

Gravitational Waves: The challenges of the detection



R. Gouaty - GraSPA 2018 - Annecy

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Table of Contents

- What are gravitational waves?
- How can we detect gravitational waves?
- How do terrestrial interferometers work?

Gravitation: classical theory

- Flat space, absolute time
- Instantaneous interaction between distant masses





Gravitation: modern theory

- > Theory of General Relativity (GR)
- Einstein 1915-1918 : geometric theory of gravitation
- A mass "bends" and "deforms " space-time

> The trajectory of a mass is influenced by the curvature of space-time



J. A. Wheeler : "Space tells matter how to move and matter tells space how to curve"



The Einstein Field Equations

- What relation links deformation of space-time and energy-momentum ?
- Answer : the Einstein Field Equations (EFE)

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}g_{\mu\nu}R \\ \text{curvature term} \\ g_{\mu\nu} \\ Ricci tensor (depends on $g_{\mu\nu}$ and derivatives) \\ \end{array}\right) = 8\pi G \left(T_{\mu\nu}\right)$$

- Energy-momentum bends spacetime
- Spacetime tells mass (energy momentum) how to move
- These equations are non-linear

with c = 1

From Einstein Field Equations to Gravitational Waves

- Flat space-time = Minkowski metric
 - Add a perturbation $h_{\mu
 u}$ to the metric of a flat space
 - Linearize Einstein Field Equations
 - Choose a coordinate system ("Transverse Traceless" (T T) gauge)
- Obtain a wave equation

$$(
abla^2 - rac{1}{c^2}rac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2})h_{\mu
u} = 0$$
 (in vacuum, no $T_{\mu
u}$)

Solution (in vacuum) :

$$h_{\mu\nu} = A_{\mu\nu} \cdot e^{-i(\vec{k}\cdot\vec{x}-\omega\cdot t)}$$

Gravitational Waves

$$h_{\mu\nu} = A_{\mu\nu} \cdot e^{-i(\vec{k}\cdot\vec{x}-\omega\cdot t)}$$

Masses in motion

Space-time deformation

Gravitational wave

h



Detectable effect on free fall masses



propagation at the light speed c

Two polarisation states (+ and x)

transversal plane wave

 \geq

 $h_{\mu\nu} = h_{+}(t - z/c) + h_{x}(t - z/c)$



Illustration of the metric variation with free fall masses initially located along a circle, for a + polarised GW propagating along z

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(*h* has no dimension)

Effect on free fall masses



GW generation





Accelerated masses, quadrupolar momentum



Which detectable sources?

- No way for lab generation
- Astrophysical sources (high masses and velocities)
 - Despite the distance penalty
 - Typical sources: compact orbiting objects

"Non spherical" kinetic energy distance to the source

Examples with 2 orbiting objects: $h \approx \frac{32\pi^2 GMR^2 f_{orb}^2}{\pi e^4}$

 $\sim 10^{-44} \text{ m}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^2$

► *M* = 1000 kg, *R* = 1 m, *f* = 1 kHz, r = 300 m

h~10⁻³⁵

$$M = 1.4 M_{\odot}$$
, $R = 20 \text{ km}$, $f = 400 \text{ Hz}$,
 $r = 10^{23} \text{ m} (15 \text{ Mpc} = 48,9 \text{ Mlyr})$
 $h \approx 10^{-21}$

Astrophysical sources of GW

Binary system

- Need to be compact to be observed by ground based detectors
 → Neutron stars, black holes
- Signal well modeled but rates not well known

Spinning neutron stars

- Nearly monotonic signals
- Long duration
- Strength not well known

Asymmetric explosion

- Like supernovae core collapse
- "burst" transient
- Not well modeled

Cosmic gravitational wave background

- Residual of the big bang/inflation
- Stochastic background
- Could be overlapped by superposition of transients





Credit: AEI, CCT, LSU





Indirect evidence: PSR 1913+16



- Binary system of neutron stars
- One neutron star is a radio pulsar
- Discovered in 1975 by Hulse and Taylor
- Studied by Taylor, Weisberg and co.



 Frequency of GW emitted by PSR 1913+16: ~ 0.07 mHz Undetectable by ground-based detectors (bandwidth 10 Hz- 10 kHz)



Coalescing binaries

Binary systems of compact stars at the end of their evolution

Neutron stars and black holes



First detections!

By the LIGO scientific collaboration and the Virgo collaboration



Scientific goals (1/2)



Scientific goals (2/2)

Started!

- Study characteristics
 - of neutron stars
 - of solar mass black holes (BH)
 - Ellipticity, vibration modes, higher order moments, population...
- Study supermassive black holes
 Detectors in space
 - cartography of space-time around a supermassive BH (Kerr).
 - study of their distribution, galactic evolution
- Stochastic background of GW :
 - first moments of the universe ?

Detectors on earth

Detectors on earth?

Detectors in space?

Table of Contents

- What are gravitational waves?
- How can we detect gravitational waves?
 - > Interferometers
 - Terrestrial
 - Spatial
 - Pulsar timing arrays
 - Cosmological Microwave background
- How do terrestrial interferometers work?

GW quest: a bit of history

- Joseph Weber invents the bar detector
 - The GW changes the resonance condition of a resonant bar of a few tons
 - First claim for detection in 1969... but contested
 - Triggered large interest, at least 18 bars in 8 countries
- Evolve to cryogenic resonant bars (80-90)
- Bar not enough sensitivity:
 - h : few 10⁻²¹ 1/sqrt(Hz) @ 900Hz
- ITF started in the 70's (Germany, Rai Weiss)
 - Broad band instrument
- Few ITF prototypes in the 80's
 - MIT, Glasgow, Garching, Caltech,...
 - ~10m long
 - Not made for detection
- Jump to km scale in early 90
 - LIGO, Virgo, GEO, TAMA





Reminder: effect of a GW on free fall masses

A gravitational wave (GW) modifies the distance between free-fall masses

$$\delta x(t) = -\delta y(t) = \frac{1}{2} h(t) L_0$$

h(t): amplitude of the GW

10-21

-10-2

Typical amplitude of a GW crossing the Earth: $h \sim 10^{-23}$ (h has no dimension/unit)

Case of a GW with polarisation + propagating along z

 $\vec{e_x}$

 $\wedge \vec{e_y}$

Reconstructed strain of GW150914

h(t)

Terrestrial GW Interferometer: basic principle

 $\Delta L = -\frac{hL}{2}$

- Measure a variation of distance between masses
 - Measure the light travel time to propagate over this distance
 - Laser interferometry is an appropriate technique
 - Comparative measurement
 - Suspended mirrors = free fall test masses
- Michelson interferometer well suited:
 - Effect of a gravitational wave is in opposition between
 2 perpendicular axes
 - Light intensity of interfering beams is related to the difference of optical path length in the 2 arms

Bandwidth: 10 Hz to few kHz



We need a big interferometer:

ΔL proportional to L

➔ need several km arms!

 $\Delta L = + \frac{hL}{L}$

Virgo/LIGO: more complicated interferometers



WARNING: STILL VERY SIMPLIFIED SCHEME!

Orders of magnitude



Km scale interferometers

Virgo

- Arm length = 3 km
- Cascina (near Pisa), Italy

LIGO Livingston

- Arm length = 4 km
- **L**ouisiana

LIGO HanfordArm length = 4 km

Washington State

The detector network



Spatial interferometer: LISA

- Bandwidth: 0.1 mHz to 1 Hz
- Launch of LISA in the years 2030

ightarrow operation for 5 to 10 years

- Successful intermediate step: LISA Pathfinder
 > launched end 2015
 > tost of free fall masses
 - test of free-fall masses
 - validation of differential motion measurements







Pulsars timing arrays

• Bandwidth: 1 nHz to 10 nHz

- Observation of 20 ms pulsars in radio
 - Residuals of modellisation < 100 ns
 - Weekly sampling over 5 years
- International network
 - Parkes PTA
 - North American NanoHertz Gravitationnal Wave Obsevatory
 - European PTA
- First detections expected in the coming years!







A large GW spectrum to be studied...



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- What are gravitational waves?
- How can we detect gravitational waves?
- How do terrestrial interferometers work?
 - The Virgo optical configuration or how to measure 10⁻²⁰ m
 - > How to maintain the ITF at its working point?
 - How to measure the GW strain h(t) from this detector?
 - > Noises limiting the ITF sensitivity: how to tackle them?
 - Prospectives for terrestrial interferometers

How do we « observe » ∆L with a Michelson interferometer?

• Input wave
$$U_i(x,t) = \underline{\mathcal{A}}_i e^{jkx}$$

= $\underline{\mathcal{A}}_i$ on BS

- BS located at (0,0)
- Sensor located at (0,-y_s)
- Amplitude reflection and transmission coefficients: r and t
- → We are interested in the beam transmitted by the interferometer: it is the sum of the two beams (fields) that have propagated along each arm



- Radius of curvature of the beam ~ 1400 m
- Size of the beam ~ few cm



 \rightarrow The beam can be approximated by plane waves

How do we « observe » ΔL with a Michelson interferometer?

• Input wave
$$U_i(x,t) = \underline{\mathcal{A}}_i e^{jkx}$$

= $\underline{\mathcal{A}}_i$ on BS

Beam propagating along x-arm:

$$U_{tx} = \underline{\mathcal{A}}_i t_{BS} e^{jkl_x} \dots$$



Sign convention for amplitude reflection and transmission coefficients



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= $\overline{\mathcal{A}}_i$ on BS



Beam propagating along x-arm:

$$U_{tx} = \underline{\mathcal{A}}_i t_{BS} e^{jkl_x} \quad (-r_x) e^{jkl_x} \dots$$

Sign convention for amplitude reflection and transmission coefficients



How do we « observe » ΔL with a Michelson interferometer?

• Input wave $U_i(x,t) = \underline{\mathcal{A}}_i e^{jkx}$ = $\underline{\mathcal{A}}_i$ on BS

Beam propagating along x-arm:

$$U_{tx} = \underline{\mathcal{A}_i} t_{BS} e^{jkl_x} \quad (-r_x) e^{jkl_x} \quad r_{BS} e^{jky_s}$$



Sign convention for amplitude reflection and transmission coefficients



How do we « observe » ∆L with a Michelson interferometer?

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Beam propagating along x-arm:

$$U_{tx} = \underline{\mathcal{A}_i} t_{BS} e^{jkl_x} \quad (-r_x) e^{jkl_x} \quad r_{BS} e^{jky_s} \qquad \bigcup_{\substack{i \\ Se}} = \underline{\mathcal{A}_i} t_{BS} r_{BS} (-r_x) e^{2jkl_x} e^{jky_s} \qquad \bigcup_{\substack{i \\ Se}} = \frac{\underline{\mathcal{A}_i}}{2} \times \left(-r_x e^{2jkl_x} \right) e^{jky_s} \quad \text{with } t_{BS} = r_{BS} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$



Complex reflection of the x-arm

How do we « observe » ∆L with a Michelson interferometer?

Input wave

$$U_i(x,t) = \underline{\mathcal{A}}_i e^{jkx}$$
$$= \underline{\mathcal{A}}_i \quad \text{on BS}$$

Beam propagating along x-arm:

$$U_{tx} = \underline{\mathcal{A}_i} t_{BS} e^{jkl_x} \quad (-r_x) e^{jkl_x} \quad r_{BS} e^{jky_s}$$
$$= \underline{\mathcal{A}_i} t_{BS} r_{BS} (-r_x) e^{2jkl_x} e^{jky_s}$$
$$= \frac{\underline{\mathcal{A}_i}}{2} \times (-r_x e^{2jkl_x}) e^{jky_s}$$

Complex reflection of the x-arm

Beam propagating along y-arm:

$$U_{ty} = -\frac{\mathcal{A}_i}{2} \times \left(-r_y e^{2\mathbf{j}kl_y}\right) e^{\mathbf{j}ky_s}$$

Complex reflection of the y-arm - GraSPA 2018 - Annecy



Transmitted field:

$$U_t = U_{tx} + U_{ty}$$

 $= \frac{\mathcal{A}_i}{2} e^{jky_s} \left(r_y e^{2jkl_y} - r_x e^{2jkl_x} \right)$

Simple Michelson interferometer: transmitted power

 \mathbf{r}_y

Beam-splitter (BS)

 l_x

 \mathbf{r}_x

 l_y

Input beam

 U_i



$$U_t = \frac{\mathcal{A}_i}{2} \left(r_y \, e^{2 \mathrm{j} k l_y} \, - \, r_x \, e^{2 \mathrm{j} k l_x} \right)$$

k is the wave number, k = $2\pi/\lambda$ λ is the laser wavelength (λ =1064 nm)

Transmitted power



What power does Virgo measure?

- In general, the beam is not a plane wave but a spherical wave
 - \rightarrow interference pattern

(and the complementary pattern in reflection)

- Virgo interference pattern much larger than the beam size:
 - ~1 m between two consecutive fringes
 - \rightarrow we do not study the fringes in nice images !



Equivalent size of Virgo beam



Setting a working point



Controlled mirror positions

From the power to the gravitational wave

$$P_t = \frac{P_i}{2} \left(1 - C \cos(\phi) \right) \quad \text{where } \phi = 2 \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} (l_y - l_x)$$

• Around the working point:

• Power variations as function of small differential length variations: $\delta P_t = \frac{P_i}{2} C \sin(\phi_0) \delta \phi$ $\delta P_t = P_i C \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \sin\left(\frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \Delta L_0\right) \delta \Delta L$

 $\delta P_t \propto \delta \Delta L = h L_0$ around the working point !
From the power to the gravitational wave



Measurable physical quantity

Physical effect to be detected

Improving the interferometer sensitivity



Beam resonant inside the cavities



Average number of light round-trips in the cavity: $N = \frac{2\mathcal{F}}{2}$

How do we amplify the phase offset?



in the arm of a simple Michelson)

(instead of

How do we increase the power on BS?

Detector working point close to a dark fringe \rightarrow most of power go back towards the laser L_y r_{1y} r_{1x} L_x L_x BS Transmitted beam

Resonant power recycling cavity



Improved interferometer response

Response of simple Michelson:

$$\delta P_t = P_i C \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \sin\left(\frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \Delta L_0\right) \delta \Delta L$$

 $\delta P_t = (\underbrace{\text{Michelson response}}_{(W/m)} \times \delta \Delta L$

Response of recycled Michelson with Fabry-Perot cavities:



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Order of magnitude of the « sensitivity »



Shot noise due to output power of ~ 50 mW $\rightarrow \delta P_{t,min} \sim 0.1 \,\mathrm{nW}$ \longrightarrow $\delta \Delta L_{min} \sim 5 \times 10^{-20} \,\mathrm{m}$ $\rightarrow h_{min} = \frac{\delta \Delta L_{min}}{L} \sim 10^{-23}$ In reality, the detector response depends on frequency...

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Example of frequency dependency of the ITF response

- Light travel time in the cavities must be taken into account
- Fabry-Perot cavities behave as a low pass filter



• Finesse of Virgo Fabry Perot cavities: F = 450, L= 3 km \rightarrow $f_c = 55 \text{ Hz}$

Optical layout of Virgo



How do we control the working point?



How do we control the working point?

Small offset from a dark fringe: $\Delta L_0 = n \frac{\lambda}{2} + 10^{-11} \,\mathrm{m}$

- Controls to reduce the motion up to ~100 Hz
- Precision of the control $\delta \Delta L_{true}$ ~ 10⁻¹⁵ m



From the detector data to the GW strain h(t)

• High frequency (>100 Hz): mirrors behave as free falling masses

$$\stackrel{\rightarrow}{\longrightarrow} h(t) = \frac{\delta \Delta L_{true}(t)}{L_0}$$

• Lower frequency: the controls attenuate the noise... but also the GW signal! \rightarrow the control signals contain information on h(t)



How to extract all error signals? Interferometer optical ports



Noises limiting interferometer sensitivity: How to mitigate them ?

What is noise in Virgo?

 Stochastic (random) signal that contributes to the signal h_{rec}(t) but does not contain information on the gravitational wave strain h_{GW}(t)

 $h_{rec}(t) = h_{noise}(t) + h_{GW}(t)$



How do we characterize noise?



From hrec(t) to Virgo sensitivity curve







Compact Binary Coalescences Signal lasts for a few seconds \rightarrow can detect h ~ 10⁻²³ ^{R. Gouaty - GraSPA 24}

Rotating neutron stars

ds R. Gouaty - GraSPA 2018 - Annecy \rightarrow can detect h ~ 10⁻²⁶

Nominal sensitivity of Advanced Virgo

Fundamental noise only Possible technical noise not shown



Fundamental noise sources



Shot noise

Fluctuations of arrival times of photons (quantum noise)

Power received by the photodiode: P_t $\rightarrow N = \frac{P_t}{h\nu}$ photons/s on average.



Standard deviation on this number: $\sigma_N = \sqrt{N}$

$$\rightarrow \sigma_{P_t} = \sigma_N \times h\nu = \sqrt{\frac{P}{h\nu}h\nu} = \sqrt{P_th\nu}$$

Virgo laser: $\lambda = 1.064 \,\mu\text{m} \rightarrow \nu = \frac{\text{c}}{\lambda} \sim 2.8 \times 10^{14} \,\text{Hz}$ Working point: $P_t \sim 80 \,\text{mW} \rightarrow \sigma_{P_t} = 0.1 \,\text{nW}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$

 $\begin{array}{l} \rightarrow \quad \text{a variation of power is interpreted as a variation of distance } \delta \Delta L \\ \delta P_t = (\text{Virgo response}) \times L_0 \times h \qquad h_{equivalent} = \frac{1}{L_0} \frac{\sigma_{P_t}}{(\text{Virgo response})} \\ (\text{in W/m}) \end{array}$

$$\rightarrow \mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{equivalent}} \ \mathbf{\alpha} \ \mathbf{1}/\sqrt{\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{in}}}$$

Shot noise Vs radiation pressure noise

- Radiation pressure: transfer of photon's momentum to the reflective surface (recoil force)
- Radiation pressure noise: due to fluctuations of number of photons hitting the mirror surfaces > mirror motion noise
- Radiation pressure noise impact at low frequency:
 - > Mirror motion filtered by pendulum mechanical response





Minimizing impact of shot noise



- Avoid optical losses > high quality mirrors
- Optimize contrast defect (C~1) > Output Mode Cleaner Cavity

« Perfect » mirrors

- 40 kg, 35 cm diameter, 20 cm thickness in ultra pure silica
- Uniformity of mirrors is unique in the world:
 - a few nanometers peak-to-valley
 - flatness < 0.5 nm RMS (over 150mm diameter)







Seismic noise and suspended mirrors



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Seismic noise: Virgo super-attenuators





Thermal noise (pendulum and coating)

Microscopic thermal fluctuations

10

10-24

10¹

10

10³

Frequency [Hz]

 \rightarrow dissipation of energy through excitation of the macroscopic modes of the mirror



We want high quality factors Q to concentrate all the noise in a small frequency band

Thermal noise: improving Q

Very high quality mirror coating developed in a lab close to Lyon (Laboratoire des Matériaux Avancés)

Monolithic suspension developed in labs in Perugia and Rome





Fused-silica fibers (diameter of 400 μm and length of 0.7 m)

Thermal noise: coupling reduction

Reduce the coupling between the laser beam and the thermal fluctuations

- \rightarrow use large beams: fluctuations averaged over larger area
- \rightarrow Thermal Noise ~1/D, with D = beam diameter

Impact of large beams:

- Require large beam splitter (diameter = 55 cm)
- High magnification telescopes to adapt beam size to photodetectors (from w=50 mm on mirrors to w=0.3 mm on sensors) > require optical benches





waist

center

Under vacuum

Goals

- Isolation against acoustic noise
- Avoid measurement noise due to fluctuations of air refractive index
- Keep mirrors clean

Advanced Virgo vacuum in a few numbers:

- Volume of vacuum system: 7000 m³
- Different levels of vacuum:
 - > 3 km arms designed for up to 10⁻⁹ mbar (Ultra High Vacuum)
 - ~10⁻⁶ 10⁻⁷ mbar in mirror vacuum chambers (« towers »)
- Separation between arms and towers with cryotrap links







Example of technical noise: Diffused light

Optical element (mirror, lens, ...) vibrating due to seismic or acoustic noises

Incident laser beam



some photons of the diffused light gets recombined with the interferometer beam

phase noise

extra power fluctuations (imprint of the optical element vibrations) R. Gouaty - GraSPA 2018 - Annecy



Evolution for AdVirgo: suspend the optical benches and place them under vacuum



Noises are not always stationary



"Glitches" are impulses of noise. They might look like a transient GW signal



environmental disturbances monitored with an array of sensors: seismic activities, magnetic perturbations, acoustic noises, temperature, humidity
used to veto false alarm triggers due to instrumental artifacts

requires coincidence between 2 detectors to reduce false alarm rate

Prospectives of terrestrial interferometers

The benefits of the network

- □ A GW interferometer has a wide beam antenna
 - A single detector cannot localize the source
 - Need to compare the signals found in coincidence between several detectors (triangulation):

\rightarrow allow to point towards the source position in the sky





- Looking for rare and transient signals: can be hidden in detector noise
 - \rightarrow requires observation in coincidence between at least 2 detectors
- Since 2007, Virgo and LIGO share their data and analyze them jointly

Horizon of Advanced detectors



Advanced Virgo starting observations



A wider network of more sensitive detectors


Future observing runs



+ Plans starting for 2.5G and 3G detectors

Einstein Telescope

- Third generation interferometer
- Located underground, ~10 km arms
- Technical design to be written in ~2024 -2025, detector operational after 2030?



ET and LISA performances



SPARES

Angular response of the interferometer



- Interferometers have a broad angular response: behave more like an antenna than a traditional telescope
- A few blind spots

How to extract all error signals? Phase modulation

- Use of DC signal (power measured by photodiodes) not sufficient to control all degrees of freedom
- Technique to get more error signals: phase modulation of the laser light:
 - Use of a EOM (electro-optical modulator):
 - usually a Pockels cell: a crystal with a tunable optical length via a driven voltage
 - The EOM is driven with a sinusoidal signal which is converted in a variation of phase of the transmitted laser beam $\omega = kc$ (laser pulsation)

$$E_{\text{inc}} = E_0 e^{-i(\omega t + \beta \sin \Omega t)}$$

$$E_{\text{inc}} \simeq E_0 \left[e^{-i\omega t} + \frac{\beta}{2} e^{-i(\omega + \Omega)} - \frac{\beta}{2} e^{-i(\omega - \Omega)} \right]$$
Side band fields propagating in the interferometer

Laser

carrier field sideband fields

pick-off

How to extract all error signals? Phase modulation

- Use of DC signal (power measured by photodiodes) not sufficient to control all degrees of freedom
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 - Use of a EOM (electro-optical modulator):

usually a Pockels cell: a crystal with a tunable optical length via a driven voltage

- The EOM is driven with a sinusoidal signal which is converted in a variation of phase of the transmitted laser beam
- Photodiodes signals demodulated at the modulation frequency (Pound-Drever-Hall technique)

> give a linear error signal near resonance to control cavities lengths



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Virgo data acquisition summary



Continuous flow of ~3 TBytes/day (40 to 60 MBytes/s) Disk space on Virgo site: ~400 TB for 4 months of data

Longer storage: data sent via Ethernet to computing centers (Lyon, Bologna)

Noise characterized in frequency domain



in units/√Hz

(k)

 \rightarrow Noise characterised by the fluctuations of its Fourier spectrum

Assumption: noise is random and ergodic

 \rightarrow noise characterised by its amplitude spectral density (ASD) $ASD = \sqrt{PSD} = \sqrt{\frac{|DFT|}{T}}$



Output Mode Cleaner

- 2 bow-tie Fabry Perot cavities:
 - Get rid of high order modes and controls signals.



00	00	ю
٥	00	010
(3, 10)	(0, 1)	(0, 2)
00	00	п
00	00	010
(3, 4)	(1, 1)	[1, 2]
œ	00	11
010	000	000
(2.10	(2, 1)	12.31

