

Multi-messenger astronomy

Labex

UnivEarthS



Université
de Paris

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LabEx UnivEarthS FALL SCHOOL 2021



Multi-messenger astronomy

Exploring the violent universe: the contribution of space to multi-messenger astronomy

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High-energy astrophysics


Unlike many branches of physics based on elaboration and analysis of experiments, astrophysics is a science of observation, based on the detection and study of messengers sent by celestial bodies

Messengers:

- Electromagnetic radiations (radio to gamma rays)
- Particles (protons, neutrons, electrons, neutrinos, ...)
- Gravitational waves

Observables:

- Direction of arrival
- Energy
- Time of arrival
- Flux



**Nature of cosmic sources:
formation, evolution and
physical processes at play**

High-Energy sources: sites where extreme physical conditions prevail: intense gravity fields, very high temperatures, strong magnetic fields, ...

A. Introduction to multi-messenger astronomy

1. Astrophysical objects
2. From radio to gamma-rays: multi-wavelength astronomy (emission processes and instruments)
3. Multi-messenger astronomy: cosmic rays, neutrinos, gravitational waves

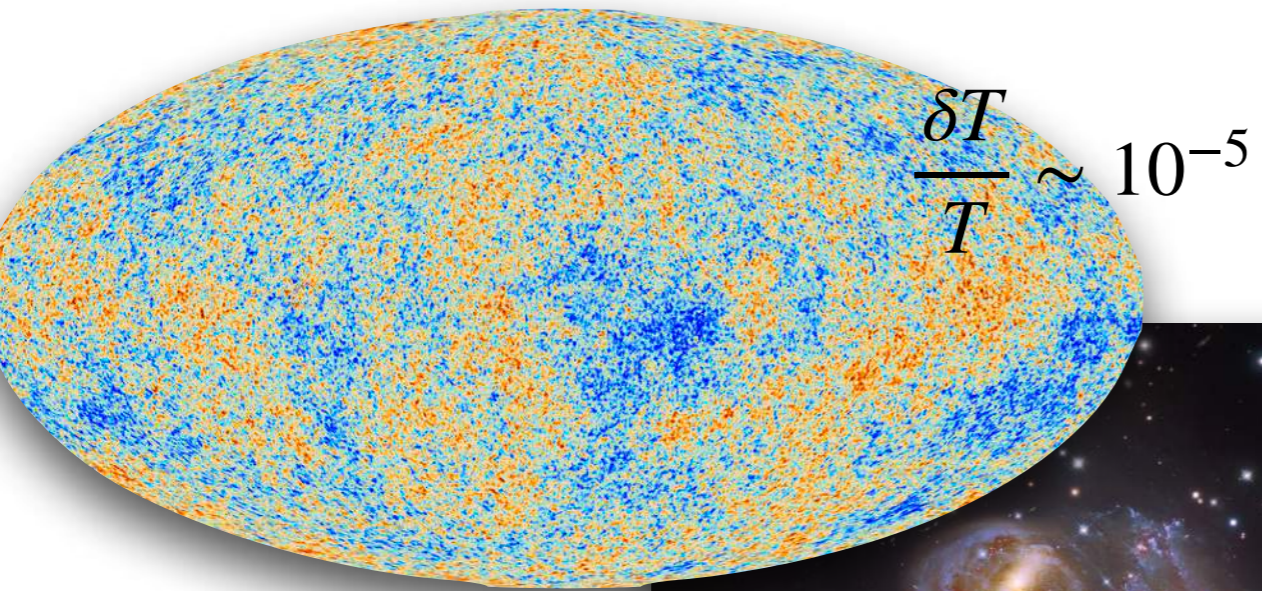
B. End point of massive star evolution

1. Evolution of massive stars
2. Gamma-ray bursts
3. The *SVOM* space mission

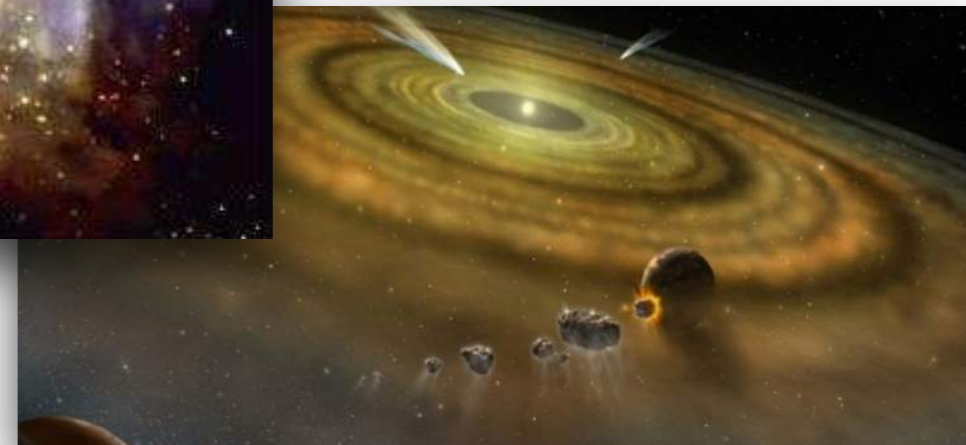
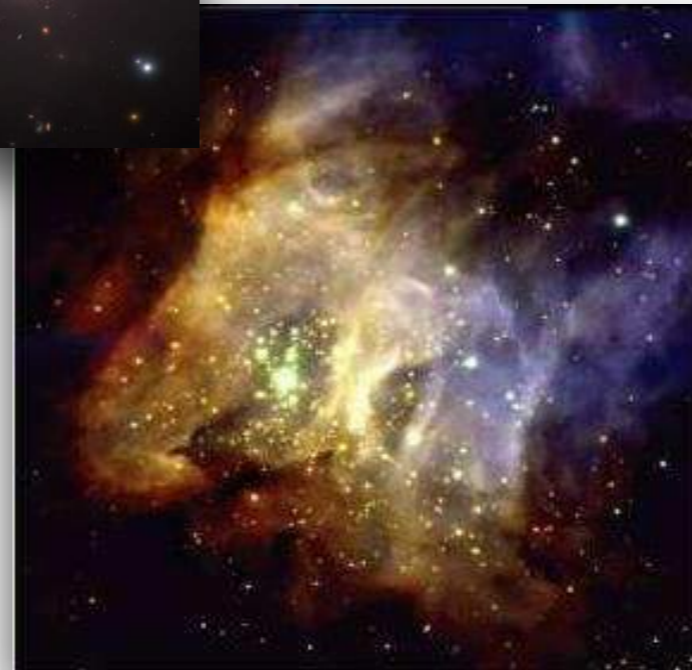
C. Supermassive black holes

1. Supermassive black hole formation and evolution
2. Cosmic rays from Active Galactic Nuclei
3. Supermassive black hole binaries

Structuration of the Universe

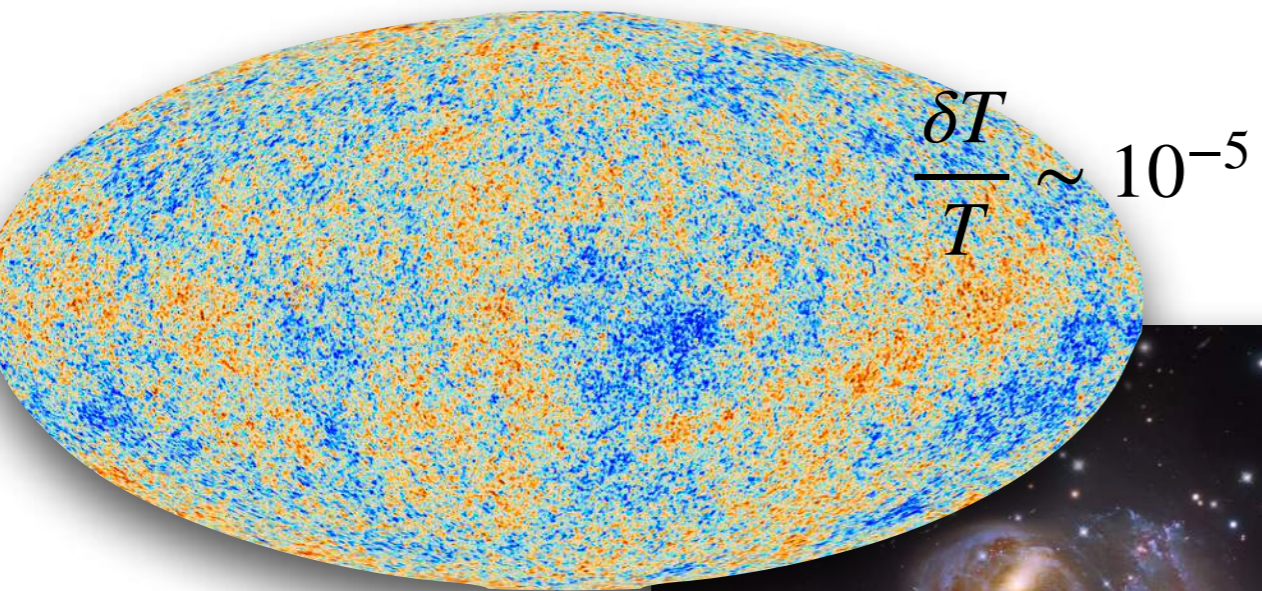


High-energy objects are actors of the evolution of the Universe



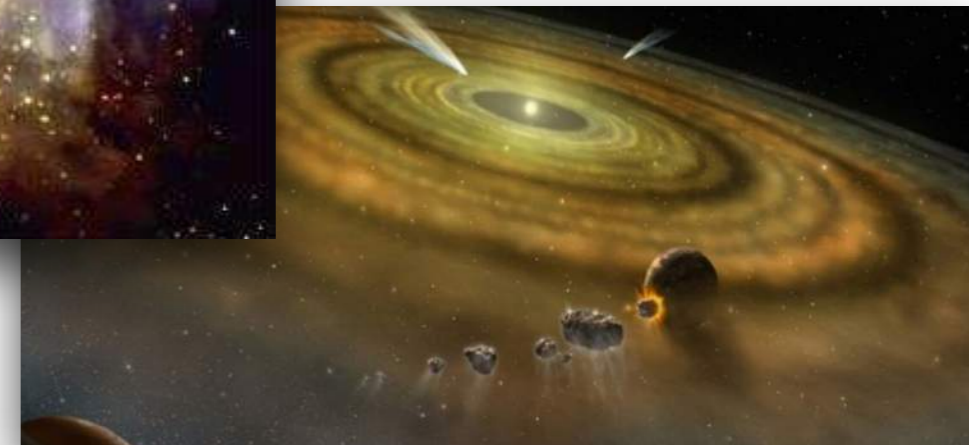
13.8 billions yr
Expansion, gravitation,
cooling

Structuration of the Universe



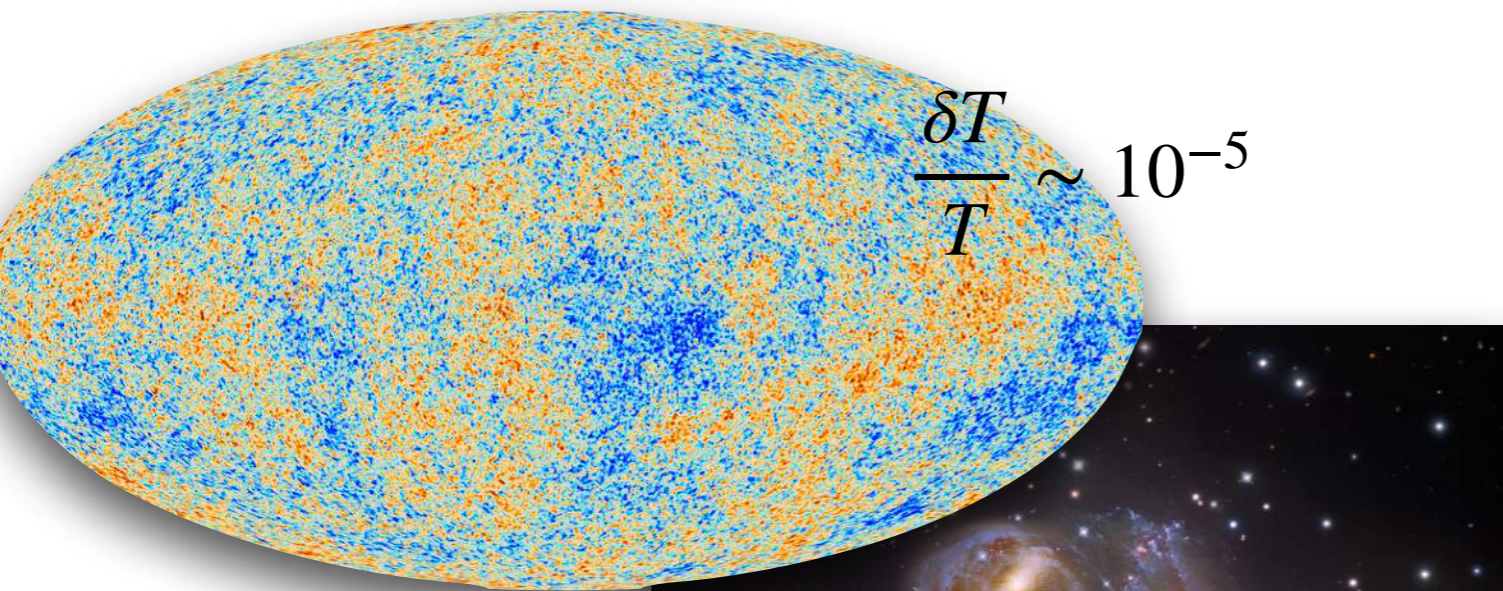
High-energy objects are actors of the evolution of the Universe

- Increase the disorder \Rightarrow prevent the Universe from evolving too fast



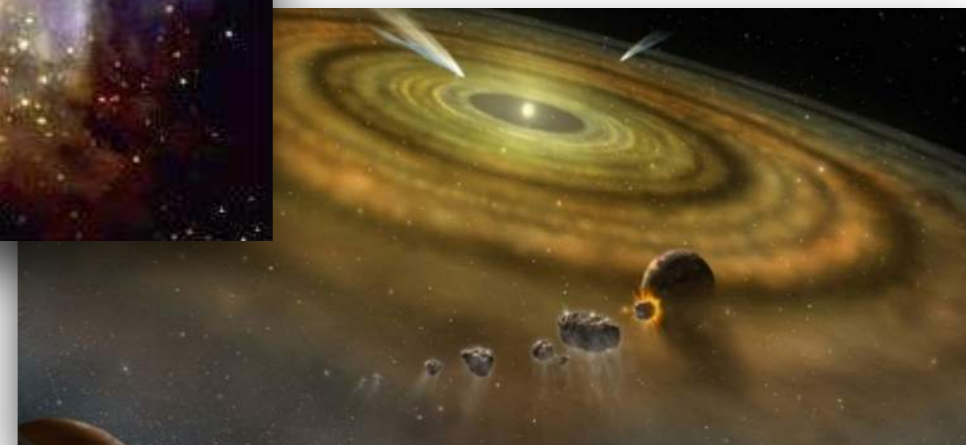
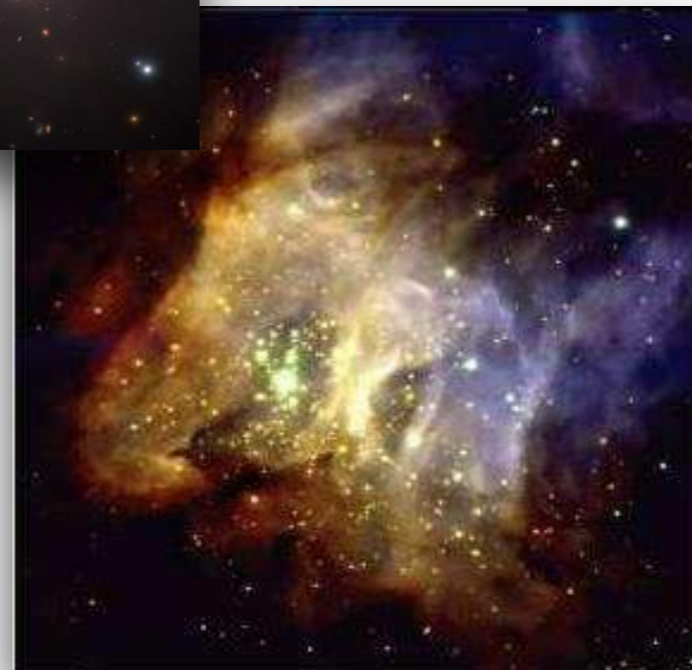
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Structuration of the Universe



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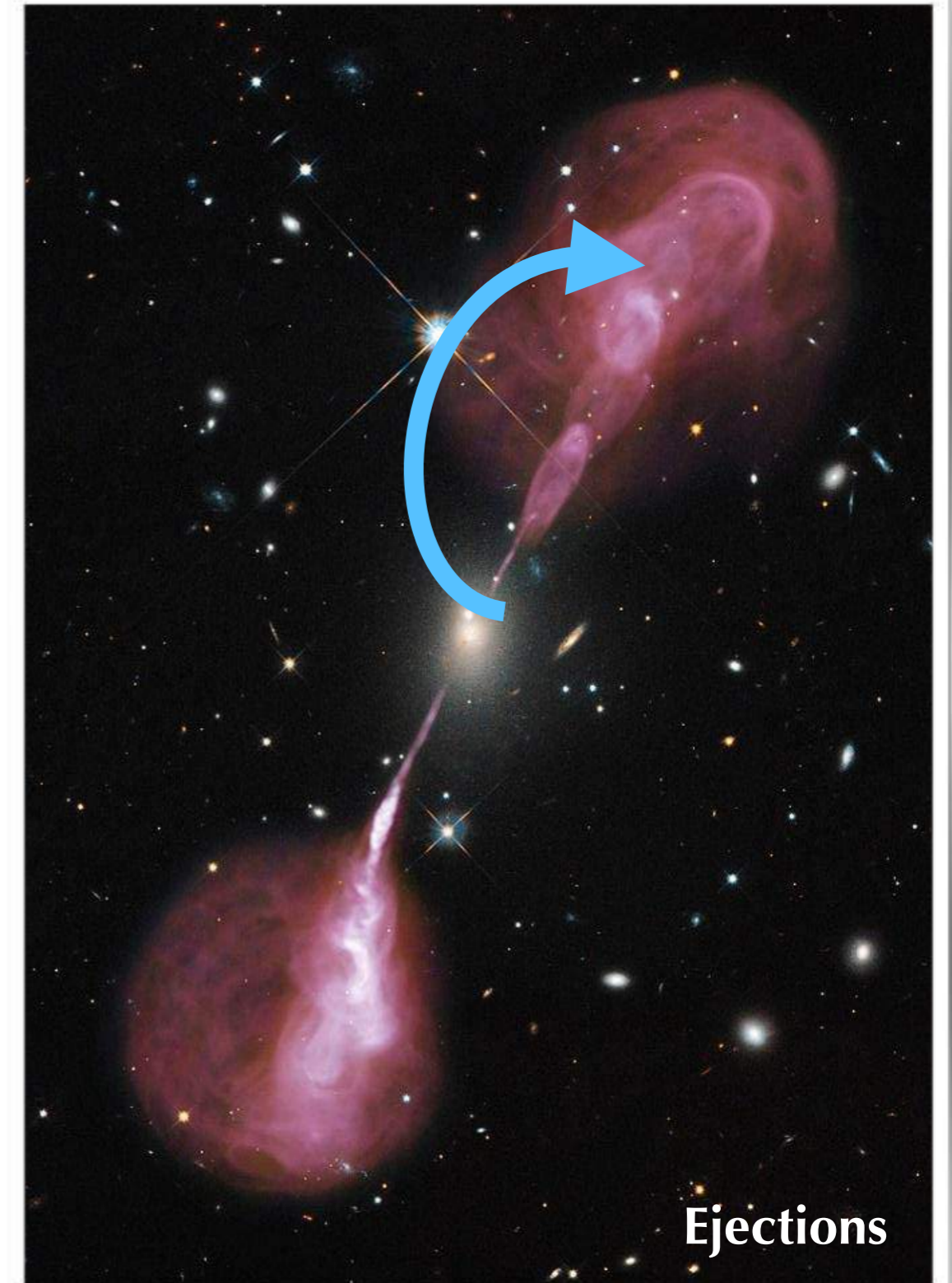
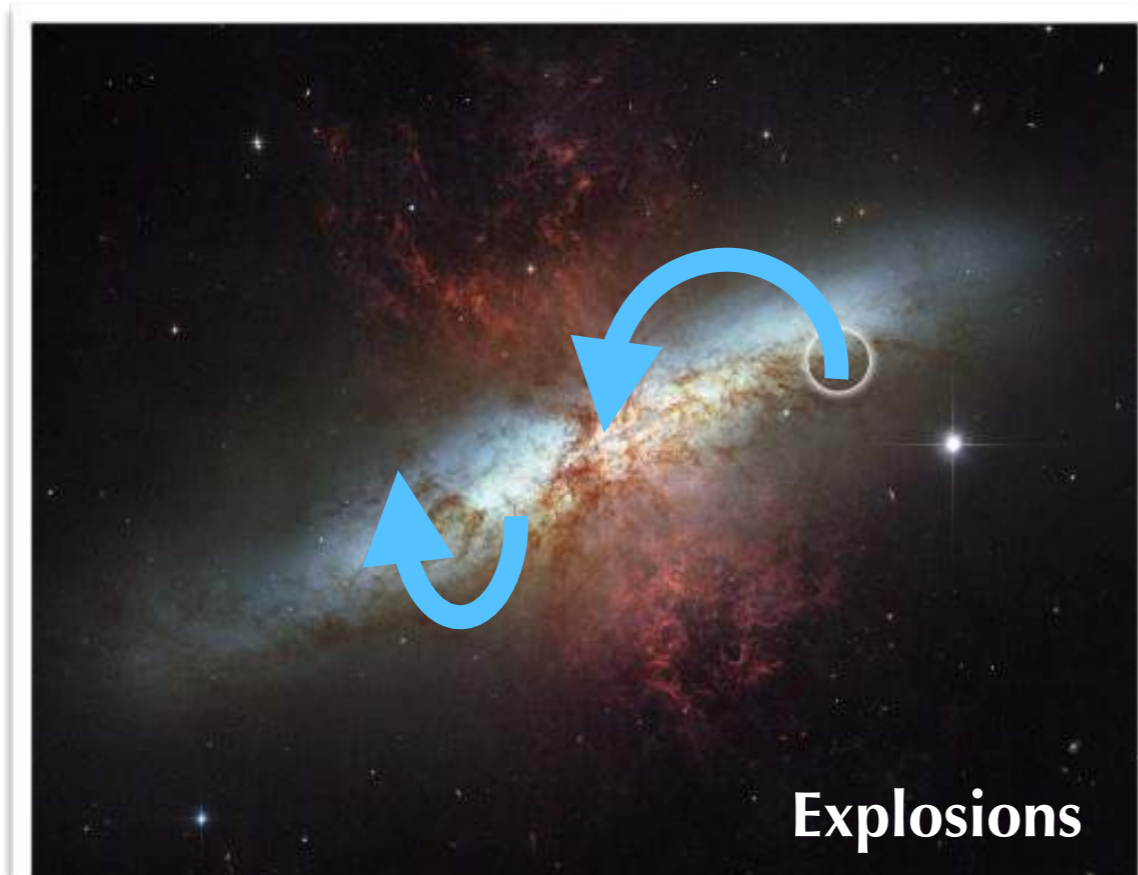
- Increase the disorder \Rightarrow prevent the Universe from evolving too fast
- Chemical elements abundance



13.8 billions yr
Expansion, gravitation,
cooling

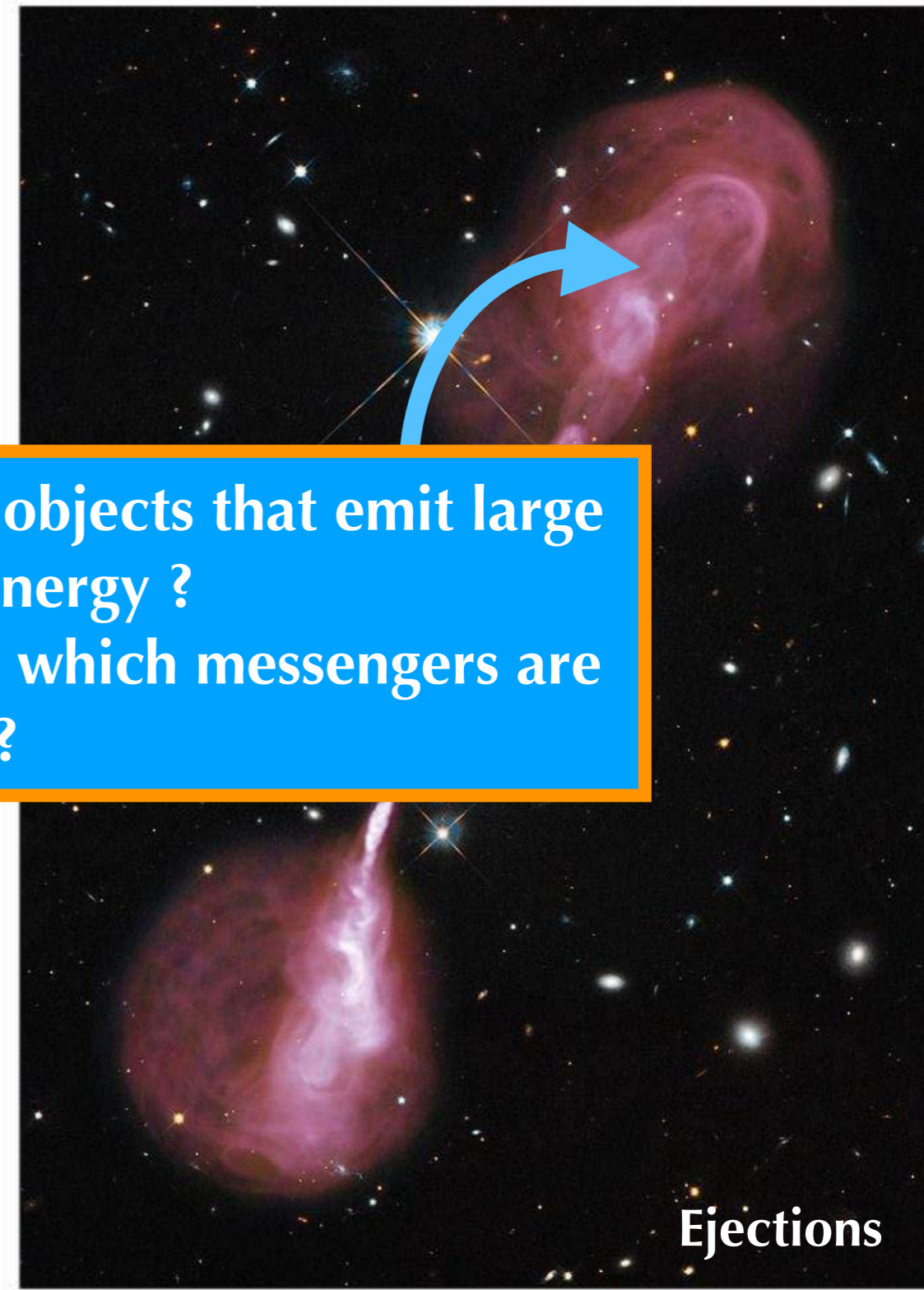
High energy processes

Physical processes taking the energy at small scale and redistribute it at larger scale



High energy processes

Physical processes taking the energy at small scale and redistribute it at larger scale



- What are the astrophysical objects that emit large amount of energy ?
- How do we observe them / which messengers are used ?



Outline - Lecture 1

A. Introduction to multi-messenger astronomy

1. Astrophysical objects

2. From radio to gamma-rays: multi-wavelength astronomy (emission processes and instruments)
3. Multi-messenger astronomy: cosmic rays, neutrinos, gravitational waves

Which objects ?

Compacity of an astrophysical source : $\Xi = \frac{GM}{Rc^2}$ (gives the intensity of gravitational field)

Compact objects

| Object | Mass (M_{\odot}) | Radius (km) | Compacity Ξ |
|-------------------------|----------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------|
| Earth | 3×10^{-6} | | 3×10^{-10} |
| Sun | 1 | 696 000 | 2×10^{-6} |
| White dwarf | 0.1 - 4 | 10 000 | $10^{-4} - 10^{-3}$ |
| Neutron star | 1 - 3 | 10 | 0.2 - 0.4 |
| Stellar mass black hole | > 3 | $8.9(M/3M_{\odot})$ | 1 |
| Supermassive black hole | $10^6 - 10^9$ | $20 \text{ AU}(M/10^9M_{\odot})$ | 1 |

High mass + small radius \Rightarrow large Ξ

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Compact objects

$$\text{Gravitational energy} = -\alpha \frac{GM^2}{R} = -\alpha \Xi M c^2 \text{ (with } \alpha \sim 1)$$

Compact objects have large gravitational energy reservoir \Rightarrow can emit large amount of energy by extracting gravitational energy

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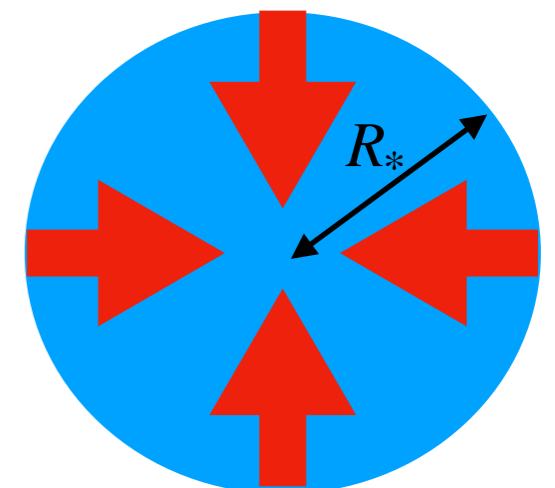
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Gravitational energy can be extracted in at least 2 ways: gravitational collapse and accretion

- **Collapse:** $\Delta E_{collapse} = E_{grav}(R_*) - E_{grav}(R) \approx -E_{grav}(R) \sim \Xi M c^2$



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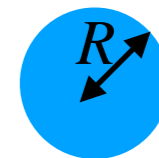
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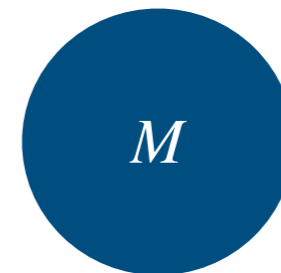
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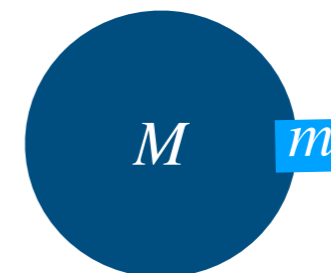
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⇒ The greater Ξ , the more gravitational energy is extracted.

⇒ High-energy phenomena related to compact objects.

Significant amount of energy compared to nuclear fusion of H ($7 \times 10^{-3} mc^2$).

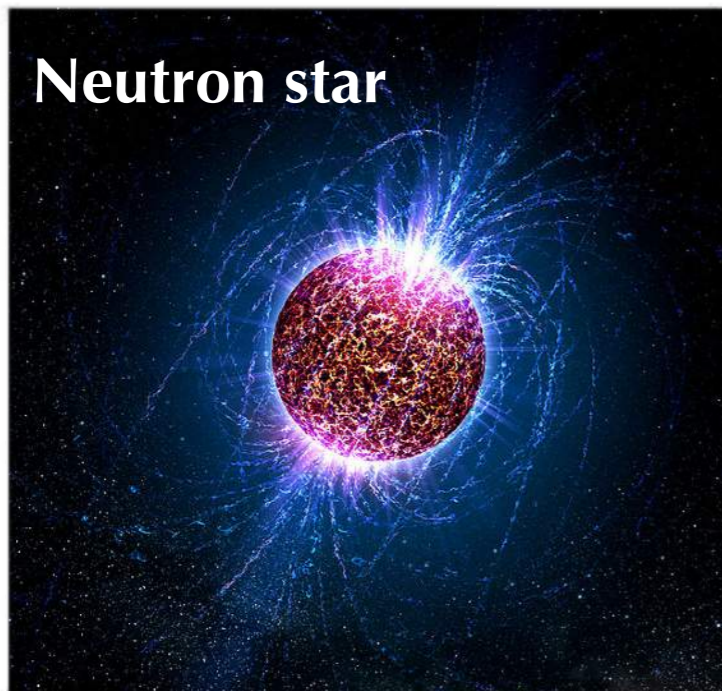
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Compact objects

Neutron star



Stellar mass black hole



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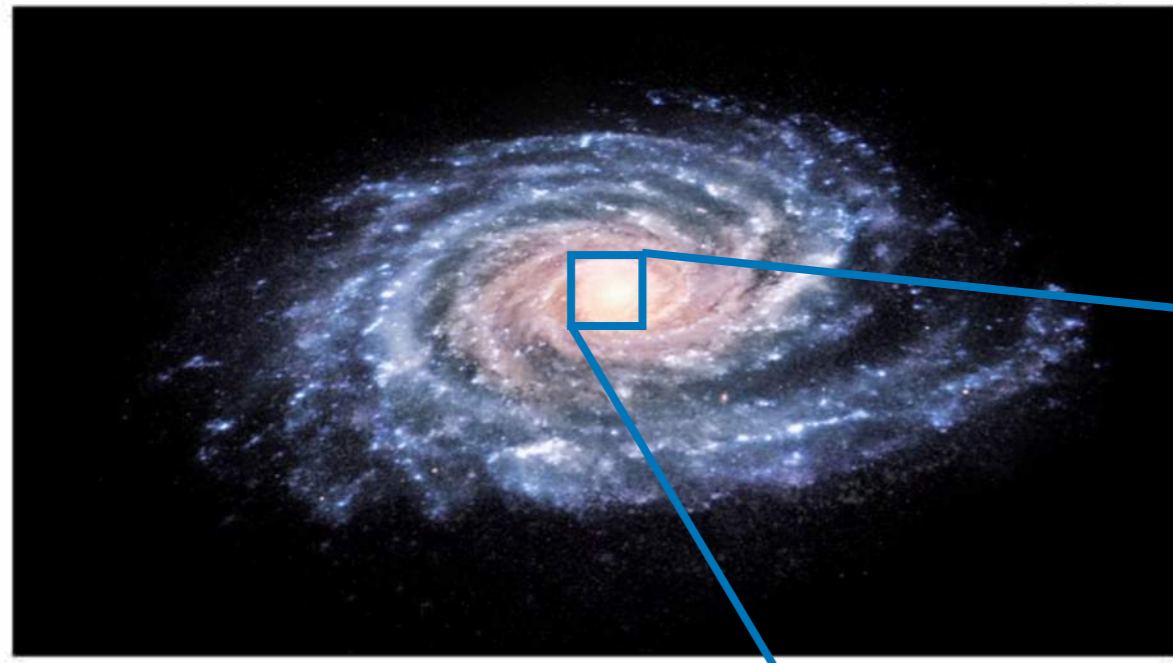
End of life of massive stars
(see lecture 2)

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Which objects ?



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Compac

Supermassive black hole

$10^6 - 10^9$

Gravitational energy = $-\alpha \frac{GM^2}{R} = -\alpha \Xi M c^2$ (with α

Gravitational energy can be extracted in at least 2 way

- Collapse: $\Delta E_{collapse} = E_{grav}(R_*) - E_{grav}(R)$

- Accretion: $\Delta E_c = \frac{GMm}{R} = \Xi m c^2$



Supermassive black hole

Supermassive black holes at the center of each galaxy (see lecture 3)

⇒ The greater Ξ , the more gravitational energy is extracted.

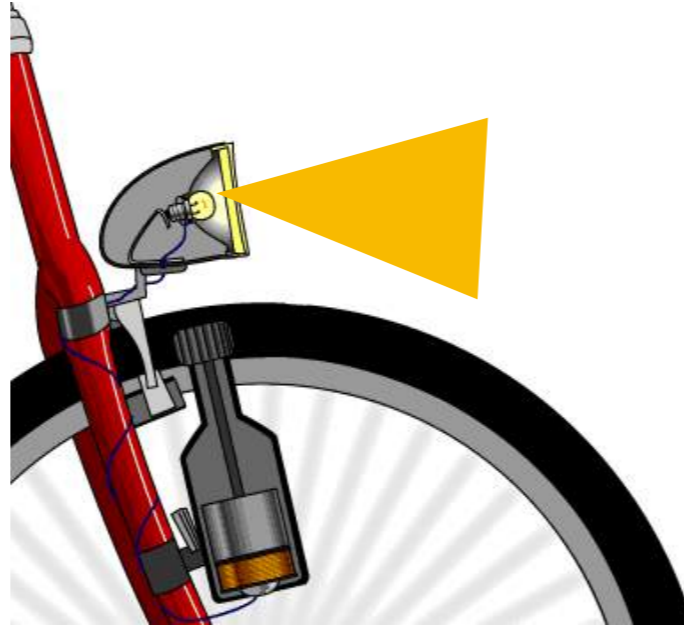
⇒ High-energy phenomena related to compact objects.

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How is the energy extracted ?



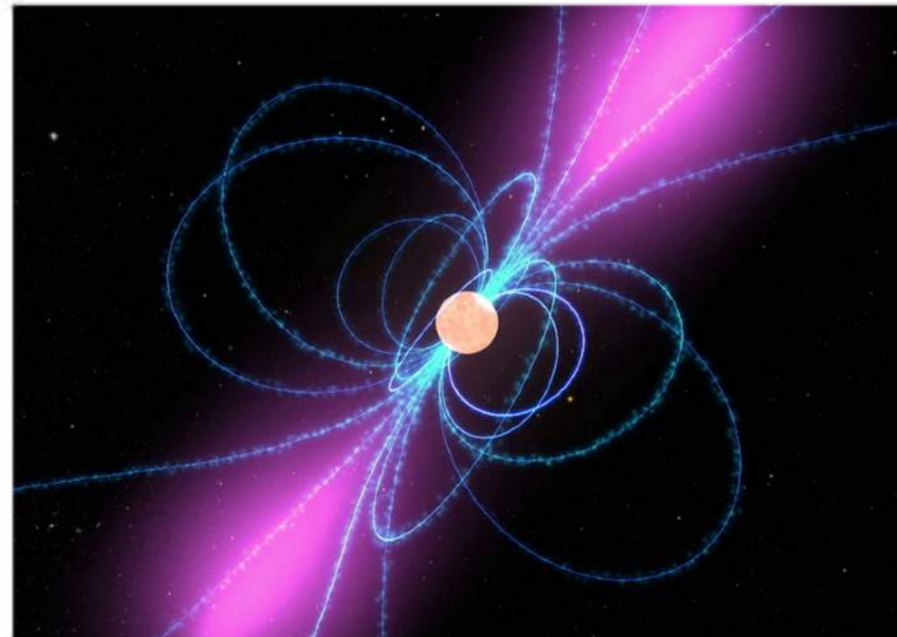
Gravitation



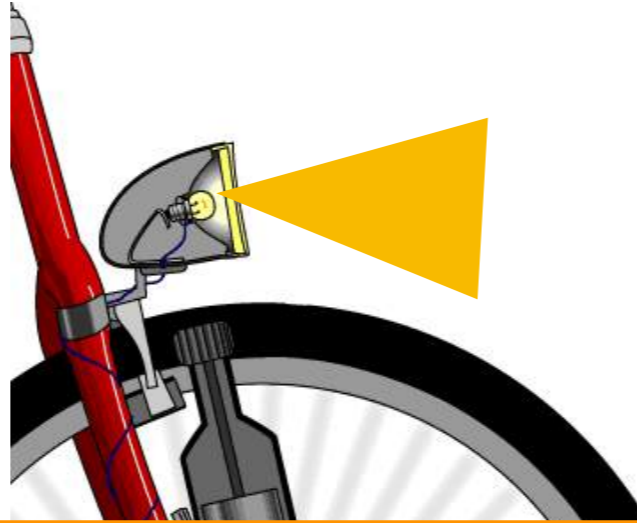
**Dynamo effect
of a rotating magnet**



**Acceleration of charged
particles on a shock wave**



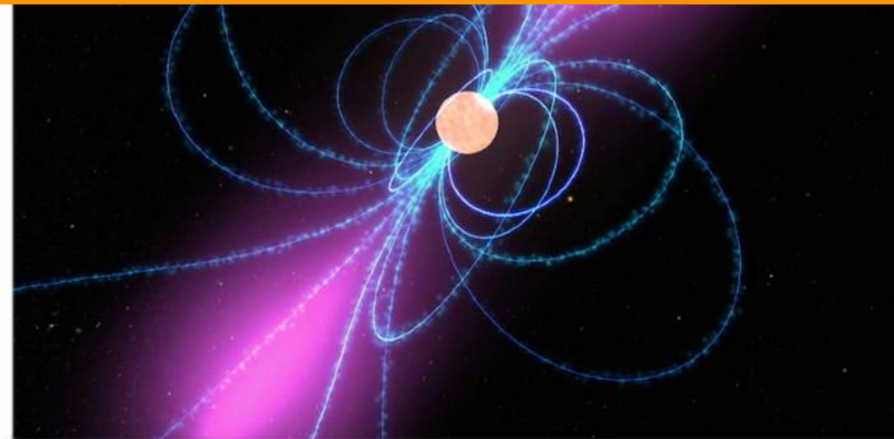
How is the energy extracted ?



Gravitational, rotation and shock energy released through:

- Kinetic energy
- Electromagnetic radiation
- Other messengers: cosmic rays, neutrinos, gravitational waves.

charged
shock wave



Outline - Lecture 1

A. Introduction to multi-messenger astronomy

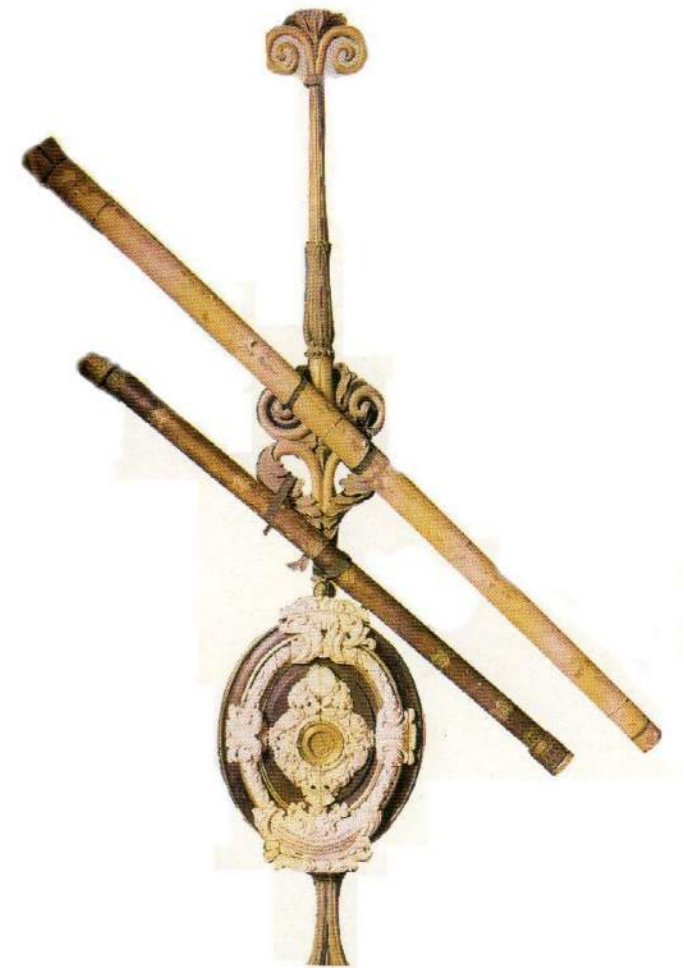
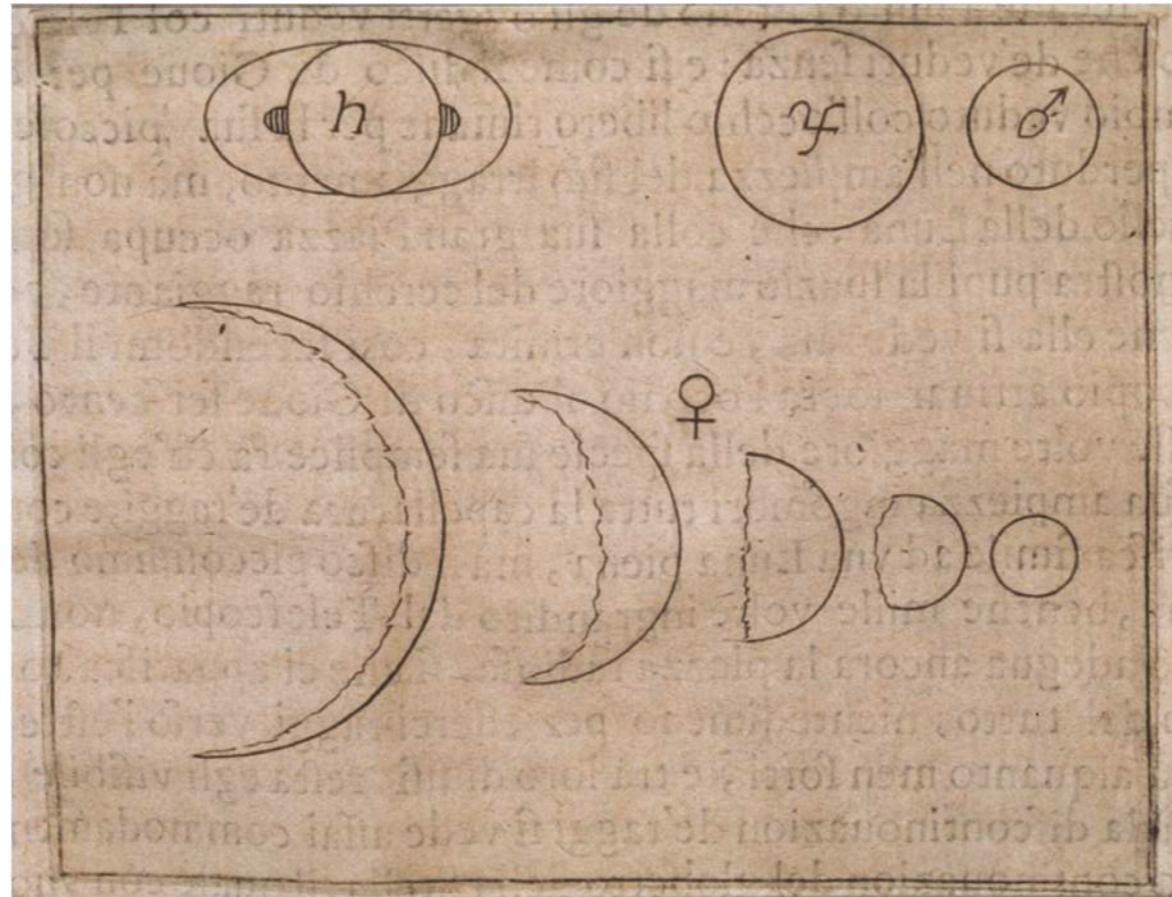
1. Astrophysical objects

**2. From radio to gamma-rays: multi-wavelength astronomy
(emission processes and instruments)**

3. Multi-messenger astronomy: cosmic rays, neutrinos,
gravitational waves

Observational techniques

Progresses in observational astronomy are always strongly linked to the opening of a new window on the universe.



Galileo

Confirmed heliocentric model

1609

1700

1800

1900

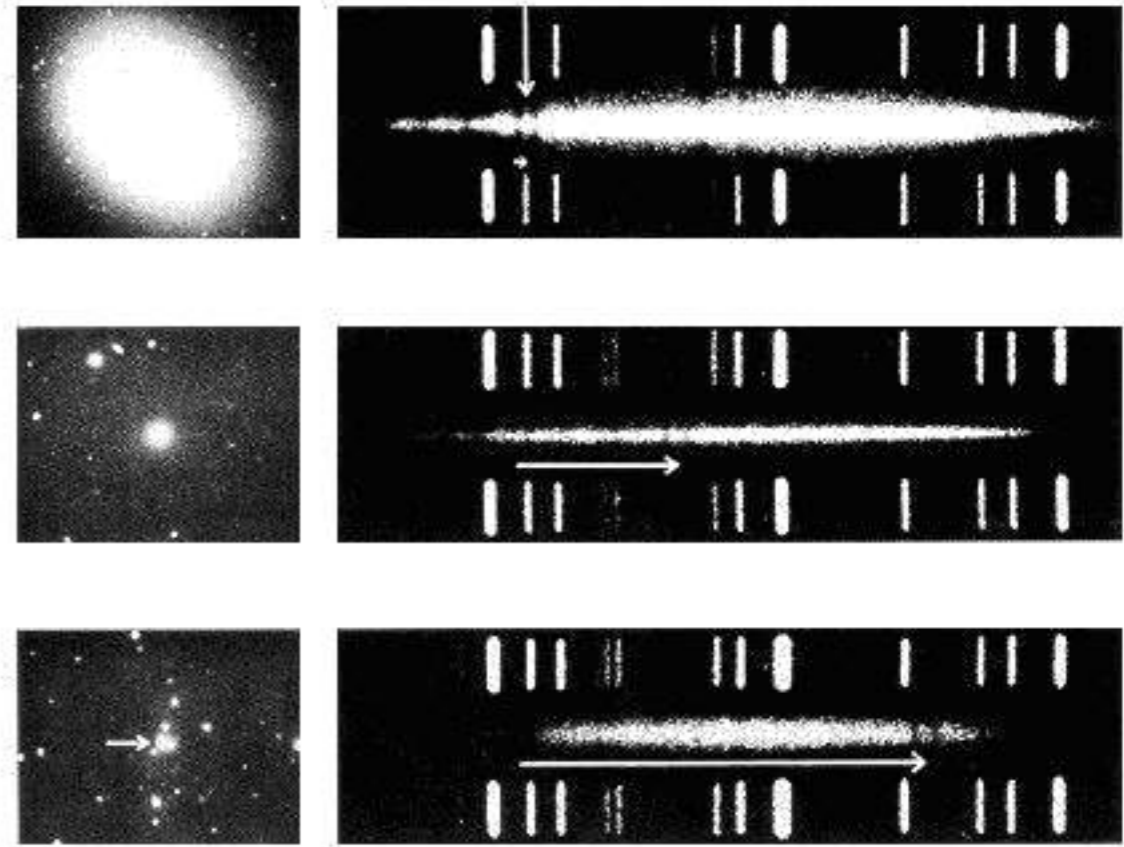
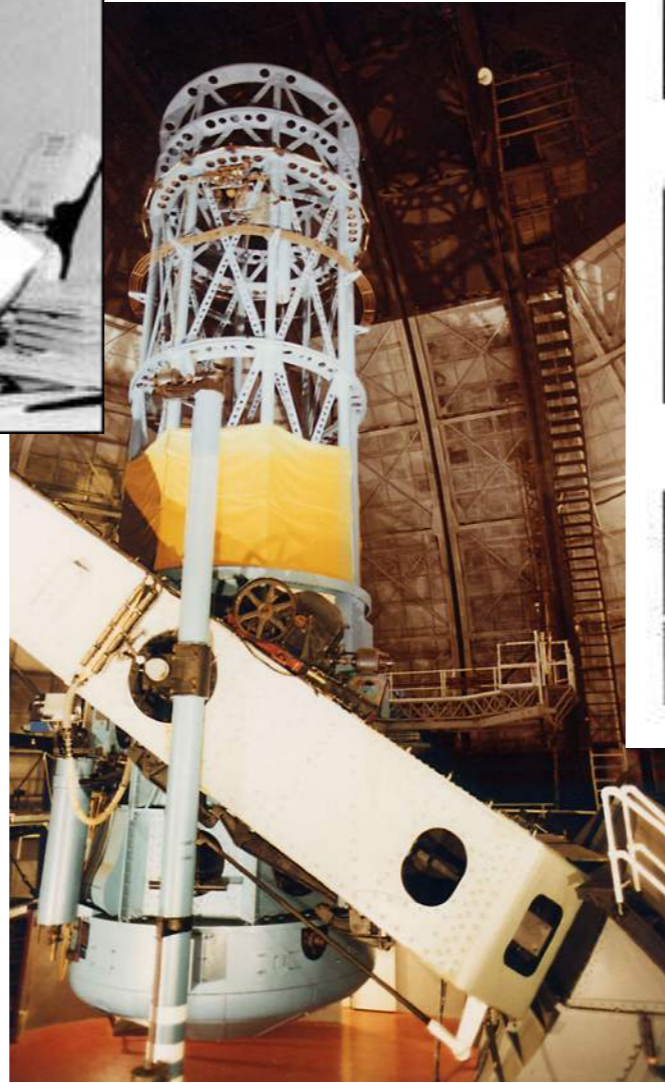
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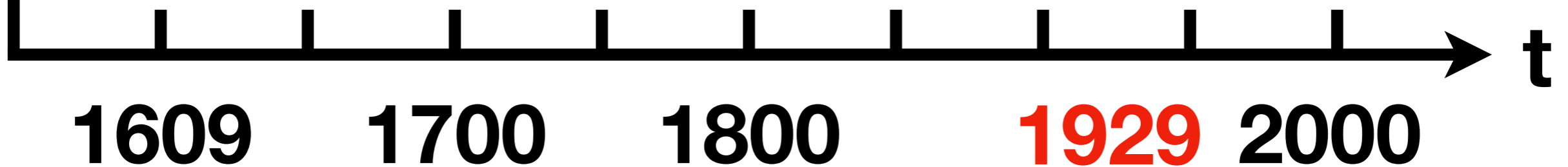
Observational techniques



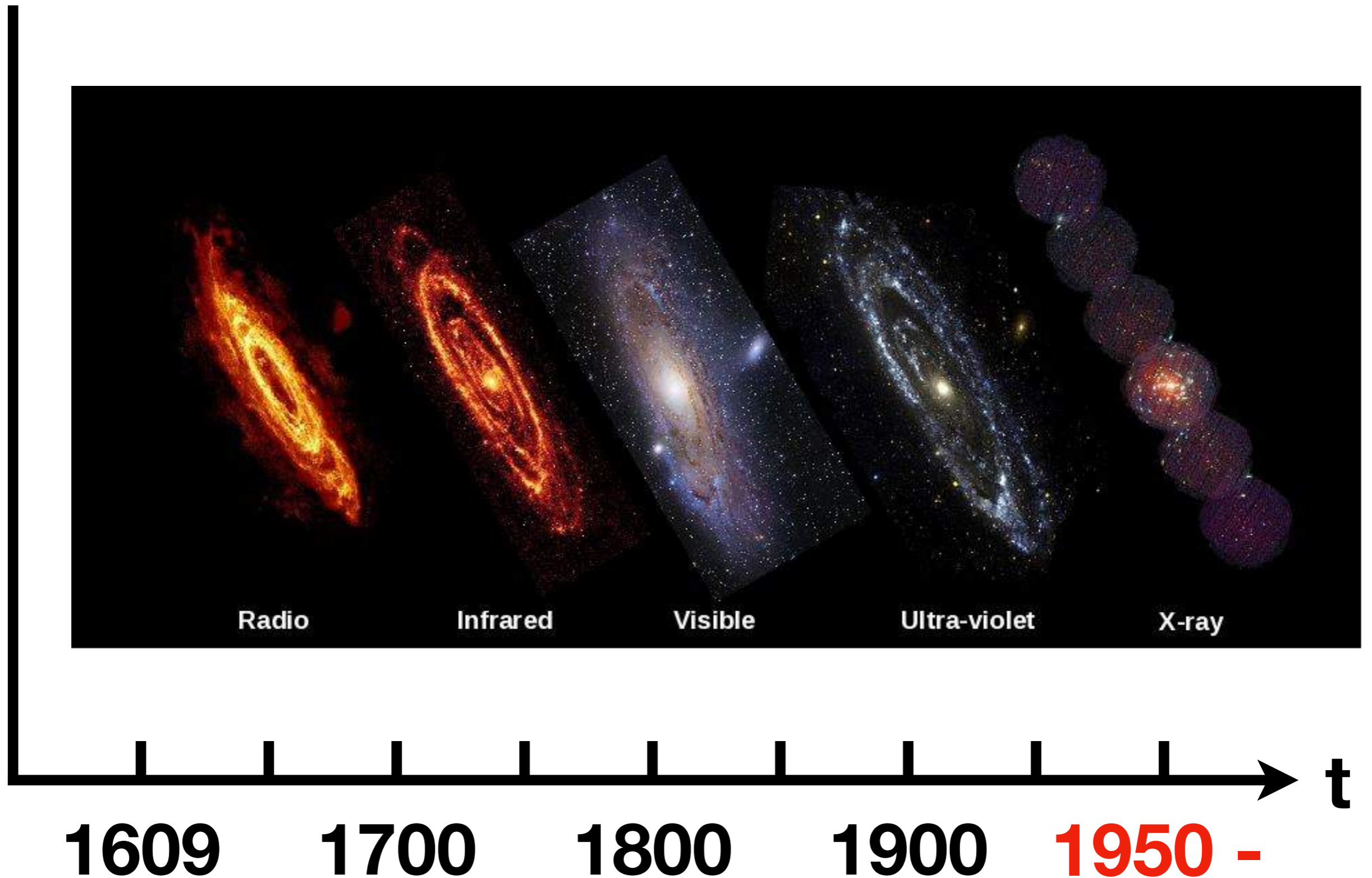
Hubble



Galaxies + expansion of
the Universe

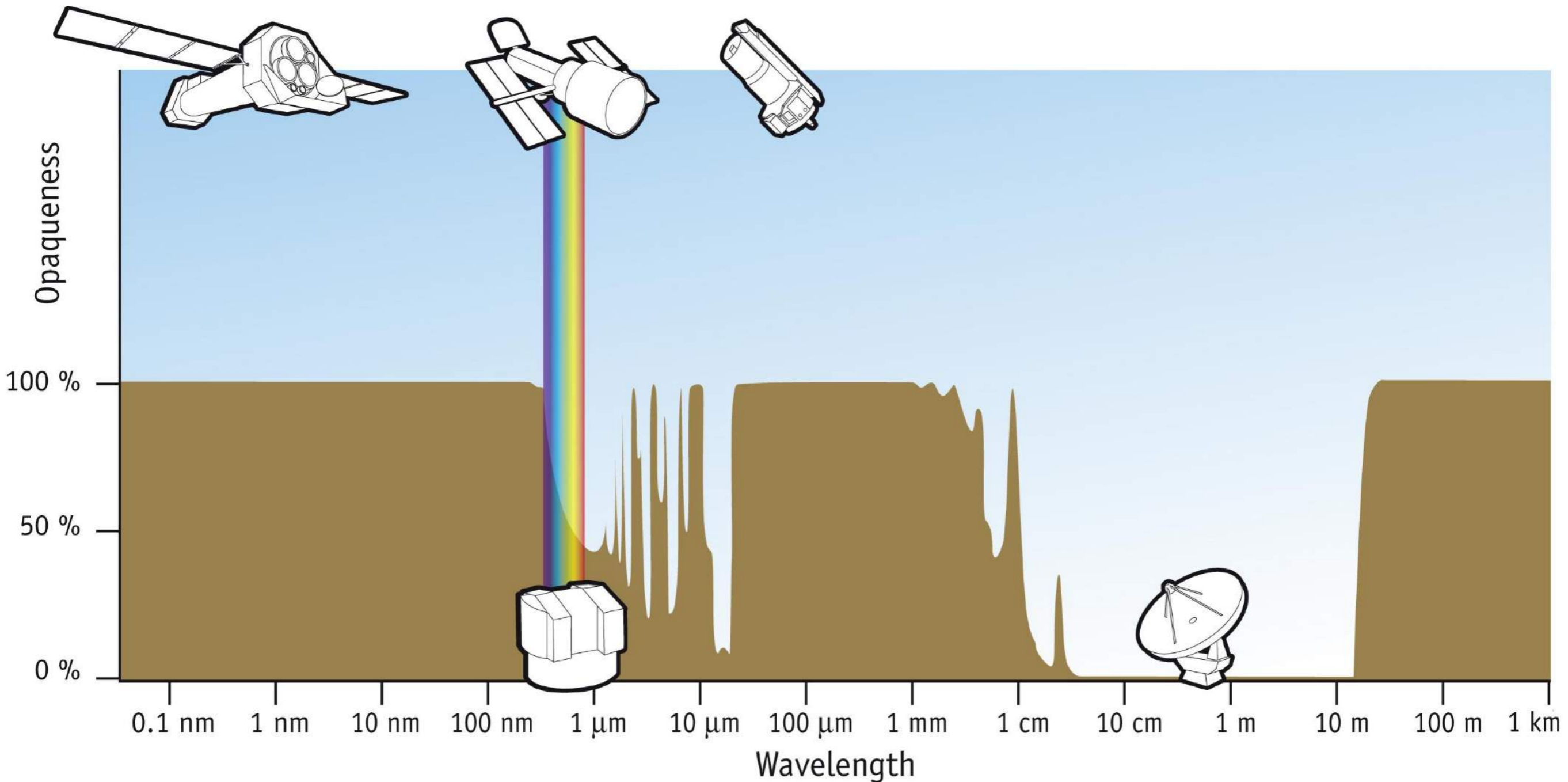


Multi-wavelength astronomy



Multi-wavelength astronomy

Accessing new windows of the electromagnetic spectrum is quite recent and is essentially linked to our ability to go into space...



Multi-wavelength astronomy

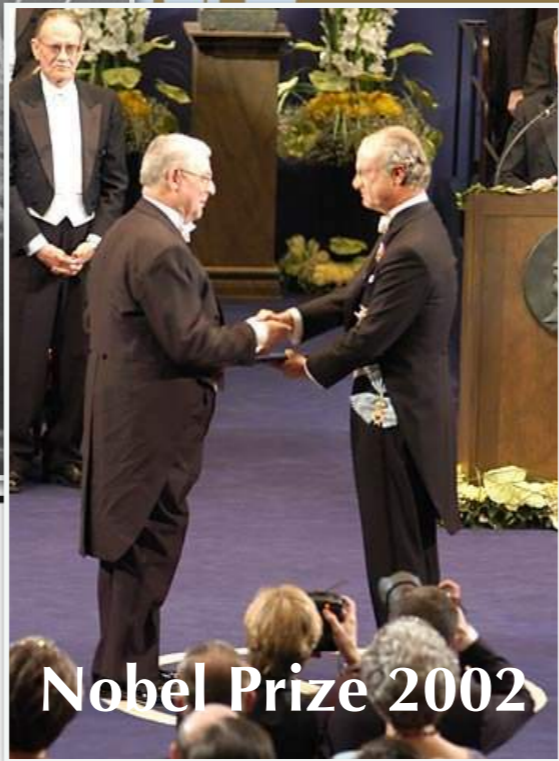
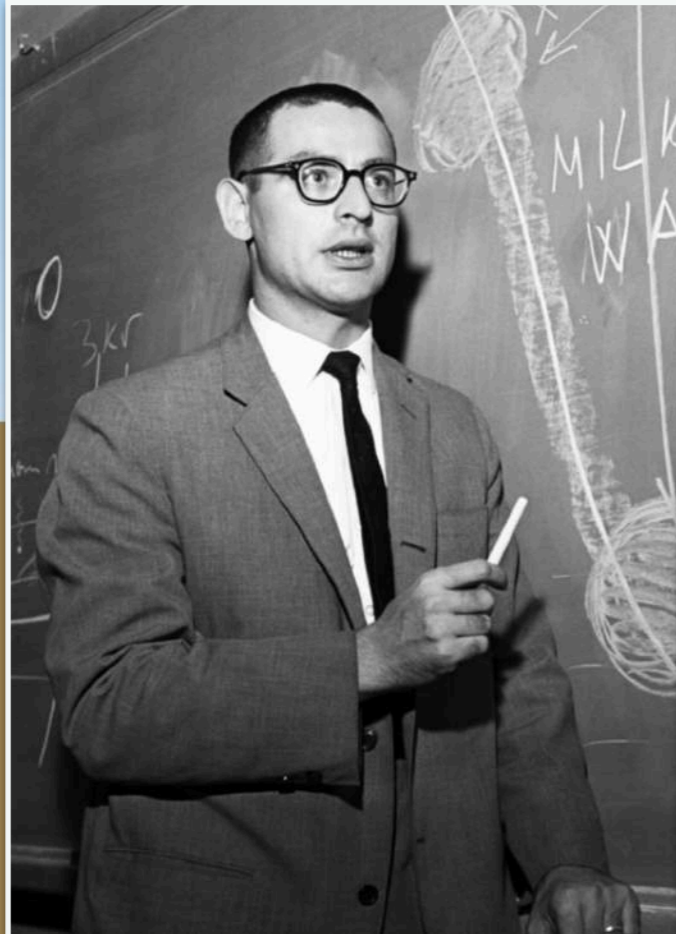
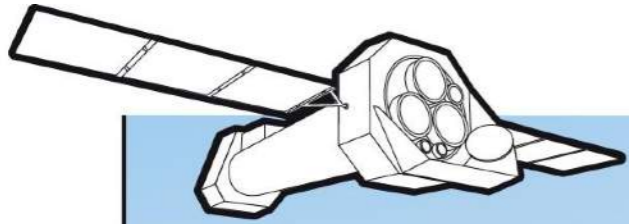
EVIDENCE FOR X RAYS FROM SOURCES OUTSIDE THE SOLAR SYSTEM*

Riccardo Giacconi, Herbert Gursky, and Frank R. Paolini
American Science and Engineering, Inc., Cambridge, Massachusetts

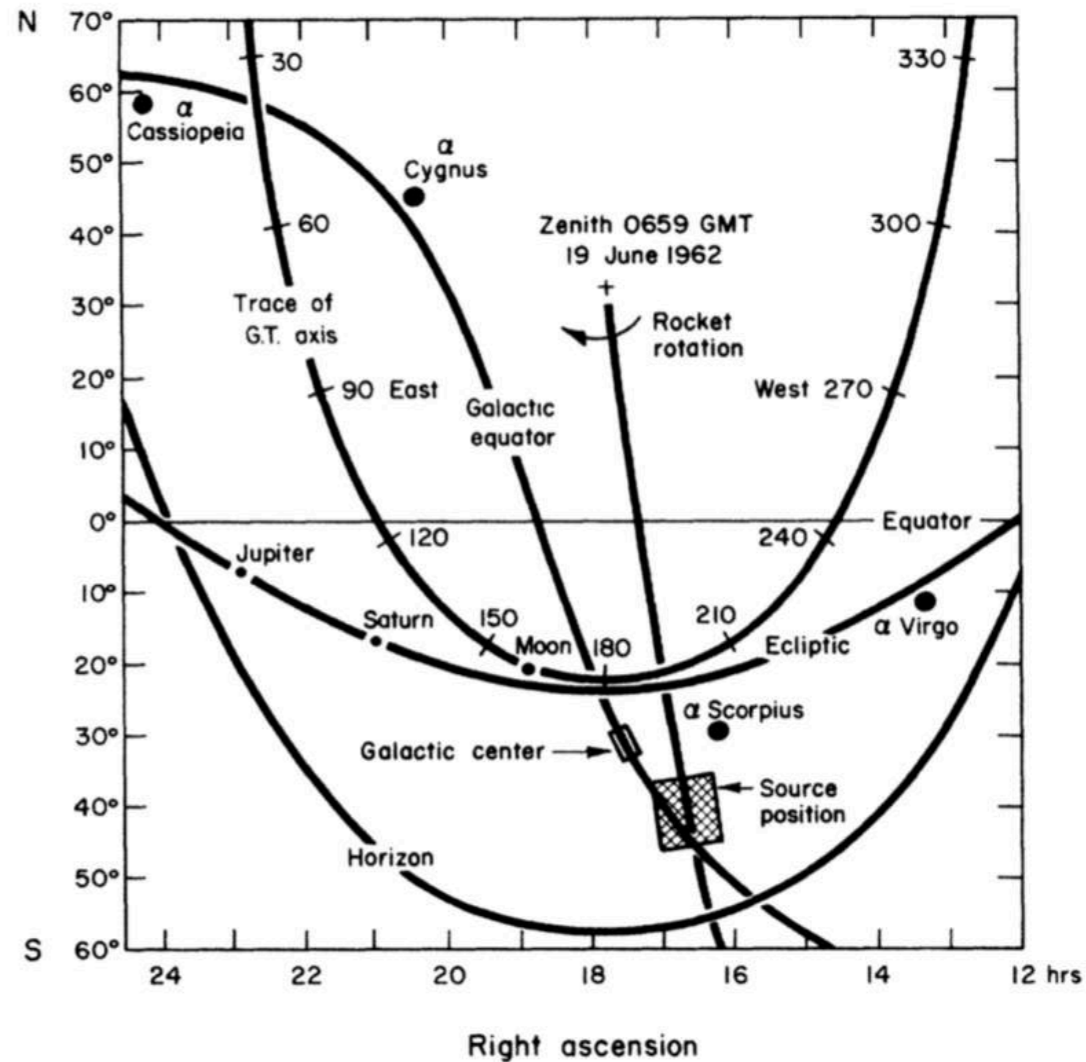
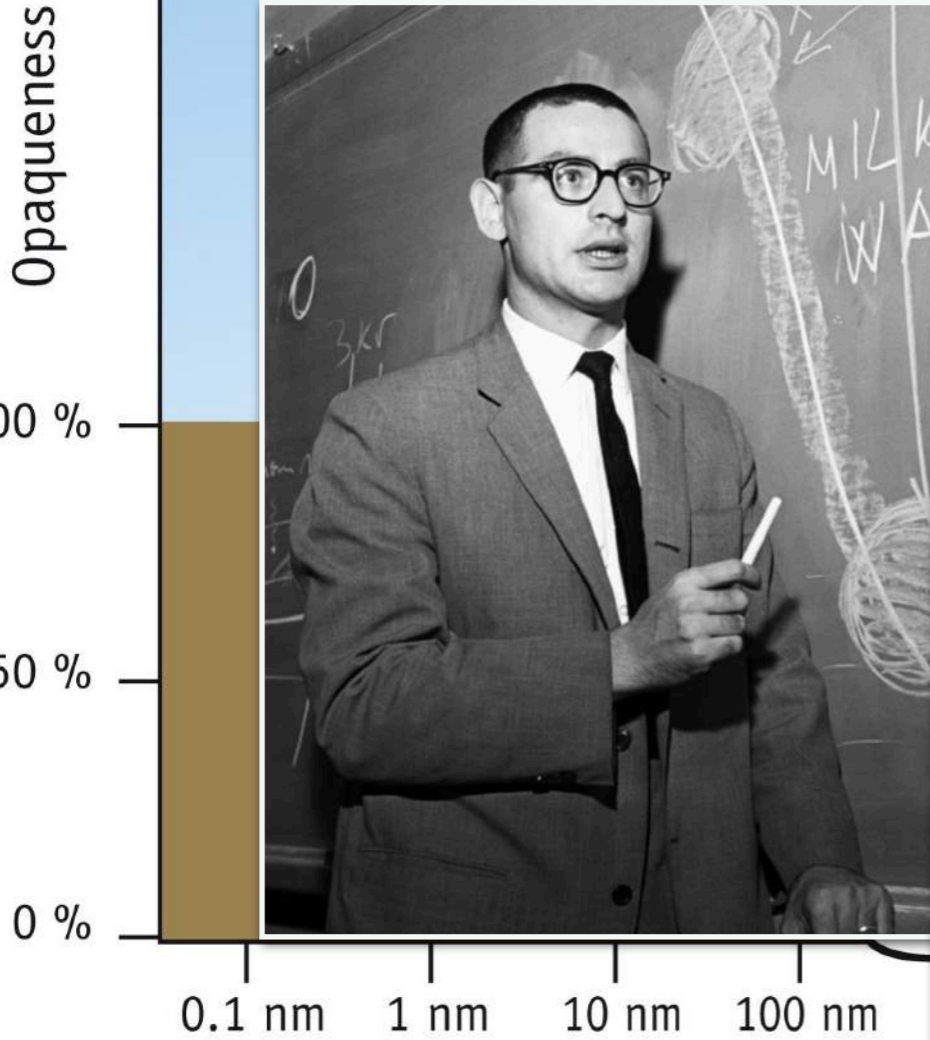
and

Bruno B. Rossi
Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Massachusetts

(Received October 12, 1962)



Nobel Prize 2002



59 years later

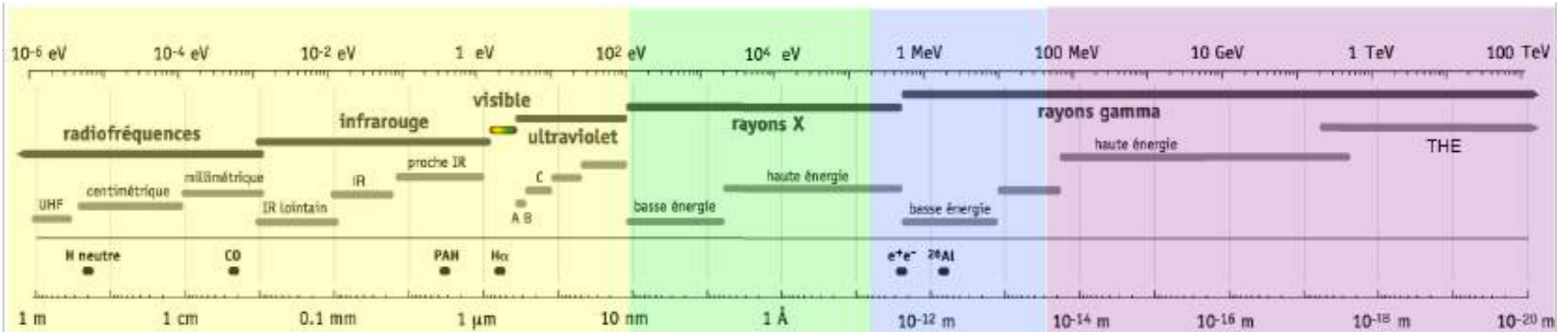
Chandra deep field South: deepest X-ray image



3'



Multi-wavelength astronomy

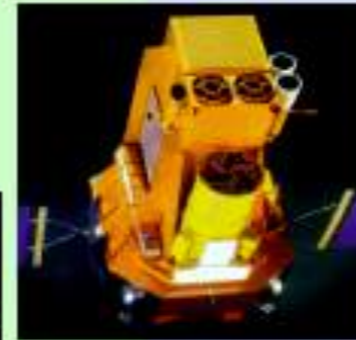


Radio, sub-mm, IR, visible, UV

Soft and hard X rays

MeV γ rays

GeV - TeV γ rays



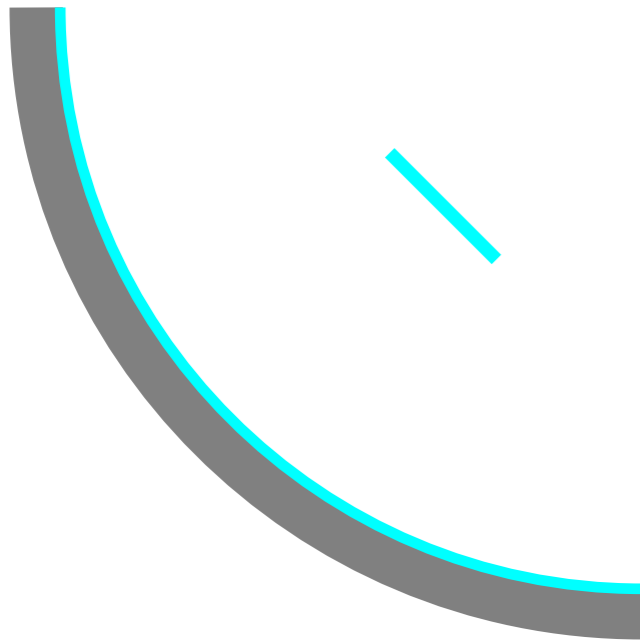
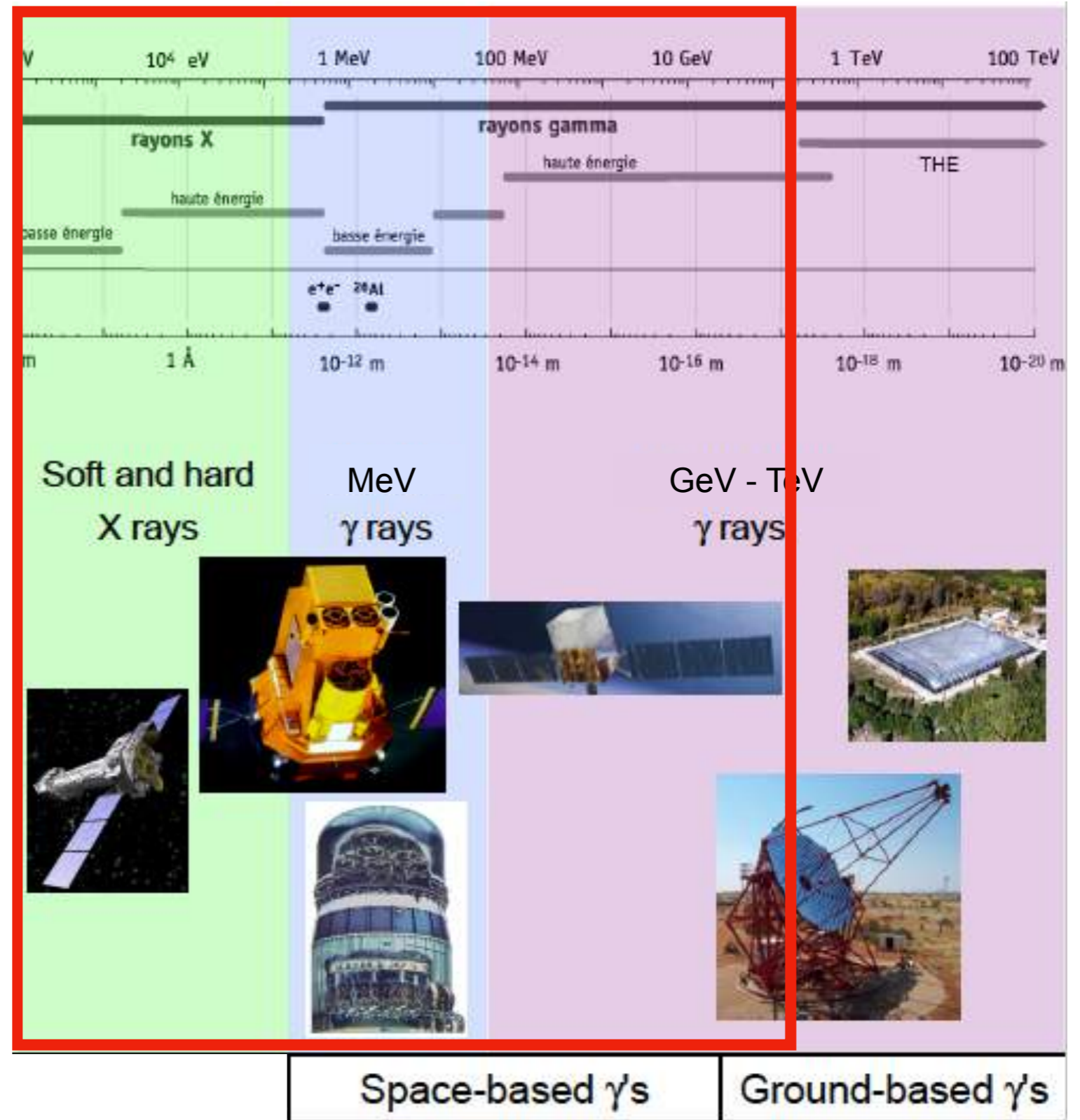
Reflection mirrors (including grazing incidence)

Space-based γ 's

Ground-based γ 's

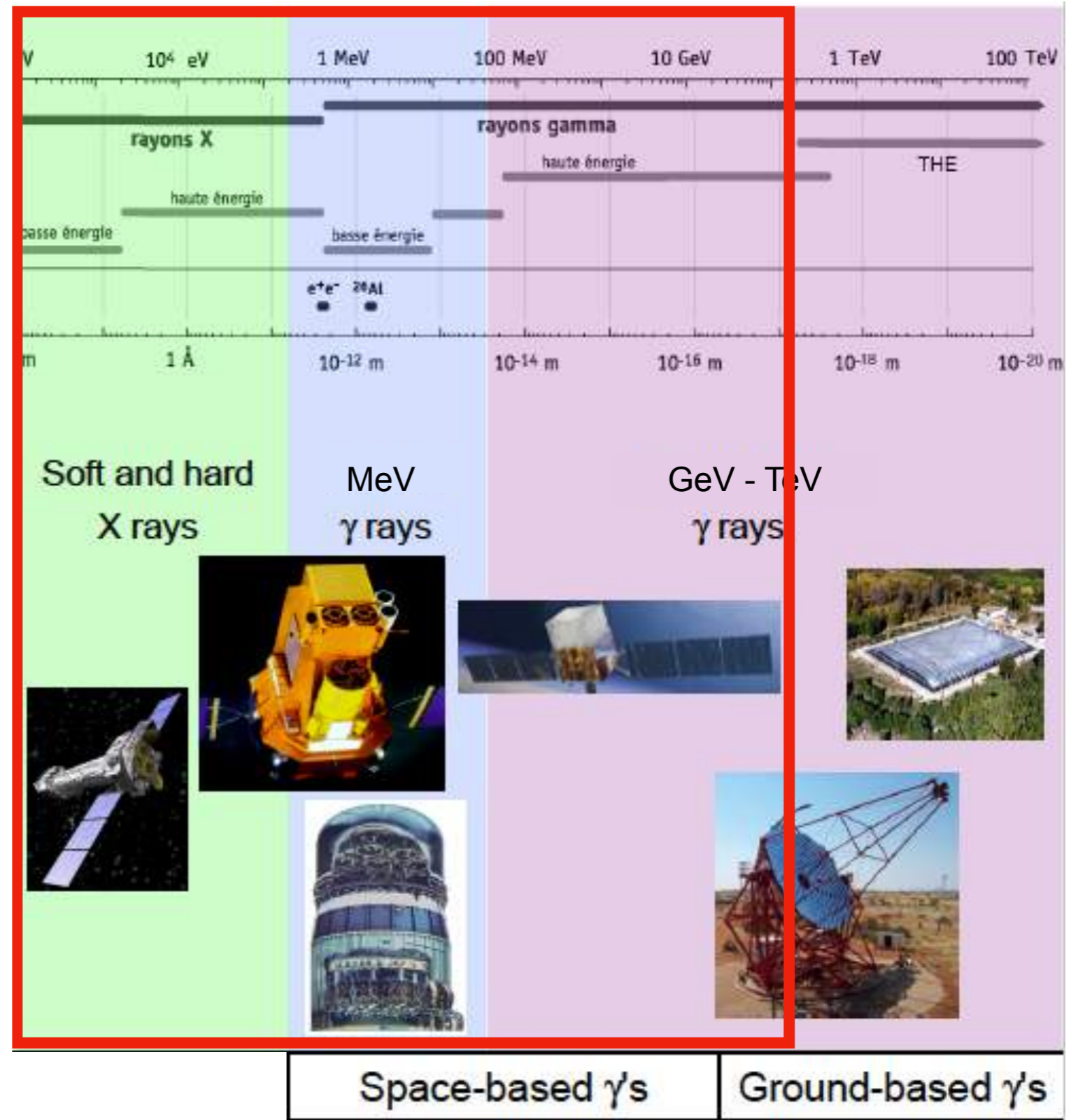
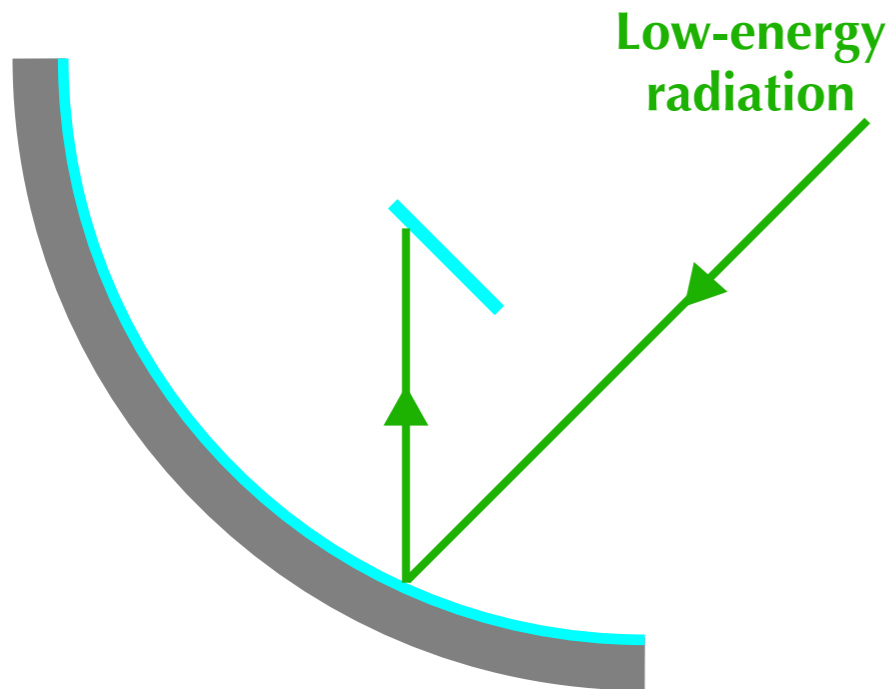
Multi-wavelength astronomy

Covered in this lecture

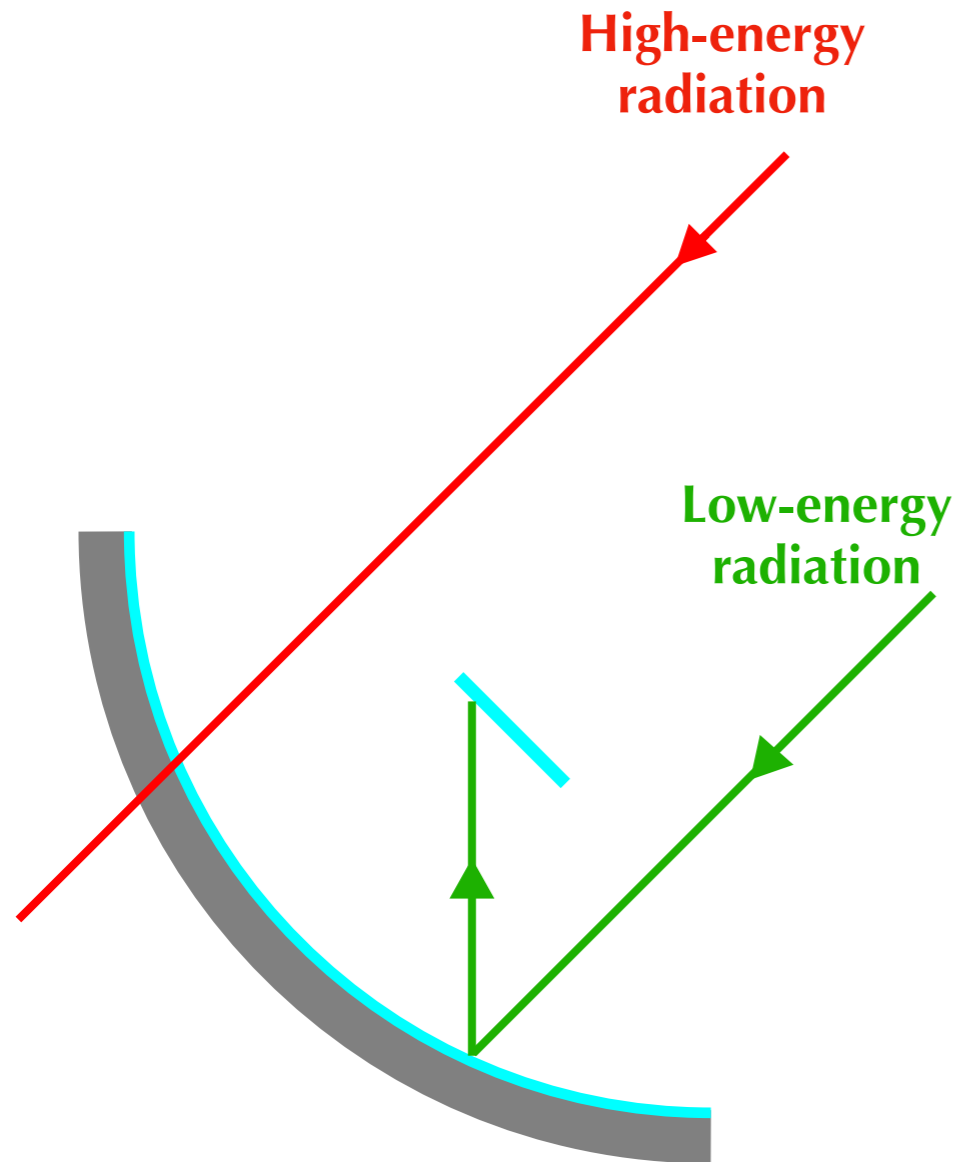


Multi-wavelength astronomy

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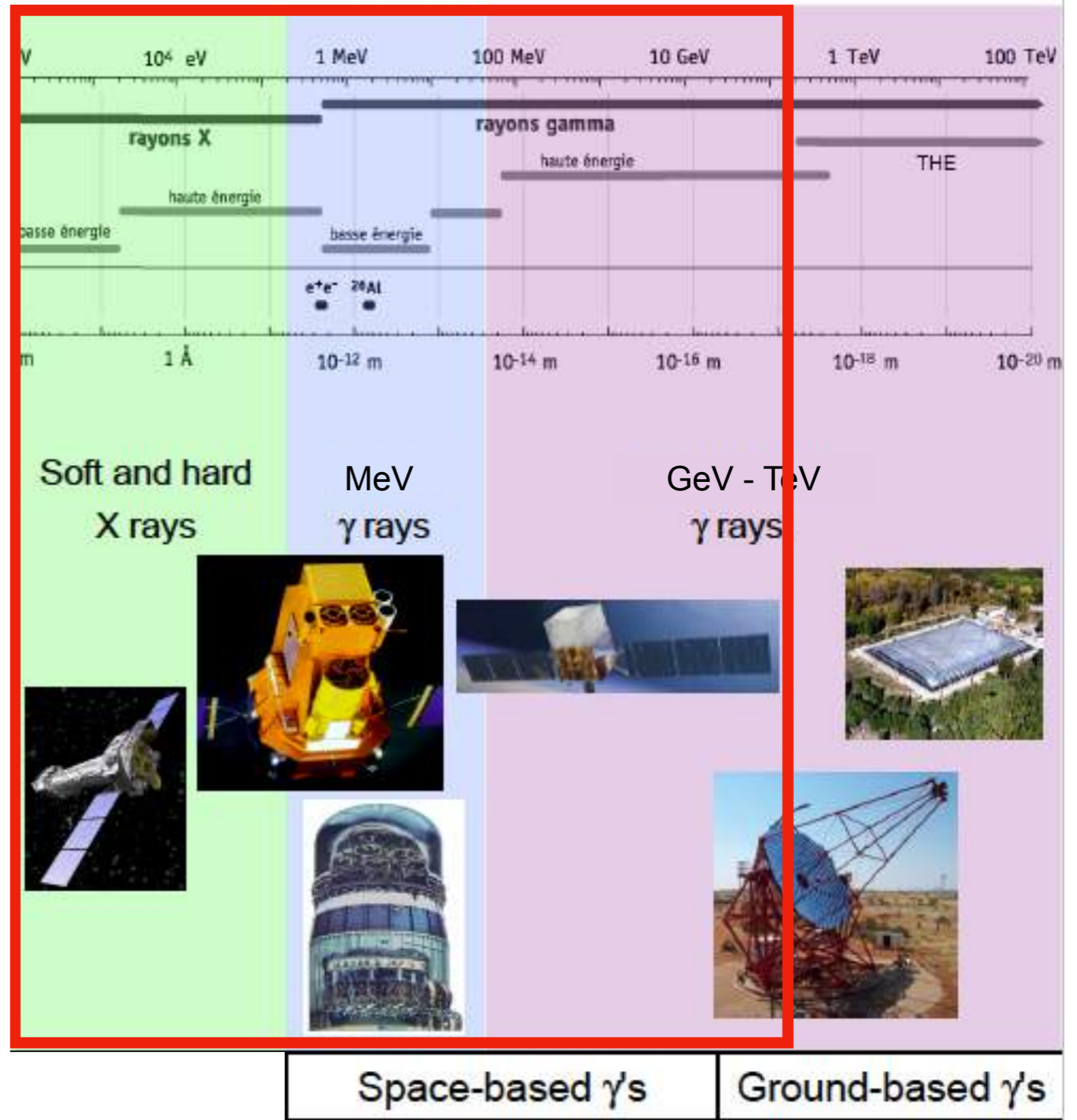


Multi-wavelength astronomy



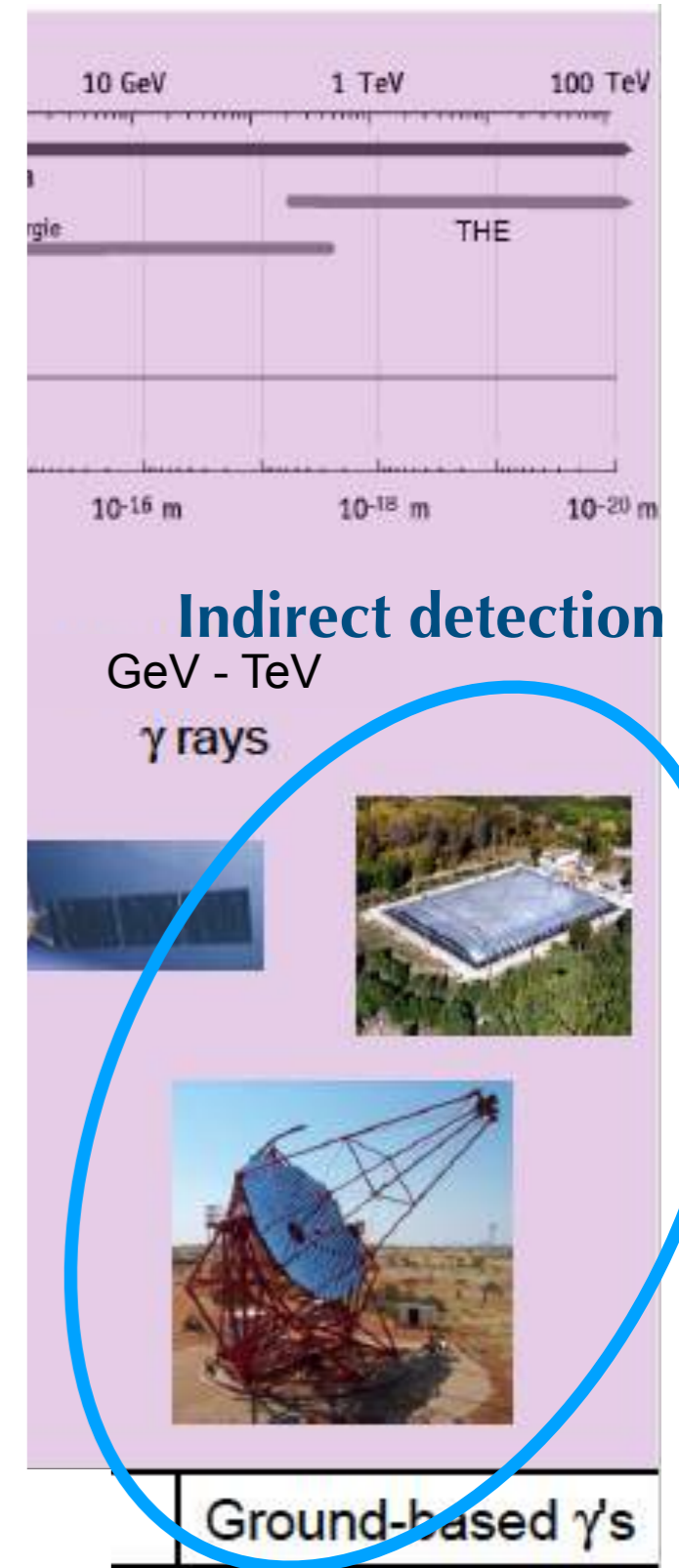
High-energy photons cannot be easily reflected or refracted \Rightarrow apply other techniques to focalize and detect them.

Covered in this lecture



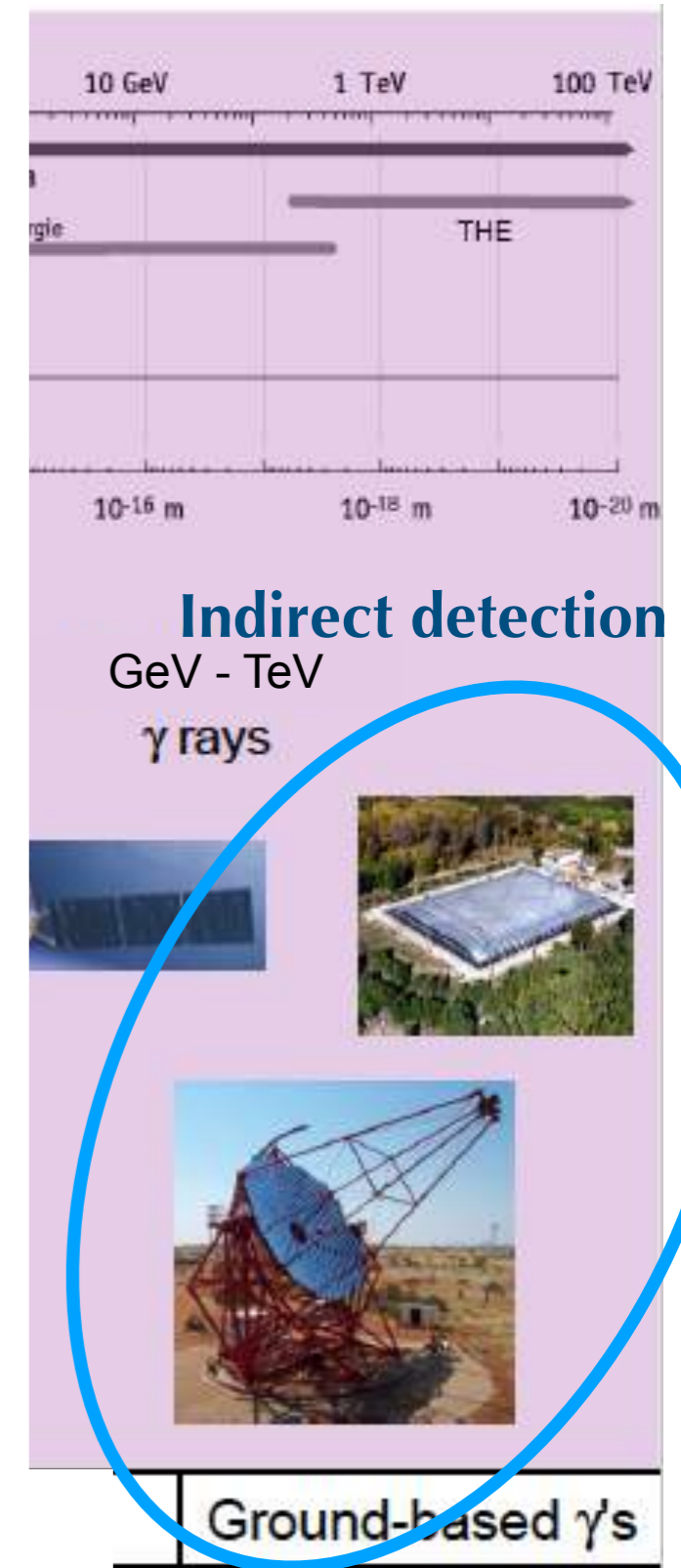
Multi-wavelength astronomy

- In gamma-ray domain: very low photon flux \Rightarrow requires large detection surfaces to detect enough photons.
- Space facilities cannot be used anymore.
- Direct detection impossible since high-energy particles (photons) interact with Earth atmosphere.
- Indirect observation via the detection of secondary particles produced by the interaction with the atmosphere.



Multi-wavelength astronomy

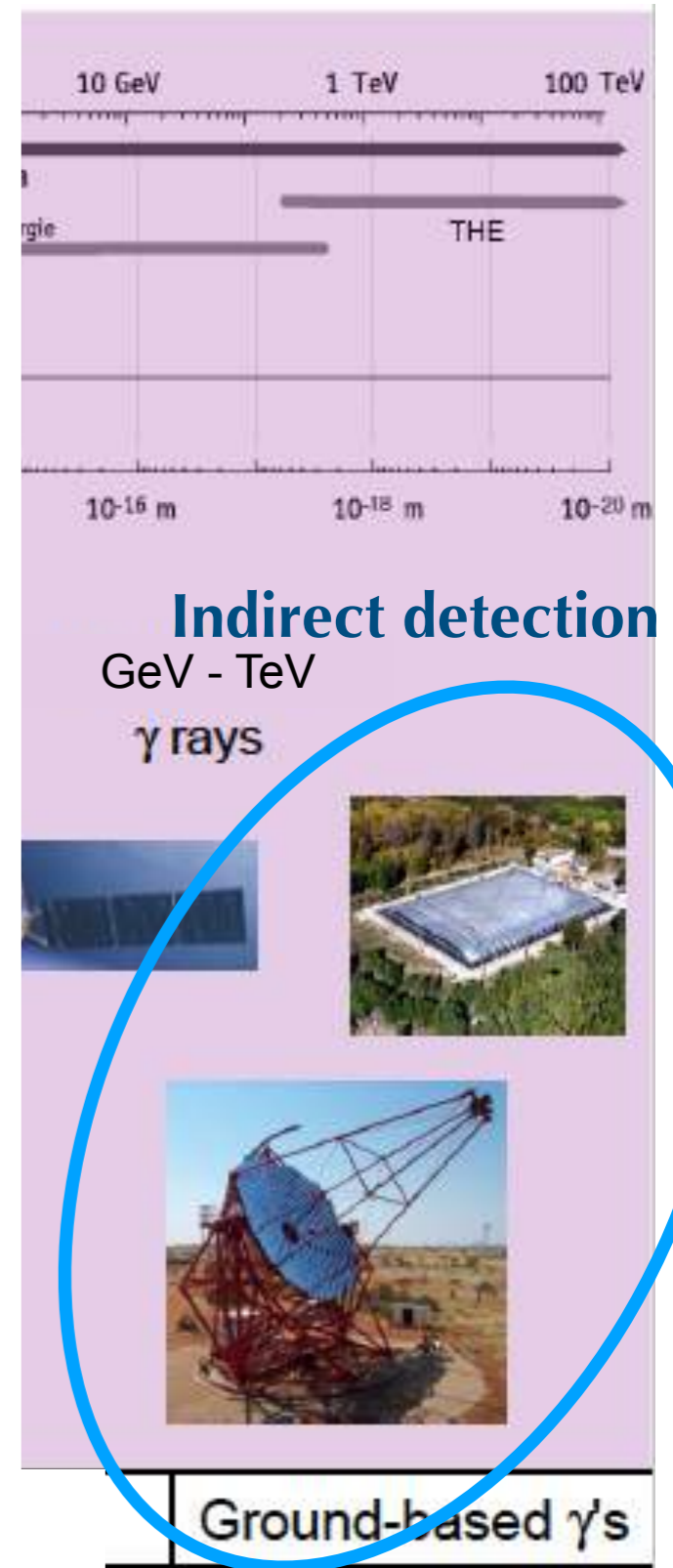
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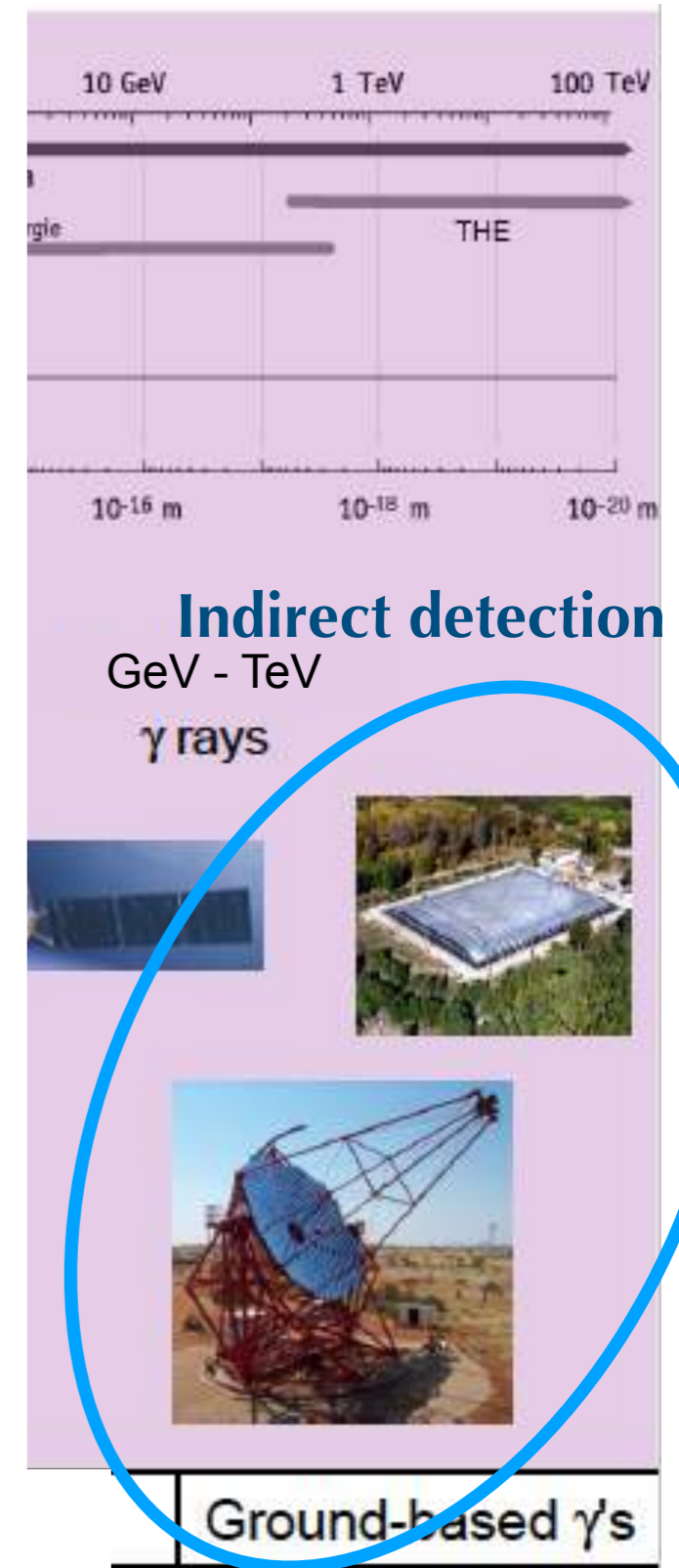
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γ



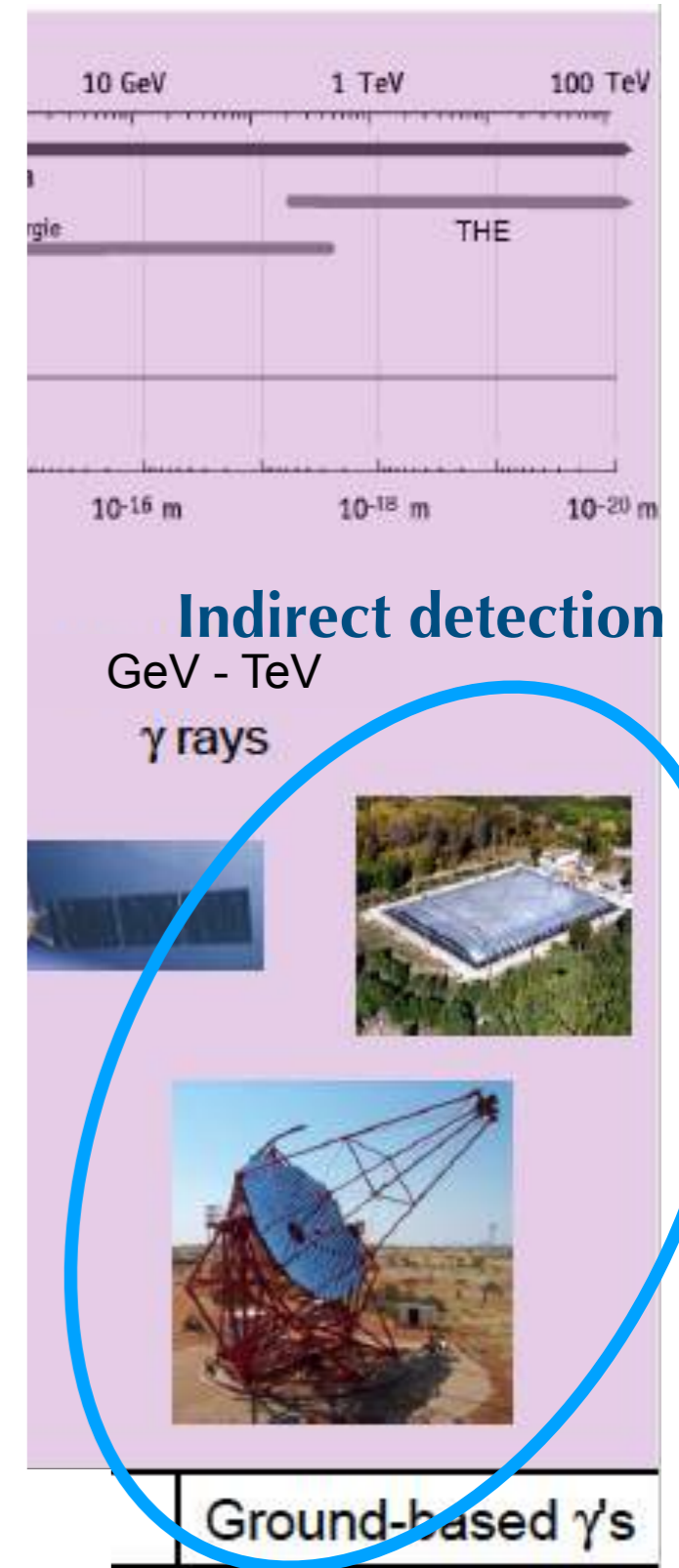
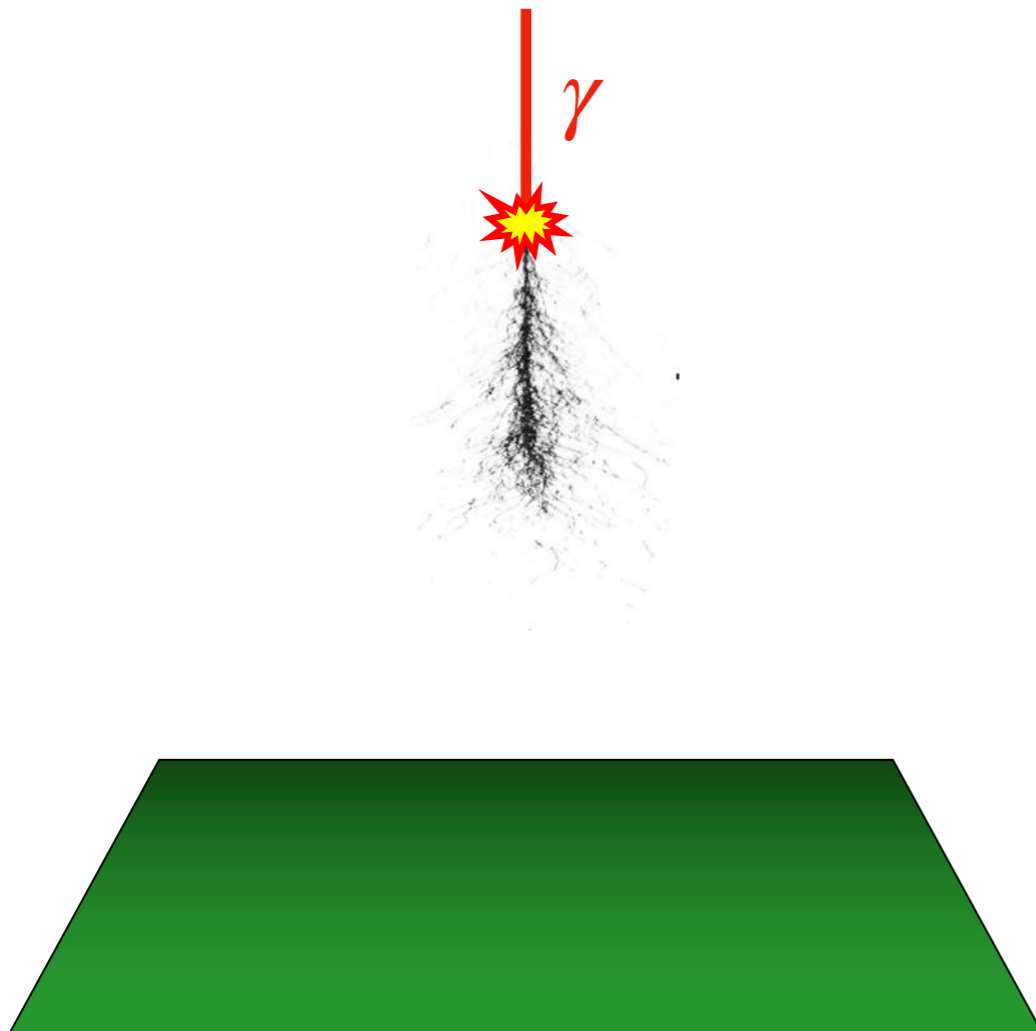
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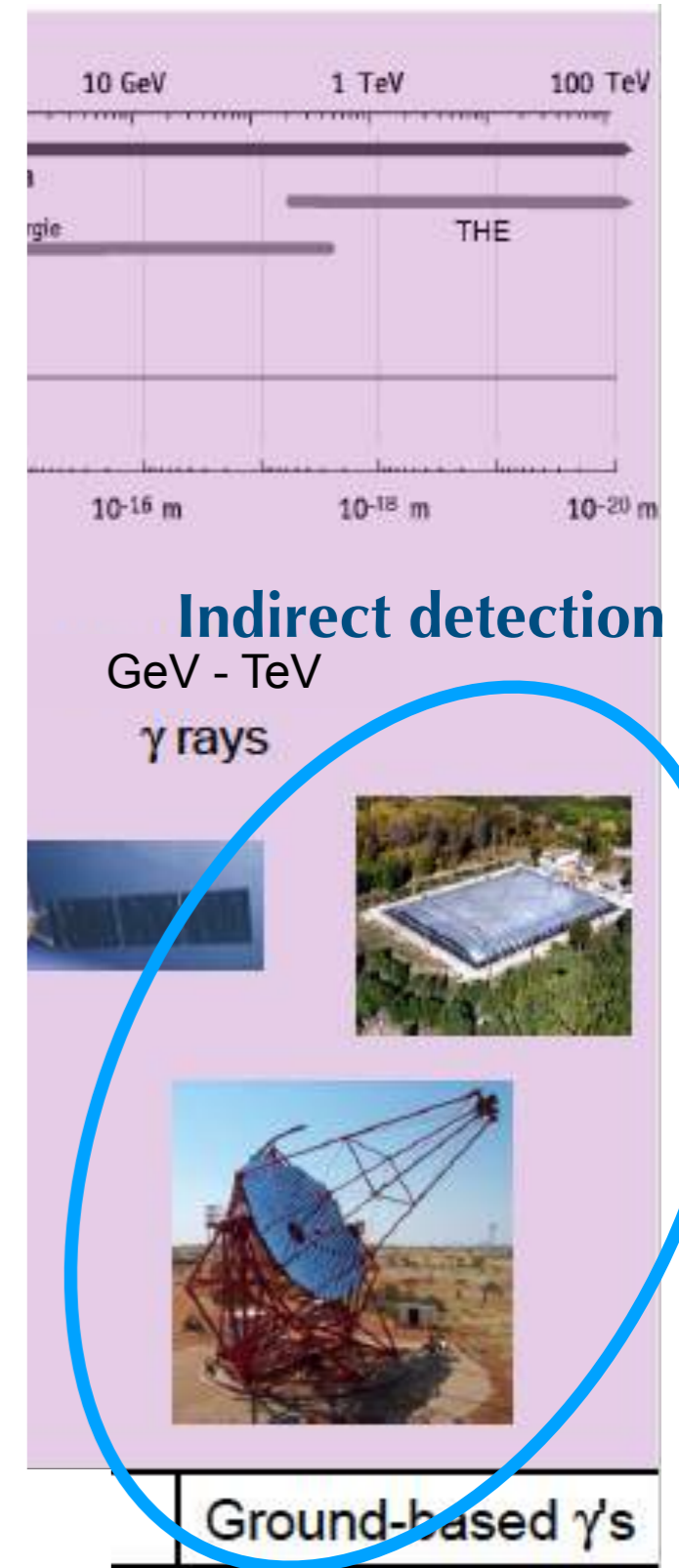
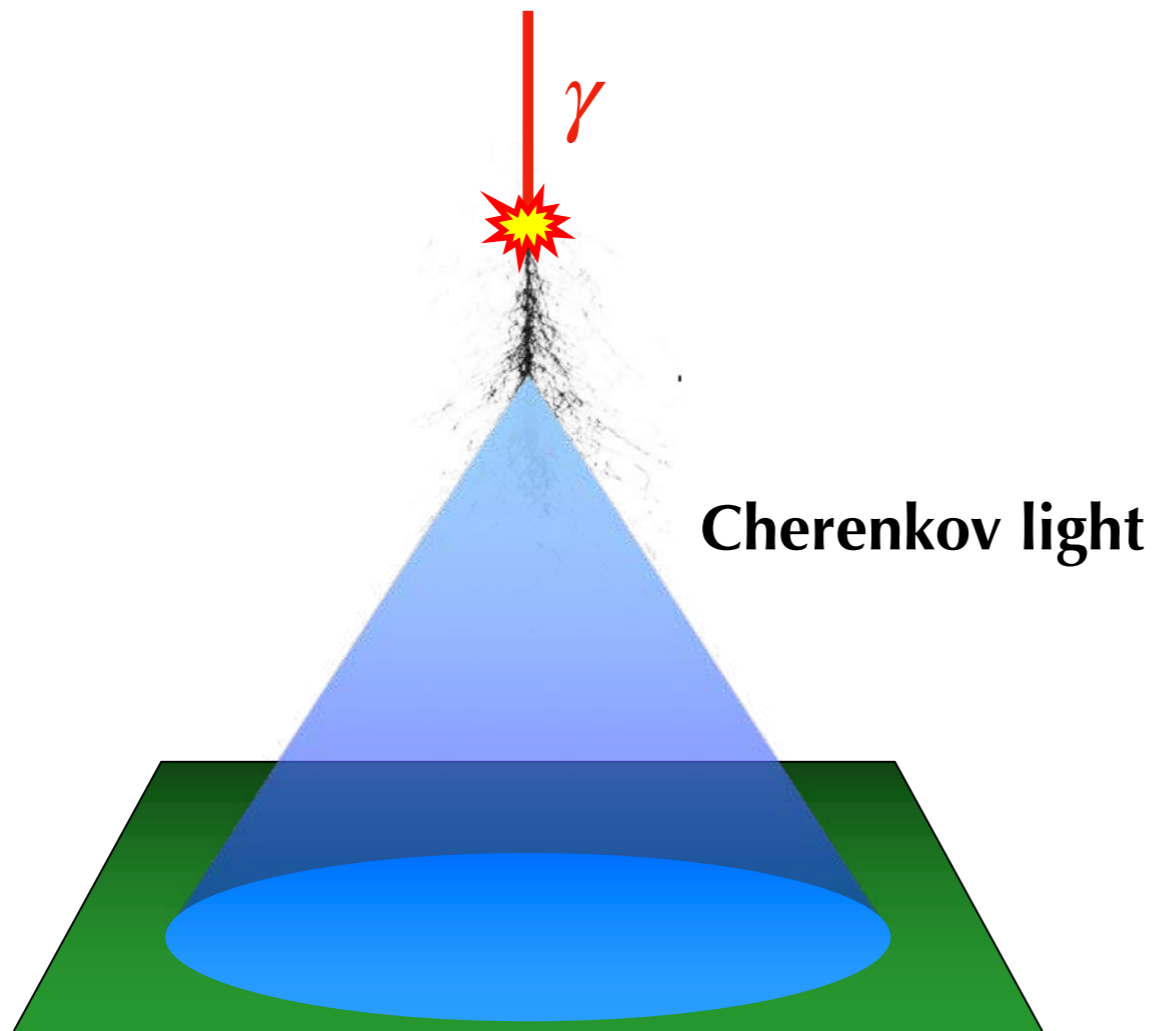
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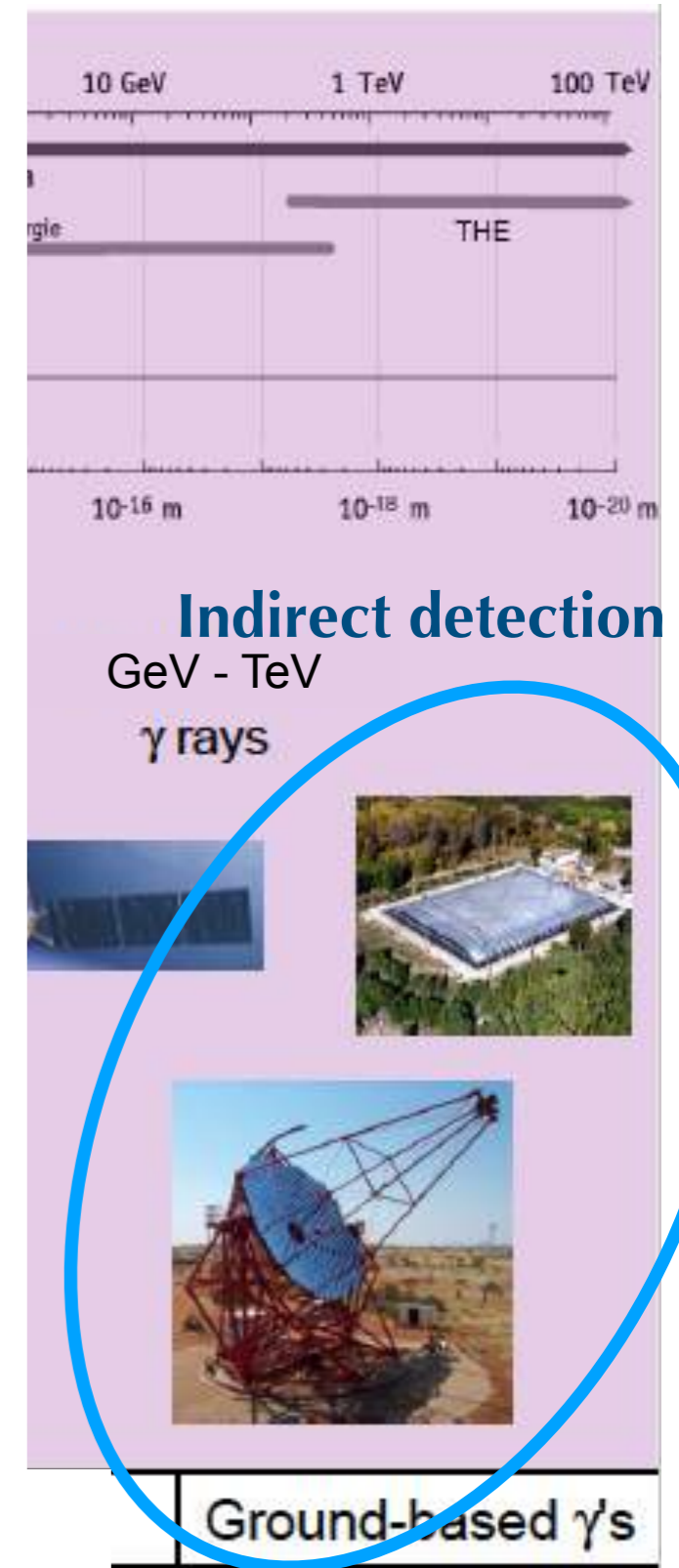
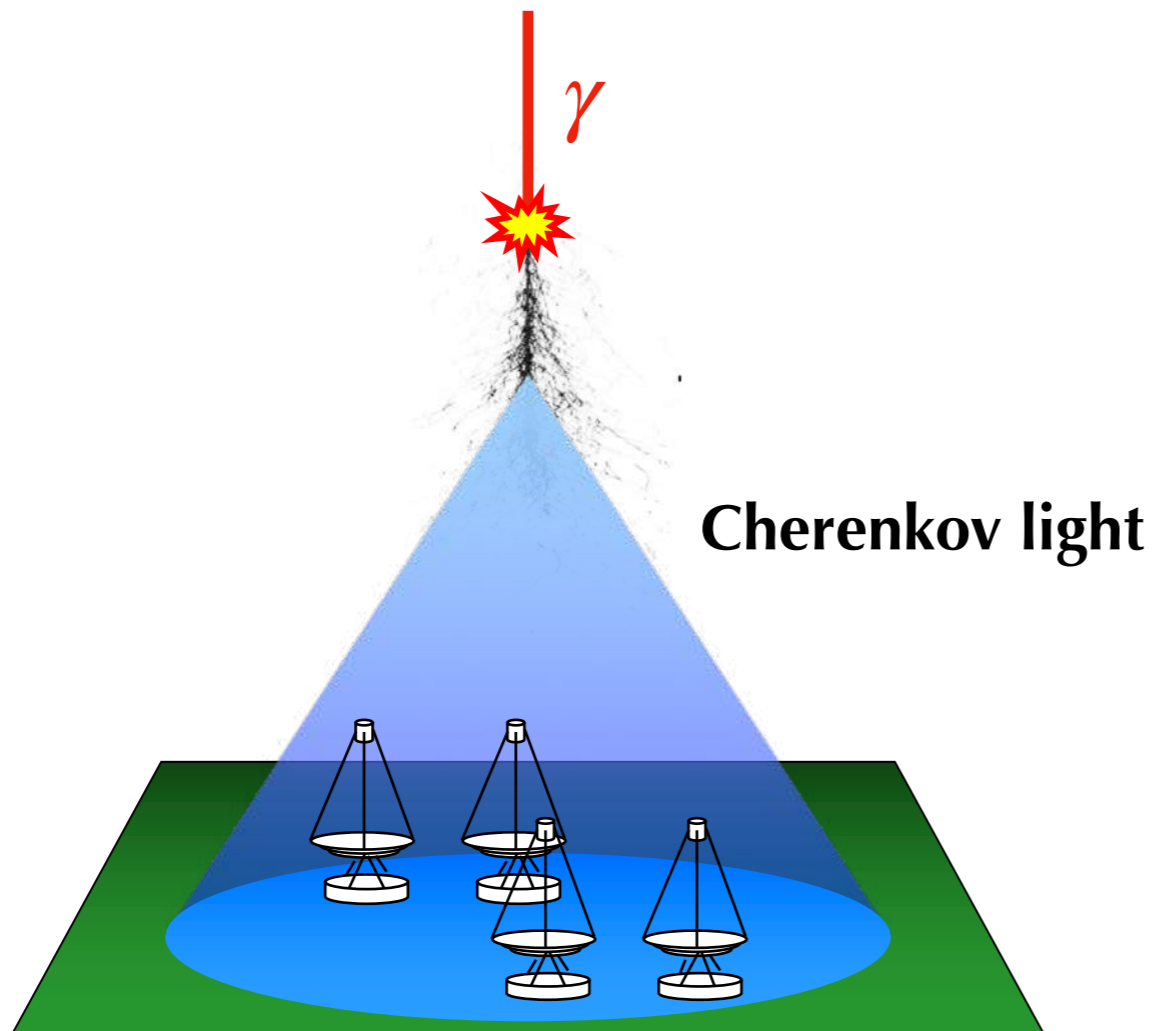
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Multi-wavelength astronomy

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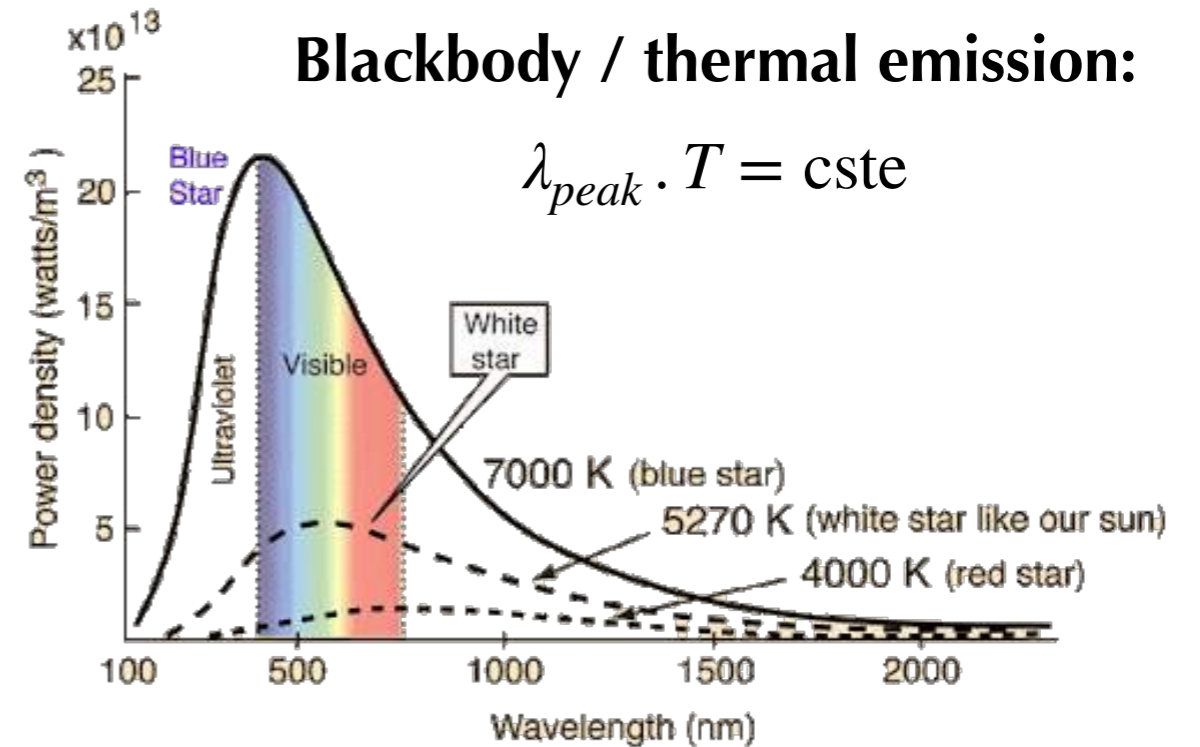
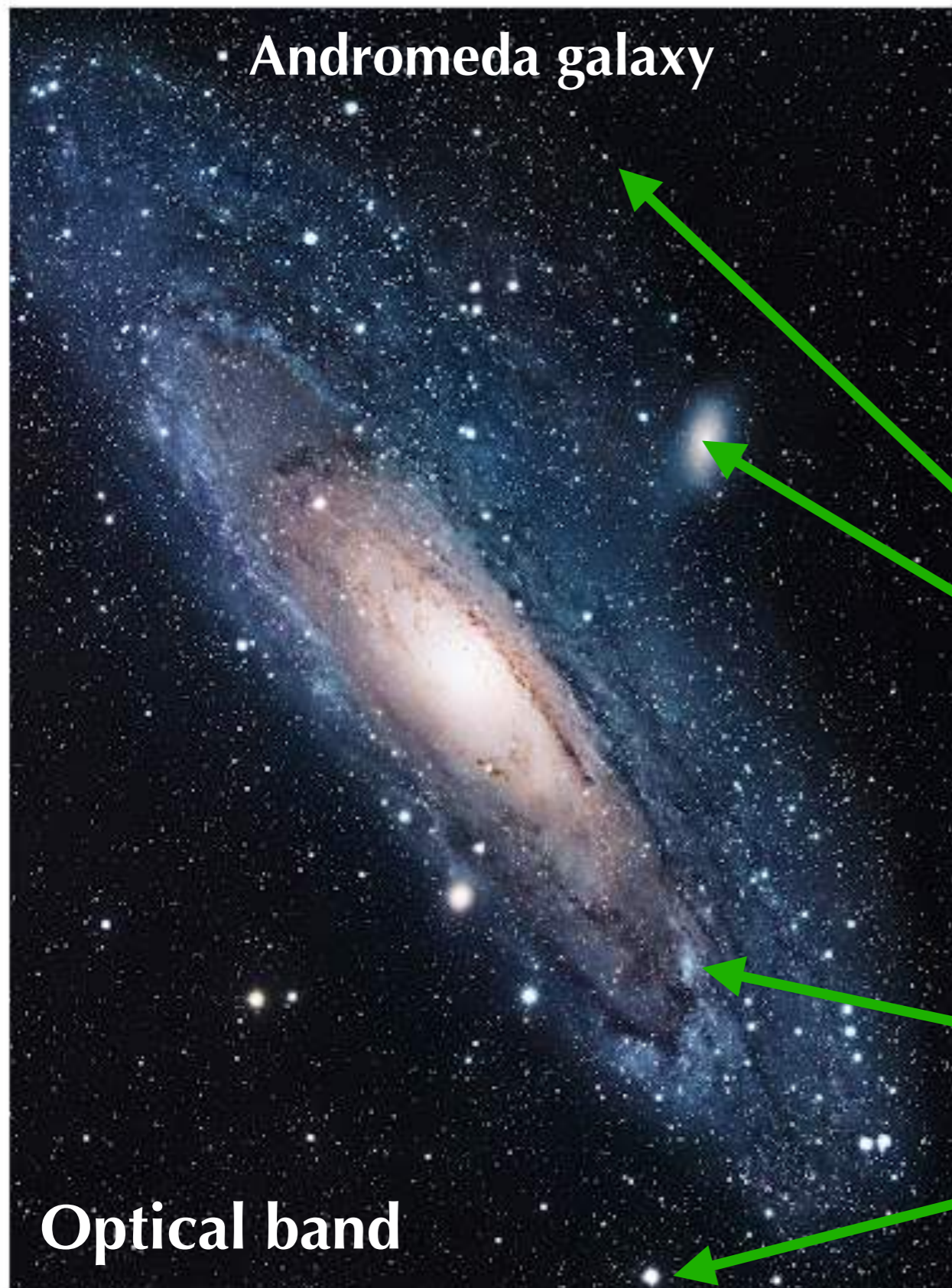


Multi-wavelength astronomy

Why do we observe the sky at different wavelengths & using different messengers ?

... because we don't observe the same processes at different energies !

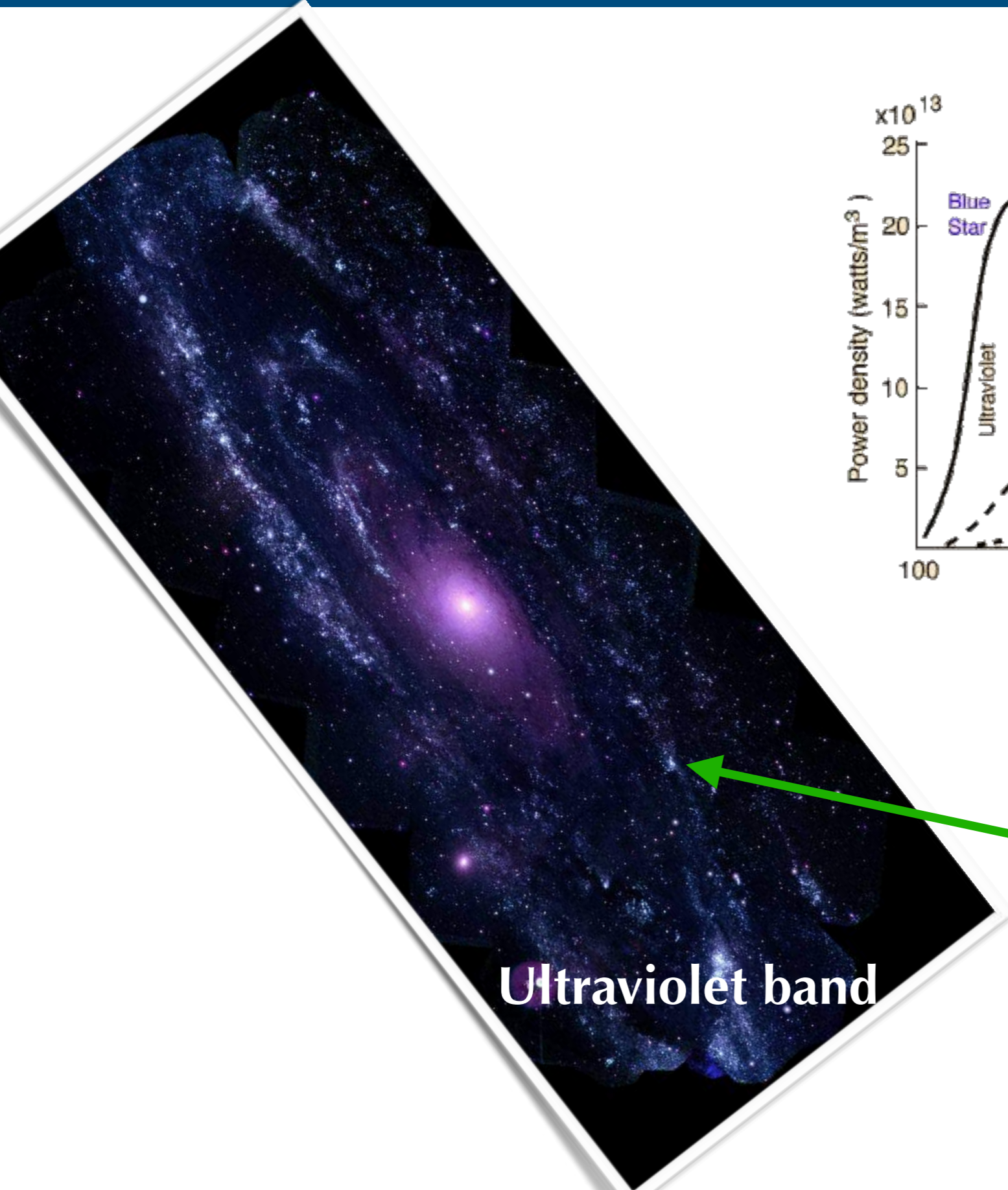
Multi-wavelength astronomy



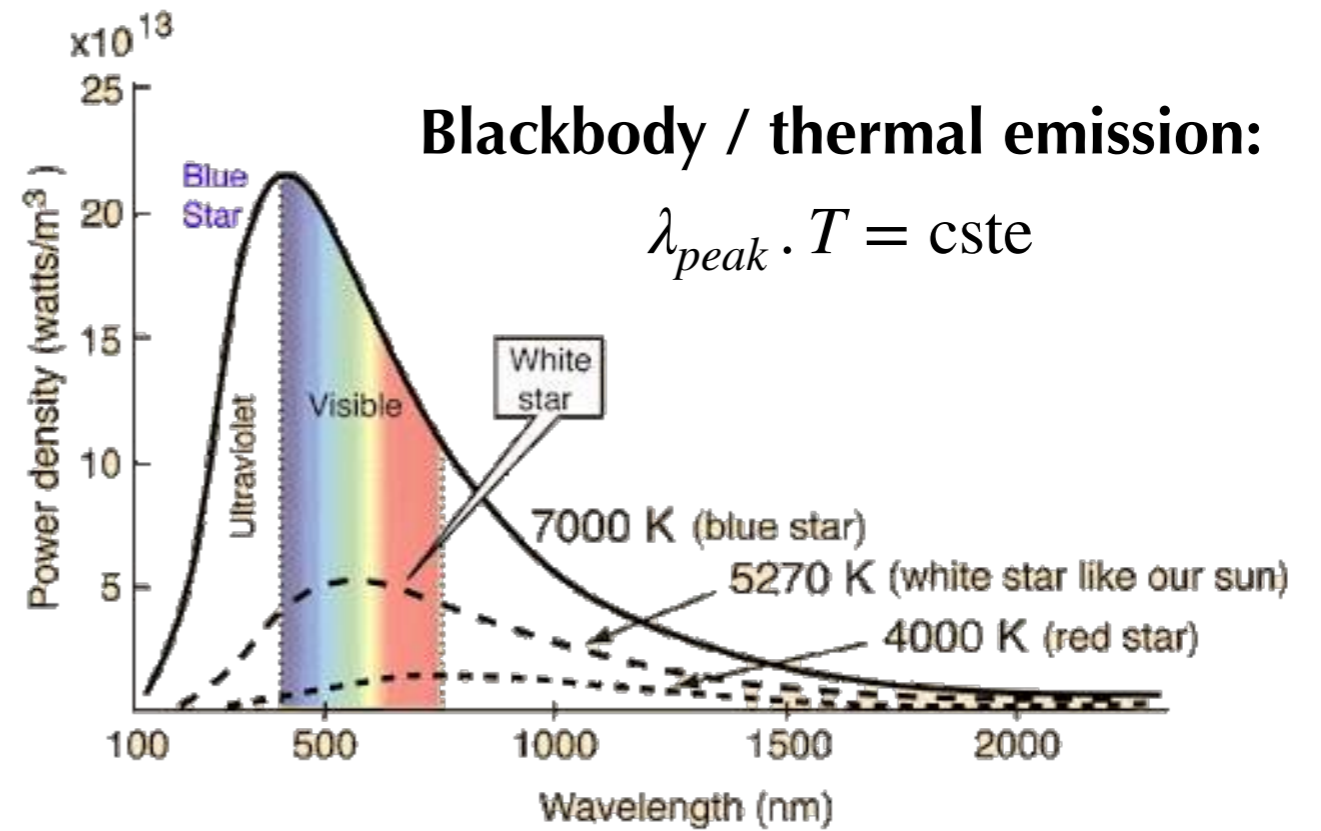
Thermal emission of stars
in other galaxies or galaxy
clusters

Thermal emission
of stars in the Milky Way
or in M31

Multi-wavelength astronomy



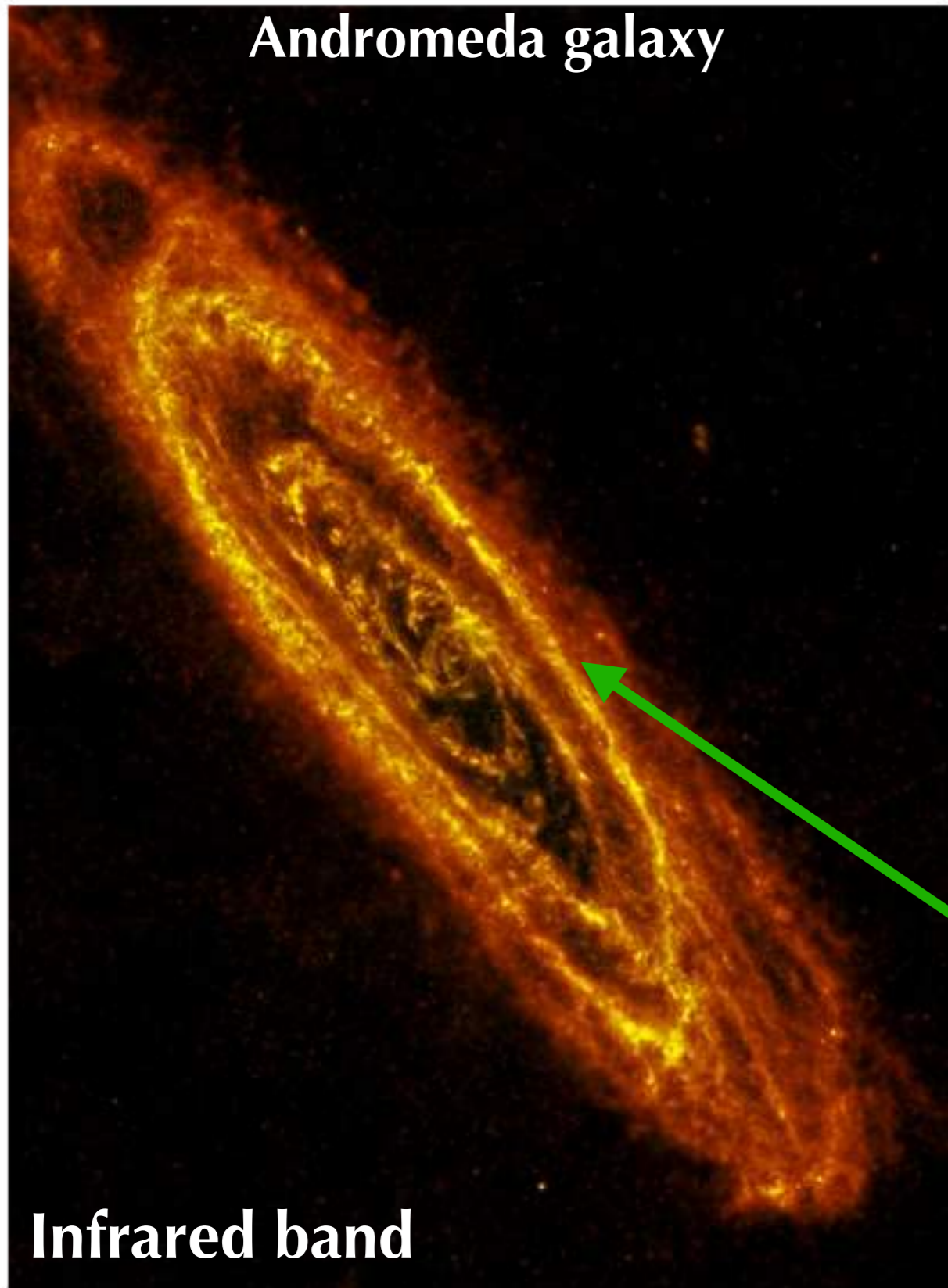
Ultraviolet band



Thermal emission of massive stars in the galaxy

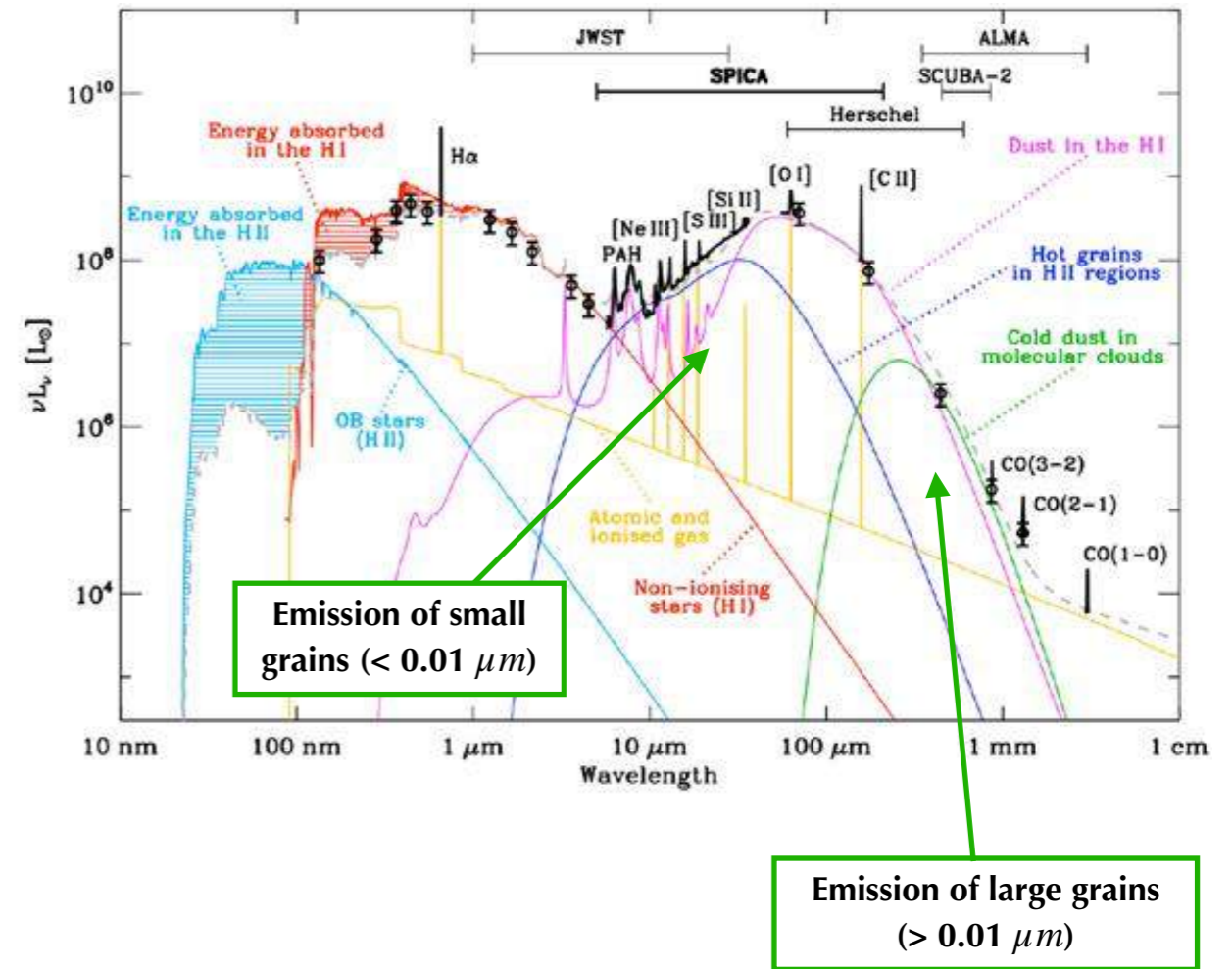
Multi-wavelength astronomy

Andromeda galaxy



Infrared band

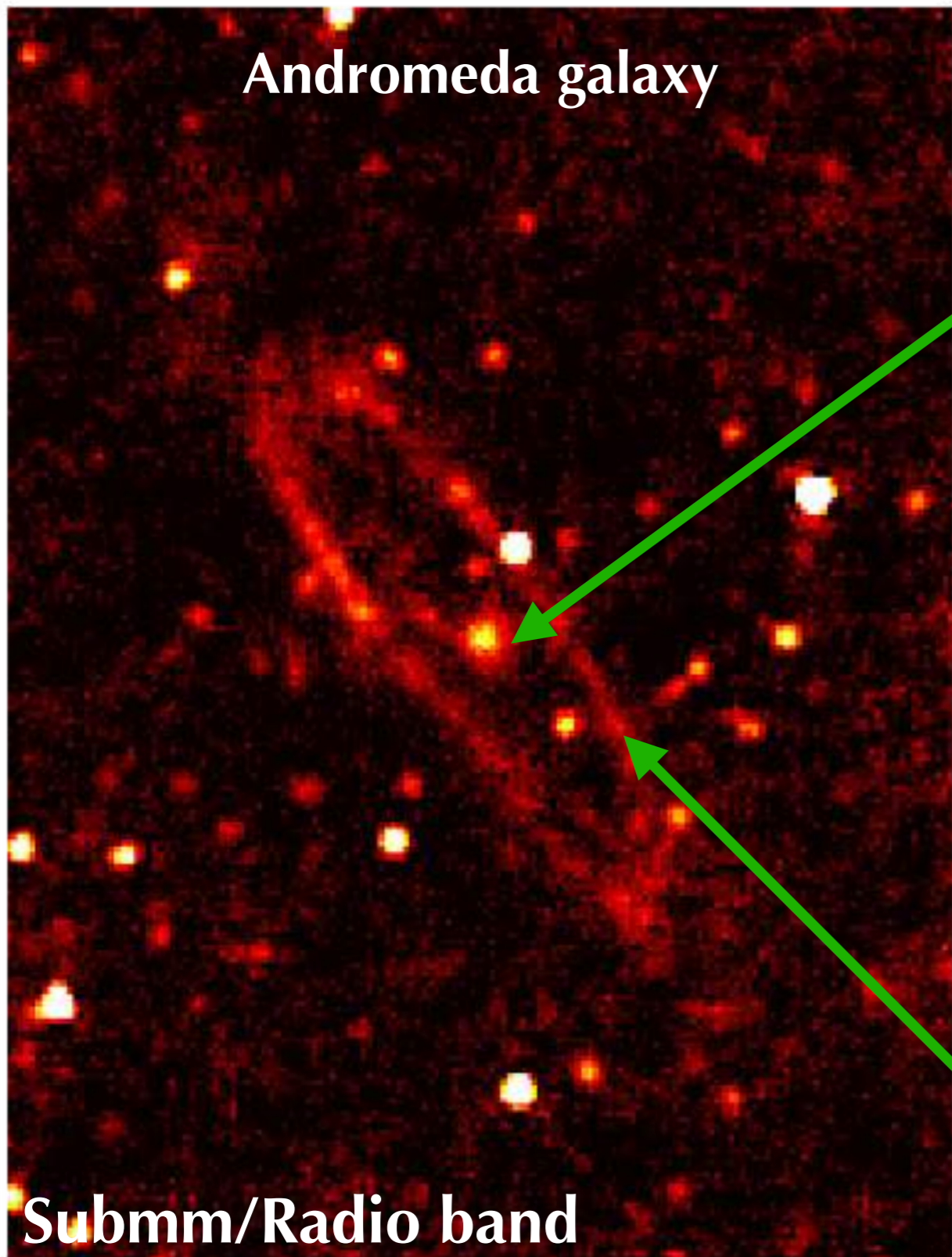
Different dust composition radiate at different energies:



Dust in Molecular clouds:
dense gas concentrations
hosting star formation sites

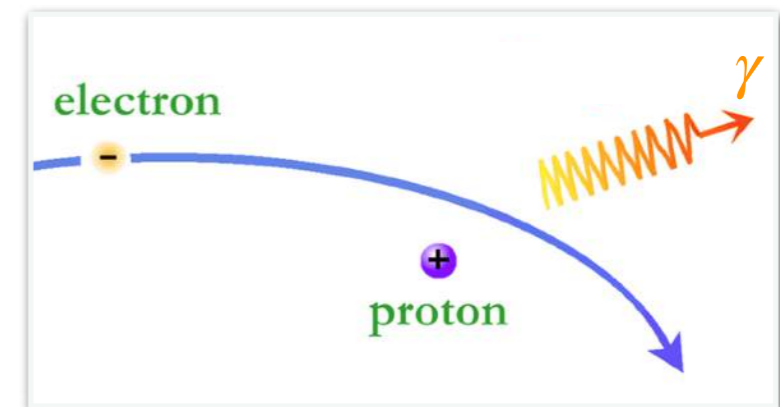
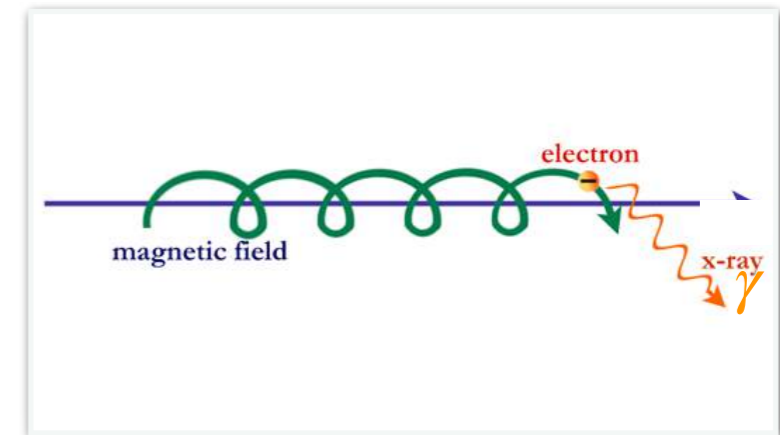
Multi-wavelength astronomy

Andromeda galaxy



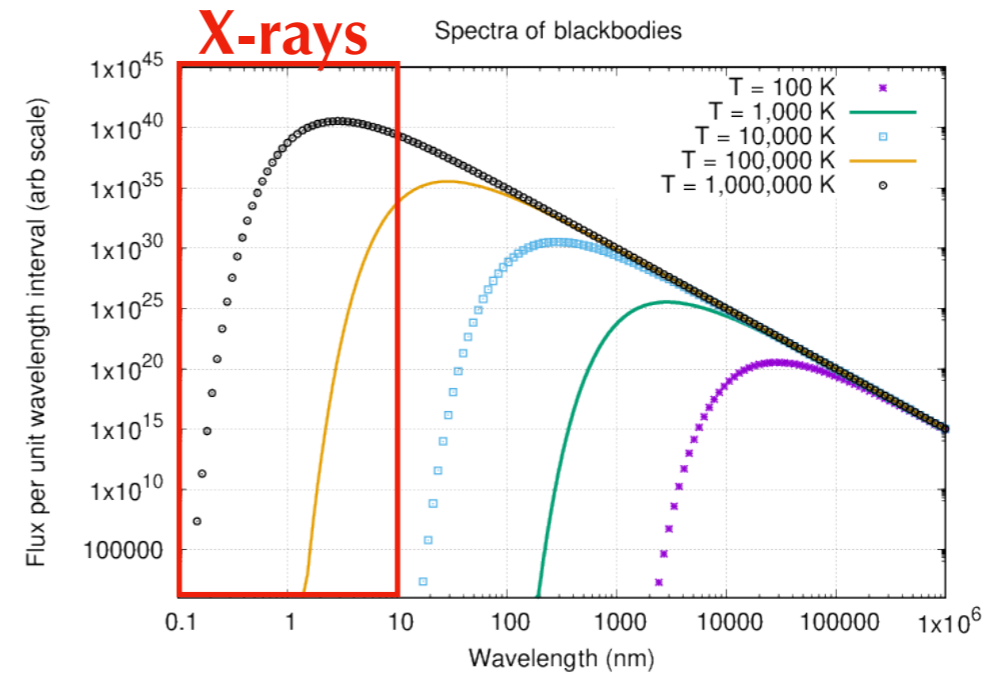
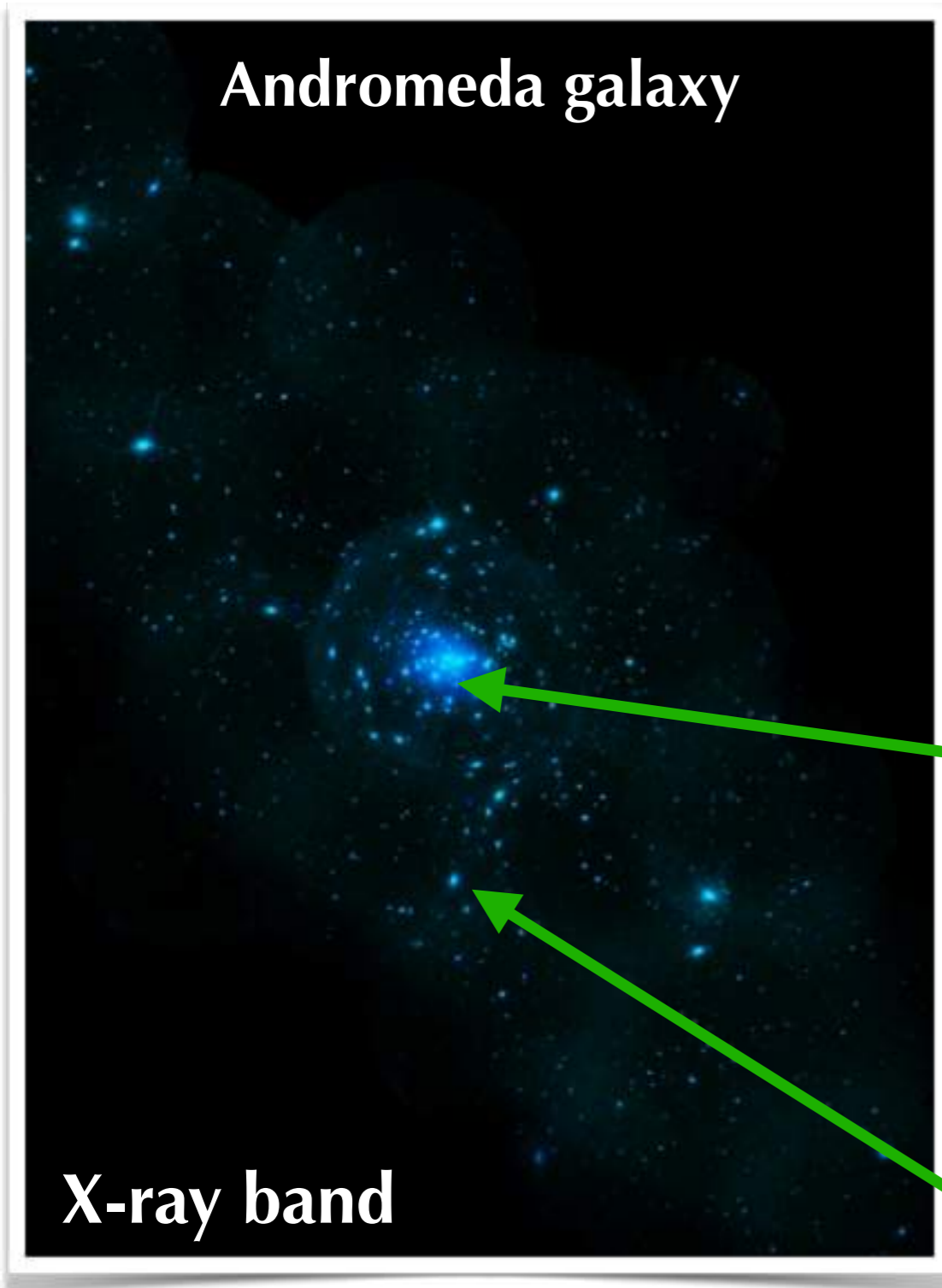
Submm/Radio band

Synchrotron (non-thermal) +
bremsstrahlung emission (star
forming regions)



Gas in Molecular clouds:
dense gas concentrations
hosting star formation sites

Multi-wavelength astronomy

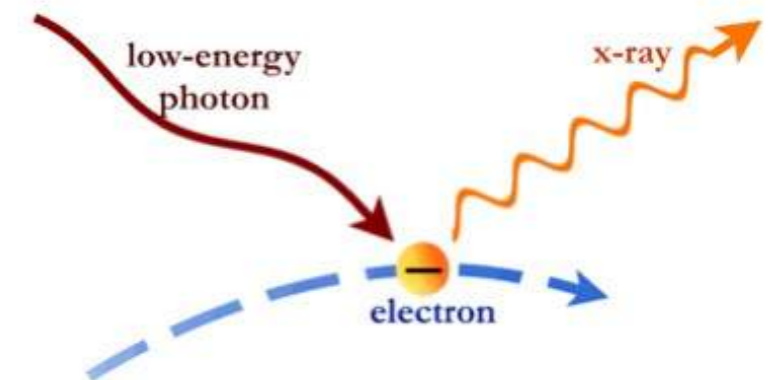


Thermal emission (blackbody + bremsstrahlung):

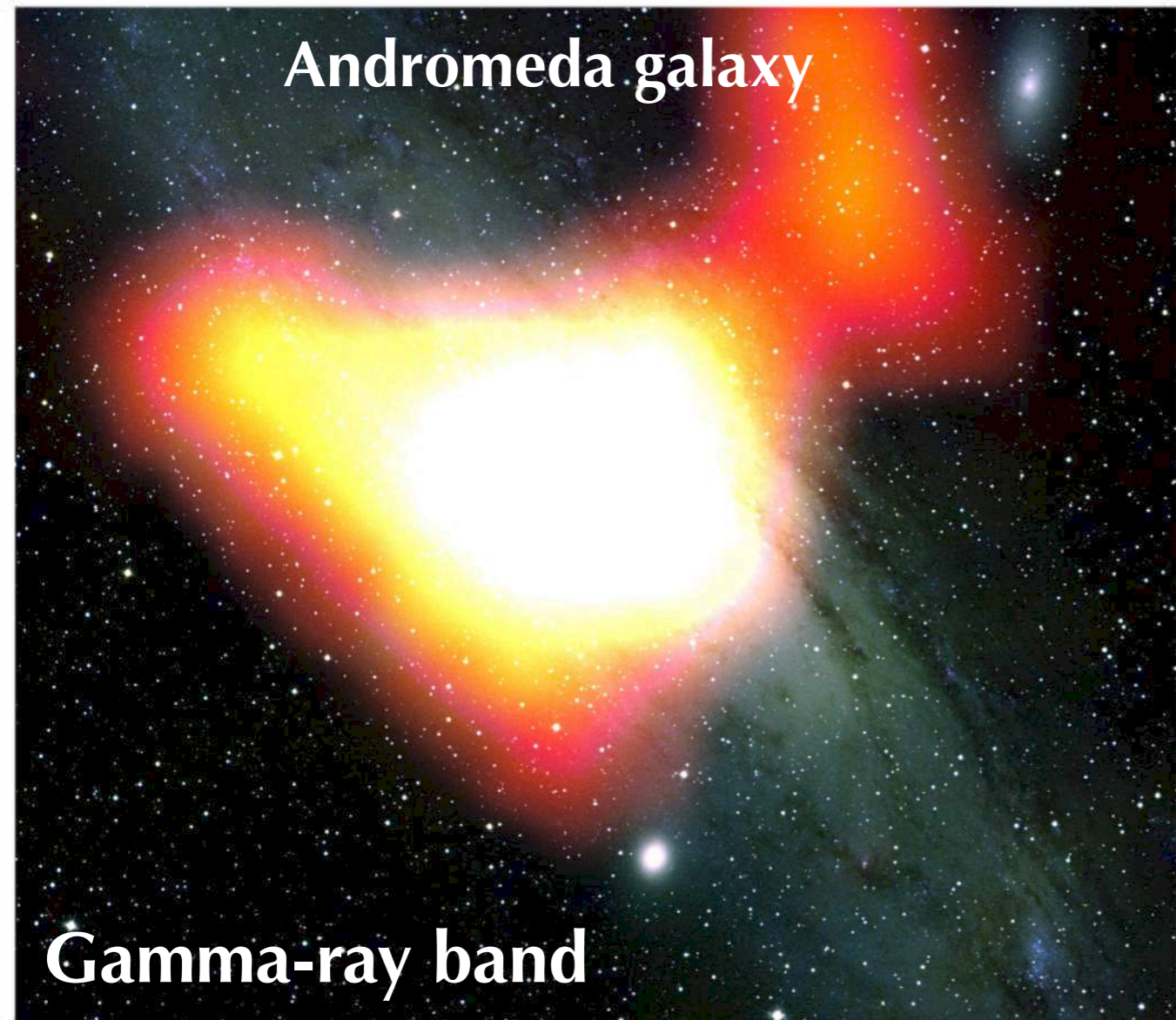
- gas in galaxy clusters ($T \sim 10^7$ K)
- accretion onto compact object (potential energy converted to kinetic energy + radiation)

Non-thermal emission:

- synchrotron
- inverse Compton



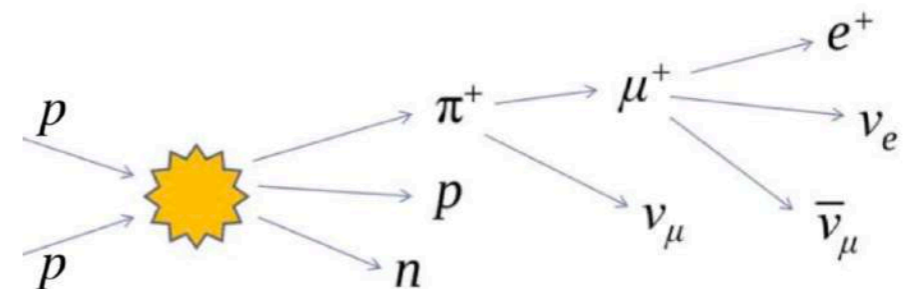
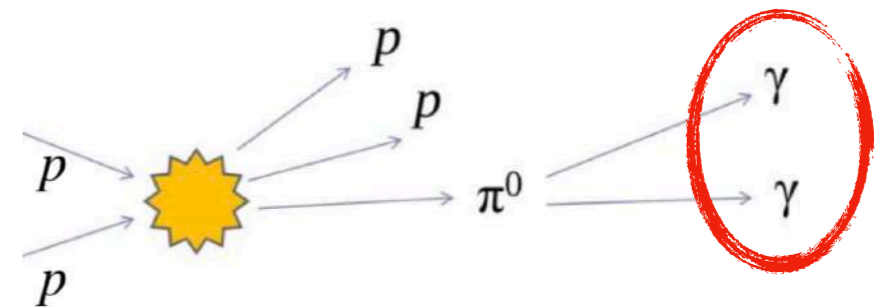
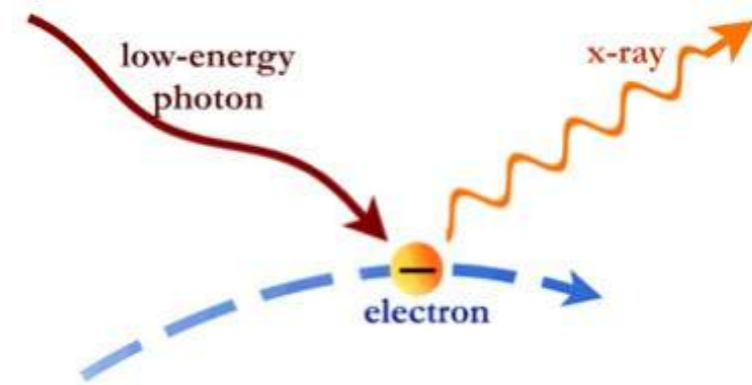
Multi-wavelength astronomy



Angular resolution: $\sim 1^\circ$ (70 000 lower than in optical)

Non-thermal processes:

- *inverse Compton (leptonic origin)*
- *Interaction of high-energy protons with interstellar gas (hadronic origin)*
- *Unknown sources (dark matter) ?*

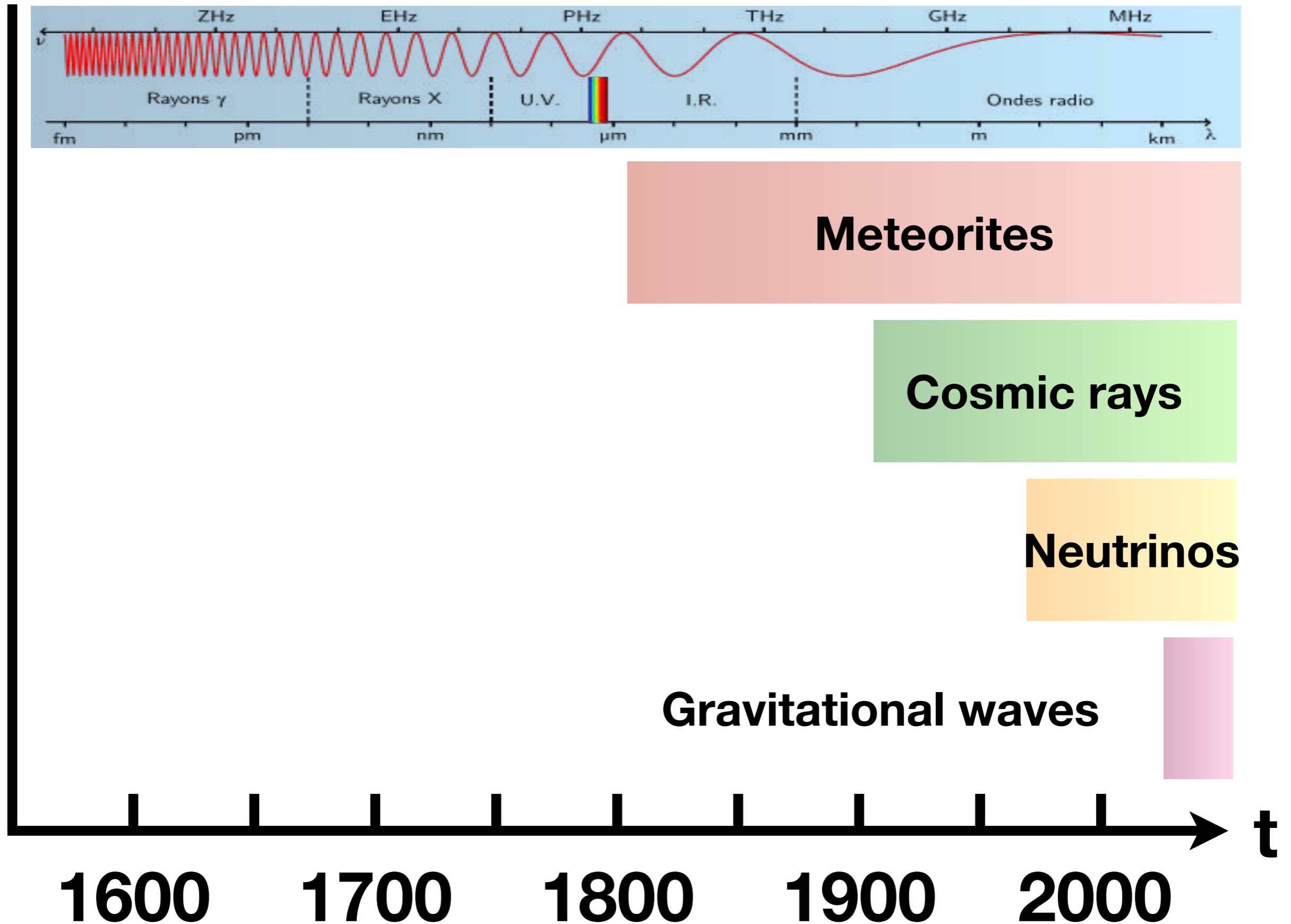


Outline - Lecture 1

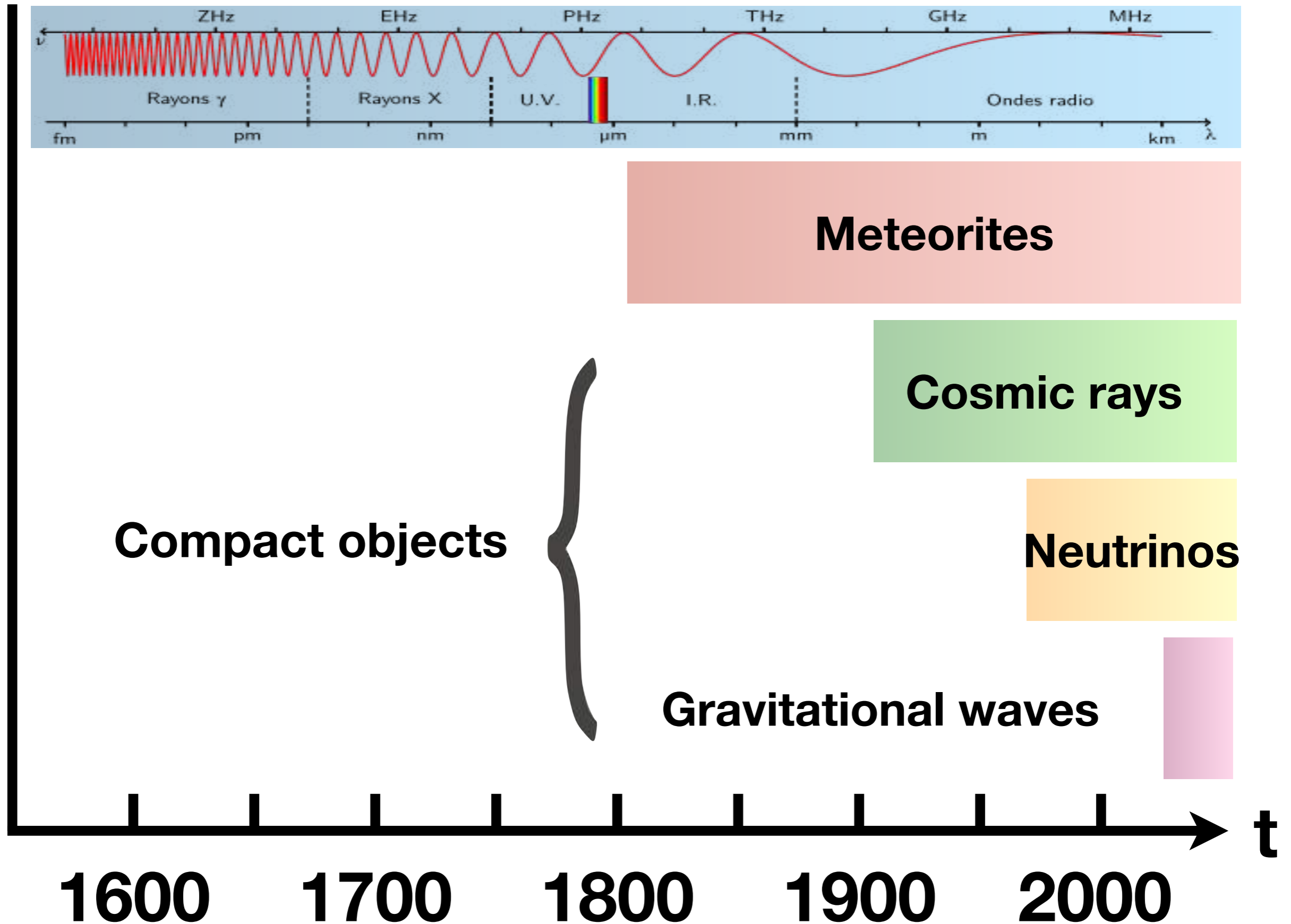
A. Introduction to multi-messenger astronomy

1. Astrophysical objects
2. From radio to gamma-rays: multi-wavelength astronomy (emission processes and instruments)
3. **Multi-messenger astronomy: cosmic rays, neutrinos, gravitational waves**

Multi-messenger astronomy



Multi-messenger astronomy

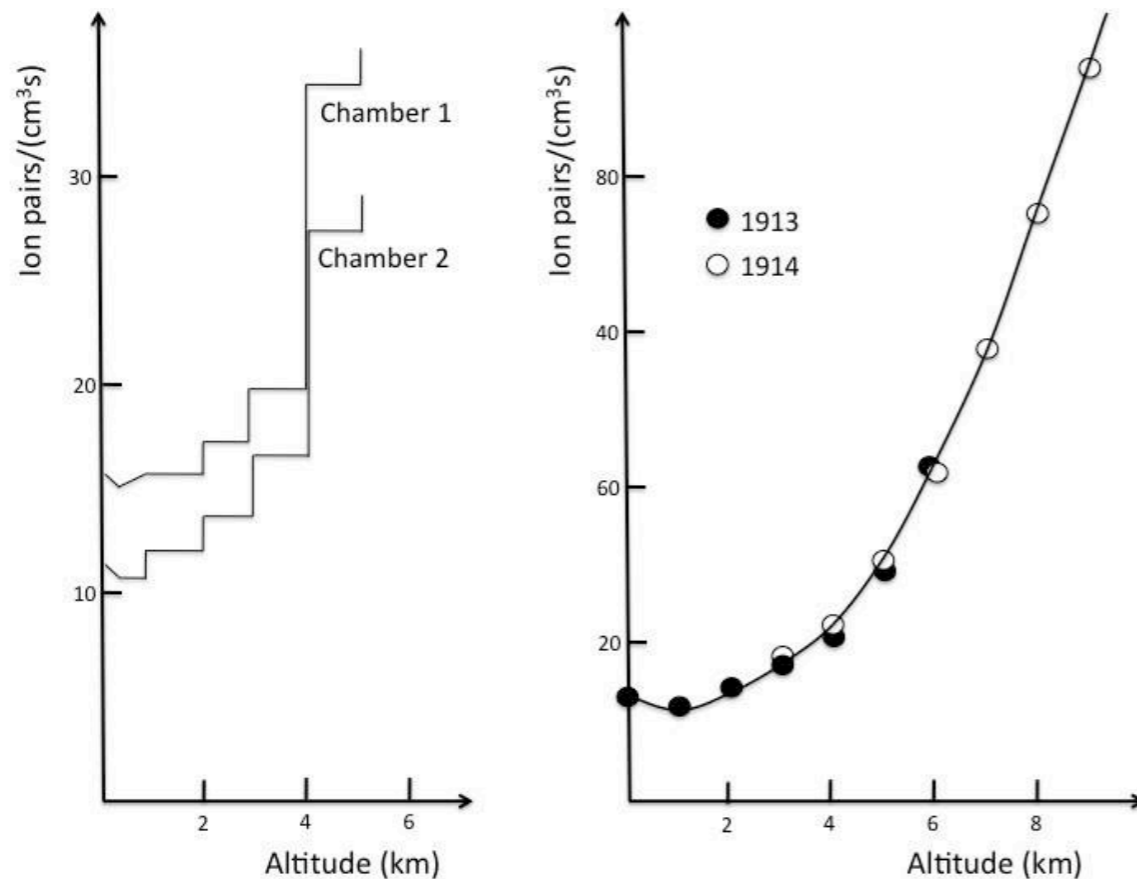


Cosmic Rays

Cosmic rays are charged particles coming from outside the atmosphere

Discovered 109 yr ago by V. Hess in 1912, through the detection of increase of the ionization rate with the altitude.

« The results of the observations seem most likely to be explained by the assumption that radiation of very high penetrating power enters from above into our atmosphere. »

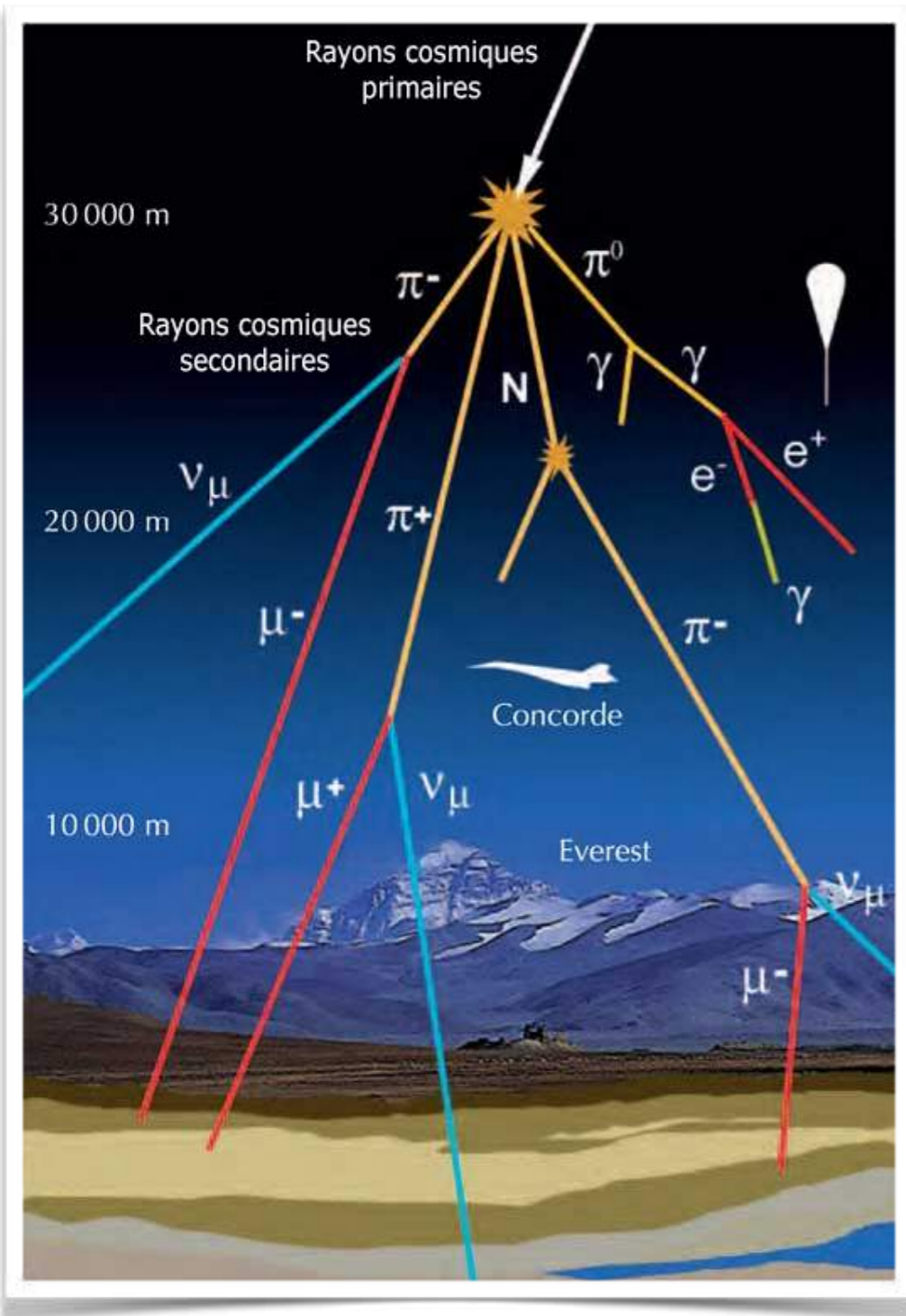


Nobel Prize in Physics - 1936



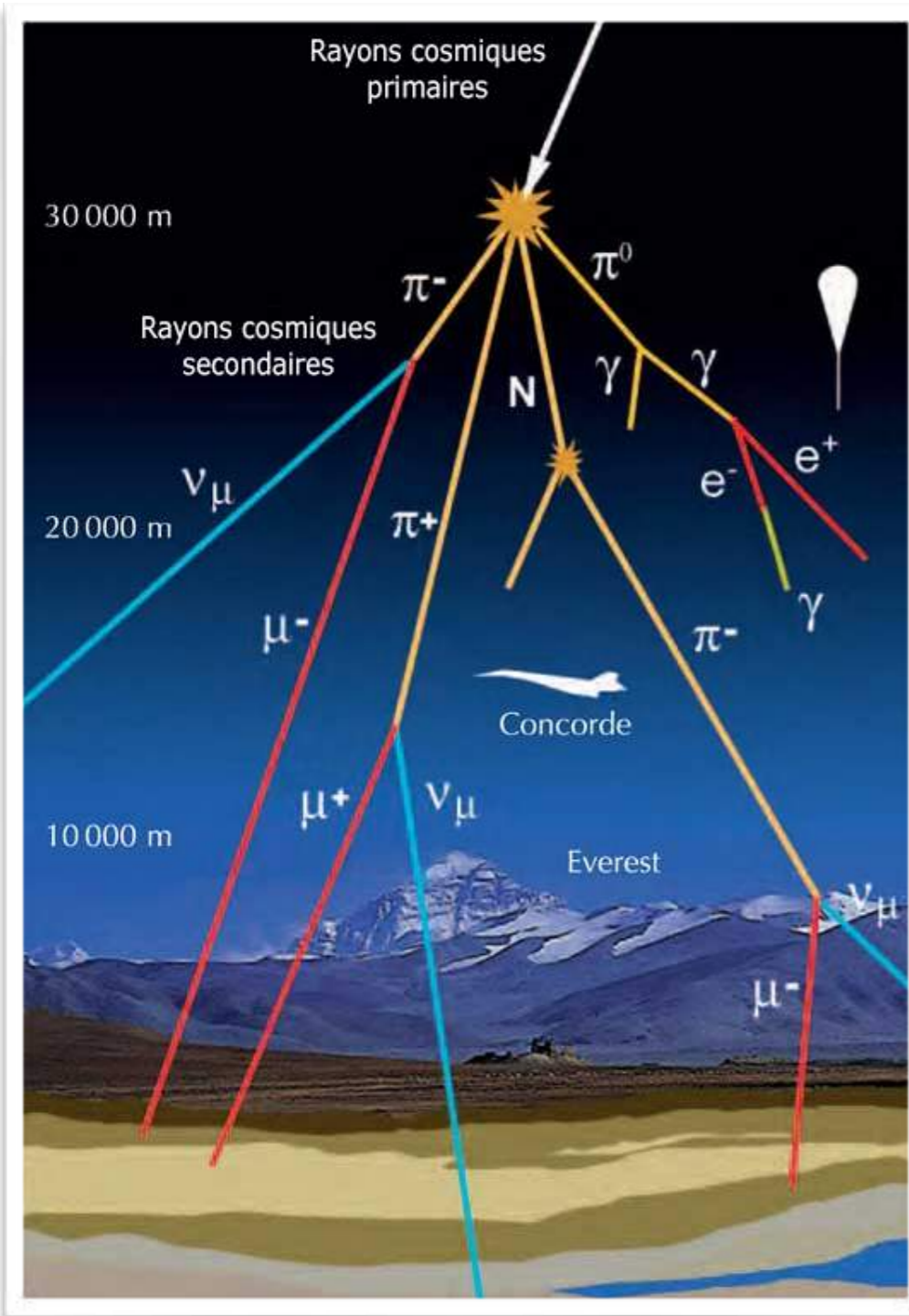
Cosmic Rays

V. Hess' observations: secondary particles produced by the interaction of high-energy particles with the atmosphere.

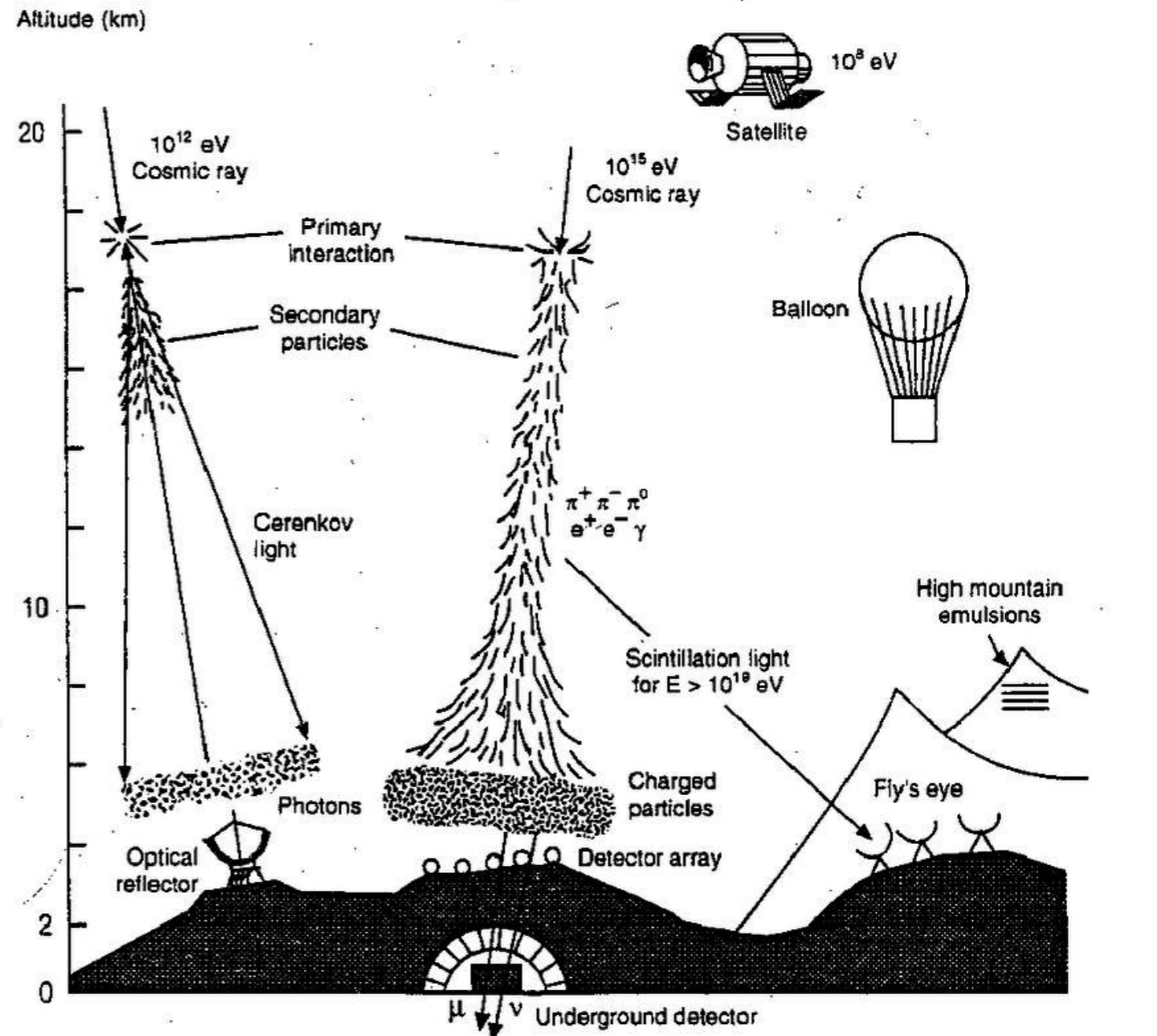


Cosmic Rays

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From 1950: first direct observations using satellites and stratospheric balloons.



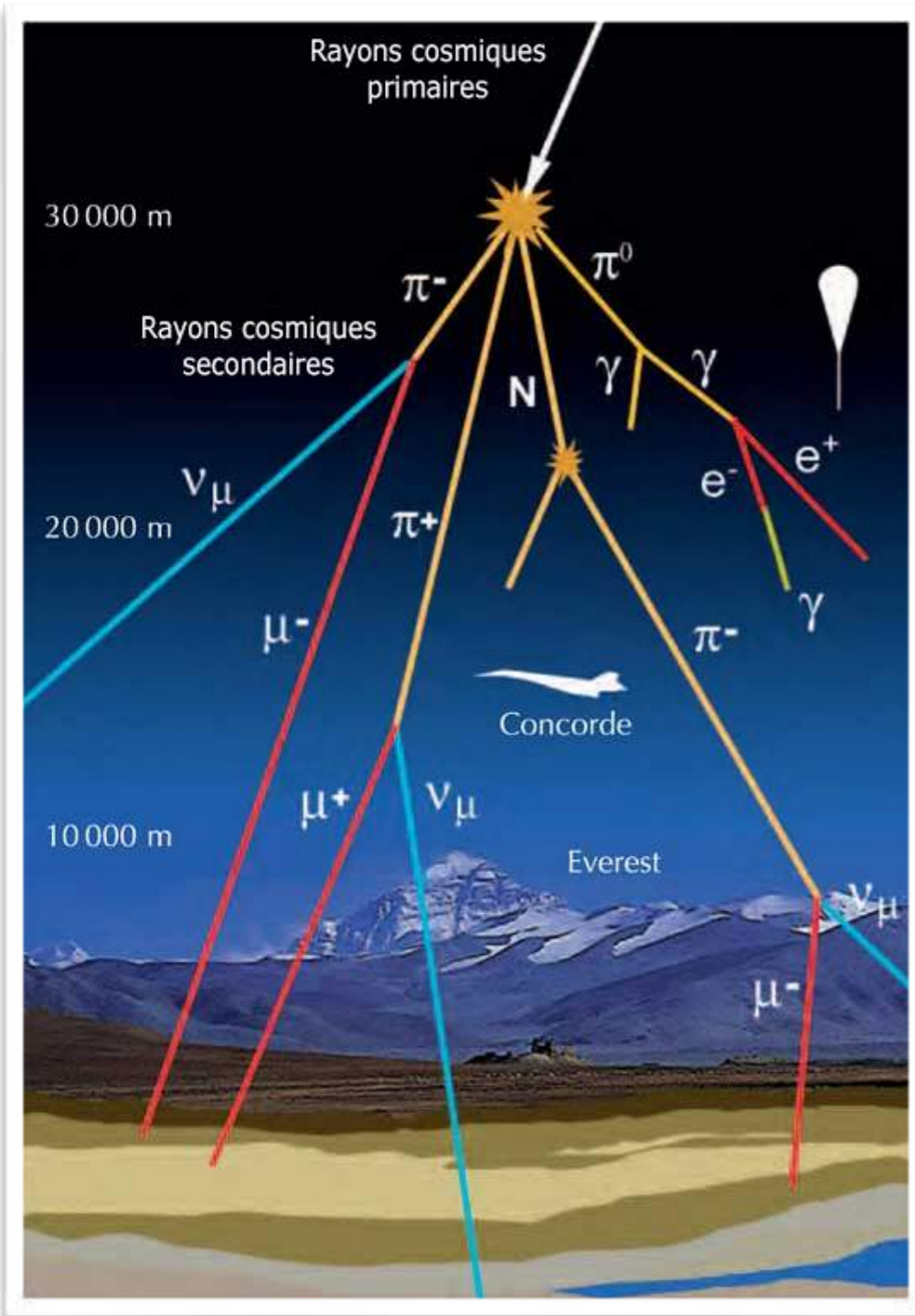
| Hadron flux: | | @ | TeV | 10 ¹² eV |
|-------------------------------------|--|---|-----|---------------------|
| 1 particle/m ² /s | | @ | PeV | 10 ¹⁵ eV |
| 1 particle/m ² /day | | @ | EeV | 10 ¹⁸ eV |
| 1 particle/km ² /day | | @ | | 10 ²⁰ eV |
| 1 particle/km ² /century | | @ | | |

Satellites + balloons

Ground detectors
(indirect detection)

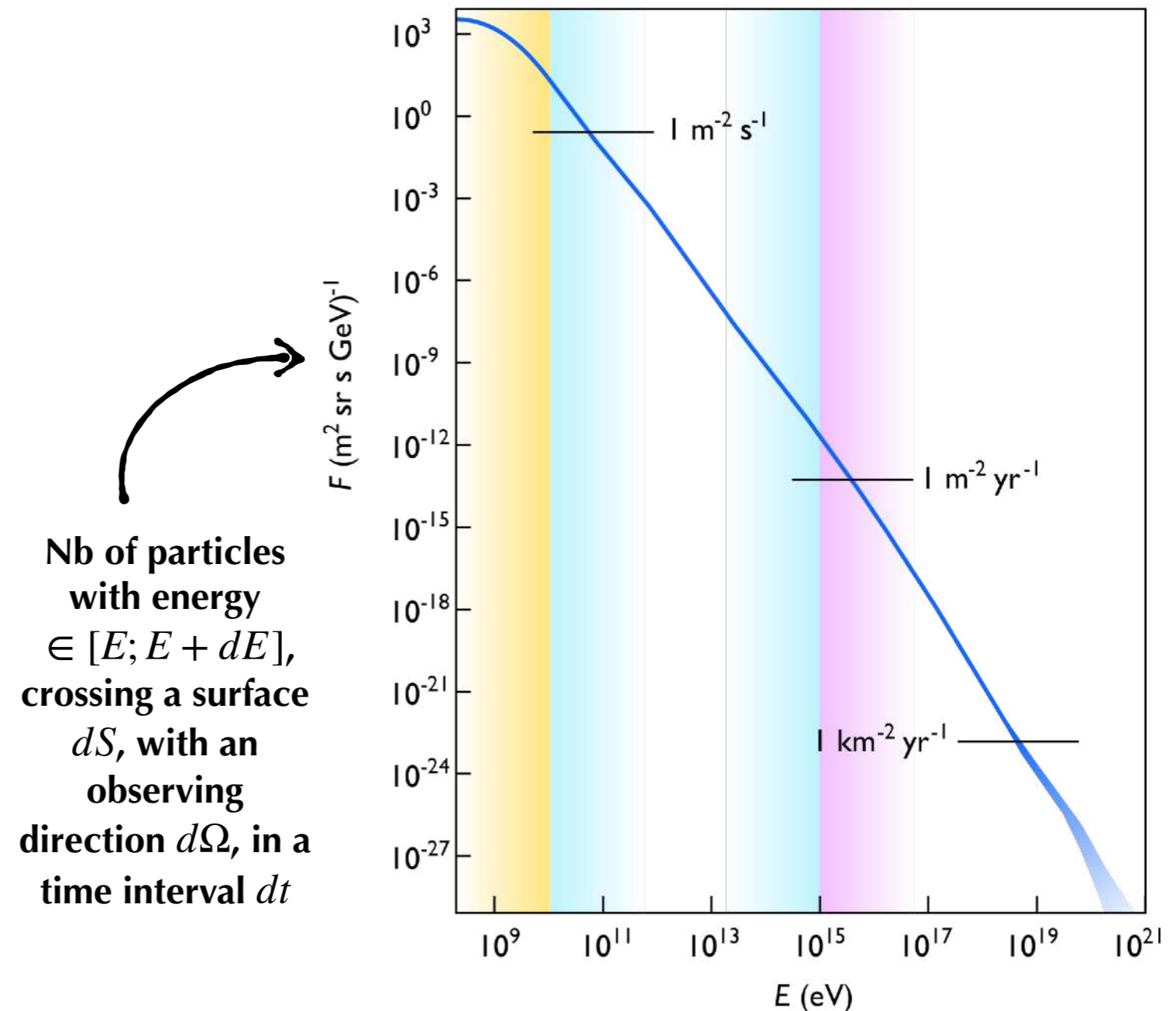
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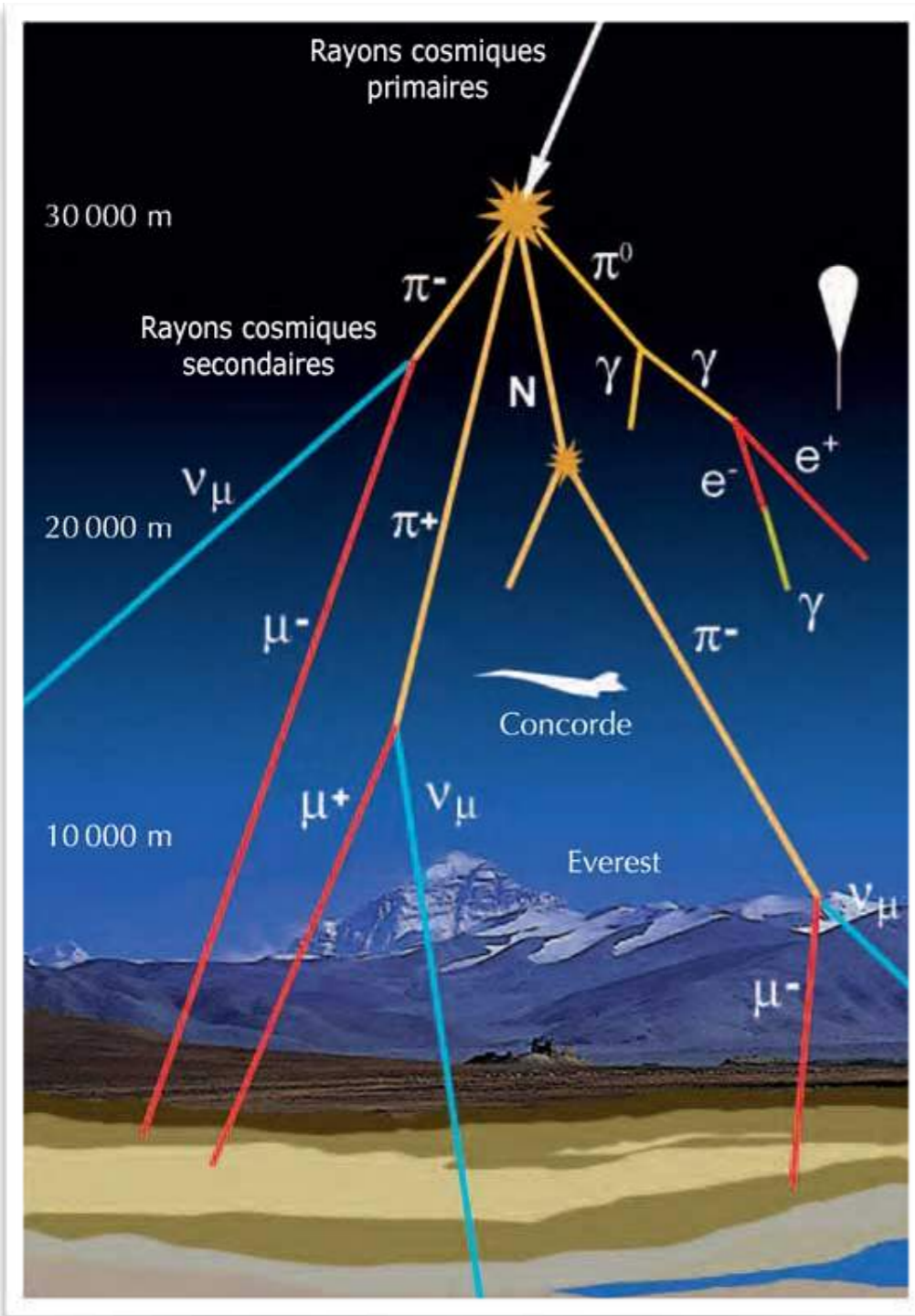
From 1950: first direct observations using satellites and stratospheric balloons.

\Rightarrow cosmic ray **composition:** 88% of protons, 9% of He nuclei, + e^- , heavier nucleons, ... + **spectrum**



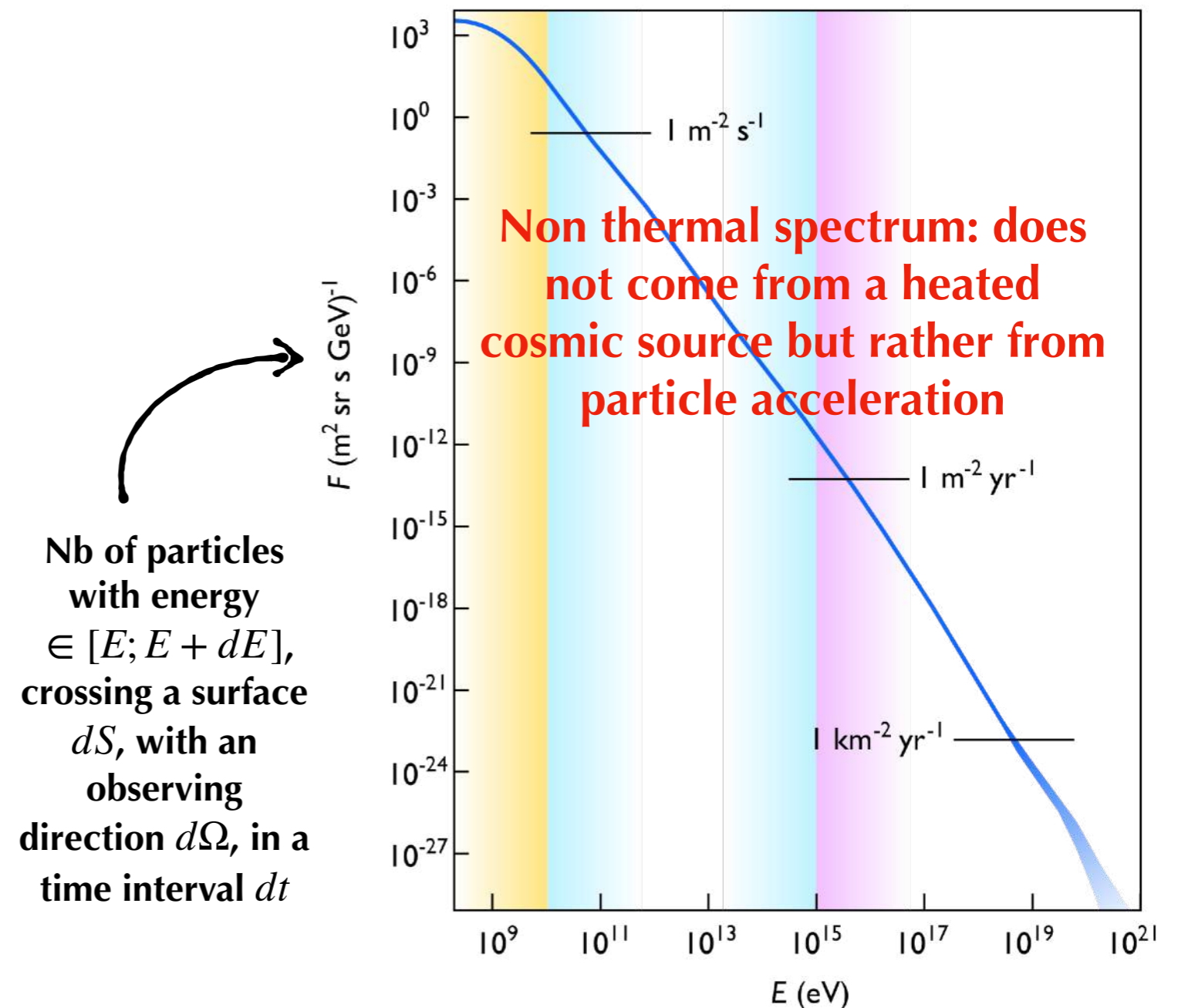
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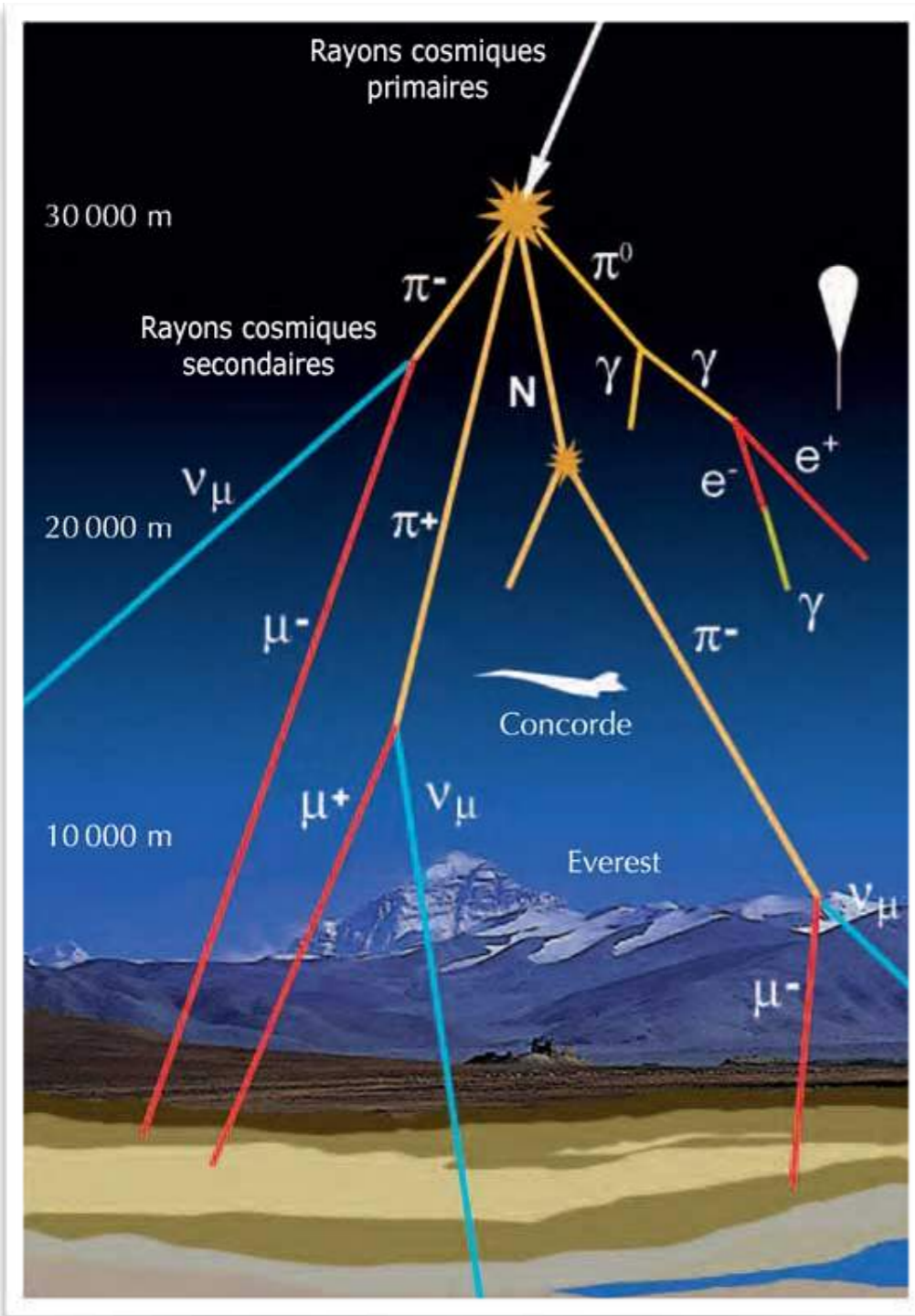
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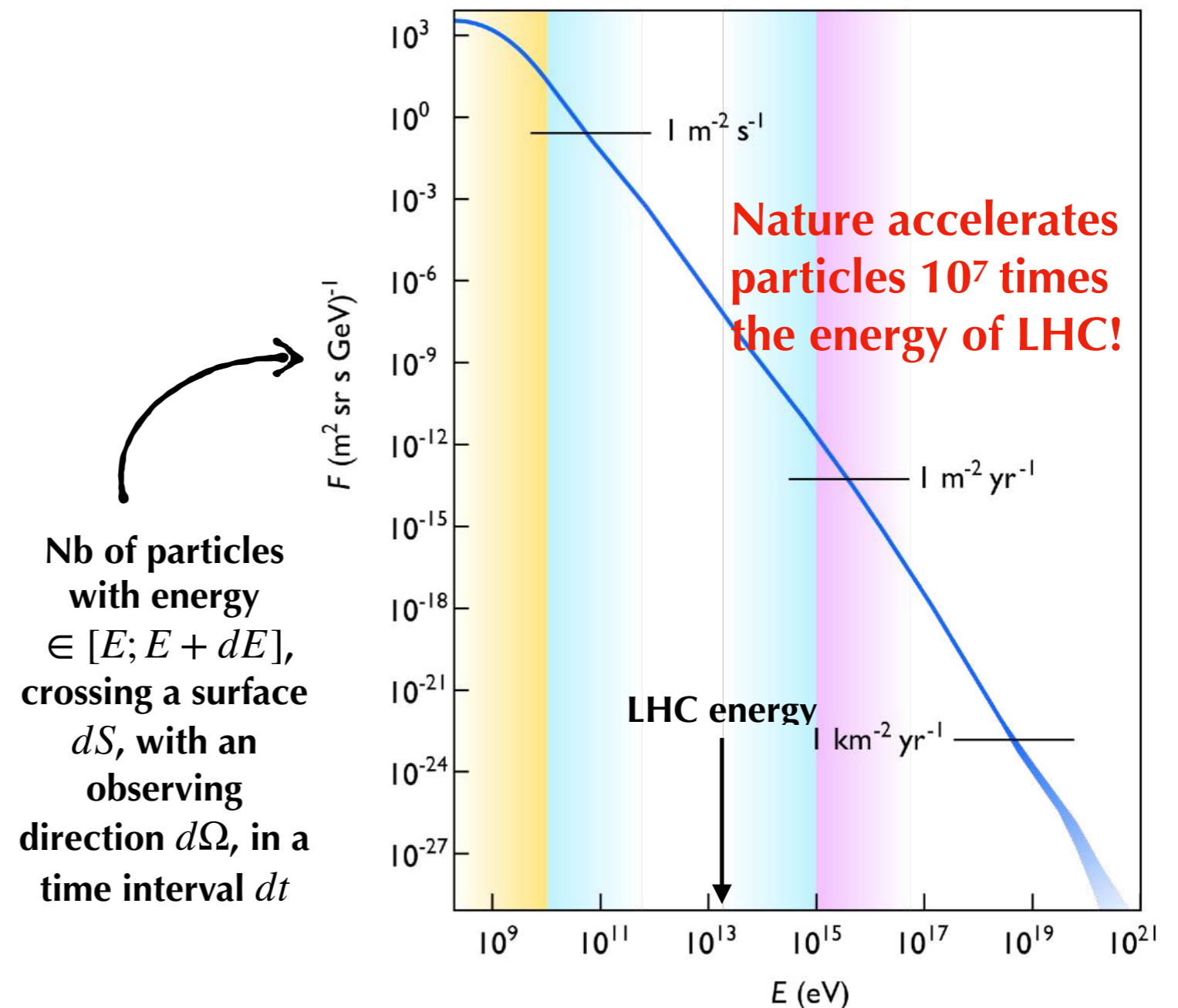
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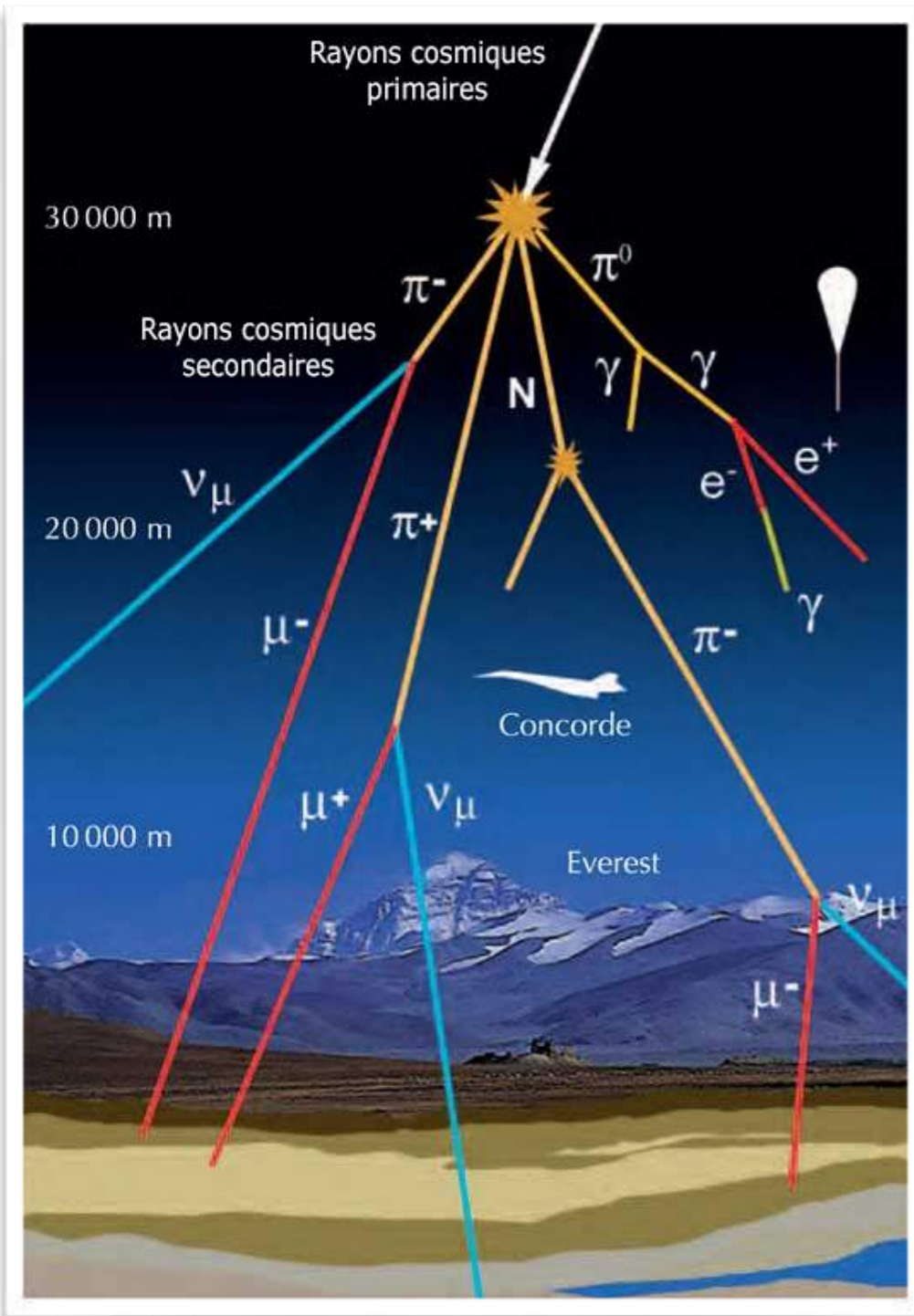
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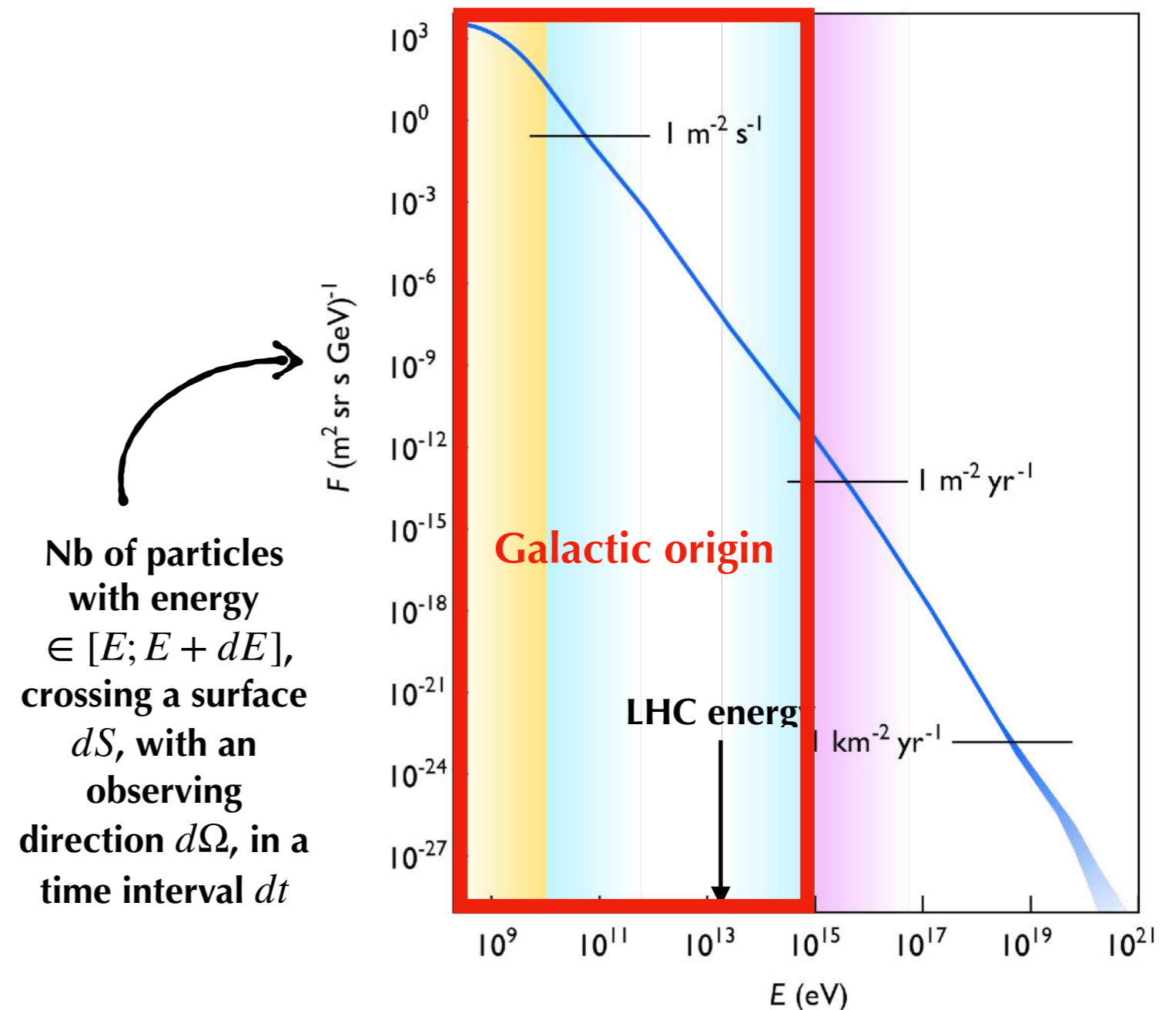
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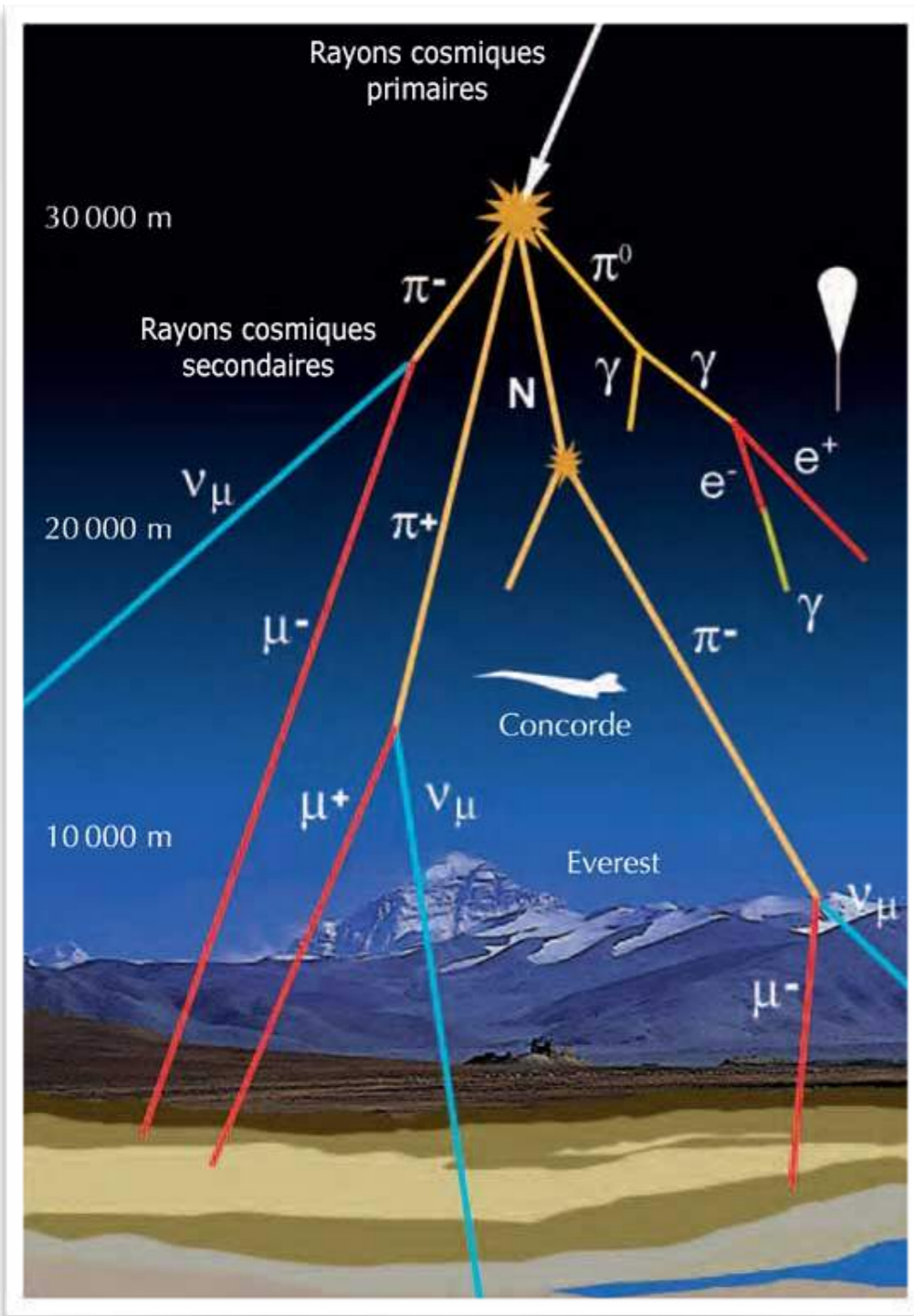
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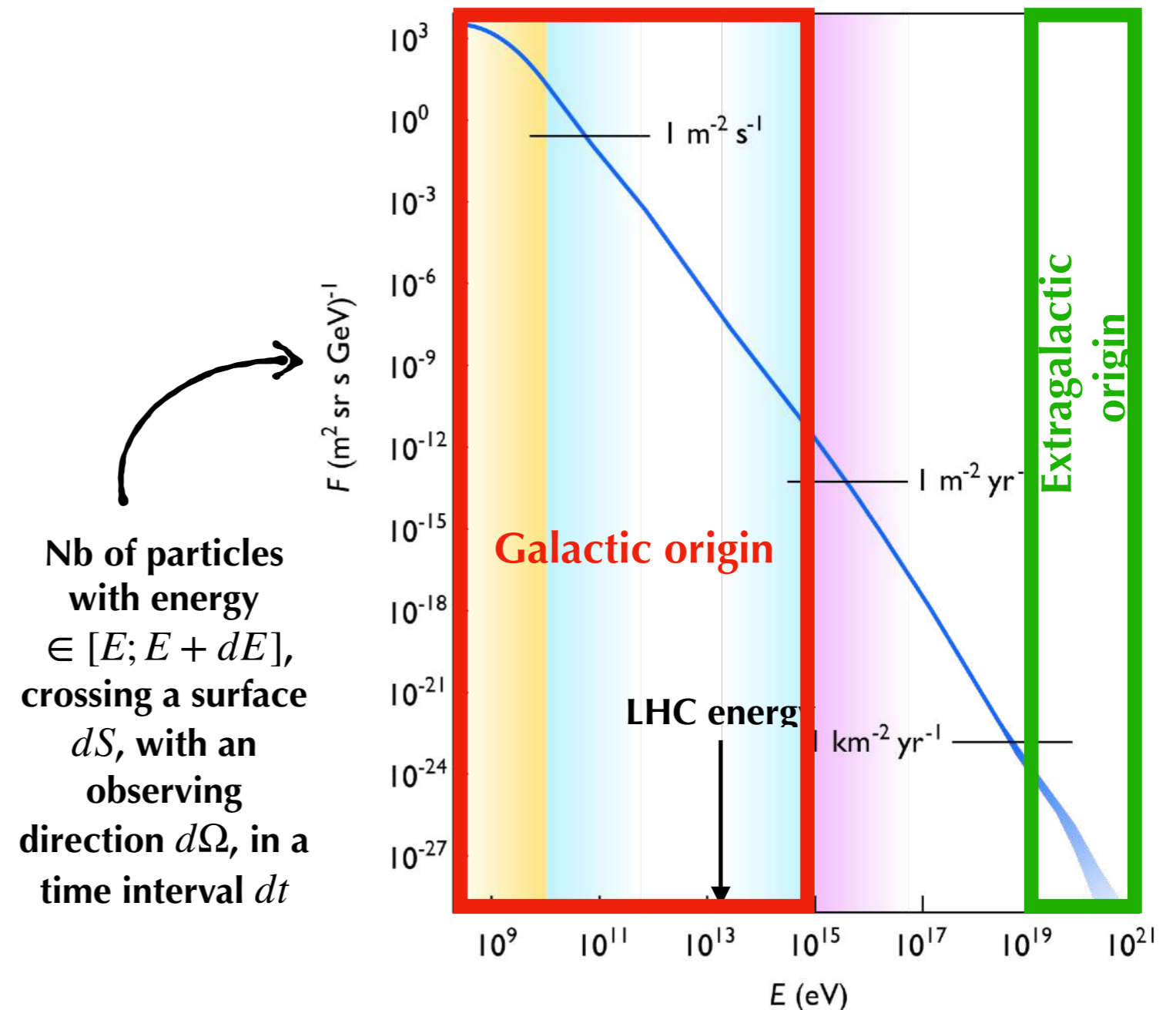
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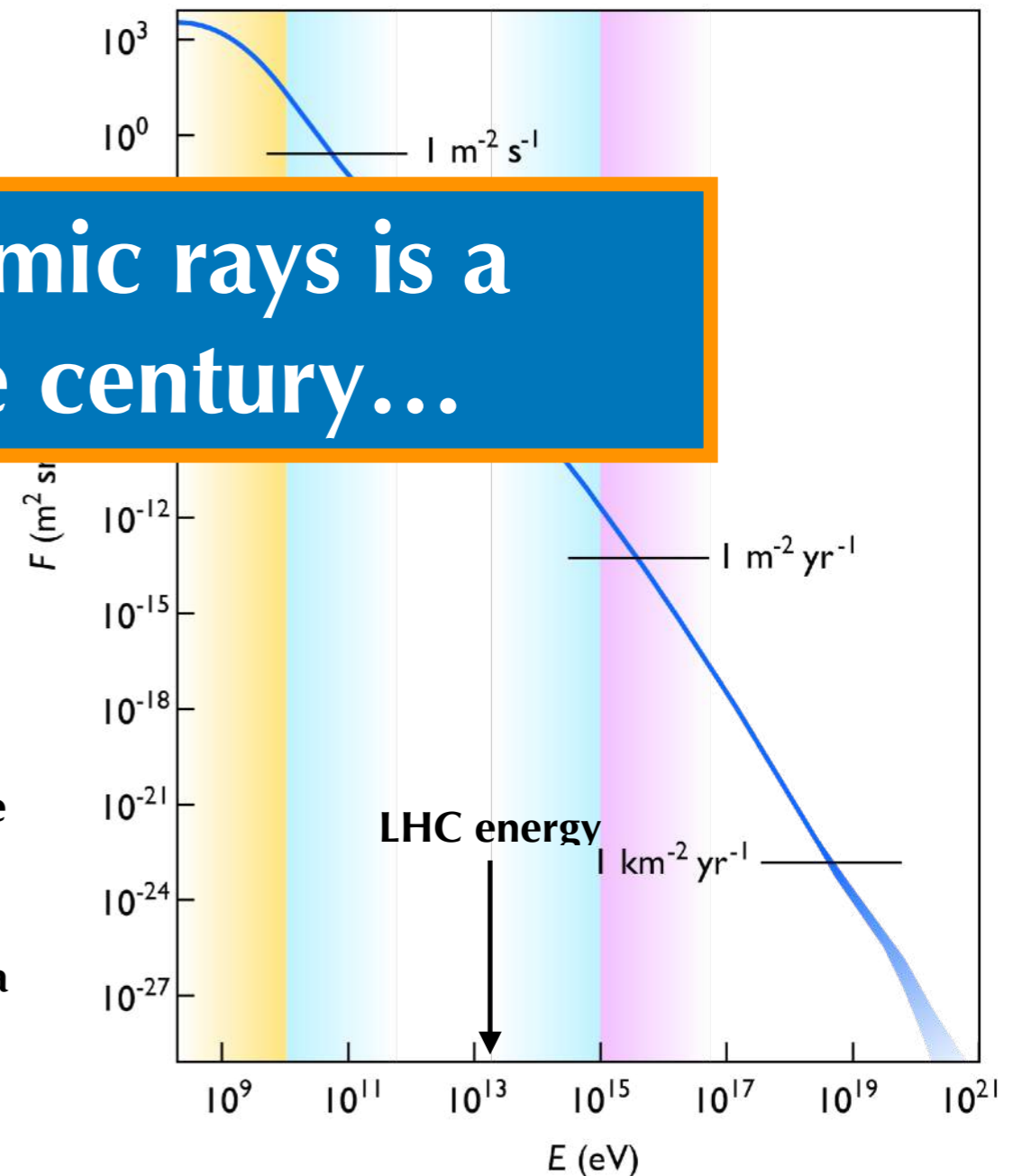
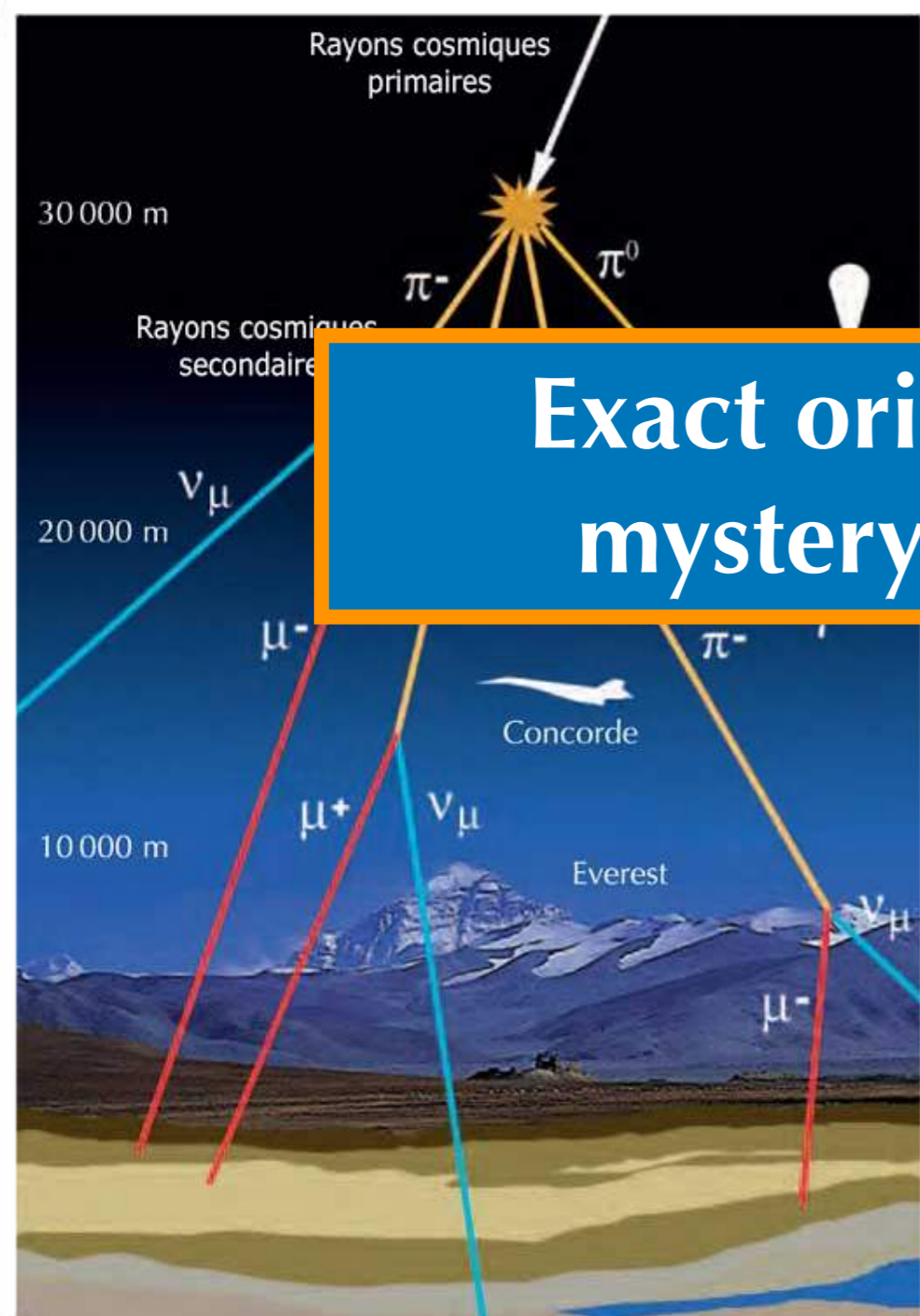
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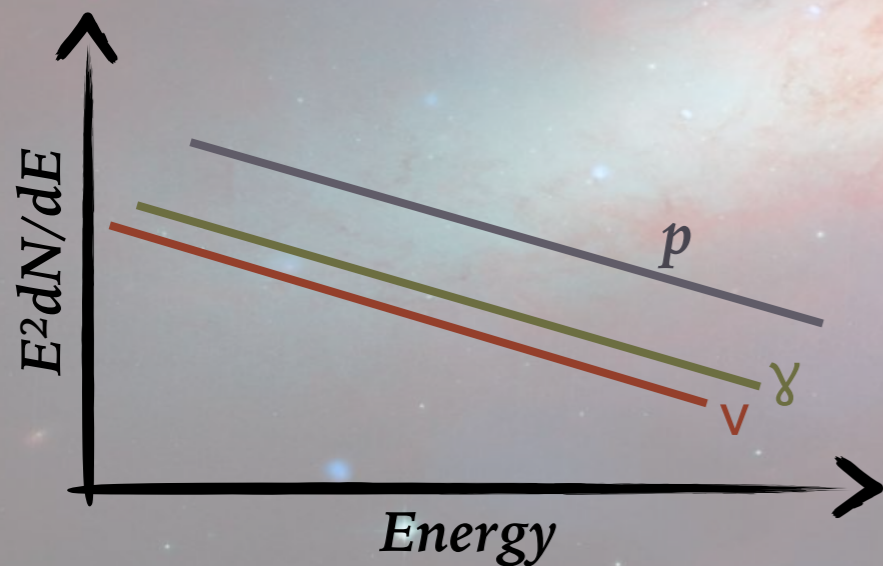
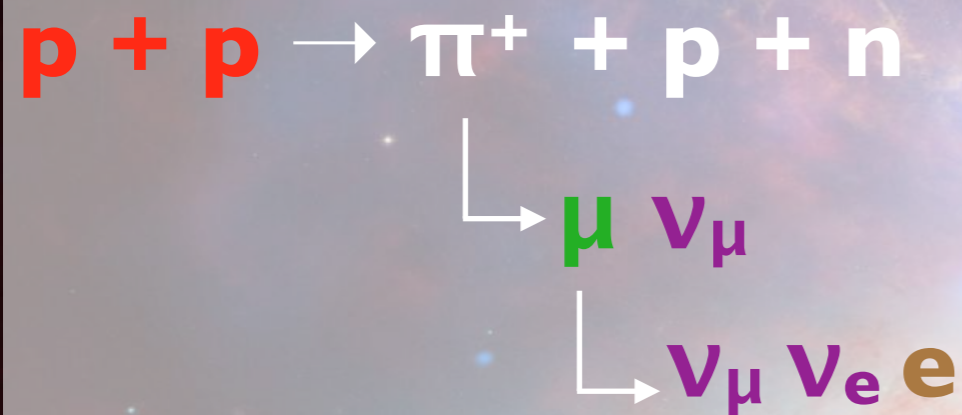
⇒ cosmic ray **composition:** 88% of protons, 9% of He nuclei, + électrons, heavier nucleons, ... + **spectrum**

Exact origin of cosmic rays is a mystery since one century...



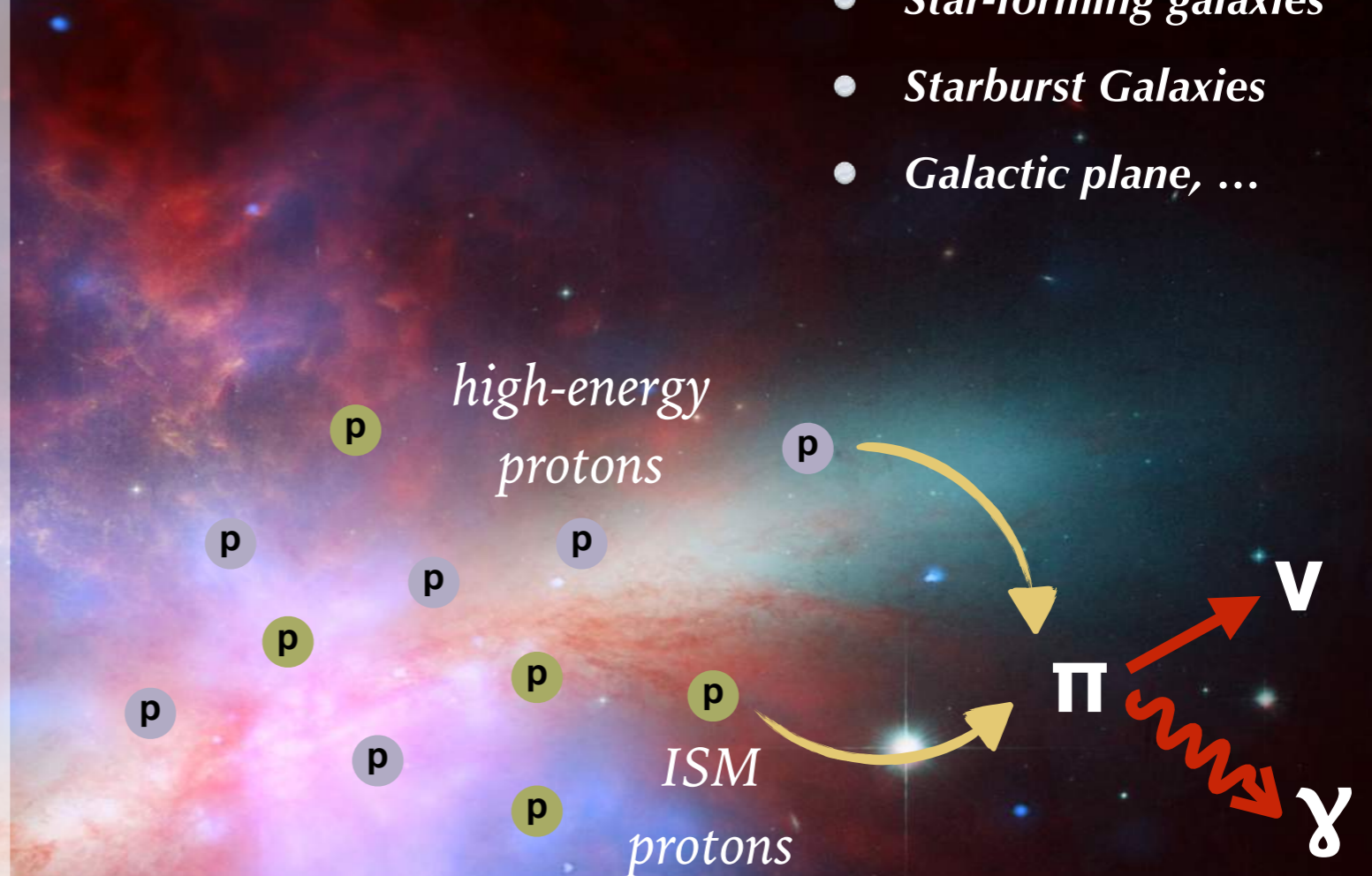
Nb of particles with energy $\in [E; E + dE]$, crossing a surface dS , with an observing direction $d\Omega$, in a time interval dt

Neutrinos



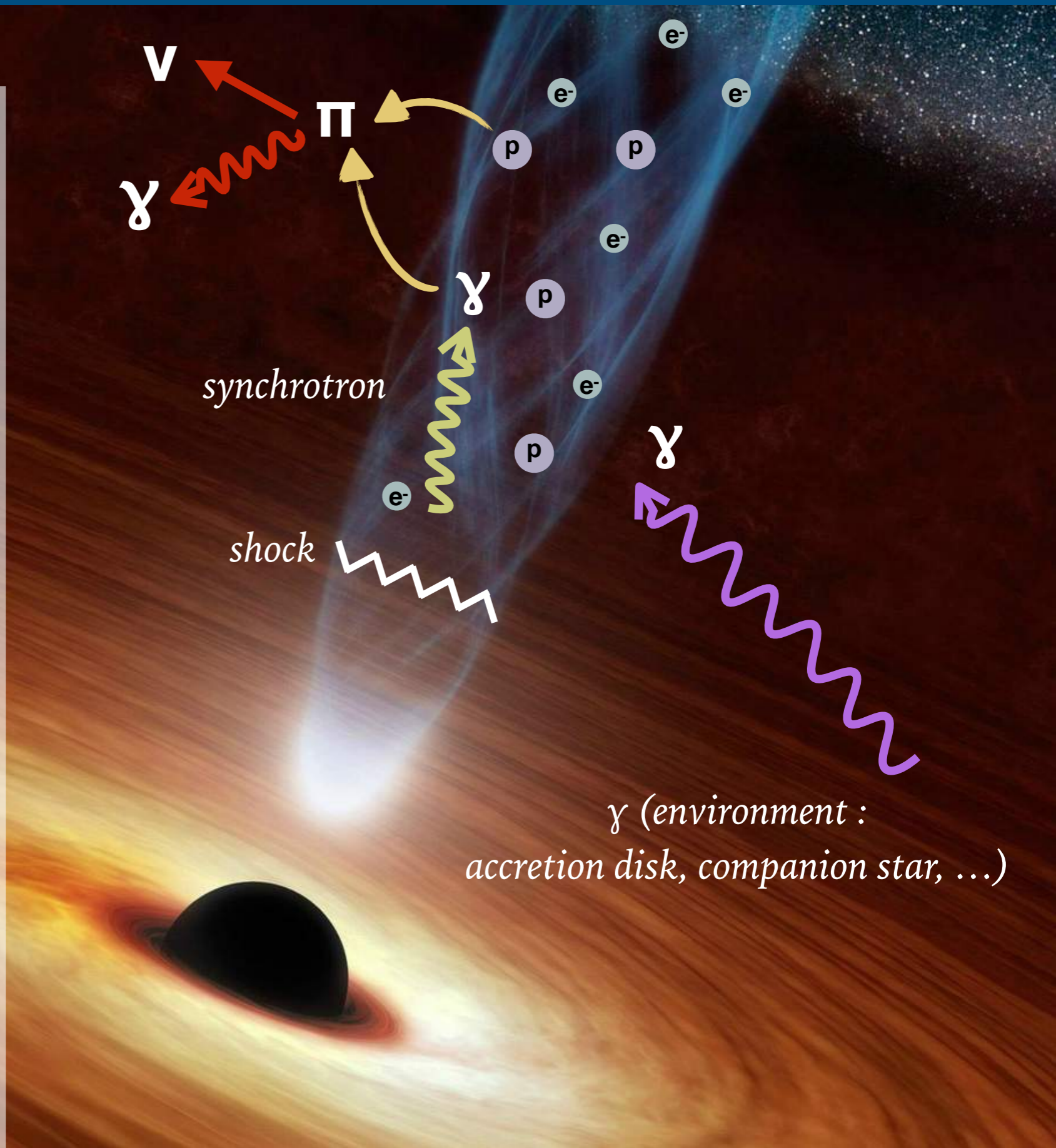
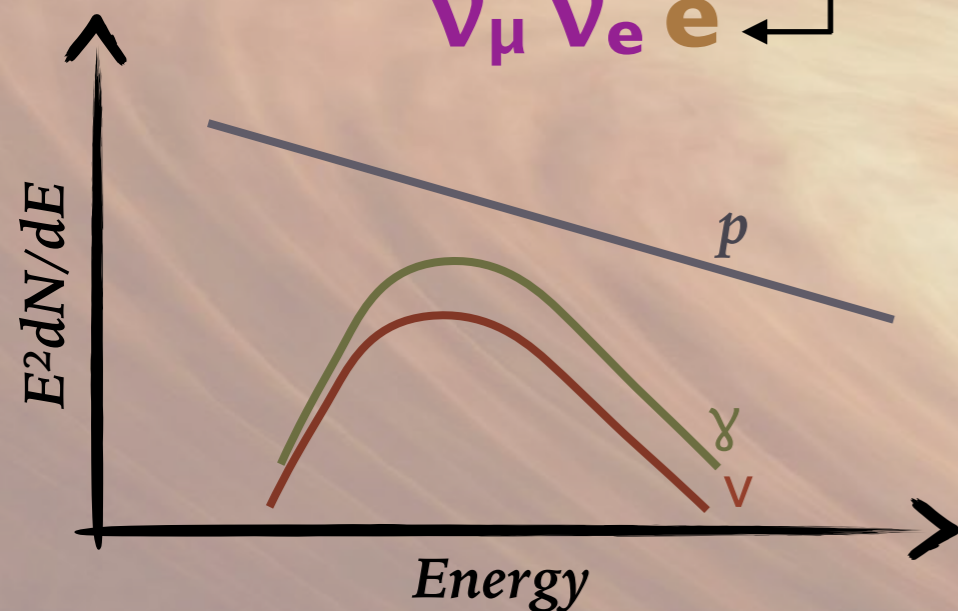
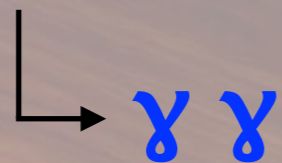
Cosmic-ray reservoirs

- Star-forming galaxies
- Starburst Galaxies
- Galactic plane, ...



Neutrinos

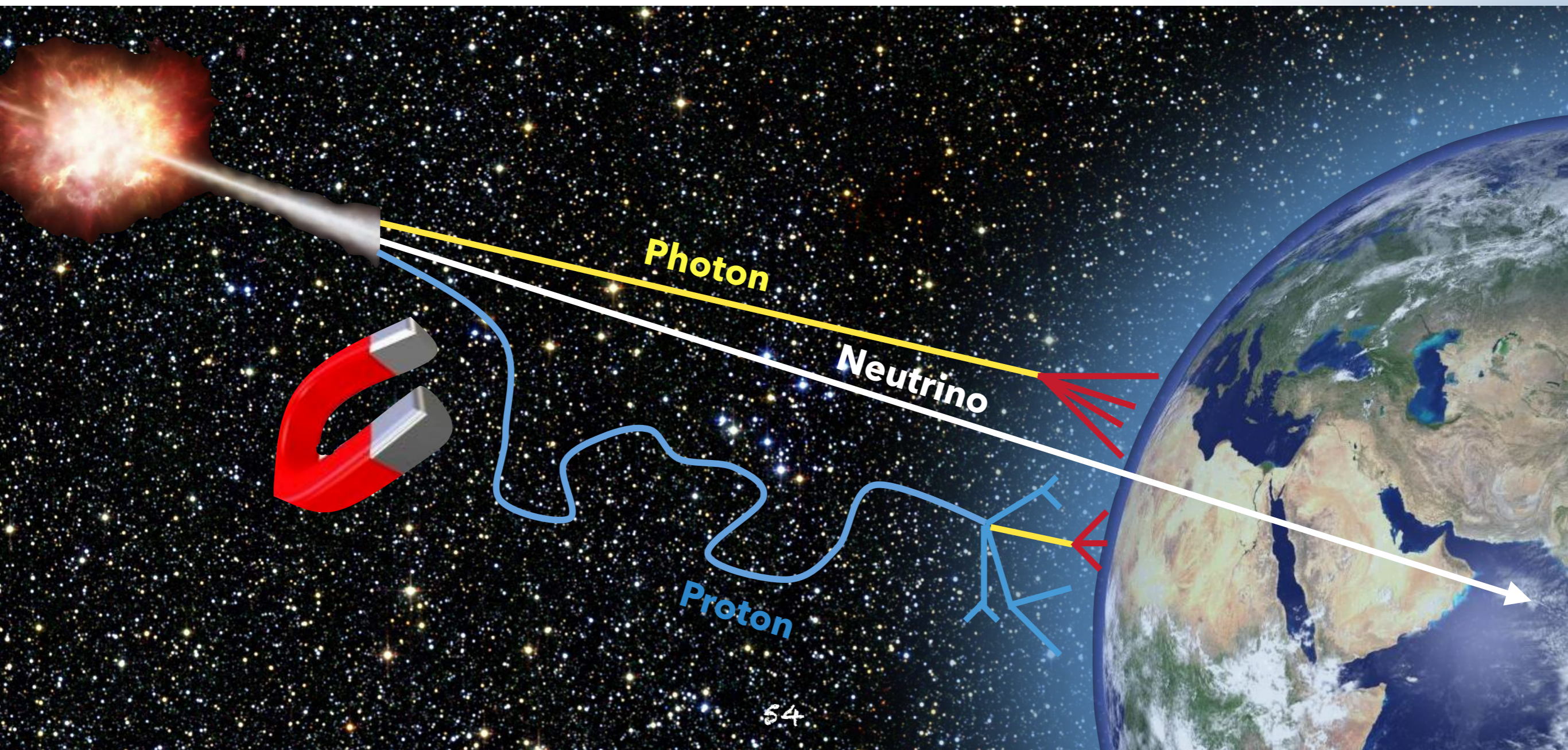
Photohadronic



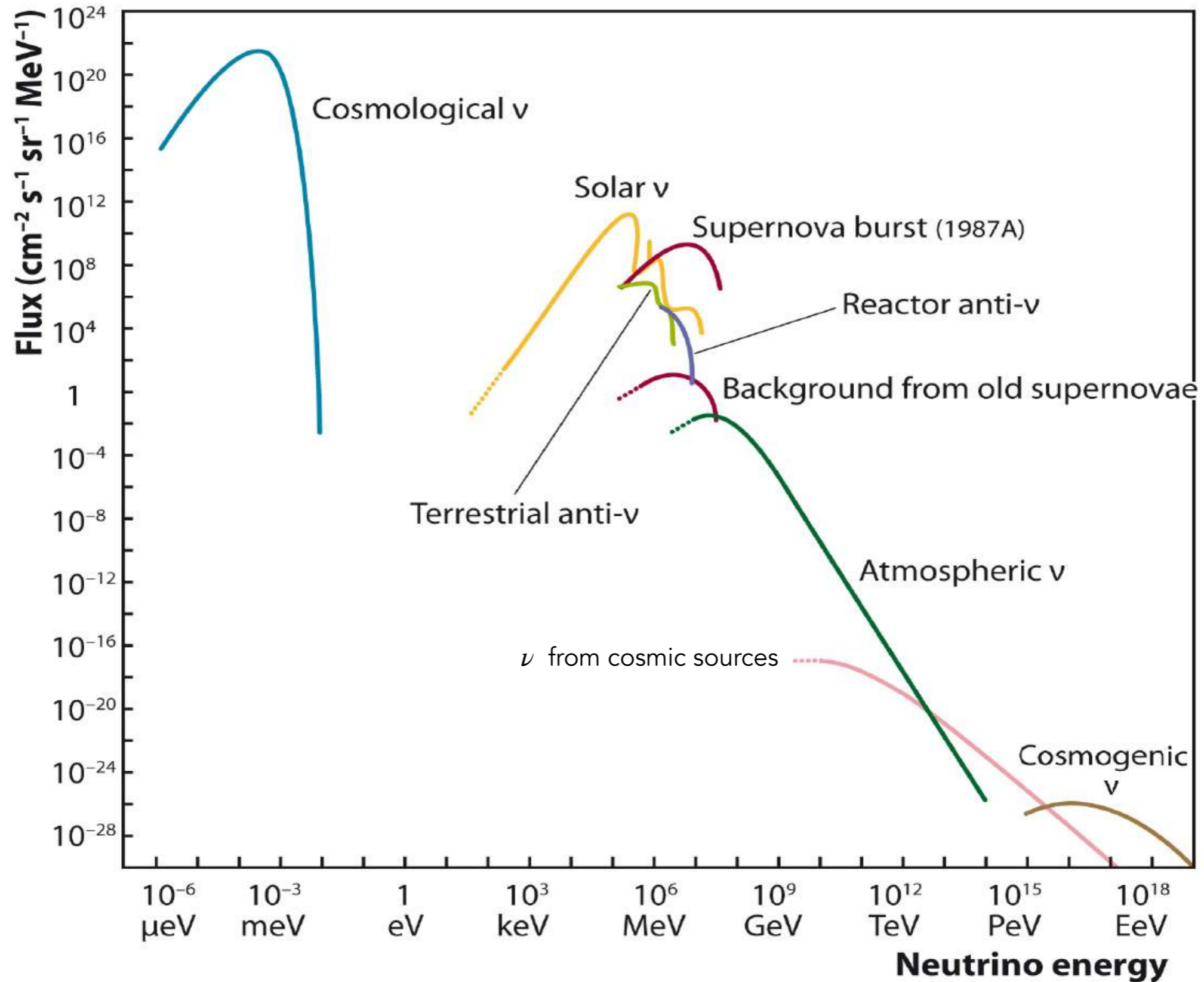
Multi-messenger astronomy

- Photons (γ -rays): absorbed and interact with CMB/IRB (pair production for $d \gtrsim \text{Mpc}$)
- Cosmic Rays: deflected by magnetic fields + GZK effect with CMB
- Neutrinos: neutral, weakly interacting particles, escape from dense mediapoint to the source

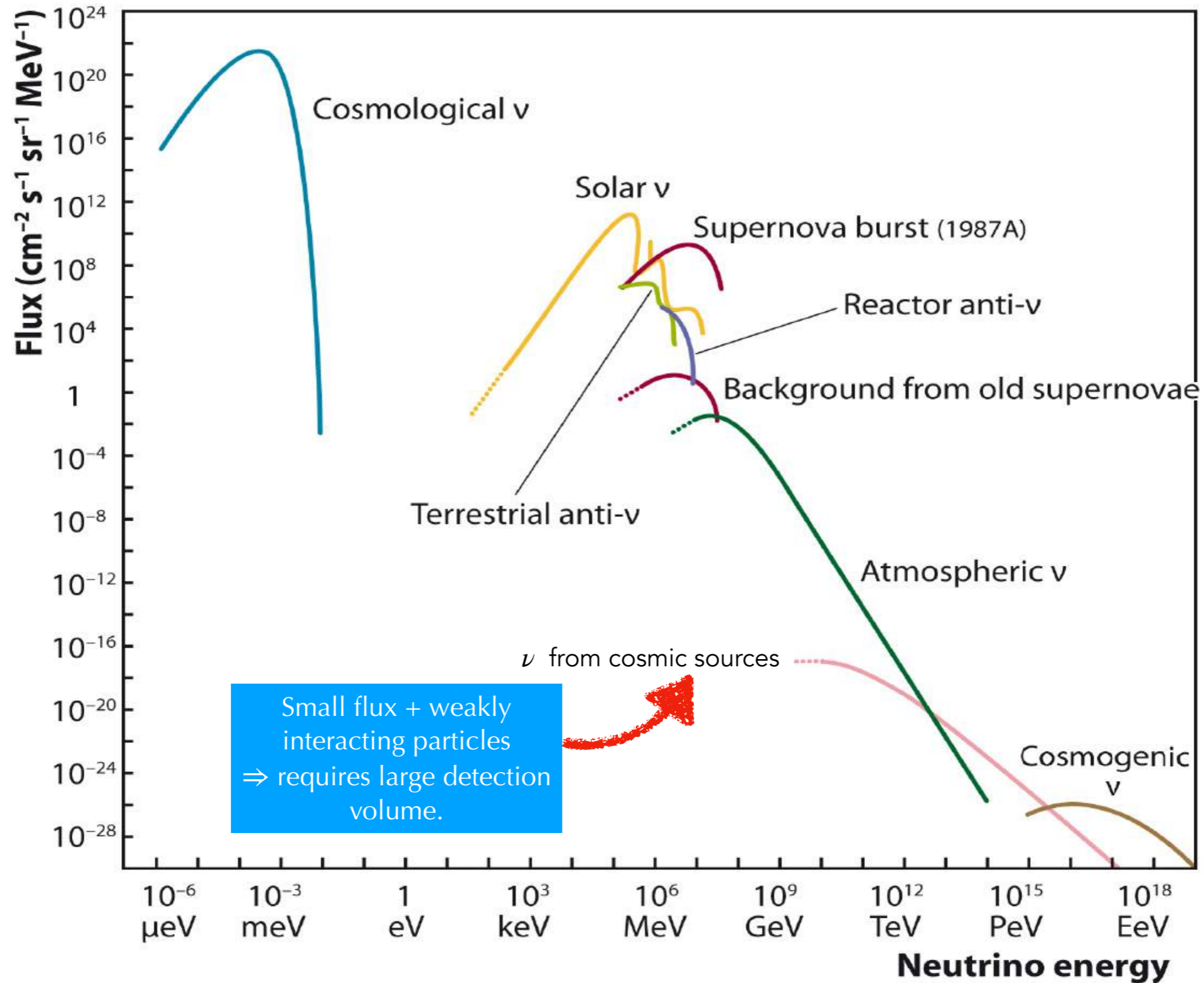
But neutrinos are rare and difficult to detect (do not undergo EM interactions, low interaction probability, huge background, indirect detection)



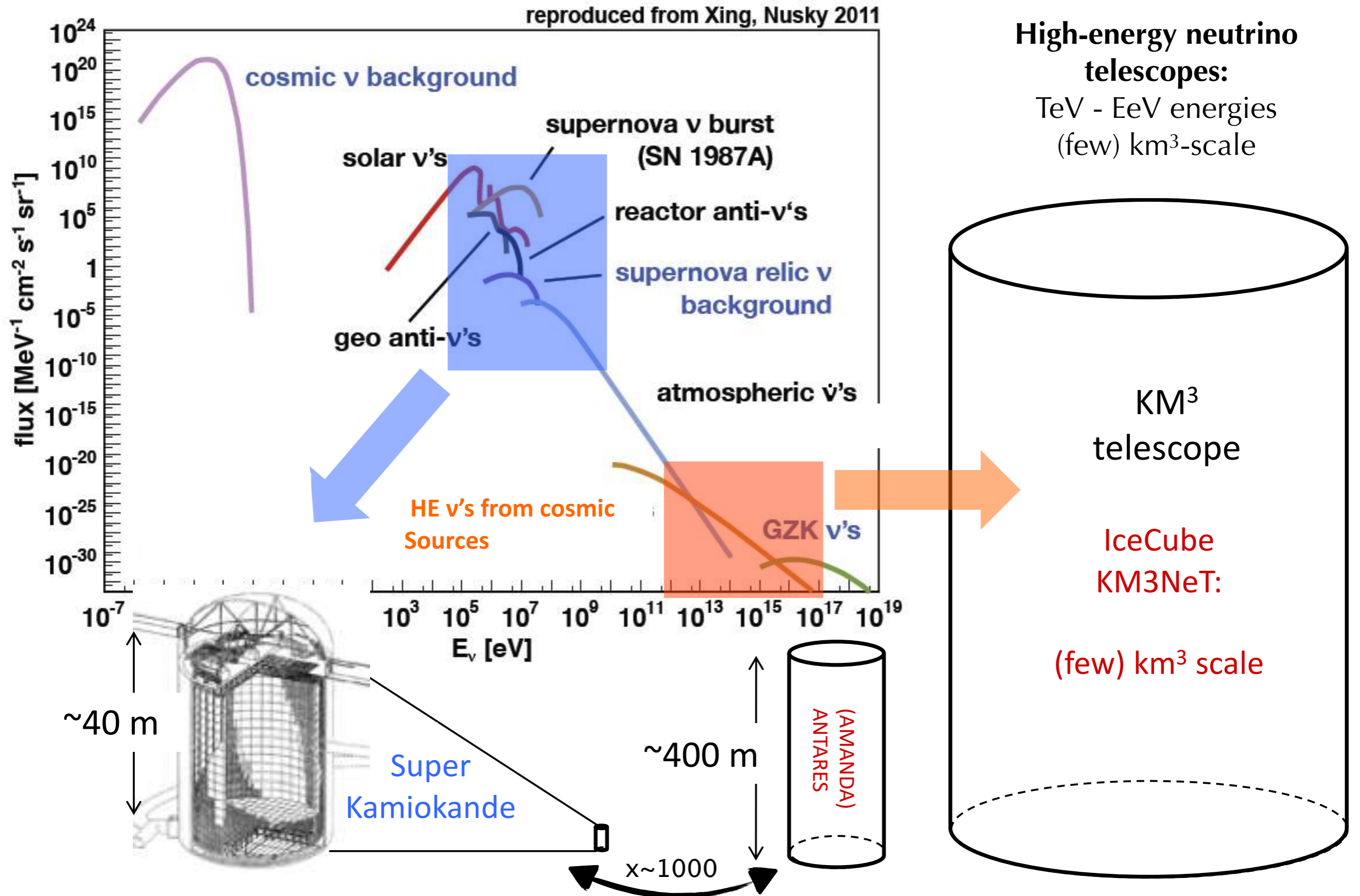
Neutrino spectrum



Neutrino spectrum



Neutrino telescopes





Neutrino telescopes

At a depth of 2500m

~400m

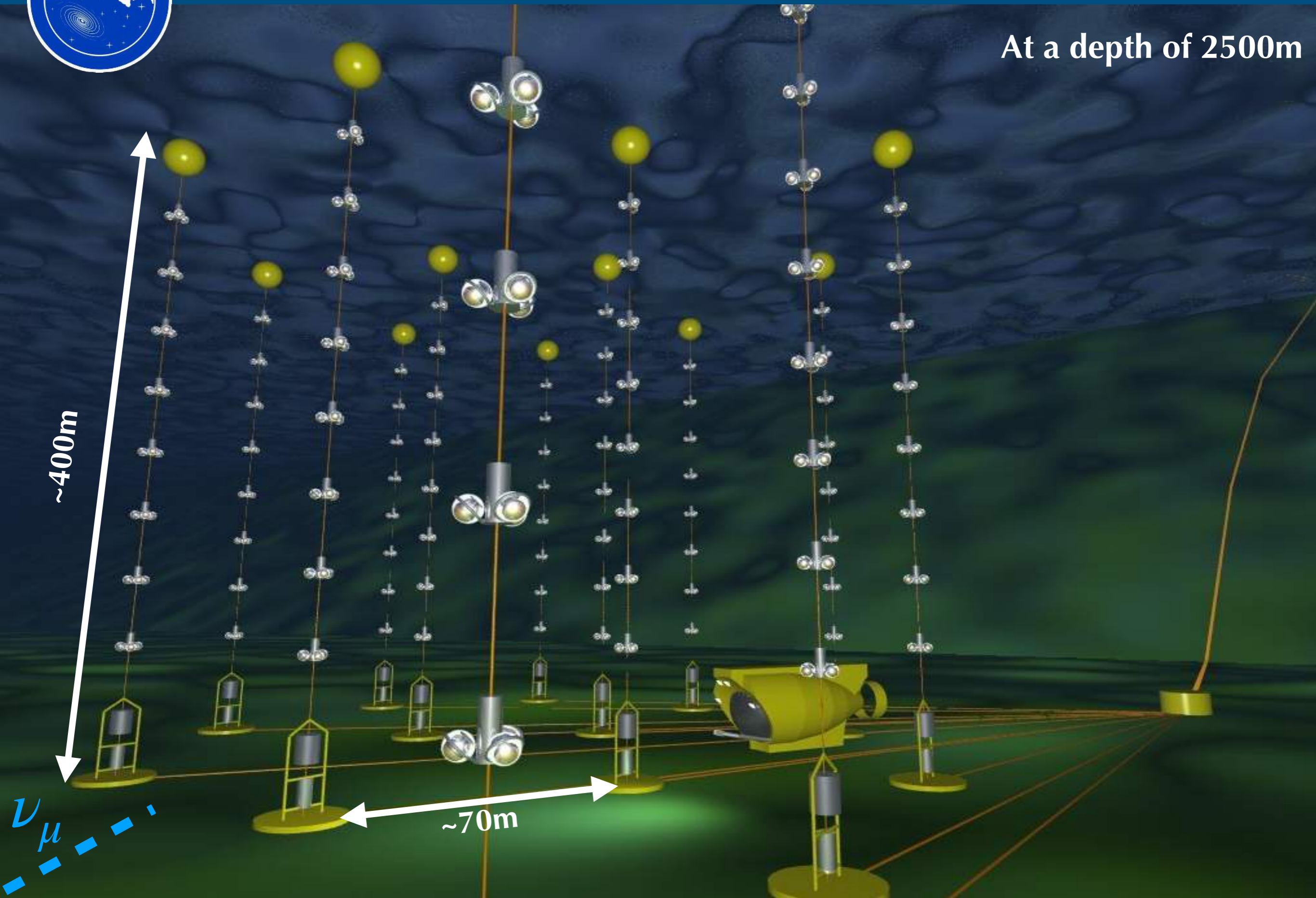
A 3D rendering of the ANTARES neutrino telescope detector array. The detector consists of multiple vertical strings of optical modules (OMs) suspended from a central shaft. Each string is approximately 400m long. The strings are arranged in a grid pattern, with a spacing of approximately 70m between them. The detector is located at a depth of 2500m in the sea. The background shows the dark, textured surface of the sea and the greenish-brown seabed. A yellow submersible is visible near the base of the detector array. A white arrow on the left indicates the vertical extent of the detector array, labeled "~400m". A white arrow at the bottom indicates the horizontal spacing between the strings, labeled "~70m".

~70m



Neutrino telescopes

At a depth of 2500m



~400m

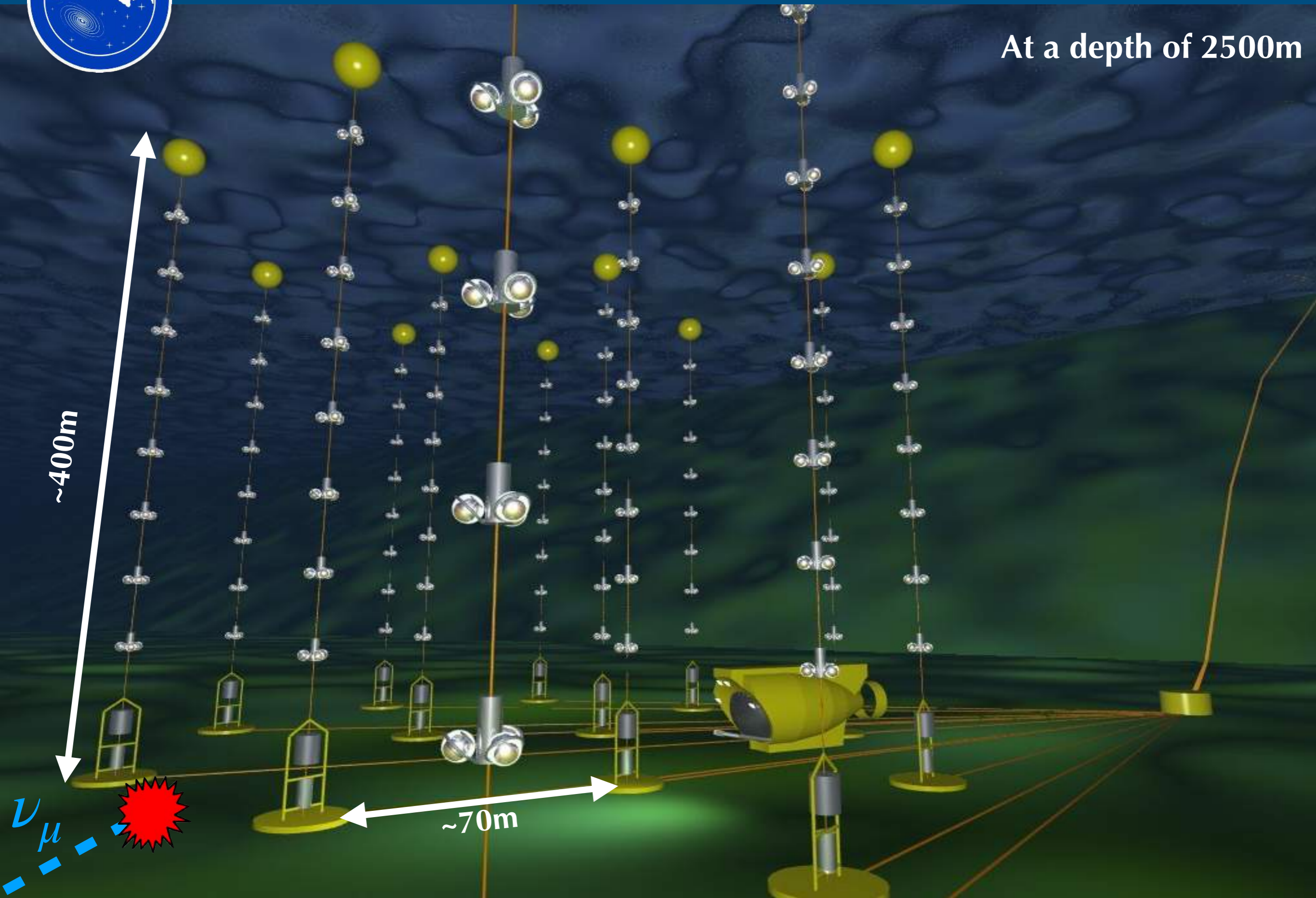
~70m

ν
 μ



Neutrino telescopes

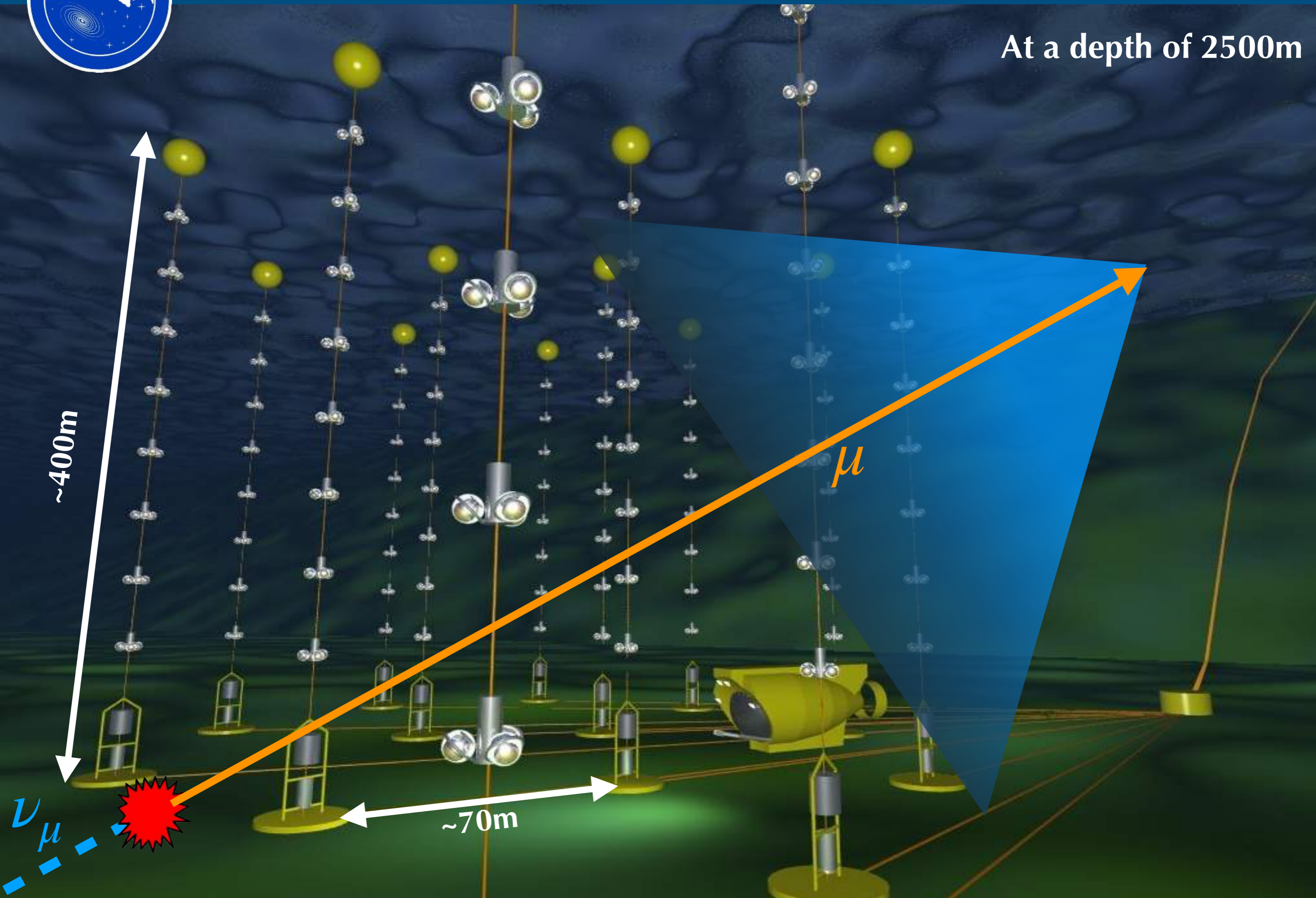
At a depth of 2500m





Neutrino telescopes

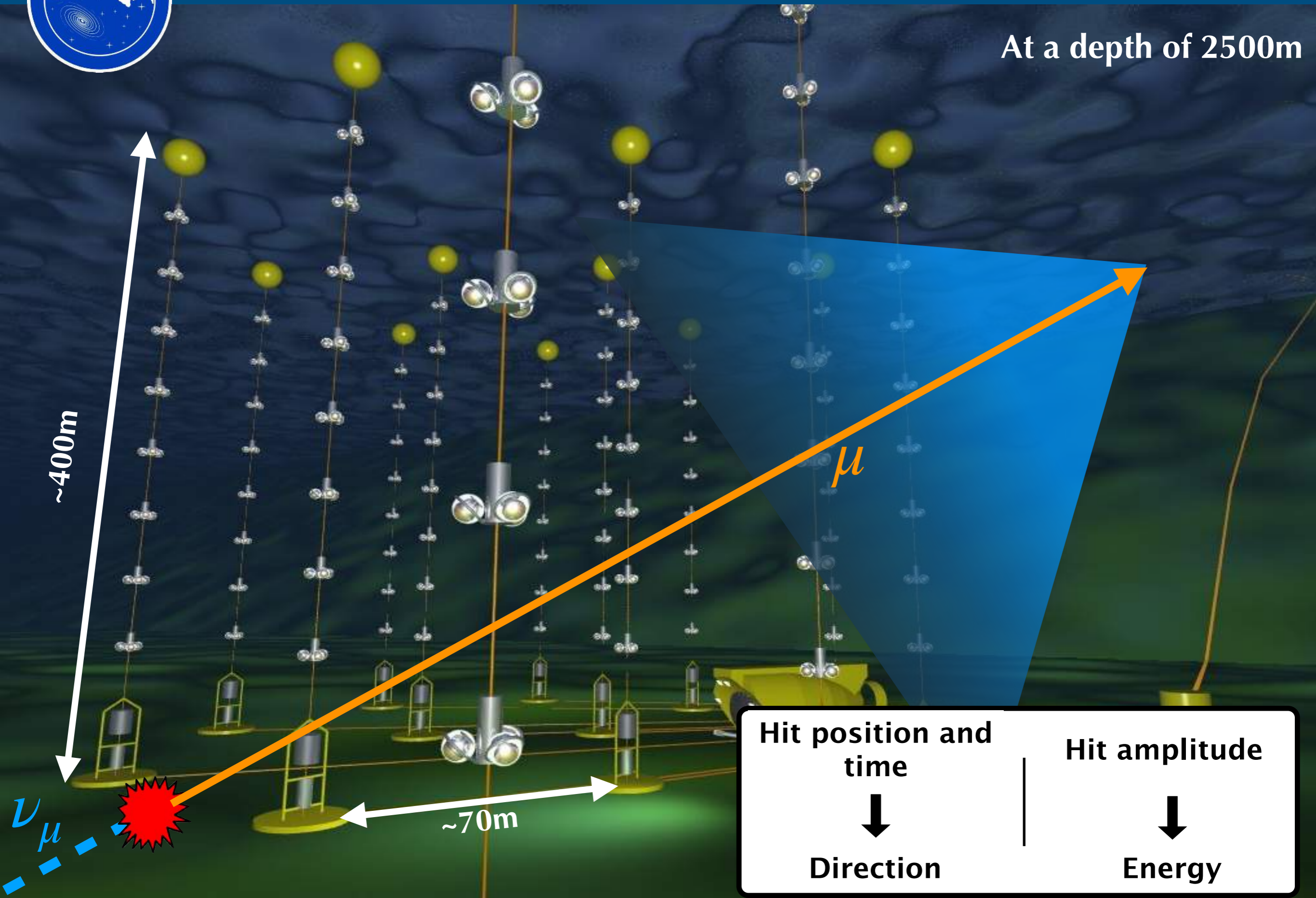
At a depth of 2500m





Neutrino telescopes

At a depth of 2500m



Hit position and
time



Direction

Hit amplitude

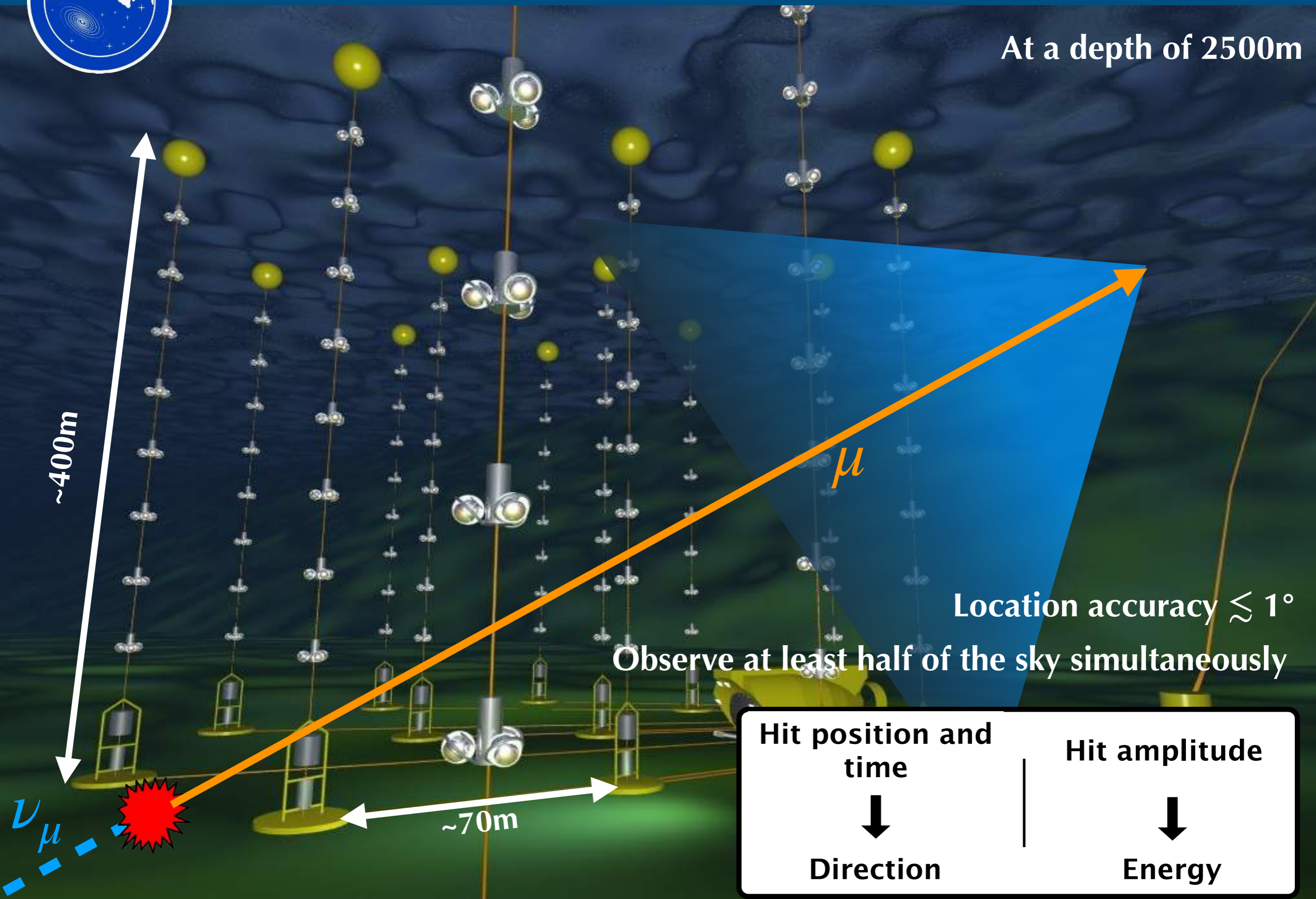


Energy



Neutrino telescopes

At a depth of 2500m



~400m

μ

Location accuracy $\lesssim 1^\circ$

Observe at least half of the sky simultaneously

Hit position and
time



Direction

Hit amplitude



Energy

~70m

ν
 μ



Neutrino telescopes

At a depth of 2500m

In theory... Reality is a bit more complex due to huge background !

~400m

~70m

Hit position and
time



Direction

Hit amplitude



Energy

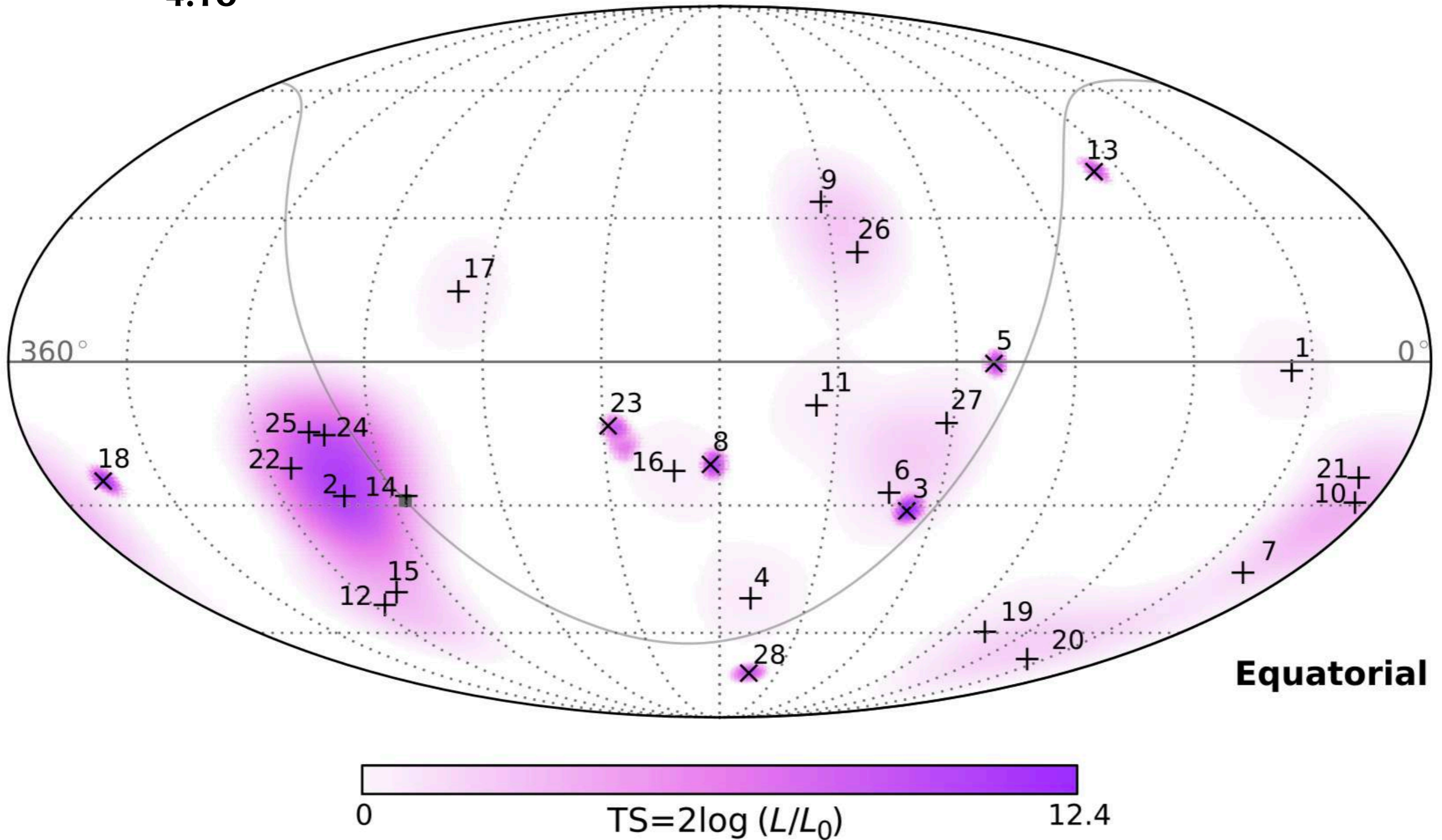
ν
 μ



Diffuse neutrino flux ($> \text{TeV}$)

2-year data sample
 4.1σ

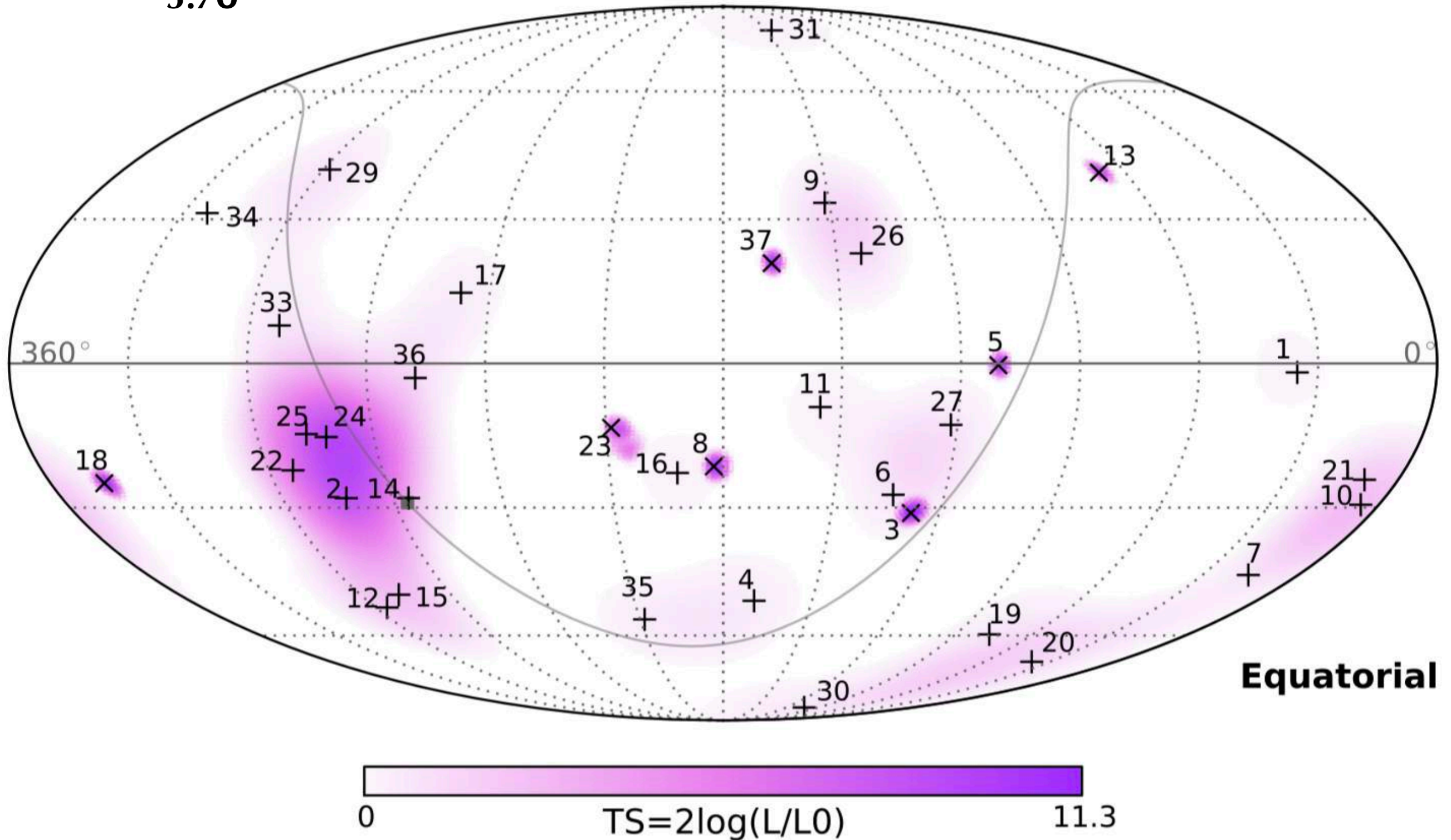
IceCube coll., ICRC 2017



Diffuse neutrino flux ($> \text{TeV}$)

3-year data sample
 5.7σ

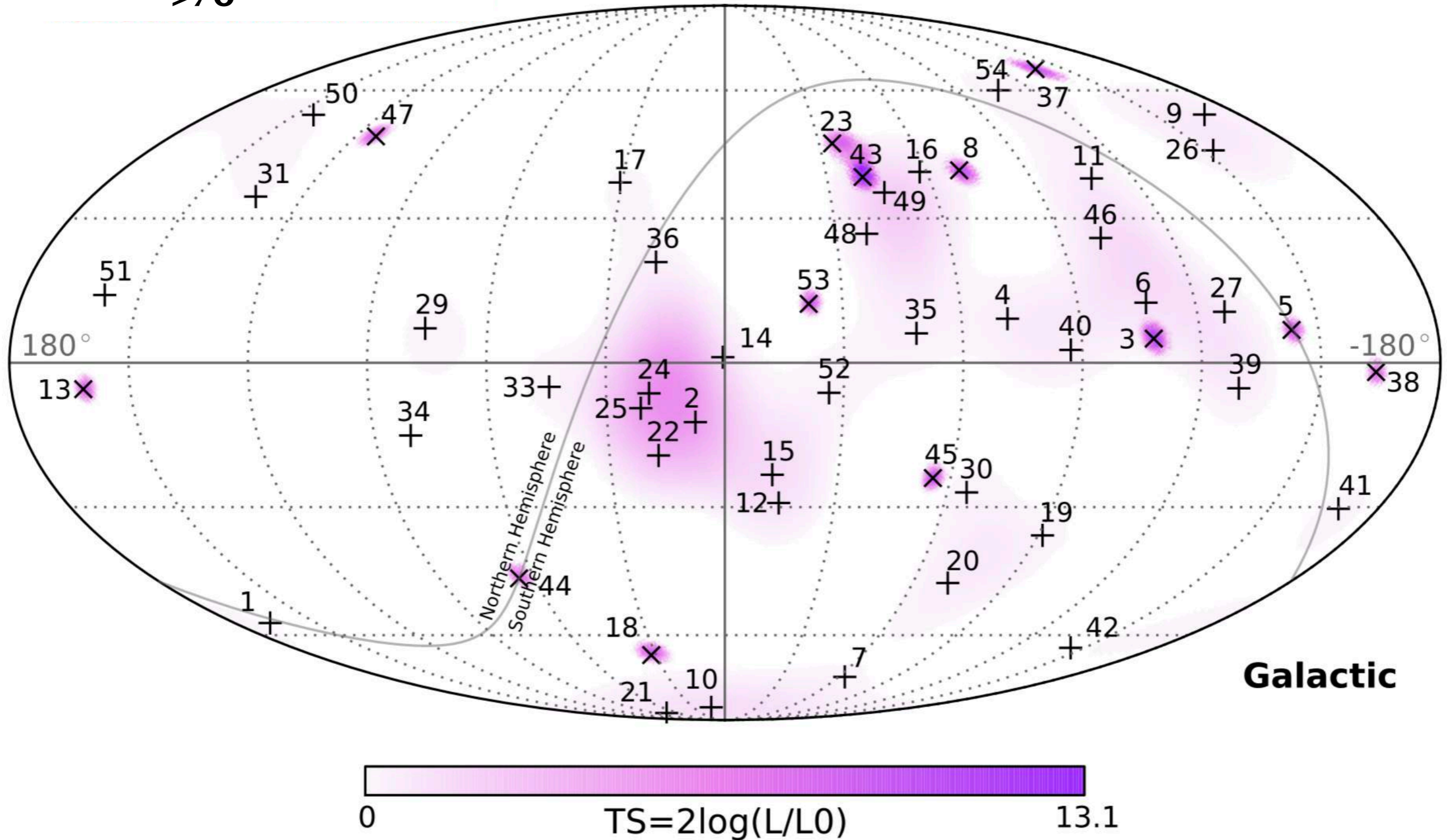
IceCube coll., ICRC 2017



Diffuse neutrino flux ($> \text{TeV}$)

4-year data sample
 $> 7\sigma$

IceCube coll., ICRC 2017

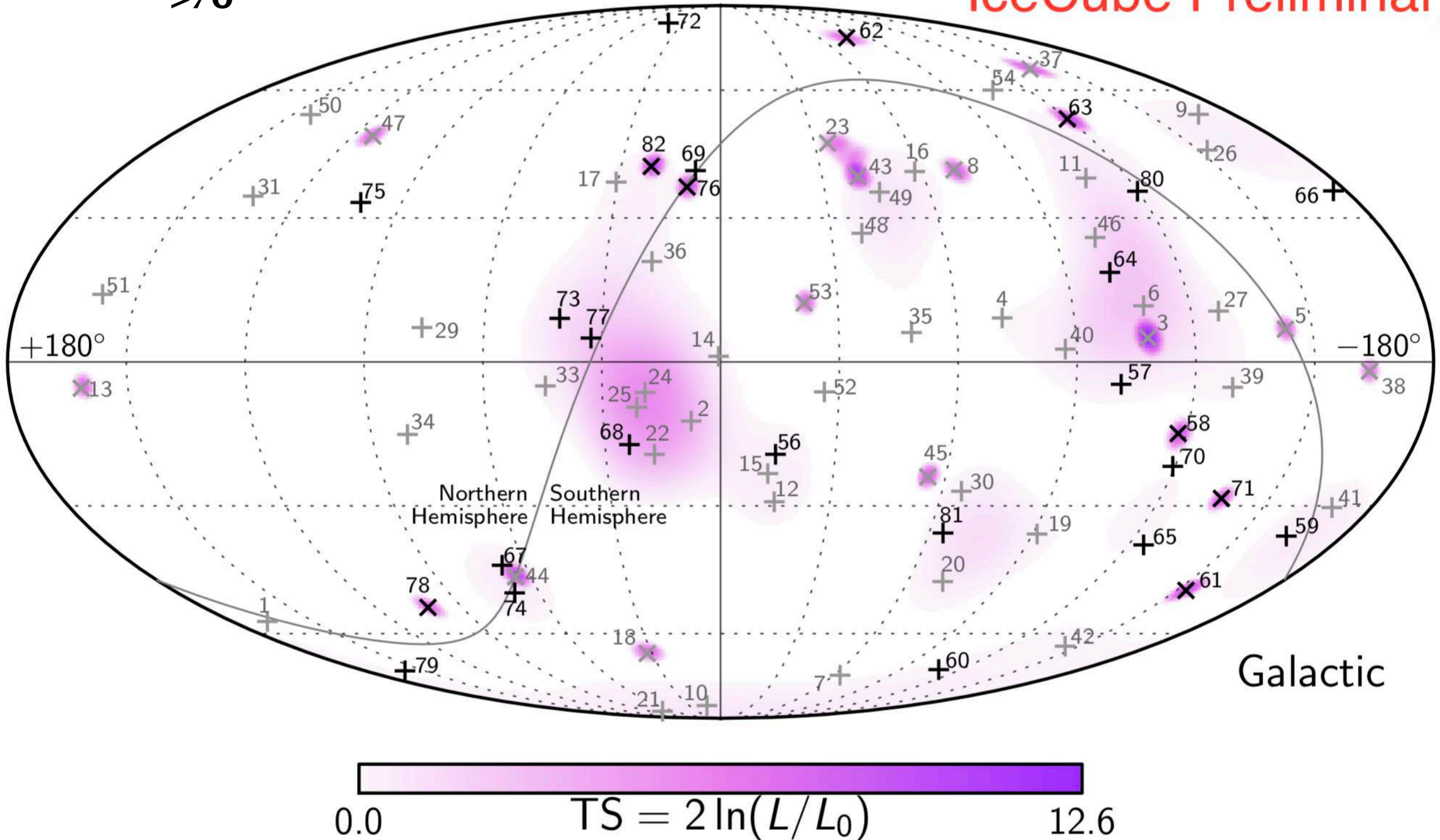


Diffuse neutrino flux ($> \text{TeV}$)

6-year data sample
 $> 7\sigma$

IceCube coll., ICRC 2017

IceCube Preliminary

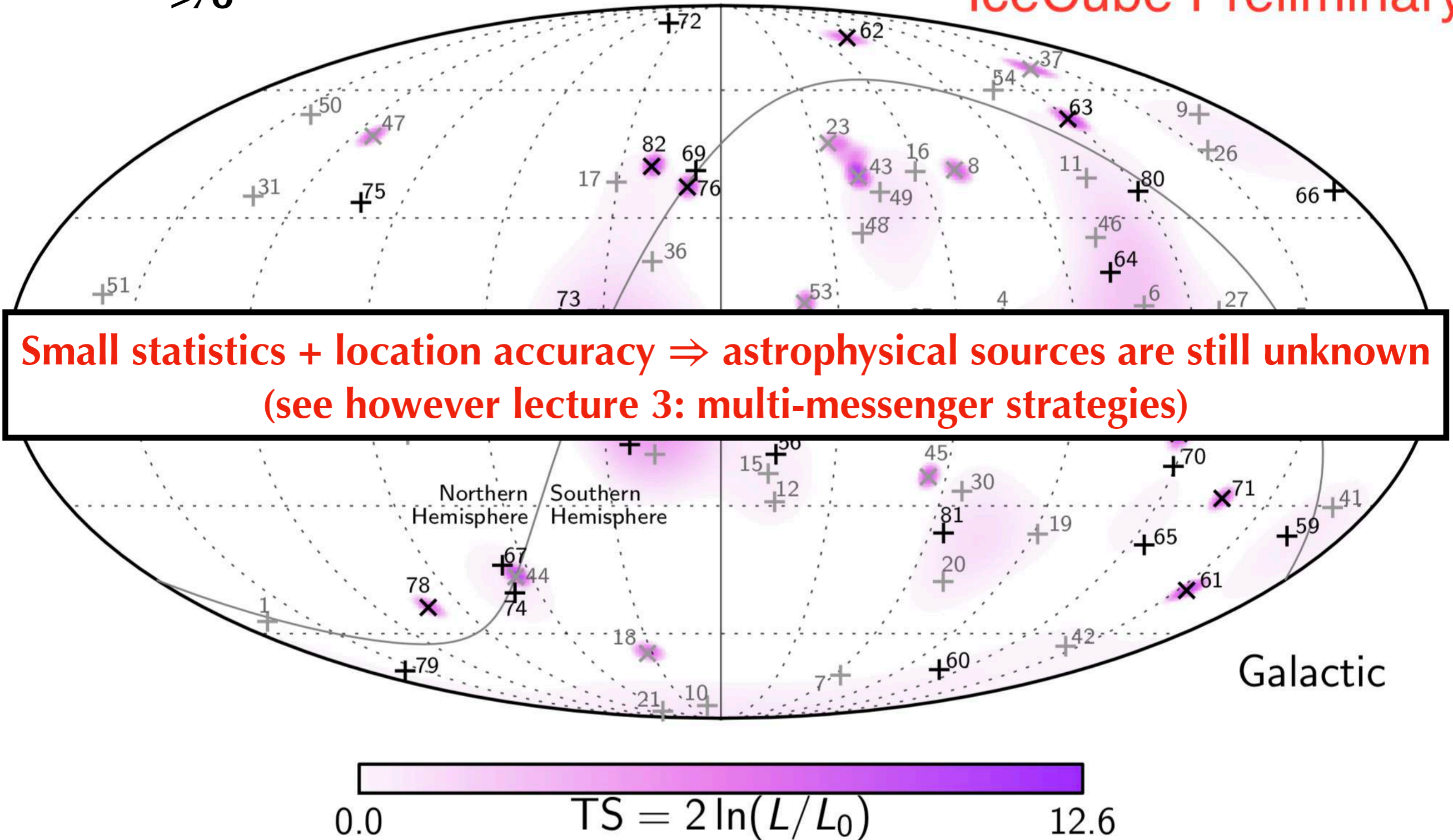


Diffuse neutrino flux ($> \text{TeV}$)

6-year data sample
 $> 7\sigma$

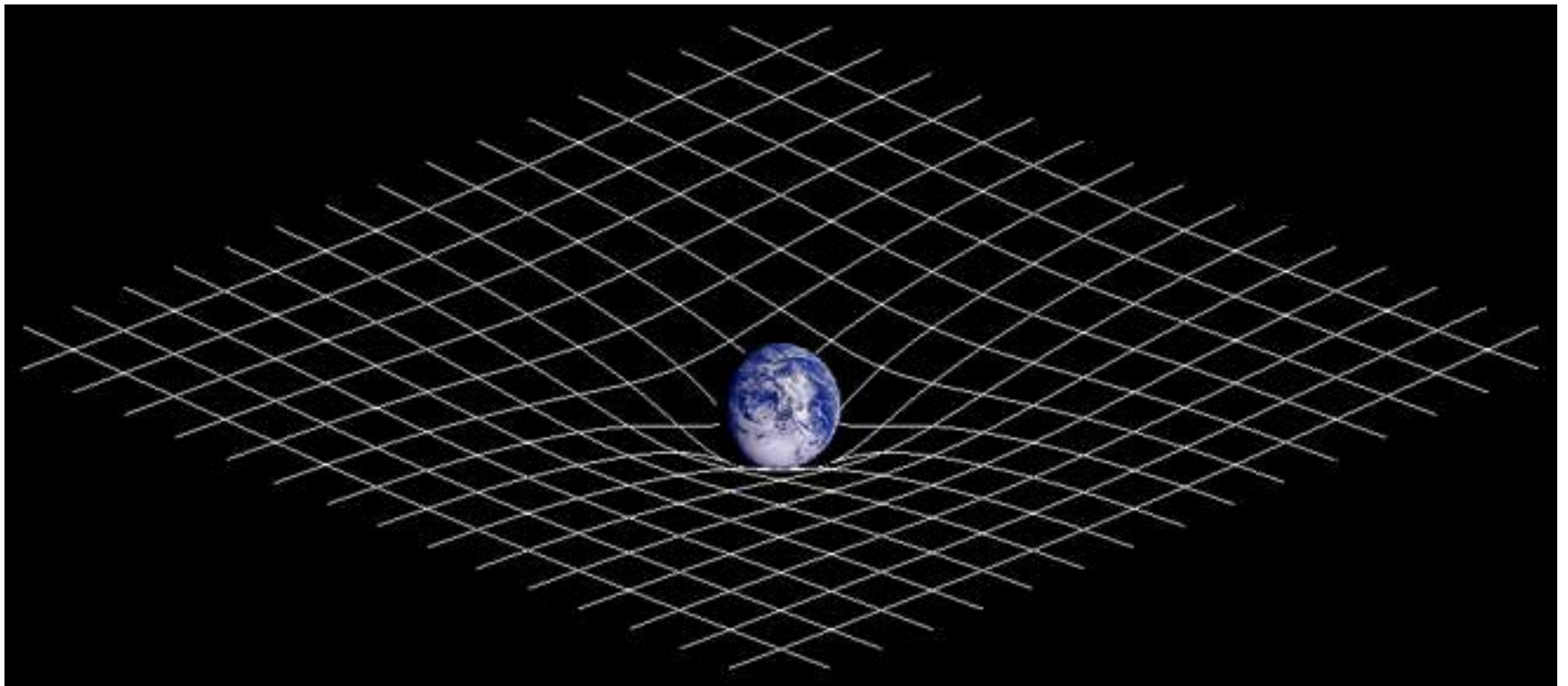
IceCube coll., ICRC 2017

IceCube Preliminary



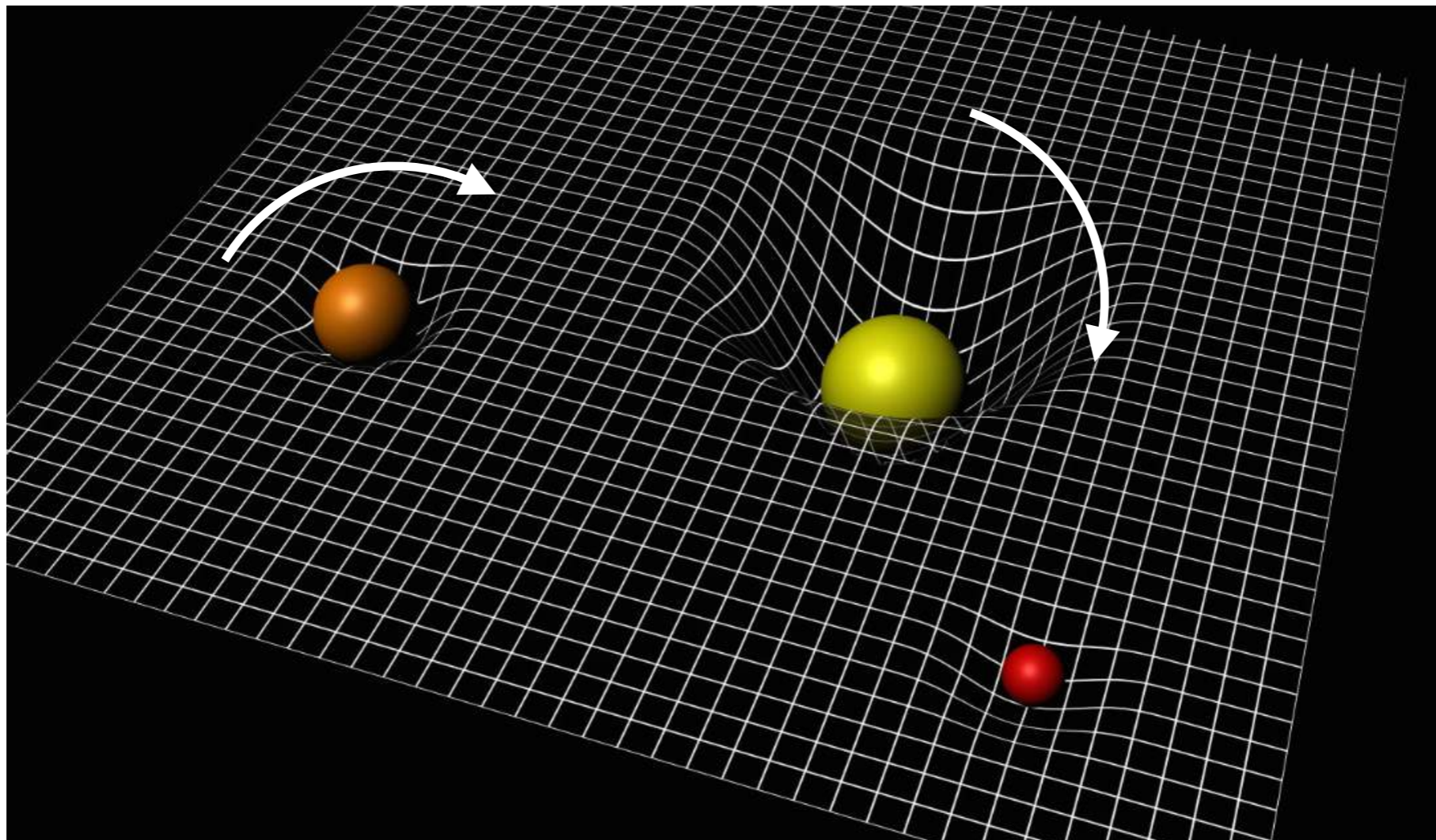
Gravitational waves

- General relativity: gravity treated as a result of curvature of spacetime caused by presence of mass.
- The more mass, the greater the curvature of space time.
- As masses move around spacetime, curvature changes to reflect the changed locations of those objects.
- In certain circumstances, accelerating objects generate changes in the curvature which propagate outwards at the speed of light: gravitational waves.

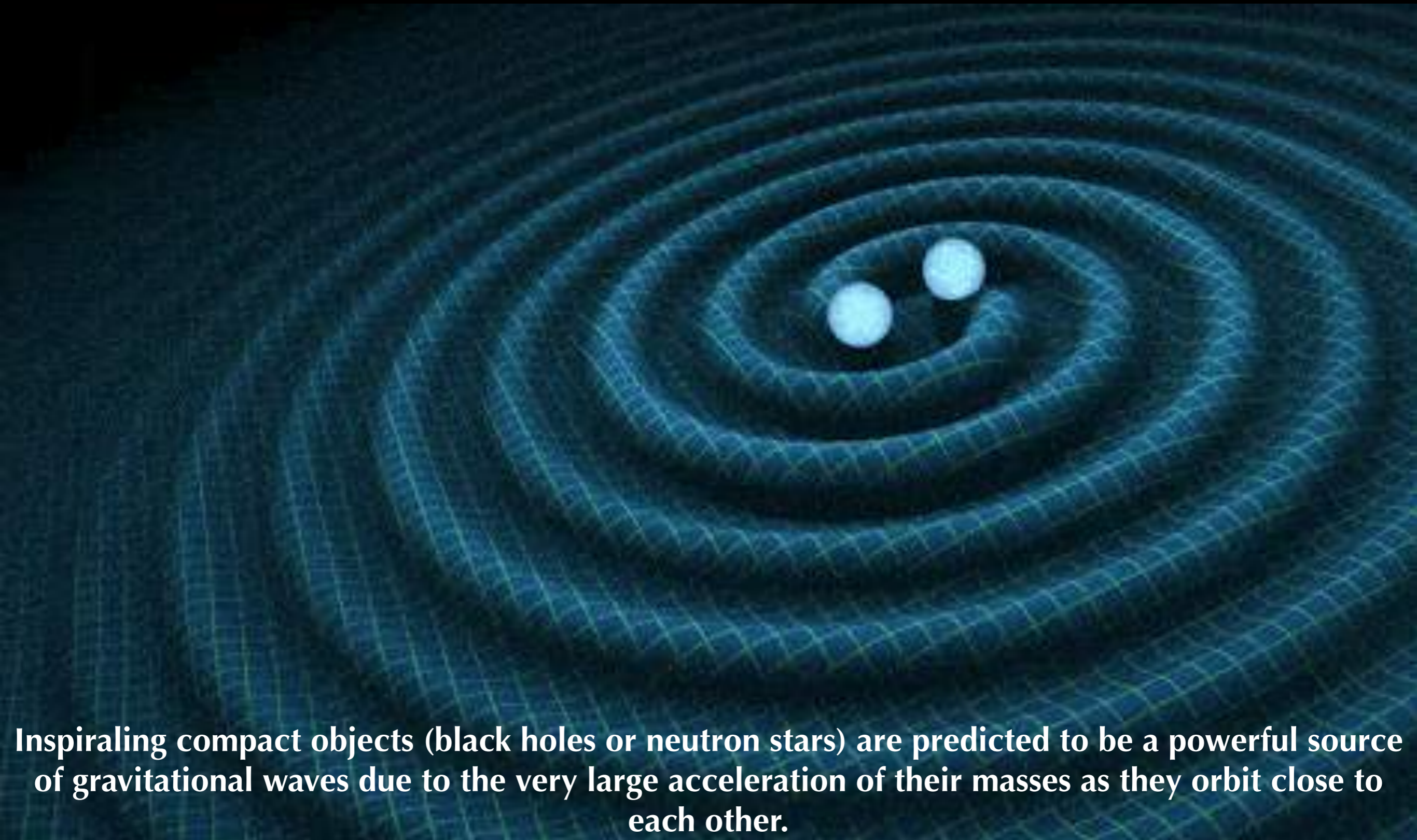


Gravitational waves

- General relativity: gravity treated as a result of curvature of spacetime caused by presence of mass.
- The more mass, the greater the curvature of space time.
- As masses move around spacetime, curvature changes to reflect the changed locations of those objects.
- In certain circumstances, accelerating objects generate changes in the curvature which propagate outwards at the speed of light: gravitational waves.

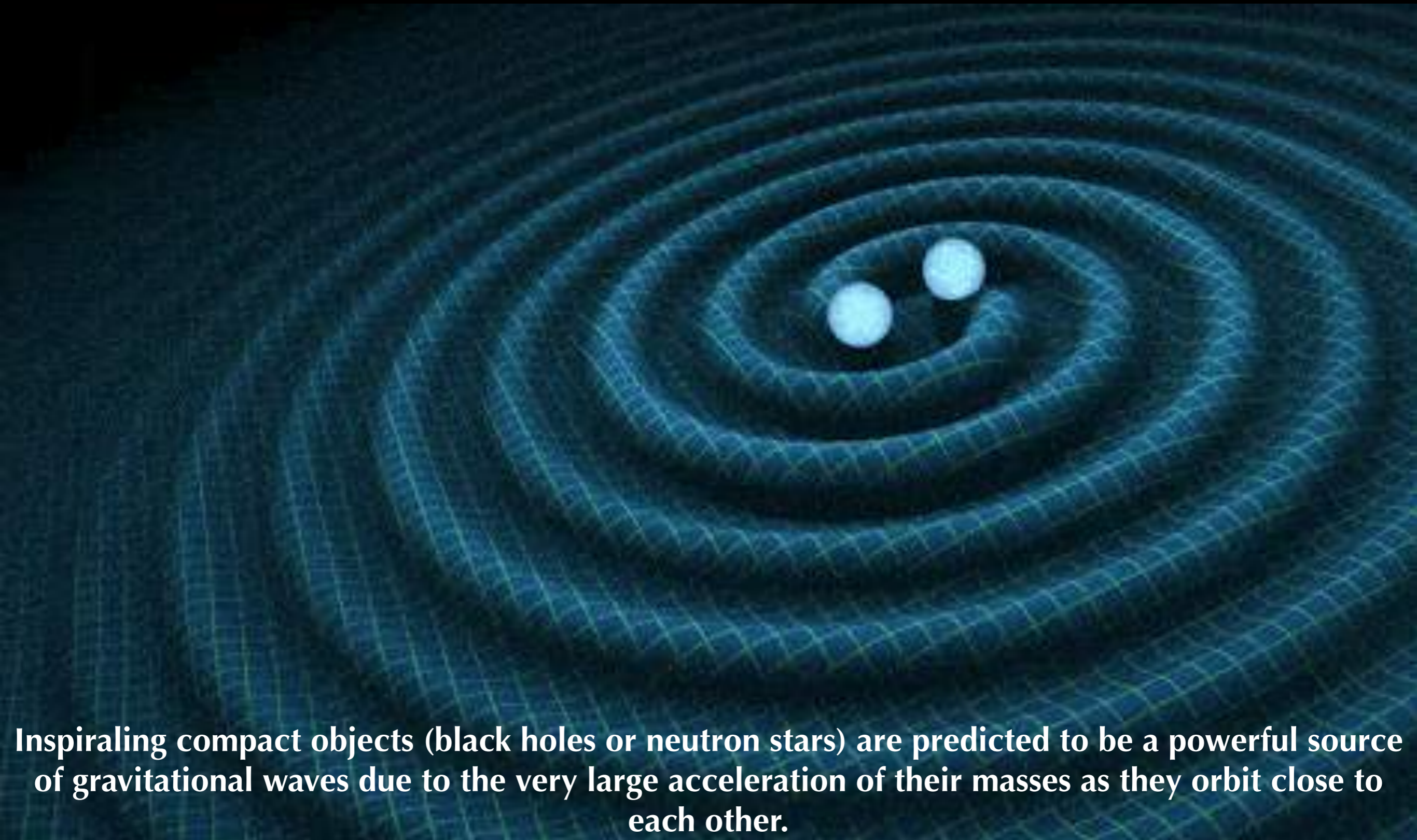


Gravitational waves



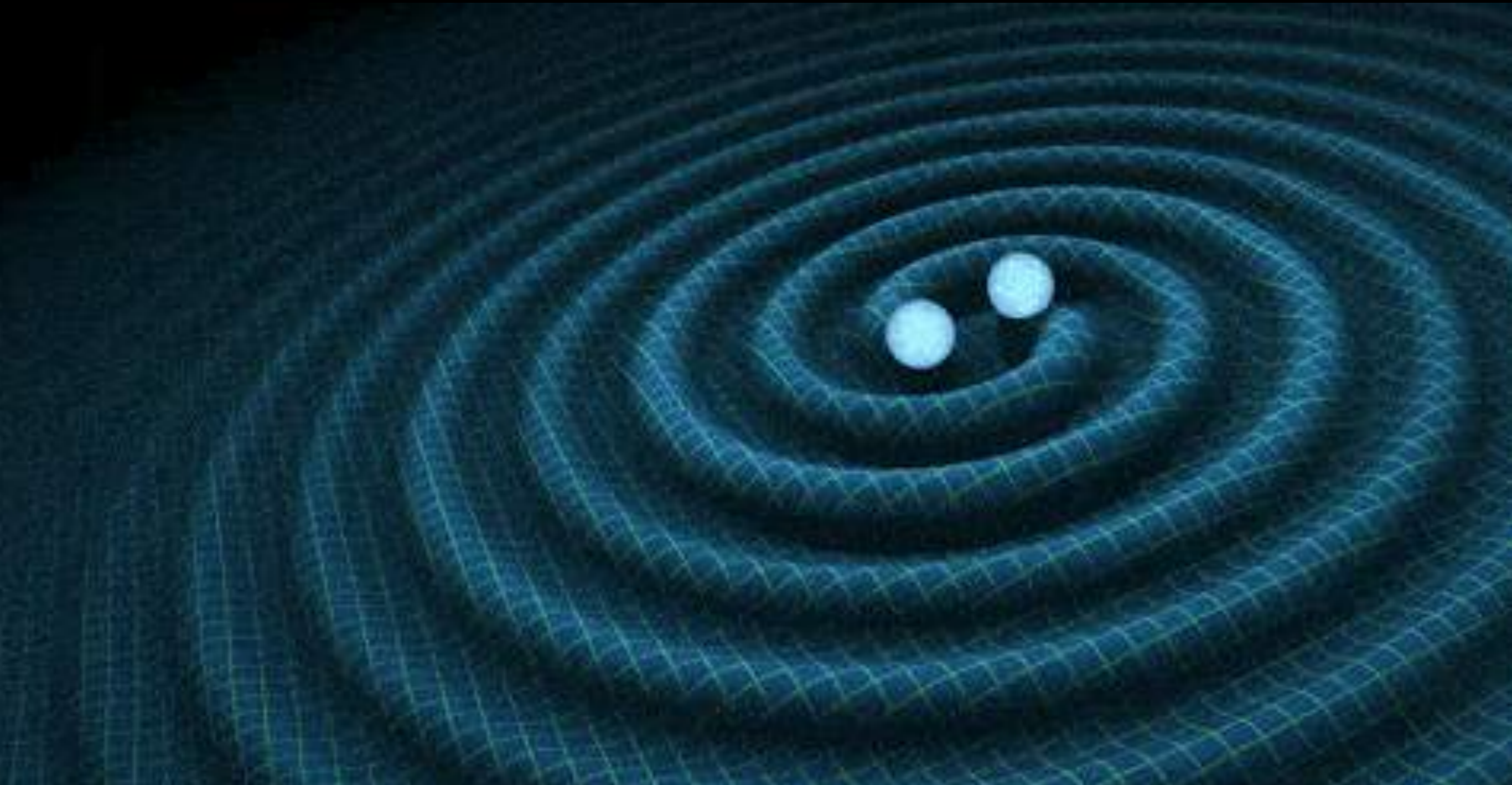
Inspiraling compact objects (black holes or neutron stars) are predicted to be a powerful source of gravitational waves due to the very large acceleration of their masses as they orbit close to each other.

Gravitational waves



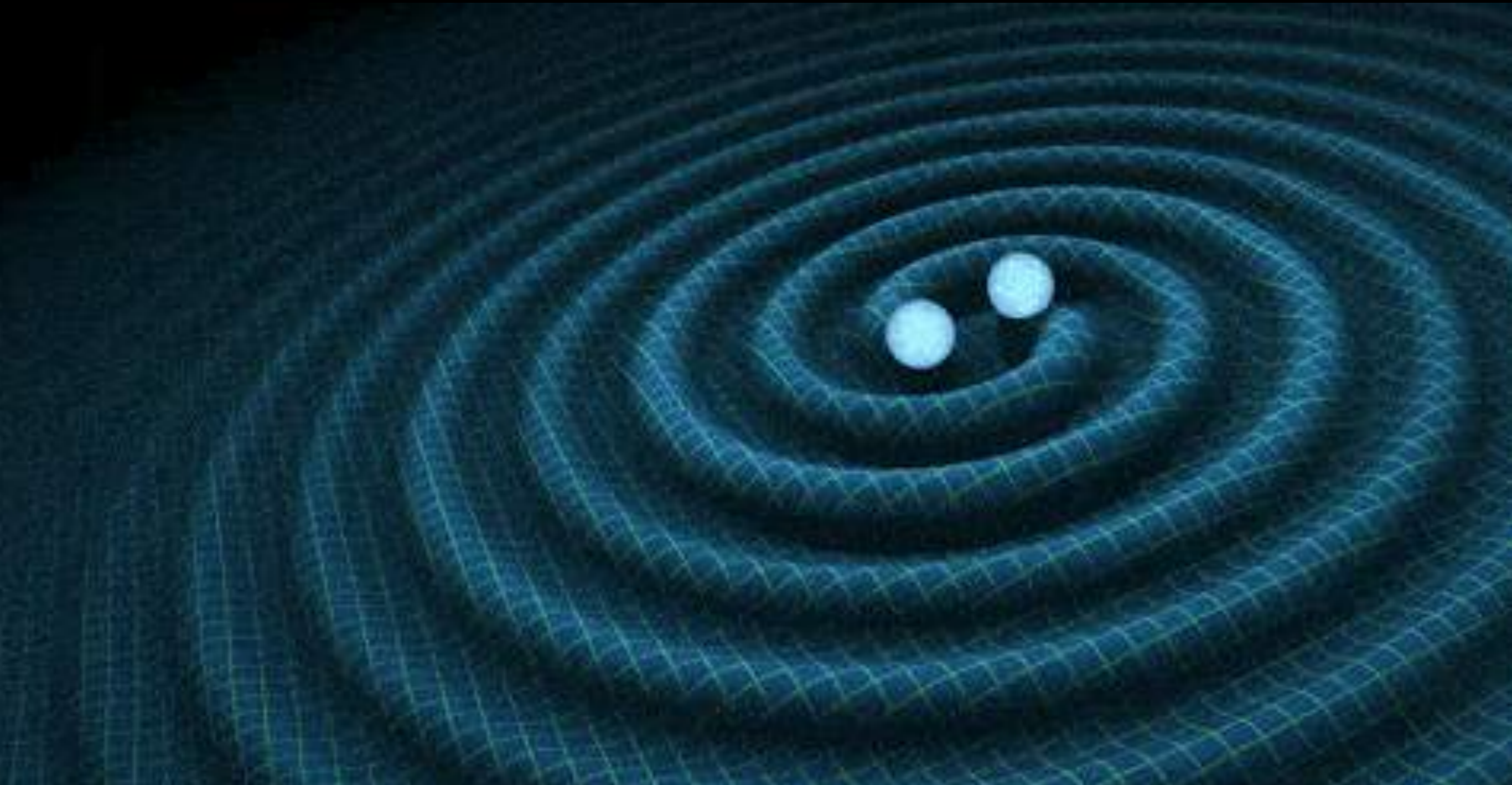
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Gravitational waves



As a gravitational wave passes an observer he will find spacetime distorted
⇒ distances between objects increase and decrease periodically as the wave passes.

Gravitational waves

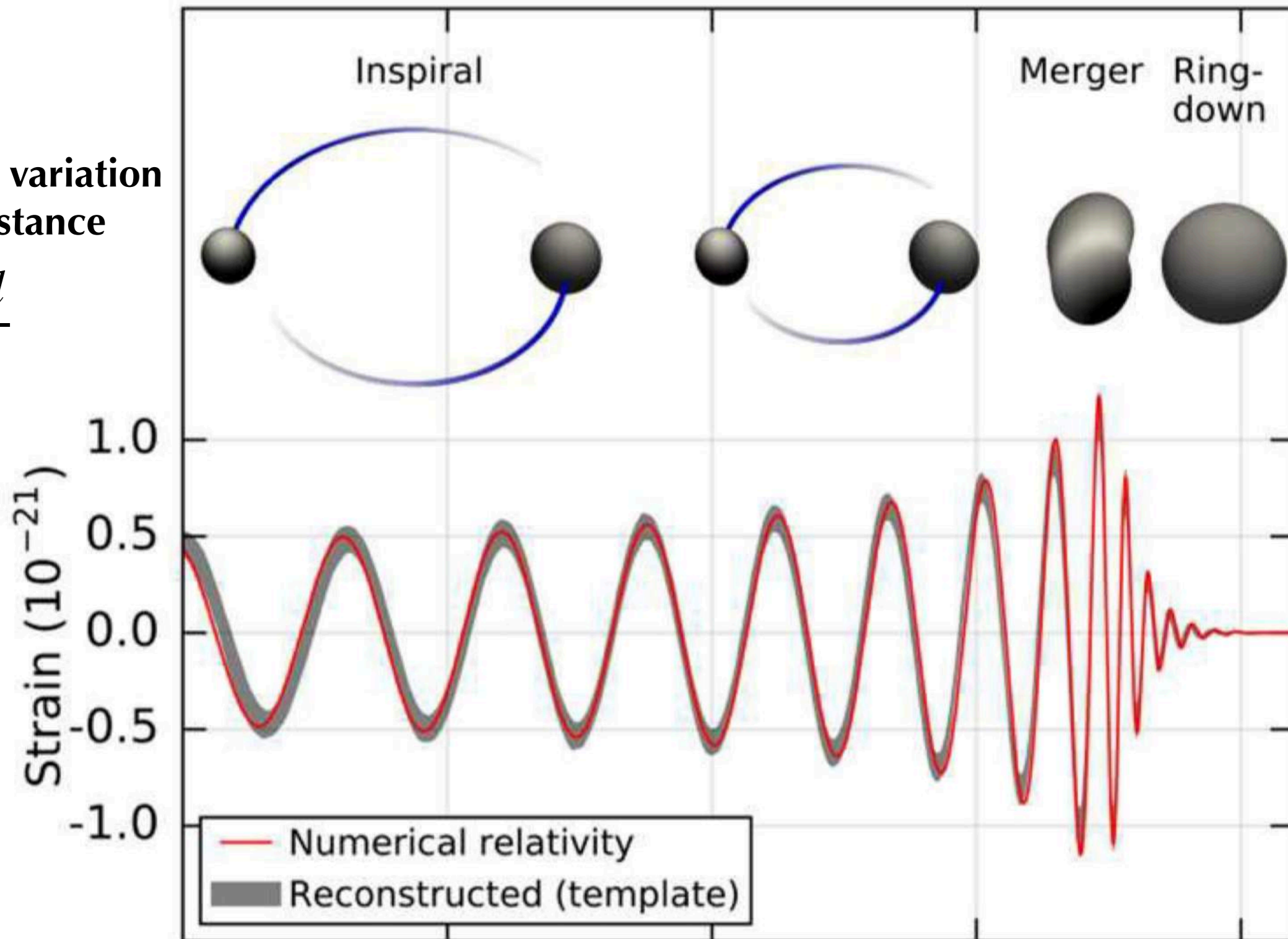


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Gravitational waves

Relative variation
of distance

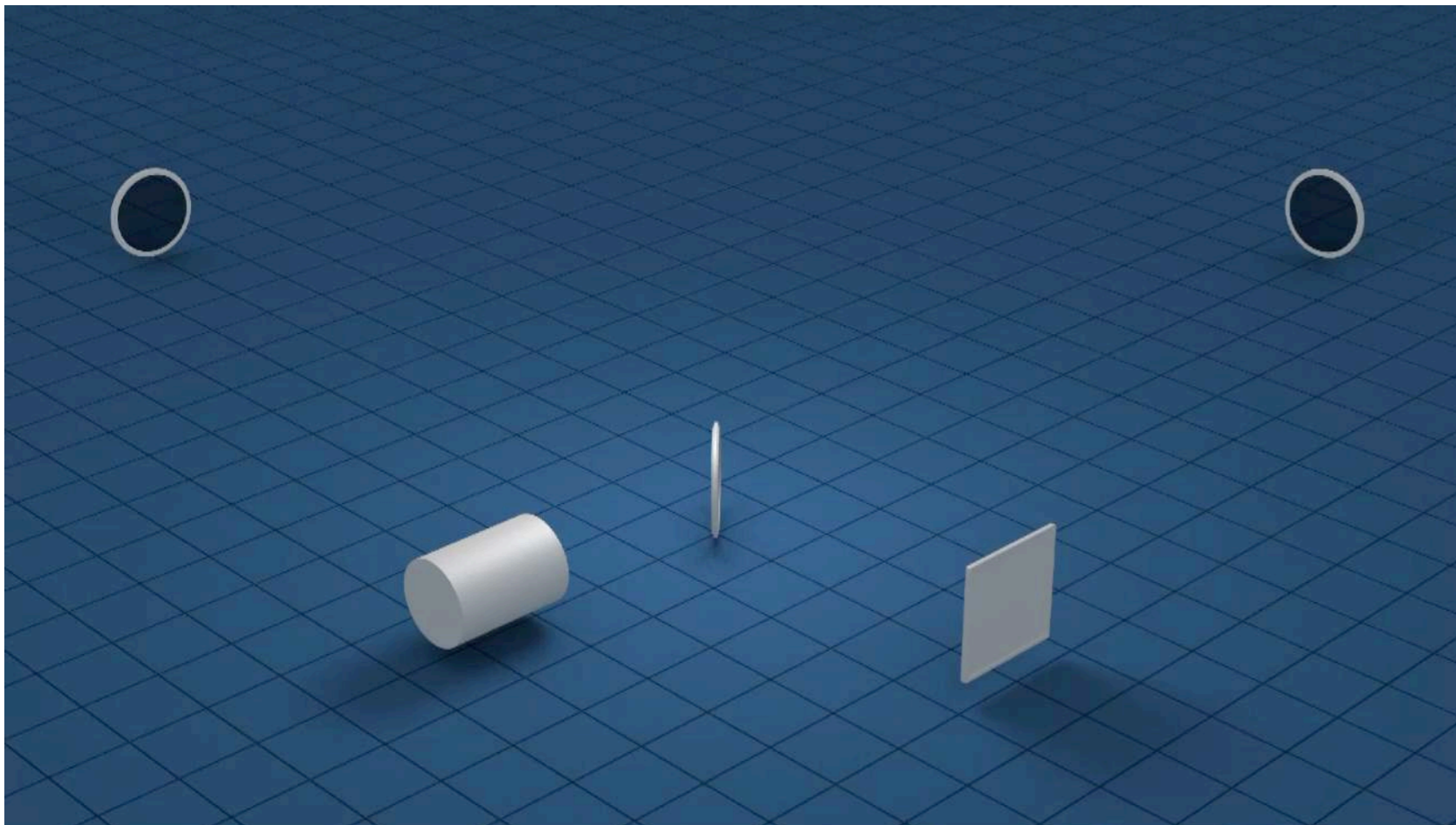
$$\sim \frac{\delta l}{l}$$



Gravitational wave detection



Michelson interferometer

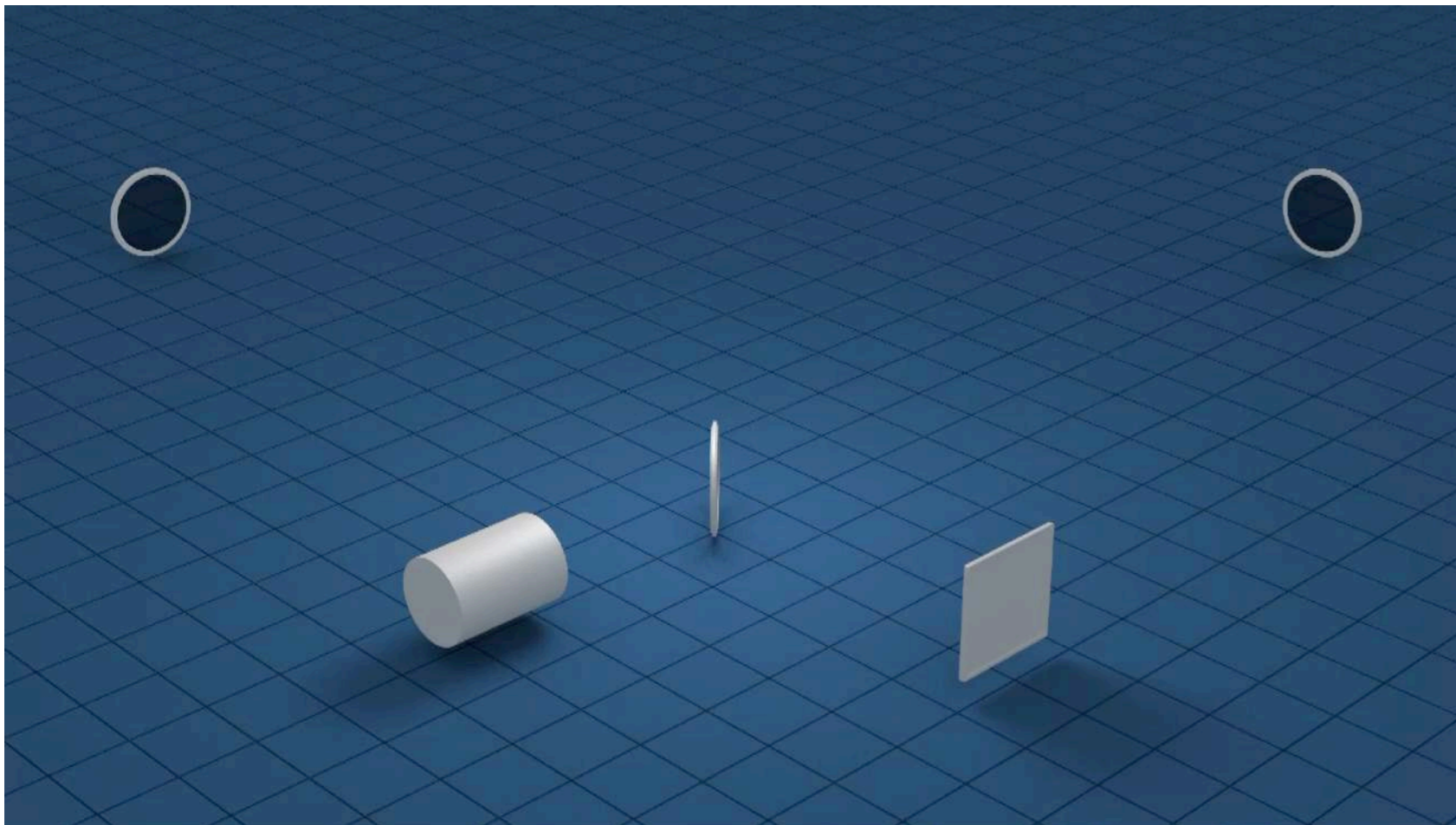


- Laser beam directed toward a beam splitter, which splits it into two separate and equal beams. Light beams then travel perpendicularly to a distant mirror. The mirrors reflect the light back to the beam splitter.
- When gravitational waves pass through this device, they cause the length of the two arms to alternately stretch and squeeze by infinitesimal amounts ($\Delta l \sim 10^{-19} m$).
- This produces interferences.
 - Without gravitational waves: beams kept out of phase \Rightarrow no light on the detector.
 - If gravitational wave detected: phase shift varies \Rightarrow signal flickering on the detector.

Gravitational wave detection



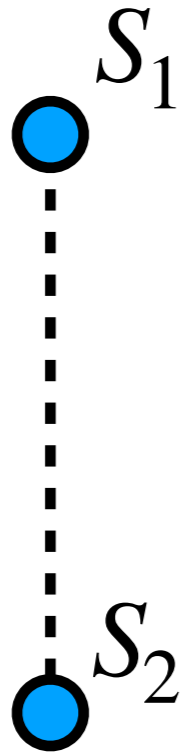
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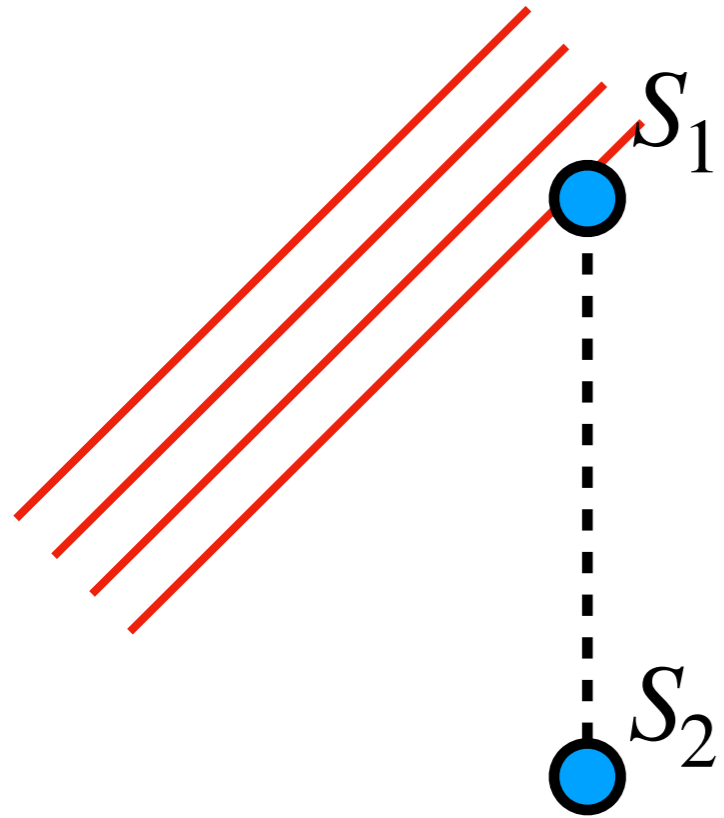
Gravitational wave detection

Source location on sky determined by triangulation of the signal over several detectors



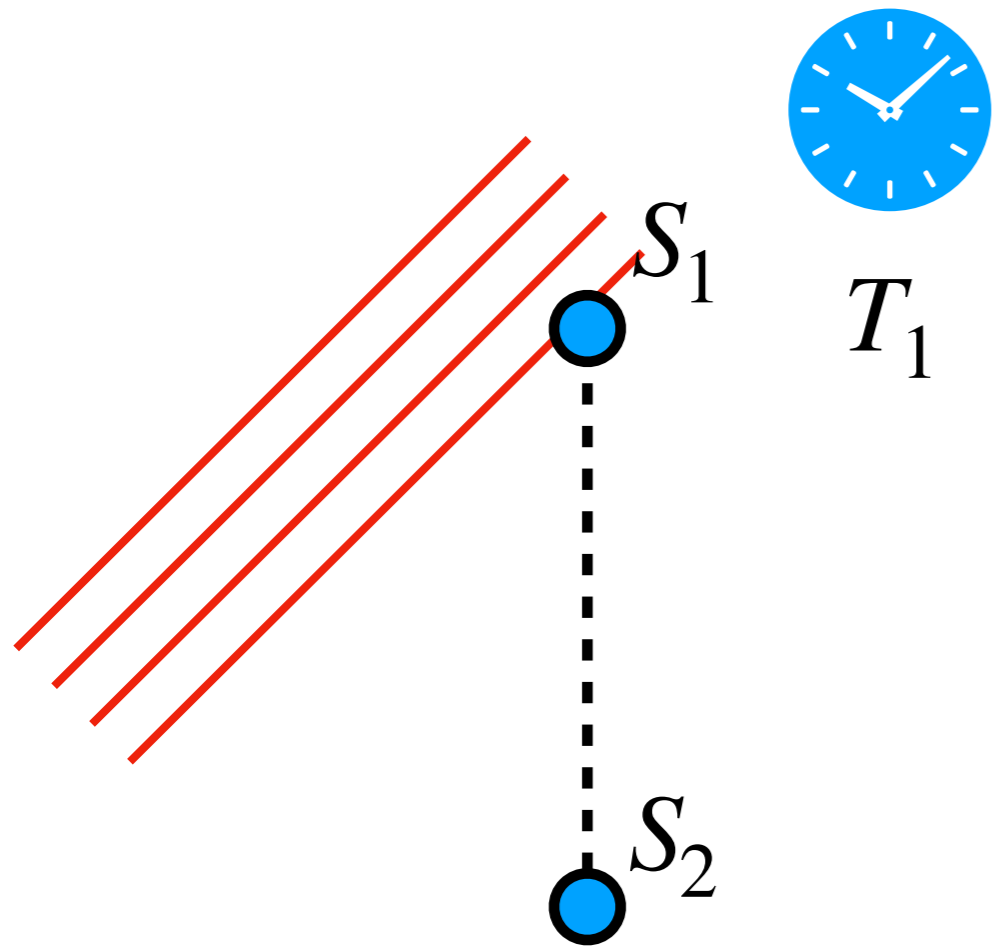
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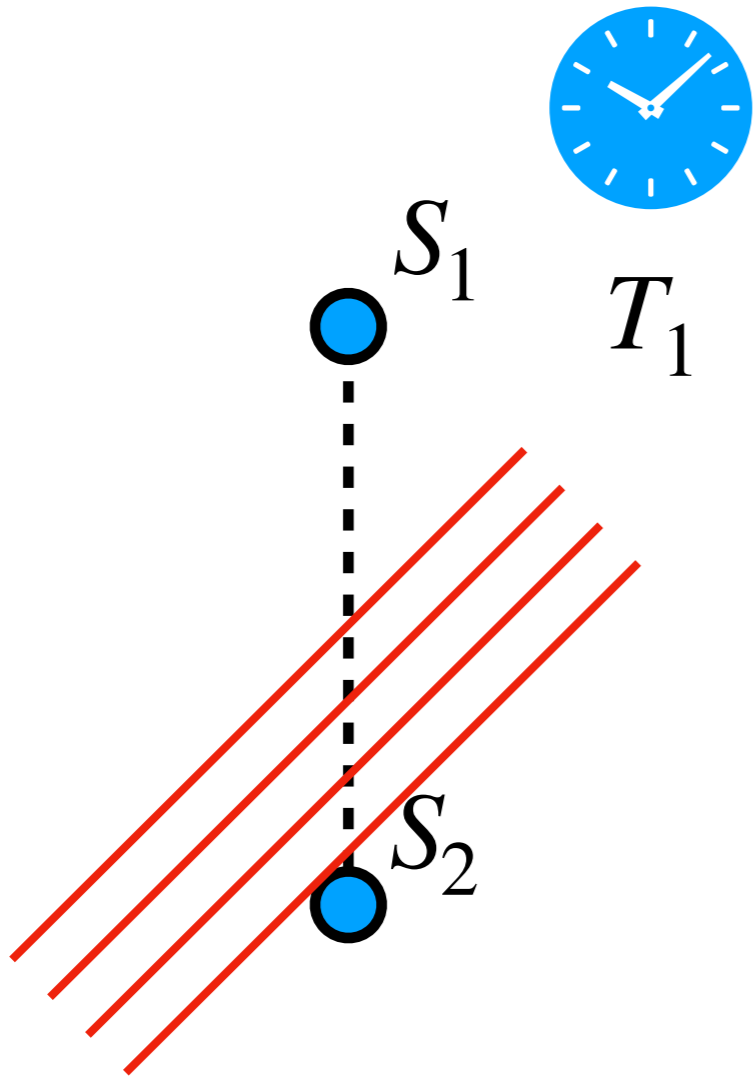
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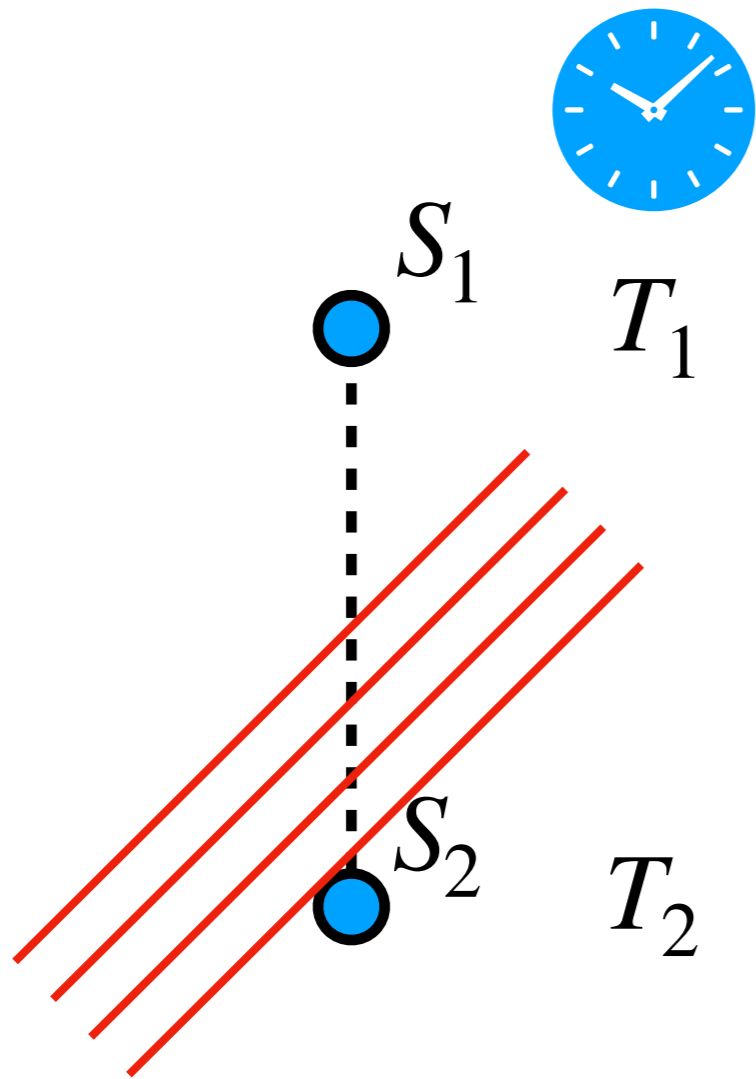
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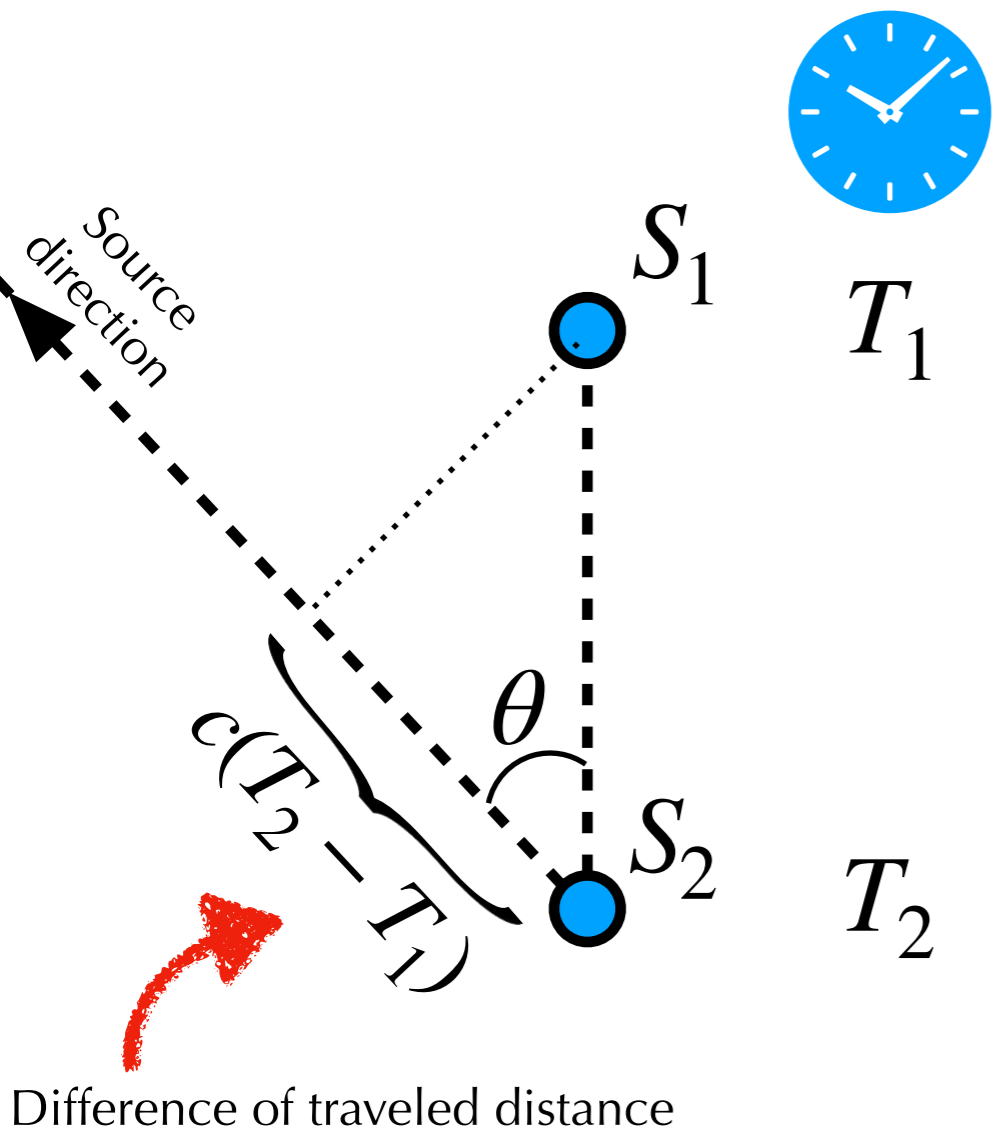
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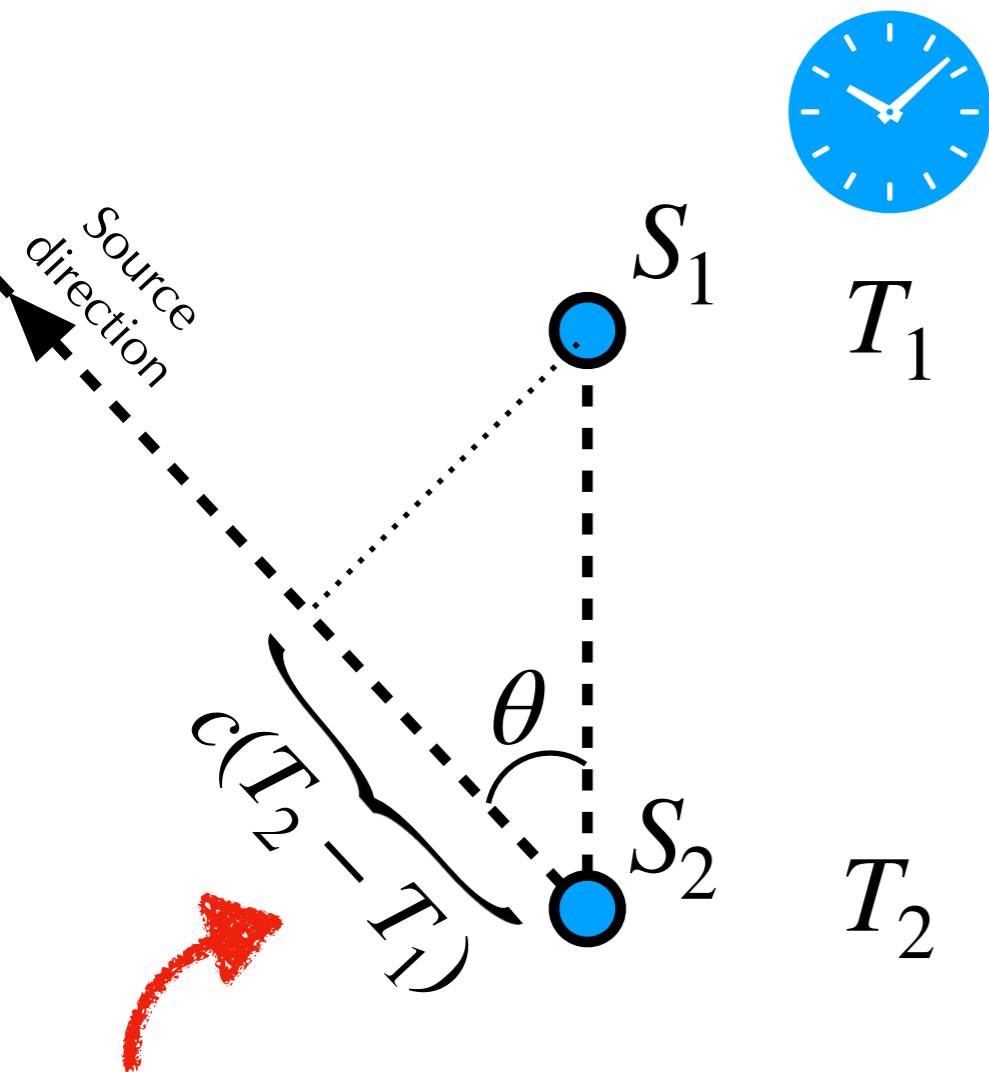
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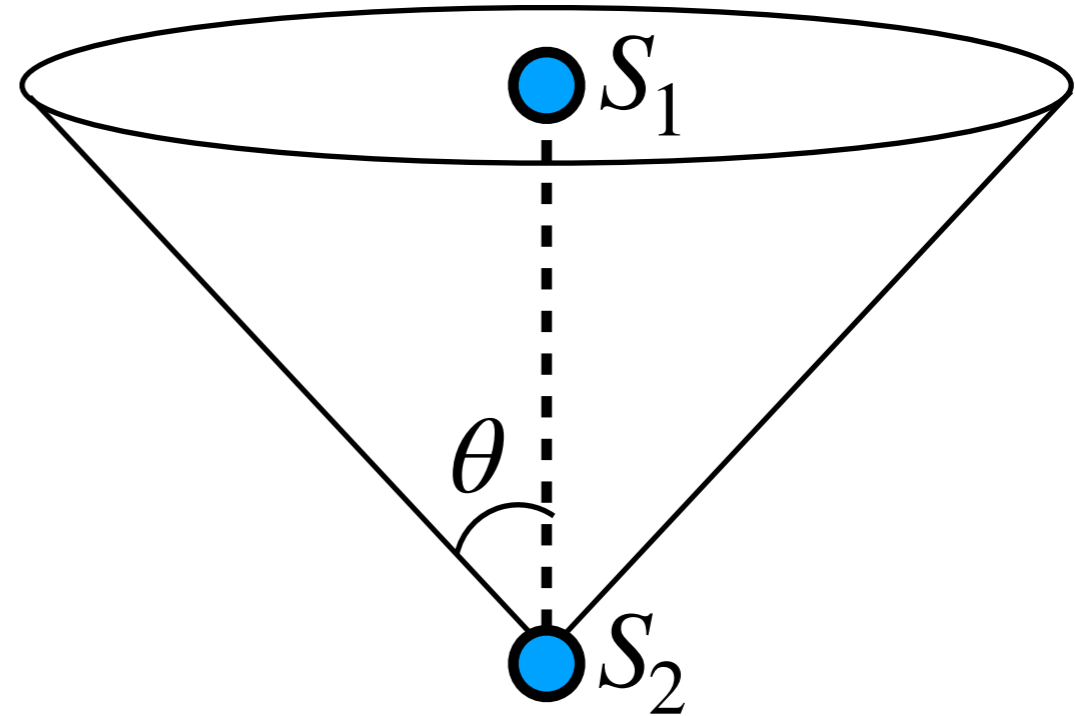
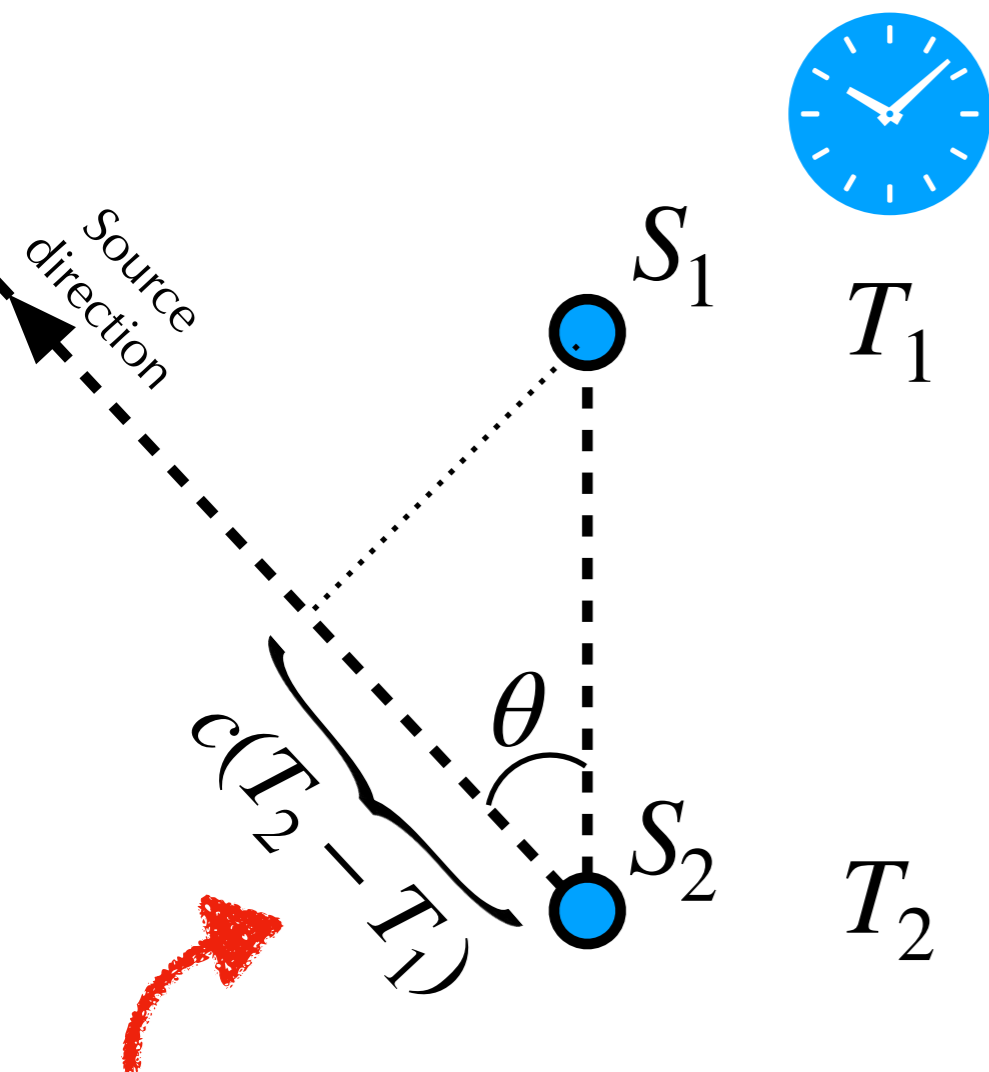


Difference of traveled distance

$$\Rightarrow \cos(\theta) = \frac{c(T_2 - T_1)}{S_1 S_2}$$

Gravitational wave detection

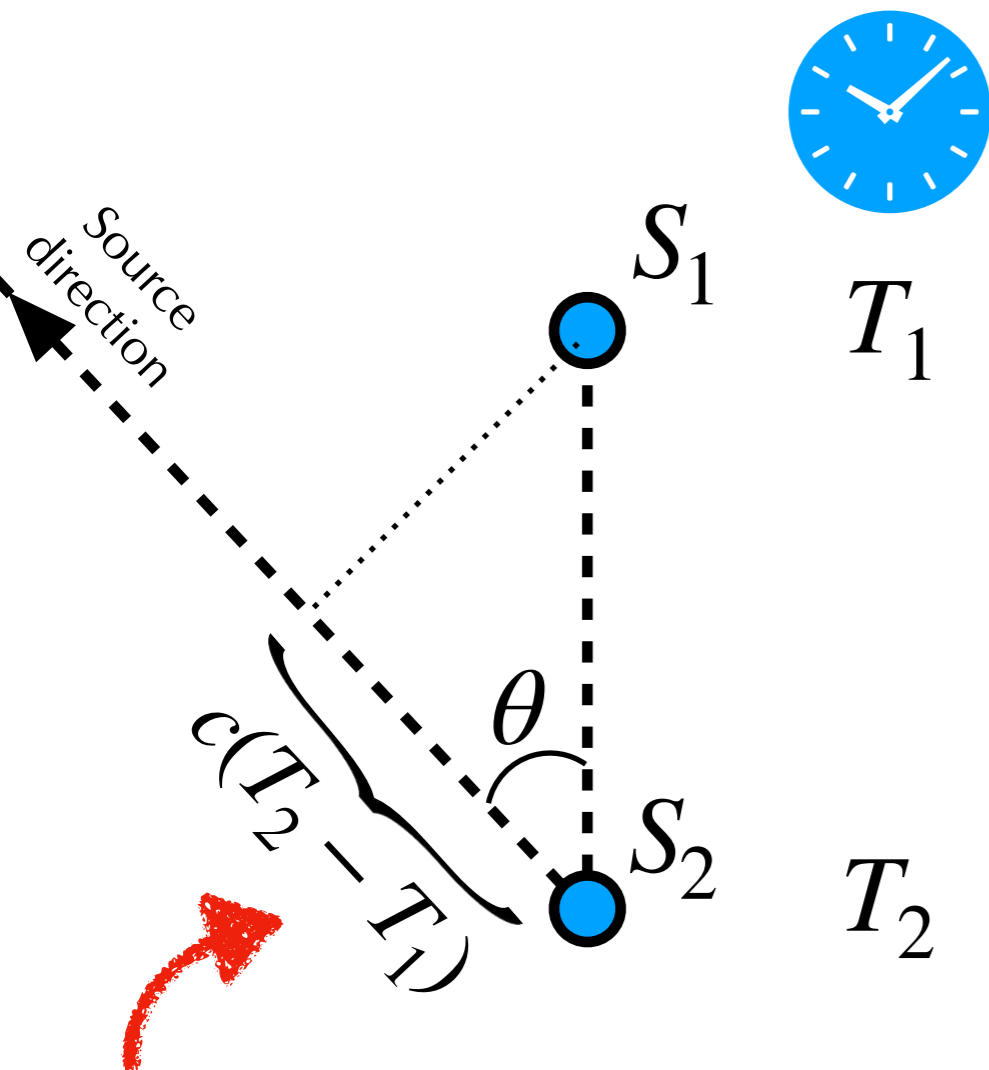
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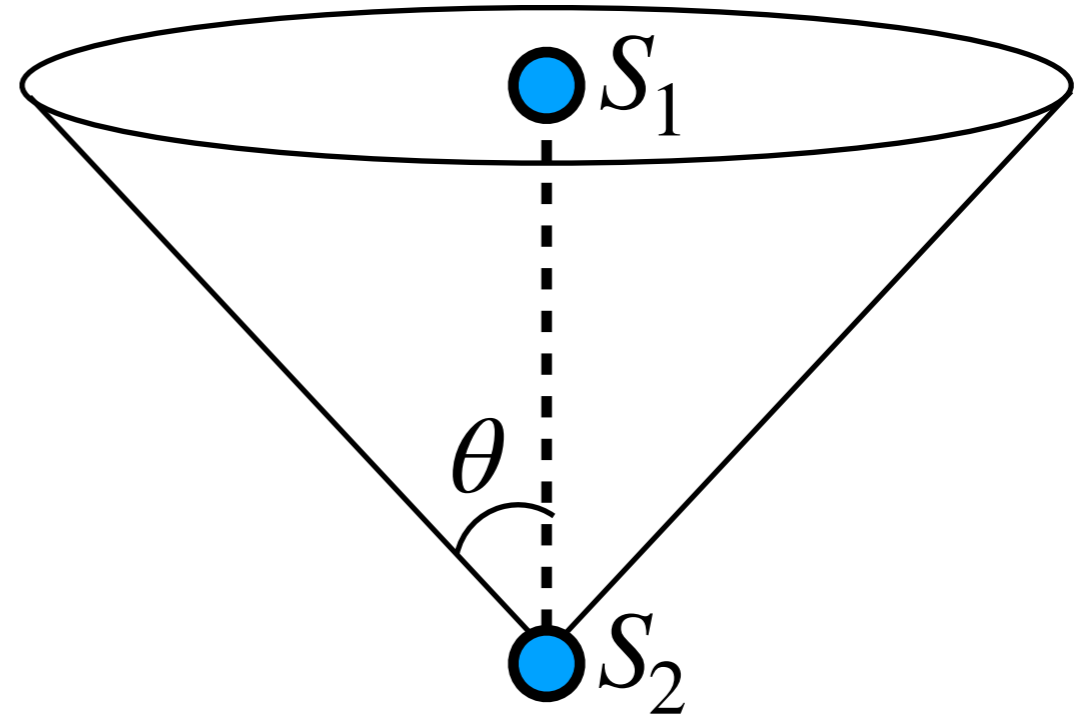
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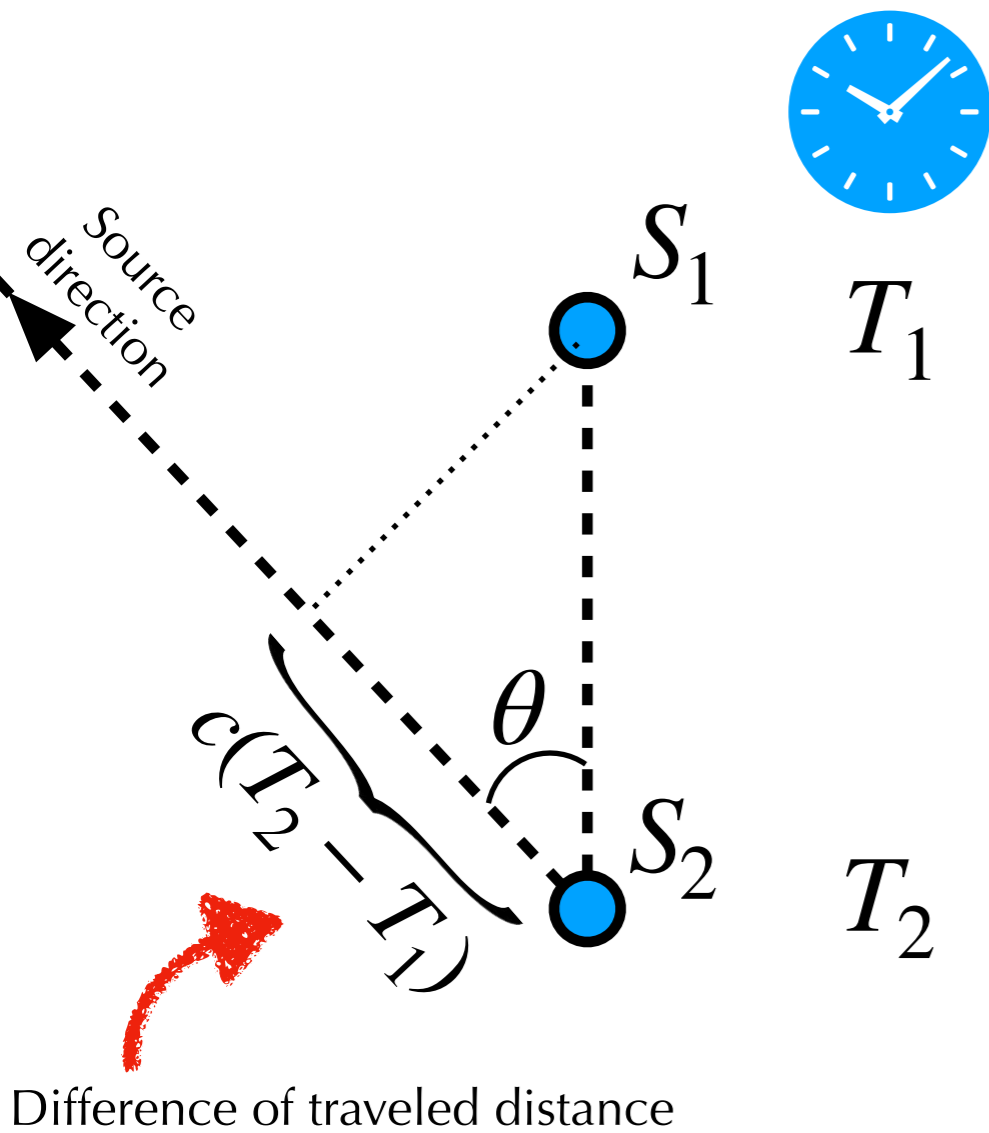


Two detectors \rightarrow locus of constant time delay forms a ring on the sky concentric about the baseline between the two sites

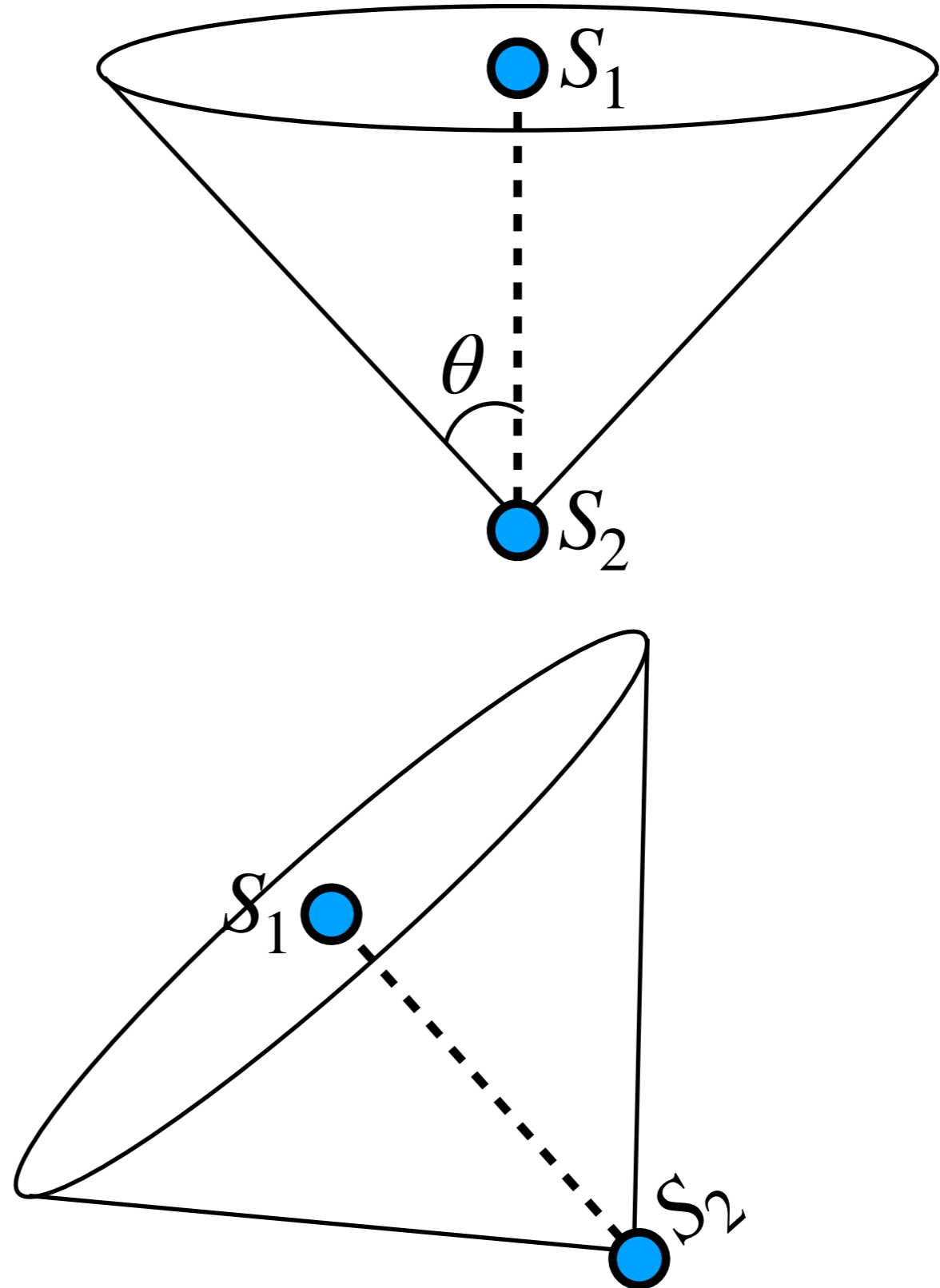
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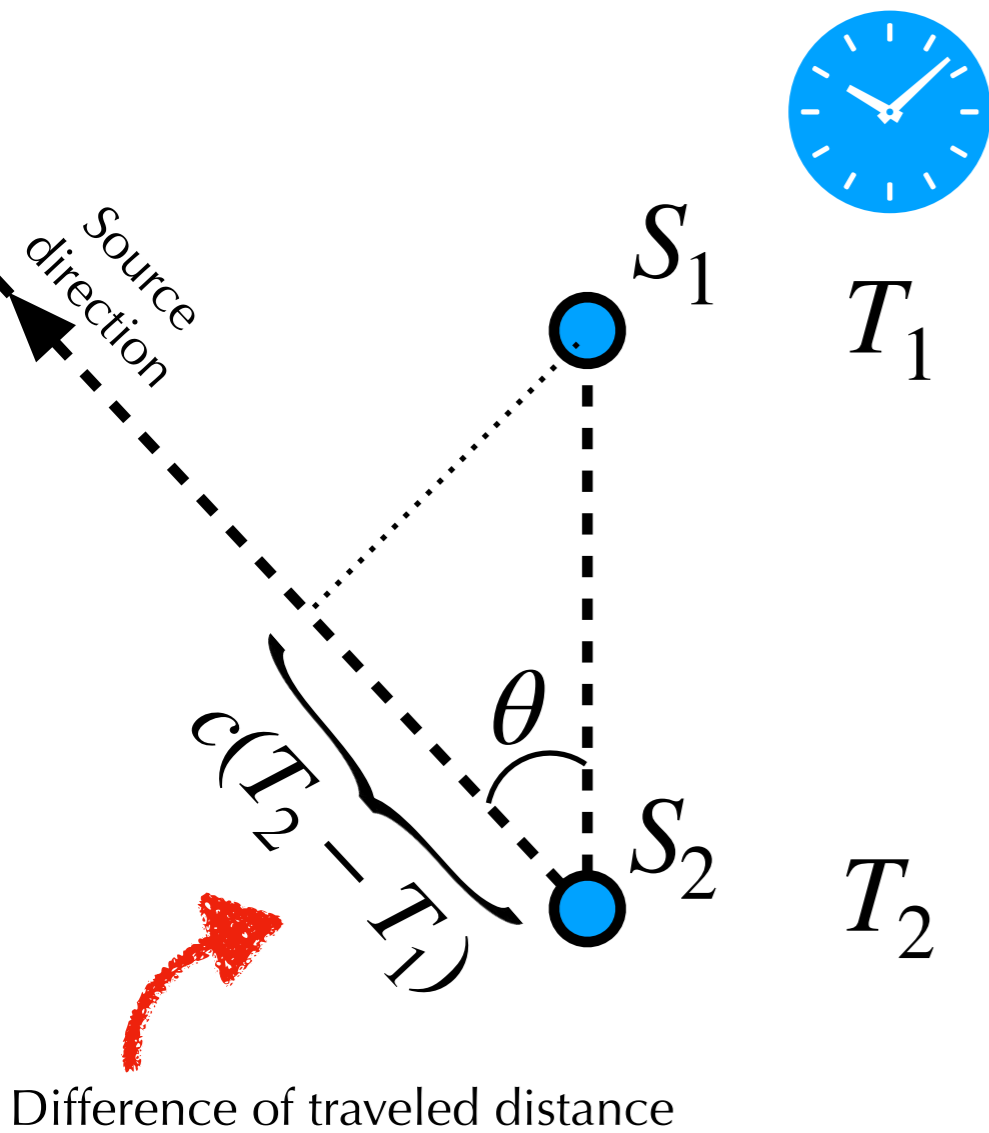


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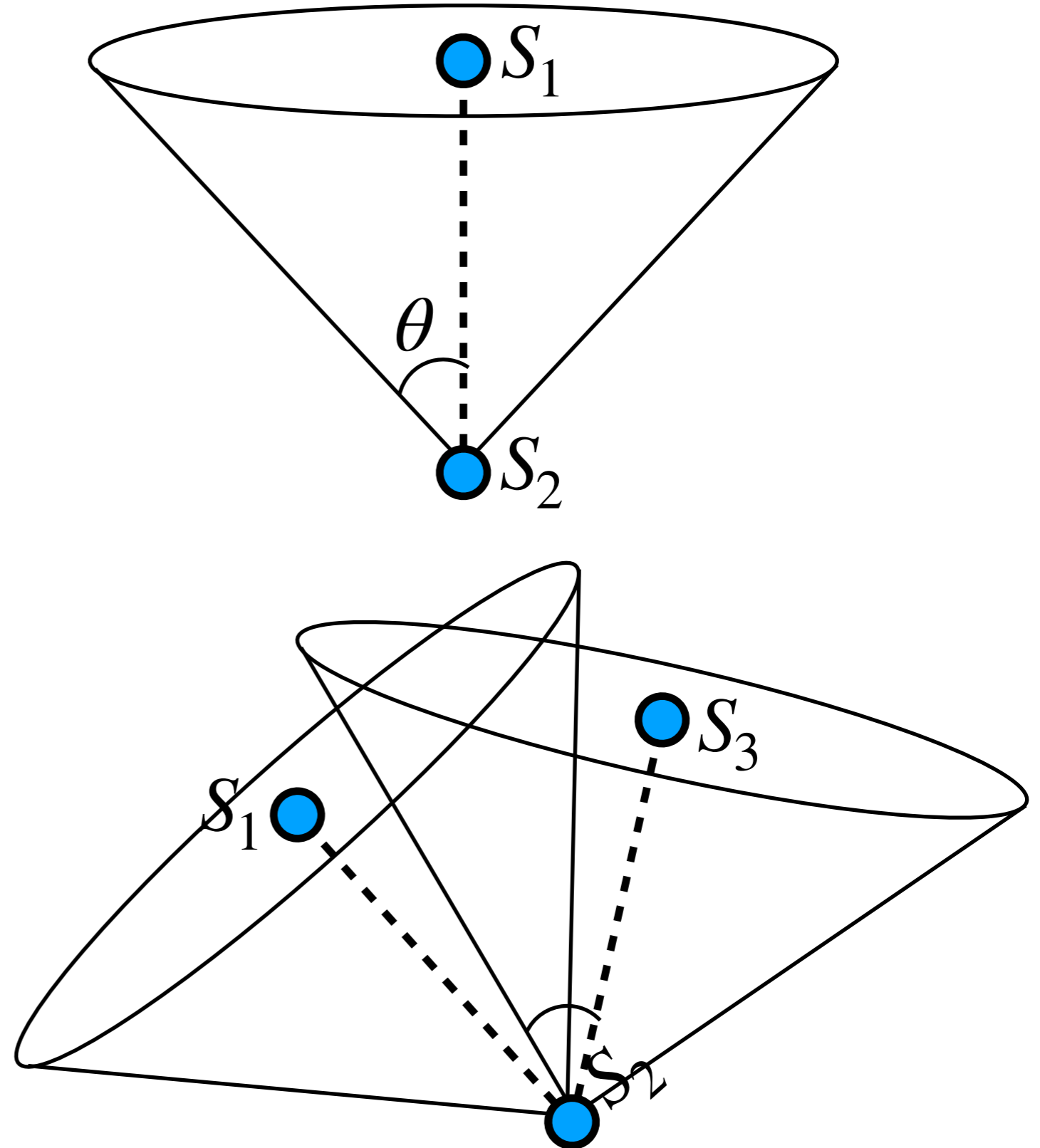


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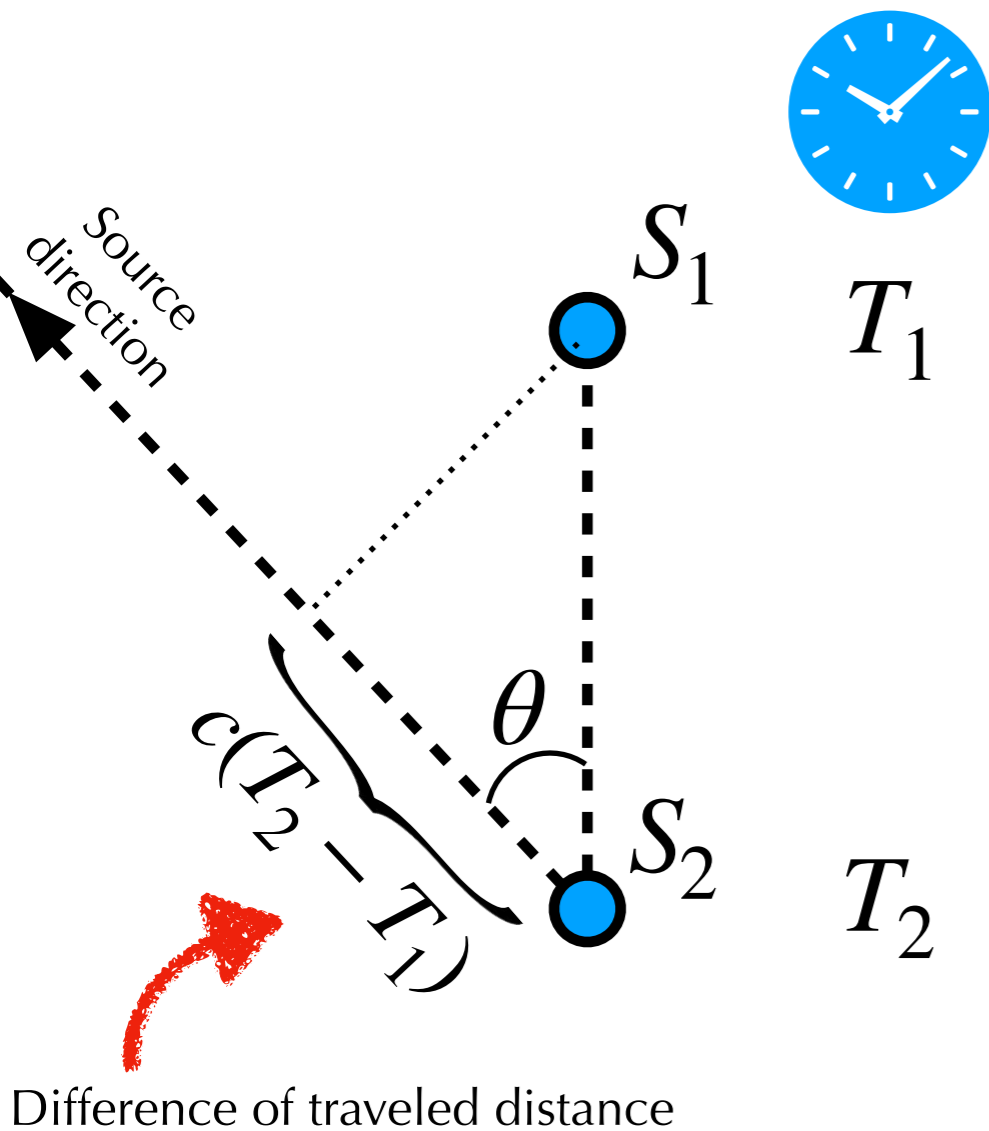


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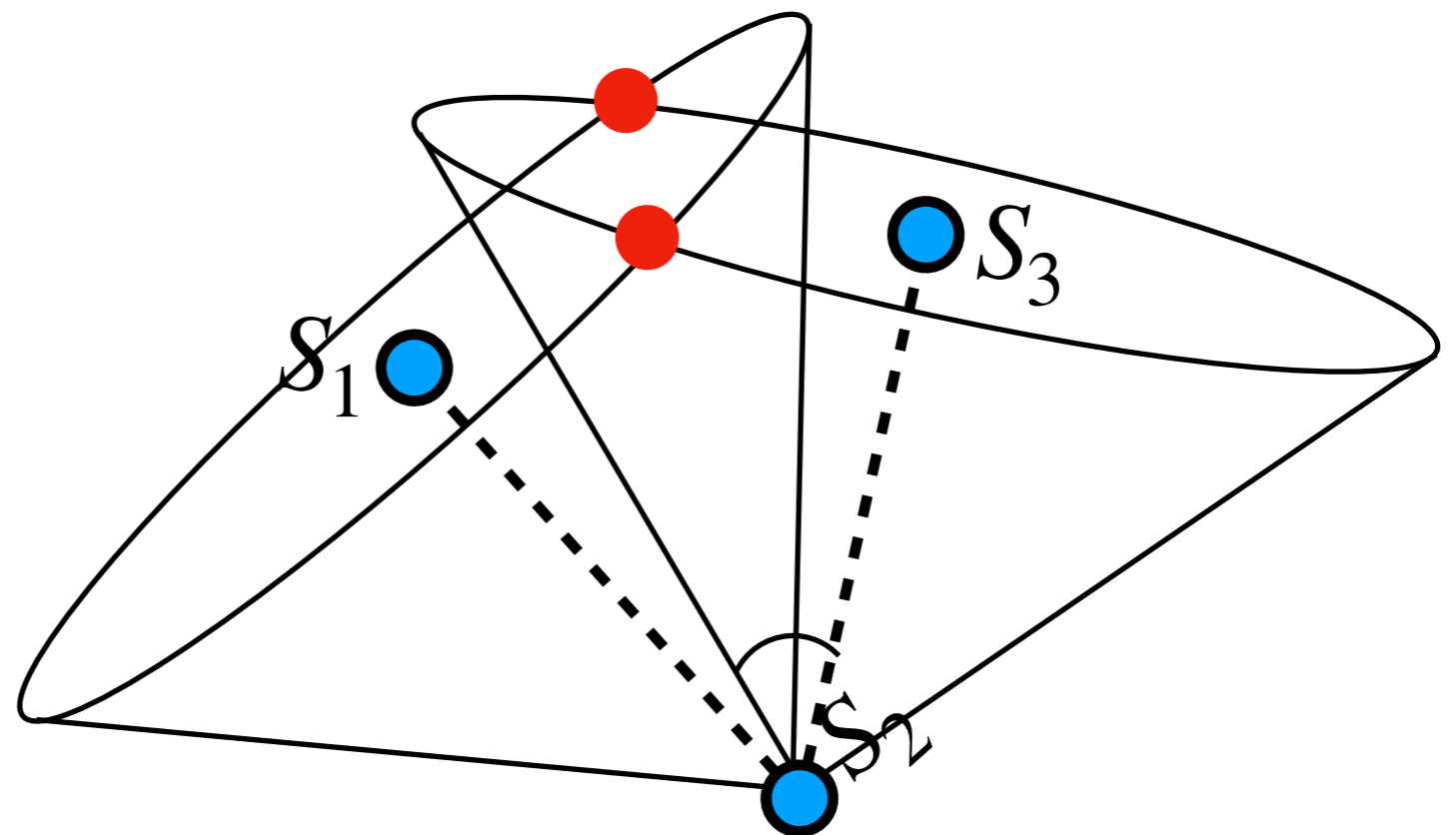


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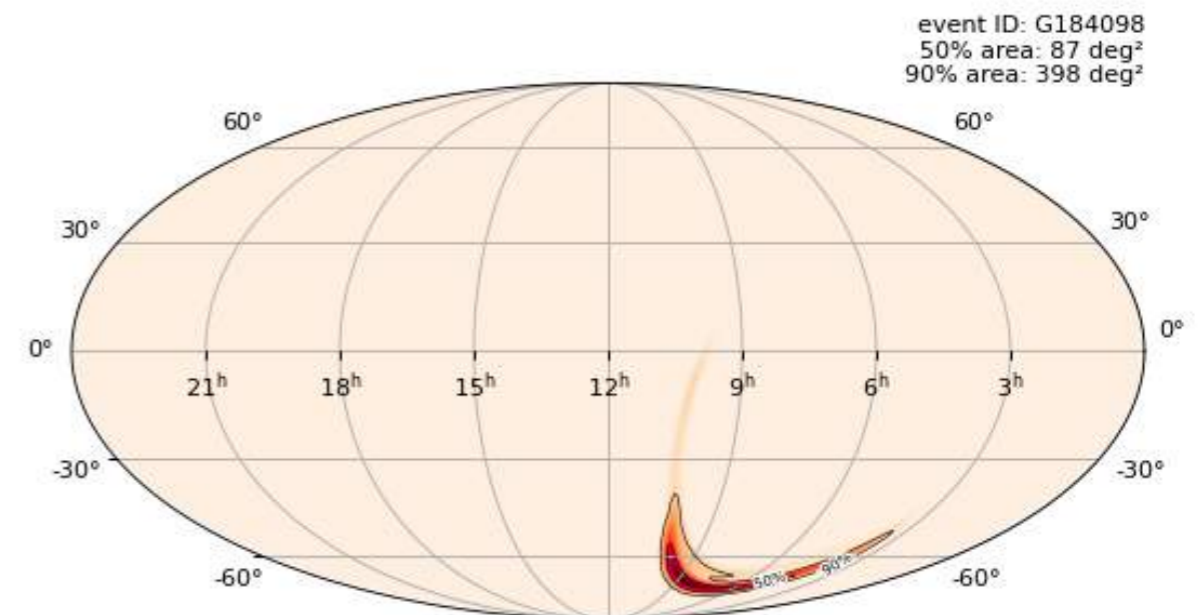
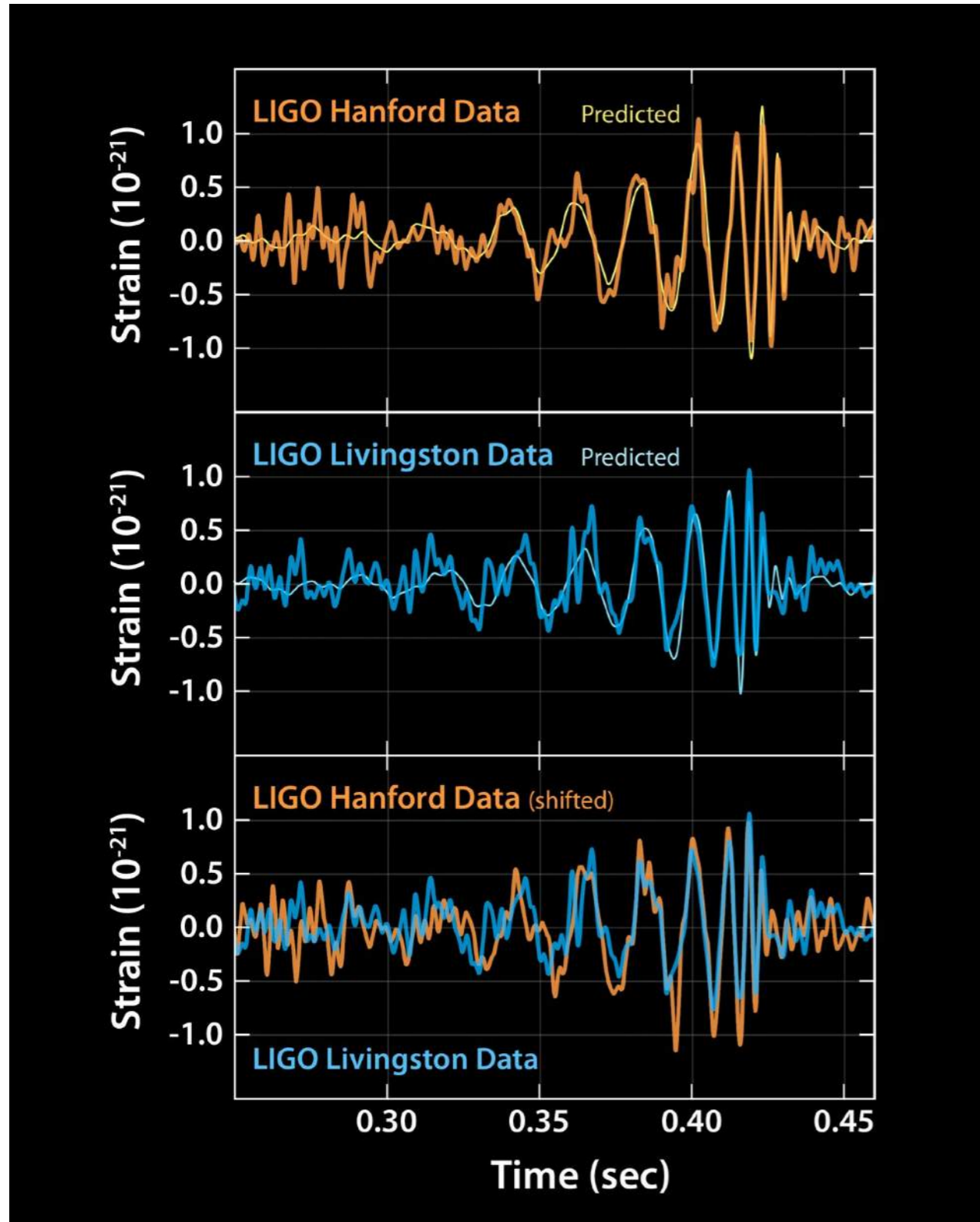
Three detectors \rightarrow rings intersect in **2 locations**
(including source real location)



$$\Rightarrow \cos(\theta) = \frac{c(T_2 - T_1)}{S_1 S_2}$$

First detection: GW150914

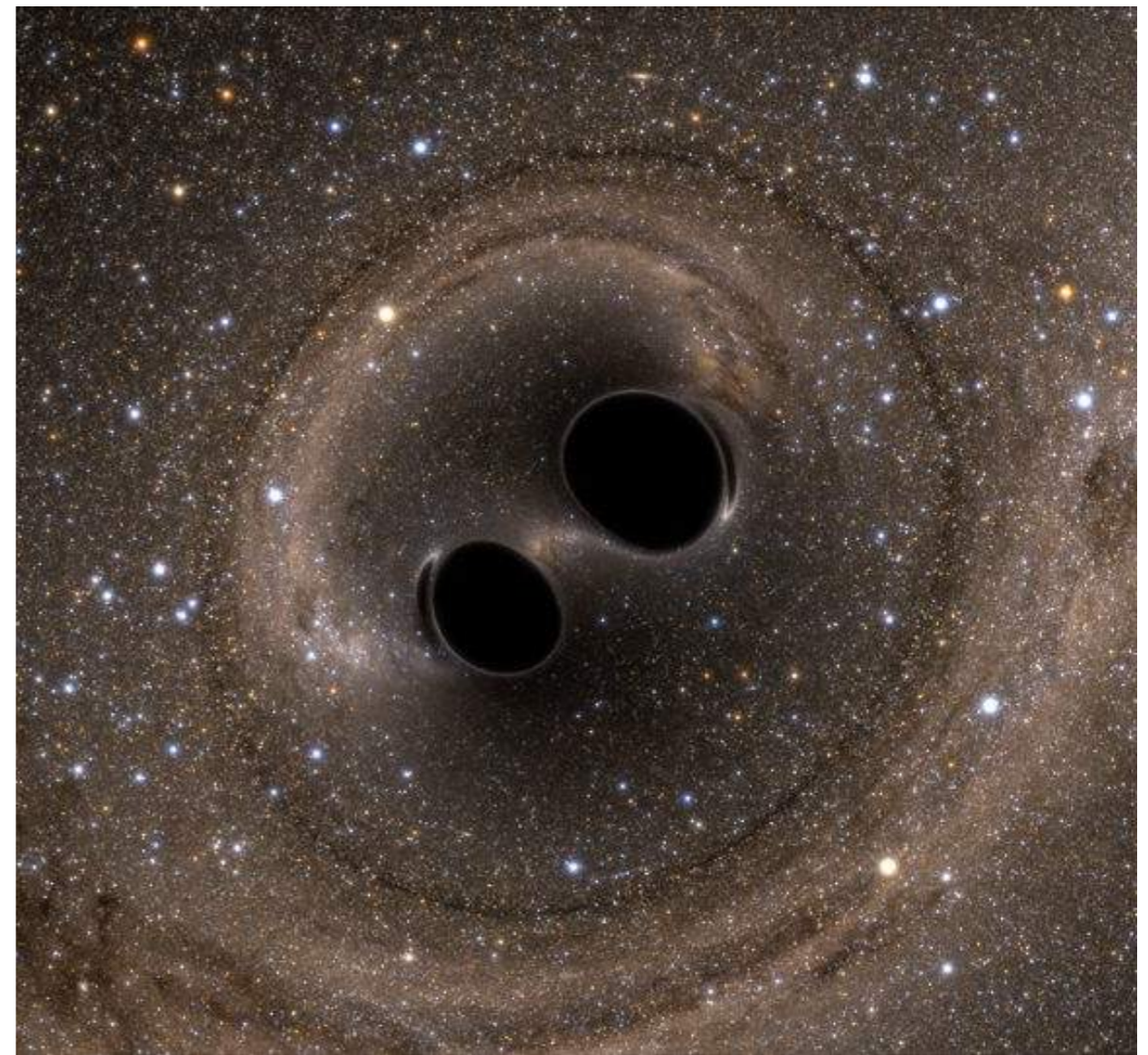
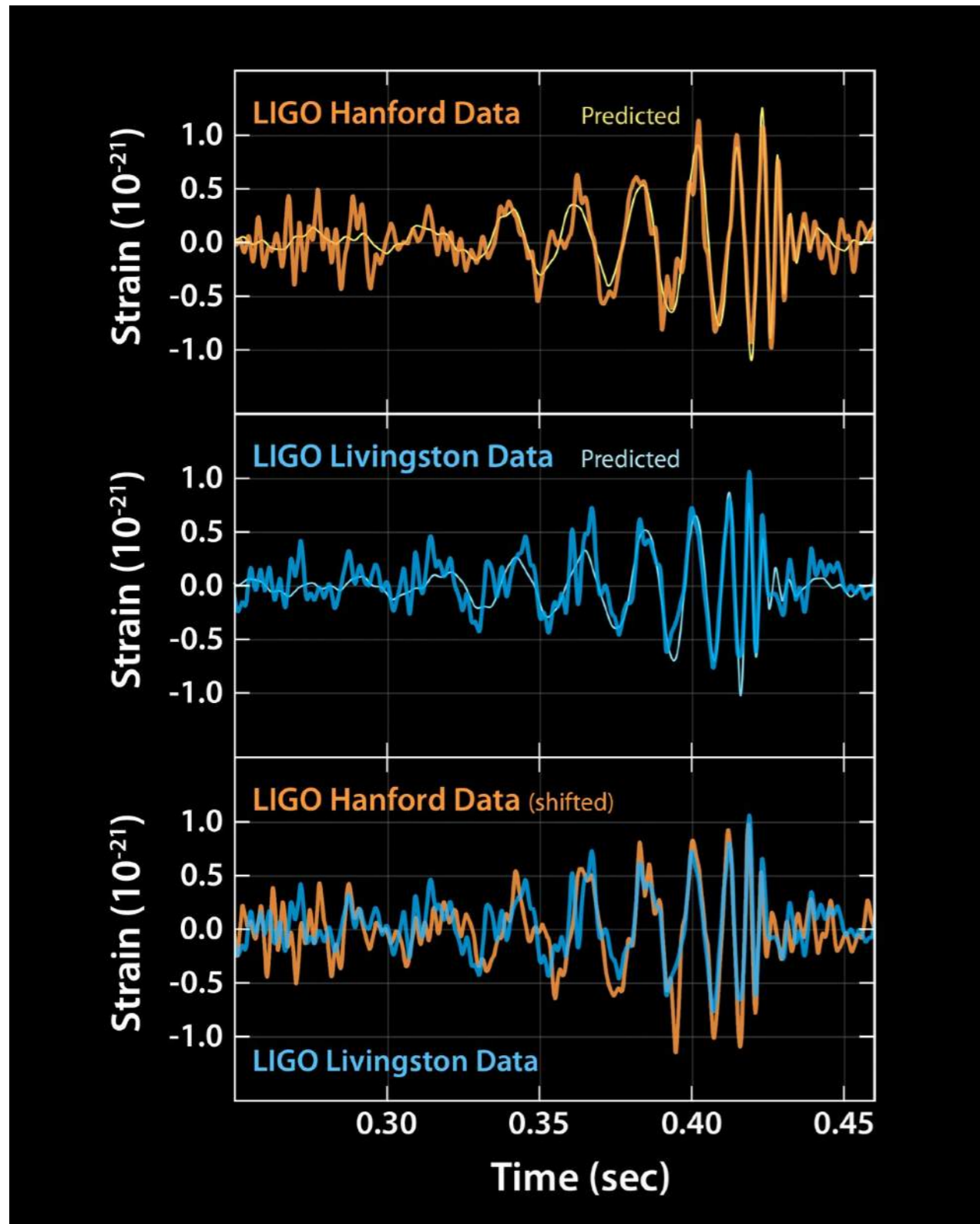
September 14, 2015



First detection: GW150914

September 14, 2015

GW150914: Coalescence of two
black holes of 36 and $29 M_{\odot}$
respectively

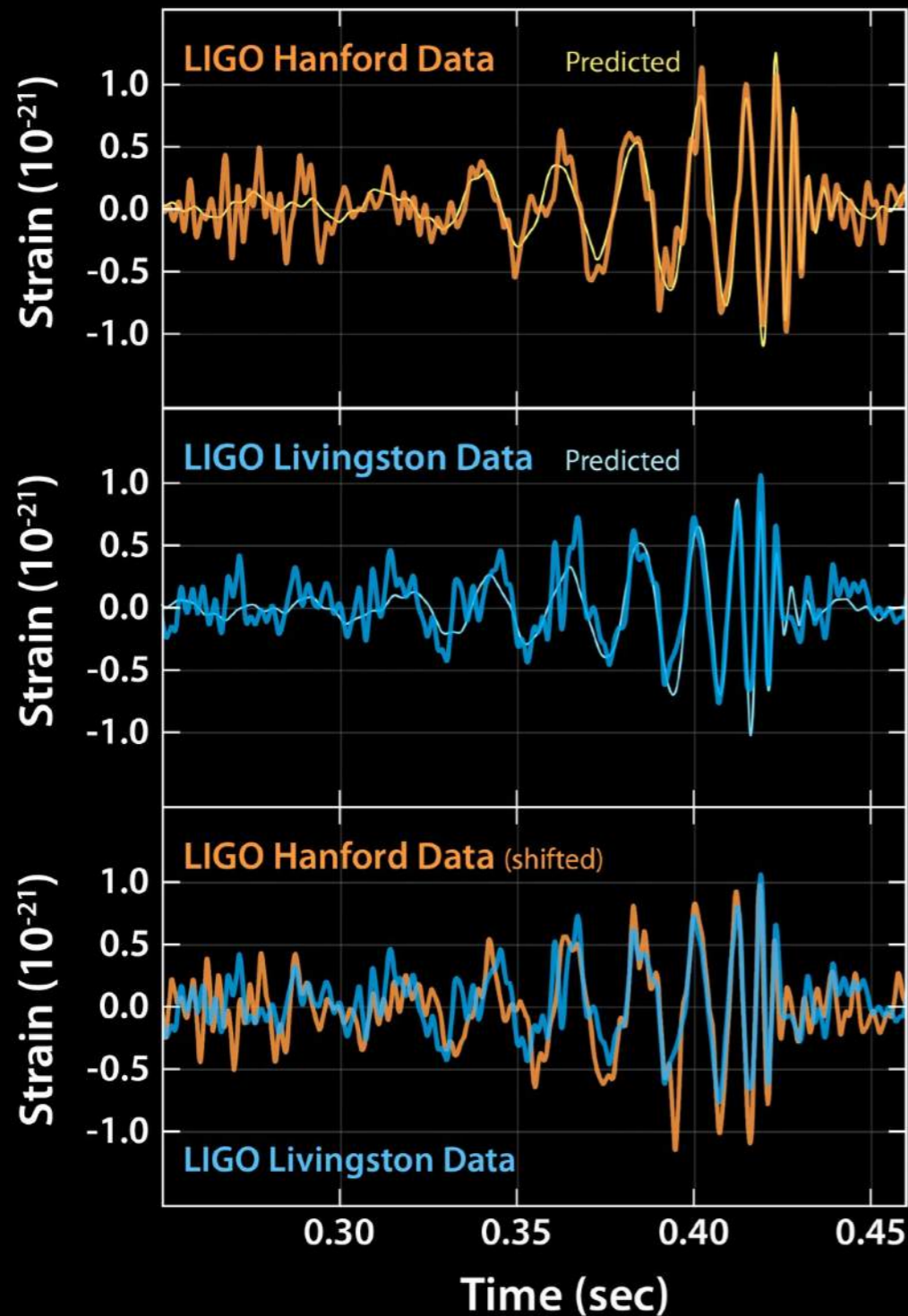


No associated electromagnetic
counterpart...

First detection: GW150914

September 14, 2015

GW150914: Coalescence of two black holes of 36 and $29 M_{\odot}$ respectively



The Nobel Prize in Physics 2017



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Rainer Weiss
Prize share: 1/2



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Barry C. Barish
Prize share: 1/4



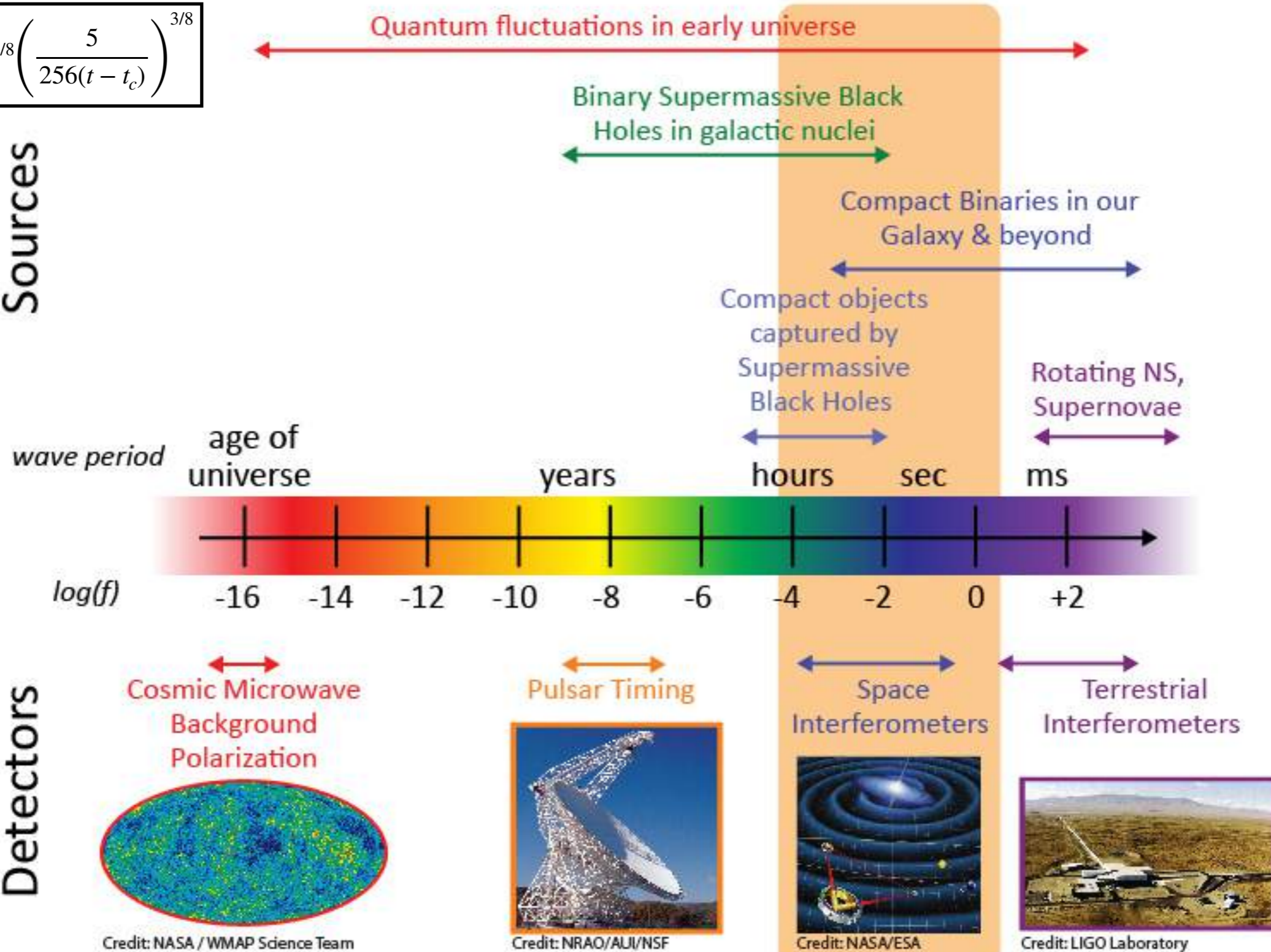
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Kip S. Thorne
Prize share: 1/4

Gravitational wave spectrum

$$f_{GW} \propto (GM_c)^{-5/8} \left(\frac{5}{256(t-t_c)} \right)^{3/8}$$

The Gravitational Wave Spectrum

Sources



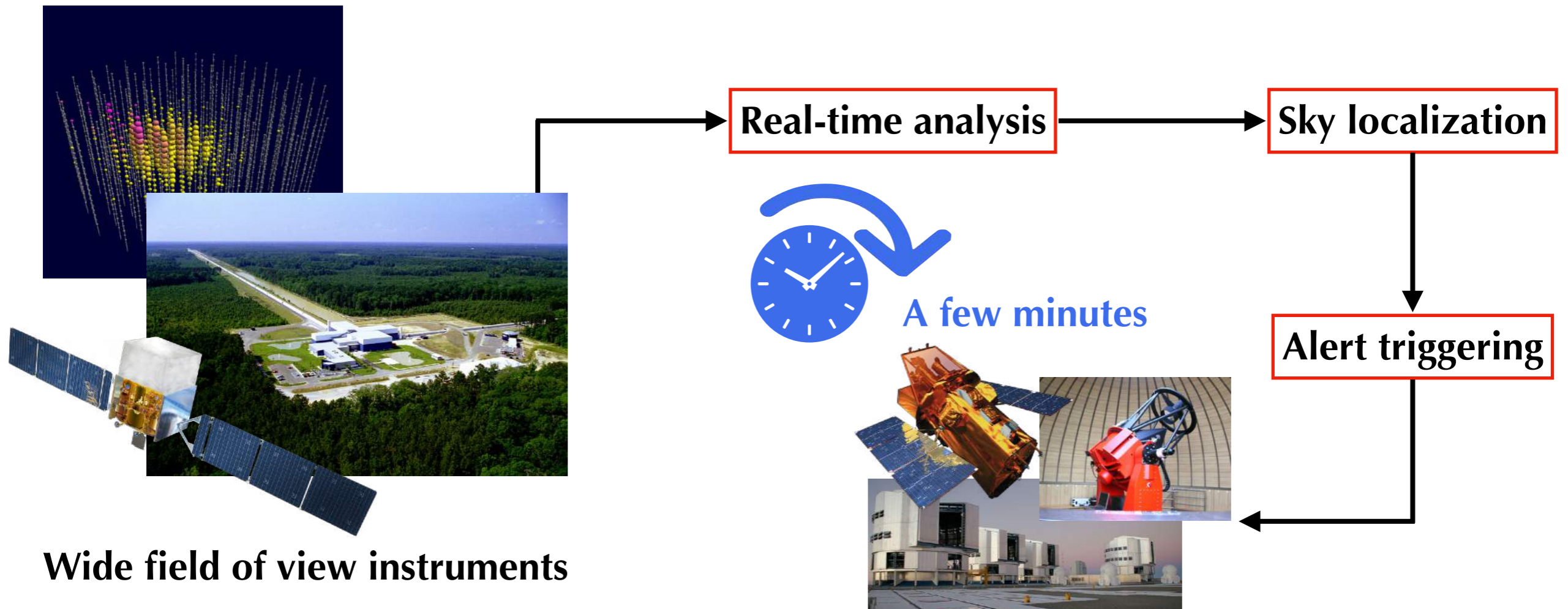
Detectors

Real-time multi-messenger astronomy

Usually variable and transient sources !

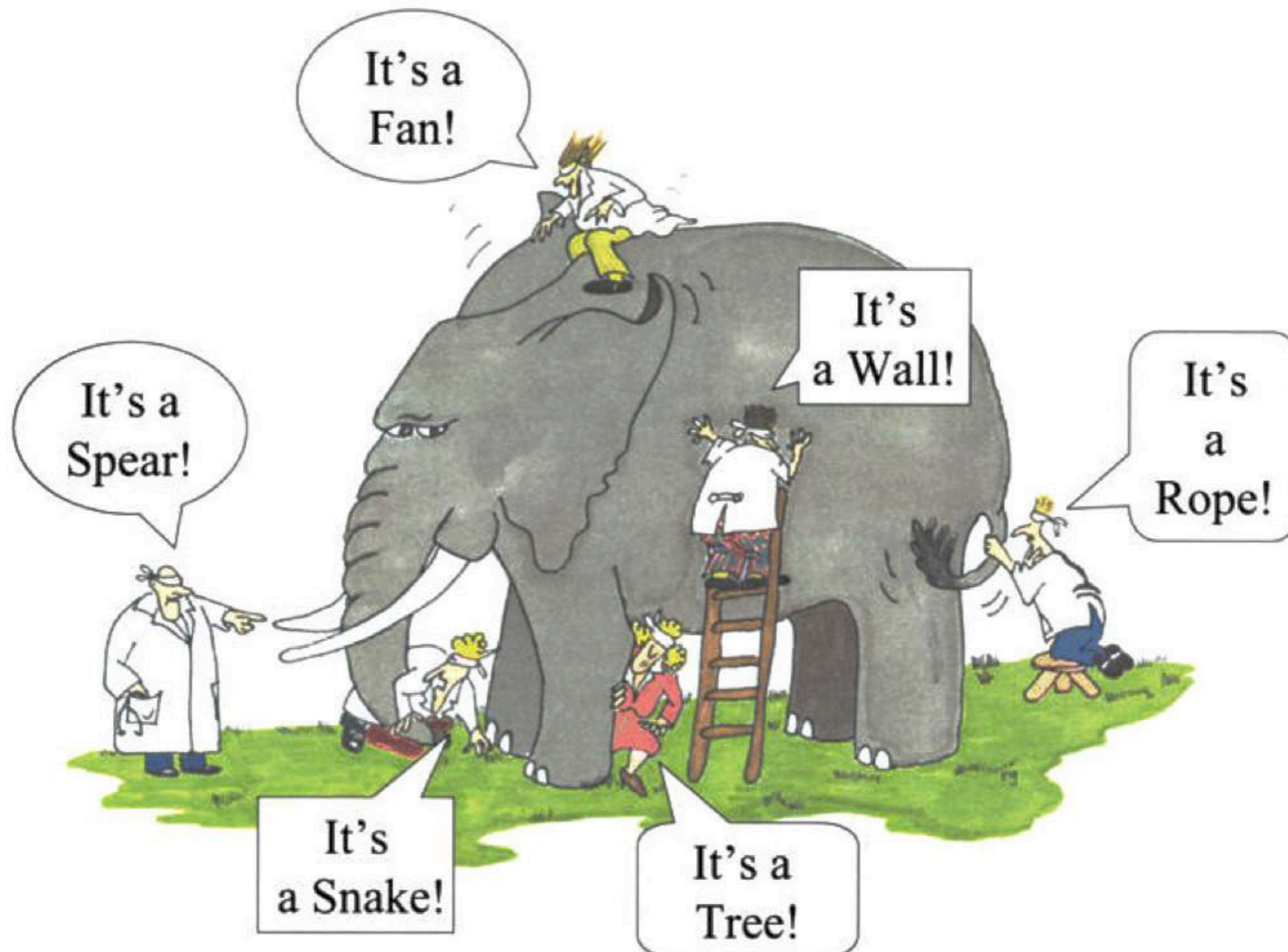
Time domain astronomy:

- Many science areas
- Multi-wavelength / multi-messenger
- Need dedicated wide-field instruments and fast, detailed follow-up
- Build for what we know... and what we don't know: huge discovery space !



Conclusion

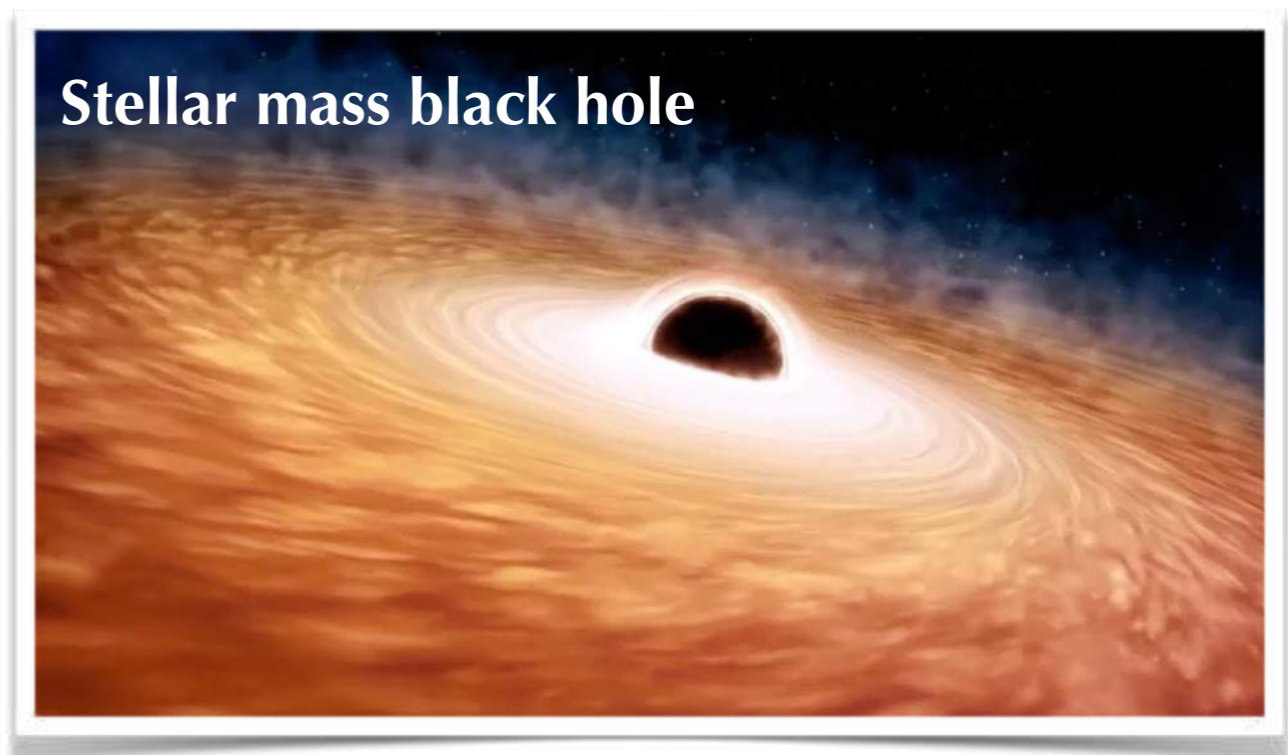
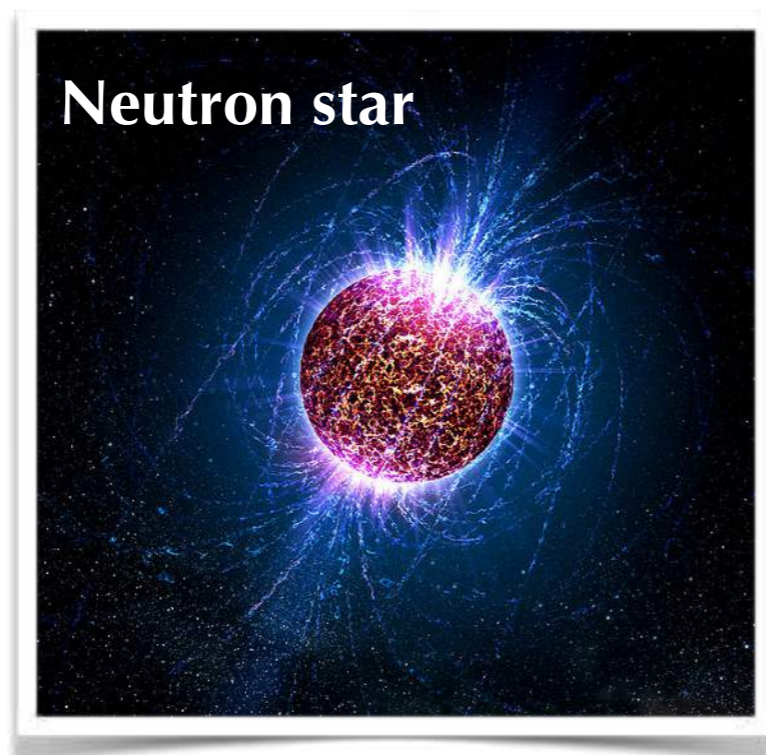
- **Main questions:** end of life of massive stars, nucleosynthesis, fundamental physics, formation and evolution of supermassive black holes
- **Multi-messenger astronomy: different tools to observe the sky:**



Outline - Lecture 2

B. End point of massive star evolution

1. Evolution of massive stars
2. Gamma-ray bursts
3. The *SVOM* space mission



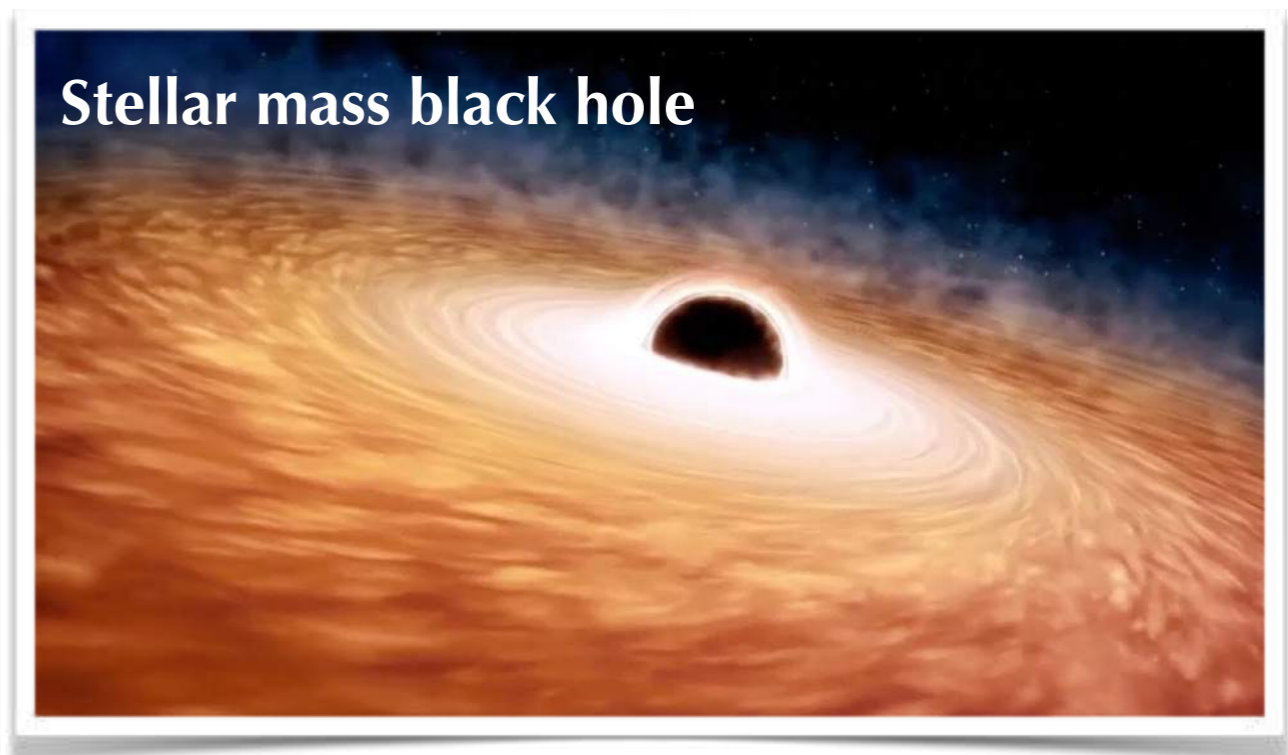
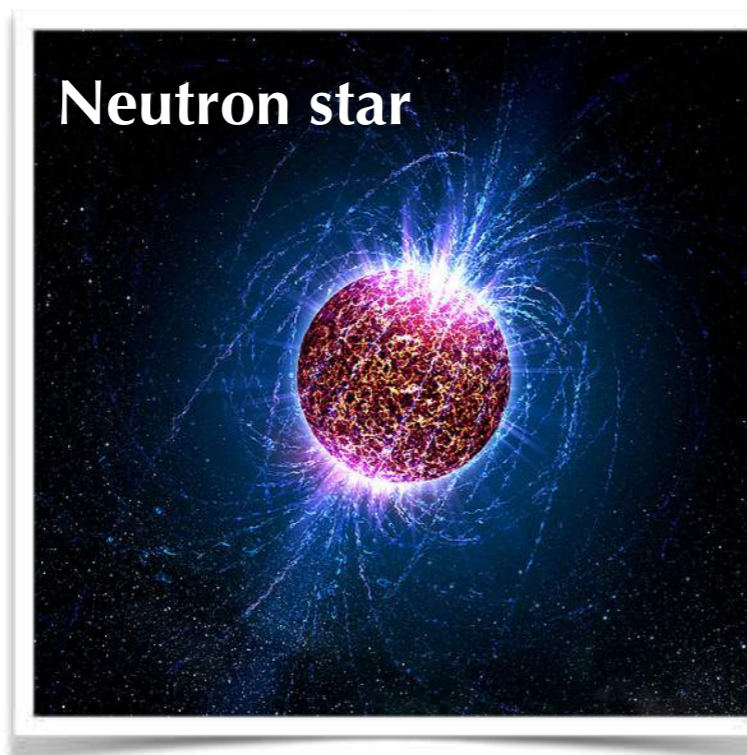
Outline - Lecture 2

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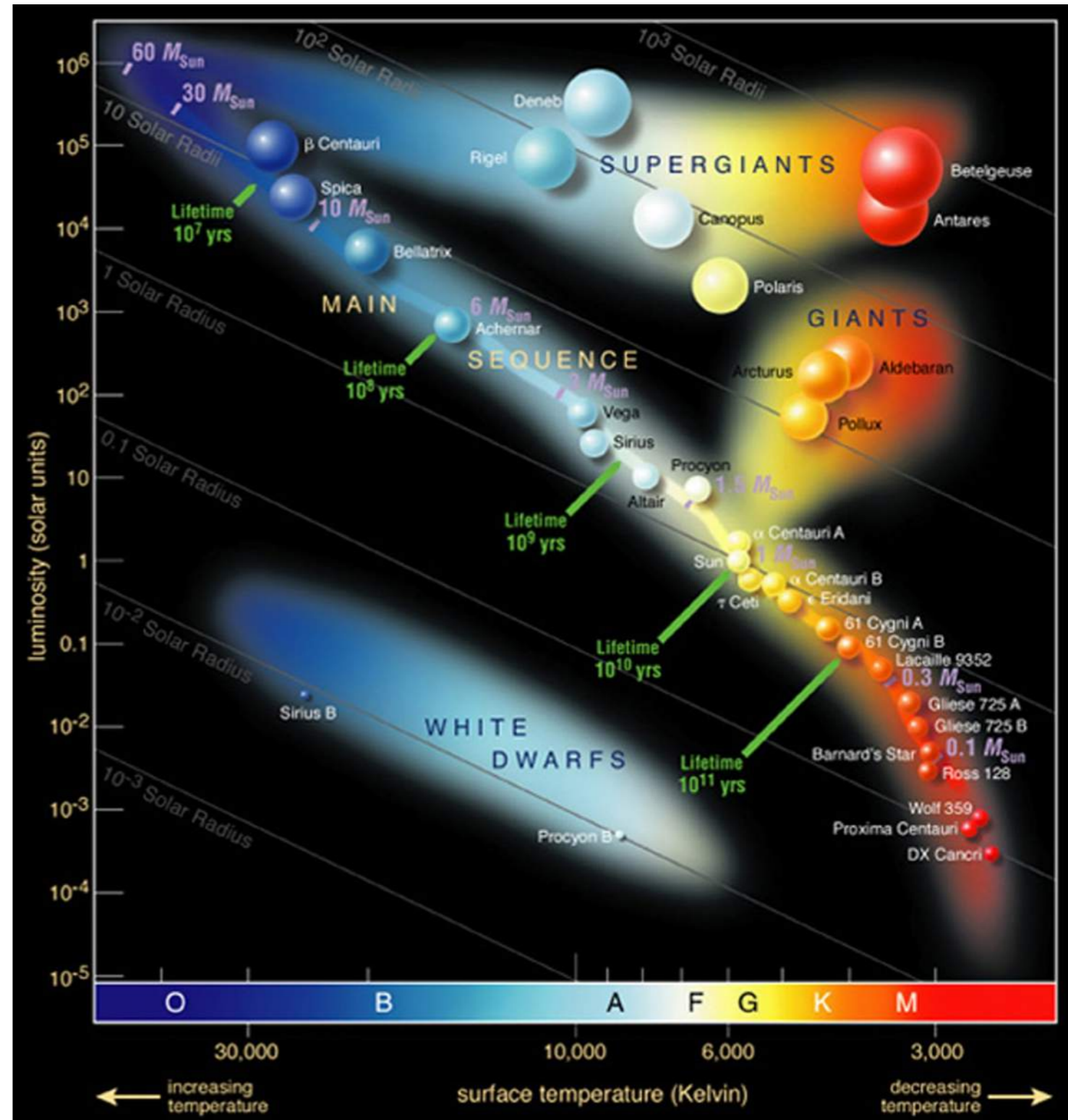
3. The *SVOM* space mission



Stellar evolution

- Hertzsprung-Russell diagram (1913)
luminosity = f(temperature)
- Most of the stars on the main sequence
- Stars at different evolutionary stages
- Most massive stars are rare
- What is the source of energy ?

19th century: $C + O_2 \rightarrow CO_2$
releases 33×10^6 J/kg $\Rightarrow t_{\odot} \sim 10^4$ yr
 \Rightarrow too short !

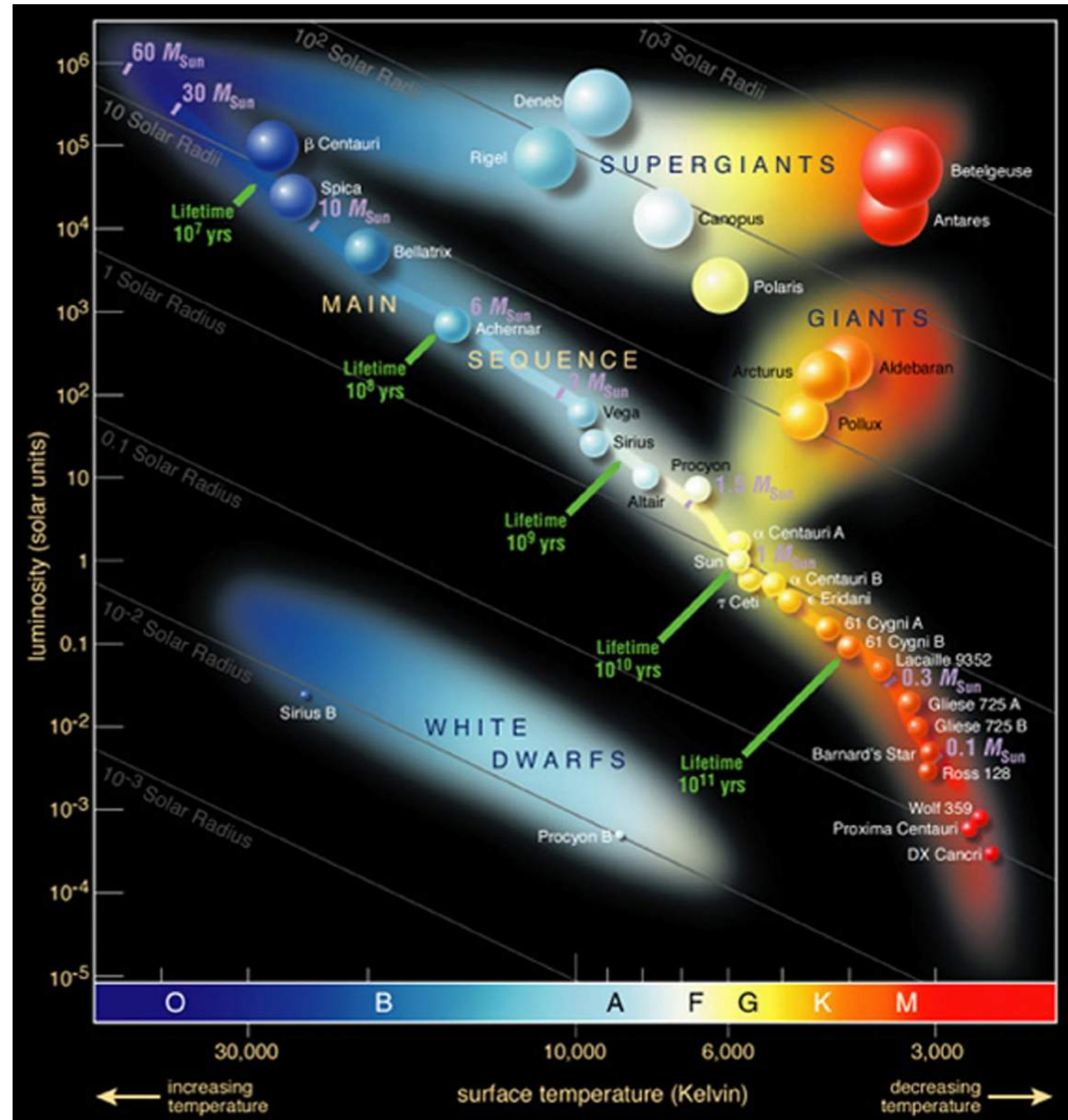


Stellar evolution

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$$t_{\text{nuc}} \propto \frac{Mc^2}{L} \gg t_{\odot}$$

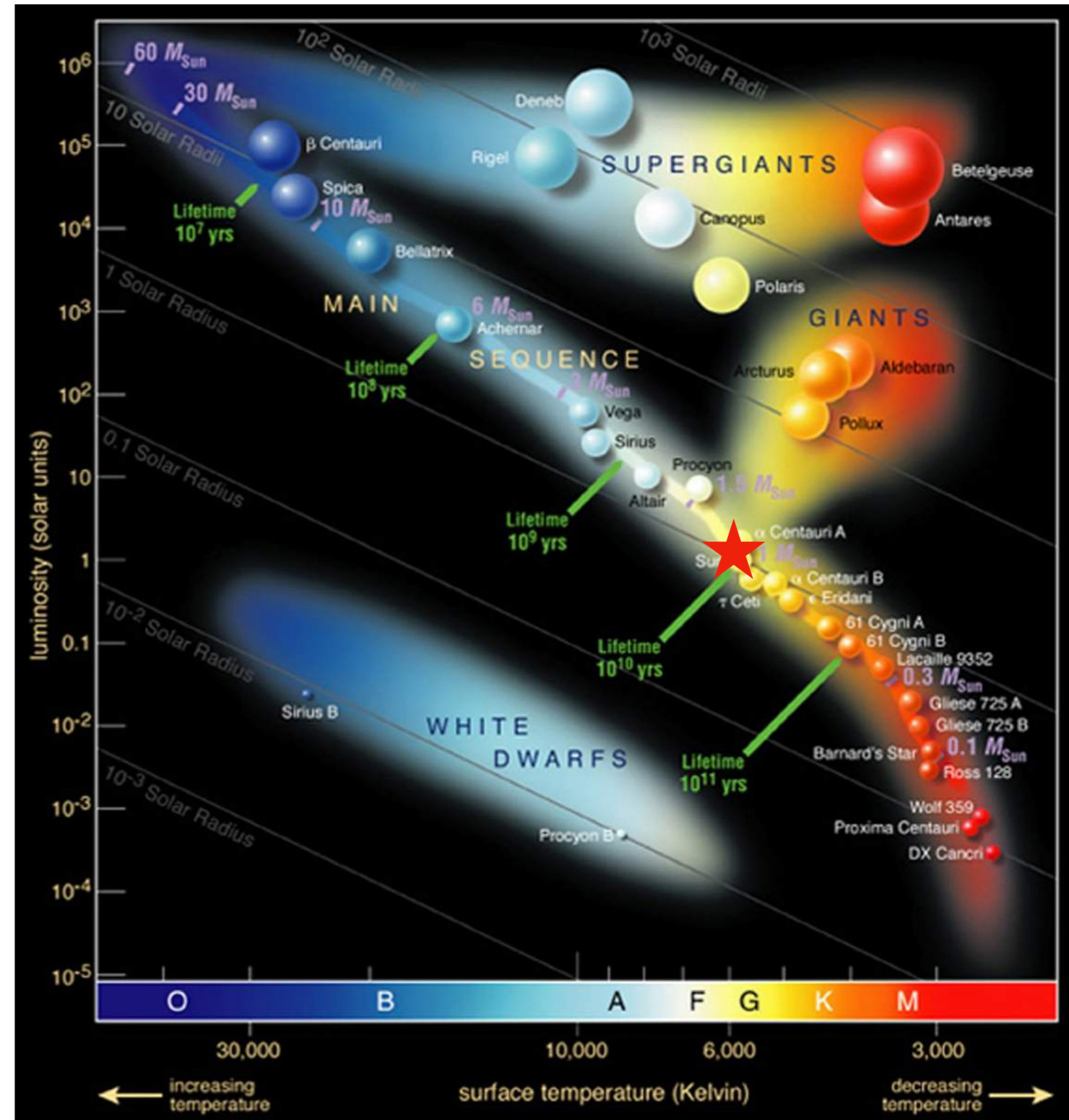
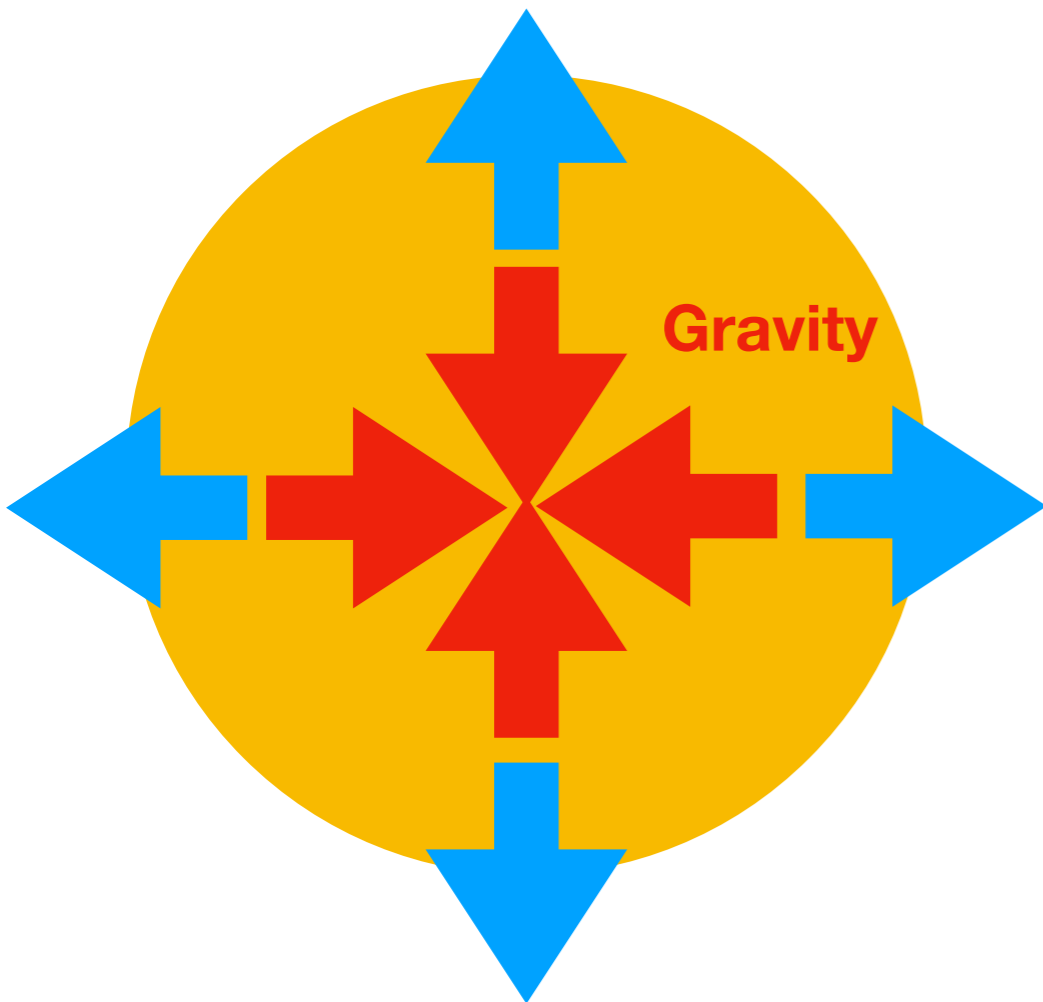
t_{nuc} compatible with t_{\odot} if we assume that all mass is not converted into energy



Stellar evolution

- On the main sequence: star at equilibrium (gravitation balanced by gas + radiation pressure)
- Nuclear reactions produce the radiated energy

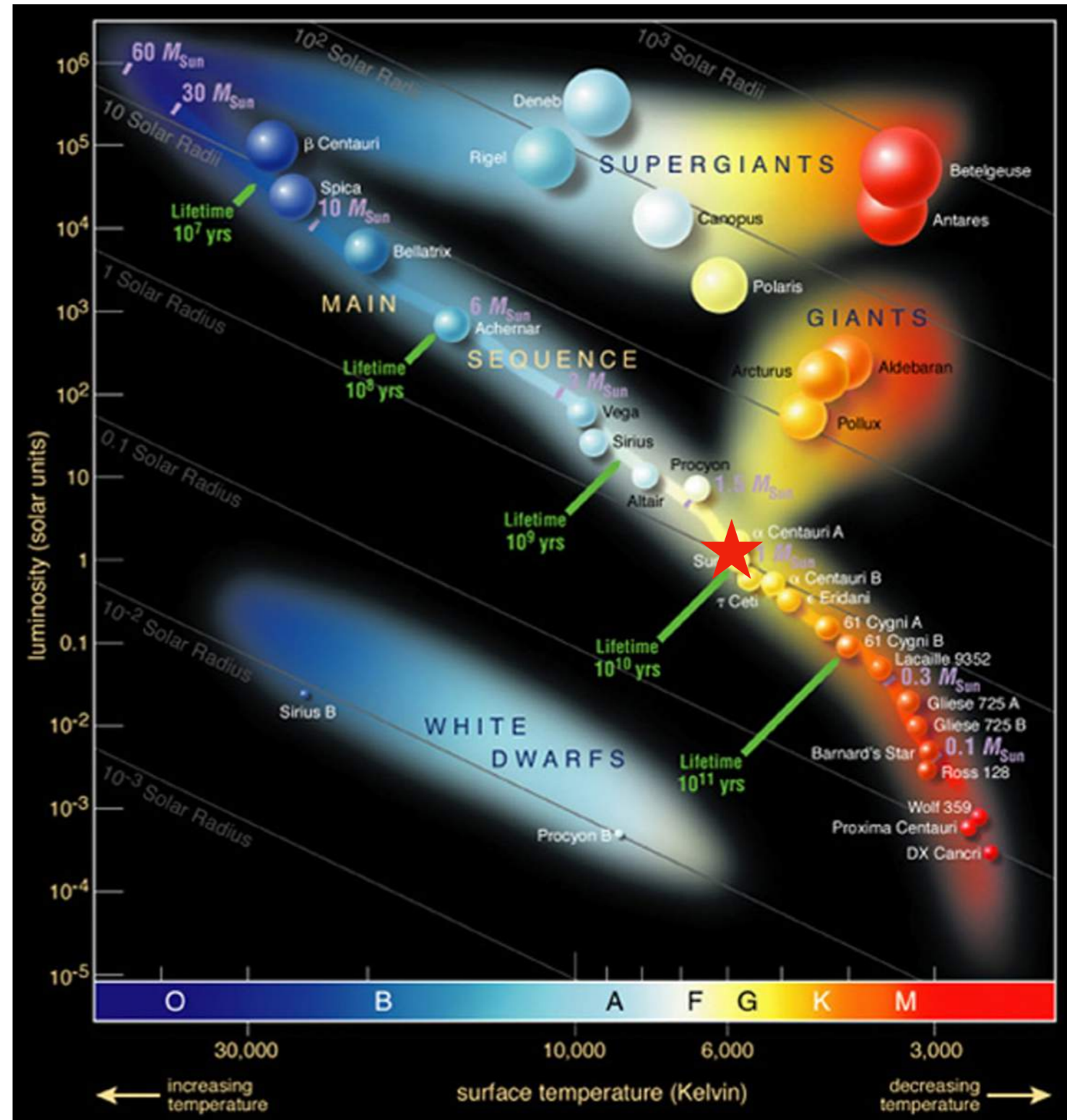
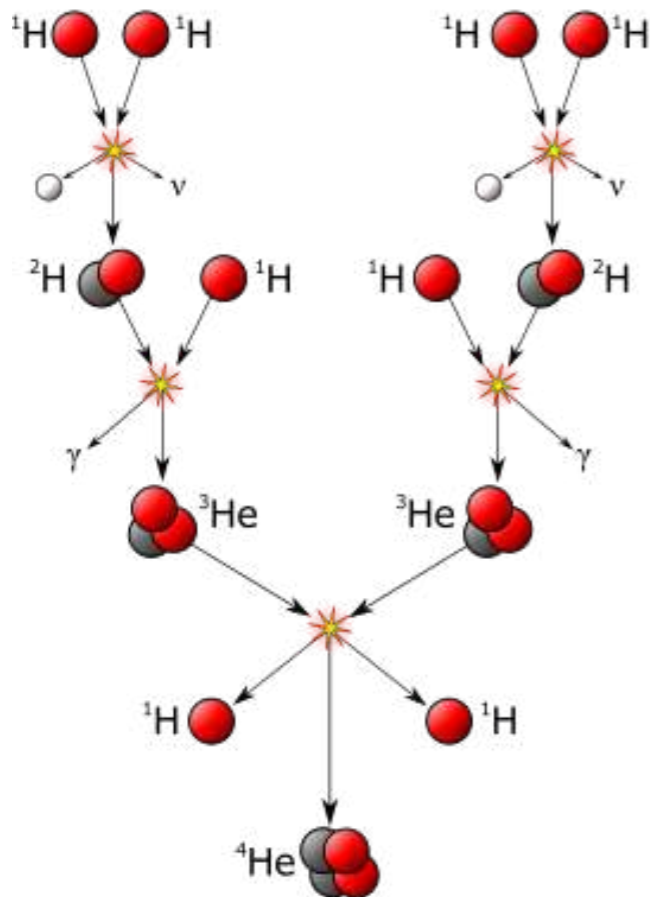
Radiative + gas pressure



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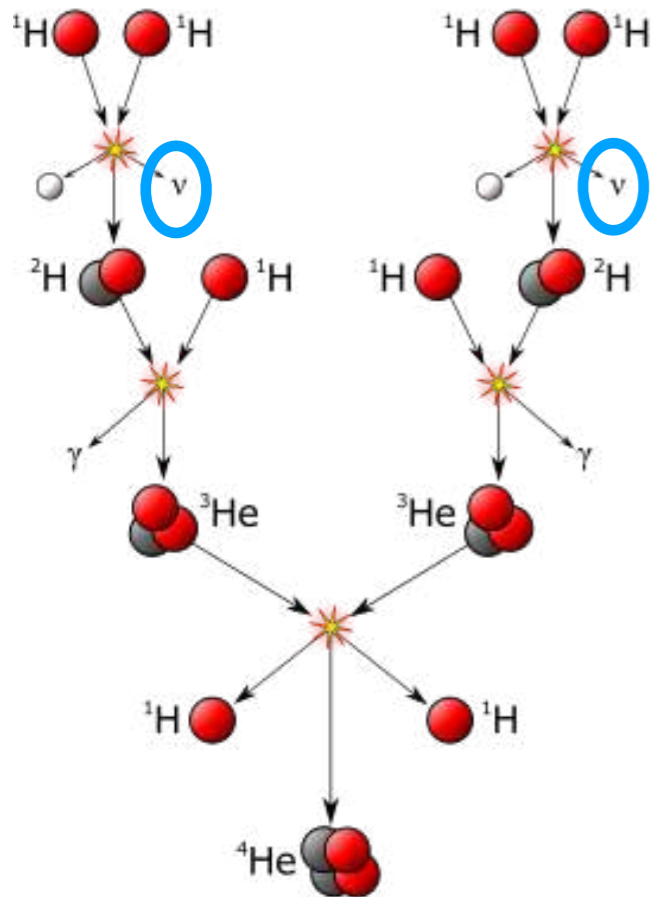
Proton-proton chain



Stellar evolution

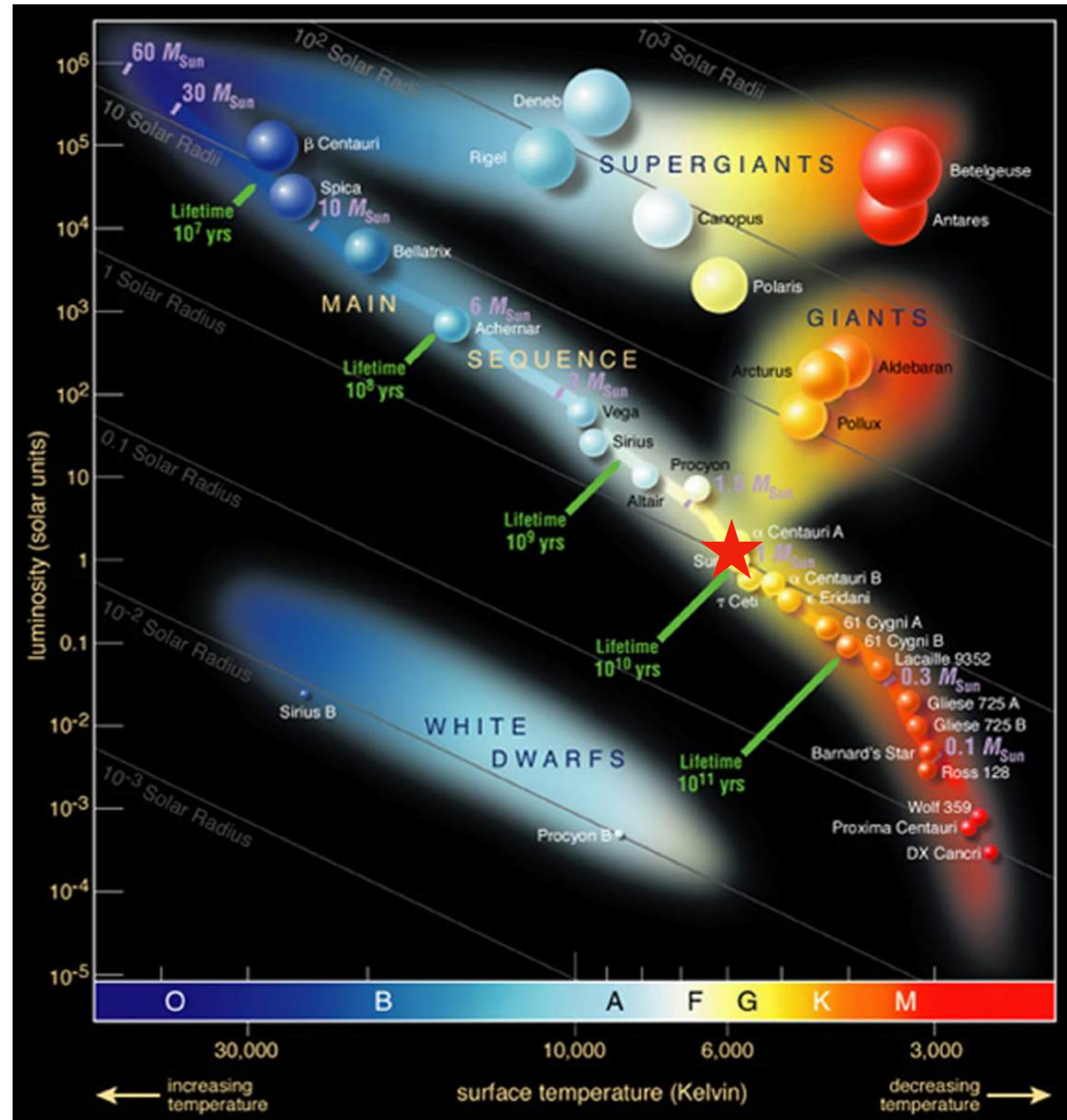
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Proton-proton chain



26.7 MeV released for one ^4He

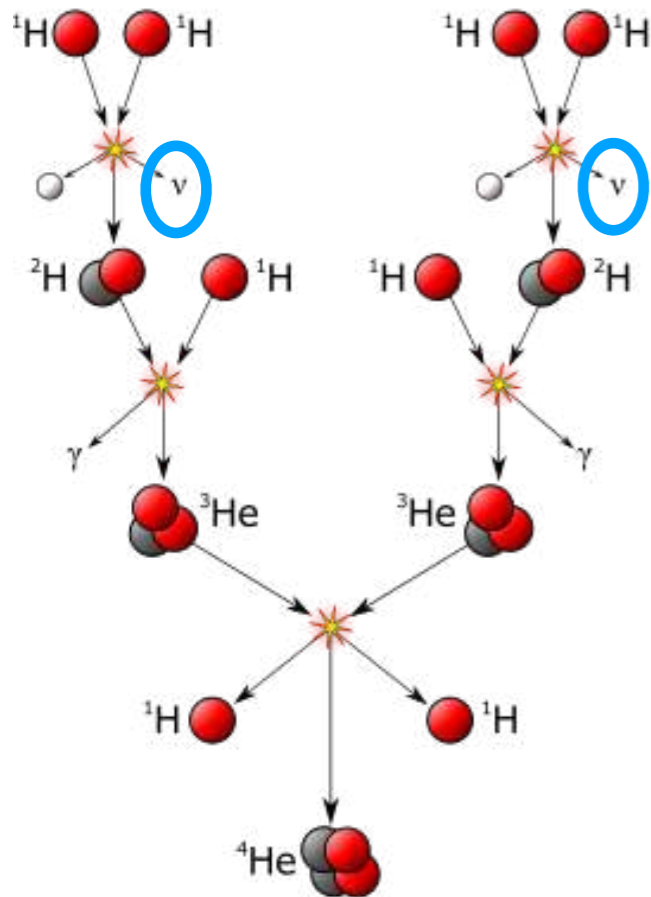
$$F_\nu = ?$$



Stellar evolution

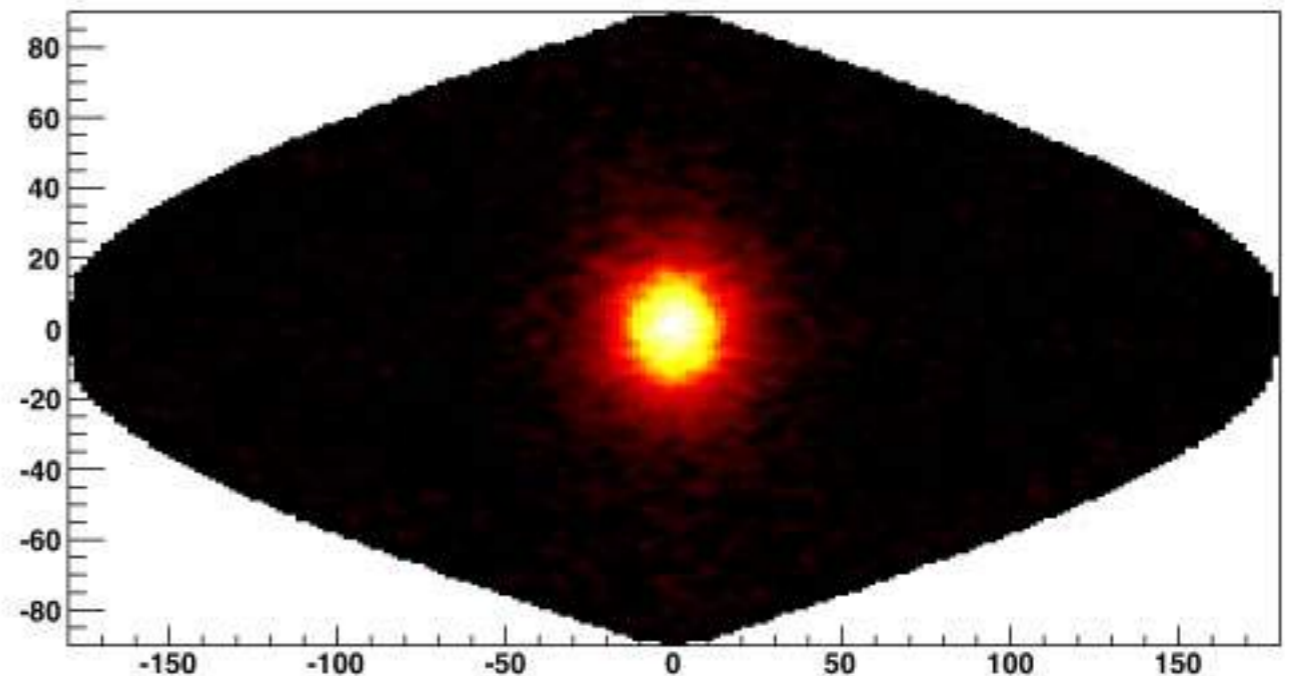
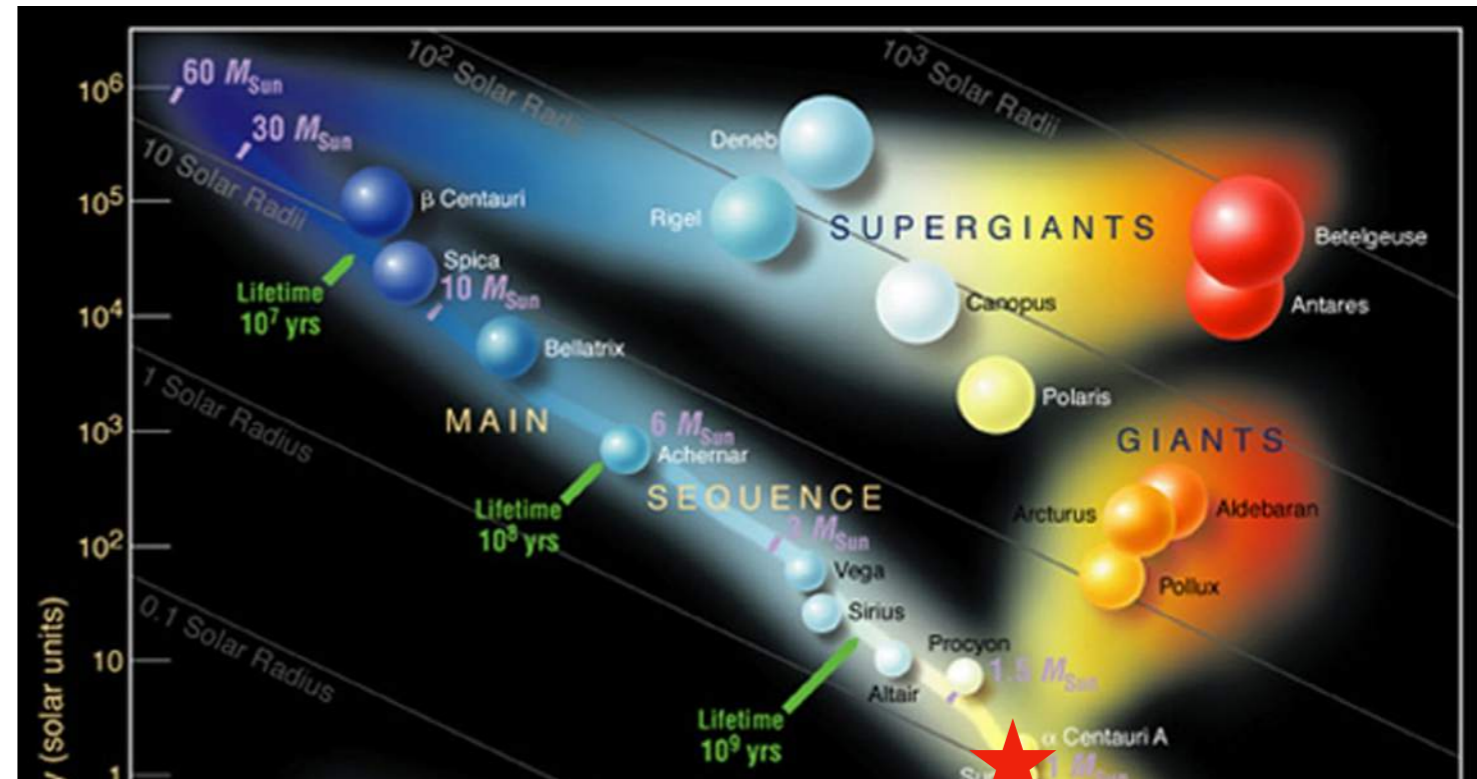
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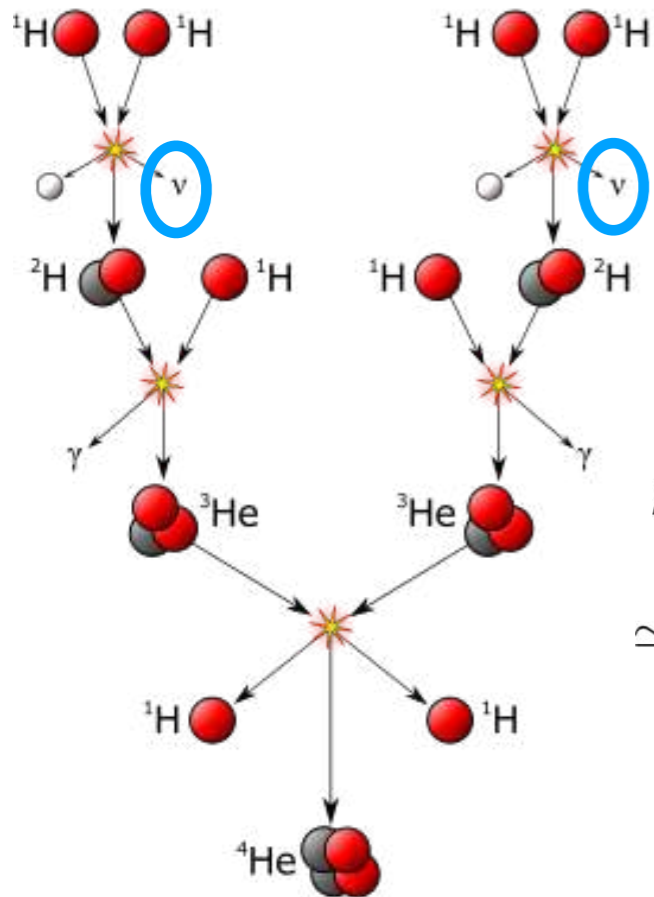
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Stellar evolution

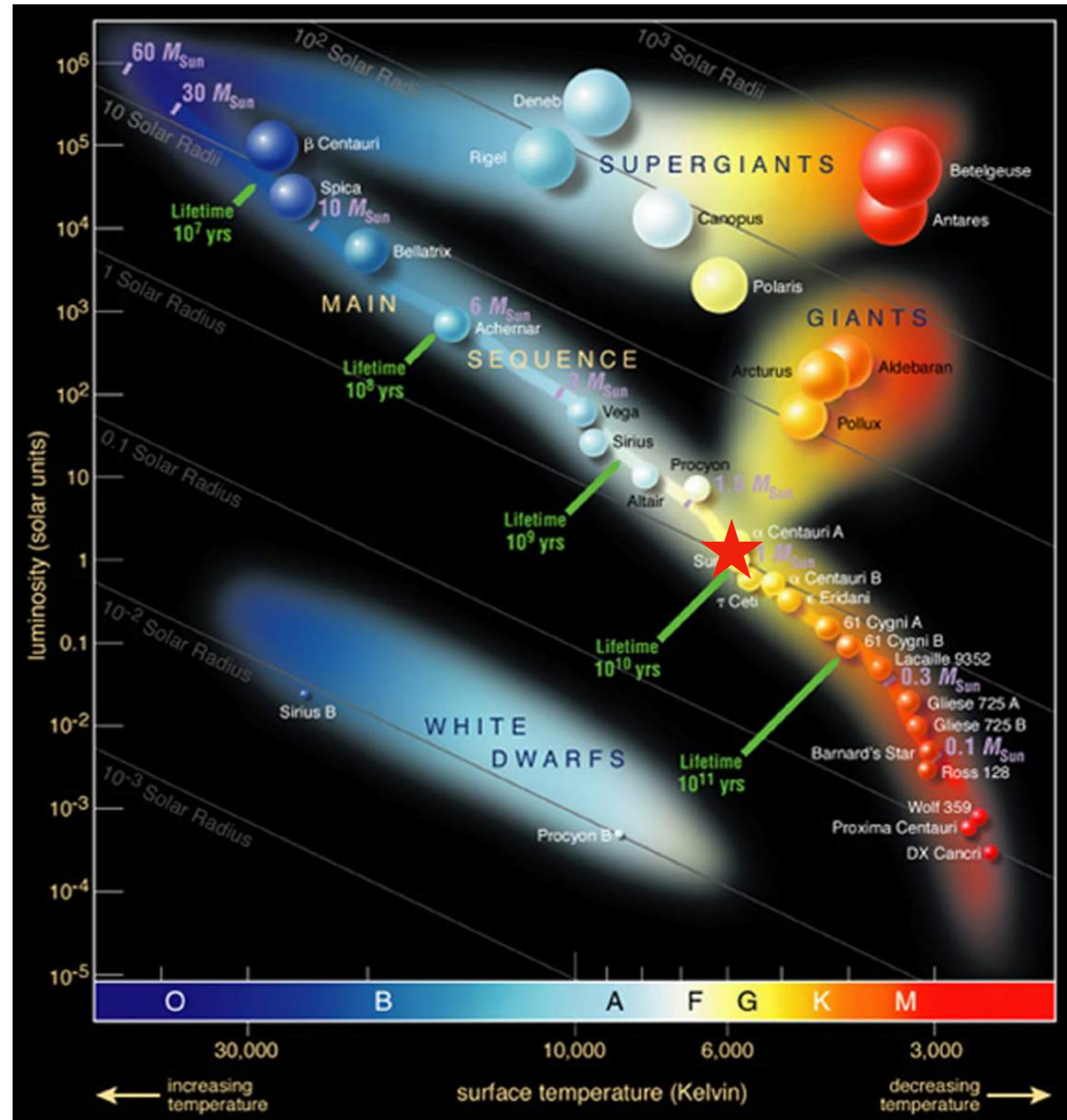
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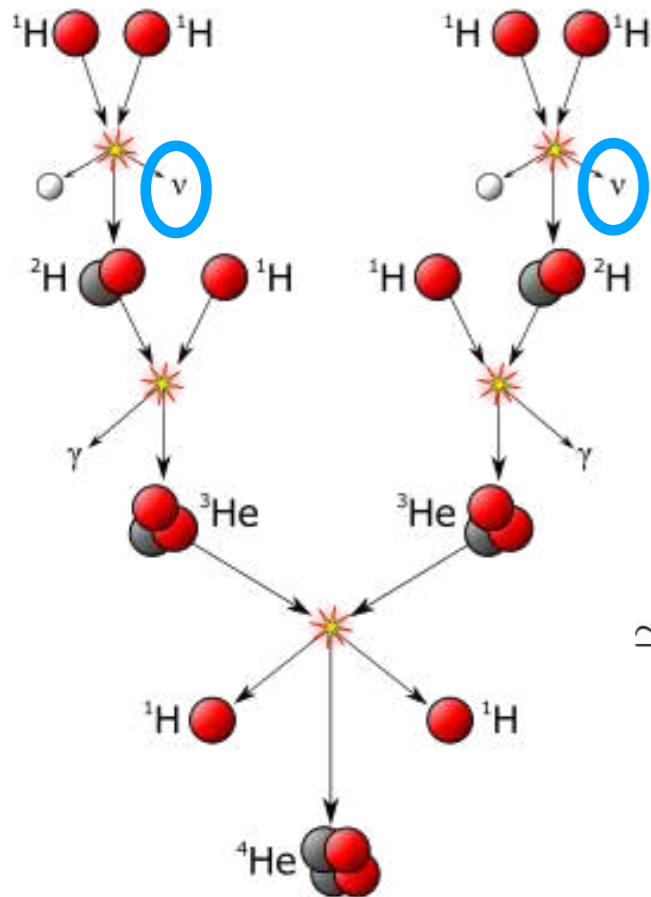
$$F_{\nu} \approx 2 \frac{L_{\odot} / 26.7 \text{ MeV}}{4\pi D^2} \approx 6.6 \cdot 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$$



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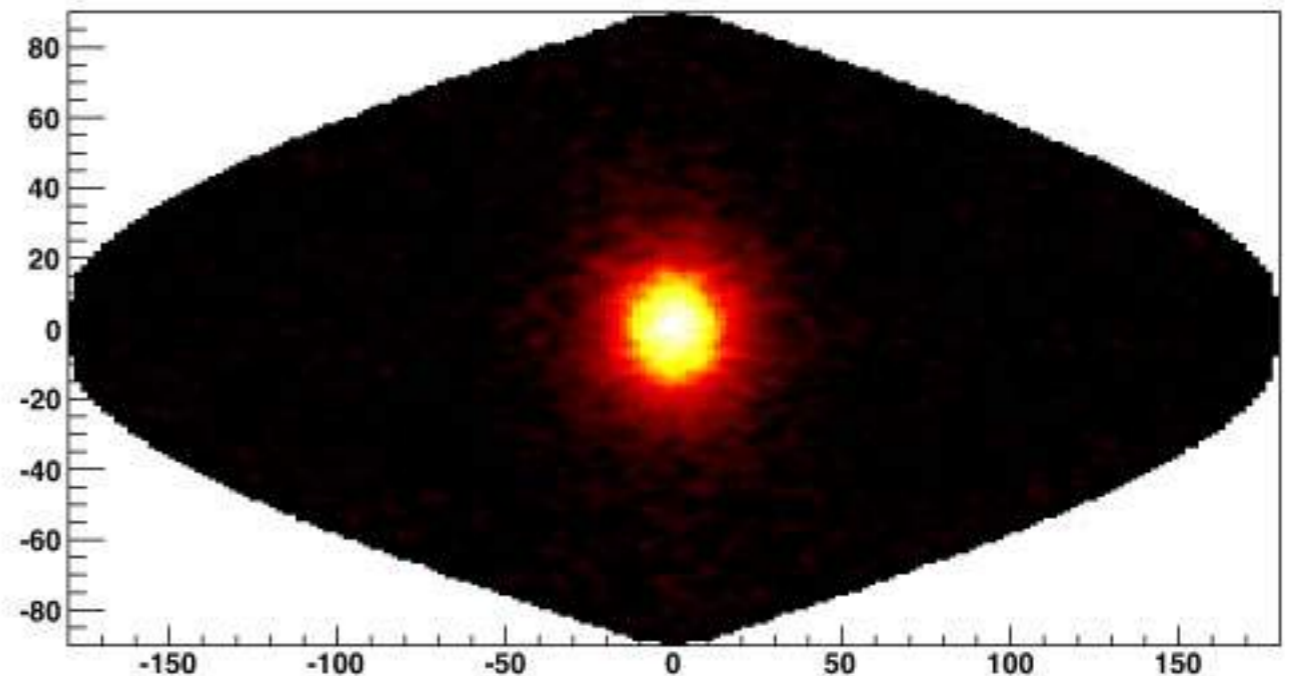
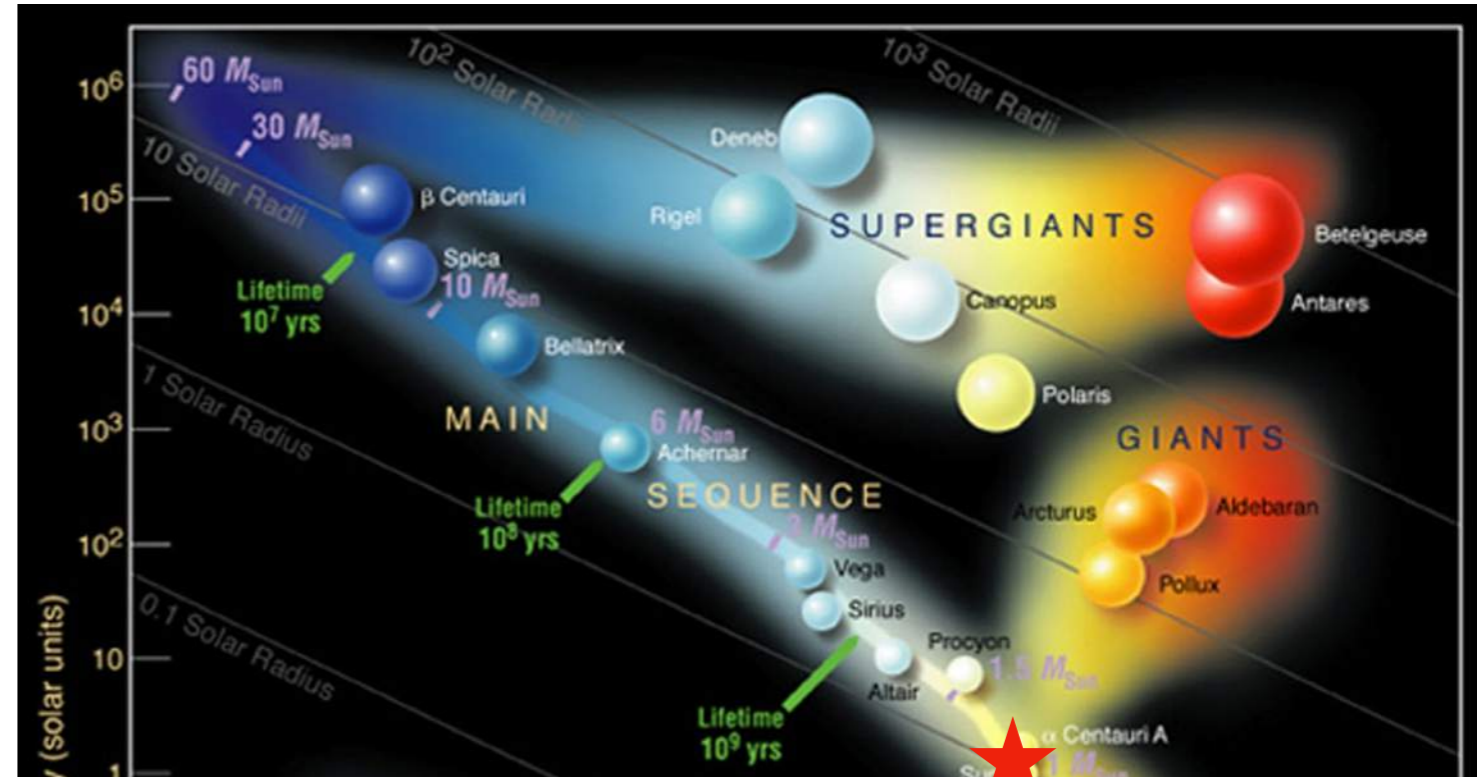
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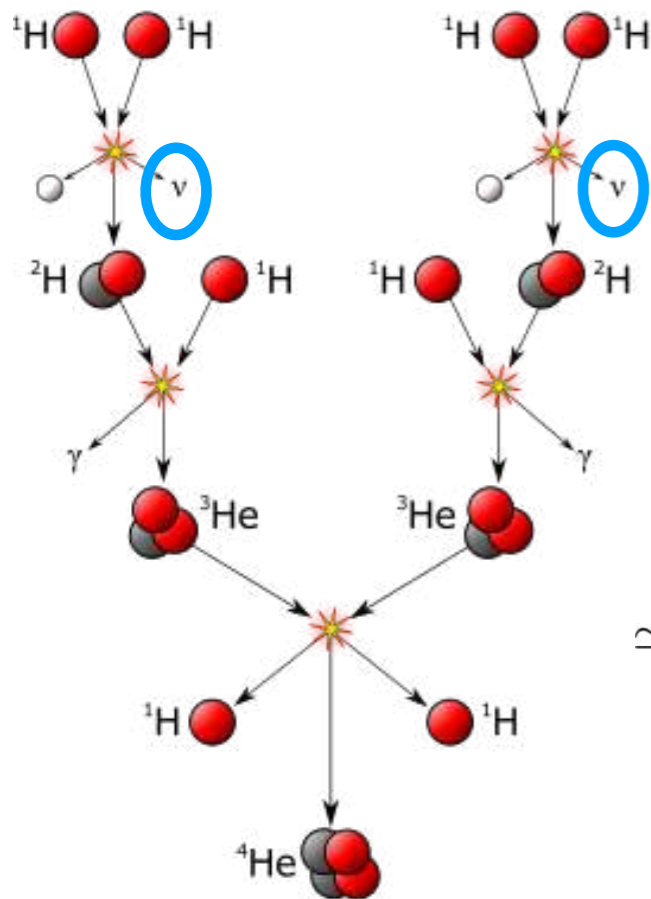
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Stellar evolution

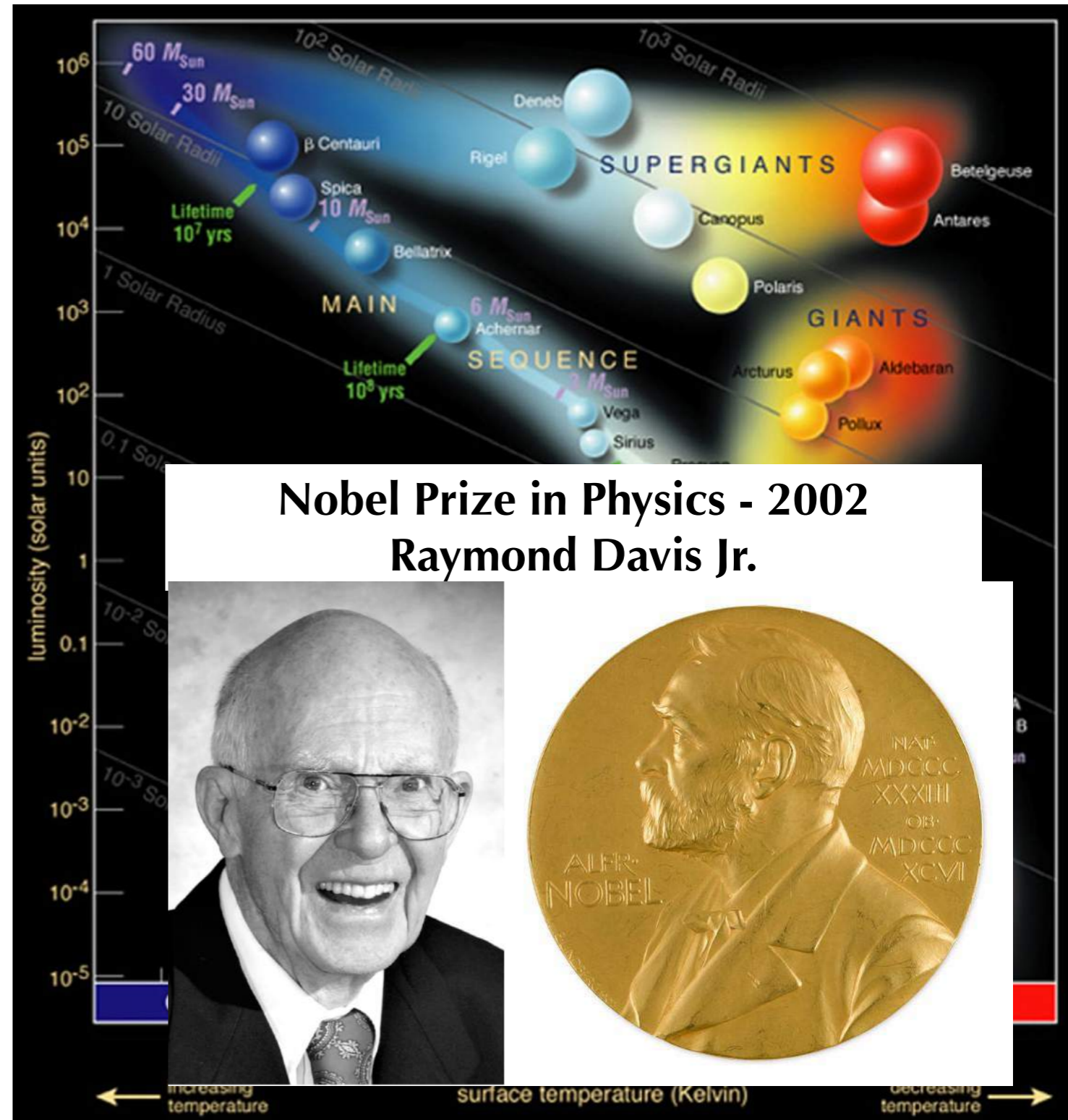
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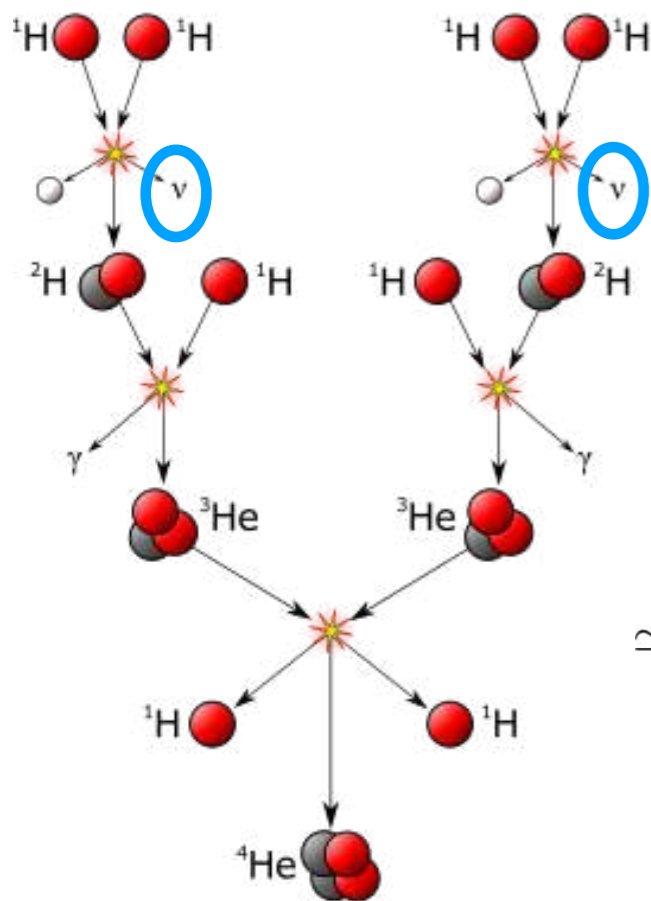
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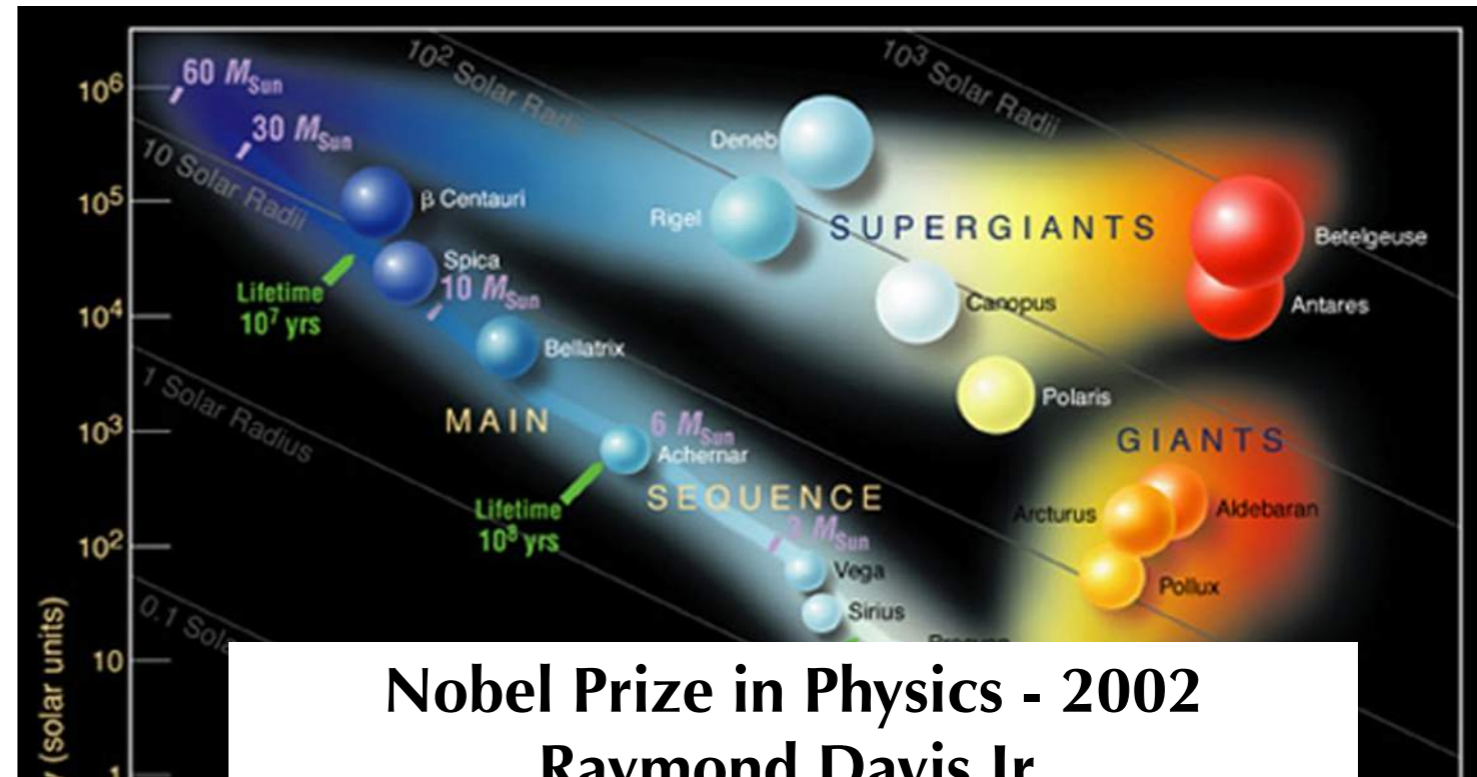
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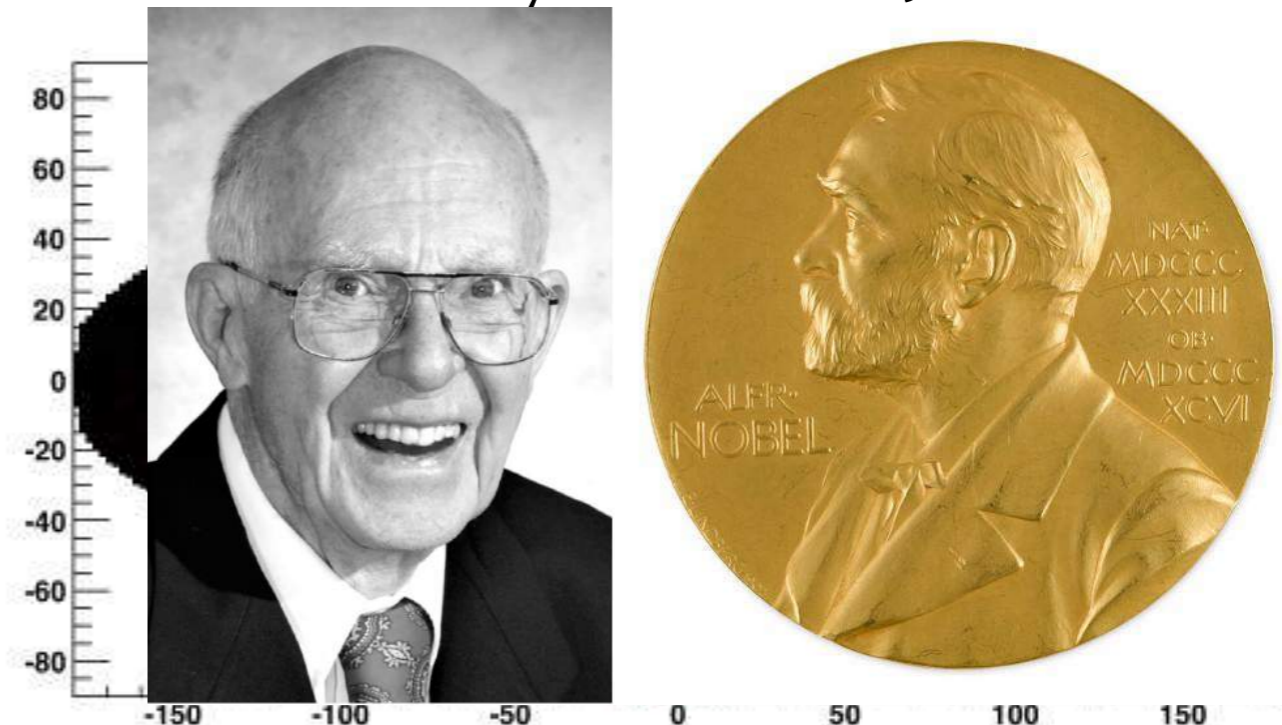
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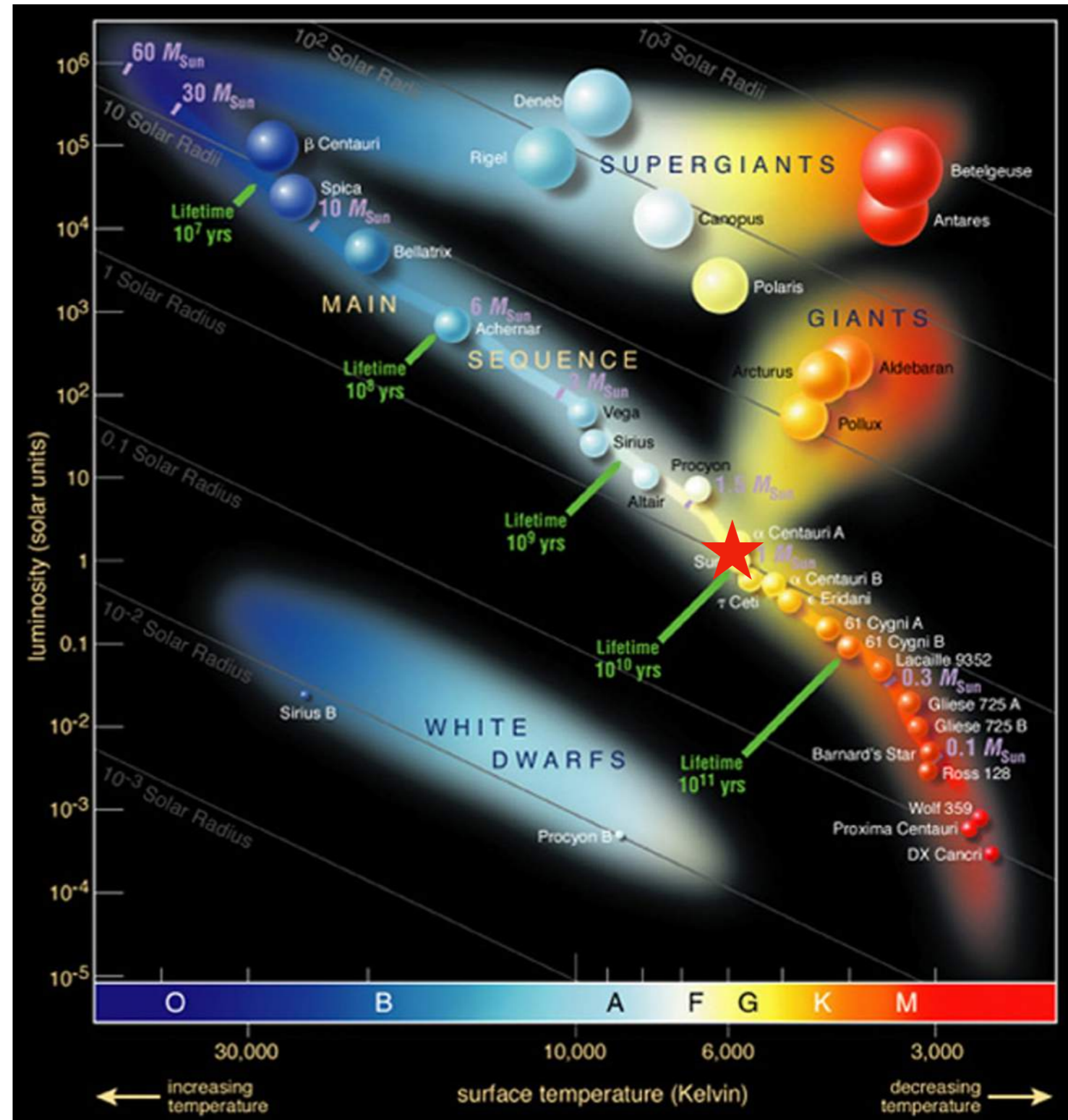
Nobel Prize in Physics - 2002
Raymond Davis Jr.



Stellar evolution

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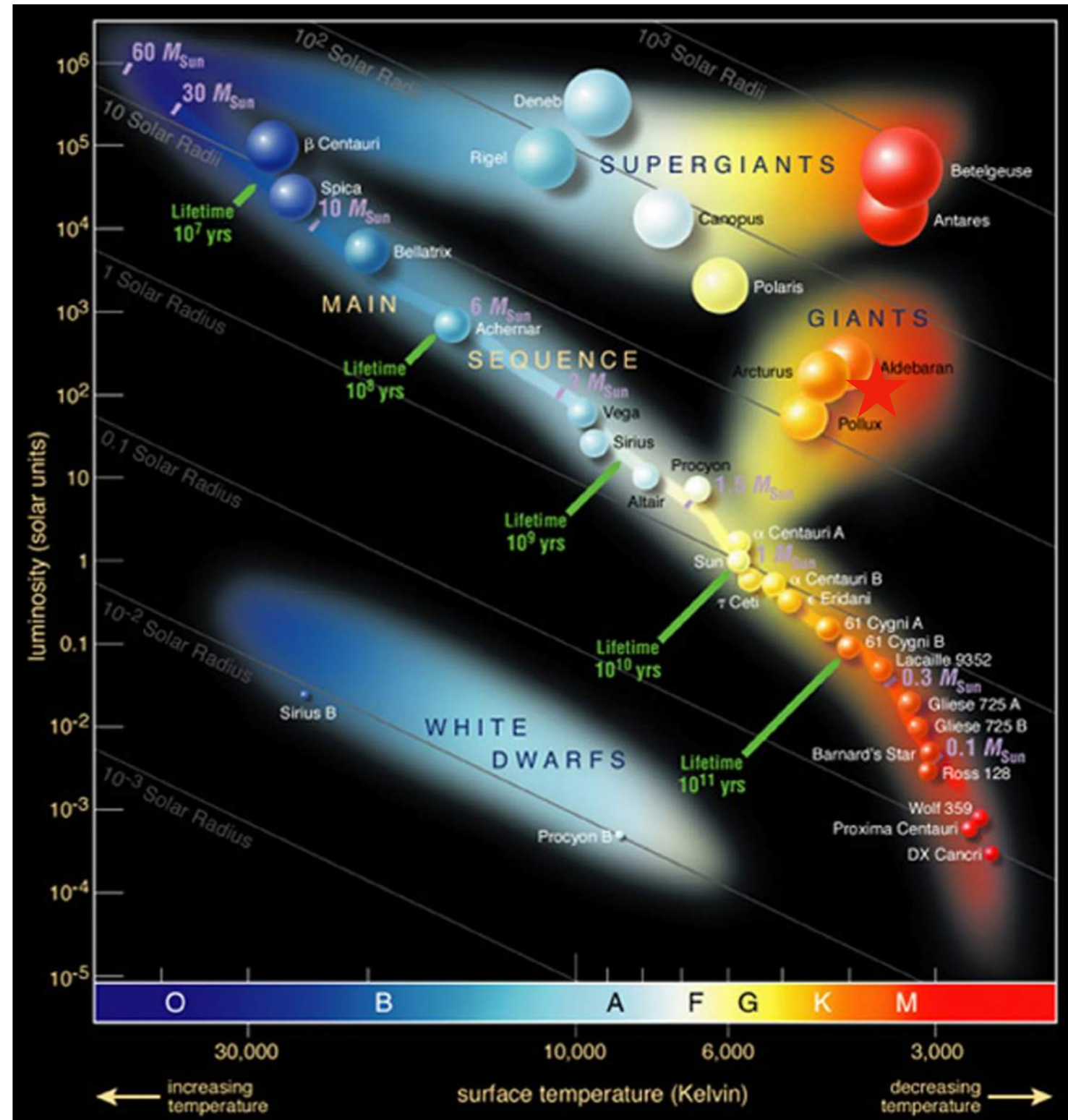
- When the star runs out of H, it leaves the main sequence
- H replaced with He in the core
- Core not hot enough to fuse Helium
- Core contraction (1 He takes less space than 4 H)
- Core temperature increases



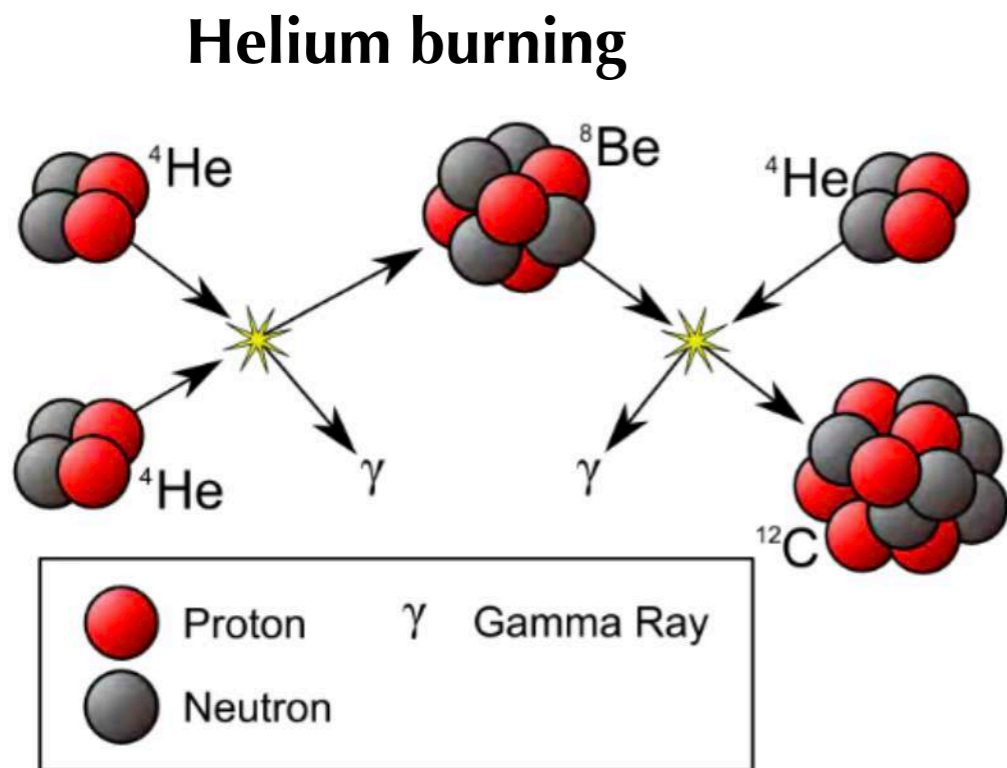
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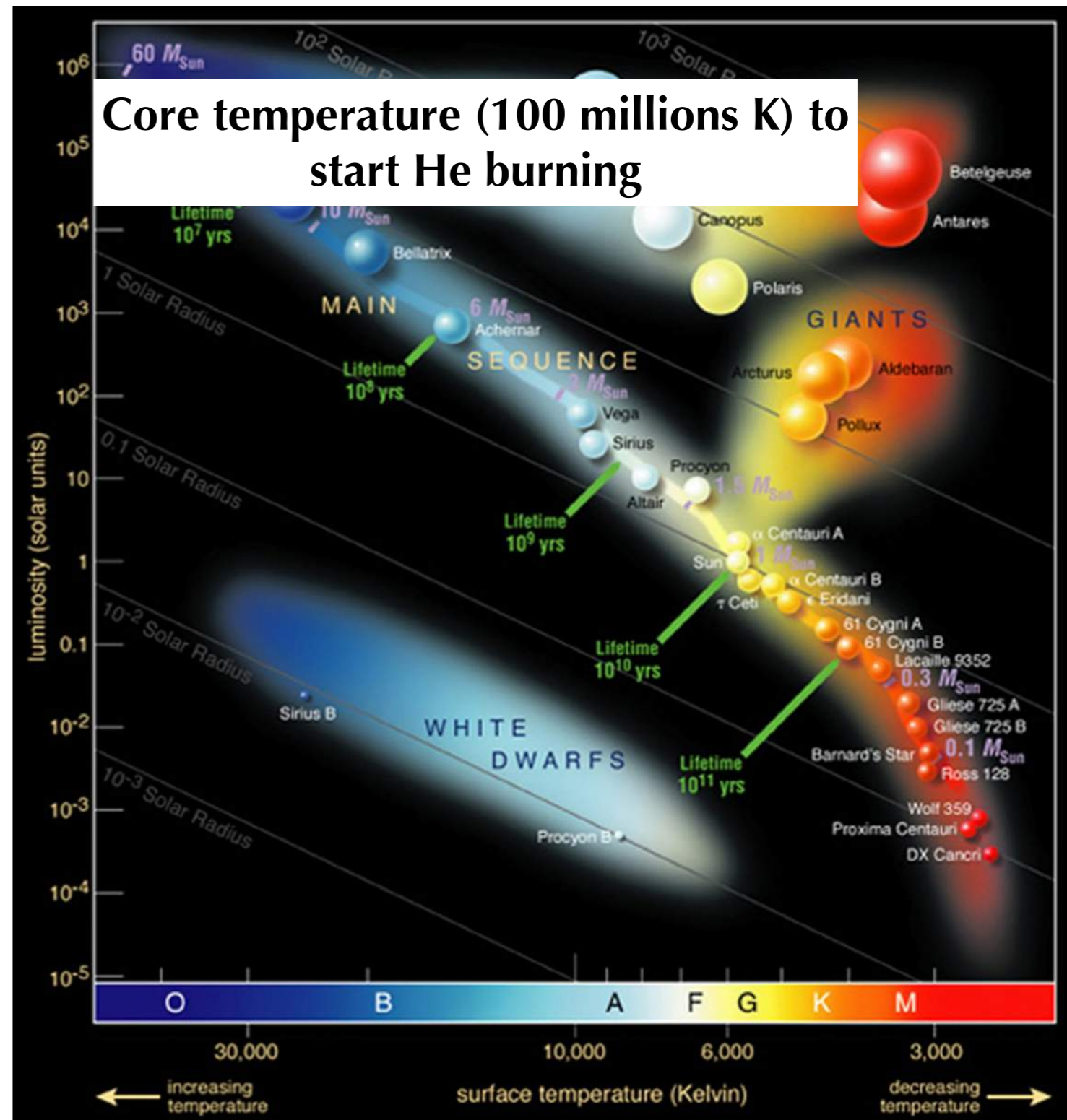
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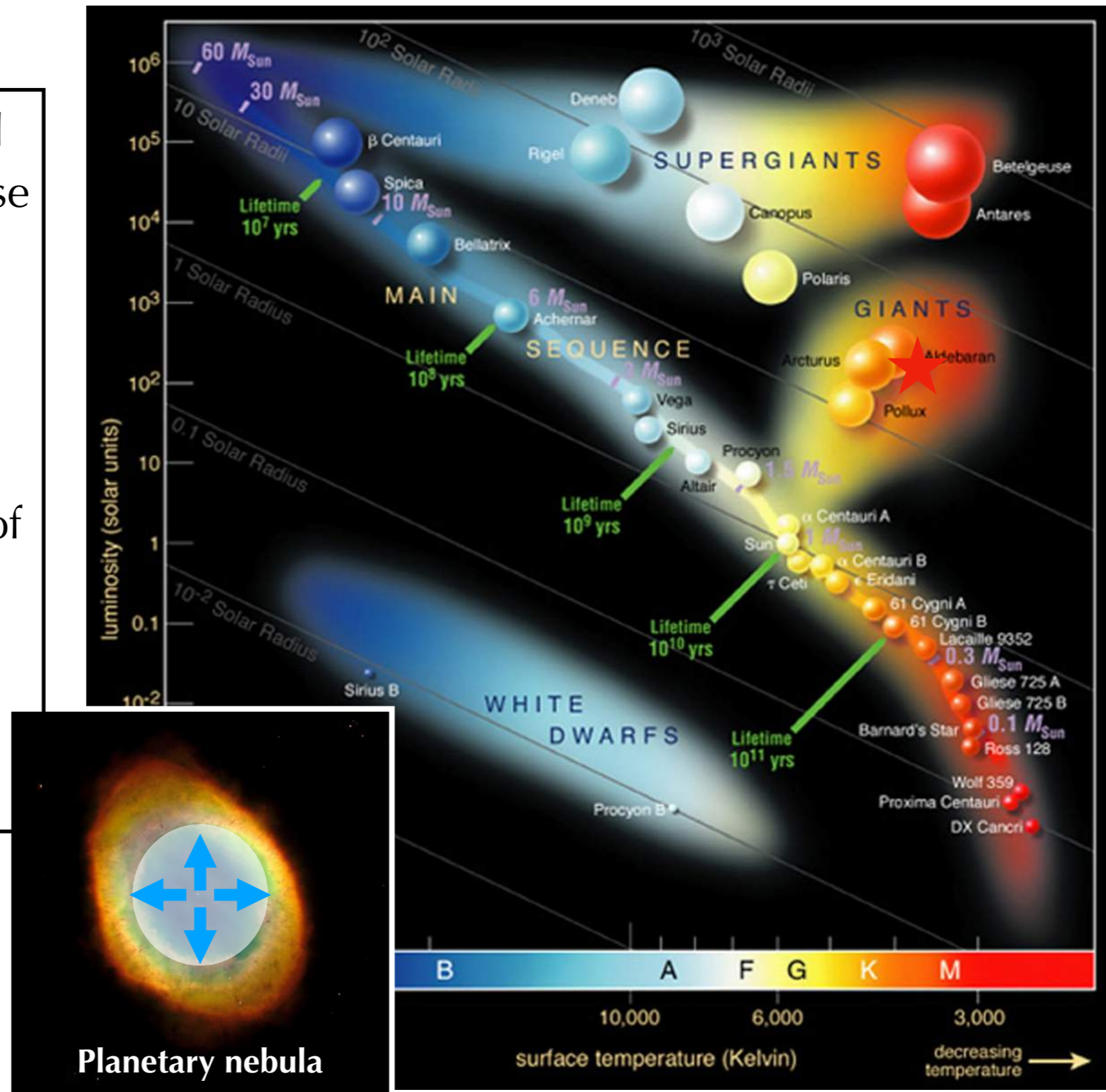


+ formation O, Ne, Mg as long as the core temperature increase



Stellar evolution

- After He burning → star dominated by gravity → contraction → increase of T but never enough to initiate Carbon burning.
- Carbon core continues to contract until it is supported by electron degeneracy pressure → formation of a white dwarf.
- Outer layers of the star are ejected and ionised by the white dwarf to form a planetary nebula.

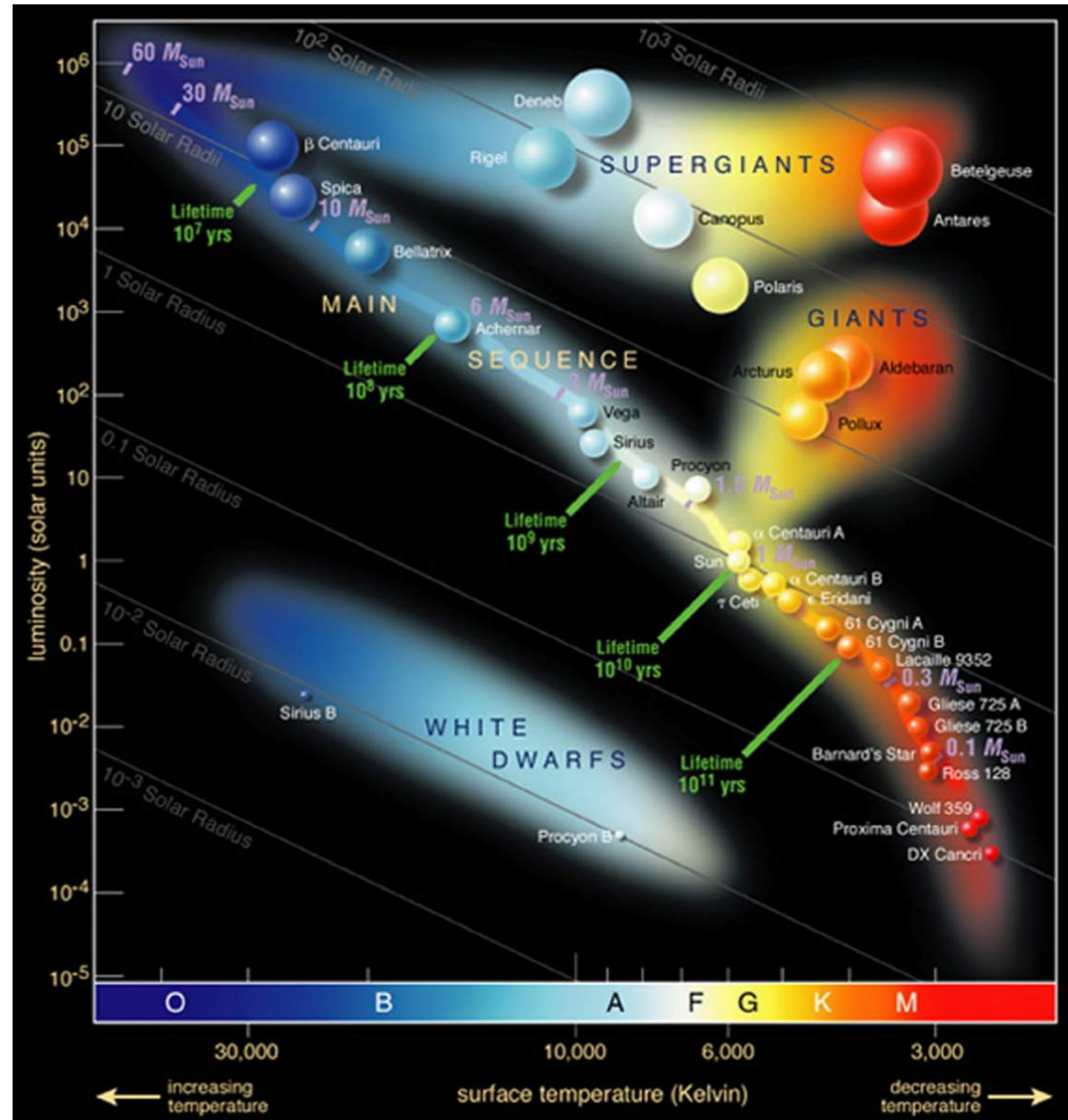


Stellar evolution

What about massive stars ?

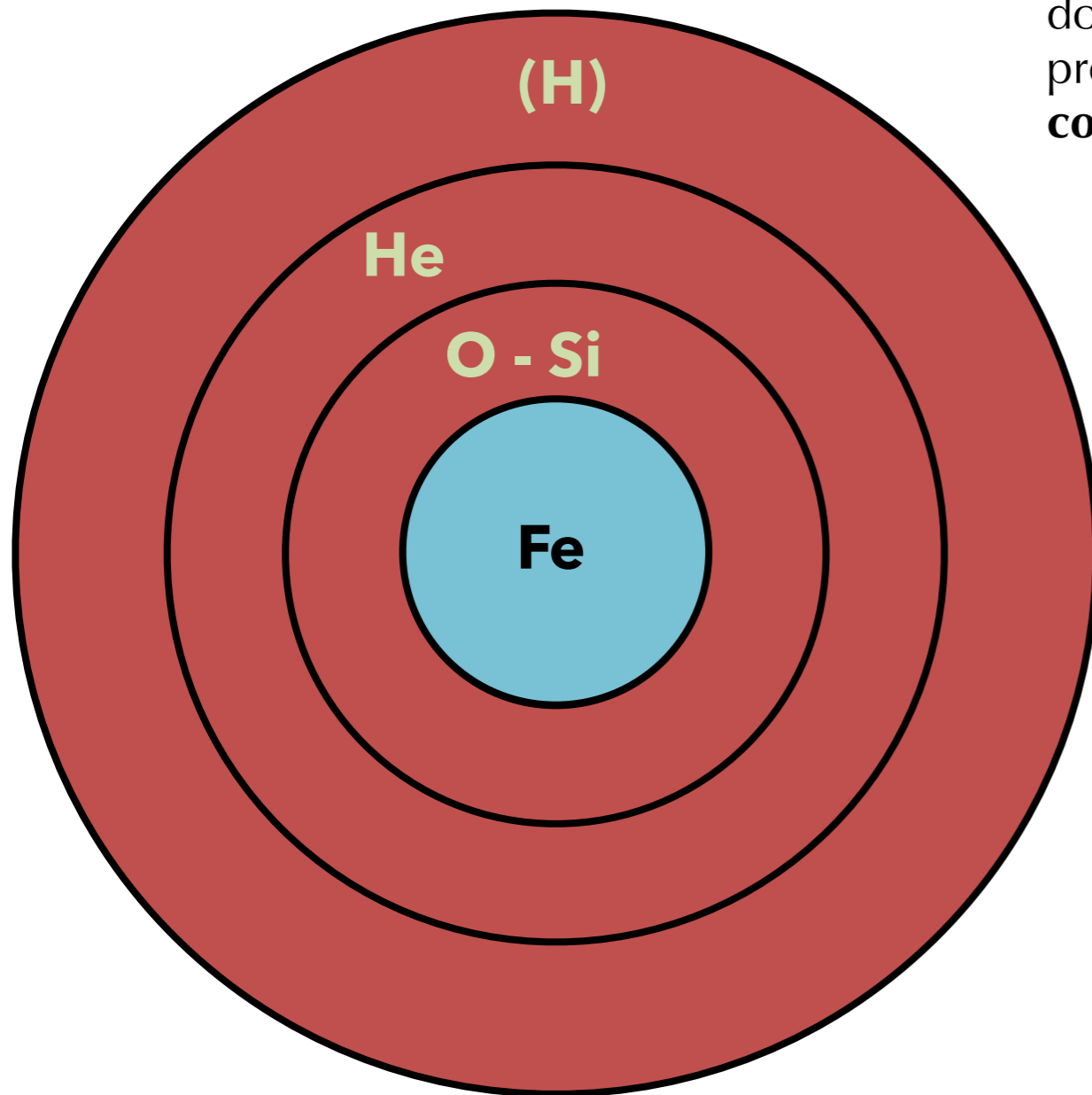
- Contracting core will reach the temperature for carbon ignition.
- Process of core burning followed by core contraction is repeated in a series of nuclear reactions producing successively heavier elements until iron is formed in the core.

| Combustible | Température | Élément formé |
|-------------|----------------------------|--|
| Hydrogène | $60 \cdot 10^6 \text{ K}$ | $4\text{He}, 14\text{N}$ |
| Hélium | $200 \cdot 10^6 \text{ K}$ | $12\text{C}, 16\text{O}$ |
| Carbone | $900 \cdot 10^6 \text{ K}$ | $24\text{Mg}, 20\text{Ne}$ |
| Oxygène | $2.3 \cdot 10^9 \text{ K}$ | Isotopes de Si, S |
| Néon | $1.7 \cdot 10^9 \text{ K}$ | $16\text{O}, 24\text{Mg}, 28\text{Si}$ |
| Silicium | $4 \cdot 10^9 \text{ K}$ | $56\text{Fe}, \dots$ |



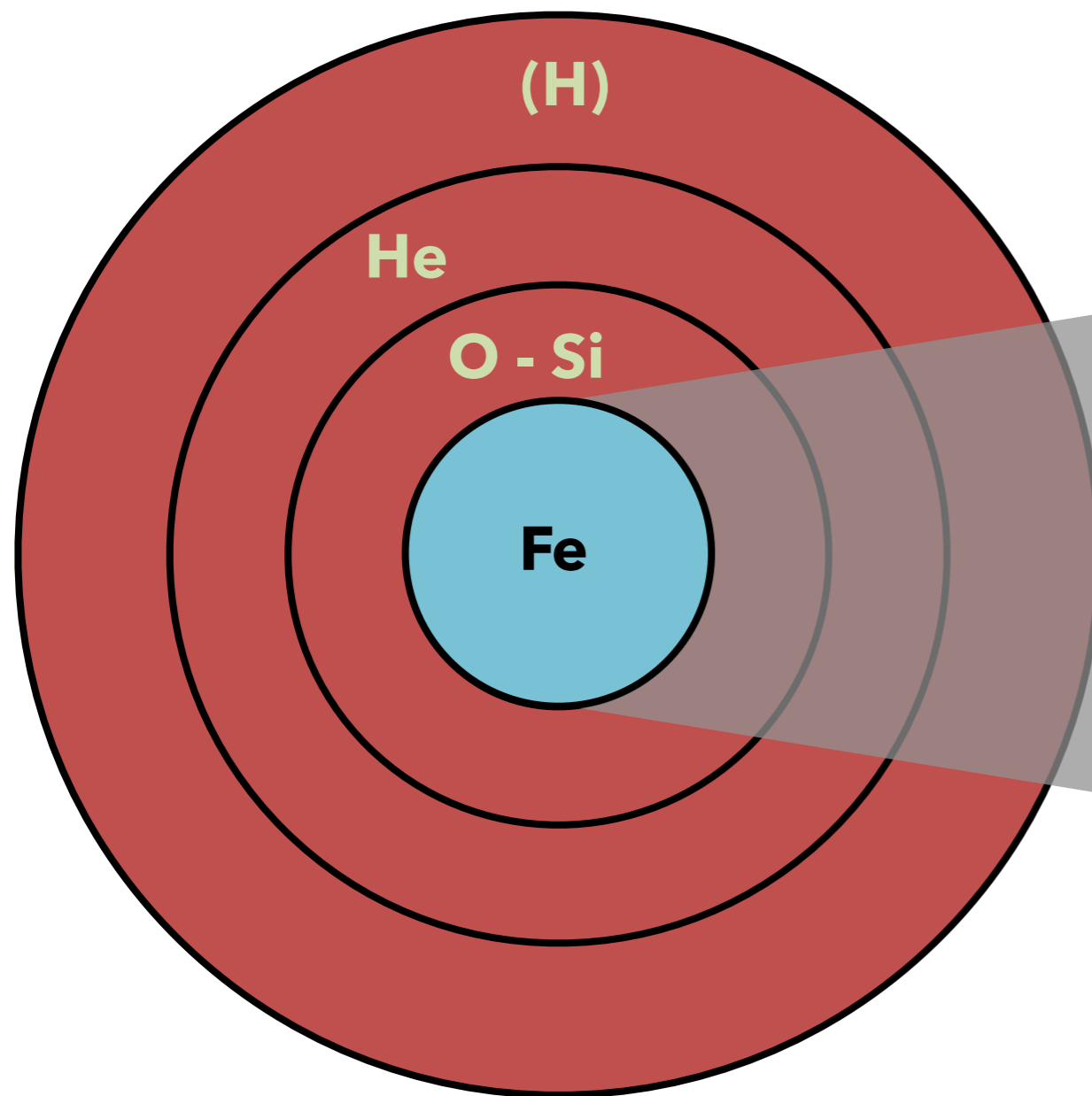
Core-collapse supernova

Iron cannot be burned to heavier elements as this reaction does not generate energy – it requires an input of energy to proceed. The star has therefore finally run out of fuel and **collapses under its own gravity.**



Massive star $M \gtrsim 10M_{\odot}$
Onion structure

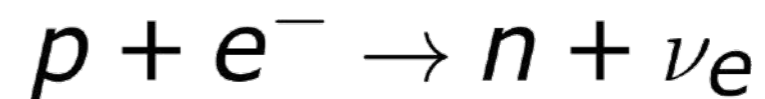
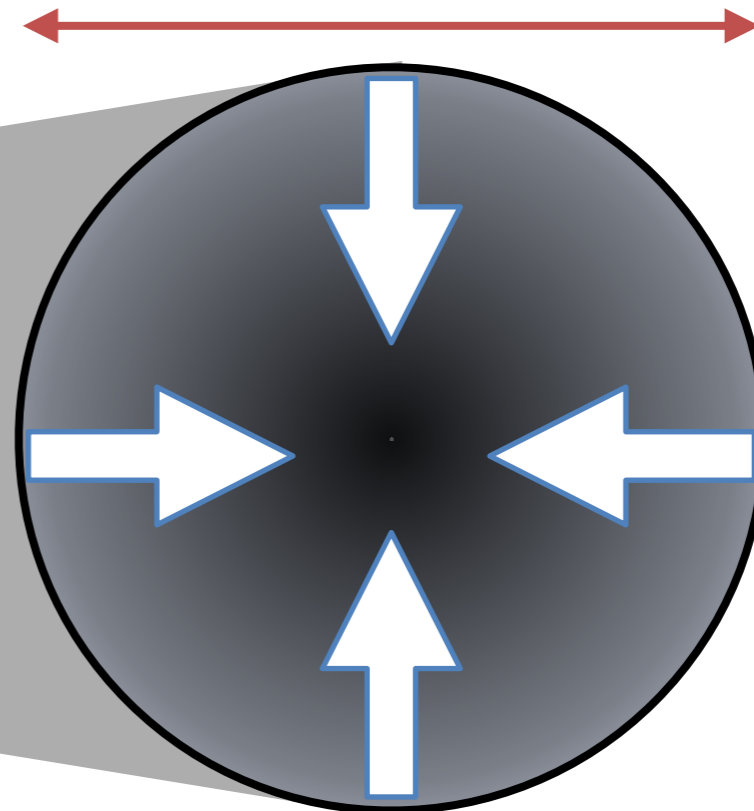
Core-collapse supernova



Massive star $M \approx 10M_{\odot}$
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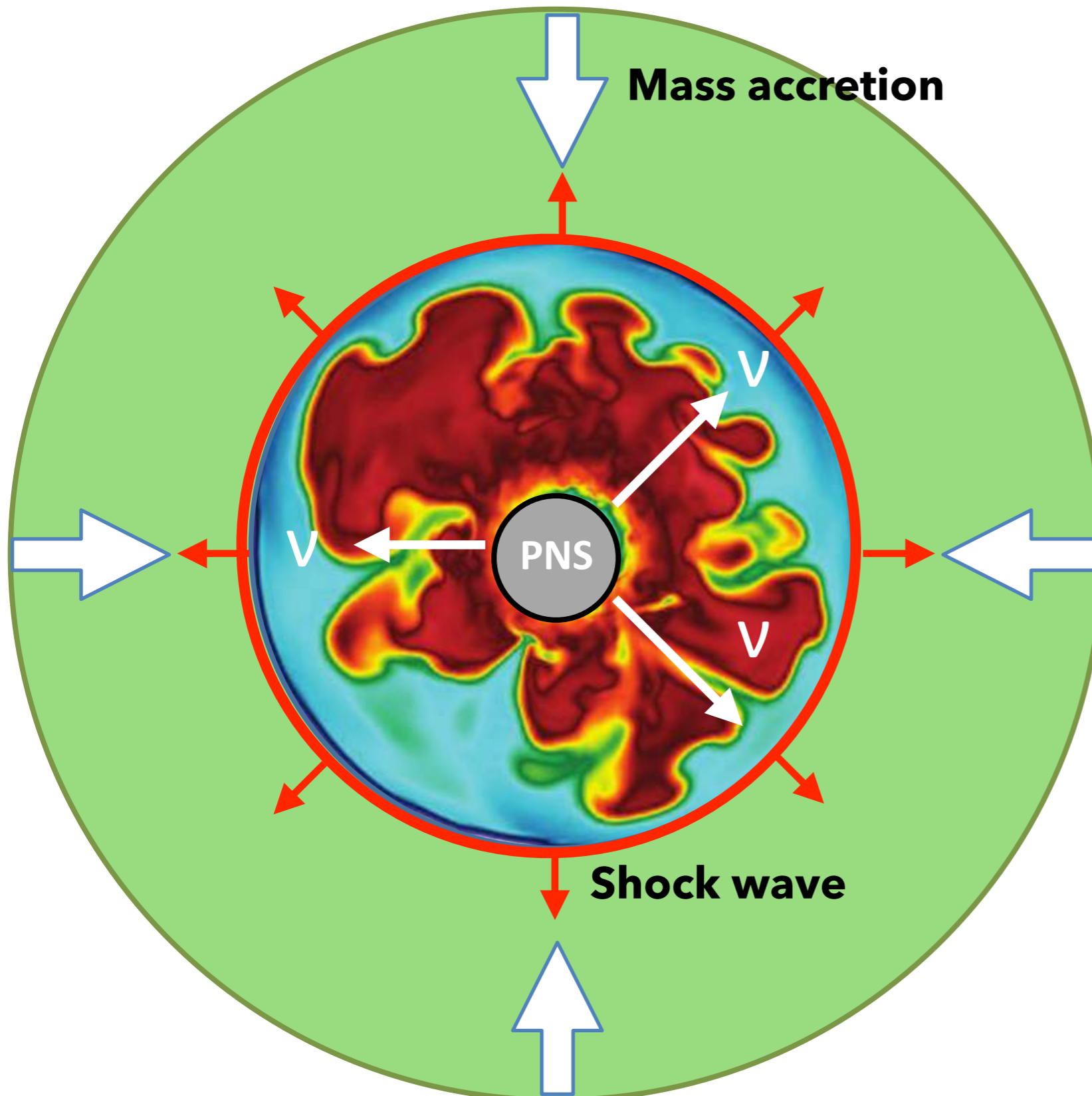
Degenerate core. When $M > 1.44M_{\odot}$
→ collapse !

~1500 km



Density such as electrons combine with
protons to form neutrons (+ neutrinos)

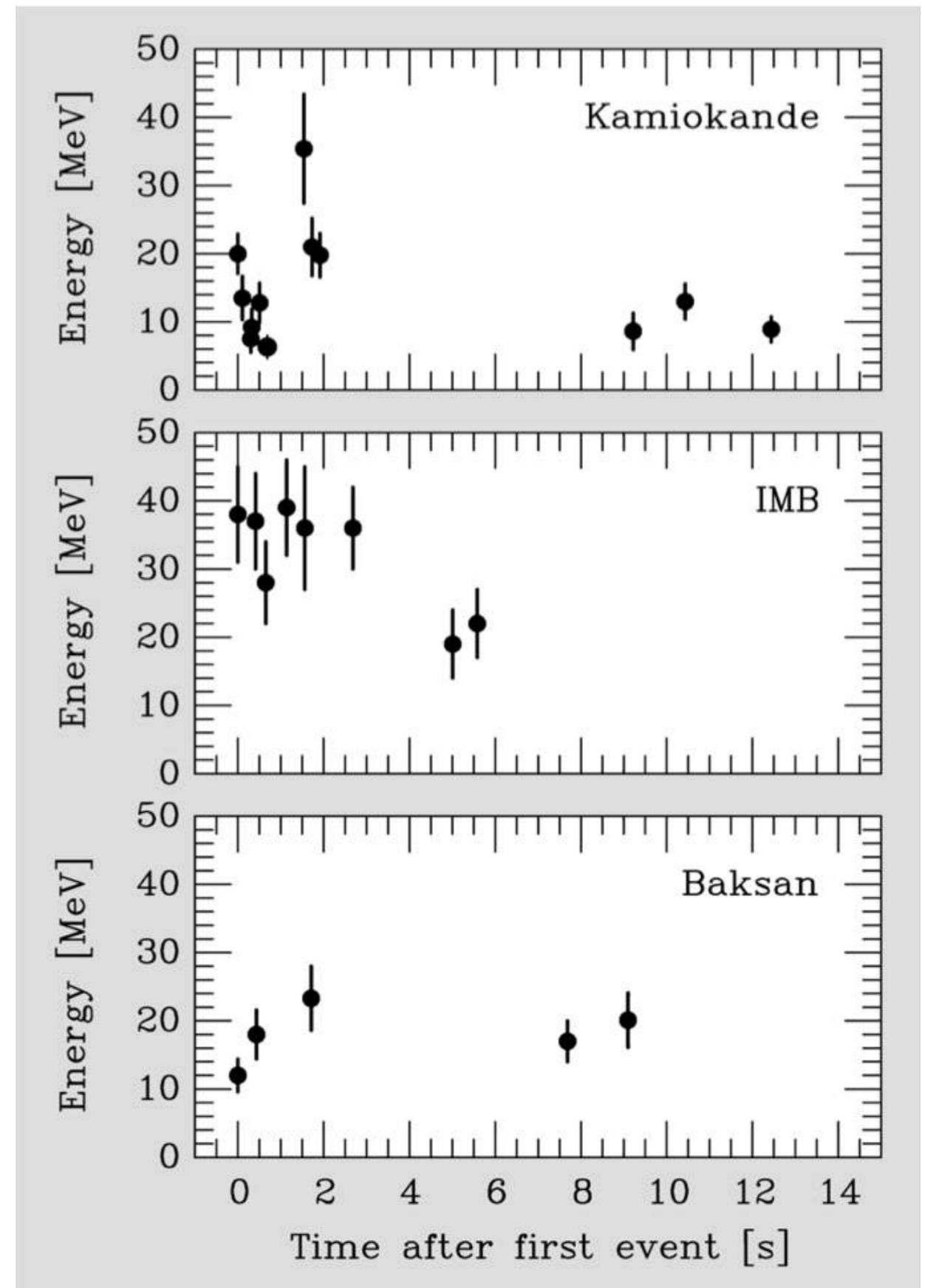
Core-collapse supernova



- After some seconds: formation of a proto-neutron star composed of degenerate neutrons: new equilibrium
- Infalling matter bounces on the core
- Shock wave forms within the iron core
- Shock wave loses kinetic energy by propagating
- Shock receives energy from neutrino heating (increased by convection and hydrodynamic instabilities)
- **10^{45} J released during the explosion (atomic bomb $\sim 10^{13}$ J); $\sim 99\%$ released through neutrinos.**

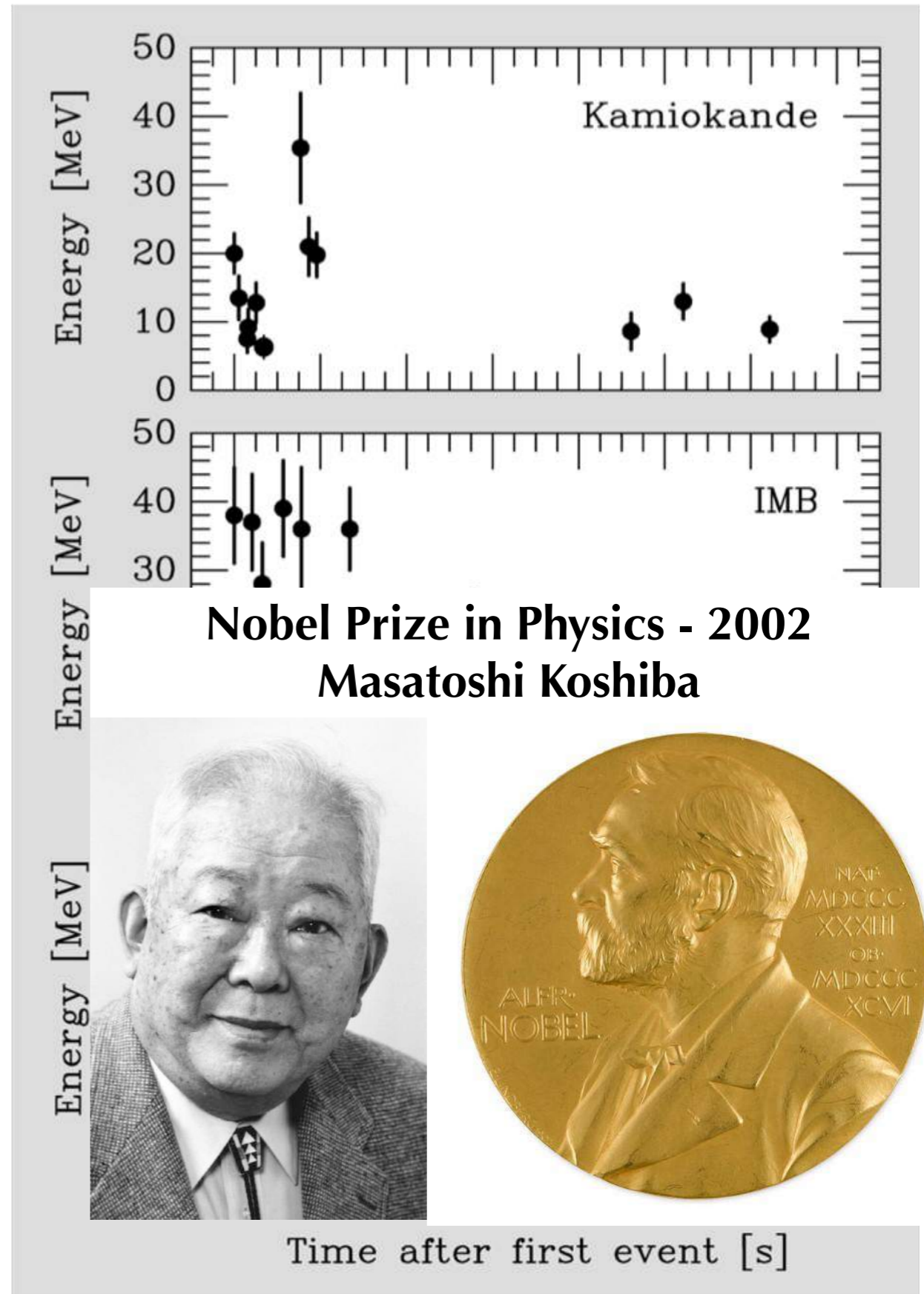
Core-collapse supernova

- **SN1987A:** 25 neutrinos observed by 3 independent detectors ($>10\sigma$) within 13 sec.
- Confirmed the general model of core-collapse supernova explosion.
- However, determining the exact mechanism of explosion presents a great numerical and physical complexity.
- Delayed neutrino-heating mechanism emerges as key driver of supernova explosions, but many issues to address (hydrodynamic instabilities, ...).



Core-collapse supernova

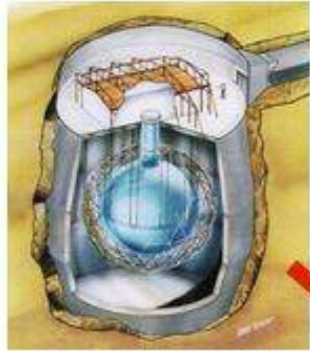
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Supernova Early Warning System

Neutrinos are expected to arrive on Earth ~hours before the photons

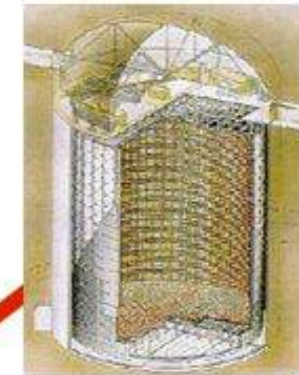
SNEWS: Supernova Early Warning System



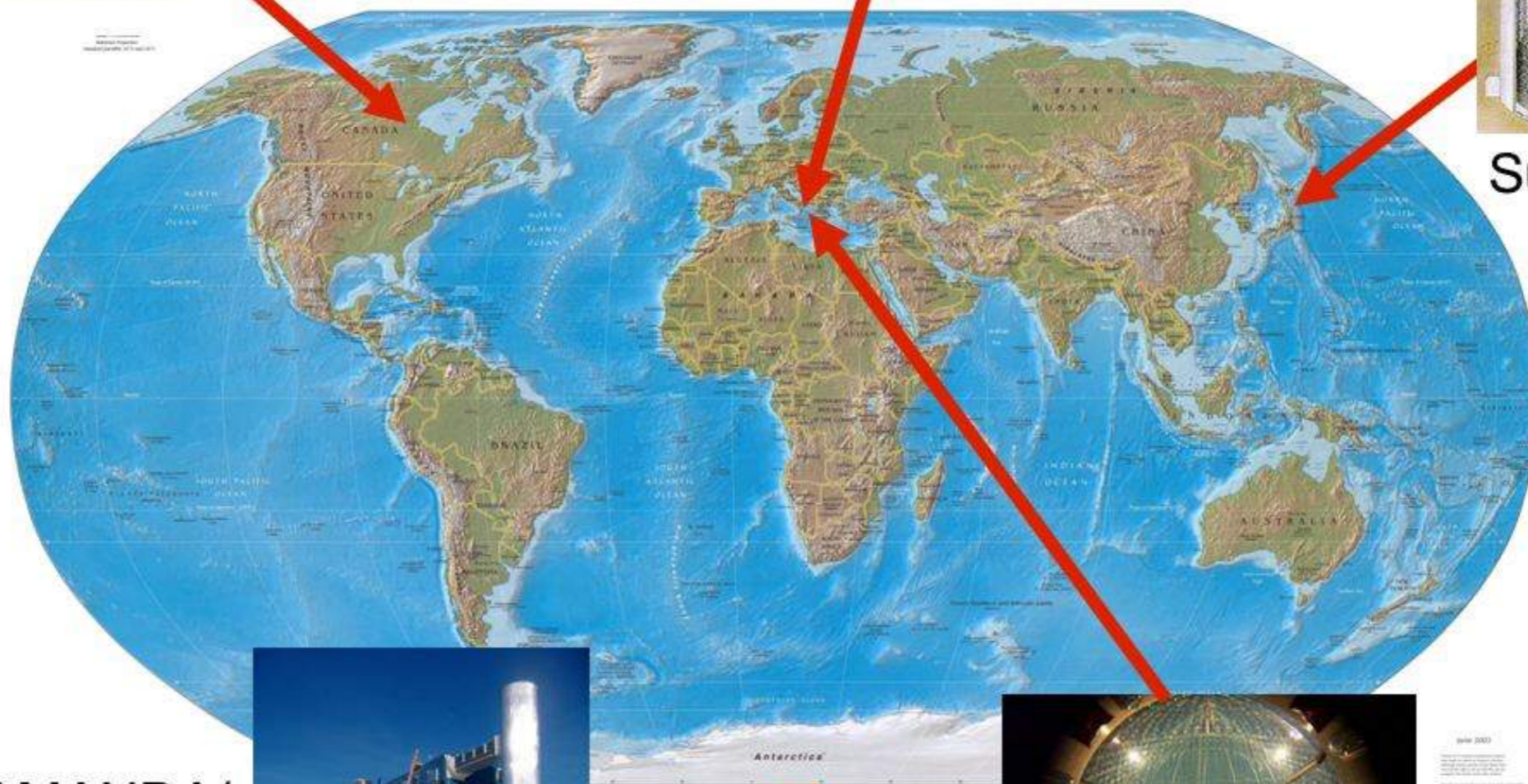
SNO
(until 2006)



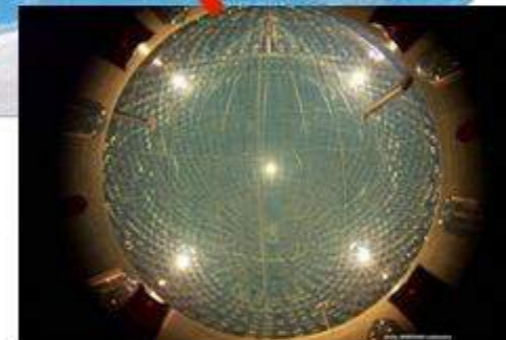
LVD



Super-K



AMANDA/
IceCube

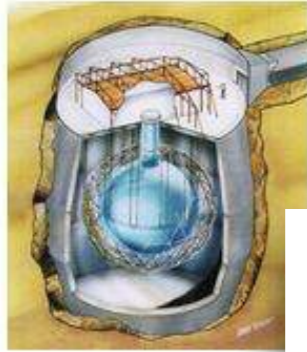


Borexino

Supernova Early Warning System

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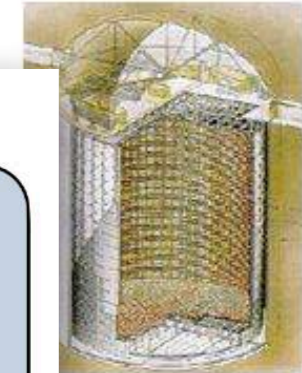
SNEWS: Supernova Early Warning System



SNO
(until 2006)



LVD



Super-K

Water Cherenkov

Liquid Noble DM

ν / Low bkg

Scintillator

Pb

...

AMANDA/
IceCube

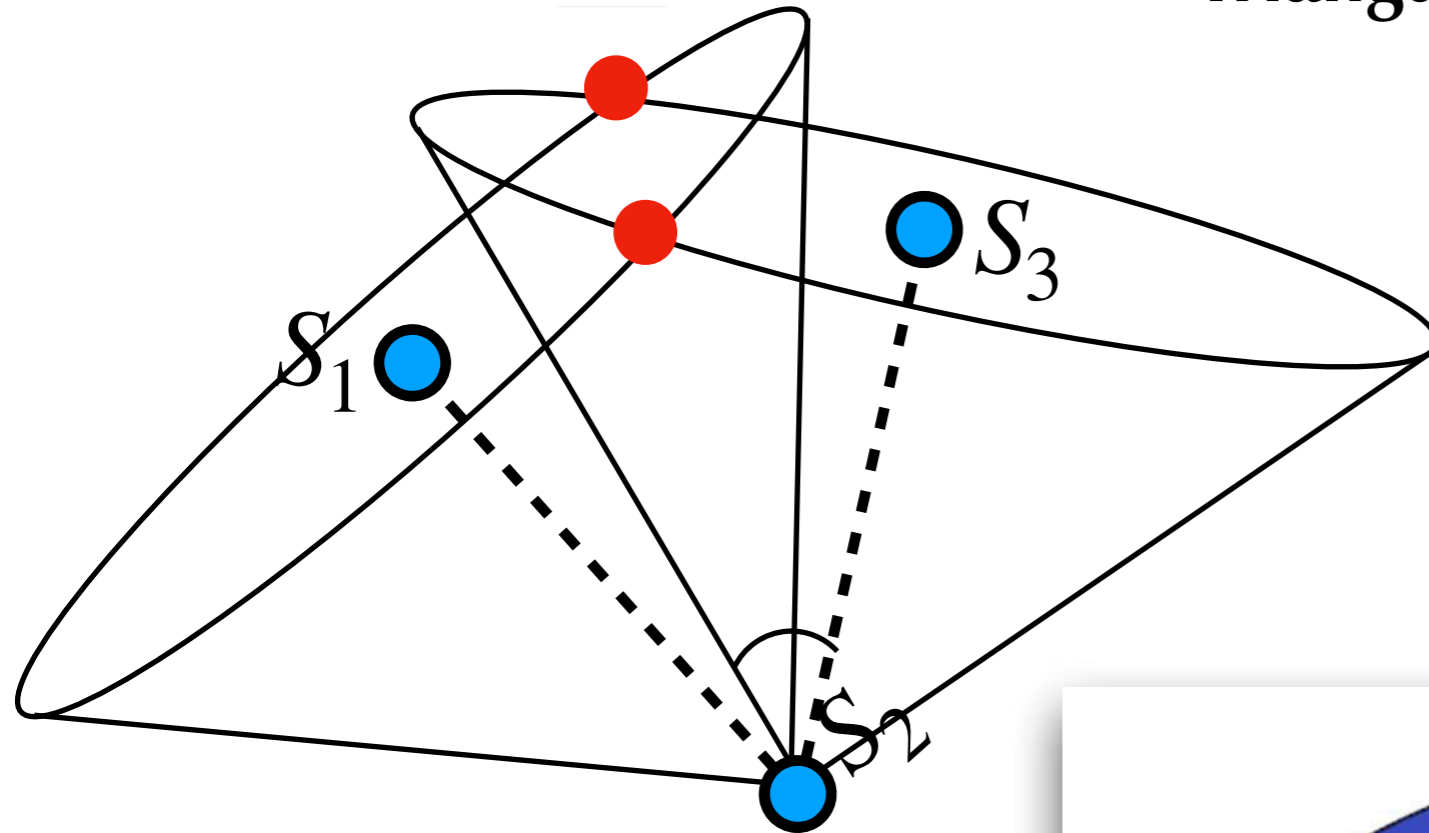


Borexino

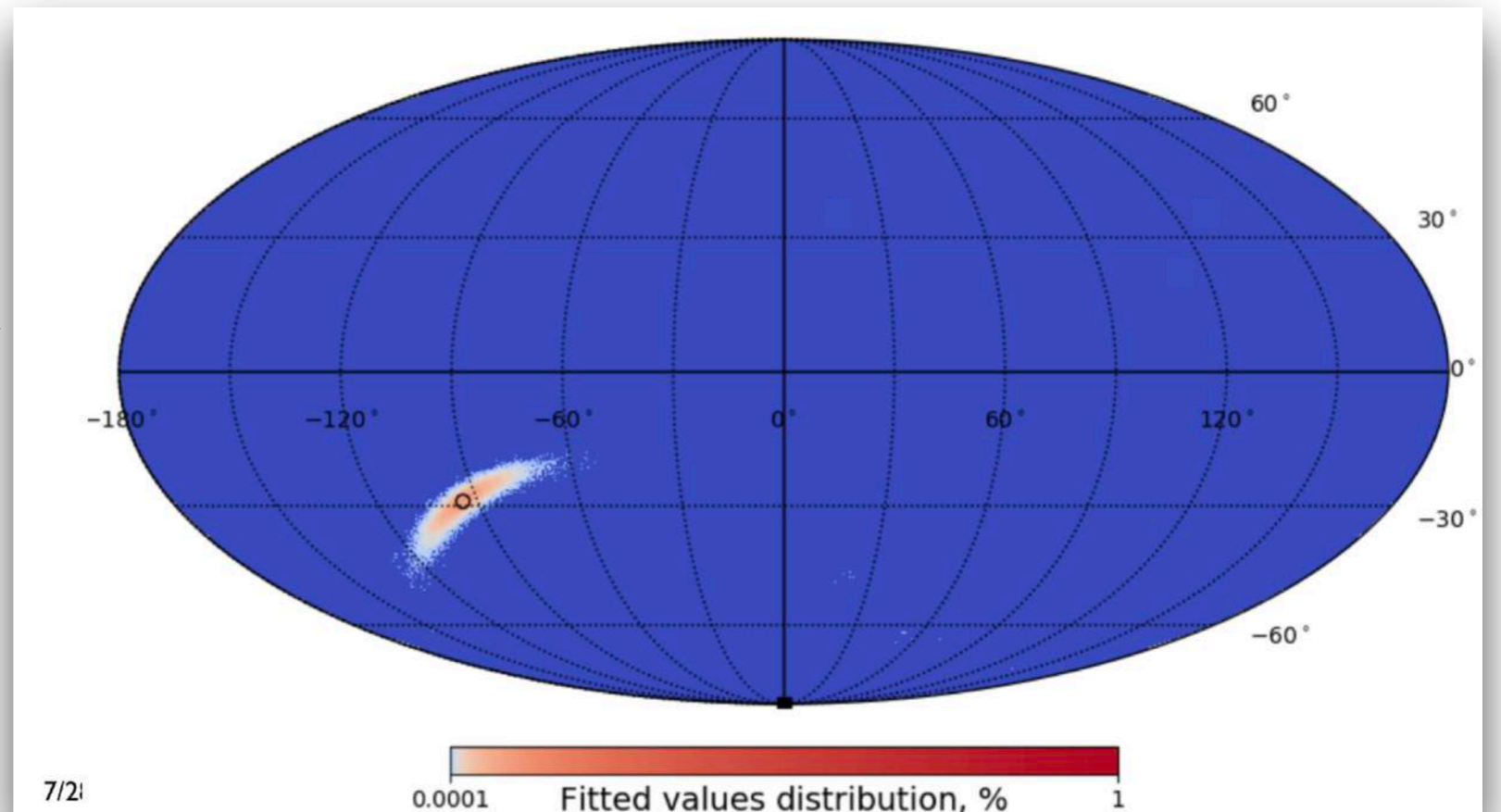
NEW

Core-collapse supernova location

Triangulation of multi-detector signal



Coleiro et al., 2020



Core-collapse supernova follow-up

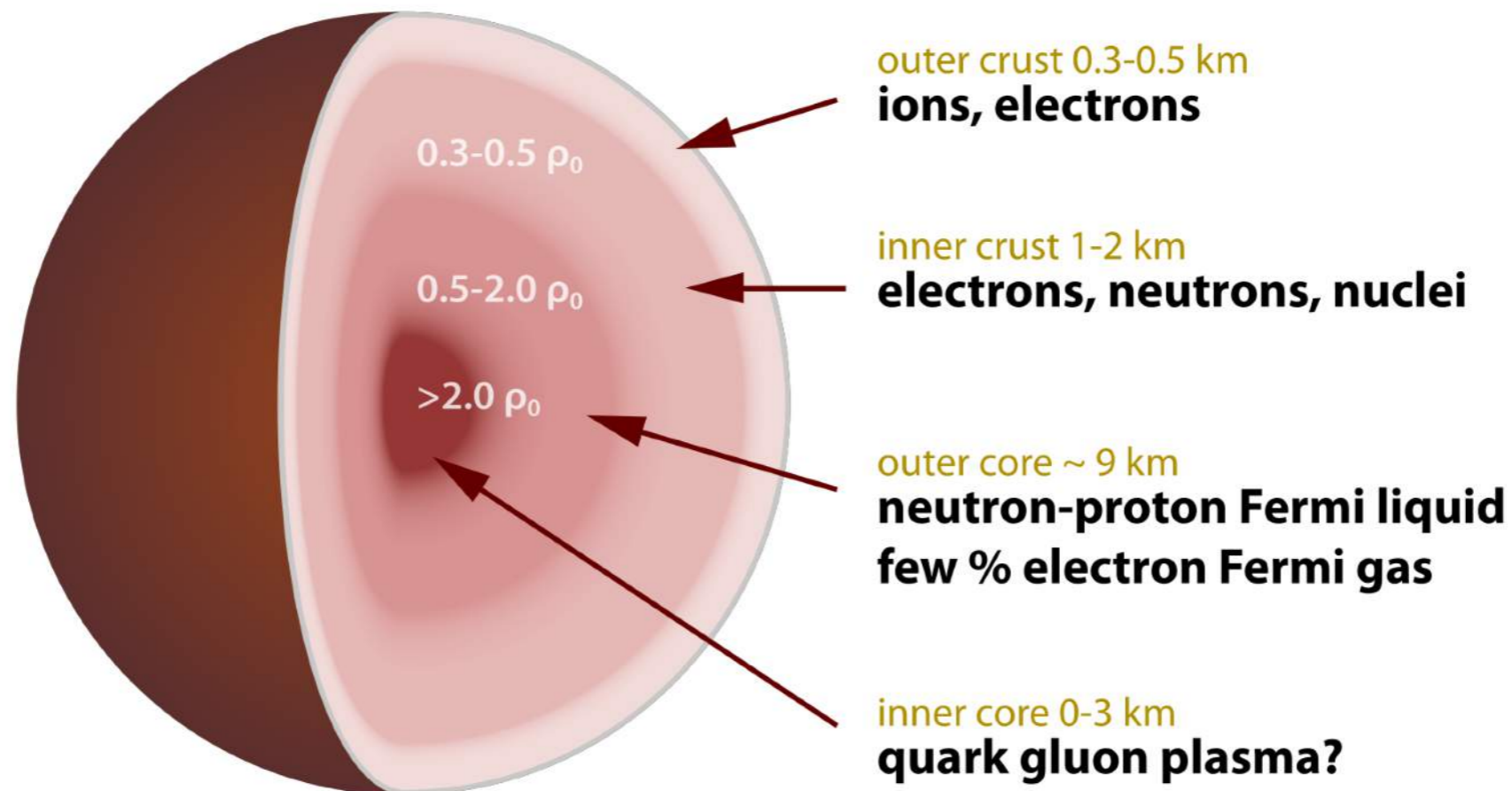
Labex **UnivEarthS**



Université de Paris

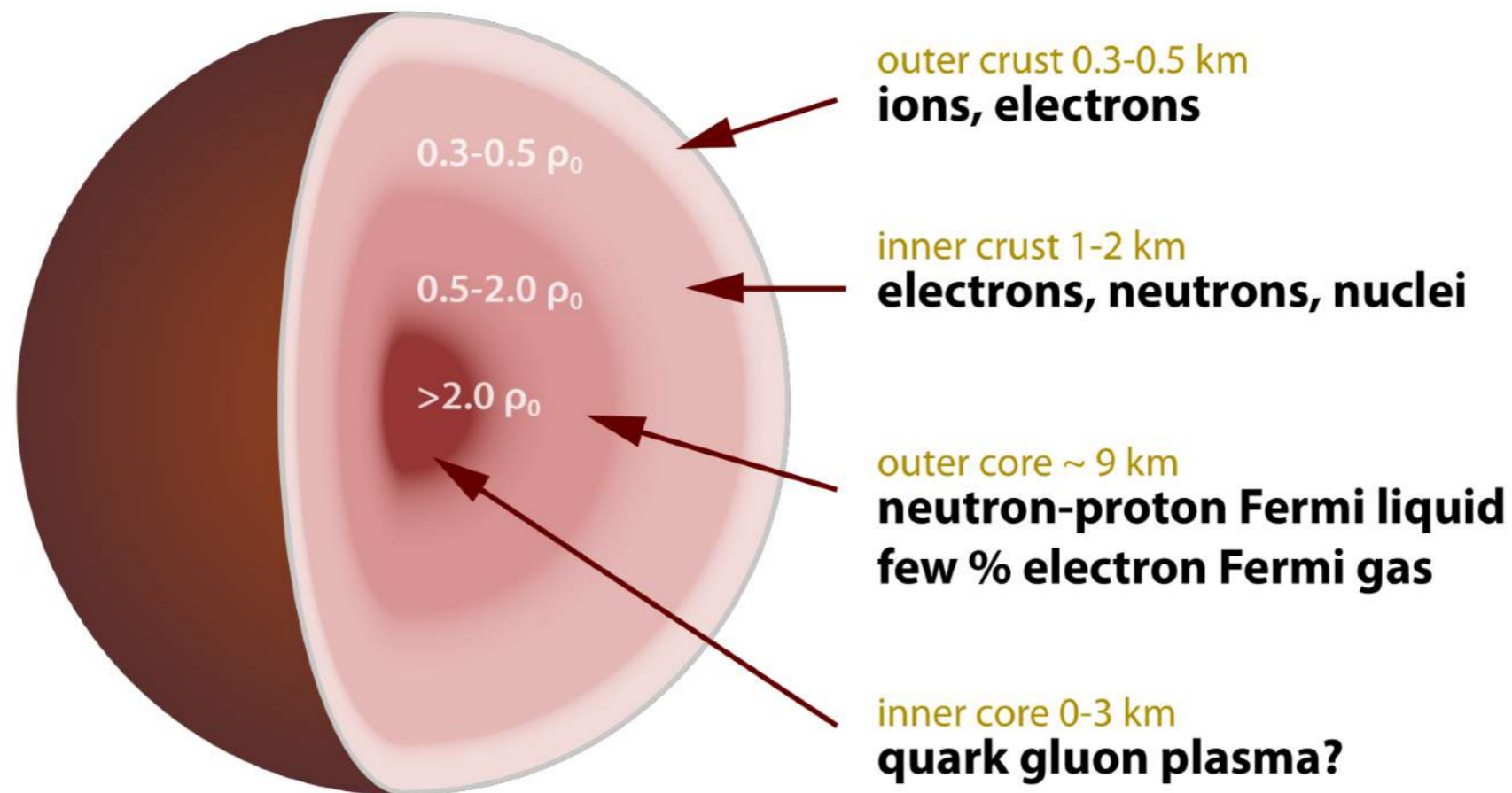


Neutron star



- Radius measurement possible by X-ray thermal emission observations or mass measurement through study of binary systems → $M \sim 1-2M_{\odot}$ and $R \sim 10 \text{ km}$ → $1 \text{ mm}^3 \sim M_{\text{tour Eiffel}}$
- Rotation velocity:

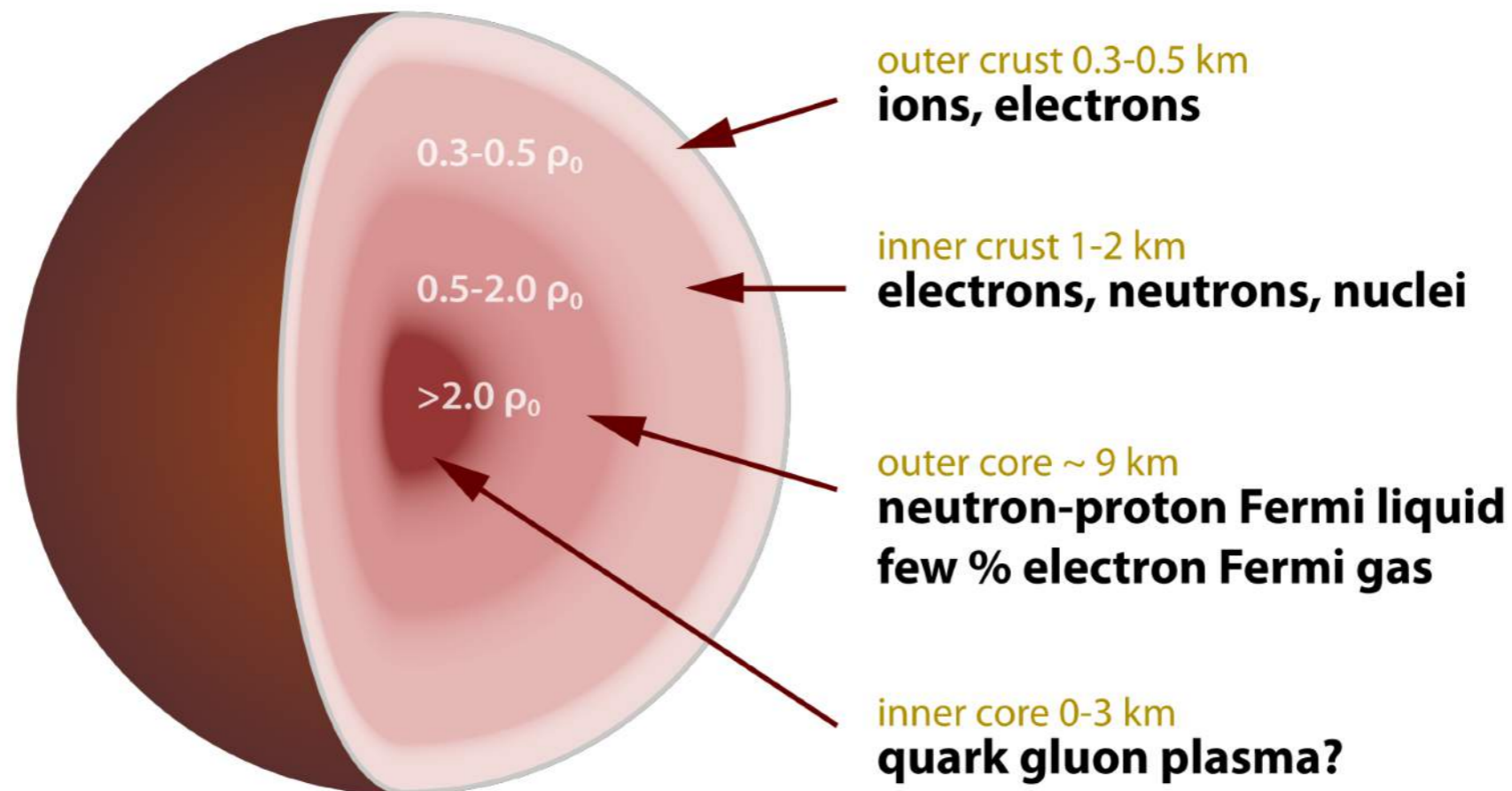
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- Rotation velocity:

Conservation of angular momentum: $I\omega \propto MR^2\omega$. R decreases → I decreases and then ω increases.
 If $R_i \sim 700 \text{ 000 km}$, $\omega_i = 1 \text{ month}^{-1}$ and $R_f = 10 \text{ km}$ → $\omega_f = 4.9 \cdot 10^9 \omega_i$ → $\sim 2 \text{ ms}^{-1}$!

Neutron star

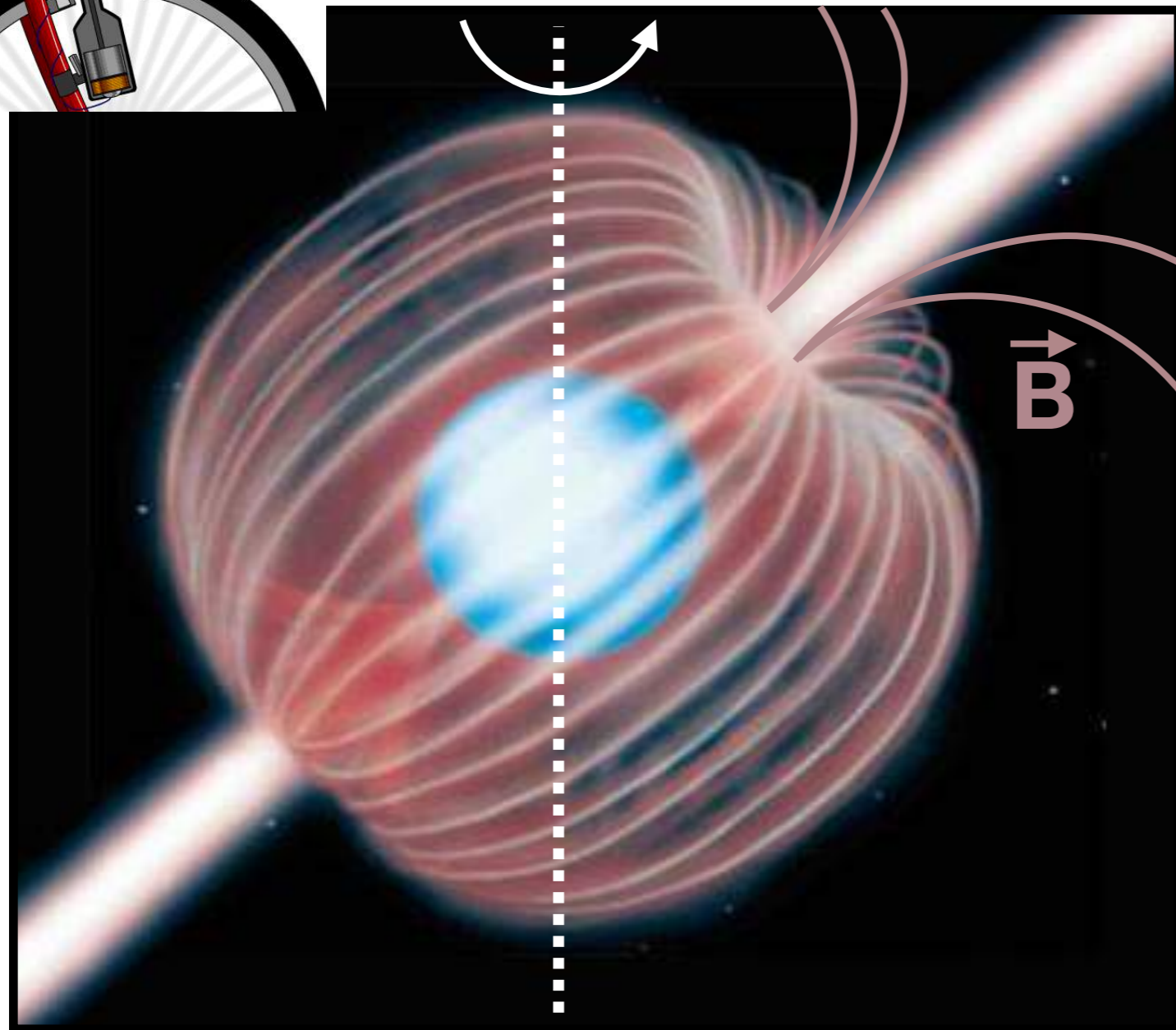
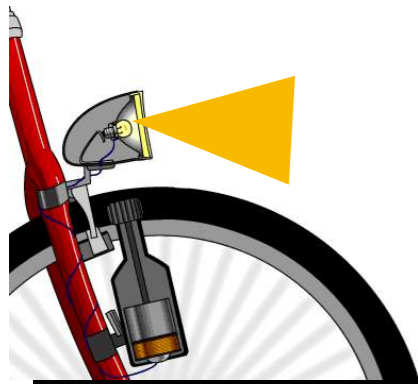


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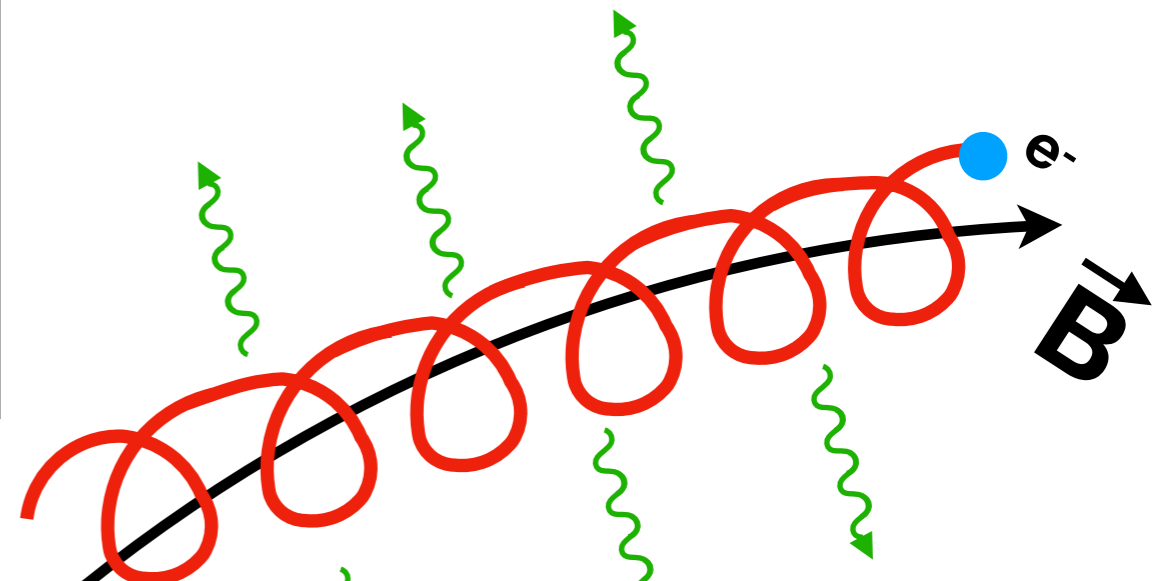
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Pulsars

Increase of magnetic field due to magnetic flux conservation during the collapse of the progenitor star

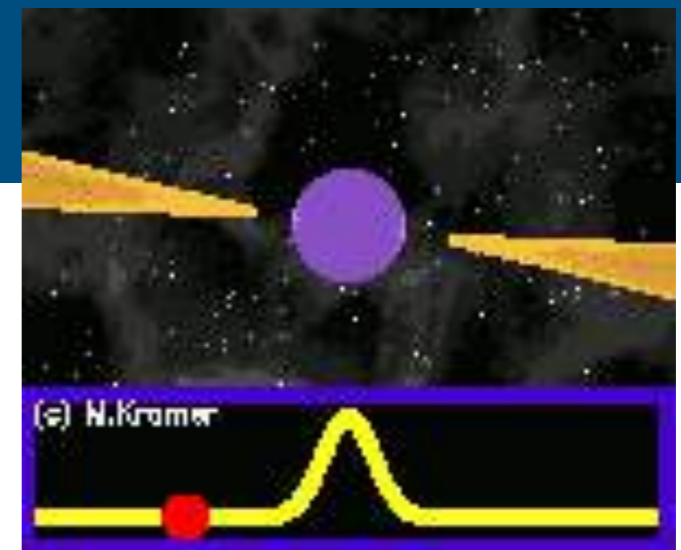
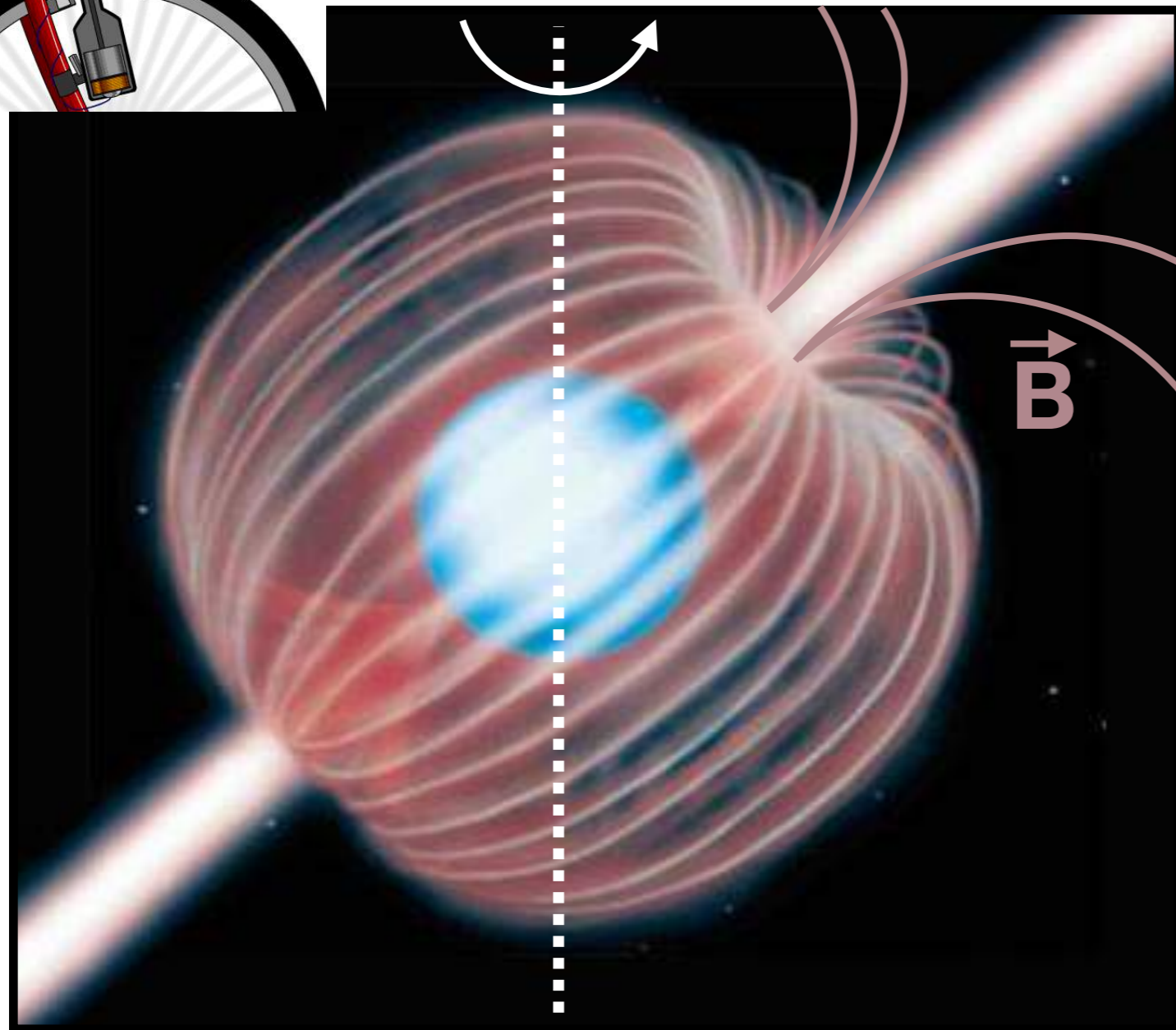
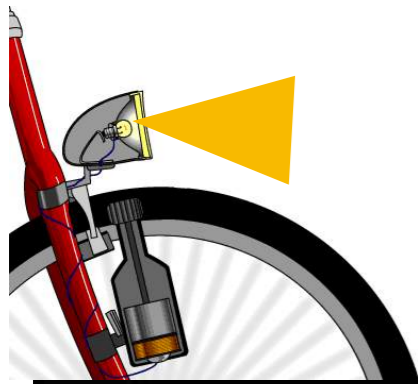


- Pulsar = high rotation velocity + highly magnetized neutron star
- High magnetic field ($\sim 10^8$ T)
- Relativistic electrons extracted from pulsar surface by electric field.
- Escaping relativistic electrons spiral around the field lines and are accelerated \rightarrow synchrotron radiation escaping through the magnetic poles of the star: beam detected in radio

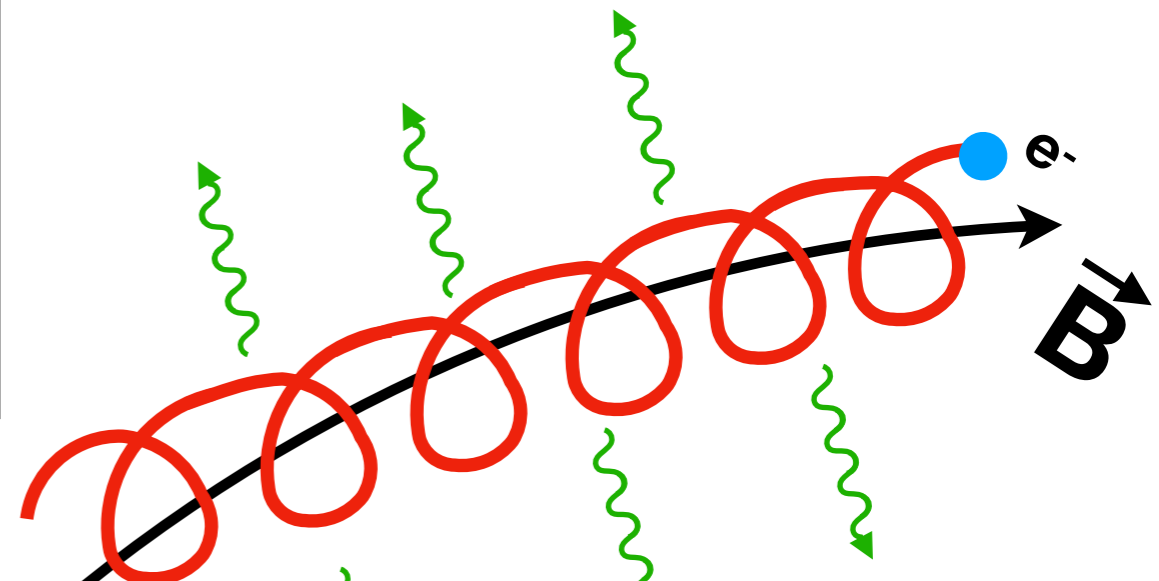


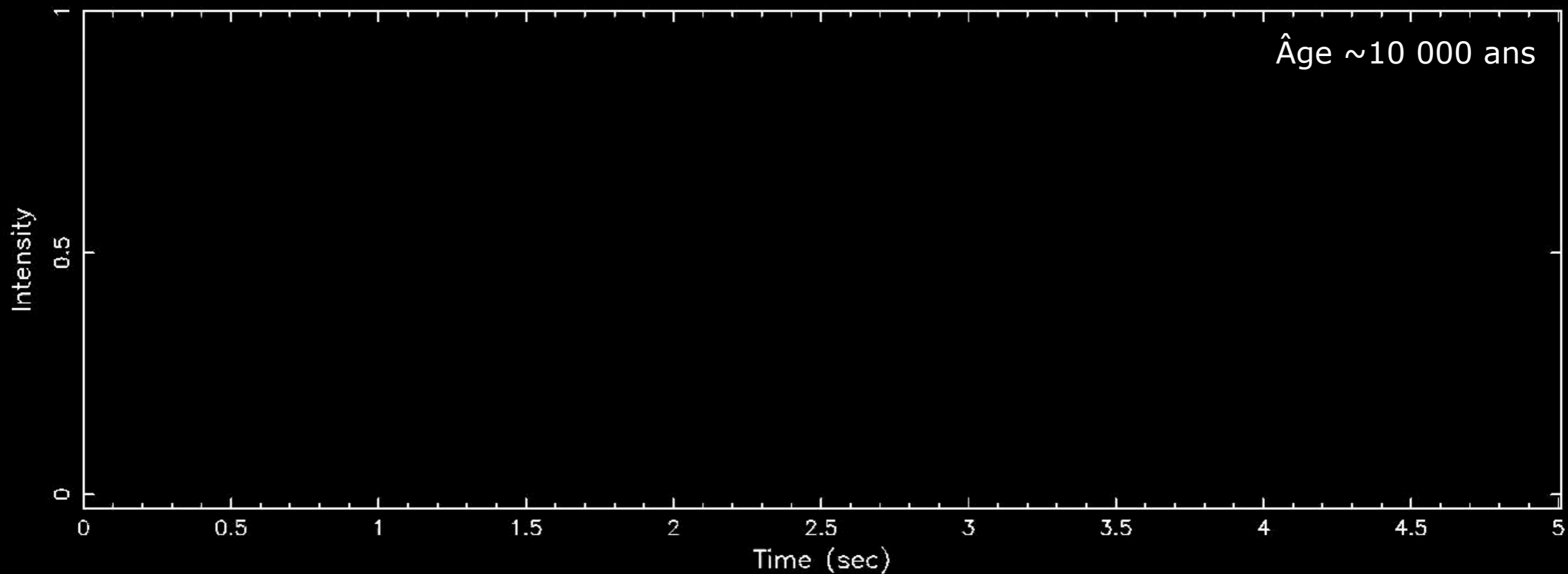
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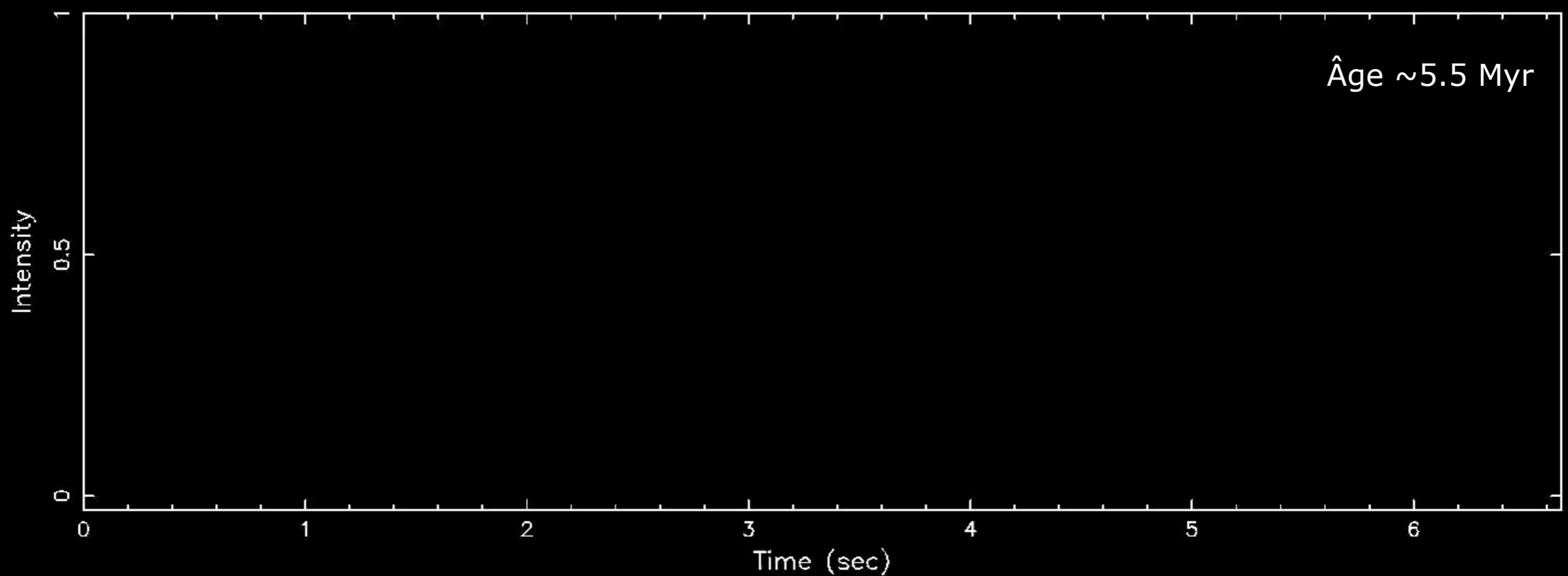


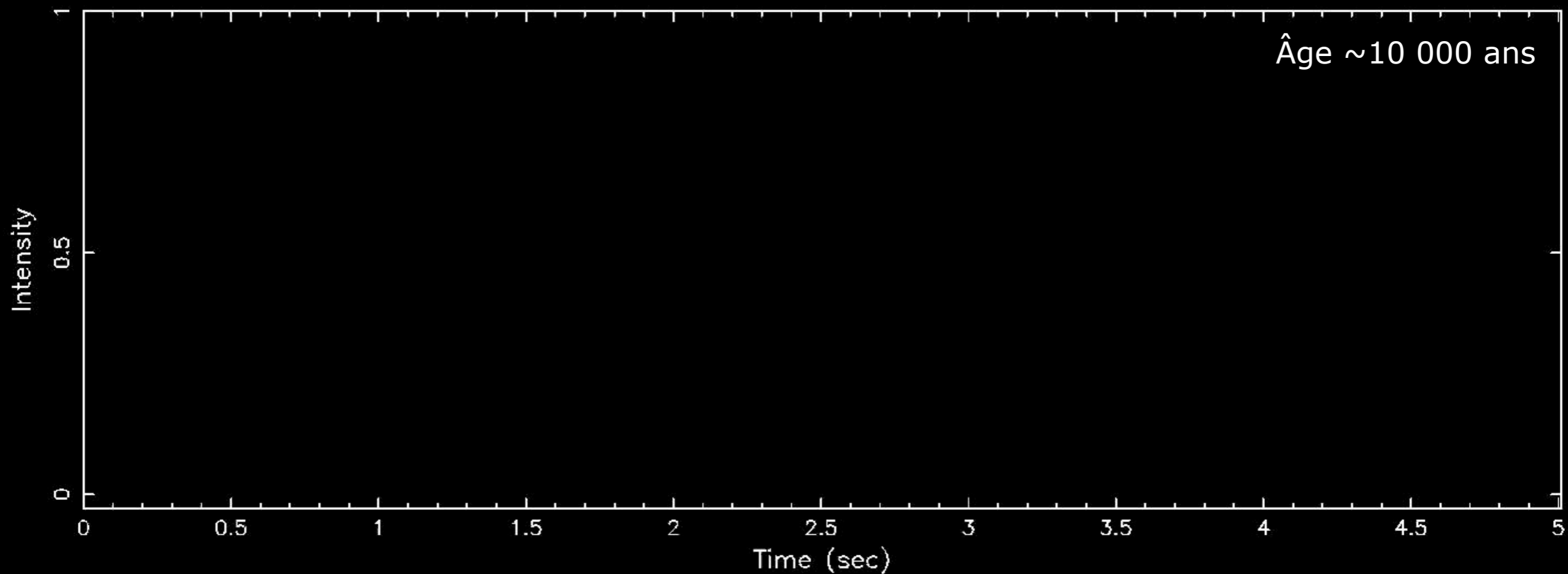
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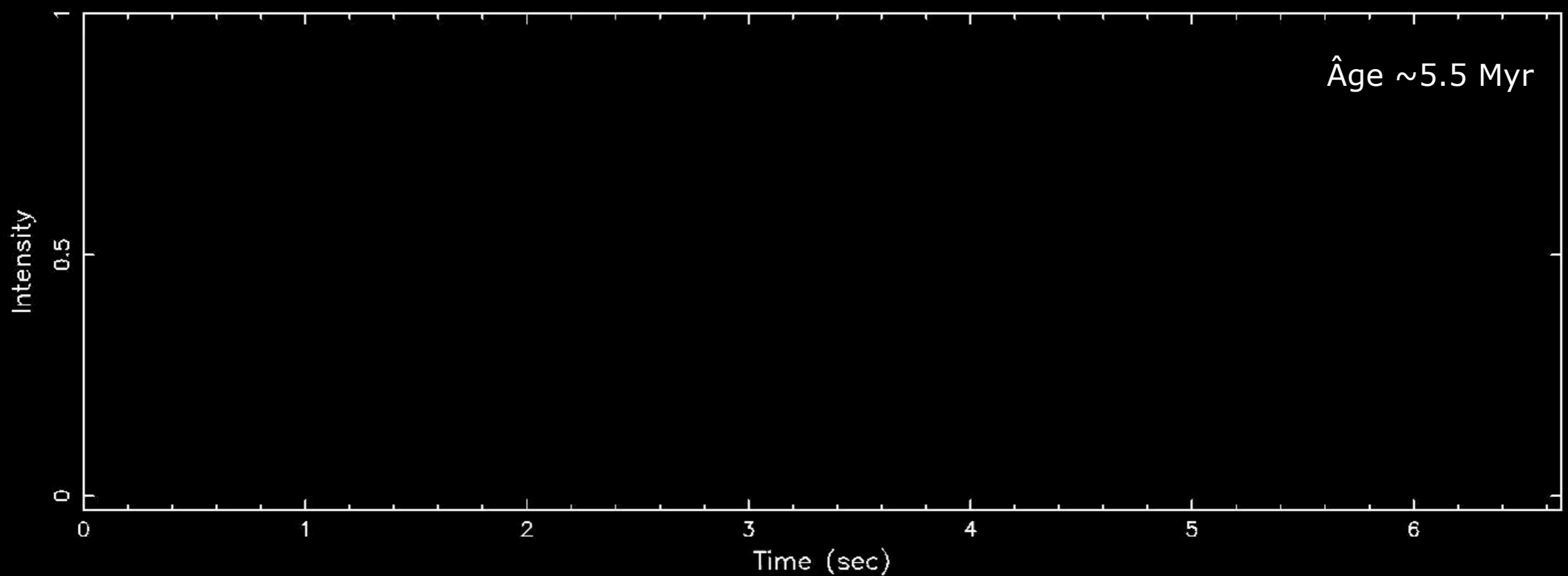


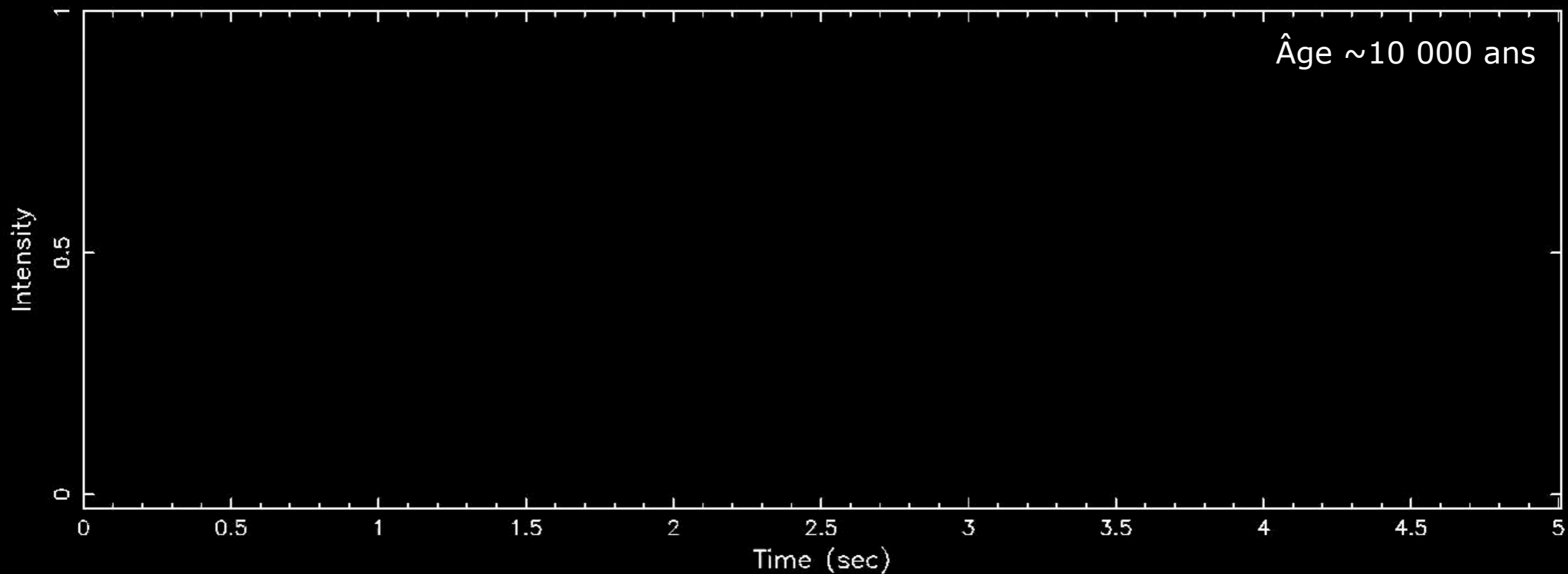
Pulsar B0329+54 observed with the Lovell telescope at Jodrell Bank



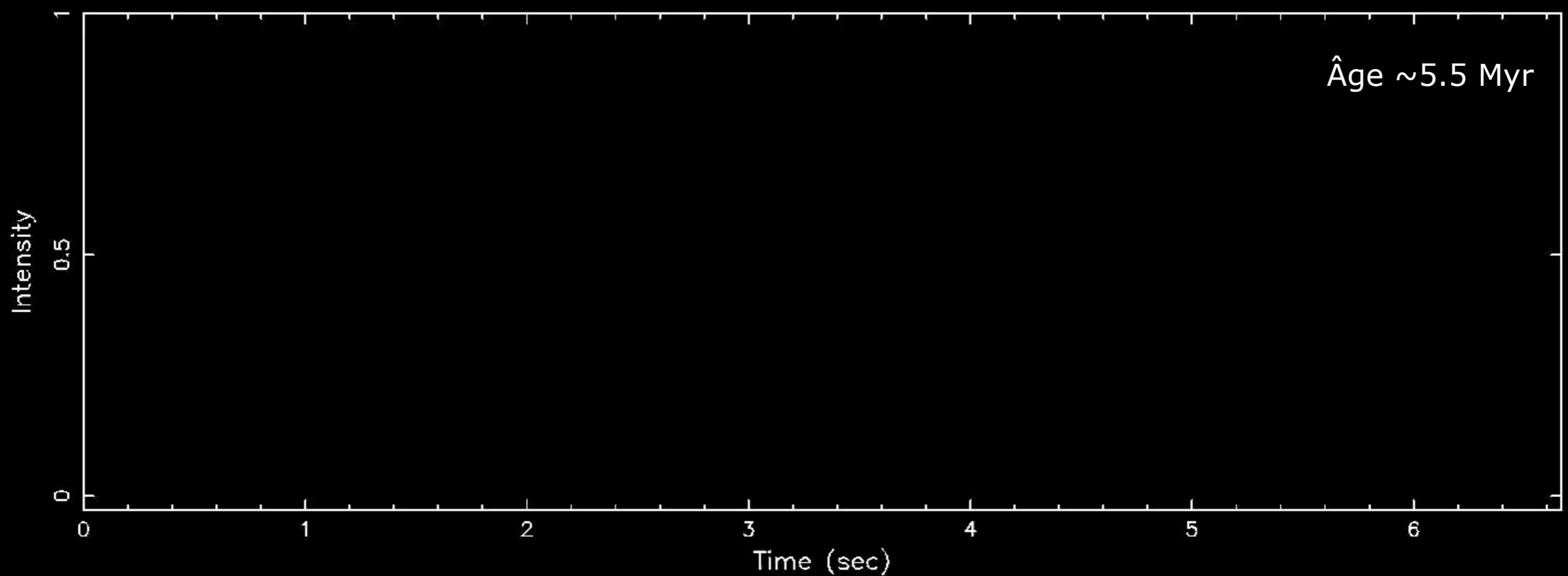


Pulsar B0329+54 observed with the Lovell telescope at Jodrell Bank





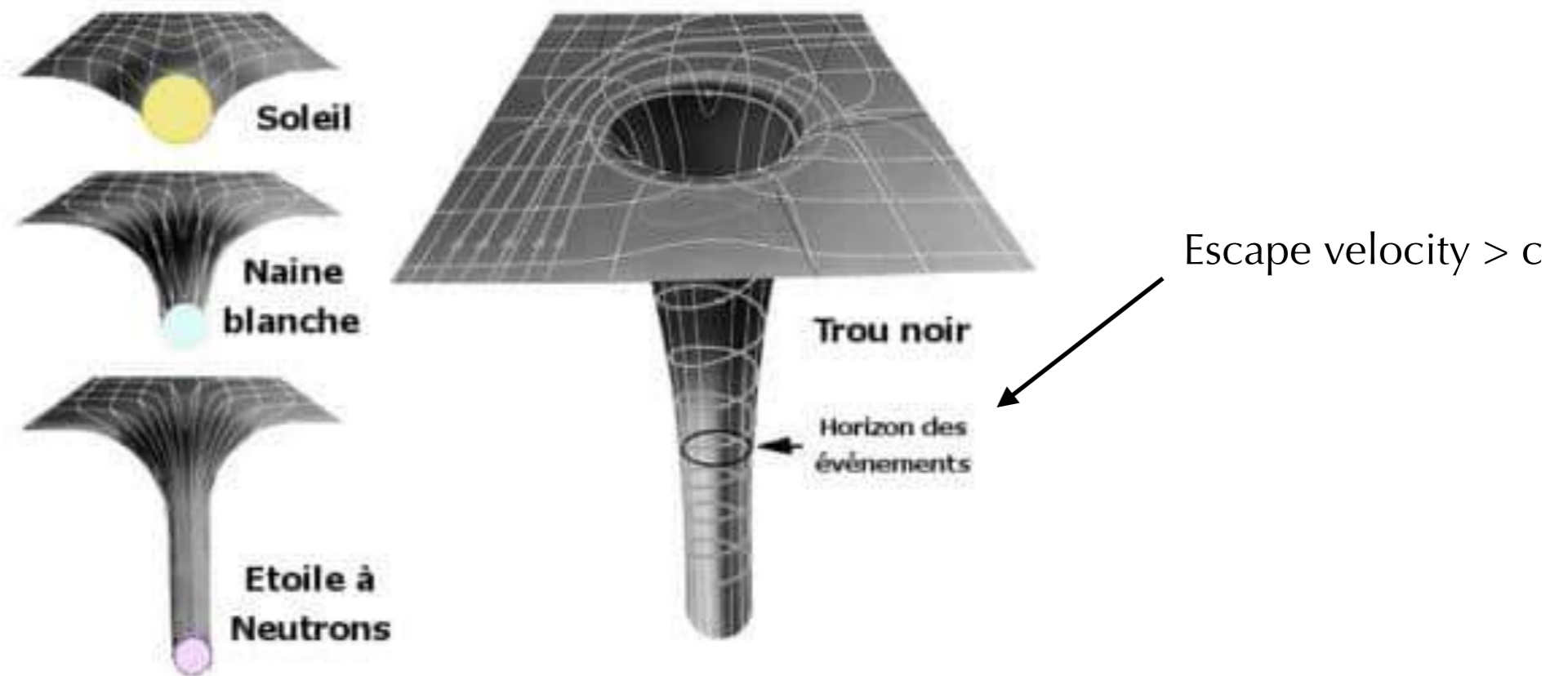
Pulsar B0329+54 observed with the Lovell telescope at Jodrell Bank



Black holes: end of live of most massive stars

When the initial star is massive enough, the energy released during the contraction can overcome the pressure of neutron degeneracy! (occurs at densities of tens of billions of tons per cm³).

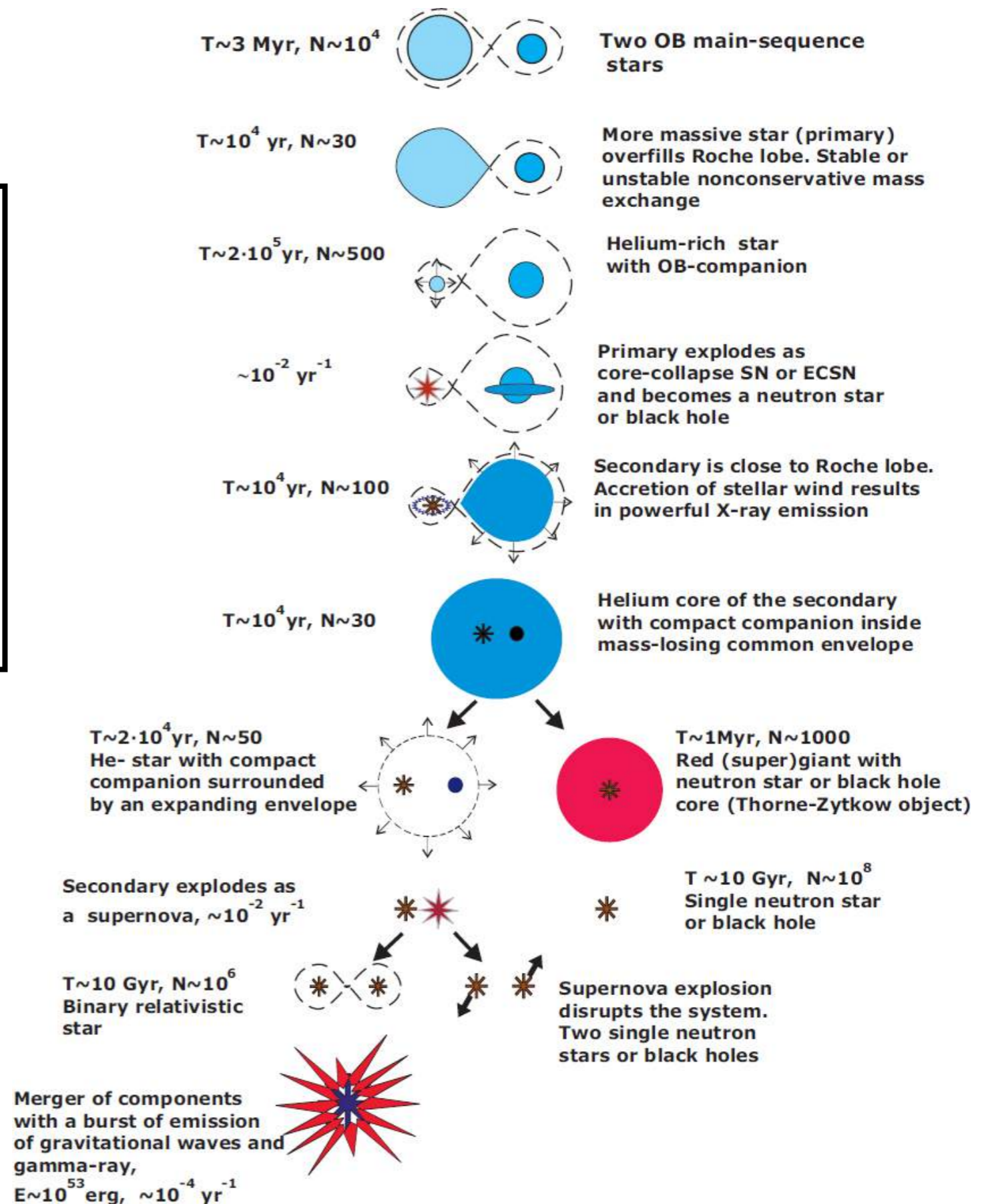
The potential well distorts space-time (general relativity) so that even photons cannot escape: **black hole!**



Binary systems

Several obstacles to get the two compact objects close to each other:

- Supernova explosions can disrupt the system;
- Common envelope phase can make the two objects merge earlier.



Outline - Lecture 2

B. End point of massive star evolution

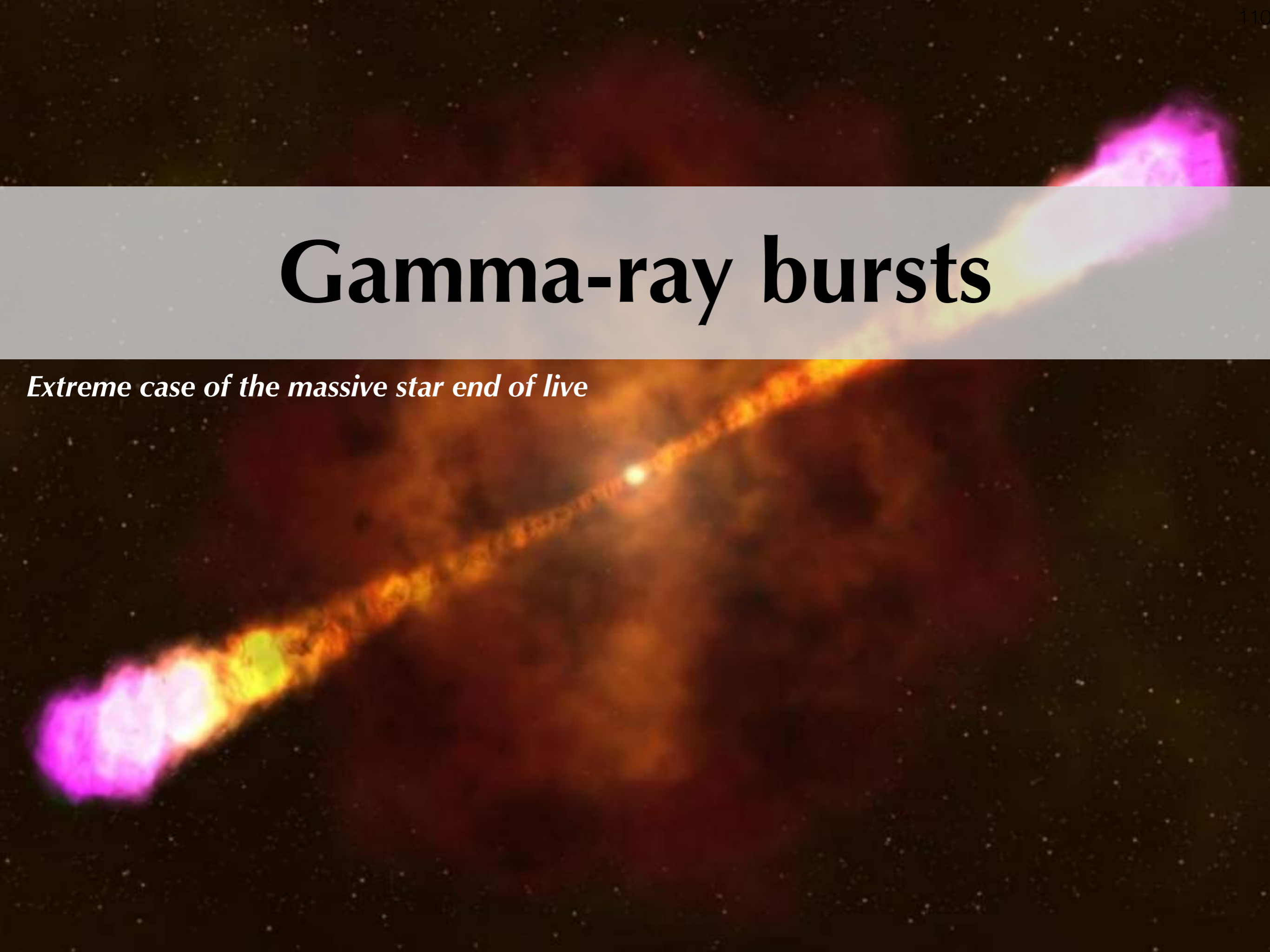
1. Evolution of massive stars

2. Gamma-ray bursts

3. The *SVOM* space mission

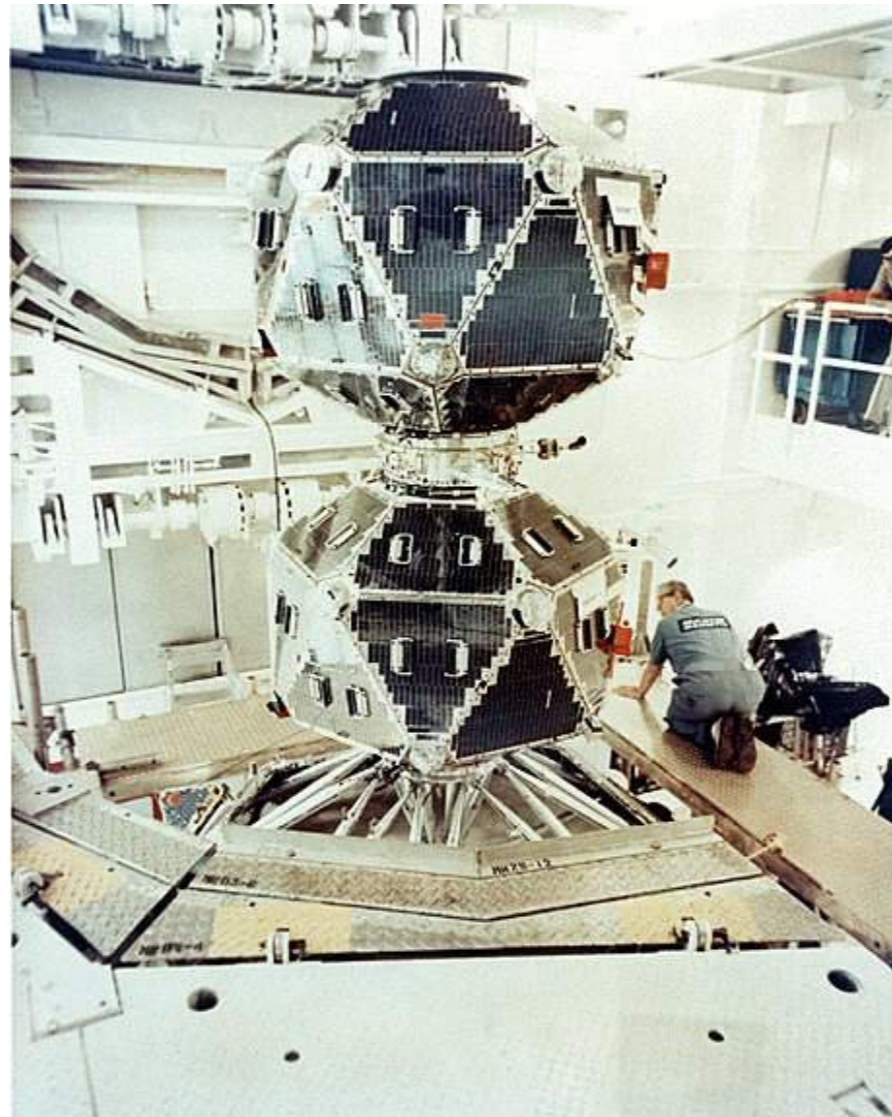
Gamma-ray bursts

Extreme case of the massive star end of live



VELA satellites

Gamma-ray observations



OBSERVATIONS OF **GAMMA-RAY BURSTS** OF COSMIC ORIGIN

RAY W. KLEBESADEL, IAN B. STRONG, AND ROY A. OLSON

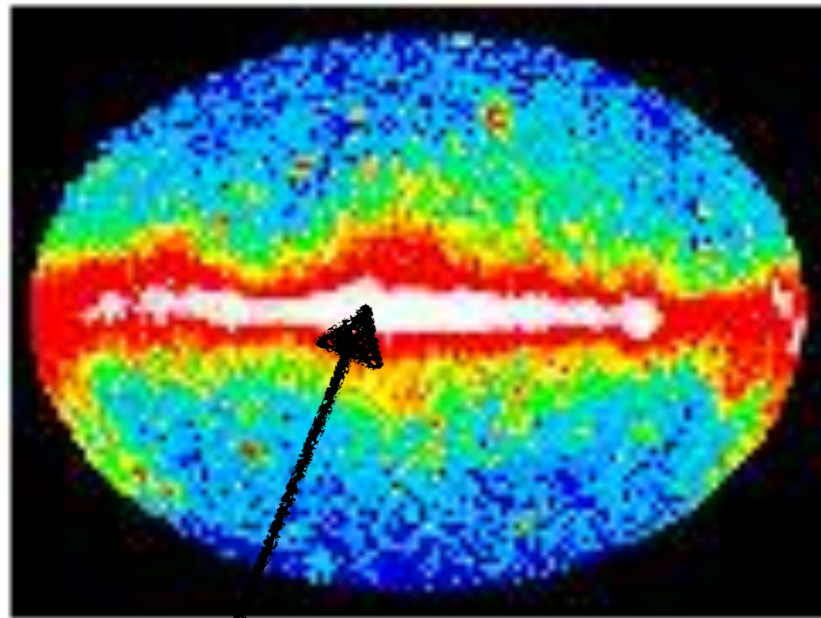
University of California, Los Alamos Scientific Laboratory, Los Alamos, New Mexico

Received 1973 March 16; revised 1973 April 2

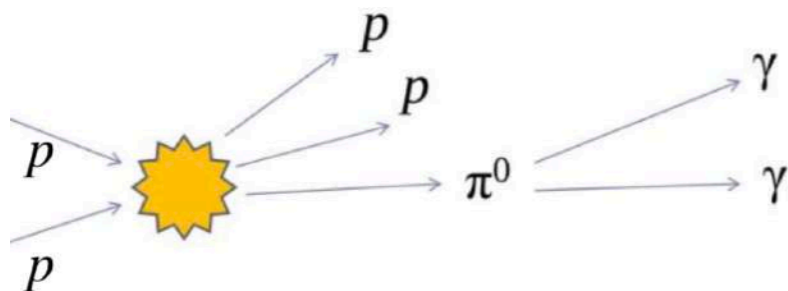
ABSTRACT

Sixteen short bursts of photons in the energy range 0.2–1.5 MeV have been observed between 1969 July and 1972 July using widely separated spacecraft. Burst durations ranged from less than 0.1 s to ~ 30 s, and time-integrated flux densities from $\sim 10^{-5}$ ergs cm^{-2} to $\sim 2 \times 10^{-4}$ ergs cm^{-2} in the energy range given. Significant time structure within bursts was observed. **Directional information eliminates the Earth and Sun as sources.**

What do gamma-ray burst look like ?



Galactic plane: p-p interactions



Counts per Second

30000

20000

10000

0

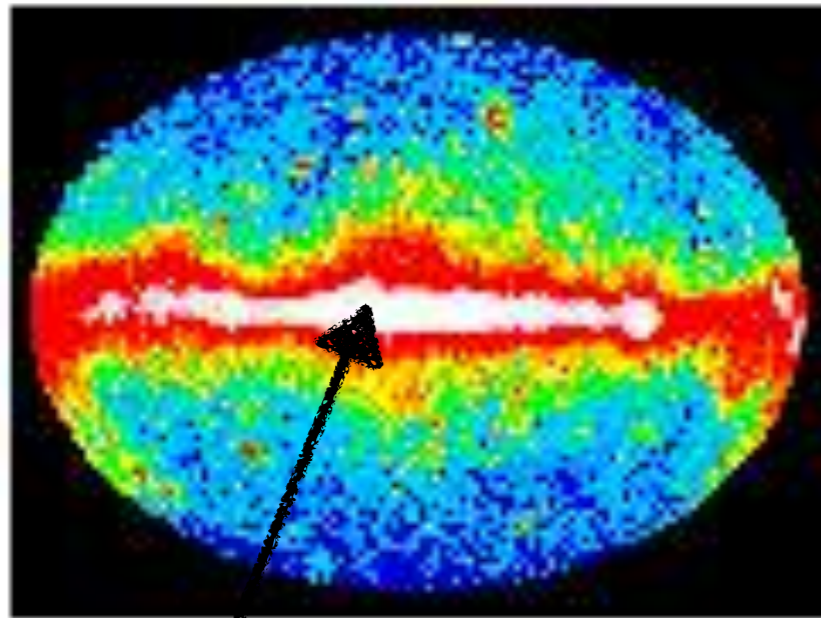
0

5

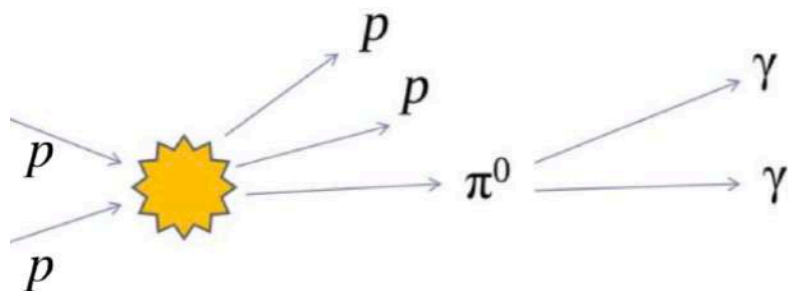
10

Time in Seconds

What do gamma-ray burst look like ?



Galactic plane: p-p interactions



Counts per Second

30000

20000

10000

0

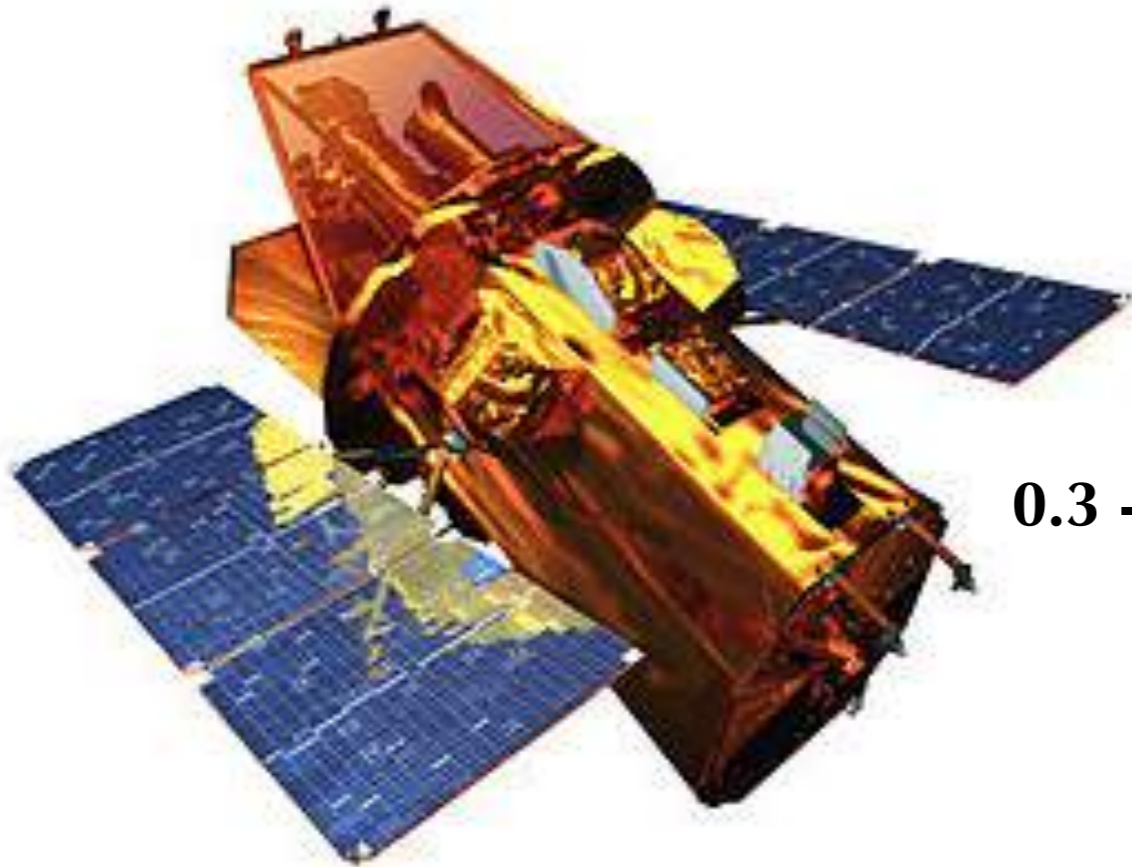
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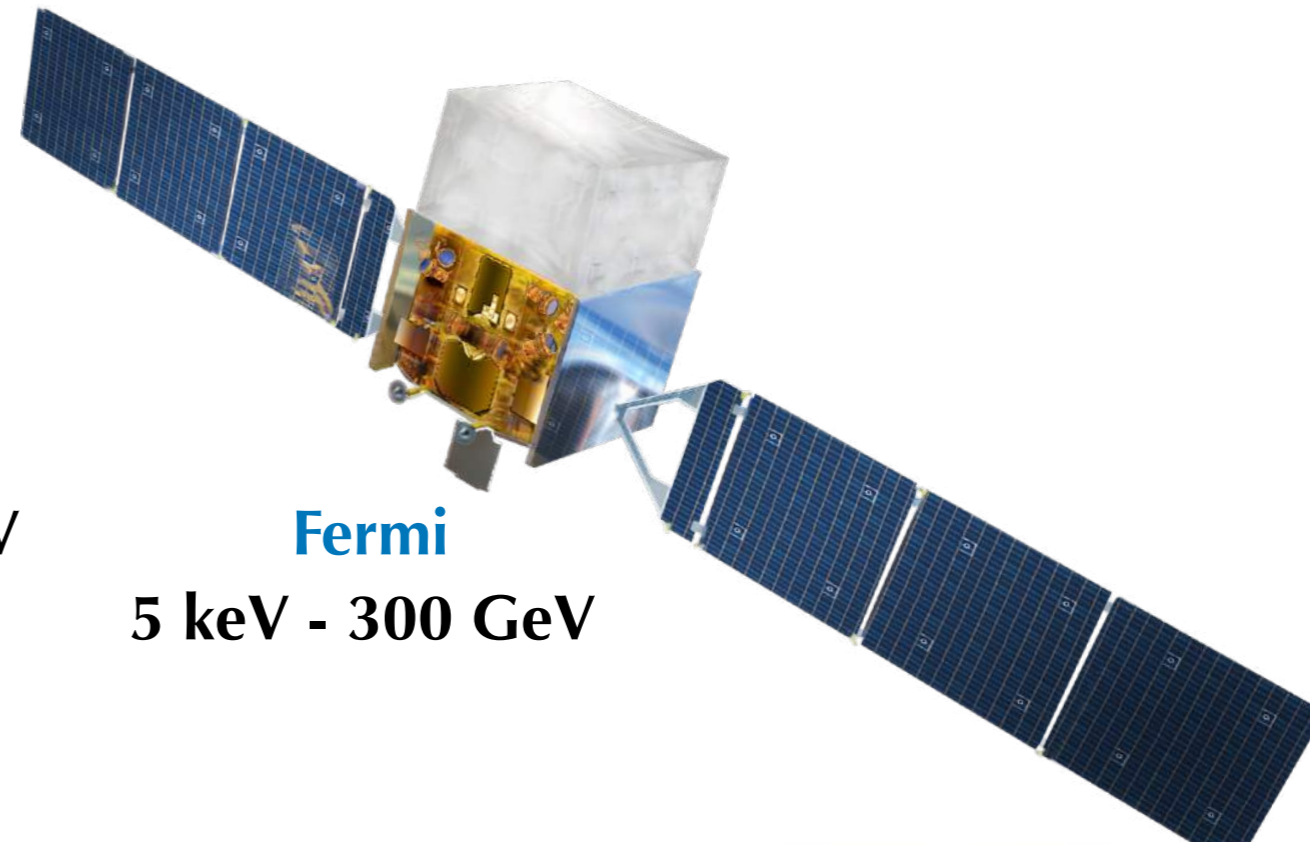
Time in Seconds

Gamma-ray bursts



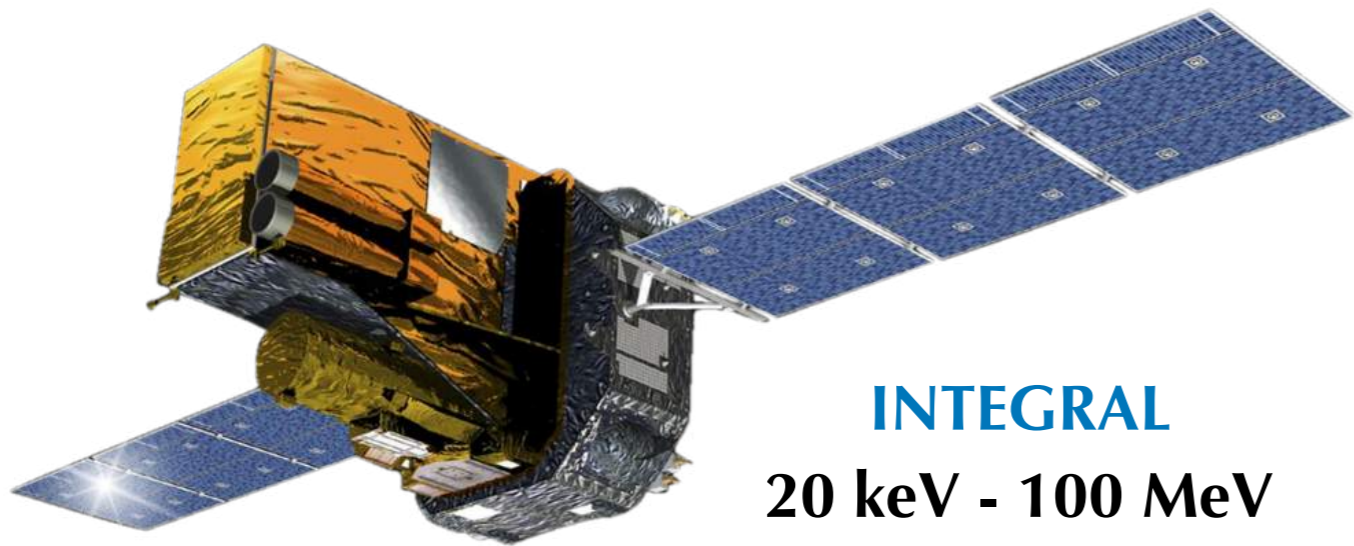
Swift

0.3 - 195 keV



Fermi

5 keV - 300 GeV



INTEGRAL

20 keV - 100 MeV



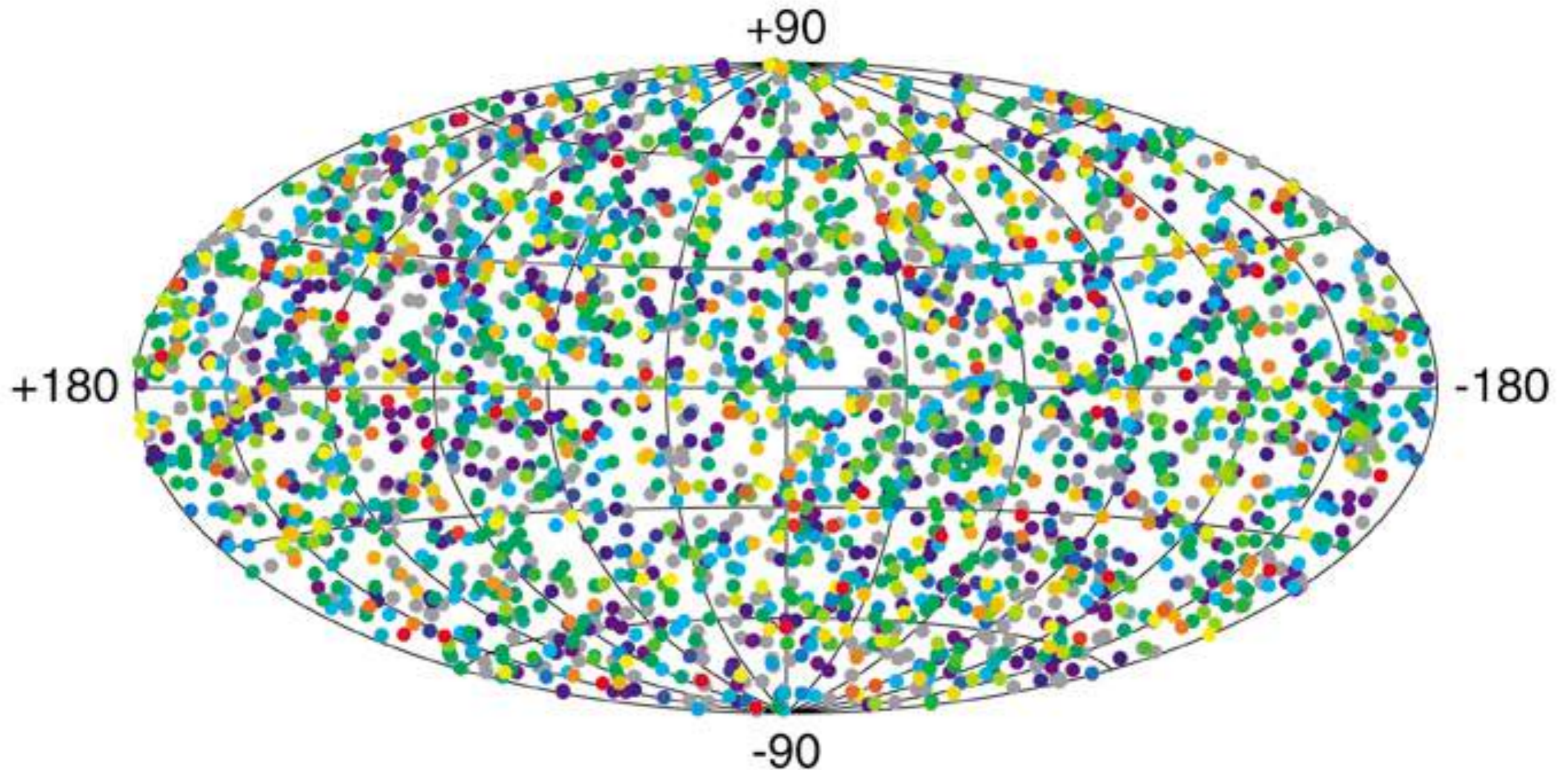
AGILE

10 keV - 50 GeV

Currently ~1 GRB detected / day

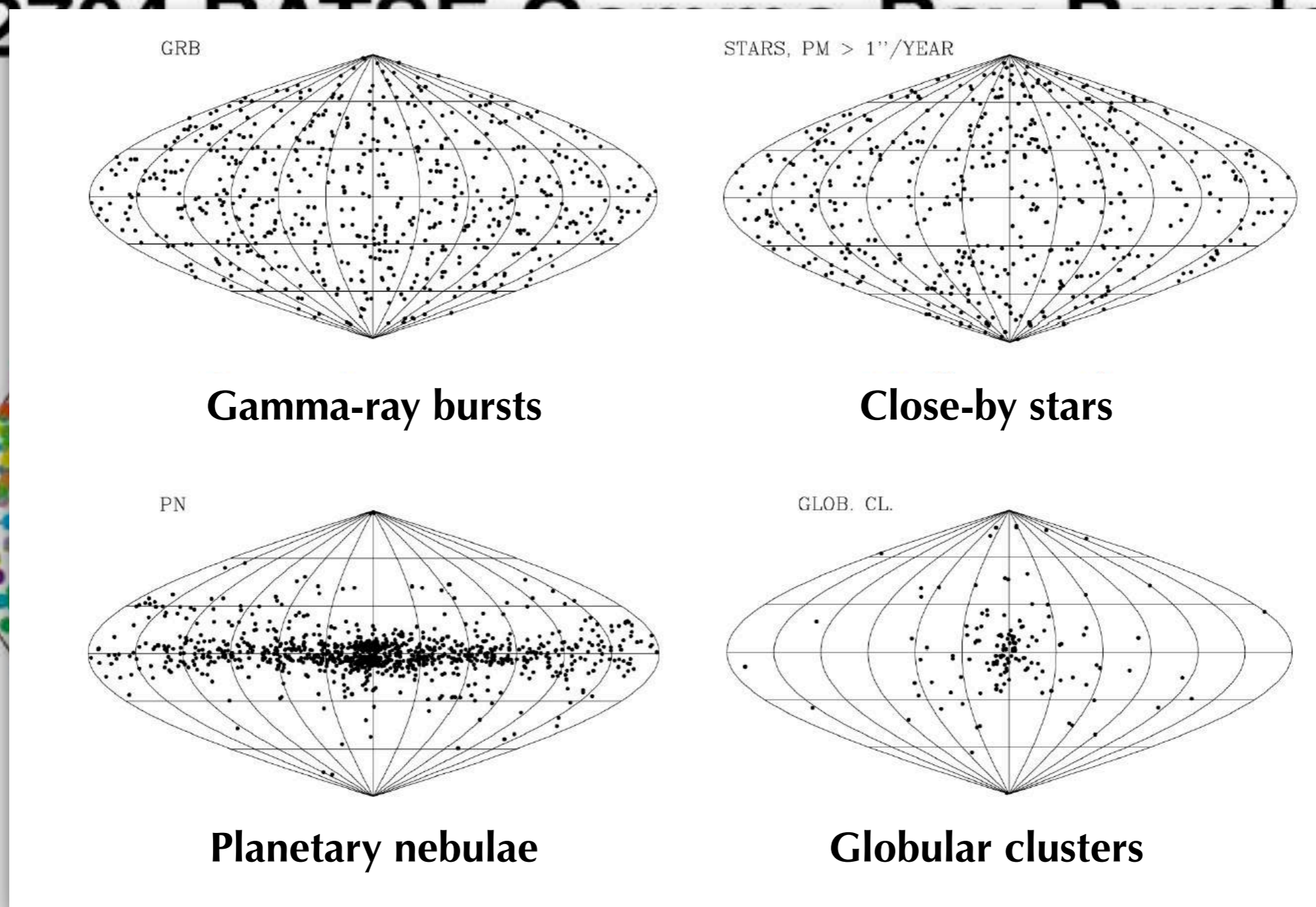
Where do GRB come from ?

2704 BATSE Gamma-Ray Bursts



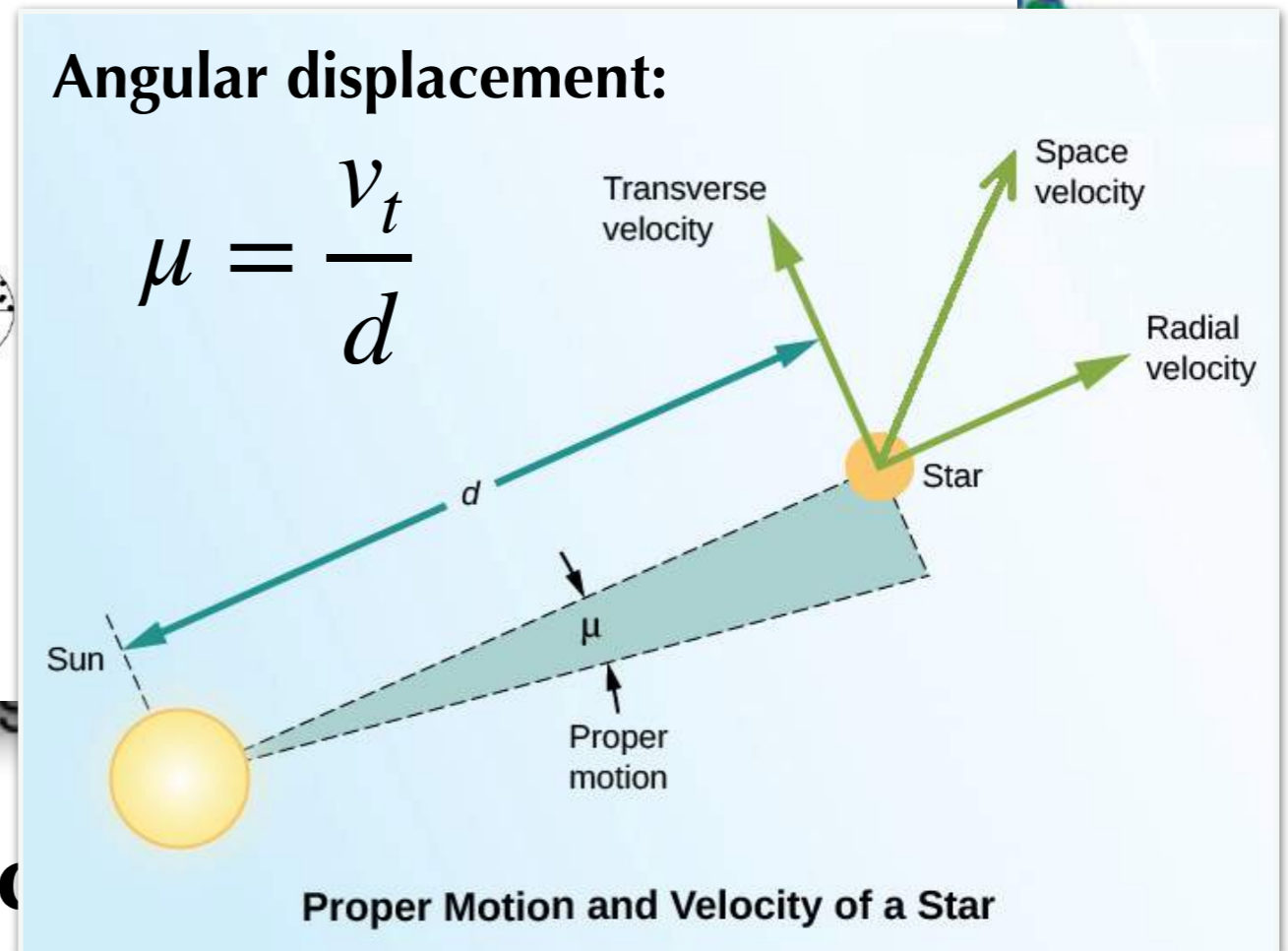
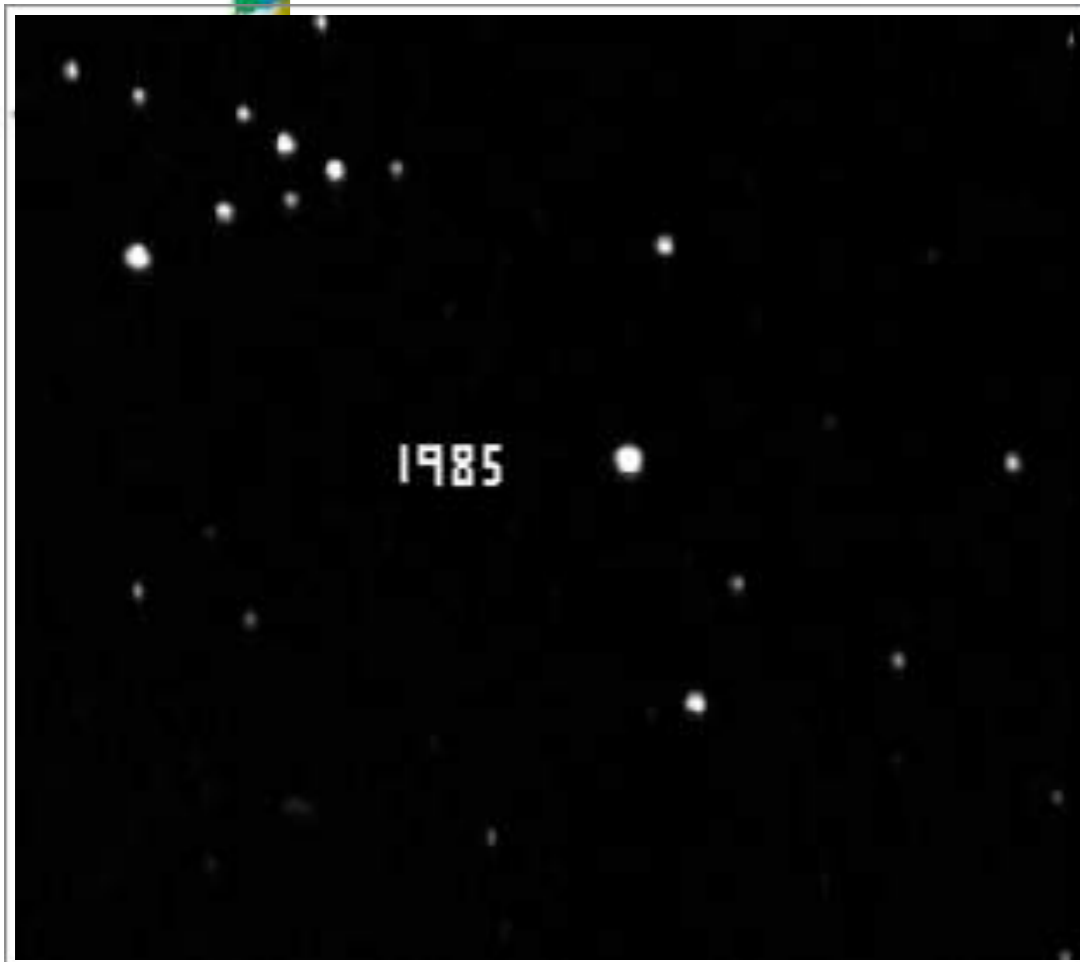
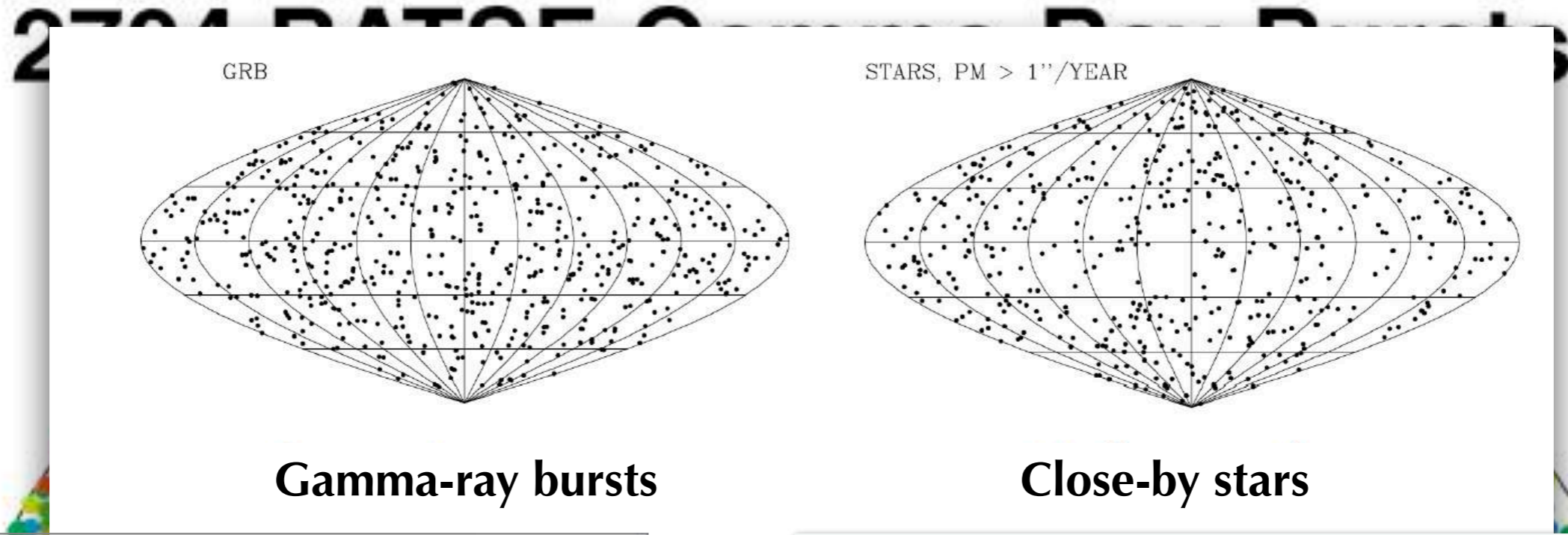
Measuring distance: a challenge in astronomy !

Where do GRB come from ?



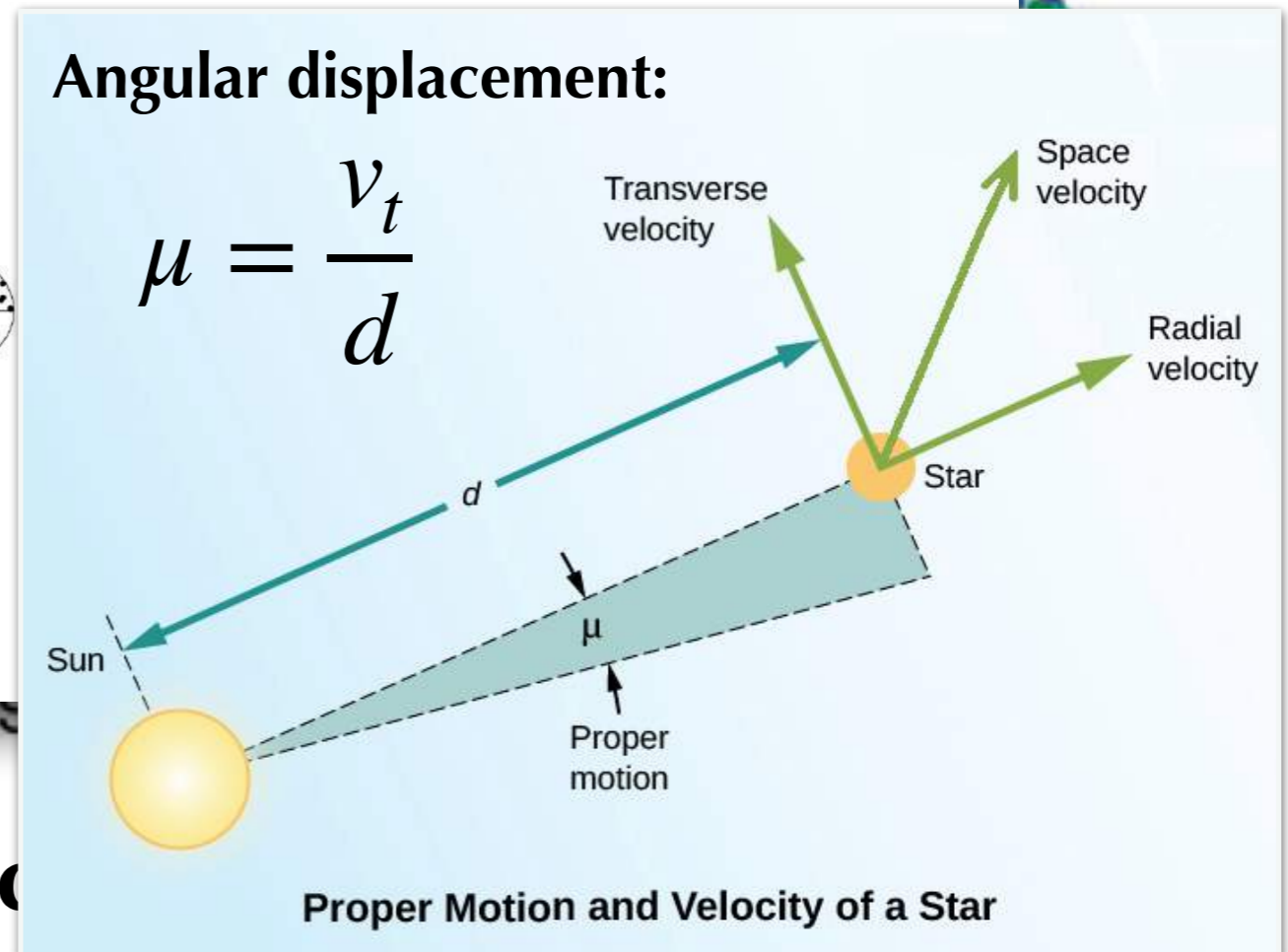
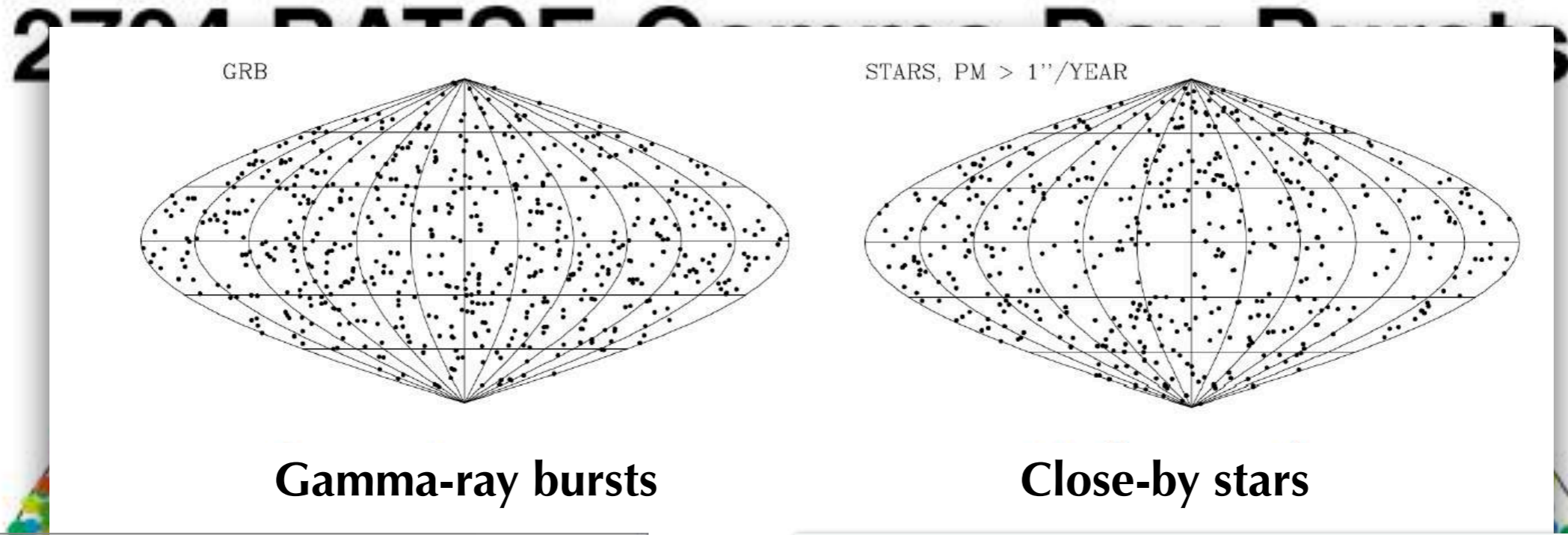
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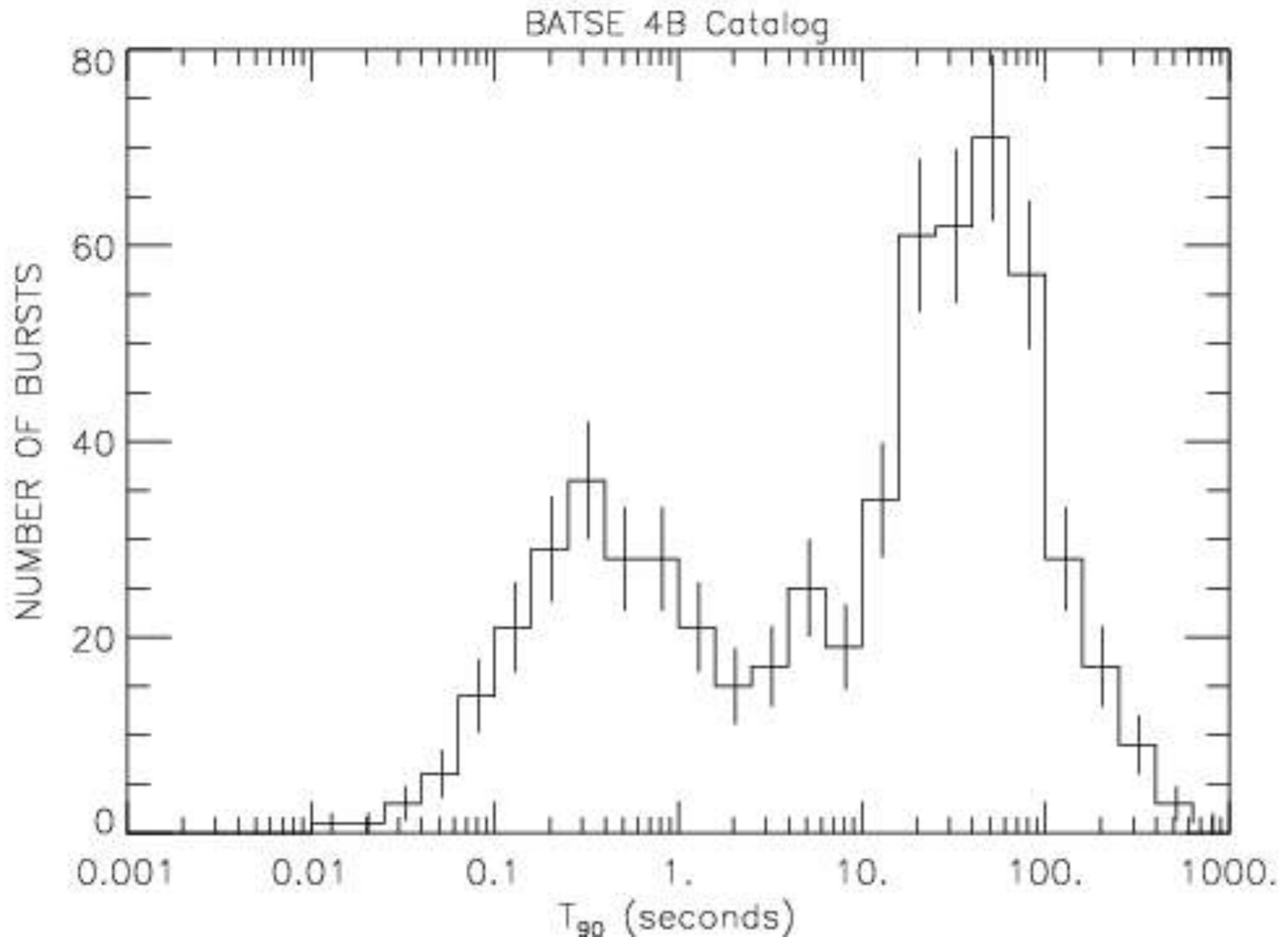
e: a c

Where do GRB come from ?



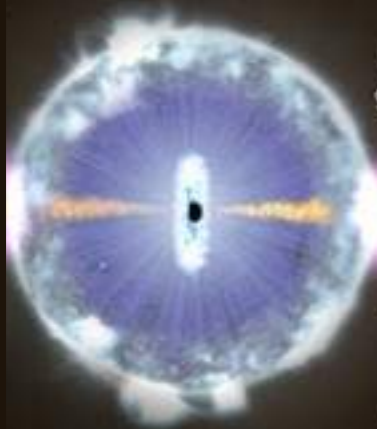
e: a c

Gamma-ray bursts



Same physics but different energy reservoir ?

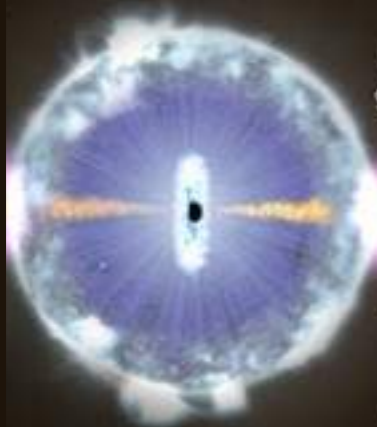
A possible scenario



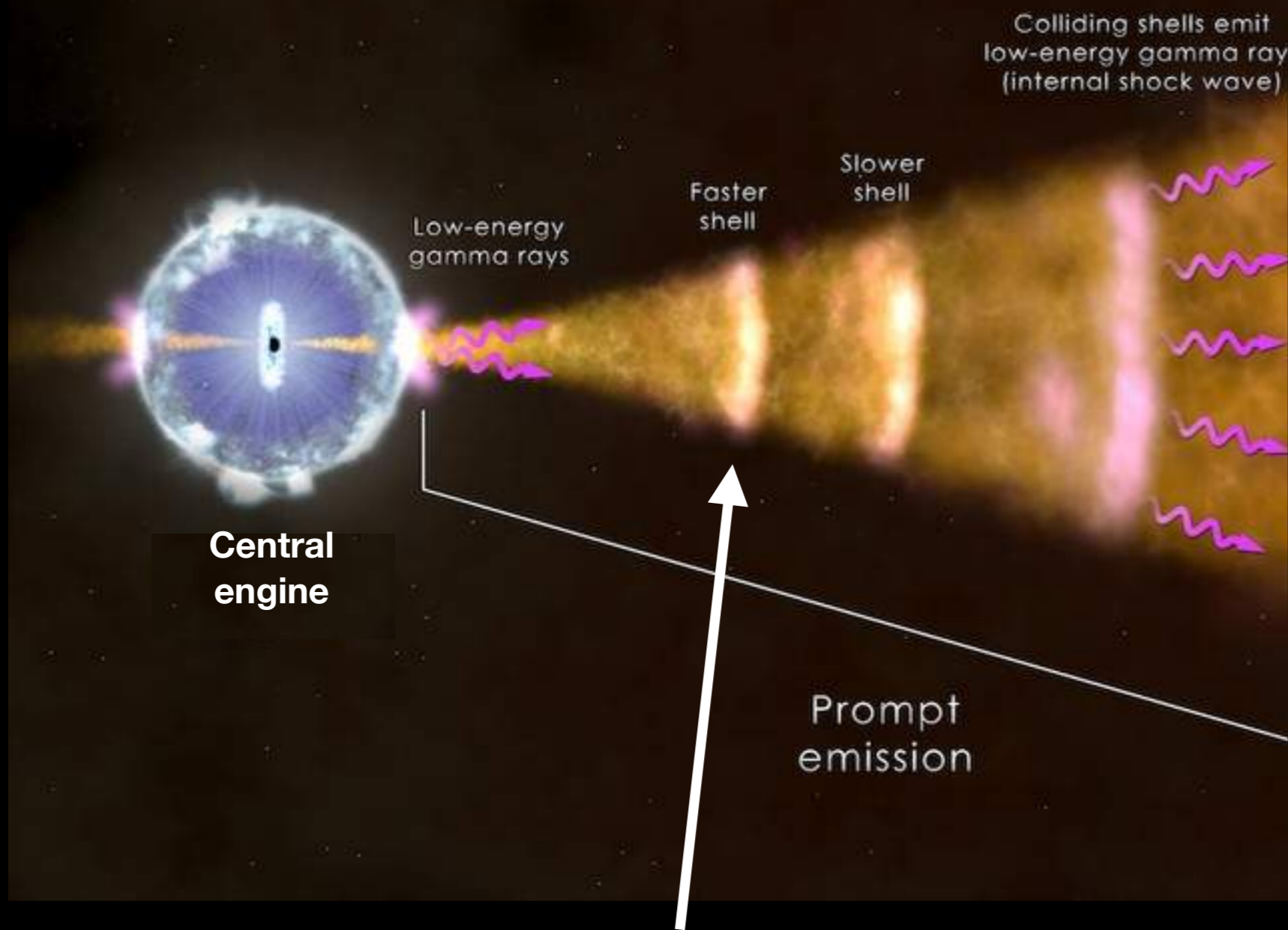
Central
engine

Short timescale variability \Rightarrow central engine of small size

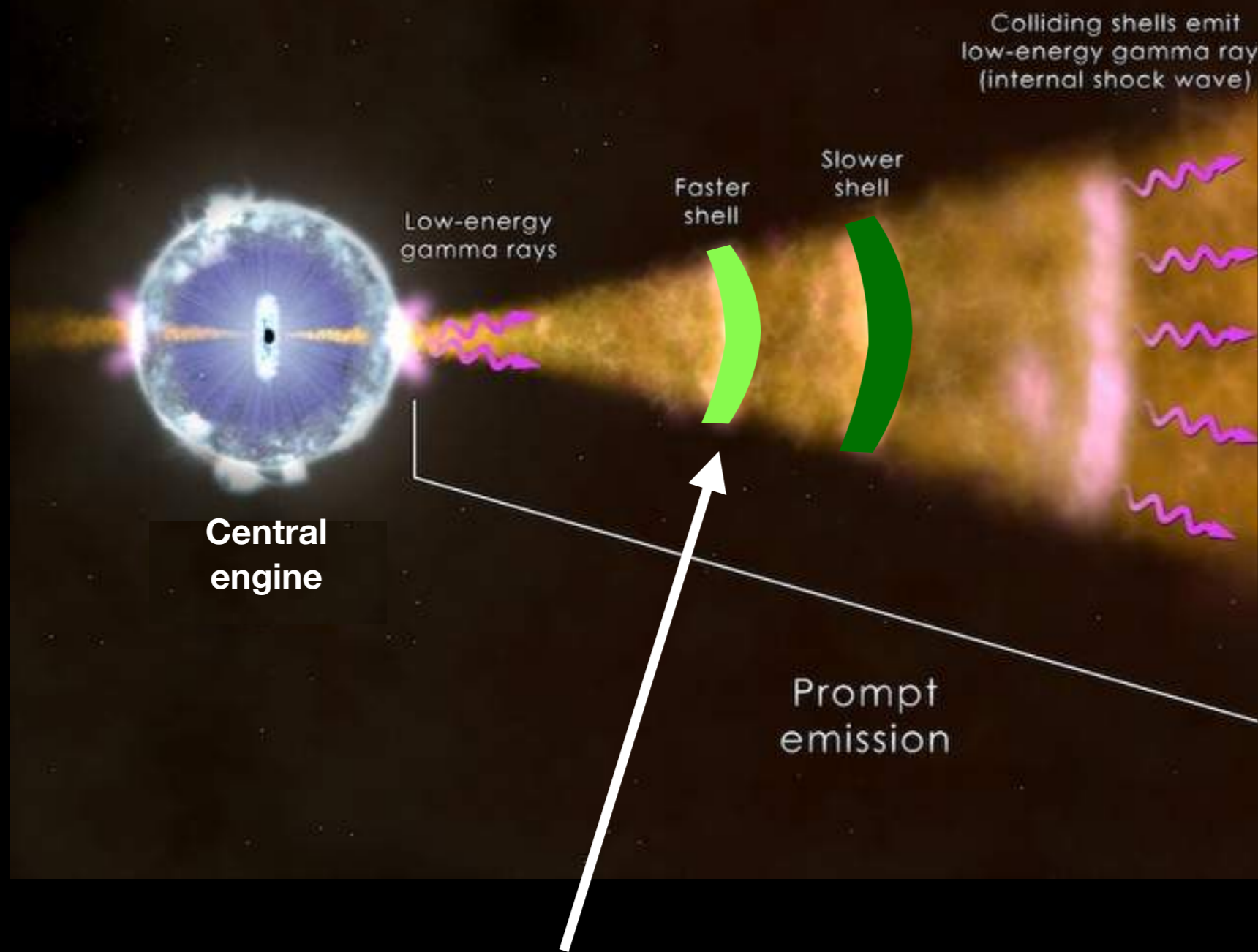
$$l \lesssim c\Delta t$$



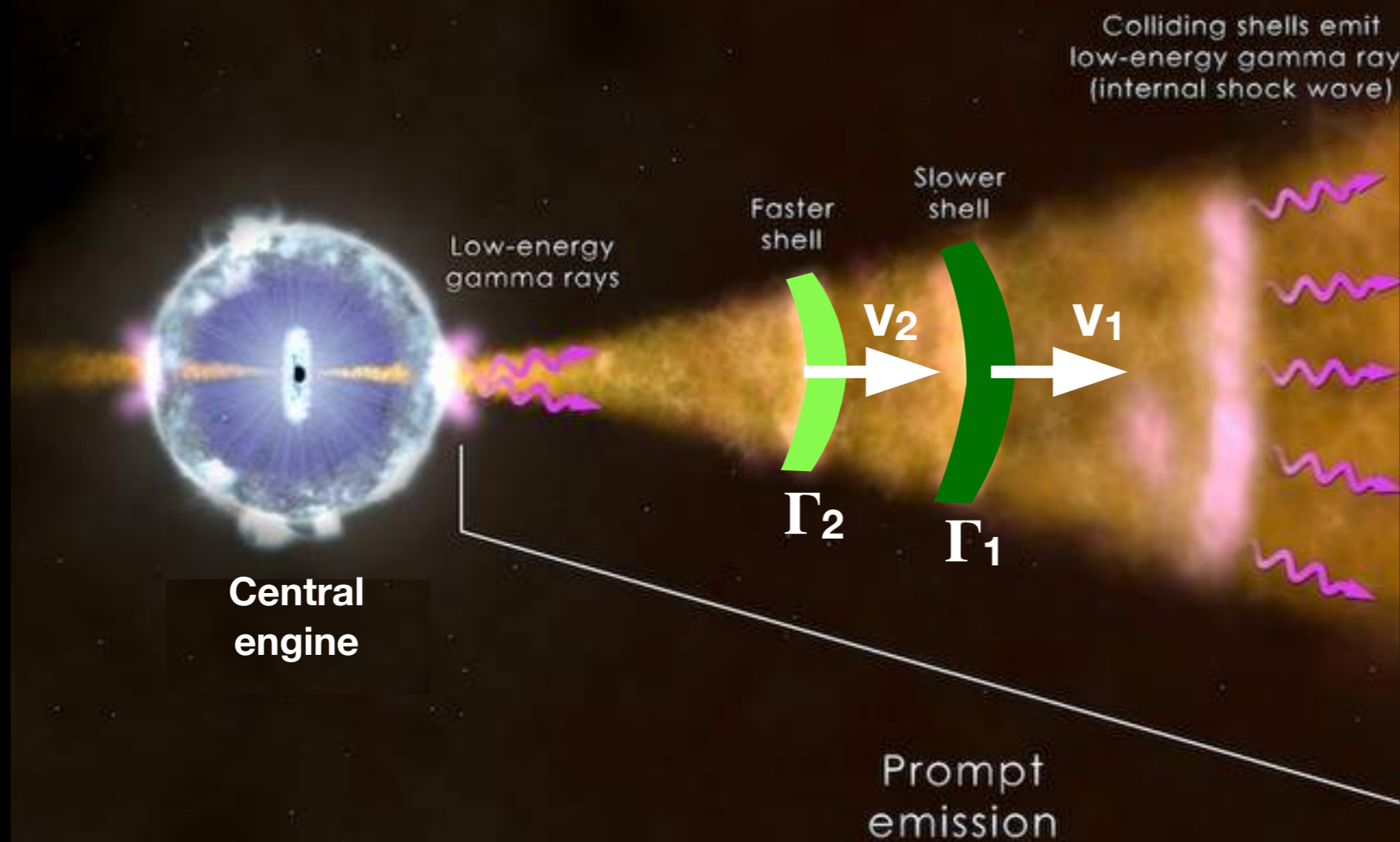
Central engine



Relativistic jet
(fraction of accreted matter).
Earth-Jupiter distance in ~40min



Shells of matter with different velocity (jet inhomogeneities and/or central engine variability)

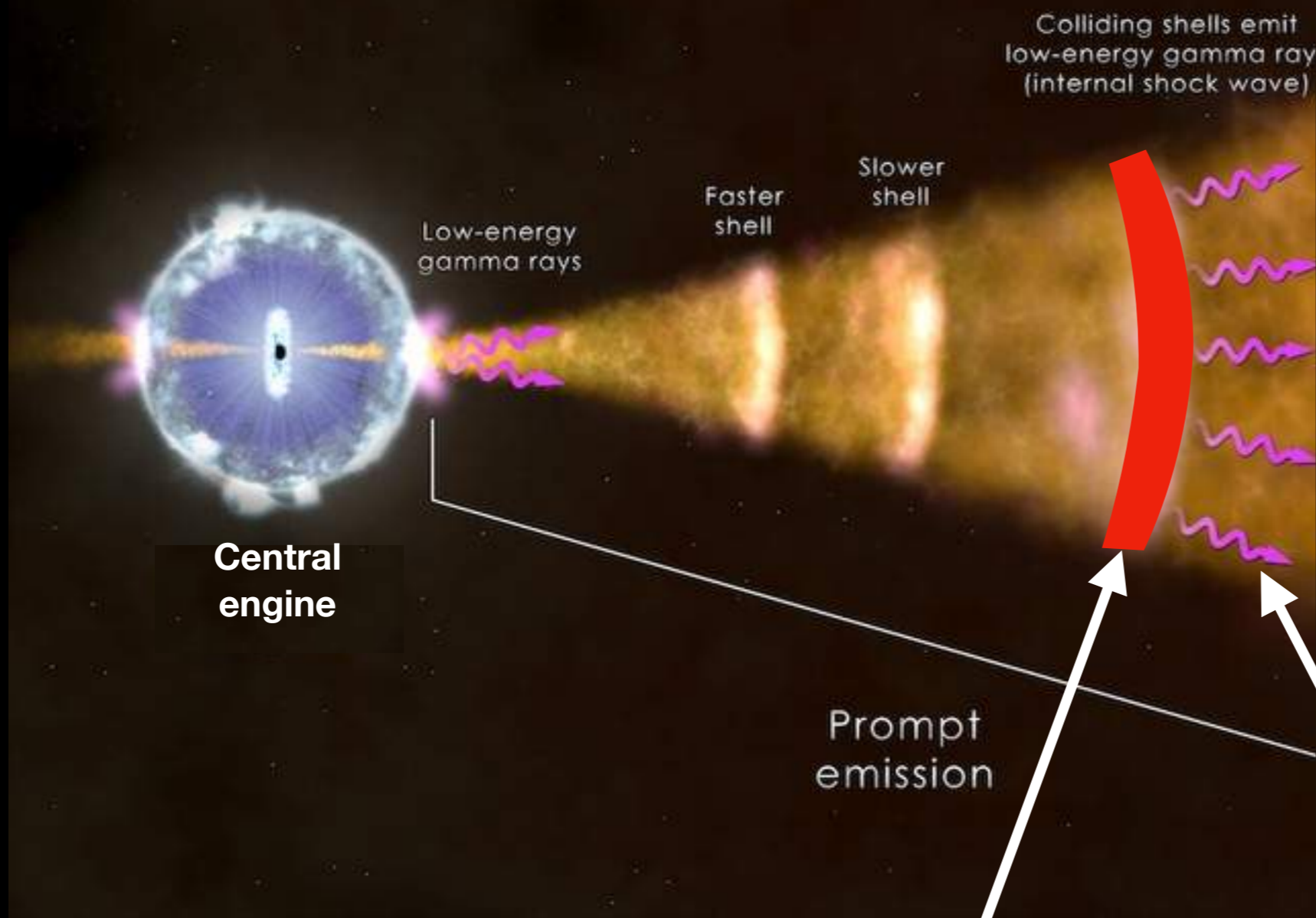


$$\beta_i = v_i/c \simeq \left(1 - \frac{1}{2\Gamma_i^2}\right)$$

$$R_{\text{choc}} = \frac{\beta_1\beta_2}{\beta_2 - \beta_1} c\Delta t \simeq 2c\Delta t \frac{\Gamma_1^2\Gamma_2^2}{\Gamma_2^2 - \Gamma_1^2}$$

$$E_{\text{diss}} = mc^2 \left(\Gamma_1 + \Gamma_2 - 2\sqrt{\Gamma_1\Gamma_2}\right)$$

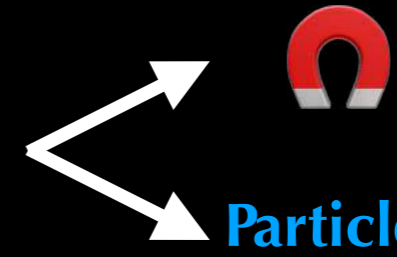
$\sim 10^{45}$ J



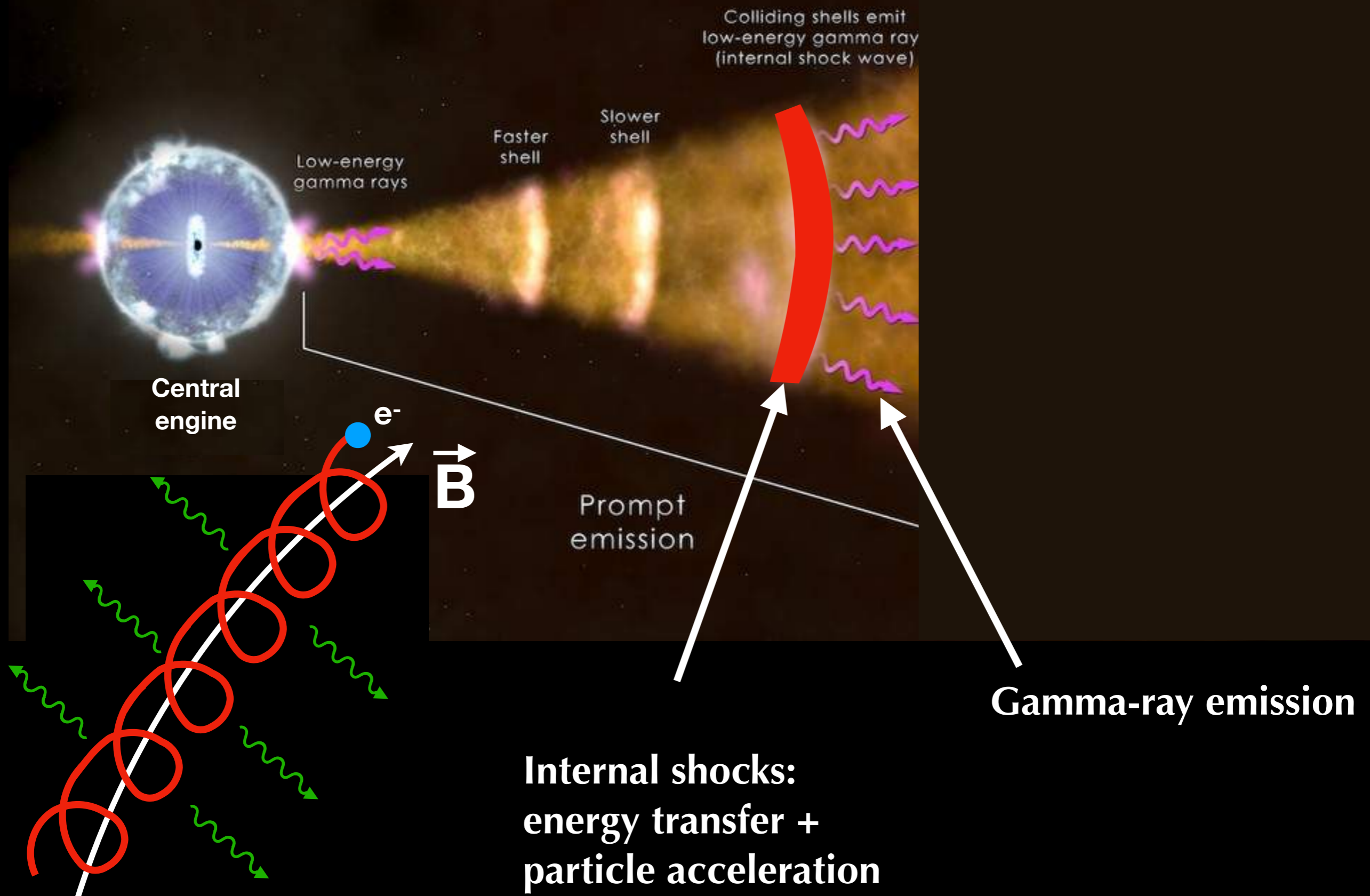
Gamma-ray emission



**Internal shocks:
energy transfer**

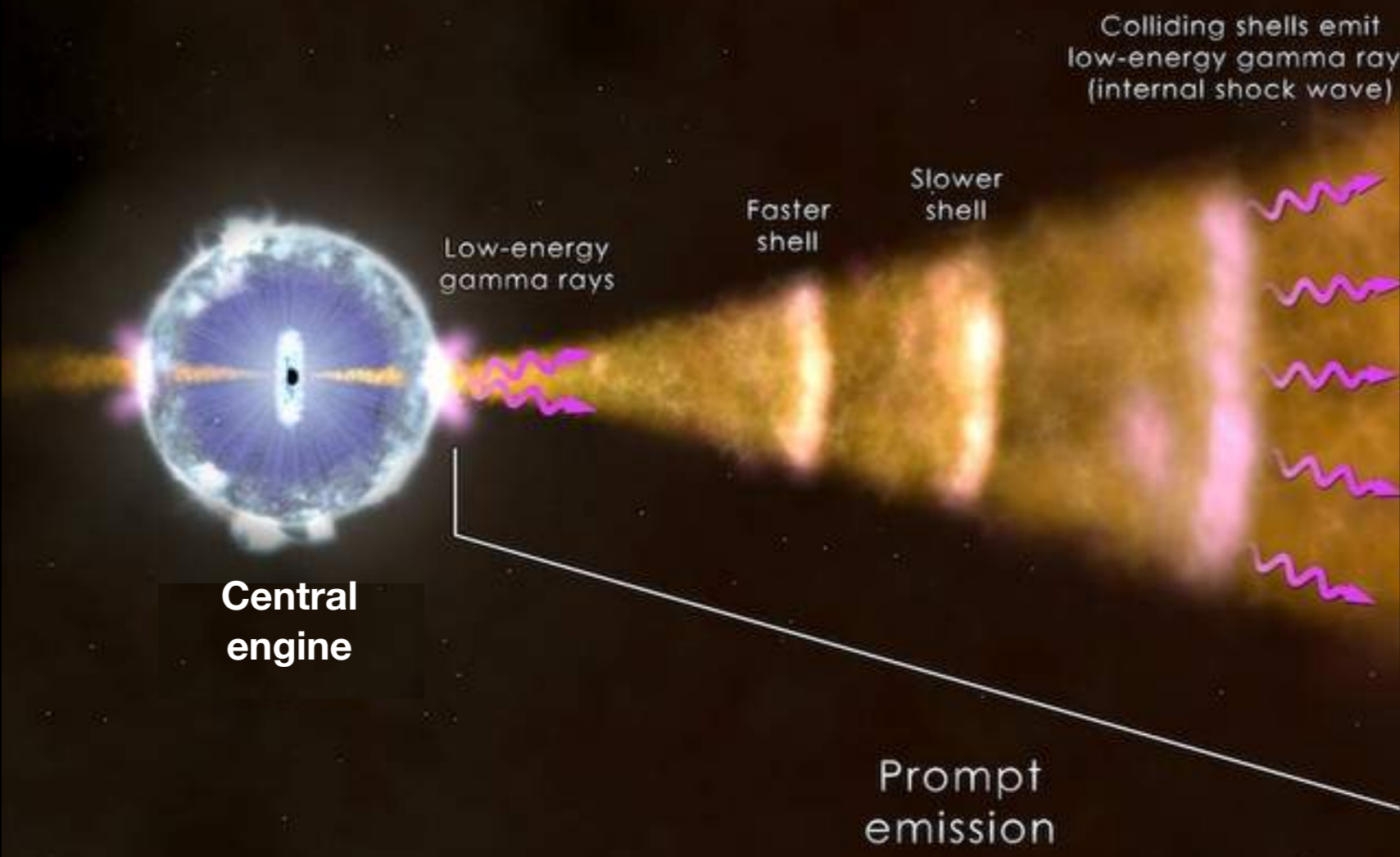


Particle acceleration



**Internal shocks:
energy transfer +
particle acceleration**

Gamma-ray emission



Central engine

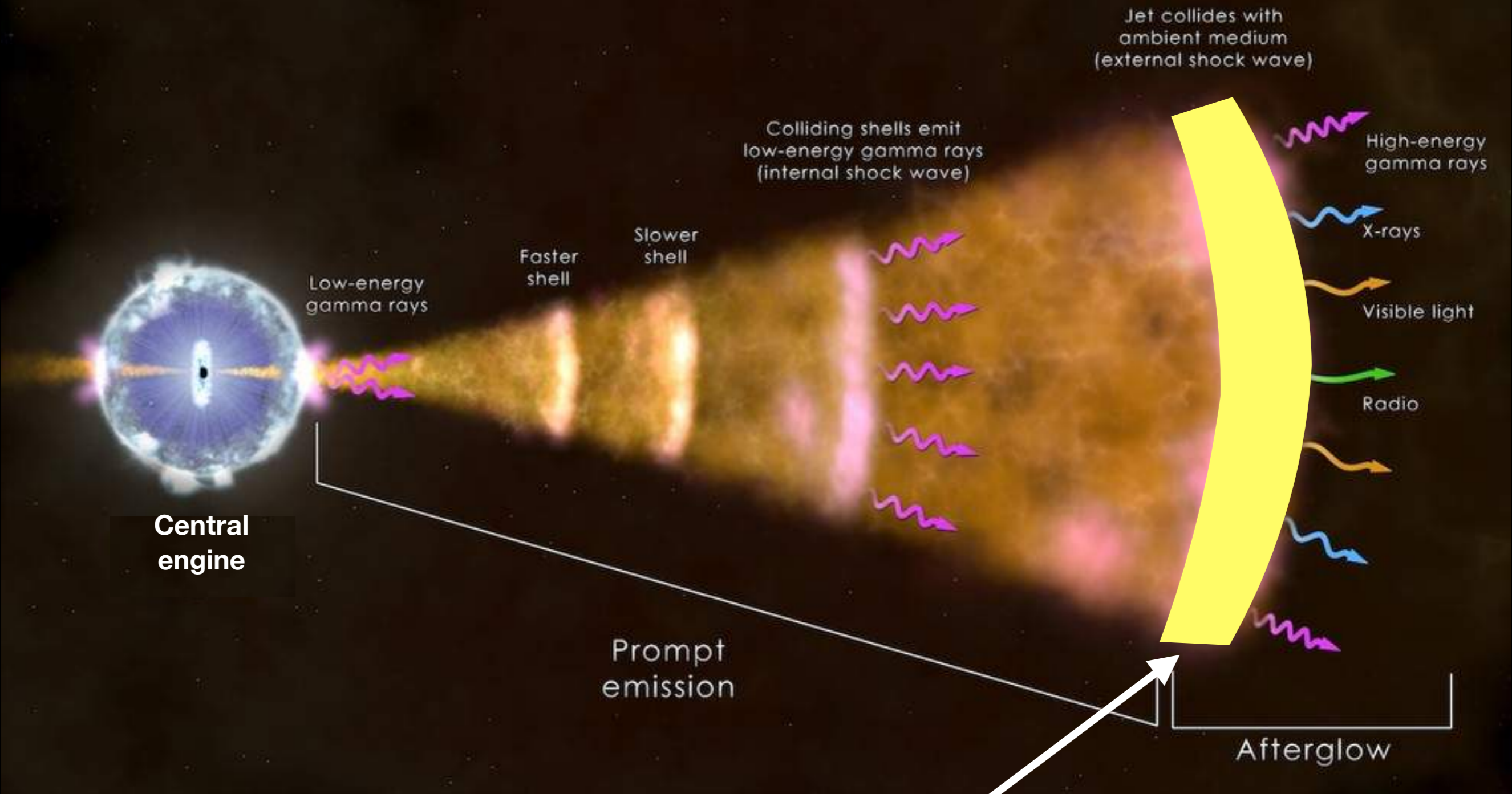
Low-energy gamma rays

Faster shell

Slower shell

Colliding shells emit low-energy gamma ray (internal shock wave)

Prompt emission



Central engine

Low-energy gamma rays

Faster shell

Slower shell

Colliding shells emit low-energy gamma rays (internal shock wave)

Jet collides with ambient medium (external shock wave)

High-energy gamma rays

X-rays

Visible light

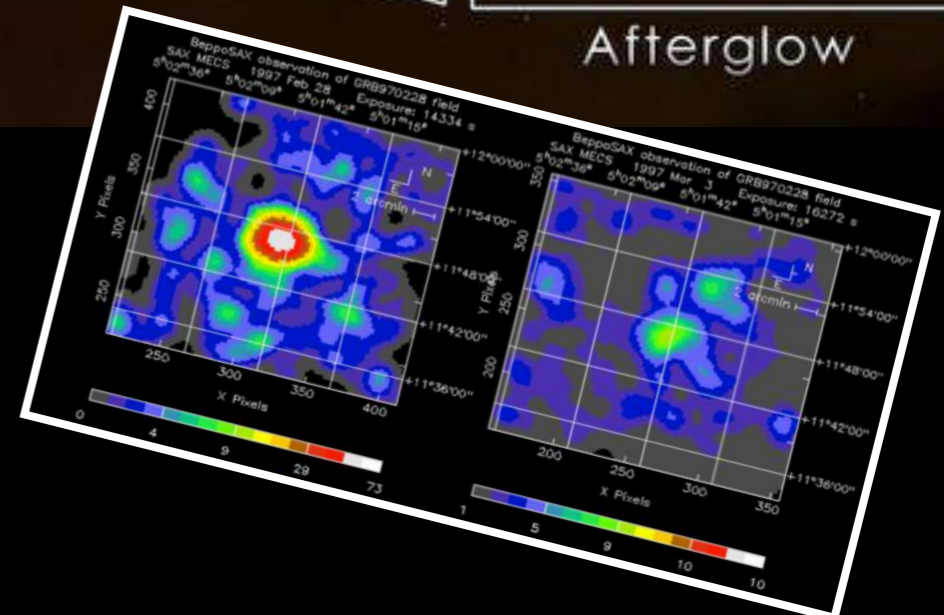
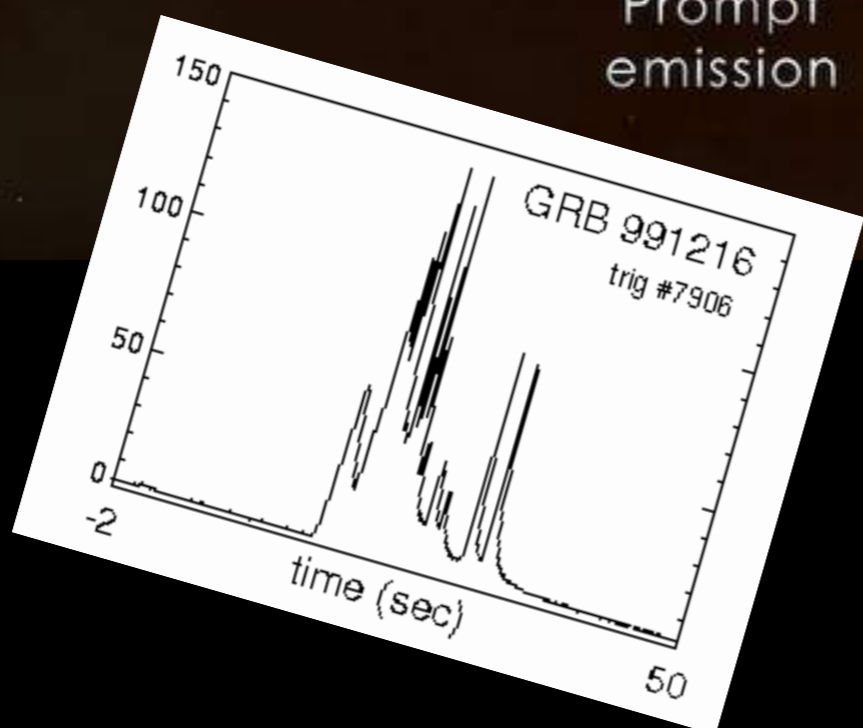
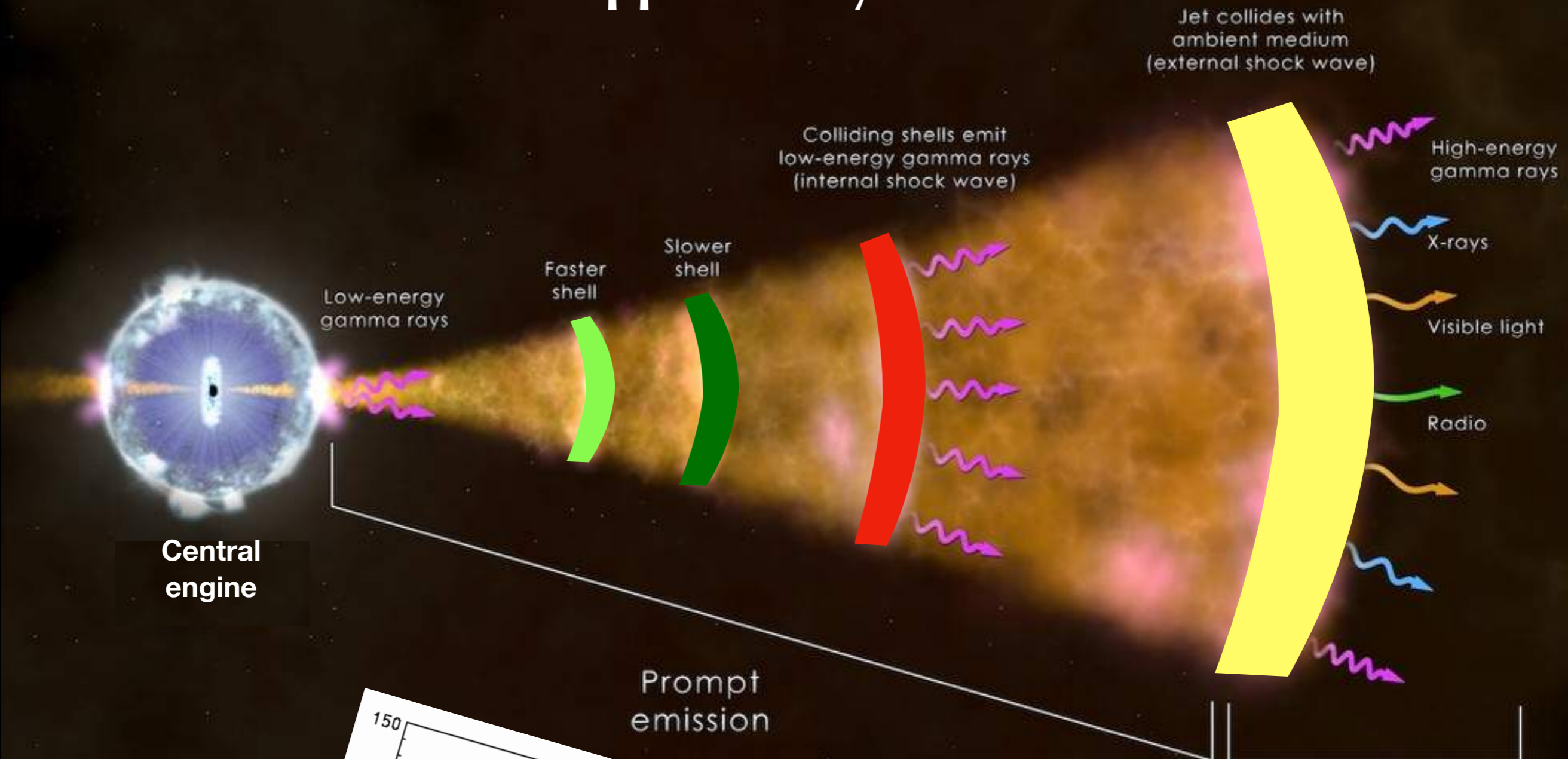
Radio

Prompt emission

Afterglow

Deceleration in contact with interstellar medium

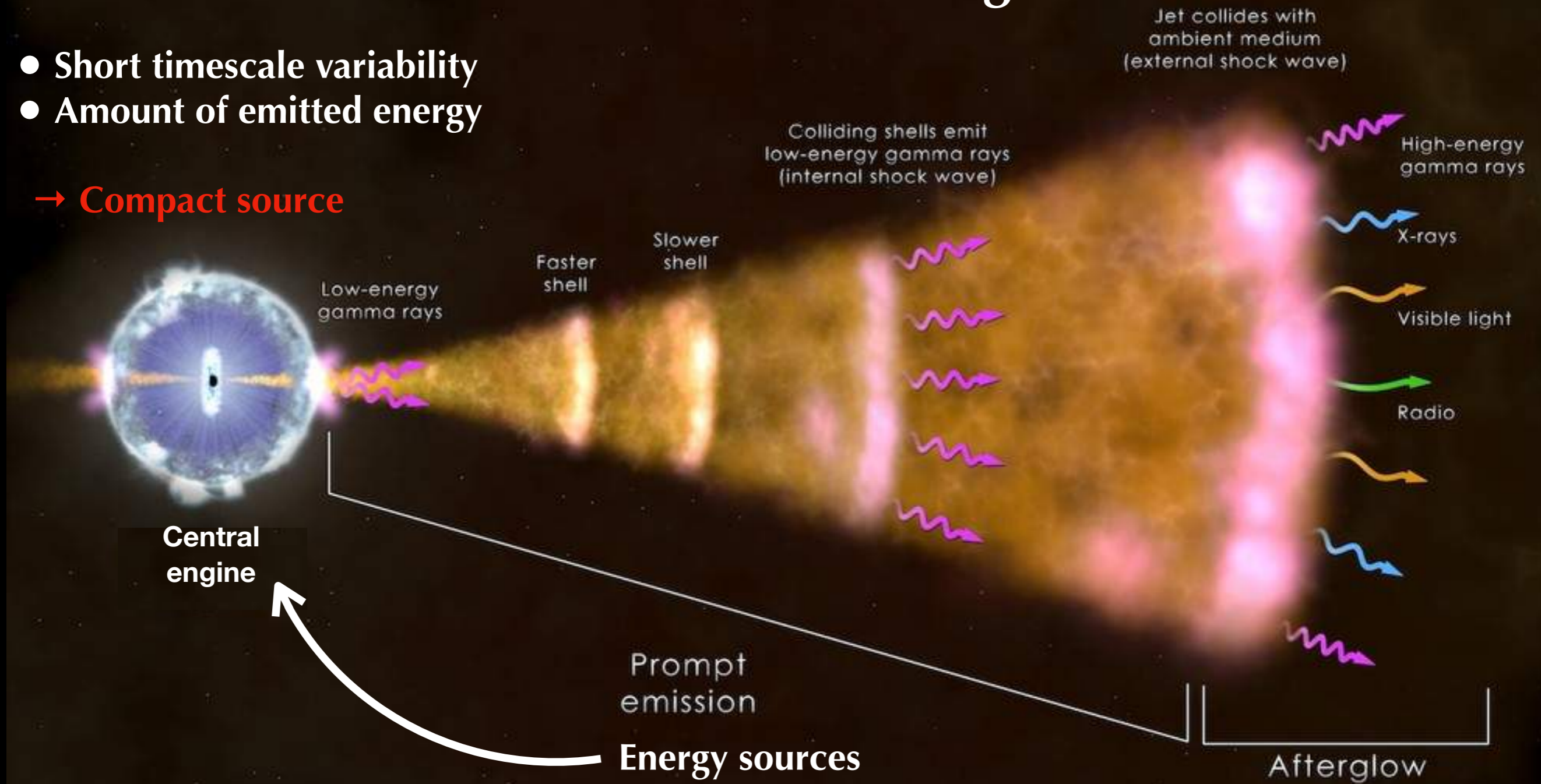
A scenario supported by observational data



What is the central engine ?

- Short timescale variability
- Amount of emitted energy

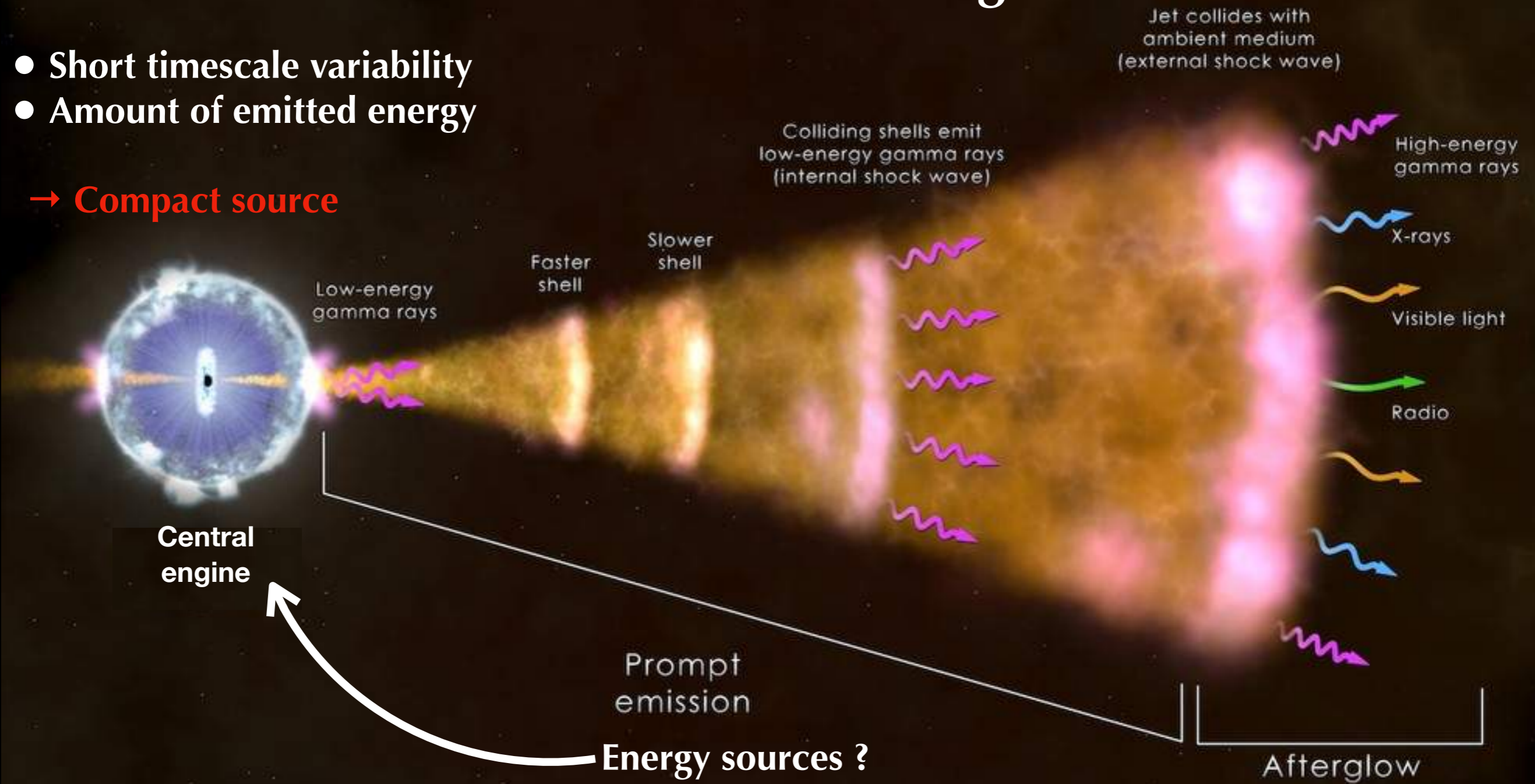
→ Compact source



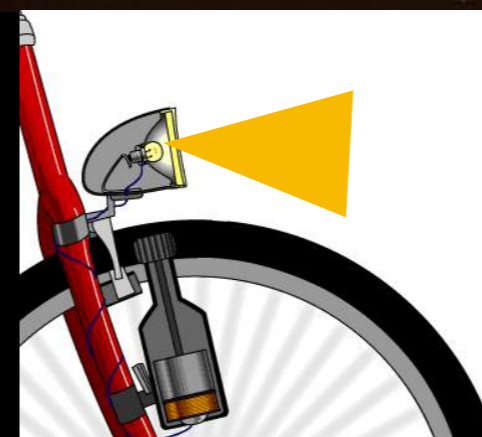
What is the central engine ?

- Short timescale variability
- Amount of emitted energy

→ Compact source



Accretion

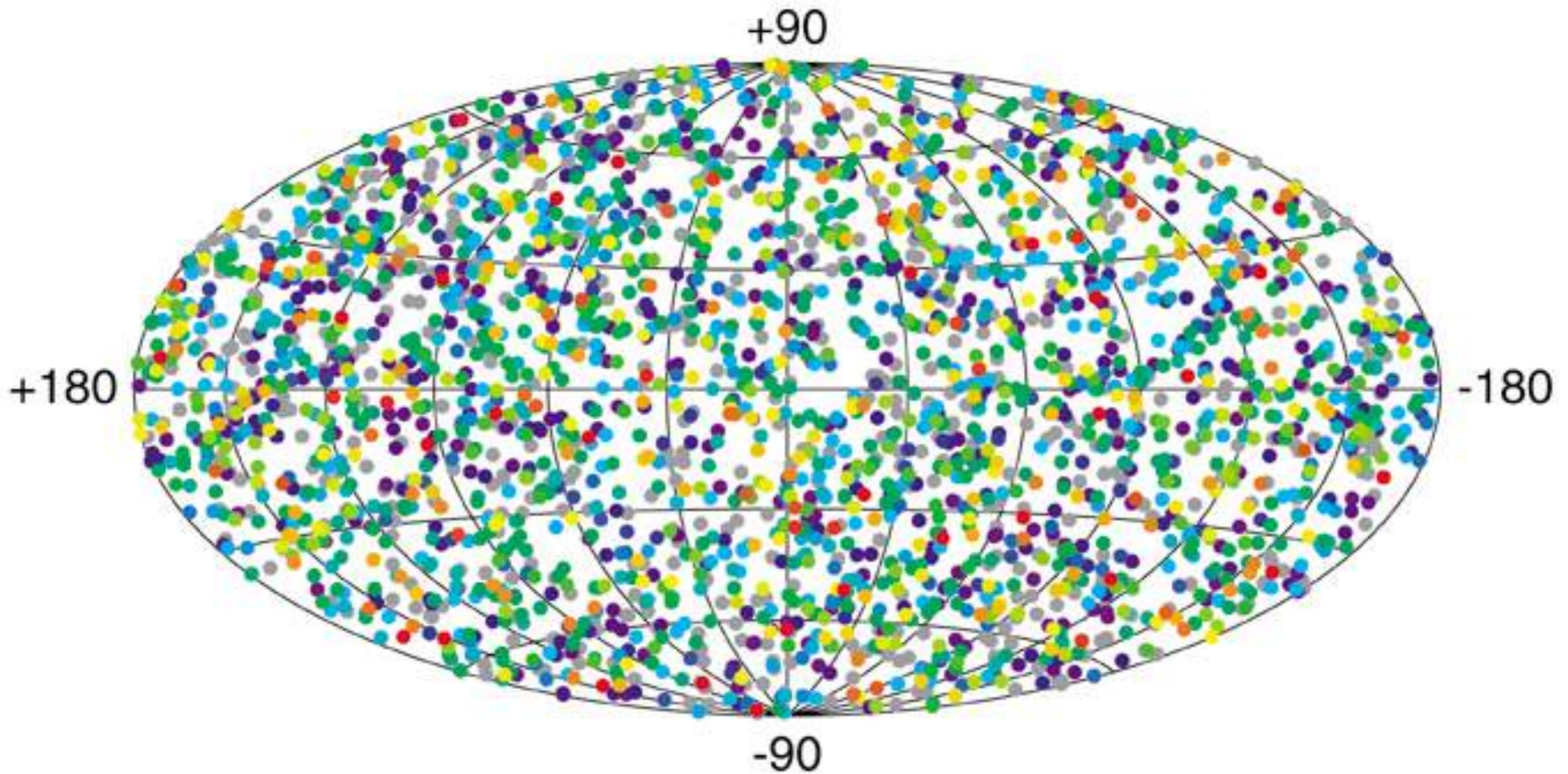


Rotation + magnetic field

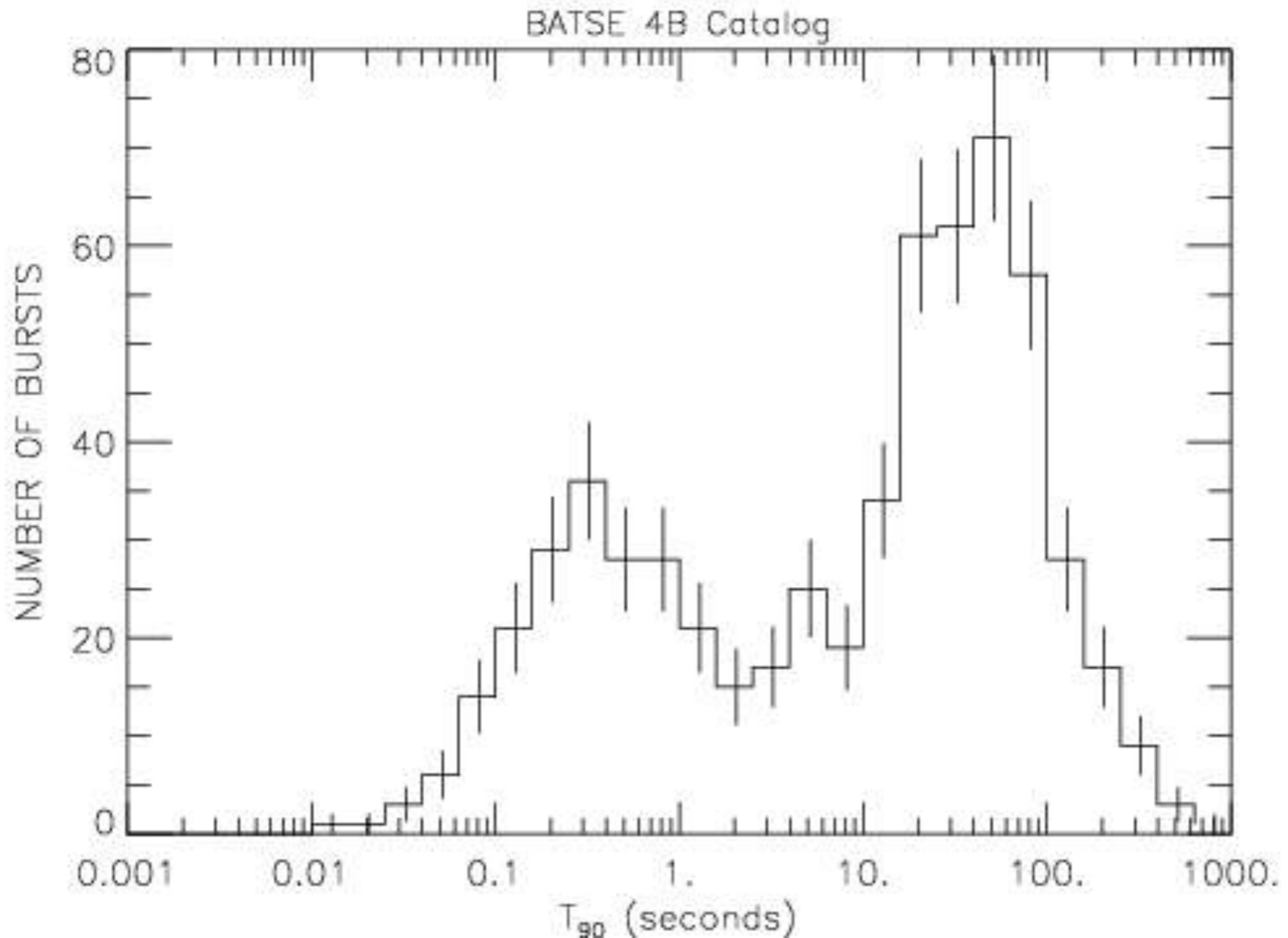
Close to a compact object of some stellar masses

Where do GRB come from ?

2704 BATSE Gamma-Ray Bursts



Gamma-ray bursts

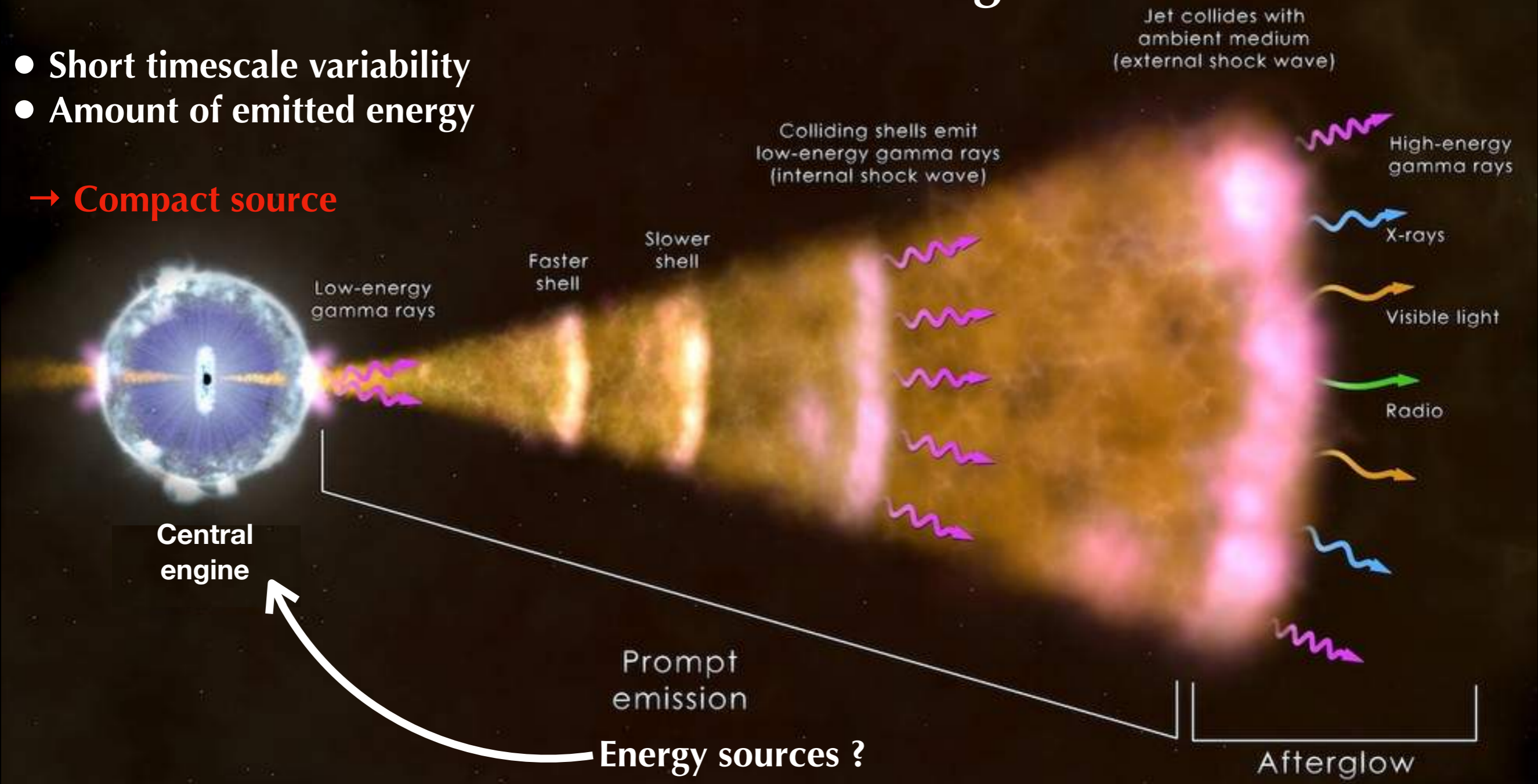


Same physics but different energy reservoir ?

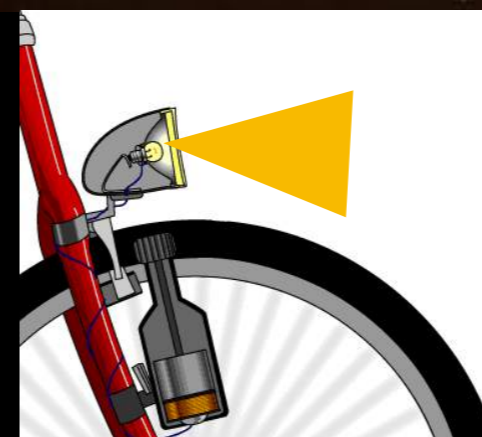
What is the central engine ?

- Short timescale variability
- Amount of emitted energy

→ Compact source



Accretion

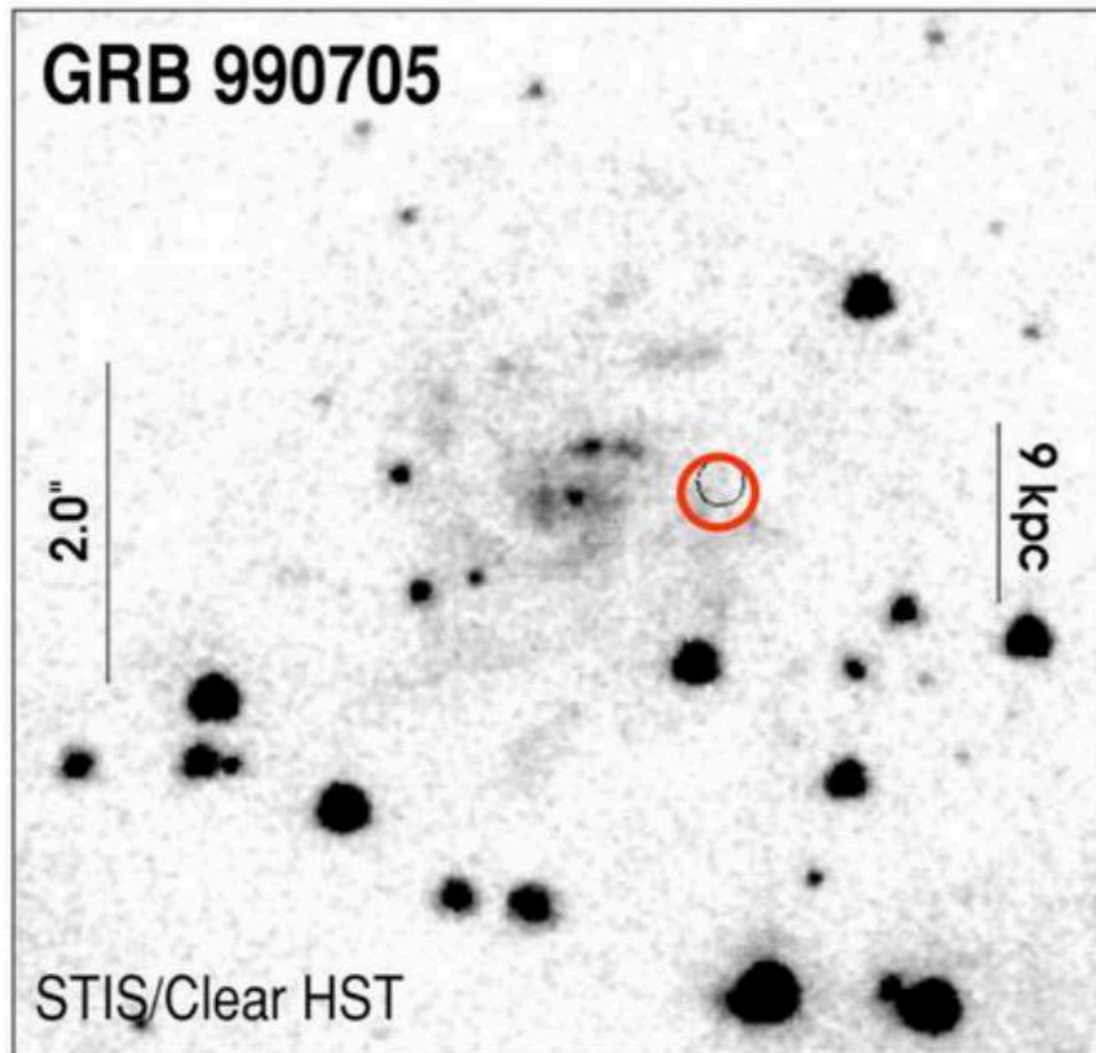


Rotation + magnetic field

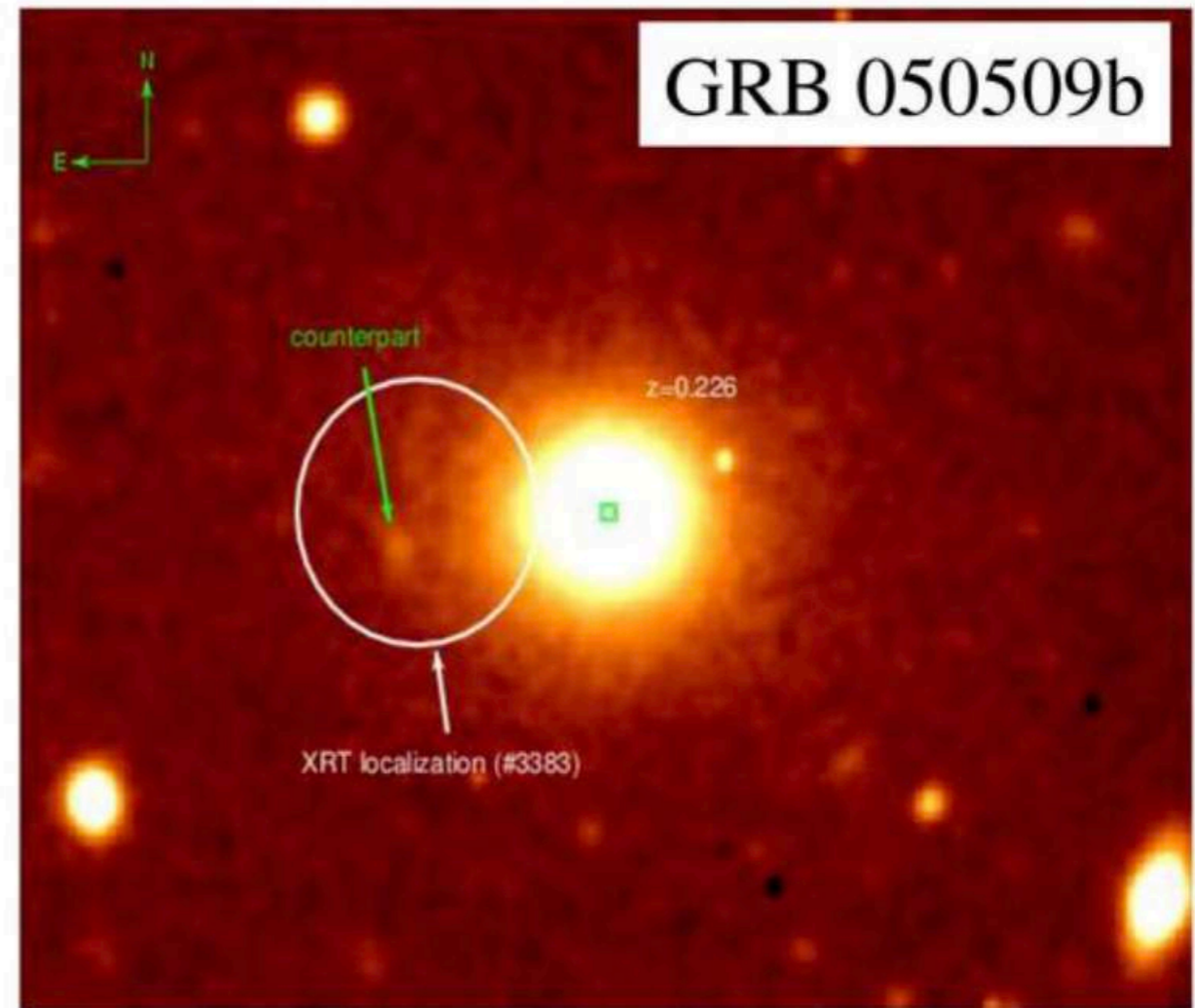
Close to a compact object of some stellar masses

Gamma-ray bursts

Further understanding GRBs requires to study their environment



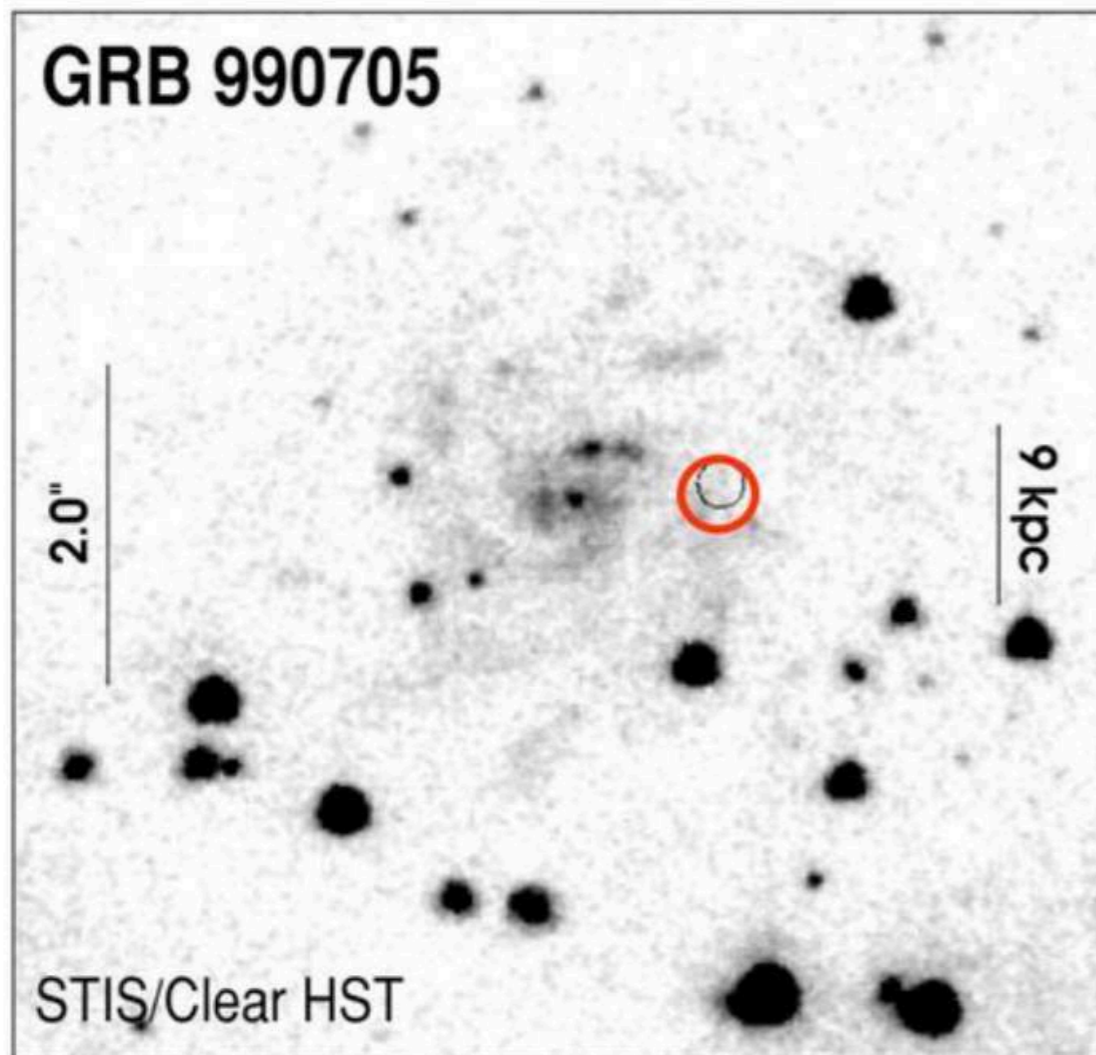
High star-forming rate



Old stellar population

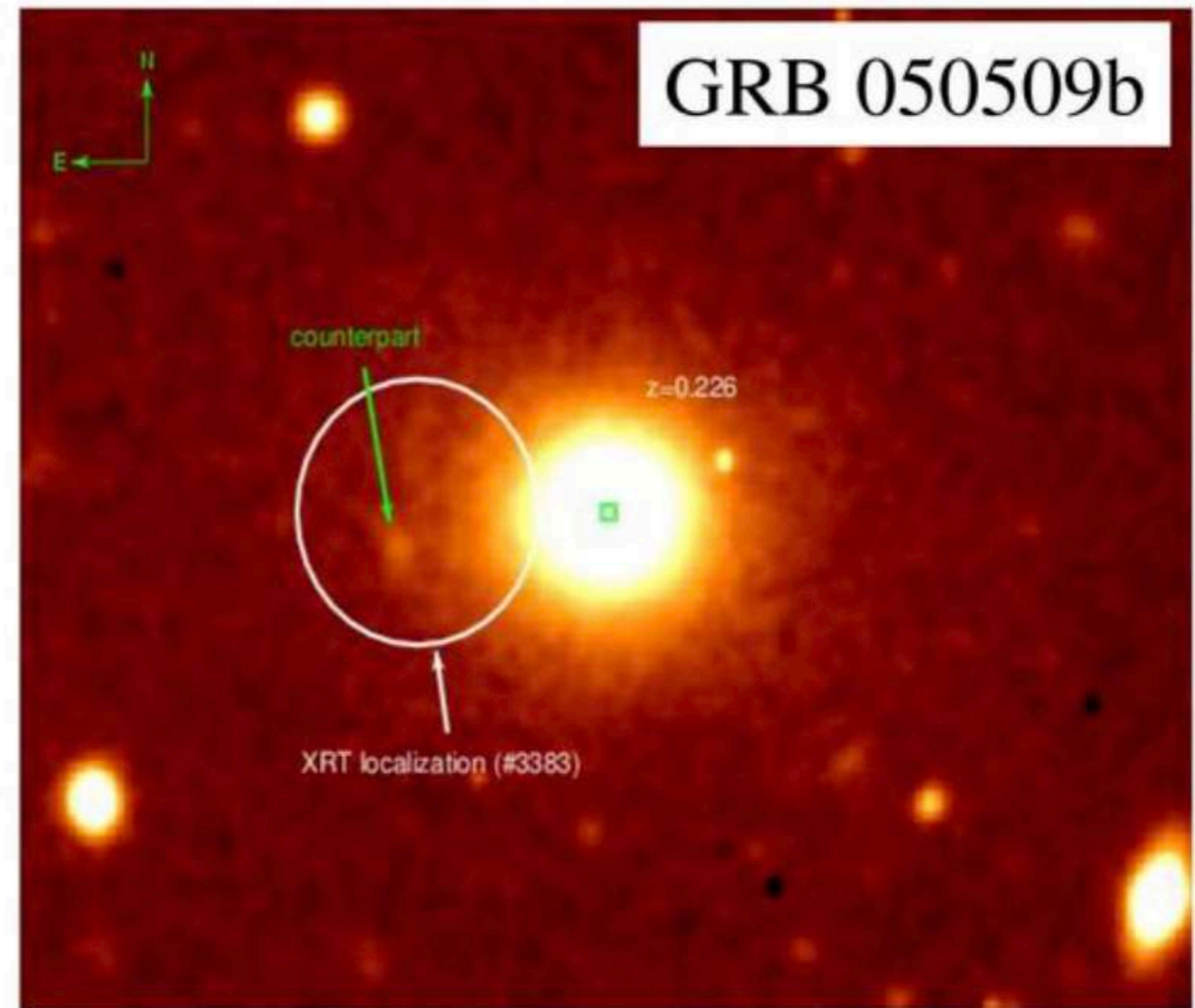
Gamma-ray bursts

Further understanding GRBs requires to study their environment



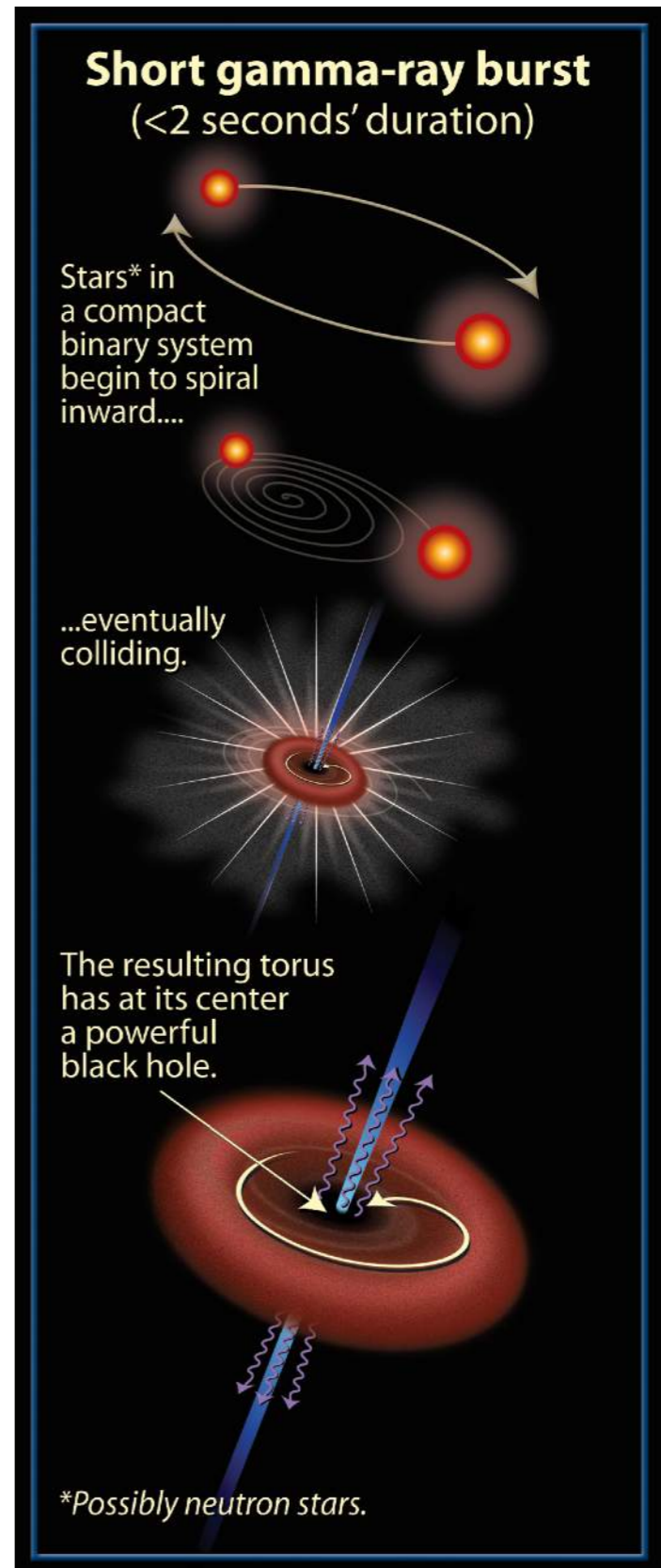
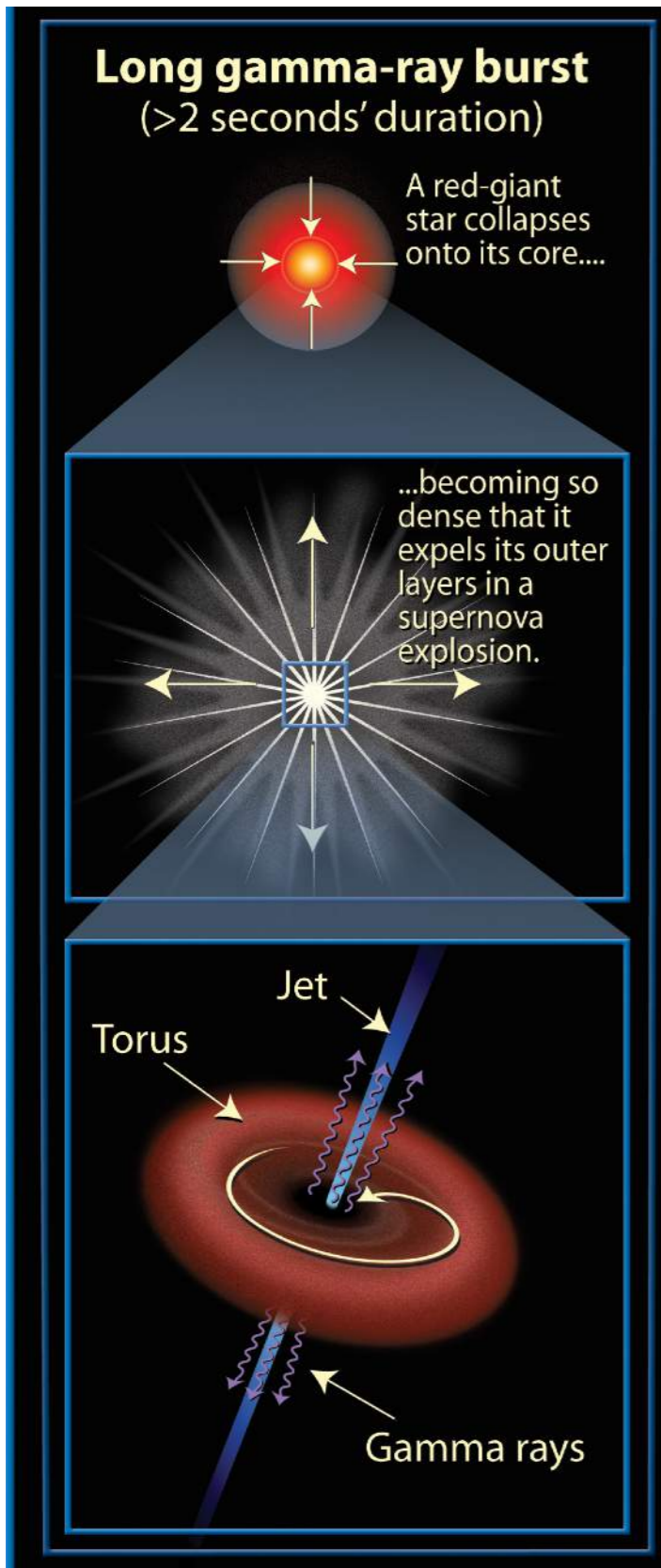
High star-forming rate

Young sources ?



Old stellar population

Old sources ?



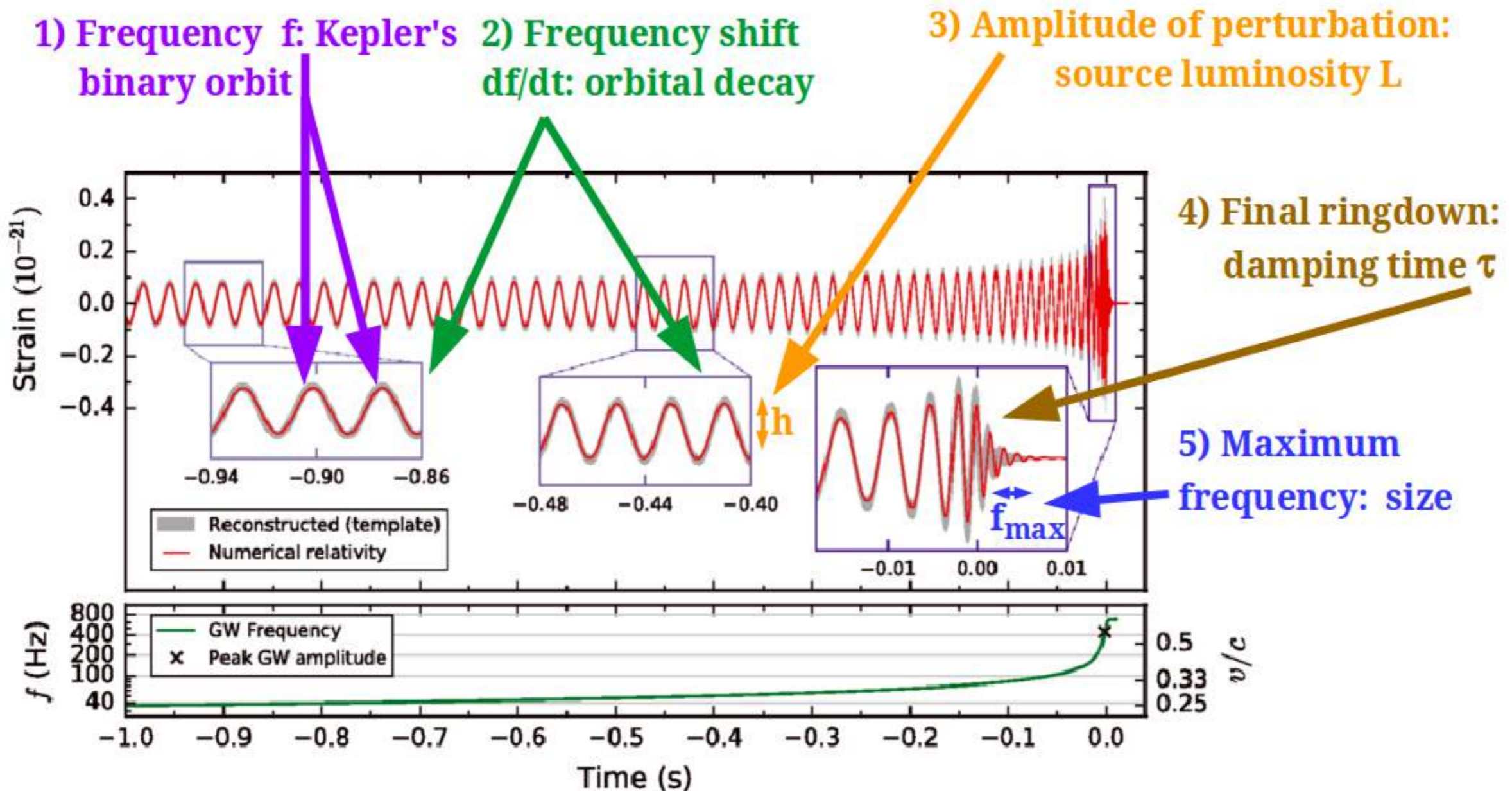
Connection long GRB / supernova (end of life of massive star)



Connection short GRB / neutron star mergers

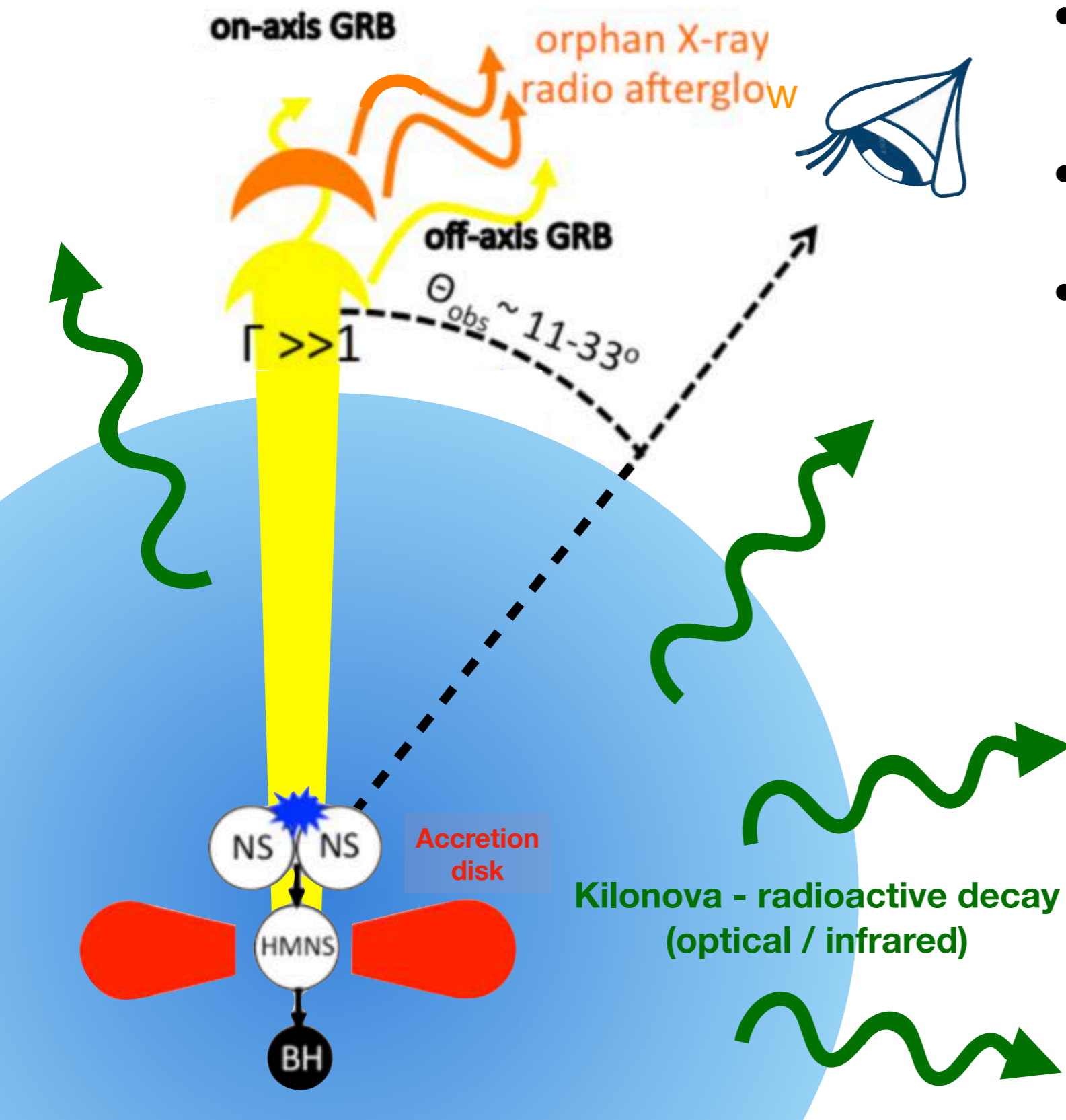


Multi-messenger emission of short GRBs

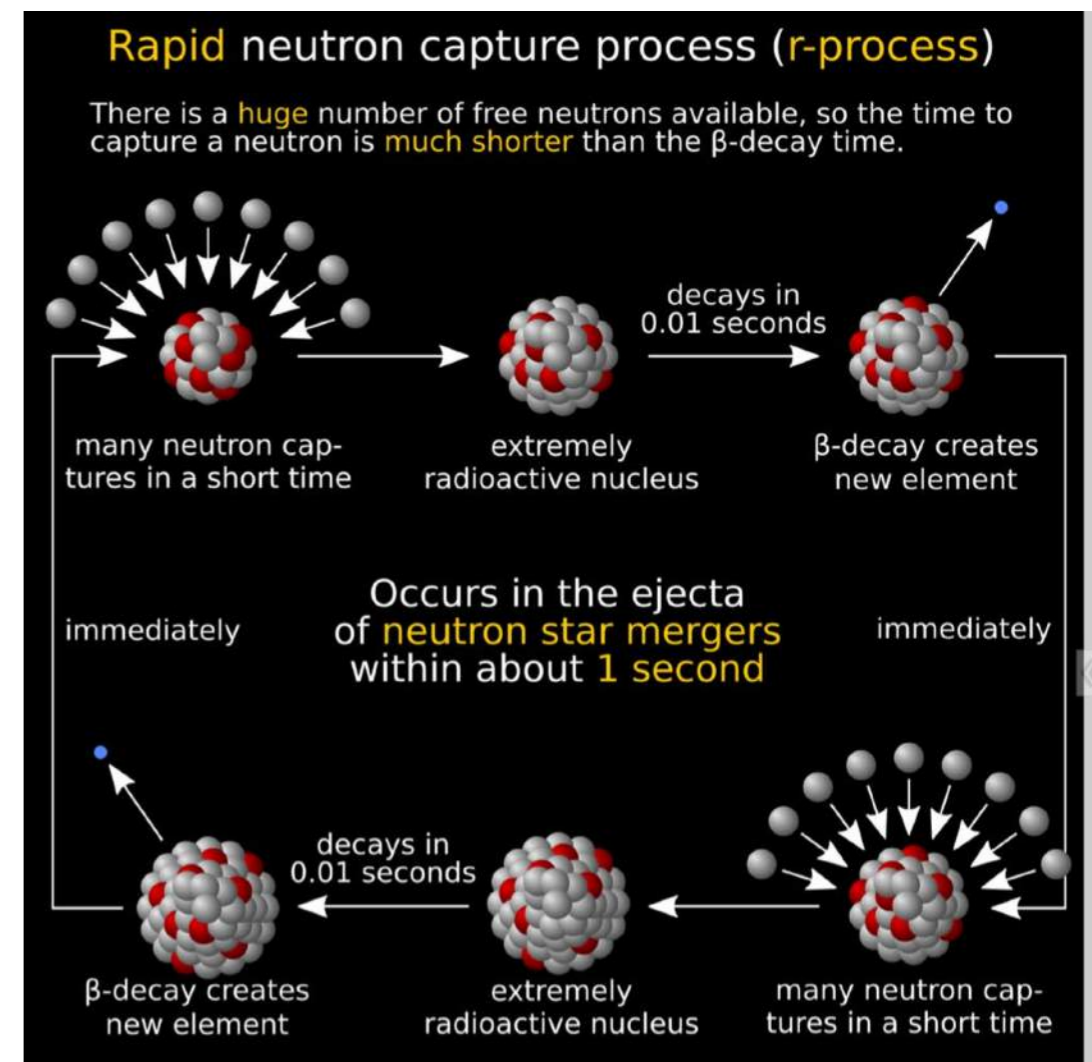


Multi-messenger emission of short GRBs

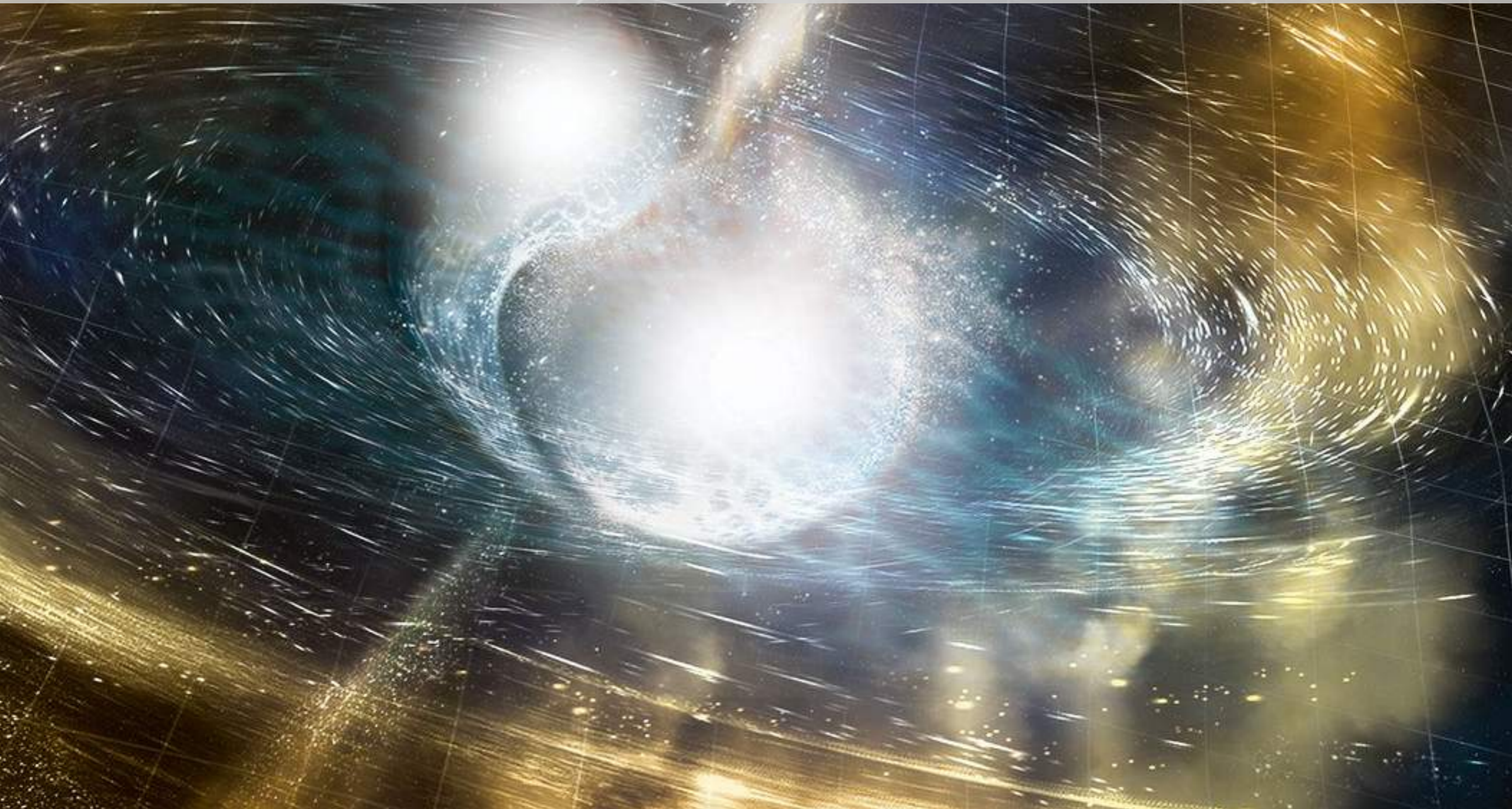
Expected electromagnetic signal (if neutron stars involved)



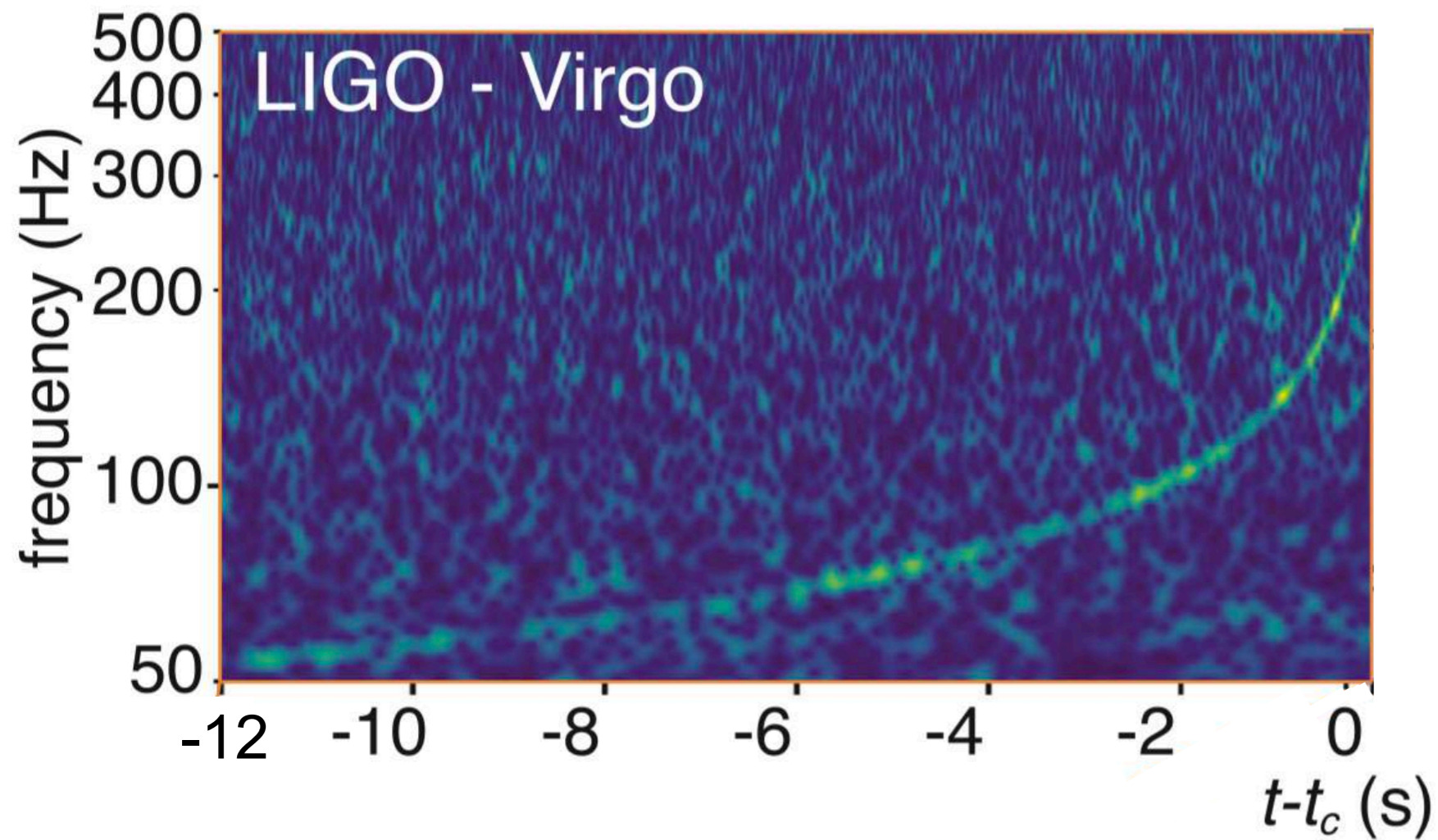
- «r-Process» expected to happen in environment with high density of free neutrons.
- Set of nuclear reactions responsible for the production of heaviest elements ($> \text{Pb}$).
- Succession of rapid neutron captures by one heavy nuclei.



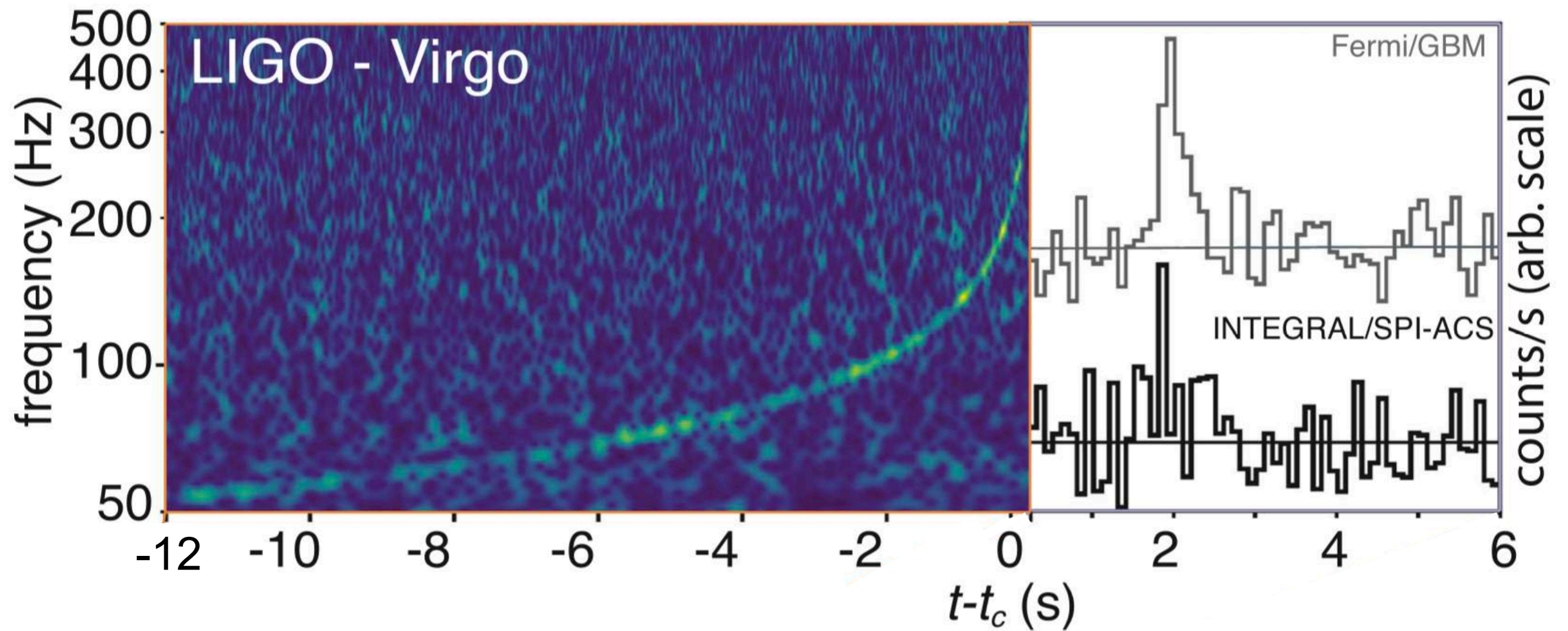
Gravitational-wave signal GW170817

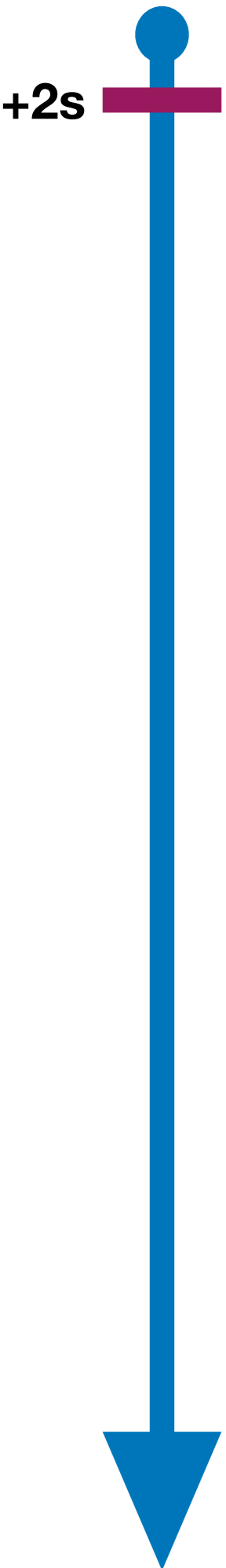


August 17, 2017 at 14h41m04s ...

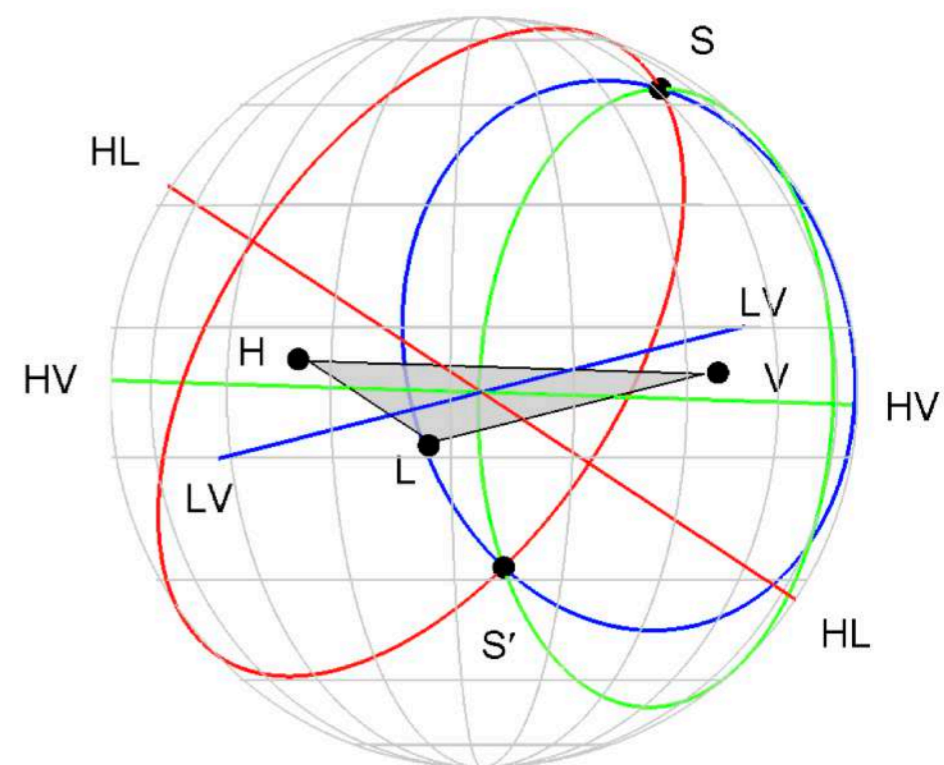
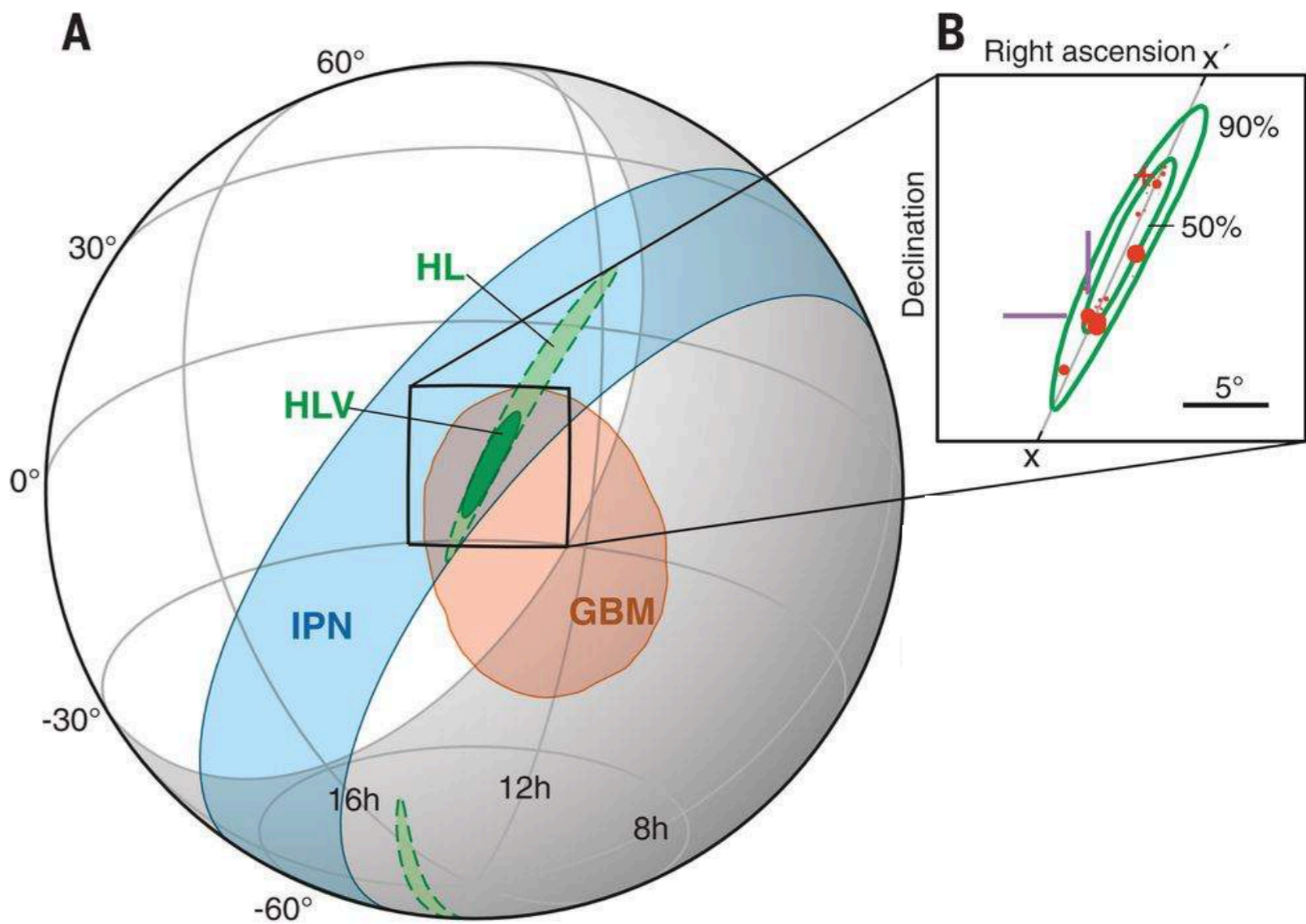
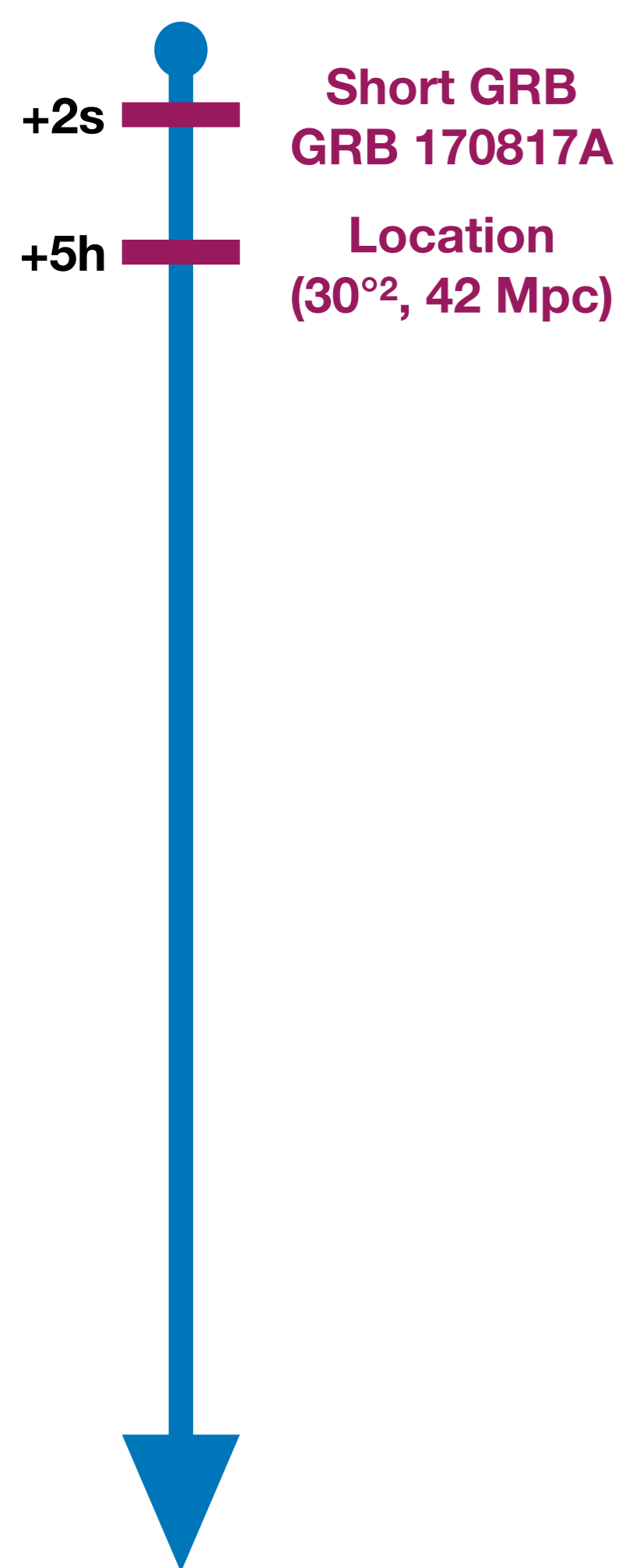


August 17, 2017 at 14h41m04s ...





**Short GRB
GRB 170817A**

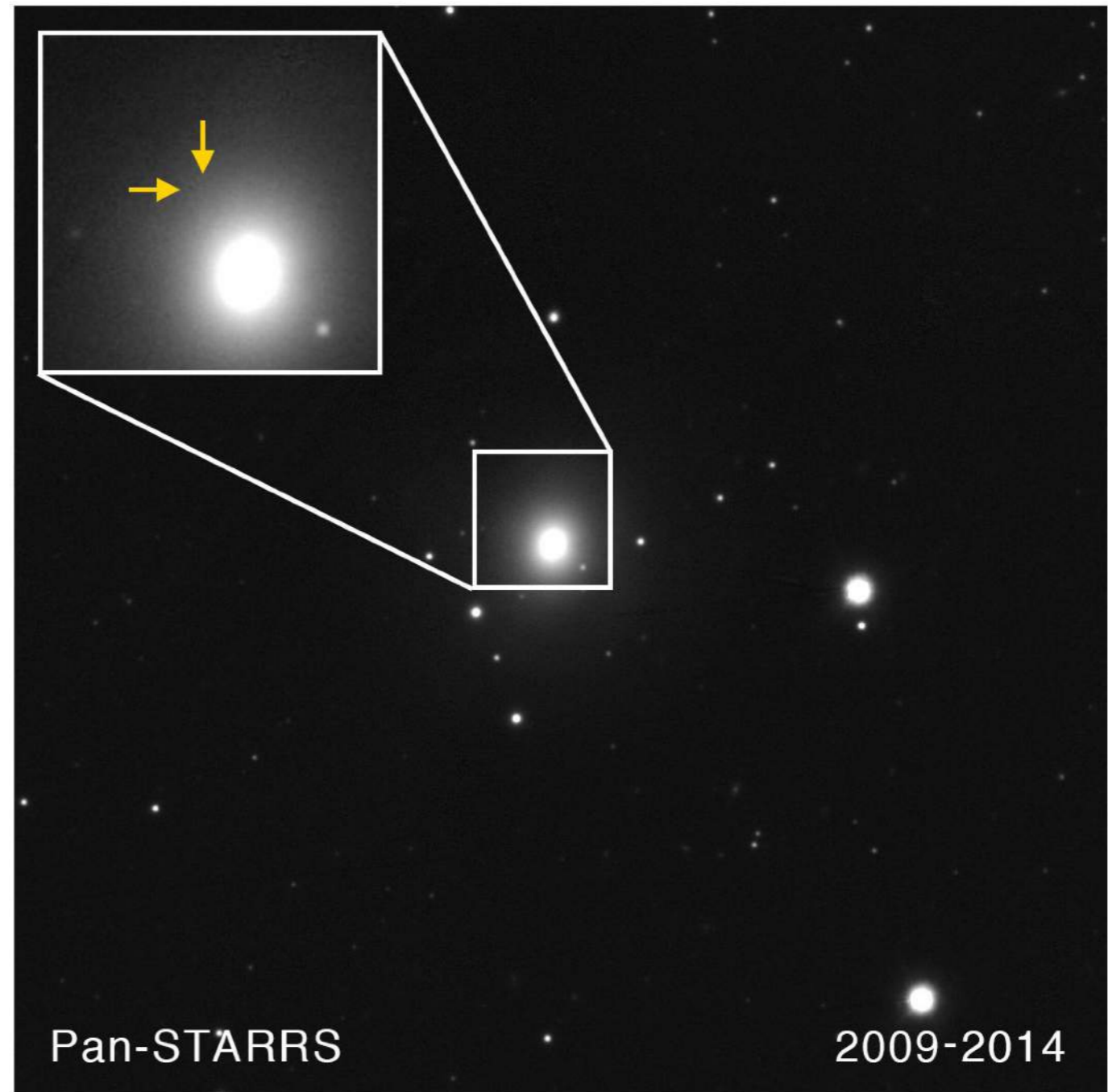
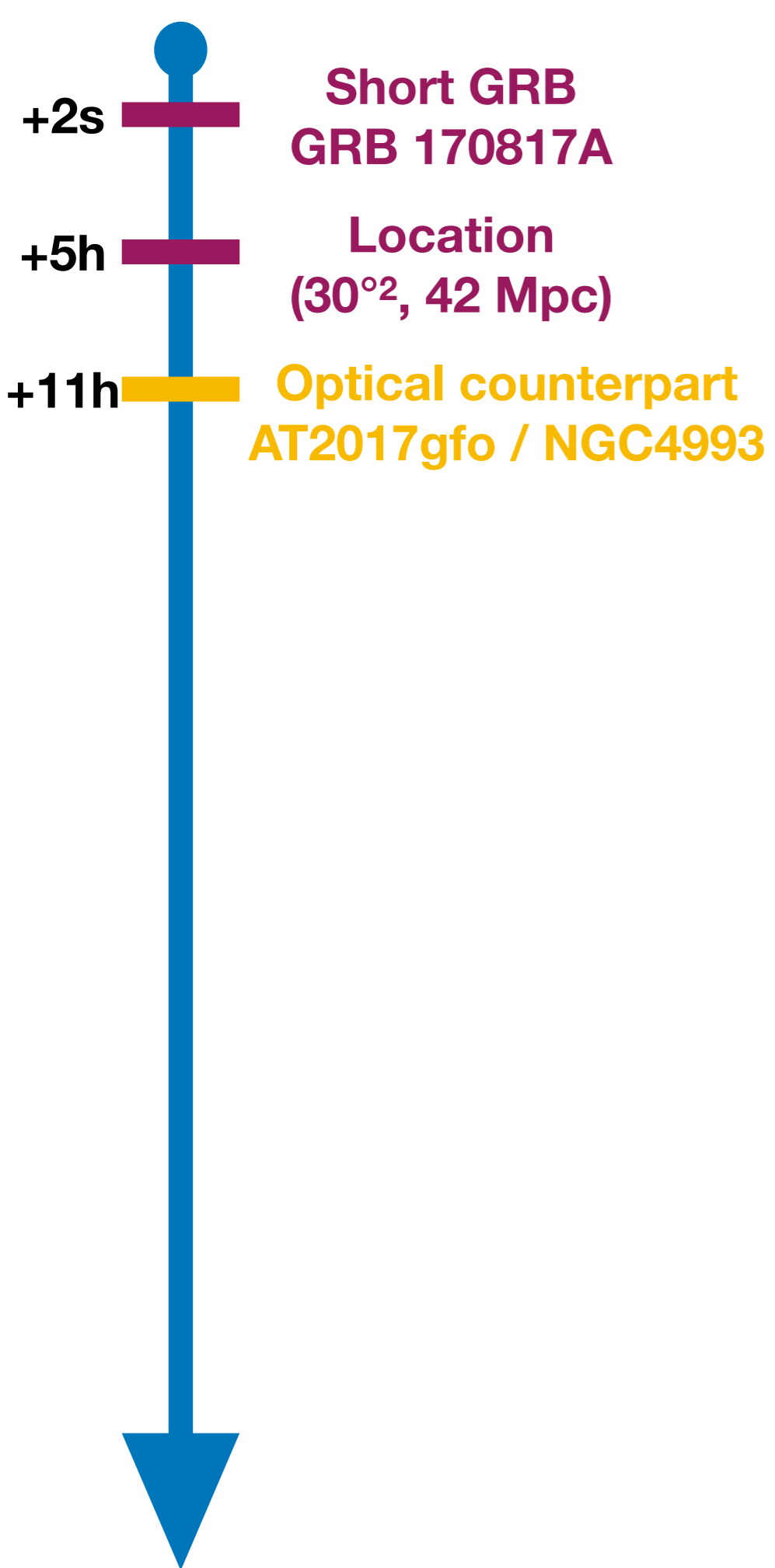


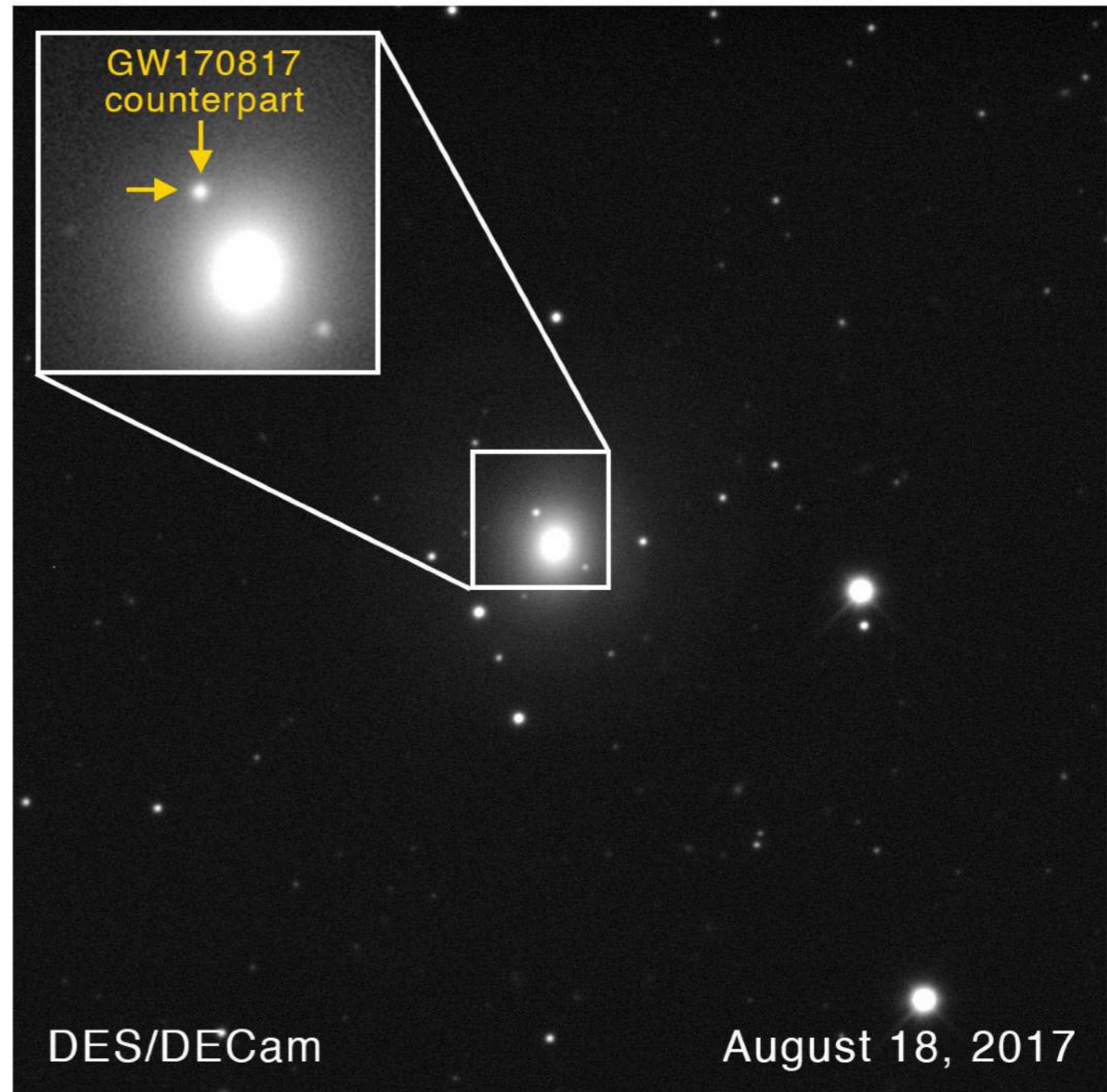
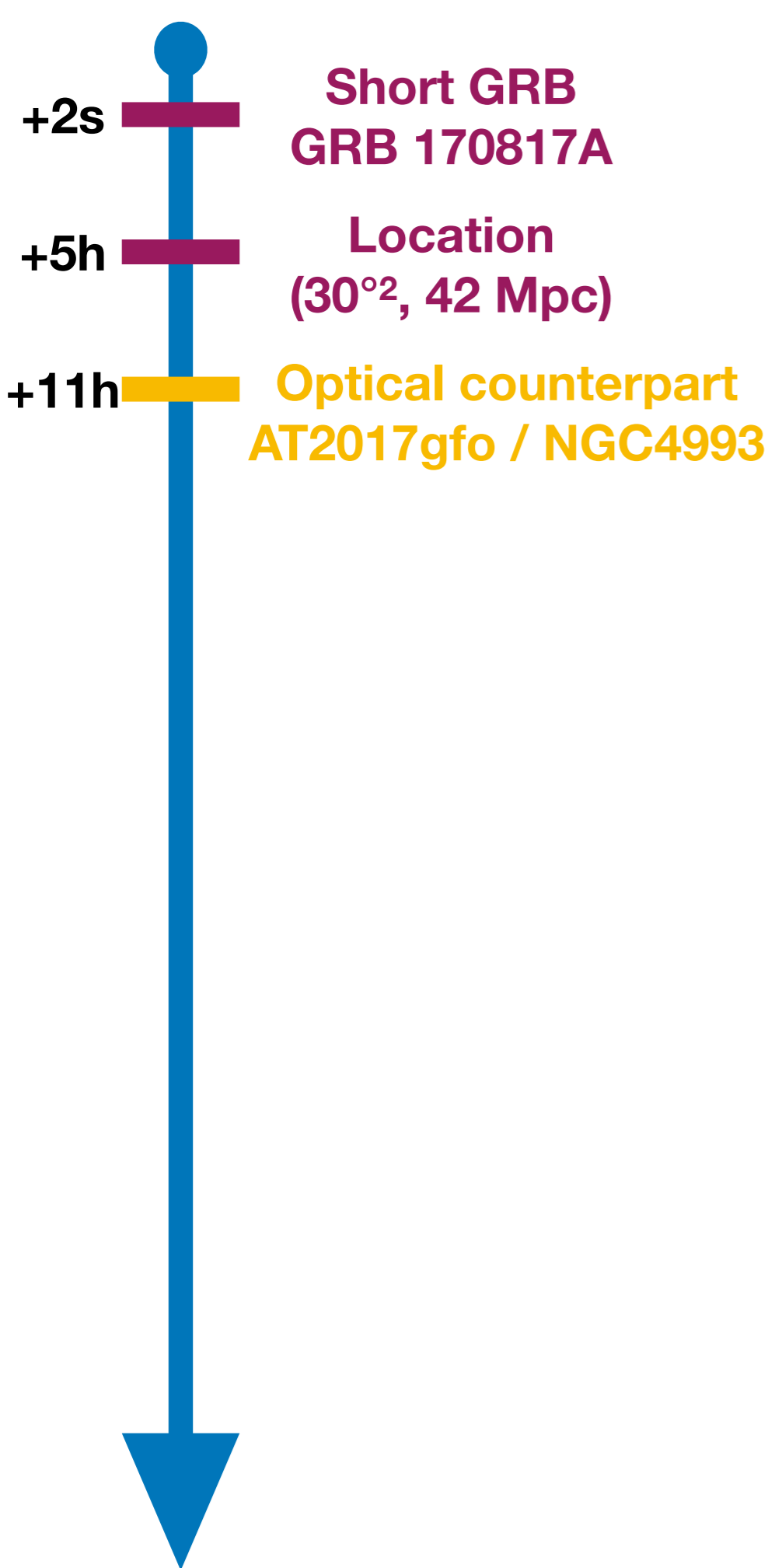
Earth

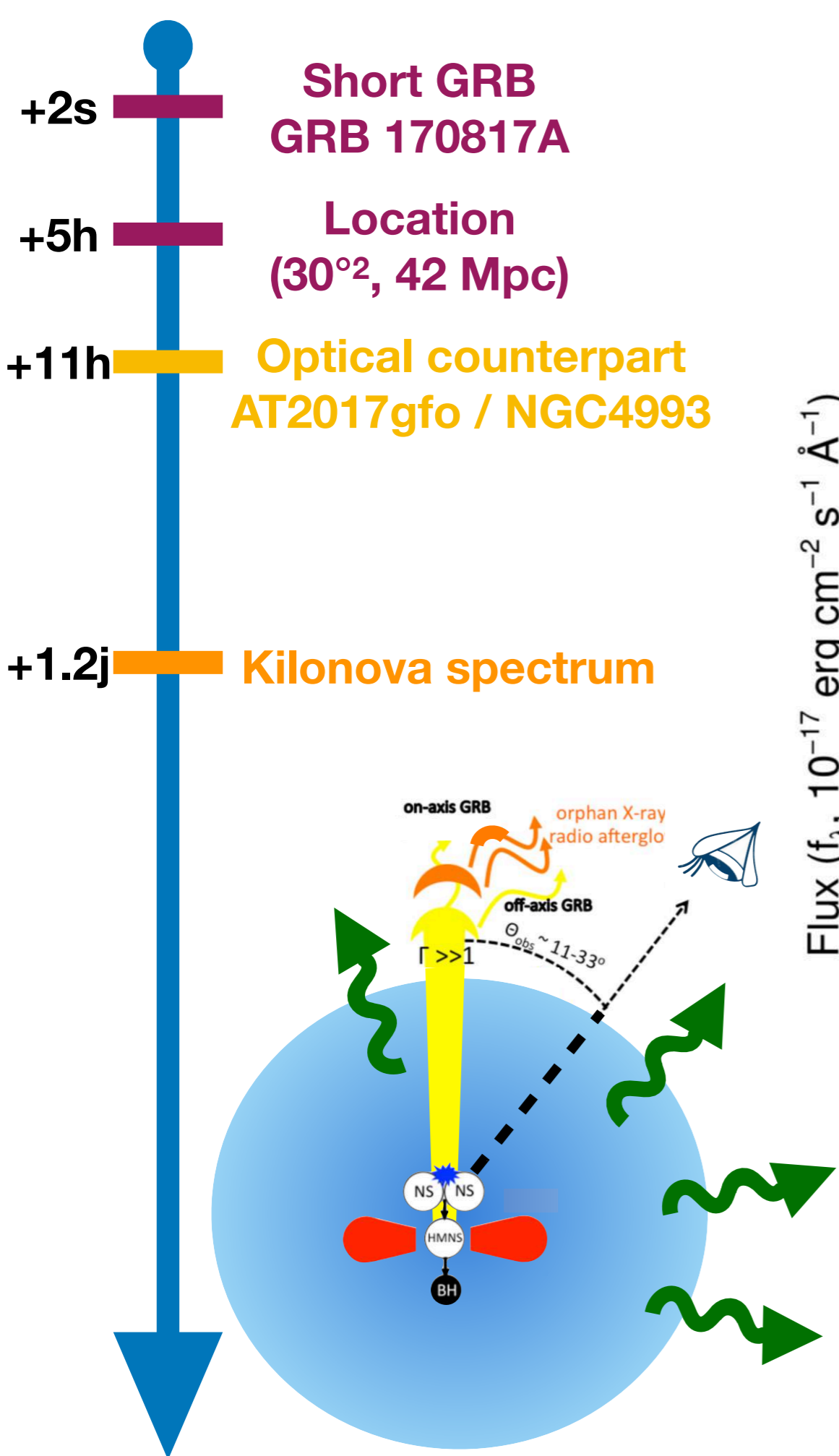
Space



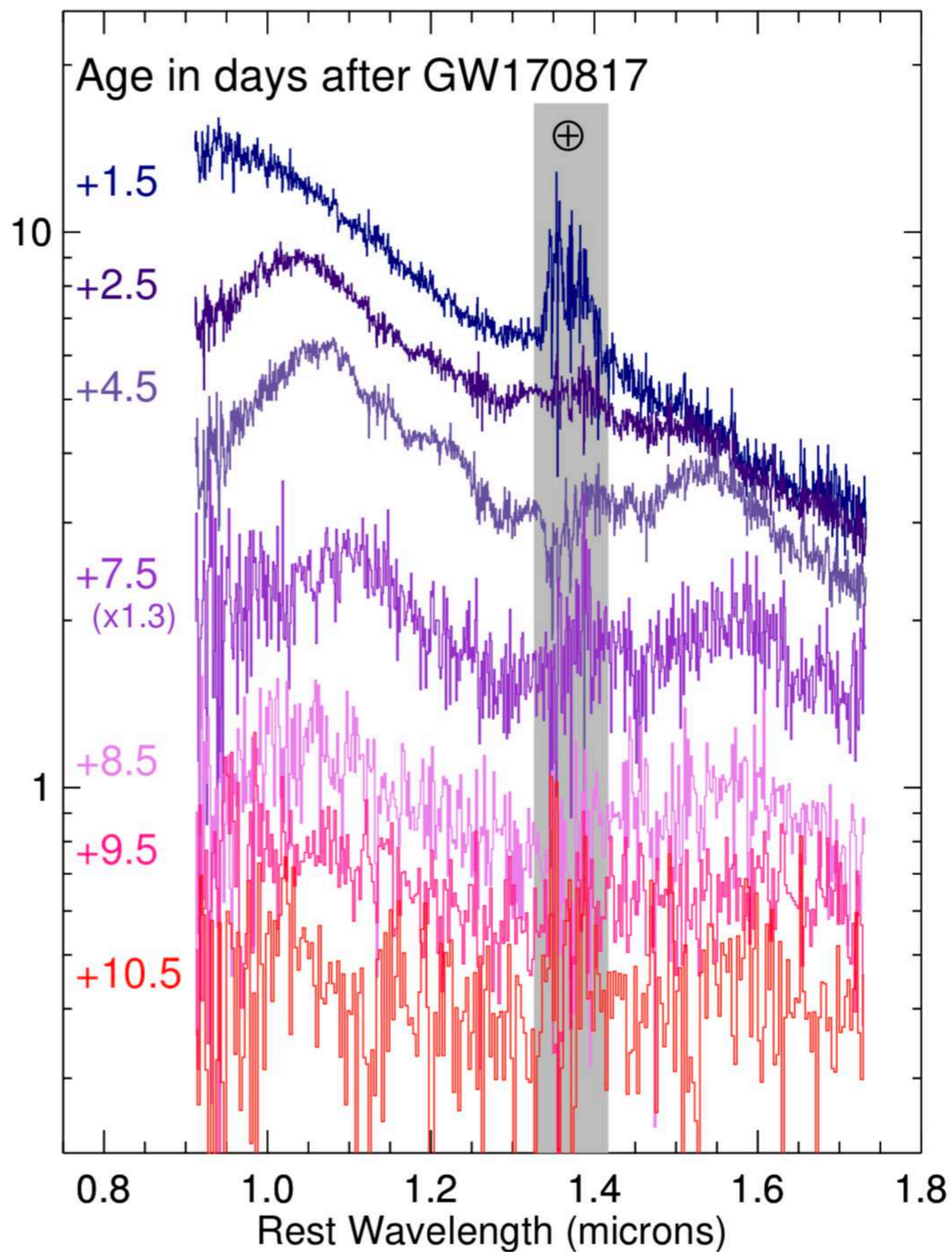
Objective: localize the source / electromagnetic counterpart as fast as possible

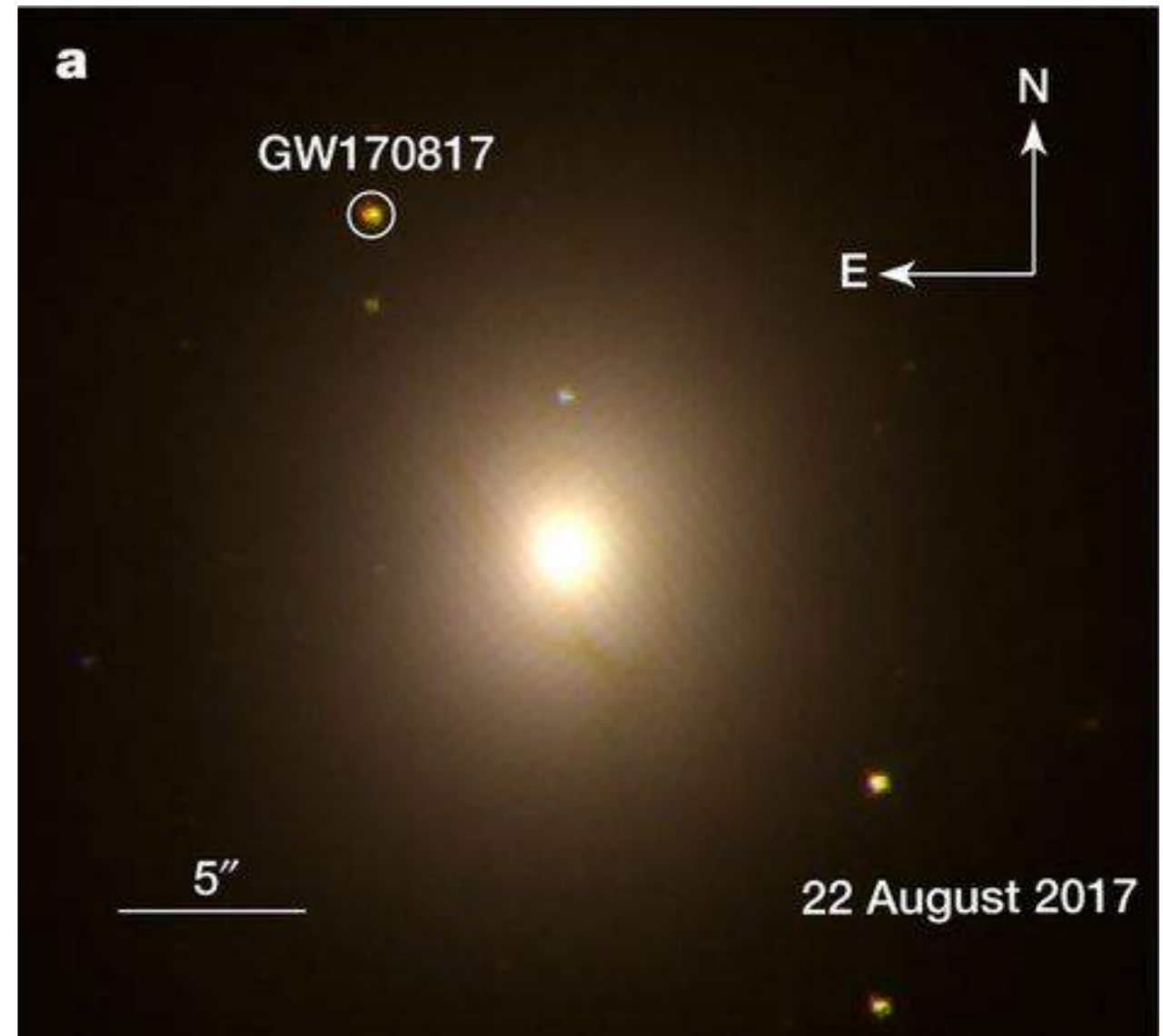
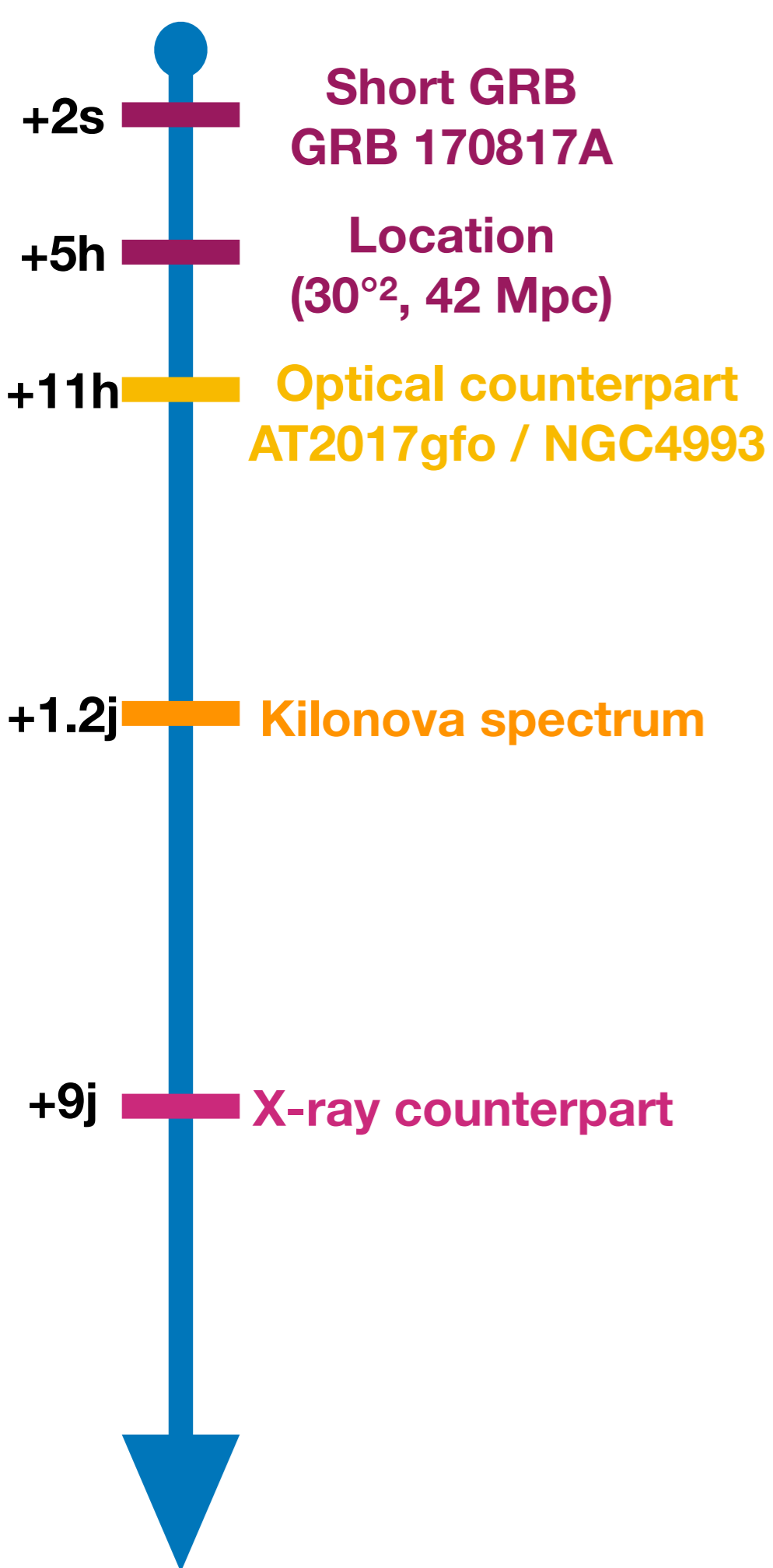


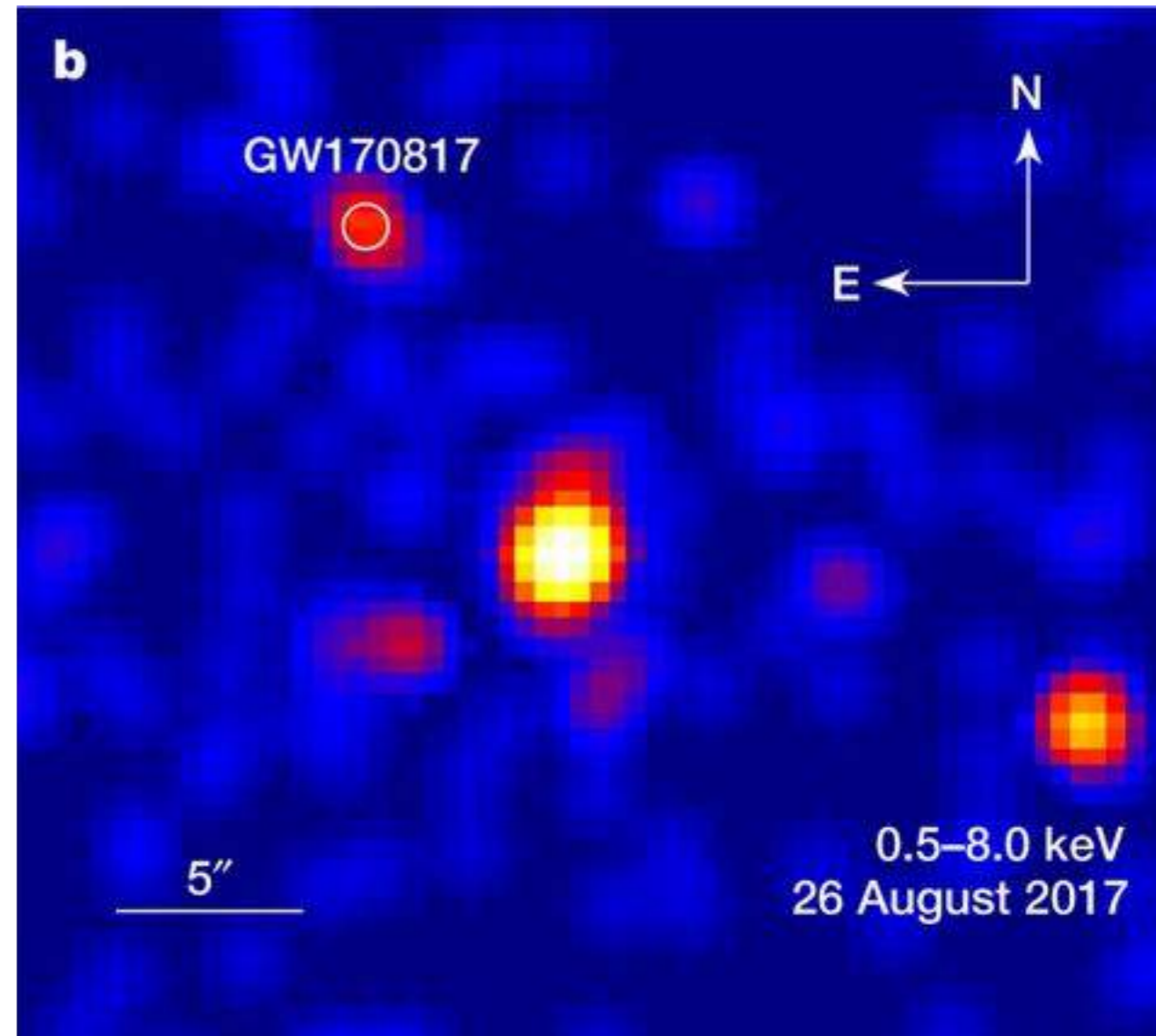
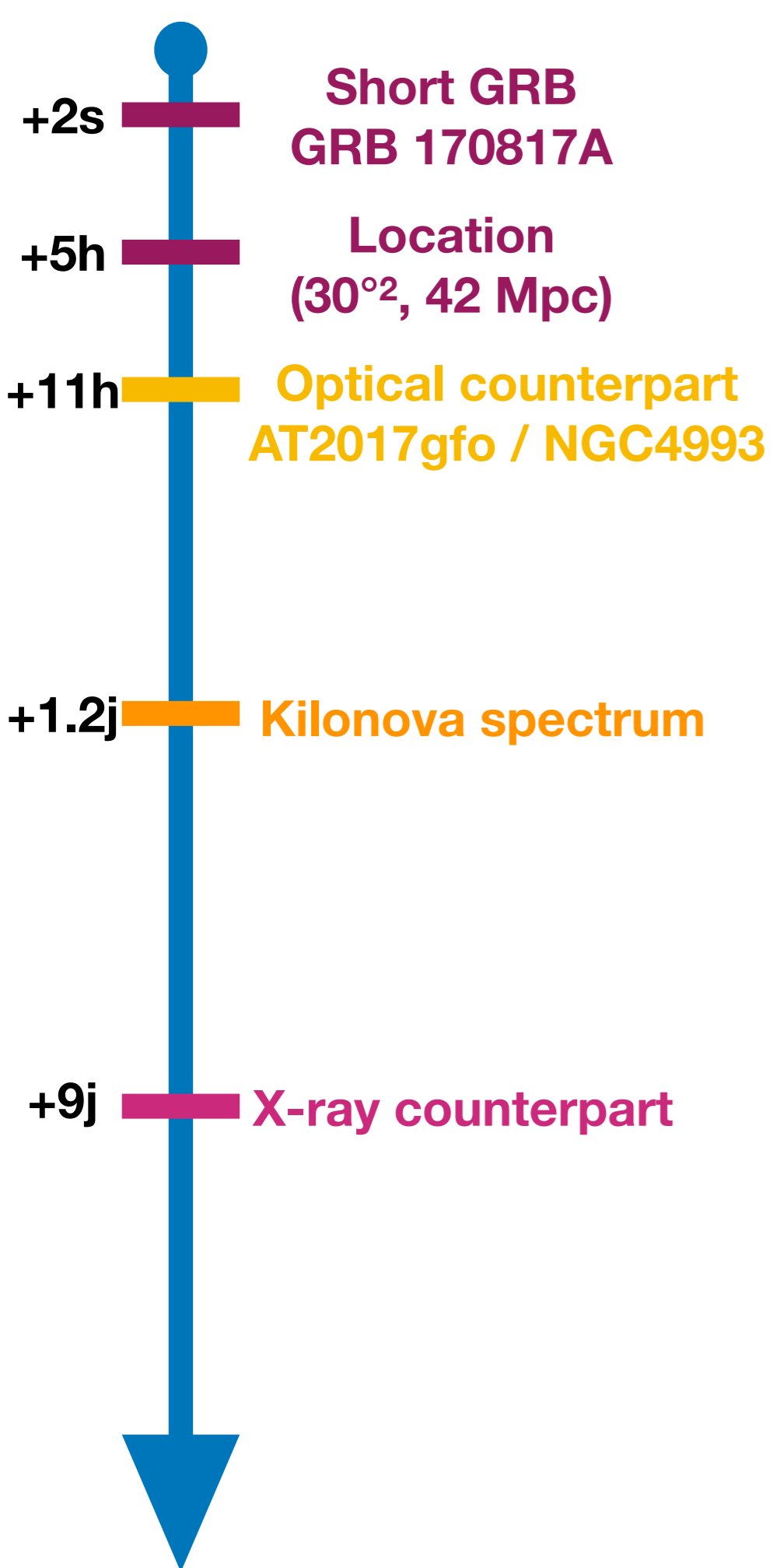


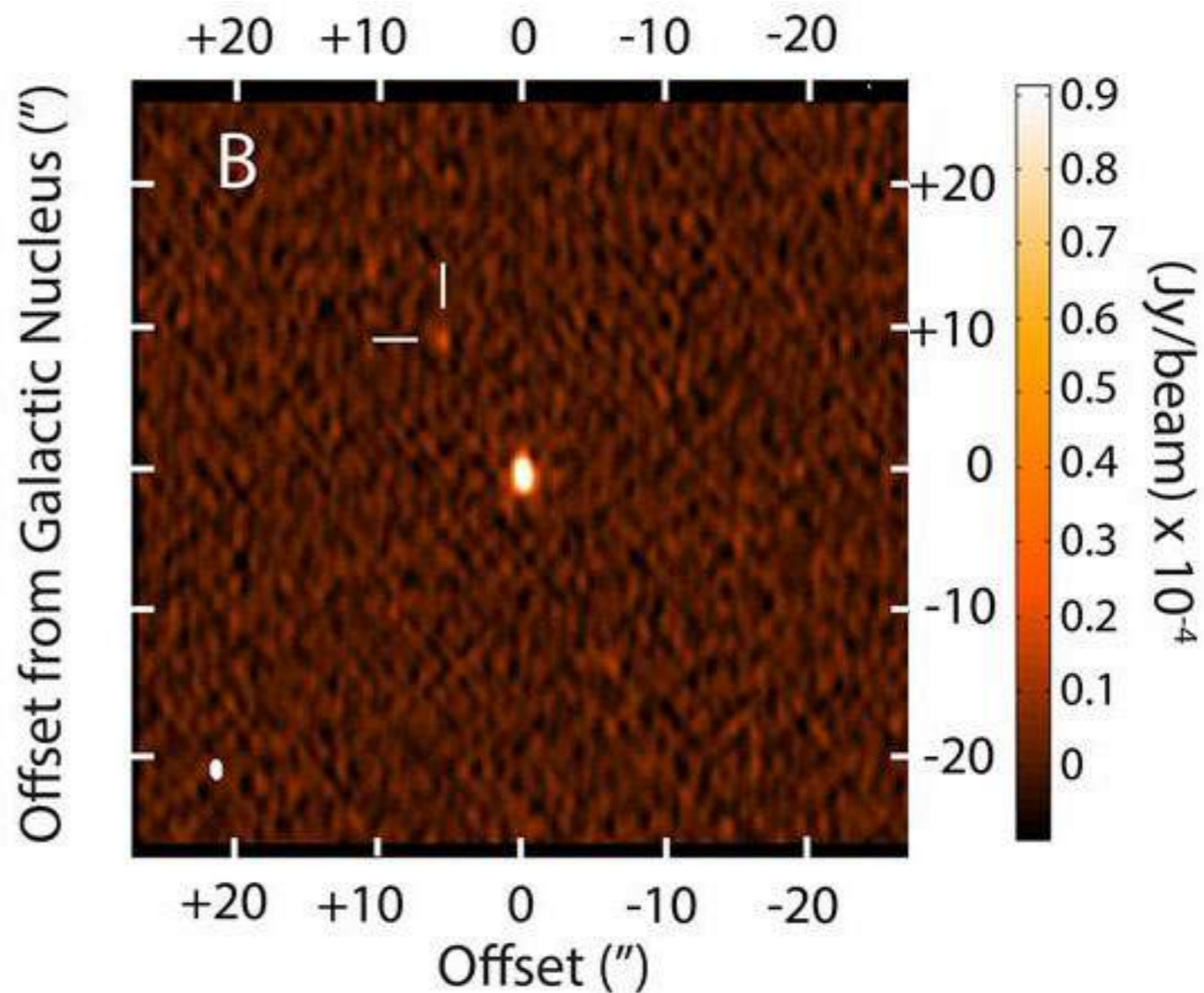
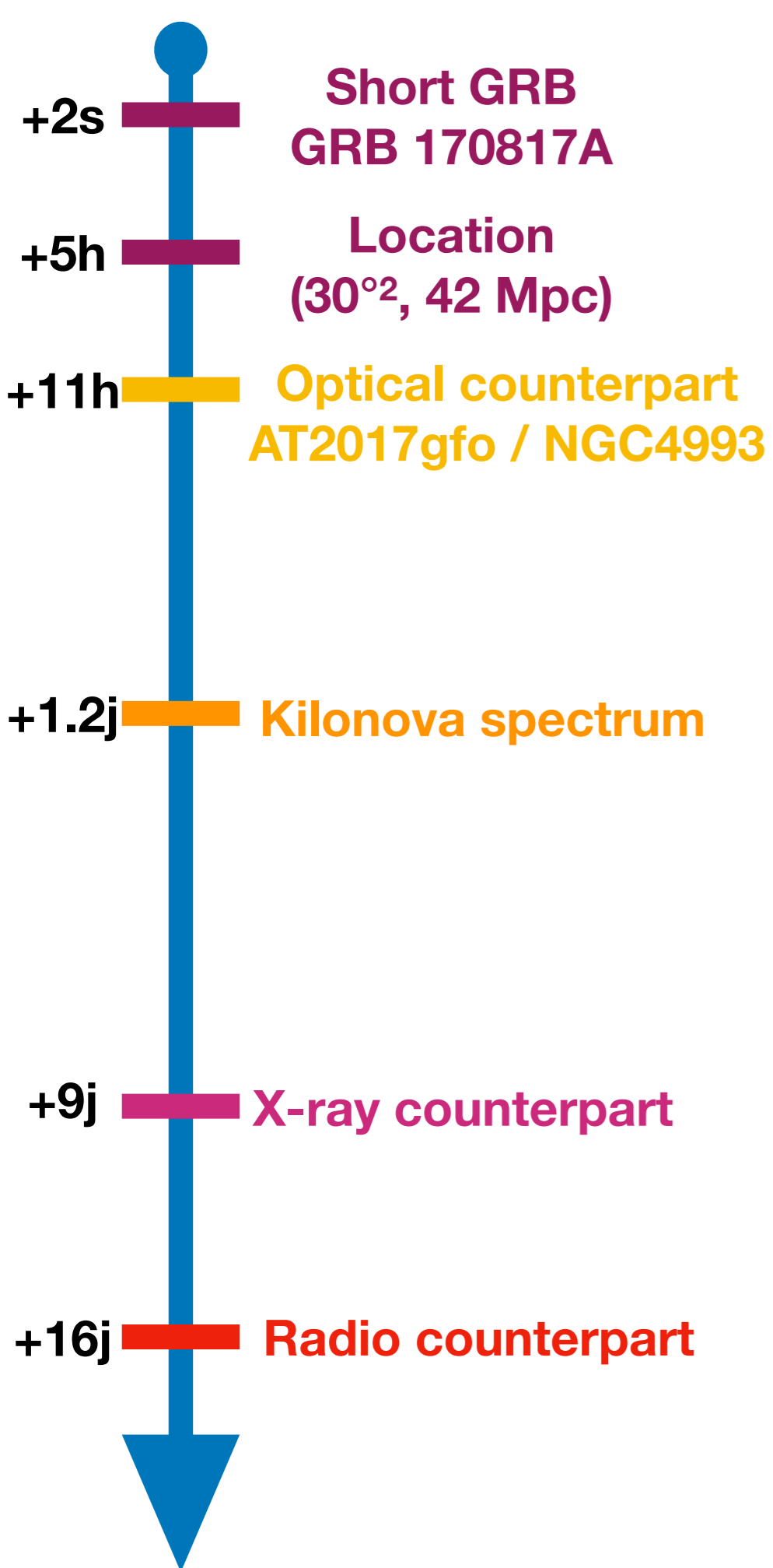


Flux (f_λ , 10^{-17} erg cm^{-2} s^{-1} \AA^{-1})

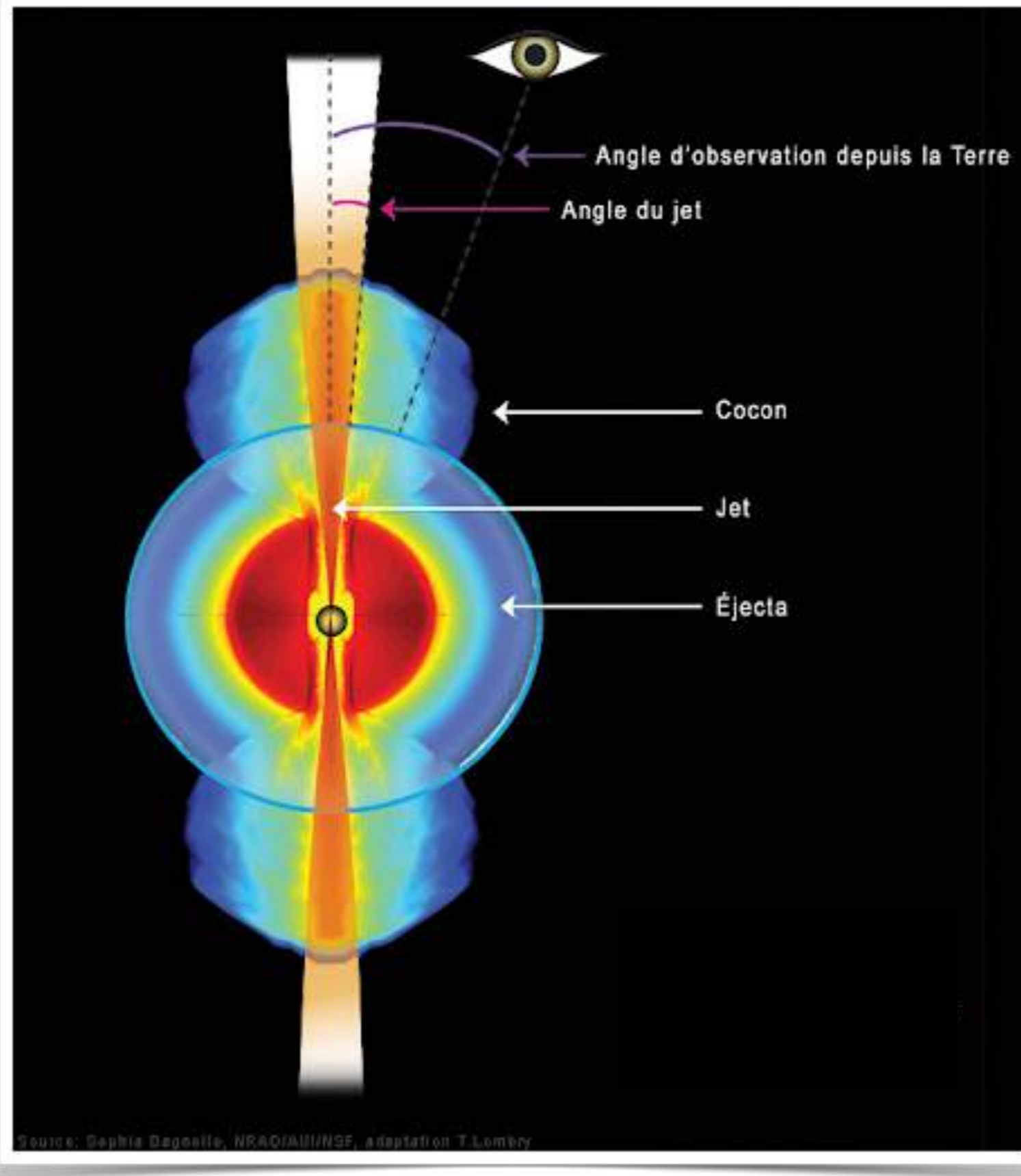




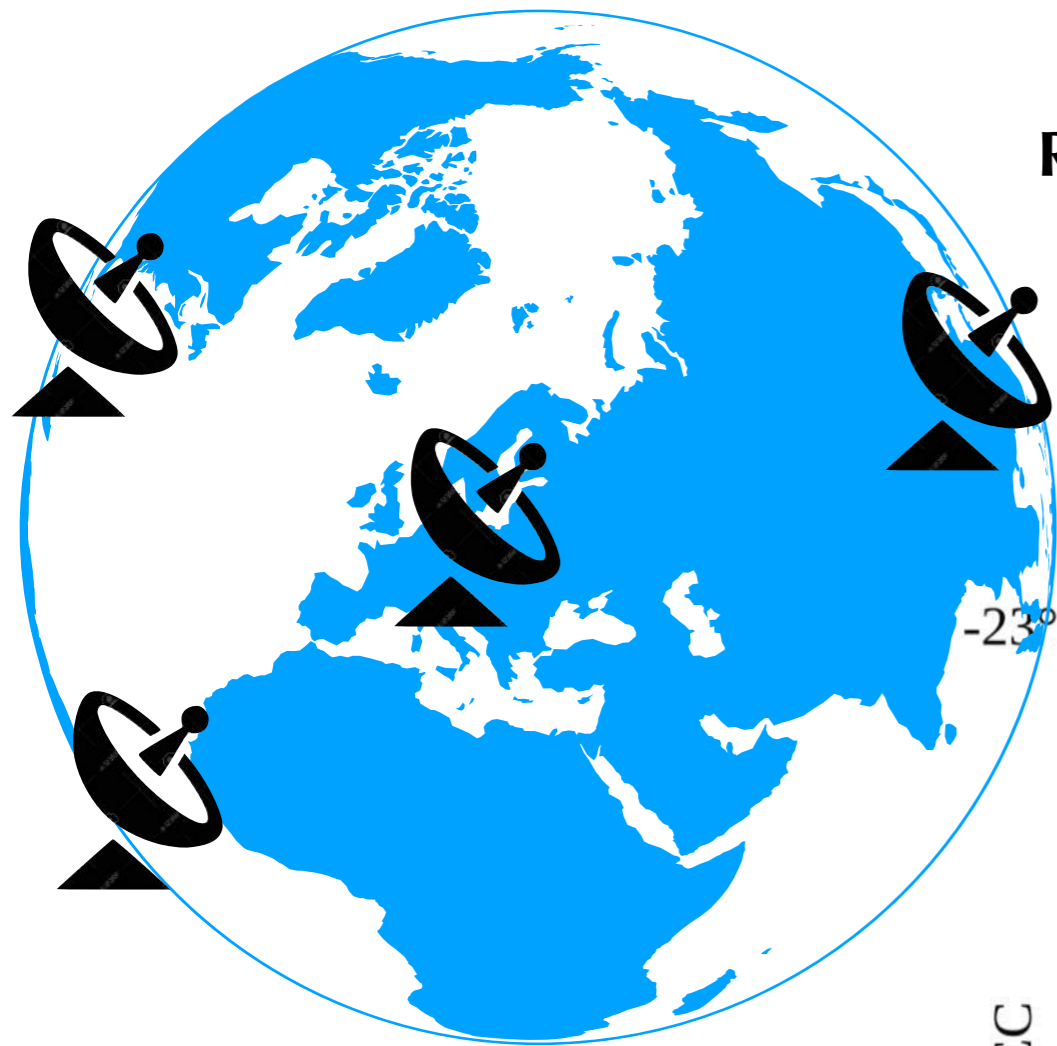




What is the ejecta geometry ?



Confirmation of the presence of a relativistic jet (February 2019)



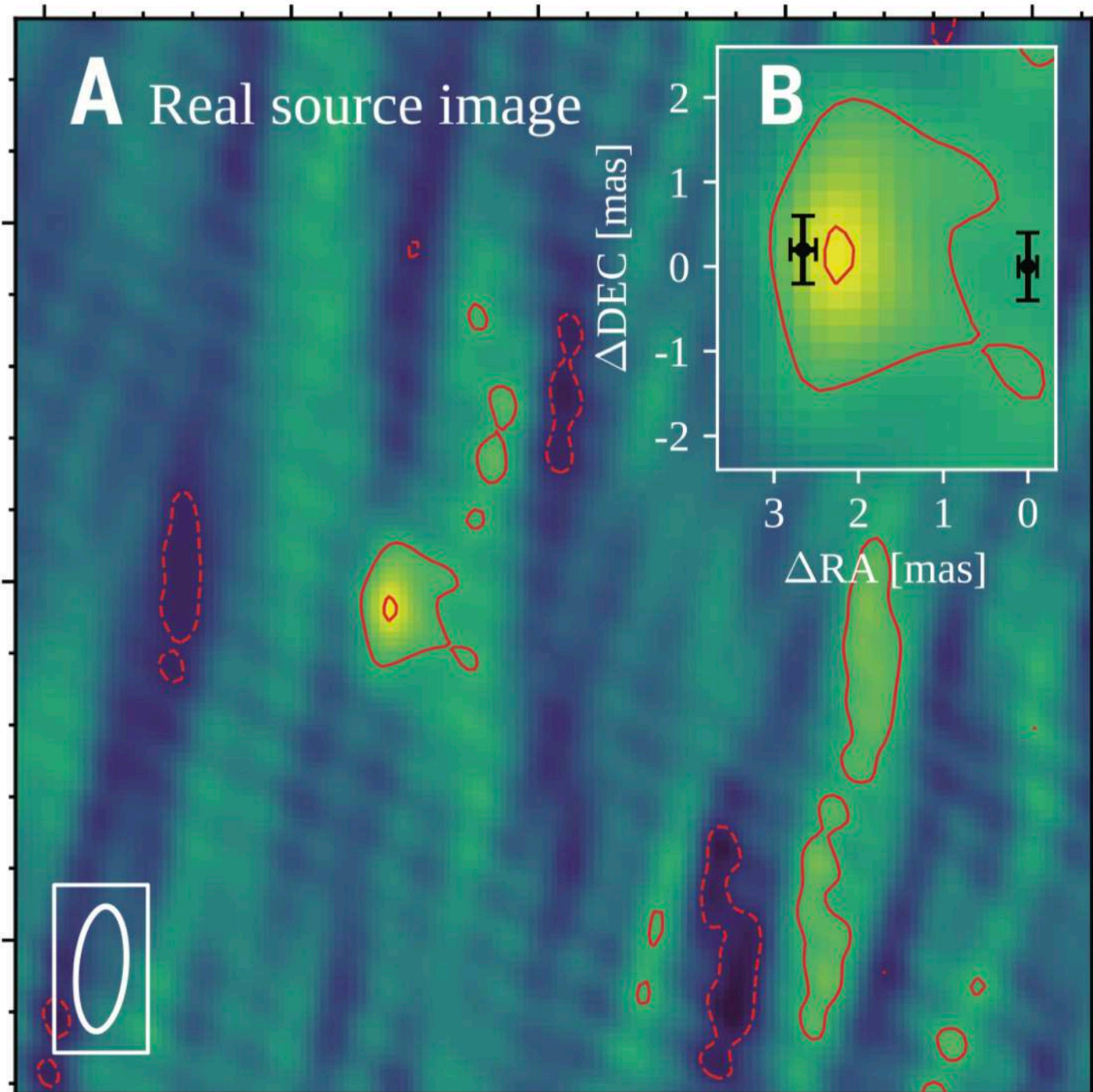
Radio interferometry $R \propto 1/D \sim 1\text{mas}$

$-23^{\circ}22'53.38''$

DEC

53.39"

53.40"



Open questions

Some open questions about GRBs and compact objects mergers:

- Neutron star/black hole or black hole/black hole merger electromagnetic emission ?
- Jet geometry in neutron star / neutron star mergers ?
- Hadronic content of relativistic jets ?
- High-redshift GRBs + diversity of long GRB (underluminous, ultra long GRBs, ...)
- **Requires observations over the broad electromagnetic spectrum + multi-messenger.**

Outline - Lecture 2

B. End point of massive star evolution

1. Evolution of massive stars
2. Gamma-ray bursts
- 3. The *SVOM* space mission**

SvOM

Space-based multi-band astronomical Variable Objects Monitor



SVOM


- **Launch** expected in **autumn 2022 (TBC)**.
- **Circular low Earth orbit at 635 km** of altitude with an **inclination of about 29°**
- Nearly **anti-solar pointing** (so-called « **B1** » attitude law) to favor quick ground follow-up
⇒ Earth in the field of view (**65% of duty cycle for ECLAIRs**, about 50% for MXT and VT)

APC*

VT 

“The Visible Telescope”
Narrow-field visible telescope

Ritchey Chretien $\Phi=400\text{mm}$
Localization accuracy < 1arcsec

ECLAIRs 

« The trigger camera »
Wide-field X and Gamma rays telescope

Spectral range : 4 keV – 150 keV
Localization accuracy < 12arcmin

GRM 

“The Gamma-Ray burst Monitor”
X-rays and Gamma-rays detectors

15 keV – 5 MeV
Localization accuracy < 5°


MXT 

“The Micro-channel X-ray Telescope”
Narrow-field X-ray telescope


Spectral range : 0.2 keV – 10 keV
Localization accuracy < 1arcmin

LUPM*

IJCLab*

C-GFT 


« Ground-based Follow-up Telescope »
 $\Phi>1000\text{mm}$




GWAC 

« Ground Wide-Angle Cameras »
 $\Phi=180\text{mm}$



COLIBRI 

« Ground-based Follow-up Telescope »
 $\Phi>1000\text{mm}$



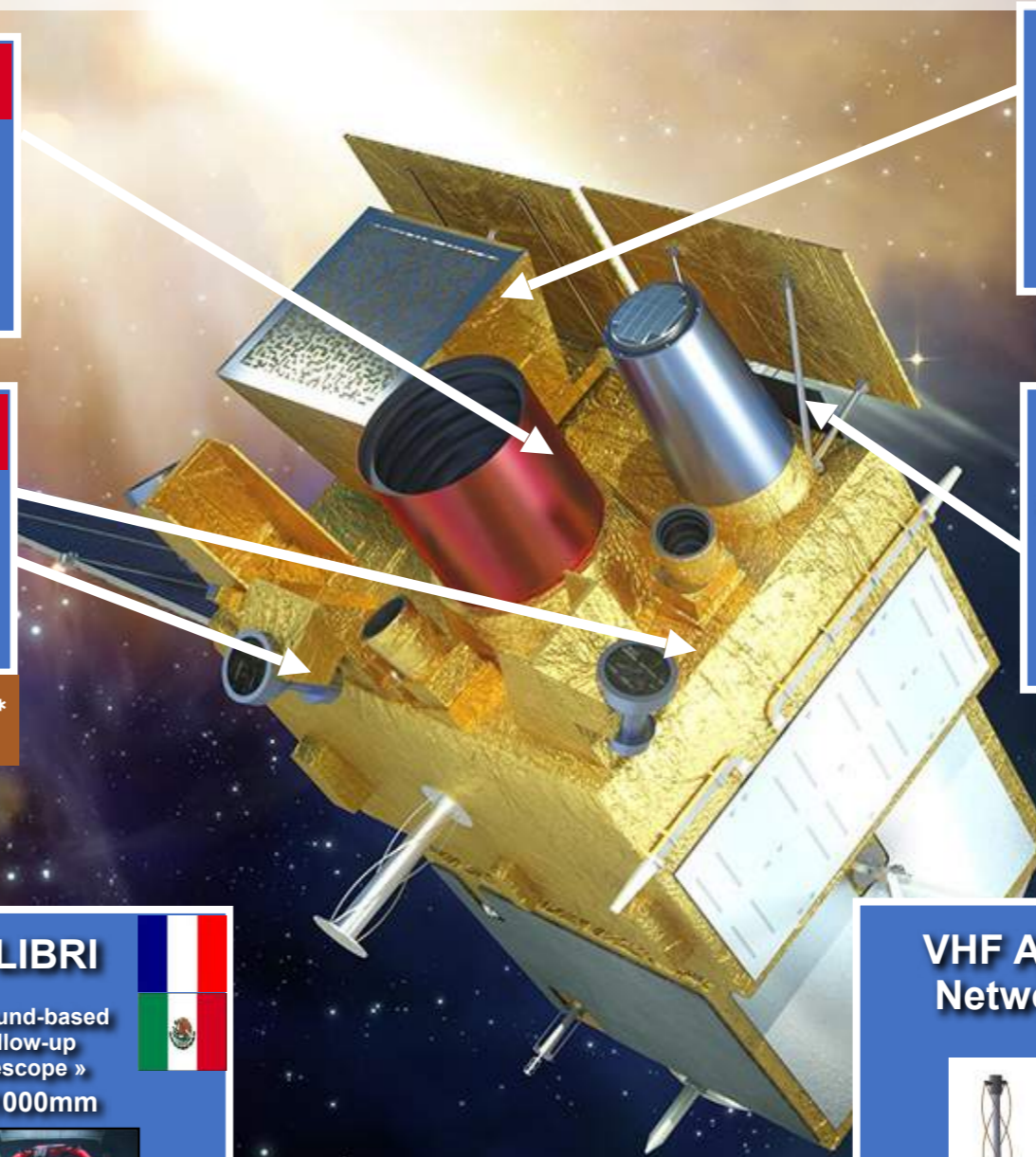
CPPM*

VHF Alert Network 



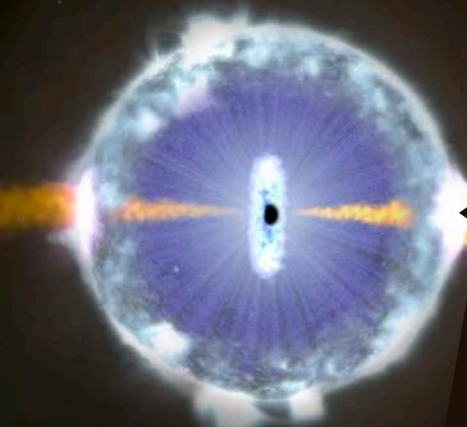
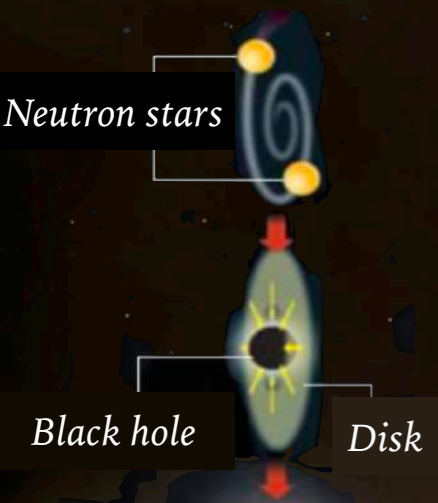
... and more!

Tracking antennas 

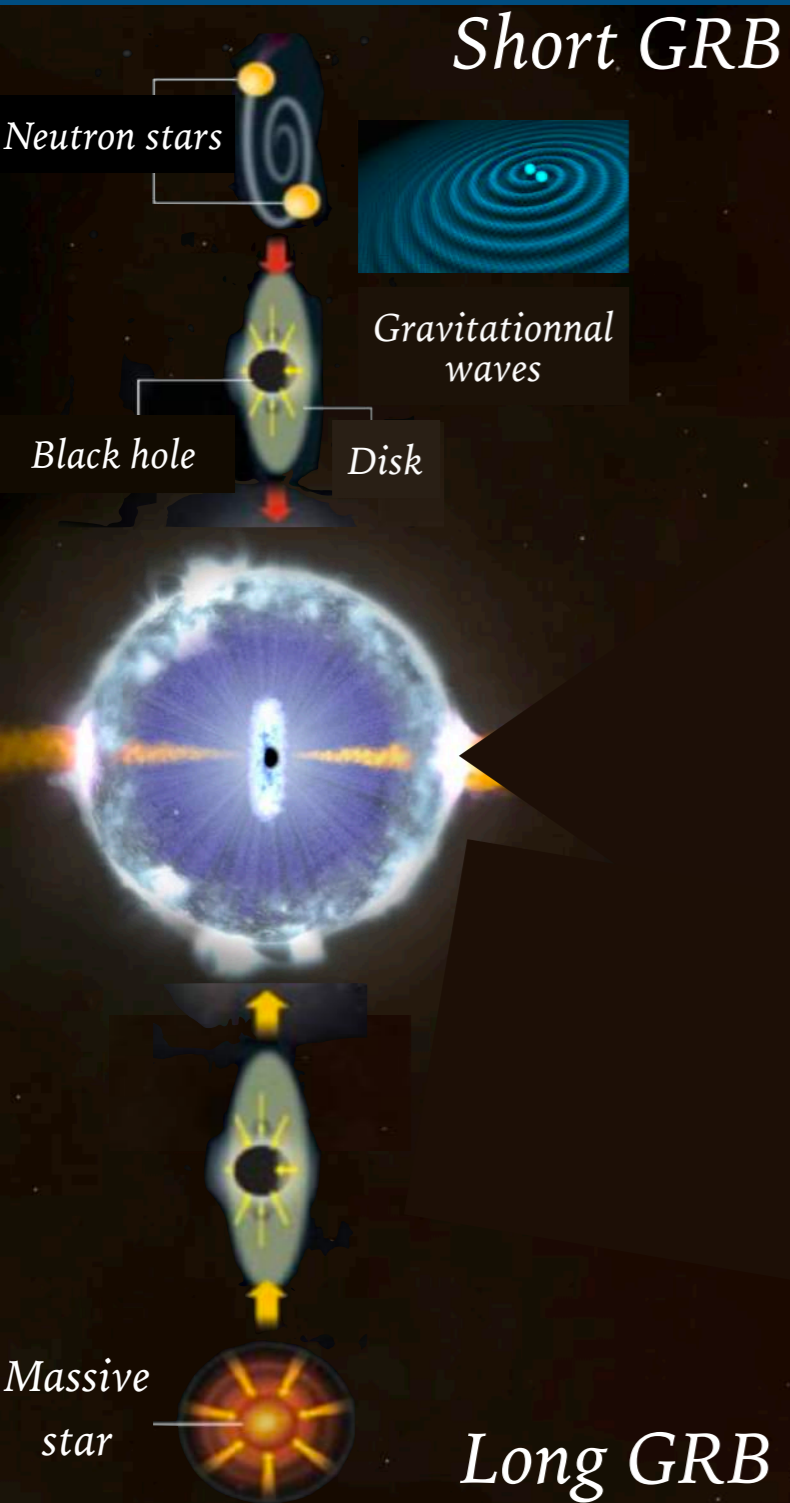
SVOM core program

Short GRB



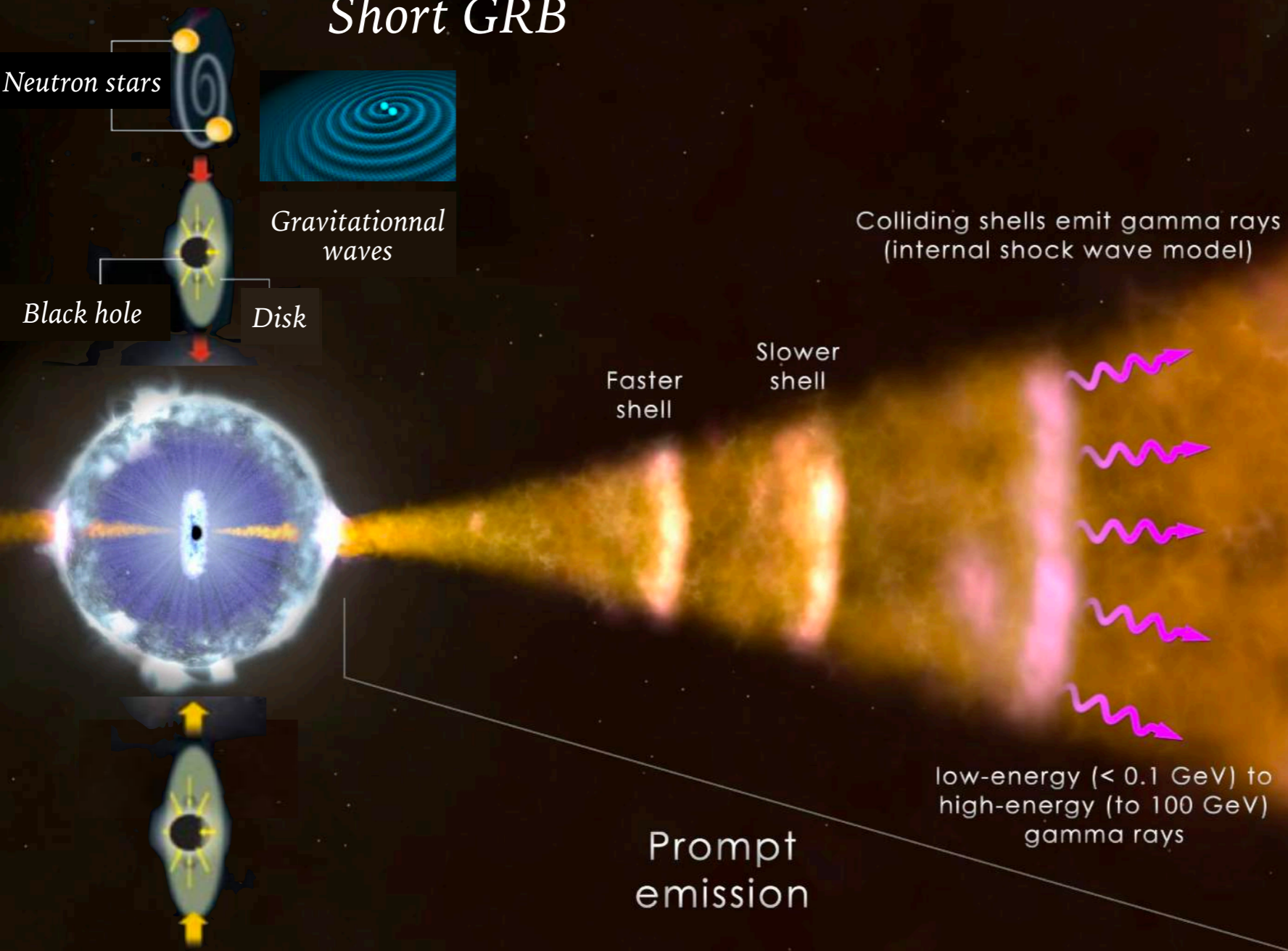
Long GRB

SVOM core program

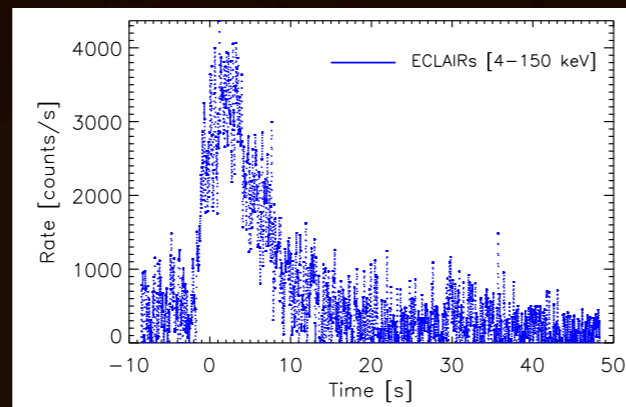


SVOM core program

Short GRB

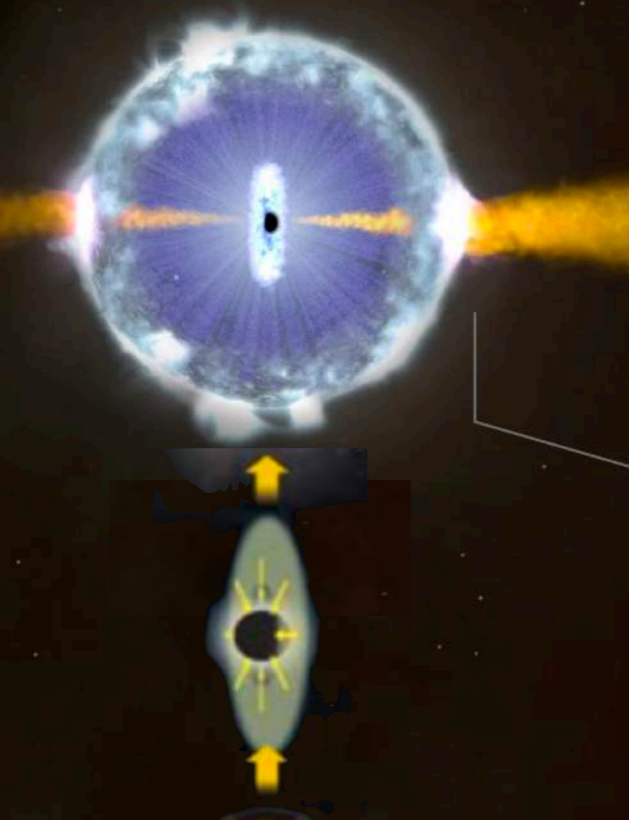
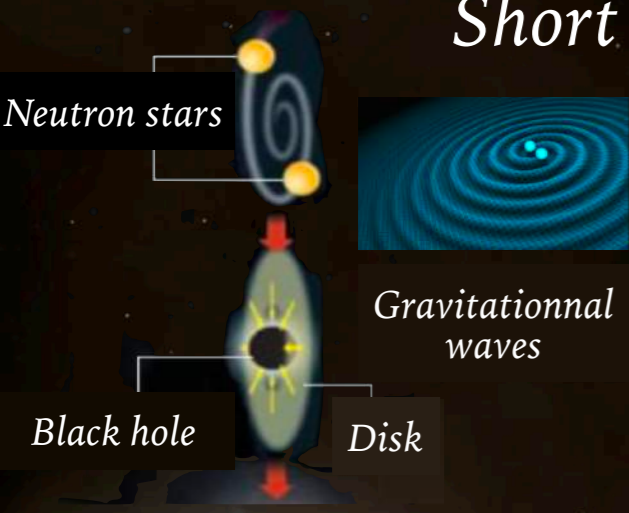


Long GRB

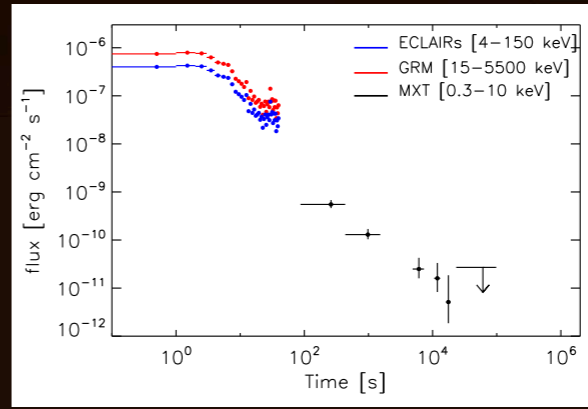
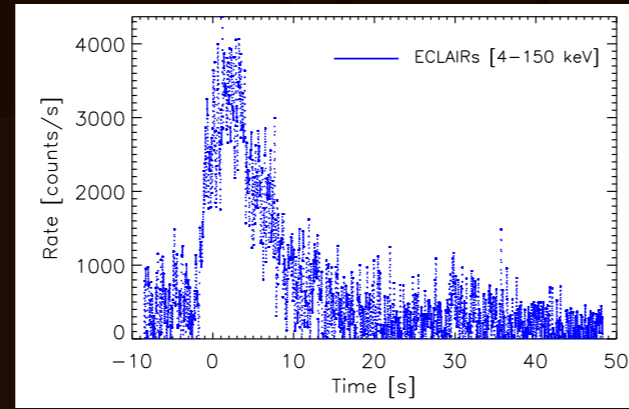
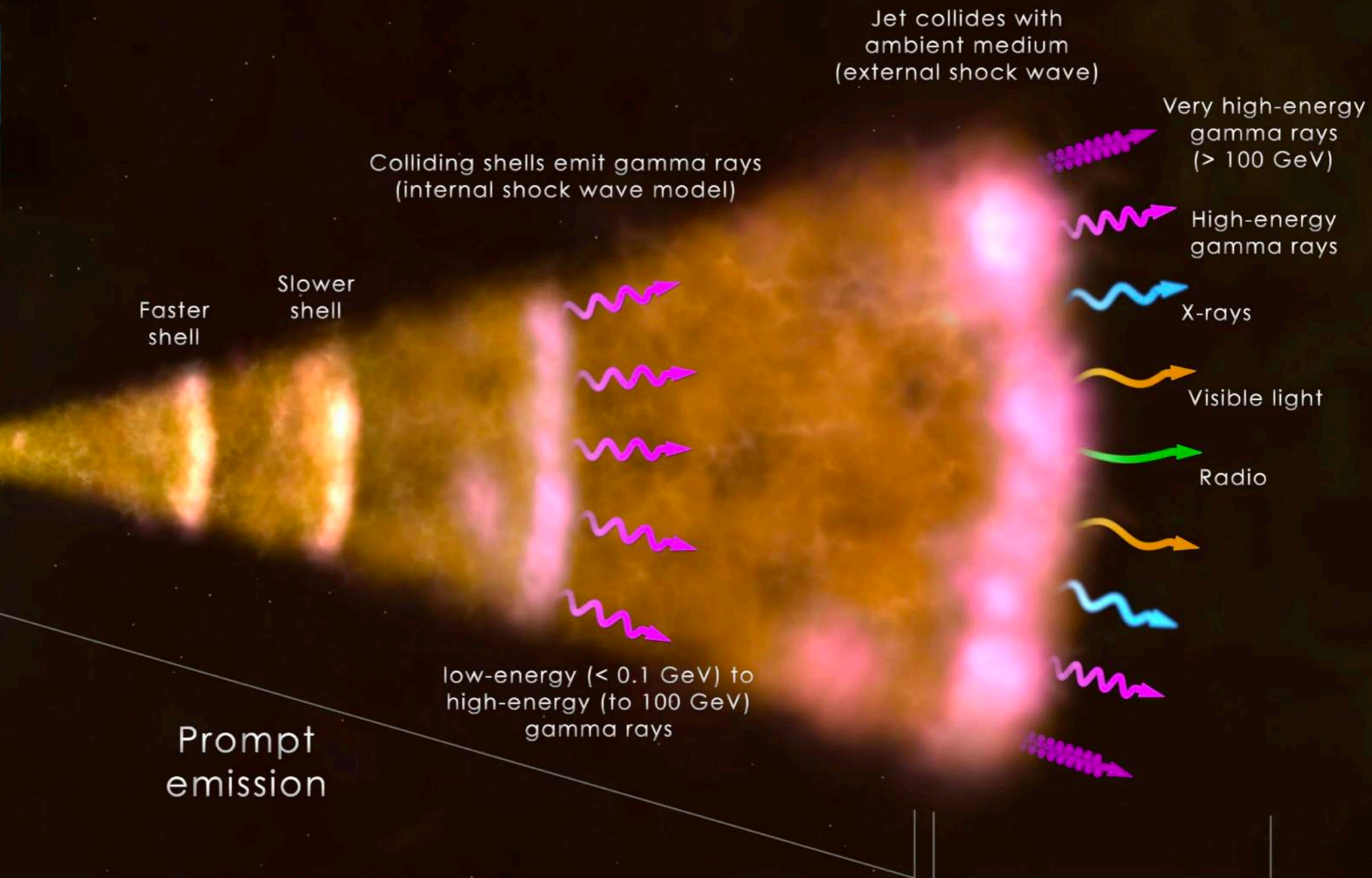


SVOM core program

Short GRB



Long GRB

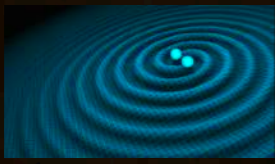
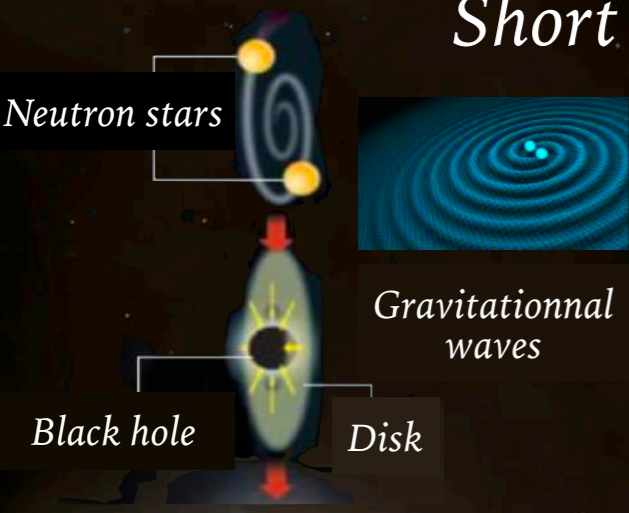


Afterglow

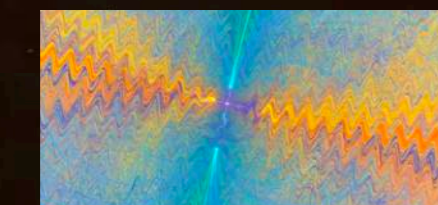
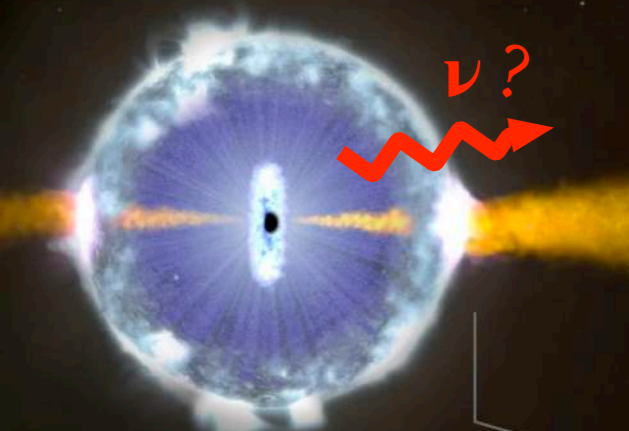
GRB091020: simulation for prompt and afterglow emissions

SVOM core program

Short GRB



Gravitational waves



Gravitational waves?



Long GRB

Jet collides with ambient medium (external shock wave)

Colliding shells emit gamma rays (internal shock wave model)

Faster shell

Slower shell

Prompt emission

low-energy (< 0.1 GeV) to high-energy (to 100 GeV) gamma rays

Which GRBs?

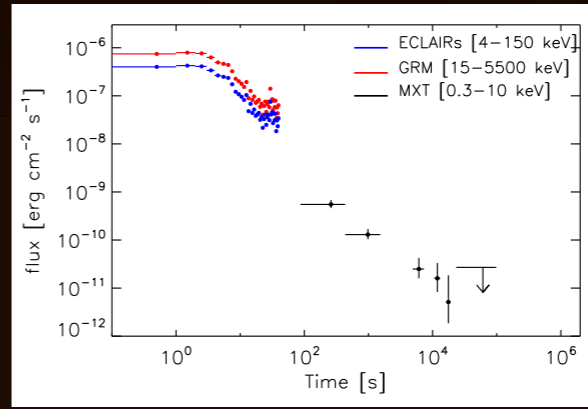
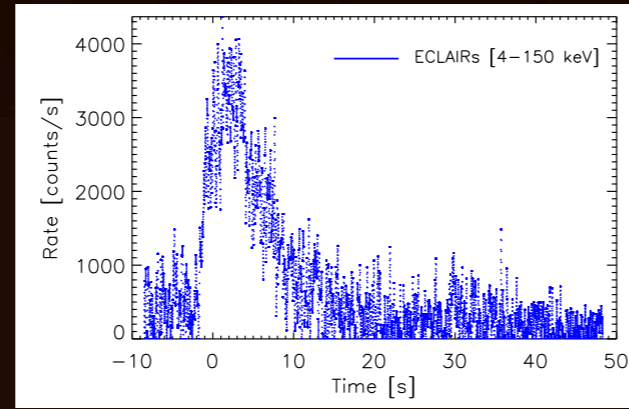
- Very high-energy gamma rays (> 100 GeV)
- High-energy gamma rays

X-rays

Visible light

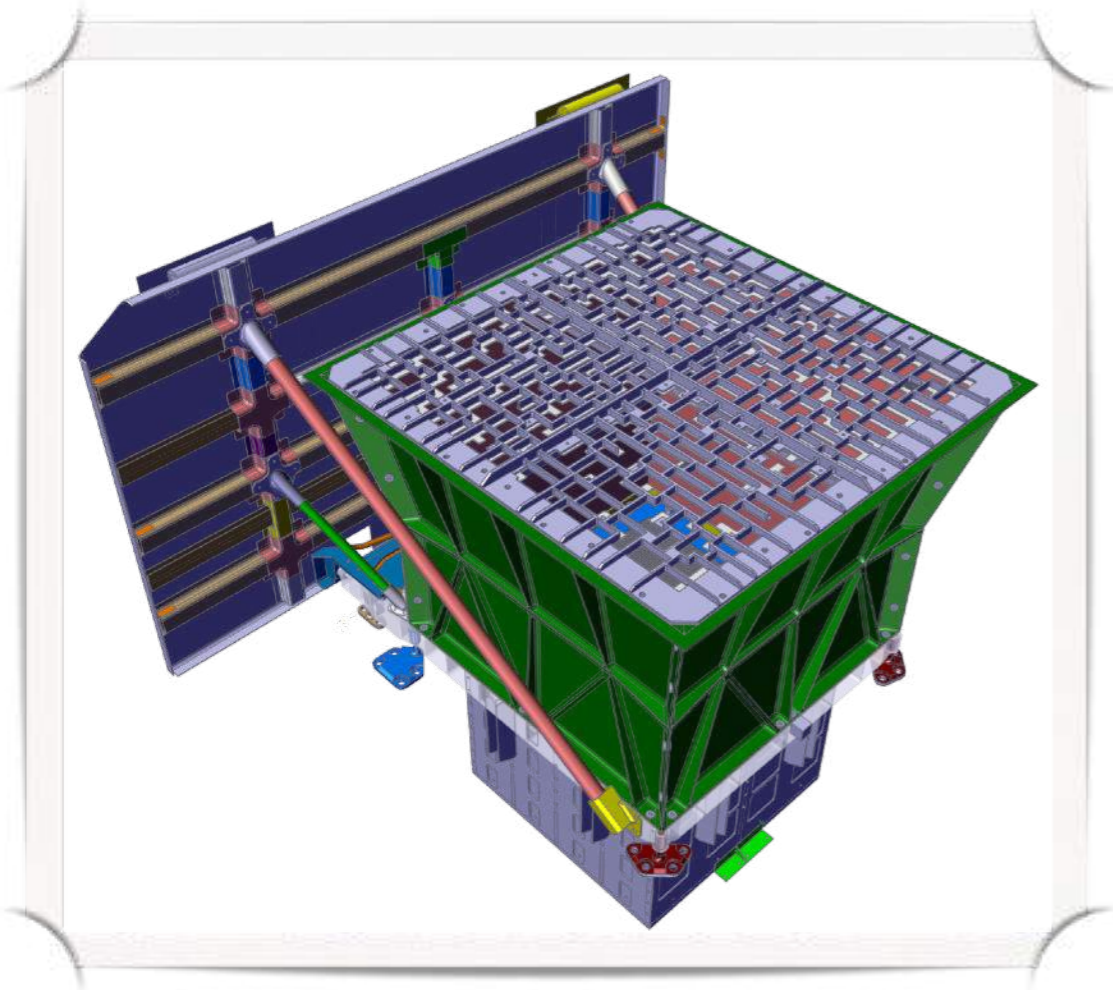
Radio

UHECR?



Afterglow

GRB091020: simulation for prompt and afterglow emissions

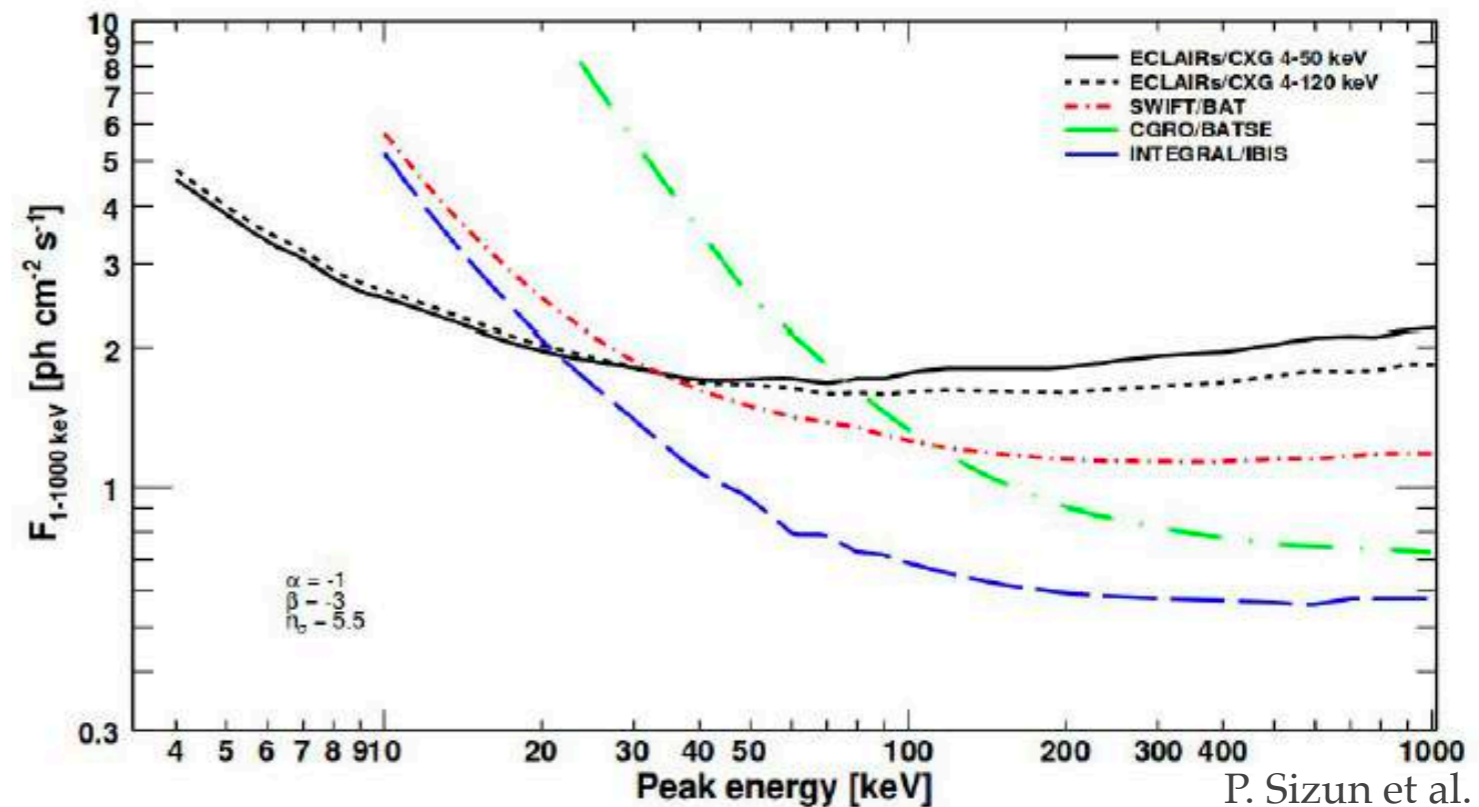


ECLAIRs (CNES, IRAP, CEA, APC)

- Detection plane: **1024 cm²**
- **6400 CdTe pixels** (4x4x1 mm³)
- **FoV : 2 sr**
- **Energy range: 4-150 keV**
- **Localisation** accuracy **<12'** for 90% of the sources at detection limit
- Onboard trigger and localization: about **65 GRBs/year**

Well adapted for the detection of low-Epeak GRBs

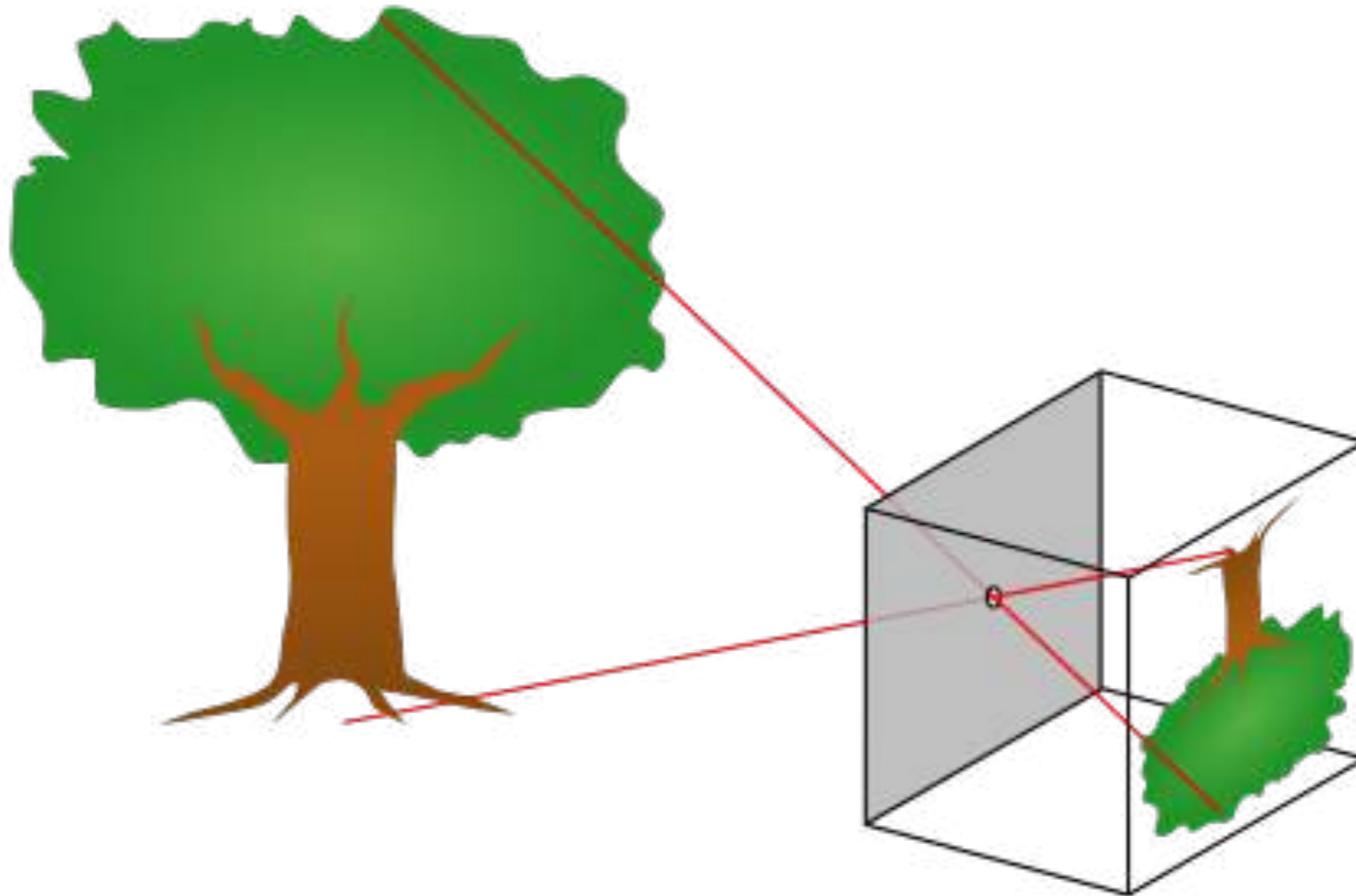
Focalization of X rays not possible at these energies + large field of view ⇒ coded-mask imaging !



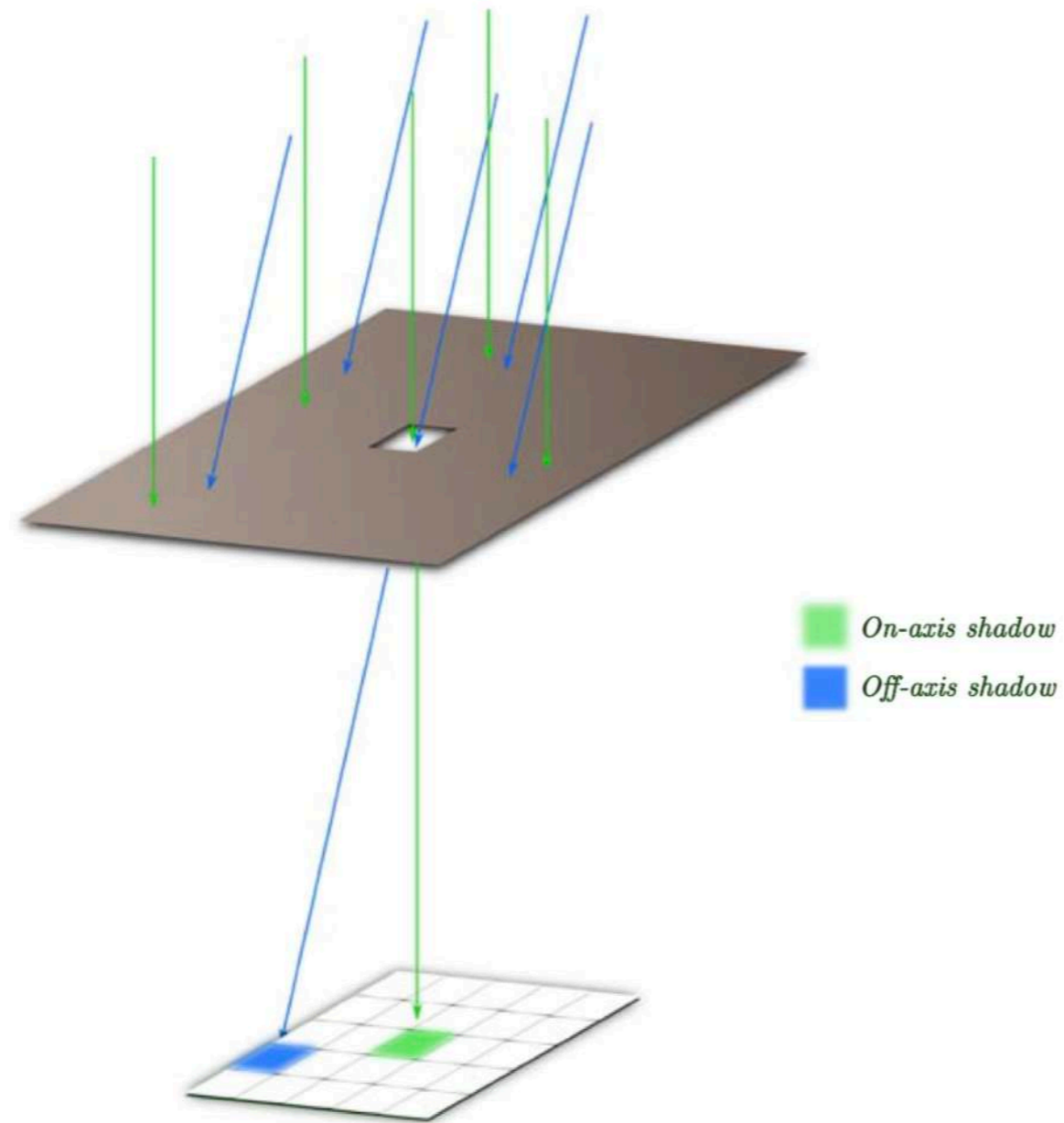
P. Sizun et al.

Pinhole camera

- Simple camera without a lens but with a tiny aperture.
- Light from a scene passes through the aperture and projects an inverted image on the opposite side of the box.

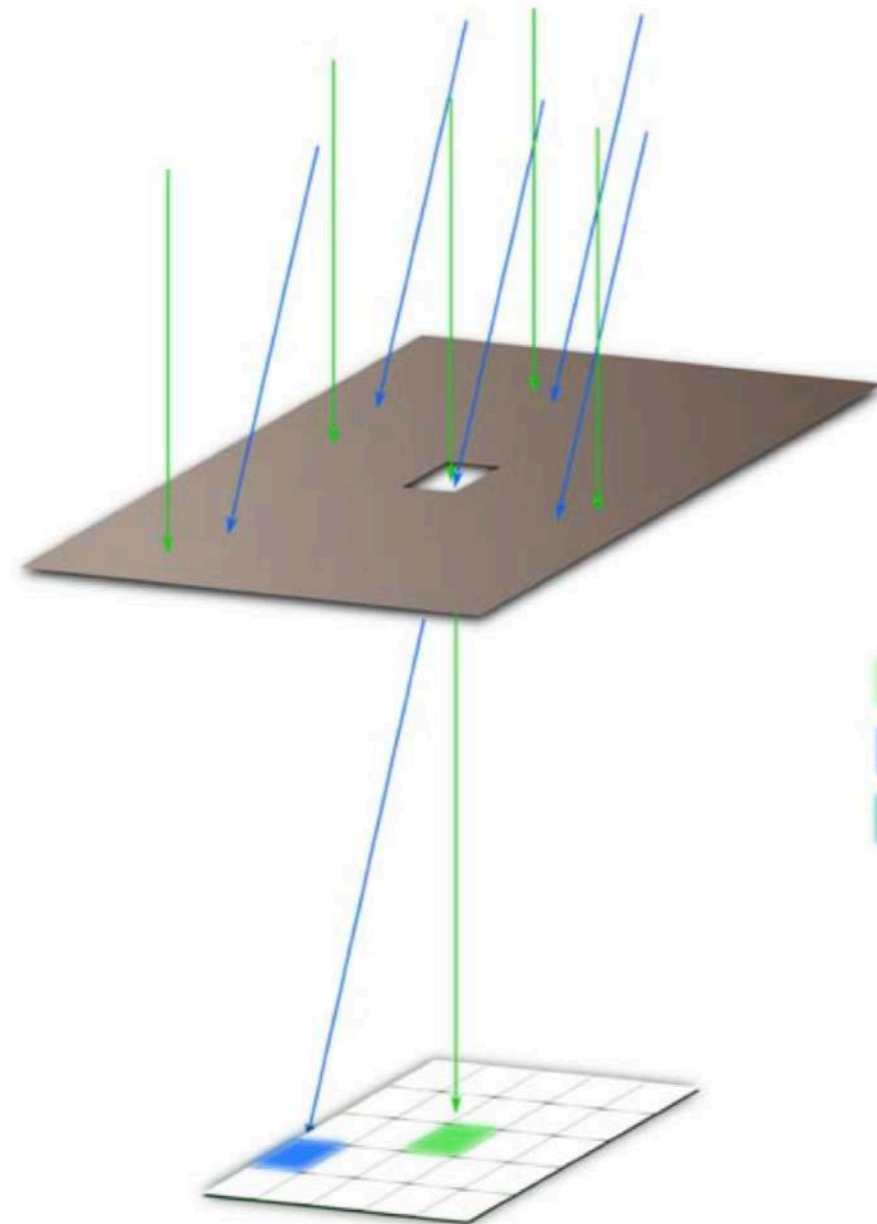


Pinhole camera



Single hole = not sensitive enough

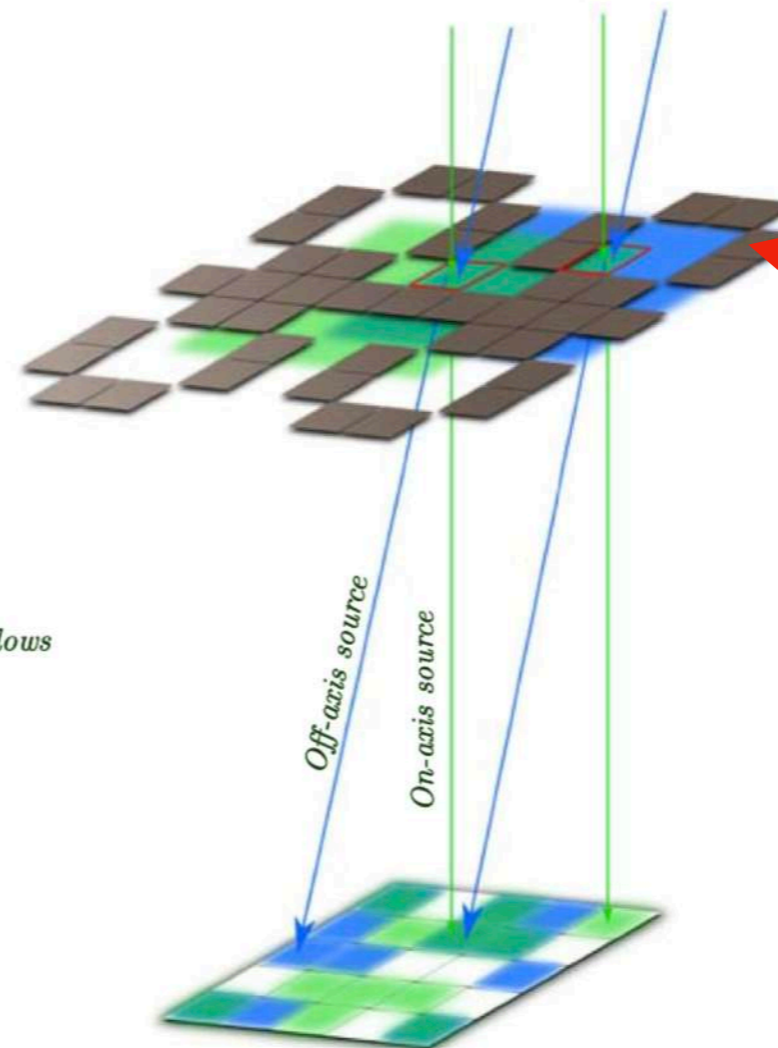
Pinhole camera



■ *On-axis shadow*
■ *Off-axis shadow*
■ *Overlap of both shadows*

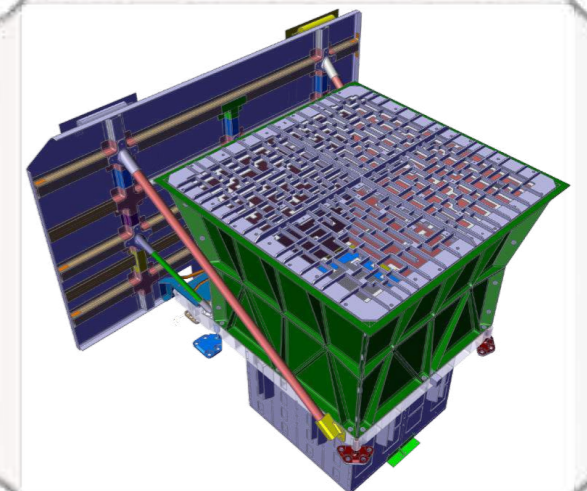
Coded mask system

Astrophysical sources

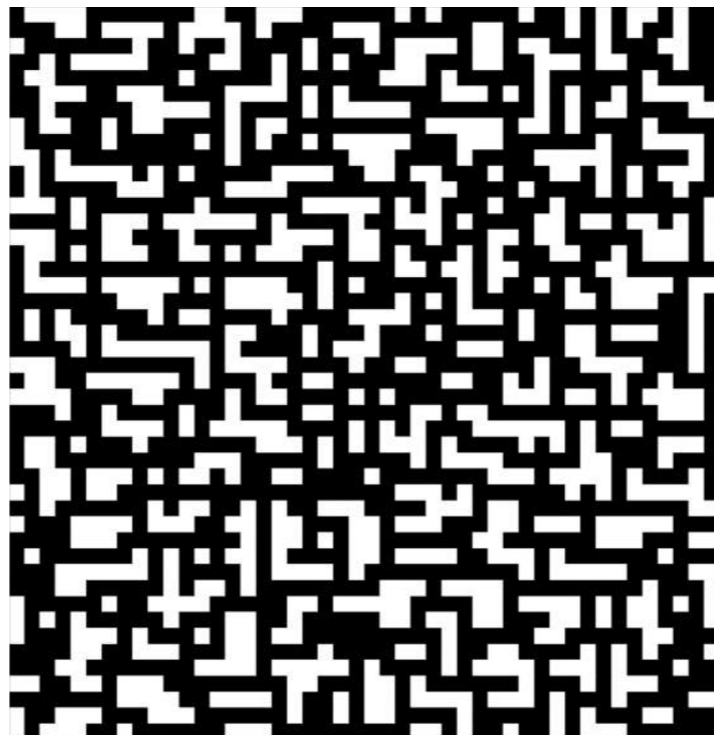
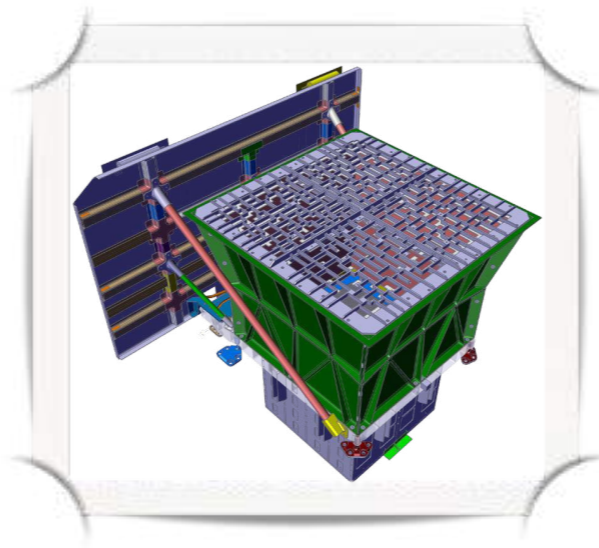


Opaque to X-ray
& gamma-rays

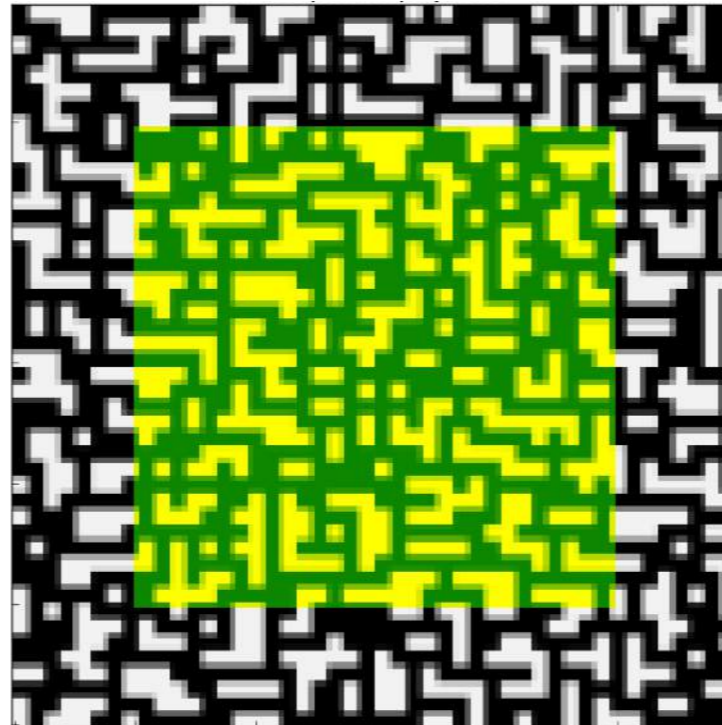
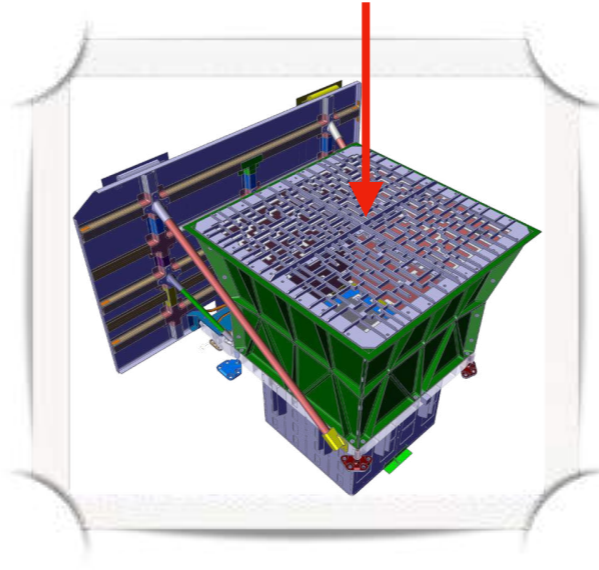
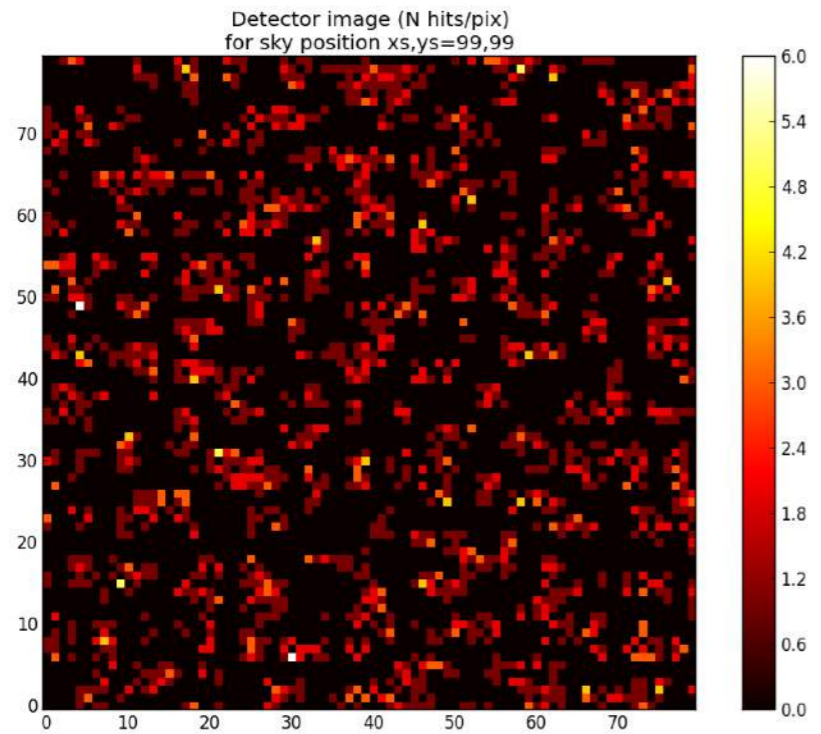
- Coded mask between sources and detection plan.
- Shadow pattern of mask (opaque to X-rays) projected on the detector.
- One specific pattern for each source on the detector.



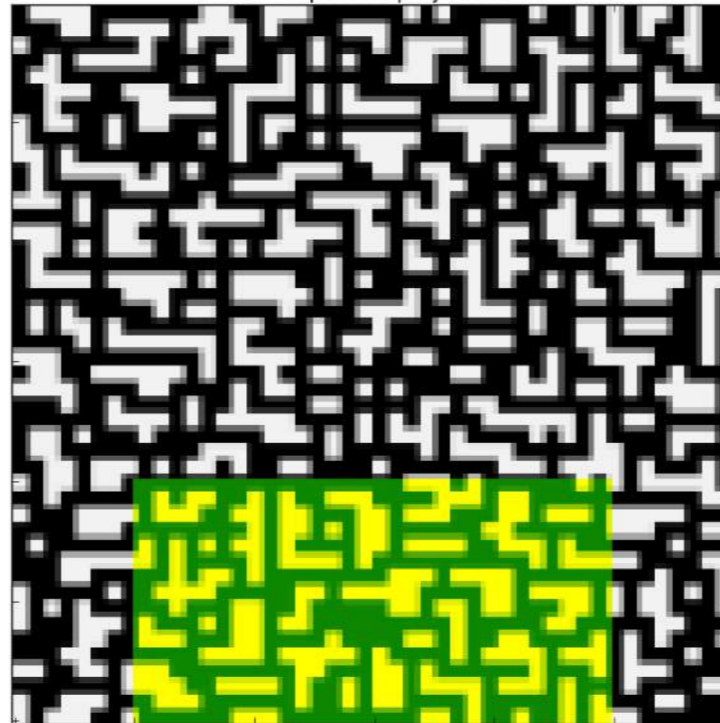
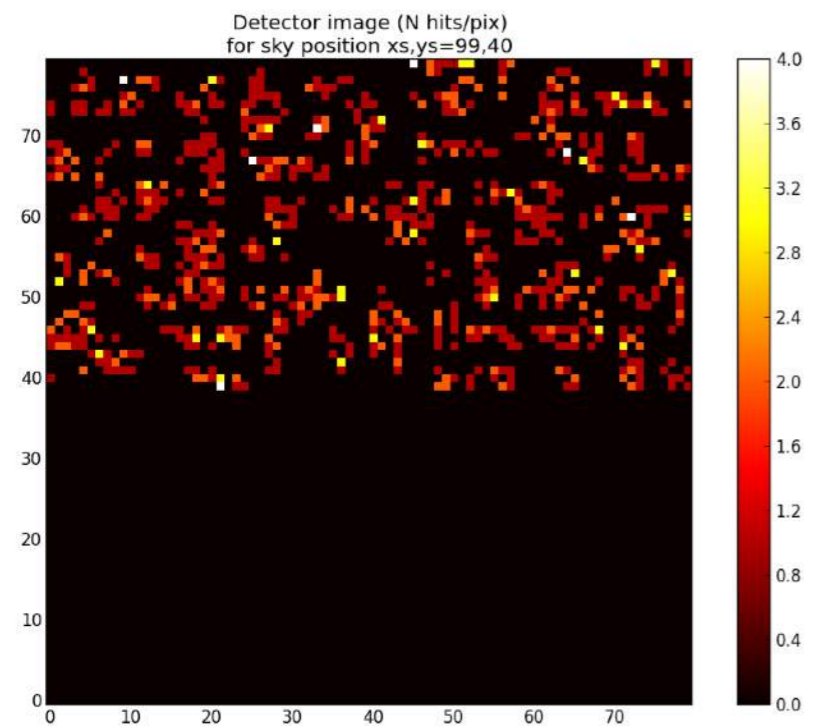
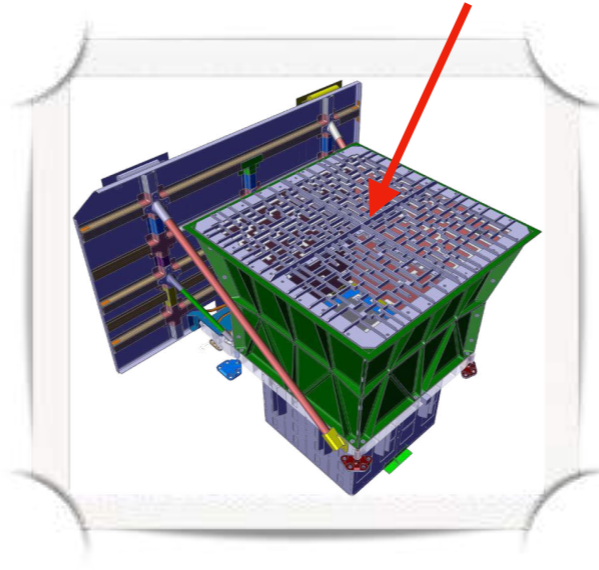
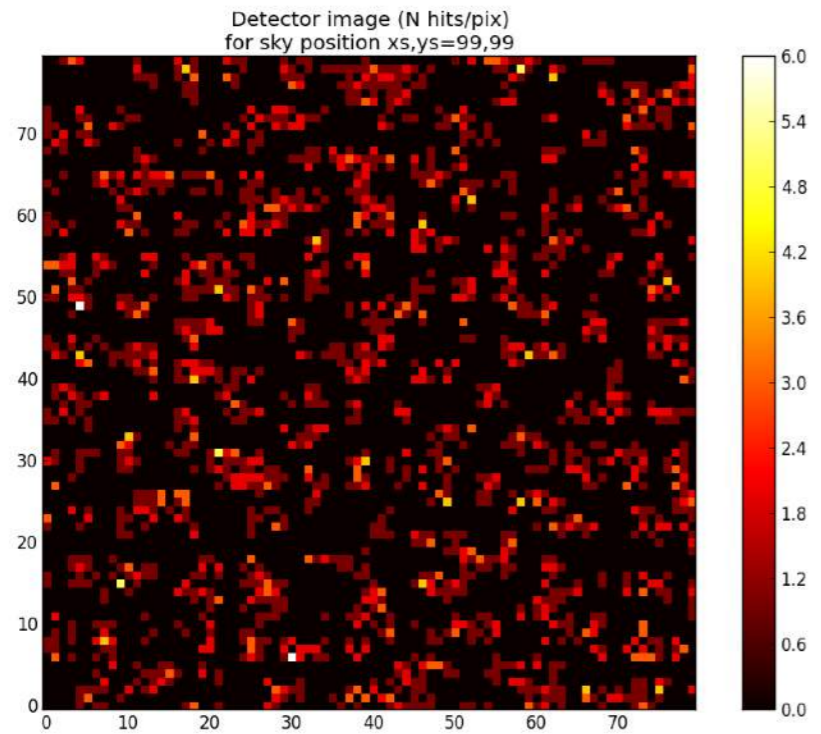
SVOM / ECLAIRs coded mask



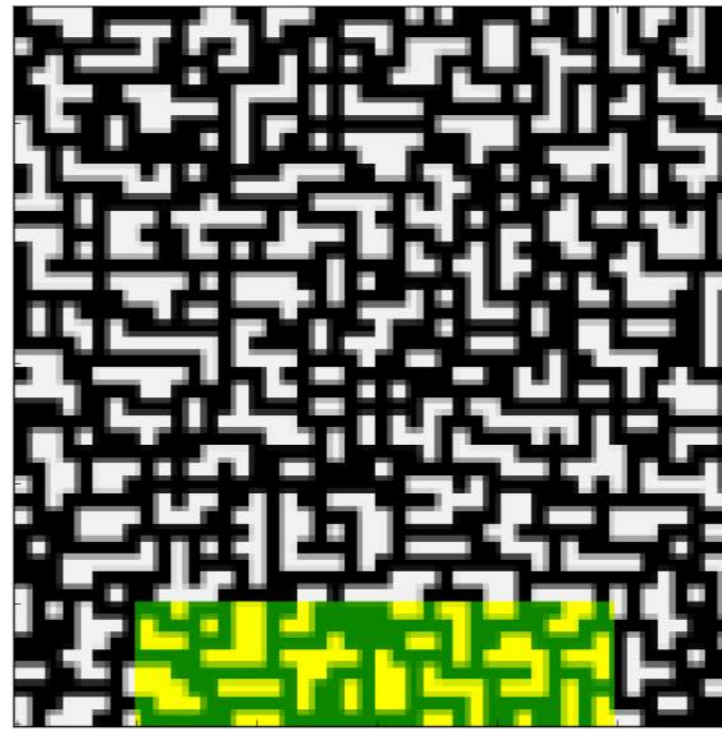
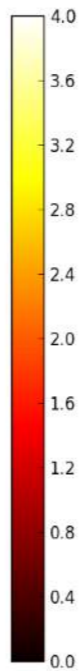
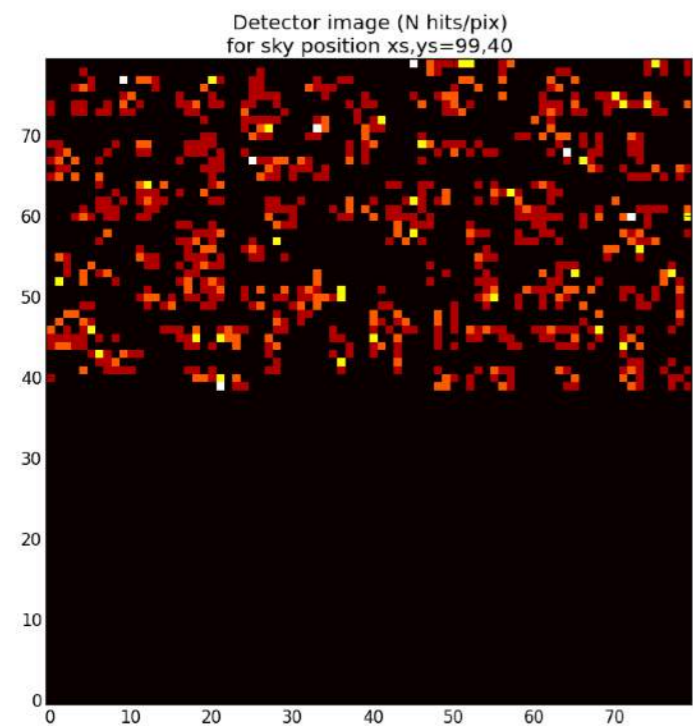
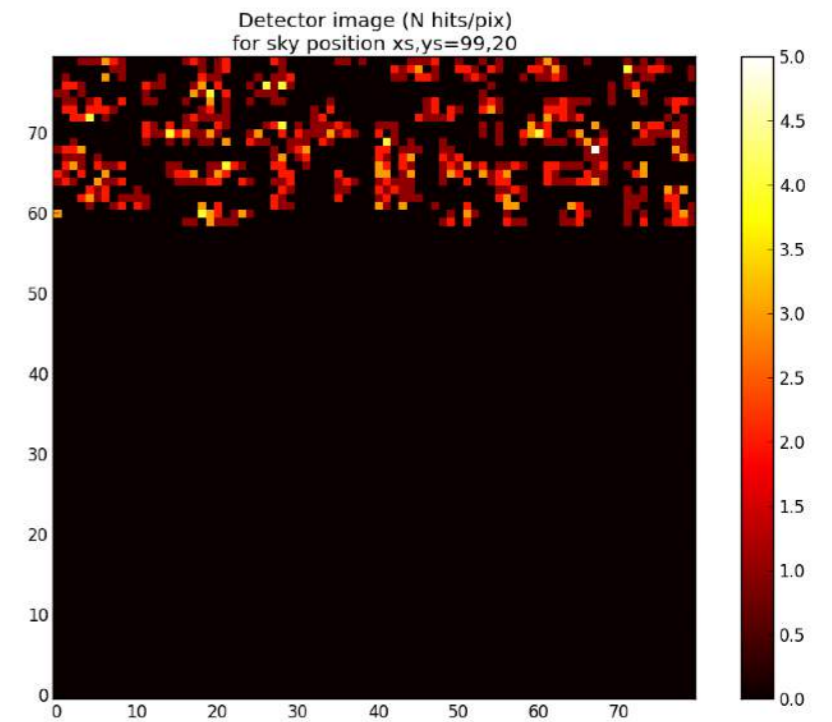
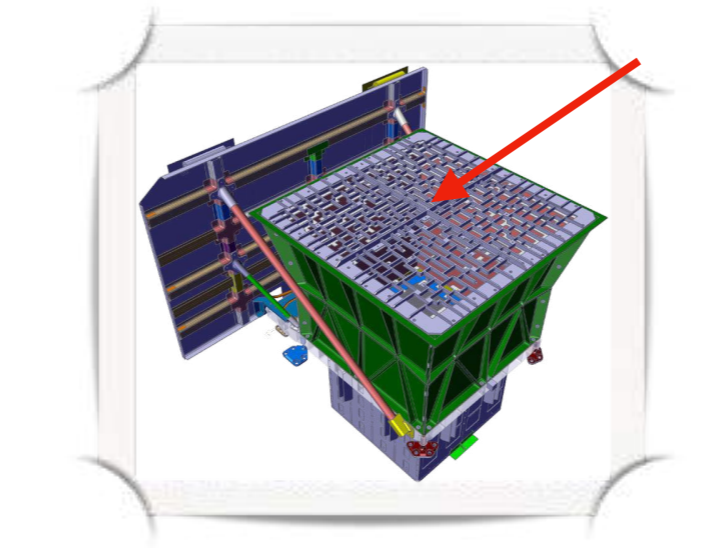
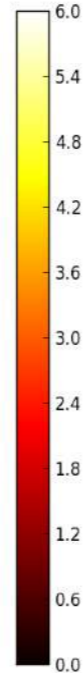
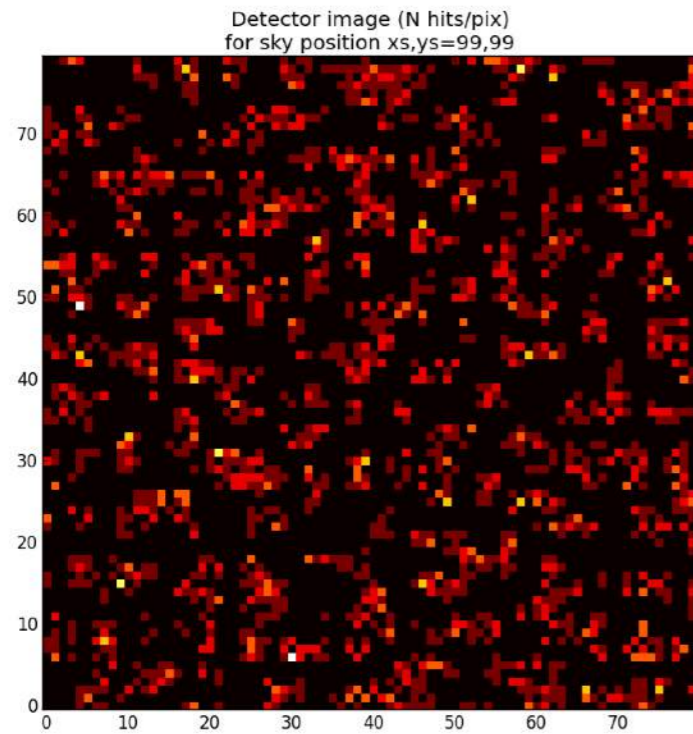
SVOM / ECLAIRs coded mask



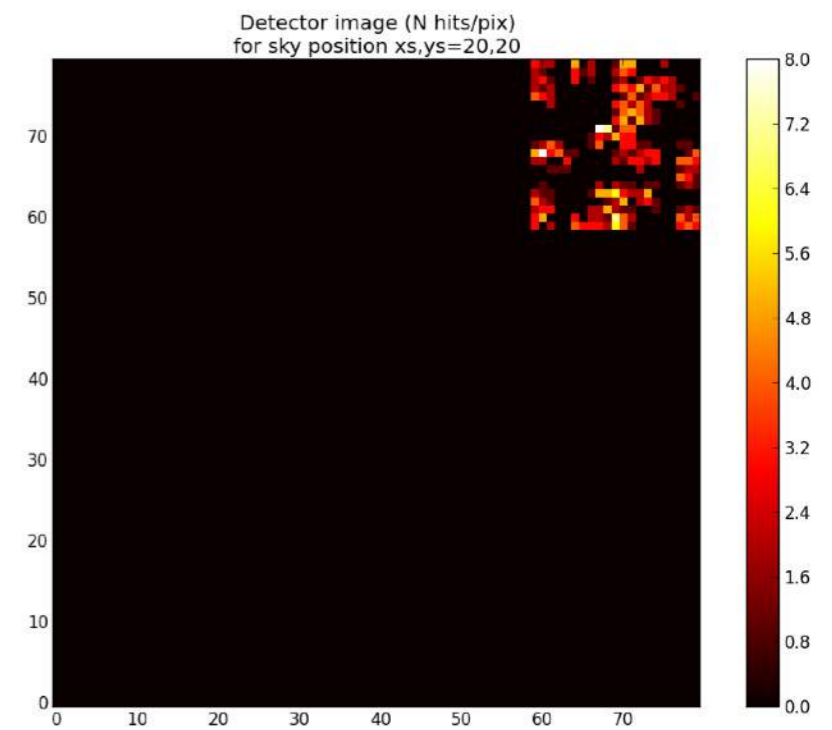
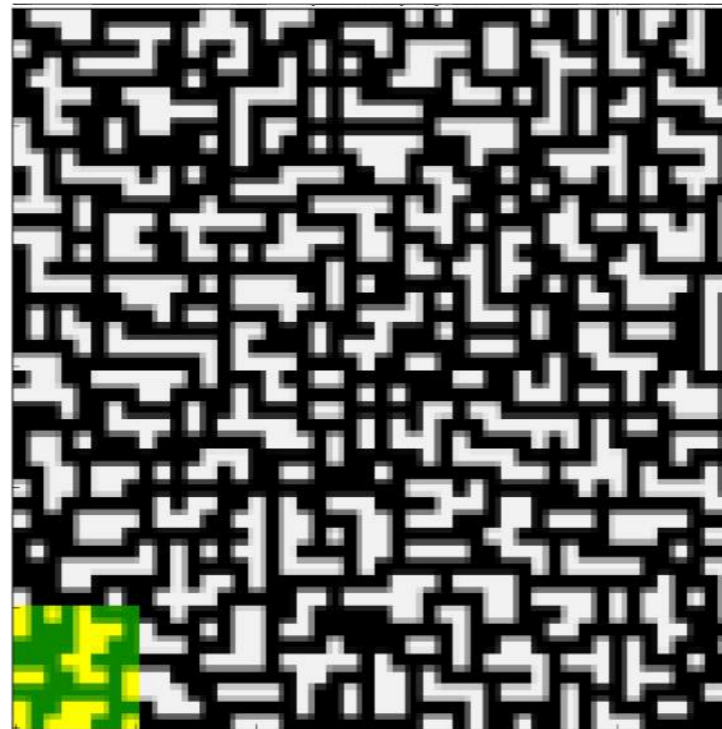
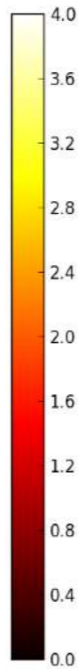
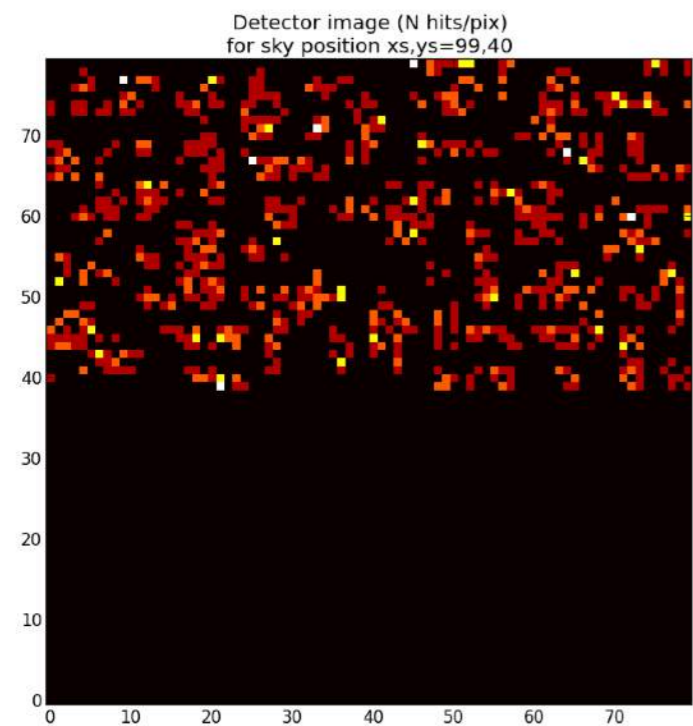
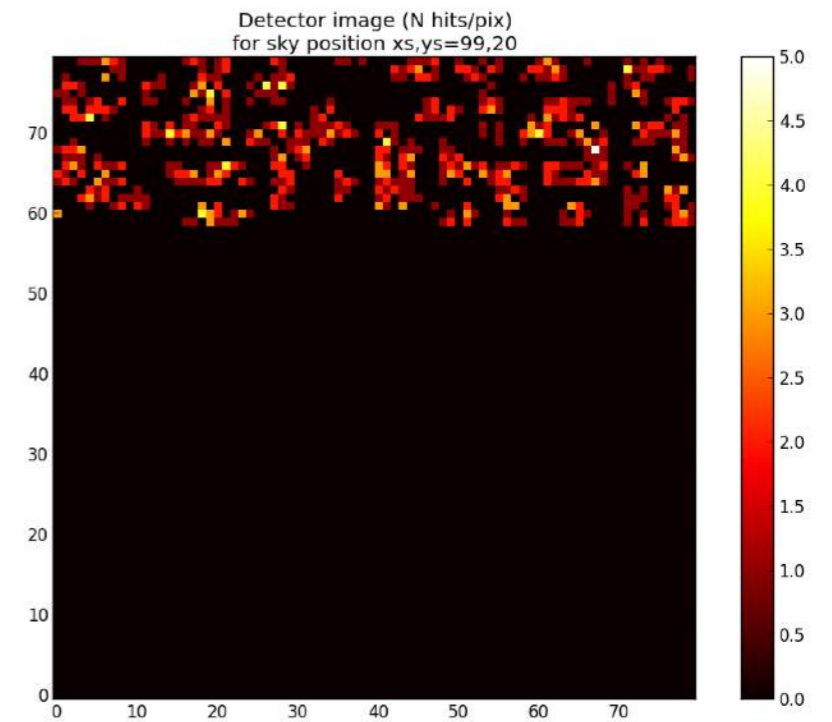
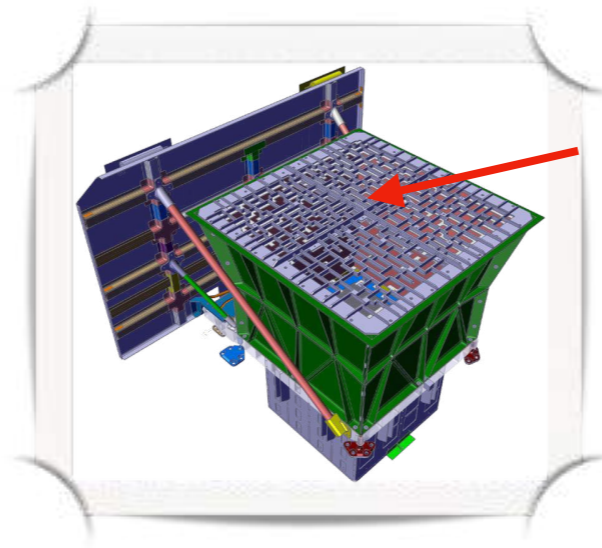
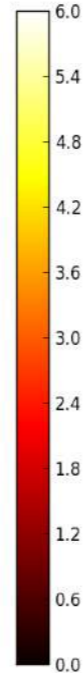
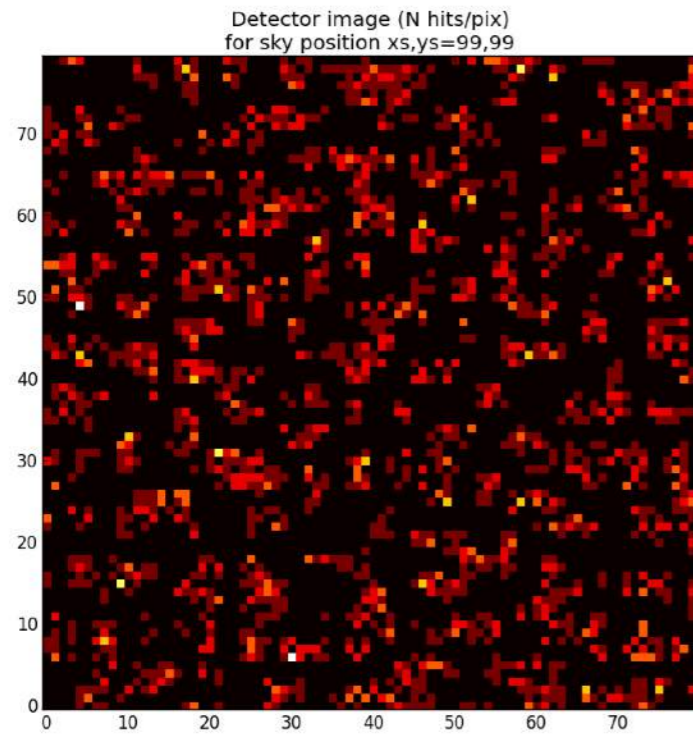
SVOM / ECLAIRs coded mask



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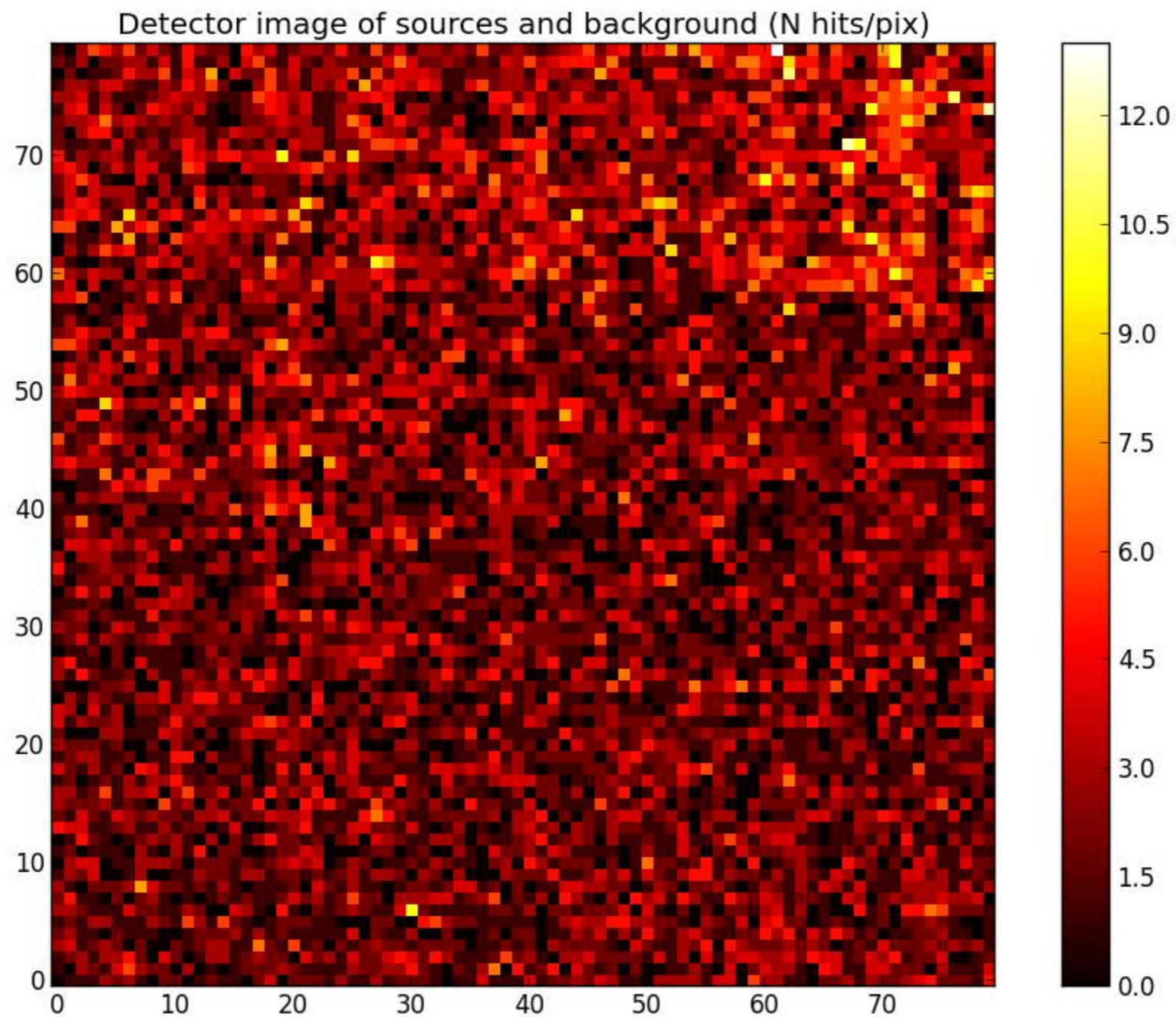


SVOM / ECLAIRs coded mask

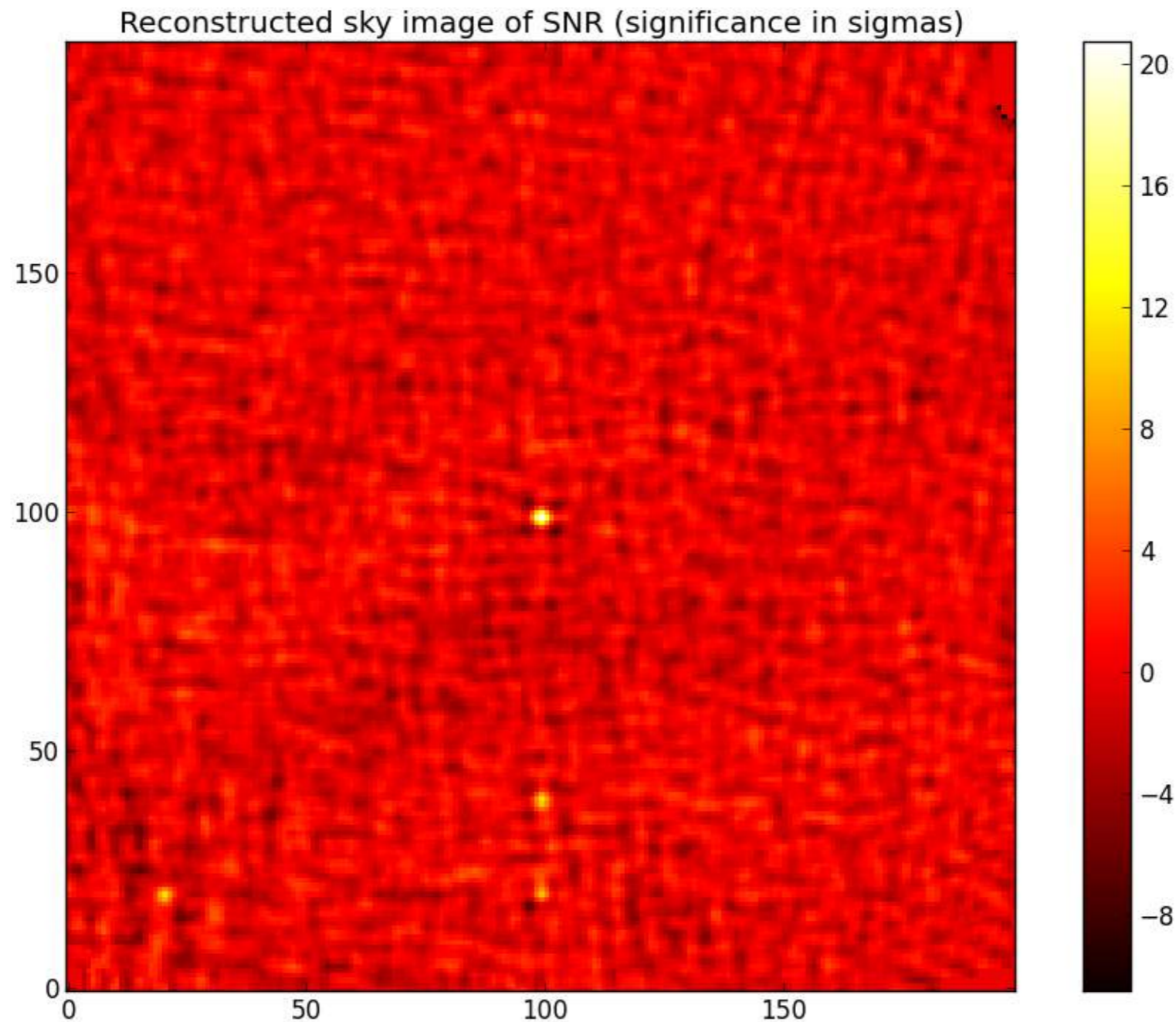
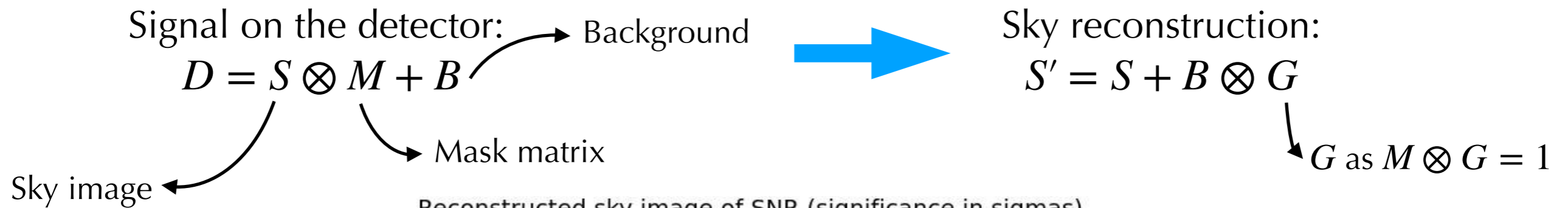


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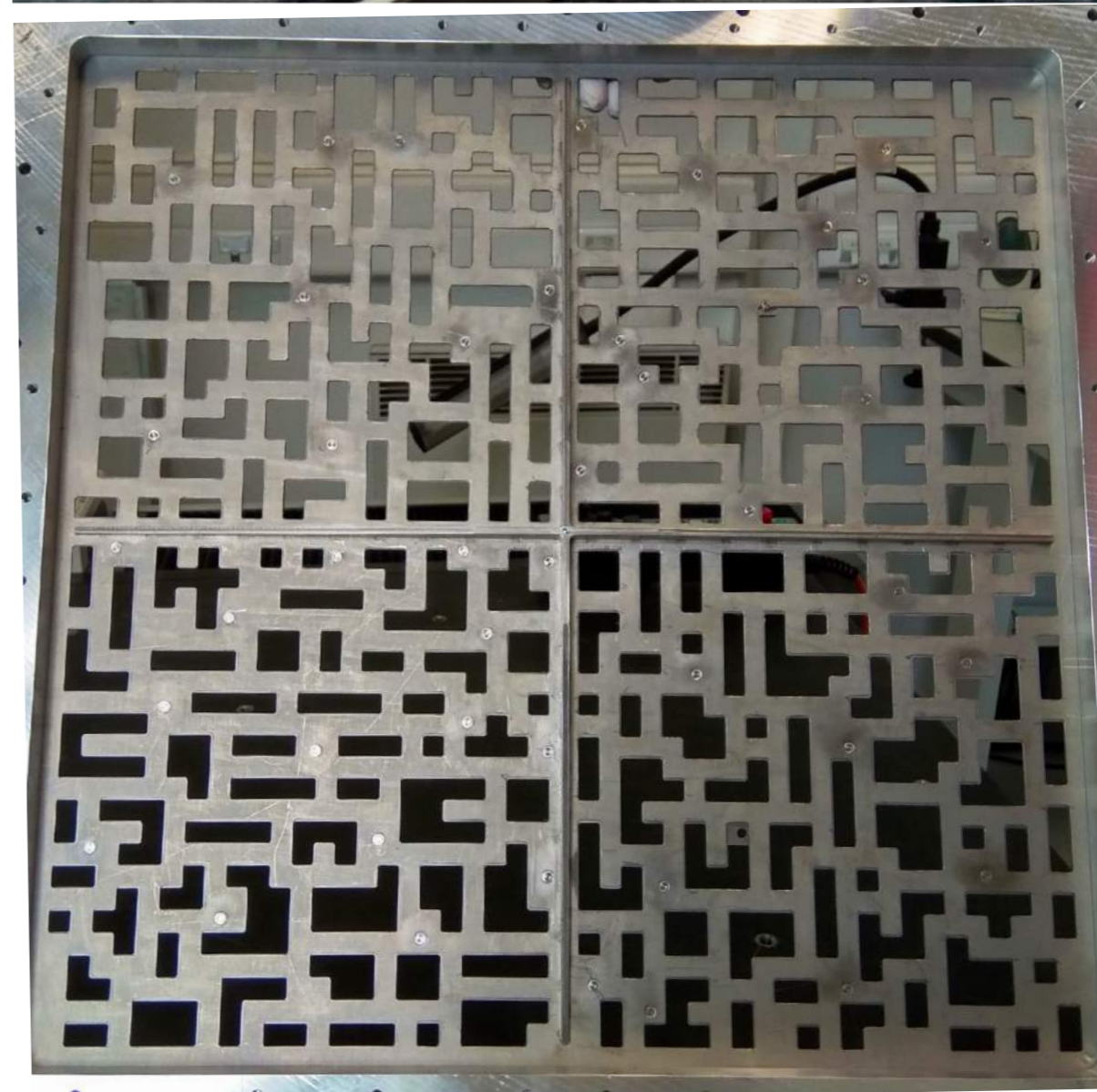
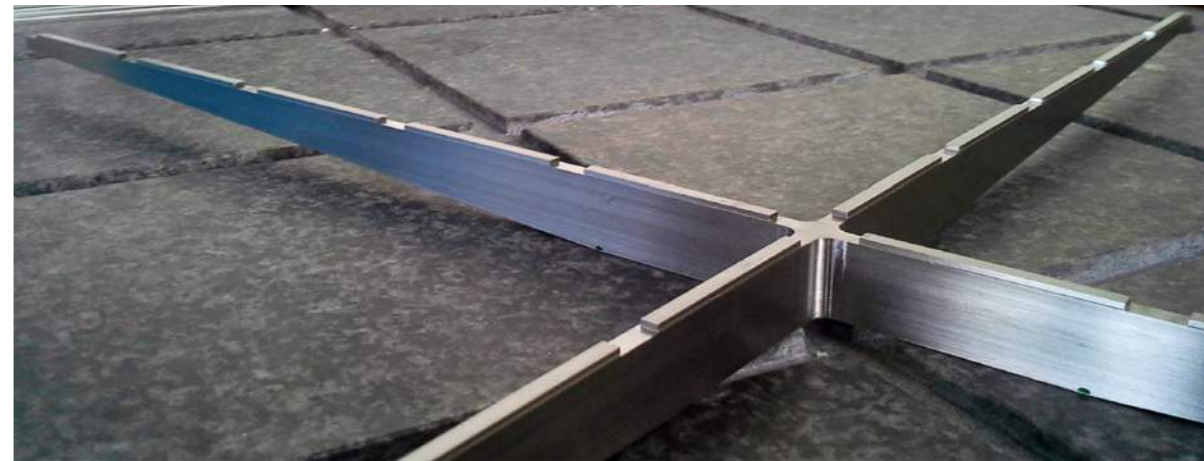
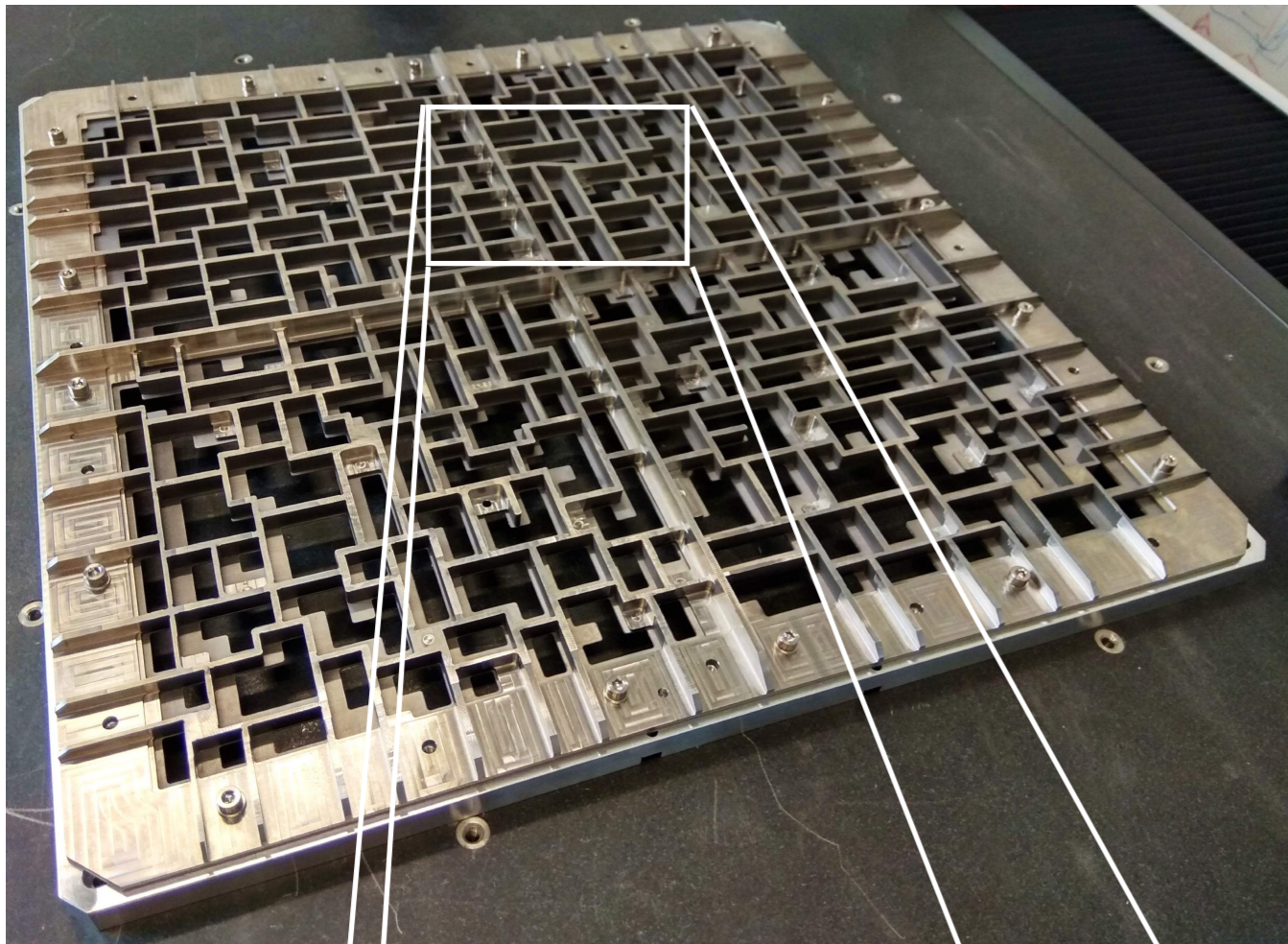
Sum of all the sources + background detected events:



Deconvolution algorithm to reconstruct the sky image:

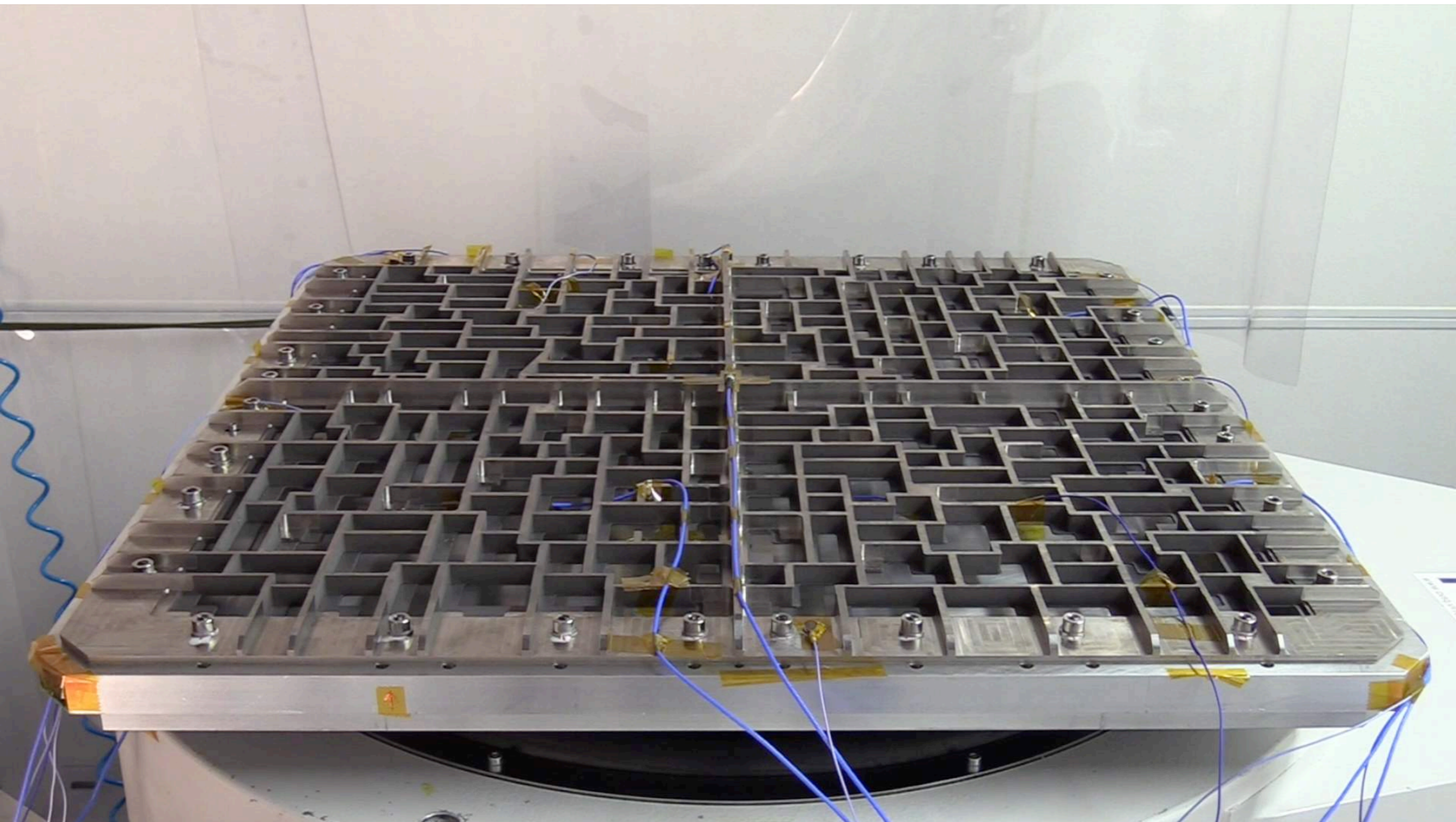


SVOM / ECLAIRs coded mask

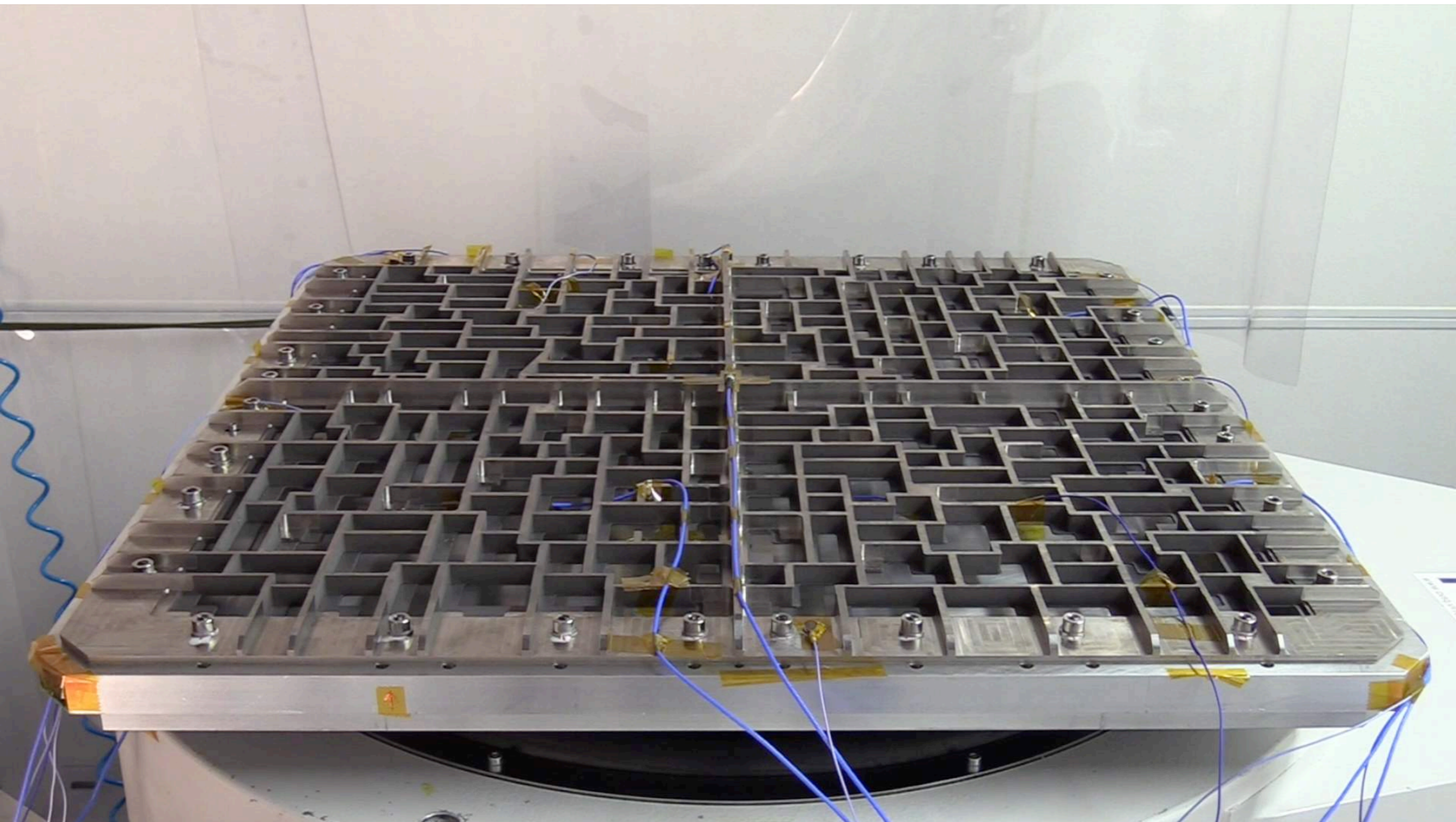


Tantalum opaque to X-ray/gamma-rays

SVOM / ECLAIRs coded mask

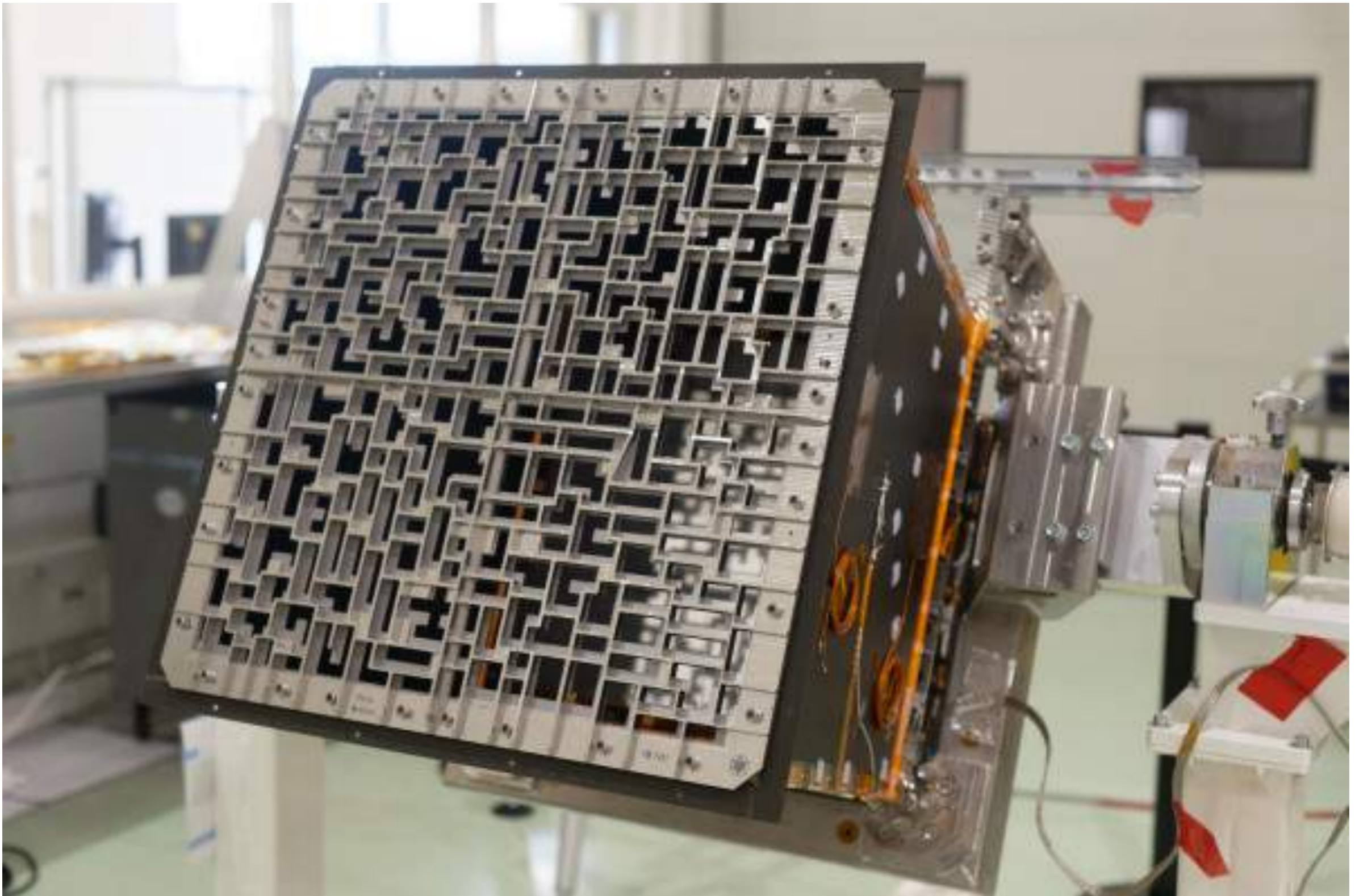


SVOM / ECLAIRs coded mask



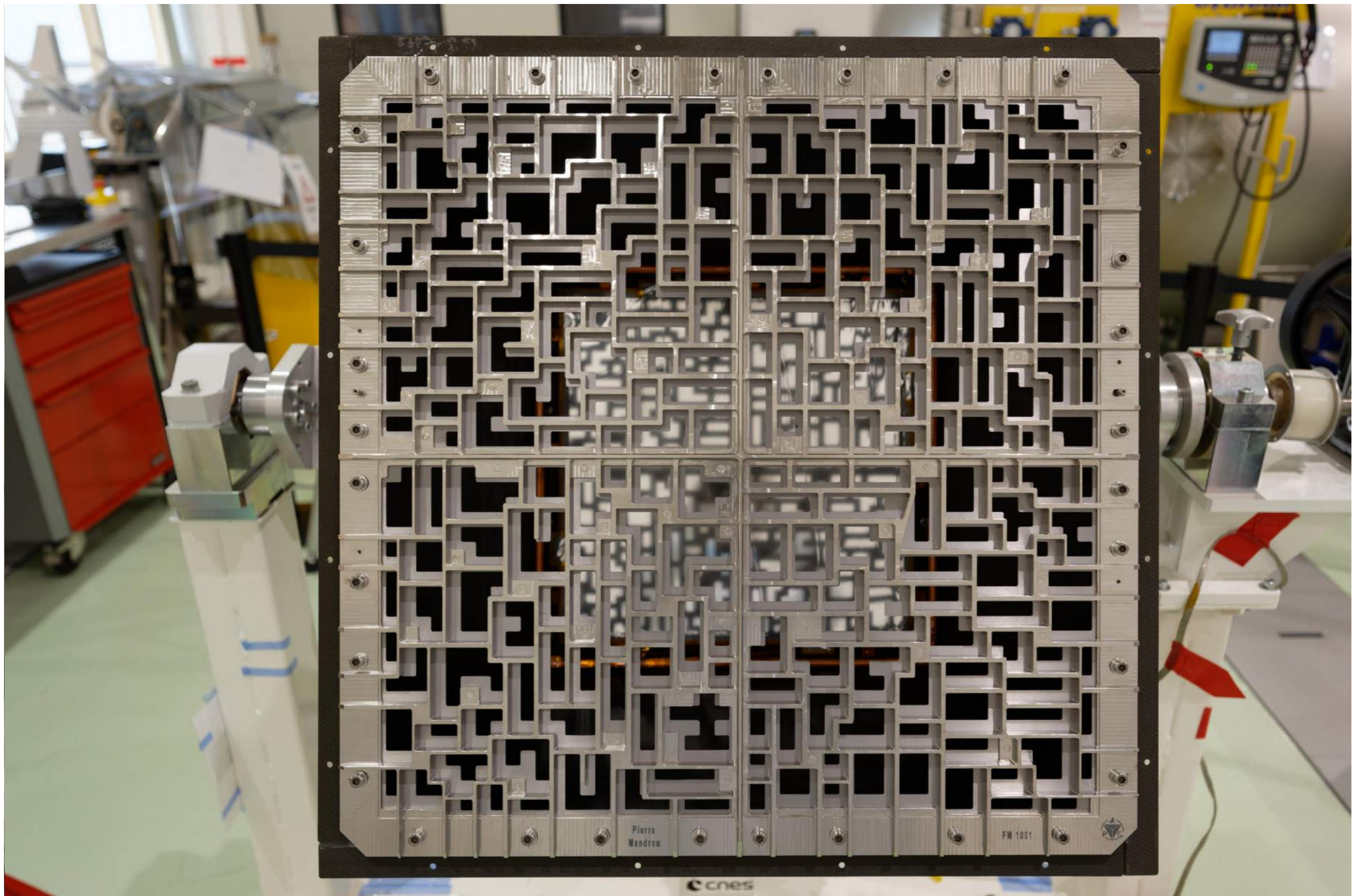
SVOM / ECLAIRs coded mask

ECLAIRs flight model integrated at CNES Toulouse (summer 2021)



SVOM / ECLAIRs coded mask

ECLAIRs flight model integrated at CNES Toulouse (summer 2021)



Outline - Lecture 3

C. Supermassive black holes

1. Supermassive black hole formation and evolution
2. Cosmic rays from Active Galactic Nuclei
3. Supermassive black hole binaries

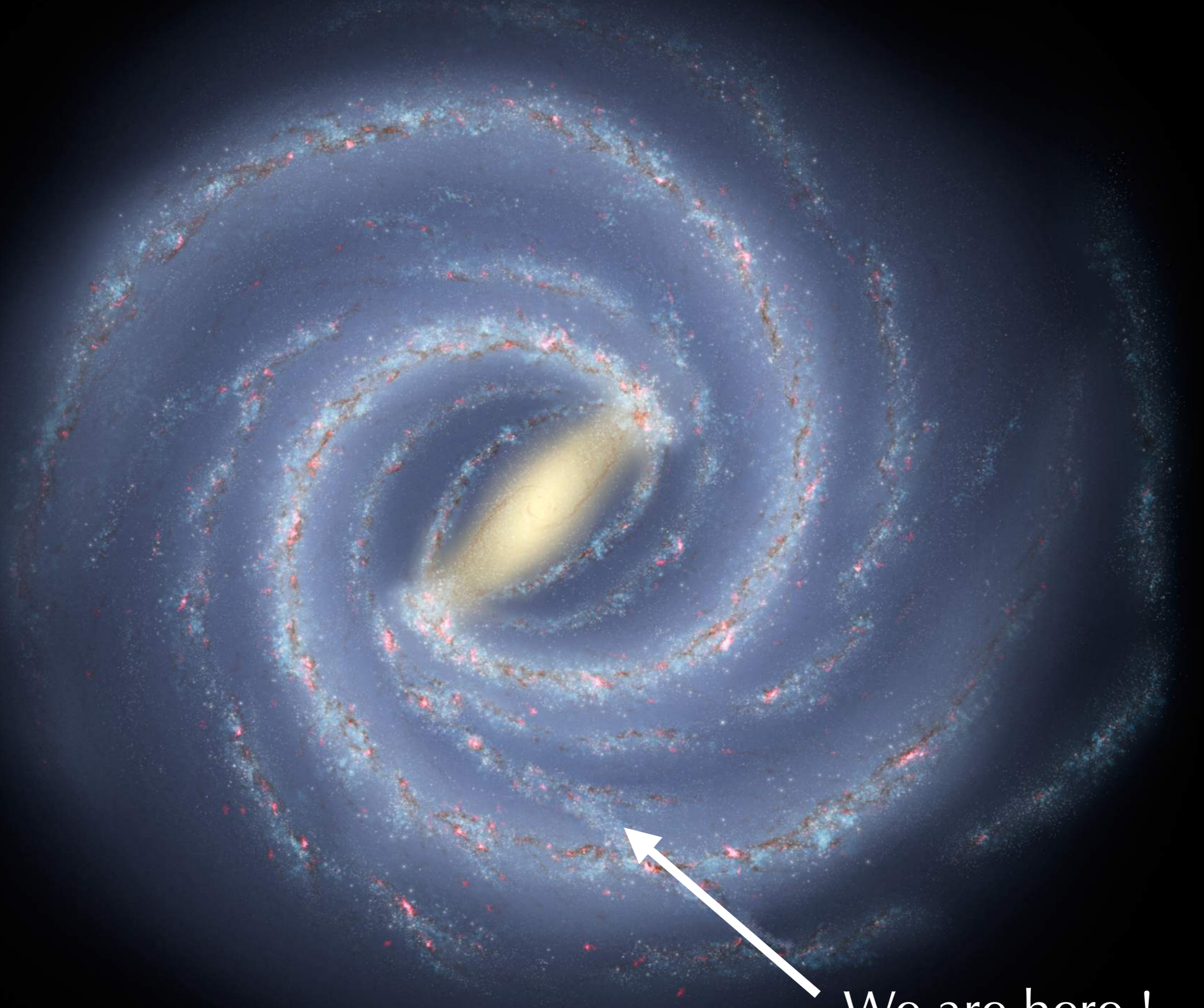


Outline - Lecture 3

C. Supermassive black holes

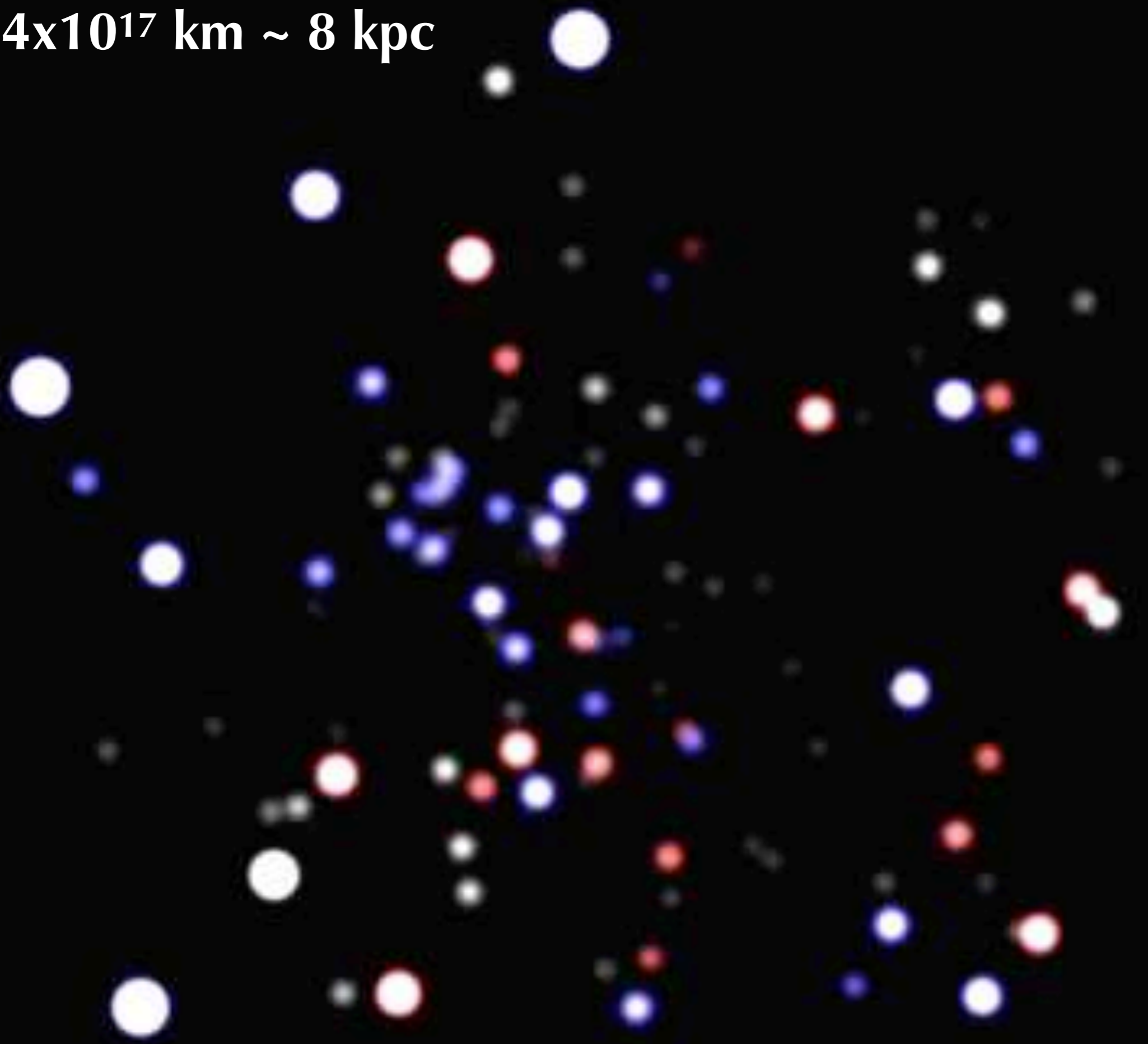
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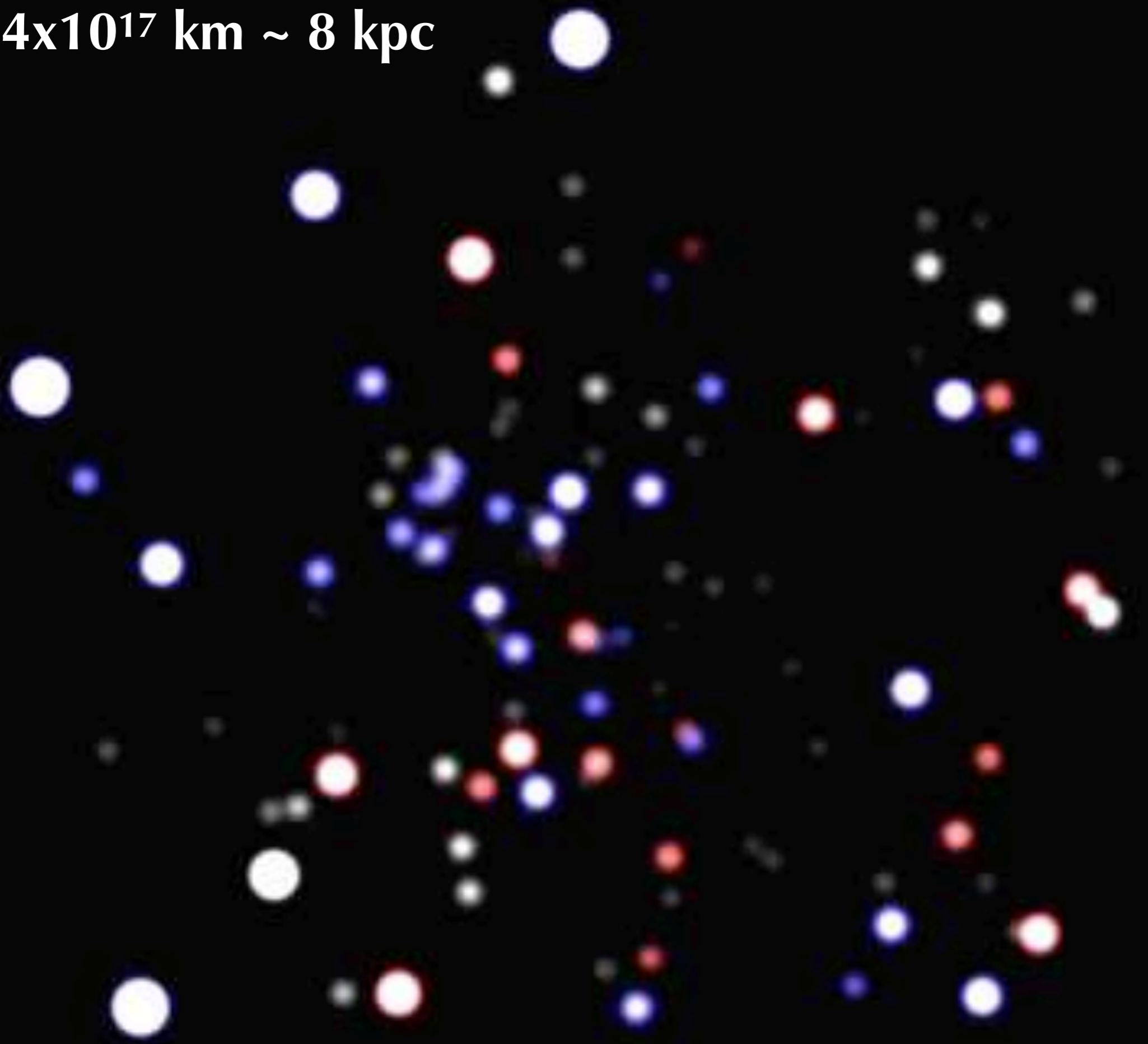


We are here !

$d = 2,4 \times 10^{17} \text{ km} \sim 8 \text{ kpc}$



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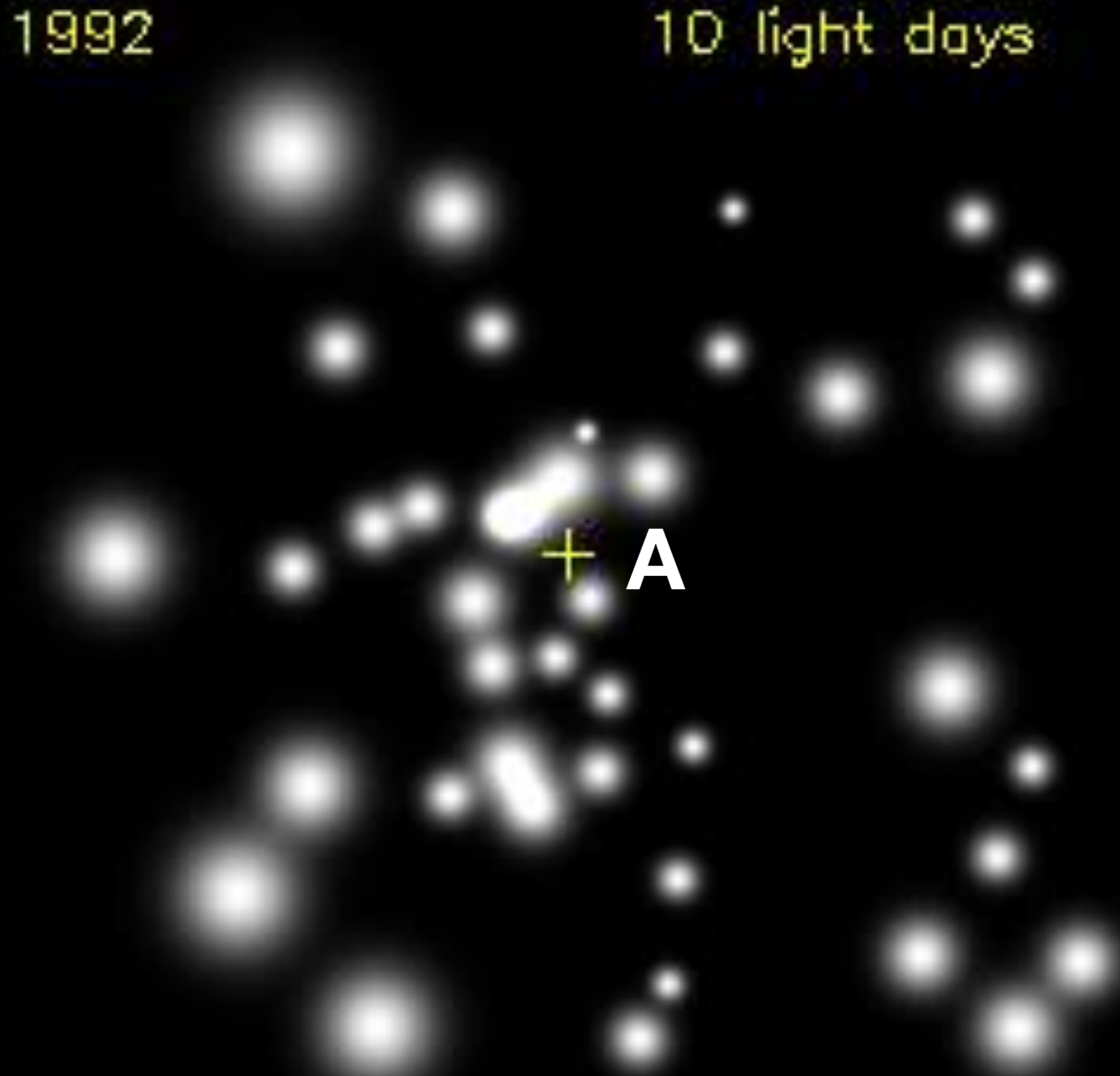


$d = 2,4 \times 10^{17} \text{ km} \sim 8 \text{ kpc}$

1992

10 light days

+ A

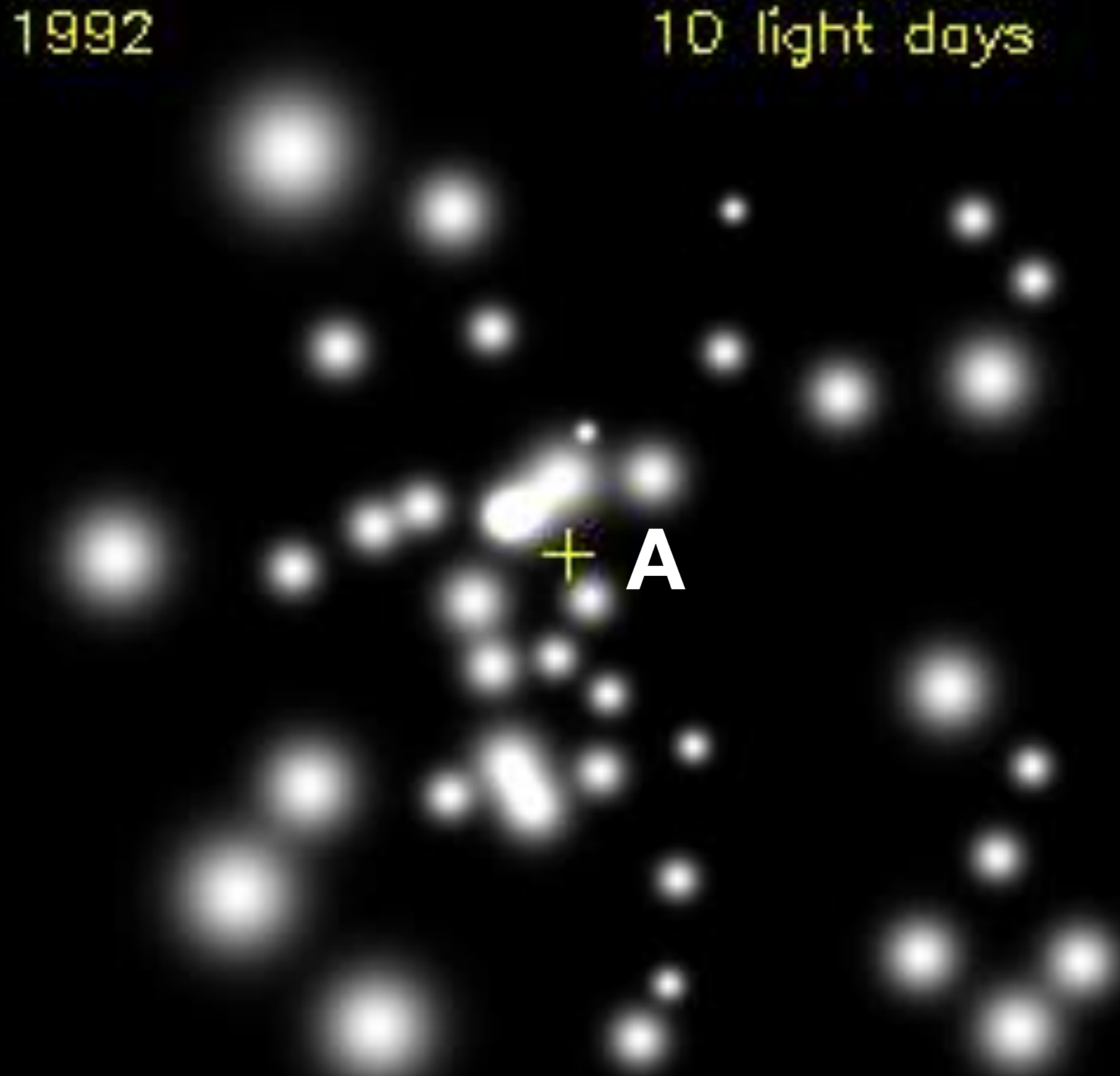


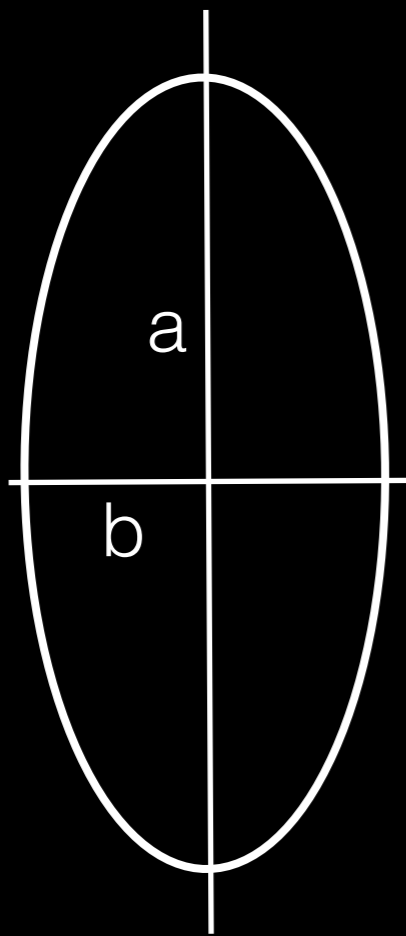
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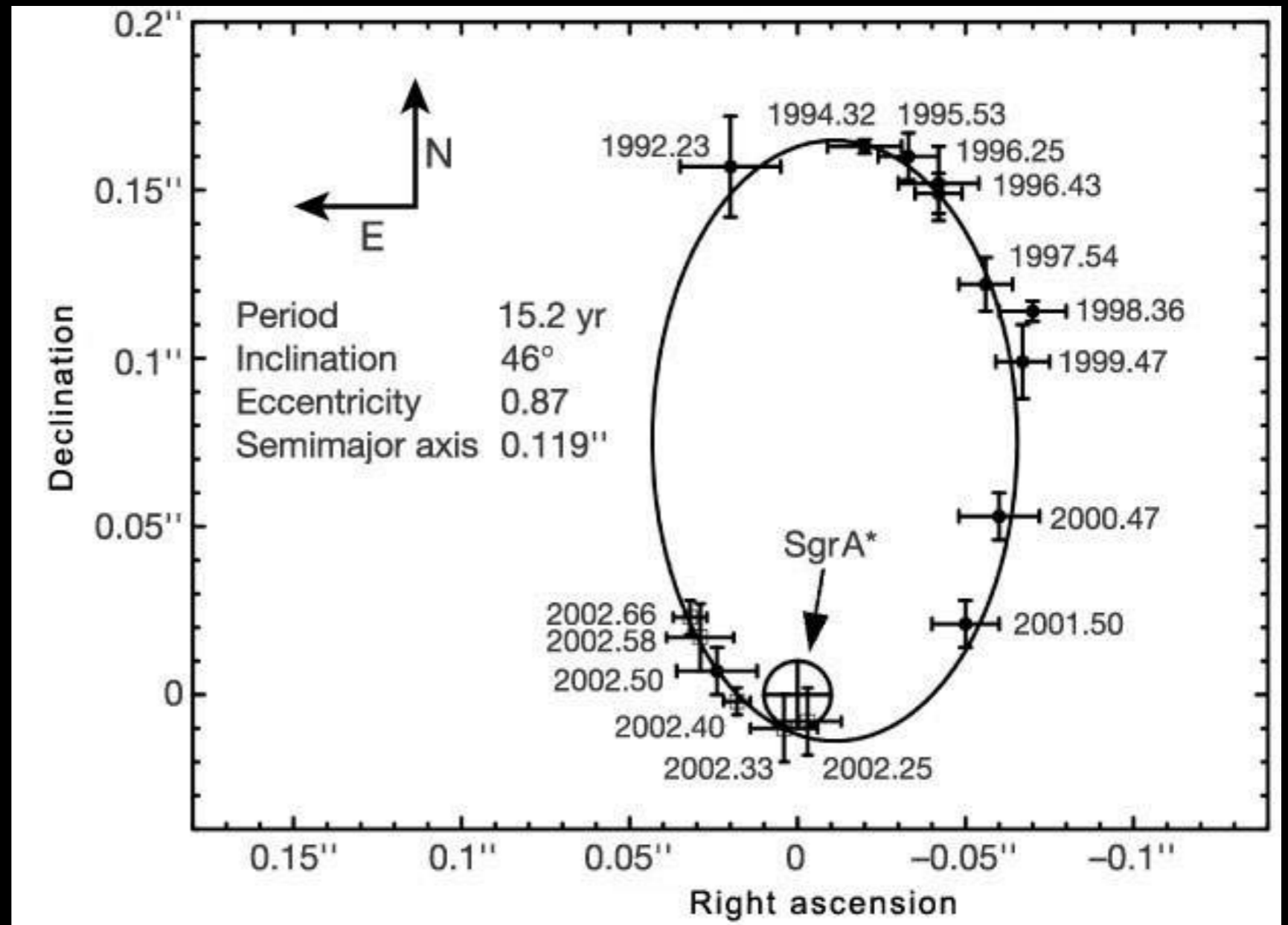
+ A

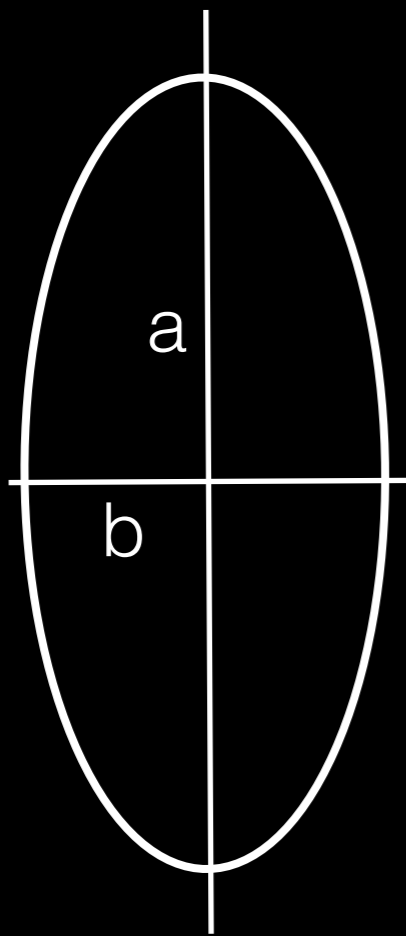




3rd Kepler law:

$$T^2 / a^3 = 4\pi^2 / GM = \text{cste}$$

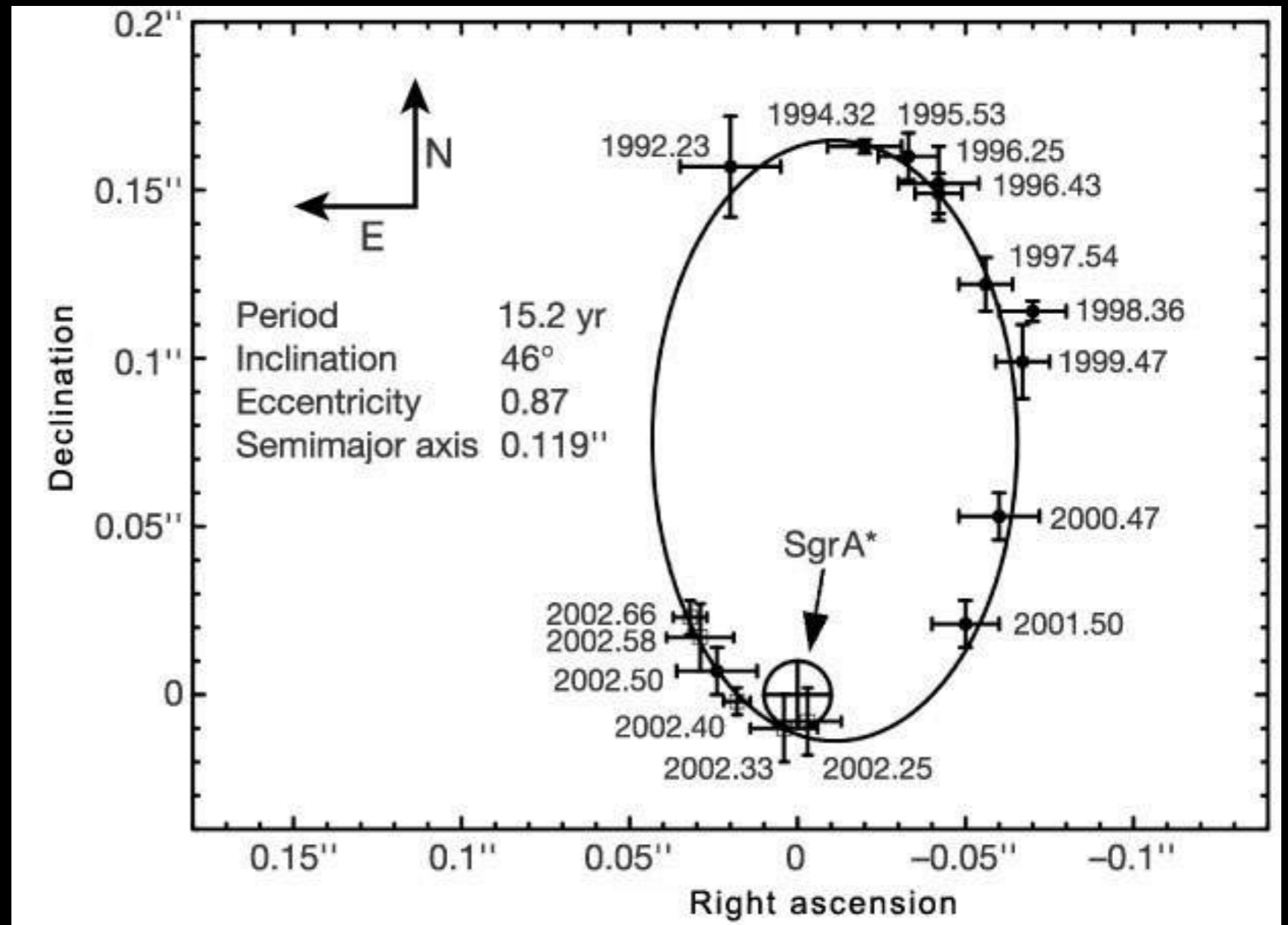


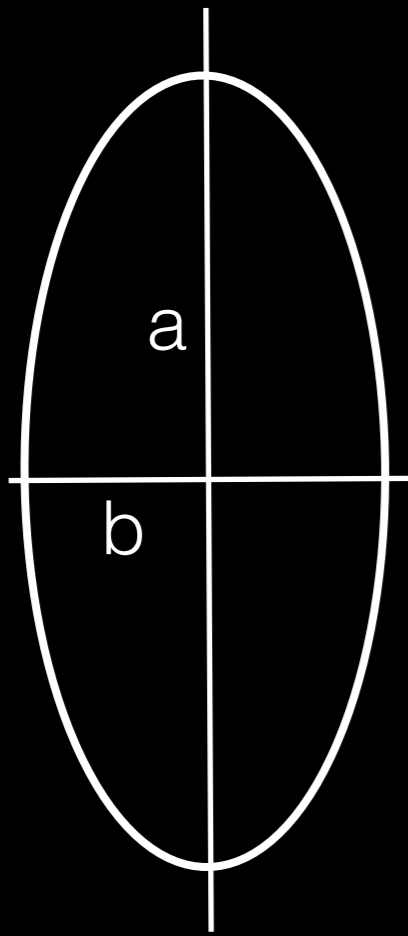


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$$T \sim 15 \text{ yr} = 4,73 \times 10^8 \text{ s}$$



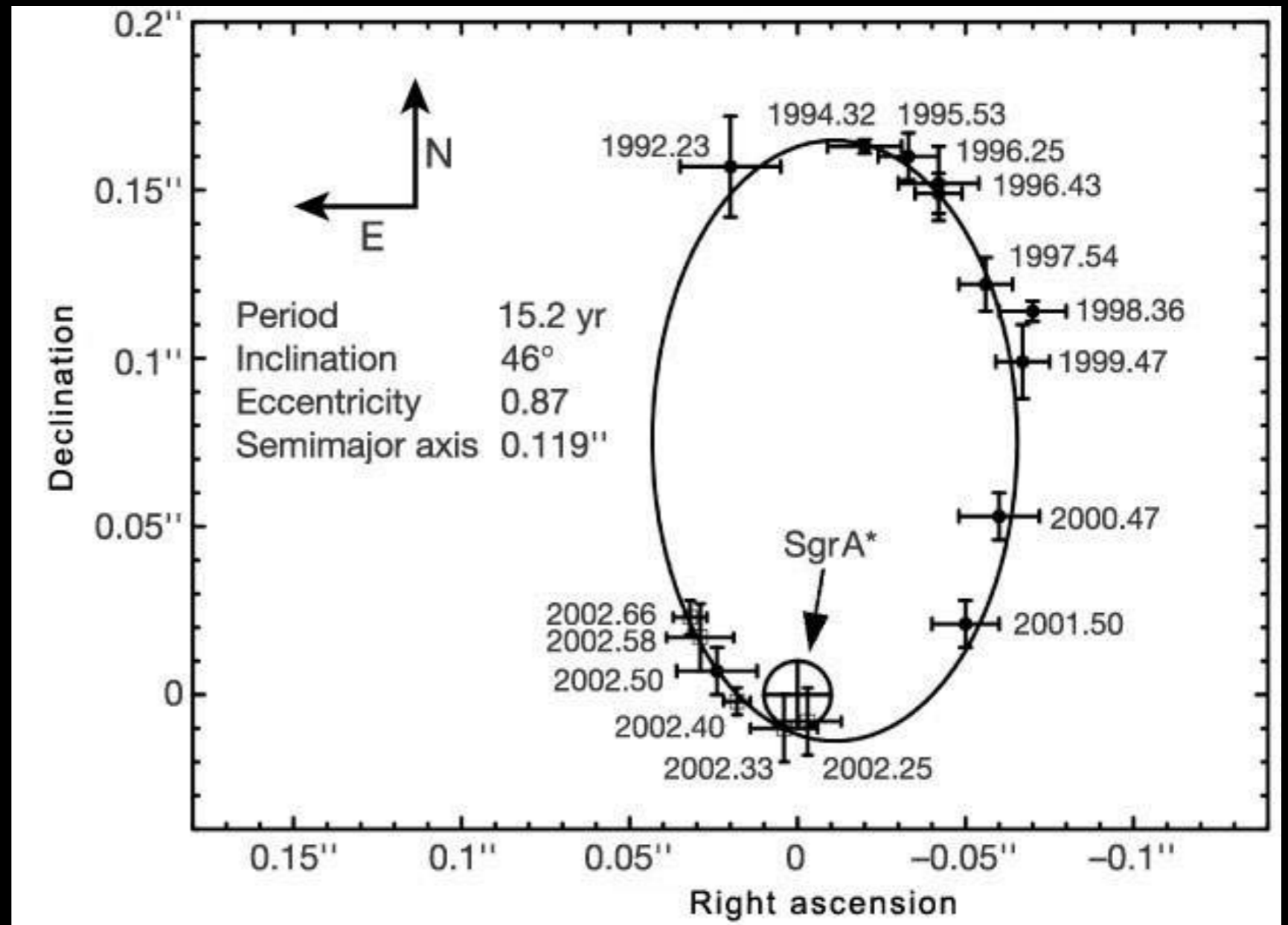


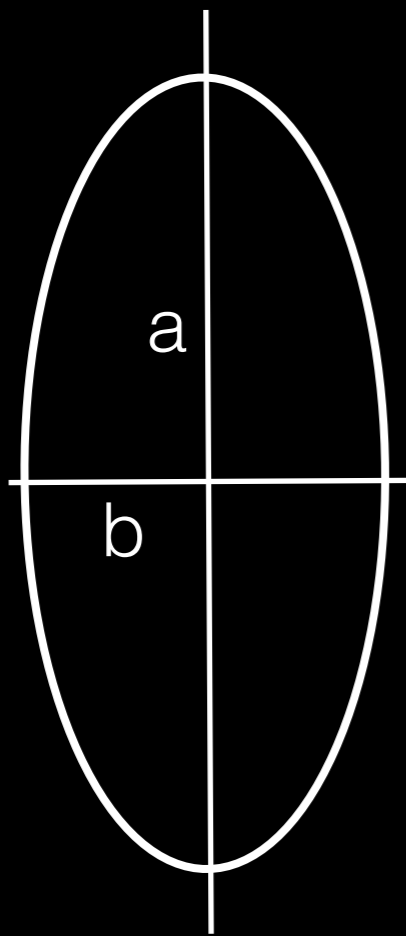
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$$2a \sim 3 \times 10^{14} \text{ m}$$



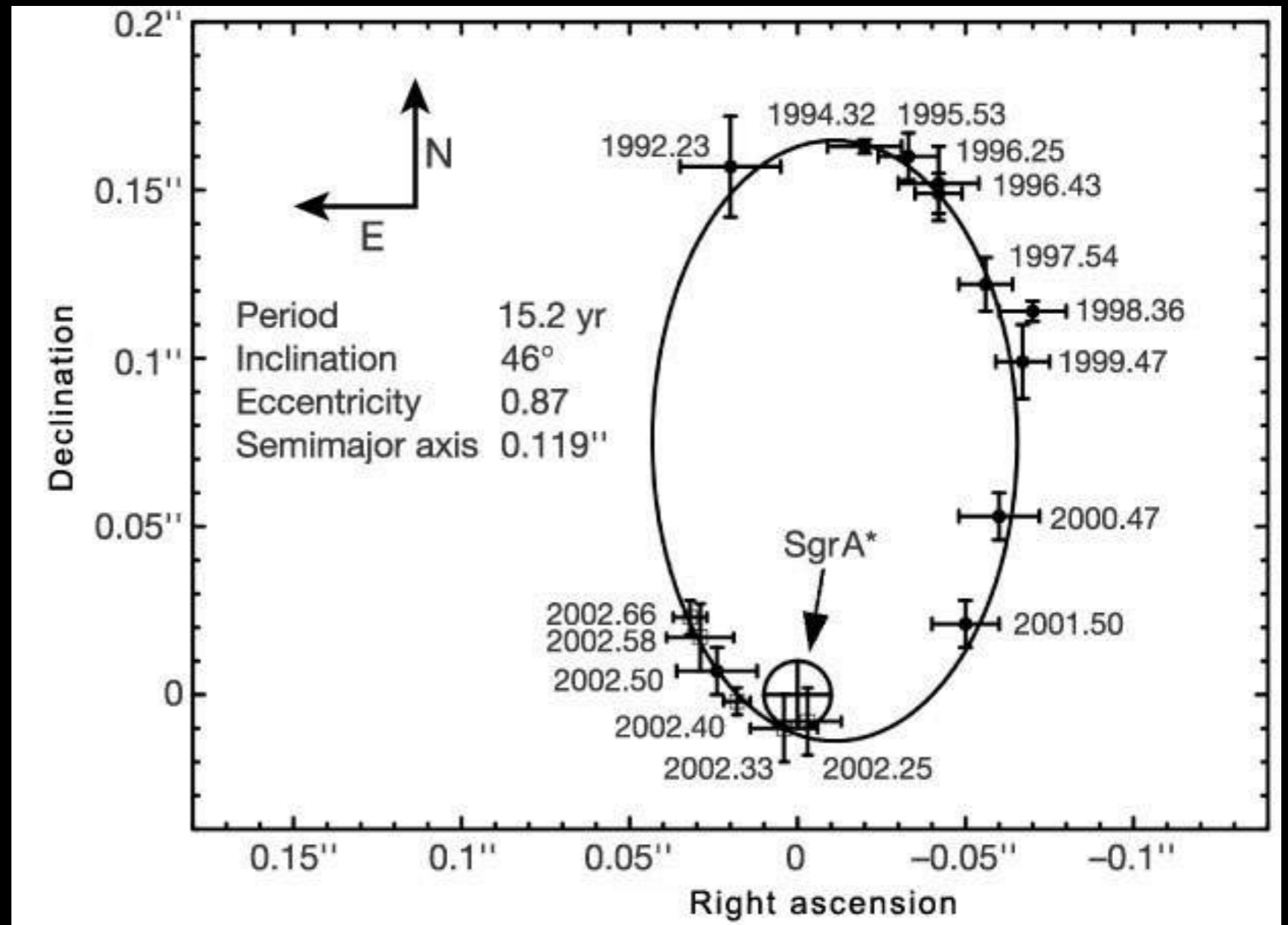


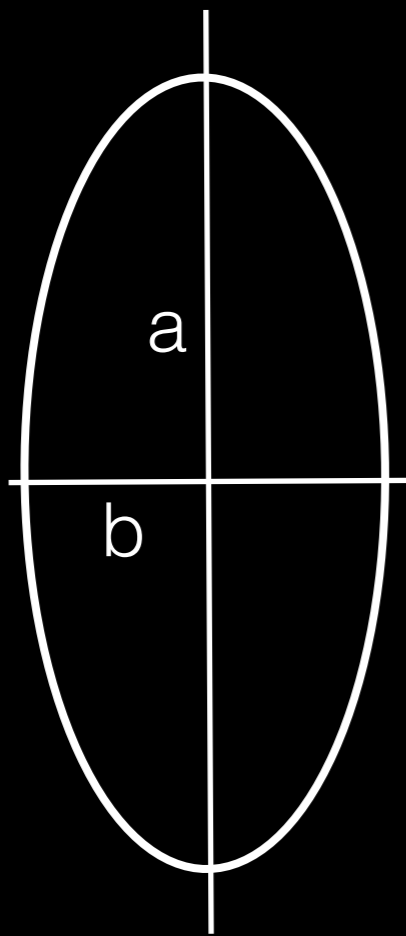
3rd Kepler law:

$$T^2 / a^3 = 4\pi^2 / GM = \text{cste}$$

$$M = 4\pi^2 \times a^3 / (T^2 \times G)$$

$$= 3.2 \times 10^{36} \text{ kg}$$





3rd Kepler law:

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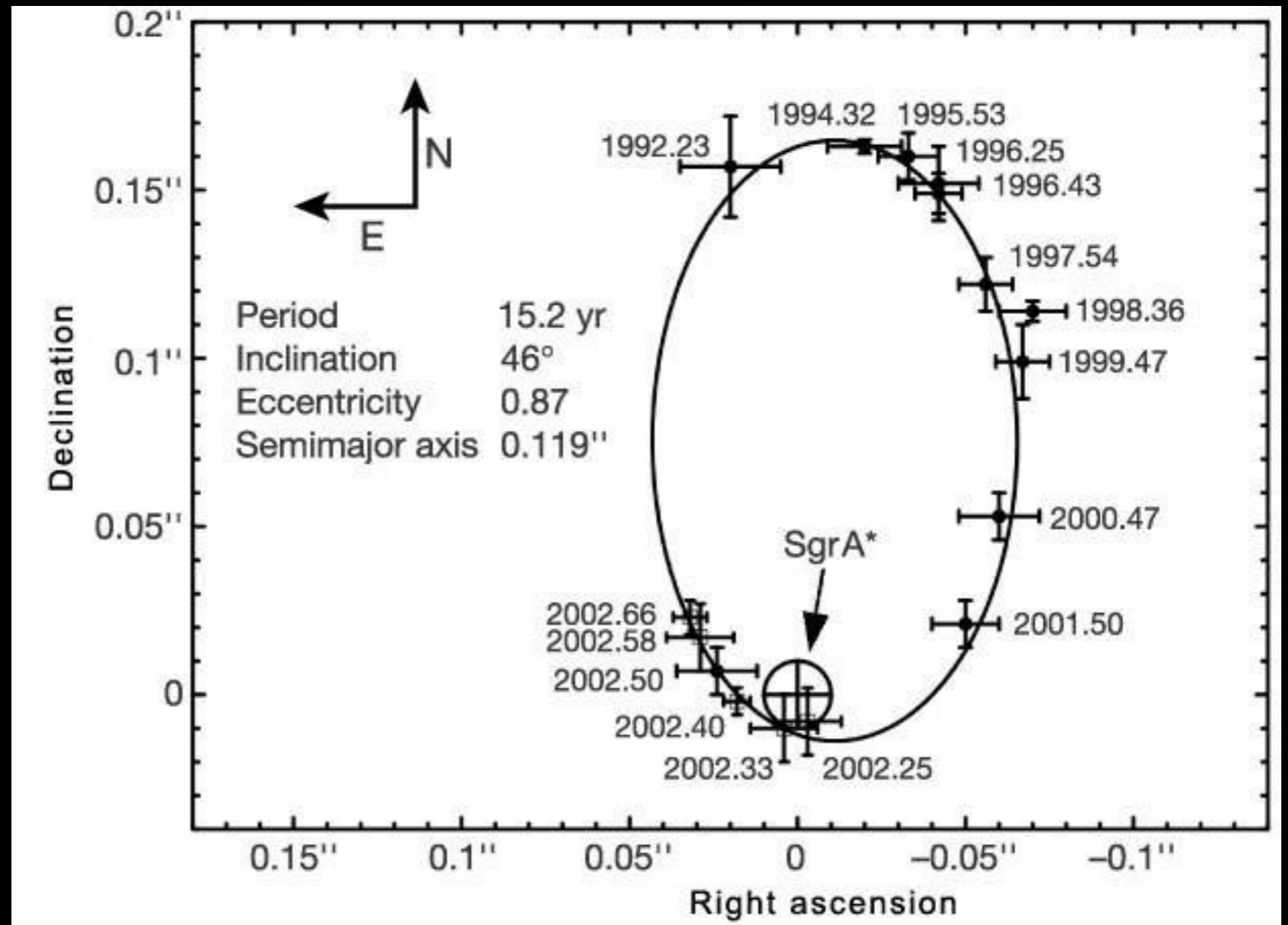
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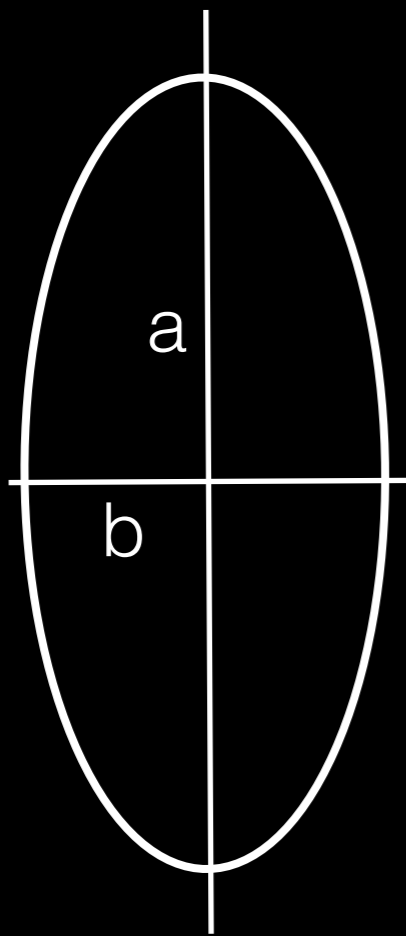
$$= 3.2 \times 10^{36} \text{ kg}$$



$$M / M_{\text{soleil}} = 3.2 \times 10^{36} \text{ kg} / 2 \times 10^{30} \text{ kg}$$

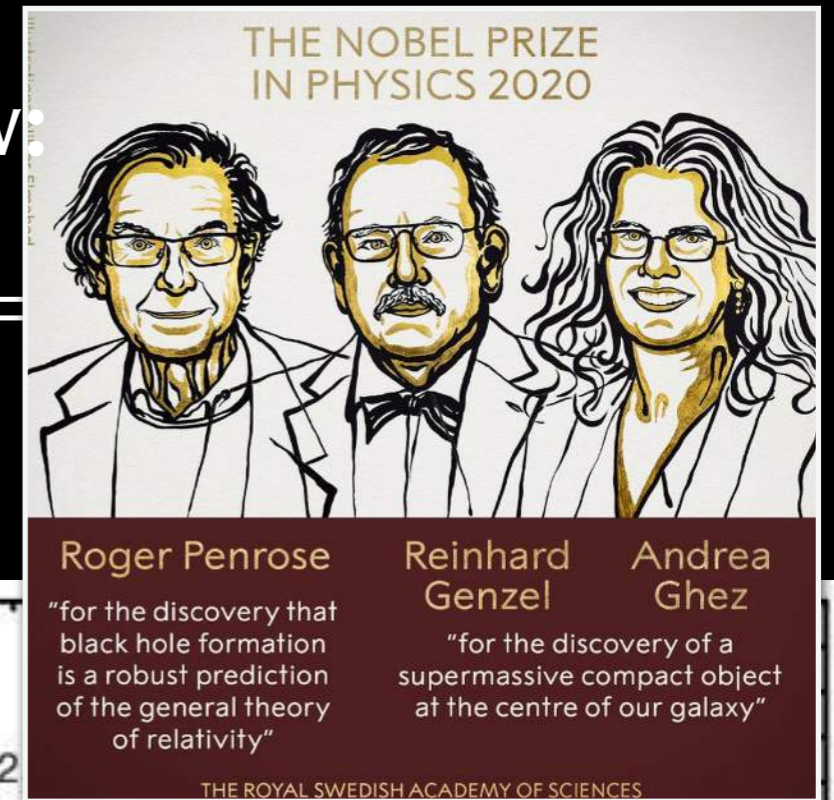
$$= 1,6 \times 10^6$$





3rd Kepler law:

$$T^2 / a^3 = 4\pi^2 / GM =$$



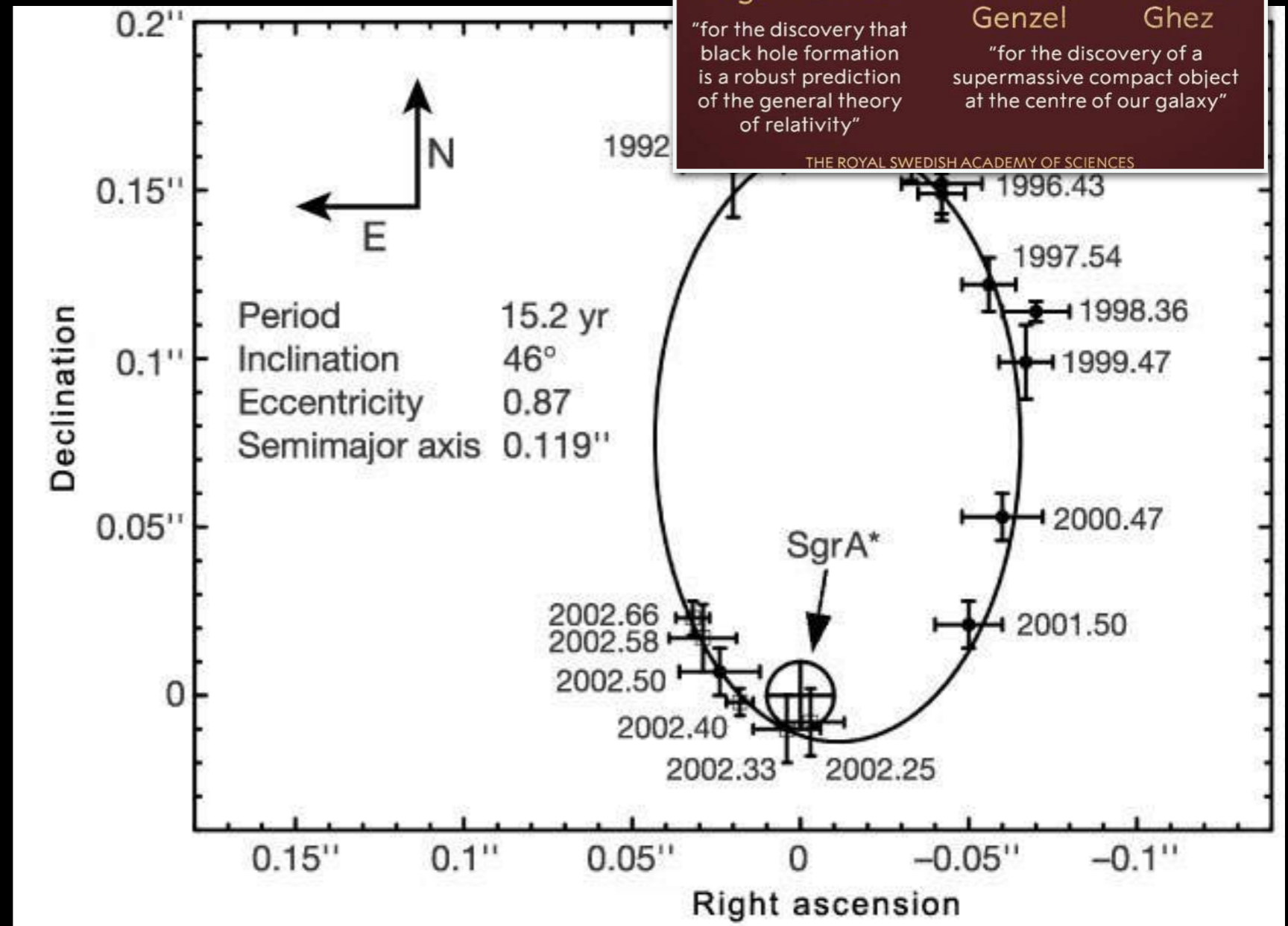
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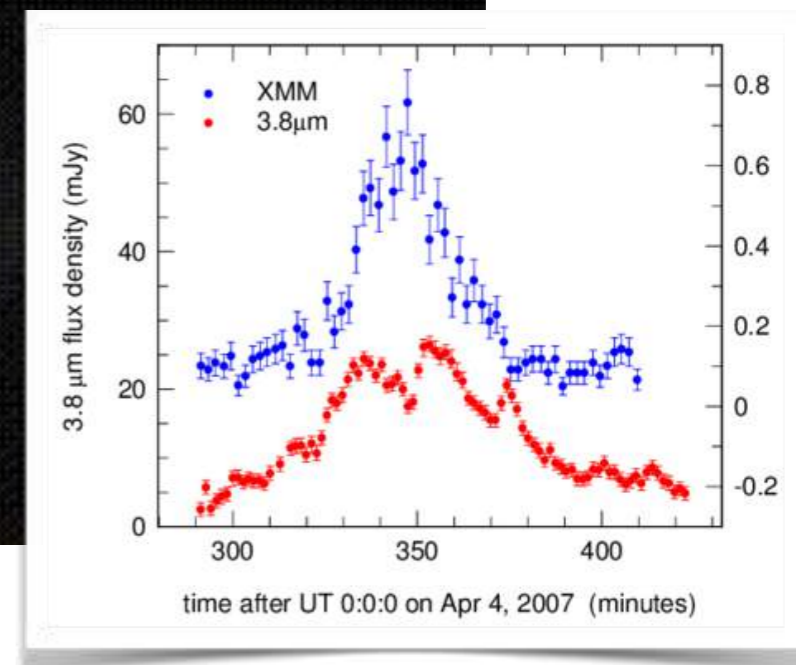
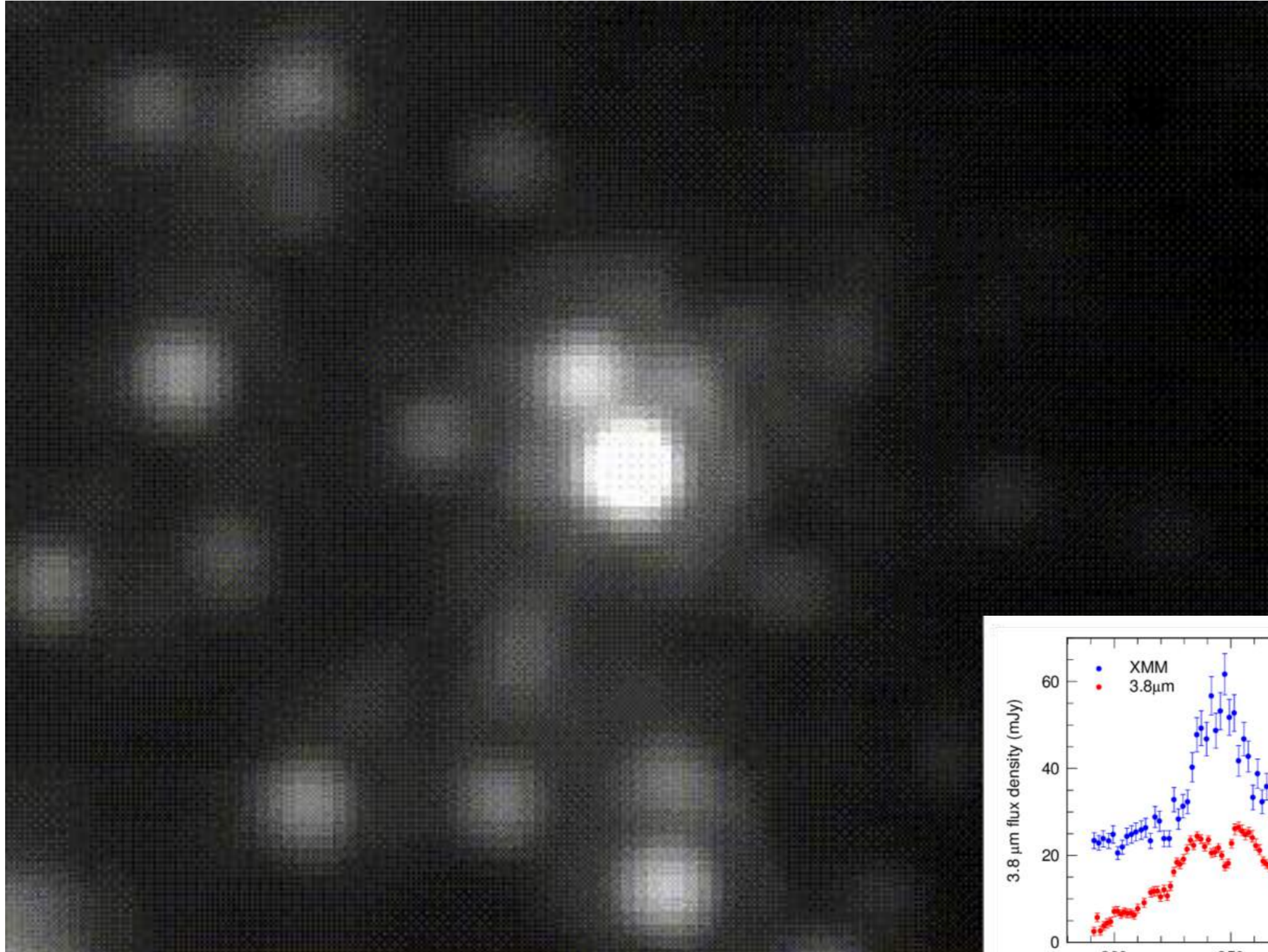
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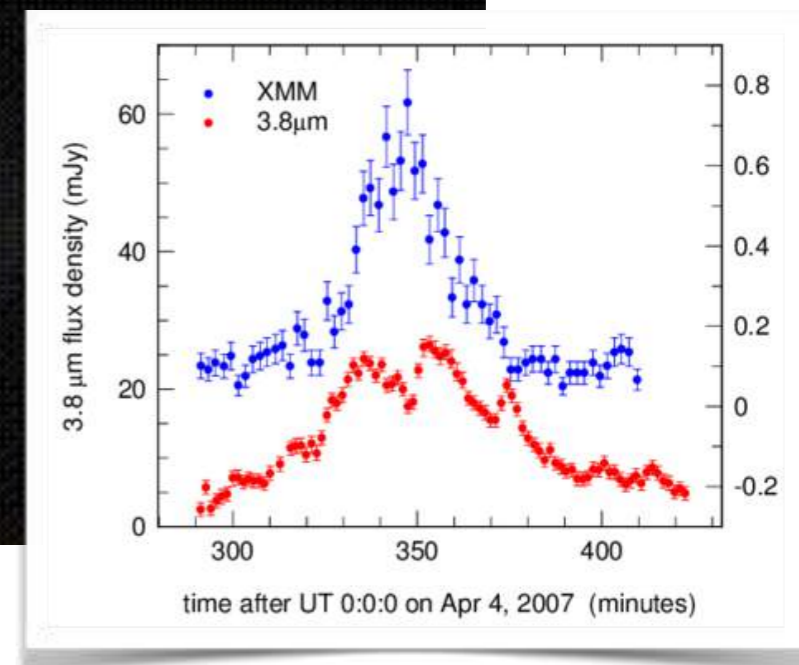
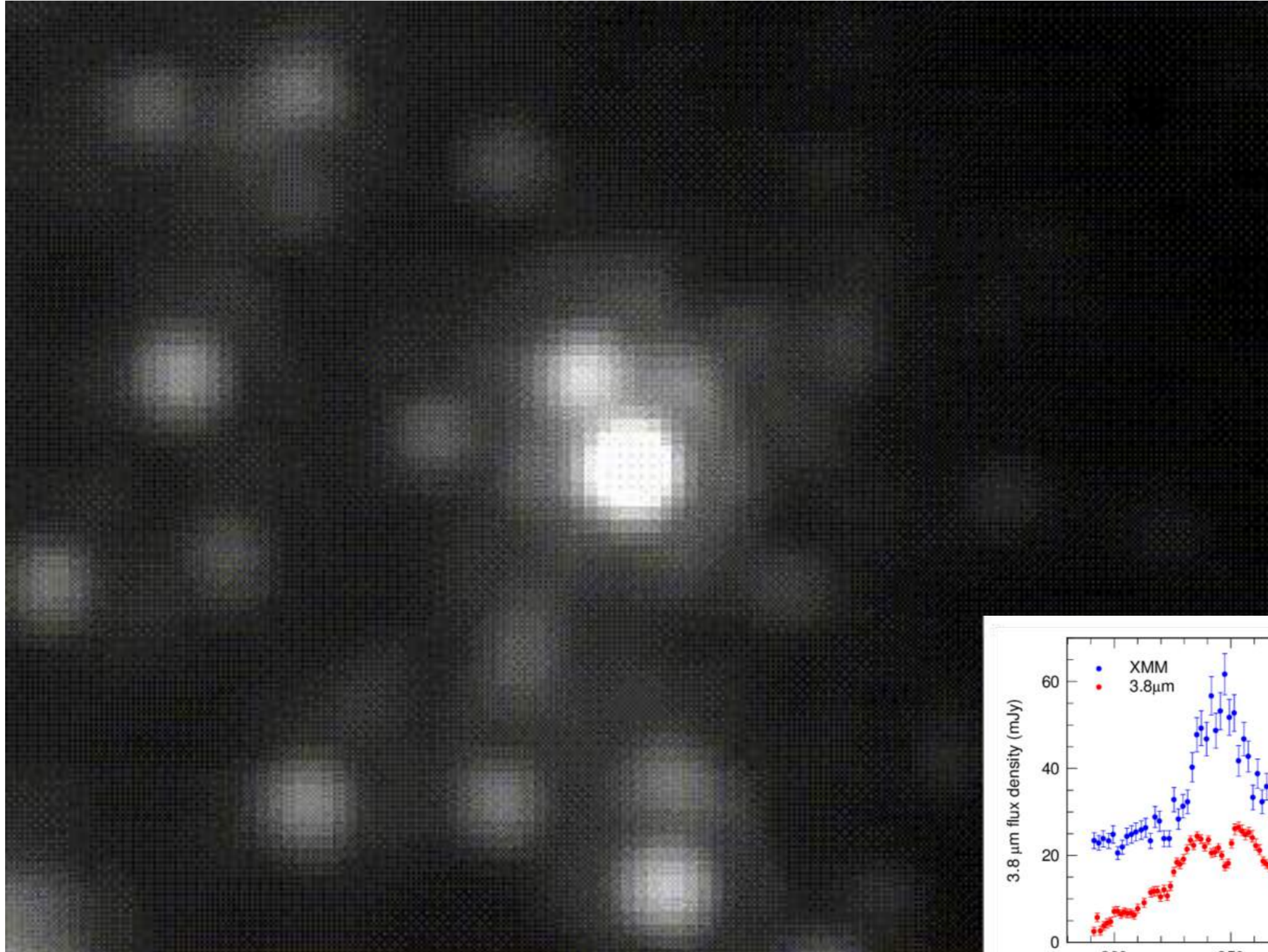
SgrA* electromagnetic emission

Near infrared



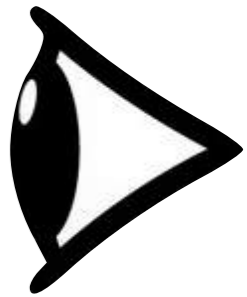
SgrA* electromagnetic emission

Near infrared



Nature of the central object

Variability timescale

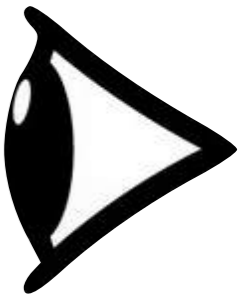


Nature of the central object

Variability timescale



When light is switched on:
lampshade appears to light
up instantaneously
because it is small

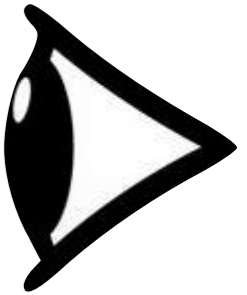


Nature of the central object

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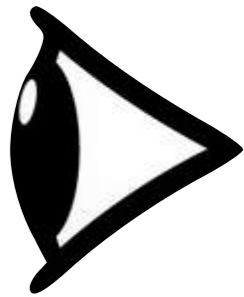
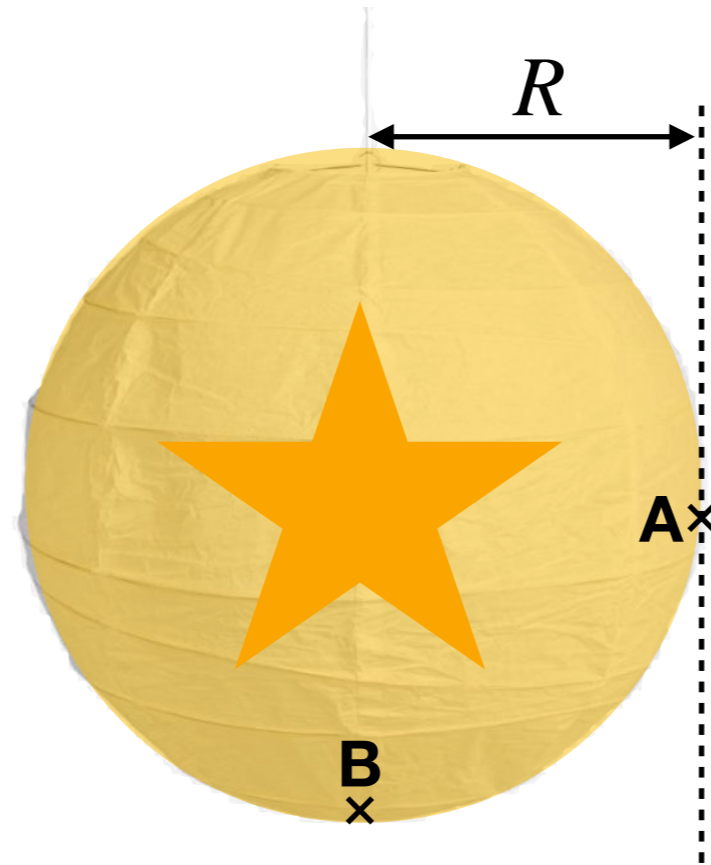


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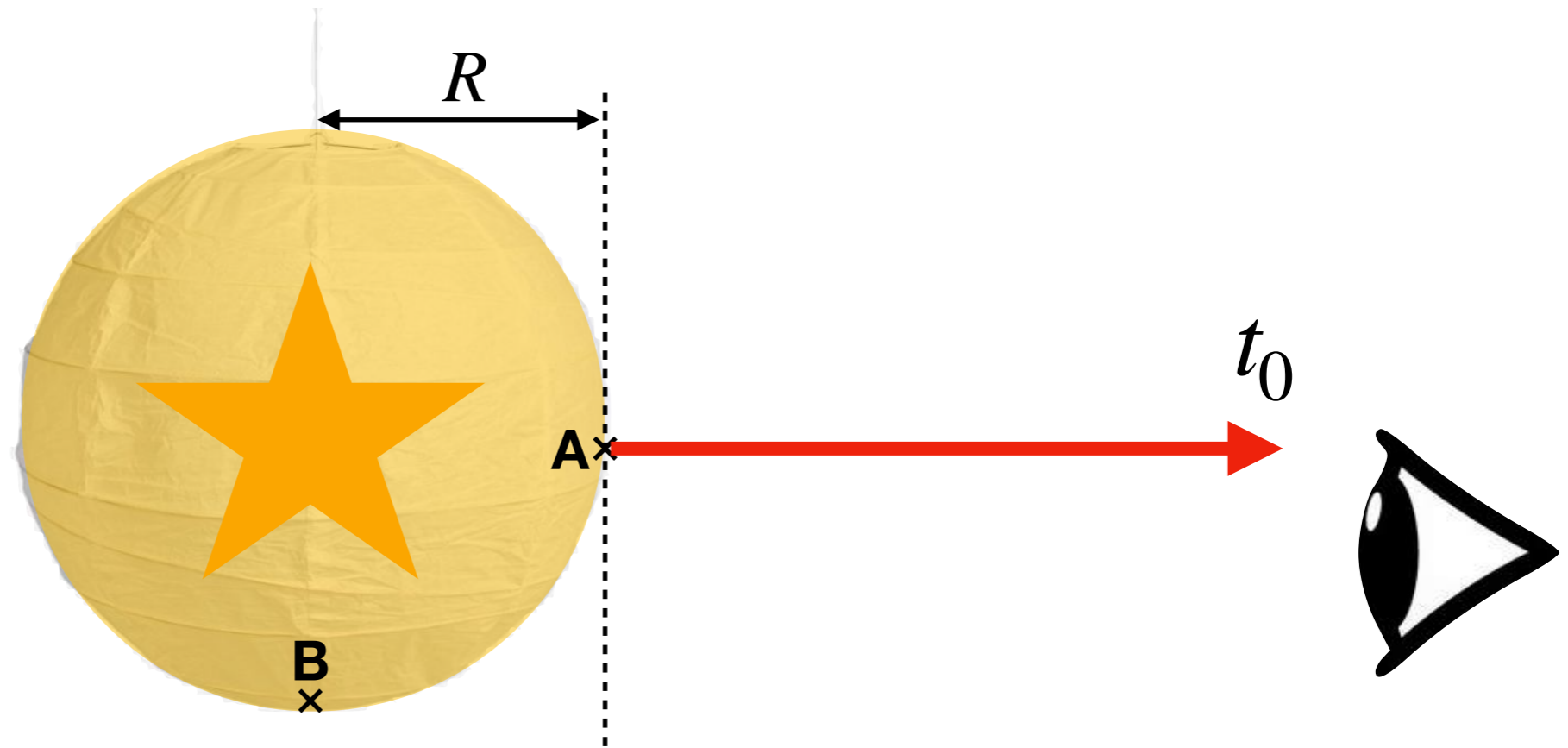
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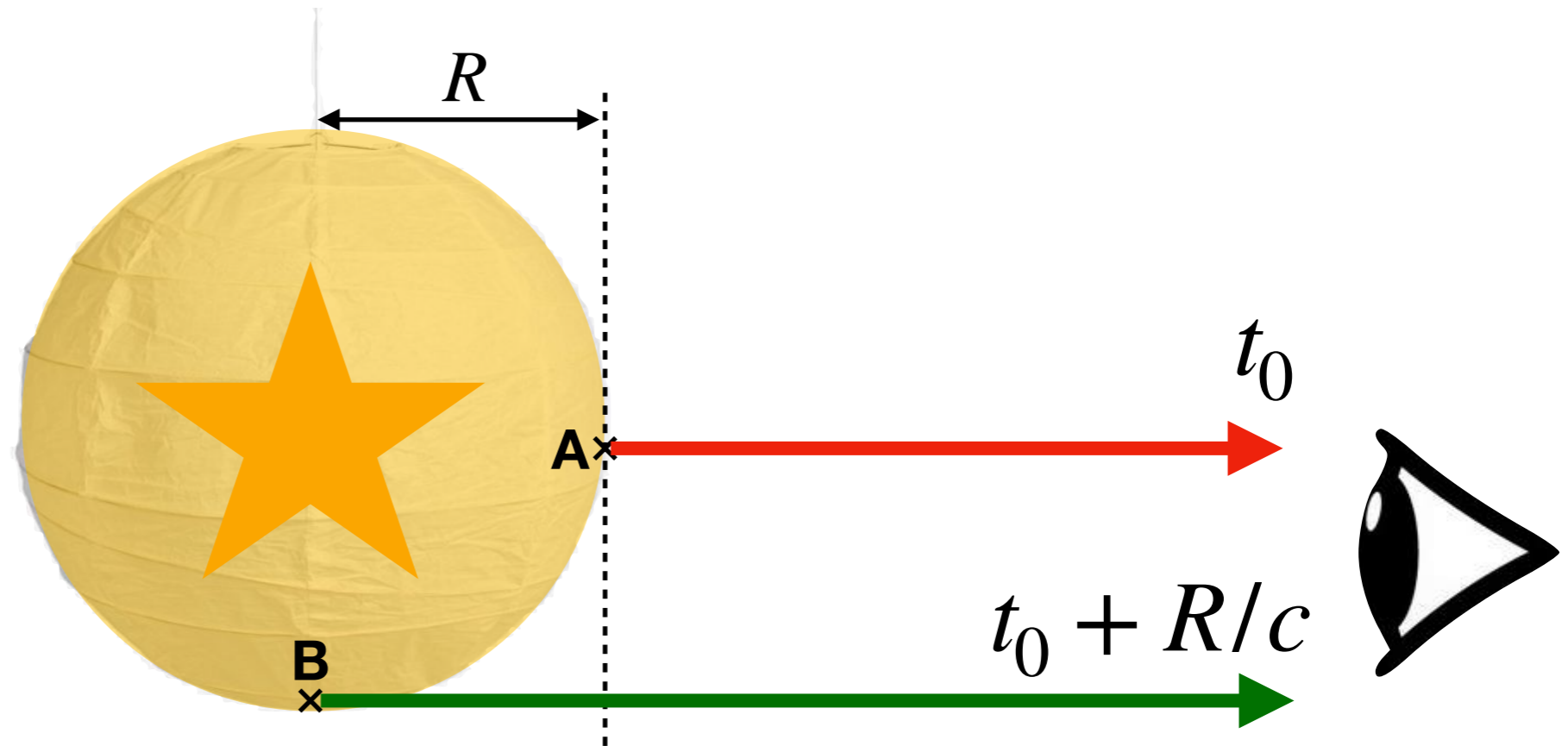
Nature of the central object

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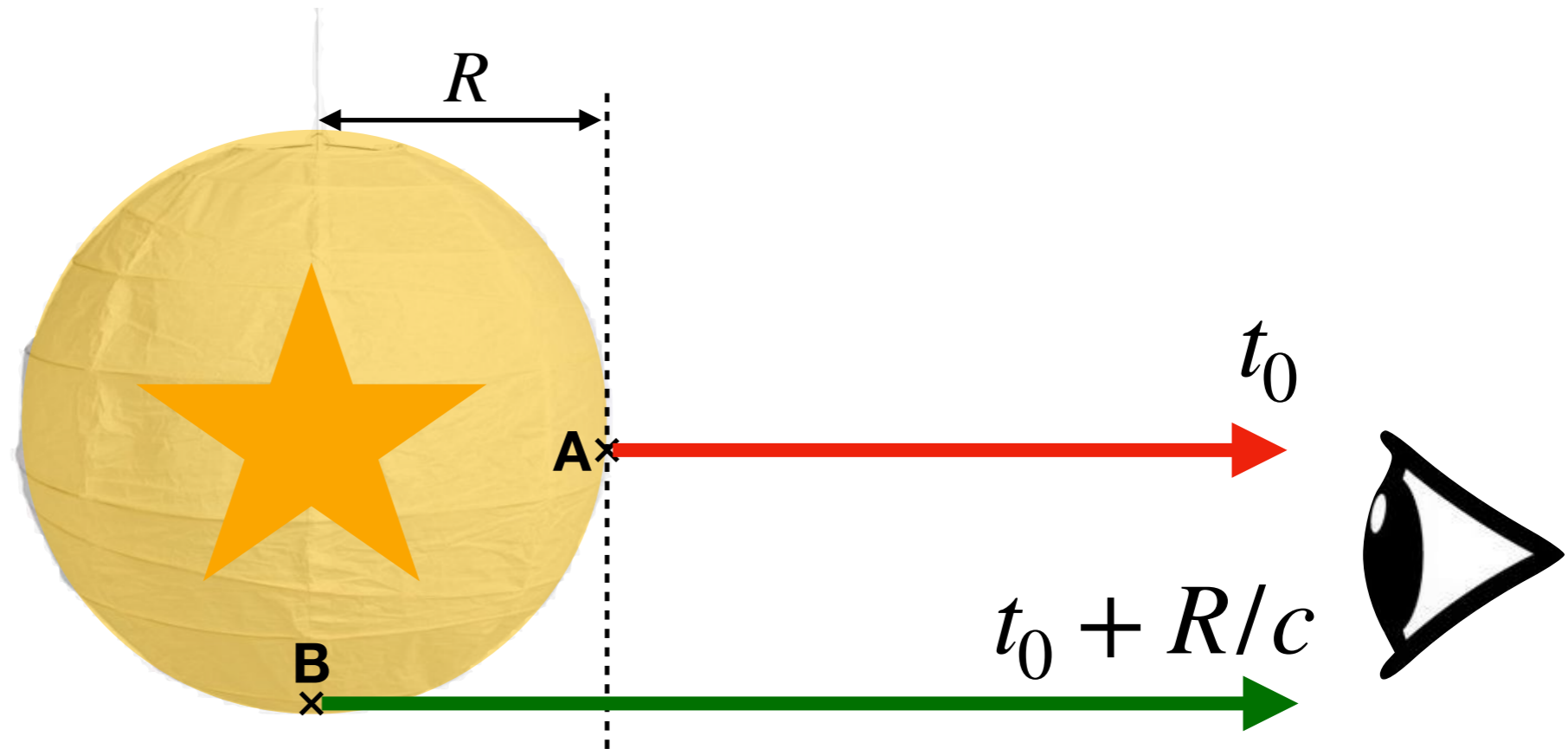
Nature of the central object

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Nature of the central object

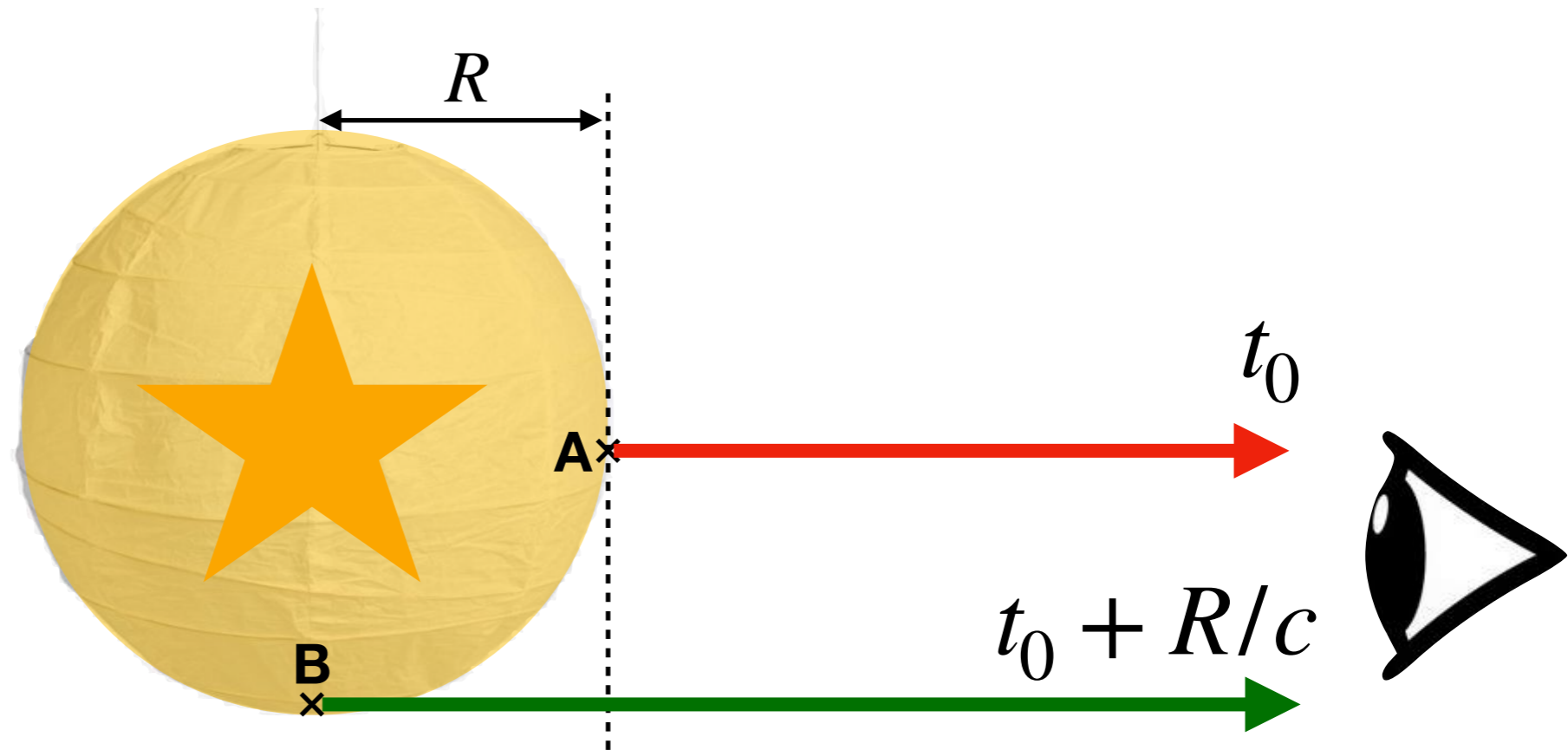
Variability timescale



Light from B will reach the observer a time R/c later than light from A

Nature of the central object

Variability timescale

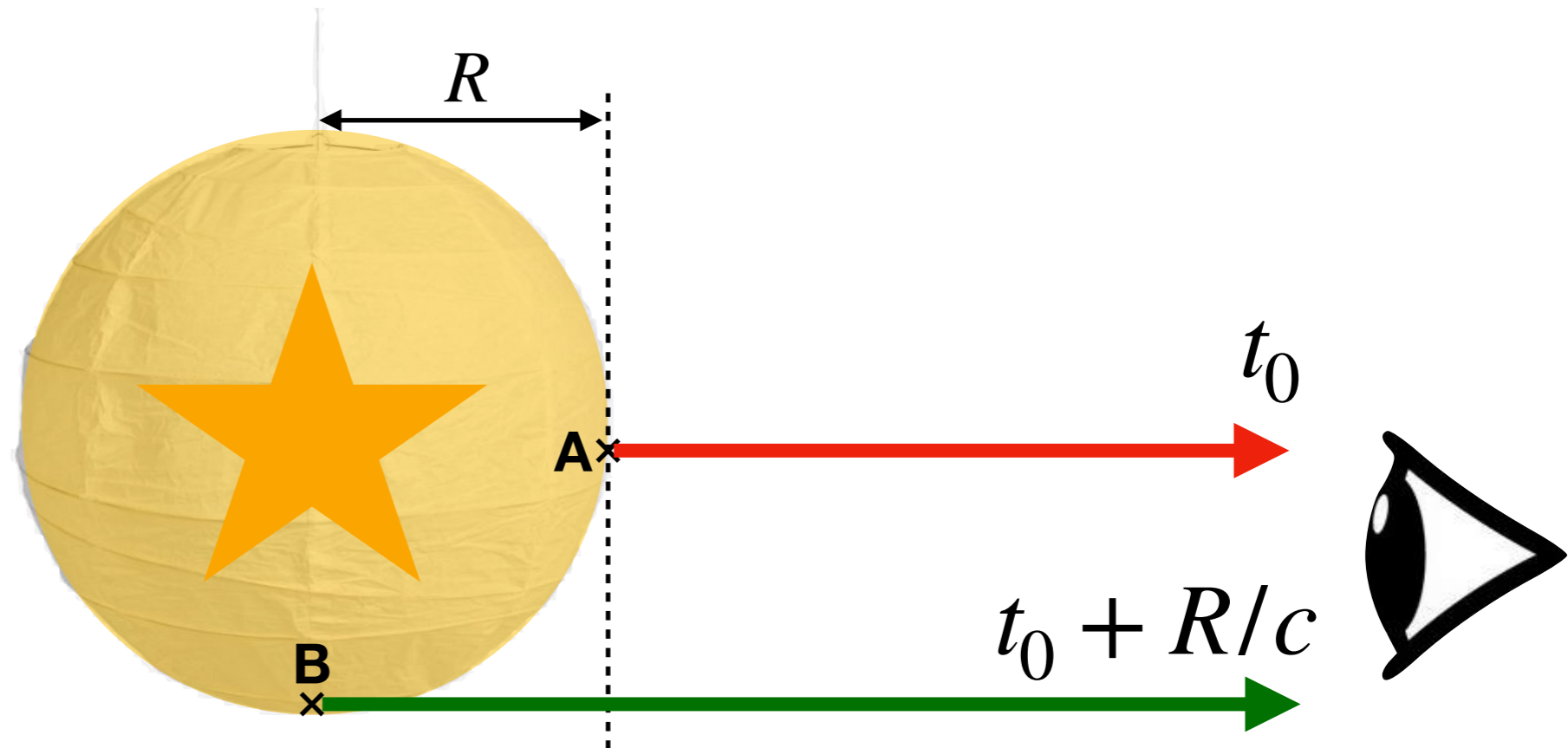


Light from B will reach the observer a time R/c later than light from A

⇒ **Fluctuations on timescales of less than R/c will not be observed since each flicker will take R/c to spread across the lampshade and the flickers will be smeared out and mixed together.**

Nature of the central object

Variability timescale



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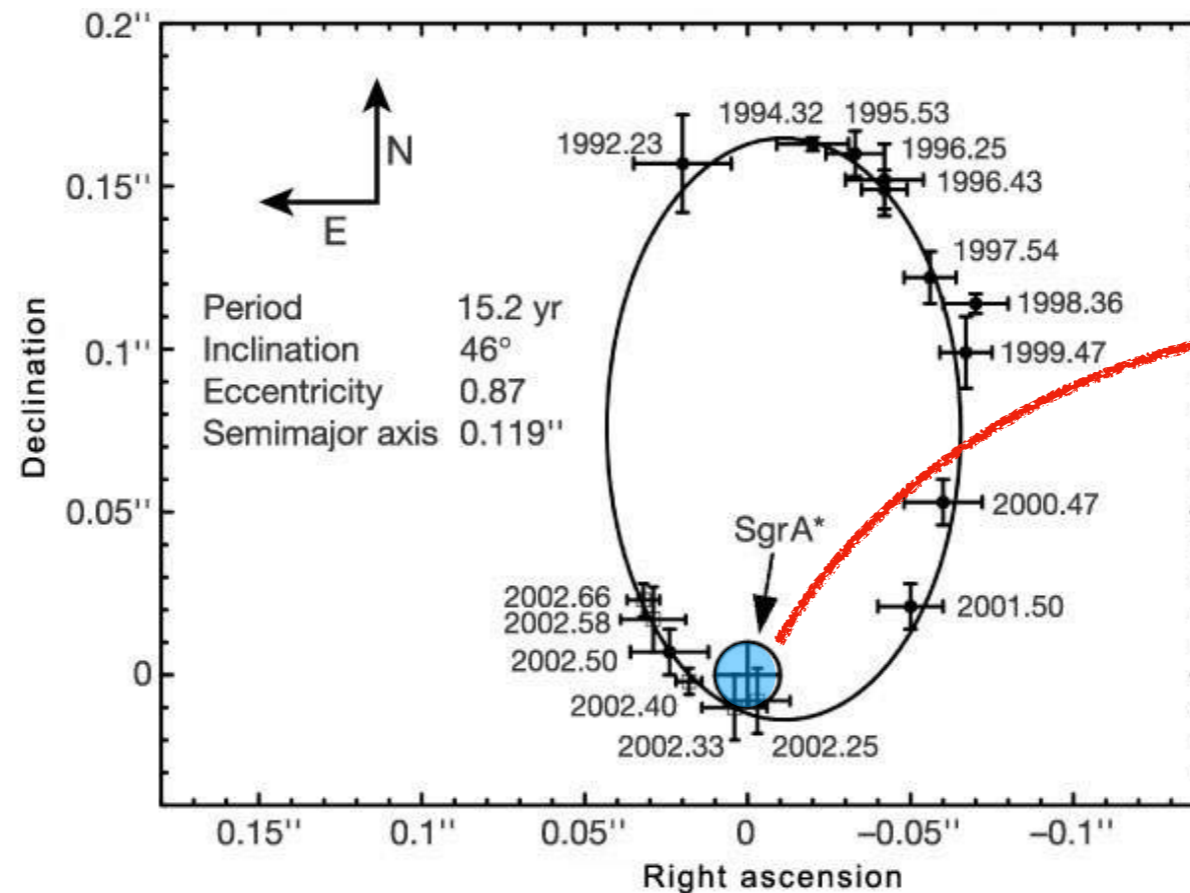
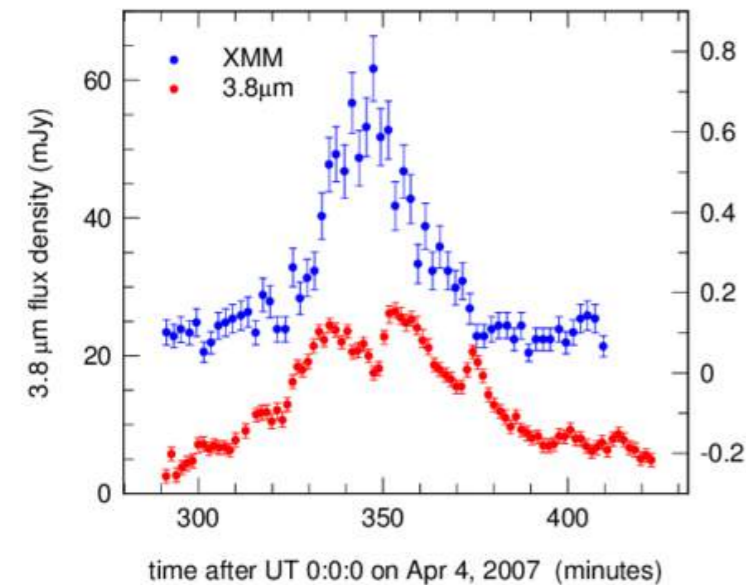
Same applies for any three-dimensional configuration where changes in brightness occur across a light-emitting surface.

Relationship between the maximum extent (R) of any source of radiation and its timescale of variability (Δt) is usually expressed as:

$$R \sim c\Delta t$$

Nature of the central object

Variability timescale



Relationship between the maximum extent (R) of any source of radiation and its timescale for variability (Δt) is usually expressed as:

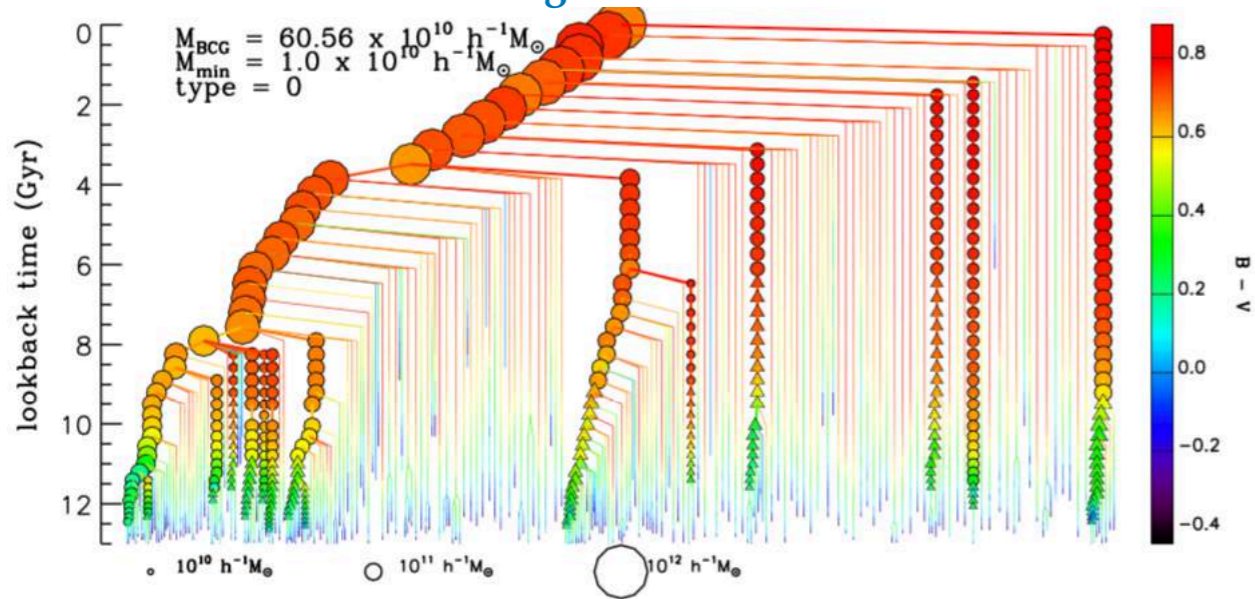
$$R \sim c\Delta t \sim 10^{12} \text{ m} \sim 7 \text{ AU}$$

$10^6 M_{\odot}$ in 7 AU \Rightarrow compact Ξ compatible with a supermassive black hole

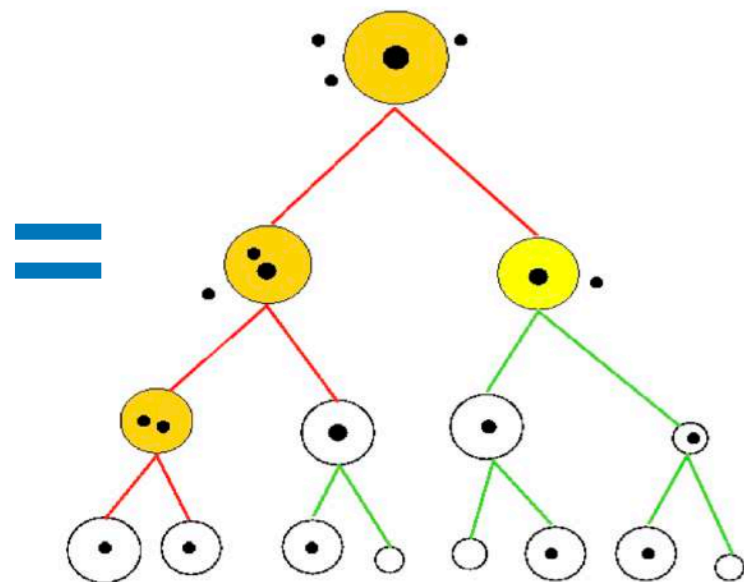
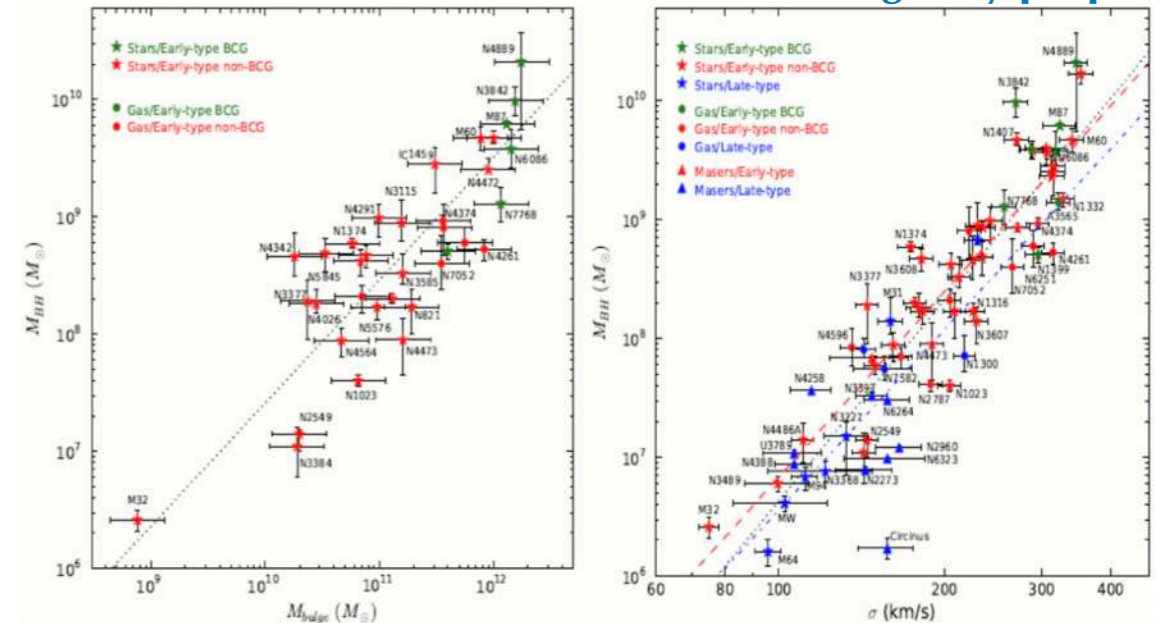
Supermassive black hole formation & evolution

- In all cases where the inner core of a galaxy has been resolved (i.e. in nearby galaxies), a massive compact object has been found in the centre

Hierarchical formation of galaxies



Correlation between black hole mass and host galaxy properties

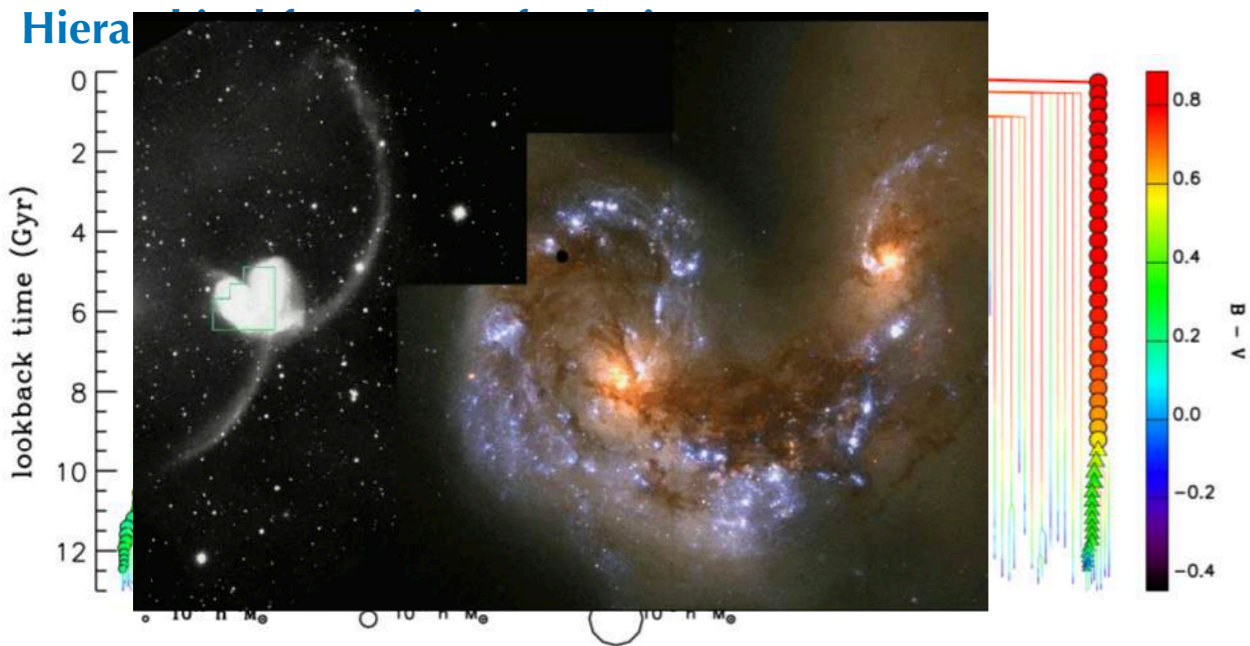


Massive black hole formation is probably hierarchical too !

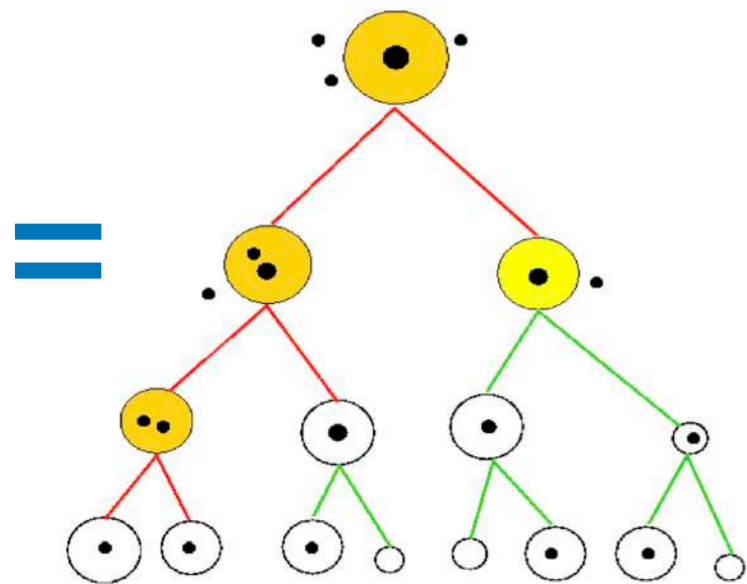
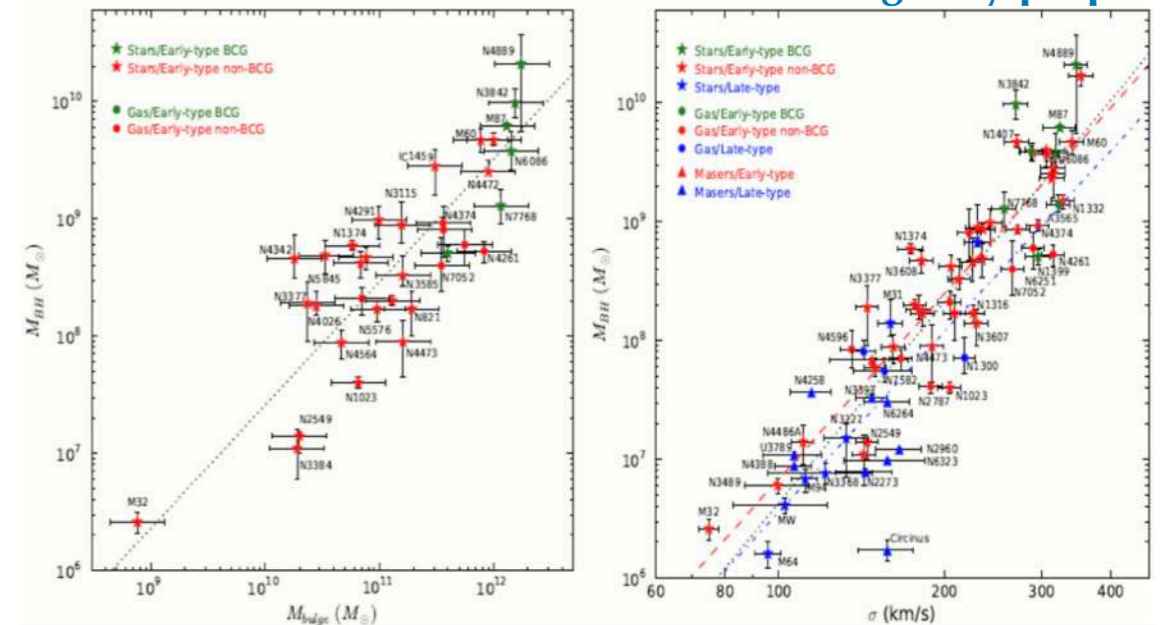
- Where and when do the first MBH seeds form?
- How do they grow along the cosmic history?
- What is their role in galaxy evolution?
- What is their merger rate?
- How do they pair together and dynamically evolve?

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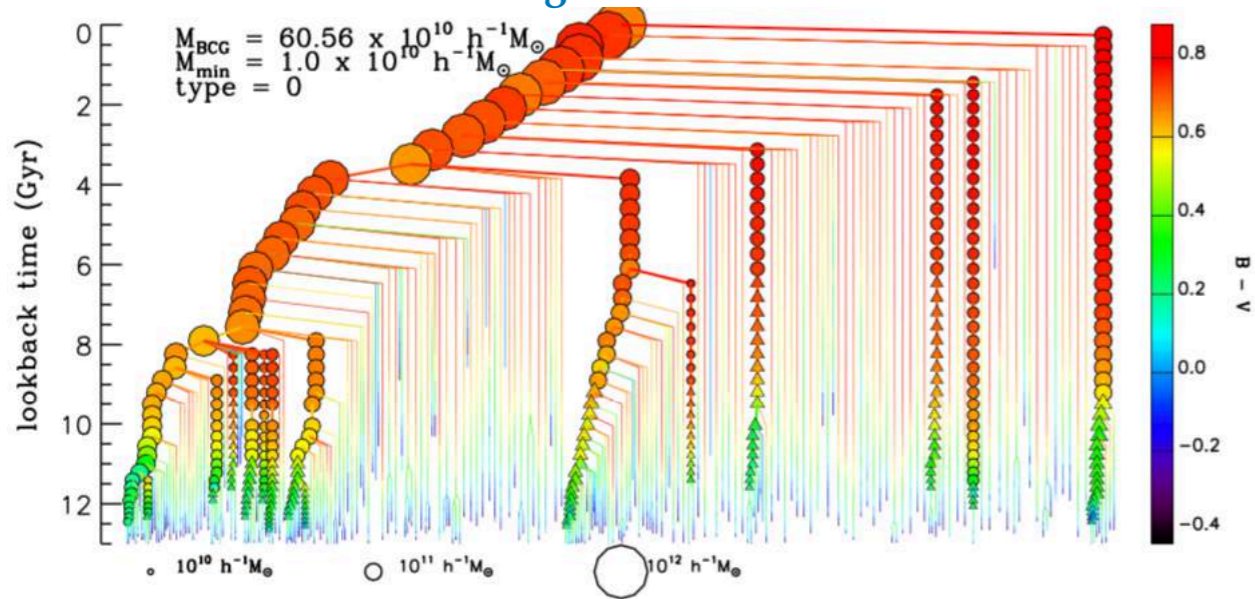
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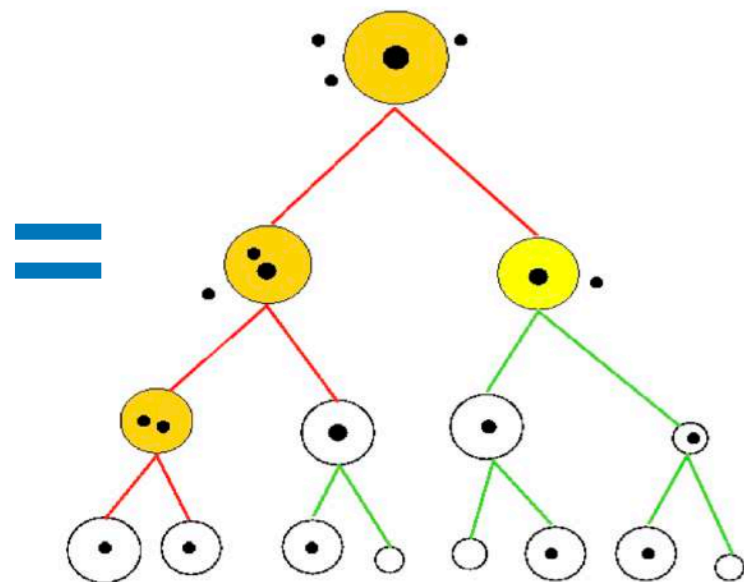
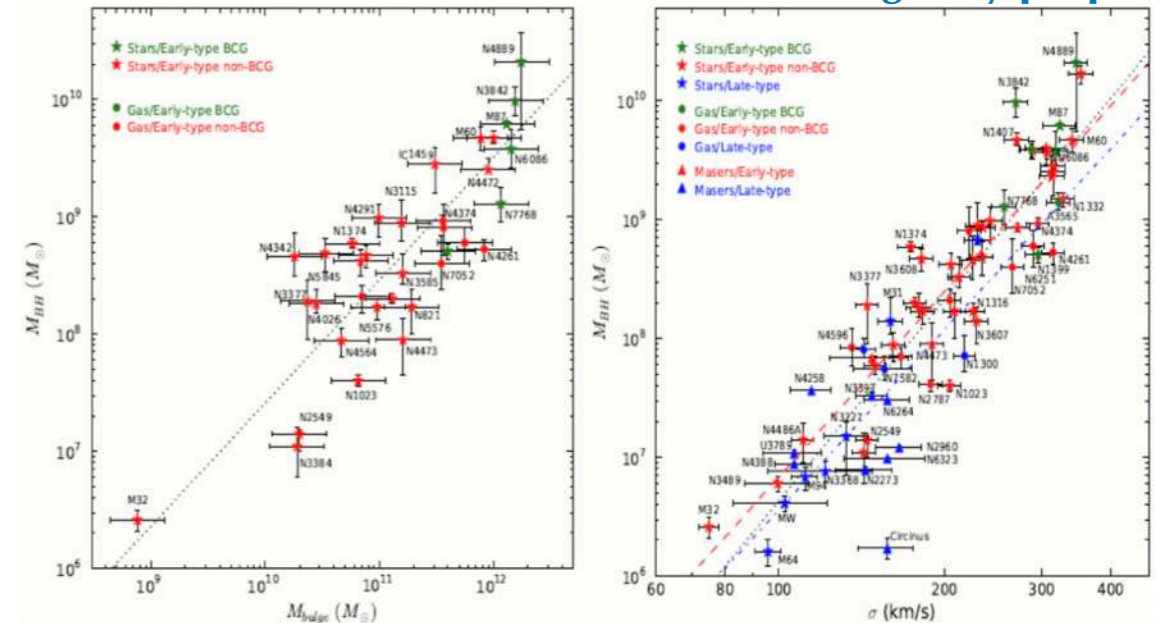
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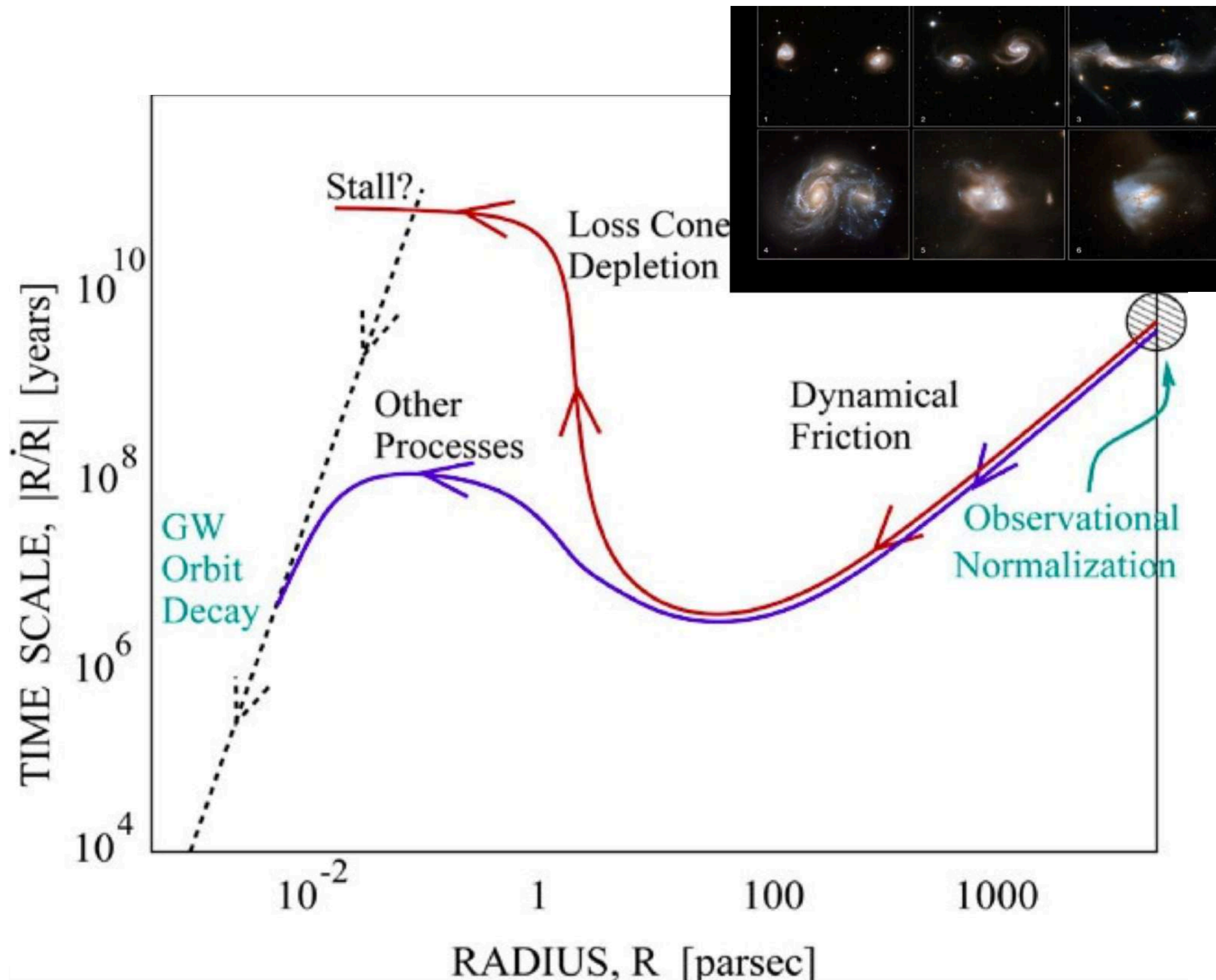
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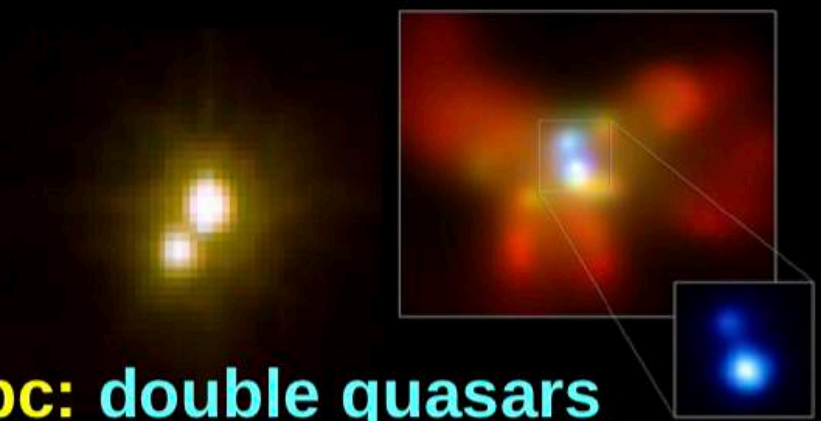
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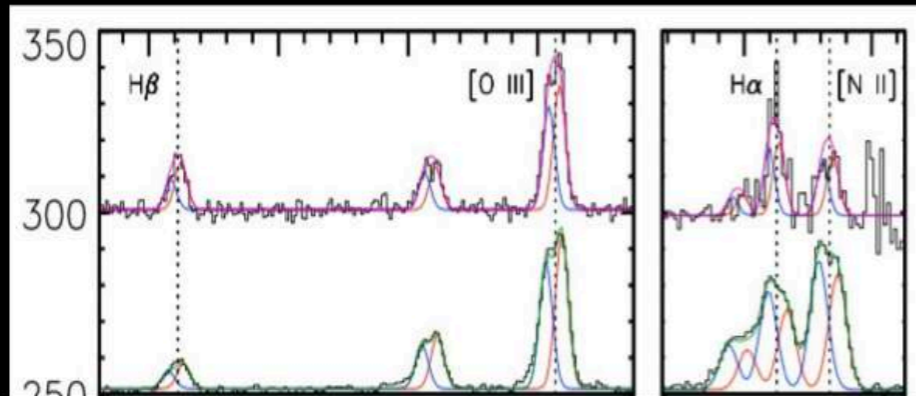
Supermassive black hole formation & evolution



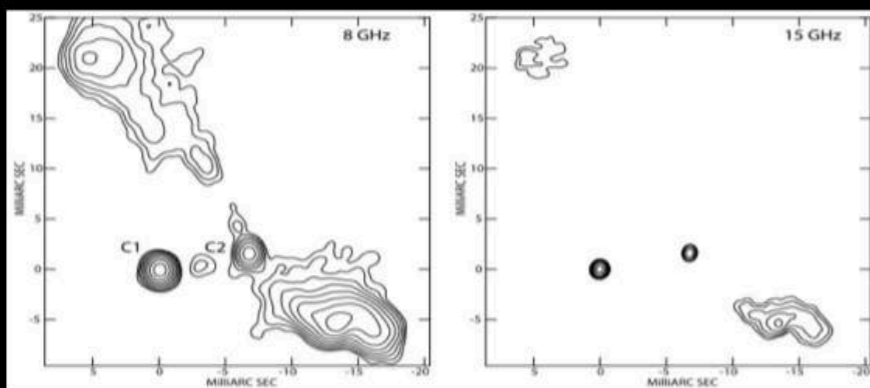
Supermassive black hole formation & evolution



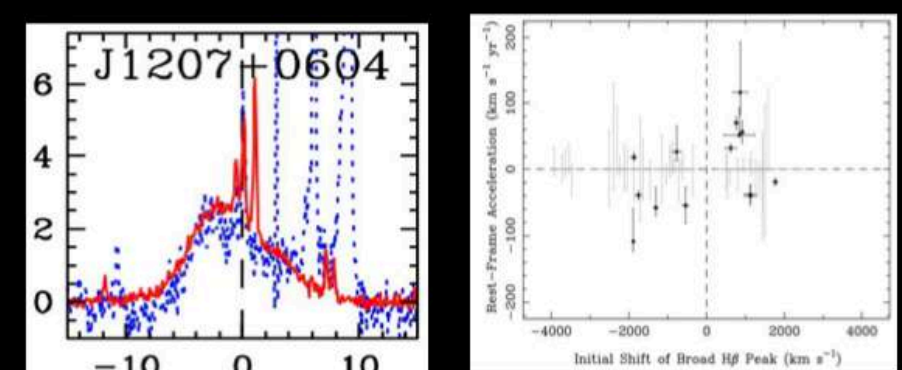
10 kpc: double quasars
(Komossa 2003)



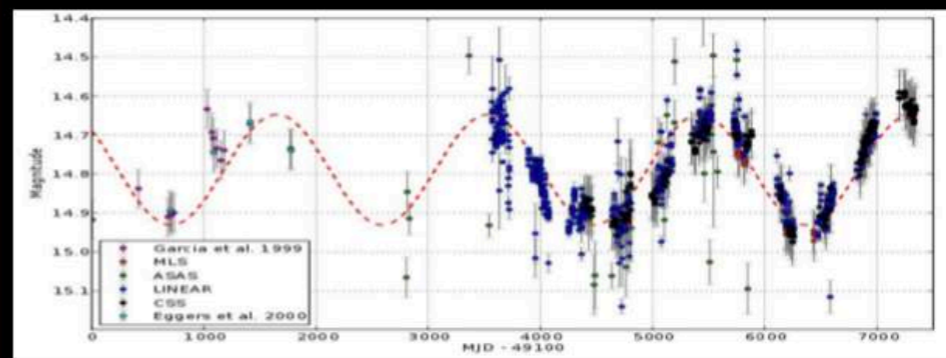
1 kpc: double peaked NL
(Comerford 2013)



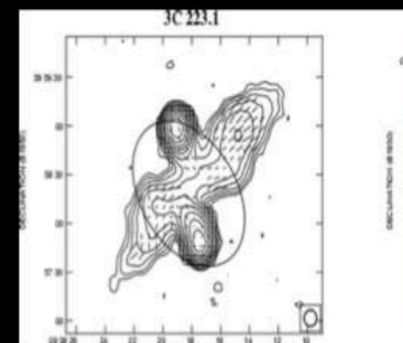
10 pc: double radio cores
(Rodriguez 2006)



1 pc: -shifted BL (Tsalmatzsa 2011)
-accelerating BL (Eracleous 2012)



0.01 pc: periodicity (Graham 2015)



0.0 pc: -X-shaped sources (Capetti 2001)
-displaced AGNs (Civano 2009)

Outline - Lecture 3

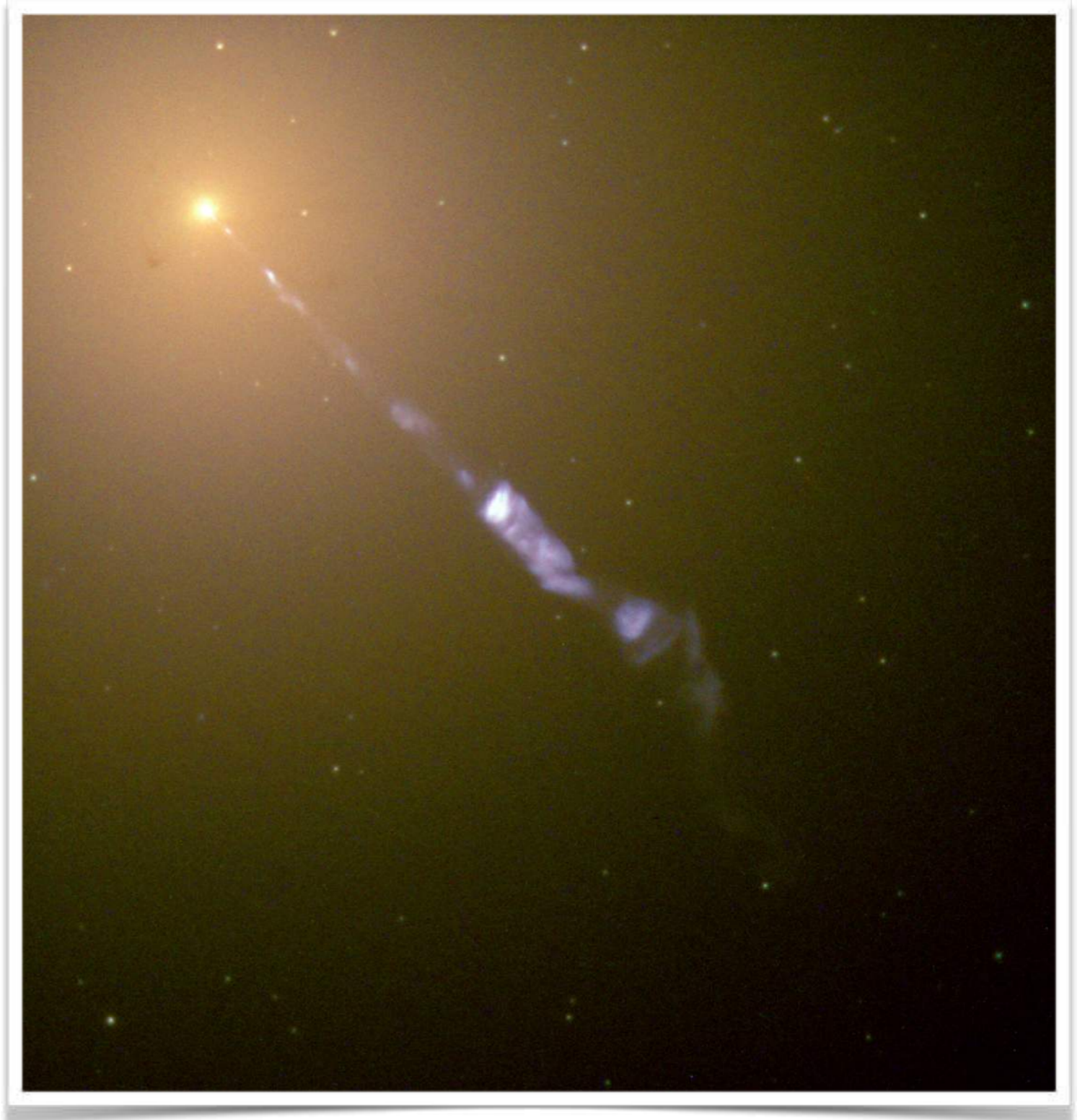
C. Supermassive black holes

1. Supermassive black hole formation and evolution
- 2. Cosmic rays from Active Galactic Nuclei**
3. Supermassive black hole binaries

Active Galactic nuclei

Galaxy with (one?) very bright nuclei

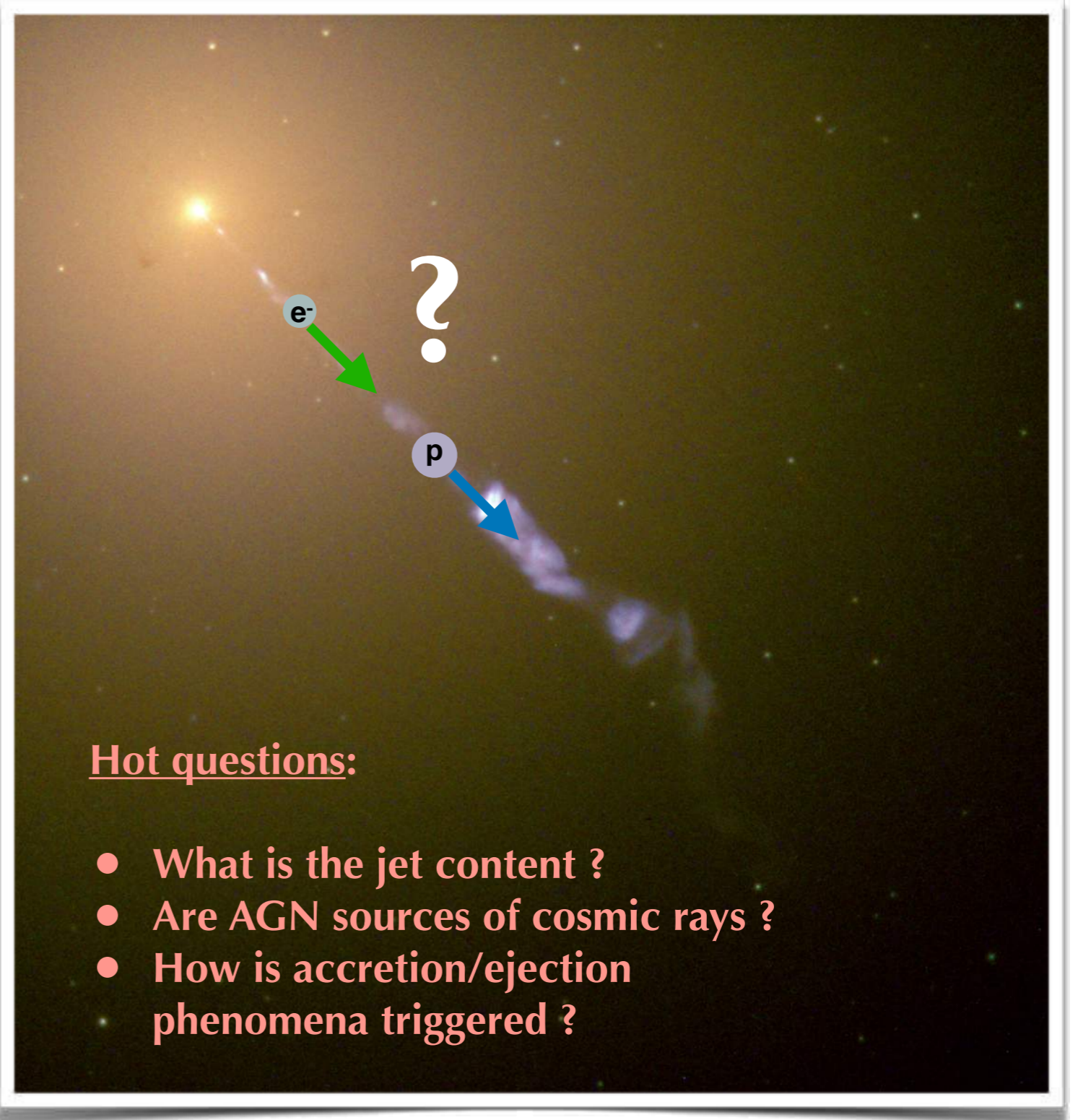
- Much of the energy output of non-thermal origin \Rightarrow particle acceleration.
- Strong emitters of gamma/X-rays, radio and ultraviolet radiation, as well as optical radiation.
- AGN can vary in luminosity on short (hours or days) timescales \Rightarrow related to a supermassive black hole at the center of the galaxy.
- Origin of the high-energy emission: accretion/ejection close to the black hole.



Active Galactic nuclei

Galaxy with (one?) very bright nuclei

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Active Galactic nuclei

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Answering these questions requires multi-messenger approaches:

- Much ...
the ...
acce
 - Strong ...
radio ...
well
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short ...
relat ...
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Active Galactic nuclei

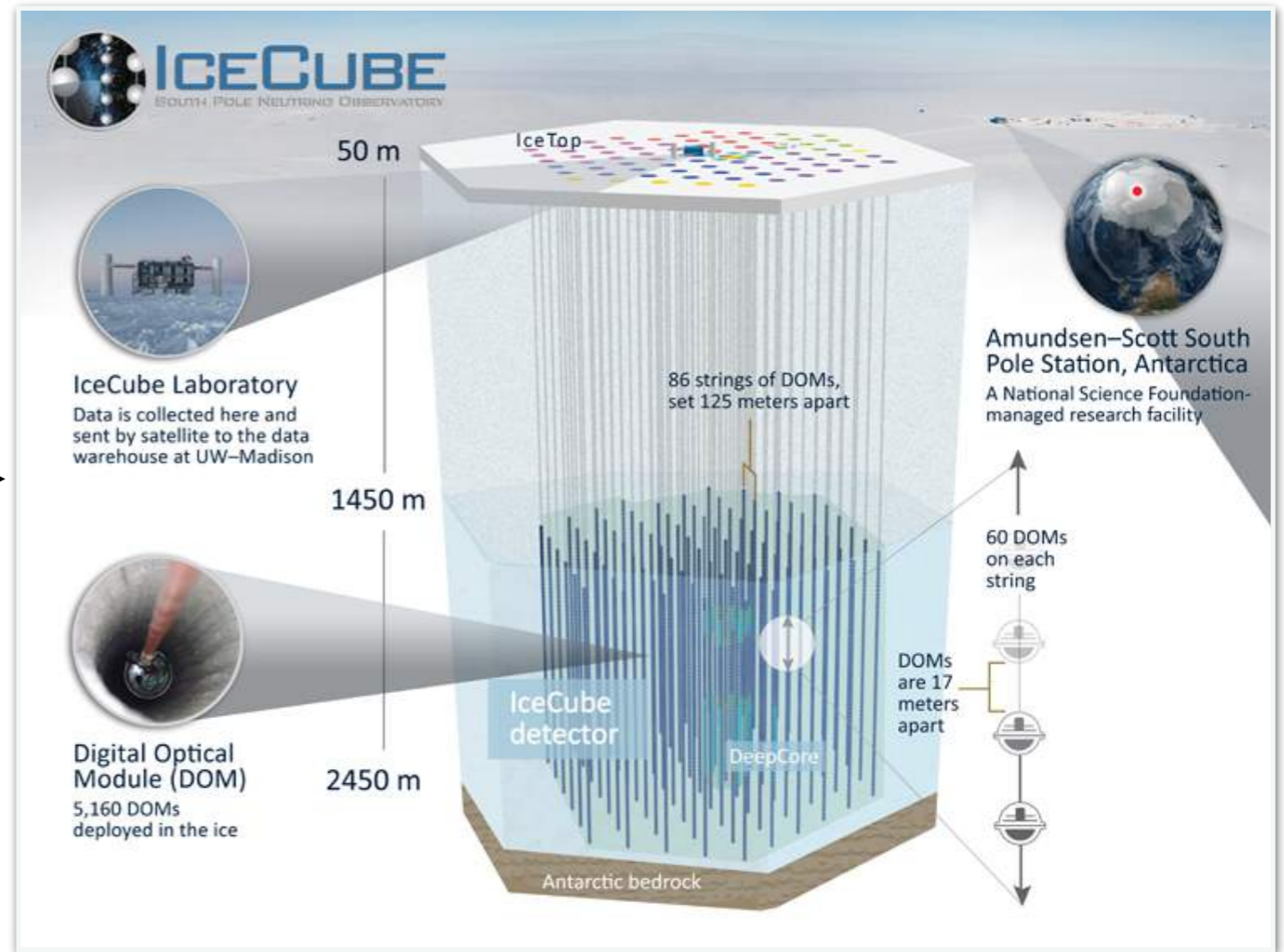
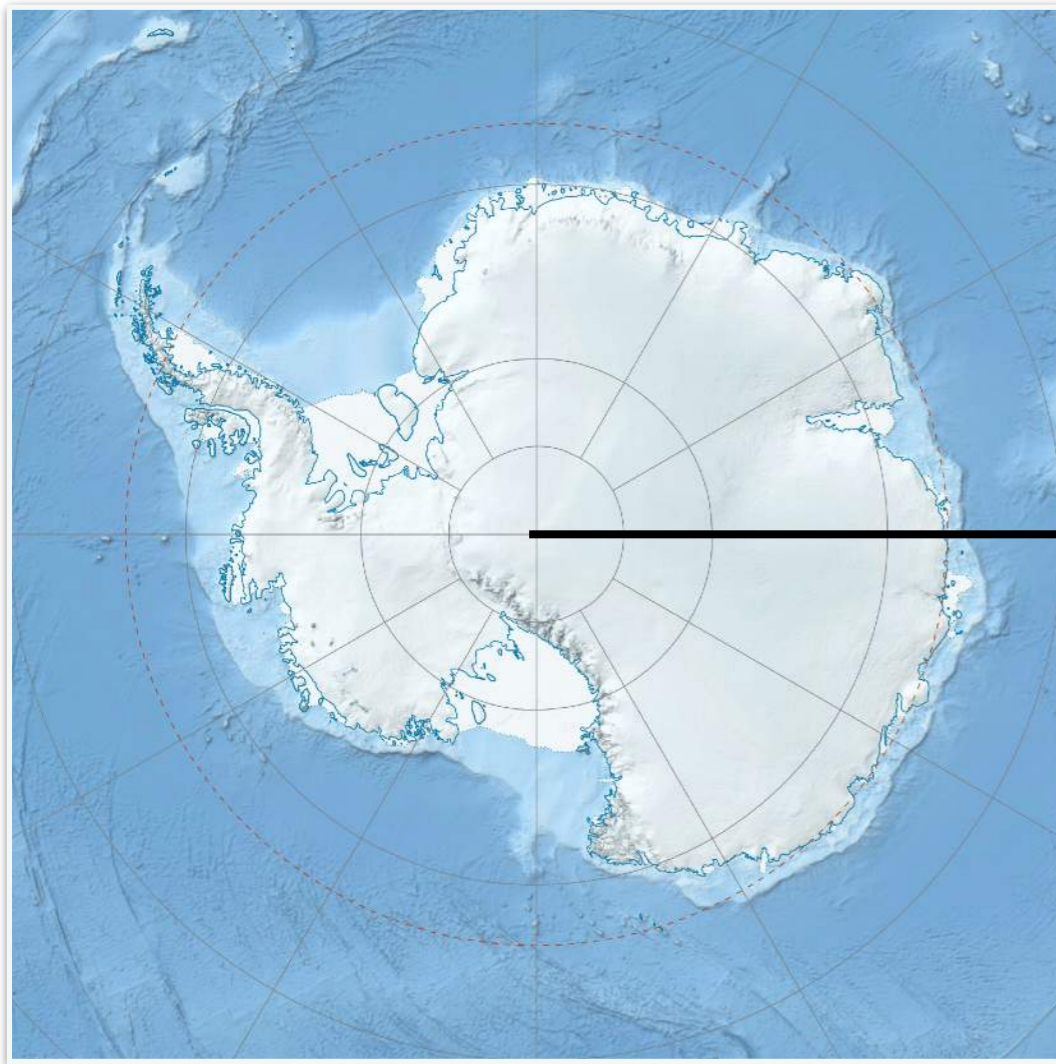
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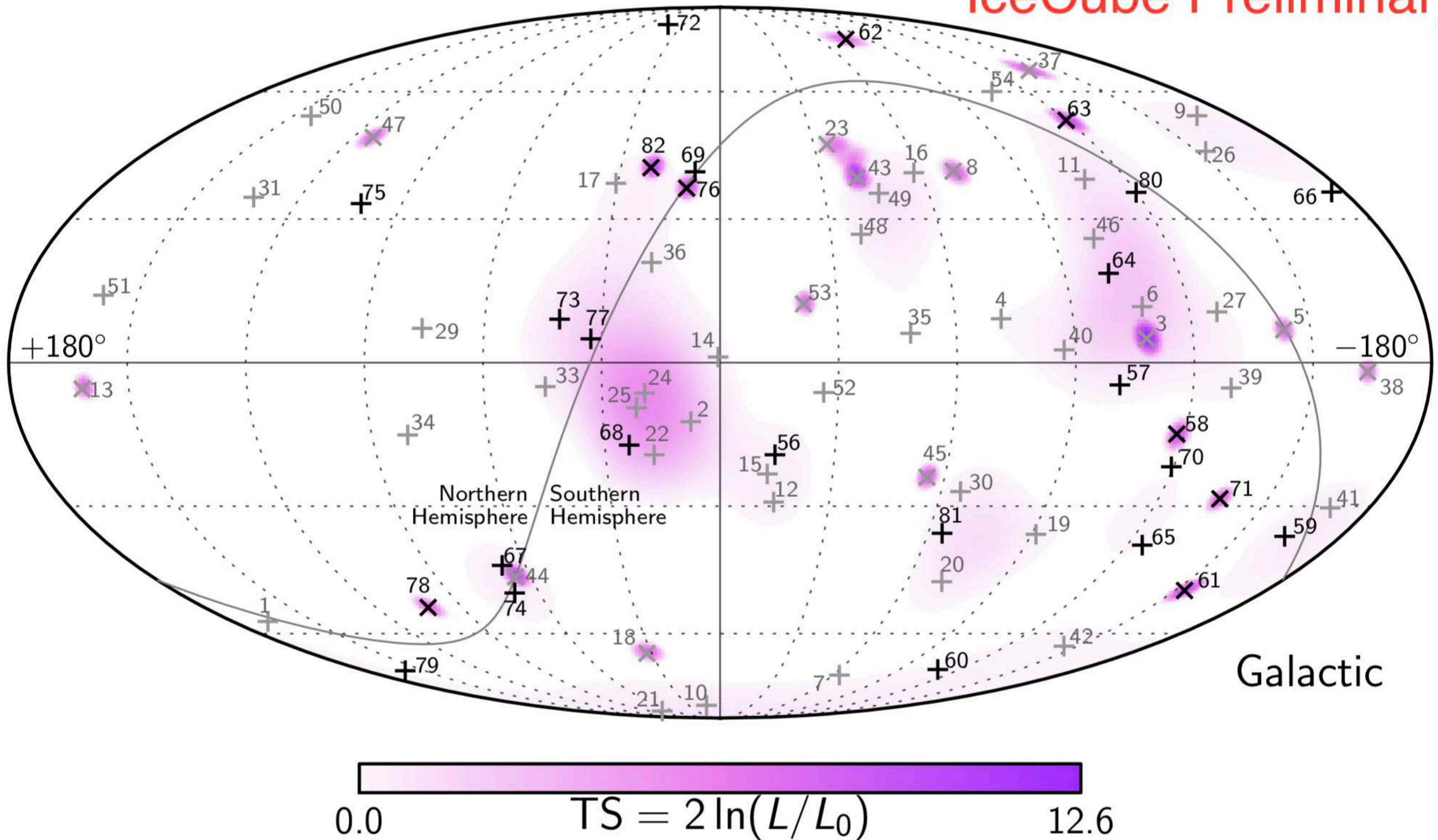
Looking for neutrinos from AGNs 187

Largest neutrino telescope in operation: IceCube



Looking for neutrinos from AGNs

IceCube Preliminary



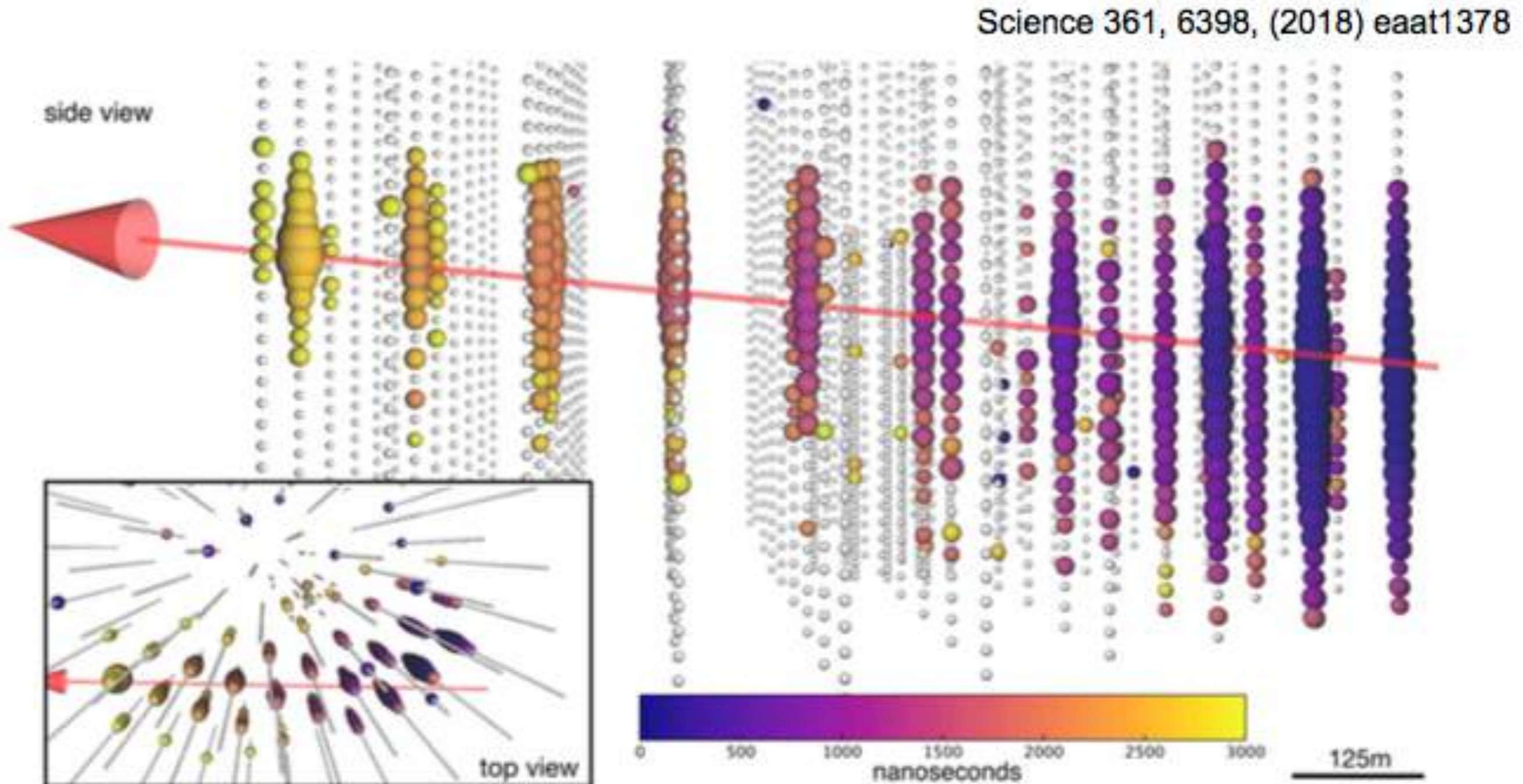
Point sources not identified yet but multi-messenger strategies can help...

IC170922A / TXS 0506+056

22 september 2017 (latency = 43 sec)

Deposited energy = 23.7 ± 2.8 TeV \rightarrow 290 TeV (90% CL lower limit of 183 TeV)

Signalness = 56.5% \rightarrow need of electromagnetic counterpart to confirm astro. origin.



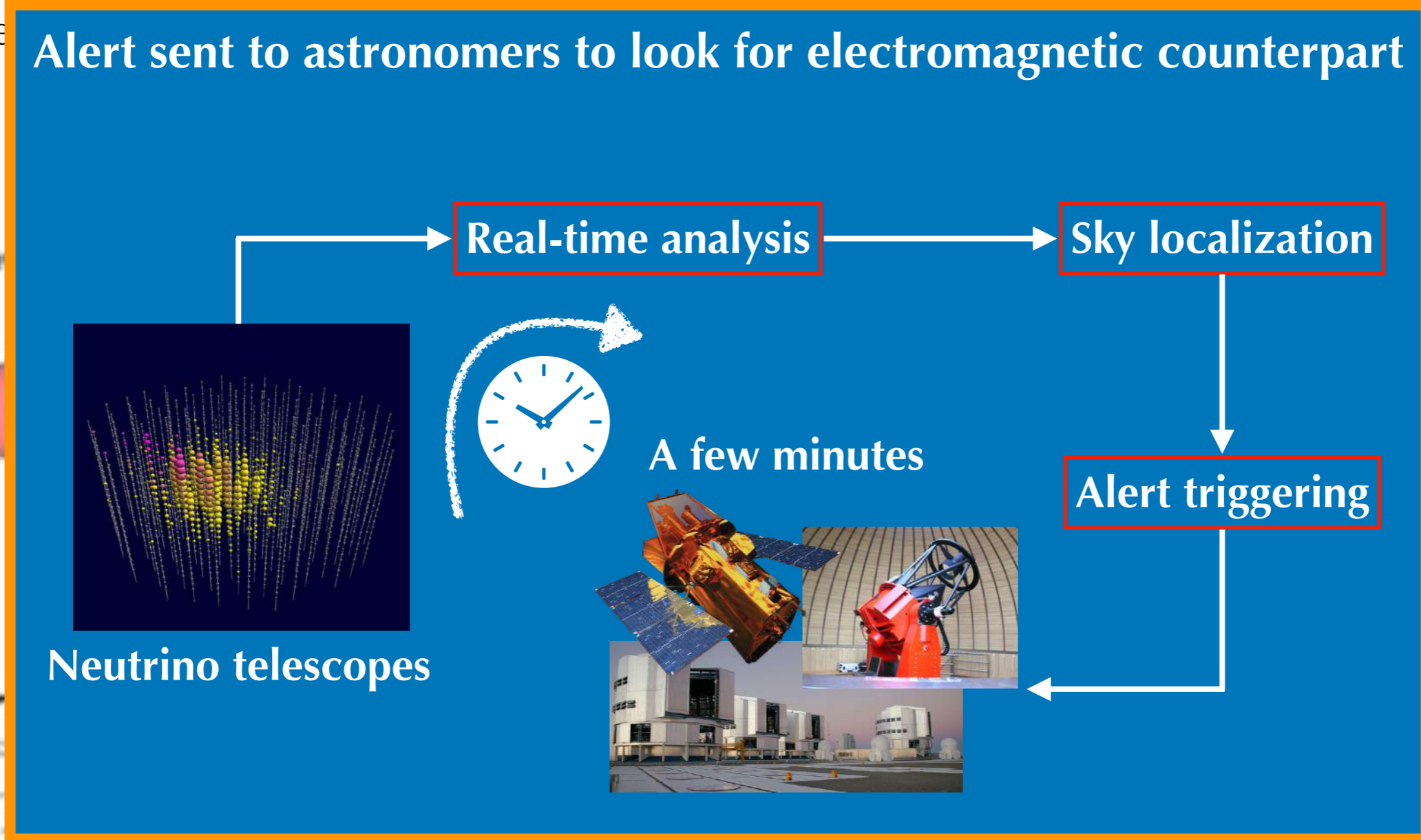
IC170922A / TXS 0506+056

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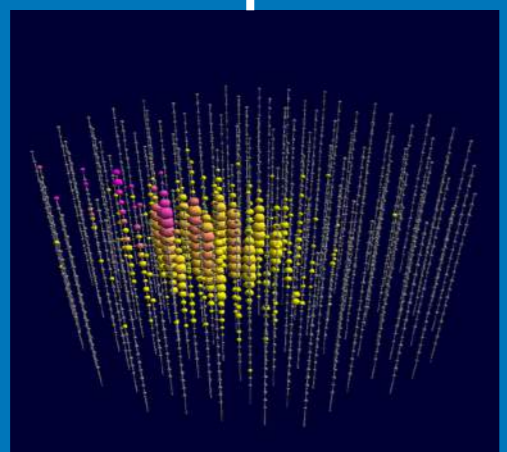
Signalne

Alert sent to astronomers to look for electromagnetic counterpart



3) eeat1378

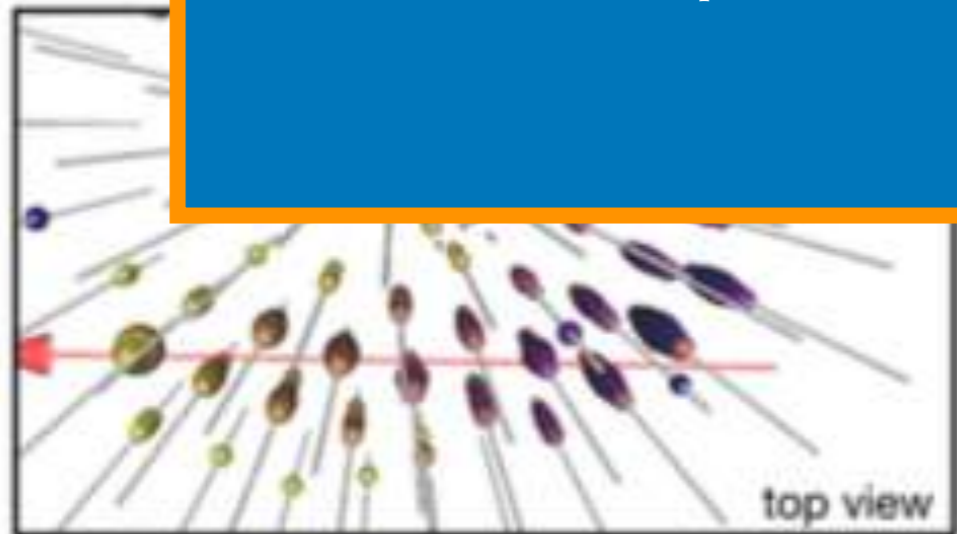
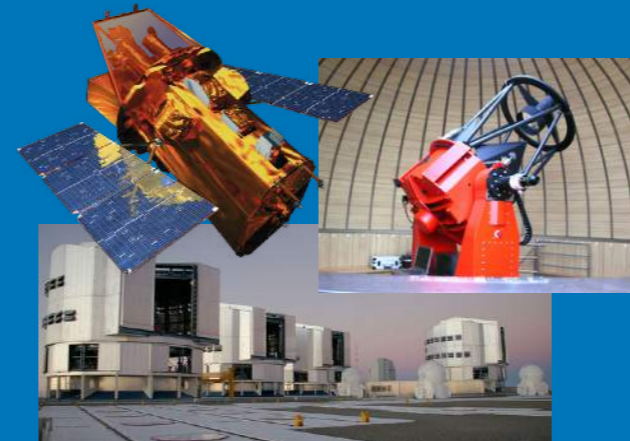
side view



Neutrino telescopes



A few minutes



125m

22 september 2017 (latency = 43 sec)

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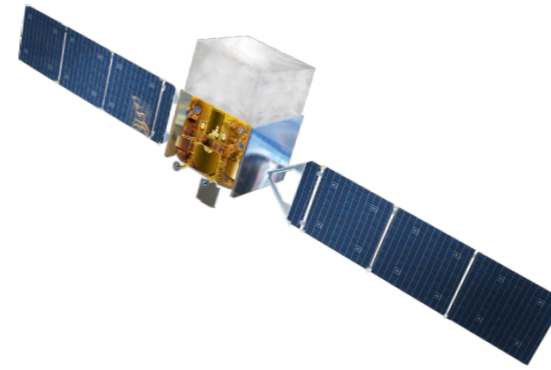
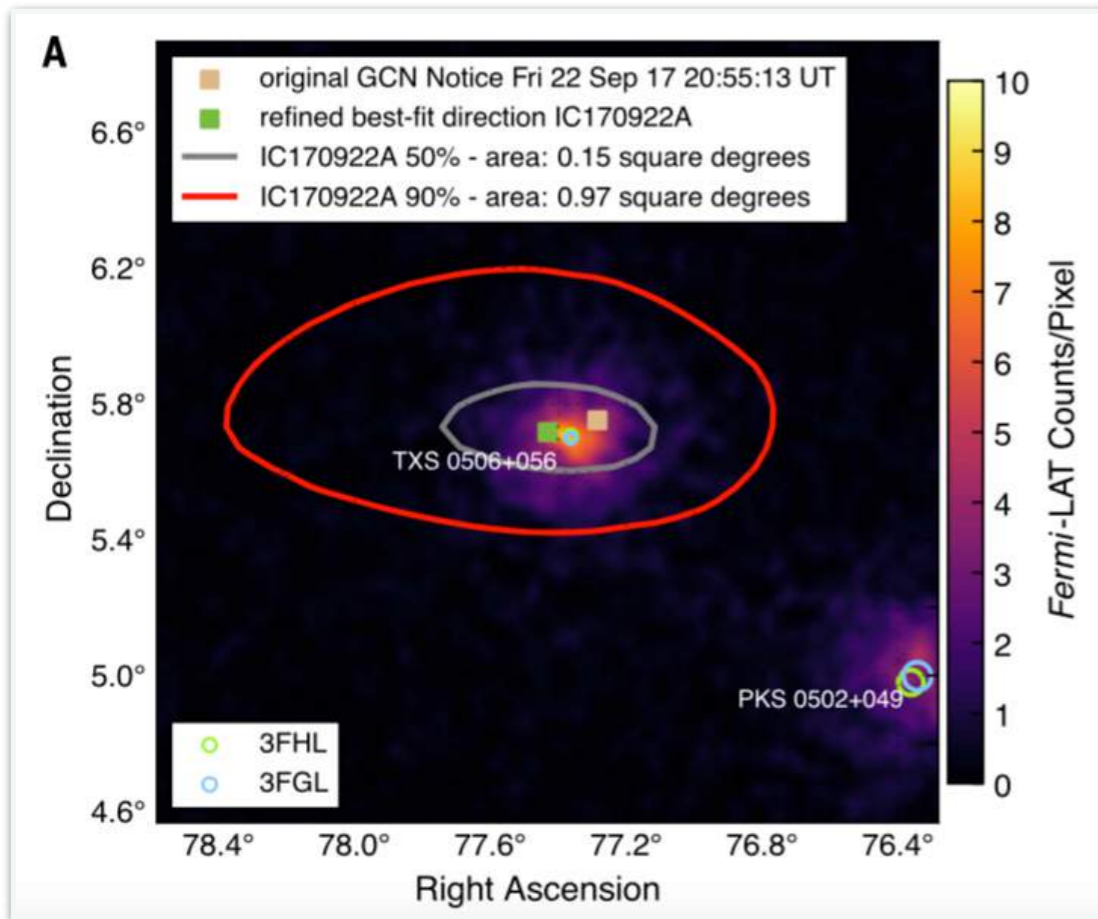
10802 HAWC gamma ray data prior to IceCube-170922A
10801 AGILE confirmation of gamma-ray activity from the IceCube-170922A error region
10799 Optical Spectrum of TXS 0506+056 (possible counterpart to IceCube-170922A)
10794 ASAS-SN optical light-curve of blazar TXS 0506+056, located inside the IceCube-170922A error region, shows increased optical activity
10792 Further Swift-XRT observations of IceCube 170922A
10791 Fermi-LAT detection of increased gamma-ray activity of TXS 0506+056, located inside the IceCube-170922A error region.
10787 H.E.S.S. follow-up of IceCube-170922A
10773 Search for counterpart to IceCube-170922A with ANTARES

10845 Joint Swift XRT and NuSTAR Observations of TXS 0506+056
10844 Kanata optical imaging and polarimetric follow-ups for possible IceCube counterpart TXS 0506+056
10840 VLT/X-Shooter spectrum of the blazar TXS 0506+056 (located inside the IceCube-170922A error box)
10838 MAXI/GSC observations of IceCube-170922A and TXS 0506+056
10833 VERITAS follow-up observations of IceCube neutrino event 170922A
10831 Optical photometry of TX0506+056
10830 SALT-HRS observation of the blazar TXS 0506+056 associated with IceCube-170922A
10817 First-time detection of VHE gamma rays by MAGIC from a direction consistent with the recent EHE neutrino event IceCube-170922A

+ INTEGRAL

11489 Optical and near-infrared polarimetric observations of the IceCube-170922A counterpart candidate TXS 0506+056
11430 Optical polarimetry of TXS 0506+056 (possible counterpart of IceCube-170922A)
11419 Fermi-LAT detection of enhanced gamma-ray activity and hard spectrum of TXS 0506+056, located inside the IceCube-170922A error region
10890 Subaru/FOCAS Optical Spectroscopy for a possible IceCube-170922A counterpart TXS 0506+056
10861 VLA Radio Observations of the blazar TXS 0506+056 associated with the IceCube-170922A neutrino event

IC170922A / TXS 0506+056

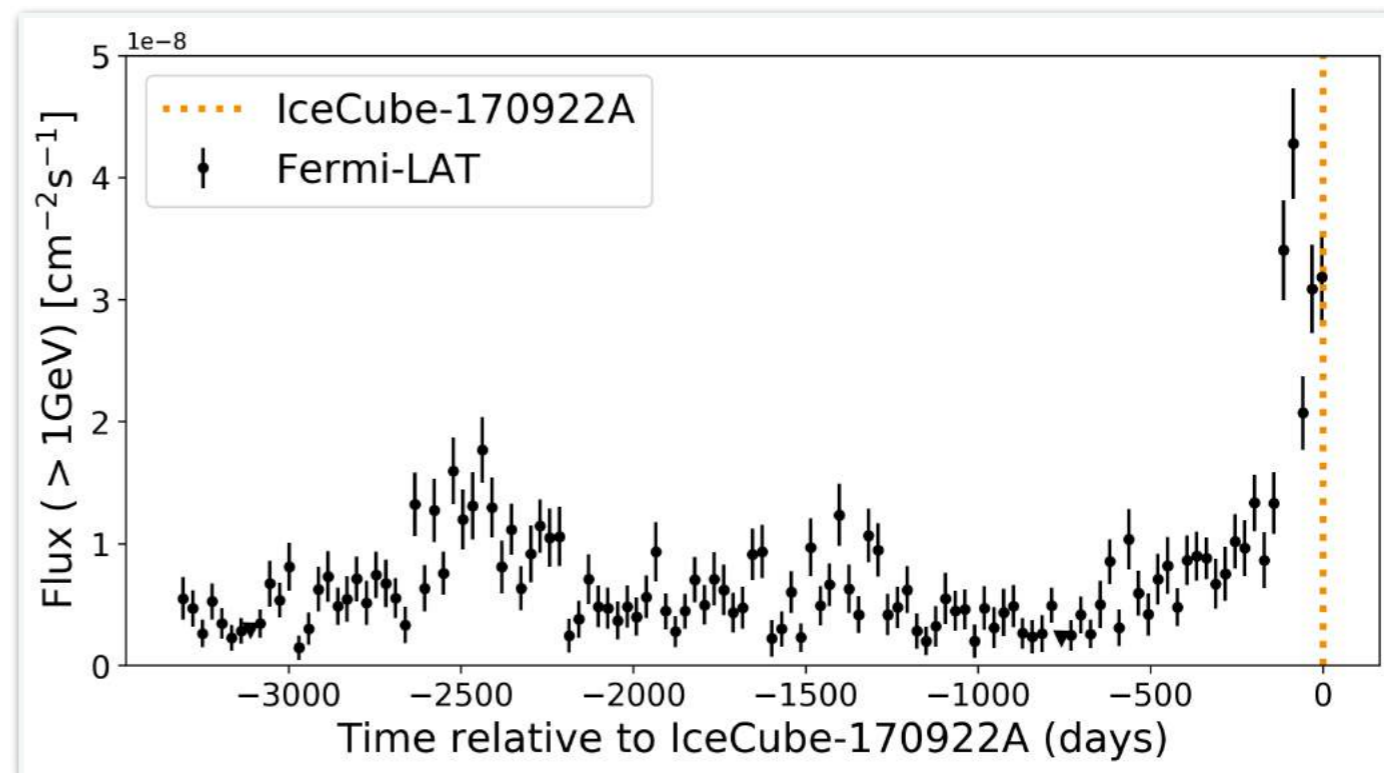
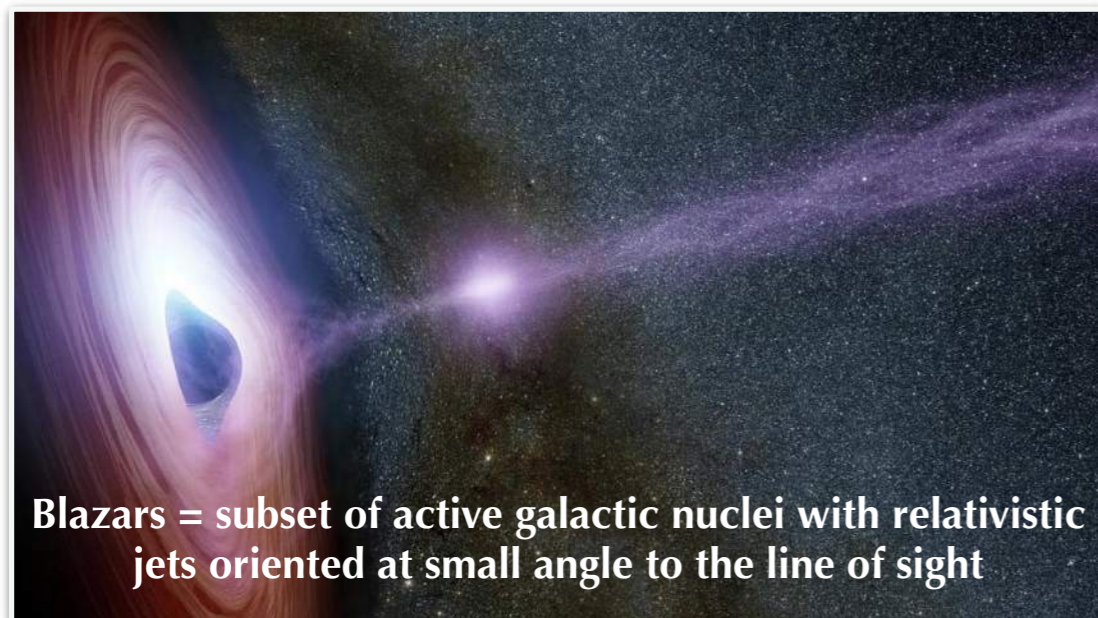


Fermi-LAT detection of increased gamma-ray activity of TXS 0506+056, located inside the IceCube-170922A error region.

ATel #10791; *Yasuyuki T. Tanaka (Hiroshima University), Sara Buson (NASA/GSFC), Daniel Kocevski (NASA/MSFC) on behalf of the Fermi-LAT collaboration*

on 28 Sep 2017; 10:10 UT

Credential Certification: David J. Thompson (David.J.Thompson@nasa.gov)



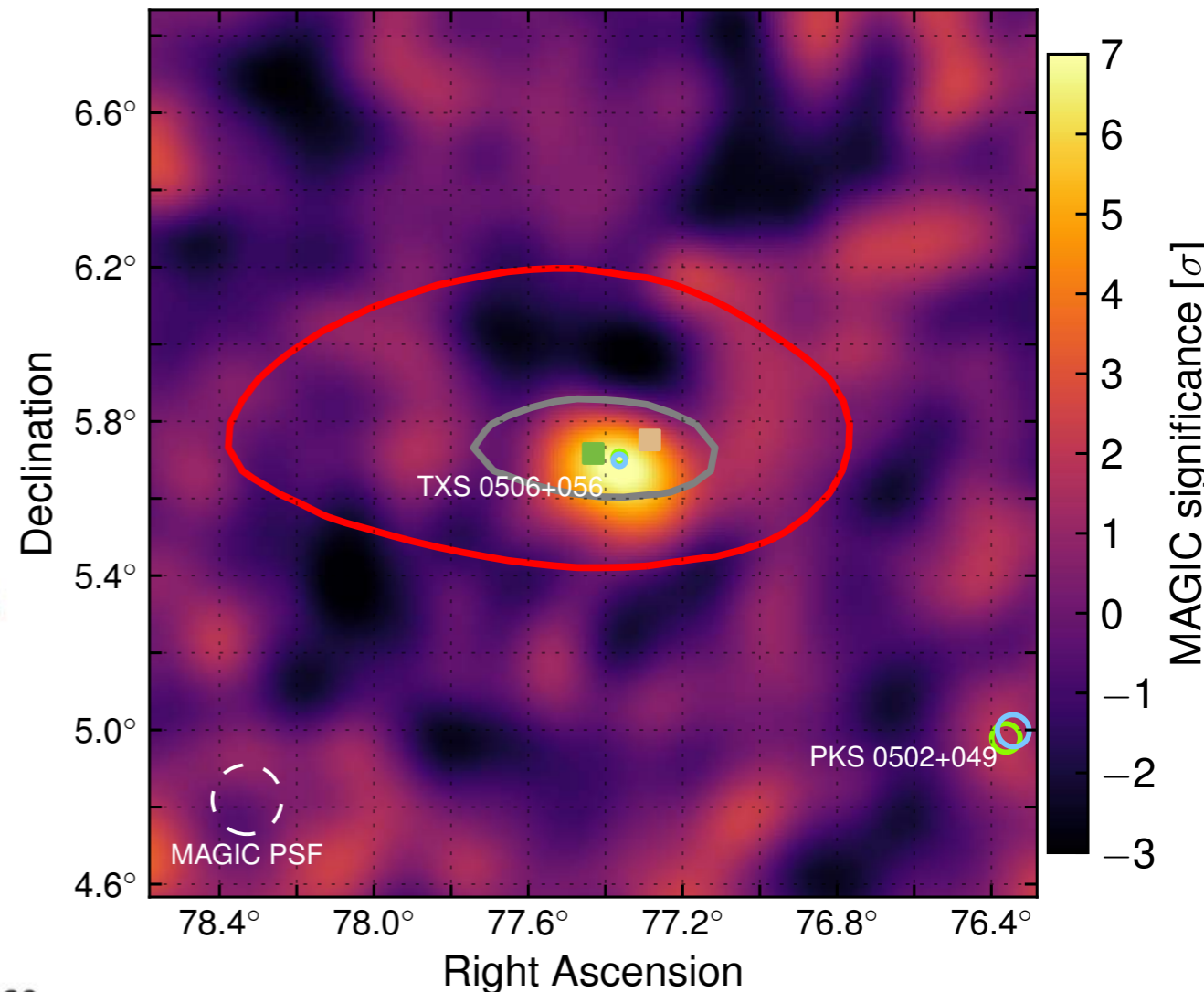
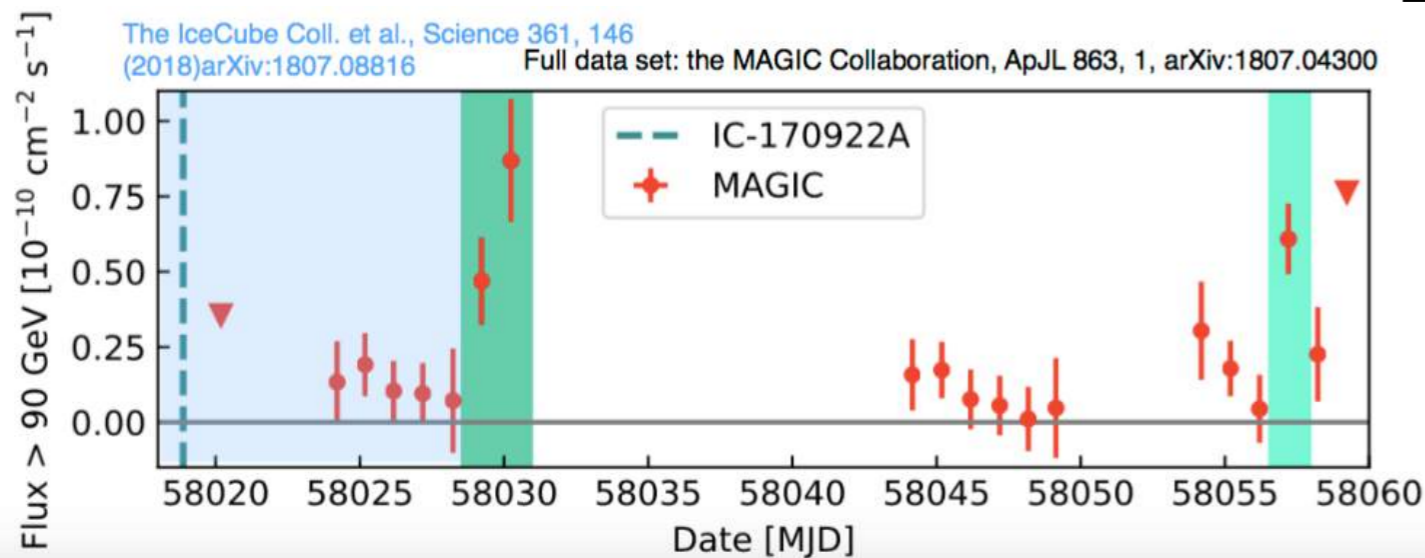
IC170922A / TXS 0506+056

First-time detection of VHE gamma rays by MAGIC from a direction consistent with the recent EHE neutrino event IceCube-170922A

ATel #10817; *Razmik Mirzoyan for the MAGIC Collaboration*
on 4 Oct 2017; 17:17 UT

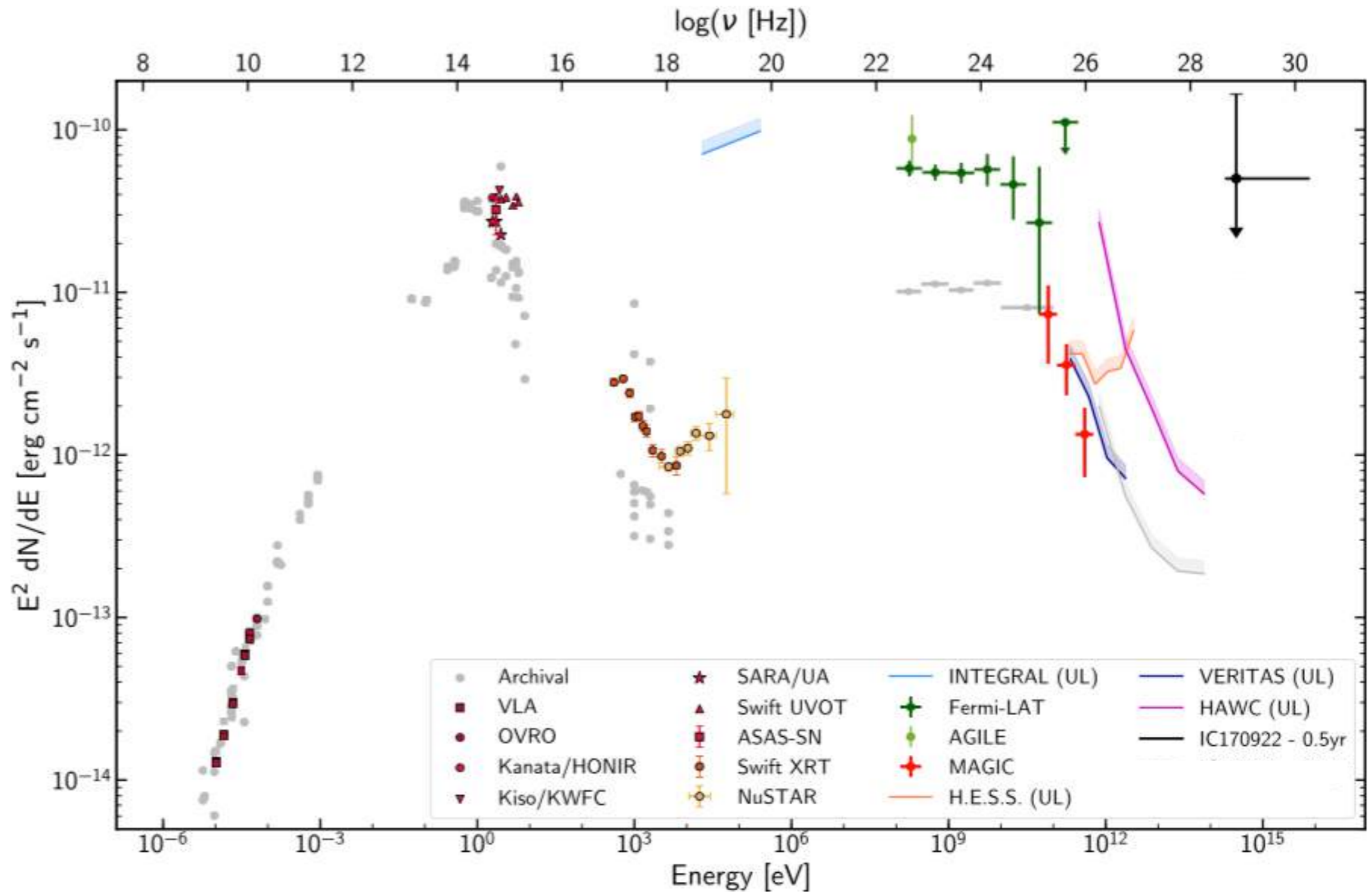
Credential Certification: Razmik Mirzoyan (Razmik.Mirzoyan@mpp.mpg.de)

- Detection up to ~ 400 GeV
- Clear variability on daily timescale
- Spectral index ranging from -4.0 to -3.5

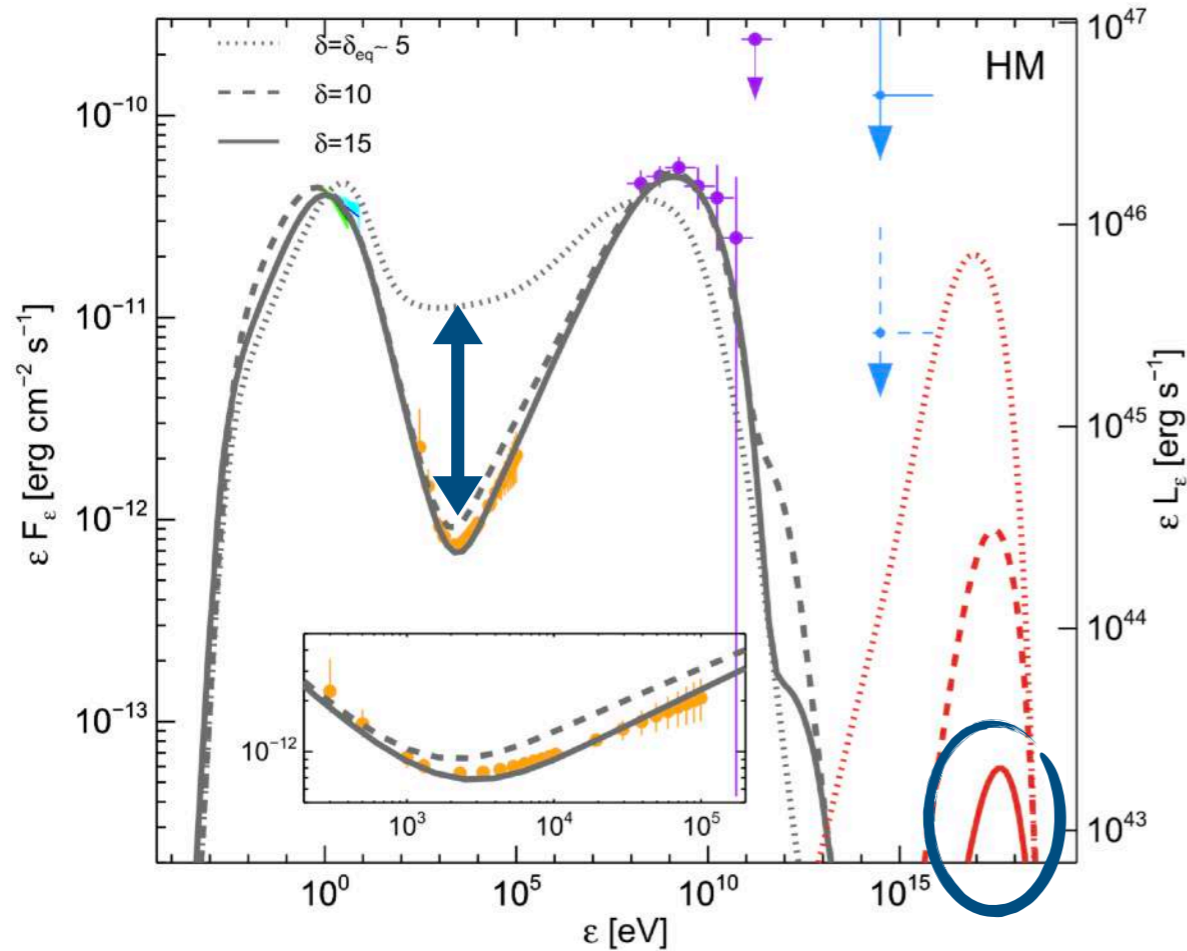


Pre-trials p-value = 4.1σ . 10 public alerts + 41 archival events \rightarrow **post-trials p-value = 3.0σ**
Significant result due to « simultaneous » detection in neutrinos and gamma-rays !

TXS 0506+056 multi-messenger follow-up¹⁹⁴



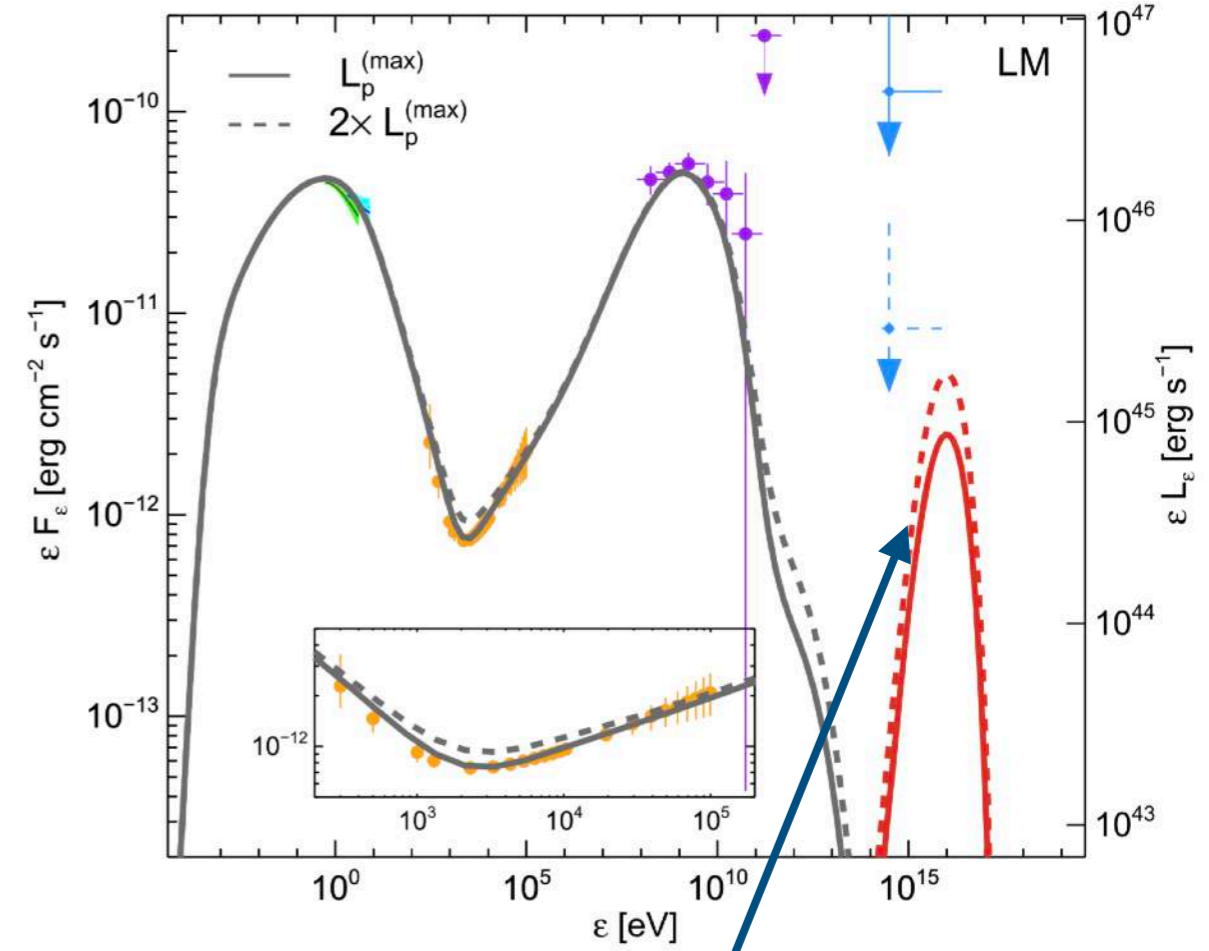
Hadronic models



Keivani et al., ApJ, 864, 1, 2018

(see also Gao et al., 2018 + Murase et al. 2018 + Reimer et al. 2019)

Lepto-hadronic models

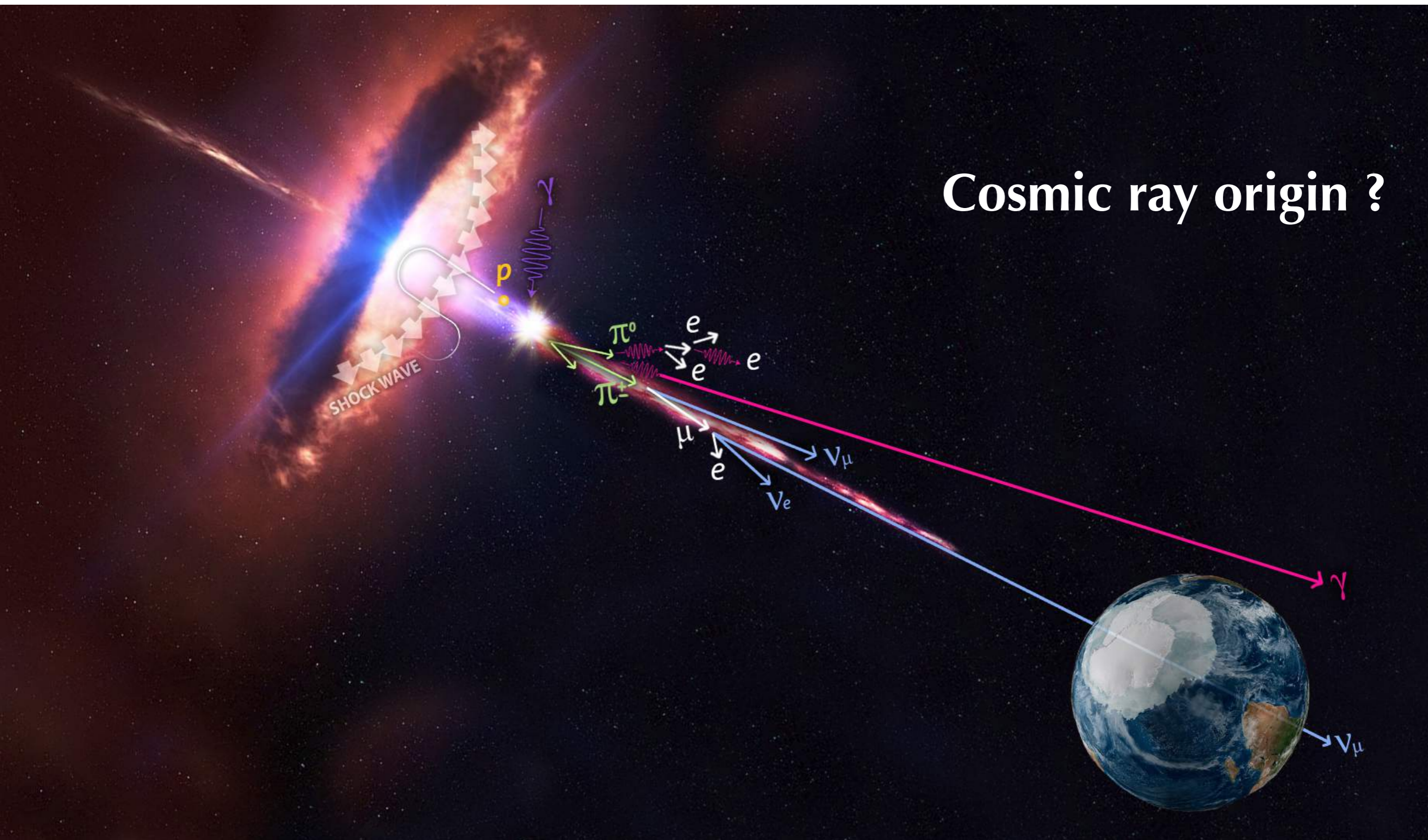


1-2% probability of observing 1 neutrino with IceCube

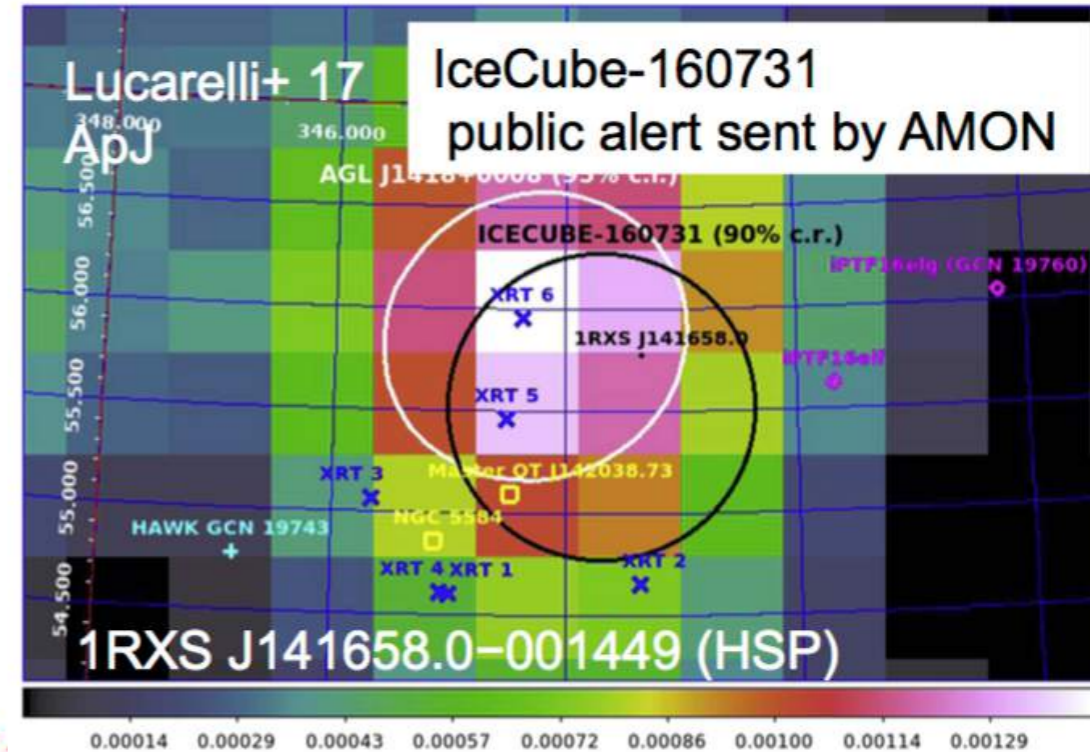
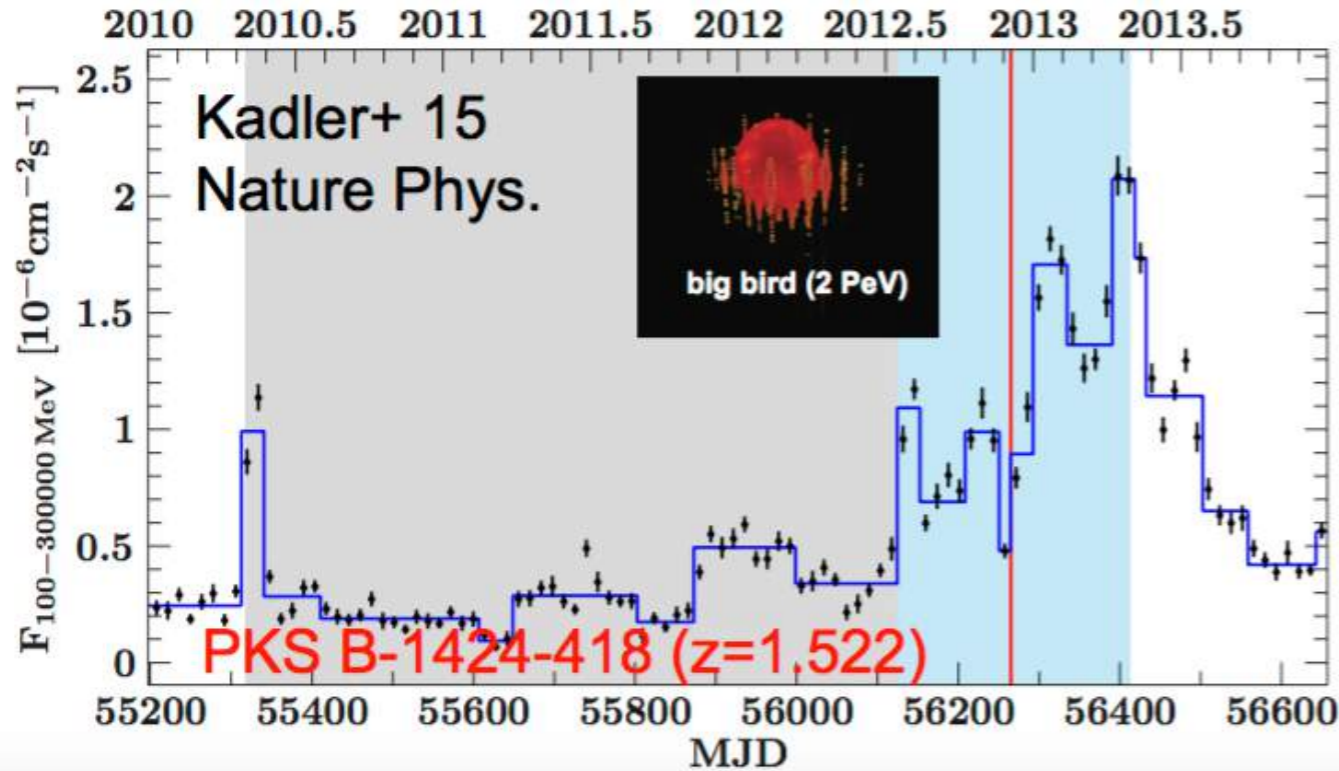
- Models with p- γ induced γ -ray emission overproduce X-rays due to emission of cascades of secondary particles (Gao et al., 2018 & Keivani et al., 2018).
- Electromagnetic emission dominated by leptonic processes + radiatively sub-dominant hadronic component \rightarrow neutrino flux: 1% probability of observing 1 neutrino over 6 months with IceCube.

IC170922A / TXS 0506+056

Cosmic ray origin ?



Other candidates ?

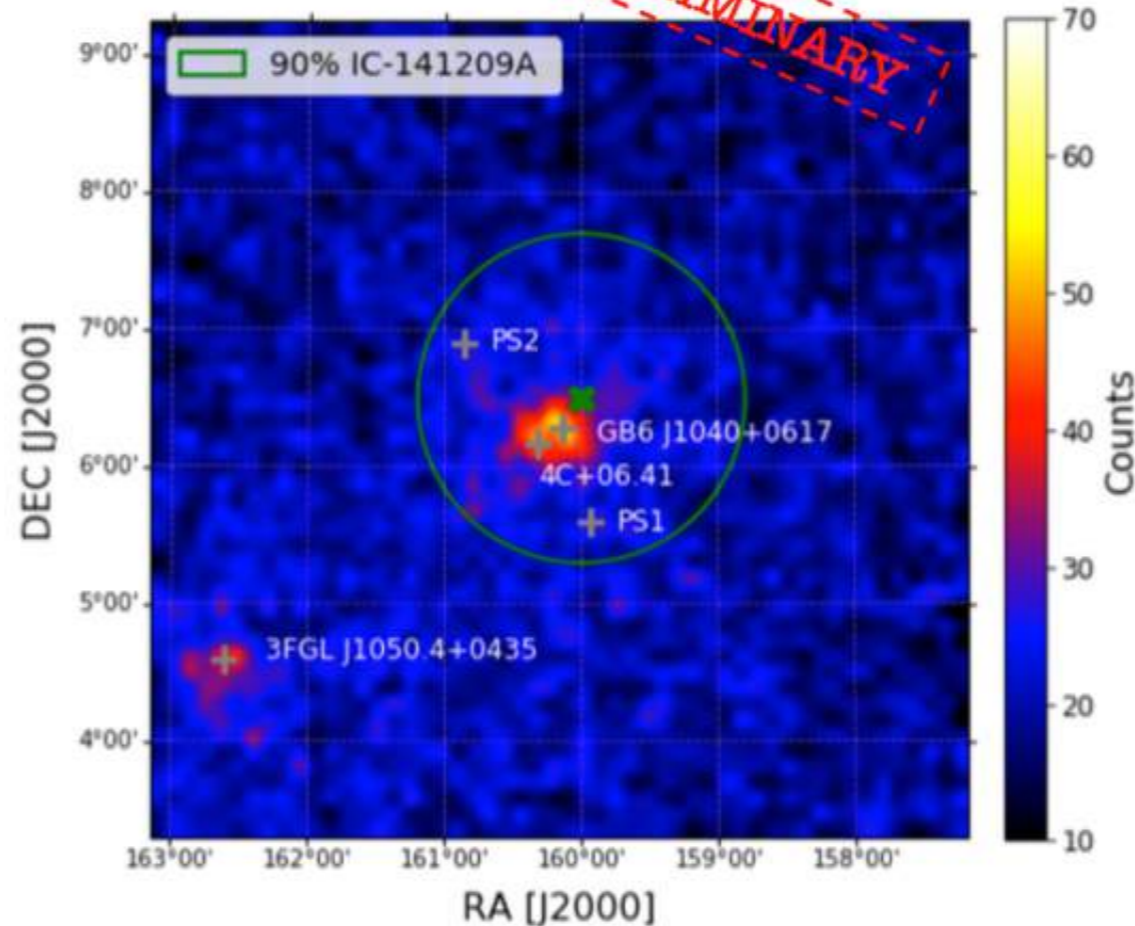


IC-141209A

- MJD 57000.14
- (Ra , Dec) = (160.0°, 6.5°)
- Ang. Err. (90%) : 1.2°

GB6 J1040+0617

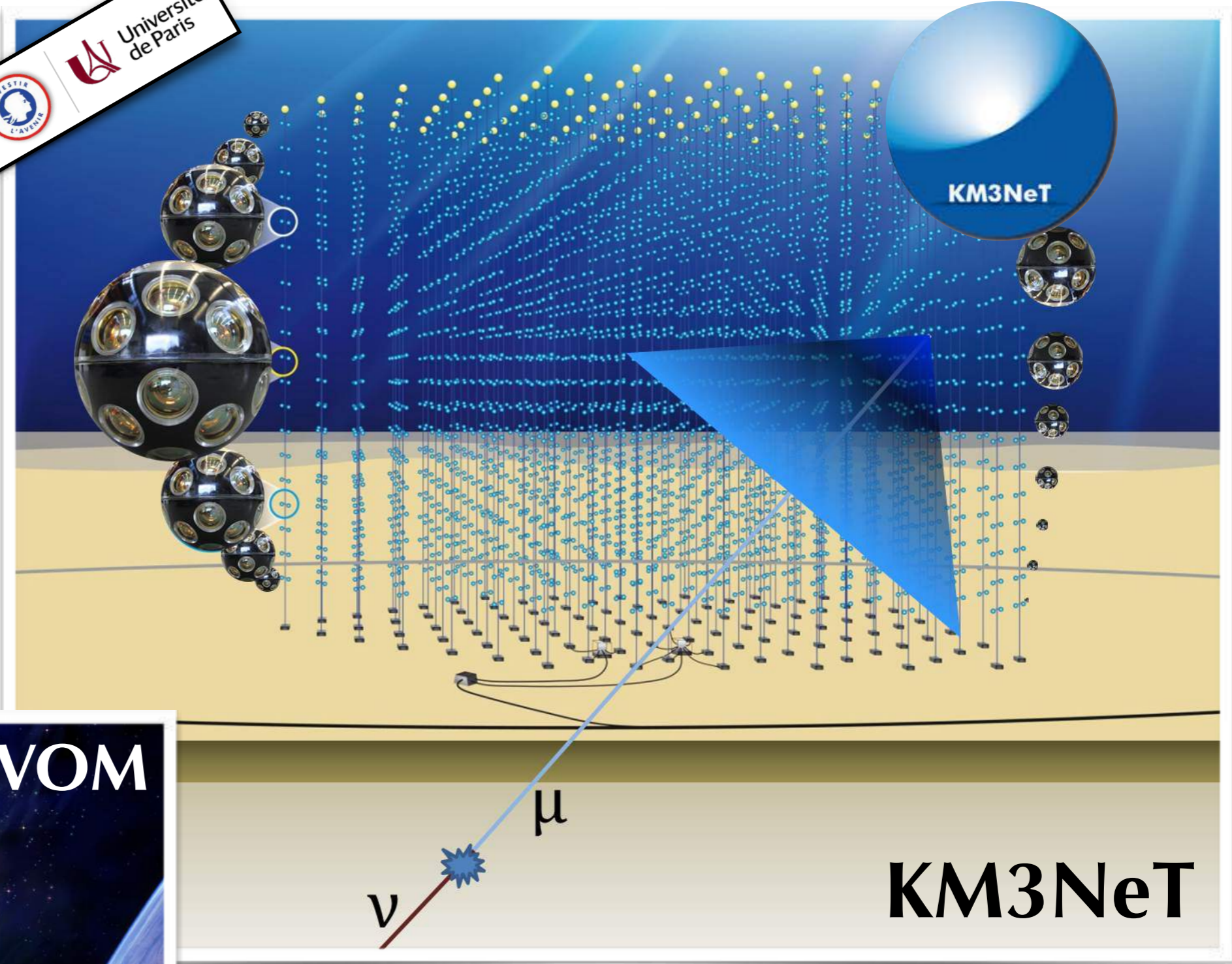
- BL Lac, LSP
- 3FGL J1040.4+0615
- $z = 0.7351 \pm 0.0045$
- Dist. from IC-141209A: 0.27°



Stay tuned...

Future

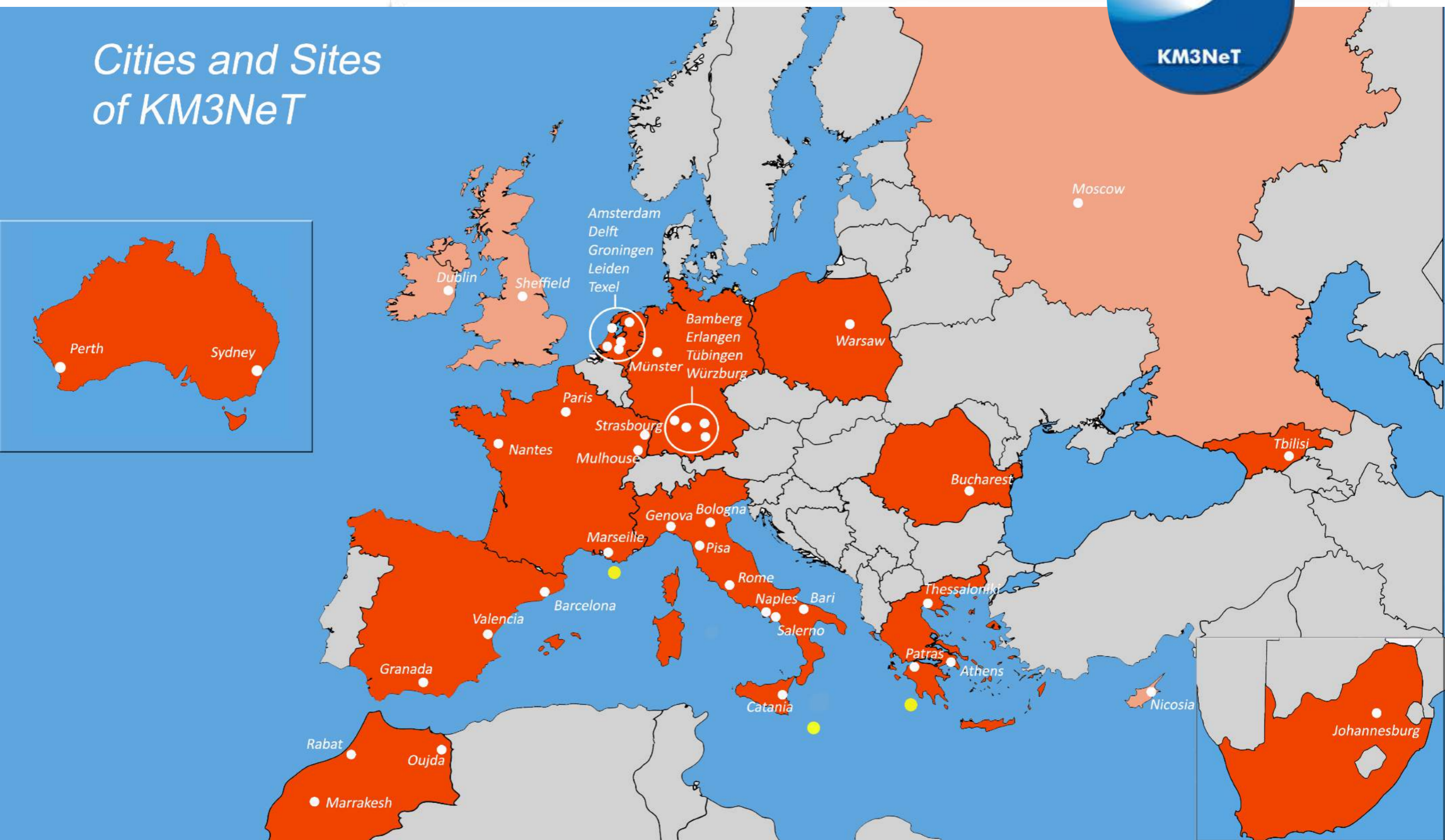
Labex **UnivEarthS**   Université de Paris



Future



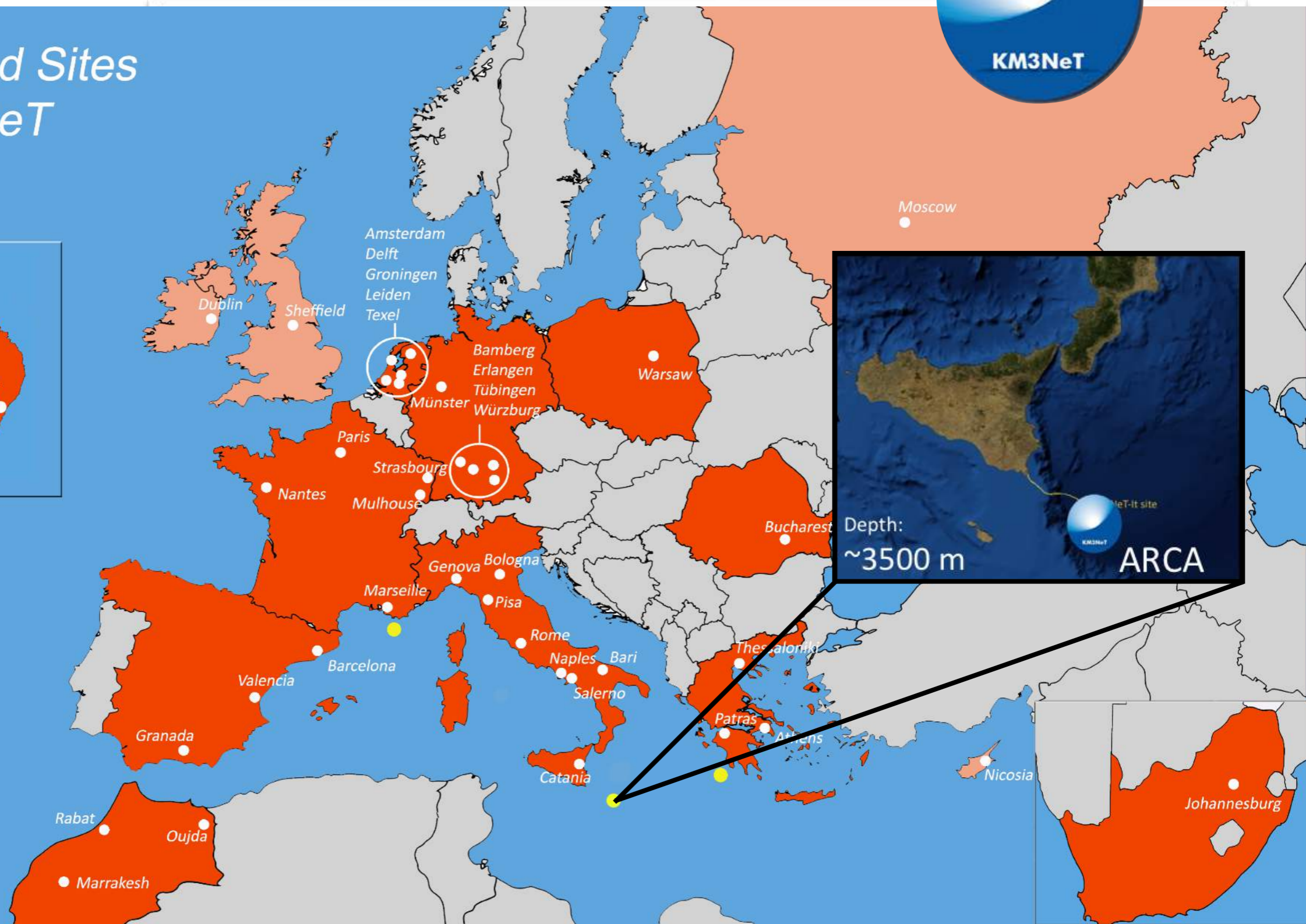
Cities and Sites of KM3NeT



Future



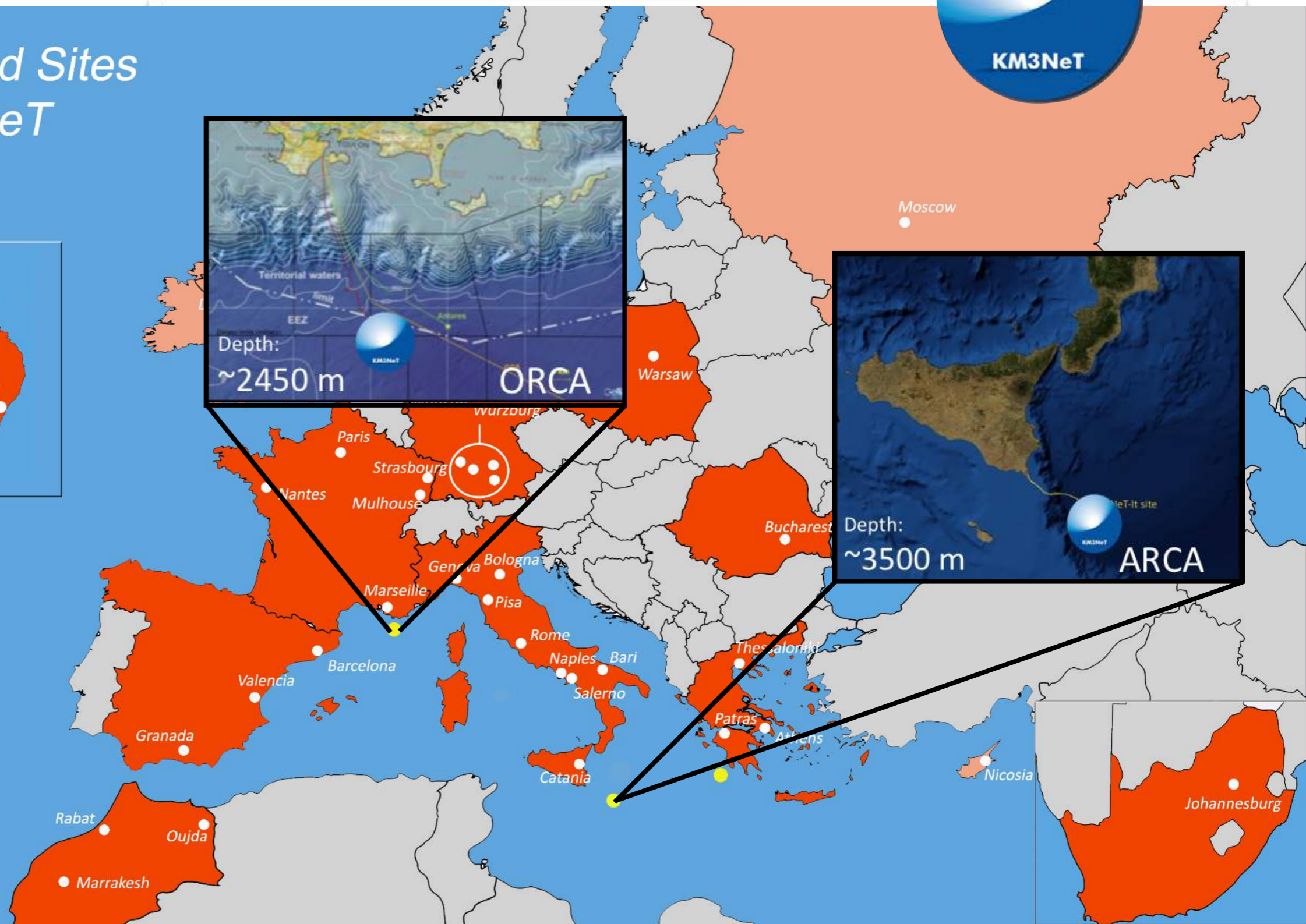
Cities and Sites of KM3NeT



Future



Cities and Sites of KM3NeT



Depth: ~2450 m
ORCA

Depth: ~3500 m
ARCA



Multi-messenger astronomy into space but also...under water !



Multi-messenger astronomy into space but also...under water !

Outline - Lecture 3

C. Supermassive black holes

1. Supermassive black hole formation and evolution
2. Cosmic rays from Active Galactic Nuclei
- 3. Supermassive black hole binaries**

Active Galactic nuclei

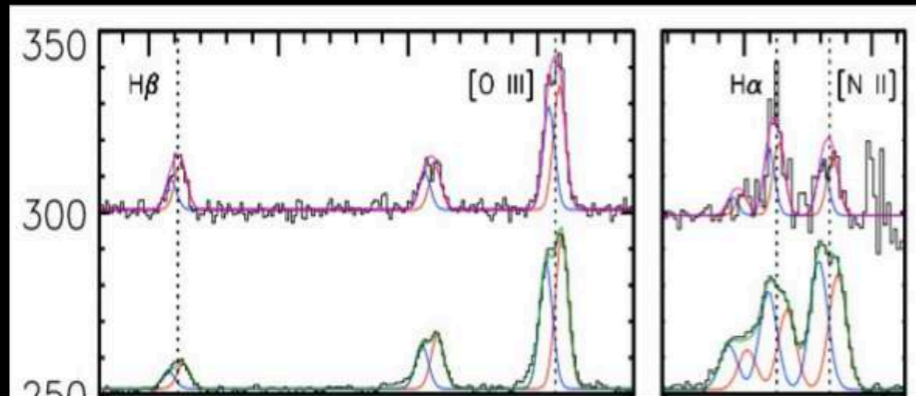
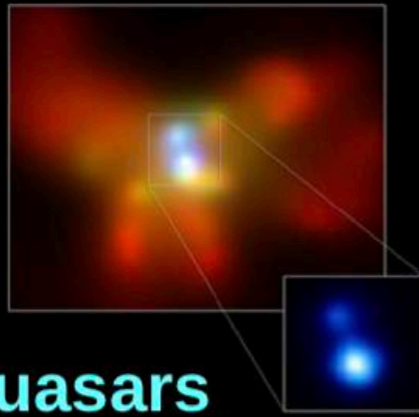
Galaxy with (one?) very bright nuclei

Answering these questions requires multi-messenger approaches:

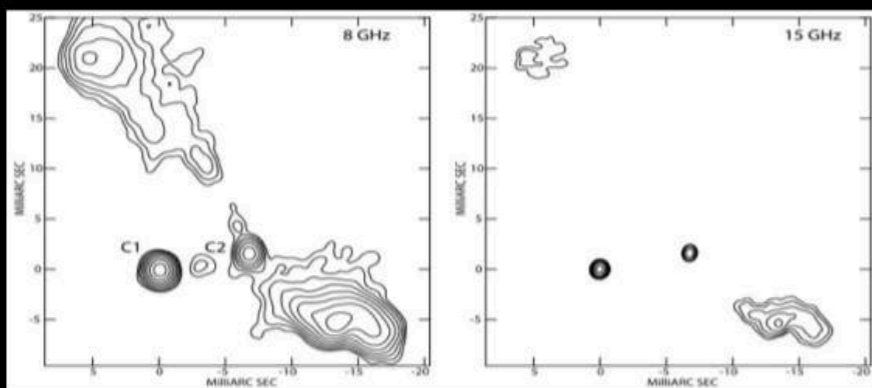
- Muon ...
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Supermassive black hole formation & evolution

10 kpc: double quasars
(Komossa 2003)

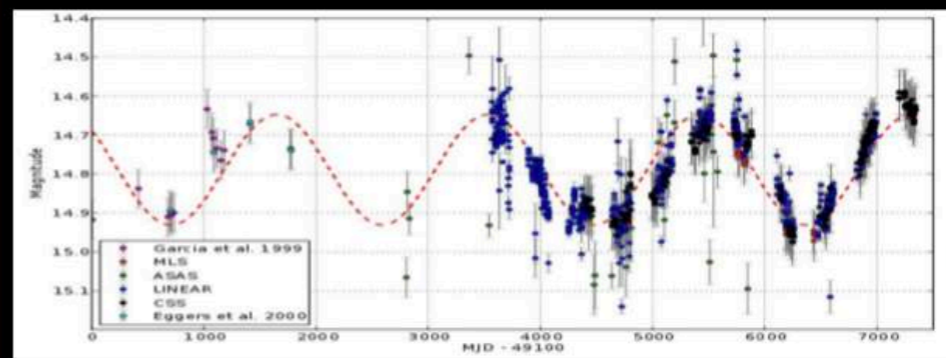
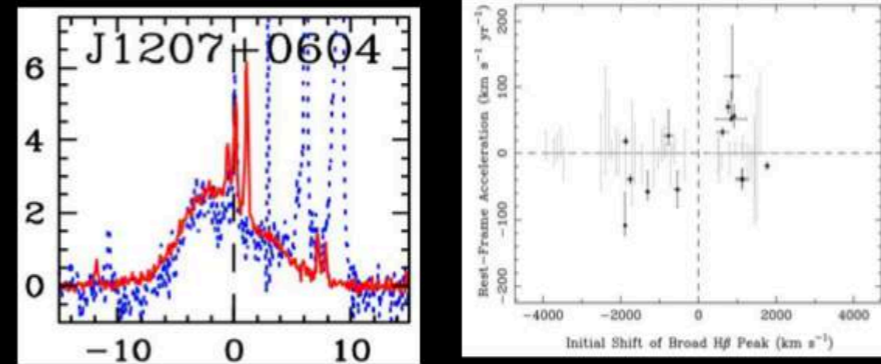


1 kpc: double peaked NL
(Comerford 2013)

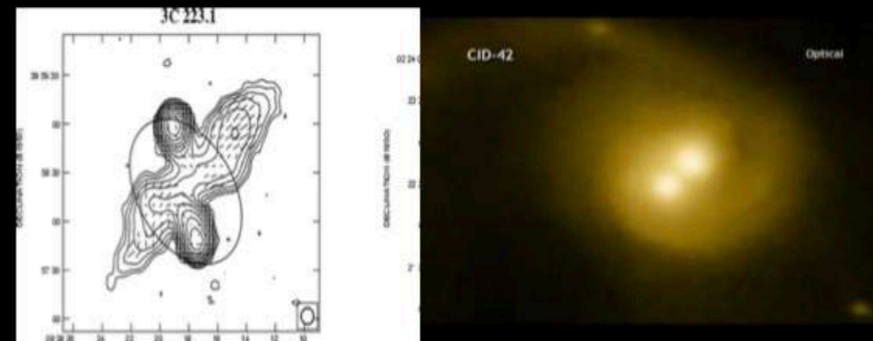


10 pc: double radio cores
(Rodriguez 2006)

1 pc: -shifted BL (Tsalmatzsa 2011)
-accelerating BL (Eracleous 2012)

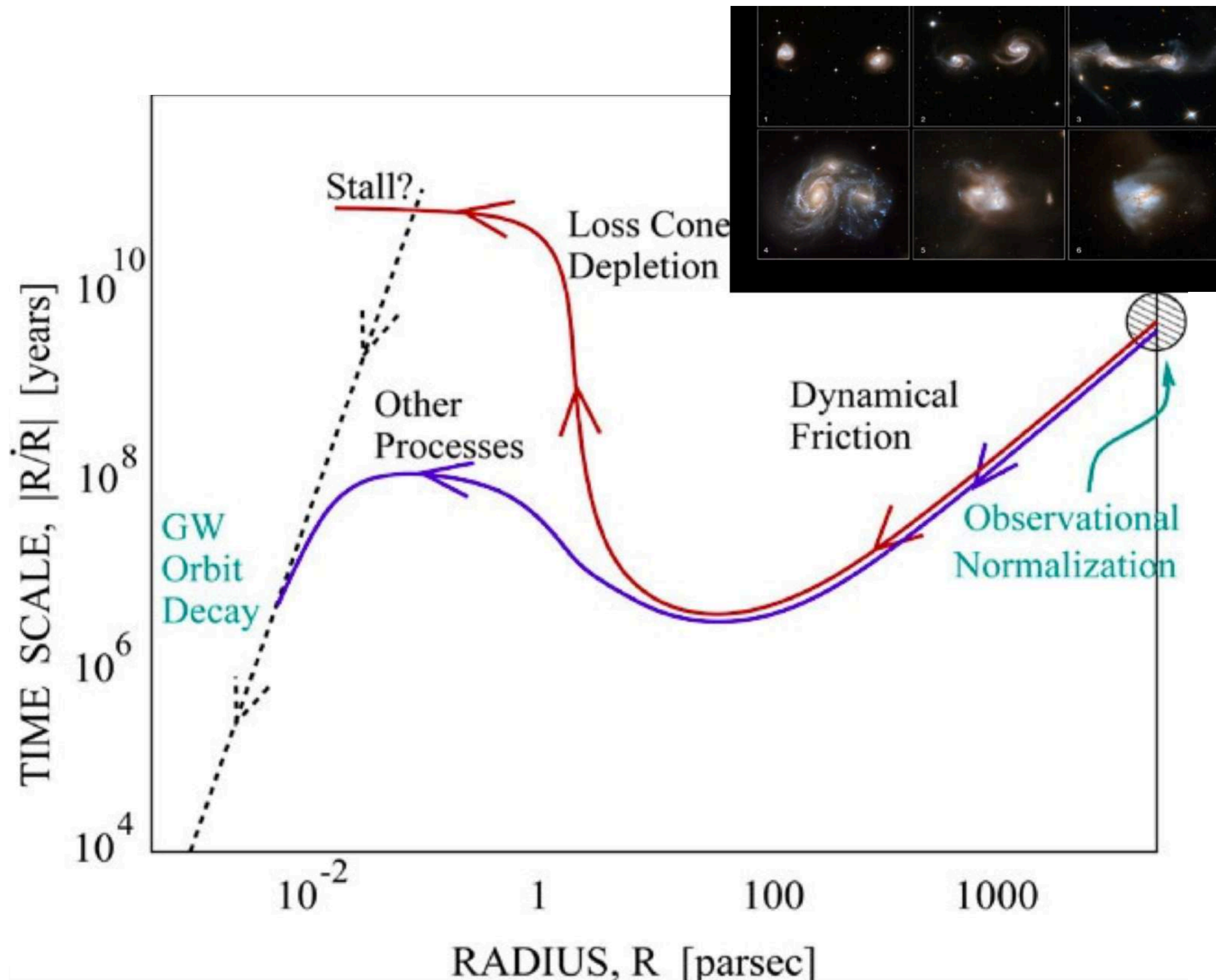


0.01 pc: periodicity (Graham 2015)



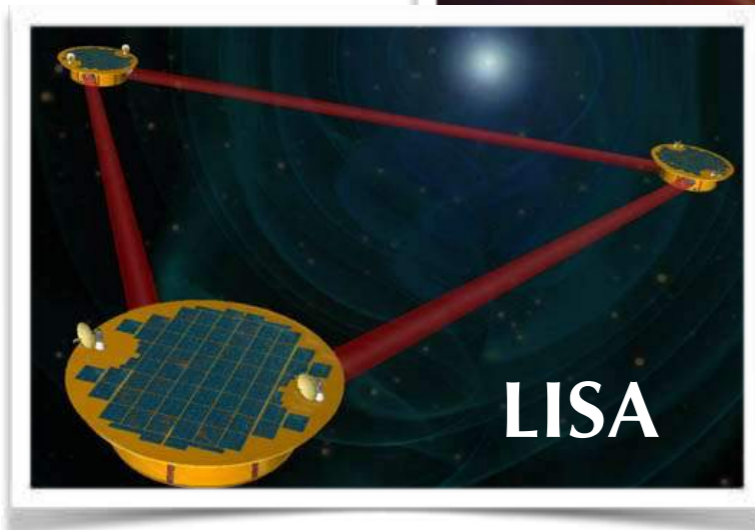
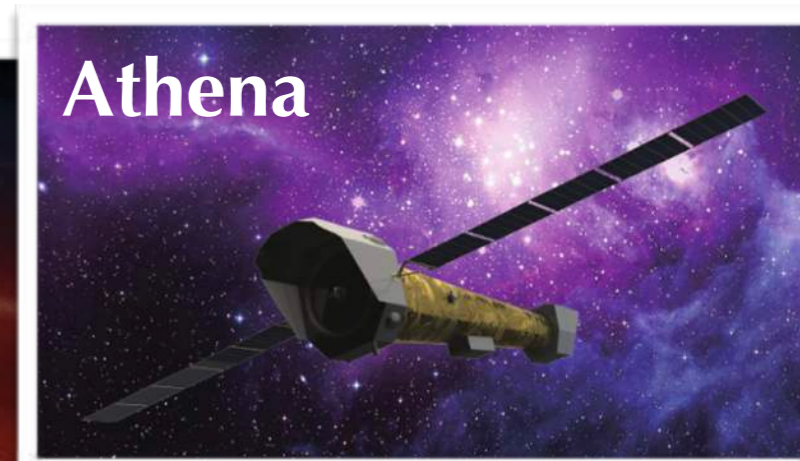
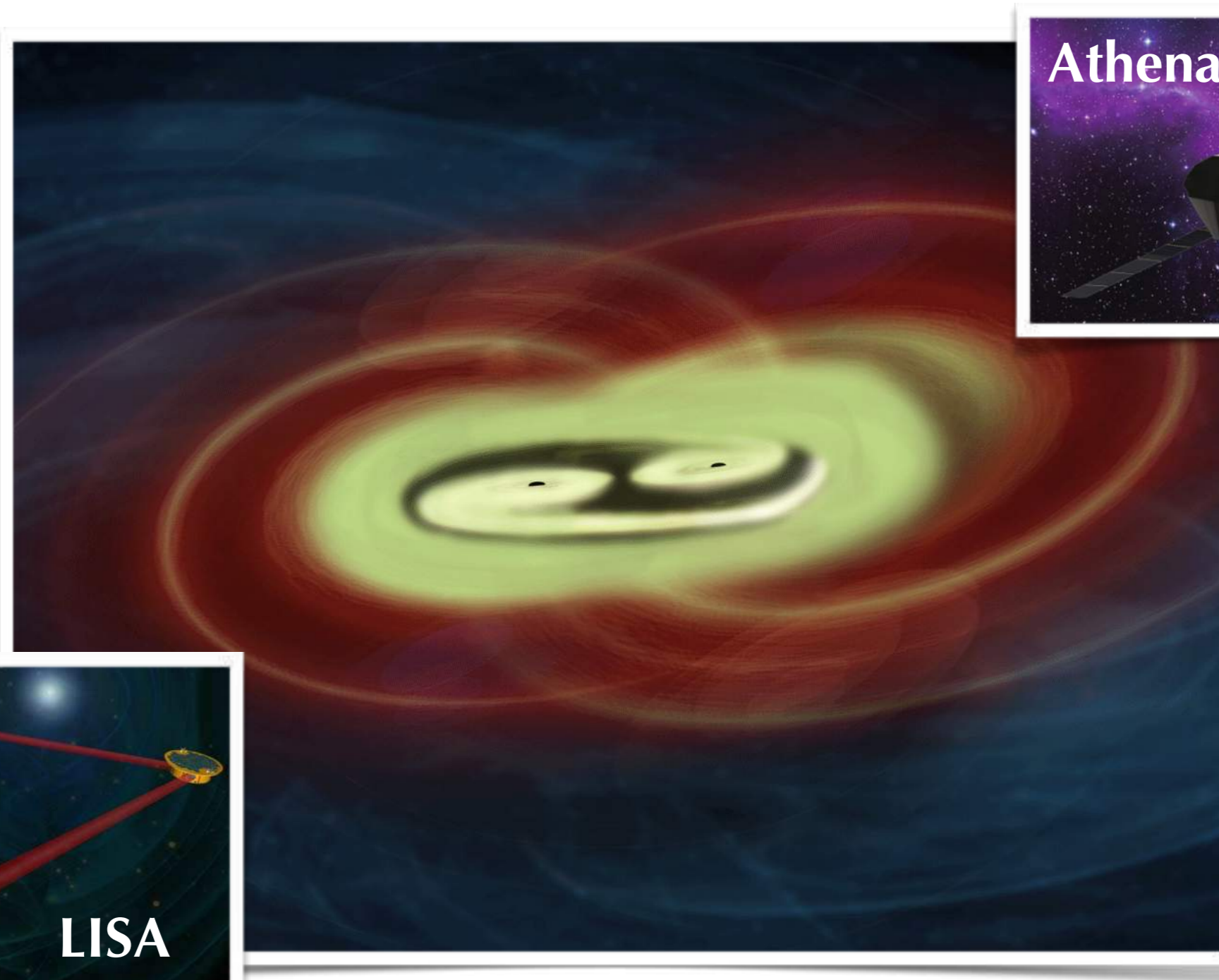
0.0 pc: -X-shaped sources (Capetti 2001)
-displaced AGNs (Civano 2009)

Supermassive black hole formation & evolution



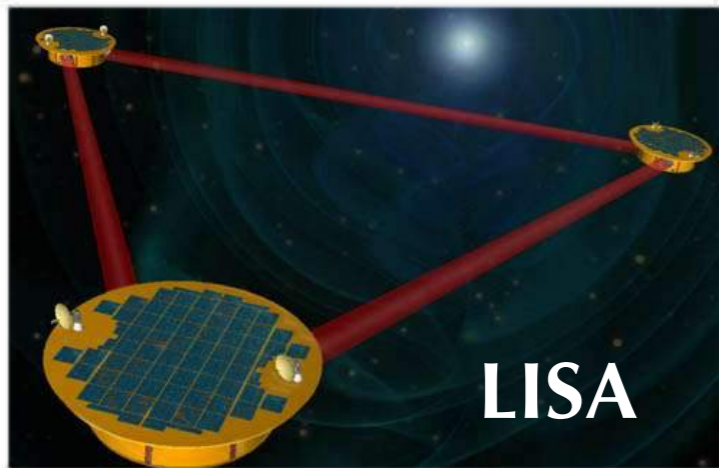
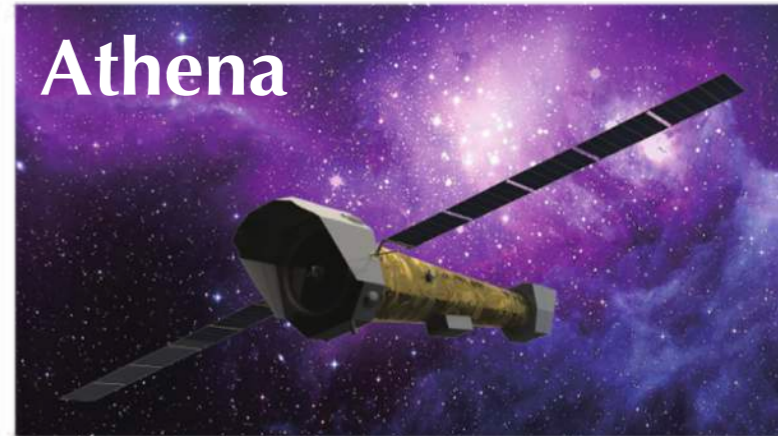
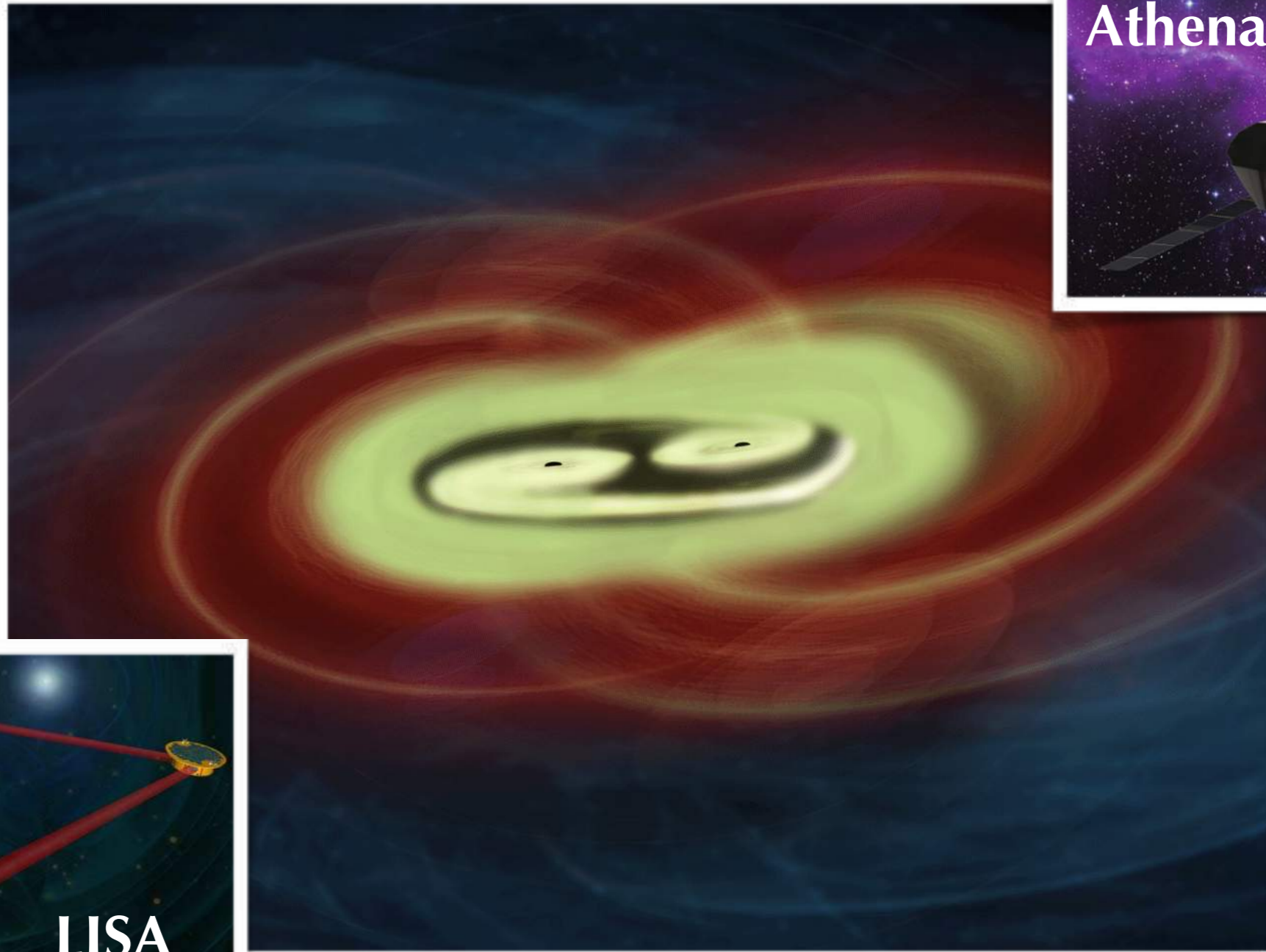
Multi-messenger signal ?

Which multi-messenger signal when two supermassive black holes merge ?



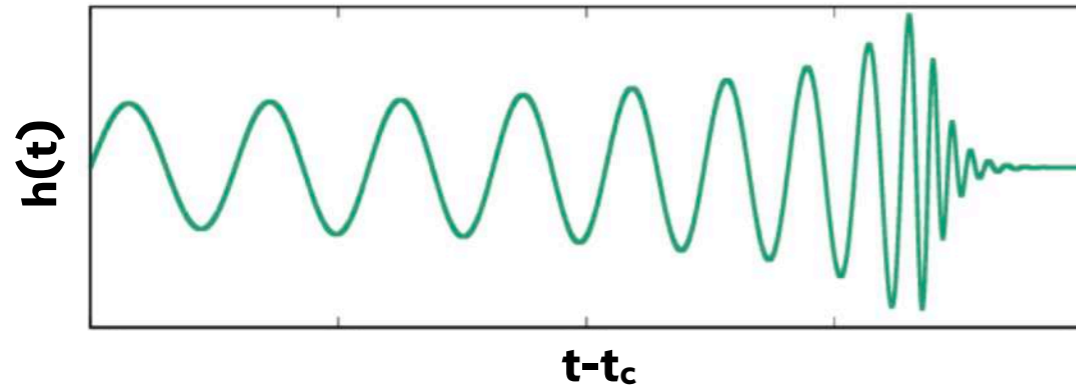
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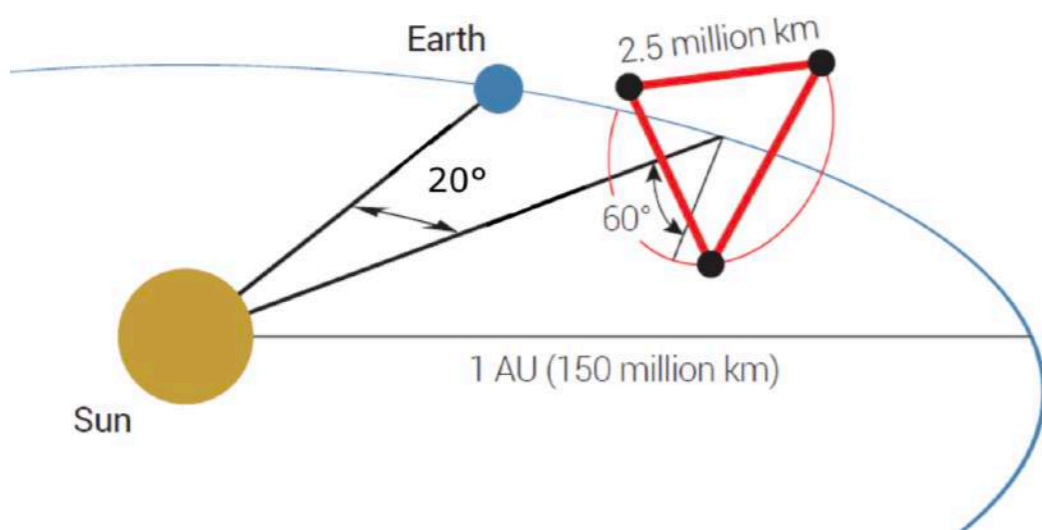
Gravitational-wave signal & LISA

Signal waveform:

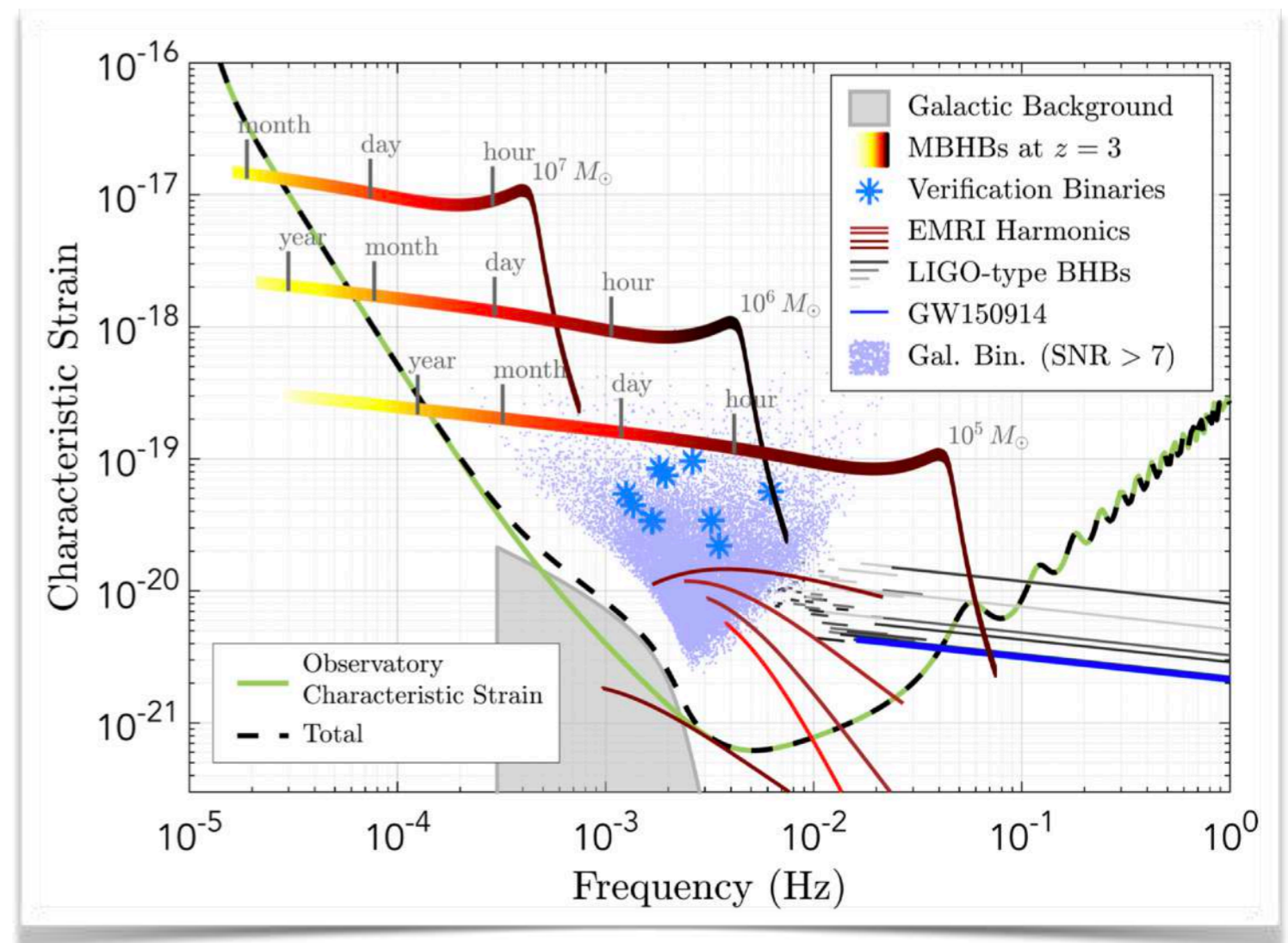


$$f_{GW} \propto (GM_c)^{-5/8} \left(\frac{5}{256(t-t_c)} \right)^{3/8}$$

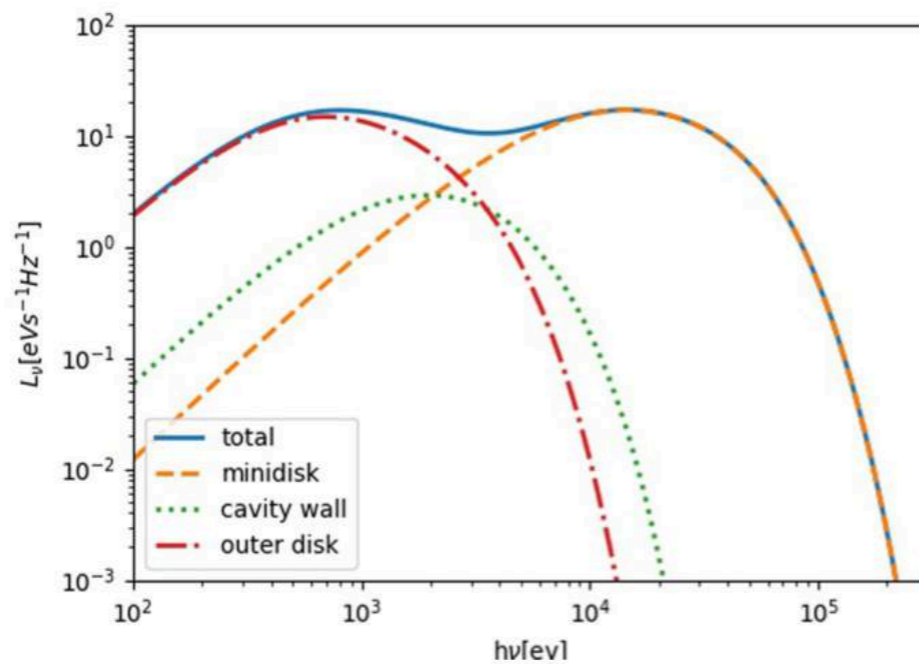
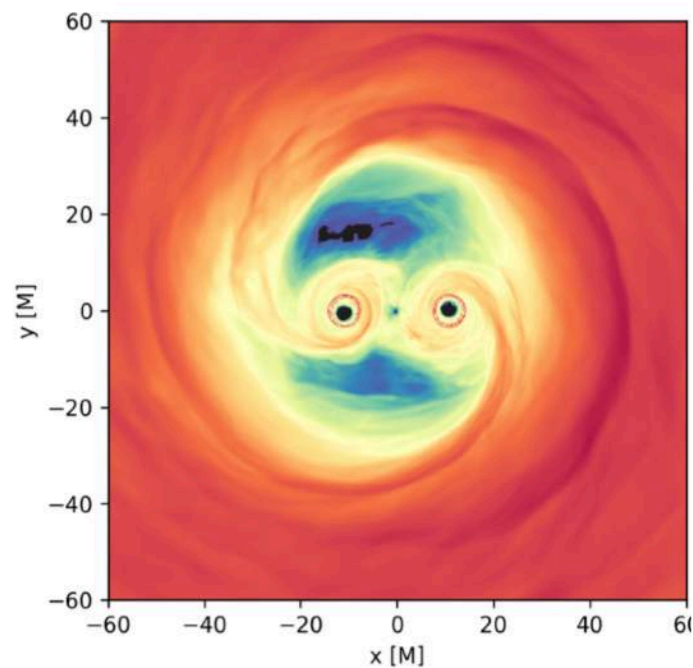
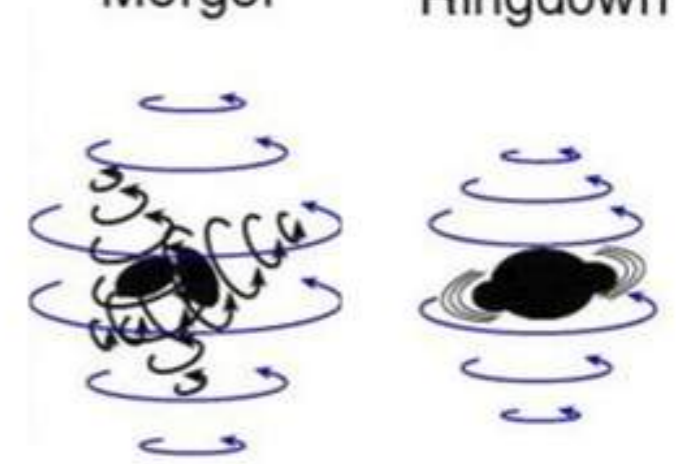
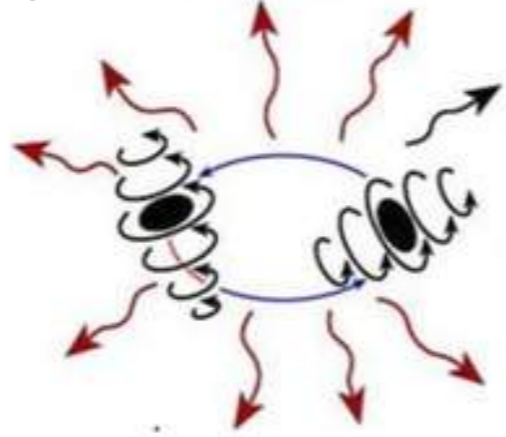
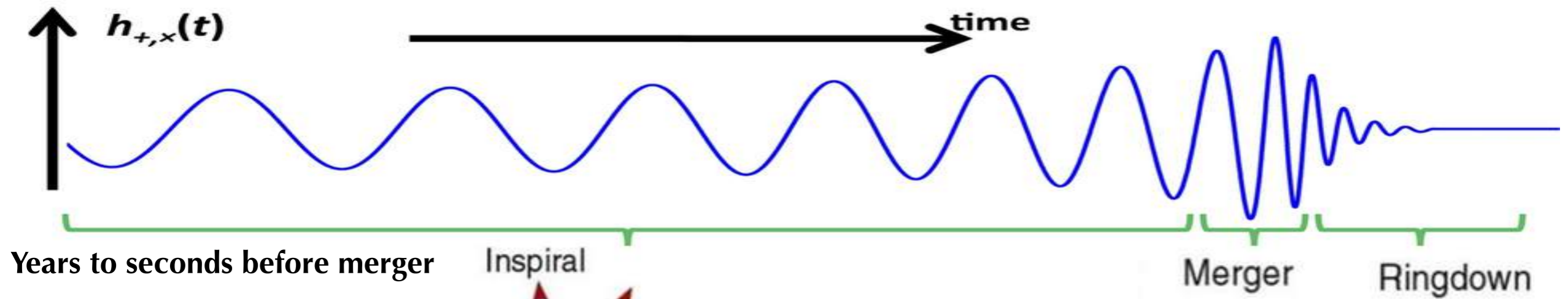
$\Rightarrow \sim \text{mHz}$ for SMBH binaries



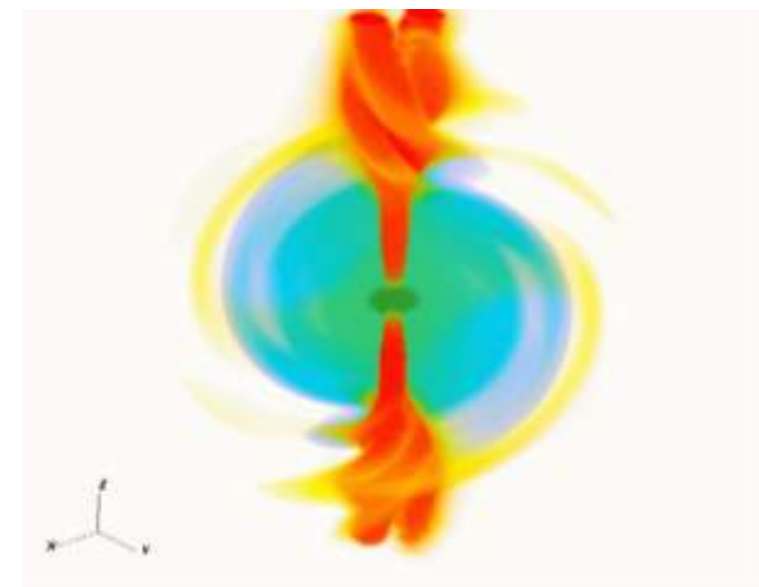
- **Laser Interferometer Space Antenna (launch in ~2034)**
- 3 spacecrafts on heliocentric orbits and distant from 2.5 millions kilometers
- Goal: detect relative distance changes of 10^{-21} : few picometers
- All-sky monitor to detect low frequency gravitational waves.



Electromagnetic counterparts ?

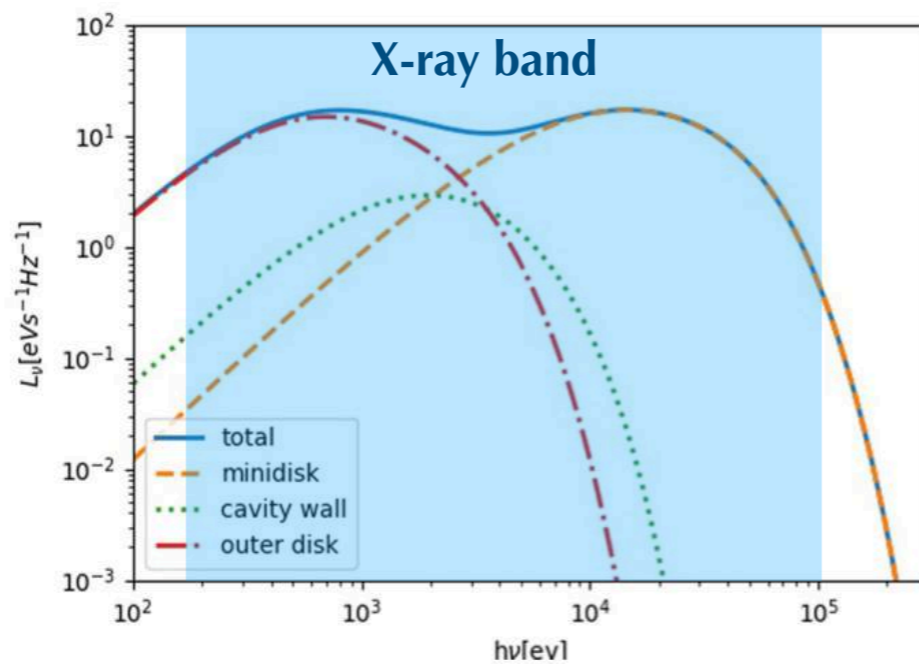
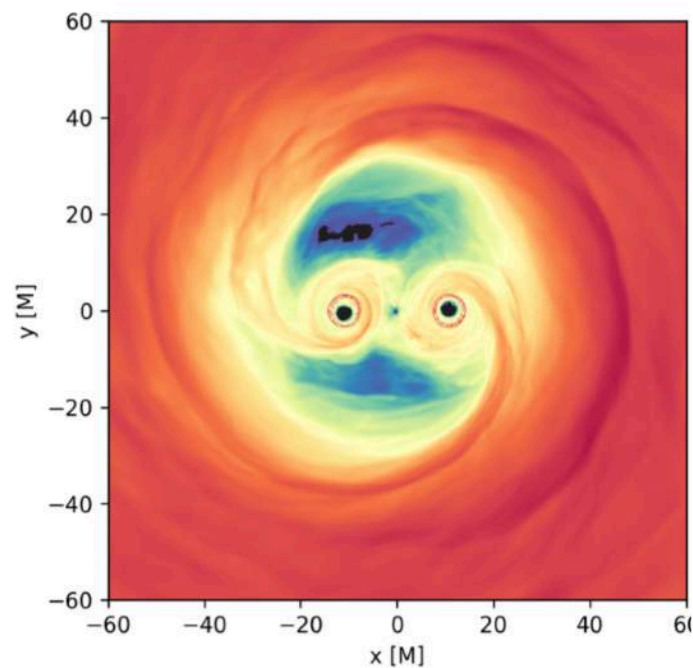
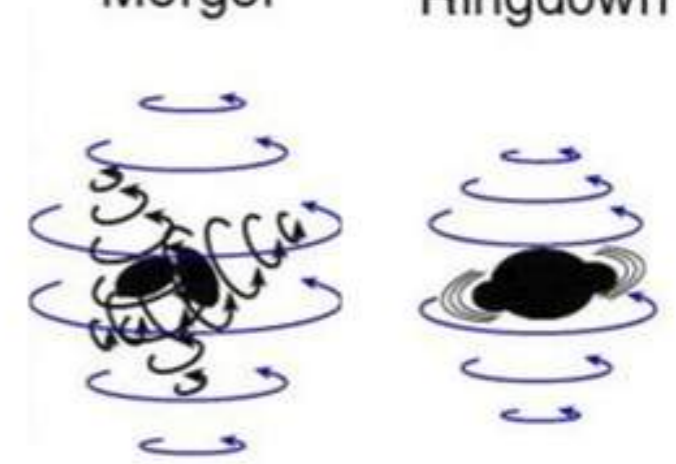
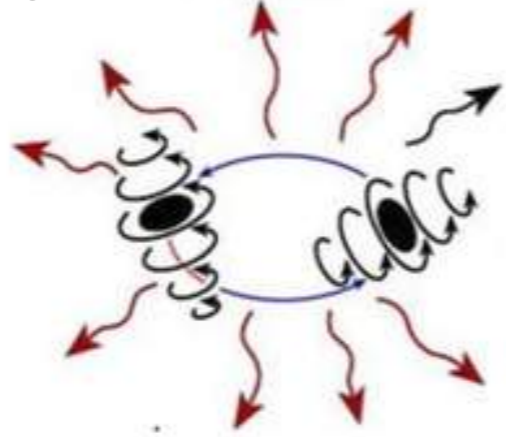
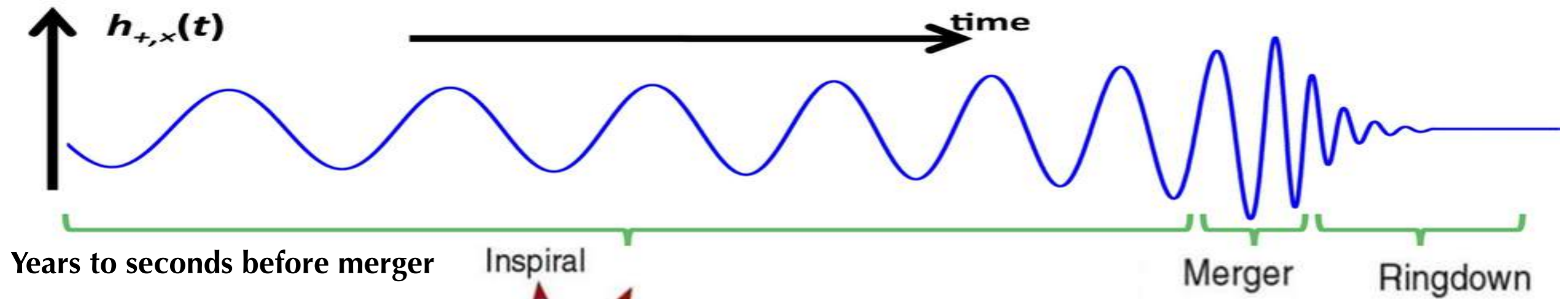


d'Ascoli et al., 2018

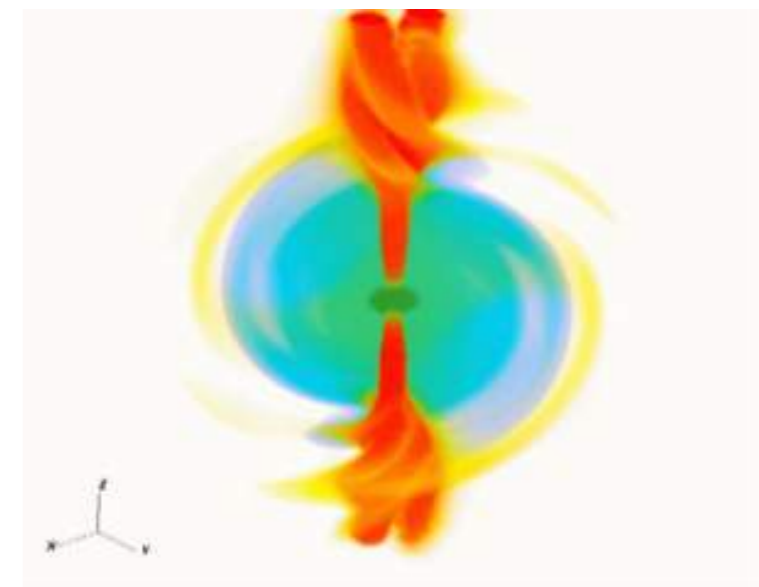


Palenzuela et al., 2010

Electromagnetic counterparts ?

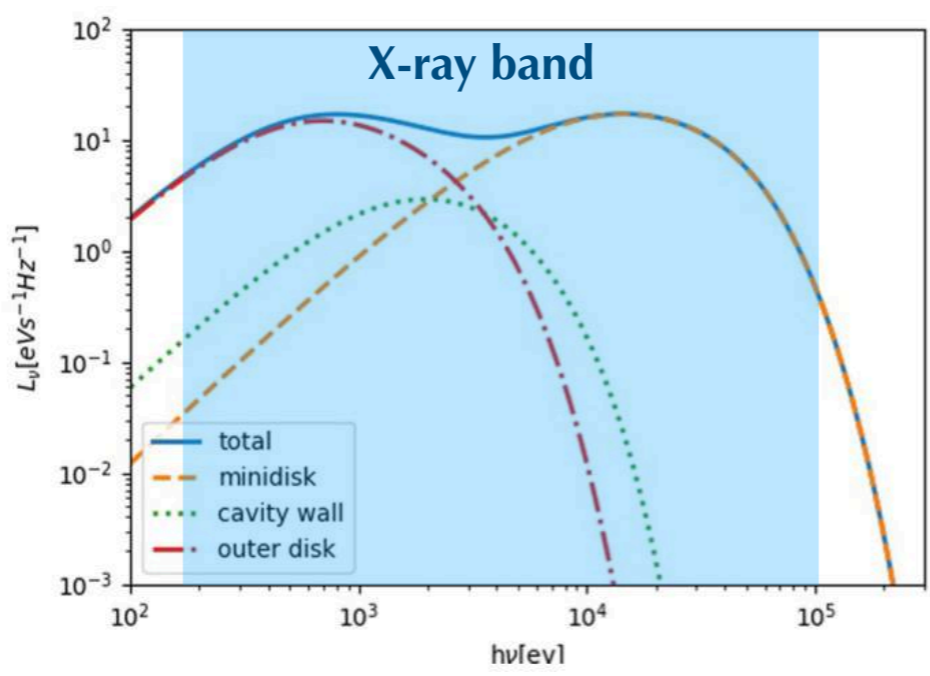
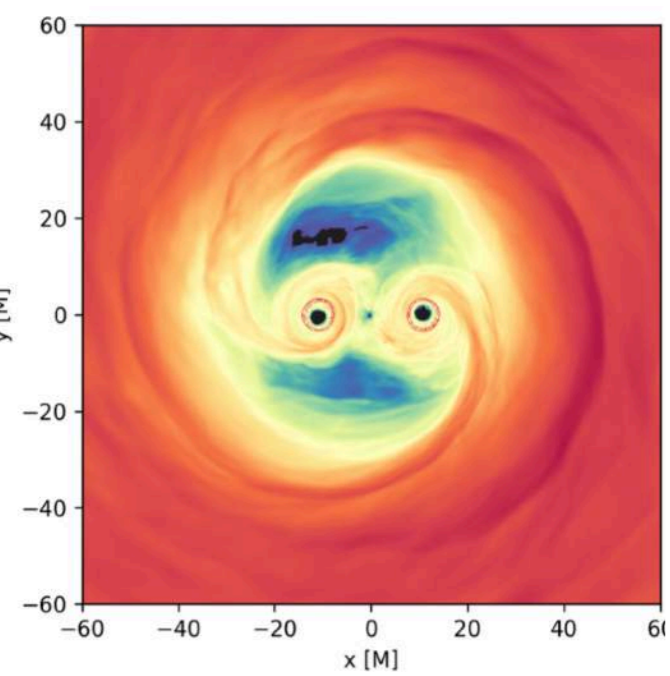
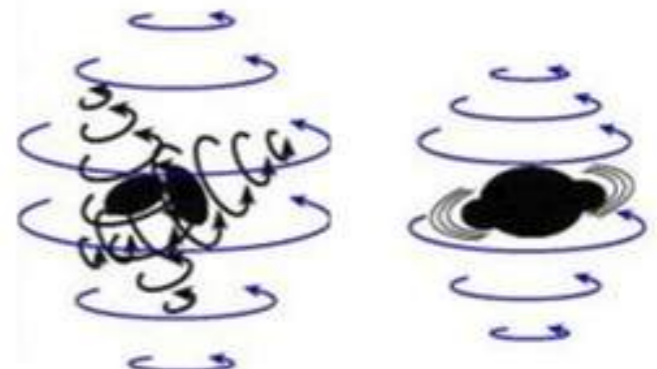
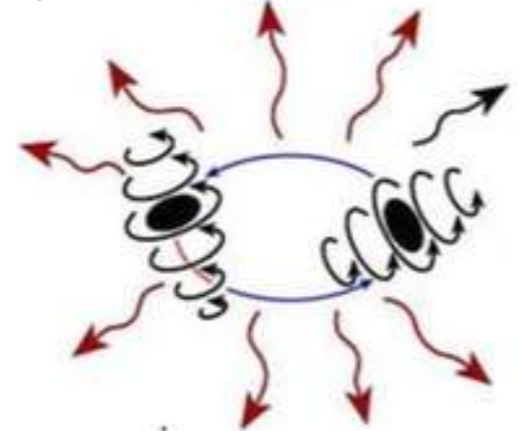
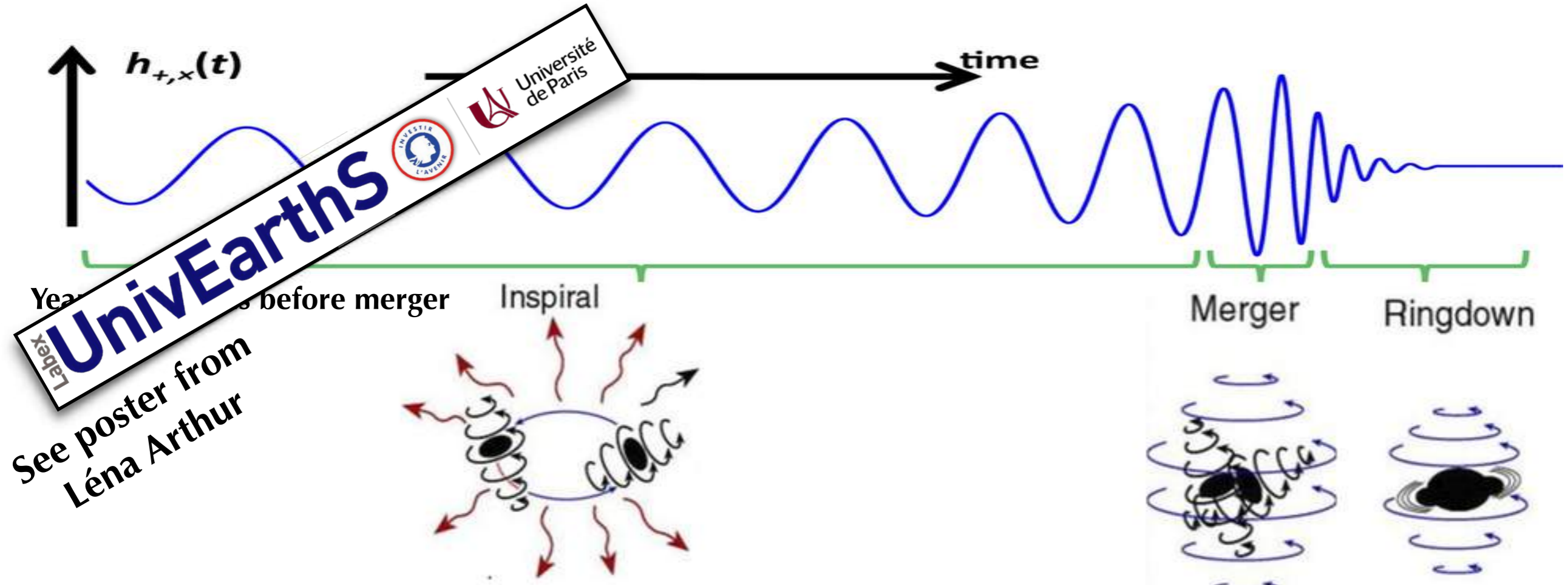


d'Ascoli et al., 2018

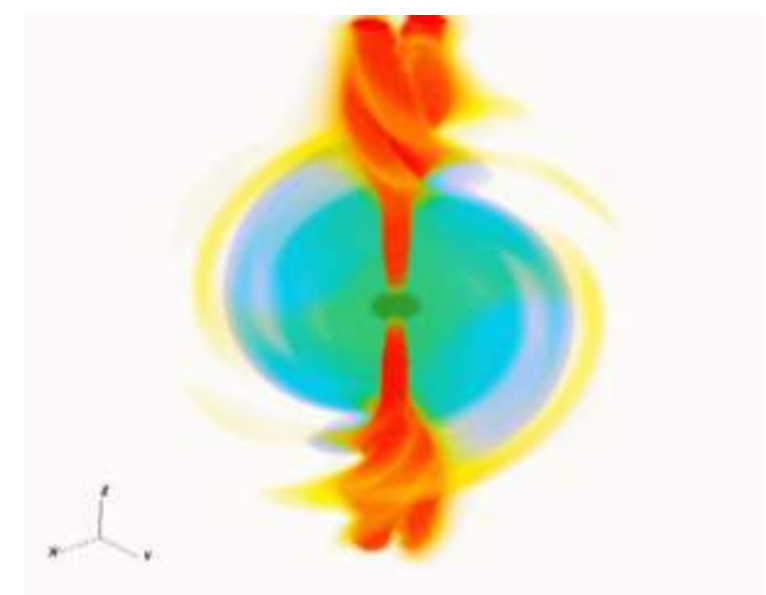


Palenzuela et al., 2010

Electromagnetic counterparts ?



d'Ascoli et al., 2018



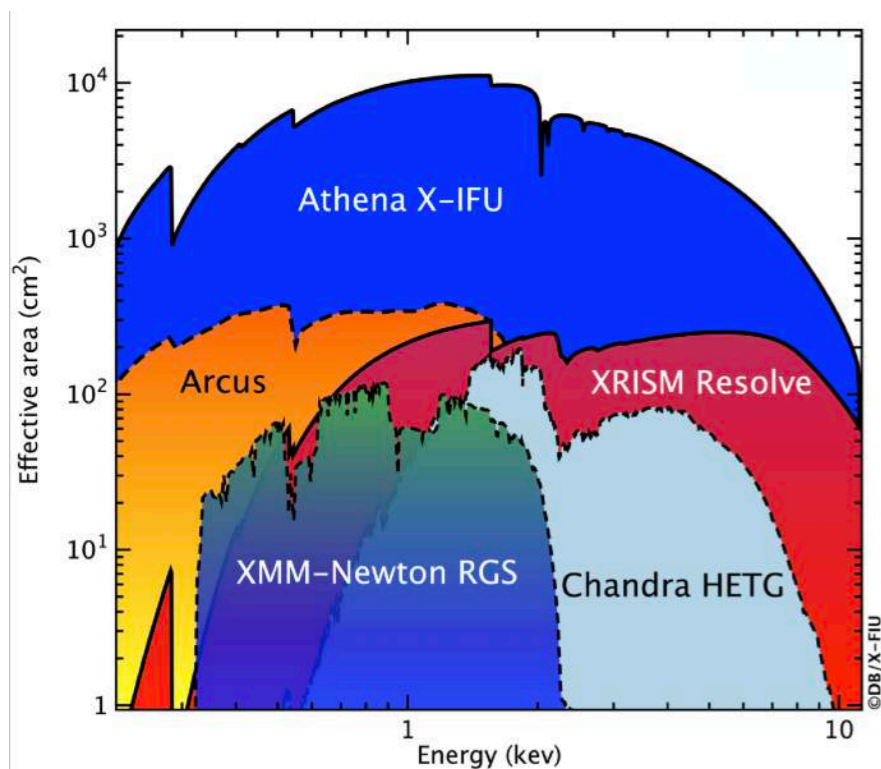
Palenzuela et al., 2010

The Athena satellite

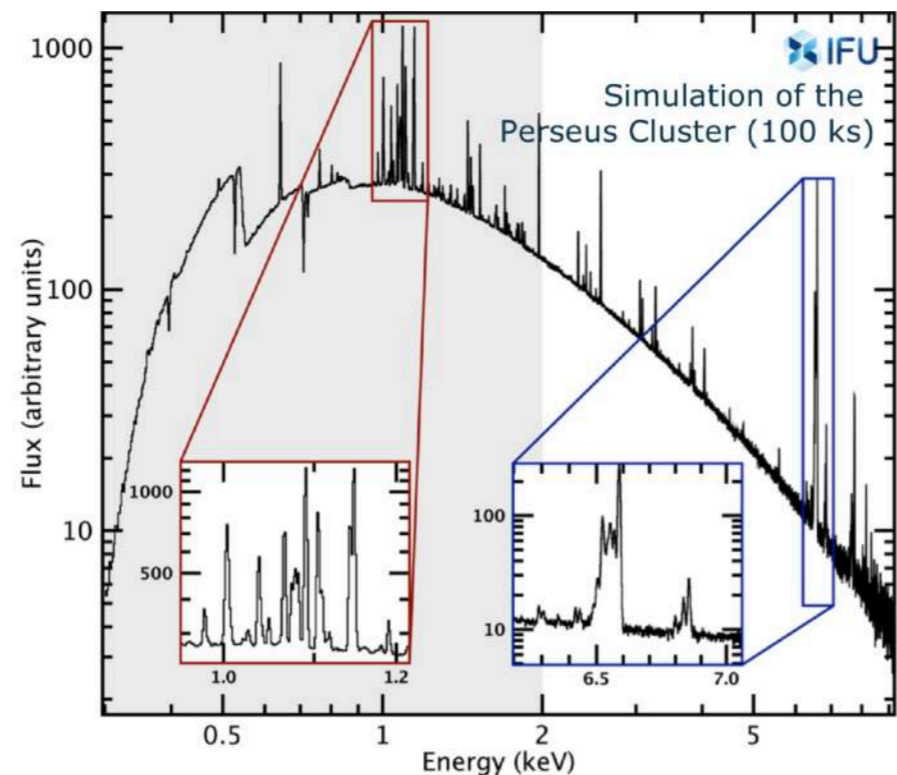
- Soft X-ray satellite (ESA with NASA + JAXA participation) to be launched in ~2030.
- Three innovative elements:



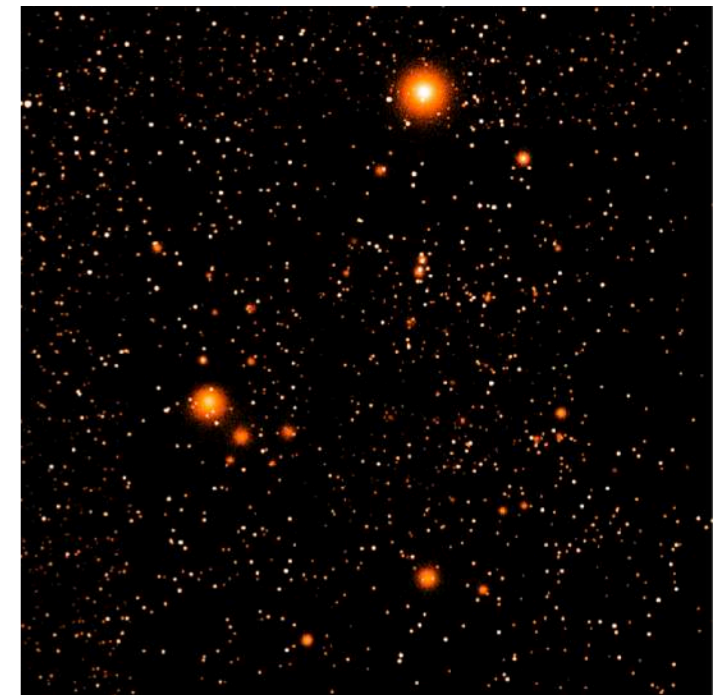
The largest X-ray mirror for astronomy ever studied



Unprecedented X-ray spectroscopic capabilities



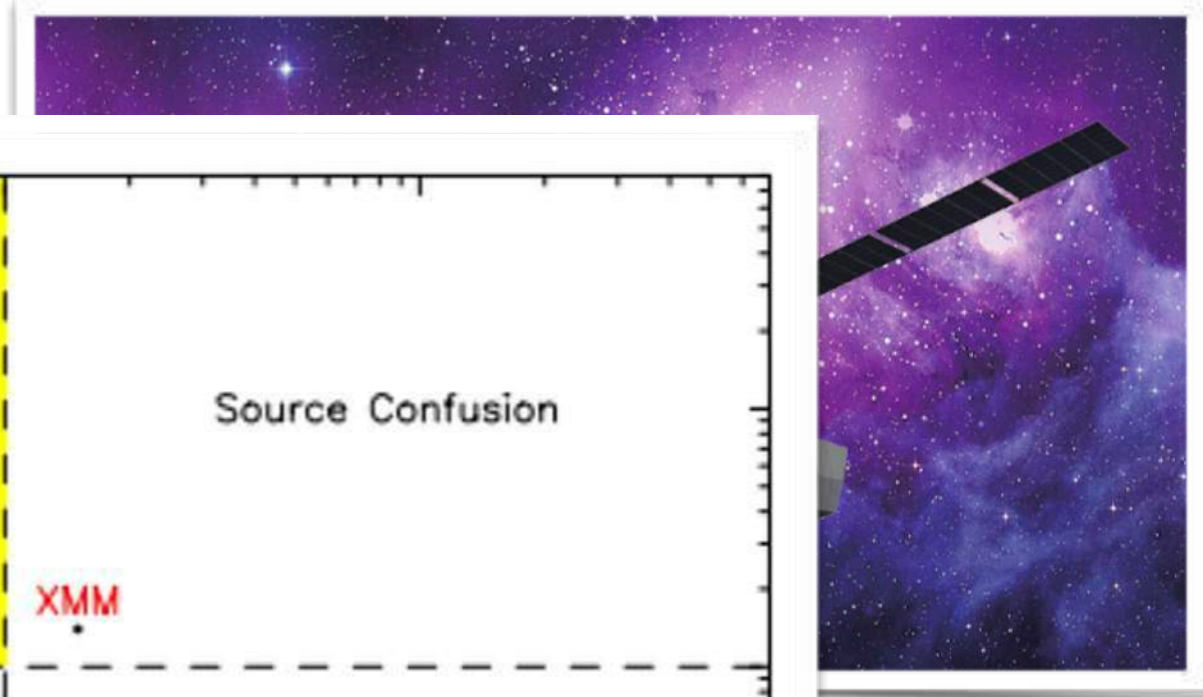
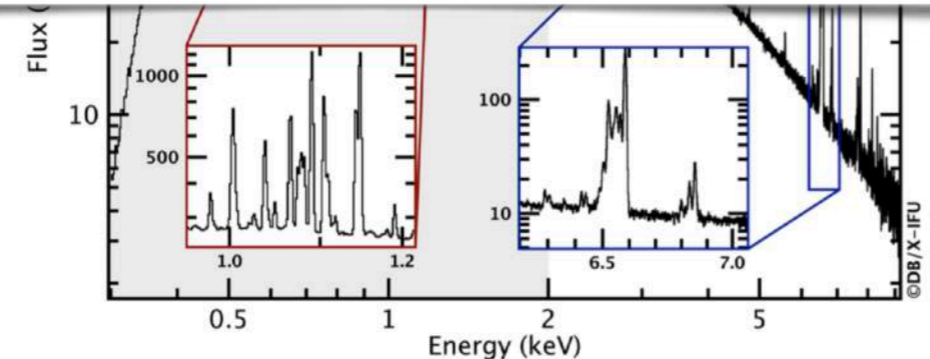
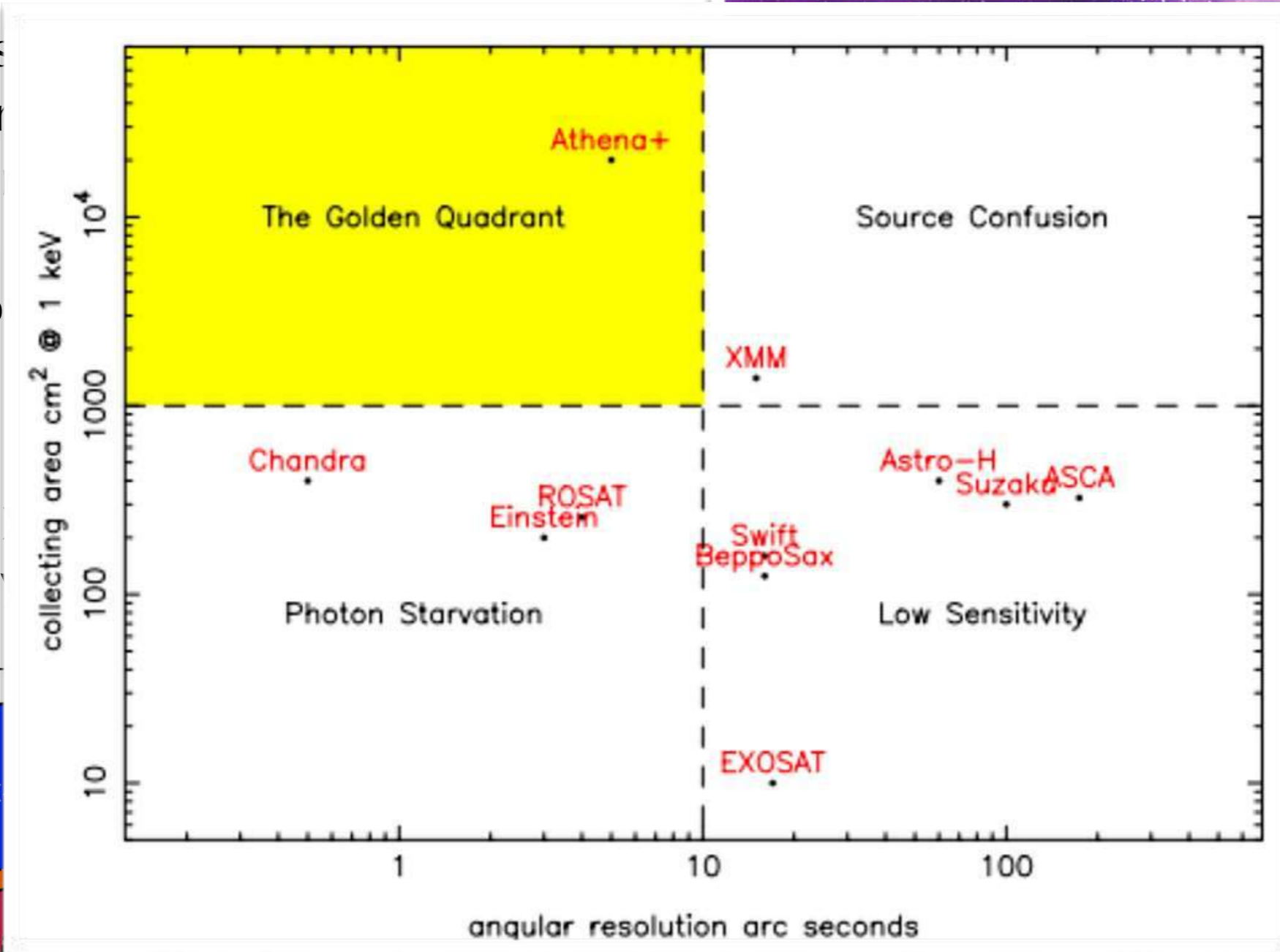
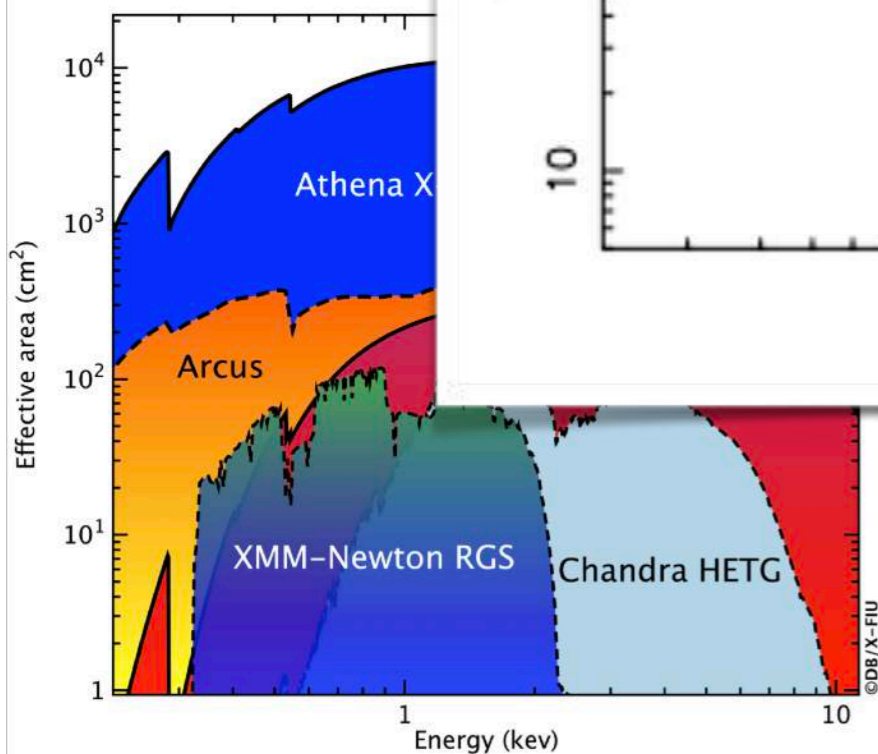
The fastest X-ray sky survey machine



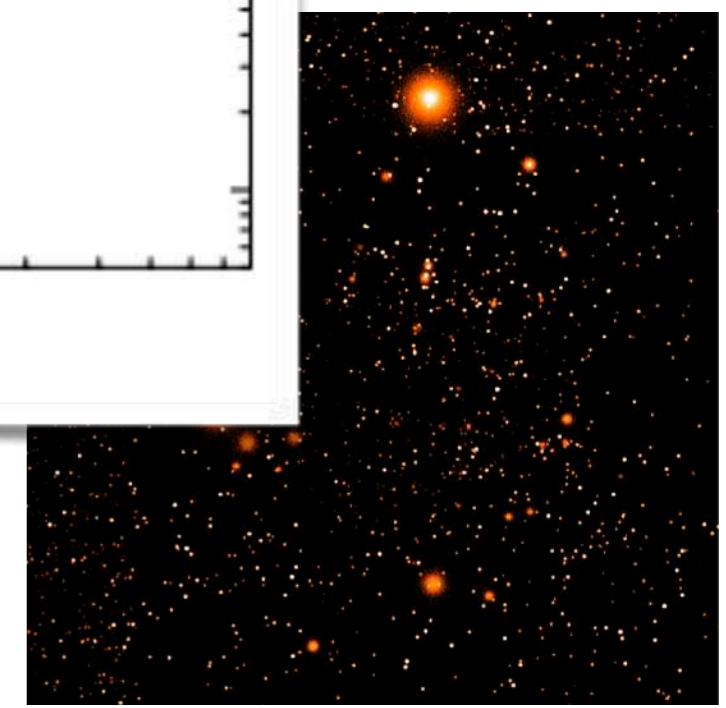
The Athena satellite

- Soft X-ray spectrometer
- + JAXA part
- launched in 2028
- Three innovative instruments

The largest astronomical X-ray sky machine



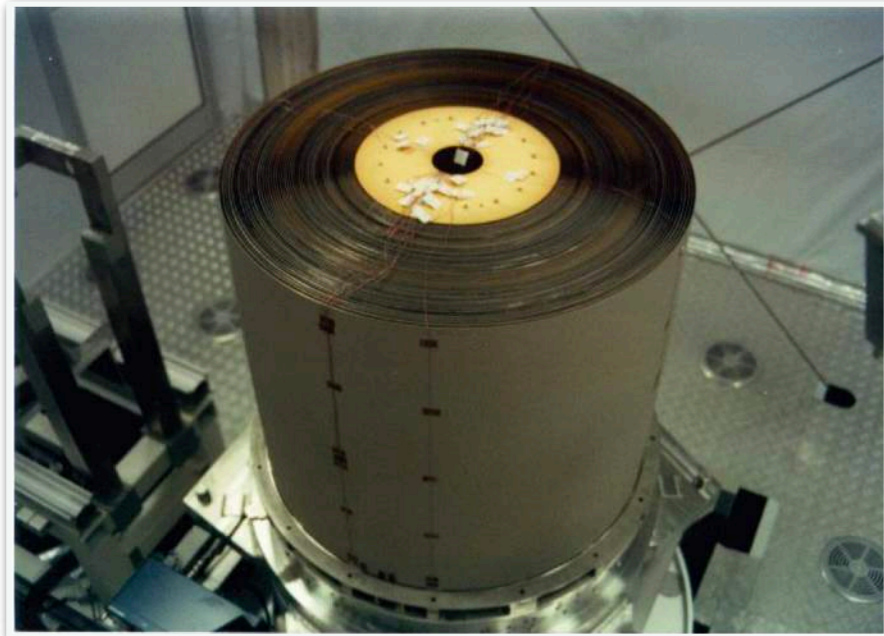
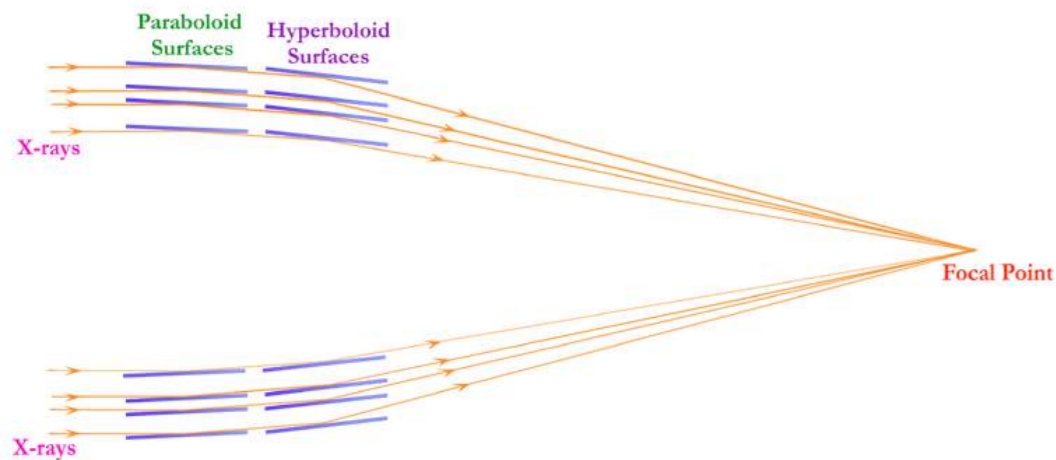
Best X-ray sky machine



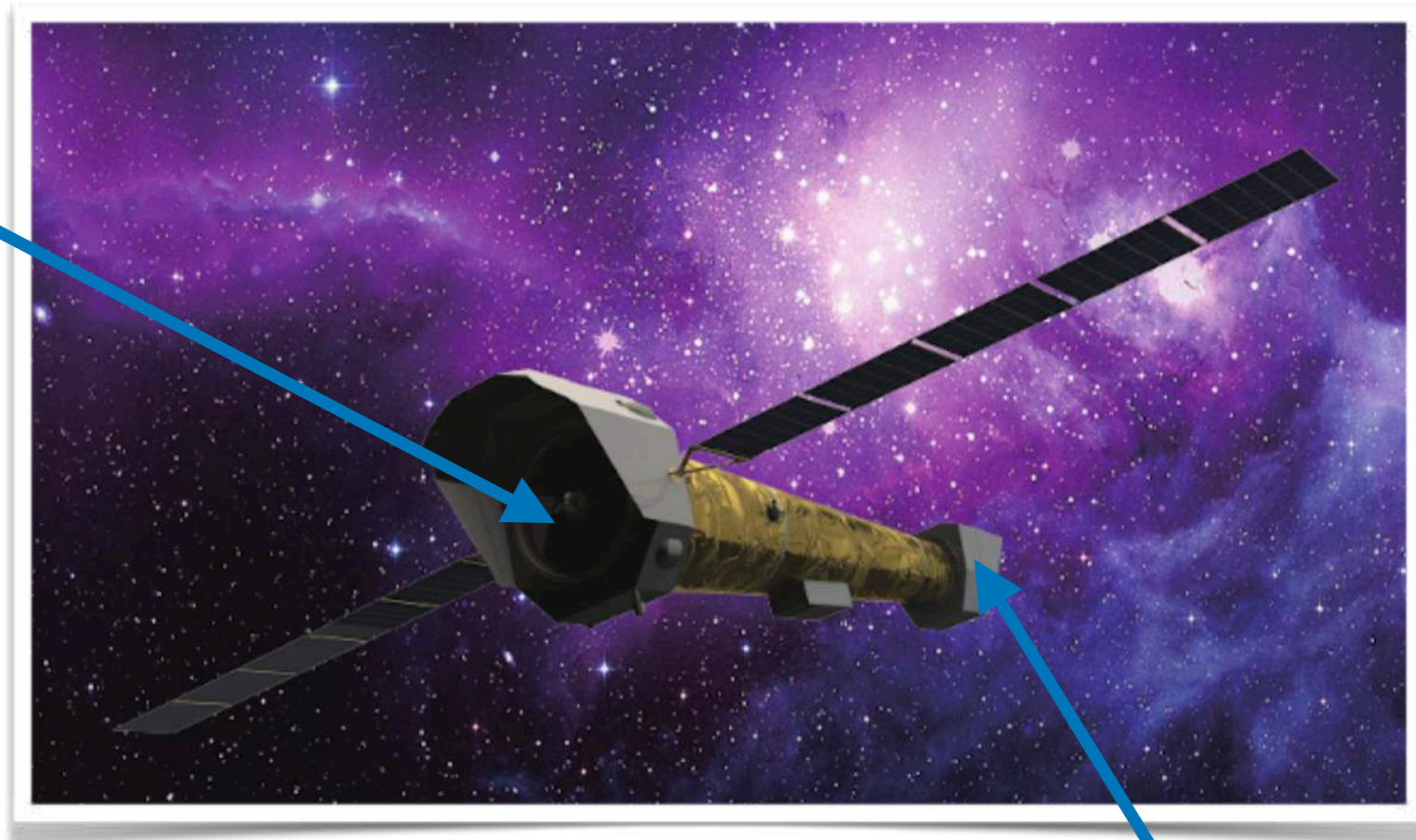
The Athena satellite

- **Grazing incidence optics**

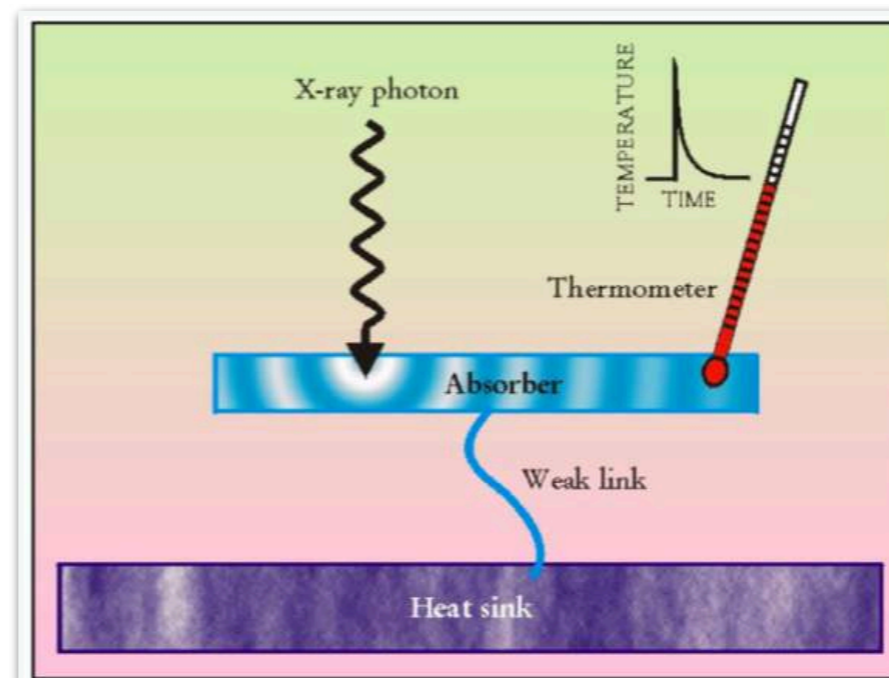
X-rays do not reflect off mirrors the same way that visible light does



Effective area (=sensitivity) can be increased by nesting mirrors one inside the other.



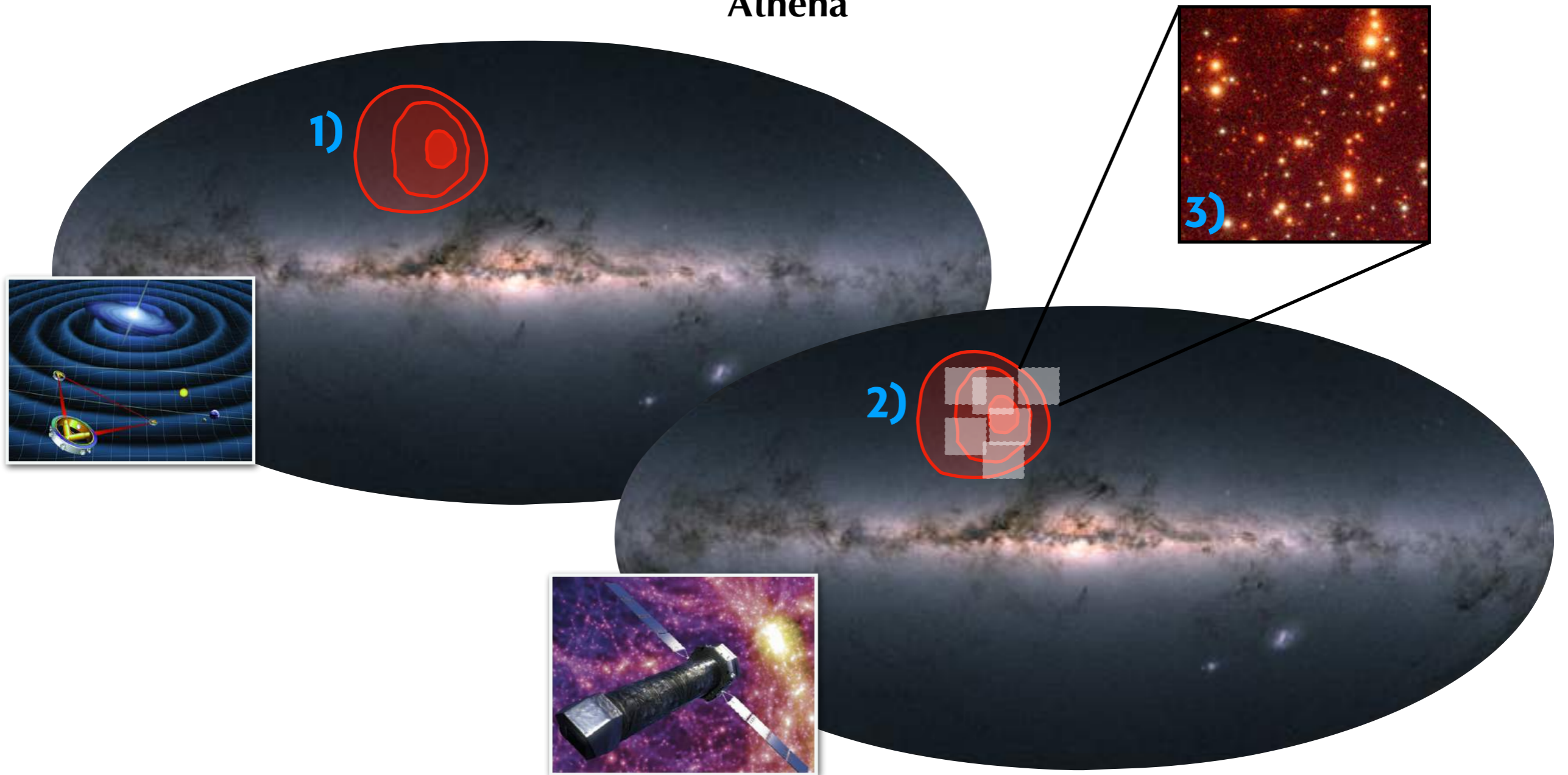
- **Detector = micro-calorimeter**



Micro-calorimeters operated at cryogenic temperatures measure the energy of an incoming photon via conversion to heat \Rightarrow very good energy resolution.

Athena & LISA flying together

Objective: Detect the electromagnetic counterpart to a supermassive black hole merger with Athena



Questions to be answered:

- Where to look ?
- How to optimize the observational strategies ?