

Search for inspiralling neutron stars in LIGO S1 data

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Abstract

We describe the search for gravitational waves from inspiralling neutron star binary systems, using data from the first scientific run of the LIGO Science Collaboration.

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1. Introduction

In 2002, the LIGO Scientific Collaboration and the LIGO laboratory organized the first science data run (S1). The Collaboration took data for 17 days, between 23 August and 9 September, using the three LIGO detectors (two detectors in the Hanford Observatory and one detector in the Livingston Observatory), and the GEO detector in Hannover, Germany. The detectors had not achieved their aimed sensitivities, and were at different completion levels with respect to their configurations, as described in [1]. However, the noise level of at least some of the detectors was low enough to make them sensitive to inspiralling binary neutron stars in the galaxy, and even the Magellanic clouds, making the data taking and analysis effort worthwhile and competitive with previous searches that produced upper limits on the rate of inspiralling binary neutron sources in the galaxy [2, 3].

The results of the analysis of S1 LIGO data looking for gravitational waves from binary neutron stars were described in detail in [4]. This paper reports on some of the details of the data analysis done in [1], on the results obtained and on some of the lessons learned that will lead to improved methods in the analysis of present and future science runs. At the time of writing, the collaboration is analysing the data from another two-month science run, and is preparing to take data again with another 60+ days long run at the end of 2003.

¹ The members of the LIGO Scientific Collaboration are listed in the paper by Allen and Woan for the LIGO Scientific Collaboration, in these proceedings: stacks.iop.org/CQG/21/S671.

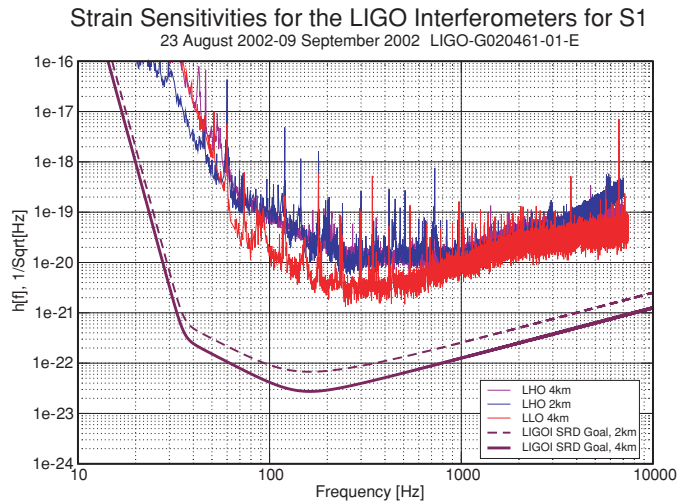


Figure 1. Typical sensitivities of the LIGO detectors during S1.

(This figure is in colour only in the electronic version)

2. Detectors' sensitivity to binary neutron star systems in S1

A typical amplitude spectral density of the LIGO detectors' noise during S1, interpreted as strain, is shown in figure 1. We can translate the noise spectral density into an optimal range, defined as the maximum distance at which a binary neutron star system, if optimally oriented and located, would be detected with a signal-to-noise ratio of 8. On average, the optimal range for the Livingston detector during S1 was 176 kpc, and for the Hanford 4 km detector, 46 kpc. The optimal range for the 2 km Hanford detector was slightly worse than for the 4 km detector, and the data quality was not as good; the range for the GEO detector for the same sources was significantly worse. We then decided to use only data from the LIGO 4 km detectors, which we call L1 (Livingston detector) and H1 (Hanford detector).

Seismic noise at the Livingston Observatory limited operations during most weekdays, so the overall L1 duty cycle during S1 was 42% (170 h of data), while the duty cycle of H1 was 58% (235 h). The time when the two detectors H1 and L1 were in operation amounted to 116 h, representing a duty cycle of only 28%. We decided to analyse *all* the data available from L1 and H1, including the times when a single detector was available. While we were not going to be able to confirm through coincidence the candidate events found when only one detector was operating, in this way we have more statistics to use for upper limit analysis and for testing our data analysis method. In the future, with longer science runs and improved duty cycles, we will be able to achieve good upper limits on astrophysical rates using only times when more than one detector is in operation.

The scientific goal of the data analysis exercise was to set an upper limit on the rate of binary neutron star systems in the galaxy. We did not observe any coincident event with signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) larger than 6.5 in both detectors; thus, we had no candidates for detection.

In order to get an upper limit on the event rate, we measure the efficiency of the detectors (and the search method) for the population we are sensitive to (Milky Way galaxy, large and small Magellanic clouds), and infer the upper limit rate in that population from the efficiency as a function of signal-to-noise $\epsilon(\rho)$ and the amount of time analysed T . The result is an

observational, frequentist, upper limit of 170 events/year per Milky Way equivalent galaxy (MWEG), with 90% confidence, on the coalescence rate of binary systems in which each component has a mass in the range $1\text{--}3M_{\odot}$.

A rough estimate of what could be expected from the analysis shows that our result was close to expectations. At $\text{SNR} = 16$ (the SNR of our strongest surviving candidate), L1 was, on average, sensitive to 90% of the sources in the galaxy, while H1 was sensitive to 40% of the same population. L1 was operating for 170 h in S1, while H1 provided an additional 119 h operating without L1 in coincidence. The total of available hours was then 289 h. The maximum efficiency expected was then $(0.9 \times 170 + 0.4 \times 119)/289 = 0.69$. An upper limit on the event rate for the galaxy is then expected at the level of $2.3/\epsilon T \sim 100$ events/year. This is considerably smaller than the actual upper limit obtained of 170 events/year. This was for several reasons: not all the data were used because of availability, calibration problems or poor data quality; there was some loss of efficiency due to requirements on matching templates and on consistency under coincidence; and we used the upper bound in our rate estimate given the uncertainties in the results. Of course, even an optimally calculated event rate would be far from other astrophysical estimates which suggest rates of 10^{-5} /year for our galaxy [5, 7].

3. Data analysis method and results

We developed a pipeline to analyse the data that could lead to detection during times when the two detectors were in operation, but also analysed the data when a single detector was in operation. If this pipeline had resulted in a strong candidate appearing in both detectors, consistent with a coincident signal, we would have followed up with additional investigations to determine its origin, either astrophysical or instrumental. In S1, our analysis did not find any such coincident event. In the absence of detection, we take several more steps to produce, from the list of candidates, an observational upper limit on the rate of events in the galaxy. We describe now the different elements leading to our resulting rate of 170 events/year/MWEG.

The pipeline and details on the methods used for each step are described in detail in [4]; here we summarize the steps and point out possible improvements to apply in the analysis of future data.

3.1. Candidate events

The times analysed were selected by a data qualifier that guaranteed the interferometer was in a known configuration, that transients had died away and that no changes were made to the instrument in a continuous data segment.

The pipeline has several parameters that were tuned to obtain the best upper limit possible. Since biases could be introduced by this tuning, we performed the optimization on a selected dataset, called the ‘playground’. This playground, about 10% of the data in coincidence, was not used in the final analysis. The playground times were chosen by hand, trying to choose locked segments that were representative of the different data quality over the run. However, a fair representation was difficult to obtain with such an *ad hoc* procedure, and for the next science run (S2, 14 Jan–14 Apr 2003), an automatic procedure was implemented.

In the first step in our pipeline, we analyse the interferometer data from each detector using matched filtering, with a template bank chosen to guarantee coverage of the worst detector [4] (and thus producing overcoverage of the better detector). The resulting bank, with 2110 templates which covered the mass range $1\text{--}3M_{\odot}$, had $\leq 2\%$ loss of SNR for L1 and $\leq 7\%$ loss for H1.

The matched filtering makes critical use of the detector data calibration: we lost about 25 h, or 9% of available data, due to missing calibration information. We also lost 39 h, or 13%, due to the granularity of the matched filtering jobs, which required blocks of time 256 s long to have a good estimate of the spectral density used as a weighting function in the templated search. Thus, we could not use short segments, or times at the end of segments. We expect to improve both of these numbers with better practice (for calibration) and better instrument stability (for longer operating segments).

We used a single template bank for both detectors, for all times in S1. In future runs, we will use different banks, dynamically adapted to the noise in the detector in the segment of continuous lock being analysed. When the SNR of a particular candidate is larger than 6.5, we calculate a quality-of-fit parameter¹ and tune a cut on this parameter. This cut, although very powerful, was found not to veto candidates that upon further inspection were happening during noisy times. We are now developing methods that will analyse the time before the candidate template starts, either looking for excitations of other templates (typical during noisy times), or looking for lack of consistency with a stationary noise background.

The second step in the pipeline applied two kinds of instrumental vetoes to the surviving triggers: an epoch cut, and an instrumental veto for H1. The epoch cut was adopted by the two working groups looking for signals of short duration (bursts and inspiral sources), and eliminated times when the noise in certain frequency bands was well outside the typical noise levels during S1, trended over 6 min periods. This cut removed 8% of the L1 data, and 18% of the H1 data. In spite of the non-negligible amount of data eliminated, we did not have a satisfactory explanation for why the noise was excessively high at these times. This was in part due to the lack of time to diagnose the noise sources: the instruments are constantly changing, except during the data taking run itself. This makes the diagnostics of particular data features very difficult, especially if attempted long after the instrument has changed character. We hope the understanding of the instrument will be better when we reach a stationary (and satisfactory) noise level, but probably not earlier. The second instrumental veto was due to the coupling of frequency noise glitches in H1, as seen in another interferometer channel simultaneously with triggers in the gravitational wave channel. We had similar efficient veto channels for L1 (which also had a much higher event rate of accidental triggers), but we decided not to use them because when injecting hardware signals to simulate gravitational waves, they also excited the auxiliary channels in ways that could produce ‘vetoes’. We expect that with better understanding of the physical nature of the vetoes, we will be able to find efficient, safe vetoes that will eliminate the candidate events produced by instrumental artefacts.

The third step involves only the candidate triggers in L1 surviving the template matching and instrumental vetoes applied, and which are strong enough to show up in H1 with $\text{SNR} > 6.5$. To these events, we apply a coincidence veto if there are no consistent triggers in H1 and L1. However, there were no such events in the S1 data: only triggers in L1 which appeared closer than 51 kpc would have possibly appeared as candidates in H1; but the strongest candidate event we had during coincident times had an apparent distance of 68 kpc. During S1, we were logistically limited in the number of triggers generated, thus imposing a lower limit of SNR looked for of 6.5. Thus, the lower limit in SNR for the noisier detector sets up a much stricter SNR criterion in the less noisy detector. To overcome this problem without overloading the database with low SNR events, we plan to implement a hierarchical search, looking for low SNR in the less sensitive detector only around times when a large SNR event is found in the more sensitive detector.

¹ Using $p = 8$ frequency sub-bands, assuming a SNR loss of 3% due to the template bank, we require that the quality-of-fit parameter χ^2 satisfies $\chi^2 < 5(p + 0.03 \text{SNR}^2)$.

The final step in the pipeline generating the list of candidates involved maximizing all surviving triggers over time and over the template bank, to improve the timing resolution, and the confidence in the SNR of the candidate. This pipeline analysed a total of 236 h.

3.2. Detector efficiency

To measure the efficiency of our pipeline, we injected in software simulated signals, following the sample population for spatial and mass distributions from a Milky Way population produced by the simulations of [6], with the spatial distribution described in [7]. Since L1 was sensitive to sources at a distance slightly larger than our galaxy, we added sources from the large and small Magellanic Clouds, treating them as points at their known distances and sky positions. These systems contributed about 11% and 2% of the rate of the simulated signals, respectively. The total number of injected signals totalled more than 5000. The efficiency is also measured as a function of SNR: at each SNR, we measure the number of simulated sources in our model at the corresponding distance or closer. We measured an efficiency of 80% for $\text{SNR} > 8$, and 53% for $\text{SNR} = 15.9$, of our loudest surviving candidate.

3.3. Upper limit result

In principle, we would like our pipeline to produce some non-zero rate of candidate events as a function of threshold SNR, and compare that with an estimated accidental rate at the same SNR. The background rate can be measured by time-shift analysis, which guarantees that any coincidence is accidental. However, our pipeline did not result in *any* event for which coincidence timing criteria could be applied, making this method for estimating the background impossible. For single detector data, no such reliable estimate of the background can be performed: we just have a list of candidates which we cannot confirm or veto through coincidence. Assuming that the true sources have a Poisson distribution with rate R , then the probability P of observing a signal with $\text{SNR} = \rho$ in a time of observation T , with the efficiency of the detector and method as a function of SNR given by $\epsilon(\rho)$, is $P = 1 - e^{-RT\epsilon(\rho)}$. Given a list of candidate events with maximum $\text{SNR} = \rho_*$, we interpret that with confidence level P , the rate is not larger than $-\ln(1 - P)/\epsilon(\rho_*)T$, or $2.3/\epsilon(\rho_*)T$ for 90% confidence.

Given our largest $\text{SNR} = 15.9$ surviving in the L1-only pipeline, our measured efficiency $\epsilon(\rho = 15.9) = 0.53$ to the simulated population, and our runtime $T = 236$ h, we obtain a rate $R \leq 161$ events/year. If we express the efficiency to sources in our galaxy, comprising 88.5% of the population considered, we obtain an upper limit on the rate of 140 events/year/Milky Way equivalent galaxy. We have +14%/−10% uncertainties in the efficiency, mostly due to calibration uncertainties, and 5% uncertainties in the population estimates; we choose to state the obtained upper limit as the higher bound in our rate estimate, or 170 events/year/MWEG.

4. Conclusions

For the first time, we used data from coincident interferometric detectors to look for signals from binary inspiralling neutron star systems. We did not find any signal with $\text{SNR} > 6.5$ while the two LIGO detectors were in operation. We used the data to set upper limits on the possible rates of inspirals in our Galaxy. These are very important successful milestones in the first step towards the data analysis of interferometric data, and we have learned many important lessons from the exercise which we plan to use in the future analysis of science runs.

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