

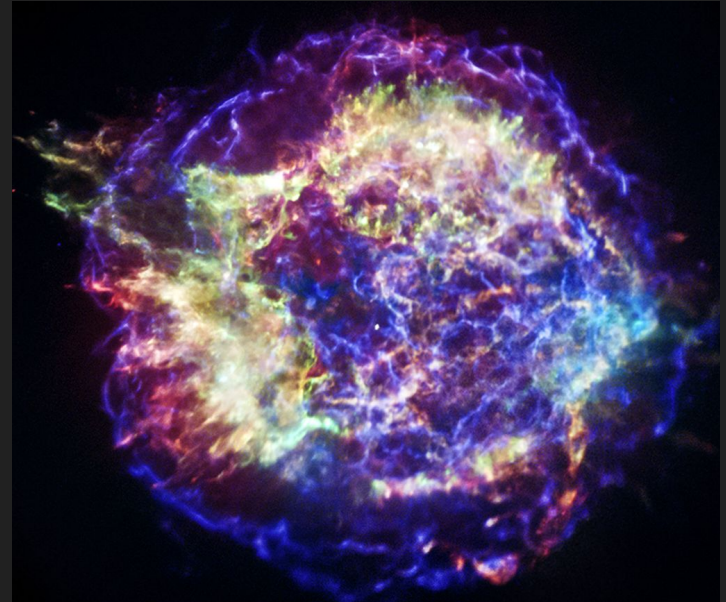


SPINS-UK  
November 2023

# Simulation-based inference (sbi) for pulsar population synthesis

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Cassiopeia A supernova remnant  
(credit: NASA/CXC/SAO)

# Population synthesis

- We can estimate **the number of Galactic neutron stars**

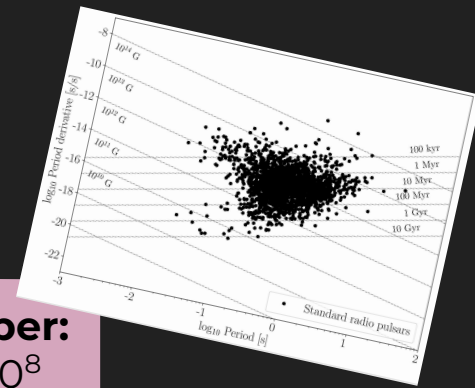
**CC supernova rate:**  
~ 2 per century

×

**Galaxy age:**  
~ 13.6 billion years

=

**NS number:**  
~  $2.8 \times 10^8$



- We only **detect** a very **small fraction** of all neutron stars. Population synthesis bridges this gap focusing on the full population of neutron stars (e.g. Faucher-Giguère & Kaspi 2006, Lorimer et al. 2006, Gullón et al. 2014, Cieřlar et al. 2020):

model **birth properties** with Monte-Carlo approach



**evolve properties** forward in time



**apply filters** to mimic observational biases/limits

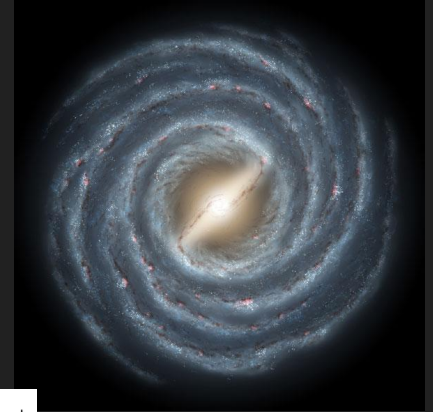


**compare** mock simulations **to observations** to constrain input

# Dynamical evolution

- **Neutron stars are born in star-forming regions**, i.e., in the Galactic disk along the Milky Way's spiral arms, **and receive kicks** during the supernova explosions.
- We make the following assumptions:
  - Electron-density model (Yao et al., 2017) + rigid rotation with  $T = 250$  Myr.
  - **Exponential disk** with scale height  $h_c = 0.18$  kpc (Wainscoat et al., 1992).
  - Single-component **Maxwell kick-velocity distribution** with dispersion  $\sigma_k = 265$  km/s (Hobbs et al., 2005).
  - Galactic potential (Marchetti et al., 2019).

Artistic illustration of the Milky Way (credit: NASA JPL)



$$\mathcal{P}(z) = \frac{1}{h_c} e^{-\frac{|z|}{h_c}}$$

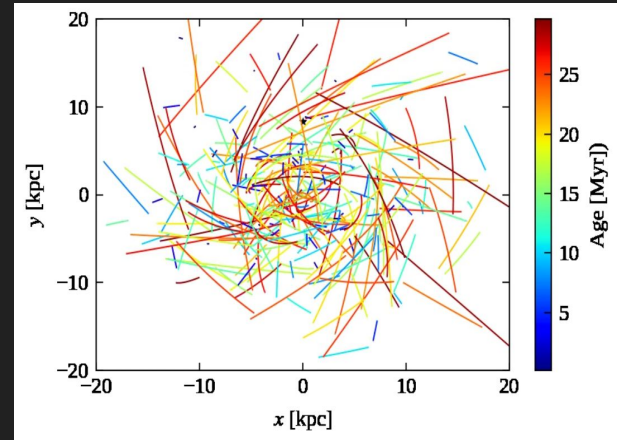
$$\mathcal{P}(v_k) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{v_k^2}{\sigma_k^3} e^{-\frac{v_k^2}{2\sigma_k^2}}$$

**Solve Newtonian equations of motion to determine positions and velocities.**

$$\ddot{\vec{r}} = -\vec{\nabla}\Phi_{\text{MW}}$$

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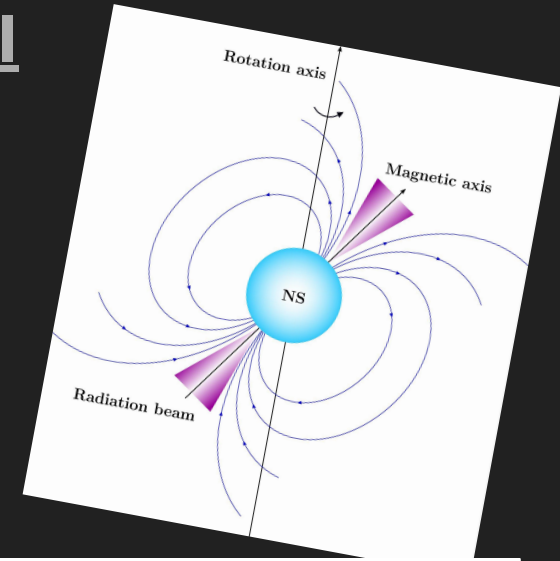
Top view of neutron-star evolution tracks in the Galaxy.

**Solve Newtonian equations of motion to determine positions and velocities.**

$$\ddot{\vec{r}} = -\vec{\nabla}\Phi_{\text{MW}}$$

# Magneto-rotational evolution I

- The neutron-star magnetosphere exerts a **torque onto the star**. This causes **spin-down** and **alignment of the magnetic and rotation axes**.
- Neutron star **magnetic fields decay** due to the Hall effect and Ohmic dissipation in the outer stellar layer (crust) (e.g., Viganó et al., 2013 & 2021).
- We make the following assumptions:
  - **Initial periods** follow a log-normal with  $\mu_P$  and  $\sigma_P$  (Igoshev et al., 2022)
  - **Initial fields** follow a log-normal with  $\mu_B$  and  $\sigma_B$  (Gullón et al., 2014)
  - Above  $\tau \sim 10^6$  yr, **field decay** follows a power-law with  $B(t) \sim B_0 (1 + t/\tau)^\alpha$ .



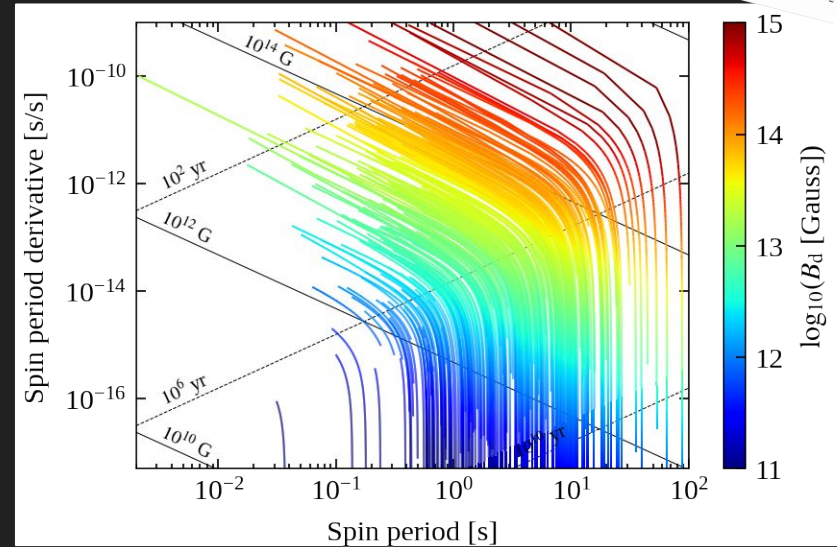
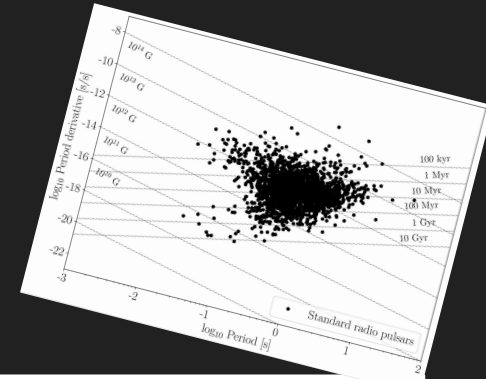
$$\mathcal{P}(\log P_0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_P} \exp\left(-\frac{[\log P_0 - \mu_P]^2}{2\sigma_P^2}\right)$$

Here, we **vary** the five uncertain parameters  $\mu_P$ ,  $\mu_B$ ,  $\sigma_P$ ,  $\sigma_B$  and  $\alpha$ .

# Magneto-rotational evolution II

- To model the magneto-rotational evolution, we numerically **solve two coupled ordinary differential equations** for the period and the misalignment angle (Aguilera et al., 2008; Philippov et al. 2014).
- We use results from **2D magneto-thermal simulations** to determine the evolution of the magnetic field.
- This allows us to follow the stars' P and  $\dot{P}$  evolution in the P $\dot{P}$ -plane.

Period period-derivative evolution tracks for  $\mu_P = -0.6$ ,  $\sigma_P = 0.3$ ,  $\mu_B = 13.25$  and  $\sigma_B = 0.75$ .

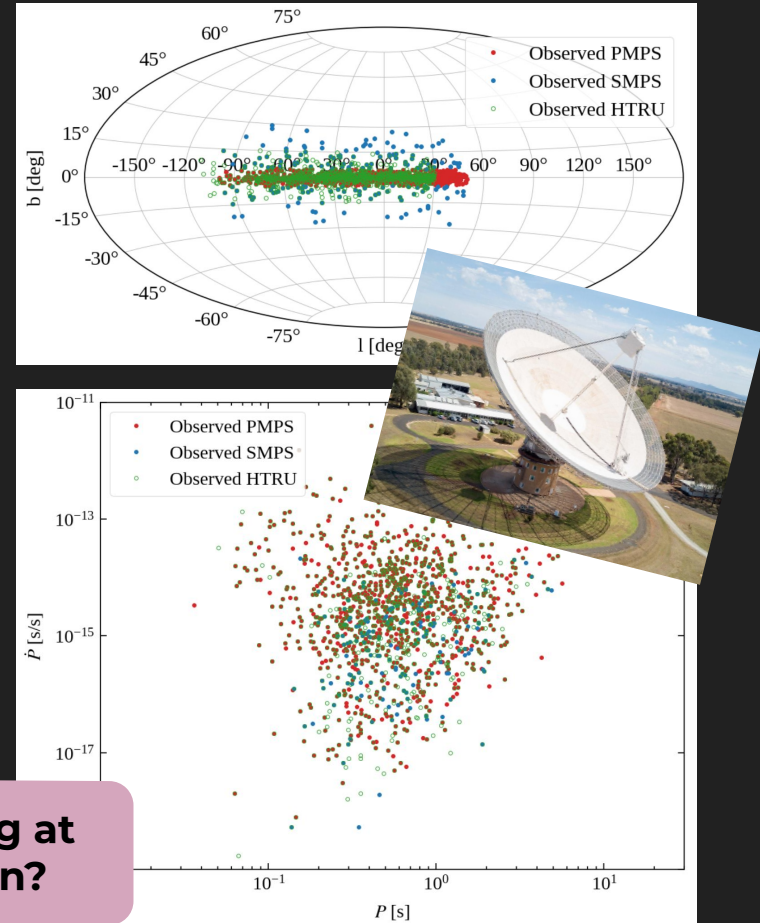




# Detecting pulsars

- We model the **pulsar emission and beam geometry** to check if a pulsar is detectable.
- We then compare our mock populations with three surveys from Murriyang:
  - **Parkes Multibeam Pulsar Survey (PMPS): 1,009 isolated pulsars**
  - **Swinburne Parkes Multibeam Pulsar Survey (SMPS): 218 isol. p.**
  - **High Time Resolution Universe Survey (HTRU): 1,023 isol. pulsars**

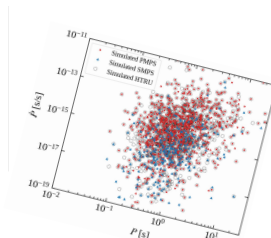
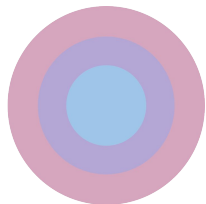
Can we constrain birth properties by looking at a current snapshot of the pulsar population?



# Simulation-based inference (sbi)

- To perform **statistical inference for complex simulators where the likelihood is not known explicitly**, we use the following approach:

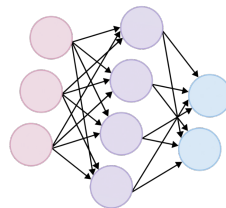
1. sample  $\theta_i$   
from prior  $\pi(\theta)$   
for  $i = 1, \dots, N$



2. run simulator for  $\theta_i$   
to produce observations  
 $\mathbf{x}_i \sim p(\mathbf{x}|\theta_i)$



4. use density estimator to  
find approximate posterior  
for empirical data, i.e.,  
 $\hat{p}(\theta|\mathbf{x}_0) \sim q_\phi(\theta|\mathbf{x}_0)$

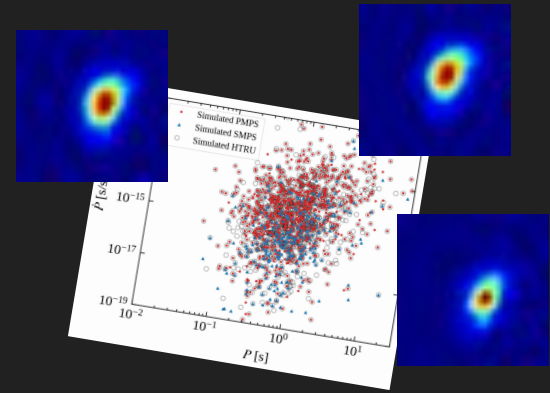


3. train a conditional  
density estimator  $q_\phi(\theta|\mathbf{x})$   
on simulated data to  
predict parameters



# Workflow

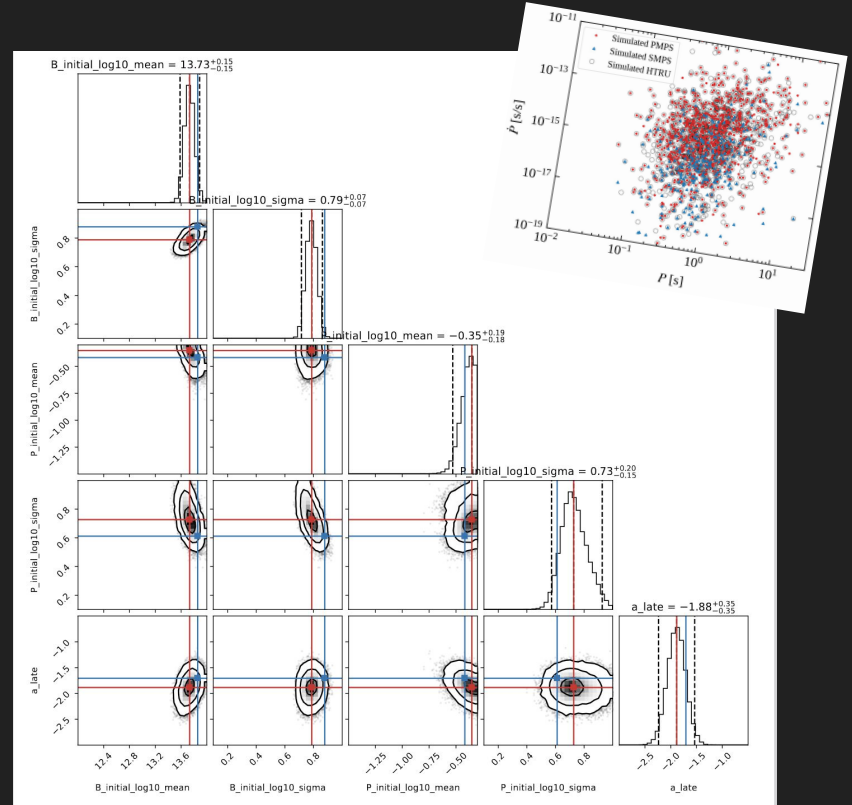
- We simulate **360,000 pulsar populations** varying  $\mu_P$ ,  $\mu_B$ ,  $\sigma_P$ ,  $\sigma_B$  and  $\alpha$ . We then **generate summary statistics**: 3 density maps for surveys in  $P\dot{P}$ -plane.
- To perform inference, we use **PyTorch-based toolbox sbi** (Tejero-Cantero et al., 2020; <https://www.mackelab.org/sbi/>). Our trainable neural network has two parts:
  - **CNN** (see Ronchi et al., 2021): compresses the data into a latent vector.
  - **Mixture density network**: approximate the posterior by a mixture of 10 Gaussians components; we learn the means, stds and coefficients.



**The SBI algorithm we employ is based on Neural Posterior Estimation (NPE)** (e.g., Papamakarios & Murray, 2016), which allows us to directly learn the posterior.

# Posterior distributions for test sample

- As our conditional density estimator is represented by a neural network, we can **directly evaluate the posterior distributions for a given (test) observation**.
- We recover **narrow, well-defined posteriors** for all five parameters that typically contain the ground truth (parameters used for the forward simulation) at the 95% credibility level.



# Posterior distributions for observed population

- With our optimised neural network, we can also **infer the posteriors** for the **pulsar population recorded in our three surveys** and recover the 95% credibility intervals:

$$\mu_B = 13.07^{+0.07}_{-0.08}$$

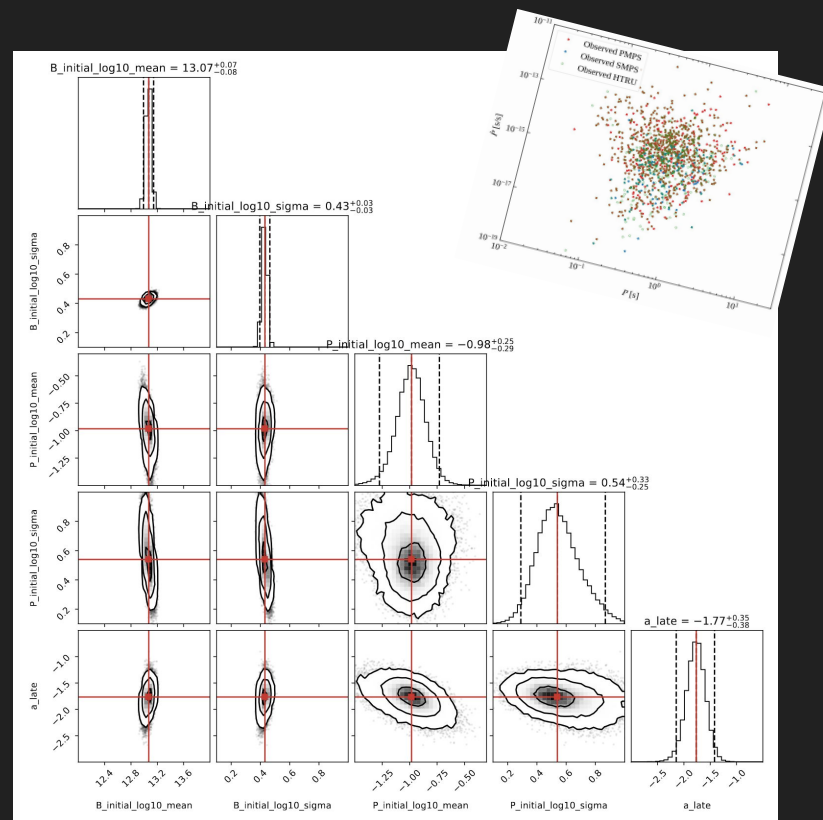
$$\mu_P = -0.98^{+0.25}_{-0.29}$$

$$\sigma_B = 0.43^{+0.03}_{-0.03}$$

$$\sigma_P = 0.54^{+0.33}_{-0.25}$$

$$\alpha = -1.77^{+0.35}_{-0.38}$$

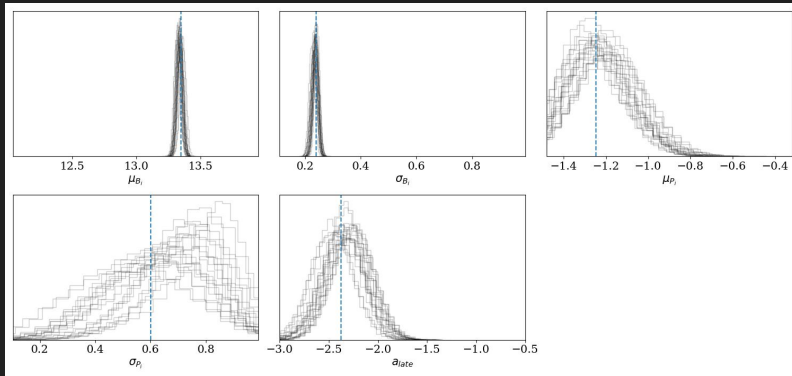
$$\mathcal{P}(\log P_0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_P} \exp\left(-\frac{[\log P_0 - \mu_P]^2}{2\sigma_P^2}\right)$$



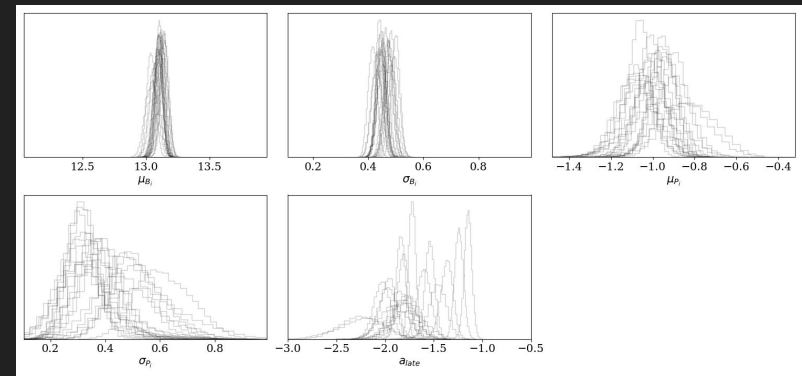
# Robustness tests

- We **varied hyperparameters** of our DL approach to test the sensitivity of our inferred posteriors to those choices. We find similar training behaviour and optimisation losses and **robust results for magnetic-field and period inferences** but **larger variations for the late-time power-law index  $\alpha$** :

Test sample



Observed sample

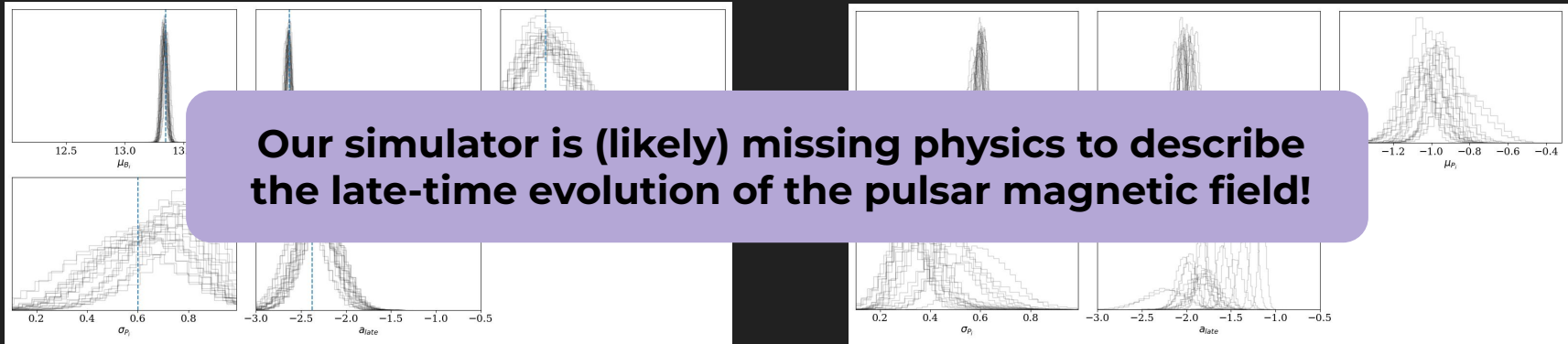


# Robustness tests

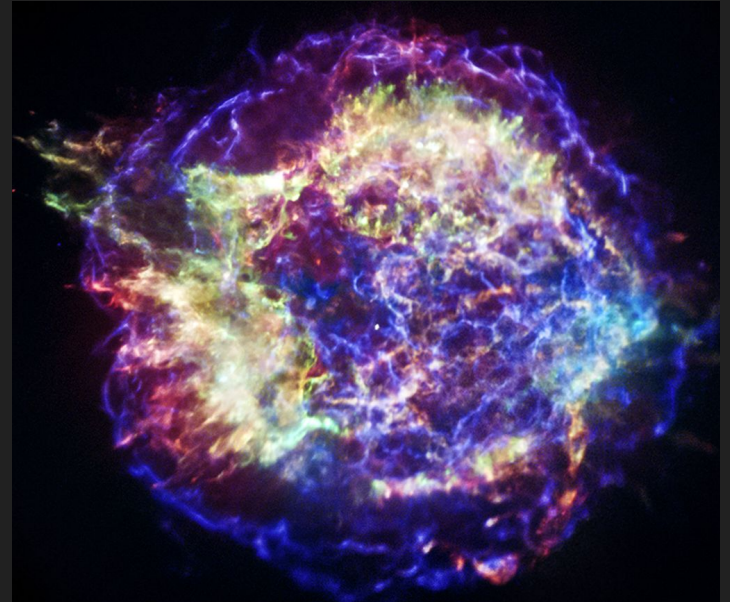
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Test sample

Observed sample



# THANK YOU



Cassiopeia A supernova remnant  
(credit: NASA/CXC/SAO)