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# PHY418 PARTICLE ASTROPHYSICS

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Cosmic Rays

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## COSMIC RAYS

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Discovery

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## Discovery of cosmic rays

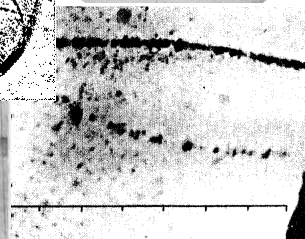
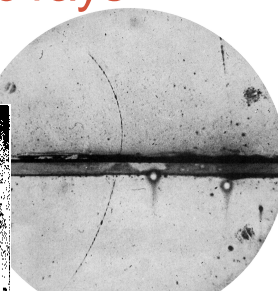
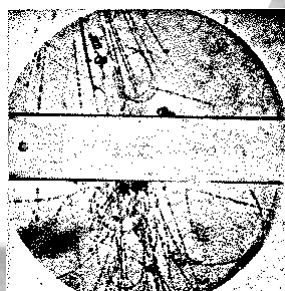
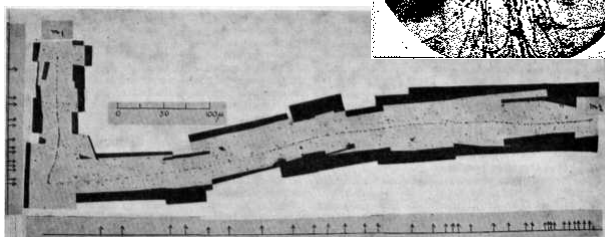
- Cosmic rays were discovered in 1912 by Hess
  - he showed that the intensity of penetrating radiation increased with altitude
  - therefore not due to natural radioactivity in rocks
- Shown to be charged particles by Compton in 1932
  - flux observed to vary with latitude as expected for charged particles deflected by Earth's magnetic field
- East-west asymmetry observed in 1933
  - showed particles were mainly positively charged (protons & ions)



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## Early significance of cosmic rays

- Initial significance of cosmic rays mostly related to particle physics
  - $e^+$ ,  $\mu$ ,  $\pi$  and strange particles all discovered in cosmic rays
  - later superseded by accelerators



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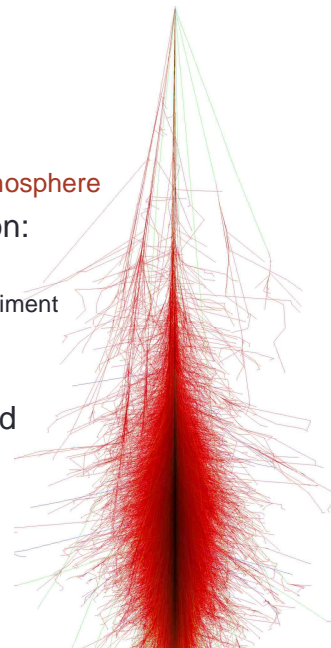
# COSMIC RAYS

## Detection

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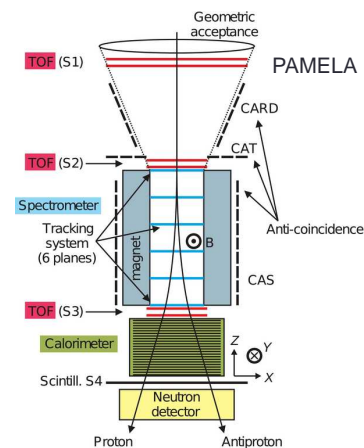
## Detection of cosmic rays

- Cosmic rays are strongly interacting
  - primary cosmic rays shower high in the atmosphere
- Therefore, two approaches to detection:
  - detect primary particle at high altitude
    - requires balloon-borne or space-based experiment
  - detect shower products
    - can be ground-based, but loses information
- Typically, ground-based detection used for higher-energy cosmic rays
  - flux is too low for effective detection by experiments small enough to launch to high altitude



## Detection of cosmic rays: primaries

- Ideally, would like to know *energy* (or momentum), *direction* and *identity* of particle
  - energy can be measured by calorimetry
  - momentum by a magnetic spectrometer
  - direction requires tracking information
    - spark chambers, wire chambers, silicon strip detectors, CCDs, ...
  - various techniques for particle identification
    - time of flight,  $dE/dx$ , threshold or ring-imaging Cherenkov
      - measure *mass*, but generally only for low-ish energies
    - charge measurement
      - measures *Z*, cannot separate isotopes

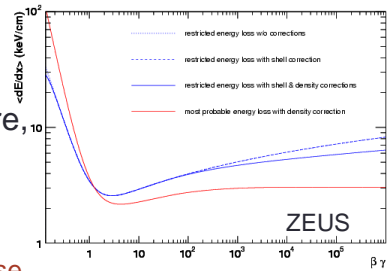


## Energy/momentum and direction

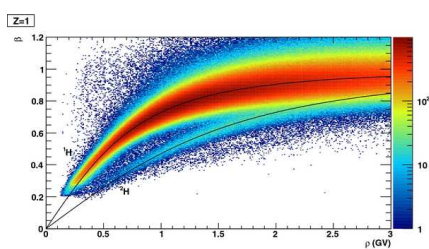
- Magnetic spectrometers measure *momentum* (actually, rigidity) from deflection of particle by magnetic field
  - this has the advantage that it measures charge *sign*, and thus distinguishes particles from antiparticles
- Calorimeters measure *energy* by causing particle to shower and then detecting deposited energy
  - this is usually more accurate than momentum above a certain threshold (depends on magnetic field) and measures photons (and other neutrals) as well as charged particles
- Other techniques include transition radiation (measures  $\gamma$ ; convert to  $E$  by determining  $m$ )
  - calorimetry and transition radiation can both be used by non-magnetic detectors

## Particle identification

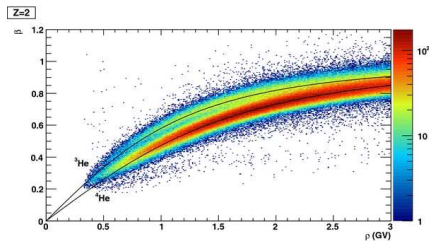
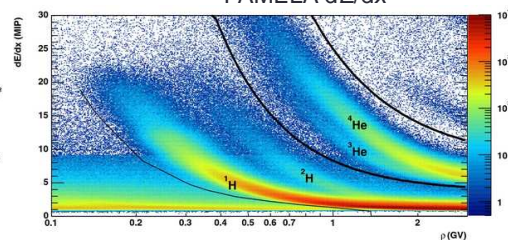
- $dE/dx$  depends on  $\beta\gamma$  and therefore, for a known momentum, on the mass of the particle
  - the dependence is fairly complicated, and measurements do not generally use  $\langle dE/dx \rangle$  itself but a truncated mean—therefore need to adjust formula
- TOF depends on  $\beta$ , hence on  $m$  if  $p$  known
- Cherenkov methods depend on  $\beta$  via  $\cos \theta = 1/n\beta$
- *All these methods lose discrimination when particles become ultra-relativistic, so that  $m$  is negligible*
- Determining particle charge via ionisation produced works up to higher momenta, but does not give isotopic info



## Particle identification

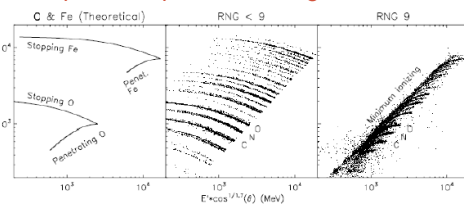


PAMELA  $dE/dx$



PAMELA time of flight

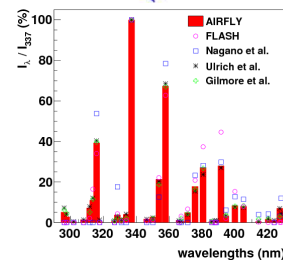
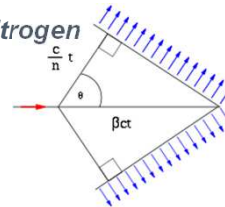
Note: **rigidity**  $R$  (or  $p$ ) =  $cp/Z$  is often used instead of momentum; it defines response of particle to magnetic field



CRIS charge deposited

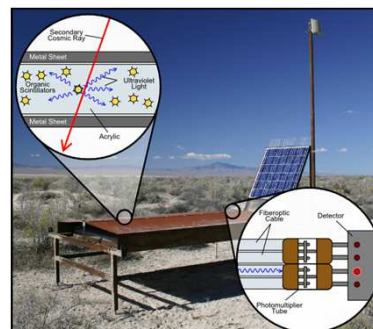
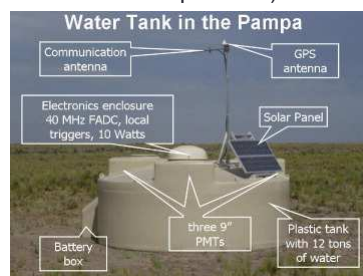
## Detection of cosmic rays: showers

- Two possibilities: detect the shower in the air, or detect shower particles that reach the ground
  - **Detection in air: either Cherenkov radiation or nitrogen fluorescence**
  - **Cherenkov radiation: detect particles travelling at speeds  $> c/n$  (~25 MeV for electrons in air)**
    - very forward peaked:  $\cos \theta = 1/n\beta \sim 1^\circ$  in air
    - blue light
  - **Nitrogen fluorescence: detect near-UV radiation from excited nitrogen molecules**
    - also mostly sensitive to electrons, but isotropic
  - **Light is very faint in both cases: require clear skies and very dark nights**
    - poor duty cycle, but large effective area



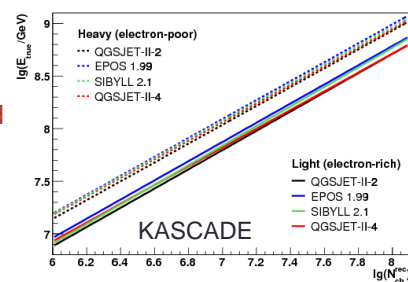
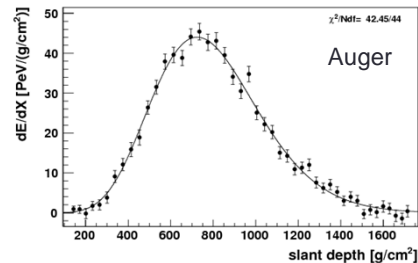
## Detection of cosmic rays: showers

- Two possibilities: detect the shower in the air, or detect shower particles that reach the ground
  - **Ground arrays: need large area coverage, so cheap, fairly autonomous array elements**
    - technologies of choice: water Cherenkov or plastic scintillator
    - some arrays also have muon detectors (shielded from other particles)



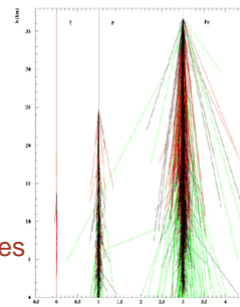
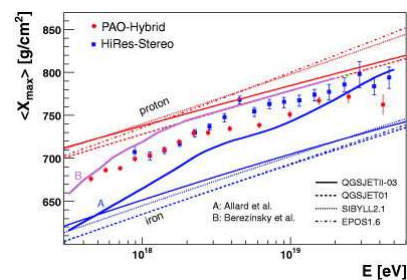
## Energy measurement

- Fluorescence detectors measure light yield and longitudinal shower profile
  - a fit to this can be used to deduce energy of primary
- Ground arrays measure transverse shower profile at ground level
  - charged particle multiplicity or charged particle density at specified distance from shower axis can be used to deduce energy



## Particle identification

- Ground arrays cannot provide specific primary identification
  - “Heavy” and “light” primaries can be distinguished by the depth in the atmosphere at which they shower ( $X_{max}$ )
  - Showers initiated by electrons/photons are narrower and contain only  $e^\pm$  and  $\gamma$
- At the highest energies there is some model dependence in this—no way to test models at these energies—and some disagreement between experiments
  - this is actually quite important as particle ID at highest energies has a bearing on possible sources

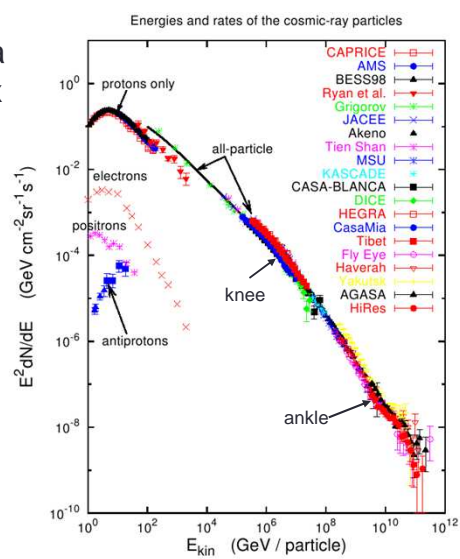


# COSMIC RAYS

## Properties

## Properties of cosmic rays

- Energy spectrum is close to a power law with spectral index  $\sim 2.7$ 
  - turn-over at low energies is due to solar magnetic field
  - two noticeable slope changes: “knee” at  $\sim 10^6$  GeV and “ankle” at  $\sim 10^9$  GeV
    - possibly due to changeover of sources

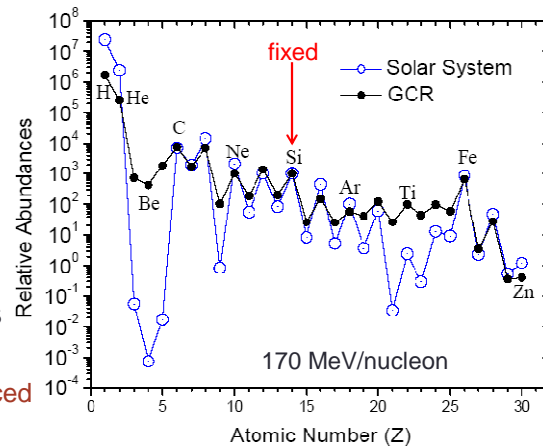




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## Composition

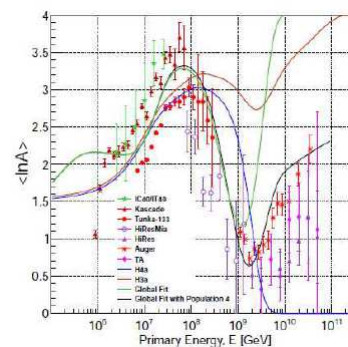
- Relative deficit of H and He (more easily deflected)
- Large excess of Li/Be/B and elements just below iron peak
  - these nuclei are produced in CRs by *spallation*
  - also accounts for smaller odd/even modulation
- Note that detailed composition information is only available for fairly low-energy CRs



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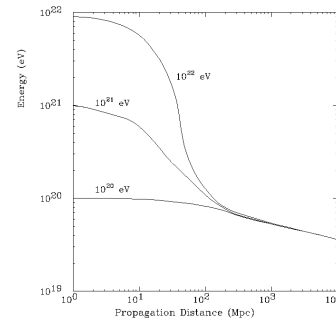
## High energy composition

- Rigidity  $R = cp/Ze$ 
  - particles of same rigidity behave in same way in Galactic magnetic field *and* in source magnetic field
  - if source can only confine particles up to rigidity  $R_{\max}$ , then maximum particle energy  $\propto Z$ : composition will skew towards heavier species at cut-off
- Evidence for source change above knee, and perhaps also above ankle
  - latter is driven mainly by data from Auger—not much evidence of heavier composition from TA or HiRes



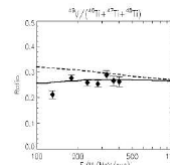
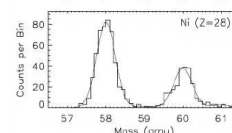
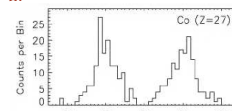
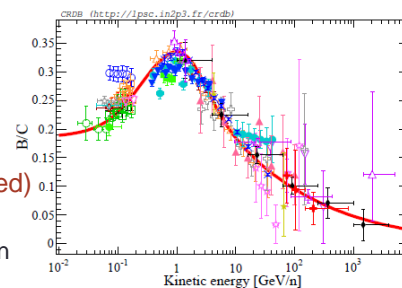
## High energy composition: GZK

- An unavoidable cut-off at high energies arises from the interaction  $p + \gamma \rightarrow \Delta^+ \rightarrow p + \pi^0 (n + \pi^+)$ 
  - at energies above  $\sim 5 \times 10^{19}$  eV this reaction can take place with a CMB photon
    - this is unavoidable as these photons are everywhere
  - result is to reduce proton energy by  $\sim 3\%$  owing to the production of the pion mass
    - repeated until proton energy drops below threshold
  - limits range of protons with  $E > 5 \times 10^{19}$  eV to  $\sim 100$  Mpc ( $\sim$ Coma cluster)
- It is *not* clear if observed cut-off at about this energy is GZK or not
  - if associated with shift to heavy nuclei, could be source cut-off instead



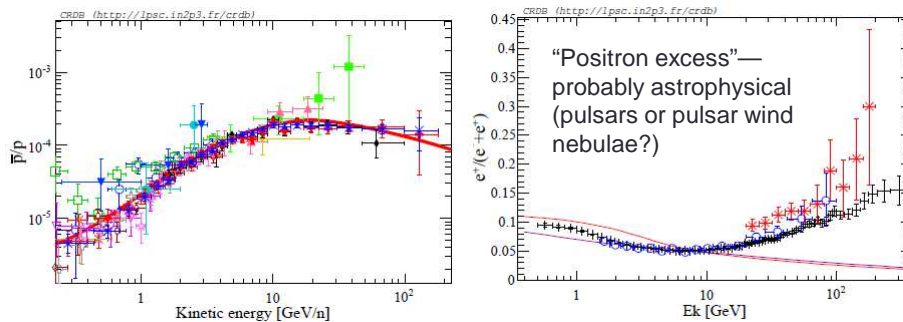
## Isotopic composition

- Key issues:
  - ratio of secondary (spallation-produced) to primary nuclei
    - provides information about propagation of CRs in Galaxy
  - nuclei which are stable to  $\beta^+$  decay ( $X \rightarrow X' + e^+ + \nu_e$ ) but unstable to electron capture ( $X + e^- \rightarrow X' + \nu_e$ )
    - as long as such nuclei are *fully ionised* they are *completely stable*
    - absence of such isotopes among primary nuclei suggests that material that is accelerated is initially cold
    - (these isotopes are observed among secondary nuclei)



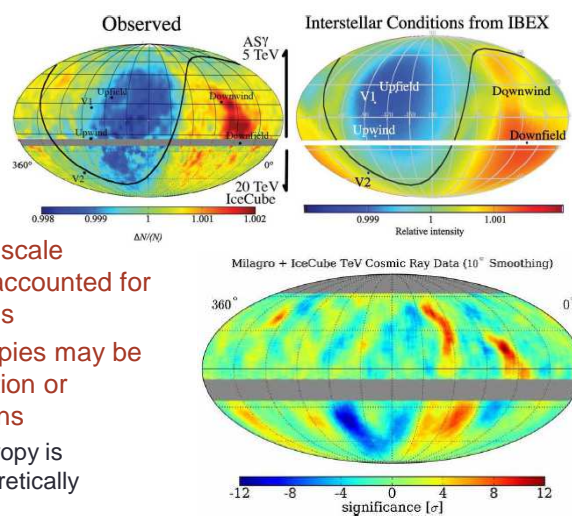
## Antiparticles

- Antiprotons and—especially—positrons can be produced as secondaries by energetic interactions
  - also possibly by dark-matter annihilation
- Antinuclei would imply existence of antistars



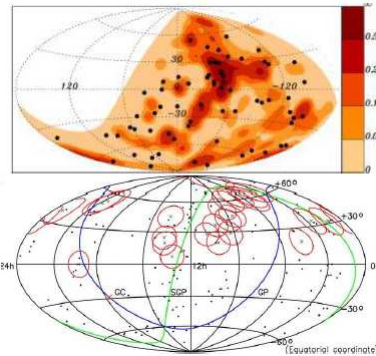
## Directional information

- Cosmic ray directions are scrambled by Galactic magnetic field
  - small-amplitude large-scale anisotropies are well accounted for by local magnetic fields
  - smaller-scale anisotropies may be due to source distribution or magnetic field variations
    - in fact, level of anisotropy is much *lower* than theoretically expected



## Directional information: high energies

- At very high energies directions should not be so severely affected—might find correlations with sources
  - results so far not very impressive
    - Auger see weak correlation with nearby AGN, but more data have weakened, not strengthened, result
    - Auger also see slight increase in flux in direction of Cen A; both these are  $2\sigma$
    - TA sees “hot spot” near  $6^{\text{h}}$  RA,  $60^{\circ}$  Dec ( $3.6\sigma$ )—but this is broad and not obviously correlated with a potential source
  - if high-energy CRs are heavy ions as suggested by Auger data, this is easier to understand, as they are deflected more for same  $p$



## Summary

You should read section 2.2 of the notes.

You should know about

- the discovery of cosmic rays
- detection techniques
- basic properties (energy spectrum, composition, anisotropies)

- Cosmic rays consist mostly of protons and heavy ions
  - primary cosmic rays are detected by balloon-borne and space-based platforms
  - products of air showers are detected by ground-based experiments
- Detectors aim to measure energy, direction and particle ID
  - energy by magnetic spectrometers, calorimeters, transition radiation (primaries) or by shower profile, light yield and particle counting (showers)
- Observed properties:
  - energy spectrum is a power law with spectral index  $\sim 2.7$
  - elemental composition shows evidence for spallation
  - isotopic composition implies accelerated material is initially cool
  - directions are broadly isotropic, no direct evidence for particular sources

### Next: radio emission

- radiation from an accelerated charge
- bremsstrahlung
- synchrotron radiation

Notes section 2.3

