# Search for Short Transient Neutrino Emission with DeepCore-IceCube IceCube Authors Received \_\_\_\_\_\_\_; accepted \_\_\_\_\_\_\_

5 ABSTRACT

We present the results of a search for sources of brief transient neutrino emission using IceCube and DeepCore data acquired between May 15th 2012 and April 30th 2013. While the search methods employed in this analysis are similar to those used in previous IceCube point source searches, the data set being examined consists of a sample of predominantly sub-TeV muon neutrinos obtained through a novel event selection method. This search represents a first attempt by IceCube to identify astrophysical neutrino sources in this relatively unexplored energy range. The reconstructed direction and time of arrival of neutrino events is used to search for any significant self-correlation in the dataset. This search encompasses the Northern sky ranging in declination from -5° to 90°. Examination of the data revealed no significant source of transient neutrino emission. This result has been used to construct limits on generic soft-spectra transients as well as a specific model of neutrino emission from soft jets in core-collapse supernovae.

- Subject headings: neutrino astronomy, neutrinos, GRB, supernova, astroparticle
- physics

# 1. Introduction

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The nascent field of high-energy neutrino astronomy exhibits great potential in its 10 ability to answer several open questions in astrophysics due in large part to the ability of 11 the neutrino to probe the densest regions of astrophysical environments. Specifically, the 12 detection of transient astrophysical neutrino sources will help shed light on the acceleration mechanisms at work in some of the most energetic phenomena in the Universe such as gamma-ray bursts, supernovae, and active galactic nuclei. Previous attempts to detect such sources with the IceCube Neutrino Observatory (IceCube Collaboration et al. 2006) 16 are most sensitive to neutrino fluxes above 1 TeV with poor sensitivity below 100 GeV. 17 Searches for astrophysical sources at lower energies (1–100 GeV) have been performed 18 by Super-Kamiokande (Thrane et al. 2009), however the detector's 50 kton instrumented volume limits its ability to detect astrophysical neutrino fluxes. A newly developed 30–300 GeV muon neutrino sample collected by IceCube and its low energy extension DeepCore 21 (Abbasi et al. 2012) seeks to enhance IceCube's sensitivity in this under-explored energy 22 range. In this paper we will present the results of a search for transient neutrino emission in this GeV-scale neutrino sample.

The detection of astrophysical neutrino sources is a chief goal of the IceCube Neutrino
Observatory (IceCube Collaboration et al. 2006). Located at the geographic South Pole,
IceCube utilizes the clear glacial ice of the Antarctic ice cap as a detection medium for the
Cherenkov light produced by secondary products of neutrino interactions. The detector
consists of 5,160 Digital Optical Modules (DOMs) distributed among 86 cables to form
a km³ instrumented volume. These DOMs house photomultiplier tubes for the capture
of Cherenkov photons as well as digitizing electronics for initial processing of the PMT
data. A centrally located region of denser instrumentation featuring DOMs with more
sensitive PMTs comprises the DeepCore sub-array (Abbasi et al. 2012). This extension to

the IceCube array augments the detector's response to lower energy neutrino events.

Typical searches for astrophysical sources with IceCube make use of a sample primarily 35 comprised of an irreducible background of high-energy atmospheric muon neutrinos ( $E_{\nu} \gtrsim 1$ TeV) to look for both steady (Aartsen et al. 2014b) and transient sources (Aartsen et al. 2015). As of yet, these searches have not found any significant self-correlations within the 38 data sample nor correlations between the neutrino data and known astrophysical objects of 39 interest. So far, these analyses have largely eschewed low energy neutrino events collected by DeepCore for two reasons. First, the poorer angular resolution of these events renders them less suitable for pointing analyses. Second, the soft spectrum of the atmospheric neutrino flux results in higher rate of background atmospheric neutrino events. However, 43 these issues of increased background can be somewhat mitigated by searching solely for transient sources. Therefore, application of previously developed search techniques to a sample of low energy (30 GeV  $\leq E_{\nu} <$  300 GeV) muon neutrino events from DeepCore can enhance IceCube's sensitivity to short transient neutrino sources with softer spectra.

Because of the strong atmospheric neutrino background in this energy range, searches using a data set composed of these low energy events will only be sensitive to emission timescales on the order of one day or shorter. Active galactic nuclei (AGN) undergoing flaring events are one potential source for emission on this timescale. Protons may be accelerated in relativistic jets powered by accretion onto the AGN resulting in the production of pions (and subsequently neutrinos) in shocks due to proton-photon interactions and proton self-collisions (Becker & Biermann 2009). Brief periods of enhanced accretion would then result in a commensurate increase in the neutrino flux from the AGN which may be detectable through time-dependent search methods. Sub-photospheric neutrino emission from GRBs represents another possible source for this search. A model for photospheric gamma-ray emission in GRBs by Murase et al. (2013) suggests that a substantial flux of

100-GeV scale neutrinos may be produced during the initial stages of relativistic outflow in the GRB. Decoupling of protons and neutrons during the initial formation of the relativistic jet causes hadronuclear collisions which results in the production of pions and neutrinos via pion decay. The predicted energy for the neutrinos produced in these sub-photospheric collisions is on the order of 100 GeV, and therefore this GRB neutrino flux may only be visible to IceCube searches with the inclusion of sub-TeV neutrino events.

Perhaps the most promising potential source for this study is a special class of 65 core-collapse supernova referred to as a choked GRB. There is an observed correlation between long duration gamma-ray bursts (GRBs) and core-collapse supernovae (SNe) 67 ((Woosley & Bloom 2006), (Modjaz 2011)). The standard GRB model assumes that relativistic jets are generated during accretion of material onto the compact object formed during core-collapse (Rees & Meszaros 1992). Fermi-acceleration of charged particles occurs within internal shocks of these jets leading to gamma ray emission once the jets breach the surrounding stellar envelope. The observed fraction of SNe resulting in the occurrence of a GRB is quite low, however, it may be that a larger fraction of core-collapse SNe still manage to produce mildly relativistic jets. Due to insufficient energy, these jets fail to break through the stellar envelope and any gamma ray emission is effectively 'choked' off. If protons are accelerated in these jets, then neutrino production will occur in the 76 shocks of the jet irrespective of whether or not the jet successfully escapes. A model of this neutrino emission proposed by Razzaque et al. (2004) and extended upon by Ando & Beacom (2005) suggests that these neutrinos may be detectable by IceCube-DeepCore for nearby supernovae (Taboada 2010). 80

We present the results of a search for transient neutrino emission on a set of low-energy neutrino event data collected from May 15th, 2012 to April 30th, 2013. The data selection methods used to acquire this unique event sample will be detailed in Sec. 2. Analysis

methods and search techniques are discussed in Sec. 3. Finally, the results of the search are given in Sec. 4 in addition to how these results may be interpreted within the context of generic neutrino flares as well as choked GRBs under the RMW/AB model.

# 2. Event Selection

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The data acquisition process begins with the fulfillment of one of three trigger conditions that prompt readout of the detector data. Each of these triggers requires some number of DOMs to exhibit hard local coincidence within a defined time window. To satisfy the hard local coincidence (HLC) condition, two or more neighboring (or next-neighboring) DOMs on the same string must register photon hits within a  $\pm 1~\mu s$  window. The trigger for the lowest energy events requires three HLC DOM hits within a time window of 2.5  $\mu s$  among the DeepCore string DOMs (or in DOMs on IceCube strings neighboring DeepCore); it is often referred to as simple majority trigger 3 or SMT3. The two other triggers that serve as input for this event selection operate over the entire detector with one requiring eight HLC DOM hits in a 5  $\mu s$  window (SMT8) and the other requiring four HLC DOM hits within a cylinder of height of 75m and a radius of 175m in a 1  $\mu s$  window (Cylinder Trigger).

Events satisfying these trigger conditions are then given to the DeepCore data filter.

This filter seeks to eliminate cosmic ray muons by using the outer regions of the detector as
an active veto to tag down-going events originating outside the detector. Specifically, the
filter examines timing and position information of DOM hits inside the DeepCore fiducial
volume to create a center of gravity (CoG) or vertex. For each DOM hit in the veto region,
the speed of a hypothetical particle connecting that veto region hit to the CoG inside the
fiducial volume is calculated. Veto regions hits whose speed lies within a range consistent
with that of the speed of light are causally related and are therefore likely the product of

background cosmic ray muons. Events having more than one correlated veto region hit are removed by the filter. A more complete description of this filter can be found in Abbasi et al. (2012).

During the observation period of this search, the DeepCore filter consists of two 111 separate branches characterized by differing definitions of detection and veto volumes as 112 opposed to the single definition given in Abbasi et al. (2012). Another key difference of the 113 filter with respect to the definition provided in Abbasi et al. (2012) is that it now makes use of some isolated DOM hit information instead of only using HLC hits. Events satisfying 115 the SMT3 trigger feed the standard DeepCore filter branch whose fiducial and veto region 116 definitions are roughly equivalent to those described in Abbasi et al. (2012). The SMT8 and 117 Cylinder Trigger events, in addition to SMT3 events that fail the standard filter branch, feed into the other branch of the filter which makes use of a more relaxed veto region. 119 While the standard filter branch makes use of three surrounding layers of IceCube strings 120 as a veto, this relaxed branch only uses two layers of IceCube strings for vetoing so that a 121 larger detection volume may be used. The output of both branches of this filter are used 122 in this search with the standard three-layer veto focusing on low-energy events and the 123 two-layer veto branch retaining higher energy events. These branches are referred to as the 124 low-energy stream (LES) and high-energy stream (HES), and they have an exclusive event 125 rate of 17.25 Hz and 23.3 Hz respectively.

### 2.1. Veto Cuts and Event Reconstruction

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Events belonging to both the LES and HES are subjected to several cuts that make use of veto region hit information, event topology, and event reconstructions to reduce the volume of cosmic ray background events as well as eliminate events that are the result of PMT dark noise-induced triggering. The first of these cuts requires at least two DeepCore

DOM hits within a tight 250 ns window to remove SMT3 events that are the result of 132 spurious hits. An algorithm designed to search for track-like events is then used to eliminate 133 noise-induced events that show little evidence of correlation in DOM hits. Additionally, a 134 minimum on the number of DOMs registering light during the event (10) is imposed to 135 throw out events with too little information for proper reconstruction. The DeepCore filter 136 algorithm is also reapplied several times using looser DOM hit cleanings to allow more 137 isolated DOM hits in the veto region to contribute to the vertex calculations. Finally, the 138 number of DOM hits that occur prior to the first hit inside the DeepCore detection volume is used as a cut parameter to eliminate less obvious cosmic ray muons. 140

The event reconstruction process begins with the application of a simple linear fit 141 described in Aartsen et al. (2014a) to determine the position of a muon track that describes the observed DOM hit pattern. This linear reconstruction is then used as a seed for a 143 likelihood-based reconstruction which uses a single-photoelectron (SPE) hypothesis to 144 describe the probability of DOMs receiving light from the track at a given time due to 145 scattering in the ice (this algorithm is described in detail in Ahrens et al. (2004)). Six 146 iterations of the SPE likelihood reconstruction are performed to obtain a best-fit track for 147 the event. Any event whose reconstructed direction from either the linear or SPE likelihood 148 fit is more than 5° above the horizon is removed from the sample. We also require that the 149 angular separation between these two reconstructions is less than 30° for events in the HES 150 sample. 151

The occurrence of spurious DOM hits in the central detector prior to the arrival of cosmic ray muons allows many background events to elude detection through the standard veto technique. To isolate these events, a separate SPE likelihood reconstruction is performed without using any information from the first two DOM hits in the event. Just as before, events whose reconstructed direction lies more than 5° above the horizon are

removed. Events in the LES portion of the sample are disproportionately affected by noise
hits due to both the lower light yield of these events as well as the higher noise rate of
the sensitive DeepCore DOMs. Therefore an additional SPE likelihood reconstruction is
performed for LES events that attempts to mitigate noise contribution to the likelihood
by requiring isolated DOM hits to be more strongly correlated to hits satisfying the HLC
condition. Once again, if the best-fit direction from this additional reconstruction on LES
events is 5° above the horizon, the event is removed.

The final event reconstruction makes use of the previously mentioned six iteration 164 SPE likelihood fit as its seed. This reconstruction differs from the seed in two important 165 ways. First, it makes use of a multi-photoelectron (MPE) likelihood instead of the simpler 166 SPE algorithm used previously (see Ahrens et al. (2004) for more information on the MPE likelihood). Second, a parameterization of Monte Carlo simulation of photon transport is used in place of an analytic approximation to model the timing distribution for the arrival 169 of Cherenkov photons to the DOM PMTs (Whitehorn et al. 2013). This reconstruction 170 is identical to that used in a multi-year point source search with IceCube (Aartsen et al. 171 2014b) and the results of this fit are used for analysis of the final data. In order to estimated 172 the angular uncertainty of the reconstruction, the likelihood space about the reconstructed 173 direction is fit with a paraboloid via the method described in Neunhöffer (2006). The 174 angular uncertainty derived from the paraboloid method serves as event quality parameter, 175 and only events having an estimated angular error  $\sigma_i$  less than 45° are kept. 176

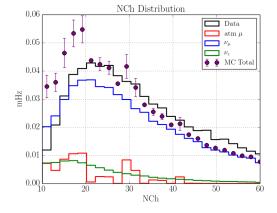
# 2.2. Boosted Decision Tree

After the application of the described veto and reconstruction cuts, the ability to separate muon background from potential neutrino signal events via simple cuts is drastically reduced. We therefore make use of a boosted decision tree (BDT) in order to

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isolate a final sample with acceptable neutrino purity, i.e. < 10% of events are the result of background cosmic ray muons. At this level of event selection, the large majority of experimental data still consists of background cosmic ray muons allowing the actual data to serve as a background training sample for the BDT. Simulated signal neutrino events belonging to the LES or HES branches exhibit significant differences in distribution of input BDT parameters necessitating the construction of two separate BDTs.

The event parameters used for the LES tree include the location of the reconstructed 187 event vertex, the number of 'direct' DOM hits featuring a photon travel time residual 188 between -25 and 150 ns with respect to the reconstructed muon track, the reduced 189 log-likelihood of the MPE reconstruction, the average distance between DOM hits and 190 the reconstructed track weighted by DOM photo-multiplier tube (PMT) charge, and the 191 highest clustering of veto region PMT charge found by brute force reconstruction methods. 192 The HES BDT makes use of the direct hits parameter, reduced log-likelihood of the MPE 193 reconstruction, average charge-weighted DOM distance to track, and also the best fit track 194 length using information from direct DOM hits. A simulated signal neutrino event sample weighted to a  $\mathrm{E}^{-2.5}$  (LES) or  $\mathrm{E}^{-2}$  (HES) spectrum is used for signal training.



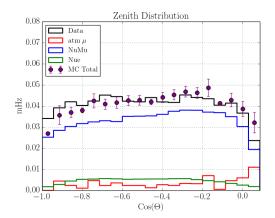
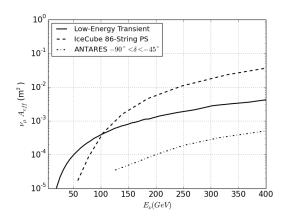


Fig. 1.— Final event rate distributions for the number of DOMs registering hits during the event (left) and the cosine of the reconstructed event zenith in detector coordinates (right).

Events are then fed to the trained BDT which assigns the event a score which indicates 196 the degree to which the event resembles signal or background. A cut on event BDT score 197 is then imposed where the value of the BDT cut is chosen to obtain a neutrino purity of 198 approximately 90%. The final event sample after the application of the BDT cuts consists 199 of 22,040 events over a livetime of  $\sim$ 330 days corresponding to a data rate of about 0.77 200 mHz. As Figure 1 indicates, the final sample is mostly composed of atmospheric neutrinos 201 with an estimated cosmic ray muon contamination of approximately 0.08 mHz. There is 202 some disagreement between the predictions from simulation and the actual data (primarily 203 the rate of events featuring a low number of DOM hits), and much of this discrepancy 204 stems from limited statistics for cosmic ray muon simulation. This is not greatly concerning 205 however, as we are able to measure the background directly from the final data set itself. 206

The neutrino effective area for this event selection is shown in Figure 2. While standard 207 IceCube analyses clearly have superior sensitivity at higher energies, this event selection 208 does show increased acceptance for events below about 100 GeV in primary neutrino energy. The angular resolution for events at the analysis level is plotted as a function of energy in 210 Figure 2 as well. Lower neutrino energies result in muon tracks that are both shorter and 211 dimmer which leads to difficulty in resolving the direction of the neutrino primary. The 212 kinematic angle between the neutrino primary and muon secondary also contributes to angular error. The median kinematic muon-neutrino angle after event selection ranges from 214  $\sim$ 3° at 50 GeV to  $\sim$ 1° at 300 GeV. As the figure shows, the efficacy of the reconstruction 215 method used in this analysis begins to deteriorate rapidly below 30 GeV due to insufficient 216 information (i.e. lack of DOM hits). Although the pointing ability of these low-energy 217 neutrino events is limited, they are still able to contribute to the search through temporal 218 correlation with other events in the sample. 219



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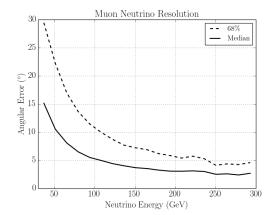


Fig. 2.— The muon neutrino effective area as a function of neutrino energy is plotted above (left) for the presented search. The effective areas for both the 4 year IceCube point source search (Aartsen et al. 2014b) and the 4 year ANTARES point source search (Adrián-Martínez et al. 2012) are plotted as well for comparison. Angular resolution as a function of energy after event selection is shown in the right plot.

# 3. Analysis Method

The search methods employed in the analysis of this data are nearly identical to those used in previous time-dependent IceCube analyses (see Braun et al. (2008) and Aartsen et al. (2015)). The arrival times and directions of events within the dataset are fed to a likelihood function which is then used to perform a likelihood ratio test to compare a signal plus background hypothesis for the data to the background only hypothesis.

Construction of this likelihood function begins with the assignment of individual event probabilities that reflect the likelihood of seeing an event i with arrival time  $t_i$ , reconstructed direction  $\mathbf{x}_i$ , and angular uncertainty  $\sigma_i$  given a hypothetical source located at  $\mathbf{x}_s$  with strength  $n_s$  having a Gaussian time profile with mean time  $t_0$  and width  $\sigma_w$ .

$$\mathcal{P}_i(\mathbf{x}_i, t_i, \sigma_i | \mathbf{x}_s, n_s, t_0, \sigma_w) = \frac{n_s}{n_{\text{tot}}} \mathcal{S}_i + \left(1 - \frac{n_s}{n_{\text{tot}}}\right) \mathcal{B}_i$$
 (1)

The  $\mathcal{S}_i$  and  $\mathcal{B}_i$  terms listed in Eq. 1 are the signal and background probability density

functions (p.d.f.) respectively. The p.d.f.s used in this search differ slightly from those in previously reported searches in that they use no reconstructed energy information. The signal p.d.f. is given by

$$S_i(|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_s|, t_i, t_o, \sigma_w, \sigma_i) = S_i(|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_s|, \sigma_i) \cdot T_i(t_i, t_o, \sigma_w)$$
(2)

234 where

$$S_i(|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_s|, \sigma_i) = \frac{\kappa}{4\pi \sinh \kappa} \exp(\kappa \cos|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_s|)$$
(3)

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$$T_i(t_i, t_o, \sigma_w) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_w} \exp\left(-\frac{(t_i - t_o)^2}{2\sigma_w^2}\right)$$
(4)

The spatial component of the signal p.d.f.,  $S_i$ , is the Kent-Fisher distribution (Kent 1982), and it represents a slight deviation in the signal p.d.f. definition with respect to previous searches (see Aartsen et al. (2014b)). This function is analogous to a 2-dimensional Gaussian distribution, but it is normalized to the 2-sphere rather than an infinite plane. The concentration parameter  $\kappa$  is determined by the event angular uncertainty and is defined as  $\kappa = \sigma_i^{-2}$ . The temporal component of the signal p.d.f.,  $T_i$ , is simply a Gaussian with mean emission time of  $t_o$  and a width of  $\sigma_w$ .

The background p.d.f.,  $\mathcal{B}_i$ , is derived from the final level data set which is dominated by background. It has the following form

$$\mathcal{B}_{i}(\mathbf{x}_{i}, t_{i}) = P_{BkgDec}(\delta_{i}) \frac{P_{BkgAz}(\alpha_{i})}{T}$$
(5)

where T is the total livetime of the search,  $P_{BkgDec}(\delta_i)$  is a p.d.f. describing the event declination distribution, and  $P_{BkgAz}(\alpha_i)$  is a p.d.f. describing the event distribution in detector azimuth. These p.d.f.s are generated directly from data and do not depend on any background simulation.

The likelihood function itself is simply the product sum of all individual event probabilities:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}_s, n_s, t_0, \sigma_w) = \prod \mathcal{P}_i(|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_s|, n_s, t_i, t_0, \sigma_w, \sigma_i)$$
(6)

The ratio between the likelihood function values under the background only hypothesis  $(n_s = 0)$  and the signal plus background hypothesis is maximized through variation of the source parameters  $n_s$ ,  $\sigma_w$ , and  $t_0$ . The test statistic  $\hat{\lambda}$  is then defined as the maximum value of the likelihood ratio:

$$\hat{\lambda} = -2\log\left[\frac{\sqrt{2\pi}\hat{\sigma}_w}{T}\frac{\mathcal{L}(n_s = 0)}{\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}_s, \hat{n}_s, \hat{t}_o, \hat{\sigma}_w)}\right]$$
(7)

with  $\mathcal{L}(n_s = 0)$  corresponding to the likelihood of the null hypothesis and  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}_s, n_s, \hat{t}_o, \hat{\sigma}_w)$ 255 the likelihood of the signal plus background hypothesis with the best-fit values of the 256 source parameters. Because this is a search for sources of finite duration over a timescale of 257 limited duration, the number of potential short duration flares within the data set exceeds 258 that of flares of longer duration leading to an effective trials factor. This results in a bias 259 towards flares of shorter duration. We counteract this effect through the introduction of a 260 marginalization term  $T/\sqrt{2\pi}\hat{\sigma_w}$  in test statistic formulation which serves to penalize flares 261 of shorter duration. This term also ensures that the test statistic will asymptotically follow 262 a  $\chi^2$  distribution with degrees of freedom corresponding to the number of fitted parameters 263 for data consisting solely of background events. More details about this term and its 264 justification can be found in Braun et al. (2010). 265

The  $\chi^2$  behavior of the test statistic enables the value of the maximized test statistic  $\hat{\lambda}$  to be used to estimate the pre-trials p-value of the best-fit flare through the invocation of Wilks's theorem (Wilks 1938). Because this search attempts to look many times over the whole Northern sky, the actual significance of a given flare will need to be adjusted to account for the effective number of trials accrued during the sky scan. We use the procedure detailed in Aartsen et al. (2015) that involves scrambling the event arrival times in the final

dataset which also serves to scramble event right ascension. The search is performed on the randomized background data set and the p-value of the most significant flare in the search is recorded. Many iterations are performed to build a distribution of p-values which can then be compared to the p-value of the result from the real data. The fraction of background trials that result in a p-value of equal or greater significance than the observed p-value dictates the probability that the observed result is simply the consequence of a random background fluctuation. This probability is referred to as the post-trials p-value and it represents the true significance of the search result with proper trials factor correction.

In order to preserve generality, the presented search makes no use of information 280 outside of the data set to designate source regions or time periods of interest. Instead, 281 each point in the sky over a declination band ranging from -5° to 90° is examined. This 282 is accomplished by discretizing the sky into separate bins and letting the location of these 283 bins serve as the location of a hypothetical flaring source. Maximization of the likelihood is 284 then performed to obtain a test statistic  $\hat{\lambda}$  for each bin. The first iteration of this scan uses 285 a relatively coarse 2° by 2° binning. Following completion of this first scan, a followup scan 286 with finer 0.5° by 0.5° binning is performed over coarse bins featuring a pre-trials p-value 287 more significant than a predefined threshold  $(-\log_{10}(\text{p-value}) > 1.75)$ . The result is a map 288 of pre-trials p-values which shows the estimated significance of the best-fit flare hypothesis 289 at each bin. The best-fit flare from the bin featuring the most significant maximized test 290 statistic after both scans is returned as the hottest spot in the search. 291

# 4. Results and Interpretations

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Applying the described analysis method to the unscrambled dataset yields the skymap of the pre-trials p-values shown in Figure 3. The most significant flare is located at (RA, Dec.) =  $(268.75^{\circ}, 54.25^{\circ})$  with a signal strength  $n_s$  of 13.53 signal events and a width  $\sigma_w$  of

5.89 days with the peak occurring on MJD 56107 (2012 June 29). The pre-trials p-value for this flare is estimated at 6.68×10<sup>-5</sup>. The post-trials probability of seeing such a flare in a data set consisting of background only is 56% indicating that this flare is entirely consistent with the background hypothesis of the data. Given this null result, we can set an upper

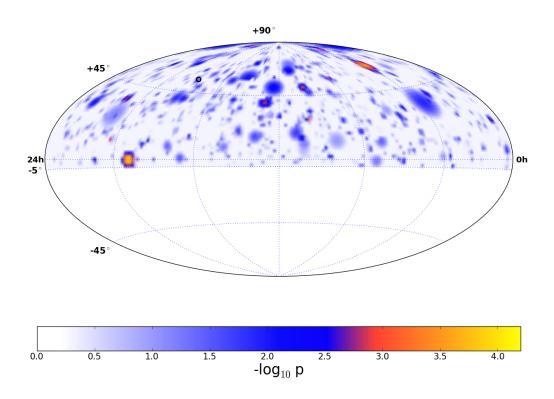


Fig. 3.— Sky map of pre-trials p-values for best fit flares per bin. The black circle identifies the location of the most significant flare found at  $RA = 268.75^{\circ}$  and Declination =  $54.25^{\circ}$ .

limit on the neutrino flux of any possible unobserved neutrino flare that may have occurred during the search period.

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### 4.1. Generic Source Limit

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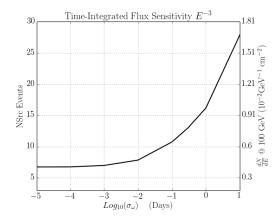
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Due to the focus on low-energy events in this search, we choose to examine the limit 303 with respect to a soft-spectrum  $E^{-3}$  generic flaring neutrino source with a Gaussian emission 304 profile. An an upper limit is established through signal injections at a specified location. 305 First, the background p-value distribution at the chosen location is constructed from several 306 time scramblings of the data. Signal events are then injected with some Poisson mean 307 value that is increased until the recovered p-values from the injections exceed the median background p-value 90% of the time. This Poisson mean number of signal events is then 309 taken as an event upper limit for the analysis method. 310

The upper limit on a generic flaring source for several emission timescales and choices 311 of declination is plotted in Figure 4. The limit rises at longer timescales as the rate of 312 accidental background correlations becomes non-negligible. A limit on the time-integrated 313 flux (GeV<sup>-1</sup>· cm<sup>-2</sup>) is plotted as well. This limit is obtained by folding the source spectrum 314 with the effective area of the event selection and normalizing the flux so that the number of events produced in the detector corresponds to the calculated Poisson mean event upper limit. 317

### 4.2. Choked GRB Limits

This null result can also be used to construct limits on specific neutrino emission 319 models such as the model for choked GRB emission by Razzaque et al. (2004) and Ando 320 & Beacom (2005) mentioned previously (this will hereafter be referred to as RMW/AB). 321 Unlike the hard spectra sources (e.g., E<sup>-2</sup>) that are the typical target in IceCube searches, the neutrino flux for choked GRBs is predicted to be much softer. The spectral shape can 323 be modeled via a doubly broken power law with spectral breaks occurring as hadronic 324



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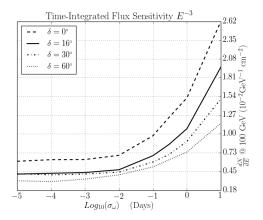


Fig. 4.— Upper limit (90% C.L.) for a generic  $E^{-3}$  transient source as a function of flare width  $\sigma_w$ . The limit is given in mean number of events (left axis) as well as in time-integrated flux at a reference energy of 100 GeV (right axis).

 $(E_{\nu^{(1)}})$  and radiative  $(E_{\nu^{(2)}})$  cooling mechanisms become efficient respectively (see Eq. 8).

$$\frac{d\Phi_{\nu}}{dE} = F_{\nu} \begin{cases}
E^{-2} & E > E_{\nu}^{(1)} \\
E_{\nu}^{(1)} E^{-3} & E_{\nu}^{(1)} < E < E_{\nu}^{(2)} \\
E_{\nu}^{(1)} E_{\nu}^{(2)} E^{-4} & E_{\nu}^{(2)} < E < E_{max}
\end{cases} \tag{8}$$

$$F_{\nu} = \frac{\langle n \rangle_{\pi(K)} B_{\pi(K)}}{8} \cdot \frac{E_{j} \Gamma_{b}^{2}}{2\pi D^{2} \ln(E'_{p,max}/E'_{p,min})}$$
(9)

The fluence  $F_{\nu}$  at Earth is given by Eq. 9 and depends upon the pion (kaon) multiplicity < n >, neutrino production branching ratio for pions (kaons)  $B_{\pi(K)}$ , minimum and maximum proton energies  $(E'_{p,min}, E'_{p,max})$ , kinetic energy of the jet  $E_j$ , bulk Lorentz factor  $\Gamma_b$ , and lastly the distance to the source D. Equations 8 and 9 reveal that the normalization and spectral shape of the neutrino flux at Earth are highly dependent on the kinetic energy of the jet  $E_j$  and the bulk lorentz factor  $\Gamma_b$ . We therefore choose to examine the predicted neutrino fluence in  $E_j$ - $\Gamma_b$  phase space.

To ascertain which values of these parameters produce a fluence detectable through our search method, an event upper limit is first determined via the injection of signal events following a spectrum set by the value of  $E_j$  and  $\Gamma_b$  (the same process used to generate an event upper limit for the generic  $E^{-3}$  scenario). This event upper limit then is then combined with the effective area of the event selection to determine the neutrino fluence necessary for detection. For a given choice of  $E_j$  and  $\Gamma_b$  this sets a limit on the distance at which the source would still be visible to the search; we define this distance  $D_{vis}$  as the visibility distance.

When combined with the area of sky examined by the search  $\Omega_A$ , this visibility 342 distance in turn defines a parameter dependent volume  $V_A$  over which the search method 343 monitors where  $V_A = \frac{1}{3}\Omega_A D_{vis}^3$ . The monitored volume  $V_A$  corresponds to the volume in 344 which a choked GRB event would have been detected by the search method with 90% 345 confidence (assuming jet alignment). If the observation period of the search is considered, this monitored volume can be converted into a limit on the volumetric rate of choked GRB events as a function of  $E_j$  and  $\Gamma_b$ . This requires two assumptions to be made however: 1) 348 The jets of any choked GRB event in this volume are aligned with Earth and 2) The nearby 349 universe is homogeneous with respect to CC SNe production. The rate limit is then given 350 by 351

$$R = \left(\frac{U.L.(0|\mu)}{\tau \cdot V_A}\right) \tag{10}$$

where  $\tau$  is the livetime of the search,  $V_A$  is the monitored volume previously defined, and  $U.L.(0|\mu)$  is the null observation upper limit on the number of choked GRBs that occurred in our monitored volume with background expectation of  $\mu$ . Many iterations of the search performed with only background data determined the probability of a background false positive rate to be very small ( $\leq 10^{-3}$ ). We therefore take  $\mu \approx 0$  leading to a Neyman upper limit of 2.3 from the null observation.

The volumetric rate limit for a range of values of jet kinetic energy and bulk Lorentz factor is plotted in Figure 5. In addition to the calculated volumetric rate limits, two

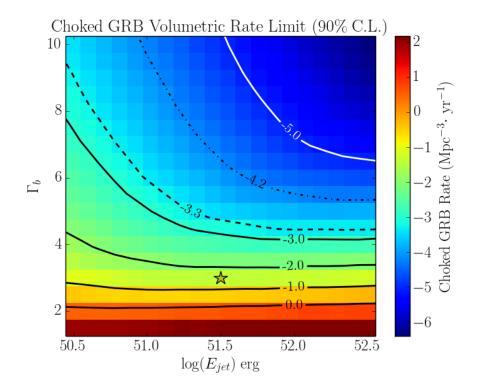


Fig. 5.— Histogram of the rate limit on choked GRBs in the nearby universe. The bin for canonical values of the RMW/AB emission model is marked by the star. The dashed line contour gives the rate of core-collapse supernovae within 10 Mpc as measured by Kistler et al. (2011). The dot-dashed line is the volumetric rate extracted from a large survey of SNe in the local universe (Leaman et al. 2011)

separate measurements of the nearby CC SNe are also plotted to provide context to the limits. Choked GRB events harboring particularly energetic jet parameters should be visible to the search method. If one compares the limits for the canonical model parameter values ( $\Gamma_b = 3$ ,  $E_j = 10^{51.5}$  erg) to the CC SNe rates, it is clear that the search method is not very sensitive to large regions of the model parameter space in its current state. The capabilities of future iterations of this type of search should be considerably improved as both the event selection and analysis methods are refined.

5. Conclusions

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The search described in this paper examined a newly developed data set consisting 368 of 30-300 GeV muon neutrinos. No evidence for transient astrophysical neutrino sources 369 was found in the data leading to the construction of upper limits on the neutrino fluence 370 of potential sources within the observation period. In particular, we examine the derived 371 limit in the context of neutrino emission from choked GRBs. Although this search in its 372 current configuration is only sensitive to particularly energetic or nearby choked GRBs, the 373 sensitivity of this method will only improve as the event selection and search techniques 374 are further optimized for muon neutrino events at sub-TeV energies. Most importantly, 375 continued development of this event selection will serve as a great complement to current 376 mature IceCube analyses at higher energies leading to an overall enhancement of the detector's sensitivity to transient sources. 378

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