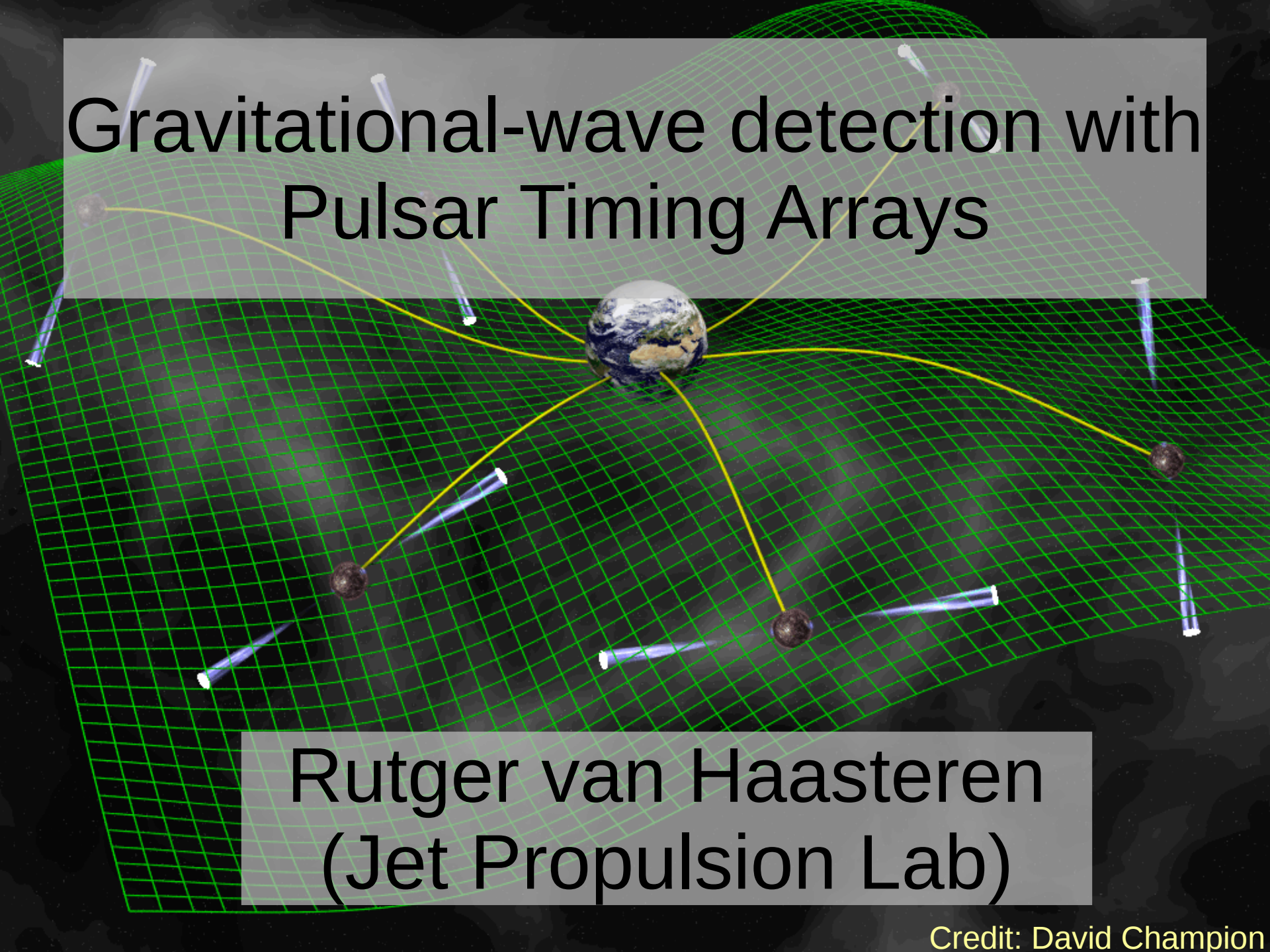


# Gravitational-wave detection with Pulsar Timing Arrays

A diagram illustrating a Pulsar Timing Array (PTA). At the center is a realistic image of Earth. Ten yellow lines radiate from Earth to ten different pulsars, represented as small brown spheres. From each pulsar, a blue beam of light (representing a radio signal) is directed towards Earth. The entire scene is set against a green grid that represents the curvature of spacetime, with the grid lines curving around the Earth and pulsars.

Rutger van Haasteren  
(Jet Propulsion Lab)

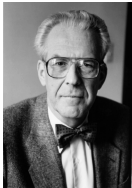
# Outline

1. Gravitational wave sources
2. Gravitational wave detection
3. Pulsar timing and examples
4. Gravitational-wave searches and analysis
5. The IPTA mock data challenges
6. Outlook

# GW sources for PTAs: SMBHBs



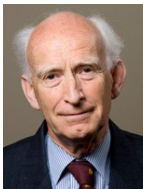
**1915.** Karl Schwarzschild finds an analytical solution for the Einstein field equations, predicting black holes



**1962.** Quasars discovered at billions of light years by Schmidt.



**1964.** Zeldovich & Novikov and Salpeter argue that Quasars are powered by the accretion of gas onto supermassive black holes



**1969.** Lynden-Bell argues that supermassive black holes should exist at the centers of many galaxies.



**1996+.** Hubble Telescope observations, analyzed using Martin Schwarzschild's method, establish that supermassive black holes exist in the large majority of galaxies with a central bulge.



# Evolution of galaxies and their massive black holes



Question: how do black holes evolve?

# Galaxy formation

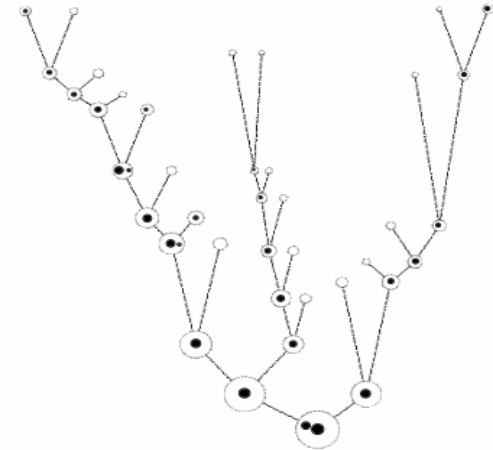
**Universe becomes matter-dominated at  $z=10000$ . Gravitational instability becomes effective.**



**Small halos collapse first, small galaxies form first**



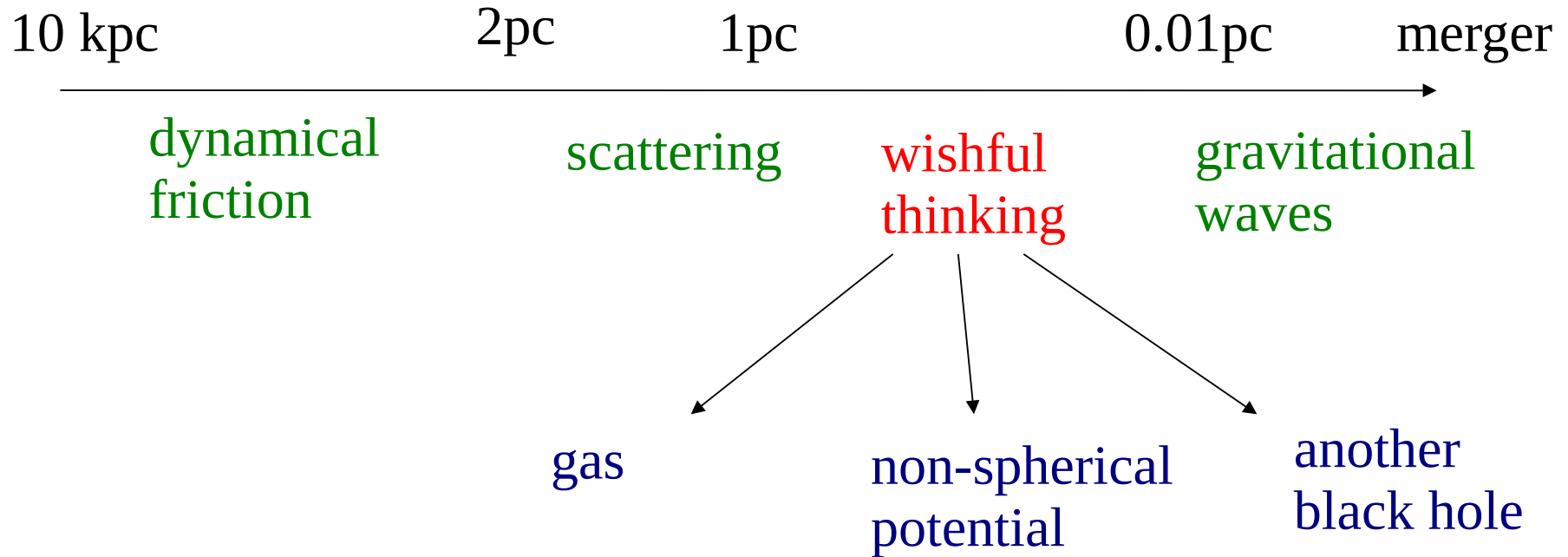
**Smaller galaxies merge to form large spirals and ellipticals.**



Marta Volonteri (2003)

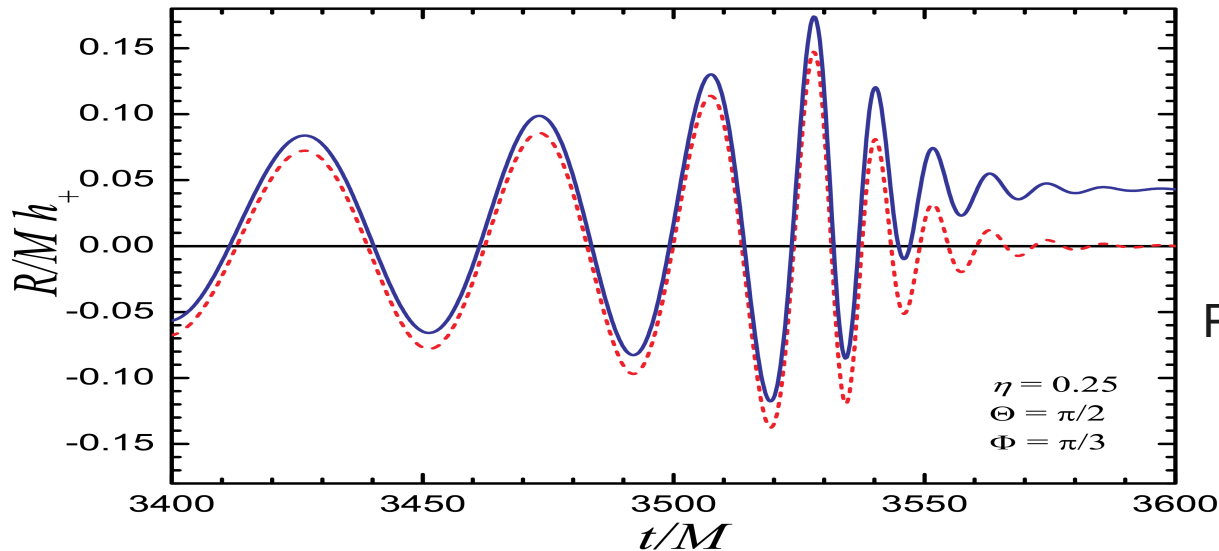
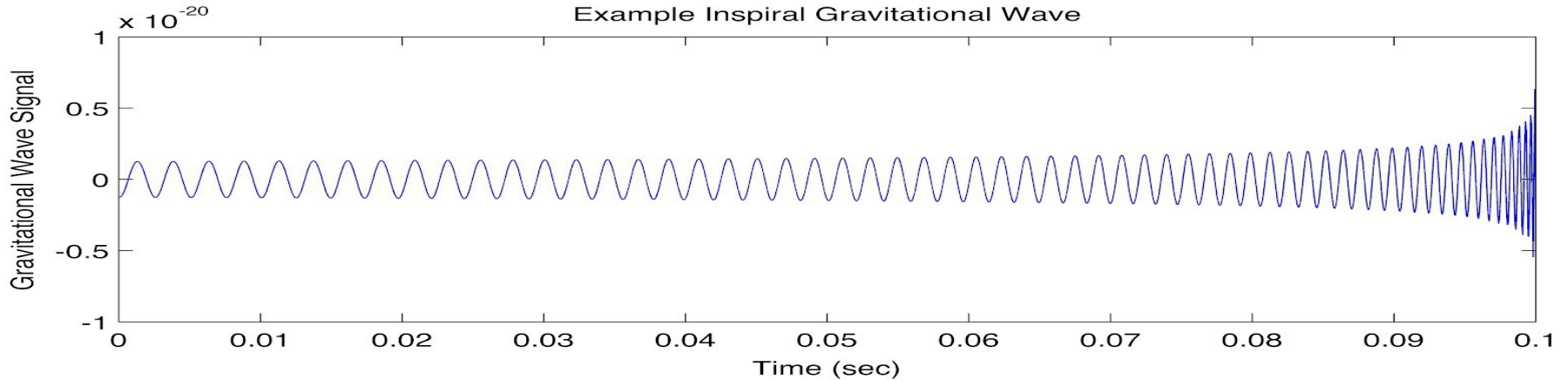
# Supermassive BH binaries

Begelman, Blandford, & Rees 1982:



“last-parsec problem”, considered mostly solved now

# Types of waveforms of interest



Inspiral – merger – ringdown

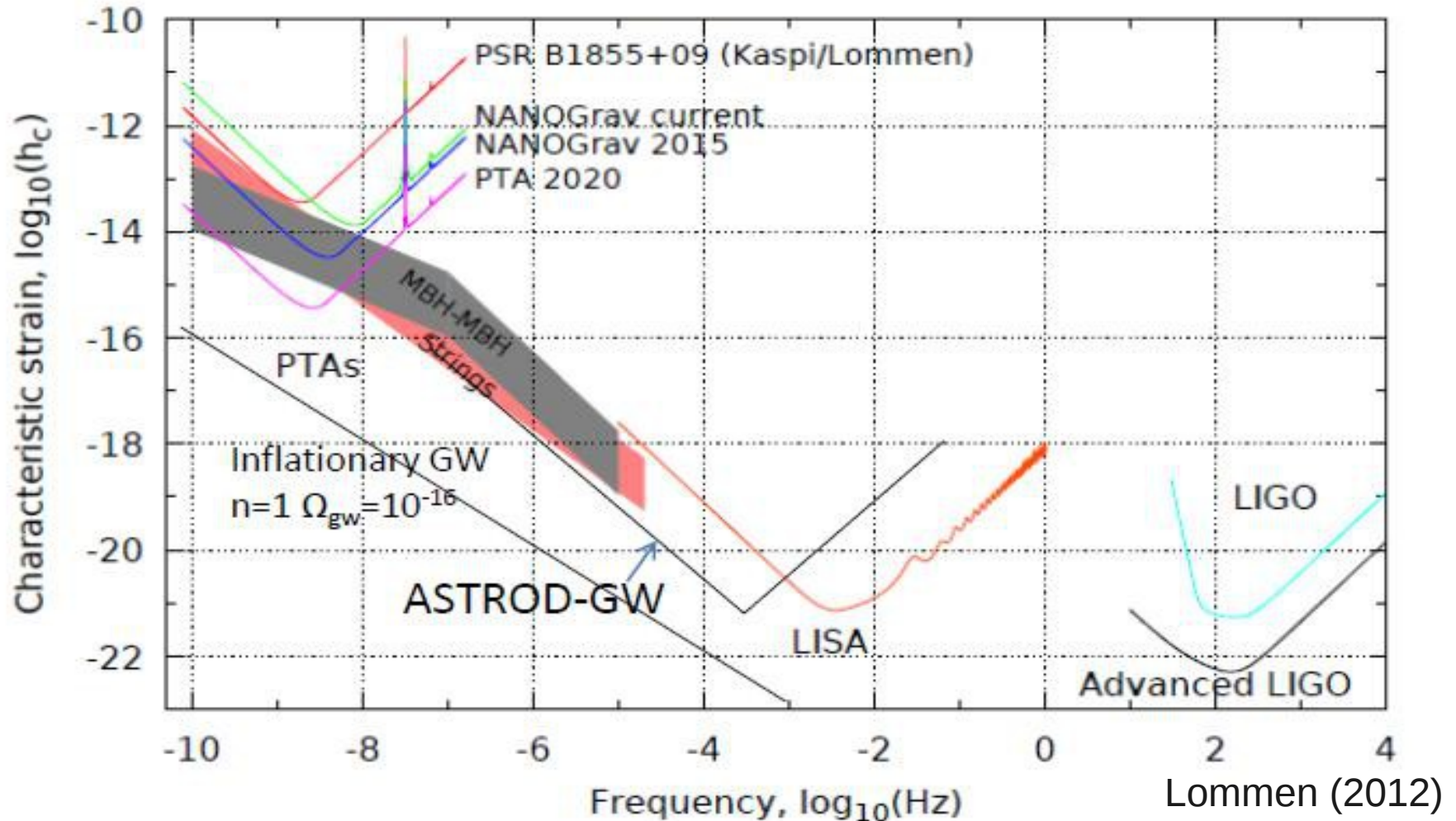
Inspiral: continuous wave  
Merger: unresolvable.  
Ringdown: unresolvable... but:

The memory effect is permanent!

Marc Favata (2010)



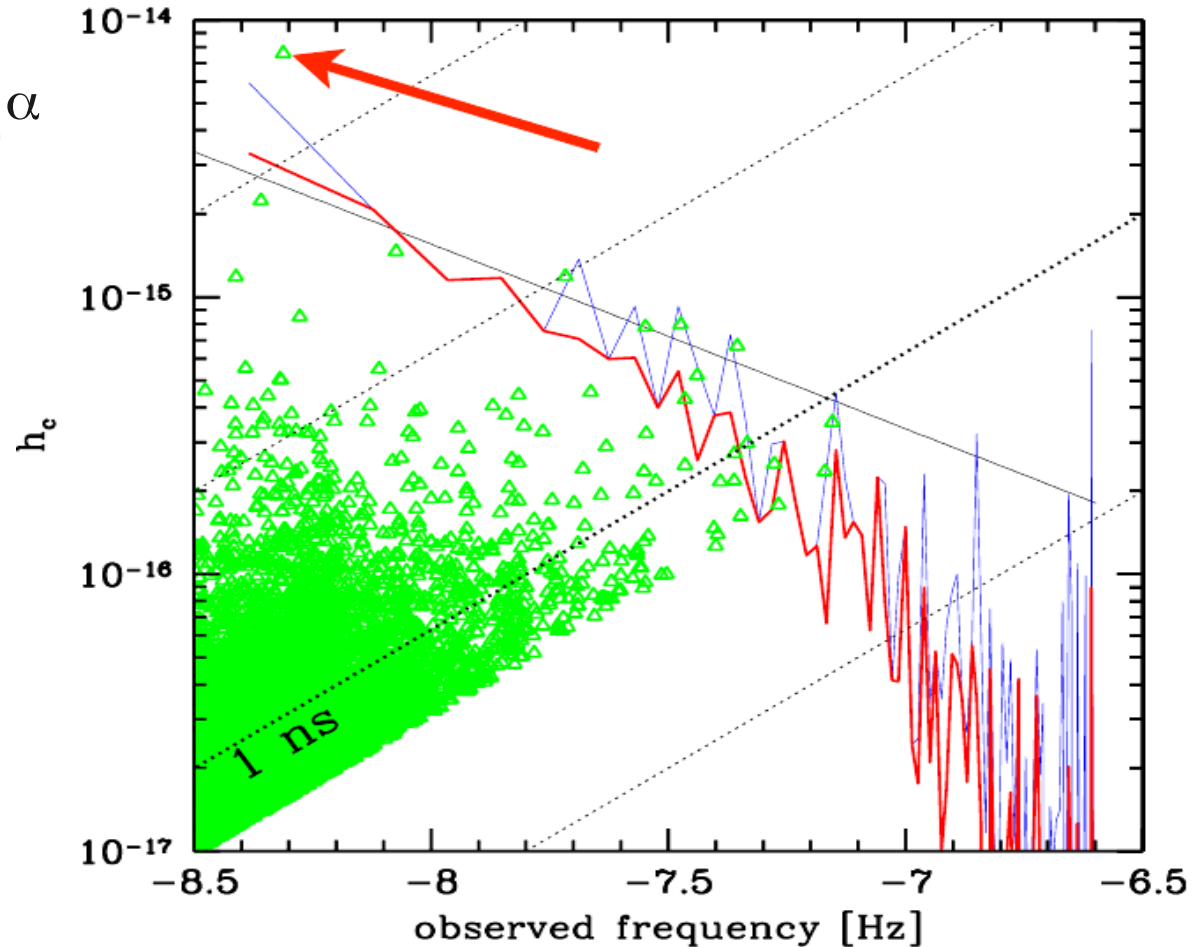
# Frequency bands GW detectors



# At low frequencies: background

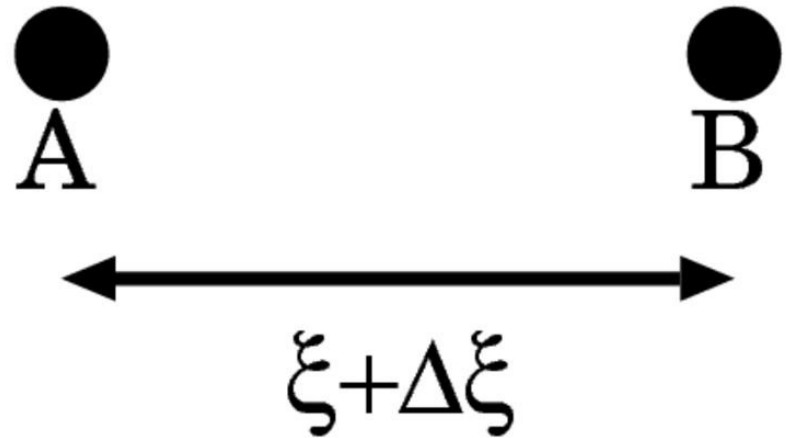
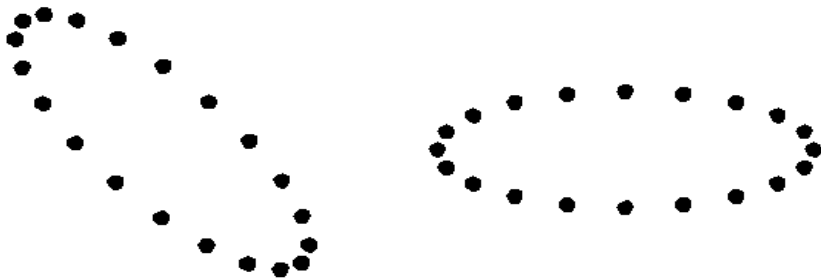
$$h_c(f) = h_c \times (f/f_0)^\alpha$$
$$\alpha = -2/3$$

Phinney 01  
Jaffe & Backer 03  
Wyithe & Loeb 03  
Sesana et al. 07, 09



Sesana et al. (2008), Ravi et al. (2012): Theory and simulations suggest there is a non-zero probability that individual sources have SNR above the background.

# Why pulsars?



Effect of GWs is an oscillating Riemann curvature tensor, possible in two polarisations.  
→ Measure propagation length!

Speed of light is constant.  
Measure time, not distance.

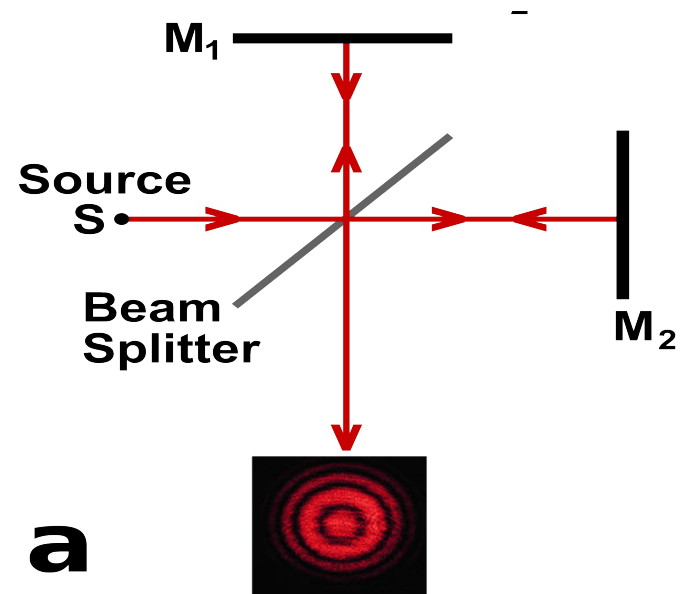
# Effect and detectability of GWs



Credit: Advanced Technology Center, NAOJ

Emit light, and reflect back

Now it is truly a 'timing experiment'



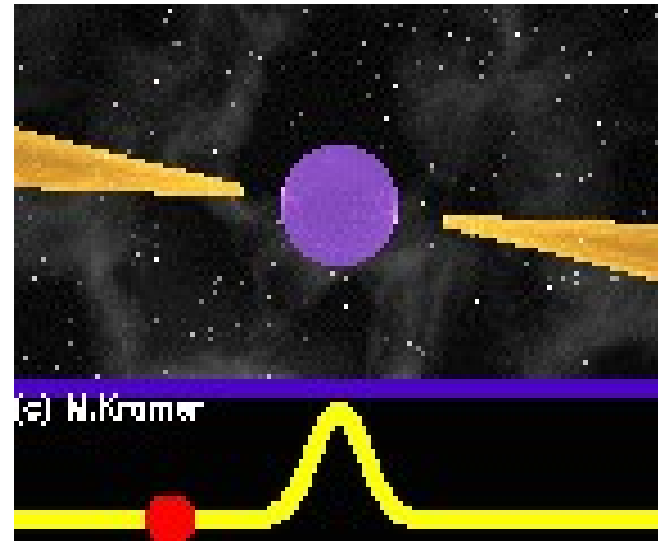
LASER has precise frequency  
→ equivalent to clock

Interferometry for detection

# Need precise frequency/clock



Could say that KAGRA uses a LASER as an accurate frequency standard



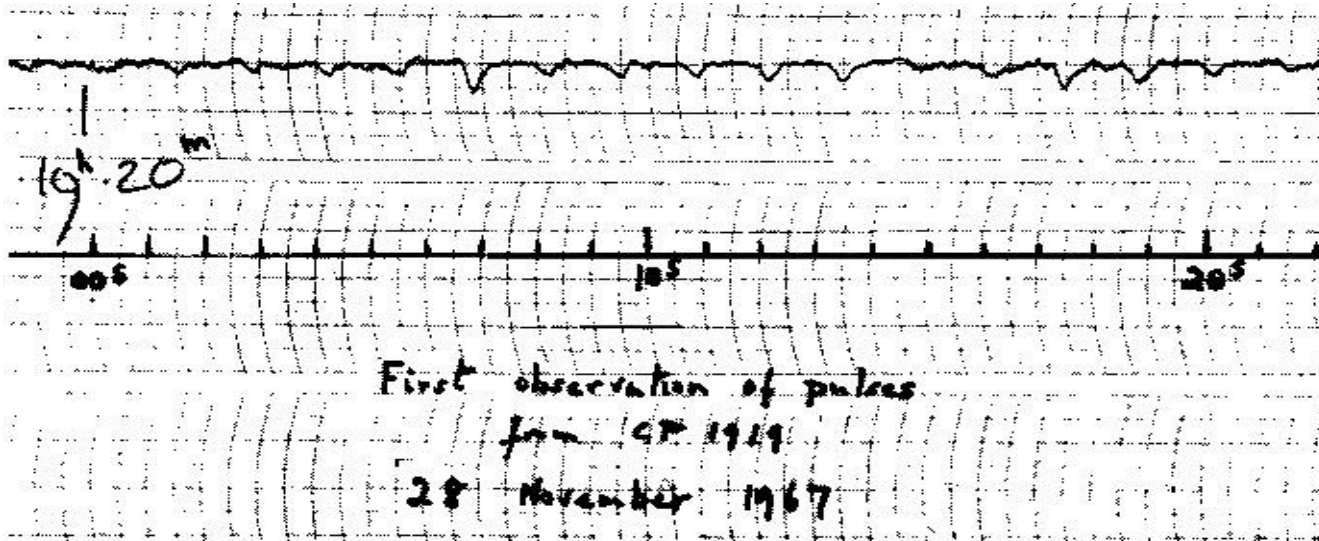
What about pulsar's spin frequency?

Period of PSR B1937+21:  
 $T = 0.00155780644887275 \text{ s}$

# Pulsars

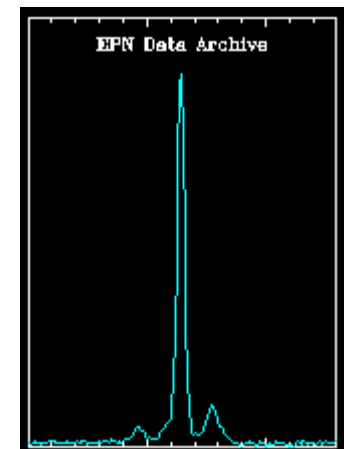


# Discovery: LGM1

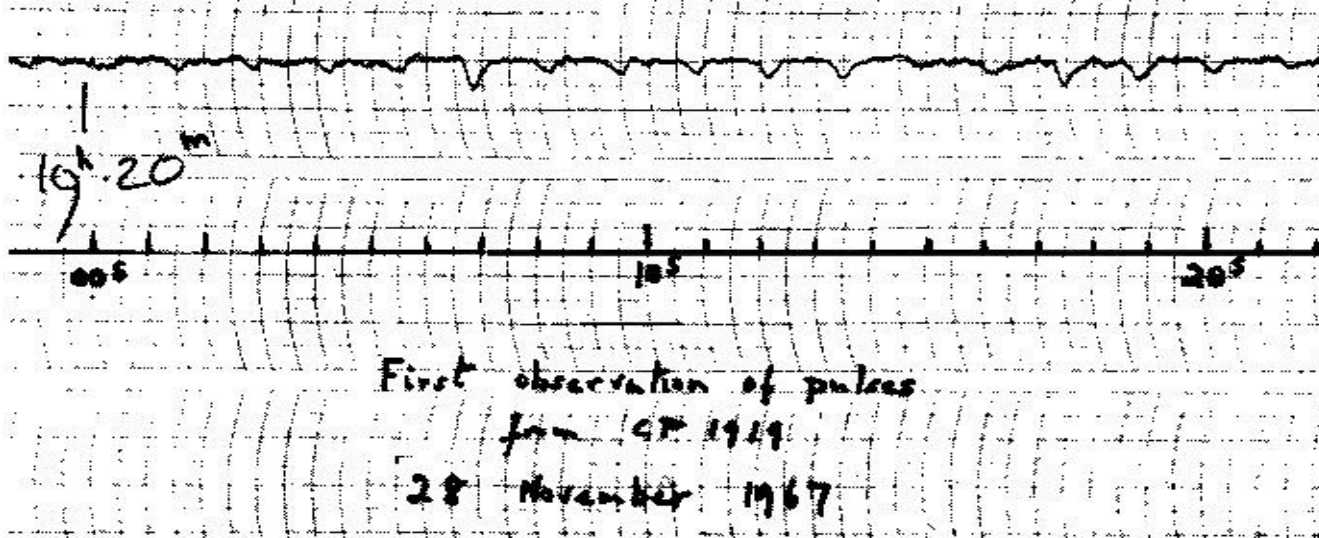


Pulsar discovery in 1967: LGM1  
(= PSR B1919+21)

'Knocking sound'

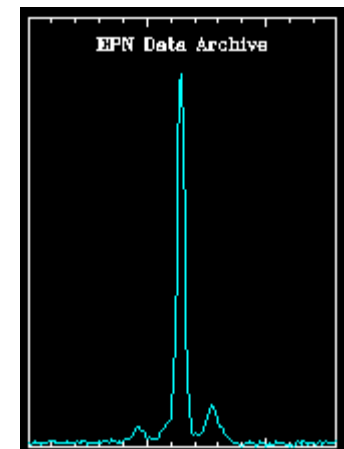


# Discovery: LGM1



Pulsar discovery in 1967: LGM1  
(= PSR B1919+21)

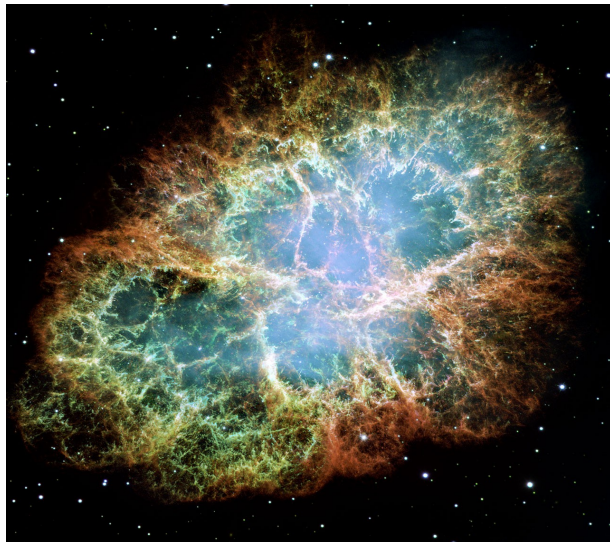
'Knocking sound'





# Explanation: neutron star

**Baade & Zwicky in 1934:** "With all reserve we advance the view that a supernova represents the transition of an ordinary star into a new form of star, the neutron star, which would be the end point of stellar evolution. Such a star may possess a very small radius and an extremely high density."

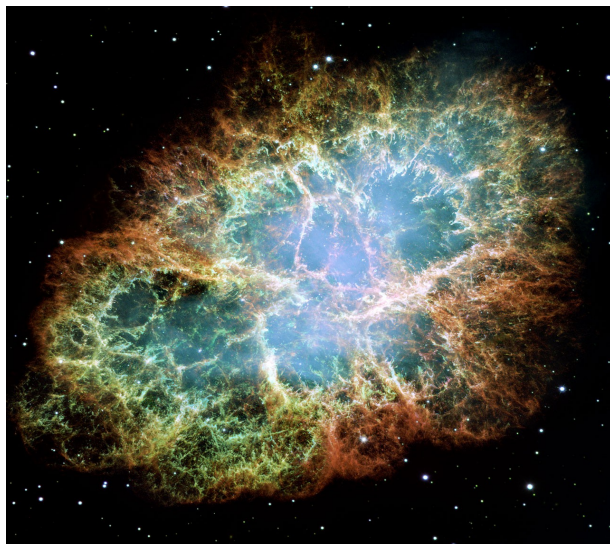


Crab Nebula. Remnant of 1054 AD supernova, seen by Chinese astronomers ('guest star').

Pulse profile of the Crab.

# Associated supernova: the Crab

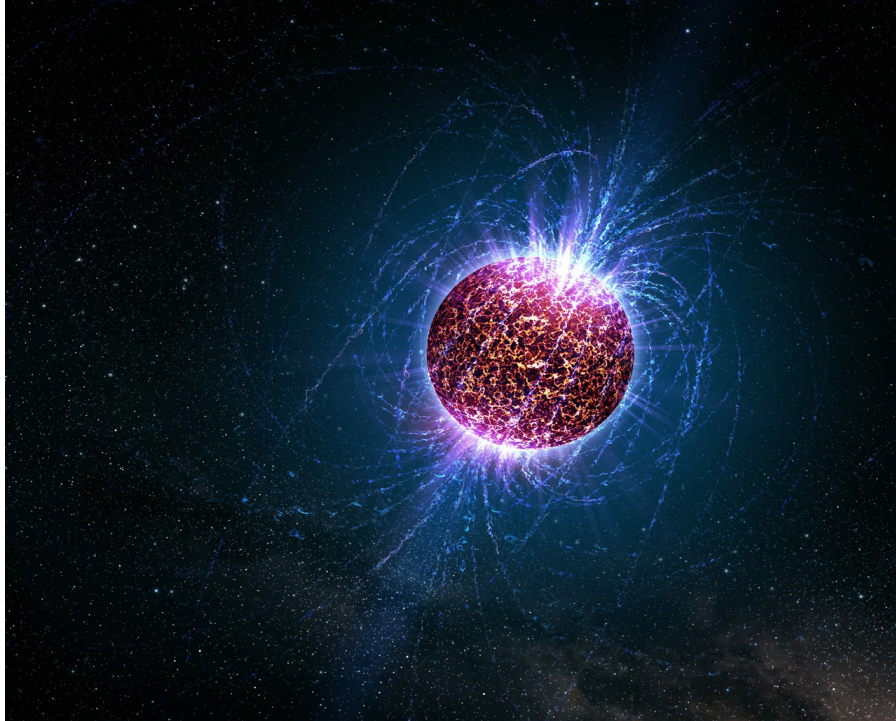
**Baade & Zwicky in 1934:** "With all reserve we advance the view that a supernova represents the transition of an ordinary star into a new form of star, the neutron star, which would be the end point of stellar evolution. Such a star may possess a very small radius and an extremely high density."



Crab Nebula. Remnant of 1054 AD supernova, seen by Chinese astronomers ('guest star').

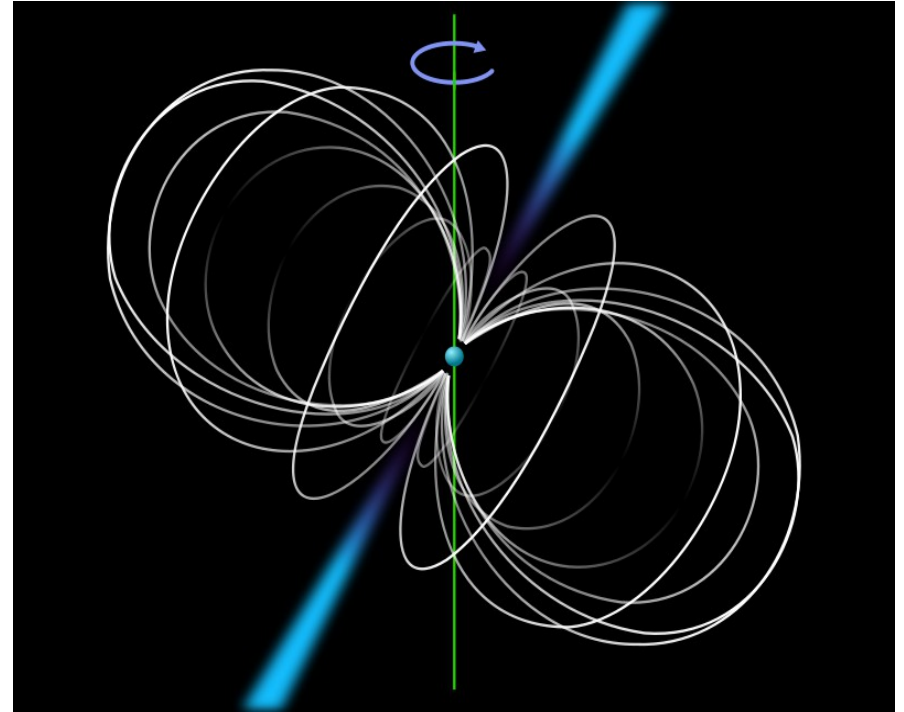
Pulse profile of the Crab.

# Pulsars



Star dies → core pressure gone  
Star collapses → compact object

Neutron star for heavy stars



Conserved from star:  
- Angular momentum  
- Magnetic field  
→ Dynamo!

# Period of 1.5 ms???

**Don Backer et al. (1982)**, found a pulsar with a spin frequency of 716 Hz ( $P = 1.5$  ms). This was the first millisecond pulsar. Can this still be a rotating neutron star?



Arecibo Observatory



Pulse profile of B1937

# Period of 1.5 ms???

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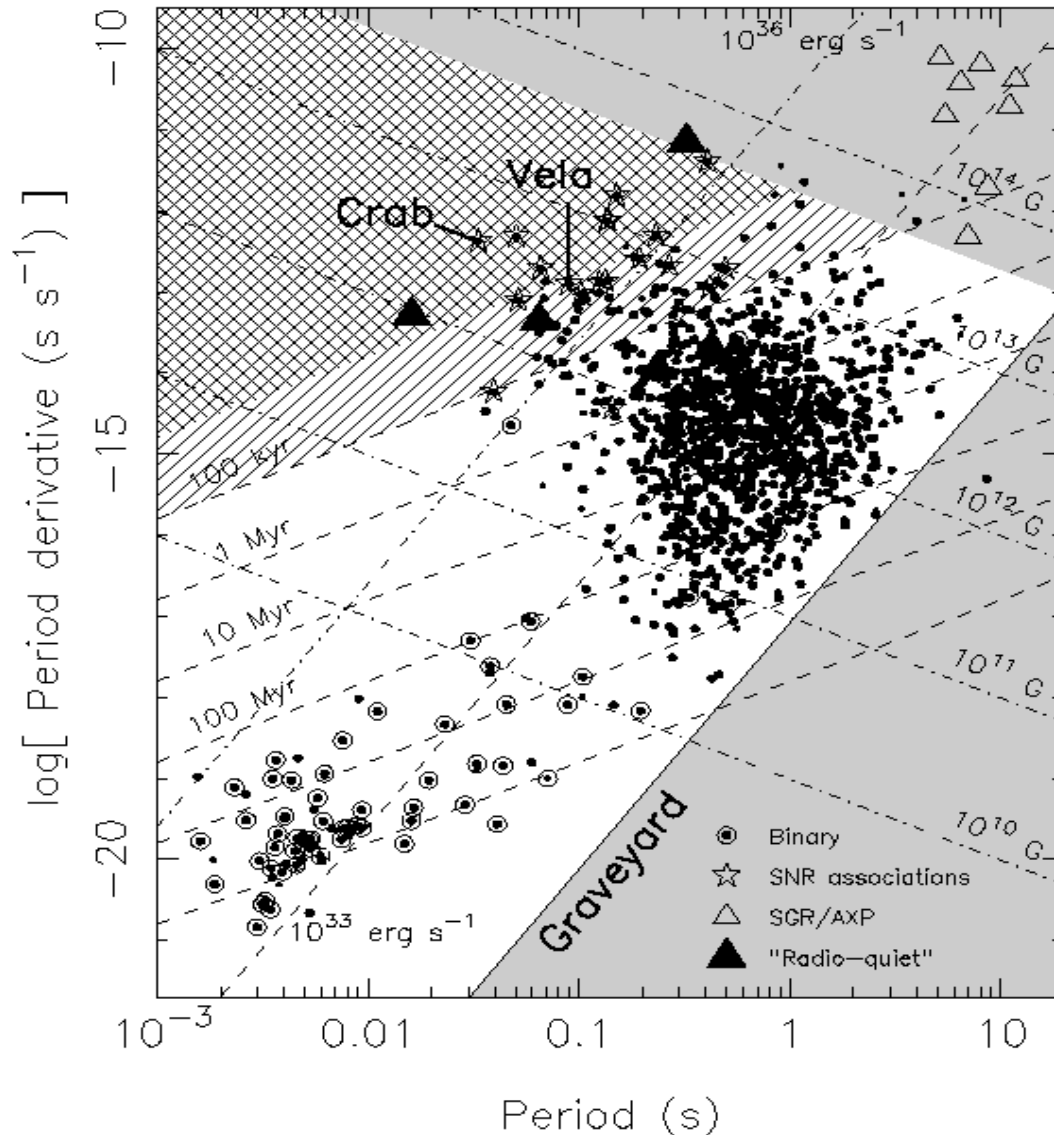
Arecibo Observatory



Radius less than 16km. At equator,  
spin velocity  $> 70,000$  km/s  
(= 24% speed of light)

Pulse profile of B1937

# P-Pdot diagram



Taken from "Handbook of Pulsar Astronomy" by Lorimer & Kramer

Most stable 'clocks' are in the bottom left

Note: almost all binaries there

# Millisecond pulsars



Credit: NASA animations

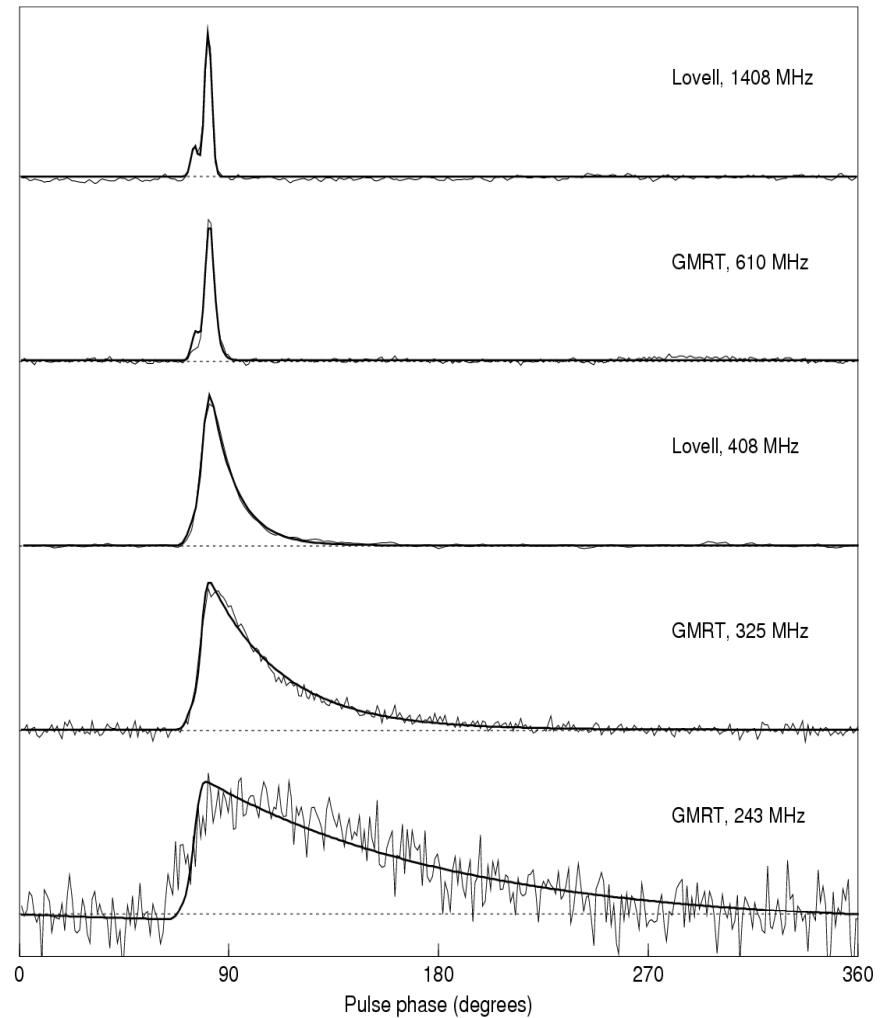
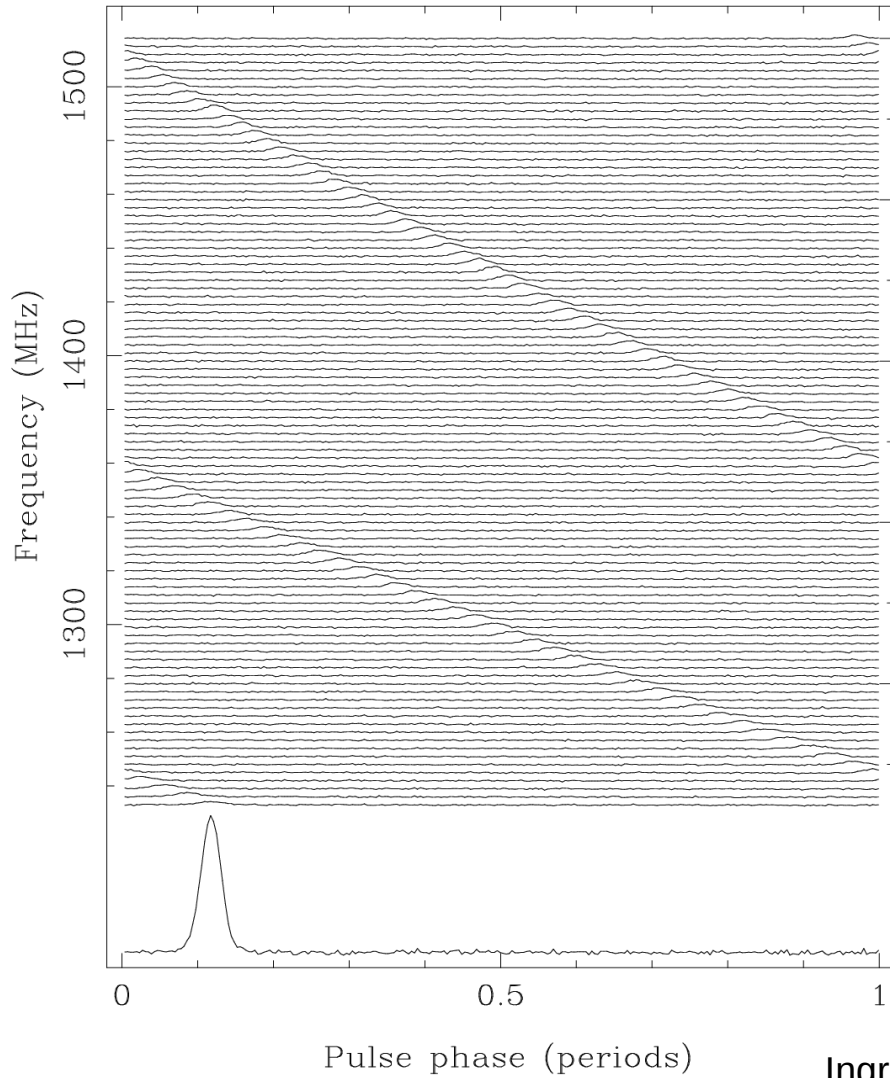
# Pulsar Timing



Parkes Radio Telescope

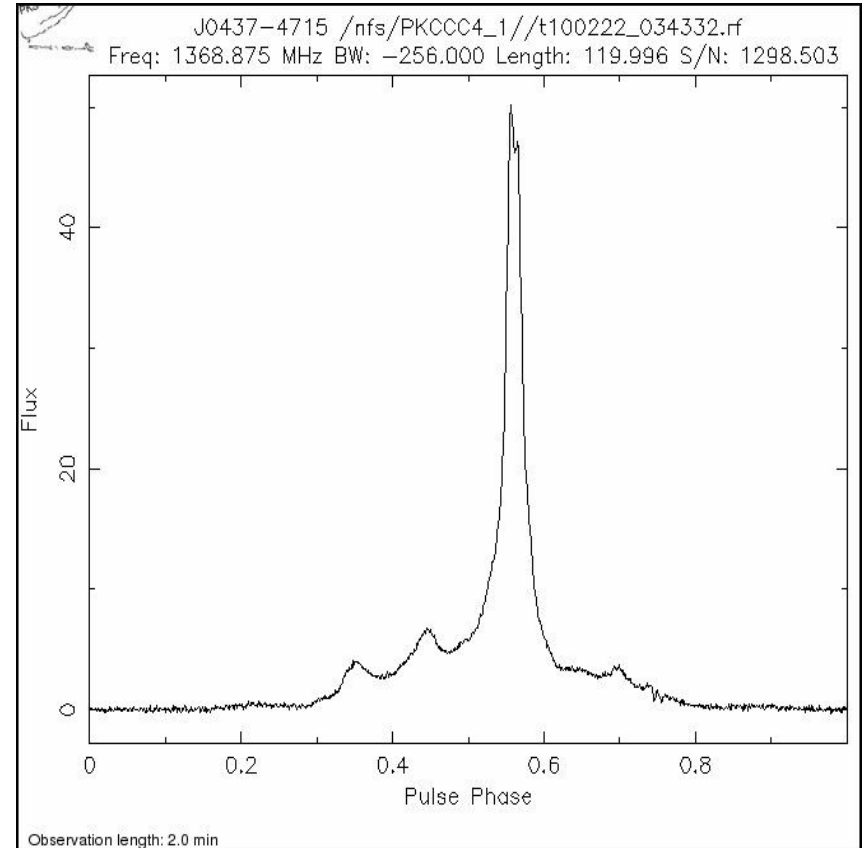
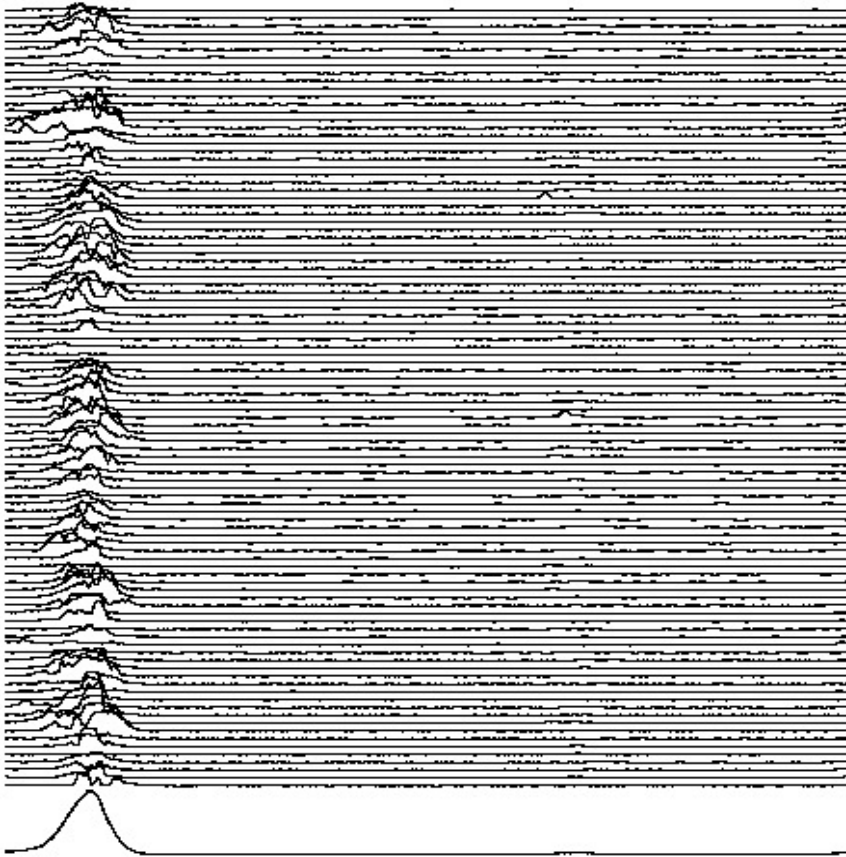


# Interstellar medium



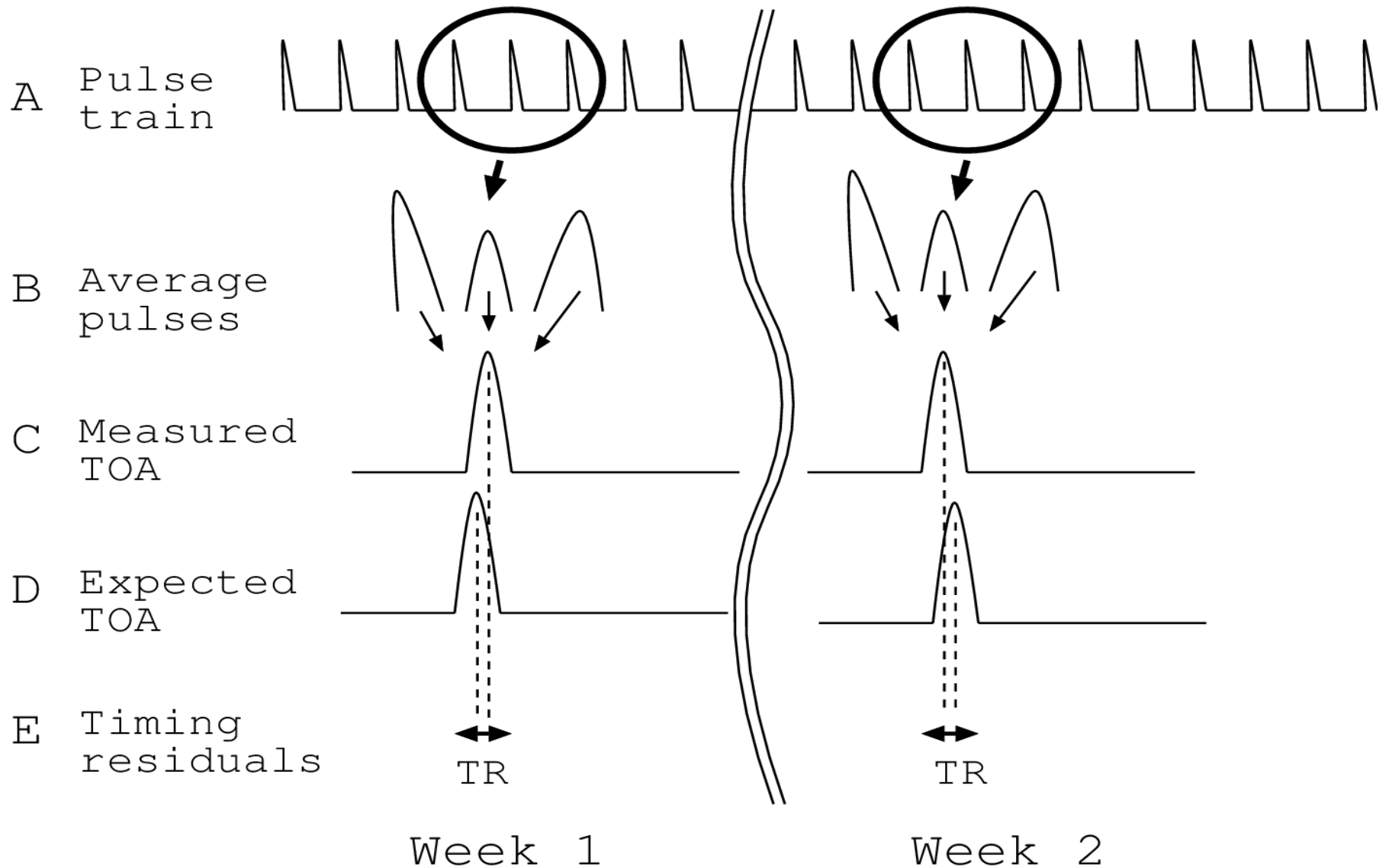
Ingrid Stairs (2001)

# Pulse profiles



Ingrid Stairs (2001)

# Timing residuals



# Some typical numbers

- **Pulse period:** 5 ms
- **Pulse width:** 0.5 ms (~10% of period)
- **Timing accuracy:** 100 ns
- **Pulsar distance:** several kpc ( $3 * 10^{19}$  m)

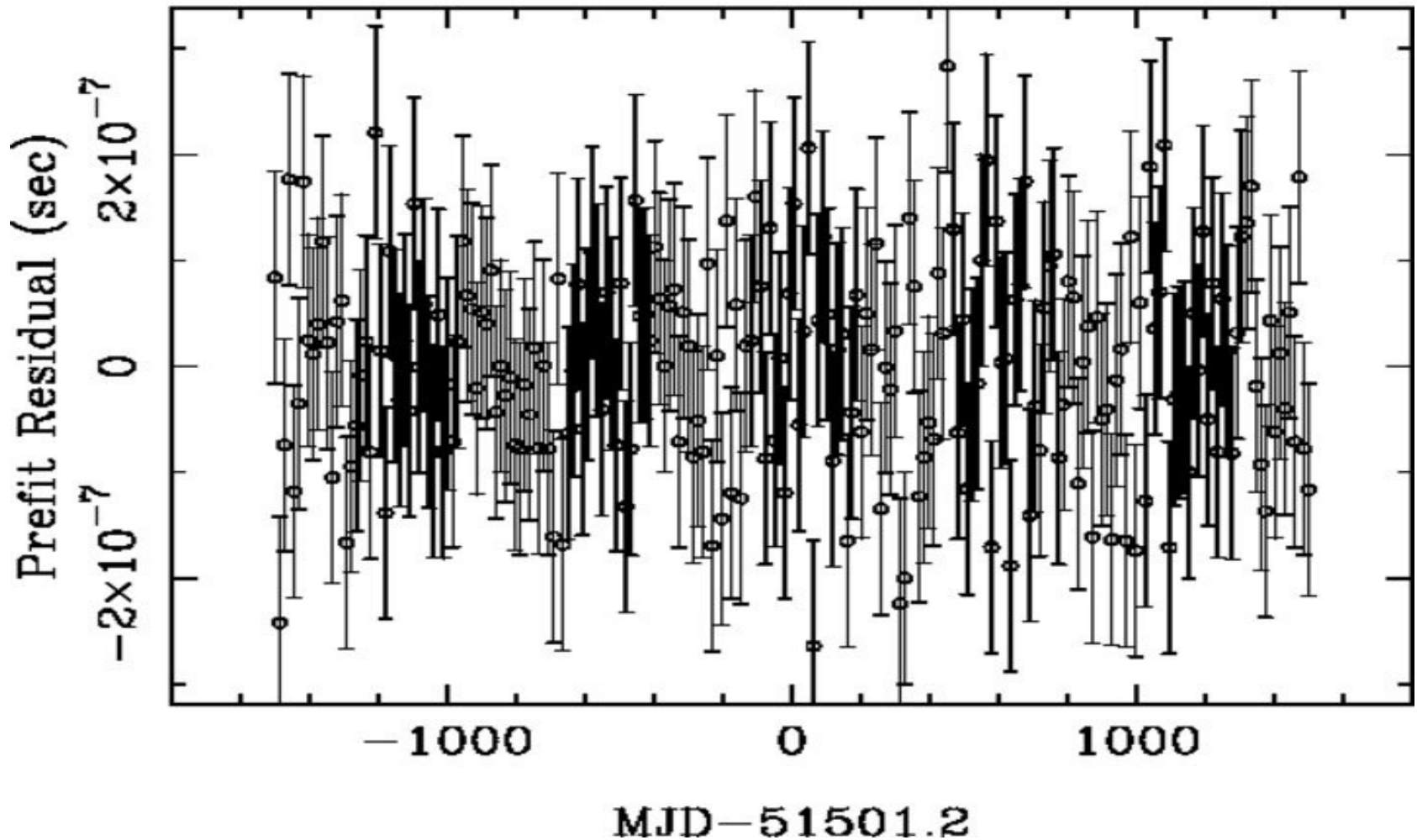
→ sensitivity to distance variations of 30 m ( $< 1$  part in  $10^{18}$ )



Can account for every not-observed rotation!

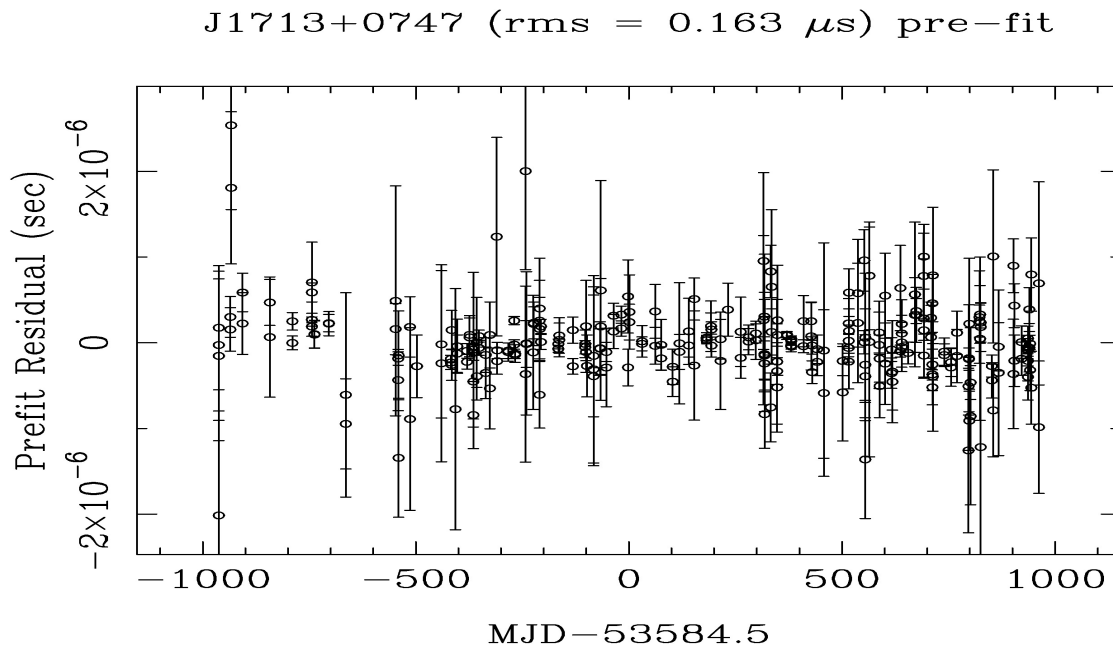
# Timing residuals

1713+0747 (rms = 0.098  $\mu$ s) pre-fit



# Standard procedure

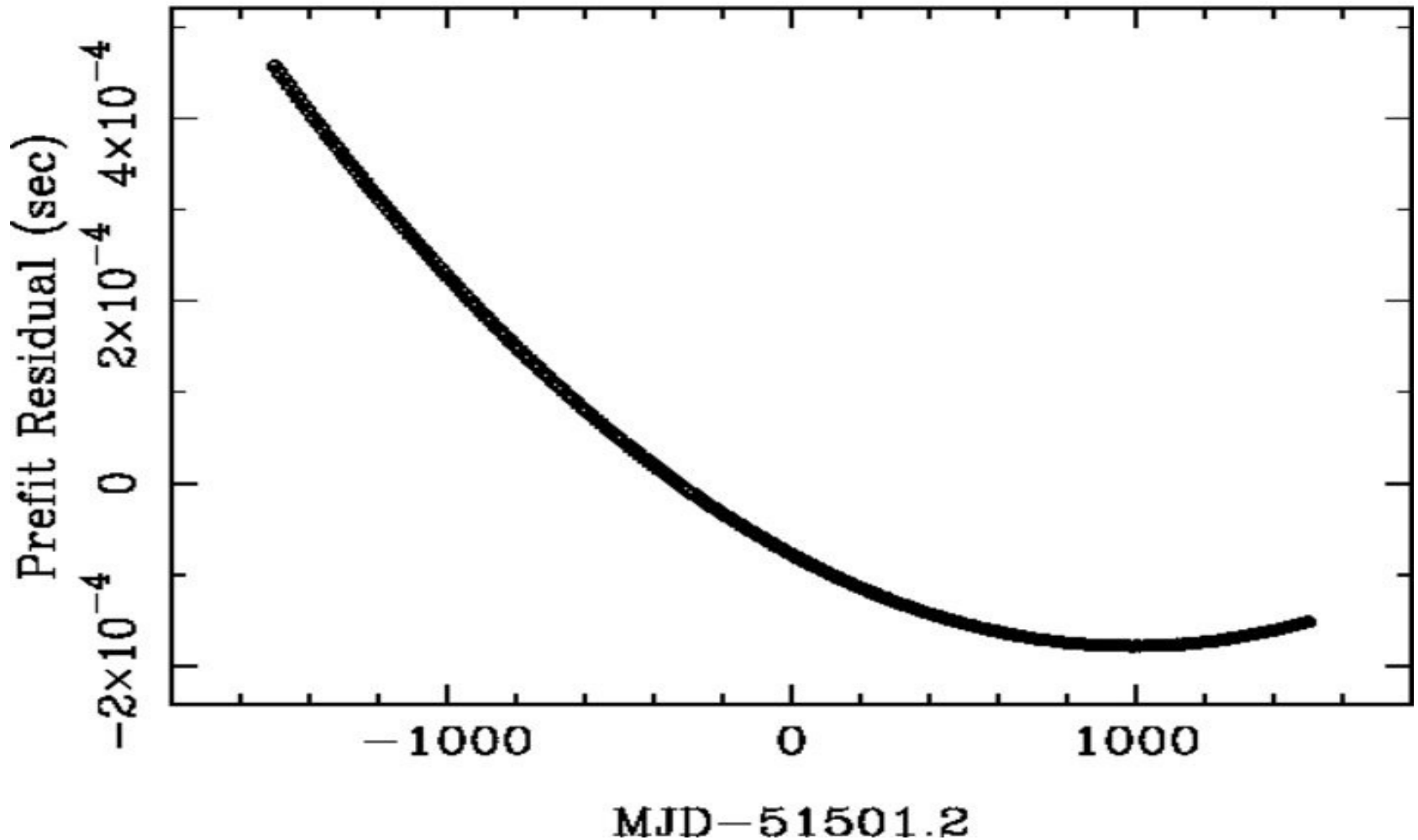
- Problem: model of pulsar motion obtained from timing
- But to produce residuals, we need the timing model
- Iterate least-squares fitting until it converges (by hand)



Not automated  
“Pulsar timing is an art”  
– G.H. Hobbs

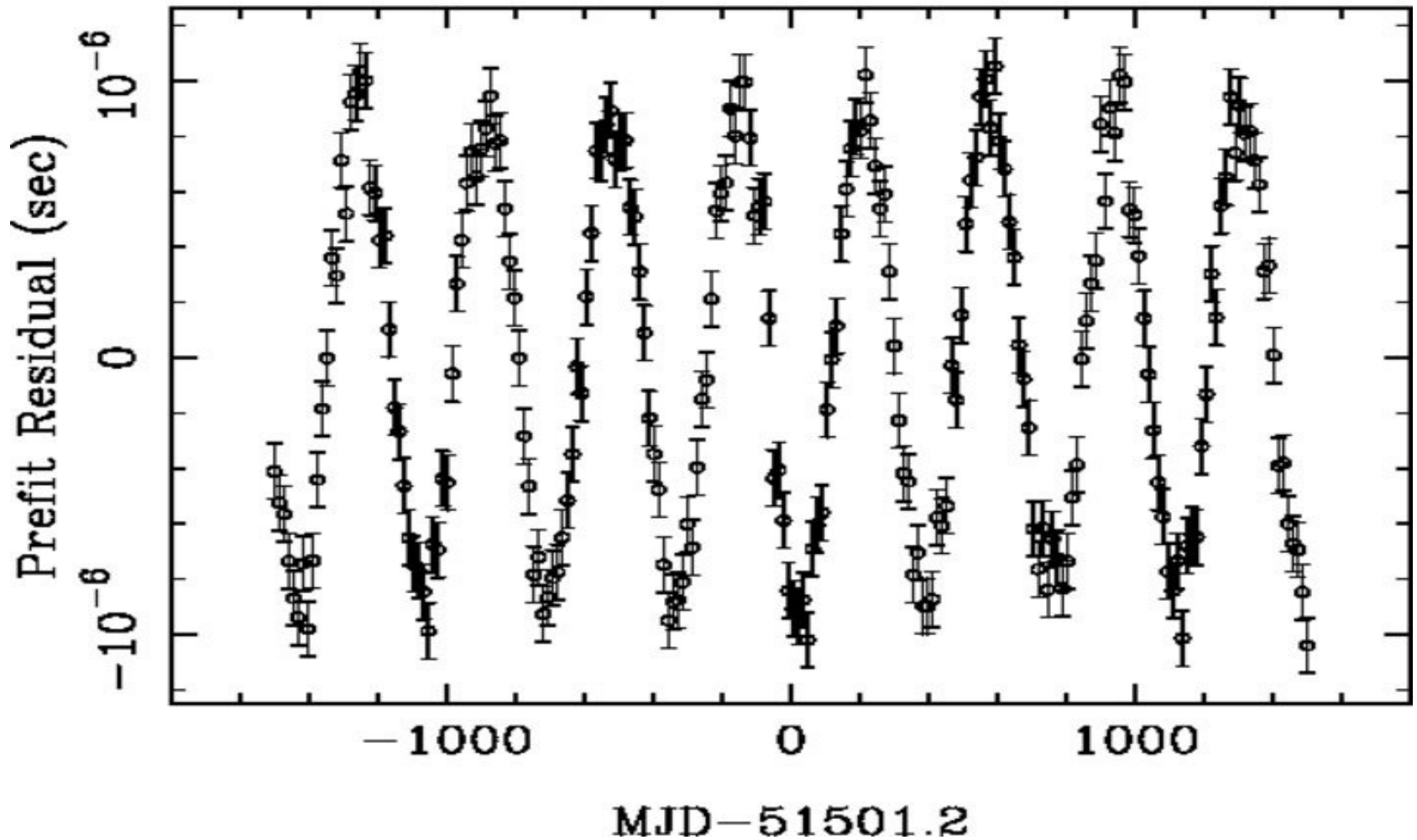
# The timing model: spindown

1713+0747 (rms = 189.707  $\mu$ s) pre-fit



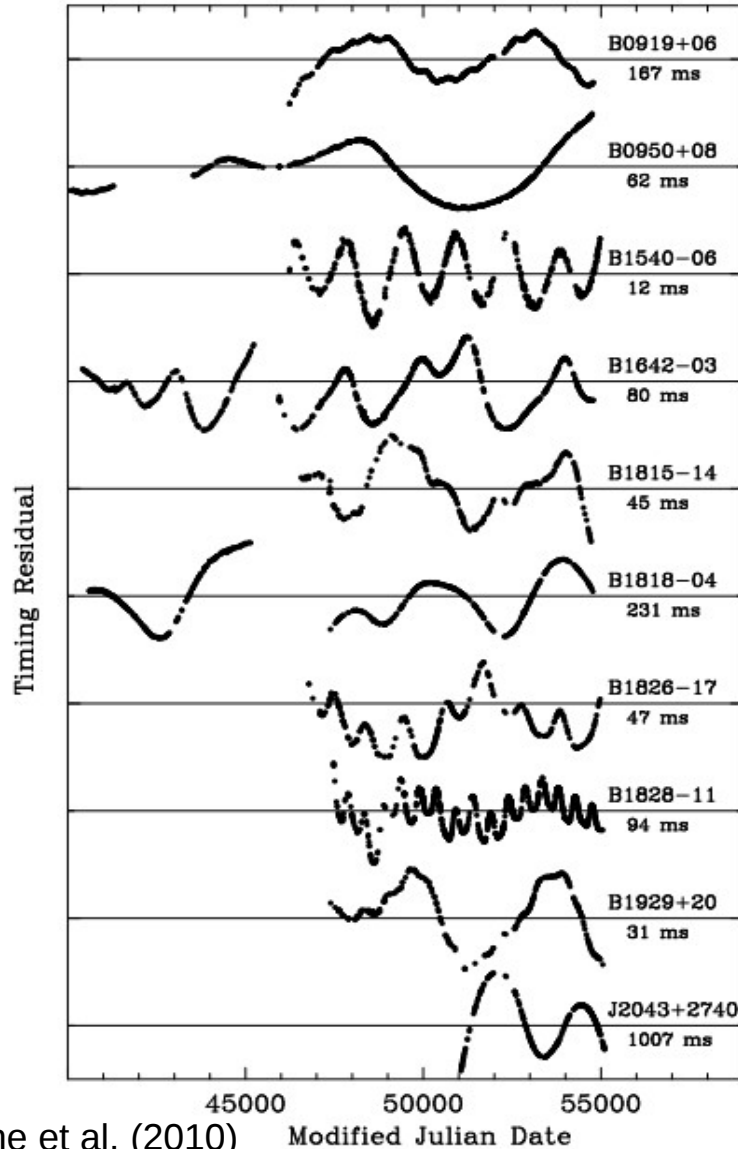
# The timing model: declination

1713+0747 (rms = 0.645  $\mu$ s) pre-fit





# Red timing noise



Lyne et al. (2010)

Modified Julian Date

Random walk in torque  
plus extra effects?

Timing noise severe in  
canonical pulsars → use  
millisecond pulsars (MSPs)

Only seen in few MSPs. For  
now...

# Examples of pulsar timing

Bottom line: we do not fully understand pulsars and pulsar beam emission. Does not matter for pulsar timing. **'It just works'**, and we use pulsars as tools.

Let's look at some applications of pulsar timing

# The Hulse-Taylor binary

Hulse and Taylor found a binary pulsar in 1973. Nobel prize 1993.

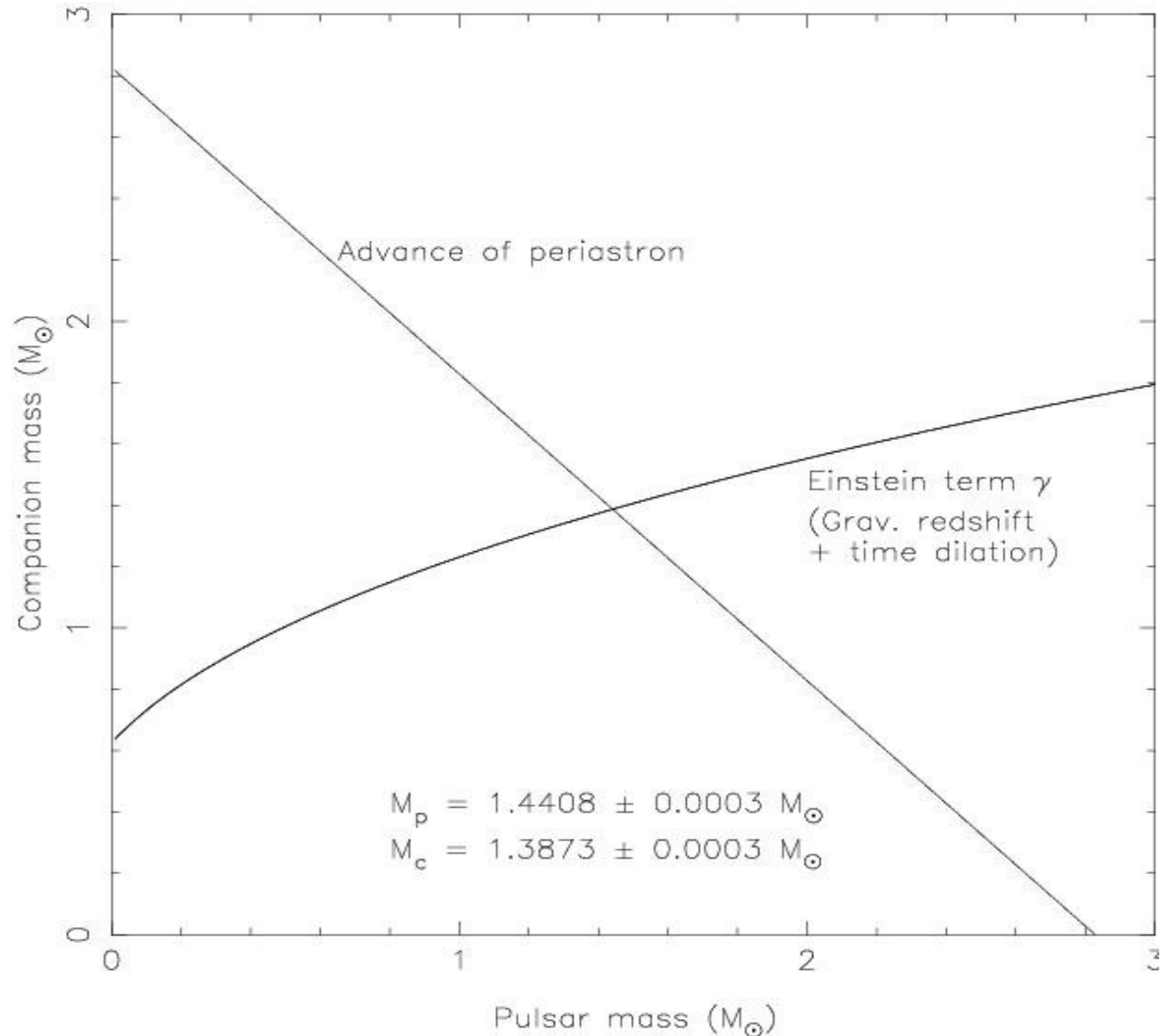
Parameter	Value
Orbital period $P_b$ (d)	0.322997462727(5)
Projected semi-major axis $x$ (s)	2.341774(1)
Eccentricity $e$	0.6171338(4)
Longitude of periastron $\omega$ (deg)	226.57518(4)
Epoch of periastron $T_0$ (MJD)	46443.99588317(3)
Advance of periastron $\dot{\omega}$ (deg yr $^{-1}$ )	4.226607(7)
Gravitational redshift $\gamma$ (ms)	4.294(1)
Orbital period derivative $(\dot{P}_b)^{\text{obs}}$ ( $10^{-12}$ )	-2.4211(14)

**Table 2:** *Orbital parameters for PSR B1913+16 in the DD framework, taken from [144].*

# Post-keplerian parameters

The PK parameters are constructed such that only the two masses are unknown.

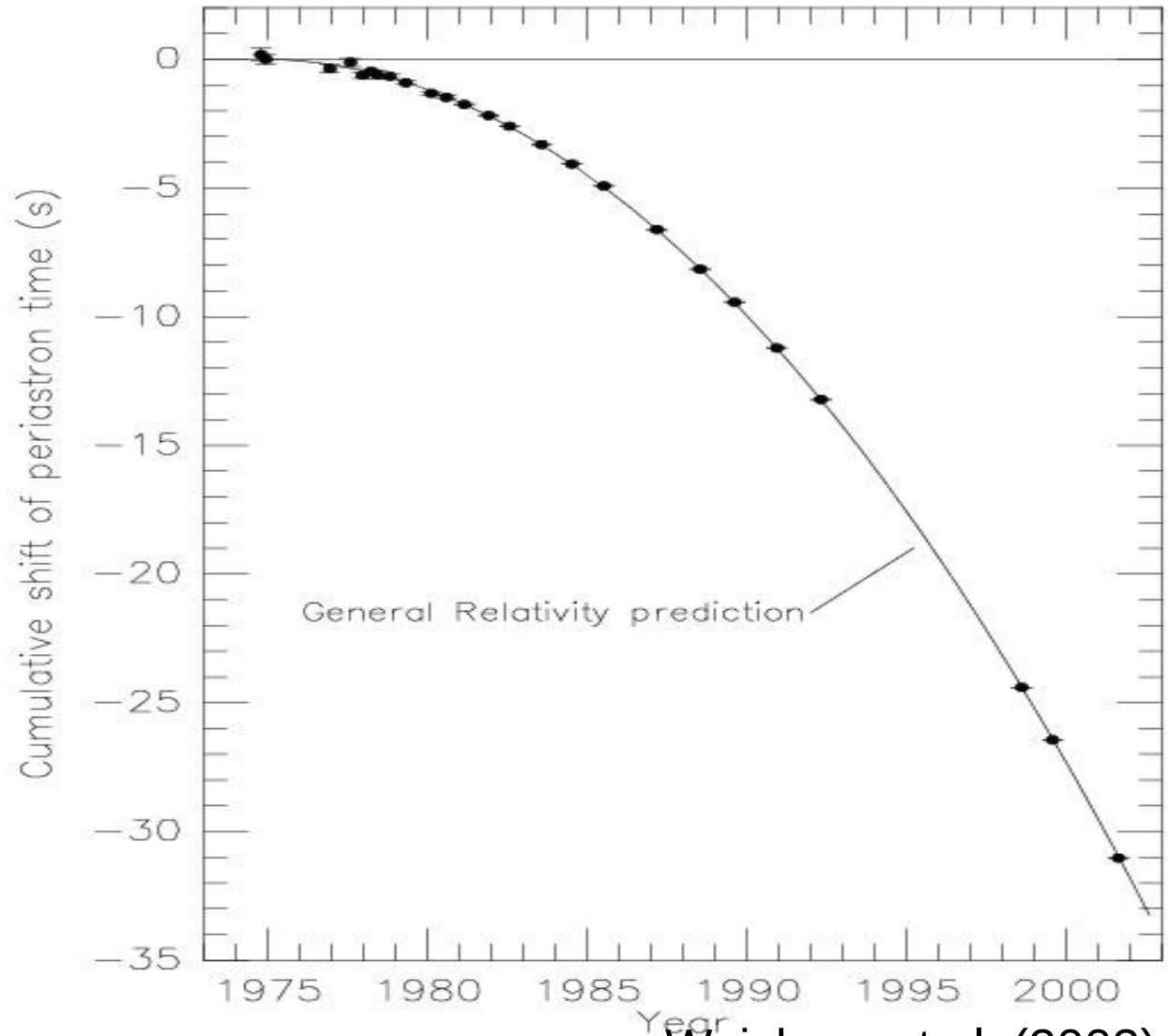
Thus: only two unknown parameters!



# Post-keplerian parameters

The PK parameters are constructed such that only the two masses are unknown.

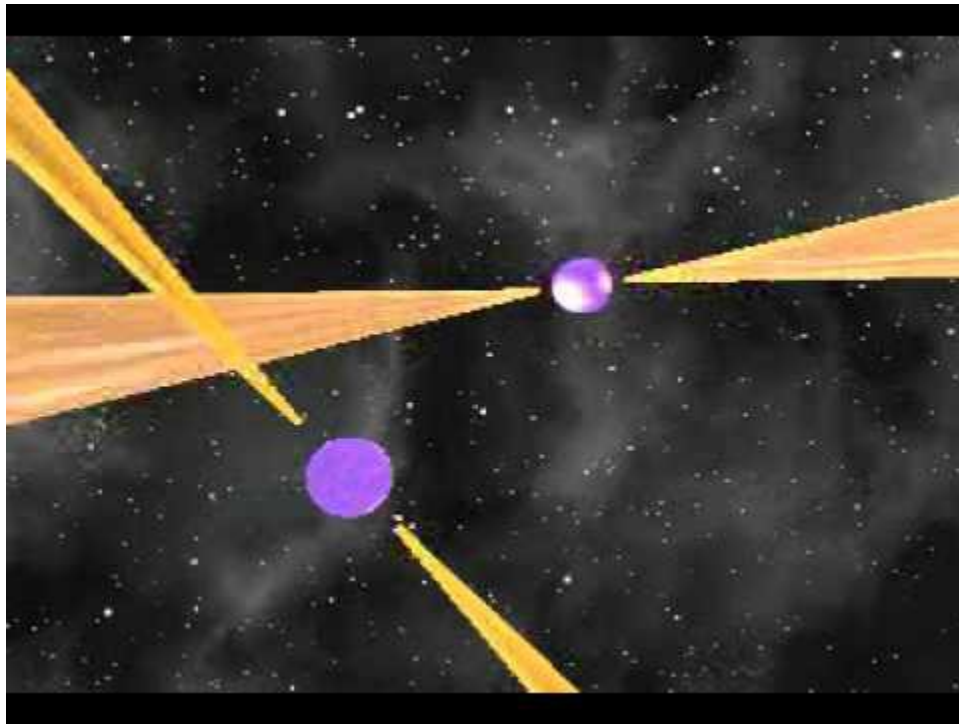
Thus: only two unknown parameters!



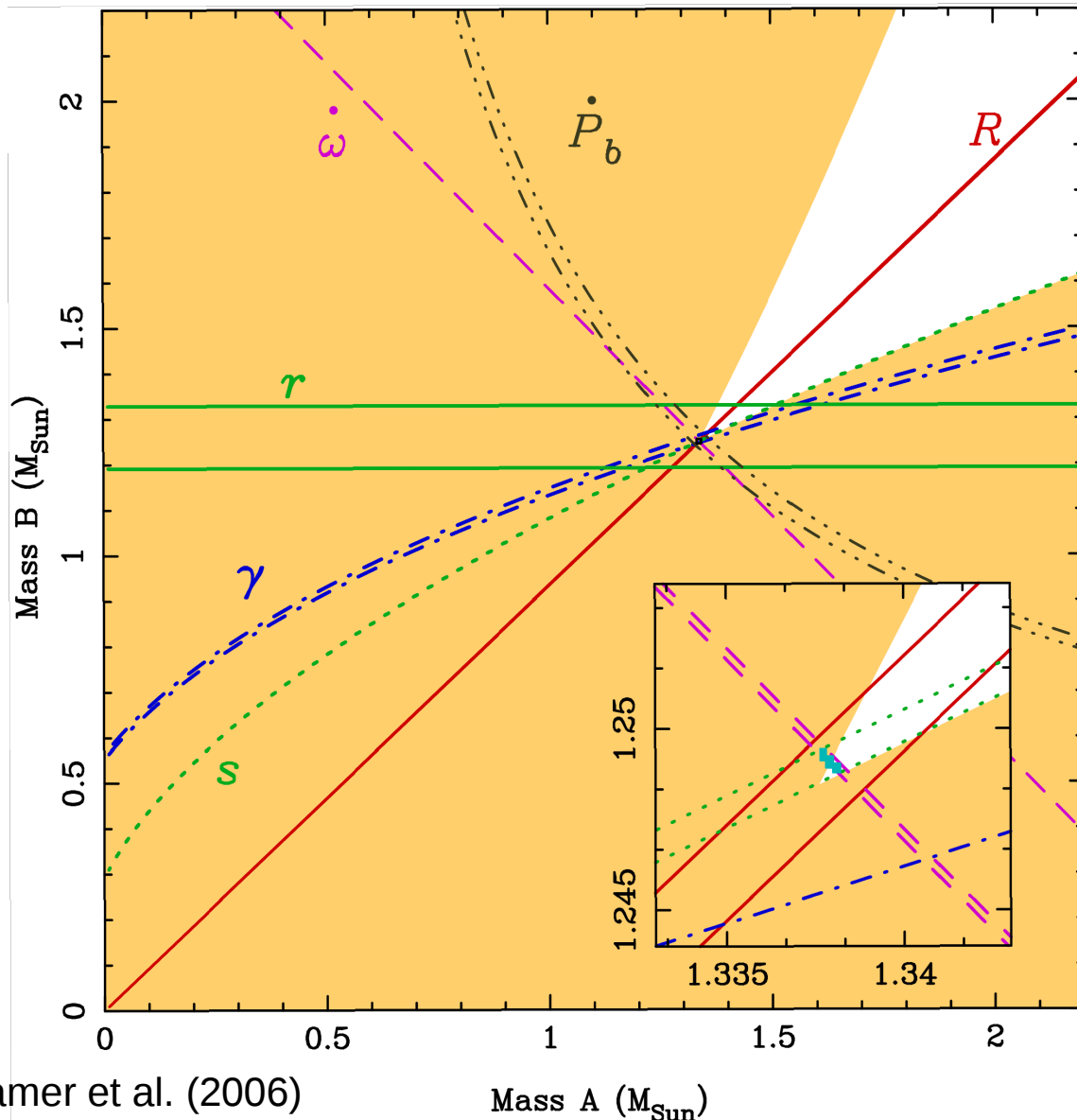
Weisberg et al. (2003)

# Double pulsar

Discovered in the Parkes multibeam survey (Burgay et al. 2003). Incredibly lucky: edge-on system. Eclipses probe pulsar magnetosphere



# Double pulsar GR tests



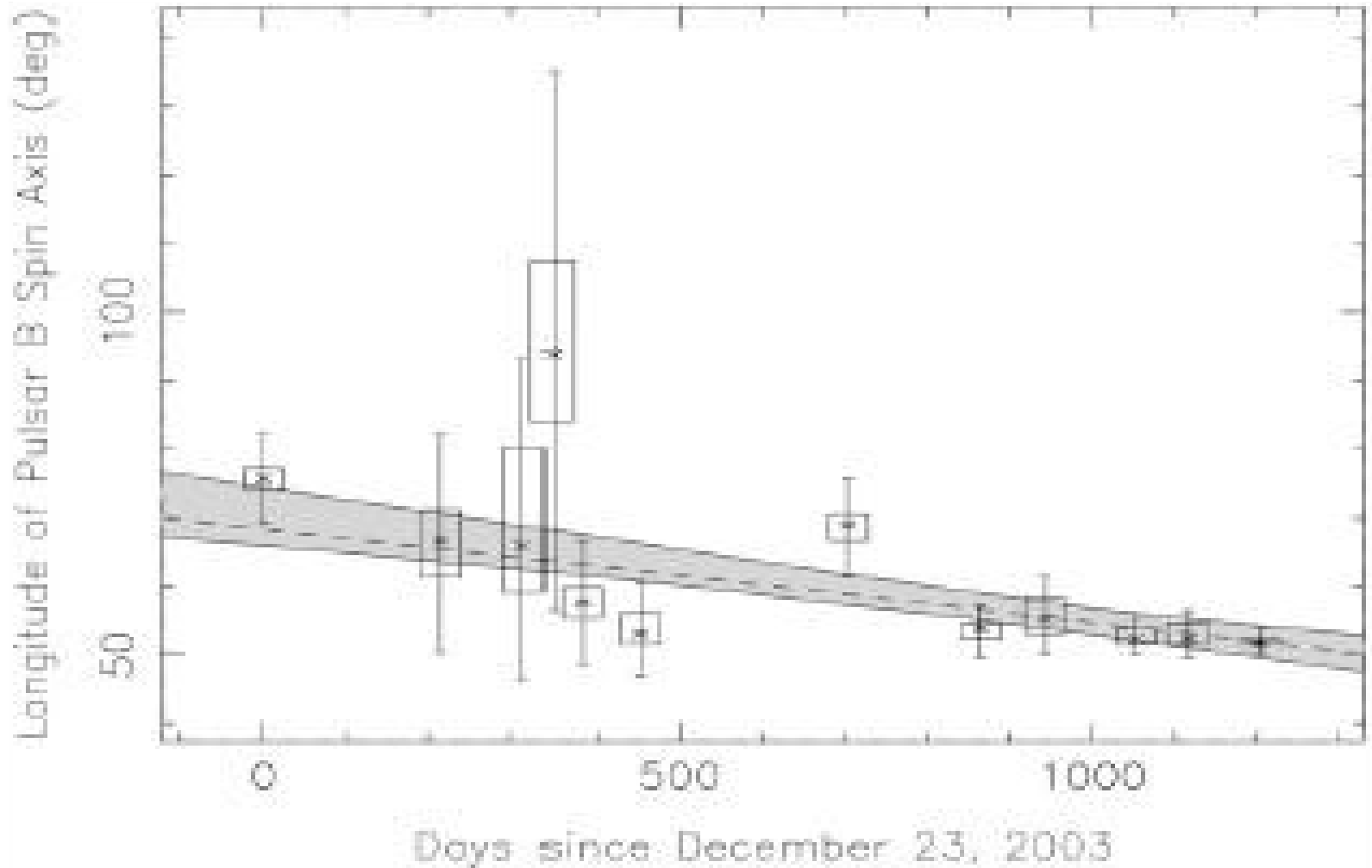
- w: precession of periastron
- g: time dilation gravitational redshift
- r: Shapiro time delay (range)
- S: Shapiro time delay (shape)
- Pb: sec. change of the orbital period
- R: mass ratio

# Double pulsar magnetosphere





# Geodetic precession



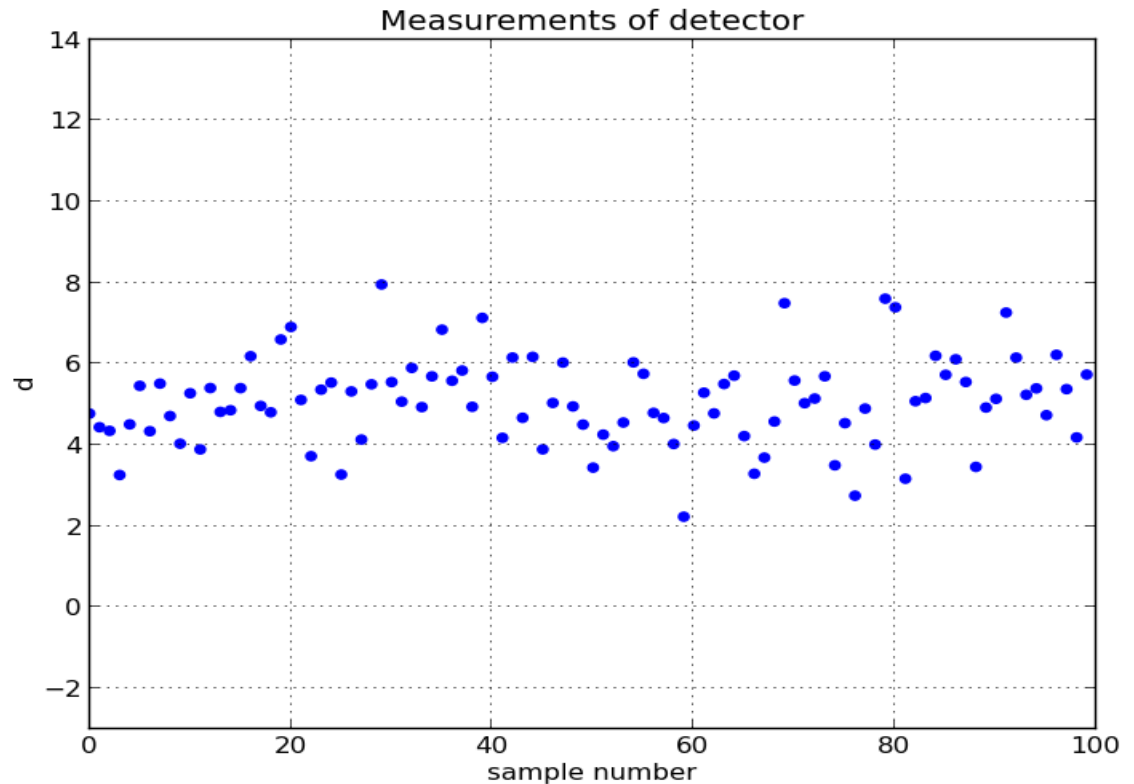
Breton et al. (science) Only available for the double pulsar.

# Data analysis outline

The goal is to give you an idea how to do gravitational-wave searches in practice. Main problems are different from ground-based detectors.

- Data analysis – toy problem
- Gravitational waves: detection & upper limits
- The IPTA Mock Data Challenge
- Python packages to do all this at home

# Data analysis – toy problem



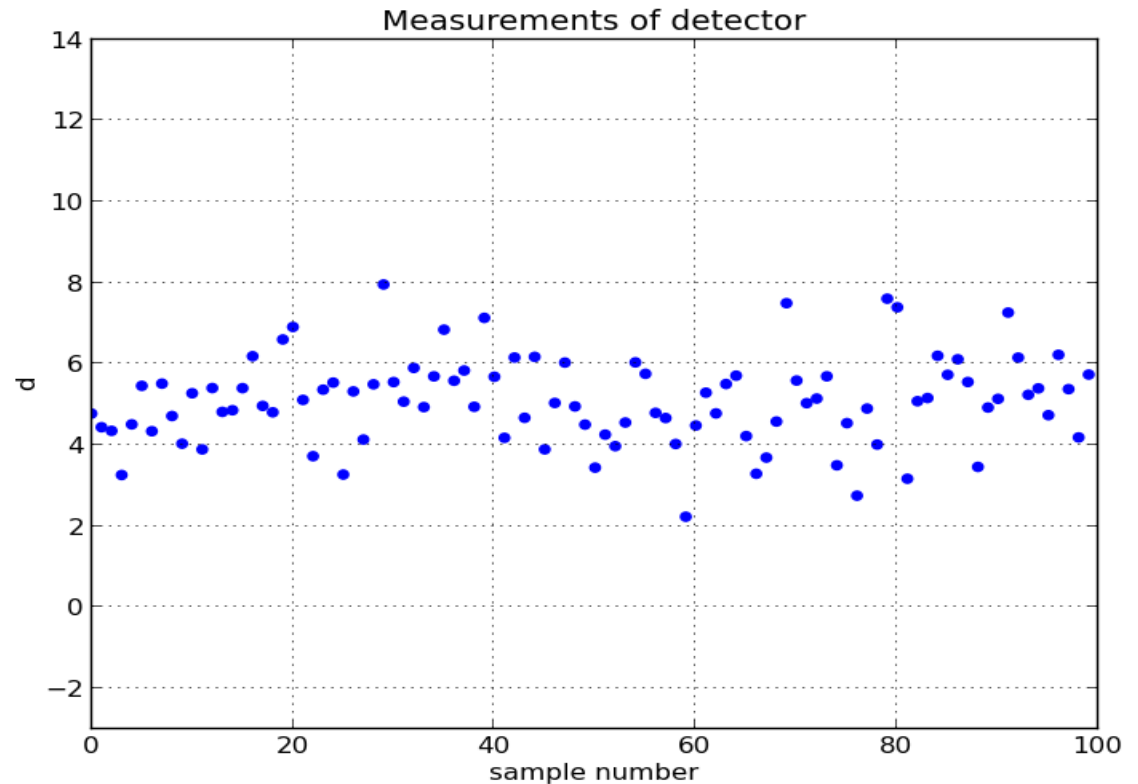
Black box detector. Know nothing about the data, except for data points.

## Question:

What can we say about the data and the detector?

Calculate mean, variance. Take a Fourier transform

# What we need is a model



With a model, we can test the model against the data: discover model parameters, compare models, good fit/bad fit.

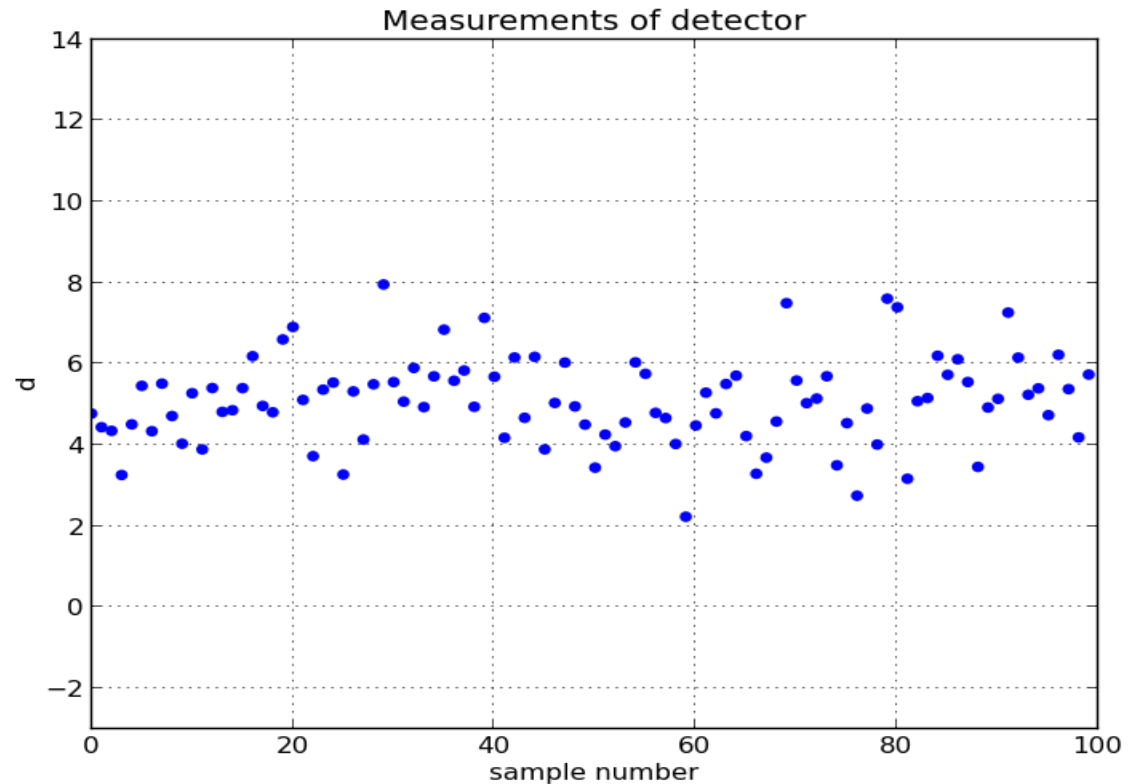
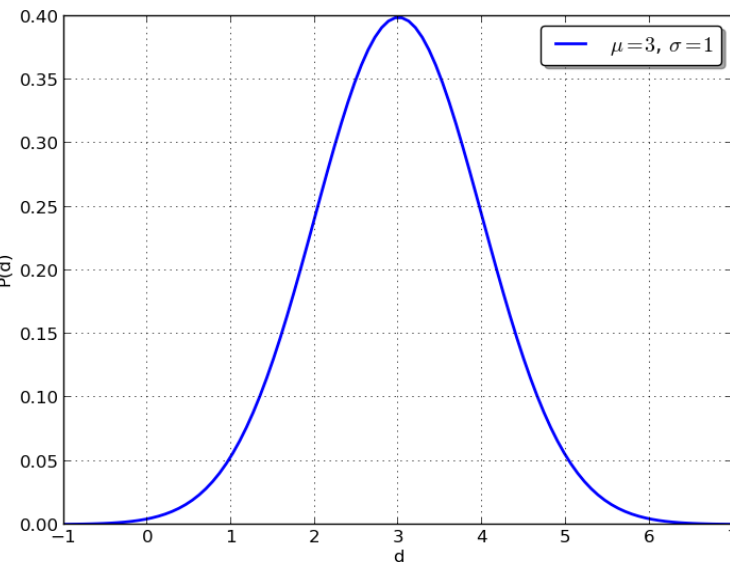
Our 'toy' model is.... see next slide

# What we need is a model

$$d_i = \mu + \epsilon_i$$

$$N(0, \sigma) \rightarrow \epsilon_i$$

Our toy model is a Gaussian. It is described by two parameters: mean and standard deviation

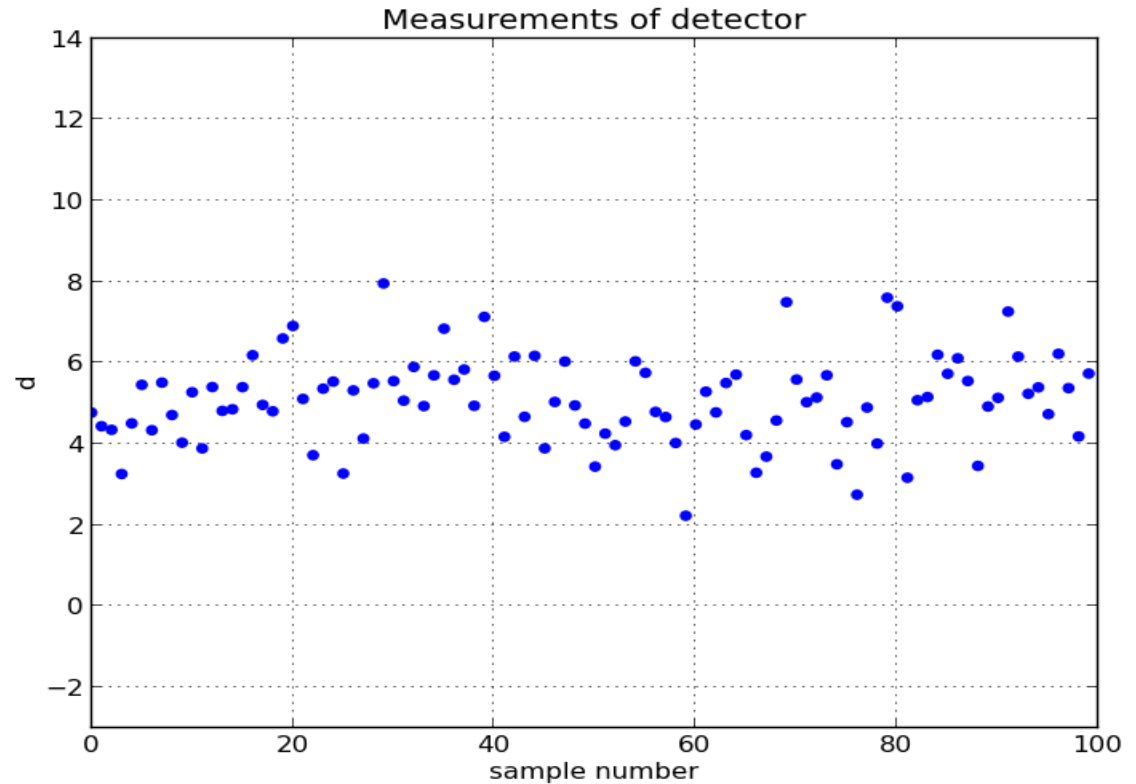
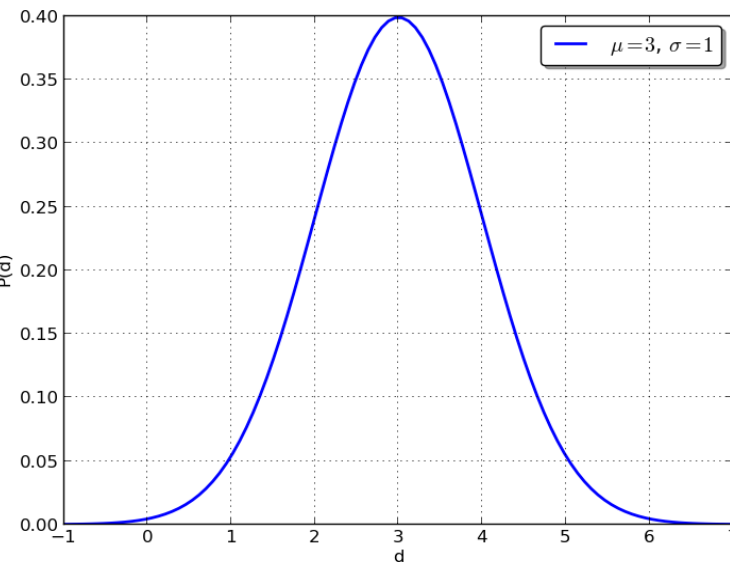


$$P(\vec{d}|\mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma^n \sqrt{(2\pi)^n}} \exp \left[ \underbrace{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_i \left( \frac{d_i - \mu}{\sigma} \right)^2}_{\chi^2} \right]$$

# Question: what are the parameters?

## Question:

What are the parameters I used to generate the data in this plot?



$$P(\vec{d}|\mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma^n \sqrt{(2\pi)^n}} \exp \left[ \underbrace{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_i \left( \frac{d_i - \mu}{\sigma} \right)^2}_{\chi^2} \right]$$

# Use mean and rms

Mean is the average:

$$\bar{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i d_i \quad (\text{Min } \chi^2)$$

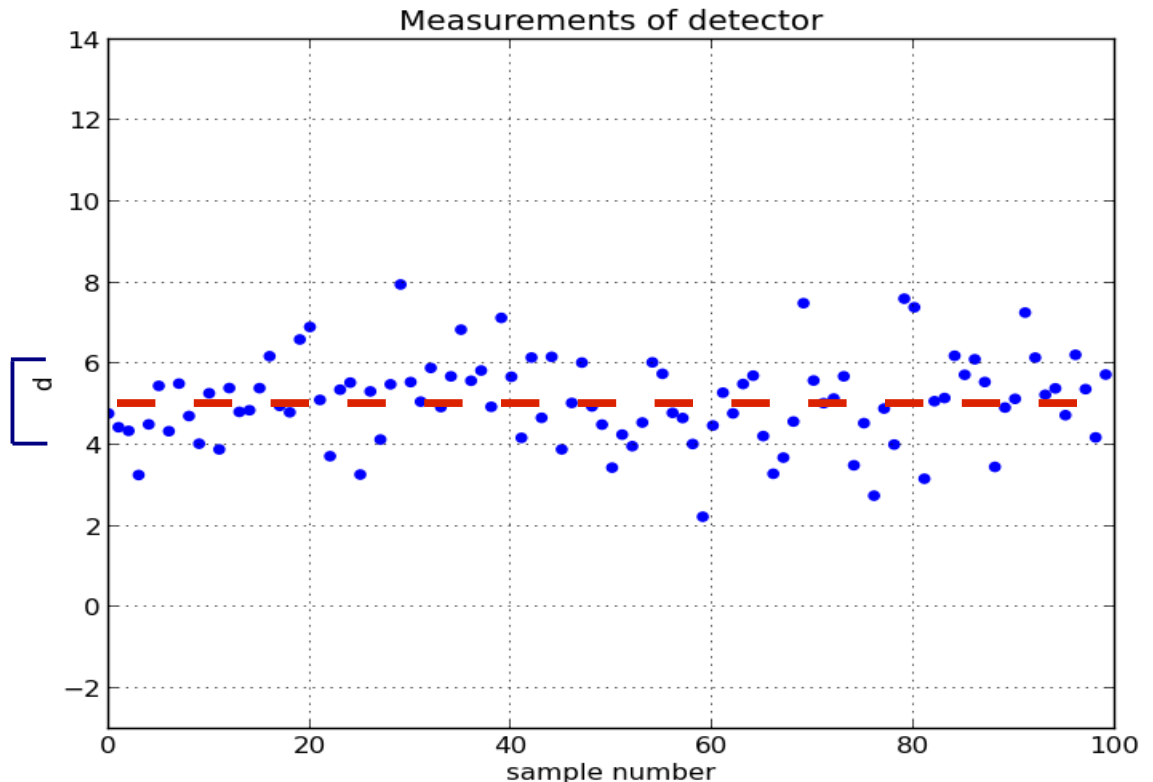
Root-mean-square error:

$$\bar{\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_i (d_i - \mu)^2}$$

How estimate that if we do not know the

mean?

$$\bar{\sigma}_{n-1} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i (d_i - \bar{\mu})^2}$$



The 'n-1' comes from the number of parameters (regressors) we determine from the data. Degrees of freedom = n-1

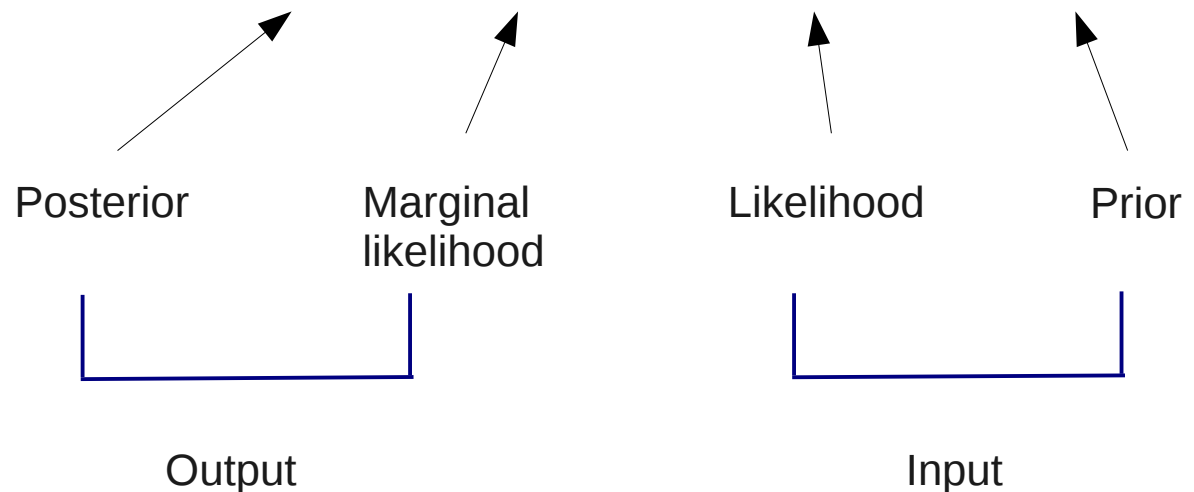
# Different approach

Use the probability distribution to do inference of the parameters:

$$P(\vec{d}|\mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma^n \sqrt{(2\pi)^n}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \sum_i \left(\frac{d_i - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2\right]$$

Bayes theorem:

$$P(\mu, \sigma|\vec{d}) P(\vec{d}) = P(\vec{d}|\mu, \sigma) P_0(\mu, \sigma)$$



Comes from:  $P(x, y) = P(x|y) P(y) = P(y|x) P(x)$

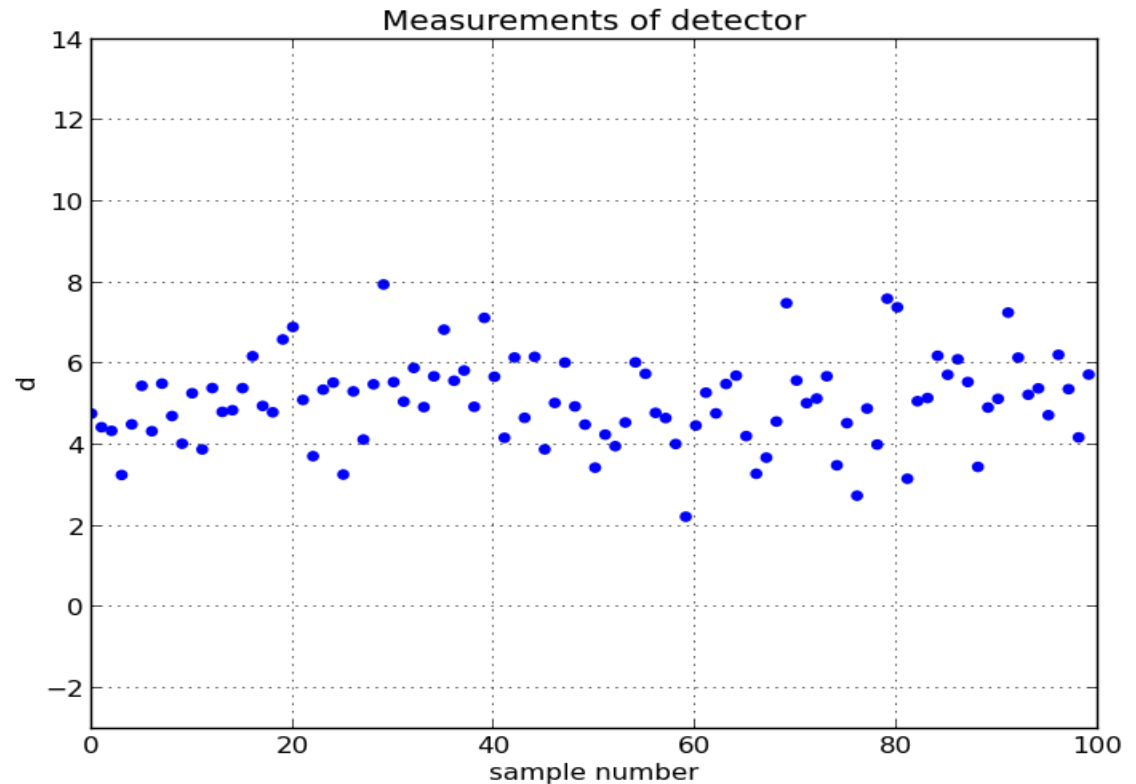


# Bayesian analysis: do the same

Instead of calculating the mean and the spread with 'estimators', we are going to inspect the likelihood function of the problem.

The likelihood is just the probability distribution of the data, as a function of the model parameters.

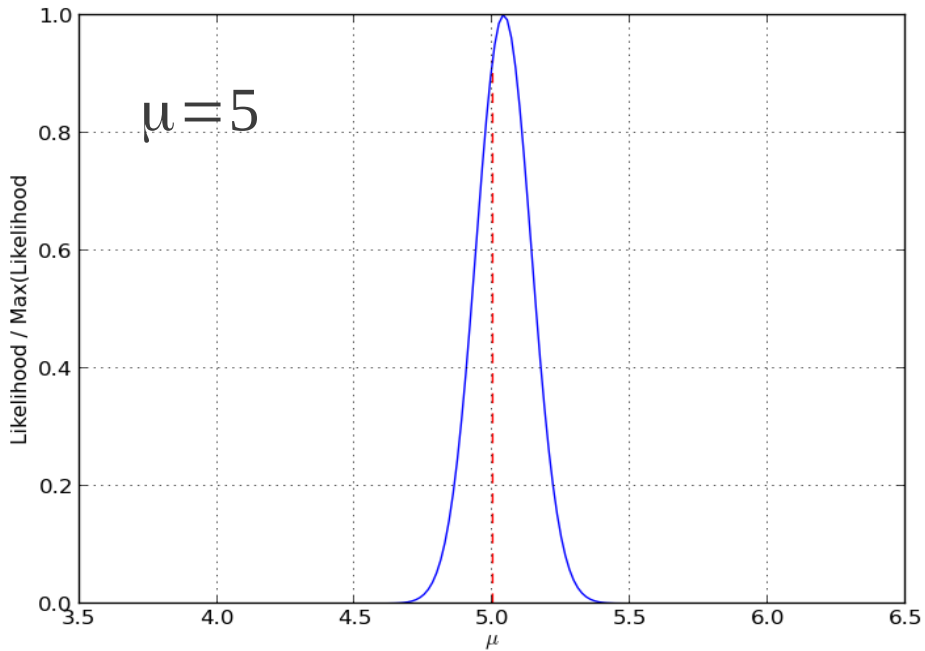
**Homework exercise:**  
what are the maximum likelihood estimators?



Normalisation

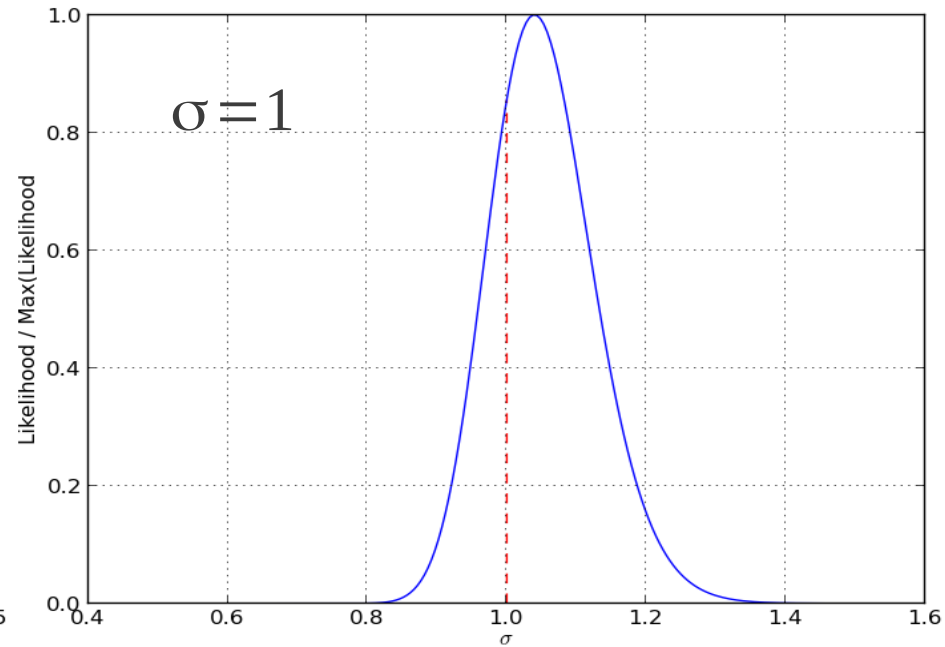
$$P(\mu, \sigma | \vec{d}) = \frac{M}{\sigma^n \sqrt{(2\pi)^n}} \exp \left[ \underbrace{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_i \left( \frac{d_i - \mu}{\sigma} \right)^2}_{\chi^2} \right]$$

# Inspect the posterior



Posterior, assuming that we know the standard deviation

$$\bar{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i d_i = 5.04$$



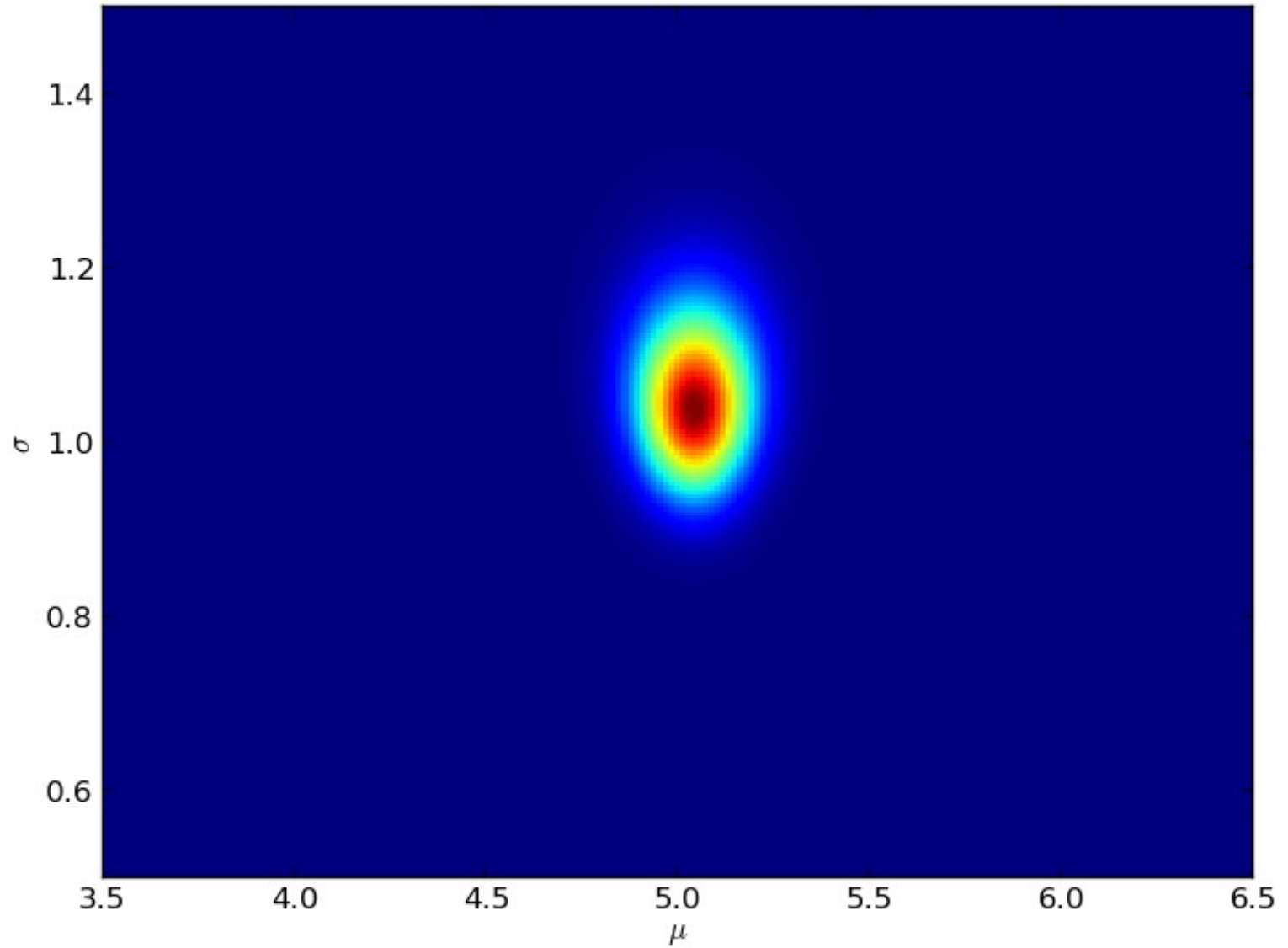
Posterior, assuming that we know the mean

$$\bar{\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_i (d_i - \mu)^2} = 1.039$$

$$\bar{\sigma}_{n-1} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i (d_i - \bar{\mu})^2} = 1.044$$

# Can do 2D as well

$\mu=5$   
 $\sigma=1$



# Recap

Data generation:  $P(\vec{d}|\mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma^n \sqrt{(2\pi)^n}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \sum_i \left(\frac{d_i - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2\right]$   $\chi^2$

Break up in two parts:  $d_i = \mu + \epsilon_i$  with  $N(0, \sigma) \rightarrow \epsilon_i$

e.g. 'Fit'

e.g.  
Fourier  
transform

## Method 1

Deterministic ( $\mu$ ):  $\min \chi^2$   
Stochastic ( $\sigma$ ): other 'statistic'

## Method 2

Inspect the posterior  
distribution

# The actual likelihood function

Examples::

$$P(\vec{d}|\mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma^n \sqrt{(2\pi)^n}} \exp\left[\frac{-1}{2} \sum_i \left(\frac{d_i - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2\right]$$

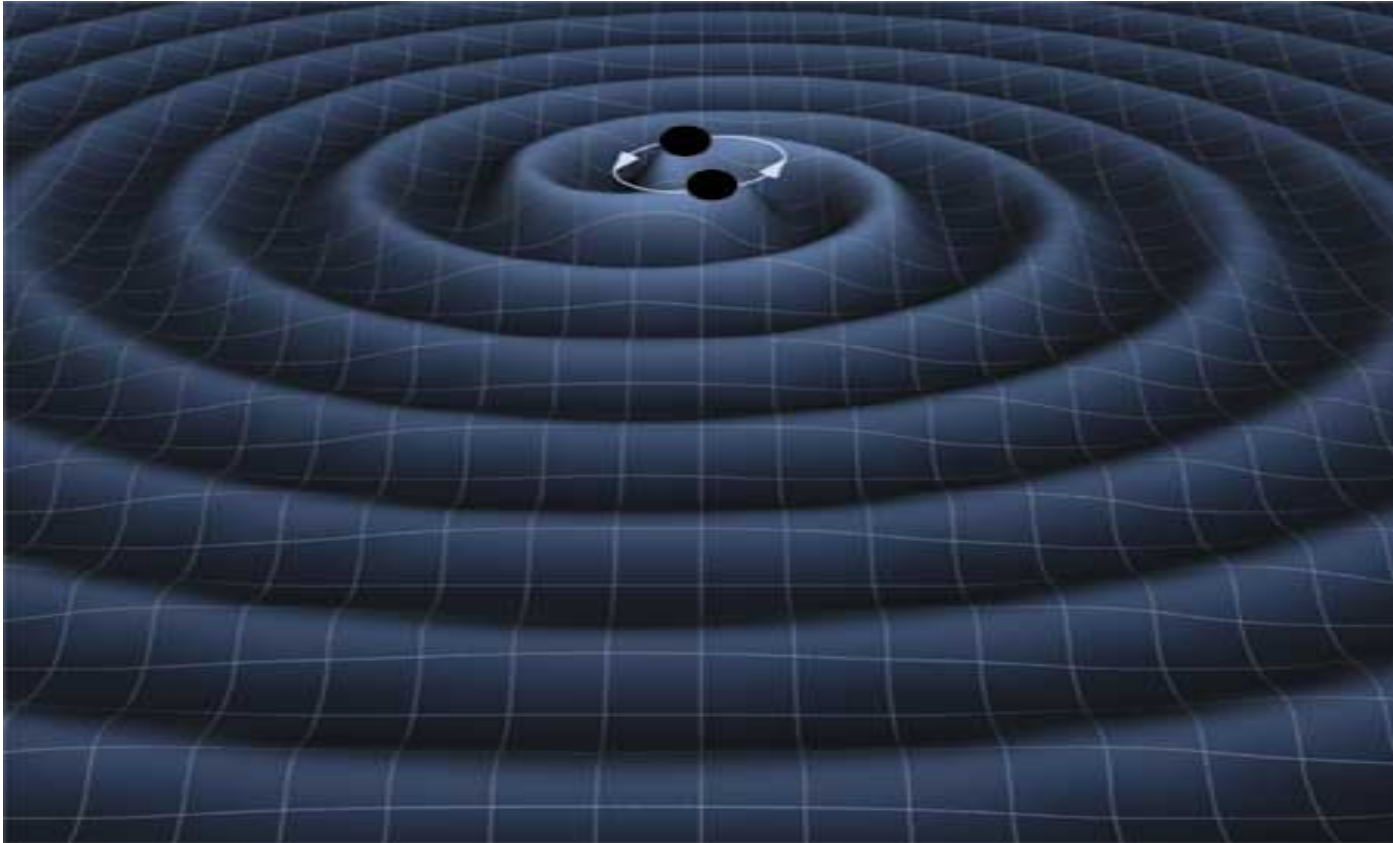
Actual:

$$P(\vec{d}|\vec{a}, \vec{\theta}) = \frac{\exp[-(\vec{d} - f(\vec{a}))C^{-1}(\vec{d} - f(\vec{a}))]/2]}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det C}}$$

$$C = C(\tau, \vec{\theta}) = \int df \cos(f\tau) P(f)$$

The likelihood function used in pulsar timing is 'just' a **multivariate Gaussian**. The matrix C is calculated from the power spectrum of the signal.

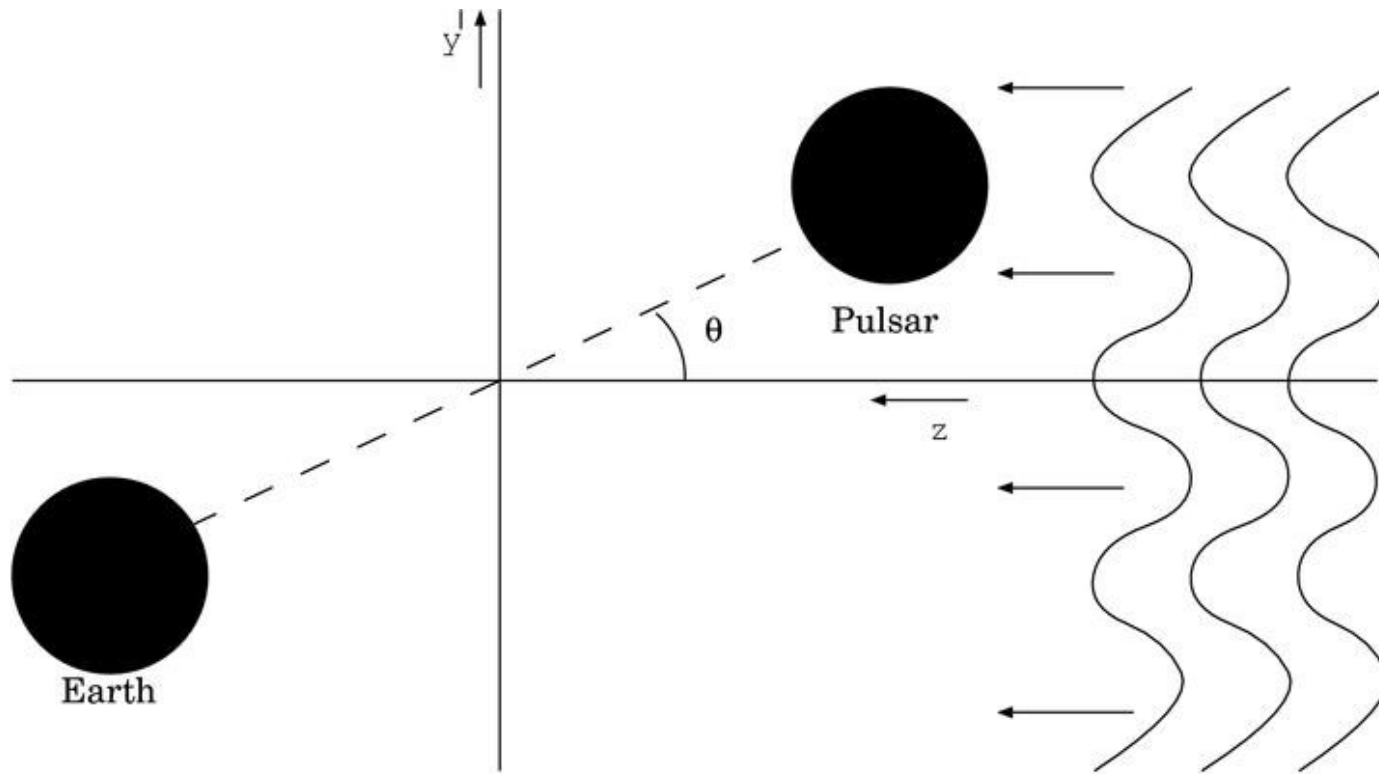
# Gravitational waves: how to detect



We are going to focus on 2 types of sources only:

- Stochastic background, caused by ensemble of supermassive BH binaries
- Single inspirals of supermassive BH binaries

# Earth-term / pulsar term

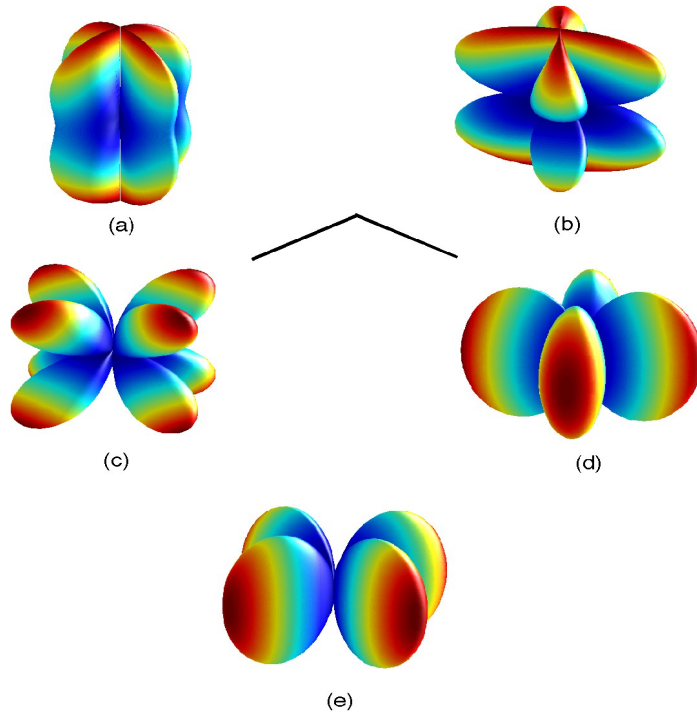


$$\frac{\delta \mathbf{v}}{\mathbf{v}} = e_{ab}^A(\hat{\Omega}) \frac{1}{2} \frac{\hat{p}^a \hat{p}^b}{1 + \hat{\Omega} \cdot \hat{p}} \left( h_e(t_e) - h_p(t_p) \right)$$

Earth-term

Pulsar-term

# Antenna pattern response



a,b: +,x polarisation  
 c,d: vector x,y modes  
 e: scalar mode

Most efforts focus on the usual +,x polarisations.

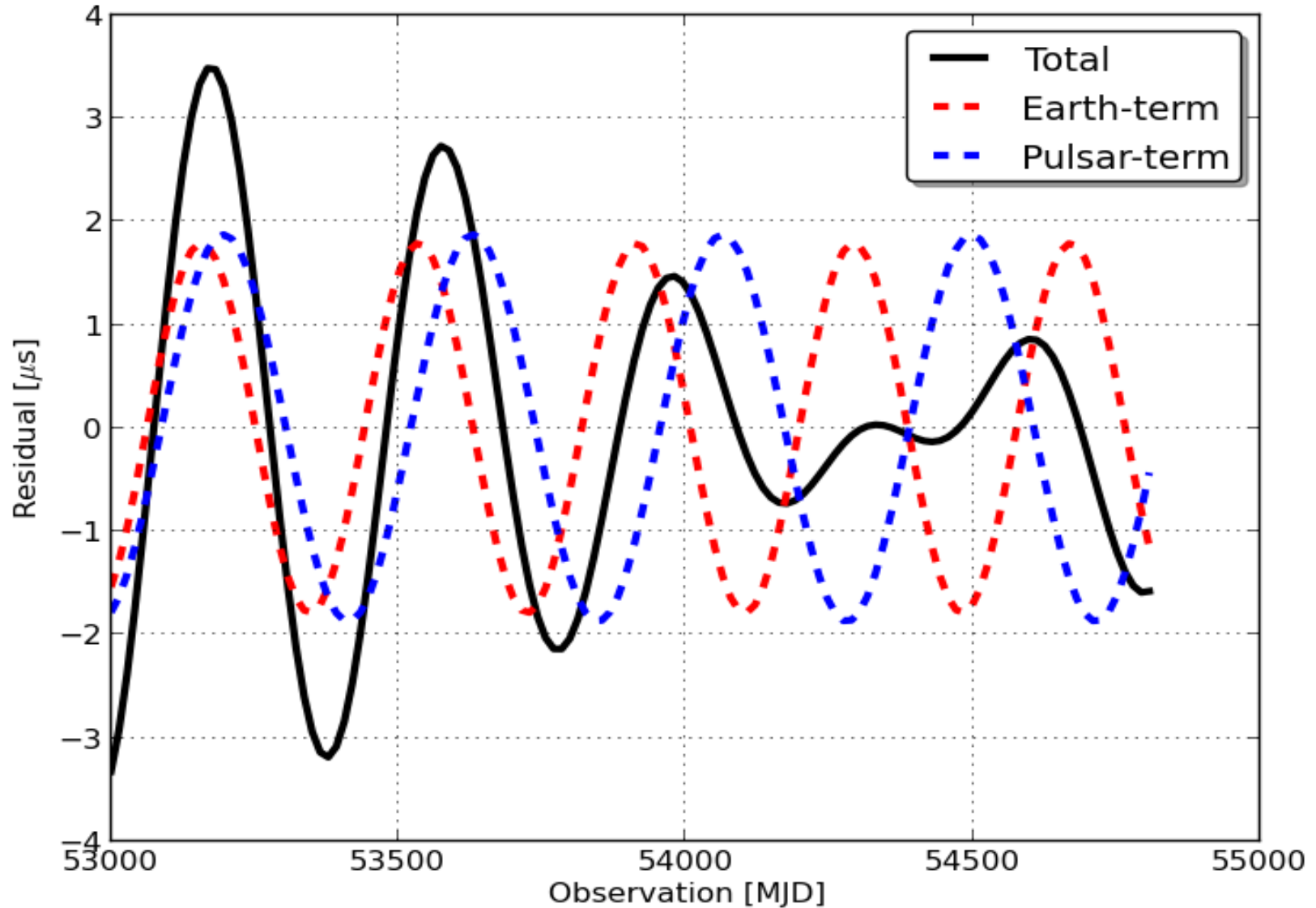
$$\frac{\delta \mathbf{v}}{\mathbf{v}} = e_{ab}^A(\hat{\Omega}) \frac{1}{2} \frac{\hat{p}^a \hat{p}^b}{1 + \hat{\Omega} \cdot \hat{p}} \left( h_e(t_e) - h_p(t_p) \right)$$

Earth-term

Pulsar-term



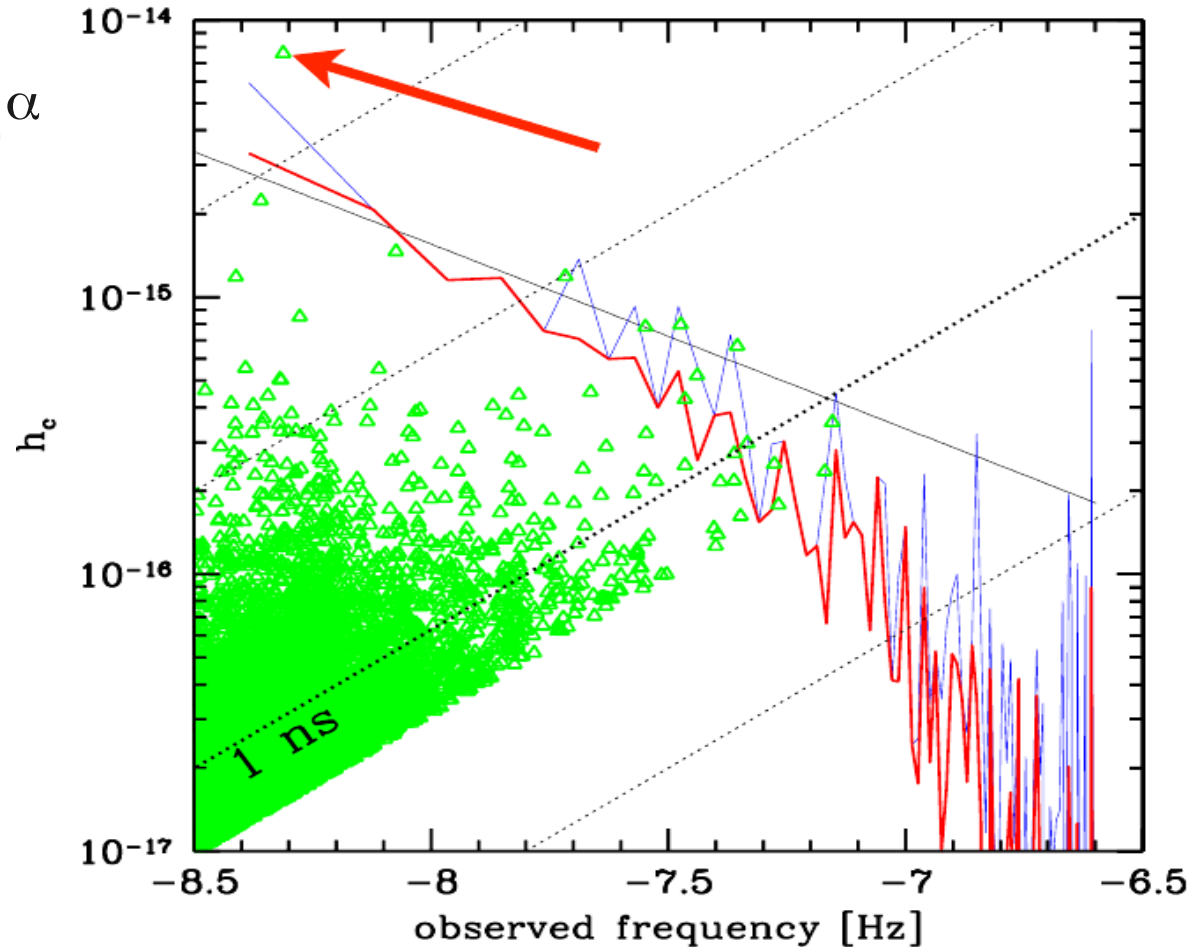
# Earth-term / pulsar term



# Remember: background at low freq.

$$h_c(f) = h_c \times (f/f_0)^\alpha$$
$$\alpha = -2/3$$

Phinney 01  
Jaffe & Backer 03  
Wyithe & Loeb 03  
Sesana et al. 07, 09

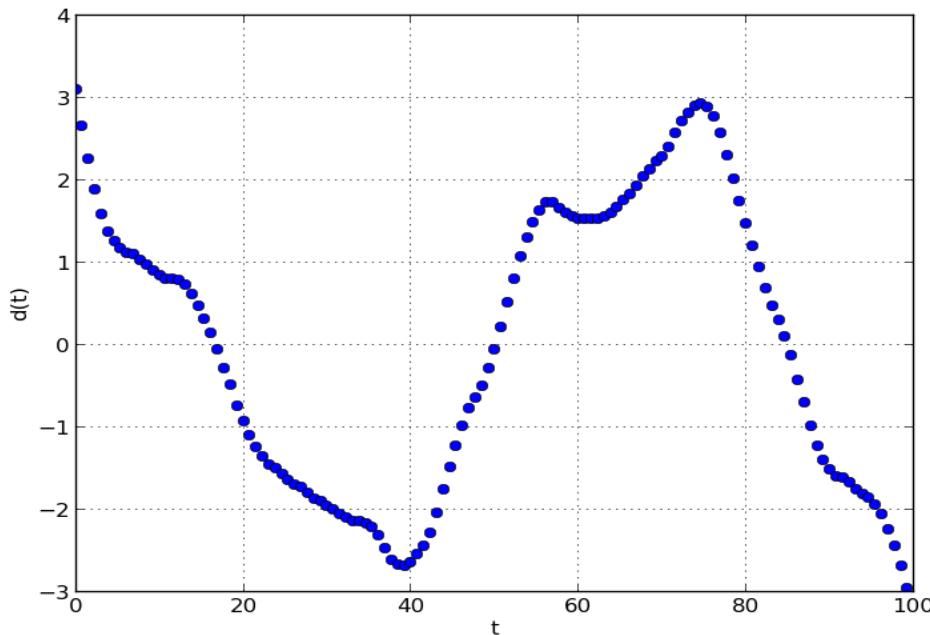


Sesana et al. (2008), Ravi et al. (2012): Theory and simulations suggest there is a non-zero probability that individual sources have SNR above the background.

# Isotropic background with 1 pulsar

**Example:** isotropic stochastic background of gravitational-waves.

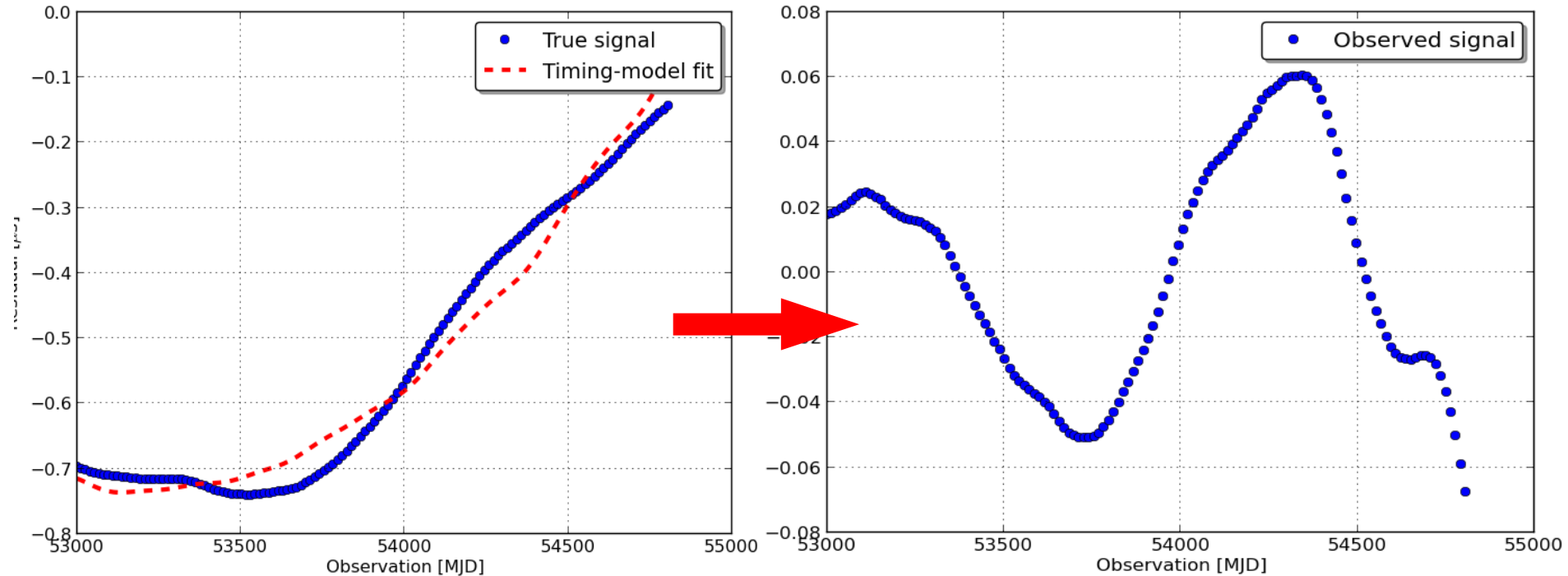
Stochastic signal, with spectrum  $P(f) = h_c^2 \times \left(\frac{f}{f_0}\right)^{3-2\alpha}$



RMS :  $\bar{\sigma}_{n-1} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i (d_i - \bar{u})^2}$

The fitting for the timing model, like discussed earlier, kind of complicates this....

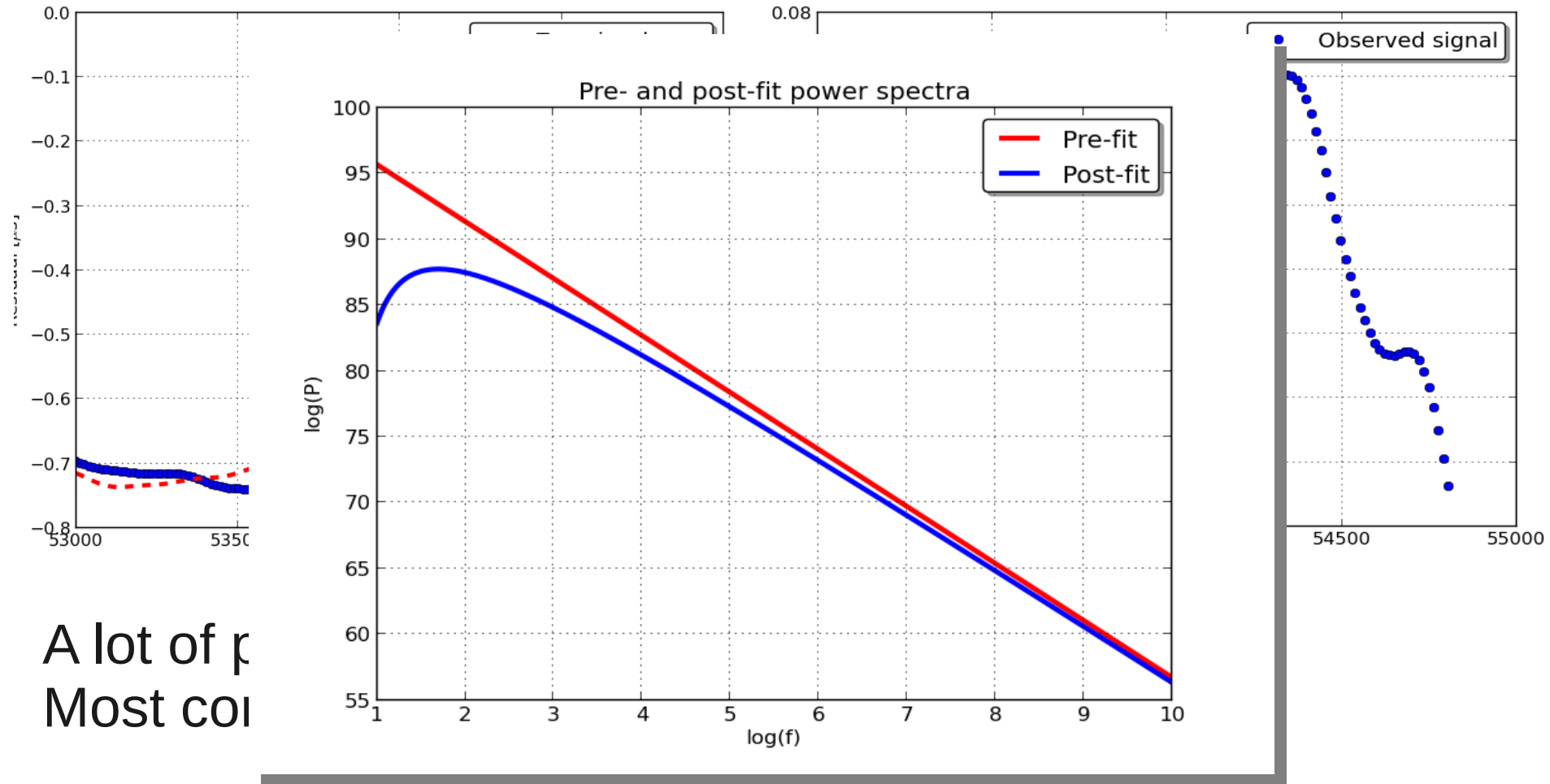
# The effect of fitting



A lot of power is absorbed by the fitting process.  
Most comes from fitting a quadratic shape

**But: the RMS still proportional to signal amplitude**

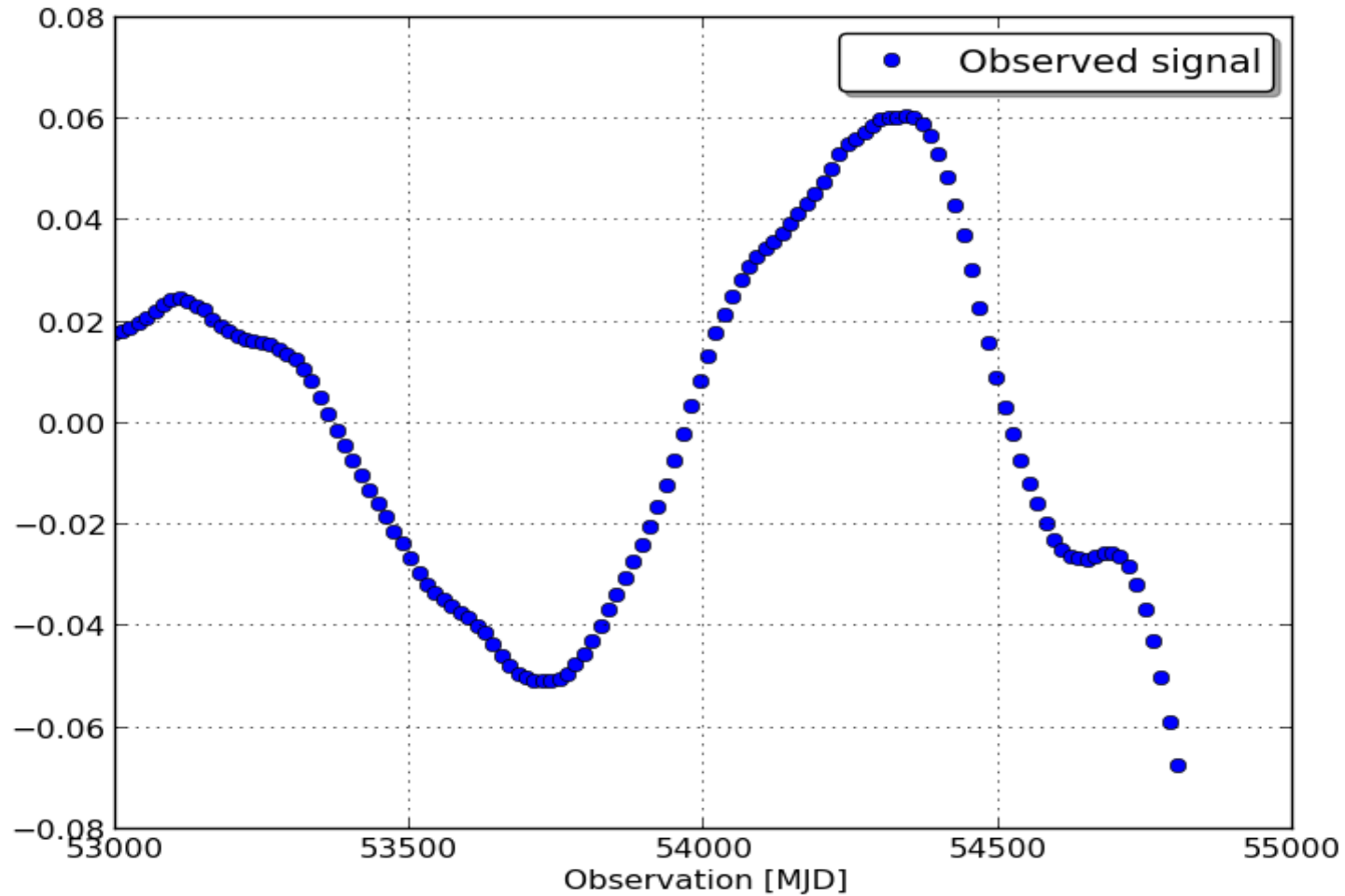
# The effect of fitting



A lot of  $\rho$   
Most coi

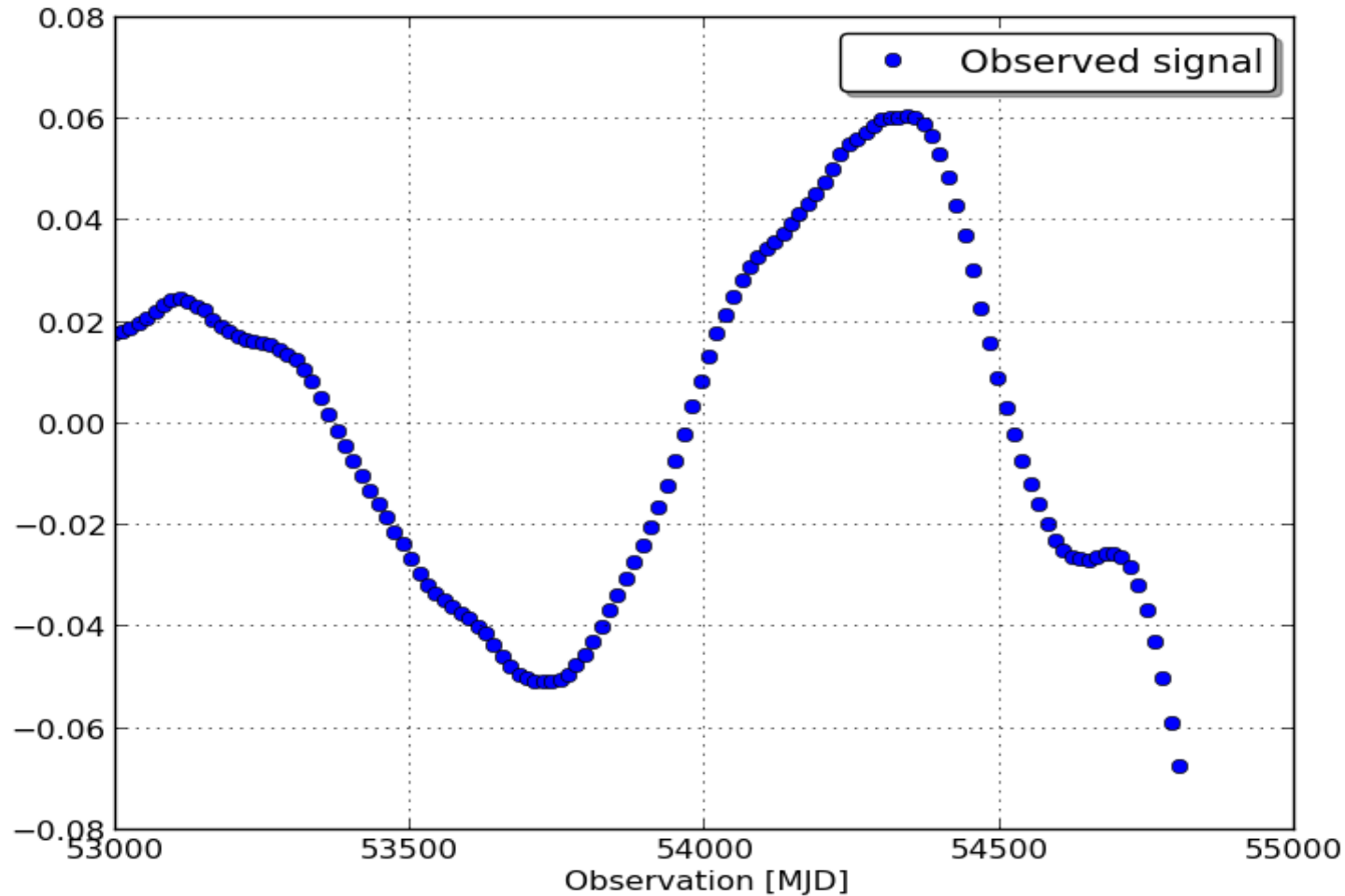
**But: the RMS still proportional to signal amplitude**

Ok.. so what if we find this



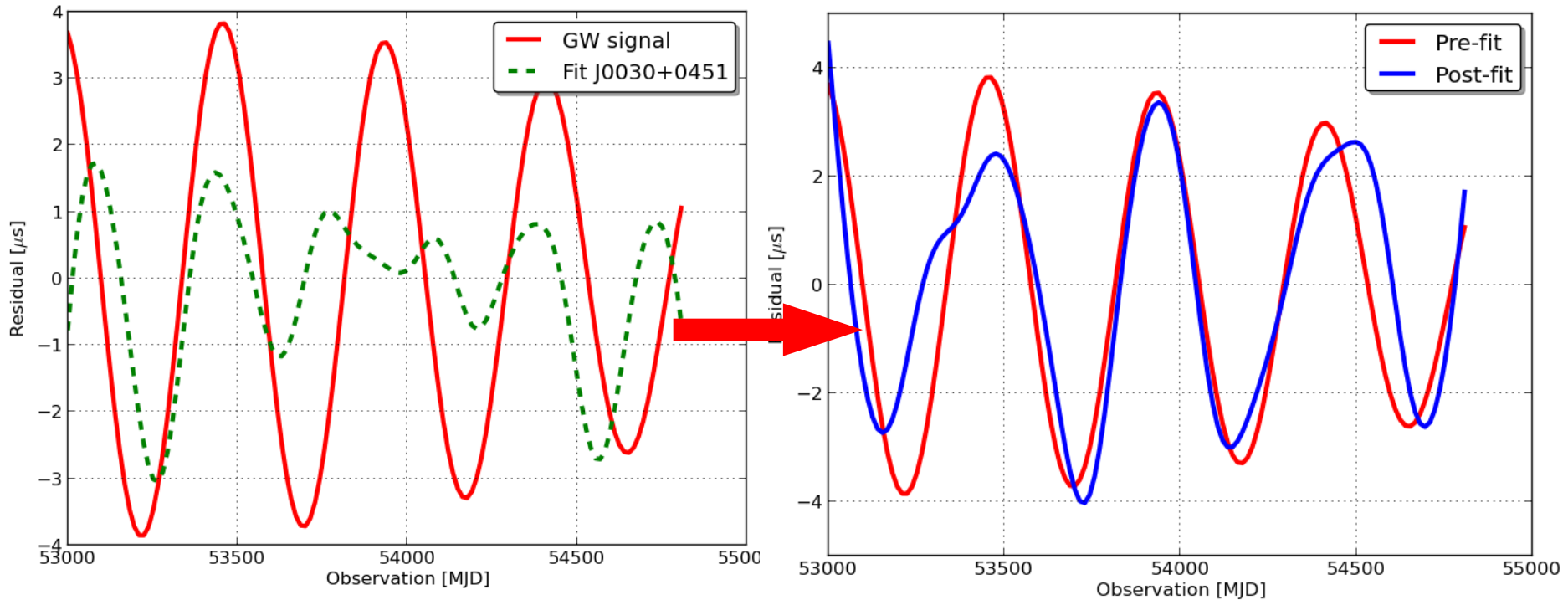
**Question:** is this indeed a GW?

Ok.. so what if we find this



**Answer:** No idea. We do not know our noise well enough.  
But we can set an upper limit!

# Fits and continuous waves



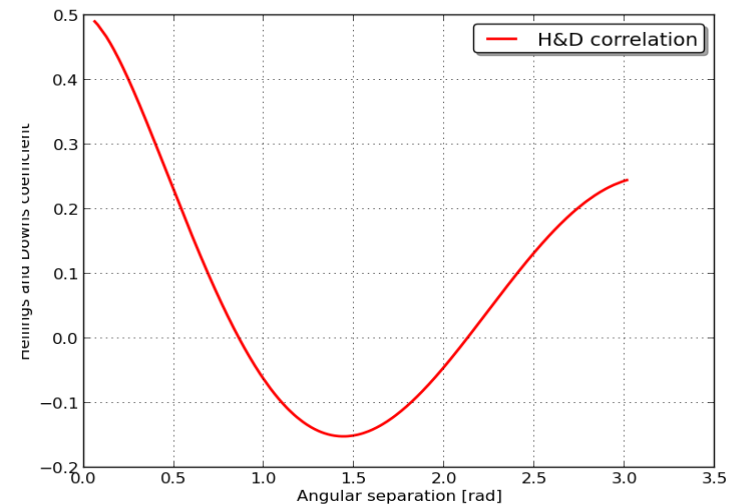
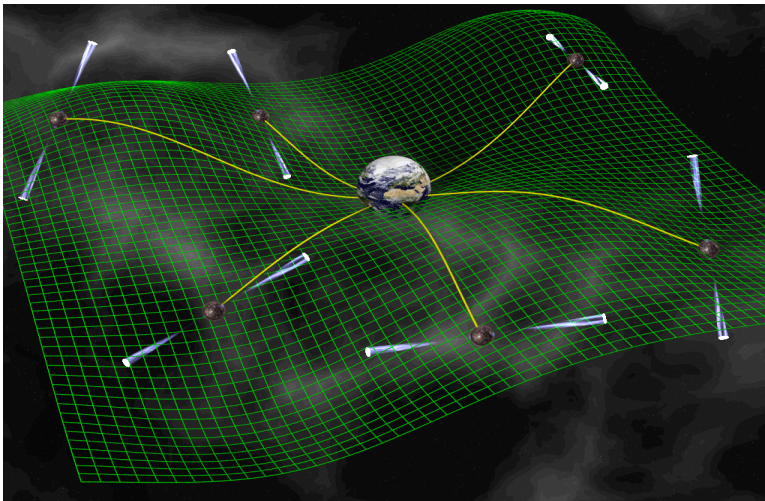
This is the signal of a single BHB inspiral. Also a lot of power was absorbed.

**Question:** what is the power absorbed by? (freq  $\sim 1 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ )

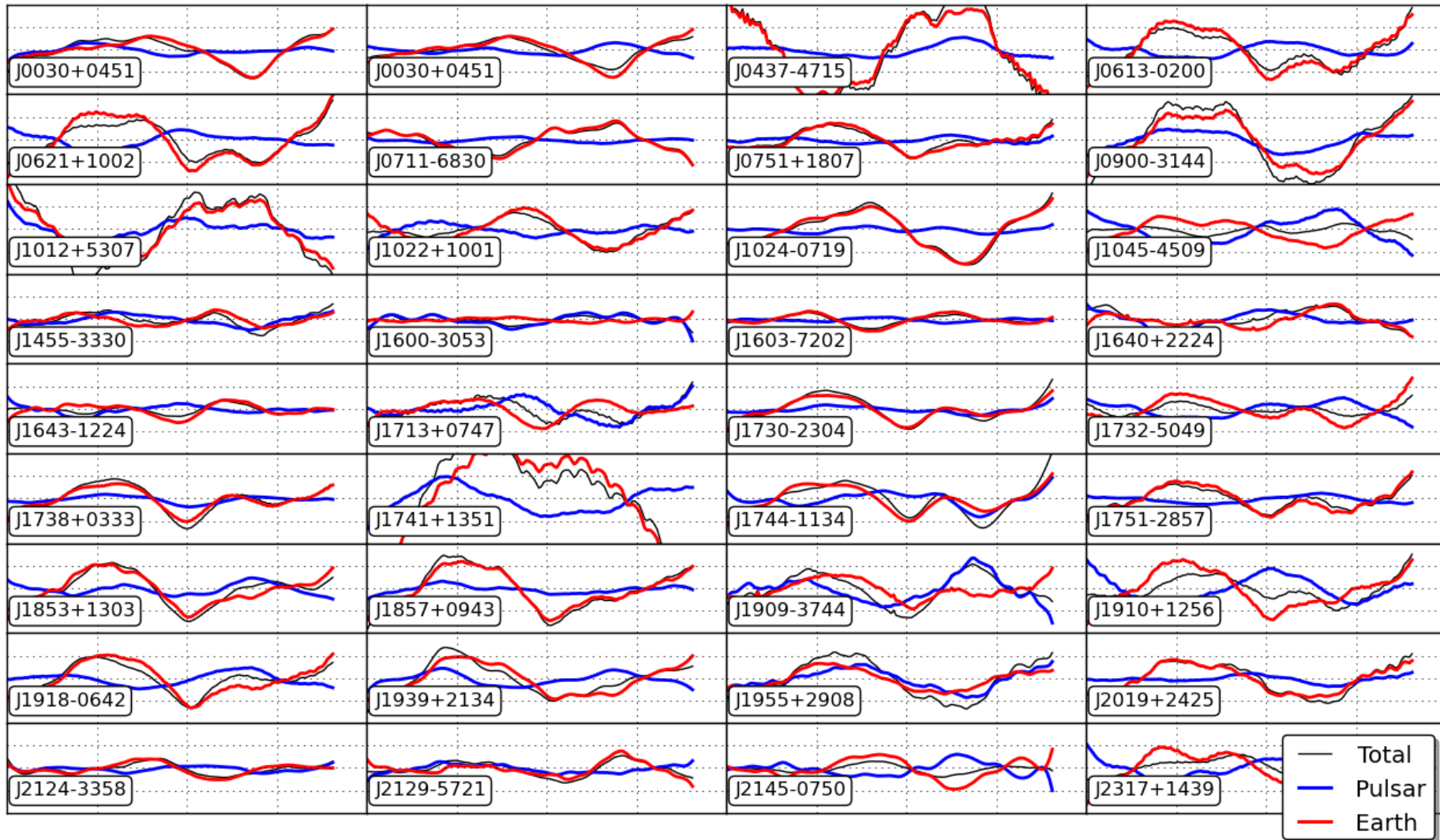


# Correlations

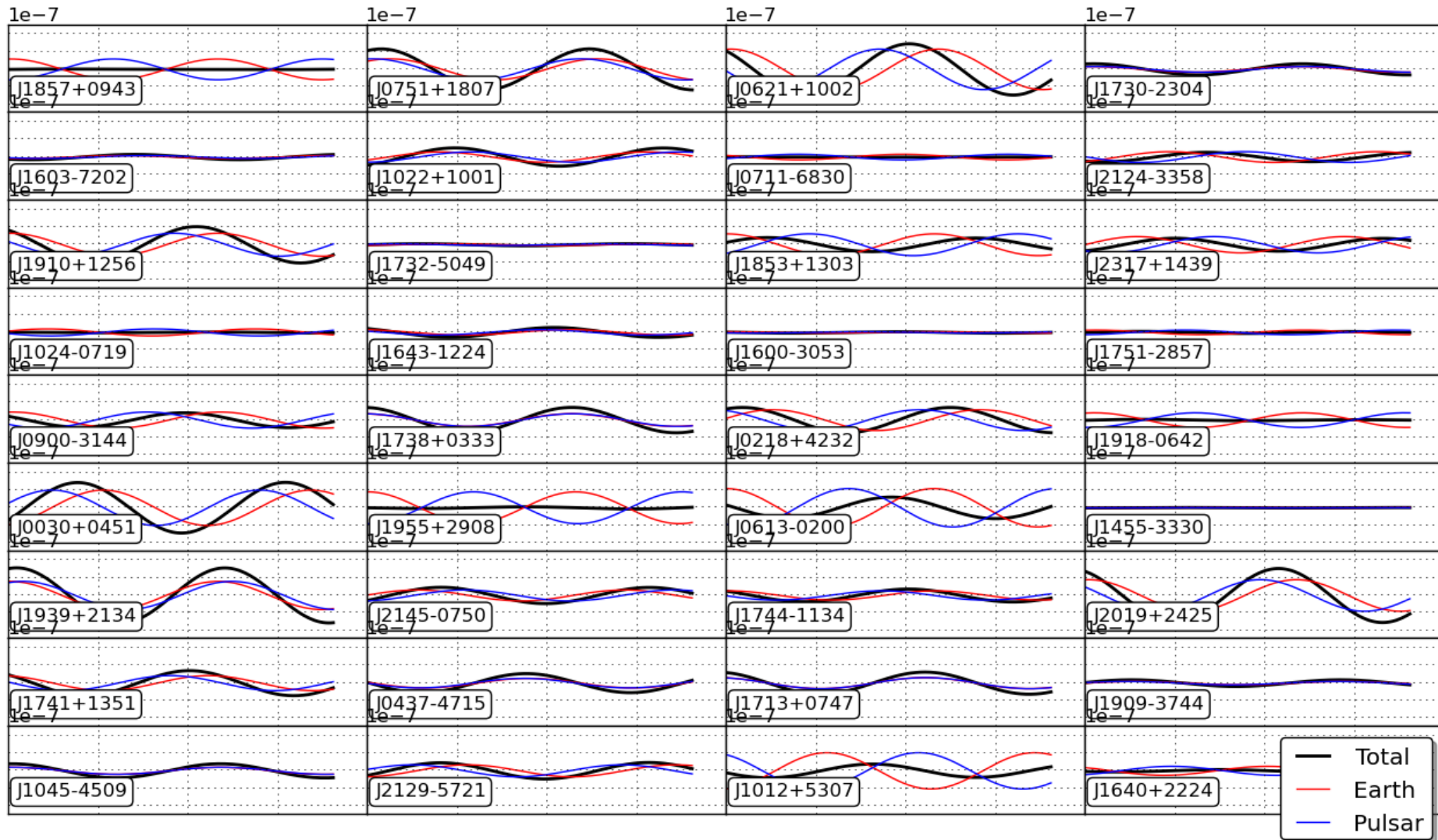
- Correlations between pulsar pairs are the 'smoking gun'. Unique signature for general relativity
- Unlikely a detection will be generally accepted by the broad scientific community, unless confirmed with a whole 'array' of pulsars



# One isotropic GWB realisation

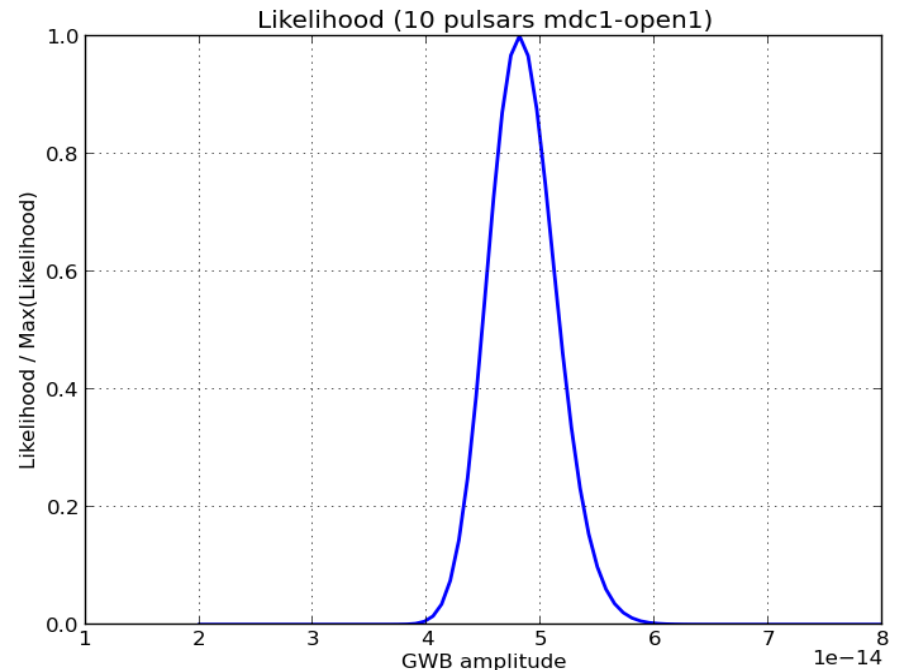
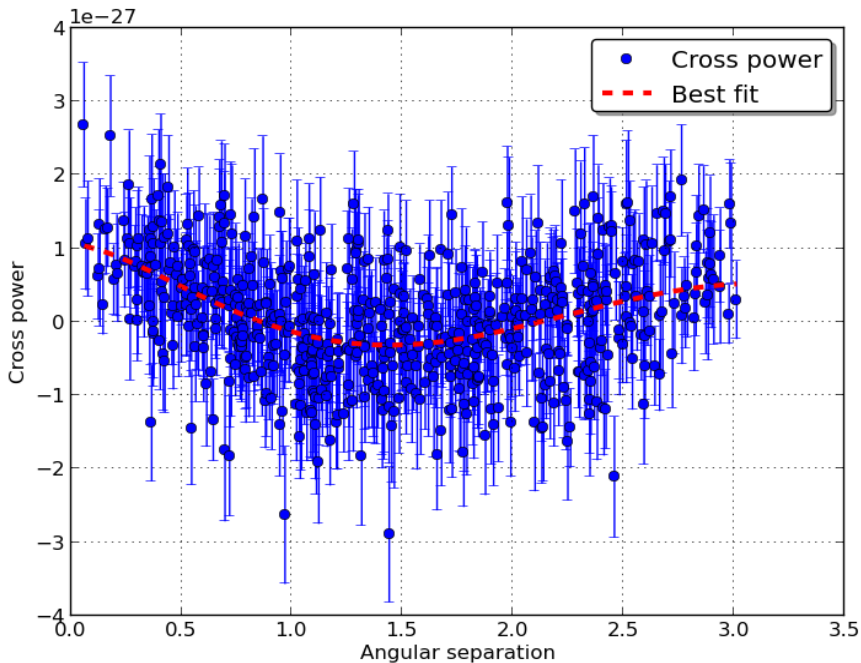


# One CW realisation



# Detection of GWs: isotropic background

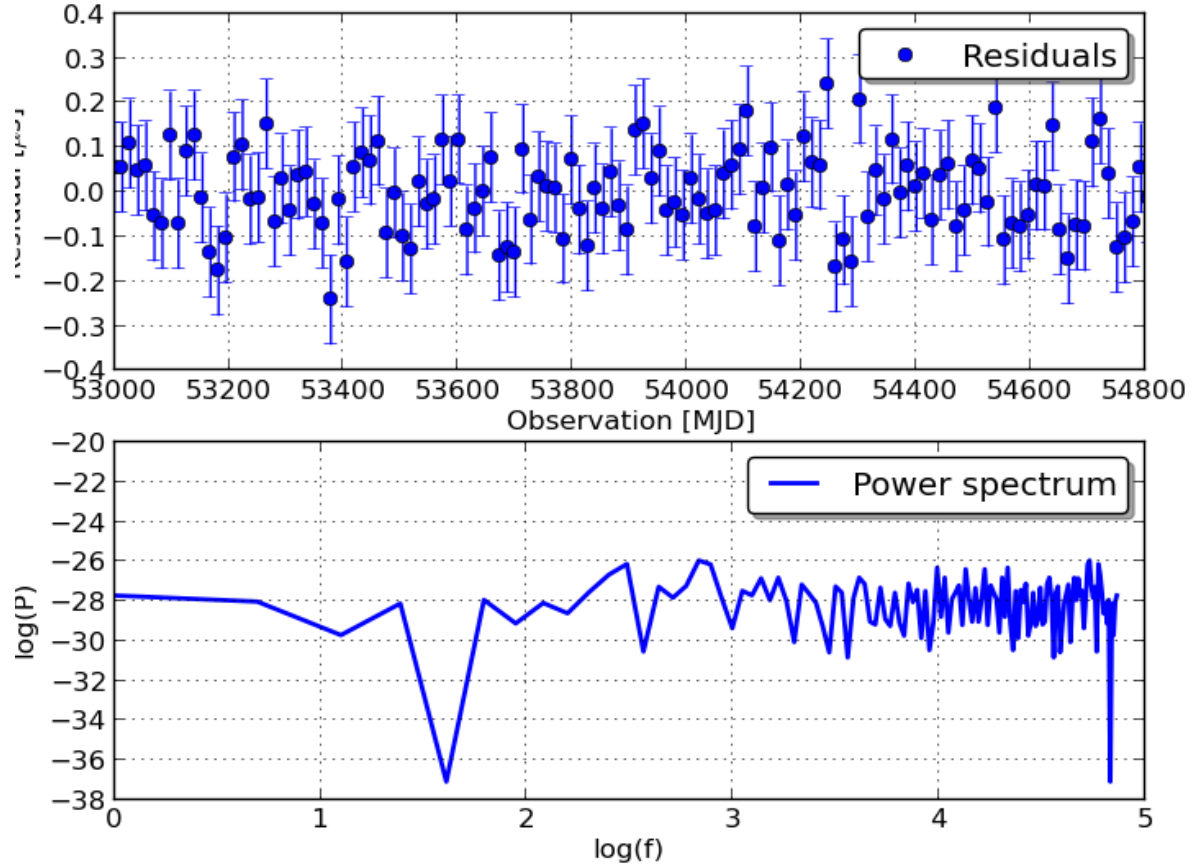
“We have found evidence of a signal with GR correlations in an array of pulsars”



# Placing upper-limits

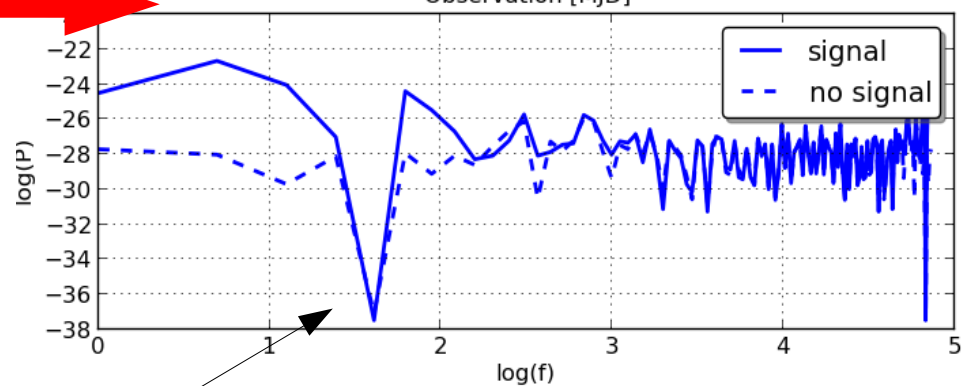
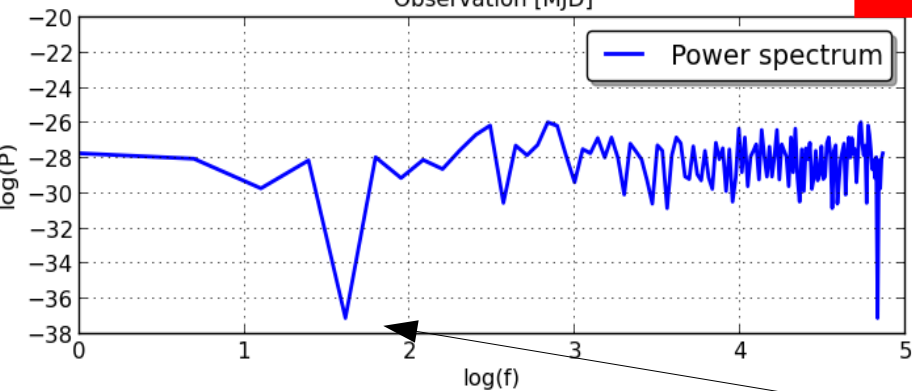
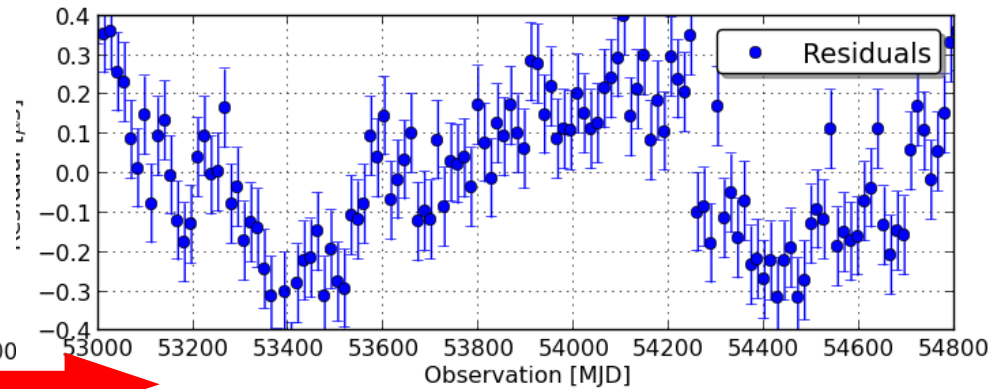
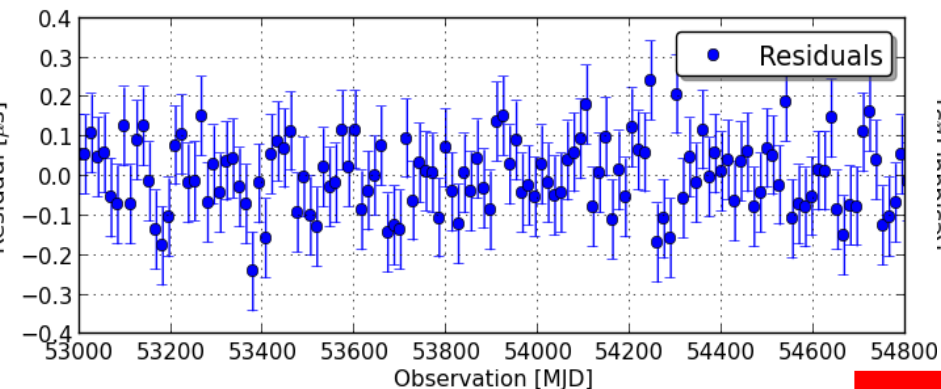
“If there is a signal, it is not larger than this amplitude”

Example: look at power spectrum



# Placing upper-limits: spectrum & rms

Signal shows up in FFT. Can also use RMS

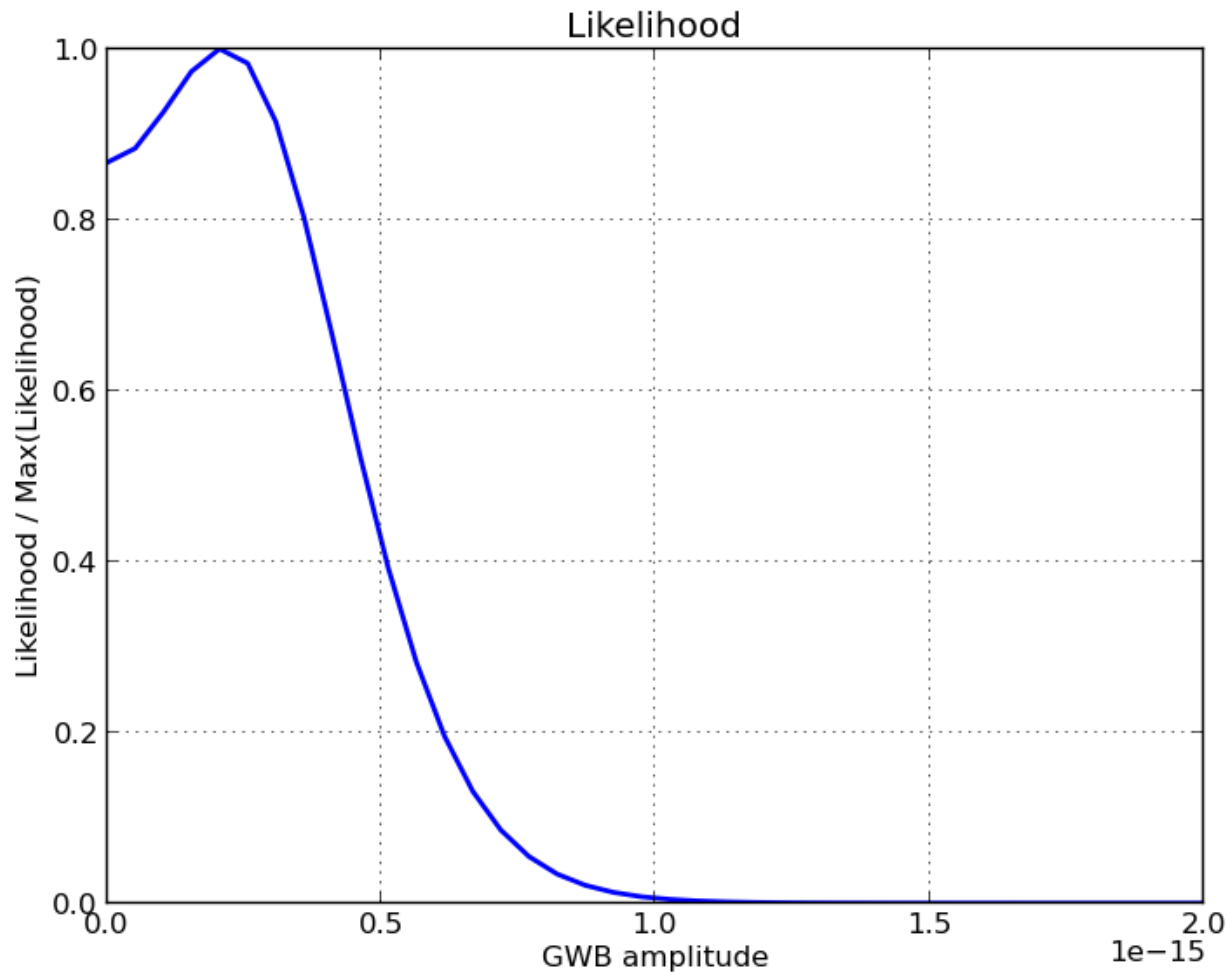


Question: is this a GW detection?

Question: what is this dip here?

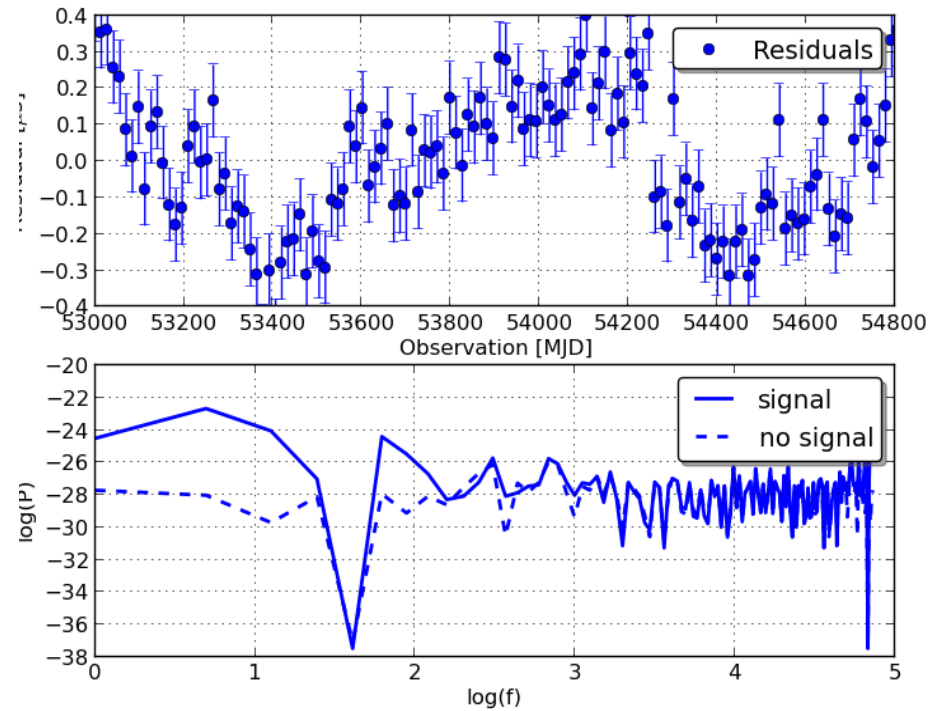
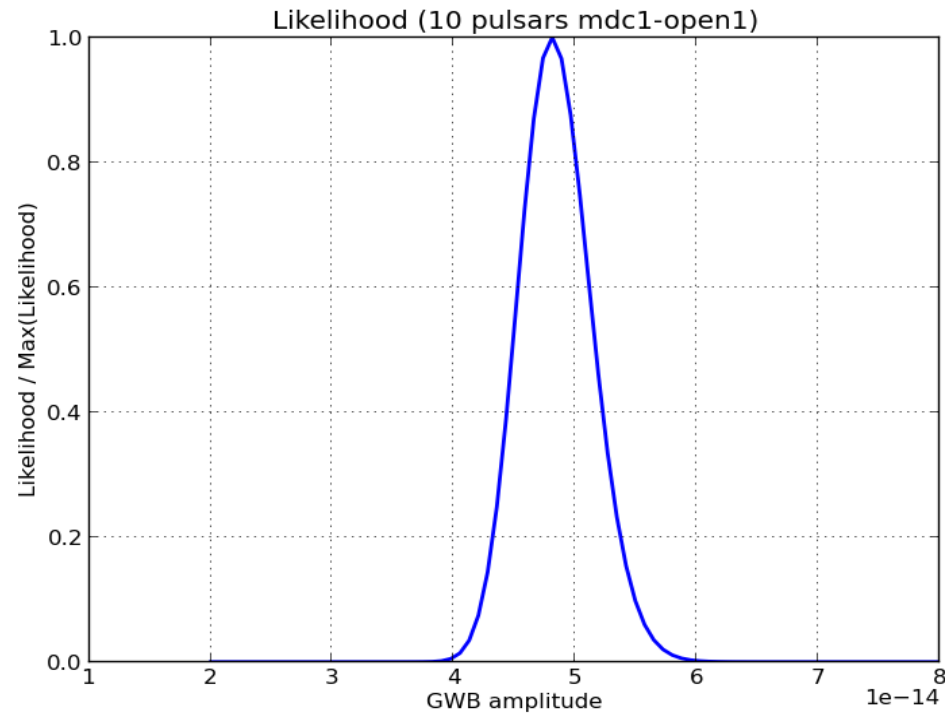
# Placing upper-limits: posterior distribution

Find the 95% confidence limit



# Upper-limit vs detection

Posterior: make sure to ask the right question

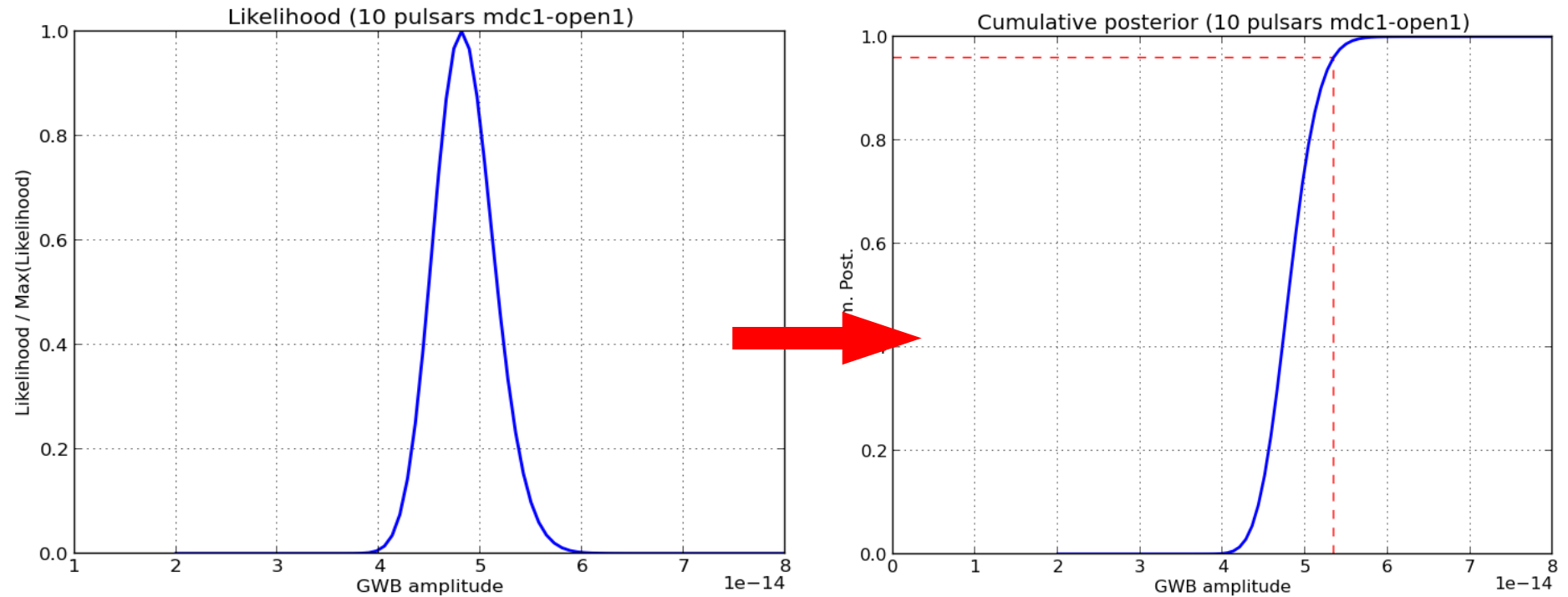


Use a reasonable model = include all noise contributions



# Upper-limit likelihood: conservative noise

Integrate the posterior distribution

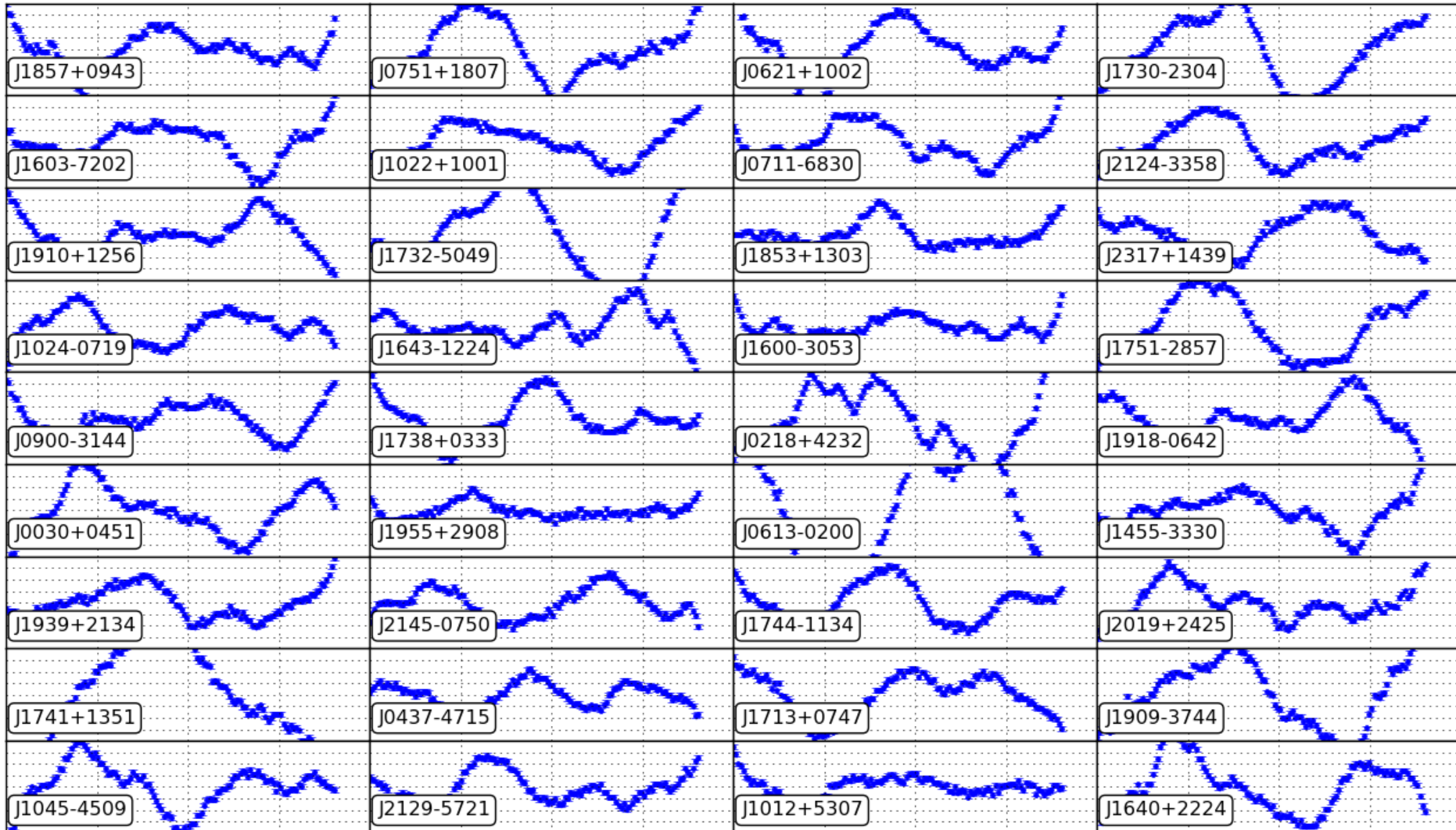


With conservative noise, detection is upper limit. Robust & easy

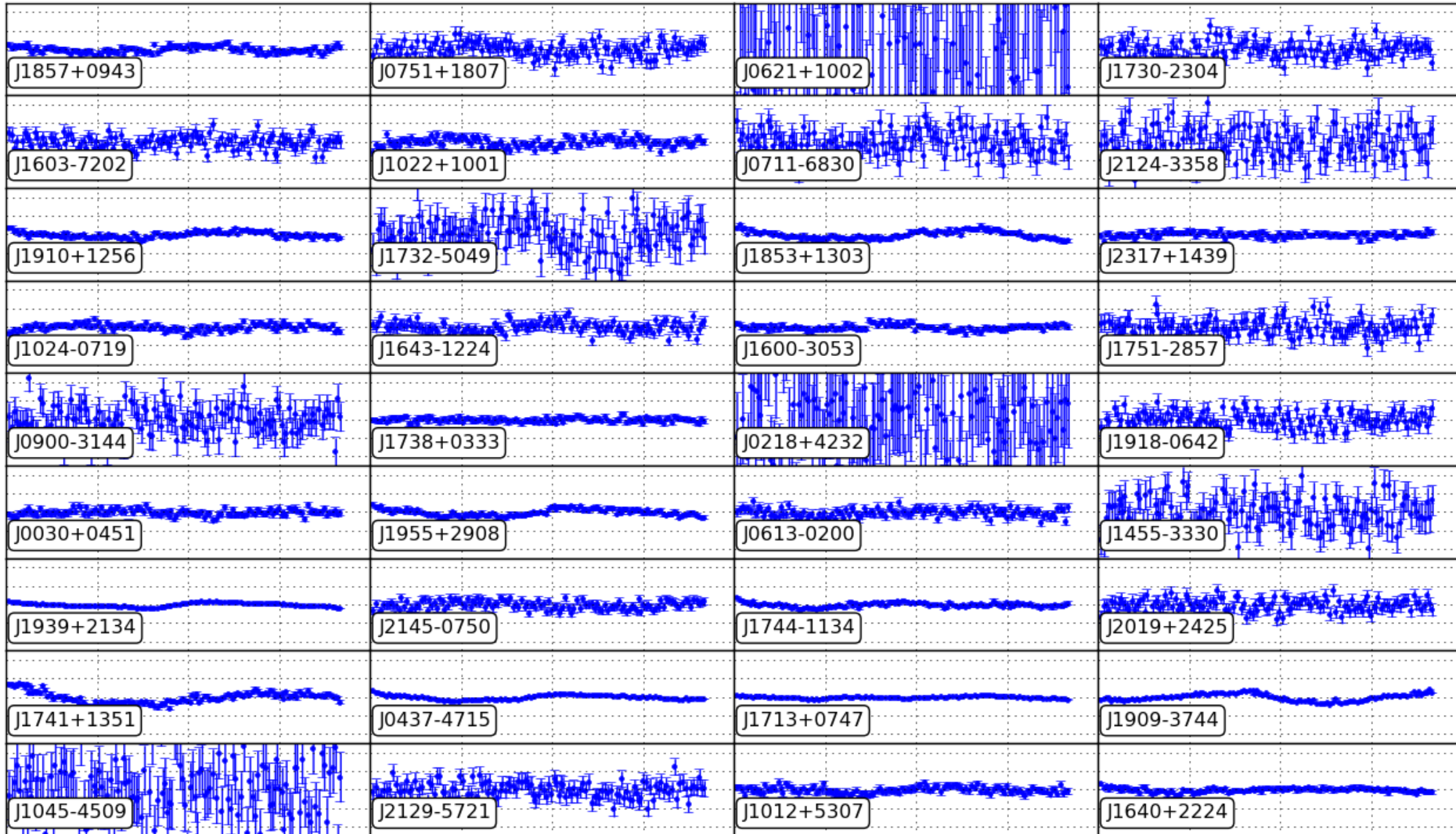
# The IPTA Mock Data Challenge

- The challenge: find the injected signals
- Overly simplistic datasets
- 3 difficulties – three sub-challenges
- Open sets & closed sets
  
- MDC1 (done): isotropic stochastic background
- MDC2 (upcoming): continuous waves (?)

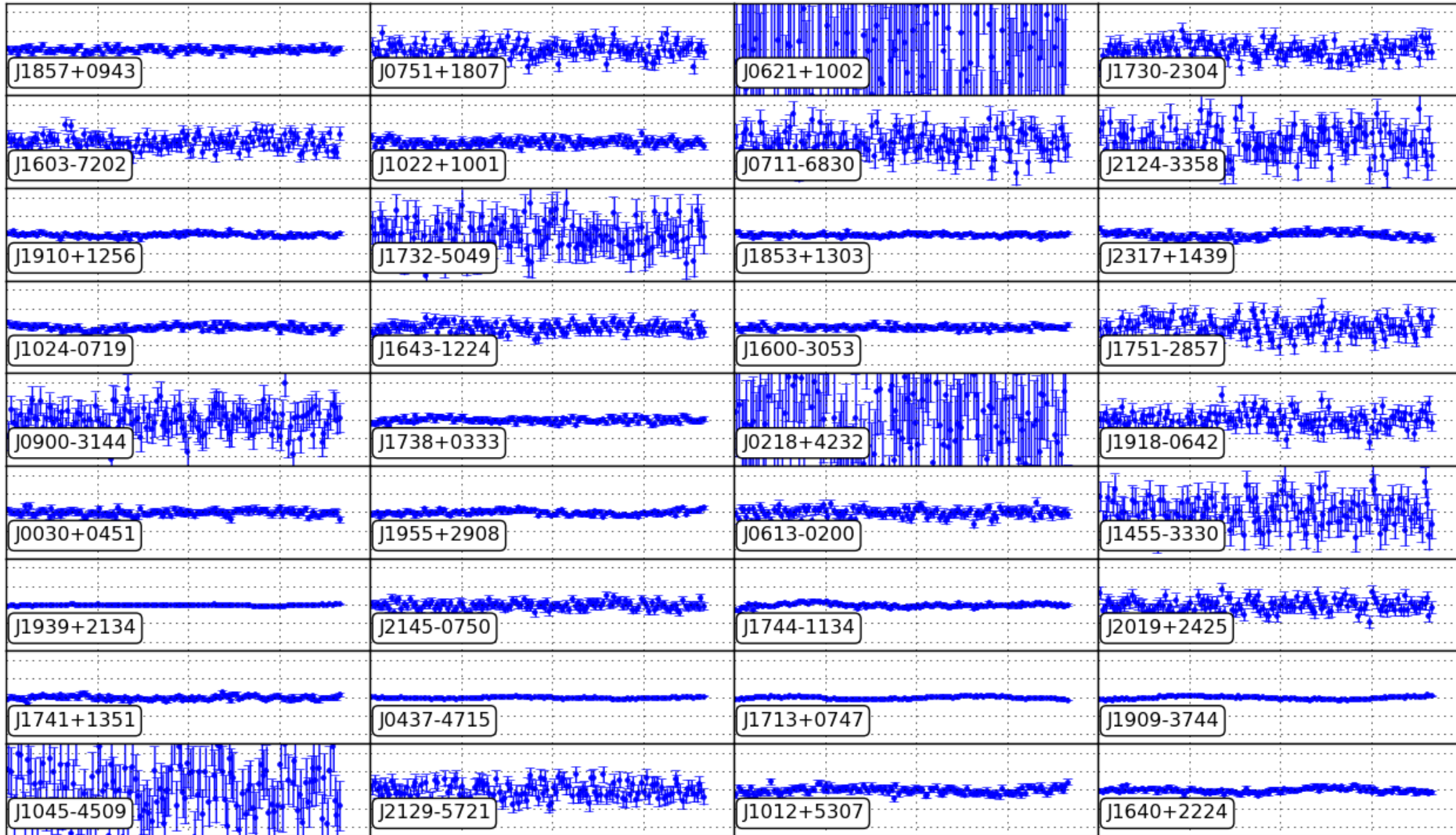
# MDC1 open challenge 1



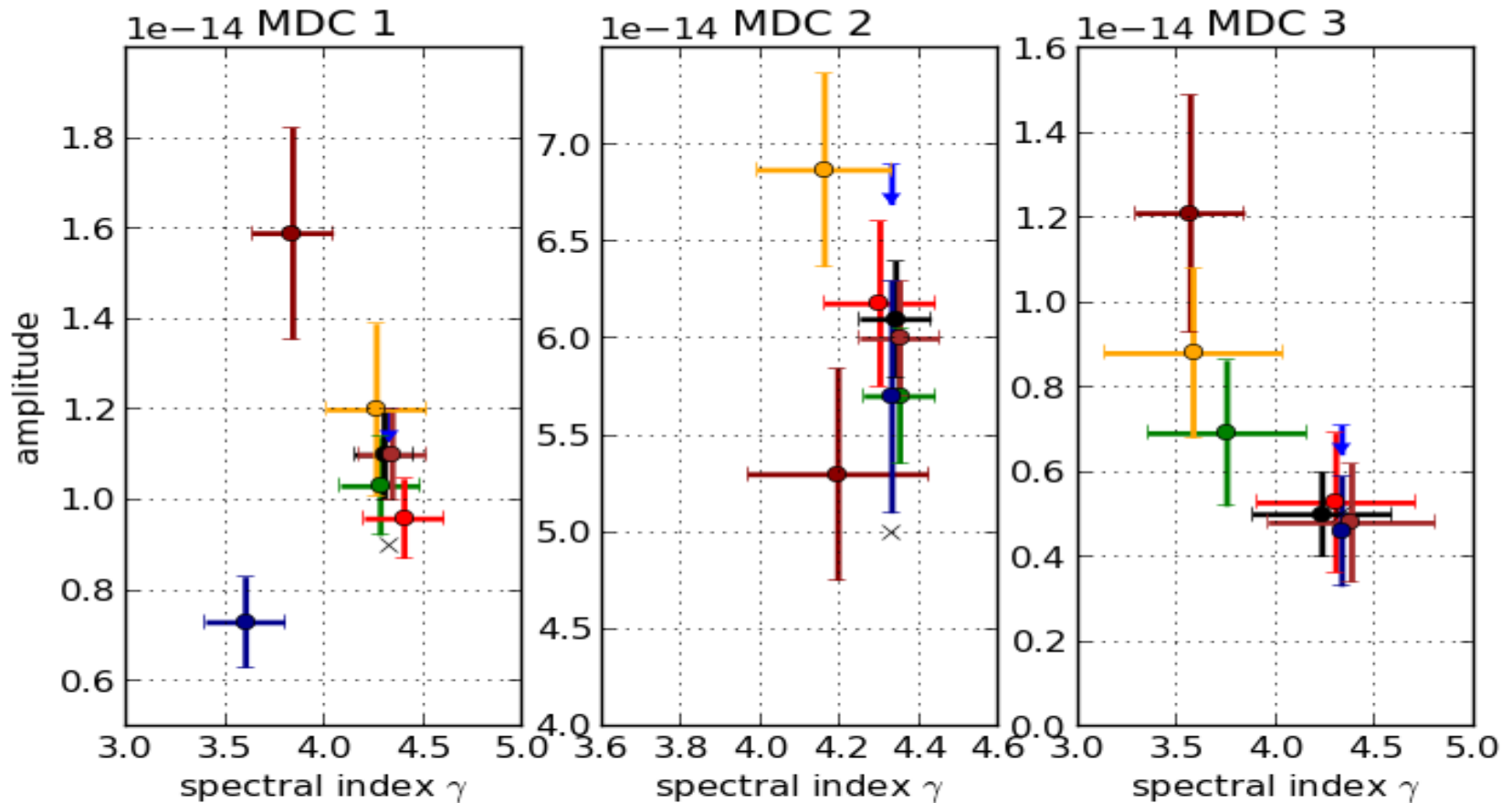
# MDC1 open challenge 3



# MDC1 closed challenge 3



# Data challenge results

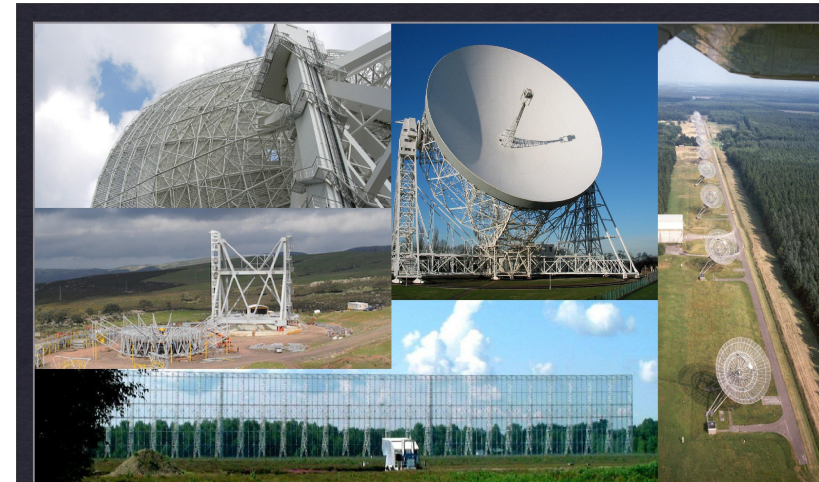


# Software to try this at home

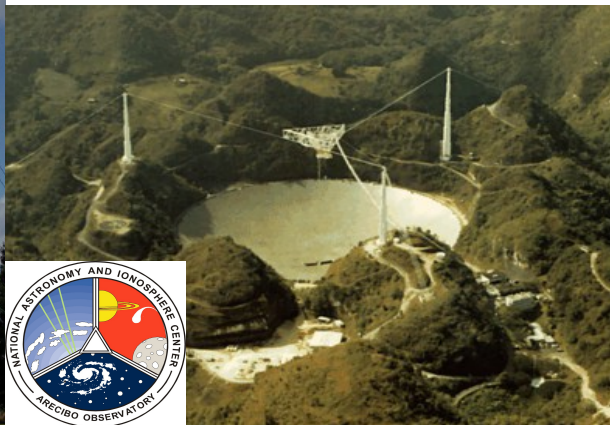
- Tempo2: <http://tempo2.sourceforge.net/>
- Libstempo: <http://github.com/vallis/>
- Working python/numpy installation
- More info: <http://www.ipta4gw.org> – site down :(

# The Pulsar Timing Arrays

Parkes Pulsar Timing Array: Parkes radio telescope (64m). Oldest fully organised PTA effort. Best timing residuals to date. Southern Hemisphere



European Pulsar Timing Array: Effelsberg (100m), Westerbork synthesis (14x25m), Nancay (94m), Lovell (76m), Sardinia (64m). Most dishes.



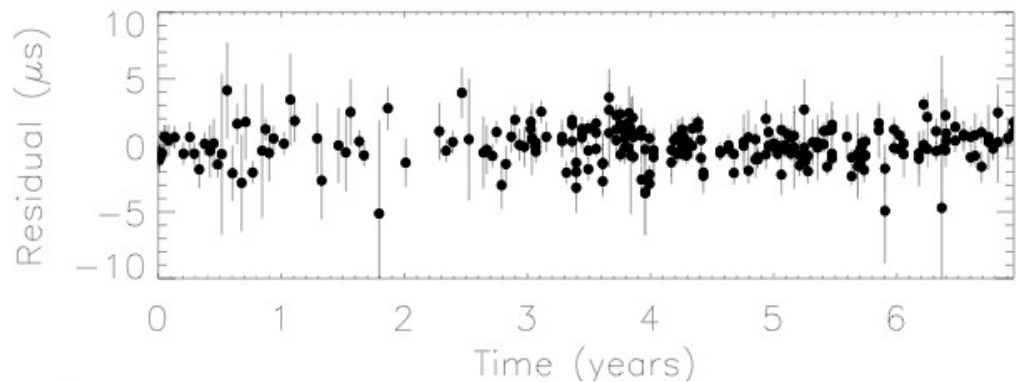
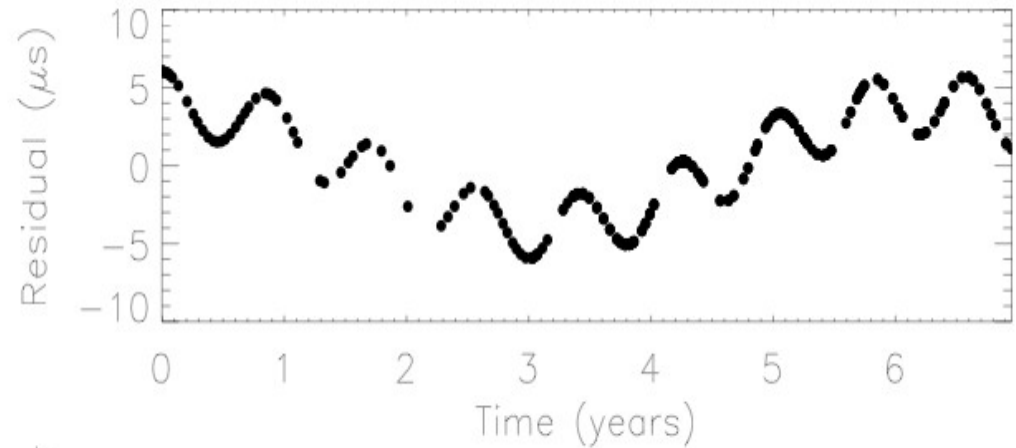
NANOGrav: GreenBank (100m), Arecibo (300m). Biggest dishes.



# Early success: 3C66B

3C66B was/is a proposed supermassive binary black hole system. No continuous waves in data B1855+09. System was ruled out with published parameters.

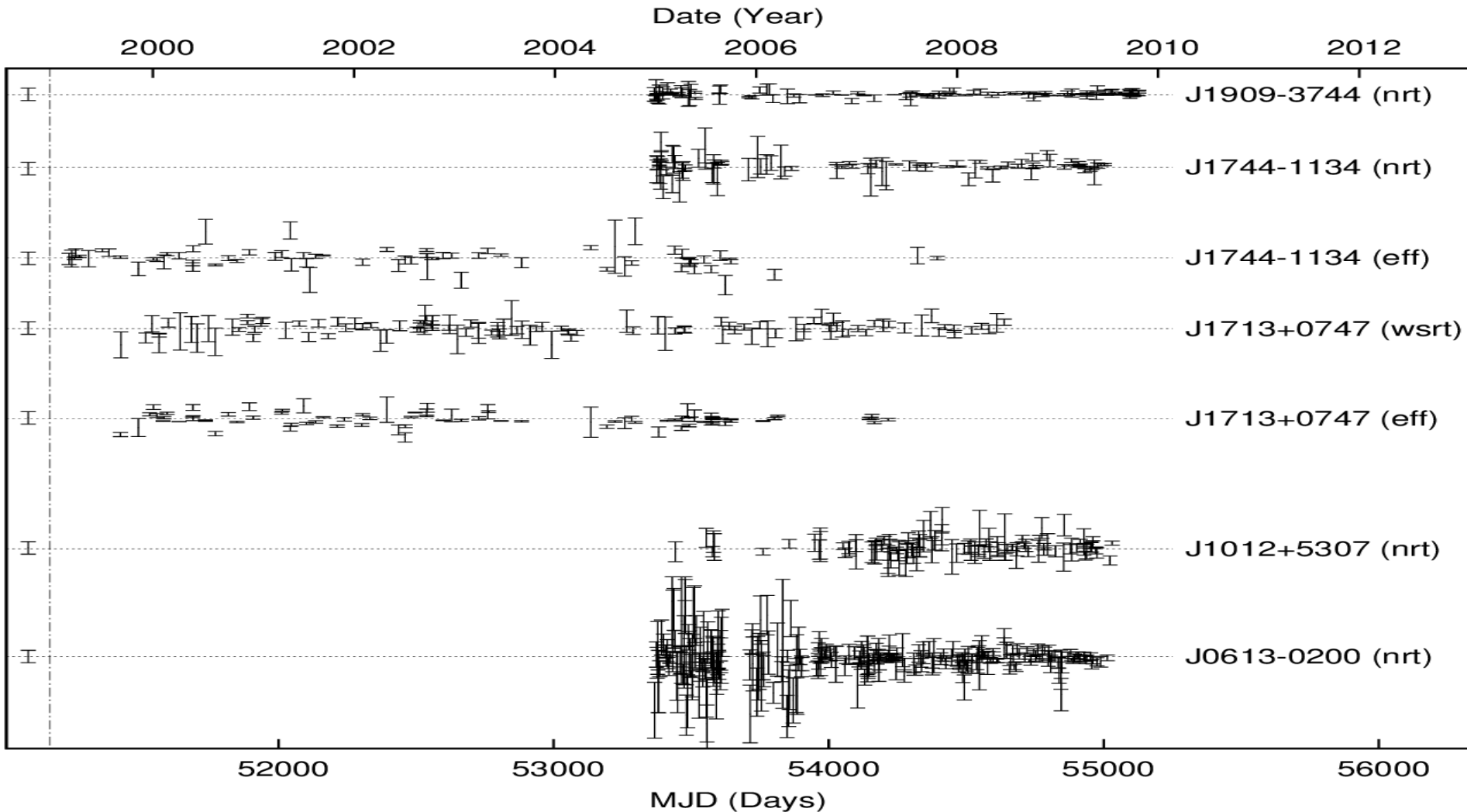
Newly proposed parameters make this system below the noise limit.



Jenet et al. (2004)

Data from Kaspi, Taylor, Ryba (1994)  
of pulsar PSR B1855+09

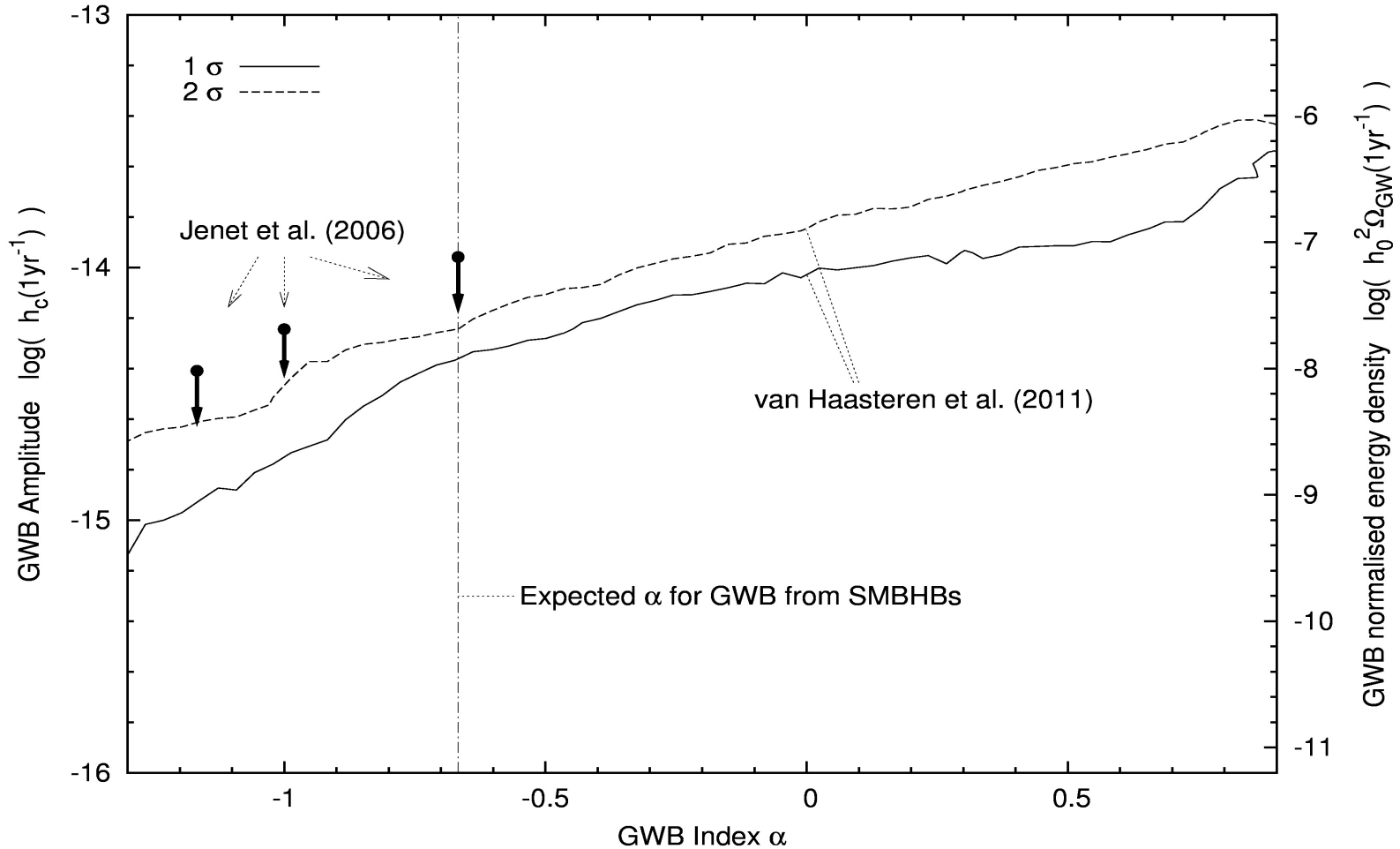
# Published upper limits: EPTA



Spectrum:  $h_c(f) = h_c(f/f_0)^{-\alpha}$

# Published upper limits: EPTA

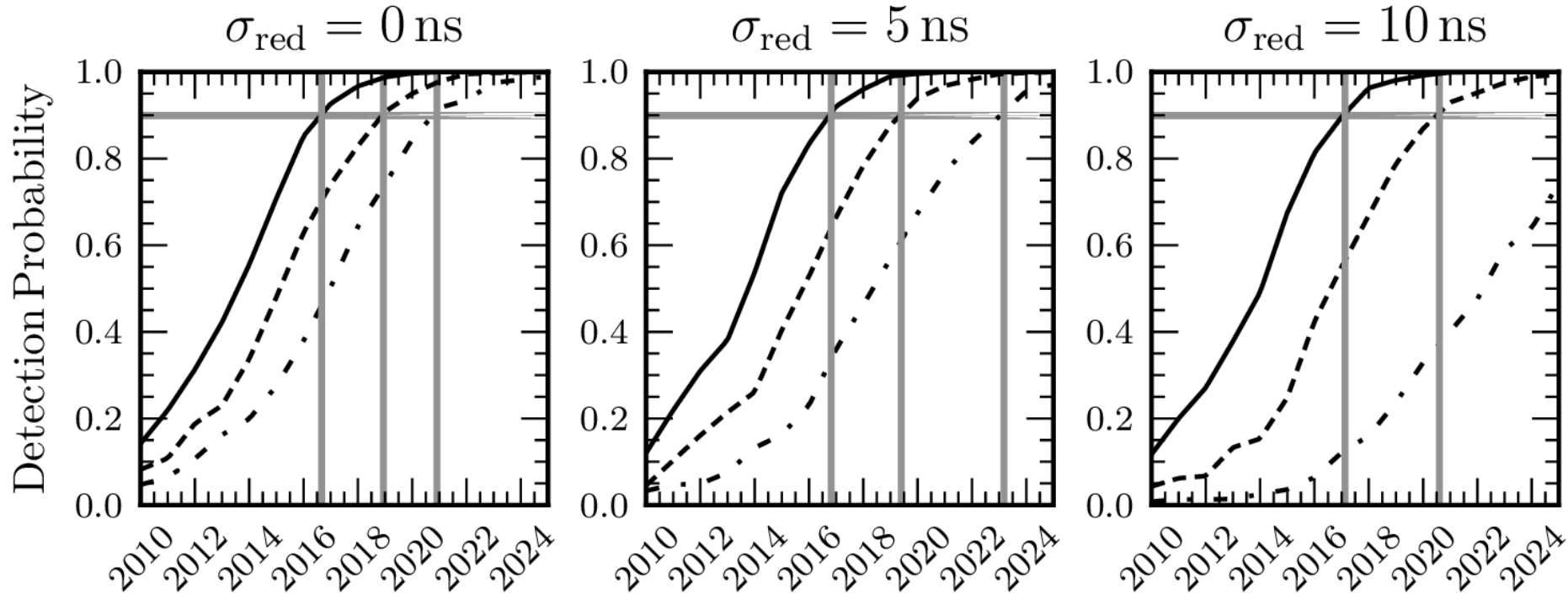
Joint GWB ( $\alpha, h_c$ ) distribution



Spectrum:  $h_c(f) = h_c f^{-\alpha}$

$h_c < 6e-15$

# Prospects for detection

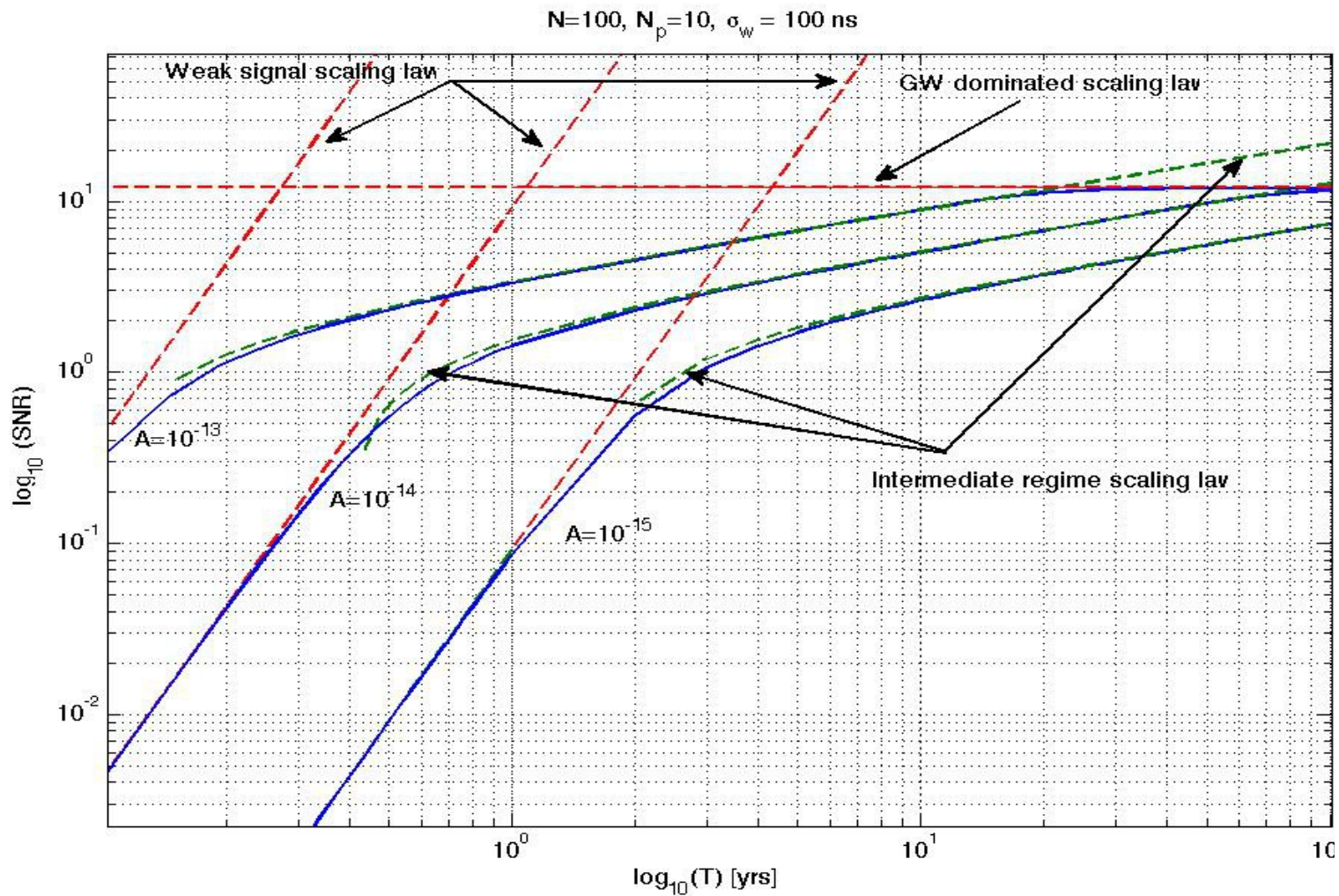


Siemens et al. (in prep.)

Assumptions: keep observing all pulsars, and add 3 per year

Note: red noise estimate is very uncertain

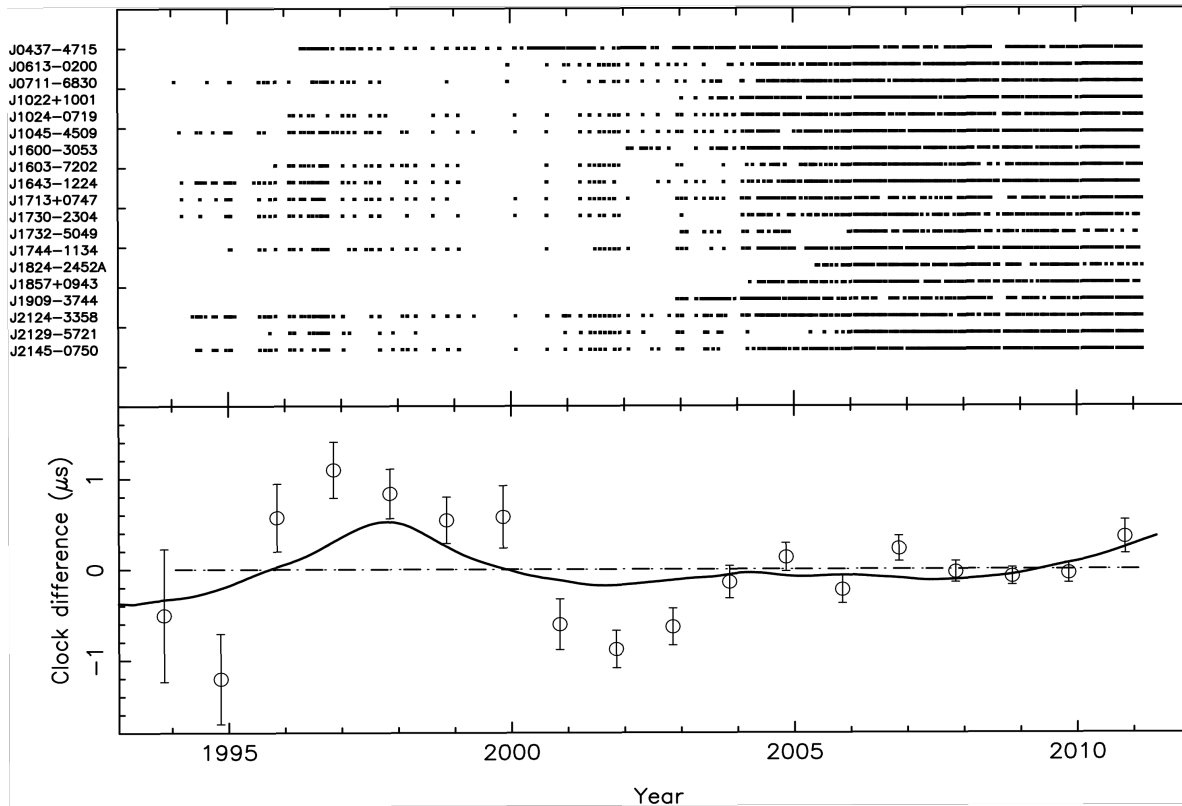
# Scaling laws



Cannot 'just wait'. Need more pulsars

Siemens et al. (in prep.)

# Other applications



Hobbs et al. (2012)

Pulsars can be used to construct a timescale, independent from atomic clocks

Other uses include: studying the solar system ephemeris (planet masses), cosmic strings, interstellar navigation, ...

# Conclusions

- Pulsars can be used as sensitive instruments
- Lots of fundamental science done
- Ideal for testing gravitational theories
- Observing GWs in the near future with pulsar timing arrays: 5-15 years??
  
- Plenty of other uses for PTAs
- Join in on data challenge!