

**TIME-DEPENDENT SEARCHES FOR NEUTRINO POINT SOURCES WITH THE
ICECUBE OBSERVATORY**

by

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents four searches for flaring sources of neutrinos using the IceCube neutrino telescope. For the first time, a search is performed over the entire parameter space of energy, direction and time with sensitivity to neutrino flares lasting between $20\ \mu\text{s}$ and a year duration from astrophysical sources. Searches which integrate over time are less sensitive to flares because they are affected by a larger background of atmospheric neutrinos and muons that can be reduced by the use of additional timing information. Flaring sources considered here, such as active galactic nuclei, soft gamma-ray repeaters and gamma-ray bursts, are promising candidate neutrino emitters.

One search is "untriggered" in the sense that it looks for any possible flare in the entire sky and from a predefined catalog of sources from which photon flares have been recorded. The other two searches are triggered by multi-wavelength information on flares. One triggered search uses lightcurves from Fermi-LAT which provides continuous monitoring. A second triggered search uses information where the flux states have been measured only for short periods of time near the flares. A search for periodic emission of neutrinos is also performed on binary systems in the galaxy which are thought to be sources of particle acceleration. The searches use data taken by 40 strings of IceCube between Apr 5, 2008 and May 20, 2009 and by 59 strings of IceCube between May 20, 2009 and May 31, 2010. The results from all searches are compatible with a fluctuation of the background.

To my pet rock, Skippy.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I thank the many people who have done lots of nice things for me.

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents four searches for flaring sources of neutrinos using the IceCube neutrino telescope. For the first time, a search is performed over the entire parameter space of energy, direction and time with sensitivity to neutrino flares lasting between $20\ \mu\text{s}$ and a year duration from astrophysical sources. Searches which integrate over time are less sensitive to flares because they are affected by a larger background of atmospheric neutrinos and muons that can be reduced by the use of additional timing information. Flaring sources considered here, such as active galactic nuclei, soft gamma-ray repeaters and gamma-ray bursts, are promising candidate neutrino emitters.

One search is "untriggered" in the sense that it looks for any possible flare in the entire sky and from a predefined catalog of sources from which photon flares have been recorded. The other two searches are triggered by multi-wavelength information on flares. One triggered search uses lightcurves from Fermi-LAT which provides continuous monitoring. A second triggered search uses information where the flux states have been measured only for short periods of time near the flares. A search for periodic emission of neutrinos is also performed on binary systems in the galaxy which are thought to be sources of particle acceleration. The searches use data taken by 40 strings of IceCube between Apr 5, 2008 and May 20, 2009 and by 59 strings of IceCube between May 20, 2009 and May 31, 2010. The results from all searches are compatible with a fluctuation of the background.

Chapter 1

Introduction

High-energy neutrinos can be produced in the direct vicinity of charged cosmic ray sources by the interaction of the high-energy cosmic rays with matter or photon fields. In those processes, charged pions are produced and result in a flux of high-energy neutrinos. The latter are unique messengers with which to observe the universe, as they have no charge and interact weakly, traveling directly from their point of creation essentially without absorption, distinguishing them from cosmic rays and high energy photons. Neutrinos are key in understanding the mechanisms of cosmic ray acceleration, and their detection from an astrophysical point source would be a clear indication of hadronic acceleration in that source. Time-integrated analyses suffer from a high irreducible background of atmospheric neutrinos and atmospheric muons, making them less sensitive for the detection of flaring sources. Time-dependent analyses aim to reduce this background by searching over smaller time scales around the flares. The searches discussed in this paper are about a factor of four to five more powerful than time-integrated searches for flares of ~ 1 s.

We call “triggered” searches those using multi-wavelength (MWL) information from photon experiments as a method of selecting flaring periods. Based on this information, we select catalogues of interesting candidate neutrino-emitting flares from sources such as Active Galactic Nuclei (AGN) and Soft Gamma Repeaters (SGR). The analysis uses a likelihood ratio method comparing a signal plus background hypothesis to a background only one to describe the data. The underlying assumption of triggered searches is that the neutrino emission follows the time-dependent emission of the photons, as a consequence of an enhanced state of the source when the jet can accelerate particles to higher energies than in the quiescent state. This hypothesis is assumed in the likelihood method as a prior. In order to make the search for flares as general

as possible, also an “untriggered” scan for clusters of events in time and direction without prior timing information is performed.

Chapter 2

Candidate Sources of Flaring Neutrino Emission

Currently no source of neutrinos of $\gtrsim 100$ GeV energy has been identified. The Sun and supernova 1987a have been identified as sources of neutrinos with MeV energies, however. SN1987a was detected in three detectors: Kamiokande II (11 neutrinos [?]), IMB (8 neutrinos [?]), and Baksan (5 neutrinos, [?]).

These sources are interesting candidates for high energy neutrino production due to their non-thermal spectra, which could make them capable of accelerating particles to extremely high energies which are seen in the cosmic ray spectrum.

Classes of Galactic and extra-galactic astronomical sources exhibit time-dependent emission that range from short bursts of the order of seconds up to minutes from GRBs or giant flares from SGRs, to longer flares from AGNs, lasting from hours to weeks. Sources thought to be steady are also included here since surprises are expected, such as the Crab Nebula supernova remnant, used as a 'standard candle' for TeV photon emission, exhibited two large flares observed in GeV photons in 2010-11.

2.1 Extragalactic source candidates

2.1.1 Active Galactic Nuclei

The first known AGN, now classified as 3C 273, was known to not be a star because it did not have the right absorption features and had very strong radio emission. It was theorized to be a distant galaxy with a bright core region [?].

AGN are powered by supermassive ($\gtrsim 10^6$ solar mass) black holes. Matter is collected in an accretion disk around the black hole, which heats up as gravitational potential is transformed into potential energy, and radiates in the optical. The area of hot rotating gas forms a magnetic field perpendicular to the disk, where two relativistic jets of matter are expelled from the active center of the galaxy. Blobs of matter are occasionally emitted from the central region down the jets, which emit brightly and are expected to be shock environments for particle acceleration.

Now hundreds of AGN are known [?], and their observed emission features are mainly determined by the angle between the relativistic jet with the Earth. Other classification features are the strength of object in radio bands, and the overall luminosity.

Faranoff Riley (FR) galaxies are observed from the side, such that the jet and inner torus is visible. These galaxies are split into low and high overall luminosity branches (FR-I and FR-II, respectively). Seyfert Galaxies are also oblique like FR galaxies, but are radio quiet and exhibit strong absorption lines.

Objects with the jet pointing directly at the Earth, the features are nearly all due to the relativistic particles with highly beamed emission. These are classified as BL Lac type objects (radio loud, low luminosity) or Flat Spectrum Radio Quasars (FSRQs, which are radio loud with high overall luminosity). These are the most interesting for neutrino astronomy, since nuclear decay products from the jet will also be beamed in the direction of the Earth. These objects also exhibit strong and fast variability due to the small emission region compared to the rest of the galaxy. The AGN tested for flaring behavior are exclusively BL Lacs or FSRQs, commonly unified in the AGN class of blazars.

The spectral energy distributions (SEDs) of blazars extend orders of magnitudes across the electromagnetic spectrum and are characterized by structures of low and high energy non-thermal peaks (see Figure 3.2). The low energy component in the radio to soft X-rays is due to synchrotron radiation of electrons gyrating in a magnetic field. The high energy component (X-ray to γ -ray) is explained in leptonic models by synchrotron emission of electrons in the jet and subsequent up-scattering of photons (inverse Compton) by the electron population responsible for the synchrotron emission. Hadronic models are used to explain the high energy component with relativistic protons,

with energies above the threshold for $p\text{-}\gamma$ or $p\text{-}p$ pion production, which will decay to γ -rays and also neutrinos. Proton synchrotron emission can also contribute to the high-energy component if they are accelerated to very high energies (for a review on models see e.g. [5, 6, 7] and references therein).

The emission from blazars is known to be variable at all wavelengths. Simultaneous MWL observations are crucial for understanding the cause of this variability [8, 9, 10, 11, 12]. The intensity of these objects can vary by more than an order of magnitude between different observing epochs. The typical time scales of AGN flares vary from hours to days, though high-energy variability has been observed on much shorter time scales, in some cases even down to just a few minutes [13, 14].

The most prominent candidate model for the SED structure of blazars explains the emission using only relativistic electrons (and positrons). The electrons gyrate in the electric field, emitting synchrotron radiation, which accounts for the lower-energy emission hump. The photons are upscattered via the inverse Compton effect on the same population of electrons, giving the Synchrotron Self Compton (SSC) model for blazar emission. The intensity and peak of the second emission hump are controlled by the energy and density the electron population, and fluctuations in emission from both peaks will be correlated. Another possible cause of the blazar SED is relativistic protons being accelerated in the emitted blobs, which will undergo pp and $p\gamma$ interactions, producing pions. Neutral pions decay to gamma-rays up to TeV energies, forming the high energy peak. Charged pions will also be produced, which will produce TeV neutrinos upon decay, so detecting neutrinos is unambiguous evidence of hadronic acceleration.

Perhaps the most compelling evidence of hadronic models are observations of “orphan” flares, defined as TeV photon emission without accompanying X-rays, such as the 1ES 1959+650 flare in 2002 [15]. An a posteriori observation with AMANDA-II of two events [16], one exactly during the flare and another 31 days later, triggered some theoretical calculations [17, 18]. A previous stacking search for neutrinos from AGNs used AMANDA data [19]. Two recent flares included in the MWL triggered searches (see Sections 11.1 and 11.2, also [20, 21, 22, 23]) are suspected to be orphan flares, but X-ray observations were not simultaneous with gamma-ray observations and there is a possibility of having missed the X-ray flare.

2.1.2 Gamma-ray Bursts

Gamma-Ray Bursts are believed to be produced by the most powerful phenomena in the universe [24, 25], are interesting as time-dependent candidate neutrino sources [26, 27]. IceCube conducts dedicated searches using satellite information for these objects ([28], [29], [30]). Untriggered searches are also sensitive to this source class if two or more neutrinos can be detected from the same GRB. While the dedicated searches are in general much more sensitive due to the timing and directional information from GRBs observed in gamma- or X-rays), the untriggered search has the potential to detect a burst which was not observed in photons (due to e.g. absorption or lack of monitoring).

Presently the best candidate model for high-energy emission from GRBs is the fireball model. The prompt gamma-rays are made in expanding shocks in plasma ejected in a relativistic, highly beamed ($\Gamma = 100 - 1000$) jet. These jets may be produced by the merger of neutron stars or by the formation of a black hole, and may also accelerate hadrons to TeV energies leading to the production of neutrinos. GRBs come in two populations, separated by the duration of high-energy emission: GRBs less than two seconds are thought to be due to neutron star mergers, those longer than two seconds thought to be due to black hole formation in supernova explosions.

2.2 Galactic source candidates

Source candidates in the Milky way are thought to dominate the cosmic ray spectrum up to the knee at 3 PeV. These source candidates are related to the energy released in supernovae in some form: the estimated number of supernovae in the Milky Way is 3 per century, and the observed flux over the cosmic ray spectrum up to the knee corresponds to roughly 10% of the energy from the shock front of material released in these massive explosions.

2.2.1 Supernova Remnants

As a star ages, it gradually begins to fuse successively more massive nuclei in its core, until it reaches iron where fusion becomes an endothermic reaction. Hot material which does not contribute to the energy budget of the star accumulates in the core while fusion continues in shells outside the core, where electron fermion degeneracy sustains the core against the pressure of outer layers. When a white dwarf has a mass of > 1.44 solar masses, the theoretical radius of the object becomes less than zero [?, ?]. At that point, it becomes energetically favorable for the protons in the star to capture electrons, forming neutrons. This releases the gravitational energy of the dwarf or stellar core in a shower of electron neutrinos in what is classified as a supernova. The compact remnant depends on the mass of the original star, and can be either a black hole or a neutron star. Neutron stars have strong magnetic fields (10^{12} G) and a rotational period of as low as milliseconds, while black holes are so compact that the escape velocity is faster than the speed of light.

When a star explodes in a supernova, much of its material is ejected in a spherical shell with typical radial velocities of 10^5 m/s **cite**. As the shell expands, it will push out into the thin material of the interstellar medium forming a shock front. This environment will energize particles via Fermi acceleration (see Section 4.3.1). These objects show a hard energy spectra with a cutoff for gamma-rays above 10 TeV **cite**.

2.2.2 Soft Gamma-ray Repeaters

The neutron star remnants from supernova explosions are roughly 10 km in size, and feature extremely strong magnetic fields and have rotational periods of milliseconds to seconds, depending on the age and surrounding material. There is a narrow, bright electromagnetic beam which can be seen if it crosses the observer's line of sight.

SGR's are X-ray pulsars that show variability at different timescales and a persistent X-ray emission with luminosity $L \sim 10^{35}$ erg/s with short bursts of X- and γ -rays with $L \sim 10^{41}$ erg/s lasting $\sim 0.1 - 1$ s (for review see [31]). These X-ray pulsars, together with Anomalous X-ray Pulsars, are considered to be the best candidates for magnetars, isolated neutron stars powered by

huge magnetic fields ($B \sim 10^{15} \text{ G}$). At times these sources emit giant flares with initial spikes of hard non-thermal radiation up to luminosities of $\sim 10^{46} \text{ erg/s}$ lasting some seconds. These flares may also accelerate baryons and produce neutrinos [32, 33, 34]. Limits for photons in the 10 TeV-100 PeV energy range using AMANDA-II data were published from the powerful giant flare observed in Dec. 2004 from SGR 1806-20 [35]. In the catalogue used in one of the triggered flare searches (Section 11.2), a period of intense flares from SGR 0501+4516 discovered by SWIFT on Aug. 22, 2008, and observed also by RXTE/ASM, Konus-Wind and the Fermi GBM [36] is included.

2.2.3 Microquasars and Binary Objects

When two stars of unequal masses are in a binary system, they will evolve through the main sequence at different rates [?], one expiring before the other. If the more massive star is massive enough to explode in a supernova, the stellar remnant, a neutron star or black hole, will remain gravitationally locked with its companion star. X-ray binaries are systems with a companion star and a stellar-mass compact object. There are two classes of binary systems: High Mass X-ray Binaries (HMXB), where the companion star is a large O/B star; and Low Mass X-ray Binaries (LMXB), where the companion is only a few solar masses. When the companion star overfills the Roche Lobe of the system, the overflow falls into the gravitational well of the compact object, forming an accretion disk. In the disk, the material accelerates and heats up due to friction closer to the last stable orbit.

Microquasars are special cases of X-ray binaries, where photon emission is visible from two jets from the compact object, similar to AGN. X-ray and in some cases gamma-ray emission is visible from the central part of the system, and optical to radio emission from farther out along the jet. These systems are variable, some, such as Cygnus X-1 and Cygnus X-3, exhibit occasional bursts of activity. Others, such as LS I +61 303, have highly elliptical orbits and are seen to emit TeV photons during the part of the orbit when the binary objects are farthest (apastron) [37].

2.3 Acceleration potential of sources

Charged particles can be accelerated in the shock fronts in SNR or AGN, rotating neutron stars can also have tremendous time-dependent magnetic fields with the potential to accelerate particles. However, a given source will have a maximum energy to which it can accelerate particles depending on the strength of the magnetic field and the size of the region permeated by the field.

A charged particle will no longer be confined to a region with a magnetic field when the Larmor radius is greater than the size of the region, which sets an upper limit on the energy of particles which can be produced. The Larmor radius of a particle with momentum $\vec{p}$ in a magnetic field with perpendicular component $B_{\perp}$ is expressed as:

$$R = \frac{|\vec{p}|}{qB_{\perp}} = \frac{E/c}{ZeB_{\perp}}. \quad (2.1)$$

The equation for the maximum particle energy is then:

$$\frac{E_{\max}}{\text{GeV}} \simeq 3 \times 10^{-2} \times Z \times \frac{R}{\text{km}} \times \frac{B}{\text{G}} \quad (2.2)$$

The maximum energy is proportional to the charge of the particle Z , the size of the region and the strength of the magnetic field, leading to a plot showing the candidate accelerators for the top of the cosmic ray spectrum (see Figure 2.1)

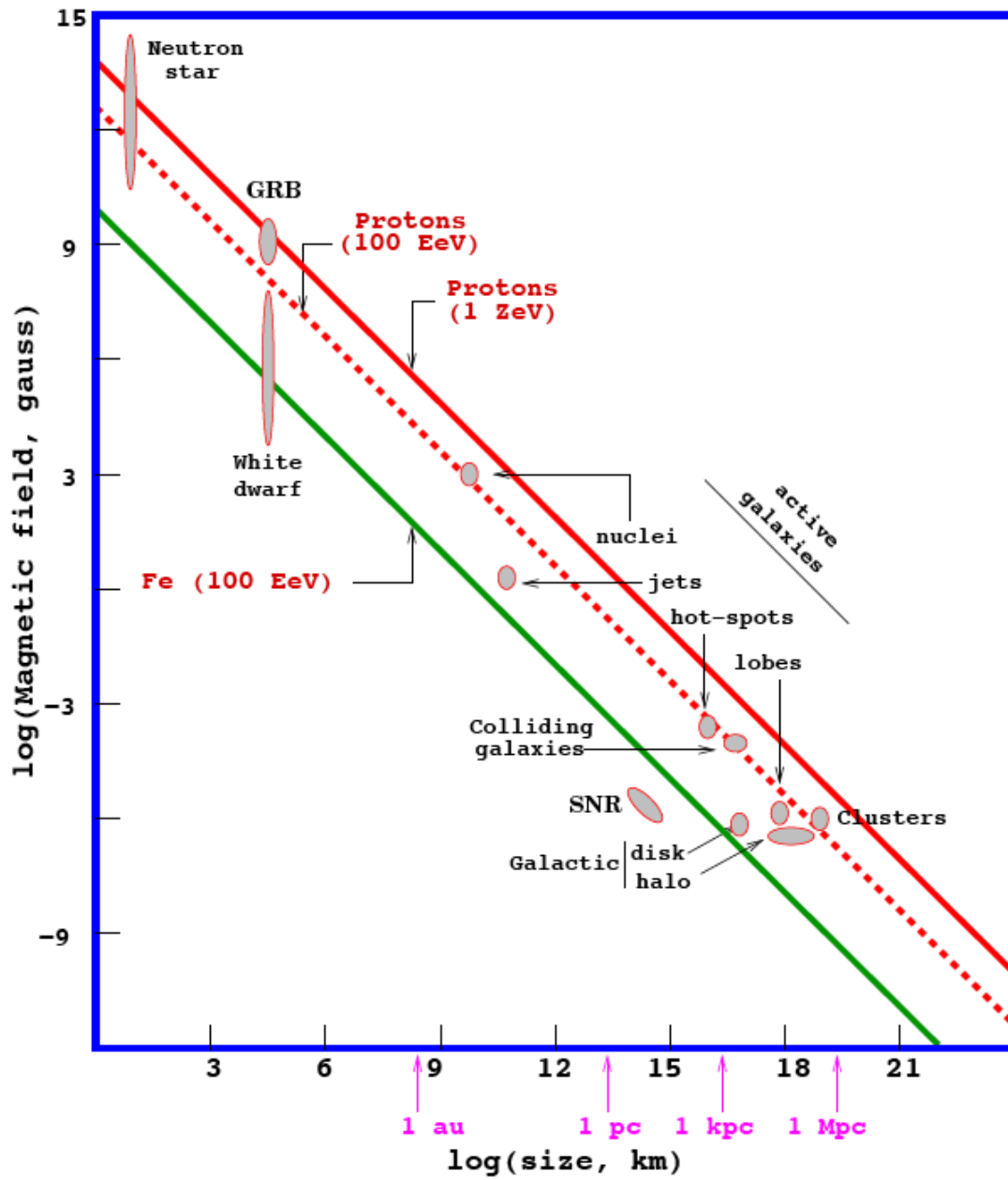


Figure 2.1: The Hillas plot of the distribution of source sizes and magnetic field strengths required to accelerate cosmic rays to specific energies, here marked for protons and iron. Classes of astronomical objects which may be accelerators are marked. Plot from [?].

Chapter 3

Multi-Wavelength Observations

Observations of sources in photons is essential for their characterization, since the processes which accelerate particles to relativistic energies will also exhibit emission of high-energy photon with a characteristic spectrum. **note this comes before the discussion on particle acceleration right now.** Sources in the Milky Way have been observed to emit photons of ~ 100 TeV in energy cite.

The first known AGN, now classified as 3C 273, was known to not be a star because it did not have the right absorption features and had very strong radio emission. It was theorized to be a distant galaxy with a bright core region [?] Now hundreds of AGN are known [?], and their observed emission features are mainly determined by the angle between the relativistic jet with the Earth. Other classification features are the strength of object in radio bands, and the overall luminosity.

Objects with the jet pointing directly at the Earth, the features are nearly all due to the relativistic particles with highly beamed emission. These are classified as BL Lac type objects (radio loud, low luminosity) or Flat Spectrum Radio Quasars (FSRQs, which are radio loud with high overall luminosity). These are the most interesting for neutrino astronomy, since nuclear decay products from the jet will also be beamed in the direction of the Earth. These objects also exhibit strong and fast variability due to the small emission region compared to the rest of the galaxy. The AGN tested for flaring behavior are exclusively BL Lacs or FSRQs.

Faranoff Riley (FR) galaxies are observed from the side, such that the jet and inner torus is visible. These galaxies are split into low and high overall luminosity branches (FR-I and FR-II,

respectively). Seyfert Galaxies are also oblique like FR galaxies, but are radio quiet and exhibit strong absorption lines.

3.1 High Energy Photon Observatories

3.1.1 Swift X-Ray Space Telescope

The Swift telescope was launched on November 20, 2004 with instruments to detect and study GRBs, with several instruments to detect the initial burst and to study the afterglow after slewing to the burst coordinates [?]. The Burst Alert Telescope is designed to cover a 3 steradian piece of the sky, with a randomly distributed coded mask of lead tiles. The BAT energy range is 15-150 keV, but photons of > 50 keV energy pass through the mask and cannot be used to deconvolve into pointed measurements. Swift also has instruments to make pointed ultraviolet and optical measurements (the UVOT) and the X-ray Telescope (XRT) to take pointed images and spectra of GRB afterglows.

3.1.2 Fermi Gamma-Ray Space Telescope

The Fermi satellite was launched on June 11, 2008. It has two primary instruments, the Large Area Telescope, or LAT [?], there is also the Gamma-Ray Burst Monitor, or GBM, designed to detect GRBs over a 9.5 steradian field of view [?].

The LAT is a pair-production telescope with a 2.4 steradian field of view. It operates in a continuous scanning mode, so it is able to scan the entire sky every two orbits, or about 3 hours, and for any object it samples the lightcurve several times per day. The main component is a 4x4 array of silicon-strip pair tracker with tungsten conversion foils and a Cesium Iodide calorimeter for energy measurement. The tracker and calorimeter are covered by a plastic scintillator anti-coincidence detector to veto tracks due to the much larger numbers of cosmic-rays. The angular resolution is strongly energy dependent, from 68% containment in 3° at 100 MeV to 0.04° at 100 GeV. Energy resolution of the LAT is typically better than 10% for the nominal energy range of 100 MeV to 300 GeV.

After 11 months of operation, the Fermi-LAT collaboration published their first AGN catalogue [38] containing 709 GeV-sources associated with AGNs, many of which are in the previously published Bright Source list catalogue [39]. The Fermi-LAT collaboration has a study of the fluctuations of a sample of blazars using the first 11 months of data [?], featuring many of the sources tested with IceCube for coincident gamma and neutrino emission.

3.1.3 Ground based observatories

At photon energies above 1 TeV, satellite based observatories no longer have the area necessary to get sufficient statistics for the purposes of point-source astronomy. TeV energy photons interacting in the atmosphere create electromagnetic cascades through bremsstrahlung and electron-positron pair production. These cascades propagate down through the atmosphere in a thin pancake of light which can be detected by ground based observatories.

3.1.3.1 Imaging Atmospheric Čerenkov Telescopes

IACTs use a telescope to focus the light from about a 4° diameter view of the sky onto photomultiplier tubes, forming an image of the shower track. Due to the detection technique, data can only be taken on clear, moonless nights, resulting in a duty cycle of roughly 10%. The energy sensitivity ranges from 100 GeV to 10 TeV. The first type of this detector is the single Whipple 10 m telescope, which first detected TeV photon emission from the Crab nebula [?].

However, detecting the same shower in multiple locations allows for a better angular resolution, on the order of 0.05° to 0.1° . The VERITAS array of four telescopes is located at the base camp of the Fred Lawrence Whipple Observatory in southern Arizona. MAGIC is a set of two 17 m diameter telescopes on the Canary Island of La Palma. The four 13 m telescopes of H.E.S.S. are located in the Khomas Highland of Namibia.

3.1.3.2 Water Čerenkov Detectors

A second method of detection of air showers from TeV photons is to have a ground array of detectors. Methods of ground based detection also detect showers due to charged primary cosmic

ray interactions. The Milagro experiment [?] was a large water pool with outriggers located at Los Alamos, New Mexico, performing a scan of Northern hemisphere sources . Another experiment, the High Altitude Water Čerenkov (HAWC) detector, is under construction in Mexico beneath the peak of the Sierra Negra mountain [?].

These detectors have a large field of view and a high duty cycle which is not dependent on the weather or daylight, but with typically worse angular resolution than IACTs ($\sim 1^\circ$ for Milagro).

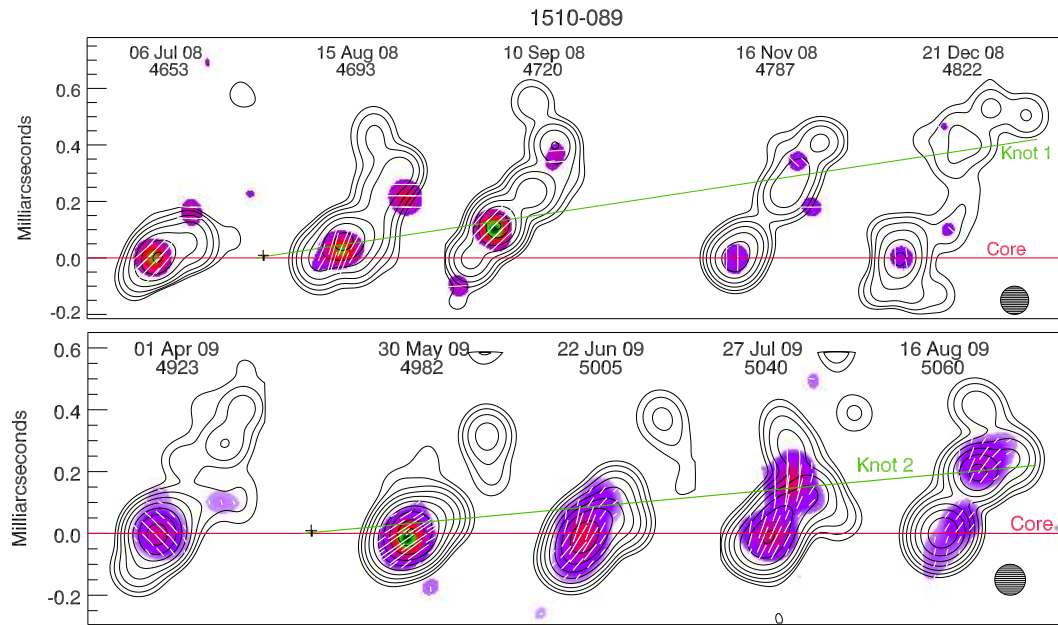


Figure 3.1: The motion of ejected blobs of material from the blazar PKS 1510-089 seen with 43 GHz radio images. The images are convolved with a circular Gaussian beam of the shaded circle at the lower right. Dates are given by calendar and with TJD (JD-2450000). The color shows the intensity of the polarization intensity. Figure from [?].

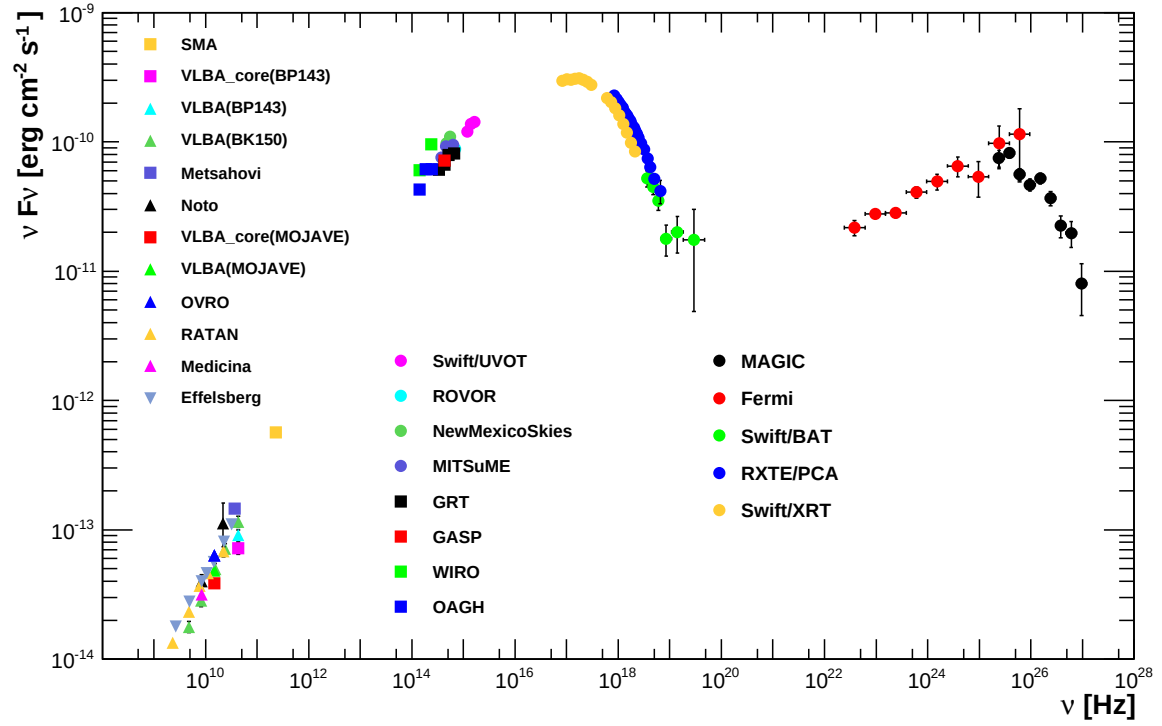


Figure 3.2: Spectral energy measurements for the blazar Markarian 421, showing the low hump in 10^9 to 10^{20} Hz, and the high-energy hump from 10^{20} to 10^{28} Hz, including data taken from radio, infrared, optical, ultraviolet, x-ray and gamma-ray observatories. Figure from [?].

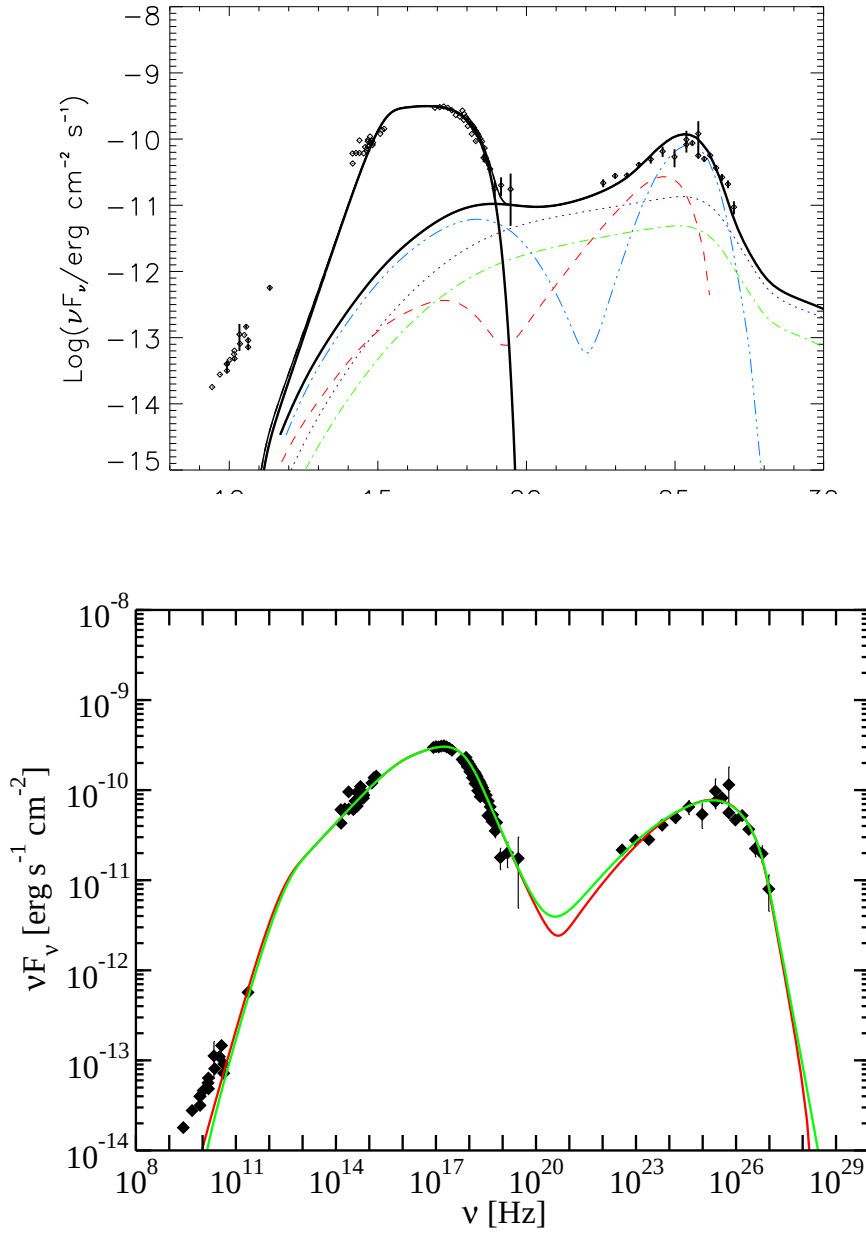


Figure 3.3: Hadronic model (left) and leptonic model (right) fits to the spectral energy distribution of the blazar Markarian 421. In the hadronic model, the black dotted line is the contribution of π^0 cascades, the green dash-dotted line is for $\pi^\pm$ cascades, μ synchrotron and cascade is the blue dash-triple-dotted line, and proton synchrotron and cascade emission is the red dashed line. The sum of all components (including the synchrotron emission of electrons forming the low bump) is the solid black line. The leptonic model uses two minimum variability timescales to determine the size of the emission region: 1 day for the red curve, 1 hour for the green. Figures from [?].

Chapter 4

Neutrinos and Neutrino Astronomy

One of the major challenges in understanding the properties of neutrinos and the development of neutrino astronomy is their small interaction cross-sections. In order to build up sufficient statistics, neutrino telescopes must have an enormous volume instrumented, on the order of a cubic kilometer. Natural bodies of water or clear ice can be used as a target medium, light from the neutrino interaction products can also be measured in such a detector.

4.1 Neutrino

Neutrinos are subatomic particles which interact only via the weak nuclear force. They were first theorized to explain the spectrum of electron energies created in beta-decay nuclear processes in 1930 [?]. They were first discovered in 1956 by observing electron neutrino capture producing positrons [?].

When a neutrino with flavor l undergoes a charged-current interaction with a nucleus it produces a charged lepton with flavor l :

$$\nu_l + q \rightarrow l + q' \quad (4.1)$$

where q is a quark in the nucleus and q' is a quark of a different flavor.

Neutrino interactions with atomic nuclei have two primary modes: charged-current (CC) and neutral-current (NC). In charged-current interactions the incident neutrino is replaced by an outgoing charged lepton in a reaction mediated by a W boson, while the neutral current interactions recoil off of the nucleus, mediated by a Z boson. The Feynman diagrams for these interactions can be seen in Figure ???. There is also the interaction of anti-electron neutrinos with electrons, which

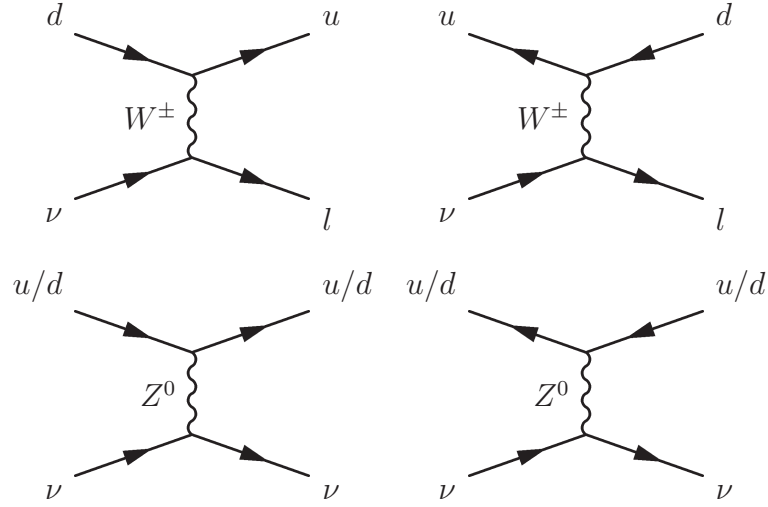


Figure 4.1: Feynman diagrams for the neutrino-quark Charged Current (top row) and Neutral Current interactions (bottom row).

has a resonance at neutrino energies of 6.3 PeV. Analogous interactions with muons and taus are possible, but are not practical for neutrino astronomy.

For NC interactions, there will be a shower of photons from the hadronic cascade, which can be seen if within the detector volume. In this thesis CC interactions are the focus, specifically those of muon (anti-)neutrinos. Since IceCube does not have a magnetic field, we have no way of distinguishing leptons from their antilepton pairs, so we refer to e.g. antimuons and muons as simply muons throughout. Muons created by high-energy neutrino interactions can travel for tens of kilometers before decaying. Electrons, by comparison, will lose their energy over several meters, and is currently indistinguishable from a NC cascade.

4.2 Lepton Propagation

Leptons lose energy as they travel due to pair production, ionization, stochastic losses due to bremsstrahlung, and photonuclear interactions, which contribute in different amounts depending on the lepton energy before, in the case of a muon or a tau, it decays and produces another shower.

4.2.1 Electrons

Above 1 GeV the energy losses from electrons are mainly due to Bremsstrahlung radiation **cite PDG**. The energy is lost within a few meters water equivalent (mwe), making it a point-like source of light compared to the scales of neutrino telescopes. Energy reconstruction is possible, but directional information is lost with scattering lengths typical of the South Pole ice.

4.2.2 Muons

Due to the larger mass of the muon, energy losses per mwe are smaller than that of electrons, so their energy can be lost over much longer track distances. Below 1 TeV, ionization losses dominate, producing a continuous track of 200 MeV per mwe. Above this energy, stochastic losses become more prevalent, which are proportional to the muon energy. The energy loss per unit distance can be modeled as:

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = a + bE, \quad (4.2)$$

where a is the ionization losses of 0.268 GeV per mwe and b is the stochastic loss term which is roughly 3.6×10^{-4} per mwe in ice. This yields track lengths for TeV energy muons which are roughly 2.5 km, above 1 TeV the length increases logarithmically, and at 1 PeV the typical distance is 20 km. This means that IceCube is sensitive to muons due to interactions far outside of the instrumented volume.

4.2.3 Taus

Tau energy losses per mwe are even less than that of muons, but due to the particle's 2.9×10^{-13} s lifetime, typical propagation lengths are much shorter. The particle's decay will reproduce a tau neutrino along with a cascade of light due to the daughter lepton or meson. This gives taus have a "double-bang" topology, where there will be initial cascades when the tau is created and later decays, with a connecting track from Čerenkov radiation. Taus with ≥ 30 PeV will have lifetimes long enough for them to travel through IceCube with a signature of a less energetic muon. The

branching ratio to decay to a muon is 17.7%, so it is also possible for the daughter muon to be detected by a neutrino telescope.

4.2.4 Čerenkov radiation

When a charged particle moves faster than c/n , where n is the index of refraction of the medium, the particle's radiation forms a coherent front. This wavefront will propagate at a specific angle determined by the index of refraction:

$$\cos \theta_c = \frac{1}{\beta n(\lambda)}. \quad (4.3)$$

For particles with energies used in this work, particles have $v/c \sim 1$, and the index of refraction of ice $n_{\text{ice}} = 1.32$, yielding $\theta_c \sim 41^\circ$. The wavelength distribution of Čerenkov photons is given by the Franck-Tamm formula:

$$\frac{d^2 N}{dx d\lambda} = \frac{2\pi\alpha}{\lambda^2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\beta^2 n^2(\lambda)} \right), \quad (4.4)$$

where α is the fine structure constant. The distribution is peaked at shorter wavelengths, giving Čerenkov light a bluish color. Taking the integral of 4.4 from 365 nm to 600 nm yields 210 photons per centimeter, where the wavelength limits are chosen to reflect the glass and ice transparency.

4.3 Cosmic Rays

The Earth is constantly bombarded with charged particles from space, predominantly protons, but also heavier nuclei, electrons, positrons and photons. Ionizing radiation was discovered to be coming from space in 1912 by Victor Hess, who discovered that an electroscope will discharge faster at high altitudes than at sea level when he ascended in a hot air balloon up to altitudes of 5.3 km.

In the 100 years since Hess's discovery, cosmic rays from energies of 10^9 eV up to 10^{20} eV using a variety of detection mechanisms from balloon and satellite-borne detectors to arrays covering thousands of square kilometers to detect extensive air showers from cosmic rays interacting with particles in the atmosphere.

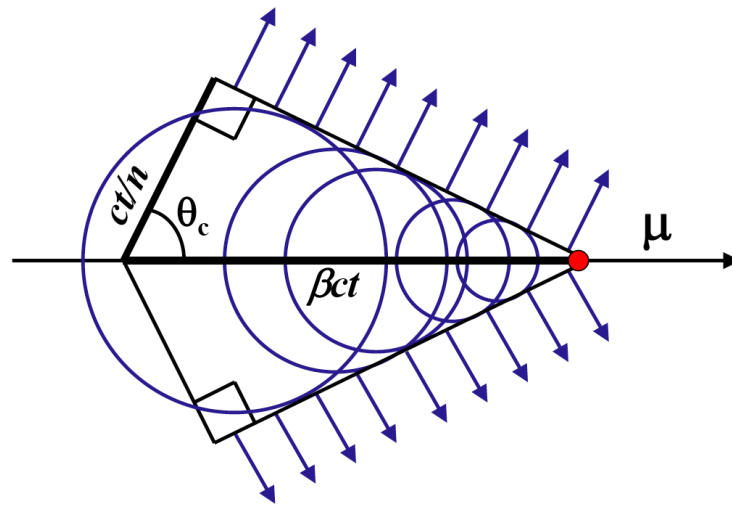


Figure 4.2: Illustration of Čerenkov emission. While a particle travels βct in a time t , its emitted light only travels ct/n , forming a coherent front in a cone around the direction of motion. Use of this directionality is used in the reconstruction of the particle's properties.

There are several interesting structures in the cosmic ray spectrum (Figure ??) in addition to a turnover at low energies due to the solar wind: there is a steepening in the spectral index at approximately 3 PeV in primary energy, called the "knee" of the spectrum; at several EeV the spectrum hardens to an $E^{-3.1}$ spectrum, called the "ankle"; finally for energies above 60 EeV the spectrum steepens sharply.

The cause for the steepening of the cosmic ray spectrum for particles above 3 PeV could be due to particles escaping the confines of the Galaxy, it could be to a petering out of the galactic cosmic ray accelerators an inability to accelerate above the knee. It is believed that at the ankle, there is a transition from galactic objects to more powerful extragalactic sources as the primary accelerators. The steepening above 60 EeV is evidence of the cutoff predicted by Greisen, Zatsepin and Kuzmin (GZK), where protons above the energy threshold for photo-pion production with the cosmic microwave background will lose energy due to that mechanism as they travel.

The cosmic ray spectral indices for different energy ranges of interest are [?]:

$$\gamma = \begin{cases} 2.67 & \log(E/GeV) < 6.4, \\ 3.10 & 6.4 < \log(E/GeV) < 9.5, \\ 2.75 & 9.5 < \log(E/GeV). \end{cases} \quad (4.5)$$

Protons and other nuclei are the primary component of cosmic rays; electrons and positrons form a smaller contribution. The relative ratios of protons to heavier nuclei across the spectrum is still an active area of research but there are hints that the fraction of heavy nuclei rises above EeV energies <http://arxiv.org/abs/1107.4804>, **is there a better citation than this?** Some models for the knee use spectral breaks at different energies for each species of nucleus as energies grow too large for galactic objects to accelerate or become unconfined in the galaxy (e.g. the poly-gonoto or "many-kneed" model **find citation**).

At roughly TeV energies, deflection in the galactic magnetic fields make the arrival directions for cosmic rays nearly isotropic, though a small (10^{-4}) anisotropy exists, though it is not known what is the source. It may be due to a nearby accelerator, or it may be due to structures in the galactic magnetic field near the solar system, or even the heliotail structure in the Sun's magnetic field.

4.3.1 Cosmic Ray Acceleration

Fermi acceleration is thought to be the most promising candidate for the acceleration mechanism of cosmic rays. The expectation is that charged particles are accelerated through a series of interactions across a relativistic shock front. These particles are confined to the shock due to inhomogeneties in the magnetic field, and are given energy with each pass through the shock front. This idea was first presented by Fermi [40, ?], and further developed by others [?, ?, ?]. The resulting particle spectra follow a power-law close to E^{-2} . Detailed calculations show, however, that depending on the shock conditions, the spectra can also be somewhat flatter or steeper, see e.g. [?, ?]. Here, we use an E^{-2} spectrum as a first order estimate.

Neutrinos will be produced in interaction with the accelerated particles in the dense region, the initial nuclear reactions produce charged and neutral pions in the following reactions:

$$p\gamma \rightarrow \Delta^+ \quad (4.6)$$

$$\Delta^+ \rightarrow p + \pi^0$$

$$\Delta^+ \rightarrow n + \pi^+$$

$$n\gamma \rightarrow \Delta^0 \quad (4.7)$$

$$\Delta^0 \rightarrow p + \pi^-$$

$$\Delta^0 \rightarrow n + \pi^0$$

$$pp \rightarrow p + p + \pi^0 \quad (4.8)$$

$$p + n + \pi^+$$

$$pn \rightarrow p + p + \pi^- \quad (4.9)$$

$$p + n + \pi^0$$

$$(4.10)$$

Once the pions are produced, the charged species will overwhelmingly decay to muons and neutrinos, while neutral pions decay to gamma-rays which can be observed in GeV energies:

$$\pi^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ + \nu_\mu \quad (4.11)$$

$$\mu^+ \rightarrow e^+ + \nu_e + \bar{\nu}_\mu$$

$$\pi^- \rightarrow \mu^- + \bar{\nu}_\mu \quad (4.12)$$

$$\mu^- \rightarrow e^- + \bar{\nu}_e + \nu_\mu$$

$$\pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma\gamma \quad (4.13)$$

$$(4.14)$$

4.3.2 Cosmic Ray Air Showers

The main source of muons in IceCube is from cosmic rays in both the upgoing and downgoing regions. High energy cosmic rays collide with atoms in the atmosphere, creating extensive air

showers of electrons, muons, pions, kaons and neutrinos. IceCube detects mainly muons produced in air showers in the atmosphere above the South Pole, but it also detects neutrinos produced in air showers on the opposite sides of the Earth. These atmospheric neutrinos are the predominant background for astrophysical neutrinos in regions where atmospheric muons are absorbed by the Earth.

4.3.2.1 Atmospheric Neutrinos

Conventional atmospheric neutrinos are produced by the decay of muons, pions and kaons. Since the Earth's atmosphere is much more dense than typical astrophysical media, air shower products are more likely to interact before decaying. This affect is energy-dependent, particles below a threshold energy will likely decay before having a chance to decay, and the decay products will have roughly the same spectrum as the incident cosmic rays ($\sim E^{-2.7}$). Above this threshold (115 GeV for $\pi^\pm$), the particle will most likely interact, losing energy in the process. The spectrum of these particles is typically $\sim E^{-3.7}$. Since the threshold for muon detection in IceCube is roughly 1 TeV, this is the spectrum of atmospheric muon measured. Prompt atmospheric fluxes from the decay of relatively heavy, charmed mesons have not been measured, but are expected to follow the CR spectrum.

These atmospheric neutrinos make up an irreducible background for Northern hemisphere neutrino point source searches. The rate is mostly flat (see Figure), with roughly $\pm 5\%$ annual fluctutations due to the change in the density of the upper atmosphere as a result of temperature fluctuations.

section on nu absorption/oscillation through the Earth

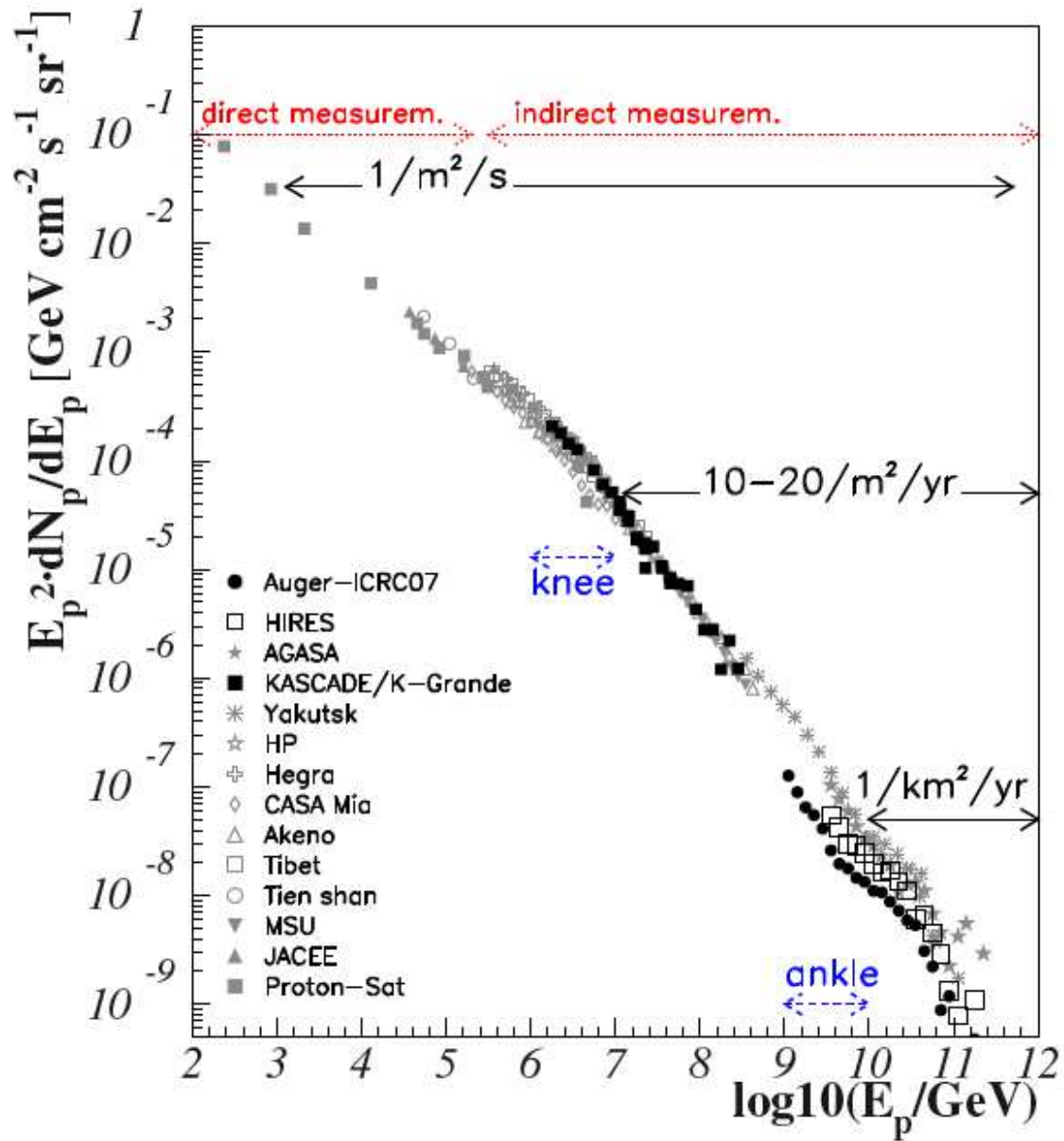


Figure 4.3: The cosmic ray energy spectrum measured by a number of different experiments. The cosmic ray flux has been multiplied by E^2 to enhance features such as the knee and ankle, which are marked. Figure from [2] and references therein.

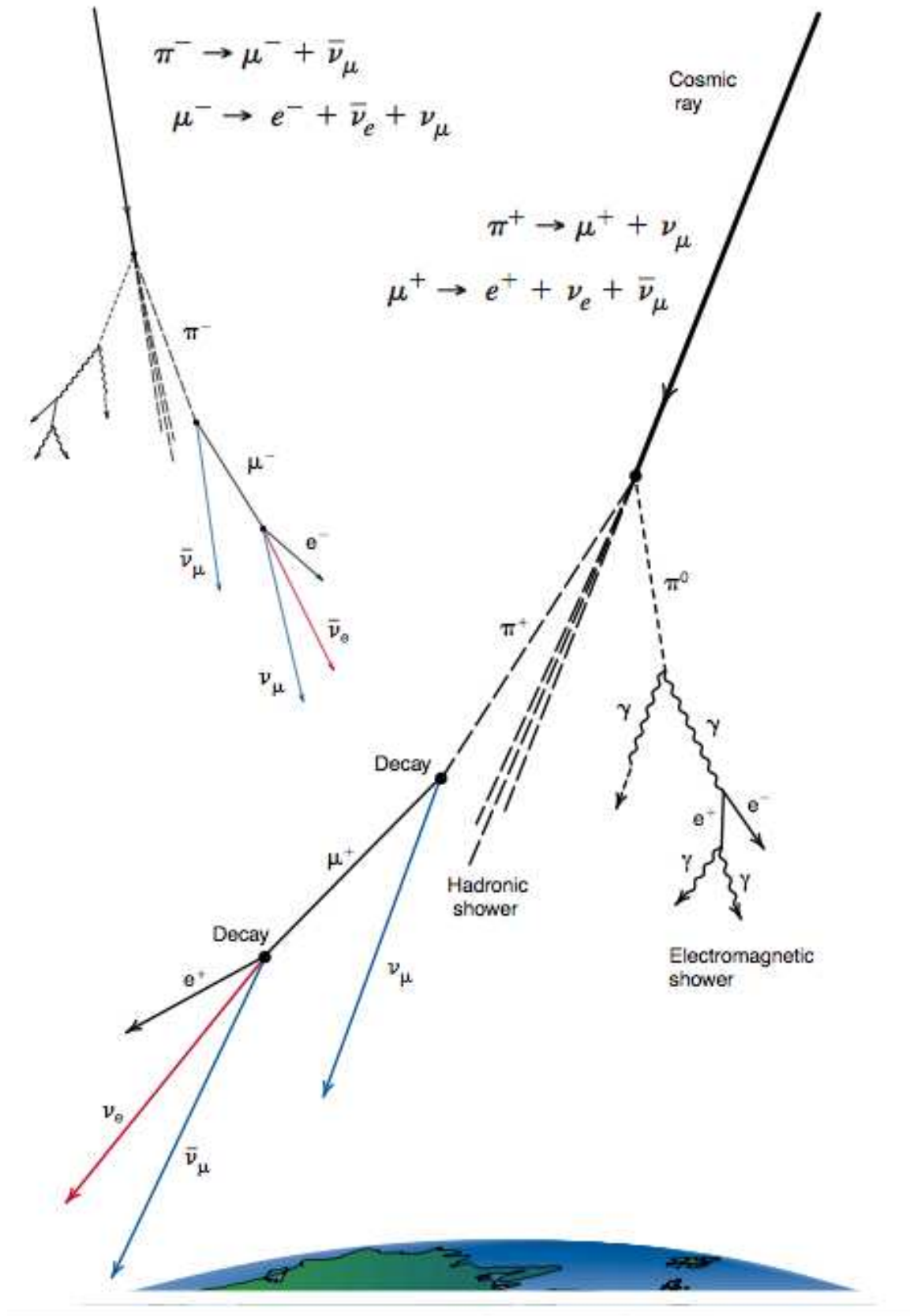


Figure 4.4: Cosmic rays produce extensive air showers upon collision with particles in the upper atmosphere, shown here. Muons and neutrinos are penetrating particles which can reach the IceCube detector through the overburden of ice or through the bulk of the Earth, respectively.

Chapter 5

The IceCube Detector

The IceCube Neutrino Observatory is a kilometer-scale neutrino telescope situated at the geographic South Pole [41, 2]. It consists of three sub-detectors working in concert: IceCube, IceTop, and DeepCore, which are described here. Each of the sub-detectors make use of one principal detector component, an optical detector with digital readout, or Digital Optical Module (DOM). The In-Ice portion of the detector is composed of a deep array of 86 strings each holding 60 DOMs, which are deployed between 1450 and 2450 m below the glacial surface. IceCube strings are horizontally separated by about 125 m with DOMs positioned vertically 17 m apart along each string. The bulk of ice above the detector shields muons from cosmic rays of less than 200 GeV from reaching the detector. Eight of the IceCube strings in the middle of the detector have high quantum efficiency DOMs and a smaller spacing than the rest of the detector: 6 strings with 70m spacing and two more with spacing of 42m. All 8 of these strings have 7m vertical spacing between DOMs, which are placed in the bottom half of the detector, where the ice is the clearest. These 8 strings, along with the seven neighboring strings represent the DeepCore sub-detector, the purpose of which is to improve the neutrino energy detection for energies below 1 TeV. Since it is situated in the center of the detector, the outer strings can be used to veto downgoing cosmic ray muons and select neutrinos which interact inside of the DeepCore fiducial volume.

A surface array, IceTop, consists of 162 tanks of highly pure ice, each with two DOMs frozen to the top of the ice. Each of the 81 stations has two tanks, placed near the top of the main grid of strings. IceTop is designed to detect the electromagnetic component of cosmic ray air showers. This information can be used to reject events seen in the ice as being from air showers for tracks less than $\lesssim 30^\circ$ from vertically downgoing.

The construction of IceCube started with a first string installed in the 2005-6 season [42] and has recently been completed in the austral summer of 2010-11. The configurations of IceCube that have been used for the analyses performed in this paper are shown in Figure 5.2.

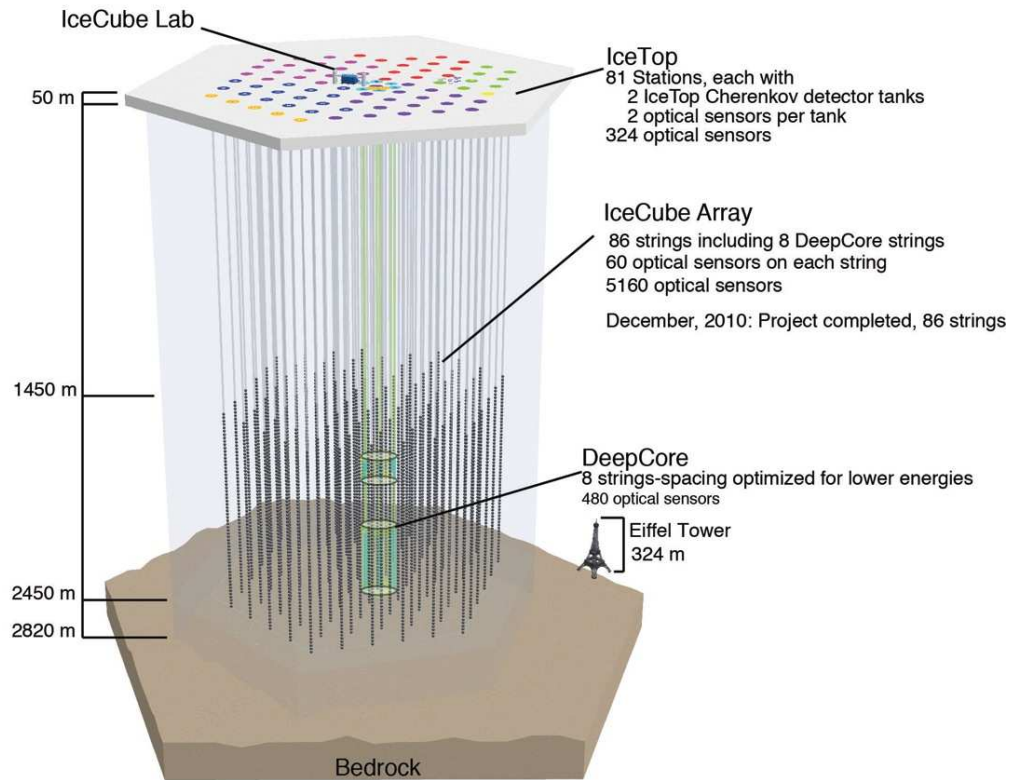


Figure 5.1: Schematic view of the IceCube Neutrino Observatory and its subdetectors at the geographic South Pole.

5.1 Digital Optical Module

IceCube is composed of thousands of independent data acquisition (DAQ) devices. The electronics of each DOM are housed in a 35.6cm diameter, 13mm thick sphere of borosilicate glass. This bathysphere is designed to resist a pressure of up to 400 atm, which can withstand the pressure of deployment and the refreezing of the ice afterwards.

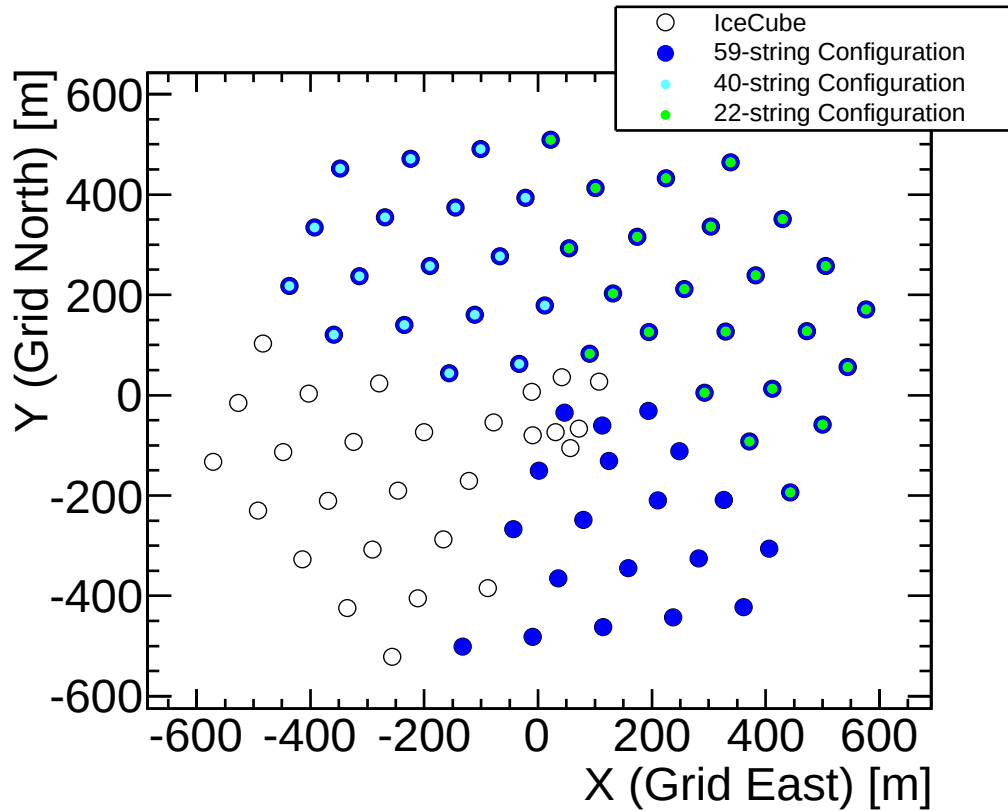


Figure 5.2: The growing IceCube detector seen from the top. Filled circles inside empty circles indicate deployed strings for each configuration, where all strings used in the 40-string configuration were also used in the 59-string configuration, and likewise all strings in the 22-string configuration were used in larger configurations.

The most prominent feature of each DOM is a R7081-02 Hamamatsu photomultiplier (PMT) with 25 cm diameter [43], the quantum efficiency of the PMT peaks at 25% for light with a wavelength of 390 nm, and the spectral response is from 300-650 nm. The PMT is optically coupled to the glass with a layer of silicone gel. A mu-metal grid of a nickel-iron alloy shields the photomultiplier from the Earth's magnetic field, which would otherwise degrade the timing of the PMT. Each DOM also contains a modular 2kV high voltage supply for the PMT.

A main electronics board for waveform digitization in each DOM [44] reads, digitizes and timestamps the analog PMT voltage. This is done with two types of waveform digitizers, first,

an Analog Transient Waveform Digitizers (ATWD) chip collect 128 samples for the first 420 ns. Three digitizers act in parallel on the signal fed through amplifiers with gains of $\times 16$, $\times 2$ and $\times 0.25$. The data uses the highest unsaturated gain channel. Two chips are included since after triggering, the ATWDs have a $29 \mu\text{s}$ readout time, and are used alternately to minimize deadtime. The PMT signal to the ATWDs is read through a line on the delay board, allowing digitization of roughly 70 ns of waveform before the trigger. The second waveform digitizer is a fast Analog to Digital Converter (fADC) which takes 256 samples of the PMT voltage over $6.4 \mu\text{s}$. This gives a coarser sampling than with the ATWD, but the fADC has a much longer readout time and a dead time of only two clock cycles between separate readouts. The transmission of the data after digitization to the surface are handled by field-programmable gate arrays (FPGAs), also on the main board.

Finally, a flasher board with twelve light emitting diodes (LEDs), which are used for *in situ* calibration of the ice properties. Half of the LEDs point radially outwards from the top half of each DOM, the rest are angled upward at an angle of 48° . The flashers are typically peaked at a wavelength of 405 nm, during the 2010/11 deployment season, DOMs with LEDs peaked at 340, 370, 450, and 505nm were also deployed to study the wavelength dependence of the scattering and absorption in the ice.

All DOMs are connected to the surface via four sets of twisted-pair cable which enter the DOM on the penetrator assembly. On the surface near each string is a junction box where the IceTop DOMs are connected, and a cable to the IceCube Lab (ICL) connects each string to a single DOM Hub for readout.

Pic: DOM efficiency vs λ ? What about $\check{C}$ and absorption length(λ) plots?

5.2 Trigger & Data Acquisition

Hits on DOMs can come in two modes: hits which arrive within $\pm 1 \mu\text{s}$ from another hit on the neighbor or next-to-nearest neighboring DOM on the same string register as Hard Local Coincidence (HLC) hits. This correlation condition greatly reduces the data rate due to PMT noise or photons from radioactive decay in the glass housing. All other hits are referred to as Soft Local

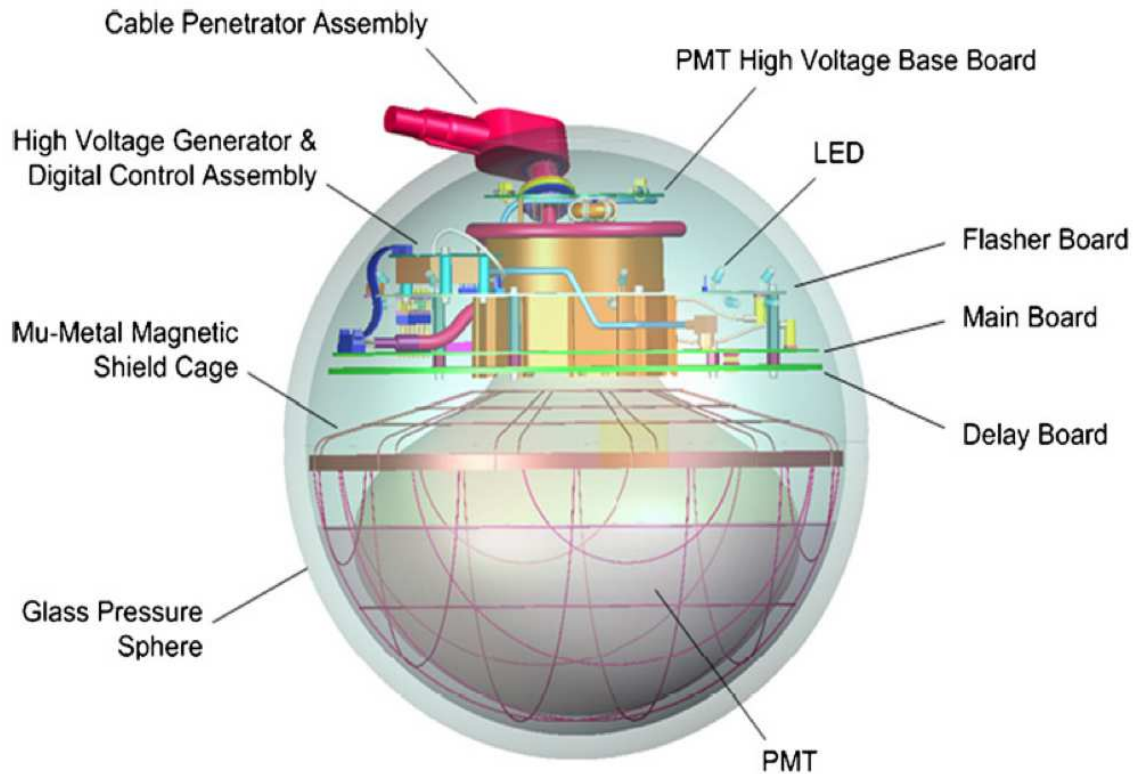


Figure 5.3: Outline of the IceCube Digital Optical Module, with component pieces labeled.

Coincidence (SLC) hits. These hits were kept starting with the 59-string data taking period for improved reconstruction of low-energy events and enhanced capability to identify neutrinos which interact inside of the detector.

IceCube uses a simple multiplicity trigger, which requires that at least eight DOMs are triggered within $5 \mu\text{s}$. For a DOM to trigger, it is both required that the DOM PMT voltage crosses the discriminator threshold (0.25 of a typical photoelectron), and this “hit” to be in coincidence with at least one other hit in the nearest or next-to-nearest neighboring DOMs on a string within $\pm 1 \mu\text{s}$. This greatly reduces hits due to uncorrelated PMT noise and radioactivity in the glass. Once the simple multiplicity condition is satisfied, information from all triggered DOMs within a $\pm 10 \mu\text{s}$ window is read out and merged to create an event. This means that $20 \mu\text{s}$ is the effective limit on how close two events can be in time for the 59-string or 40-string data. Improvements in physics event definition remove this constraint for data taken with the completed detector.

Once read out to the surface, the digitized waveforms are read over using a Bayesian unfolding algorithm, extracting the total number of photoelectrons and their arrival times (“pulses”) using a template single photoelectron response. These pulses are used in various event reconstructions to determine if events pass one of the filters for transmitting the event information over the satellite.

Standard IceCube runs are eight hours long, with roughly two minutes between the end of one run and the beginning of the next. Downtime can be due to runs with active flashers, calibration runs, or temporary issues. IceCube has approximately a 99% uptime for data taking, but not all is useful for analysis. Calibration runs (prevalent during commissioning new strings after deployment) and runs with active flashers are excluded. Also, some runs will have one or multiple strings missing while problems with particular DOMs are fixed, to remain capable of detecting extraordinary astrophysical events, such as a galactic supernova or a particularly bright GRB.

Runs which fail within 20 minutes are typically unstable and are excluded in analysis. Run monitoring in the North is performed for all runs to check for rate irregularities for individual filters and individual DOMs and to check DOMs for other issues, such as a higher current draw, a change in pulse shape or temperature. The rate of each run is further monitored and checked for any deviation from an average that accounts for a seasonally adjusted average rate [45]. To ensure stable detector conditions, the event rates of runs were required to be within 5σ from a rolling average over ± 2 days. This loose constraint allows for short-term weather variability.

5.3 Optical properties of the South Pole Ice

The glacial ice beneath the South Pole is the clearest material known for wavelengths between 200 and 400 nm **cite ice paper**, but it has deposits of dust in varying amounts in layers depending on the global climate at the time the ice was formed (up to $\sim 200,000$ years ago, see [?]). Characterizing the optical properties and how they change in the glacier is important for properly simulating light in the detector.

The main property varying in the ice of the instrumented volume between 1450 and 2450 m is the presence of vertical variations in the dust concentrations in the ice due to changes in the climate, affecting the scattering and absorption coefficients in those layers.

5.3.1 Scattering

Less than 1400 m below the surface of the glacier, air bubbles are the primary cause of scattering of light in the glacier. Below this, the pressure from the ice above over time has caused the air and ice to form clathrates, and dust particles are the primary cause of scattering. For IceCube, the light seen by PMTs has typically been scattered several times, so multiple photon

The scattering follows the Mie treatment in [46], which is highly peaked in the forward direction, with $\langle \cos \theta \rangle = 0.94$. The effective scattering length, λ_e , is defined in terms of the scattering length λ_s and the mean scattering angle:

$$\lambda_e = \frac{\lambda_s}{1 - \langle \cos \theta \rangle} \quad (5.1)$$

which functions as the distance required to randomize the direction of an average photon. IceCube has an average effective scattering length of about 20 m for light at 400 nm, the peak of the Čerenkov spectrum, much shorter than the typical absorption length of 110 m.

One additional characteristic of the ice is from the residual air bubbles left in the ice melted during deployment of the DOMs. Since the 2010/11 austral summer, a video camera deployed at the bottom of one of the IceCube strings has made observations of the refreezing. The camera has observed that the hole freezes from the outside in, forcing the air bubbles toward the center of the region. This leaves only a narrow column of ice with higher scattering than the surrounding glacial ice. Functionally this line of ice with more scattering intersecting with the DOMs smooths out the response function of the PMTs.

5.4 Data Filtering

Due to constraints on the amount of data which can be transmitted to the northern hemisphere via satellite from the South Pole, IceCube uses various filters to select events. All events are saved on tape and physically transported to the North every year. All events have initial reconstructions performed using track and cascade based hypotheses, some of which are selected for transmission over satellite to the northern hemisphere for additional processing and analysis. The muon filter focuses on the selection of upward-going track-like events.

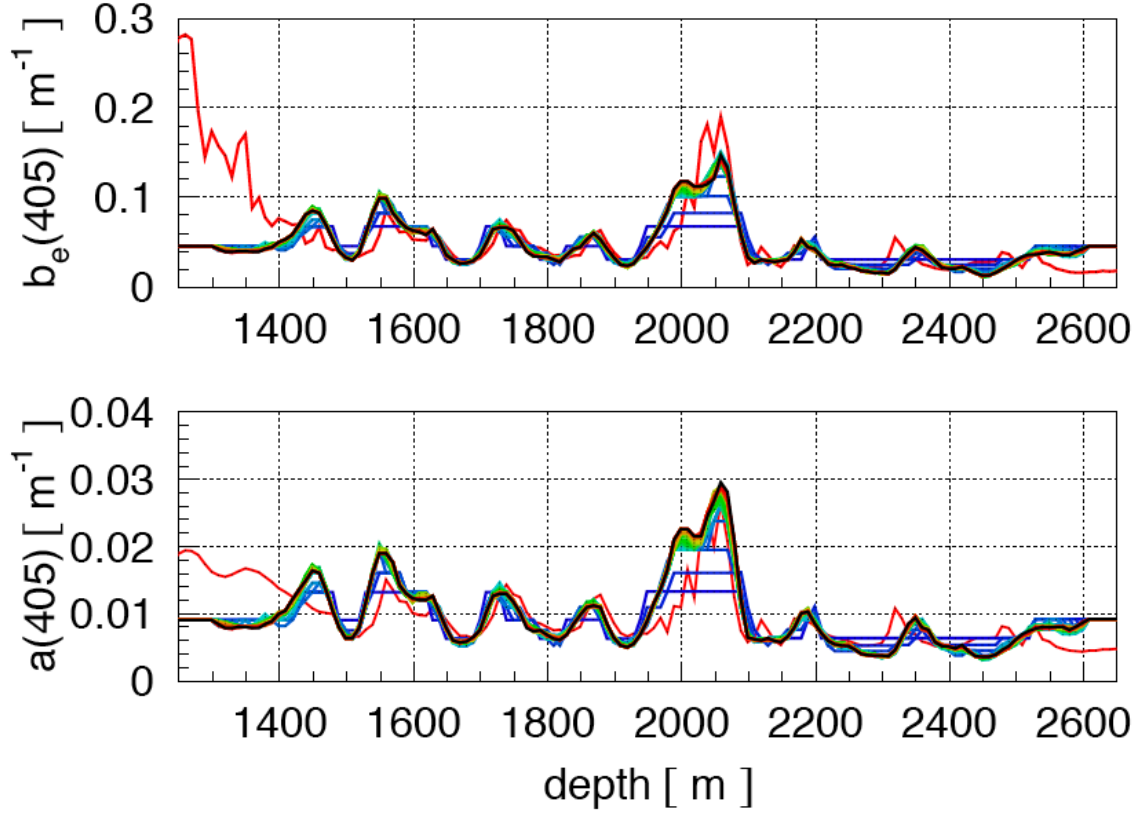


Figure 5.4: **Stand-in plot for the Ice Models, the lines are Dima's iterations to find out the SPICE model.**

Before quality cuts are applied, IceCube data are dominated by events caused by downgoing atmospheric muons. This is the case in the upgoing signal region as well, since some atmospheric muons are misreconstructed as upgoing and must be rejected in the process of applying analysis cuts. The atmospheric muon rate exhibits a seasonal variation of roughly $\pm 10\%$ due to changes in density of the atmosphere at the South Pole [45]. When the atmosphere is warmer and less dense during the austral summer, the fraction of pions and kaons in air showers which decay before interacting is increased compared to the winter. The muon rate also varies several percent on timescales of several days as a result of weather phenomena in Antarctica. For upgoing atmospheric neutrinos the seasonal variations are smaller, approximately 5%, since neutrinos are created over a wide range of Earth's latitudes compared to the atmospheric muons created near the South Pole.

The rate of the 40 string final event sample is shown in Figure ?? and for the 59 string final event sample in Figure ?? for upgoing and downgoing events and for the overall samples.

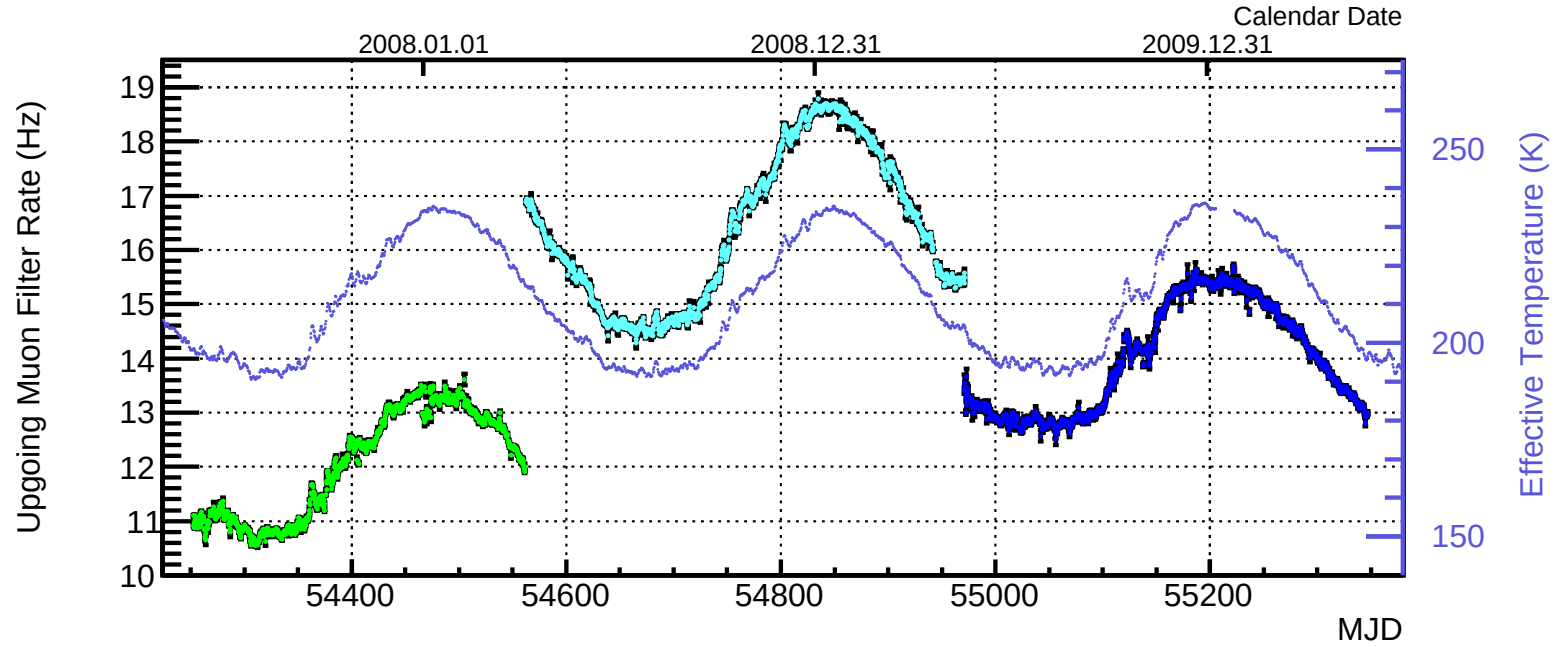


Figure 5.5: The rate per run of the filtered stream of muon events with zenith angle $\geq 80^\circ$ selected at the South Pole for the 22 string (dark green points before MJD 54560), 40 string (light blue points between MJD 54560 and 54971) and 59 string (dark blue points after MJD 54971) detectors as a function of MJD. The small modulations around the main seasonal oscillation are due to short-term weather variability (plotted in light blue). The rate increase with respect of the 40 to 22 string data was due to the increased detector size, between the 40 and 59-string periods the muon filtered events required events to have better initial reconstruction parameters, so the filter rate decreases slightly to conserve satellite bandwidth. The effective temperature can be seen in purple.

Chapter 6

IceCube Event Reconstruction

This chapter focuses on the treatment of the data between the initial filtering at the South Pole and before the final event selection for analysis. This treatment involves performing a number of muon reconstructions, or finding a track which represents the data well. The first-guess and likelihood-based reconstructions using scattering and absorption in the ice are described here.

Several different assumptions which are made in different reconstructions. Some are designed to find mis-reconstructed background and use the downgoing atmospheric muon distribution as a starting point, others assume that the event is best described as two separate muon tracks.

6.1 Hit Cleaning

The first step in cleaning hits is to remove those from DOMs which are known to have issues: some do not communicate, some have high current throughput or high noise rates compared to other DOMs, or have a broken local coincidence connection to neighboring DOMs. For the 40 and 59 string configurations, bad DOMs are only about 2% of the total deployed.

The event builder at Pole uses all hits from $\pm 10 \mu s$ from the trigger, which is much wider than the transit time of a particle from one side of the detector to the other ($3.3 \mu s$ per km). This means that the readout window can contain a significant amount of noise or even multiple particles from air showers can be included. This additional light in the detector which is not described by a single-track hypothesis can confuse the reconstructions, causing good neutrino events to be cut out or, more likely, to cause atmospheric muons to appear to make upgoing tracks. A first method which is designed to minimize the effect of noise is to clean the hits in each event with a sliding

time window of $6 \mu\text{s}$. It scans over the entire readout window and selects the time window where the sum of the charge of hits in the window is at a maximum. The hits outside that window are removed and not used for reconstruction. Other implementations of hit-cleaning algorithms are used at higher levels of processing in order to better distinguish coincident events and noise (see Section 6.3).

6.2 Track Reconstructions

This work only considers track-like events depositing light in the detector. Other analyses, however, can look for cascade-like spheres of light inside the detector due to electron neutrinos or neutral current interactions. For all reconstructions we find the parameters of some track:

$$\vec{a} = (\vec{r}_0, t_0, \theta, \phi, E_0) , \quad (6.1)$$

where the particle with energy E_0 passes through some position $\vec{r}_0$ at time t_0 , moving in the direction given by the zenith and azimuthal angles (θ, ϕ) .

6.2.1 Line Fit First-Guess Reconstruction

The initial reconstruction done on all events uses all HLC hits to reconstruct an event as a plane wave passing through the detector. This is used to calculate the average velocity $\vec{v}$ in each direction x , y , and z to form a track passing through the center of gravity for the event, calculated using the charge to weight each DOM. The assumption is that the hits can be described as the wave passes through the detector, so the position of each hit $\vec{r}_i$ can be described as:

$$\vec{r}_i = \vec{r}_0 + \vec{v}t_i \quad (6.2)$$

where $\vec{r}_0$ is the initial location and t_i is the time since some t_0 of the i th hit. The χ^2 distribution of the hits is then:

$$\chi^2 = \sum_i (\vec{r}_i - \vec{r} - \vec{v}t_i)^2 . \quad (6.3)$$

This can be minimized analytically by differentiating with respect to $\vec{r}$ and $\vec{v}$, yielding the direction and vertex of the track:

$$\vec{r}_0 = \langle \vec{r}_i \rangle - \vec{v} \langle t_i \rangle \quad (6.4)$$

and

$$\vec{v} = \frac{\langle \vec{r}_i \vec{t}_i \rangle - \langle \vec{r}_i \rangle \langle \vec{t}_i \rangle}{\langle t_i^2 \rangle - \langle t_i \rangle^2}. \quad (6.5)$$

In the data processing this track and starting vertex are used as the first guess for an initial track reconstruction using a maximum likelihood method.

6.2.2 Maximum Likelihood Track Reconstruction

More sophisticated reconstructions use the information about the angle of Čerenkov radiation and the expectation of scattering and absorption in the ice to define a likelihood of observing a photon at a particular time and distance from a particular muon track. The goal is to reconstruct a set of unknown muon track parameters $\vec{a}$ given a series of photon arrival times and locations $\vec{x}_i$.

The likelihood $\mathcal{L}$ of a track $\vec{a}$ given the data $\vec{x}_i$ is the product of the probabilities of each hit:

$$\mathcal{L} = \prod_i p(\vec{x}_i | \vec{a}), \quad (6.6)$$

where $p(\vec{x}_i | \vec{a})$ is the probability density function (PDF) of observing each hit $\vec{x}_i$ given the muon track parameters $\vec{a}$. The best-fit track is not calculable analytically, so $-\mathcal{L}$ is minimized using a numerical minimizer. The MINUIT SIMPLEX routine is used, and iterated with different starting conditions to increase the chances of finding the global minimum for the event, the most likely track.

The expectation of the photon arrival times at each hit DOM at location r_i would be:

$$t_{exp} = t_0 + \frac{d(\vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_0 + d \tan \theta_c)}{c} \quad (6.7)$$

with d as the closest approach of the muon track and the DOM and θ_c the Čerenkov angle in the medium.

where the time residual of the hit is calculated as:

$$t_{\text{residual}} = t_{\text{hit}} - t_{\text{exp}}$$

6.2.2.1 Pandel Function

More sophisticated reconstructions use a likelihood function which takes into account the scattering and absorption length in the ice. The Pandel function [?] is an analytic expression which is designed to express the likelihood of a Čerenkov photon from a particular track arriving at each hit DOM at the reconstructed time residual:

$$t_{exp} = t_0 + \frac{d(\vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_0 + d \tan \theta_c)}{c}. \quad (6.8)$$

The Pandel function is an estimate for the distribution of arrival times of photons from Čerenkov photons from an isotropic source:

$$p(t_{\text{residual}}) = \frac{1}{N(d)} \frac{\tau^{-\frac{d}{\lambda}} t_{\text{residual}}^{\frac{d}{\lambda}-1}}{\Gamma(d/\lambda)} e^{-\left(t_{\text{residual}}\left(\frac{1}{\tau} + \frac{c}{n\lambda_a} + \frac{d}{\lambda_a}\right)\right)} \quad (6.9)$$

where

$$N(d) = e^{-\frac{d}{\lambda_a}} \left(1 + \frac{c\tau}{n\lambda_a}\right)^{-\frac{d}{\lambda}}. \quad (6.10)$$

Here n is the index of refraction of the ice, λ_a is the absorption length with an average value of 98 m, d is the distance of the detected photon from its point of emission. $\Gamma(d/\lambda)$ is the Gamma function and $N(d)$ is the normalization factor of the pdf. Parameters λ and τ are free parameters determined by Monte Carlo simulation.

6.2.2.2 Single Photo-Electron

This first method uses the time of only the first hit in each DOM but the photon arrival expectation distribution for an arbitrary photon. This method uses the Line Fit first guess as a seed, and is run with one iteration for the online filtering of events, This iterative process was run 32 times in the offline processing of 40-string data, while 8 iterations were found to be sufficient for the 59-string data.

6.2.2.3 Multiple Photo-Electron

This formation of the likelihood uses the timing of the first hit with the photon arrival expectation for the correct number of hits. Each DOM which has more than one photon is also given

an additional weight in the likelihood. This reconstruction typically uses the result of the Single Photo-Electron reconstruction as a first guess. That reconstruction is better at sampling the likelihood space over the sky to find the global minimum, since the additional information from the number of hits per DOM causes the likelihood space of the track on the sky to have more features and local minima, and as such it requires a starting point near the global minimum.

6.2.2.4 Paraboloid Fit

This reconstruction samples the likelihood space near the minimum found in the MPE best fit, testing the likelihood values of tracks with a known angular offset from the best track, and fits a two-dimensional parabola to the result. The point where the likelihood is half of the value of the maximum is defined as the average expected error of the event. Three concentric circles with eight sampling directions each are used, so this track typically takes 24 times longer than the basic likelihood fits.

6.2.2.5 Bayesian Track reconstruction

This method uses the known zenith distribution of muons from cosmic ray showers as an additional weight in the Pandel likelihood method. The known zenith distribution is fit with a polynomial and used as a prior using Bayes' theorem:

$$P(\vec{a}|\vec{x}) = \frac{P(\vec{x}|\vec{a})P(\vec{a})}{P(\vec{x})} \quad (6.11)$$

where $P(\vec{a}|\vec{x})$ is the probability of there being a muon track with parameters $\vec{a}$ given the set of hits $\vec{x}$, the probability using the Pandel formula of a muon to produce a set of hits is $P(\vec{x}|\vec{a})$, and $P(\vec{a})$ is the prior probability from the known distribution of cosmic ray muons. This weight requires the track to have a zenith angle above the horizon. Since the background due to air showers is $O \sim 10^5$ larger than the neutrino background, a powerful rejection factor for events in the upgoing region is the ratio of the likelihoods from the Bayesian and standard reconstructions.

6.3 Coincident Muons

Roughly 10% of events at trigger level have more than one atmospheric muon in the detector in a single readout window. Typically noise in the detector is handled appropriately by the reconstruction algorithm, even when there are two separate air shower muons in the detector at the same time. However occasionally the noise or multiple tracks will be offset with the proper time to mimic a throughgoing track. If the timing of two of these tracks is right, it can mimic the signature of an upgoing track, and also receive a very good track likelihood value. This background can be rejected more efficiently with track reconstructions done with specially cleaned portions of the hits. Two algorithms are used to split each event into separate sub-events:

6.3.1 Split Track Reconstructions

A simple way of splitting events into different sets of hits is performed, taking half of the events split both by the geometry and in half in the arrival time of the hits. Each of the four sub-events has the standard likelihood track reconstructions applied. Events which are made of coincident muons will expect to have one of the sub-events reconstructed as a downgoing track. Upward going neutrinos will expect to have both sub-events be reconstructed as upgoing tracks with a small space angle separating their direction.

6.3.2 Topological Trigger hit cleaning

A more sophisticated method of splitting events uses information about the average expected travel distance of a photon in the ice, the timing and the distance of hits for an event to iterate over all hits and separate it into causally-connected sub-events. The settings used for the 59-string processing counted events as being causally connected which were less than 300m apart horizontally (about two string spacings), less than 30 DOM spacings vertically (or 510 m), and were within 450 ns (roughly the expected lifetime of photons in the detector) from being consistent with coming from the same track-like event.

This method is especially useful in rejecting coincident events. In the 59-string processing for track-like events, a cut was applied to events where the event was reconstructed as upgoing, but the largest topologically split subevent was reconstructed as downgoing.

6.4 Energy Reconstruction

The energy of the particle is determined by the MuE energy reconstruction algorithm. It uses the average density of the photons along the muon track compared to the density expected given a certain energy. The reconstruction requires a track as the seed, and it uses this seed track to calculate the density using the DOM angular acceptance, distance to the track, and the scattering and absorption in the ice. Above energies of roughly 1 TeV, the energy loss per meter water equivalent scales with the energy of the muon. The energy resolution is roughly 0.3 in $\log_{10}$ of the muon energy at closest approach to the center of the detector for particles with energies between ~ 10 TeV and ~ 100 PeV.

Chapter 7

The 40 and 59-string datasets

This work utilizes data taken with both forty and fifty-nine strings of IceCube. The detector took data with the 40-string configuration from April 5, 2008 until May 20, 2009, with the 59-string configuration taking data from May 20, 2009 until May 31, 2010.

There were several changes in the method of data processing and event selection between the configurations, which will be covered below.

7.1 Event Selection Techniques

One method of selecting events is for the analyzer to manually select a set of cuts, testing the fraction of signal vs fraction of background kept for a range of values for each parameter. This process is iterated over for several different variables, finding the most efficient parameter to cut on at each stage, until a data sample of sufficient purity of atmospheric neutrinos ($\gtrsim 95\%$) is obtained. This method was used in the selection of the 40-string sample [47], and was tested against a Boosted Decision Tree event selection for the 59-string sample.

A Boosted Decision Tree (BDT) is a machine learning algorithm designed to separate two different populations. The decision tree is similar to the manual selection of cuts described above, in that the method makes a series of choices of cut parameters, each of which is the most efficient at separating signal and background for a given sample. Implementing this as an algorithm allows for an iterative process, where for each step in the decision tree both the signal-like and background-like samples are tested for the next best cut parameter and value. The boosting concept takes the

signal events which were labelled as background in the result of decision trees are given additional weight in the cut selection of the next formulation of the decision tree.

The choices for the input parameters to the decision tree include the event quality parameters, the number of branching levels for each decision tree, a minimum number of events in a branch for it to be considered to be split again, and a maximum number of iterations of the decision tree and boosting process before coming to a final result.

After the algorithm finds a final result, it gives each event a score from $[-1,1]$, where higher numbers indicate more signal-like events. We use the scores from several different trees to characterize each event: two signal weights are used, one for the expected E^{-2} spectrum for Fermi acceleration and one for a softer $E^{-2.7}$ spectrum observed in Galactic cosmic rays. Two BDTs are trained for each spectral weighting using separate sets of event quality parameters. The background data sample used is the data: this provides a more robust method of rejecting the background, which may include classes of events which are not produced in the simulation chain.

7.2 Data Selection

Data selection is done using parameters related to the quality and accuracy of the event reconstruction, including:

- **Reduced Log Likelihood:** The likelihood track reconstructions maximize the likelihood of the resulting track given the data. In practice, this likelihood scales as the number of hit DOMs, so a reduced log likelihood is used. The reduced log likelihood is the log likelihood divided by the number of hit channels minus five ($\log \mathcal{L}_{\text{MPE}}/N_{\text{DOMs}} - 5$), or the number of degrees of freedom in the track fit. It is observed that this quantity has a slight dependence on the energy of the event, toward selecting higher energy events. This is modified by another method of creating a reduced log likelihood which is the $\mathcal{L}_{\text{MPE}}/N_{\text{DOMs}} - 2.5$, which is found to be a track quality parameter which does not depend on energy.

- **Line Fit Speed** $|\vec{v}|_{lf}$: The magnitude of the velocity vector as calculated by the initial Line Fit reconstruction is used to identify tracks which appear to be travelling at the speed of light. This can be a useful parameter to distinguish coincident muon events.
- **Angular Uncertainty Estimator:** σ_{MPE} To estimate the angular uncertainty on the track reconstruction direction, the likelihood is calculated for directions near the final reconstruction and a two-dimensional parabola is fit. The error ellipse is defined as where the log likelihood of the track reconstruction is equal to 1/2 of the maximum value [?]. The angular uncertainty is used as a term in the signal weight term in the analysis, it is also a powerful parameter to reject mis-reconstructed events. In practice the angular uncertainty requires a rescaling based on simulation, as the method returns a value which is too small and becomes worse at high energies. It is presently not understood, but is thought to be due to stochastic losses and a mismatch between the true photon timing distribution and that described by the Pandel function.
- **Muon Energy Reconstruction** MuE : The photon density along the track is compared with the expected density corrected for the effective area of the PMTs near the track. For muon energies above 1 TeV, stochastic losses dominate, and the estimator models the track as a sum of Cerenkov light and diffuse light along the track. For muon energies above 10 TeV the energy resolution is 0.3 in $\log_{10}(E)$.
- **Number and Length of Direct Hits** N_{DirC} and L_{DirC} : Given the best-fit reconstructed track, the arrival time residuals of each photon are calculated. We use a time residual window of -15 ns to +75 ns to mark photons which are not scattered. Since scattering delays the photons and reduces their directional information. Tracks with many direct hits and a longer maximum distance projected along the track between direct hits are typically better reconstructed.
- **Zenith-weighted log-likelihood ratio** $\log(\mathcal{L}_{SPE}/\mathcal{L}_{Bayes})$: The relative log-likelihoods of a track being from a cosmic ray air shower to the best-fit reconstruction is used to reject mis-reconstructed downgoing tracks, which greatly outnumber upgoing neutrino events. This

requires the upgoing track to be significantly more likely than the best-fit downgoing track in order for the event to be included in the neutrino sample.

- **Minimum Zenith anngle of Split reconstructions $\theta_{\text{split},\text{min}}$:** The four tracks from the time and geometry split hit series are examined and the most most downgoing track zenith angle is used, (i.e. the track which most looks like a downgoing muon). For events which have good track reconstructions, the split hit series will give roughly the same direction of the track. In practice it is found that the zenith angle is a better cut parameter than the space angle between the split reconstructions since nearly all misreconstructed events originate from air showers.

7.2.1 40-string Event Selection

The 40-string event selection was chosen with the aim of obtaining the best sensitivity for an E^{-2} spectrum neutino flux.

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \left[\sigma_{\text{MPE}} < 3^\circ \text{ AND} \right. \\
 & \quad \log \mathcal{L}_{\text{MPE}} / (N_{\text{DOMs}} - 5) < 8.3 \text{ AND} \\
 & \quad \left(\log \mathcal{L}_{\text{MPE}} / (N_{\text{DOMs}} - 5) < 8.0 \text{ OR } \log \mathcal{L}_{\text{MPE}} / (N_{\text{DOMs}} - 2.5) < 7.1 \right) \text{ AND} \\
 & \quad \theta_{\text{split},\text{min}} > 80^\circ \text{ AND} \\
 & \quad \left(\log(\mathcal{L}_{\text{SPE}} / \mathcal{L}_{\text{Bayes}}) > 30 \text{ OR } \theta_{\text{MPE}} < 90^\circ \right) \text{ AND} \\
 & \quad N_{\text{Dir}} \geq 5 \text{ AND} \\
 & \quad \left. L_{\text{Dir}} > 200 \text{ m} \right] \text{ OR} \\
 & \left[\sigma_{\text{MPE}} < 1.5^\circ \text{ AND} \right. \\
 & \quad \log \mathcal{L}_{\text{MPE}} / (N_{\text{DOMs}} - 5) < 7.5 \text{ AND} \\
 & \quad \left. \log MuE > f_{MuE,40}(\theta_{\text{MPE}}) \right],
 \end{aligned}$$

Here $f_{MuE,40}$ is an energy threshold designed to keep a constant number of events per unit solid angle in the downgoing region. It is calculated using a polynomial fit to events in $\cos \theta$.

7.2.2 59-string Event Selection

7.2.2.1 Upgoing region of 59 strings

We use the scores from several different BDTs to characterize each event: two signal weights are used, one for the expected E^{-2} spectrum for Fermi acceleration and one for a softer $E^{-2.7}$ spectrum observed in Galactic cosmic rays. Two BDTs are trained for each spectral weighting using separate sets of event quality parameters.

The first BDT (*bdt1*) uses the following quality parameters:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \log \mathcal{L}_{\text{MPE}} / (N_{\text{DOMs}} - 2.5) \\
 & b \log l - s 8 \log l \\
 & \theta_{\text{time-split,min}} \\
 & \theta_{\text{geo-split,min}} \\
 & \mathcal{L}_{\text{bayes,geo-split-1}} - \mathcal{L}_{\text{bayes,geo-split2}} - \mathcal{L}_{\text{bayes,SPE}} \\
 & MuE \\
 & \theta_{\text{MPE}} \\
 & \sigma_{\text{MPE}}
 \end{aligned}$$

And the second (*bdt2*) uses these parameters to separate data and signal:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & NDir \\
 & \log \mathcal{L}_{\text{MPE}} / (N_{\text{DOMs}} - 5) \\
 & LDir \\
 & |\vec{v}|_{lf}
 \end{aligned}$$

The BDT scores are combined to form two parameters, one for the BDT which uses data and E^{-2} spectrum signal (*bdt_{high}*) and the one which uses data and $E^{-2.7}$ spectrum signal:

$$\begin{aligned}
bdt_{low} &= (bdt1 + 1) * (bdt2 + 1) \\
bdt_{high} &= (bdt1 + 1) * (bdt2 + 1)
\end{aligned}$$

The best cut found for the two BDT scores was:

$$\begin{aligned}
bdt_{low} &\geq 1.45 \text{ OR} \\
bdt_{high} &\geq 1.4
\end{aligned} \tag{7.1}$$

plots: data vs mc for zenith, rlogl, sigma, delta bayes BDT low and high plots for data vs mc

7.2.2.2 Downgoing region of 59 strings

The downgoing region uses the same technique as was used in the 40 string sample, to select a constant number of events per solid angle for well-reconstructed events. An additional tool was used in the vertically downgoing region: the use of IceTop as a veto for cosmic ray air showers. Hits in IceTop tanks were used to reject events where the detector saw two or more hits in IceTop which were compatible with being from an air shower with the same directionality and timing as the reconstructed muon track inside the glacier. Additional cuts of $\log \mathcal{L}_{\text{MPE}} / (N_{\text{DOMs}} - 5) < 7.4$ and $\sigma_{\text{MPE}} < 1.5^\circ$ were used to select only very high-quality tracks.

We find that this veto rejects 99% of air showers which are vertically downgoing, correspondingly reducing the energy cut which is required to obtain a constant event rate per solid angle. This reduction can be seen in ?? and it significantly improves the sensitivity to E^{-2} spectrum sources in for angles close to the vertical (see ??).

	59 Strings	40 Strings
Total Events	107,569	36,900
Upgoing	43,339	14,121
Downgoing	64,230	22,779
Livetime (d)	348.138	375.539

Table 7.1: Summary of the final event selections with the 59 and 40 string configurations.

7.3 Local Coordinate Dependence

Due to the requirements for triggering and filtering, the cuts applied, Earth absorption properties and detector geometry, the final sample of events is not uniform in the detector local coordinates zenith (θ), and azimuth (ϕ). For time-integrated point source searches, the azimuth dependence is usually neglected because it is smoothed in right ascension by the rotation of the Earth over long integration times. However, in a time-dependent analysis the azimuth dependence becomes important for time scales shorter than 1 day. The local coordinate (zenith and azimuth) distribution of 40 string data is shown in Figure 8.1 (top left). In the northern sky there is the effect that events traveling along the longer axis (see Figure ??) of the detector have a longer lever arm, and are more likely to trigger the detector and be well-reconstructed. In the southern sky, there is a selection criterion on the integrated charge seen in all DOMs as part of the online muon filter. This gives a preference to events which pass near a line of strings, yielding a six-fold peak in rates corresponding to the main axes of the detector symmetry. The effect of the growth of the detector from 40 to 59 strings can be seen in the top right of Figure 8.1: the horizontal preference for well-reconstructed events is gone, with the six-fold symmetry remaining due to the charge cut, and can also be seen much less strongly in the upgoing region due events along these axes being slightly more well reconstructed since they typically have more hits at a particular energy.

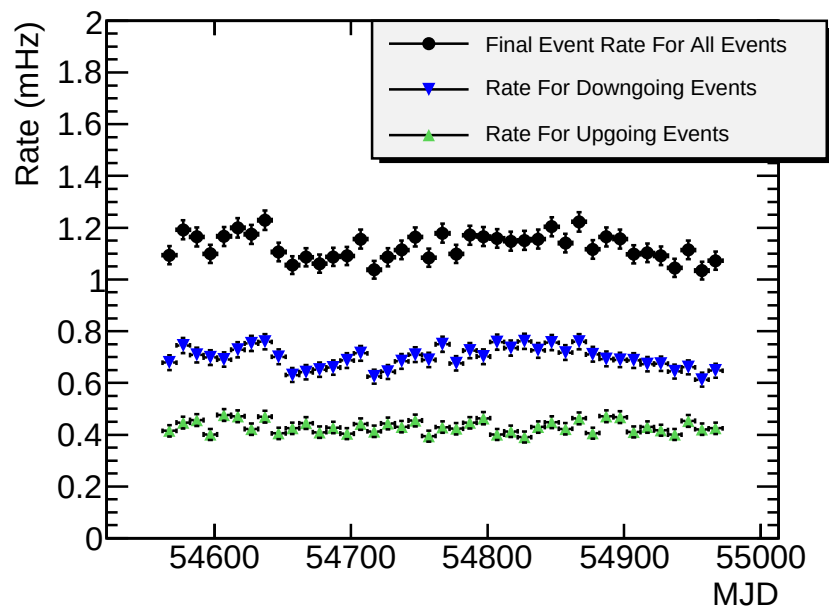


Figure 7.1: A graph of the rate of the final sample of 40 string events, in bins of 10 days. Errors are statistical. Also plotted are the individual rates of upgoing and downgoing events. The total fluctuation in the final data rate is $\pm 5\%$ for downgoing events and $\pm \sim 4\%$ for upgoing events.

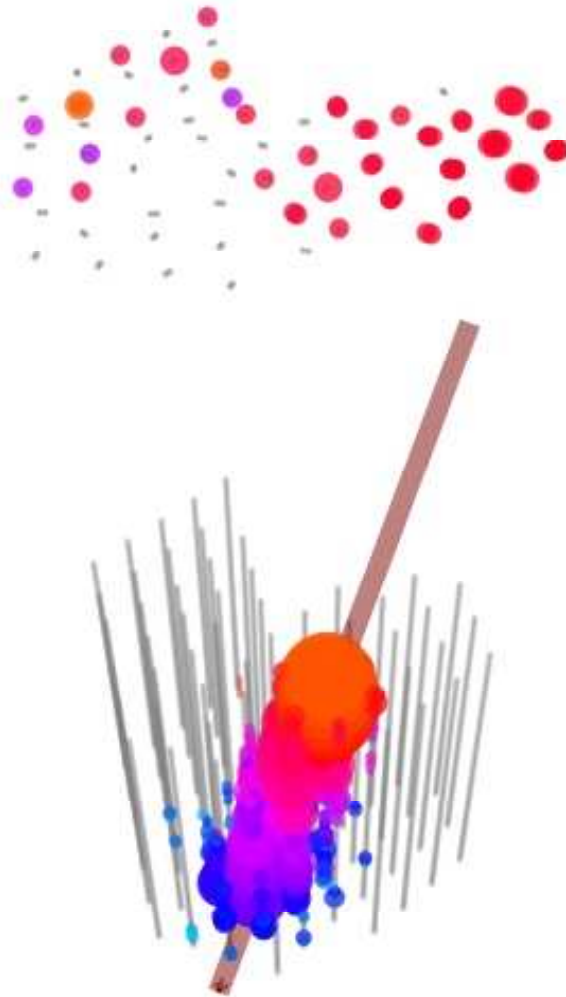


Figure 7.2: An example of an event vetoed by the IceTop array. There is an obvious air shower signature in the surface array, a sign of an electromagnetic shower due to a cosmic ray interaction. Muon neutrinos in the downgoing region will produce a single muon, which will not have an extensive air shower signature.

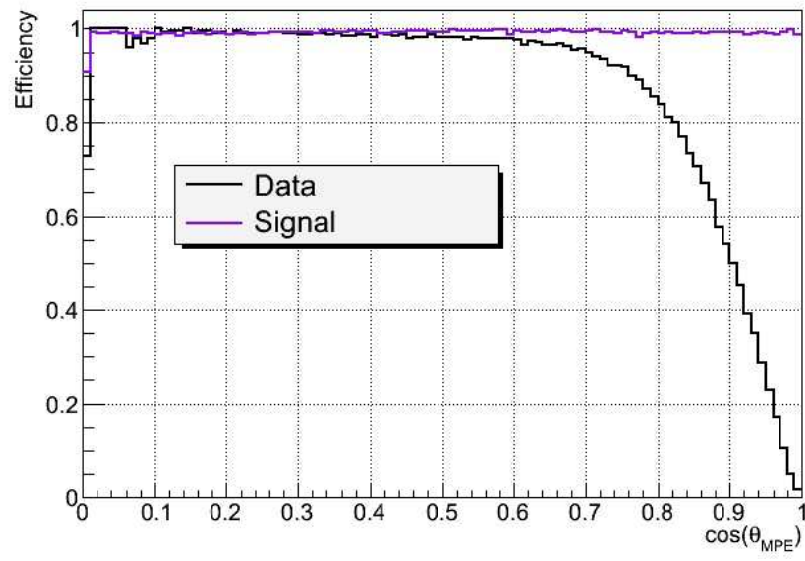


Figure 7.3: A plot of the efficiency of data and signal of the IceTop veto as a function of zenith angle ($\cos(1)$ is directly downgoing).

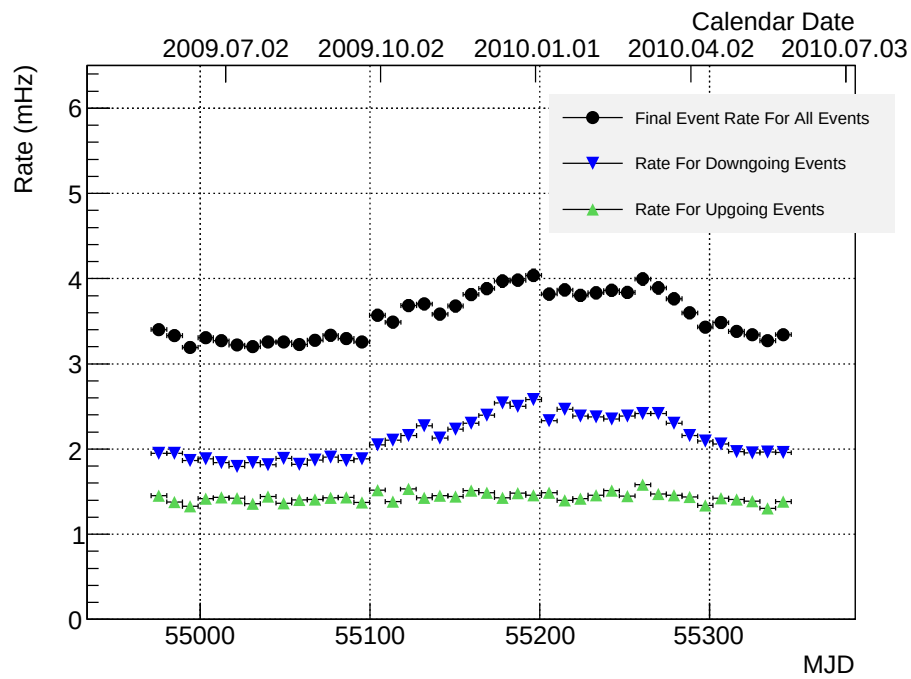


Figure 7.4: A graph of the rate of the final sample of 59 string events, in bins of 10 days. Errors are statistical. Also plotted are the individual rates of upgoing and downgoing events. The total fluctuation in the final data rate is $\pm 10\%$ for downgoing events and is not noticeable here for upgoing events.

Chapter 8

Analysis Method

The unbinned likelihood searches performed here are based on the method described in [48] and extended to searches for time-dependent behavior in [49]. In this likelihood ratio method, a combination of signal and background populations is used to model the data. For a data set with N total events, where n_s is the number of signal events, the probability density of the i^{th} event is given by:

$$\frac{n_s}{N}\mathcal{S}_i + (1 - \frac{n_s}{N})\mathcal{B}_i. \quad (8.1)$$

where $\mathcal{B}_i$ is the background pdf and $\mathcal{S}_i$ is the signal pdf. The likelihood $\mathcal{L}$ of the data given the value of n_s is the product of the individual event probabilities:

$$\mathcal{L}(n_s) = \prod_{i=1}^N \left[\frac{n_s}{N}\mathcal{S}_i + (1 - \frac{n_s}{N})\mathcal{B}_i \right]. \quad (8.2)$$

This likelihood is maximized with respect to n_s and any other nuisance parameters which are a part of the signal hypothesis. The maximization provides the best-fit values of these parameters. The background probability distribution function, or pdf, $\mathcal{B}_i$, is given by:

$$\mathcal{B}_i = B_i^{\text{space}}(\theta_i, \phi_i) B_i^{\text{energy}}(E_i, \theta_i) B_i^{\text{time}}(t_i, \theta_i), \quad (8.3)$$

and is computed using the distribution of data itself.

The spatial term $B_i^{\text{space}}(\theta_i, \phi_i)$ is the event density per unit solid angle as a function of the local coordinates, shown in Figure 8.1 (left). The energy probability, $B_i^{\text{energy}}(E_i, \theta_i)$, is determined from the energy proxy distribution of data as a function of the cosine of the zenith angle $\cos \theta_i$ (see Figure 8.1 on the right). The energy cut for the southern sky sample decreases for larger zenith

angles, creating a strong zenith dependence of the energy in the southern sky as can be seen in Figure 8.1 (right). Note that for the northern sky the energy dependence on zenith is small. The time probability $B_i^{\text{time}}(t_i, \theta_i)$ of the background can be modeled including the expected seasonal modulations, which are less than $\pm 10\%$ and depend on the zenith angle, or taken to be flat since these modulations are negligible compared to possible signal fluctuations.

The signal pdf $\mathcal{S}_i$ is given by:

$$S_i = S_i^{\text{space}}(|\vec{x}_i - \vec{x}_s|, \sigma_i) S_i^{\text{energy}}(E_i, \theta_i, \gamma_s) S_i^{\text{time}}, \quad (8.4)$$

where S_i^{space} depends on the angular uncertainty of the event σ_i and the angular difference between the event coordinate $\vec{x}_i$ and the source coordinate $\vec{x}_s$. S_i^{energy} is a function of the reconstructed energy proxy E_i , and the fit spectral index γ_s is calculated from an energy distribution of simulated signal in a zenith band that contains the event. S_i^{time} , the signal time probability, depends on the particular signal hypothesis, which will be different in each search described in this paper. For each search, signal is injected with the same functional form (Gaussian, box or lightcurve) in time as is being tested.

The test statistic (TS) is calculated from the likelihood ratio of the background-only (null) hypothesis over the signal-plus-background hypothesis:

$$TS = -2 \log \left(\frac{\mathcal{L}(n_s = 0)}{\mathcal{L}(\hat{n}_s, \hat{\gamma}_s, \hat{T}_s)} \right). \quad (8.5)$$

The test statistic is expressed as in Equation 8.5 in order that it will distribute as a chi-square function with number of degrees of freedom equal to the number of fit parameters. By maximizing TS the best fit parameters $\hat{n}_s, \hat{\gamma}_s$ and any fit time parameters $\hat{T}_s$ are obtained.

Larger values of TS are less compatible with the null hypothesis, and indicate its rejection at a confidence level equal to the fraction of the scrambled trials above the TS value found in the data. Data scrambling is done by assigning a random time to each event from a period of active data taking and performing the proper coordinate transformation to get a new right ascension and declination. The fraction of trials above the TS value obtained from data is referred to as the p -value. This leads to the definition of the discovery potential: the average number of signal events

required to achieve a p -value less than 2.87×10^{-7} (one-sided 5σ) in 50% of trials. Similarly, the sensitivity is defined as the average signal required to obtain a p -value less than that of the median of the test statistic distribution of scrambled (background-only) samples in 90% of trials.

8.1 Event Weight

The method returns a value for the signal fraction for a set of best-fit signal parameters, but in an unbinned method there is not a clear-cut way of defining particular events as signal-like or background-like, as would be done by selecting a signal region in a binned analysis. A useful parameter to describe individual events is the ratio of $\mathcal{S}_i/\mathcal{B}_i$ given the set of parameters of the tested location and spectral index. The spectral index is used in two ways: as the best-fit spectral index for all events and before the best spectral index is found, each event has a spectrum which will maximize the signal weight. This is used to determine the most signal-like events for purposes of calculating a first-guess set of parameters in searches.

In Figure 8.2, the dependence of the energy weight in the signal term can be seen for events with declinations between 0° and 20° . The value of the spectral index giving the best energy weight is highlighted by a dashed black line. In Figure 8.3, we see the dependence on the spatial event weight as a function of the space angle of the event from the tested location (here at locations of RA, dec of $343.5^\circ, +16.2^\circ$ and $74.3^\circ, -23.4^\circ$), calculated from an average of 10,000 scrambled maps. What we see from this distribution is that no event less than 1° from the tested northern sky location has a $\mathcal{S}_i/\mathcal{B}_i$ of less than ~ 1000 , and the same for the southern sky events less than 0.5° from the tested location. The shape of the distribution is parabolic, as to be expected as the signal pdf of events are modelled as two-dimensional Gaussian functions, and since the angular uncertainty is calculated on an event-by-event basis, we see a superposition of many Gaussians here.

A cutoff is used in the $\mathcal{S}_i/\mathcal{B}_i$ ratio at a value of one, where the event goes from being nominally signal-like to nominally background-like. It is interesting to note that events which are nominally signal-like can come from up to 12° distance from the tested location.

From the energy distribution, we see that there is a broad area of events with less than roughly 13 TeV in energy, and fit spectral indices softer than E^{-3} , where the energy ratio is roughly one, and the addition of the energy term does not assist in distinguishing signal from atmospheric background compared to an analysis which does not use any energy weighting. **Jim found that trimming things from Γ of 2-2.7 helped, discuss this?**

8.2 Combining Datasets

Unbinned likelihood methods are ideal for combining data sets. Each event carries its own pdf and background can be estimated for each sample. The overall likelihood is maximized for the combined data sets, assuming a uniform signal hypothesis. The event-wise pdf now depends on the particular data set of which the i th event is a part:

$$P_i = \frac{n_s^j}{n_{\text{tot}}^j} S_i^j + \left(1 - \frac{n_s^j}{n_{\text{tot}}^j}\right) B_i^j, \quad (8.6)$$

where the index j refers to the specific dataset from which the event came. In our case, it can take on values $j = \{\text{IC40}, \text{IC59}\}$. That is, n_{tot}^j is the total number of events in the j th data set, B_i^j is the background pdf of the for the j th data set, etc.

The likelihood is again the product of P_i over all events in each data set. The likelihood is maximized globally, assuming the same signal hypothesis (neutrino flux) in all data sets. Therefore, $\gamma = \gamma^{\text{IC40}} = \gamma^{\text{IC59}}$. In general, the number of signal events is not the same in all data sets, but depends on the live time, detector acceptance, and cut efficiency of each data set. Simulation is used to determine the fraction of the total number of signal events in each data set $f^j = f^j(\gamma)$, so that $n_s = f^j n_s^j$. The total number of signal events is given by:

$$n_s = \sum_j n_s^j. \quad (8.7)$$

In this way, our likelihood remains a function of the same number of parameters. The maximization of the likelihood is again done by finding the best estimate of n_s and γ along with any time-dependent features, now the total number of signal events in all data sets and the uniform spectral index and time hypothesis, respectively.

8.3 Sensitivity and Discovery Potential

Aside from the p -values from searches, in the absence of a signal upper limits can be provided. Upper limits on the average flux normalization are natural expressions, since no time dependence is assumed. For time-variable sources we place limits on the fluence from the source, defined as the integral in energy and time of the flux upper limit:

$$f = \int_{t_{\min}}^{t_{\max}} dt \int_{E_{\min}}^{E_{\max}} dE \times E \frac{dN}{dE} = \Delta t \int_{E_{\min}}^{E_{\max}} dE \times E \frac{\Phi_0}{E^2} = \Delta t \Phi_0 [\ln(E_{\max}) - \ln(E_{\min})] , \quad (8.8)$$

where Φ_0 is the upper limit on the normalization on an E^{-2} spectrum and $E_{\min}$ and $E_{\max}$ specify the declination dependent energy range containing 90% of the signal spectrum at final sample selection criteria obtained from simulations. Δt is the duration of the emission. There is a correspondence between the fluence and the average number of events detected, shown as a function of the declination in Figure 8.4. The limits are calculated according to the classical (frequentist) construction of upper limits outlined by Neyman in [50] and the systematic error of 16% is neglected in all upper limits since the limits are dominated by statistical fluctuations for flares. The analysis in Section 12 uses the ordering method of Feldman and Cousins to calculate upper limits, and the systematic errors. It is found that using the Feldman-Cousins implementation to calculate upper limits yields results 15% higher than using the Neyman method. The 16% systematic errors add roughly 3% to the limits calculated, since the number of events is typically near the statistical minimum.

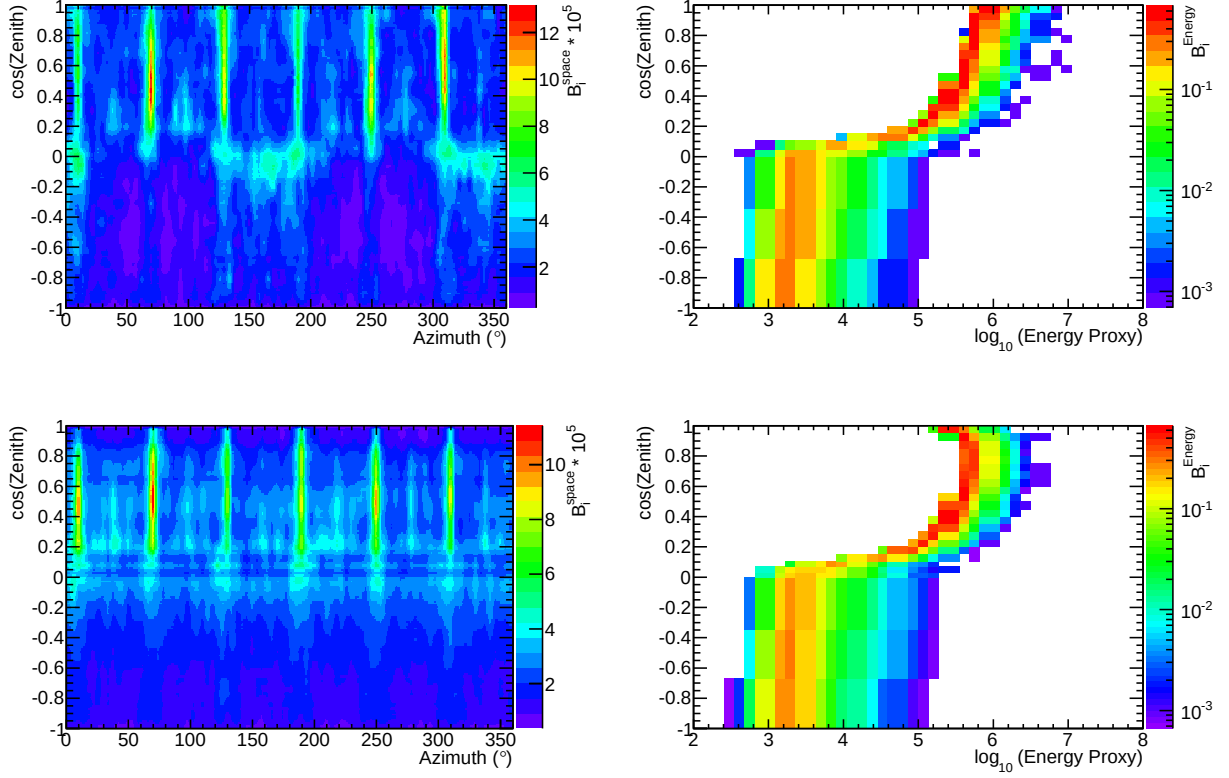


Figure 8.1: Above Left: The normalized event distribution of the 36,900 events in local coordinates for the 40 strings data (the space term in Equation 8.3). There are two predominant effects: for upgoing events (northern sky, bottom half), events traveling down the longer end of the detector are more likely to trigger and pass cuts; for downgoing events (southern sky, top half), there are six peaks in the event rate. This is due to the initial filter conditions at the South Pole that select tracks more efficiently when they pass close to aligned strings. Above Right: Normalized distribution of cosine of zenith as a function of the energy proxy (the energy term in Equation 8.3). The lower row shows the same distribution for the 107,569 events selected for the 59 string sample. The two peaks for upgoing events travelling down the long end of the 40-string detector is gone.

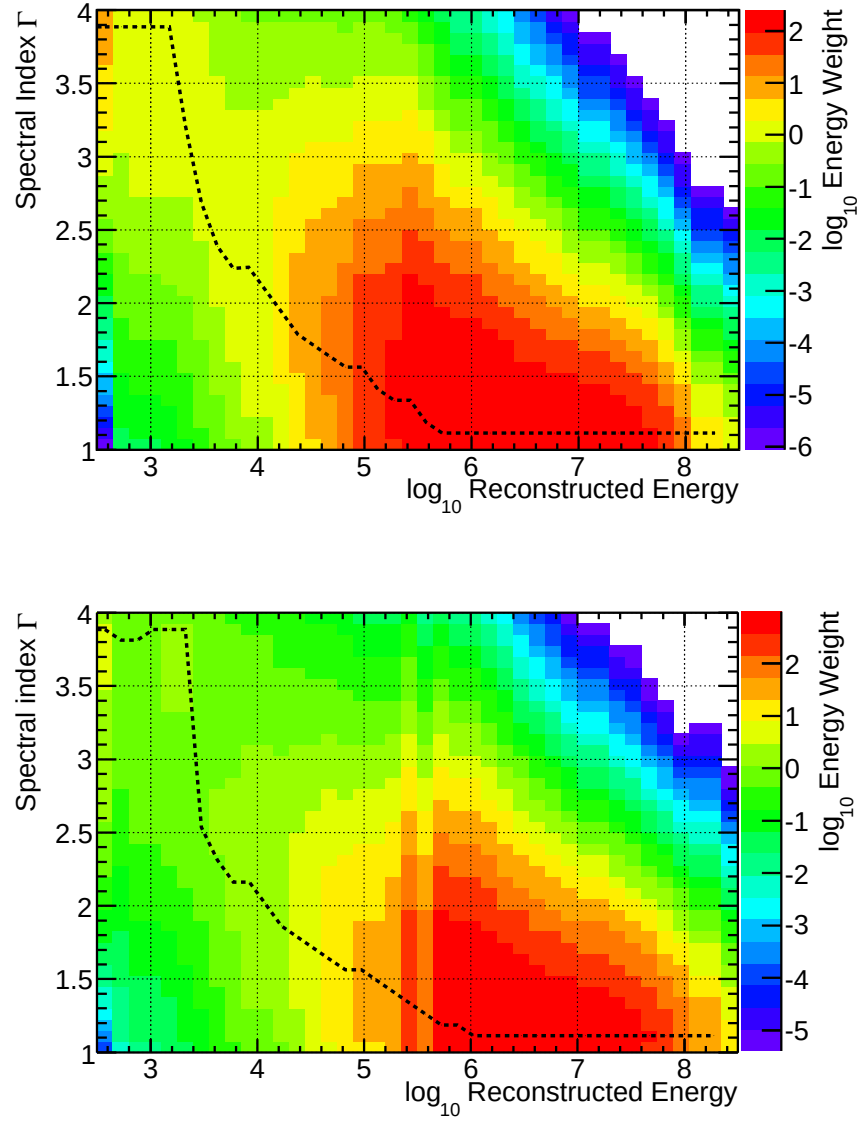


Figure 8.2: The energy weight $S_i^{\text{energy}}(E_i, \theta_i, \gamma_s)/B_i^{\text{energy}}(E_i, \theta_i)$ for events where $\theta_i = 106^\circ (+16^\circ$ in declination), for the 40 and 59-string datasets (top and bottom, respectively).

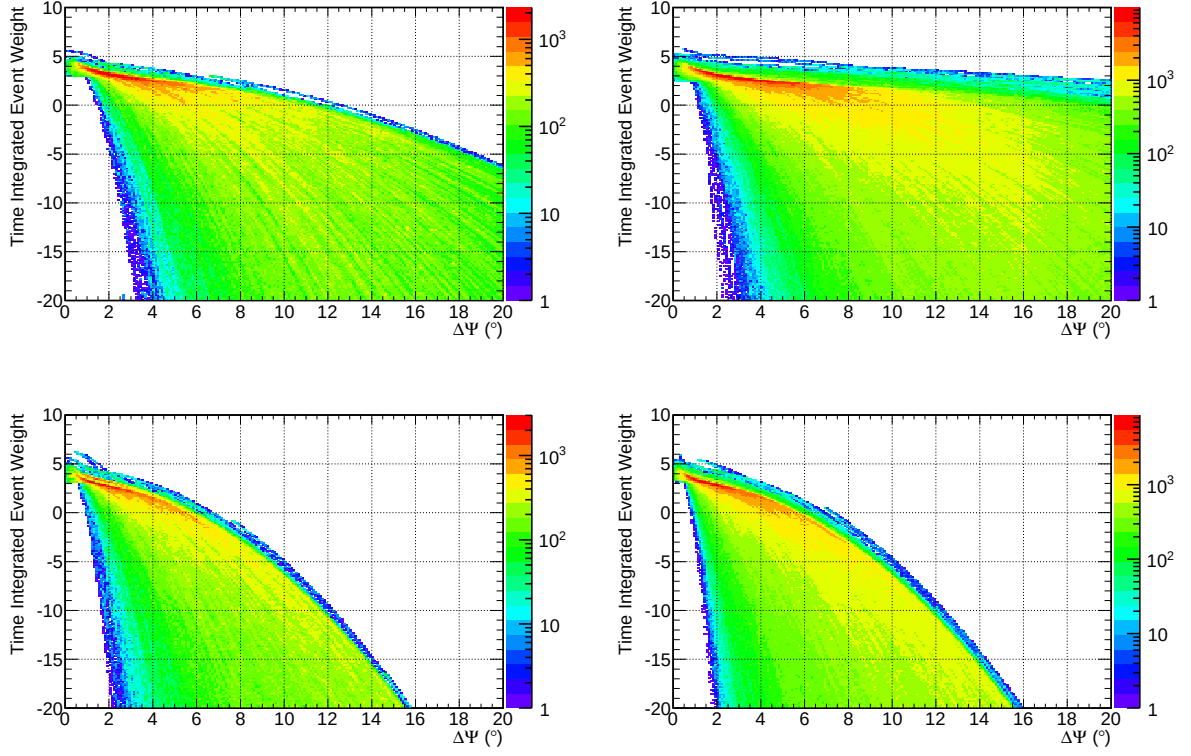


Figure 8.3: The event weight $\mathcal{S}_i/\mathcal{B}_i$ for events with respect to the locations with right ascension and declination of $343.5^\circ, +16.2^\circ$ (top row) and $74.2^\circ, -23.4^\circ$ (bottom row), for the 40 and 59-string datasets (left and right columns, respectively). The energy weight used is the maximum for each event, following the line in Figure 8.2 For both samples, the sample in the southern sky has a tighter cut on the angular error, so the weight falls off faster than in the Northern sky.

Chapter 9

Simulation and Detector Performance

This chapter describes the simulation of neutrinos and cosmic ray air showers used to model the signal and background for the IceCube detector and to test the effectiveness of cut and analysis strategies. The charged leptons are propagated through the ice, along with emitted light and secondary particles. The light is tracked to the DOMs where the PMT and electronics are simulated. At that point the simulation is in the same form of the IceCube DAQ and it is processed identically as the data. At that point the simulation is in the same form of the IceCube DAQ and it is processed identically as the data.

To within the uncertainty on our simulation models, distributions of parameters used in event selection agree in data and simulation. Simulation also allows us to test the resolution of our detector and efficiency of the cuts used in point- source searches. It is also used to characterize the effectiveness of the reconstructions in terms of the angular error in a track reconstruction or in the energy reconstruction resolution.

The probabilities of point source searches are computed using only data, but a physical interpretation of the results require the use of Monte Carlo simulation. This includes understanding the efficiency of the trigger, filters and quality cuts to obtain the final data sample, also calculating upper limits and discovery potentials of the search methods.

9.1 Simulation Chain

9.1.1 Neutrino Simulation

Neutrinos are simulated on the ANIS (All Neutrino Interaction Simulation) program **cite**, the cross-sections for deep inelastic neutrino-nucleon interactions use the parton distribution functions from CTEQ5 **cite**.

Simulation begins at the surface of the Earth, with the neutrino propagated through the planet toward the South Pole. This takes into account energy loss due to NC interactions, and absorption and regeneration due to CC interactions. Once in the vicinity of the IceCube detector, all unabsorbed neutrinos are forced to interact – muon neutrinos can interact within the range of the daughter muon from the detector. All events are given a weight to represent the probability of the simulated interaction.

Standard neutrino simulation generates events from 100 GeV to 10 EeV with to an E^{-1} spectrum, which is then reweighted according to the desired signal spectrum. This is done to ensure that there is sufficient statistics for high energy events. Other neutrino simulation uses an E^{-2} spectrum, which has better statistics in the energy range of 1-10 TeV, the energy range of the bulk of atmospheric neutrinos seen by IceCube.

9.1.2 Cosmic Ray Simulation

Atmospheric muons from cosmic ray air showers are simulated using the CORSIKA (COsmic Ray SIMulations for KAscade) program **cite** using the SIBYLL hadronic interaction model **cite**. Since the rates can vary over the year due to changes in the temperature in the stratosphere, where initial cosmic ray interactions typically occur, four months from different seasons are simulated. The atmospheric muon background is generated to test the efficiency of cuts and to estimate the contamination for the final muon sample.

9.1.3 Propagation

Charged leptons are propagated through ice and rock by the Muon Monte Carlo (MMC) program **cite**. This simulates the energy losses due to ionization, pair production, and stochastic losses from bremsstrahlung. The number of Čerenkov photons from the muon and any secondary showers along the track are also calculated.

Photons in the ice are handled with the Photonics software **cite**, which is designed to use the measured ice properties to guide propagation using the scattering and absorption at different points in the ice. Tables with the photon amplitudes and timing distributions are pre-calculated for grid points in the simulated volume, which makes the simulation memory-consuming but greatly speeds up the calculation of the detector response.

9.1.4 Detector Simulation

For photons which intercept a DOM in the Photonics package, they are then given to another package to simulate the transmission through the glass and the PMT response, based on waveform calibration done on DOMs before deployment. The pulses are read out by a program simulating the PMT discriminator, digitization of the waveform, and the local coincidence condition from neighboring simulated DOMs. The same trigger conditions are also applied as are run online as a criterion for reading out the detector state.

The livetime of the background simulation is typically less than the livetime of the data due to computational constraints. For the 40 and 59 string configurations, the data livetime is roughly one year, while the simulation of cosmic ray events is roughly two weeks. A simulation dataset with a different weighting

9.2 Detector Performance

The knowledge of the true direction and energy of the particles injected with simulation allows us to test the performance of the detector for point-source analyses. This requires us to have a good

idea of the accuracy of the reconstructions along with the ability of the filter and event selection chain to detect neutrinos of different energies.

9.2.1 Neutrino Point Spread Function

We use the point spread function (PSF) to characterize the pointing ability of the detector, which is essential for point-source searches. It uses the angle ($\Delta\Psi$) between the reconstructed muon track and the direction of the neutrino primary to determine the spatial spread of events from a true neutrino point source.

9.2.2 Neutrino Effective Area

The neutrino effective area is useful parameter to compare different event selections across different energy ranges. We can also use the neutrino effective area at a particular declination δ to estimate the neutrino event rate for differential flux $d\Phi/dE$:

$$N_{\text{events}}(\delta) = \int dE A_{\nu}^{\text{eff}}(E_{\nu}, \delta) \frac{d\Psi_{\nu}(E_{\nu}, \delta)}{dE_{\nu}} \quad (9.1)$$

The effective areas for the 40 and 59-string event samples are shown in Figure ?? for a variety of declination bands. The highest energy neutrinos are more often absorbed as they travel through the bulk of the Earth, which can be seen here. The effect of the energy cuts can be seen in the downgoing region.

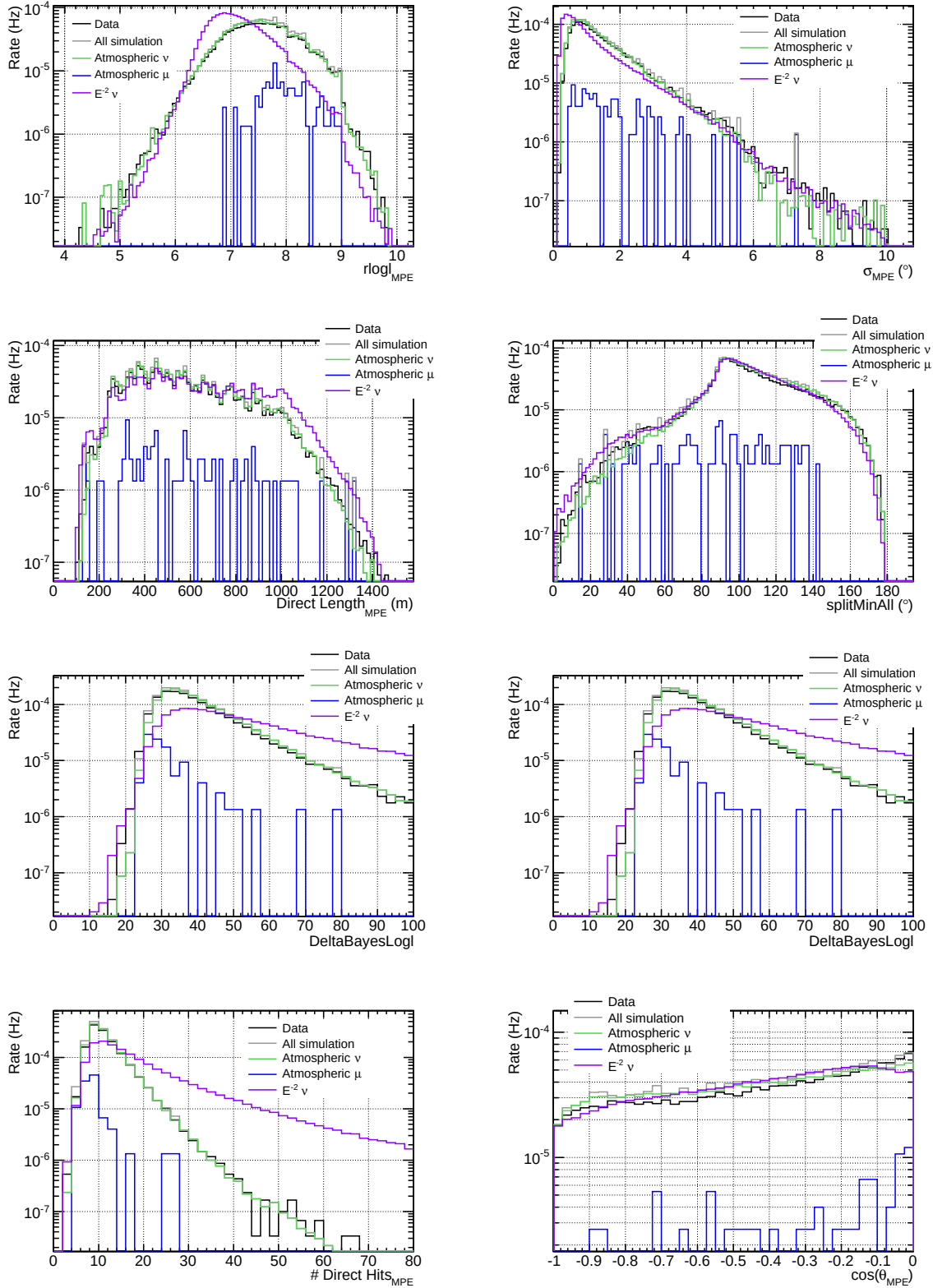


Figure 9.1: Data and to Monte Carlo comparisons using the upgoing point source sample from the 59 string configuration. Data is in black, the atmospheric neutrino distributions using the Bartol flux is in green, while the contribution from atmospheric muons is in blue. The sum of all atmospheric simulation is gray, and the expected distribution for neutrinos with an E^{-2} spectrum is in purple, with the normalization set to match that for atmospheric neutrinos.

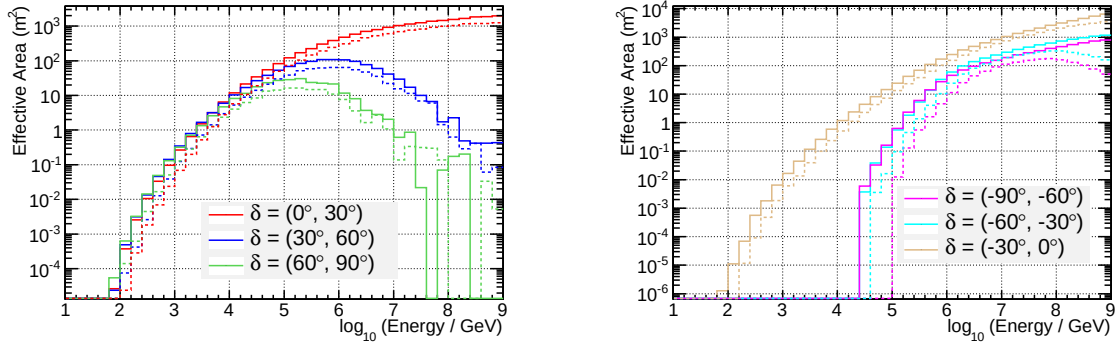


Figure 9.2: The muon neutrino effective areas for the 40 and 59 string point source samples. Upgoing declination bands are shown on the left, downgoing declinations on the right. Bands are plotted in the same color for the 40 and 59 string samples, the 40 string effective area is dashed, while the 59 string sample is solid.

Chapter 10

All-Sky Time-scan

In this chapter we present the most general of the searches, which is designed to search over the entire sky and livetime for a clustering of events in time and space. The improvement in discovery potential and the analysis method of reliably finding the most significant flare are described, and results are presented. The output of the analysis is the most significant clustering in time and space for the time covered by the analysis, which searches for point sources of flaring emission from time scales from $20 \mu\text{s}$ (the minimum time between events in the 40 and 59 string samples) to an entire year. The search is applied separately to the 40 and 59 string samples, as the sensitivity of the analysis is time-dependent, so the sensitivity for a specific time covered by one sample is not improved by adding data from another period.

The all-sky time-dependent search complements the all-sky search applied separately to the IceCube 40 and 59-string datasets. While a time-independent search has the best sensitivity to steady sources, a source which has emitted neutrinos for only a limited period of time might not be detected. The time-dependent analysis here scans for a significant excess with respect to background over all time scales (from sub-seconds to the full year) at each direction of the sky. For flares shorter than ~ 100 days, the discovery potential of the time-dependent search typically becomes better than the time-integrated one, and in principle a short burst can be discovered with only two events if they occur close enough together in time. The advantage of such untriggered searches is their ability to cover all emission scenarios, including neutrino emission without any observed counterpart in the electromagnetic spectrum.

10.1 Method and Expected Performance

The method in [49] is adapted for this search to a real detector with non-uniform acceptance and deadtime. The non-uniform acceptance can be seen in 8.1, deadtime compensation is shown below in 10.1. The time-dependent probability density function from Equation 8.4 for this search is a Gaussian function:

$$S_i^{\text{time}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_T} \exp\left(-\frac{(t_i - T_o)^2}{2\sigma_T^2}\right) \quad (10.1)$$

where t_i is the arrival time of the event, and fit parameters T_o and σ_T are the mean and sigma of the Gaussian describing flaring behavior in time. The maximization of the test statistic returns the best-fit values of the Gaussian mean (the time at which the flare peaks) and sigma (corresponding to the duration of the flare). Both the background and expected number of events are small, distinguishing a box-type function from a Gaussian would require many more events than required for a 5σ discovery, and we find that using either of these flare hypotheses performs similarly. It was found that the fitting method used in this section worked better with a continuous function, so a Gaussian functional form was chosen.

Because there are many more independent small time windows than large ones, the test statistic formula of Equation 8.5 is modified to include a marginalization term to correct for this effective trial factor and avoid undue preference for short flares [49]. The marginal likelihood will be:

$$\mathcal{L}(\vec{x}_s, n_s, \gamma) = \int_{T_o} \int_{\log \sigma_T} \mathcal{L}(\vec{x}_s, n_s, \gamma, T_o, \sigma_T) P(T_o) P(\log \sigma_T) dT_o d(\log \sigma_T) \quad (10.2)$$

Where $P(T_o) = 1/T_L$ during detector uptime. Since the search is for a localized time-dependent behavior, T_o has significant freedom over the livetime T_L over many orders of magnitude for short bursts. Integrating over T_o we can approximate the integral assuming an always-on detector:

$$\int_{T_o} \mathcal{L}(\vec{x}_s, \hat{n}_s, \hat{\gamma}, T_o, \hat{\sigma}_T) \frac{1}{T_L} dT_o \simeq \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_T}{T_L} \mathcal{L}(\vec{x}_s, \hat{n}_s, \hat{\gamma}, \hat{T}_o, \hat{\sigma}_T). \quad (10.3)$$

The test statistic formula that is maximized is then:

$$TS = -2 \log \frac{T_L}{\sqrt{2\pi}\hat{\sigma}_T} \times \frac{\mathcal{L}(n_s = 0)}{\mathcal{L}(\hat{n}_s, \hat{\gamma}, \hat{\sigma}_T, \hat{T}_o)} \quad (10.4)$$

where the first factor in the square brackets is the marginalization term and the second is the likelihood ratio. T is the total livetime of data taking, $\hat{n}_s, \hat{\gamma}, \hat{\sigma}_T, \hat{T}_o$ are the best-fit values for the number of signal events, spectral index, width and mean of the Gaussian flare, respectively. In order to prevent the marginalization term from becoming less than 1, an upper limit is placed on the flare width σ_T . This is done to prevent flares with zero amplitude ($\hat{n}_s=0$) from having a positive test statistic, which would happen if the flare width σ_T were allowed to be greater than $T/\sqrt{2\pi}$.

The numerical maximizer needs an initial candidate flare (a “first guess”). Due to the complicated behavior of the time-dependent likelihood space, a numerical minimizer requires a starting value which is close to the true minimum, which requires manual sampling. To calculate this first guess in this analysis we use the criteria to select events with $\mathcal{S}_i/\mathcal{B}_i > 1$, where $\mathcal{S}_i$ and $\mathcal{B}_i$ are defined in Section ??, omitting the time term. A plot of the values for this ratio as a function of the distance from the tested point source location is shown ?. A scan is performed over sets of m temporally consecutive events, where $2 \leq m \leq 5$. So, for a stream consisting of time-ordered events numbered 1,2,3,4,5,6,7..., the initial scan tests events (1,2), (2,3), (3,4) etc., (1,2,3), (2,3,4), (3,4,5) etc., (1,2,3,4), (2,3,4,5), (3,4,5,6) etc., and (1,2,3,4,5), (2,3,4,5,6) etc. Each set is tested using the described likelihood formula for compatibility with a flare with an E^{-2} spectrum. The candidate with the best test statistic (from Equation 10.4) is used as the initial guess for the parameters in the maximization. The 40-string analysis also performs additional scans over $m = (10, 15)$ consecutive events, and in the 59-string analysis, where the number of events is roughly a factor of 3 higher than the 40-string sample, the number of sets of consecutive scanned events has been increased to add $m = (10, 15, 25, 40, 65)$ improving the sensitivity to longer flares. This brings the performance of the analysis close to that of the corresponding time-integrated analysis at large time scales. Given that more than 5 events are required for discovery for $\sigma_T > 2$ days (see Fig ??), if the maximum m is not increased, the method will occasionally only find a subset of the injected events, hence increasing the total signal required to cross the threshold for discovery.

Figure 10.2 (left) shows the mean number of injected events from a Gaussian time function needed for a 5σ discovery for 50% cases (black solid line) as a function of the duration of the flare σ_T for a fixed source location at declination of $+16^\circ$ with the 40-string data. Sources at

other declinations yield similar results. This is compared to the number of events needed in a time-integrated search (black dashed line): the number of events needed to discover a flare of 1s duration is about a factor of 4 lower than for a time-integrated search. At long timescales the flare search performs only 10% worse than the time-integrated search, even with 2 additional free parameters in the fit. In the same plot the median upper limits at 90% CL are shown for the time-dependent search and for the time-integrated one. On the right the corresponding fluence is given, where a correction is introduced for the median dead time during a given flare as a function of the flare width (see Figure 10.1).

The fact that the 50% 5σ discovery potential curve descends below the 90% median upper limit curve is due to the effect of Poisson statistics. The untriggered search must observe at least two events in order to identify a flare. For a simulated flaring source which injects a mean number of events μ , μ must equal at least 1.68 for 50% of simulated trials corresponding to 2 or more signal events. Therefore, at the shortest timescales, the mean signal needed for a discovery in 50% of trials asymptotically approaches 1.68 events. We find the sensitivity at 90% CL saturates at 2.9 events, which is already near the time-independent sensitivity of 3.15 events and the statistical limit.. This is the reason why the discovery potential curve is lower than the sensitivity in Figure ??.

The method is applied as an all-sky scan over a grid ($0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$) in right ascension and declination. The final result of the analysis is the set of best fit parameters from the location with the highest test statistic value. A final p -value for this analysis is obtained by performing the same scan on scrambled data sets, and counting the fraction of scrambled sets which have a maximum test statistic greater than or equal to the maximum found in the data.

10.2 Results

Using the 40-string data, the location which deviates most from the background expectation is found at (RA,Dec) = (254.75°, +36.25°). Two events are found, with a best-fit spectrum $\hat{\gamma}$ of 2.15, mean of the flare $\hat{T}_o$ of MJD 54874.703125 (February 12, 2009) and width $\hat{\sigma}_T$ of 15 seconds. The two events are 2.0° apart in space and 22 seconds apart in time. The $-\log_{10}(p\text{-value})$

corresponding to this observation is 4.67. A clustering of higher significance is seen in 56% of scrambled skymaps, a result consistent with the null hypothesis of background-only data.

Figures 10.3 to 10.5 show maps of the pre-trial p -values and best-fit parameters $\hat{T}_o$ and $\hat{\sigma}_T$. Figures 10.4 and 10.5 require that the best-fit number of signal events be greater than zero, white area corresponds to being consistent with no flare being detected.

The most significant flare in the 59-string data is found at (RA,Dec) = (21.35°, -0.25°). The peak of the flare occurs on MJD 55259 (March 4, 2010), and has a width $\hat{\sigma}_T$ of 5.5 days and a soft spectral index of $\hat{\gamma} = 3.9$. The $-\log_{10}(p\text{-value})$ of the flare is 6.69, a value of which is found in 14 of 1000 of scrambled maps. Figures 10.6 to 10.8 show maps of the pre-trial p -values and best-fit parameters $\hat{T}_o$ and $\hat{\sigma}_T$. Figure 10.9 shows the event weights from the position of maximum significance plotted throughout the year, a clustering near the time of the best-fit parameters is clearly visible. The reconstructed directions of the 19 most signal-like events with their time-independent event weights can be seen in Figure 10.10.

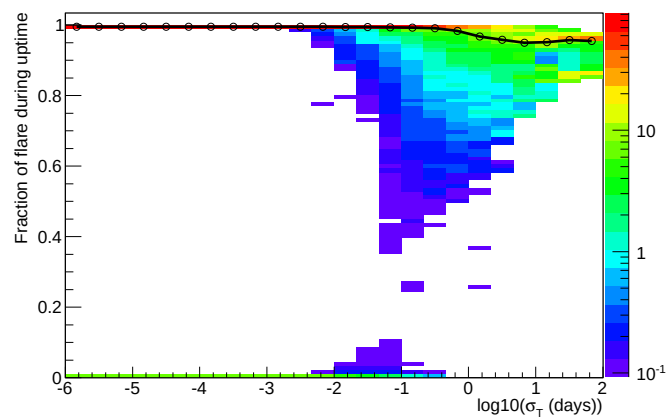


Figure 10.1: The fractional duration of randomly-simulated flares which occur during the uptime for the 40-string configuration for a range of different flare durations. The black line marks the median fraction of fluence occurring during the detector livetime for a given flare duration, which is used as a correction factor for the fluence of observed flares. For instance, for flares shorter than one minute, there is approximately an 8% chance of the flare occurring completely during detector downtime. Flares longer than one day will always have some emission during uptime; on average 92% of the total emission will coincide with usable run time.

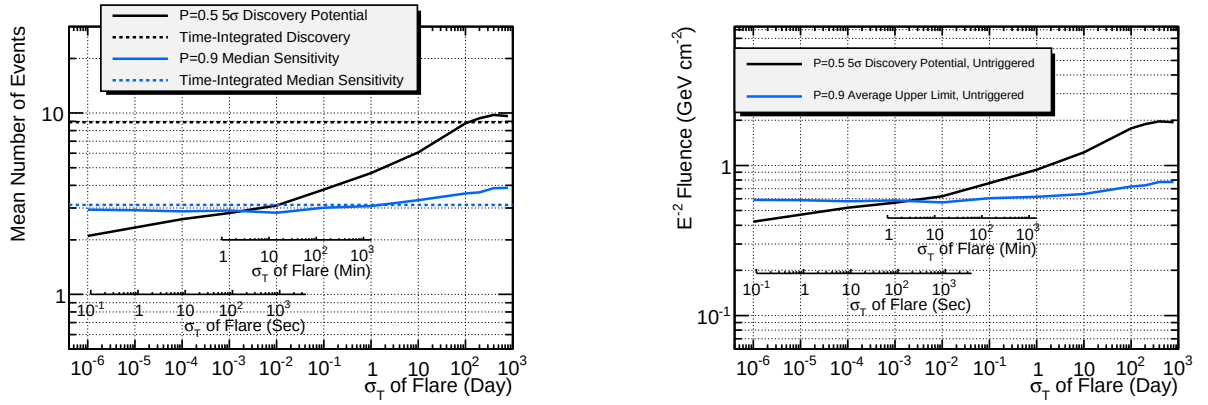


Figure 10.2: The 50% 5σ discovery potential and 90% median sensitivity in terms of the mean number of events (left) and fluence (right) for a fixed source at $+16^\circ$ declination. The number of events for the median sensitivity and discovery potential for the time-integrated search are also shown. Flares with a σ_T of less than 100 days, or a FWHM of less than roughly half the total livetime, have a better discovery potential than the steady search.

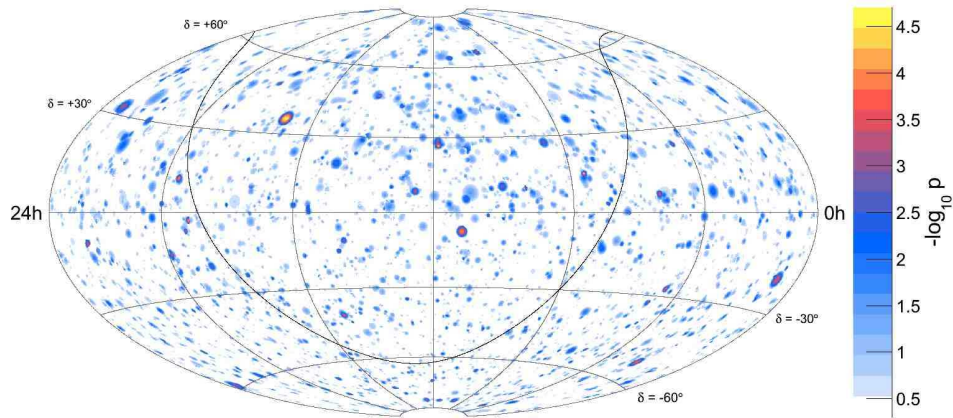


Figure 10.3: The equatorial coordinate map shows the p -value of the most significant flare in time and space during the 40-string data taking period at each location of the grid where the likelihood is calculated. The p -value is indicated on the z -scale on the right, with the maximum at 16h 59m, $+36.25^{\text{circ}}$. The black curve is the Galactic plane.

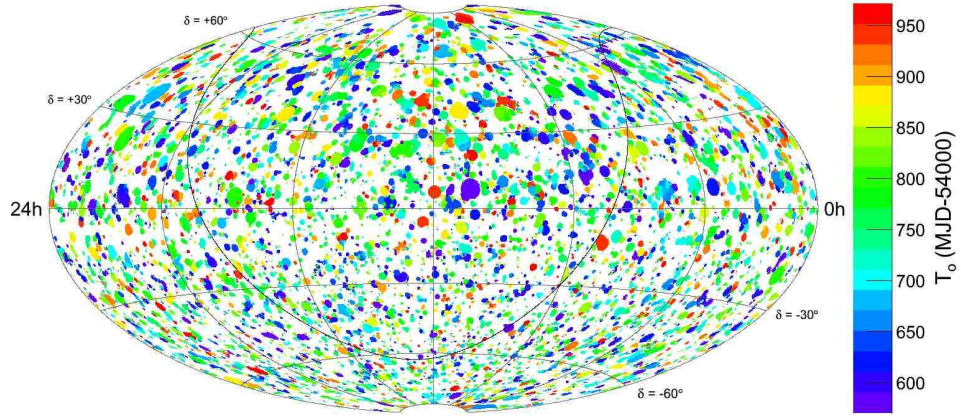


Figure 10.4: The equatorial coordinate map shows the best fit of the mean time of the flare $\hat{T}_o$ (MJD-54,000) for the most significant flare during the 40-string data taking period found at each location of the grid where the likelihood is calculated. The black curve is the Galactic plane.

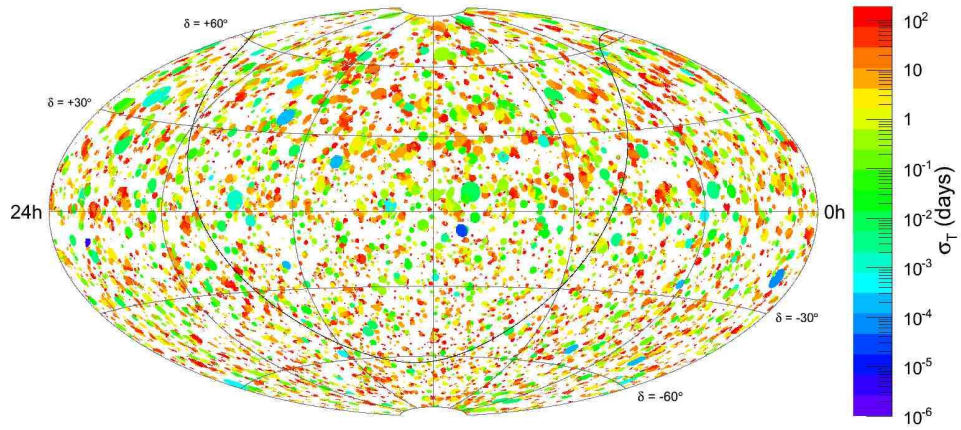


Figure 10.5: The map in equatorial coordinates of the best fit width $\hat{\sigma}_T$, in days, of most significant flare at a given location found using the 40-string data at each location of the grid where the likelihood is calculated in the search. The black curve is the Galactic plane.

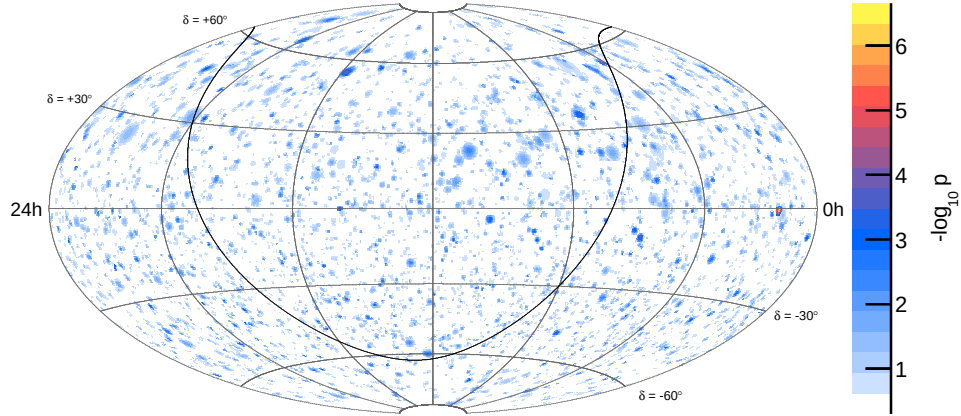


Figure 10.6: The map in equatorial coordinates of the pretrial p -value for the 59 string dataset all-sky flare search. The most significant flare can be seen in the center-right at 1h 25m, -0.25° . The black curve is the Galactic plane.

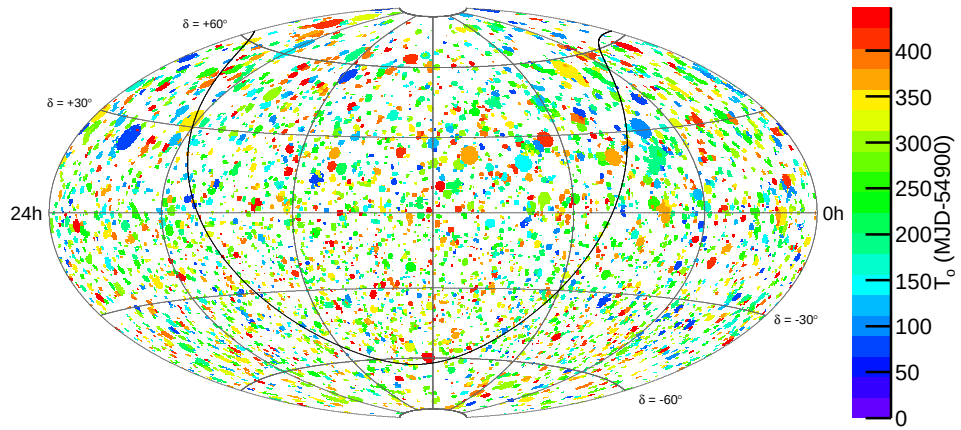


Figure 10.7: The equatorial coordinate map shows the best fit of the mean time of the flare $\hat{T}_o$ (MJD-54,900) for the most significant flare during the 59-string data taking period found at each location of the grid where the likelihood is calculated. The black curve is the Galactic plane.

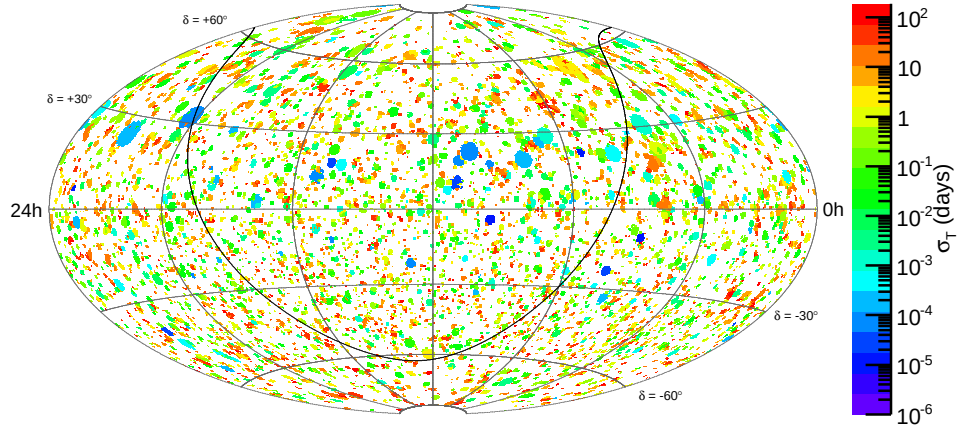


Figure 10.8: The map in equatorial coordinates of the best fit width $\hat{\sigma}_T$, in days, of most significant flare during the 59-string data taking period at a given location found at each location of the grid where the likelihood is calculated in the search. The black curve is the Galactic plane.

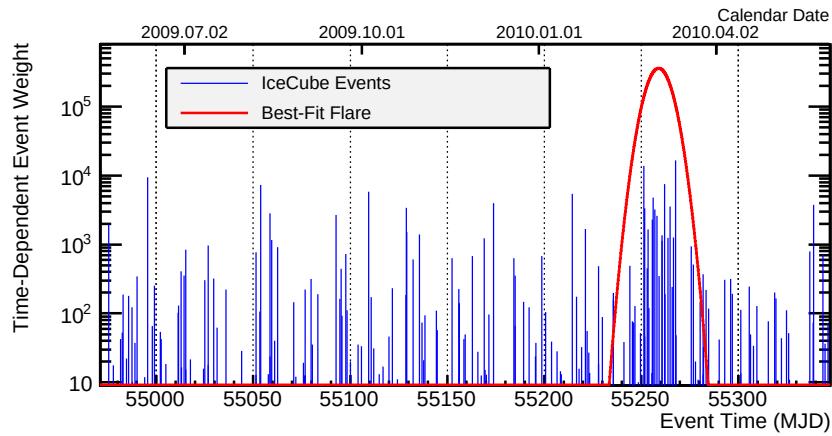


Figure 10.9: The event weights tested from the most significant flare location from the 59-string data at $(\text{RA}=21.35^\circ, \delta=-0.25^\circ)$ and the best-fit spectral index of $E^{-3.9}$. The events are somewhat low-energy and roughly 1° from the hottest location, only particularly standing out by virtue of their time structure. The best-fit Gaussian flare is shown in red.

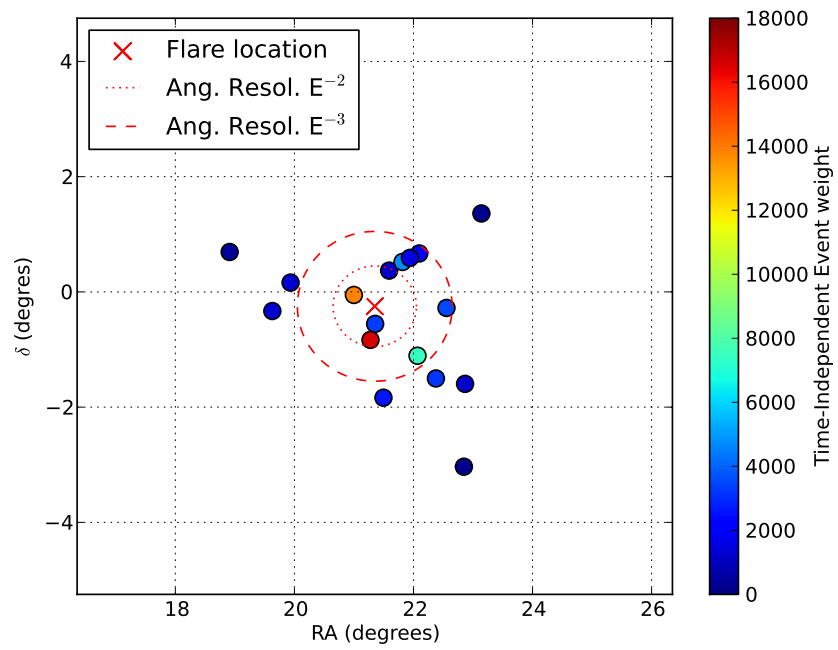


Figure 10.10: The 19 most significant events seen from the 59-string most significant flare location with their sky coordinates and time-independent event weights. The flare location is marked with an X, along with the median angular resolution for two different signal spectra.

Chapter 11

Triggered Searches for Flares of Neutrino Point Sources

This chapter presents the introduction of astronomical information as an a priori motivation for time-dependent neutrino point source searches. The assumption is that in objects such as blazars, emission in neutrinos and high energy photons will be correlated, and when there is an enhancement in GeV-TeV photons there will also be an enhancement for neutrinos detectable with IceCube.

Two methods are described, depending on the temporal coverage of the source in a particular waveband. For both cases the method is described and results for catalogues of flaring sources are presented. The first method is used for sources with flares in wavebands where photon data is comprehensive, and at any point in time the source can be said to be in a high or low state; a second method is used for sources or bands with sporadic coverage and the source is mostly uncovered in the waveband, the MWL data is used to make an a priori cut in time near a flare. For flares lasting on the order of one day, MWL information can produce a discovery with about one third fewer signal events with respect to untriggered searches ([49]).

11.1 Triggered Searches Based on Continuous Photon Observations

This section describes searches in which the photon observations are essentially continuous, the flux measurements provided by the Fermi Gamma-Ray Space Telescope are used. The source selection was motivated by Fermi alerts, which are only issued for sources seen at a flux level greater than $1.5 - 2 \times 10^{-6}$ photons $\text{s}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$. The selected sources are listed in Table 11.1. These sources include 23 objects seen to be flaring in either the 40-string or 59-string datasets, or both.

They are mainly FSRQs, with several BL Lac objects. The lightcurves were produced for this work using the Fermi Public Release data, using the diffuse class event selection. For each source the Fermi Science Tools v9r15p2 package is used to select photons from within 2° of each source and calculate the total exposure. Photon events with zenith angles greater than 105° were excluded to avoid contamination due to the Earth's albedo. Time bins of one day width were then used to calculate an average flux. There are two modifications to this procedure: the blazar 3C 454.3 was seen in a massive outburst before official science operation [51], for this source the published lightcurve is used. Also, the source PKS 1502+106 was noted to have a large outburst immediately before official science operations began, extending several days after the public information begins [20, 21]. PKS 1502+106 is taken to be flaring since the time of the alert at a fixed flux level. This flaring activity is a possible orphan flare in hard X-rays, since the SWIFT-BAT did not observe any evident flare in the 15-50 keV band while SWIFT XRT and UVOT observed a flare in soft X-rays and optical.

11.1.1 Method and Expected Performance

A Maximum Likelihood Block (MLB) algorithm [52, 53] is used to denoise the lightcurves by iterating over the data points to select periods from the lightcurves which are consistent with constant flux once statistical errors are taken into account. The MLB algorithm compares the likelihood that a set of points between x_i and x_f is compatible at a confidence level with the change of state between the points x_c and x_{c+1} contained in the interval. The confidence level requires that for a given set of data points from x_i to x_f that the set of points from x_i and x_c and x_{c+1} to x_f be:

$$\log \frac{\mathcal{L}(x_i, x_c) \mathcal{L}(x_{c+1}, x_f)}{\mathcal{L}(x_i, x_f)} > \log C, \quad (11.1)$$

where $\mathcal{L}(x_a, x_b)$ represents the likelihood that a set of points from x_a to x_b represents a constant flux state from the source between the points, and C is the confidence level. The level of the flux state is determined using the error-weighted mean of the points tested. The method iterates over the different possible changepoints x_c , taking the most likely changepoint for the entire dataset and iterating over each subsection of the data. We tested values of $\log C$ from 1 to 1000, for values

below 5, the typical denoised lightcurve typically follow each data point, for values from 9 to 100 very similar results for the denoised lightcurves were found. The final value of $\log C$ used in the analysis was 20.

With the hypothesis that the intensity of the neutrino emission follows the intensity of the photon lightcurve, the signal time PDF is simply the normalized lightcurve itself. A slightly modified hypothesis is that the neutrino emission follows the lightcurve, but only when the photon flux goes above a certain threshold F_{th} . In this case, the value of F_{th} can be used as a free parameter in the analysis, finding the value of the threshold which maximizes the significance of the data. This method also avoids any penalty from making an incorrect a priori choice on a flaring threshold. $F(t_i)$ is defined as the value of the denoised lightcurve at t_i and the fit parameter F_{th} is the flux threshold below which no neutrino emission is assumed (i.e. $S_i^{\text{time}}=0$ if $F(t_i) \leq F_{\text{th}}$). In the case of $F(t_i) \geq F_{\text{th}}$, the probability of neutrino emission is assumed to be proportional to the flux level above that threshold:

$$S_i^{\text{time}} = \frac{F(t_i) - F_{\text{th}}}{N_f}; \quad (11.2)$$

where the normalization factor N_f is the integral of the denoised lightcurve above the threshold. This time-dependent pdf is then used as before in Equation 8.4. This method is illustrated in Figure 11.1.

The effect of adding this additional degree of freedom in the fit can be seen in Figure 11.2. The effect is small compared to the penalty of fixing the threshold to an incorrect value. The effect of allowing an unknown lag up to ± 50 days between the photon and neutrino emissions was also tested, and was found to give a marked increase in the number of events required for discovery. Hence, we used the method allowing only up to a ± 0.5 day lag that accounts for the 1 day binning of lightcurves.

11.1.2 Results

The results from all sources using the combined 40 and 59-string data are listed in Table 11.1. The most significant source is PKS 1622-253, which has a pre-trial p -value of 8%. The method finds two events during the strongest flare during April 2010. We find a p -value which is more

significant from any of the sources in 53% of scrambled samples, which is compatible with background fluctuations. The analysis was first performed using only the 40-string data, the most significant source is PKS 1502+106, with a pre-trial p -value of 5%, which occurred in 29% of scrambled trials.

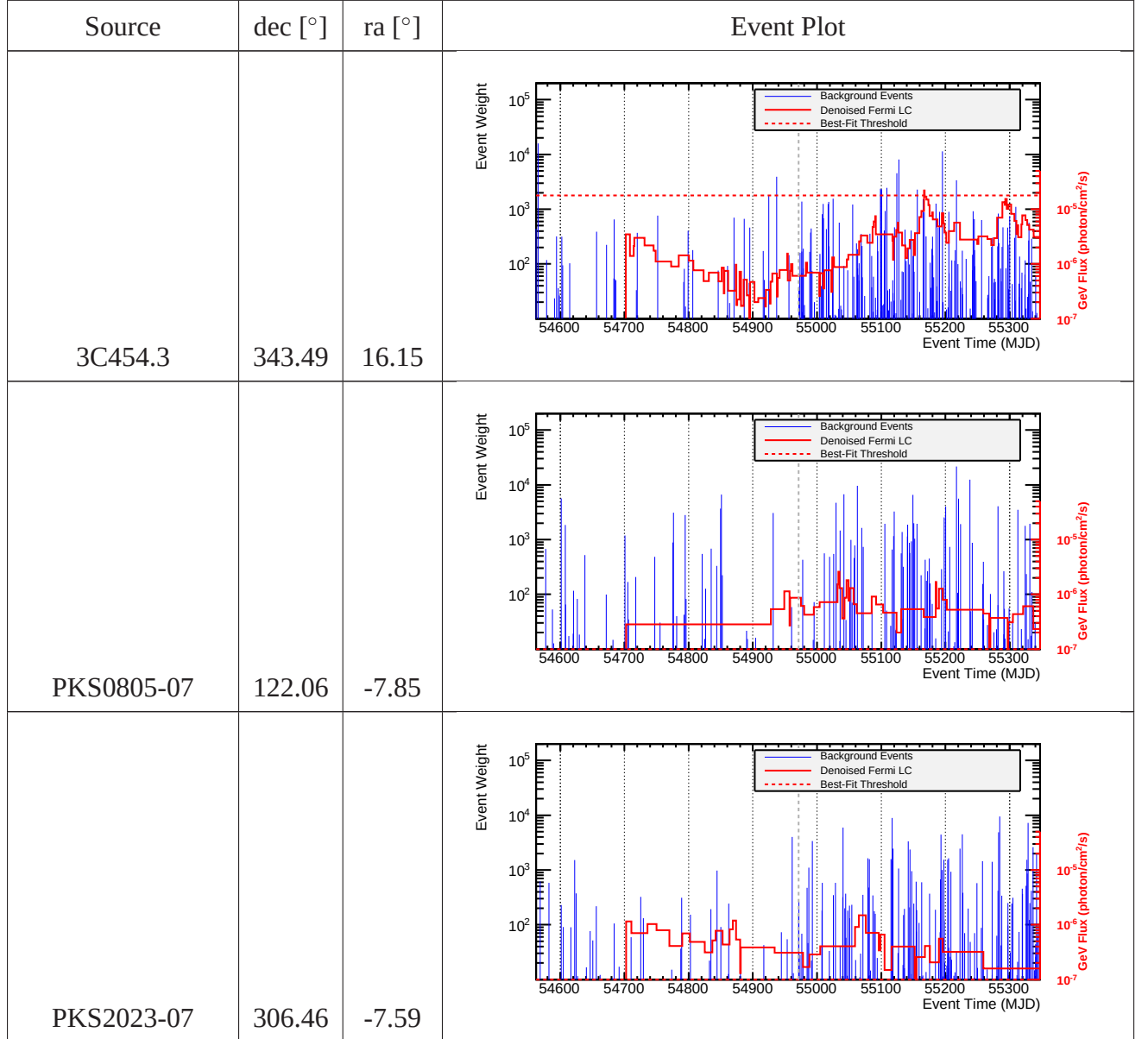


Table 11.1 – continued from previous page

Source	dec [°]	ra [°]	Event Plot
PKS0244-47	41.5	-46.84	
BLLac	330.68	42.28	
V407Cyg	315.54	45.77	

Table 11.1 – continued from previous page

Source	dec [°]	ra [°]	Event Plot
PKS1622-253	246.44	-25.44	Event Plot for PKS1622-253. The plot shows Event Weight (blue line) and GeV Flux (red line) versus Event Time (MJD). The Event Weight ranges from 10^2 to 10^5, and the GeV Flux ranges from 10^{-7} to 10^4. A dashed red line indicates the Best-Fit Threshold.
PKS1424-418	216.98	-42.09	Event Plot for PKS1424-418. The plot shows Event Weight (blue line) and GeV Flux (red line) versus Event Time (MJD). The Event Weight ranges from 10^2 to 10^5, and the GeV Flux ranges from 10^{-4} to 10^4. A dashed red line indicates the Best-Fit Threshold.
J0109+6134	17.25	61.34	Event Plot for J0109+6134. The plot shows Event Weight (blue line) and GeV Flux (red line) versus Event Time (MJD). The Event Weight ranges from 10^2 to 10^5, and the GeV Flux ranges from 10^{-4} to 10^4. A dashed red line indicates the Best-Fit Threshold.

Table 11.1 – continued from previous page

Source	dec [°]	ra [°]	Event Plot
GB6 B1310+4844	198.18	48.47	
B31343+451	206.39	44.88	
S51803+784	270.19	78.47	

Table 11.1 – continued from previous page

Source	dec [°]	ra [°]	Event Plot
PKS1222P216	186.23	21.38	
3C273	187.28	2.05	
OJ287	133.70	20.11	

Table 11.1 – continued from previous page

Source	dec [°]	ra [°]	Event Plot
4C38.41	248.81	38.13	
PKS1510-089	228.21	-9.10	
PKS1502+106	226.10	10.49	

Table 11.1 – continued from previous page

Source	dec [°]	ra [°]	Event Plot
PKS1454-354	224.36	-35.65	
3C279	194.05	-5.79	
3C66A	35.67	43.04	

Table 11.1 – continued from previous page

Source	dec [°]	ra [°]	Event Plot
PKS0454-234	74.26	-23.41	
J1239+044	189.90	4.70	

Table 11.1: The sources and locations of the 23 objects tested with the continuous lightcurve search. Also plotted are the denoised light curves with the time-independent event weights at the source location. If a non-zero best-fit threshold on the lightcurve is found, that is also plotted.

11.2 Triggered Searches Based on Intermittent Photon Observations

Ground based observatories such as HESS, MAGIC, and VERITAS cannot monitor sources continuously, because they can only operate when there is good nighttime visibility. Their observations are nevertheless extremely important for neutrino searches, because they detect photons at TeV energies that are potentially better correlated to neutrinos of the energies to which IceCube is sensitive. While these observatories can issue alerts for source activity, they often cannot constrain

the beginning or end of the activity to within a few days. For alerts such as these, the present analysis uses a simple time cut, taking a window for events one day before and after the identified flare. The catalogue corresponding to the 40-string data includes a recent suspect “orphan flare” at the level of 10 Crab from Mrk 421 observed by VERITAS and MAGIC [22, 23].

11.2.1 Method and Expected Performance

The nature of this analysis is a simple cut in time between $t_{\min}$ and $t_{\max}$, which can be expressed as:

$$S_i^{\text{time}} = \frac{H(t_{\max} - t_i) \times H(t_i - t_{\min})}{t_{\max} - t_{\min}} \quad (11.3)$$

where t_i is the arrival time of the event, $t_{\max}$ and $t_{\min}$ are the upper and lower bounds of the time window defining the flare, and H is the Heavyside step function. This time-dependent signal pdf is then used in Equation 8.4. In this analysis, the signal population size n_s and spectrum index γ are the only fit parameters.

11.2.2 Results

Of the six sources tested with the 40-string data (Table 11.2), five showed no excess of events in the vicinity of the sources during the selected time periods. The final post-trial p -value for the 40 string analysis combined these flares and 11 sources seen in a heightened state with the Fermi LAT, and is 29%.

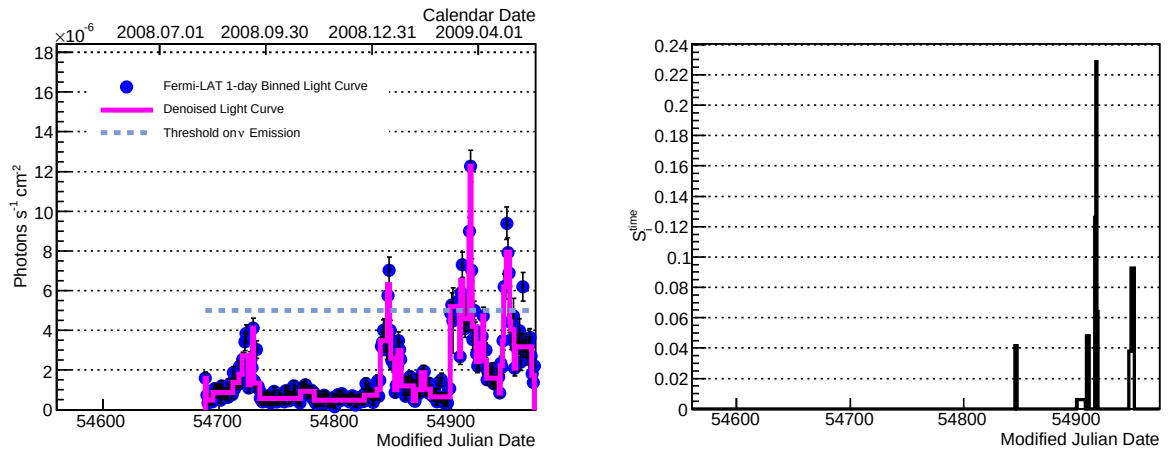


Figure 11.1: (Left) An example of the one-day binned Fermi lightcurve (blue points, with statistical errors) and denoised lightcurve (pink solid line) for the blazar PKS 1510-089 during the 40-string data taking period. The dashed line is an example fit threshold. The lightcurve begins here on August 10, 2008 (MJD 54688), when Fermi science operations began, while the time axis shows the entire 40-string data taking period. (Right) The time pdf used in the neutrino signal hypothesis corresponding to the example photon threshold shown in the left graph (5×10^{-6} photons $s^{-1} cm^{-2}$).

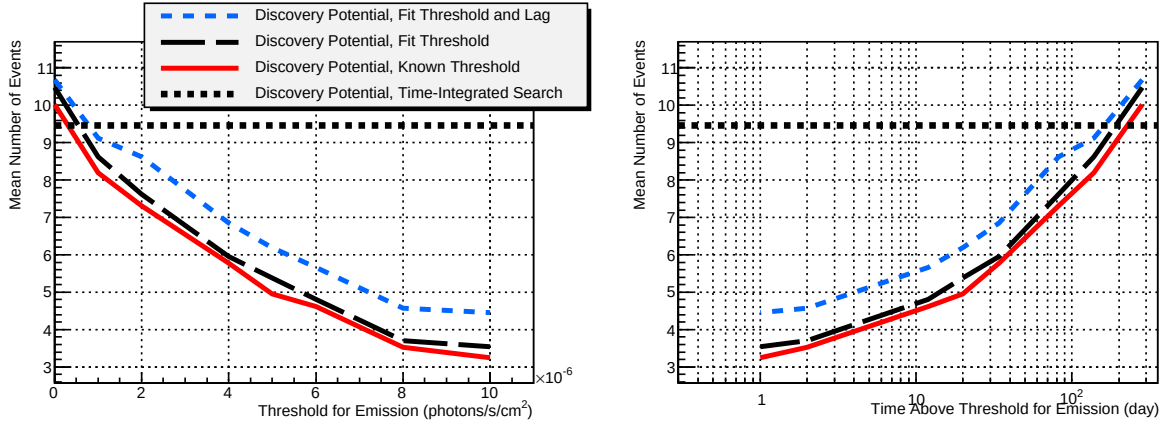


Figure 11.2: The plot of the 5σ 50% discovery potential for the source PKS 1510-089 (the corresponding lightcurve is shown in Figure 11.1), as a function of the true flux threshold for neutrino emission (left) and as a function of the duration the lightcurve spends above the threshold (right). The discovery potential curves are plotted for the time-integrated case (black short dashed line), and from bottom to top for the case where the threshold is fixed to the true threshold (solid red line), the case where the threshold is a free parameter (black long dashed line, used in this analysis) and the case where there is an unknown lag (up to ± 50 days) between GeV and neutrino emission (blue dashed line).

Source	dec [°]	ra [°]	Alert Ref.	Time Window (MJD)	$\log E_{\min}$ (GeV)	$\log E_{\max}$ (GeV)	p -value (pre-trial)	Fluence Limit (GeV/cm ²)
Markarian 421	38.2	166.1	[54]	54586-54592	3.3	5.8	—	1.51
			[23]	54621-54631				
W Comae	28.2	185.4	[55]	54623-54627	3.4	6.0	—	1.32
S5 0716+714	71.3	110.5	[56]	54572-54582	3.0	5.3	0.34	3.26
SGR 0501+4516	45.3	75.3	[57]	54700-54706	3.2	5.7	—	1.72
1ES 1218+304	30.2	185.3	[58]	54859-54864	3.4	6.0	—	1.43
Markarian 501	39.8	253.5	[54]	54951-54953	3.3	5.8	—	1.78

Table 11.2: Flare list seen with occasional coverage during the 40-string data-taking. References are for the alert which prompted the selection. The p -value is calculated only when $\hat{n}_s$ is greater than zero. The flare windows for Markarian 421 were added together, only one p -value and upper limit for both periods is calculated.

Chapter 12

Periodic Emission Search

This chapter outlines a search for neutrinos emitted by binary systems in the galaxy which are thought to be particle accelerators. These binary systems typically contain a large OB or Wolf-Rayet star and a compact object such as a neutron star or black hole. Gas from the star is gravitationally pulled off by the compact object, forming an accretion disk. The result is an object which is a diminutive version of an active galaxy, objects which are seen to emit jets of matter are termed “micro-quasars.” We present the results of the search using the 40 string data, and comparisons to emission models for the binary objects tested.

The binary system LS I +61° 303 has been observed to have a periodic modulation of the photon emission in the TeV and GeV γ bands [59, 60], this search is extended to other microquasars and binary systems. The modulation in the LS I +61° 303 emission is interpreted as an indication of the absorption of γ -rays in the system depending on the relative position of the observer and the accelerator. Also included in the catalogue are sources which have not been observed in TeV γ -rays, but exhibit modulation in lower energy bands and have orbital periods obtained from optical observations. Photons from the jet of the compact object can be absorbed in the massive star companion when it is between the compact object and the Earth (superior conjunction), while neutrinos may be produced close to the superior conjunction or when the jet skims the edge of the massive star. It is assumed that the neutrino emission period is the same as for photons, but in this search the phase is left as a free parameter in the method, to be sensitive to possible shifts in phase between neutrinos and photons.

12.1 Method and Expected Performance

This search obtains the best fit values for the signal fraction, spectral index, and the peak phase and duration of neutrino emission by maximizing the likelihood ratio. As a signal hypothesis, a Gaussian emission repeating each orbit is assumed. Hence the time-dependent pdf is:

$$S_i^{\text{time}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_T} e^{-\frac{|\varphi_i - \varphi_0|^2}{2\sigma_T^2}}, \quad (12.1)$$

where σ_T is the width of the Gaussian, φ_i is the phase of the event and φ_0 is the phase of the peak of the emission. The fit parameters are σ_T and φ_0 .

Comparing to the unbinned time-integrated analysis, the search for periodicity in neutrino emission results in a better discovery potential if the duration of the emission σ_T is less than about 20% of the total period (see Figure 12.1). As the time-dependent search adds two additional degrees of freedom to the analysis, the discovery potential is roughly 10% worse if neutrinos are actually emitted at a steady rate or over a large fraction of the period. If the emission has a σ_T of 1/50 of the period the method requires half as many events for discovery.

12.2 Results

Seven predefined sources are tested, listed in Table 12.1, using the 40-string event selection, and found that the most significant deviation is for Cygnus X-3. The pretrial p-value of this source is 0.00186, where an equivalent best p-value from any of the sources is found in 1.8% of scrambled samples, a result which is compatible with random fluctuations. The peak emission is found to be at phase $\hat{\varphi}_0 = 0.8$, and $\hat{\sigma}_T = 0.02$. The best-fit number of source events is $\hat{n}_s = 4.28$ and spectrum is soft at $\hat{\gamma}_s = 3.75$. In a one-degree bin centered on Cygnus X-3, 4 events are observed with a mean background of 1.9 events.

Fig. 12.2 compares the 40-string time-integrated limits to the model predictions in [4] for each source. The model predicts the neutrino flux based on the radiative luminosity associated to the jet from radio observations in quiescent states and during flares. The duration of flares is specified in Tab. 4 in the paper. The figure shows limits for both the persistent case and the time dependent one for a time window similar to the observed flare but not coincident to it (since IceCube was not

Source	Period (days)	p-value (pretrial)	T_0 (MJD)	$\hat{\varphi}_o$ (phase)	$\hat{\sigma}_T$ (period ⁻¹)	Reference	Time-Dependent UL (TeV ⁻¹ cm ⁻² s ⁻¹)	Time-Integrated UL (TeV ⁻¹ cm ⁻² s ⁻¹)
Cygnus X-3	0.199679	0.00186	53760.583997	0.819	0.02	[61]	$3.01 \cdot 10^{-11}$	$6.64 \cdot 10^{-12}$
Cygnus X-1	5.5929	0.080	41874.707	0.031	0.02	[62]	$4.08 \cdot 10^{-12}$	$7.41 \cdot 10^{-12}$
LS I +61° 303	26.498	0.23	43366.775	0.916	0.02	[63]	$1.82 \cdot 10^{-11}$	$9.78 \cdot 10^{-12}$
GRS 1915+105	30.8	0.43	53945.7	0.502	0.045	[64]	$2.57 \cdot 10^{-12}$	$3.23 \cdot 10^{-12}$
SS 433	13.0821	0.35	50023.62	0.779	0.02	[65]	$3.15 \cdot 10^{-12}$	$3.03 \cdot 10^{-12}$
XTE J1118+480	0.169934	0.28	52287.9929	0.985	0.132	[66]	$7.29 \cdot 10^{-12}$	$8.18 \cdot 10^{-12}$
GRO J0422+32	0.21214	0.037	50274.4156	0.831	0.02	[67]	$1.46 \cdot 10^{-11}$	$6.89 \cdot 10^{-12}$

Table 12.1: System name, period, pre-trial p-value, and the time of zero phase for the binary systems tested. $\hat{\sigma}_T$ is the fraction of the standard deviation of the best-fit Gaussian of the period of the binary system. Also included is the reference used for the orbital information. In the last columns we give the upper limits of Feldman-Cousins [1] 90% confidence intervals as the normalization on an E⁻² spectrum flux for the time-dependent and integrated hypotheses for the 40 strings data. The upper limits also incorporate a 16% systematic uncertainty.

active at the time of radio observations noted in the paper). For the persistent case of SS 433 the model predicts more than 100 events during the 40-string data taking period, which is excluded at greater than 99% confidence level. It should be considered that the authors indicate in their paper that the model may be biased by the fact that the source is surrounded by the diffuse nebula W50 that can affect the estimate of the radio emission used in the model for SS 433.

The main parameters on which the neutrino flux depends in this model are: the fraction of jet kinetic energy converted to internal energy of electrons and magnetic field, η_e ; the fraction of the jet luminosity carried by accelerated protons, η_p ; and the fraction of energy in pions f_π , which strongly depends on the maximum energy to which protons can be accelerated. The case of a 3-day burst of Cygnus X-3 is used as an example of how the parameters are constrained by the IceCube results. We assume equipartition between the magnetic fields and the electrons and the proton component ($\eta_p = \eta_e$) for setting a constraint on $f_\pi < 0.11$. If equipartition does not apply, it is assumed that $f_\pi = f_{\pi,peak}$ as given in Table 2 in the paper (for Cygnus X-3 $f_{\pi,peak} = 0.12$) and constrain η_p to be less than 92% of η_e . Deriving these limits it is assumed that the Lorentz factor of the jet is well known from radio measurements, but in many cases there is a large uncertainty on this parameter. Overall the constraints are roughly at the model predictions, but will be improved by the addition of more data.

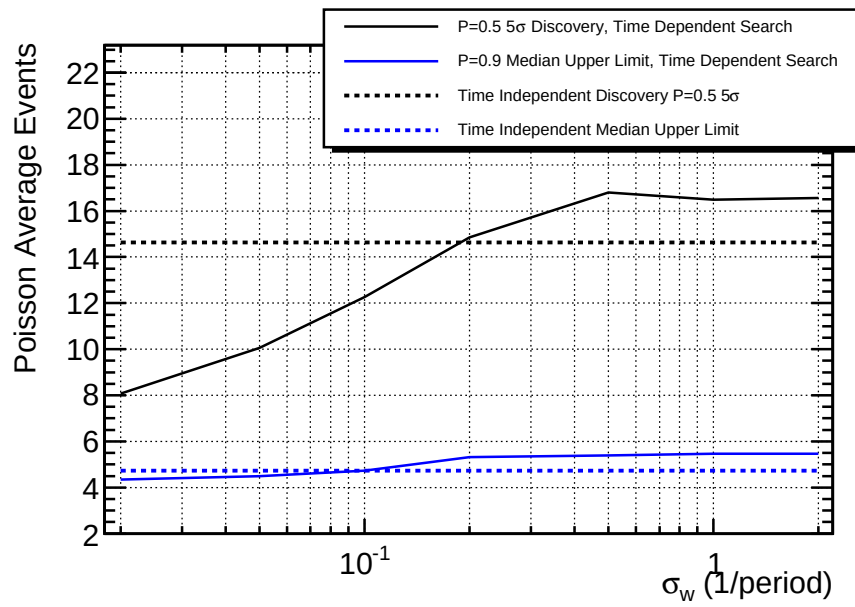


Figure 12.1: Discovery potentials (5σ in 50% trials, solid black lines in the plot) and the median sensitivity at 90% CL calculated with the Feldman-Cousins [1] prescription (solid and dashed blue lines) for the periodic search applied to the 40-string data. Also shown are the values for the time-integrated search [3] (dashed lines).

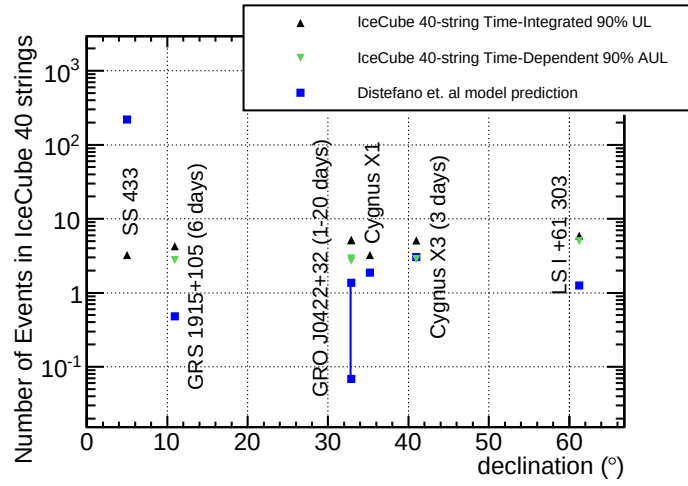


Figure 12.2: The time-integrated upper limit (UL) at 90% CL is compared to the expected number of events for model predictions according to [4] for specific sources for the 40 string configuration. The neutrino energy range used to calculate the total number of events is $10^8 - 5 \times 10^{14}$ eV, compatible to what assumed in the model. For non persistent but flaring sources, the parameters of the model were estimated for flares observed before IceCube construction. Hence the time-dependent upper limits are calculated averaging over a duration equal to the model flare during 40-string data taking (indicated as MUL in the legend). LS I +61° 303 is assumed to be a periodic flaring source in a high state during 26% of the orbit.

Chapter 13

Conclusions

still from flare paper In this paper we discuss four time-dependent searches: two are “untriggered” and scan over direction, energy and time to look for clusters of neutrino events; the others are “triggered” by multi-wavelength information. While the first two searches are generic and sensitive to flares not seen in photons, the others are more sensitive because of the reduced trial factor but concern specific catalogues of variable sources. Time-dependent searches can be more sensitive to short flares thanks to the reduction of the background of atmospheric muons and neutrinos over short time scales. The untriggered search for a predefined catalogue of variable sources shows a post-trial p -value of 95% and upper limits on the fluence are calculated (see Table ??). The all-sky scan over all directions finds that the most significant cluster of events is separated in time by 22 s and in space by 2° and has a p -value of 56%. The most significant observation of a flare from catalogues compiled using Fermi-LAT and IACT alerts during the 40-string configuration data taking is PKS 1502+106, with a p -value of 29% after trials. The most significant flare during the 22-string configuration is S5 0716+71 with a p -value of 14% after trials. All these results are compatible with a fluctuation of the background.

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