

Gravitational-Wave Data Analysis: Lecture 1

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Gravitational Wave Astronomy Summer School
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Outline for Today

- ▶ **What gravitational wave (GW) data is like**
- ▶ **Characterizing noise**
- ▶ **Frequency-domain representation of data and signals**
- ▶ **Calibration**
- ▶ **Digital filtering basics**



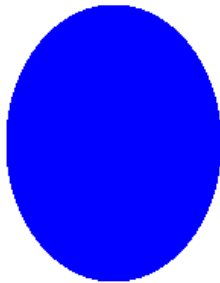
Gravitational Waves: What They Are

GWs are perturbations of the spacetime metric

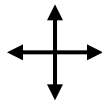
⇒ **Change the effective distance between locally inertial points**

According to GR, there are two polarization components

Wave can be a linear combination of polarization components



“Plus” polarization



“Cross” polarization



Circular polarization



...

These represent a time-dependent **strain** transverse to the direction the wave is traveling – i.e. $h_+(t)$, $h_\times(t)$



The Romance of Gravitational Waves

GWs can give us a unique view of astrophysical systems & events

GWs are powerful: can drive the dynamics of a system

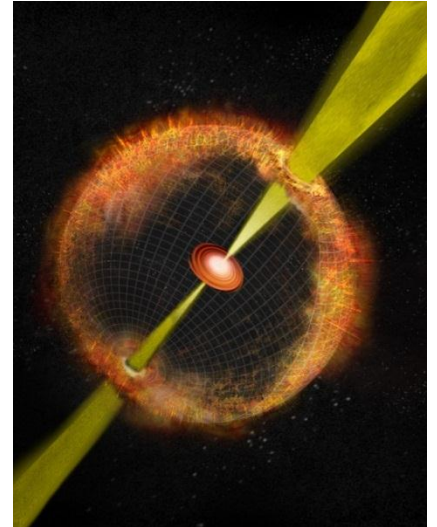
Not scattered by matter

⇒ probe the core engine of the event

Complementary to electromagnetic observations

Reveal “dark” systems such as black hole binaries

Enable tests of GR vs. other theories of gravity



Credit: Bill Saxton, NRAO/AUI/NSF

Detecting GWs is a supreme challenge

GWs are incredibly weak by the time they reach Earth –

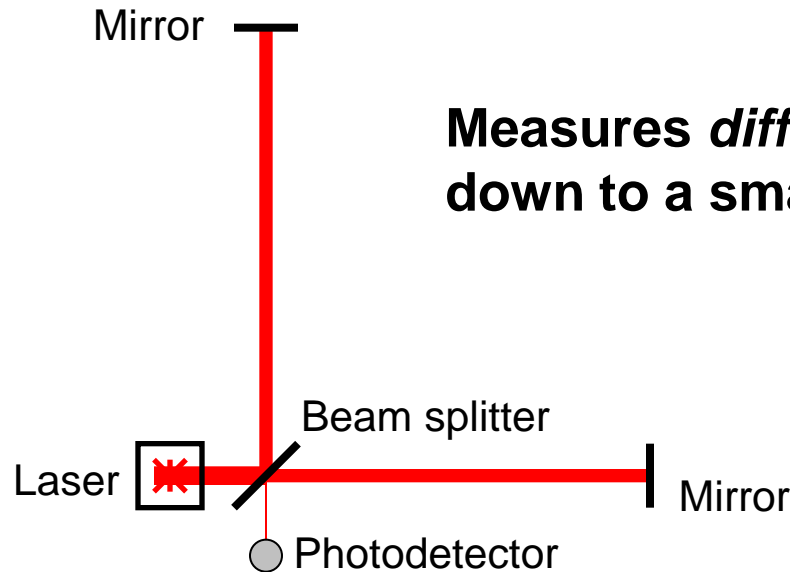
Typical strain ~ 10^{-21} or even smaller !

An unexplored frontier !

Can we really hope to detect them ?!?



Response of a GW Interferometer

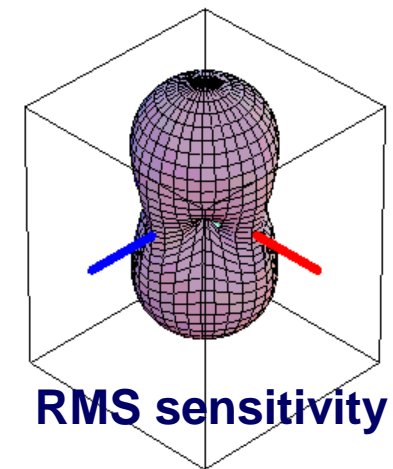
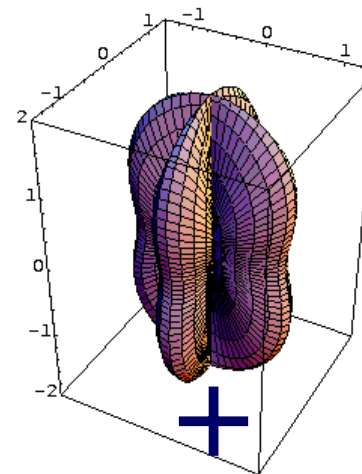
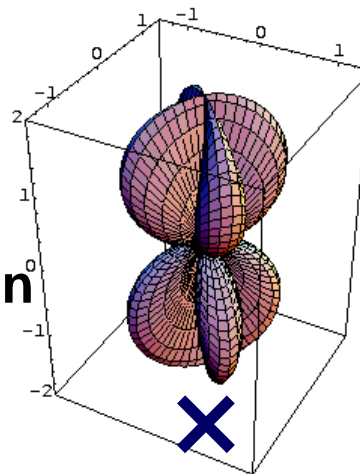


Measures *difference* in effective arm lengths
down to a small fraction of a wavelength

In general, a linear combination:

$$h_{\text{det}}(t) = F_+ h_+(t) + F_\times h_\times(t)$$

Directional sensitivity
depends on polarization
in a certain (+,×) basis



RMS sensitivity

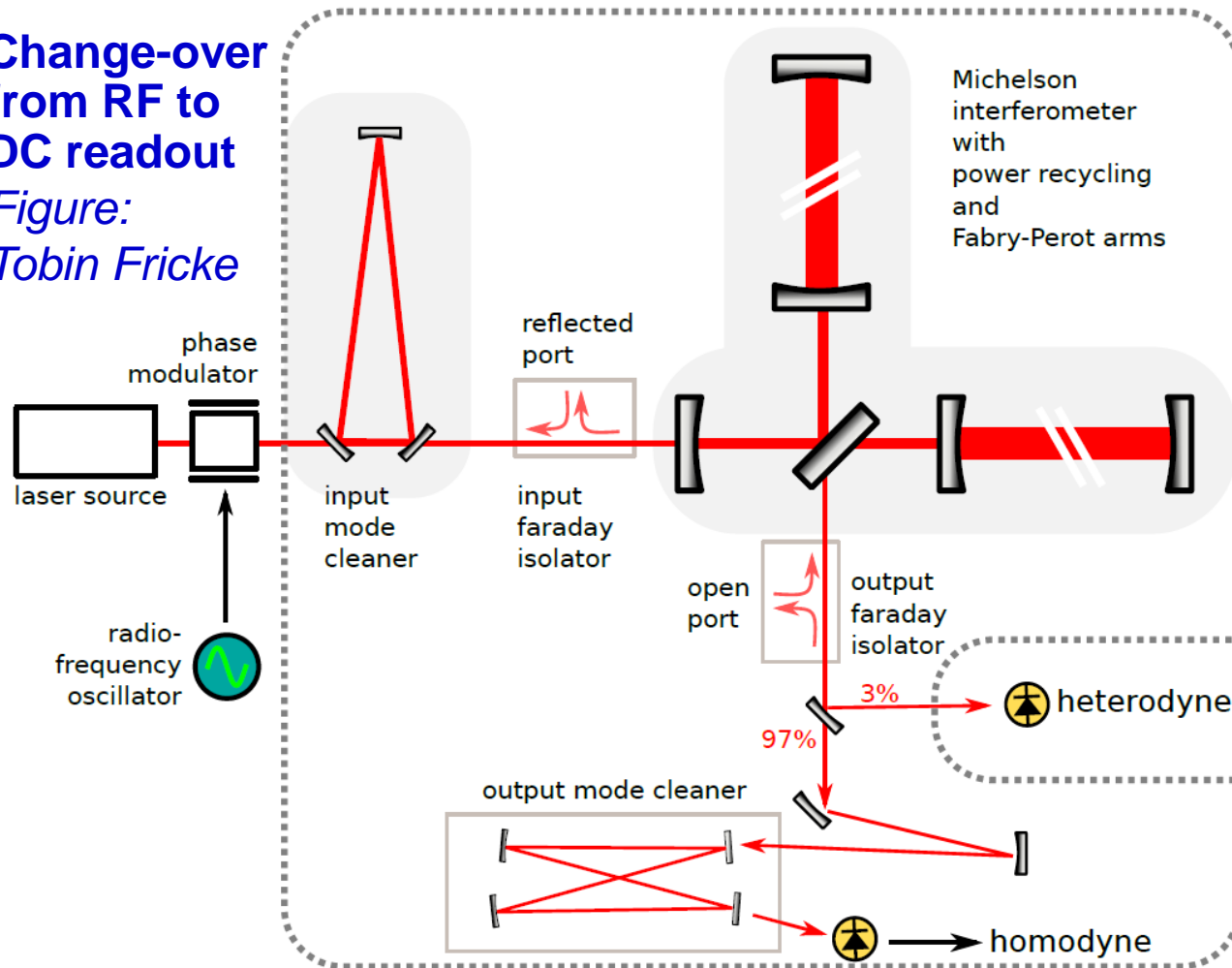


GW Detector Readout – Overview

The eLIGO interferometer

**Change-over
from RF to
DC readout**

*Figure:
Tobin Fricke*



Heterodyne (RF)
readout used for
initial LIGO/Virgo

Modulate phase of
input light (33 MHz),
demodulate signal
measured by
photodiode

Perfect destructive
interference on avg

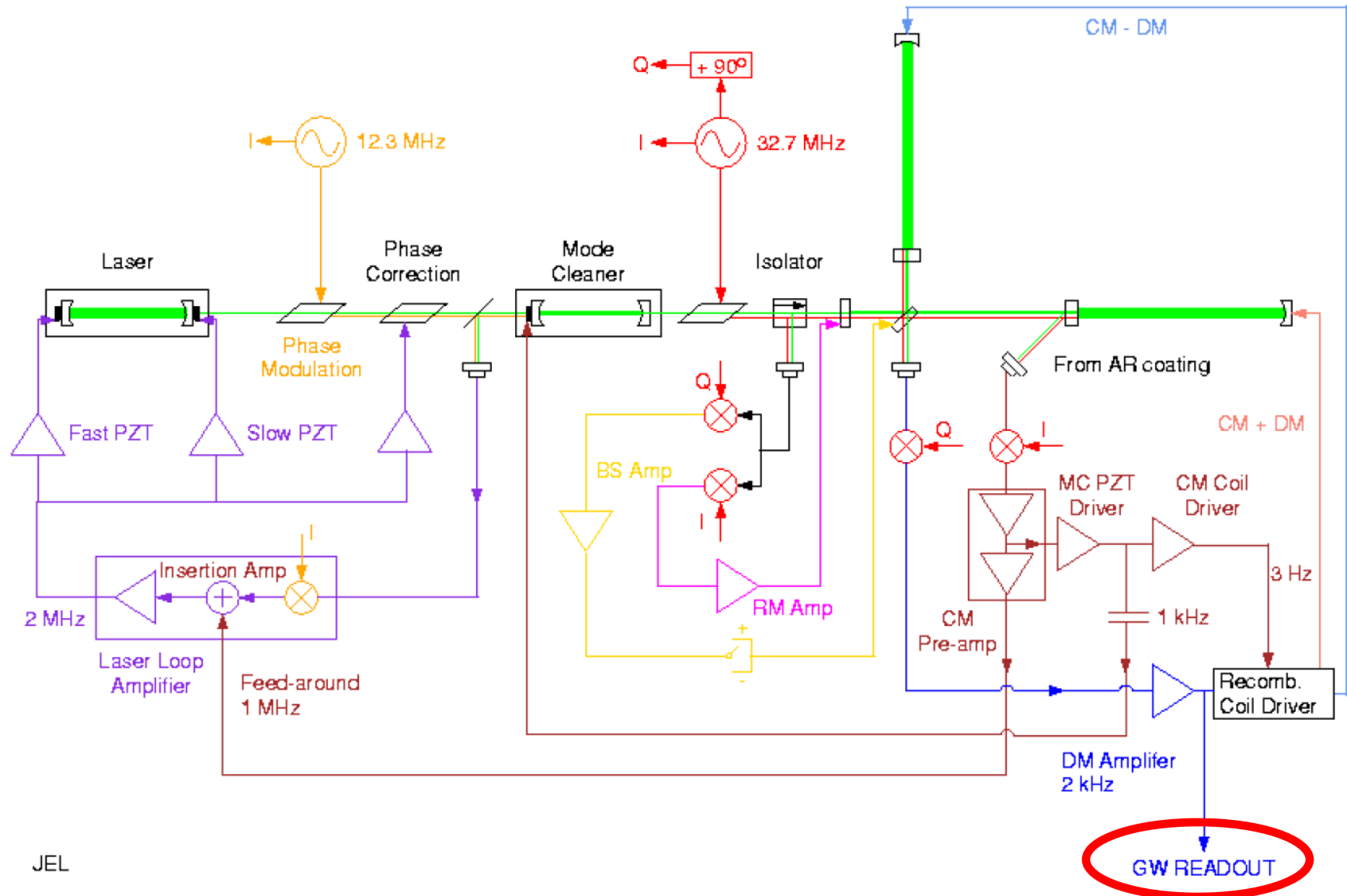
Homodyne (DC)
readout used for
Adv. LIGO/Virgo

Measure intensity
variations

Arm lengths offset



LIGO Length Sensing and Control (RF Readout)





Gravitational-Wave Data

Data = Instantaneous estimate of strain for each moment in time

i.e. demodulated channel sensitive to arm length difference

That's not the whole story – we'll come back to calibration later

Digitized discrete **time series recorded in computer files**

(t_j, x_j)

LIGO and GEO **sampling rate**: $16384 \text{ Hz} \equiv f_s$

VIRGO sampling rate: 20000 Hz

Synchronized with GPS time signal

Common “frame” file format (*.gwf)



Many auxiliary channels recorded too

Total data volume: a few megabytes per second per interferometer



Leap Second Coming at End of June

<http://hpiers.obspm.fr/iers/bul/bulc/bulletinc.dat>

Paris, 5 January 2012

Bulletin C 43

To authorities responsible
for the measurement and
distribution of time

UTC TIME STEP
on the 1st of July 2012

A positive leap second will be introduced at the end of June 2012.
The sequence of dates of the UTC second markers will be:

| | |
|---------------|-------------|
| 2012 June 30, | 23h 59m 59s |
| 2012 June 30, | 23h 59m 60s |
| 2012 July 1, | 0h 0m 0s |

The difference between UTC and the International Atomic Time TAI is:

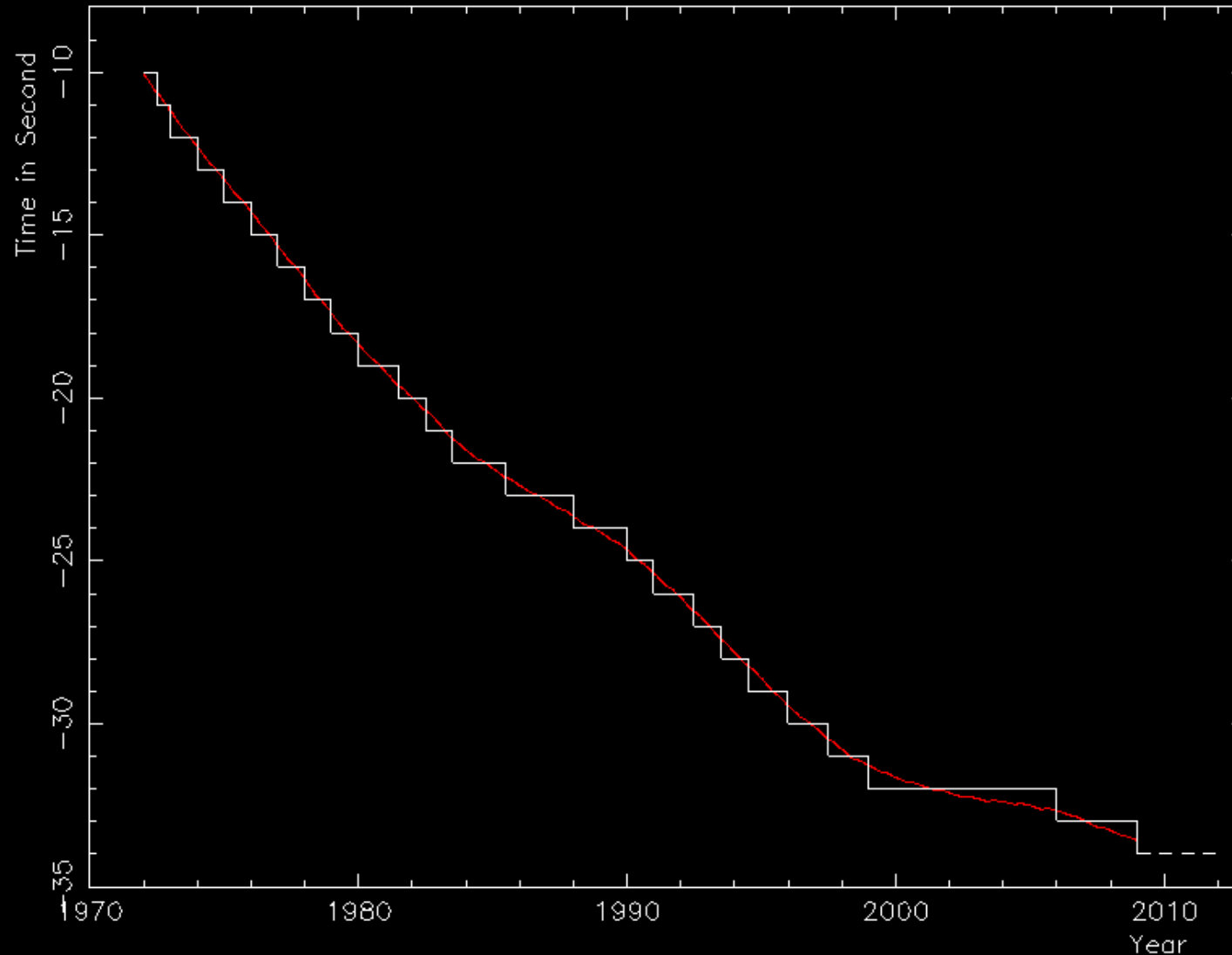
| | |
|--|-------------------|
| from 2009 January 1, 0h UTC, to 2012 July 1 0h UTC | : UTC-TAI = - 34s |
| from 2012 July 1, 0h UTC, until further notice | : UTC-TAI = - 35s |

Leap seconds can be introduced in UTC at the end of the months of December or June, depending on the evolution of UT1-TAI. Bulletin C is mailed every six months, either to announce a time step in UTC or to confirm that there will be no time step at the next possible date.



Leap Seconds – Historical

UTC follows TAI (horizontal segments) and approximates UT1 by one-second steps



<http://hpiers.obspm.fr/eop-pc/>



Relevance of the Sampling Rate

Is 16384 Hz a high enough sampling rate ?

The Sampling Theorem:

Discretely sampled data with sampling rate f_s can completely represent a continuous signal which only has frequency content below the **Nyquist frequency**, $f_s / 2$

GW signals of interest to ground-based detectors typically stay below a few kHz

e.g. binary neutron star inspiral reaches ISCO at ~1 to 1.5 kHz



Neutron star f -modes: ~3 kHz

Black hole quasinormal modes: ~1 kHz for $10 M_\odot$

Some core collapse supernova signals could go up to several kHz

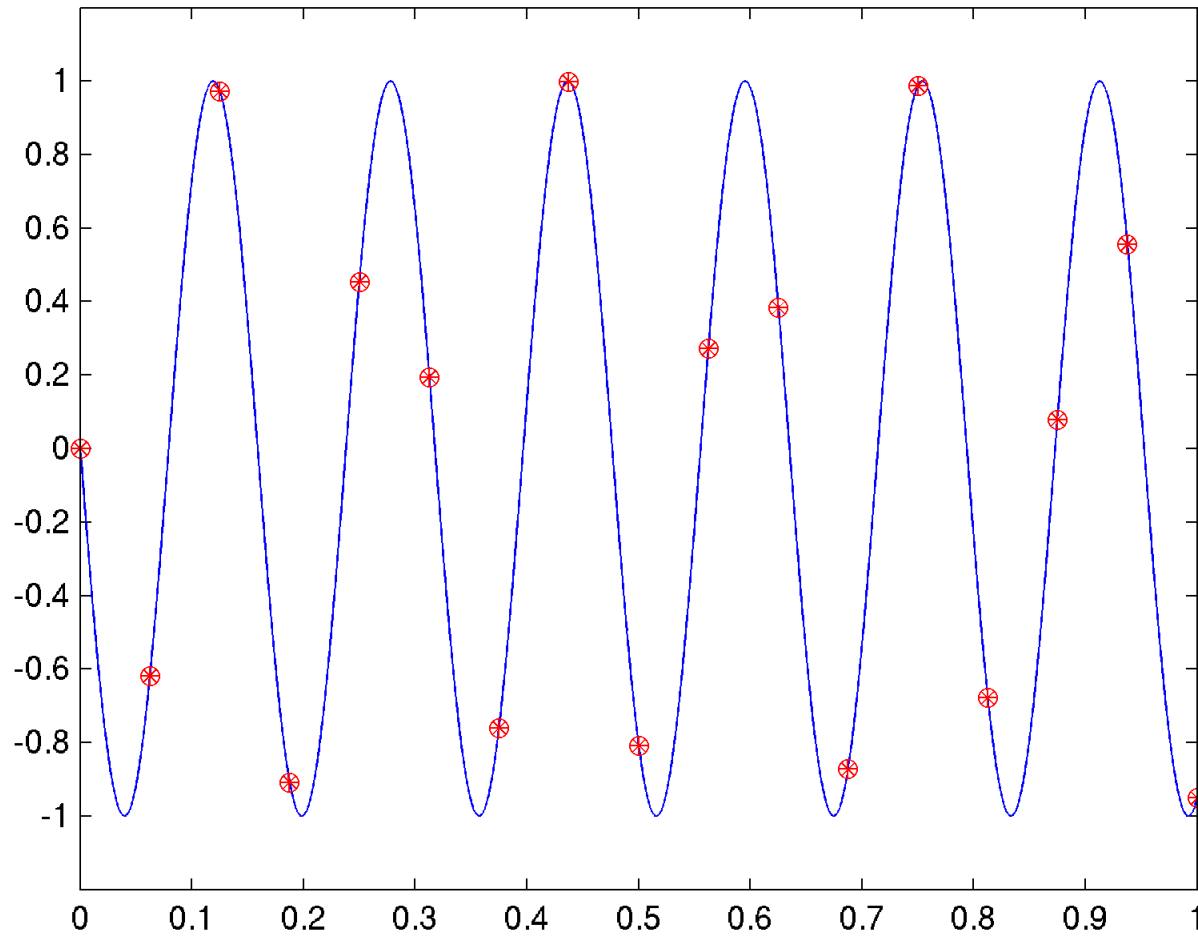
What if the signal extends above Nyquist frequency?

Higher frequencies are “aliased” down to lower frequencies



Aliasing

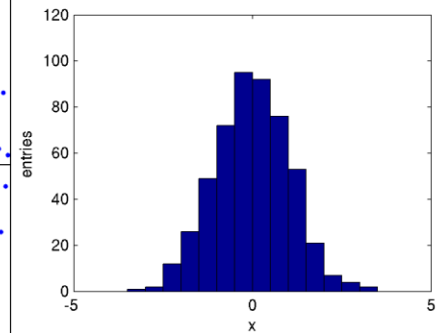
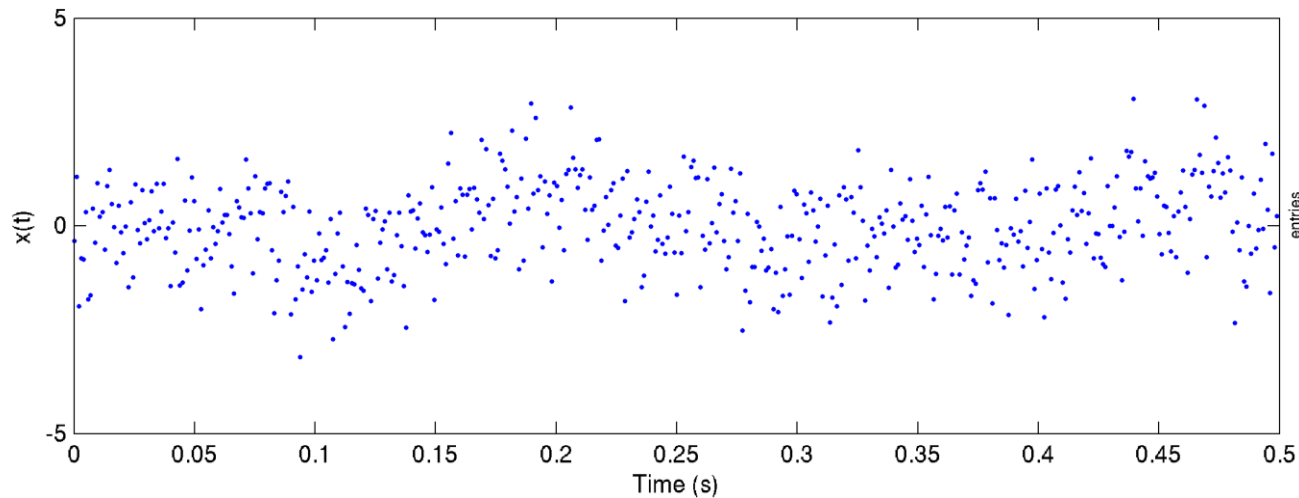
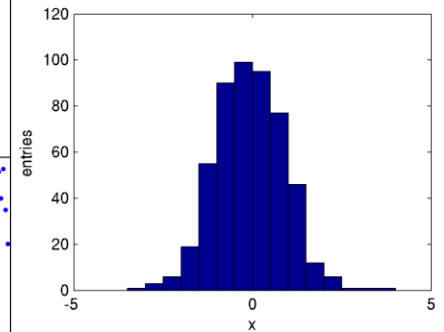
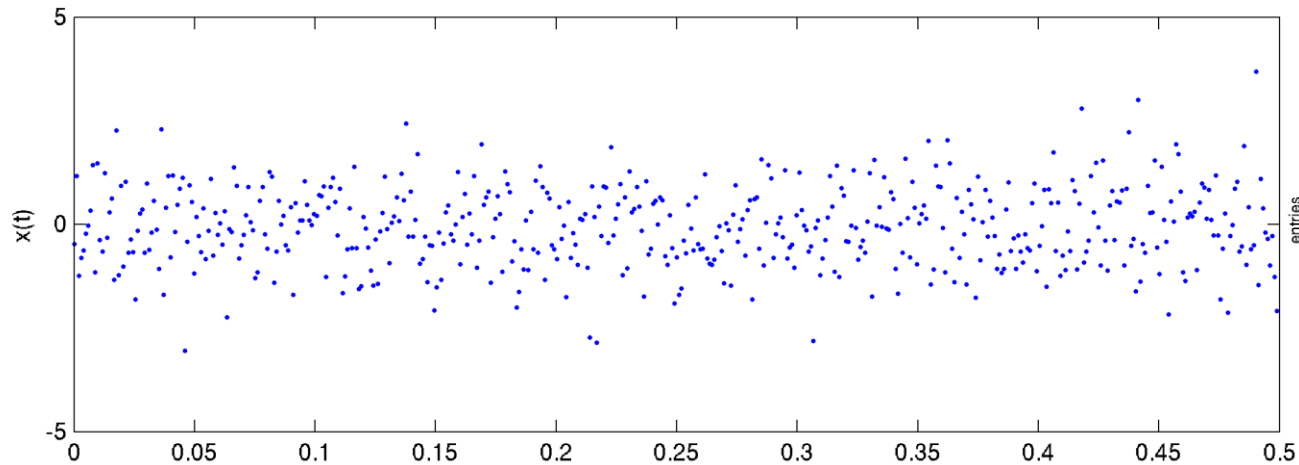
$f_s = 16 \text{ Hz}$; signal frequency = 9.7 Hz





Characterizing Noise

Noise is random, but its *properties* can be characterized





Possible Properties of Noise

Stationary : statistical properties are independent of time

Ergodic process: time averages are equivalent to ensemble averages

Gaussian : A random variable follows Gaussian distribution

For a single random variable,
$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_x^2}} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x - \mu_x)^2}{\sigma_x^2} \right]$$

More generally, a set of random variables (e.g. a time series) is Gaussian if the joint probability distribution is governed by a covariance matrix

$$C_{xij} := \langle x_i x_j \rangle - \langle x_i \rangle \langle x_j \rangle$$

such that

$$p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{N/2} \sqrt{\det C_x}} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=0}^{N-1} C_{xij}^{-1} (x_i - \mu_{xi})(x_j - \mu_{xj}) \right]$$

White : Signal power is uniformly distributed over frequency

\Rightarrow Data samples are uncorrelated



Frequency-Domain Representation of a Time Series

Fourier transform

$$\tilde{x}(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt x(t) e^{-i2\pi ft}$$

$$\Rightarrow x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} df \tilde{x}(f) e^{i2\pi ft}$$

A linear function, complex in general

Defined for all positive *and negative* frequencies



Frequency-Domain Representation of a *Discrete, Finite* Time Series

Time series x_j with N samples at times $t_j = t_0 + j \Delta t$

Discrete Fourier transform

$$\tilde{x}_k := \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} x_j e^{-i2\pi jk/N}$$

$$\Rightarrow x_j = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=-N/2}^{N/2-1} \tilde{x}_k e^{i2\pi jk/N}$$

Frequency spacing is **inversely** proportional to N

Efficient way to calculate complete discrete Fourier Transform:
Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)



Power Spectral Density

Parseval's theorem:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt |x(t)|^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} df |\tilde{x}(f)|^2$$

⇒ Total energy in the data can be calculated in either time domain or frequency domain

$|\tilde{x}(f)|^2$ can be interpreted as energy spectral density

When noise (or signal) has infinite extent in time domain, can still define the **power spectral density (PSD)**

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} |\tilde{x}_T(f)|^2$$

Watch out for one-sided vs. two-sided PSDs



Estimating the PSD

Generally we need to determine the PSD empirically, using a finite amount of data

Simplest approach: FFT the data, calculate square of magnitude of each frequency component – this is a **periodogram**

For stationary noise, one can show that the frequency components are statistically independent

This estimate is unbiased (has the correct mean), but has a large variance – so average several periodograms

Alternately, smooth periodogram; give up frequency resolution either way

Generally apply a “window” to the data to avoid **spectral leakage**

Leakage arises from the assumption that the data is periodic!

Tapered window forces data to go to zero at ends of time interval

****Welch’s method** of estimating a PSD averages periodograms calculated from windowed data**

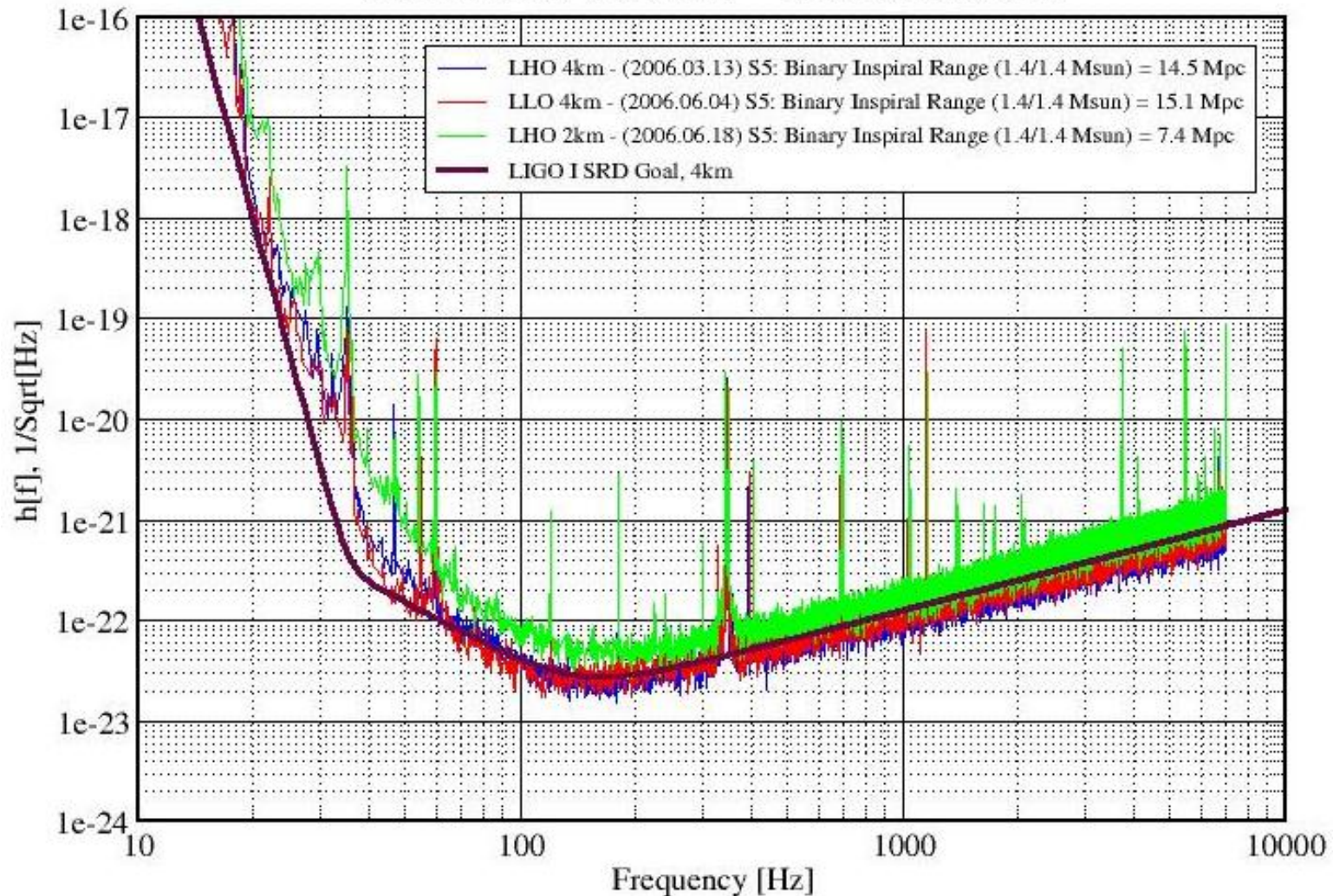


Amplitude Spectral Density of LIGO Noise

Strain Sensitivity for the LIGO 4km Interferometers

S5 Performance - June 2006

LIGO-G060293-01-Z





Interpretation of Time Series Data

Recorded data values are *not* simply proportional to GW strain

A linear system, but that does not guarantee proportionality !

Frequency-dependent amplitude and phase relation (i.e. transfer function)

Instrumental and practical reasons

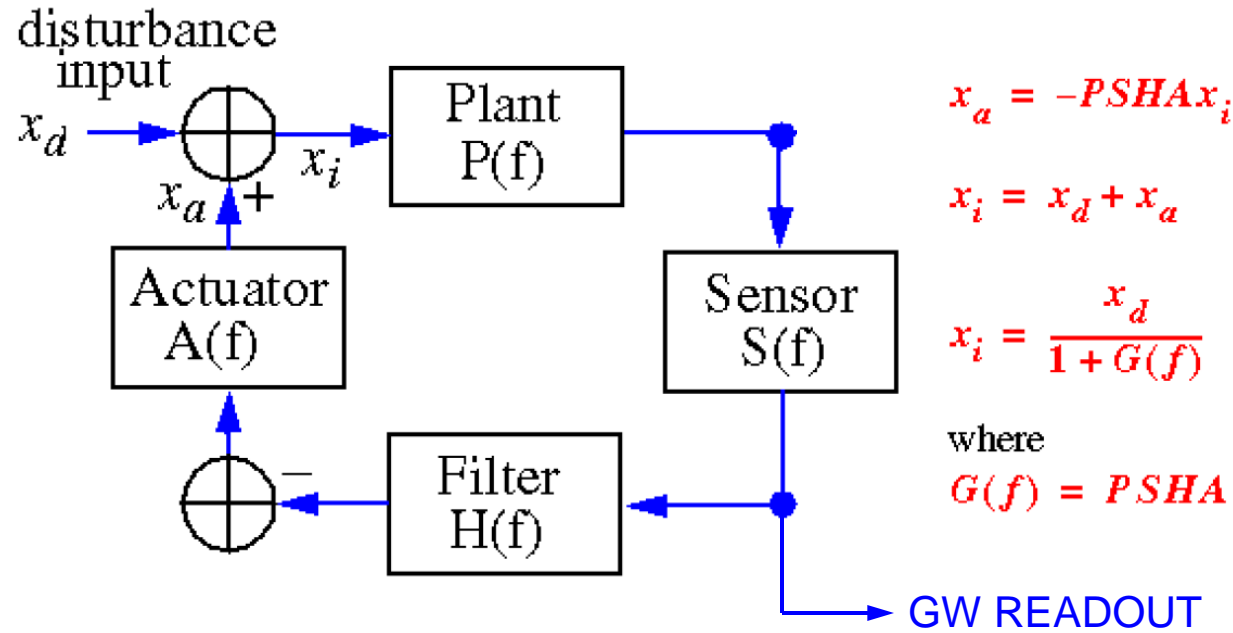
⇒ **Raw time series is a distorted version of GW strain signal**

e.g. a delta-function GW signal produces an output with a characteristic shape and duration (“**impulse response**”)

Want to recover actual GW strain for analysis



Calibration



Monitor $P(f)$ continuously with “calibration lines”

Sinusoidal arm length variations with known absolute amplitude

Apply frequency-dependent correction factor to get GW strain

$$h = (\text{GW READOUT}) \times \frac{1 + G(f)}{P(f) S(f)}$$



Basics of Digital Filtering

A filter calculates an output time series from a linear combination of the elements of an input time series

Finite Impulse Response (FIR) filter

Calculated *only* from the input time series

Typical form: $y_i = b_0x_i + b_1x_{i-1} + b_2x_{i-2} + \dots + b_{N-1}x_{i-N}$

Infinite Impulse Response (IIR) filter

Also uses prior elements of the output time series

e.g. $y_i = b_0x_i + b_1x_{i-1} + b_2x_{i-2} + \dots + b_{N-1}x_{i-N} + a_1y_{i-1} + a_2y_{i-2} + \dots$

Choice of coefficients determines transfer function

Many filter design methods, depending on goals

Causality and phase lag

Linear-phase and zero-phase filters

Watch for transient in filter output at beginning of data stream!



Applications of filtering

High-pass, low-pass, band-pass, band-stop, etc.

Anti-aliasing for down-sampling

Low-pass filter to cut away signal content above new Nyquist frequency

Whitening / Dewhitening



Time for some exercises ...

Based on Matlab – but the UTB laptops have Octave

Work by yourself or with a partner

How to get help:

- Ask me or a neighbor

- Use Matlab's/Octave's built-in help

- Consult a book – I have one here

The items in the handout are intended as a guide

- Feel free to explore !