

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

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

2.1 Effective Area

In Skylab the effective area $A_{\text{eff},j}$ of a data sample is not calculated separately in order to avoid binning effect. The effective area is 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 , of the m th event the effective area is given by

3 Implemented Likelihood Models

This section describes the implemented likelihood models.

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.

¹In IceCube known as “OneWeight”.