

Bayesian event reconstruction and background rejection in neutrino detectors

Gary C. Hill

Department of Physics, University of Wisconsin, Madison

Abstract. Several large volume, high energy neutrino detectors are in operation or in the design stage. Upward going signal neutrino events must be separated from large backgrounds of downgoing cosmic ray induced atmospheric muons. To this end, a Bayesian extension of the traditional maximum likelihood reconstruction method will be described. Further, it will be shown how signals can be separated from backgrounds through integration of Bayesian posterior probability densities.

1 Introduction

Recent years have seen the planning, construction and operation of the first large volume, high energy neutrino detectors. The pioneering work of the DUMAND collaboration was followed by the successful deployment and operation of the Lake Baikal and AMANDA experiments, and the planning and design studies for the ANTARES and Icecube detectors. These detectors use large arrays of optical modules to detect the Cerenkov radiation from upward moving muons that result from neutrino interactions that take place in the surrounding water/ice or rock. These signals must be separated from a very large background of downward moving atmospheric muons. At the trigger level, the ratio of downgoing muons to expected upgoing neutrino-induced muons can range from $\sim 10^9$ for a surface detector, down to $\sim 10^5$ for a deep underwater/ice detector.

What we will call the “conventional” method of separating background and signal is to use a maximum likelihood method to fit a muon track arrival direction (based on the observed photon arrival times and densities in the optical module array) followed by the application of quality cuts to reduce the number of mis-reconstructed background events (fakes), while keeping a large fraction of signal. Once these data are reduced to a manageable size, they are compared to

Monte Carlo expectations for both signals and backgrounds, and the origins of the data events inferred. Generation of sufficient background statistics to demonstrate adequate rejection power can be problematic, especially for highly “signal-like” background events, which are the hardest to reject.

Ultimately, separation of neutrino events from backgrounds is all about hypothesis testing - given an observed event, which of a series of possible origins (downgoing muons, upgoing neutrinos) is the most likely cause of the event? In the conventional method, we assess this by firstly reducing the data set through a maximum likelihood reconstruction, then by comparing the remaining data to Monte Carlo signal and background expectations, using the Monte Carlo to predict how many events of a given type are expected from both signal and background. At the reconstruction level we expect that the event sample is still background dominated. After strong quality cuts, we expect the sample to be signal dominated. In this paper, I describe how Bayesian inference can be used to take account of prior knowledge of the expected signals and backgrounds at the reconstruction stage, leading to much greater initial background rejection than the conventional method. Finally, I briefly indicate how integration of posterior probability densities can be used to directly assess the probability that an event is either signal or background, providing a single cut parameter signal/background separation.

2 Bayesian approach to event reconstruction

In this section we first examine the conventional maximum likelihood approach to the separation of signal events from background events in a neutrino detector, and how the need to account for prior probabilities of hypotheses leads naturally to the Bayesian method. In the maximum likelihood method, the likelihood function alone is used to assess the origin of an observed event, with the implicit assumption that all hypotheses are a priori equally probable. We then propose a Bayesian approach to event reconstruction, where the prior

knowledge of the probabilities of the hypotheses is combined with the likelihood function in assessing the most likely origin of an event.

2.1 The maximum likelihood method

A neutrino detector (Andrés et al. 2000) gives us information about the detected muon event in the form of event observables such as photon arrival times and numbers of detected photons per optical module. The likelihood function $\mathcal{L}(E | H)$ describes the probability that any of the events from the total possible event set $\{E\}$ come from any of the possible set of hypotheses $\{H\}$. These hypotheses could include for example single muons, multiple muon bundles, uncorrelated muons from separate cosmic ray primary events, or upward going neutrino induced muons. As an example, if we have a detector that measures photon arrival times with only a Gaussian timing error due to the photomultiplier tubes (the case for a non-scattering medium), the likelihood minimisation reduces to the familiar χ^2 minimisation. Usually in a neutrino detector the assumption is made that the hypotheses to be tested are single muons. The maximum likelihood method is used and the hypothesis space searched until the muon track hypothesis with the highest likelihood is found. In what follows we will assume we have a minimisation algorithm that will always find the global minimum in the hypothesis space.

The events are reconstructed, and assigned their best fit parameters, one of which is the arrival direction, θ . Since we are interested in upgoing muons from neutrinos, a cut is made to keep only events with $\theta > 90^\circ$. What we can infer about the origin of these events depends on what type of detector we have. There are three scenarios -

1. **The ideal detector** Suppose the detector consisted of a billion optical modules on a one metre lattice instrumenting a cubic kilometre of detector medium. The event information would be so abundant and therefore the hypotheses constrained so strongly that there would be no doubt that the reconstructed direction was in fact the true direction of the originating true hypothesis H_t . Mathematically,

$$\mathcal{L}(E | H) \neq 0 \quad H = H_t \quad (1)$$

$$= 0 \quad H \neq H_t \quad (2)$$

that is, the likelihood would only be non-zero for the true hypothesis.

Monte Carlo simulations of such a detector would reveal that the chance of any downgoing event misreconstructing into the upward direction would be negligible.

2. **The non-ideal detector** At the other extreme we have the detector where little if any constraint is placed on possible hypotheses, due to factors such as a sparsely instrumented detector volume, or a scattering medium

where the Cerenkov light cone is smeared out completely. All hypotheses would have essentially the same likelihood

$$\mathcal{L}(E | H_i) \approx \mathcal{L}(E | H_j) \quad \forall i, j \quad (3)$$

and a reconstruction reveals nothing about the origin of the event. In this case, the best fit directions for the events would be essentially random, and all one could really say about a given event is that it was most likely to be due to a background event, since these overwhelm the signals completely. Again Monte Carlo simulations would confirm the inability of such a detector to separate signal and background.

3. **The realistic detector** The final case is the realistic detector. In practise, we try not to construct non-ideal detectors, but can never afford to build the ideal detector. We are left with an in-between situation, where after the maximum likelihood reconstruction we still have background events mis-reconstructed as upgoing events, but our Monte Carlo simulations tell us that signal can be separated out of the backgrounds by the application of quality cuts to the events to isolate the best upgoing events and reject the falsely reconstructed background events.

2.2 Inferring the origin of reconstructed events in “realistic” detectors

The conventional likelihood reconstruction method seeks to find the hypothesis with the highest likelihood to have produced the observed pattern of event observables. During the search through the hypothesis space, all hypotheses are considered as equally probable, and therefore the hypothesis that maximises the likelihood is taken as the best fit. For instance, if the final choice is between an upgoing fit and a downgoing fit with only a slightly smaller likelihood, the upgoing fit is chosen as the reconstructed track. However, if one considers that the rate of expected downgoing atmospheric muons is zenith dependent, and overall greater by many orders of magnitude than the expected rate of upgoing neutrino-induced muons, then it is not clear that the best choice of the reconstructed direction is upgoing. This situation is shown in figure 1. The event E has been reconstructed, and a best upgoing hypothesis H_u , with likelihood $\mathcal{L}(E | H_u)$, has been found. The best downgoing hypothesis is H_d , with likelihood $\mathcal{L}(E | H_d)$. The a priori known rates of the hypotheses are denoted by the prior probabilities, $P(H_u)$ and $P(H_d)$. Depending on the arrival direction of H_d , $P(H_d)$ can be orders of magnitude greater than $P(H_u)$. These prior probabilities must be taken into account in inferring the origin of the event. What we really need to know is the *probability of the hypotheses, given the data*, denoted $P(H | E)$. Bayes’ theorem (Bayes, 1763) tells us that the *posterior* probability $P(H | E)$, is connected to the likelihood through the prior

function

$$P(H | E) = \frac{\mathcal{L}(E | H)P(H)}{P(E)} \quad (4)$$

where

$$P(E) = \int \mathcal{L}(E | H)P(H)dH \quad (5)$$

Since $P(E)$ is a constant (an integral over all possible hypotheses), we can more simply state that the most probable hypothesis is the one that maximises the *joint* probability distribution $\mathcal{L}(E | H)P(H)$, or that

$$P(H | E) \propto \mathcal{L}(E | H)P(H) \quad (6)$$

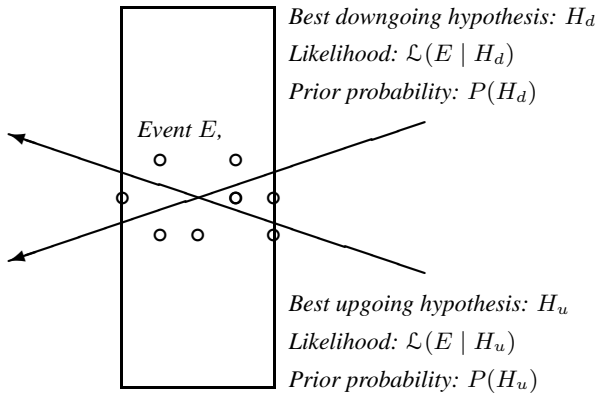


Fig. 1. Event reconstruction in a neutrino detector. “Best” hypotheses refer to those that maximise the likelihood function $\mathcal{L}(E | H)$ alone, without consideration of the prior probabilities $P(H)$.

Bayes’ theorem lets us account for the prior probabilities of the hypotheses, whereas the conventional reconstruction, through an implicit assumption of the uniformity of the hypotheses, does not do this. Even if the likelihood of the upgoing hypothesis is the largest, if the prior probability of H_d is sufficiently greater than that of H_u , such that

$$\mathcal{L}(E | H_d)P(H_d) > \mathcal{L}(E | H_u)P(H_u) \quad (7)$$

then we must reject the event as downgoing. However, if after accounting for the prior probabilities, the event appears to be upgoing, i.e.

$$\mathcal{L}(E | H_u)P(H_u) > \mathcal{L}(E | H_d)P(H_d) \quad (8)$$

there might still be another downgoing hypothesis H_a that satisfies

$$\mathcal{L}(E | H_a)P(H_a) > \mathcal{L}(E | H_u)P(H_u) \quad (9)$$

making H_a the most likely origin of the event, forcing us to reject the event as downgoing. Clearly, in order to find the most likely origin of the event, we must find the hypothesis H that maximises the joint probability distribution $\mathcal{L}(E | H)P(H)$.

We simply incorporate prior information into the reconstruction, by maximising $\mathcal{L}(E | H) P(H)$, instead of $\mathcal{L}(E | H)$. A first attempt might be to make $P(H)$ a simple function of zenith angle, expressing the expected rates of downgoing atmospheric muons and neutrino-induced upgoing muons. During a search through the hypothesis space, downgoing hypotheses would be given more (zenith dependent) weight, with the result that more events would reconstruct in the more probable downward direction. This Bayesian reconstruction has been used in the analysis of the AMANDA B10 data from the austral winter 1997 (Andres et al. 2001, DeYoung 2001, Wiebusch et al. 2001), where it has significantly improved the reconstruction level background muon rejection, resulting in a simpler analysis, requiring fewer subsequent quality cuts to separate the neutrino signal.

Having seen the importance of the prior probability $P(H)$ in analysing the data in a *realistic* detector, we can now go back and see how Bayesian inference also explains the behaviour of the *ideal* and *non-ideal* detectors discussed in section 2.1, as the two extreme cases of the influence of the prior probability. In the case of the *ideal detector* the hypotheses are so strongly constrained that the likelihood is only non-zero for the true hypothesis H_t and zero for all other hypotheses

$$\mathcal{L}(E | H) \neq 0 \quad H = H_t \quad (10)$$

$$= 0 \quad H \neq H_t \quad (11)$$

As long as $P(H_t) \neq 0$, the posterior probability $P(H | E)$ is only non-zero for the true hypothesis, and the detector constrains the hypotheses so strongly that prior knowledge of the hypotheses is irrelevant. The complete opposite is the case for the *non-ideal detector*. The detector places no constraint on the hypotheses, the likelihoods of all E given all hypotheses are essentially equal

$$\mathcal{L}(E | H_i) \approx \mathcal{L}(E | H_j) \quad \forall i, j \quad (12)$$

and therefore

$$P(H | E) \propto P(H) \quad (13)$$

Since the detector cannot constrain the hypotheses at all the only inference that can be made is based on the prior probabilities, i.e. each event is more likely to be a background than a signal simply because backgrounds overwhelm signals.

As expected the *realistic detector* lies in between the two cases discussed so far. Prior probabilities don’t matter when analysing the ideal detector, but in the non-ideal detector prior probabilities tell us all we can know about an event. For the realistic detector, both the likelihood and the prior probability must be used when inferring the origin of an event.

Using this Bayesian reconstruction of course still only finds the hypothesis with the maximum value of $\mathcal{L}(E | H) P(H)$. The probability that a class of hypotheses (for instance any upgoing hypothesis) was the cause of the event is found by integrating the posterior probability for that class. In the next section we discuss how integrating

these posterior probabilities separately over signal and background hypotheses allows us to directly calculate the probability that any event is a signal or a background.

3 Bayesian separation of signal and backgrounds using integrated posterior probabilities

In this section we briefly discuss the Bayesian method for assessing the probability that an event is a signal or a background. Elsewhere (Hill, 2001) these ideas are developed in greater detail. As our starting point, we restate Bayes' theorem (equation 4) for the posterior probability density for hypothesis H as the origin of event E :

$$P(H | E) = \frac{\mathcal{L}(E | H)P(H)}{P(E)} \quad (14)$$

where

$$P(E) = \int \mathcal{L}(E | H)P(H)dH \quad (15)$$

is the event probability density function (p.d.f.). We split the hypothesis space up into separate classes of signal and background hypotheses. For example, the background hypotheses could be single minimum ionising muons, muons undergoing catastrophic energy losses (e.g. bremsstrahlung), multiple muon bundles, or overlapping events. The signal hypotheses could be atmospheric neutrino induced muons, which travel upward through the earth.

The prior probabilities of these hypotheses are denoted $P(S)$ and $P(B)$. The functions $\mathcal{L}(E | S)$ and $\mathcal{L}(E | B)$ describe the likelihood of a given hypothesis to produce a set of detector observables (eg photon arrival times, photoelectron densities, time-over-thresholds). For completeness, the set of events $\{E\}$ includes every type of event we could observe in the detector, right down to events where only detector noise contributes, and there is no contribution from, for example, a muon.

Then Bayes' theorem for the posterior p.d.f. of the signal hypotheses is

$$P(S | E) = \frac{\mathcal{L}(E | S)P(S)}{P(E)} \quad (16)$$

and for the background hypotheses

$$P(B | E) = \frac{\mathcal{L}(E | B)P(B)}{P(E)} \quad (17)$$

where the event p.d.f. is

$$P(E) = \int \mathcal{L}(E | S)P(S)dS + \int \mathcal{L}(E | B)P(B)dB \quad (18)$$

The probability P_s that any of the signal hypotheses was the cause of E is found by integrating over the posterior p.d.f. $P(S | E)$ to give

$$P_s = \int P(S | E)dS = \frac{\int \mathcal{L}(E | S)P(S)dS}{P(E)} \quad (19)$$

and likewise for backgrounds

$$P_b = \int P(B | E)dB = \frac{\int \mathcal{L}(E | B)P(B)dB}{P(E)} \quad (20)$$

The ratio

$$\frac{P_s}{P_b} = \frac{\int P(S | E)dS}{\int P(B | E)dB} = \frac{\int \mathcal{L}(E | S)P(S)dS}{\int \mathcal{L}(E | B)P(B)dB} \quad (21)$$

gives the "betting odds" in favour of a signal origin over a background origin for any event.

Also since

$$P_s + P_b = 1 \quad (22)$$

either P_s or P_b gives a complete description of the probability of an event to be either signal or background and therefore serves as a single cut parameter.

We could, in principle, calculate the event probability for every observed event. In practice, this would be too time prohibitive to be of practical use. A better solution would be to initially use the Bayesian reconstruction to greatly reduce the data set, then calculate the integrated posterior signal and background probabilities for this small subset of events.

4 Conclusions

In this report we have addressed, from a Bayesian perspective, the two critical questions faced when analysing neutrino telescope data - what is the most likely arrival direction of an event, and what is the probability that subsequent upwardly reconstructed events are really upgoing signal and not misreconstructed downgoing atmospheric muons? To answer both questions, we have applied Bayes' theorem, which assesses the plausibility of hypotheses given observed data by combining prior knowledge of the hypotheses with the likelihood function. In the reconstruction case this results in more events reconstructing in the more probable downward direction. In the case of background rejection, we calculate the probability that a given event was upgoing by integrating over posterior probabilities for all possible upgoing and downgoing hypotheses.

Acknowledgements. I thank all my colleagues in the AMANDA experiment for many lively discussion sessions on these topics. I wish to particularly thank T. DeYoung, S. Hundertmark, J. Kim, D. Steele, A. Karle, K. Rawlins, R. Morse and F. Halzen for their discussions and suggestions.

References

- Andrés, E. et al., *Astropart. Phys.*, 13, 1-20, 2000.
- Bayes, T., *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. London*, 53, 370-418, 1763.
- Andrés, E. et al., *Nature*, 410, 441-443, 2001.
- DeYoung, T.R., PhD thesis, University of Wisconsin, Madison, 2001.
- Hill, G.C., in preparation, 2001.
- Wiebusch, C. et al., these proceedings, 2001.