The first search for extremely-high energy cosmogenic neutrinos with the IceCube Neutrino Observatory

Abbasi, R, etal

8 Sept 2010

This work was supported by the Director, Office of Science, Office of Basic Energy Sciences, of the U.S. Department of Energy under Contract No. DE-AC02-05CH11231.

DISCLAIMER

This document was prepared as an account of work sponsored by the United States Government. While this document is believed to contain correct information, neither the United States Government nor any agency thereof, nor The Regents of the University of California, nor any of their employees, makes any warranty, express or implied, or assumes any legal responsibility for the accuracy, completeness, or usefulness of any information, apparatus, product, or process disclosed, or represents that its use would not infringe privately owned rights. Reference herein to any specific commercial product, process, or service by its trade name, trademark, manufacturer, or otherwise, does not necessarily constitute or imply its endorsement, recommendation, or favoring by the United States Government or any agency thereof, or The Regents of the University of California. The views and opinions of authors expressed herein do not necessarily state or reflect those of the United States Government or any agency thereof or The Regents of the University of California.
The first search for extremely-high energy cosmogenic neutrinos with the IceCube Neutrino Observatory


(IceCube Collaboration)

1III. Physikalisches Institut, RWTH Aachen University, D-52056 Aachen, Germany
2Dept. of Physics and Astronomy, University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, AL 35487, USA
3Dept. of Physics and Astronomy, University of Alaska Anchorage, 3211 Providence Dr., Anchorage, AK 99508, USA
4CTSPS, Clark-Atlanta University, Atlanta, GA 30314, USA
5School of Physics and Center for Relativistic Astrophysics, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA 30332, USA
6Dept. of Physics, Southern University, Baton Rouge, LA 70813, USA
7Dept. of Physics, University of California, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA
8Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA
9Institut für Physik, Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin, D-12489 Berlin, Germany
10Fakultät für Physik & Astronomie, Ruhr-Universität Bochum, D-44780 Bochum, Germany
11Physikalisches Institut, Universität Bonn, Nussallee 12, D-53115 Bonn, Germany
12Dept. of Physics, University of the West Indies, Cave Hill Campus, Bridgetown BB11000, Barbados
13Université Libre de Bruxelles, Science Faculty CP230, B-1050 Brussels, Belgium
14Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Dienst ELEM, B-1050 Brussels, Belgium
15Dept. of Physics, Chiba University, Chiba 263-8522, Japan
We report on the results of the search for extremely-high energy (EHE) neutrinos with energies above $10^7$ GeV obtained with the partially (~30%) constructed IceCube in 2007. From the absence of signal events in the sample of 242.1 days of effective livetime, we derive a 90% C.L. model independent differential upper limit based on the number of signal events per energy decade at $E^2 \sigma_{\nu_e+\nu_e+\nu_e} \sim 1.4 \times 10^{-6}$ GeV cm$^{-2}$ sec$^{-1}$ sr$^{-1}$ for neutrinos in the energy range from $3 \times 10^7$ to $3 \times 10^9$ GeV.

PACS numbers: 98.70.Sa, 95.85.Ry

I. INTRODUCTION

Detection of extremely-high energy (EHE) neutrinos with energies greater than $10^7$ GeV may shed light on the long standing puzzle of the origin of EHE cosmic rays. Several observational results have indicated that these EHE cosmic rays (EHECRs) are of extragalactic origin. Further elucidation of their production mechanism by EHECR observation is, however, limited because the collisions of EHECR with the cosmic microwave background photons, known as the Greisen-Zatsepin-Kuzmin (GZK) mechanism, prevent EHE-CR from propagating over cosmological distances without losing a sizable fraction of their energy. On the other hand, cosmogenic neutrinos produced by the GZK mechanism via photo-produced $\pi$ meson decay as $\pi^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ \nu_\mu \rightarrow e^+ \nu_e \nu_\mu$ carry information on the EHECR source evolution and the maximum energy of EHECRs at their production sites.

Detection of these EHE neutrinos is an experimental challenge because the very low EHE neutrino fluxes require a very large detector. The large size of the IceCube neutrino observatory, currently under construction at the geographic South Pole, will make it more effective than previous experiments in the search for these neutrinos. Interactions of $\nu_\mu$, $\nu_e$, and $\bar{\nu}_\tau$ and their antiparticles are observed through the Cherenkov radiation emitted by secondary particles. In the following, we do not distinguish between $\nu$ and $\bar{\nu}$; the simulations and sensitivity calculations assume an equal mixture of particles and antiparticles.

In this paper we will describe the first results of a search for signatures of cosmogenic neutrinos in the 2007 data acquired by the partially constructed IceCube neutrino observatory. This analysis selects events which pro-
duce a large amount of light in the detector. Based on simple criteria, such as the total number of observed Cherenkov photons and the results of reconstruction algorithms, it selects candidate neutrino events. Although $\nu_\mu$, $\nu_e$, and $\nu_\tau$ interactions look very different in IceCube, the selection criteria are sensitive to all three flavors.

II. THE ICECUBE DETECTOR

IceCube is a cubic-kilometer, high-energy cosmic neutrino telescope which is currently under construction. It uses the 2800 m thick glacial ice as a Cherenkov medium. Cherenkov photons emitted by relativistic charged particles, notably muons, electrons, and taus produced in charged current interactions and their secondaries, are detected by an array of photon sensors, known as Digital Optical Modules (DOMs) [10]. The DOMs deep below the ice surface are deployed along electrical cable bundles that carry power and communication between the DOMs and surface electronics. The cable assemblies, often called strings, are lowered into holes drilled to a depth of 2450 m. The DOMs, spaced at intervals of 17 m, occupy the bottom 1000 meters of each string. The strings are arranged in a hexagonal lattice pattern with a spacing of approximately 125 m. DOMs are also frozen into tanks located at the surface near the top of each hole. The tanks constitute an air shower array called IceTop [11].

The DOMs enclose a down-looking 25 cm photomultiplier tube (PMT) [12] with data acquisition and calibration electronics, light emitting diodes for calibration, and also data compression, communications, and control hardware [10] in a 35 cm diameter pressure sphere. Almost all of the PMTs are run at a gain of $10^7$; PMT saturation effects become important at signal levels of about 5000 photoelectrons in a single DOM in 50 ns. When the DOM detects a photoelectron, it initiates an acquisition cycle, recording the PMT output with two waveform digitizer systems. The first system samples every 3.3 ns for 400 ns, with 14 bits of dynamic range. The second system samples every 25 ns for 6.4 $\mu$s, with 10 bits of dynamic range. The data acquisition system is designed such that the first system is sensitive to a bright photon source at close distance and the second system captures signal induced by photons emitted at large distance. This analysis uses the total number of photoelectrons detected by the PMTs as a measure of the event energy. For each DOM, the charge used is the one from whichever system recorded a larger number of photoelectrons. Because of the significant DOM-to-DOM differences in saturation behavior, the current analysis does not attempt to correct for PMT saturation. So, the signals from brightly illuminated DOMs are naturally truncated.

III. DATA AND SIMULATION

This analysis uses data collected from May 2007 through April 2008, when IceCube consisted of 22 in-ice strings (IC-22; 1320 DOMs) and 52 IceTop tanks. In order to greatly reduce random noise from radioactivity, in IC22 the DOMs only recorded signal waveforms when a local coincidence (LC) condition was satisfied, i.e. when an adjoining or next-to-nearest neighbor DOM was triggered within $\pm 1$ $\mu$s. In 2007, the trigger selected time periods when 8 or more DOMs recorded LC signals within 5 $\mu$s; when this happened, all hits within a 20$\mu$s window were stored as an event. The average trigger rate was about 550 Hz. The high-multiplicity event sample used in this analysis imposes an additional condition requiring NDOM $\geq 80$, where NDOM is the number of hit DOMs in an event. The average high-multiplicity event rate was approximately 1.5 Hz with a seasonal variation of 17%. A total of $3.2 \times 10^7$ events were tagged as high-multiplicity during the effective livetime of 242.1 days (excluding the periods of unstable operation).

The high multiplicity cut reduces the data by a factor of $\sim 3 \times 10^{-3}$ while preserving approximately 70% of the GZK neutrinos with projected trajectories that pass within 880 m of the center of IceCube. Here, and below, the GZK signal rates are based on the GZK spectra and flux calculated by Ref. [6] assuming an all-proton composition with a moderately strong source evolution, $(z+1)^m$ with $m = 4$ extending to $z = 4.0$. Neutrino oscillations modify the neutrino flavor ratio over the cosmological distances they travel and the fluxes at the Earth were calculated as in Ref. [13]. Note that the flavor ratio $\nu_e : \nu_\mu : \nu_\tau$ of cosmogenic neutrinos at the Earth is different from 1:1:1 as primary energy spectra of $\nu_e$ and $\nu_\mu$ produced by the GZK mechanism are different because of a significant contribution of $\nu_e$ from neutron decay. This enhancement was included in the GZK neutrino flux calculations used here.

EHE neutrinos were simulated with the JULiet package [8] to generate and propagate the neutrinos through the Earth. All three flavors of neutrinos were simulated with energies between $10^6$ and $10^{13}$ GeV. The resulting secondary muons and taus produced in the neutrino interactions are propagated through the rock and ice near the IceCube volume, also by JULiet. Hadronic and electromagnetic showers are also simulated; all of these showers are treated as point sources, without accounting for the LPM effect. The background muon bundles from cosmic-rays in the energy range $10^6$ GeV to $10^{10}$ GeV were generated using CORSIKA [14] version 6.720 with the SIBYLL 2.1 hadronic interaction model or with QGSJET II, without charm production [15]. The uncertain prompt muon component from charm decay may contribute to the background events [10]. The muons were propagated through the Earth using MMC [17]. Departures of observed data distributions from those of the CORSIKA based background events prompted us to also develop a phenomenological background model based on
fits to data. Emission of Cherenkov photons and their propagation in the ice was simulated by the Photonics package. Measurement of the absolute number of Cherenkov photons is important in the EHE neutrino search as it closely relates to the energy of the high energy muons, taus or electrons produced by EHE neutrinos. Therefore the detection efficiency of the DOMs must be understood with good precision. The primary element, the PMT, is calibrated in the laboratory using a nitrogen laser to measure the photon detection efficiency. This bare PMT data are used in a simulation package which propagates photons inside the glass sphere and the optical gel to the photo-cathode surface. The DOM simulation is followed by waveform calibration and the trigger condition is included in the simulation chain.

**IV. ANALYSIS**

A. Extremely high energy event signatures and the initial event filter

The event signatures from \( \nu_\mu, \nu_e, \) and \( \nu_\tau \) are very different. IceCube mainly detects cosmogenic neutrinos by the signals from the secondary muons and taus generated in the neutrino interaction in the rock or ice. At high energies, these particles are seen in the detector as series of energetic cascades from radiative energy loss processes such as pair creation, bremsstrahlung, and photonuclear interactions, rather than minimum-ionizing tracks. The radiative energy losses are approximately proportional to the energy of the muon or the tau, and so is the Cherenkov light yield. Electron neutrinos produce electromagnetic and hadronic showers, which are relatively compact sources of Cherenkov light. Muon and tau neutrinos within IceCube will also produce a hadronic shower from the struck nucleon, in addition to the muon or tau secondary.

Shown in Fig. 1 is the simulated distribution of the total number of photo-electrons per event (NPE) recorded by the the IC-22 detector as a function of the simulated true energy. A clear correlation between NPE and incoming neutrino energy also holds for these events. Electron neutrinos are detectable via this channel. The visible departure from linearity for large NPE is labeled “in-ice energy” and used throughout this paper. The entry point from linearity for large NPE stems from the saturation of the detector during signal capture. Approximately 30% of EHE signal events are due to neutrino interactions inside the IceCube detector volume initiating a hadronic or electromagnetic cascade. The correlation between NPE and incoming neutrino energy also holds for these events. Electron neutrinos are detectable via this channel.

Because the energy spectrum of background atmospheric muons (both single muons and bundles) falls steeply with energy, the GZK neutrino flux should dominate over background in the high NPE region. Since the through-going muons and taus induced by EHE neutrinos enter into the IceCube volume mainly horizontally, the signal search criteria are chosen to favor roughly horizontal high NPE events.

The high-multiplicity NDOM \( \geq 80 \) sample is dominated by atmospheric background muons. The next step of the analysis selects events with NPE \( \geq 10^4 \). This reduces the background by three orders of magnitude, leaving 6528 events, still dominated by background, while the GZK signal reduction is \( \sim 24\% \).

Table 1 summarizes the number of events remaining at each level of the initial filtering. In order to estimate the background in the very high energy region, the simulated data are compared to the experimental data in the region \( 10^4 < \text{NPE} < 10^5 \). The present analysis follows the blind analysis technique. In keeping with the IceCube blindness policy, events with NPE \( \geq 10^5 \) were not used for determining the background or setting cuts. This NPE threshold was chosen so that the possible contribution from signal events in the studied sample was negligible.

B. High-energy muon background

FIG. 1: Event distribution from Monte Carlo simulations of single muons with the IC-22 detector configurations in a plane of NPE and simulated true energy. The muon energy is given when the muon is 880 meters from the IceCube center (in-ice energy). The 80 DOM multiplicity cut (level 1 cut) is applied. The charged lepton energy distribution is assumed to follow \( E^{-1} \) in this plot for illustrative purposes. Only particles with trajectories intersecting within 880 m from the center of IceCube array are considered in the plots. More distant events do not contribute to the data sample.

Bundles of muons generated in cosmic-ray air showers are the major background for the EHE neutrino signal search, because multiple muon tracks with a small geometrical separation resemble a single high energy muon in the IceCube detector. The multiplicity, energy distribution, and separation distances for these muon bundles are not fully understood. Two independent Monte Carlo
TABLE I: Number of events at different filter levels for 242.1 days in 2007. The simulation predictions for the atmospheric muon background using the CORSIKA-SIBYLL package, the empirical model, and that for the GZK cosmogenic neutrino model are also listed for comparison. Errors shown here are statistical only. Refer to Sec. IV A for the definitions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Filter levels</th>
<th>observational data</th>
<th>empirical model</th>
<th>CORSIKA (iron)</th>
<th>CORSIKA (proton)</th>
<th>signal (GZK1 [6])</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>level 1 (NDOM ≥ 80)</td>
<td>3.195 × 10⁷</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>(1.84 ± 0.08) × 10⁷</td>
<td>(7.71 ± 0.45) × 10⁶</td>
<td>(886 ± 8.9) × 10⁻³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level 2 (NPE &gt; 10⁴)</td>
<td>6528</td>
<td>(6.82 ± 0.42) × 10³</td>
<td>(1.09 ± 0.09) × 10⁴</td>
<td>(1.63 ± 0.17) × 10⁴</td>
<td>(670 ± 7.5) × 10⁻³</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 2: Event distributions for NPE, cosine of reconstructed zenith angle, and the NPE-weighted mean depth of event (z_COG) for observational and the background MC simulation data. The black dots represent observational data after the NPE > 10⁴ cut, red for CORSIKA proton (SIBYLL), magenta for CORSIKA iron (SIBYLL). Green shaded regions represent distributions obtained with the empirical model with the size of shade expressing the uncertainty of the model. See text for the details.

The first is the full cosmic-ray air shower simulation with light and heavy ion primaries using the CORSIKA (SIBYLL) package [14]. Two extreme cases of composition are used to address the event rate variation due to the uncertainty in the primary cosmic-ray mass population. While the full air shower simulation includes a calculation of the production spectra of the multiple muons from meson decay, the simulation still introduces a large uncertainty because both the primary composition at relevant cosmic-ray energies (> 10⁷ GeV) and the hadronic interaction model are highly uncertain.

The second simulation uses a model relying on a phenomenological fit to part of the experimental high energy data. This empirical model approximates multiple muon tracks in an event by a single high energy muon which is adequate at very high energies for the variables used in this analysis. The single muon approximation predicts larger fluctuations in NPE due to radiative energy losses of energetic muons, giving a rather conservative estimate of the background passing rate. The two independent sets of simulations with top-down and bottom-up approaches to describe the observational data complement each other improving the reliability of the background estimation.

1. Background estimation with CORSIKA

Fig. 3 shows distributions for data and simulations at level-2 for NPE, the reconstructed zenith angle (θ), and the center-of-gravity depth of the events (z_COG). The CORSIKA NPE distribution is extrapolated to the higher NPE region. Extrapolation was necessary mainly because of a lack of simulated CORSIKA events at pri-
mary cosmic ray energies above $10^{10}$ GeV. The extrapolation accounts for the observed GZK cutoff at an energy around $5 \times 10^{19}$ eV. The NPE-weighted LineFit algorithm was used to reconstruct zenith angle in this initial study. The NPE-weighted LineFit is a simple minimization of $\chi^2 = \sum_i NPE_i (\vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_{COG} - t_i \vec{v})^2$, where $t_i$ and $NPE_i$ represent, respectively, the time of the first photoelectron and the number of photoelectrons recorded by the $i$th DOM at the position $\vec{r}_i$ and $\vec{r}_{COG} = (\sum_i NPE_i x_i, \sum_i NPE_i y_i, \sum_i NPE_i z_i)$ is the NPE-weighted position of the center-of-gravity of the hits. The fit ignores the geometry of the Cherenkov cone and the optical properties of the medium and assumes light traveling with a velocity $\vec{v}$ along a 1-dimensional path through the detector, passing through the center-of-gravity.

The measured event rates are close to the simulated rates based on CORSIKA/SIBYLL with iron primaries and above those based on CORSIKA/SIBYLL proton data in most regions. A significant discrepancy can be found in the rate of events with $\cos \theta \leq 0.3$, i.e. events reconstructed as horizontal or up-going, which is largely underestimated. Replacing SIBYLL with other hadronization models (e.g. QGSJET-II) does not change this behavior. The discrepancy may be due to a combination of uncertainties in the hadronic interaction models, cosmic-ray flux, and Cherenkov photon propagation in the glacial ice. Since the horizon is the key region for the EHE neutrino search, the background estimations were supplemented by an empirical model fit to a subsample of the data.

2. Construction of an empirical model

The empirical model is optimized to match the level-2 experimental data ($10^4 < \text{NPE} < 10^6$). The possible signal region (NPE $\geq 10^5$) is not used to avoid bias. The model provides a relation between the NPE of an event and the cosmic-ray primary energy. Its convolution with the cosmic ray flux then gives the event rate with a given cosmic-ray primary energy. Its convolution with the cosmic-ray flux, and Cherenkov photon propagation in the glacial ice. Since the horizon is the key region for the EHE neutrino search, the background estimations were supplemented by an empirical model fit to a subsample of the data.

\begin{equation}
E_T = 14.5 \text{ GeV}
\end{equation}

where $A$, $E_0$, and $\theta'$ are the mass number, the energy, and the zenith angle of the primary cosmic-ray [21]. The energy weighted integration of the formula relates the total energy carried by a muon bundle $E^B_\mu$ to the primary cosmic-ray energy $E_0$.

\begin{equation}
E^B_\mu = \int \frac{dN_\mu}{dE_\mu} E_\mu dE_\mu
\end{equation}

assuming $AE_\mu/E_0 \ll 1$. Here, $\epsilon$ is empirically determined by fit to the observed data. Assuming its corresponding energy at the IceCube depth, $E^{\text{in-ice}}$, is independent of zenith angle, $\epsilon$ (and thereby $E^B_\mu$) can be calculated as a function of zenith angle by taking into account the energy loss during propagation through the Earth. The optimization of the two parameters $\alpha$ and $E^{\text{in-ice}}$ is performed by comparing the observed data to simulation of a single high energy muon with energy of $E^B_\mu$ in the NPE and zenith angle space, independently. $A = 1$ is assumed in the optimization. The event distributions derived from the empirical model with optimized parameters ($\alpha = 1.97$ and $E^{\text{in-ice}} = 1500$ GeV) are given in Fig. 2. The green shaded region in the plot is obtained by allowing the model parameters to vary within $\pm 1 \sigma$ from their optimized values. The discrepancies of $z_{COG}$ at large depths for the empirical model and at small depths for CORSIKA/iron seem to be due to vertical, down-going events because a restriction of the zenith angle, $\cos \theta < 0.8$, improves the agreement in both cases. Since the majority of the EHE neutrino induced events is close to the horizon we can discard all events with $\cos \theta < 0.8$ without significant loss of signal efficiency (level-3 cut). The resulting distributions are shown in Fig. 3.

C. Search for EHE cosmogenic neutrino signal

The level-4 cut to eliminate the muon background is carried out in the NPE-cos $\theta$ (NZ) plane. In accordance with the requirements of blindness, the cuts are finalized on simulated events alone without referring to real data. Because the optical properties of the glacial ice vary significantly with depth [21], and because the changing absorption and scattering lengths affect what IceCube observes, the final cuts are chosen to be depth dependent. The cuts are chosen based on the depth of the weighted center of gravity of the event, $z_{COG}$. The distribution of events in the NZ plane depends on $z_{COG}$. We divide the events into two groups according to their $z_{COG}$ as follows:

region A: $-250 < z_{COG} < -50$ m and $z_{COG} > 50$ m
region B: $z_{COG} < -250$ m and $-50 < z_{COG} < 50$ m

As seen in Fig. 4, region B contains a large number of horizontal and up-going mis-reconstructed background events, whereas the fraction of such events in region A is very small. Fig. 4 also shows the distributions of the experimental data and the simulated GZK neutrino induced signal events. The latter clearly accumulate near the horizontal direction regardless of the $z_{COG}$ position and have on average larger NPE than the background sample. The selection criteria to separate signal from background are determined for region A and B separately: For each bin of $\cos \theta$ (width 0.1), a threshold
TABLE II: Number of events at analysis filter levels for 242.1 days in 2007. The simulation predictions for the atmospheric muon background using the CORSIKA-SIBYLL package, the empirical model, and that for the GZK cosmogenic neutrino model are also listed for comparison. Errors shown here are statistical only. See Sec. IV B and IV C for details.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analysis filter levels</th>
<th>Observational data</th>
<th>Empirical model</th>
<th>CORSIKA (iron)</th>
<th>CORSIKA (proton)</th>
<th>Signal (GZK1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>level 3 ($\cos(\theta) &lt; 0.8$)</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>$(2.65 \pm 0.21) \times 10^3$</td>
<td>$(2.68 \pm 0.19) \times 10^3$</td>
<td>$(1.16 \pm 0.40) \times 10^2$</td>
<td>$(620 \pm 7.3) \times 10^{-3}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level 4 (EHE $\nu$ search)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>$(6.32 \pm 1.37) \times 10^{-4}$</td>
<td>$(4.18 \pm 1.29) \times 10^{-4}$</td>
<td>$(1.44 \pm 0.58) \times 10^{-4}$</td>
<td>$(155 \pm 1.4) \times 10^{-3}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FIG. 4: Event number distributions passing the level-2 selection cut (NPE > $10^4$) of the experimental data (left), the background from the empirical model (middle left), the background from CORSIKA SIBYLL with iron primaries (middle right), and the signal (right) on the NZ plane at the IceCube depth. The upper (lower) panels show the distributions in the region A (B). The GZK neutrino flux [6] determines the event intensity in the signal MC plot, adding all three flavors of neutrinos. The series of thick lines in each panel indicates the level-3 ($\cos(\theta)$) and the final level-4 cuts.

TABLE III: Expected event numbers passing the final level-4 selection criteria in the 2007 IC-22 observation. Models include the GZK models [6, 22, 23] and the Z-burst model [29]. The predictions are normalized to a livetime of 242.1 days. Signal event numbers represent the sum over all three neutrino flavors. The first uncertainty is the statistical uncertainty determined by signal simulation statistics, and the second is the total systematic uncertainty from sources discussed in Sec. IV.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Models</th>
<th>Number of Events per 242.1 days</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GZK1</td>
<td>$(155 \pm 1.4) \times 10^{-3}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GZK2</td>
<td>$(248 \pm 2.3) \times 10^{-3}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GZK3</td>
<td>$(83 \pm 0.8) \times 10^{-3}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z-burst</td>
<td>$(398 \pm 3.4) \times 10^{-3}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NPE is set such that the number of background events above the threshold is less than $10^{-4}$. Tighter cuts to further reduce the background would also reduce the signal to an undesirable degree. The NPE thresholds in all the zenith angle bins are then connected to each other to form a series of lines on the NZ plane, defining the final level-4 cut, as drawn in Fig. 4. The cuts were optimized using the empirical model for background simulations, so we used extrapolated CORSIKA/iron data as a check of the final background level. Figure 4 also shows the distribution of background events in the NZ plane from the extrapolation. Table III summarizes the number of events remaining in the analysis after each of the cut levels.

The effective area as a function of energy at the Earth surface for each neutrino flavor is shown in the left panel of Fig. 4, averaged over all solid angles. The area increases with the energy owing to the increasing neutrino interaction cross sections and the increased probability of observing the interactions, which is different for each flavor.

At low energies, most of the $\nu_\tau$ signal comes from events where the $\nu_\tau$ interacts in the detector, or the $\tau$ decays in it. At higher energies, $\tau$ energy loss becomes large enough that through-going taus also pass the cuts. Contributions from $\nu_e$ and $\nu_\mu$ dominate over $\nu_\tau$ in the energy range above $\sim 10^8$ GeV, as the secondary produced muons and taus can travel long distances to reach the detection volume. This trend is reversed at lower energy where tau and muon energy losses are smaller, and $\nu_\tau$'s can deposit all of their energy into the detector vol-
The effective area for $\nu_\tau$ is larger than that for $\nu_\mu$ at low energies, because of the events where taus decay inside the detector. At the highest energies, because of the larger mass of taus and increase of the tau decay time with energy, the tau range is longer than that of muons, leading to a larger effective area.

The right panel in Fig. 5 shows the effective area as a function of the in-ice energy ("in-ice area"). It represents the probability of detection of incoming particles with the present analysis. The area for incident muons and taus gradually increases with energy but is limited essentially by the physical cross section of the IC-22 array, $\sim 0.5 \text{ km}^2$. Because the Cherenkov yield of taus is smaller than muons with the same energy due to the smaller radiative energy loss, the detection probability of incident taus is lower, leading to the smaller in-ice area. Incoming neutrinos must interact to yield Cherenkov light to be detected. Therefore the neutrino effective area becomes much smaller than that for muons or taus.

The expected number of signal events for various neutrino production models after the level-4 cut are summarized in TABLE IV. GZK1 [6] represents the case of a moderately strong source evolution, $(z + 1)^m$ with $m = 4$ extending to $z = 4.0$, while GZK2 [22] assumes $m = 5$ up to $z = 2.0$, and GZK3 [22] uses $m = 3$ with a slightly different parametrization and a cut-off structure.

V. THE SYSTEMATICS

This search is based on the event-wise NPE and reconstructed zenith angle. The main systematic uncertainties derive from 1) the necessity to extrapolate the empirical fit to data by approximately an order of magnitude in NPE to estimate the background rate at the highest energies and from 2) the uncertainty of the absolute NPE scale. Table IV lists the sources of statistical and systematics errors.

### TABLE IV: List of the statistical and systematic errors. The signal rate is estimated by assuming the high evolution flux $(m,Z_{\text{max}})=(4,4)$ in Ref [6].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Error source</th>
<th>background rate</th>
<th>signal (GZK) rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Statistical error</td>
<td>±22%</td>
<td>±0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detector sensitivity</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>±8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yearly variation</td>
<td>±17%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empirical model</td>
<td>+99/-50%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Background model dep.</td>
<td>±15 %</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPE yield</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+0/-21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutrino cross section</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>±9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photo-nuclear interaction</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPM effect</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>±1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>±22% (stat.)</td>
<td>±0.9% (stat.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+102/-63% (sys.)</td>
<td>+16/-26% (sys.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A. Uncertainties in the background rate estimation

The largest uncertainty in the background rate estimate arises from the fact that the parameters of the empirical model were optimized for the observed events with $10^4 < \text{NPE} < 10^5$ after level 2 selection. The limited statistics of this sample results in uncertainties on the parameters. The model was then extrapolated to a higher NPE range for the determination of the level-4 cut.

Allowing the parameters to vary within $\pm 1 \sigma$ changes the background rate by between $\sim 59\%$ (for the softest possible NPE spectrum after the level-4 cuts) and $\sim 99\%$ (for the hardest possible NPE spectrum). Uncertainties in the detector sensitivity are incorporated by the parametrization. The difference in the background level estimated with the extrapolated CORSIKA/iron and the empirical model can be taken to indicate the level of systematic uncertainty due to model dependence. This uncertainty is approximately ±15% and can be assumed to include the possible contribution from charm decay. An uncertainty associated with the high energy hadronic interaction model is evaluated using simulated muon bundle intensity from SIBYLL and QGSJET II with iron primaries and found to be ±4%, which is negligible. An additional uncertainty of ~17% arises from the seasonal variation of the atmospheric muon rate as the signal selection criteria are based upon the season-averaged data.
B. Uncertainties of the signal rate estimate

The uncertainty in the relationship between measured NPE and the energies of charged particles is the largest systematic error affecting the signal event rate. It is the consequence of our limited understanding of the detector sensitivity, the photon propagation in ice, and the detector response to bright signals. It is evaluated using absolutely calibrated in situ light sources and amounts to a possible overestimation of NPE in simulation by 18.5%, which leads to decrease of the GZK signal rate by ∼21%.

Uncertainties of the relevant particle interactions in the EHE regime also add systematics in the signal rate estimation. The expected event rate scales nearly linearly with the neutrino-nucleon inelastic cross section in the EHE range. This scaling has been confirmed by numerical studies, artificially increasing the cross section. The cross section uncertainty has been recently reduced to be around ±9% with the inclusion of the most recent data from HERA and modern parton distribution functions [24]. Another systematic error arises from the photoneutron cross section of EHE muons and taus. The present calculation used the model by Bugaev and Shlepin [25], rewritten in Ref. [26], that includes a relatively reliable soft nonperturbative component and a less certain hard perturbative part. Ignoring the hard component in the simulation gives the most conservative estimate of the uncertainty and leads to a 10% event rate increase. The suppression of bremsstrahlung and pair production due to the LPM effect [27], for the relevant electron energies of 10^9−10^10 GeV, increases the effective radiation length of the electromagnetic cascade to O(30 ∼ 100) m from ∼36 cm [28]. Because the value is still comparable to the IceCube DOM separation, and the contribution from ν_e constitutes ≤20% of the total event rate in this energy range, the LPM effect has a negligible impact on the event rate. This has been confirmed by a special simulation study on ν_e including the LPM cascade elongation.

VI. RESULTS

No events are observed in the final data sample taken in 2007 with a livetime of 242.1 days when applying the final level-4 selection criteria, which is consistent with the expected number of background events of 6.3 × 10^{-4}. We choose to present the resulting all flavor EHE neutrino upper limit in the quasi-differential form independent of the neutrino production model. Assuming full mixing of neutrino flavors, the experimental 90% confidence level upper limit is obtained by setting 2.44 events [31] for an upper bound of the number of events observed with bin width of a decade of energy with condition that energy dependence of neutrino flux multiplied by the effective area behaves as ∼ 1/E [31]. This limit is presented in Fig. 6 including the systematic errors. The plot indicates that the EHE neutrino search by the IceCube observatory is most sensitive to the neutrinos with energies on the Earth surface ranging between about 10^8 and 10^9 GeV. The absence of signal events in the sample of 242.1 days of effective livetime results in a 90% C.L. differential upper limit on the neutrino flux of E^2φ_{ν_e+ν_μ+ν_τ} z 1.4 × 10^{-6} GeV cm^{-2} sec^{-1} sr^{-1} on average for neutrinos with an energy of 3 × 10^7 ≤ E ≤ 3 × 10^9 GeV. Here φ_{ν_e+ν_μ+ν_τ} denotes the differential flux of the sum over all three neutrino flavors, i.e. number of neutrinos per unit energy, area, time and solid angle.

The quasi-differential limit in Fig. 6 takes into account the systematic uncertainties. The background rate stays negligible O(10^{-3}) even including the systematic uncertainty and the resultant upper limit is unchanged. The signal rate uncertainty is strongly dominated by the uncertainty of the NPE yield which influences the number of expected signal events as a function of the neutrino energy. The upper limit is calculated by reducing NPE by 18.5% in the signal simulation to account for this factor. All the other sources of systematic error only slightly change the signal passing rate; they are independent of energy. They are included in the analysis by uniformly scaling the effective area in the limit calculation.

The present limit is approximately a factor of 20-30 higher than the intensity range expected in the GZK cosmogenic neutrino production models [6, 22, 23], as one can see in Fig. 6. The current limit for 242.1 days of ob-
observation is comparable to the Auger \[10\] and HiRes \[35\] bounds by their multiple year operation.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

The present work has demonstrated that the IceCube neutrino observatory is capable of searching for signatures of EHE cosmogenic neutrinos with relatively straightforward event selection methods. The model independent differential upper limit obtained with 242.1 days of observation in 2007, with approximately one quarter of the completed detector is $E^2\phi_{\nu_\mu+\nu_\tau+\nu_e} \approx 1.4 \times 10^{-6}$ GeV cm$^{-2}$ sec$^{-1}$ sr$^{-1}$ for neutrinos with an energy of $3 \times 10^7 \leq E \leq 3 \times 10^9$ GeV. This is approximately a factor of 20 higher than the predicted GZK neutrino flux from relatively strongly evolved sources. In the future, data taken by IceCube with 40 to 86 strings operating should lead to a detection of cosmogenic neutrinos or a greatly improved limit.

Acknowledgments

We acknowledge the support from the following agencies: U.S. National Science Foundation-Office of Polar Programs, U.S. National Science Foundation-Physics Division, University of Wisconsin Alumni Research Foundation, U.S. Department of Energy, and National Energy Research Scientific Computing Center, the Louisiana Optical Network Initiative (LONI) grid computing resources; Swedish Research Council, Swedish Polar Research Secretariat, Swedish National Infrastructure for Computing (SNIC), and Knut and Alice Wallenberg Foundation, Sweden; German Ministry for Education and Research (BMBF), Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG), Research Department of Plasmas with Complex Interactions (Bochum), Germany; Fund for Scientific Research (FNRS-FWO), FWO Odysseus programme, Flanders Institute to encourage scientific and technological research in industry (IWT), Belgian Federal Science Policy Office (Belspo); University of Oxford, United Kingdom; Marsden Fund, New Zealand; Japan Society for Promotion of Science (JSPS); the Swiss National Science Foundation (SNF), Switzerland; A. Kappes and A. Groß acknowledge support by the EU Marie Curie OIF Program; J. P. Rodrigues acknowledges support by the Capes Foundation, Ministry of Education of Brazil. This analysis work has been particularly supported by the Japan-US Bilateral Joint Projects in the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science.