MAGIC upper limits on the GRB 090102 afterglow


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ABSTRACT

Indications of a GeV component in the emission from gamma-ray bursts (GRBs) are known since the Energetic Gamma-Ray Experiment Telescope observations during the 1990s and they have been confirmed by the data of the Fermi satellite. These results have, however, shown that our understanding of GRB physics is still unsatisfactory. The new generation of Cherenkov observatories and in particular the MAGIC telescope, allow for the first time the possibility to extend the measurement of GRBs from several tens up to hundreds of GeV energy range. Both leptonic and hadronic processes have been suggested to explain the possible GeV/TeV counterpart of GRBs. Observations with ground-based telescopes of very high energy (VHE) photons ($E > 30$ GeV) from these sources are going to play a key role in discriminating among the different proposed emission mechanisms, which are barely distinguishable at lower energies. MAGIC telescope observations of the GRB 090102 ($z = 1.547$) field and Fermi Large Area Telescope data in the same time interval are analysed to derive upper limits of the GeV/TeV emission. We compare these results to the expected emissions evaluated for different processes in the framework of a relativistic blastwave model for the afterglow. Simultaneous upper limits with Fermi and a Cherenkov telescope have been derived for this GRB observation. The results we obtained are compatible with the expected emission although the difficulties in predicting the HE and VHE emission for the afterglow of this event makes it difficult to draw firmer conclusions. Nonetheless, MAGIC sensitivity in the energy range of overlap with space-based instruments (above about 40 GeV) is about one order of magnitude better with respect to Fermi. This makes evident the constraining power of ground-based observations and shows that the MAGIC telescope has reached the required performance to make possible GRB multiwavelength studies in the VHE range.

Key words: radiation mechanisms: non-thermal – gamma-ray burst: general.
1 INTRODUCTION

Since the discovery of gamma-ray bursts (GRBs) in the late 1960s (Klebesadel, Strong & Olson 1973), these energetic and mysterious phenomena have been targets of large observational efforts. The discovery of their afterglow in late 1990s (Costa et al. 1997; Van Paradijs et al. 1997) provided a great boost in GRB studies at all wavelengths. The wealth of available information put severe constraints on the various families of interpretative scenarios, showing an unexpected richness and complexity of possible behaviours (see e.g. Gehrels, Ramirez-Ruiz & Fox 2009). The first observations at MeV–GeV energies with the Energetic Gamma-Ray Experiment Telescope (EGRET) on board the Compton Gamma-Ray Observatory (Hurley et al. 1994; Dingus 1995), showed that the high energy (HE: 1 MeV–30 GeV) and very high energy range (VHE: 30 GeV–30 TeV) can be powerful diagnostic tools for the emission processes and physical conditions of GRBs. The launch of Fermi (Band et al. 2009), with its Large Area Telescope (LAT; Atwood et al. 2009b), showed that, at least for the brightest events, GeV emission from GRBs is a relatively common phenomenon (Granot et al. 2010). However, a satisfactory interpretative framework of the GeV emission is still lacking. In this context, ground-based imaging atmospheric Cherenkov telescopes (IACTs), such as MAGIC,1 H.E.S.S.2 and VERITAS,3 despite the reduced duty cycle of ground-based facilities, provide access to the ∼100 GeV to TeV energy interval for GRB observations. Furthermore, the energy range down to ∼80 GeV, which was accessible almost exclusively with space-based instruments, has been opened to ground-based observations by the MAGIC observatory (Aliu et al. 2008; Schweizer et al. 2010). Together with the multiwavelength coverage provided by the LAT instrument, this makes possible the complete coverage of the 1–100 GeV energy range with the advantage, in the VHE domain, of an increase of ∼2–3 order of magnitude in the sensitivity relative to space-based instruments. Moreover, the low-energy trigger threshold of MAGIC makes less relevant the effect of the source distance. The flux above ∼100 GeV is attenuated by pair production with the lower energetic (optical/IR) photons of the diffuse Extragalactic Background Light (EBL; Nikishov 1962; Gould & Schreder 1966). The resulting cosmic opacity to VHE gamma-rays heavily affects the classical Band function (Band et al. 1993) with peak energy $E_{\text{peak}} = 451 \pm 72$ keV and a total fluence in the 20 keV–2 MeV range of $3.9 \times 10^{-8} \times 10^{5}$ erg cm$^{-2}$ (Golenetskii et al. 2009). Early optical follow-up measurements were performed by many groups like TAROT (Klotz et al. 2009) at $T_0 + 40.8$ s, the REM robotic telescope at $T_0 + 53$ s (Covino, D’Avanzo & Antonelli 2009b) and GROND telescope (AFon et al. 2009) at $T_0 + 2.5$ h. Optical spectroscopy was rapidly obtained with the NOT telescope by De Ugarte Postigo et al. (2009a). They found evidence of several absorption metal lines, including Fe II, Mg II, Mg I, Al I, Al II and C IV, at a common redshift of $z = 1.547$. The resulting isotropic energy value $E_{\text{iso}} = 5.75 \times 10^{53}$ erg and the rest-frame peak energy $E_{\text{peak}} = 1149 ^{+180}_{-145}$ keV are in good agreement with the Amati relation (Amati, Frontera & Guidorzi 2009). The multiwavelength light curve is shown in Fig. 1 in which, data in the $R$ and $H$ band correspond to a rest-frame UV and optical emission, respectively. X-ray data are the unblinded Swift X-Ray Telescope (XRT) and Burst Alert Telescope (BAT) data in the 0.5–10 keV. According to Gendre et al. (2010), it is very difficult to model the whole afterglow in a standard scenario (see the next section). Moreover, it showed a distinct behaviour in the optical and in X-rays. The X-ray light curve showed an uninterrupted decay from about 400 s from the GRB onset up to $5 \times 10^{4}$ s, when Swift ceased observations of the event. The optical light curve, monitored from several tens of seconds to slightly more than a day from the $T_0$, showed a steep-to-shallow behaviour with a break at about 1 ks. Before the break, the optical flux decay index is $\alpha_1 = 1.50 \pm 0.06$ while the index becomes $\alpha_2 = 0.97 \pm 0.03$ after the break, steeper and flatter, respectively, when compared to the simultaneous X-ray emission. This behaviour strongly resembles that showed by GRB 061126 (Gomboc et al. 2008; Perley et al. 2008) and GRB 060908 (Covino et al. 2010).

2 GRB 090102

GRB 090102 was detected and located by the Swift satellite (Gehleg et al. 2004) on 2009 January 2 at 02:55:45 UT (Mangano et al. 2009b) and also by the Fermi Gamma-ray Burst Monitor (GBM) detector. The prompt light curve was structured in four partially overlapping peaks (Sakamoto et al. 2009) for a total $T_0$ of 27.0 ± 2.0 s. Since the burst was also detected by Konus Wind (Golenetskii et al. 2009) and Integral (Mangano et al. 2009a), it has been possible to obtain a very good reconstruction of the prompt emission spectral parameters. The time-averaged spectrum can be modelled with the classical Band function (Band et al. 1993) with peak energy $E_{\text{peak}} = 451 ^{+72}_{-52}$ keV and a total fluence in the 20 keV–2 MeV range of $3.9 \times 10^{-8} \times 10^{5}$ erg cm$^{-2}$ (Golenetskii et al. 2009). The multiwavelength light curve is shown in Fig. 1 in which, data in the $R$ and $H$ band correspond to a rest-frame UV and optical emission, respectively. X-ray data are the unblinded Swift X-Ray Telescope (XRT) and Burst Alert Telescope (BAT) data in the 0.5–10 keV. According to Gendre et al. (2010), it is very difficult to model the whole afterglow in a standard scenario (see the next section). Moreover, it showed a distinct behaviour in the optical and in X-rays. The X-ray light curve showed an uninterrupted decay from about 400 s from the GRB onset up to $5 \times 10^{4}$ s, when Swift ceased observations of the event. The optical light curve, monitored from several tens of seconds to slightly more than a day from the $T_0$, showed a steep-to-shallow behaviour with a break at about 1 ks. Before the break, the optical flux decay index is $\alpha_1 = 1.50 \pm 0.06$ while the index becomes $\alpha_2 = 0.97 \pm 0.03$ after the break, steeper and flatter, respectively, when compared to the simultaneous X-ray emission. This behaviour strongly resembles that showed by GRB 061126 (Gomboc et al. 2008; Perley et al. 2008) and GRB 060908 (Covino et al. 2010).
analysis threshold of around 30 GeV is achieved, which is evaluated from Monte Carlo (MC) simulations. In order to accurately estimate the background from hadronic atmospheric showers, an OFF data sample was taken one night later with the telescope pointing close to the burst location and in the same observational conditions and instrument setup. Data were analysed using the MAGIC Analysis and Reconstruction Software (MARS; Albert et al. 2008; Aliu et al. 2009a) and processed using the standard Hillas parameters (Hillas 1985). Gamma/hadron separation and energy estimation were performed using a multidimensional classification method (Random Forest; Breiman 2001) while arrival directions of the gamma photons is reconstructed using the DISP algorithm (Fomin et al. 1994). The alpha parameter is then used to evaluate the significance of the signal in six energy bins. In spite of the low-energy analysis threshold, no significant excess of gamma-ray photons have been detected from a position consistent with GRB 090102. Differential ULs assuming a power-law gamma-ray spectrum with spectral index of $\Gamma = -2.5$ and using the method of Rolke, López & Conrad (2005) were evaluated with a 95 per cent confidence level (CL) and 30 per cent estimation of systematic uncertainties and are reported in Table 1 and Fig. 2.

### Table 1. MAGIC-I 95 per cent confidence level ULs for the afterglow emission of GRB 090102. The values correspond to the first 5919 s of observation from 03:14:52 to 04:53:32 UT. $^a$ Bins central energy was evaluated applying all analysis cuts to MC simulations. $^b$ Statistical significance of the excess events observed by MAGIC.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$E$ bin (GeV)</th>
<th>$(E)^a$ (GeV)</th>
<th>$\sigma^b$</th>
<th>Average flux limits (erg cm$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25–50</td>
<td>43.9</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>8.7 $\times$ 10$^{-10}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50–80</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>1.5 $\times$ 10$^{-10}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80–125</td>
<td>90.2</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>3.1 $\times$ 10$^{-10}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>125–175</td>
<td>137.2</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>2.2 $\times$ 10$^{-10}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>175–300</td>
<td>209.4</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>1.6 $\times$ 10$^{-10}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300–1000</td>
<td>437.6</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.3 $\times$ 10$^{-10}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3 MAGIC FOLLOW-UP OBSERVATION AND ANALYSIS

The MAGIC telescope located at Roque de los Muchachos (28:75 N, 17.89 W, La Palma, Canary Islands) performed a follow-up measurement of GRB 090102. The data presented in this paper were taken when MAGIC was operating as a single telescope. The MAGIC telescope was autonomously repointed and started the observations at $T_0 + 255$ s, following the GRB alert from Fermi-GBM. Later on, the shift crew operating the telescope realized that the GBM coordinates (RA: 08h35m06s; Dec.: $-37.5^\circ$) were taken when MAGIC was operating as a single telescope. The MAGIC observation window is also plotted. $R$ and $H$ data from Gendre et al. (2010). XRT and BAT data retrieved from http://www.swift.ac.uk/burst_analyser (Evans et al. 2010).

Other observations were performed at later time by GROND ($T_0 + 2.5$ h; Afonso et al. 2009), Palomar ($T_0 + 50$ min; Cenko, Rau & Salvato 2009) and IAC80 ($T_0 + 19.2$ h; De Ugarte Postigo, Blanco & Castro-Tirado 2009b) telescopes while during the following days, the NOT (Malesani et al. 2009) and HST (Levan et al. 2009) provided the detection of the host galaxy. In the radio energy band, the VLA (Chandra & Frail 2009) and the Westerbork Synthesis Radio Telescope (Van der Horst, Wijers & Kamble 2009) performed follow-up detection at 8.46 and 4.9 GHz with no afterglow detection and UL evaluation. A detailed discussion of the follow-up observations for this burst can be found in Gendre et al. (2010).

### 4 LAT OBSERVATION AND ANALYSIS

The Fermi observatory is operating in a sky survey mode and the Swift localization of GRB 090102 was observable by the LAT instrument approximately 3300 s after trigger and remained within the LAT field of view ($\theta_{\text{hutsight}} \lesssim 60^\circ$) for a duration of $\sim 2300$ s. We analysed the Fermi-LAT data using the Science Tools 09-30-01 with Pass7V6 ‘Source’ event class. We used the publicly available models for the Galactic and isotropic diffuse emissions, $gal_{\text{2yearp7v6,Firm,0,fit}}$ and iso_p7v6source.txt that can be retrieved from the Fermi Science Support Center. No significant excess was found in this observation, so we computed ULs in three different energy bands: [0.1–1 GeV], [1–10 GeV] and [10–100 GeV]. We first fit the broad energy range (from 0.1 to 100 GeV) using the unbinned likelihood analysis, which was then used to constrain the background model. Then we froze the normalizations of the isotropic and Galactic diffuse templates, and independently fit the source in the three different energy bands, using the unbinned profile likelihood method to derive 95 per cent LAT ULs. The following UL values were derived for the

$^4$ http://fermi.gsfc.nasa.gov/ssc/data/access/lat/BackgroundModels.html
plausible scenario, electron synchrotron radiation is the dominant process in the low-energy regime. Within this scenario, the GRBs spectra are usually approximated by a broken power law in which the relevant break energies are the minimum injection $v_m$ and the cooling $v_c$. The first one refers to emission frequency of the bulk of the electron population (where most of the synchrotron emission occurs), while the cooling frequency identifies where electrons effectively cool. Both are strongly dependent on the microphysical parameters used to describe the GRB environment and, for a constant density $n$ of the circumburst diffuse interstellar medium, they are given by (Zhang & Mészáros 2001)

$$v_m = 8.6 \times 10^{37} \left( \frac{p - 2}{p - 1} \right)^2 \left( \frac{\epsilon_e}{\epsilon_B} \right)^2 t_h^{-3/2} E_{52}^{-1/2} E_B^{1/2} (1 + z)^{1/2} \text{ [Hz]}$$

$$v_c = 3.1 \times 10^{35} (1 + Y_e)^{-2} \epsilon_B^{-3/2} E_{52}^{-1/2} n^{-1} t_h^{-1/2} (1 + z)^{1/2} \text{ [Hz]},$$

where $\epsilon_e$ and $\epsilon_B$ are the energy equipartition parameter for electrons and magnetic field, $E_{52}$ is the energy per unit solid angle, $t_h$ is the observer’s time in hours, $Y_e$ is the fraction of the electrons that enter in the acceleration loop and $Z$ is the ratio between synchrotron and Inverse Compton (IC) cooling time, known as Compton factor (see e.g. Panaitescu & Kumar 2000; Sari & Esin 2001). As a matter of fact, we have explicitly assumed that the contribution of the Compton scattering is not negligible in the afterglow at the considered time and, as a consequence, the cooling break is reduced by a factor $(1+Y_e)$. It is important to remark that the change in slope of the optical decay observed in GRB 090102 suggests that the standard model cannot adequately describe the dynamics of this event. The steep-to-shallow behaviour could be interpreted as due to a termination shock, locating the end of the free-wind bubble generated by a massive progenitor at the position of the optical break. However, it is also possible to hypothesize that the early steeper decay is simply due to the superposition of the regular afterglow and a reverse shock present only at early times. It is not our purpose to analyse and discuss the several physical scenarios that are proposed to describe the afterglow, so we continue to model the burst emission assuming the afterglow could be described in the standard context of a relativistic shock model.

6 MODELING THE VHE EMISSION

Any attempt to a meaningful modelling of the possible VHE emission component, both during the prompt emission and the afterglow, must rely on information coming from the low energies (see e.g. Aleksić et al. 2010). At the same time, the modelling of the low-energy afterglow can furthermore help in limiting the intrinsic degeneracy or even, to some extent, arbitrariness in the choice of the various possible HE and VHE afterglow parameters. Following Gendre et al. (2010), we assume that the cooling frequency at the time of MAGIC observation is located between optical and X-ray bands. Thus, we can estimate the slope of the energy particles distributions which is correlated with the optical decay index. With the observed optical spectral index of 0.97 ± 0.03 (Gendre et al. 2010), we obtain a value for $p$ from the relation $\gamma_0(p - 1) = 0.97$ of $p = 2.29 ± 0.04$ in good agreement with numerical simulations which suggest a value of $p$ ranging between 2.2 and 2.3 (Achterberg et al. 2001; Vietri 2003). We will assume that at the time of the MAGIC observation, the outflow expands into a diffuse medium with a constant density of the order of $n \sim 1 \text{ cm}^{-3}$,
and we will further assume that all electrons are accelerated in the shocks ($\zeta_e \sim 1$). At the same time, from the available data, we can only constrain the values of $\epsilon_B$ and $\epsilon_e$. Assuming that the optical light-curve time break (Melandri et al. 2010) is less than the start time of the shallow decay phase ($T_{\text{break}} \lesssim 10^4$ s), we obtain $0.04 \lesssim \epsilon_e \lesssim 0.2$ and $7 \times 10^{-4} \lesssim \epsilon_B \lesssim 0.05$ which only barely fix the $\epsilon_B \epsilon_e$ values. We thus assume, within these limits, $\epsilon_B \sim 0.01$ and $\epsilon_e \sim 0.1$ which correspond to typical values for the afterglow (Paniaetcu & Kumar 2002; Yost et al. 2003). The most plausible process producing VHE photons is the IC mechanism in the variant of Synchrotron Self Compton (SSC; Sari & Esin 2001; Zhang & Mészáros 2001). Within this process, the low-energy photons produced in the standard SSC spectrum is characterized by the two typical frequencies $\nu_{\text{ssc}} = \gamma_y \nu_{\text{m}}$ and $\nu_{\text{ssc}} = \gamma_v \nu_{\text{c}}$, where $\nu_{\text{m}}$ and $\nu_{\text{c}}$ are the Lorentz factor for the electrons of frequencies $\nu_{\text{m}}$ and $\nu_{\text{c}}$. Since electrons are ultrarelativistic ($\gamma_{\text{ssc}} \sim 10^3$), SSC radiation can easily reach the GeV–TeV domain. Following Zhang & Mészáros (2001) and according to equations (1) and (2), we have

$$\nu_{\text{ssc}} = 1.3 \times 10^{23} \left(\frac{\epsilon_e}{\epsilon_B}\right)^{3/4} \left(\frac{p - 2}{p - 1}\right)^{4/3} [\text{Hz}]$$

$$\nu_{\text{c}} = 1.2 \times 10^{20} (1 + z)^{-2} [\text{Hz}],$$

while the expected maximum flux density is (Zhang & Mészáros 2001)

$$F_{\nu, \text{max}} = 17 \gamma_y^2 (n E_2) 1/4 \Gamma_h^{1/4} (1 + z)^{3/4} [\text{nJy}].$$

Basically, the new spectral feature has the same shape of the underlying synchrotron component with a new break in the spectrum ($E_{\text{KN}}$) due to the decreasing of the IC cross-section with energy (Fragile et al. 2004). However, this cut-off is found to be above few tens of TeV in our case, securing that MAGIC ULs stay below this limit. The relevant break energies for the assumed model are summarized in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Synchrotron (c)</th>
<th>SSC</th>
<th>Synchrotron (p)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$E_m \sim 0.6$ eV</td>
<td>$E_{m}^{\text{ssc}} \approx 1.1$ MeV</td>
<td>$E_{m}^{\text{ssc}} \gtrsim 10^{-8}$ eV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$E_{\gamma} \approx 4.1$ eV</td>
<td>$E_{e}^{\text{ssc}} \approx 47$ MeV</td>
<td>$E_{p}^{\text{ssc}} \approx 140$ TeV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$E_{\text{max}} \approx 207$ MeV</td>
<td>$E_{\text{KN}} \approx 60$ TeV</td>
<td>$E_{\text{max}} \approx 1.7$ MeV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\approx 5 \times 10^{-11}$</td>
<td>$\approx 1.1 \times 10^{-10}$</td>
<td>$\approx 4 \times 10^{-7}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$-1.7 \times 10^{-11}$</td>
<td>$-4.3 \times 10^{-11}$</td>
<td>$3.4 \times 10^{-7}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

hadronic component is usually much smaller with respect to the electron emission. Nevertheless, while electrons cool quickly, protons cooling times are much longer since

$$\frac{\nu_{c,p}}{\nu_{c,e}} = \left(1 + \frac{\gamma_y}{\gamma_p}\right)^2 \left(\frac{m_p}{m_e}\right)^6,$$

(6)

where $Y_p = \frac{2 \sigma_{\gamma p}}{\sigma_{\gamma e}}$ and $\sigma_{\gamma e}$, $\sigma_{\gamma p}$ are the proton–gamma interaction and Thomson cross-section respectively. We note that since $\sigma_{\gamma p} \gg \sigma_{\gamma e}$, $Y_p \gg 1$ and proton’s energy is mostly lost in proton–gamma interaction rather than synchrotron emission. However, equation (6) implies that in the same cases proton synchrotron emission can exceed the electron component in the MAGIC energy band. In Section 8, we will briefly discuss the relative importance of the above described emission components.

7 EBL ATTENUATION

Gamma-ray absorption by pair production with EBL plays a key role in VHE astronomy since it significantly limits the FACTs capability in detecting sources at redshift $z > 1$. The optical depth $\tau$ is strictly connected to the light content of the Universe and the source distance. In the past years, several EBL models have been proposed providing a wide range of values for $\tau$ from 1 up to 6 for a $z \sim 1$ source at 100 GeV (see e.g. Kneiske et al. 2004; Stecker, Malkan & Scully 2006; Stecker & Scully 2008), which gives an attenuation in the expected flux ranging between 1/3 and to more than 1/100. However, the more recent EBL models (Franceschini, Rodighiero & Vaccari 2008; Domínguez et al. 2011a), although based on different assumptions, are converging to stable results. Within this context, Domínguez et al. (2011a) have used real data on the evolution of the galaxy population taken from the All-wavelength Extended Groth Strip International Survey (AEGIS) catalogue to evaluate EBL intensity for a wide range of redshift. The reliability of the results have been tested on the three most distant object observed by MAGIC (Domínguez et al. 2011b). Moreover, the EBL intensity evaluated using this model matches the minimum level allowed by galaxy counts which leads to the highest transparency of the universe to VHE gamma-rays. We used the model of Domínguez et al. (2011a) to evaluate the EBL absorption obtaining a value for $\tau$ of 0.218 at about 40 GeV. This gives an attenuation of the flux at the same energy of the order of $\sim 20$ per cent, a value that does not significantly compromise detection capability of MAGIC. However, the optical depth increases quickly with energy reaching the values of $\sim 1.5$ and $\sim 14.4$ at 100 and 500 GeV, respectively, and this makes necessary to lower the energy threshold of the observation. In the case of GRB 090102, MAGIC shows its capability to perform observation at very low energy limiting the gamma absorption even for moderate redshift sources.

8 DISCUSSION

Although only ULs have been obtained, the possibility of having simultaneous observations with Fermi-LAT in the energy range 0.1–100 GeV and MAGIC in the energy range that starts at 25 GeV (hence overlapping with LAT) make the GRB 090102 a good case study in spite of its relatively high redshift. However, it has to be remarked that GRB 090102 can be considered as a common GRB in terms of both energetics and redshifts. Higher expected fluxes can be foreseen in the case of more energetic events that are not so rare accordingly to Fermi results. We have used the equations of relativistic shock model in order to predict, in a reliable way,
the expected VHE emission in the LAT and MAGIC energy range. From numerical results, it is evident that for the chosen parameters and at our observation time, leptonic components are the dominant mechanisms from the low to the VHE. Following equation (6), the cooling frequency for protons is usually located well above the VHE range (> TeV) and this make the process potentially interesting for MAGIC observations. However, to make the two emissions comparable in the low-energy regime, and the proton component to dominate the leptonic one at high energies, a fine tuning in the parameters choice is needed implying $\frac{\nu_{\text{c,ssc}}}{\nu_{\text{max}}} \approx 10^{-3}$. Similar results can be obtained for the IC component. In both cases, however, a higher total energy release of $\approx 10^{55}$ erg and a circumburst density medium of $\approx 100$ cm$^{-3}$ are needed to maintain the low-energy flux at the observed level. This makes the possibility of observing the hadronic emission component with the MAGIC telescope unrealistic, at least for a canonical model. A sketch of the scenario described above is shown in Fig. 3.

Here, we did not take into account other hadronic-induced processes such as $\pi^{0}$ decay (Böttcher & Dermer 1998). However, it has been shown that they could have a non-negligible effect at higher energies. For our parameters, the SSC process looks the most reliable mechanism in the VHE range. Indeed, we obtain $E_{\text{ssc}} \sim 1$ MeV and $E_{\zeta} \sim 50$ MeV. We conclude that MAGIC observation (> 40 GeV) was carried out in the spectral energy distribution (SED) region where $vF_{\nu} \propto \nu^{2-p/2}$ (Wei & Fan 2007) so that it is possible to evaluate the expected SSC emission. Following Zhang & Mészáros (2001),

$$vF_{\nu} = vF_{\nu,\text{max}}v_{\text{c,ssc}}^{1/2}v_{\text{m,ssc}}^{(p-1)/2}v_{\text{c,ssc}}^{2(p-2)/2},$$  

which gives (for MAGIC first energy bin and taking into account the EBL absorption) $vF_{\nu,\text{ssc}}(40 \text{ GeV}) \approx 3.4 \times 10^{-11} \text{ erg cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. This result lies about one order of magnitude below the corresponding ULs. However, a change in the microphysical parameters can influence the VHE emission giving scenarios with substantially higher flux. One of the critical variables is the intensity of the magnetic field, which influences the relative importance between synchrotron and SSC emission. It is of particular importance for this event, since the most striking observational feature of GRB 090102 was the observation of $\sim 10$ per cent polarization in the optical at early times (about 3 min after the GRB; Steele et al. 2009). One of the most plausible interpretations is that the outflow generating the GRB is driven by a large-scale ordered magnetic field, which generates polarized optical synchrotron emission in the optical observable during the reverse shock phase (Steele et al. 2009). Large values of the magnetic field affect in a significant way the HE emission since it reduces the importance of the IC component. However, the regular forward-shock emission should not be affected by this ordered magnetic field (Covino 2007; Mundell et al. 2007). The time-scale of the MAGIC observations are indeed likely late enough not to require this further parameter in the modelling. Such a delay, in association with the moderate source distance, militate against performing constraining observations with MAGIC. Indeed, we estimated that $vF_{\nu} \propto t^{-1.2}$. This implies that lowering the temporal delay of the observations can make the expected emission higher by one order of magnitude as illustrated in Fig. 4 where the expected SSC emission at different time is showed.

9 FUTURE PROSPECTS

Catching VHE signal from GRBs is one of the primary target of the MAGIC telescope and future IACTs like the Cherenkov Telescope Array (CTA). Our estimates show that for this particular GRB, MAGIC follow-up observations made within the first 1–2 min from the trigger time would have the potential to detect the VHE component or at least to evaluate constraining ULs (see Fig. 5). This demonstrates both the capabilities of the system and the necessity of a fast-response observations.

As GeV emission is found to be relatively common in Fermi GRBs (see e.g. Abdo et al. 2009c), the unique opportunity of having simultaneous follow-up with LAT and the MAGIC telescope will make accessible the end of the electromagnetic spectrum of GRBs and will have an important role in constraining different emission mechanisms and the space parameters. Moreover, the recent technical improvement of the MAGIC stereo system (Aleksić et al. 2012) will bring an improvement in the instrument sensitivity in its low-energy range. The steeper decay of the flux makes in any case difficult late time (> 200 s) detections for such moderate high-redshift event (see Fig. 5). On the other hand, such a time-scale is well within the pointing capabilities of the present generation of IACTs (e.g. MAGIC) that are able to perform follow-up measurements within few hundreds of seconds. Basing on the preliminary
sensitivity of the future CTA, a detection will instead be possible, within the assumed model, even on later time (>1000 s) and higher redshift events.

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