

1 The Likelihood Formalism

This section describes the mathematical likelihood formalism used in Skylab. First it introduces the log-likelihood approach, second the likelihood ratio test and the used test statistic and then describes the used optimizations.

1.1 The Log-Likelihood Approach

Skylab implements the two-component likelihood approach with a likelihood function $\mathcal{L}(n_s, \vec{p}_s | D)$ of the form

$$\mathcal{L}(n_s, \vec{p}_s | D) = \prod_{i=1}^N \left[\frac{n_s}{N} \mathcal{S}_i(\vec{x}_s, \vec{p}_s) + \left(1 - \frac{n_s}{N}\right) \mathcal{B}_i \right], \quad (1)$$

where n_s is the number of signal events, hence, $(N - n_s)$ the number of background events in the dataset D of N total events. The set of signal model parameters is denoted as \vec{p}_s . Signal model parameters are for instance the spectral index γ of the source. $\mathcal{S}_i(\vec{x}_s, \vec{p}_s)$ is the value of the signal PDF assuming a signal source at location \vec{x}_s for the i th data event, whereas \mathcal{B}_i is the value of background PDF of the i th data event.

The signal and background PDFs must incorporate the detector efficiency (yield) \mathcal{Y}_i , which usually is dependent on the data event's sky location, energy, and time.

For computational stability reasons the logarithm of the likelihood function of equation 1 is used in Skylab:

$$\log \mathcal{L}(n_s, \vec{p}_s | D) = \sum_{i=1}^N \log(\dots) \quad (2)$$

1.2 Likelihood Ratio Test and Test Statistic

For estimating the significance of an observation, the likelihood ratio Λ with respect to a null hypothesis of no observation, i.e. equation 1 at $n_s = 0$ is tested:

$$\log \Lambda(n_s, \vec{p}_s) = \log \frac{L(n_s, \vec{p}_s)}{L(n_s = 0)} = \sum_{i=1}^N \log \left[1 + \frac{n_s}{N} \left(\frac{\mathcal{S}_i(\vec{x}_s, \vec{p}_s)}{\mathcal{B}_i} - 1 \right) \right] \quad (3)$$

By defining

$$\mathcal{X}_i(\vec{p}_s) \equiv \frac{1}{N} \left(\frac{\mathcal{S}_i(\vec{x}_s, \vec{p}_s)}{\mathcal{B}_i} - 1 \right), \quad (4)$$

this reads as:

$$\log \Lambda(n_s, \vec{p}_s) = \sum_{i=1}^N \log(1 + n_s \mathcal{X}_i(\vec{p}_s)) \quad (5)$$

This leads to the test statistic TS

$$\text{TS} = 2\text{sgn}(n_s) \log \Lambda(n_s, \vec{p}_s) \quad (6)$$

with separation of over- ($n_s > 0$) and under-fluctuations ($n_s < 0$).

1.3 Multiple Datasets

With Skylab a set of J different data samples (datasets) D_j can be analyzed at once. Each data sample has its own detector signal efficiency $\mathcal{Y}_{s,j}$.

The composite likelihood function is the product of the individual dataset likelihood functions:

$$\log \Lambda = \sum_{j=1}^J \log \Lambda_j \quad (7)$$

The total number of signal events n_s needs to get split-up into $n_{s,j}$ for the individual data samples. The distribution of n_s along the different data samples is based on the detector signal efficiency $\mathcal{Y}_{s,j}$ of each sample:

$$n_{s,j}(\vec{p}_s | \vec{x}_s) = n_s \frac{\mathcal{Y}_{s,j}(\vec{x}_s, \vec{p}_s)}{\sum_j \mathcal{Y}_{s,j}(\vec{x}_s, \vec{p}_s)}, \quad (8)$$

where the parameter \vec{x}_s denotes the location(s) of the source(s). The parameter vector \vec{p}_s contains additional source hypothesis parameters, for instance the spectral index γ .

By defining the sample weight factor

$$f_j(\vec{p}_s | \vec{x}_s) \equiv \frac{\mathcal{Y}_{s,j}(\vec{x}_s, \vec{p}_s)}{\sum_j \mathcal{Y}_{s,j}(\vec{x}_s, \vec{p}_s)} \quad (9)$$

with the property

$$\sum_{j=1}^J f_j = 1 \quad (10)$$

equation 8 reads

$$n_{s,j}(\vec{p}_s | \vec{x}_s) = n_s f_j(\vec{p}_s | \vec{x}_s) \quad (11)$$

The detector signal efficiency $\mathcal{Y}_{s,j}(\vec{p}_s, \vec{x}_s)$ depends on the signal model parameters \vec{p}_s and the source location(s) \vec{x}_s and can be calculated via the detector effective area and the source flux.

For a single point source the sample weight factor can be calculated via the effective area $A_{\text{eff},j}(E)|_{\vec{x}_s}$ at the source location of each data sample, and the differential flux $\frac{d\Phi_s}{dE}$ of the source.

$$f_j(\vec{p}_s | \vec{x}_s) = \frac{\int_0^\infty dE A_{\text{eff},j}(E)|_{\vec{x}_s} \frac{d\Phi_s}{dE}(E, \vec{p}_s)}{\sum_{i=1}^J \int_0^\infty dE A_{\text{eff},i}(E)|_{\vec{x}_s} \frac{d\Phi_s}{dE}(E, \vec{p}_s)} \quad (12)$$

Using the sample weight factor $f_j(\vec{p}_s | \vec{x}_s)$ the likelihood ratio of equation (7) with equation (5) can now be written as

$$\log \Lambda(n_s, \vec{p}_s) = \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{i=1}^N \log(1 + n_s f_j(\vec{p}_s | \vec{x}_s) \mathcal{X}_i(\vec{p}_s)) \quad (13)$$

For multiple point sources, i.e. a stacking of K point sources with positions $\vec{x}_{s,k}$, the sample weight factor of each single source needs to be taking into account. Thus, f_j can be written as the sum of the products of the sample weight factor $f_j(\vec{p}_s | \vec{x}_{s,k})$ for source k and the relative strength $f_k(\vec{p}_s | \vec{x}_{s,k})$ of the k th source in all data samples compared to all the other sources in all data samples.

$$f_j(\vec{p}_s | \vec{x}_s) = \sum_{k=1}^K f_j(\vec{p}_s | \vec{x}_{s,k}) f_k(\vec{p}_s | \vec{x}_{s,k}) \quad (14)$$

The relative strength of source k can be written as

$$f_k(\vec{p}_s | \vec{x}_{s,k}) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^J \int_0^\infty dE A_{\text{eff},i}(E) |_{\vec{x}_{s,k}} \frac{d\Phi_s}{dE}(E, \vec{p}_s)}{\sum_{\kappa=1}^K \sum_{i=1}^J \int_0^\infty dE A_{\text{eff},i}(E) |_{\vec{x}_{s,\kappa}} \frac{d\Phi_s}{dE}(E, \vec{p}_s)} \quad (15)$$

Combining equation 12 with $\vec{x}_s \equiv \vec{x}_{s,k}$ and 15 leads to the final expression for f_j for multiple sources:

$$f_j(\vec{p}_s | \vec{x}_s) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^K \int_0^\infty dE A_{\text{eff},j}(E) |_{\vec{x}_{s,k}} \frac{d\Phi_s}{dE}(E, \vec{p}_s)}{\sum_{i=1}^J \sum_{k=1}^K \int_0^\infty dE A_{\text{eff},i}(E) |_{\vec{x}_{s,k}} \frac{d\Phi_s}{dE}(E, \vec{p}_s)} \quad (16)$$

One should note that the numerator of equation (16) is one of the summands of the sum in the denominator, i.e. for $i = j$.

1.4 Optimizations

For point-source like signal hypothesis most of the events in the data sample will be far away from the hypothesised source, hence, the value of the signal PDF \mathcal{S}_i will be zero or very close to zero. By selecting only the signal-contributing N' events from the sample, the likelihood ratio $\log \Lambda$ reads

$$\log \Lambda = \log \Lambda_{N'} + (N - N') \log(1 - \frac{n_s}{N}) \quad (17)$$

The used minimizer (L-BFG-S) operates most stable and fast when provided with gradients of the likelihood function.

TODO: Derive the gradients of the LH function.

2 Detector Signal Efficiency

The detector signal efficiency $\mathcal{Y}_{s,j}(\vec{x}_{s,k}, \vec{p}_s)$ of a data sample j for a source k is defined as the integral over the energy of the product of the detector effective

area and the differential flux $\frac{d\Phi}{dE}$ of the source:

$$\mathcal{V}_{s,j}(\vec{x}_s, \vec{p}_s) \equiv \int_0^\infty dE A_{\text{eff},j}(E)|_{\vec{x}_s,k} \frac{d\Phi}{dE}(E, \vec{p}_s) T_{\text{live},j} \quad (18)$$

It is the mean number of signal events expected from a source with source parameters \vec{p}_s at position \vec{x}_s . In the most-general case, the source position \vec{x}_s consists of three quantities: right-ascention, declination, and observation time, i.e. $\vec{x}_s = (\alpha_s, \delta_s, t_{\text{obs}})$.

2.1 Effective Area

In Skylab the effective area $A_{\text{eff},j}$ of a data sample j is not calculated separately in order to avoid binning effects. However, the effective area can be calculated using the monte-carlo weights `mcweight`¹ of the simulation events. The monte-carlo weights have the unit GeV cm² sr. Using the monte-carlo weight, $w_{m,j}$, of the m th event of data sample j the effective area is given by the sum over the event weights divided by the solid angle and the energy range ΔE of the summed selected events:

$$A_{\text{eff},j}(E) = \frac{\sum_{m=1}^M w_{m,j}}{\Omega \Delta E} \quad (19)$$

2.2 The DetSigEff Class

`DetSigEff` provides a detector signal efficiency class to compute the integral given in equation (18). The detector signal efficiency depends on the flux model and its source parameters, which might change during the likelihood maximization process. It is also dependent on the detector effective area, hence detector dependent. Thus, `DetSigEff` must be provided with a detector signal efficiency implementation method derived from the `DetSigEffImplMethod` class.

2.2.1 The DetSigEffImplMethod Class

`DetSigEffImplMethod` defines the interface between the detector signal efficiency implementation method and the `DetSigEff` class.

Table 1 lists all available IceCube specific detector signal efficiency implementation methods and their description.

3 Implemented Likelihood Models

This section describes the implemented likelihood models.

¹In IceCube known as “OneWeight”, but which already includes the number of used MC files.

Table 1: IceCube specific detector signal efficiency implementation methods.

I3FixedFluxDetSigEff	<p>Detector signal efficiency implementation method for a fixed flux model, which might contain flux parameters, but which are not fit in the likelihood maximization process. This implementation assumes that the detector effective area depends solely on the declination of the source. This method creates a spline function of given order in logarithmic space for the $\sin(\delta)$-dependent effective area.</p> <p>The constructor of this implementation method requires a $\sin(\delta)$ binning definition for the monte-carlo events and the order of the spline function.</p>
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3.1 Time Dependent Point-Source Flare

The `TimeDepPSFlareLHModel` class provides the likelihood model for searching for a point source with unknown time-dependence. The search is based on the formulism described in [1].

The model utilizes a two-component likelihood function with signal and background events.

References

- [1] Jim Braun, Mike Baker, Jon Dumm, Chad Finley, Albrecht Karle, Teresa Montaruli. Time-Dependent Point Source Search Methods in High Energy Neutrino Astronomy. *Astropart.Phys.*, 33:175–181, 2010.