



Observing the Universe with the IceCube Observatory

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lectures outline

neutrino telescopes & the IceCube Observatory

observing the Universe

neutrino observations

cosmic ray observations

astrophysics & interdisciplinary sciences

outline observing the Universe with IceCube

IceCube Observatory

event detection in Antarctica

cosmic ray acceleration mechanisms

neutrinos as probe into remote sources

effective area

IceCube Observatory the instrumentation



IceCube Observatory the instrumentation

20 cm

110 cm

40 cm

80 CT



IceCube Observatory the instrumentation







Digital Optical Module the signal digitization



different gains

in amplitude







Digital Optical Module the photon sensitivity

600 **Cherenkov photon** wavelength spectrum 400 200





glass/gel transmittance low wavelength cut-off



wavelength (nm)



distance



effect of light absorption as a function of distance

effect of light **scattering** as a function of distance

distance

combined effect of light **absorption** and **scattering** as a function of distance

optical properties of antarctic ice important for estimating the **particle energy** (# Cherenkov photons) & the **particle direction** (photon arrival time)

distance



- depth dependency from glaciological history of Antarctica
- absorption & scattering about the same order of magnitude
- use on-site flasher LED to measure photon absorption and arrival times as a function of distance
- implement scattering models and account for wavelength dependence



- ice optical properties essential for physics
- ▶ absorption affects charge ~ <u>energy estimation</u>
- scattering affects time ~

event direction





detection principle - cascade $v_e v_\tau CC$ -int & $v_i NC$ -int



 $\approx \pm 15\%$ deposited energy resolution $\approx 10^{\circ}$ angular resolution (at energies ≥ 100TeV)

Claudio Kopper - WIPAC

Paolo Desiati

detection principle - cascade $v_e v_\tau CC$ -int & $v_i NC$ -int



 $\approx \pm 15\%$ deposited energy resolution $\approx 10^{\circ}$ angular resolution (at energies ≥ 100TeV)

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detection principle - track





factor of \approx 2 energy resolution < 1° angular resolution

Claudio Kopper - WIPAC

detection principle - track





factor of \approx 2 energy resolution < 1° angular resolution

Claudio Kopper - WIPAC

neutrino detection event topologies



event rate in IceCube growing experiment



- $R_{\mu} \sim 2200 \text{ Hz}$
- µ and v produced in the atmosphere by cosmic rays
- atmospheric temperature seasonal variations







 ~ equal amount of µ and v

- R_{event} ~ 2200 Hz
- µ and v produced in the atmosphere by cosmic rays
- atmospheric temperature seasonal variations



 ~1/10⁶ TeV neutrinos interact in the ice and is detected and reconstructed in IceCube





WHERE DO COSMIC RAY COME FROM ?

cosmic ray acceleration mechanisms where do cosmic ray come from ?

Remarks on Super-Novae and Cosmic Rays

We have recently called attention to a remarkable type of giant novae.¹ As the subject of super-novae is probably very unfamiliar we give here a few more details which are not contained in our original articles.

1. Distribution of super-novae

In our calculations we made use of the assumption that on the average one super-nova appears in each galaxy every thousand years. This estimate is based on the occurrence of super-novae in the following galaxies,

Our own galaxy	in 1572
Andromeda	1885
Messier 101	1907

These three systems are located within a sphere of radius 12×10^{5} light mars

We wish to emphasize that all of these finds are chance finds since a systematic search for super-novae has been organized only recently.

From the estimate of one super-nova per galaxy per thousand years it follows that 10^7 super-novae appear per year in the 10^{10} nebulae which are contained in a sphere of 2×10^9 years radius (critical distance derived from the red shift of nebulae). If cosmic rays come from super-novae their intensity in points far away from any individual super-nova will be essentially independent of time.

2. Comparison with the lifetime of stars

The lifetime of stars is supposed to be of the order of at least 10^{12} years. A nebula contains about 10^9 stars. These estimates, combined with the frequency of occurrence of one super-nova per galaxy per 10^3 years suggest that the

Baade & Zwicky 1934

PHYSICAL REVIEW

APRIL 15, 1949

On the Origin of the Cosmic Radiation

VOLUME 75, NUMBER 8

ENRICO FERMI Institute for Nuclear Studies, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois (Received January 3, 1949)

A theory of the origin of cosmic radiation is proposed according to which cosmic rays are originated and accelerated primarily in the interstellar space of the galaxy by collisions against moving magmetic fields. One of the features of the theory is that it yields naturally an inverse power law for the spectral distribution of the cosmic rays. The chief difficulty is that it fails to explain in a straightforward way the heavy nuclei observed in the primary radiation.

I. INTRODUCTION

IN recent discussions on the origin of the cosmic radiation E. Teller¹ has advocated the view that cosmic rays are of solar origin and are kept where H is the intensity of the magnetic field and ρ is the density of the interstellar matter.

One finds according to the present theory that a particle that is projected into the interstellar

Fermi 1949



- particles accelerated in our solar system
- coronal mass ejections
- solar wind termination shock
- planetary bow shock
- non thermal particle distributions
- @ magnetized collisionless shocks



- supernova explosion eject material into interstellar medium at *supersonic* speed
- shocks are produced with strong magnetic fields swiping across the interstellar medium
- magnetic turbulence & supersonic magnetic clouds accelerate thermal particles

particle scattering

in magnetic cloud



magnetized turbulence in astrophysical plasmas



- in astrophysical plasmas particle collisions are very rare $\lambda_{collision} \gg L_{cloud}$
- magnetic field interactions are **collisionless**
- particles with $r_{Larmor} \sim L_{cloud}$ effectively scatter conserving energy
- particle direction is *randomized* by the scattering process

magnetized turbulence in astrophysical plasmas



• in the **cloud's reference** frame $(E'_1 = E'_2)$

$$E_1' = \gamma E_1 \left(1 - \beta \cos \theta_1 \right)$$

• emitted in the **observer's reference** frame

$$E_2 = \gamma E_2' \left(1 + \beta \cos \theta_2' \right)$$

• energy gain per *scattering* process

$$\frac{\Delta E}{E_1} = \gamma^2 (1 + \beta \mu_2') (1 - \beta \mu_1) - 1$$

can be **positive** or **negative**





magnetized turbulence in astrophysical plasmas



• averaging over θ'_2 (flat in $\cos\theta'_2$)

$$\left\langle \frac{\Delta E}{E_1} \right\rangle_2 = \frac{\int_{-1}^1 d\mu_2' \frac{dn}{d\mu_2'} \frac{\Delta E}{E_1}}{\int_{-1}^1 d\mu_2' \frac{dn}{d\mu_2'}} = \gamma^2 (1 - \beta \mu_1) - 1$$

• averaging over
$$\theta_1 = \frac{dn}{d\mu_1} \propto (v_{part} - v_{cloud}) \sim (1 - \beta \mu_1)$$

$$\left\langle \frac{\Delta E}{E_1} \right\rangle_{1,2} = \frac{\int_{-1}^1 d\mu_1 \frac{dn}{d\mu_1} \left\langle \frac{\Delta E}{E_1} \right\rangle_2}{\int_{-1}^1 d\mu_1 \frac{dn}{d\mu_1}} = \frac{4}{3}\beta^2$$





- effects of magnetic turbulence from the shock dynamics
- astrophysical plasmas are turbulent
- cumulative effects of magnetic mirroring across magnetized shocks
- balancing acceleration and escape probabilities

downstream

upstream





 when crossing the shock from either side, the particle sees plasma moving toward it at a velocity of

$$\beta = \beta_1 - \beta_2 = \frac{3}{4}\beta_{sh}$$



conservation of mass, energy & momentum

effect of plasma decompression at the two sides of the shocks on the particle momenta

magnetized shock in astrophysical plasmas



- in the **cosmic ray reference** frame $(E'_1 = E'_2)$

$$E_1' = \gamma E_1 \left(1 - \beta \cos \theta_1 \right)$$

• emitted in the **observer's reference** frame

$$E_2 = \gamma E_2' \left(1 + \beta \cos \theta_2' \right)$$

• energy gain per scattering process

$$\frac{\Delta E}{E_1} = \gamma^2 (1 + \beta \mu'_2) (1 - \beta \mu_1) - 1$$

always **positive** $\mu_1 < 1 \& \mu'_2 > 0$



• averaging over θ'_2 $\frac{dn}{d\mu'_2} \propto \mu'_2(\mu'_2 > 0)$

$$\left\langle \frac{\Delta E}{E_1} \right\rangle_2 = \frac{\int_{-1}^1 d\mu_2' \frac{dn}{d\mu_2'} \frac{\Delta E}{E_1}}{\int_{-1}^1 d\mu_2' \frac{dn}{d\mu_2'}} = \gamma^2 (1 - \beta \mu_1 + \frac{2}{3}\beta - \frac{2}{3}\beta^2 \mu_1) - 1$$

• averaging over θ_1 $\frac{dn}{d\mu_1} \propto \mu_1(\mu_1 < 0)$

$$\left\langle \frac{\Delta E}{E_1} \right\rangle_{1,2} = \frac{\int_{-1}^1 d\mu_1 \frac{dn}{d\mu_1} \left\langle \frac{\Delta E}{E_1} \right\rangle_2}{\int_{-1}^1 d\mu_1 \frac{dn}{d\mu_1}} = \frac{4}{3}\beta$$

first order Fermi acceleration



shock's frame

Energy Spectrum

• **incoming flux**: rate of encounters for a plane shock is the projection of an isotropic flux onto the plane shock

$$\Phi_{in} = \int_0^1 d\mu \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \frac{cn}{4\pi} \mu = \frac{cn}{4}$$

• **outgoing flux**: in the shock rest frame, there is an outflow of cosmic-rays upstream (removed from downstream region)

$$\Phi_{out} = n\beta_2 c$$

in shock's reference frame

• escape probability

$$P_{esc} = \frac{\Phi_{in}}{\Phi_{out}} = 4\beta_2$$



Energy Spectrum

- energy gain / collision $\frac{\Delta E}{E} \equiv \xi = \frac{4}{3}\beta = \beta_{sh}$
- escape probability

$$P_{esc} = 4\beta_2 = \beta_{sh}$$

• in a collision cycle (τ_{cycle}) $\frac{\Delta N}{\Delta E} = -\frac{P_{esc}}{\xi}\frac{N}{E}$

• energy spectrum $N(E)dE = N_0 \left(\frac{E}{E_0}\right)^{-1 - \ln P_{esc} / \ln \xi} dE$

$$N(E)dE = N_0 \left(\frac{E}{E_0}\right)^{-2} dE$$

for non-relativistic shocks

in supernova remnants

- efficient acceleration: dynamical reaction of CR particle on magnetized plasmas
 - streaming instability induced by accelerated particles leads to magnetic field amplification upstream
 - in addition to magnetic field amplification by compression downstream
 - non-linear diffusive shock acceleration
 - ➡ predicts ∝ E⁻² (or concave spectra)



ALICE Large Hadron Collider - CERN ATLAS HIGD B = 8.33 Tesla

cosmic ray acceleration sites Hillas plot





 acceleration possible if particle confined in acceleration site

 $E_{max} \sim size \times field strength$

$$E_{max} \sim 10^{18} Z \beta_{sh} \left(\frac{R_{size}}{kpc}\right) \left(\frac{B}{\mu G}\right) eV$$

Hillas plot



Larmor radius



- magnetic (Lorentz) force $\vec{F} = q\left(\vec{v} \times \vec{B}\right)$ (perpendicular to velocity and B-field)
 - $|q|v_{\perp}B = \frac{mv_{\perp}^2}{r_g}$

• orbit radius (Larmor radius or gyro-radius)

• Lorentz Force = centripetal force







cosmic rays at the sources

inelasticity

$$E_{\nu} \sim E_{\gamma}/2 \sim \kappa E_p/4$$

• relative multiplicity

 $K = N_{\pi^{\pm}}/N_{\pi^{0}}$

pion fraction

 $f_{\pi} \sim 1 - e^{-\kappa \, \tau_{\text{optical depth}}}$





courtesy: M. Ahlers

cosmic rays near the sources



20 PeV protons



- pN (matter) or pγ (radiation) ?
- galactic or extra-galactic sources ?
- point sources or *diffuse* ?
- what mixture of hadronic/leptonic proc.'s ?
- find v associated to y rays

2 PeV gamma rays Find v associated to UHE cosmic rays

cosmic rays γ & ν carry the past history of cosmic rays



cosmic rays at Earth



cosmic rays reconstruct their history

v and y from freshly accelerated cosmic rays

astrophysical neutrinos probing sources

> v and y from propagating cosmic ray interactions

astrophysical neutrinos probing propagation

v and µ from old cosmic rays interacting in Earth's atmosphere

atmospheric neutrinos

Photon

Neutrino



Particle Cascade



neutrino telescopes effective area

- neutrino telescopes have a well defined light sensitive instrumented volume ...
- ... however, they do NOT have a well defined detection volume
- neutrinos can interact outside the instrumented volumes and be indirectly detected

the **neutrino effective area** is the equivalent area for which all neutrinos of a given flux impinging on the Earth would be observed. Absorption effects of the Earth are considered as part of the detector and folded in the effected area



neutrino telescopes effective area

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• empirical definition
$$A_{\text{eff}}(E_{\nu},\theta) = \frac{N_{\text{DET}}(E_{\nu},\theta)}{N_{\text{IN}}(E_{\nu},\theta)} \cdot A_{\text{IN}}(E_{\nu},\theta)$$

 $A_{\text{eff}}^{\nu}(E_{\nu},\theta) = A_{\text{IN}}(E_{\nu},\theta) \cdot \frac{N_{\text{A}}}{\text{A}} \cdot \int_{E} \epsilon_{\mu}^{\text{DET}}(E_{\mu},\theta) \cdot \sigma_{\nu\mu}(E_{\nu},E_{\mu}) \cdot R_{\mu}(E_{\mu}) \cdot dE_{\mu}$



number of events

42

$$n_{\nu}^{\rm DET} = T \cdot \int_{\Omega} \int_{E_{\nu}} A_{\rm eff}^{\nu}(E_{\nu},\theta) \cdot \frac{d\Phi_{\rm th}^{\nu}(E_{\nu},\Omega)}{d\Omega dE_{\nu}} \cdot d\Omega \, dE_{\nu}$$



neutrino telescopes effective area





THANK YOU



NEXT:

- BACKGROUND REJECTION
- ATMOSPHERIC NEUTRINOS
- NEUTRINO ASTROPHYSICS