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## Masterarbeit

vorgelegt von  
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## Search for neutrinos from flaring blazars - A time dependent point source analysis -

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## Abstract

Active galactic nuclei (AGN) are one of the most fascinating astrophysical objects in the universe. While they emit photons over the whole electromagnetic spectrum, AGN are also promising candidates to be the sources of the recently discovered high-energy extraterrestrial neutrino flux.

ANTARES (*Astronomy with a Neutrino Telescope and Abyss Environment RESearch*) is a large volume deep-sea water Cherenkov telescope in the Mediterranean Sea located 42 km from Toulon in France. It is optimized for the detection of muons from high-energetic neutrinos, which can be produced in the atmosphere or by extraterrestrial accelerators. As the ANTARES detector is optimized for up-going muons, this means that it is “looking downwards” through the Earth. Thus, neutrino telescopes located on the northern hemisphere are most sensitive to the observation of southern astronomical objects.

The TANAMI program (*Tracking Active Galactic Nuclei with Austral Milliarcsecond Interferometry*) is a multiwavelength program to monitor relativistic jets in active galactic nuclei of the southern sky. It consists of a radio Very Long Baseline Interferometry (VLBI) monitoring program, as well as a high-energy multiwavelength program. As theoretical models predict a correlation of  $\gamma$ -ray and neutrino emission generated in the same processes within an AGN jet, the performance of a multi-messenger analysis using  $\gamma$ -ray light-curves could result in a significant decrease of background in a neutrino point source analysis and thus increase the sensitivity of an analysis to a neutrino signal from AGN.

Within this thesis, I perform a time dependent neutrino point source search analysis using the ANTARES neutrino telescope. An unbinned maximum likelihood method is applied to maximize the probability of a neutrino detection from TANAMI sources. *Fermi*  $\gamma$ -ray light-curves are used for an effective neutrino background rejection, which results in a significant gain in sensitivity. The usage of different Monte Carlo generation methods leads to a precise description of environmental conditions in the deep sea.

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## Zusammenfassung

Aktive Galaxienkerne (AGN) sind bei weitem eines der interessantesten astronomischen Objekte im Universum. AGN emittieren Photonen innerhalb des gesamten elektromagnetischen Spektrums. Zudem sind sie vielversprechende Kandidaten zur Erklärung des kürzlich detektierten hochenergetischen Neutrino Flusses. Zur Detektion eines extra-terrestrischen Neutrino Signals werden große Neutrino Teleskope benötigt.

ANTARES (*Astronomy with a Neutrino Telescope and Abyss Environment RESearch*) ist ein Cherenkov Detektor, welcher sich im Mittelmeer vor der Küste von Toulon befindet. Dieser ist auf die Detektion hochenergetischer Myonen optimiert. Diese Teilchen können durch die Wechselwirkung hochenergetischer Neutrinos erzeugt werden. Da sich ANTARES auf der nördlichen Halbkugel befindet, ist es für Neutrinos des Südhimmels optimiert, da diese die Erde durchlaufen.

TANAMI (Tracking Active Galactic Nuclei with Austral Milliarcsecond Interferometry) ist ein multiwellenlängen Programm zur Beobachtung relativistischer Jets aktiver Galaxienkerne des Südhimmels. Verschiedene theoretische Modelle gehen von einer simultanen Erzeugung hochenergetischer Photonen sowie Neutrinos innerhalb eines AGN-Jets aus. Eine Multi-Messenger Analyse, basierend auf der Korrelation von ANTARES Daten und *Fermi*  $\gamma$ -ray Lichtkurven, könnte zu einer massiven Unterdrückung des Neutrino Untergrundes führen. Dies würde in einer gesteigerten Sensitivität einer Neutrino Punktquellensuche resultieren.

In dieser Arbeit befasste ich mich mit einer zeitabhängigen Neutrino Punktquellensuche mithilfe des ANTARES Teleskops. Mit TANAMI Quellen führe ich eine “unbinned maximum likelihood method” durch, um die Wahrscheinlichkeit einer Neutrinodetektion zu steigern. Durch die Verwendung von *Fermi* Lichtkurven ist eine signifikante Unterdrückung des Untergrundes möglich. Die Verwendung unterschiedlicher Monte Carlo Methoden führt zu einer präzisen Beschreibung variabler Umweltbedingungen in der Tiefsee.





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# 1 Introduction

Using tiny particles to discover hidden secrets of the universe is the idea of neutrino astronomy. Recent results by the IceCube Collaboration ([IceCube Collaboration 2013](#)) have shown evidence for a high-energy extraterrestrial neutrino signal. Two  $PeV$  neutrino events have been detected which can not be explained by a pure atmospheric hypothesis. Nevertheless, no clear extragalactic neutrino point source has been identified so far.

Neutrino astronomy deals with questions starting from the very beginning of our universe, over the search of dark matter, to the sources of high-energy cosmic rays. It combines classical astronomy with high-energy particle physics, leading to a more precise description of fundamental physical concepts in the universe.

Neutrinos have first been postulated by Wolfgang Pauli, who studied  $\beta$ -decays. While within the standard model of particle physics, neutrinos are assumed to be massless. It was the discovery of neutrino oscillation from solar neutrinos that gave evidence for neutrino masses ([Fukuda et al. 2001](#)).

As neutrinos are only affected by the weak force, they do not interact with e.g. dust layers or get absorbed like photons. Thus, they can escape from even dense environments in the universe. Neutrinos are non-charged particles, so they are not deflected by intergalactic magnetic fields and travel on straight trajectories from their origin. Because of the unique properties of neutrinos, they are perfect messengers for the study of fundamental physical concepts in astronomical objects. Due to their small interaction cross sections, neutrino astronomy is mainly limited by statistics.

As has been shown in [Krauß et al. 2014](#), Active galactic nuclei (AGN) are a promising candidate for the sources of the high-energy extraterrestrial neutrino flux.

While the presence of the high-energy peak in the spectral energy distribution (SED) of AGN is believed to be dominated by inverse compton scattering, hadronic models ([Mannheim 1993](#)) provide an alternative explanation for the generation of high-energy  $\gamma$ -rays.

ANTARES (Astronomy with a Neutrino Telescope and Abyss Environment RESearch) is a large volume deep-sea water Cherenkov telescope in the Mediterranean Sea located 42 km from Toulon in France ([Ageron et al. 2011](#)). In order to reduce background from neutrinos generated in the atmosphere, ANTARES is optimized for up-going muons. This means, the detector is “looking downwards” through the Earth, most sensitive to observe southern astronomical objects.

The multiwavelength monitoring program TANAMI (Tracking Active Galactic Nuclei with Austral Milliarcsecond Interferometry) is monitoring relativistic jets in AGN of the southern sky ([Ojha & Kadler, 2010](#); [Kadler et al., 2015](#)). While TANAMI consists of a radio Very Long Baseline Interferometry (VLBI) monitoring program, it also performs a high-energy light-curve monitoring program, using several telescopes. As ANTARES is most sensitive to the southern sky, TANAMI sources are the ideal candidates for a neutrino point source analyses.

Diffuse flux analyses as well as point source analyses have been performed with the ANTARES telescope. While the majority of analyses have to deal with an enormous amount of background (see [Adrián-Martínez et al. 2012c](#)), the assumption that neutrinos and photons are generated and reach Earth simultaneously ([Mücke et al. 2003](#)) reduces the relevant time intervals and thus the amount of background significantly.

Within this analysis, *Fermi*  $\gamma$ -ray light-curves are used to identify promising flaring periods of selected TANAMI sources, leading to a reduced number of time intervals and an effective background suppression. Beside that, other time dependent neutrino point search analyses have been performed within ANTARES ([Adrián-Martínez et al. 2015](#)), taking other sources distributed over the whole sky into account.

Within this thesis, I will give an overview of active galactic nuclei, as well as possible radiation processes leading to the generation of high-energy photons and neutrinos. In addition, an introduction to the TANAMI program and the ANTARES detector will be given. Afterwards, I will focus on Monte Carlo simulations and event reconstruction, as well as the source selection criteria and the different analyses steps. Finally, results of this analysis are presented and an outlook is given.

## 2 Active Galactic Nuclei

Active Galactic Nuclei (AGN) are among the most fascinating objects in the universe. While the term “active” refers to the inner region of a galaxy, being up to four orders of magnitude brighter than “usual” galaxies this class seems to be scarce in the universe. Only a humble fraction of 3% of all identified galaxies are known to host an AGN (Terzian et al. 1999). This inner nucleus causes a high luminosity, which cannot be explained by stellar emission from the surrounding galaxy. One characteristic feature of AGN is their ability to produce powerful, broadband emission, which can be described by a power law indicative of a non-thermal emission process. AGN can emit over the whole electromagnetic spectrum and sometimes show high variability on timescales of minutes to months.

### 2.1 Overview

In the following, a brief overview of the general structure of an AGN will be given. Figure 2.1 illustrates a schematic model of a radio loud AGN. If not stated explicitly, all information of this chapter are based on the textbooks Beckmann 2012, Krolik 1999, G.B. Rybicki 1985 and Schneider 2008.

#### 2.1.1 Supermassive-Black-Hole and Mass Accretion

An active galactic nucleus is “powered” by a *supermassive black hole* (SMBH) that is accreting matter. Accretion is nowadays the generally accepted process to convert energy, so that luminosities on the order of  $10^{45}$  ergs $^{-1}$  can be reached in a compact region of  $< 1\text{kpc}^3$  (Shakura & Sunyaev 1973). The accretion process dominates the structure of an AGN, as it leads to orbiting of gas and dust around the SMBH. Differential velocities, that are caused by friction and turbulence of the orbiting matter cause a transport of angular momentum outwards while a stream of matter is attracted to the center of the disk. Material, which moves to the center transfers its potential energy of the gravitational field into kinetic and thermal energy.

The bolometric luminosity  $L$  of the accretion process is proportional to the accretion rate  $\dot{M}$ . It is limited by the Eddington Limit, which describes a hydrostatic balance of radiation pressure and gravitation. An emitting process causes a radiation pressure on in-coming matter which counteracts the accretion process. Under the assumption of a stationary accretion rate and isotropic radiation, this limit is given by the Eddington Luminosity

$$L_{\text{Edd}} = \frac{4\pi GM_{\odot}m_p c}{\sigma_T} \propto 1.3 \times 10^{38} \left( \frac{M}{M_{\odot}} \right) \frac{\text{erg}}{\text{s}}. \quad (2.1)$$

Here  $G$  stands for the gravitational constant,  $c$  for the speed of light,  $m_p$  for the mass of a proton,  $\sigma_T$  for the Thomson cross section,  $M_{\odot}$  for the solar mass and  $M$  for the mass of the emitting source. It is important to point out that the Eddington approximation is only a rough estimation on the correlation between measured luminosity and the black hole mass. More precise measurements can be achieved by reverberation mapping (Peterson, 1993; Collin et al., 2006).

The concentration of matter around the SMBH forms the *accretion disk*. The spectrum of the accretion disk can be described as a black body spectrum with a radial temperature dependence. Measurements of this spectrum indicate a correlation between the activity of an AGN and the amount of accreted matter.

Close to the SMBH at distances of about 0.1 pc to 1 pc the *broad line region* (BLR) is located. Matter in this region has to be concentrated into clouds, as otherwise Thomson scattering

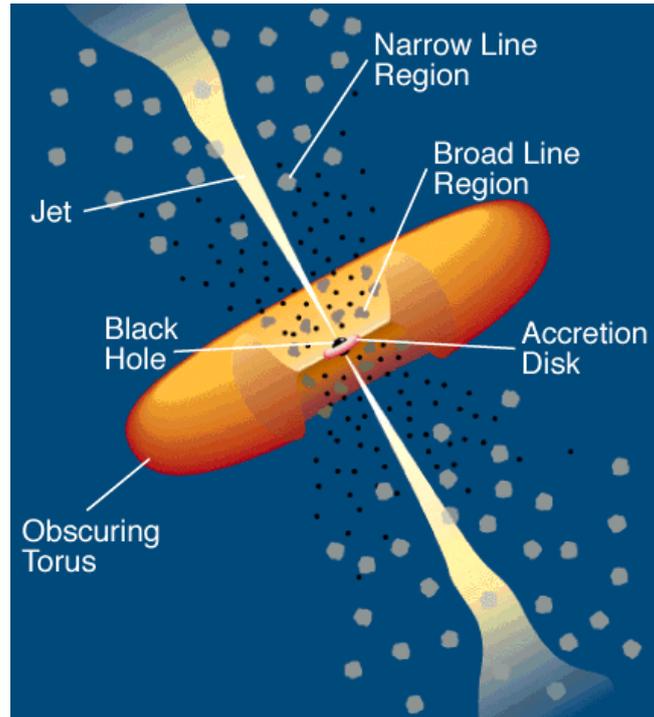


Figure 2.1: Schematic sketch of a radio loud AGN. A SMBH is accreting matter and thus forming an accretion disk. Perpendicular to that disk a relativistic particle outflow (jet) is formed. Radio-quiet AGN show no jets. Credit: [Urry & Padovani 1995](#)

would make this region optically thick. The occurrence of broad lines can be explained via a turbulent motion of the clouds and a high velocity.

At distances of about 100 pc the *narrow line region* (NLR) is characterized by the observation of narrow (forbidden) lines. The accumulation of matter here is believed to be much colder and less dense, compared to the BLR. The accretion disk is surrounded by a *dust torus*, that is able to absorb emission lines, long-wavelength radio emission and soft  $\gamma$ -rays.

### 2.1.2 Jets

In a fraction of all AGNs, perpendicular to the accretion disk collimated highly relativistic particle outflows from the nucleus, the so called *jets* are observed. These outflows can become very large, reaching up to Mpc-scales. AGN that show such a two-sided jet configuration in the radio band, where the second jet is labeled as counterjet, are known as radio-loud AGN. It is generally assumed that the two-sided configuration is valid for all AGN, while the appearance of the jet and counterjet is varying due to relativistic beaming. A morphological classification of radio-loud AGN is given by Fanaroff and Riley ([Fanaroff B.L. 1974](#)). If no jets are detected, the AGN is known as radio-quiet. Where the outflows interact with the intergalactic medium, they are decelerated and produce radio lobes at the end of the jets. Hadronic particle acceleration models predict AGN jets to be one source of cosmic ray and extragalactic neutrinos ([Stecker et al. 1991](#)). Further information on jet acceleration models can be found at [Gaisser 1990](#).

## 2.2 AGN Taxonomy

During the last decades, multiwavelength observations have discovered a broad range of different AGN types. The nowadays accepted classification scheme is based on optical or radio observations, as this kind of objects have been measured first in these spectral ranges.

In the following a brief description of the most common AGN types is given. For further information see [Lawrence 1987](#).

**Seyfert galaxies:** Carl Seyfert ([Seyfert 1943](#)) first discovered a class of mostly spiral galaxies, which contain a bright quasi-stellar point-like nucleus. Optical observations indicated this class of galaxies to show broad as well as narrow (forbidden) lines caused by Doppler broadening ([Khachikyan É.Y. 1971](#)). Based on their spectral properties, Seyfert galaxies have been further divided into two subclasses. While *Seyfert 1* galaxies show broad as well as narrow (forbidden) lines, *Seyfert 2* galaxies are defined by having only narrow (forbidden) lines. Seyfert galaxies played an important role in the development of the unified model, as polarized broad emission lines have been detected in Seyfert 2 galaxies ([Antonucci 1985](#)), giving first evidence of a central engine and a hidden broad line region.

**Radio galaxies:** Radio galaxies are classified according to their emission properties in the radio band and show a strong radio emission from the central region. Radio galaxies can be divided into *broad line radio galaxies* (BLRG) and *narrow line radio galaxies* (NLRG). A characteristic feature of radio galaxies is their extended radio emission, which can reach up to Megaparsecs away from the central nucleus.

Fanaroff & Riley ([Fanaroff B.L. 1974](#)) defined an classification scheme that is based on the radio morphology, not on the optical properties of the galaxy. *Fanaroff-Riley Typ 1* (FR1) galaxies are characterized by a dominating bright core and two jets, emanating from the core on both sides. The luminosity decreases along the jets with increasing distance. On the other hand *Fanaroff-Riley Typ 2* (FR2) galaxies are dominated by bright radio lobes and a less bright central nucleus. The luminosity increases along the jets with increasing distance to the black hole. FR2 galaxies usually show only single-side jets, which are relatively weak compared to FR1 galaxies.

**Quasars:** Quasars (Quasi Stellar Objects) or QSOs are strong radio sources with unresolved (star-like) optical counterparts. They are among the brightest objects and typically found at high redshifts. Quasars show broad optical emission lines and a point like morphology. Nowadays Quasars are classified as compact objects, with a Seyfert-like optical spectrum. As Quasars are not qualified according to their radio properties, both radio-loud and radio-quiet objects can be found.

**Blazars:** Blazars are the most luminous sources of all AGN that emit light across the whole spectrum up to the highest energies. They are found to be compact, highly variable objects, that show strong  $\gamma$ -ray emission. Typically their broadband spectrum is dominated by non-thermal emission, while often no optical emission lines are found. Blazars combine BL Lac objects, as well as Flat-Spectrum Radio Quasars (FSRQ). While the spectra of BL Lacs are dominated by featureless non-thermal continuum, FSRQs typically show a compact radio structure and flat radio spectra.

Blazars typically exhibit relativistic jets and show several characteristic effects. The effect of *superluminal motion* can easily be explained by a projection of a constant and finite light evolution (see [Figure 2.2](#)). Let's consider a bright feature propagating along the jet axes with velocity  $\vec{v}$ , which is seen under the small inclination angle  $\phi$ . Two distinct light signals

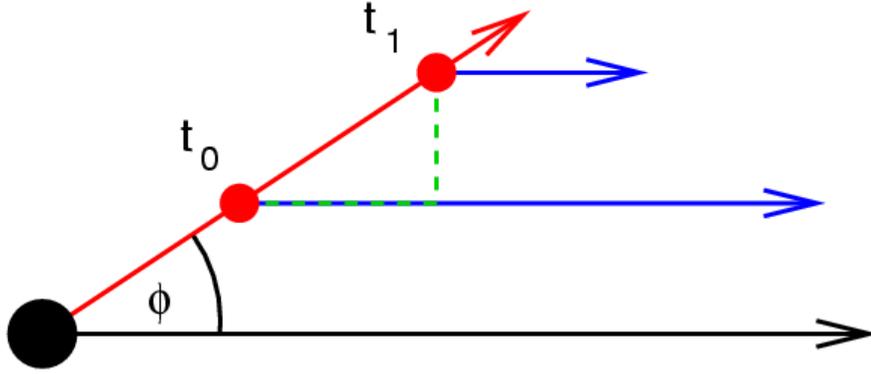


Figure 2.2: Sketch of the projection effect of superluminal motion. A bright feature propagates along the jet axes (red) with velocity  $\vec{v}$ . The jet is seen under the inclination angle  $\phi$ . The observer only takes projection images of the jet. Credit: M. Kadler

are emitted from the feature at times  $t_0$  and  $t_1$ , while propagating along the jet axes. The observer detects the signals separated by:

$$\Delta t = \left(1 - \frac{v}{c} \cos \phi\right) \Delta t_{\text{emit}} \quad (2.2)$$

where  $\Delta t_{\text{emit}}$  is the time interval between the emission of both light signals. If one considers the observed distance to be  $\Delta x = v \Delta t_{\text{emit}} \sin \phi$ , the observed velocity is given by

$$v_{\text{obs}} = \frac{v \sin \phi}{1 - \frac{v}{c} \cos \phi} \quad (2.3)$$

As the observed velocity strongly depends on the inclination angle  $\phi$ , this angle has to be known to derive the real velocity.

To describe the properties of blazars, further relativistic effects have to be taken into account. The Doppler factor  $D$ :

$$D = \frac{v_{\text{obs}}}{v_{\text{emit}}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{v_{\text{obs}}}{c} \cos \phi} \quad (2.4)$$

is an important quantity in the description of jet behavior. The effect of Doppler boosting describes the increase/decrease of an observed flux density due to an emitting feature moving at relativistic velocities close to the line of sight. It can be shown, that for a flux density  $F_\nu \propto \nu^{-\alpha}$  the quantity  $F_\nu \nu^3$  is Lorentz invariant (G.B. Rybicki 1985).

As mentioned before, blazars are highly variable  $\gamma$ -ray emitters. High energy  $\gamma$ -rays can either be produced by inverse compton scattering, where low-energetic photons gain energy via the scattering on highly relativistic electrons (see Sect. 3.2.2) or  $p\gamma$ -interactions (see Sect. 3.3).

Nevertheless, the time scales of these radiations can vary between minutes and months. This high variability indicates a compact structure of the emission region. Within the standard model of AGN (see Sect. 2.3), blazars are believed to be seen under a small inclination angle with a jet orientated in the light of sight. These assumption, as a consequence would explain the point like morphology and short time variability of blazars.

Blazars typically show two broad peaks in their spectral energy distribution (SED). Figure 2.3 displays the SED of a typical blazar sample. While the low-energy peak can be explained

by synchrotron radiation (see Sect. 3.2.1), the second peak at higher energies is assumed to be dominated by inverse compton scattering. The exact processes responsible for the high-energy peak are yet to be explored, but hadronic models (Mannheim 1993) could provide an alternative approach.

Studies of a complete blazar SED sample (Fossati et al. 1997) found a correlation between the shape of the SED and the source luminosity (see Figure 2.3). Less-luminous sources tend to have a higher low-energy peak than brighter sources. Furthermore, a correlation between both peaks has been found, resulting in a shifting in frequency of the double-humped shape. This shifting seems to depend on the source bolometric luminosity, where a brighter source is linked to a smaller low-energy peak frequency.

The exact mechanisms responsible for the blazar sequence are still a matter of actual research, assuming e.g. two distinct source populations (Meyer et al. 2011).

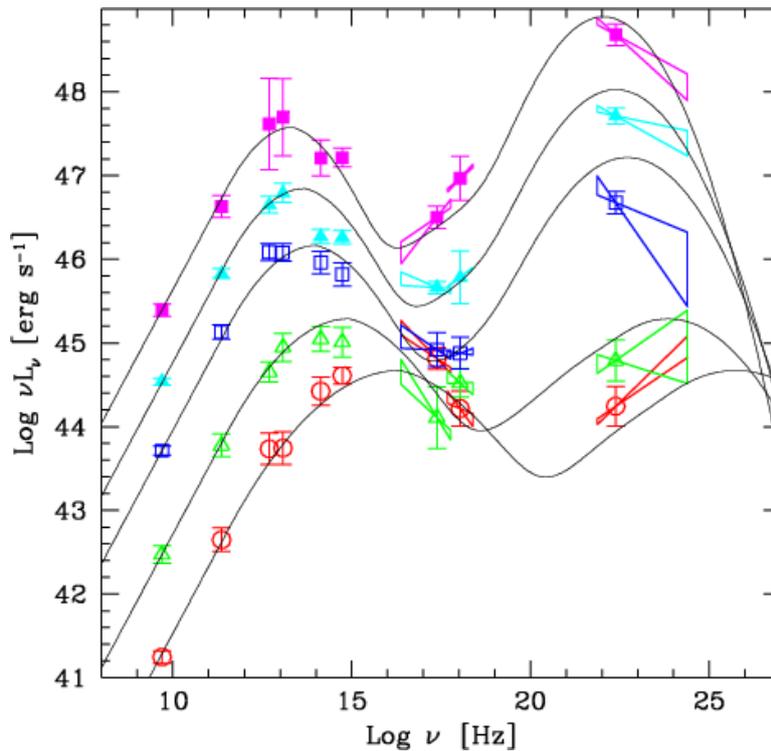


Figure 2.3: Blazar spectral energy distribution (SED) and blazar sequence. A correlated between bolometric luminosities and peak frequencies can be seen.

Credit: Fossati et al. 1997

### 2.3 A Unified Model

Antonucci 1985, Lawrence 1987 and Urry & Padovani 1995 first suggested that all the different object classes of AGN consists of the same components. To explain the broad variety of observations within this *unified model*, a rotational symmetry and projection effect was assumed.

The subdivision within this model is based on the inclination angle, which is the angle between the line of sight and the rotation axis of the accretion disk or the jet axes. Figure 2.4 visualizes the different AGN classes. While all radio loud AGN consist of the standard components like *supermassive black hole*, *accretion disk*, *broad line emission region*, *narrow line emission region*, *dust torus* and *jets*, not all of these features are detectable at any viewing angle. In

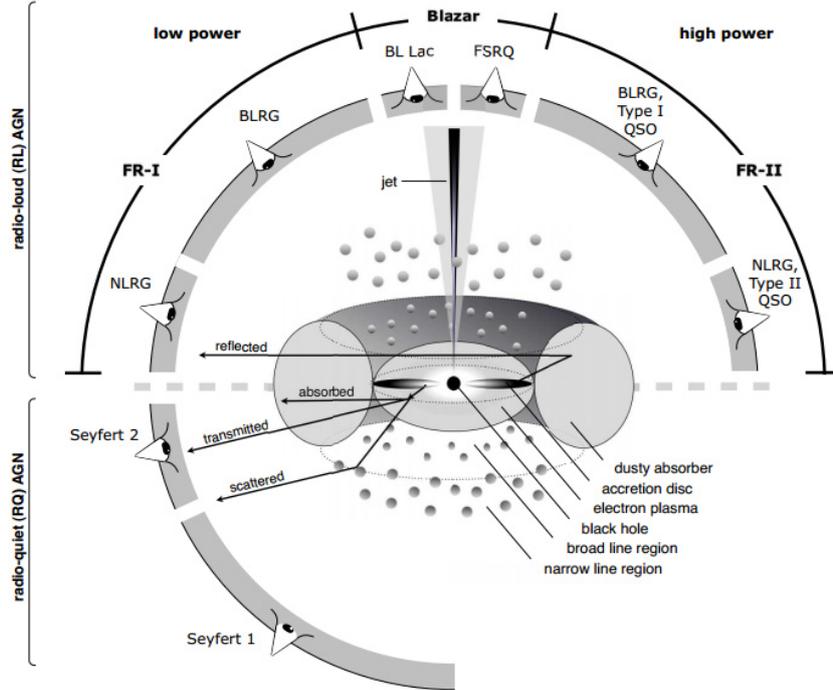


Figure 2.4: Schematic sketch of the unification model of Urry & Padovani. According to the inclination angle and source luminosity, an AGN consisting of the standard components like SMBH, accretion disc and jets different classes of objects can be defined.

Credit: [Beckmann 2012](#)

type 2 AGN, which are seen at large inclination angles, broad line emission is absorbed by the dust torus. This torus is assumed to lie in the plane of the accretion disc and consists of colder material than the inner parts of the disc. Evidence for the obscuring torus have been given by polarization measurements ([Bianchi et al. 2012](#)).

On the other hand, type 1 AGN are observed at small inclination angles, therefore the inner region, which is responsible for the broad emission lines is detectable.

For extreme small viewing angles ( $\leq 5^\circ$ ), blazars are believed to be dominated by boosting effects of the highly relativistic outflows. This boosting can affect the whole detected system, as it can outshine the other components so that only a bright, star-like object can be seen. In addition to the inclination angle, radio loudness and source luminosity are used as classification parameters. Seyfert 1 and Seyfert 2 galaxies are characteristic candidates for radio-quiet sources. If jets are present, these galaxies are classified as radio-loud AGN. The amount of radio emission is correlated to the viewing angle and can be explained by relativistic beaming effects and Doppler-boosting (see Sect. 2.2). A summary of the unification scheme of Urry & Padovani can be seen in Table 1. Although this scheme describes the general accepted model of AGN unification, recent observations indicate that extensions may be needed ([Bianchi et al. 2012](#)).

	<b>radio-quiet</b>	<b>radio-loud</b>
<b>Type 1</b>	Seyfert 1 radio-quiet quasar	BLRG radio-loud quasar (type 1)
<b>Type 2</b>	Seyfert 2 radio-quiet quasar	NLRG (FR I & II) radio-loud quasar (type 2)

Table 1: Unification scheme after [Urry & Padovani 1995](#).

The inclination angle increases from type 1 to type 2 galaxies.

### 3 Theoretical Background

This chapter will give an overview of the physical concepts of AGN radiation processes as well as accretion of matter and neutrino generation models. If not labeled explicitly all the information of this chapter are based on the textbooks [Beckmann 2012](#), [G.B. Rybicki 1985](#), [Schneider 2008](#), [Ajit K. Kembhavi 1999](#) and [Stanev 2010](#).

#### 3.1 Accretion of Matter

The basic mechanism underlying the AGN central engine and producing luminosities of about  $10^{45}$  ergs<sup>-1</sup> in a compact region of  $< 1\text{kpc}^3$  is accretion of matter. Matter falls into a central supermassive black hole, converting gravitational potential energy into radiation. The simplest model one could consider is a spherically symmetric constant accretion flow. This will result in an accretion rate:

$$\dot{M} = \pi r^2 \rho v \quad (3.1)$$

where  $\rho$  is the density of the in-falling matter,  $v$  its velocity and  $r$  the distance from the black hole. This basic model of accretion is generally known as *Bondi - Hoyle accretion*. Under the assumption that the accretion capture radius is correlated to the escape velocity  $V$  of a particle at a distance  $R = \frac{2GM_{BH}}{V^2}$ , the accretion rate becomes:

$$\dot{M} = \frac{4\pi\rho G^2 M_{BH}^2}{V^3} \quad (3.2)$$

Accretion onto a compact object is limited by radiation pressure generated by the in-falling matter. By equating the pressure gradient from in-falling matter

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = \frac{-GM\rho}{r^2} \quad (3.3)$$

with the radiation pressure

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = \frac{-\sigma_T \rho}{m_p c} \frac{L}{4\pi r^2} \quad (3.4)$$

the *Eddington Luminosity* (equation 2.1) is derived.

It is important to point out that the most basic *Bondi - Hoyle accretion* is unlikely to play a major role in powering of AGN. The reason is, that the conversion efficiency from gravitational potential energy into radiation energy is low. While radiation in the accretion flow is based on viscous thermal heating, the basic problem of pure Bondi accretion (which assumes the absence of angular momentum) is, that matter is falling into the central engine before radiating its thermal energy. However, extensions to this quite basic model like assuming a viscous dissipation of the accretion flow are give by [Shakura & Sunyaev 1973](#) or [Balbus & Hawley 1991](#).

## 3.2 Radiation processes in AGN

### 3.2.1 Synchrotron Radiation

When charged particles get accelerated by the Lorentz force in a magnetic field  $\vec{B}$ , they emit radiation. The radiation of non-relativistic particles is known as *cyclotron radiation*, while for relativistic velocities this process is called *synchrotron radiation*.

The Lorentz force is given by:

$$m\gamma\dot{\vec{v}} = \frac{q}{c} (\vec{v} \times \vec{B}) \quad (3.5)$$

where  $m$  is the mass of the electron,  $\gamma = \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{-1/2}$  the Lorentz factor,  $\vec{v}$  the velocity of the charged particle,  $\vec{B}$  the magnetic field and  $q$  the charge of the particle. Figure 3.1 illustrates the emission of synchrotron radiation cones of a charged particle moving on a helical path through a magnetic field. A characteristic frequency of the helical motion is the gyration frequency  $\omega_g$

$$\omega_g = \frac{qB}{\gamma mc} \quad (3.6)$$

where  $B$  and  $v$  stand for the absolute value of the vectors (e.g.  $|\vec{B}|$ ). Synchrotron emission shows a dipole characteristic in the electron rest frame.

The total energy loss of a charged particle getting accelerated in a magnetic field is:

$$\frac{dE}{dt} = -\frac{e^4 B^2}{6\pi\epsilon_0 m^2 c} \frac{v^2}{c^2} \gamma^2 \sin^2 \alpha \quad (3.7)$$

where  $\alpha$  is the *pitch angle* between the vectors of velocity and the magnetic field. Finally, the radiation power of an electron in a magnetic field is given as:

$$P = \frac{4}{3} \sigma_T c \beta^2 \gamma^2 \frac{B^2}{8\pi} \quad (3.8)$$

where  $\beta = \frac{v}{c}$ . For high relativistic electrons, one can generally assume  $\beta \approx 1$ . Using the relation  $E = \gamma mc^2$  one can show that the radiated energy of a single particle (equation 3.7) is

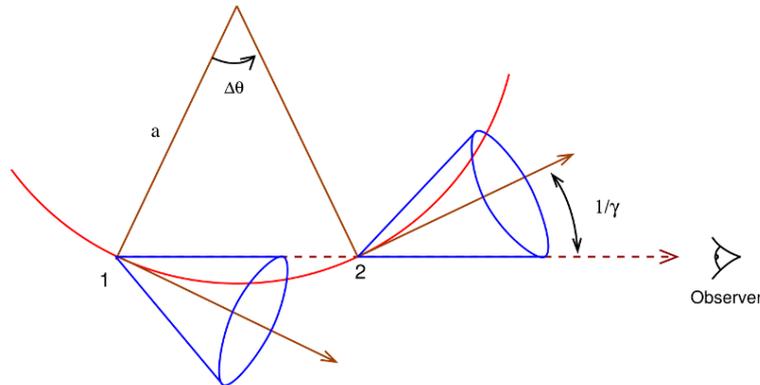


Figure 3.1: Charged particle on its helical path through a magnetic field is emitting synchrotron radiation in a cone.

Credit: [G.B. Rybicki 1985](#)

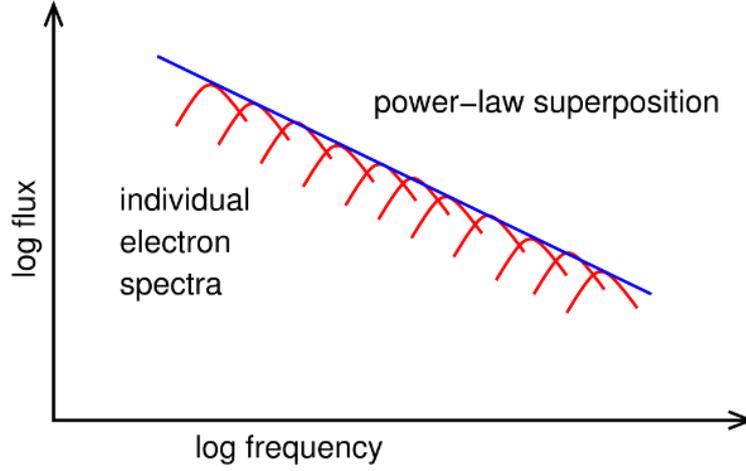


Figure 3.2: Superposition of single electron synchrotron spectra, resulting in a power law ( $P_\nu \propto \nu^\alpha$ ). Credit: [Shu 1991](#)

proportional to  $m^{-4}$ , so synchrotron radiation of a massive particle is either low or negligible.

Non-thermal synchrotron radiation can be explained by electrons, following a power law spectrum according to:

$$n(\lambda)d\lambda = n_0\gamma^{-p}d\lambda \quad (3.9)$$

where  $n(\lambda)$  is a non-thermal electron distribution and  $p$  the particle distribution index. The total emission power is achieved by integrating over the electron distribution  $n$

$$P_\nu = \int_1^\infty P_\nu(\gamma)n(\gamma)d\gamma. \quad (3.10)$$

This equation shows that the integral of an electron power law distribution is again a power law (see Figure 3.2):

$$P_\nu \propto \nu^\alpha \quad (3.11)$$

$$\text{where } \alpha = -\frac{p-1}{2}. \quad (3.12)$$

At low energies, *synchrotron self-absorption* becomes important. A photon emitted by a low energetic electron can again be absorbed by the same electron. Therefore, this changes the proportionality of the total emitted power for low frequencies:

$$P_\nu \propto B^{-\frac{1}{2}}\nu^{\frac{5}{2}} \quad (3.13)$$

Finally, synchrotron self-absorption is characterized by the self-absorption coefficient  $a_S$

$$a_S \propto \nu^{-\frac{p+4}{2}} \quad (3.14)$$

To understand this broken power-law spectrum of synchrotron radiation the optical depth  $\tau_\nu$  has to be defined:

$$\tau_\nu = \int_{s_0}^s a_S(s_1)ds_1 \quad (3.15)$$

where  $ds_1$  is an infinitesimal distance the electron travels. If  $\tau_\nu > 1$  the medium is called *optical thick*, while for  $\tau_\nu < 1$  it is *optical thin*. The frequency near  $\tau_\nu = 1$  is called turnover frequency  $\nu_t$ , as it defines the kink of the broken power law spectrum:

$$P_\nu \propto \nu^{\frac{5}{2}} \quad \text{for } \nu < \nu_t, \quad (3.16)$$

and

$$P_\nu \propto \nu^{-\frac{p-1}{2}} \quad \text{for } \nu > \nu_t. \quad (3.17)$$

Please note that the slope of the optical thick part of the spectrum does not depend on the energy distribution of the electron, while the optical thin part is a function of the particle distribution index  $p$ .

### 3.2.2 Inverse Compton Scattering

At non-relativistic energies, Compton scattering transfers energy from the photon to the electron. In the case of highly relativistic electrons, *inverse Compton scattering* can lead to an opposite effect: a low frequency photon gets a gain in energy. In this case, the Thomson cross section can be applied.

If one assumes the laboratory frame to be  $L$  and the rest frame of the electron to be  $L'$ , the energy of the photon in the rest frame of the electron will be small, compared to the rest energy of the electron  $h\nu' \ll mc^2$ . Thus, the energy of the photon in  $L'$  is given by the relativistic Doppler shift formula:

$$h\nu' = \gamma h\nu \left( 1 + \frac{v_e}{c} \cos(\theta) \right) \quad (3.18)$$

where  $v_e$  is the velocity of the relativistic electron and  $\theta$  is the angle between the direction of the photon and the incoming electron in the laboratory frame  $L$ . In the electrons rest frame  $L'$ , this angle becomes small according to

$$\sin \theta' = \frac{\sin \theta}{\gamma \left( 1 + \frac{v_e}{c} \cos(\theta) \right)}. \quad (3.19)$$

As already mentioned, inverse Compton scattering can be treated as Thomson scattering in the electron rest frame, so one has an elastic scattering with  $E_2' \approx E_1'$ . Transferring this into the laboratory frame reads:

$$E_2 \approx \gamma^2 E_1. \quad (3.20)$$

The maximum energy gain of a photon is achieved by calculating the energy conservation in the laboratory frame  $L$ :

$$E_2 \leq E_1 + \gamma m_e c^2 \quad (3.21)$$

where the maximum change in the photon frequency is:

$$\Delta\nu \leq \gamma m_e c^2 h^{-1} \quad (3.22)$$

Finally, the total power of the inverse Compton scattering (also called the Luminosity  $L_{\text{IC}}$ ) logically depends on the density of photons  $n_{\text{ph}}$  available for scattering:

$$L_{\text{IC}} \propto n_{\text{ph}} \gamma^2 E_1. \quad (3.23)$$

If one then considers a more complex and detailed description (compared to equation 3.23), which includes the energy density function of the photon field  $U_{\text{ph}}$ , as well as a relativistic Doppler shift, the luminosity becomes:

$$L_{\text{IC}} = \frac{4}{3} \frac{v_e^2}{c} \sigma_T \gamma^2 U_{\text{ph}}. \quad (3.24)$$

In case the condition  $h\nu' \ll mc^2$  is not fulfilled in the electron rest frame, the assumed elastic Thomson scattering can no longer be assumed. Consequently, Klein-Nishina effects have to be considered, which include a dependency on the photon energy and scattering angle. Further information about this extended model can be found at [Blumenthal & Gould 1970](#).

### 3.3 High-energy photons and neutrinos from hadronic processes

High energetic cosmic rays have been known to exist for more than a century, while their origin is still as mystery. Since charged particles are deflected in magnetic fields, their arrival direction does not have to be correlated to their source, except at the very highest energies. On the other hand neutrinos only couple weakly, so they most likely do not scatter on their way to Earth and propagate on straight trajectories.

Neutrinos can be generated in any region of the cosmos, where protons are accelerated to high energies. This acceleration can happen at shock fronts, moving through the interstellar medium. At these shock fronts, particles are accelerated by the so called *first order Fermi mechanism*. In this theory, the particle gains a constant fraction of energy by passing through the shock front. To achieve high energies the particle has to repeat the transition many times. If a charged particle is accelerated by getting deflected (multiple times) at irregularities of a magnetic field inside a moving plasma, this is described by the *second order Fermi mechanism*. For more information about Fermi acceleration please refer to [Gaisser 1990](#).

The accelerated protons now can interact with the ambient matter or radiation fields, producing neutrinos in hadronic showers such as:

$$p + \text{nucleus} \rightarrow \pi + X \quad (\pi = \pi^\pm, \pi^0) \quad (3.25)$$

$$p + \gamma \rightarrow \Delta^+ \rightarrow \begin{cases} \pi^0 + p \\ \pi^+ + n. \end{cases} \quad (3.26)$$

The resulting decay products further decay into:

$$\pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma + \gamma \quad (3.27)$$

$$\pi^\pm \rightarrow \mu^\pm + \nu_\mu \quad (\text{or } \bar{\nu}_\mu) \quad (3.28)$$

$$\mu^+ \rightarrow e^+ + \bar{\nu}_\mu + \nu_e \quad (3.29)$$

$$\mu^- \rightarrow e^- + \nu_\mu + \bar{\nu}_e. \quad (3.30)$$

Eventually neutrinos are generated via the decay of charged pions. With a probability of more than 99.9%, charged pions decay into muons and (anti)muon-neutrinos. These muons may further decay into electrons, producing two more neutrinos. To estimate the contribution of generated neutrinos, the ratio of cross sections  $\sigma_{\pi^0 p}$  and  $\sigma_{\pi^+ n}$  has to be calculated ([B. Povh 1999](#)). If one assumes a system  $|JM\rangle$  of coupled isospins  $j_1$  and  $j_2$ , the probability for the states  $|j_1 m_1\rangle$  and  $|j_2 m_2\rangle$  is given by the square of the Clebsch Gordan coefficients. For the decay of the  $\Delta^+$  this reads:

$$\frac{\Delta^+ \rightarrow \pi^0 + p}{\Delta^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ + n} = 2. \quad (3.31)$$

So neutral pions are two times more likely than charged pions (assuming only decays of leading order). Proton interactions with the surrounding matter lead to a fraction of generated pions of:

$$p + p \rightarrow \begin{cases} p + p + \pi^0 & \text{fraction } \frac{2}{3} \\ p + n + \pi^+ & \text{fraction } \frac{1}{3}. \end{cases} \quad (3.32)$$

If the proton interacts with a neutron  $n$  instead of a proton  $p$ , negative charged pions  $\pi^-$  as well can be produced. At high energies charged kaons ( $K^+$ ,  $K^-$ ) start to contribute to the neutrino production, decaying either to charged pions (28%) or directly into muons (64%). In addition, next to leading order decays contribute to the neutrino production channels. For more information please refer to [B. Povh 1999](#).

### 3.3.1 Neutrino generation in AGN jets

The kinematic threshold for the process of equation 3.26 is mainly influenced by the photon energies in the radiation field. For ambient UV photons, the threshold is in the range of several PeV. For photons generated by synchrotron radiation, which has a broad spectrum, the threshold is smeared out to much lower energies. This is an important point for neutrino astronomy ([Katz & Spiering 2012](#)).

Unfortunately, TeV photons can't just be produced via the decay of a neutral pion, but also by inverse Compton scattering. Most of the measured TeV  $\gamma$ -ray spectra can be explained by inverse Compton scattering. This kind of models are known as *leptonic models*. In a more realistic case, both leptons and hadrons will be accelerated in a jet. Figure 3.3 visualizes possible interactions inside an AGN jet, leading to the production of high-energy photons and neutrinos. While photons produced by synchrotron radiation of electrons serves as target for inverse Compton scattering and proton collision, the occurrence of high energetic PeV photons can't be explained.

An observation of PeV  $\gamma$ -rays produced via the decay of neutral pions therefore would be a proof for the acceleration of protons in so called *hadronic models* and a hint for possible neutrino point sources.

For more details about radiation processes in AGN see Section 3.2. Blazars in addition show high variabilities, leading to an increase of their detected flux by orders of magnitude within hours. For more details about extraterrestrial neutrino production and their accelerators please refer to [Katz & Spiering 2012](#).

### 3.3.2 Lepto-hadronic models

If both leptons and hadrons are accelerated within an AGN jet, these kind of models are referred to as *lepto-hadronic models* ([Stanev 2010](#)).

In these models, the region of proton acceleration and neutrino production is within the AGN jet. The main neutrino generation process is photoproduction on internal synchrotron photons or the thermal UV photon background of the accretion disk. Because of the low matter density in the jet, the proton energy-loss on  $pp$  interactions and thus the neutrino production from this process is small. The high-energy neutrino spectrum will follow the shape of the accelerated proton spectrum, usually showing a power law index of 2 before interaction ([Mannheim 1993](#)). Purely hadronic models are not able to model the short time variability of TeV  $\gamma$ -ray sources. The reason is, that protons have to be accelerated to high energies, whereas this acceleration takes longer than the time interval of the variability. The solution for this problem is the use of lepto-hadronic models, e.g. [Mücke et al. 2003](#), where soft electrons and protons are accelerated in the jet.

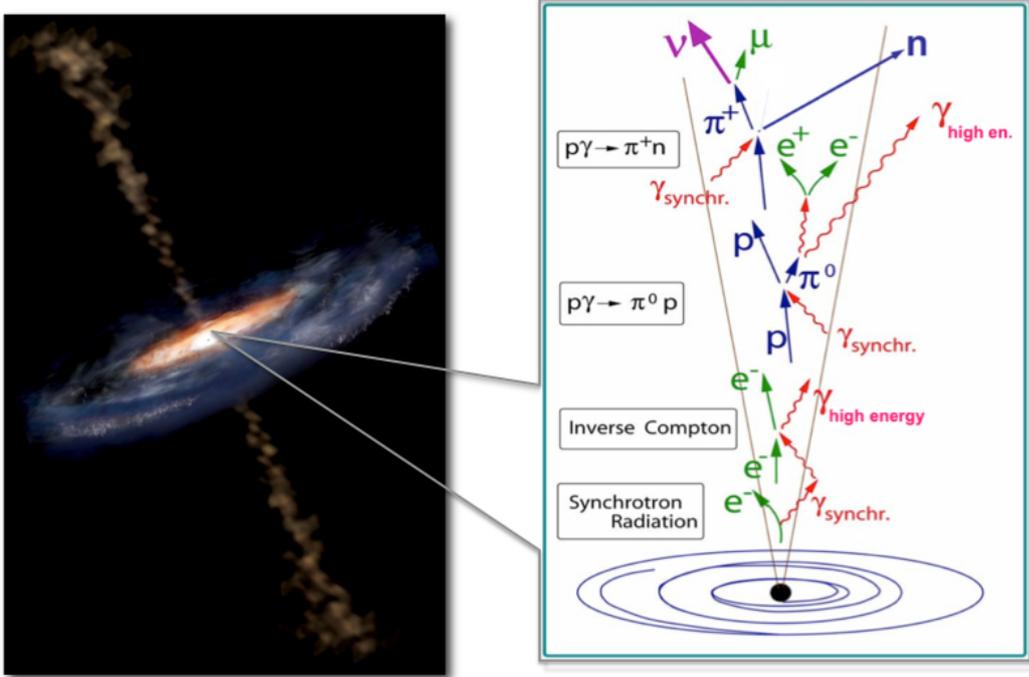


Figure 3.3: Left: Artist's view of an AGN, Right: Processes in a jet, generating high energetic photons and neutrinos. Credit: Simonnet, A., Sonoma State University and [Katz & Spiering 2012](#)

A jet, however, is a non stationary object. The plasma is injected as separate blobs, moving along the jet axis with relativistic velocities (see Figure 3.4). Electrons within these blobs emit synchrotron radiation, which serves as target for proton interaction as well as photon-photon pair production. To accelerate protons to energies above the photo-pion production threshold, fields of the order of 10 G would be necessary. With increasing magnetic field strength, the importance of synchrotron radiation increases. The increasing photon energy density leads to an increase of muon synchrotron radiation and pion cascades due the growing efficiency of meson production.

Variability, however can be influenced by an increase in the accretion rate, injecting a shock to propagate along the jet axis. As the shock propagates through the highly magnetized plasma of the jet, electrons tend to produce more synchrotron radiation due to an increase in electron density. The appearance of a fresh relativistic shock at a non-turbulent position of the jet plasma leads to an increase of the acceleration efficiency. Because of this gain in efficiency, the synchrotron and  $\gamma$ -ray production threshold is shifted towards higher energies.

The neutrino spectrum mainly depends on the proton spectrum and the density of target photons. If one assumes electrons and protons to be accelerated simultaneous, the energy spectrum of injected protons would follow an  $E^{-2}$  spectrum. Due to photohadronic interactions with synchrotron photons, this spectrum is flattened to a  $E^{-1}$  spectrum. Therefore, also the spectrum of the neutrinos is expected to follow a  $E^{-1}$  spectrum. For more details about this model please refer to [Mannheim et al. 2001](#).

Neutrinos are the only particles, which could escape the strong conditions within an AGN jet. After escaping, they have to travel long trajectories through the universe, without interacting with other particles. Adiabatic losses of the trajectories for neutrino energies due to the

expansion of the Universe can be estimated according to:

$$E(z) = E_0 \cdot (1 + z) \quad (3.33)$$

where  $E_0$  is the neutrino energy after leaving the jet and  $z$  is the redshift. This estimation is valid for adiabatic losses due to the expansion of the Universe, while it gives very poor results for photopion losses.

Finally, one can conclude that whenever high energetic photons are observed in a lepto-hadronic model, high energetic neutrinos will be produced as well.

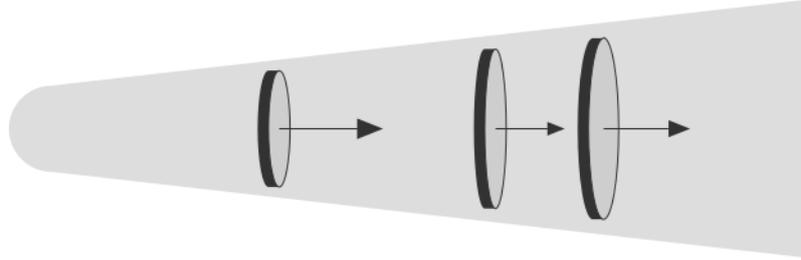


Figure 3.4: Schematic sketch of the acceleration within an AGN jet. The plasma is injected as separated blobs, moving along the jet axes with relativistic velocities. The length of the arrows however indicate their velocities.

Credit: [Stanev 2010](#); based on [Blandford & Königl 1979](#)

## 4 A Multi-Messenger Approach

In the following, a brief overview of the *multi-messenger* approach used in this thesis will be given. More detailed information about the TANAMI program can be found in [Ojha & Kadler 2010](#) or [Kadler et al. 2015](#). For details about the ANTARES detector please refer to [Ageron et al. 2011](#).

### 4.1 The TANAMI program

The TANAMI program (Tracking Active Galactic Nuclei with Austral Milliarcsecond Interferometry) is a multiwavelength program to monitor relativistic jets in active galactic nuclei of the southern sky.<sup>1</sup> It includes a radio Very Long Baseline Interferometry (VLBI) monitoring program, targeting the parsec-scale structures of radio-loud AGN. TANAMI is also performing radio spectral and light-curve monitoring programs with ATCA and the Ceduna telescope. Finally, TANAMI collects high-energy multiwavelength data with REM, *Swift*, *XMM-Newton*, *Suzaku*, *INTEGRAL*, *Fermi/LAT* and other telescopes. Currently, TANAMI is monitoring about 90 sources, most of them are blazars.

An overview of the TANAMI telescopes and a  $\gamma$ -ray skymap, including TANAMI associated

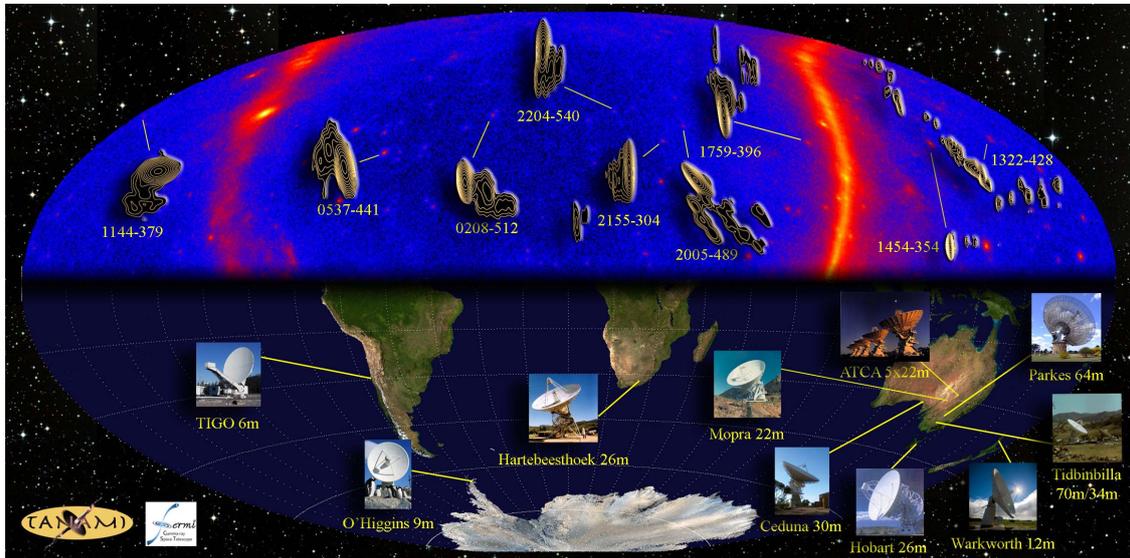


Figure 4.1: Collage to illustrate the basic concept of the TANAMI program. Top: Southern-Hemisphere  $\gamma$ -ray skymap observed by *Fermi/LAT* (in celestial coordinates). One can see the Milky Way and a couple of extragalactic point sources, which are associated with radio observations by TANAMI sources. Bottom: TANAMI telescopes located on Earth's Southern Hemisphere. Credit: M. Kadler

sources can be seen in Fig. 4.1. The heart of the TANAMI program are dual-frequency (8.4 GHz and 22.3 GHz) VLBI observations of AGN ( $< -30^\circ$  declination) of the southern sky. These observations are performed about every 4 months, providing resolution in the mas-scale. High resolutions in this range can only be achieved with VLBI. One of the core properties of a radio telescope is the angular resolution. According to the Rayleigh criterion this reads:

$$\sin(\alpha) \approx 1.22 \frac{\lambda}{d}. \quad (4.1)$$

<sup>1</sup><http://www.pulsar.sternwarte.uni-erlangen.de/tanami>

Here,  $\alpha$  is the angular resolution,  $\lambda$  the wavelength at which the observation is performed and  $d$  the diameter of the radio telescope. In the case of VLBI,  $d$  corresponds to the baseline of the array, which is the longest distance between two telescopes. For the use of VLBI, it is important for all telescopes to observe simultaneously.

Roughly spoken, a VLBI image is generated by measuring the source brightness, in the first step using each telescope individually. Due to Earth's rotation and a discrepancy in the distance to the source for each individual antenna, an instrumental delay has to be corrected. Then, the VLBI image is obtained by applying a deconvolution of a complex visibility function in the so called (u,v)-plane. For further information please refer to [Burke & Graham-Smith 2009](#).

The TANAMI array consists of the Australian Long Baseline Array (LBA), including telescopes at NASA's Deep Space Network (DSN), as well as the South-African Hartebeeshoek antenna. In 2009, the German Antarctic Receiving Station (GARS), and the Transportable Integrated Geodetic Observatory (TIGO) joined the program. Since 2011, the Warkworth, Katherine and Yarragadee antennas are part of the TANAMI array.

#### 4.1.1 The *Fermi* $\gamma$ -ray space telescope

The *Fermi* satellite, formerly *Gamma-ray Large Area Telescope* (GLAST) was launched by NASA on June 11th, 2008. The instruments on board of *Fermi* are the Large Area Telescope (LAT) and the Gamma-ray Burst Monitor (GBM).

LAT is a high-energy  $\gamma$ -ray pair-conversion telescope, which provides a large field of view of about 2.4 *sr*. This large field of view allows LAT to scan the whole sky in less than 3 hours. The detection process is based on pair production. An incoming  $\gamma$ -ray photon converts into an  $e^+e^-$ -pair, producing a track and energy deposit in the detector. The direction reconstruction is based on a segmentation of the electromagnetic calorimeter, which stops the electron - positron pairs and therefore provides a precise energy measurement. To distinguish between detections caused by  $\gamma$ -rays and cosmic rays, an anticoincidence shield is located at the entrance of the detector. This provides a reasonable background rejection.

Due to the wide field of view (about 20% of the whole sky) *Fermi*/LAT is able to operate in an all-sky mode, monitoring each point in the sky approximately every three hours. This monitoring strategy results in a nearly uniform coverage of the full sky and a continuous source monitoring. Continuous light-curves are generated by separating the obtained data into timebins and performing a maximum-likelihood method for each detected photon. For more information please refer to [Atwood et al. 2009](#).

*Fermi*/LAT data is extracted by using a maximum-likelihood method. In a first step, a region of interest around the expected source position has to be defined. This region has to be large enough to distinguish between different sources in order to perform a reasonable background rejection but also small enough to facilitate a reasonable computing time. In the next step, a source model is folded with the detector response.

The maximum-likelihood method offers a probability for a source detection under the assumption of a background-only detection. The quantity for this kind of statistical test is the test statistic  $TS$ :

$$TS = 2 \text{Log} \left[ \frac{L_{max}}{L_{max,0}} \right] \quad (4.2)$$

The test statistic connects the likelihood  $L_{max}$ , which assumes the detection of a source at the appropriate positron with the likelihood  $L_{max,0}$  which presumes the background-only

hypothesis. This method is based on the work of [Cash 1979](#).

## 4.2 ANTARES a deep sea neutrino telescope

ANTARES (*Astronomy with a Neutrino Telescope and Abyss Environment RESearch*) is a large volume deep-sea water Cherenkov telescope in the Mediterranean Sea located 42 km from Toulon in France at 42°47.935' N, 6°09.942' E. ANTARES is optimized for the detection of muons from high-energetic neutrinos, which can be produced in the atmosphere or by extraterrestrial accelerators. In the field of neutrino astronomy, the primary purpose of ANTARES is the detection of extraterrestrial neutrinos.

### 4.2.1 Neutrino interactions before detection

As neutrinos are only weakly interacting fermions, they won't couple to electromagnetic fields and therefore won't get deflected like photons. The majority of neutrinos traverses the universe and the Earth without interacting. Therefore, the only chance of detecting a neutrino signal is in the case of an interaction, via its secondary particles. For that reason, the neutrino has to interact with matter of the detector and produce secondary particles, which do at least couple electromagnetically. Figure 4.2 displays possible neutrino interactions near the detector.

The chance for a neutrino interaction depends on the neutrino cross section.

According to [Gandhi et al. 1996](#), the differential cross section for a deep inelastic scattering on a nucleus is

$$\frac{d^2\sigma}{dx dy} = \frac{2G_F^2 M E_\nu}{\pi} \left( \frac{M_W^2}{Q^2 + M_W^2} \right)^2 \left[ xq(x, Q^2) + x\bar{q}(x, Q^2)(1-y)^2 \right], \quad (4.3)$$

where  $G_F$  is the Fermi constant,  $M$  the mass of the target nucleon,  $M_W$  the mass of the W-boson,  $E_\nu$  the energy of the incident neutrino,  $-Q^2$  the invariant momentum transfer between the incident neutrino and the outgoing muon,  $x = \frac{Q^2}{2M\nu}$  and,  $y = \frac{\nu}{E_\nu}$  are the Bjorken scaling variables,  $\nu = E_\nu - E_\mu$  is the energy loss in the lab (target) frame, and  $E_\mu$  the energy of the outgoing muon.

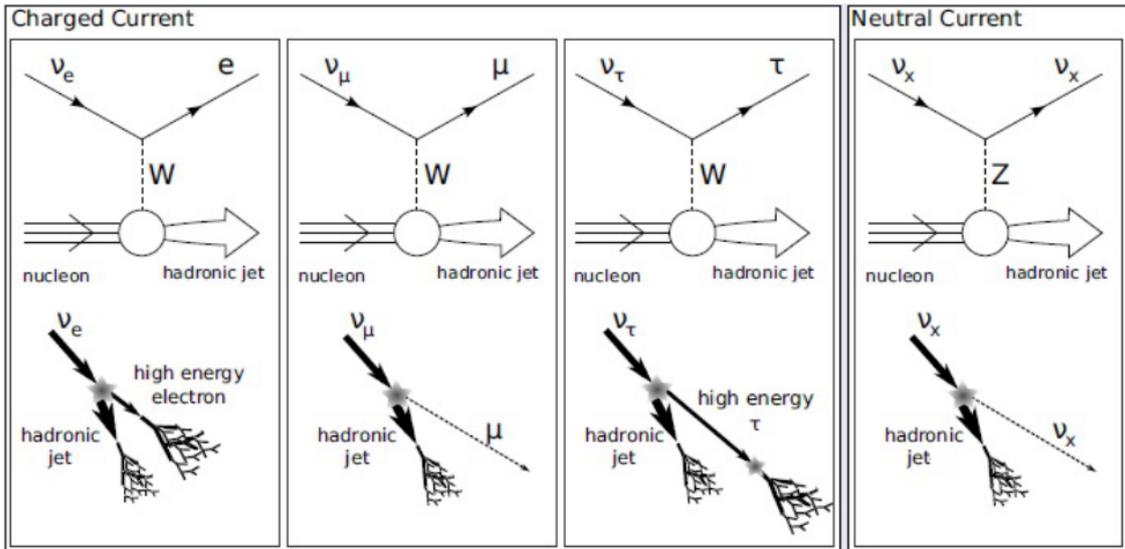


Figure 4.2: Possible neutrino interactions before a detection. Top: Feynman diagrams.

Bottom: Schematic view. Credit: [Abreu 2011](#)

The quark distribution functions can be written as

$$q(x, Q^2) = \frac{1}{2}(u_v(x, Q^2) + d_v(x, Q^2)) + \frac{1}{2}(u_s(x, Q^2) + d_s(x, Q^2)) + s_s(x, Q^2) + b_s(x, Q^2) \quad (4.4)$$

and

$$\bar{q}(x, Q^2) = \frac{1}{2}(u_s(x, Q^2) + d_s(x, Q^2)) + c_s(x, Q^2) + t_s(x, Q^2), \quad (4.5)$$

where  $u, d, c, s, t, b$  denote on the different quark flavors in a proton and the indexes  $v, s$  label valence and sea contributions. Figure 4.3 shows the total cross section for the process discussed in this chapter, as well as the contributions from the neutral current and charged current interactions. For neutrino energies in the range of  $10^6 \text{ GeV} < E_\nu < 10^{12} \text{ GeV}$ , equation 4.3 can be approximated by a simple power law according to:

$$\sigma_{CC}(\nu N) = 2.69 \times 10^{-36} \text{ cm}^2 \left( \frac{E_\nu}{1 \text{ GeV}} \right)^{0.402} \quad (4.6)$$

$$\sigma_{NC}(\nu N) = 1.06 \times 10^{-36} \text{ cm}^2 \left( \frac{E_\nu}{1 \text{ GeV}} \right)^{0.408} \quad (4.7)$$

$$\sigma_{CC}(\bar{\nu} N) = 2.53 \times 10^{-36} \text{ cm}^2 \left( \frac{E_\nu}{1 \text{ GeV}} \right)^{0.404} \quad (4.8)$$

$$\sigma_{NC}(\bar{\nu} N) = 0.98 \times 10^{-36} \text{ cm}^2 \left( \frac{E_\nu}{1 \text{ GeV}} \right)^{0.410} \quad (4.9)$$

For more detailed information, e.g. for the calculation of the cross section for low energetic atmospheric neutrinos, please refer to [Formaggio & Zeller 2012](#).

### 4.2.2 Neutrino detection principle

As neutrinos only interact weakly, their detection is much difficult compared to photons. Their detection principle is based on secondary particles after the neutrino interaction. Figure 4.4 illustrates the basic concept of a neutrino detection.

An incoming high energetic neutrino interacts with the material surrounding the detector and produces (in the case of a  $\nu_\mu$ ) a muon. As the muon (on average) gets most of the energy of the neutrino, its velocity will be faster than the speed of light in sea water (see [Adrián-Martínez et al. 2012a](#)). Therefore, the muon emits Cherenkov light while traveling through sea water, which is detected by an array of light sensors. In sea water the original spectrum of Cherenkov light is attenuated, ending up with light in the wavelength range from 350 nm to 500 nm. Due to the small fraction of energy deposits of the muon, the interaction vertex could be kilometers away from the detector.

While this description only focuses on track-like muon events, other flavors could also be observed. For example, electron neutrinos  $\nu_e$  produce electromagnetic showers (the cascade results from Bremsstrahlung and pair production) which are detected with lower efficiency and less angular resolution because of the shorter path of the resulting leptons.

The Cherenkov light in the end is detected by a set of photomultipliers contained in a glass spheres, the so-called optical modules (OMs). The OMs are arranged on flexible lines anchored to the seabed, forming a matrix of optical light detectors. To reconstruct a muon track, the arrival time of Cherenkov photons on each OM is measured, while a precise positioning with an accuracy better than 10 cm via acoustic measurements of the OMs is required ([Ageron et al., 2011](#); [Adrián-Martínez et al., 2012b](#)).

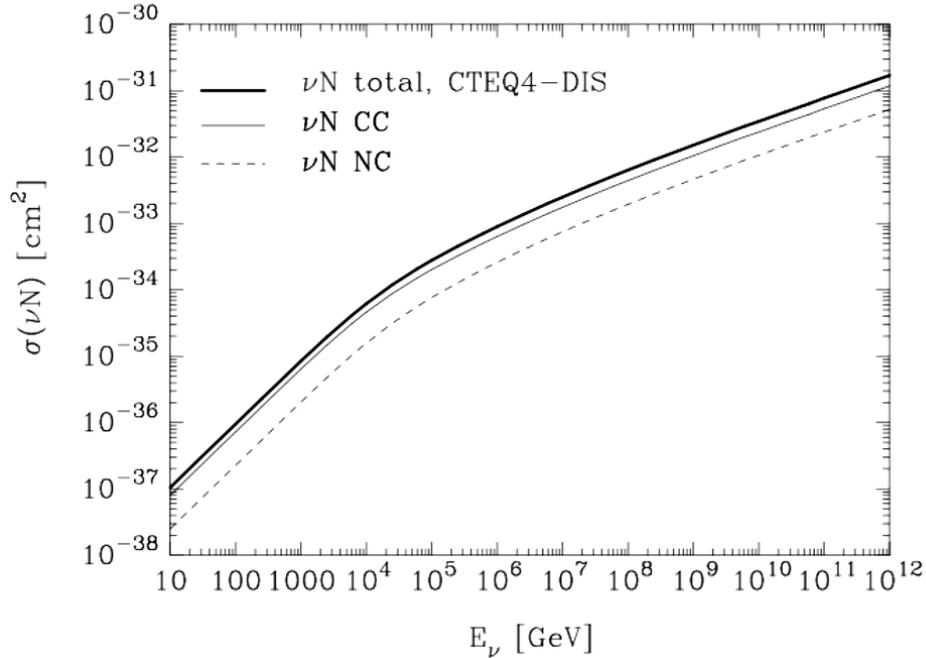


Figure 4.3: Neutrino cross section for the process of equation 4.3. Dotted line: neutral current contribution  $\sigma(\nu N \rightarrow \nu + X)$ . Thin line: charged current contribution  $\sigma(\nu N \rightarrow \mu^- + X)$ . Thick line: total (charged-current plus neutral-current) cross section. [Gandhi et al. 1996](#)

#### 4.2.2.1 Event signature

Beside the expected extraterrestrial neutrino signal, other sources can leave an event signature within the detector. Air showers, produced by the interaction of cosmic rays with the Earth’s atmosphere, generate so-called *atmospheric muons* and *atmospheric neutrinos*. These muons could penetrate the atmosphere and even several kilometers of sea water, finally entering the detector from above. As shown in Figure 4.5, down-going muons ( $\cos(\theta) > 0$ ) are the dominant part of detected events and exceed neutrino induced up-going muons by several orders of magnitude.

On the other hand, up-going muons ( $\cos(\theta) < 0$ ) can only be produced by neutrinos which travel in almost the same direction. Figure 4.6 displays the angular deviation between the direction of the neutrino and the muon. The major impact is caused by the neutrino-muon interaction (shown in white).

Most of the detected up-going muons originate from up-going atmospheric neutrinos, and this kind of interaction represents an irreducible background. In order to reduce background, neutrino telescopes are optimized for up-going muons, which means that they are “looking downwards” through the Earth. So if a neutrino telescope is located on the northern hemisphere, it is optimized to observe southern objects.

An extraterrestrial neutrino flux can only be detected at high energies, as for these energies the atmospheric neutrino flux is lower due to the steep energy spectrum of  $\frac{dN}{dE} \propto E^{-3.6}$  ([Carminati 2007](#)).

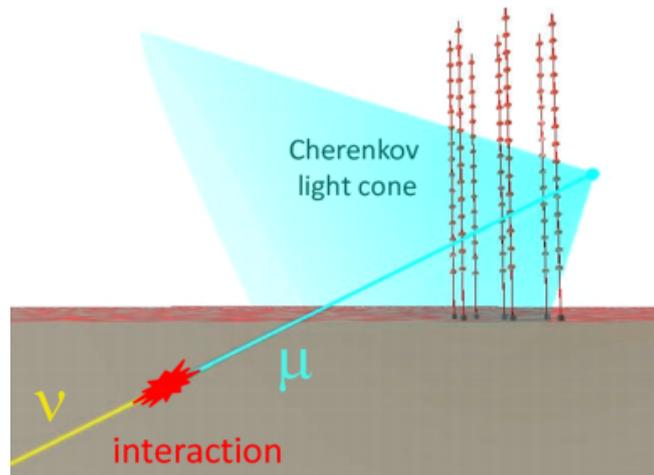


Figure 4.4: Detection principle of a high energetic neutrino. The incoming neutrino interacts with the material surrounding the detector and produces a muon. The muon emits Cherenkov light while traveling through sea water. The Cherenkov light ( $350 \text{ nm} < \lambda < 500 \text{ nm}$ ) is finally detected by an array of light sensors.

Credit: [Ageron et al. 2011](#)

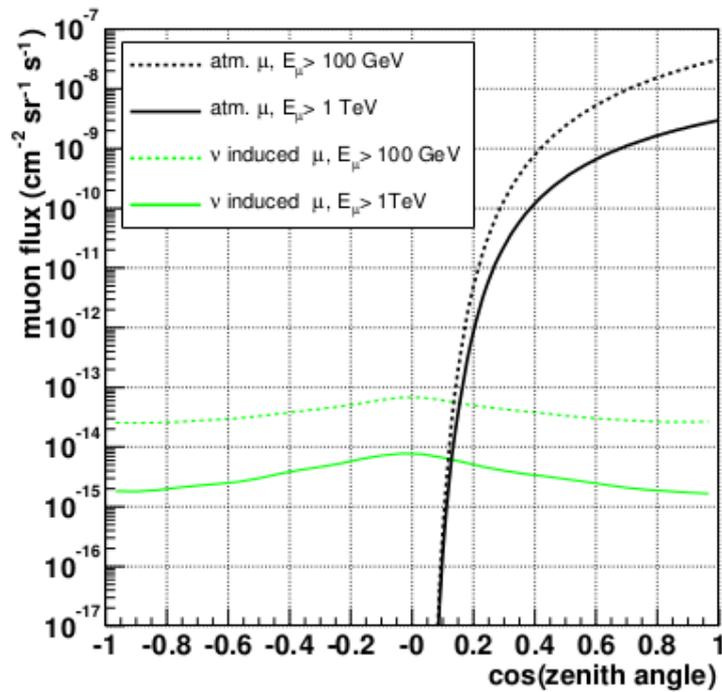


Figure 4.5: Muon background at 2.1 km depth indicated due to atmospheric muons and atmospheric neutrinos in two different energy ranges. While the neutrino indicated muon flux does not depend on the zenith angle, muons produced in the atmosphere can be rejected by choosing  $\cos(\theta) < 0$ .

Credit: [Okada 1994](#)

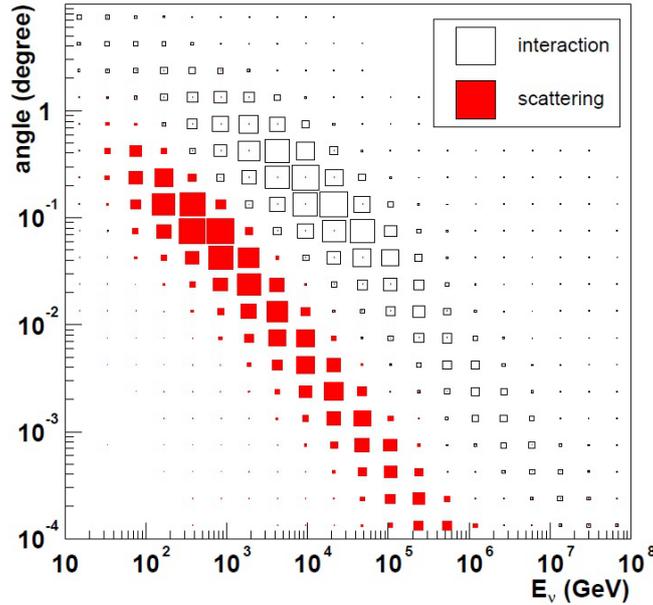


Figure 4.6: Angular deviation between the direction of the neutrino and the muon, depending on the neutrino energy. White: Deviation caused by the neutrino-muon interaction. Red: Deviation caused by multiple scattering off atomic nuclei.

Credit: [Heijboer 2004](#)

#### 4.2.2.2 Cherenkov radiation:

Cherenkov radiation is emitted whenever a highly energetic charged particle traverses a transparent medium with a velocity faster than the speed of light in the medium. In an atomic description, the charged particle causes a local disturbance at the surrounding atoms, which leads to an electric polarization of the medium. While the particle travels faster than the medium needs to elastically relax, this causes the medium to radiate a coherent shock wave. The Cherenkov radiation is emitted with a characteristic angle with respect to the track of the particle which reads:

$$\theta_C = \arccos\left(\frac{1}{\beta n}\right), \quad (4.10)$$

where  $\theta_C$  is the so called Cherenkov angle,  $\beta$  is the velocity of the particle with respect to the speed of light in vacuum  $c$  and  $n$  is the refractive index of the medium. If one assumes a high relativistic muon ( $\beta \approx 1$ ) traveling through sea water ( $n \approx 1.35$ ), the Cherenkov angle becomes:

$$\theta_C \approx 42.5^\circ. \quad (4.11)$$

The number of Cherenkov photons emitted at a specific wavelength  $\lambda$  is given by the Frank-Tamm formula:

$$\frac{d^2 N_\gamma}{dx d\lambda} = \frac{2\pi\alpha}{\lambda^2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\beta^2 n^2}\right), \quad (4.12)$$

where  $\alpha$  is the fine structure constant. This means that at characteristic wavelengths of  $300 \text{ nm} < \lambda < 600 \text{ nm}$ , about  $3 \times 10^4$  Cherenkov photons are emitted during 1 m of track.

While propagating to the OMs, the photons could either be absorbed or scattered. The number of photons at a given distance  $r$  from the track is:

$$N(r) = N_0 \cdot \frac{1}{r} \cdot e^{\frac{-r}{\lambda_{abs}}}, \quad (4.13)$$

where  $r = \frac{k}{\sin(\theta)}$  is the length of the photon path,

$\lambda_{abs}$  is the effective absorption length

$N_0$  the number of photons produced at the track, and

$k$  the wave vector of the photon.

The arrival time  $t$  at an optical module depends on the travel time of the muon, as well as the propagation time of the Cherenkov photon and is given as:

$$t = t_\mu + t_\gamma = \left[ t_0 + \frac{1}{v} \left( l - \frac{k}{\tan(\theta)} \right) \right] + \left[ \frac{1}{v_g} \left( \frac{k}{\sin(\theta)} \right) \right], \quad (4.14)$$

where  $t_0$  is the time till the generation of the muon,

$k$  the shortest distance between the muon track and the OM,

$l$  the distance on the muon track to the position  $k$ ,

$v$  the velocity of the muon, and

$v_g$  the group velocity of photons in water.

In order to enable a detection of Cherenkov photons in the OMs, the propagation path of the photons has to be shorter than the absorption length.

For more detailed information please refer to [Kremers et al. 2009](#), [Jackson 1998](#) and [Leo 1994](#).

### 4.2.3 The ANTARES detector

The ANTARES detector is located in the Mediterranean Sea about 42 km from Toulon in France at about 2.5 km below sea level. It consists of an three-dimensional array of 885 optical sensors, arranged on 12 vertical strings. Each string of about 480 m hosts 75 optical modules (OMs), which are grouped to 25 storeys equipped with three OMs. The spacing between storeys is 14.5 m, while the strings are separated by about 70 m. Therefore, the total sensitive volume is about 0.03 km<sup>3</sup>. An additional string, the instrumentation line (IL07), carries devices for environmental monitoring. The detector as displayed in Figure 4.7 was completed in May 2008. The strings are fixed to the sea floor with an anchor and kept tight using buoys at the top of each string. Electro-optical cables connect the strings at the seabed with a junction box, which provides the main cable to shore.

The main detection components are the optical modules, which are made of a 17-inch glass sphere, housing a 10-inch photomultiplier. Beside the photomultiplier, the glass sphere contains the electronics for the high-voltage power supply of the photomultiplier as well as an optical gel for the position stabilization of its components. The photomultiplier is surrounded by a mu-metal cage, which provides a shielding against the Earth's magnetic field of approximately 46  $\mu$ T. The photomultipliers provide an intrinsic timing resolution (transit time spread) of about  $\sigma_{TTS} = 1.3$  ns, thus a precise measurement of the Cherenkov photon arrival time is possible. In order to reject the background of down-going atmospheric muons or neutrinos, the OMs are oriented looking downwards at an angle of 45°. Figure 4.8 shows an artist's view of an ANTARES storey, and one of the OMs is highlighted as a photograph.

In order to provide track reconstruction precisions of about  $0.4^\circ$  for energies above 1 TeV, a reasonable detector calibration has to be done.

To calibrate for time delays caused by different optical path lengths between the OMs of each string, the relative time needed to reach different LCMs is measured. To take the high-voltage dependent transit time of the photomultiplier into account, flashing a Light Emitting Diode (LED) located inside the optical module is used for calibration.

For the time calibration of the whole detector, two more devices are employed. Each string contains four storeys, which are equipped with an additional optical beacon. These beacons can be used to emit a set of pulsed LED flashes, which illuminate a given number of OMs on the strings. For a more global flashing, a powerful pulsed laser is located at the seabed, which is able to illuminate a large part of the detector. A timing precision of 0.5 ns is achieved, which is compatible with the requirements.

The correlation between a measured hit in the photomultipliers and the corresponding time information is done via a time to voltage converter (TVC). By using time ranges of 25 ns, the TVC measures the arrival time of the photomultiplier signal within this time range with a precision of about 2 ns.

The amplitude of the signal is measured using the amplitude to voltage converter (AVC). Due to the low number of photons reaching the OMs during normal data tacking, the amplitude is expressed in units of photoelectrons (pe). After a threshold of 0.3 pe is reached, the AVC starts to integrate the signal for a time range of 25 ns. After this time range it takes 250 ns for the AVC to recover. In order to minimize downtime, two AVCs are installed.

One of the major problems for a precise positioning is the flexibility of the single lines. Their position and orientation is influenced by the sea current and therefore has to be monitored continuously. For that purpose, a compass and tiltmeter measuring the orientation of each storey is used. The relative orientation of the lines with respect to each other is measured via an acoustic detection system.

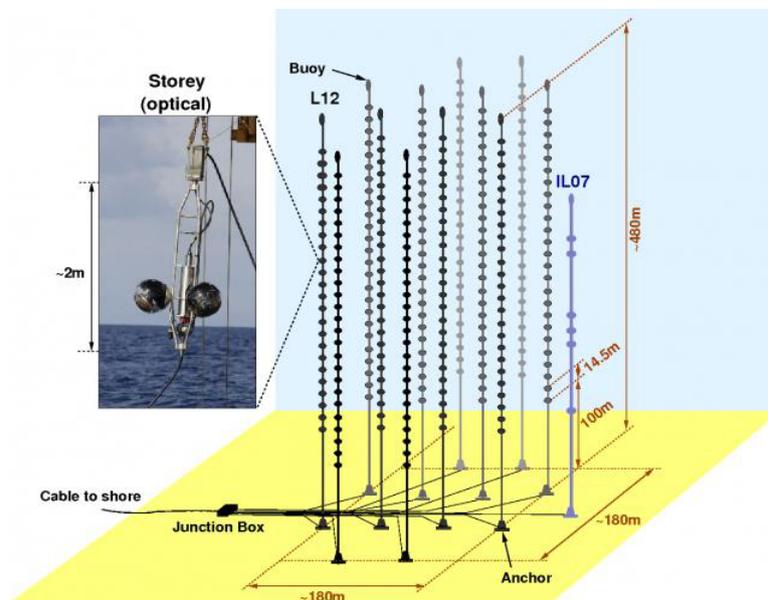


Figure 4.7: Schematic view of the ANTARES detector. Shown are the 12 strings which carry 25 detection storeys with 885 optical sensors in total, as well as the instrumentation line. An inset of a storey, carrying three optical modules is given as a photograph. Credit: [Katz & Spiering 2012](#)

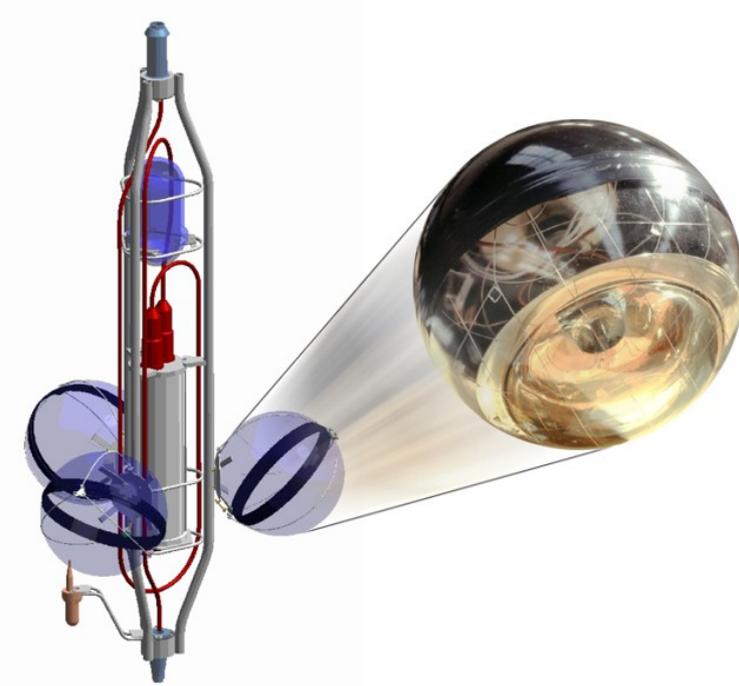


Figure 4.8: An artist's view of an ANTARES storey, hosting three optical modules shown as a photograph. Credit: [Folger 2014](#)

Hydrophones employed on five storeys per string measure the running times of acoustic pulses generated at transmitters on the sea floor. In addition, AMADEUS is used to study the feasibility of an acoustic neutrino detection. More detailed information can be found at [Ageron et al. 2011](#) or [Katz & Spiering 2012](#).

#### 4.2.4 Trigger algorithms

Due to the huge amount of detected hits sent to shore, trigger algorithms are necessary to identify potential physics events. In order to distinguish between hits caused by optical background (see Sect. 4.2.5), specific assumptions on physical hits have to be made. As optical background mostly causes hits from just one photon, a charge threshold of typically three pe has to be reached. The second assumption on physical hits is that they have to fulfill a time correlation, as they all have to occur in a time range of 20 ns on the same storey. Hits which fulfill at least one of the criteria are referred to as *level 1 (L1)* hits. Within these L1 hits, different trigger algorithms search for correlations.

##### 4.2.4.1 3N Trigger:

This kind of trigger is the standard muon trigger and can be used either in 3D or 1D. L1 hits are chosen that satisfy the causality criterion

$$|t_i - t_j| \leq \frac{|d_{ij}|}{c_{\text{water}}}, \quad (4.15)$$

where  $t_i$  and  $t_j$  are the arrival times of the hits  $i$  and  $j$ ,  $d_{ij}$  is the distance between the two hits and  $c_{\text{water}}$  is the speed of light in sea water. Only hits that are consistent with this criteria can be connected to a muon from a certain direction.

#### 4.2.4.2 2T3 Trigger:

This trigger searches for L1 hit coincidences in two adjacent storeys with a time window of 100 ns (*T2 trigger*), or in two next-to-adjacent storeys with a time window of 100 ns or 200 ns (*T3 trigger*).

#### 4.2.4.3 GC Trigger:

This direction dependent trigger searches for L1 hit coincidences from the direction of the galactic center, with an amplitude threshold of 0.3 pe.

Different triggers can be combined and used in parallel. A sub-sample of L1 hits that fulfill a specified trigger cluster is referred to as *L2* hits. Data loss is prevented by adding a time window of 2.2  $\mu$ s before the first and after the last trigger cluster hit that fulfilled the selected trigger. This time range corresponds to the time needed for a photon to traverse the complete detector. All hits within this time window are defined as one **event**.

Depending on the data taking conditions (i.e. current optical rates, run setup), the choice of the trigger setup varies. All triggered events during a given time period are saved in *runs*. The current data tacking policy prescribes to perform data tacking as long as possible, only limited by a maximum run length of 12 h or a maximum run size of 8 GB. Then, a new run starts. A more detailed discussion is available in [Ageron et al. 2011](#).

### 4.2.5 Background sources

As astrophysical neutrino events are rare, a detailed understanding of possible background sources is required. In the deep sea ANTARES experiment, there are two major types of background.

#### 4.2.5.1 Optical background

The decay of the radioactive isotope Potassium ( $^{40}\text{K}$ ) produces electrons with an energy of 1.3 MeV. As the neutrino detection threshold of the OMs is about 10 – 100 GeV, this decay causes a statistical noise of photo electrons with a rate of about 30 kHz ([deVries Uiterweerd 2007](#)). In addition, bioluminescent organisms, such as bacteria, plankton, or shrimps produce photons mostly for the purpose of communication or attracting prey. While the decay of  $^{40}\text{K}$  produces a steady background, bioluminescence can be highly variable. Figure 4.9 shows the baseline of optical rates for the whole detector in a time window of 4 years with a two week binning. A periodic increase in bioluminescence activity can be seen, mostly influenced by the annual fluctuations of biological population in the deep sea. Furthermore, the amount of generated photons by bioluminescent lifeforms is highly correlated with the sea current. This could indicate that bacteria tend to glow more in movement, or that an increase in nourishment transport leads to an increase in bacteria population. To account for different data taking conditions, data quality parameters have been defined (see Sect. 5.4).

#### 4.2.5.2 Atmospheric background

Secondary particles produced in interactions of cosmic rays in the Earth's atmosphere can reach the detector and leave a characteristic event signature. In an analysis focusing on  $\nu_\mu$  events, muons produced in the atmosphere (so called *atmospheric muons*) are the majority of triggered background events. While the instrumental volume is penetrated by neutrinos from all directions, atmospheric muons can only reach the detector from above (see Figure 4.5).

Therefore, a cut on the reconstructed zenith angle is used to reject most of the atmospheric muons. A small fraction of muons coming from above is mis-reconstructed as tracks coming from below and hence classified as physics events. A cut on the reconstructed energy of the muon (see Sect. 5.3) serves as parameter to get rid of this kind of background events.

Neutrinos produced in the atmosphere (so called *atmospheric neutrinos*) are able to cross the Earth and enter the detector volume from below, leaving a correctly reconstructed upgoing track. This kind of background again can only be reduced by applying a cut on the reconstructed energy.

For a more detailed discussion please see [deVries Uiterweerd 2007](#).

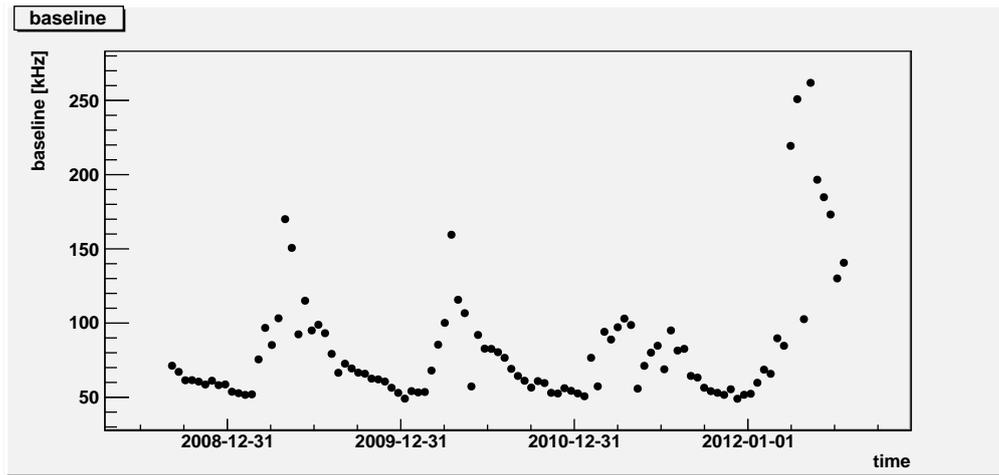


Figure 4.9: Baseline of optical rates in the deep sea. A periodic increase in bioluminescence activity can be seen, which is correlated to the biological population in the deep sea. The optical rate of one point is averaged over a time period of two weeks.

## 5 Simulation and Reconstruction

Due to highly variable background conditions in the deep sea (see Sect. 4.2.5) a detailed understanding of the underlying processes and the detector (see Sect. 4.2.3) has to be achieved. In this chapter, an overview of simulation and reconstruction methods used in this analysis will be given, together with a Data Monte Carlo comparison.

### 5.1 Run by Run Monte Carlo

The major purpose of the Run by Run Monte Carlo (rbrMC) is to model the expected data as accurately as possible. Due to highly variable background conditions in the deep sea, this kind of simulation is optimized on a per-run level in order to represent changing environmental conditions. The simulation is based on a chain of simulation steps like event generation, light propagation, detector response and event reconstruction. In the following, a summary of each individual step is given, while more detailed information can be found in Rivière 2012.

#### 5.1.1 Event generation using GENHEN

GENHEN (GENerator of High Energy Neutrinos) is the ANTARES software package to simulate neutrino interactions. It is the first stage in the chain of rbrMC generation. While GENHEN is generating interactions in a specific generation volume, its size strongly depends on the neutrino energy, as well as the flavour or interaction type.  $\nu_e$  and  $\nu_\mu$  events are generated using the LEPTO package (Ingelman et al. 1997), which provides a good accuracy of about 5% even for high energies. LEPTO, however is based on the deep inelastic scattering described in Sect. 4.2.1.

A neutrino event generated with GENHEN contains the trajectory of the neutrino itself, as well as all long-living secondary particles of the first generation. While neutrinos are generated following a power law energy spectrum, the used spectral index varies between  $\gamma = 1$  and  $\gamma = 2$  depending on the type of event. An event weighting procedure, however allows to re-weight the generated events to any kind of desired energy spectrum. Parameters included in the resulting weighting factor are the interaction cross sections and the transmission probability of neutrinos through the Earth. The generated flux of neutrinos  $\Phi_\nu$  per energy  $dE_\nu$ , steradian  $dS$  and time  $dt$  can be calculated according to:

$$\frac{d\Phi_\nu}{dE_\nu dS dt} = g_1 \cdot g_2 \cdot g_3, \quad (5.1)$$

where the factors on the right hand side of the equation are:

- $g_1$ : distribution of interacting neutrinos, which is directly dependent on the desired energy spectrum.
- $g_2$ : depends on the interaction cross section and target nucleon density.
- $g_3$ : depends on the inverse transmission probability through Earth.

Finally, the simulated flux has to be normalized with the desired flux defined in equation 5.1, resulting in the multiplication with to so called *generated weight*  $\omega_2$

$$\omega_2 = \left( \frac{d\Phi_\nu}{dE_\nu dS dt} \right)^{-1} \quad (5.2)$$

For the present analysis the desired flux is expected to follow an  $E^{-1}$  energy spectrum, within a range of  $10^2$  to  $10^8$  GeV.

### 5.1.2 Cherenkov light generation

The output of the GENHEN package (see Sect. 5.1.1) serves as input for the *KM3* program, which simulates the generation of Cherenkov photons from muon tracks using previously built photon tables. Afterwards, the propagation and hit generation at the OMs is simulated. All long-living particles are tracked, while the water properties (like density, pressure) are fixed for the experimental site.

Photon tables have to be used as simplification, as a detailed simulation of the Cherenkov photon generation and propagation for every single photon simply is impossible. The *KM3* script consists of three subprograms:

- GEN:  
The package GEN generates photon fields at various distances from the muon track.
- HIT:  
The package HIT transforms the photon fields generated by GEN into hit probability distributions and builds the photon tables.
- KM3MC: The package KM3MC is the end of this simulation chain. It uses the hit probability distributions generated by HIT, together with a geometrical description of the detector to simulate the detector response to the passage of high-energy muons.

At the end of this simulation chain, the detector response to Cherenkov photons, emitted on a high energetic muon track has been simulated. For more details about the *KM3* package please refer to [S. Navas 2011](#).

### 5.1.3 Trigger Efficiency

The final step of the simulation procedure is the generation of events from Cherenkov photons arriving at the OMs. This is done by the *Trigger Efficiency* program. This is the point where different run setups and environmental conditions are taken into account, as until now the same simulation was used for each run.

Variable environmental conditions are considered by simulating a random noise for each OM, which is correlated to the measured optical rates. By this method, not just fluctuations in the baseline are considered but also local bioluminescent bursts. Time and charge uncertainties of the photomultipliers have been implemented by a Gaussian smearing.

Finally, the same triggers are applied that already have been used during data taking. For more details about the Trigger Efficiency program please see [Jong 2009](#).

### 5.1.4 Monte Carlo file selection

After the production of the Run by Run Monte Carlo simulation the interesting parts for this analysis have to be selected. Table 2 lists the used parts of the rbrMC with their specific energy range. An extra low energy bin (named `_x_` for "extra") was added in rbrMC v2.2. Please notice that  $\nu_e$  and  $\bar{\nu}_e$  files are not considered for high energies. These files could be included in an extended analysis.

In addition the MUPAGE Monte Carlo file is excluded, which contains events from muons generated in the atmosphere (see [Carminati 2007](#)). The rejection of this fraction of events is reasonable, as the background rate was drawn from data (see Sect. 7.4). This would in the worst case lead to a lack of  $\nu_e$  events which are reconstructed as tracks, while these events only have a small contribution to the total signal.

interaction	file nomenclature	energy range
$\bar{\nu}_e$ charged current	<i>anue_x_CC</i>	4 GeV to 300 GeV
$\bar{\nu}_e$ neutral current	<i>anue_x_NC</i>	4 GeV to 300 GeV
$\bar{\nu}_\mu$ charged current	<i>anumu_a_CC</i>	5 GeV to $20 \cdot 10^3$ GeV
$\bar{\nu}_\mu$ charged current	<i>anumu_b_CC</i>	$20 \cdot 10^3$ GeV to $1 \cdot 10^8$ GeV
$\bar{\nu}_\mu$ neutral current	<i>anumu_x_NC</i>	4 GeV to 300 GeV
$\nu_e$ charged current	<i>nue_x_CC</i>	4 GeV to 300 GeV
$\nu_e$ neutral current	<i>nue_x_NC</i>	4 GeV to 300 GeV
$\nu_\mu$ charged current	<i>numu_a_CC</i>	5 GeV to $20 \cdot 10^3$ GeV
$\nu_\mu$ charged current	<i>numu_b_CC</i>	$20 \cdot 10^3$ GeV to $1 \cdot 10^8$ GeV
$\nu_\mu$ neutral current	<i>numu_x_NC</i>	4 GeV to 300 GeV

Table 2: used parts of the Run by Run Monte Carlo

## 5.2 Track reconstruction

In order to reconstruct the track of a muon, precise knowledge of the muon's position on its way through the detector is required. To measure the position of the muon on its trajectory, the arrival time  $t$  of Cherenkov photons at the OMs (see equation 4.14) is one of the major ingredients of an accurate track reconstruction. The aim of this kind of algorithm is to reconstruct as many events as possible, while the fraction of misreconstructed down-going atmospheric muons as up-going tracks should be suppressed. Many different track reconstruction strategies have been developed within ANTARES. The most common algorithms are:

*Bbfit*, developed by Jürgen Brunner, provides a fast reconstruction and good performance together with *Gridfit*, developed by Erwin Visser for the low energy regime. While this analysis focuses on high energetic track-like events, the algorithm *Aafit*, developed by Aart Heijboer (Heijboer 2004) is used and will be described in more detail.

*Aafit* is made of six steps:

### 1. Pre-selection of OM hits

In order to ensure a significant background rejection, a rough pre-selection of OM hits is performed. While the hit with the largest amplitude is always assumed to be caused by a signal event, only hits are selected that fulfill

$$|\Delta t| \leq \frac{d}{v_g} + 100 \text{ ns} \quad (5.3)$$

to make sure all hits are produced by the same event. Here  $\Delta t$  is the time difference between a hit and the hit with the largest amplitude,  $v_g$  represents the group velocity of Cherenkov photons in water and  $d$  the distance between two hits.

### 2. Linear prefit

In this step a linear fit through the positions of the hits is assumed, where each hit occurs as point that is located on the muon track. This is expected to be a reasonable approximation under the assumption, that the length of the muon track in the detector is much larger than the attenuation length of the Cherenkov photons. This leads to the relation:

$$\vec{y} = \hat{H} \vec{\Theta} \quad (5.4)$$

where  $\vec{y}$  is a vector containing the hit positions and  $\vec{\Theta}$  a vector of track parameters. Both vectors are related by the matrix  $\hat{H}$ , containing the only independent variables, the hit times.

### 3. M-estimator fit

A M-estimator is an algorithm that maximizes a likelihood function. Based on the output of the linear prefit, this algorithm is stable against fluctuations in the exact starting point of the fit. By a set of hit quality assumptions, a reasonable track reconstruction can be achieved, using:

$$G = \sum_i \kappa \left( -2\sqrt{1 + A_i \frac{r_i^2}{2}} \right) - (1 - \kappa) f_{ang}(a_i) \quad (5.5)$$

where  $\kappa = 0.05$  is an optimized parameter using Monte Carlo,  $A_i$  the amplitude of the hit and  $f_{ang}(a_i)$  an angular response function of the OM.

### 4. Maximum likelihood fit

For each possible set of track parameters, the probability to obtain the observed hits can be calculated. This probability is called the likelihood of the event. In case of uncorrelated hits, this likelihood can be written as:

$$P(\text{event}|\text{track}) = \prod_i P(t_i|t_i^{th}, a_i, b_i, A_i) \quad (5.6)$$

where  $t_i$  is the time of hit  $i$  and  $t_i^{th}$  the expected arrival time of the hit  $i$ . The parameters  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  stand for  $a_i = \cos(\alpha_i)$  where  $\alpha_i$  represents the incidence angle on the OM and  $b_i$  the expected photon path length.

The fit, which is assumed to be the true one is defined by a set of track parameters for which the likelihood function is maximal.

### 5. Repetition of steps 3 and 4 with different starting points

To improve the performance of the track fitting, steps 3 and 4 are repeated with different starting points. The best result is obtained by taking the fit with the best likelihood per degree of freedom.

### 6. Maximum likelihood fit with improved PDF

As background hits can degrade the performance of the track reconstruction a last maximum likelihood fit is performed. This time a more complex likelihood function (compared to equation 5.6) is used, also taking background hits into account.

Even with an optimized track reconstruction algorithm there is still a significant fraction of misreconstructed atmospheric muons. In order to get rid of these events, fit quality parameters have to be introduced (see [Ageron et al. 2012](#)):

- **track fit quality parameter  $\lambda$**

The quality parameter  $\lambda$  can be used to reject badly reconstructed events like atmospheric muons and is defined as:

$$\lambda = \frac{\log(L)}{N_{hits} - 5} \times 0.1 \times (N_{comp} - 1) \quad (5.7)$$

with the maximum value of the likelihood  $L$  and the number of degrees of freedom of the fit (e.g. the number of hits  $N_{hits}$ ) minus the number of fit parameters.  $N_{comp}$  stands for the number of iterations of prefits from the second step.

- **angular uncertainty parameter  $\beta$**

The angular uncertainty parameter  $\beta$  is used to estimate the directional uncertainty from the error matrix of the fit.  $\beta$  is defined as:

$$\beta = \sqrt{\sin(\vartheta)^2 \cdot \sigma_\varphi^2 + \sigma_\vartheta^2} \quad (5.8)$$

and incorporates the fitted zenith angle  $\vartheta$ , as well as the zenith and azimuth errors  $\sigma_\vartheta$  and  $\sigma_\varphi$ .

For more details about track reconstruction please refer to (Heijboer, 2004; Ageron et al., 2012).

### 5.3 Energy reconstruction

As the muon loses energy on its path through the detector (see Sect. 3.2), energy reconstruction is more challenging compared to track reconstruction. With increasing energy of the muon, the amount of radiated emission (due to pair production or bremsstrahlung) increases. This energy dependent deposition within the detector can be used to estimate the original energy of the muon. Due to the small size of the ANTARES detector (see Sect. 4.2.3) compared to the muon track length no clear correlation between deposited energy within the detector and muon-energy can be seen, a priori.

The energy estimator developed by Jutta Schnabel (Schnabel 2010) uses an Artificial Neuronal Network (ANN) to estimate the muon energy based on the chosen observables. The simplest ANN consists of a set of input and output nodes, as well as several hidden layers of nodes (see Figure 5.1). All nodes of adjacent layers are connected with each other. The output is calculated according to:

$$z_j = g \left( \sum_i \omega_{ij} x_i \right), \quad (5.9)$$

where  $x_i$  is the input of the  $i$ th node,  $\omega_{ij}$  the connection weight between node  $i$  and  $j$  and  $g$  an activation function, which describes the reaction of node  $j$ . The parameter  $z_j$  represents the current state of the node  $j$  in the hidden layer.

Just like every neural network, the ANN introduced here must be trained. For this purpose training sets, as well as validation sets are created. The information content in the training sets should be disjoint, but still contain the maximum amount of information. During the training process each training set is inserted into the ANN, while the output is compared with the expected values. While in the beginning the connection weights  $\omega_{ij}$  are chosen randomly, they will be set recursively during the training process starting from the output layer. The aim of the training process is to minimize the mean square error (MSE):

$$\text{MSE} = \frac{1}{N_{\text{sample}}} \sum_{k=1}^{N_{\text{sample}}} \left( y_k^{\text{ANN}} - y_k^{\text{sample}} \right)^2 \quad (5.10)$$

As in this analysis the energy reconstruction is applied after the track reconstruction, parameters related to the muon track are taken into account for the energy reconstruction as well. Such parameters are:

- triggered hits / triggered OMs
- track length, track zenith, mean charge of a hit

Using this Artificial Neuronal Network, the energy estimator  $ANN_{\text{energy}}$  is created. As this estimator has a good resolution for high energies, it is obvious to use it within this analysis. In the following, the energy reconstructed using  $ANN_{\text{energy}}$  will be labeled as  $an_{\text{energy}}$ . Appendix B proofs the reasonable output achieved by the use of  $ANN_{\text{energy}}$ .

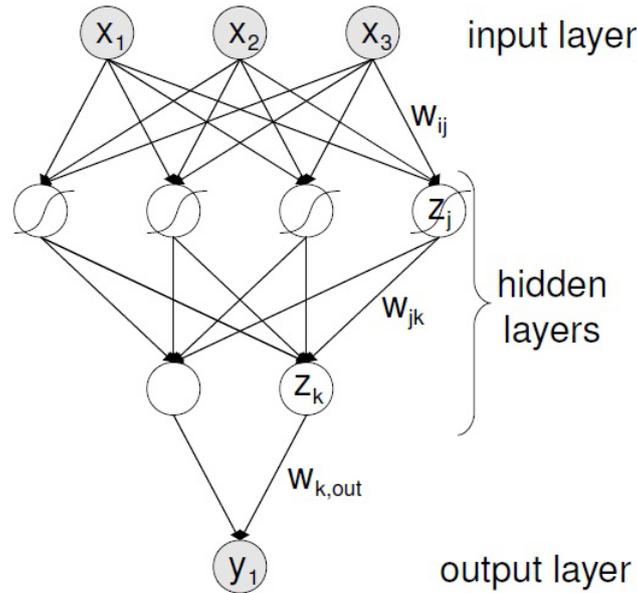


Figure 5.1: Schematic view of an Artificial Neuronal Network (ANN). Nodes in the input layer  $x_i$  are connected via connection weights  $\omega_{ij}$  with nodes in the output layer  $y_j$ . Several layers of hidden nodes are located between the input and output layer. The state of the hidden nodes is set by equation 5.9.

Credit: [Schnabel 2010](#)

## 5.4 Data quality and run selection

A significant part of the detected data does not have an extragalactic or even atmospheric origin, but is caused by bioluminescent organisms in the deep sea (see Sect. 4.2.5). As the concept of Run by Run Monte Carlo simulations tries to model the highly variable background in an acceptable way, the question arises of how stable this reconstruction can be performed with different environmental conditions.

To answer this question, several checks have been introduced in order to select only runs with a reasonable amount of expected physical data. Selection criteria are for example:

- A reasonable data quality (see Sect. 5.4.1)
- A favorable coverage in the data Monte Carlo comparison (see Sect. 5.5)
- No technical problems or detector outages during data taking periods

### 5.4.1 The data quality parameter

The data quality parameter *QualityBasic* ( $QB$ ) is introduced to have a compact flag of a joint number of data taking condition parameters. The  $QB$  is defined as a ranking parameter between 0 (worst conditions) and 4 (best conditions). Table 3 summarizes some environmental conditions, which are characteristic for a given  $QB$  value. While the *Baseline* represents the mean optical rate without bursts, the *Burst fraction* accounts for the amount of time during a run the rates were dominated by bursts.

However, while the  $QB$  values  $QB > 0$  really represent the environmental data taking conditions,  $QB = 0$  mainly is used to label runs that have been taken during technical problems with the detector. Therefore it is suggested to exclude these runs for any physical analysis.

QB value	Data taking condition
0	Run during $< 1000$ s, technical problems during data taking periods. It is suggested to exclude these runs for any physical analysis.
1	Baseline $> 120$ kHz, Burst fraction $> 40\%$ , less than 80% of all OMs are operating
2	Baseline $> 120$ kHz, Burst fraction $> 40\%$ , more than 80% of all OMs are operating
3	Baseline $\leq 120$ kHz, $20\% < \text{Burst fraction} \leq 40\%$ , more than 80% of all OMs are operating
4	Baseline $\leq 120$ kHz, Burst fraction $\leq 20\%$ , more than 80% of all OMs are operating

Table 3: Run classification based on the QualityBasic parameter. See: [The ANTARES QB working group](#).

### 5.4.2 Run selection

In order to select only runs, which are expected to contain a significant amount of physical data, a run selection is performed. The following types of runs have been rejected from the final run selection.

#### 5.4.2.1 Sparking runs:

Runs which are known to contain a significant number of sparking events are excluded from the final run selection. Sparking events are events for which the vertex position has been fitted close to the position of an OM. The high voltage of the photomultipliers sometimes causes a bright flash inside the OM. Instead of detecting desired Cherenkov photons, the OM itself acts as a point source. While these events are quite rare, they have not been modeled in the Run by Run Monte Carlo. Table 4 lists all known sparking runs within this analysis.

#### Run numbers of sparking runs:

30658 31309 33608 33610 34663 34665 35467 36600 36666 36670 36689 38347 38348 38349  
38351 38352 38353 38355 38357 38482 39192 41668 41671 42507 42509 42511 42513 42746  
42915 42919 43196 43202 43206 43210 43215 43684 43996 44030 44035 44070 45242 46980  
51036 53508 53851 54512 64452 64457 66037 66039 66042 66046 66049 66053 65532 52675  
55259 56457 63718

Table 4: List of sparking runs

#### 5.4.2.2 Run setup and QB value:

As already mentioned in Sect. 5.4, QB = 0 runs show technical problems during data taking periods. Therefore, these runs are excluded from the final list. In addition, runs which have been taken with a preliminary or test detector configuration are excluded for data quality reasons. Such configurations are:

- *PRELIM* runs:  
These runs are labeled as preliminary and have been taken after some (not confirmed) tests on the run setup.
- *SCAN* runs:  
These runs are taken during the optimization processes of a new setup.

Finally, the definite run selection is expected to contain only reasonable runs. Appendix G shows the total list of selected runs.

## 5.5 Data Monte Carlo comparison

As the sensitivity plots calculated in Sect. 7.7 sometimes show a discrepancy between the self generated Monte Carlo and the Run by Run Monte Carlo simulation, the accuracy of the Run by Run MC will be studied in more detail.

This however, is done for the final run selection described in Sect. 5.4. In order to do so, a fixed parameter for the comparison has to be defined. Figure 5.2 displays the reconstructed zenith angle using Aafit (see Sect. 5.2). Events shown in the graph are:

- **Gray:**  
Data events, which have been reconstructed.
- **Black:**  
Triggered data. See Sect. 4.2.4 for more details about the ANTARES triggers.
- **Yellow:**  
Atmospheric events. These are atmospheric muon events, generated with the MUPAGE Monte Carlo event generator, which are assumed to follow a  $\frac{dN}{dE} \propto E^{-3.6}$  energy spectrum (Carminati 2007). Therefore mostly low energetic atmospheric muons are detected.
- **Blue:**  
High energetic muon events, generated from neutrinos that have undergone a charged-current interaction. These events are produced by the GENHEN Monte Carlo event generator.
- **Green:**  
High energetic shower events, generated by the interaction of a high energetic neutrino and an electron. These events are produced by the GENHEN Monte Carlo event generator.
- **Red:**  
Sum of Monte Carlo events, consisting of atmospheric events, as well as high energetic muons and showers generated by GENHEN.

The bottom part of Figure 5.2 shows the ratio of **triggered data** over **total Monte Carlo**. While the ratio is fluctuating around unity, the Monte Carlo models the data in a precise way. The huge discrepancy right after  $160^\circ$  can be explained by a loss of statistics in the triggered data.

A detailed data Monte Carlo comparison for most of the selected sources can be found in Appendix F. A data Monte Carlo comparison is performed whenever high optical rates during flaring periods are known. The changing amount of statistics between different sources is caused by a different number of selected time intervals from the different light-curves (see Sect. 6). In addition, a data Monte Carlo comparison has been performed for PKS 2204-540

which shows favorable data taking conditions during flaring periods (see Figure 5.2). Sources for which no detailed data Monte Carlo comparison is performed show reasonable data quality (see Sect. 5.4) and are expected to be in good agreement with simulations. For more details about the Run by Run Monte Carlo generation please refer to Sect. 5.1.

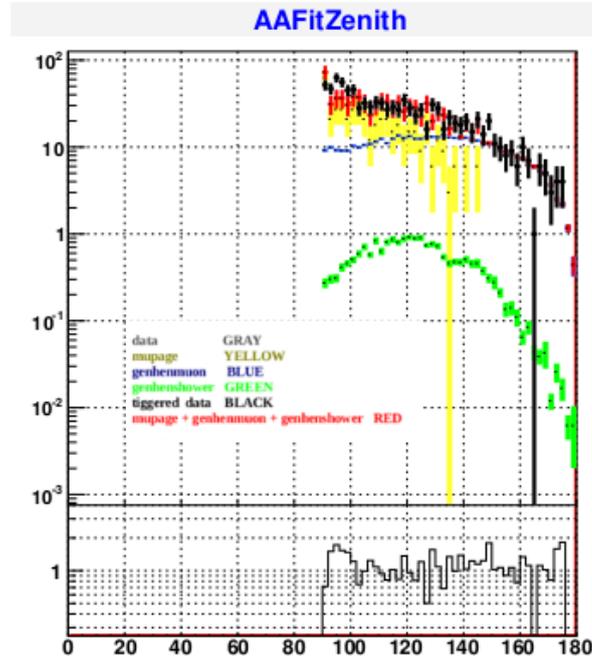


Figure 5.2: Data Monte Carlo comparison for the reconstructed zenith angle using Aafit of runs chosen for PKS 2204-540.

Top: Black shows the triggered data, while red labels the sum of all contributions considered by MC simulations. Different MC events are included in the graph: yellow represents atmospheric mupage events, muons (generated by the event generator GENHEN) are shown in blue and shower events are labeled in green.

Bottom: Comparison of triggered data (black) and sum of total MC (red). As the ratio is fluctuating around unity, the MC models the data in a precise way. Please note that the huge discrepancy right after  $160^\circ$  is caused through a loss of statistics in the triggered data.

## 6 Source sample

TANAMI has been monitoring more than 90 AGN since 2007 of which most are blazars. Many of these sources show highly variable  $\gamma$ -ray emission that is observed by *Fermi*. If proton acceleration takes place in AGN jets, then  $\gamma$ -ray photons and neutrinos are generated at the same time [Mannheim 1993](#). Fig. 6.1 displays the reasonable correlation between observations with TANAMI and ANTARES. Sources of the TANAMI sample are shown as black circles. Red stars represent sources chosen for this analysis, and blue stars are sources selected by [Fehn 2015](#). The color code labels the visibility for ANTARES, while unity represents the best visibility. All TANAMI sources lie in the field where ANTARES is most sensitive.

The source selection is based on the selection of sources which show bright short flares, e.g.

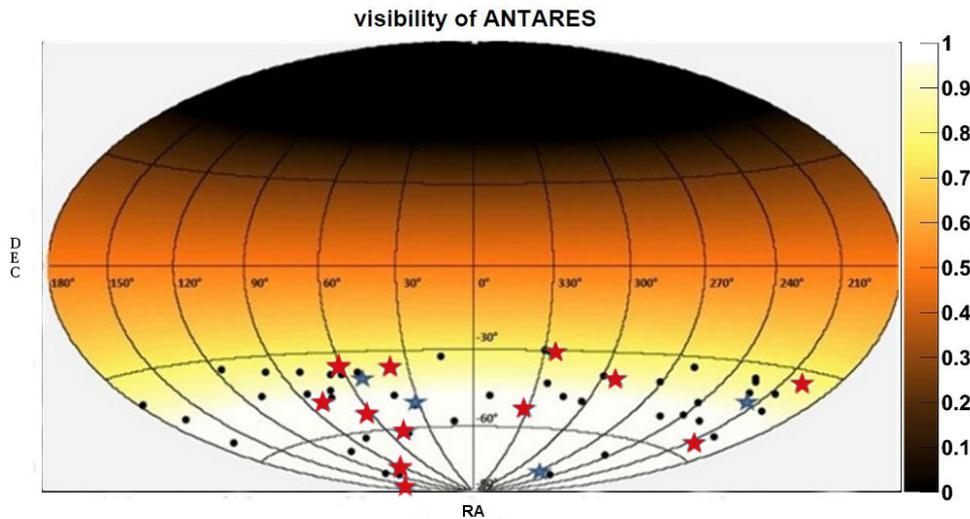


Figure 6.1: Visibility of ANTARES in equatorial coordinates. Black dots show TANAMI sources, red stars selected sources. Blue stars represent sources additional chosen by [Fehn 2015](#).

on the order of 14 days (resulting from the two week binning of the light-curves). This is done to improve the sensitivity, as a compromise between low statistics and an effective background rejection had to be found. In more detail, the selection is done according to the following method which has been developed by [Fehn 2015](#) and [Müller 2014](#):

1. Take the maximum flux  $F_{\max}$  that the source reaches during a flare.
2. Calculate the mean flux  $F_{\text{mean}}$  over the whole time period.
3. Choose only sources that satisfy  $\frac{F_{\max}}{F_{\text{mean}}} > 5$ .
4. Count the number  $n$  of bins where the flux  $F > F_{\text{mean}} + 3\sigma$ .
5. Calculate the weighting factor  $w = \frac{F_{\max}}{F_{\text{mean}}} \cdot \frac{1}{n}$ .

The selection criteria are based on a relative increase of the source activity. In this context, the chosen threshold of  $\frac{F_{\max}}{F_{\text{mean}}} > 5$  is treated as a parameter that has been optimized. The optimization is done in order to suppress sources that show highly variable faint  $\gamma$ -ray emission. This selection minimizes the number of relevant flaring intervals and therefore reduces the amount of irreducible background.

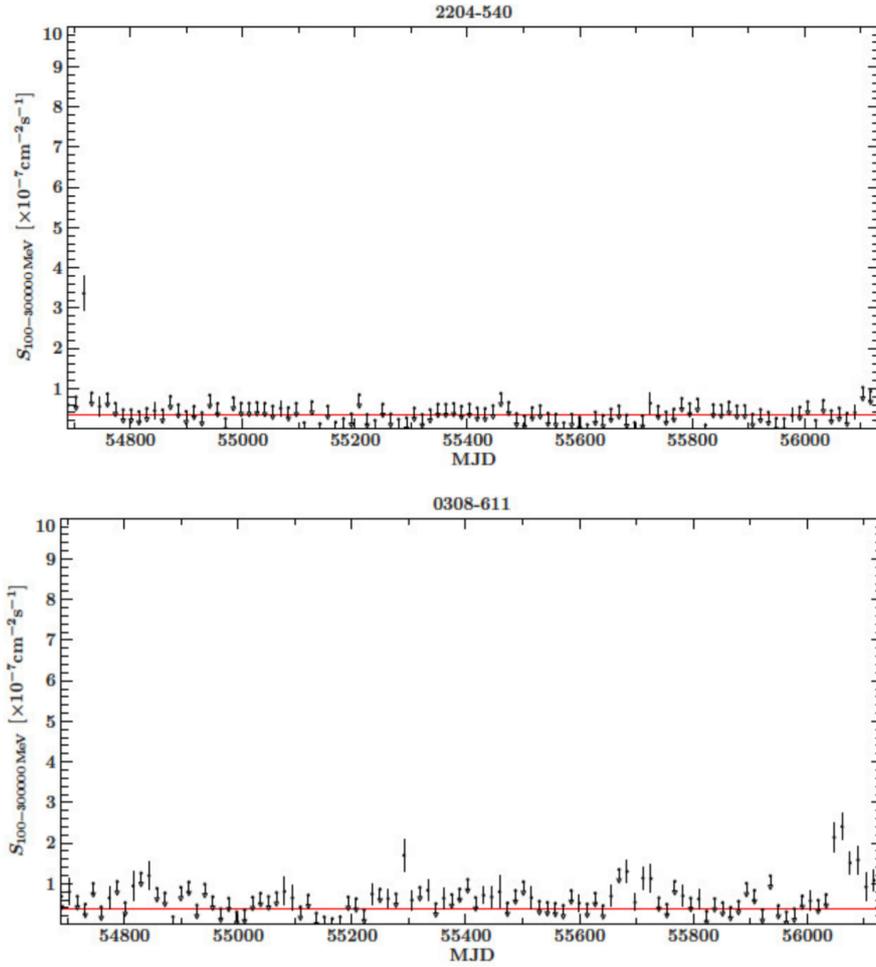


Figure 6.2: Light-curves of PKS 2204-540 and PKS 0308-611 in the energy range 100 MeV – 300 GeV.

Fig. 6.2 shows a comparison of PKS 2204-540, which is the best ranked source (according to crit. 5.) and PKS 0308-611.

While PKS 2204-540 has just one bright sharp flare at the beginning of the light-curve, PKS 0308-611 shows various faint flares over the entire time range. The normalized height of the light-curve is used as part of the likelihood. Therefore, a relative increase in the source activity leads to a gain in sensitivity. Figure 6.3 shows the resulting source ranking (according to point 5), and Appendix A lists a summary of all 12 sources used in this analysis sorted by their ranking factor.

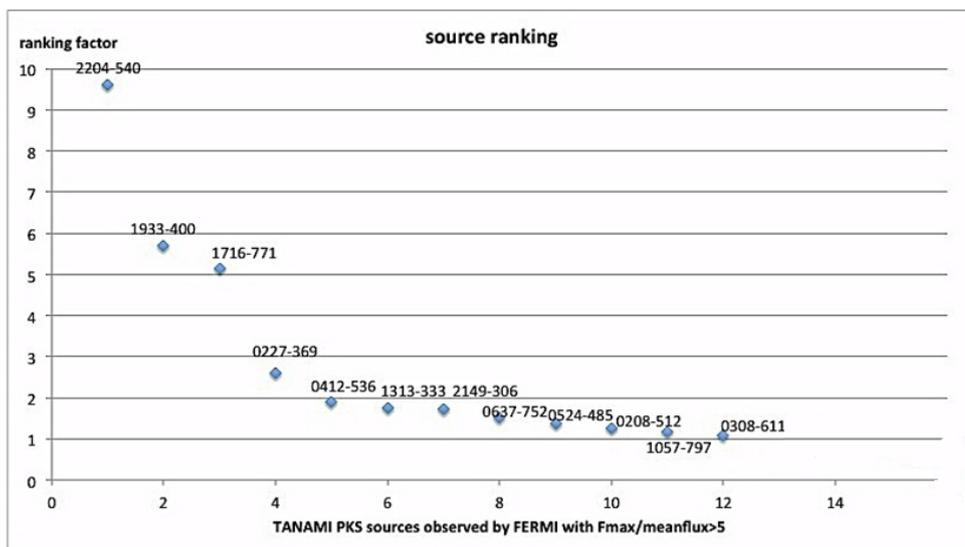


Figure 6.3: source ranking

## 7 Unbinned Maximum Likelihood Method

In Neutrino Astronomy it is not clear whether a detected neutrino event has been generated by an extraterrestrial source or in the atmosphere. To distinguish signal events from background events, assumptions on the special properties of signal events have to be made. For each event one can observe the reconstructed angle, reconstructed energy and the arrival time in the detector. The most obvious assumption on signal events in a point source analysis is that they point back to their origin. In regard to the reconstructed energy, one expects that the energy spectrum differs for signal events and background events produced in the atmosphere. A model independent approach is used, only assuming that neutrinos and  $\gamma$ -ray photons are produced simultaneously in an AGN-jet. *Fermi*  $\gamma$ -ray light-curves are used to correlate time information of detected neutrino events with associated  $\gamma$ -ray photons.

For a total number of  $N$  detected events, the contribution  $n_s$  of signal events is not known. Therefore, an unbinned maximum likelihood method is applied:

$$L(n_s) = \prod_{i=1}^N \left[ \frac{n_s}{N} S_i + \left(1 - \frac{n_s}{N}\right) B_i \right] \quad (7.1)$$

where:

$n_s$  is the unknown contribution of signal events,

$N$  is the number of events,

$S_i$  is the signal probability density, and

$B_i$  is the background probability density.

Then, this likelihood function is maximized with respect to  $n_s$ , as a higher likelihood value corresponds to a more signal-like observation.

Here,  $\frac{n_s}{N}$  is the fraction of signal events, and  $\left(1 - \frac{n_s}{N}\right)$  the fraction of background events.

The signal and background probability densities are calculated as follows:

$$S_i = N_i(\alpha) \times T_i(t) \times E_i^s \quad (7.2)$$

and

$$B_i = \frac{1}{5^2 \cdot \pi \cdot 0.1 \cdot 102} \times \frac{n}{\bar{n}} \times E_i^b \quad (7.3)$$

$N_i(\alpha)$  is the probability function for the angle to the source,  $T_i(t)$  the probability function for the time, and  $E_i$  for the energy (for either background or signal). The first factor in  $B_i$  is a normalization factor with  $5^2$  for a search-cone of  $5^\circ$  with a binwidth of  $0.1^\circ$  and 102 as the number of time bins. The term  $\frac{n}{\bar{n}}$  represents the time dependency of the background with  $n$  number of events in a specific time period and  $\bar{n}$ , the mean number of events.

In the following, the individual parts of the likelihood will be described in more detail.

### 7.1 Angle term

As the signal is expected to originate from the source, a  $5^\circ$  search-cone around the source position is defined. In the signal case, the events are generated using Run by Run Monte Carlo version 2.2.1 (see Sect. 5.1). In the next step, these events are reconstructed with Aafit (see Sect. 5.2) for various cuts of the quality parameter  $\lambda$ . The second quality parameter  $\beta$  has only a small effect. Therefore, the cut is fixed to  $\beta_{cut} = 1$  (see Table 5 and Sect. 5.4). Afterwards, the position of each event has to be transferred from local coordinates to equatorial coordinates. Finally, the angle between a given event and the source position in the center of the cone is calculated according to (Fehn 2015):

$$\alpha = \arccos \left( \frac{\cos(d) \cdot \cos(a) \cdot \cos(d_s) \cdot \cos(a_s) + \cos(d) \cdot \sin(a) \cdot \cos(d_s) \cdot \sin(a_s) + \sin(d) \cdot \sin(d_s)}{\sqrt{(\cos(d) \cdot \cos(a))^2 + (\cos(d) \cdot \sin(a))^2 + (\sin(d))^2} \cdot \sqrt{(\cos(d_s) \cdot \cos(a_s))^2 + (\cos(d_s) \cdot \sin(a_s))^2 + (\sin(d_s))^2}} \right) \quad (7.4)$$

with:

$\alpha$  as the angular distance to the source,

$d$  as the declination of the reconstructed origin of the event,

$d_s$  as the declination of the source,

$a$  as the right ascension of the reconstructed origin of the event, and

$a_s$  as the right ascension of the source.

All events passing the cuts are filled in an angle histogram between  $0^\circ$  and  $5^\circ$  with a binwidth of  $0.1^\circ$ . This histogram is normalized according to its area and can be seen in Fig. 7.1. The normalized histogram serves as probability density part  $N_i(\alpha)$  of the likelihood (see equation 7.1) in the case of a signal event. In case of a background event, the angle is chosen

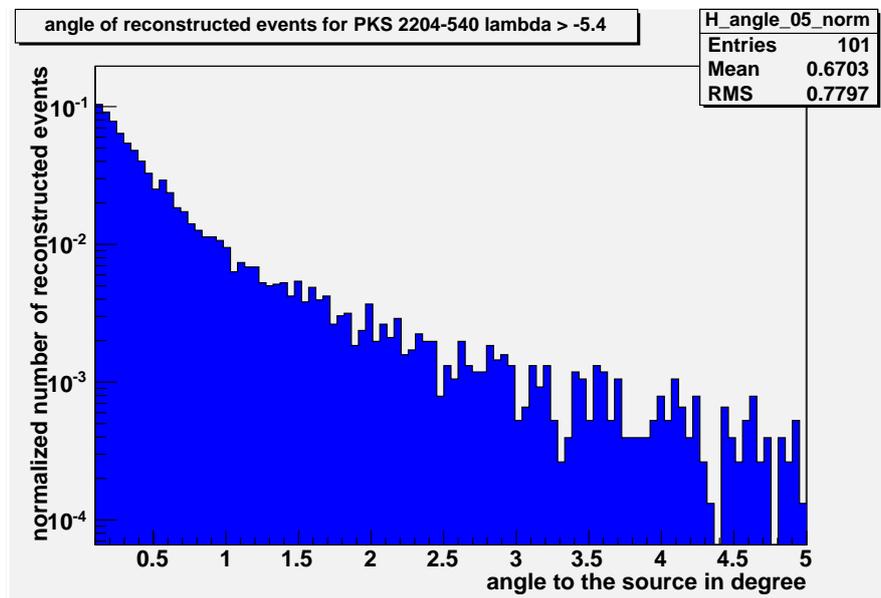


Figure 7.1: Normalized histogram of reconstructed angles for PKS 2204-540 for  $\lambda > -5.4$ .

from an uniform distribution according to  $\sin(\alpha)$  because of the outwardly increasing area on the cone.

## 7.2 Energy term

Theoretical models (Mannheim et al., 2001; Mücke et al., 2003) predict a flat neutrino energy spectrum for AGN. According to these models, AGN are assumed to follow a  $\frac{dN}{dE} \propto E^{-1}$  spectrum. An energy range of  $10^2 \text{ GeV}$  to  $10^8 \text{ GeV}$  is used for this analysis. In case of a signal event, the reconstructed energy of the track-like event is chosen for the same event as in the angle term. As this analysis restricts on track-like events, only muons are selected. For energy reconstruction ANNergy is used (see Sect. 5.3), as it provides a good resolution for high energies above  $10^3 \text{ GeV}$  (see Figure B.3 in Appendix B).

$\beta_{cut}$	number of reconstructed events from rbrMC
0.5	7830
0.8	7885
<b>1.0</b>	<b>7866</b>
1.2	7871
1.5	7847

Table 5: Optimization of the angular uncertainty parameter  $\beta$  for PKS 2204-540 for  $\lambda > -5.4$ . As the variation of the  $\beta$  cut has only a negligible effect on the number of reconstructed events, the cut is fixed to  $\beta_{cut} = 1$ .

In order to correct for the assumed neutrino flux, every event has to be reweighted according to:

$$w_{\text{astro}} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{4\pi} \cdot 10^{-7} \cdot 10^4 \cdot w_2 \cdot E^{-1} \cdot \frac{1}{N_{\text{events}}} \cdot F_{\text{year}} \quad (7.5)$$

Here,  $\frac{1}{2}$  and  $\frac{1}{4\pi}$  are the normalizations for the occurrence of neutrinos and antineutrinos and the solid angle implementation in the Monte Carlo. The term  $w_2 \cdot E^{-1}$  is the global weight  $w_3$  and  $10^{-7}$  is the normalization constant for a flux of  $10^{-7} \frac{\text{GeV}}{\text{cm}^2\text{s}}$ . The factor  $10^4$  is important to convert meter in cm. Finally,  $N_{\text{events}}$  is the normalization for a given number of reconstructed events from the MC, and  $F_{\text{year}} = \frac{T_{\text{run}}}{T_{\text{year}}}$  stands for the fraction of seconds a run takes during the year. After reweighting, these energies are filled in a histogram with  $0.1 \log_{10}$  GeV bin width whose normalized height serves as  $E_i^s$  part of the likelihood.

To investigate the effect, the ANNergy energy estimator has on the muon energies, Fig. 7.2 shows a histogram of reconstructed energies using ANNergy versus the energy of the incoming muon. A correlation between the muon energy and the reconstructed annergy can be seen. For background events the energy distribution is built up according to the energy distribution of data following a  $\frac{dN}{dE} \propto E^{-3.6}$  energy spectrum of atmospheric muons (Carminati 2007). This is done in order to have a reasonable background approximation. After reconstruction, these events are filled in a similar histogram as signal events. The normalized height of these histogram serves as  $E_i^b$  part of the likelihood. Appendix B shows a list of energy distributions. Figure B.1 and Figure B.2 provide a crosscheck of the correct simulation of muon events in the Monte Carlo.

### 7.3 Time term

The time dependent approach is the main intention of this analysis. While this analysis is independent from any neutrino production model, the only assumption that is taken into account is a simultaneous production of photons and neutrinos. Therefore, *Fermi*  $\gamma$ -ray light-curves with a fortnight binning are used to select flaring periods. A fortnight binning of the light-curves is used, in order to maximize the number of bins for which a flux and not just an upper limit can be derived. The main purpose of this kind of selection is to minimize the contributing time periods and thus reduce the amount of background significantly.

Figure 7.3 shows a typical light-curve of PKS 1933-400 where the used time period from 01-Sep-2008 to 30-Jul-2012 is split up into 102 fortnights. Light-curves for the whole source sample can be found in the Appendix C.

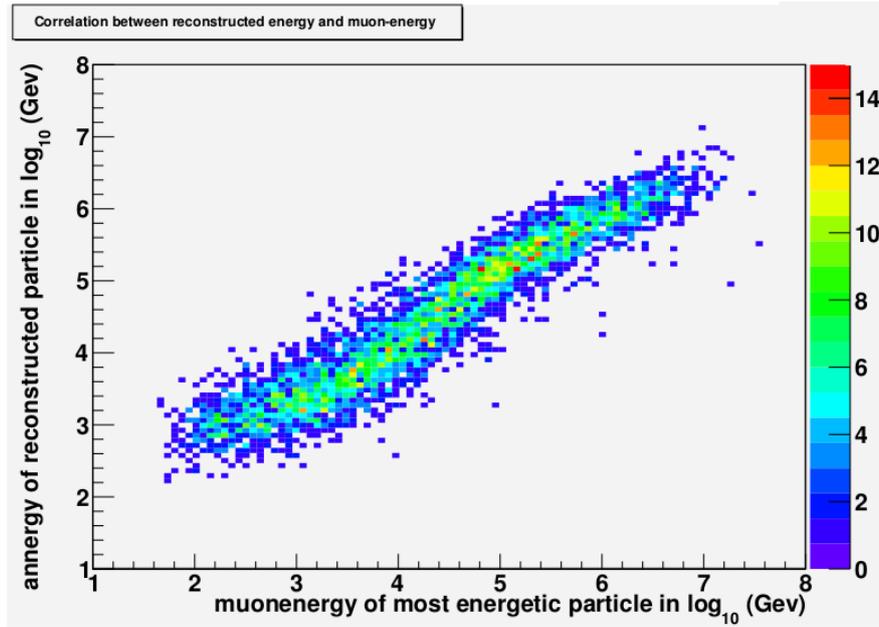


Figure 7.2: Histogram of reconstructed energies for PKS 2204-540 for  $\lambda > -5.4$ . A correction between the muon-energy (x-axes) and the anergy of the muon (y-axes) can be seen. For the muon-energy only the most energetic particle is used, as it carries almost the complete energy of the neutrino. The huge spreading is caused by ionization.

As photons and neutrinos are assumed to be generated simultaneously in the signal case, time intervals are chosen from the cumulative distribution function of the relevant light-curve, and used as  $T_i(t)$  part of the likelihood. Figure 7.4 shows the selected light-curve fortnights for PKS 1933-400. A fortnight is chosen, whenever the light-curve provides a flux and not just an upper limit. Fortnights of high flux states are preferred. Therefore, an increase in the maximum flux  $F_{\max}$  leads to a gain in sensitivity. In order to maximize the probability of a neutrino detection, fortnights with a detected flux in a low-pitched state of the source are also taken into account. These fortnights are chosen less likely for the  $T_i(t)$  part of the likelihood, but still could contribute to a neutrino detection. It should be mentioned that these fortnights only have a rather negligible impact on the expected number of signal events.

In the background case, time is randomly chosen from one of the 102 bins of the light-curve, as these events are expected to be generated in the atmosphere.

## 7.4 Background rate

The background rate in a  $5^\circ$  cone is derived as follows:

- a) Count the number of events in a  $5^\circ$  declination band over the whole time range with varying  $\lambda$  cuts.
- b) Count the number of steradians in a  $5^\circ$  declination band.
- c) Count the number of steradians in the cone.

An approximation of the background rate  $\mu_{bg}$  is given by:

$$\mu_{bg} \approx \frac{c}{b} \cdot a. \quad (7.6)$$

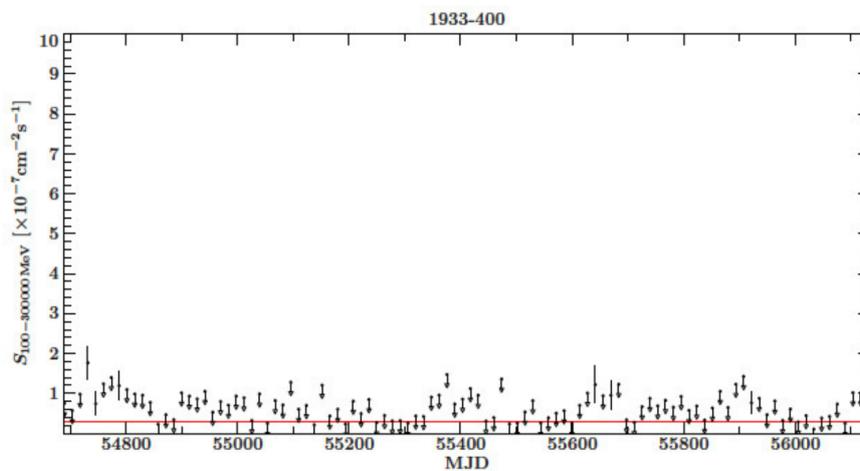


Figure 7.3: Light-curve for PKS 1933-400. Credit: Müller 2014

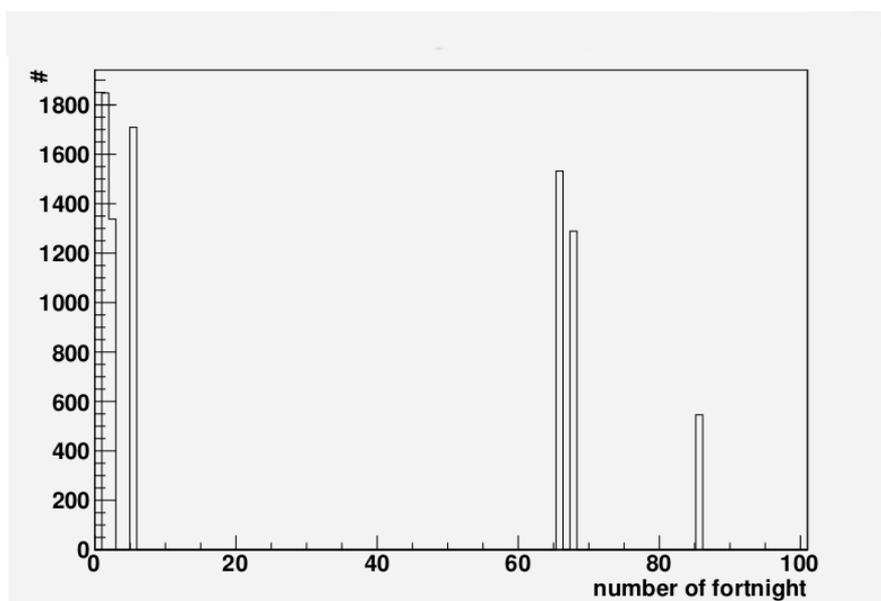


Figure 7.4: Selected fortnights for PKS 1933-400. Fortnights are chosen, whenever a flux and not just an upper limit was detected

The cone size is fixed to  $5^\circ$ , as the signal contribution from outside this region is negligible (see Figure 7.1) and the amount of calculation time is optimized. Figure 7.5 shows the background rate in a  $5^\circ$  cone around the source position for two different  $\lambda$ -cuts (see Sect. 5.2). One can see that the background rate decreases with decreasing declination. For a harder cut, this effect is less pronounced because of the total loss of reconstructed events. As the background rate for sources in one specific declination band does not vary much, the same background rate is chosen for all sources in a given declination band. Furthermore, the central position in the declination band is taken to be the labeled position in Fig. 7.5 (e.g. in the declination band  $[-55, -50]$   $\delta = -52.5^\circ$  is labeled). To account for time variation effects of the background rate, a correction factor (*corr*) is introduced. This factor is calculated according to the following scheme:

- Calculate the number of events from all directions over all times including up- and down-going events.
- Calculate the mean number of events.
- Calculate the reconstructed number of events.

Thus, the correction factor is given by:

$$corr = \frac{c}{b}. \quad (7.7)$$

Figure 7.6 shows the resulting correction factor.

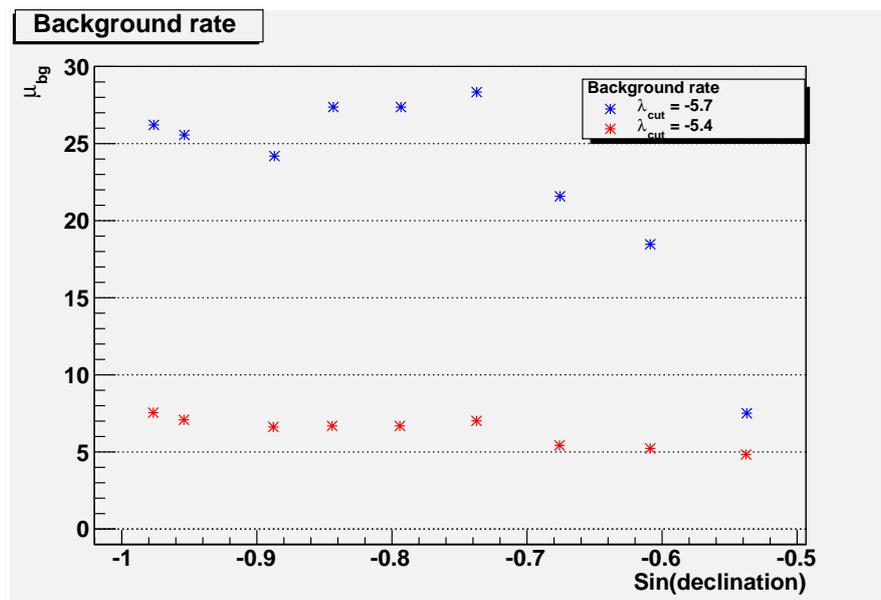


Figure 7.5: Background rate in a  $5^\circ$  cone around the source position.

## 7.5 Pseudo experiments

In order to derive the sensitivity for the selected sources, one has to generate pseudo experiments, where the generated events are known as true signal or signal plus background. For the background only case  $10^7$  events are generated, using the background rate as Poissonian mean.

In the signal plus background case 1000 events are generated, where the true number of signal events  $n_s$  serves as Poissonian mean. Figure 7.7 shows the performance of this method, where an excess at  $n_s = 3$  signal events can be seen.

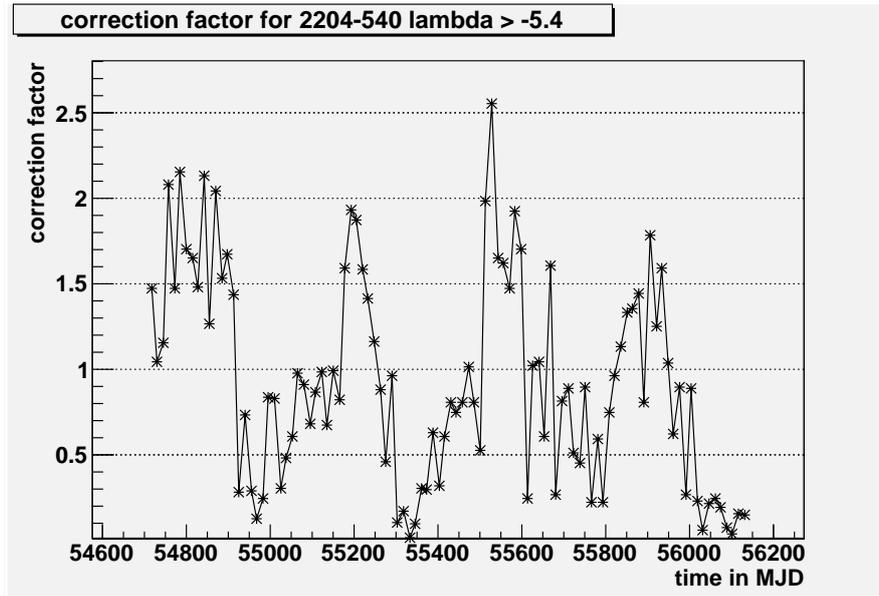


Figure 7.6: Correction factor to account for time variation of the background rate.

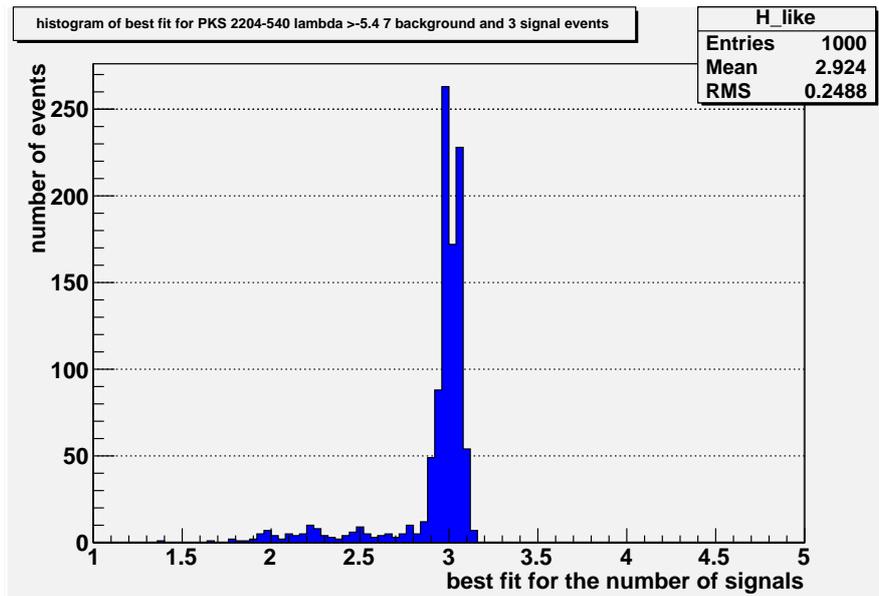


Figure 7.7: Histogram of the best fit value for the number of signal events  $n_s = 3$ .

## 7.6 Calculation of the Test Statistic

In order to derive the sensitivity for the selected sources, a quantity which correlates the likelihoods of background and signal events has to be defined. Therefore, the so called Test

Statistic ( $D$ ) is calculated for every simulated pseudo experiment:

$$D = 2\text{Log} \left[ \frac{L(\hat{n}_s)}{L(n_s = 0)} \right] \quad (7.8)$$

where  $L(n_s = 0)$  is the likelihood in the background only case, and  $L(\hat{n}_s)$  is the likelihood in the signal plus background case ( $n_s$  is the true number of expected signal events, while  $\hat{n}_s$  is the estimated number of signal events). Figure 7.8 shows the distributions of the test statistic for PKS 2204-540 with  $\lambda > -5.4$  (see Sect. 5.2). Shown in blue is the test statistic in the background only case. The distributions in the signal plus background case are plotted in yellow ( $\hat{n}_s = 1$ ), red ( $\hat{n}_s = 3$ ) and green ( $\hat{n}_s = 5$ ). The threshold for a  $5\sigma$  discovery is given by the second greatest test statistic value in the background only case.

Now, the probability for a  $5\sigma$  discovery is calculated by counting the fraction of pseudo experiments in the signal plus background case, greater than the second greatest  $D$  value in the background only case. To test this method, the threshold of the background only pseudo experiments can also be derived from a fit according to:

$$f(D) = a \times 10^{-bD} \quad (7.9)$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are just fit parameters and  $c$  is the largest  $D$  value. This leads to:

$$\int_x^c a \times 10^{-bD} dD = 0.1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot 5\sigma \cdot 10^7 \quad (7.10)$$

$$\left[ \frac{a}{-b \ln(10)} 10^{-bD} \right]_x^c = 0.2866515$$

$$\Rightarrow x = -\frac{1}{b} \log_{10} \left( 0.2866515 \cdot \frac{b \ln(10)}{a} + 10^{-b \cdot c} \right).$$

The second greatest value of the test statistic in the background only case is 7.21, while the fit leads to 7.09.

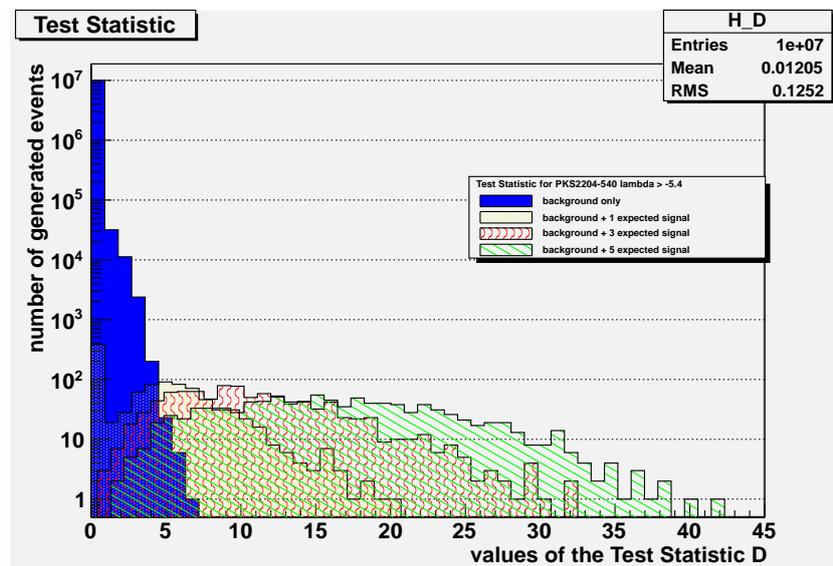


Figure 7.8: Test statistic  $D$  for PKS 2204-540 with  $\lambda > -5.4$ . Shown in deep blue is the test statistic for the background only case, while yellow, red and green represent the test statistic distributions in the signal plus background case.

## 7.7 Sensitivity

After the test statistic has been calculated (see Sect. 7.6), the sensitivity for each individual source can be derived. This is achieved by calculating the fraction of pseudo experiments in the signal plus background case greater than the second greatest  $D$  value in the background only case.

Beforehand, the track fit parameters have to be optimized source by source (see Sect. 5.2). As  $\beta$  has only a negligible effect on the number of reconstructed events, this parameter is fixed to  $\beta < 1$ . The track quality parameter  $\lambda$  is optimized according to the following scheme:

- a) Calculate the number of reconstructed events per source for a given  $\lambda$ -cut.
- b) Calculate the number of signal events  $n_s$  needed for a chance of 50 % to make a  $5 \sigma$  discovery.

The optimized  $\lambda$ -cut is achieved when the ratio

$$c = \frac{a}{b}. \quad (7.11)$$

is maximized. Table 6 summarizes the  $\lambda$  optimization process for PKS 2204-540, while the best  $\lambda$  cut is fixed to  $\lambda > -5.4$ .

Figure 7.9 displays the optimized sensitivity curves for PKS 2204-540, where the different colors represent different terms included in the likelihood calculation. While the green points only use the angle for the calculation of the likelihood, a significant gain in sensitivity is achieved by including the reconstructed energy (yellow points). The best result is obtained by including the light-curve term to the likelihood (blue points). Appendix D lists these graphs for the entire selected source sample.

As this analysis follows up the work of Fehn 2015, a comparison of the best results in the angle, annergy, and light-curve case is given in Figure 7.10. While Kerstin Fehn uses self generated Monte Carlo for the entire time period (further labeled as no-rbrMC), this analysis is based on the use of rbrMC (see Sect. 5.1). Both analysis agree for PKS 2204-540. This means, that the no-rbrMC models the highly variable background conditions in the deep sea in an acceptable way for this specific source. A comparison between both methods for the rest of the selected sources can be seen in Appendix E. For a significant number of sources both methods are not compatible. As the data-MC comparison for the rbrMC (see Sect. 5.5) is on a reasonable level, the results of the rbrMC analysis seems to be trustable.

$\lambda_{cut}$	number of reconstructed events from rbrMC	$n_s$ needed for a chance of 50 % to make a $5 \sigma$ discovery	ratio $c$
-5.5	8248	2.0	4124
<b>-5.4</b>	7866	1.8	<b>4370</b>
-5.3	7146	1.75	4083

Table 6: Optimization of the track quality parameter  $\lambda$  for PKS 2204-540.

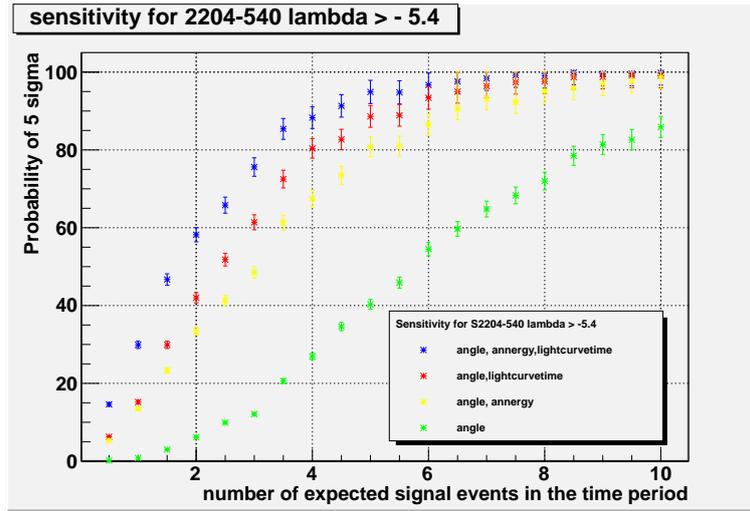


Figure 7.9: Optimized sensitivity for PKS 2204-540 with  $\lambda > -5.4$ . The green points represent the case, when just the angle part is used for the likelihood. The best result is achieved by combining angle, annergy, and light-curve time.

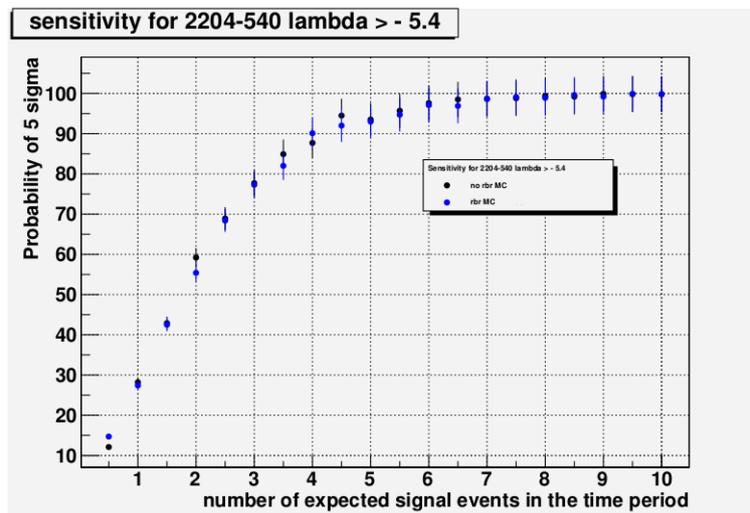


Figure 7.10: Comparison of the sensitivity for PKS 2204-540 with  $\lambda > -5.4$  in the angle, annergy, and light-curve time case. Black points represent the result of the no-rbrMC analysis, while blue points show the sensitivity for the rbrMC. Both analysis are compatible.

## 8 Results and Discussion

Detected events are associated with selected sources by the calculation of their angular distance to the position of the source. In addition, the reconstructed energy, as well as the arriving time of each event is stored. Via the timing information every event can be placed within one of the 102 two-week periods of the light-curve starting from 01-Sep-2008.

An unbinned maximum likelihood method is applied to derive the sensitivity of a point source discovery. In order to do so, histograms of angle and energy are calculated in the case of signal or background events. The arrival time is correlated with flaring states of the selected sources. For a detailed description of the applied method please refer to Sect. 7.

Run by Run Monte Carlo simulations (see Sect. 5.1) have been used to model the highly variable environmental conditions in the deep sea. By the use of the time term from the light-curve, a significant increase in sensitivity has been achieved, see Figure 7.9 for PKS 2204-540 or Appendix D for the complete source sample.

In comparison to the work of Fehn 2015, several implementations in the calculation of the test statistic and sensitivity have been improved. Technical limitations, like an angular and energy uncertainty are added to the calculation. As this project is based on the correlation of neutrino and photon properties, a major gain in sensitivity is achieved by an improved implementation of the correlation. Figure 8.1 visualizes the advantage of the new script (red), with respect to the original implementation (black) for the results of the no-rbrMC analysis. Please note, that for the results given by Fehn 2015, no simple comparison to the outcome of this work is possible, because of the improved implementations used to generate the results of both analysis.

The quantity used to compare results of different sources is the number of signal events  $n_s$ , needed for a chance of 50 % to make a  $5\sigma$  discovery. Table 7 summarizes the results of all 12 sources, together with the values for the previous no-rbrMC analysis. A source is labeled as *both analysis compatible* in the case, where the sensitivity plots of both analysis are mostly compatible within their error bars. Please note, that statistical error bars are used. The flag *bad data taking conditions* is used to label sources, for which high optical rates during flaring periods or technical problems are known. While suspicious runs are removed from the final run selection (see Sect. 5.4.2), these sources have to be treated with caution, especially if promising events would occur during these periods.

From Table 7 it is clear that both analyses differ for a number of sources. While for the self generated Monte Carlo simulation of the no-rbrMC analysis events from a specific direction can be simulated with a reasonable amount of statistics, the rbrMC analysis takes the rapidly changing environmental conditions into account.

To verify the representation of data by the rbrMC, a data Monte Carlo comparison (see Sect. 5.5 and Appendix F) has been performed. The comparison clearly demonstrates, that data is modeled well by the rbrMC. This, however leads to the conclusion, that the Run by Run Monte Carlo represents the data on an accurate level, and thus seems to be trustworthy. As the no-rbrMC analysis assumes characteristic  $QB = 4$  conditions (see Sect. 5.4.1) during the entire time period, highly variable outbursts of bioluminescent activity seem to have a rather huge impact on the outcome of a point source analysis.

Please note, that the results shown in Table 7 seem no longer to be connected to the source ranking (see Sect. 6), which is based on the selection of short and bright  $\gamma$ -ray flares. This ef-

fect is visible both in the no-rbrMC as well as in the rbrMC analysis. The reason for this effect can be found in the light-curve normalization of the sensitivity calculation. While the source selection is based on the measured  $\gamma$ -ray flux, the sensitivity calculation uses normalized light-curves for the calculation of the likelihood term (see equation 7.1). As this normalization only takes the integrated  $\gamma$ -ray flux of just one source into account, the absolute brightness of the sources isn't used for the calculation.

Thus, only the time evolution of  $\gamma$ -ray flares effects the sensitivity calculation. Sources, which show sharp and short flares result in a better sensitivity, because of their effective background rejection due to the short selected time window.

To conclude, a time dependent approach has a significant impact on the outcome of a point source analysis. This is independent of the kind of used Monte Carlo (please refer to [Fehn 2015](#) for the no-rbrMC analysis). While flaring AGN are a promising candidate for the sources of high-energetic extraterrestrial neutrino point sources, a detection is still insignificant. Nevertheless, the implementation of the rbrMC has led to a precise modeling of neutrino data, as well as a more accurate sensitivity calculation with respect to the no-rbrMC analysis.

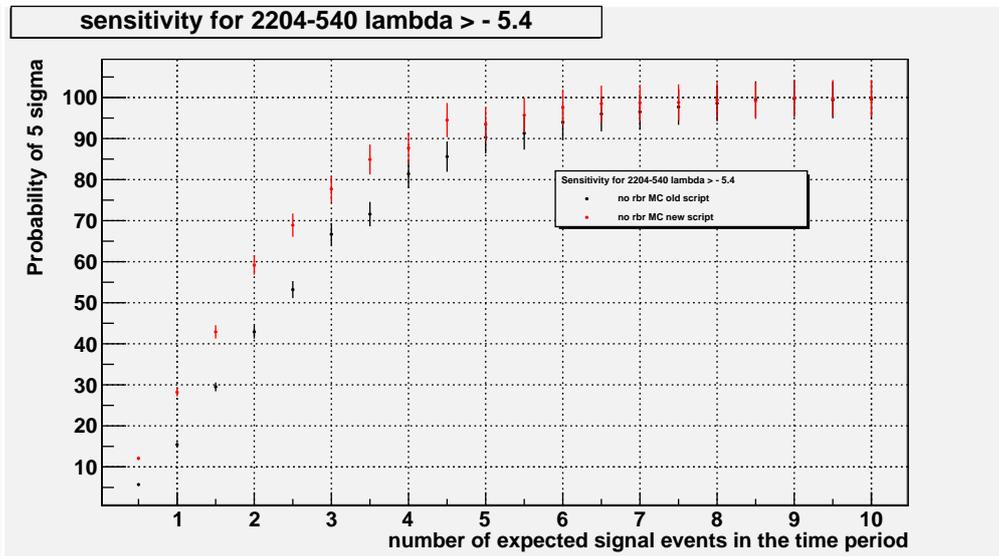


Figure 8.1: Comparison of the sensitivity for PKS 2204-540 with  $\lambda > -5.4$  in the angle, annergy and light-curve time case. Black represents the result of the no-rbrMC analysis in the original implementation. Red represents the sensitivity after the improvement of several implementations, which results in a significant increase in sensitivity.

source	$\lambda_{cut}$	$n_s$ needed for a chance of 50% to make a $5\sigma$ discovery with no-rbrMC (rbrMC)	both analysis compatible	bad data taking conditions
PKS 2204-540	-5.4	1.7 (1.84)	yes	
PKS 1933-400	-5.5	1.7 (1.8)	yes	
PKS 1716-771	-5.5	1.9 (2.25)	no	x
PKS 0227-369	-5.5	1.95 (1.32)	no	
PKS 0412-536	-5.4	1.9 (1.75)	yes	
PKS 1313-333	-5.6	2.25 (2.42)	yes	x
PKS 2149-306	-5.6	3.55 (2.75)	no	
PKS 0637-752	-5.5	3.2 (2.3)	no	x
PKS 0524-485	-5.5	1.9 (1.85)	yes	
PKS 0208-512	-5.4	2.35 (2.4)	yes	x
PKS 1057-797	-5.4	1.6 (2.6)	no	
PKS 0308-611	-5.4	1.8 (2.0)	yes	x

Table 7: Summary of the results for all 12 sources. Given are the source label, the optimized  $\lambda$  cut (see Sect. 7.7), and the value of  $n_s$  needed for a chance of 50% to make a  $5\sigma$  discovery. If the sensitivity plots of both analysis are mostly compatible within their error bars, this source is labeled as *both analysis compatible*. Sources for which high optical rates during flaring periods or technical problems are known are labeled, although these runs have been excluded from the final list (see Sect. 5.4.2). The underlying sensitivity plots are listed in Appendix D and E.

## 9 Outlook

This work offers an overview of the taxonomy of active galactic nuclei, as well as their unification schema. Properties of AGN like the accretion of matter or radiation processes are discussed, together with possible neutrino generation models. An introduction to the multiwavelength program TANAMI, and the ANTARES neutrino detector is given, while the simulation and reconstruction of ANTARES data for highly variable environmental conditions is discussed.

As ANTARES is highly sensitive to the southern sky, a sample of 12 TANAMI sources is chosen. By the correlation of neutrino events measured with ANTARES and photons from *Fermi*  $\gamma$ -ray light-curves, a significant gain in sensitivity is achieved. The usage of Run by Run Monte Carlo simulations, which model highly variable background conditions in the deep sea, leads to a more precise calculation of the sensitivity per source.

An analysis has been developed which uses the full time-varying conditions of the ANTARES detector, combined with the time-variability of expected neutrino sources, to maximize the probability of a correlated neutrino detection. In order to compare results of different sources, the number of signal events  $n_s$ , needed for a chance of 50 % to make a  $5\sigma$  discovery has been introduced.

In the future a stacked search can be performed in order to increase the probability for a correlated neutrino detection. In the case of insufficient statistics for a significant detection, an upper limit on the expected neutrino flux can be calculated. This has to be done for real neutrino data instead of Monte Carlo simulations.

Beside the most obvious extensions of this work, some more general aspects could be taken into account:

- **Reconstruction:**  
While this analysis is using Aafit (see Sect. 5.2) for track reconstruction and ANNergy (see Sect. 5.3) as energy estimator, many other reconstruction algorithms exist within ANTARES. By testing and combining different reconstruction methods, a more effective track and energy reconstruction would be possible.
- **Track & Showers:**  
While this analysis is focusing on track-like events, the usage of shower events would result in an increase of statistics in signal events and thus enhance the probability of a correlated neutrino detection.
- **Multiwavelength neutrino correlation:**  
While the goal of this analysis is the correlation of neutrinos with  $\gamma$ -ray photons observed by *Fermi*, a correlation with e.g. VLBI data from TANAMI could lead to a more precise understanding of neutrino generation within a jet.
- **Sources:**  
The most obvious extension would be the use of a larger source sample. While ANTARES is most sensitive to the southern sky (see Sect. 6), an extension to a larger (TANAMI) source sample would be useful. In addition, sources in the northern sky could also be included to the sample. In this case, a weighting of sources according to their acceptance to the ANTARES detector would be reasonable.  
The current source selection criteria, which is based on the selection of bright short flares, could be revised in order to find an optimal balance between an effective background rejection and a maximization of detection time.

Finally, the application of the flux of the detected  $\gamma$ -ray flare within the analysis chain and not just in the source selection (see Sect. 7), would indeed result in an improved neutrino- $\gamma$ -ray correlation.

- Instrumented volume:

While the field of neutrino astronomy is mainly limited by statistics, the only solution for this problem is to use longer time intervals or a larger instrumented volume. The *KM3NeT/ARCA (Cubic Kilometer Neutrino Telescope)* project is a planned deep sea water Cherenkov telescope in the Mediterranean Sea. It will have an instrumented volume of about  $1 \text{ km}^3$ .

With this increase of instrumented volume there is justified hope that a data analysis using the here developed methodology may finally reveal extraterrestrial neutrino point sources.

# Appendices

## A Source List

source	$\lambda_{\text{cut}}$	type	RA (J2000)	Dec (J2000)	redshift
2204-540	-5.4	Q	331.93208	-53.77611	1.206
1933-400	-5.5	Q	294.3175	-39.96722	0.965
1716-771	-5.5	U	260.96042	-77.23056	unknown
0227-369	-5.5	Q	37.3685375	-36.7324503	unknown
0412-536	-5.4	U	63.32167	-53.53389	unknown
1313-333	-5.6	Q	199.03333	-33.64972	1.21
2149-306	-5.7	Q	327.98125	-30.465	2.345
0637-752	-5.5	Q	98.94375	-75.27139	0.653
0524-485	-5.5	U	81.5694633	-48.5102197	unknown
0208-512	-5.4	B	63.6925	-51.01722	0.999
1057-797	-5.4	B	164.6804571	-80.0650442	unknown
0308-611	-5.4	Q	47.4837467	-60.0775153	1.48

Table 8: Summary of the properties for all 12 sources investigated in this thesis. (Q=quasar, B=blazar, U=unidentified)

## B Energy Plots

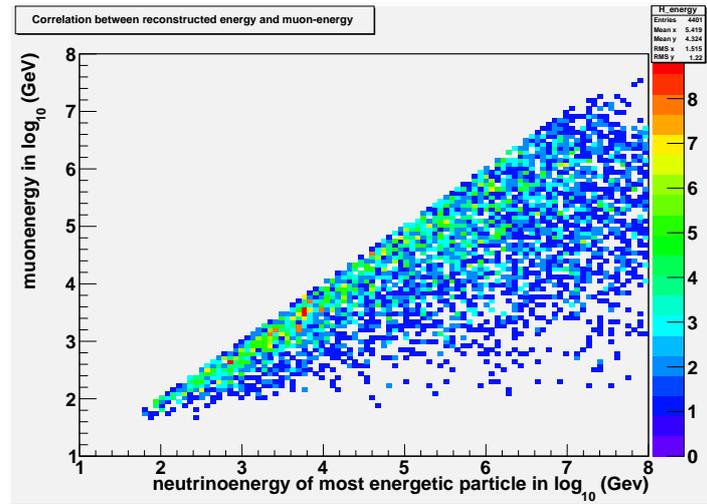


Figure B.1: Correlation between neutrino and muon energy for PKS 2204-540 for  $\lambda > -5.4$ . A correlation can be seen. The maximal gained energy of the muon is the total energy of the neutrino.

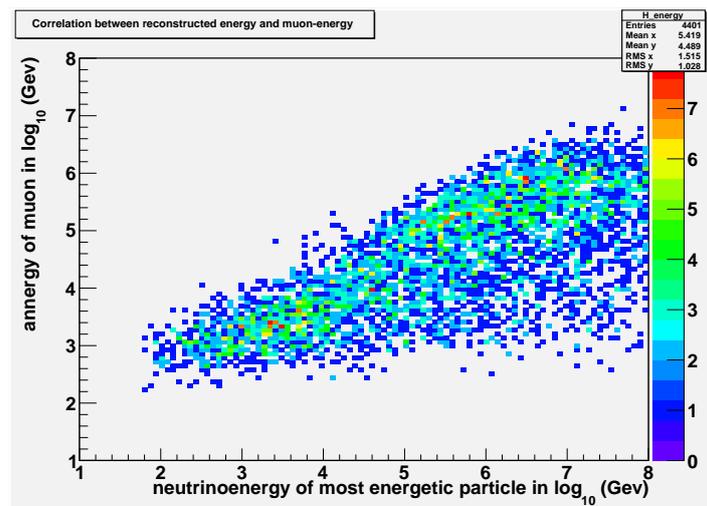


Figure B.2: Correlation between neutrino and muon energy for PKS 2204-540 for  $\lambda > -5.4$ . On the y-axes the muon annergy is shown. Due to the use of the ANNergy energy estimator the muon energy is smeared out and can take values greater than the total neutrino energy.

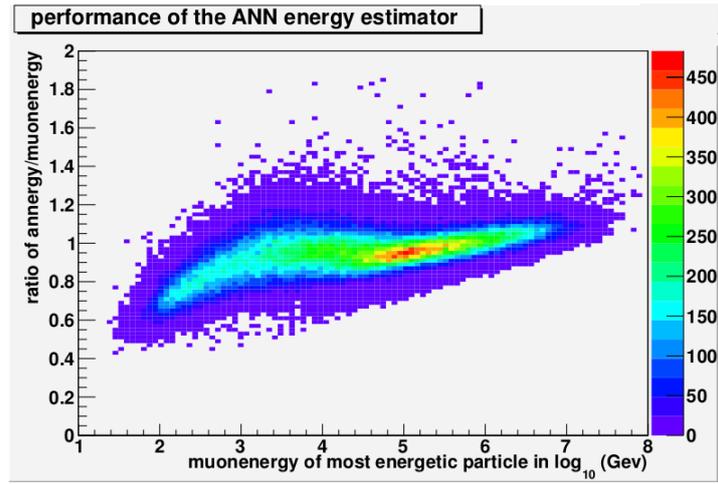


Figure B.3: Performance of the ANN energy estimator for PKS 2204-540 for  $\lambda > -5.4$ . On the y-axes the ratio of the muon annergy over the muon energy from the x-axes is shown. The huge spreading is caused by ionization.

## C Light-curves of all 12 sources

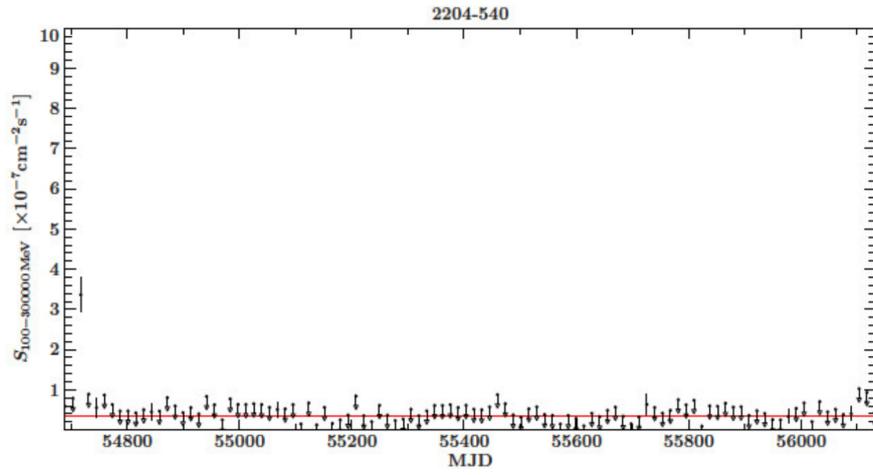


Figure C.1: Light-curve for PKS 2204-540  
Credit: Müller 2014

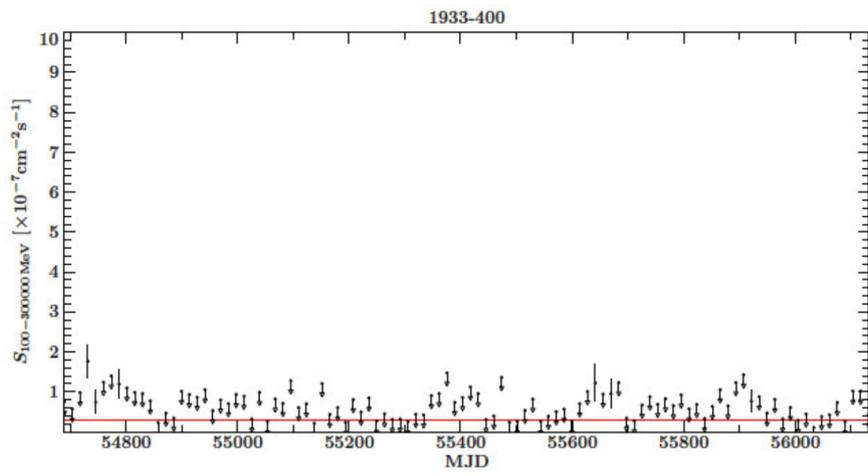


Figure C.2: Light-curve for PKS 1933-400  
Credit: Müller 2014

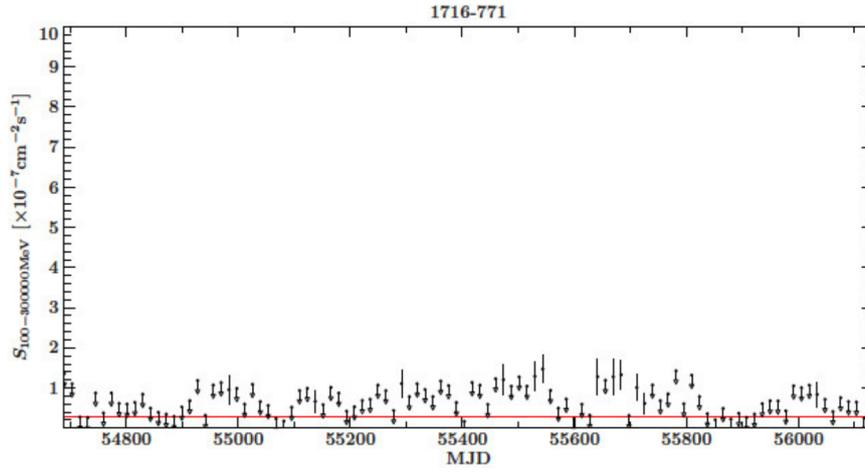


Figure C.3: Light-curve for PKS 1716-771  
Credit: Müller 2014

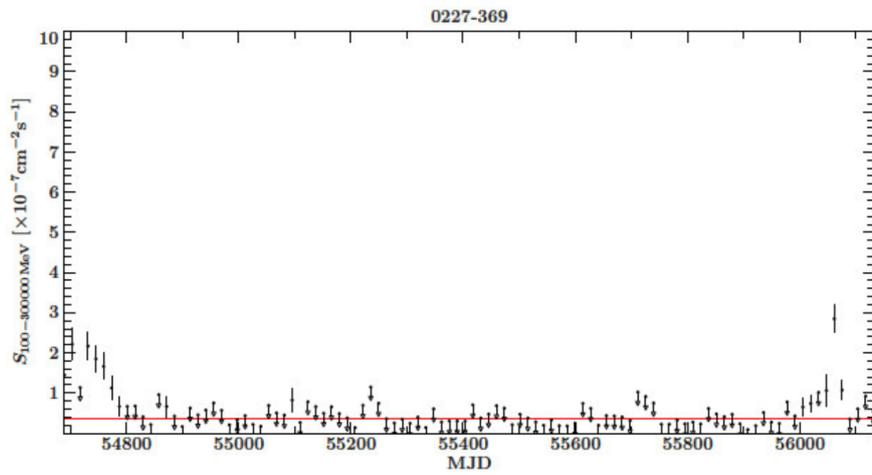


Figure C.4: Light-curve for PKS 0227-369  
Credit: Müller 2014

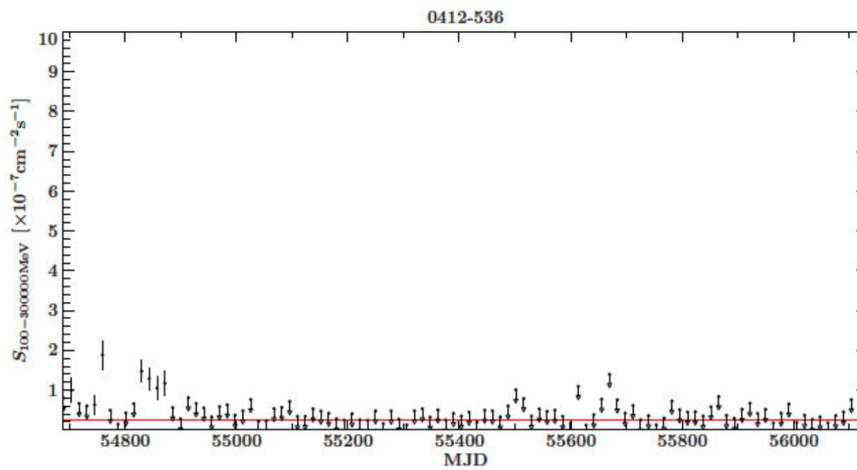


Figure C.5: Light-curve for PKS 0412-536  
Credit: Müller 2014

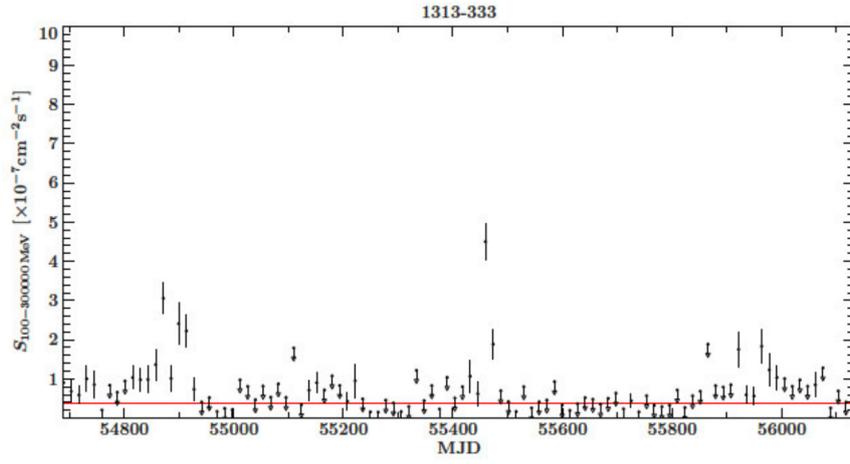


Figure C.6: Light-curve for PKS 1313-333  
Credit: Müller 2014

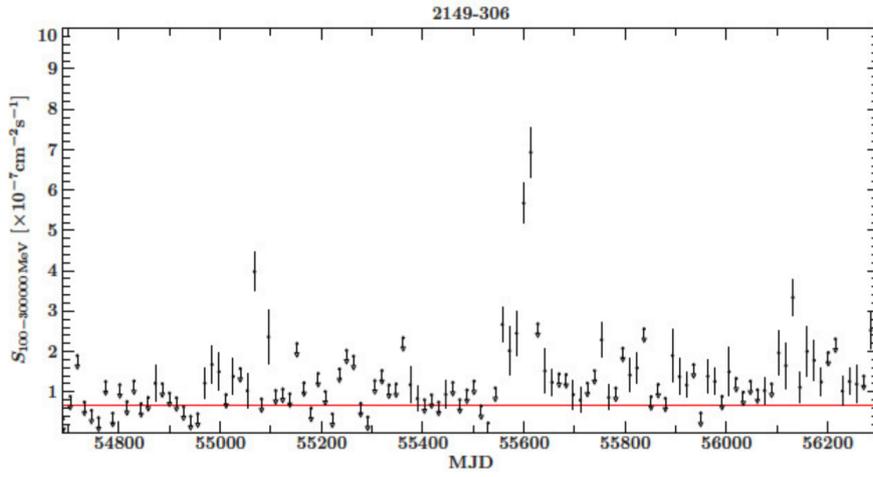


Figure C.7: Light-curve for PKS 2149-306  
Credit: Müller 2014

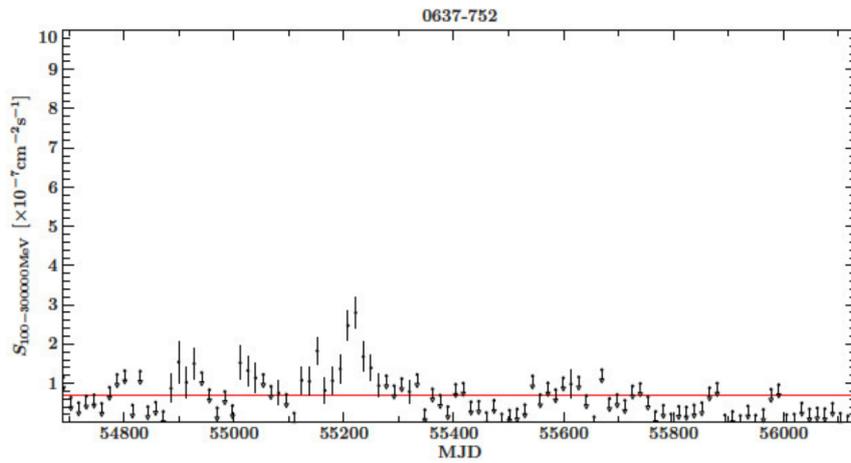


Figure C.8: Light-curve for PKS 0637-752  
Credit: Müller 2014

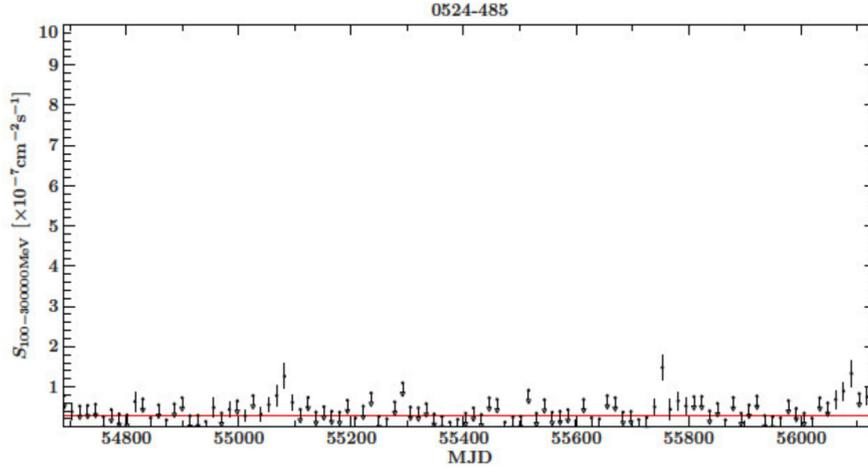


Figure C.9: Light-curve for PKS 0524-485  
Credit: Müller 2014

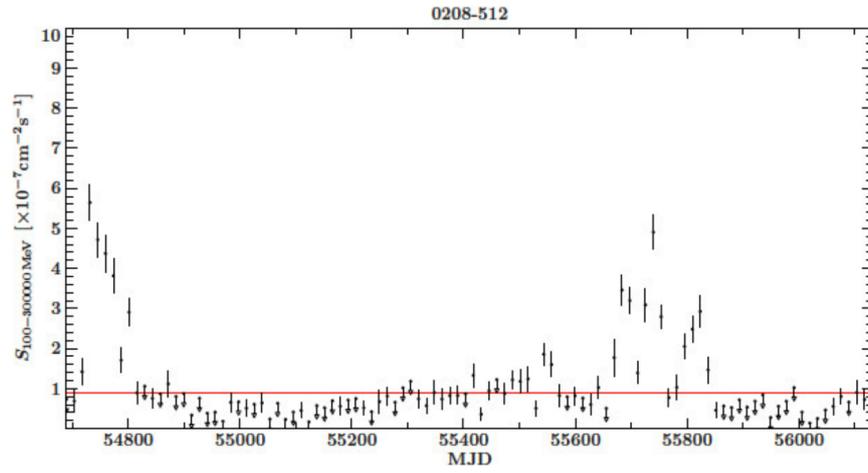


Figure C.10: Light-curve for PKS 0208-512  
Credit: Müller 2014

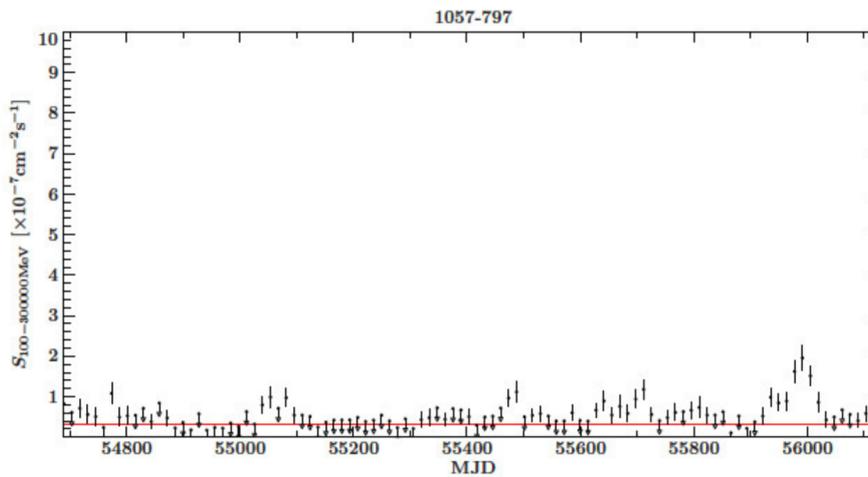


Figure C.11: Light-curve for PKS 1057-797  
Credit: Müller 2014

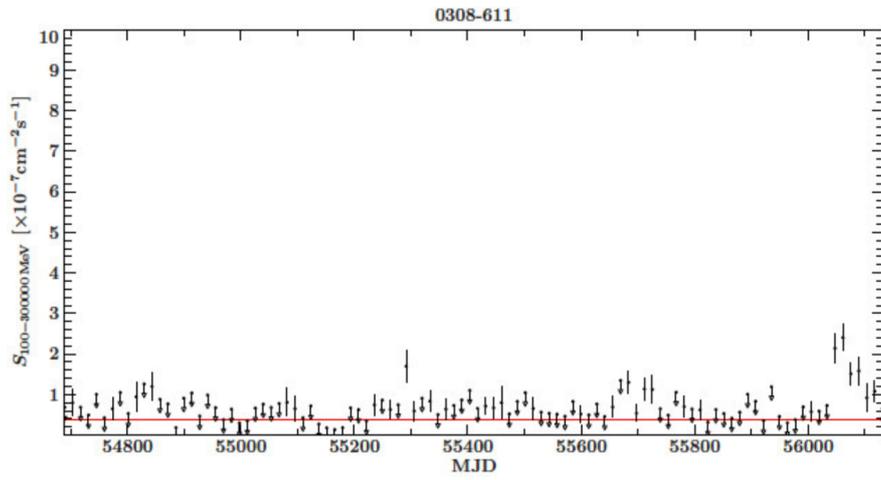


Figure C.12: Light-curve for PKS 0308-611  
Credit: Müller 2014

## D Sensitivity plots of all 12 sources

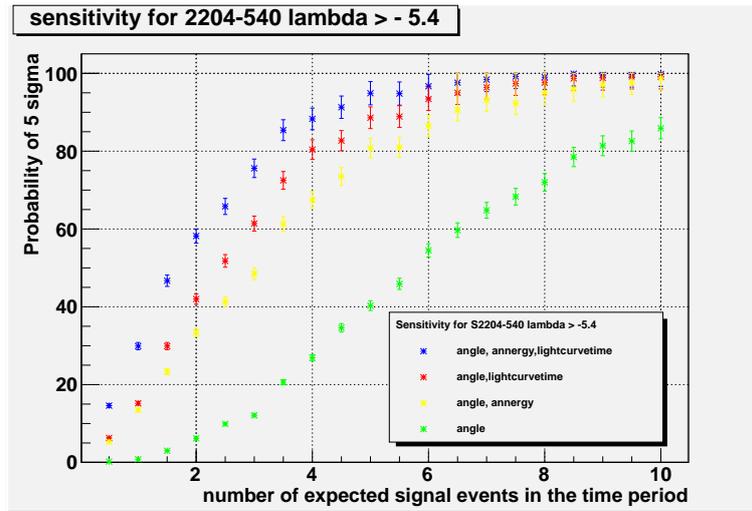


Figure D.1: Optimized sensitivity for PKS 2204-540 with  $\lambda > -5.4$ . The green points represent the case, when just the angle part is used for the likelihood. The best result is achieved by combining angle, annergy and light-curve time.

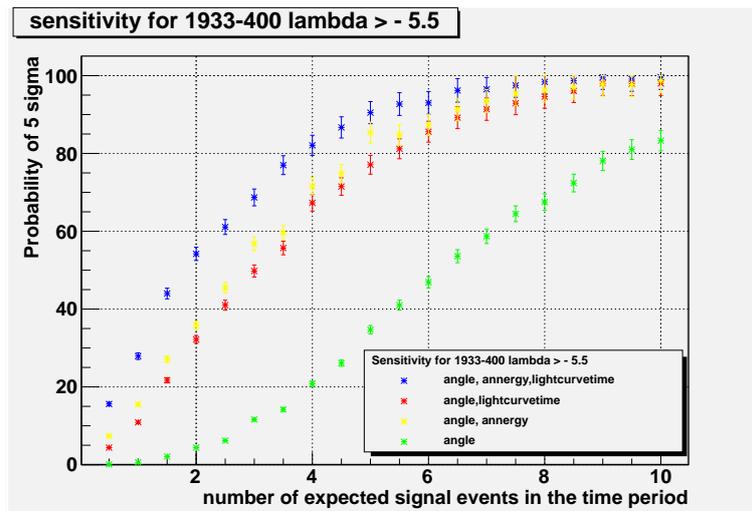


Figure D.2: Optimized sensitivity for PKS 1933-400 with  $\lambda > -5.5$ . The green points represent the case, when just the angle part is used for the likelihood. The best result is achieved by combining angle, annergy and light-curve time.

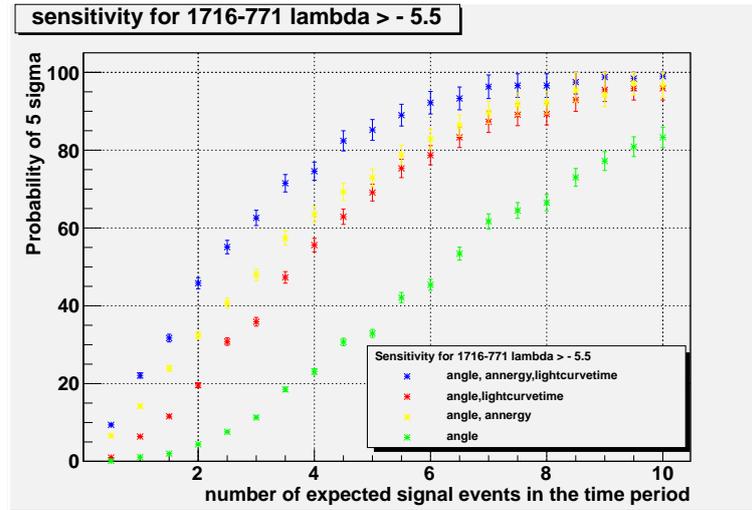


Figure D.3: Optimized sensitivity for PKS 1716-771 with  $\lambda > -5.5$ . The green points represent the case, when just the angle part is used for the likelihood. The best result is achieved by combining angle, annergy and light-curve time.

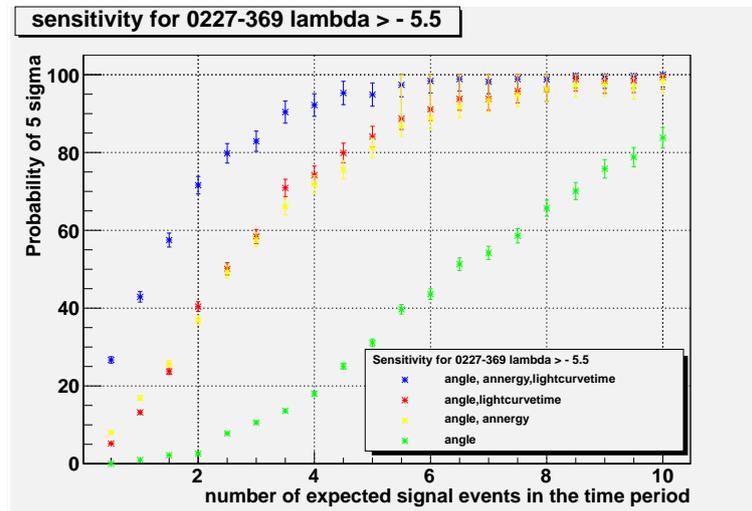


Figure D.4: Optimized sensitivity for PKS 0227-369 with  $\lambda > -5.5$ . The green points represent the case, when just the angle part is used for the likelihood. The best result is achieved by combining angle, annergy and light-curve time.

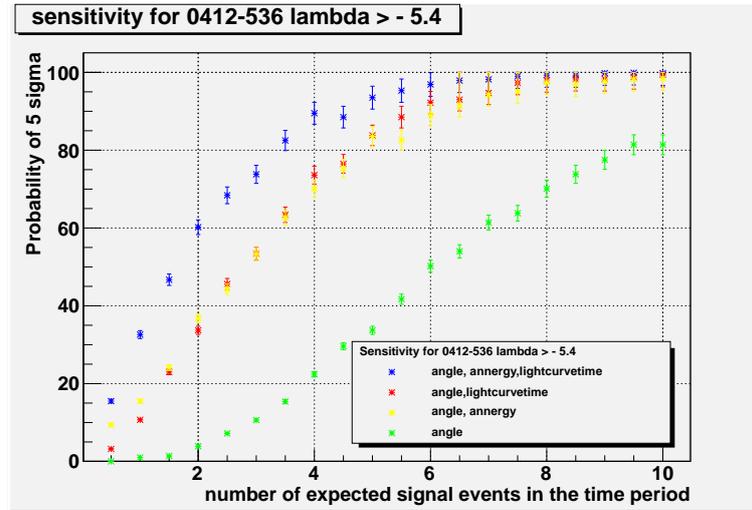


Figure D.5: Optimized sensitivity for PKS 0412-536 with  $\lambda > -5.4$ . The green points represent the case, when just the angle part is used for the likelihood. The best result is achieved by combining angle, annergy and light-curve time.

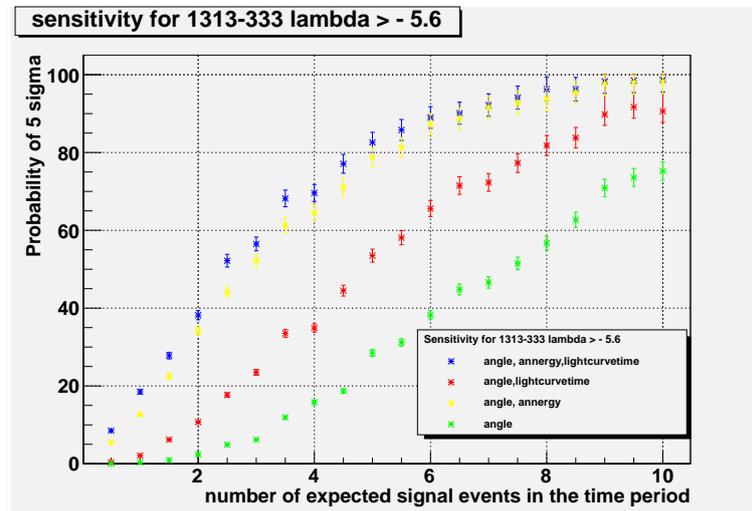


Figure D.6: Optimized sensitivity for PKS 1313-333 with  $\lambda > -5.6$ . The green points represent the case, when just the angle part is used for the likelihood. The best result is achieved by combining angle, annergy and light-curve time.

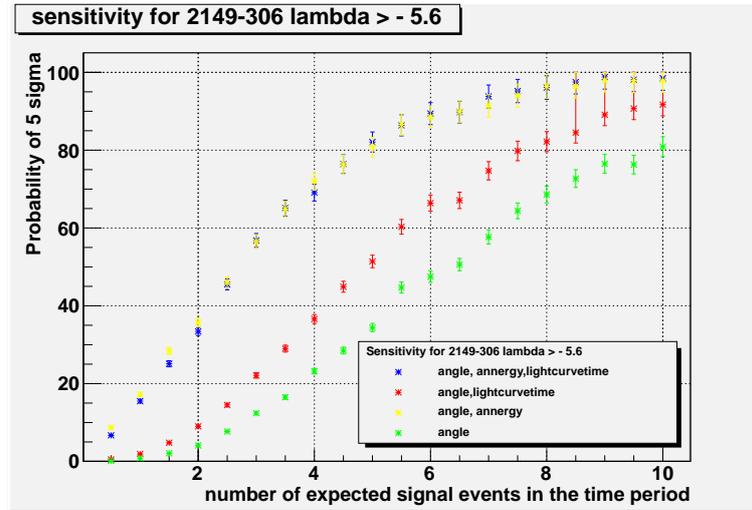


Figure D.7: Optimized sensitivity for PKS 2149-306 with  $\lambda > -5.6$ . The green points represent the case, when just the angle part is used for the likelihood. The best result is achieved by combining angle, annergy and light-curve time.

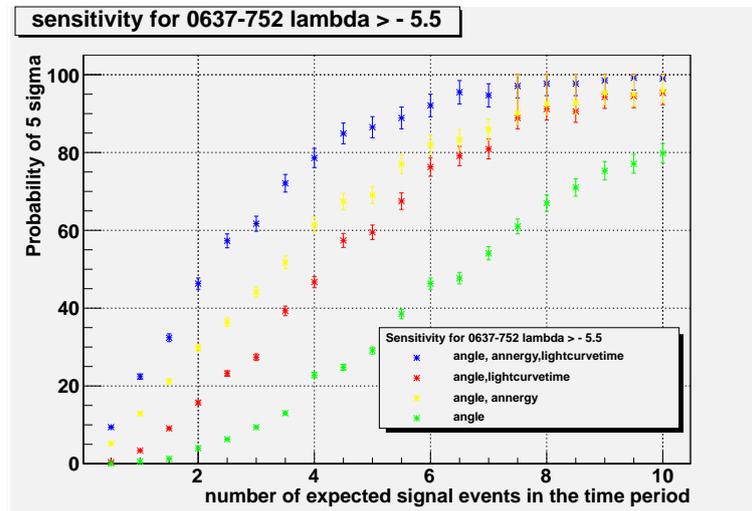


Figure D.8: Optimized sensitivity for PKS 0637-752 with  $\lambda > -5.5$ . The green points represent the case, when just the angle part is used for the likelihood. The best result is achieved by combining angle, annergy and light-curve time.

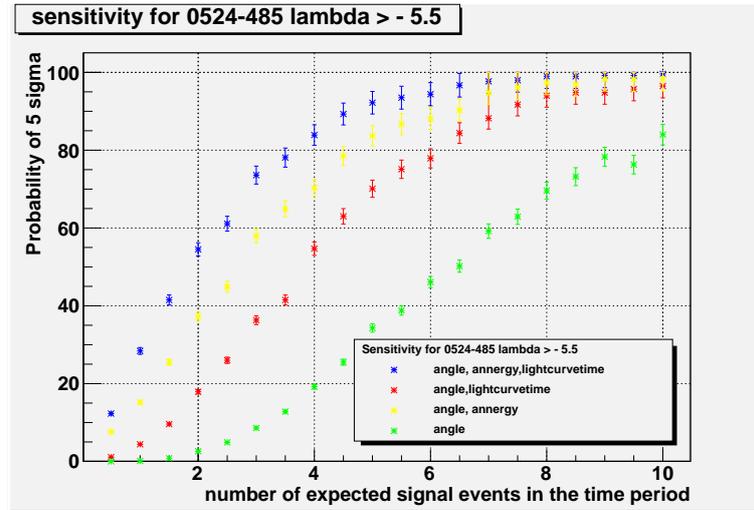


Figure D.9: Optimized sensitivity for PKS 0524-485 with  $\lambda > -5.5$ . The green points represent the case, when just the angle part is used for the likelihood. The best result is achieved by combining angle, annergy and light-curve time.

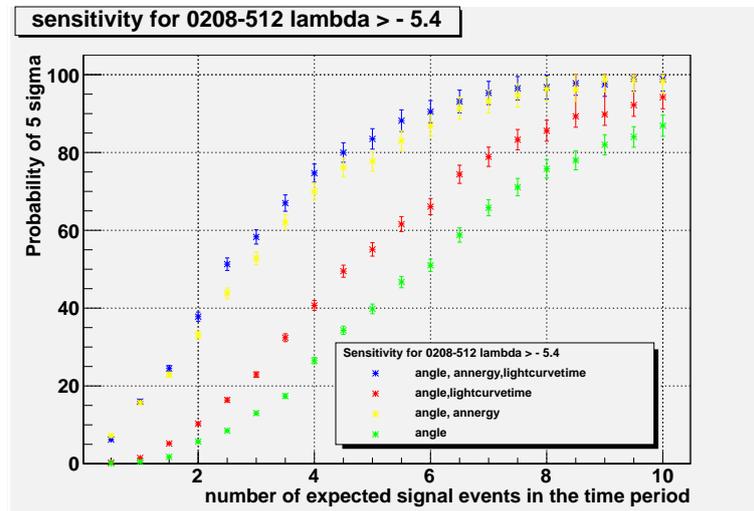


Figure D.10: Optimized sensitivity for PKS 0208-512 with  $\lambda > -5.4$ . The green points represent the case, when just the angle part is used for the likelihood. The best result is achieved by combining angle, annergy and light-curve time.

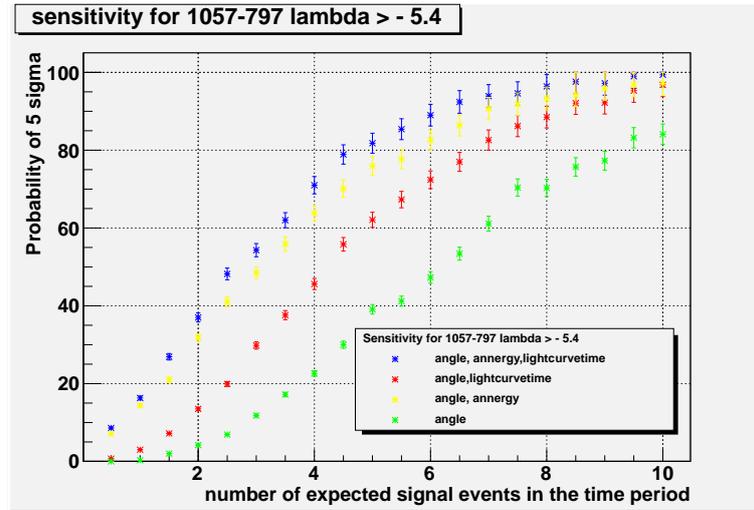


Figure D.11: Optimized sensitivity for PKS 1057-797 with  $\lambda > -5.4$ . The green points represent the case, when just the angle part is used for the likelihood. The best result is achieved by combining angle, annergy and light-curve time.

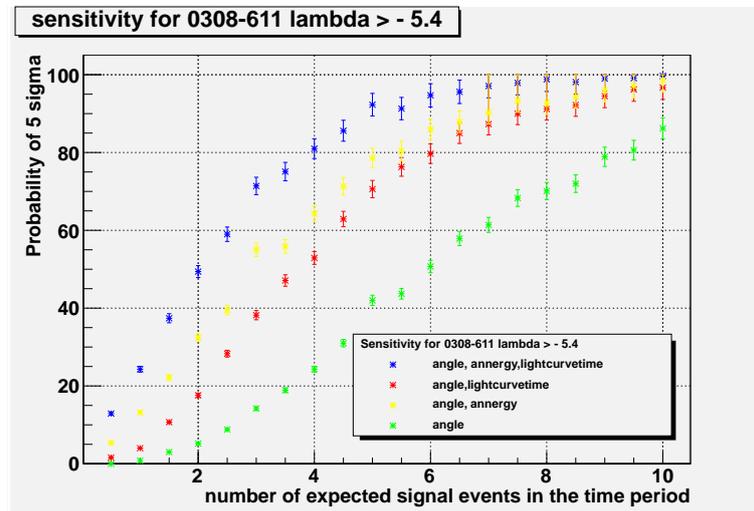


Figure D.12: Optimized sensitivity for PKS 0308-611 with  $\lambda > -5.4$ . The green points represent the case, when just the angle part is used for the likelihood. The best result is achieved by combining angle, annergy and light-curve time.

## E Comparison of sensitivity of all 12 sources

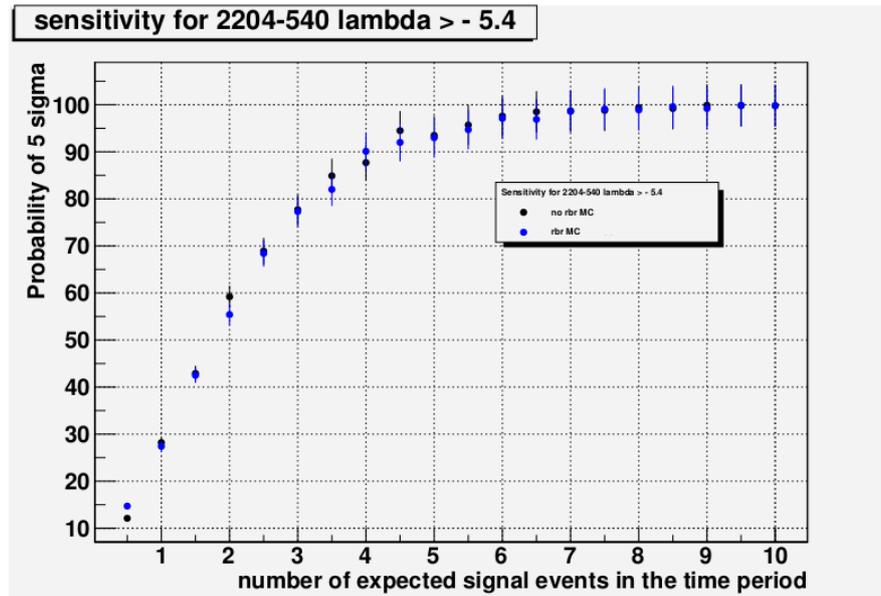


Figure E.1: Comparison of the sensitivity for PKS 2204-540 with  $\lambda > -5.4$  in the angle, annergy and light-curve time case. Black points represent the result of the no-rbrMC analysis, while blue points show the sensitivity in the rbrMC case.

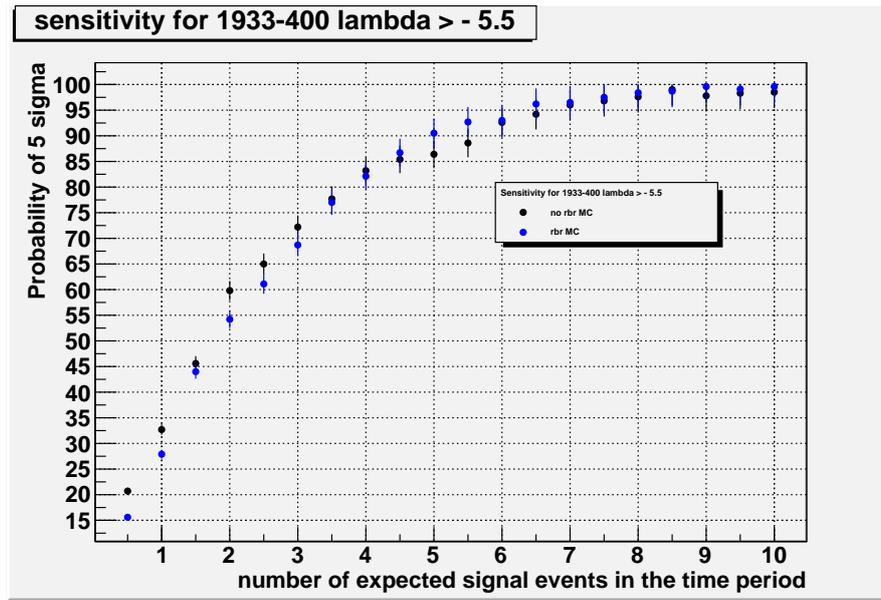


Figure E.2: Comparison of the sensitivity for PKS 1933-400 with  $\lambda > -5.5$  in the angle, annergy and light-curve time case. Black points represent the result of the no-rbrMC analysis, while blue points show the sensitivity in the rbrMC case.

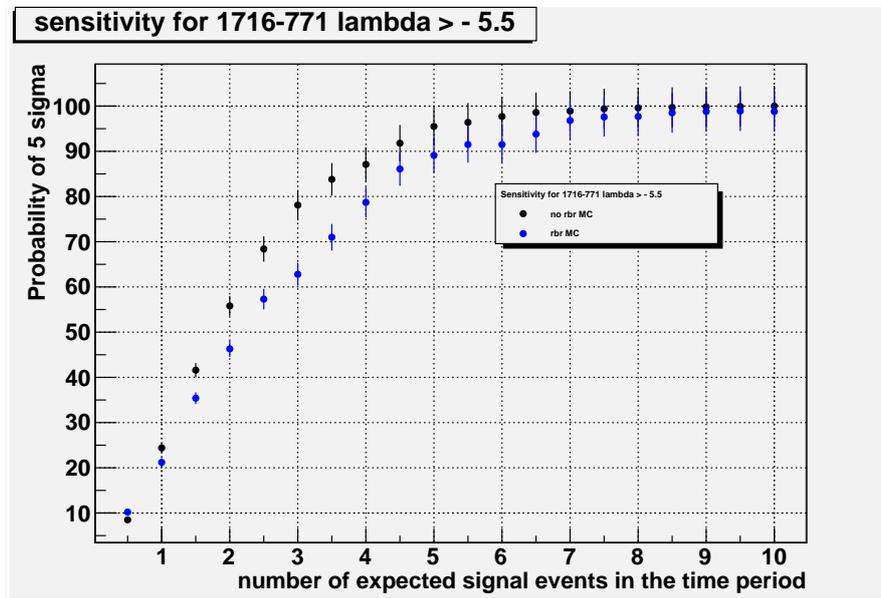


Figure E.3: Comparison of the sensitivity for PKS 1716-771 with  $\lambda > -5.5$  in the angle, annergy and light-curve time case. Black points represent the result of the no-rbrMC analysis, while blue points show the sensitivity in the rbrMC case.

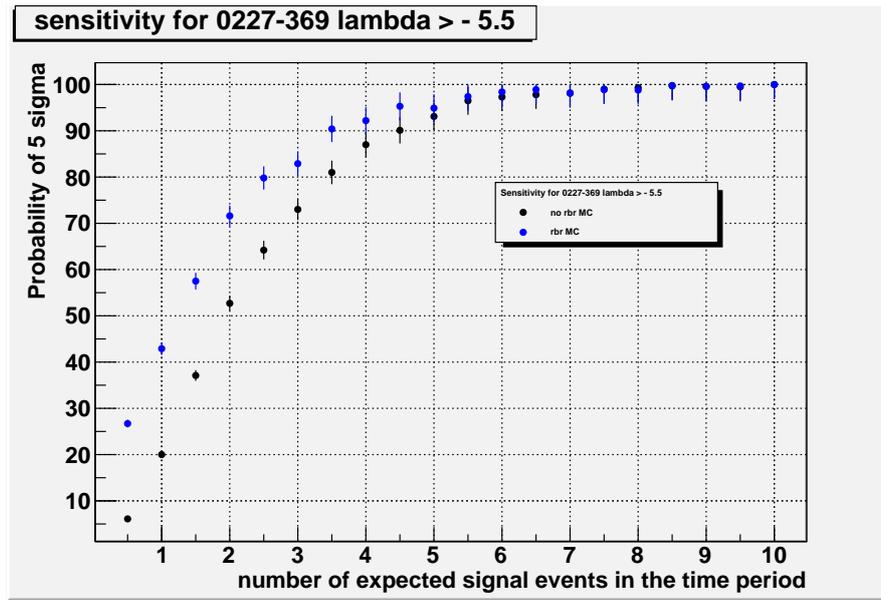


Figure E.4: Comparison of the sensitivity for PKS 0227-369 with  $\lambda > -5.5$  in the angle, annergy and light-curve time case. Black points represent the result of the no-rbrMC analysis, while blue points show the sensitivity in the rbrMC case.

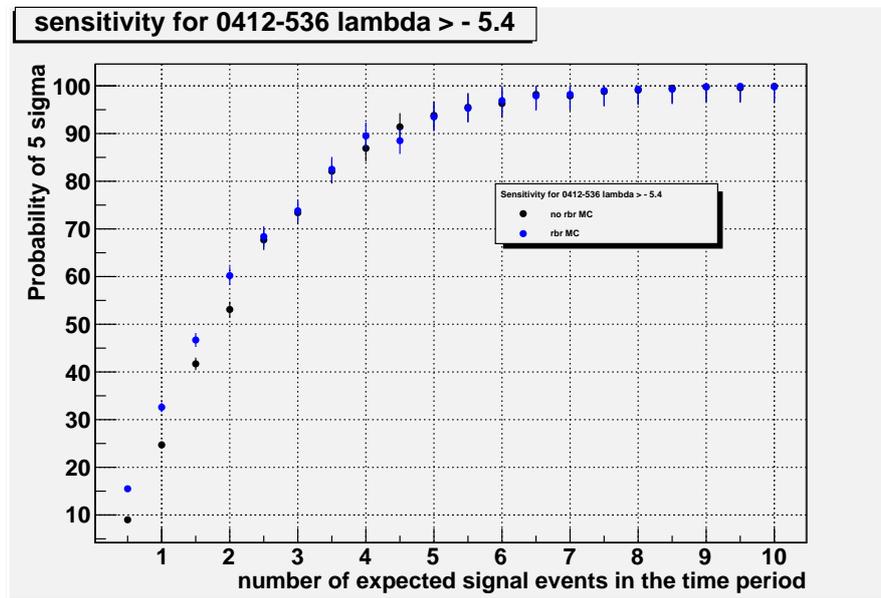


Figure E.5: Comparison of the sensitivity for PKS 0412-536 with  $\lambda > -5.4$  in the angle, annergy and light-curve time case. Black points represent the result of the no-rbrMC analysis, while blue points show the sensitivity in the rbrMC case.

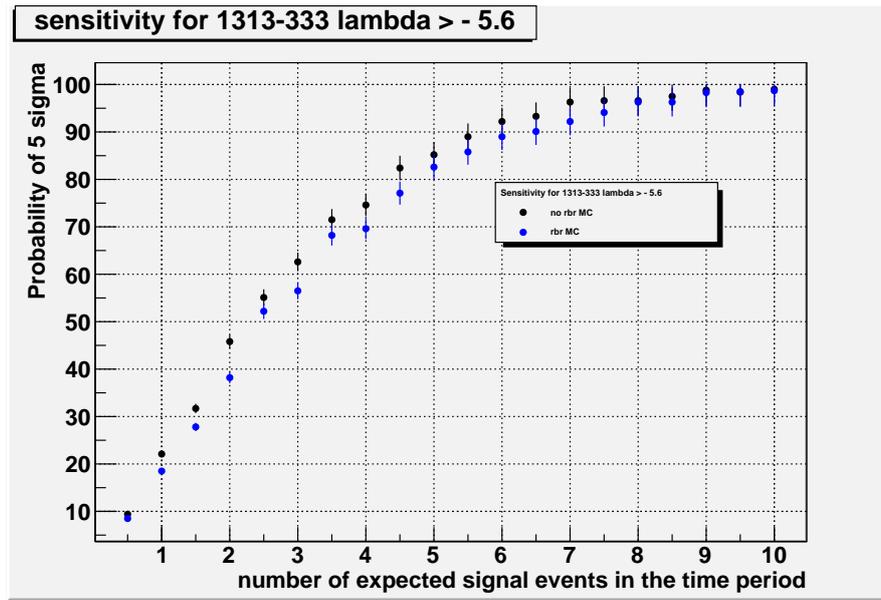


Figure E.6: Comparison of the sensitivity for PKS 1313-333 with  $\lambda > -5.6$  in the angle, annergy and light-curve time case. Black points represent the result of the no-rbrMC analysis, while blue points show the sensitivity in the rbrMC case.

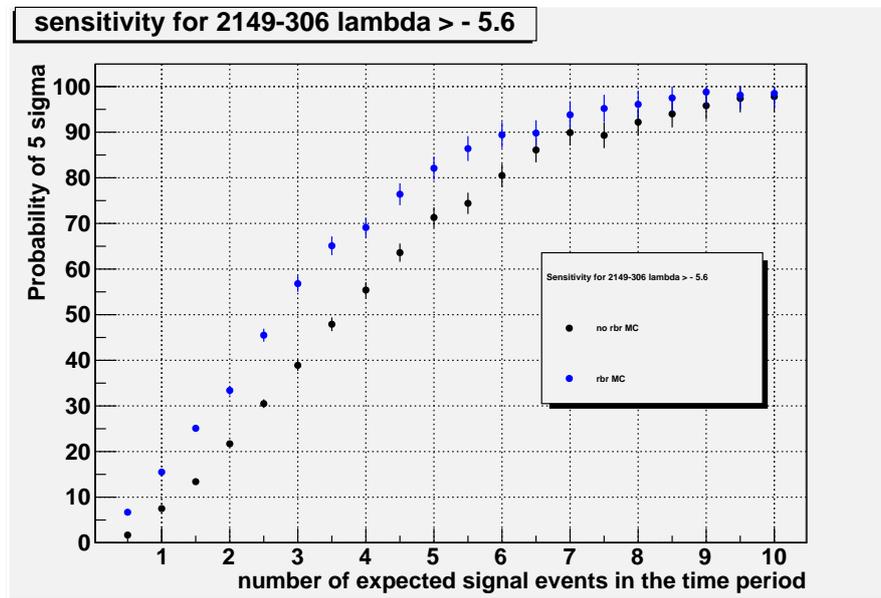


Figure E.7: Comparison of the sensitivity for PKS 2149-306 with  $\lambda > -5.6$  in the angle, annergy and light-curve time case. Black points represent the result of the no-rbrMC analysis, while blue points show the sensitivity in the rbrMC case.

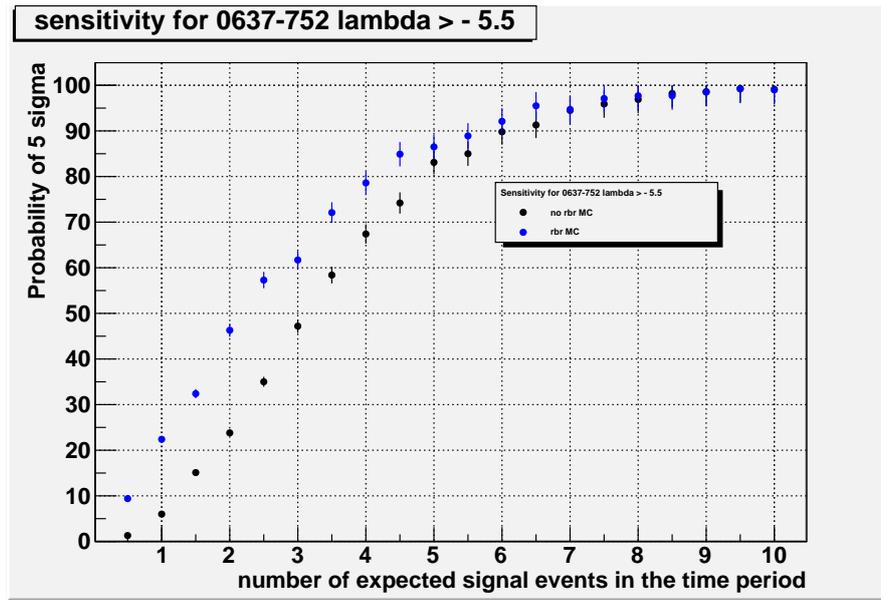


Figure E.8: Comparison of the sensitivity for PKS 0637-752 with  $\lambda > -5.5$  in the angle, annergy and light-curve time case. Black points represent the result of the no-rbrMC analysis, while blue points show the sensitivity in the rbrMC case.

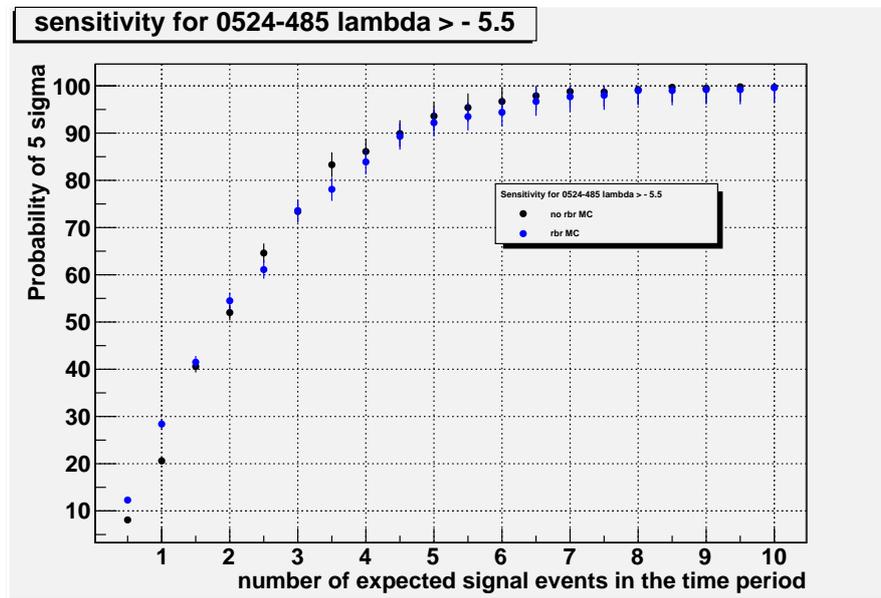


Figure E.9: Comparison of the sensitivity for PKS 0524-485 with  $\lambda > -5.5$  in the angle, annergy and light-curve time case. Black points represent the result of the no-rbrMC analysis, while blue points show the sensitivity in the rbrMC case.

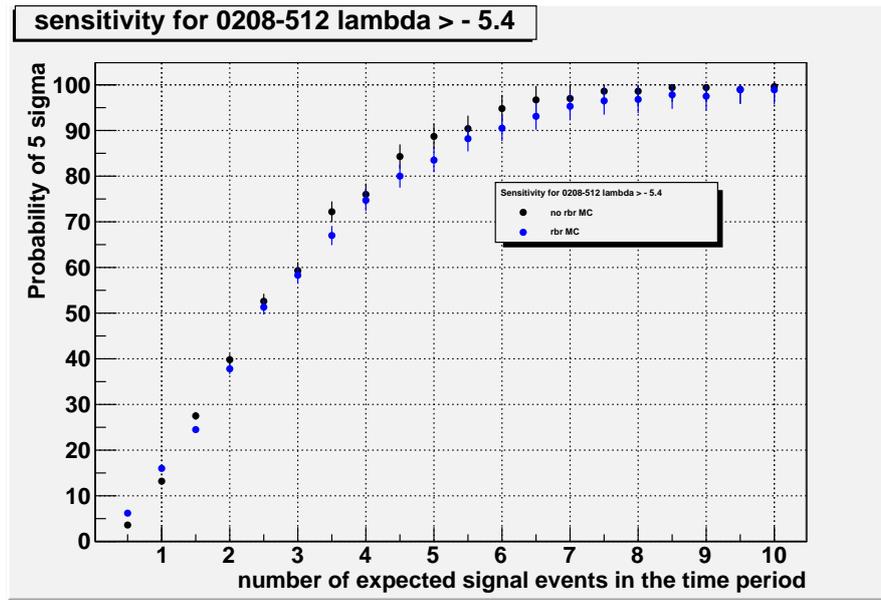


Figure E.10: Comparison of the sensitivity for PKS 0208-512 with  $\lambda > -5.4$  in the angle, annergy and light-curve time case. Black points represent the result of the no-rbrMC analysis, while blue points show the sensitivity in the rbrMC case.

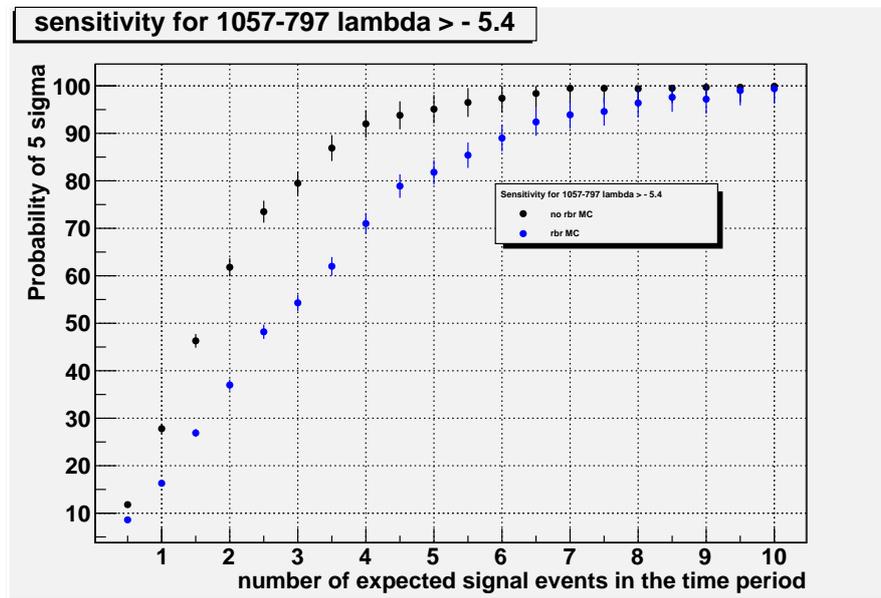


Figure E.11: Comparison of the sensitivity for PKS 1057-797 with  $\lambda > -5.4$  in the angle, annergy and light-curve time case. Black points represent the result of the no-rbrMC analysis, while blue points show the sensitivity in the rbrMC case.

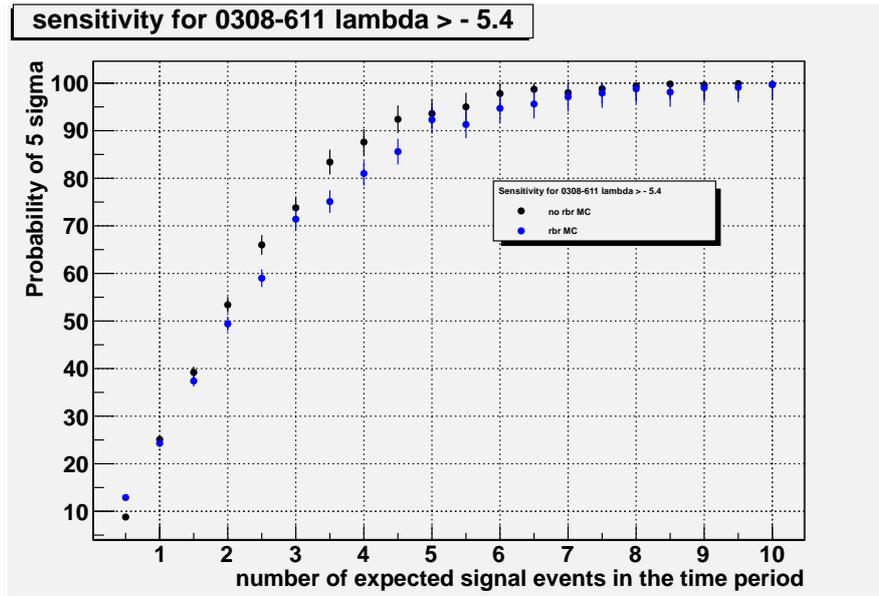


Figure E.12: Comparison of the sensitivity for PKS 0308-611 with  $\lambda > -5.4$  in the angle, anergy and light-curve time case. Black points represent the result of the no-rbrMC analysis, while blue points show the sensitivity in the rbrMC case.

## F Data Monte Carlo comparison

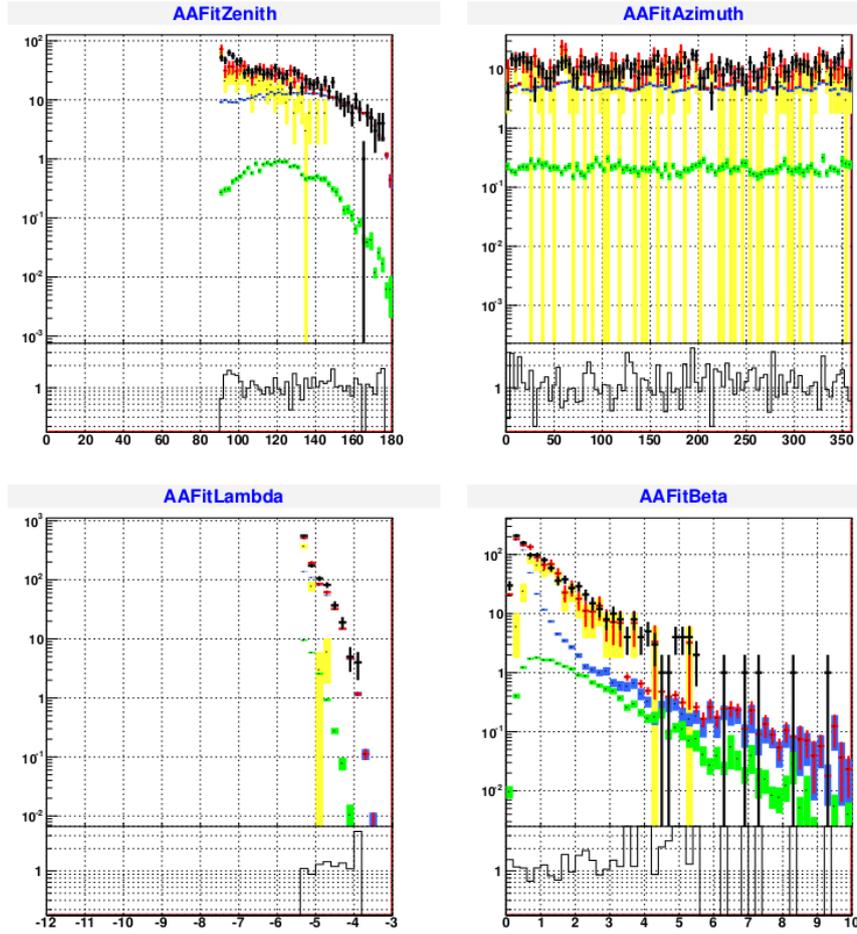


Figure F.1: Data Monte Carlo comparison of runs chosen for PKS 2204-540.

Top: Black shows the triggered data, while red labels the sum of all contributions considered by MC simulations. Different MC events are included in the graph: yellow represents atmospheric mupage events, muons (generated by the event generator GENHEN) are shown in blue and shower events are labeled in green. Bottom: Comparison of triggered data (black) and sum of total MC (red). As the ratio is fluctuating around unity, the MC models the data in a precise way. The two plots on the top show the data Monte Carlo comparison for the reconstructed zenith and azimuth angle, using Aafit, while the two plots on the bottom display the comparison for the track quality parameters  $\lambda$  and  $\beta$  (see Sect. 5.2).

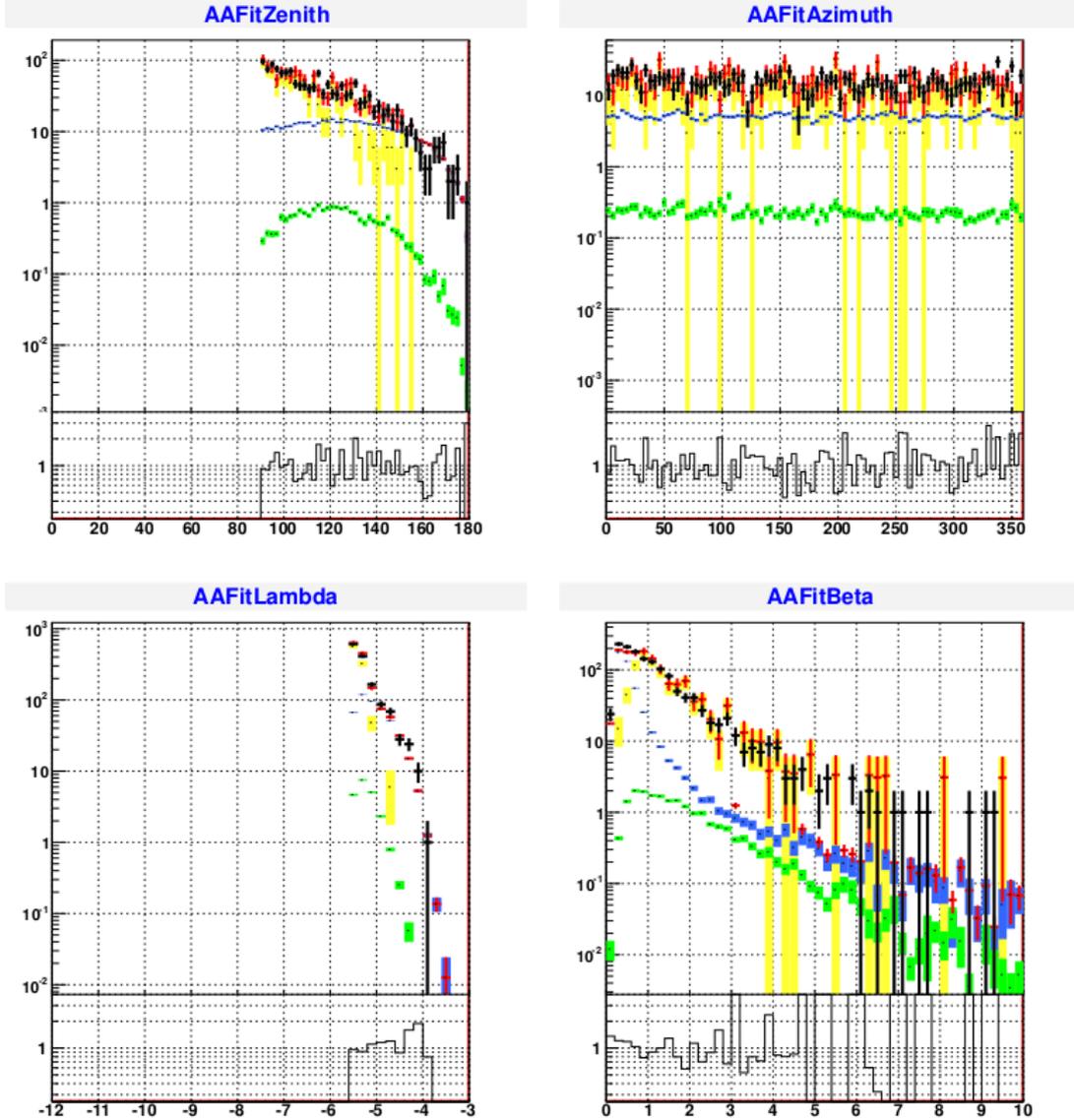


Figure F.2: Data Monte Carlo comparison of runs chosen for PKS 1933-400.

Top: Black shows the triggered data, while red labels the sum of all contributions considered by MC simulations. Different MC events are included in the graph: yellow represents atmospheric muon events, muons (generated by the event generator GENHEN) are shown in blue and shower events are labeled in green. Bottom: Comparison of triggered data (black) and sum of total MC (red). As the ratio is fluctuating around unity, the MC models the data in a precise way. The two plots on the top show the data Monte Carlo comparison for the reconstructed zenith and azimuth angle, using Aafit, while the two plots on the bottom display the comparison for the track quality parameters  $\lambda$  and  $\beta$  (see Sect. 5.2).

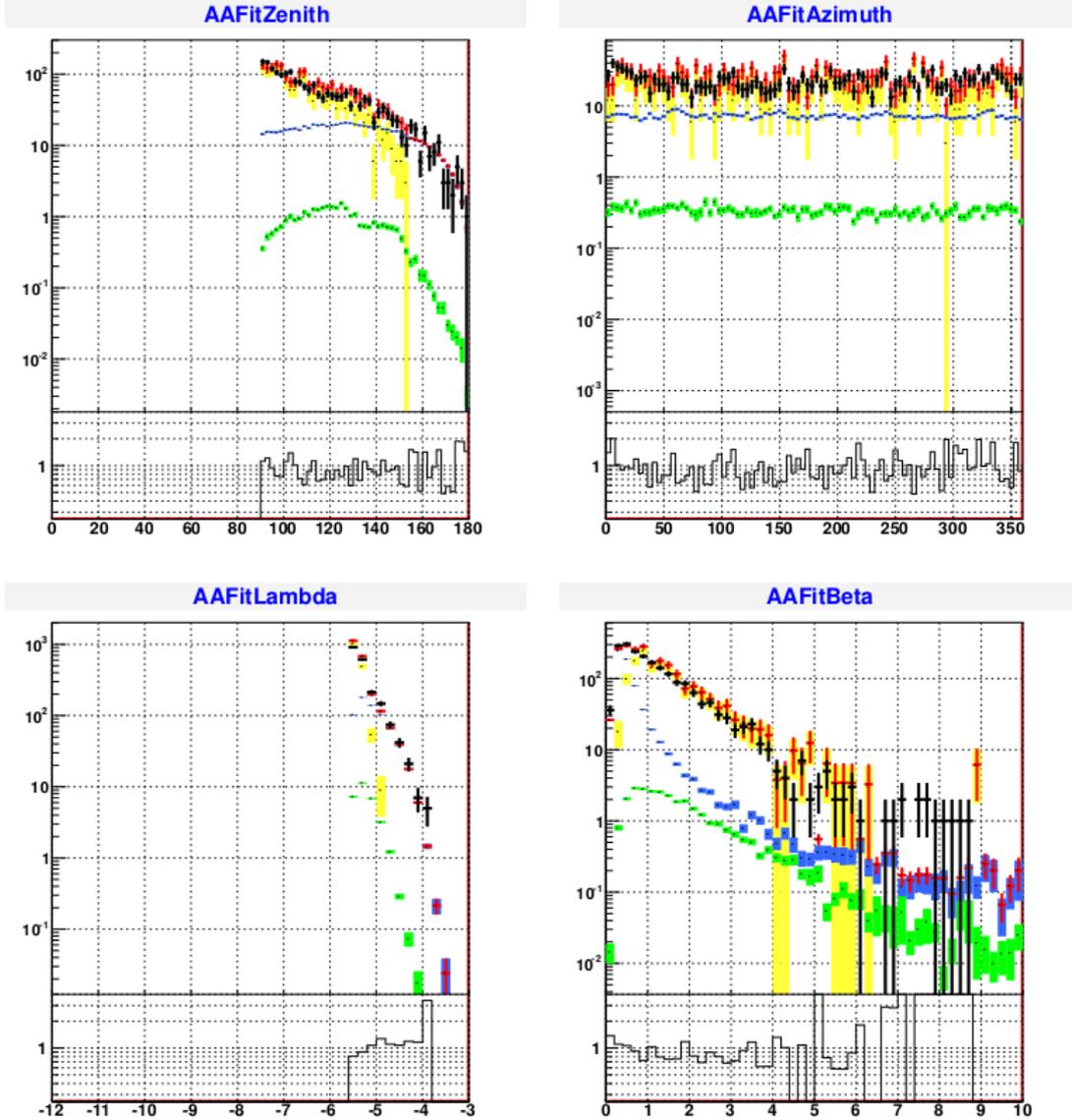


Figure F.3: Data Monte Carlo comparison of runs chosen for PKS 1716-771.

Top: Black shows the triggered data, while red labels the sum of all contributions considered by MC simulations. Different MC events are included in the graph: yellow represents atmospheric muon events, muons (generated by the event generator GENHEN) are shown in blue and shower events are labeled in green. Bottom: Comparison of triggered data (black) and sum of total MC (red). As the ratio is fluctuating around unity, the MC models the data in a precise way. The two plots on the top show the data Monte Carlo comparison for the reconstructed zenith and azimuth angle, using Aafit, while the two plots on the bottom display the comparison for the track quality parameters  $\lambda$  and  $\beta$  (see Sect. 5.2).

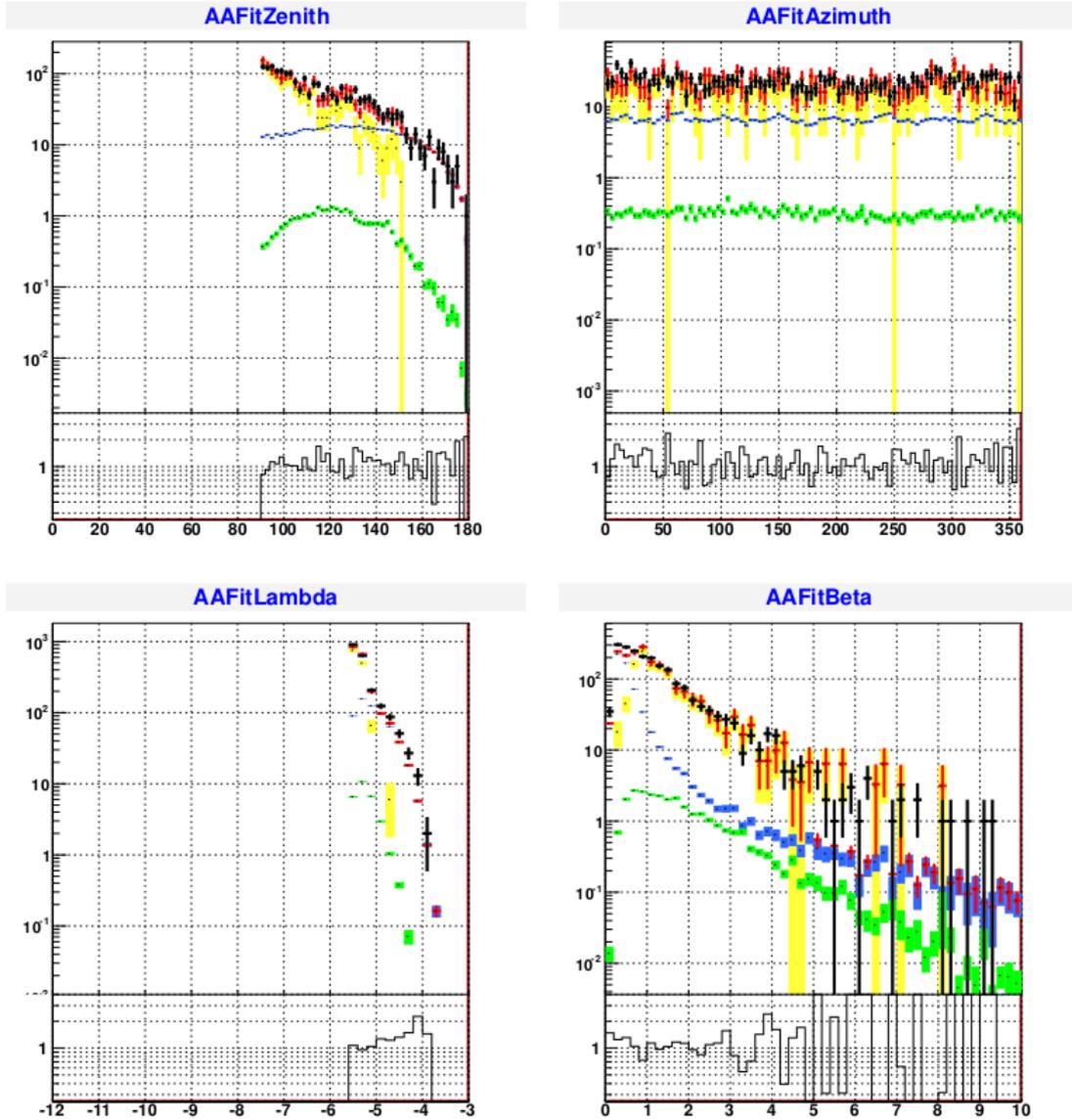


Figure F.4: Data Monte Carlo comparison of runs chosen for PKS 0227-369.

Top: Black shows the triggered data, while red labels the sum of all contributions considered by MC simulations. Different MC events are included in the graph: yellow represents atmospheric muon events, muons (generated by the event generator GENHEN) are shown in blue and shower events are labeled in green. Bottom: Comparison of triggered data (black) and sum of total MC (red). As the ratio is fluctuating around unity, the MC models the data in a precise way. The two plots on the top show the data Monte Carlo comparison for the reconstructed zenith and azimuth angle, using Aafit, while the two plots on the bottom display the comparison for the track quality parameters  $\lambda$  and  $\beta$  (see Sect. 5.2).

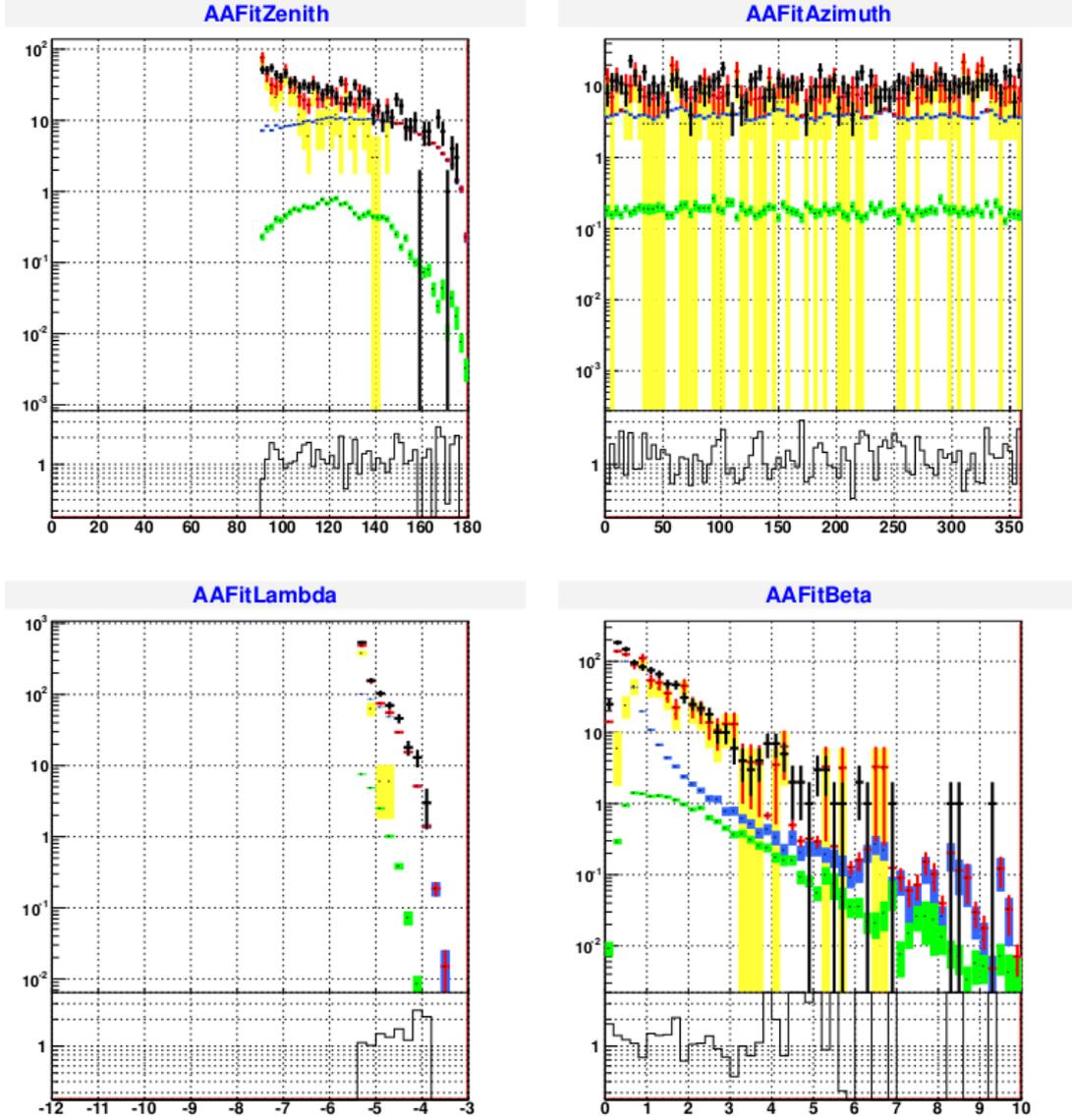


Figure F.5: Data Monte Carlo comparison of runs chosen for PKS 0412-536.

Top: Black shows the triggered data, while red labels the sum of all contributions considered by MC simulations. Different MC events are included in the graph: yellow represents atmospheric muon events, muons (generated by the event generator GENHEN) are shown in blue and shower events are labeled in green. Bottom: Comparison of triggered data (black) and sum of total MC (red). As the ratio is fluctuating around unity, the MC models the data in a precise way. The two plots on the top show the data Monte Carlo comparison for the reconstructed zenith and azimuth angle, using Aafit, while the two plots on the bottom display the comparison for the track quality parameters  $\lambda$  and  $\beta$  (see Sect. 5.2).

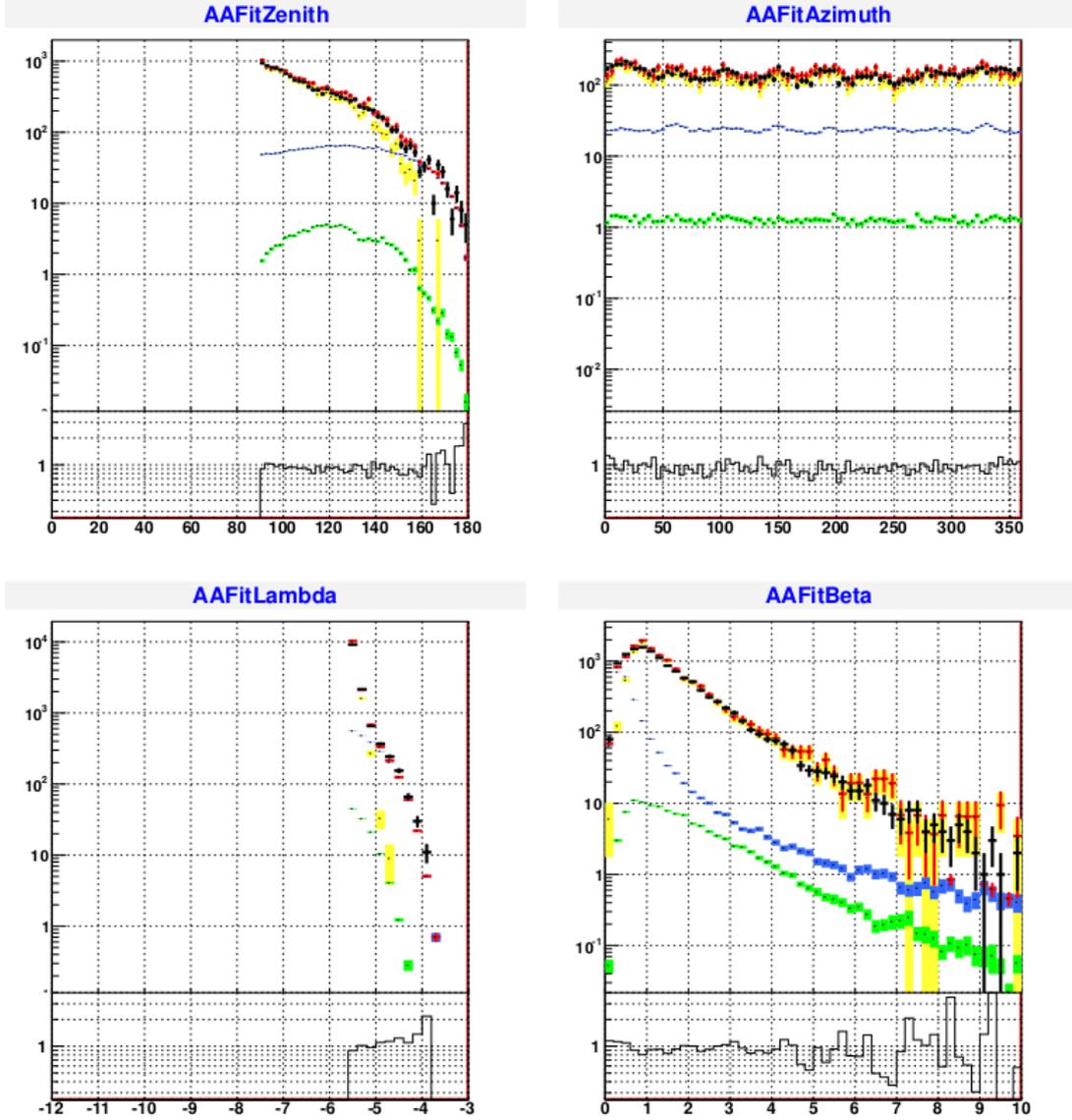


Figure F.6: Data Monte Carlo comparison of runs chosen for PKS 1313-333.

Top: Black shows the triggered data, while red labels the sum of all contributions considered by MC simulations. Different MC events are included in the graph: yellow represents atmospheric muon events, muons (generated by the event generator GENHEN) are shown in blue and shower events are labeled in green. Bottom: Comparison of triggered data (black) and sum of total MC (red). As the ratio is fluctuating around unity, the MC models the data in a precise way. The two plots on the top show the data Monte Carlo comparison for the reconstructed zenith and azimuth angle, using Aafit, while the two plots on the bottom display the comparison for the track quality parameters  $\lambda$  and  $\beta$  (see Sect. 5.2).

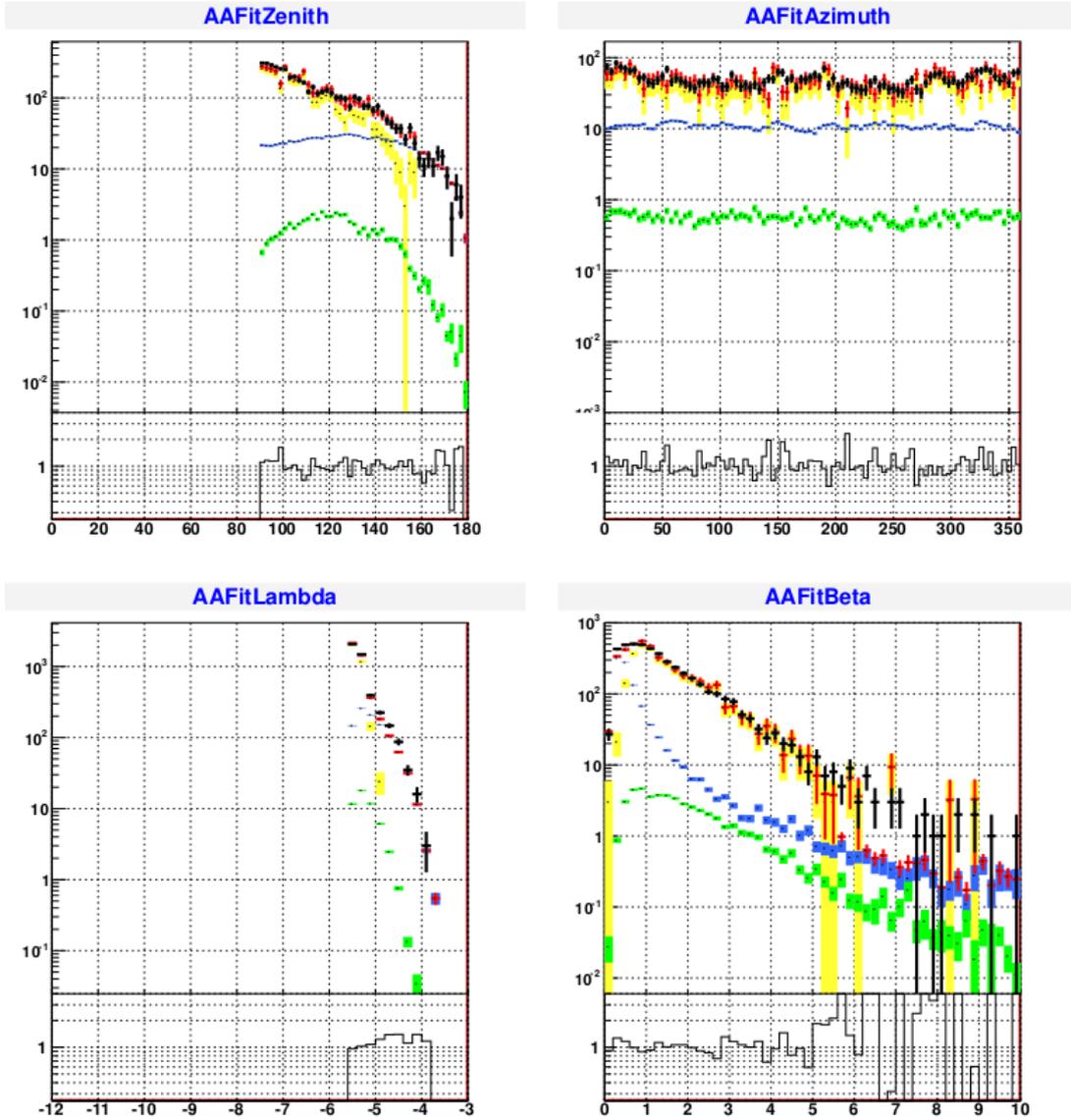


Figure F.7: Data Monte Carlo comparison of runs chosen for PKS 0637-752.

Top: Black shows the triggered data, while red labels the sum of all contributions considered by MC simulations. Different MC events are included in the graph: yellow represents atmospheric muons, muons (generated by the event generator GENHEN) are shown in blue and shower events are labeled in green. Bottom: Comparison of triggered data (black) and sum of total MC (red). As the ratio is fluctuating around unity, the MC models the data in a precise way. The two plots on the top show the data Monte Carlo comparison for the reconstructed zenith and azimuth angle, using Aafit, while the two plots on the bottom display the comparison for the track quality parameters  $\lambda$  and  $\beta$  (see Sect. 5.2).

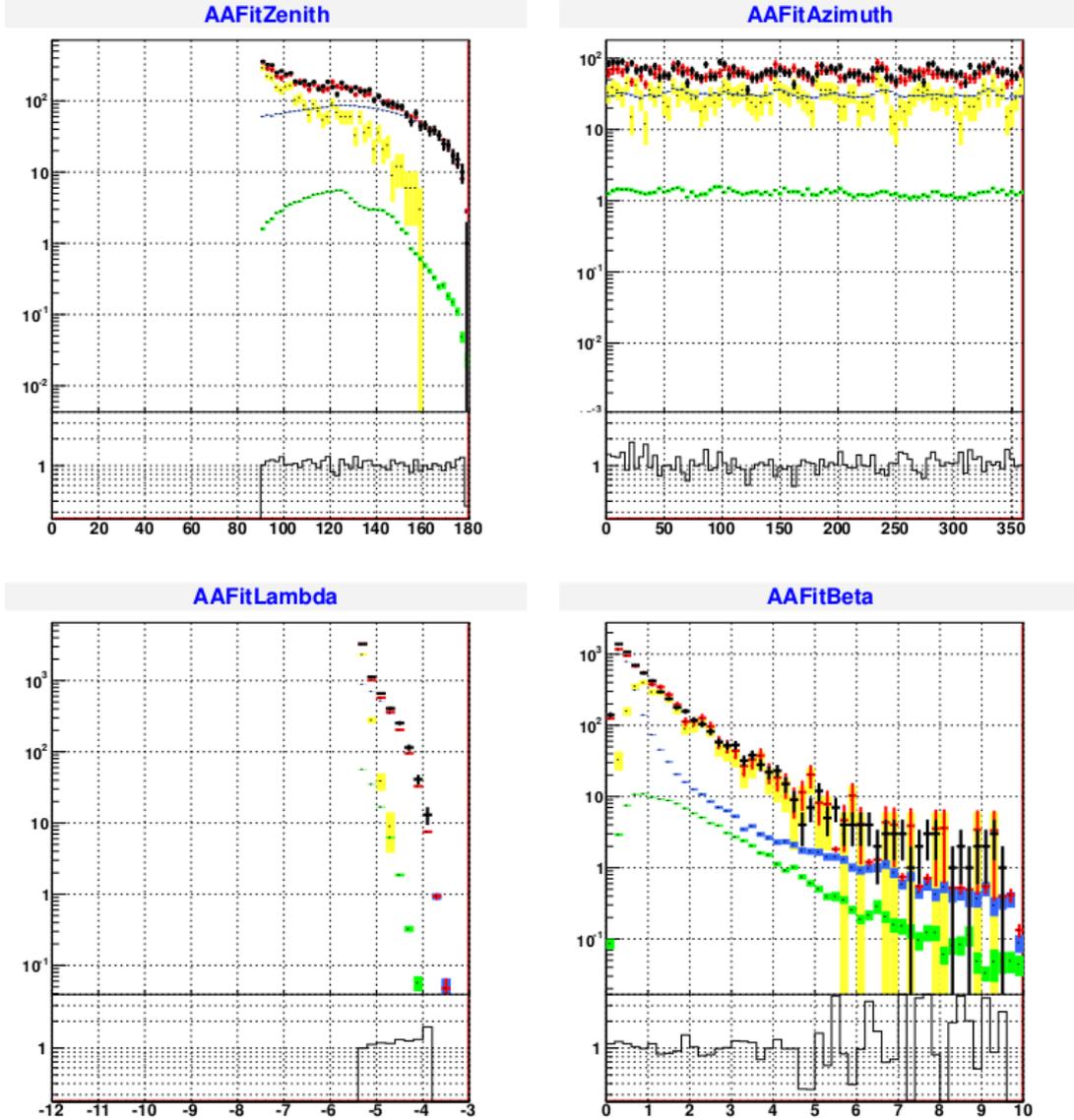


Figure F.8: Data Monte Carlo comparison of runs chosen for PKS 0208-512.

Top: Black shows the triggered data, while red labels the sum of all contributions considered by MC simulations. Different MC events are included in the graph: yellow represents atmospheric muon events, muons (generated by the event generator GENHEN) are shown in blue and shower events are labeled in green. Bottom: Comparison of triggered data (black) and sum of total MC (red). As the ratio is fluctuating around unity, the MC models the data in a precise way. The two plots on the top show the data Monte Carlo comparison for the reconstructed zenith and azimuth angle, using Aafit, while the two plots on the bottom display the comparison for the track quality parameters  $\lambda$  and  $\beta$  (see Sect. 5.2).

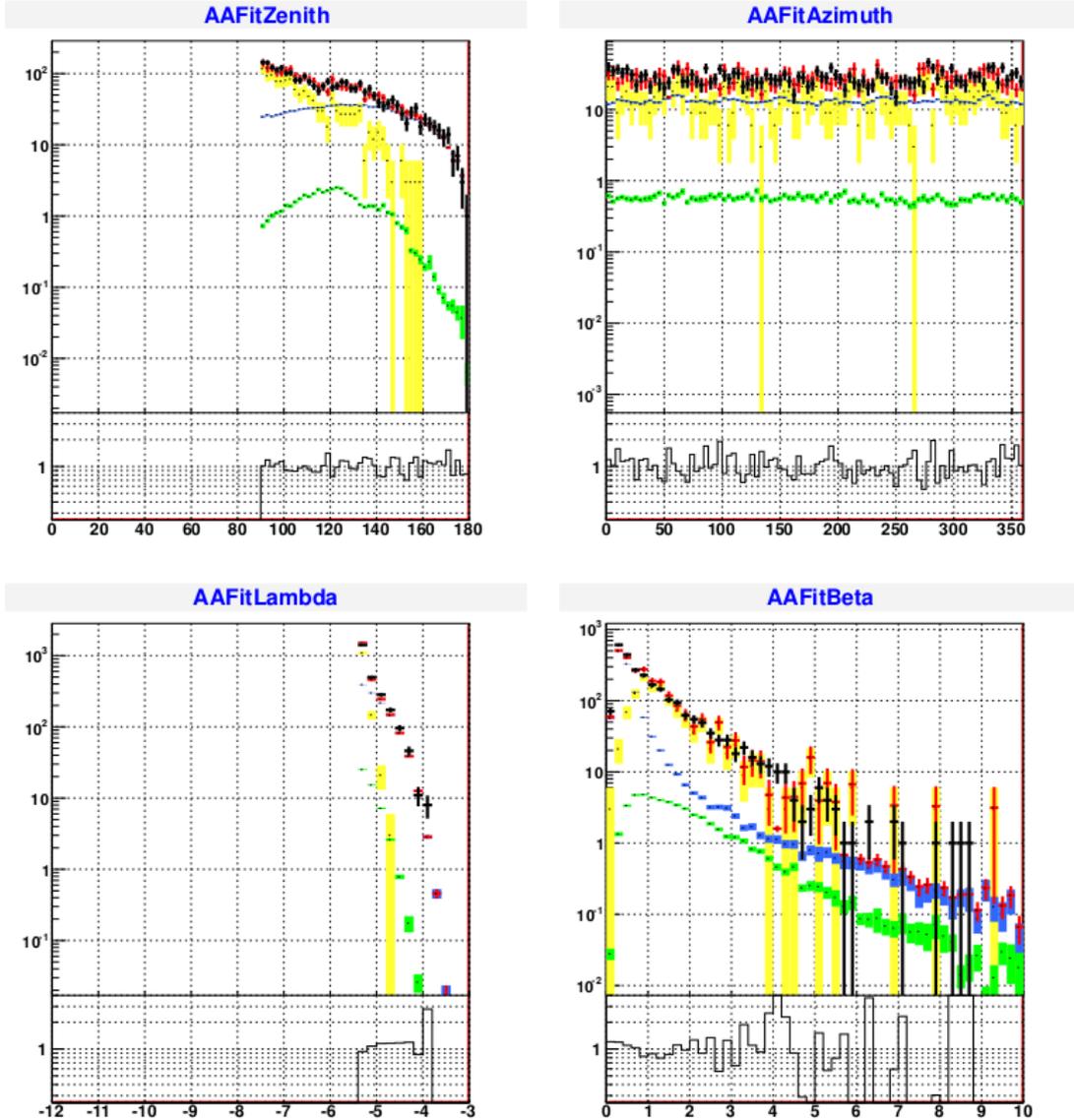


Figure F.9: Data Monte Carlo comparison of runs chosen for PKS 0308-611.

Top: Black shows the triggered data, while red labels the sum of all contributions considered by MC simulations. Different MC events are included in the graph: yellow represents atmospheric muon events, muons (generated by the event generator GENHEN) are shown in blue and shower events are labeled in green. Bottom: Comparison of triggered data (black) and sum of total MC (red). As the ratio is fluctuating around unity, the MC models the data in a precise way. The two plots on the top show the data Monte Carlo comparison for the reconstructed zenith and azimuth angle, using AaFit, while the two plots on the bottom display the comparison for the track quality parameters  $\lambda$  and  $\beta$  (see Sect. 5.2).

## G Final run selection

### Runs used in this analysis:

35151 35153 35155 35158 35159 35160 35161 35162 35163 35164 35166 35168 35170 35172 35173 35175 35176 35178 35179 35180 35190  
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 35264 35277 35285 35288 35289 35291 35292 35293 35294 35296 35300 35304 35306 35308 35309 35311 35312 35314 35316 35318 35319  
 35321 35322 35325 35327 35328 35330 35332 35333 35335 35336 35337 35339 35340 35342 35343 35346 35348 35349 35351 35353 35354  
 35355 35357 35359 35360 35362 35363 35368 35370 35372 35374 35375 35377 35470 35472 35473 35475 35476 35479 35480 35483 35484  
 35485 35488 35490 35491 35493 35495 35496 35498 35501 35503 35504 35506 35511 35512 35513 35515 35517 35519 35520 35521 35523  
 35529 35530 35532 35534 35535 35539 35541 35543 35545 35548 35550 35551 35553 35555 35557 35559 35561 35562 35569 35571 35573  
 35575 35577 35579 35580 35582 35583 35584 35627 35630 35632 35633 35635 35636 35639 35640 35651 35653 35656 35658 35659 35661  
 35662 35663 35665 35666 35668 35671 35672 35674 35678 35681 35683 35685 35686 35689 35691 35696 35698 35700 35702 35704 35706  
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 35912 35914 35916 35917 35919 35921 35923 35924 35926 35927 35929 35930 35932 35933 35935 35936 35937 35939 35941 35948 35953  
 35954 35956 35958 35959 35962 35963 35964 35966 35968 35969 35971 35972 35975 35976 35977 35979 35981 35983 35984 35985 35987  
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 36099 36101 36103 36104 36107 36108 36110 36112 36113 36119 36123 36124 36128 36139 36149 36151 36153 36155 36156 36157 36159  
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 36229 36238 36244 36254 36255 36256 36258 36259 36260 36262 36263 36264 36267 36268 36269 36271 36272 36273 36275 36276 36277  
 36279 36280 36281 36283 36284 36285 36287 36288 36289 36291 36294 36297 36298 36300 36302 36303 36305 36306 36309 36315 36352  
 36359 36360 36362 36364 36366 36367 36369 36371 36372 36373 36375 36380 36385 36386 36389 36392 36394 36396 36399 36401 36403  
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Table 9: Final list of runs used for this analysis

37108 37109 37111 37112 37114 37115 37118 37119 37121 37123 37125 37128 37130 37132 37134 37137 37139 37141 37142 37144 37146  
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Table 10: Final list of runs used for this analysis

37608 38744 41546 41548 41550 41552 41555 41557 41560 41563 41567 41605 41608 41614 41630 41631 41632 41633 41634 41635 41661  
 41662 41665 41666 41673 41675 41677 41679 41699 41702 41703 41706 41711 41712 41714 41715 41740 41742 41744 41852 41854 41980  
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 43624 43627 43629 43632 43634 43639 43646 43649 43653 43657 43663 43666 43669 43673 43681 43689 43692 43695 43698 43701 43705  
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Table 11: Final list of runs used for this analysis

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Table 12: Final list of runs used for this analysis

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Table 13: Final list of runs used for this analysis

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 62394 62396 62398 62400 62404 62408 62410 62412 62414 62416 62418 62420 62426 62429 62432 62434 62436 62438 62440 62442 62444  
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 62659 62661 62663 62668 62670 62672 62675 62677 62679 62681 62683 62687 62689 62693 62695 62697 62699 62701 62703 62705 62707  
 62714 62716 62718 62720 62722 62724 62726 62728 62730 62745 62747 62749 62751 62753

Table 14: Final list of runs used for this analysis

37608 38744 62755 62757 62759 62766 62773 62780 62782 62784 62786 62788 62789 62791 62794 62796 62798 62807 62811 62812 62815  
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 63021 63024 63026 63028 63030 63032 63033 63035 63037 63039 63041 63043 63045 63047 63049 63051 63054 63056 63058 63060 63062  
 63064 63066 63068 63070 63072 63074 63076 63078 63080 63082 63083 63085 63087 63089 63091 63093 63095 63097 63099 63101 63107  
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 65796 65798 65799 65801 65803 65805 65806 65808 65809 65811 65813 65814 65816 65817 65819 65821 65854 65856 65858 65860 65862

Table 15: Final list of runs used for this analysis

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## **Erklärung**

Hiermit erkläre ich, diese Arbeit selbstständig und nur unter Verwendung der angegebenen Quellen und Hilfsmittel verfasst zu haben. Zudem versichere ich, diese Arbeit keiner anderen Prüfungsbehörde zur Erlangung eines akademischen Grades vorgelegt zu haben.

Würzburg, den 21. August 2015

Unterschrift: \_\_\_\_\_