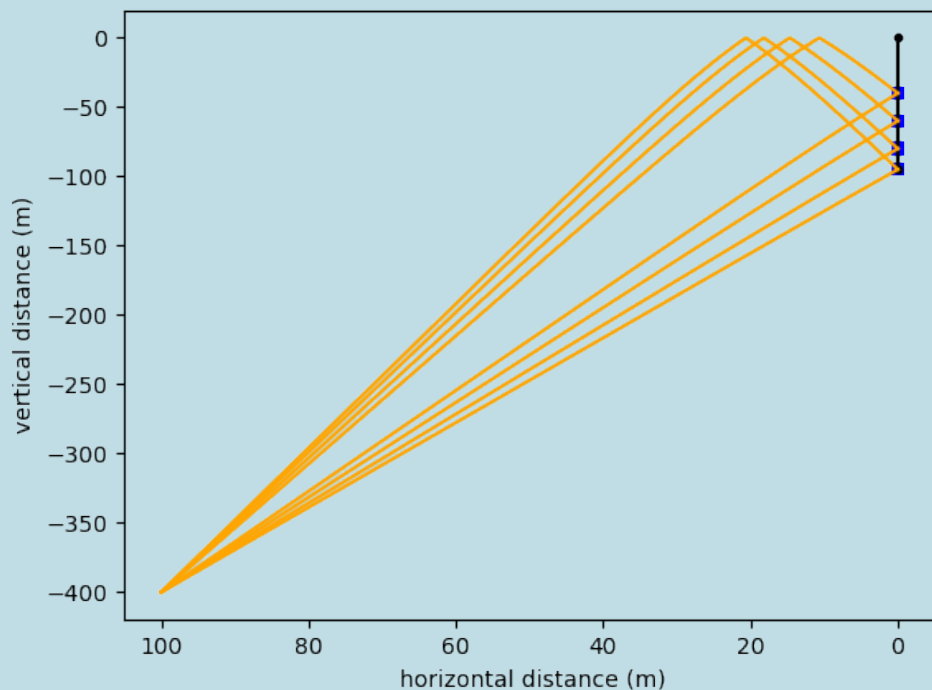


## Radio detection of high energy neutrinos in the Greenland icecap

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## CHAPTER

# 1

## ABSTRACT

The Radio Neutrino Observatory - RNO-G - is under construction at Summit Station in Greenland to search for neutrinos of several PeV energy up to the Eev range. It's a mid-scale, discovery phase, extremely high-energy neutrino telescope that will probe the astrophysical neutrino flux at energies beyond the reach of IceCube. More particularly it will make it possible to reach the next major milestone in astroparticle physics: the discovery of cosmogenic neutrinos.

## CHAPTER

# 2

# NEUTRINOS

Neutrinos are ideal messengers to identify the UHE (Ultra High Energy) sources in the universe. Unlike cosmic rays, which are deflected by magnetic fields and interact with matter and radiation on their way to us, neutrinos point back to sources and can reach Earth unperturbed from the most distant corners of the universe. Neutrinos can be generated in 2 ways: either they're generated in interactions at the sources, termed *astrophysical neutrinos*. Or they're created through the interaction of ultra-high energy cosmic rays during propagation with the cosmic microwave or other photon backgrounds termed *cosmogenic neutrinos*.

### 2.1 Discovery

### 2.2 Standard model

### 2.3 Outside sources

The radio detection of neutrinos targets the energy range 10PeV to 100EeV [1], here we'll see diffuse neutrino fluxes both directly from sources (*astrophysical neutrinos*) i.e created directly in (or very close to) the sources of ultra-high energy cosmic rays (UHECRs), as well as from the interaction of UHECRs with photon backgrounds (e.g the CMB) (*cosmogenic neutrinos*).

#### 2.3.1 primordial neutrinos

To estimate the temperature of the neutrinos who decoupled at the start of the universe, we can take a look at conservation of entropy [3] (...) The entropy before and after decoupling

are:

$$s(a_1) = \frac{2\pi^2}{45} \left(2 + \frac{7}{8}(2 + 2 + 3 + 3)\right) T_1^3 \quad (2.1)$$

$$= \frac{2\pi^2}{45} \frac{86}{8} T_1^3 \quad (2.2)$$

$$s(a_2) = \frac{2\pi^2}{45} (2T_\gamma^3 + \frac{7}{8}(6)T_\nu^3) \quad (2.3)$$

$$(2.4)$$

Conservation of entropy:

$$s(a_1)a_1^3 = s(a_2)a_2^3 \quad (2.5)$$

$$\frac{86}{8}(T_1 a_1)^3 = \left(2 \left(\frac{T_\gamma}{T_\nu}\right)^3 + \frac{42}{8}\right) (T_\nu a_2)^3 \quad (2.6)$$

$$\frac{86}{8} = 2 \left(\frac{T_\gamma}{T_\nu}\right)^3 + \frac{42}{8} \quad (2.7)$$

$$\frac{44}{16} = \left(\frac{T_\gamma}{T_\nu}\right)^3 \quad (2.8)$$

$$\left(\frac{T_\gamma}{T_\nu}\right) = \left(\frac{11}{4}\right)^{1/3} \quad (2.9)$$

i.e

$$T_\nu = \left(\frac{4}{11}\right)^{1/3} T_\gamma \quad (2.10)$$

### 2.3.2 Oscillations

### 2.3.3 Majorana

## CHAPTER

# 3

## RADIO DETECTION

The radio emission following a neutrino interaction stems from the *Askaryan* effect [2], also known as Askaryan radiation. This is the phenomenon whereby a particle traveling faster than the phase velocity of light in a dense dielectric (such as ice) produces a shower of secondary charged particles which contains a charge anisotropy, this charge imbalance is a result of medium electrons either Compton scattering into the advancing shower or annihilating with shower positrons. You thus get moving charges which move faster than the light speed in the medium, creating Cherenkov radiation. Here I'll quickly give a short overview of the equations of Cherenkov radiation. The reader who wants a thorough explanation and derivation is advised to check out *Chapter 14: Radiation by Moving Charges* from the book *Classical Electrodynamics* by Jackson.

### 3.1 Spectral distribution of radiation

We wish to know the emitted energy per elementary unit solid angle over a certain frequency interval for a moving charge far away from the source. For this we have that the vectorpotential  $\mathbf{A}$ , defined as

$$\mathbf{B} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A} \quad (3.1)$$

takes the form

$$\mathbf{A}(\omega) = \frac{q}{4\pi\sqrt{2\pi}} \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \quad (3.2)$$

with  $q$  the charge,  $r$  the distance from the charge to the observer and

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \boldsymbol{\beta}(t) e^{i\omega(t - \mathbf{e}_r \cdot \mathbf{r}_0(t)/c')} dt \quad (3.3)$$

With  $\boldsymbol{\beta} := \mathbf{u}/c'$  wherein  $u$  is the speed of the particle,  $c'$  is the local speed of light and the integration is along the path of the moving charged particle. The energy emitted per unit solid angle is given by

$$\frac{d\mathcal{P}}{d\Omega} = R'^2 \mathbf{S}(t) \cdot \mathbf{n}' \quad (3.4)$$

Defining  $\mathcal{E}$  to be the time integral of this, we can reformulate this into (standard practice to integrate over the frequencies)

$$\frac{d\mathcal{E}}{d\Omega} = r^2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\omega (\mathbf{E}(\omega) \times \mathbf{H}(-\omega)) \cdot \mathbf{e}_r = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{d^2 \mathcal{J}(\omega)}{d\omega d\Omega} \quad (3.5)$$

i.e  $\frac{d^2 \mathcal{J}}{d\omega d\Omega}$  is the energy radiated per elementary unit solid angle and per elementary unit frequency interval, re-writing gives

$$\frac{d^2 \mathcal{J}(\omega)}{d\omega d\Omega} = 2r^2 \Re\{\mathbf{E}(\omega) \times \mathbf{H}^*(\omega)\} \cdot \mathbf{e}_r \quad (3.6)$$

up to  $\mathcal{O}(r^{-2})$  we get

$$\frac{d^2 \mathcal{J}(\omega)}{d\omega d\Omega} = \frac{q^2 \omega^2}{16\pi^3} \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} |\mathbf{e}_r \times (\mathbf{e}_r \times \boldsymbol{\alpha})|^2 \quad (3.7)$$

### 3.2 Cherenkov radiation

Cherenkov radiation is like the elektromagnetic equivalent of a sonic boom, a sonic boom happens when something goes faster than the sounds speed in the medium; A particle emits Cherenkov radiation if it goes faster than the light speed in the medium. Choosing the particle trajectory to lie along the z axis we can approximate equation 3.7 as

$$\frac{d^2 \mathcal{J}(\omega)}{d\omega d\Omega} = \frac{q^2}{4\pi} \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \beta^2 \omega^2 \delta^2[\omega(1 - \beta \mathbf{e}_r \cdot \mathbf{e}_z)] |\mathbf{e}_r \times \mathbf{e}_z|^2 \quad (3.8)$$

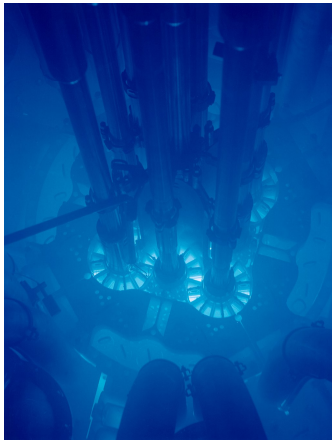
or, in spherical coordinates,  $1 - \beta \mathbf{e}_r \cdot \mathbf{e}_z = 1 - \beta \cos(\theta_c)$  in the delta function. We thus only expect radiation if

$$\cos(\theta_c) = \frac{1}{\beta} = \frac{c'}{u} = \frac{c}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{u} \quad (3.9)$$

I.e if  $u > \frac{c}{n}$  with n the index of refraction, Cherenkov radiation will be emitted along a cone surface with half angle  $\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta_c$  as illustrated in figure 3.2. Integrating equation 3.8 over the solid angle and formally deviding by the time interval we get:

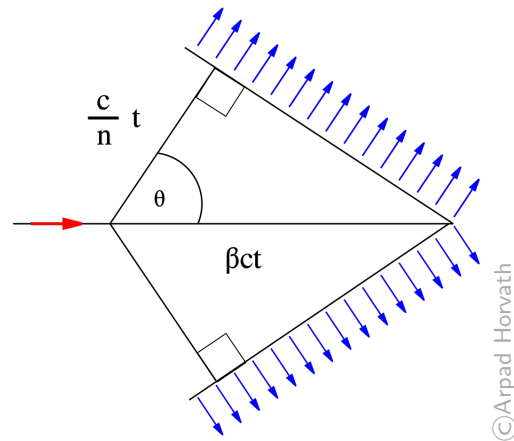
$$\frac{d^2 \mathcal{J}}{d\omega dt} = \frac{q^2}{4\pi} \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\epsilon}} \beta \omega \left(1 - \frac{1}{\beta^2}\right) \quad (3.10)$$

We see that the energy is proportional to  $\omega$ , so we expect that most radiation will be emitted "in blue", as seen in figure 3.1. For ice the index of refraction is roughly 1.75, so we expect an ultra-relativistic particle to produce the most radiation at around  $55^\circ$  opening as  $\cos\left(\frac{1}{1.75}\right) \approx 55^\circ$  (generally we take  $56^\circ$ ).



©Argonne National Laboratory  
Advanced Test Reactor core, Idaho  
National Laboratory

Figure 3.1: Cherenkov radiation in a nuclear reactor



©Arpad Horvath

Figure 3.2: Diagrammatic representation of Cherenkov radiation



## CHAPTER

# 4

## THE DETECTOR

The detector is illustrated in figure [4.1](#).

The deep component of the detector can be split up in three parts: Two *helper strings*, one *power string* and the surface components. The helper strings are the 2 vertical cables shown on the right of the figure and each house 2 vertically polarized antennas (Vpols), one quadslot antenna for the horizontal polarization component (Hpol) and one radio pulser on each helper string which can be used to generate calibration signals.

The power string (the leftmost vertical cable) is more densely instrumented: At the bottom it houses a set of four Vpol and two Hpol antennas with a spacing of 1m and further up the string, with a spacing of 20m are three more Vpol antennas.

The signal from each of these antennae are fed into a low-noise amplifier directly above it, from there the signal is send to the data acquisition (DAQ) system at the surface via a Radio Frequency over Fiber (RFoF) cable. There it's again amplified, digitized and saved onto an SD card. This data is then transmitted via a Long Term Evolution (LTE) telecommunications network to a local server<sup>1</sup>, from where it is sent via a sattelite link.

There are solar panels as a power source who charge up battery banks, but as there is't enough light during the Greenland winters, there're plans to build wind turbines (with the problem being the possibly detectable RF noise the 'engine' produces)

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<sup>1</sup>There is additionally a Long Range Wide Area Network (LoRaWAN) antenna as backup in case of problems with the LTE network

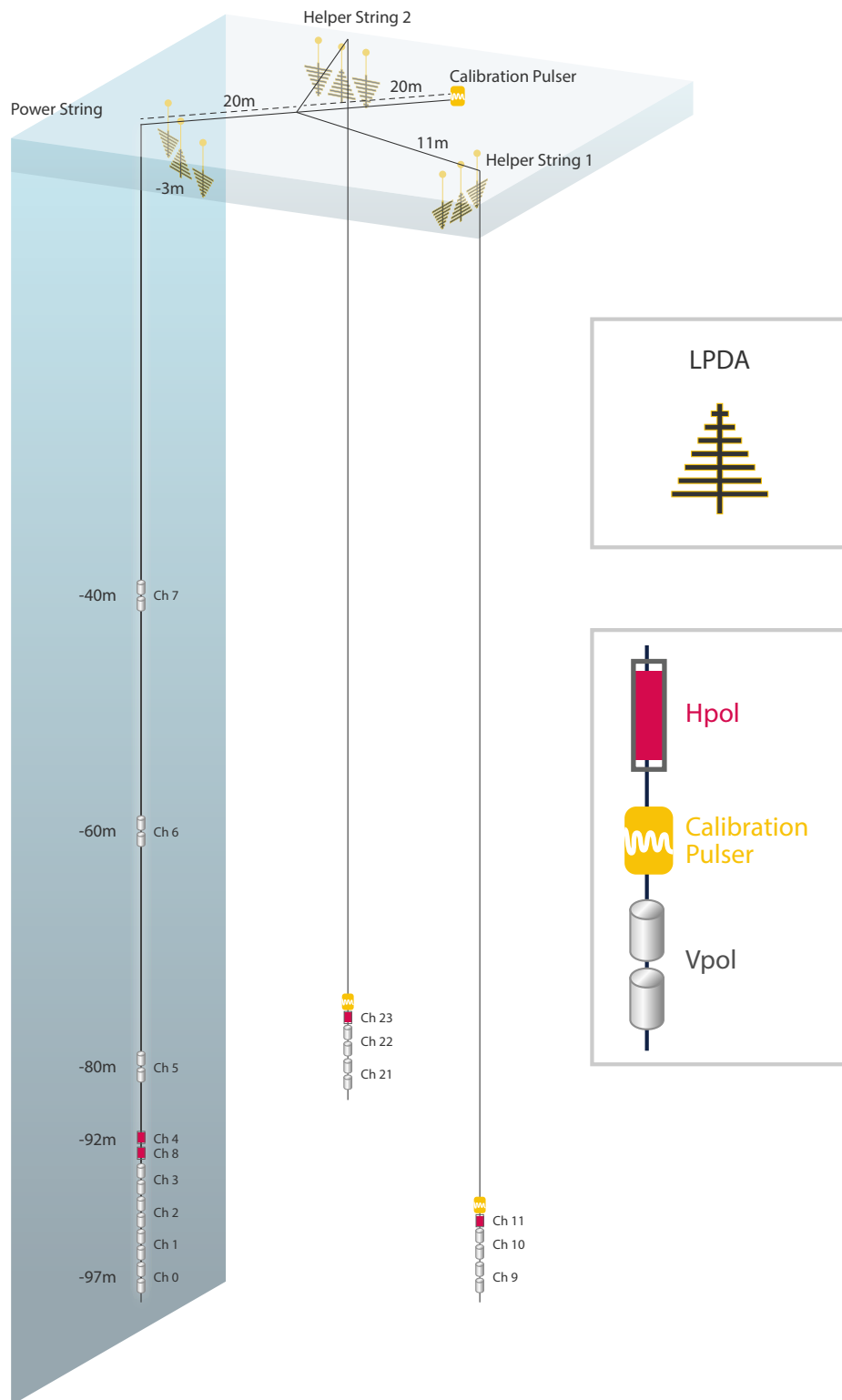


Figure 4.1: illustration of the detector

The radio signal from a neutrino often travels along both direct and refracted paths (designated DnR) to the deep array, this happens because the upper ice layer is a non-uniform medium where the signal trajectory is bent, as illustrated by a simulation in figure 4.2.

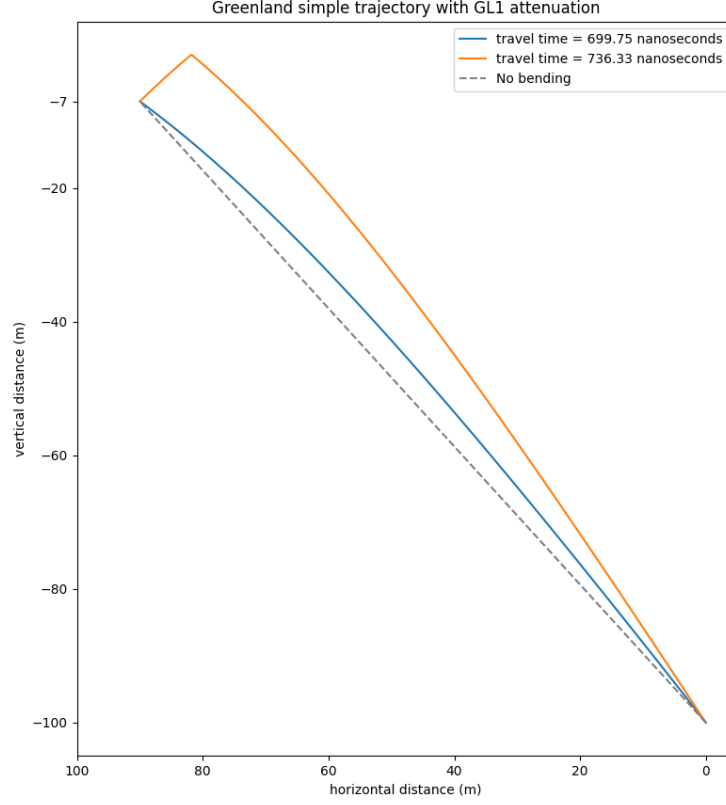
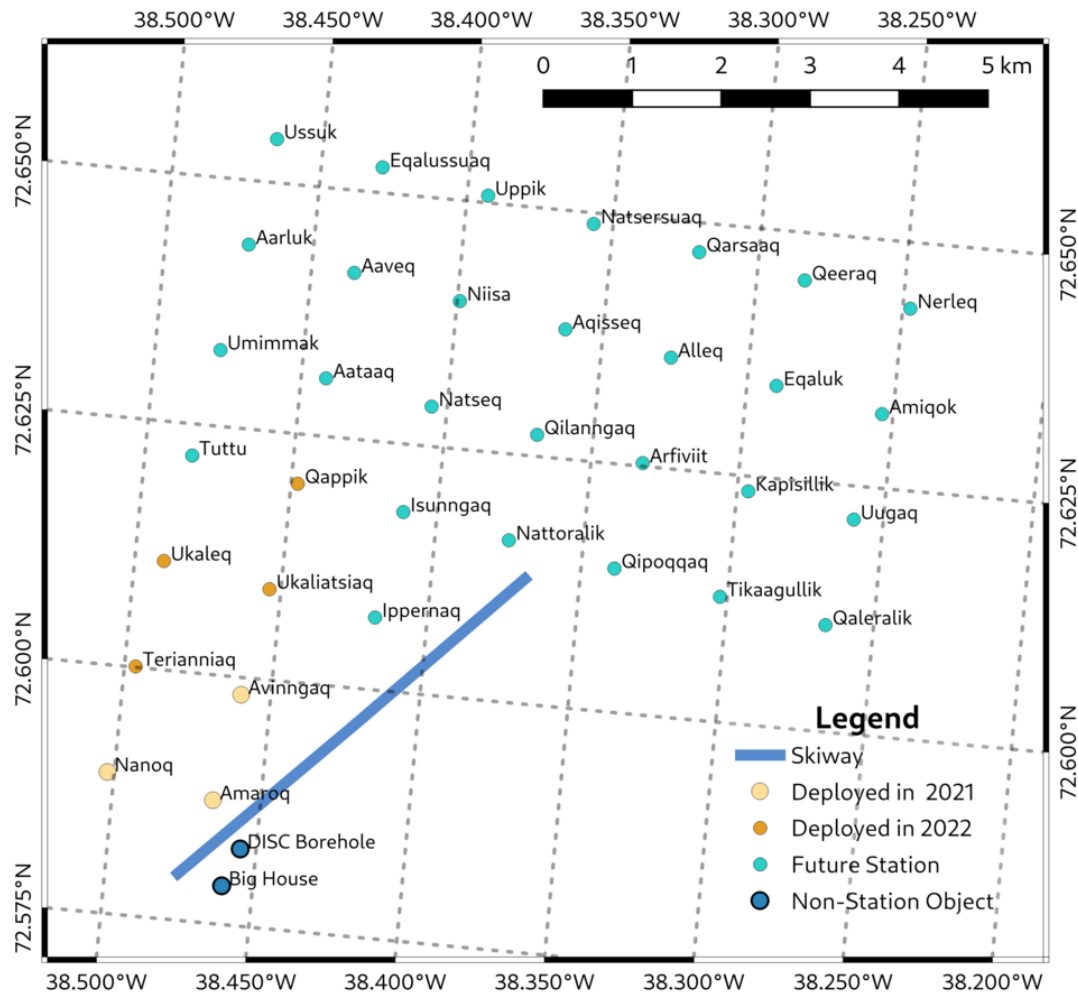


Figure 4.2: illustration of a neutrino signal path

This double pulse characteristic would be a smoking-gun signature of an in-ice source. The two helper strings are needed for a full direction reconstruction. Three independent measurements are needed for azimuthal information, which is provided by the Vpol (Vertical polarization) antennas and placing the Hpol (Horizontal polarization) antennas at different depths on every string, both zenith and azimuth information will be provided for those signals. The helper strings' calibration pulsers, as well as one on the surface, will ensure regular monitoring of the performance of the station and provide information useful for precise calibration of the antenna geometry.

# RNO-G Planned Layout



## Notes:

- Station numbering follows a grid, where the first numeral is in increasing W-E and the second numeral is in increasing S-N, skipping non-existent stations (the Seckel method).
- Station spacing is 1.25 km in map coordinates (but really 1.23 km due to projection, which creates a 2% scale difference. )
- Projection is Greenland Polar Stereographic (EPSG:5938). True north indicated by Rose, offset from grid north by 5.37°.
- Magnetic Declination, for August 1 2022, is -25.2° according to the WMM.
- In list below, all future stations labeled as 2023.



v 0.5.1  
2022-08-26  
68000:1  
Greenland Polar Stereographic Projection (EPSG:5938)

Figure 4.3: map of the station

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