Constraining the ratio of median pixel optical depth profile around $z \sim 4$ quasars using the longitudinal proximity effect

Priyanka Jalan$^{1,2}$*, Hun Chand$^{3,1}$, Raghunathan Srianand$^4$

$^1$Aryabhatta Research Institute of Observational Sciences (ARIES), Manora Peak, Nainital, 263002 India,
$^2$Department of Physics and Astrophysics, University of Delhi, Delhi 110007, India
$^3$Department of Physics and Astronomical Sciences, Central University of Himachal Pradesh (CUHP), Dharamshala-176215, India
$^4$Inter-University Centre for Astronomy and Astrophysics (IUCAA), Postbag 4, Ganeshkhind, Pune 411 007, India

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ABSTRACT

We present a detailed study of the longitudinal proximity effect using a sample of 85 quasars spanning an emission redshift range of $3.5 \leq z_{em} \leq 4.5$ and Lyman continuum luminosity ($L_{\text{HI}}$) ranging from $1.06 \times 10^{41}$ to $2.24 \times 10^{42}$ erg s$^{-1}$ Hz$^{-1}$. We use the high-quality spectra of these quasars obtained at a spectral resolution of $R \sim 5100$ and $S/N \sim 30$ using X-SHOOTER spectrograph mounted on the Very Large Telescope (VLT). In our analysis, we compared the transmitted flux and pixel optical depth of the Ly$\alpha$ absorption originating from the vicinity of quasars to those from the general intergalactic medium by using a redshift matched control sample. The longitudinal proximity effect is found up to $r \leq 12$ Mpc (proper) from quasars. By appropriately scaling up the pixel optical depth in the vicinity of quasars to account for the excess ionization by quasars, we constrain the ratio of median H$\text{I}$ optical depth in the vicinity of the quasar to that of the IGM ($R_L(r)$). The $R_L(r)$ is found to be significantly higher than unity up to 6 Mpc from the quasar with a typical radial profile of the form $R_L(r) = 1 + A \times \exp(-r/r_0)$ with $A = 9.16 \pm 0.68$ and $r_0 = 1.27 \pm 0.08$ Mpc. The integrated value of the scaled pixel optical depth over the radial bin of 0-6 Mpc is found to be higher by a factor of 2.55 $\pm$ 0.17 than the corresponding integrated value of the median pixel optical depth of the IGM. We also found $R_L(r)$ to be luminosity dependent.

Key words: Galaxies: quasars, absorption lines, intergalactic medium, high-redshift

1 INTRODUCTION

Previous studies using spectra of distant quasars have established that the number of Ly$\alpha$ forest absorption lines per unit redshift generally increases with increasing redshift (e.g., see Lu et al. 1991; Giallongo 1991; Kulkarni & Fall 1993; Bechtold 1994; Giallongo et al. 1996; Scott et al. 2000; Kim et al. 2007; Dall’Aglio et al. 2008b; Calverley et al. 2011; Partl et al. 2011; Becker et al. 2013, 2015; Monzon et al. 2020). However, in the vicinity of a quasar (up to several proper Mpc), the ionizing photons from the quasar will dominate the ionization state of the gas over those from the ultraviolet background (UVB) radiation. This produces a region of less Ly$\alpha$ absorption (i.e., enhanced transmitted flux) near the emission redshift ($z_{em}$) of the quasar, first noted by Carswell et al. (1982), known as the proximity effect (e.g., see Murdoch et al. 1986; Tytler 1987; Bajtlik et al. 1988; Kulkarni & Fall 1993; Bechtold 1994; Srianand & Khare 1996; Cooke et al. 1997; Liske & Williger 2001; Worseck & Wisotzki 2006; Faucher-Giguère et al. 2008; Wild et al. 2008; Prochaska et al. 2013; Khrykin et al. 2016; Jalan et al. 2019).

The distance up to which the effect of quasar’s radiation dominates, depends on the intensity of UVB and H$\text{I}$ ionizing luminosity of the quasar. Therefore, the proximity effect has been used by many previous studies to get an estimate of the strength of the UVB radiation at various redshifts (e.g., see Bajtlik et al. 1988; Kulkarni & Fall 1993; Giallongo et al. 1996; Cooke et al. 1997; Scott et al. 2000; Liske & Williger 2001; Dall’Aglio et al. 2008b). However, most of these classical proximity effect analysis assume that the density distribution of gas in the vicinity of a quasar is similar to that far away from it i.e., the general intergalactic medium (IGM; for more details see also, Faucher-Giguère et al. 2008a; Calverley et al. 2011; Partl et al. 2011). This could cause the intensity of the UVB radiation to be overestimated by up...
to a factor of 2-3 when measured using the proximity effect (Loeb & Eisenstein 1995; Faucher-Giguère et al. 2008a).

However, instead of measuring the UVB intensity from the proximity effect analysis, the procedure can be reversed to estimate the density profile around the quasar (e.g., see Scott et al. 2000; Rollinde et al. 2005; Guimaraës et al. 2007; D’Odorico et al. 2008), if the UVB measurements are known from an independent method (Faucher-Giguère et al. 2009; Haardt & Madau 2012; Khaire & Srianand 2015a, 2019, and references therein). Additionally, the gas distribution in the transverse direction of the quasar can be studied using multiple sightlines with small separations. The expected decrement of the Lyα absorption lines in the spectrum of the background quasar near the emission redshift of the foreground quasar induced by the ionizing radiation from the foreground quasar in its transverse direction is known as transverse proximity effect (e.g., see Srianand 1997; Adelberger 2004; Schirber et al. 2004; Rollinde et al. 2005; Worseck et al. 2007; Gonçalves et al. 2008; Galleroni 2011; Hennawi & Prochaska 2013; Schmidt et al. 2018; Jalan et al. 2019).

In our previous work, Jalan et al. (2019, hereafter, JCS19), we studied the proximity effect in the longitudinal and transverse direction for quasars at $2.5 \leq z \leq 3.5$. We have used 181 quasar pairs with separation $<1.5$ arcmin from SDSS-DR12 (for more information, see Päris et al. 2017) quasar catalogue. Our analysis includes a novel technique of studying the proximity effect using a control sample of quasars, matching in the absorption redshift and continuum signal-to-noise ratio (S/N), to take into account the effect of optical depth evolution with the redshift. We compared the transmitted flux and/or optical depth from Lyα absorption lines originating in the vicinity and far from the quasar i.e., IGM. We detected enhancement and decrement of the transmitted flux within a radial distance of 4 Mpc from the quasar in the longitudinal and transverse direction respectively. Additionally, JCS19 has also taken into account the effect of spectral resolution and optical depth while lifting the degeneracy between excess ionization from the quasars and the excess density of the absorbing gas based on their detailed simulations. The ratio of median pixel optical depth in the longitudinal direction after applying the ionization correction is found to be consistent with that in the transverse direction without applying any correction for ionization by the quasars. We interpreted this as an indication for the presence of an anisotropic obscuration in the transverse direction (e.g., by dusty torus) with $\leq 27\%$ (at 3σ confidence level) quasar’s ionization/illumination as compared to its longitudinal direction. We found that our sample was dominated by Type-I AGNs which supported the results (also see, Prochaska et al. 2014; Lau et al. 2016, 2018).

The main focus of our previous work (JCS19) was to carry out the comparison of the gas distribution around quasars at $\langle z_{\text{em}} \rangle \sim 3$ along the longitudinal and transverse directions. In this paper, we aim to extend our analysis of the longitudinal proximity effect to higher redshifts by applying a similar technique as used in JCS19. However, due to the steep rise in the number of H i clouds with redshifts the study of longitudinal proximity effect at higher redshift can easily be affected by line blending at a typical spectral resolution of large surveys such as SDSS ($R \sim 2000$). Recently, López, S. et al. (2016) have released a sample of 100 quasars (hereafter, XQ-100 survey) observed with X-SHOOTER spectrograph (e.g., see Vernet et al. 2011) mounted on Very Large Telescope (VLT). Quasars in this sample have $z_{\text{em}}$ from 3.5 to 4.71, and the available spectra are of high spectral resolution ($R \sim 5000-9000$) and high S/N (median $\sim 30$). The advantage of this sample is that due to the large spectral coverage of the X-SHOOTER spectrograph, it is possible to observe Mg ii, [O iii] and [O ii] emission lines that are redshifted to the NIR region for quasars at these redshifts. These emission lines can be used to compute the systemic redshift of the quasars. Thus, the systemic redshifts can be estimated with higher accuracy corresponding to velocity dispersion of $<60$ kms$^{-1}$ ($\Delta v = c \times \Delta z/[1+z]$). This accuracy is much higher in comparison to the accuracy achieved using the emission lines lying in the optical region for these quasars. As pointed out by Shen et al. (2016) redshift measured using C iii], He ii, C iv (after correcting for the luminosity-dependent blueshift) and Mg ii lines have the systemic velocity shift of $\sim 230$ kms$^{-1}$, $-167$ kms$^{-1}$, $-27$ kms$^{-1}$, $-57$ kms$^{-1}$ and scatter of $\sim 233$ kms$^{-1}$, 242 kms$^{-1}$, 415 kms$^{-1}$ and 205 kms$^{-1}$, respectively (see also, Denney et al. 2016; Eilers et al. 2017; Dix et al. 2020). Therefore, the availability of the high-quality spectra provided by XQ-100 survey at $z_{\text{em}} > 3.5$ in conjunction to the aforementioned new technique devised by JCS19 motivates our analysis to estimate the radial profile of the median pixel optical depth around these high-z quasars in comparison to the median pixel optical depth of the general IGM.

The paper is structured as follows. In Sect. 2, we discuss our sample and its properties. In Sect. 3, we present transmitted flux analysis and results. This is followed by estimating an appropriate ionization correction using simulated spectra for the pixel optical depth values when observed using a moderate resolution spectrograph. This relation is then applied to the real data to constrain the median pixel optical depth radial profile around high-z quasars. The discussions and conclusions are presented in Sect. 4. Throughout this paper, we have used a flat background cosmology with cosmological parameters $\Omega_m$, $\Omega_\Lambda$ and $H_0$ to be $0.286$, $0.714$, 69.6 kms$^{-1}$Mpc$^{-1}$, respectively, (Bennett et al. 2014). Moreover, all the distances mentioned in this paper are proper distances unless noted otherwise.

2 DATA AND ITS PROPERTIES

We use 100 quasar spectra from the XQ-100 survey, obtained using VLT/X-SHOOTER in the period between 2012-02-10 and 2014-02-23 within the ESO large program entitled “Quasars and their absorption lines: a legacy survey of the high redshift universe with X-SHOOTER” lead by López, S. et al. (2016). X-SHOOTER is a triple arm spectograph, with UV-Blue$^1$, VIS (visible) and NIR (near-infrared) arm covering a spectral range of 315-560 nm, 540-1020 nm and 1000-2480 nm (e.g., see also, Vernet et al. 2011), respectively. Therefore, in one integration X-SHOOTER provides a spectral coverage from the $\sim 310$ nm (atmospheric cutoff) to the 2480 nm (NIR) at a

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$^1$ To avoid confusion with UVB as used for ultraviolet background, the UV-blue arm is represented as UV-Blue.
moderate resolution of $R \approx 5000$-9000. The coverage up to 2480 nm is available only for 47 of the quasars in the sample due to the employed K band blocking filter. However, this spectral coverage leads to the full coverage of the Lyα forest in the optical spectral regime for the quasars at higher redshifts and the [O iii], [O ii] and Mg ii emission lines in the NIR regime allows one to have a precise estimate of systemic redshifts of the quasars (e.g., see Sect. 3.2). The distribution of emission redshifts of these 100 quasars spanning a range of 3.51 to 4.71 is shown in Fig. 1. These are measured using principal component analysis (PCA). The details of the sample are fully described in the López, S. et al. (2016).

For the analysis presented here, we mostly utilize the spectra taken in VIS and UV-Blue arms only. The resolving power in the UV-Blue and VIS arm is 5100 (pixel width of 20 kms$^{-1}$) and 8800 (pixel width of 11 kms$^{-1}$) respectively obtained from the header of the fits file and data release which is also consistent with Walther et al. (2018) findings. In order to have a similar resolution throughout the spectra, we have convolved the higher resolution spectra of VIS arm to a lower resolution value corresponding to the UV-Blue arm by using a Gaussian kernel with $FWHM = [FWHM_{VIB}^2 - FWHM_{VIS}^2]^{1/2}$. We then interpolated flux, continuum, and error to a common wavelength grid of 20 kms$^{-1}$ per pixel using the “cubic-spline interpolation method”.

Therefore, the full spectral coverage of the Lyα forest along with the high S/N (median S/N = 30) and high resolution ($R \approx 5100$) achieved, clearly makes XQ-100 a unique data set to study the quasars proximity effect at high-z. Out of these 100 quasars, we could make use of 85 quasars as the main sample that are marked as flag=1 in Table 1. The remaining 15 quasars (marked as flag=0) were excluded from the proximity sample due to lack of IGM control sample but they are included in the control sample as discussed in Sect. 2.2 and marked by squares in Fig. 1.

![Figure 1. The plot shows the Lyman continuum luminosity ($L_{Ly\alpha}$) versus emission redshift ($z_{em}$) for the 100 quasars. The color-shade in the right side provides the V-band magnitude scale. The circle represents the 85 quasars used in our main sample (see Sect. 2). The square represents 15 quasars which got excluded from our proximity analysis sample due to lack of control sample but they are used for the control sample (as elaborated in Sect. 2.2).](image)

### 2.1 Distances and luminosities

The Lyman continuum luminosity can be calculated using flux-calibrated spectra as detailed in JCS19. However, as mentioned by López, S. et al. (2016) that the flux values in XQ-100 can be uncertain by an order-of-magnitude. Therefore, the Lyman continuum luminosity was calculated using the V-band magnitude of these quasars based on the formalism provided by Liske & Williger (2001). Here, we assume the continuum to be a power-law i.e., $f_c \propto \nu^{-\alpha}$ with the flux density $f_c$ at the observed wavelength $\lambda$ as,

$$ f_c(\nu) = \left[ \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\lambda(1+z_{em})} \right]^{-1} (1+z_{em}) \times 10^{-0.4(m_V-k_V)} f_{\nu V}(0) $$

where $\lambda$, $k_V$, $m_V$ and $f_{\nu V}(0)$ are the central wavelength, $K$-correction (e.g., see Cristiani & Vio 1990), observed magnitude and 0-magnitude flux in the V-band respectively. Here, we have assumed

$$ \alpha \approx \begin{cases} 0.44 & \lambda > 1300 \ \text{Å} \\ 1.57 & \lambda \leq 1300 \ \text{Å} \end{cases} $$

(e.g., see Vanden Berk et al. 2001; Telfer et al. 2002; Khaire & Srianand 2015b, and references therein). We note here that the UV-spectral index may vary from quasar to quasar and the impact of ignoring such dispersion was studied in our previous work (JCS19). We found that the effect of this variation is negligible as far as the recovered ratio of median pixel optical depth profile is concerned. Therefore, we have used the value of $\alpha$ as given in Eq. 1.

We also correct the observed flux value in our spectrum for Galactic extinction (e.g., see Schlegel et al. 1998) by applying a correction factor $10^{A(\lambda)}$ where

$$ A(\lambda) = R_V E(B-V) \frac{A(\lambda)}{A(V)} $$

using, $R_V = 3.1$ (e.g., see Clayton & Cardelli 1988; Liske & Williger 2001, and references therein). The flux is calculated at the threshold wavelength of the H i ionizing photons (i.e., 912 Å) and the corresponding luminosity as, $4\pi d_L^2 \times F_{\nu_{912}}$ (912 Å), where $d_L$ is the luminosity distance to the quasar. As a consistency check of the estimated Lyman continuum luminosity ($L_{Ly\alpha}$) based on this method, we also used the spectroscopic measurements to calculate it for the 53 sources for which SDSS flux-calibrated spectra are also available. Here, we used the flux at 1325 Å (in the rest frame of quasars) in conjunction with the spectral slope given by Eq. 1 to compute the $F_{\nu_{912}}$ (912 Å) as detailed in JCS19. The same spectra are also used to estimate the V-band magnitude using the transfer function as given by Johnson & Morgan (1951). The Lyman continuum luminosity estimated using the spectrum and V-band magnitude is found to be consistent with each other within 10%. Therefore, for the sake of homogeneity, we have adopted the $L_{Ly\alpha}$ estimate based on the photometric method for all the sources in our sample. Here, a small caveat could be the difference in the epochs of photometric and spectroscopic observations over which the quasar’s magnitude might have varied. For instance, the photometric light curve available in Catalina...
Table 1. Some properties of 100 quasars used in our analysis with masked absorption redshifts.

| SN. | Quasar name | $z_{\text{em}}$ | Ra (deg) | Dec (deg) | $m_V$ | log[$L_{912}$] (erg s$^{-1}$ Hz$^{-1}$) | Flag for main sample | $z_a$ (class) | Masked absorbers in the Ly$\alpha$ forest |
|-----|-------------|----------------|----------|----------|-------|-------------------------------------|---------------------|--------------|----------------------------------------|
| [1] | J0003-2603 4.125 | 0.845 | $-26.055$ | 17.530 | 32.163 | 1 | 3.39 (DLA), 3.39 (NAL SiIV)) |
| [2] | J0006-6208 4.440 | 1.715 | $-62.134$ | 18.290 | 32.012 | 0 | 3.78 (DLA) |
| [3] | J0030-5129 4.173 | 7.644 | $-51.495$ | 18.570 | 31.773 | 1 | – |
| [4] | J0042-1020 3.863 | 10.582 | $-10.337$ | 19.530 | 31.232 | 1 | – |
| [5] | J0048-2442 4.083 | 12.143 | $-24.702$ | 18.940 | 31.577 | 1 | 3.76 (sub-DLA) |
| [6] | … | … | … | … | … | … | … |

Note. Here, we show only a small portion of the table to display its form and contents. The entire table with details of all 100 quasars are available in an online version.

Real-time Transient Survey (CRTS$^2$, Drake et al. 2009) for 96 sources in our sample, observed over a period of about 8 years, shows a typical variation of $\sim$10% in their magnitude. This could at the maximum lead to additional 10% uncertainty in the estimated Lyman continuum luminosity.

In Fig. 1, we show $z_{\text{em}}$ versus $L_{912}$ for the quasars in our sample along with their V-band magnitude (taken from the summary file provided by López, S. et al. 2016). It can be seen from the figure that for our sample the $L_{912}$ ranges from $1.06 \times 10^{31}$ to $2.24 \times 10^{32}$ erg s$^{-1}$ Hz$^{-1}$ and $z_{\text{em}}$ in the range from 3.51 to 4.71 (e.g., see Table 1).

The proper radial distance ($r$) between the quasar with an emission redshift of $z_{\text{em}}$ and an absorbing cloud at an absorption redshift of $z_a$ is computed as,

$$r(z_{\text{em}}, z_a) = \frac{c \times |z_a - z_{\text{em}}|}{(1 + z_{\text{em}}) H(z_{\text{em}})} = \frac{\Delta v}{H(z_{\text{em}})}$$

where, $H(z_{\text{em}}) = H_0 \sqrt{\Omega_m (1 + z_{\text{em}})^3 + \Omega_\Lambda}$, is the Hubble constant at $z_{\text{em}}$ (Kirkman & Tytler 2008). For further analysis of longitudinal proximity effect, we consider the Ly$\alpha$ forest within $-50$ Mpc $\leq r(z_{\text{em}}, z_a) \leq 0$ Mpc along the line of sight to the quasar as the proximity region. The Ly$\alpha$ absorption seen between the Ly$\beta$ and Ly$\alpha$ emission lines after excluding the proximity region is considered as the IGM in our study. The negative values of the distances given by Eq. 3 for $z_a < z_{\text{em}}$ are just to indicate that absorbing clouds are towards the observers. However, in our calculations, we have used the absolute values for distances.

### 2.2 Control sample of Ly$\alpha$ forest

In this paper, we carry out a statistical analysis by using the transmitted flux ($F_i(\lambda_i)$) and pixel optical depth, $\tau(\lambda_i)$ of the Ly$\alpha$ absorption (e.g., see JCS19 and references therein), i.e.,

$$F_i(\lambda_i) \equiv F(\lambda_i)/F_c(\lambda_i) = e^{-\tau(\lambda_i)}$$

where, $\tau(\lambda_i)$ is the pixel optical depth-integrated over the pixel width of the observed spectrum (i.e., 20 kms$^{-1}$). Here, $F(\lambda_i)$ and $F_c(\lambda_i)$ are the observed flux and the unabsorbed continuum flux respectively at the $i$th pixel having a wavelength $\lambda_i$. In our analysis, the pixels with $F_i(\lambda_i) \geq 1$ and

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2 http://crts.caltech.edu
$F(\lambda) \leq 0$ are also included. However, since the optical depth values for $F(\lambda) \leq 0$ are ill-defined, we assign $F(\lambda) = \sigma(\lambda)$ for such pixels, where $\sigma(\lambda)$ represents the corresponding flux measurement error. Moreover, the percentage of such pixels are very small ($\sim 1\%$), therefore, the inclusion and/or exclusion of these pixels will have a negligible effect on our further analysis. We statistically compare the distribution of the pixel optical depth and/or transmitted flux among the proximity region with that originating from the general IGM. However, in order to combine these values from various absorption redshifts one has to account for the strong redshift evolution of the optical depth. The evolution curve in principle allows one to scale the optical depth at various redshifts to a reference redshift, and then carry out the statistical comparison of it with that of the average optical depth in the IGM at that reference redshift (e.g., see Rollinde et al. 2005; Kirkman & Tytler 2008). However, this method does have a caveat that it may introduce optical depth values by scaling up the continuum noises.

Therefore, instead of using this optical depth evolution curve to scale the optical depths at various redshifts to a reference redshift, we adopt an approach similar to JCS19 of using a control sample. In this regard, we construct a control sample, for each proximity region of a spectrum, consisting of those quasars in which their IGM (i.e., $r(z_{em}, z_a) < -50$ Mpc) covers the same Ly$\alpha$ absorption redshift region as that of the proximity region. The method has an advantage as it allows direct comparison of the observed optical depths in the proximity region and IGM region without using any scaling relationships. For constructing such a control sample, we made use of the Ly$\alpha$ forest more than 50 Mpc away from our parent sample of 100 quasars. Out of the 100 main sightlines, we could not find a control sample for 7 sightlines with the aforementioned exact match in the redshift. This reduces our main sample to 93 sightlines.

In our search for the control sample, we noticed that for all quasars in our sample we could get typically about 5 sightlines of IGM. However, for a few of these sources, we could even get $>5$ sightlines in the control sample. For such
cases, we picked up 5 sightlines having the closest match in S/N with the Lyα forest in the proximity region. This also helps to ensure a good match in S/N as shown in the top panel of Fig. 2. Also, in the bottom panel of Fig. 2, we show the distribution of relative change of S/N of the proximity region (S/N_{p}) and IGM region (S/N_{igm}) i.e., \( \frac{\Delta S/N}{S/N} \equiv \frac{S/N_p-S/N_{igm}}{S/N_p} \) showing a \(< 25\%\) deviation for about 68\% of our sample. For 8 quasars, we could not find a control sample with \( |\Delta S/N|/S/N < 1 \) and hence were excluded from our proximity analysis sample. This reduces our main sample from 93 sightlines to 85 sightlines. These 85 quasars are marked with flag=1 in column 8 of Table 1.

In the lower panel of Fig. 3, we show for illustration a spectrum used as a control sample, and the same for the main sample is shown in the upper panel. It shows the absorption redshift match between the two samples (green dots) with IGM being 50 Mpc away from the quasar’s emission. Additionally, all the samples used in our analysis were observed with the same spectral setting in X-SHOOTER. As a result, any effect of spectral resolution will either have a similar or no effect in both of the samples and hence will have minimal impact (if any) for our further analysis.

### 2.3 DLA, sub-DLA and NAL

The proximity effect analysis depends on the HI content in the neighbourhood of the quasar as compared to that of the intergalactic medium (IGM). Therefore, we mask the spectral region consisting of systems such as damped Lyα (DLA)/sub-DLA, narrow-absorption lines (NAL) and Lyman limit systems (LLS) simply to avoid bias due to any strong absorption in our analysis.

To mask such absorption region, we have used Sánchez-Ramírez et al. (2016) compilation, where they have provided a sample of 24 intervening DLA systems and 1 proximate DLA systems with column density (in units of cm\(^{-2}\)) log\([\text{N}_\text{HI}]\) > 20.3 towards these 85 quasars. Similarly, Berg et al. (2019) provides a list of 207 HI absorbers with log\([\text{N}_\text{HI}]\) > 18.8 along these 85 quasars. Out of these 207 systems, 90 are LLS with 18.8 \(\leq\) log\([\text{N}_\text{HI}]\) \(\leq\) 19, 88 are sub-DLAs with 19 \(<\) log\([\text{N}_\text{HI}]\) \(\leq\) 20.3 and 22 are identified as DDLAs (already included in the Sánchez-Ramírez et al. 2016). In these catalogues, they have provided details such as absorption redshifts (z_a) and column densities of individual systems. We have used the z_a information to mask a spectral region of \(\pm 3000 \text{ kms}^{-1}\) and \(\pm 1000 \text{ kms}^{-1}\) around the absorption redshift of the DLAs and LLS/sub-DLAs, respectively. Additionally, Perrotta et al. (2016) listed the absorption redshift of the 833 NALs consisting of metal absorptions along the 85 quasars in our sample. The Lyα absorption corresponding to these absorbers might be optically thin and hence can respond to the quasar’s radiation (e.g., see Kim et al. 2016). Therefore, even though we do not mask the Lyα region, however, if the corresponding metal lines such as C iv, Si iv, N v, C ii lies in the spectral region used in our analysis, we do mask a region of \(\pm 500 \text{ kms}^{-1}\) around these metal absorption lines. In Fig. 3, we have marked for illustration the masked region in the proximity region of the main sample (top panel) and IGM region of the control sample (bottom panel).

### 3 Analysis

#### 3.1 Quasar Continuum

As evident from Eq. 4 that the analysis of the transmitted flux and the pixel optical depth can be significantly affected by any uncertainty in the continuum fit to the spectral region of the Lyα forest. For the sample of XQ-100 quasar, López, S. et al. (2016) have given the continuum fit based on the cubic spline method as shown with a red-dashed line in Fig. 3. However, as pointed out by Lidz et al. (2006), that such an algorithm has its caveat of underestimating continuum flux in the Lyα forest at low-resolution with low S/N data and a careful visual check is required for each spectrum. Additionally, the continuum flux in the Lyα forest at these redshifts, in general, might be underestimated due to the blending of multiple low optical depth Lyα absorption lines (e.g., see also, Seljak et al. 2003; Lidz et al. 2006; Faucher-Giguère et al. 2008a). Therefore, we carried out a visual check of their continuum in the regions that are free from absorption and found that the r.m.s. of the fit is better than the 1/\([\text{S/N}]\) allowed variation. We note here that such an underestimation of continuum flux will lead to underestimation of the optical depth both in the proximity as well as in the IGM region (though the uncertainty can be larger in the wings of the Lyα emission line). However, its impact will be slightly diluted at least for the analysis of the ratio of median values of these observed pixel optical depth.

Ideally, it would be better to have mock spectra for these quasars with a known continuum and then fitting the continuum to those mock spectra to get the statistical and systematical continuum uncertainty. In the absence of mock spectra for our data-set, we have adopted a conservative estimate of about 10\% for statistical continuum uncertainty (per pixel), based on the detailed analysis carried out in JCS19 using mock spectra for SDSS spectra (with known continuum). This is a conservative estimate for the high quality spectra used here with SNR ~20 and R~5100. However, for the correction of systematic uncertainty due to the systematic under-estimation of continuum, we adopted a typical estimate given by Faucher-Giguère et al. (2008b) as \(\Delta C/C_{true} = 1.58 \times 10^{-5} (1+z)^{1/3} \) where \(\Delta C\) is the difference between the estimated continuum (C_est) and actual continuum (C_true). The analysis was performed using mock spectra with spectral properties similar to that of the data used here. A similar continuum correction is also given by JCS19 for SDSS data and by Becker et al. (2007) for HIRES data. We present our results using the continuum fits given by Lópex, S. et al. (2016) (e.g. see the red-dashed line in Fig. 3) after applying the aforementioned correction for systematic shift in the continuum (e.g. see the red-solid line in Fig. 3). However, for the sake of completeness, we also discuss our results without applying this continuum shift in Sect. 4.
Figure 4. The plot shows the median value of the transmitted flux in various 2 Mpc radial distance bins from the quasars for the proximity region (triangle) and the corresponding control sample (square). The negative distances in the x-axis are just sign convention used in Eq. 3 to represent the absorbing clouds present in the vicinity of the main quasars towards the observers. The gray-shades represents the median value of the absorption redshifts of pixels used in each radial bin. The transmitted flux beyond Lyα emission line is shown with an asterisk sign (without gray-shades according to redshift) to distinguish them from the absorption in the Lyα forest. The error bars on the median transmitted flux of the proximity region consists of redshift uncertainty, flux and continuum measurement errors, sightline-to-sightline variance and r.m.s statistical errors within each radial distance bin (e.g., see Eq. 5 and/or Sect. 3.3). The error-bars in the control sample are small due to the large sample size (being ∼ 5 IGM sightlines per main quasar sightline). The green vertical dashed line shows the location of the main quasars.

3.2 Estimation of quasar’s emission redshift

An accurate estimation of the emission redshifts for the quasars is a very crucial aspect for the analysis of the proximity effect. For our entire sample, López, S. et al. (2016) have given the $z_{em}$, using their robust method based on PCA. Alternatively, as pointed out by many previous studies (e.g., see Shen et al. 2016, and references therein) that [O III] emission line is also a reliable estimator of $z_{em}$, which is covered in spectra of ∼ 45 sources in our sample. We limit the redshift estimation only to 23 quasars (out of 45 quasars) which has strong enough [O III] emission lines (equivalent width, EW > 0.3 Å). Therefore, as a quality check, we fit the doublet of the [O III] lines (∼ 4959, 5007 Å) for these 23 sources with double Gaussian to fit both broad and narrow components. Furthermore, to make the fit physical, we have tied the values of redshifts and FWHMs of the doublet lines to have the same values and the intensity ratio to be as 1:3 (i.e., $I_{5007} = 3 \times I_{4959}$) as expected theoretically. We also applied the systemic redshift offset of 48 kms$^{-1}$ as given by Shen et al. (2016) where they assume that Ca II emission line provides the most reliable systemic redshift. We found that our emission redshift estimate is consistent within a typical dispersion of ∼ 150 kms$^{-1}$ with negligible systemic offset with the emission redshifts given by López, S. et al. (2016) estimated using PCA.

Additionally, we also used Mg II emission line, available for all sources to estimate the redshifts, though the line strength was not high enough (i.e., EW > 0.3) for 23 sources (out of 100). After using double Gaussian fit for these 77 sources and applying a systemic redshift offset of 57 kms$^{-1}$ as given by Shen et al. (2016), we again found a negligible systemic difference while comparing with PCA based redshifts estimates by López, S. et al. (2016). However, we do find a dispersion of ∼ 600 kms$^{-1}$ between redshift estimated using Mg II emission line and PCA based method (see also, Páris et al. 2017). This suggests that the $z_{em}$ estimated by López, S. et al. (2016) based on the PCA method is in general consistent with [O III] and Mg II emission lines. Finally, for the sake of homogeneity, we have used the $z_{em}$ value as given by López, S. et al. (2016) for the entire sample. However, to be on the conservative side, we have included a dispersion of 600 kms$^{-1}$ as a typical uncertainty in the individual measured emission redshift value in our further analysis.

Additionally, we calculate the statistical uncertainty in the emission redshift using the Monte-Carlo simulations. For this, at each pixel with wavelength $\lambda_i$, we have generated flux using Gaussian random distribution with a mean value...
taken as the observed flux \( F_i \) and width of the distribution as the observed error on \( F_i \). We then estimate the redshift for about 1000 simulated realizations of our sample and found a spread of just 5 \( \text{km s}^{-1} \) which is negligible in comparison to the above redshift uncertainty of 600 \( \text{km s}^{-1} \).

### 3.3 Transmitted flux uncertainties

For estimating the uncertainties in the transmitted flux measurements, we follow a similar procedure as detailed in JCS19 with a brief description below. The first contribution of error in the normalized spectrum is propagated from the flux measurement errors and continuum fitting error \( \Delta F_i^c(\lambda_i) \) at each pixel. As mentioned in Sect. 3.1, we have assumed a maximum possible uncertainty of 10% in each pixel as continuum uncertainty as a conservative estimate. It may be noted that there might be a correlation in the continuum placement error within a spectrum. Therefore, the flux error is averaged over the number of pixels in a radial bin w.r.t. the quasars, however, continuum placement error is averaged over the number of spectra contributing in that radial distance bin. This leads to an average of \( \Delta F_i^c \) value in each radial distance bin. The second contribution to the error in the normalized flux comes from the r.m.s. scatter of the normalized flux \( \Delta F_i^{rms} \) within each 2 Mpc radial distance bins.

Additionally, we include the uncertainty in the median \( F_t \) measured in the proximity region due to the typical emission redshift uncertainty \( \Delta F_t^e \) of \( \sim 600 \text{ km s}^{-1} \) along our sightlines as discussed in Sect. 3.2. To calculate this, we add a random (Gaussian generator with \( \sigma = 600 \text{ km s}^{-1} \) velocity offset to each quasar emission redshift within \( \pm 600 \text{ km s}^{-1} \) range. The distribution of the median transmitted flux computed for 100 such realizations in a radial bin of 2 Mpc is found to be Gaussian with a width of \( \Delta F_t^e \). Additionally, we also added the sightline-to-sightline variance of the proximity sample \( \Delta F_t^{var} \). Here, we used the bootstrap technique (e.g., see Efron & J. Tibshirani 1993) by the random exclusion of sightlines at the cost of repeating other sightlines. We use 100 such realizations to estimate the width of the Gaussian distribution of the median transmitted flux, \( \Delta F_t^{var} \), within each 2 Mpc radial distance bins.

Therefore, the total error on the measured transmitted flux in the proximity region \( \Delta F_t^p \) is given by the quadratic sum of all the above-mentioned errors leading to \( \Delta F_t^p \) for a given 2 Mpc radial distance bin, as,

\[
\Delta F_t^p = \sqrt{(\Delta F_t^c)^2 + (\Delta F_t^{rms})^2 + (\Delta F_t^e)^2 + (\Delta F_t^{var})^2},
\]

Here, \( \Delta F_t^c \) is of the order of \( \sim 0.05 \), \( \Delta F_t^{rms} \) contributes \( \sim 0.006 \), \( \Delta F_t^e \) leads to approximately \( \sim 0.001 \). Lastly, the \( \Delta F_t^{var} \) is of the order of \( \sim 0.03 \) in the Ly\( \alpha \) forest. Therefore, the total error is found to be of the order of \( \sim 0.05 \) in the proximity region within each 2 Mpc radial distance bins.

We follow similar error analysis for the estimation of errors for the control sample after excluding the contribution from redshift uncertainty and sightline-to-sightline variance. Nonetheless, the transmitted flux values of the control sample might be correlated because of the overlap in the comparison samples for quasars at similar emission redshifts. We mitigate such correlations by exclusion bootstrapping, viz., by randomly retaining only one sightline out of the total 5 sightlines used as a control sample for each sightline of the proximity region, and generated 100 such realizations.

The distribution of the transmitted flux in each radial bin is found to be Gaussian. The width of this Gaussian distribution is then added to the error budget of IGM. Moreover, the sample size of the control sample is typically five times larger than the proximity sample (due to our choice of 5 control samples for each main sample) which results in much smaller statistical errors.

### 3.4 Transmitted flux statistics

We have plotted in Fig. 4 median values of \( F_t \) within various 2 Mpc radial distance bins, towards and away from the quasars. The negative distances in the x-axis are just sign convention used in Eq. 3 to represent the absorbing clouds present in the vicinity of the main quasars towards the observer. The gray-shades show the median redshift of the pixels contributing to each of the radial distance bin.

A first noticeable point from Fig. 4 is that the \( F_t \) measured at large radial distances from the quasar (i.e., \( \geq 14 \text{ Mpc} \)) is consistent with that from the IGM obtained using the control sample (as expected). For each radial distance bin, we have combined all the pixels based on their distances from the quasar falling within that radial bin, but these pixels have absorption redshift spread over a large range. This can result in a gradual slope in the transmitted flux with radial distance for the Ly\( \alpha \) absorbers as the median absorption redshift of the pixels in a given radial distance bin decreases towards the observer (e.g., see redshift based gray-shade in Fig. 4). However, we reiterate that our selection of the control samples (see, e.g., Sect. 2.2) with exact matching in absorption redshift takes care of such effects due to the similar redshift evolution expected. This is also evident from the similarity of redshift depicted by gray-shade for both the IGM and proximity region.

From Fig. 4, it can be seen that the proximity effect is significant up to a distance of 12 Mpc with a clear increase in the transmitted flux \( (F_t) \) as we get closer to the quasar as expected in the classical proximity effect. Also, in the region redward of the quasars \( F_t \sim 1 \), which is expected as it represents the continuum region. The consistency of \( F_t \sim 1 \) can be noticed even in the first radial bin redward of quasars. This indicates that the possible uncertainty in the redshift estimation (as given by López, S. et al. 2016) due to any peculiar motion (if any) are not significant at scales \( \geq 2 \text{ Mpc} \).

### 3.5 Median pixel optical depth profile around the quasar

#### 3.5.1 Degeneracy between ionization and excess optical depth at moderate resolution

To lift the degeneracy between the effect of excess ionization from the quasars and the presence of excess pixel optical depth ratio around the quasar in comparison to the IGM, we follow the procedure as detailed in JCS19, with a brief discussion given below. Here, we make use of the UVB measurements from Khaire & Srianand (2015a, 2019) based on an independent method using an updated comoving specific emissivities of galaxies and quasars at different frequencies.
The ratio of median pixel optical depth (i.e., \( \tau_{\text{median pixel}} \)) around the quasars (e.g., see Eq. (4)) will be the manifestation of the excess overdensity region to that of the pixel optical depth of the general IGM. We have estimated this ratio within a radial bin of 1 Mpc, leading to

\[
\frac{\Gamma_{\text{UVB}}(z_a) + \Gamma_q(r, z_a)}{\Gamma_{\text{UVB}}(z_a)} \equiv 1 + \omega_f
\]

with \( \Gamma_{\text{UVB}}(z_a) \) (taken from Khaire & Srianand 2015a, 2019) and \( \Gamma_q(r, z_a) \) being the H I photoionization rates at the absorption redshift \( z_a \) contributed by the UVB and quasar respectively.

In Fig. 5, we show the departure of the effective ionization correction parameter, \( \Gamma_q/\Gamma_{\text{UVB}} \equiv \omega_f(\tau, \omega_r) \), from its theoretical value of \( \Gamma_q/\Gamma_{\text{UVB}}(\equiv \omega_f(\tau, \omega_r)) \), from the ratio of median pixel optical depth increases with a decrease in the radial distance \( r \leq 0 \) Mpc. In addition to these errors, uncertainty in the \( \omega_f(\tau, \omega_r) \) due to measurement uncertainty

Resolution (R \( \sim 5100 \)) and pixel optical depth value where \( [1 + \omega_f] \) is defined as,

\[
[1 + \omega_f] \equiv \frac{\Gamma_{\text{UVB}}(z_a) + \Gamma_q(r, z_a)}{\Gamma_{\text{UVB}}(z_a)} \equiv 1 + \omega_f
\]

(Fig. 5) shows the departure of the effective ionization correction parameter, \( \Gamma_q/\Gamma_{\text{UVB}} \equiv \omega_f(\tau, \omega_r) \), from its theoretical value of \( \Gamma_q/\Gamma_{\text{UVB}} \equiv \omega_f(\tau, \omega_r) \) in various pixel optical depth bins at spectral resolution of \( \sim 5100 \) (the typical resolution of our X-SHOOTER spectra). Here, the \( \omega_r \) is used to vary the level of ionization in the simulated IGM spectra (Gaikwd et al. 2018), with pixel optical depth \( \tau_{\text{true}} \) as \( \tau_{\text{true}}/(1 + \omega_f) \). The transmitted flux corresponding to \( \tau_{\text{true}} \) and \( \tau_{\text{true}}/(1 + \omega_f) \) are convolved with Gaussian kernel corresponding to the X-SHOOTER resolution to obtain transmitted flux leading to simulated pixel optical depths \( \tau_{\text{SIM}} \) and \( \tau_p \) respectively. The best fit is computed such that KS-test probability is maximum for the distribution of \( \tau_p \times [1 + \omega_f(\tau, \omega_r)] \) and distribution of \( \tau_{\text{SIM}} \) to be similar at each optical depth bin of \( \tau_p \), as detailed in JCS19. In the hydro-dynamical simulation of IGM used here from Gaikwd et al. (2018), they have used GADGET-3 simulation\(^4\), with box size of 10 h\(^{-1}\) cMpc having 2 \times 512\(^3\) number of particles and mass resolution of \( \sim 10^9 \) h\(^{-1}\) M\(_{\odot}\). The UV-background used in this simulation was given by Haardt & Madau (2012). We note that the UVB used in our analysis (i.e., Khaire & Srianand 2015a, 2019) is different from the UVB model used in the simulations (Haardt & Madau 2012). This replacement of the UVB model may alter the overall optical depth distribution of simulated IGM. However it will not have any significant impact on the above \( \omega_f \) and \( \omega_0^f \) relation, as we have used here the simulations only to calibrate the ionization correction at a given pixel optical depth (using a small bins of optical depth, e.g., see Fig. 5), which will not have any significant dependence on the overall distribution of the optical depth.

It is evident from Fig. 5 that there is a significant departure of \( \omega_0^f(\tau, \omega_r) \) from \( \omega_r \) at least for higher optical depth bins and higher values of \( \omega_r \).

3.5.2 Pixel optical depth statistics

In our further analysis, we calculate the pixel optical depth values (integrated value over the pixel width of \( \sim 20\) k.ms\(^{-1}\)) from the transmitted flux \( F_\lambda(\Lambda_i) \) as used in the Fig. 4, the binning is however reduced to 1 Mpc. We plot in the right panel of Fig. 6 the "ratio of median pixel optical depth (i.e., \( R_{\tau}(r) \)) in each 1 Mpc radial bin. The errors are then propagated appropriately as discussed in Sect. 3.3 from each pixel to a given radial distance bin of 1 Mpc. The plot shows that the ratio of median pixel optical depth increases with a decrease in the radial distance \( r \) with a significant excess in the range \( -6 \leq r \leq 0 \) Mpc. In addition to these errors, uncertainty in the \( \omega_0^f(\tau, \omega_r) \) due to measurement uncertainty

\[\text{http://wwwmpa.mpa-garching.mpg.de/gadget/}\]
in $\tau$ is also taken into account, as,

$$|\omega'_\tau(\tau + \Delta \tau) - \omega'_\tau(\tau - \Delta \tau)|/2.$$  \hspace{1cm} (10)

In order to quantify the radial extents around the quasars, where the $R_c(\tau)$ is significantly higher than unity, we parameterize the $R_c(\tau)$ versus $r$ curve by a fitting function of the form $R_c(\tau) = 1 + A \times \exp(-r/r_0)$. The best fit parameters are determined by using the $\chi^2$ fit, resulting in $A = 9.16 \pm 0.68$ and $r_0 = 1.27 \pm 0.08$ Mpc. The best fit profile is shown in the right panel of Fig. 6, which deviates from the unity with $\geq 1\sigma$ for region $-6$ Mpc $\leq r \leq 0$ (proper), with $r$ being the median value of error-bar on $R_c(\tau)$. In this 6 Mpc region, the integrated value of scaled pixel optical depth (i.e., $\tau_p \times [1 + \omega'_\tau(\tau, \omega_r)]$) by triangles in left panel of Fig. 6 is found to be higher by a factor of 2.55 $\pm$ 0.17 in comparison to the corresponding integrated value of the $\tau_{igm}$ curve (shown by squares in left panel of Fig. 6). Here the estimated uncertainty is computed based on the proper error propagation (assuming Gaussian in nature) from the individual error-bar as shown in the left panel of Fig. 6. We also used the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (KS-test) and found that the null probability for the distribution of $\tau_p \times [1 + \omega'_\tau(\tau, \omega_r)]$ and $\tau_{igm}$ within the 6 Mpc to belong to same distribution is ruled out at 100% confidence level.

4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Studies in the past have established that quasars reside in an overdense gaseous environment based on various techniques such as clustering analysis, cross-correlation etc (e.g., see White et al. 2012; Trainor & Steidel 2013). Here, we have used a novel technique from our recent study in JCS19 to estimate the ratio of median pixel optical depth (i.e., $R_c(\tau)$) profile surrounding the high-redshift quasars based on the longitudinal proximity effect. The procedure involves the analysis of the proximity effect using the existing measurements of UVB leading to an estimate of the $R_c(\tau)$ profile around the quasar. The noticeable point in our analysis is that it takes care of the redshift evolution of the pixel optical depth using a control sample matched in absorption redshift along with similarity in S/N. This procedure surpasses the method of scaling the pixel optical depth to a reference redshift. The latter has a caveat of scaling continuum noise pixels as well as problematic for the saturated pixels. Additionally, our study also takes into account the effect of the spectral resolution and pixel optical depth while correcting for the effect of quasar’s ionization.

The sample used in this study consists of 85 quasars from the XQ-100 survey covering a redshift range from 3.5 to 4.5. These quasars have Lyman continuum luminosity in the range of $1.06 \times 10^{44}$ to $2.24 \times 10^{45}$ erg s$^{-1}$ Hz$^{-1}$ (e.g., see Fig. 1) with spectral resolution of $R \sim 5100$ and S/N ~ 30 (e.g., see Sect. 2). We find that the presence of the proximity effect up to a proper distance of 12 Mpc (e.g., see Fig. 4). It can be noted from Fig. 6 right panel, that the ratio of median pixel optical depth is found to be higher than unity in the region of $-6 \leq r \leq 0$ Mpc (proper) in the vicinity of the quasar. The integrated value of $\tau_p \times [1 + \omega'_\tau(\tau, \omega_r)]$ (shown by triangle in the left panel of Fig 6) in the $-6 \leq r \leq 0$ region, is found to be higher by a factor of 2.55 $\pm$ 0.17 than that of the corresponding integrated value of $\tau_{igm}$ (shown by square in the right panel of Fig 6).

In our analysis, we have assumed a single value of the spectral index ($\alpha$) for all the sources. However, previous studies have reported a range of values for the spectral indexes. For example, Stevans et al. (2014) estimated $\alpha = 0.83 \pm 0.09$ for 1200-2000 Å (rest frame) and $\alpha = 1.41 \pm 0.15$ for 500-1000 Å for the composite spectrum obtained by Hubble Space Telescope. Similarly, Lusso et al. (2015) analysis
estimates far-ultraviolet spectral index $\alpha = 0.61 \pm 0.01$ and at shorter wavelengths $\alpha = 1.70 \pm 0.61$. As pointed out in Sect. 2.1 that in our previous work (JCS19), we have shown that the impact of dispersion of the UV-spectral index is negligible as far as $R_\tau (r)$ is concerned. Similar to JCS19, we have re-estimated our ratio of median pixel optical depth profile using two extreme values of UV-spectral index viz., 1.96 and 0.56. We found similar $R_\tau (r)$ profile as shown in right panel of Fig. 6. In the distance range of $-6 \leq r \leq 0$ Mpc with the integrated value of $\tau_{\text{int}} \times [1 + \omega_{\text{em}}^2 / (\tau, \omega_r)]$ if found to be higher than integrated value of $\tau_{\text{int}}$ by a factor of 2.28$\pm$0.16 and 3.42$\pm$0.20 for $\alpha = 1.96$ and $\alpha = 0.56$ respectively.

We also note that though in the visual check the continuum fit given by López, S. et al. (2016) seems to be very robust, but at high redshifts the crowding of Lyα absorption can lead to no absorption free region in the Lyα forest. In this scenario, the best fitted continuum may be underestimated. In order to take into account the effect of such continuum underestimation, we also apply a systematic continuum shift based on the analysis of Faucher-Giguère et al. (2008b, e.g., see, Sect. 3.1). However, we also repeated the analysis of median transmitted flux (i.e., Fig. 4) and median pixel optical depth (i.e., Fig. 6) without applying such continuum shift. We found that the proximity effect is still evident up to a distance of 12 Mpc and the ratio of median pixel optical depth is significantly higher than unity in the $-5 \leq r \leq 0$ Mpc.

We also note that in our recent work JCS19, we have estimated the $R_\tau (r)$ in the longitudinal direction using 181 quasar pairs from SDSS (relatively smaller spectral resolution, $R \sim 2000$ and $S/N \sim 10$) sample using the same technique. The longitudinal proximity effect and the $R_\tau (r)$ in that study were found significant up to 4 Mpc. The extent and the significance level of the detection are comparatively much higher in the present study perhaps due to the higher quality quasar spectra used ($R \sim 5100$ and $S/N \sim 30$) and/or probably due to higher redshift and luminosity of the quasars in the sample used here.

Such proximity effect is also reported by many of the previous studies. For example, Guimaraes et al. (2007) also used quasars with a similar redshift range (i.e., $z_{\text{em}} > 4$) and found evidence for the proximity effect to a distance of $r \sim 15-20$ Mpc. However, in their analysis, while correcting for quasar’s ionization they have not considered its dependence on the spectral resolution and pixel optical depth as we have done in our analysis (e.g., see Sect. 3.5). Similarly, Calverley et al. (2011) found proximity effect evident from 3 Mpc to 10 Mpc at the redshift range from 4.5 to 6.5. Here, a tentative increase evident in the extent of the proximity region with an increase in the average emission redshift of the sample could be due to bias in selecting higher luminosity quasars at higher redshifts (see, also Eilers et al. 2017).

Similarly, in the context of our result that $R_\tau (r) > 1$ for $-6 \leq r \leq 0$ Mpc, which could be the manifestation of the excess overdensity around quasar, we note that, Scott et al. (2000) found the excess overdensity within 1.5 $h^{-1}$ Mpc at 5.5$\sigma$ level. Rollinde et al. (2005) claimed detection of overdensities of about a factor of 2 on scales $\sim 5$ Mpc for quasars at redshift $z \sim 2$. Similarly, Guimaraes et al. (2007) reported an excess overdensity of the order of 2 on the scales of $\sim 10$ Mpc. A small minority of quasars in Dall’Aglio et al. (2008a) show substantial overdensities of up to a factor of a few, till 3 Mpc. Furthermore, D’Odorico et al. (2008) found excess overdensity in the region within 4 Mpc from the quasar’s position. The main improvement in our present study of the ratio of median pixel optical depth study is that while applying the correction for the excess ionization of the quasar, we have taken into account the effect of spectral resolution and the pixel optical depth-dependence.

Our result that $R_\tau (r) > 1$ is also consistent with the fact that in order to form structures in the universe the collapsed regions should have a mean density higher than its critical value to overcome the Hubble flow (e.g., see, Loeb & Eisenstein 1995; Rollinde et al. 2005). The halo profiles grow via the infall of matter towards their centers and it can extend to a radius much greater than the virial radius (e.g., see, Faucher-Giguère et al. 2008a, and references therein). Therefore, the absorbing gas is not at rest with respect to the quasar center resulting in non-zero peculiar velocities. Faucher-Giguère et al. (2008a) showed that this peculiar velocity shifts the absorption redshift of the gas parcel through the Doppler effect and it is much significant compared to the thermal motion of the gas particles. Additionally, Hui et al. (1997) showed from their analysis that these peculiar velocities play an important role in determining the absorption profiles but its effect on the column density distribution is minor. It may be recalled that in our result of excess pixel optical depth profile as shown in Fig. 6, all possible sources of errors have been considered except the possible impact of the aforementioned peculiar velocity. Using a first-order approximation as explained in Faucher-Giguère et al. (2008a) an in-falling gas parcel will absorb radiation that has Lyα frequency (in the quasar rest frame) at proper distance $r' = r - \Delta r$ from the quasar, where $\Delta r = v_\parallel / H(z)$ with $v_\parallel$ representing peculiar velocity ($< 0$ for motion in-falling towards the quasar). Assuming the peculiar velocity to be as significant as Hubble flow i.e., $v_\parallel \sim -420$ kms$^{-1}$ at $\langle z_{\text{em}} \rangle = 4$, we obtain $|\Delta r| = 1$ Mpc. Therefore, although there could be a dilution of the magnitude of the measured value of $R_\tau (r)$ due to this peculiar velocity, its impact due to $\geq 1$ Mpc binning in our analysis may not be significant as far as the excess pixel optical depth ratio profile is concerned. However, in a realistic situation outflow also exists in the vicinity of the quasar, which can lead to the dilution of any such impact of inflow. Furthermore, as we pointed out in Sect. 3.4 that the transmitted flux as shown in Fig. 4, shows a sharp transition without the wing in the transition from the blue-side (i.e., proximity region) to the redward side of the quasars emission line centroid, suggesting a minor effect of peculiar velocity in our analysis. However, it will be important to quantify how the derived density profile will be modified if we include the peculiar velocities using cosmological simulations.

Moreover, the $R_\tau (r)$ is also expected to be correlated with the quasar’s luminosity, i.e., brighter quasars may live in a region of higher overdensities (e.g, see, Guimaraes et al. 2007, and references therein). In order to check this effect, we devised a subsample of low and high luminosity. In the low and high luminosity bins, we have taken 25 lowest and 25 highest (\sim 29% of the total sample) luminosity quasars of our sample. As can be seen from Fig. 7 that the excess pixel optical depth ratio is more pronounced for the subsample of higher luminosity with $\langle logL_{912} \rangle = 31.85$ ergs s$^{-1}$ Hz$^{-1}$ as compared to the lower luminosity subsample with
Figure 7. Left panel: Same as right panel of Fig. 6, but for the extreme 25 low and 25 high luminosity quasars in our sample (e.g., see text in Sect. 4). The Lyman continuum luminosity was calculated using V-band magnitude (e.g., see, Sect. 2.1). Right panel: The plot shows radius versus flux (similar to Fig. 4) for the transmitted flux of the subsample of extreme 25 low and 25 high luminosity quasars. The transmitted flux of the control sample of IGM for the higher-luminosity and the lower-luminosity quasars are shown in red-dashed and blue-dot-dashed lines, respectively.

Figure 8. Left panel: Same as right panel of Fig. 6, but for the RL (total 12 quasars with $R \geq 23$) and RQ (total 50 quasars with $R < 23$) quasars in our sample. The radio loudness parameter ($R$) was taken from Perrotta et al. (2016). Right panel: Same as right panel of Fig. 7, but for the RL and RQ subsample of quasars. The transmitted flux from the control sample of IGM for RL and RQ quasars are shown in red-dashed and blue-dot-dashed lines, respectively.

The integrated value under the $\tau_p \times [1 + \omega r^j(r, \omega)]$ curve (e.g., see Fig. 7) between $-6 \leq r \leq 0$ Mpc is found to be higher by a factor of 3.70 ± 0.22 and 1.62 ± 0.15 w.r.t. the corresponding integrated value of $\tau_{igm}$ curve for high and low luminosity subsamples respectively. However, we do notice that higher luminosity bin has a higher median redshift of $\langle z_{em} \rangle = 4.06$ in comparison to $\langle z_{em} \rangle = 3.85$ for the lower luminosity bin (e.g., see gray-shade). However, the above $R_r(r)$ difference, especially in the $-2 \leq r \leq 0$ Mpc bins, can not be merely explained by the redshift difference in these two subsamples.

Additionally, we also used our sample to check for any difference of density profile among radio-loud (RL) and radio-quiet (RQ) quasars (e.g., see Sopp & Alexander 1991; Dunlop et al. 2003; Gopal-Krishna et al. 2008; Retana-Montenegro & Röttgering 2017) where the former is generally associated with the presence of jets. Such bi-modality is quantified by a radio-loudness parameter ($R$) defined as a ratio between the rest-frame flux densities at 5 GHz and 2500 Å (see also, Ivezić et al. 2002; Kellermann et al. 2016, and references therein), with its value $R \geq 23$ for radio-loud sources as adopted by Ganguly et al. (2013). Out of the 85 quasars in our sample, 62 have information about its radio-loudness parameter.
with 12 being radio-loud (RL, i.e., $R \geq 23$) quasars and
50 being radio-quiet (RQ, i.e., $R < 23$) quasars (e.g., see Perrotta et al. 2016). We plot $R_{\tau}(r)$ for these two
sub-samples (i.e., radio-loud and radio-quiet quasars) as shown in Fig. 8. From this figure, it is evident that their $R_{\tau}(r)$ profile is quite similar in both sub-samples, though
the sample size of RL quasars is small here (12 quasars).
Here, we also note that the typical luminosity (median) among these two sub-samples is almost similar being $2.23 \times 10^{31}$ erg s$^{-1}$ Hz$^{-1}$ and $1.55 \times 10^{31}$ erg s$^{-1}$ Hz$^{-1}$ for the former and latter, respectively.

To summarize, our sample of 85 quasars from XQ-100
survey based on X-SHOOTER observations at high $R$ (\~{}5100) and high S/N (\~{}30), has allowed us to constrain the ratio of median pixel optical depth profile for quasar
in redshift range 3.5-4.5 and luminosity range from $1.06 \times 10^{31}$ to $2.24 \times 10^{32}$ erg s$^{-1}$ Hz$^{-1}$. Here, while correcting for quasar’s ionization, we have properly taken into account the effect of spectral resolution and pixel optical depth using detailed simulations. The ratio of median pixel optical depth is found to be significant up to 6 Mpc. The area under the curve of $\tau_{p}$ \times $[1 + \omega(t, \omega,r)]$ over 0-6 Mpc range is found to be higher by a factor of 2.55 \pm 0.17 in comparison to the corresponding area under $\tau_{0}$ in $\tau_{0}$ at 6 Mpc to belong to same distribution at 100% confidence level. This excess factor for subsample with average luminosity $\langle logL_{23} \rangle = 31.85$ (at $z_{em}=4$), and $\langle logL_{23} \rangle = 31.12$ (at $z_{em}=4$), is found to be 3.70 \pm 0.22 and 1.55 \pm 0.15 respectively, suggesting its dependence on luminosity.

Further improvement to constrain the ratio of median pixel optical depth profile and its dependence on various parameters such as luminosity, redshift and radio-loudness, will require a much larger sample size from future spectroscopic surveys with high-quality data as is used here from XQ-100 survey.

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DATA AVAILABILITY

Based on observations made with ESO Telescopes at the La Silla or Paranal Observatories under programme ID(s) 189.A-0424(A), 189.A-0424(B). The data used in this article is available at

\url{http://archive.eso.org/wdb/wdb/adc/phase3_main/form}
as provided by López, S. et al. (2016).

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