

Noise Power Distribution

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- Flux measurements are **always** accompanied by noise.
- The light curve can be divided into its independent components: the deterministic signal **S** and the noise **N**. For an individual time bin, the total number of counts is composed of the sum of the signal and the noise, i.e., $x_k = s_k + n_k$.
- **Noise powers follow a chi-squared distribution with 2 dof:**
 - $P_j \propto A_j^2 + B_j^2$, where $A_j = \sum_k x_k \cos \omega_j t_k$ and $B_j = \sum_k x_k \sin \omega_j t_k$; $k = 0, \dots, N - 1$
 - So, each A_j and each B_j is a linear combination of the x_k . Hence if the x_k are normally distributed then A_j and B_j are as well $\rightarrow P_j \propto \chi^2$ with 2 dof by definition.
 - If x_k follow some other distribution (e.g. Poisson) then the central limit theorem ensures that A_j and B_j are still approximately normal (for large N) $\rightarrow P_j$ are still approximately χ^2 with 2 dof.
 - Exact expressions depend on the normalization of the P_j .

Power Spectrum – Leahy Normalization

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- We will adopt the **Leahy** et al. (1983) normalization:

$$P_j \equiv \frac{2}{N_{tot}} |a_j|^2 \quad j = 0, \dots, \frac{N}{2}; \quad \text{where } N_{tot} = N_{ph} = \sum_k x_k = a_0$$

- The Leahy normalization is chosen such that if the x_k are Poisson distributed, then the P_j exactly follow the chi-squared distribution with 2 dof, χ^2 .
- For the Poisson process, the variance (square of the standard deviation) is equal to the number of counts.

Properties of Leahy normalized PDS

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- Variance in the real time series x_k :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(x_k) &\equiv \sum_k (x_k - \bar{x})^2 = \sum_k x_k^2 - \frac{1}{N} \left(\sum_k x_k \right)^2 = \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_j |a_j|^2 - \frac{1}{N} a_0^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\substack{j=-N/2 \\ j \neq 0}}^{N/2-1} |a_j|^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} x_k^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=-N/2}^{N/2-1} |a_j|^2$$

Parseval's theorem

Leahy normalization

$$\text{Var}(x_k) = \frac{N_{tot}}{N} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{N/2-1} P_j + \frac{1}{2} P_{N/2} \right)$$

$$P_j \equiv \frac{2}{N_{tot}} |a_j|^2 \quad j = 0, \dots, N/2$$

variance is sum of powers!

The dimension of P_j is the same as x_k and a_j : $[P_j] = [a_j] = [x_k]$

$$P_j \propto |a_j|^2 / a_0$$

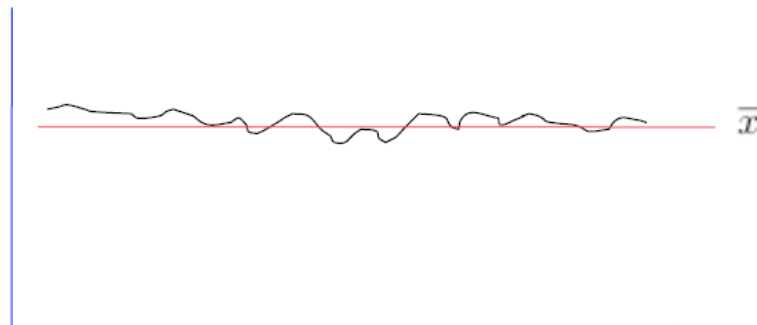
Properties of Leahy normalized PDS

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Often, the variance is expressed in terms of Fractional root-mean-square (rms) amplitude of a signal in a time series x_k :

$$r \equiv \frac{\sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \text{Var}(x_k)}}{\bar{x}} = \frac{N}{N_{tot}} \sqrt{\frac{N_{tot}}{N^2} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{N/2-1} P_j + \frac{1}{2} P_{N/2} \right)} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N_{tot}} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{N/2-1} P_j + \frac{1}{2} P_{N/2} \right)}$$

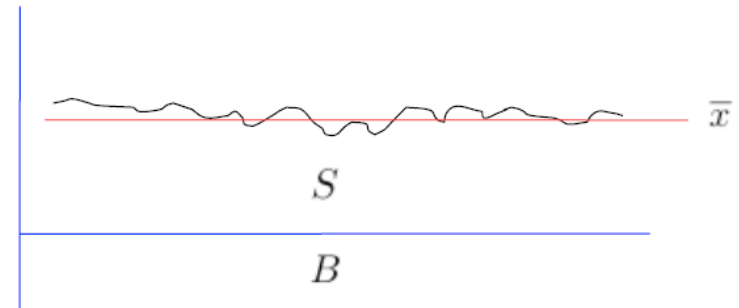
r is dimensionless and often expressed in % (percentage rms variation).



Properties of Leahy normalized PDS

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- "rms normalized" power density: $q(v_j) \equiv TP_j/N_{ph}$
physical unit of $q(v_j)$ is (rms/mean)²/Hz
- "Source" fractional rms amplitude: If the x_k are the sum of source and background: $x_k = b_k + s_k$, then the rms amplitude as a fraction of just the s_k :
$$r_s = r \frac{B+S}{S},$$
where B and S are sums of the b_k and s_k , so $B+S = \sum_k x_k = N_{ph}$



- "Source rms normalized" power density ("Miyamoto" normalization):

$$q_s \equiv q \left(\frac{B+S}{S} \right)^2 = TP_j \frac{B+S}{S^2}$$

the same unit as q : (rms/mean)²/Hz

Requires a model or a measurement of the background count rate

Leahy normalization of the PDS of a sinusoid

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The power spectrum of a sinusoid $A \sin(2\pi\nu_{\text{sine}}t_k + \phi)$:
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$$|a_j|^2 = \frac{1}{4}A^2N^2 \left(\frac{\sin \pi x}{\pi x}\right)^2 \left[\left(\frac{\pi x/N}{\sin \pi x/N}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\pi x/N}{\sin [\pi(2j+x)/N]}\right)^2 + \right. \\ \left. + 2 \left(\frac{\pi x/N}{\sin \pi x/N}\right) \left(\frac{\pi x/N}{\sin [\pi(2j+x)/N]}\right) \cos [(N-1)(2\pi(j+x)/N) + 2\phi] \right] \\ x = (\nu_{\text{sine}} - \nu_j)T$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{4}A^2N^2 \left(\frac{\sin \pi x}{\pi x}\right)^2 \quad x/N \ll 1 \text{ and } 0 \ll j/N \ll \frac{1}{2}$$

Leahy
normalization

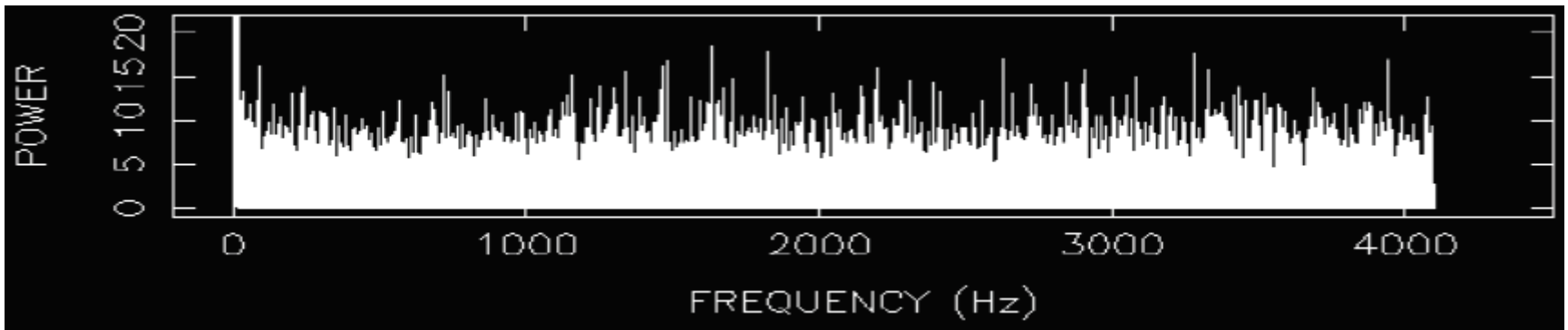
$$P_j \equiv \frac{2}{N_{\text{tot}}} |a_j|^2 \quad j = 0, \dots, N/2$$

Then, for $x=0$, $P_{j, \text{sine}} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{N^2}{N_{\text{tot}}} A^2$

Properties of Leahy normalized PDS

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- The Leahy normalization is chosen such that if the x_k are Poisson distributed, then the P_j exactly follow the chi-squared distribution with 2 dof, χ^2 .
- Properties of this distribution:
 - The mean power is 2;
 - the standard deviation is 2!
- So, the power spectrum is very noisy. This does not improve with:
 - longer observation — you just get more powers
 - broader time bins — you just get a lower ν_{Ny}



Statistics of Power Spectra

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- Flux measurements are always accompanied by noise.
- The light curve can be divided into its independent components: the deterministic signal S and the noise N . For an individual time bin, the total number of counts is composed of the sum of the **signal** and the noise, i.e., $\mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{s}_k + \mathbf{n}_k$.
- Examples of **deterministic signals**:
 - a non-periodic deterministic variation, such as a nova light curve;
 - A periodic variation, such as an eclipsing binary or a RR Lyr light curve;
 - a multiply periodic variation, such as a spectroscopic triple system;
 - a modulated periodic variation where either the amplitude, frequency, or phase may vary with time - for example a pulsating system in a binary orbit.

Statistics of Power Spectra

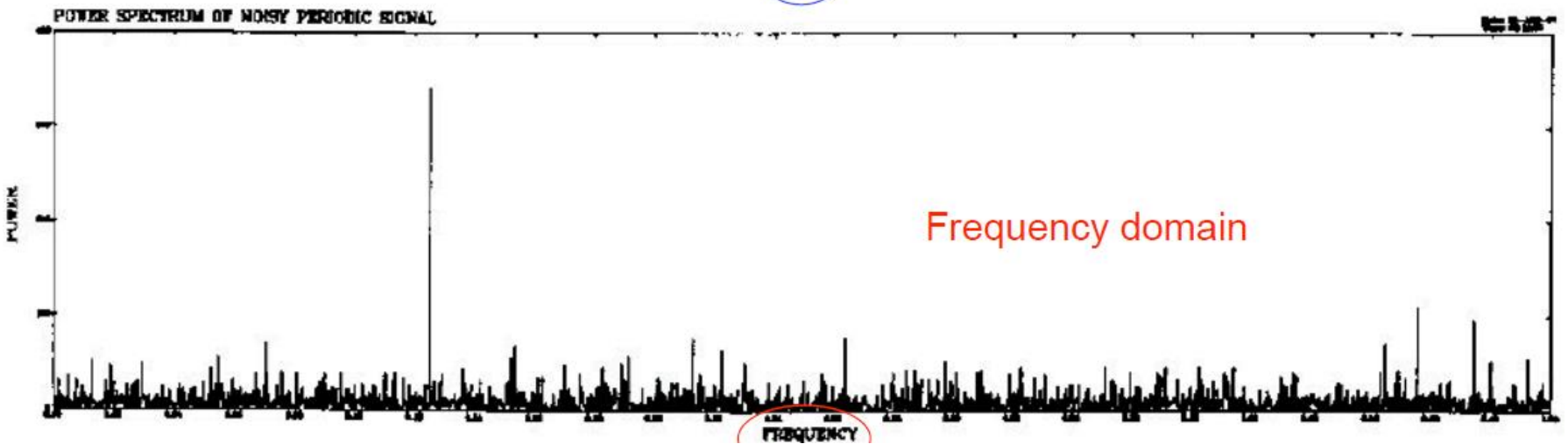
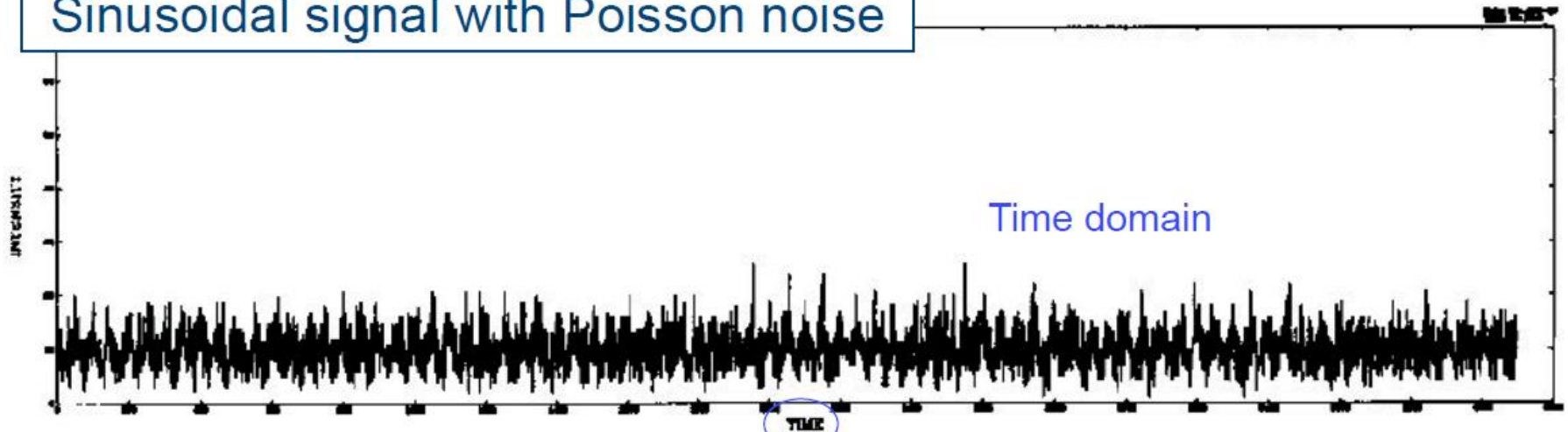
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- 'Noise' (= random aka **stochastic processes**) in the light curve produces peaks and broad components in the power spectrum.
- Examples of noise:
 - Counting statistics noise (Poisson noise) -> white noise;
 - Poisson noise modified by instrumental effects (e.g. dead-time) and other instrumental noise;
 - Noise that is (stochastic) intrinsic source variability: QPO, band limited noise, red noise, etc.
- All these can occur at the same time, possibly together with deterministic signals.
- They can be the **background** against which you are trying to detect something else
- Or they can be the **signal** you are trying to detect.

Examples of power spectra: Periodic signal

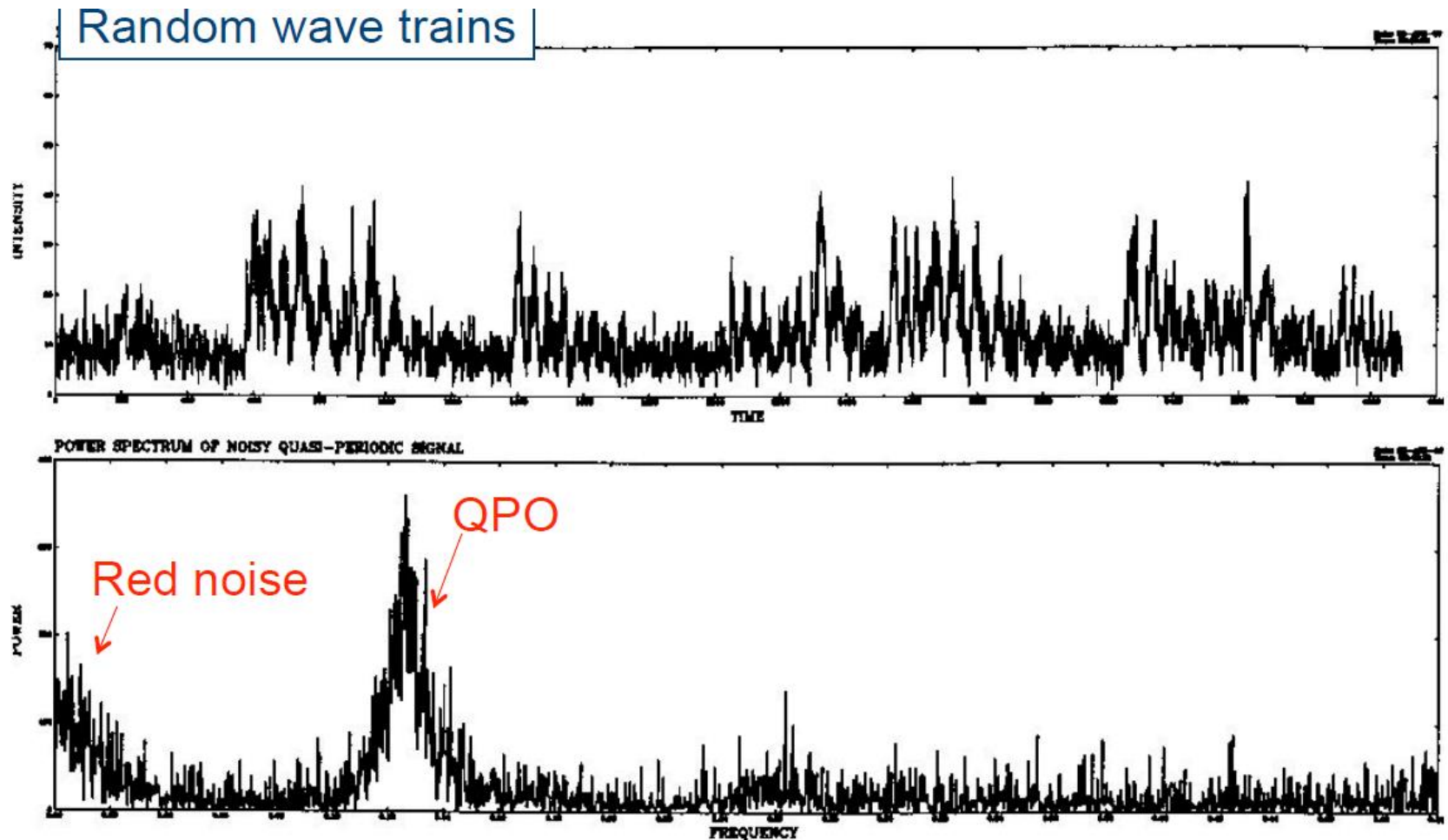
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Sinusoidal signal with Poisson noise



Examples of power spectra: QPO and red noise

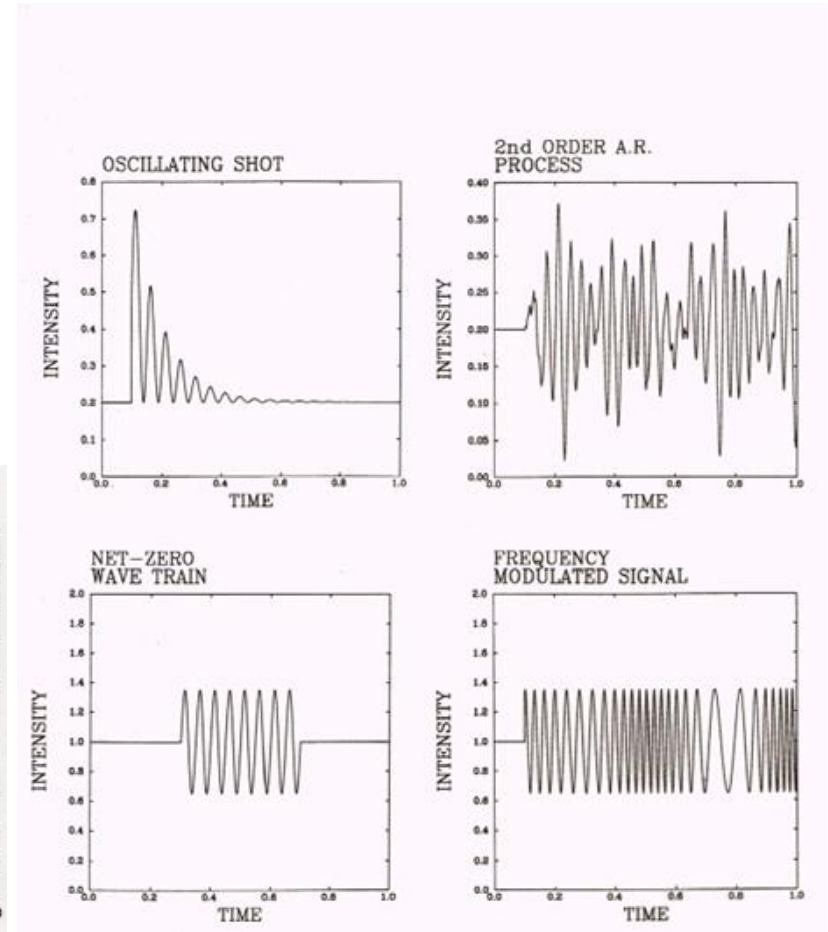
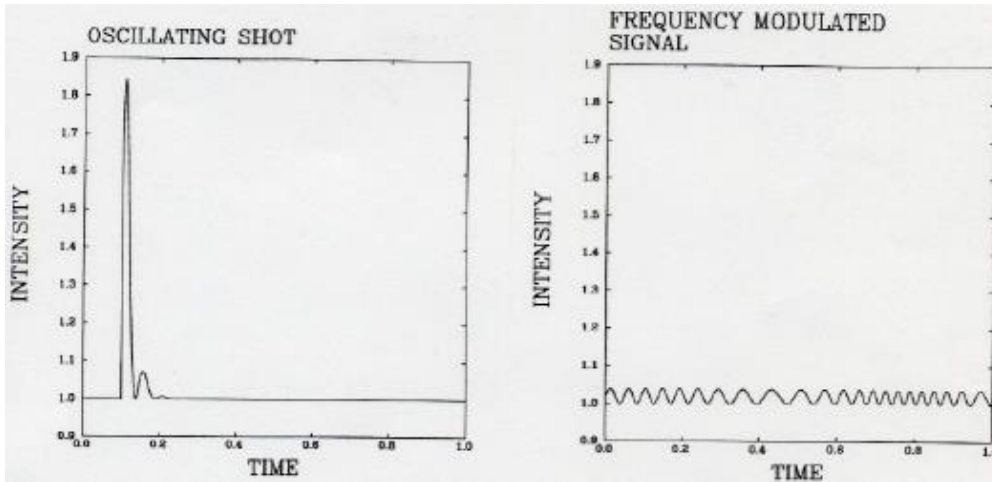
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Various possible QPO signals

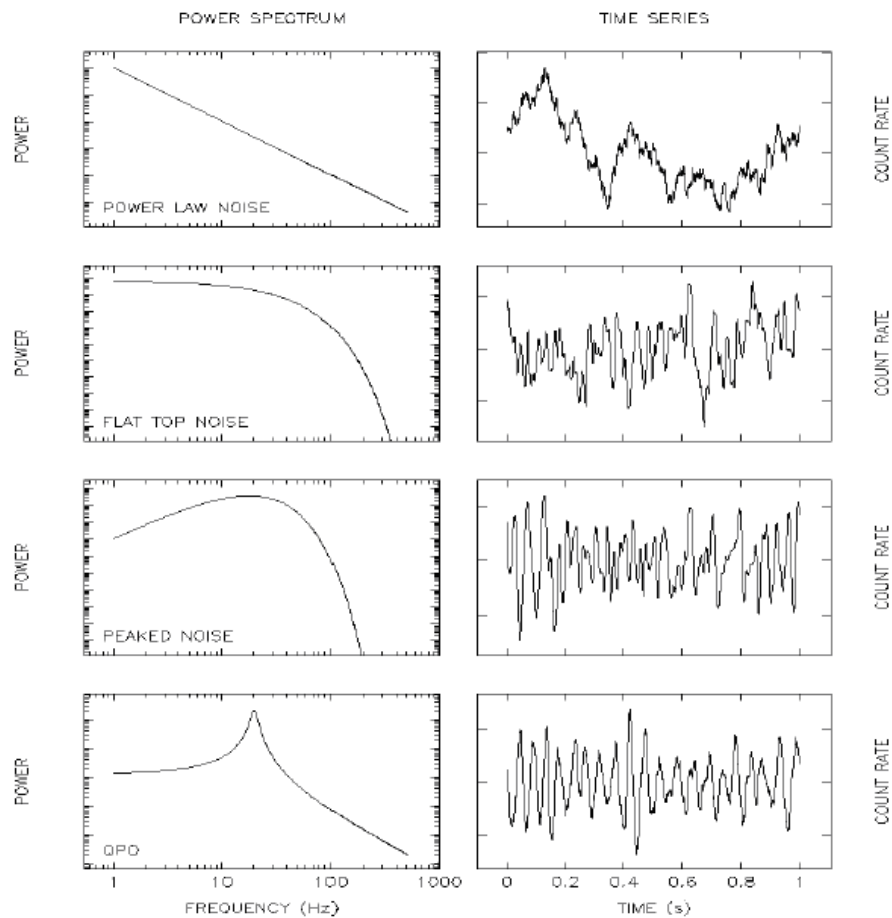
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Various possible time-domain signals can underlay the QPO peak we see in frequency domain



Statistics of Power Spectra

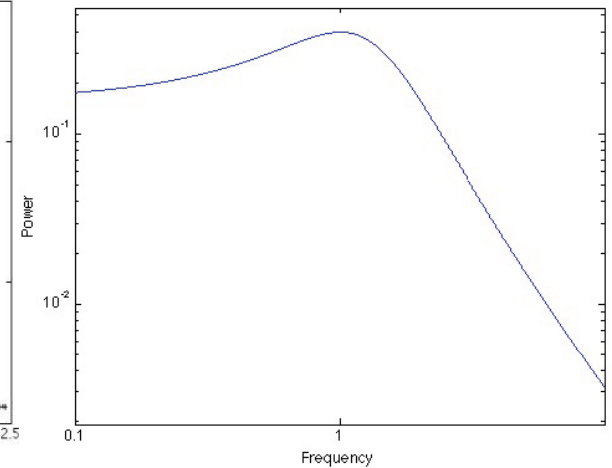
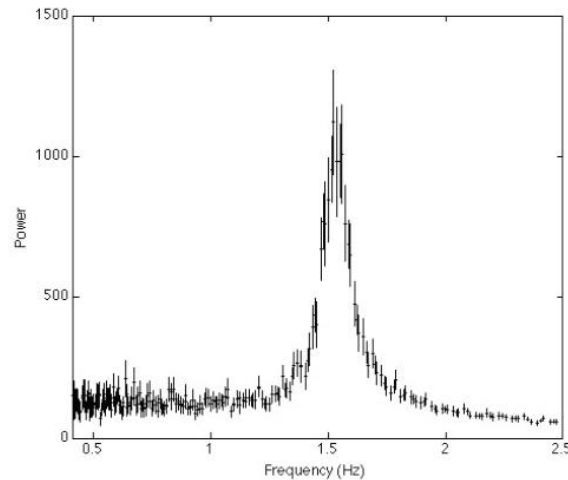
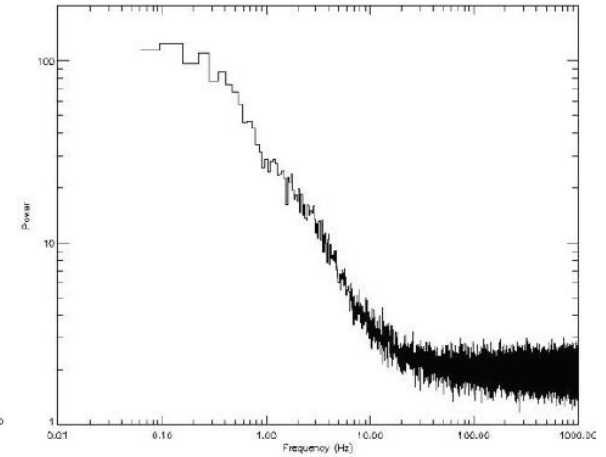
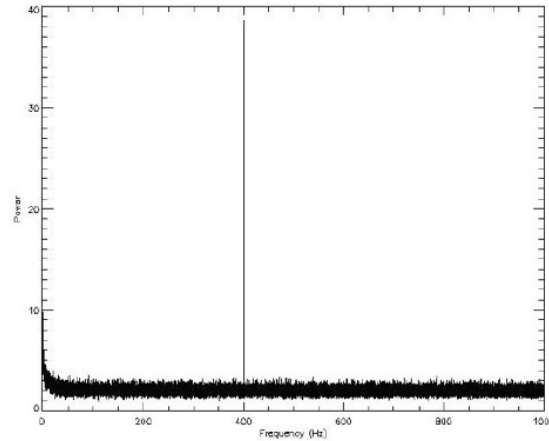
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Main types of signals

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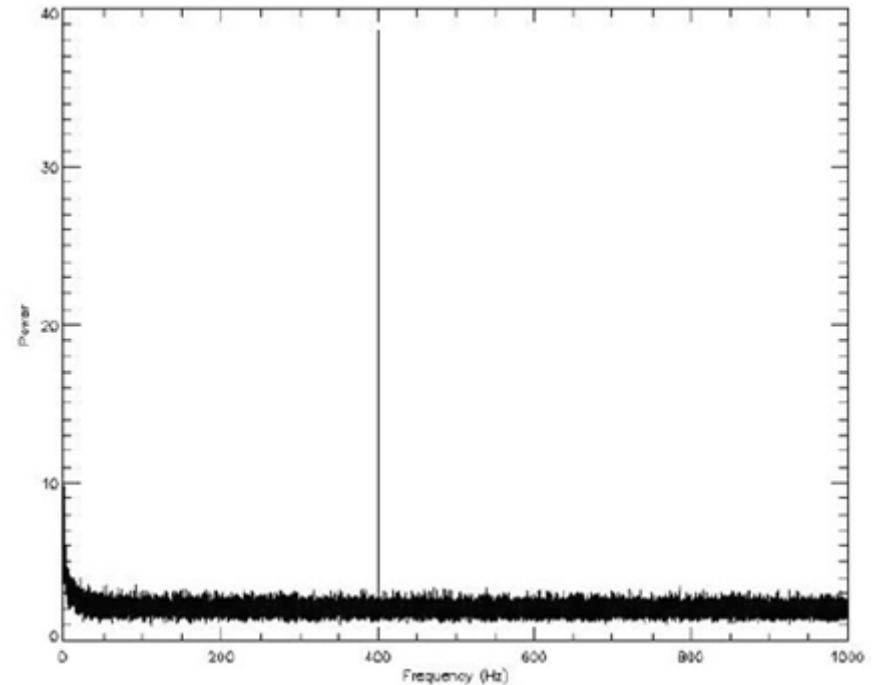
- Coherent pulsation
- Broad-band noise
- Broad peak (QPO)
- Peaked-noise



Main types of signals

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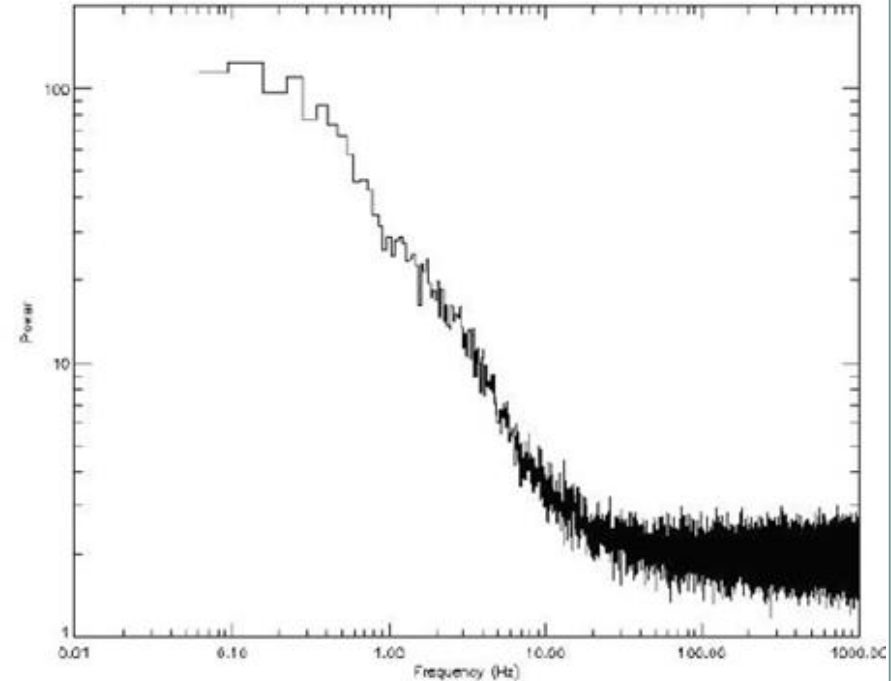
- **Coherent pulsation**
- Broad-band noise
- Broad peak (QPO)
- Peaked-noise



Main types of signals

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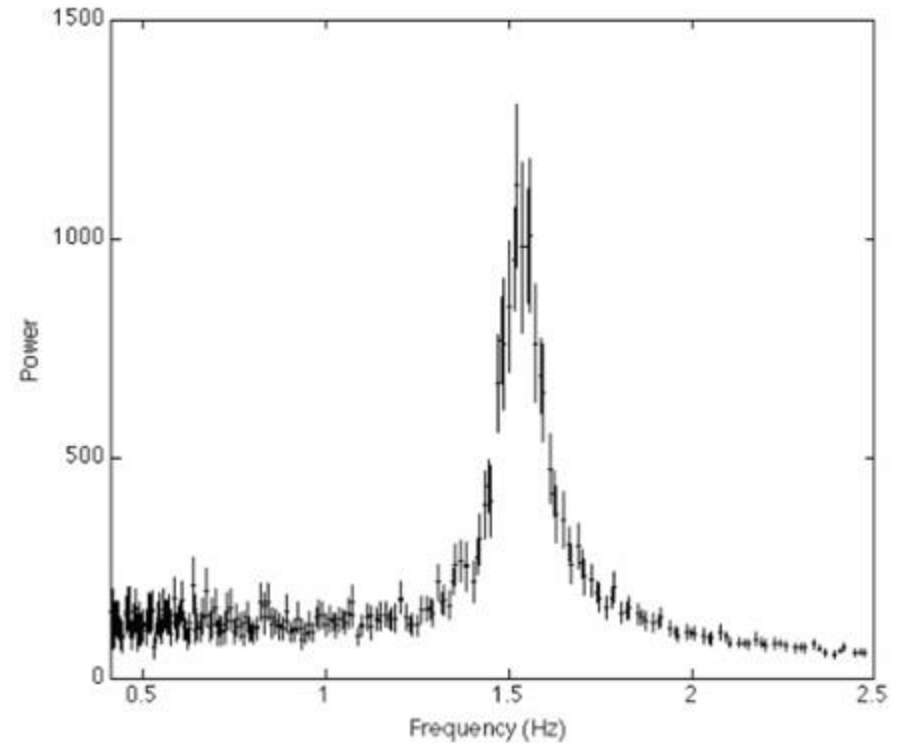
- Coherent pulsation
- **Broad-band noise**
- Broad peak (QPO)
- Peaked-noise



Main types of signals

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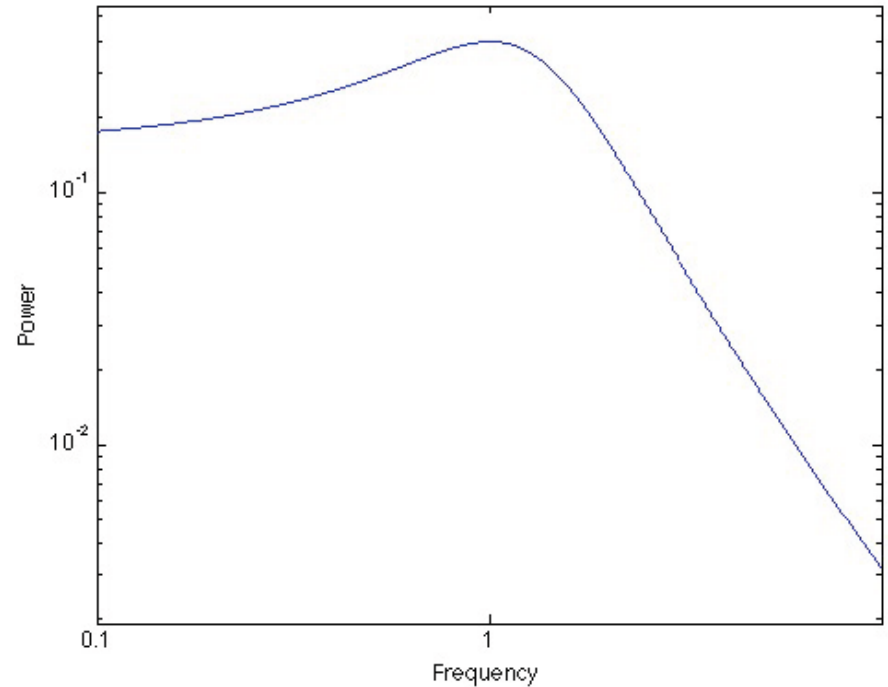
- Coherent pulsation
- Broad-band noise
- **Broad peak (QPO)**
- Peaked-noise



Main types of signals

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- Coherent pulsation
- Broad-band noise
- Broad peak (QPO)
- **Peaked-noise**



Coherent Signals

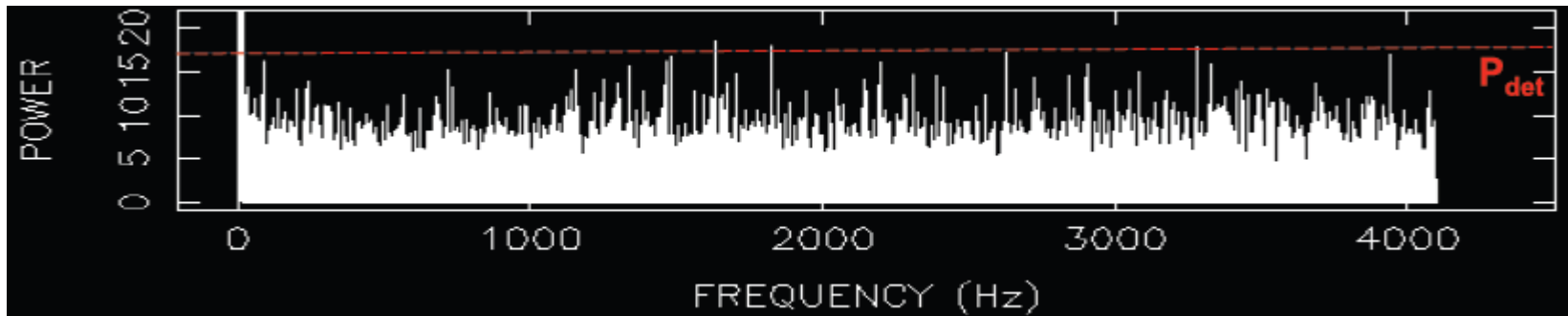
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- Much analysis involves “coherent” signals, i.e. periodic signals whose phase is constant over the relevant duration
 - $Q = \nu/\Delta\nu \gg 1000$
- Examples:
 - Pulses from rotating pulsars;
 - Orbital modulation or eclipses;
 - Precession periods.

Statistics of Power Spectra

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- How to determine the significance of peaks found in power spectra? How big must a power be to constitute a significant excess over the noise?
- Let's define ε as the probability that a noise fluctuation exceeds P_{det} . The $(1 - \varepsilon)$ confidence detection level P_{det} is a level that has a false alarm probability of ε . If there is just noise, $\text{Prob}(P_j > P_{det}) = \varepsilon$. We want ε to be small, e.g., $\varepsilon = 1\%$ for 99% confidence.
- If $P_j > P_{det}$ then with 99% confidence there is something else than just noise, a source signal.



Statistics of Power Spectra

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- To determine P_{det} , we need to know **the noise power distribution**.
- **Warning:** Because in High-Energy Astrophysics we are counting individual photons, the relevant statistics are **Poisson**, not **Gaussian**.
- The Leahy normalization is chosen such that if the x_k are **Poisson** distributed, then the P_j exactly follow the **chi-squared distribution** with 2 degrees of freedom, χ^2 . This is actually **an exponential distribution**:

$$\varepsilon = Prob_{single}(P_j > P_{det}) = e^{-P_{det}/2} \longrightarrow P_{det} = -2 \ln \varepsilon$$

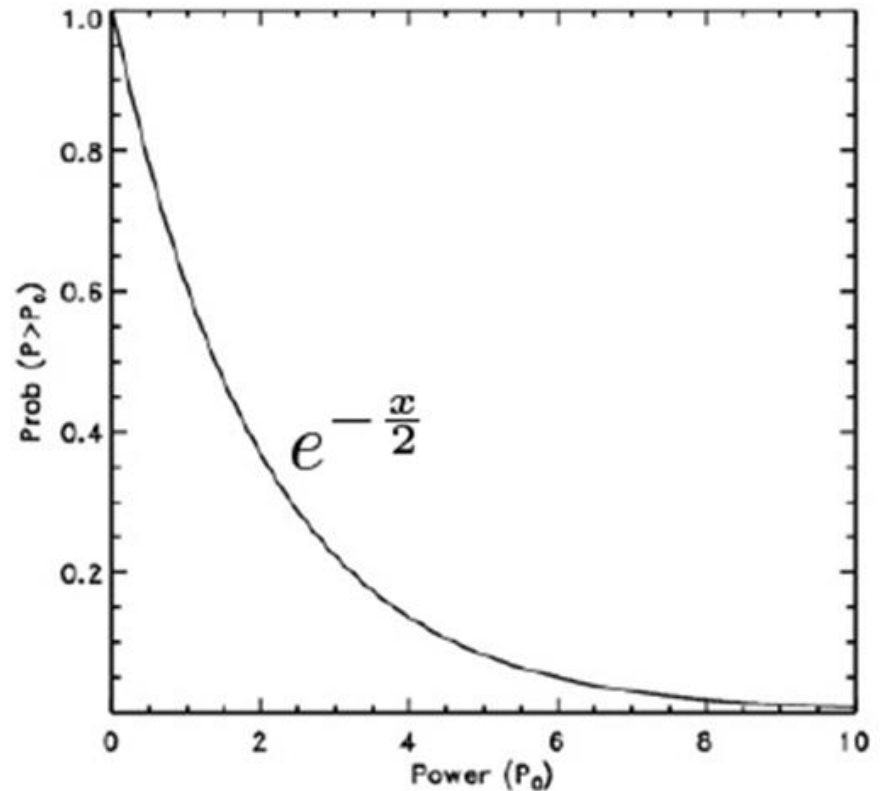
- Properties of this distribution: $\langle P_{noise} \rangle = 2$; $Var(P_{noise}) = 4$

Statistics of Power Spectra

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- Examples:
 - $\varepsilon=1\%$ corresponds to $P_{det}=9.2$;
 - a power of 40 has a probability of $e^{-40/2}=2\times 10^{-9}$ of being noise.
- Since a large number of independent frequencies N_{trial} are examined, the detection threshold has to be defined as that power that has an ε (small) probability to be exceeded in one frequency bin out of the N_{trial} examined.
 - One should divide ε by the number of trials.

$$\varepsilon = N_{trial} e^{-P_{det}/2}$$



Statistics of Power Spectra

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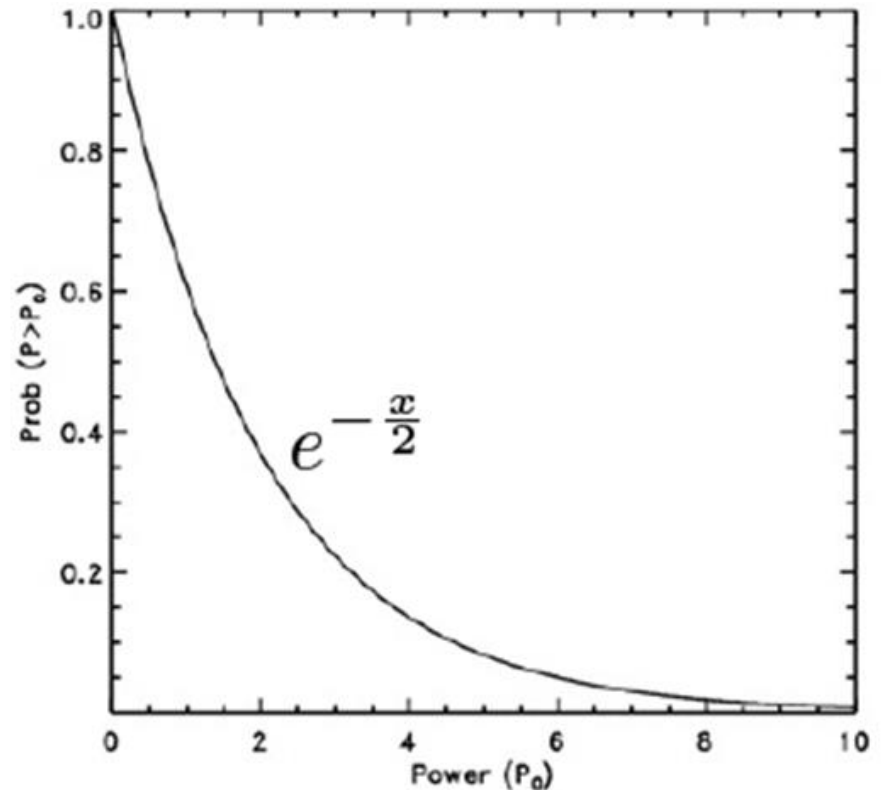
Important! The number of trial powers N_{trial} over which the search has been carried out:

N_{trial} = to the powers in the PSD if **all the Fourier frequencies** are considered;

$N_{\text{trial}} <$ than the powers in the PSD if a smaller range of frequencies has been considered.

- Examples (cont.): $N_{\text{trial}}=10\ 000$
 - $\epsilon=1\%$ corresponds to $P_{\text{det}}=27.6$;
 - a power of 40 has a probability of $e^{-40/2}=2\times 10^{-5}$ of being noise.

Still significant!!



Rebinning and Averaging

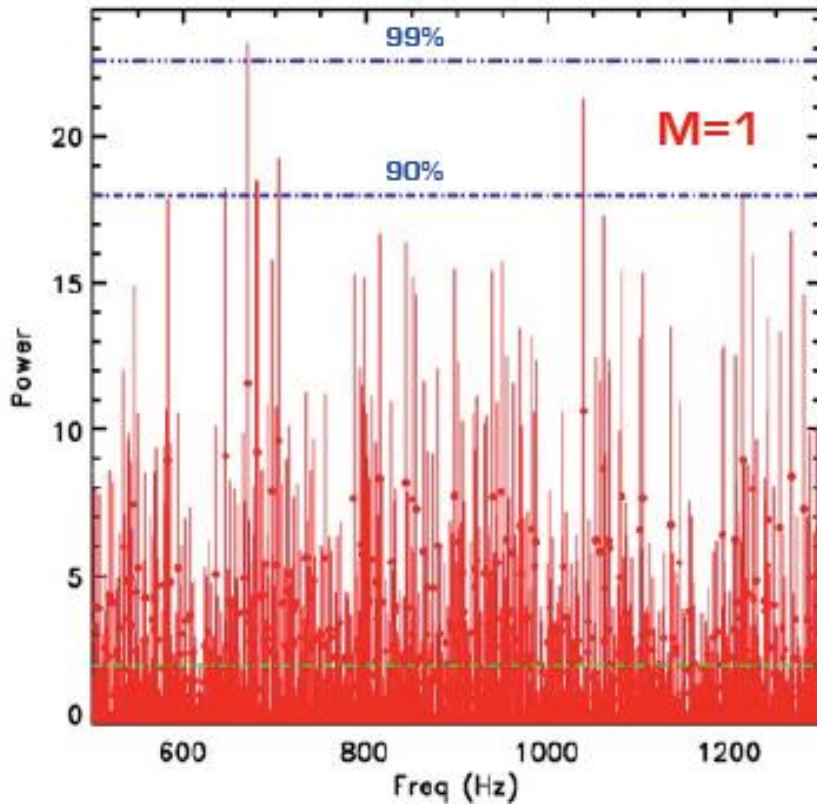
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- The power spectrum is very noisy. Smoothing methods:
 - Average several power spectra of subsegments of the time series;
 - Average adjacent bins in a power spectrum: rebinning;
 - Windowing is also possible.
- Averaged power distribution:
 - Individual P_j follow the chi-squared distribution with 2 dof.
 - Additive property of χ^2 distribution: sum of M powers is distributed as χ^2_{2M}
- M – the number of the time series, W – Frequency rebinning factor:
 $\langle P_{\text{noise}} \rangle = 2$; $\text{Var}(P_{\text{noise}}) = 4/MW$ (the number of trials decreases)
- **Central limit theorem:**
for large MW the distribution of $\overline{P_{WM}}$ tends to normal (Gaussian), with mean 2 and standard deviation $2/\sqrt{MW}$

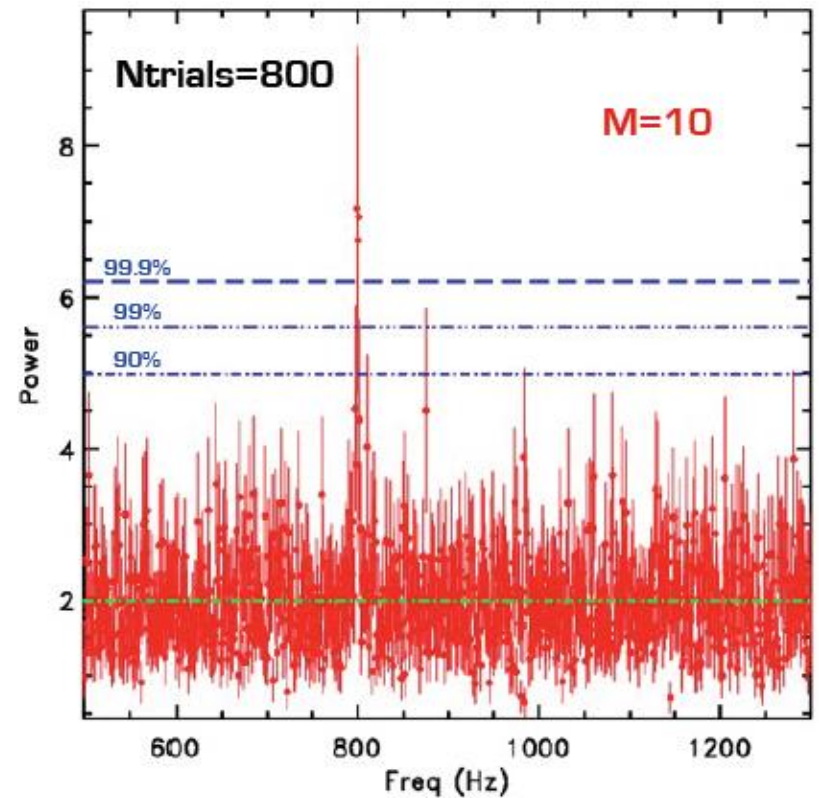
Signal Detection

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M=1,
Noisy PDS



M=10,
A signal is clearly detected



A note about rebinning

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- **Coherent peak:** narrow power distribution – the longer the observation span, the better. The signal power to decrease by $1/MW$.
Is it worth to average or rebin? No.
 - The signal power decreases faster than the threshold power when averaging/rebinning;
 - If the frequency varies (orbital motion) is even worse as you average signal with noise.
- **Broad peak:** broad power distribution - length of observation not crucial - rebinning helps.

Signal detection optimization

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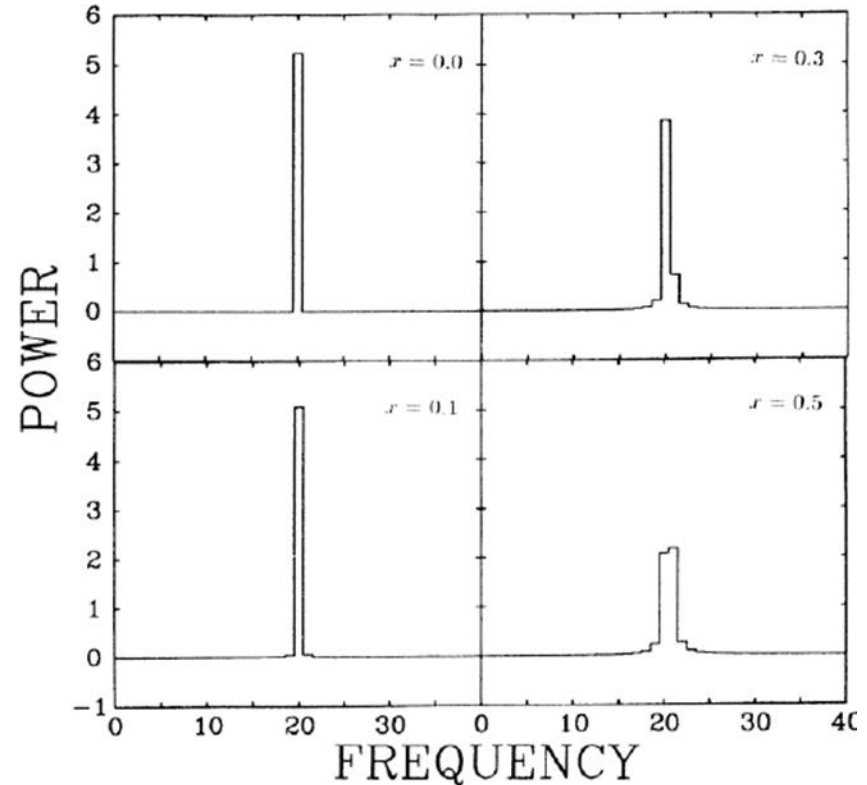
- The power spectrum of a sinusoidal signal

$$x_k = A \cos(2\pi\nu_{sine}t_k + \varphi):$$

$$|a_j|^2 \approx \frac{1}{4}A^2N^2 \left(\frac{\sin \pi x}{\pi x} \right)^2$$

where $x = (\nu_{sine} - \nu_j)T$

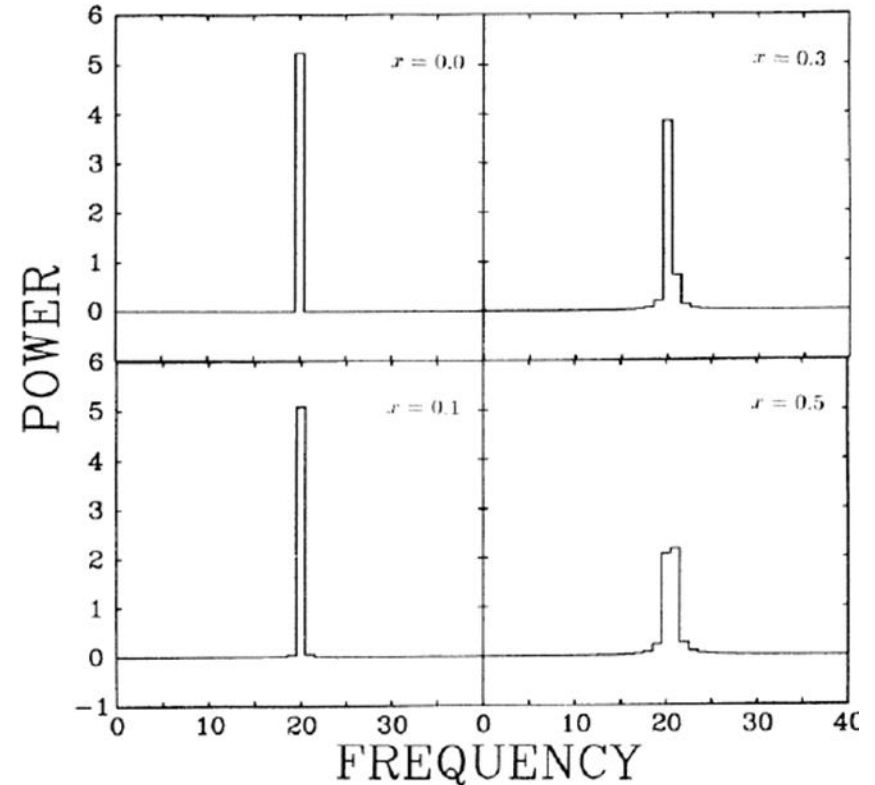
- The highest power in the signal power spectrum will be obtained at the Fourier frequency ν_j closest to ν_{sine} . Normalized to a power of 1 for $\nu_{sine} = \nu_j$ ($x = 0$), this power varies between 0.405 and 1, with an average value of 0.773



Signal detection optimization

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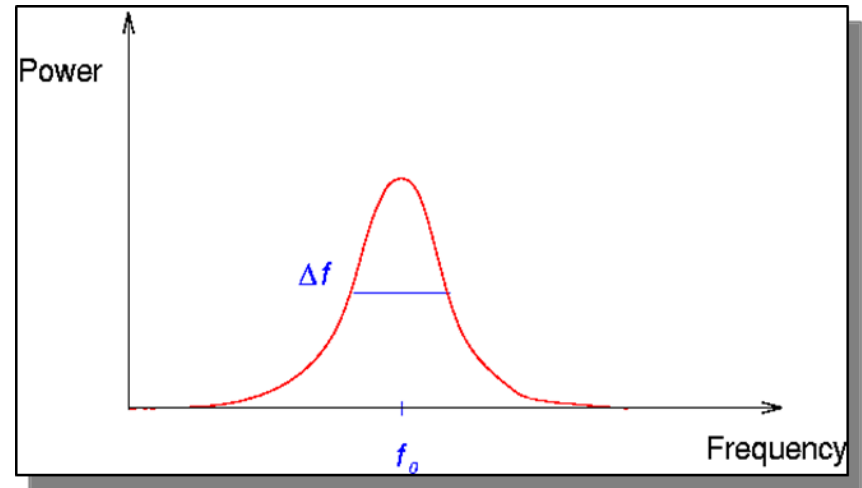
- **Implications:** When searching for strictly coherent signals it is important to rely upon the original/maximum Fourier resolution ($1/T$).



Signal detection optimization

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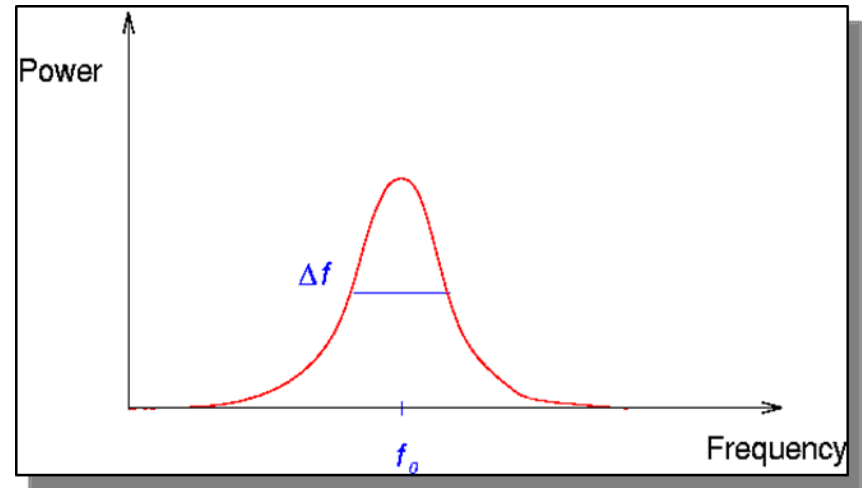
- Similar reasoning shows that the signal power for a feature with finite width Δv drops proportionally to $1/MW$ when degrading the Fourier resolution. However, as long as feature width exceeds the frequency resolution, $\Delta v > MW/T$, the signal power in each Fourier frequency within the feature remains approx. constant. When $\Delta v < MW/T$ the signal power begins to drop.



Signal detection optimization

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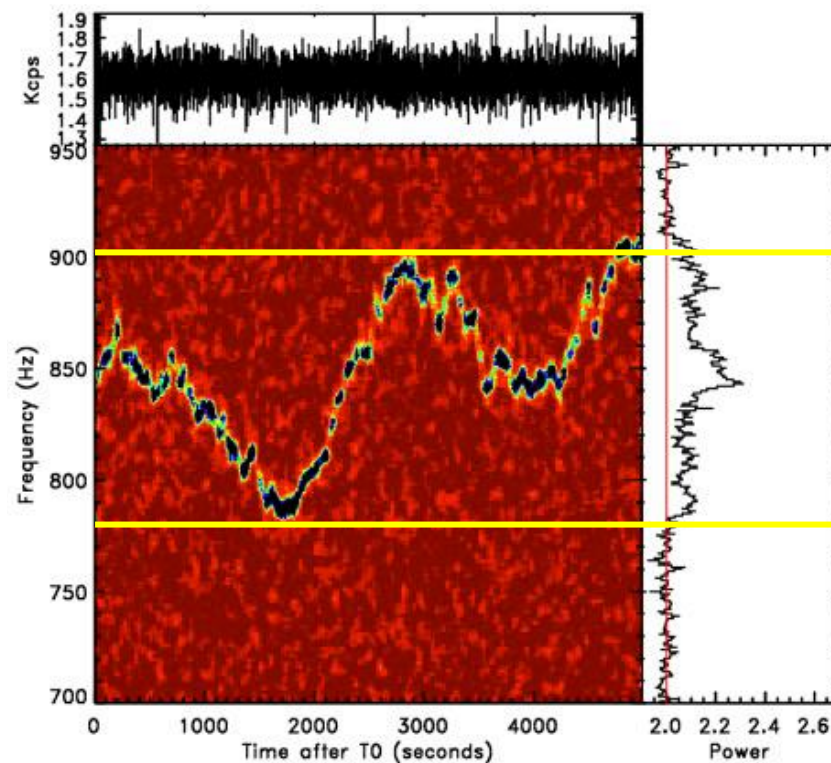
- **Implications:** The search for QPOs is a three step interactive process.
- Firstly, estimate (roughly) the feature width.
- Secondly, run again a PSD by setting the optimal value of MW equal to $\sim \Delta\nu T$. Two or three iterations are likely needed.
- Finally, use χ^2 hypothesis testing to derive significance of the feature, its centroid and r.m.s.



Measuring narrow features in PSD

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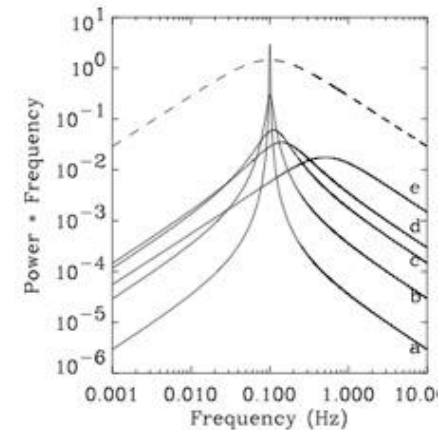
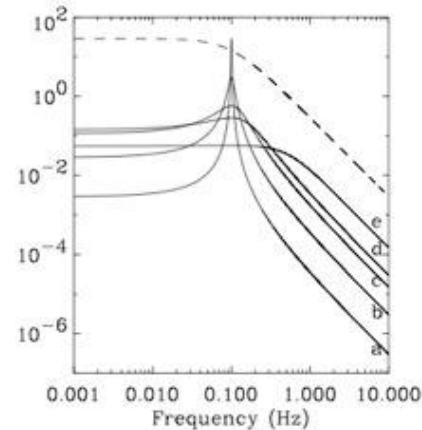
- **The QPO frequency varies with time (on short timescales).**
- To minimize the pollution of the frequency drift to the measured QPO parameters, PDS must be integrated on the shortest possible timescales
- **Useful tip:** Produce a dynamical PSD
 - Smooth it in time and frequency
 - Restrict the frequency range to where you see the QPO



Power spectrum plots

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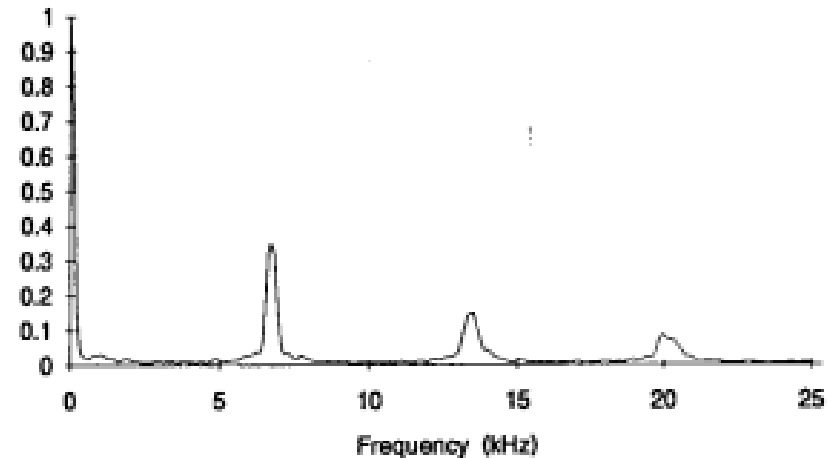
- Multiply the power spectrum by the frequency
- Obtain a vP_v representation
- Useful to see where the power per decade peaks
- Characteristic frequencies are peaks in vP_v



Periodic Non-sinusoidal Signals

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- Power for Periodic Nonsinusoidal Signals is spread over harmonics of the modulation frequency:
Confidence lower.



Summary: Detecting something in a power spectrum

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The process of detecting something in a power spectrum against the background of noise has several steps:

- knowledge of the probability distribution of the noise powers;
- knowledge of the interaction between the noise and the signal powers (determination of the signal upper limit);
- The detection level: Number of trials (frequencies and/or sample);
- Specific issues related to the intrinsic source variability (non Poissonian noise);
- Specific issues related to a given instrument/satellite (spurious signals – spacecraft orbit, wobble motion, large data gaps, etc.).