#### Neutrino astronomy and telescopes





Crab nebula



Cen A

## **Overview**

- → Neutrinos and their properties (done)
- Neutrino astronomy and connections to Cosmic rays and gamma-astronomy
- Neutrino sources and neutrino production
  - SN collapse and nutrino burst
- Neutrino telescopes and detection technique
  - Search Methods
    - Current experimental scenario

#### Astrophysical neutrinos: Sun and SN1987A



Hubble Space Telescope WFPC2

# Neutrino Fluxes



#### **Astronomy with particles**

- straight line propagation to point back to sources
- Photons: reprocessed in sources and absorbed by extragalactic backgrounds

For  $E_{\gamma}$  > 500 TeV do not survive journey from Galactic Centre

 Protons: directions scrambled by galactic and intergalactic magnetic fields (deflections <1° for E>50 EeV)

X[kpc]

## Messengers from the Universe

SN 0540-69.3

W49B



# Crab Cas A E0102-72.3



Photons currently provide all information on the Universe but interact in sources and during propagation Neutrinos and gravitational waves have discovery potential because they open a new window on the universe



# Neutrino production: bottom up

Beam-dump model:  $\pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma$ -astronomy  $\pi^{\pm} \rightarrow \nu$ -astronomy



Neglecting  $\gamma$  absorption (uncertain)  $\phi_{\nu} \sim \phi_{\gamma}$ Targets: p or ambient  $\gamma$ 

#### From photon fluxes to v predictions:pp

Minimum proton energy fixed by threshold for  $\pi$  production ( $\Gamma$  =E/m is the Lorentz factor of the p jet respect to the observer)

The energy imported by a v in  $\pi$  decay is 1/4E<sub> $\pi$ </sub>

Teresa Montaruli, Apr. 2006

#### **Exercises!**

#### From photon fluxes to v predictions: py





# Astrophysical Neutrino Oscillations



#### Astrophysical Neutrino Oscillations

Hence for astrophysical sources L>kpc: the uncertainties on distances to sources and on their dimensions eliminate the effect of the phase term.

$$P(\mathbf{v}_{\alpha} \rightarrow \mathbf{v}_{\beta}) = \sum_{i,j} U_{\alpha,i} U_{\beta,i}^{*} U_{\alpha,j}^{*} U_{\beta,j} e^{-i\Delta m_{i,j}^{2}L/2E} \longrightarrow P(\nu_{\alpha} \rightarrow \nu_{\beta}) = \sum_{i} |U_{\alpha,i}|^{2} |U_{\beta,i}|^{2}$$

$$P(v_{e} \rightarrow v_{e}) = \sum_{i} |U_{ei}|^{2} |U_{ei}|^{2} = |U_{ei}|^{4} + |U_{e2}|^{4} + |U_{e3}|^{4} = 0.82^{4} + 0.57^{4} + 0 = 0.56$$

$$P(v_{e} \rightarrow v_{\mu}) = \sum_{i} |U_{ei}|^{2} |U_{\mu i}|^{2} = |U_{ei}|^{2} |U_{\mu i}|^{2} + |U_{e2}|^{2} |U_{\mu 2}|^{2} + |U_{e3}|^{2} |U_{\mu i}|^{2} = 0.82^{2} \cdot 0.4^{2} + 0.57^{2} \cdot 0.58^{2} + 0 = 0.22$$

$$P(v_{e} \rightarrow v_{\tau}) = \sum_{i} |U_{ei}|^{2} |U_{\pi i}|^{2} = |U_{ei}|^{2} |U_{\pi i}|^{2} + |U_{e2}|^{2} |U_{\pi 2}|^{2} + |U_{e3}|^{2} |U_{\pi i}|^{2} = 0.82^{2} \cdot 0.4^{2} + 0.57^{2} \cdot 0.58^{2} + 0 = 0.22$$

$$V_{\alpha} \langle v_{\beta} \rangle \langle v_{e} \rangle \langle v_{\mu} \rangle \langle v_{\tau} \rangle \langle v_{e} \rangle \langle v_{\mu} \rangle \langle v_{\tau} \rangle \langle v_{e} \rangle \langle v_{\mu} \rangle \langle v_{\tau} \rangle \langle v_{e} \rangle \langle v_{\mu} \rangle \langle v_{\tau} \rangle \langle v_{\mu} \rangle \langle v$$

$$v_e:v_\mu:v_\tau=1:1:1$$

Teresa Montaruli, Apr. 2006

20% 40%

40%

 $\nu_{\tau}$ 

#### But: energy losses in sources

At high energy this ratio modifies into 1:1.8:1.8 since pions/muons may suffer significant energy losses prior to decay. Since pion lifetime  $2.6 \times 10^{-8}$  s < muon one  $2.2 \times 10^{-6}$  s , it can decay more easily before losing significant energy compared to muons. This leads to a suppressed contribution of  $v_e$  and  $v_{\mu}$  from  $\mu$  decay. When muons do not decay at source 0:1:0 and the ratio is modified by oscillations into 1:1.8:1.8. Transition at about  $10^6$  TeV for AGNs, for GRBs associated to collapse of massive stars transition at 1 TeV due to intense inverse Compton losses



# Neutrino production: top down

**Decay of neutrons in sources** 

Decay or annihilation of supermassive relic of Big Bang  $10^{24} \text{ eV} = 10^{15} \text{ GeV}$ ~  $M_{GUT}$  (monopoles, topological defects, vibrating strings...) Resonant UHE neutrino interactions on relic neutrinos (Z-bursts)

$$\nu \bar{\nu} \to Z \to p \gamma \dots$$
  
 $E_{\text{res}} = \frac{M_Z^2}{2 m_\nu} = 4 \times 10^{21} \text{eV} \left(\frac{\text{eV}}{m_\nu}\right)$ 

Can explain EHECR



vs from CR interactions in the Galactic plane



Gelmini et al, PRD70, 2004

Figure 2: Predicted spectra for  $m_{\nu} = 0.3 \text{ eV}$  from Z-bursts with a uniform distribution up to z = 2, added to a power law spectrum which fits the data below the ankle  $\sim 10^{19} \text{ eV}$ , and terminates at  $4 \times 10^{19} \text{ eV}$ . It is seen that EECR primaries above the ankle are nearly 100% nucleons up to  $10^{20} \text{ eV}$ , and photons plus nucleons at higher energies. Also shown is the EE neutrino flux at the unioue resonance energy which produces the required Z-burst rate.

#### Supernovae and gravitational collapse

Stars are in hydrostatic equilibrium: equilibrium between the gravitational force towards the core and the pressure opposing to I: For spherical symmetry:

Pressure  

$$\frac{dP(r)}{dr} = -\frac{GM(r)\rho(r)}{r^2}$$
Mass inside radius r= distance  
from the centre of the star  

$$M(r) = 4\pi \int_0^r dr' \ (r')^2 \ \rho(r')$$

The layer between r and r+dr contains dm(r) =  $4\pi r^2 \rho(r) dr$ The gravitational force on this layer is:  $F_{grav} = -G \frac{M(r)dm(r)}{r^2}$ While the pressure force is:  $\left[P(r) - P(r+dr)\right] \times (4\pi r^2) = \frac{dP}{dr} \times (4\pi r^2 dr)$ Teresa Montaruli, Apr. 2006 http://www.nu.to.infn.it/Supernova\_Neutrinos/

# Pressure in stars

In normal stars the source of pressure is the thermal motion of the material. In degenerate stars (n stars or white dwarfs) it is a quantum mechanical effect. Given Heisenberg uncertainty principle

$$\Delta p \ \Delta x \sim \hbar$$

A particle cannot be compressed in a volume  $(\Delta x)^3$  without having a Momentum  $p \sim \frac{\hbar}{\Lambda r}$ 

For a system of N particles confined in a volume Vwith particle density n = N/VEach particle has an available volume of  $(\Delta x)^3 \sim 1/n$  and so a momentum

$$\langle p \rangle \sim \hbar n^{\frac{1}{3}} \sim \hbar \frac{N^{\frac{1}{3}}}{R}$$

# The Chandrasekar mass

 $\frac{E_{\rm kin}^{\rm rel}}{\simeq} \langle p \rangle c$ 

In the non relativistic case:

In the relativistic case:

In the non relativistic case the total energy is

 $E = -G\frac{Nm^2}{R} + \frac{N^{2/3}\hbar^2}{2mR^2}$ 

The equation has the form: That has a min for

$$E = -\frac{a}{R} + \frac{b}{R^2}$$
$$\frac{dE}{dR} = \frac{a}{R^2} - \frac{2b}{R^2} = 0 \Longrightarrow R^* = \frac{2b}{a} = \frac{h^2}{Gm^3 N^{1/3}}$$

 $E_{\rm kin} \simeq \frac{\langle p \rangle^2}{2m} \simeq \sim \hbar^2 \frac{N^{\frac{4}{3}}}{2m} \frac{1}{R^2}$ 

For R>R\* the gravitational effect dominates and the system contracts. For R<R\* the repulsive effect of the Fermi momentum dominates

# The Chandrasekar mass

When N increases the system becomes unavoidably relativistic:

$$R^* \rightarrow N^{-1/3}$$
 and  $\langle p \rangle \sim \hbar \frac{N^{\frac{1}{3}}}{R^*} \propto N^{\frac{2}{3}}$   
And the total energy is:  
 $E = -\frac{GNm^2}{R} + \frac{N^{\frac{1}{3}}\hbar c}{R}$ 

This equation has no equilibrium position. The energy is positive or negative. For N sufficiently small E>0 and the repulsive effect wins and the star expands until it becomes non relativistic. For N sufficiently large the system collapses to R->0.

The critical condition that separates the collapse from the existence of a stable solution is  $GN m^2 \simeq N^{\frac{1}{3}} \hbar c \qquad N^* \simeq \left(\frac{\hbar c}{G m^2}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \simeq 2.2 \times 10^{57}$ 

And if fermions have nucleons

$$M^* \simeq N^* m_p \simeq 1.85 \ M_{\odot}$$

## The Chandrasekar mass

A more detailed calculation includeing the density profile of the star would give

$$M_{\text{max}} = M_{\text{Chandra}} = 1.457 \left(\frac{Z/A}{1/2}\right) M_{\odot}$$
  
 $N_{\text{max}} = \frac{M_{\text{Chandra}}}{m_p} = 1.82 \times 10^{57}$ 

Which is the max mass of a Carbon white dwarf (in this case the pressure is generated by electrons that have a smaller mass and so a larger velocity for the same momentum and a larger pressure P.

The corresponding radius is given by the condition where fermions become relativistic

$$\langle \mathbf{p} \rangle \approx mc \approx \hbar \frac{N^{1/3}}{R^*} \qquad R^* \simeq \frac{\hbar}{mc} \ (N^*)^{\frac{1}{3}} \qquad \begin{array}{l} \mbox{For } m = m_c \\ \mbox{For } m = m_p \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{l} R^* \simeq 4000 \ \mbox{Km} \\ R^* \simeq 20 \ \mbox{Km} \end{array}$$

# **Core Collapse**

A star passes most of its lifetime burning H (main sequence). The resulting He builds up in the core and its mass increase, heating and contracting under the pressure of outer layer. The star contraction pauses as nuclear fusion provides the energy necessary to replenish the energy the star loses in radiation and neutrinos. When the T in the core is sufficiently large, He burning begins. After He burning the evolution is greatly accelerated by neutrino losses The scheme repeats for different stages

(i) Hydrogen burning  $4p \rightarrow {}^{4}\text{He} + 2e^{+} + 2\nu_{e}$ (ii) Helium burning  $3\alpha \rightarrow {}^{12}\text{C} + 2\gamma$ (iii) Carbon burning  ${}^{12}\text{C} + {}^{4}\text{He} \rightarrow {}^{16}\text{O} + \gamma$ (iv) Oxygen burning  ${}^{16}\text{O} + {}^{16}\text{O} \rightarrow {}^{28}\text{Si} + \alpha$ (iv) Iron burning  ${}^{28}\text{Si} + {}^{28}\text{Si} \rightarrow {}^{56}\text{Fe} + \gamma$ Million yrs Few weeks