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HOW MANY KILONOVAE CAN BE FOUND IN PAST, PRESENT, AND FUTURE SURVEY DATASETS?

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ABSTRACT

The discovery of a kilonova (KN) associated with the Advanced LIGO (aLIGO)/Virgo event GW170817 opens up new avenues of multi-messenger astrophysics. Here, using realistic simulations, we provide estimates of the number of KNe that could be found in data from past, present and future surveys without a gravitational-wave trigger. For the simulation, we construct a spectral time-series model based on the DES-GW multi-band light-curve from the single known KN event, and we use an average of BNS rates from past studies of $10^3 \text{ Gpc}^{-3}/\text{year}$, consistent with the 1 event found so far. Examining past and current datasets from transient surveys, the number of KNe we expect to find for ASAS-SN, SDSS, PS1, SNLS, DES, and SMT is between 0 and 0.3. We predict the number of detections per future survey to be: 8.3 from ATLAS, 10.6 from ZTF, 5.5/69 from LSST (the Deep Drilling / Wide Fast Deep), and 16.0 from WFIRST. The maximum redshift of KNe discovered for each survey is $z = 0.8$ for WFIRST, $z = 0.25$ for LSST and $z = 0.04$ for ZTF and ATLAS. This maximum redshift for WFIRST is well beyond the sensitivity of aLIGO and some future GW missions. For the LSST survey, we also provide contamination estimates from Type Ia and Core-collapse supernovae: after light-curve and template-matching requirements, we estimate a background of just 2 events. More broadly, we stress that future transient surveys should consider how to optimize their search strategies to improve their detection efficiency, and to consider similar analyses for GW follow-up programs.

Subject headings: stars: neutron

1. INTRODUCTION

The first detection by aLIGO/Virgo of a GW signal from a binary neutron star coalescence (LIGO Scientific Collaboration and Virgo Collaboration. 2017a in press,b) and the identification of the optical counterpart (Coulter et al. 2017 in press; Soares-Santos et al. 2017 in press; Valenti et al. 2017 in press) marks the beginning of an exciting era of joint electromagnetic (EM) and gravitational-wave (GW) studies. Optical counterparts from the mergers of a binary containing a neutron star are called ‘kilonova’ (hereafter KN, see Metzger 2017 for a review and references therein). Theoretical studies predict that outflows of neutron-rich material during the merger enable r-process nucleosynthesis, and that the decay of these r-process elements results in isotropic thermal emission. As KN events result in visible transients in the optical and infrared, with time scales of hours to days, Metzger & Berger (2012) have predicted that nearby KNe may be bright enough to find with modern optical telescopes. These predictions have been confirmed.

Optical observations of KNe can constrain theories about neutron star mergers, in particular identifying them as the progenitors of short Gamma Ray Bursts (GRBs). These events can also be used to measure the current expansion rate of the universe if there is a GW signal and the associated host galaxy redshift can be measured (e.g., Schutz 1986; Dalal et al. 2006). Additionally, untriggered KN discoveries in the optical would help LIGO re-evaluate marginal signals and improve their detection algorithms.

To date, there have been a small number of inconclusive KN detections (e.g., Tanvir et al. 2013; Berger et al. 2013; Jin et al. 2016), none of which were triggered by a transient survey. With an optical counterpart of a GW event having been discovered, this event can be used to estimate the volumetric rate of KN events. Making the simplistic assumptions that all KN events are the same and that the volumetric rate is constant with redshift, we can predict how many of these events can be found in past, present, and future surveys. This is a follow-up of

the work by Doctor et al. (2017) who considered a wide range of KN models and examined 2 seasons of data from the Dark Energy Survey Supernova Program (DES-SN). Here, we examine a single model, but a wide range of surveys. Other studies (e.g., Rosswog et al. 2017) have considered the detectability of KNe with future surveys based on estimated search depths, but here we consider depth, cadence, and area of the surveys using realistic observation libraries.

In this paper, we use simulations to assess the capabilities of photometric surveys to discover KNe without a GW trigger. This is different from the follow-up mode for GW170817 and for past EM searches (Abbott et al. 2016; Annis et al. 2016; Soares-Santos et al. 2016; Cowperthwaite et al. 2016) that followed a GW trigger from LIGO (Abbott et al. 2016b, Abbott et al. 2016a, Abbott et al. 2017). Over the last decade there has been a large effort in predicting biases for SNIa distance measurements that are used as cosmological probes (e.g., Scolnic et al. 2017), and this effort has resulted in increasingly realistic simulations. The SNANA (Kessler et al. 2009) software used for these studies has been applied to many cases beyond Type Ia supernovae, including core-collapse SNe, superluminous SNe and kilonovae (Doctor et al. 2017). All simulation and analysis tools used here are publicly available.¹

In Section 2 we briefly review the KN discovery, and use companion works to model the light curve and KN rate. In Section 3, we describe 11 optical surveys and our simulation methods. Results are presented in Section 4, along with estimates of the background contamination from SNe. Finally, in Section 5, we discuss future analyses to optimize these surveys, and present conclusions in Section 6.

2. THE OPTICAL COUNTERPART TO LV G298048

2.1. *Discovery of Counterpart*

Just over 11 hours after the aLIGO trigger (LIGO Scientific Collaboration and Virgo Collaboration. 2017a in press,b), the optical counterpart was found (Coulter et al.

¹ snana.uchicago.edu

2017 in press; Soares-Santos et al. 2017 in press; Valenti et al. 2017 in press). The counterpart was identified as a point source located near NGC 4993. This galaxy is 40 Mpc away, with redshift $z = 0.0098$ (Kourkchi & Tully 2017). In a companion paper by Soares-Santos et al. (2017 in press), we use our DECam (Flaugher et al. 2015) search data to show the likelihood that the transient is in fact directly connected to the GW event is $> 99\%$. We therefore rely on this event for our analysis.

2.2. KN Lightcurve and Modeling

We model UV to NIR to allow for a broad range of analysis. While Doctor et al. (2017) showed that a NIR model is sufficient (e.g., i and z bands) for estimating KN detections, the bluer bands can be used to reject backgrounds from supernovae. Our KN model is determined using *ugrizYHK* photometry from the DES-GW papers (Soares-Santos et al. 2017 in press; Cowperthwaite et al. 2017 in press). To build a spectral model for simulations, we take the smoothed lightcurves from Cowperthwaite et al. (2017 in press) in *ugrizYHK* and “mangle” (Hsiao et al. 2007) a spectral time series to match the observed photometry. The mangling uses wavelength-dependent splines with knots at the effective wavelengths of the 8 photometric filters. Our model has peak $i - z \sim 0.0$ and fades roughly 5 magnitudes over 7 days, in agreement with the data.

Cowperthwaite et al. (2017 in press) shows that this KN includes both a blue and red component, resulting in early time colors that are bluer than most models which predict $i - z \sim 1$ mag (e.g., Barnes et al. 2016). While our observed KN may not reflect the general population, we do not attempt to speculate about the population properties.

2.3. Estimate of Volumetric Rate

We use a constant volumetric KN rate of $10^3 \text{ Gpc}^{-3}/\text{year}$ as a conservative estimate based on a compilation of rates by Abbott et al. (2016). This estimate is consistent with the fact that the LIGO O1 upper limit is $1.2 \times 10^4 \text{ Gpc}^{-3}/\text{year}$ (Abbott et al. 2016), and O2 surveyed ~ 10 times more volume than O1, suggesting a rate of $\sim 10^3 \text{ Gpc}^{-3}/\text{year}$. Furthermore, this rate is broadly consistent with the aLIGO search time (< 2 years) and search volume $\sim (100 \text{ Mpc})^3$.

3. SIMULATION OF TRANSIENT SURVEYS

For this analysis, we have selected large surveys with the following criteria: they operate as rolling searches, and have (or expect to have) discovered at least 100 SNe. The compilation of surveys is listed in Table 2 and includes that from The Sloan Digital Sky Survey-II (SDSS, Frieman et al. 2008), Panoramic Survey Telescope and Rapid Response System (PS1, Kaiser et al. 2010), Supernova Legacy Survey (SNLS, Astier et al. 2006), Dark Energy Survey (DES, Dark Energy Survey Collaboration et al. 2016), Skymapper Telescope (SMT, Scalzo et al. 2017), Wide-Field Infrared Survey Telescope (WFIRST, Spergel et al. 2015; Hounsell et al. 2017), The Large Synoptic Survey Telescope (LSST, LSST Science Collab et al. 2009), The Asteroid Terrestrial-impact Last Alert System (ATLAS, Tonry 2011), Zwicky Transient Facility

(ZTF², Bellm 2014)³, and All-Sky Automated Survey for Supernovae (ASAS-SN, Shappee et al. 2014).

We use the SNANA simulation and analysis package (Kessler et al. 2009) to simulate each survey using filter transmission functions and a cadence library with a list of observation dates, where each date includes the observed zero point, sky noise and point spread function (PSF) measured from images. For SDSS, PS1, SNLS and DES⁴, each cadence library has been created from the actual survey observations, and therefore includes genuine fluctuations from weather and operational issues. For LSST, the cadence library is computed⁵ from the baseline cadence published by LSST using the Operations Simulator (Delgado et al. 2014), which uses historical weather data near Cerro Pachon to make realistic estimates of observational conditions and cadence. For WFIRST and SMT, we use the observation libraries based on Hounsell et al. (2017) and Scalzo et al. (2017) respectively. For ZTF⁶, ATLAS⁷ and ASAS-SN⁸, we use average quantities for the cadence, zero point, sky noise and PSF. The resulting average-cadence libraries do not account for fluctuations from weather, but they are still useful for making forecasts. Global survey characteristics (depth, cadence, area, duration) are shown in Table 2 and illustrated in Fig. 2. There is a dynamic range of 9 magnitudes between the shallowest (ASAS-SN) and deepest (SNLS, WFIRST) surveys, and the survey wavelengths extend from the ultraviolet (u band) to the infrared (F band - central wavelength of 1.8 microns). Fig 2 expresses the cadence as the average gap in time between observations with the same filter. We also show the amount of sky area covered, ranging from 4 deg^2 (SNLS) to 18000 deg^2 (LSST).

We simulate KN detections in two steps. The first step is the trigger simulation, requiring two detections that are separated by at least 30 minutes to reject asteroids. A detection is characterized by the efficiency vs. signal-to-noise ratio (S/N), and the efficiency is typically 50% at $S/N = 5$. The second step is the analysis, which uses the following selection requirements designed to reject supernova backgrounds:

1. At least two filter bands have at least one observation with $S/N > 5$. This requirement is largely redundant with the trigger.
2. The time-period when transient measured with $S/N > 5$ is less than 25 days (30 days for WFIRST).
3. There is at least one observation within 20 days prior to the first $S/N > 5$ observation.
4. There is at least one observation within 20 days after the last $S/N > 5$ observation.

² <https://www.ptf.caltech.edu/page/ztf>

³ PTF does not have set cadence/depth so is not included here

⁴ Includes Deep and Shallow Fields, numbers listed here are average over all fields

⁵ Observations coadded nightly in Biswas et al. (2017) from ‘MINION_1016’.

⁶ The ZTF simulation done here is for the public survey. Priv. Comm.: Peter Nugent

⁷ Priv. Comm.: John Tonry

⁸ asas-sn.osu.edu

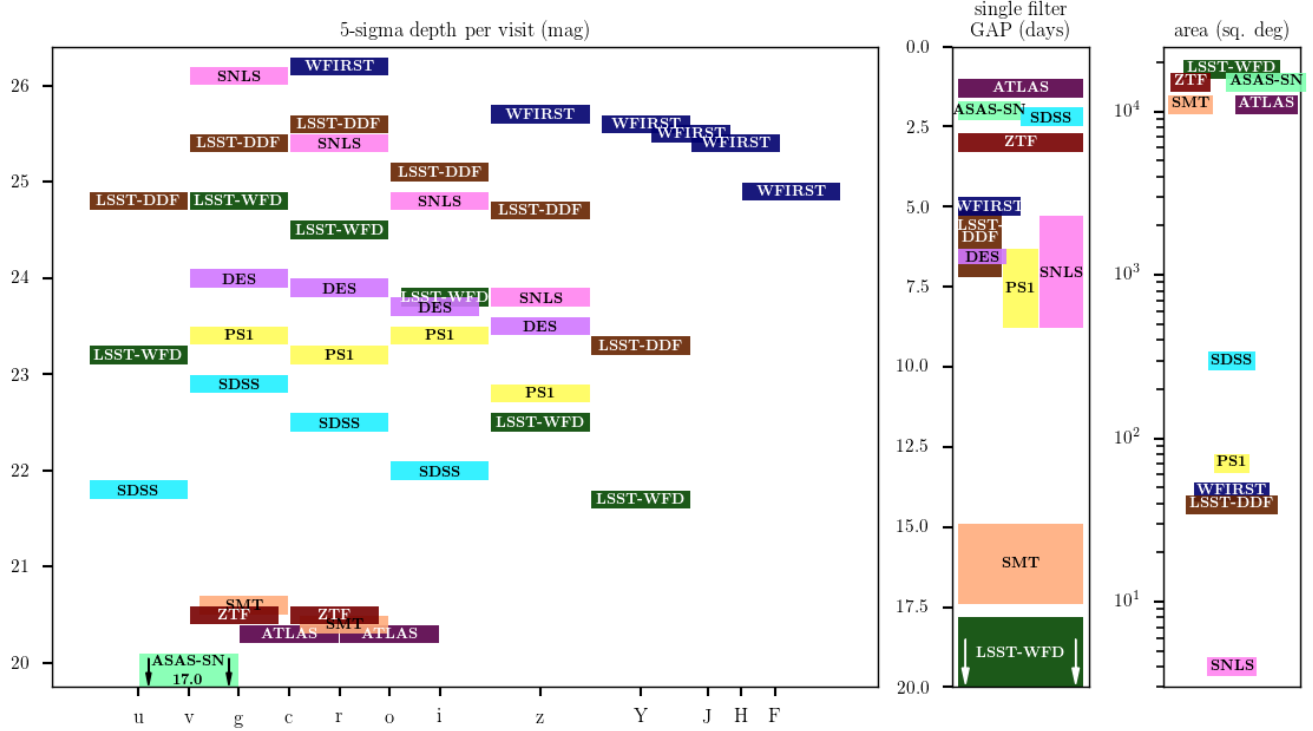


FIG. 1.— Display of key characteristics for *transient surveys* used in our analysis. Left panel shows the depth per night per filter. Middle panel shows the mean gap between repeat observations in a single filter. Right panel shows the survey area covered each observing-year.

TABLE 1
SUMMARY INFORMATION FOR EACH SURVEY.

Survey	Filters	Depths [5σ mag]	Cadences ^a [Days]	Area ^b [Sq. Deg]	Duration ^c [Years]	Citation ^d
SDSS	<i>ugriz</i>	21.8, 22.9, 22.5, 22.	2.2, 2.2, 2.2, 2.2	300	2	Frieman et al. (2008)
SNLS	<i>griz</i>	26.1, 25.4, 24.8, 23.8	8.8, 6.3, 5.3, 8.5	4	5	Astier et al. (2006)
PS1	<i>griz</i>	23.4, 23.2, 23.4, 22.8	8.8, 8.7, 8.2, 6.3	70	4	Scolnic et al. (2014)
DES	<i>griz</i>	24.0, 23.9, 23.7, 23.5	6.8, 6.4, 6.3, 6.5	27	5	Kessler et al. (2015)
ASAS-SN	<i>V</i>	17.5	2	15000	5	Shappee et al. (2014)
SMT	<i>gr</i>	20.6, 20.4	17.4, 14.9	11000	5	Scalzo et al. (2017)
ATLAS	<i>co</i>	20.3, 20.3	1.3, 1.3	11000	5	Tonry (2011)
ZTF	<i>gr</i>	20.5, 20.5	3.0, 3.0	15000	5	Bellm (2014)
LSST DDF	<i>ugrizy</i>	24.8, 25.4, 25.6, 25.1, 24.7, 23.3	5, 6, 7, 7, 7, 7	40	10	LSST Science Collab et al. (2009)
LSST WFD	<i>ugrizy</i>	23.2, 24.8, 24.5, 23.8, 22.5, 21.7	30, 35, 18, 19, 21, 18	18000	10	LSST Science Collab et al. (2009)
WFIRST	<i>RZYJHF</i>	26.2, 25.7, 25.6, 25.5, 25.4, 24.9	5, 5, 5, 5, 5	45	2	Hounsell et al. (2017)

^aMean duration between return visits in each filter.

^bTotal amount of sky area covered per year.

^cTotal number of years per survey.

^dDescribes observation history or characteristics.

The second requirement explicitly rejects long-lived light curves. The last two requirements reject events that peak before or after the survey time window.

4. RESULTS

The predicted number of KN detections for each survey is given in Table 2. In all of the existing data samples (SDSS, SNLS, PS1, DES, SMT), the expected number of events is well below unity, although the expected number is ~ 0.7 if the KN totals from these 4 surveys are combined. Despite the wide variety of area, cadence and depth, the predicted number of detections in SDSS, SNLS, PS1, DES are all within a factor of ~ 2 .

For future surveys, the estimated rate is larger. As

TABLE 2
EXPECTED NUMBER OF KNE FOUND IN EACH SAMPLE.

Survey	# KNe ^a	Survey Years	KN Redshift Range
SDSS	0.13	2	0.02 – 0.05
SNLS	0.11	4	0.05 – 0.20
PS1	0.22	4	0.03 – 0.11
DES	0.26	5	0.05 – 0.20
ASAS-SN	< 0.001	3	—
SMT	0.001	5	0.01 – 0.01
ATLAS	8.3	5	0.01 – 0.03
ZTF	10.6	5	0.01 – 0.04
LSST WFD	69	10	0.02 – 0.25
LSST DDF	5.5	10	0.05 – 0.25
WFIRST	16.0	2	0.1 – 0.8

^aTotal for entire duration of survey.

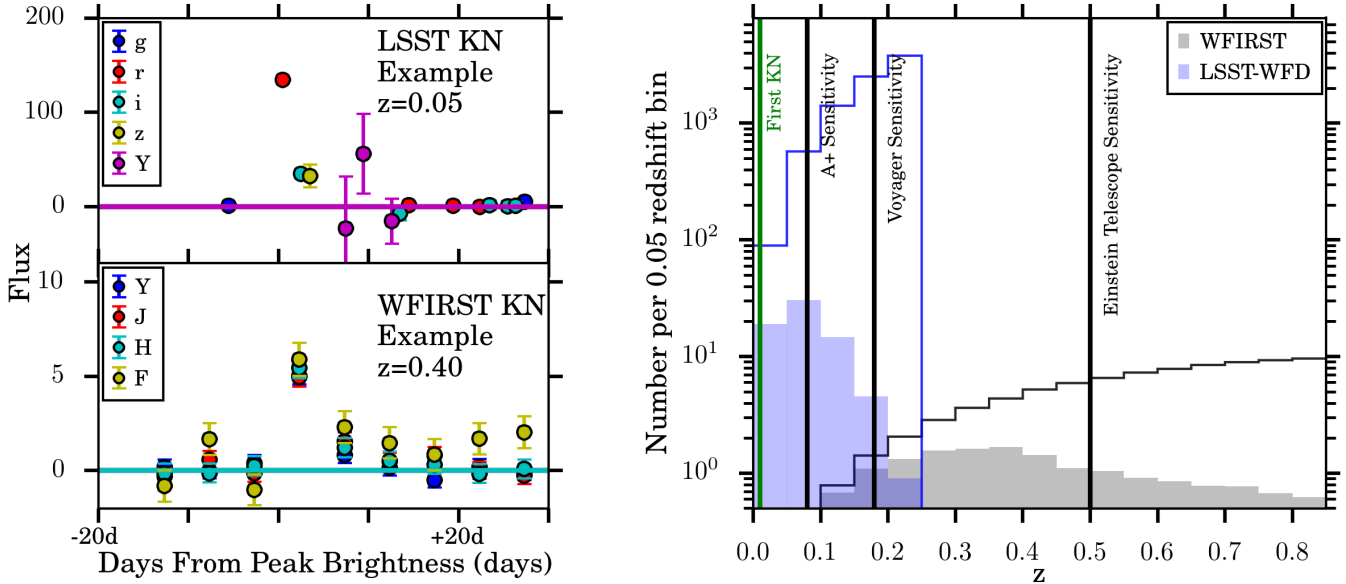


FIG. 2.— (Left) Example simulated KN light-curves from LSST and WFIRST that pass our selection requirements. The vertical axis flux unit is defined such that $mag = 27.5 - 2.5 \log(Flux)$. (Right) KN redshift distributions for all events in the survey footprint (solid histogram) and for events passing selection requirements (shaded histogram). Green vertical line shows the KN redshift ($z = 0.0098$), and black vertical lines show the sensitivity of future GW experiments.

shown in Table 2, the number of KN discoveries from ATLAS and ZTF is $\sim 1 - 2$ per year, due to their depth and rapid cadence. The number of discoveries from LSST WFD is ~ 7 per year and from LSST DDF is ~ 0.5 per year. Fig. 2-left shows a discovered KN light curve for LSST WFD. Fig. 2-right shows that LSST WFD can discover $< 5\%$ of the KNe events in their footprint out to $z = 0.25$.

WFIRST has a shorter transient survey duration (2 years), but still finds as many KNe per season as LSST. This KN discovery potential is from a combination of depth, medium-sized area, and high red sensitivity. We find that the WFIRST efficiency is as high as $\sim 30\%$ in its survey volume. Most interestingly, as shown in Fig. 2, we see that WFIRST will discover KNe out to $z = 0.8$. Since WFIRST includes observations in the H and F bands, a KN with peak luminosity in the rest-frame z band can still be discovered at $z \sim 0.5$ in these red filters.

To illustrate the interplay between depth, rate, and sky coverage, we show in Fig. 3 the r and Y detection limits of multiple surveys overlaid on our KN lightcurve as it would appear at discrete redshifts.

4.1. Background Contamination From Supernovae

With 69 KN events expected for the LSST WFD survey, we now switch to simulating the background from supernova (SNe). We include Type Ia SNe (SNIa) based on the SALT2-II spectral model (Betoule et al. 2014), and core collapse (CC) SNe based on a library of 43 templates (Kessler et al. 2010).

In addition to the trigger and analysis requirements in §3, we use the PSNID fitting program (Sako et al. 2008) to select KN-like objects via light curve template matching. The templates include SNIa, Type II SNe, Type Ib/c SNe, and our KN event. For a given simulated CC template, the corresponding template is removed from

the PSNID fit so that we don't match a simulated CC template to itself. This PSNID analysis uses bands at all wavelengths, and thus even a KN flux limit in the bluer bands add useful information.

For the full 10 year survey, we generated nearly 200 million SNe (16% Ia, 84% CC), and find that 9 events are identified as a KN by PSNID. However, only 2 of these events have a reasonable fit-probability, $P_{\text{fit}} > 0.001$, where P_{fit} is computed from the χ^2 and number of degrees of freedom. This background is 2.9% of the number of KNe detected.

5. DISCUSSION

None of the surveys discussed here have been optimized to find KNe, so the KN yields are expected to be low. SDSS, PS1, SNLS, LSST DDF, and WFIRST are all partially optimized for measurement of SNIa light-curves, which have typical durations of 60 days. While we expect ~ 1 KNe in past datasets, we note that it is unlikely to find such an event in light-curve catalogs. Instead, a search for KNe in old data requires a re-analysis of all single-epoch detections to make less strict trigger cuts than those applied during past surveys. As improved volumetric KN rate estimates become available, all of our KN predictions can be re-scaled.

We have performed a preliminary study of SN background, and while this small (3%) background is encouraging, we note a few caveats that require further study. First, our simulations do not include potential contaminants from rare SN types, moving objects (asteroids), and non-SN transients such as orphan afterglows of GRBs (e.g., Singer et al. 2013) and M-dwarf flares (e.g., Hawley et al. 2014).

The second caveat is that we have implicitly assumed that all KN are the same, which is very unlikely to be correct. Ideally, our single KN template should be expanded to accept a wide range of KNe, perhaps with the aid of theoretical models such as Barnes et al. (2016).

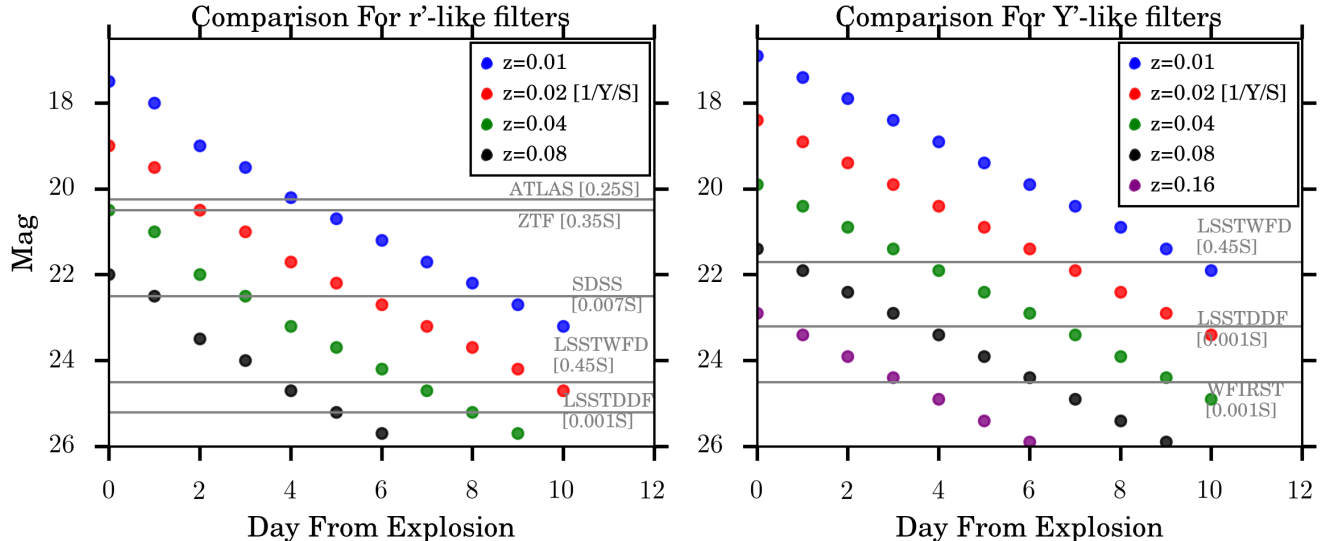


FIG. 3.— Synthetic KN light curves at different redshifts (see legend) for LSST r band (left) and Y band (right). Horizontal lines indicate search depth for labelled survey.

However, the challenge is to keep the SN backgrounds low while accepting a broader class of KN events.

Another caveat is that we have used the full end-of-survey light curves, but to get crucial follow-up observations with other instruments, KN events need to be efficiently identified within a few days of the merger event. Partial light curve studies will be needed to optimize KN target selection.

The final caveat is related to the KN host galaxies. In a recent search of DES-SN data (without a GW trigger), Doctor et al. (2017) found that image-subtraction artifacts increase the flux scatter well beyond what is expected from Poisson noise, and thus reduces the search sensitivity by a factor of 3 if all KNe occur inside their host galaxy. For KN events like this one, the event is well away from the galaxy center, as is expected for the majority of short GRB (Fong et al. 2013). Therefore, image-subtraction artifacts are likely to be a subdominant issue, though the impact on expected KN should still be quantified.

One of the most interesting findings of this analysis is the ability for WFIRST to discover high-redshift KNe. This is particularly exciting because it would probe the cosmic history of NS-mergers. Furthermore, it could provide an absolute distance scale to $z \sim 0.5$, which could be the first absolute distance measurement in between the local and CMB Hubble constant measurements. What’s also illuminating is that WFIRST may detect KNe at higher redshift than the sensitivity of future GW missions. Chen et al. (in prep.), based on methodology from Chen et al. (2017), estimates the sensitivity of next generation gravitational wave detectors and we mark these sensitivities on Fig. 2. We find that the LIGO upgrade A+ design, the future detector LIGO Voyager, and the planned Einstein Telescope all have sensitivity to GW triggers below the depth of WFIRST to KN events. Furthermore, theoretical models consistent with Cowperthwaite et al. (2017 in press) suggest that the blue component depends on viewing angle, while the red component

is isotropic. The IR capability of WFIRST may therefore have the additional advantage of better sensitivity to all viewing angles. There is an ongoing effort to design a joint GW and WFIRST program, called *GWFIRST*, optimized for NIR follow-up of GW detections.

Lastly, this analysis only looks at survey detections without a GW trigger, whereas the most likely mode for most telescopes will be follow-up of announced GW events. With estimates of area, cadence and observing conditions, all of the simulation tools used here can be used to optimize follow-up strategies.

6. CONCLUSION

We have used simulations to predict the number of KNe that can be found in past, present and future datasets. The simulation uses a KN model that matches our DECam light curve data, and for each survey it uses realistic observation histories. We find that the expected number of events for every past survey is $\sim 0-0.3$ due to the small area, shallow depth, or sparse cadence, though combined can be up to ~ 1 event. For future surveys like LSST and WFIRST, we expect tens of KN discoveries. In particular, we find that WFIRST can find KNe at redshifts past planned GW sensitivities of future projects, opening up new possibilities of cosmological KN and NS science.

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