(HIGH-ENERGY) ASTROPHYSICAL NEUTRINOS Lecture 3

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JINR-ISU Baikal Summer School 2021

SOME RECOMMENDED BIBLIOGRAPHY (IN CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER)

T. K. Gaisser, *Cosmic rays and particle physics*, 1990, Cambridge University Press V. S. Berezinskiĭ et al., *Astrophysics of cosmic rays*, 1990, Elsevier M. Kachelrieß, Lecture notes on high-energy cosmic rays, arXiv:0801:4376 [astro-ph] J. K. Becker, High-energy neutrinos in the context of multimessenger astrophysics, Phys. Rept. 458:173, 2008 M. S. Longair, *High energy astrophysics*, 2011, Cambridge University Press L. A. Anchordoqui et al., Cosmic neutrino Pevatrons: a brand new pathway to astronomy, astrophysics, and particle physics, JHEAp 1:1, 2014

M. Ahlers and F. Halzen, *IceCube: neutrinos and multimessenger astronomy*, Prog. Theor. Exp. Phys. 12A105, 2017

M. Spurio, Probes of multimessenger astrophysics, 2018, Springer

PLAN OF LECTURES

I Historical remarks and general comments from a multi-messenger perspective

II Flavor and multi-messenger relations

III

Cosmic acceleration, energetics and sources Bonus: new physics searches with HE astrophysical neutrinos

WHAT IF THE BACKGROUND RADIATION AT THE SOURCE IS VERY DENSE?

A photon background can be generated by synchrotron emission from accelerated electrons or it can be constituted by thermal photons

sources can be opaque to high-energy gamma rays, which would produce et pairs and start a cascade process

pair production $\gamma + \gamma_b \rightarrow e^+ + e^-$

 $s = 4 E_{\gamma} \varepsilon_{\gamma} \ge 4 m_e^2$ $E_{\gamma} \ge 260 \text{ GeV} \left(\frac{\text{eV}}{\varepsilon_{\gamma}}\right)$

These et pairs can upscatter background radiation via inverse Compton

inverse Compton

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$$e^{\pm} + \gamma_b \rightarrow e^{\pm} + \gamma$$

Thompson regime

$$E_e < m_e^2 / \varepsilon_\gamma \quad (E_\gamma < E_e)$$

 $E_{\gamma} \simeq \begin{cases} \frac{4}{3} \gamma^2 \varepsilon_{\gamma} \simeq 50 \text{ GeV} \left(\frac{\varepsilon_{\gamma}}{1 \text{ eV}}\right) \left(\frac{E_e}{100 \text{ GeV}}\right)^2 & ;\\ \frac{E_e}{2} \end{cases}$; $E_e > m_e^2 / \varepsilon_{\gamma}$

Klein-Nishina regime

Astrophysical neutrinos

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When propagating on diffuse photon backgrounds (from CMB to IR), high-energy gamma rays would produce e[±] pairs, which would produce further gamma rays via inverse Compton onto background photons, until energies fall below ~100 GeV



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CONSTRAINTS ON THE DIFFUSE NEUTRINO SPECTRUM FROM GAMMA-RAY CASCADES



K. Murase, M. Ahlers and B. C. Lackí, Phys. Rev. D88:121301, 2013

IFFIC INSTITUT DE FÍSICA CORPUSCULAR Sergio Palomares-Ruiz To avoid overshooting cascade limit

 $\phi_{\nu} \propto E_{\nu}^{-\beta}$; $\beta < 2.2$

CONSTRAINTS ON THE DIFFUSE NEUTRINO SPECTRUM FROM GAMMA-RAY CASCADES

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K. Murase, M. Ahlers and B. C. Lackí, Phys. Rev. D88:121301, 2013

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 $\phi_{\nu} \propto E_{\nu}^{-\beta}$; $\beta < 2.2$

Synchrotron Losses?



X.-C. Chang and X.-Y. Wang, Astrophys. J. 793:131, 2014

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Astrophysical neutrinos

CONSTRAINTS ON THE DIFFUSE NEUTRINO SPECTRUM FROM GAMMA-RAY CASCADES



K. Murase, M. Ahlers and B. C. Lackí, Phys. Rev. D88:121301, 2013

Cross-correlation of gamma-rays and galaxies: tighter limits



To avoid overshooting cascade limit

 $\phi_{\nu} \propto E_{\nu}^{-\beta}$; $\beta < 2.2$

Synchrotron Losses?



X.-C. Chang and X.-Y. Wang, Astrophys. J. 793:131, 2014

S. Ando, I. Tamborra and F. Zandanel, Phys. Rev. Lett. 115:221101, 2015

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Astrophysical neutrinos

Exercise:

What does the fact that the transition from the Thompson to the Klein-Nishina regime in inverse Compton is at $E_e = m_e^2 / \varepsilon_\gamma$ indicate?

Thus, correlations between neutrinos and photons of similar energies are not always obvious.

disk

Consider the following scenario: electrons and protons are BH accelerated at the source.



A. V. Plavín, Y. Y. Kovalev, Yu. A. Kovalev and V. Troítsky, Astrophys. J. 908:157, 2021

Electrons moving in the magnetic field of the source (or near the source) emit (radio) synchrotron radiation, which in turn, is upscattered via ICS to keV-MeV energies by the same electrons. This X-ray radiation can act as the target for photo-production of neutrinos (and photons). High-energy photons, however, have a very high optical depth in the radiation field, so they cannot escape and hence, cannot be correlated with the neutrino flux of similar energy. The cascade process would produce a gamma-ray flux at lower energies.

Correlation between the spectrum of accelerated primaries and secondary radiation

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Assuming protons and electrons have the same spectrum, synchrotron radiation from relativistic electrons

$$P(\omega) \propto F\left(x = \frac{\omega}{\omega_c}\right) \quad ; \quad \omega_c = \frac{3 e B}{2 m} \gamma^2$$



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$$\int_{0}^{p} \propto E_{p}^{-\alpha_{p}} \rightarrow P_{\text{tot}}(\omega) \propto \int P(\omega) E_{e}^{-\alpha_{p}} dE_{e} \propto \omega^{-(\alpha_{p}-1)/2} \int F(x) x^{(\alpha_{p}-3)/2} dx$$



dN

 dE_{r}

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Adding synchrotron losses

 $\frac{dN_{\gamma}}{dE_{\gamma}} \propto E_{\gamma}^{-(\alpha_p/2+1)}$



Correlation between the spectrum of accelerated primaries and secondary radiation

Assuming protons and electrons have the same spectrum, synchrotron radiation from relativistic electrons

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$$-\frac{dE}{dt} = P = \int \frac{dP(\omega)}{d\omega} d\omega = \frac{2}{3} \alpha E^2 \frac{e^2 B^2}{m^4}$$

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Adding synchrotron Losses



$$\tau_{\text{synch}} = \frac{E}{|dE/dt|} = \frac{3}{2 \,\alpha E} \left(\frac{m^2}{e B}\right)^2$$

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Exercise:

Can we observe PeV electrons from the center of the Milky Way?

Use energy losses via synchrotron radiation and consider the average galactic magnetic field.





Energy losses of protons and nuclei

Adiabatic Losses (redshift) $\frac{1}{E}\frac{dE}{dt} = -H(z) \rightarrow E = \frac{E_0}{1+z}$

Losses due to interactions with the background



D. Allard, Astropart. Phys. 39:33, 2012

 $\frac{1}{E} \frac{dE}{dt} = -\langle yn\sigma \rangle \quad y = \text{fraction of energy lost per interaction}$

Electron positron pair production:

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 $p + \gamma_b \rightarrow p + e^+ + e^-$

 $E_{p} \geq \frac{m_{e} m_{p}}{\varepsilon_{\gamma}} \simeq 2 \times 10^{18} \text{ eV} \left(\frac{2.725 \text{ K}}{\varepsilon_{\gamma}}\right) \qquad ; \qquad y \simeq \frac{2 m_{e}}{m_{p}} \simeq 10^{-3}$ Pion production (GZK suppression) $p + \gamma_{b} \rightarrow \Delta \rightarrow \begin{cases} \pi^{+} + n \\ \pi^{0} + p \end{cases}$ $E_{p} \geq \frac{m_{\Delta}^{2} - m_{p}^{2}}{4 \varepsilon_{\gamma}} \simeq 7 \times 10^{20} \text{ eV} \left(\frac{2.725 \text{ K}}{\varepsilon_{\gamma}}\right) \qquad ; \qquad y \simeq \frac{m_{\pi}}{m_{p}} \sim 0.14$ FIC

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NEUTRINOS FROM CR INTERACTIONS OFF THE EBL AND THE CMB: COSMOGENIC NEUTRINOS

V. Berezínsky and G. Zatsepín, Yad. Fíz. 11:200, 1970



+n $p + \gamma_{\text{CMB/EBL}} \rightarrow \Delta \rightarrow$ 10^{-13} sr⁻¹1 ANITA I - IV 10^{-14} IceCube Auger



P. Allíson et al. [ARA Collaboration], Phys. Rev. D102:043021, 2020

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JCAP 1010:013, 2010

sr-1]

[GeV 3N/dE

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REQUIREMENTS FOR A COSMIC ACCELERATOR

Geometry accelerated particles should be maintained within the object during the acceleration process Larmor radius < size of the accelerator

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = Z e \left(\overrightarrow{v} \times \overrightarrow{B} \right) \quad \rightarrow \quad R_L = \frac{E}{Z e v B} \quad \rightarrow \quad E_{\max} \simeq 3 \times 10^{18} \text{ eV} \left(Z v \right) \left(\frac{B}{\mu G} \right) \left(\frac{L}{\text{kpc}} \right)$$

Power

sources must convert enough energy into accelerated particles

Losses

the energy gained by a particle should be higher than the energy lost by radiation or interaction



GENERAL ENERGY ARGUMENTS Cosmic ray luminosity $\mathscr{L}_{CR} = 4 \pi \frac{\rho_{CR}(E_{\min}) V_{MWdisc}}{\tau_R}$ $\rho_{CR}(E_{\min}) = \int_{E_{\min}} \frac{dn_{CR}}{dE} E dE$ $\mathscr{L}_{tot}^{class} \simeq \frac{dN_{class}}{dt} \mathscr{L}_{class} T_{class}$

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From measurements of cosmic ray secondaries, we know the residence time of cosmic rays in the galaxy $\tau_{\rm R} \sim 10^7 \,{\rm yr}$ $\rho_{\rm CR}(E_{\rm min} \sim {\rm GeV}) \sim 1 \,{\rm eV/cm^3}$



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Power required by cosmic accelerators to replenish the galactic volume



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Power required by cosmic accelerators to replenish the galactic volume

 $\mathscr{L}_{CR} = 4 \pi \frac{\rho_{CR}(E_{\min}) V_{MWdisc}}{\tau_R} \sim 3 \times 10^{40} \text{ erg/s}$

Let us consider the case of supernova remnants



99% of the energy is in the form of (MeV) neutrinos and only $\eta=1\%$ is in the form of kinetic energy (shock wave)

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The characteristic time, $T_{\rm SNR}$, corresponds to the time it takes the expanding shell to sweep through the ISM such that $\rho_{\rm ISM} = \rho_{\rm SNR}$ (i.e., when it collects as much mass as that ejected) After this time, the velocity of the shock wave decreases significantly, so this corresponds to the time the SNR is active.

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Taking 3 SN per century in the galaxy



 $\frac{1}{2}M_{\rm SN}v_u^2 \sim \eta K_{\rm G}$

Exercise:

What is (approximately) the current fraction of the volume of the disc of the Milky Way occupied by active SNRs?

Assume there are 3 SNs per century, a Milky Way disc with a radius of 15 kpc and a thickness of 300 pc, $M_{\rm SN} = 10 M_{\odot}$, and $n_{\rm ISM} = 1$ proton/cm³.

Recall that only 1% of the gravitational energy is converted into kinetic energy.



BUT HOW ARE CHARGED PARTICLES ACCELERATED TO VERY HIGH ENERGIES AT THE SOURCES?

One-shot acceleration

the particle escapes the accelerating region after the first iteration



Diffusive shock acceleration repeated scattering of charged particles on magnetic irregularities back and forth across a shock front



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Let us consider a strong shock wave propagating at a supersonic velocity V through stationary interstellar gas with density ρ_u , pressure p_u and temperature T_u (upstream). The density, pressure and temperature behind the shock (downstream) are ρ_d , p_d and T_d . downstream ρ_d, p_d, T_d

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v + 2V

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Rest frame of the shock front downstream upstream

Energy gain after a full cycle

 $E = E_0 \left(1 + \xi\right)^k$

Probability of remaining in the acceleration region

$$N = N_0 \left(1 - P_{\rm esc}\right)^k$$


Energy gain after a full cycle

 $E = \overline{E_0 \left(1 + \xi\right)^k}$

Probability of remaining in the acceleration region

$$N = N_0 (1 - P_{\rm esc})^k$$

Number of cycles needed to reach E

$$k = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{E}{E_0}\right)}{\ln\left(1+\xi\right)}$$



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Number of particles accelerated to >E

$$N(>E) \propto \sum_{m=k}^{\infty} (1 - P_{esc})^m = (1 - P_{esc})^k \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (1 - P_{esc})^m = \frac{(1 - P_{esc})^k}{P_{esc}}$$



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$$N(>E) \propto \frac{1}{P_{\rm esc}} \left(1 - P_{\rm esc}\right)^{\frac{\ln(E/E_0)}{\ln(1+\xi)}}$$

 $a^{\ln b} = b^{\ln a}$

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$$N(>E) \propto \frac{1}{P_{\rm esc}} \left(1 - P_{\rm esc}\right)^{\frac{\ln(E/E_0)}{\ln(1+\xi)}} \qquad N(>E) \propto \left(\frac{E}{E_0}\right)^{-\beta} \qquad \beta \equiv \frac{P_{\rm esc}}{\xi}$$
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Energy gain after one full cycle

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from upstream to downstream $E_d = \gamma_L E_0 \left(1 + (v_u - v_d) \cos \theta_{ud}\right)$



Energy gain after one full cycle

from upstream to downstream

from downstream to upstream

$$E_d = \gamma_L E_0 \left(1 + (v_u - v_d) \cos \theta_{ud} \right)$$

$$E_u = \gamma_L E_d \left(1 - (v_u - v_d) \cos \theta_{du} \right)$$

Energy gain after one full cycle

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from downstream to upstream

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$$\xi \equiv \left\langle \frac{E_u - E_0}{E_0} \right\rangle = \int_0^1 d\cos\theta_{ud} P(\cos\theta_{ud}) \int_{-1}^0 d\cos\theta_{du} P(\cos\theta_{du}) \left(\frac{E_u - E_0}{E_0}\right) - 1$$

Energy gain after one full cycle

from upstream to downstream

from downstream to upstream

m
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$$\xi = \left[\int_0^1 d\cos\theta_{ud} P(\cos\theta_{ud}) \gamma_L \left(1 + (v_u - v_d) \cos_{ud}\right) \int_{-1}^0 d\cos\theta_{du} P(\cos\theta_{du}) \gamma_L \left(1 - (v_u - v_d) \cos_{du}\right) \right] - 1$$

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from upstream to downstream

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Projection of an isotropic flux onto a plane

 $P(\cos \theta_{ud}) = 2\cos \theta_{ud} \qquad P(\cos \theta_{du}) = -2\cos \theta_{du}$



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Projection of an isotropic flux onto a plane $P(\cos \theta_{ud}) = 2\cos \theta_{ud} \qquad P(\cos \theta_{du}) = -2\cos \theta_{du}$

$$\xi = \gamma_L^2 \left(1 + \frac{2}{3} (v_u - v_d) \right)^2 - 1 \simeq \frac{4}{3} (v_u - v_d)$$







Escape probability

Isotropic flux through a plane

$$\int_{0}^{1} d\cos\theta \int_{0}^{2\pi} d\phi \frac{n}{4\pi} \cos\theta = \frac{n}{4}$$

Escape probability

Isotropic flux through a plane

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Drift rate downstream away from the shock

 nv_d



Escape probability

Isotropic flux through a plane

$$\int_0^1 d\cos\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \frac{n}{4\pi} \cos\theta = \frac{n}{4}$$

Drift rate downstream away from the shock NV_d

Probability of escape from the acceleration region





Differential spectrum of particles

 $\frac{dN}{dE} \propto \left(\frac{E}{E_0}\right)^p$ $N(>E) \propto \left(\frac{E}{E_0}\right)^p$



Differential spectrum of particles

 $N(>E) \propto \left(\frac{E}{E_0}\right)^{-p}$





Differential spectrum of particles

 $N(>E) \propto \left(\frac{E}{E_0}\right)^{-p}$



$$\beta \equiv \frac{P_{\text{esc}}}{\xi} = \frac{4 v_d}{\frac{4}{3} (v_u - v_d)} = \frac{3}{\frac{4}{3} (v_u - v_d)}$$

Euler equations

Mass conservation:

 $\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \overrightarrow{\nabla} \left(\rho \overrightarrow{v} \right) = 0$

Momentum conservation:

$$\frac{\partial \overrightarrow{v}}{\partial t} + \left(\overrightarrow{v} \cdot \overrightarrow{\nabla}\right) \overrightarrow{v} + \frac{\nabla p}{\rho} = \overrightarrow{f}$$

Energy conservation:

$$\rho \frac{\partial e}{\partial t} + \rho \overrightarrow{v} \overrightarrow{\nabla} e + p \overrightarrow{\nabla} \overrightarrow{v} = 0$$

Euler equations

Mass conservation:

 $\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \overrightarrow{\nabla} \left(\rho \overrightarrow{v} \right) = 0$

Momentum conservation:

$$\frac{\partial \overrightarrow{v}}{\partial t} + \left(\overrightarrow{v} \cdot \overrightarrow{\nabla}\right) \overrightarrow{v} + \frac{\nabla p}{\rho} = \overrightarrow{f}$$

Energy conservation:

$$\rho \frac{\partial e}{\partial t} + \rho \overrightarrow{v} \overrightarrow{\nabla} e + p \overrightarrow{\nabla} \overrightarrow{v} = 0$$

In steady state with no force:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\rho v) = 0 \qquad \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (p + \rho v^2) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\left(\rho e + \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 + p \right) v \right] = 0$$
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Euler equations

Mass conservation:

 $\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \overrightarrow{\nabla} \left(\rho \overrightarrow{v} \right) = 0$

Momentum conservation:

$$\frac{\partial \overrightarrow{v}}{\partial t} + \left(\overrightarrow{v} \cdot \overrightarrow{\nabla}\right) \overrightarrow{v} + \frac{\nabla p}{\rho} = \overrightarrow{f}$$

Energy conservation:

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$$\frac{\partial e}{\partial t} + \rho \overrightarrow{v} \overrightarrow{\nabla} e + p \overrightarrow{\nabla} \overrightarrow{v} = 0$$

$$Jump \text{ conditions}$$

In steady state with no force: $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\rho v) = 0 \qquad \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (p + \rho v^2) = 0$ $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\left(\rho e + \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 + p \right) v \right] = 0$

$$\rho_u v_u = \rho_d v_d$$

$$p_u + \rho_u v_u^2 = p_d + \rho_d v_d^2$$

$$\rho_u v_u \left(e_u + \frac{v_u^2}{2} + \frac{p_u}{\rho_u}\right) = \rho_d v_d \left(e_d + \frac{v_d^2}{2} + \frac{p_d}{\rho_d}\right)$$



Using (for an ideal gas) $p \propto \rho^{\gamma}$ $c_s^2 = \frac{\gamma p}{\rho}$ $\mathcal{M} = \frac{v}{c_s}$ $e = \frac{1}{\gamma - 1} \frac{p}{\rho}$

 $\gamma + 1$ V_u $\gamma - 1 + \frac{2}{\mathcal{M}_{\mu}}$ Vd



Using (for an ideal gas) $p \propto \rho^{\gamma}$ $c_s^2 = \frac{\gamma p}{\rho}$ $\mathcal{M} = \frac{v}{c_s}$ $e = \frac{1}{\gamma - 1} \frac{p}{\rho}$ $\frac{v_u}{v_d} = \frac{\gamma + 1}{\gamma - 1 + \frac{2}{\mathcal{M}_u}}$ For strong shocks and for a monoatomic gas $\mathcal{M}_u \gg 1$; $\gamma = \frac{5}{3} \rightarrow \frac{v_u}{v_d} \simeq 4$ Using (for an ideal gas) $p \propto \rho^{\gamma}$ $c_s^2 = \frac{\gamma p}{\rho}$ $\mathcal{M} = \frac{v}{c_s}$ $e = \frac{1}{\gamma - 1} \frac{p}{\rho}$ $v_u = \gamma + 1$ For strong shocks and for a monoatomic gas $v_d \quad \gamma - 1 + \frac{2}{\mathcal{M}_u}$ $\mathcal{M}_u \gg 1$; $\gamma = \frac{5}{3} \rightarrow \frac{v_u}{v_d} \simeq 4$

Differential spectrum of particles at the acceleration site $\frac{dN}{dE} \propto \left(\frac{E}{E_0}\right)^{-\beta-1}$



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Differential spectrum of particles at the acceleration site $\frac{dN}{dE} \propto \left(\frac{E}{E_0}\right)^{-\beta-1}$ $\beta = \frac{3}{v_u/v_d - 1} \simeq 1$ Using (for an ideal gas) $p \propto \rho^{\gamma}$ $c_s^2 = \frac{\gamma p}{\rho}$ $\mathcal{M} = \frac{v}{c_s}$ $e = \frac{1}{\gamma - 1} \frac{p}{\rho}$ $\frac{V_u}{v_d} = \frac{\gamma + 1}{\gamma - 1 + \frac{2}{\mathcal{M}_u}}$ For strong shocks and for a monoatomic gas $\mathcal{M}_u \gg 1$; $\gamma = \frac{5}{3} \rightarrow (\frac{v_u}{v_d} \approx 4)$

Differential spectrum of particles at the acceleration site

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Cosmic rays are confined within the disc of the galaxy and have certain (homogeneous) probability of escape

$$\frac{\partial n}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(D \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} \right) \simeq Q - \frac{n}{\lambda}$$

Cosmic rays are confined within the disc of the galaxy and have certain (homogeneous) probability of escape

For an average D:

 $\frac{\partial n}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(D \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} \right) \simeq Q - \frac{n}{\lambda}$ $D \frac{\partial^2 n}{\partial x^2} \to -\frac{n}{\tau_{\rm esc}}$

 $D \sim V^2 \tau_{\rm esc}$



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Cosmic rays are confined within the disc of the galaxy and have certain (homogeneous) probability of escape

 $\partial n \quad \partial \left(\begin{array}{c} \partial n \right) \quad n$

$$\overline{\partial t} = \overline{\partial x} \left(\frac{D}{\partial x} \right) = Q - \frac{1}{\lambda}$$
For an average D: $D \frac{\partial^2 n}{\partial x^2} \rightarrow -\frac{n}{\tau_{esc}}$ $D \sim V^2 \tau_{esc}$
In steady state: $\frac{n}{\tau_{esc}} \simeq Q - \frac{n}{\lambda}$ $n \simeq \frac{Q \tau_{esc}}{1 + \tau_{esc}/\lambda}$

In our galaxy $\tau_{\rm esc} \ll \lambda$, so if $\tau_{\rm esc} \propto E^{-\delta}$ $n \propto E^{-\beta - \delta}$

Exercise:

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Show that for acceleration in magnetic gas clouds, the energy gain is second order in the relative speed, V_{cloud} (2nd order Fermi acceleration).

Note that the probability of collision with the cloud, $P(\cos \theta_{ud})$, is proportional to the relative velocity between the cloud and the particle (which travels at a speed close to the speed of light) and the particle moves out of the cloud randomly, $P(\cos \theta_{du}) = \text{constant}$.

In this case, in the rest frame of the particles bath, $v_d = V_{cloud}$ and $v_u = 0$.
P. O. Lagage and C. J. Cesarsky, Astron. Astrophys. 125:249, 1983

L. O'C. Drury, Rep. Prog. Phys. 46:973, 1983

Acceleration rate:

 $\frac{dE}{dt} = \frac{\xi E}{T_{\text{cycle}}}$



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In steady state there is no net current: $\overrightarrow{J} = -D \overrightarrow{\nabla} n + \overrightarrow{V} n = 0$

The total number of particles per unit area (in the upstream region): $n(x) = n_0 e^{-x v_u/D_u}$

 $\int_{0}^{\infty} n(x) \, dx = n_0 \frac{D_u}{v_u}$



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Articles per
am region):
$$\int_{0}^{\infty} n(x) dx = n_{0} \frac{D_{u}}{v_{u}}$$

ock front crossings:
$$\frac{n_{0}}{4}$$
$$T_{upstream} = 4 \frac{D_{u}}{v_{u}}$$

Assume a density of particles released at position x_0 (downstream) $-v_d \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} = D_d \frac{\partial^2 n}{\partial x^2} + Q \,\delta(x - x_0)$

Assume a density of particles released at position
$$x_0$$
 (downstream)

$$-v_d \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} = D_d \frac{\partial^2 n}{\partial x^2} + Q \,\delta(x - x_0)$$

$$n(x) = \begin{cases} n(x_0) - \frac{Q}{v_d} \left(e^{-\frac{v_d}{D_d}(x - x_0)} - 1 \right) & x_0 \le x < 0 \\ n(x_0) & x \le x_0 \end{cases}$$

Assume a density of particles released at position x_0 (downstream) $-v_{d} \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} = D_{d} \frac{\partial^{2} n}{\partial x^{2}} + Q \,\delta(x - x_{0})$ $n(x) = \begin{cases} n(x_{0}) - \frac{Q}{v_{d}} \left(e^{-\frac{v_{d}}{D_{d}}(x - x_{0})} - 1 \right) & x_{0} \leq x < 0 \\ n(x_{0}) & x \leq x_{0} \end{cases}$ $lux \text{ to the shock front} \quad D_{d} \left. \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} \right|_{x=0} = Q \, e^{\frac{v_{d}}{D_{d}} x_{0}}$ Flux to the shock front

Assume a density of particles released at position x_0 (downstream) $-v_d \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} = D_d \frac{\partial^2 n}{\partial x^2} + Q \,\delta(x - x_0)$ $n(x) = \begin{cases} n(x_0) - \frac{Q}{v_d} \left(e^{-\frac{v_d}{D_d}(x - x_0)} - 1 \right) & x_0 \le x < 0\\ n(x_0) & x \le x_0 \end{cases}$ ux to the shock front $D_d \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} \bigg|_{x=0} = Q e^{\frac{v_d}{D_d}x_0}$ Hence, for a particle incent distance of the shore of Flux to the shock front Hence, for a particle inserted into the flow a distance x_0 downstream, the probability of diffusing back to the origin is $e^{\frac{v_d}{D}x_0}$



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The number of particles downstream which will return to the shock:

$$n \int_{-\infty}^{0} e^{\frac{v_d}{D_d}x_0} dx_0 = \frac{n v_d}{D_d}$$

Assume a density of particles released at position x_0 (downstream) $-v_{d} \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} = D_{d} \frac{\partial^{2} n}{\partial x^{2}} + Q \,\delta(x - x_{0})$ $n(x) = \begin{cases} n(x_{0}) - \frac{Q}{v_{d}} \left(e^{-\frac{v_{d}}{D_{d}}(x - x_{0})} - 1 \right) & x_{0} \leq x < 0 \\ n(x_{0}) & x \leq x_{0} \end{cases}$ $lux \text{ to the shock front} \quad D_{d} \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} \bigg|_{x=0} = Q \, e^{\frac{v_{d}}{D_{d}}x_{0}}$ Flux to the shock front Hence, for a particle inserted into the flow a distance x_0 Tock: $n \int_{-\infty}^{0} e^{\frac{v_d}{D_d}x_0} dx_0 = \frac{nv_d}{D_d}$ $T_{\text{downstream}} = 4 \frac{D_d}{v_d}$ downstream, the probability of diffusing back to the origin is $e^{\frac{v_d}{D}x_0}$ The number of particles downstream which will return to the shock:



$$T_{\text{cycle}} = T_{\text{upstream}} + T_{\text{downstream}} = 4 \left(\frac{D_u}{v_u} + \frac{D_d}{v_d} \right) \sim 20 \frac{D}{v_u}$$

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Integrating the acceleration rate, dE/dt

 $= \frac{3}{20} v_u Z e B \left(v_u T_{\rm SNR} \right)$ $E_{\rm max}$



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Integrating the acceleration rate, dE/dt

$$E_{\text{max}} = \frac{3}{20} v_u Z e B \left(v_u T_{\text{SNR}} \right)$$

For $M_{\rm SN} = 10 M_{\odot}$ and $n_{\rm ISM} = 1 \, {\rm proton/cm^3}$, computing the time $T_{\rm SNR}$ the SNR remains active and using $B \sim 4 \, \mu {\rm G}$ for the ISM magnetic field



Exercise:

Compare the maximum energy obtained for Bohm diffusion with the case of Kolmogorov diffusion, $D_{\text{Kolmogorov}} = D_{\text{Bohm}} \left(\frac{1}{2\pi LE}\right)^{2/3}$

Take L = 1 pc for the injection length for turbulence and typical values for SNRs in our galaxy.



ACCELERATION TO E > 100 TeV $E_{\rm max} \simeq 3 \times 10^{18} \text{ eV} (Zv) \left(\frac{B}{\mu \text{G}}\right) \left(\frac{L}{\text{kpc}}\right)$ The Hillas plot Supernova Remnants pulsars 13 ĀŪ Active Galactic Nuclei Mpc pc kpc 11 10⁸ Gamma Ray Bursts 9 StarBurst Galaxies $\overline{7}$ 10^{6} Tidal Disruption Even/ts/yr 5GN cores Pulsars... $\log(B/\mathrm{G})$ 3 +LHC 10^{4} GRB Gamma-Ray Supernova Supernova v only with chocked Type IIn CSM v (& y) 1 y&v 1327 jets -1hot spots Neutron -3SNR radio galaxies -5y&v Tidal Disruption **Active Galactic** v only 1 Galactic halo event (TDE) -7Nucleus (AGN) cluster -9 $\mathbf{2}$ 1214 1618 200 6 8 410Super $\log(R/\mathrm{km})$ massive BH

I. Bartos and M. Kowalskí, 2017

M. Kachelrieß and D. V. Semikoz, Prog. Part. Nucl. Phys. 109:103710, 2019

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Fast rotating neutron stars that emit a beam of electromagnetic radiation, typically along its magnetic axis. They have very stable and short periods, very high magnetic fields and emit in radio. The radiation can only be observed when the axis is pointing towards the Earth.





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Estimating the mili-second period by angular momentum conservation

$$MR^2 \,\omega = MR_{\rm NS}^2 \,\omega_{\rm NS}$$





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$$MR^2\omega = MR_{\rm NS}^2\omega_{\rm NS}$$

$$P_{\rm NS} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega_{\rm NS}} \sim 10^{-3} \, {\rm s} \, \left(\frac{R_{\odot}}{R}\right)^2 \, \left(\frac{R_{\rm NS}}{10 \, {\rm km}}\right)^2 \, \left(\frac{\omega_{\odot}}{\omega}\right)$$





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The gravitational collapse amplifies the magnetic field

$$\int \overrightarrow{B} \cdot d\overrightarrow{A} = \int \overrightarrow{B}_{\rm NS} \cdot d\overrightarrow{A}_{\rm NS}$$



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$$MR^{2} \omega = MR_{\rm NS}^{2} \omega_{\rm NS} \qquad P_{\rm NS} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega_{\rm NS}} \sim 10^{-3} \, {\rm s} \, \left(\frac{R_{\odot}}{R}\right)^{2} \left(\frac{R_{\rm NS}}{10 \, {\rm km}}\right)^{2} \left(\frac{\omega_{\odot}}{\omega}\right)^{2}$$
The gravitational collapse amplifies the magnetic field
$$\int \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \vec{B}_{\rm NS} \cdot d\vec{A}_{\rm NS} \qquad B_{\rm NS} = 10^{12} \, {\rm G} \, \left(\frac{B}{10^{3} \, {\rm G}}\right) \left(\frac{R}{R_{\odot}}\right)^{2} \left(\frac{10 \, {\rm km}}{R_{\rm NS}}\right)^{2}$$

Astrophysical neutrinos

Let us consider a particle that moves in a non-uniform and static magnetic field. Because of the motion of the particle, it feels a timevarying magnetic field, which induces an electric field (Faraday's law)

 $\overrightarrow{\nabla} \times \overrightarrow{E} = -\frac{\partial \overrightarrow{B}}{\partial t}$

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$$E_{\max} = -\int Z e \overrightarrow{E} d\overrightarrow{l} = -\int Z e \overrightarrow{\nabla} \times \overrightarrow{E} d\overrightarrow{S} = Z e \int \frac{\partial B}{\partial t} d\overrightarrow{S} = Z e 2\pi \int dB r \frac{dr}{dt} \sim Z e 2\pi B R v$$

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$$P \equiv \frac{2\pi R}{v} \rightarrow E_{\text{max}} \sim Z e B R \frac{R}{P} 4\pi^2$$

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For the Crab pulsar: $P \sim 0.03 \,\mathrm{s}, R \sim 10 \,\mathrm{km}, B \sim 10^{11} \,\mathrm{G}$

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 $E_{\rm max} \sim Z \times 10^{18} \,\mathrm{eV}$

Tidal disruption events: X-ray binaries

© M. Kornmesser / ESO

Neutron star or black hole with a companion star. Once the companion exceeds the Roche volume of the binary system, an accretion disc forms around the compact object.

Gamma Ray Bursts

E. Waxman and J. N. Bahcall, Phys. Rev. Lett. 78:2292, 1997

The most lumínous sources in the Universe: typical py accelerators

The photon spectrum (target for neutrino production) is constituted by synchrotron radiation of electrons in the internal shock fronts of the jet, with a break at ~250 keV, produced by cooling of electrons (or even by inverse Compton)

Assuming that the proton spectrum follows the electron spectrum of the source, the neutrino spectrum has two breaks: at ~0.1~1 PeV (due to the break in the photon spectrum) and at ~10~100 PeV (due to pion synchrotron losses)

No correlations found Small fraction in IceCube from High Luminosity GRBs

M. G. Aartsen et al. [IceCube Coll.], Astrophys. J. 843:112, 2017 Sergio Palomares-Ruiz 35

I. Tamborra and S. Ando, JCAP 1509:036, 2015 Astrophysical neutrinos

Active Galact Nuclei

Powered by accretion around SMBHs in the center of galaxies, AGNs are less luminous than GRBs, but radiate for longer. Synchrotron radiation by accelerated electrons produces a IR/X-rays peak, and ICS of synchrotron, the MeV-GeV peak.

Smaller Lorentz factor for the jets and much lower minimum energy of the background radiation (UV): higher neutrino energies
F. W. Stecker et al., Phys. Rev. Lett. 66:2697, 1991

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D. F. Torres and L. A. Anchordoquí, Rept. Prog. Phys. 67:1663, 2004 a Texa

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QSO

Sevfert 2

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Active Galact Nuclei

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M. G. Aartsen et al. [IceCube Coll.], Astrophys. J. 835:45, 2017

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Seyfert 1 QSO

Seyfert 2

StarBurst Galaxies

Galaxies with intense star formation rate and high gas density. Neutrinos are produced by hadronic (pp) interactions of protons off ISM.

Located at large distances (> Mpc): only a dozen (< 20 Mpc) have been observed in gamma-rays, but the larger activity at high redshift makes them a good candidates for the diffuse neutrino flux

A. Loeb and E. Waxman, JCAP 0605:003, 2006

Normalization of the neutrino spectrum using synchrotron radiation

$$E_e^2 \frac{dN_e}{dE_e} \sim 2\nu_{\text{synch}} L_{\nu,\text{synch}} \qquad E_p \frac{d\mathscr{L}_p}{dE_p} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{4} f E_e^2 \frac{dN_e}{dE_e}$$

$$E_\nu \frac{d\mathscr{L}_\nu}{dE_\nu} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{3}{4} f E_p \frac{d\mathscr{L}_p}{dE_p} = 6\nu_{\text{synch}} \mathscr{L}_{\nu,\text{synch}}$$

$$E_\nu^2 \frac{dN_\nu}{dE_\nu} = \frac{\zeta_z}{4\pi} \iota_{\text{H}} 6\nu_{\text{synch}} L_{\nu,\text{synch}} \sim 10^{-7} \left(\frac{E_\nu}{\text{GeV}}\right)^{2-\alpha_p} \text{GeV cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{sr}^{-1}$$

SEARCHING FOR NEW PHYSICS

Note: Not an exhaustive list of scenarios

Standard expectation: power-law spectrum

Affects arrival directions energy spectrum Acts during propagation DM-v interaction Acts at production DE-v interaction Lorentz+CPT violation Neutrino decay .Heavy relics Long-range interactions. DM annihilation Secret vv interactions Supersymmetry. DM decay • Sterile v Effective operators, Leptoquarks Boosted DM-NSI UOI1ISOdUUOD JONEDS Extra dimensions Superluminal v Monopoles South South Strattines Acts at detection

Standard expectation: isotropy (diffuse) directional (sources)

Standard expectation: equal flux of all flavors

Standard expectation: same arrival time as photons

FIGURES, M. DO

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Astrophysical neutrinos

NEUTRINO-DARK MATTER INTERACTIONS

New signal

Features on spectrum

NEUTRINO-DARK MATTER INTERACTIONS

New signal





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Boosted dark matter



Sergio Palomares-Ruiz INSTITUT DE FÍSICA C O R P U S C U L A R

A. Bhattacharya et al., JCAP 1705:002, 2017

Features on spectrum



NEUTRINO-DARK MATTER INTERACTIONS

New signal

Φ E

Heavy dark matter decays



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Boosted dark matter





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Features on spectrum

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THANKS FOR YOUR ATTENTION!



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PROBING PARTICLE PHYSICS with NEUTRINO TELESCOPES

edited by Carlos Pérez de los Heros



