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Abbott, B.P.; LIGO Scientific Collaboration and Virgo Collaboration; ASAS-SN Collaboration; DLT40 Collaboration; Salemi, F.

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Optically targeted search for gravitational waves emitted by core-collapse supernovae during the first and second observing runs of advanced LIGO and advanced Virgo

B. P. Abbott et al.*

(LIGO Scientific Collaboration and Virgo Collaboration, ASAS-SN Collaboration, DLT40 Collaboration, and F. Salemi)

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We present the results from a search for gravitational-wave transients associated with core-collapse supernovae observed within a source distance of approximately 20 Mpc during the first and second observing runs of Advanced LIGO and Advanced Virgo. No significant gravitational-wave candidate was detected. We report the detection efficiencies as a function of the distance for waveforms derived from multidimensional numerical simulations and phenomenological extreme emission models. The sources with neutrino-driven explosions are detectable at the distances approaching 5 kpc, and for magnetorotationally driven explosions the distances are up to 54 kpc. However, waveforms for extreme emission models are detectable up to 28 Mpc. For the first time, the gravitational-wave data enabled us to exclude part of the parameter spaces of two extreme emission models with confidence up to 83%, limited by coincident data coverage. Besides, using ad hoc harmonic signals windowed with Gaussian envelopes, we constrained the gravitational-wave energy emitted during core collapse at the levels of $4.27 \times 10^{-4} M_\odot c^2$ and $1.28 \times 10^{-1} M_\odot c^2$ for emissions at 235 and 1304 Hz, respectively. These constraints are 2 orders of magnitude more stringent than previously derived in the corresponding analysis using initial LIGO, initial Virgo, and GEO 600 data.

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I. INTRODUCTION

The direct detection in September 2015 of a binary black hole merger [1] initiated the field of gravitational-wave astronomy. During the first and second observing runs (O1 and O2) of Advanced LIGO and Advanced Virgo, several more mergers were reported [2–7], and in August 2017, a binary neutron star merger [8] was observed in the gravitational-wave (GW) and electromagnetic spectra. This event gave birth to multimessenger astronomy with GWs [9–13].

Core-collapse supernovae (CCSNe) are another important target of multimessenger astronomy with GWs, as all recorded supernovae were observed in the electromagnetic spectrum and low energy neutrinos were observed from SN 1987A [14–16]. GWs and neutrinos provide unique information about the dynamics of the collapse and the onset of the explosion, as opposed to electromagnetic emission which is delayed and originates in regions thousands of kilometers away from the central engine. Their observation could provide hints to the shock revival mechanism [17–23]. The most promising opportunity for multimessenger GW astronomy with CCSNe would be a Galactic CCSN, although the rate of such events is expected to be just one or two per century [24–30].

In contrast to all-sky, all-time unmodeled GW transient searches [31–34], targeted searches for CCSNe impose the sky location, the source distance, and a time window for the arrival time of the GW signal. In the previous CCSN targeted search with first-generation GW detector data [35], we developed the methodology, derived distance ranges for various GW emission processes, provided null model exclusion statements, and established GW energy constraints.

This paper describes a targeted search focusing on CCSNe recorded by astronomical observations at distances up to approximately 20 Mpc during O1 and O2. We selected five CCSNe, four of which are type-II supernovae (SN 2015as, SN 2016B, SN 2016X, and SN 2017eaw) and the other of which is type Ib/c (SN 2017gax). We have not found any evidence for a GW signal associated with them. Similarly to Ref. [35], we obtain distance ranges for a selection of waveforms which were computed from numerical simulations and that are representative of different emission mechanisms and progenitors. We also use phenomenological waveforms representing possible but extreme emission models, and we derive standard candle model exclusion statements for them. Finally, we adopt ad hoc sine-Gaussian waveforms to simulate GW emission in specific time-frequency regions, allowing us to derive upper limits on the emitted GWs from a specific CCSN.

This paper is organized as follows. In Sec. II, we list the CCSNe that we study in this search. We also describe
methods for calculating the time period when we expect the moment of collapse. In Sec. III, we describe the data used in the search. Section IV describes the methodology, the pipeline, simulated GW signals, and systematic uncertainties. The results in Sec. V include distance reaches for several models of emission, GW energy constraints, and model exclusion statements. We draw conclusions in Sec. VI.

II. TARGETED CORE-COLLAPSE SUPERNOVAE

From all core-collapse supernovae recorded during the O1 and O2 periods, we have selected those that contribute to model exclusion statements and meet the following criteria: (i) the distance is less than approximately 20 Mpc; (ii) the period where we expect to find the GW transient, the on-source window, (see Sec. II A) is sufficiently well identified (order of days maximum); and (iii) there is sufficient GW detector data within the supernova on-source window to allow us to accumulate at least a few years of background data (see Sec. IV B).

During O1 and O2, astronomers found and followed up numerous CCSNe in the nearby universe. Based on the information from Astronomical Telegrams [36] and supernova catalogs (ASAS-SN [37-40], DLT40 [41], Gaia [42,43], ASRAS [44], TNS [45], OSC [46], and CBAT [47]), we found nine supernovae of interest. Only five CCSNe meet the selection criteria and are used for the astrophysical statements in this paper. They are SN 2015as, SN 2016B, SN 2016X, SN 2017eaw, and SN 2017gax. They are reported in Table I, and Fig. 1 presents their sky locations. The majority of these are type-II supernovae originating from red supergiant progenitor stars, and the host galaxy was identified for each. The distance to each CCSNe is determined using the estimated distance to its host galaxy. The on-source window calculation methods are described Sec. II A.

SN 2015as, a type-Ib supernova, was discovered on November 2015 at 15.78 Coordinated Universal Time (UTC) [48] during O1. The host galaxy is UGC 5460 at a distance of 19.2 Mpc [49]. Although the spectrum transitions to a type-Ib supernova around 75 days after explosion, the spectrum evolution closely relates to that of SN 2008ax, suggesting type IIb [49]. The progenitor star is estimated to be either a 15 $M_\odot$ zero age main sequence (ZAMS) mass star or 20 $M_\odot$ Wolf-Rayet star [50]. CCSN ejecta are estimated to be 1.1–2.2 $M_\odot$.

SN 2016B (ASASSN-16ab), a type-IIP supernova, was discovered by ASAS-SN on January 2016 at 03.62 UTC [51] during O1. The host galaxy is PGC 037392 at a distance of 18.6 Mpc [51]. The progenitor star is estimated to be a red supergiant [52].

SN 2016X (ASASSN-16at), a type-IIP supernova, was discovered by ASAS-SN on January 2016 at 20.59 UTC [53]. It exploded in the spiral galaxy UGC 08041 at a distance of 15.2 Mpc [54]. UV observations in Ref. [54] indicate that the progenitor star is a massive red supergiant with an initial mass larger than 19–20 $M_\odot$ and a radius larger than 930 ± 70$R_\odot$.

SN 2017eaw (Gaia17bmy), a type-IIP supernova, was discovered by Gaia on May 2017 at 14.24 UTC [55]. The CCSN exploded in galaxy NGC 6946, the estimated distance of 6.72 ± 0.15 Mpc away [56]. This is the closest CCSN considered in the search. The analyses in Refs. [57–59] provide indication that the progenitor was a red supergiant with an estimated initial mass of 13 $M_\odot$ and radius of 4000$R_\odot$.

TABLE I. Core-collapse supernovae selected as targets for the gravitational-wave search described in this paper. The variables $t_1$ and $t_2$ are the start and end of the OSWs, $\Delta t$ is the duration of the OSWs, and OSW method indicates how the OSW is calculated (see Sec. II A). The Run column indicates the LIGO and Virgo observing runs. The Active Detectors column lists the interferometers taking data during the on-source window. We include data from the LIGO Hanford (H1), LIGO Livingston (L1), and Virgo (V1) detectors. The last column presents coincident duty factors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supernova</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Host galaxy</th>
<th>Distance (Mpc)</th>
<th>$t_1$ (UTC)</th>
<th>$t_2$ (UTC)</th>
<th>$\Delta t$ (days)</th>
<th>OSW method</th>
<th>Run</th>
<th>Active detectors</th>
<th>Coincident coverage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SN 2015as</td>
<td>IIb</td>
<td>UGC 5460</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>Nov. 2015 14.77</td>
<td>Nov. 2015 16.23</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>Early O1</td>
<td>H1L1</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2016B</td>
<td>IIP</td>
<td>PGC 037392</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>Dec. 2015 23.51</td>
<td>Dec. 2015 27.55</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>Early O1</td>
<td>H1L1</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2016X</td>
<td>IIP</td>
<td>UGC 08041</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>Jan. 2016 17.72</td>
<td>Jan. 2016 20.56</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>Early O1</td>
<td>H1L1</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2017eaw</td>
<td>IIP</td>
<td>NGC 6946</td>
<td>6.72</td>
<td>Apr. 2017 26.56</td>
<td>Apr. 2017 27.96</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>EPM O2</td>
<td>H1L1</td>
<td>48.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2017gax</td>
<td>IIb/c</td>
<td>NGC 1672</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>Aug. 2017 14.28</td>
<td>Aug. 2017 16.15</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>Early O2</td>
<td>H1L1, V1</td>
<td>61.5 (H1L1) 60.8 (H1L1V1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FIG. 1. Sky locations of core-collapse CCSNe analyzed in this search. All were recorded within 20 Mpc during the O1 and O2 observing runs.
SN 2017gax (DLT17ch), a type-Ib/c supernova, was discovered by the DLT40 on August 2017 at 14.71 UTC [41]. This CCSN was found in NGC 1672, 19.7 Mpc away [60]. Unfortunately, little is known about the progenitor star.

Any CCSN, where the detection efficiencies for the extreme emission models are nonzero and with sufficient on-source window coverage, helps the model exclusion probabilities (see Sec. V C). In this regard, we also considered CCSNe at distances greater than 20 Mpc. Four other such CCSNe have been recorded during the O1 and O2 periods: not enough GW data was available for SN 2016C (type IIP, 20.1 Mpc [61,62]) and SN 2017ein (type Ic, 11.2 Mpc [63,64]), and no on-source window could be sufficiently constrained for SN 2017aym (Gaia17aks) (type IIP, 26.4 Mpc [65,66]) and SN 2017bzb (type II, 13.9 Mpc [67,68]). All the other CCSN candidates occurred outside the O1 and O2 periods or were located further than 20 Mpc.

A. On-source window calculation

The collapse of a star’s iron core forms a protoneutron star and initiates a hydrodynamical shock wave propagating outward. Depending on the size of the progenitor star, the ensuing shock propagates for a period of seconds to days [69]. When it reaches the surface, i.e., shock breakout, a CCSN emits observable light. Because of weather conditions, limited sky coverage, and many other limitations, astronomical surveys typically record CCSNe hours to months after light first reaches Earth. The ability to extrapolate backward in time from the moment when explosion was caught in the optical bands in order to estimate $t_1$ and $t_2$. Since the interval between $t_{\text{disc}} - t_{\text{null}}$ for SN 2017eaw was greater than a week and because SN 2017eaw follow-up observations allow it [57,58], we used the EPM to calculate the OSW.

III. DETECTOR NETWORKS AND COVERAGE

Data from O1 and O2 were used for this search. This includes data from the Advanced LIGO detectors in Hanford (H1) and Livingston (L1) and the Advanced Virgo (V1) detector. O1 started on September 12, 2015, and ended on January 19, 2016, while O2 spanned the period between November 30, 2016, and August 25, 2017 [2]. The L1 and H1 detectors were observing jointly during O1 and O2, and Virgo joined the LIGO detectors on August 1, 2017 [2].

The data are affected by instrumental and environmental sources of noise that prevent some of the data from being analyzed [88]. Periods of poor data quality are excluded using the information from many probes monitoring the environment of the detectors and probes controlling the different optical elements [89,90]. For all CCSNe, we applied the same criteria for excluding times of poor data quality that were used in the all-sky short-duration unmodeled transient GW searches [33,34].

Table II specifies the data taking periods along with the availability of each detector, which is referred to as the duty factor. The duty factor for each detector in O2 was higher than in O1 and was growing toward the end of the period. Figure 2 shows the OSWs for each CCSN together with the on-source window calculation. In all other cases, we consider the EPM.

In the early observation method, $t_2$ is the time when the CCSN is discovered, i.e., $t_2 = t_{\text{disc}}$. To determine $t_1$, we need to take into account $t_{\text{null}}$, and the shock propagation travel time between the moment of explosion and shock breakout, $\Delta t_{\text{SB}}$. We get that $t_1 = t_{\text{null}} - \Delta t_{\text{SB}}$. $\Delta t_{\text{SB}}$ depends mainly on the type of the progenitor star. Wolf-Rayet stars are stripped of helium and hydrogen, and they lead to type-Ib/c supernovae. Their radii are on the order of a few $R_\odot$ with typical shock breakout times ranging from a few seconds up to a minute [74]. Red supergiant stars have half radii of 500–1000 $R_\odot$ [75] and typical $\Delta t_{\text{SB}}$ ranges from 10 h up to a few days [76]. We calculated the OSW with the early observation method for four CCSNe: SN 2015as, SN 2016B, SN 2016X, and SN 2017gax. For each of them, we identified $t_{\text{null}}$ and $t_{\text{disc}}$ based on the astronomical surveys. We calculated $\Delta t_{\text{SB}}$ from information about their progenitor stars. To account for uncertainties in the progenitor star information, we enlarge the OSW by a number of hours (from 15 h up to 24 h [77,78]).
Figure 3 shows the noise spectral density for all available detectors at the times of SN 2016B and SN 2017gax. For comparison, we plot the sensitivities of the two detectors for SN 2007gr [35] observed during LIGO Science Run 5 (S5). When comparing the data for SN 2007gr to the O1-O2 sensitivity, the detectors are three to five times more sensitive in the most sensitive detector band between 100 and 300 Hz [33] and around ten times more sensitive around 1 kHz. Moreover, the low-frequency part of the spectrum (below 100 Hz) improved during O2, especially in the L1 detector.

SN 2017gax happened in August 2017 when the LIGO and Virgo detectors were acquiring data. We have considered not only the H1L1 coincident time but also the H1L1V1 coincident time. Because of the sensitivity difference between Virgo and the two LIGO detectors, we found that the H1L1V1 network is less sensitive. We thus report results using the H1L1 network.

### IV. METHODOLOGY

In this paper, we search for GW signals in a large frequency band, 16–2048 Hz, without specific assumptions about the signal morphology. This frequency band allows us to cover most of the main emission processes inside a CCSN. We employ coherent WaveBurst (cWB) [91] as the search algorithm, which we describe in the following section.

#### A. Coherent WaveBurst

Coherent WaveBurst is an excess power pipeline that is based on the constrained maximum likelihood ratio method [91]. For each event, the pipeline calculates correlation coefficients \( cc = E_c / (E_c + E_n) \) which measures the degree of similarity of the waveforms between the detectors. \( E_c \) is the normalized coherent energy obtained by cross-correlating the reconstructed waveforms in each detector, and \( E_n \) is the normalized noise energy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Run</th>
<th>Detectors</th>
<th>Run period</th>
<th>Duty factors</th>
<th>Coincident duty factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>O1</td>
<td>H1,L1</td>
<td>2015.09.12–2016.01.19</td>
<td>49.5% (H1), 42.4% (L1)</td>
<td>31.4% (H1L1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O2</td>
<td>H1,L1</td>
<td>2016.11.30–2017.08.25</td>
<td>65.4% (H1), 63.6% (L1)</td>
<td>49.0% (H1L1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O2</td>
<td>H1,L1,V1</td>
<td>2017.08.01–2017.08.25</td>
<td>77.7% (H1), 79.2% (L1), 85.1% (V1)</td>
<td>62.0% (H1L1V1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the normalized per detector residual noise energy after the reconstructed waveform is subtracted from the data. For a real GW, \( cc \approx 1 \), and we accept events that have \( cc > 0.8 \). Each event is ranked according to a coherent network signal-to-noise ratio, \( \rho \propto \sqrt{E_c} \). A more detailed explanation of these statistics is given in Refs. [89,91].

The events are divided into two mutually exclusive classes based on their morphologies, similarly to Ref. [33]. Class C1 contains transients of a few cycles. This class is primarily polluted by blip glitches which are very short duration transients, \( O(10) \text{ ms} \), with large bandwidth, \( O(100) \text{ Hz} \) [88,92]. These noise transients are currently of unknown origin. To separate blip glitches from the bulk of the trigger population in class C2, we use the selection criteria described in Ref. [89].

B. Background estimation

As mentioned earlier, each GW detector is constantly monitored with various sensors that allow us to exclude poor data quality periods from the analysis. However, it is not possible to remove all sources of noise. To estimate how often the pipeline produces events that are falsely identified as GWs, we perform a background analysis where cWB artificially shifts the data in one detector with respect to the other. The typical time shift is a multiple of 1 s, which is much longer than the GW travel time between different detectors (e.g., 10 ms between H1 and L1). This allows us to estimate the false alarm rate (FAR) of the background events. We use a few years of background data for each CCSN.

GW events obtained when no shift is applied to the data may contain genuine GW signals. The events from the search classes are combined and ranked with their FAR. We assume that the event with the smallest FAR between the two search classes is a potential GW candidate, and we refer to it as the loudest event. The FAR is calculated from the noise transient distribution of the class to which the loudest event belongs. Since the classes are independent, we apply a trial factor 2 to the FAR (see also Refs. [1,33]) of the loudest event. The significance of an event with a given FAR is assessed by calculating its false alarm probability (FAP), which is the probability of obtaining one or more noise events that are less than or equally ranked,

\[
\text{FAP} = 1 - \exp\left(-T_{\text{coinc}} \times \text{FAR}\right),
\]

where \( T_{\text{coinc}} \) is the coincident data duration of the appropriate OSW.

C. Search sensitivity

We determine how sensitive the pipeline is to particular waveform families. cWB adds (injects) supernova waveforms to the detector data inside the OSW with the right time delay in each detector such that the GW signal comes from the accurately known CCSN sky location. The fraction of the injected signals that can be detected and pass the selection criteria is the detection efficiency. The injection procedure is repeated with waveform amplitudes corresponding to different source distances. We select any event that passes the selection criteria of the search and whose rank is smaller than the loudest event FAR.

We consider two sets of multidimensional supernova explosion models, extreme emission models, and ad hoc waveforms as listed in Tables III and IV. For all of the waveforms, we provide the peak frequency, number of polarizations, and other quantities. For the waveforms from multidimensional CCSN simulations and extreme emission models, we provide the GW energy, \( E_{\text{GW}} \), emitted during the explosion and the source angle-averaged root-sum-squared GW strain,

\[
h_{\text{rss}} = \sqrt{\int \left(h_{+}^{2}(t) + h_{\times}^{2}(t)\right)_{\Omega} \text{d}t}.
\]

Our efficiency estimates are subject to a number of uncertainties. The most important of these are calibration uncertainties in the strain data recorded at each detector and Poisson uncertainties due to the use of a finite number of injections (Monte Carlo uncertainties). We use the same methodology explained in Ref. [35], to account for each of these uncertainties. For detection efficiencies, the dominant effect comes from the uncertainties in the strain amplitude calibration, as in Ref. [35]. These vary from a few percent at lower frequencies to 10% at higher frequencies in both L1 and H1. For this paper, these uncertainties are conservatively set to 10% for H1 and L1 at the times of the five CCSNe studied [102,103]. The error analysis leads to decreasing the detection efficiencies by 9.1%.
waveform amplitude is reduced by a factor of 10−22, as shown in simulations, marginalizing over all unknown angles, the waveform analysis was started. While more accurate waveforms from two-dimensional (2D) convection and SASI and 3D convection and SASI are available, the distance ranges for these models will be √18/5 times larger.

### I. Waveforms from multidimensional CCSN simulations

The main mechanism behind a CCSN explosion is not yet fully understood, and a complete review of the current state can be found in Refs. [21,104–106] and in references therein. We divide the waveforms from multidimensional CCSN simulations into two sets according to their explosion mechanisms. In the first set, we consider a neutrino-driven explosion mechanism for nonrotating or slowly rotating progenitor stars. We employ three waveform families: Müller et al. [95], Ott et al. [96], and Yakunin et al. [97]. In this paper, we use the most accurate waveforms that were available in the literature when the analysis was started. While more accurate waveforms from

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Waveform family</th>
<th>Waveform identifier</th>
<th>$h_{\text{rss}}$ (10−22 @ 10 kpc)</th>
<th>$f_{\text{peak}}$ (Hz)</th>
<th>$E_{\text{GW}}$ (10−9 $M_{\odot} c^2$)</th>
<th>Polarizations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Müller et al. [95] 3D convection and SASI</td>
<td>mu1-L15-3</td>
<td>1.655</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>3.741 × 10−2</td>
<td>+, ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mu2-N20-2</td>
<td>3.852</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>4.370 × 10−2</td>
<td>+, ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mu3-W15-4</td>
<td>1.093</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>3.247 × 10−2</td>
<td>+, ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ott et al. [96] 3D convection and SASI</td>
<td>ott1-s27</td>
<td>heat</td>
<td>1p05</td>
<td>0.238</td>
<td>1019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>yk1-B12-WH07</td>
<td>3.092</td>
<td>760</td>
<td>3.411</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>yk2-B15-WH07</td>
<td>14.16</td>
<td>932</td>
<td>7.966</td>
<td>+</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>yk3-B20-WH07</td>
<td>3.244</td>
<td>638</td>
<td>4.185</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>yk4-B25-WH07</td>
<td>18.05</td>
<td>1030</td>
<td>14.21</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scheidegger et al. [98] rotating core collapse</td>
<td>sch1-R1E1CA_L</td>
<td>0.129</td>
<td>1155</td>
<td>1.509 × 10−1</td>
<td>+, ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sch2-R3E1AC_L</td>
<td>5.144</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>2.249 × 102</td>
<td>+, ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sch3-R4E1FC_L</td>
<td>7.596</td>
<td>698</td>
<td>4.023 × 102</td>
<td>+, ×</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dimmelmeier et al. [99] rotating core collapse</td>
<td>dim1-s15A2O05ls</td>
<td>1.052</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dim2-s15A2O09ls</td>
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<td>754</td>
<td>27.880</td>
<td>+</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dim3-s15A3O15ls</td>
<td>2.690</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>1.380</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE III. Waveforms from detailed multidimensional CCSN simulations described in the text. For each waveform, we give the emission type, reference, waveform identifier, angle-averaged root-sum-squared strain $h_{\text{rss}}$, the frequency $f_{\text{peak}}$ at which the GW energy spectrum peaks, the emitted GW energy $E_{\text{GW}}$, and available polarizations. See Refs. [93,94] for details.

For the waveforms coming from two-dimensional (2D) simulations, marginalizing over all unknown angles, the waveform amplitude is reduced by a factor of $\sqrt{5/18}$ that we apply to the efficiencies. For optimally oriented CCSNe, the distance ranges for these models will be $\sqrt{18/5}$ times larger.

### II. Waveforms from phenomenological and ad hoc emission models described in the text

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### I. Waveforms from multidimensional CCSN simulations

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emission type</th>
<th>Waveform identifier</th>
<th>$h_{\text{rss}}$ (10−22 @ 10 kpc)</th>
<th>$f_{\text{peak}}$ (Hz)</th>
<th>$E_{\text{GW}}$ ($M_{\odot} c^2$)</th>
<th>Polarizations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Long-lasting bar mode [100]</td>
<td>lb1-M0.2L60R10F0400100</td>
<td>1.480</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>2.984 × 104</td>
<td>+, ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lb2-M0.2L60R10F0400100</td>
<td>4.682</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>2.979 × 103</td>
<td>+, ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lb3-M0.2L60R10F0800100</td>
<td>5.920</td>
<td>1600</td>
<td>1.902 × 102</td>
<td>+, ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lb4-M1.0L60R10F0400100</td>
<td>7.398</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>7.459 × 103</td>
<td>+, ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lb5-M1.0L60R10F0400100</td>
<td>23.411</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>7.448 × 102</td>
<td>+, ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lb6-M1.0L60R10F080025</td>
<td>14.777</td>
<td>1601</td>
<td>1.184 × 101</td>
<td>+, ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Torus fragmentation instability [101]</td>
<td>piro1-M5.0y0.3</td>
<td>2.550</td>
<td>2035</td>
<td>6.773 × 104</td>
<td>+, ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>piro2-M5.0y0.6</td>
<td>9.936</td>
<td>1987</td>
<td>1.027 × 102</td>
<td>+, ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>piro3-M10.0y0.3</td>
<td>7.208</td>
<td>2033</td>
<td>4.988 × 103</td>
<td>+, ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>piro4-M10.0y0.6</td>
<td>28.084</td>
<td>2041</td>
<td>7.450 × 102</td>
<td>+, ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sine Gaussian [31]</td>
<td>sg1–235 HzQ8d9linear</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sg2–1304 HzQ8d9linear</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1304</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sg3–235 HzQ8d9elliptical</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>+, ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sg4–1304 HzQ8d9elliptical</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1304</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>+, ×</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
multidimensional simulations are now available (see, e.g., Refs. [107–111]), some of these waveforms were not available during O1 and O2. In this scenario, neutrino heating plays a crucial role in creating the explosion. During the prompt convection, in the initial stages post-bounce, GWs are emitted in the frequency range from 100–300 Hz, while at later times, GWs up to around 2 kHz can be expected [112,113]. A typical duration for a GW transient is 0.5–1 s [21,114,115]. The second set of waveforms including Scheidegger et al. [98] and Dimmelmeier et al. [99] simulations consider rapid and differential rotation progenitor stars. In the following, we label this set magnetohydrodynamically (MHD) driven, although the links between rapid rotation and MHD-driven explosion are not fully understood. The magnetic effects related to the rapid rotation may play a dominant role in creating the MHD-driven explosions. Note, however, almost all (99%) [21,116] explosions are believed to come from slowly rotating progenitor stars.

Müller et al. [95] performed three-dimensional (3D) simulations with a ZAMS progenitor star of mass 15 $M_\odot$ (L15-3 and W15-4) and 20 $M_\odot$ (N20-2), which we refer to as mu1, mu2, and mu3, respectively. The simulations are three dimensional and thus result in two polarizations. The convective movement of infalling matter and its interaction with the outer layers of the protoneutron star result in GW emission in the frequency range 100–500 Hz.

Ott et al. [96] produced a 3D simulation with a 27 $M_\odot$ ZAMS progenitor star (ott1). The explosion becomes aspherical due to strong convection, while the SASI visibility is weak. This model is rotating, and a strong burst of GWs appears at the beginning of the explosion.

Yakunin et al. [97] deliver waveforms from four 2D simulations (providing only one polarization state) corresponding to 12 $M_\odot$, 15 $M_\odot$, 20 $M_\odot$, and 25 $M_\odot$ ZAMS progenitor stars. We denote them as yak1, yak2, yak3, and yak4, respectively. These waveforms capture several stages of the explosion. They show both low (SASI/convection) and high (g-mode) frequency components in their signals. Due to axisymmetry, the strain grows artificially over time, resulting in higher GW amplitudes than the 3D neutrino-driven models.

Scheidegger et al. [98] consider effects on the GW signature due to the equation of state, the initial rotation rate, and the magnetic fields. From an extensive set of waveforms, we extract three models, R1E1CA$_{L}$, R3E1AC$_{L}$, and R4E1FC$_{L}$, which we refer to as sch1, sch2, and sch3, respectively. All of these models are derived from the explosion of a 15 $M_\odot$ ZAMS progenitor star. The models are three dimensional and produce two GW polarization states. The degree of rotation varies between the models; model R1E1CA$_{L}$ has no rotation, which results in much lower GW energy in comparison to the rotating R3E1AC$_{L}$ and R4E1FC$_{L}$ models.

Dimmelmeier et al. [99] performed 2D simulations (providing linearly polarized waveforms) with a 15 $M_\odot$ ZAMS progenitor star. The waveforms contain very strong GW emission at the initial core collapse and bounce that lasts less than 20 ms. We employ three waveforms with various degrees of rotation from moderate to rapid (dim1-dim3).

2. Extreme emission models

Along with the more realistic simulated CCSN explosions, we also consider two extreme scenarios: the long-lasting bar mode [100] and the torus fragmentation instability [101]. The same models were used in Ref. [35], because even if they are unlikely to occur, they are not excluded [117].

In the first scenario, a very rapidly rotating progenitor star induces a bar mode instability in the protoneutron star [98,118–123]. This leads to large amplitude GWs that depend on the properties of the deformed protoneutron star. We use the simple phenomenological bar model described in Ref. [100]. In this model, we use the following parametrization: the mass involved in the long-lasting bar mode of the protoneutron star $M = \{0.2, 1.0\} M_\odot$, the radius $R = 10 \text{ km}$ and length $L = 60 \text{ km}$ of the bar, the spin frequency $f = \{400, 800\} \text{ Hz}$ along the direction perpendicular to the bar, and the duration $t = \{25, 100, 1000\} \text{ ms}$ of the deformation.

We consider six waveforms, denoted as lb1–lb6; see Table IV for more details. Since the waveform amplitude is proportional to $M(L^2 - 3R^2)$ (see Ref. [100]), any combination of $M, L,$ and $R$ giving the same value for $M(L^2 - 3R^2)$ as the six waveforms will produce waveforms identical to the lb1–lb6 waveforms. Therefore, results for lb1–lb6 waveforms are a good representation of the broader sections of parameter space.

In the second scenario, Piro and Pfahl [101] propose that, if a black hole and an accretion disk are formed during the collapse, the disk could fragment and large self-gravitating clumps of matter falling into the black hole would produce large amplitude GWs under the appropriate conditions. To model this signal, we employ a simplified model [124] that depends on the mass of the central black hole $M_{\text{BH}} = \{5, 10\} M_\odot$ and the properties of the disk, namely the thickness of the torus $\eta = \{0.3, 0.6\}$ and the alpha viscosity parameter $\alpha = 0.1$. The torus thickness is defined as $\eta = H/r$, where $H$ is the disk scale height and $r$ is the local radius. For the disk model considered in Ref. [101], the mass of the fragmented clump is $M_f = 0.53 \eta^3 M_{\text{BH}}$. The GW amplitude is proportional to the reduced mass of the BH-clump system, $\mu = M_{\text{BH}} M_f / (M_{\text{BH}} + M_f)$, which for the parameter space considered here ($M_f \ll M_{\text{BH}}$) is $\mu \approx M_f$.

3. Ad hoc waveforms

We employ ad hoc waveforms to estimate the search sensitivity to short duration monochromatic signals that model GW emission in different frequency bands. We use
sine-Gaussian signals with a fixed central frequency $f_0 = \{235, 1304\}$ Hz and duration $\tau = Q/(\sqrt{2\pi}f_0)$ where $Q = 8.9$ is the quality factor. In our analysis, we use four *ad hoc* waveforms denoted as sg1–sg4 that are linearly and elliptically polarized; see Table IV.

### V. SEARCH RESULTS

Figure 4 presents the background as a function of $\rho$ the coherent network signal-to-noise ratio for all CCSNe. We plot the loudest events found in the OSWs with further detailed information given in Table V. The non-negligible values of the false alarm probabilities indicate that all the results appear compatible with the noise background. For each CCSN source, we estimate the search efficiency using the waveforms described in Sec. IV C considering events with a rank value smaller than the loudest event FAR.

#### A. Detection efficiency vs distance

We provide detection efficiencies for waveforms listed in Tables III and IV. Figure 5 presents the detection efficiencies for SN 2017eaw, the closest CCSN in this search. For reference, the plots show the distances to the Galactic Center (8.5 kpc), the Large Magellanic Cloud (49.6 kpc [125]) that hosted SN 1987A, and the distance to the host galaxy of SN 2017eaw, NGC 6946. For each model, we determine the distance corresponding to a 50% detection efficiency. Distance reaches for each CCSN for neutrino-driven explosions and MHD-driven explosions are summarized in Table VI, and extreme emission models are summarized in Table VII. For each model, the distances are consistent across CCSNe, and these distances are around three to five times farther than in Ref. [35]. The largest distances are obtained for SN 2017gax. This can be explained by the fact that the loudest event for this CCSN has the lowest $\rho$ value and the network sensitivity at the time of the CCSN was better over the duration of the OSW.

For the neutrino-driven explosions summarized in Table VI and the upper left panel of Fig. 5, the detection distance reached less than 5 kpc. None of these models reached the Galactic Center; however a few of the waveforms have nonzero detection probabilities at that distance. The least detectable models are the Müller *et al.* waveforms because they are the least energetic. The most detectable models are the Yakunin *et al.* waveforms, and the reach increases with progenitor mass. The Ott *et al.* model has a smaller detection reach compared to the Yakunin *et al.* waveforms, but also has higher detection efficiency at small distances.

Table VI and the upper right panel of Fig. 5 also present a summary of distance reaches for MHD-driven explosions. The distance reaches for most of these models are an order of magnitude larger than for the neutrino-driven explosions. Some MHD-driven explosion models reach to the distance of Large Magellanic Cloud. If a MHD-driven supernova were to explode at the distance of SN 1987A, around 50 kpc away, we have a nonzero chance of detecting it. The detectable range for sch1 is 2 orders of magnitude shorter compared to those of sch2 and sch3. This Scheidegger *et al.* model has a lower amplitude due to its slower rotation.

Distance reaches for the extreme emission models are given in Table VII and depicted in the bottom left panel of Fig. 5. The ranges are on the order of several Mpc up to nearly 28 Mpc for the most extreme model. The reaches of a few waveforms exceed the distance of SN 2017eaw. Given the null detections, this means we can begin to exclude these models as discussed in Sec. V C.

The detection efficiencies for the linearly polarized waveforms (Dimmelmeier *et al.* and Yakunin *et al.*) do not reach unity even at small distances because the network of detectors is not sensitive to both polarizations for any sky position at a given time. There are sky positions where the detectors are insensitive to one of the polarizations and even a large amplitude signal with only one polarization will not be detectable. Waveforms with two polarizations are more efficiently detected than linearly polarized signals.

![Graph showing detection efficiency vs distance](image-url)

**Figure 4.** The FAP of background events together with the loudest events for each CCSN. The non-negligible values of the FAP indicate that all the loudest events appear compatible with the noise background. The shaded region is the 1σ error. The numbers in the parentheses are durations of the on-source windows and the class where the loudest events belong.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supernova</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>$\rho$</th>
<th>FAR (Hz)</th>
<th>FAP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SN 2015as</td>
<td>C2</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>$2.9 \times 10^{-5}$</td>
<td>0.716</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2016B</td>
<td>C1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>$1.1 \times 10^{-5}$</td>
<td>0.732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2016X</td>
<td>C1</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>$1.4 \times 10^{-5}$</td>
<td>0.398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2017aw</td>
<td>C1</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>$1.3 \times 10^{-6}$</td>
<td>0.076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2017gax</td>
<td>C2</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>$9.7 \times 10^{-5}$</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table V.** List of the loudest events for each CCSN. FAR and FAP for each of them indicate that they are consistent with background noise.
B. Constraints on GW energy emission

Similarly to Ref. [35], we provide constraints on the GW energy emission from CCSNe. This is the minimum energy emitted in GWs needed to be detectable with 50% probability. We calculate these constraints individually for each CCSN. We probe low- and high-frequency GWs, as shown in Sec. V B. The numbers in parentheses for the models plotted in (a), (b), and (c) are the distances at which the detection efficiency equals 50%. For (d), the numbers in parentheses are the $h_{\text{rss}}$ values resulting in 50% detection efficiencies. The detection reach for neutrino-driven explosions is limited to a few kpc, while for MHD-driven explosions it covers the Milky Way, and the detection efficiency at the distance of the Large Magellanic Cloud (LMC), that hosted SN 1987A, is nonzero. Further discussion can be found in Sec. VA. The distance reaches for extreme emission models in (c) exceed the distance of SN 2017eaw. Given that there was no GW detection, we are able to exclude some of the parameter spaces for these models, which we discuss in Sec. VC. The dashed lines show 50% and 90% detection efficiencies.

![Graphs showing detection efficiency vs distance for different models](image)

**FIG. 5.** Panels (a), (b), and (c) show the efficiency as a function of distance using three families of waveforms for a source located at the position and time of SN 2017eaw. Panel (d) provides the detection efficiency for *ad hoc* sine-Gaussian waveforms as a function of $h_{\text{rss}}$, which we use to constrain GW energy and discuss in Sec. VB. The numbers in parentheses for the models plotted in (a), (b), and (c) are the distances at which the detection efficiency equals 50%. For (d), the numbers in parentheses are the $h_{\text{rss}}$ values resulting in 50% detection efficiencies. The detection reach for neutrino-driven explosions is limited to a few kpc, while for MHD-driven explosions it covers the Milky Way, and the detection efficiency at the distance of the Large Magellanic Cloud (LMC), that hosted SN 1987A, is nonzero. Further discussion can be found in Sec. VA. The distance reaches for extreme emission models in (c) exceed the distance of SN 2017eaw. Given that there was no GW detection, we are able to exclude some of the parameter spaces for these models, which we discuss in Sec. VC. The dashed lines show 50% and 90% detection efficiencies.

**TABLE VI.** Distance reaches (in kpc), defined as the distance with a 50% detection efficiency, for neutrino-driven explosions from Müller et al. (mul1-mul3), Ott et al. (ott1), and Yakunin et al. (yak1–yak4), as well as MHD-driven explosions from Scheidegger et al. (sch1–sch3) and Dimmelmeier et al. (dim1–dim3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supernova</th>
<th>mul1</th>
<th>mul2</th>
<th>mul3</th>
<th>ott1</th>
<th>yak1</th>
<th>yak2</th>
<th>yak3</th>
<th>yak4</th>
<th>sch1</th>
<th>sch2</th>
<th>sch3</th>
<th>dim1</th>
<th>dim2</th>
<th>dim3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SN 2015as</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>34.76</td>
<td>41.32</td>
<td>5.57</td>
<td>7.34</td>
<td>14.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2016B</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>26.66</td>
<td>34.88</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>12.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2016X</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>26.02</td>
<td>32.13</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>10.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2017eaw</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>30.72</td>
<td>35.25</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>8.14</td>
<td>11.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2017gax</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>5.08</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>42.29</td>
<td>53.55</td>
<td>8.04</td>
<td>10.19</td>
<td>22.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
emission using sine-Gaussian \textit{ad hoc} waveforms with central frequencies of 235 and 1304 Hz (see Table IV). These waveforms do not have physical meaning, so we plot detection efficiency as a function of $h_{\text{rss}}$ [Eq. (2)] instead of distance. We assume isotropic emission with a total energy of

$$E_{\text{GW}} = \frac{\pi^2 c^3}{G} D^2 f_0^2 h_{\text{rss}}^2,$$

where $f_0$ is the peak GW frequency of the sine-Gaussian and $D$ is the distance to the source [126].

The bottom right panel of Fig. 5 shows the detection efficiency versus $h_{\text{rss}}$ for the four \textit{ad hoc} waveforms. The quoted $h_{\text{rss}}$ for each sine-Gaussian corresponds to the strain with a 50\% detection efficiency. The best sensitivity is achieved for the sine-Gaussians around 235 Hz (sg1 and sg3), which is a result of the lower noise level of the detectors at this frequency. The efficiency curves of the elliptically polarized waveforms (sg3 and sg4) flatten at higher detection efficiencies compared to the efficiencies for linearly polarized waveforms (sg1 and sg2) for the reason discussed in Sec. VA.

In Table VIII, we report GW energy constraints for each CCSN. For the \textit{ad hoc} waveforms with peak frequency at 235 Hz (sg1 and sg3), the GW energy constraints are consistently on the order of $10^{-3} M_\odot c^2$ or less. The lowest achieved energy constraints are obtained for SN 2017eaw at low frequency, $4.27 \times 10^{-4} M_\odot c^2 (7.63 \times 10^{50} \text{ erg})$, and high frequency, $1.28 \times 10^{-1} M_\odot c^2 (2.30 \times 10^{53} \text{ erg})$. For both low- and high-frequency emission, the energy constraints are 2 orders of magnitude stronger than in the search with the initial interferometer data [35]. This improvement is due to the improved sensitivity of the detectors and the closer distance of SN 2017eaw (6.72 Mpc) in comparison to SN 2007gr (10.55 Mpc). However, these energy constraints are still a few orders of magnitude larger than the energies predicted from multi-dimensional simulations (Table III), that lie between around $10^{-11} M_\odot c^2$ and $10^{-7} M_\odot c^2$.

The GW energy constraints obtained in this search can be compared to the energy budget of a CCSN. The energy

### Table VII. Distance reaches (in Mpc), defined as the distance with a 50\% detection efficiency, for extreme emission models torus fragmentation instability (piro1–piro4) and long-lasting bar mode (lb1–lb6).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supernova</th>
<th>piro1</th>
<th>piro2</th>
<th>piro3</th>
<th>piro4</th>
<th>lb1</th>
<th>lb2</th>
<th>lb3</th>
<th>lb4</th>
<th>lb5</th>
<th>lb6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SN 2015as</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>7.13</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>19.70</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>15.24</td>
<td>4.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2016B</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>7.04</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>17.94</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>13.69</td>
<td>4.50</td>
</tr>
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<td>SN 2016X</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>6.86</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>19.55</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>12.16</td>
<td>3.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2017eaw</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>7.23</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>19.94</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>12.37</td>
<td>4.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2017gax</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>10.04</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>27.79</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>6.16</td>
<td>19.03</td>
<td>6.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table VIII. Gravitational-wave energy emission constraints at 50\% detection efficiency. We assumed isotropic GW emission for the four \textit{ad hoc} waveforms. The most stringent constraints (in bold) are achieved for the closest event, SN 2017eaw (6.72 Mpc). They are 2 orders of magnitude smaller than the results obtained in Ref. [35]. The energies obtained for 235 Hz emission are comparable to the typical explosion energy (approximately $10^{51} \text{ erg}$) and a typical kinetic energy of CCSN ejecta (approximately $10^{51} \text{ erg}$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supernova</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>sg1—235 Hz lin</th>
<th>sg2—1304 Hz lin</th>
<th>sg3—235 Hz ell</th>
<th>sg4—1304 Hz ell</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SN 2015as</td>
<td>$h_{\text{rss}}$ (Hz$^{-1/2}$)</td>
<td>8.96e-23</td>
<td>2.95e-22</td>
<td>7.72e-23</td>
<td>2.58e-22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$E_{\text{GW}}$ (erg)</td>
<td>6.20e+51</td>
<td>2.07e+54</td>
<td>4.60e+51</td>
<td>1.58e+54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$E_{\text{GW}}$ ($M_\odot c^2$)</td>
<td>3.47e-03</td>
<td>1.16e+00</td>
<td>2.57e-03</td>
<td>8.82e-01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2016B</td>
<td>$h_{\text{rss}}$ (Hz$^{-1/2}$)</td>
<td>1.15e-22</td>
<td>4.07e-22</td>
<td>8.72e-23</td>
<td>2.71e-22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$E_{\text{GW}}$ (erg)</td>
<td>9.59e+51</td>
<td>3.70e+54</td>
<td>5.51e+51</td>
<td>1.64e+54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$E_{\text{GW}}$ ($M_\odot c^2$)</td>
<td>5.37e-03</td>
<td>2.07e+00</td>
<td>3.08e-03</td>
<td>9.15e-01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2016X</td>
<td>$h_{\text{rss}}$ (Hz$^{-1/2}$)</td>
<td>1.33e-22</td>
<td>4.52e-22</td>
<td>9.86e-23</td>
<td>3.11e-22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$E_{\text{GW}}$ (erg)</td>
<td>8.60e+51</td>
<td>3.05e+54</td>
<td>4.70e+51</td>
<td>1.44e+54</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>$E_{\text{GW}}$ ($M_\odot c^2$)</td>
<td>4.81e-03</td>
<td>1.71e+00</td>
<td>2.63e-03</td>
<td>8.08e-01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2017eaw</td>
<td>$h_{\text{rss}}$ (Hz$^{-1/2}$)</td>
<td>1.11e-22</td>
<td>3.78e-22</td>
<td>8.98e-23</td>
<td>2.81e-22</td>
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<td>$E_{\text{GW}}$ (erg)</td>
<td>1.16e+51</td>
<td>4.17e+53</td>
<td>7.63e+50</td>
<td>2.30e+53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$E_{\text{GW}}$ ($M_\odot c^2$)</td>
<td>6.49e-04</td>
<td>2.33e-01</td>
<td>4.27e-04</td>
<td>1.28e-01</td>
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<tr>
<td>SN 2017gax</td>
<td>$h_{\text{rss}}$ (Hz$^{-1/2}$)</td>
<td>6.80e-23</td>
<td>2.35e-22</td>
<td>5.72e-23</td>
<td>1.98e-22</td>
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<td>$E_{\text{GW}}$ (erg)</td>
<td>3.76e+51</td>
<td>1.38e+54</td>
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<td>$E_{\text{GW}}$ ($M_\odot c^2$)</td>
<td>2.10e-03</td>
<td>7.71e-01</td>
<td>1.49e-03</td>
<td>5.47e-01</td>
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available during collapse is approximately the gravitational binding energy of the final neutron star remnant, which is typically $1.5 \times 10^{-4} \, M_\odot c^2$ ($3 \times 10^{53} \text{ erg}$ [127–129]). Around 99% of that energy is radiated via neutrinos during the cooling of the protoneutron star [130], and the remaining approximately 1% is mainly transferred into kinetic energy. In a realistic scenario, only a small fraction of the explosion’s energy is radiated in the GW spectrum (Sec. IV C).

In Sec. IV C, we describe several processes emitting GWs. Some of them (e.g., SASI and convection) are related to the movement of matter that is ejected during an explosion. Again, according to the multidimensional simulations, only a small portion of this energy is converted into GWs. The kinetic energy of CCSN ejecta is typically on the order of $5.5 \times 10^{-4} \, M_\odot c^2$ ($10^{51} \text{ erg}$) [131–133]. Specifically, estimates of the kinetic energy in the ejecta of SN 2015as and SN 2017eaw are $2.5 \times 10^{-3} \, M_\odot c^2$ ($4.4 \times 10^{51} \text{ erg}$) [49] and $1.1 \times 10^{-3} \, M_\odot c^2$ ($2.0 \times 10^{51} \text{ erg}$) [58], respectively. The current GW constraints at low frequencies are comparable with these values. Specifically, the low-frequency (235 Hz) constraints for SN 2017eaw are roughly an order of magnitude below the kinetic energy of CCSN ejecta.

For extreme emission models, the GW energies are orders of magnitude larger than those predicted for multidimensional simulations, as seen in Table IV. The energies of these extreme emission processes range from $2.98 \times 10^{-4} \, M_\odot c^2$ up to even $1.18 \times 10^{-1} \, M_\odot c^2$. Our energy constraints are comparable with these values, but the comparison would not be correct as the ad hoc signals and the extreme emission model waveforms frequency content are different.

C. Model exclusion statements for extreme emission models

Along with constraining the GW energy emitted by CCSNe, we also constrain two models of extreme GW emission. As described in Sec. VA, for a few waveforms of the extreme emission models, the distance reaches exceed the distances of the CCSNe analyzed in this search. Given no GW detection, these models most likely do not describe correctly the CCSN explosion phenomena. Similarly to Ref. [35], we consider a standard candle approach; that is, we assume that each CCSN emits an identical GW signal. In a realistic scenario, this assumption is not true, as supernovae vary. Our results are upper limits on extreme emission model constraints. To characterize the models, we use waveforms that probe sample regions of the parameter spaces of these models (see Table IV and Sec. IV C 2).

The method for excluding models from multiple astrophysical sources is described in detail in Ref. [134]. In this method, we use the detection efficiency, $\mathcal{E}(d)$, which is a function of the distance, $d$. If a GW transient is strong and detectable but arrives at the detectors when coincident data is not available, then the model that predicts such a transient cannot be excluded. Therefore, we need to take into account the coincident duty factor, $a \in [0, 1]$. We define the reduced detection efficiency as

$$e(d) = a \times \mathcal{E}(d).$$

Given no GW detection, the reduced detection efficiency can also be understood as a model exclusion probability. For example, the detection efficiency for the piro4 waveform reaches 96.7% (see Fig. 5) at the distance of SN 2017eaw (6.72 Mpc). When we take into account the effect of the 48.8% coincident duty factor for this CCSN (see Table I), the reduced detection efficiency is 47.2%. Hence, we are confident with 47% probability that the piro4 model does not correctly describe the nature of a CCSN engine.

We then combine model exclusion probabilities obtained for each CCSN by multiplying the probabilities of not detecting a signal. The overall model exclusion probability

$$P_{\text{excl}} = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^{N} \left(1 - \epsilon_i(d_i)\right),$$

where $N$ is the number of CCSNe.

The results for the ten waveforms described in Sec. IV C 2 are shown in Table IX. The greatest $P_{\text{excl}} = 83.2\%$ is obtained for the piro4 waveform, and the largest contributions come from SN 2017eaw and SN 2017gax because the detection ranges for these CCSNe are larger than their distances. Although SN 2017eaw makes the most

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supernova</th>
<th>piro1</th>
<th>piro2</th>
<th>piro3</th>
<th>piro4</th>
<th>lb1</th>
<th>lb2</th>
<th>lb3</th>
<th>lb4</th>
<th>lb5</th>
<th>lb6</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reduced detection efficiency $\epsilon$ (%)</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2015as</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>5.5</td>
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<td>SN 2016X</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>0.0</td>
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<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2017eaw</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>47.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>39.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN 2017gax</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>48.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$P_{\text{excl}}$ (%)

|          | 0.0 | 27.2 | 5.2  | 83.2 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 8.7 | 63.8| 8.0 |

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important contribution to the model exclusion statements, the most energetic models, piro4 and lb5, are constrained by all CCSNe.

For the torus fragmentation instability model, the waveforms are characterized by the mass of a central black hole and the thickness of a torus around it. The clump masses $M_f$ for the piro1–piro4 waveforms are $0.072 \, M_\odot$, $0.576 \, M_\odot$, $0.144 \, M_\odot$, and $1.152 \, M_\odot$, respectively. There is a correlation between the mass of the fragment and $P_{\text{excl}}$ because the amplitude of the waveform scales approximately with $M_f$. We conclude that if central black holes are created in type-II and type-Ib/c supernovae after core collapse, then any clumps formed by fragmentation are preferably small ($M_f \lesssim 1 \, M_\odot$). Moreover, if the tori are created around black holes, they are either nonfragmented or rather thin, for the disk model considered in Ref. [101].

For the long-lasting bar-mode model, the parameter space is larger than for the torus fragmentation instability model. Three models have nonzero $P_{\text{excl}}$ values, lb4, lb5, and lb6. All three models have large values of $M(L^2 - 3R^2) = 3300 \, M_\odot \, \text{km}^2$, which corresponds either to $R \lesssim 10 \, \text{km}$ protoneutron stars with large asymmetries ($L/2R > 2.5$) or large protoneutron stars ($R \approx 20 \, \text{km}$) with moderate asymmetries ($L/2R \approx 1.5–3.5$). If bars are created generically in type-II and type-Ib/c supernovae, the deformations are preferably small. The largest $P_{\text{excl}}$ among these models is obtained for lb5. This waveform lasts 1 s, while lb4 and lb6 are 100 and 25 ms, respectively. It seems that, for a protoneutron star with $R \lesssim 10 \, \text{km}$, if bars with strong deviations from axisymmetry are created ($L/2R > 3$) in CCSNe, then they are rather short lived. Larger protoneutron stars ($R \approx 20 \, \text{km}$) could still have large deformations and be unobservable.

The constraint for lb5 limits the possible maximum deformations in type-II and type-lb/c supernovae. If bars are created, they are probably small. In case deformations are large, the protoneutron star is either very compact ($R \approx 5 \, \text{km}$), or the bar is short lived (less than 1000 ms). These results are consistent with the current theoretical understanding of bar-mode instabilities, which are expected to appear early after bounce when the protoneutron star mass is relatively low ($M \lesssim 1 \, M_\odot$) and its radius is large ($R \gtrsim 20 \, \text{km}$). The amplitude and duration are likely to be severely limited by the presence of strong magnetic fields, magnetorotational turbulence, and shear instabilities [135–139].

VI. CONCLUSIONS

We present the results of a search for GWs from CCSNe with the Advanced LIGO and Advanced Virgo detectors during the first and second observing runs (2015-2017). Five CCSNe within 20 Mpc are used for the astrophysical statements: SN 2015as, SN 2016B, SN 2016X, SN 2017eaw, and SN 2017gax. We have not found any significant GW candidate. All the loudest events are consistent with background events.

We provide the distance reaches at 50% detection efficiencies for both realistic and extreme GW emission models. For the neutrino-driven explosions, the distances do not exceed 5 kpc, while the distance ranges for the magnetorotationally driven explosions reach 54 kpc. The distance reaches for extreme emission models can be as large as 28 Mpc, which exceed the distances of CCSNe analyzed in this search. Given no GW detection, this gives us an opportunity to estimate the exclusion probabilities for the most extreme models.

We derive GW energy constraints for generic low- and high-frequency GW emissions at 235 and 1304 Hz, respectively, using linearly and elliptically polarized ad hoc sine-Gaussian waveforms. The constraints are around $10^{-3} \, M_\odot c^2$ and $10^{-1} \, M_\odot c^2$ for low- and high-frequency GW emission, respectively. The best GW emission constraints we obtained are for SN 2017eaw of $4.27 \times 10^{-4} \, M_\odot c^2$ (7.63 $\times 10^{40}$ erg) for low-frequency emission and $1.28 \times 10^{-1} \, M_\odot c^2$ (2.30 $\times 10^{53}$ erg) for high-frequency emission. These are 2 orders of magnitude more stringent than in Ref. [35], but still a few orders of magnitude larger than predicted from multidimensional simulations. The low-frequency emission constraints are comparable to the typical kinetic energy of CCSN ejecta.

We provide the first supernova model constraints based on O1 and O2 data with a standard candle approach. The most extreme emission models, piro4 and lb5, are constrained at the level of 83.2% and 63.8%, respectively. Out of ten waveforms, we place limits on six of them with 5% to 83% exclusion probabilities. These limits are derived primarily from the SN 2017eaw analysis. Based on our results, we conclude that if central black holes are created in type-II and type-lb/c supernovae, the sizes of the fragments are preferably small. Moreover, if disks around central black holes are created, then they are either nonfragmented or rather thin. If bars are created, they are probably small. In cases where deformations of the protoneutron star are large, they are either very compact ($R \sim 5 \, \text{km}$) or they shortly lived (less than 1000 ms).

These model exclusion statements are the first constraints on CCSN engines based on GW data. In the future, with targeted searches and upgraded detectors (third observing run and beyond), it will be possible to further exclude the extreme emission models and better constrain the GW energy emitted by CCSN engines, making both more astrophysically meaningful.

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(LIGO Scientific Collaboration and Virgo Collaboration)

(AAS-SN Collaboration)

(DLT40 Collaboration)
F. Salemi 240

1LIGO, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, California 91125, USA
2Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana 70803, USA
3Inter-University Centre for Astronomy and Astrophysics, Pune 411007, India
4Dipartimento di Farmacia, Università di Salerno, I-84084 Fisciano, Salerno, Italy
5INFN, Sezione di Napoli, Complesso Universitario di Monte S. Angelo, I-80126 Napoli, Italy
6OzGrav, School of Physics & Astronomy, Monash University, Clayton 3800, Victoria, Australia
7LIGO Livingston Observatory, Livingston, Louisiana 70754, USA
8OzGrav, Australian National University, Canberra, Australian Capital Territory 0200, Australia
9Max Planck Institute for Gravitational Physics (Albert Einstein Institute), D-30167 Hannover, Germany
10Leibniz Universität Hannover, D-30167 Hannover, Germany
11Theoretisch-Physikalisches Institut, Friedrich-Schiller-Universität Jena, D-07743 Jena, Germany
12University of Cambridge, Cambridge CB2 1TN, United Kingdom
13University of Birmingham, Birmingham B15 2TT, United Kingdom
14LIGO, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139, USA
15Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas Espaciais, 12227-010 São José dos Campos, São Paulo, Brazil
16Gran Sasso Science Institute (GSSI), I-67100 L’Aquila, Italy
17INFN, Laboratori Nazionali del Gran Sasso, I-67100 Assergi, Italy
18International Centre for Theoretical Sciences, Tata Institute of Fundamental Research, Bengaluru 560089, India

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127. West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia 26506, USA
128. University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon 97403, USA
129. Montclair State University, Montclair, New Jersey 07043, USA
130. Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colorado 80523, USA
131. Kenyon College, Gambier, Ohio 43022, USA
132. Stanford University, Stanford, California 94305, USA
133. Christopher Newport University, Newport News, Virginia 23606, USA
134. CNR-SPIN, c/o Università di Salerno, I-84084 Fisciano, Salerno, Italy
135. University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455, USA
136. Scuola di Ingegneria, Università della Basilicata, I-85100 Potenza, Italy
137. National Astronomical Observatory of Japan, 2-21-1 Osawa, Mitaka, Tokyo 181-8588, Japan
138. California State University Fullerton, Fullerton, California 92831, USA
139. Observatori Astronòmic, Universitat de València, E-46980 Paterna, València, Spain
140. INFN Sezione di Torino, I-10125 Torino, Italy
141. School of Mathematics, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh EH9 3FD, United Kingdom
142. Embry-Riddle Aeronautical University, Prescott, Arizona 86301, USA
143. Institute Of Advanced Research, Gandhinagar 382426, India
144. Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, Powai, Mumbai 400 076, India
145. NCSA, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, Illinois 61801, USA
146. University of Szeged, Dóm tér 9, Szeged 6720, Hungary
147. School of Physics, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, Georgia 30332, USA
148. Nikhef, Science Park 105, 1098 XG Amsterdam, Netherlands
149. University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53201, USA
150. SUPA, University of the West of Scotland, Paisley PA1 2BE, United Kingdom
151. Columbia University, New York, New York 10027, USA
152. California State University, Los Angeles, 5151 State University Dr, Los Angeles, California 90032, USA
153. Universität Hamburg, D-22761 Hamburg, Germany
154. The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania 16802, USA
155. Tata Institute of Fundamental Research, Mumbai 400005, India
156. INAF, Osservatorio Astronomico di Capodimonte, I-80131 Napoli, Italy
157. Department of Astrophysics/IMAPP, Radboud University Nijmegen, P.O. Box 9010, 6500 GL Nijmegen, Netherlands
158. University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48109, USA
159. Washington State University, Pullman, Washington 99164, USA
160. American University, Washington, D.C., 20016, USA
161. University of Portsmouth, Portsmouth, PO1 3FX, United Kingdom
162. Rochester Institute of Technology, Rochester, New York 14623, USA
163. University of California, Berkeley, California 94720, USA
164. GRAPPA, Anton Pannekoek Institute for Astronomy and Institute for High-Energy Physics, University of Amsterdam, Science Park 904, 1098 XH Amsterdam, Netherlands
165. Delta Institute for Theoretical Physics, Science Park 904, 1090 GL Amsterdam, Netherlands
166. Texas Tech University, Lubbock, Texas 79409, USA
167. Directorate of Construction, Services & Estate Management, Mumbai 400094 India
168. University of Białystok, 15-424 Białystok, Poland
169. King’s College London, University of London, London WC2R 2LS, United Kingdom
170. University of Southampton, Southampton SO17 1BJ, United Kingdom
171. Center for Interdisciplinary Exploration & Research in Astrophysics (CIERA), Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois 60208, USA
172. University of Washington Bothell, Bothell, Washington 98011, USA
173. Institute of Applied Physics, Nizhny Novgorod, 603950, Russia
174. Ewha Womans University, Seoul 03760, South Korea
175. Inje University Gimhae, South Gyeongsang 50834, South Korea
176. National Institute for Mathematical Sciences, Daejeon 34047, South Korea
177. Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology, Ulsan 44919, South Korea
178. Maastricht University, P.O. Box 616, 6200 MD Maastricht, Netherlands
179. Bard College, 30 Campus Rd, Annandale-On-Hudson, New York 12504, USA
180. Chennai Mathematical Institute, Chennai 603103, India
181. NCBJ, 05-400 Świerk-Otwock, Poland
182. Institute of Mathematics, Polish Academy of Sciences, 00656 Warsaw, Poland
183. Cornell University, Ithaca, New York 14850, USA

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234 Central (Pulkovo) Observatory of Russian Academy of Sciences, 196140 Pulkovskoye Ave. 65/1, Saint Petersburg, Russia
235 Department of Astronomy/Steward Observatory, 933 North Cherry Avenue, Room N204, Tucson, Arizona 85721-0065, USA
236 Department of Astronomy and The Oskar Klein Centre, AlbaNova University Center, Stockholm University, SE-106 91 Stockholm, Sweden
237 Department of Physics, University of California, 1 Shields Avenue, Davis, California 95616-5270, USA
238 Department of Physics and Astronomy Galileo Galilei, University of Padova, Vicolo dell’Osservatorio, 3, I-35122 Padova, Italy
239 INAF Osservatorio Astronomico di Padova, Vicolo dell’Osservatorio 5, I-35122 Padova, Italy
240 Albert-Einstein-Institut, Max-Planck-Institut für Gravitationsphysik, D-30167 Hannover, Germany

*aDeceased.*