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First Demonstration of Electrostatic Damping of Parametric Instability at Advanced LIGO

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Interferometric gravitational wave detectors operate with high optical power in their arms in order to achieve high shot-noise limited strain sensitivity. A significant limitation to increasing the optical power is the phenomenon of three-mode parametric instabilities, in which the laser field in the arm cavities is scattered into higher-order optical modes by acoustic modes of the cavity mirrors. The optical modes can further drive the acoustic modes via radiation pressure, potentially producing an exponential buildup. One proposed technique to stabilize parametric instability is active damping of acoustic modes. We report here the first demonstration of damping a parametrically unstable mode using active feedback forces on the cavity mirror. A 15.54 kHz mode that grew exponentially with a time constant of 182 sec was damped using electrostatic actuation, with a resulting decay time constant of 23 sec. An average control force of 0.03 nN was required to maintain the acoustic mode at its minimum amplitude.

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Introduction.—Three-mode parametric instability (PI) has been a known issue for advanced laser interferometer gravitational wave detectors since first recognized by Braginsky et al. [1], and modeled in increasing detail [2–6]. This optomechanical instability was first observed in 2009 in microcavities [7], then in 2014 in an 80 m cavity [8] and soon afterwards during the commissioning of Advanced LIGO [9]. Left uncontrolled, PI results in the optical cavity control systems becoming unstable on time scales ranging from tens of minutes to hours [9].

The first detection of gravitational waves was made by two Advanced LIGO laser interferometer gravitational wave detectors with about 100 kW of circulating power in their arm cavities [10]. To achieve this power level required suppression of PI through thermal tuning of the higher-order mode eigenfrequency [2] explained later in this Letter. This tuning allowed the optical power to be increased in Advanced LIGO from about 5% to 12% of the design power, sufficient to attain a strain sensitivity of $10^{-23} \text{Hz}^{-1/2}$ at 100 Hz.

At the design power (800 kW), it will not be possible to avoid instabilities using thermal tuning alone, for two reasons. First, the parametric gain scales linearly with optical power and, second, the acoustic mode density is so high that thermal detuning for one acoustic mode brings other modes into resonance [2,9].

Several methods are likely to be useful for controlling PI. Active thermal tuning will minimize the effects of thermal transients [11,12] and maintain operation near the parametric gain minimum. In the future, acoustic mode dampers attached to the test masses [13] could damp acoustic modes. Active damping [14] of acoustic modes can also suppress instabilities by applying feedback forces to the test masses.

In this Letter we report on the control of a PI by actively damping a 15.54 kHz acoustic mode of an Advanced LIGO test mass using electrostatic force actuators.

Parametric instability.—The parametric gain $R_m$, as derived by Evans et al. [4], is given by

$$R_m = \frac{8\pi Q_m P}{M \omega_0^2 c^5 \lambda_0} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \text{Re}[G_n] B_{m,n}^2.$$  

Here, $Q_m$ is the quality factor ($Q$) of the mechanical mode $m$, $P$ is the power in the fundamental optical mode of the cavity, $M$ is the mass of the test mass, $c$ is the speed of light, $\lambda_0$ is the wavelength of light, $\omega_m$ is the mechanical mode angular frequency, $G_n$ is the transfer function for an optical field leaving the test mass surface to the field...
incident on that same surface, and $B_{m,n}$ is the spatial overlap between the optical beat note pressure distribution and the mechanical mode surface deformation.

To understand the phenomena, it is instructive to consider the simplified case of a single cavity and a single optical mode. For a simulation analysis including arms and recycling cavities, see Refs. [4,5], and, for an explanation of dynamic effects that may make high parametric gains from the recycling cavities less likely, see Ref. [8]. In the simplified case, we consider the transverse electromagnetic mode TEM$_{03}$ as it dominates the optical interaction with the acoustic mode investigated here. Equation (2) defines the corresponding optical transfer function

$$\text{Re}[G_{03}] = \frac{c}{L\pi \gamma (1 + \Delta \omega^2 / \gamma^2)}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

Here, $\gamma$ is the half width at half maximum of the TEM$_{03}$ optical mode frequency distribution, $L$ is the length of the cavity, and $\Delta \omega$ is the spacing in frequency between the mechanical mode $\omega_m$ and the beat note of the fundamental and TEM$_{03}$ optical modes. In general, the parametric gain changes the time constant of the mechanical mode as in Eq. (3):

$$\tau_{\text{PI}} = \tau_m / (1 - R_m),$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

where $\tau_m$ is the natural time constant of the mechanical mode and $\tau_{\text{PI}}$ is the time constant of the mode influenced by the optomechanical interaction. If the parametric gain exceeds unity, the mode becomes unstable. Thermal tuning was used to control PI in Advanced LIGO’s observation run 1 and was integral to this experiment, so it will be examined in some detail.

Thermal tuning is achieved using radiative ring heaters that surround the barrel of each test mass without physical contact as in Fig. 1. Applying power to the ring heater decreases the radius of curvature of the mirrors. This changes the cavity $g$ factor and tunes the mode spacing between the fundamental (TEM$_{00}$) and higher-order transverse electromagnetic (TEM$_{mn}$) modes in the cavity, thereby tuning the parametric gain by changing $\Delta \omega$ in Eq. (2).

Figure 2 shows five groups of mechanical modes and the optical transfer function [Eq. (2)] for the TEM$_{03}$ mode. The ring heater tuning used during Advanced LIGO’s first observing run [16] is shown in bold red. Without thermal tuning, the peak in the optical transfer function moves to higher frequency (the dashed red curve), decreasing the
frequency spacing $\Delta \omega$ with mechanical mode group $E$. This leads to the instability of this group of modes. (Note that the mirror acoustic mode frequencies are only weakly tuned by heater power, due to the small value of the fused silica temperature dependence of Young’s modulus.)

If the ring heater power is increased, inducing an approximately 5 m change in radius of curvature, the optical transfer function peak in Fig. 2 moves left about 400 Hz, decreasing the value $\Delta \omega$ for mode group $A$, resulting in their instability. The mode groups $C$ and $D$ are stable as the second and fourth order optical modes that might be excited from these modes are far from resonance. Mode group $B$ is also stable at the circulating optical power used in this experiment, presumably due to either a lower quality factor $Q_m$ or a lower optical gain $G_{30}$ of the TEM$_{30}$ mode, as investigated in Ref. [17]. Extrapolating from Eq. (2) and the observed parametric gain, increasing the interferometer power by a factor of 3 results in no stable regions. Mode group $A$ at 15.00 kHz and group $E$ at 15.54 kHz will be unstable simultaneously.

**Electrostatic control.**—Electrostatic control of PI was proposed [18] and studied in the context of the LIGO electrostatic control combs by Miller et al. [14]. Here, we report studies of electrostatic feedback damping for the group $E$ modes at 15.54 kHz.

The main purpose of the electrostatic drive (ESD) is to provide longitudinal actuation on the test masses for lock acquisition [19] and holding the arm cavities on resonance. It creates a force between the test masses and their counterpart reaction masses, through the interaction of the fused silica test masses with the electric fields generated by a comb of gold conductors that are deposited on the reaction mass. The physical locations of these components are depicted in Fig. 1. Detail of the gold comb is shown in Fig. 3, along with the force density on the test mass.

The force applied to the test mass $F_{\text{ESD}}$ is dominated by the dipole attraction of the test mass dielectric to the electric field between the electrodes of the gold comb. $F_{\text{app},m}$ is the fraction $b_m$ of this force that couples to the acoustic mode:

$$F_{\text{app},m} = b_m F_{\text{ESD},Q} = b_m \alpha_Q \frac{1}{2} (V_{\text{bias}} - V_Q)^2. \quad (4)$$

Here, $\alpha_Q$ is the force coefficient for a single quadrant resulting in a force $F_{\text{ESD},Q}$, while $V_{\text{bias}}$ and $V_Q$ are the voltages of the ESD electrodes defined in Fig. 3. The overlap $b_m$ between the ESD force distribution $\tilde{f}_{\text{ESD},Q}$ and the displacement $\tilde{u}_m$ of the surface for a particular acoustic mode $m$ can be approximated as a surface integral derived by Miller et al. [14]:

$$b_m \approx \left| \int_S \tilde{f}_{\text{ESD},Q} \cdot (\tilde{u}_m \cdot \hat{z}) dS \right|. \quad (5)$$

If a feedback system is created that senses the mode amplitude and provides a viscous damping force using the ESD, the resulting time constant of the mode $\tau_{\text{ESD}}$ is given by

$$\tau_{\text{ESD}} = \left( \frac{1}{\tau_m} + \frac{K_m}{2 \mu_m} \right)^{-1}. \quad (6)$$

Here, $K_m$ is the gain applied between the velocity measurement and the ESD actuation force on a mode with a time constant $\tau_m$ and an effective mass $\mu_m$. Reducing the effective time constant lowers the effective parametric gain:

![FIG. 3. The ESD comb pattern printed on the reaction mass (left panel) and the force distribution on the test mass (right panel) with the same voltage on all quadrants.](image-url)
The force required \( F_{\text{req}} \) to reduce a parametric gain \( R_m \) to an effective parametric gain \( R_{\text{eff}} \) when the mode amplitude is the thermally excited amplitude was used by Miller et al. \cite{14} to predict the forces required from the ESD for damping PI:

\[
R_{\text{eff}} = R_m \times \frac{\tau_{\text{ESD}}}{\tau_m}.
\]

(7)

The force required \( F_{\text{req}} \) to reduce a parametric gain \( R_m \) to an effective parametric gain \( R_{\text{eff}} \) when the mode amplitude is the thermally excited amplitude was used by Miller et al. \cite{14} to predict the forces required from the ESD for damping PI:

\[
F_{\text{req}} = \frac{x_m \mu_m \omega_m^2}{b_m} \left( \frac{R_m - R_{\text{eff}}}{Q_m R_{\text{eff}}} \right).
\]

(8)

at the thermally excited amplitude \( x_m = \sqrt{k_B T / \mu_m \omega_m^2} \), where \( k_B \) is the Boltzmann constant and \( T \) the temperature.

Feedback loop.—Figure 4 shows the damping feedback loop implemented on the end test mass of the \( Y \) arm (ETMY). The error signal used for mode damping is constructed from a quadrant photodetector (QPD) that receives light transmitted by the ETMY. By suitably combining QPD elements, we measure the beat signal between the cavity TEM\(_{00}\) mode and the TEM\(_{03}\) mode that is being excited by the 15 538 Hz ETMY acoustic mode. This signal is bandpass filtered at 15 538 Hz, then phase shifted to produce a control signal that is 90° out of phase with the mode amplitude (velocity damping). The damping force is applied, with adjustable gain, to two quadrants of the ETMY electrostatic actuator. Table 1 summarizes the control and cavity parameters.

Results.—PI stabilization via active damping was demonstrated by first inducing the ETMY 15 538 Hz to become parametrically unstable. This was achieved by turning off the ring heater tuning so that the TEM\(_{03}\) mode optical gain curve better overlapped this acoustic mode, as shown in Fig. 2. When the mode became significantly elevated in the QPD signal, the damping loop was closed with a control gain to achieve a clear damping of the mode amplitude and a control phase optimized to \( \pm 15 \) degrees of viscous damping. The mode amplitude was monitored using the photodetector at the main output of the interferometer.

![FIG. 5. Damping of parametric instability. (Upper panel) The 15 538 Hz ETMY mode is unstable, ringing up with a time constant of 182 ± 9 sec and an estimated parametric gain of \( R_m = 2.4 \). Then, at 0 sec, control gain is applied, resulting in an exponential decay with a time constant of 23 ± 1 sec and an effective parametric gain \( R_{\text{eff}, m} = 0.18 \). (Lower panel) The control force over the same period.](image-url)
that a control force of $R_{\text{eff}}$ shows that some modes in the 30 Hz mode state decreased, the control force dropped to a steady state amplitude during the unstable ringup phase with the time constant $\tau_{\text{eff}}$ due to an optical gain and damping of $-23 \text{ sec.}$ From the ringup, we estimate the parametric gain to be $2.4 \pm 0.8$ from Eq. (3). With the damping applied,

$$R_{\text{eff}} = \frac{R_m \tau_{\text{eff}}}{\tau_m + R_m \tau_{\text{eff}}},$$  

the effective parametric gain is reduced to a stable value of $R_{\text{eff}} = 0.18 \pm 0.06$. The uncertainty is primarily due to the uncertainty in the estimate of $\tau_m$, which was obtained by the method described in Ref. [9].

At the onset of active damping (time $t = 0$ in Fig. 5), the feedback control signal produces an estimated force of $F_{\text{ESD}} = 0.62 \text{ nN rms}$ (at 15 538 Hz). As the mode amplitude decreased, the control force dropped to a steady state value of 0.03 nN rms. Over a 20 min period in this damped state, the peak control force was 0.11 nN.

Discussion.—The force required to damp the 15 538 Hz mode when Advanced LIGO reaches design power can be determined from the ESD force used to achieve the observed parametric gain suppression presented here, combined with the expected parametric gain when operated at high power:

$$F_{\text{req}} = \frac{R_{\text{ESD}} R_{\text{max}} - R_{\text{req}}}{R_{\text{ESD}}} R_{\text{req}} R_m - R_{\text{req}}.$$

The maximum parametric gain $R_{\text{max}}$ where $\Delta \omega = 0$ is calculated using Eq. (2). For the 15 538 Hz mode, the detuning is $\Delta \omega \approx 50 \text{ Hz}$ with zero ring heater power, so $R_{\text{max}} \approx 7$ for the power level of these experiments. At full design power, the maximum gain will be $R_{\text{max}} \approx 56$. To obtain a quantitative result, we set a requirement for damping such that the effective parametric gain of unstable acoustic modes after damping will be $R_{\text{req}} = 0.1$.

Using Eq. (10), the measurements of $R_m$ and $R_{\text{eff}}$, the maximum force required to maintain the damped state at high power is $F_{\text{ESD}} = 1.5 \text{ nN rms}$. Prior to this investigation, Miller et al. predicted [14] that a control force of approximately 10 nN rms would be required to maintain this mode at the thermally excited level.

The PI control system must cope with elevated mode amplitudes, as the PI mode may build up before PI control can be engaged. There is, therefore, a requirement for some safety factor (available voltage/drive voltage in a damped state) such that the control system will not saturate. A safety factor of at least 10 would be prudent. The average ESD drive voltage $V_{\text{ESD}} = -V_{\text{ESD}}$ over the duration that the mode was in the damped state was 0.42 mV rms; however, during this time it peaked at $1.4 \text{ mV}$ out of a $20 \text{ V}$ control range, leading to a safety factor of more than 10,000. At high power the safety factor will be reduced by the required force ratio of Eq. (10), resulting in an expected safety factor of 310.

As the laser power is increased, other modes are likely to become unstable. The parametric gain of these modes should be less than the gain of mode group $E$, provided that the optical transfer function used in these experiments is maintained. However, these modes may also have a lower spatial overlap $b_m$ with the ESD. Miller et al.’s simulation [14] shows that some modes in the 30–90 kHz range will require up to 30 times the control force $F_{\text{ESD}}$ required to damp the group $E$ modes. Even in this situation, the PI safety factor is approximately 10.

Coupling of the PI control forces presented here to noise in the main interferometer output were insignificant. A detailed investigation will be required when commissioning the complete parametric instability control system.

Conclusion.—We have shown for the first time the electrostatic control of parametric instability. An unstable acoustic mode at 15 538 Hz with a parametric gain of $2.4 \pm 0.8$ was successfully damped to a gain of $0.18 \pm 0.06$ using electrostatic control forces. The damping force required to keep the mode in the damped state was 0.03 nN rms. The prediction through a finite element method (FEM) simulation was that the ESD would need to apply approximately 6 times this control force to maintain the mode amplitude at the thermally excited level. At high power it is estimated that damping the 15.54 kHz mode group to an effective parametric gain of 0.1 will result in a safety factor $\approx 310$. It is predicted that the unstable modes that are the most problematic to damp will still have a safety factor of 10.

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