Electromagnetic follow-ups in the era of forecasting gamma-ray bursts

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August 26, 2018

ABSTRACT

The detection of gravitational waves from the binary neutron star inspiral-merger event GW170817 and the subsequent extended electromagnetic follow-up observations of the resulting kilonova gave us a small taste of multi-messenger astronomy across the spectra of *two* fundamentally different kinds of radiation. The opportunities to conduct such multi-disciplinary study will increase by two orders of magnitude in the 2030s with Einstein Telescope, LIGO's European successor. Due to its extreme sensitivity in the $1 - 10$ Hz regime, the Einstein Telescope's C configuration (ET-C) will be capable of detecting inspiralling binary neutron star systems out to luminosity distances of 1 Gpc. For inspirals within half of this distance ET-C will accumulate signal-to-noise ratios of $\gtrsim 15$ with more than an hour left to merger. However, the localization of ET alone is rather poor: within $z = 0.1$ we expect to have ~ 5 BNSs to be localized to $\Delta\Omega \lesssim 10\,\mathrm{deg}^2$. On the other hand, a second less sensitive gravitational-wave detector (such as future KAGRA) would increase the number of well-localized sources to $O(100)$. Thus it is imperative to have at least one companion detector to ET with significantly improved seismic isolation in the 2030s. Having numerous GW sources localized to $\sim 10\,\mathrm{deg}^2$ opens the possibility of doing detailed follow-up observations of the resulting kilonovae with ATHENA, LSST, BlackGEM ... Here we explore this intriguing possibility... Thus, this letter is an appeal/plea(?) to the astronomy community to have in place ...

Key words. gravitational waves –gamma-ray bursts – kilonovae

1. Introduction

Gravitational waves offer a unique insight into some of the most extreme physical processes in the Universe - including the merger of black holes (BH) and neutron stars (NS), and the first seconds of core-collapse supernovae explosions.

With the first direct detection of gravitational waves (GWs) in 2015 by the Advanced Laser Interferometer Gravitational-Wave Observatory (Advanced LIGO; Abbott et al. 2016c), gravitational wave astronomy moved from prospect to reality. The first GW source observed by Advanced LIGO, GW150914, matched the signal predicted for the merger of two black holes with masses 36 and 29 $M_\odot$. Along with being the first direct detection of GWs, GW150914 was also the first detection of such heavy black holes, which had significantly larger masses compared to those measured for Galactic high mass x-ray binaries. Such massive black holes provide an interesting constraint on stellar evolutionary channels at low metallicity (e.g. Abbott et al. 2016a; Belczynski et al. 2016). While no electromagnetic counterpart is generally expected to accompany the merger of two black holes, an intensive multi-wavelength search of the probable location of GW150914 was carried out (Abbott et al. 2016b). Despite yielding a null result, this effort served as a rehearsal in preparation for searches for counterparts to GW sources that *are* expected to be accompanied by an electromagnetic (EM) source.

Only two years after the first detection of merging black holes by Advanced LIGO, both Advanced LIGO and the Virgo gravitational wave observatories detected GW170817, with waveform consistent with the merger of two neutron stars (Abbott et al. 2017b). A spatially and temporally coincident short Gamma Ray Burst (GRB) was also seen by the *Fermi* and *INTEGRAL* satellites (Abbott et al. 2017a). This discovery sparked a global effort to find the counterpart of GW170817 at optical wavelengths, which resulted in the identification of AT2017gfo less that 11 hours later (Abbott et al. 2017c). AT2017gfo faded exceptionally rapidly, and displayed cool temperatures and lines from unusual r-process elements at exceptionally high velocities (Smartt et al. 2017; Arcavi et al. 2017; Pian et al. 2017; Coulter et al. 2017; Kilpatrick et al. 2017). These characteristics marked AT2017gfo as a kilonova; a transient powered by the radioactive decay of short-lived nuclides formed in the merger of two neutron stars.

MF: Something about astrophysical significance of GW detections here. Cosmology. Localising KNe means we can study emission as a function of viewing angle - need large samples for this. Measurement of KN rate - need to get z?

The identification of AT2017gfo as the counterpart to GW170817 was realised by the ability of Advanced LIGO-Virgo to localise the GW signal to ~30 deg^2. In addition, at only 40 Mpc, GW170817 was exceptionally close. This enabled the EM counterpart to be identified through targeted observations of galaxies which were at this distance within the GW localisation region (Coulter et al. 2017). Unfortunately such a strategy is only feasible for the nearest GW sources, and rapidly becomes unfeasible beyond $\sim 100 - 200$ Mpc, both as the number of galax-

ies within the search volume increases, and as the fraction of galaxies with reliable redshifts decreases. This embarrassment of riches becomes a serious obstacle for identifying EM counterparts to GW transients in the 2030s with Einstein Telescope becoming operational (Abernathy et al. 2011).

Einstein Telescope will be sensitive enough to "pick up" GW sources at a few Hz thanks to its cryogenic design and underground housing which will shield it from low-frequency contaminants such as seismic and gravity-gradient noises. Moreover, ET will consist of three V-shaped interferometers which eliminate blind spots and further allow it to construct a null stream (Sathyaprakash et al. 2012) which can be used to veto spurious events (Wen & Schutz 2005). Additionally, ET will be a xylophone (**cite?**), i.e., a multi-band detector capable of delivering high sensitivities both at low frequencies ($\sim 5\,\text{Hz}$) and high frequencies ($\sim 100\,\text{Hz}$). Here, we focus on the C configuration (ET-C) which offers the highest low-frequency sensitivity as shown in Fig. 1. ET-C will detect $\gtrsim O(10^3)$ BNS inspirals per year out to 1000Mpc with SNRs $\gtrsim 30$ (Akcay 2018). A subset of these sources will be close enough that they will be detected a few hours before their respective mergers (Akcay 2018), hence opening up the possibility of alerting EM observatories to conduct follow-up observations *before, during* and after the prompt gamma-ray bursts. Additionally, ET-C will forecast a few yearly potential tidal disruption events in which a neutron star gets tidally torn by a $\sim 5 M_\odot$, high-spin black hole companion.

To fully exploit the prospect of multi-messenger astronomy, a number of wide-field survey telescopes are either operational, in commissioning, or under construction. Foremost among these is the Large Synoptic Survey Telescope (LSST; LSST Science Collaboration et al. 2009), which has an 8.4 m primary mirror, and will image 3.5 deg^2 in a single pointing. Construction of LSST is well underway, and the telescope is expected to begin full survey operations at the start of 2023. Apart from LSST, the majority of current and next-generation survey telescopes have a relatively small mirror, but a large camera, and are designed to observe $\sim 10 - 50$ sq degrees in a single pointing to a limiting magnitude of $\sim 20 - 22$. ZTF (Bellm 2014), GOTO (Dyer et al. 2018) and ATLAS (Tonry 2011) are all currently operational at present, while BlackGEM is currently under construction (Bloemen et al. 2016).

Discuss search strategies discussed in literature - e.g. weighting by galaxy mass etc. Bottleneck is spectroscopic classification.

Our aim here is to demonstrate exciting EM follow-up studies that can be done by taking advantage of the early GW warning capability of ET. More specifically we consider binary neutron star inspirals out to luminosity distances of $\sim 600\,\text{Mpc}$, the expected range of LSST. Within this range, ET-C will be able to detect the inspiral GWs a few hours before a given merger thus provide a window of opportunity for mobilizing the EM observatories in time to witness the birth of the associated kilonova. However, in order to fully benefit from ET's early warnings, several issues must be addressed: (i) ET's poor localisation by itself, (ii) large number of supernovae creating a confusion background, (iii) the slow response time of certain EM observatories essential to follow-up such as ATHENA, BLACKGEM **Antonio, Morgan, is this right?** Here, we consider each of these setbacks and suggest solutions which require support from the global astronomy community.

This letter is organized as follows: Sec. 3 provides more details on ET, Sec. 3 investigates the implications of optical follow-up. Sec. 4 ... We use f to denote the quadrupole GW frequency

in the detector frame. c is the speed of light and G is Newton's constant.

2. Einstein Telescope

In this section, we want to compute advanced warning times (T_{AW}) ET will provide. To this end, consider a BNS system with component masses m_1, m_2 inspiraling at a luminosity distance D with a corresponding redshift z. For GW frequencies of interest to us here ($f \lesssim 10\,\text{Hz}$), the binary is undergoing an adiabatic inspiral dominated by the emission of leading-order (quadrupole) gravitational radiation. By balancing the power emission in GWs to the rate of change of binding energy, we obtain the frequency evolution of the GW frequency

$$\dot{f} = \frac{96}{5}\pi^{8/3}\frac{(GM_c)^{5/3}}{c^5}f^{11/3}, \tag{1}$$

where $M_c = (m_1 m_2)^{3/5}(m_1 + m_2)^{-1/5}$ is the chirp mass. After fixing an integration constant, Eq. 1 can be integrated to yield the time left to merger at a given frequency, usually called the inspiral time

$$\tau_{\text{insp}}(f) = \frac{5}{256\pi}\frac{c^5}{(\pi G M_c)^{5/3}}f^{-8/3}$$

$$= 16.72\,\text{minutes}\left(\frac{1.219 M_\odot}{M_c}\right)^{5/3}\left(\frac{10\,\text{Hz}}{f}\right)^{8/3}. \tag{2}$$

This result can be supplemented with a post-Newtonian series up to $O(c^{-7})$ (Blanchet 2014), but the resulting expressions are rather ungainly and only change τ_{insp} by $\lesssim 2\%$.

To obtain T_{AW} we must choose f which necessitates a brief discussion on the effects GWs have on interferometers (IFOs). It is a well known result in general relativity that passing GWs induce a scalar response in a given IFO known as the GW strain, which is a function of GW polarization amplitudes and IFO antenna pattern functions. In frequency domain, the norm of the GW strain is given by $|\tilde{h}(f)| = Ah_0 f^{-7/6}|Q|$, where $A = \pi^{-2/3}(5/24)^{1/2}$, $h_0 = c(1+z)^{-1}\tilde{M}^{5/6}/D$ with $\tilde{M} = G(1+z)M_c c^{-3}$ and Q is the IFO quality factor which is a function of source sky location angles (θ, ϕ), its inclination ι, and the relative detector-source polarization angle ψ.

The IFO response to a GW strain is quantified in terms of a signal-to-noise ratio (SNR), which for a detector with triangular topology like ET, reads

$$\rho_{\text{ET}} = \frac{6}{5}A h_0 (1+z)^{-1/6}\left[\int_{f_0}^{f_{\text{ISCO}}}df\,\frac{f^{-7/3}}{S_n(f)}\right]^{1/2}, \tag{3}$$

where f_{ISCO} is the frequency at which the inspiral transitions to a mutual plunge. Here, we use the standard approximation $f_{\text{ISCO}} \approx \frac{c^3}{6^{3/2}\pi G(m_1+m_2)} \simeq 1571\left(\frac{2.8 M_\odot}{m_1+m_2}\right)\text{Hz}$. The factor of $6/5$ in Eq. (3) is due to a RMS-averaging over the angles $\{\theta, \phi, \iota, \psi\}$. For each BNS source, this factor may vary by $\approx \pm 30\%$, but will always be > 0 thanks to ET not having any blind spots.

Table 1. Horizon distances of ET-B and ET-C assuming $T_{AW} = 1$ hour. $R(D_H)$ is the BNS merger rate within a volume of D_H^3 obtained by rescaling the rate inferred from Advanced LIGO's O1, O2 observing periods citeGW170817. $\bar{\rho}_F(D_H)$ is the total SNR accumulated due to a BNS inspiralling at D_H [see Eq. ()].

	ET-B	ET-C
D_H	87 Mpc	613 Mpc
$R(D_H)$	1^{+2}_{-1} yr^{-1}	355^{+730}_{-280} yr^{-1}
$\bar{\rho}_F(D_H)$	420	58

3. Implications for optical followup of GW detections

Identifying an optical or NIR counterpart to a GW is an observational challenge. If a GW is only localised to tens, or even hundreds of square degrees, then we must survey a large area of the sky to find an EM counterpart. While large format CCDs make taking imaging of an area of ~100 sq degrees relatively straightforward, we must identify our EM counterpart of interest among the many unrelated astrophysical transients that we expect by chance within the same area. Thus far, this has relied upon large scale efforts to spectroscopically classify credible candidates that are found within the sky localisation of a GW. As an example, for the BH merger GW151226, Smartt et al. (2016) found 49 candidate transients within 290 deg^2, and obtained spectra for 20 of these. While such a survey strategy is the only feasible approach at present, it is clearly an inefficient use of scarce telescope time.

The early warning obtained for future GW events discussed in Sect. offers an alternative approach for finding EM counterparts. In brief, if we can detect a GW with ~1 hr advance warning, and can localise it to ~50 deg^2, then we can obtain imaging of this area both immediately prior to, and after, the merger happens. Since the merger will be the only thing that has changed over such a short period of time, identifying an EM counterpart in difference imaging becomes straightforward.

Morgan: I would suggest repeating this for ~10 deg^2 localisation as well

3.1. The rates and nature of contaminants

There are broadly three classes of contaminants that we must consider when searching for EM counterparts to GW; stellar variables and flares such as cataclysmic variables; variability in Active Galactic Nucleii (AGN); and supernovae. The first class of contaminants show a strong dependence on Galactic latitude (Drake et al. 2014), and are concentrated in the disk of the Milky Way. In addition, for at least some CV outbursts

AGN can often be identified through their historical lightcurves, which may show previous variability. Given the relatively straightforward removal of stellar and AGN contaminants, we are left with SNe as the dominant contaminant. Three quarters of SN are SNe Ia in a mag limited survey (cf LOSS). Also, this is borne out by the experience of Smartt et al. (2016), where they found...

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Table 2. Forecasting capabilities of Einstein Telescope summarized. ET-B and ET-C refer to the different configurations shown in Fig. . For the advance warning times, we only present the result of the more accurate 3.5PN computation. $\bar{f}_{ET}$ is the threshold frequency at which ET-B/C accumulate SNR of 15 which we take to be our detection criterion. Note that both T_{AW} and $\bar{\rho}_F$ are larger for ET-C due to its improved sensitivity in the 1 Hz $\lesssim f \lesssim$ 30 Hz regime compared to ET-B as is clear in Fig. . These results and those of Table. are summarized in Fig.

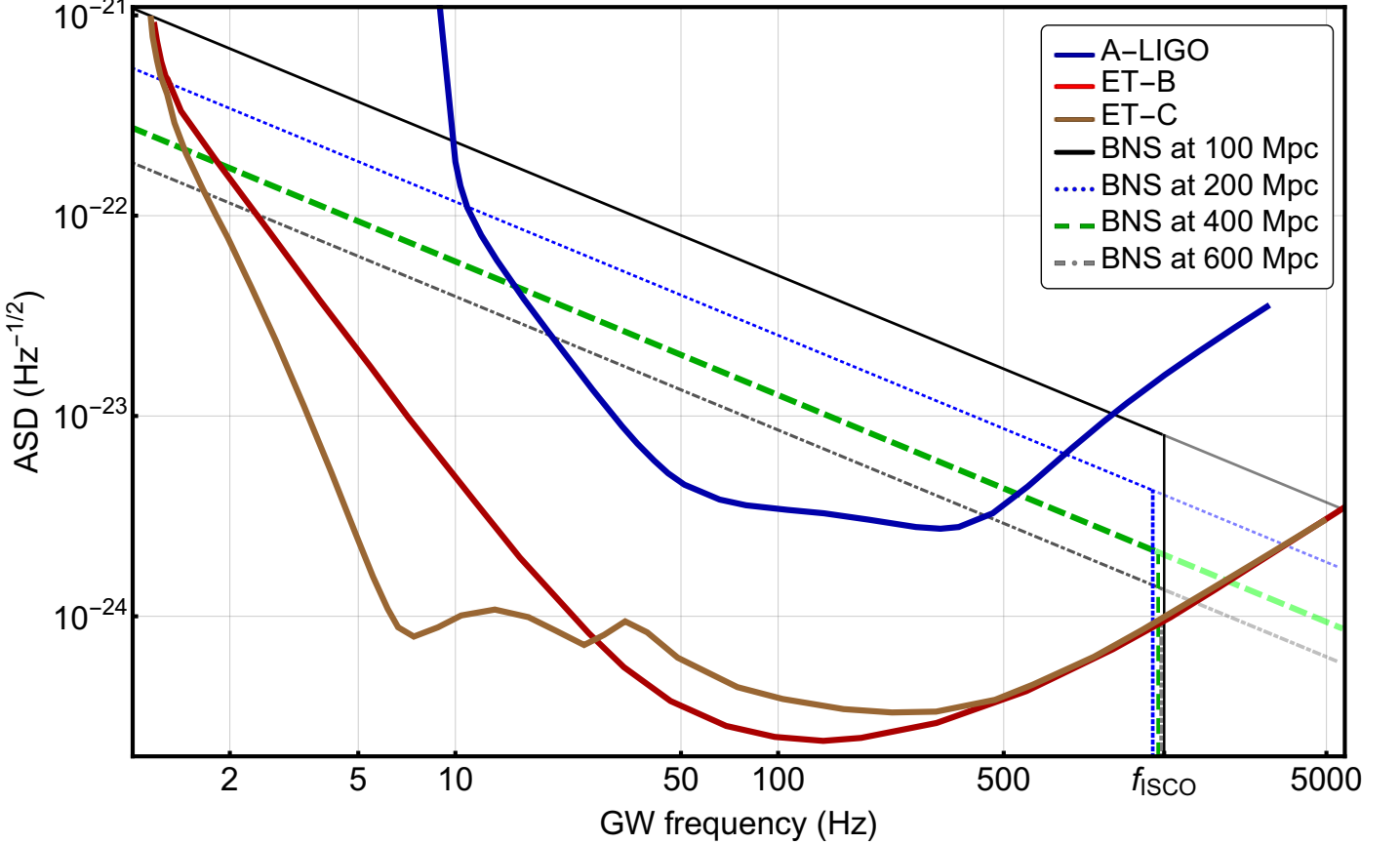| D (Mpc)	ET-B			ET-C		
	$\bar{f}_{ET}$ (Hz)	T_{AW}	$\bar{\rho}_F$	$\bar{f}_{ET}$ (Hz)	T_{AW}	$\bar{\rho}_F$
100	≈ 6.72	47.0 minutes	306	≈ 3.27	5.34 hours	365
200	≈ 11.2	11.6 minutes	152	≈ 4.10	2.87 hours	182
400	≈ 18.2	3.00 minutes	75.7	≈ 5.06	1.51 hours	90.5
1000	≈ 41.3	17.2 seconds	29.8	≈ 6.76	35.6 minutes	35.6

Fig. 1. Typical GW sources that may be harbingers of GRBs in the 2030s: $1.4M_\odot - 1.4M_\odot$ inspiralling BNS systems sweeping across the Einstein Telescope's sensitivity band for both B and C configurations. The solid (black), dotted (blue), dashed (green), and dot-dashed lines (gray) lines are the redshift-corrected RMS-averaged strains, $2\sqrt{f}\tilde{H}_{ET}$, at luminosity distances of $D = 100, 200, 400, 1000$ Mpc, respectively. The vertical lines with correspondingly identical patterns (colors) mark the redshifted ISCO frequencies $(1 + z)^{-1} f_{ISCO}$ at which point we terminate each inspiral. As the true ISCO frequency is likely larger than f_{ISCO} citeMarronetti:2003hx, the inspirals would continue to nearly 2 kHz indicated by the faded lines in the plot (drawn to 5 kHz for aesthetic reasons).
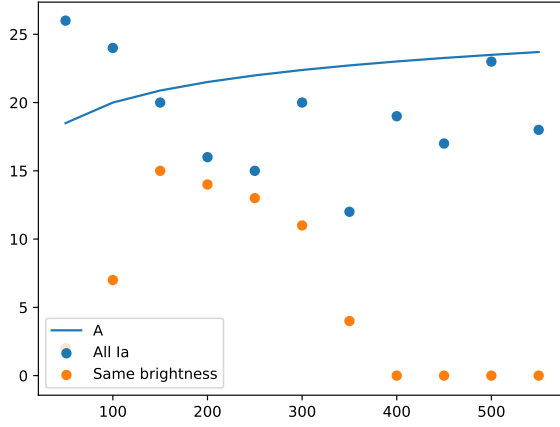
Fig. 2. More or less a placeholder. Number of contaminant SN Ia within our search region as a function of distance...