten wir, indem wir ansetzen

$$G_{im} = 0. \quad (2)$$

Diese Gleichungen lassen sich einfacher gestalten, wenn man das Bezugssystem so wählt, daß  $\sqrt{-g} = 1$  ist. Dann verschwindet  $S_{im}$  wegen (1b), so daß man statt (2) erhält

$$R_{im} = \sum_i \frac{\partial \Gamma_{im}^i}{\partial x_i} + \sum_{il} \Gamma_{il}^i \Gamma_{ml}^i = 0 \quad (3)$$

$$\sqrt{-g} = 1. \quad (3a)$$

Dabei ist

$$\Gamma_{il}^i = -\left\{ \begin{matrix} im \\ l \end{matrix} \right\} \quad (4)$$

gesetzt, welche Größen wir als die »Komponenten« des Gravitationsfeldes bezeichnen.

Ist in dem betrachteten Raume »Materie« vorhanden, so tritt deren Energietensor auf der rechten Seite von (2) bzw. (3) auf. Wir setzen

$$G_{im} = -\kappa \left( T_{im} - \frac{1}{2} g_{im} T \right), \quad (2a)$$

wobei

$$\sum_{i\sigma} g^{i\sigma} T_{i\sigma} = \sum_{\sigma} T_{\sigma}^{\sigma} = T \quad (5)$$

gesetzt ist;  $T$  ist der Skalar des Energietensors der »Materie«, die rechte Seite von (2a) ein Tensor. Spezialisieren wir wieder das Koordinatensystem in der gewohnten Weise, so erhalten wir an Stelle von (2a) die äquivalenten Gleichungen

$$R_{im} = \sum_i \frac{\partial \Gamma_{im}^i}{\partial x_i} + \sum_{il} \Gamma_{il}^i \Gamma_{ml}^i = -\kappa \left( T_{im} - \frac{1}{2} g_{im} T \right) \quad (6)$$

$$\sqrt{-g} = 1. \quad (3a)$$

Wie stets nehmen wir an, daß die Divergenz des Energietensors der Materie im Sinne des allgemeinen Differentialkalküls verschwinde (Impulsenergiesatz). Bei der Spezialisierung der Koordinatenwahl gemäß (3a) kommt dies darauf hinaus, daß die  $T_{im}$  die Bedingungen

$$\sum_{\lambda} \frac{\partial T_{\sigma}^{\lambda}}{\partial x_{\lambda}} = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{\mu\nu} \frac{\partial g^{\mu\nu}}{\partial x_{\sigma}} T_{\mu\nu} \quad (7)$$

oder

$$\sum_{\lambda} \frac{\partial T_{\sigma}^{\lambda}}{\partial x_{\lambda}} = -\sum_{\nu} \Gamma_{\sigma}^{\nu} T_{\nu}^{\sigma} \quad (7a)$$

erfüllen sollen.

Multipliziert man (6) mit  $\frac{\partial g^{im}}{\partial x_{\sigma}}$  und summiert über  $i$  und  $m$ , so erhält man<sup>1</sup> mit Rücksicht auf (7) und auf die aus (3a) folgende Relation

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{im} g^{im} \frac{\partial g^{im}}{\partial x_{\sigma}} = -\frac{\partial \lg \sqrt{-g}}{\partial x_{\sigma}} = 0$$

den Erhaltungssatz für Materie und Gravitationsfeld zusammen in der Form

$$\sum_{\lambda} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{\lambda}} (T_{\sigma}^{\lambda} + t_{\sigma}^{\lambda}) = 0, \quad (8)$$

wobei  $t_{\sigma}^{\lambda}$  (der »Energietensor« des Gravitationsfeldes) gegeben ist durch

$$\kappa t_{\sigma}^{\lambda} = \frac{1}{2} \delta_{\sigma}^{\lambda} \sum_{\mu\nu} g^{\mu\nu} \Gamma_{\mu\beta}^{\alpha} \Gamma_{\nu\alpha}^{\beta} - \sum_{\mu\nu} g^{\mu\nu} \Gamma_{\sigma\alpha}^{\mu} \Gamma_{\nu\alpha}^{\lambda}. \quad (8a)$$

Die Gründe, welche mich zur Einführung des zweiten Gliedes auf der rechten Seite von (2a) und (6) veranlaßt haben, erhellen erst aus den folgenden Überlegungen, welche den an der soeben angeführten Stelle (S. 785) gegebenen völlig analog sind.

Multiplizieren wir (6) mit  $g^{im}$  und summieren wir über die Indizes  $i$  und  $m$ , so erhalten wir nach einfacher Rechnung

$$\sum_{\alpha\beta} \frac{\partial^2 g^{\alpha\beta}}{\partial x_{\alpha} \partial x_{\beta}} - \kappa (T + t) = 0, \quad (9)$$

wobei entsprechend (5) zur Abkürzung gesetzt ist

$$\sum_{i\sigma} g^{i\sigma} t_{i\sigma} = \sum_{\sigma} t_{\sigma}^{\sigma} = t. \quad (8b)$$

Man beachte, daß es unser Zusatzglied mit sich bringt, daß in (9) der Energietensor des Gravitationsfeldes neben dem der Materie in gleicher Weise auftritt, was in Gleichung (21) a. a. O. nicht der Fall ist.

Ferner leitet man an Stelle der Gleichung (22) a. a. O. auf dem dort angegebenen Wege mit Hilfe der Energiegleichung die Relationen ab:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{\alpha}} \left[ \sum_{\sigma\beta} \frac{\partial g^{\sigma\beta}}{\partial x_{\alpha}} - \kappa (T + t) \right] = 0. \quad (10)$$

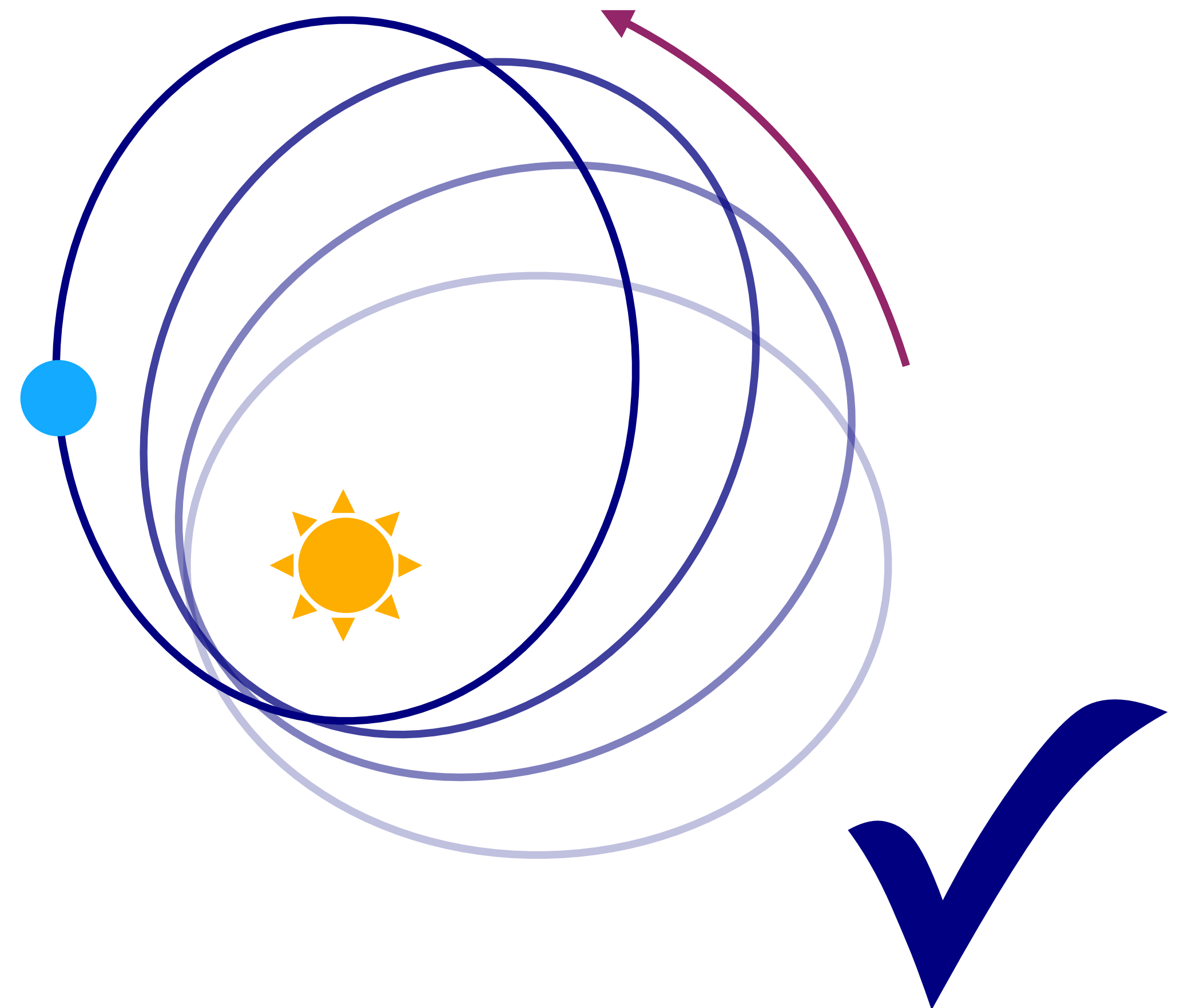
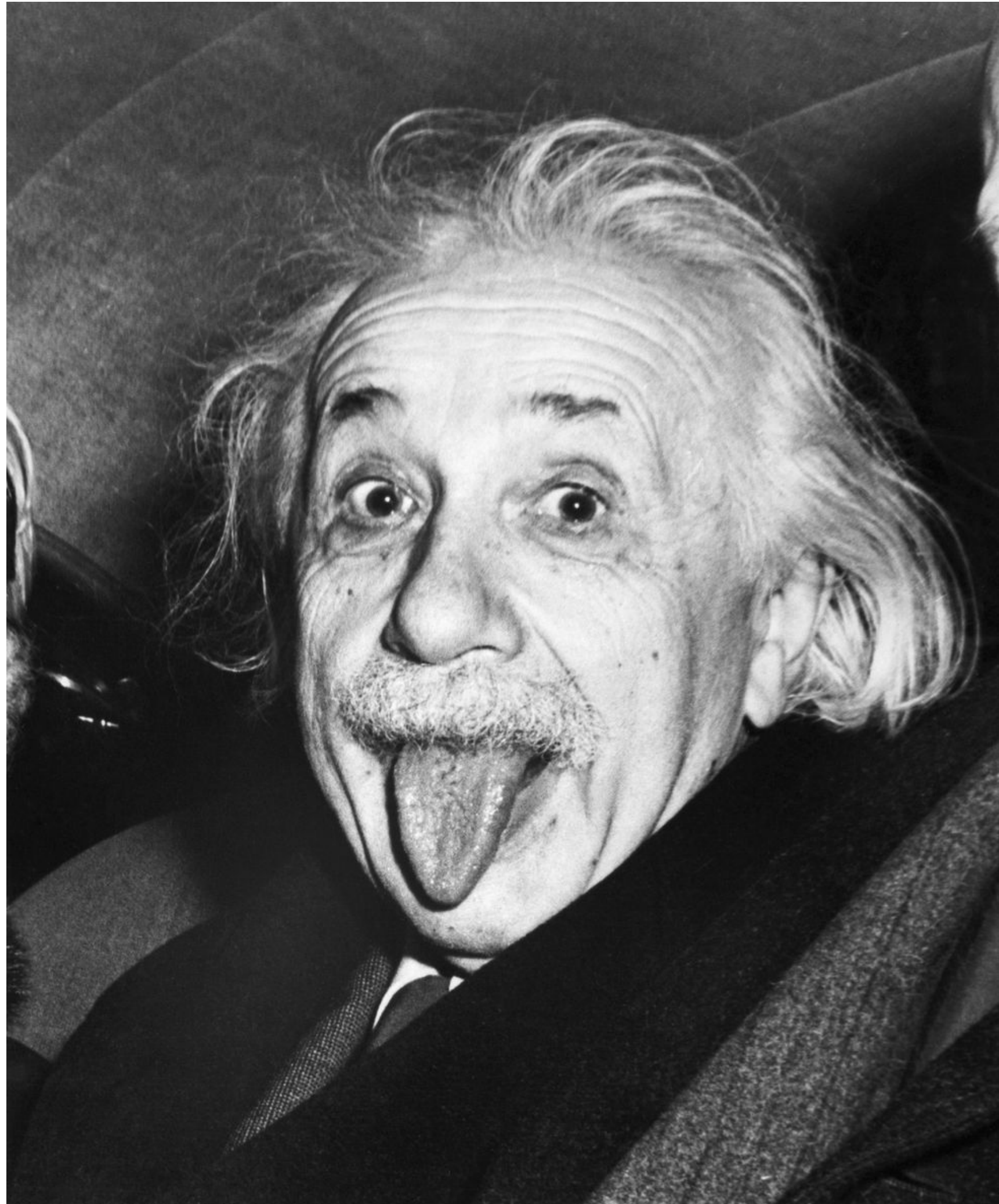
Unser Zusatzglied bringt es mit sich, daß diese Gleichungen gegenüber (9) keine neue Bedingung enthalten, so daß über den Energie-

<sup>1</sup> Über die Ableitung vgl. Sitzungsber. XLIV, 1915, S. 784/785. Ich ersuche den Leser, für das Folgende auch die dort auf S. 785 gegebenen Entwicklungen zum Vergleiche heranzuziehen.

tensor der Materie keine andere Voraussetzung gemacht werden muß als die, daß er dem Impulsenergiesatz entspricht.

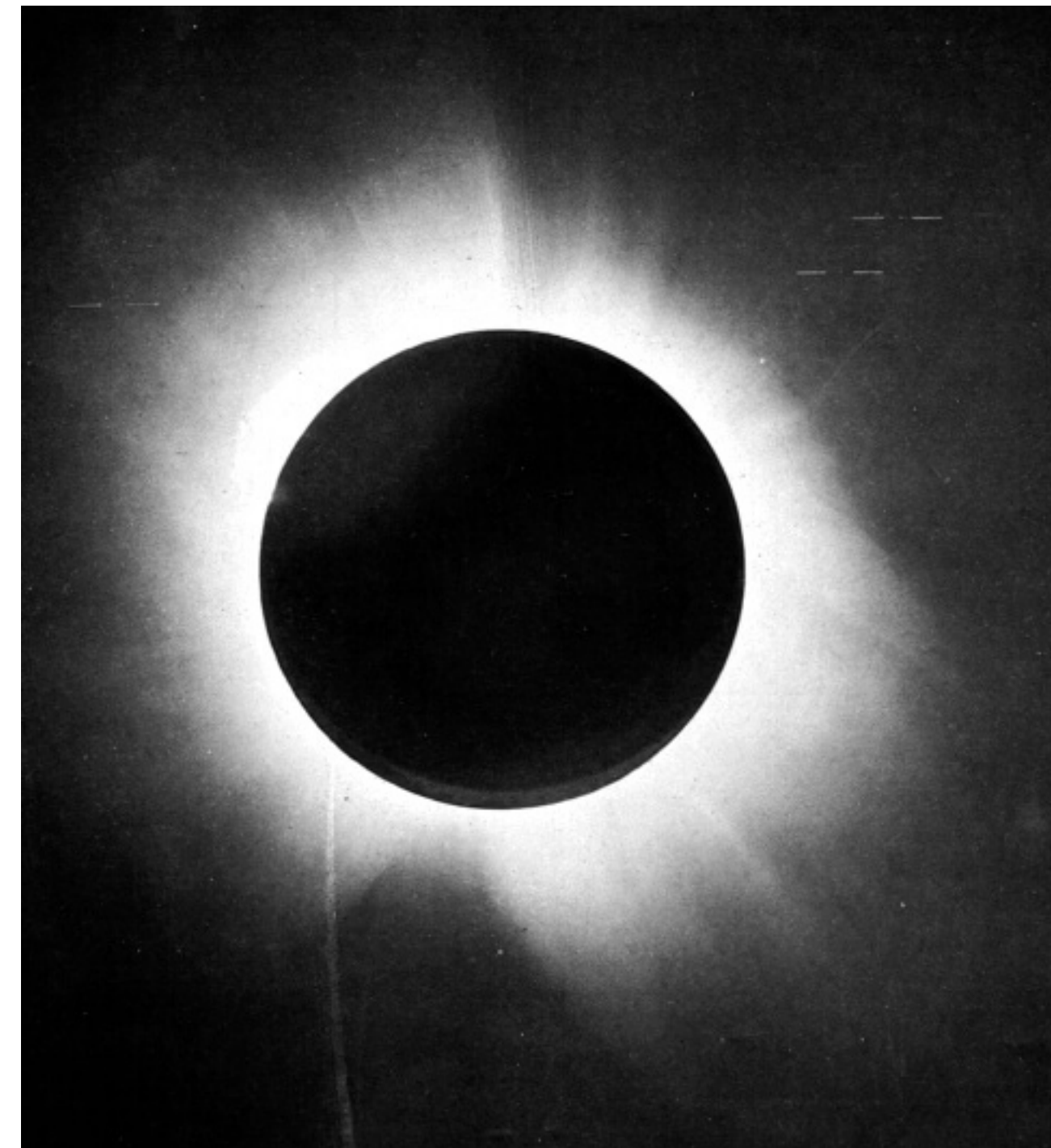
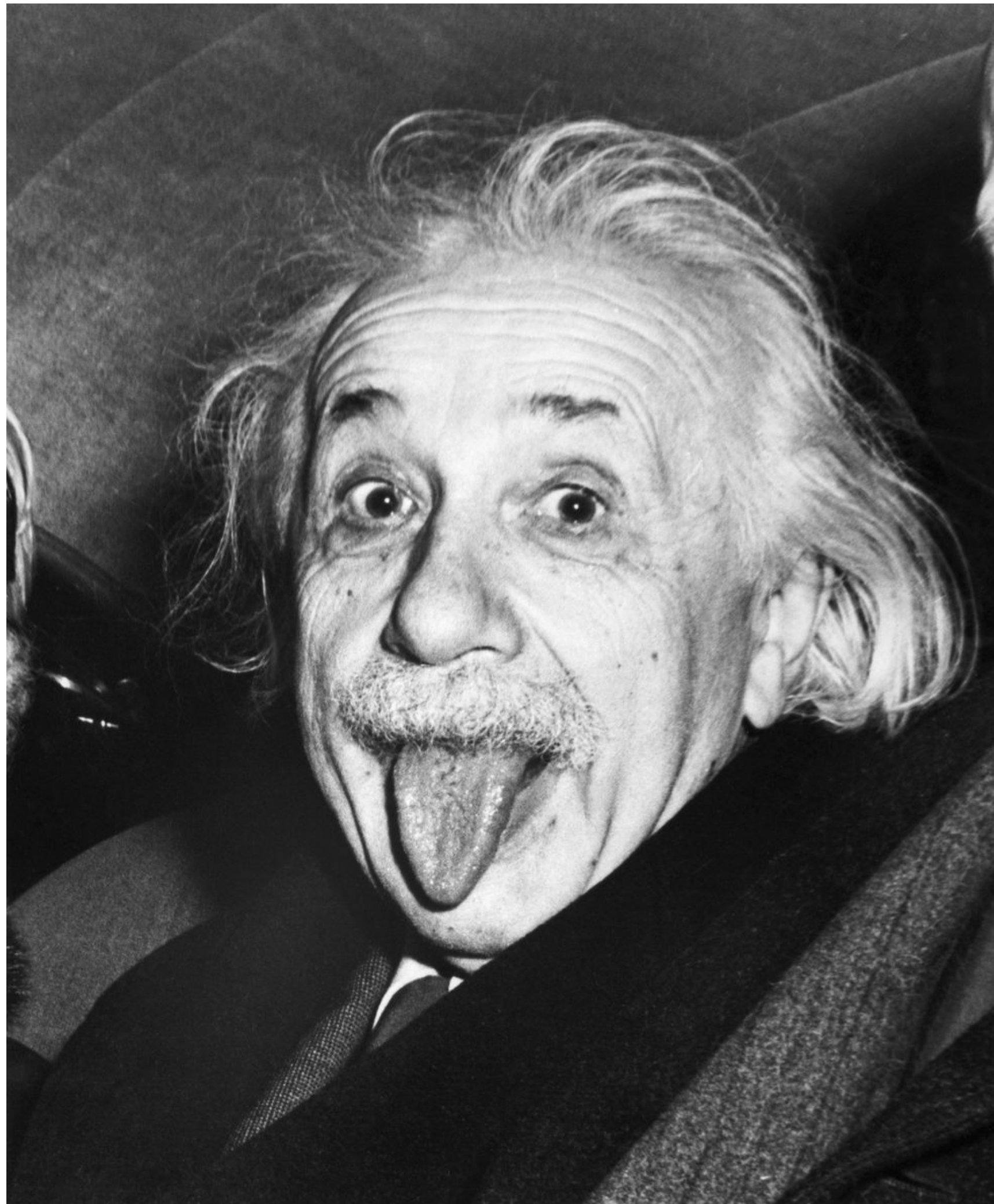
Damit ist endlich die allgemeine Relativitätstheorie als logisches Gebäude abgeschlossen. Das Relativitätspostulat in seiner allgemeinsten Fassung, welches die Raumzeitkoordinaten zu physikalisch bedeutungslosen Parametern macht, führt mit zwingender Notwendigkeit zu einer ganz bestimmten Theorie der Gravitation, welche die Perihelbewegung des Merkur erklärt. Dagegen vermag das allgemeine Relativitätspostulat uns nichts über das Wesen der übrigen Naturvorgänge zu offenbaren, was nicht schon die spezielle Relativitätstheorie gelehrt hätte. Meine in dieser Hinsicht neulich an dieser Stelle geäußerte Meinung war irrtümlich. Jede der speziellen Relativitätstheorie gemäße physikalische Theorie kann mittels des absoluten Differentialkalküls in das System der allgemeinen Relativitätstheorie eingereiht werden, ohne daß letztere irgendein Kriterium für die Zulässigkeit jener Theorie lieferte.

# Historical overview



# Historical overview

**1919:** The Eddington experiment, first confirmation of a novel prediction of GR



The New York Times  
November 10, 1919  
**LIGHTS ALL ASKEW  
IN THE HEAVENS**

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

**EINSTEIN THEORY TRIUMPHS**

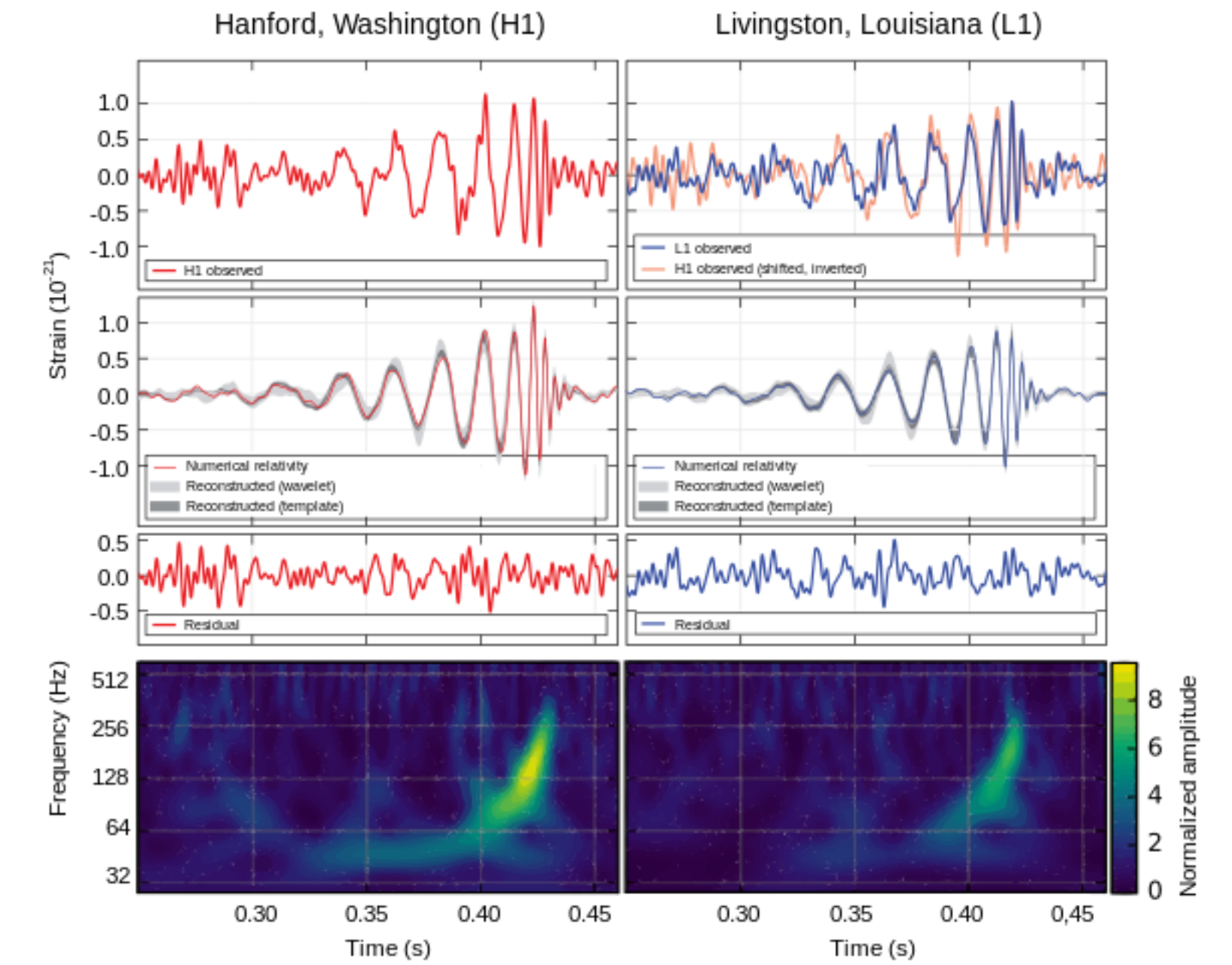
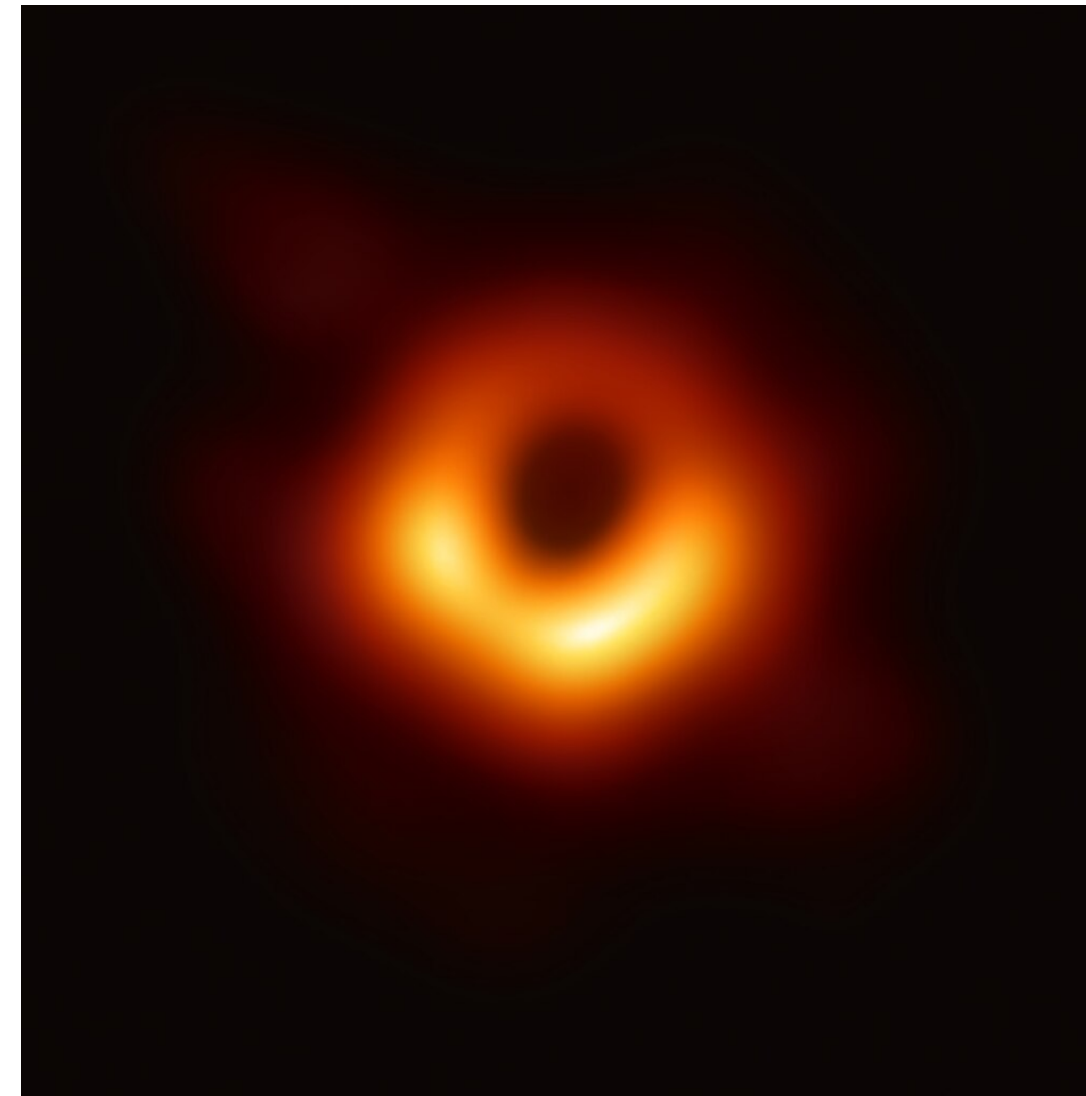
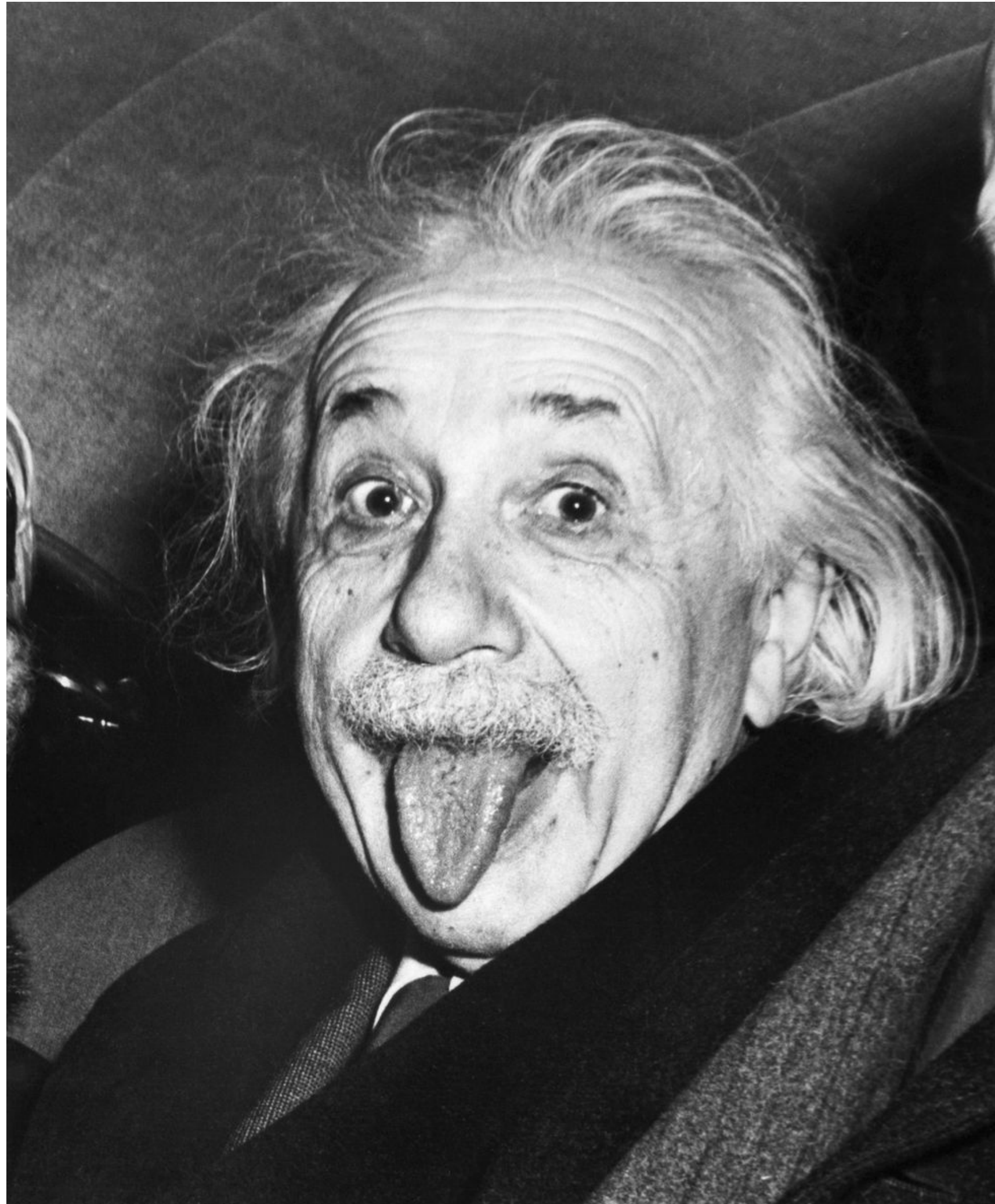
**Stars Not Where They Seemed  
or Were Calculated to be,  
but Nobody Need Worry.**

**A BOOK FOR 12 WISE MEN**

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

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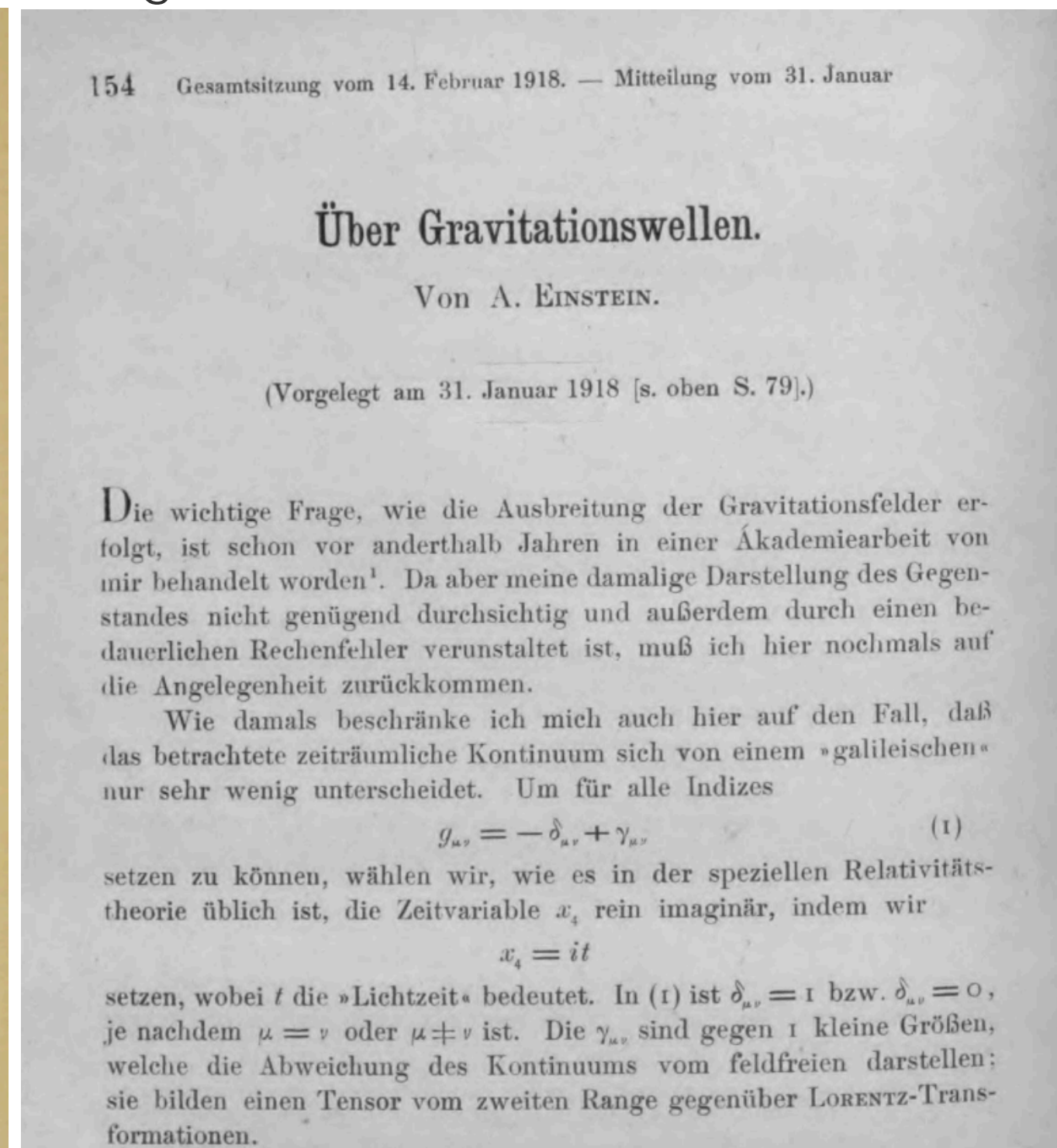
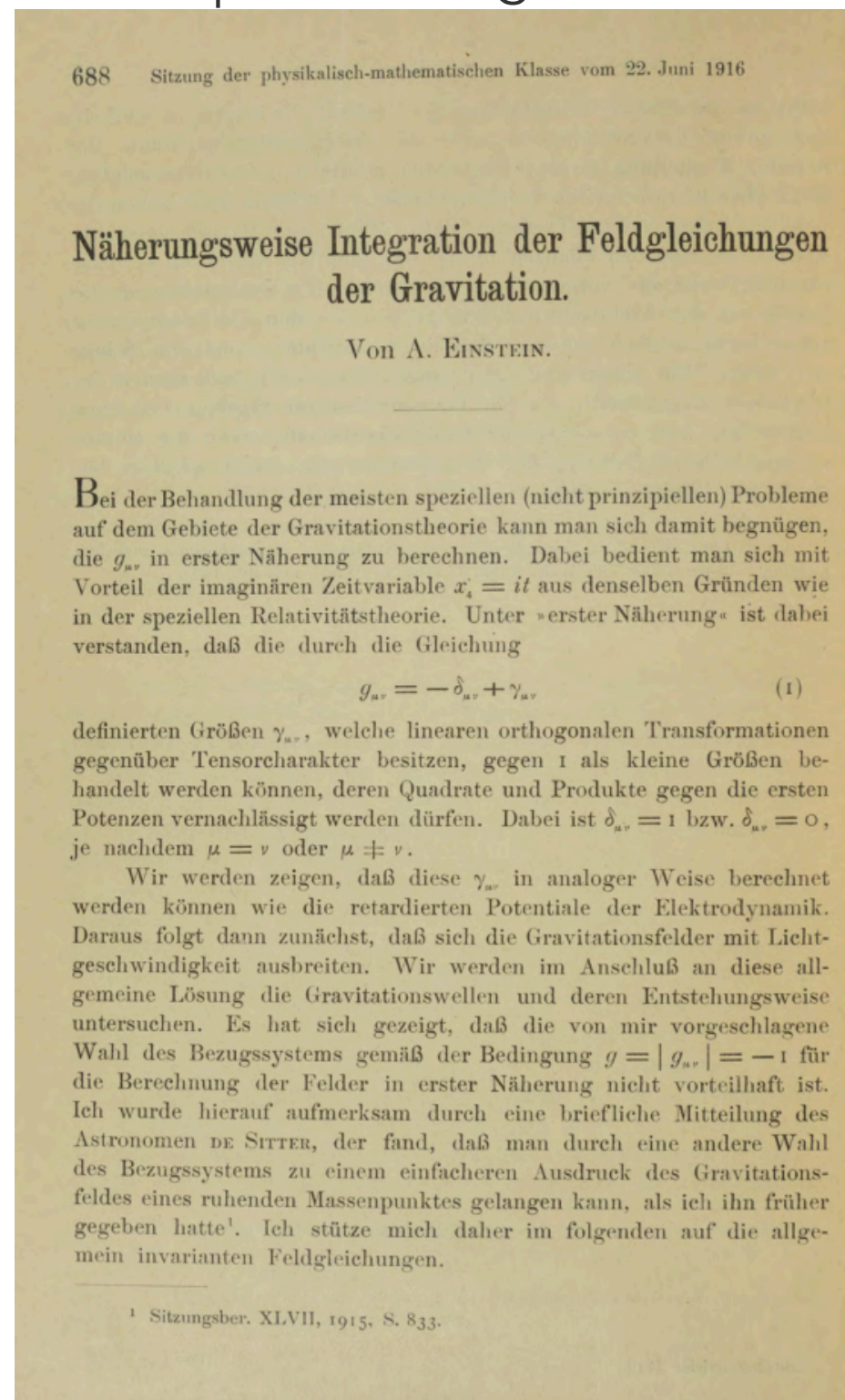


# Historical overview

1916 and 1918: Einstein claims the existence of gravitational waves

“Approximate integration of the field equations of gravitation”

“On gravitational waves”

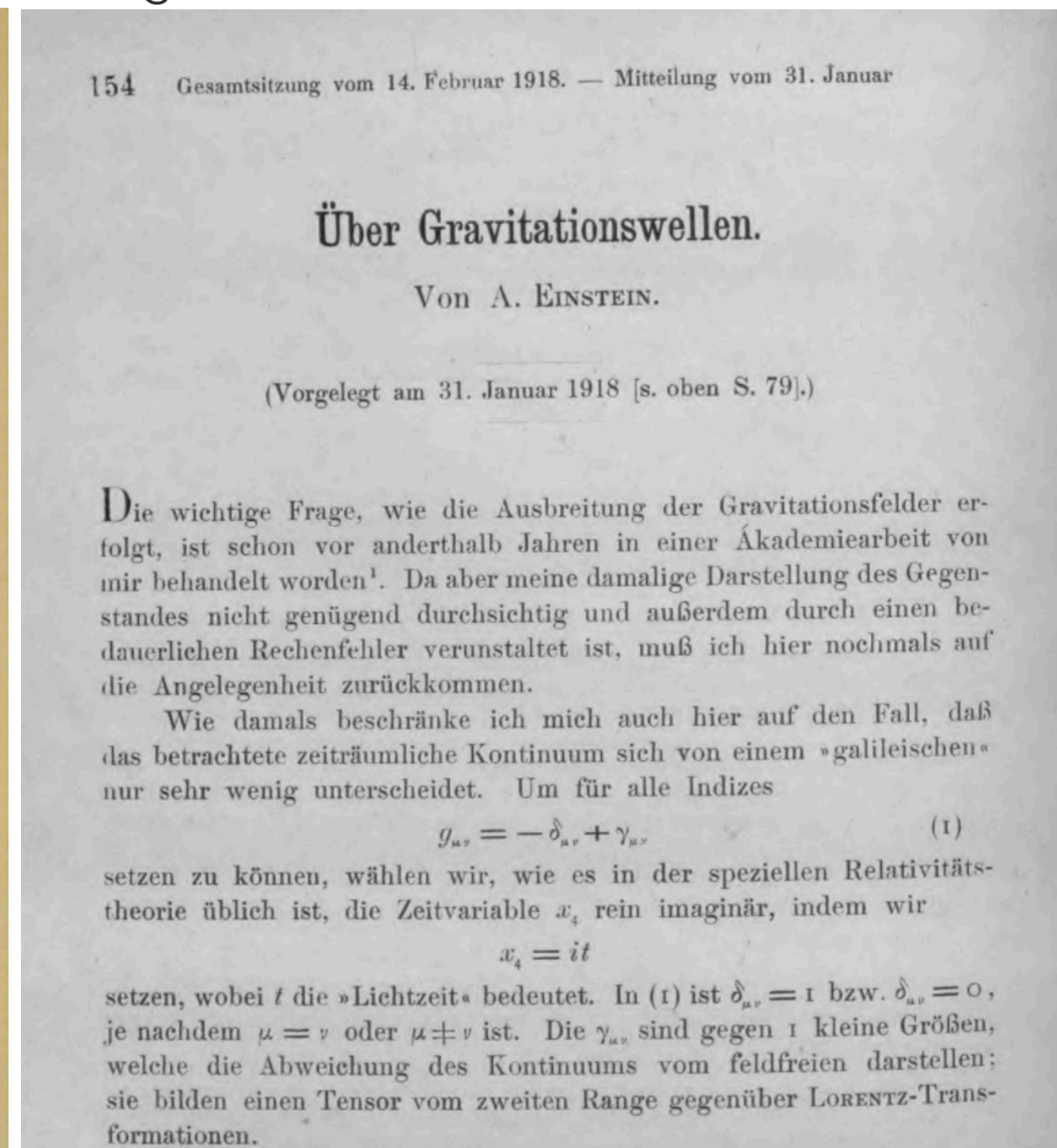
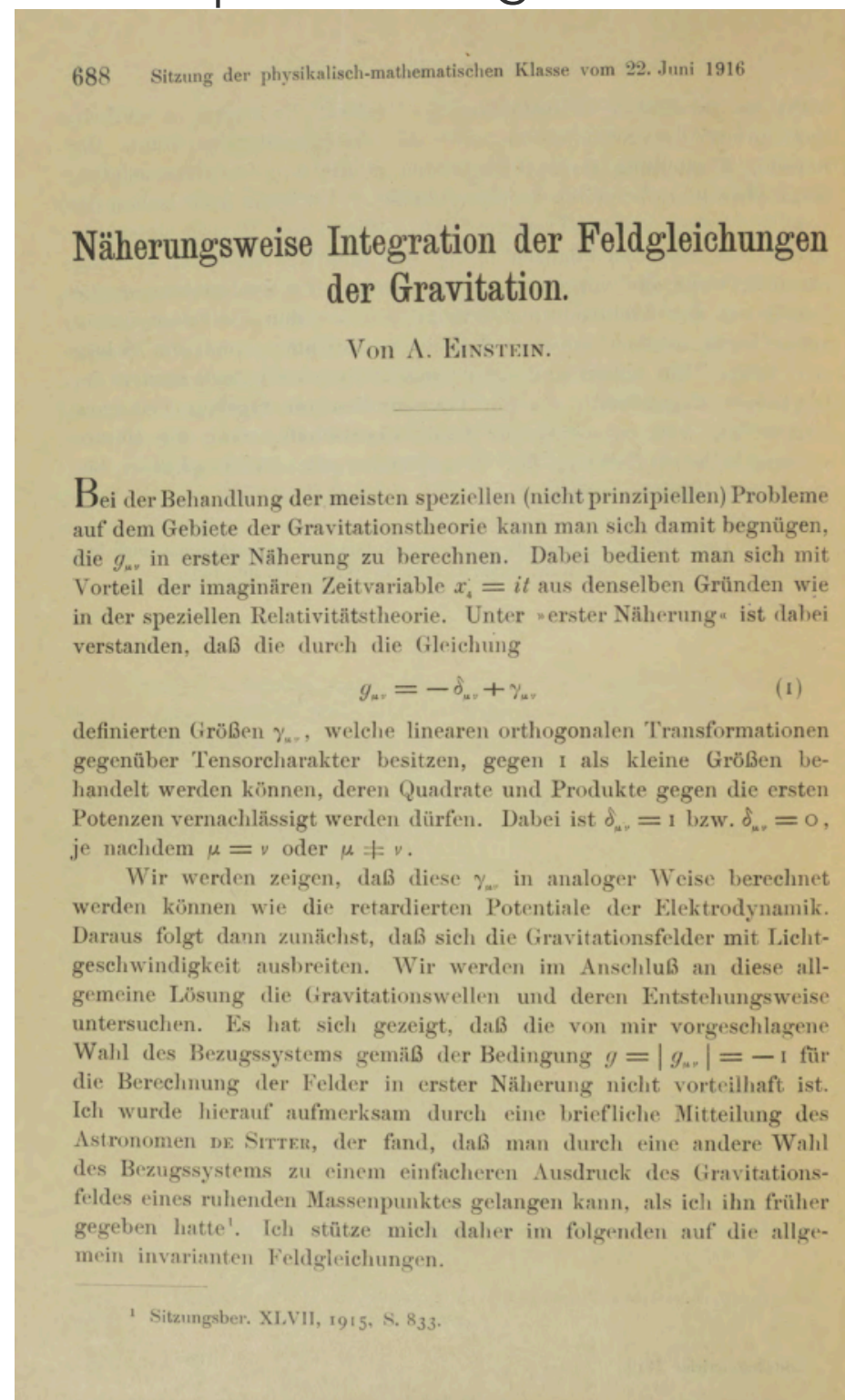


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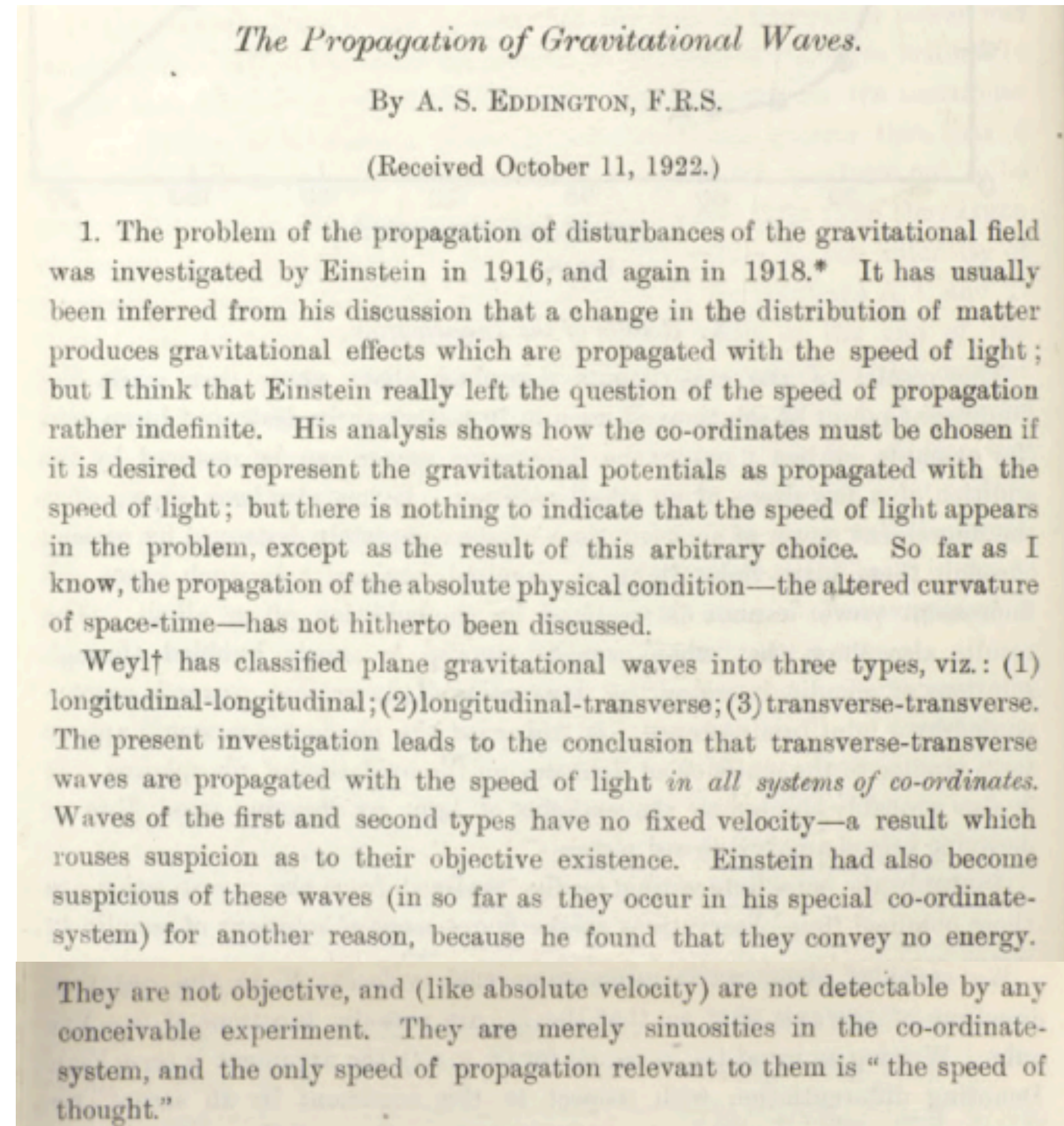


## Three types of waves:

- ▶ longitudinal-longitudinal
- ▶ transverse-longitudinal
- ▶ transverse-transverse

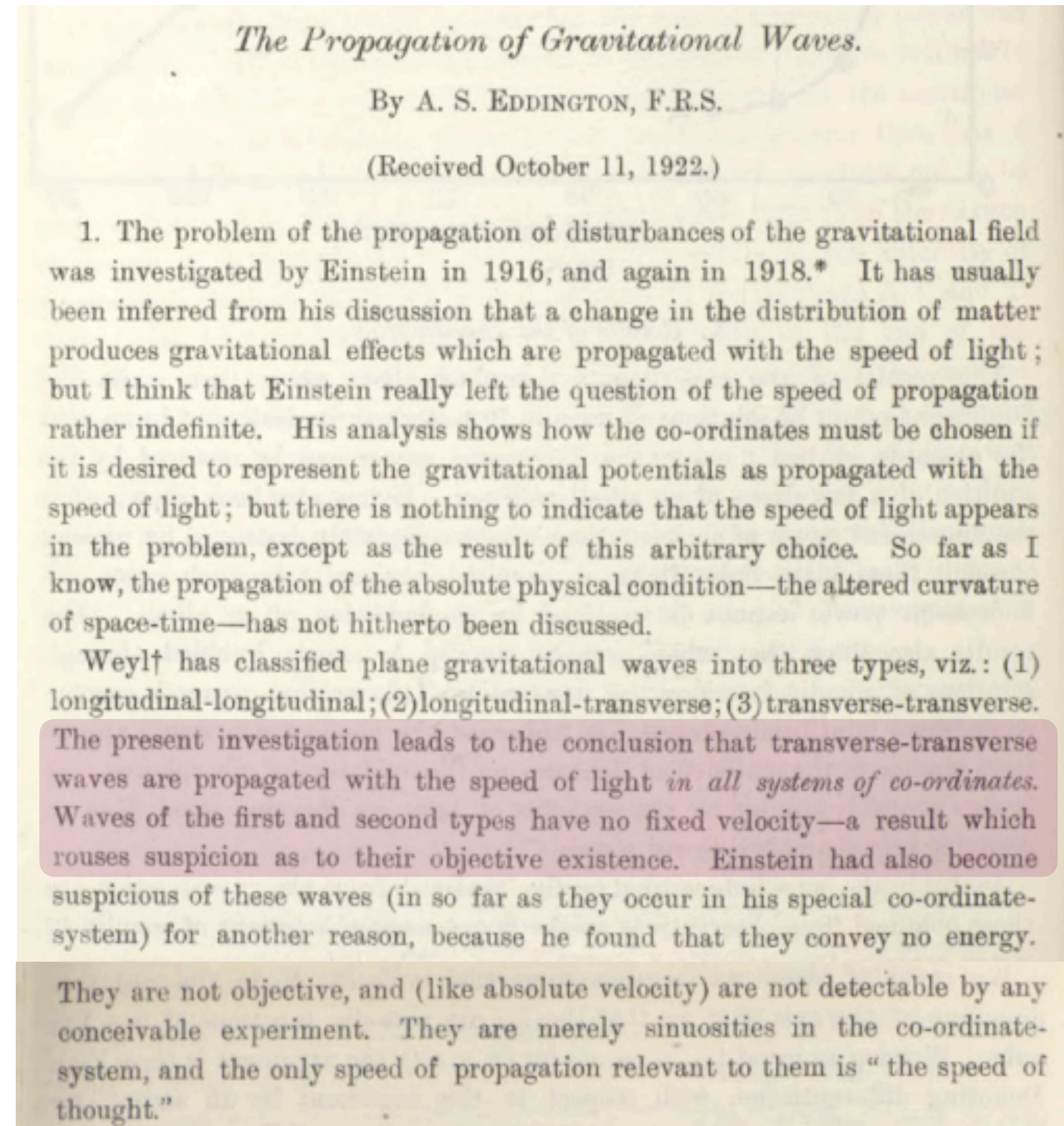
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October 1922: Eddington: L-L and T-L waves propagate “at the speed of thought”



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*July 27, 1936*

*Dear Sir.*

*“We (Mr. Rosen and I) had sent you our manuscript for publication and had not authorized you to show it to specialists before it is printed. I see no reason to address the—in any case erroneous—comments of your anonymous expert. On the basis of this incident I prefer to publish the paper elsewhere.”*

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## ON GRAVITATIONAL WAVES.

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### ABSTRACT.

The rigorous solution for cylindrical gravitational waves is given. For the convenience of the reader the theory of gravitational waves and their production, already known in principle, is given in the first part of this paper. After encountering relationships which cast doubt on the existence of *rigorous* solutions for undulatory gravitational fields, we investigate rigorously the case of cylindrical gravitational waves. It turns out that rigorous solutions exist and that the problem reduces to the usual cylindrical waves in euclidean space.

### I. APPROXIMATE SOLUTION OF THE PROBLEM OF PLANE WAVES AND THE PRODUCTION OF GRAVITATIONAL WAVES.

It is well known that the approximate method of integration of the gravitational equations of the general relativity theory leads to the existence of gravitational waves. The method used is as follows: We start with the equations

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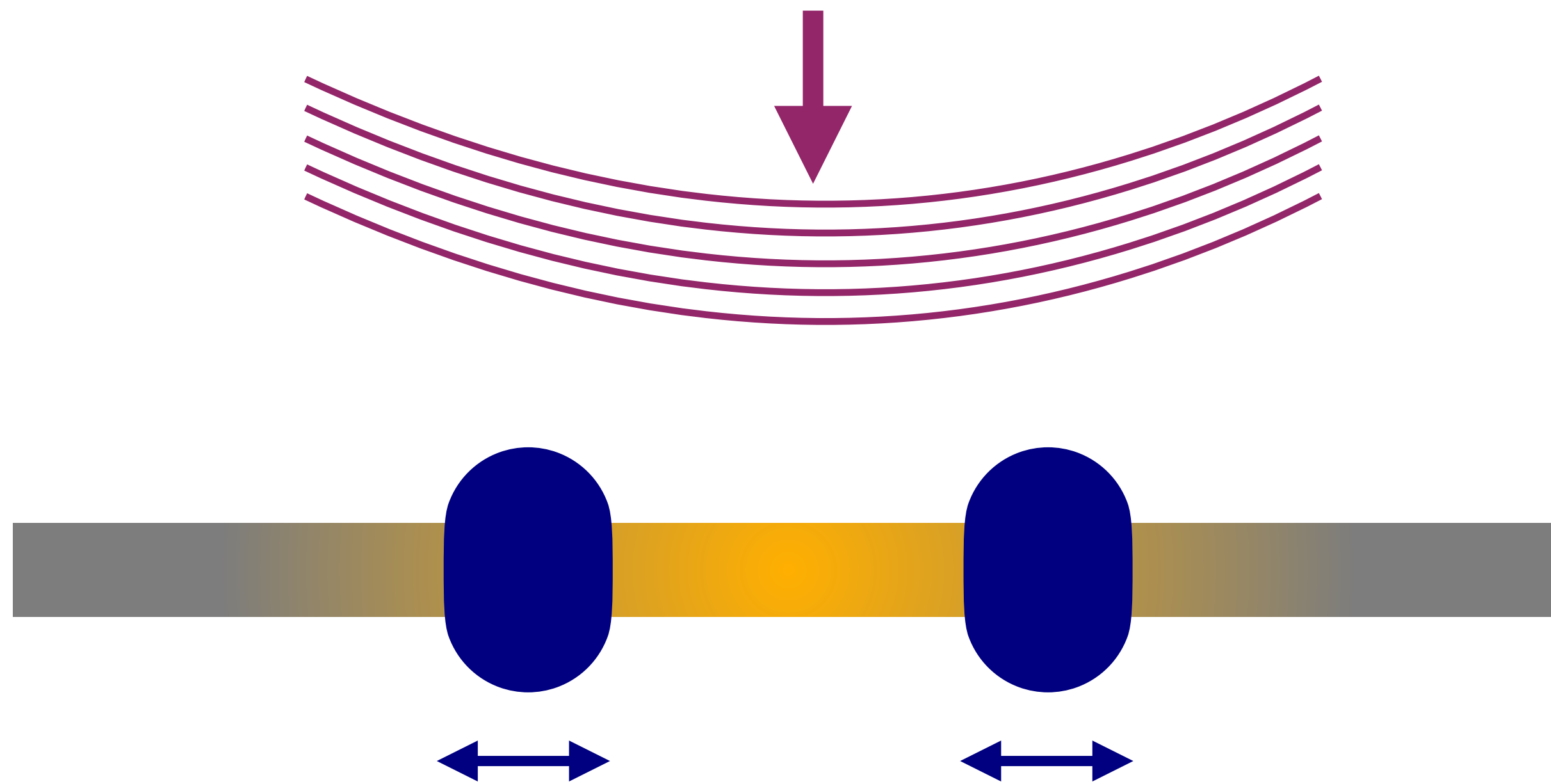


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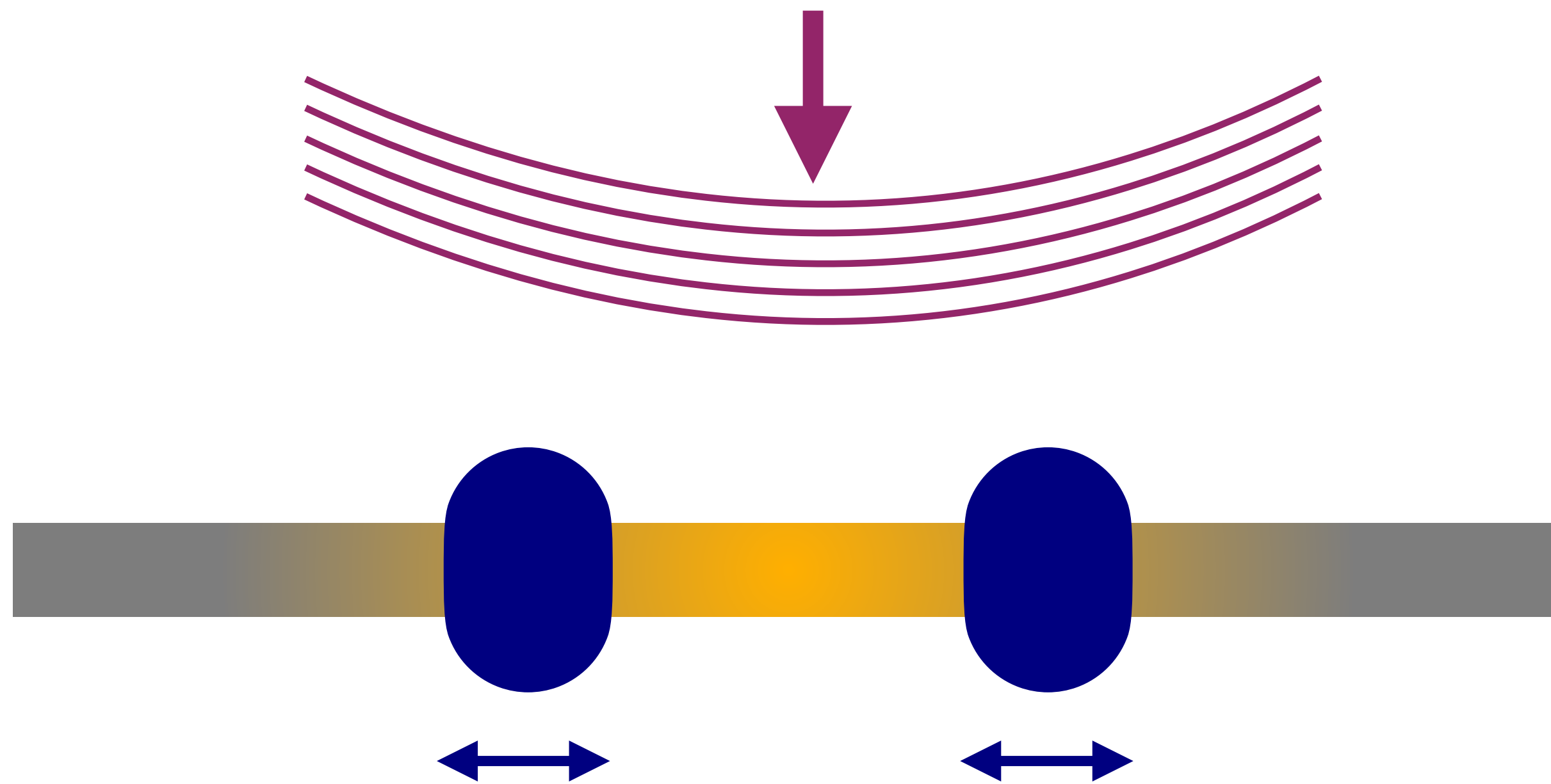


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*"I was surprised to find that a whole day of the conference was spent on this issue and that 'experts' were confused. That's what happens when one is considering energy conservation tensors, etc. instead of questioning, can waves do work?"*

~ R.P. Feynman

# Historical overview

**1960's:** John Weber claims detection using resonance bars

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## EVIDENCE FOR DISCOVERY OF GRAVITATIONAL RADIATION\*

J. Weber

Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland 20742

(Received 29 April 1969)

Coincidences have been observed on gravitational-radiation detectors over a base line of about 1000 km at Argonne National Laboratory and at the University of Maryland. The probability that all of these coincidences were accidental is incredibly small. Experiments imply that electromagnetic and seismic effects can be ruled out with a high level of confidence. These data are consistent with the conclusion that the detectors are being excited by gravitational radiation.

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**1970's:** Weber's detections are debunked

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**1993 Nobel Prize:** Russel Hulse and Joseph Taylor, “for the discovery of a new type of pulsar, a discovery that has opened up new possibilities for the study of gravitation.”

## DISCOVERY OF A PULSAR IN A BINARY SYSTEM

R. A. HULSE AND J. H. TAYLOR

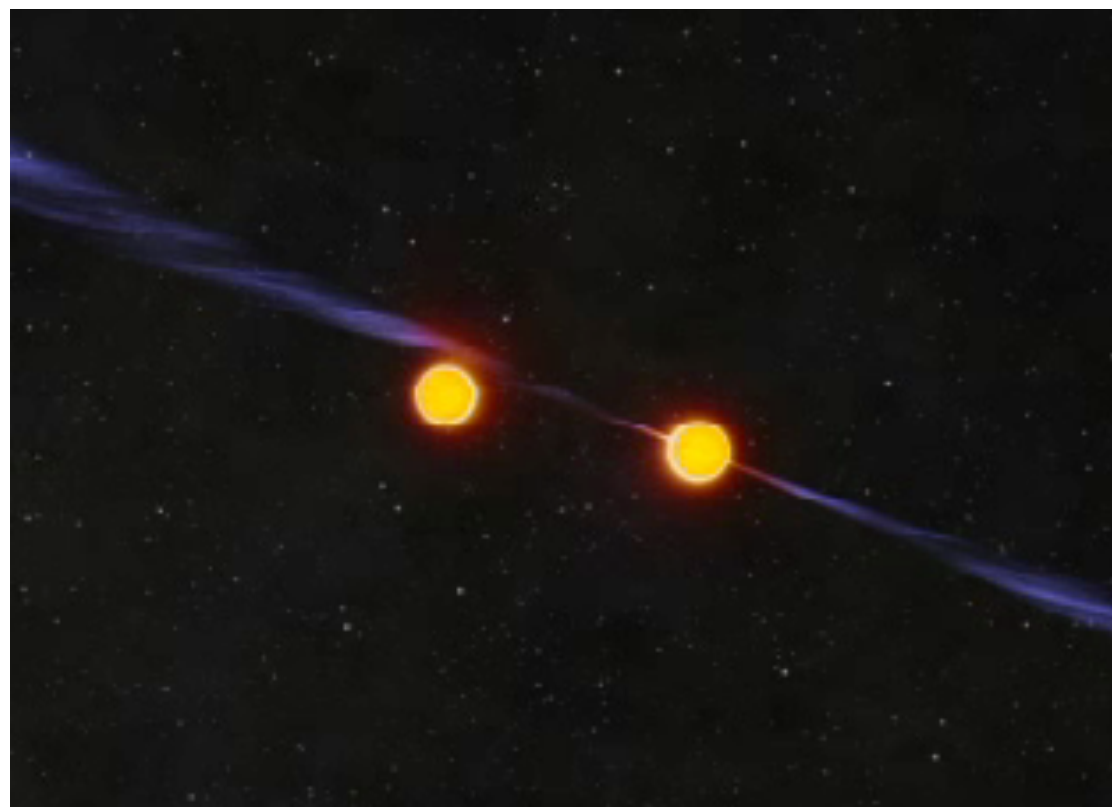
Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Massachusetts, Amherst

*Received 1974 October 18*

### ABSTRACT

We have detected a pulsar with a pulsation period that varies systematically between 0<sup>h</sup>05<sup>m</sup>58<sup>s</sup>.967 and 0<sup>h</sup>05<sup>m</sup>59<sup>s</sup>.045 over a cycle of 0<sup>h</sup>32<sup>m</sup>30<sup>s</sup>. Approximately 200 independent observations over 5-minute intervals have yielded a well-sampled velocity curve which implies a binary orbit with projected semimajor axis  $a_1 \sin i = 1.0 R_\odot$ , eccentricity  $e = 0.615$ , and mass function  $f(m) = 0.13 M_\odot$ . No eclipses are observed. We infer that the unseen companion is a compact object with mass comparable to that of the pulsar. In addition to the obvious potential for determining the masses of the pulsar and its companion, this discovery makes feasible a number of studies involving the physics of compact objects, the astrophysics of close binary systems, and special- and general-relativistic effects.

*Subject headings:* binaries — black holes — neutron stars — pulsars — relativity



# Historical overview

**1993 Nobel Prize:** Russel Hulse and Joseph Taylor, “for the discovery of a new type of pulsar, a discovery that has opened up new possibilities for the study of gravitation.”

## DISCOVERY OF A PULSAR IN A BINARY SYSTEM

R. A. HULSE AND J. H. TAYLOR

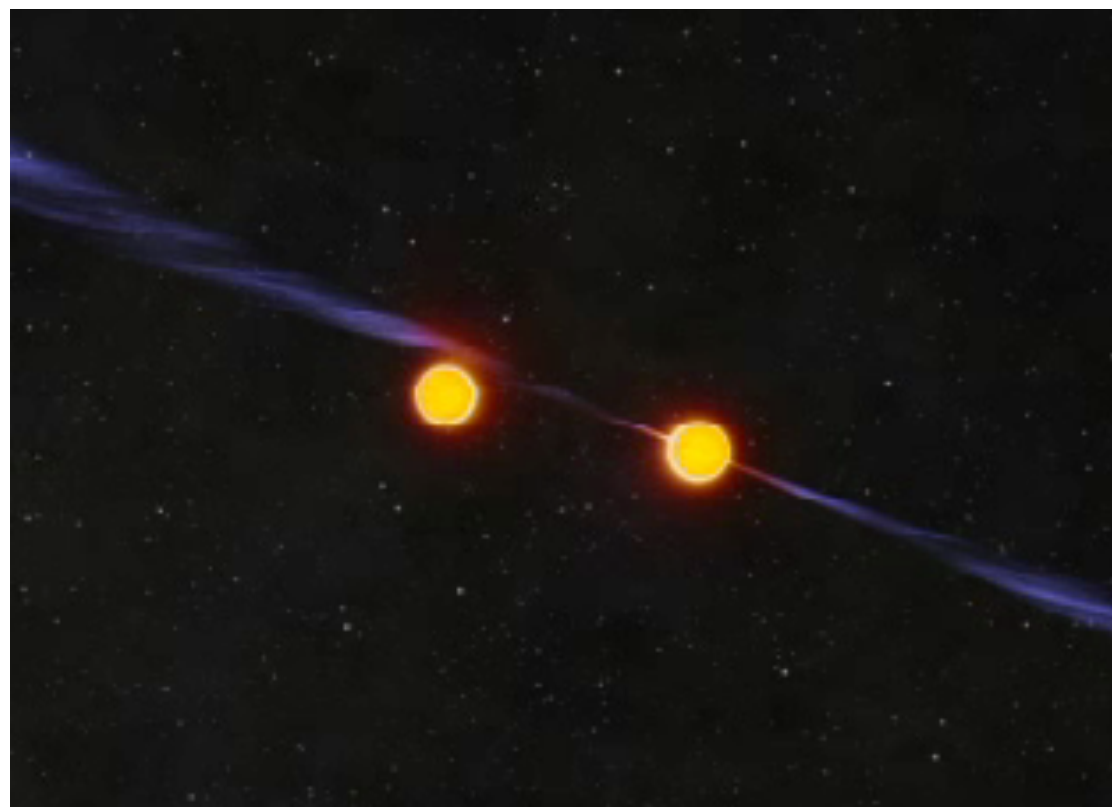
Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Massachusetts, Amherst

Received 1974 October 18

### ABSTRACT

We have detected a pulsar with a pulsation period that varies systematically between 0<sup>o</sup>058967 and 0<sup>o</sup>059045 over a cycle of 0<sup>o</sup>3230. Approximately 200 independent observations over 5-minute intervals have yielded a well-sampled velocity curve which implies a binary orbit with projected semimajor axis  $a_1 \sin i = 1.0 R_{\odot}$ , eccentricity  $e = 0.615$ , and mass function  $f(m) = 0.13 M_{\odot}$ . No eclipses are observed. We infer that the unseen companion is a compact object with mass comparable to that of the pulsar. In addition to the obvious potential for determining the masses of the pulsar and its companion, this discovery makes feasible a number of studies involving the physics of compact objects, the astrophysics of close binary systems, and special- and general-relativistic effects.

*Subject headings:* binaries — black holes — neutron stars — pulsars — relativity



## A NEW TEST OF GENERAL RELATIVITY: GRAVITATIONAL RADIATION AND THE BINARY PULSAR PSR 1913+16

J. H. TAYLOR AND J. M. WEISBERG

Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Massachusetts, Amherst; and Joseph Henry Laboratories, Physics Department, Princeton University

Received 1981 July 2; accepted 1981 August 28

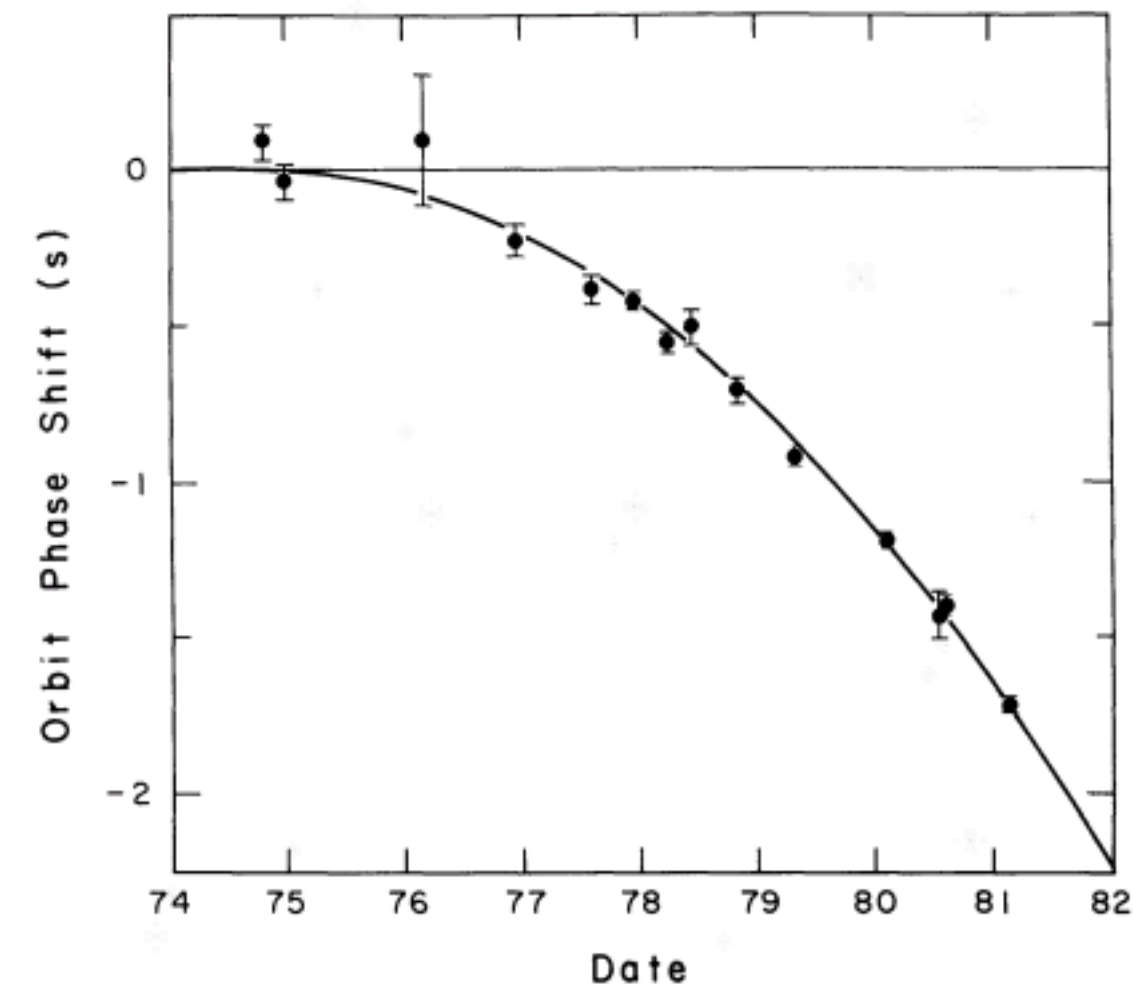


FIG. 6.—Orbital phase residuals, obtained from the data listed in Table 4. If the orbital period had remained constant, the points would be expected to lie on a straight line. The curvature of the parabola drawn through the points corresponds to the general relativistic prediction for loss of energy to gravitational radiation, or  $\dot{P}_b = -2.40 \times 10^{-12}$ .

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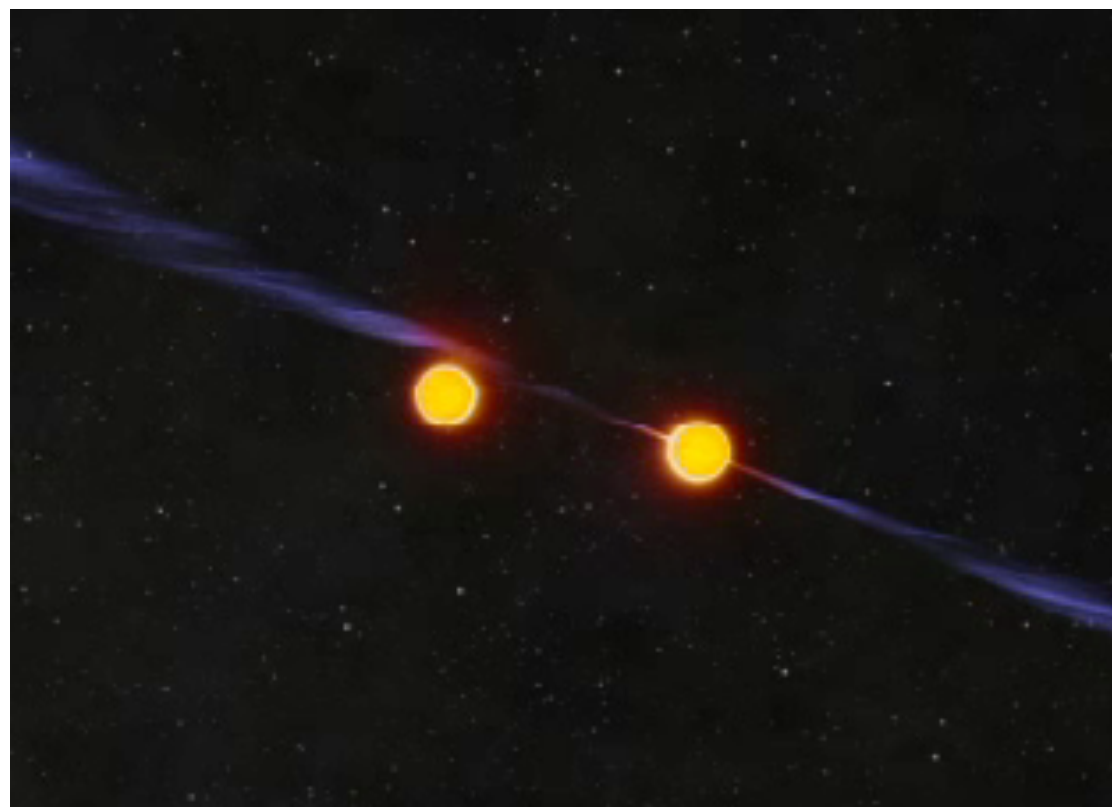
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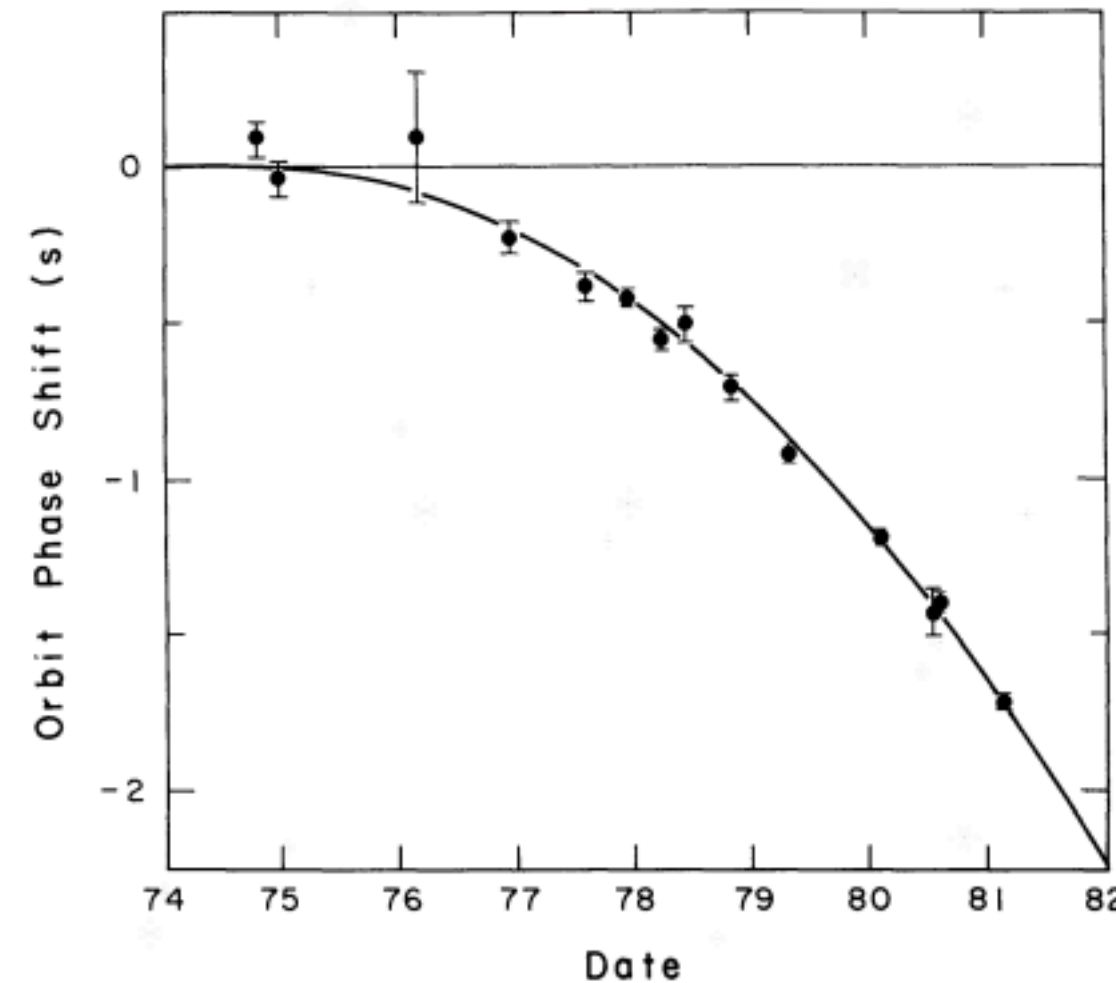


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## Relativistic Binary Pulsar B1913+16: Thirty Years of Observations and Analysis

Joel M. Weisberg

*Dept. of Physics & Astronomy, Carleton College, Northfield, MN*

Joseph H. Taylor

*Dept. of Physics, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ*

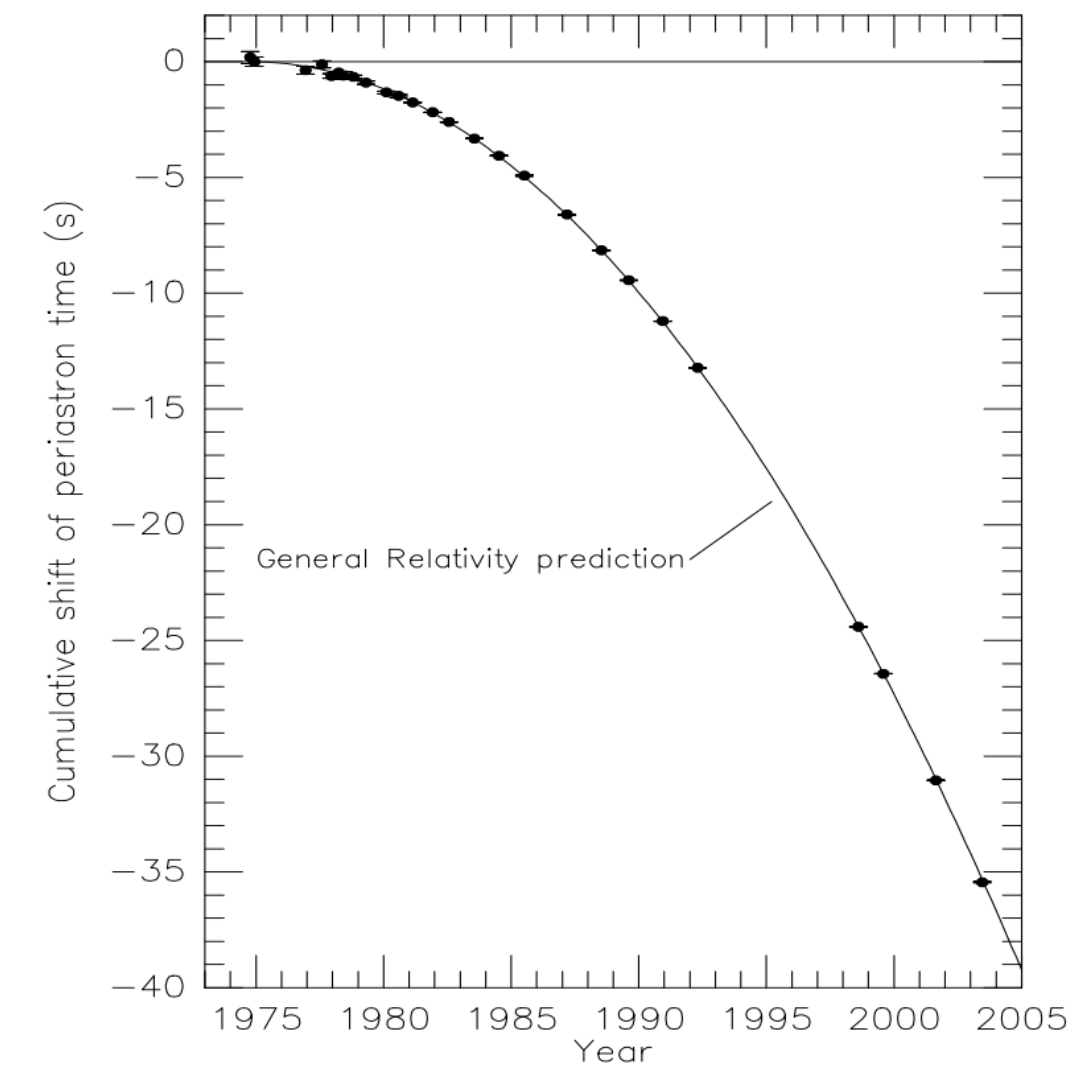
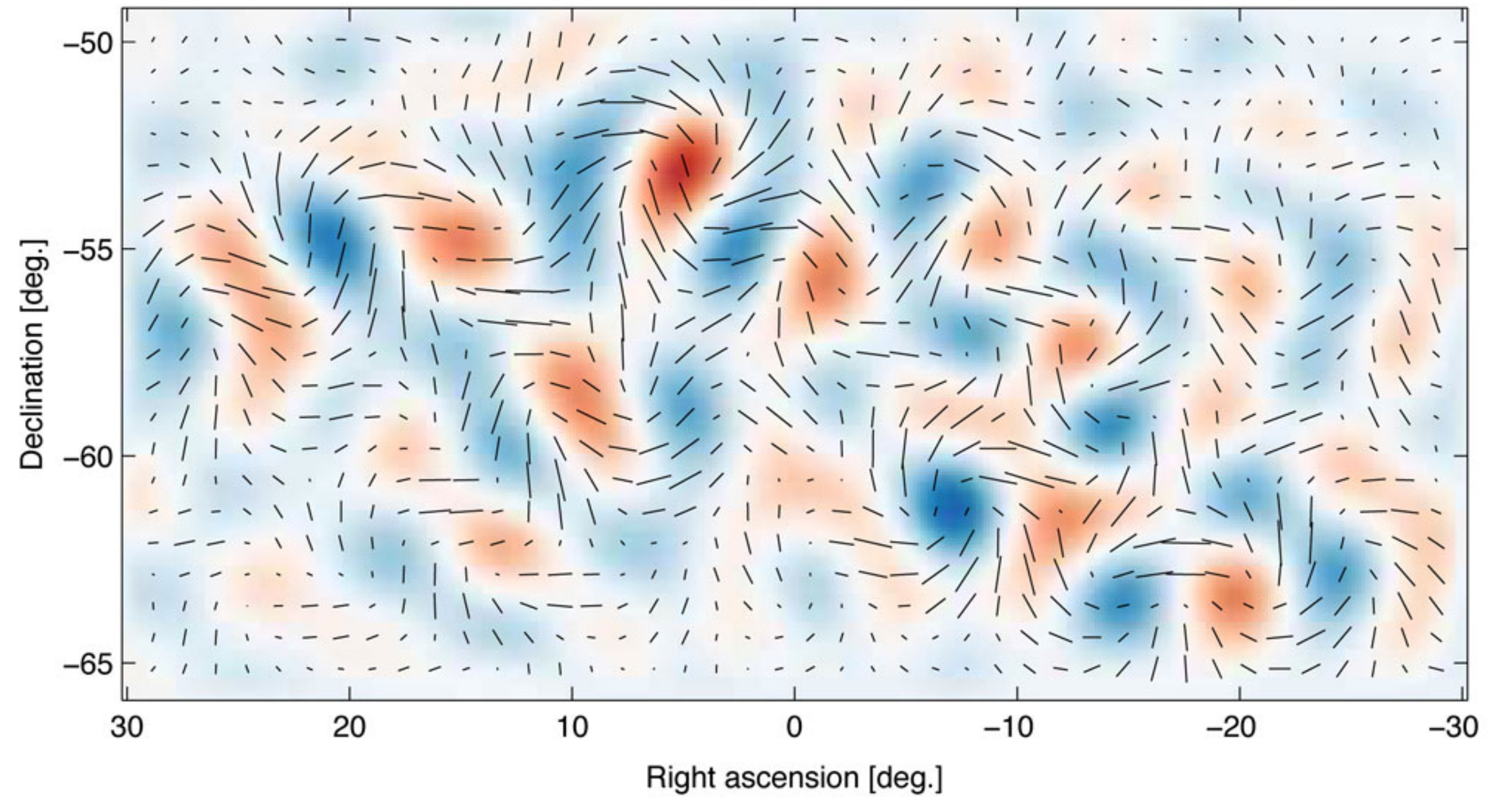


Figure 1. Orbital decay of PSR B1913+16. The data points indicate the observed change in the epoch of periastron with date while the parabola illustrates the theoretically expected change in epoch for a system emitting gravitational radiation, according to general relativity.

# Historical overview

**Spring 2014:** BICEP2 claims to find GWs in the CMB, probably its just dust



# Historical overview

Spring 2014: BICEP2 claims to find GWs in the CMB, probably its just dust

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Astrophysics > Cosmology and Nongalactic Astrophysics

[Submitted on 17 Mar 2014 (this version), latest version 23 Jun 2014 (v3)]

## BICEP2 I: Detection Of B-mode Polarization at Degree Angular Scales

BICEP2 Collaboration: P. A. R Ade (1), R. W. Aikin (2), D. Barkats (3), S. J. Benton (4), C. A. Bischoff (5), J. J. Bock (2,6), J. A. Brevik (2), I. Buder (5), E. Bullock (7), C. D. Dowell (6), L. Duband (8), J. P. Filippini (2), S. Fliescher (9), S. R. Golwala (2), M. Halpern (10), M. Hasselfield (10), S. R. Hildebrandt (2,6), G. C. Hilton (11), V. V. Hristov (2), K. D. Irwin (12,13,11), K. S. Karkare (5), J. P. Kaufman (14), B. G. Keating (14), S. A. Kernasovskiy (12), J. M. Kovac (5), C. L. Kuo (12,13), E. M. Leitch (15), M. Lueker (2), P. Mason (2), C. B. Netterfield (4), H. T. Nguyen (6), R. O'Brient (6), R. W. Ogburn IV (12,13), A. Orlando (14), C. Pryke (9,7), C. D. Reintsema (11), S. Richter (5), R. Schwarz (9), C. D. Sheehy (9,15), Z. K. Staniszewski (2,6), R. V. Sudiwala (1), G. P. Teply (2), J. E. Tolan (12), A. D. Turner (6), A. G. Vieregg (5,15), C. L. Wong (5), K. W. Yoon (12,13) ((1) Cardiff University, (2) Caltech, (3) ALMA, (4) University of Toronto, (5) Harvard/CfA, (6) NASA JPL, (7) Minnesota Institute for Astrophysics, (8) SBT Grenoble, (9) University of Minnesota, (10) University of BritishColumbia, (11) NIST, (12) Stanford University, (13) KIPAC/SLAC, (14) UCSD, (15) University of Chicago)

We report results from the BICEP2 experiment, a Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB) polarimeter specifically designed to search for the signal of inflationary gravitational waves in the B-mode power spectrum around  $l=80$ . The telescope comprised a 26 cm aperture all-cold refracting optical system equipped with a focal plane of 512 antenna coupled transition edge sensor (TES) 150 GHz bolometers each with temperature sensitivity of approx. 300 [this http URL](#)(s). BICEP2 observed from the South Pole for three seasons from 2010 to 2012. A low-foreground region of sky with an effective area of 380 square degrees was observed to a depth of 87 nK-degrees in Stokes Q and U. In this paper we describe the observations, data reduction, maps, simulations and results. We find an excess of B-mode power over the base lensed-LCDM expectation in the range  $30 < l < 150$ , inconsistent with the null hypothesis at a significance of  $> 5\sigma$ . Through jackknife tests and simulations based on detailed calibration measurements we show that systematic contamination is much smaller than the observed excess. We also estimate potential foreground signals and find that available models predict these to be considerably smaller than the observed signal. These foreground models possess no significant cross-correlation with our maps. Additionally, cross-correlating BICEP2 against 100 GHz maps from the BICEP1 experiment, the excess signal is confirmed with  $3\sigma$  significance and its spectral index is found to be consistent with that of the CMB, disfavoring synchrotron or dust at  $2.3\sigma$  and  $2.2\sigma$ , respectively. The observed B-mode power spectrum is well-fit by a lensed-LCDM + tensor theoretical model with tensor/scalar ratio  $r = 0.20^{+0.07}_{-0.05}$ , with  $r=0$  disfavored at  $7.0\sigma$ . Subtracting the best available estimate for foreground dust modifies the likelihood slightly so that  $r=0$  is disfavored at  $5.9\sigma$ .

# Historical overview

Spring 2014: BICEP2 claims to find GWs in the CMB, probably its just dust

arXiv > astro-ph > arXiv:1403.3985v3 Search...  
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Astrophysics > Cosmology and Nongalactic Astrophysics

*[Submitted on 17 Mar 2014 (v1), last revised 23 Jun 2014 (this version, v3)]*

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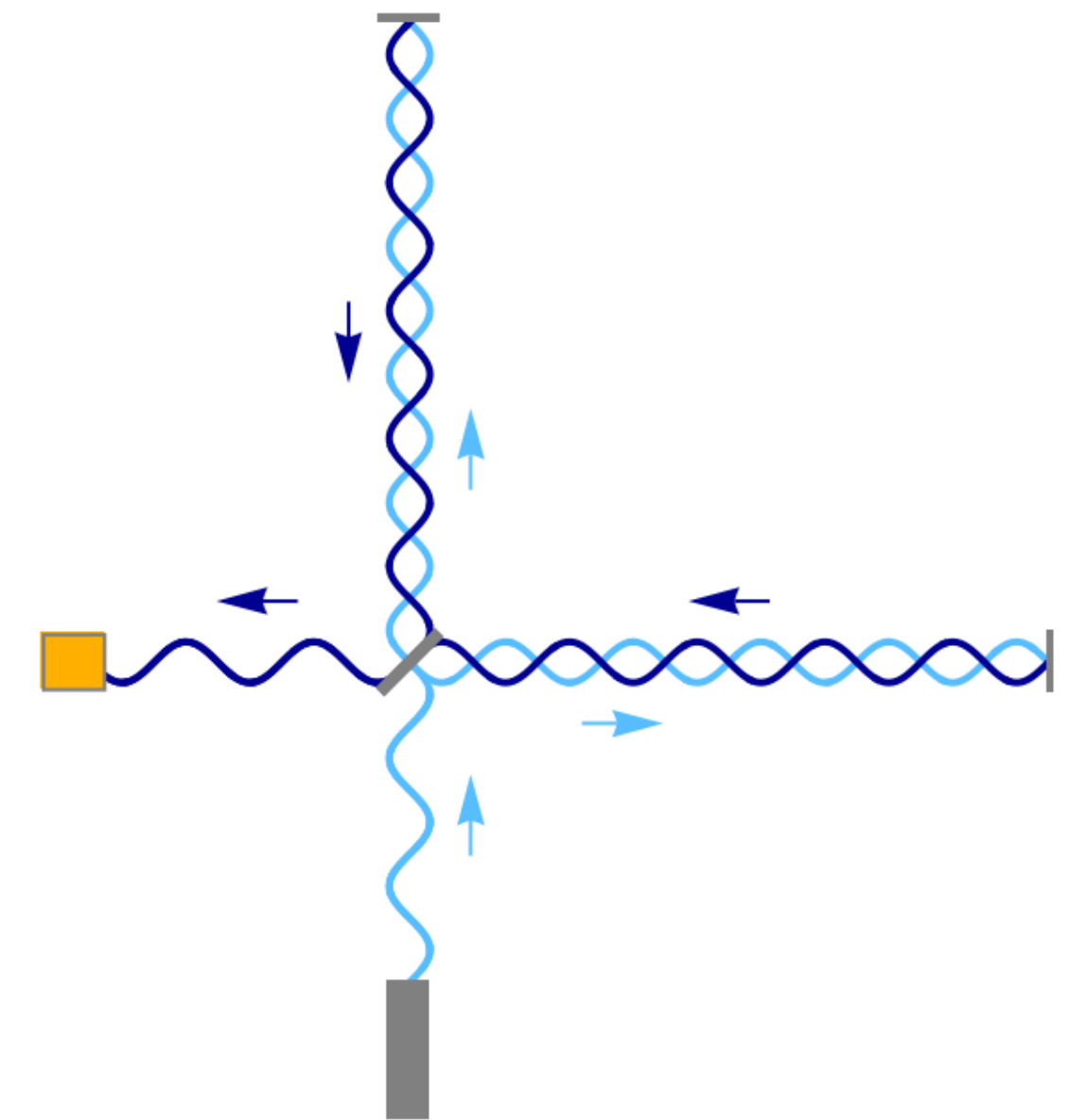
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# Historical overview

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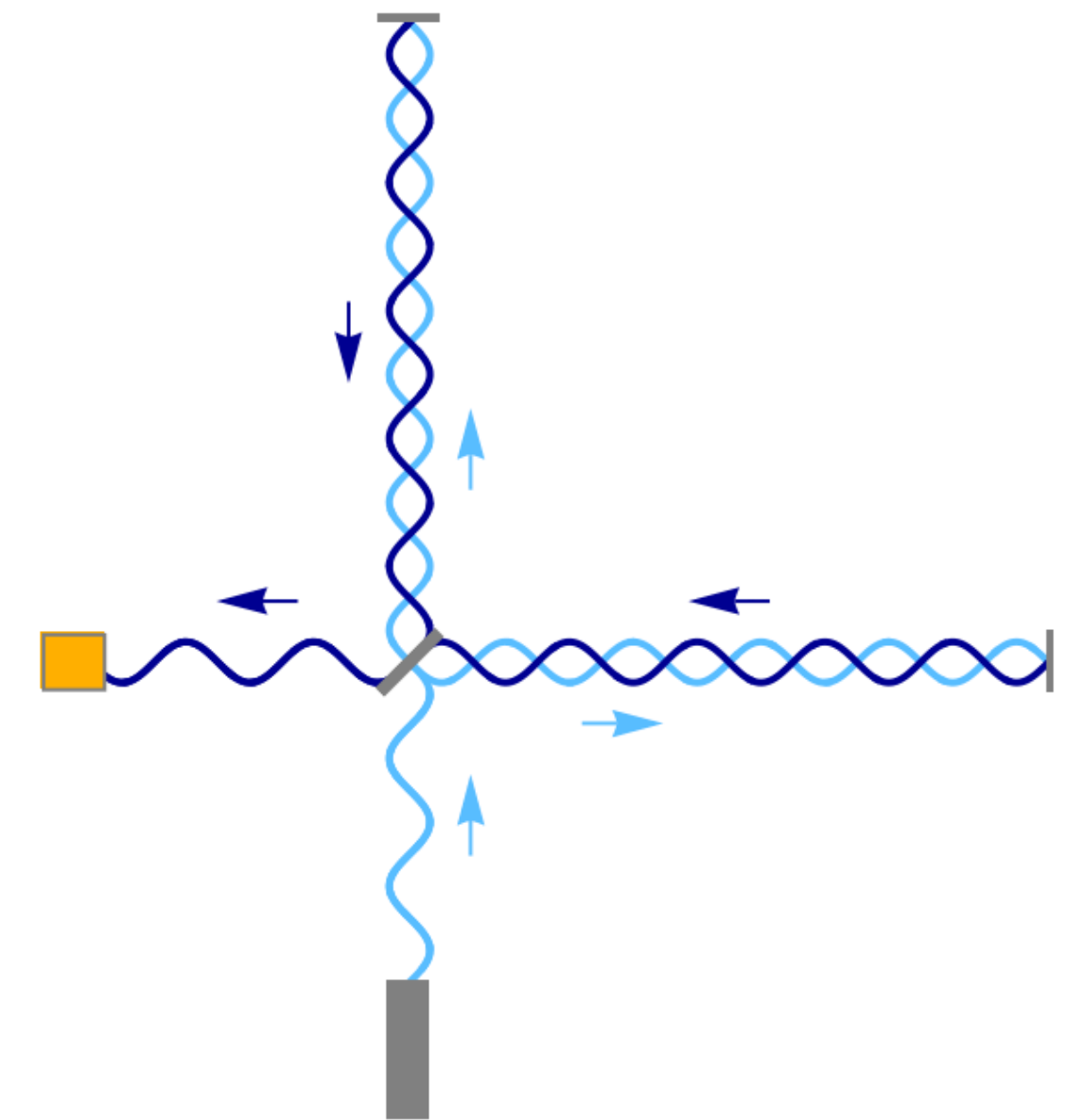
**1970s-1980s:** Interferometer detectors are proposed



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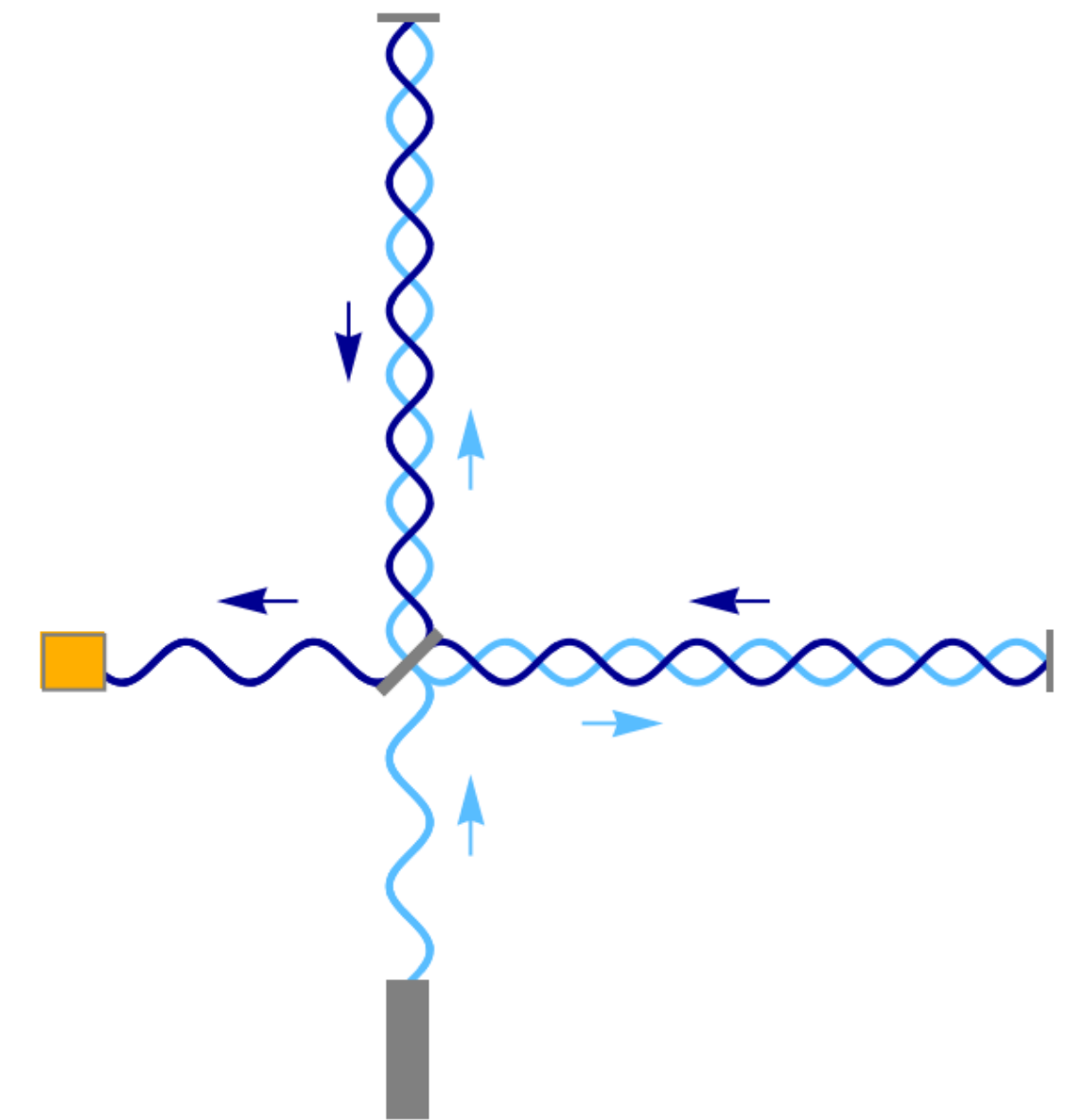


# Historical overview

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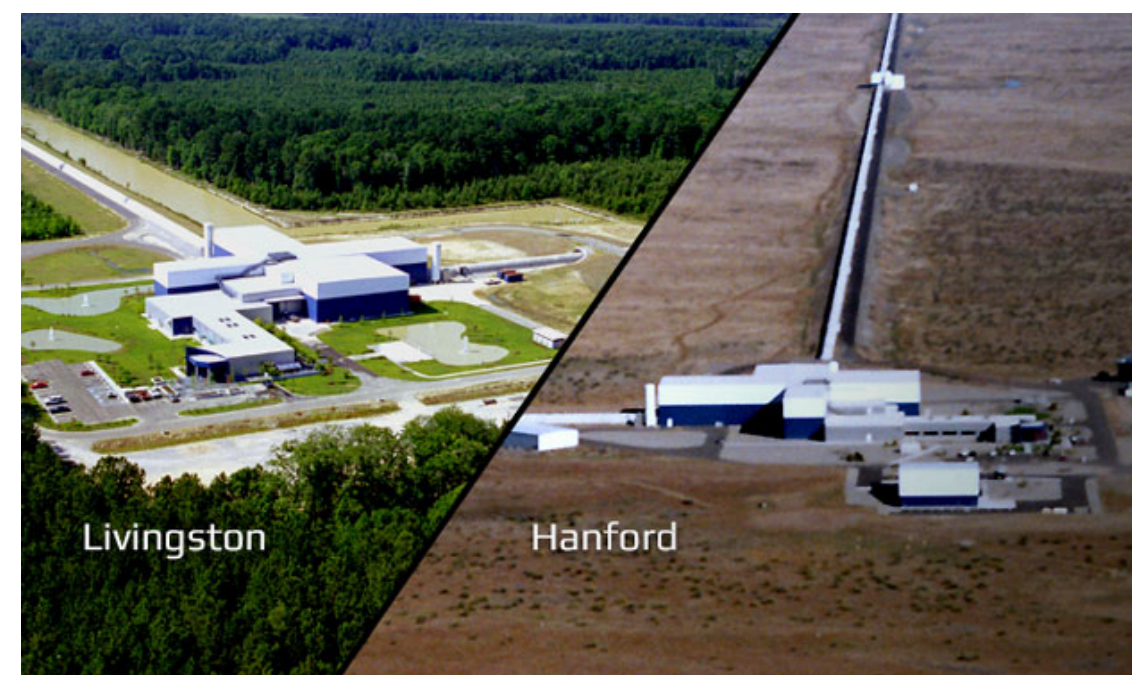
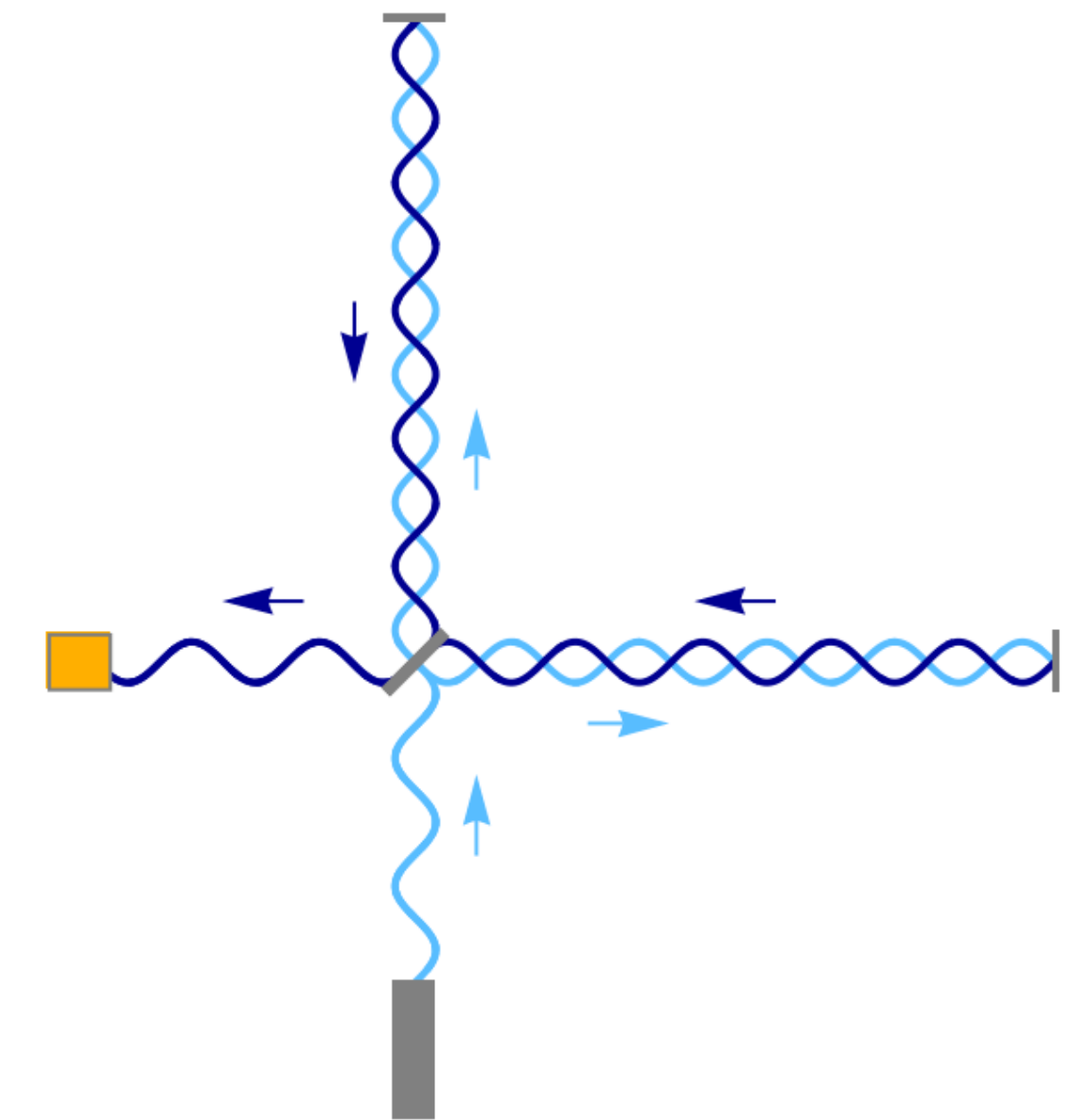
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**1989:** Virgo is founded

**Late 1990s-early 2000s:** First-generation detectors are built (LIGO, Virgo, GEO)



LIGO



Virgo

# Historical overview

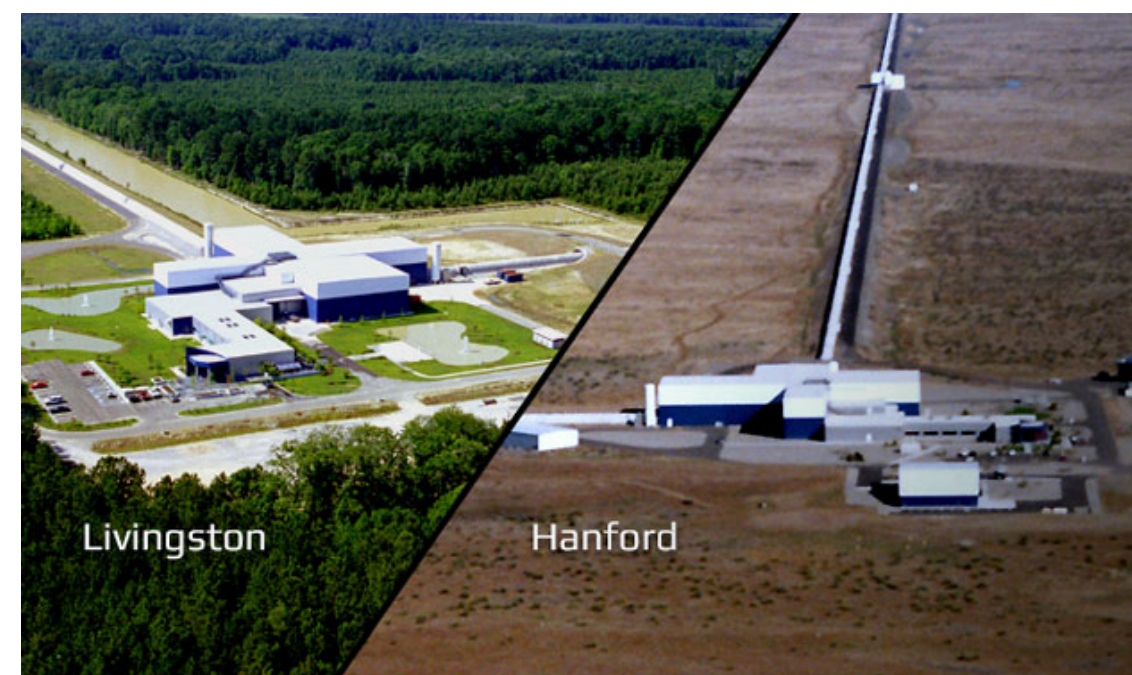
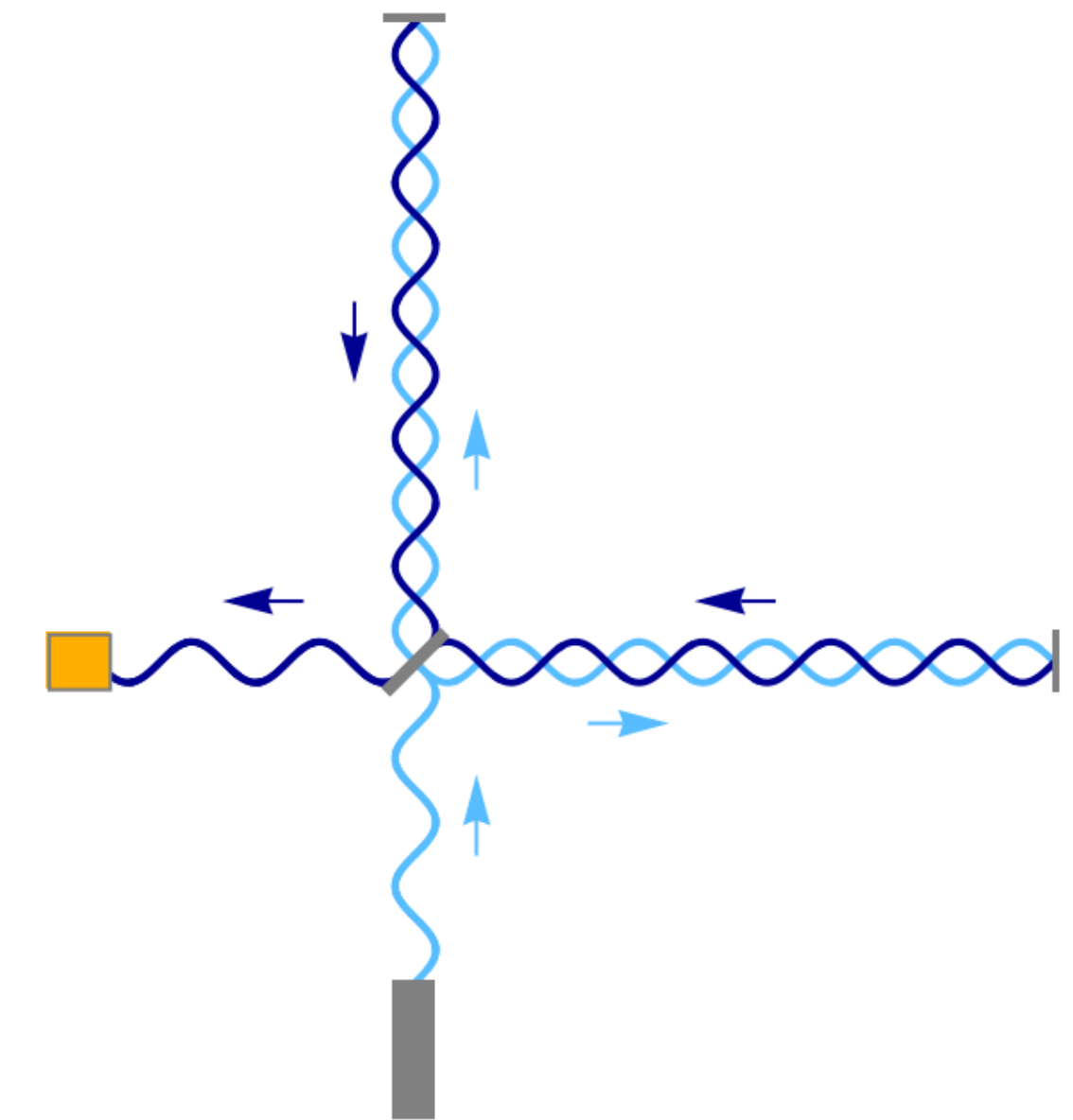
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LIGO



Virgo

# Historical overview

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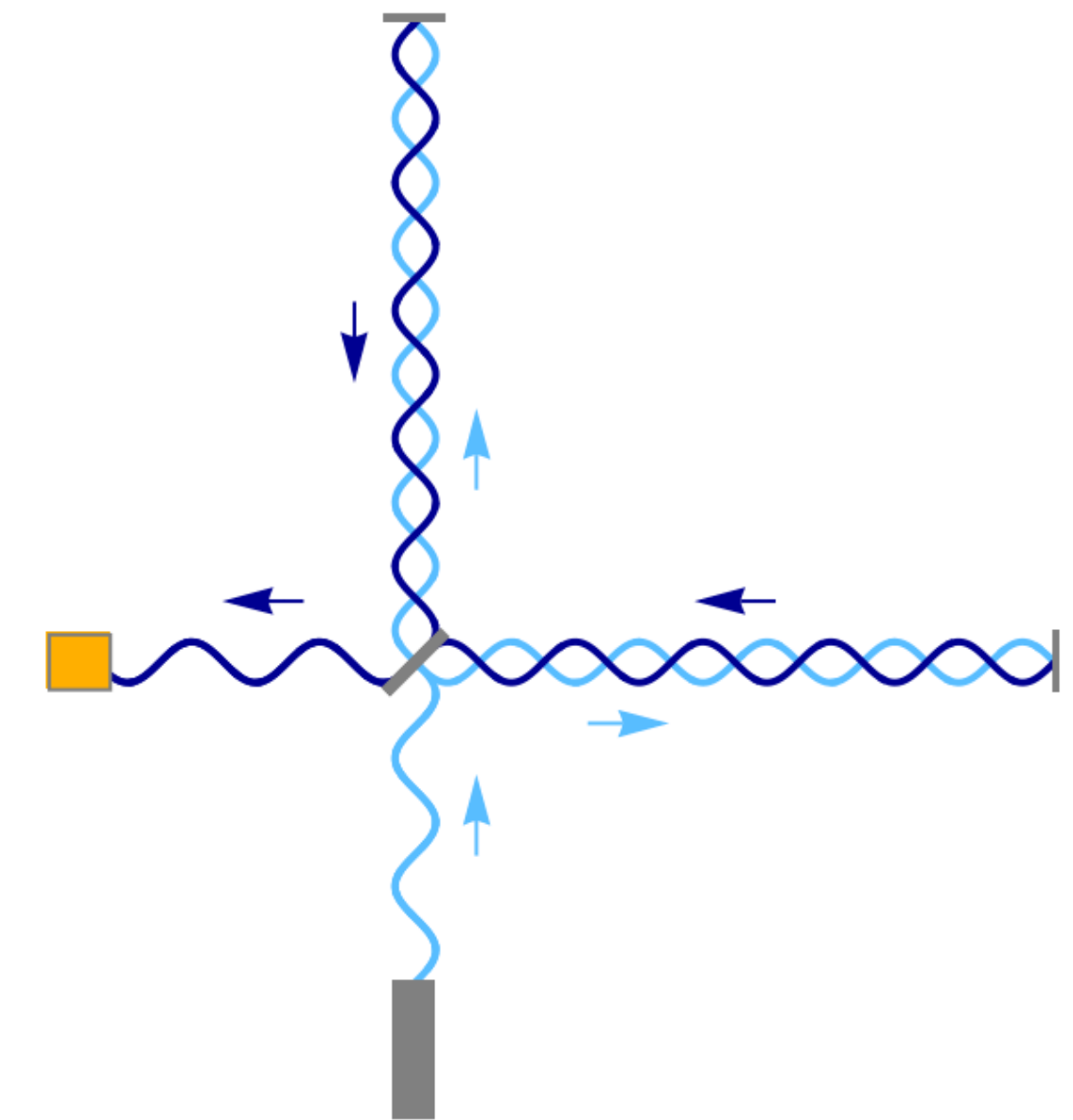
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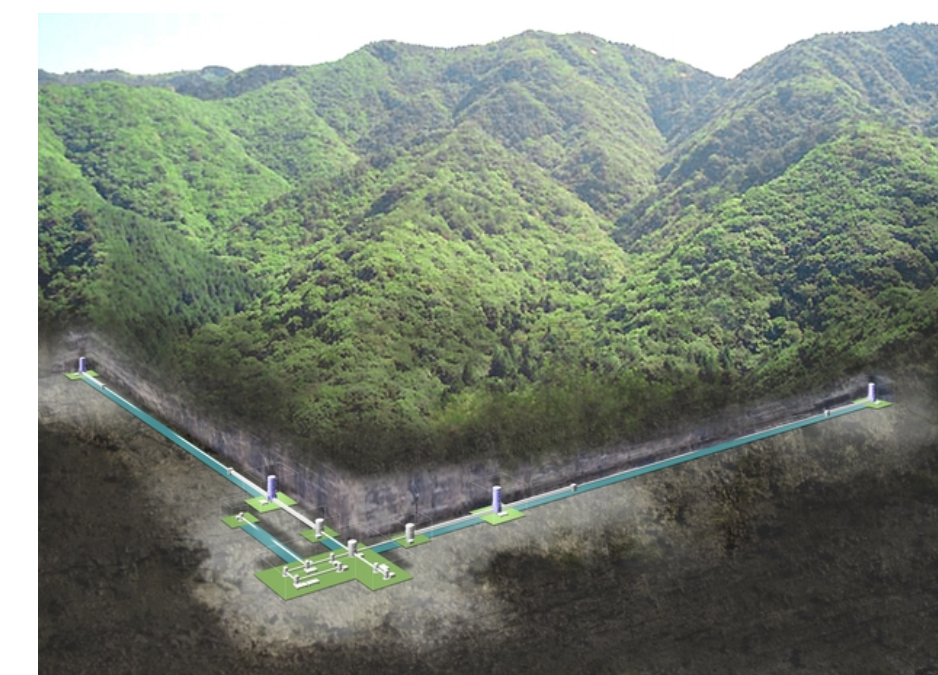
**2020:** KAGRA is completed in Japan, LIGO-Virgo-KAGRA Collaboration



LIGO



Virgo

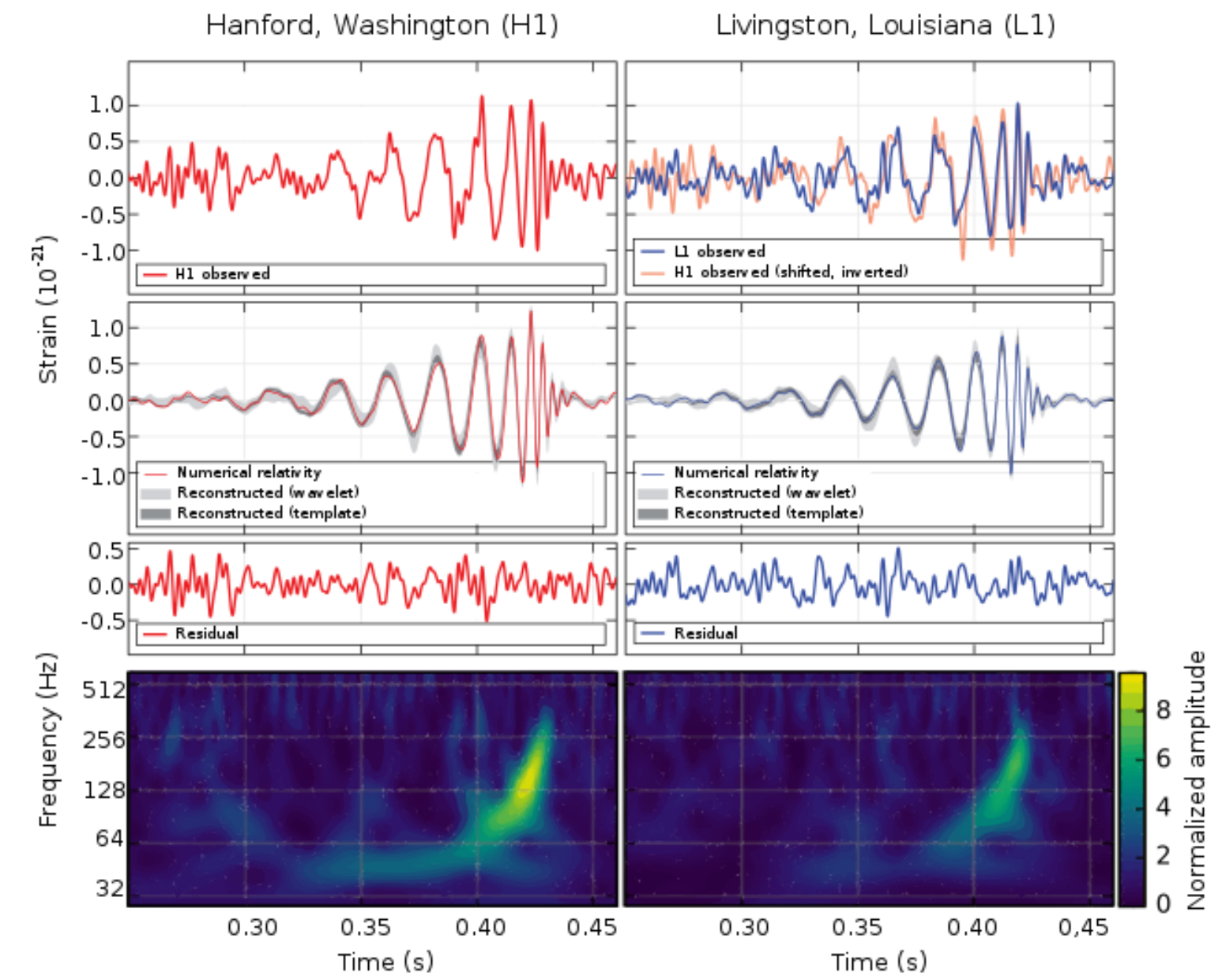


KAGRA

# Historical overview

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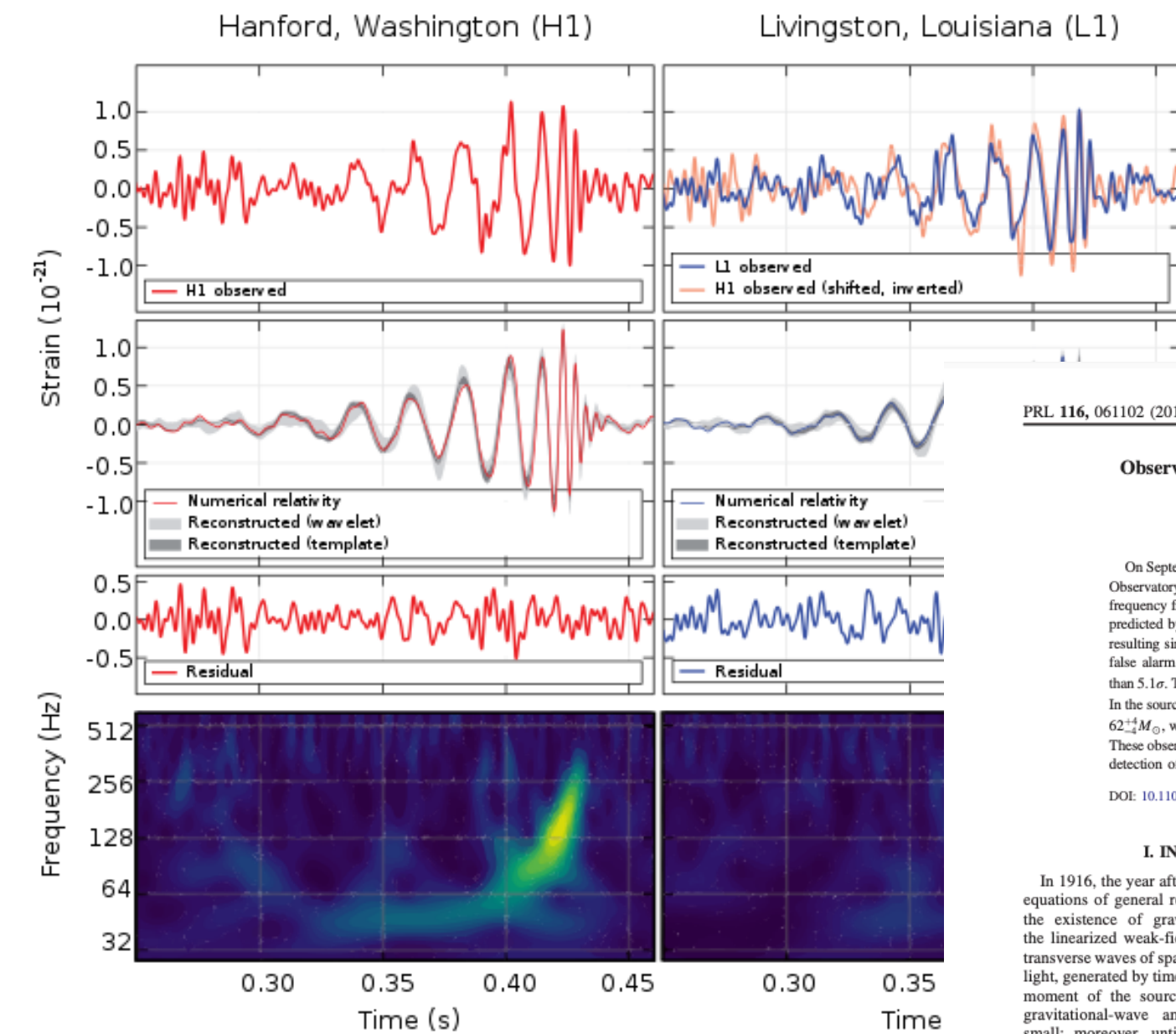
**September 2015:** The first direct observation of a gravitational wave: GW150914



# Historical overview

**September 2015:** The first direct observation of a gravitational wave: GW150914

**February 2016:** The detection is announced to the public



Selected for a Viewpoint in *Physics*  
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 week ending 12 FEBRUARY 2016

## Observation of Gravitational Waves from a Binary Black Hole Merger

B. P. Abbott *et al.*<sup>\*</sup>  
 (LIGO Scientific Collaboration and Virgo Collaboration)  
 (Received 21 January 2016; published 11 February 2016)

On September 14, 2015 at 09:50:45 UTC the two detectors of the Laser Interferometer Gravitational-Wave Observatory simultaneously observed a transient gravitational-wave signal. The signal sweeps upwards in frequency from 35 to 250 Hz with a peak gravitational-wave strain of  $1.0 \times 10^{-21}$ . It matches the waveform predicted by general relativity for the inspiral and merger of a pair of black holes and the ringdown of the resulting single black hole. The signal was observed with a matched-filter signal-to-noise ratio of 24 and a false alarm rate estimated to be less than 1 event per 203 000 years, equivalent to a significance greater than  $5.1\sigma$ . The source lies at a luminosity distance of  $410^{+180}_{-180}$  Mpc corresponding to a redshift  $z = 0.09^{+0.03}_{-0.03}$ . In the source frame, the initial black hole masses are  $36^{+5}_{-8} M_{\odot}$  and  $29^{+4}_{-4} M_{\odot}$ , and the final black hole mass is  $62^{+4}_{-4} M_{\odot}$ , with  $3.0^{+0.5}_{-0.5} M_{\odot} c^2$  radiated in gravitational waves. All uncertainties define 90% credible intervals. These observations demonstrate the existence of binary stellar-mass black hole systems. This is the first direct detection of gravitational waves and the first observation of a binary black hole merger.

DOI: 10.1103/PhysRevLett.116.061102

### I. INTRODUCTION

In 1916, the year after the final formulation of the field equations of general relativity, Albert Einstein predicted the existence of gravitational waves. He found that the linearized weak-field equations had wave solutions: transverse waves of spatial strain that travel at the speed of light, generated by time variations of the mass quadrupole moment of the source [1,2]. Einstein understood that gravitational-wave amplitudes would be remarkably small; moreover, until the Chapel Hill conference in 1957 there was significant debate about the physical reality of gravitational waves [3].

Also in 1916, Schwarzschild published a solution for the field equations [4] that was later understood to describe a black hole [5,6], and in 1963 Kerr generalized the solution to rotating black holes [7]. Starting in the 1970s theoretical work led to the understanding of black hole quasinormal modes [8–10], and in the 1990s higher-order post-Newtonian calculations [11] preceded extensive analytical studies of relativistic two-body dynamics [12,13]. These advances, together with numerical relativity breakthroughs in the past decade [14–16], have enabled modeling of binary black hole mergers and accurate predictions of their gravitational waveforms. While numerous black hole candidates have now been identified through electromagnetic observations [17–19], black hole mergers have not previously been observed.

The discovery of the binary pulsar system PSR B1513+16 by Hulse and Taylor [20] and subsequent observations of its energy loss by Taylor and Weisberg [21] demonstrated the existence of gravitational waves. This discovery, along with emerging astrophysical understanding [22], led to the recognition that direct observations of the amplitude and phase of gravitational waves would enable studies of additional relativistic systems and provide new tests of general relativity, especially in the dynamic strong-field regime.

Experiments to detect gravitational waves began with Weber and his resonant mass detectors in the 1960s [23], followed by an international network of cryogenic resonant detectors [24]. Interferometric detectors were first suggested in the early 1960s [25] and the 1970s [26]. A study of the noise and performance of such detectors [27], and further concepts to improve them [28], led to proposals for long-baseline broadband laser interferometers with the potential for significantly increased sensitivity [29–32]. By the early 2000s, a set of initial detectors was completed, including TAMA 300 in Japan, GEO 600 in Germany, the Laser Interferometer Gravitational-Wave Observatory (LIGO) in the United States, and Virgo in Italy. Combinations of these detectors made joint observations from 2002 through 2011, setting upper limits on a variety of gravitational-wave sources while evolving into a global network. In 2015, Advanced LIGO became the first of a significantly more sensitive network of advanced detectors to begin observations [33–36].

A century after the fundamental predictions of Einstein and Schwarzschild, we report the first direct detection of gravitational waves and the first direct observation of a binary black hole system merging to form a single black hole. Our observations provide unique access to the

<sup>\*</sup>Full author list given at the end of the article.

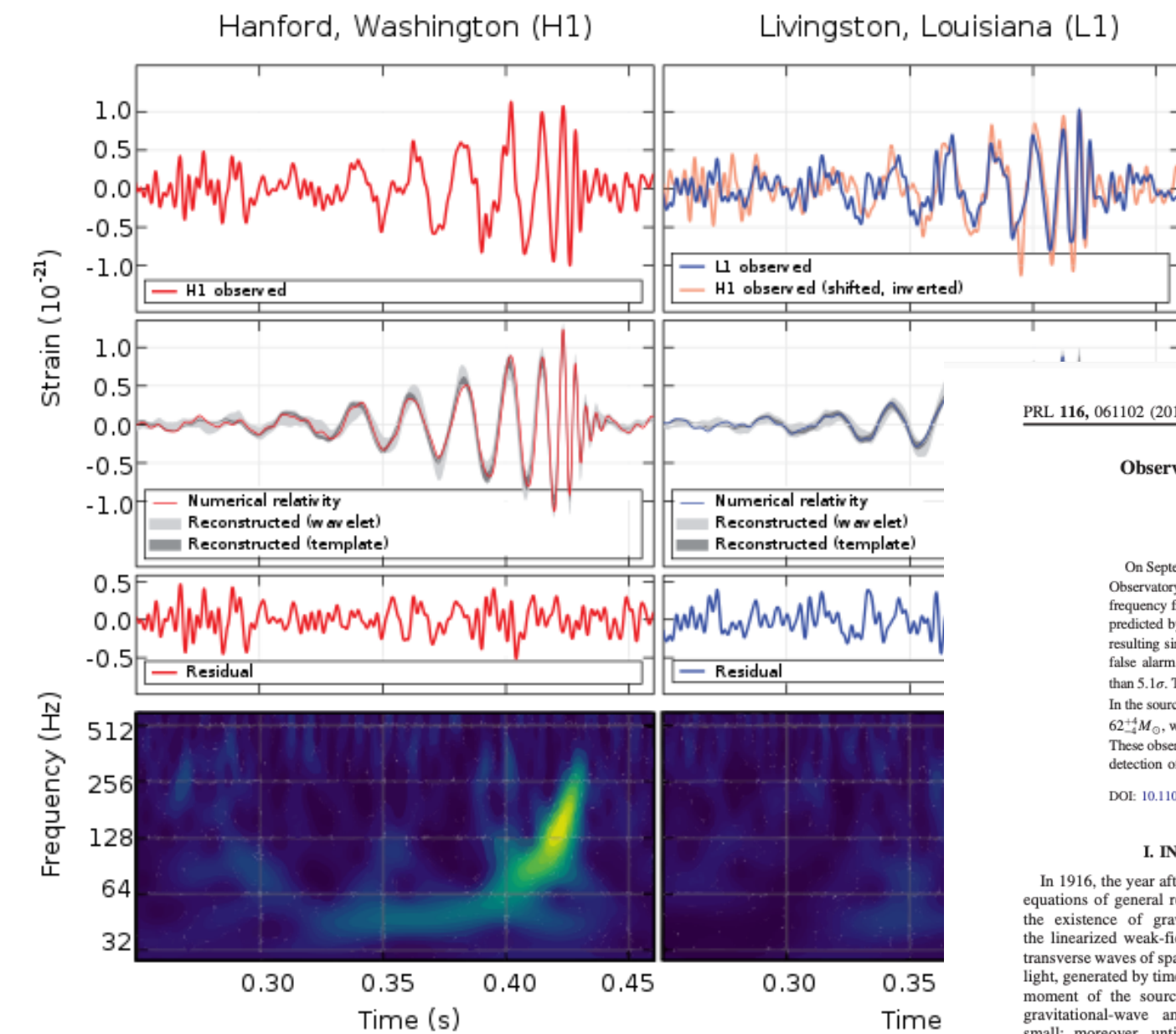
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# Historical overview

**September 2015:** The first direct observation of a gravitational wave: GW150914

**February 2016:** The detection is announced to the public

**December 2017:** The Nobel prize is awarded to Rainer Weiss, Barry Barish, Kip Thorne, “for decisive contributions to the LIGO detector and the observation of gravitational waves”



Selected for a Viewpoint in Physics  
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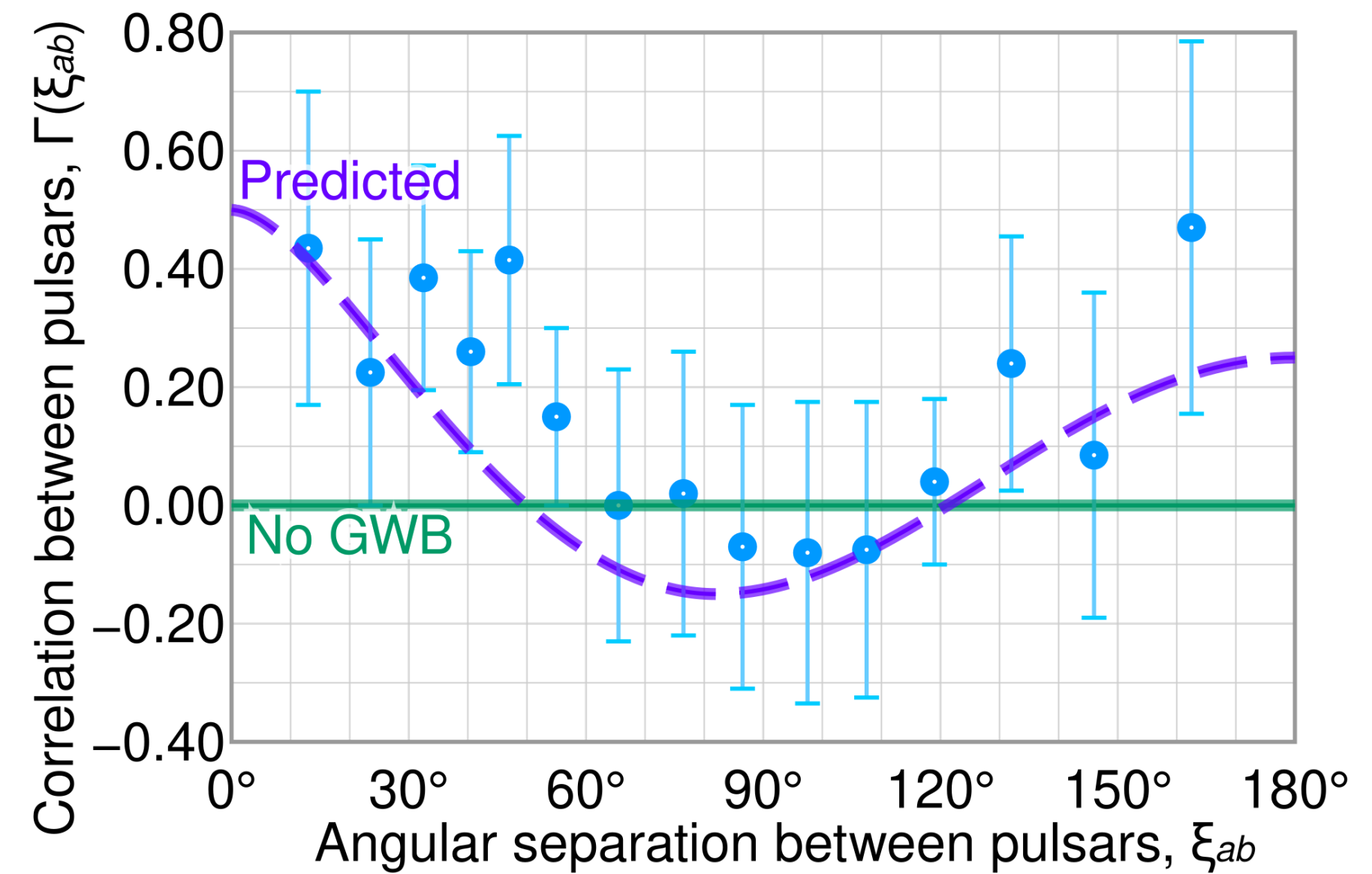
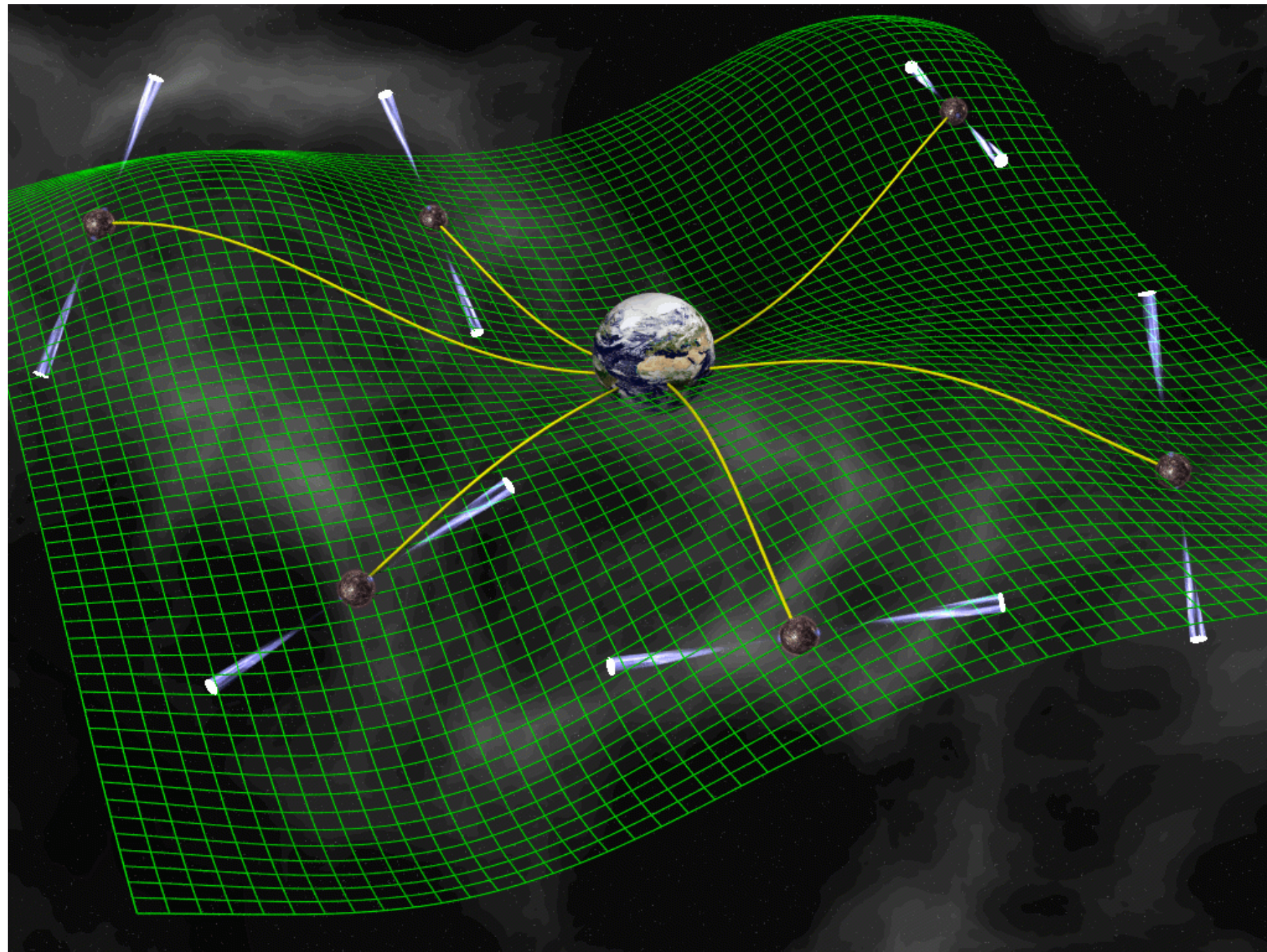
Published by the American Physical Society



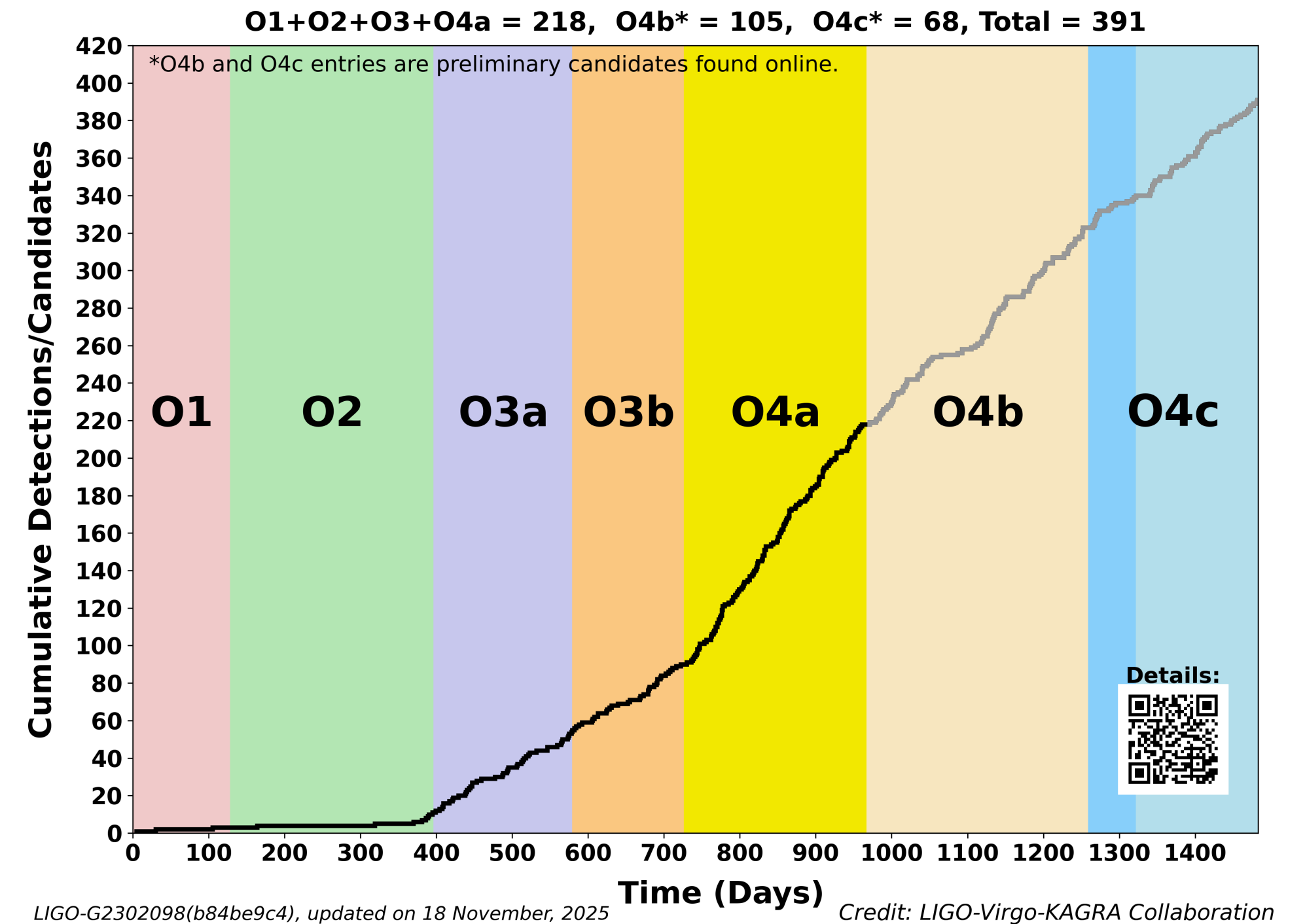
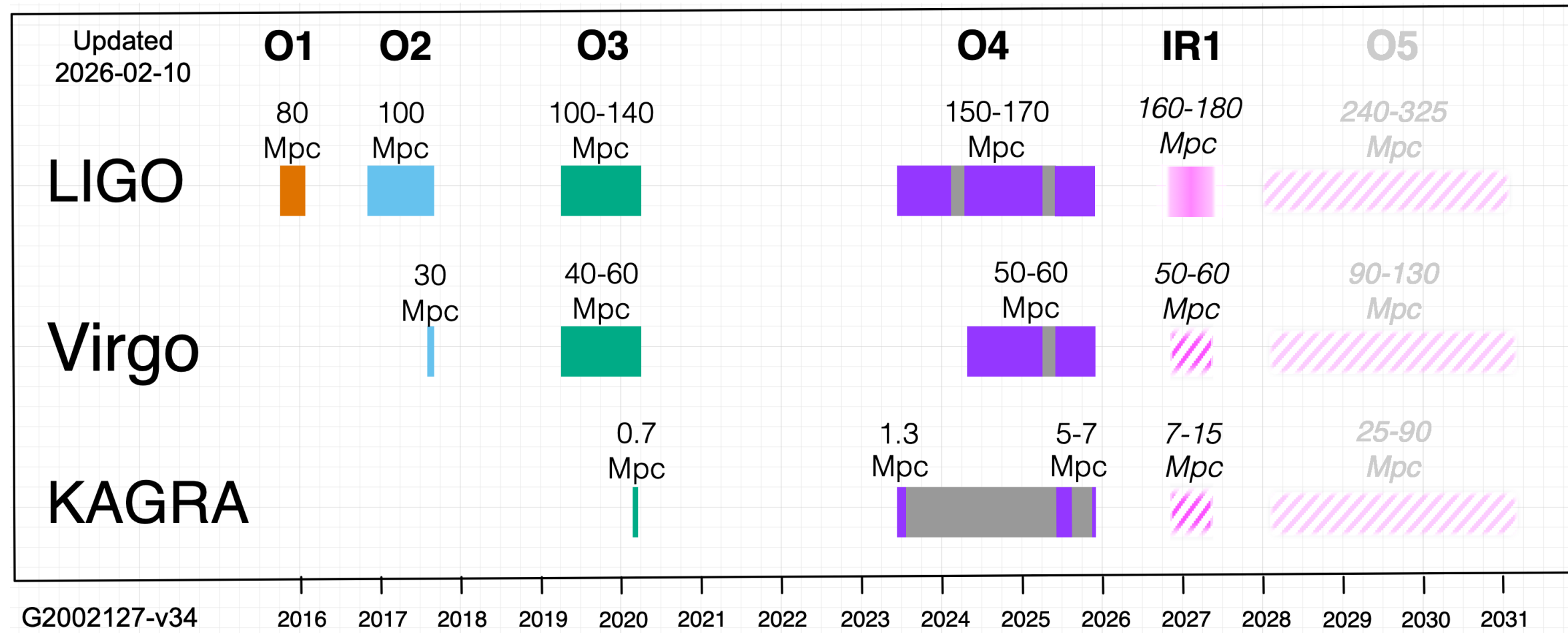
Illustrations: Niklas Zinnert / iStockphoto, iStockphoto Media AB 2017

# Historical overview

**June 2023:** Pulsar timing array collaborations ( NANOGrav, EPTA, PPTA, InPTA, CPTA) find evidence for a gravitational wave background



# The LVK Collaboration today



## Gravitational Wave Transient Catalogs

GWTC-1: O1 + O2

GWTC-2: O1 + O2 + O3a

GWTC-3: O1 + O2 + O3a + O3b

GWTC-4: O1 + O2 + O3a + O3b + O4a

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$$h_{\mu\nu} \ll 1$$

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Trace reverse:  $\bar{h}_{\mu\nu} = h_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}h\eta_{\mu\nu}$   
Lorenz gauge:  $\partial_{\mu}\bar{h}^{\mu\nu} = 0$

$$\square \bar{h}_{\mu\nu} = -\frac{16\pi G}{c^4}T^{\mu\nu}$$

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Propagation  
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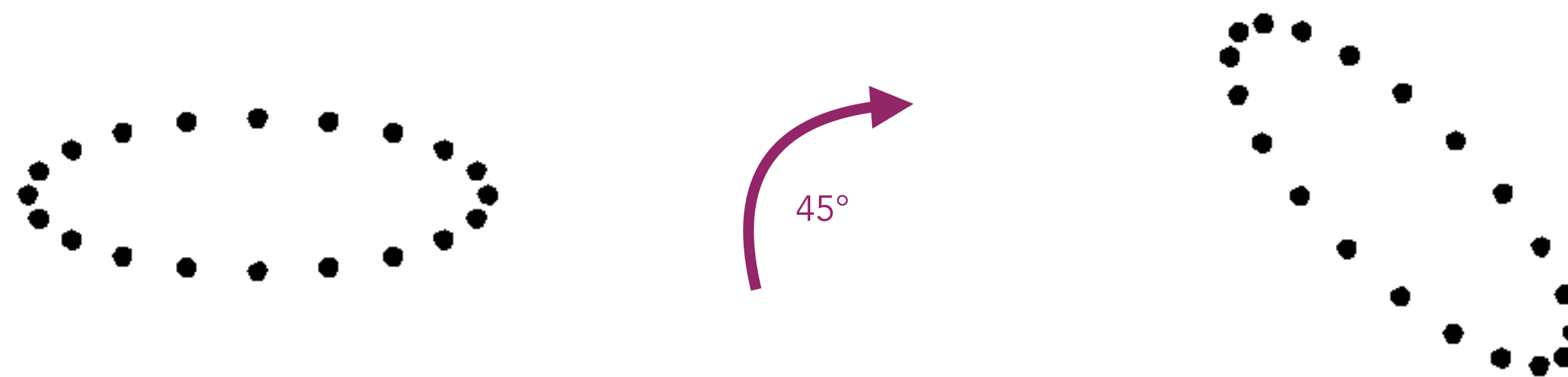
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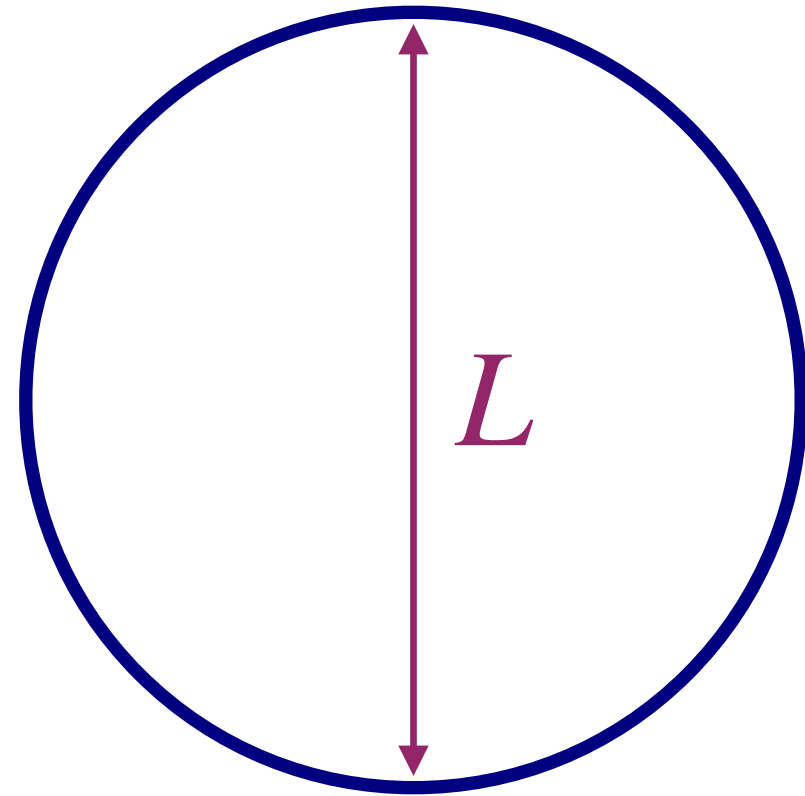
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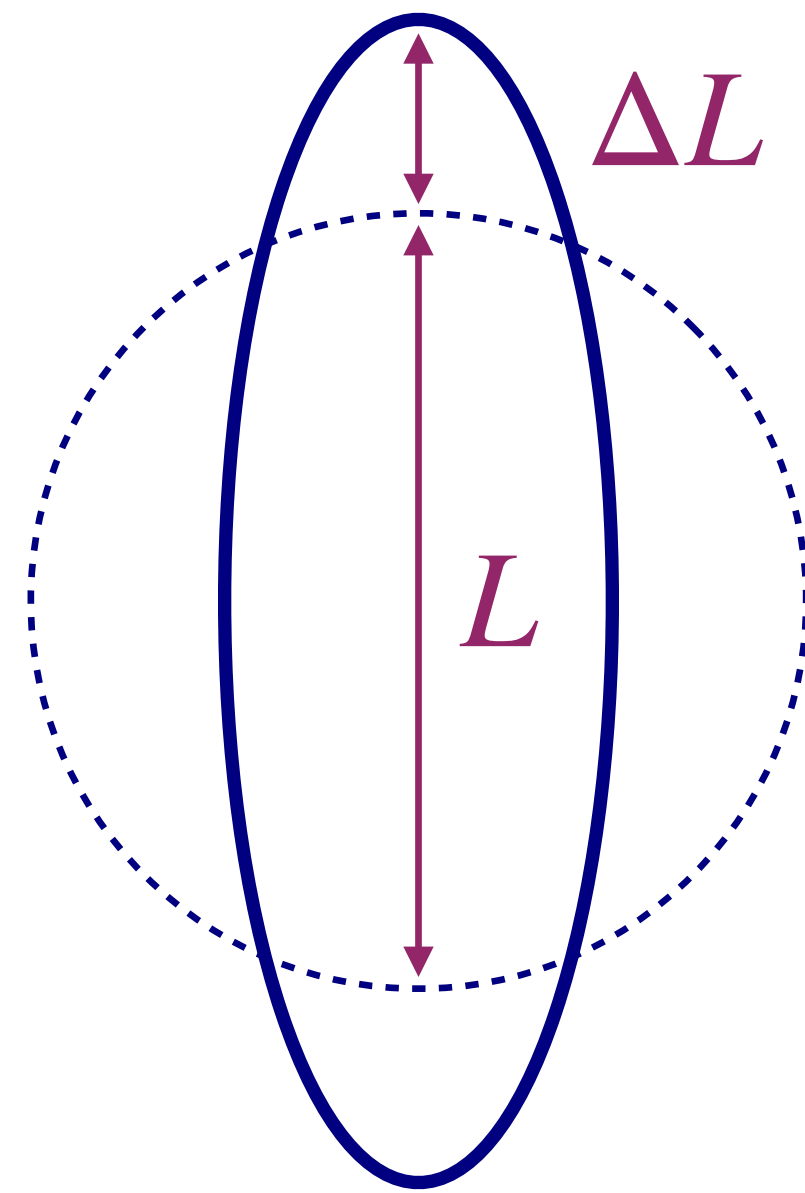
Propagation  
direction:  $\odot$

**What is  $h$ ?**

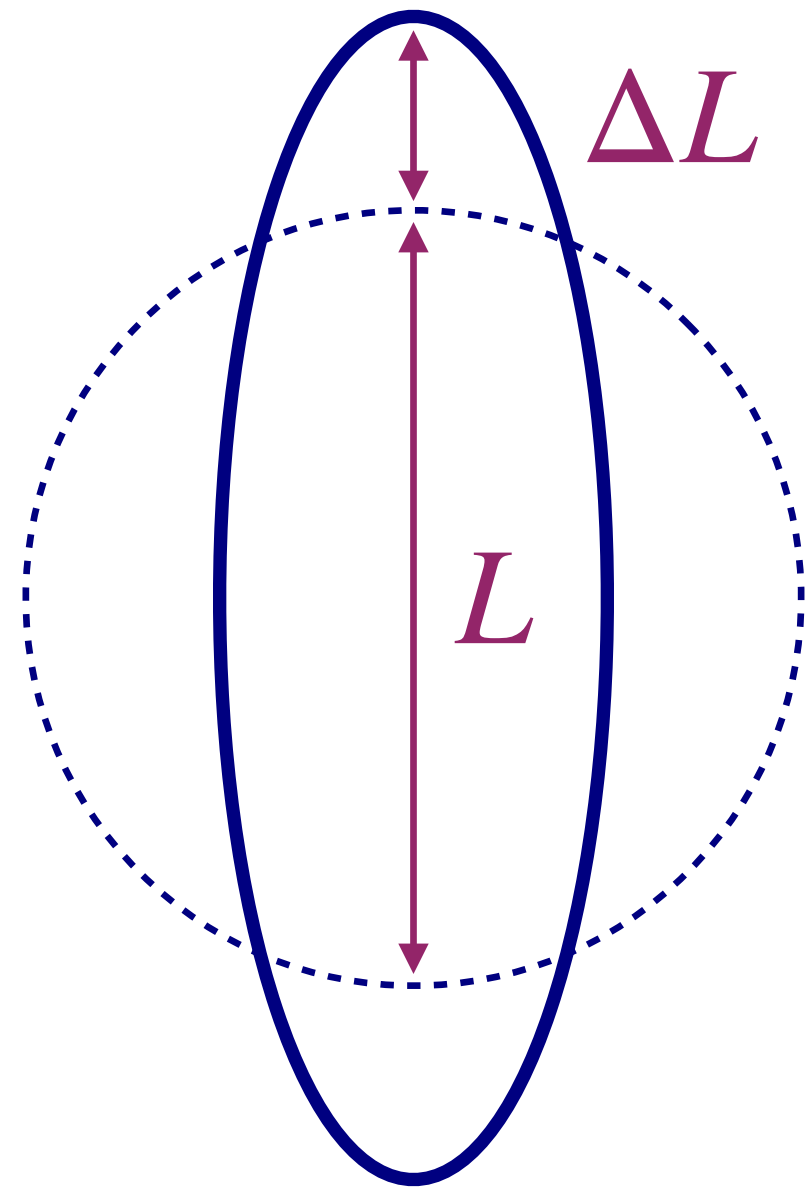
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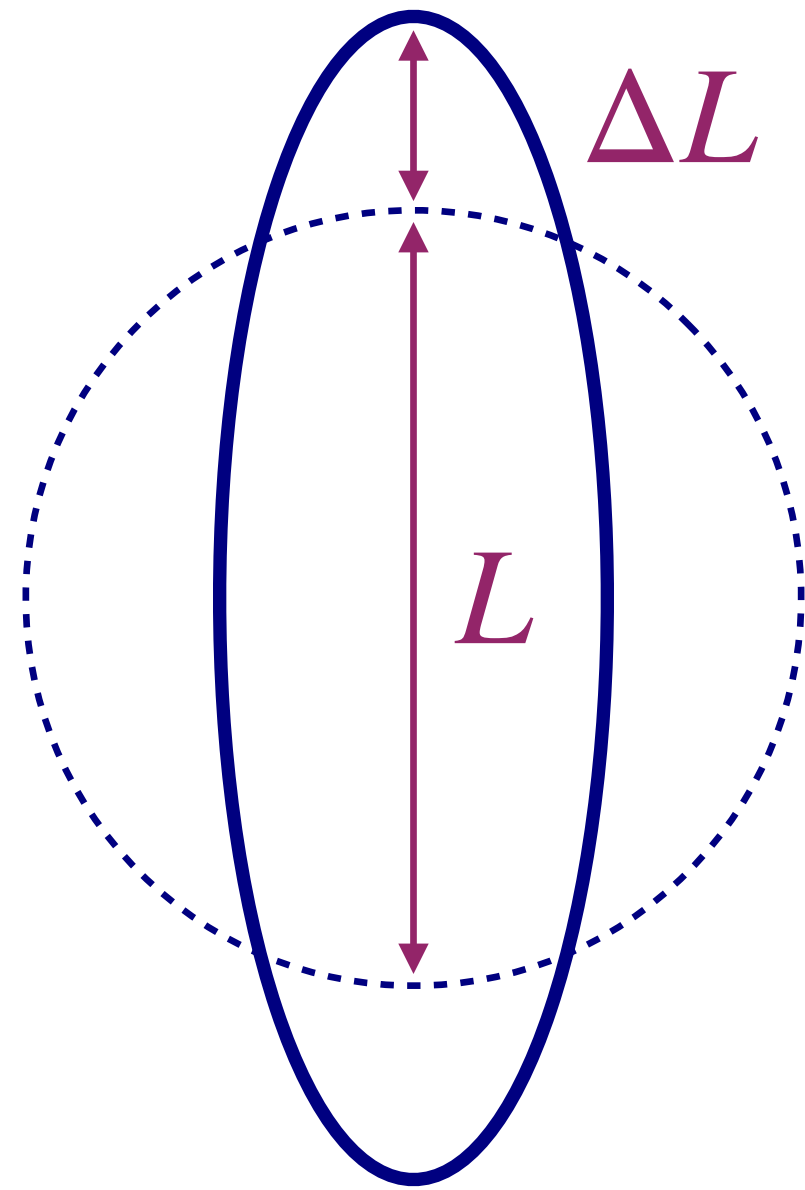


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$$h \sim \frac{\Delta L}{L}$$

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$$h \sim \frac{\Delta L}{L} \sim 10^{-22} \quad (\text{For compact binaries observed by the LVK Collaboration})$$

# Detector response

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$$h_{+,x}(t) = h_{+,x}(t, m_1, m_2, \chi_1, \chi_2, t_c, \phi_c, D_L, l, \dots)$$

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intrinsic      extrinsic

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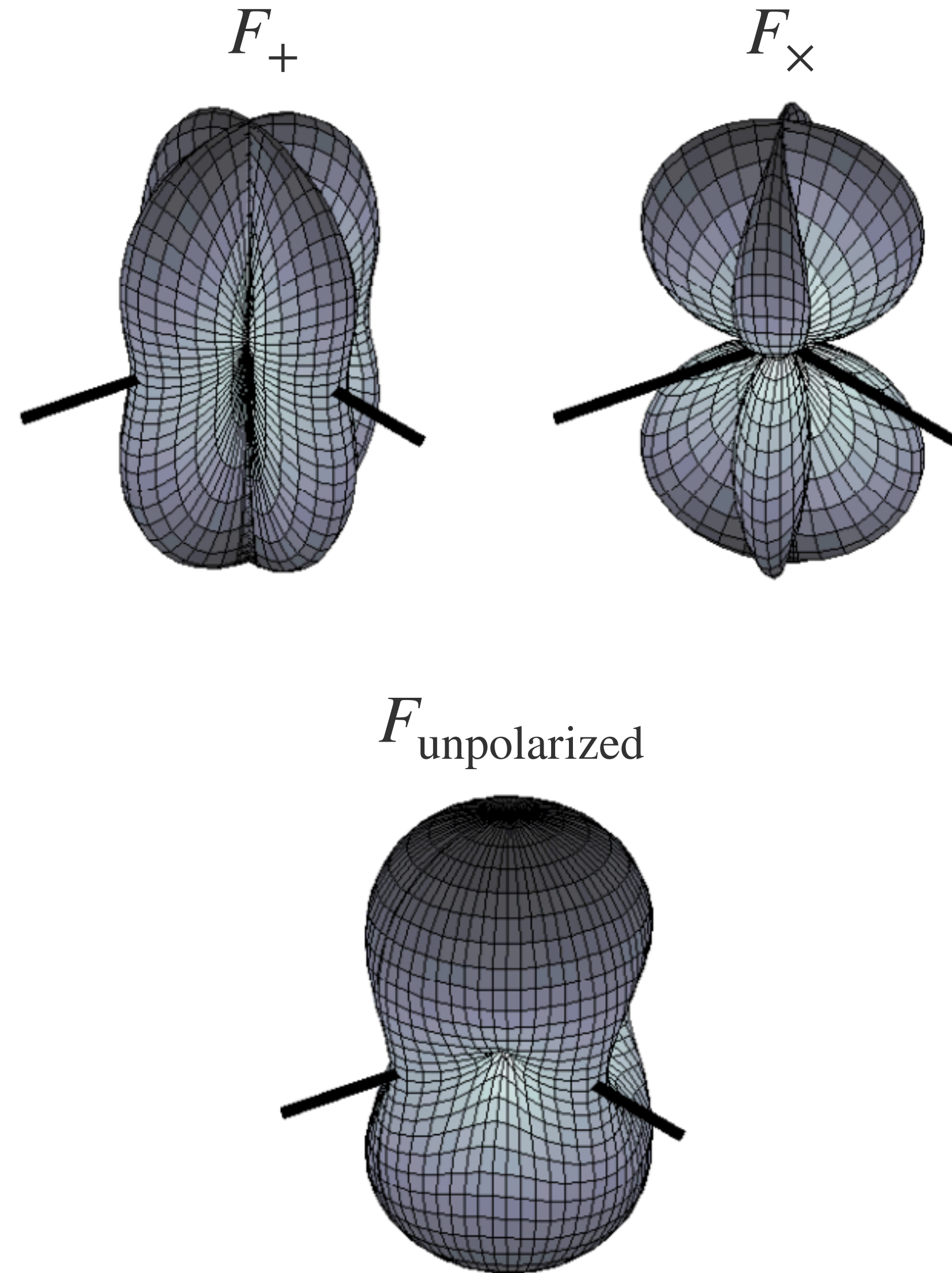
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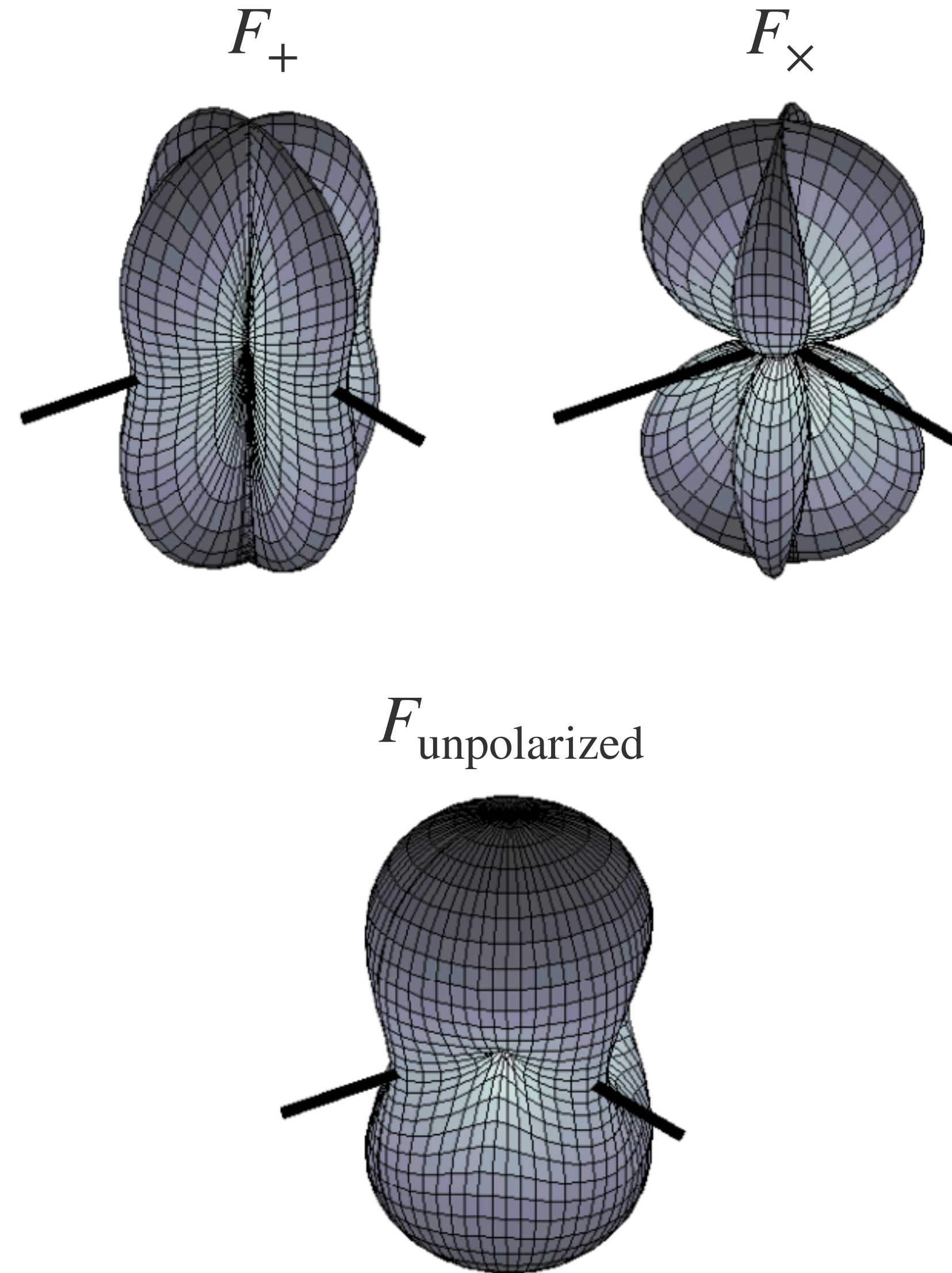
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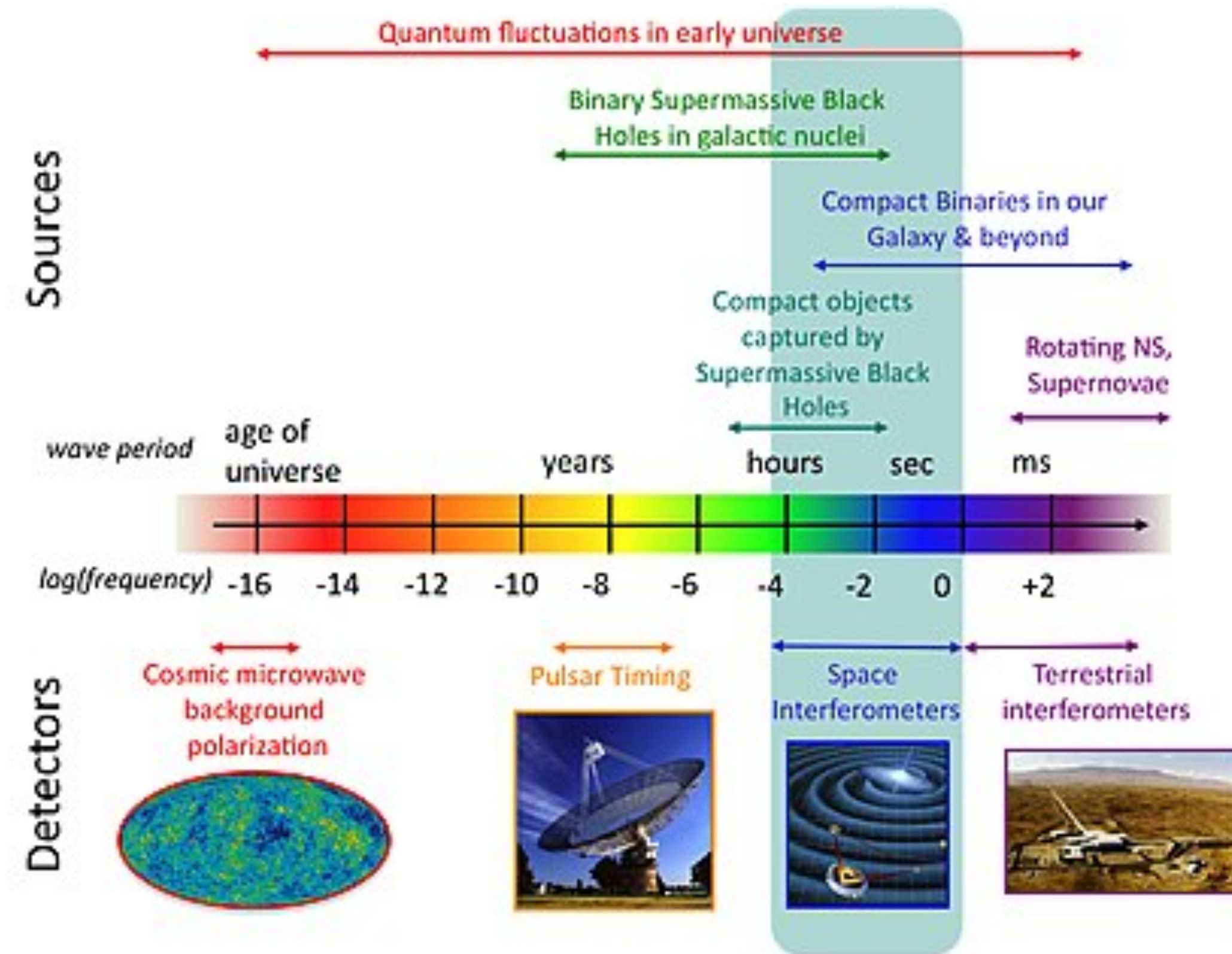
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# The GW spectrum



# Why compact binaries?

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Experimental reasons

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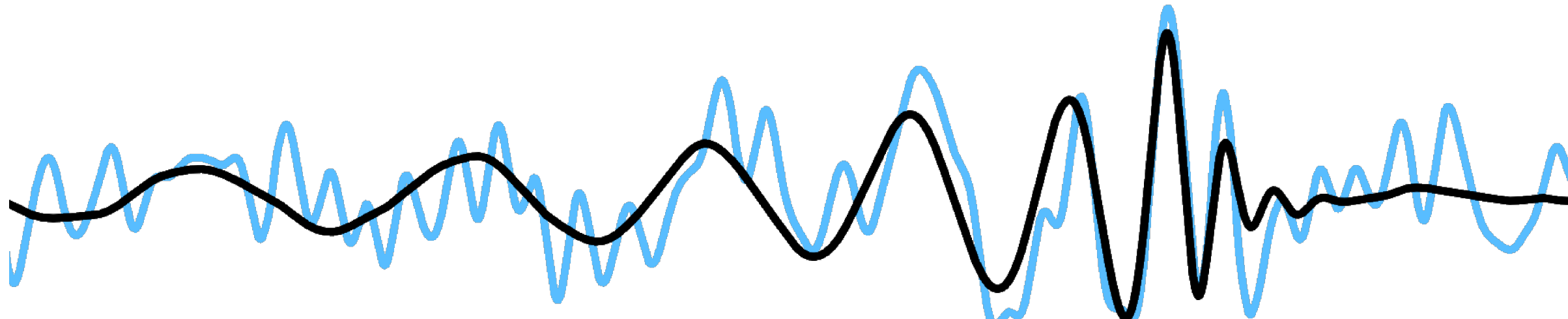
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**data** =  = **model**

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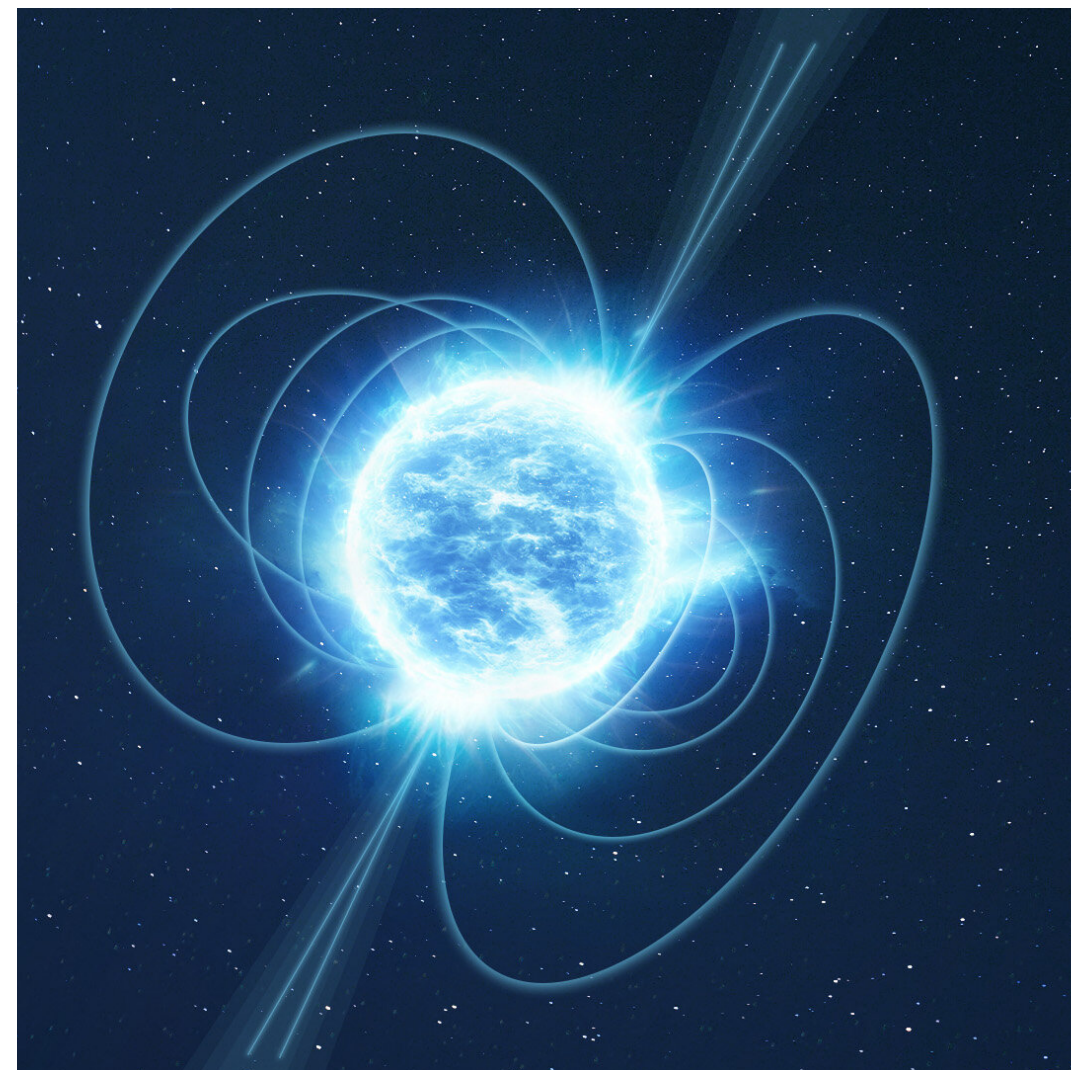
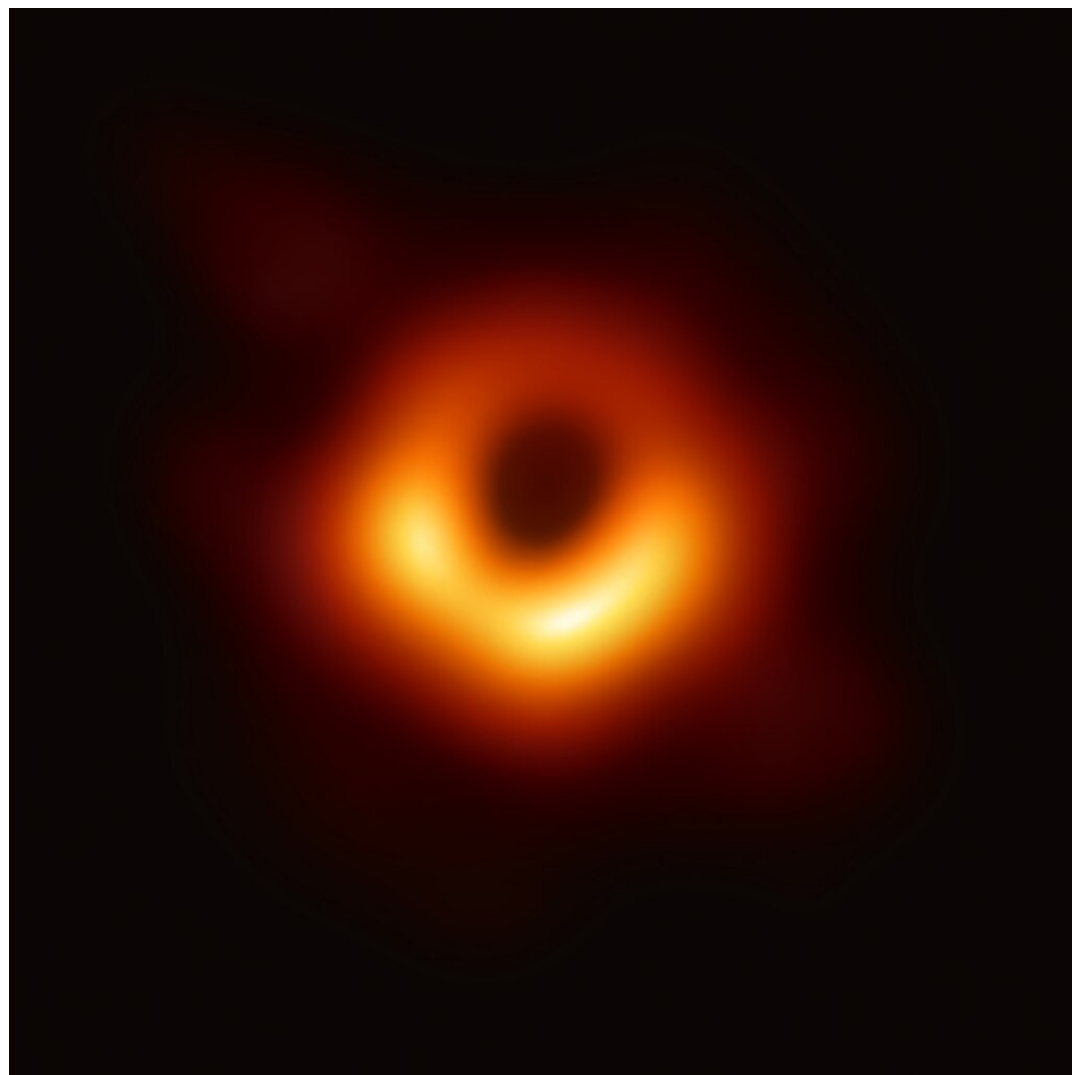
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Theoretical reasons

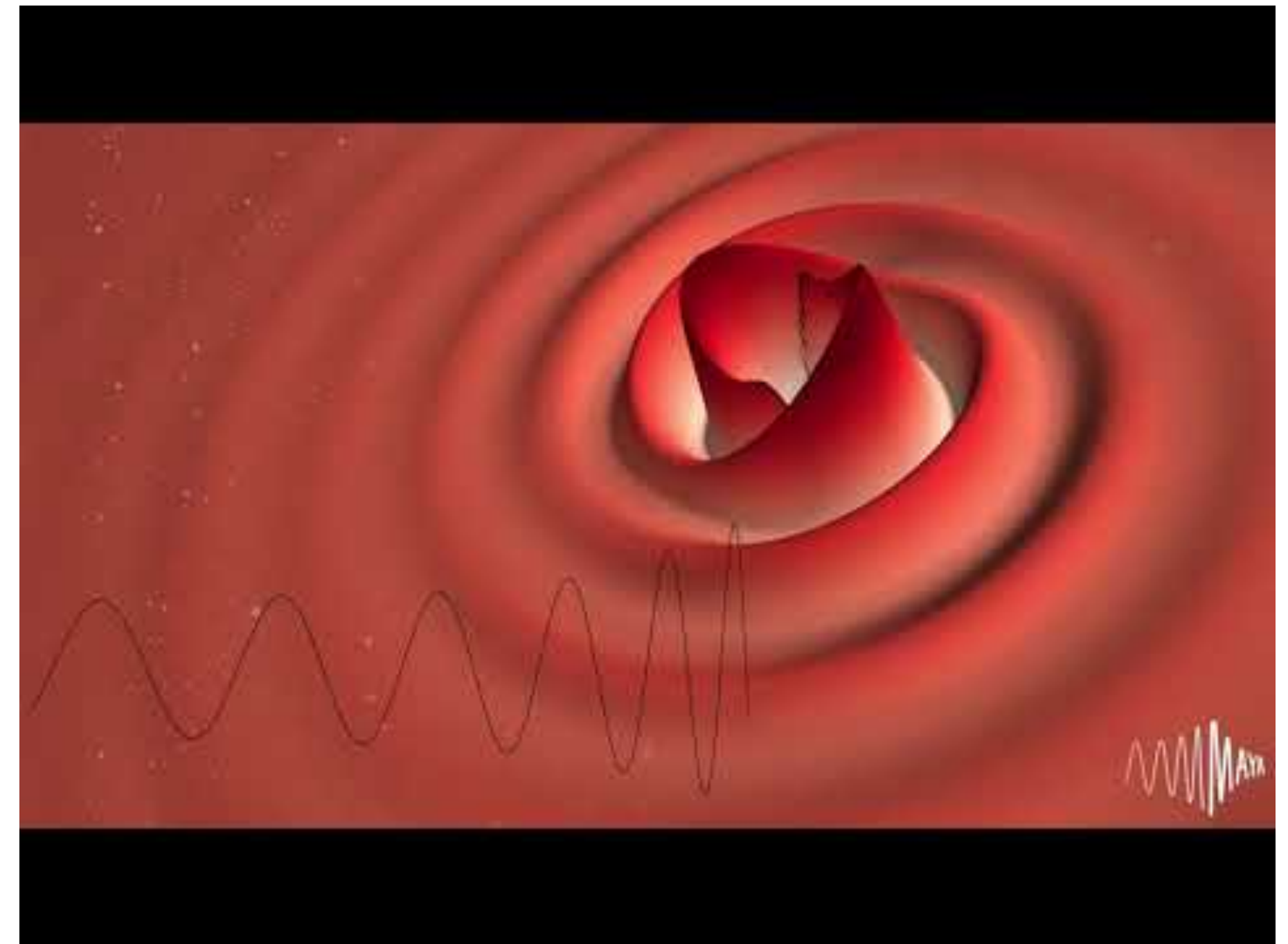
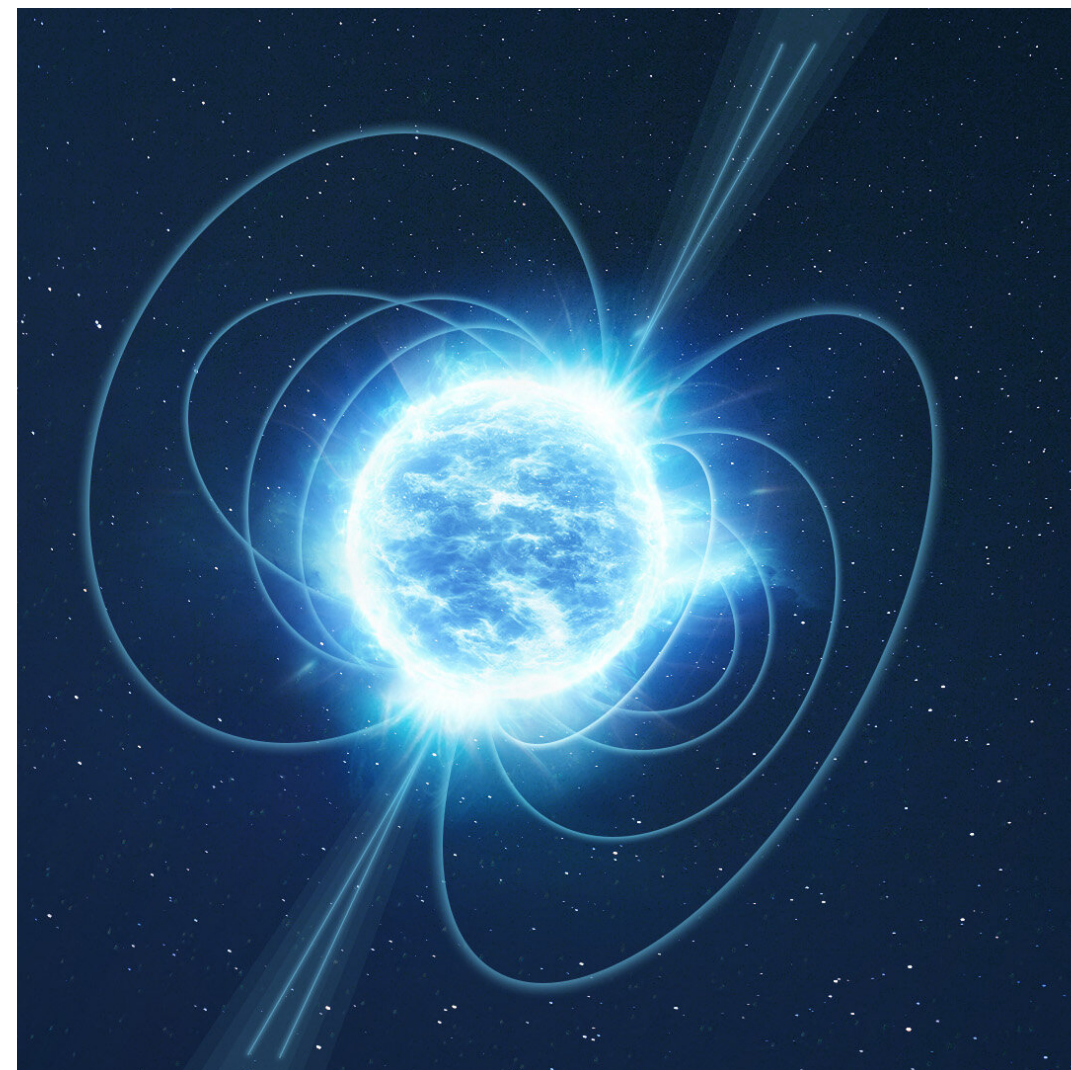
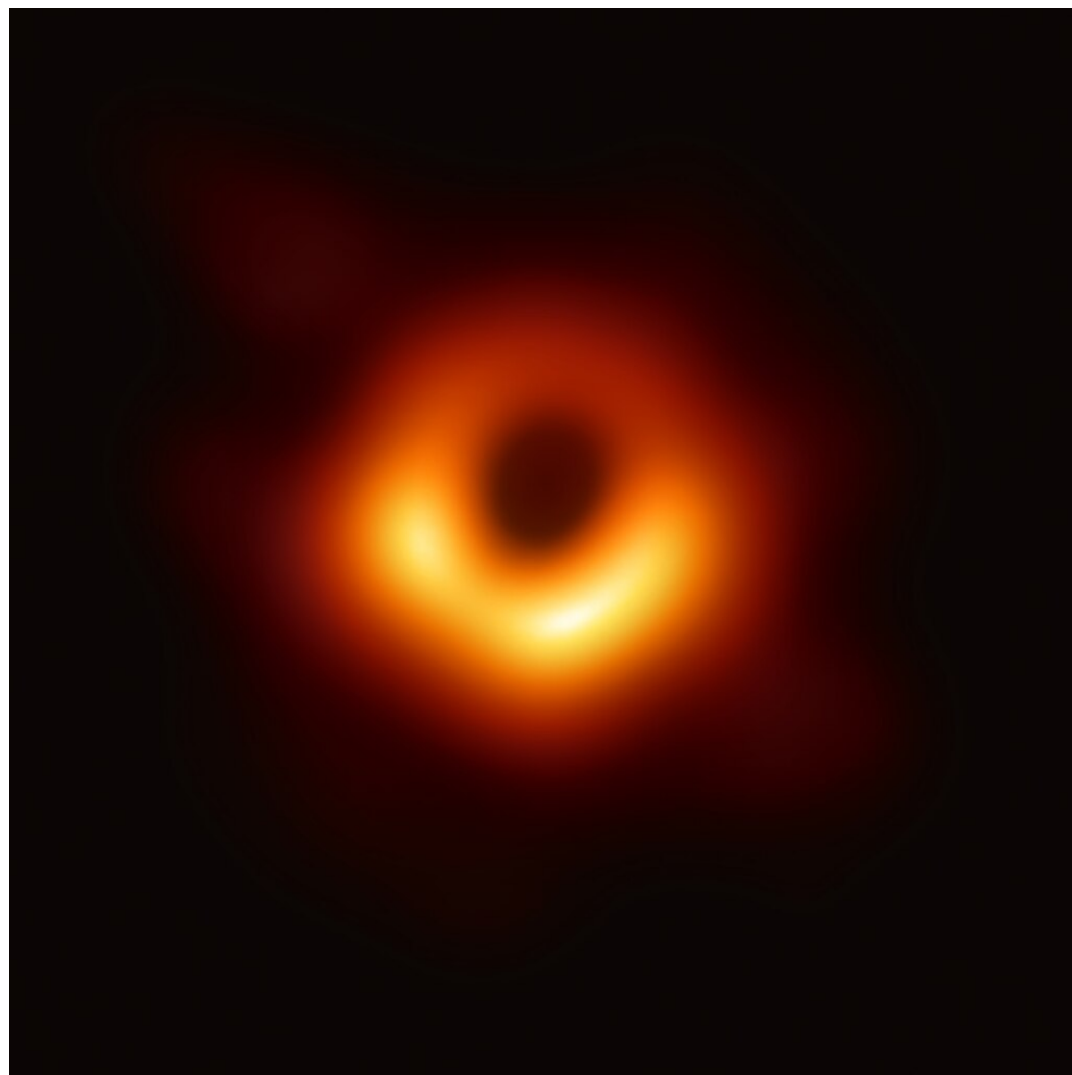
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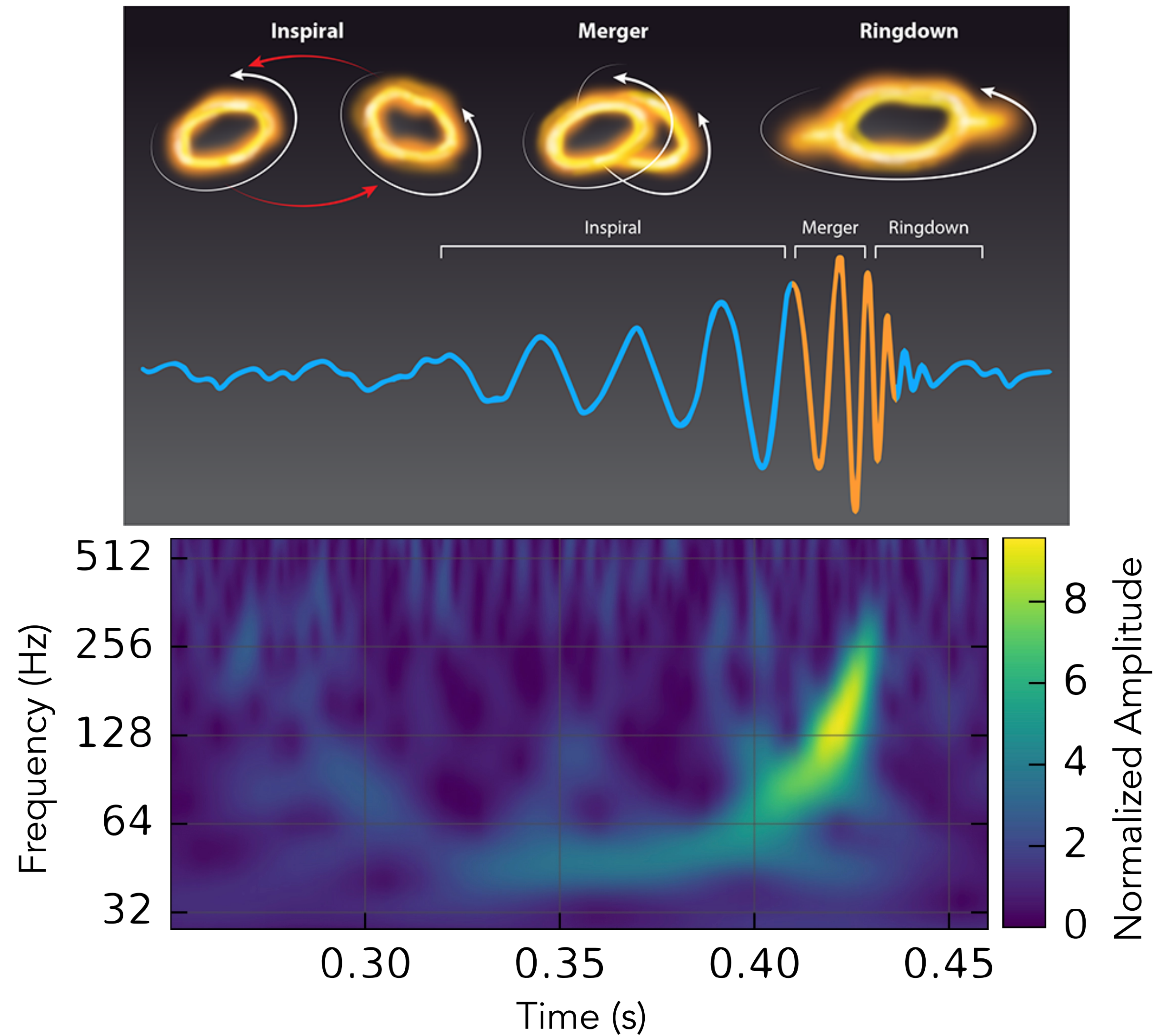
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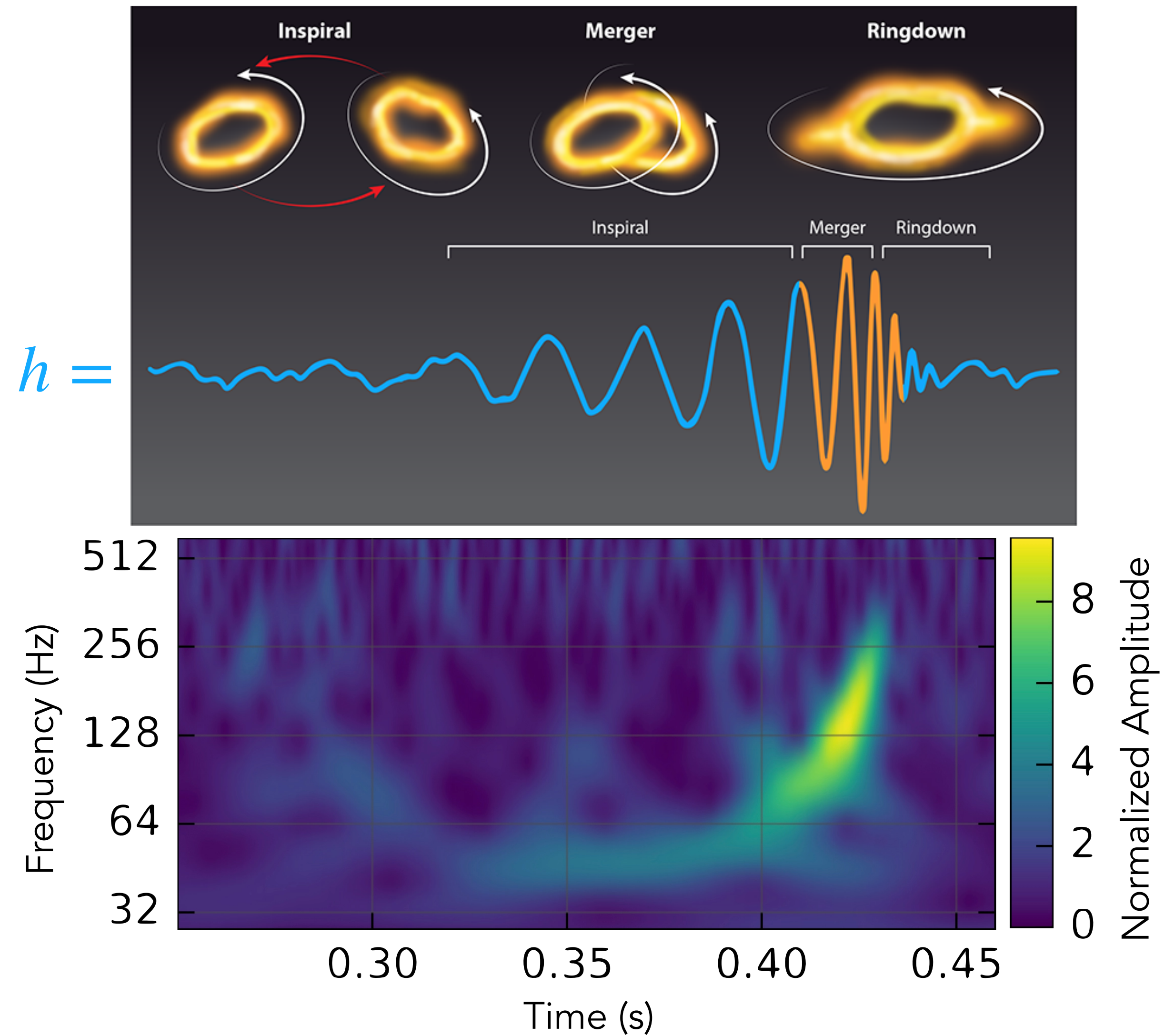
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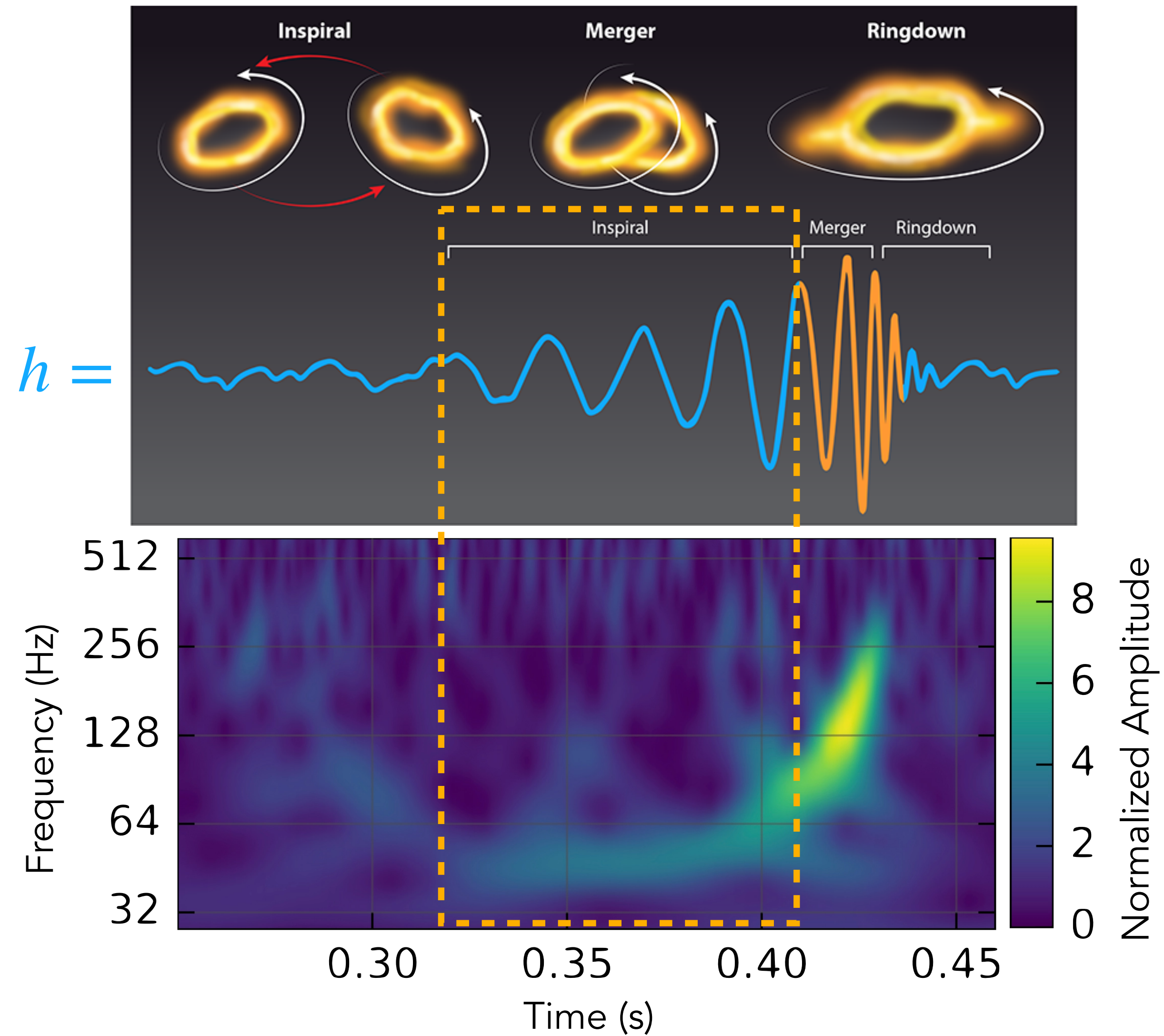
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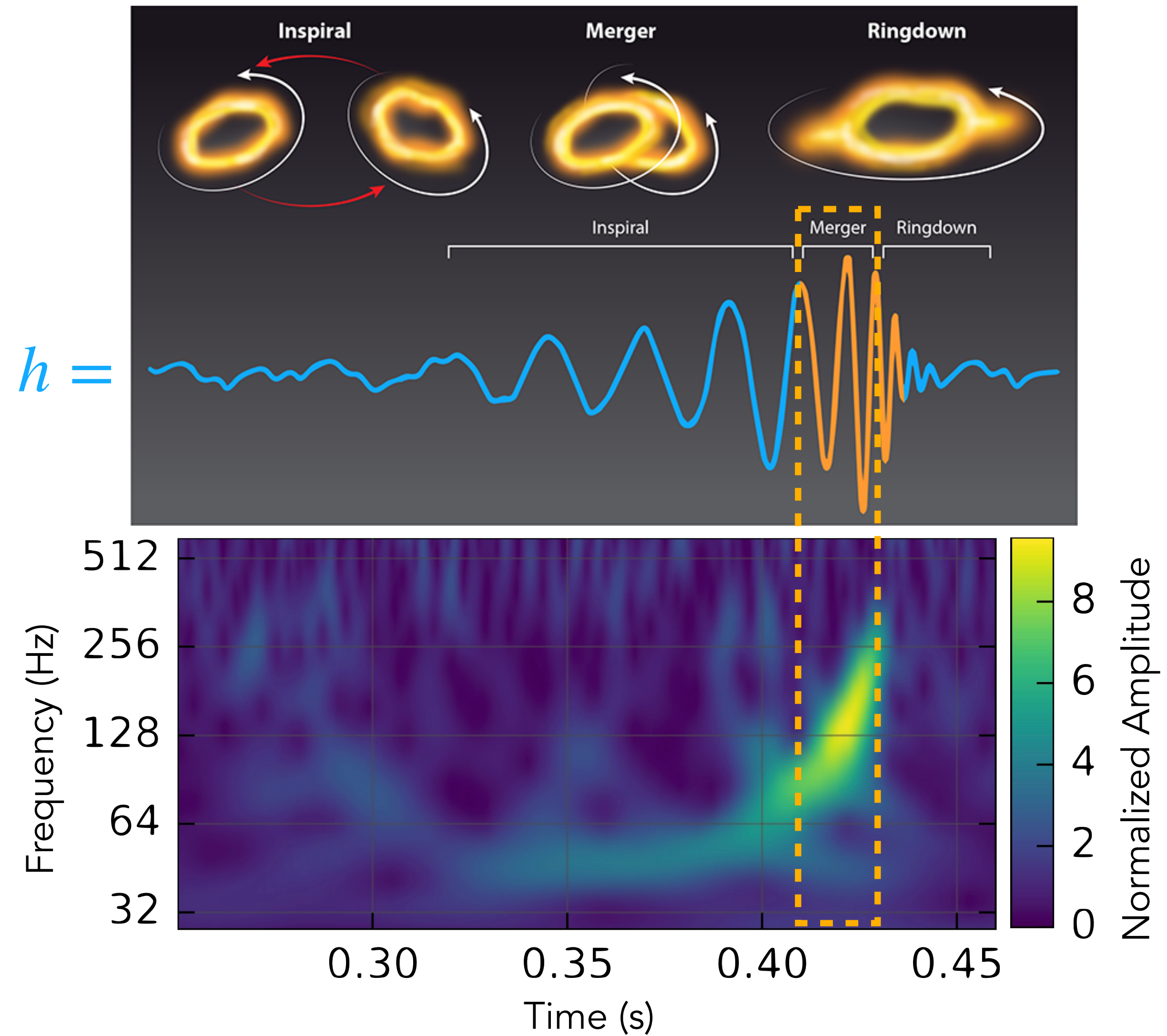
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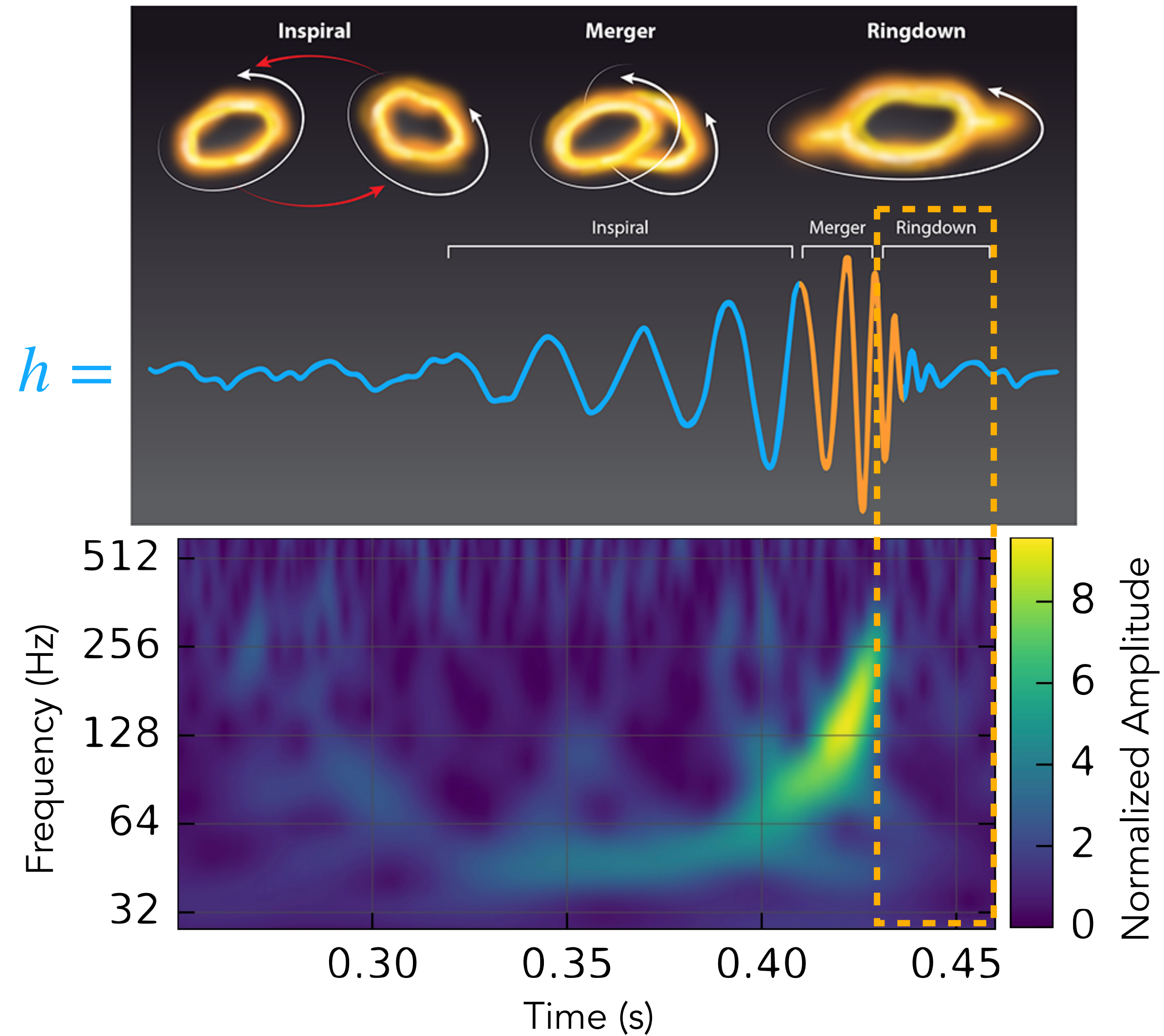
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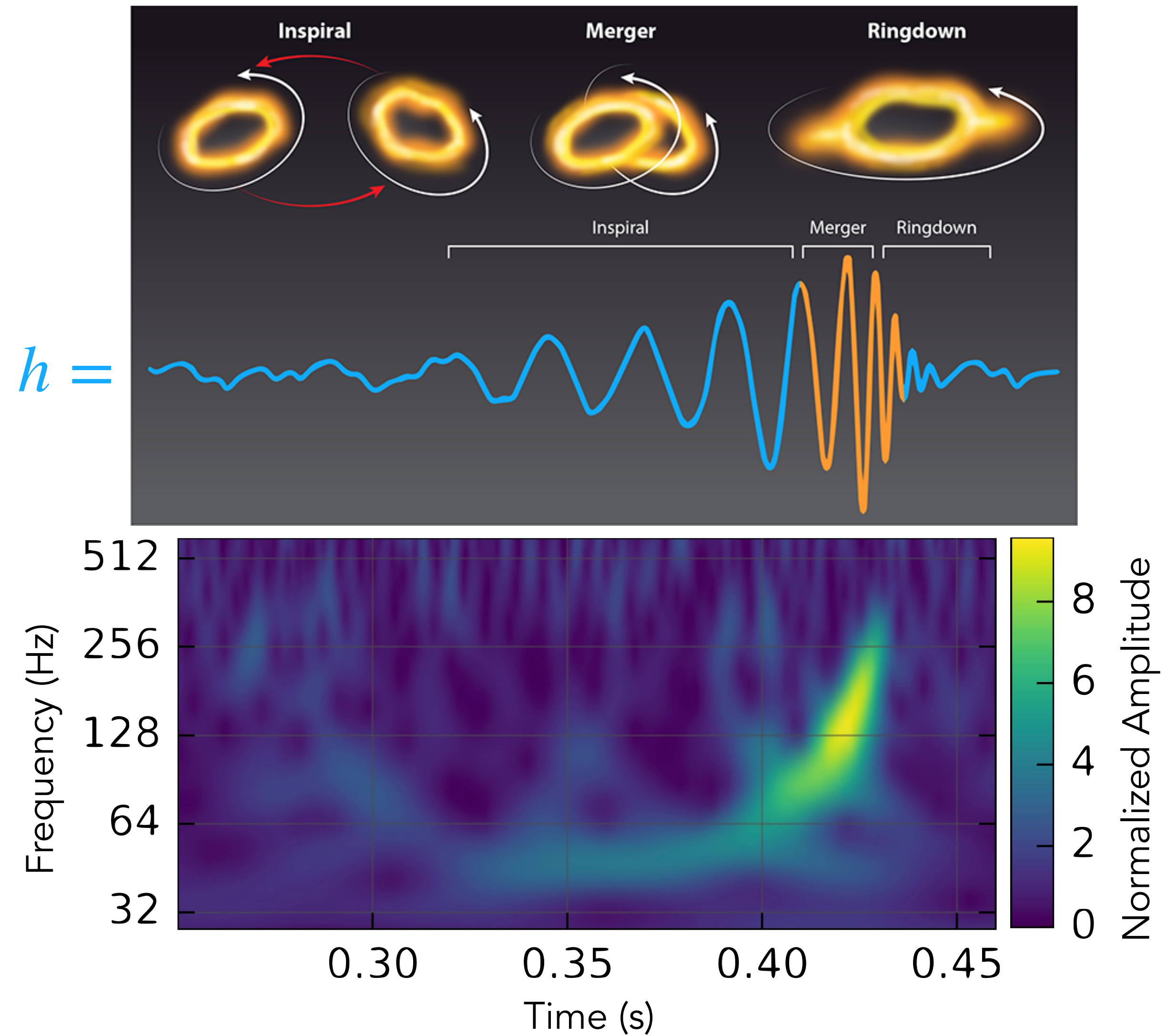
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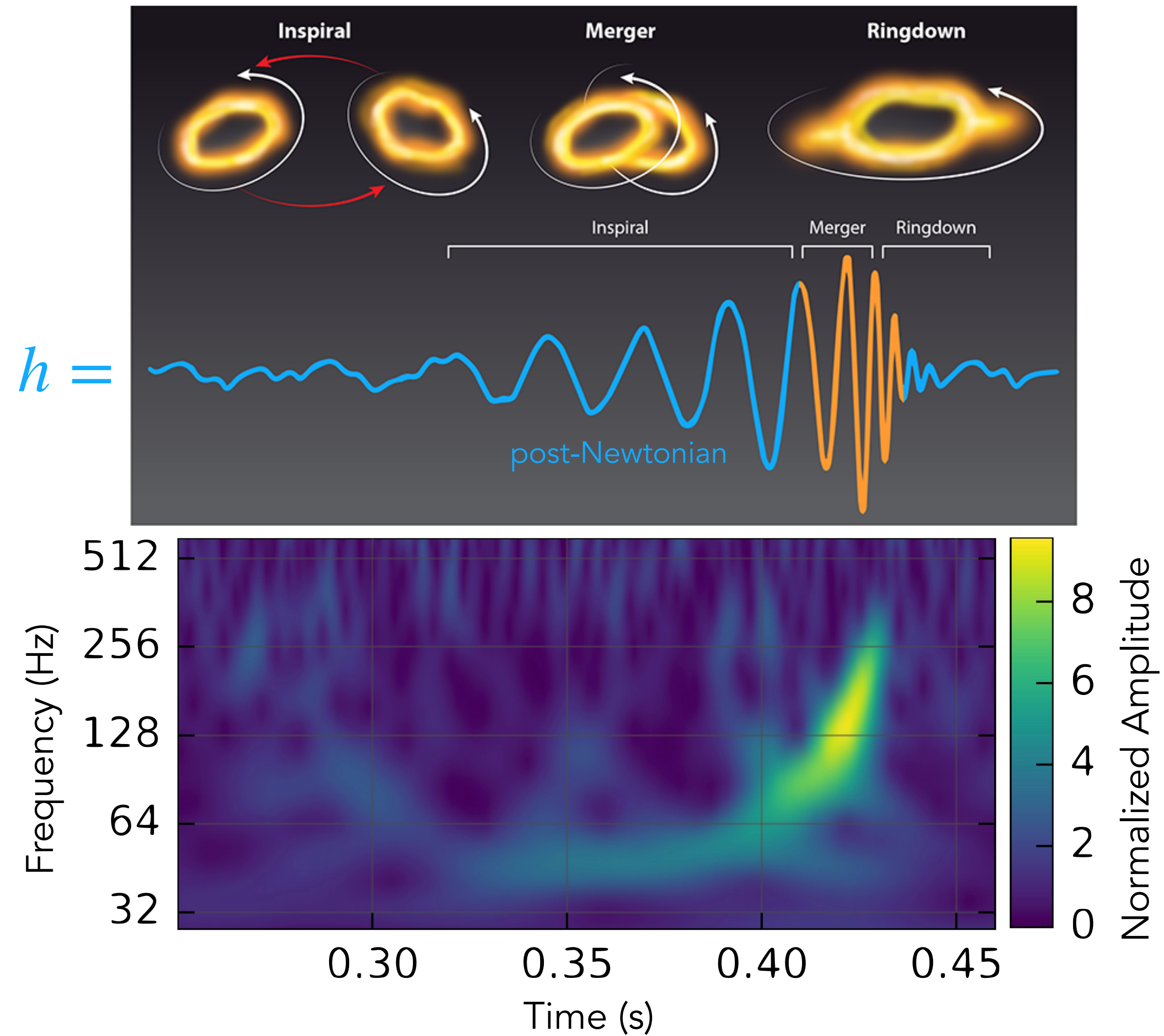
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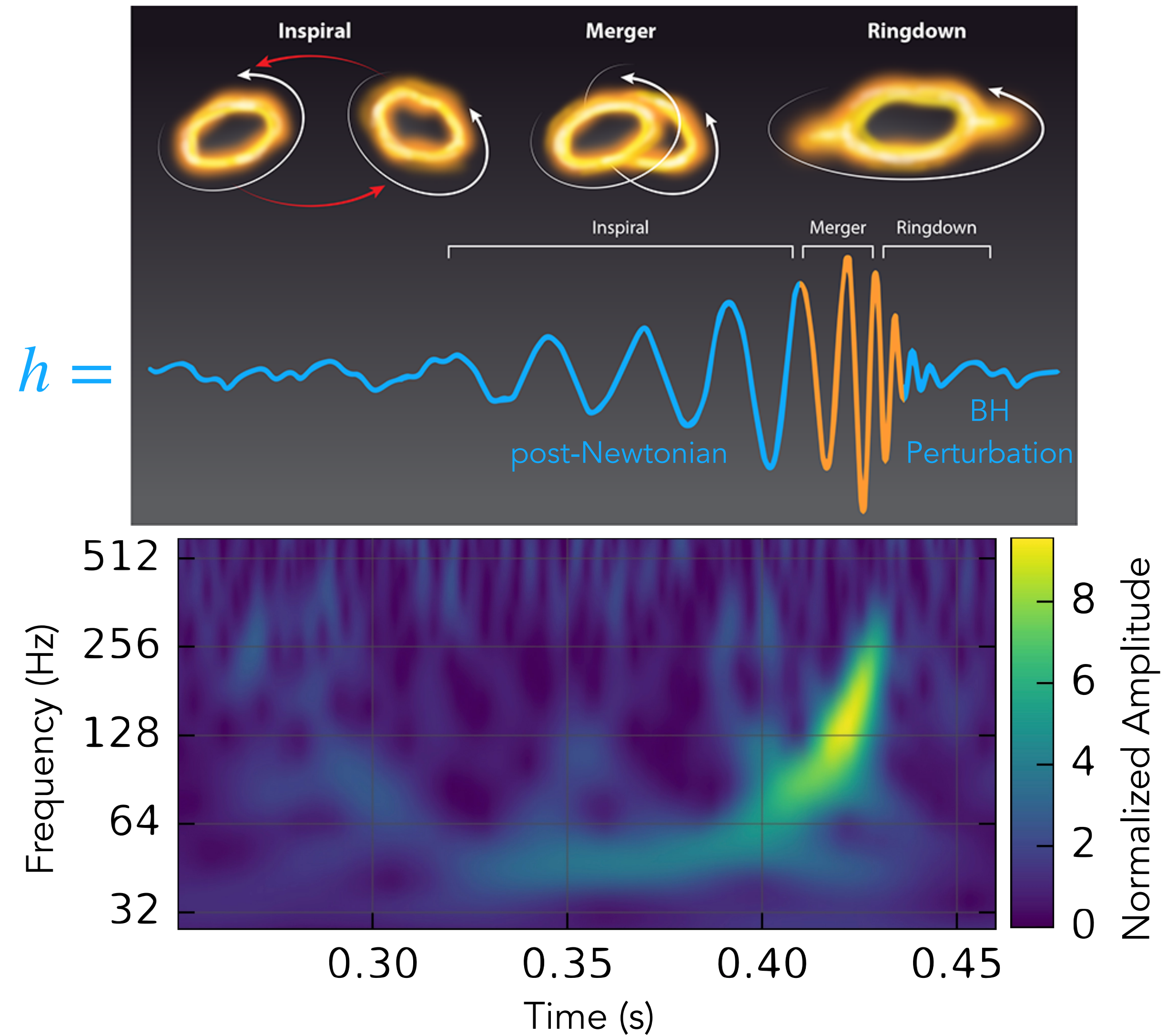
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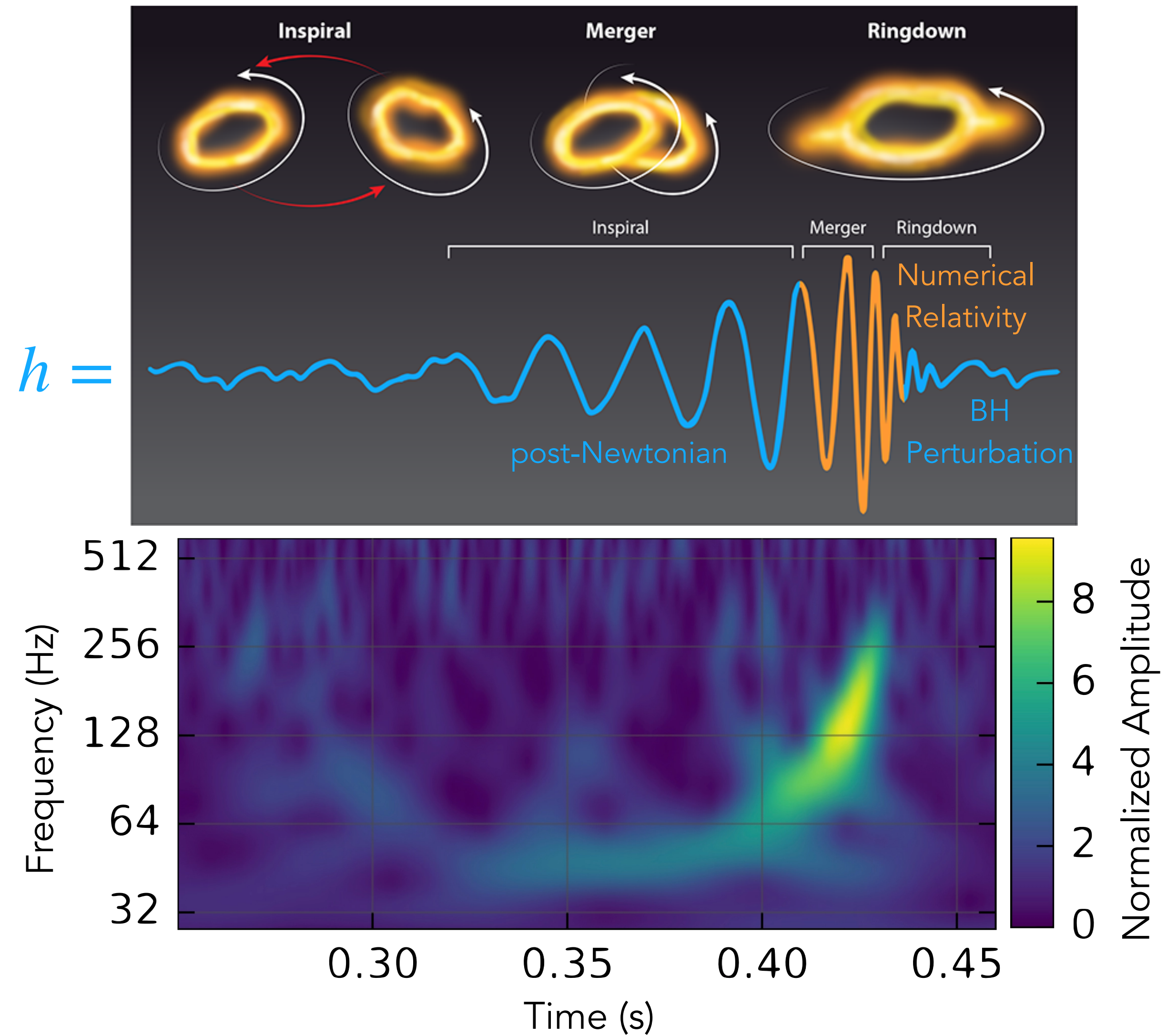
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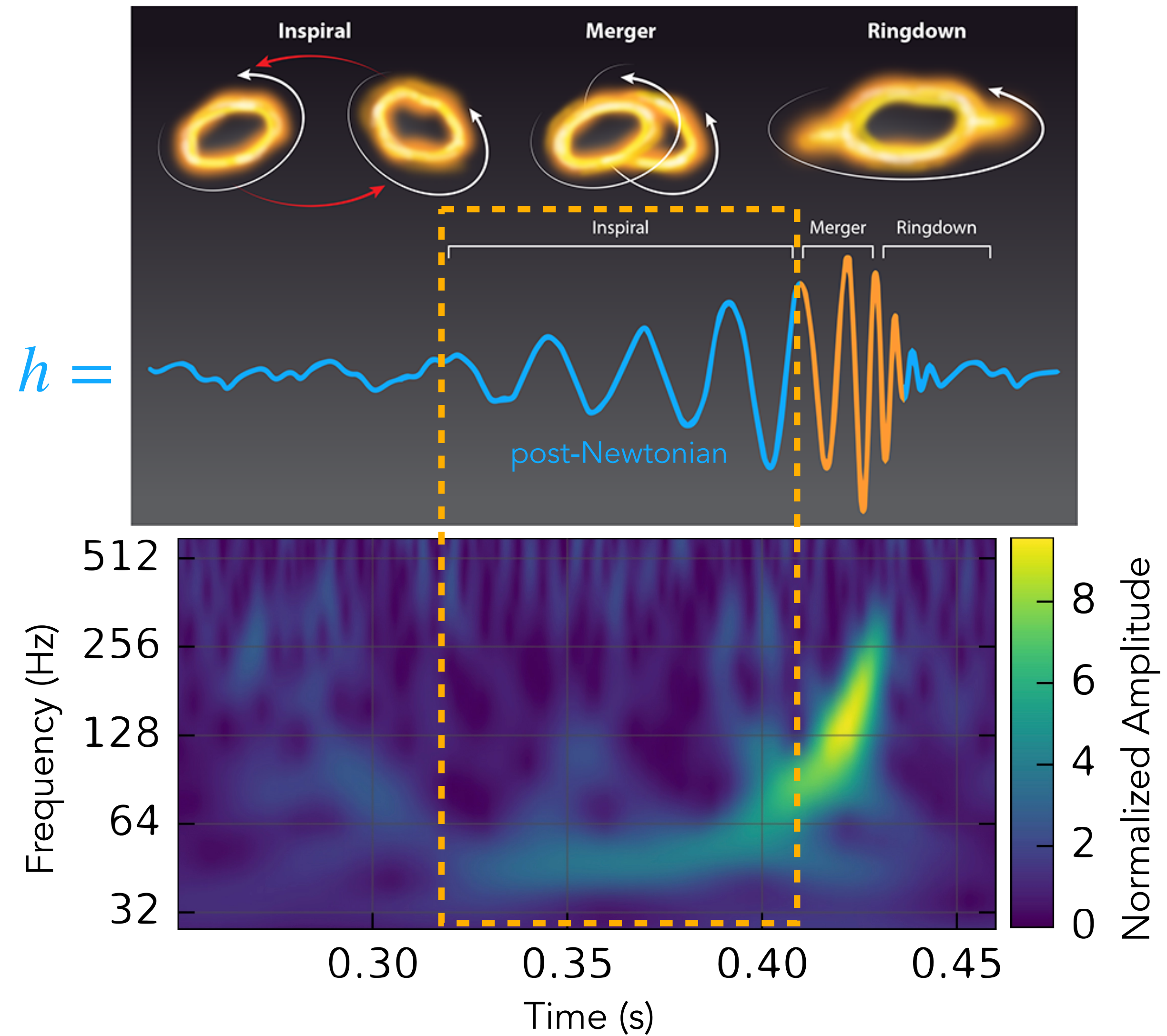
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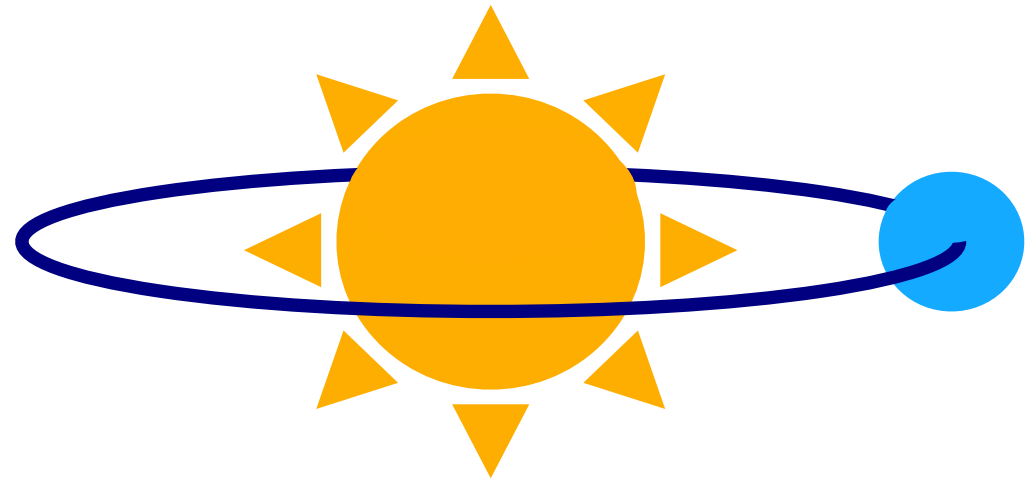


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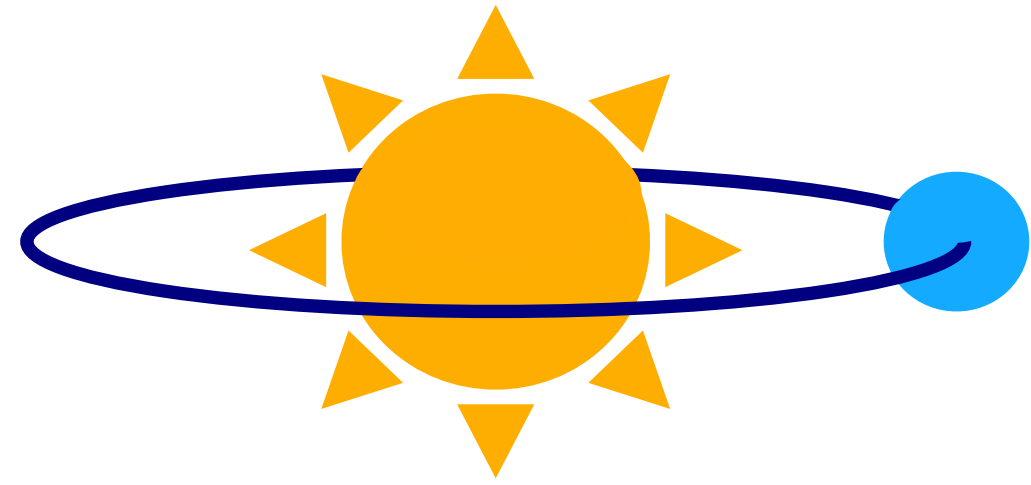
# Post-Newtonian formalism

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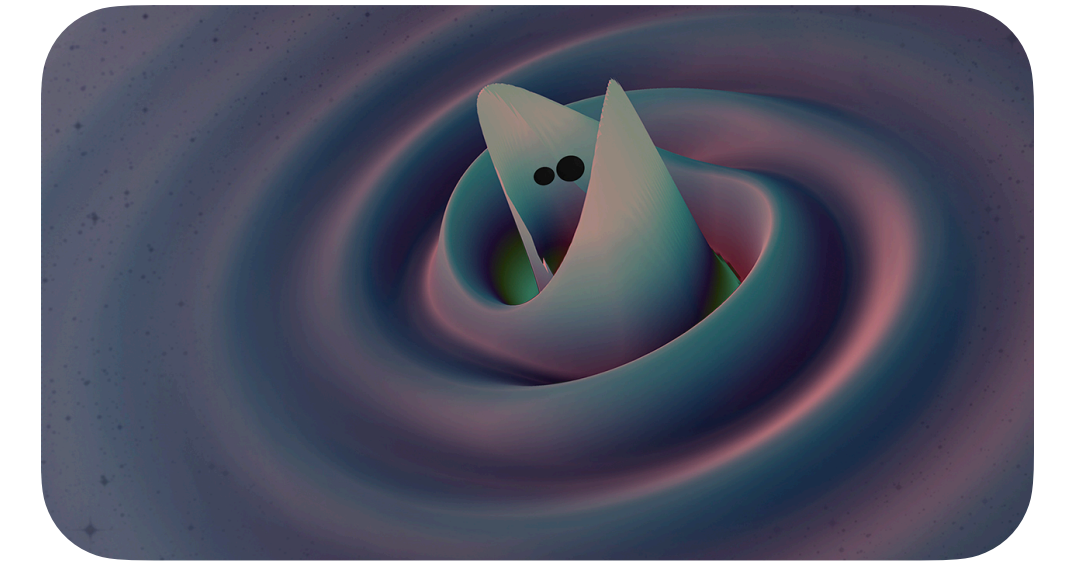


Weakest Systems

# Post-Newtonian formalism

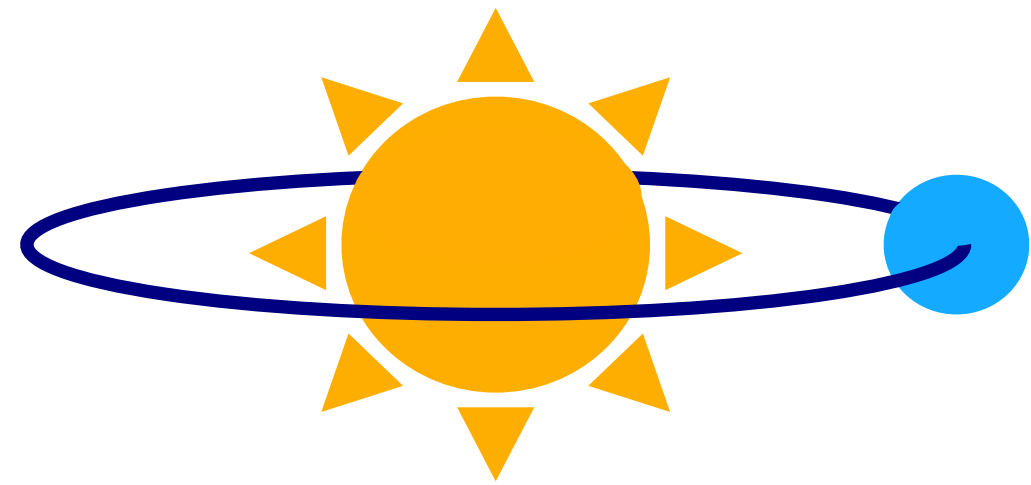


Weakest Systems



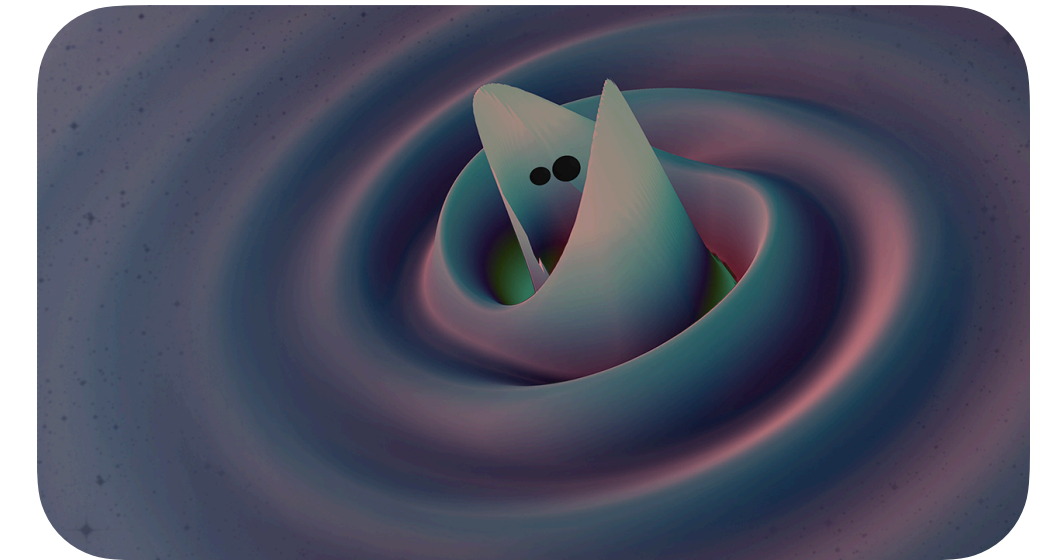
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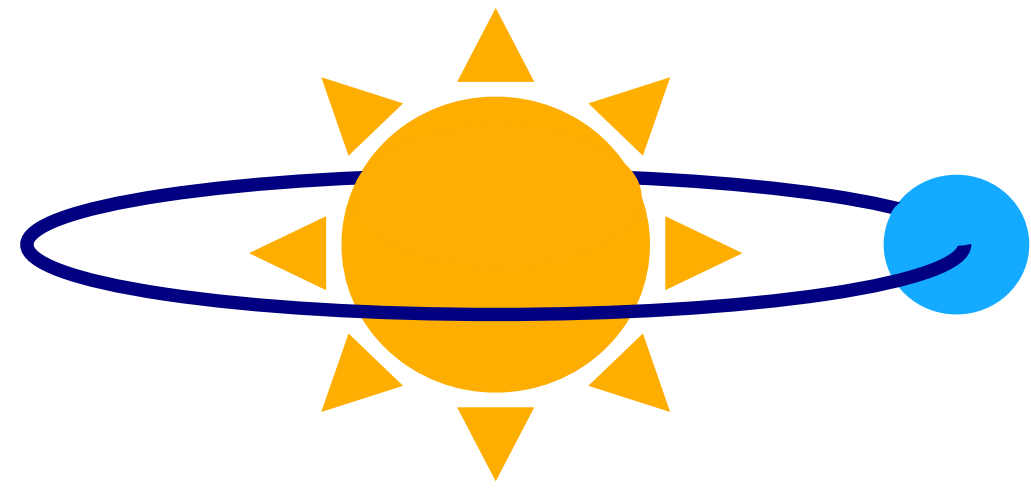
Weakest Systems

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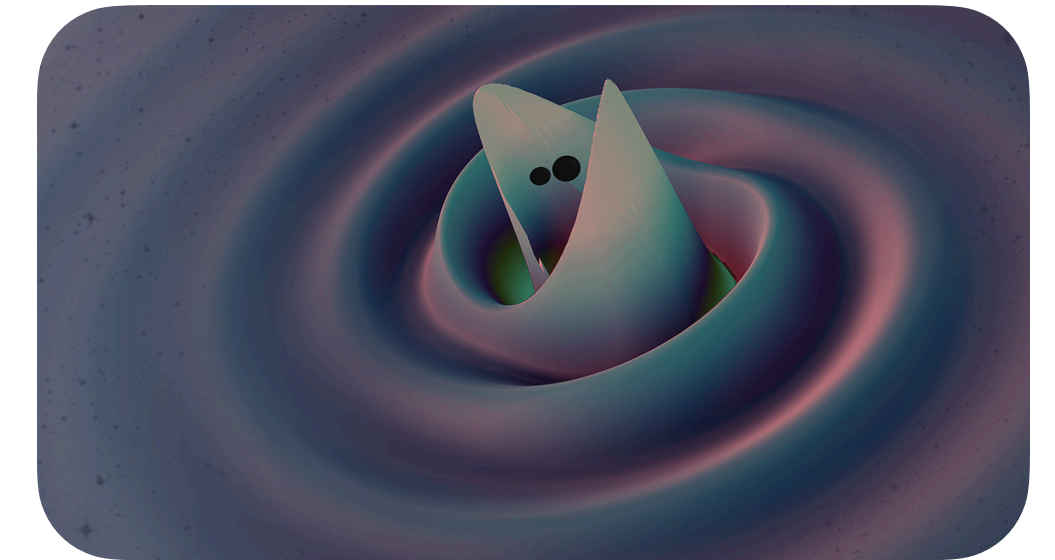
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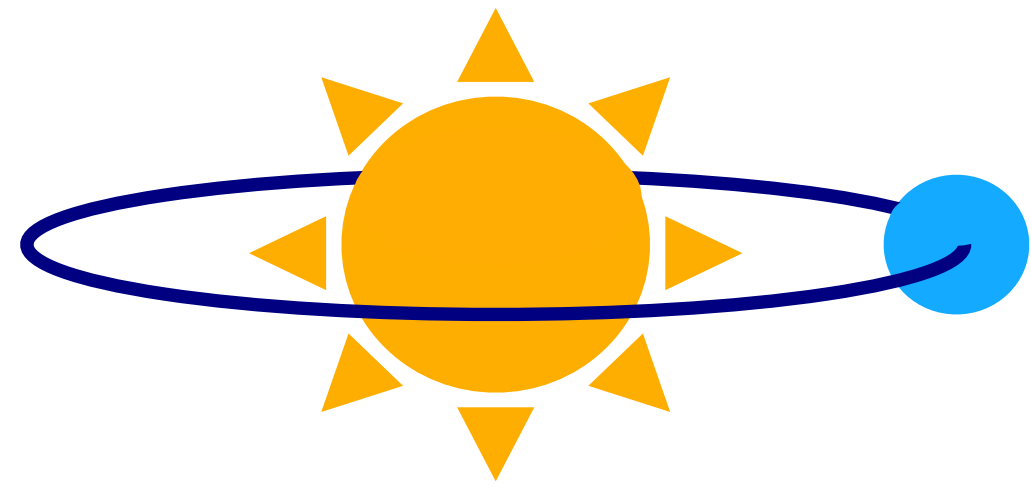
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Strongest Systems

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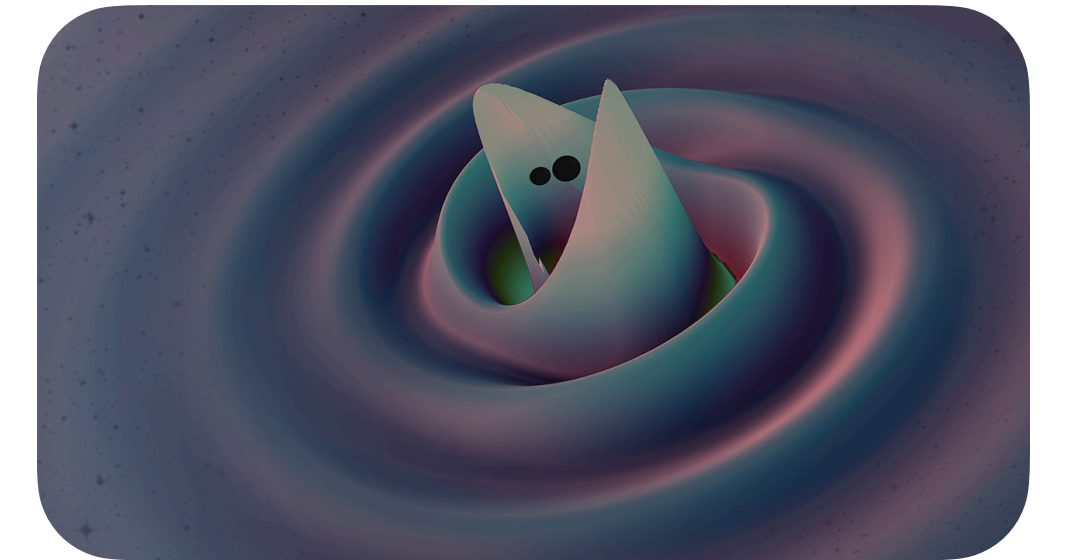
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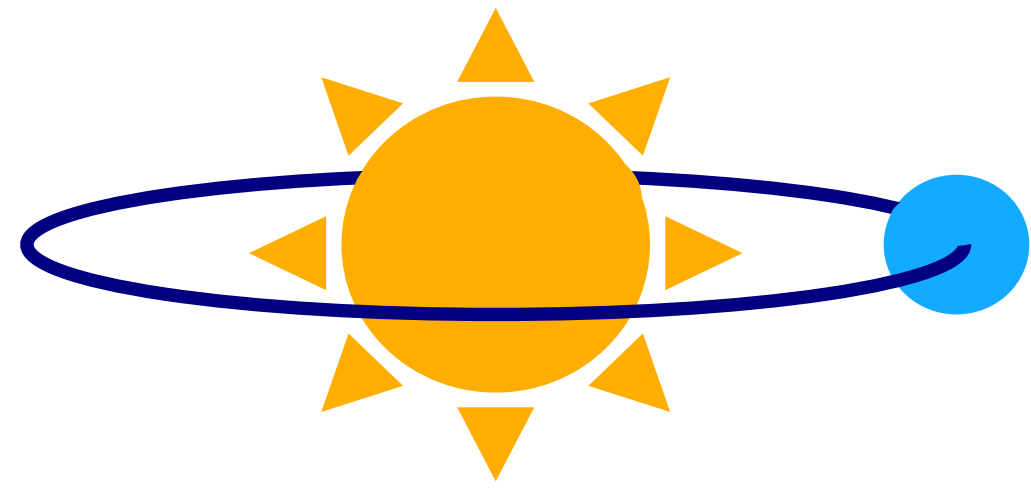
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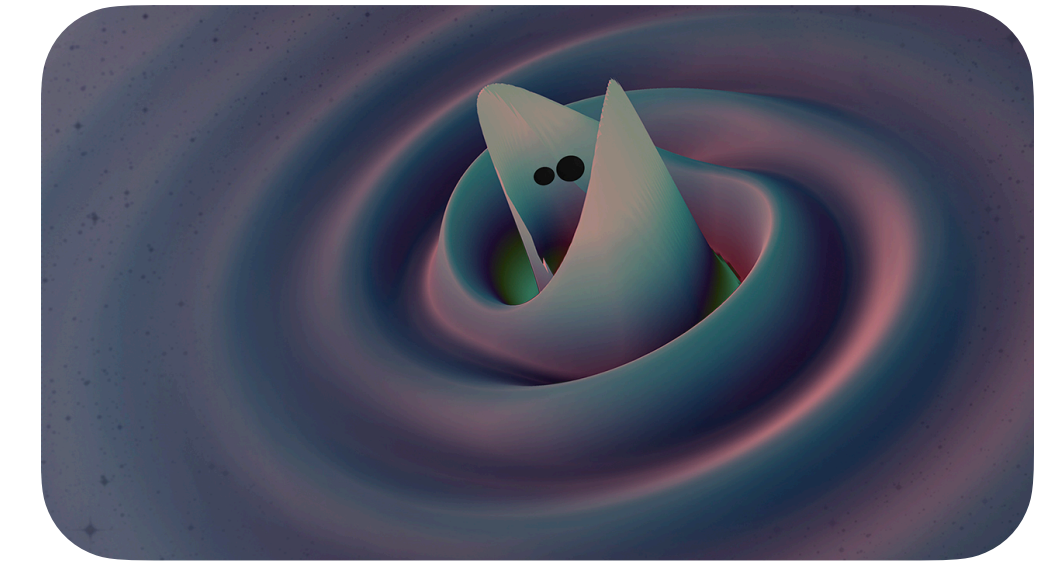
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Weakest Systems

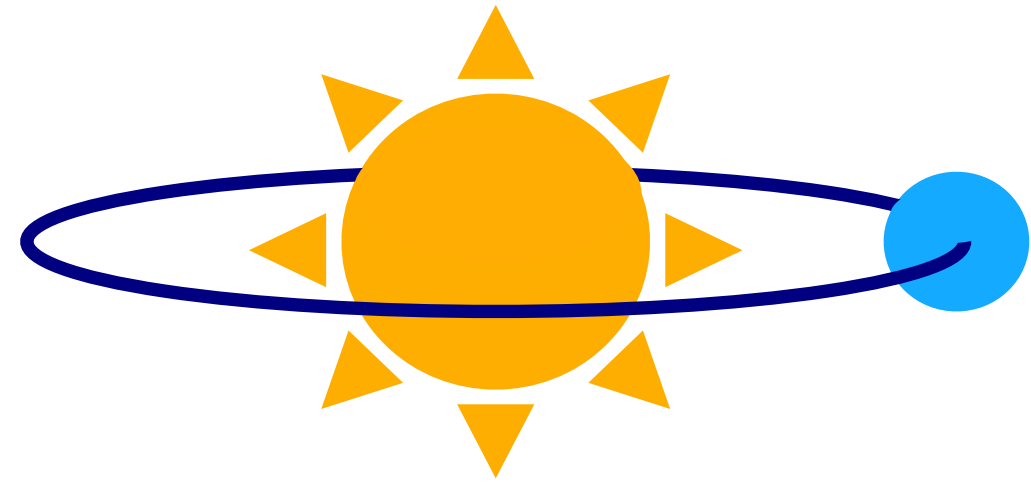
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Strongest Systems

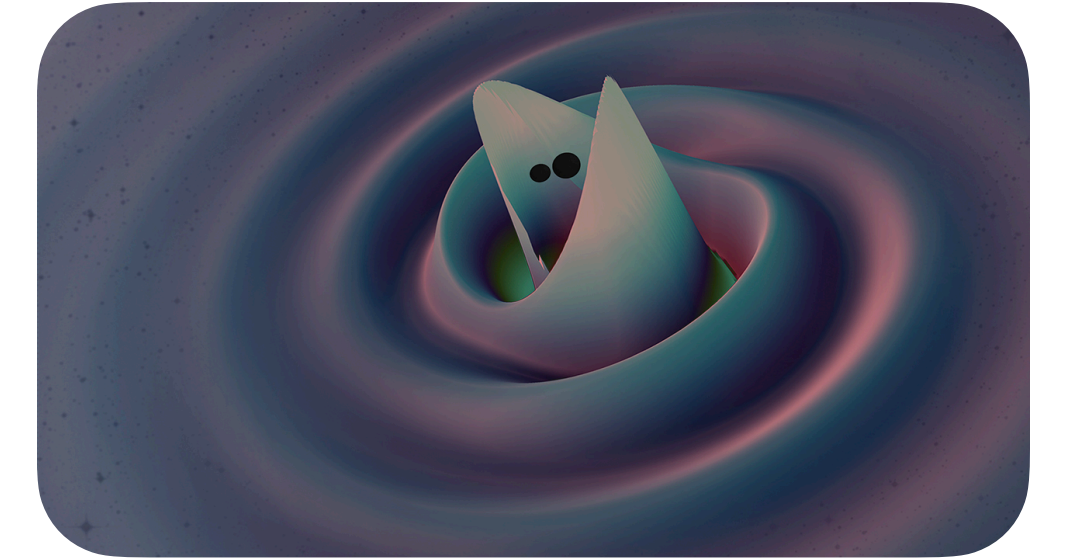
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Weakest Systems

Post-Newtonian!

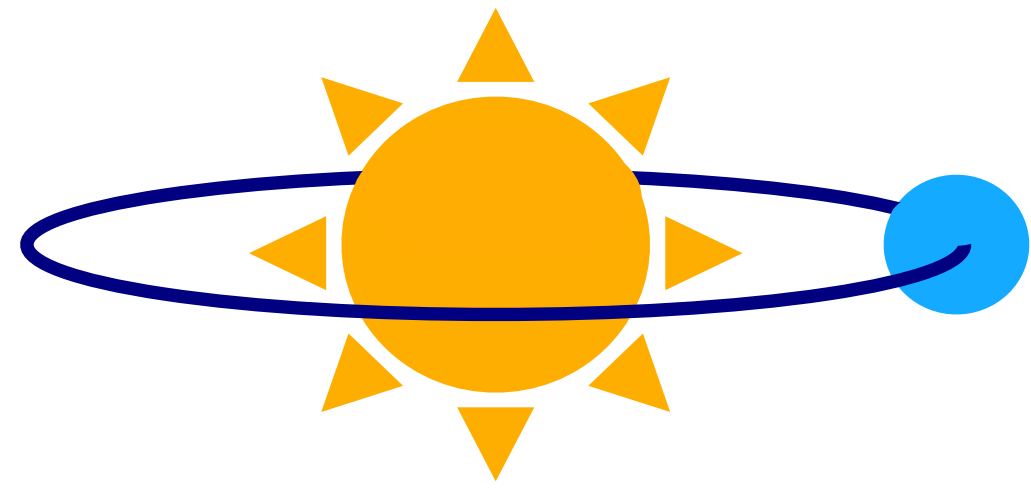


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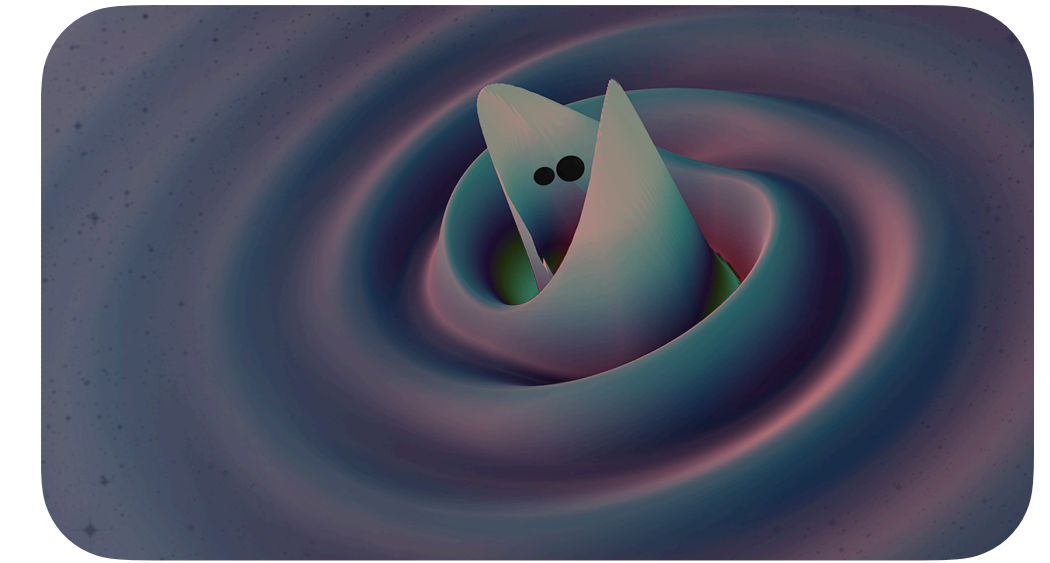
Circular orbits:  $(v/r)^2 = \omega^2$

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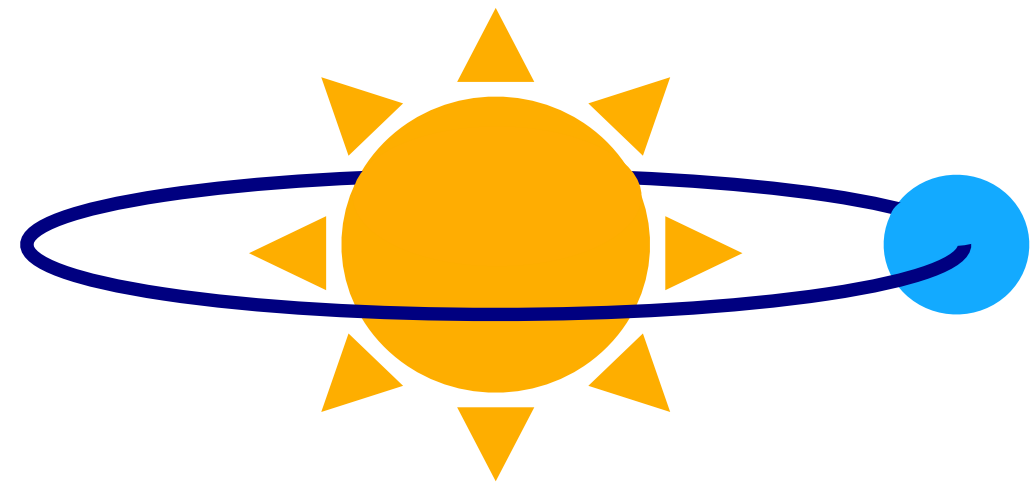


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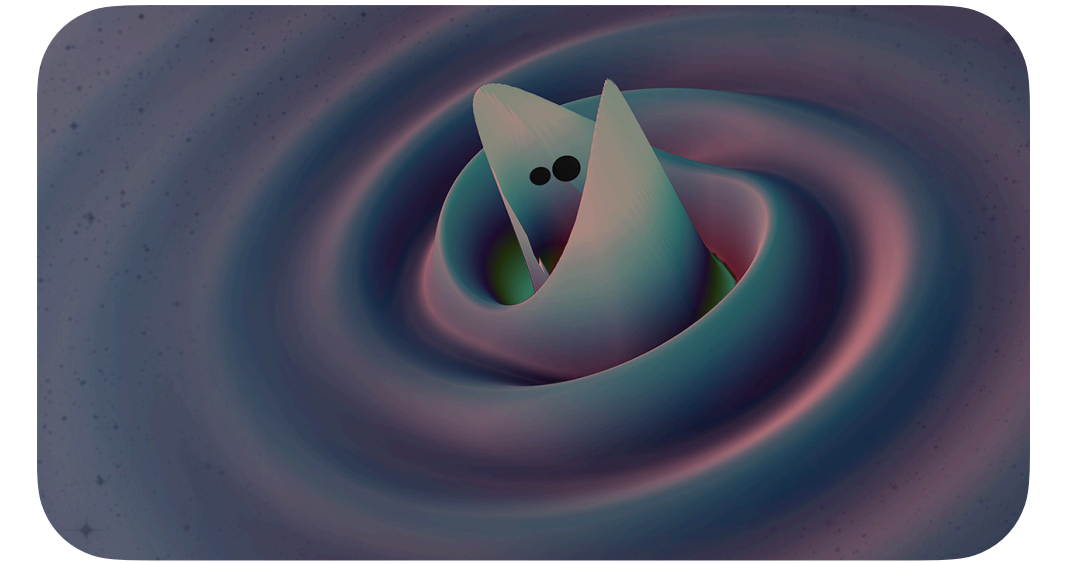
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Weakest Systems

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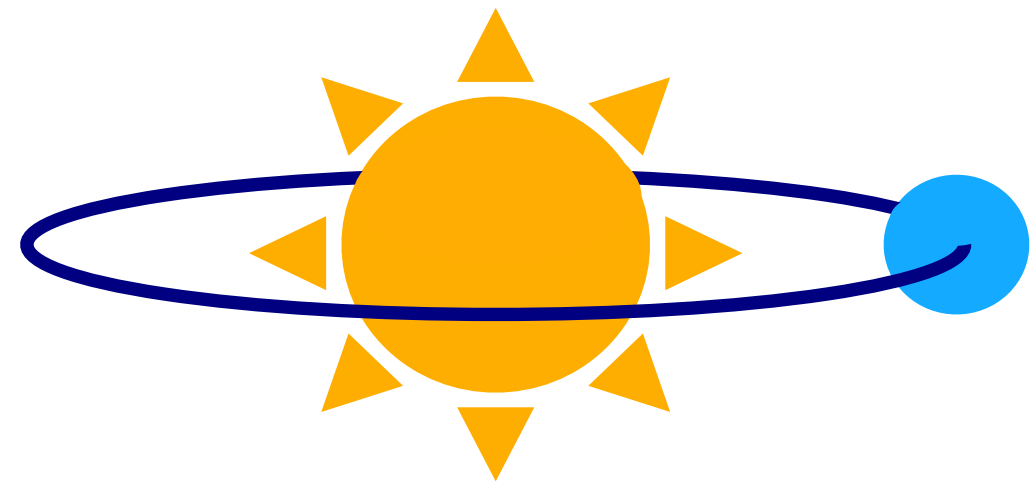


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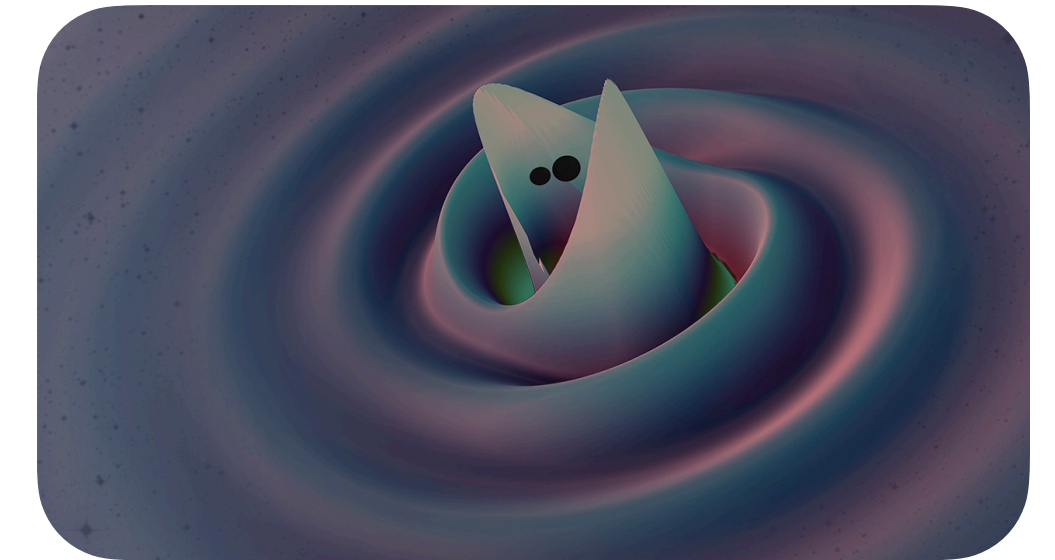
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# Post-Newtonian formalism



Weakest Systems

Post-Newtonian!



Strongest Systems

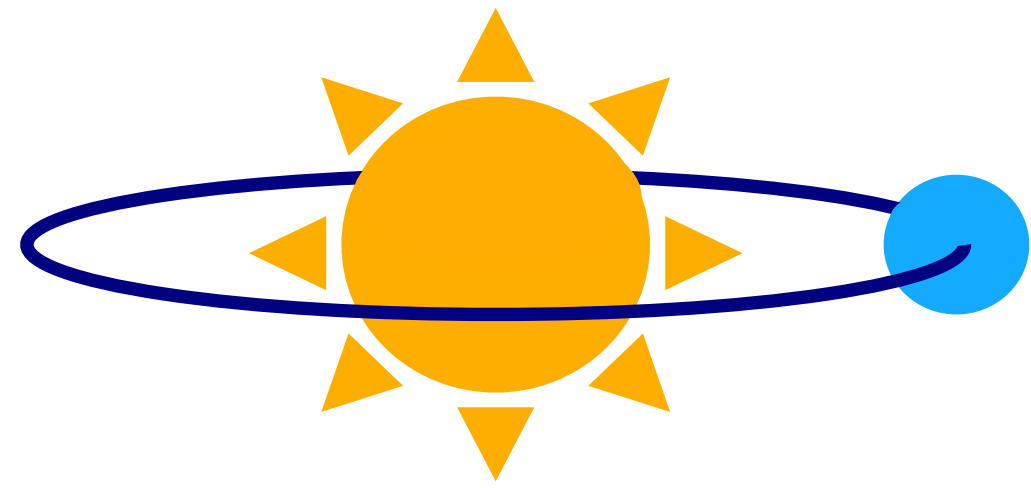
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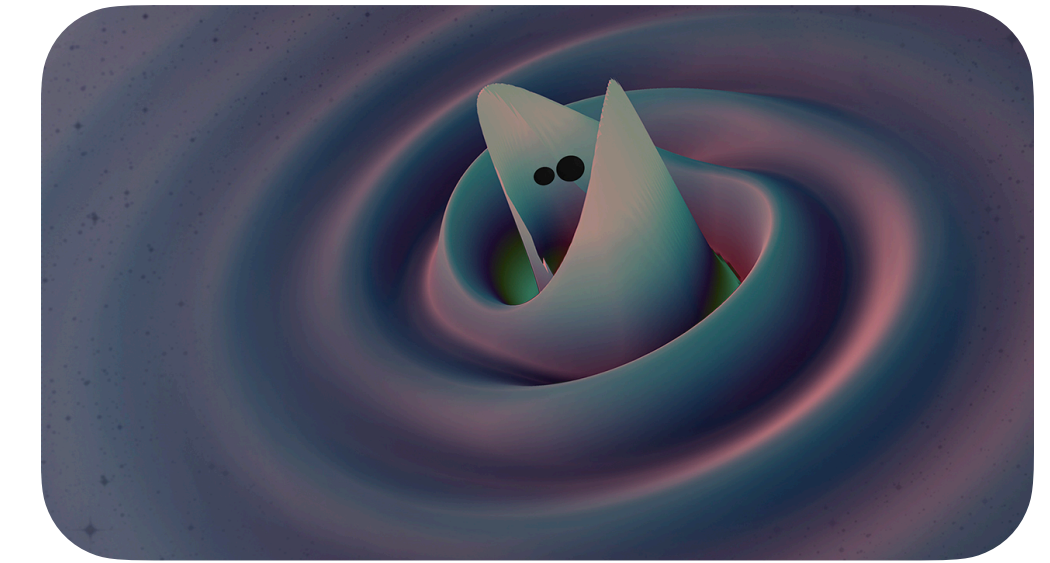
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# Post-Newtonian formalism



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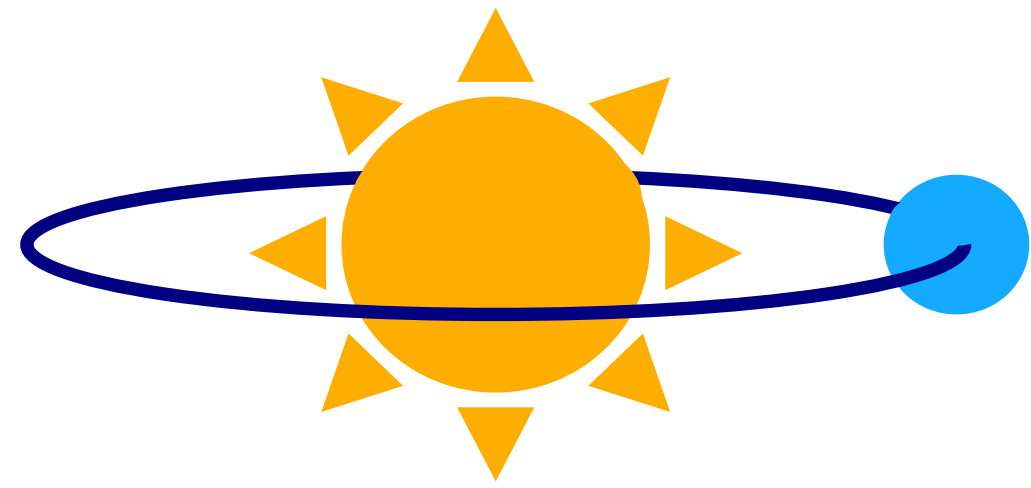
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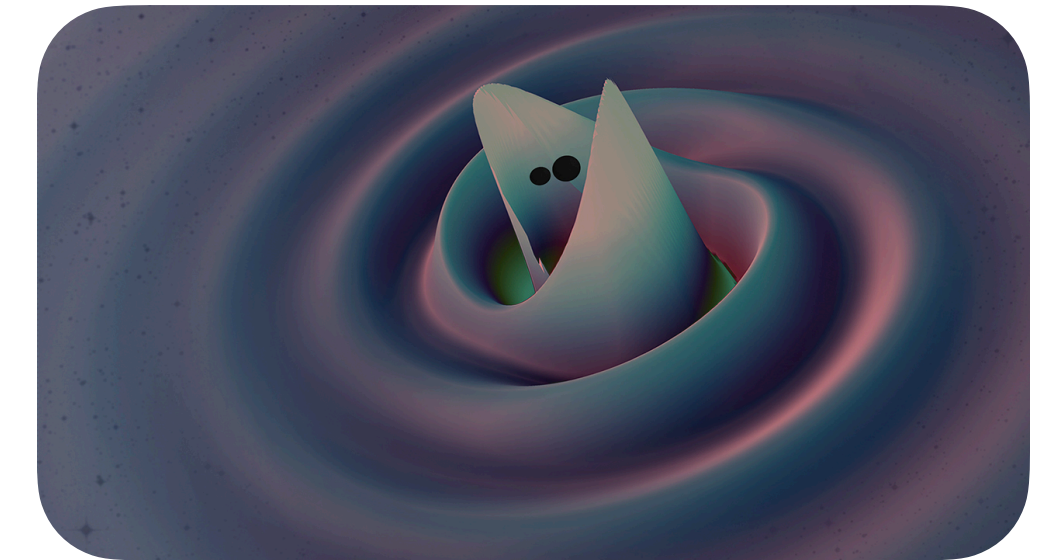
Newtonian

# Post-Newtonian formalism



Weakest Systems

Post-Newtonian!



Strongest Systems



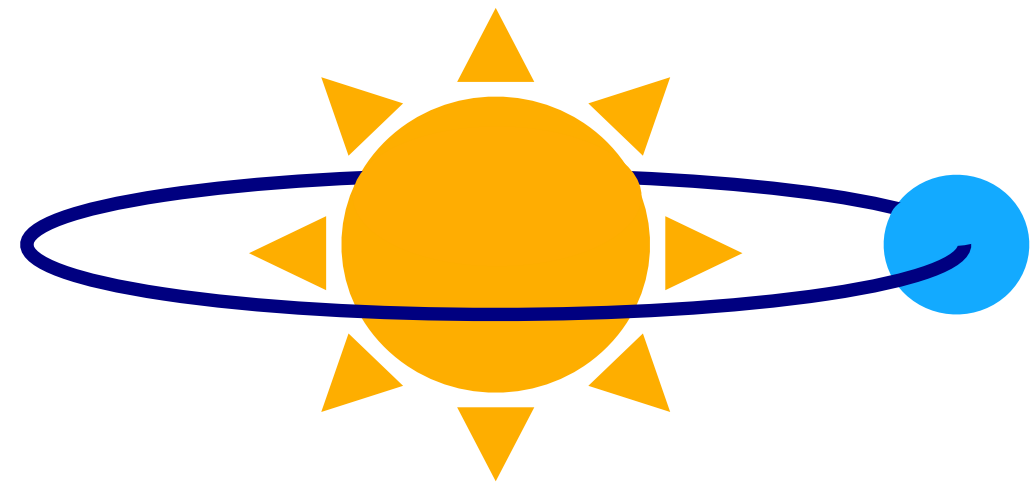
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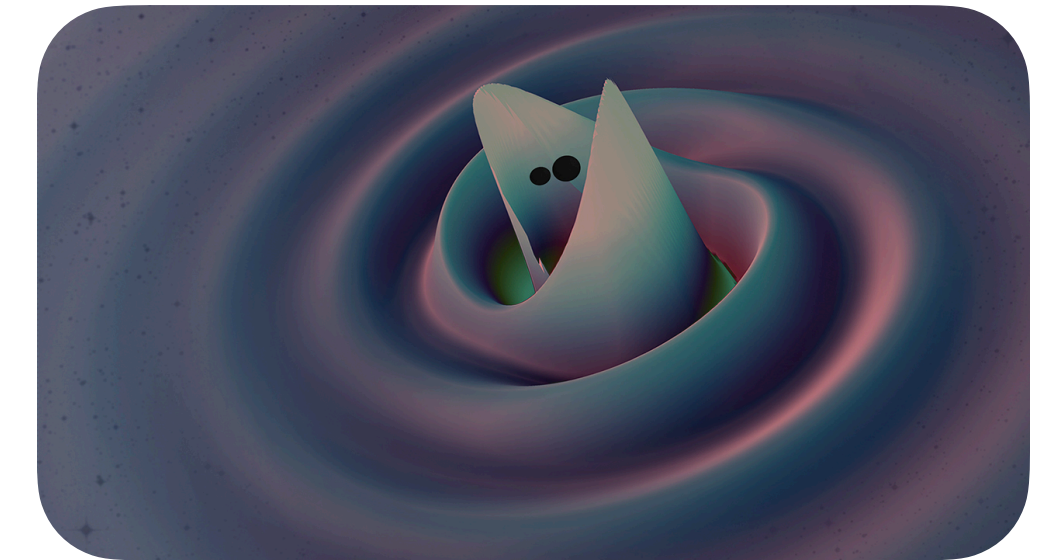
$$x^m (1 + c_1 x + \dots + c_n x^n)$$

# Post-Newtonian formalism



Weakest Systems

Post-Newtonian!



Strongest Systems

Assume:  $(v/c)^2 \ll 1$  and  $Gm/rc^2 \ll 1$

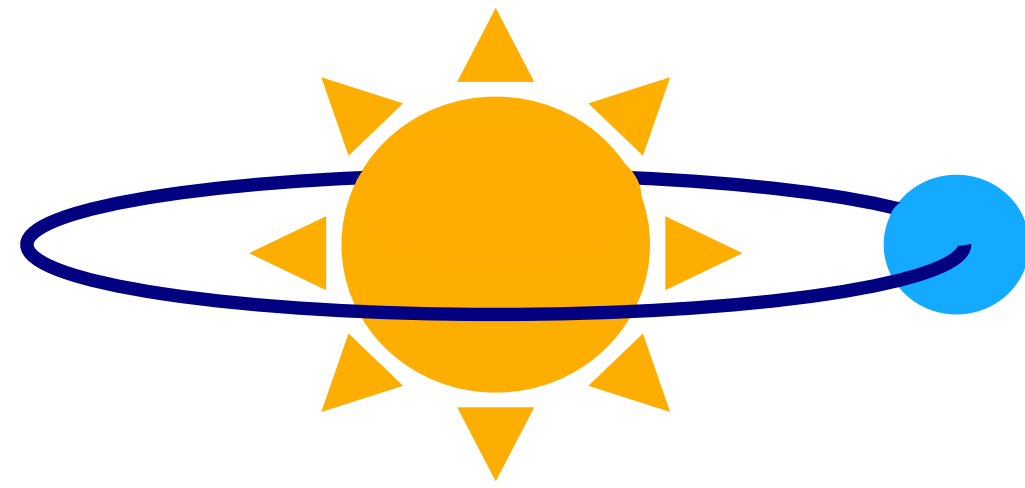
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$$x^m \left( \dots + c_{-1}x^{-1} + 1 + c_1x + \dots + x^n \right)$$

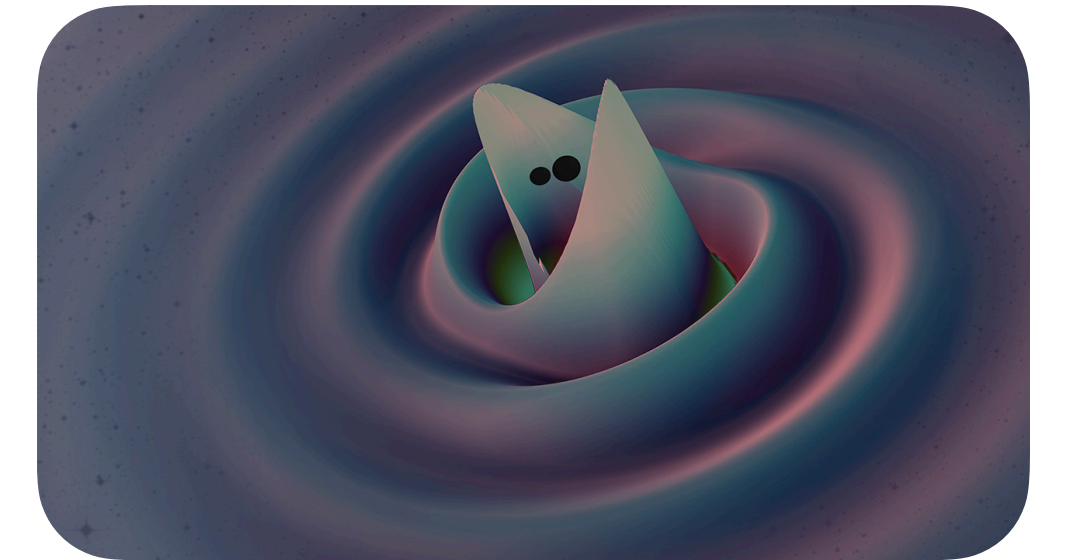
$\longleftarrow$  -1PN

# Post-Newtonian formalism



Weakest Systems

Post-Newtonian!



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  - ▶ Computed directly in the frequency domain
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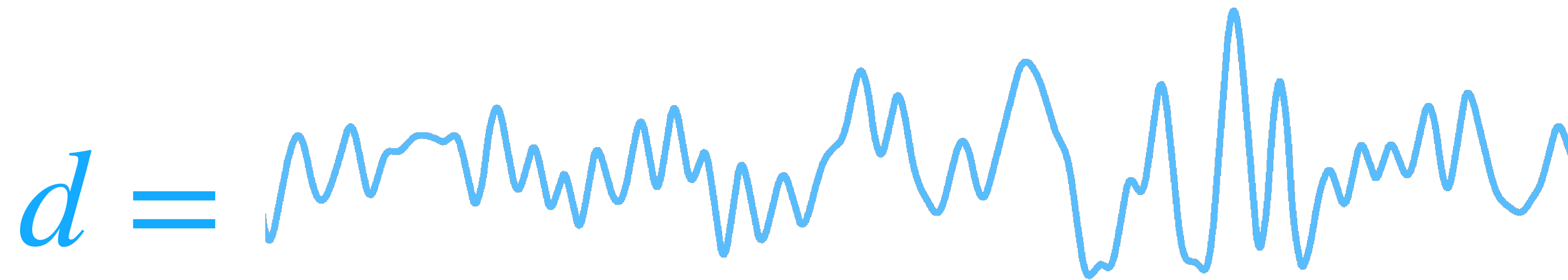
- ▶ Phenomenological:
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  - ▶ PN/NR/BH perturbation
- ▶ Surrogate:
  - ▶ Interpolate between NR Simulations
  - ▶ Incorporate PN/BH perturbation to deal with inspiral/ringdown

# Parameter estimation

Say we have a model  $h = h(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \dots$

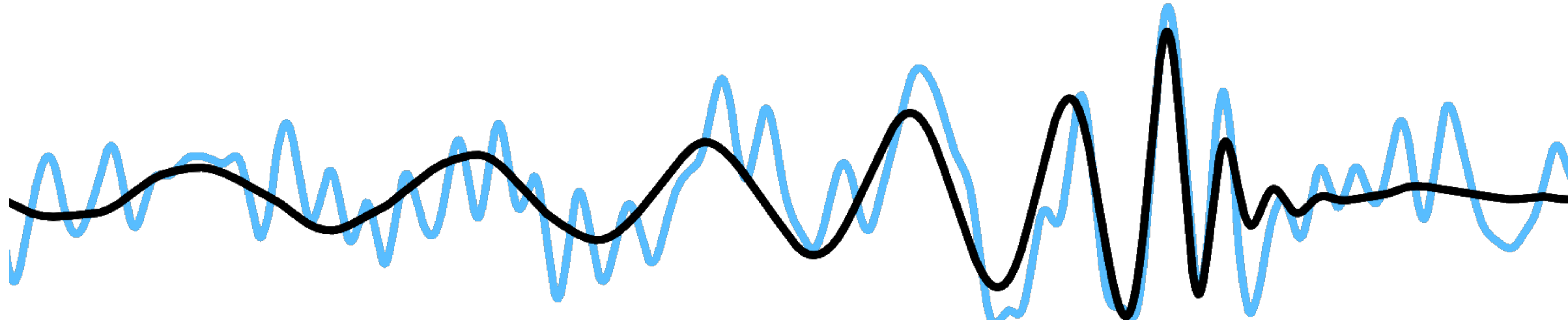
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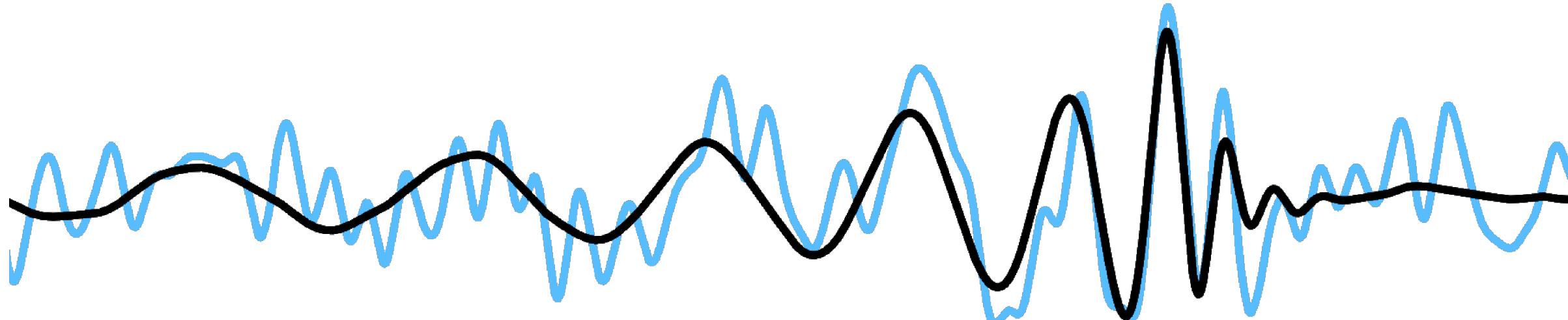
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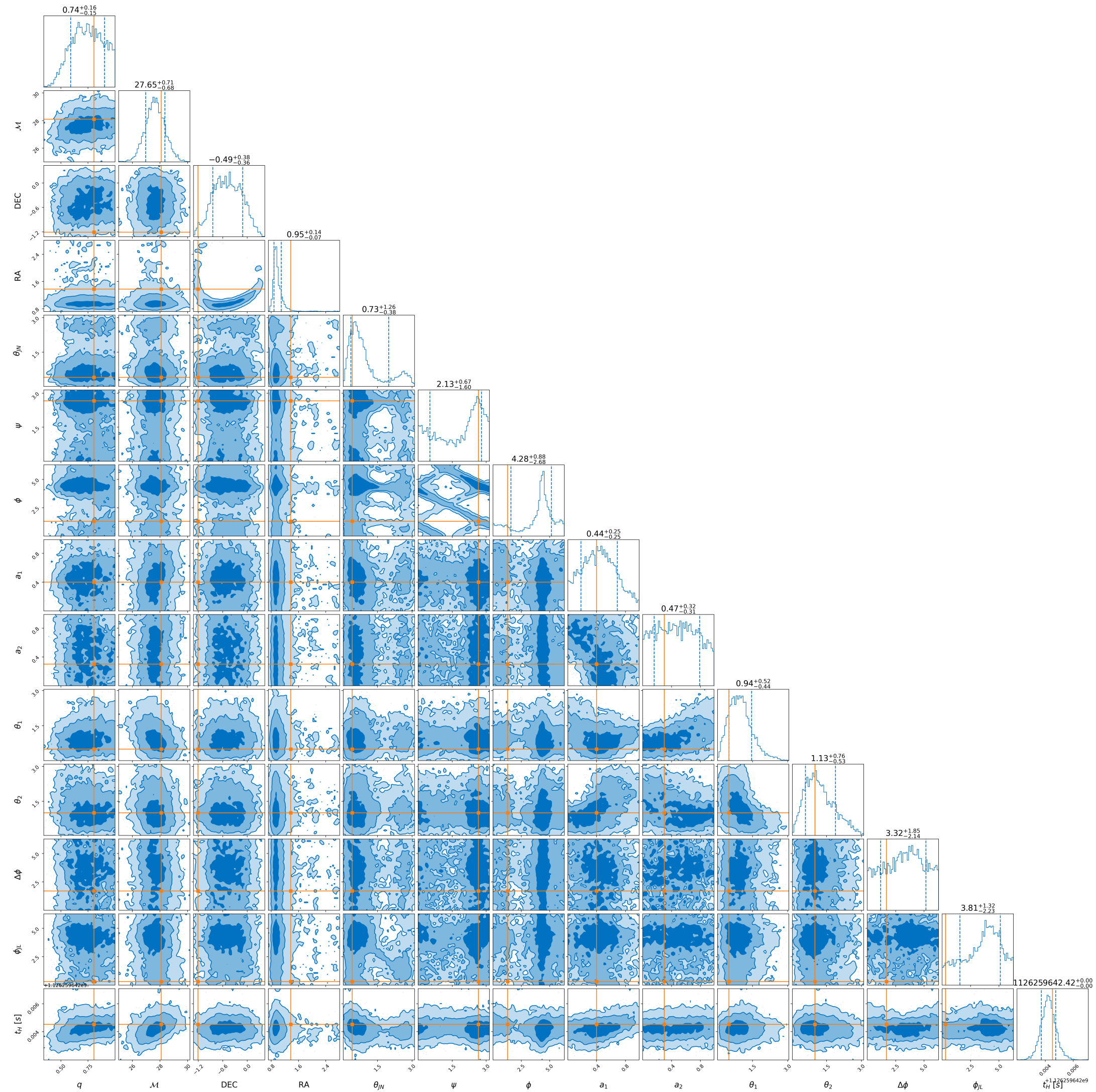
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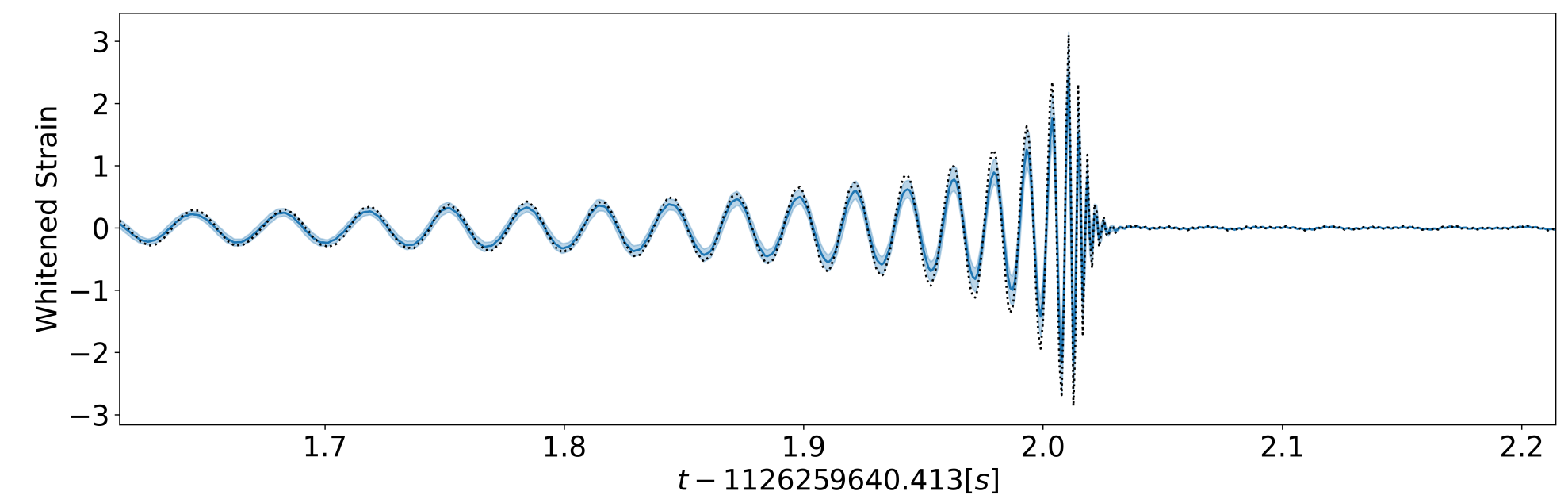
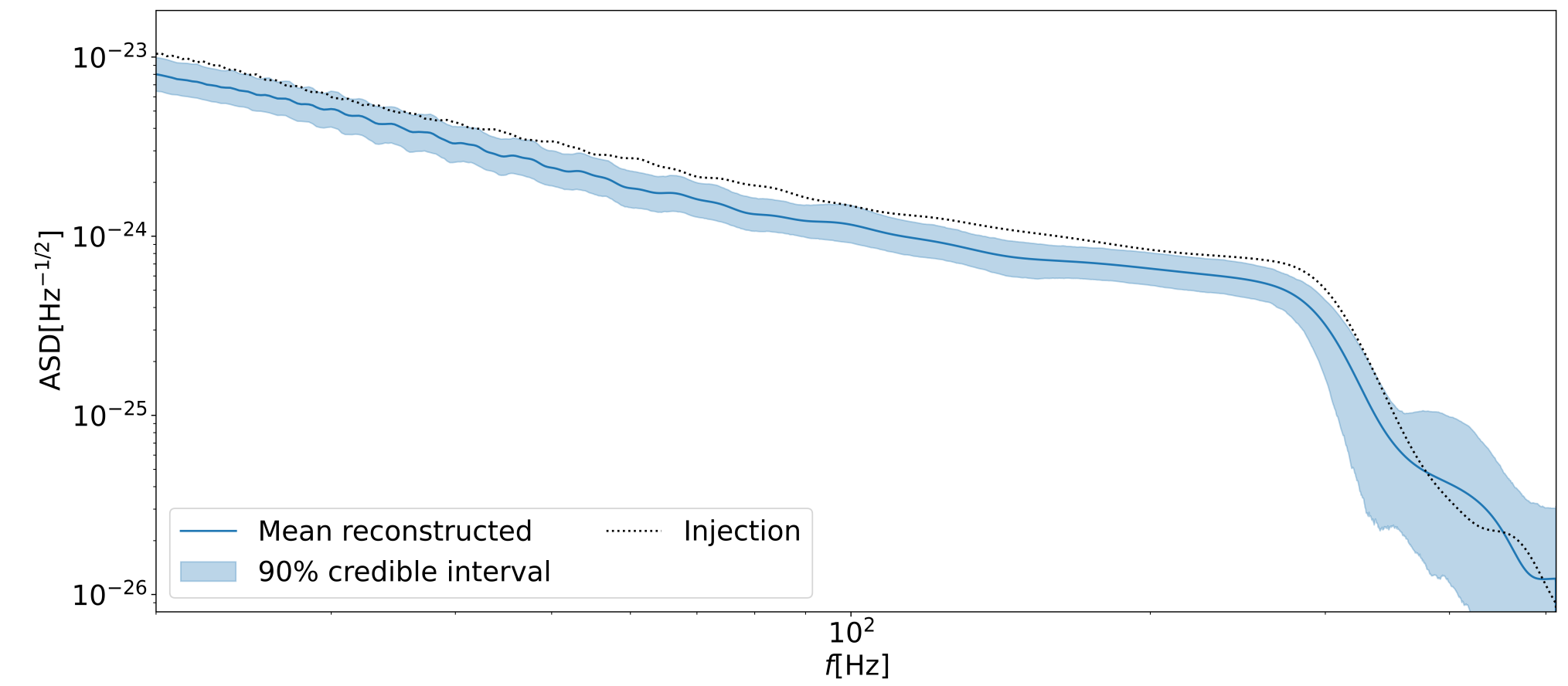
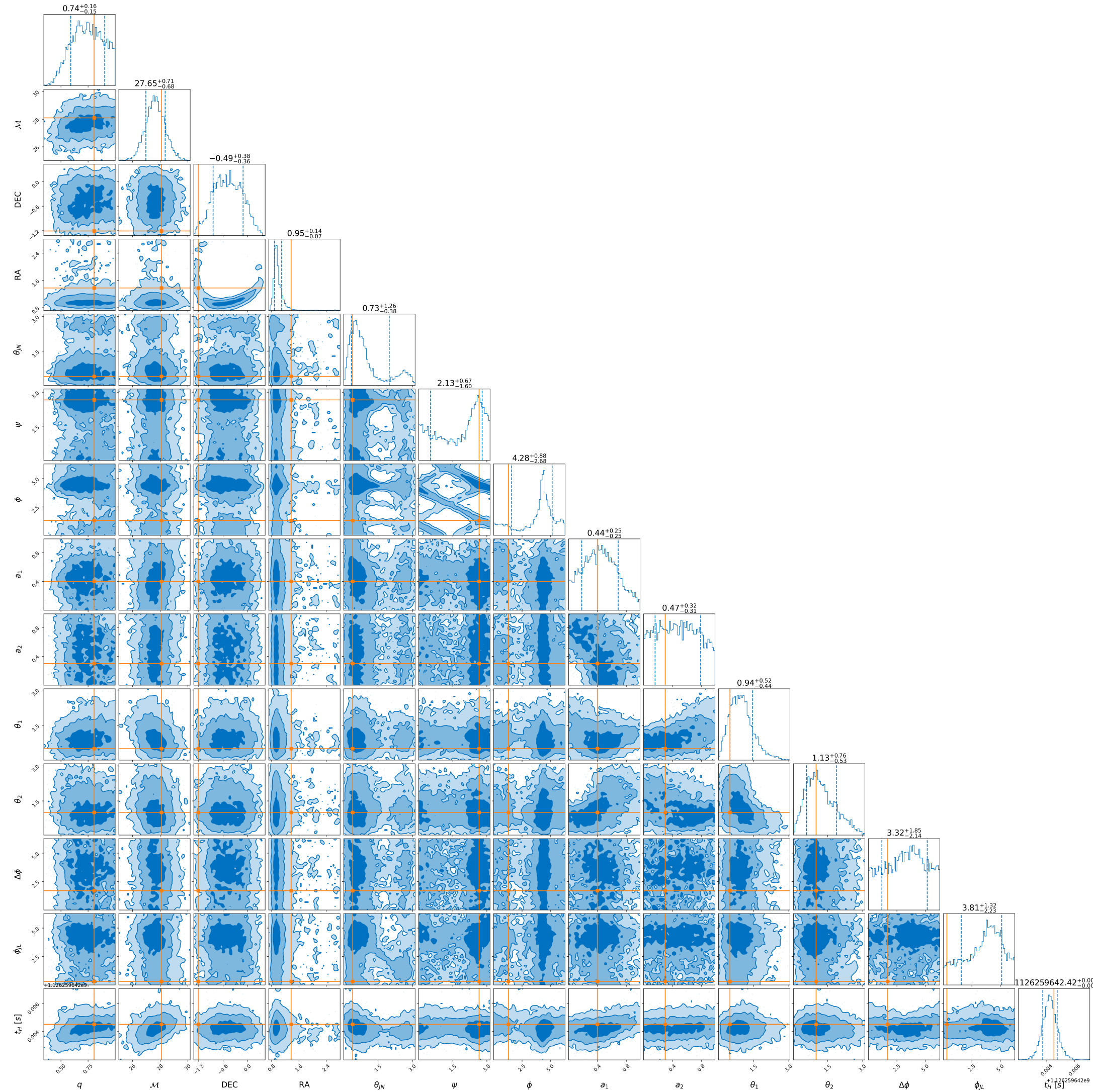
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# Parameter estimation

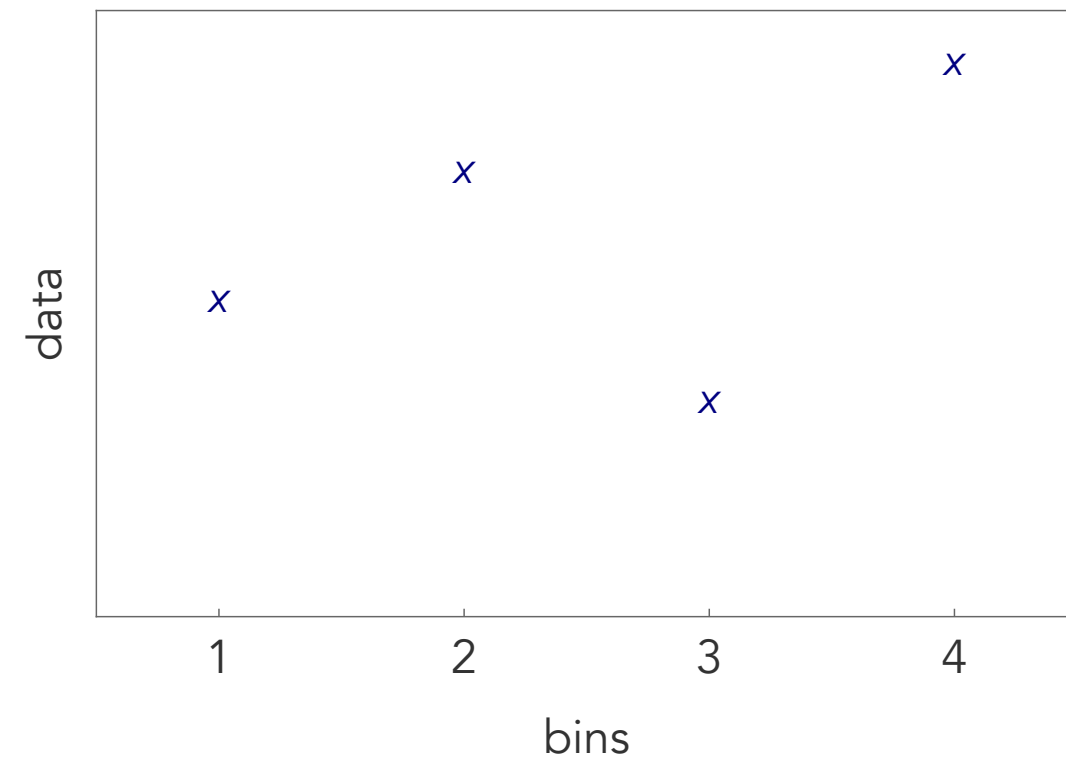


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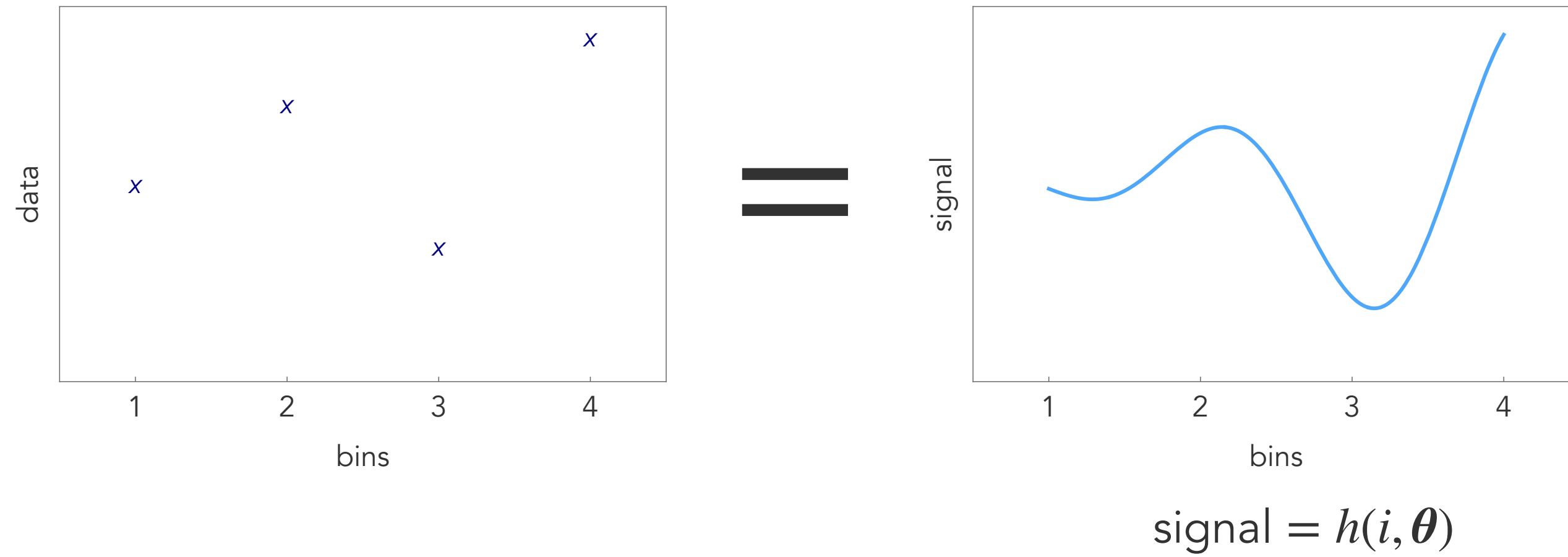


# Binary parameter likelihood

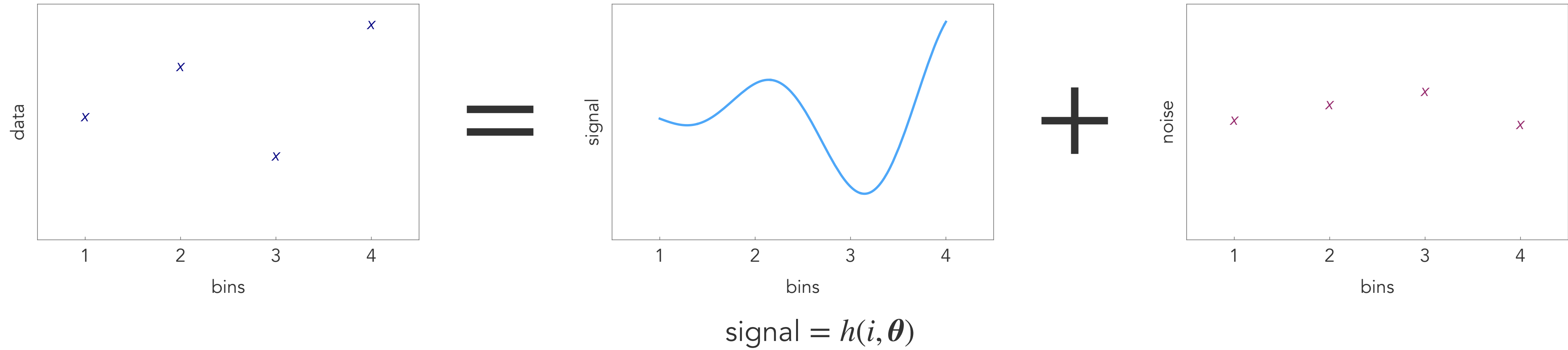
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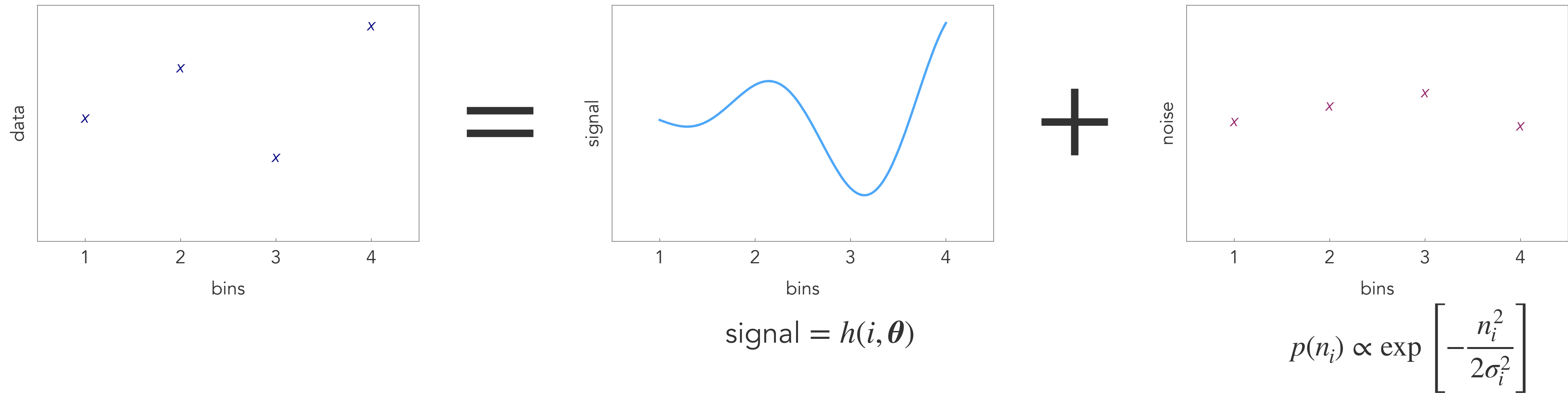
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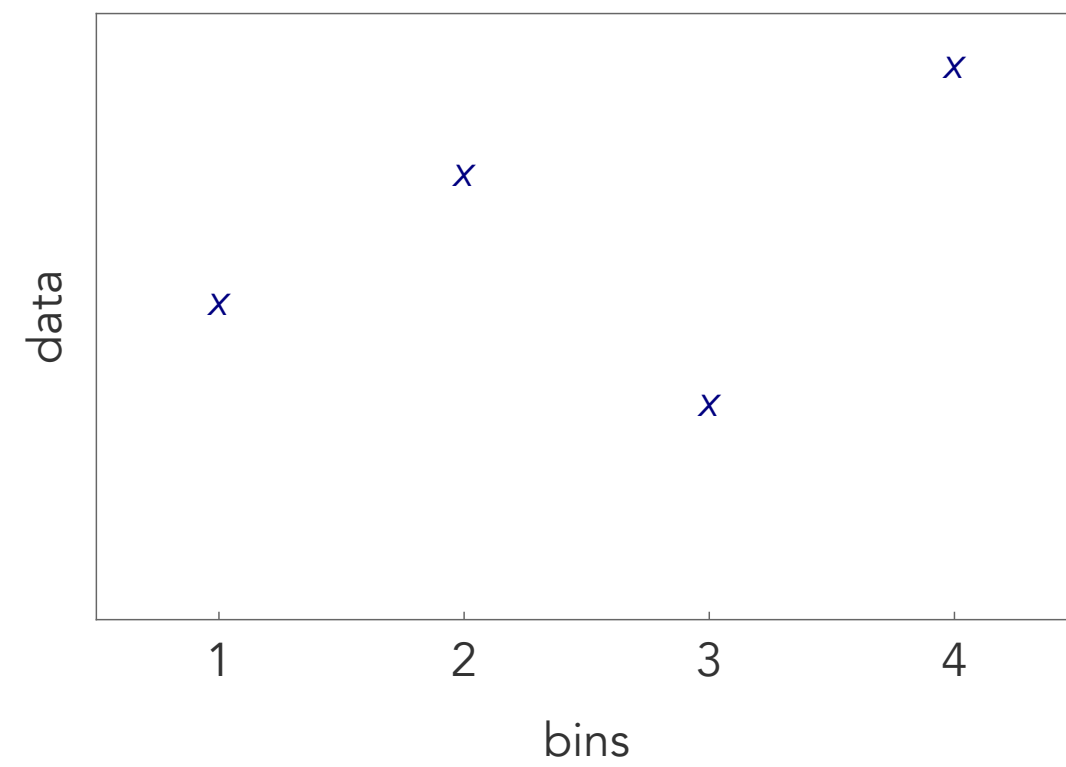
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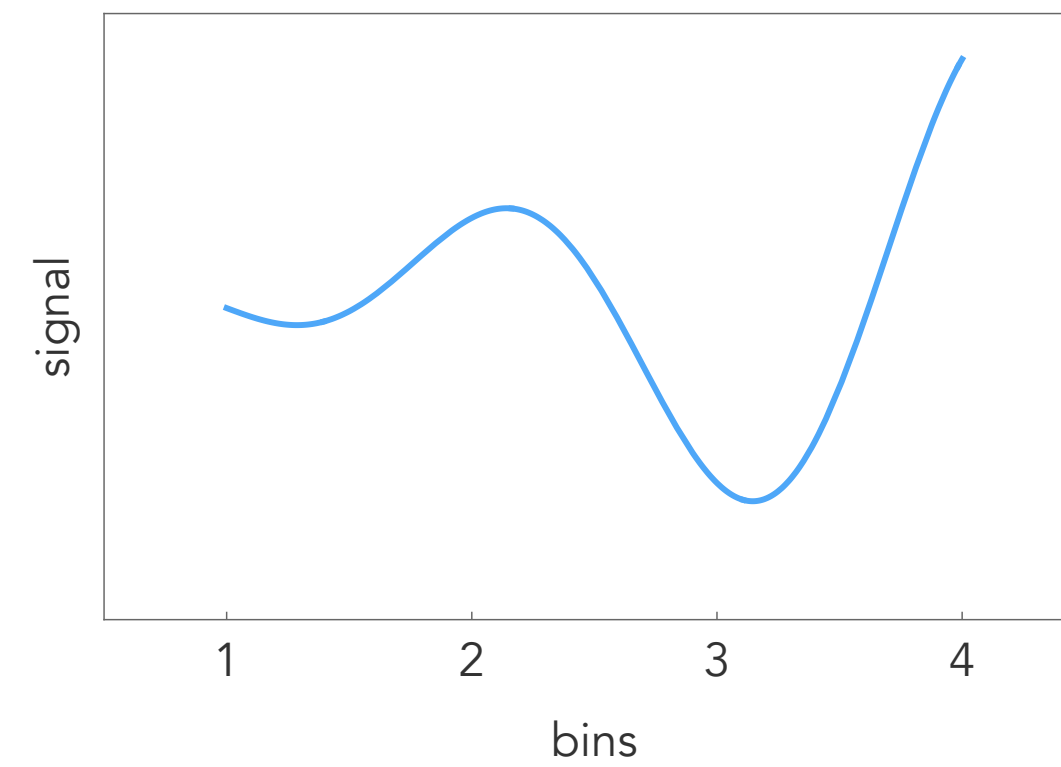
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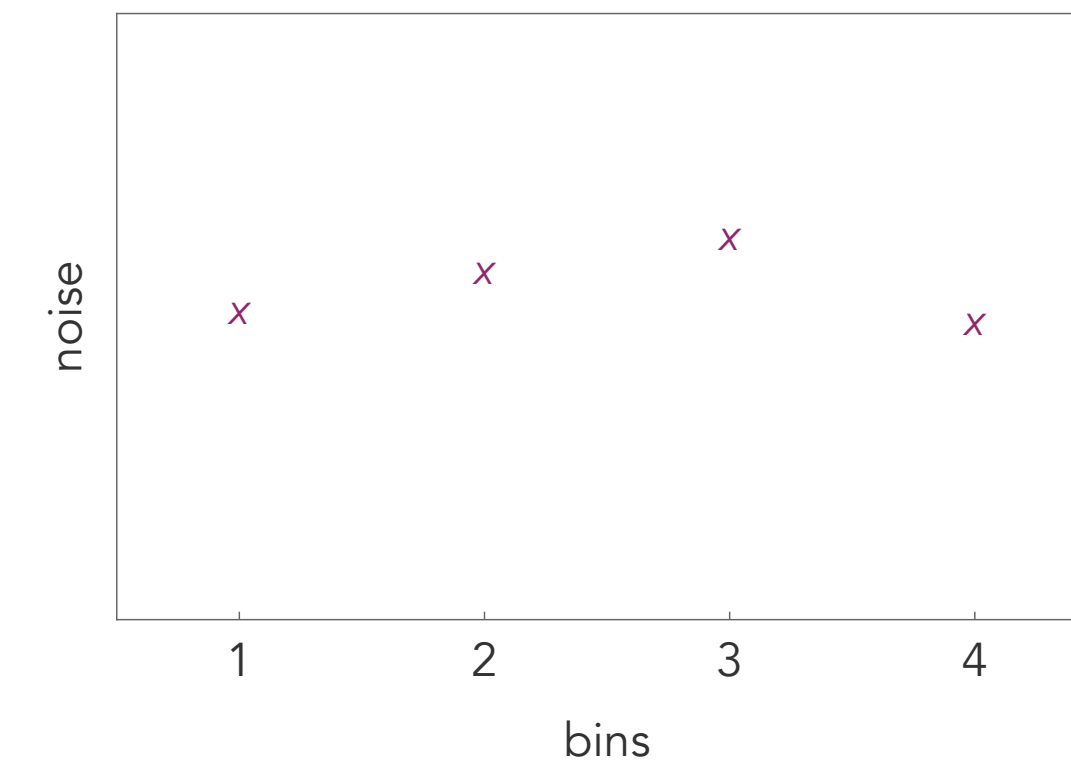


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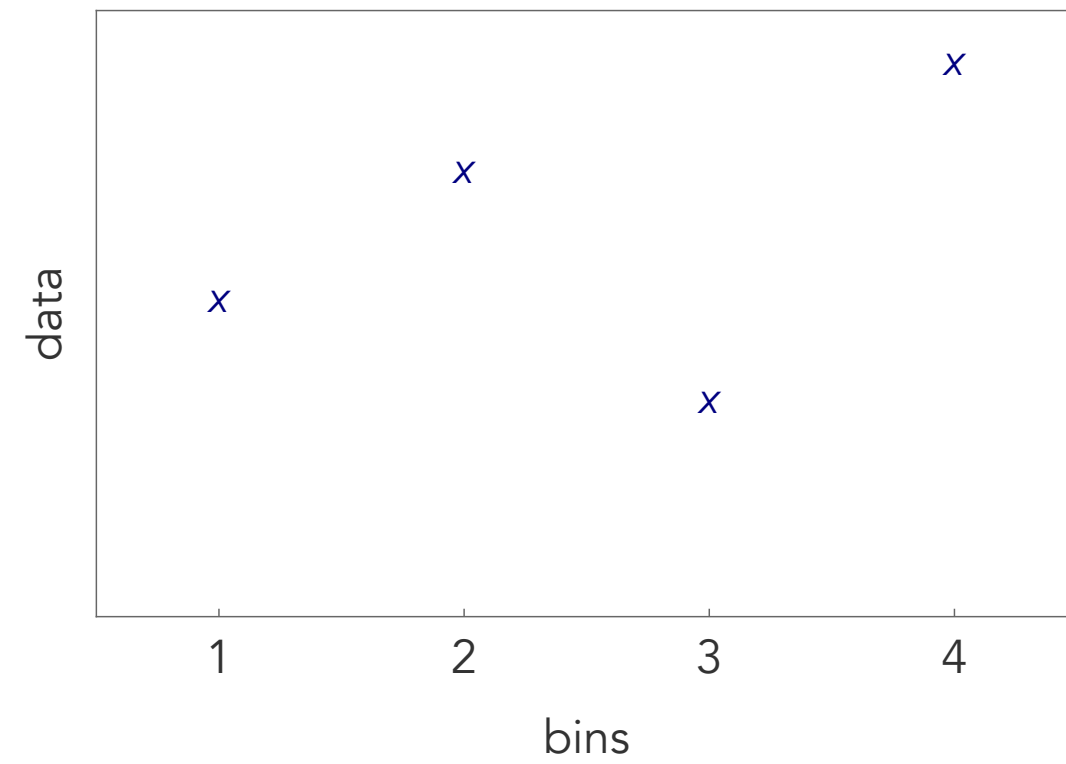
$$\text{signal} = h(i, \theta)$$

+

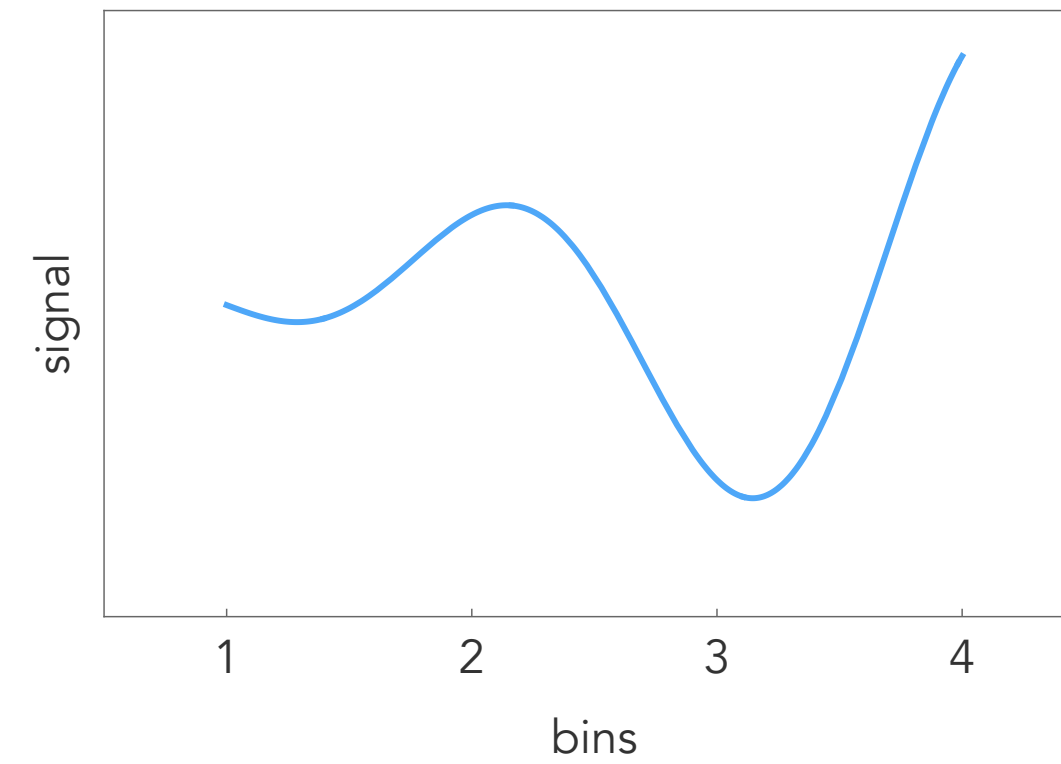


$$p(\text{noise}) \propto \exp \left[ - \sum_{\text{bins}} \frac{n_i^2}{2\sigma_i^2} \right]$$

# Binary parameter likelihood

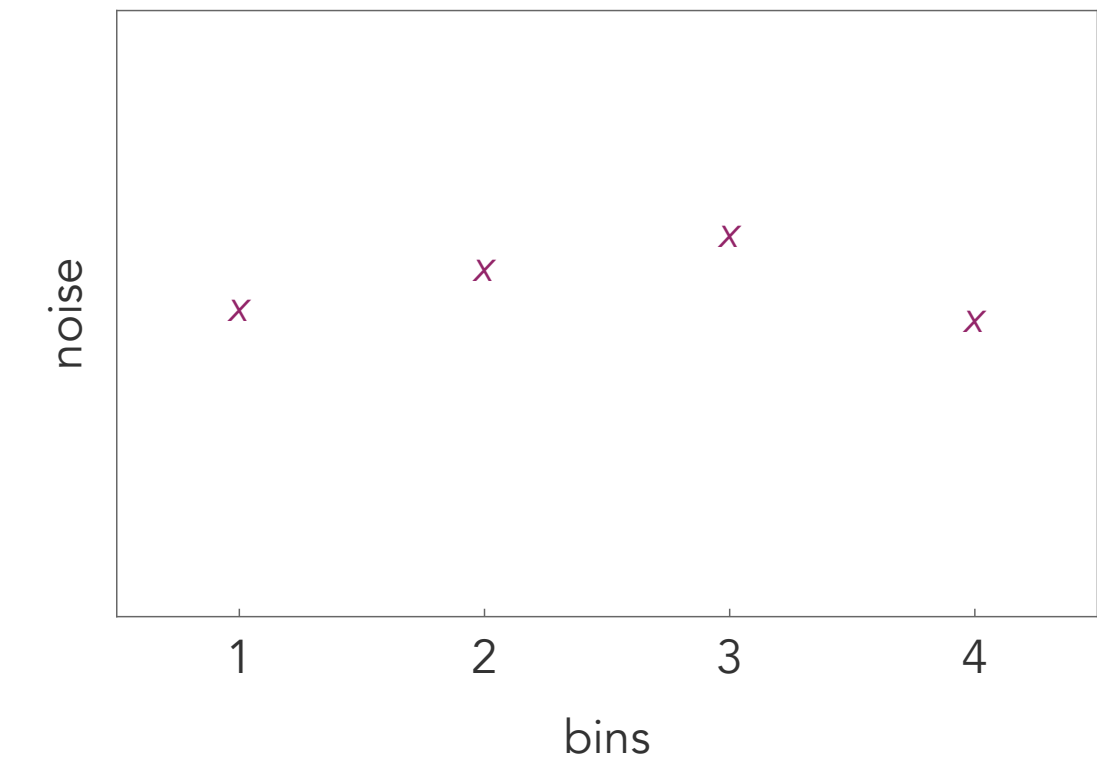


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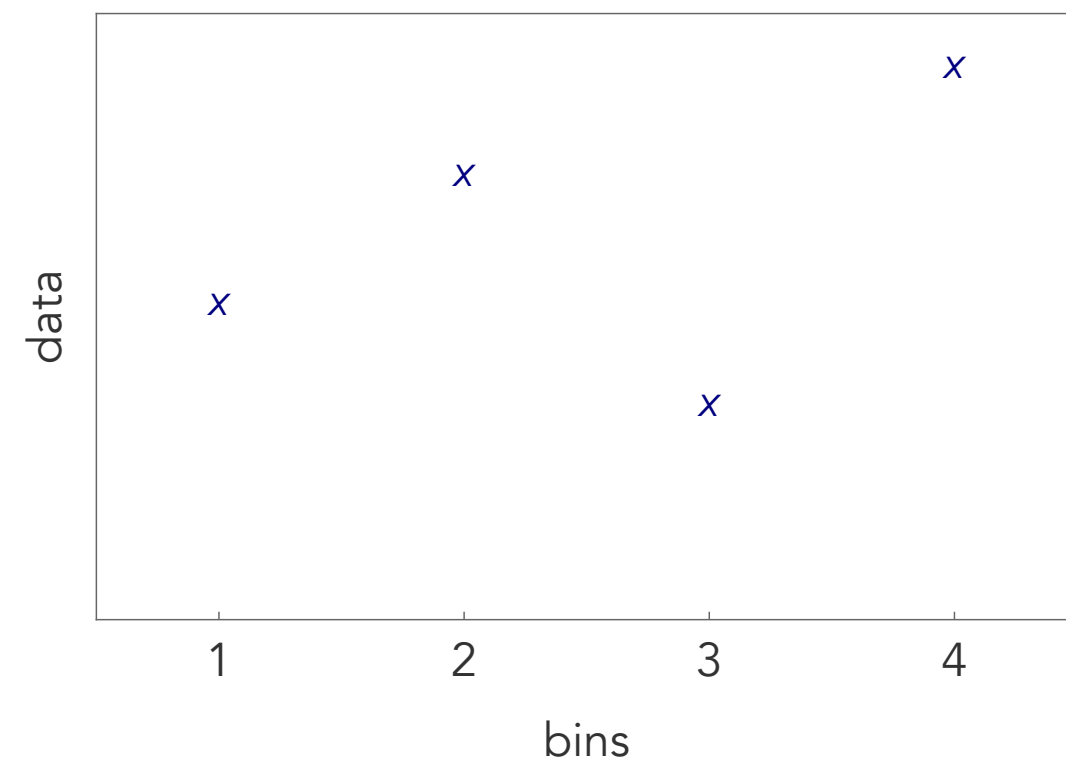
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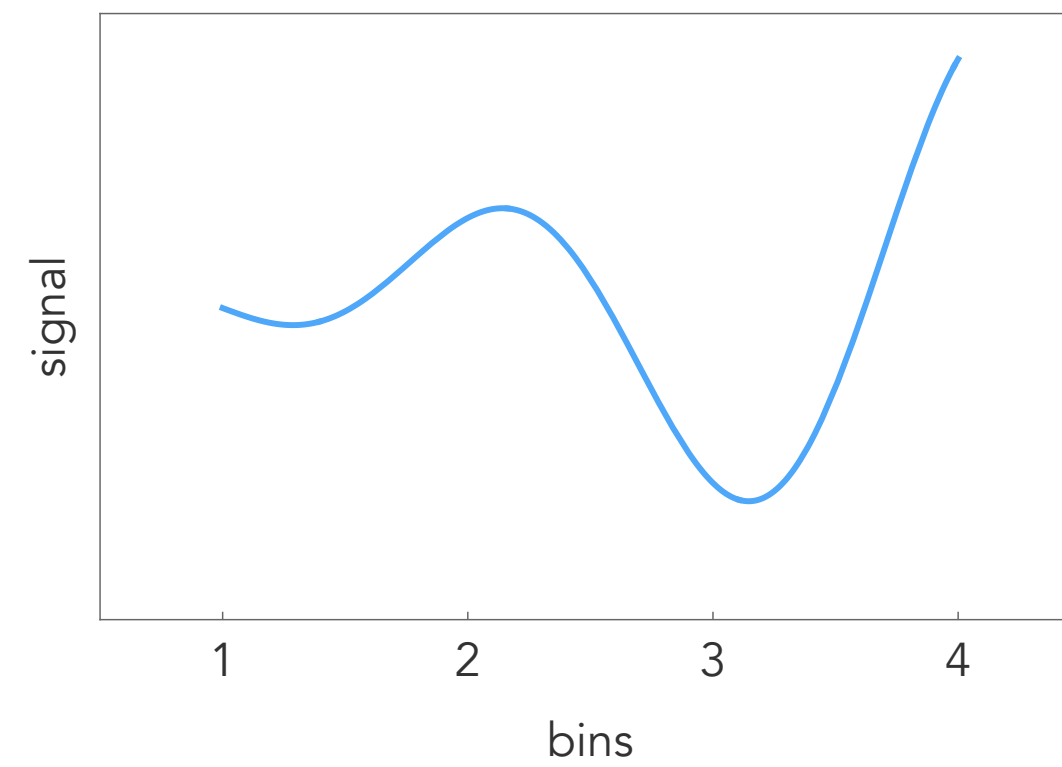


$$p(\text{noise}) \propto \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} n_i C_{ij}^{-1} n_j \right]$$

# Binary parameter likelihood

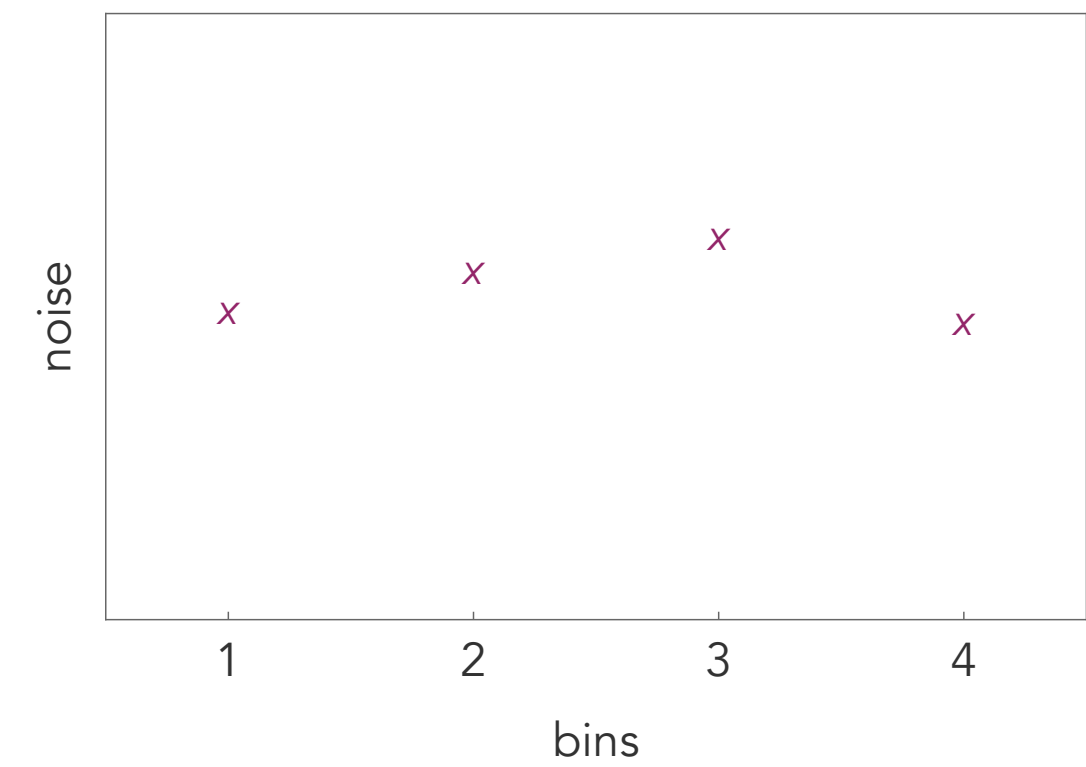


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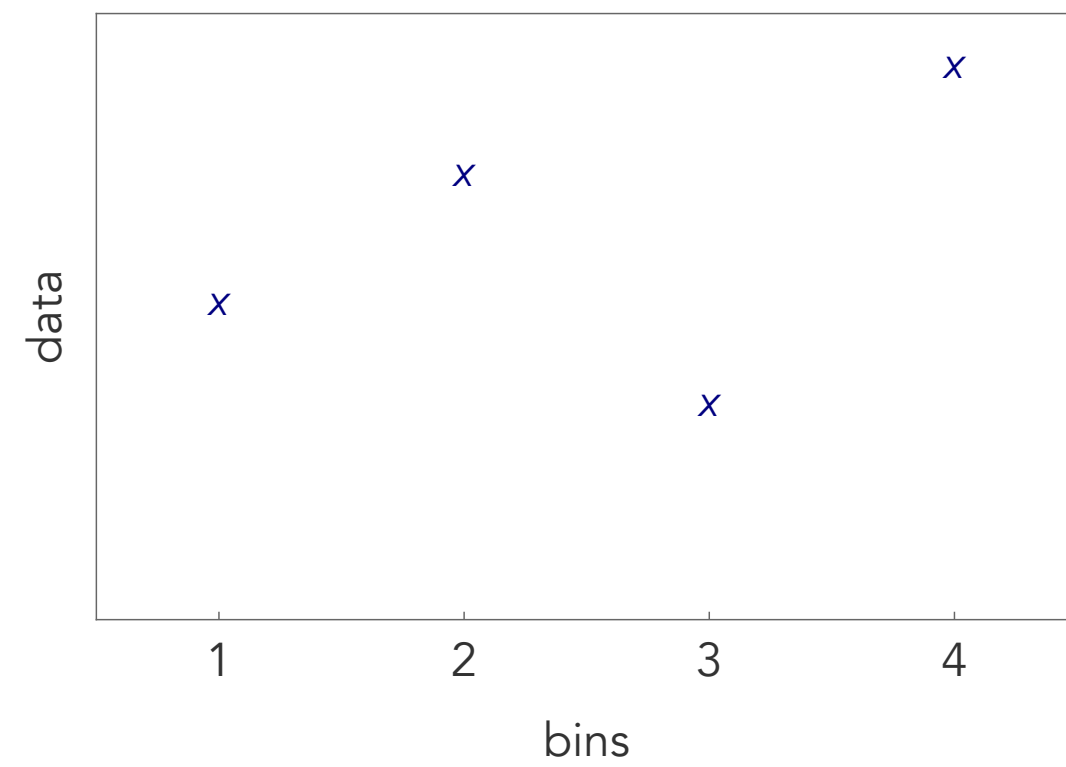
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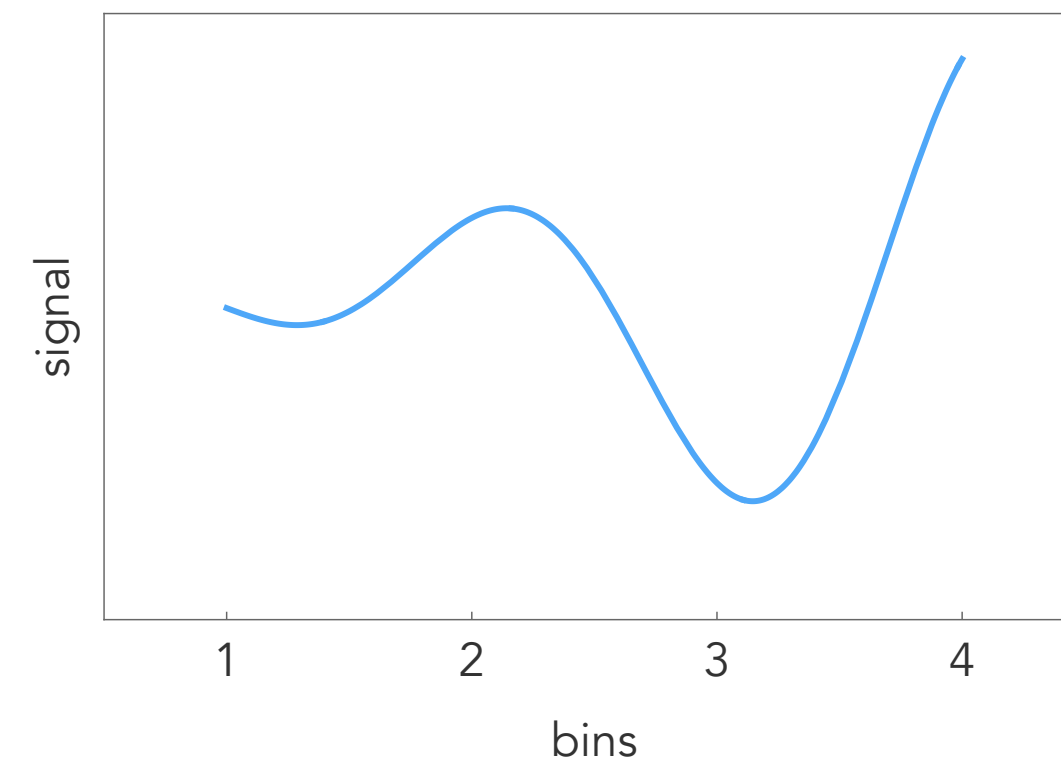
$$p(\text{noise}) \propto \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} (n | n) \right]$$

$$(a | b) = a_i C_{ij}^{-1} b_j^*$$

# Binary parameter likelihood

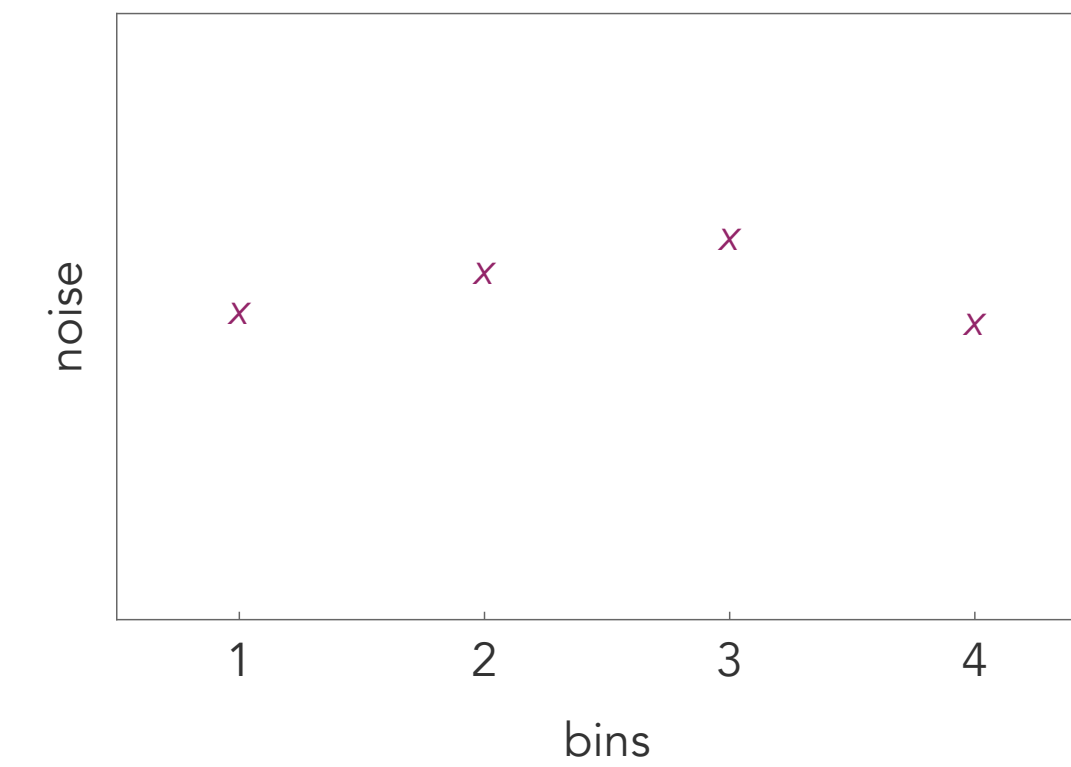


=



$$\text{signal} = h(i, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

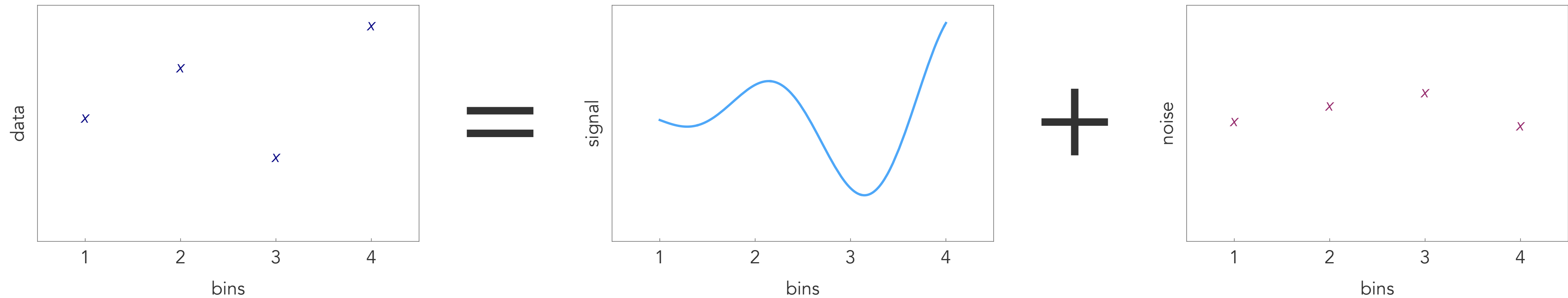
+



$$p(\text{noise}) \propto \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \left( d - h(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \mid d - h(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \right) \right]$$

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# Binary parameter likelihood



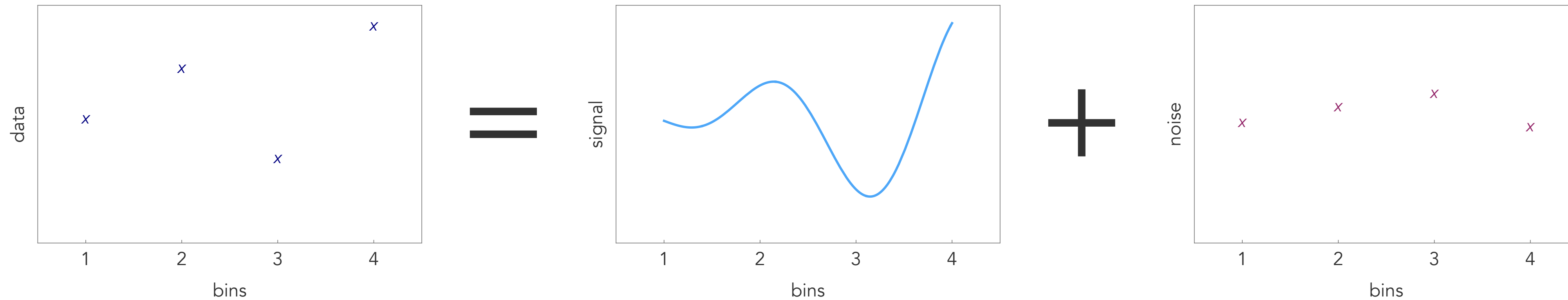
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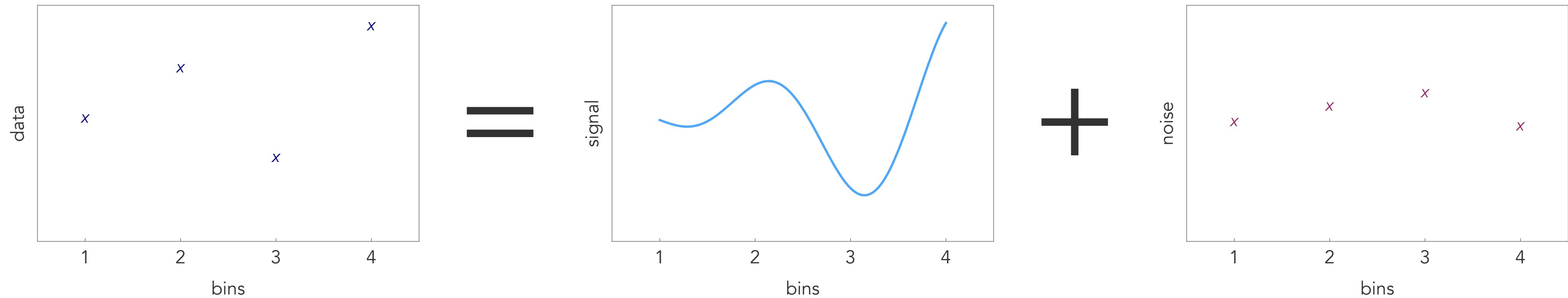
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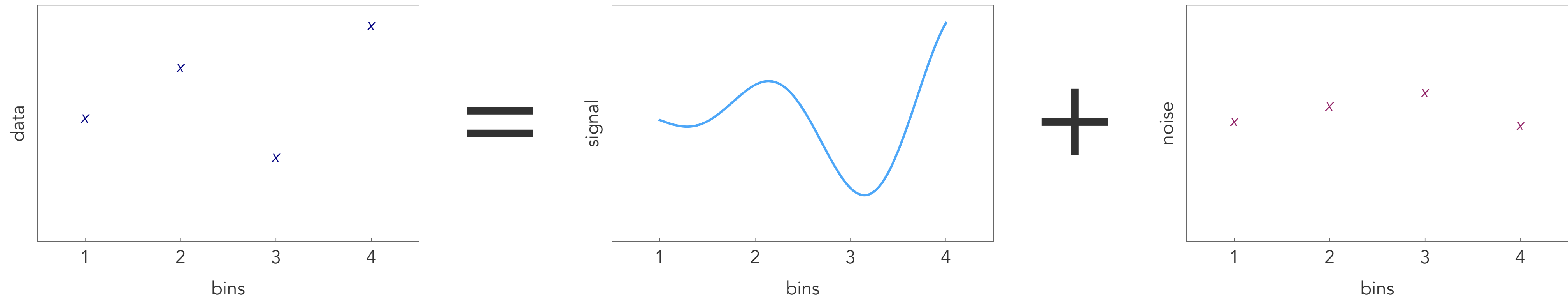
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... time?

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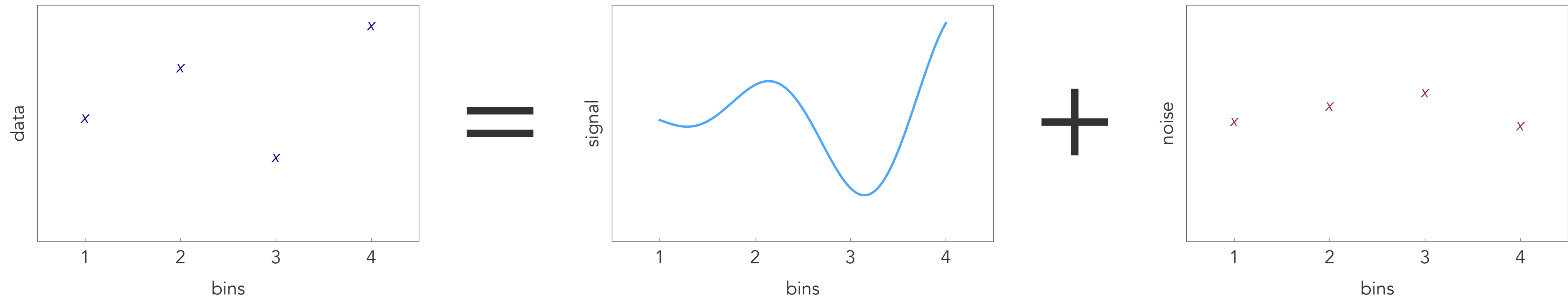
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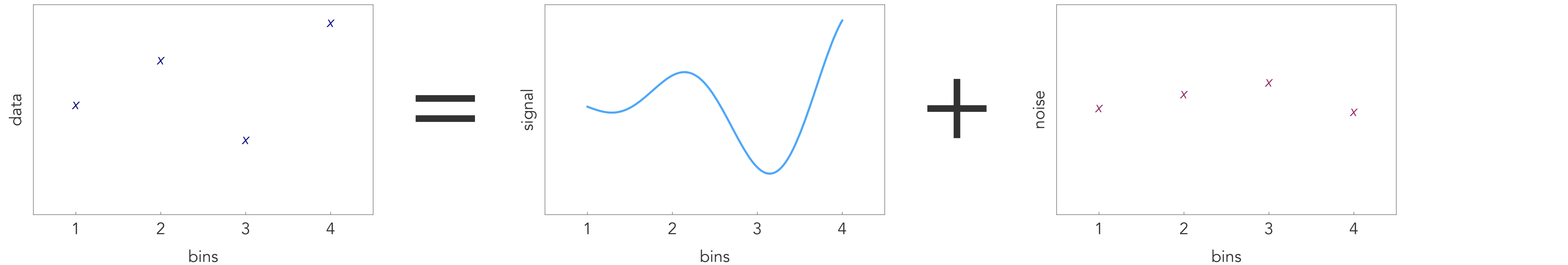
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What are the bins?

... time?

$$(a \mid b) = a(t_i) C_{ij}^{-1} b^*(t_j) \quad i, j \in 1, \dots, \sim 10^4$$

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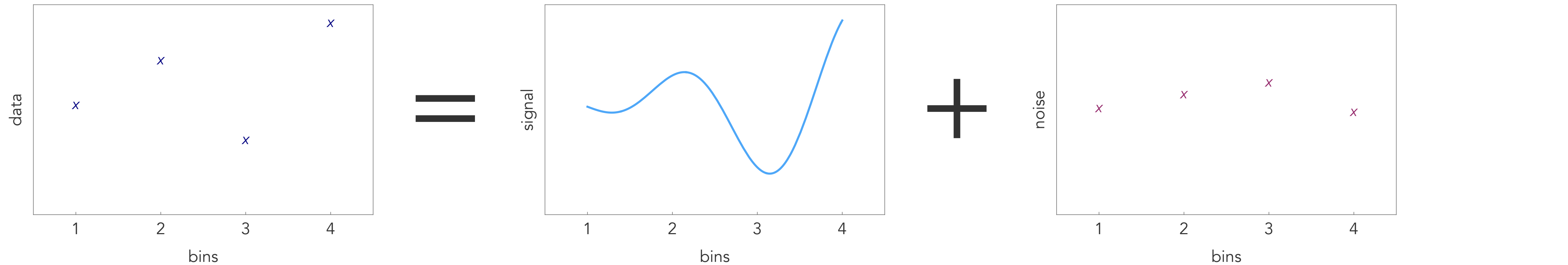
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Inversion scales with  $N_{\text{bins}}^3$

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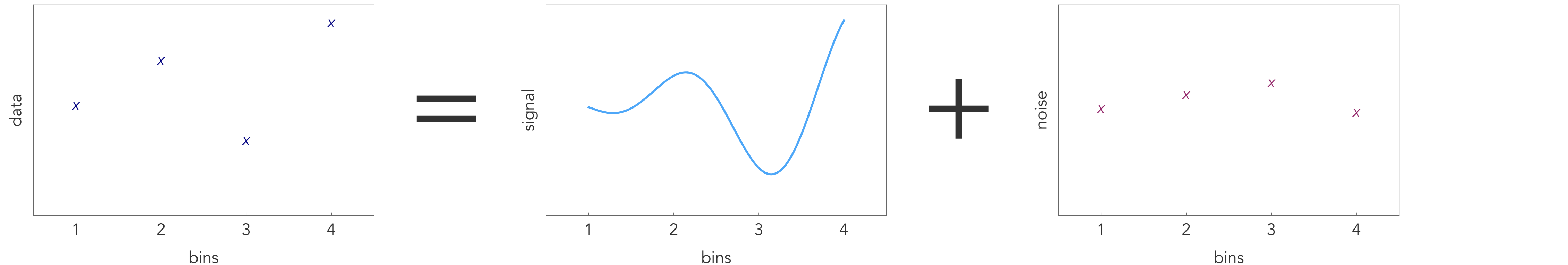
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... frequency?

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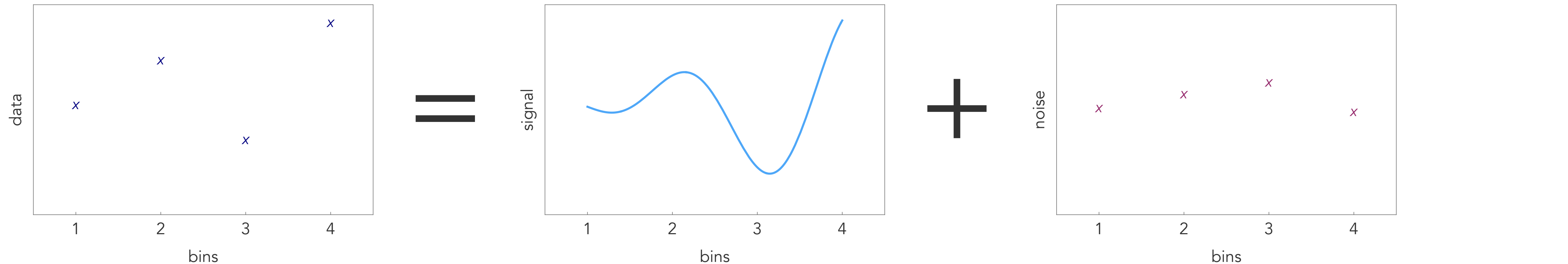
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Wiener–Khinchin theorem:  $C_{ij}$  diagonalizes in the frequency domain

# Binary parameter likelihood



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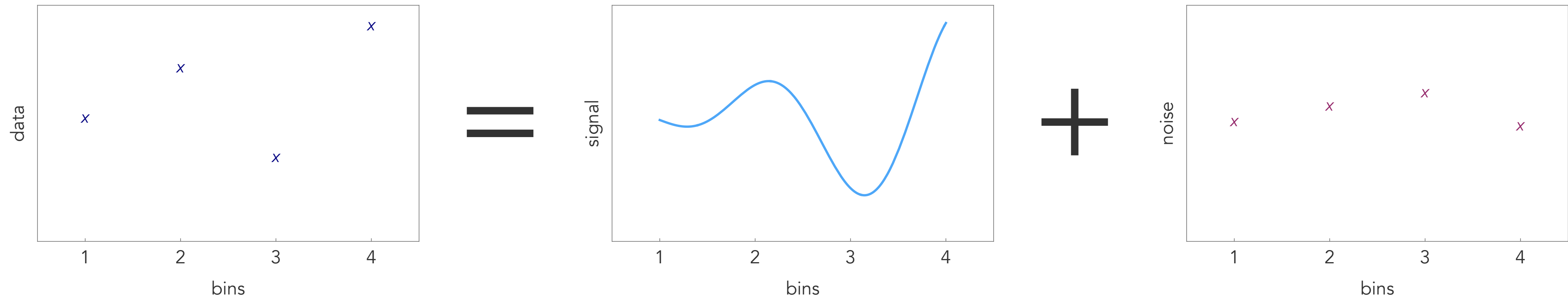
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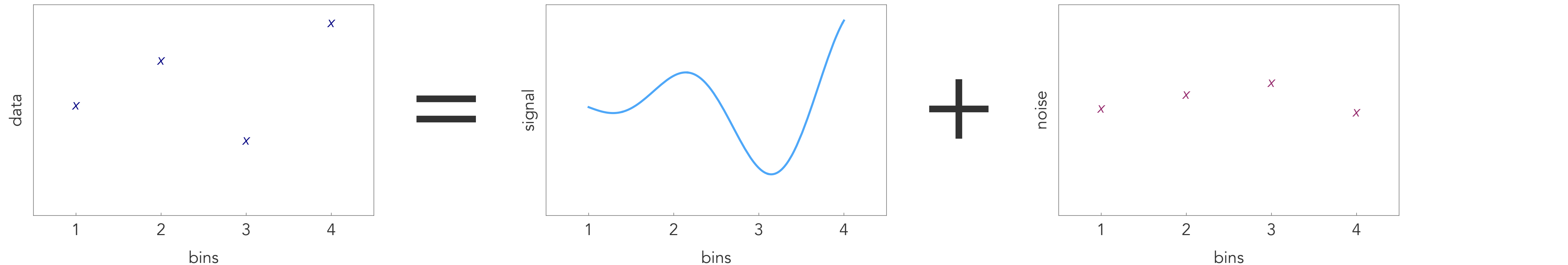
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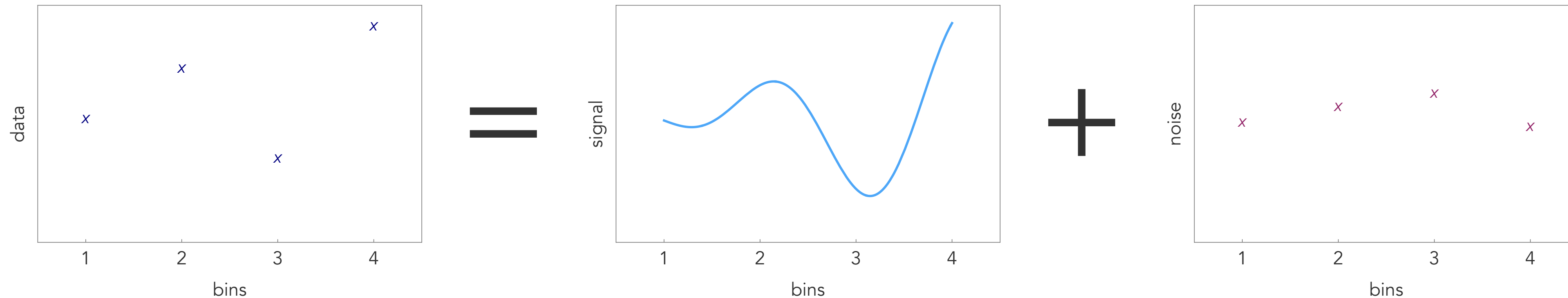
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$S_n(f)$  is the power spectral density (PSD)

# Binary parameter likelihood



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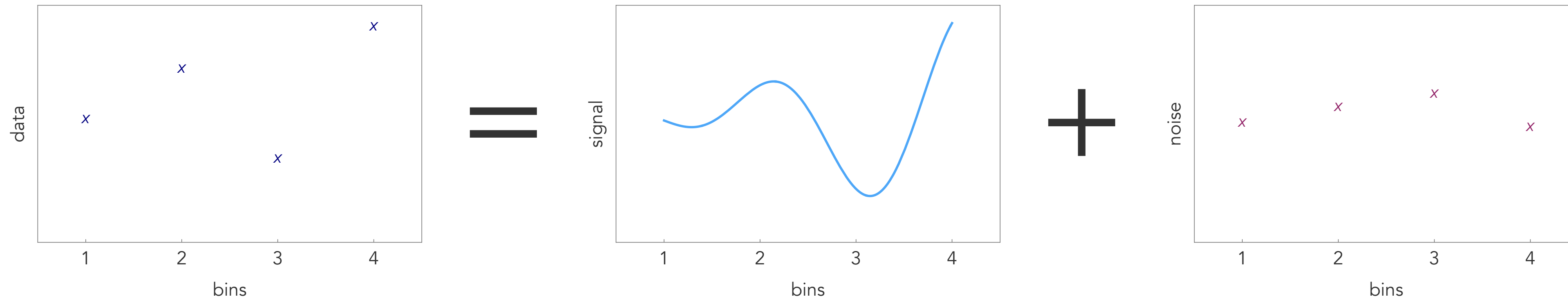
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$$\sigma^2(f) = \langle \tilde{n}(f) \tilde{n}^*(f) \rangle$$

# Binary parameter likelihood



$$\text{signal} = h(i, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$p(\text{noise}) \propto \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \left( d - h(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \middle| d - h(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \right) \right]$$

$$\text{Likelihood: } \mathcal{L}(d | \boldsymbol{\theta}, h) \propto \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \left( d - h(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \middle| d - h(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \right) \right]$$

$$(a | b) = a_i C_{ij}^{-1} b_j^*$$

What are the bins?

... time?

$$(a | b) = a(t_i) C_{ij}^{-1} b^*(t_j) \quad i, j \in 1, \dots, \sim 10^4$$

Inversion scales with  $N_{\text{bins}}^3$

... frequency?

Wiener–Khinchin theorem:  $C_{ij}$  diagonalizes in the frequency domain

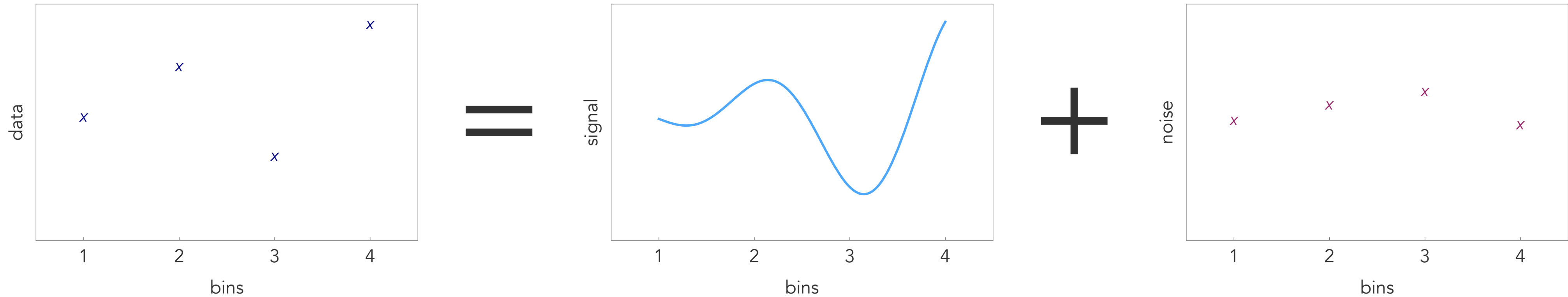
$$(a | b) = \sum_i \frac{\tilde{a}(f_i) \tilde{b}^*(f_i)}{\sigma^2(f_i)} = 4 \text{Re} \int \frac{\tilde{a}(f) \tilde{b}^*(f)}{S_n(f)} df$$

$S_n(f)$  is the power spectral density (PSD)

$$\sigma^2(f) = \langle \tilde{n}(f) \tilde{n}^*(f) \rangle$$

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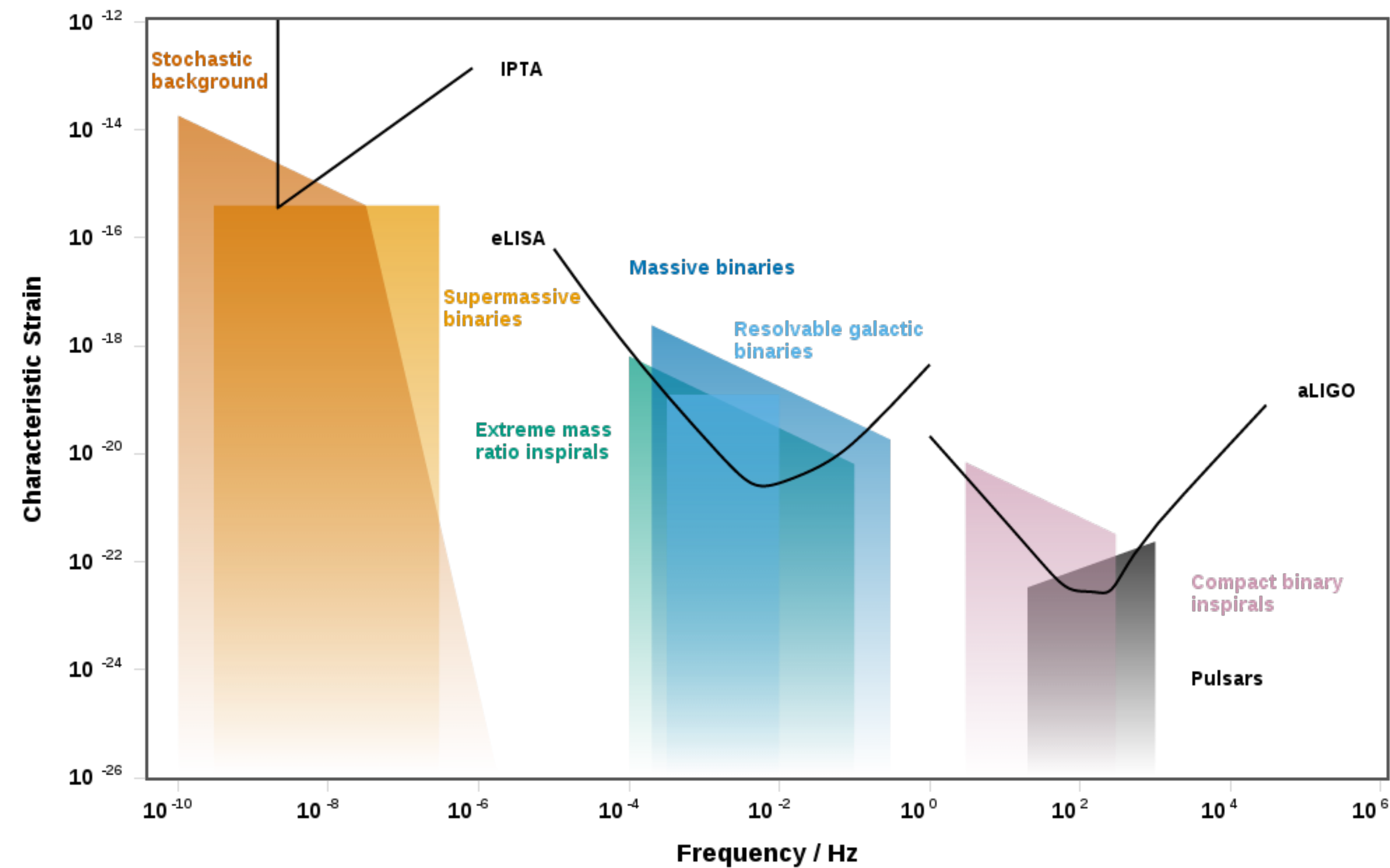
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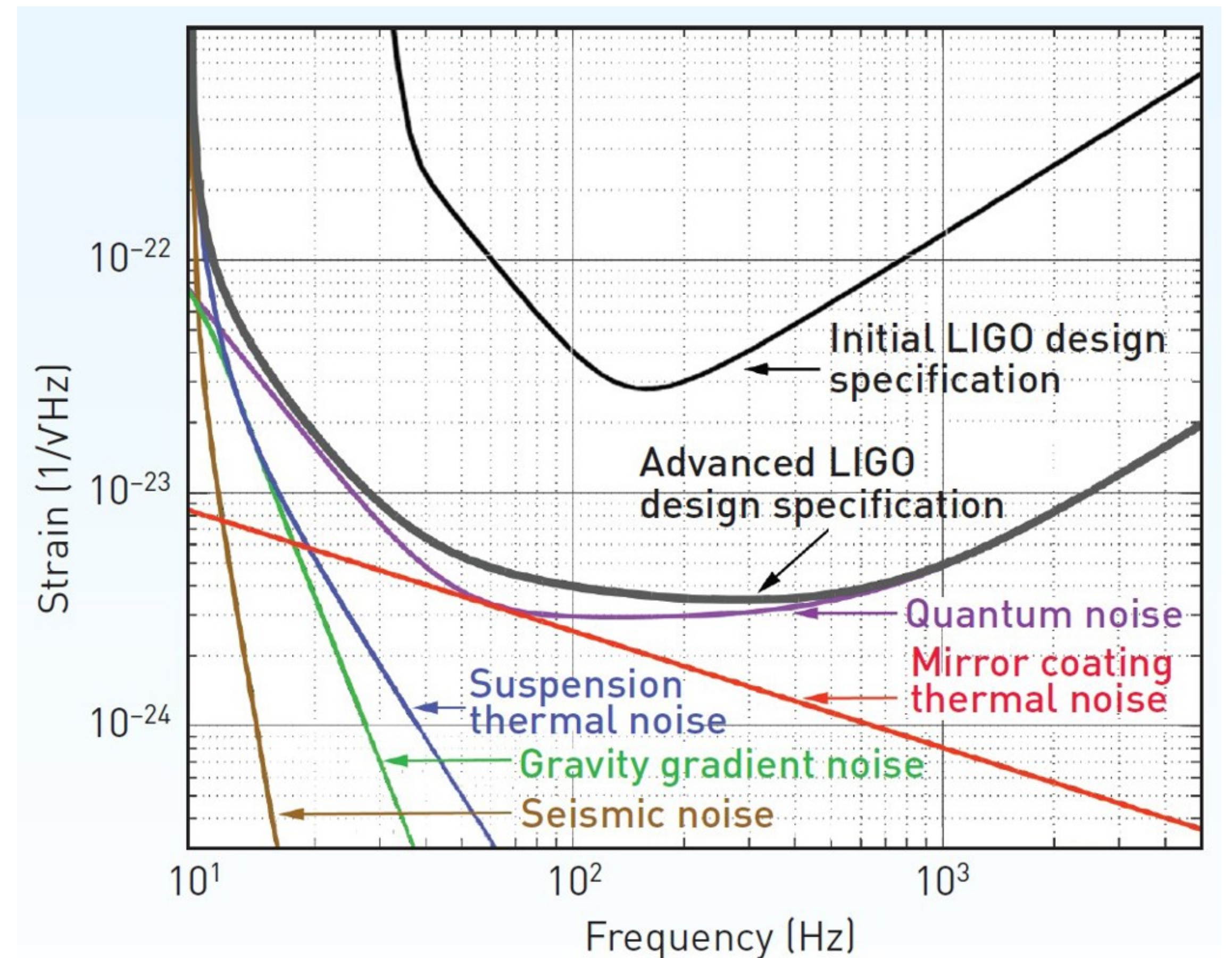
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So the total mass we measure is:  $m_{\text{det}} = (1 + z)m_{\text{src}}$

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Parameter estimation:

Learn about single events

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$$p(\boldsymbol{\Lambda} | \{d_k\}) = \frac{\mathcal{L}(\{d_k\} | \boldsymbol{\Lambda})\pi(\boldsymbol{\Lambda})}{\mathcal{Z}(\{d_k\})}$$

$\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$  = population parameters

$$\{d_k\} = \text{[multiple noisy signals]}$$

$$\mathcal{L}(\{d_k\} | \boldsymbol{\Lambda}) \sim \prod_k^n \int d\boldsymbol{\theta} \mathcal{L}(d_k | \boldsymbol{\theta}_k)\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k | \boldsymbol{\Lambda})$$

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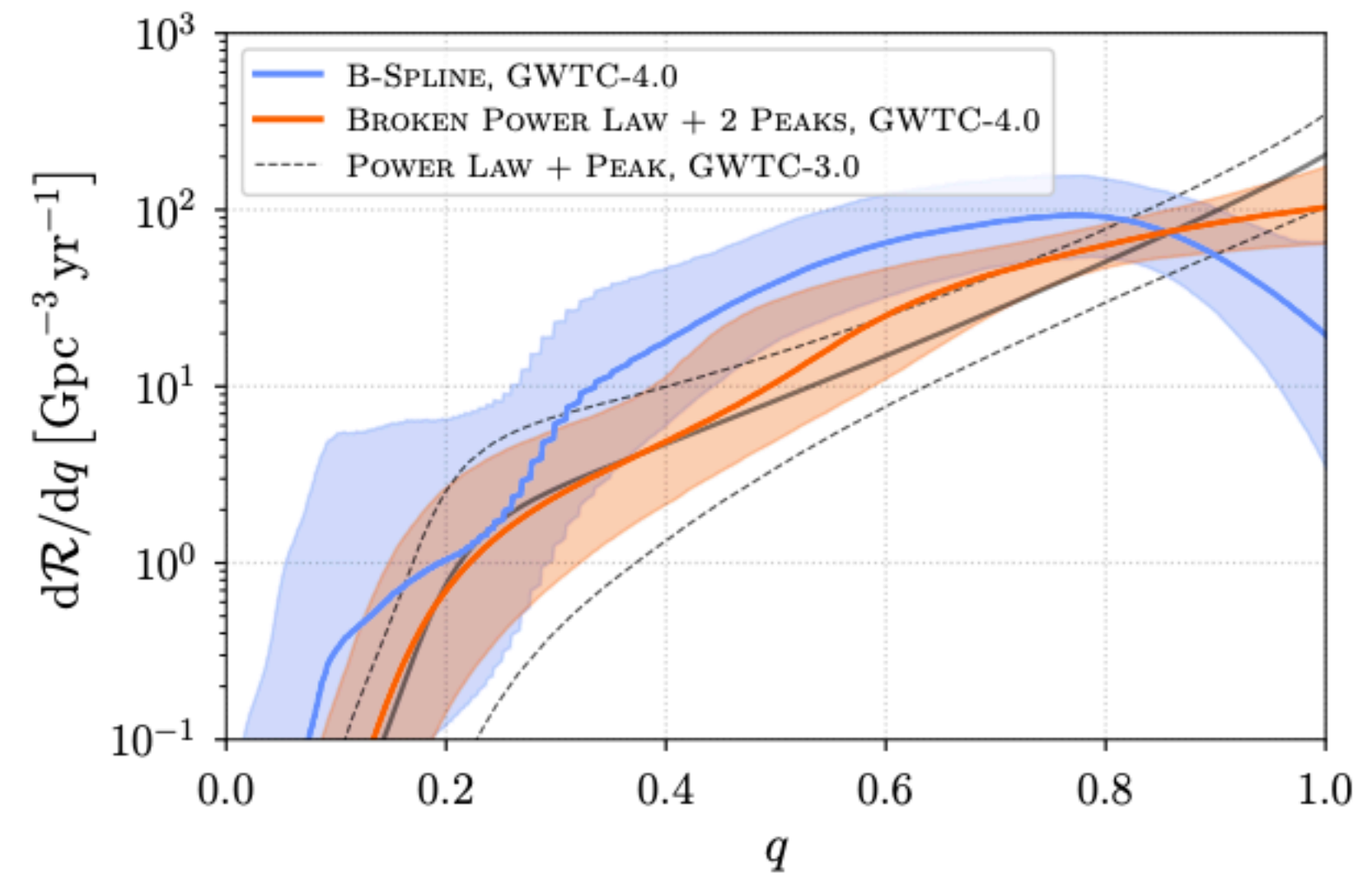
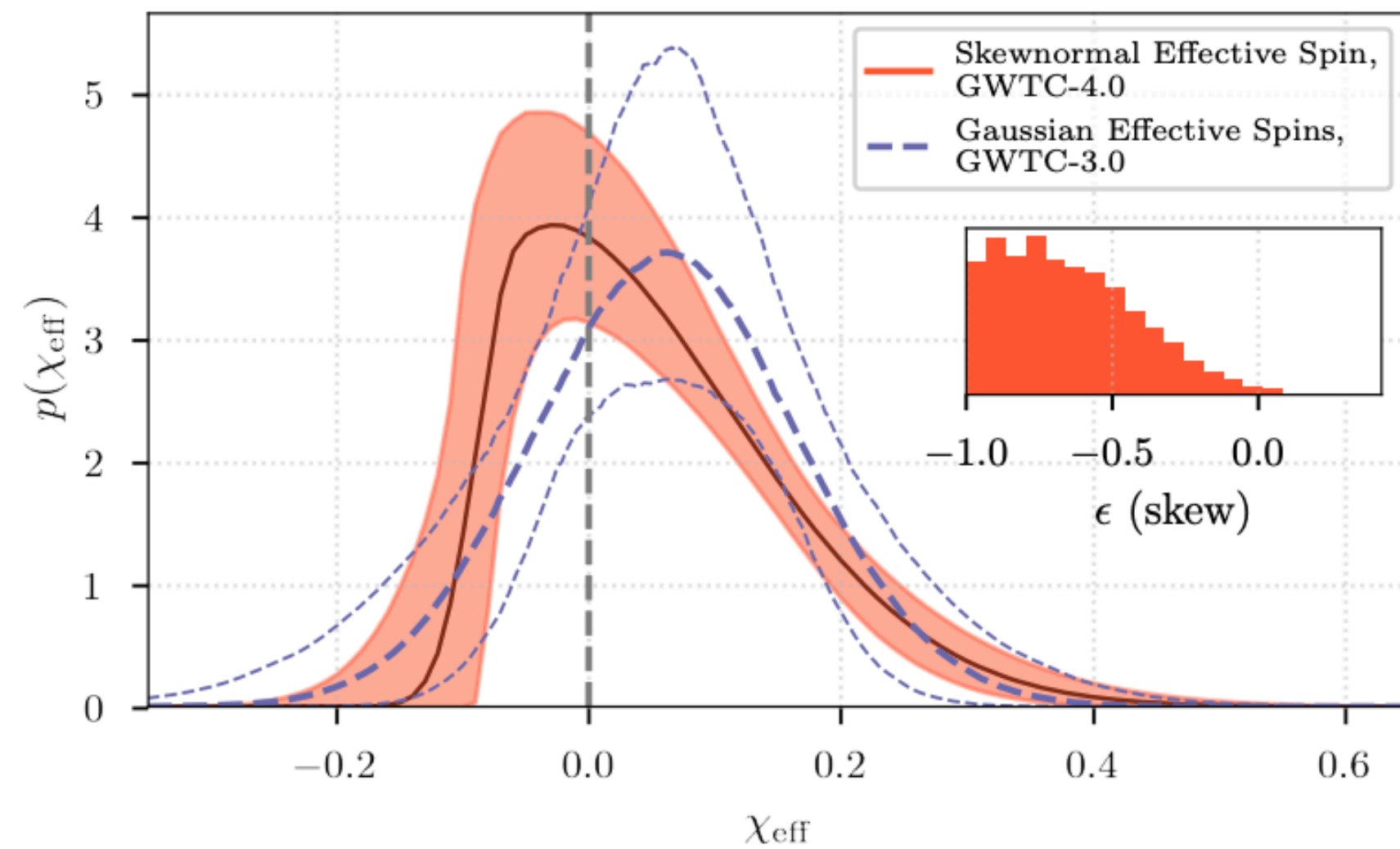
$$p(\Lambda | \{d_k\}) = \frac{\mathcal{L}(\{d_k\} | \Lambda)\pi(\Lambda)}{\mathcal{Z}(\{d_k\})}$$

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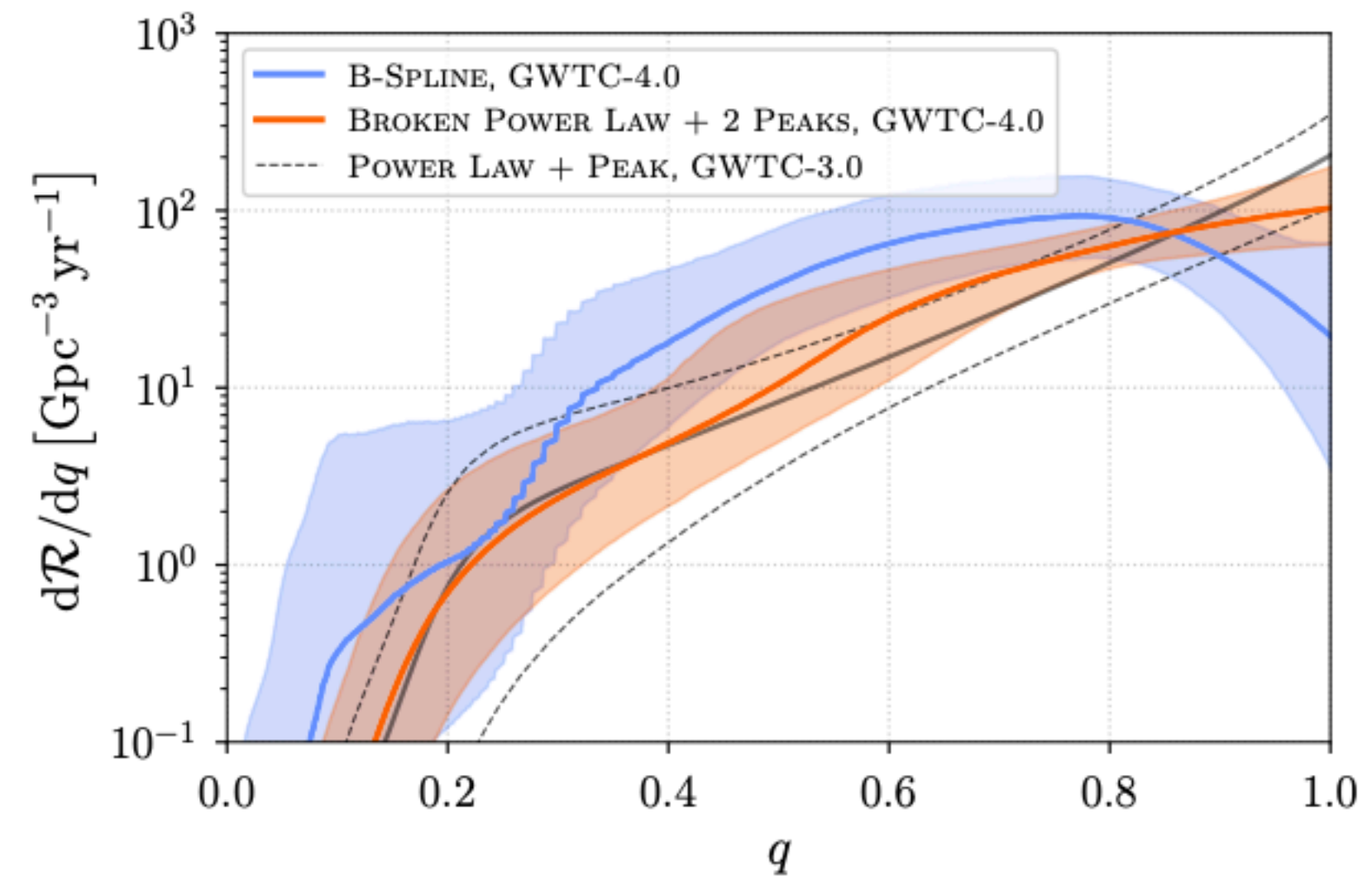
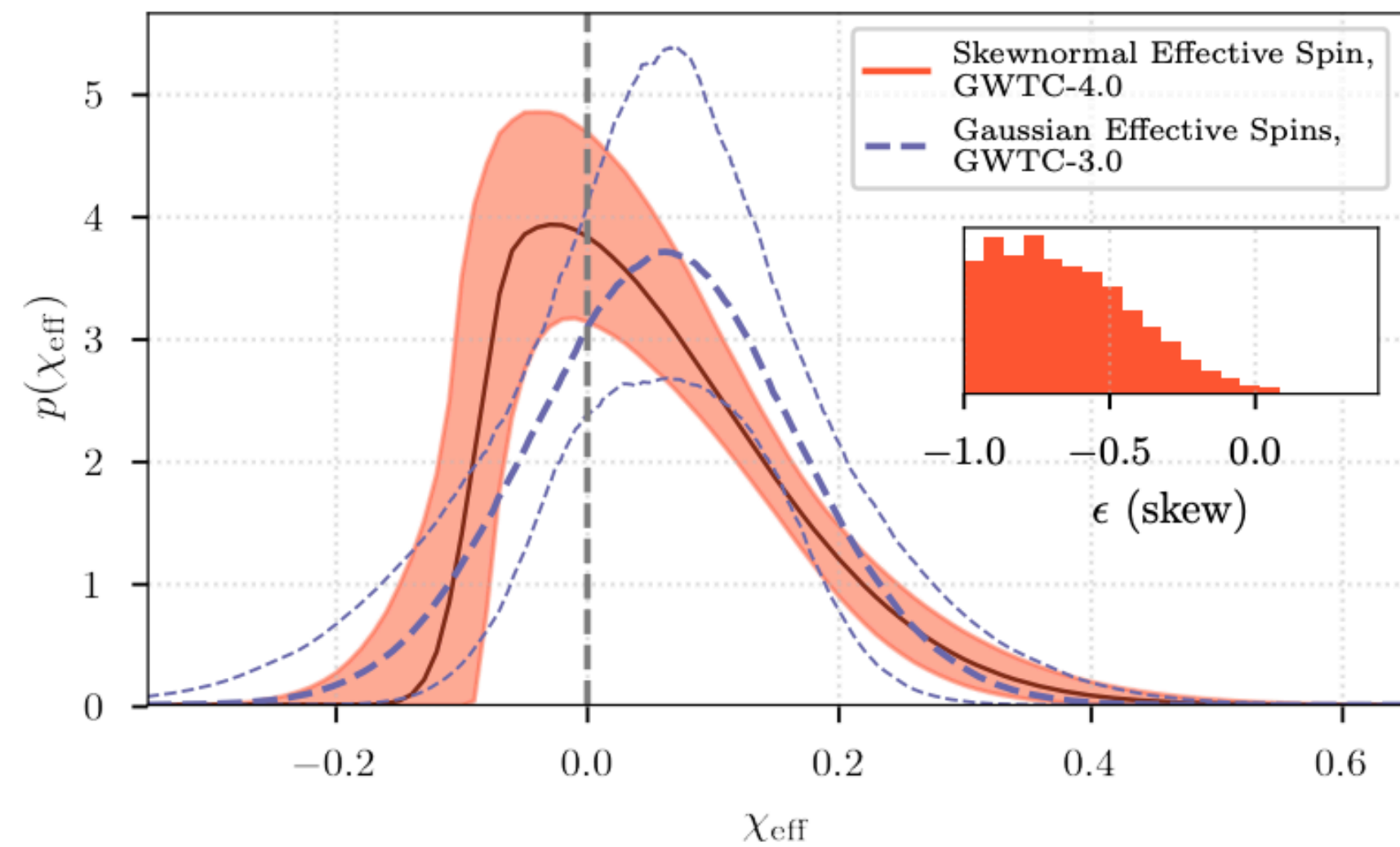
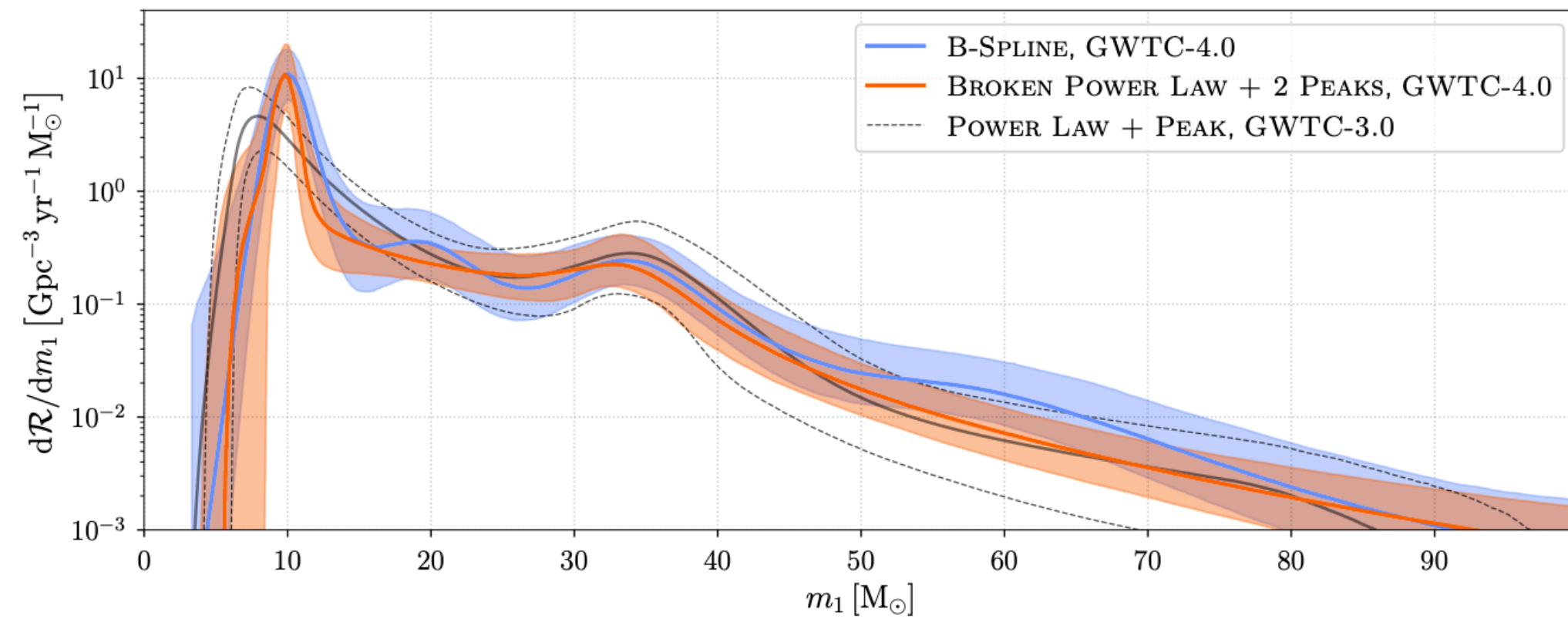
$$\mathcal{L}(\{d_k\} | \Lambda) \sim \prod_k^n \mathcal{Z}(d_k) \frac{1}{m_k} \sum_j^{m_k} \frac{\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k^j | \Lambda)}{\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k^j)}$$

# Population inference



(GWTC4)

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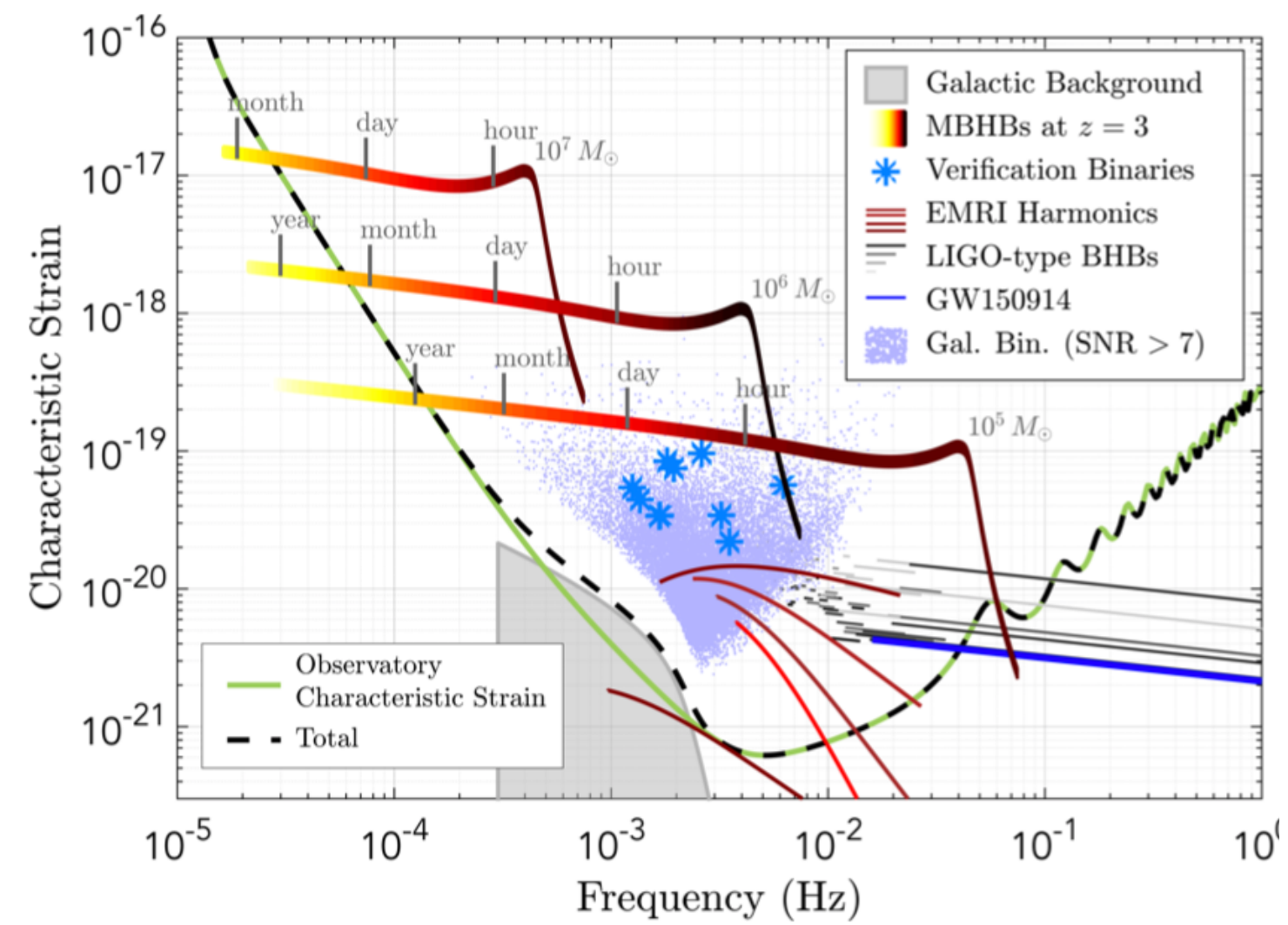
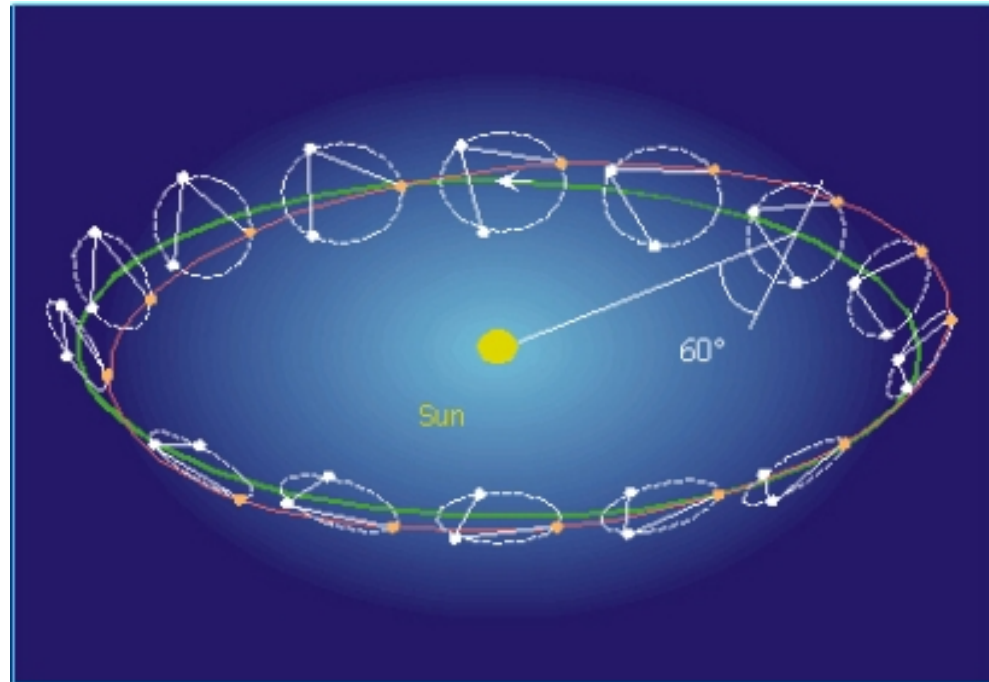
# Future detectors

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LISA (Laser Interferometer Space Antenna)

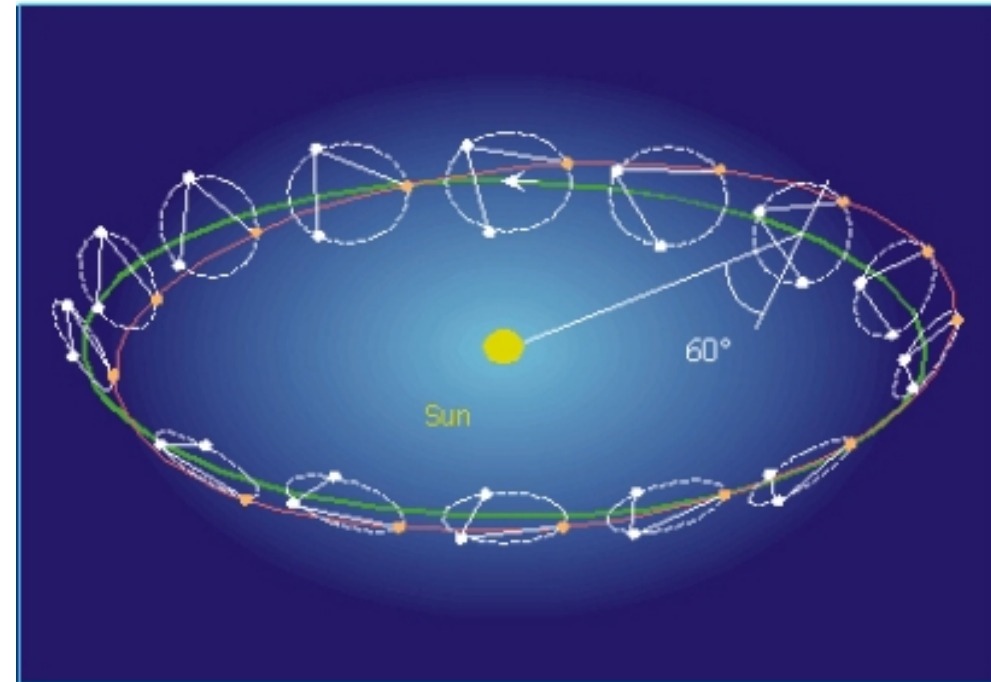
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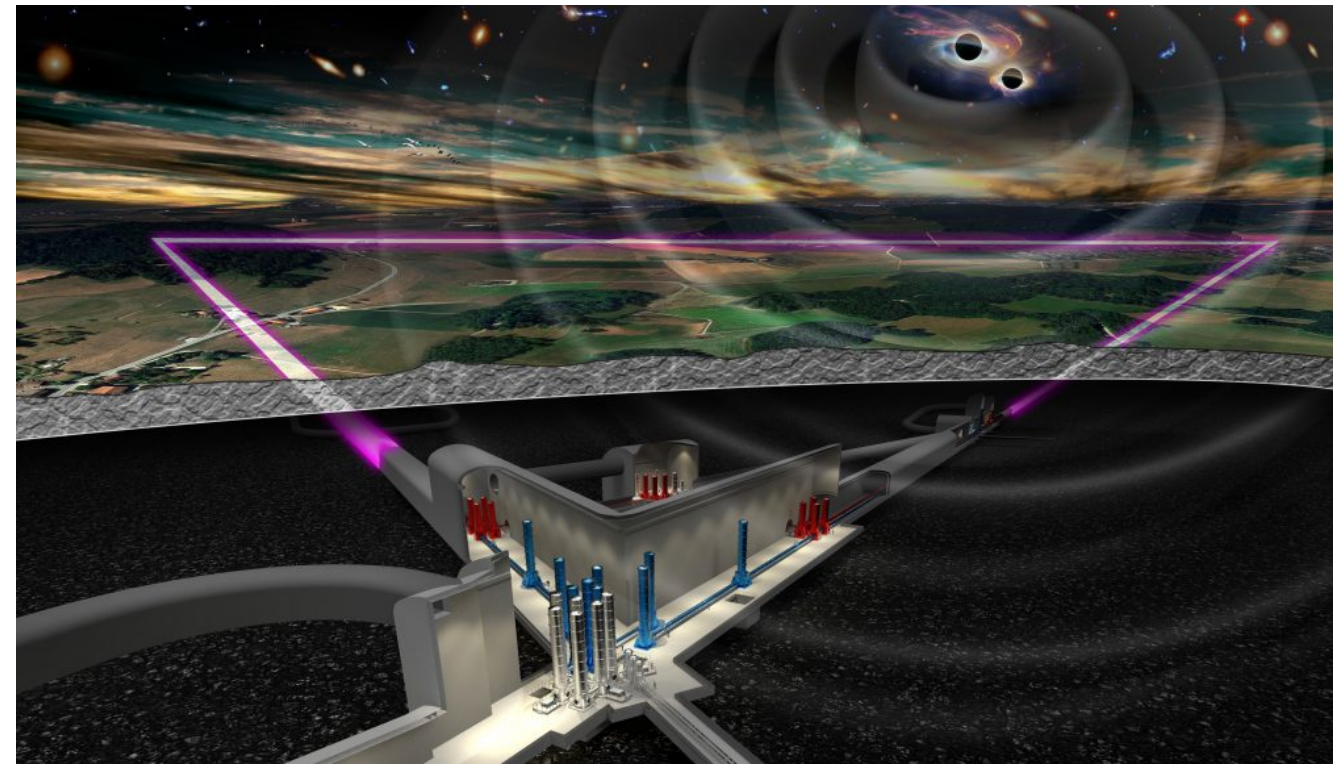
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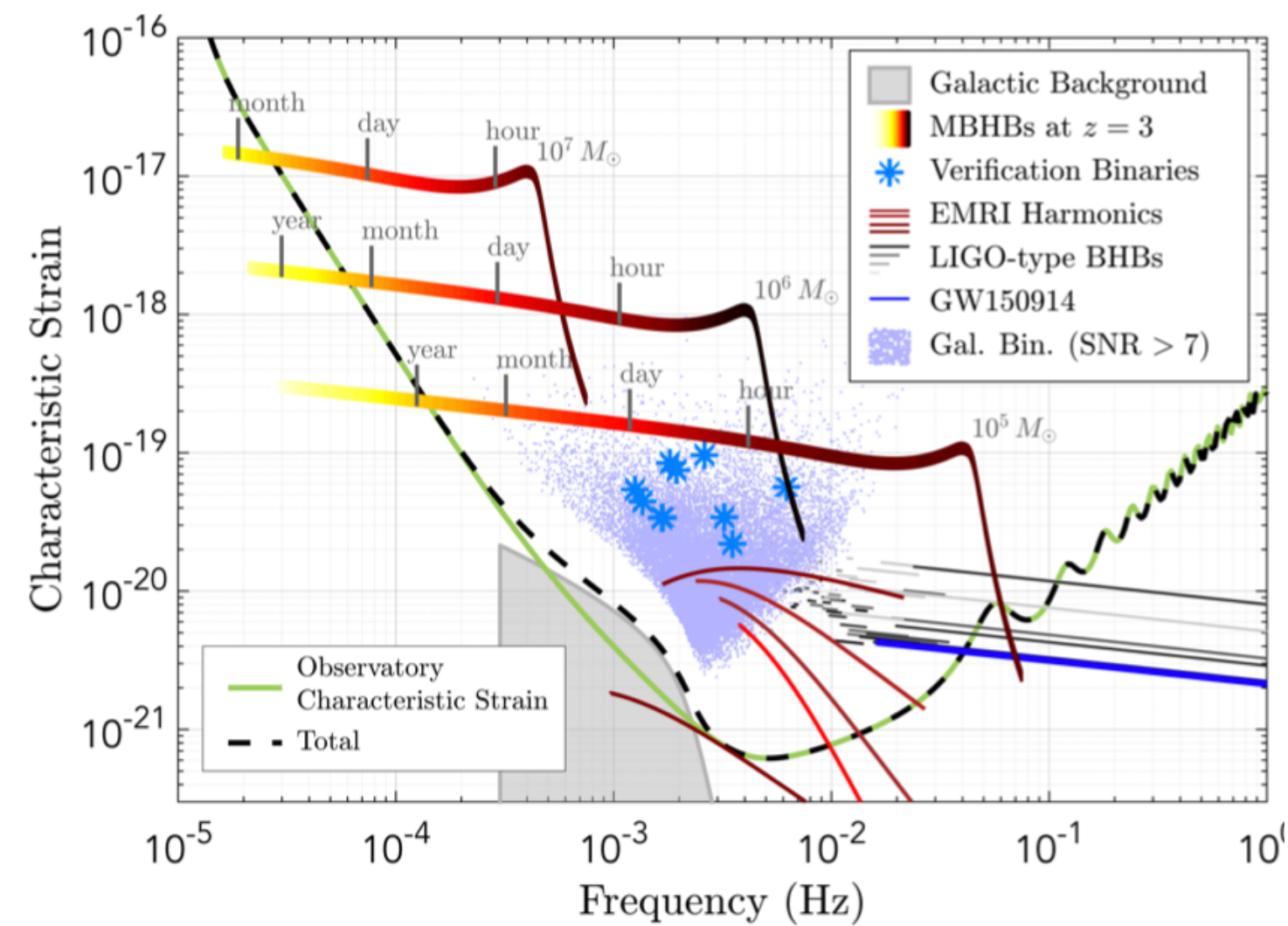
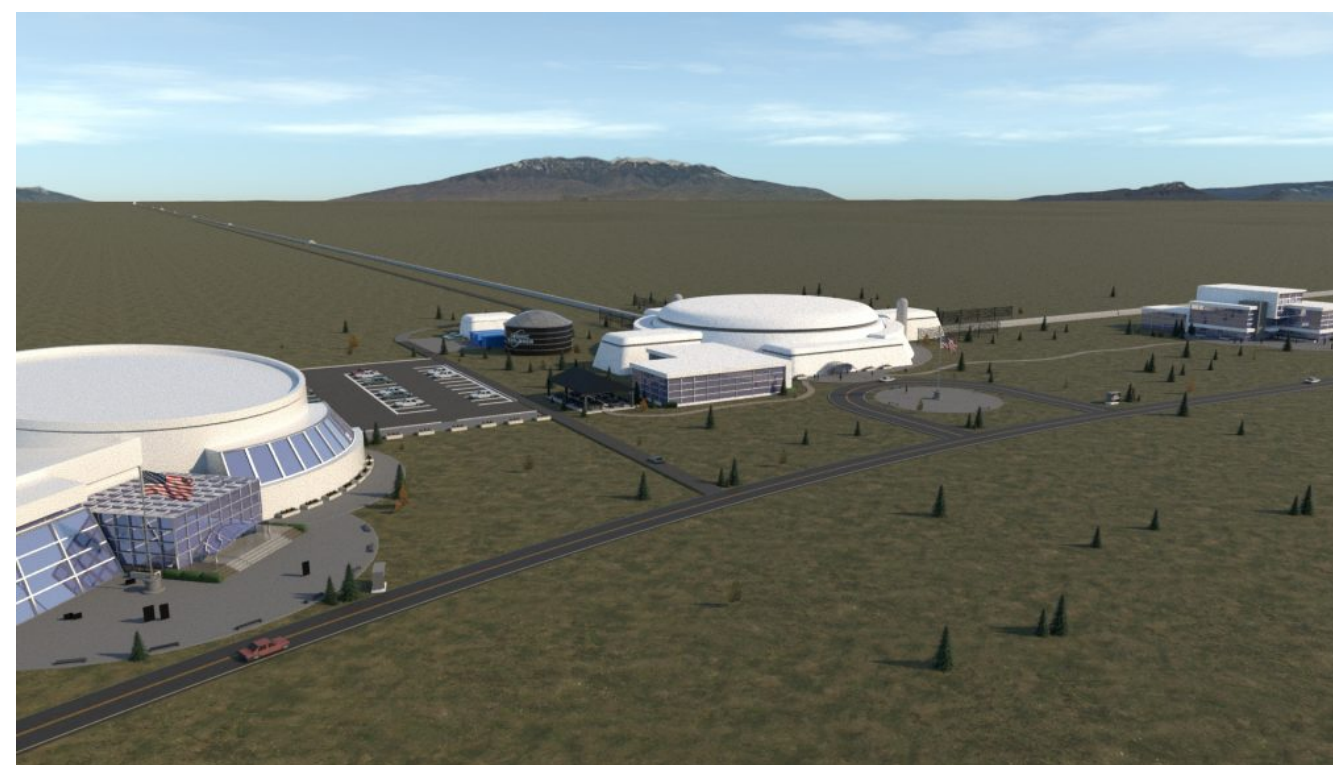


## Third-generation ground-based detectors:

Einstein Telescope (Europe)  
Planned completion: 2035



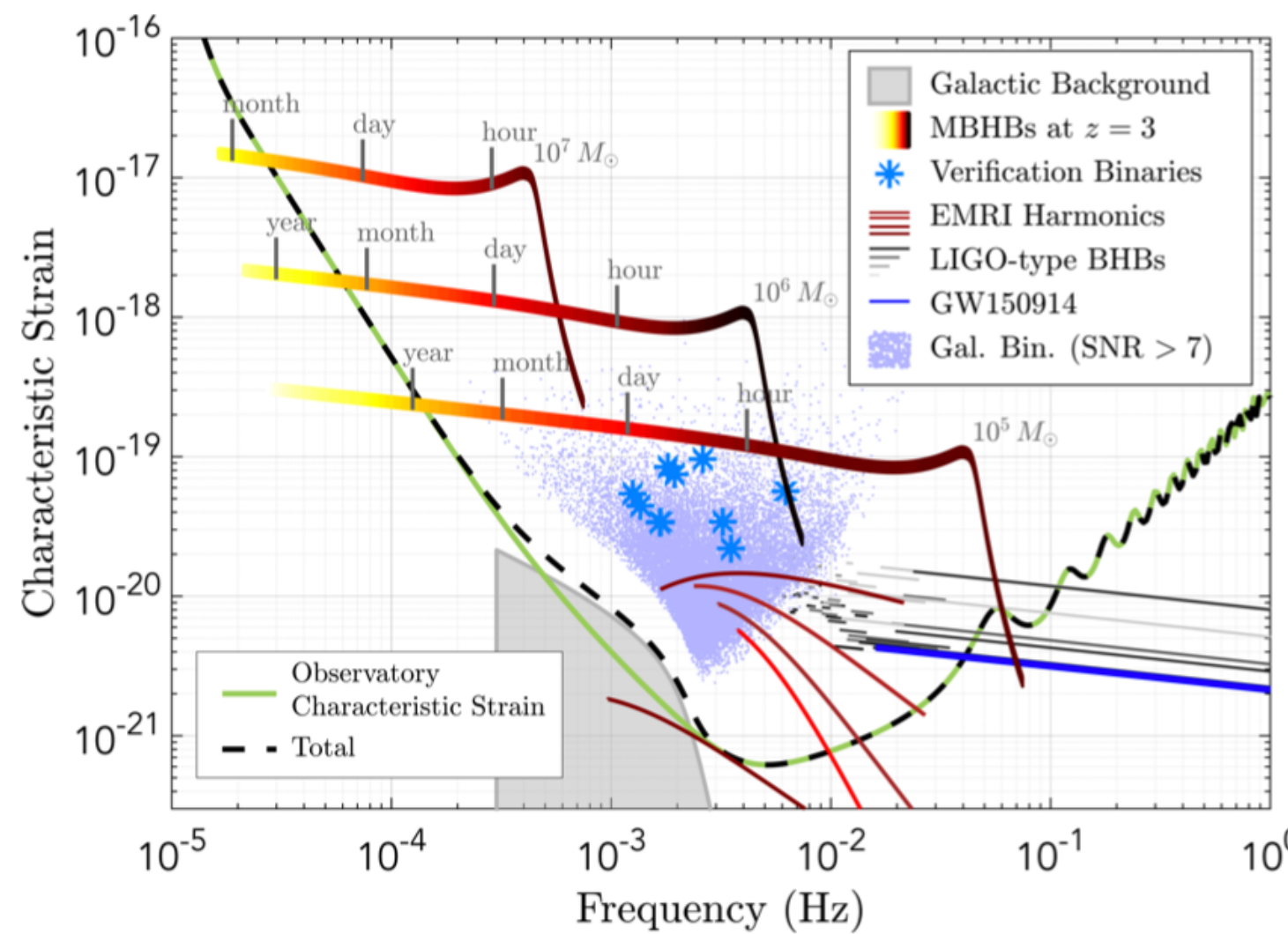
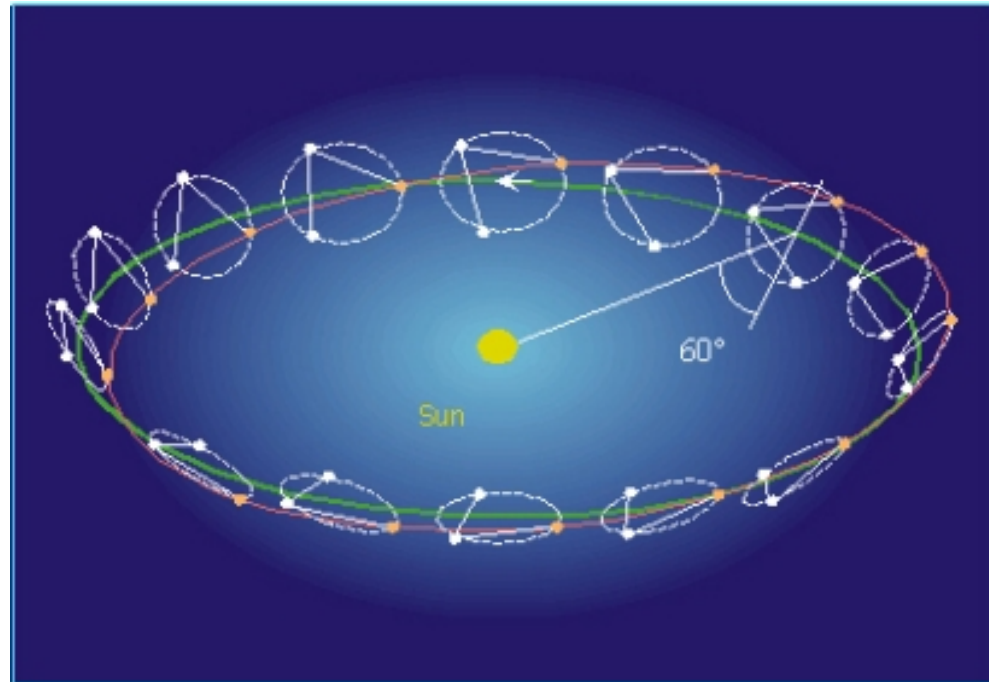
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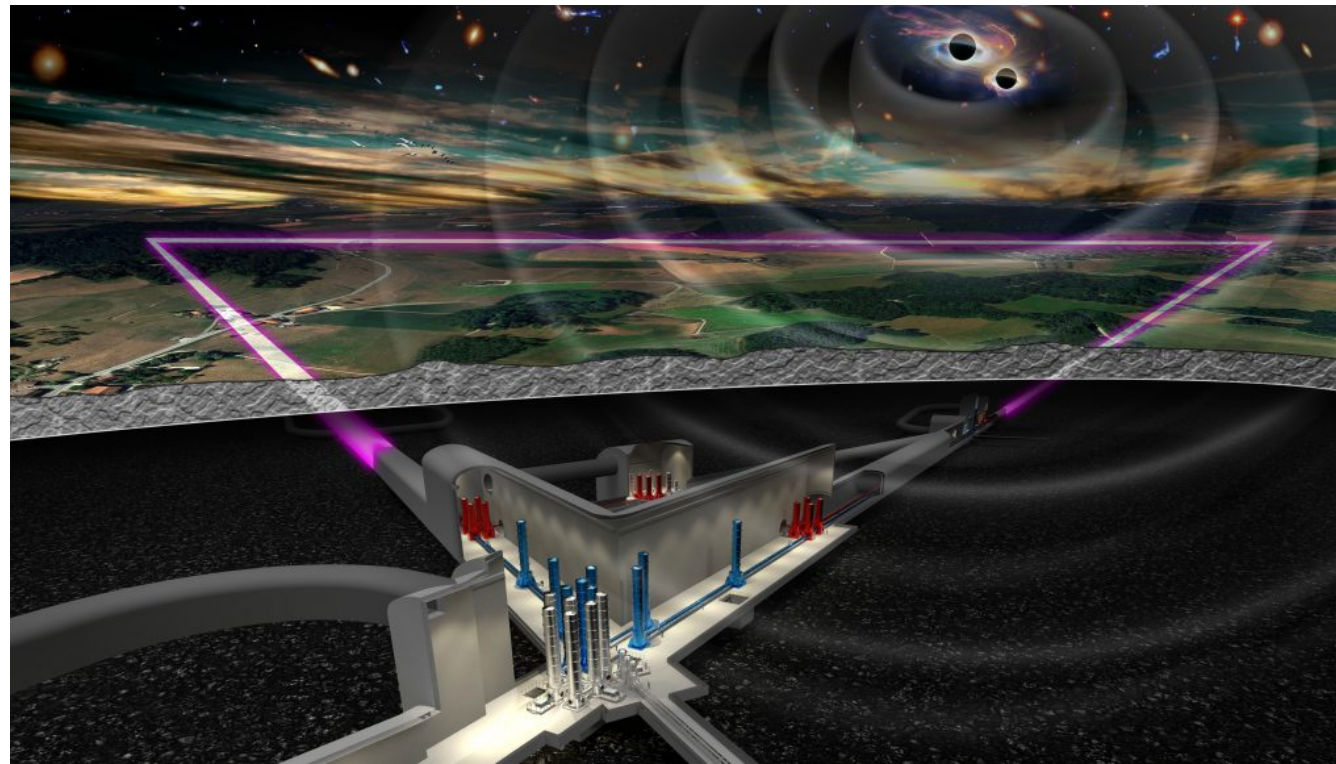
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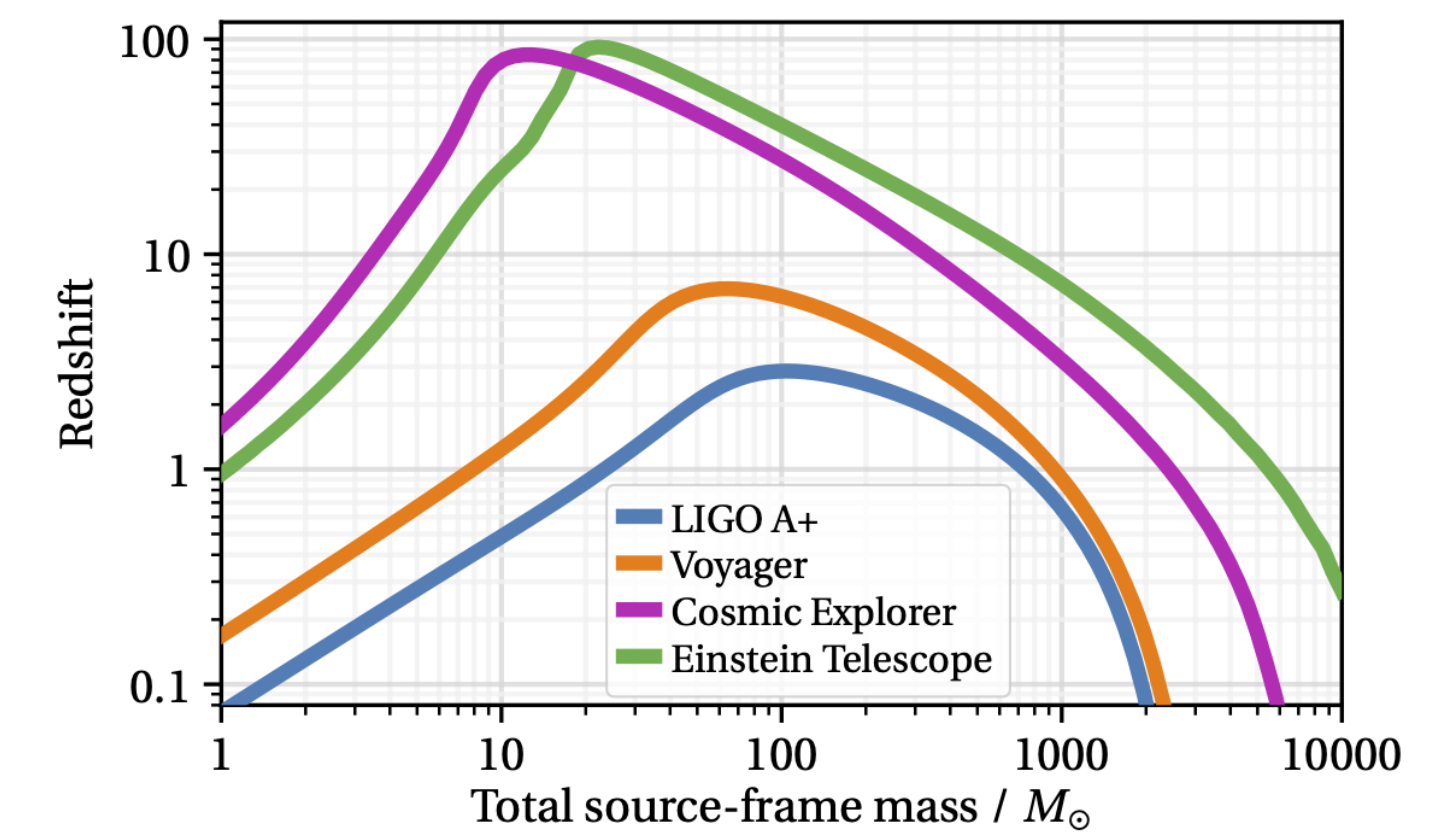
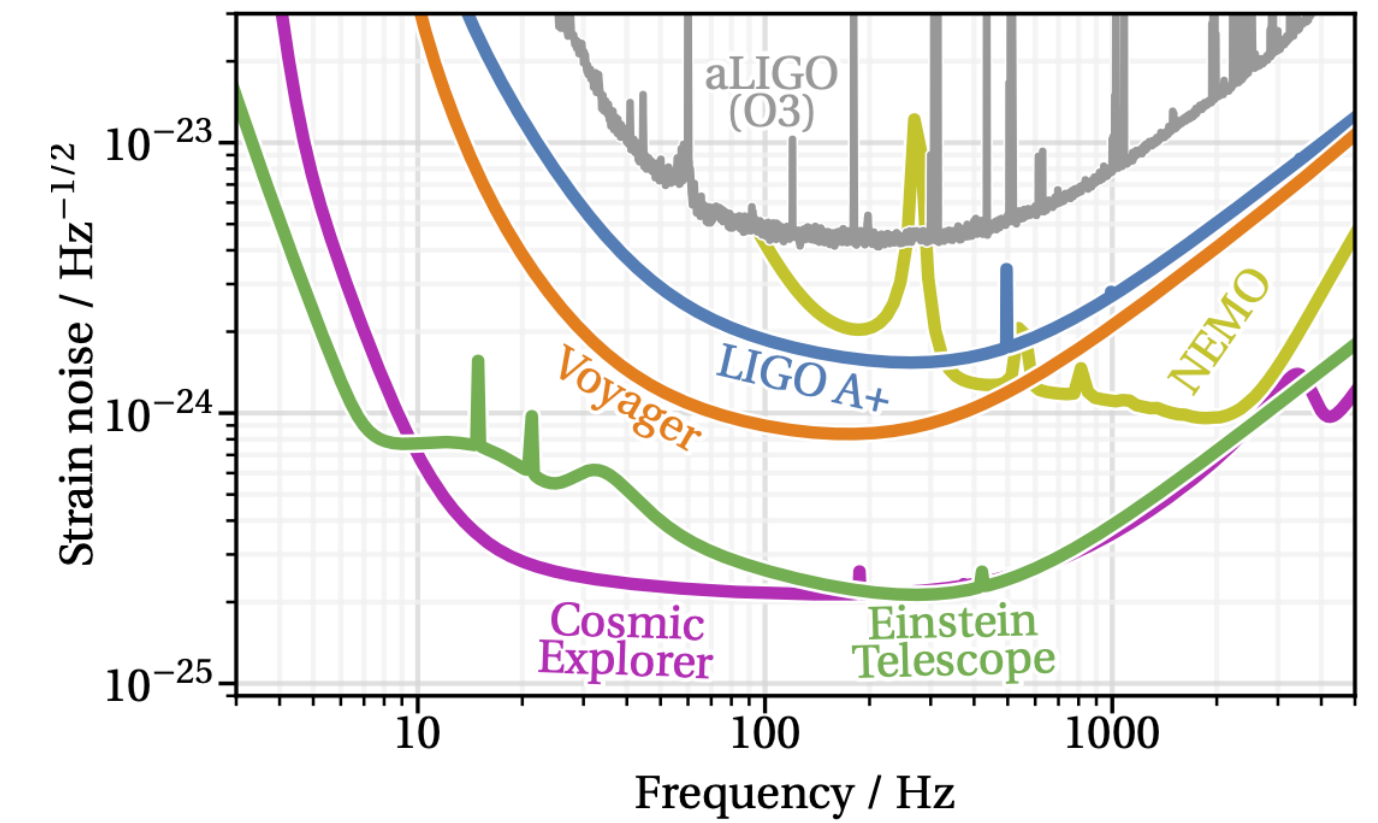
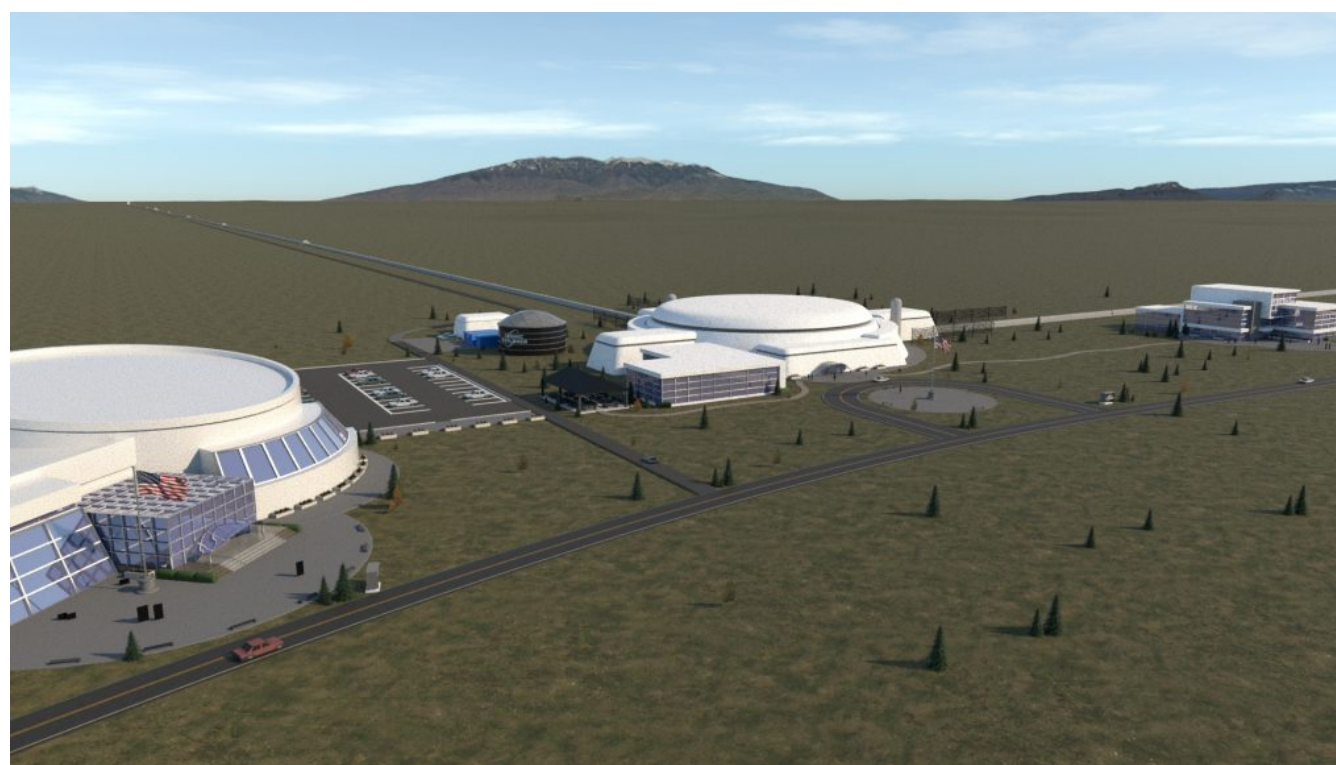
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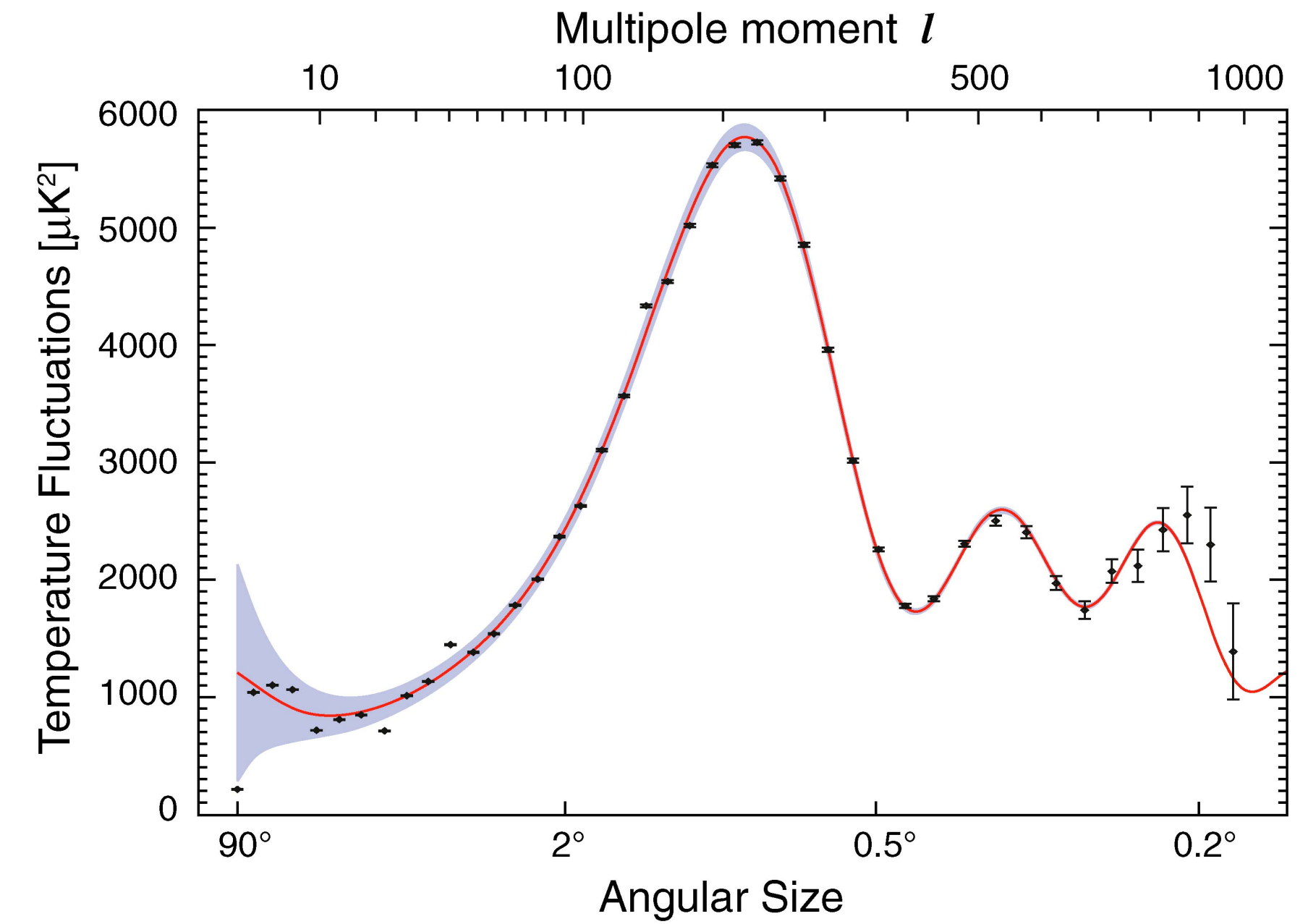
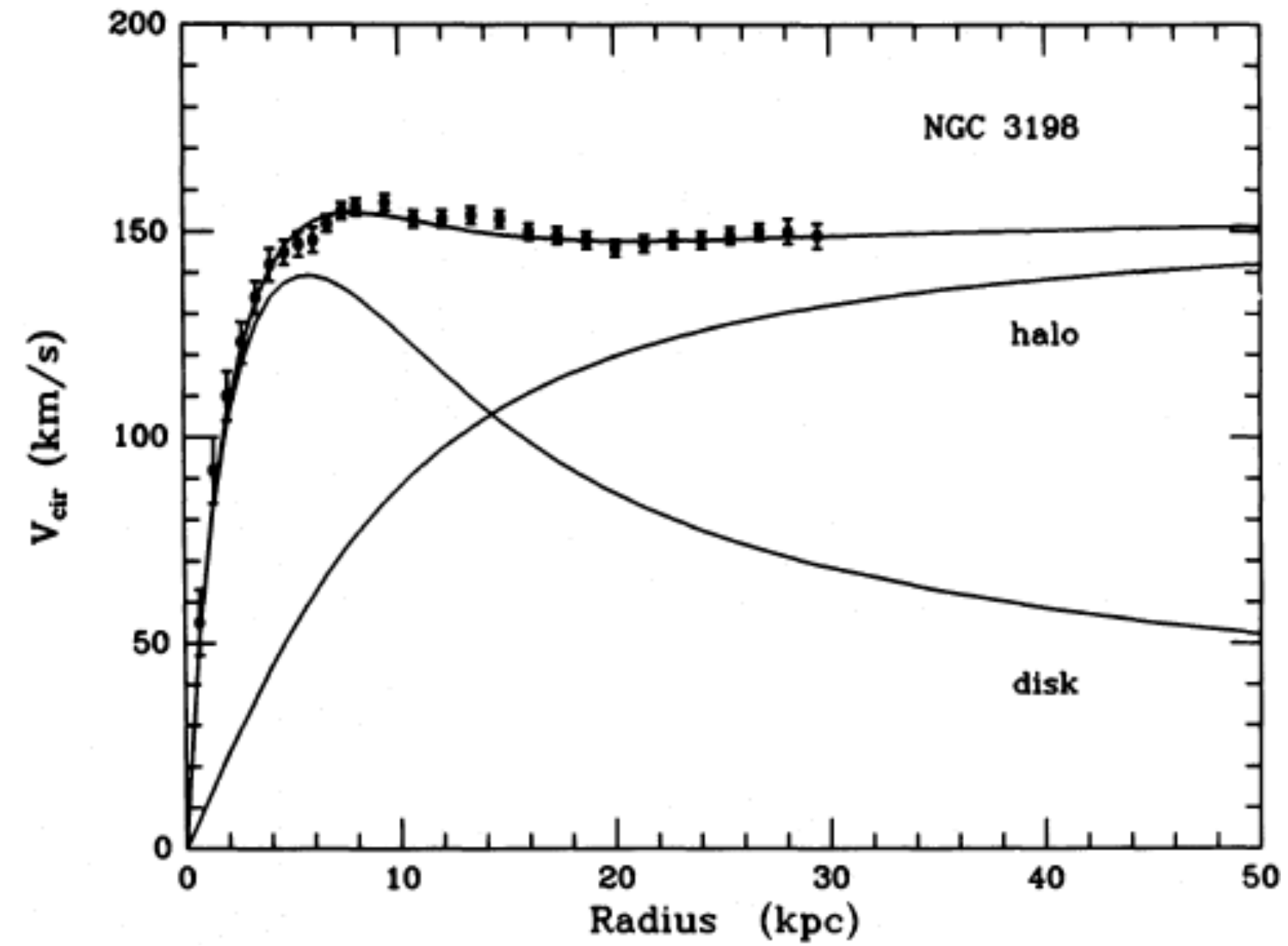
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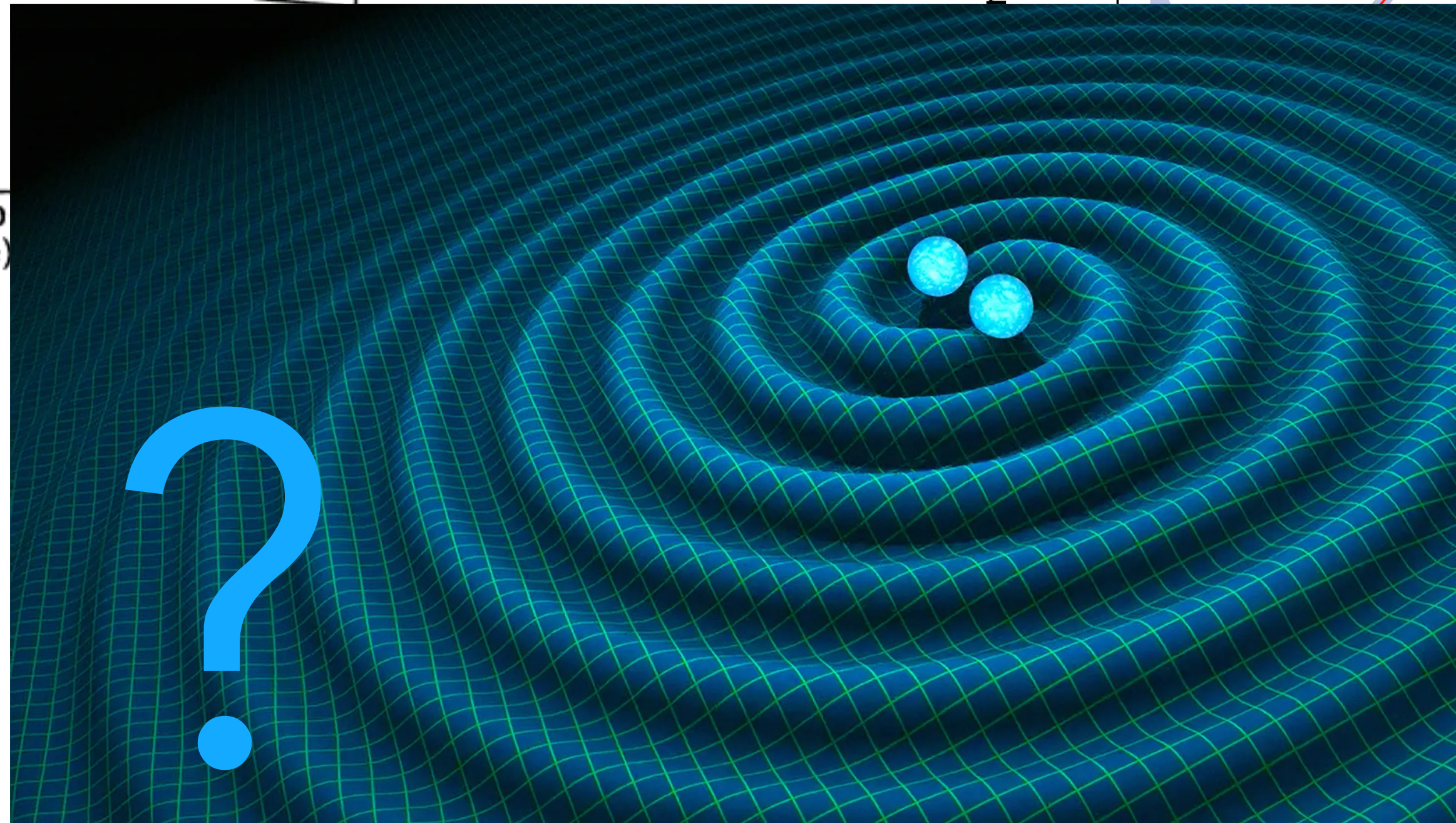
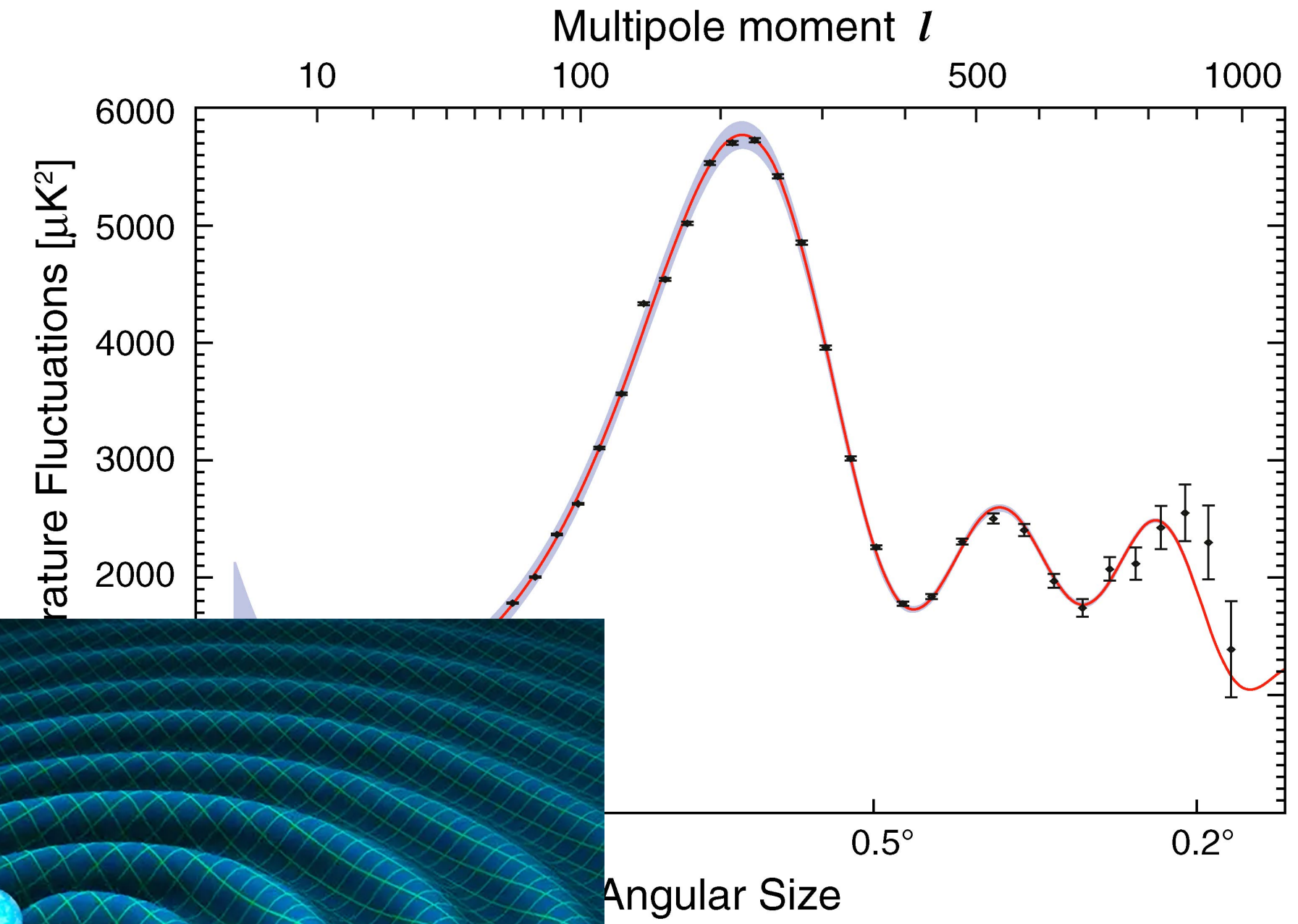
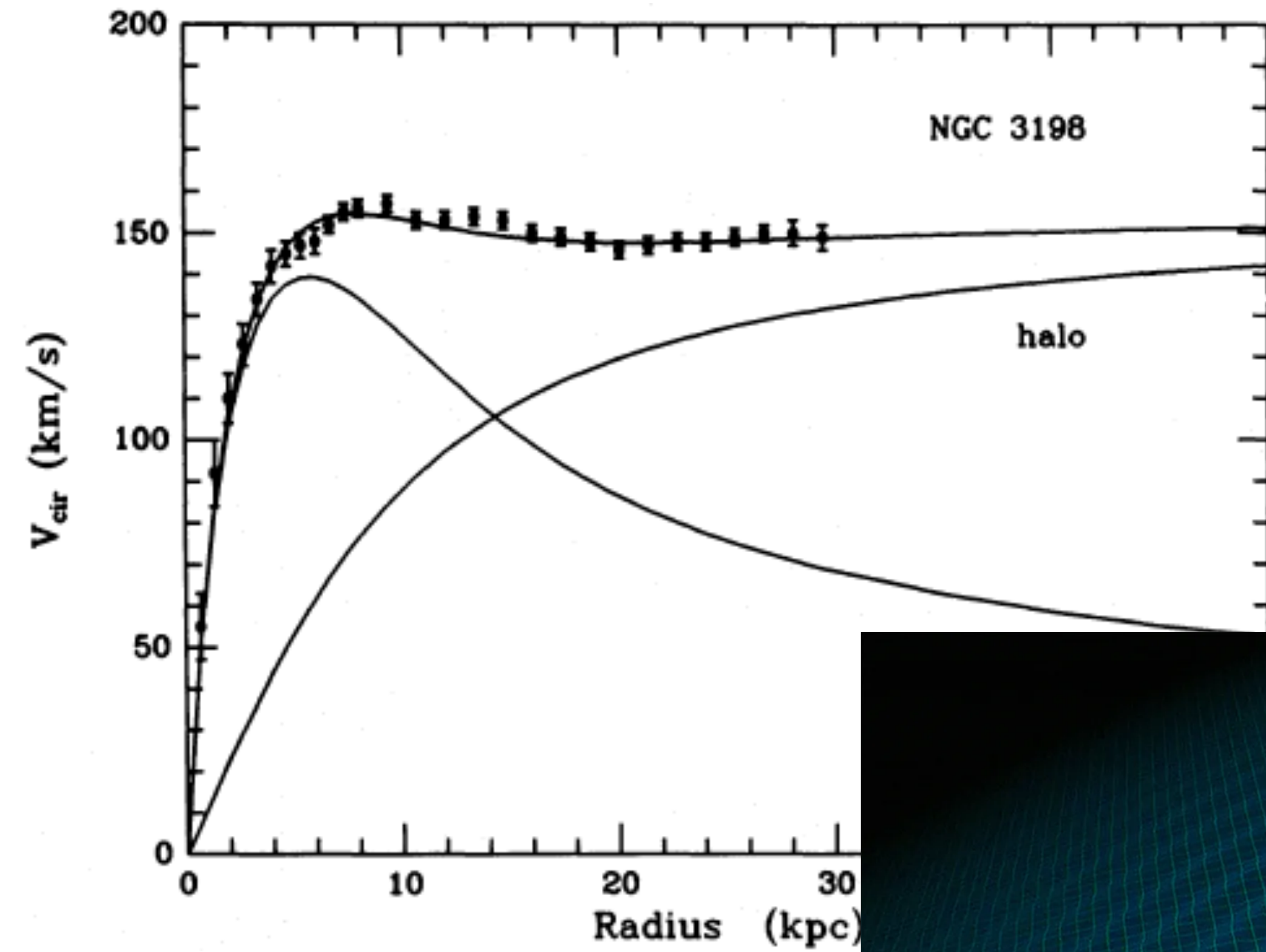


# **A new window into dark matter**

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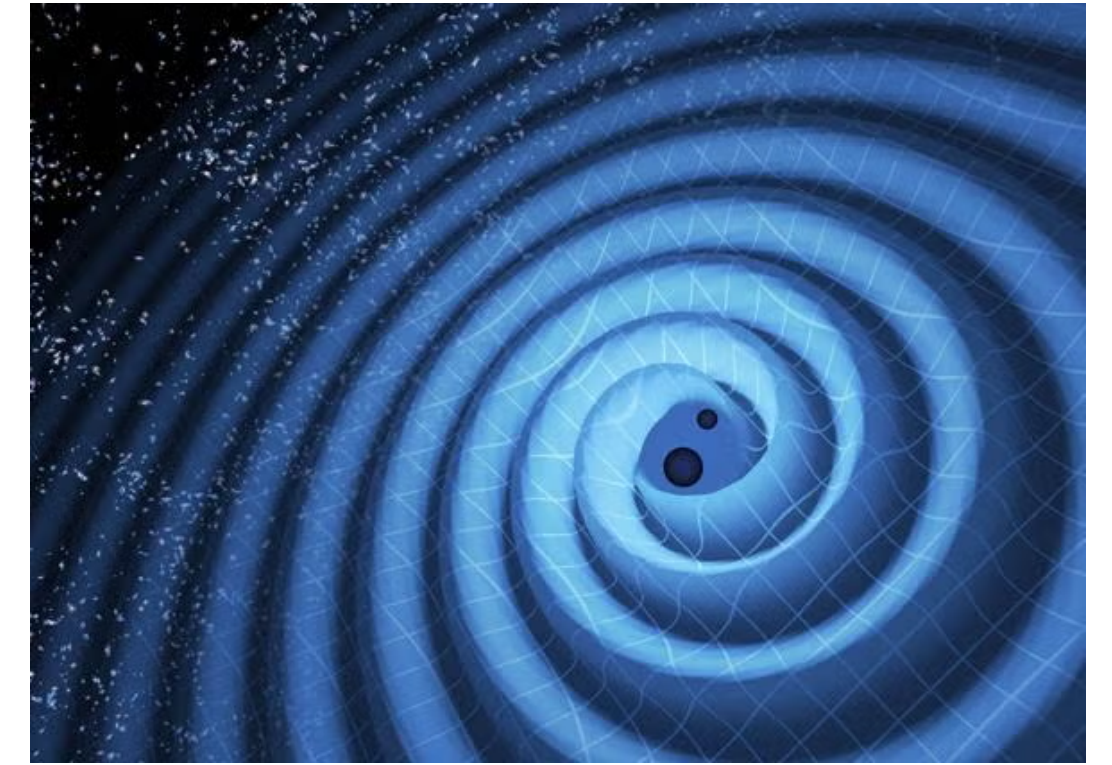
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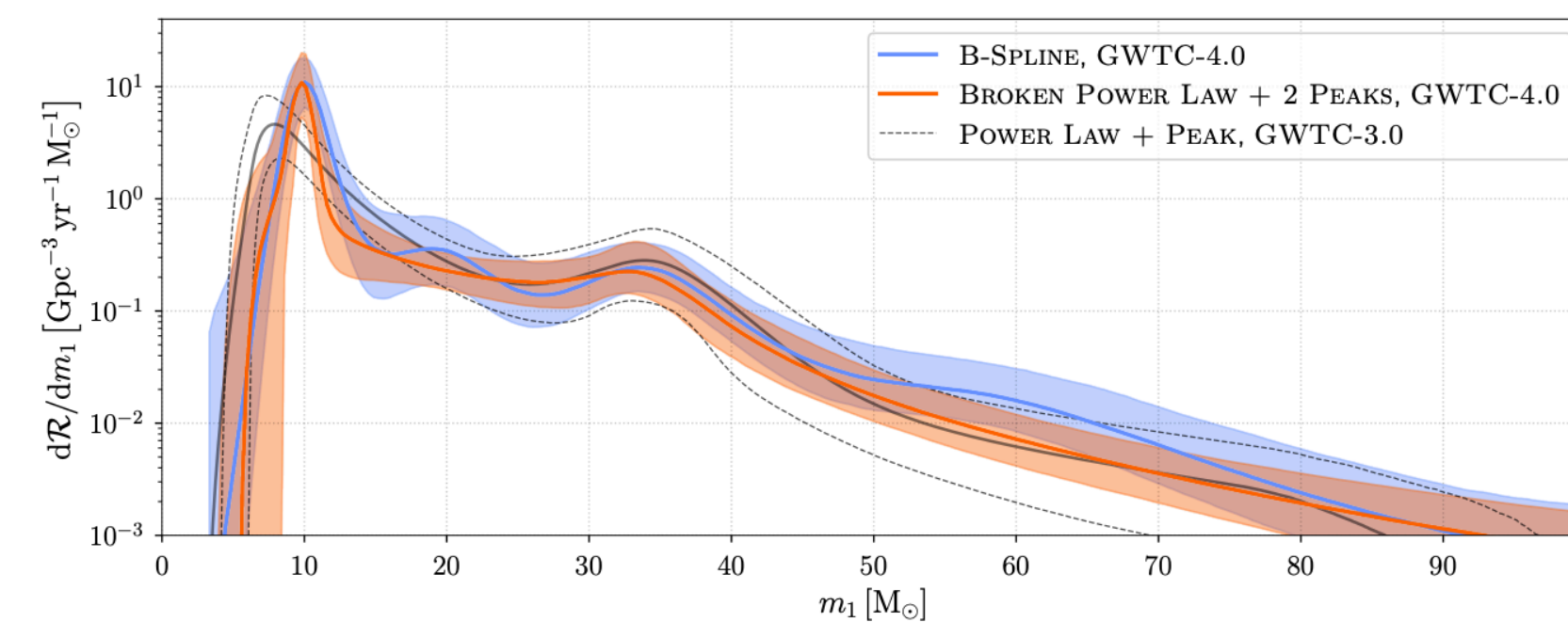
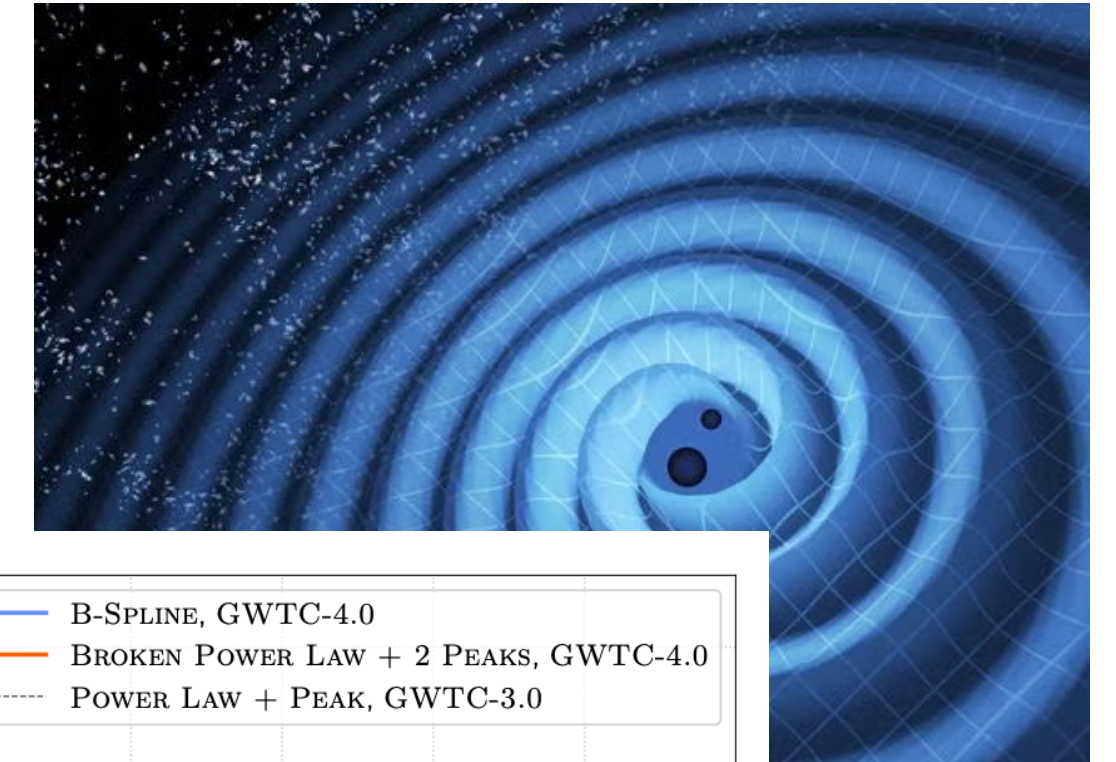
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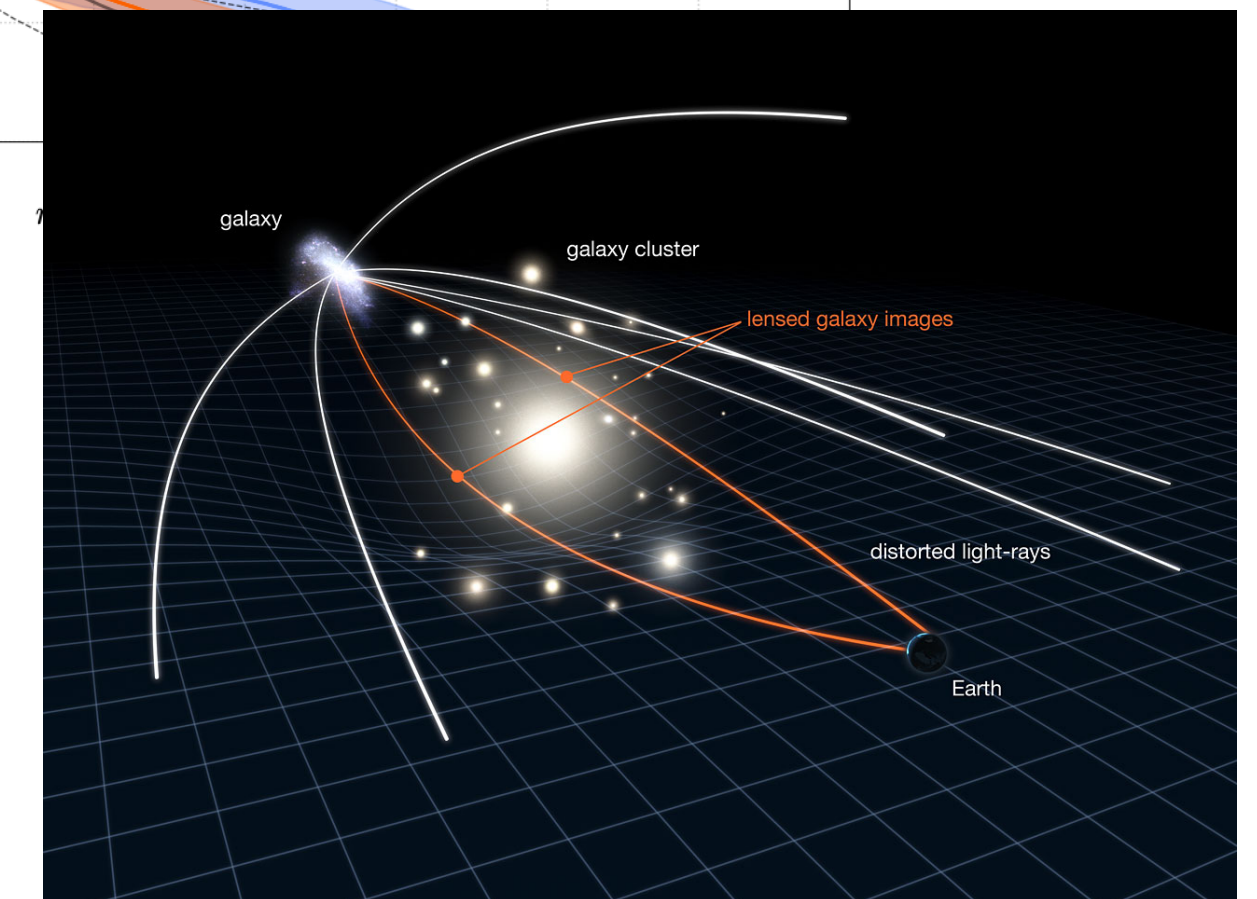
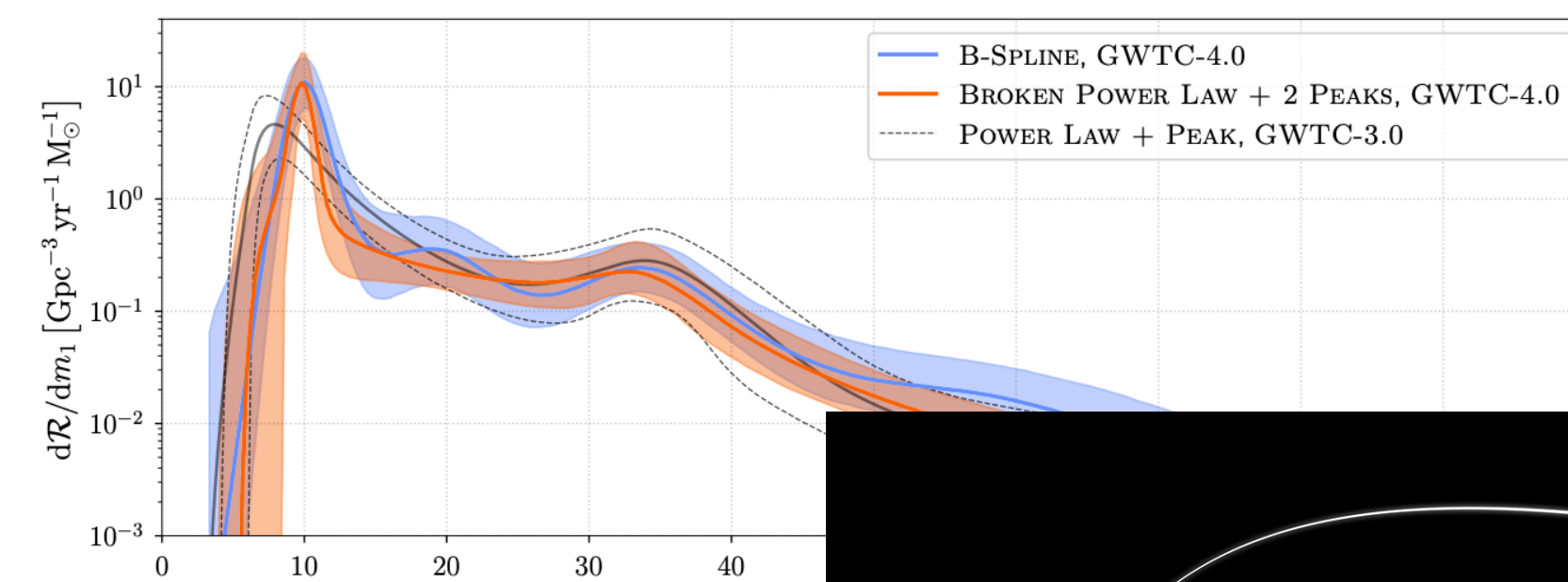
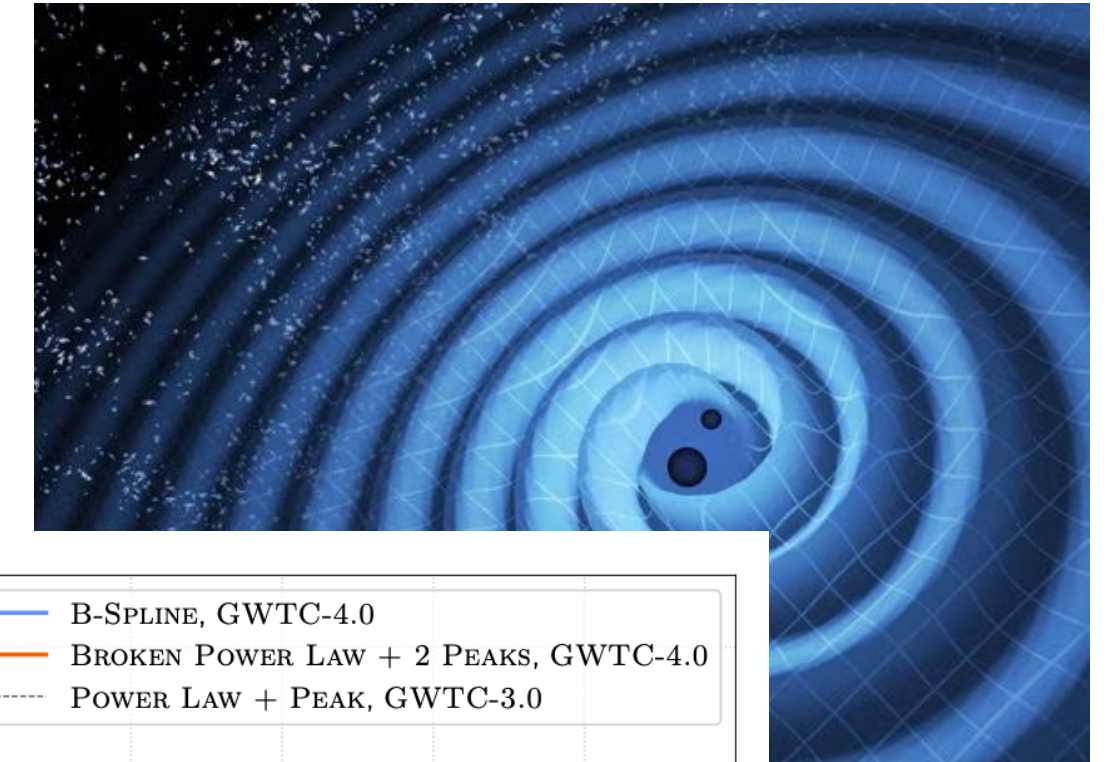
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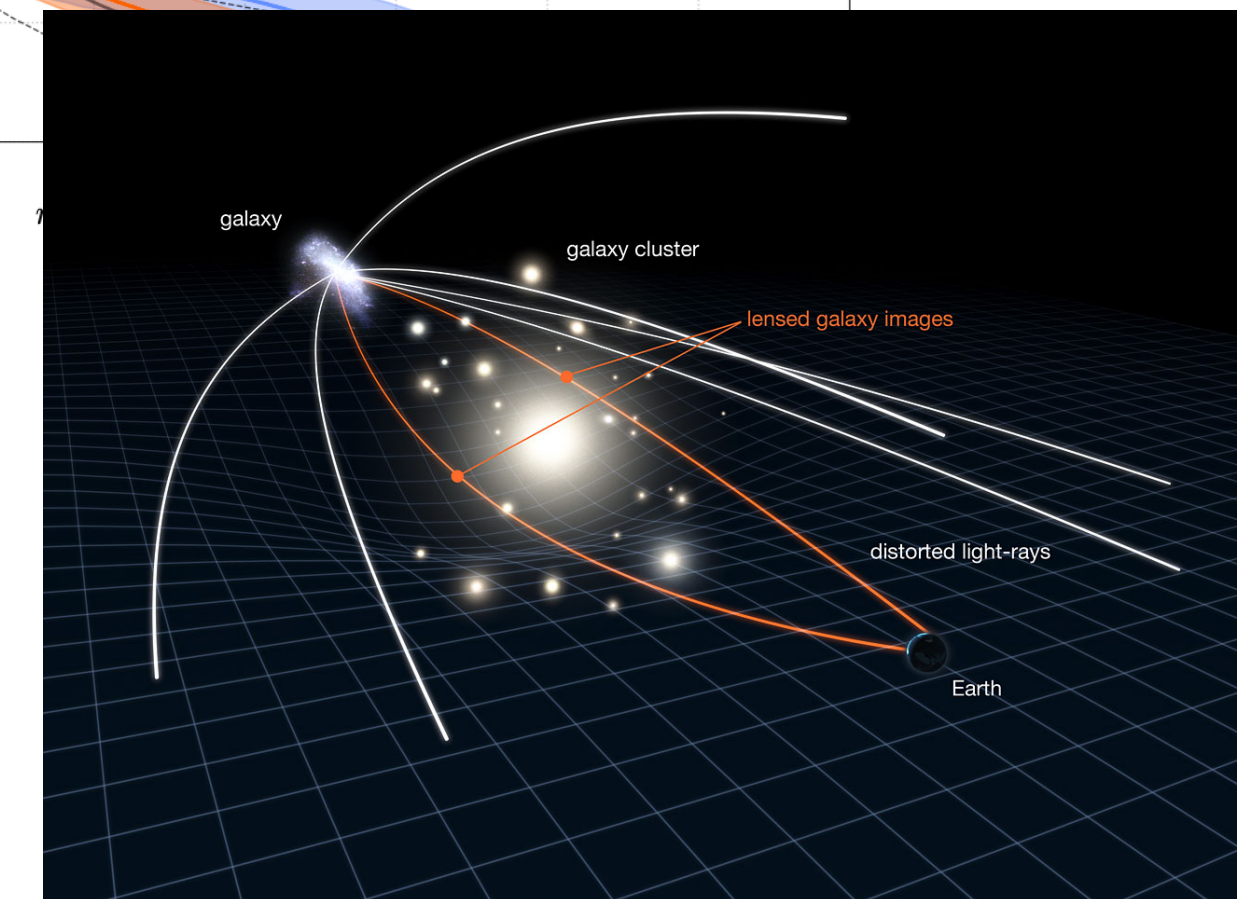
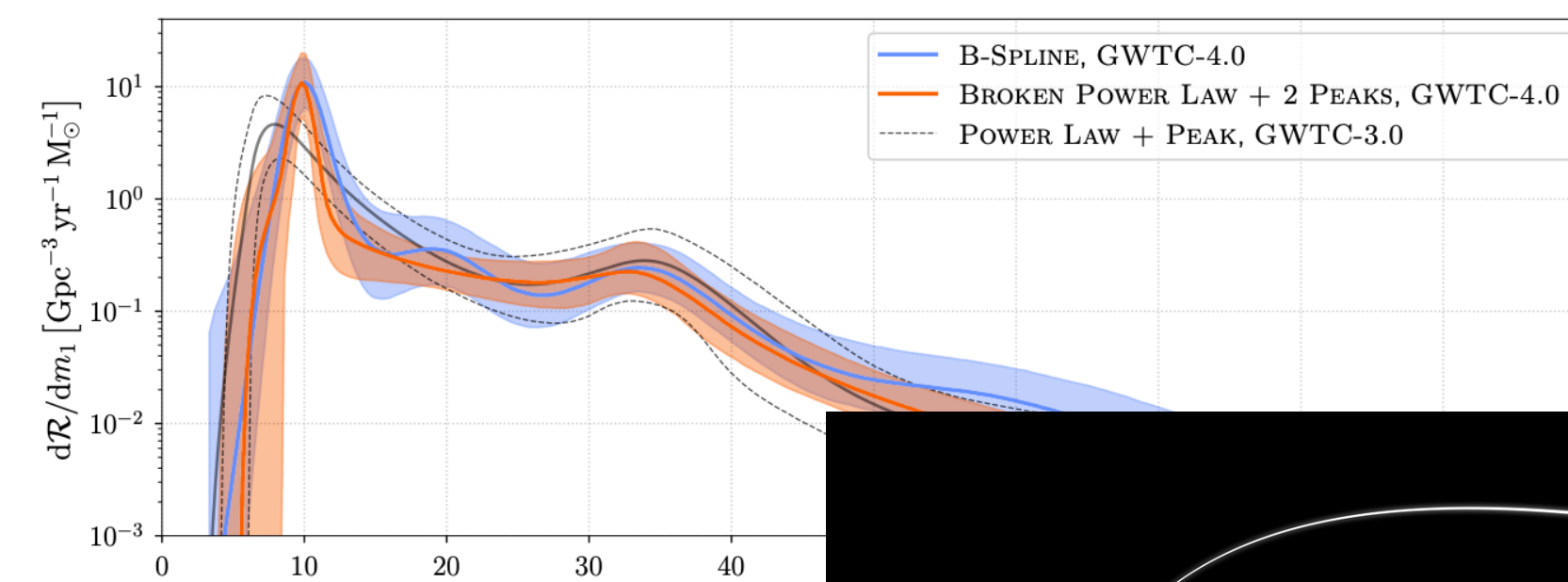
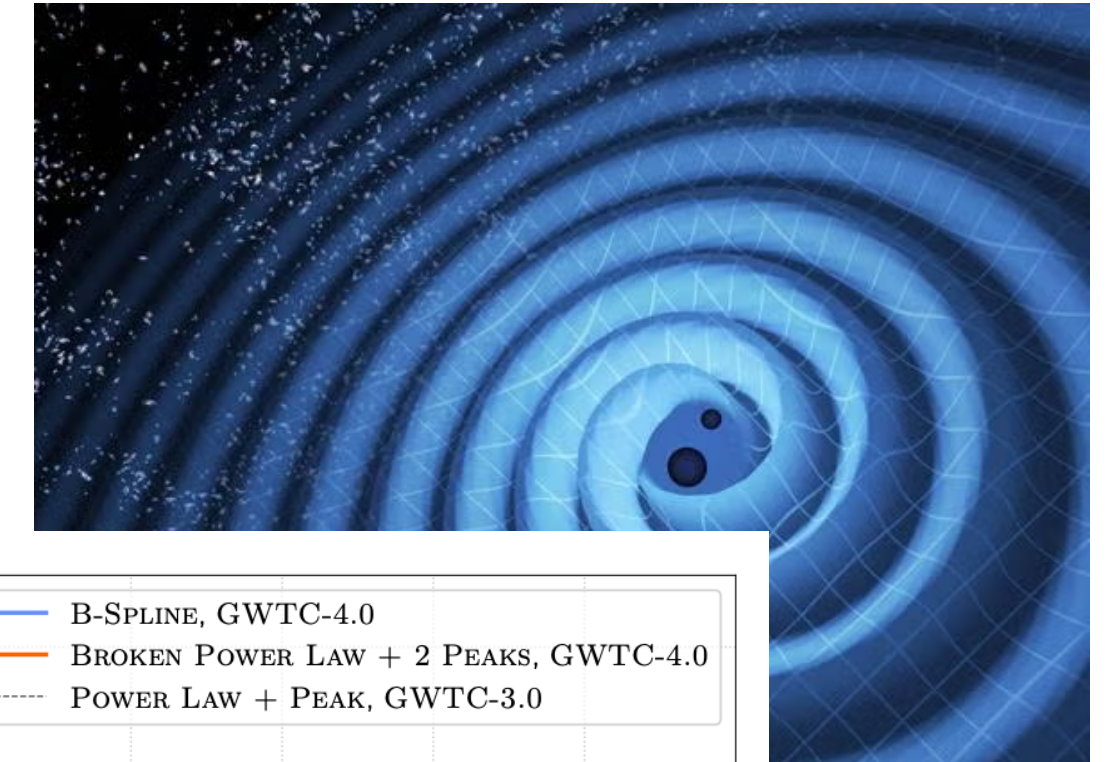
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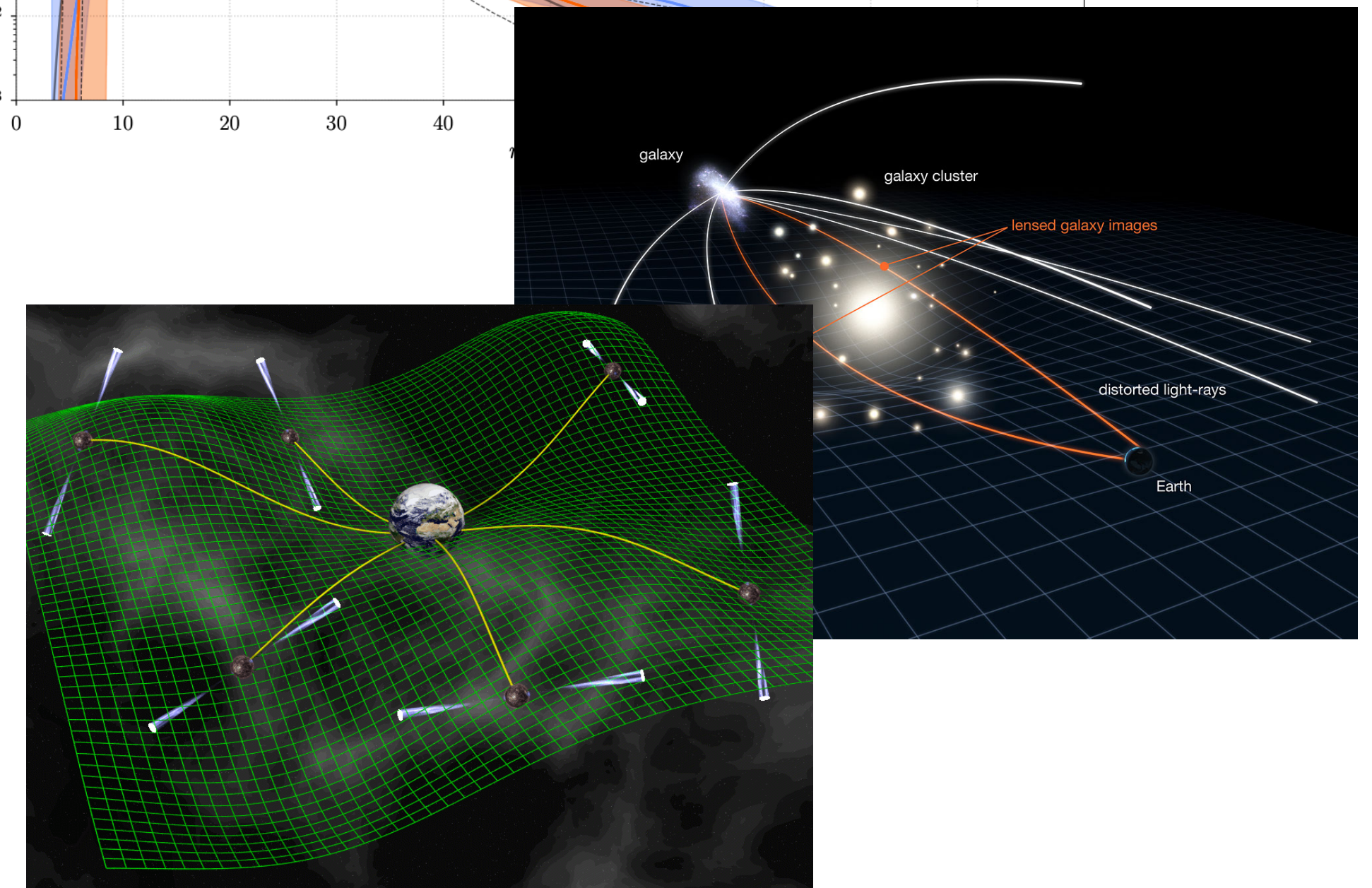
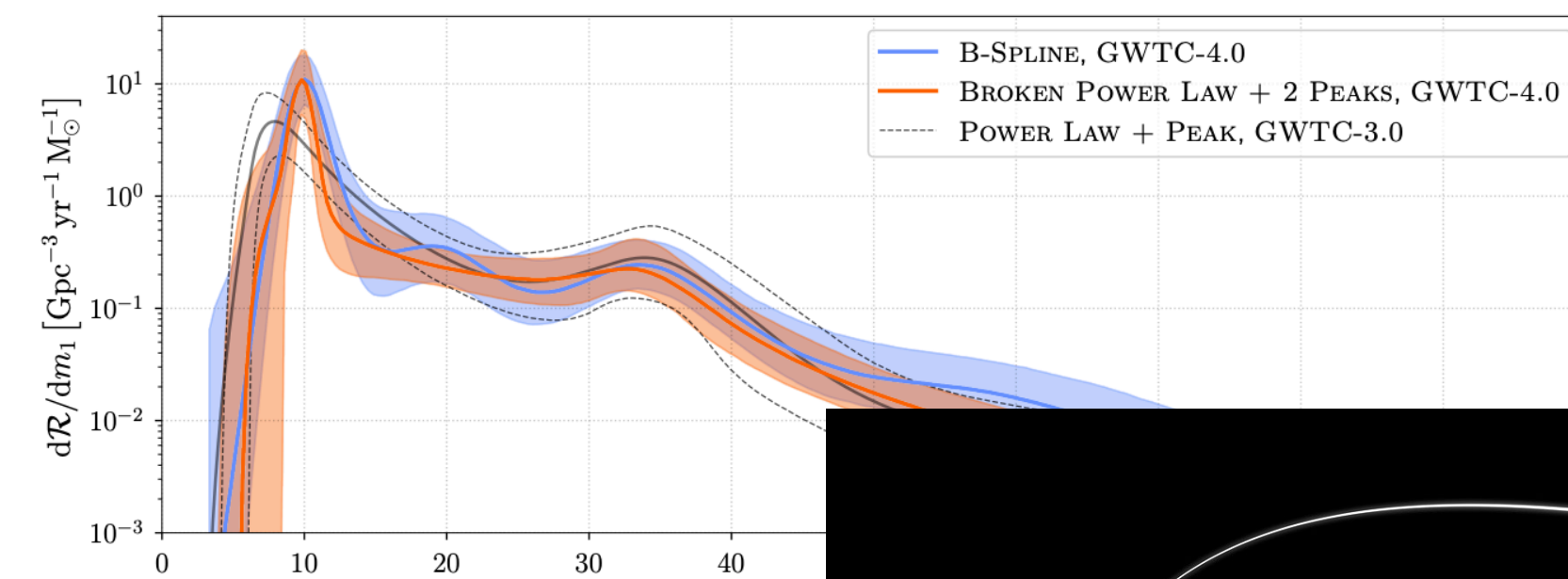
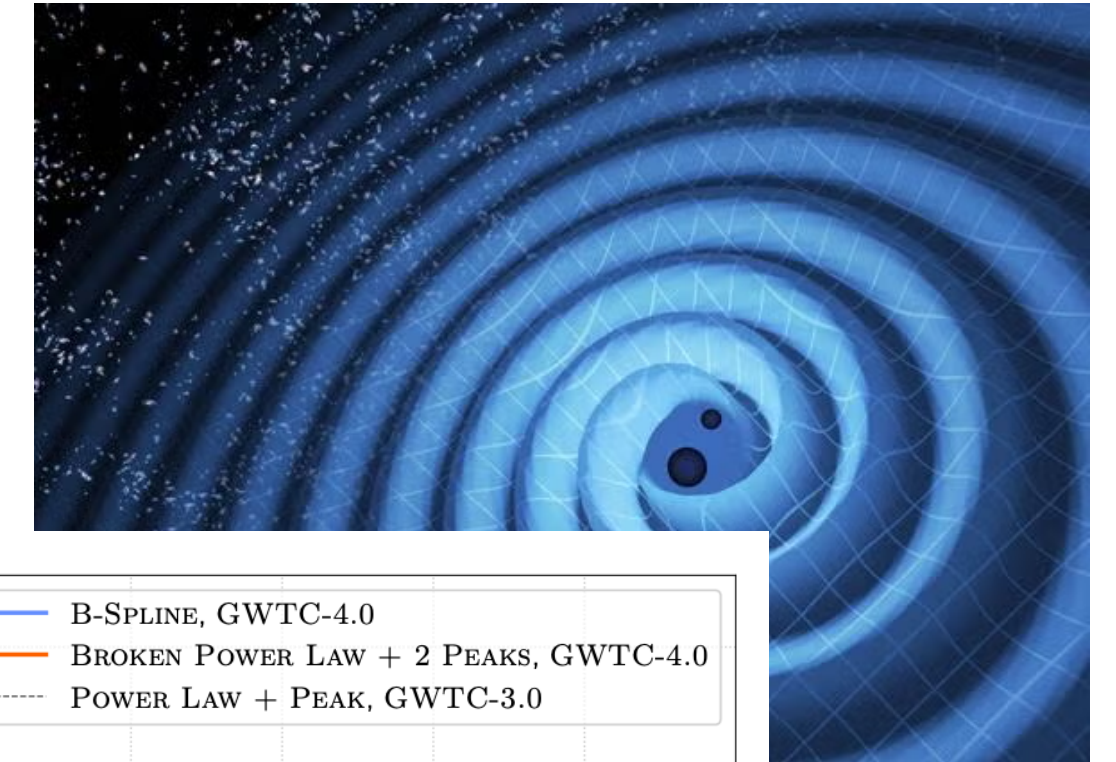
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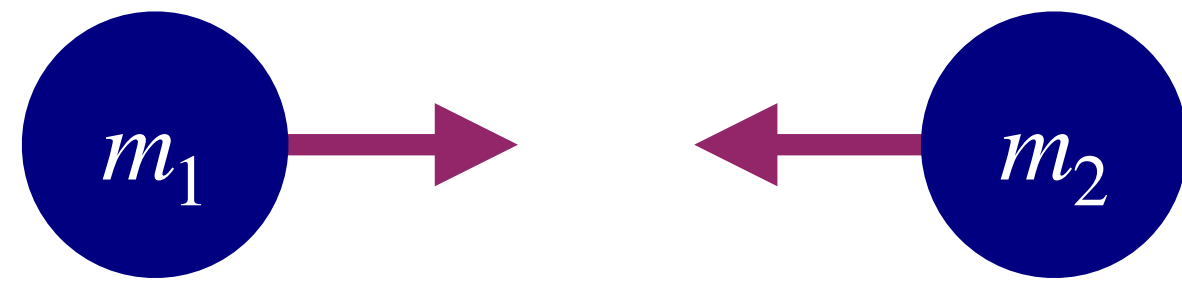


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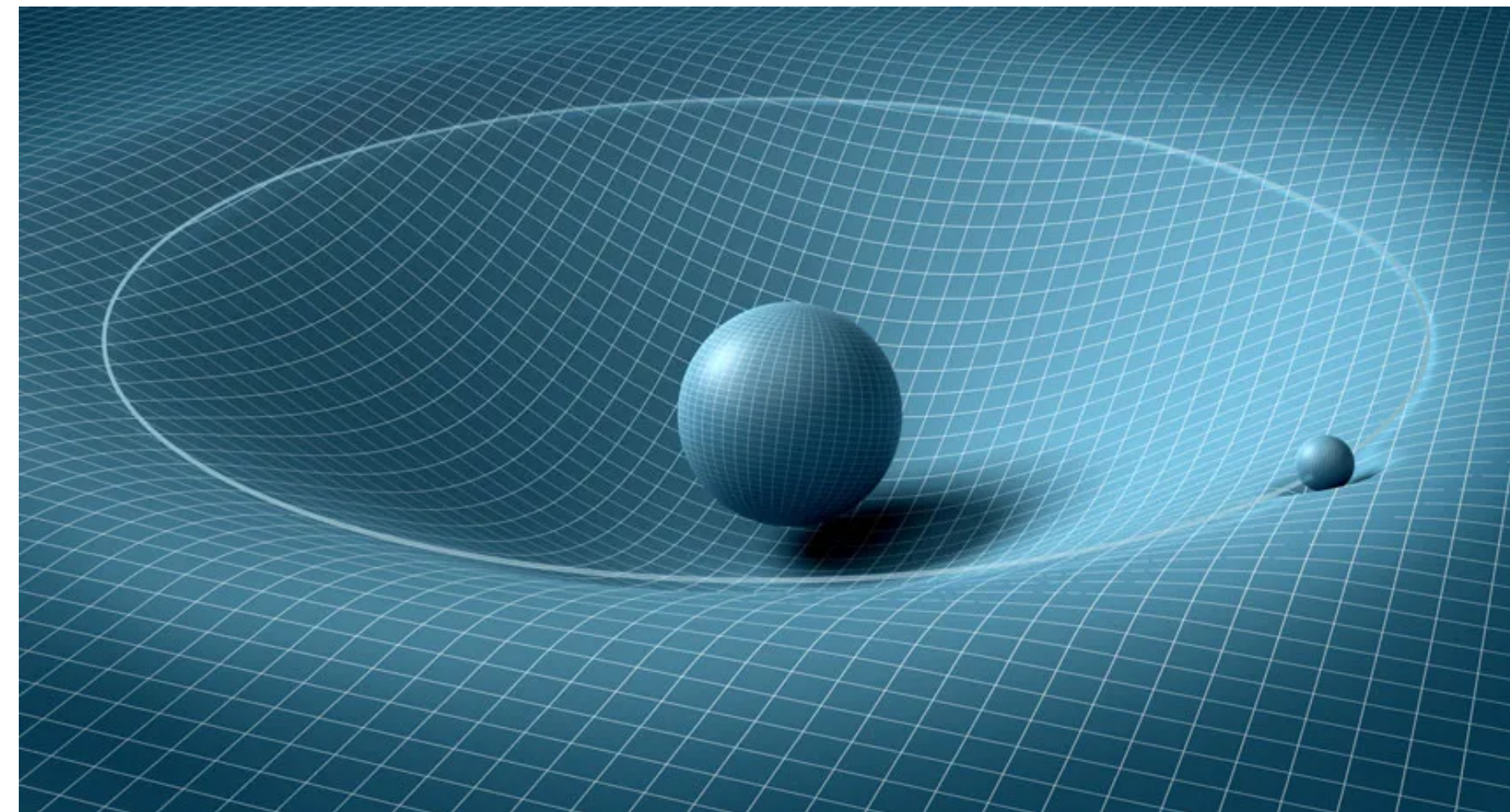
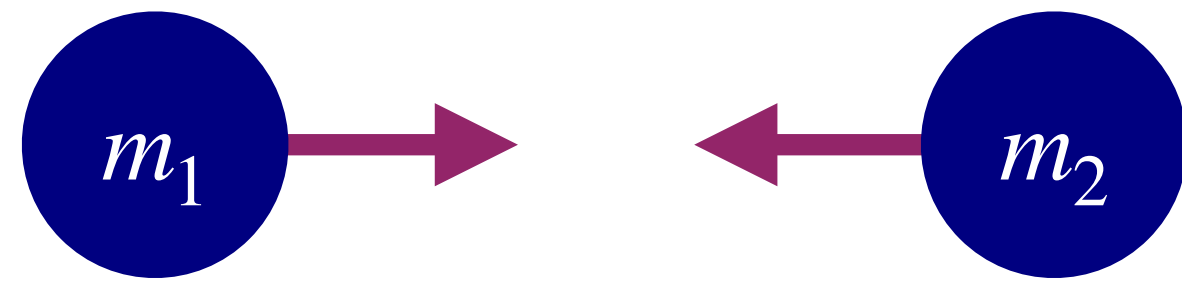
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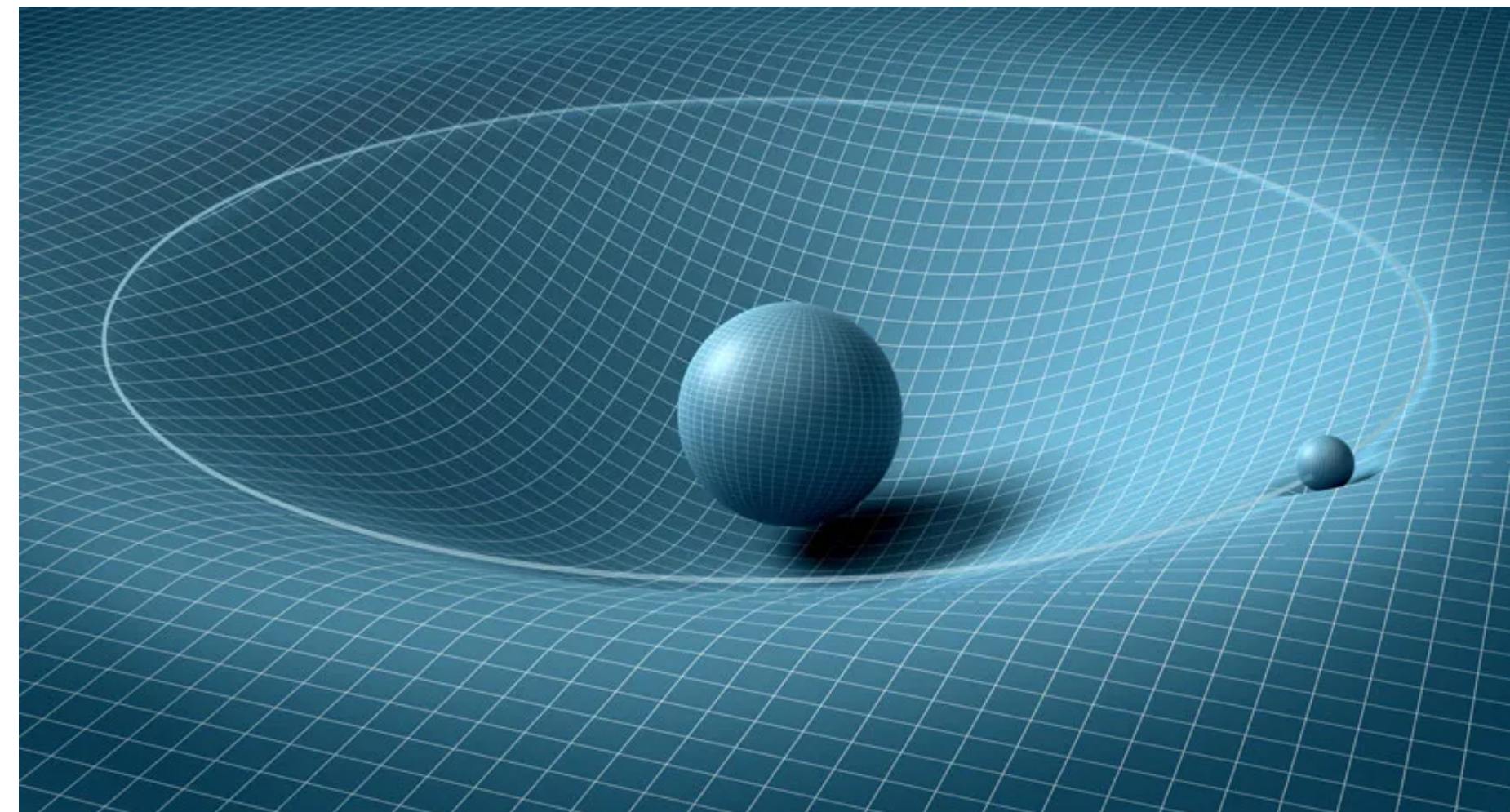
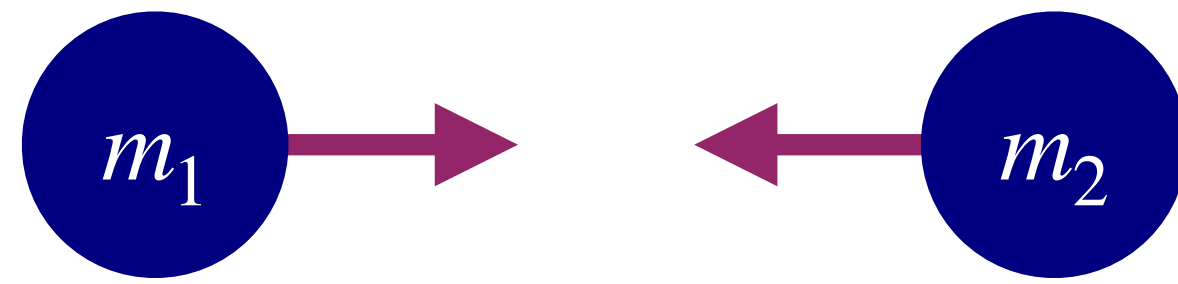
# Testing gravity itself



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# Useful links

"Gravitational Waves from Merging Compact Binaries: How Accurately Can One Extract the Binary's Parameters from the Inspiral Waveform?"

<https://arxiv.org/abs/gr-qc/9402014>

"The basics of gravitational wave theory"

<https://arxiv.org/abs/gr-qc/0501041>

*Handbook of Gravitational Wave Astronomy*

<https://link.springer.com/referencework/10.1007/978-981-16-4306-4>

"A Brief History of Gravitational Waves"

<https://arxiv.org/abs/1609.09400>

"An introduction to Bayesian inference in gravitational-wave astronomy"

<https://arxiv.org/abs/1809.02293>

"Gravitational-wave sensitivity curves"

<https://arxiv.org/abs/1408.0740>