# A Search for Tau Neutrino Appearance with IceCube-DeepCore

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- 8.1 Unitarity of the PMNS Matrix
- 8.2 Current Limits on Unitarity
- 8.3 Expectations from Monte Carlo

## 8.3.1 Choice of Binning

In order to understand the potential for IceCube's measurement of  $\nu_{\tau}$  appearance, a choice of binning must be decided upon. The analysis discussed here uses two variables to describe the oscillations: the reconstructed energy and zenith angle. These dimensions form an integral part of the standard oscillation analysis and are often used in measurements of atmospheric mixing parameters .

The choice of binning for zenith angles is selected to be similar, but somewhat finer than previous work . For this work, we use the fully sky, including upgoing events  $(\cos(\phi) = -1)$ corresponding to events passing through the full diameter of the Earth where we expect the strongest oscillation effects to very downgoing events ( $\cos(\phi) = 1$ ) where events are originating in showers above the Antarctic. The energy binning is selected to match previous work from DeepCore and consists of 8 bins logarithmically spaced from 5.6 GeV to 56 GeV . \_ In addition, recent work with DeepCore has shown that a third dimension separating the sample into cascade-like and track-like events may provide better sensitivity than using solely track-like events. Two variables are available in the GRECO sample. The first, the reconstructed length of a muon track, provides a simple separation between events with a clear muon track from those without one. This, in general, leads to reasonable separation between the  $\nu_{\mu}$  events undergoing disappearance and  $\nu_{\tau}$  events undergoing appearance. This may be seen in , where the cumulative distribution of the various simulation components are shown as a function of the reconstructed track length. The separation between the  $\nu_{\mu}$ and  $\nu_{\tau}$  charged-current samples occurs between 30-50 meters. By separating the sample into cascade-like events (eg. L < 50 m) and track-like events (L > 50 m), the disappearance and appearance may be partially disentangled.

The second potential separating variable is the likelihood ratio between a cascade and PegLeg's mixed cascade+track reconstructions. A higher likelihood (lower log-likelihood) in the casade fit implies that the event is more likely intrinsically cascade-like while the reverse is true for intrinsically track-like events. The cumulative plot of the likelihood ratio is shown in . There exists a broad choice of values with similar separation properties from approximuately  $-4 < \Delta LLH < -2$ . Once again, separating events into two samples using the likelihood ratio may improve the ability of the analysis to disentangle the disappearance and appearance effects.

Both variables clearly show some separating power and likely have similar behavior: an event with a longer reconstructed muon track should be expected to prefer the PegLeg reconstruction over a cascade reconstruction. In order to choose between the parameters, the efficacy of separating each of the simuluation samples from the  $\nu_{\tau}$  charged current signal

list of atmo disappearance measurements that use zenith and energy binning

dragon, leesard 3 year papers

dragon, leesard

cumulative plot of

cumulative plot of deltallh roc curves for track length

this sentence needs to be reworded. its too verbose the number of  $\nu_{\tau}$  events accepted into the "cascade-like" sample for various choices of the separating parameters. Values further from a diagonal indicate better separation between the  $\nu_{\tau}$  and other event types. Here we see that the track length performs uniformly better than the likelihood ratio in separating the disappearing  $\nu_{\mu}$  charged-current and appearing  $\nu_{\tau}$  charged current events. Furthermore, the reconstructed track length performs significantly better in separating the neutrino components from the atmospheric muon background. The reconstructed track length is therefore selected as the separating variable for this analysis.

## 8.3.2 The MC Fit Templates

A choice of 50 meters of reconstructed track length is selected for this analysis. Because the PegLeg reconstruction assumes the muon track to be minimally ionizing, the division of track-like and cascade-like has an effect on the minimum energy of each sample. In particular, no track-like events (L  $\geq$  50 m) may have less than 10 GeV in total reconstructed energy. Both track- and cascade-like events may reconstruct with higher energies than 10 GeV.

mc templates!

nufit 2.2

The binned expectations used in the fit are shown in assuming the oscillation parameters given by . The lack of expected events in the track-like histogram is clearly visible. As expected, atmospheric muon background events tend to reconstruct as downgoing events, primarily visible in the track-like channel. The signal  $\nu_{\tau}$  events occur in the very upgoing cascade channel and make up, at most, approximately 10% of the events in those bins.

## 8.4 Parametrizing the Tau Neutrino Appearance

In order to properly measure the appearance of  $\nu_{\tau}$  events, a choise of "appearance parameter" must be selected. Here, we discuss the choice of parameter used in this analysis.

#### 8.4.1 CC vs CC+NC

As described in 1.2, neutrinos may interact in two distinct ways to produce light in the IceCube detector. These two methods, the charged-current and neutral-current interactions, provide separate windows into neutrino interactions. Tau neutrino events may interact in either of these channels depending on the neutrino energy.

PDG

With a mass of 1776.82  $\pm$  0.16 MeV and a lifetime of 290.3  $\pm$  0.5 femtoseconds ,  $\tau$  leptons produced during neutrino oscillations in DeepCore tend to travel very short differences before decaying. The charged-current interactions of the  $\nu_{\tau}$  result in a variety of signatures due to the unique decay behavior of the  $\tau$  lepton.

$$\tau^{-} \to \begin{cases} \mu^{-}\bar{\nu}_{\mu}\nu_{\tau} & 17.41 \pm 0.04\% \\ e^{-}\bar{\nu}_{e}\nu_{\tau} & 17.83 \pm 0.04\% \end{cases}$$
(8.1)
Hadrons Otherwise

In either the muonic or the electronic decay modes, a fraction of the energy is lost to outgoing neutrinos, resulting in a smaller observed charge than would be associated with a corresponding interaction of another neutrino type. Furthermore, the muonic decay mode may lead to a visible muon track for the  $\nu_{\tau}$  interaction. These muon tracks associated with the appearance of  $\nu_{\tau}$  would appear at lower energies than the tracks corresponding to the  $\nu_{\mu}$  disappearance, allowing both effects to be observed simultaneously.

Charter the varied results of the charged current in the actions, right that Turnent interactions of neutrinos are assumed to have identical coupling and behavior, regardless of flavor and, therefore, undergo no observable change due to oscillations. Because of this, studies of the standard unitary PMNS matrix tend to treat neutral current events as effectively non-oscillating. In contrast, searches for new physics and sterile neutrinos result can result in a change in the apparent number of neutral current interactions in the detector.

superk paper, opera paper sources for unoscillating NC

For this analysis, both approaches have been adopted. A fit using charged-current events as the signal is used to provide limits on the modifications to a 3x3 mixing matrix without the introduction of neutral-current altering behavior . A second fit, including both neutral current and charged current  $\nu_{\tau}$  events, provides more insight into possible extra flavors of neutrinos.

non-sterile explanations of nonunitarity? maybe the neutrino decay paper?

## 8.4.2 The $\nu_{\tau}$ Normalization

Because effectively all  $\nu_{\tau}$  events observable in DeepCore are the result of neutrino oscillations, the total number of observed  $\nu_{\tau}$  interactions is a direct measure of the appearance itself. The number of  $\nu_{\tau}$  events interacting in DeepCore is, however, affected by many of the previously-discussed systematics. In particular, the number of events is strongly related to the assumed atmospheric oscillation parameters.

In order to provide a quantitative measure of the appearance, the overall normalization of signal events is used as a final physics parameter. The normalization is a fit parameter, defined to be a total modification of the number of candidate  $\nu_{\tau}$  events after all other systematic parameters are applied.

think up a better phrasing to introduce the tau normalization

$$f'_{ijk} = \sum_{m \neq \nu_{\tau}} f^{m}_{ijk} \left( \theta_{23}, \Delta m^{2}, \dots \right) + N_{\nu_{\tau}} f^{\nu_{\tau}}_{ijk} \left( \theta_{23}, \Delta m^{2}, \dots \right)$$
(8.2)

In this case, we end up with two general cases for the result. In the expected case,  $N_{\nu_{\tau}}=1.0$ , we find that the number of candidate events is consistent with our modeling of the  $\nu_{\tau}$  and unitary PMNS mixing. If the value is significantly different from 1.0, we may have hints of either mismodeled cross-sections or of novel physics. Due to the large existing uncertainties in the PMNS matrix described in 8.1, either situation is likely to yield valuable information.

Crazy shit that I will probably take out. but maybe find the neutrino decay paper again?

#### 8.4.3 Limits on the $\nu_{\tau}$ Normalization

This analysis is not the first to search for appearance in this way. Two other experiments, OPERA and Super-Kamiokande, have reported previous measurements parametrized in the same way.

#### The OPERA Limit

The Oscillation Project with Emulsion-tRacking Apparatus, better known by the acronym OPERA, is an experiment designed to search for  $\nu_{\tau}$  appearance. Unlike IceCube's use of atmospheric neutrinos, OPERA uses muon neutrinos produced in the CERN Neutrinos to Gran Sasso (CNGS) beamline. OPERA uses an bricks of photographic films in order to accurately track and reconstruct neutrino interactions in the fiducial volume. This technique allows analysizers to clearly identify not only the initial neutrino interactionv vertex, but also the decay products along the path of the charged lepton produced in charged current interactions. In OPERA, the muon and tau lepton produce significantly different signals due to the short lifetime and unique decay properties of the tau lepton. The impressive ability to

8.5	Systematics Cons.	i <del>derations</del> Interaction Mode	Non-tau-like	A Search fo	Tau Neutrinos from Oscillations
		CC nue	3071.0	1399.2	4470.2
		CC numu	4231.9	783.4	5015.3
		CC nutau	49.1	136.1	185.2
		NC	291.8	548.3	840.1

**Table 8.1** – The rates expected for each of the neutrino types in the Super-Kamiokande search for  $\nu_{\tau}$ appearance. Reproduced from.

identify the particle dynamics is balanced by the small fiducial volume of the experiment, yielding only 5408 useful events for analysis from five years of data-taking.

In 2015, OPERA released their final result in the search for  $\nu_{\tau}$  appearance. Five candidate events, shown in , were identified in the data sample with a signal expectation of 2.64  $\pm$ 0.53 and a background expectation of 0.25  $\pm$  0.05. The data unambiguously rules out the no-appearance hypothesis, with a rejection at  $5.1\sigma$ .

In terms of the normalization described above, OPERA reported a final value of  $1.8^{+1.8}_{-1.1}$  at the 90% level. This value is consistant with the standard unitary oscillation scheme, but with large errors.

#### The Super-Kamiokande Limit

Super-Kamiokande, described in 2.2, also has reported results in searches for  $\nu_{\tau}$  appearance. The Super-Kamiokande collaboration developed a new event selection in the search for  $\nu_{\tau}$ events, including the implementation of a neural net to identify  $\tau$ -like and non- $\tau$ -like events. https://arxiv.org/pdf/17TTPhe@neural net itself includes information about the energy of the event and is trained against a background sample of simulated events. Events are analyzed in terms of the zenith angle and the neural net output variable.

> These two categories of events are fit with an unbinned likelihood including 28 systematic effects included in the analysis.

https://arxiv.org/pdf/171h09436.pdf

The Super-Kamiokande measurement yields an expectation of 185.2  $\nu_{\tau}$  events in 5326 days or appoximately 12.7 events per year . After fitting, the final rejection of the no-appearance hypothesis is found to be 4.6 $\sigma$ . Like OPERA, Super-Kamiokande finds more  $\nu_{\tau}$  candidate events than expected, with a best-fit normalization of  $1.47 \pm 0.32$ .

## 8.5 Systematics Considerations

8.5.1 Oscillation Parameters

8.5.2 Flux Uncertainties

**Atmospheric Muon Flux** 

**Neutrino Flux** 

8.5.3 Propagation Uncertainties

on appearance

superk paper

opera tau neu

here? table 1 in the paper gives an expectation of 185.2 events. but the stuff at the top right of page 11 says the

expectation is 224...?! and NI-ETHER of these

give the 1.47 that they quote. wtf

## Chapter 8 A Search for Tau Neutrinos from Oscillations. 8.5.4 Cross-section Uncertainties

#### **Axial Masses**

#### **DIS Cross-sections**

## 8.5.5 Detector Systematics

While the previous systematics have been concerned with global physics parameters, the remainder are dedicated to understanding the uncertainties associated with the IceCube detector itself, such as the properties of the PMTs and the ice. These parameters, collectively referred to as the **detector systematics**, do not have known analytic forms and may affect the rate of events, the reconstruction properties of a given event, or both. The effect of these uncertainties must be evaluated using additional Monte Carlo simulations.

The GRECO event selection uses a number of simulation sets, shown in 8.2 for signal and 8.3 for background, to characterize the effects of these detector systematics. Each set contains at least one simulation parameter changed from the baseline set and are run through the full GRECO processing.

Set Number	Set Number Coincident Fraction DOM Eff Hole Ice Forward Coeff Absorption	DOM Eff	Hole Ice	Forward Coeff	Absorption	Scattering Livetime	Livetime
Baseline	%0	100%	25	0	100%	100%	30 years
640C	100%	100%	25	0	100%	100%	30 years
641 643	%0	88% 94%	25	0	100%	100%	30 years
644 645		97% 103%					10 years 5 years
646 648		106% 112%					10 years
099	%0	100%	15	0	100%	100%	10 years
661			20				
662			30				
663			35				
670	%0	100%	25	2.0	100%	100%	10 years
671				-5.0			
672				-3.0			
673				1.0			
674				-1.0			
681	%0	100%	25	0.0	92.9%	92.9%	30 years
682					110%	100%	
683					100%	110%	

Table 8.2 – Systematics sets used for the characterization of the signal neutrino events. While all listed sets have up to 30 years of effective livetime available, not all events processed in each set.

Set Number Oversizing DOM Eff	Oversizing	DOM Eff	Hole Ice	Forward Coeff Absorption	Absorption	Scattering Livetime Comments	Livetime	Comments
Baseline	1.0	%66	25	0	100%	100%	5 years	1 year standard + 4 years KDE Prescale
A B	1.0	69.3%	30	0	100%	100%	1 year	1 year standard
0 6		79.2%	25				4 years	4 years KDE Prescale
дш		105%					1 year	1 year KDE Prescale
F G	1.0	%66	15 30	0	100%	100%	5 years	1 year standard + 4 years KDE Prescale
H	1.0	%66	30	<b>5</b> 4	100%	100%	5 years	1 year standard + 4 years KDE Prescale
¬×¬≥×⊙•⊙	3.0	%66	25	0	100% 110% 80% 100% 92.9% 114.2%	100% 80% 110% 120% 92.9%	1 year	1 year KDE Prescale

Table 8.3 – Systematics sets used for the characterization of the atmospheric muon background.

The GENIE simulation sets are produced with exactly one neutrino interaction per event. In the actual detector, a fraction of triggered events will consist of a temporally coincident muon and neutrino pair which may be from the same air shower or from indepdent showers. In order to account for this possibility, a sample of such events are simulated assuming independent showers. In this case, every produced event contains at least one atmospheric muon in addition to exactly one neutrino interaction. By interpolating between this "100% coincident" sample and the standard "0% coincident" sets, the effect of these events may be included in the final analysis.

The GRECO event selection actively selects against atmospheric muon-like events. The lowest-order effect of this choice is that increasing the coincident event fraction leads to a correspondingly lower total event rate, as shown in ??. In order to distinguish the effect of the coincident events from a global normalization factor, the coincident event fraction is treated in a manner such that the total rate of events remains unchanged. The effect of this systematic in the final analysis is therefore shown in instead.

In most analyses in IceCube, a coincident event fraction of approximately 10% is assumed. This is derived from a combination of the atmospheric neutrino and muon fluxes assuming independent poissonian rates. At final level, the true fraction of coincident events is unknown, but previous oscillation analyses have found no clear issues using the standard simulation sets assuming no coincident events. A generous prior is therefore assumed to be a one-sided Gaussian distribution centered at 0% with a 10% width.

#### **DOM Efficiency**

As with all PMTs, the light detection probability of the IceCube DOMs is not perfect. Indeed, the total efficiency of detecting incident photons as measured by Hammamatsu, shown in ??, is about 30% for the R7081-02 PMT used in standard IceCube DOMs. Before and during deployment, the net quantum efficiency of some DOMs were tested. The efficiency of the DOMs was again measured in-situo in order to better account for local effects like cable shadowing and the glass-ice interface. Dedicated measurement spost-deployment have used minimum ionizing muons in data and simulation and derived a modification of the assumed efficiency, hereafter referred to as the **DOM efficiency**, of 99%±10%.

The DOM efficiency scales the probability of observing photons incident at the face of the DOM. A higher DOM efficiency leads to more information about individual particle interactions, leading to better reconstructions. The improved reconstructions lead to higher neutrino event rates at final level as well as more well-defined oscillation features in the reconstructed space. In addition, higher DOM efficiency increases the number of hits observed along atmospheric muon tracks, yielding improved veto efficiency. The net effect of changing the DOM efficiency by 10% is shown in .

#### **Bulk Absorption and Scattering**

The ice model used in IceCube is fit in-situo using various data from the deployment and detector operation in a process similar to the one described in 5.3. The model, here referred to as the **bulk ice model**, consists of scattering and absorption coefficients fit as a function of depth within the detector as well as information about anisotropy in the scattering properties of the ice. Uncertainties for these scattering and absorption coefficients, shown in , provide a significant source of uncertainty for physics measurements

ure ure

Hammamatsu quantum efficiency? http: //www.hamamatsu. com/resources/ pdf/etd/LARGE\_ AREA\_PMT\_ TPMH1286E.pdf

How many were tested in a lab before deployment?

Where does the domeff prior come

domeff

ice model

bulk ice uncertainties vs depth **Grapher Stock from Matter these refrects, global scale factors are used \$6** modify all scattering of absorption coefficients in the bulk ice model simultaneously. Using the most recent published uncertainties on our ice model, a total uncertainty of approximately 10% is assumed for these global scale factors. Three variations are typically used, corresponding to sets with 10% larger absorption coefficients, 10% larger scattering coefficients, and a 7.1% reduction to both sets of coefficients.

The scattering and absorption exhibit different behaviors at final level in the GRECO sample. In general, the absorption behaves in a similar manner to the DOM efficiency, as both parameters modify the number of observed photons at the face of the PMT. In the signal samples, the effects of absorption uncertainties is relatively small. The most notable feature is an overall rate decrease (increase) for larger (smaller) absorption coefficients. As in the DOM efficiency, the depth of the oscillation minimum is also affected by the absorption coefficients due to a change in the reconstruction resolution.

The absorption, shown in , affects the atmospheric muons much more strongly than the neutrinos. Once again, this is due to the event selection: with weaker absorption (ie, smaller coefficients), more photons from the muon track may be detected. The observation of additional photons from the muon track improves the veto efficiency, leading to a significant decrease in the number of muons at final level.

The scattering, in contrast, has very little effect on the muon distribution, as seen in . No changes in rate or in reconstruction resolution are observed in the muon distributions.

In the neutrinos, the effects of the scattering are more important. In particular, stronger scattering (larger coefficients) lead to a reconstruction bias, with more events reconstructing as downgoing. This is a known effect of the reconstruction, where we use a version of the ice model which interprets off-time hits as being due to backscattered photons in a downgoing event.

#### Hole Ice and Foward Scattering

While the bulk ice refers to the scattering and absorption properties of the entire interaction volume, additional care must be taken for the ice close to the face of a PMT. During deployment, contaminants, including air, were introduced into the drill holes. These contaminants have been seen to form a dense column with unique scattering properties near the center of the drill holes. This bubble column, known as the **hole ice**, has properties separate from the rest of the ice model.

The uncertainties associated with the hole ice are significant and tend to elicit more attention than bulk ice uncertainties in searches for oscillations with DeepCore. The simulation of the hole ice model used here, discussed briefly in 4.2.4, requires two free parameters which will be referred to as the **lateral** and **forward** scattering parameters here for clarity. The lateral scattering modifies the efficiency of accepting photons incident from the horizon at each DOM while the forward scattering modifies only the acceptance of the very-forward region. The models of the angular acceptance are shown in .

The effects of the two hole ice parameters show very similar behavior to that of the scattering uncertainty in the bulk ice, as all three coefficients are modeling the scattering properties of different locations in the ice.

hole ice and

#### Parametrizing With Hyperplanes

For each of the simulation sets and each particle type, histograms are produced using the reconstructed energy, zenith, and track length. These systematic histograms give information about the expected change of the final histogram as a function of the changing systematics parameters, but the information is encoded in discretized points with statistical fluctuations due to the finite simulation statistics. In order to produce continuous systematics for analysis, the discrete detector systematics must be parametrized.

how do i flesh this

For this work, a hyperplane is fit to the detector systematics sets for each particle type and for each bin in the analysis histogram.

For neutrinos, a simple linear model is assumed for each detector systematic, with one free coefficient associated with each systematic as well as one free constant term independent of the systematics. The form of the hyperplane for each neutrino type in the bin ijk is given by 8.3.

$$f'_{ijk} = \left(\sum_{m}^{detsys} \left(a_m^{ijk}(x_m - x_m^0)\right) + b^{ijk}\right) f_{ijk}$$
(8.3)

muongun rates vs domeff and absorption to justify exponentials For atmospheric muons, the form is slightly modified due to the strong effects observed from both the DOM efficiency and the absorption. In these two cases, an exponential model is selected to better describe the observed effects in simulation.

$$f_{ijk}' = \left(\sum_{m \neq DE, Abs}^{detsys} \left(a_m^{ijk}(x_m - x_m^0)\right) + \sum_{m}^{DE, Abs} \left(a_m^{ijk} e^{b^{ijk}(x_m - x_m^0)}\right) + c^{ijk}\right) f_{ijk}$$
(8.4)

some discussion of th goodness of fit for these sets.

Maybe a plot of the chi2 values for all of the sets?

chi2 values for hyperplane

## 3.6 The Method of Maximum Likelihood

## 8.6.1 The $\chi^2$ Fit

The simplest implementation of a fitting algorithm begins with an assumption of the true and observed distributions. Namely, that the observed number of events in each bin of the histogram is drawn from a distribution approximately Gaussian with a mean  $\mu$  equal to the expectation from simulations and a variance  $\sigma^2$  calculated from the Poisson uncertainty on the expectation.

$$P(x|\mu) = Ne^{\frac{1}{2}\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}}$$
(8.5)

where N is a normalization constant and, in the case of Poissonian statistics of simple histograms, the variance is given by the event weights in the specified bin.

$$\sigma^2 = \mu = \sum w \tag{8.6}$$

This needs work. can't even be called a derivation. its just crap. From this point, taking the logrithm yields the standard  $\chi^2$  definition for the likelihood after dropping the constant terms.

$$\chi^2 = \frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\mu} \tag{8.7}$$

5.6 The Method of Maximum Likelihood

The  $\chi^2$  distribution above implicitly assumes that the dominant source of uncertainty at the best-fit point comes from the statistical fluctuations of the data around the true distribution represented by the Monte Carlo simulation. While this is true in te ideal case, in practice the statistical properties of the simulation sets themselves cannot be ignored. In general, every attempt should be made to ensure the statistical fluctuations of the simulation sets are negligible compared to those of the data. This typically leads to requests for at least an order of magnitude larger simulation statistics than expected from the data itself. In the situation where this is infeasible, modifications to the likelihood space itself may be used to account for the additional uncertainties. For this analysis the statistical uncertainties of the underlying simulation sets are added to the weighted uncertainties in quadrature.

ing chi2 value as a function of mc stats scale factor to justify the 10x

$$\chi_1^2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{(x - \sum w)^2}{(\sum w)^2 + \sum w^2}$$
 (8.8)

Due to the large uncertainties associated with the atmospheric muon sample, further considerations are necessary. In particular, the large uncertainties associated with atmospheric muon simulation statistics may be used by the fitter in order to reduce the  $\chi^2_{FS}$  value. This situation proceeds with the minimization process as normal until a runaway effect is observed by increasing the statistical uncertainties at the expense of data/simulation agreement. In this case, the numerator becomes simply

$$\lim_{N_{\mu} \to \infty} \left( x - \sum w \right)^2 = \left( \sum w \right)^2 \tag{8.9}$$

The resulting limit in each bin as the event weights become large is therefore

$$\lim_{N_{\mu} \to \infty} \chi_1^2 = \frac{(\sum w)^2}{(\sum w)^2 + \sum w^2}$$
 (8.10)

$$\lim_{N_{\mu} \to \infty} \chi_1^2 = 0 \tag{8.11}$$

While this is a particular concern for all simulation types, the dominant contribution to the  $\sum w^2$  term is the atmospheric muons. In addition, the atmospheric muons have the strongest impacts from non-normalization systematic uncertaintines, particularly the DOM efficiency and the absorption. Modifying either of these parameters or the normalization systematics in the fit may lead to this runaway behavior.

In order to prevent this situation, a further modification of the  $\chi^2$  is necessary. For this analysis, the total scale of the statistical uncertainty is assumed to be set by the seed values of the fit.

$$N_{w^2} = \frac{\sum w_{Seed}^2}{\sum w^2}$$
 (8.12)

With this modification, the  $\chi^2$  is now defined to be

$$\chi_{FS}^2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\left(x - \sum w\right)^2}{\left(\sum w\right)^2 + N_{w^2} \sum w^2}$$
(8.13)

## 8.6.3 Expected Contour

8.6.4 Expected Sensitivity over Time

8.6.5 Systematics Pulls

8.6.6 Feldman-Cousins vs Wllk's Theorem

8.7 Fitting Data

8.7.1 Burn Sample Fits: Testing the Fitting Code

8.7.2 Blind Fits: Checking the Goodness-of-Fit

8.8 Results from the Analysis

8.8.1 Individual Years

8.8.2 Combining Years of Data

8.8.3 Systematics Pulls in the Final Result

8.8.4 Implications and Future Work

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