

Finding New Pulsars Using Machine Learning

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Abstract

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1 Introduction

1.1 Aim

This project consists of three aims:

- i. Investigate the use of Machine Learning (ML) techniques in surveying pulsars;
- ii. Create a training dataset for a Machine Learning algorithm to find pulsars in data obtained by the Murchison Widefield Array (MWA); and
- iii. Evaluate the utility of the Machine Learning algorithm used by the LOFAR Telescope for the Murchison Widefield Array, and adjust the algorithm as necessary to achieve optimum pulsar candidate generation.

1.2 Structure of this Report

In this report, I will first explain in *Section 1.3* how Pulsars, Radio Astronomy, and Machine learning work, and then explain what has been dubbed the “Candidate Selection Problem” (Lyon et al. 2016) and why Machine Learning is necessary in completing future pulsar surveys.

In *Section 2* I discuss the methods undertaken in: (i) developing the machine learning training dataset for the Murchison Widefield Array algorithm, and (ii) evaluating the machine learning algorithm used by the LOFAR surveys for use with the Murchison Widefield Array.

In *Section 3* I analyse the results and findings obtained by the methods described in *Section 2*, and in *Section 4* I will discuss (i) the efficacy of the training datasets, and (ii) the usefulness of the LOFAR machine learning algorithm with the Murchison Widefield Array and why changes were made to the algorithm.

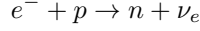
This report will end with my final conclusions on the use of machine learning in discovering new pulsars (*Section 5*), and my recommendations to future researchers undertaking a similar project (*Section 6*).

1.3 Background Theory

To answer the question of “what is a pulsar?” we must first investigate the evolution and death of stars.

A star can form when a cloud of hydrogen gas in the interstellar medium (ISM) collects mass over millions of years; as the mass of the gas cloud increases, its gravitational pull to gather more mass also increases (Maoz 2016). This proto-star will eventually reach a critical mass in which the pressure of gravity within the gas causes enough friction between the gas particles to generate the required heat (thermal pressure) to begin fusing the hydrogen atoms into helium (Maoz 2016). This marks the beginning of the star’s main sequence lifetime. Once the star has fused all of the available hydrogen gas in its core, the star will begin fusing helium into carbon and its outer envelope will expand, moving

the star into its "red-giant" phase (Maoz 2016). If the initial mass of the star was greater than 8 times the mass of the Sun (i.e. $8M_{\odot}$), the star will continue to fuse the elements in its core until it reaches a core of iron. At this point phenomena called nuclear photodisintegration and neutronization occurs, the latter of which causes electrons and photons to combine and form neutrons and anti-neutrinos (Maoz 2016). Neutronization can be shown as:



This process removes the electron degeneracy pressure in the core of the star (a pressure which balances the star's gravitational pressure), causing the star to collapse under its own gravity in a timeframe of 0.1 seconds (Maoz 2016). The gravitational collapse stops once the gravitational pressure of the star is balanced by the neutron degeneracy pressure, i.e. the pressure from pushing neutrons together. The remaining star is incredibly dense, with a mass of approximately $1.4M_{\odot}$ and a radius of around 11km. This is called a neutron star (Maoz 2016).

Prior to the collapse of the star, we can imagine the star to be rotating at an angular velocity of ω_1 . We know from the conservation of angular momentum that when the radius of a rotating object decreases, the angular velocity will increase (a spinning ice skater pulling their arms in close increases the speed of their spinning). We can therefore show that the angular velocity of the star after the gravitational collapse, ω_2 , is much greater than the prior angular velocity:

$$L_1 = L_2$$

where L is the angular momentum, $L_1 = I_1\omega_1$ and $L_2 = I_2\omega_2$. Therefore:

$$I_1\omega_1 = I_2\omega_2$$

$$\omega_2 = \frac{I_1}{I_2}\omega_1$$

Assuming the star is a sphere, its moment of inertia, I is:

$$I = \frac{2}{5}MR^2$$

where M is the mass of the star and R is the radius of the star. We can thus show:

$$\omega_2 = \frac{\frac{2}{5}MR_1^2}{\frac{2}{5}MR_2^2}\omega_1$$

$$\omega_2 = \left(\frac{R_1}{R_2}\right)^2 \omega_1$$

where $R_1 \gg R_2$. We are left with a neutron star with a very large angular velocity. Analogous to the angular velocity of the star, the magnetic field of

the star is also amplified. The ionised gas in the iron core of the star, which generates a magnetic field, is compressed by the gravitational collapse, forcing the flux of the magnetic field to be amplified such that the field strength is approximately 10^{10} times stronger in the neutron star compared to during the star's main sequence lifetime (Maoz 2016).

If the rotation of the neutron star is misaligned with the axis of the magnetic field by an angle θ , the spinning magnetic dipole will radiate electromagnetic waves (Maoz 2016). As the neutron star rotates, the radiated electromagnetic waves will periodically sweep across the line of sight of an observer, creating a pulse of light. See Figure 1. We can therefore define a pulsar as a rapidly rotating neutron star that appears to periodically emit electromagnetic waves (Maoz 2016; Lorimer and Kramer 2005; Swainston 2020).

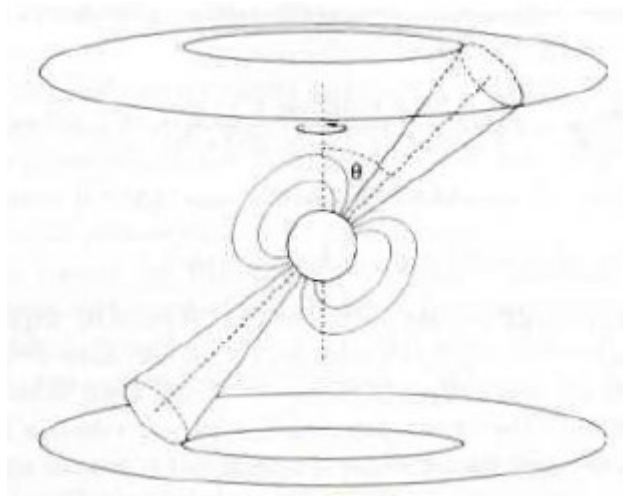


Figure 1: A pulsar (Maoz 2016).

While some pulsars, like the Crab Pulsar (Maoz 2016), emit electromagnetic waves in the visible spectrum and can therefore be detected by an optical telescope, the majority of pulsar emission is invisible to the human eye and requires a radio telescope to be detected.

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- 1.3.2 What is multi-path scattering?
- 1.3.3 What is a Pulsar Dispersion Measure?
- 1.3.4 What is a Radio Telescope and how do they work?
- 1.3.5 What is the Murchison Widefield Array?
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- 1.3.15 What is Machine Learning?
- 1.3.16 How does Machine Learning work?
- 1.3.17 Why do we need to use Machine Learning in finding new Pulsars?
- 1.3.18 Why is this particular Machine Learning Classifier used?

2 Methods

2.1 Developing the Machine Learning Training Dataset

Before a machine learning algorithm can make predictions and classify candidate data as pulsar or non-pulsar, it must first build a classification model from a training dataset which contains similar data with known positive and negative classifications (Tan et al. 2017; Lyon et al. 2016). For the use case of pulsar classification, the training dataset must contain examples of data from both pulsars and from non-pulsars so that the algorithm can learn how to distinguish between the two classes.

To maximise the accuracy of the machine learning algorithm, the input data (including the training dataset) must be composed of a common group of features that can be determined for each candidate that maximises the differences between a pulsar and a non-pulsar. The candidate features used by Tan et al. 2017 to maximise the differences between pulsar and non-pulsar candidates are:

$$Prof_{\mu}, Prof_{\sigma}, Prof_S, Prof_k \quad (1)$$

$$DM_{\mu}, DM_{\sigma}, DM_S, DM_k, DM_{\mu'}, DM_{\sigma'}, DM_{|S'|}, DM_{k'} \quad (2)$$

$$Subband_{\mu}, Subband_{\sigma}, Subband_S, Subband_k \quad (3)$$

$$Subint_{\mu}, Subint_{\sigma}, Subint_S, Subint_k \quad (4)$$

Where features are calculated from the: (1) Integrated Pulsar Profile, (2) the Dispersion Measure – Signal-to-Noise Ratio Curve (DM-S/N), (3) the correlation coefficients between each sub-band and the integrated pulsar profile, and from the (4) correlation coefficients between each sub-integration and the integrated pulsar profile. See *Appendix 2A* for formulae to calculate each feature.

To extract the 20 above features from each classification candidate, we can use the software **PulsarFeatureLab** (Lyon et al. 2016).

2.1.1 Pulsar Candidate Feature Extraction

The software tool **PulsarFeatureLab** can be used to consume pulsar candidate files of the PRESTO Prepfold PFD filetype and output the 20 above features for each candidate into a single file of WEKA Data Mining ARFF filetype (Lyon et al. 2016).

To create a closed software environment in which the dependencies of the **PulsarFeatureLab** software are unaffected by the host operating system, a containerised virtual operating system can be created using the free software Docker (<https://docker.com>).

First a directory to store the program is created by completing the following commands in a UNIX terminal:


```
$ mkdir ~/pulsars  
$ cd ~/pulsars
```

2.2 Evaluating the LOTAAS Machine Learning Algorithm for use with the MWA

3 Results

3.1 Pulsar Candidate Training Dataset

3.2 Radio Frequency Interference Training Dataset

3.3 Noise Training Dataset

3.4 Output from Algorithm with MWA Data

3.5 Adaptations to the Machine Learning Algorithm

4 Discussion

- 4.1 How effective are the training datasets?
- 4.2 Why didn't the LOFAR Machine Learning Algorithm work with the MWA?
- 4.3 What changes to the algorithm were necessary for it to successfully classify Pulsars from the MWA?

- 5 Conclusions
- 6 Recommendations

7 References

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8 Appendices

8.1 Pulsar Feature Lab

8.2 Pulsar Classifier