Extensive Air Shower (EAS) Detection

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Paris-Saclay, 31 March 2022

From EAS detection to cosmic rays properties

``The subject of cosmic rays is unique in modern physics for
the minuteness of the phenomena
the delicacy of the observations
the adventurous excursions of the observers
the subtlety of the analysis
the grandeur of the inferences"

(from Bruno Rossi, "Cosmic Rays", foreword)

Paris-Saclay, 31 March 2022

OUTLINE

PROLOGUE: the relevance of detecting Extensive Air Showers

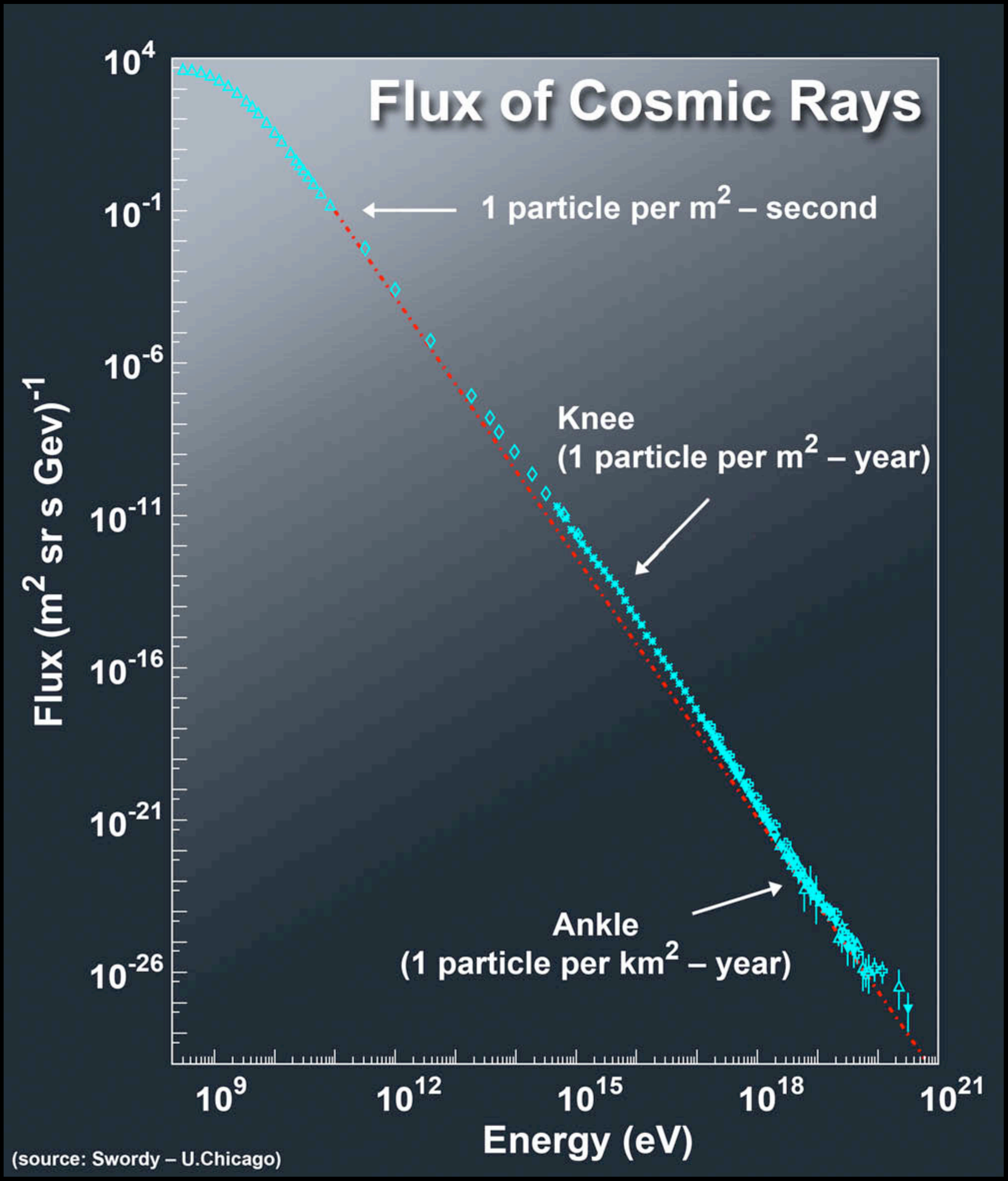
Extensive Air Shower detection: an historical perspective
(*The minuteness of the phenomena)*
***The adventurous excursions of the observers*)**

Modern Extensive Air Shower detectors
(*The minuteness of the phenomena -*
***The adventurous excursions of the observers*)**

Two exemplary cases: the Auger Observatory and the Telescope Array
EAS observables (*The delicacy of the observations)*
From EAS observables to cosmic rays properties *(The subtlety of the analysis*)

The relevance of EAS detection

*The all-particle **energy spectrum** of cosmic rays*

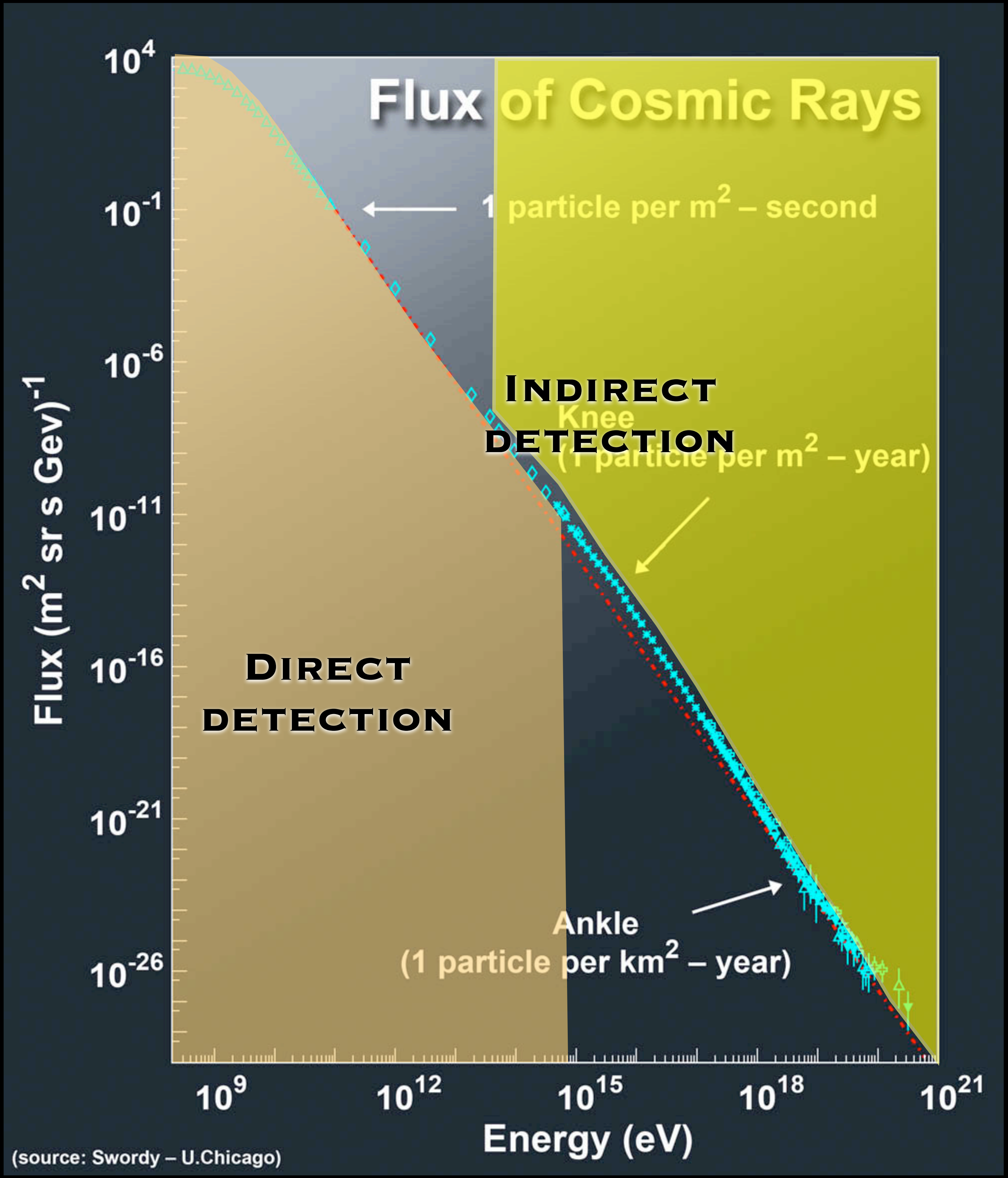


Most striking features of cosmic rays : their energies span a very wide range (≈ 13 decades), as well as their flux does (> 30 decades!)

Yet, the flux as a function of energy (i.e., energy spectrum) look overall quite regular, being well represented by a power-law form : ($E^{-\gamma}$, $\gamma \approx 3$)

The relevance of EAS detection

Different detection approaches depending on CR flux and energy

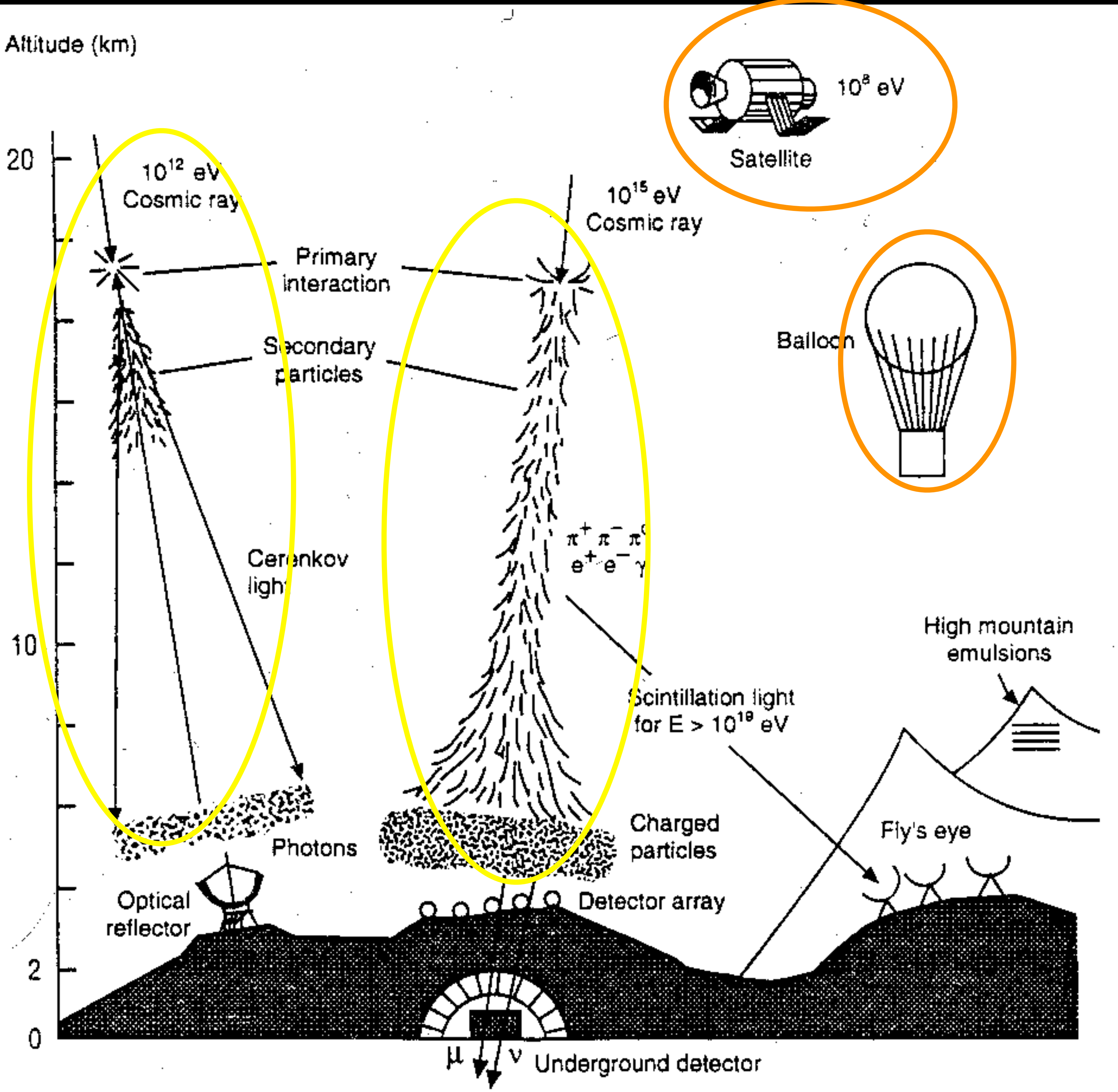


At lower energies (below tens of TeV): rather high flux (1/m^2 s-h) but CRs are absorbed in the upper atmosphere.
Direct detection is needed and feasible, on balloons, rockets or satellites

At higher energies (above tens of TeV): much rarer (< 1/m^{2}y), but "penetrating" up to ground (via their extensive air-showers).
Indirect detection is needed and feasible with long-lived large instruments deployed at Earth

The relevance of EAS detection

Different detection approaches depending on CR flux and energy



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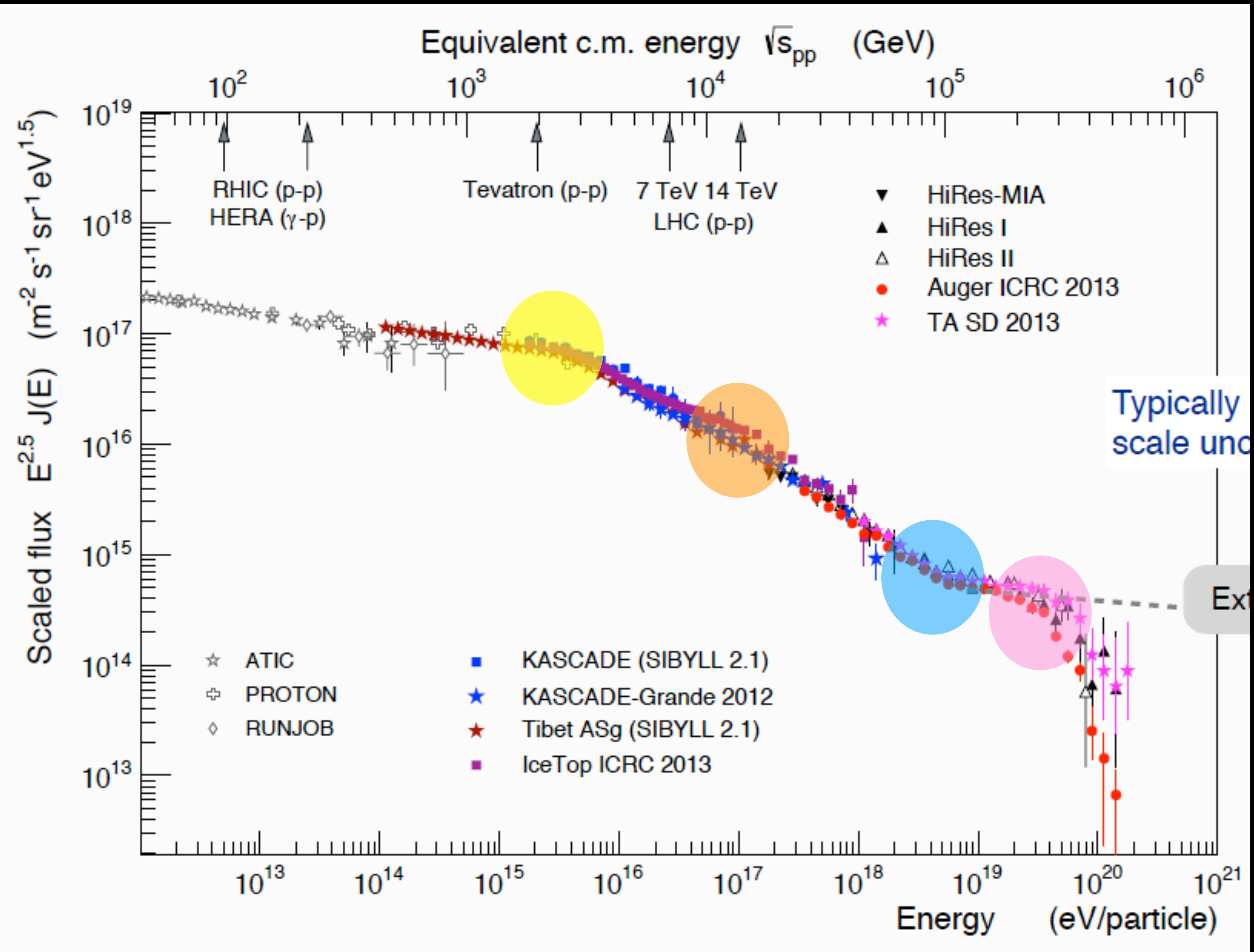
The relevance of EAS detection

The energy spectrum of high-energy cosmic rays shows in fact a few "irregularities"



All-particle primary energy spectrum measured by different EAS arrays. Spectrum scaled by $E^{2.5}$ to better evidence the "irregularities"

A softening ("knee") at ≈ 3 10^{15} eV

A softening ("II knee") at ≈ 10^{17} eV

A hardening ("ankle") at ≈ 5 10^{18} eV

A "2-step suppression" at ≈ 1-5 10^{19} eV

These irregularities reflect changes in the CR behaviour, either in the acceleration mechanisms, or the sources, or the propagation to Earth.

The experimental study of CRs around these energies is key to understand their origin. **Different instruments for their (indirect) detection are required depending on the energy**

The challenge of EAS detection

The ultimate aim of EAS detection is the identification of the primary cosmic ray, in terms of

Mass/Charge

Energy

Arrival direction

We are dealing with an INDIRECT MEASUREMENT of CRs

To infer the properties of the primary particle one needs not only to measure EAS as precisely (*observation*) as possible but also to exploit as carefully as possible the "legacy" that their parents left to them *(analysis)*

Extensive Air Shower detection:
A (very short) historical perspective

The minuteness of the phenomena

The adventurous excursions of the observers

Nani gigantum humeris insidentes

If I have seen further, it is by standing on the shoulders of giants

Chartres Cathedral
South Rose
St Matthew above Isaiah

"I make no apology for showing here and there a few historical notes about the history of cosmic ray detection.

This is much more than simply the recounting of some key events. Many of the present key ideas and experimental procedures have a long and distinguished history which reflects the insight and ingenuity of the great scientists of the past.

These are our legacy and the foundation of the modern scientific experimental practice"

(inspired - and adapted - from Malcolm Longair)

Chartres Cathedral
South Rose
St Luke above Jeremiah

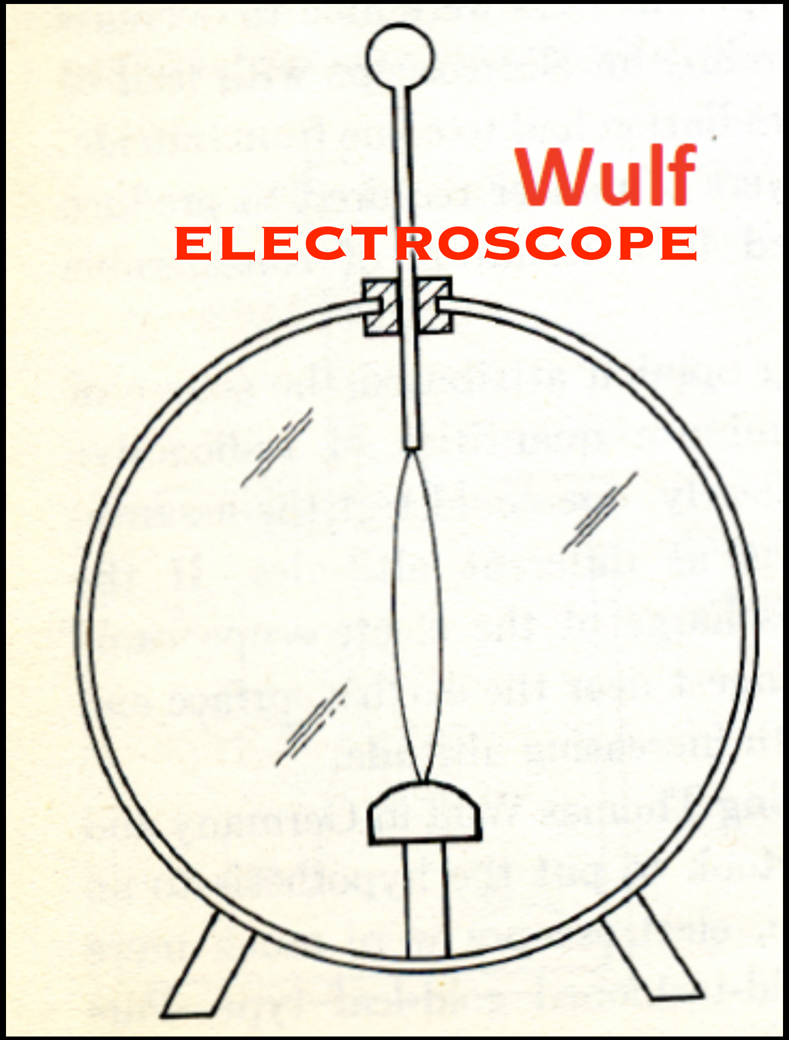
It is (quite) easy today to talk about the techniques used to detect and to exploit EAS to study cosmic rays

Yet, it took decades to consolidate the picture of EAS, both in terms of detection (this talk) and of the physical processes involved (Ralph Engel's talk)

The very first steps towards the discovery of EAS

The discovery of cosmic rays: the "electroscope" era

First hints of the presence of cosmic rays came quite unexpectedly at the turn of 20th century, during the golden days of research into radioactivity. Radioactive elements ionise gases, enabling the gas to conduct electricity. Electroscopes were widely used to explore radioactive materials.



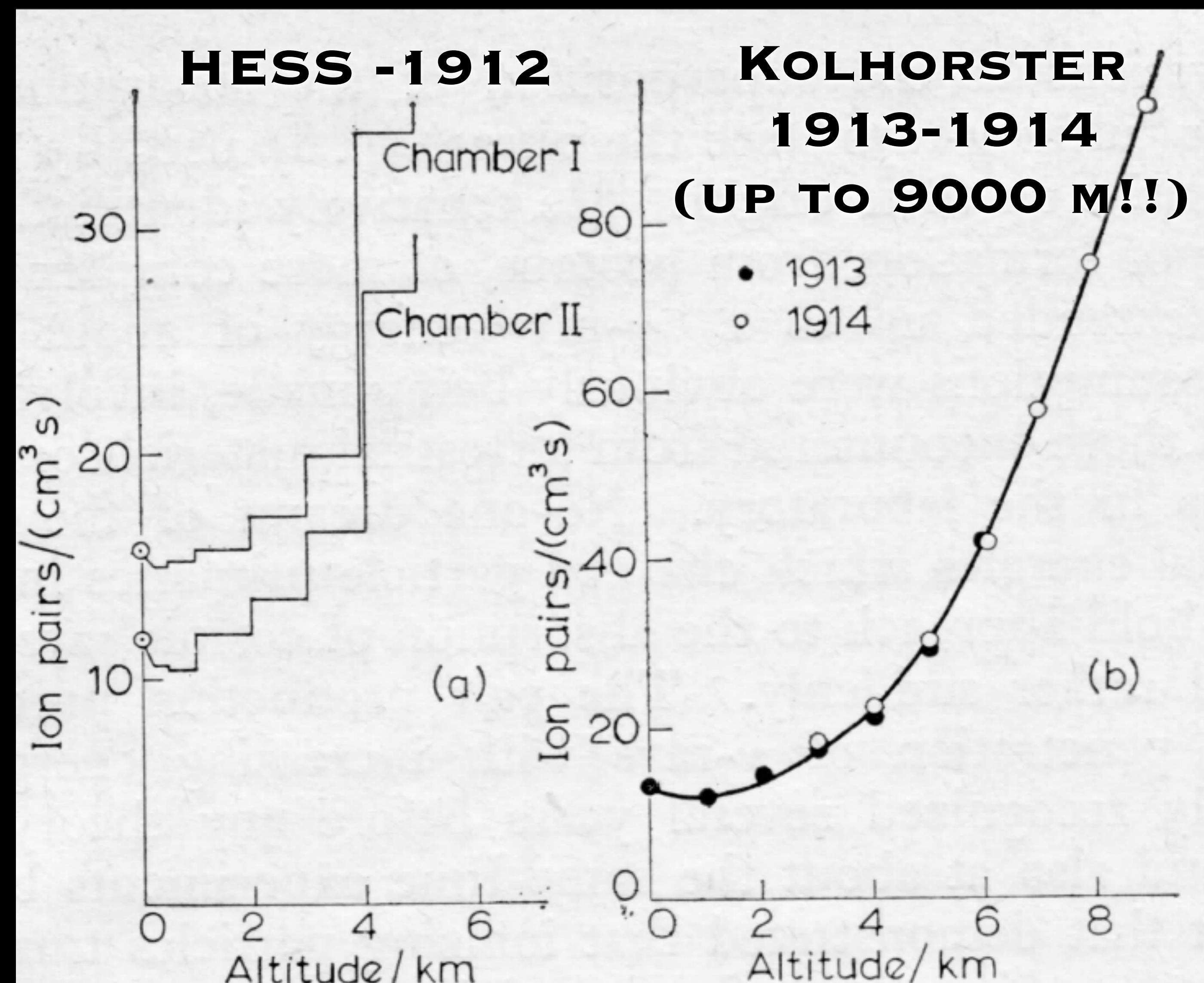
First electroscopes developed at the end of the XVIII century. When it is given an electric charge, the metal leaves (or wires) repel each other and stand apart. Radiation can ionise the air in the electroscope and allow the charge to leak away: leaves or wires slowly come back together.

Puzzle: No matter how good the electroscopes, the electric charge continued to leak away even when there was no obvious nearby source of X-rays or radioactivity!

The very first steps towards the discovery of EAS

The discovery of cosmic rays: the "electroscope" era

To reduce possible effect of sources of radiation at ground, electroscopes were carried to the tops of tall buildings (Father Wulf, 1910, Eiffel Tower) or even to greater heights, using balloons (Victor Hess, 1912, Werner Kolhorster, 1913-1914). Experiments of great danger, great courage



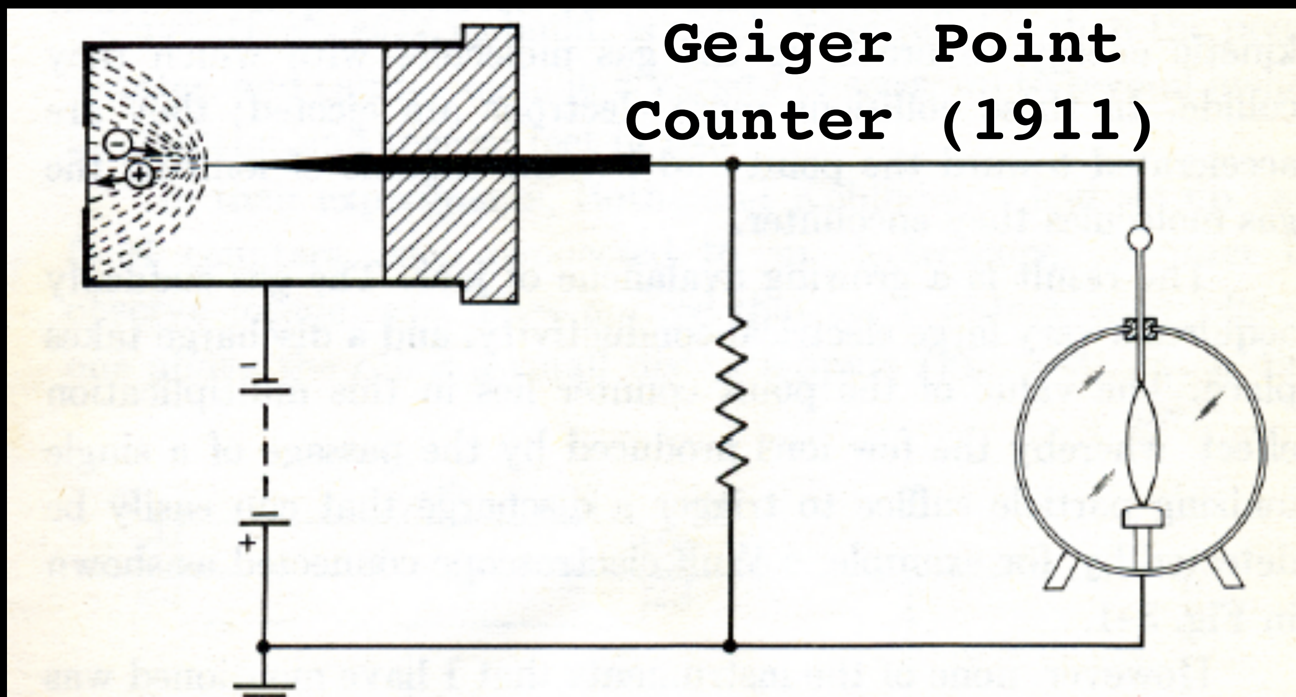
Intensity of the ionizing radiation first decreased as the balloon went up and then increased

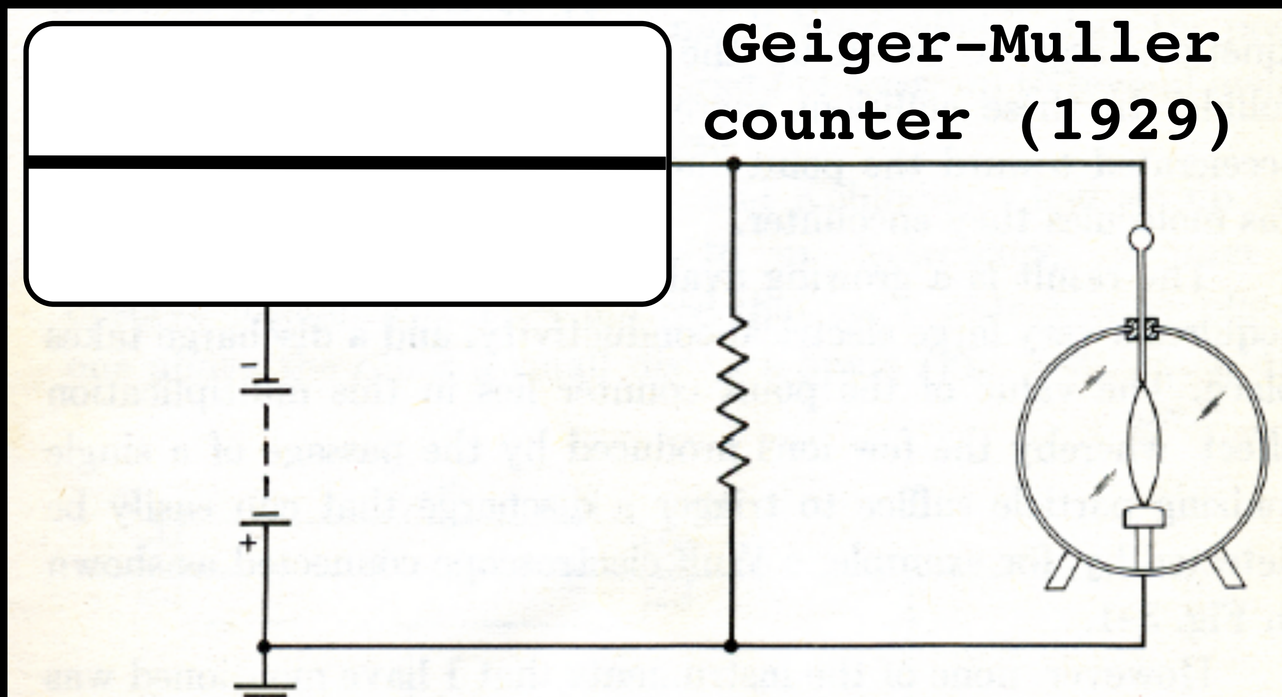
"The only possible way of interpret my findings was to conclude to the existence of a hitherto unknown and very penetrating radiation, coming from above and probably of extra-terrestrial origin" [V. Hess 1912]

The very first steps towards the discovery of EAS

Towards the detection of single particles: Geiger counters

Electroscopes can only detect the combined ionising effect of many particles. They cannot access single particles





A thin point rod in a metal box filled with gas. A battery maintains the rod at positive potential with respect to the box. Particles penetrating in the box produce ionisation. Ions and electrons are accelerated: an avalanche creates a brief electrical current: the electroscope wires undergo a sudden deflection

Not stable, not realisable in size large to counterpart the small intensity of CRs

1929: the invention by Geiger and his student Muller of the so-called Geiger-Muller counter.

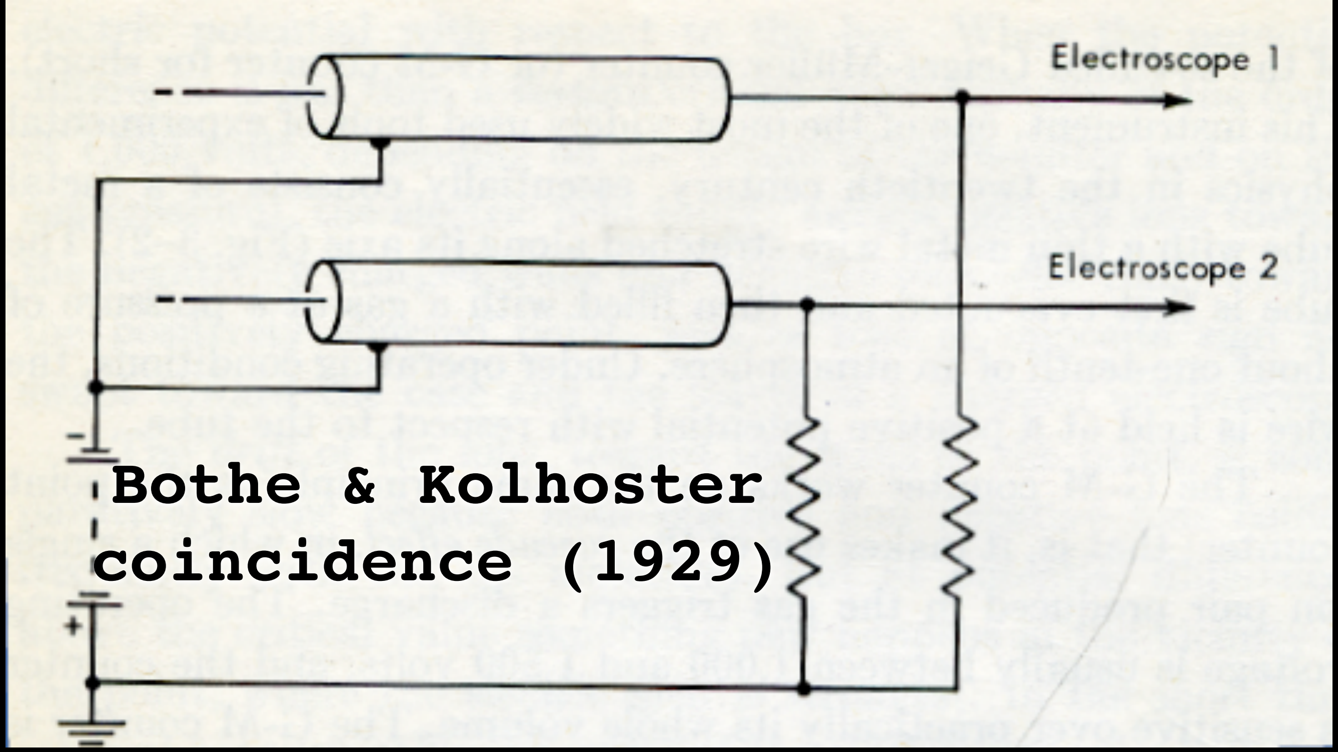
A metal tube filled with a gas with a thin metal wire stretched along its axis. Same principle as the point counter

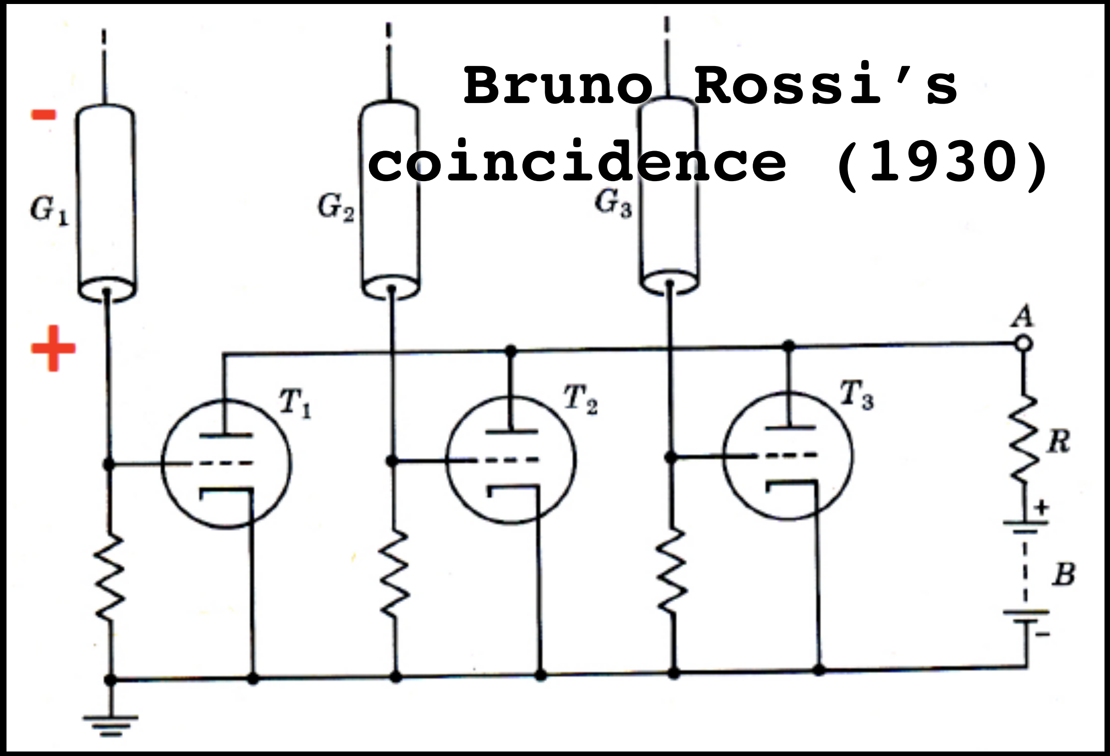
Fast response time: not only individual events can be identified but also their arrival times

Easy to build, stable and realisable in different sizes. Very much used to study CRs

The very first steps towards the discovery of EAS

The invention of counting in coincidence





G-M counters (2 max) connected to electroscopes. When placed one above the other a small distance apart, often discharged simultaneously.

Coincidences were not by chance as they became less frequent when the distance increased. By inserting absorbers (lead, gold) between the counters (and still finding coincidences)

B&K concluded that "a corpuscolar radiation was detected...unlikely to be a gamma-radiation..."

2 or more triodes coupled to G-M counters. When the grids were simultaneously driven to a negative potential by the coincident discharges of the 3 counters, a pulse appear at the plates.

Bruno Rossi (1930) much improved the method by B&K obtaining a better time resolution, and extending the coincidence to more than 2 counters

The serendipitous observation of “sciami estesi”

The first observation of “sciami estesi"

‘It would seem . . . that from time to time there arrives upon the equipment very extensive group of particles (‘sciami molto estesi di corpuscoli’) which produce coincidences between counters even rather distant from each other”

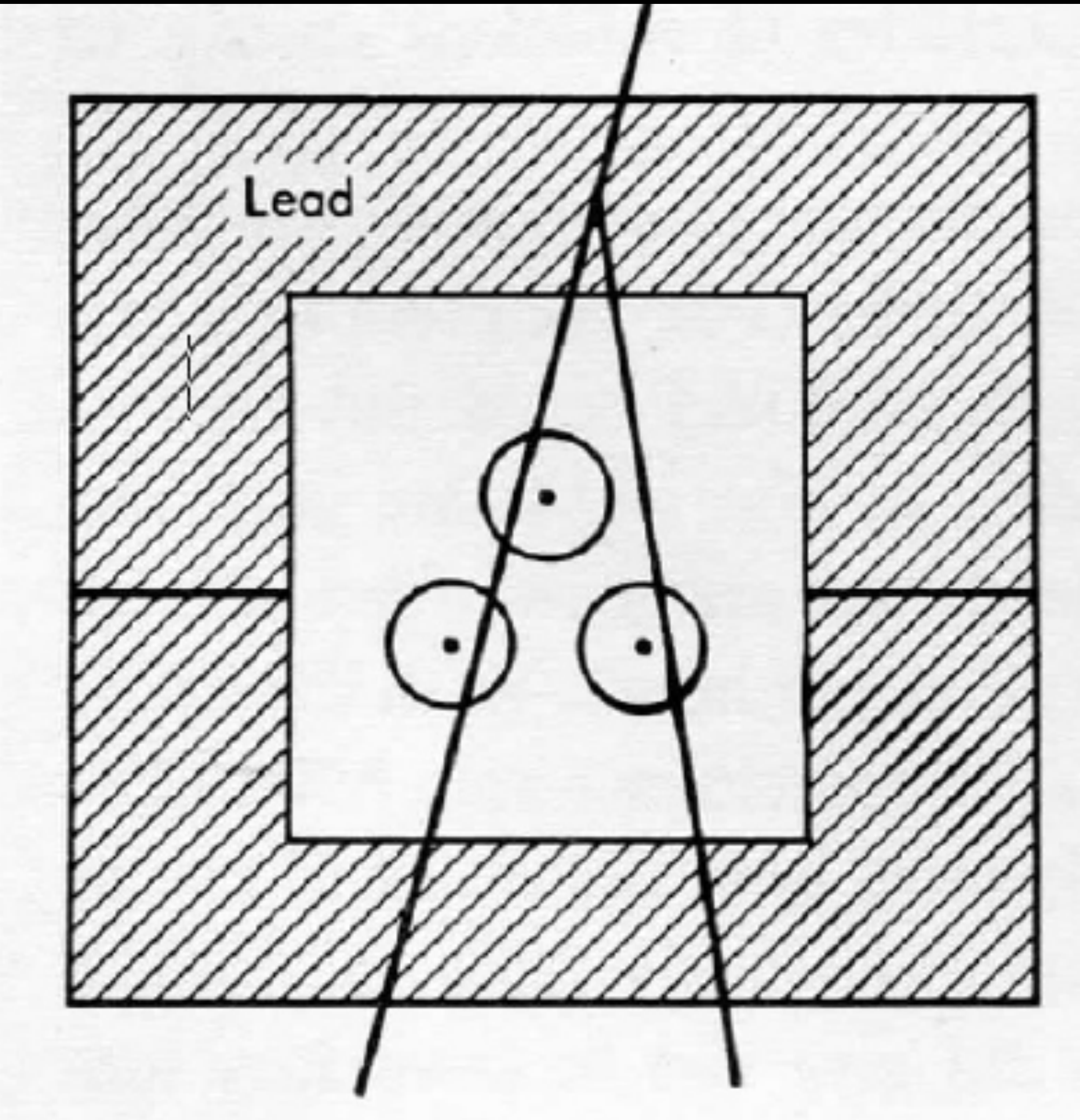
Bruno Rossi, 1934

Rossi placed three Geiger counters in a triangular array, i.e., they could not be discharged by a single particle traveling in straight line.

Yet, even when surrounded by lead, the array recorded coincidences. The coincidence rate fell ALMOST to zero when more lead was added. Coincidences were present also WITHOUT lead.

The coincidences could only have been the result of two or more ionising particles emerging simultaneously from the lead.

Rossi correctly suspected that soft secondary particles were produced by cosmic particles either in the material or not.



The discovery of Extensive Air Showers

Schmeiser & Bothe, Kolhörster, and PIERRE AUGER

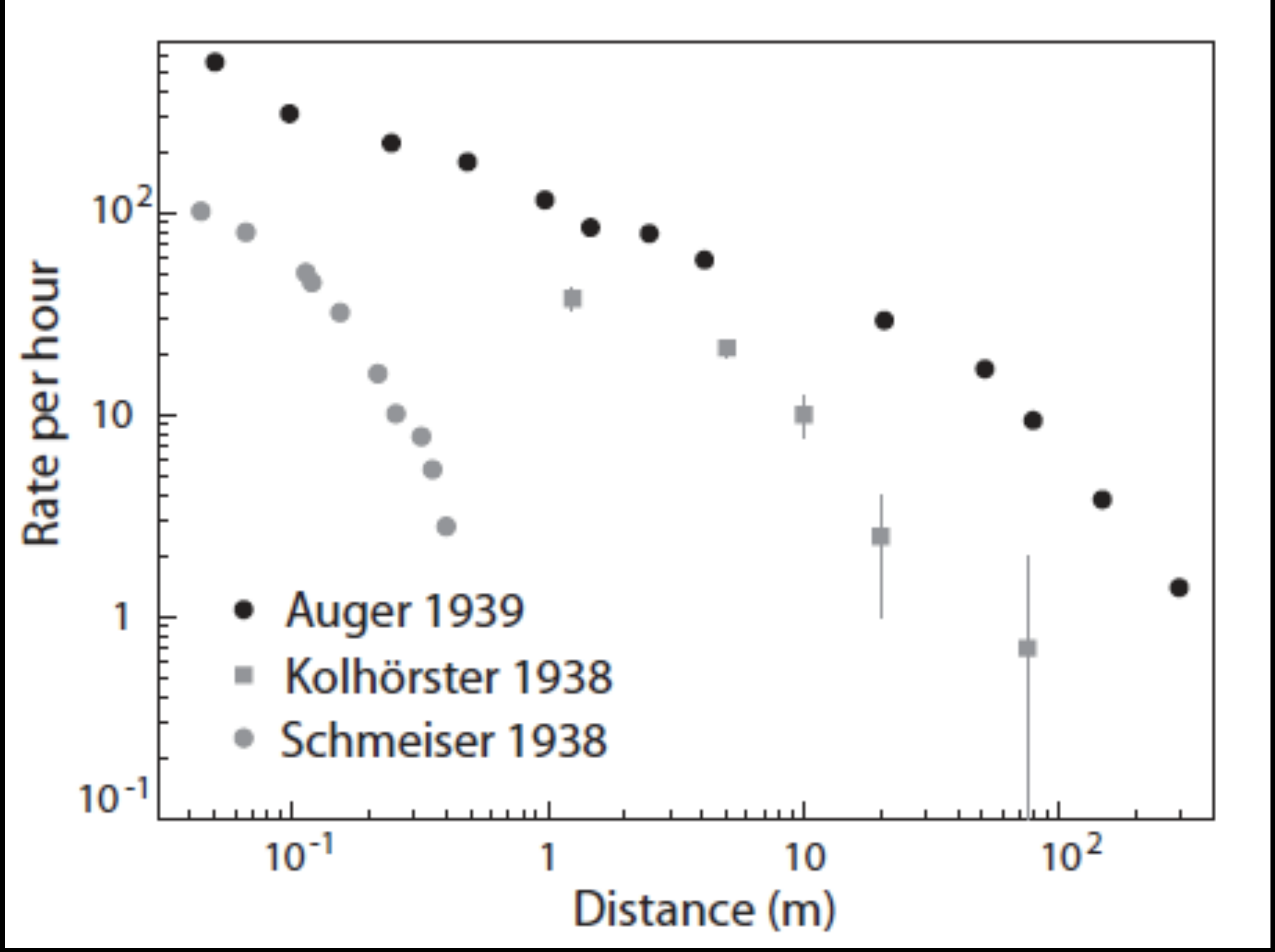
Schmeiser and Bothe pointed out that Rossi's observations implied the occurrence of showers in air and showed that particles in air showers had separations up to 40 cm. Independently, Kolhörster et al. reported data on the rate at which coincidences between a pair of Geiger counters fell as a function of separation

Despite the work of Rossi and the two German groups, credit for the discovery of extensive air showers is usually given to Pierre Auger.

Auger's observation depended on the electronic developments by Roland Maze who improved the resolving time of coincidences.

They found that the chance rate between two counters separated by some distance greatly exceeded the chance rate expected from the resolving time of the new circuit.

They estimated an energy of about ≈ 10^{15} eV for the primary particle!!!



THE DISCOVERY OF EXTENSIVE AIR SHOWERS: DECOHERENCE CURVES MEASURED WITH GEIGER COUNTERS SEPARATED UP TO 300 M DISTANCE

Towards understanding Extensive Air Showers

1940s - 1950s

Several groups, including Auger's, verified the inferences drawn from the Geiger counter observations using cloud chambers.

Work by Auger and his colleagues using cloud chambers triggered by Geiger counters allowed features of EAS to be understood relatively quickly.

By the late 1930s it was known that air showers contained hadronic particles, muons and electrons. Major advances in understanding took place in the late 1940s and early 1950s after the existence of two charged and one neutral pion was established and it was recognised that muons were secondary to charged pions.

The features visible in this photograph, except for scale, are extremely similar to those present when a high-energy particle enters the earth's atmosphere and creates a shower.

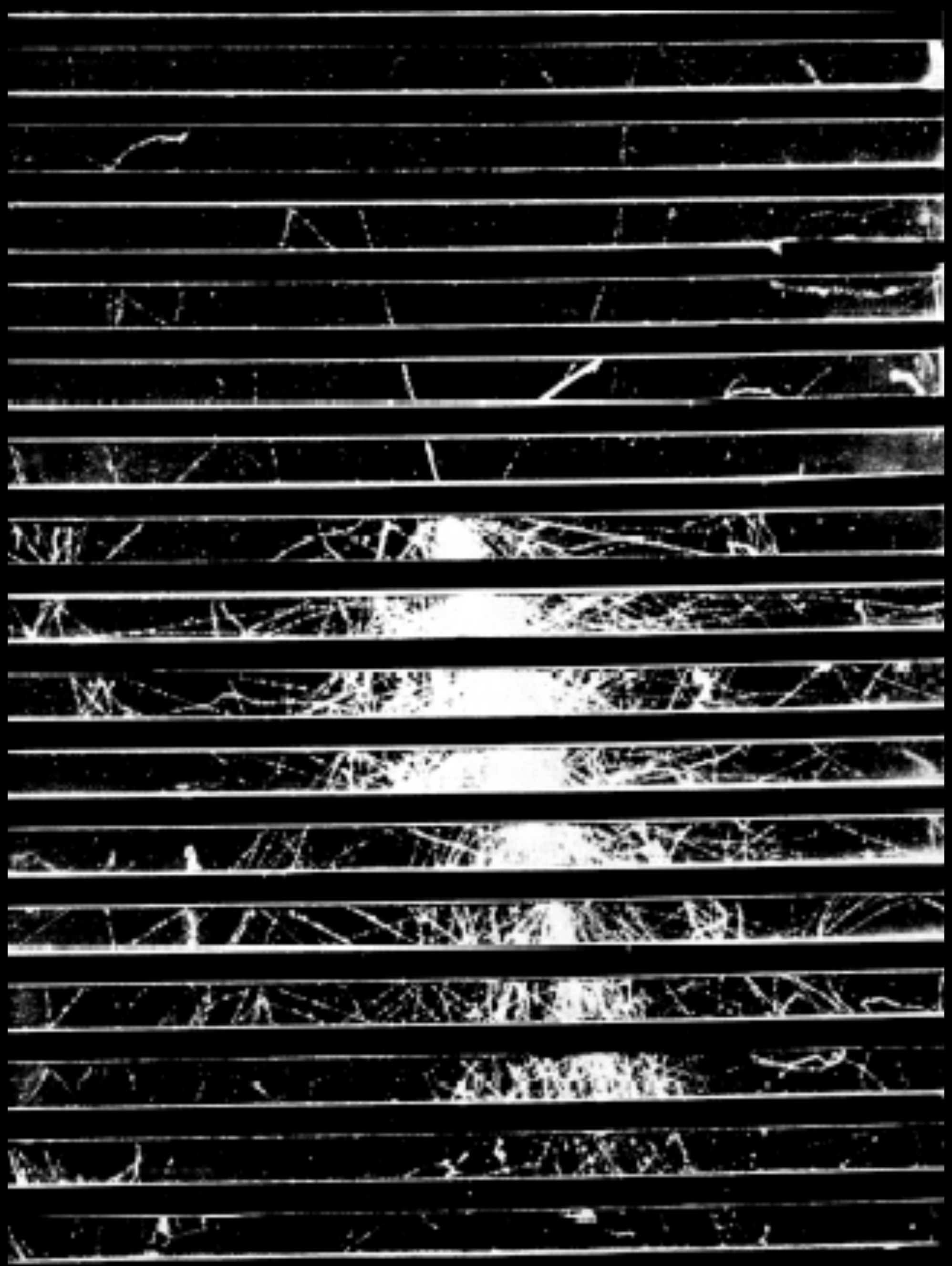


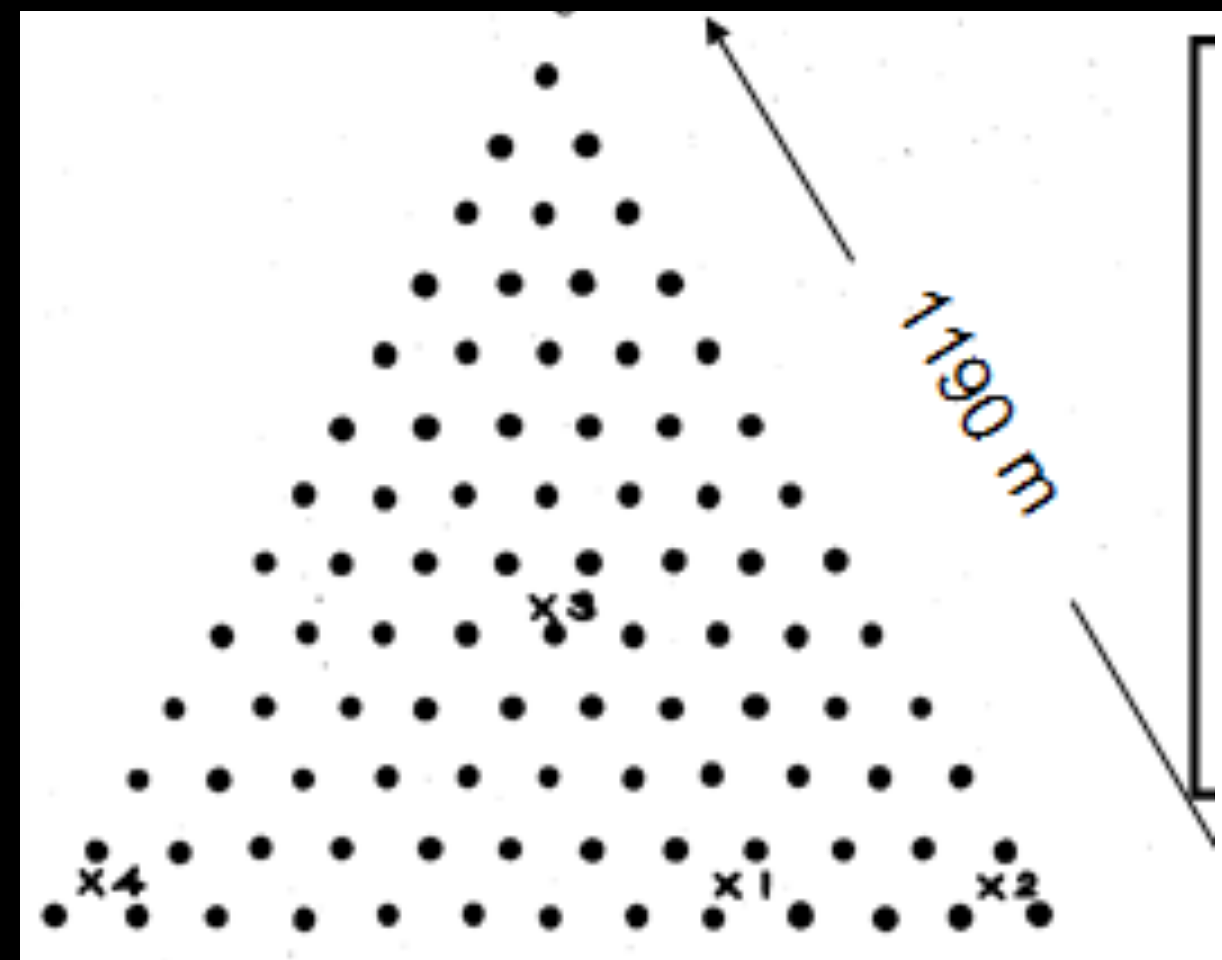
IMAGE OF A SHOWER, AS SEEN IN A CLOUD CHAMBER AT 3027 M ALTITUDE, FRETTER 1949 (PRIMARY PROTON OF ≈ 10^{10} EV)

The very first EAS arrays

Skobeltsyn, Zatsepin, Miller (1947), Cranshaw & Galbraith (1954)

Up to the invention of PMTs and scintillators (after World War II, in the 1950s) progress in experimental EAS studies was done by using arrays of Geiger counters installed in the USSR and in UK

EAS array on the Pamir mountain (3860 m, USSR, 1947)
Geiger counters supplemented with ionisation chambers and cloud chambers. The birth of the very first "large" collaborations (20-30 people)



The first "large" array (0.6 km²) at Culham, UK (1954)
91 Geiger counters spaced by 99 m.
Hosted in a disused airfield at sea level

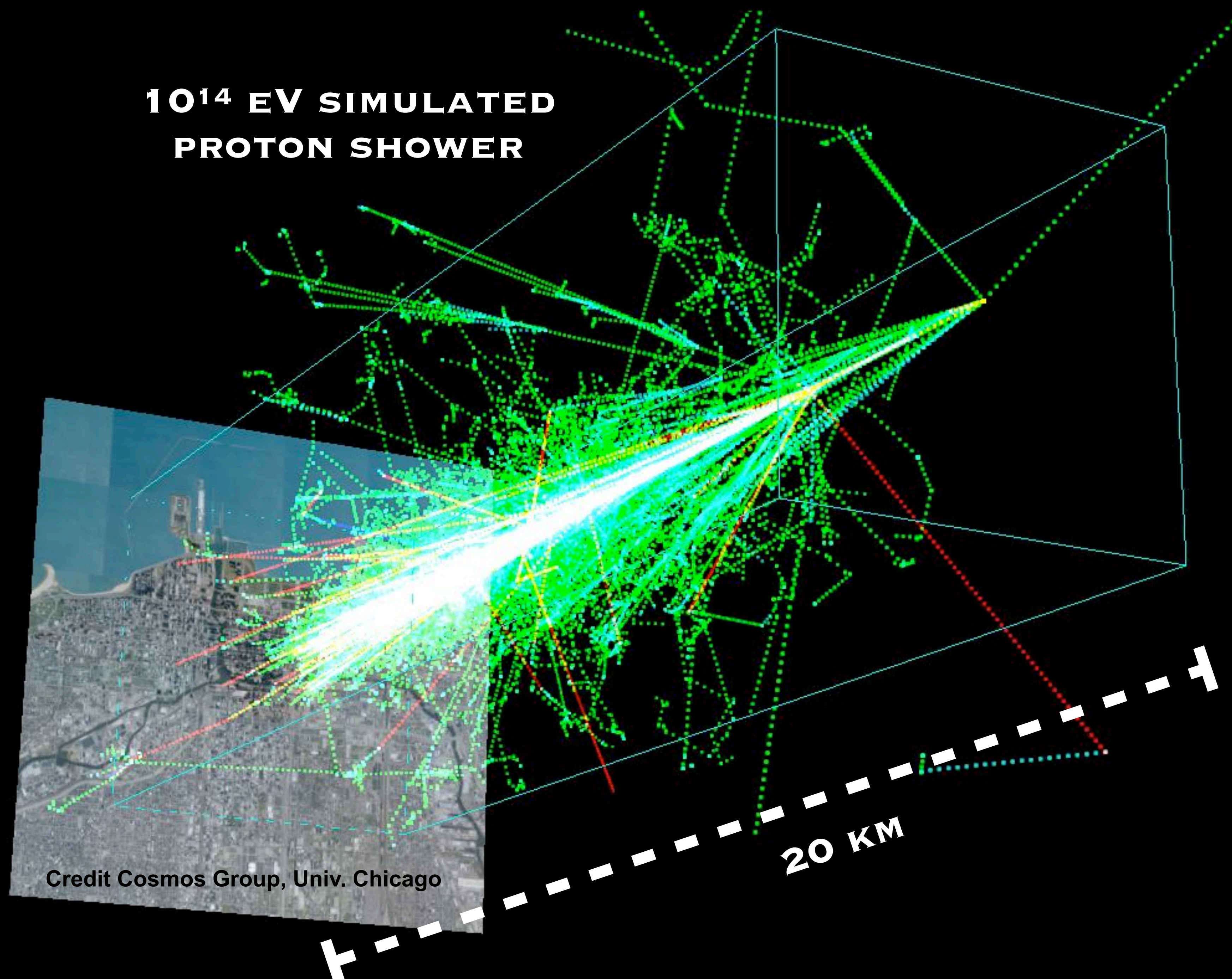
Modern Extensive Air Shower detectors

(The minuteness of the phenomena -
The adventurous excursions of the observers)

Image of a modern shower (simulation!)

We now know much more on the EAS features (Ralph Engel's lecture)

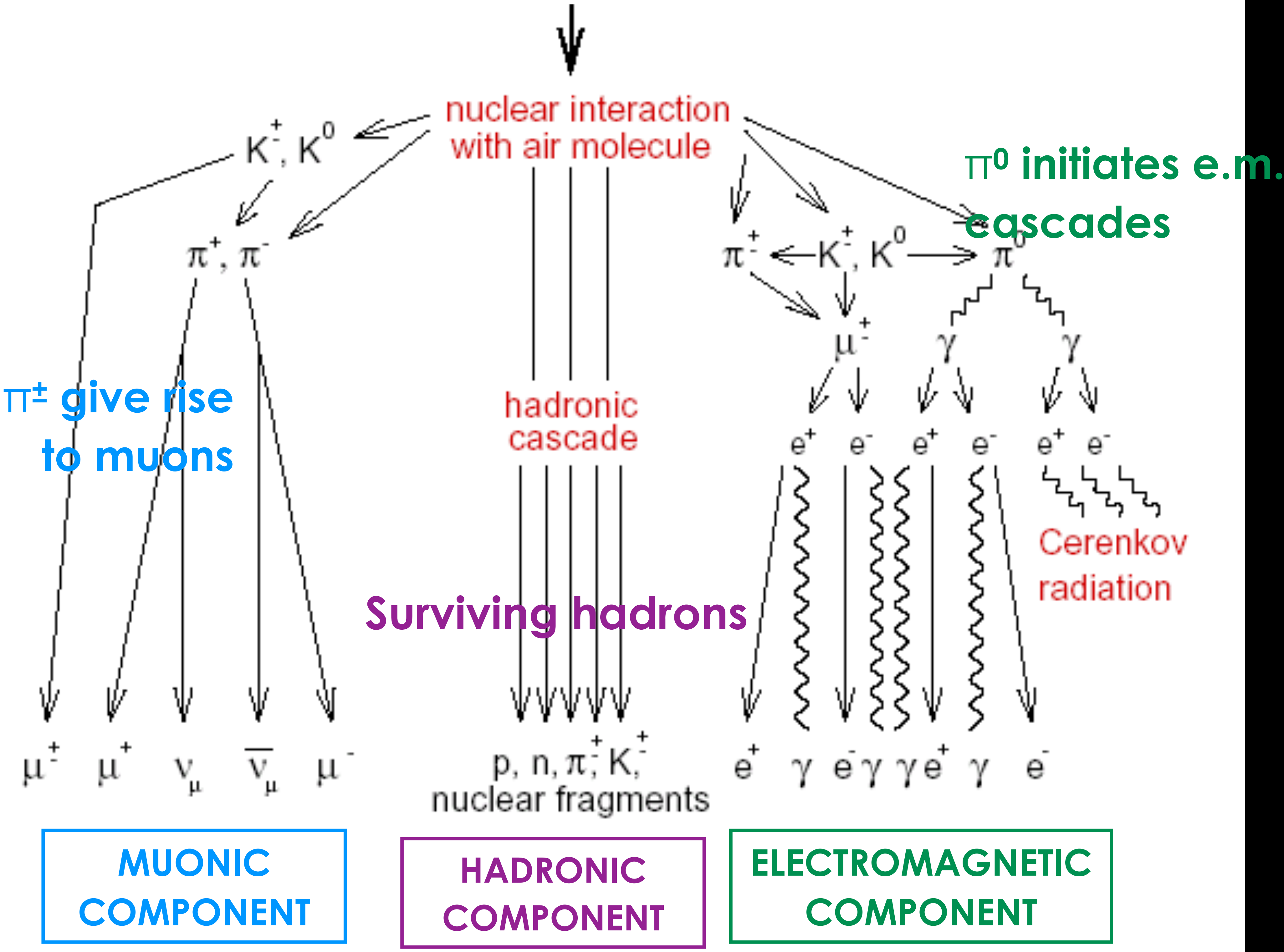
Green: electrons and positrons
Cyan: gammas
Red: muons
White: hadrons



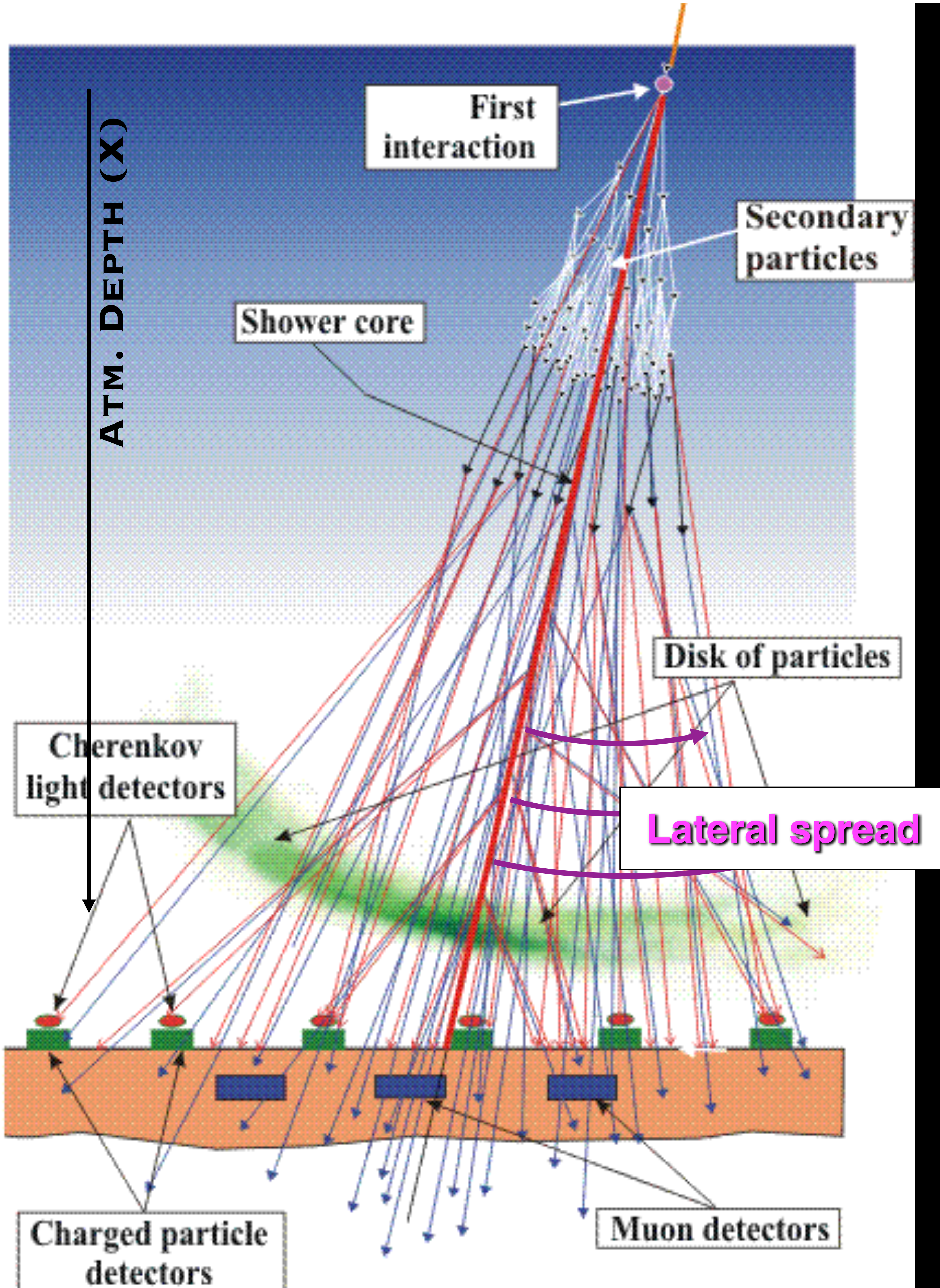
The atmosphere is used as an inhomogeneous calorimeter.
EAS can be detected over an extended area.
Large effective area of detection compensates the smallness of flux

EAS particles

A high energy primary particle, upon entering the atmosphere, initiates a chain of nuclear interactions



EAS particles: lateral distribution



Secondary particles form a narrow "bundle": **the shower core**

Initial transverse momentum and multiple scattering in atmosphere causes particles **to spread out laterally** from the core -> **lateral distribution**: particle density is greater in the core and it decreases with increasing distance from it

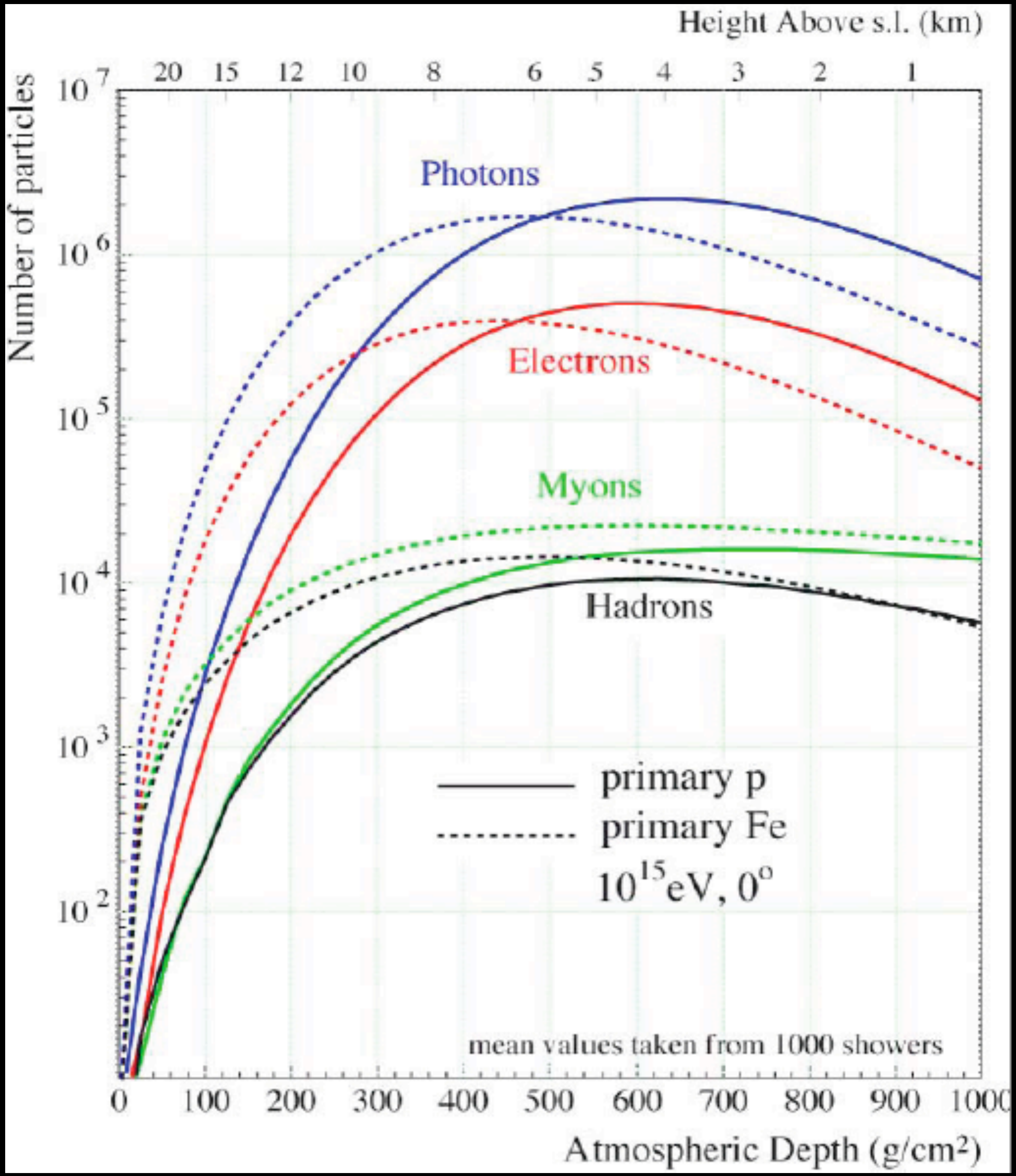
Due to different path lengths and velocities across the atmosphere shower particles are distributed over a wide area and within a **curved disk**

For example, a shower from a CR of 10^{19} eV:

- Has a footprint at ground that can extend up to over 15 km

- Has a thickness that might be of a few hundreds meters (depending on the distance from the core)

EAS particles: longitudinal profile



The number of particles increases with atmospheric depth, reaches a maximum and then decreases (electrons attenuates more rapidly than muons)

Showers started by heavier primaries (e.g., Fe) develop faster, i.e., reach the maximum higher in atmosphere

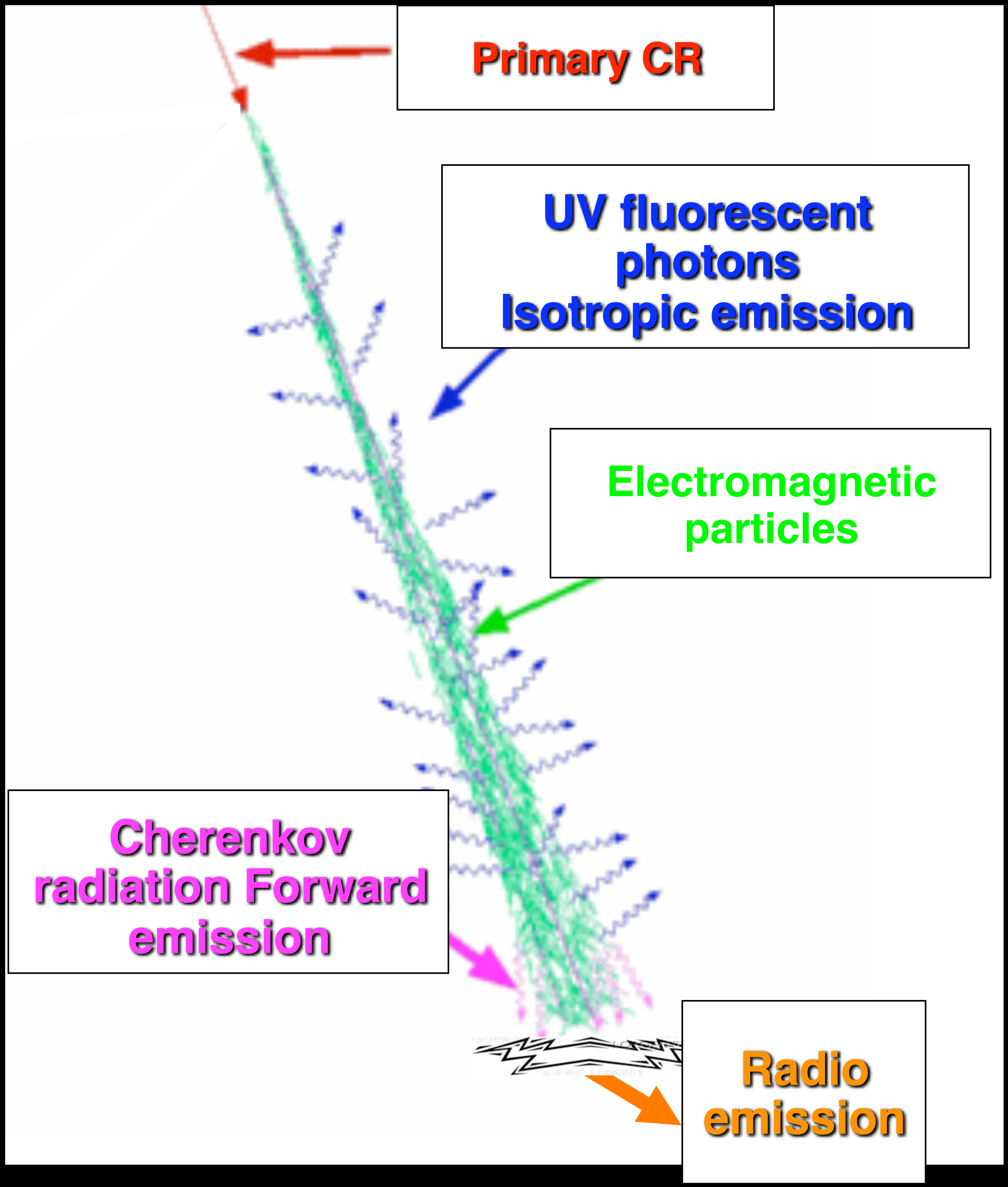
Showers started by the same kind of primary reach their maximum deeper in atmosphere if their energy is larger

For example, a shower from a CR of 10^{19} eV:

- Contains about 10^{10} particles (mostly em, with about 10% of muons) at the maximum

- Has the maximum at about 3 km a.s.l.

Not only EAS particles but also EAS radiation

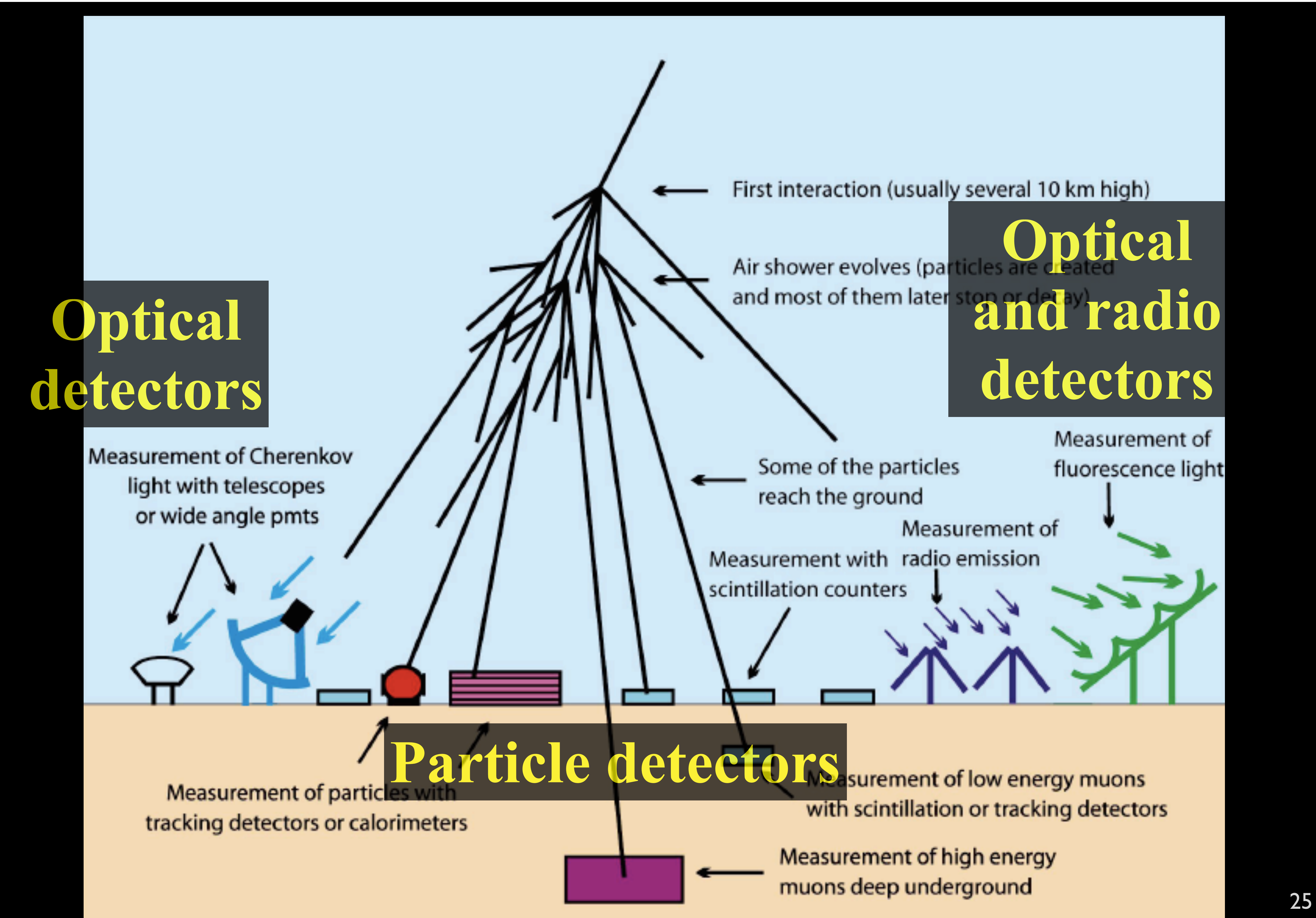


Cherenkov radiation: Electrons and positrons in the shower travel faster than the speed of light in air and emit Cherenkov radiation, mostly in the forward direction

Fluorescence radiation: The passage of air shower e.m. particles in atmosphere results in the excitation of nitrogen molecules. Some of this excitation energy is emitted in the form of isotropic visible and UV radiation.

Radio emission: Main mechanisms: air shower electrons and positrons acceleration in the Earth's magnetic field. Also, radio-emission from the time-varying negative excess in the shower. Forward-beamed radiation.

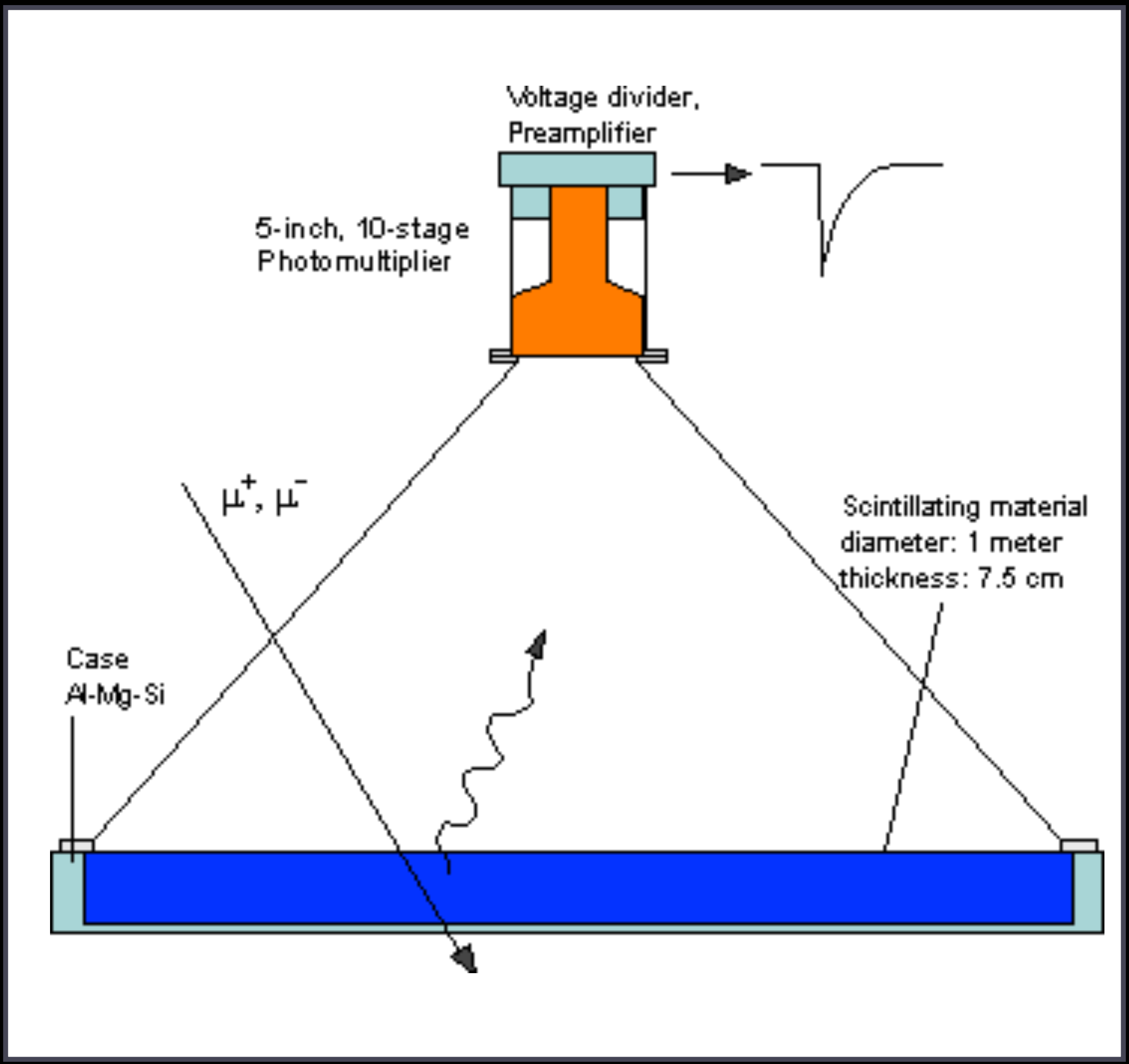
Different detectors for different observables



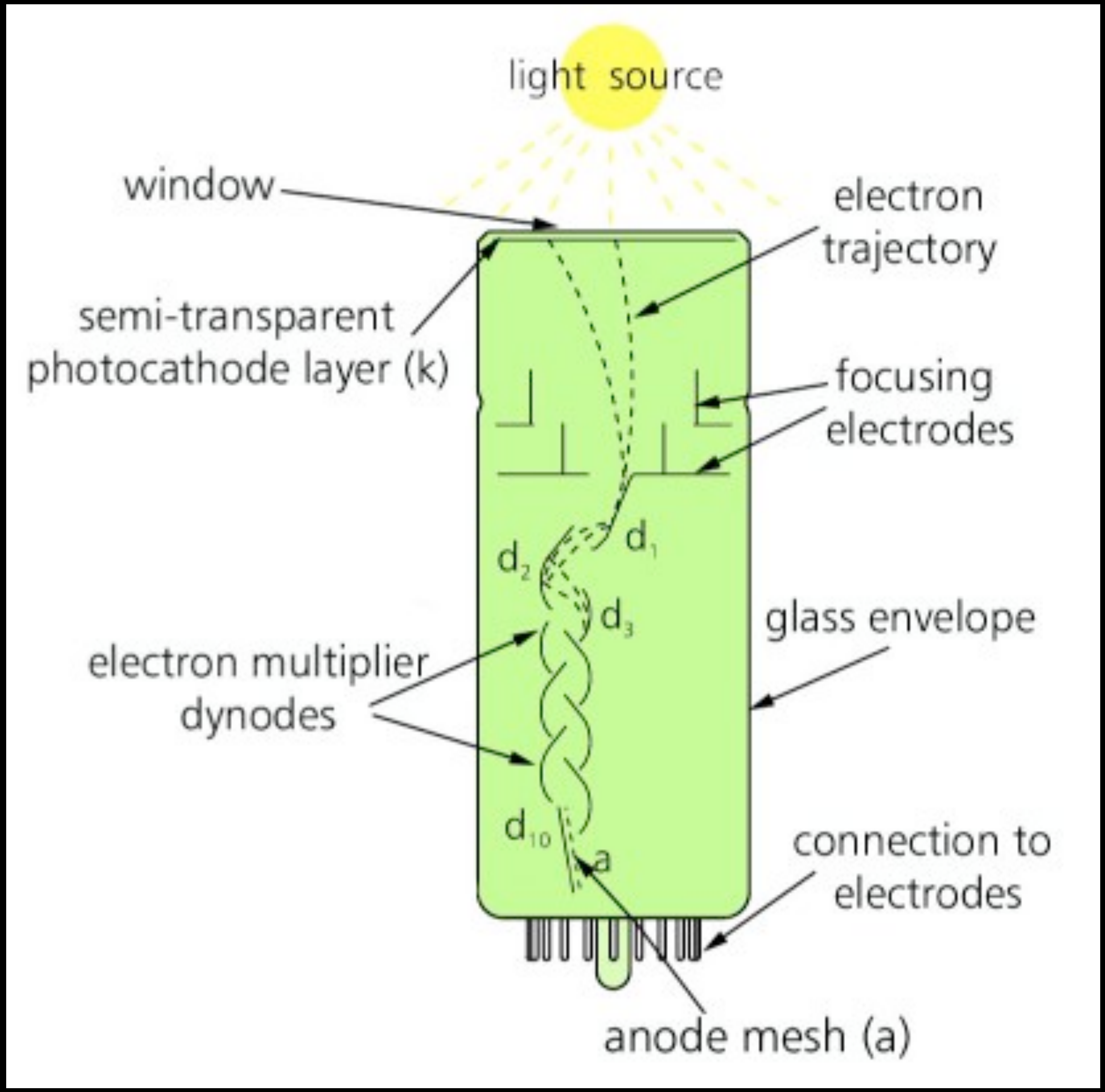
EAS particles: particle detectors

Nani gigantum humeris insidentes (1940s)

Scintillation detectors are historical devices. Rutherford used a scintillating zinc-sulphide screen to count alfa-particles (Crookes tubes). Photons were looked at by eye (by microscopes in dark rooms). Their use was boosted by the invention of PMTs.



The first scintillator counter was invented in 1944 within the Manhattan Project



Photomultipliers tubes were developed in mid 40s (after World War II)

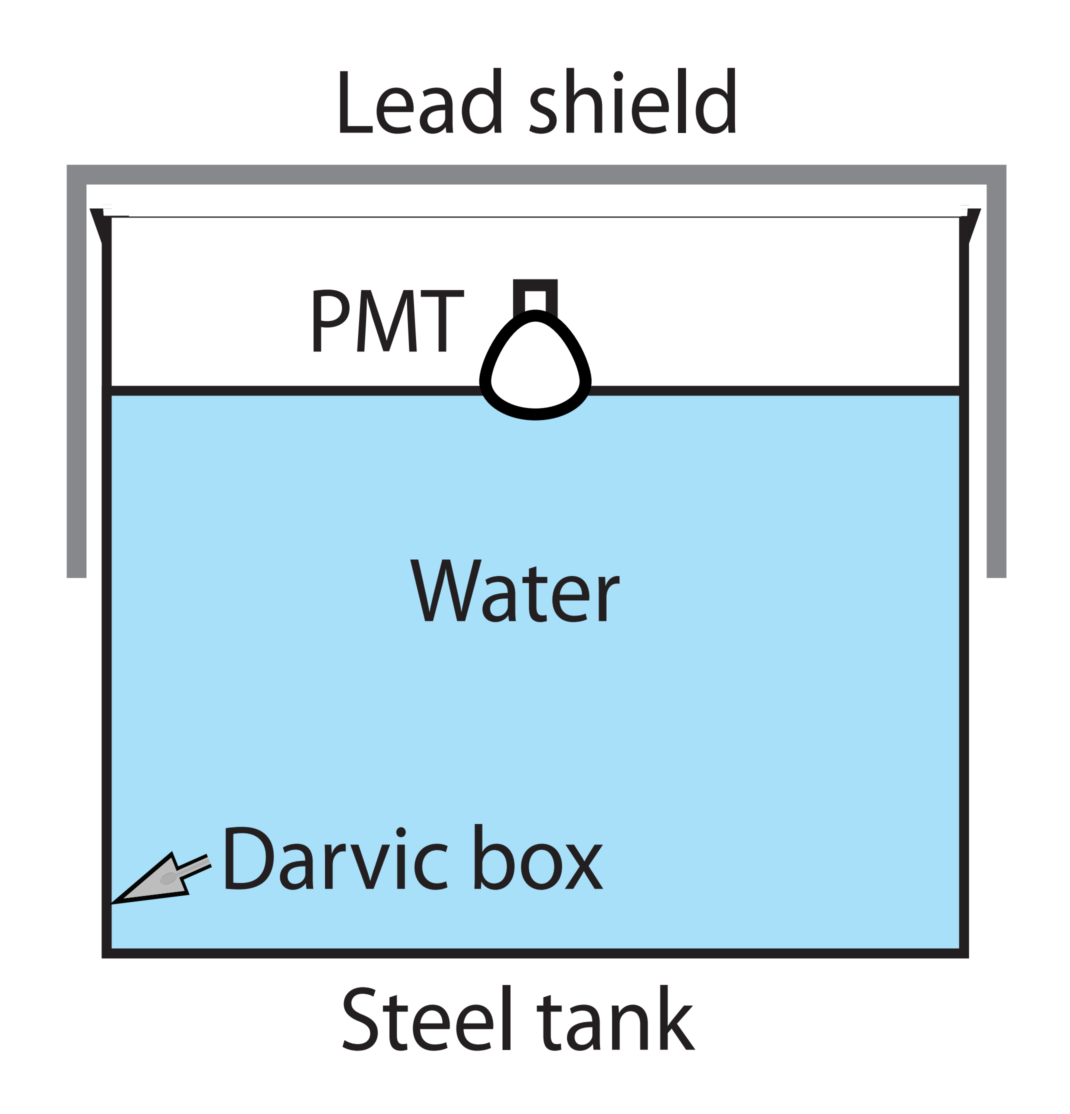
EAS particles: particle detectors

Nani gigantum humeris insidentes (1950s)

When a particle moves through a medium at a velocity greater than c, it emits Cherenkov radiation (Cherenkov, Frank, Tamm, 1933).

[N.B. In Russia, the radiation is called Vavilov-Cherenkov radiation (Vavilov was Cherenkov's director)]

The idea of using the Cherenkov effect in water for particle detection dates back to the 1950s



SCHEME OF THE FIRST WCD.
DEPTH WATER = 92 CM, AREA = 1.44 M²

Water-Cherenkov detectors were first developed at Culham UK (Porter, 1958).

They used a box of Darvic, a material used for sandwich boxes containing an inhibitor of bacterial growth. This allowed to prevent bacterial growth in unfiltered water and realise a stable detector.

EAS radiation: Cherenkov detectors

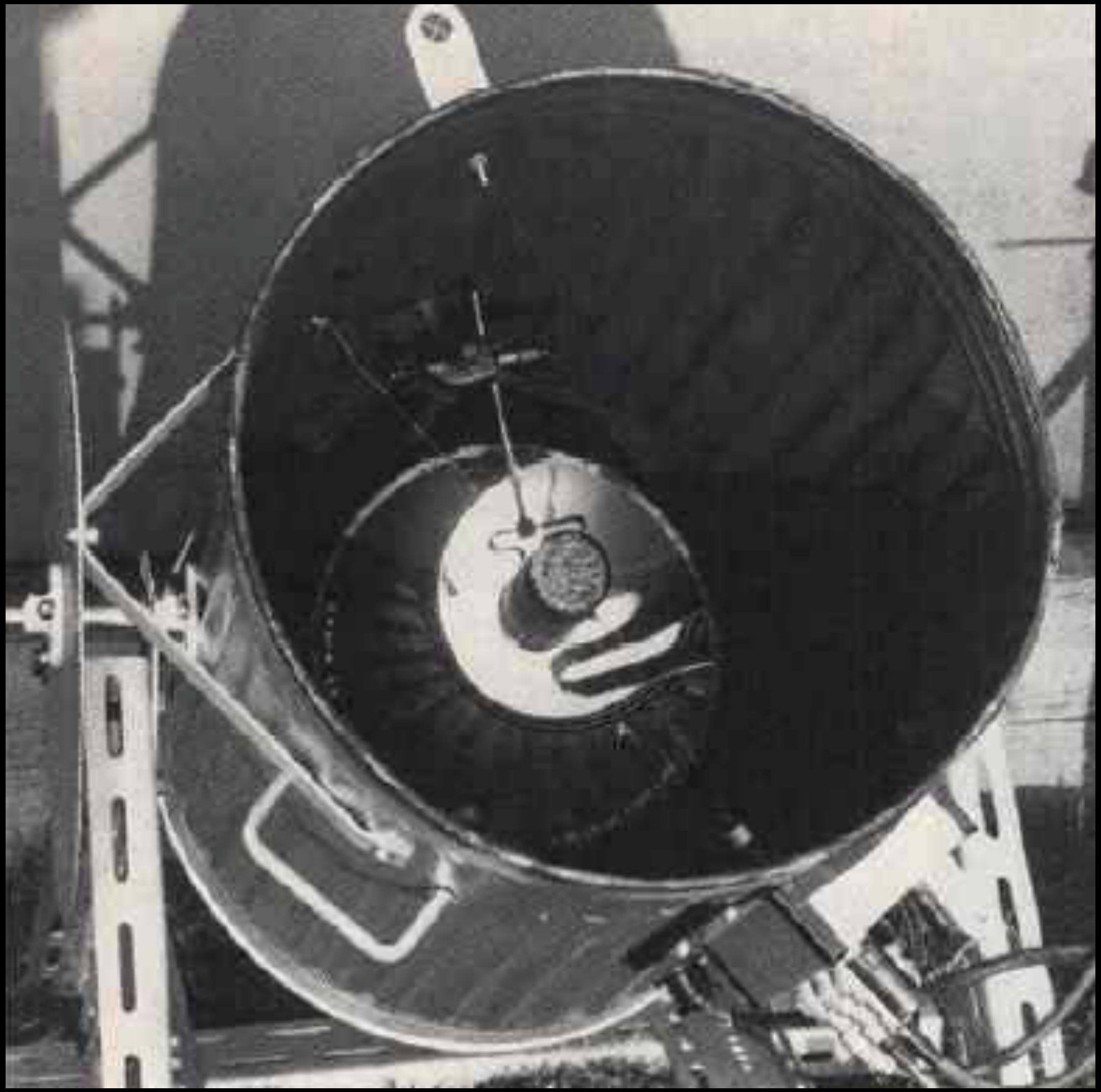
Nani gigantum humeris insidentes (Blackett, Galbraith, Jelley)

Cherenkov effect again, but, in this case, in air (1940s-1950s)

In 1948, Blackett was the first to discuss Cherenkov radiation in air concluding that CR showers should produce a flash of light that one should be able to see lying down and looking upwards under dark sky conditions, an investigation which Blackett carried out himself. The outcome of his "experiment" is unknown.

Soon after PMTs were invented, and used to detect Cherenkov light produced by showers (Galbraith and Kelley, 1952).

The technique has a low duty cycle (cloudless, moonless nights)



GALBRAITH, KELLEY (1952): CHERENKOV LIGHT EXPERIMENT IN A GARBAGE CAN

EAS radiation: Fluorescence detectors

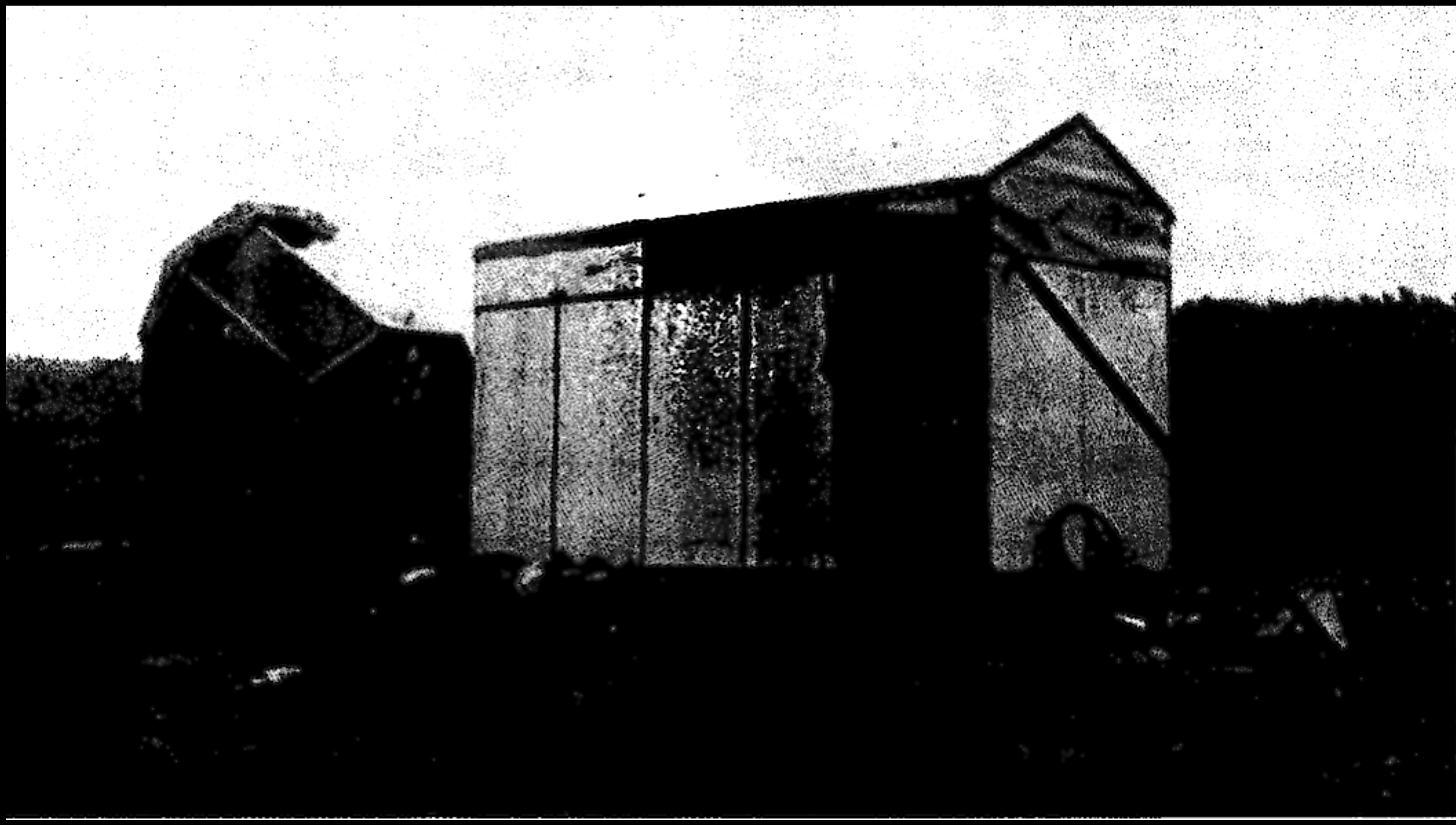
Nani gigantum humeris insidentes: Suga, Chudakov, Greisen (1960s)

Charged particles from EAS interact with Nitrogen molecules in air. Nitrogen molecules (1N and 2P bands) get excited and they emit (when returning to their ground state) a radiation in the wavelength range between 300 nm to 400 nm.

The fluorescence yield at 300-400 nm is approx. 4-5 photons per particle per meter of track in the atmosphere.

This fluorescence light is emitted isotropically. It can travel several km in atmosphere and be detected by optical telescopes, i.e., mirrors and PMTs equipped with fast electronics.

Only ≈0.5% of dE/dX goes into fluorescence. This technique can be exploited only at UHE (above 10^{17} eV). It has a low duty cycle (cloudless, moonless nights)



First detector of fluorescence light that actually detected light from EAS (TOKYO-1, Japan, 1969)

Radio emission: radio detectors

***Nani gigantum humeris insidentes* (Jelley, Askaryan, Kahn &Lerche, 1960s)**

The possibility that the shower particles itself may emit at radio wavelengths was first suggested by John Jelley in his book on Cherenkov radiation (1958). Early measurements were unsuccessful.

Then, Askaryan (1962) suggested that the em shower could contain an excess of electrons, caused by the in-flight annihilation of positrons. Because the relativistic electrons move in a thin disk, they could emit coherent Cherenkov radiation at wavelengths of a few metres, hence in the MHz range. First observations at 44 MHz were reported by Jelley (1965) in coincidence with GM counters.

Kahn and Lerche (1966) were the first to show the importance of the Earth's magnetic field in determining the intensity of the radio pulse.

Self-triggering experiments failed and the technique was abandoned until the beginning of the XXI century.

RADIO-ONLY EXPERIMENT IN UK (1969) WITH FOUR CONICAL ANTENNAS OPERATING BETWEEN 30 AND 60 MHZ, TRIGGERING AN OSCILLOSCOPE AND RECORDING CAMERA UPON COINCIDENCES BETWEEN PULSES FROM THE ANTENNAS.

“Old” detectors in modern EAS experiments

Examples of particles detectors

Pros: ≈ 100% duty cycle

Cons: observation of the EAS at a unique fixed depth

*RPC = Resistive Plate Chambers

"Old" detectors in modern EAS experiments

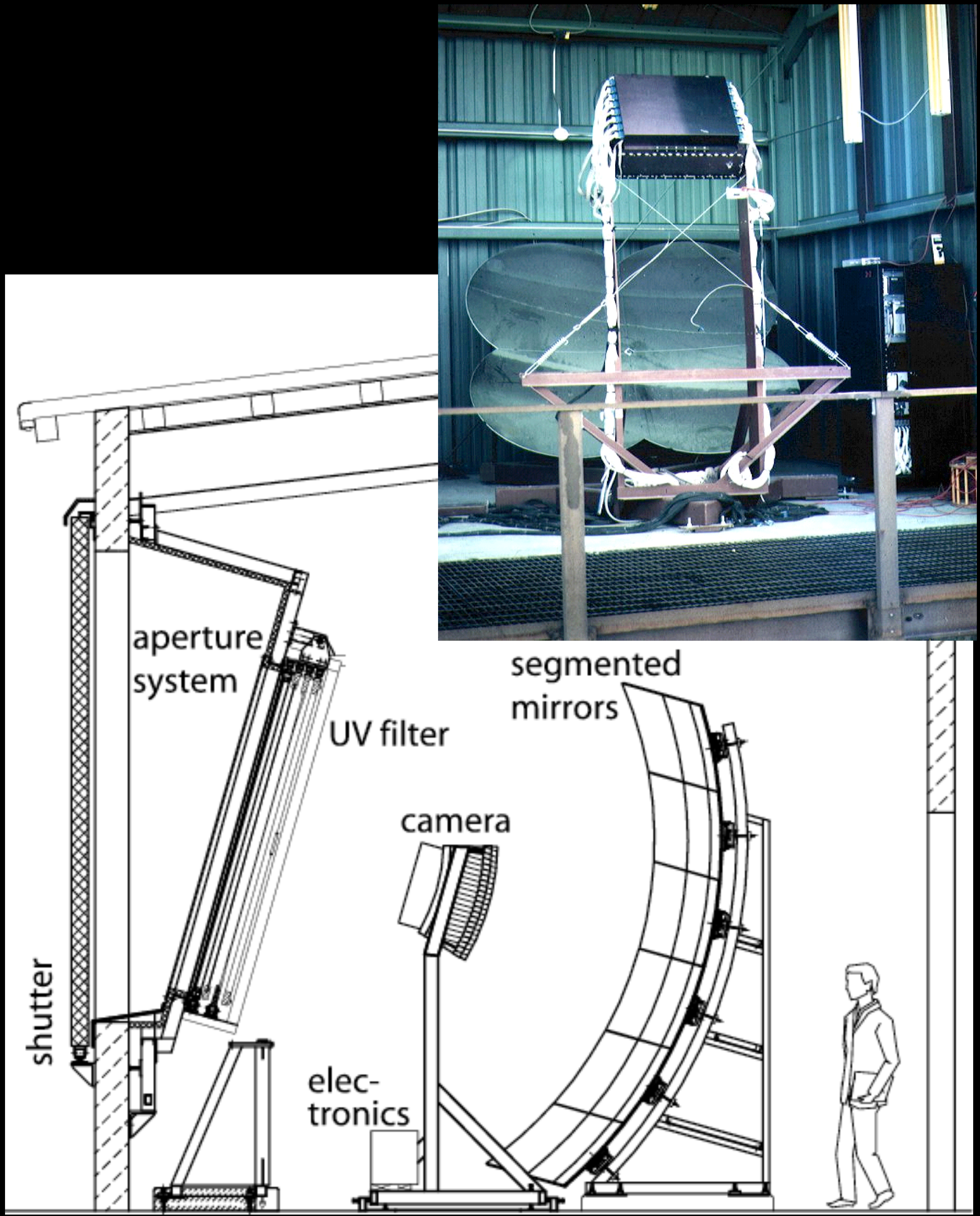
Observable = light (Cherenkov or fluorescence)

Cherenkov or fluorescence light is collected by a mirror and imaged onto a camera made by PMTs. Each PMT receives light coming from a specific region of the sky.

When an EAS crosses the field of view of the telescope, it triggers some of the PMTs. Each PMT records the trigger time and the intensity of the signal.

Pros: observation of the EAS longitudinal development, i.e., at various depths

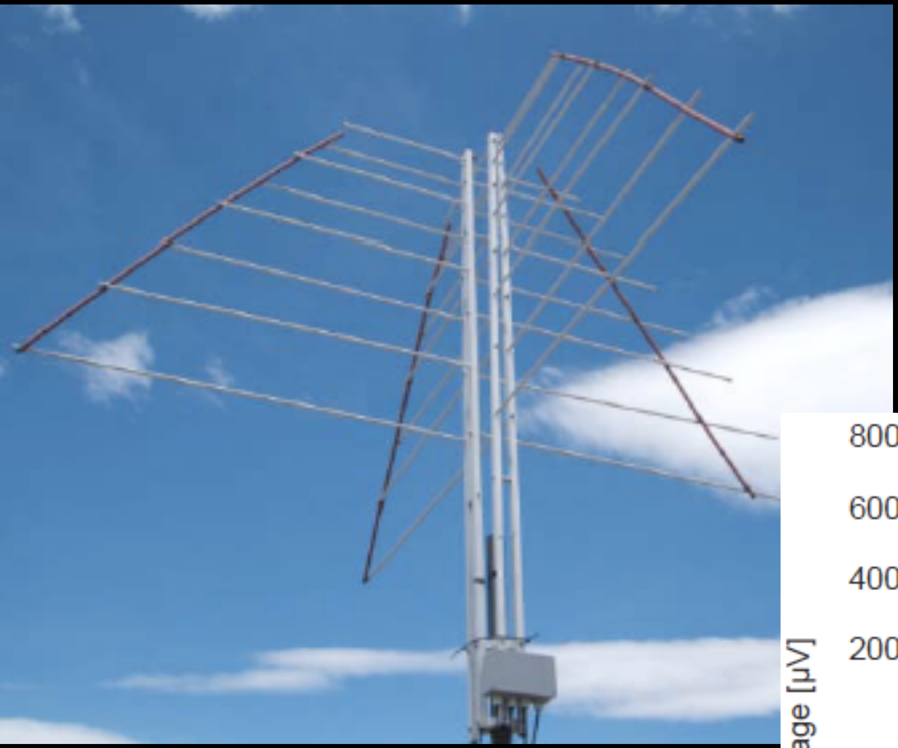
Cons: ≈ 10% duty cycle

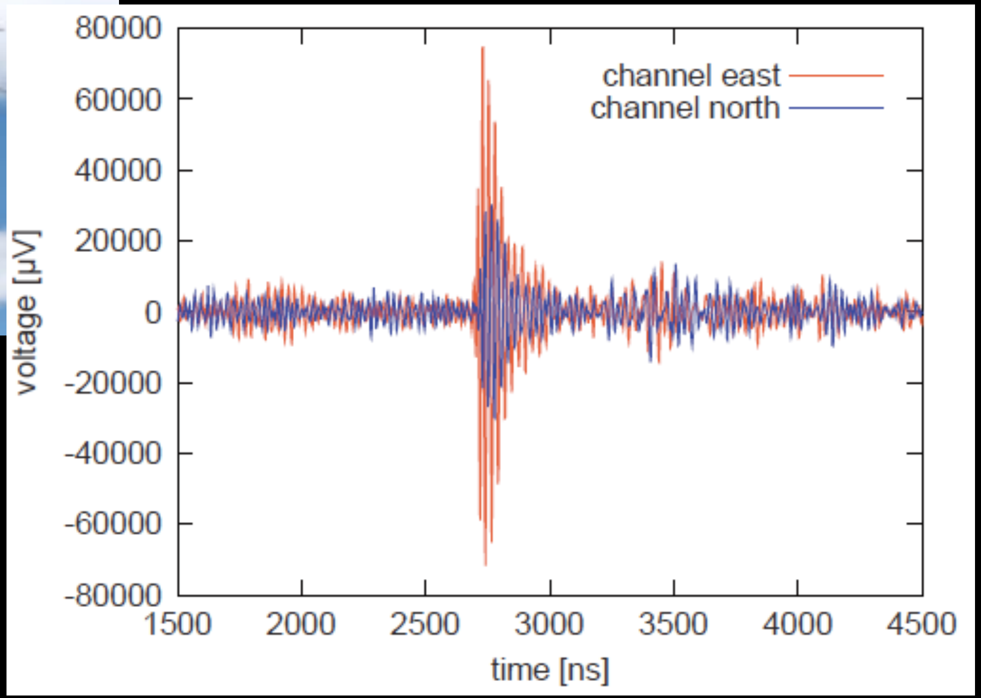


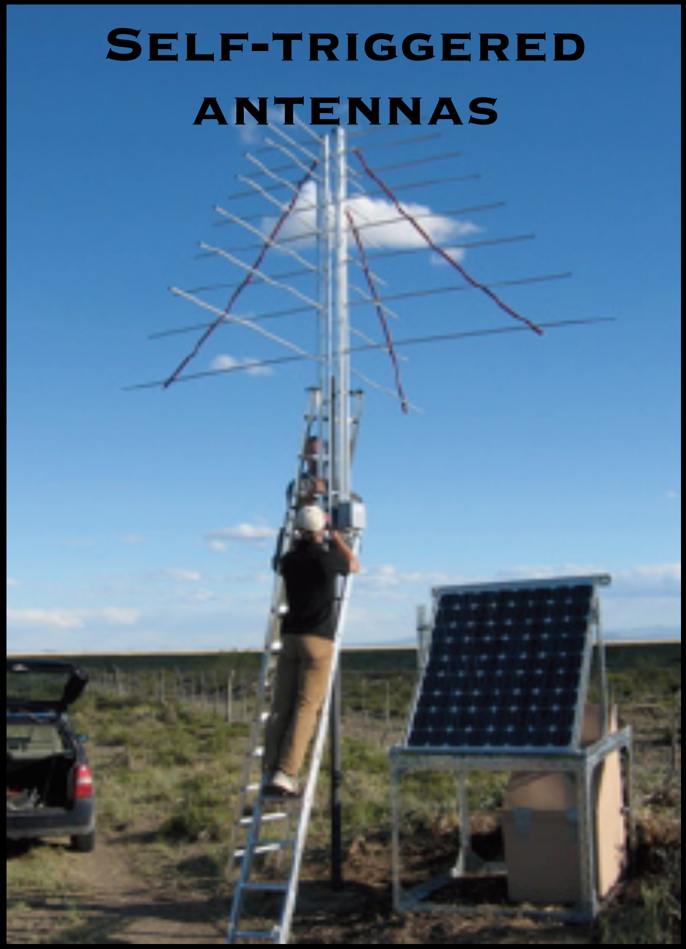
"Old" detectors in modern EAS experiments

Observable = radio signal

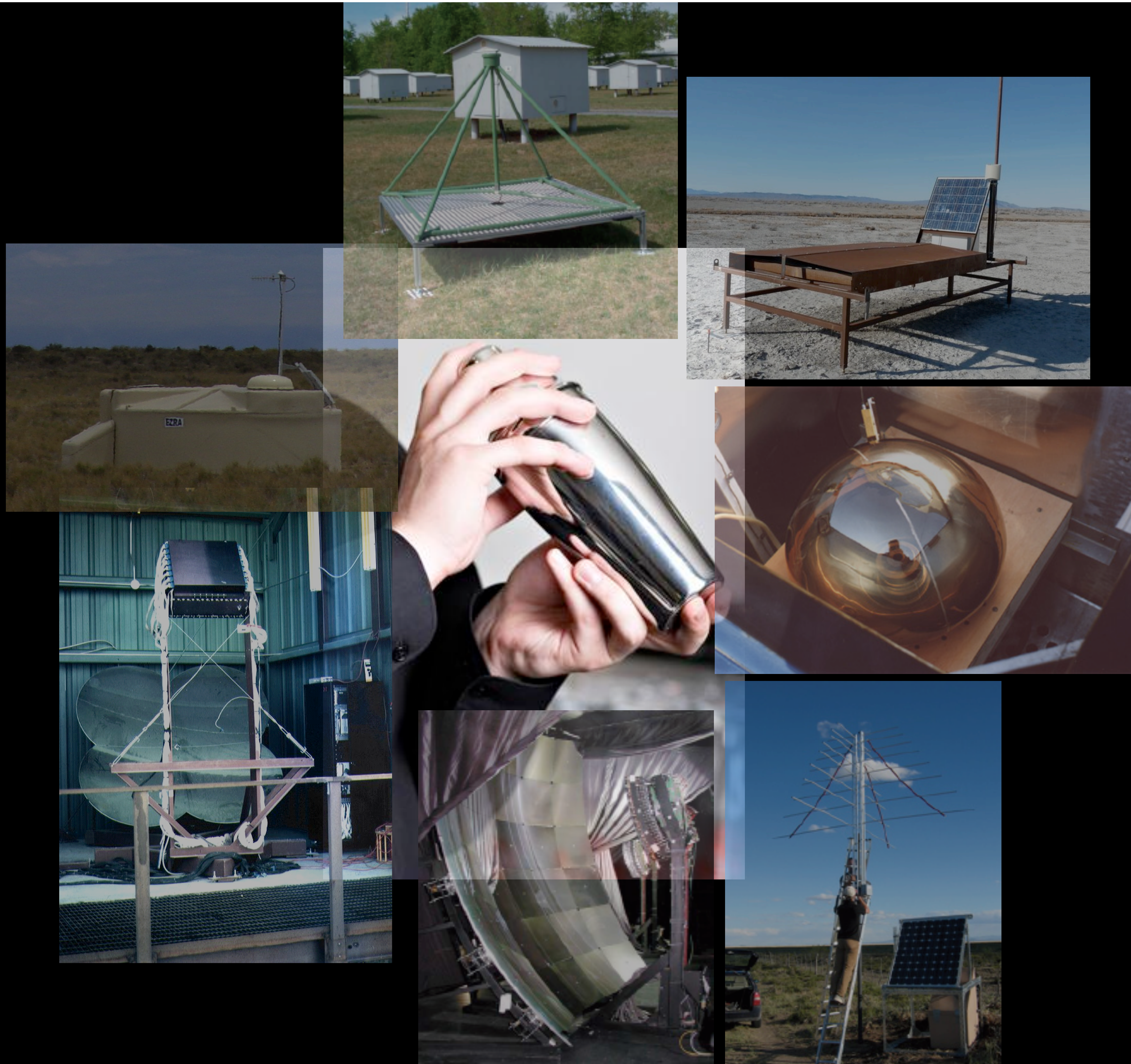
The measurement of the radio signal requires a radio antenna. Typically, one detector station consists of two antennas that are aligned perpendicular to each other, to allow for a measurement of the signal in two polarisation (EW-NS). Antennas can be triggered by traditional EAS arrays, or self-trigger.







Detectors are combined into EAS telescopes/arrays…



…In a way that depends on the energy of interest…

Choice of detectors spacing and array altitude impacts on energy threshold

Total area of the array limits the maximum energy

At 10^{11}-10^{13} eV (superposition with DIRECT MEASUREMENTS)

- Air showers are re-absorbed high in the atmosphere: very high altitude needed
- Air shower are “small”: small spacing needed or full ground coverage (to go down to ≈ 10^{11} eV)
- High fluxes: “small” areas sufficient

At 10^{14}-10^{16} eV

- Shower maximum still high in the atmosphere: moderate mountain altitude needed
- Moderate detector spacing needed (<100 m)
- Rather low fluxes: moderately large areas needed (0.1 km^2)

At 10^{17}-10^{18} eV

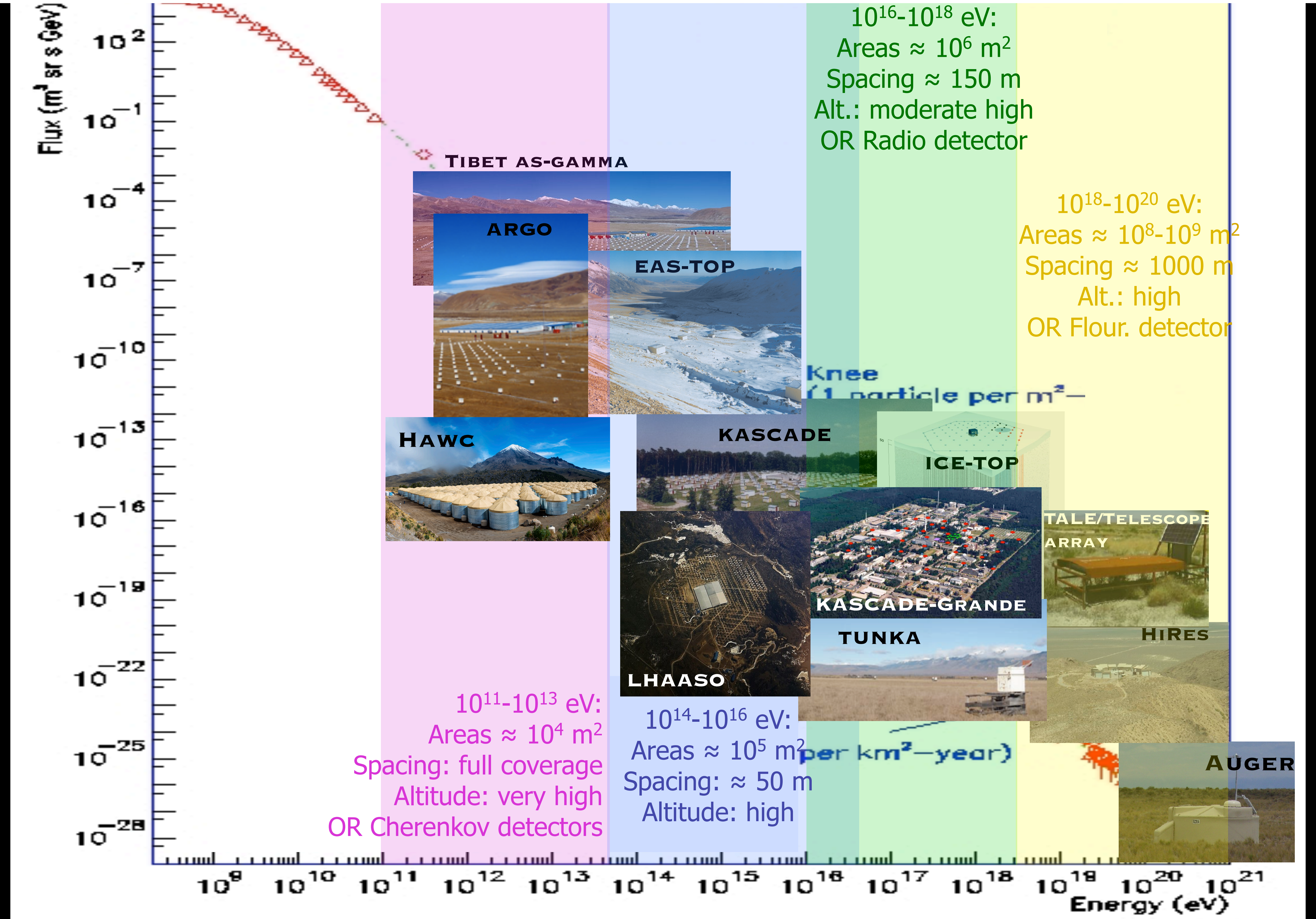
- Shower maximum deeper in atmosphere: sea level enough
- Low fluxes: areas ≈ 1 km^2 needed (detector spacing ≈ 150 m)

Above 10^{18} eV

- Extremely low fluxes: huge area needed (≈1000 km^2)
- Giant showers: adequate spacing ≈ 1000 m

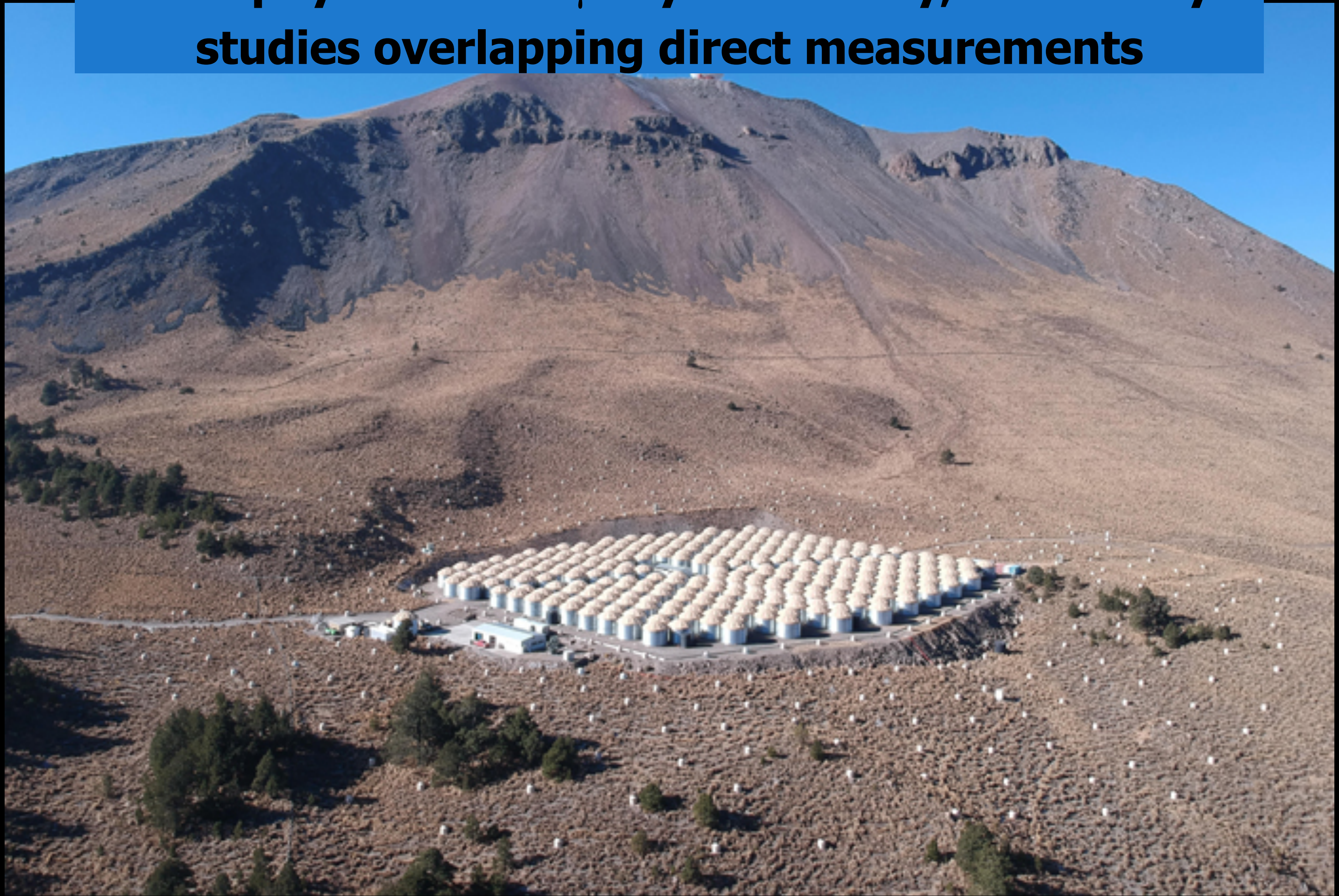
N. B. Ideal detector: all (or many) of the shower components (multi-component, or hybrid, detector)

…In a way that depends on the energy of interest…



e.g., TO MEASURE COSMIC RAYS AT ≈ 10^{11}-10^{14} EV: HAWC

4100 m a.s.l (Mexico)
300 adjacent water-Cherenkov
+ 345 sparse small ones
Area ≈ 8×10^4 m^2
In operation
Energy range: 5 10^{11}-5 10^{14} eV
Main physics aims: γ-ray astronomy, cosmic ray studies overlapping direct measurements

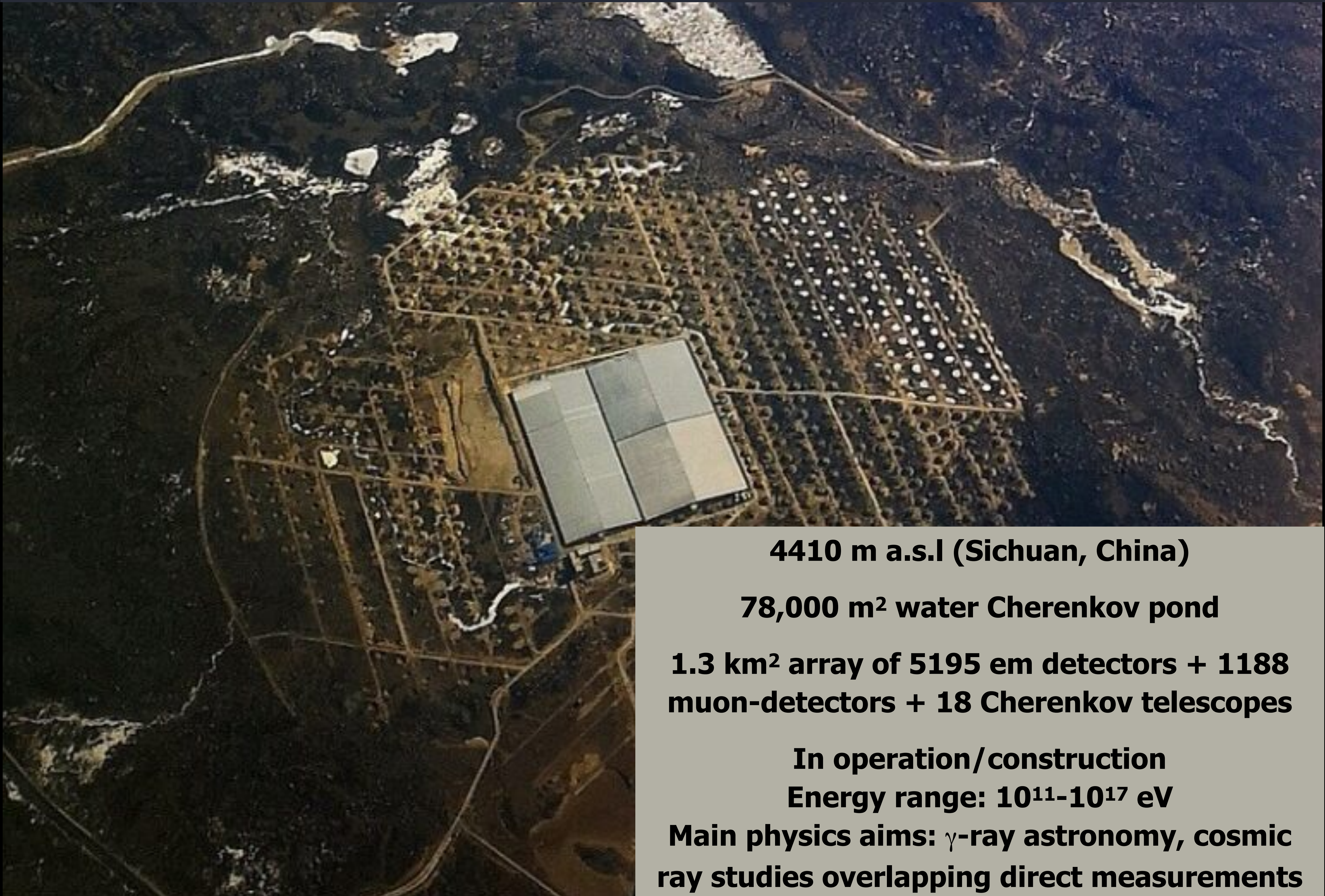


TO MEASURE COSMIC RAYS AT ≈ 10^{13}-10^{15} EV: TIBET AS-GAMMA

4300 m a.s.l (Tibet)
697 scintillators @ 7.5 m

36 scintillators @ 15 m
Area ≈ $4x10^{4}$ m^{2}
In operation
Energy range: 10^{12}-10^{15} eV
Main physics aims: γ-ray astronomy, cosmic ray studies overlapping direct measurements

e.g., TO MEASURE COSMIC RAYS AT ≈ 10^{13}-10^{16} EV: LHAASO



4410 m a.s.l (Sichuan, China)

78,000 m^2 water Cherenkov pond

1.3 km^2 array of 5195 em detectors + 1188 muon-detectors + 18 Cherenkov telescopes

In operation/construction
Energy range: 10^{11}-10^{17} eV
Main physics aims: γ-ray astronomy, cosmic ray studies overlapping direct measurements

TO MEASURE COSMIC RAYS AT ≈ 10^{14}-10^{17} EV: ICETOP


Freezing PMT domes


Installation of a detector

South Pole (on top of IceCube)
80 stations: 160 ice Cherenkov detectors
In operation
125 m spacing, area ≈ 10^6 m^2
Energy range: 10^{14}-10^{17} eV

Credit Desy Zeuthen

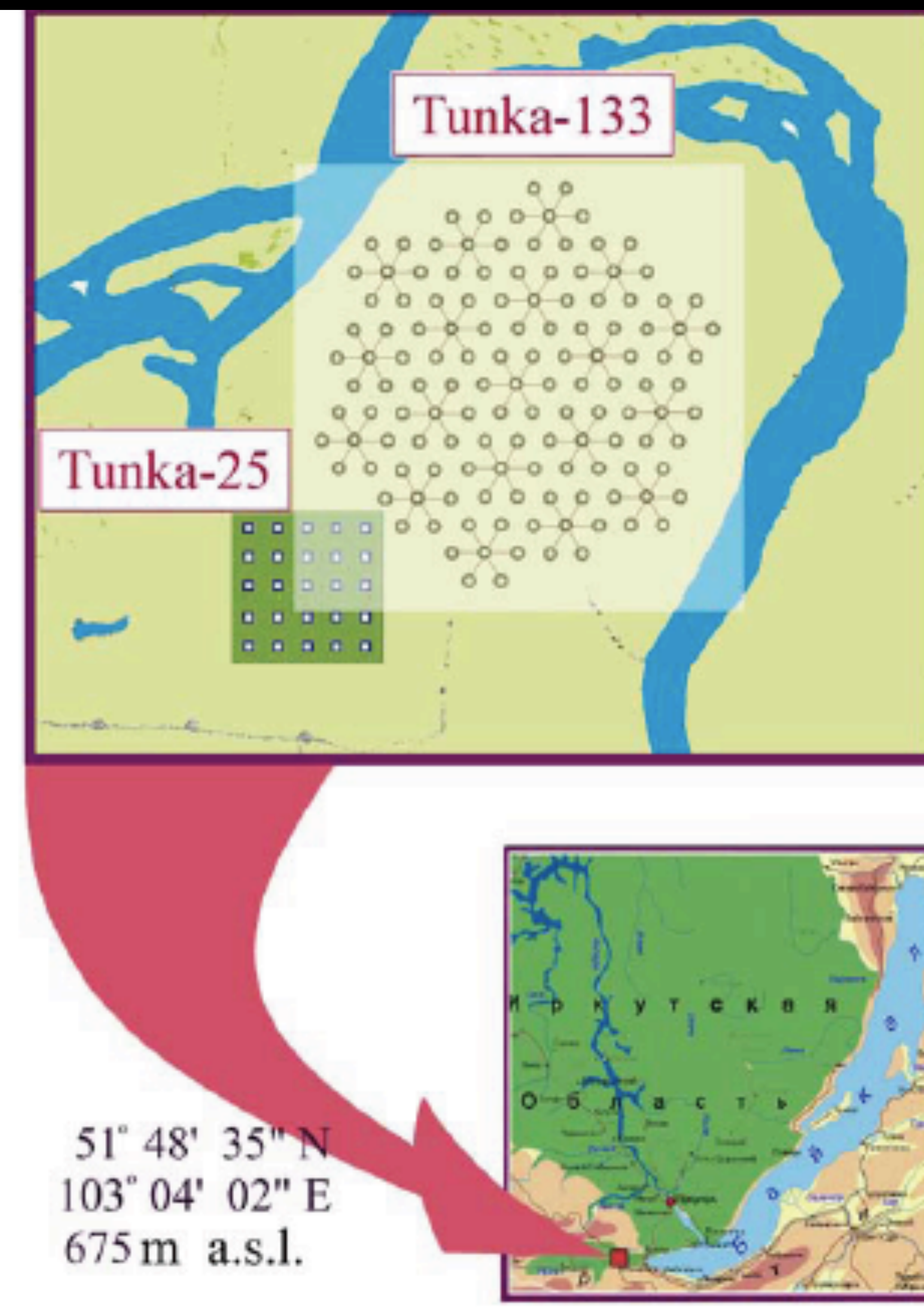
TO MEASURE COSMIC RAYS AT ≈ 10^{15}-10^{18} EV: TUNKA

Tunka Valley (Russia), 700 m a.s.l.

133 open-air Cherenkov detectors; 19 clusters of 7 detectors each

In operation

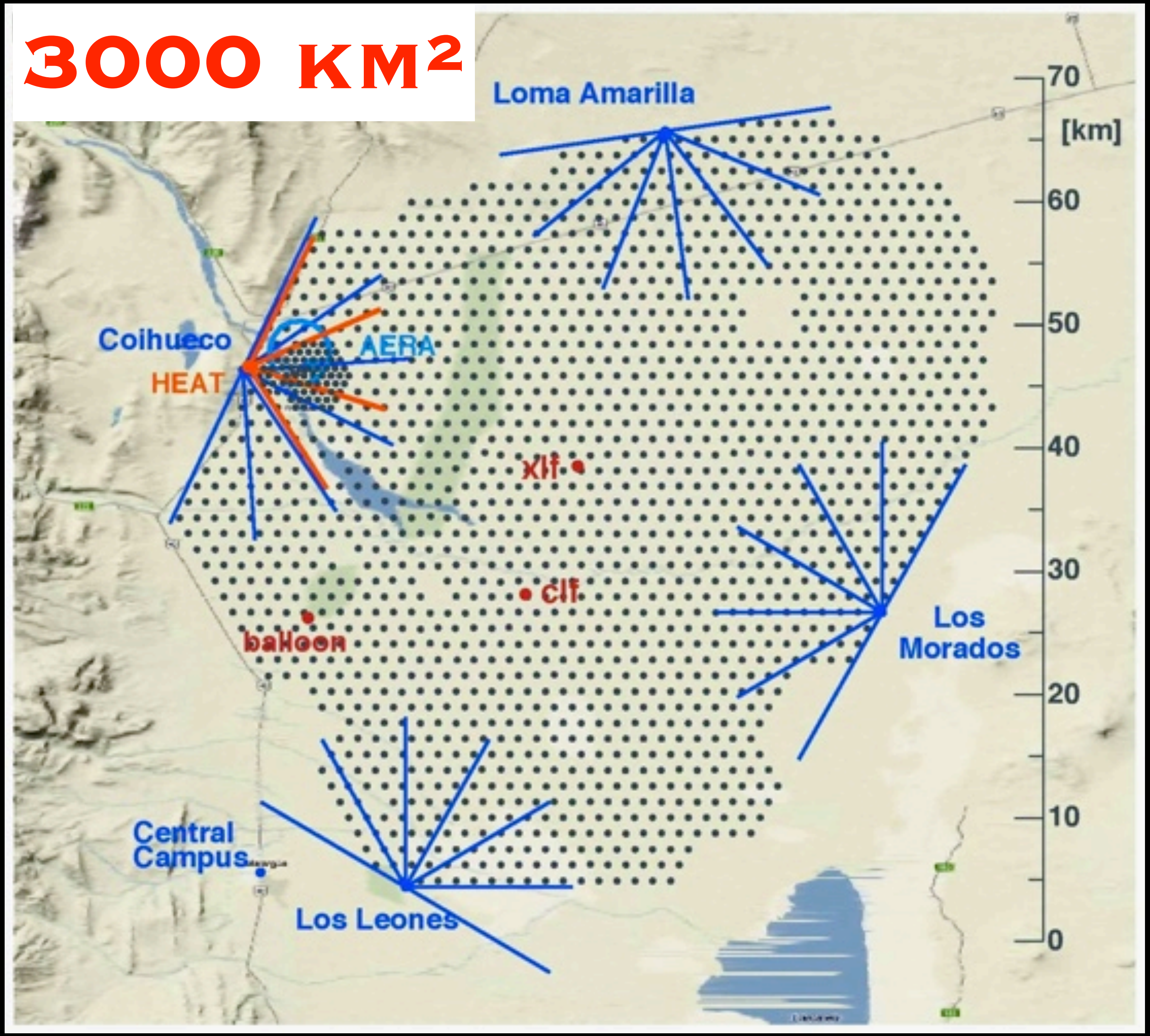
Area 1 km^2; Energy range: 10^{15}-5×10^{18} eV



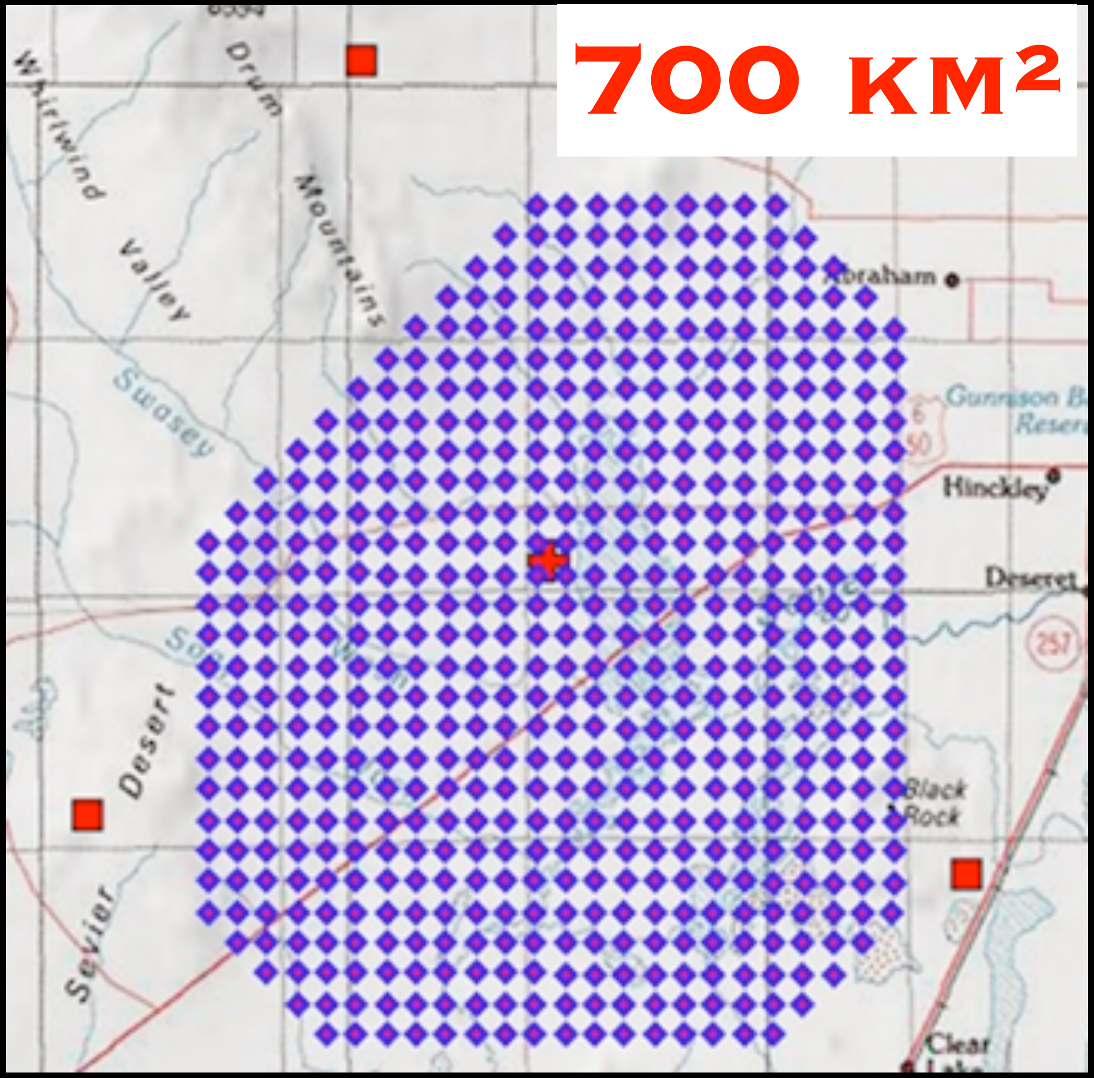
To measure cosmic rays at E > 10^{18} eV

The two current giants!

Since 2004:
Pierre Auger Observatory
Malargüe, Argentina
1660 water-cherenkov detectors,
55 fluorescence detectors
153 radio antennas



Since 2008:
Telescope Array,
Utah, USA
507 scintillator detectors
3 fluorescence detectors

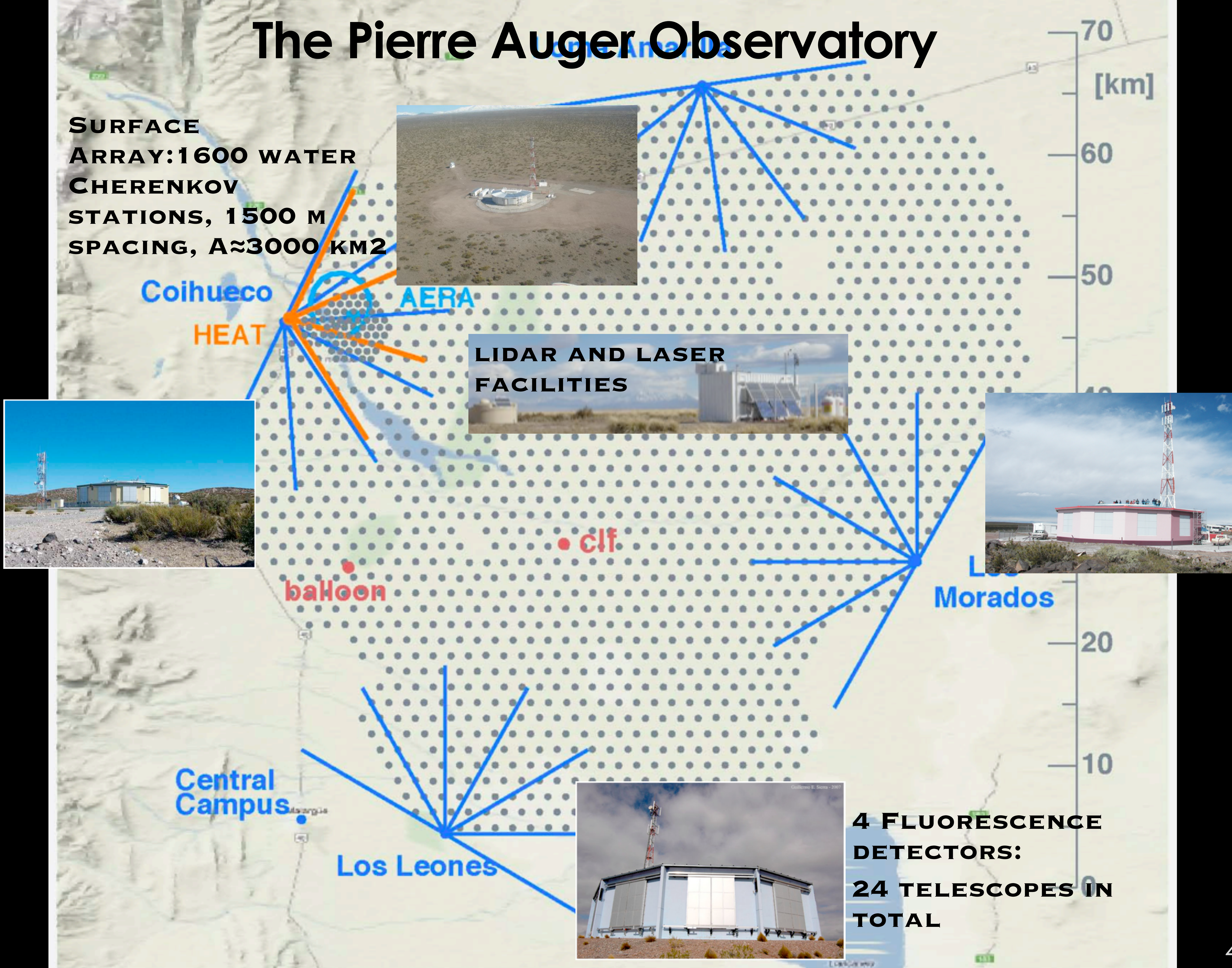


Two exemplary cases: the Pierre Auger Observatory and the Telescope Array:

EAS observables: particles and radiation

The delicacy of the observations

The Pierre Auger Observatory



Surface Array:1600 water Cherenkov stations, 1500 m spacing, A≈3000 km2

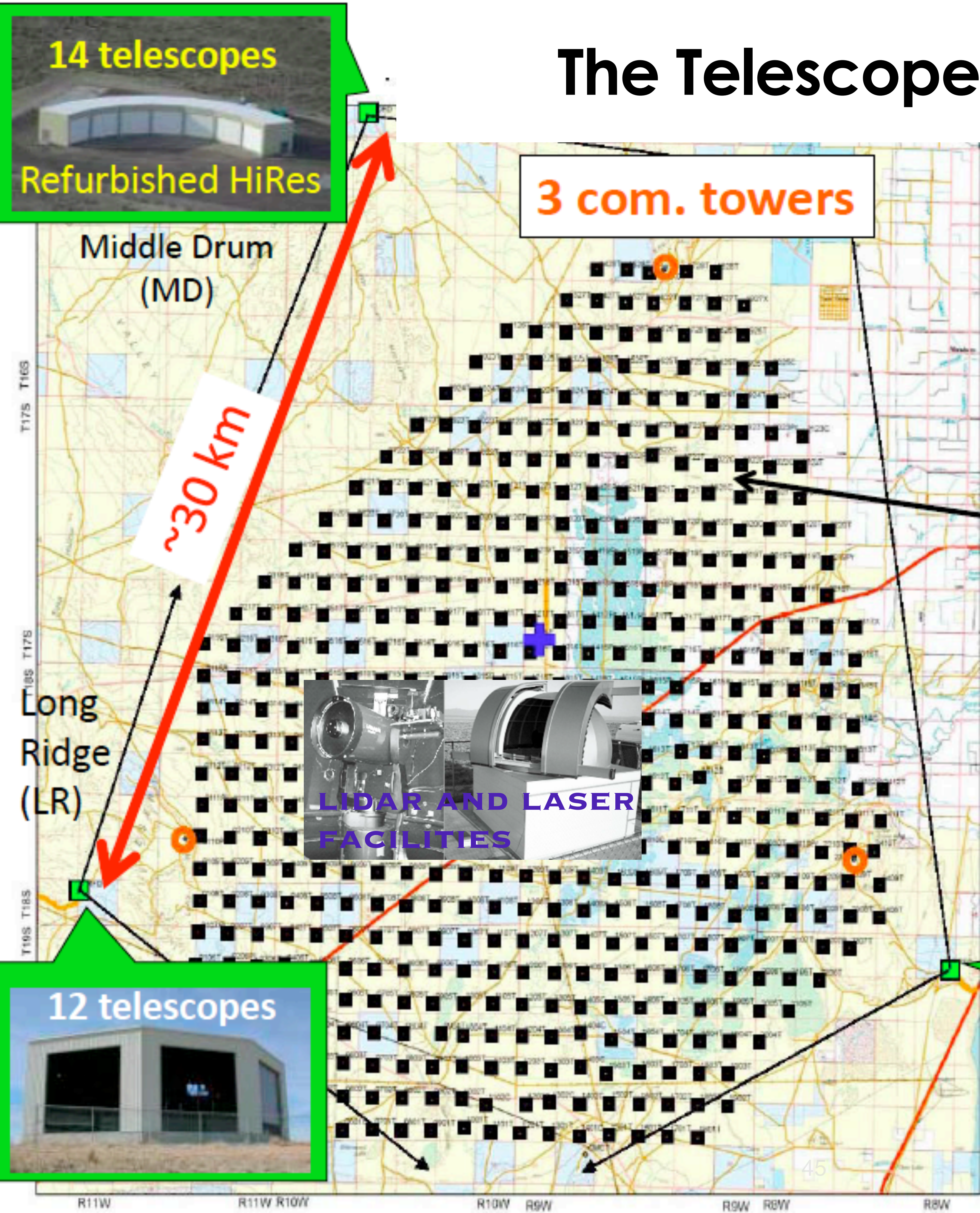
lidar and laser facilities

4 Fluorescence detectors:

24 telescopes in total

The Telescope Array

39.3°N, 112.9°W
~1400 m a.s.l.



Surface Detector (SD)

507 plastic scintillator SDs

1.2 km spacing

700 km²

Fluorescence Detector(FD)

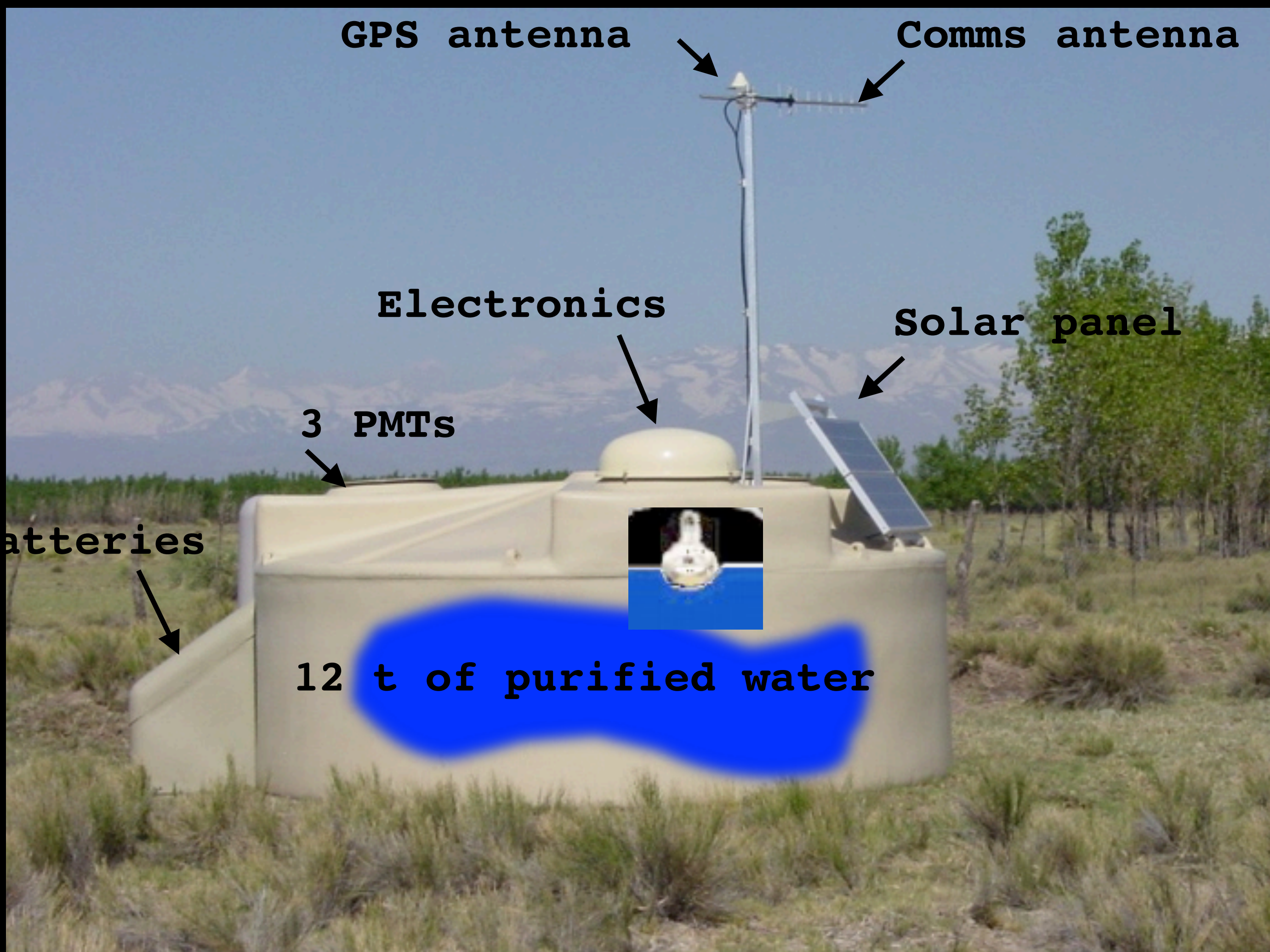
3 stations

38 telescopes

From H. Sagawa, ICRC 2013

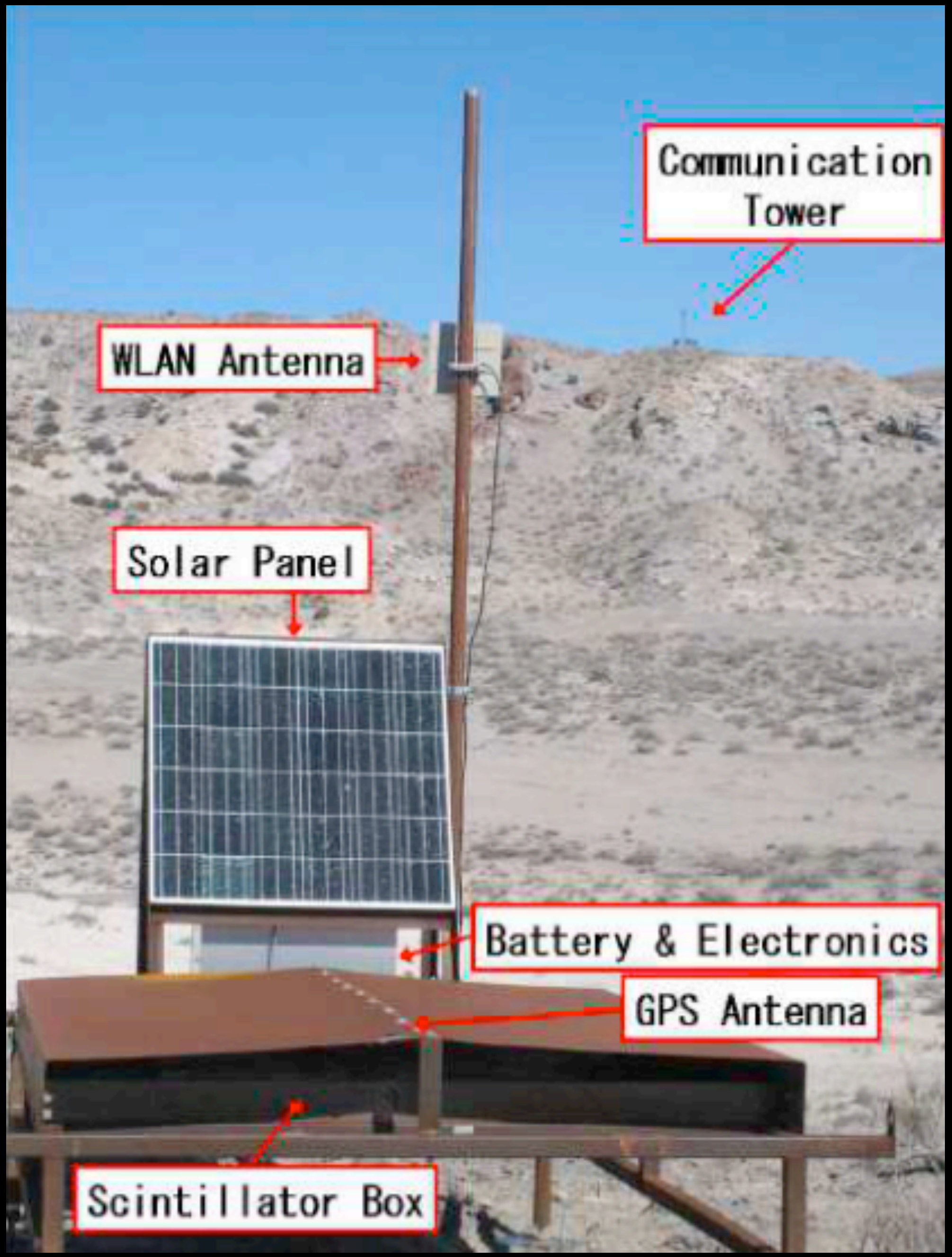
Auger and TA surface detectors

Auger



Water (12 t) Cherenkov detector
3 PMTs/detector
Area: 10 m^2
Thickness: 1.2 m
Acceptance up to 90 deg
Sensitive to em and mu component
(light signal larger for mu)

Telescope Array



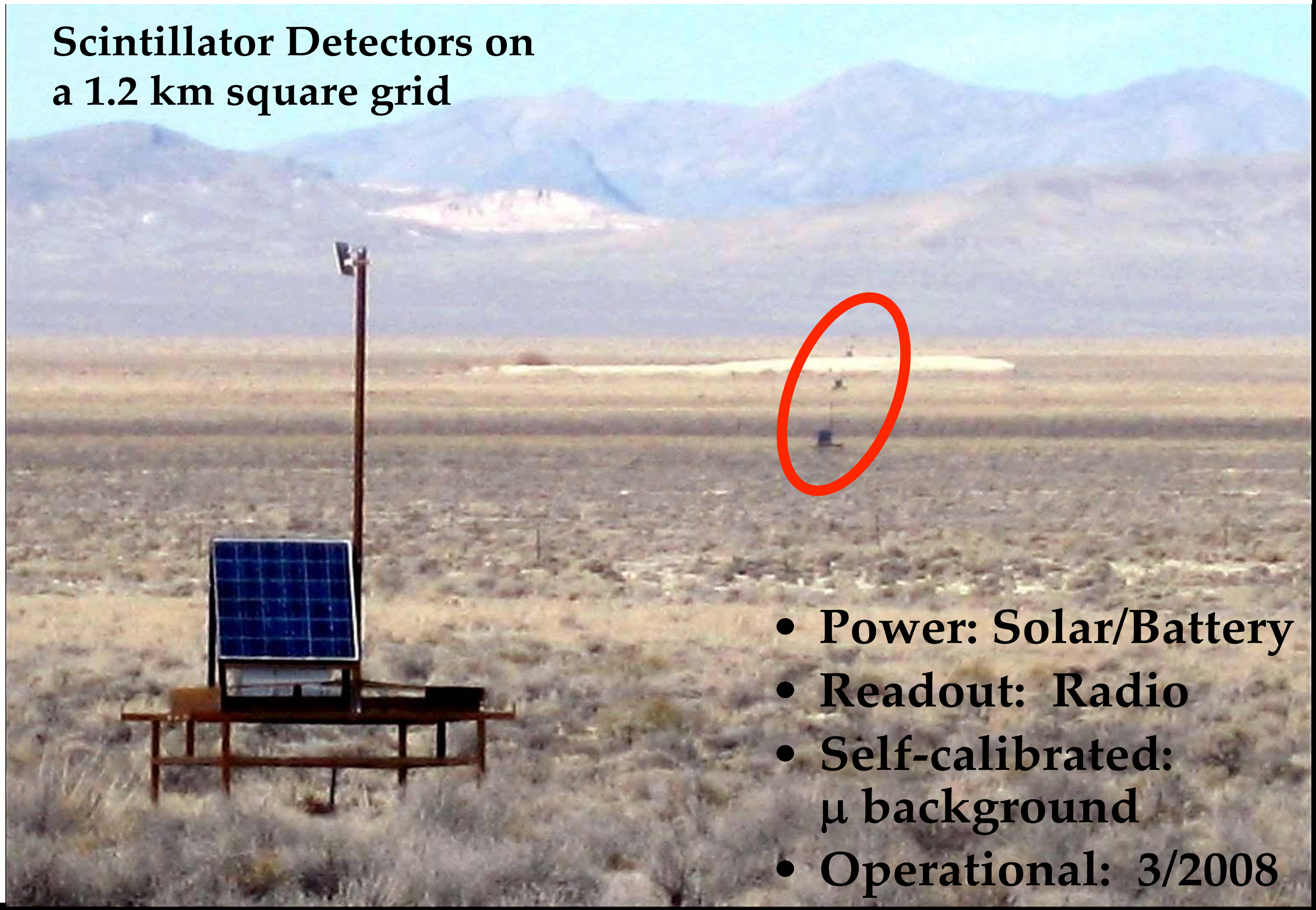
Scintillators
2 PMTs/detector
Area: 3 m^2
Thickness: 1.2 cm
Acceptance up to 55 deg
More sensitive to em component

Auger and TA surface detectors

Auger

Perfectly aligned in the pampa, at a distance of 1.5 km one from another

Telescope Array

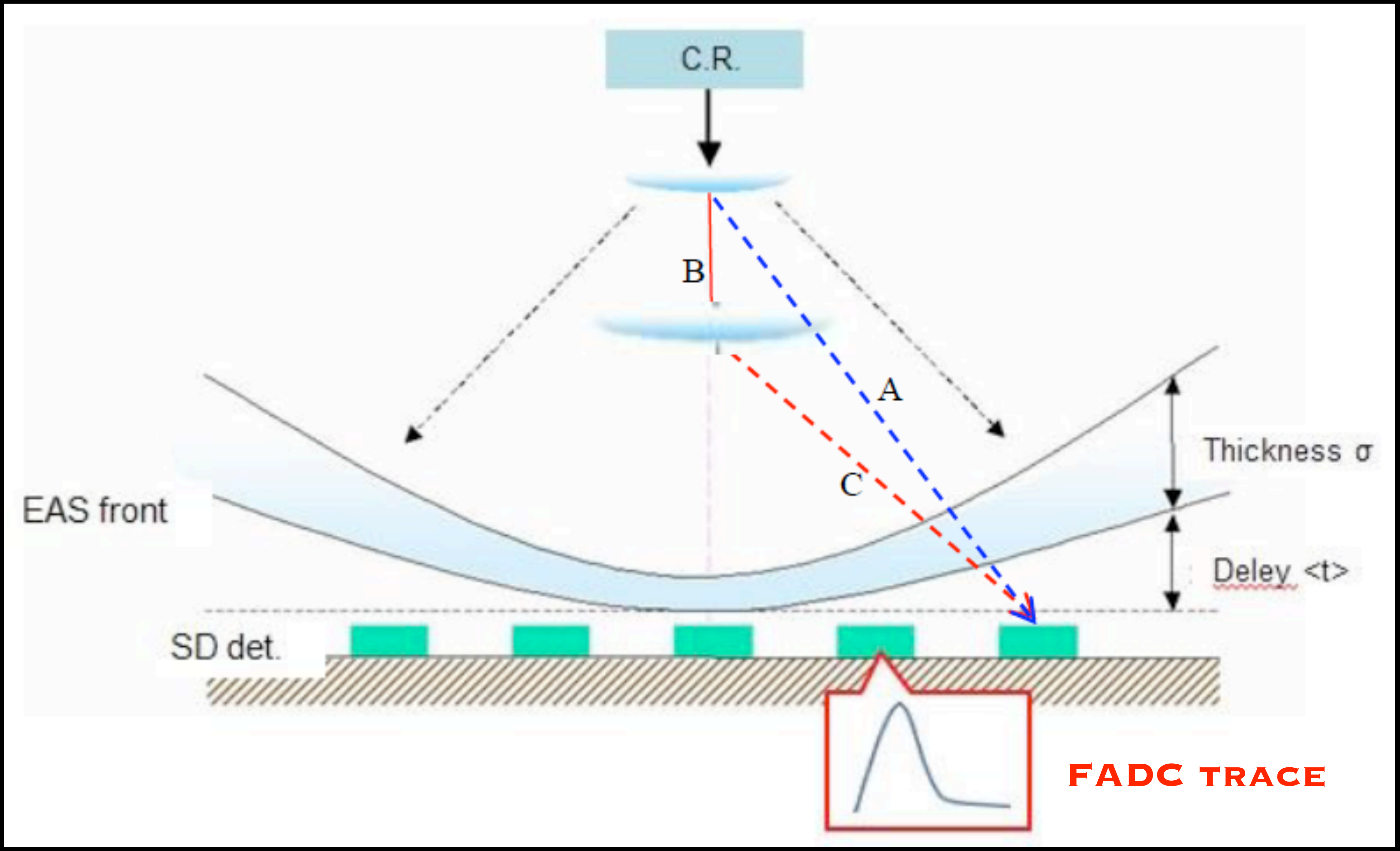


Perfectly aligned in the desert, at a distance of 1.2 km one from another

Pampa, desert:

The adventurous excursion of the observers :-)

EAS signals in surface detectors



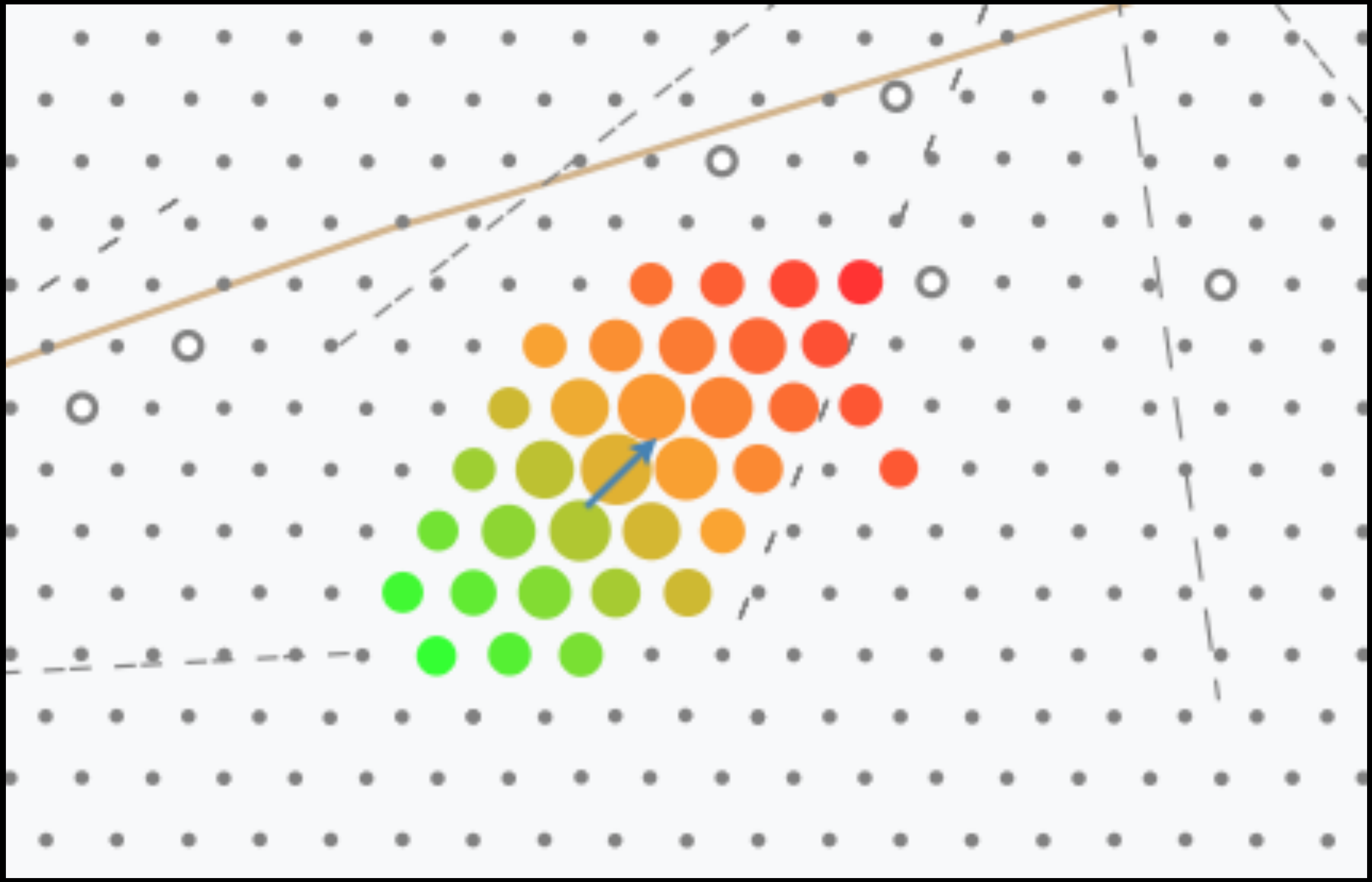
The PMTs signals are <u>digitized</u> by Fast Analog-to-Digital Converters (FADC), with a sampling time of 25 (20) ns

opendata.auger.org

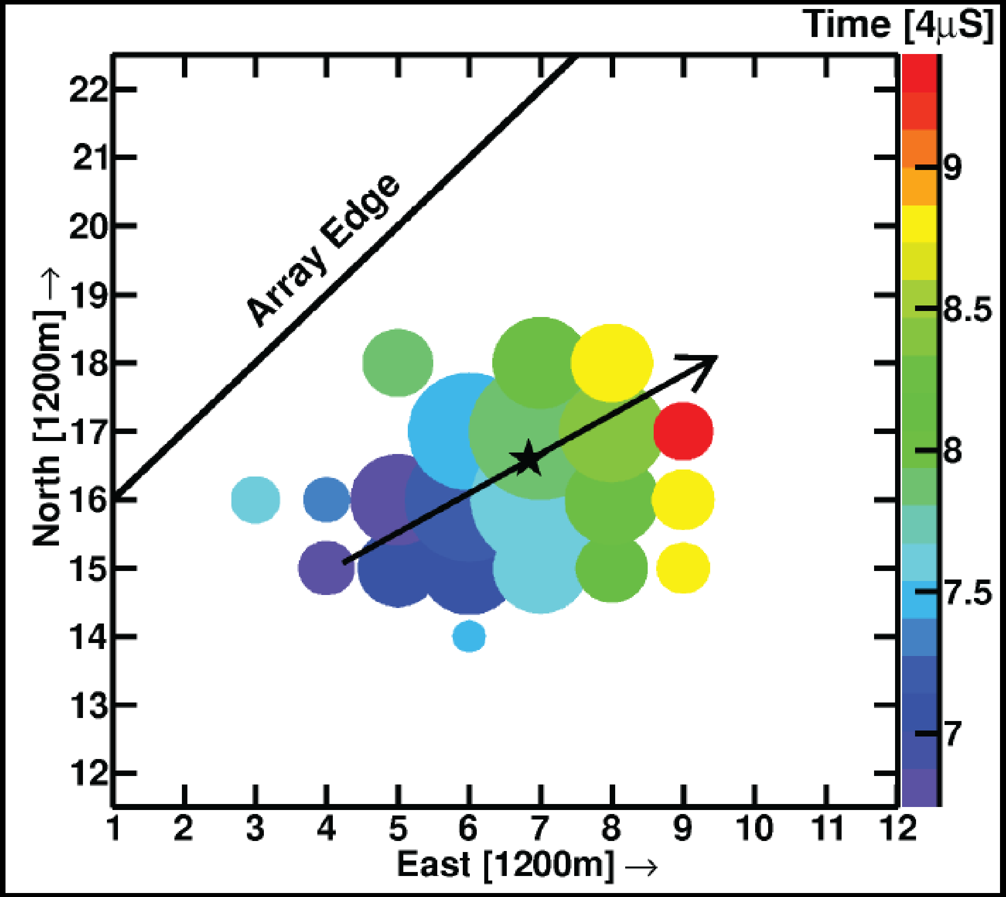
EAS image seen by the surface detectors

When the signals are above a certain threshold in at least 3 detectors within a certain time, the data acquisition starts

Auger



Telescope Array

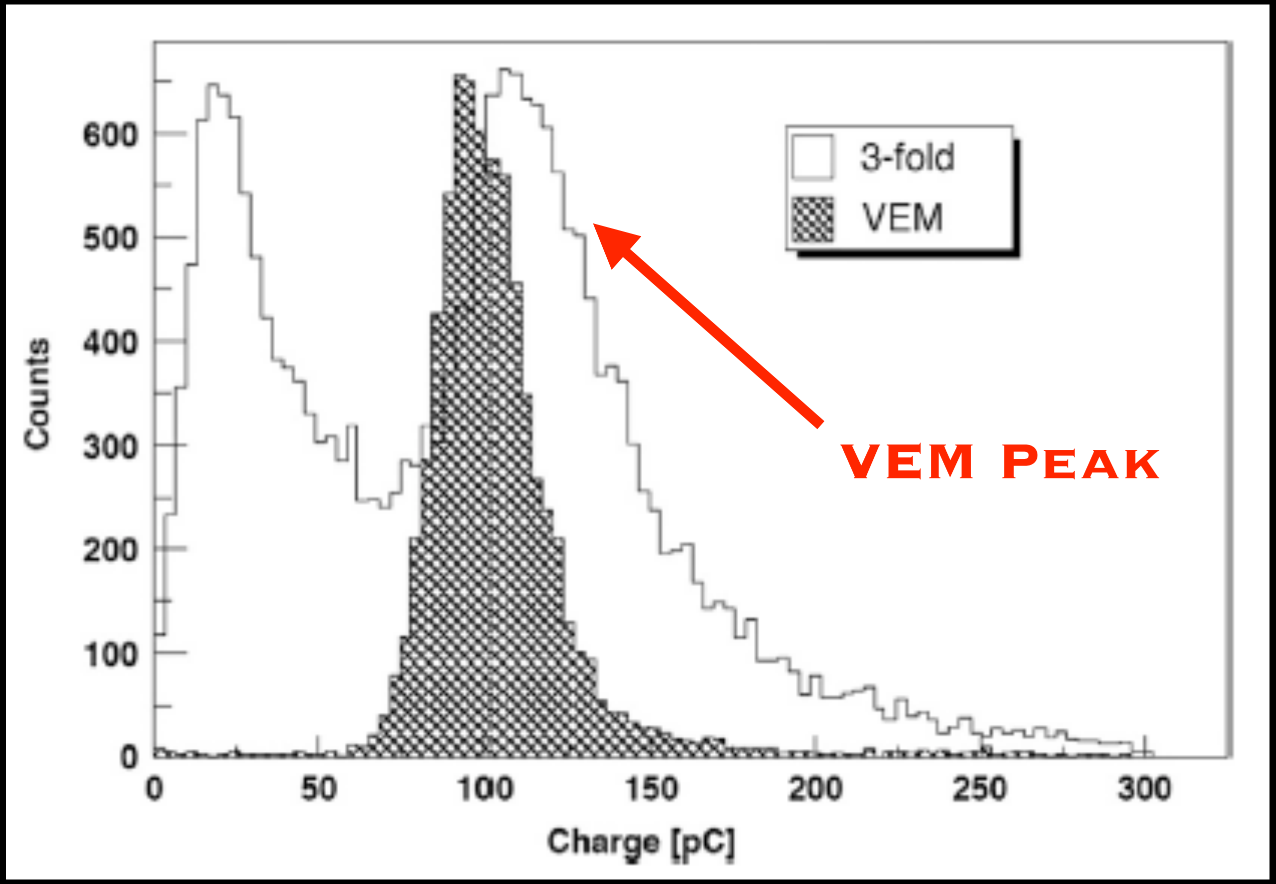


The dimension of the circles is proportional to the number of detected particles. Colors represent the arrival time of the particles in the detectors

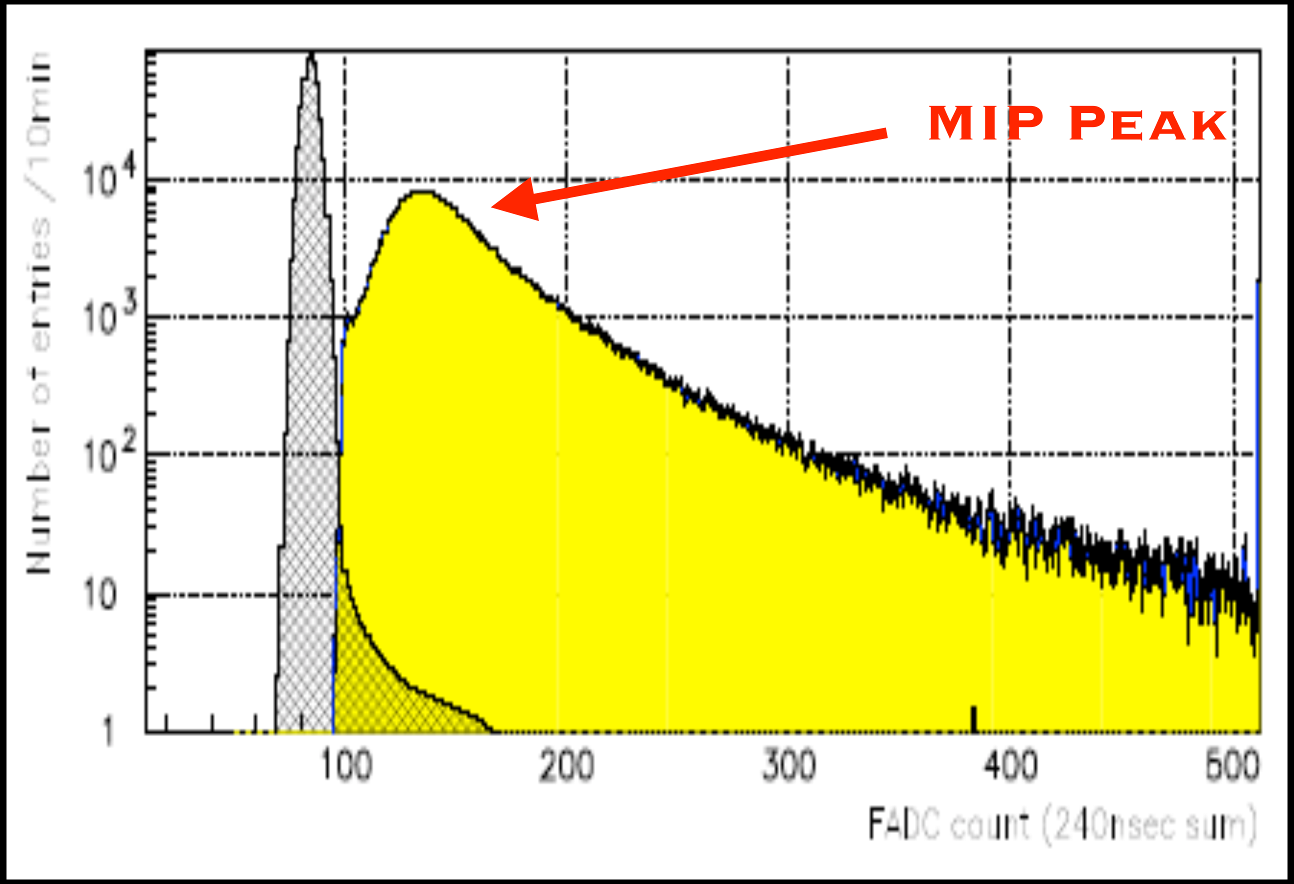
SD "photographs" the footprint of the shower at ground

Calibration of surface detectors

Auger



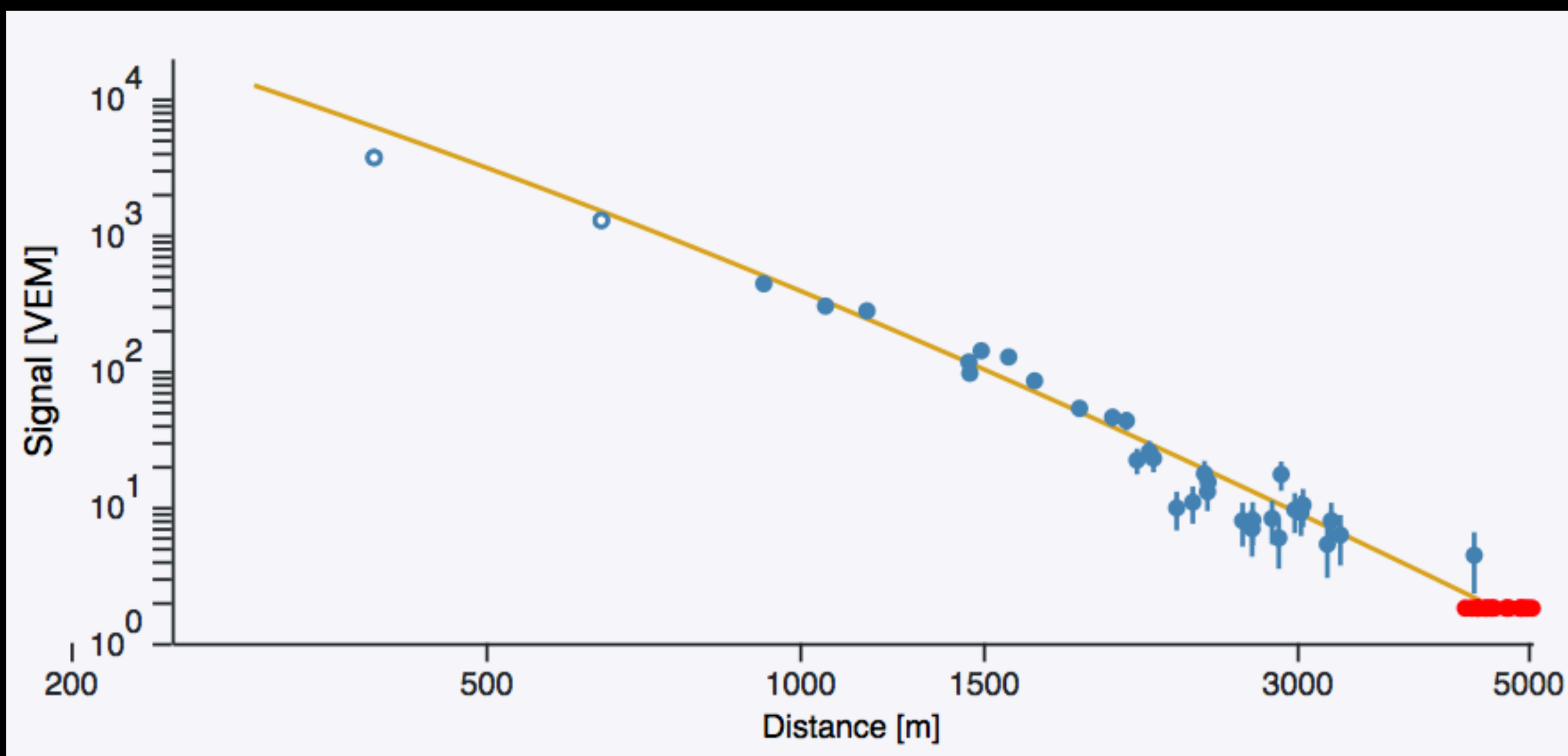
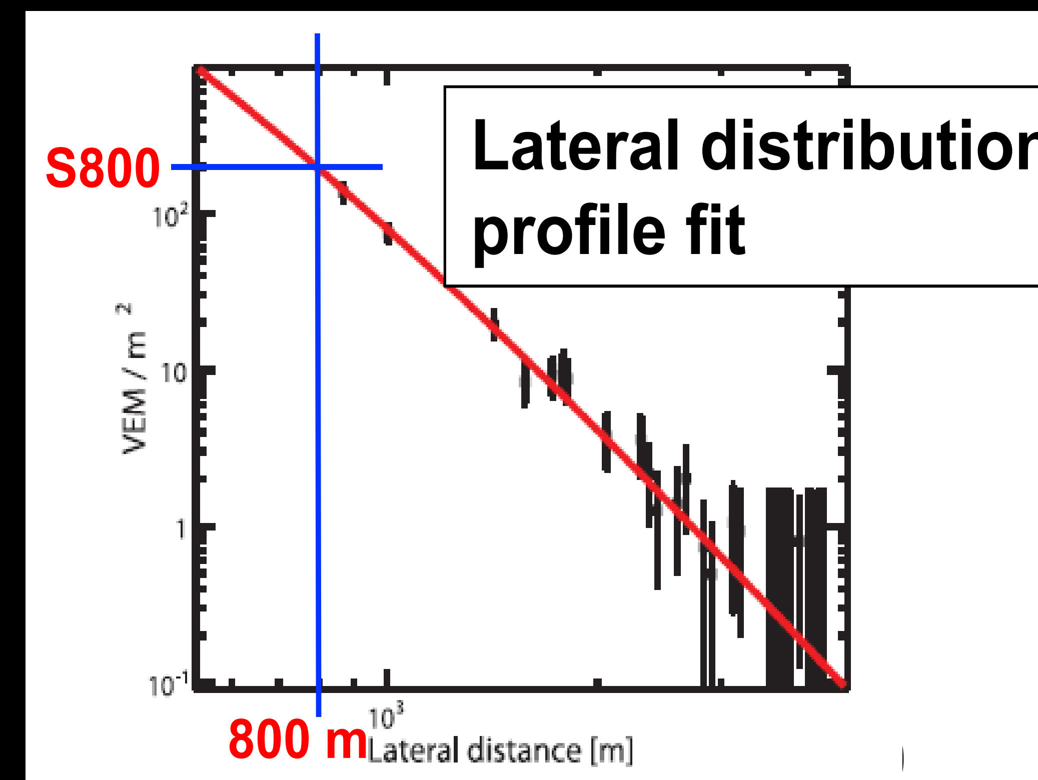
Telescope Array



Charge spectrum obtained (every 10 minutes) when a detector is triggered (at a low-threshold) by the coincidence among the PMTs
(VEM = Vertical Equivalent Muon; MIP = minimum ionizing particle)

The PMTs signals are converted to number of particles by using "natural" muons (residual of low-energy showers absorbed high in the atmosphere: rate ≈ 200 Hz/m²)

EAS particles seen by the surface detectors

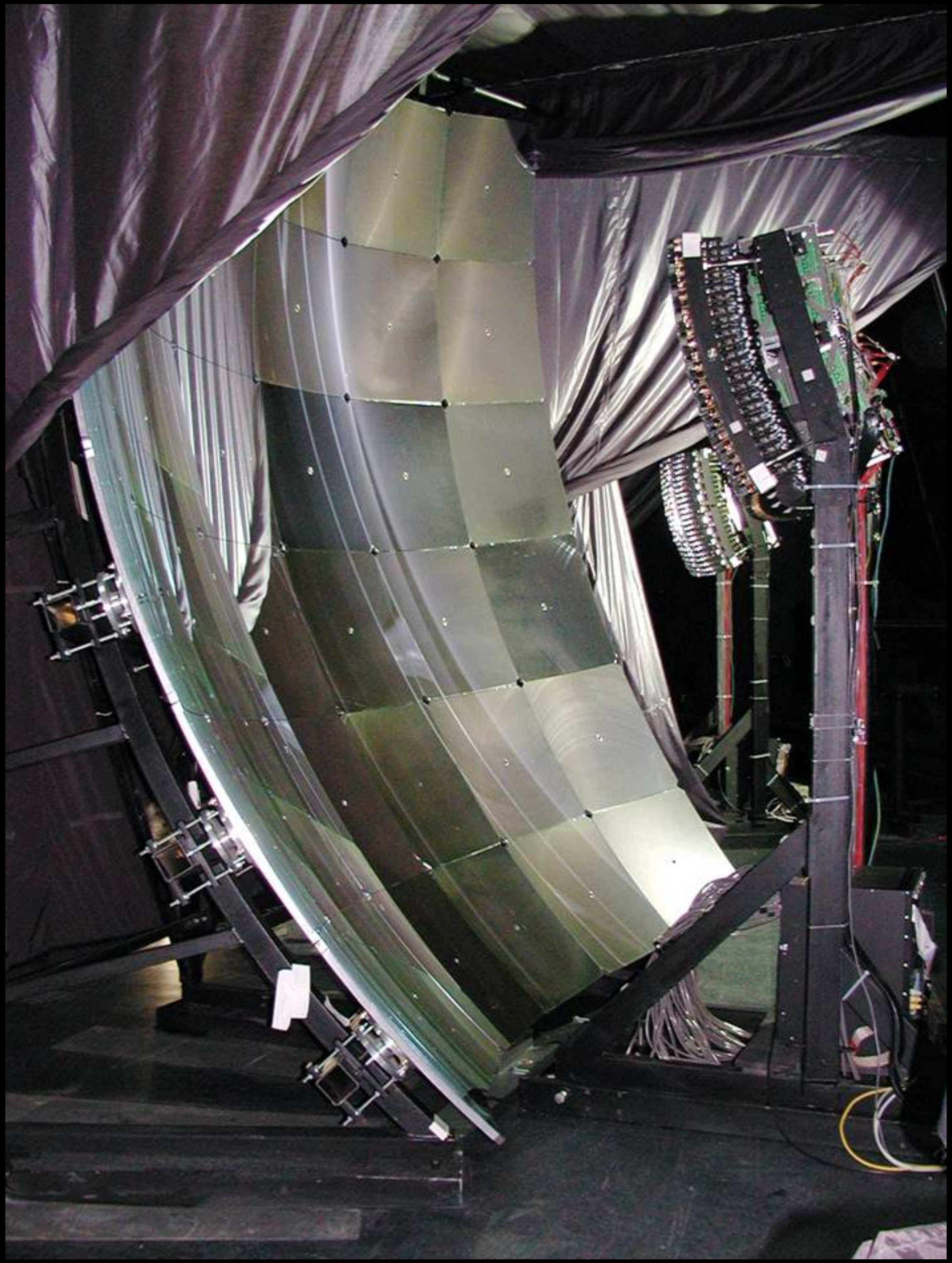
Auger	Telescope Array
	

Distribution of EAS particles as a function of the distance from the core

SD measures the lateral distribution of particles

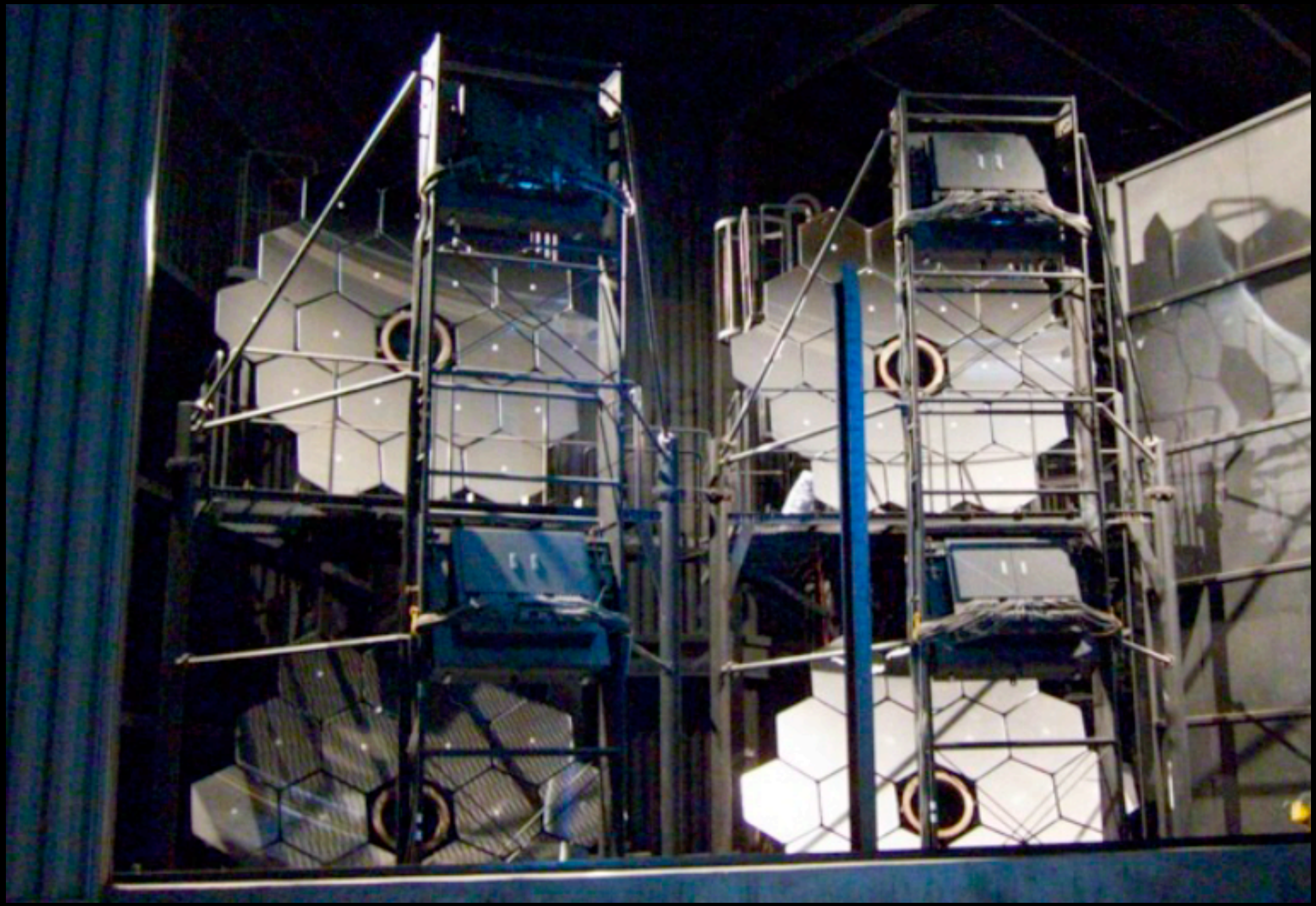
Auger and TA fluorescence detectors

Auger



3.4 m segmented mirror
440 PMTs camera
30°x 30° FOV

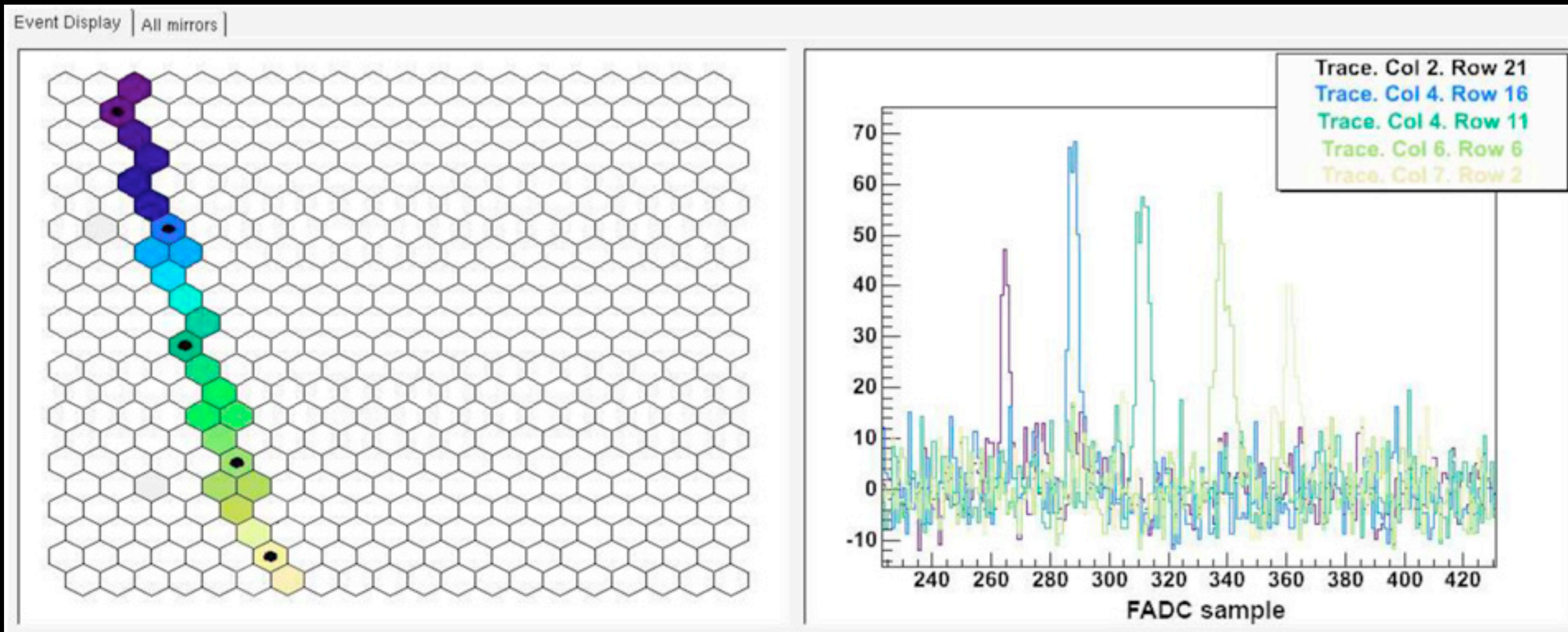
Telescope Array



3 m segmented mirror
256 PMTs camera
15° x 18° FOV

EAS signals in fluorescence detectors

Examples of real FADC traces (sorry: Auger only ;-)



PATTERN OF TRIGGERED PIXELS (COLOR CODE: DARK=EARLIER; LIGHT=LATER)

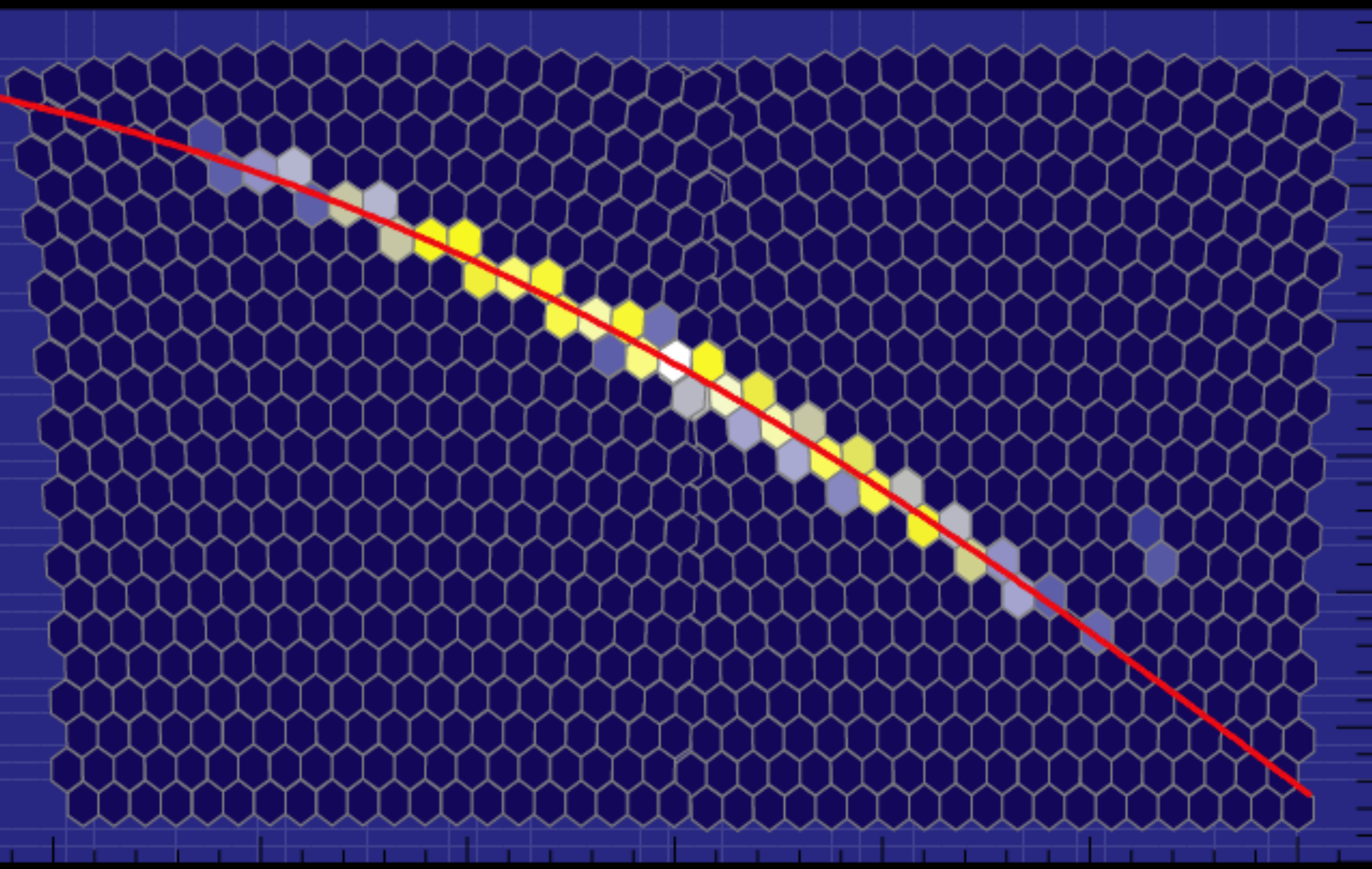
FADC TRACES OF THE TRIGGERED PMTS (BLACK DOTS IN THE LEFT PANEL)

The PMTs signals are digitized by Fast Analog-to-Digital Converters (FADC), with a sampling time of 100 ns.

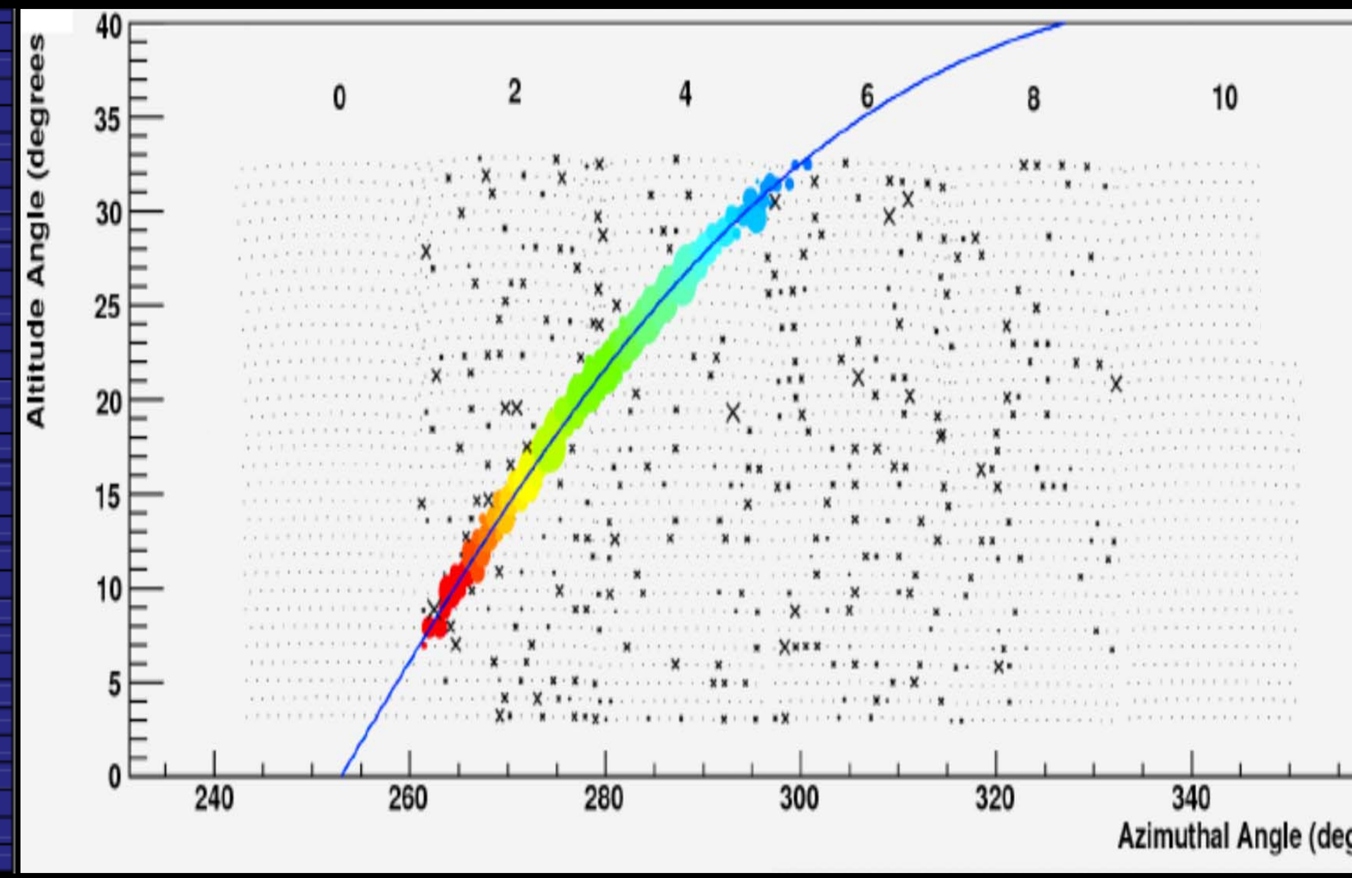
When the signals are above a certain threshold in at least 5 pixels (PMTs) within a certain time, the DAQ starts

EAS image seen by the fluorescence detectors

AUGER



TELESCOPE ARRAY



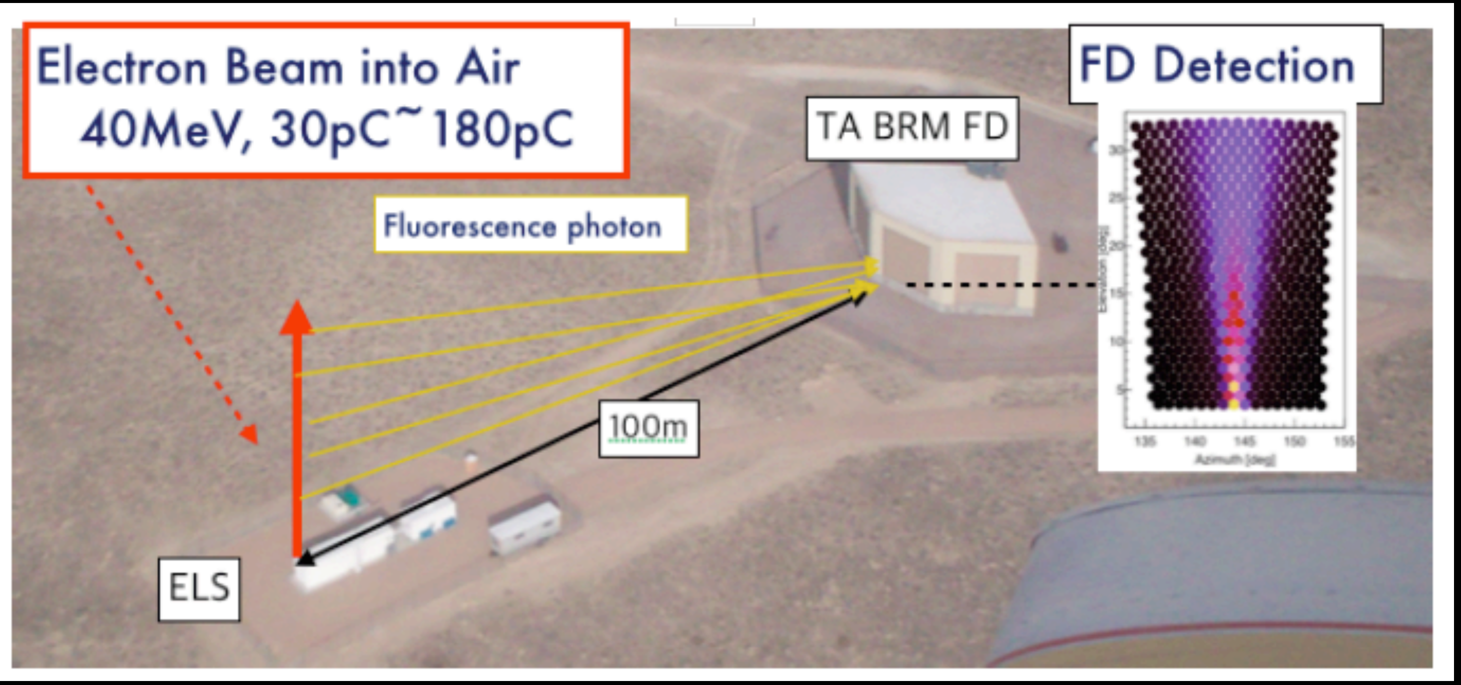
FD "photographs" the passage of the shower in atmosphere

Calibration of fluorescence detectors

Auger

A calibrated large-diameter, drum-shaped, light source provides an absolute, end-to-end calibration

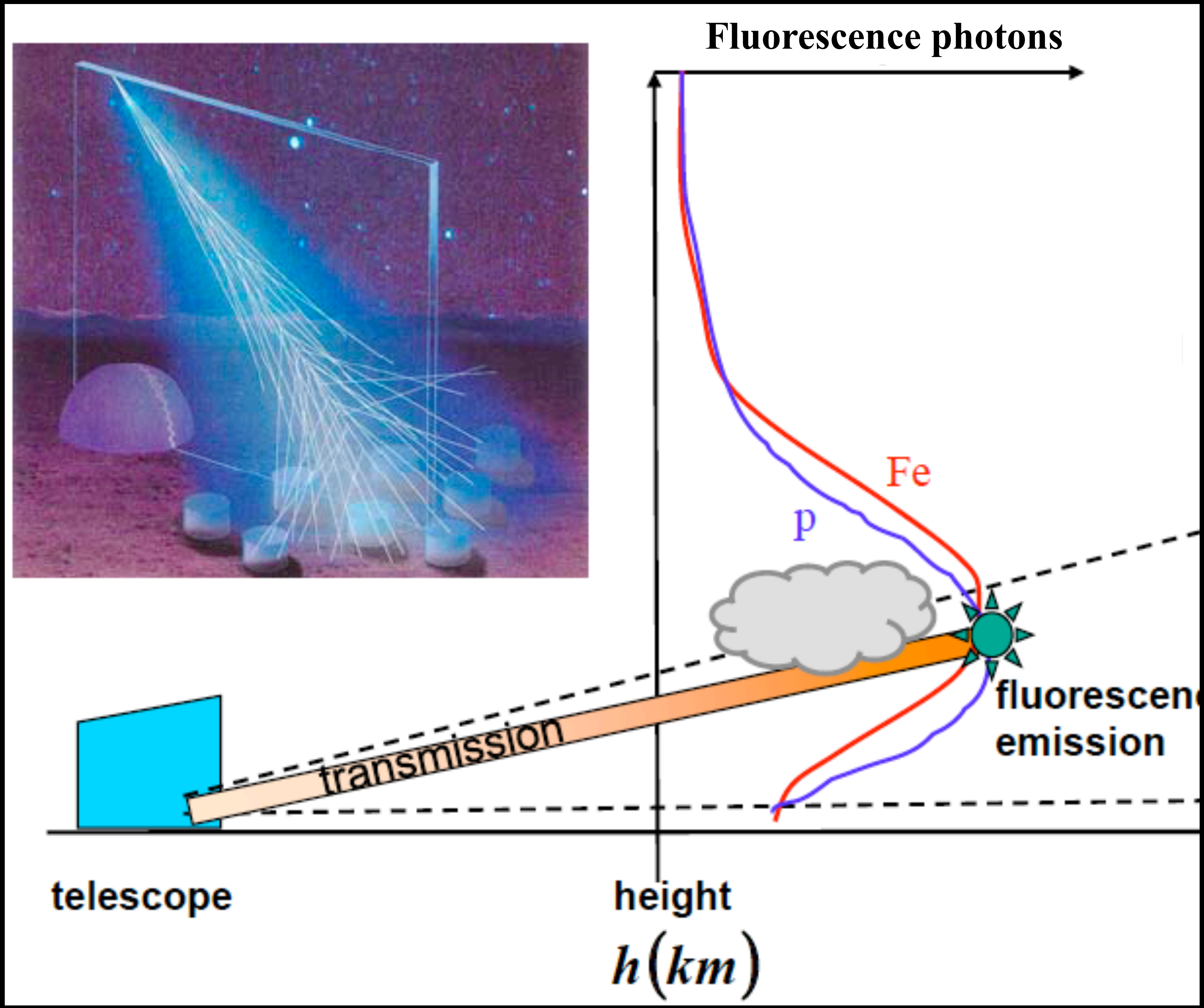
Telescope Array



The Electron Light Source is an electron linear accelerator serving as an absolute calibration. The ELS fires a vertical 40 MeV electron-beam of duration 1 ms at a repetition rate of 0.5 Hz.

The PMTs signals are converted to number of photons by illuminating the cameras with well-calibrated light sources

Auger and TA atmospheric monitoring

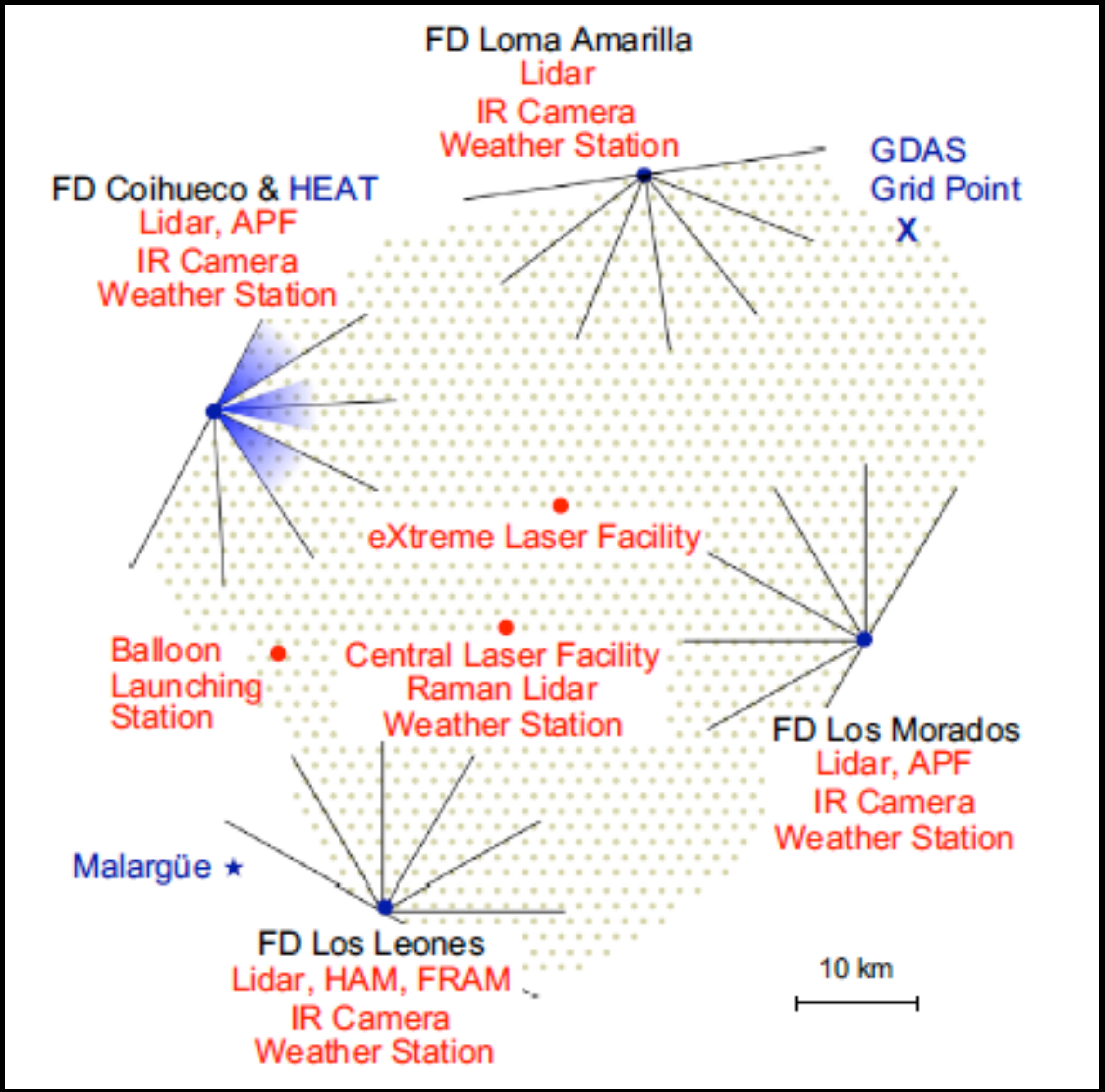


Also, the atmospheric transmission between the air-shower and the FD must be taken into account to properly reconstruct the light generated along the shower axis from the light recorded at the telescope(s)

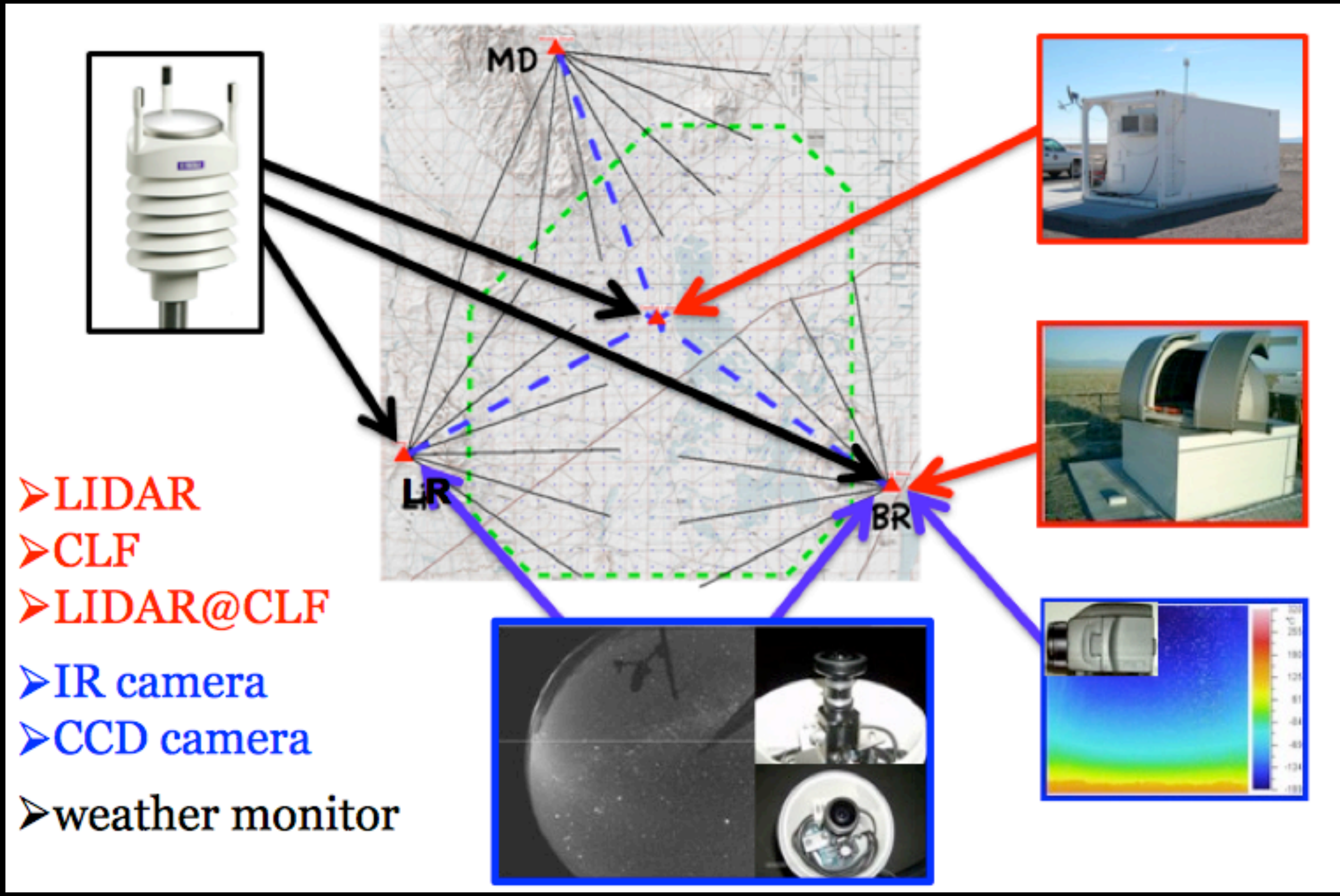
Auger and TA atmospheric monitoring

Clouds and aerosols play a major role in the optical transmission

Auger



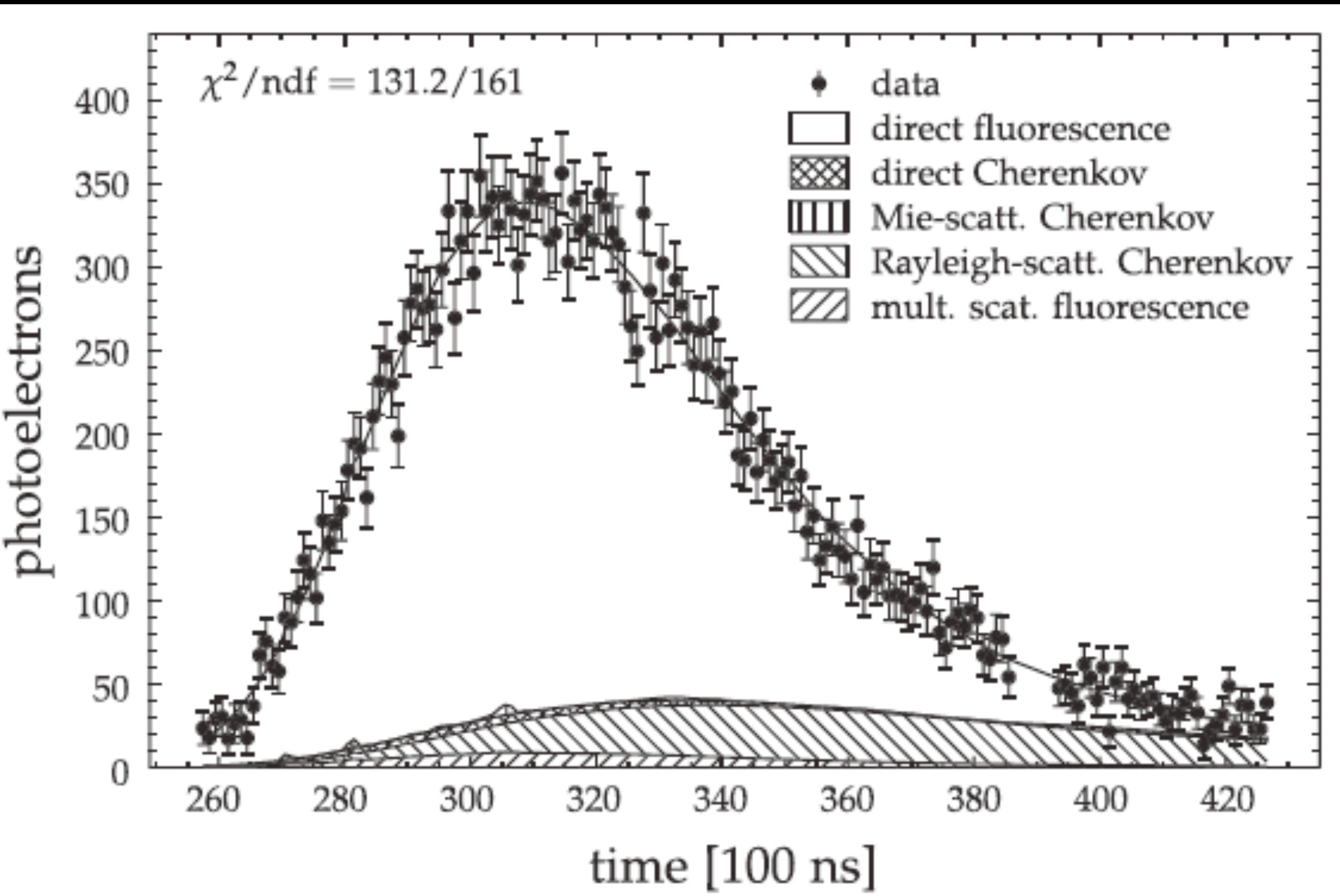
Telescope Array



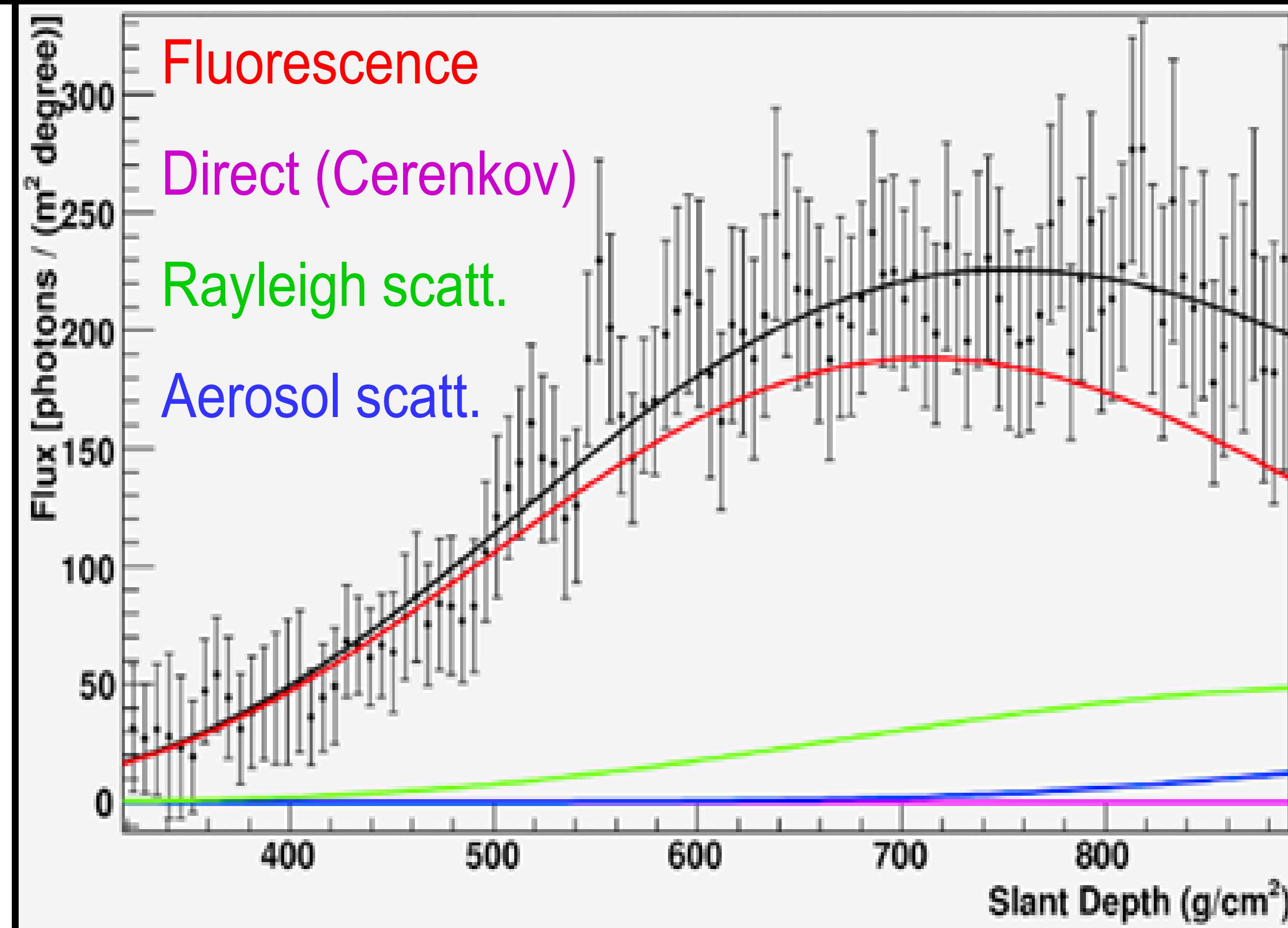
Weather stations measure P, T and humidity.
Infrared cameras and LIDARs monitor the cloud coverage.
Lasers and LIDARs allow to determine the aerosols optical-depth profile

EAS radiation seen by the fluorescence detectors

Auger



Telescope Array



Light-at-aperture measurements and reconstructed light sources

FD measures the longitudinal development in atmosphere

Two exemplary cases: the Pierre Auger Observatory
and the Telescope Array:

From EAS observables to CR properties

The subtlety of the analysis

Which information on CRs must we extract from EAS?

Back to the start :-)

The ultimate aim of EAS detection is the identification of the primary cosmic ray, in terms of

Mass/Charge

Energy

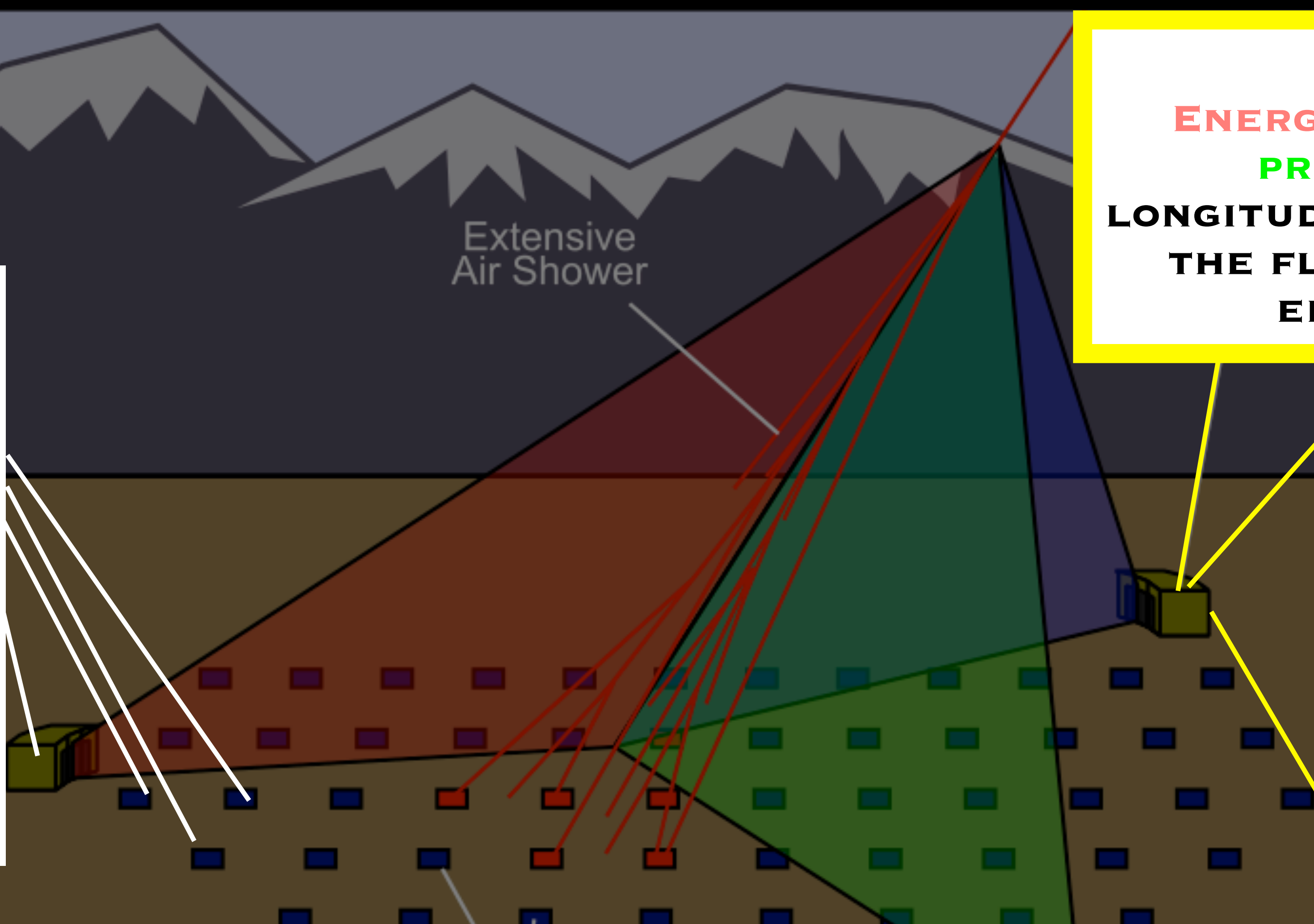
Arrival direction

We are dealing with an INDIRECT MEASUREMENT of CRs

To infer the properties of the primary particle one needs not only to detect EAS as precisely as possible but also to exploit as carefully as possible the "legacy" that their parents left into them

How do we pass from the observed EAS to the CR?

In a nutshell, aka in one slide

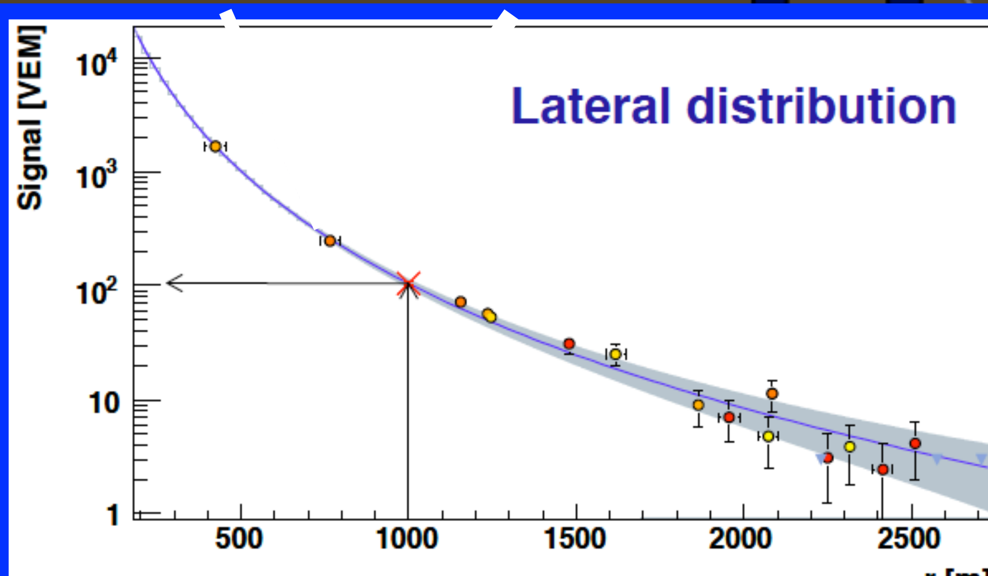


FD

Energy and **Xmax (mass proxy)**: from the longitudinal distribution of the fluorescence light emitted by EAS

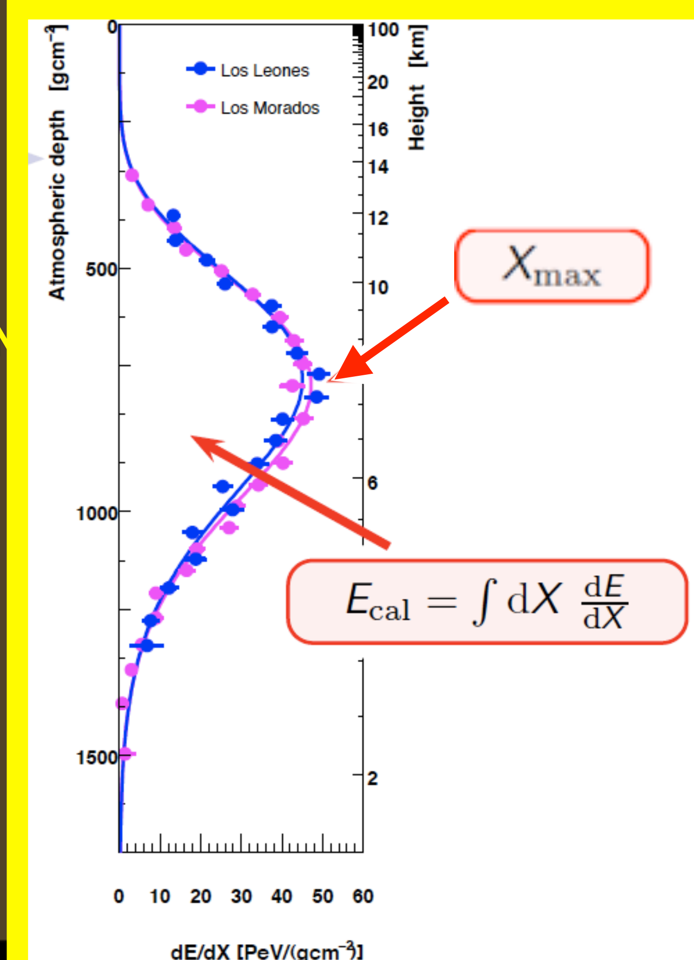
SD - FD

CR **arrival direction**: from relative arrival times of signals at ground detectors, or from the time sequence of hit PMTs at fluorescence detectors



SD

Energy proxy: from the distribution/ Number of particles at ground

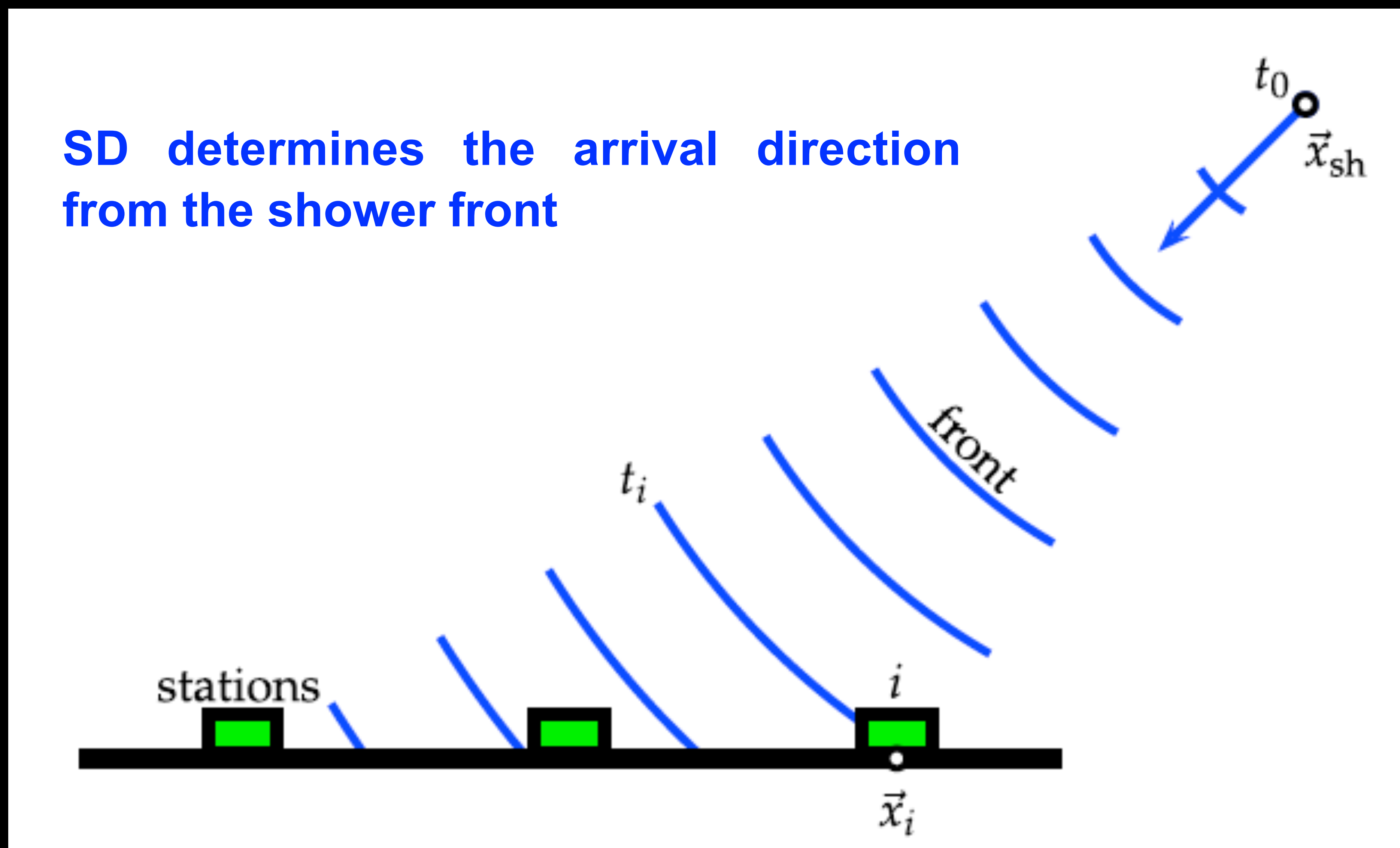


Let's start from the simplest one: arrival direction

Surface detectors

Most straightforward measurement

The shower axis preserves the direction of the incoming particle



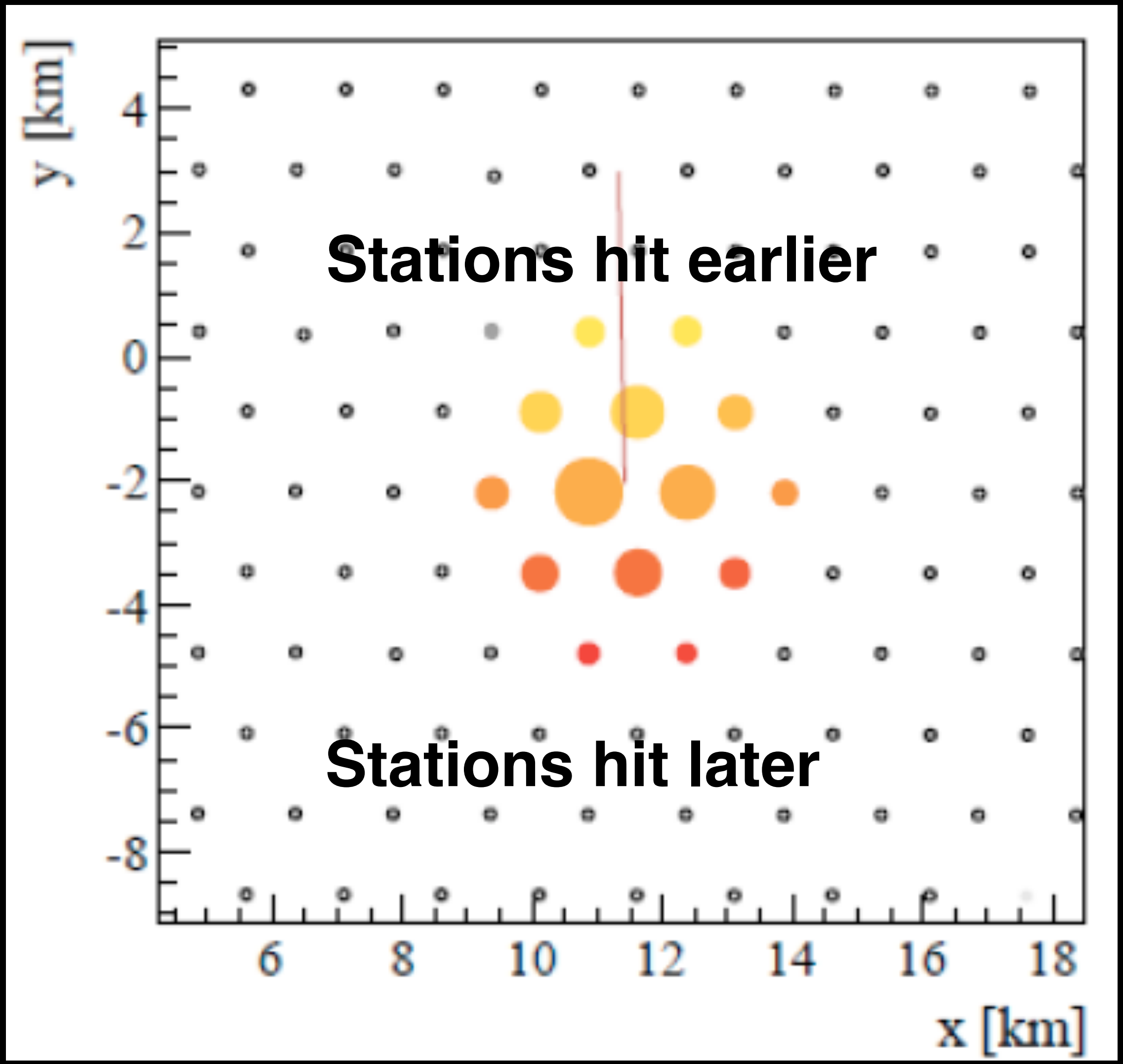
Time-of-flight technique:

Time differences among the arrival times t_i of shower particles in the different detectors give the arrival direction

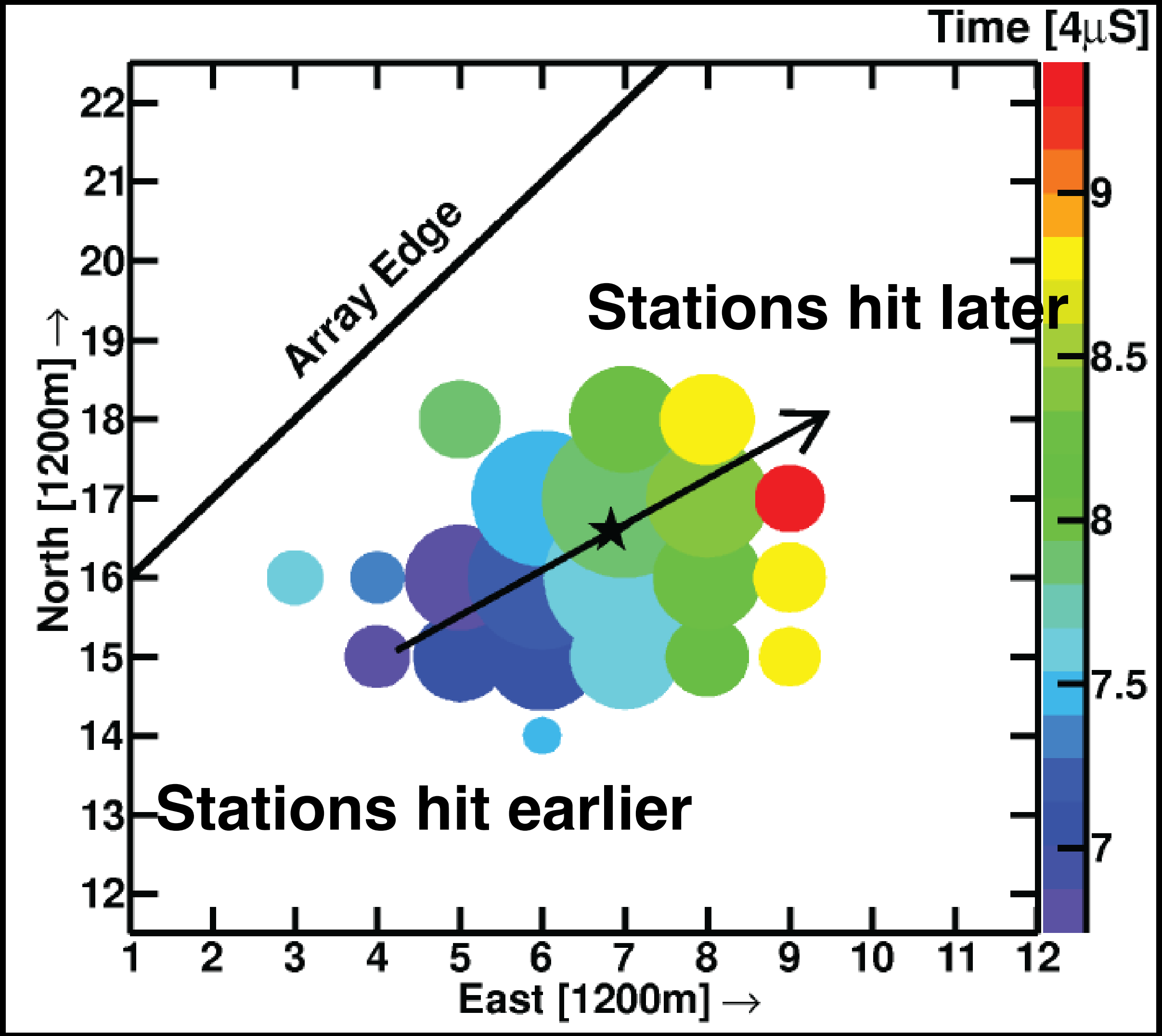
Measurement of the arrival direction

In practice

Auger



Telescope Array

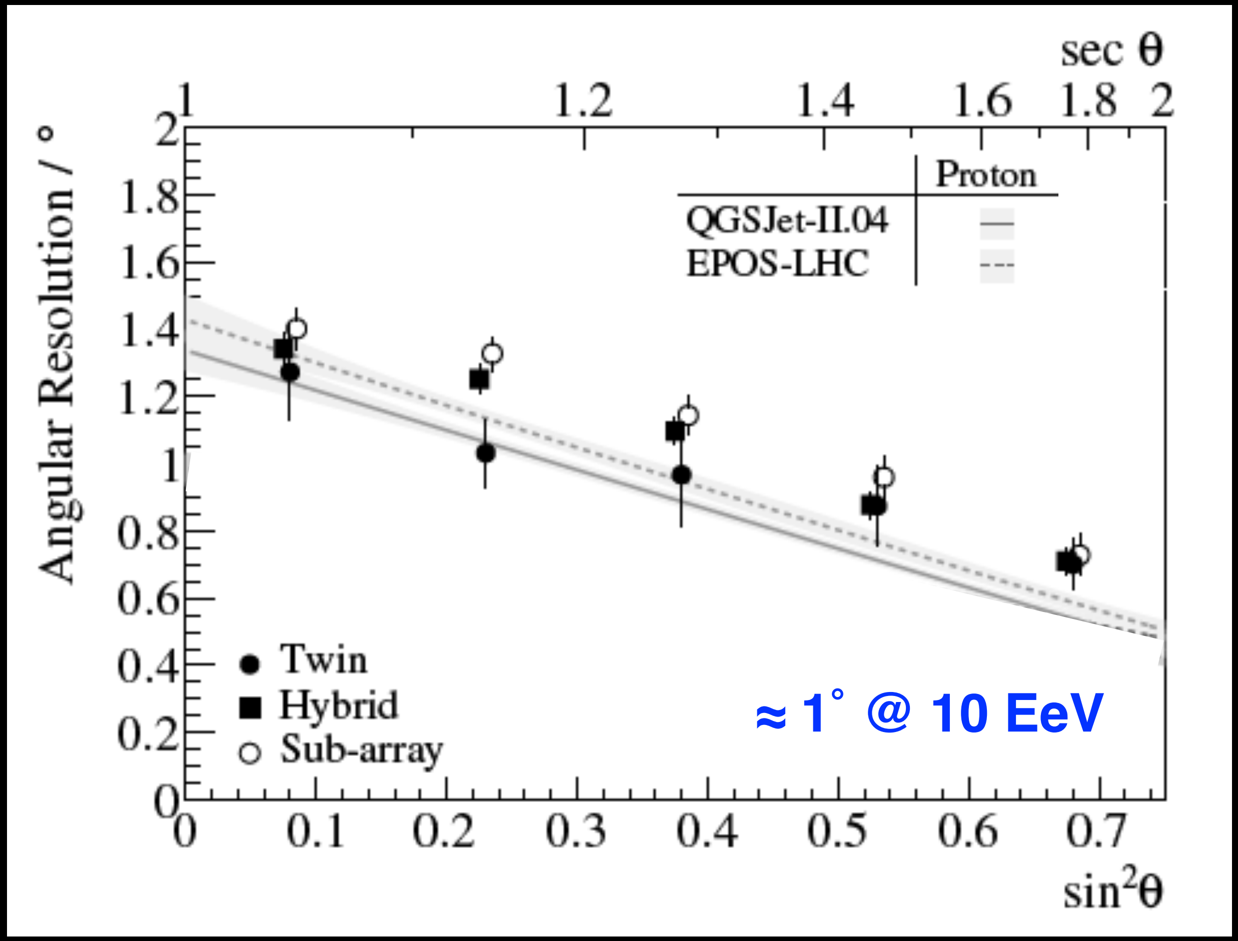


Arrival direction: estimated by a fit of the shower front (moving at c).
If only 3 detectors are triggered: fit to a plane front
If more: fit to a spherical front

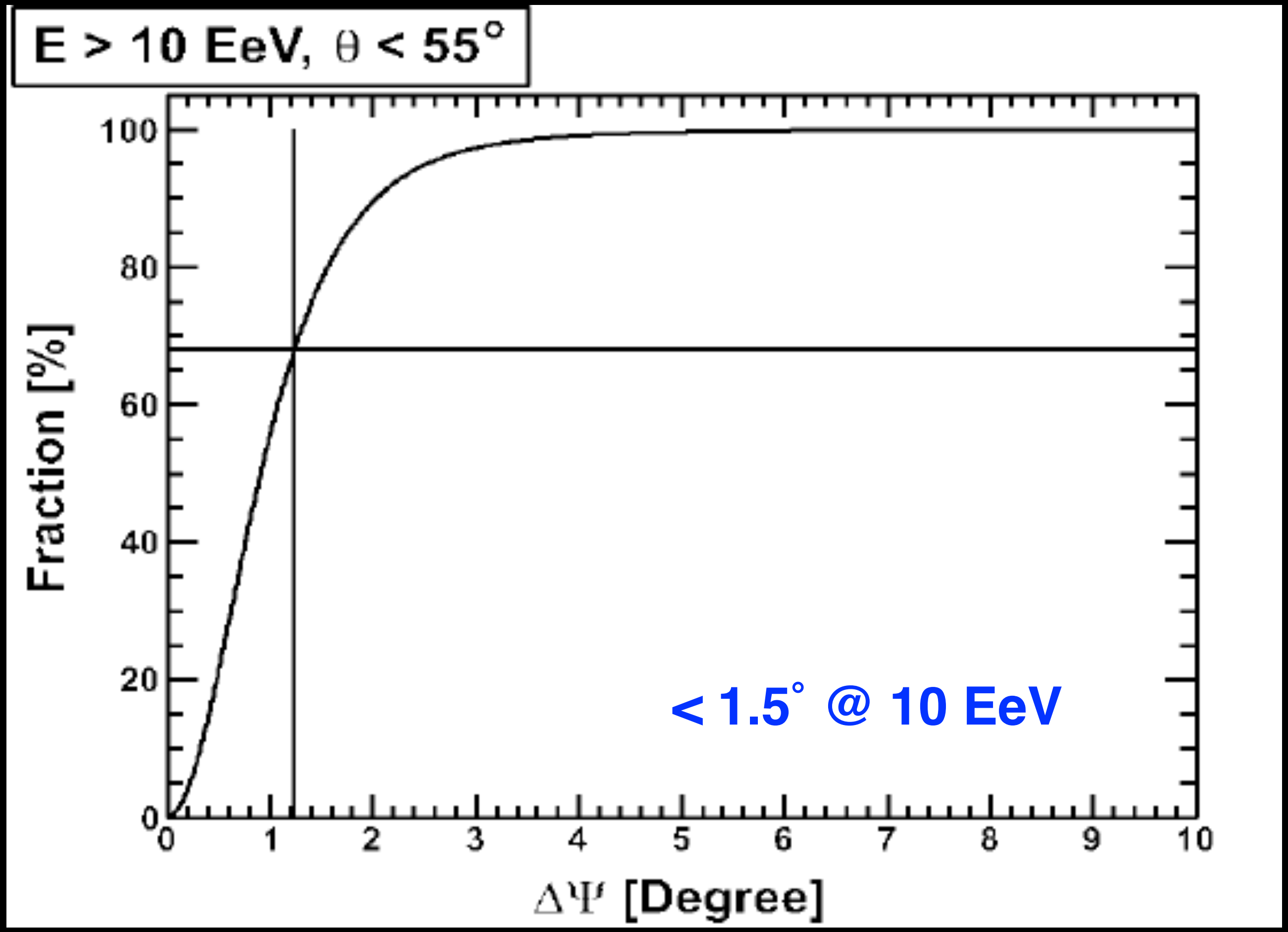
Arrival direction (angular) resolution

SD angular resolution

Auger



Telescope Array

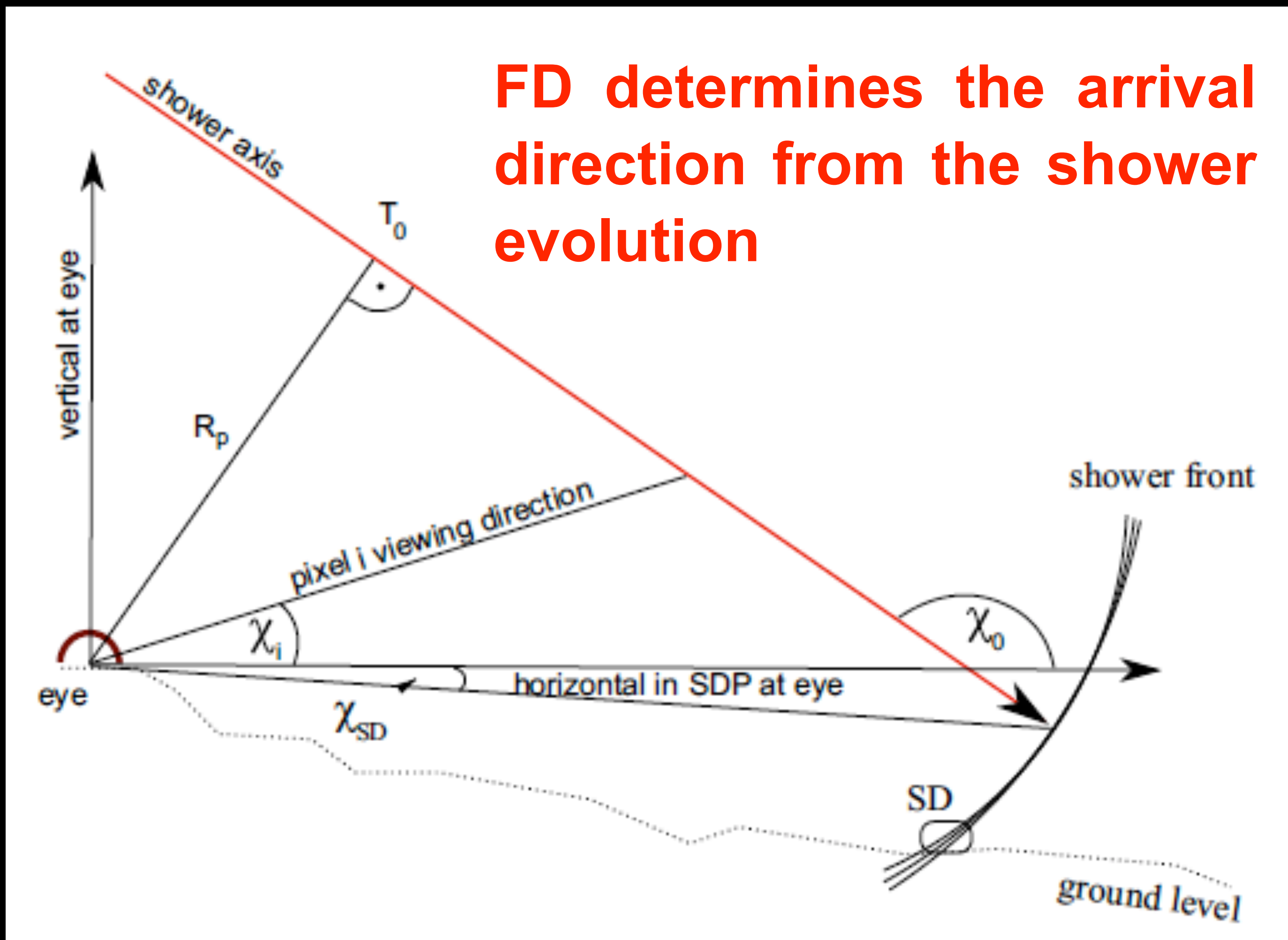


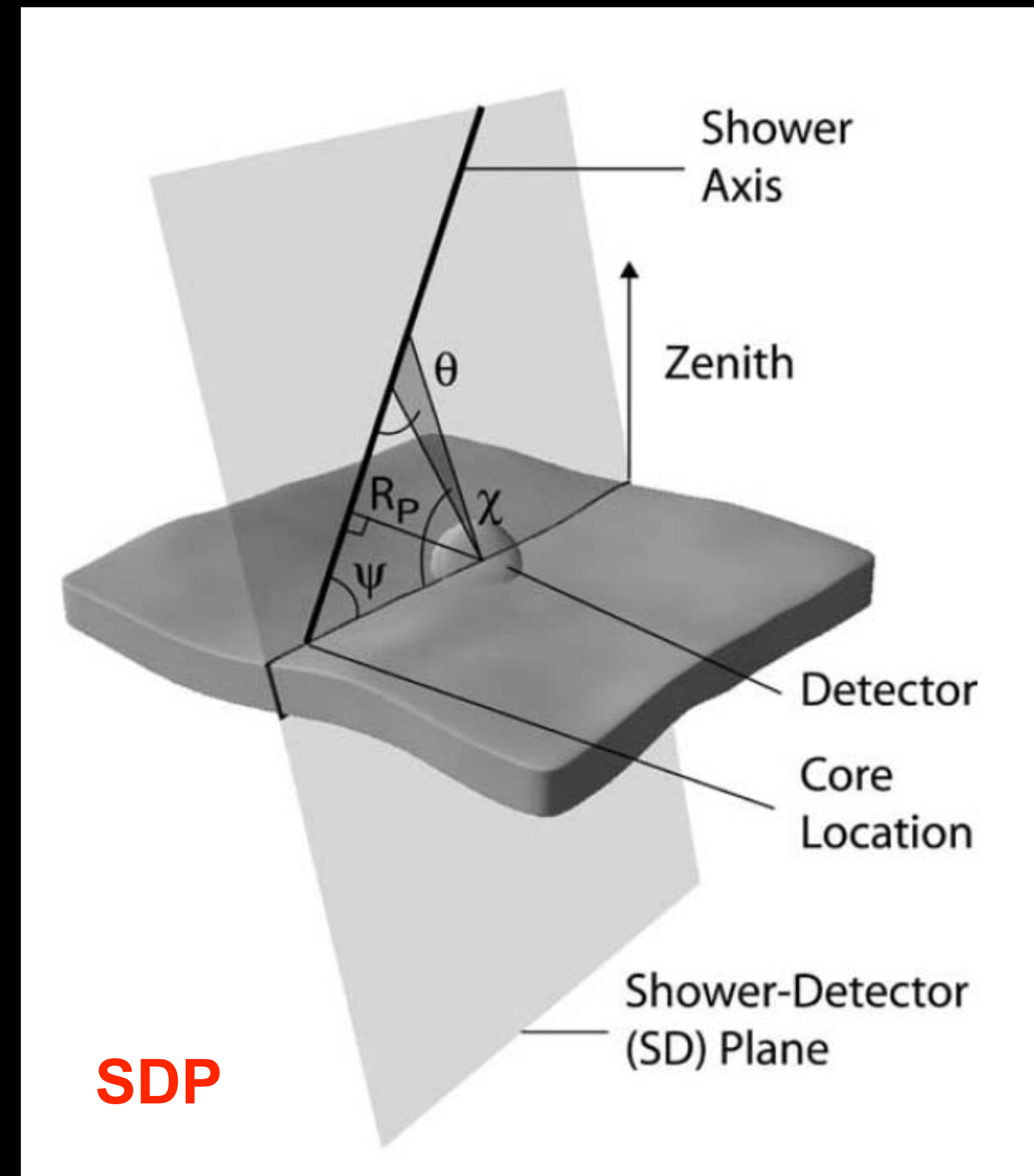
Angular resolution: determined via simulations where the reconstructed arrival direction is compared with the injected one (*for Auger, cross-check with data too*)

It depends on the timing resolution and on the number of triggered detectors

Measurement of the arrival direction

Fluorescence detectors





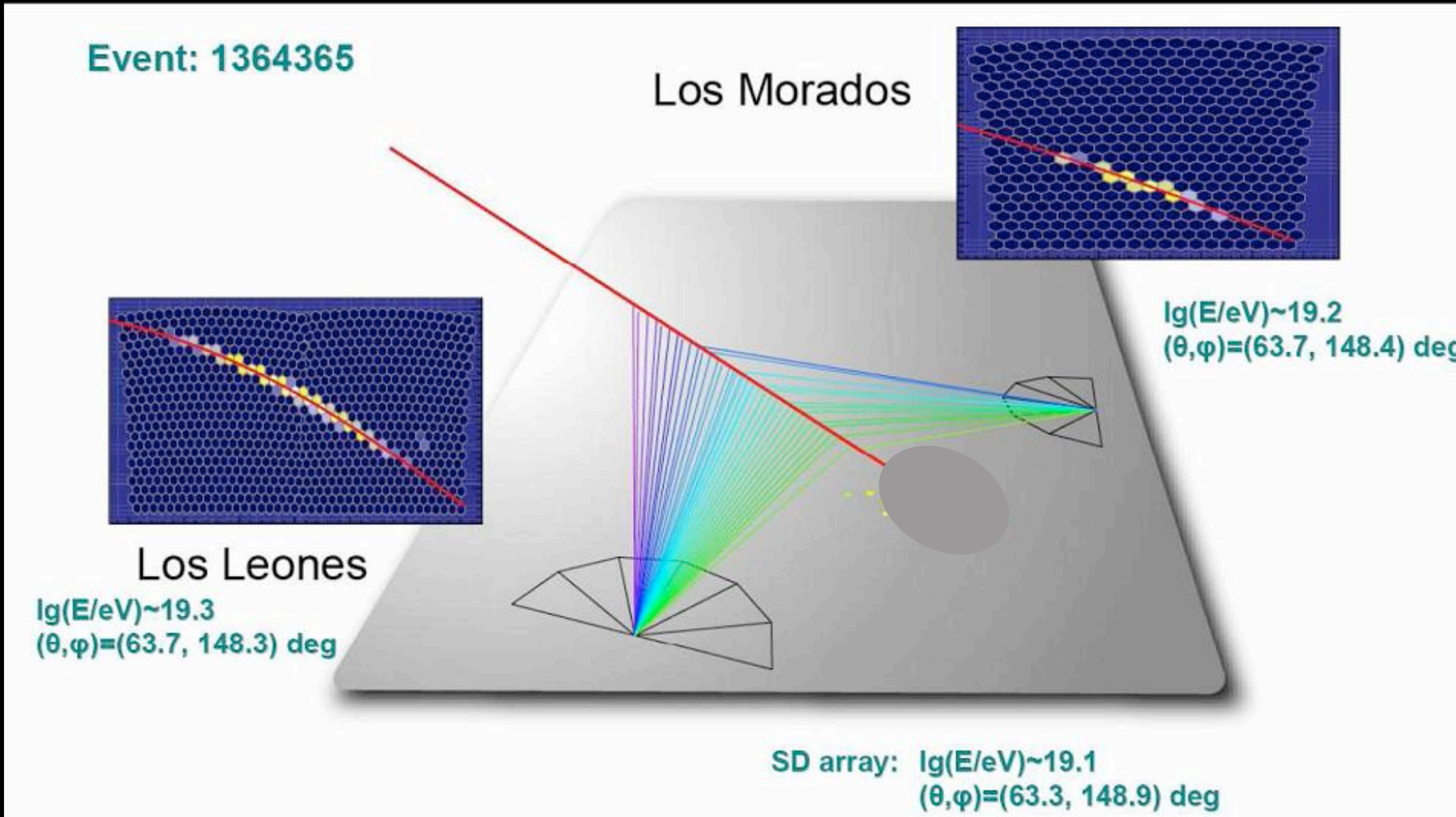
The arrival direction is obtained in two steps:

1. The observing directions of the triggered pixels and the detector itself define a plane that is called Shower Detector Plane (SDP).

2. The SDP contains the shower axis. The position of the shower axis within the SDP is obtained using the trigger times from the PMTs.

Measurement of the arrival direction

"Stereo" events, i.e., observed by two or more FDs

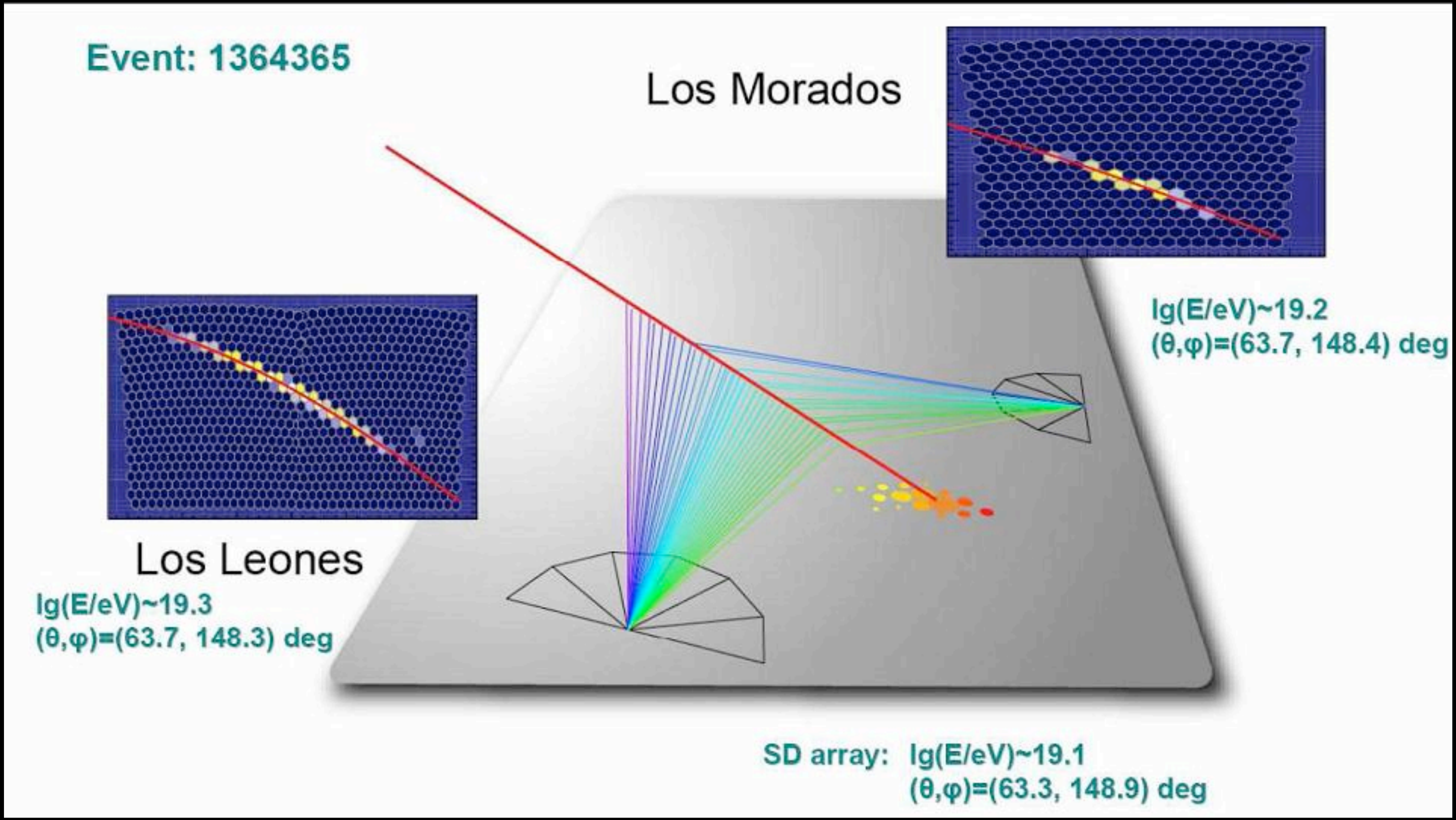


When an EAS is observed in "stereo", the arrival direction is defined by the intersection of the two (or more) SDPs.

Higher precision, check of the geometry

Measurement of the arrival direction

“Hybrid” events, i.e., observed by SD and FD simultaneously



When an EAS is observed in “hybrid” mode, the geometry of the shower is fixed by SD (core position).

The angular resolution improves to ≈ 0.5 deg

Arrival direction: a glance at the past

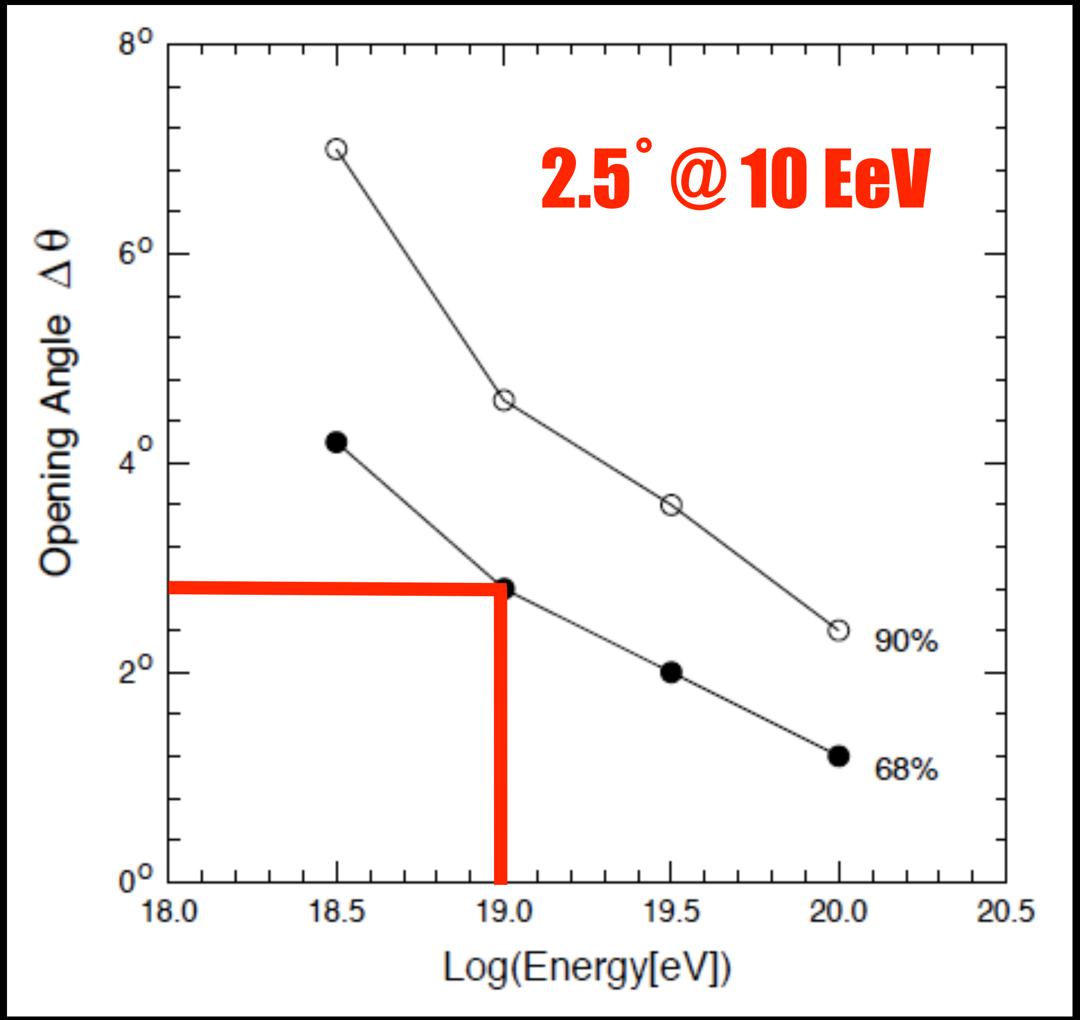
Nani gigantum humeris insidentes: Bassi, Clark, Rossi (again!), (1953)

The idea of constructing large-area detectors, in which fast timing of the arrival of the shower particles would be possible, is due to the MIT group, led by Rossi. They predicted that the shower directions could be determined within 2 degrees.

Volcano Ranch (1960s)

where.[1] An array of scintillation detectors is used to find the direction (from pulse times) and size (from pulse amplitudes) of shower events which satisfy a triggering requirement. In the present case, the direction of the shower was nearly vertical (zenith angle 10 ± 5°). The values

AGASA (1990s)



Bassi et al were not so wrong after all!!!!

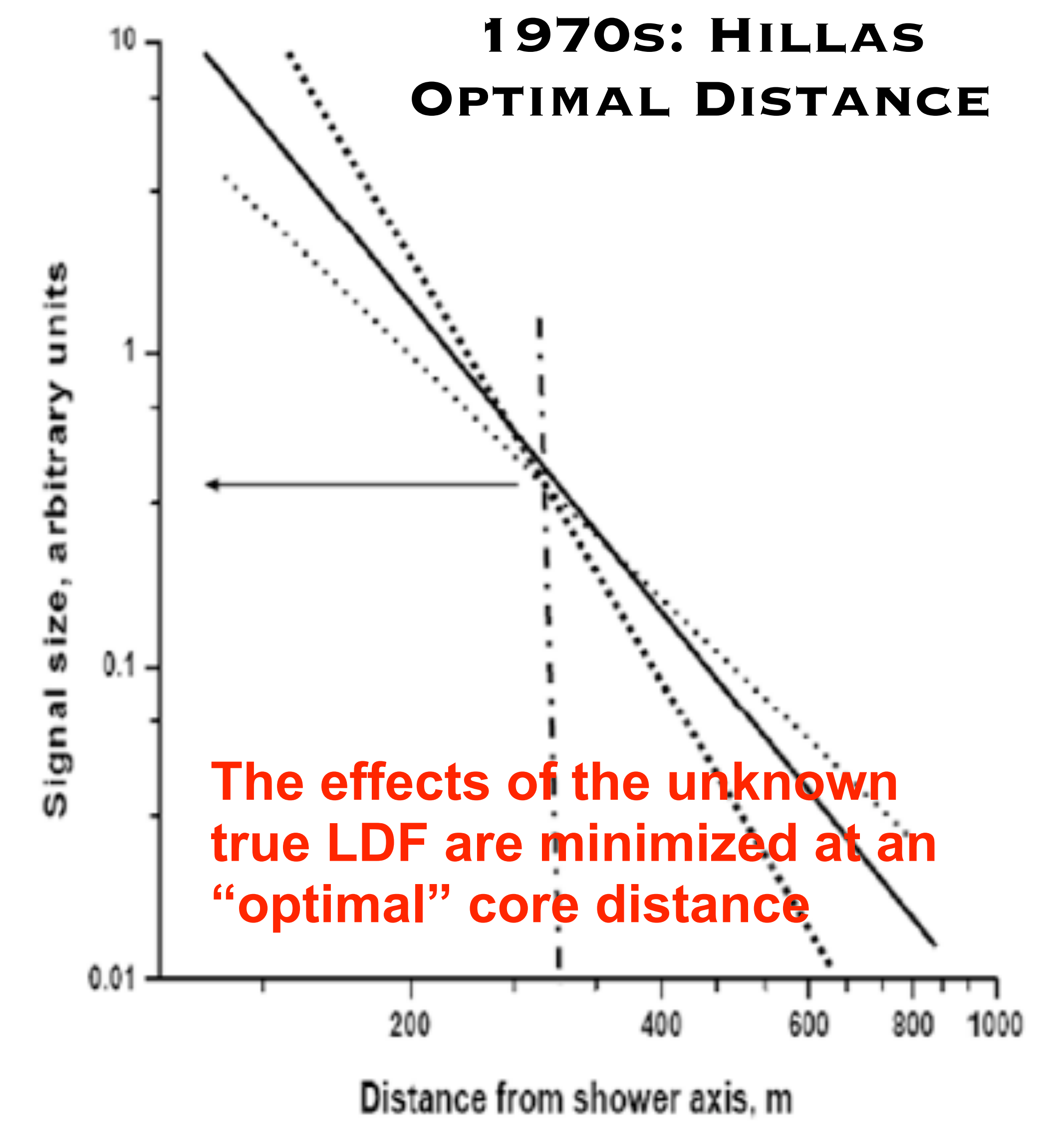
Slightly more difficult: energy

Surface detectors

SD measures a "slice" of the energy deposited from the shower: the best one can do is extracting from the "slice" an energy estimator

Early times

- Showers contain nucleons, pions and muons in addition to the more abundant electrons and photons.
- Yet, well described under the assumption that the primaries were photons or electrons.
- Early practice: infer the primary energy from the total number of e.m. particles.
- Large uncertainty due to the lack of knowledge of the "true" LDF
- Large fluctuations

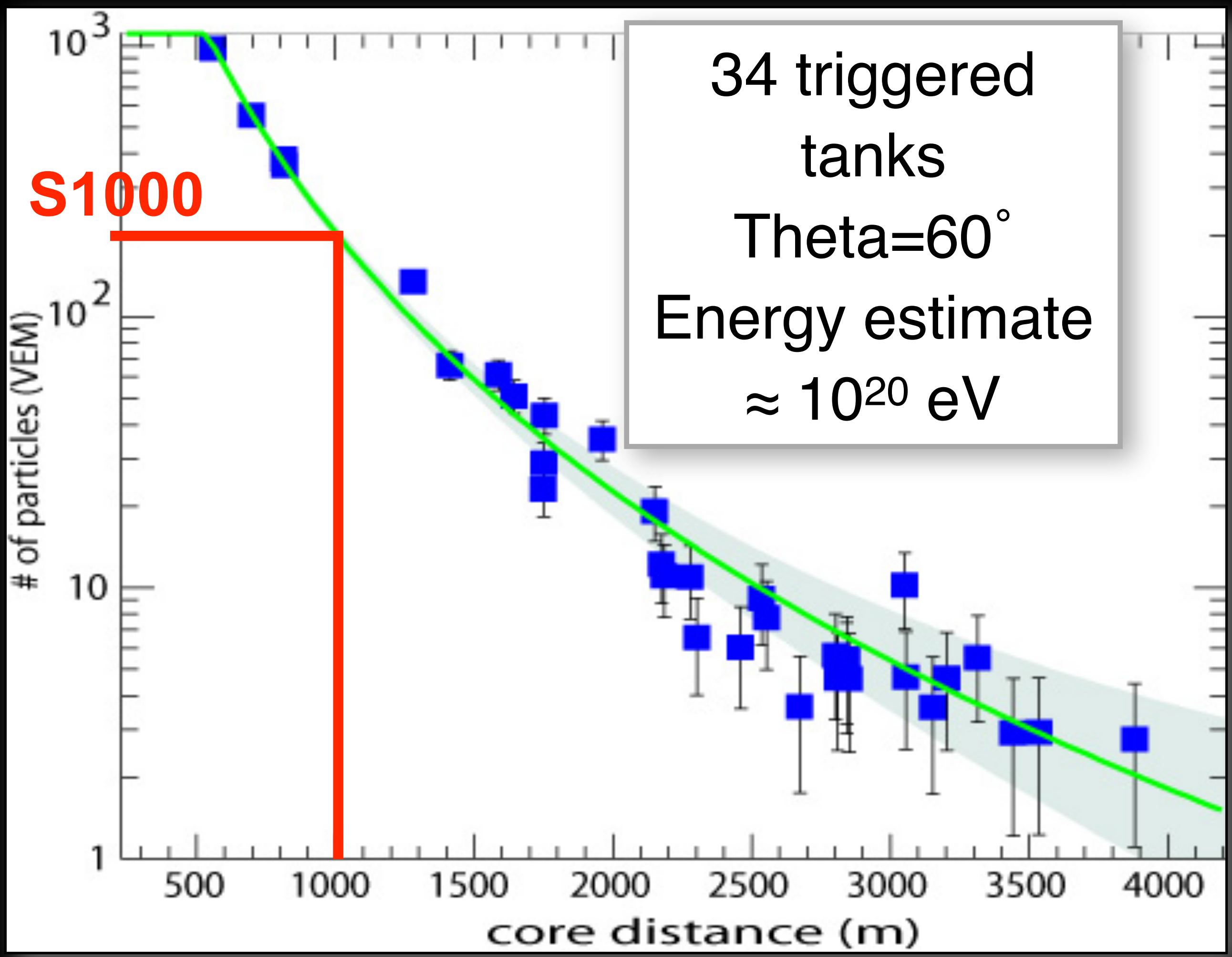


Not only the signal at the "optimal" distance minimally depends on the chosen LDF, but also the fluctuations of the particle density far from the core are quite small.

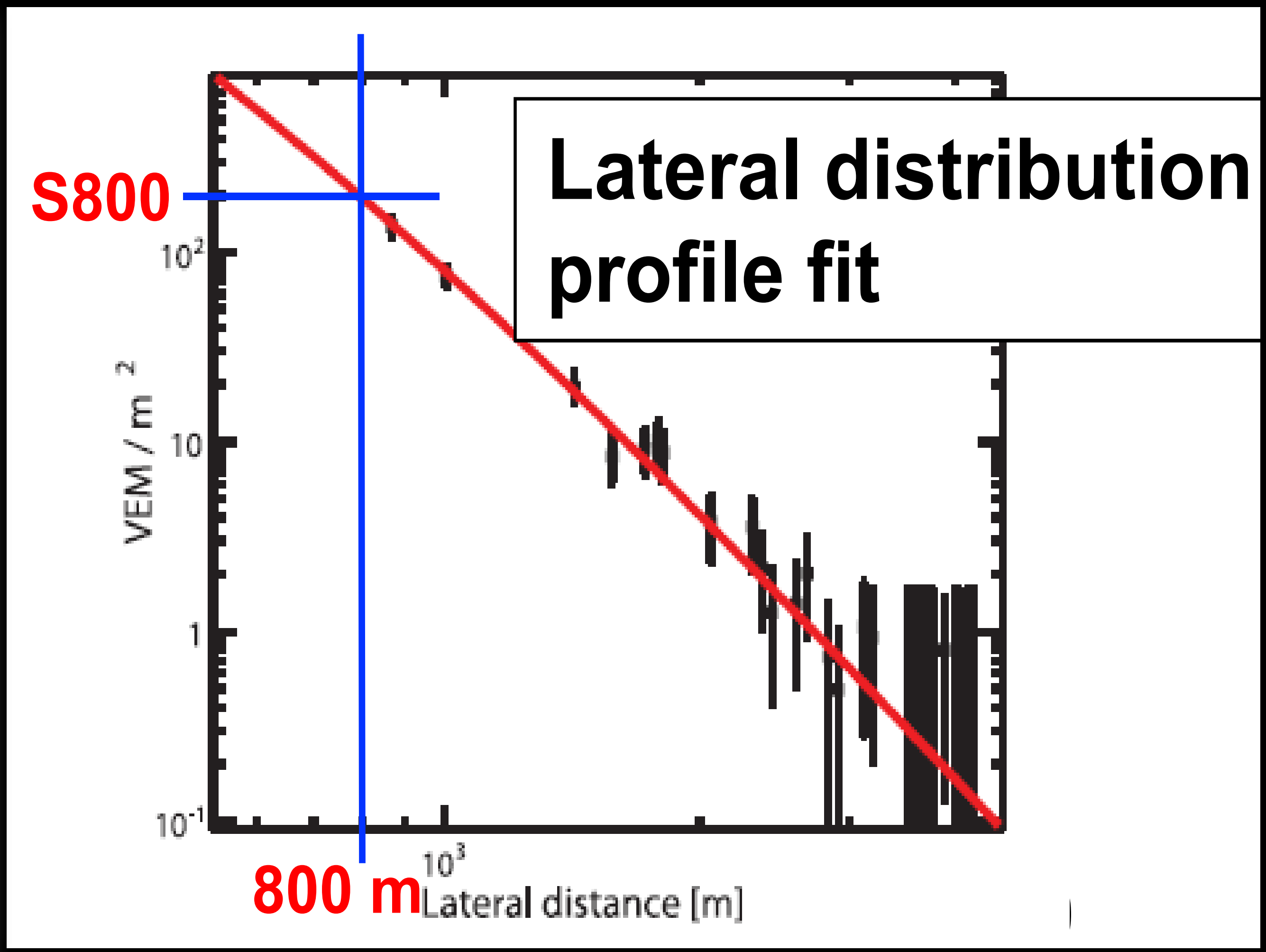
Energy estimator from the surface detectors

In practice

Auger



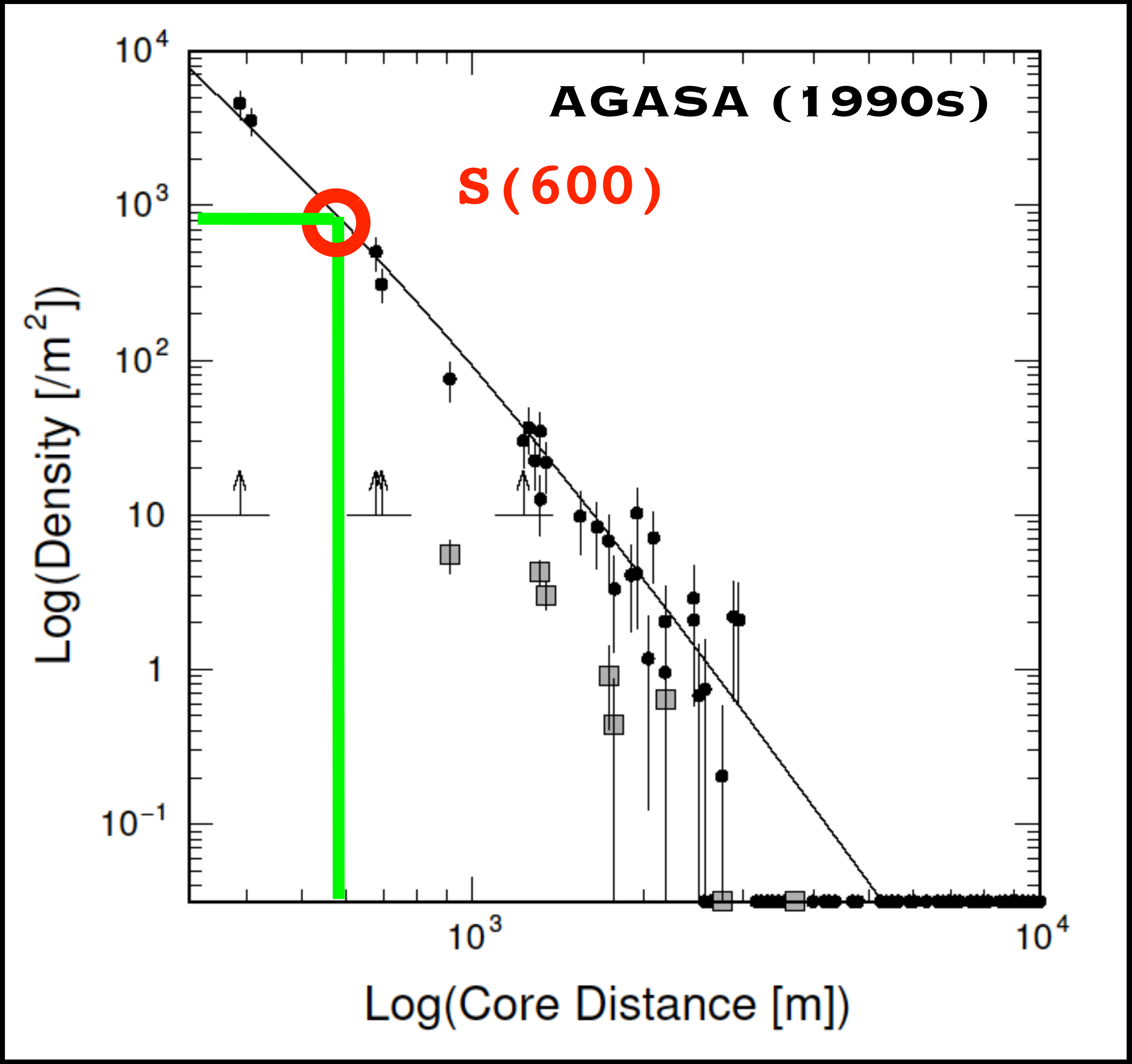
Telescope Array

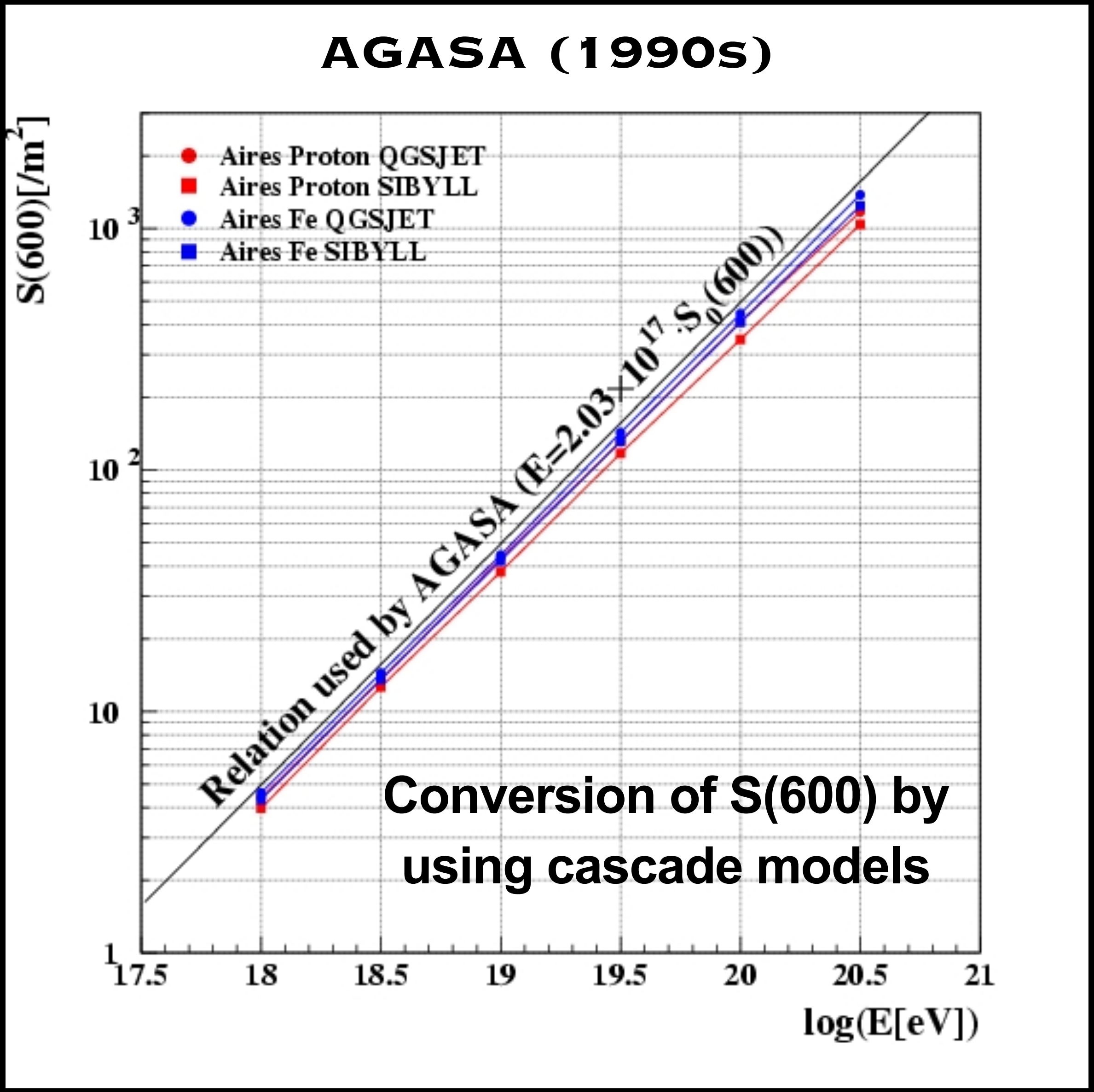


- **Reconstruct geometry (arrival direction & impact point)**
- **Fit particle lateral distribution (LDF)**
- **Extract the signal at the "optimal" distance**
- **The "optimal" distance depends on detectors spacing, (r_{opt}=1000/800 m for Auger/TA)**

How to pass from energy estimator to primary energy?

Usually full Monte Carlo simulations are used





To determine the primary energy from measurements with a surface array one has to use predictions from calculations of shower development

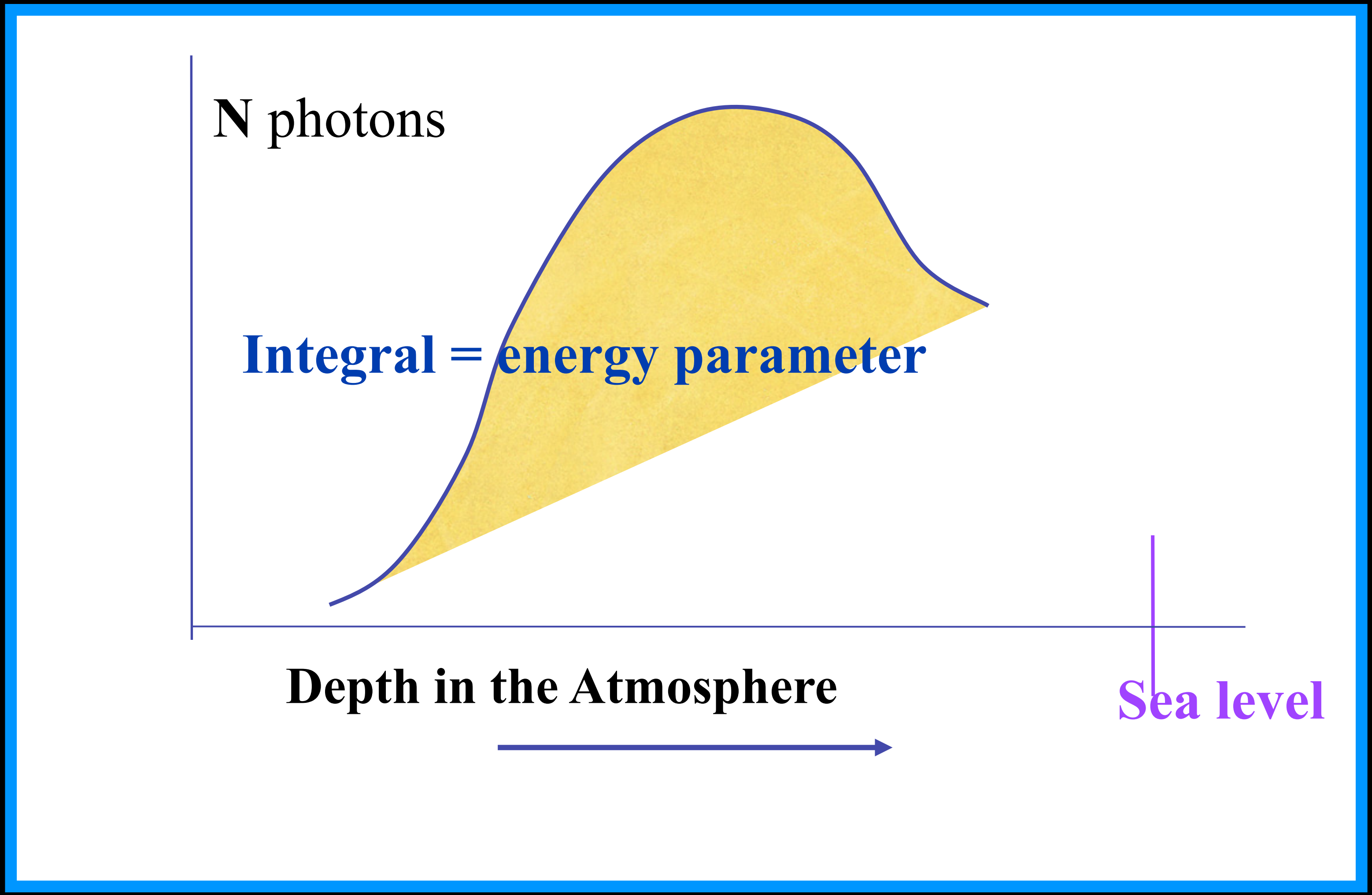
MEMENTO: UHECR energies are well-above those produced in accelerators!!!

Model predictions draw on extrapolations of the properties of interactions studied at accelerators. Large (if not unknown) systematics

The smartness of the hybrid technique

Use fluorescence detectors to calibrate surface detectors

The UHECR energy is deposited in atmosphere like in a giant calorimeter. Fluorescence detectors see the full development

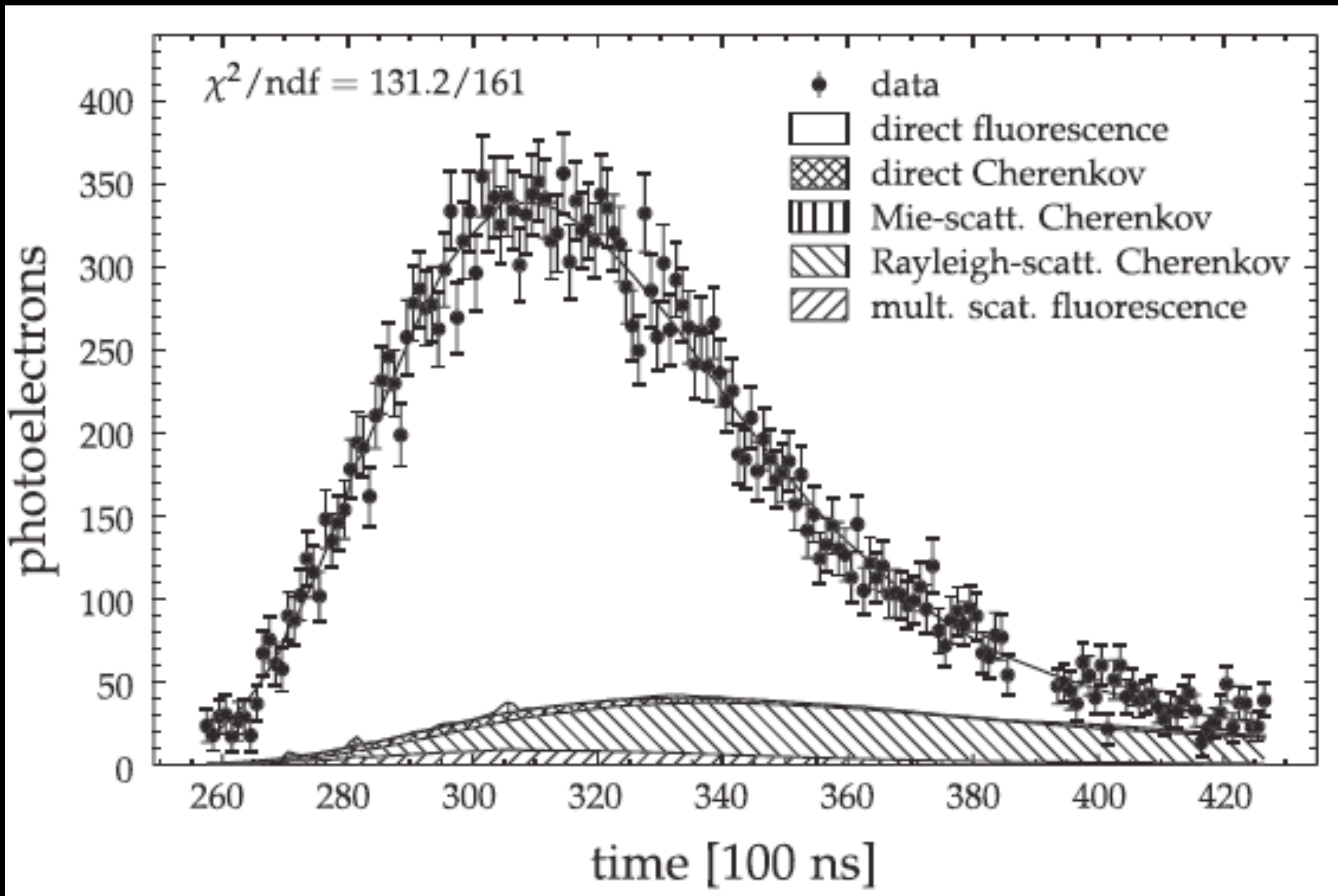


Fluorescence detectors allow for a direct measurement of the shower energy deposited in atmosphere.

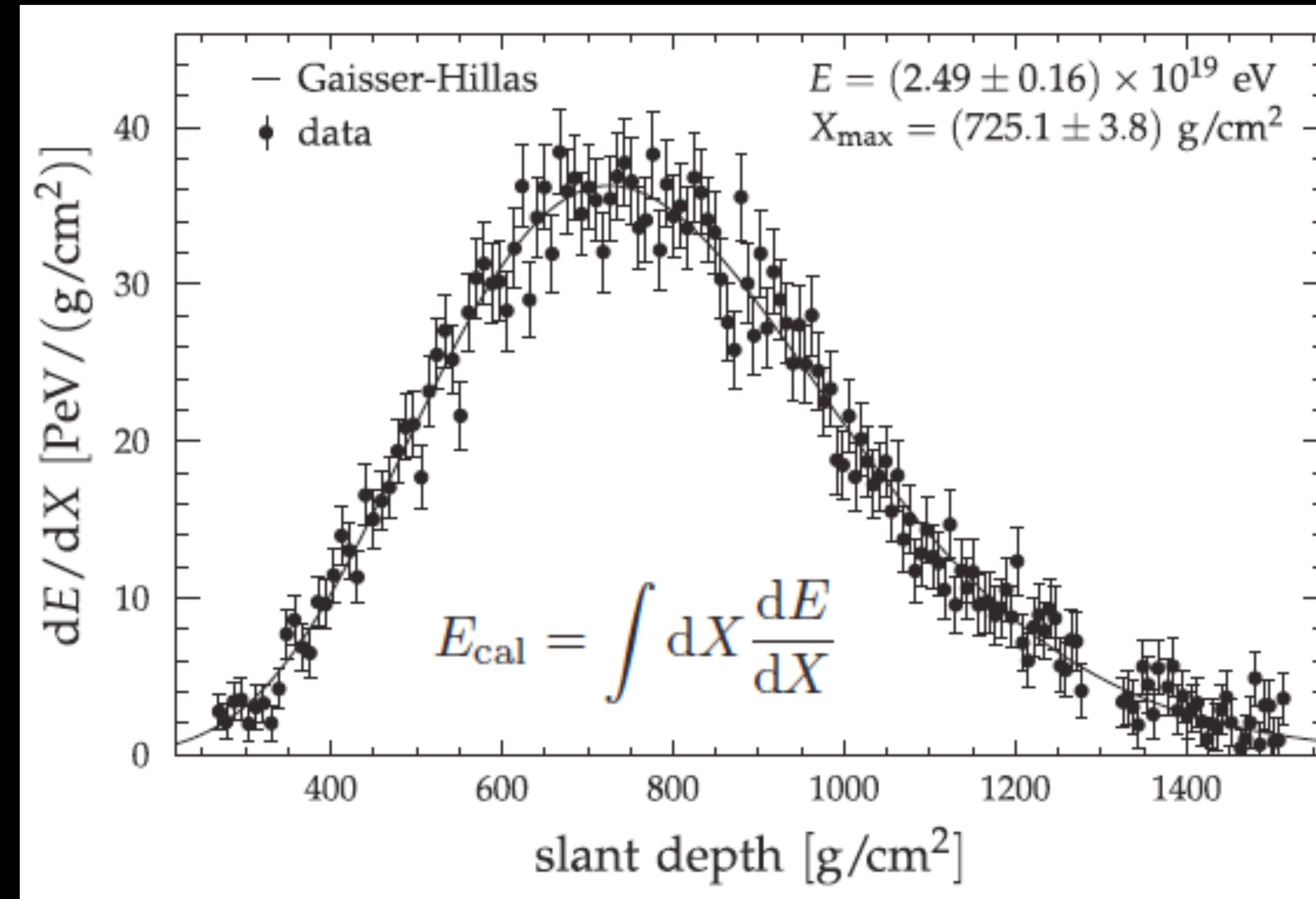
Model predictions do not enter the game!

UHECR energy from fluorescence detectors

In practice



Photons vs time

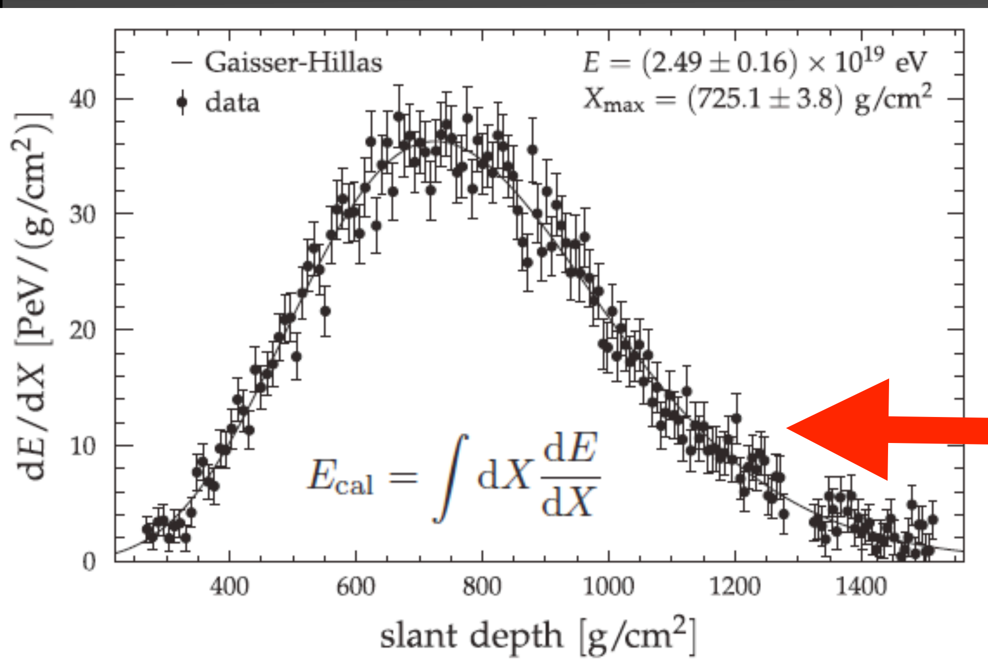


Energy deposit vs slant depth

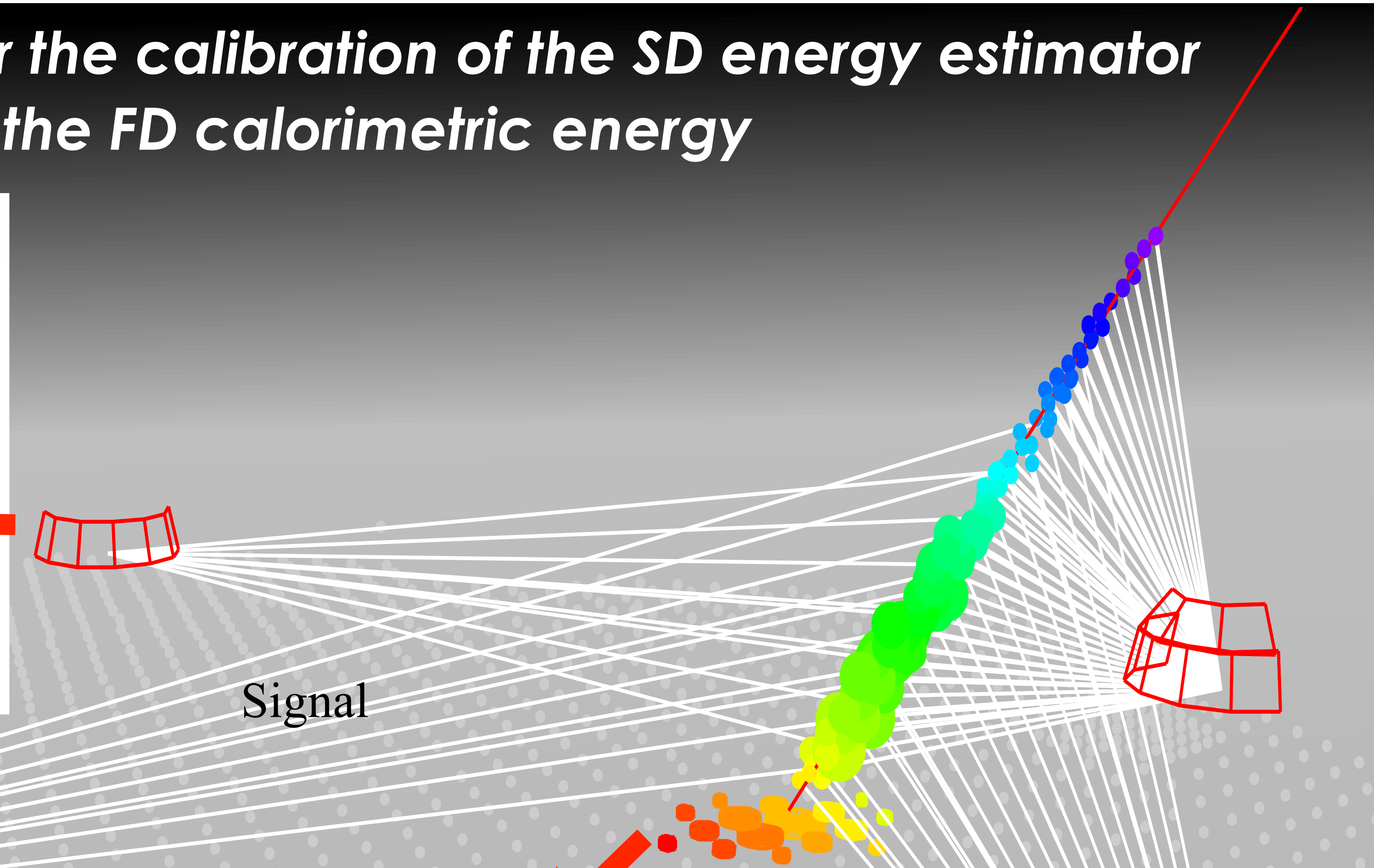
- **Reconstruct geometry** (shower detector plane - SDP - and shower axis in SDP)
- **Fit longitudinal shower profile**: a log-likelihood fit of the number of photons detected in the PMTs using the Gaisser-Hillas function
- The number of detected photons is folded with the **fluorescence yield**, and the **atmospheric transmission**
- The energy is derived after correcting for the **“invisible” energy**, carried away by neutrinos and muons.

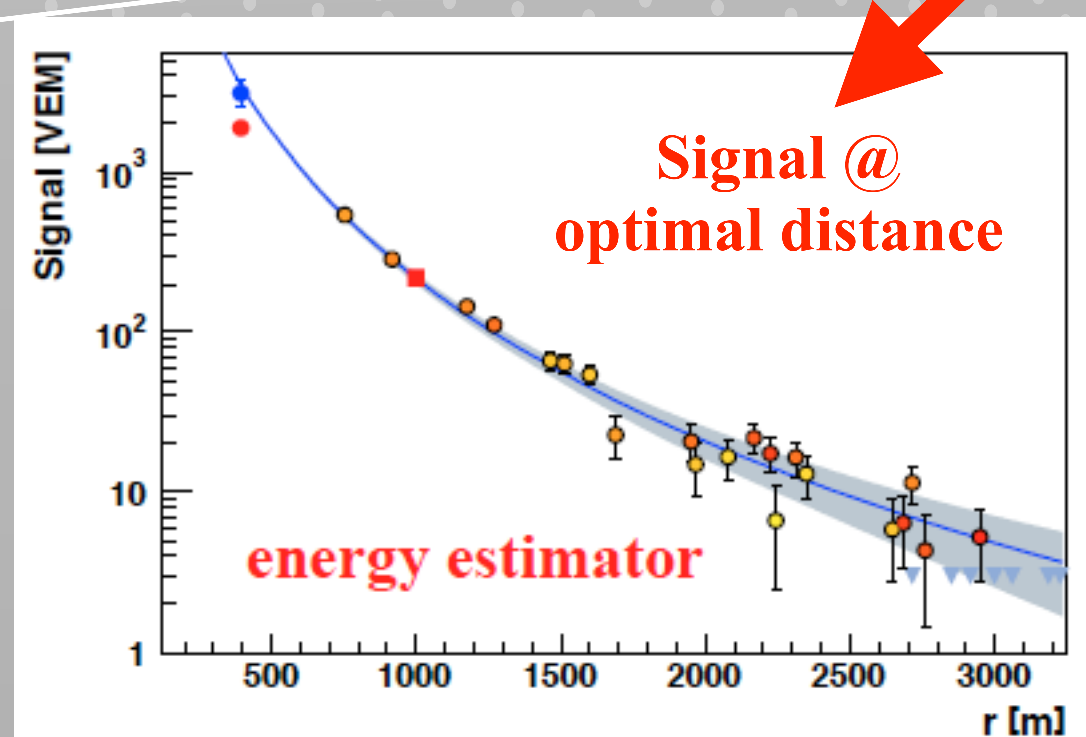
The smartness of the hybrid technique

Use hybrid events for the calibration of the SD energy estimator with the FD calorimetric energy



Longitudinal profile reconstruction: FD



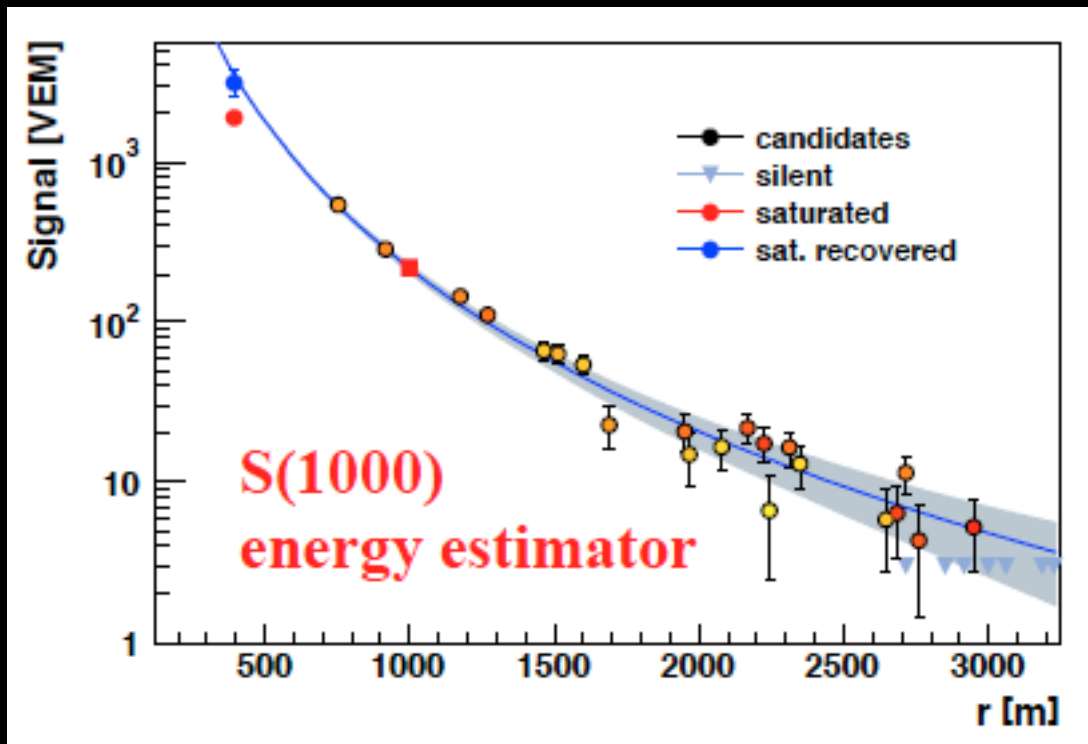


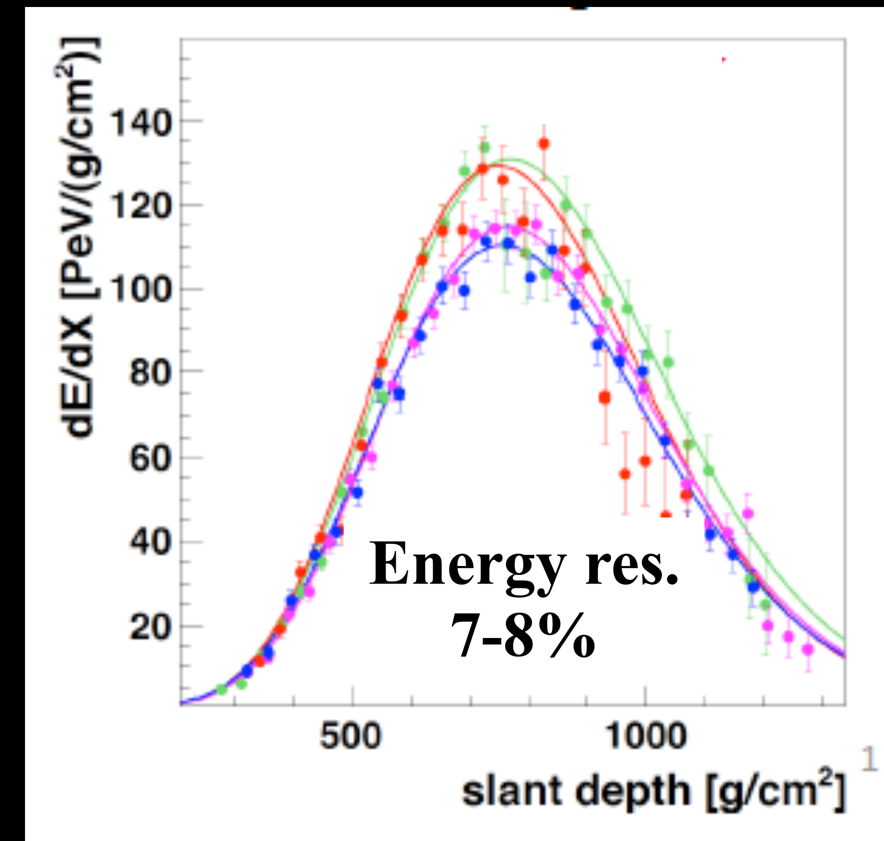
Particle lateral distribution: SD

The smartness of the hybrid technique

In practice

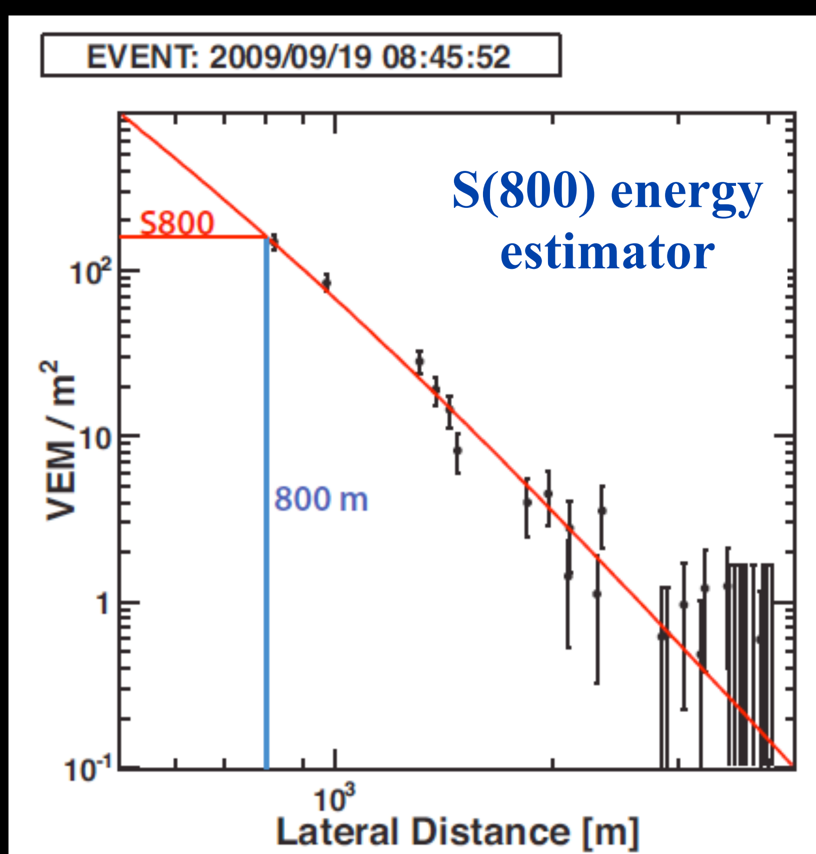
AUGER

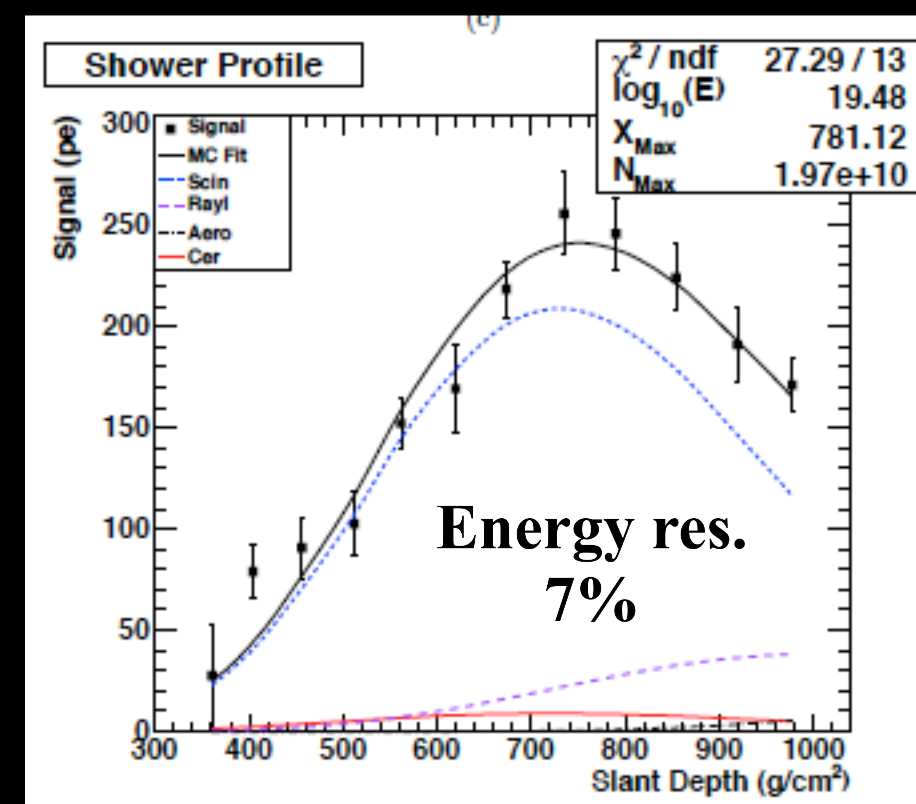




Hybrid events: calibration of SD energy estimator with FD calorimetric energy

TELESCOPE ARRAY

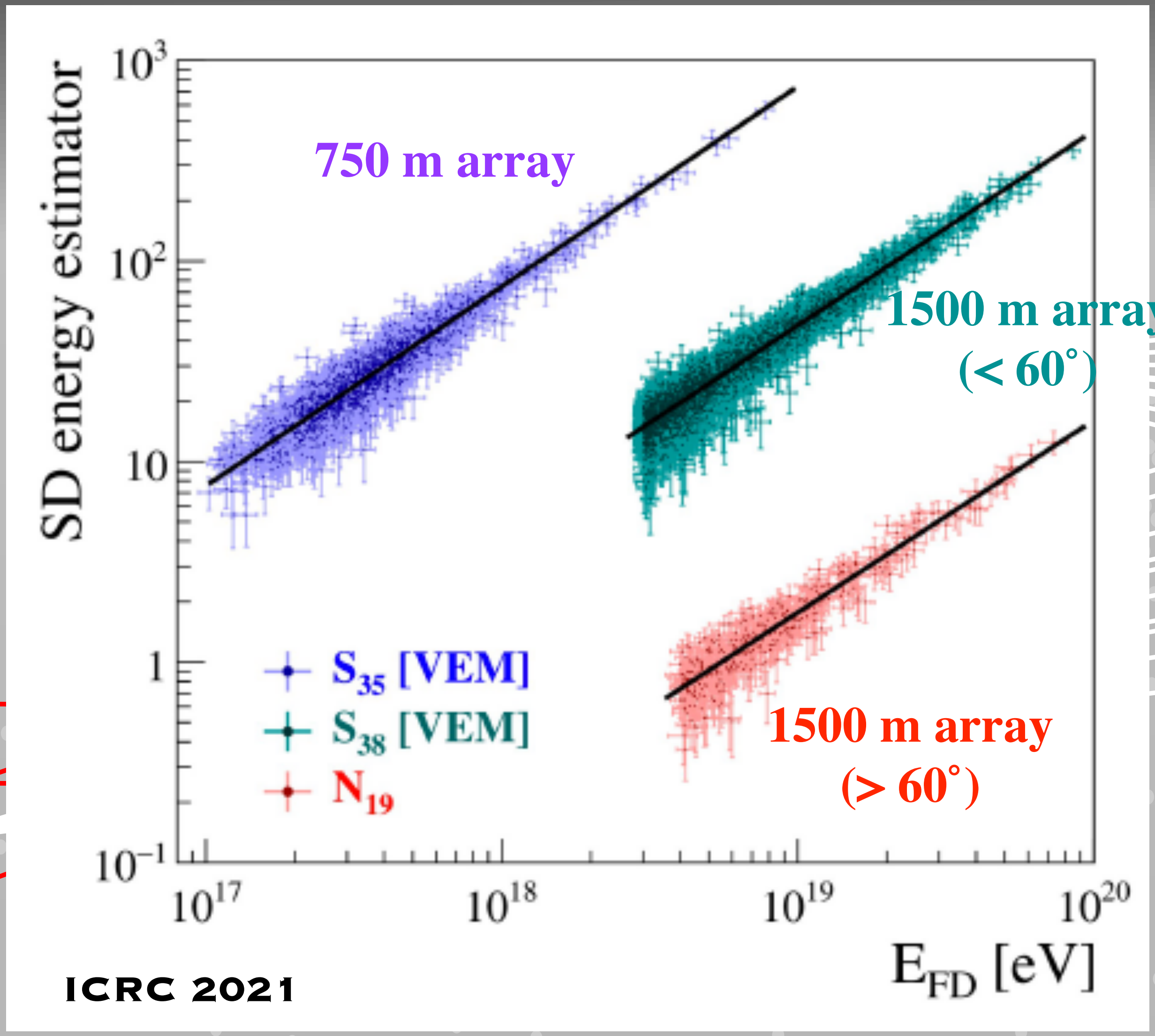




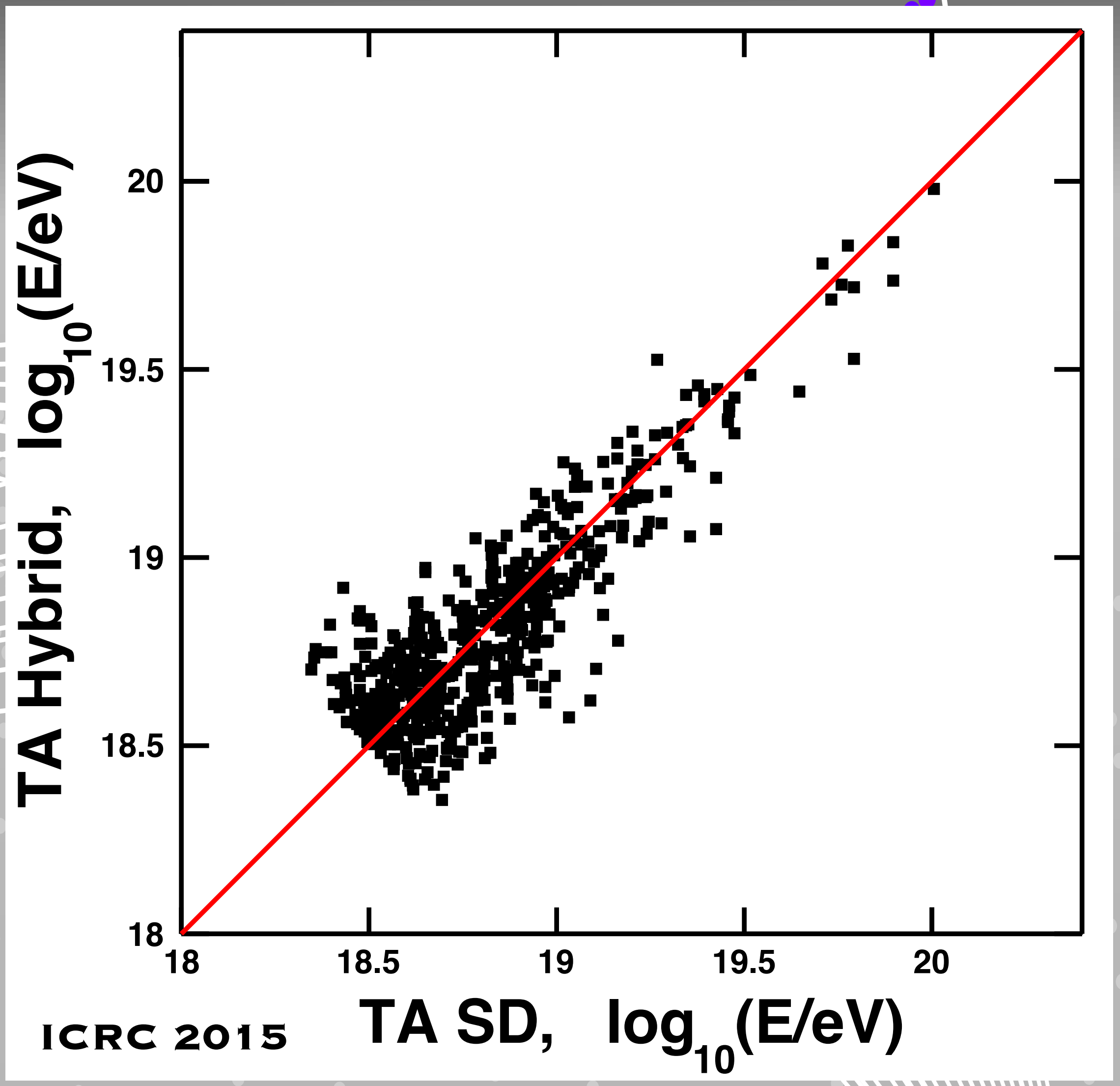
Energy calibration

In practice

AUGER



TELESCOPE ARRAY



Purely data-driven calibration

S(1000) is corrected for attenuation/ theta (Constant Intensity Cut) -> S38

S38 is calibrated versus EFD

S(800) is converted to energy E(S800,theta) through a MC look-up table

The model dependence is removed via the calibration with EFD

Energy resolution

Auger

Systematic uncertainties on the energy scale	
Fluorescence yield	3,6 %
Atmosphere	3.4%-6.2%
FD calibration	9,9 %
FD reconstruction	6.5%-5.6%
Invisible energy	3%-1.5%
Stat. error of the cal. fit	0.7%-1.8%
Stability of the E scale	5 %
TOTAL	**14 %**

SD energy statistical uncertainty (@10 EeV) ≈ 12%

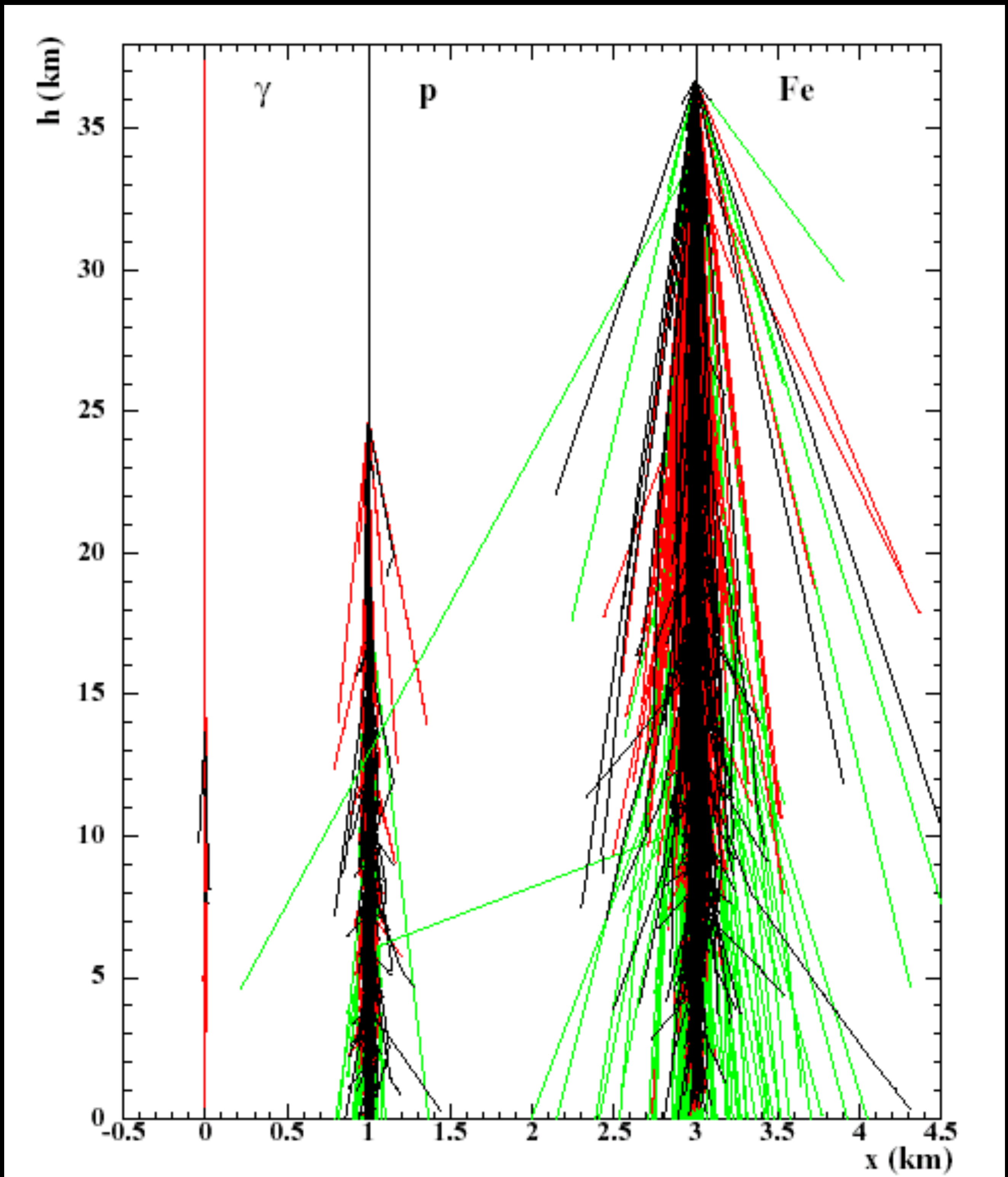
Telescope Array

Systematic uncertainty in energy determination	
Fluorescence yeild	11%
Atmospheric attenuation	11%
Absolute detector calib.	10%
reconstruction	10%
total	21%

SD energy statistical uncertainty (@10 EeV) ≈ 20%

The most difficult one: mass

The mass of an UHECR can only be inferred from comparisons of observables with shower simulations, subject to uncertainties of models of hadronic interactions at energies not accessible to accelerators

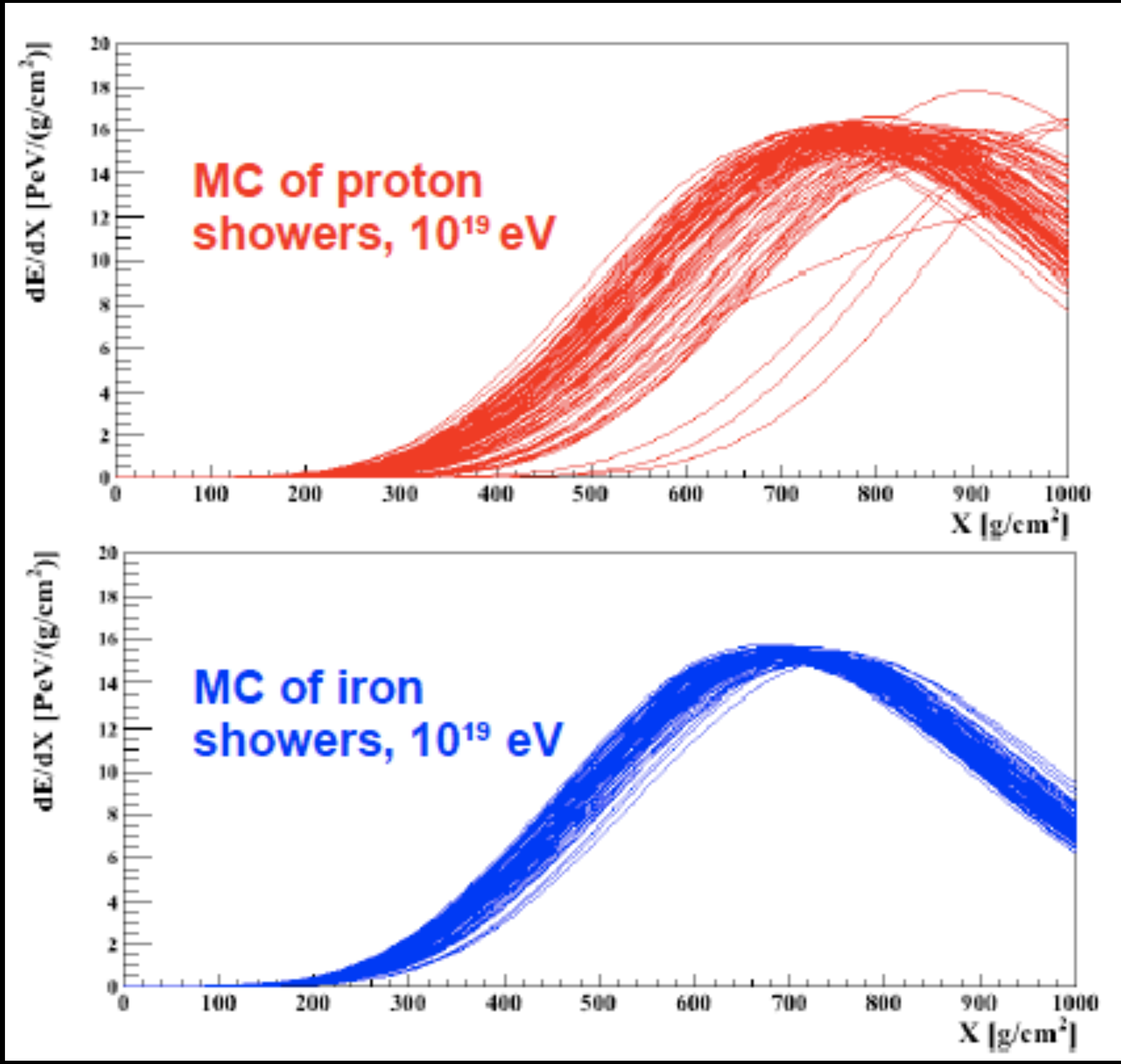


Observables sensitive to composition:

- **Depth of shower maximum (at fixed energy, a nucleus-shower develops faster than a proton-shower)**
- Relative number of electrons and muons (primary nucleus produces more muons than a primary proton)
- Shower front curvature (the higher the first interaction, the flatter the front)

The most difficult one: mass

Xmax, the depth of the shower maximum, is the main EAS observable sensitive to CR mass

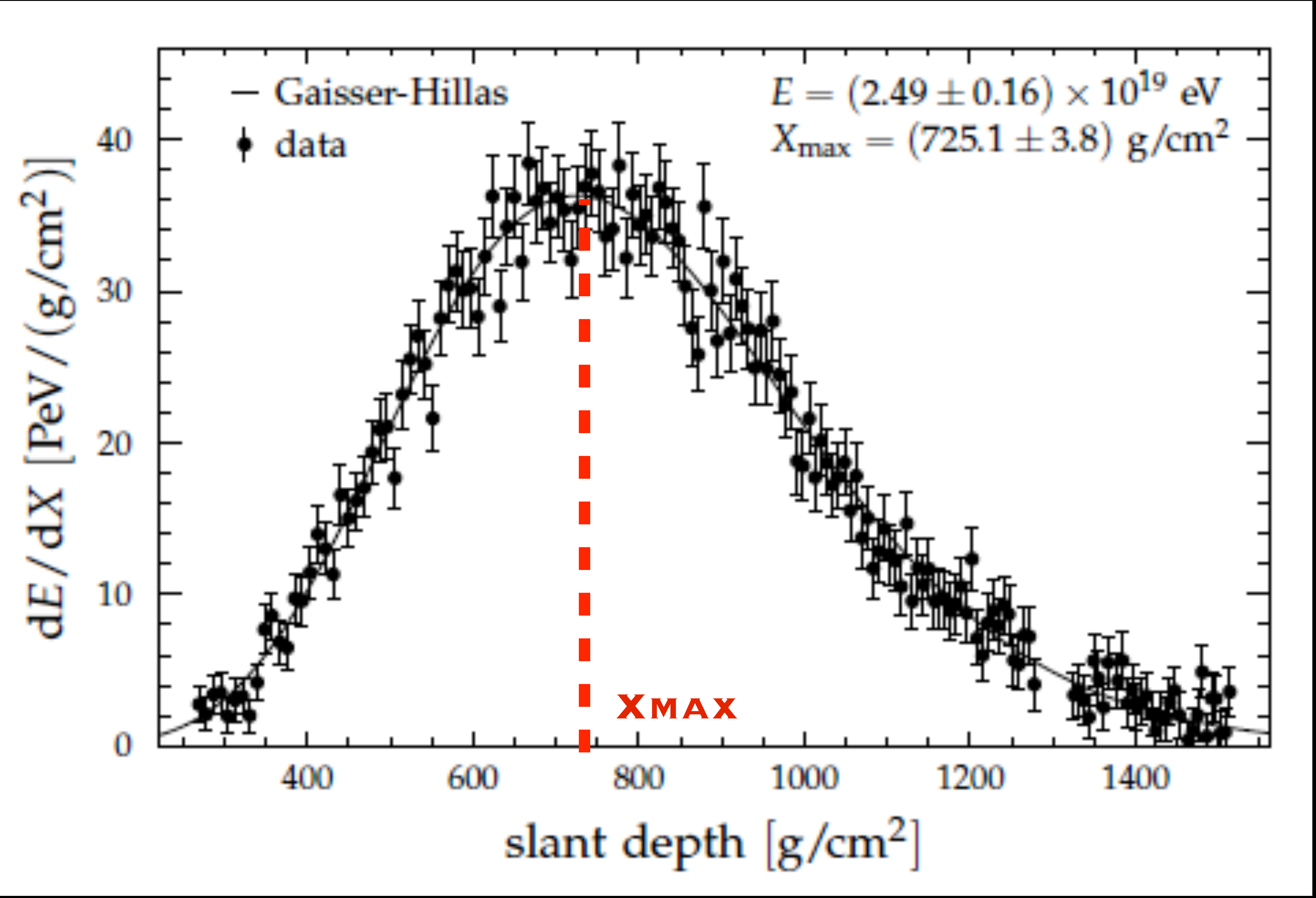


First interaction of heavier primaries is shallower and fluctuates less.
Sigma of the Xmax distribution is mass sensitive too

Xmax measurement

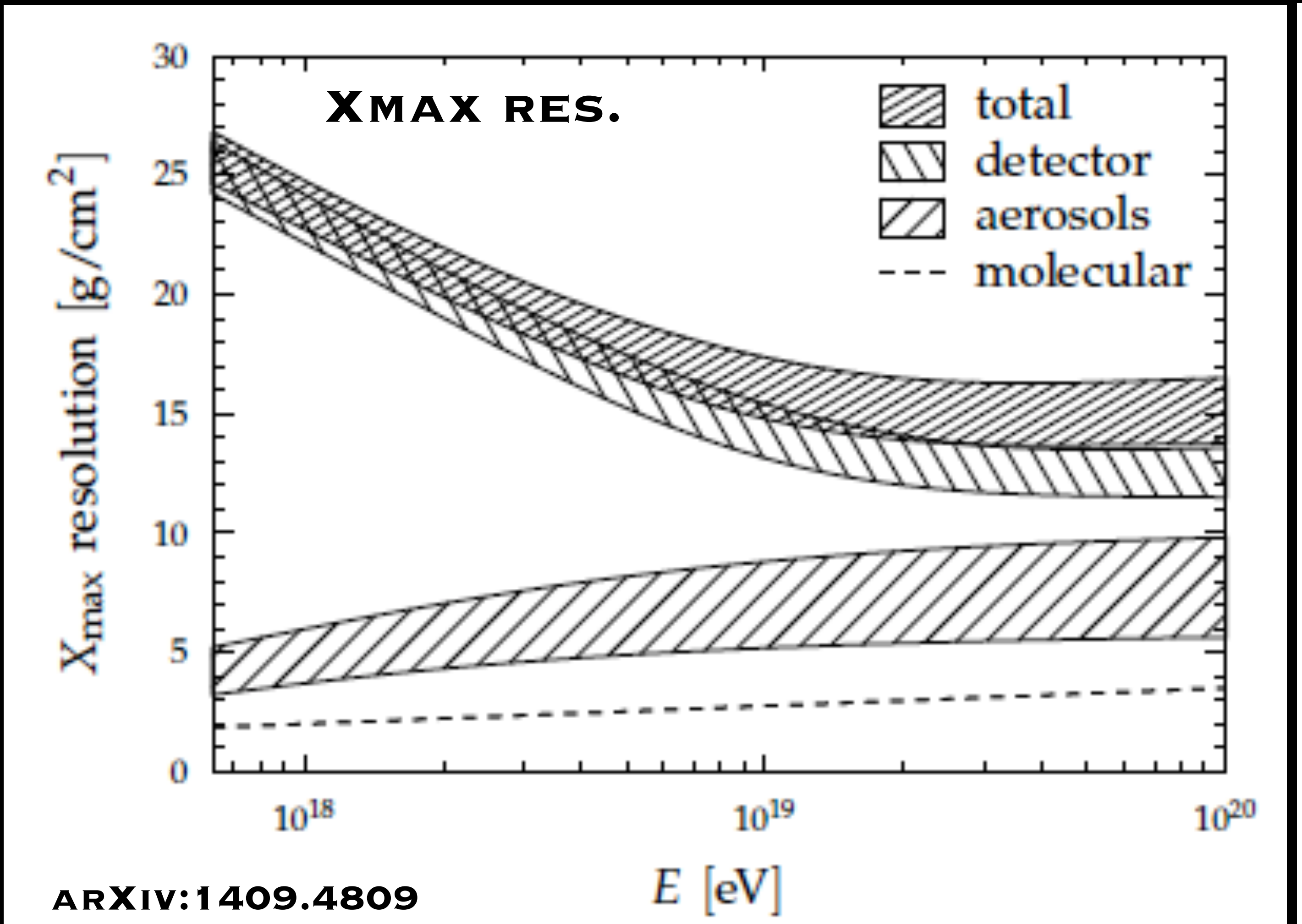
In practice

Xmax can be directly measured by fluorescence detectors

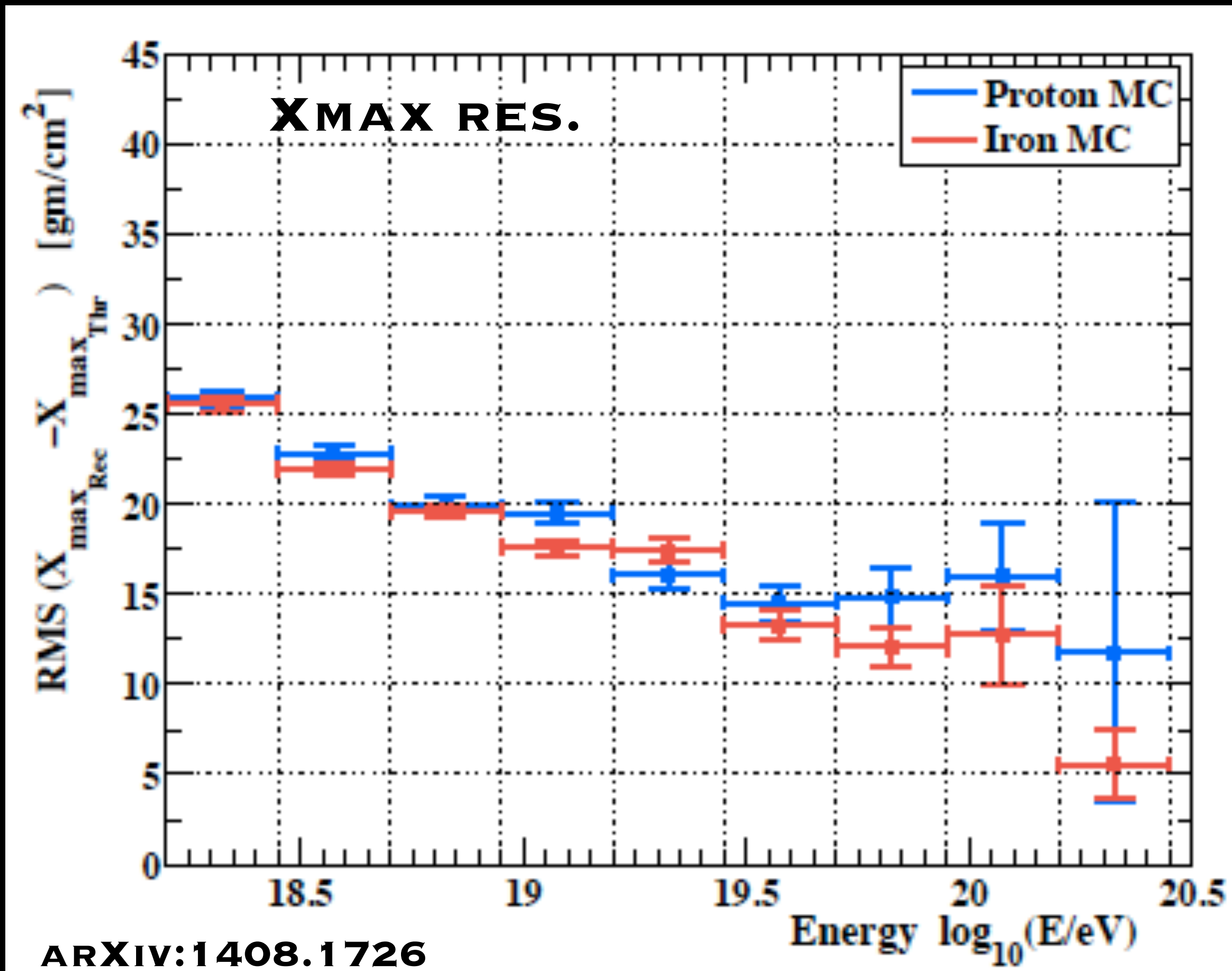


Xmax resolution

Auger



Telescope Array



Between 25 and 15 g/cm², getting better with increasing energy

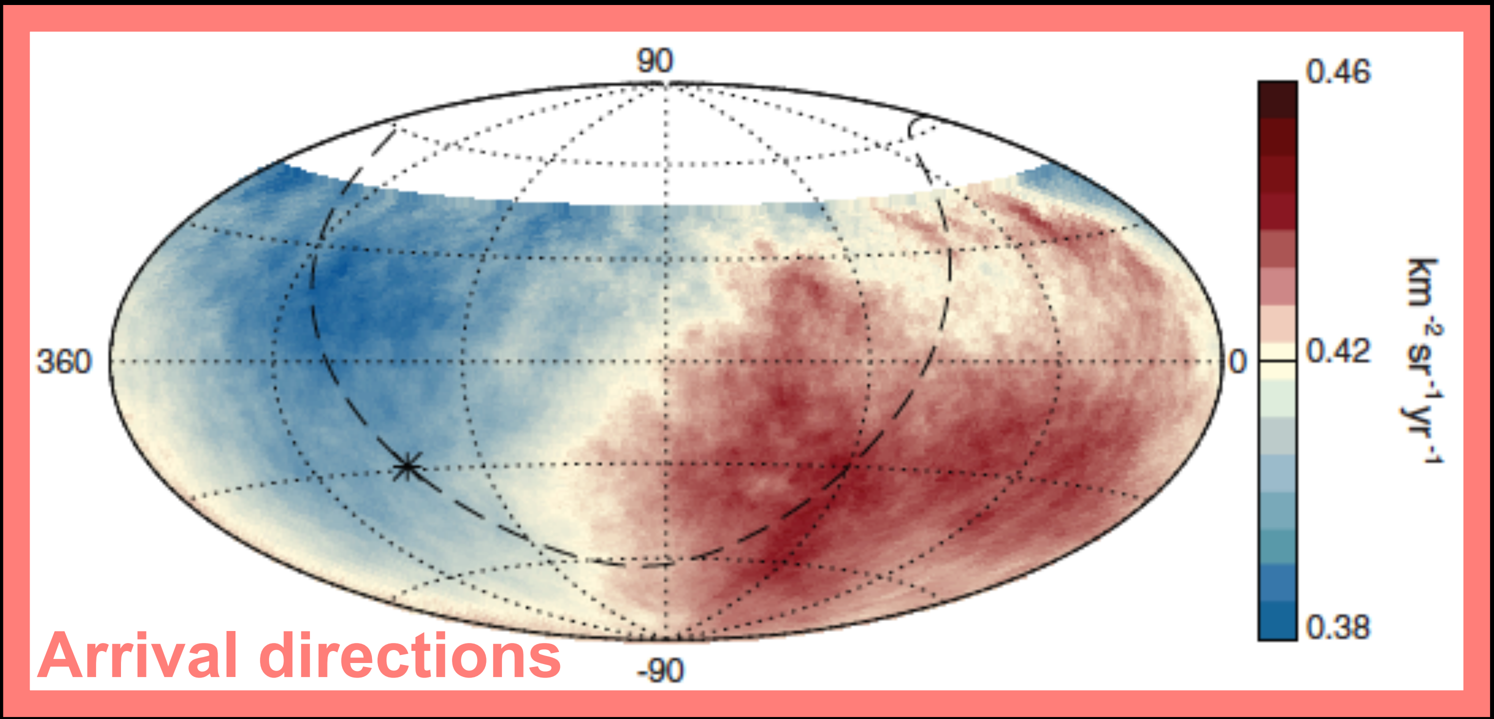
Systematic uncertainty ≈ 10%

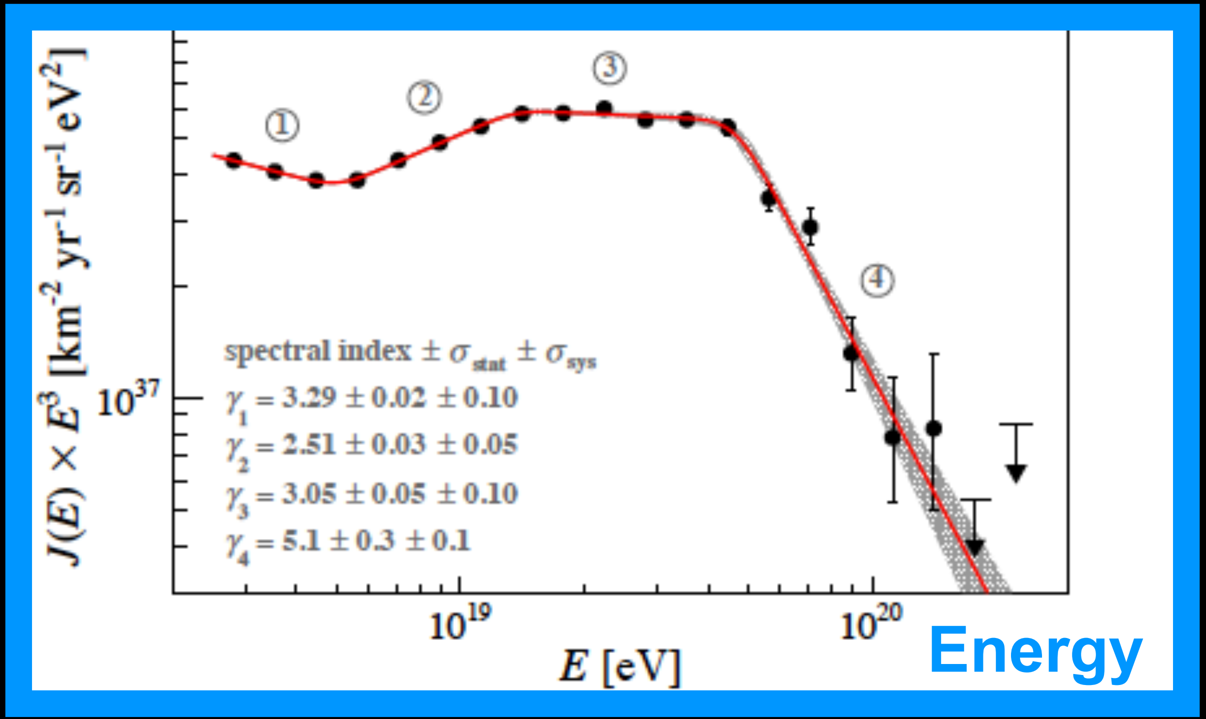
Systematic uncertainty ≈ 16%

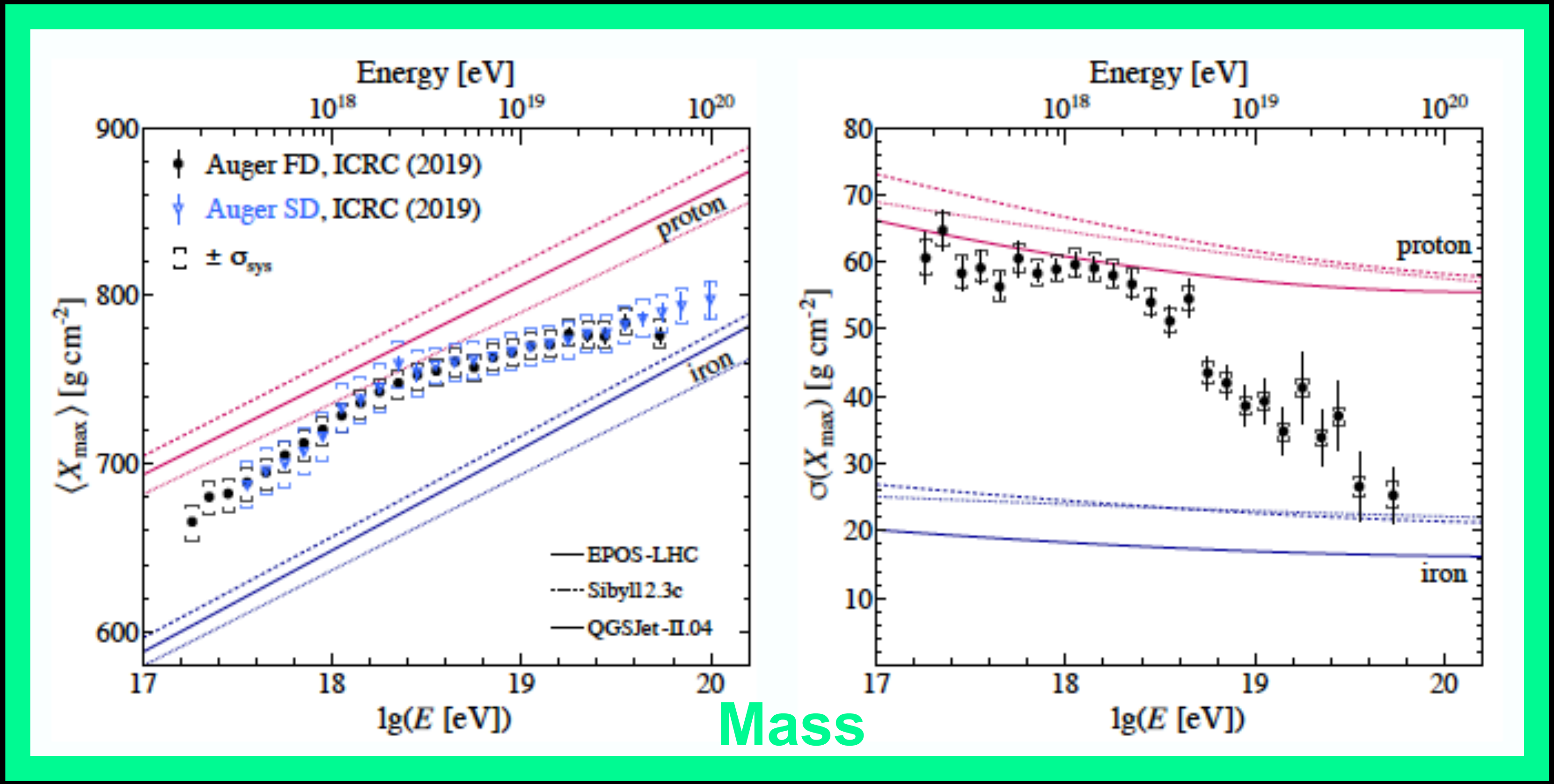
At this point, we would be ready for the "grandeur" of the inferences

Once we know...	We can study...
CR Energy	Flux vs energy [Energy spectrum]
CR mass	Origin of spectral feature(s)
CR arrival direction	Distribution of arrival directions

At this point, we would be ready for the "grandeur" of the inferences







...but it's lunch time :-)

Thanks for your attention!

I hope that you won’t think like Enrico Fermi did once:

“Before I came here I was confused about this subject. Having listened to your lecture I am still confused. But on a higher level.”

Credits

It is hard to keep track of the original source of material contained in a lecture. My apologies to those who originally created the plots and graphs collected here and are not properly quoted.

Innumerable papers have served to this lecture, more or less modern.

It has been a pleasure to take profit of a few "historical" books which made me feel humble:

Bruno Rossi, Cosmic Rays, Mc Graw-Hill 1964

Yataro Sekido and Harry Elliot, Early History of Cosmic Ray Studies, Reidel Publishing Company 1985

Michael W. Friedlander, Cosmic Rays, Harvard University Press 1989

Tom Gaisser, Cosmic Rays and Particle Physics, Cambridge University Press, 1990

Malcolm S. Longair, High Energy Astrophysics, Cambridge University Press, 1992

I am also in debt with countless colleagues with whom I share the passion for Extensive Air Showers and cosmic rays.

Finally, the foundation of all what I know about EAS and detectors has been taught to me by Carlo Castagnoli and Gianni Navarra, now gone, but always alive for and in me.