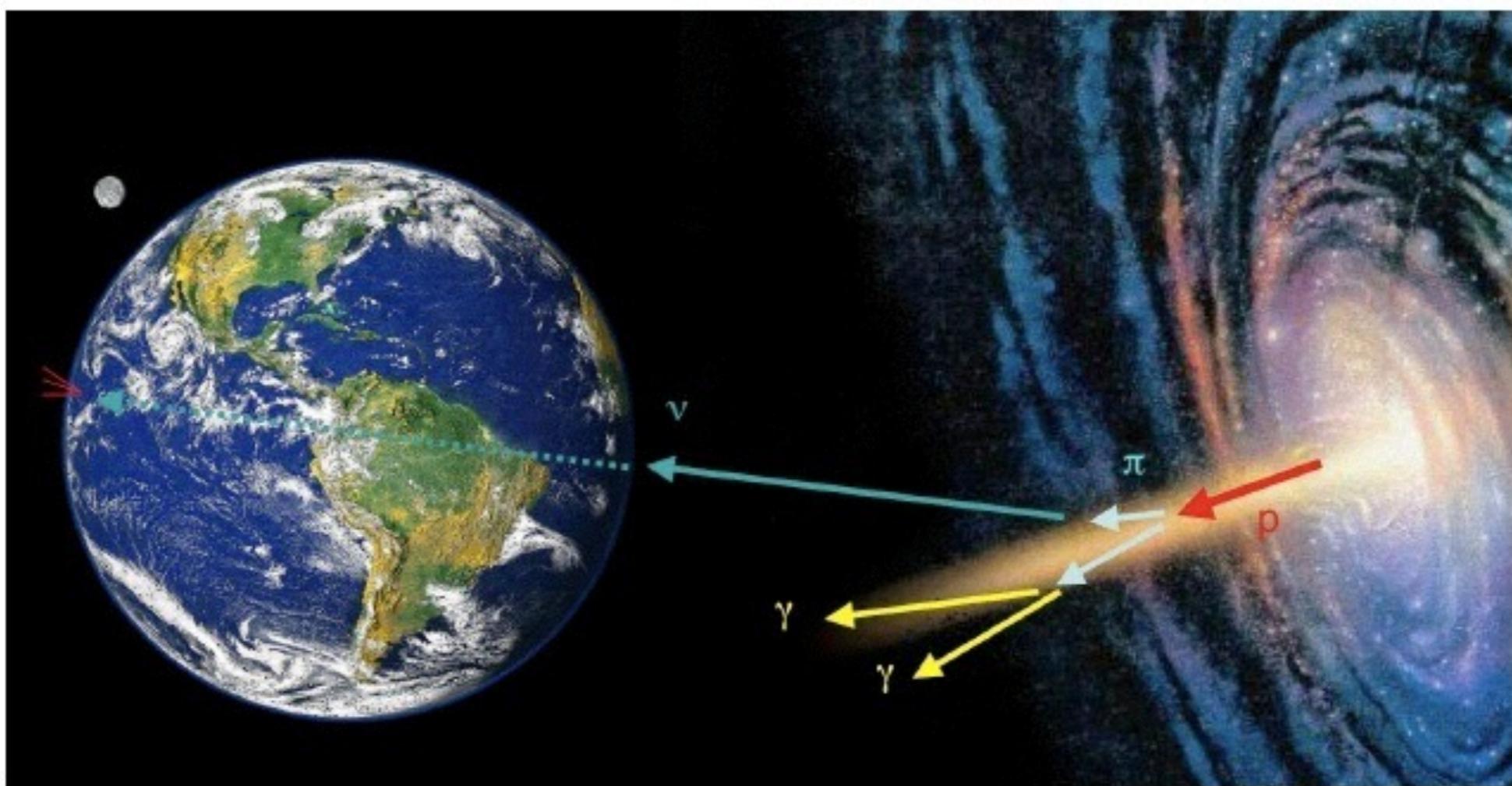


# Teilchenphysik mit kosmischen und mit erdgebundenen Beschleunigern



## 06. Cosmic Accelerators

01.06.2015



# Cosmic Rays: Discovery

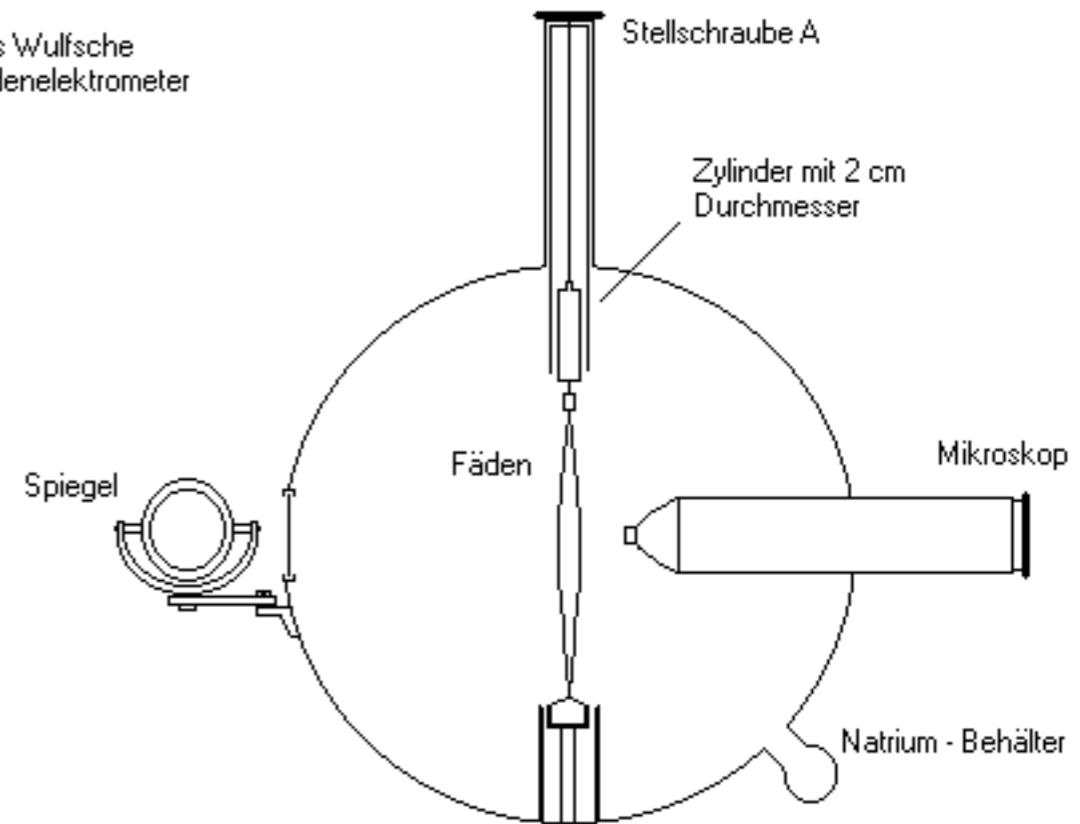
- Discovered by Victor Hess 1912
- ▶ Nobel Prize in physics 1936
- Observation on balloon flights with electroscopes:
  - Rate of discharge reduces with increasing altitude, up to an altitude of 1000 m
  - Above this a strong increase of the discharge rate is observed, at 5000 m it is several times higher than the rate at ground level



# Cosmic Rays: Discovery

- The experimental method:
  - Electrometer, the distance of (electrostatically charged) strings gives the amount of charge on the strings
  - Discharge via ionising radiation

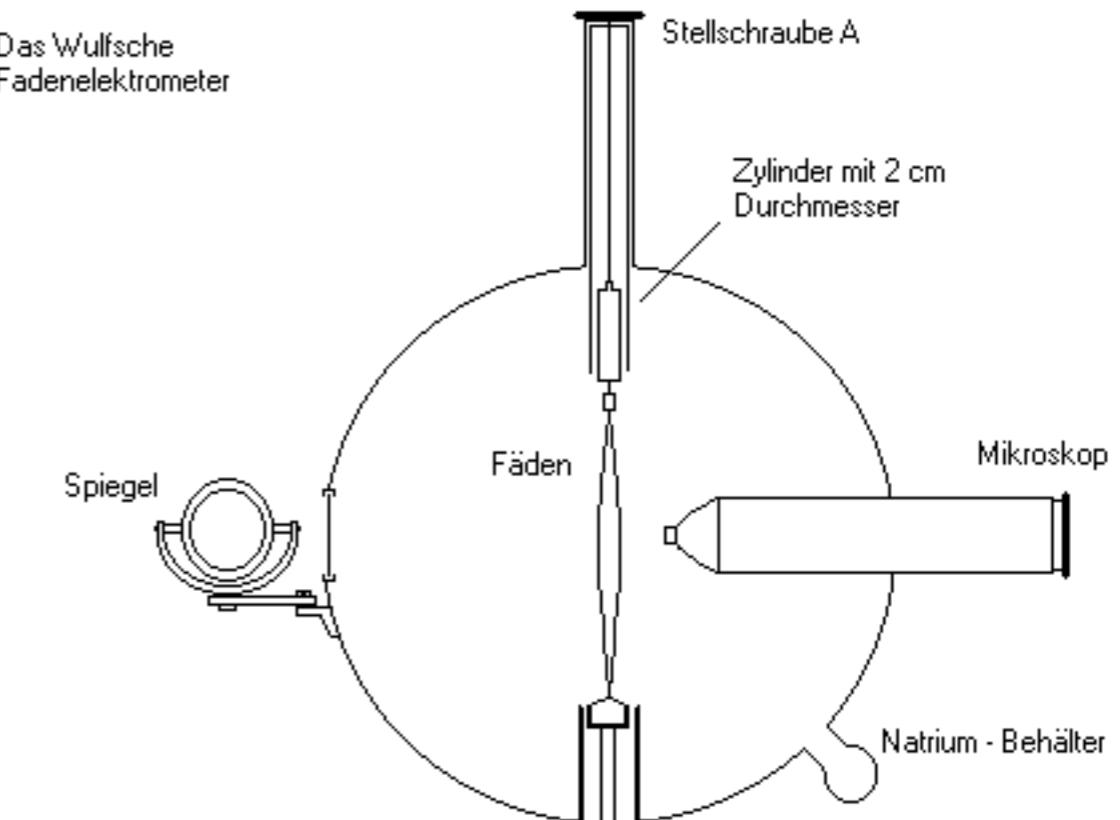
Das Wulfsche  
Fadenelektrometer



G. Federmann, Diplomarbeit, U. Wien,  
2002

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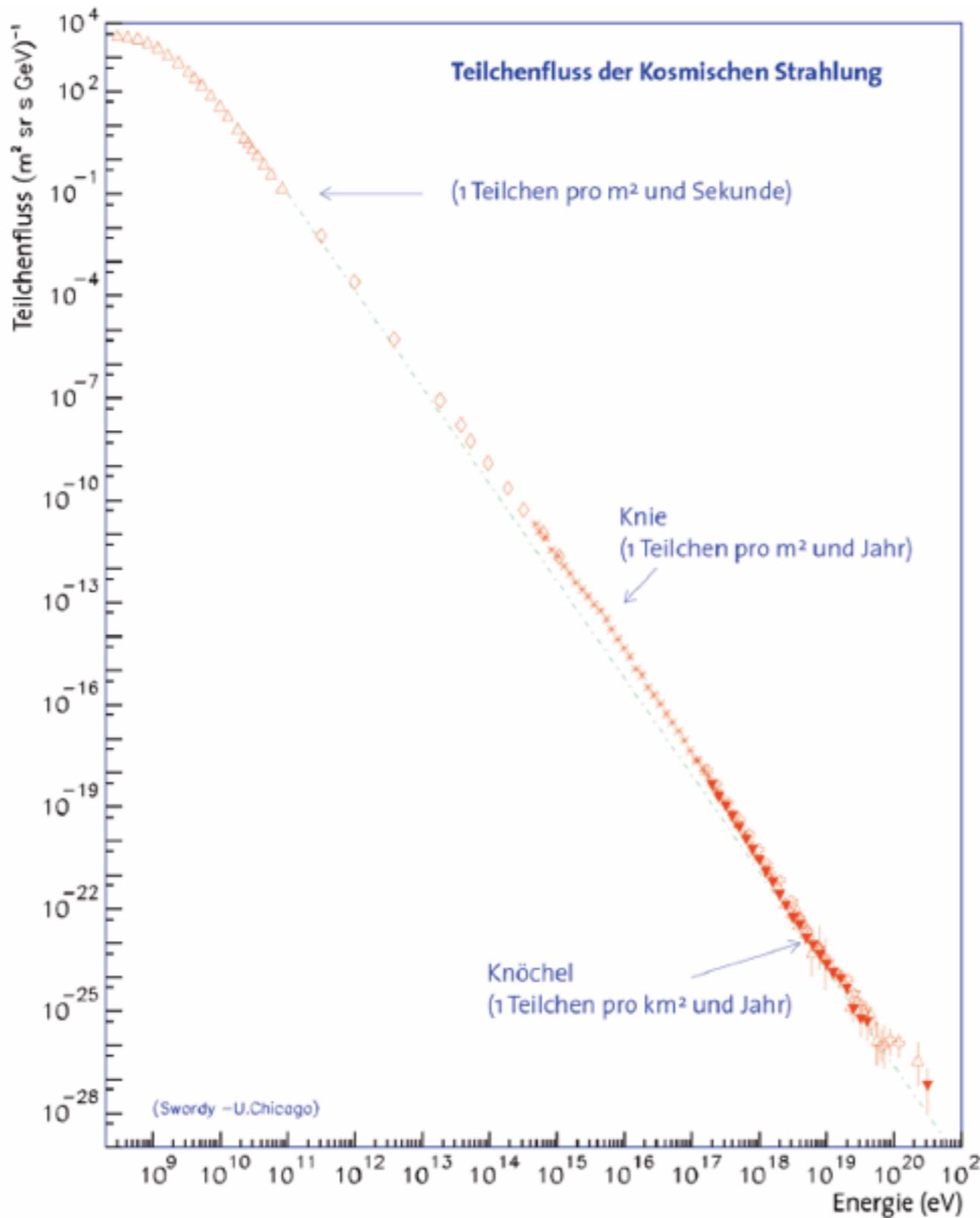
- The experimental method:
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- Interpretation of the observation
  - ▶ Reduction of ambient radioactivity with increasing altitude (less radio nuclides, such as Radon)
  - ▶ The increase of radiation at high altitudes has to be due to extraterrestrial sources
  - ⇒ “**Höhenstrahlung**”

G. Federmann, Diplomarbeit, U. Wien,  
2002

# Cosmic Rays: Spectrum



- Extends over many orders of magnitude in energy and flux:
  - ▶ GeV ( $10^9$  eV) - ZeV ( $10^{21}$ )
  - ▶  $>1 \text{ cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$  -  $< 1 \text{ km}^{-2}$  per century

- Follows a power law:

$$\frac{dN}{dE} \propto E^{-\gamma}$$

- $\gamma \sim 2.7$   $E < 10^{15}$  eV
- $\gamma \sim 3.0$   $10^{15}$  eV  $< E < 10^{18}$  eV
- $\gamma \sim 2.7$   $10^{18}$  eV  $< E$

# Energy Density of Cosmic Rays

- Differential flux on earth  
(parametrisation valid from  $\sim$  GeV to  $\sim$ 100 TeV):

$$\frac{dN}{dE} \approx \left( \frac{E}{\text{GeV}} \right)^{-2.7} \frac{\text{particles}}{m^2 sr s \text{GeV}}$$

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- Energy density:

$$\rho_E = \frac{4\pi}{c} \int E \frac{dN}{dE} \approx 1 \frac{eV}{cm^3}$$

# Cosmic Rays: Power

- Rough estimate of the energy of cosmic rays within the Milky Way

$$V = \pi R^2 d \sim \pi(15 \text{ kpc})^2 (200 \text{ pc}) \sim 4 \times 10^{60} \text{ m}^3$$

$$\Rightarrow E_{\text{Strahlung}} \sim 4 \times 10^{66} \text{ eV} \sim 6.4 \times 10^{47} \text{ J}$$

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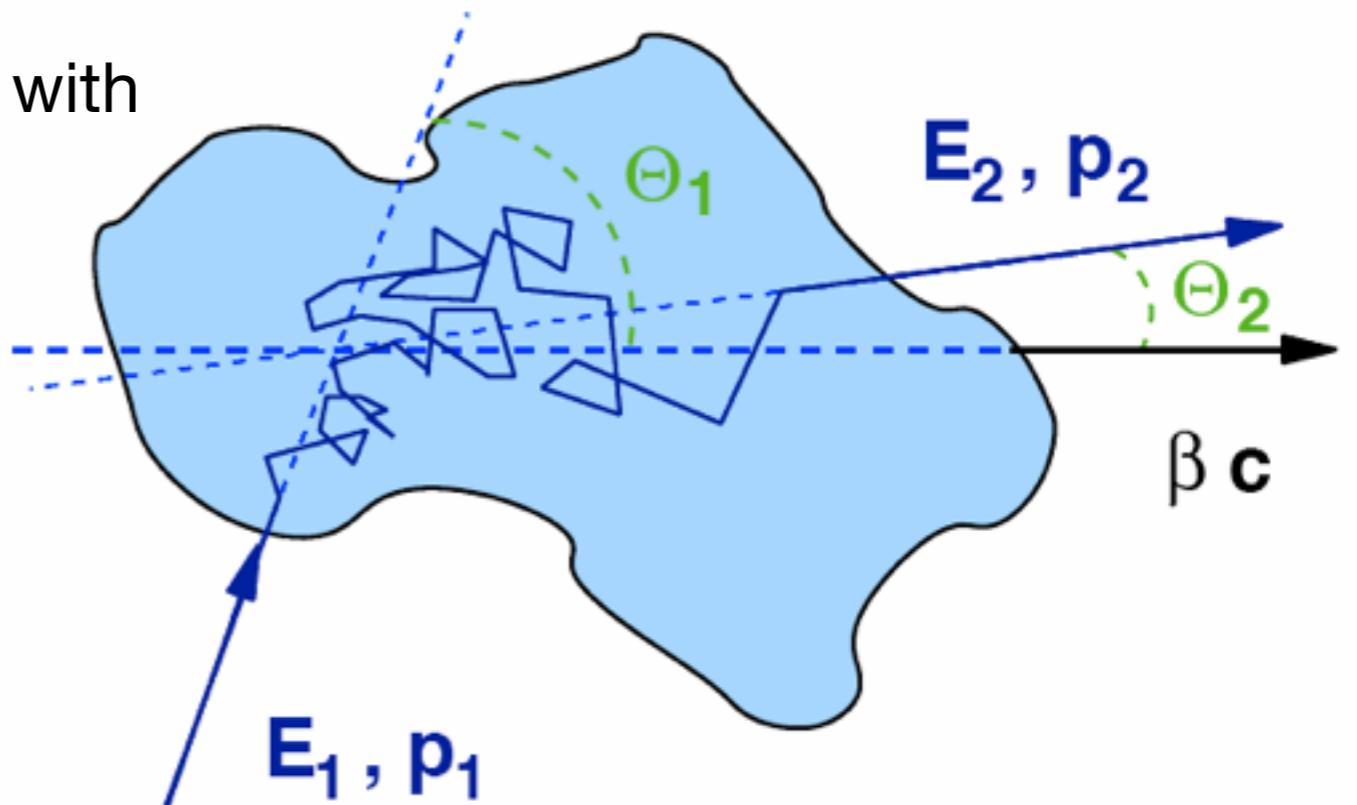
$$P_{SN} \sim 10^{35} \text{ W}$$

As comparison:  
therm. power of the sun  
 $\sim 4 \times 10^{26} \text{ W}$ ,  
Milky Way  $\sim 2 \times 10^{11}$  stars

- SNe could be the accelerators, would require  $\sim 10\%$  efficiency

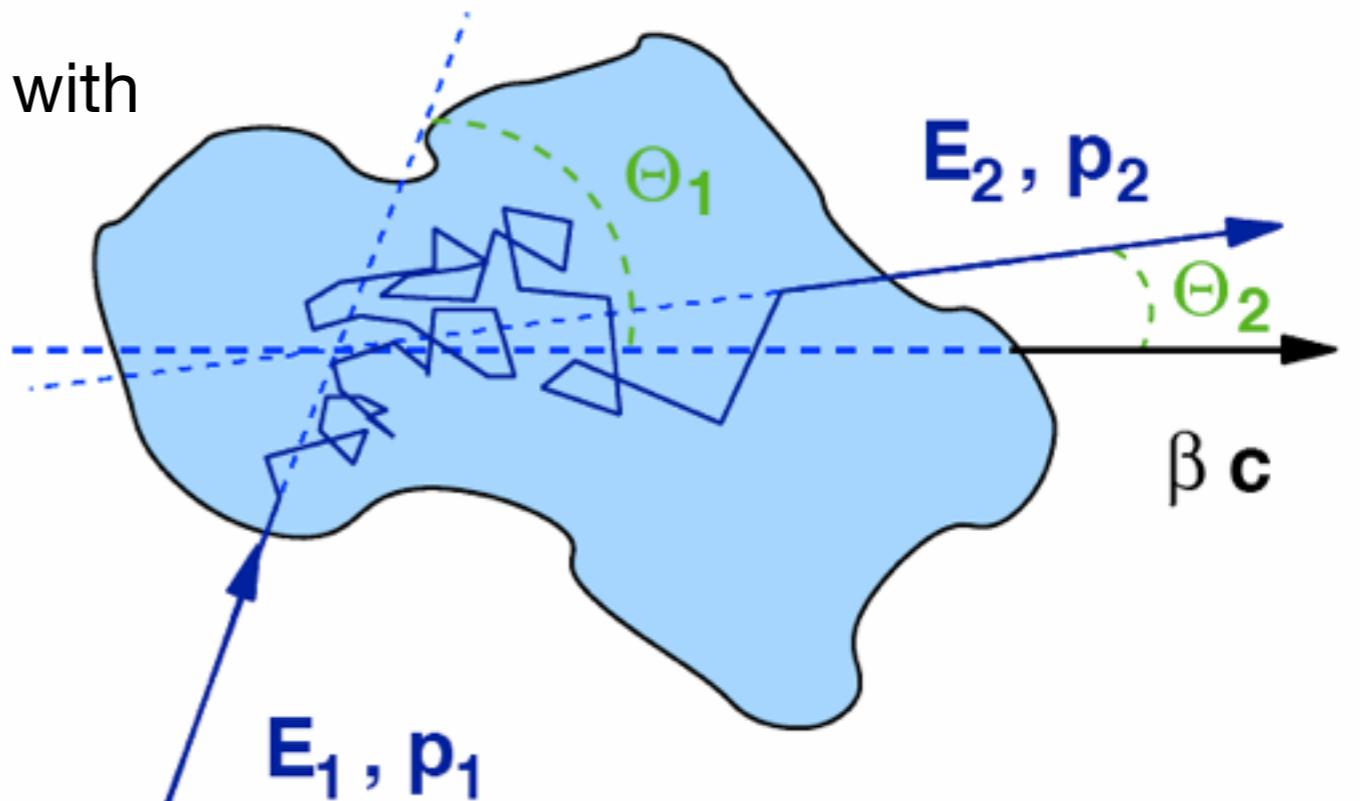
# Second Order Fermi Acceleration

- Proposed by Enrico Fermi 1949
- The principle: Collisions of particles with interstellar gas clouds
  - Particle speed  $\sim c$
  - Cloud speed  $\beta c$
  - entrance and exit angle relative to cloud direction  $\Theta_1, \Theta_2$



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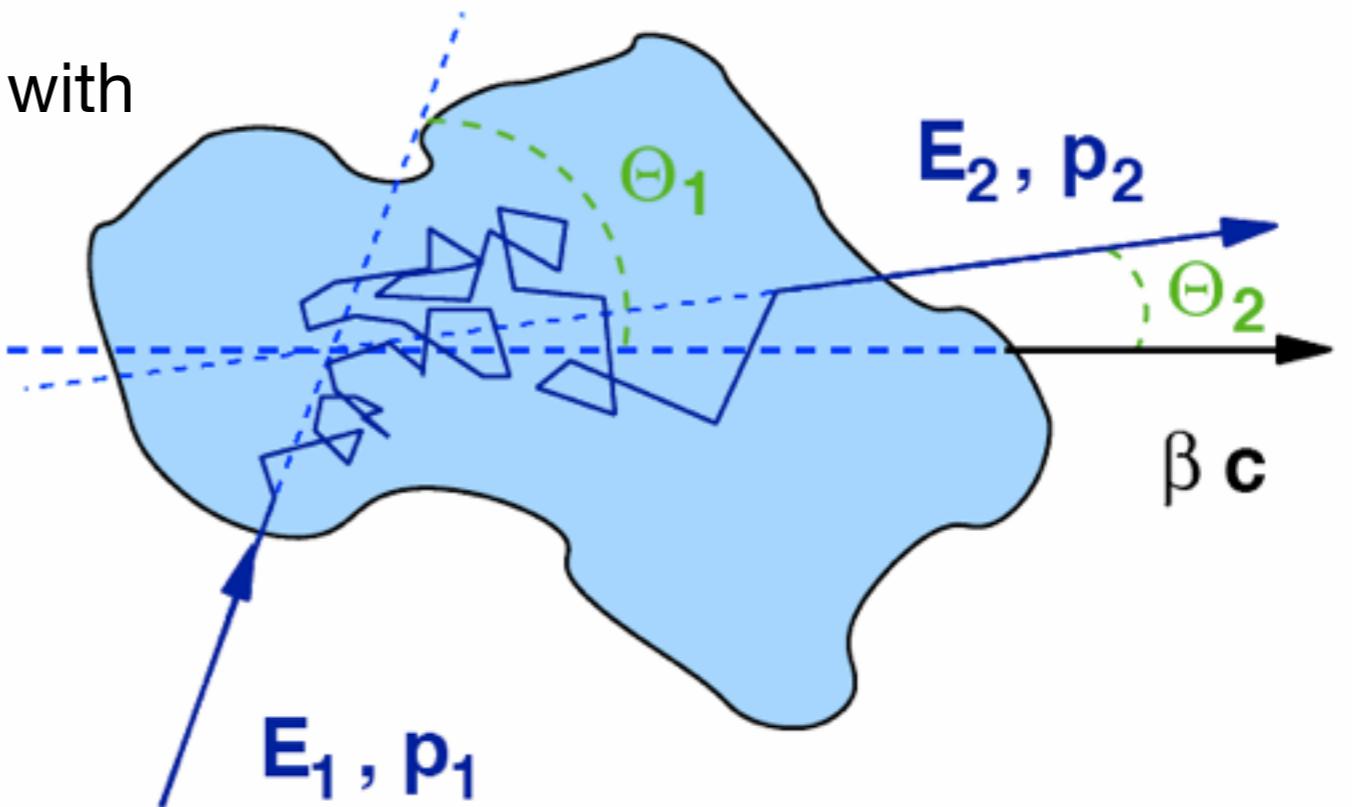


- Boost into cloud rest frame:

$$E'_1 = \gamma E_1 - \beta \gamma p_{||} = \gamma E_1 - \beta \gamma \cos \Theta_1 p \approx \gamma E_1 (1 - \beta \cos \Theta_1)$$

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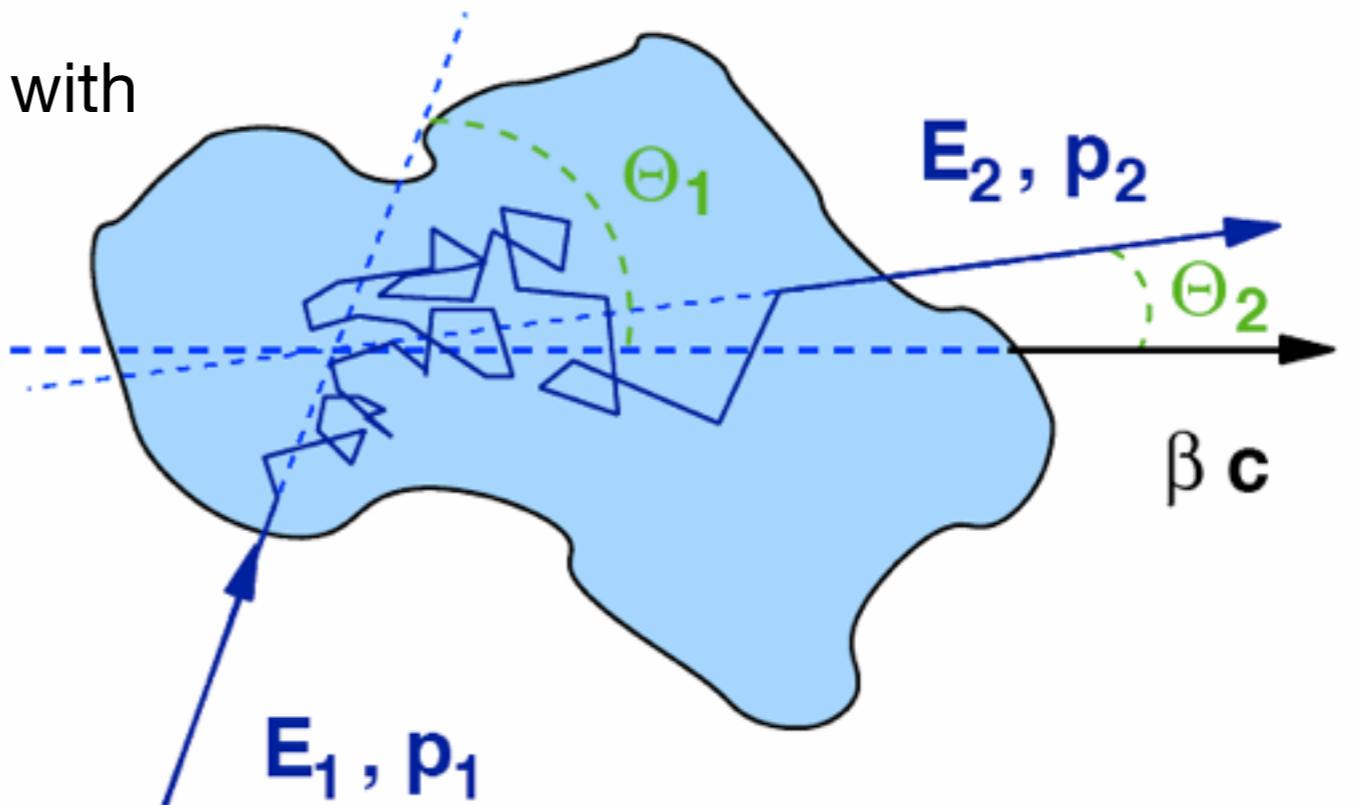
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- Boost boost back to “Universe” frame:  $E_2 = \gamma E'_2 (1 + \beta \cos \Theta'_2)$

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- Energy difference

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- ▶ Very low acceleration efficiency (proportional to  $\beta^2$  - second order in  $\beta$ ):
  - typical cloud speeds  $10^4$  m/s  $\Rightarrow \beta \sim 3 \times 10^{-5}$
  - mean free path between collisions:  $\sim 30$  pc  $\Rightarrow$  every 100 years one collision

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Characteristic time:

$$\frac{3\tau}{4\beta^2} \approx 6 \times 10^{10} a$$



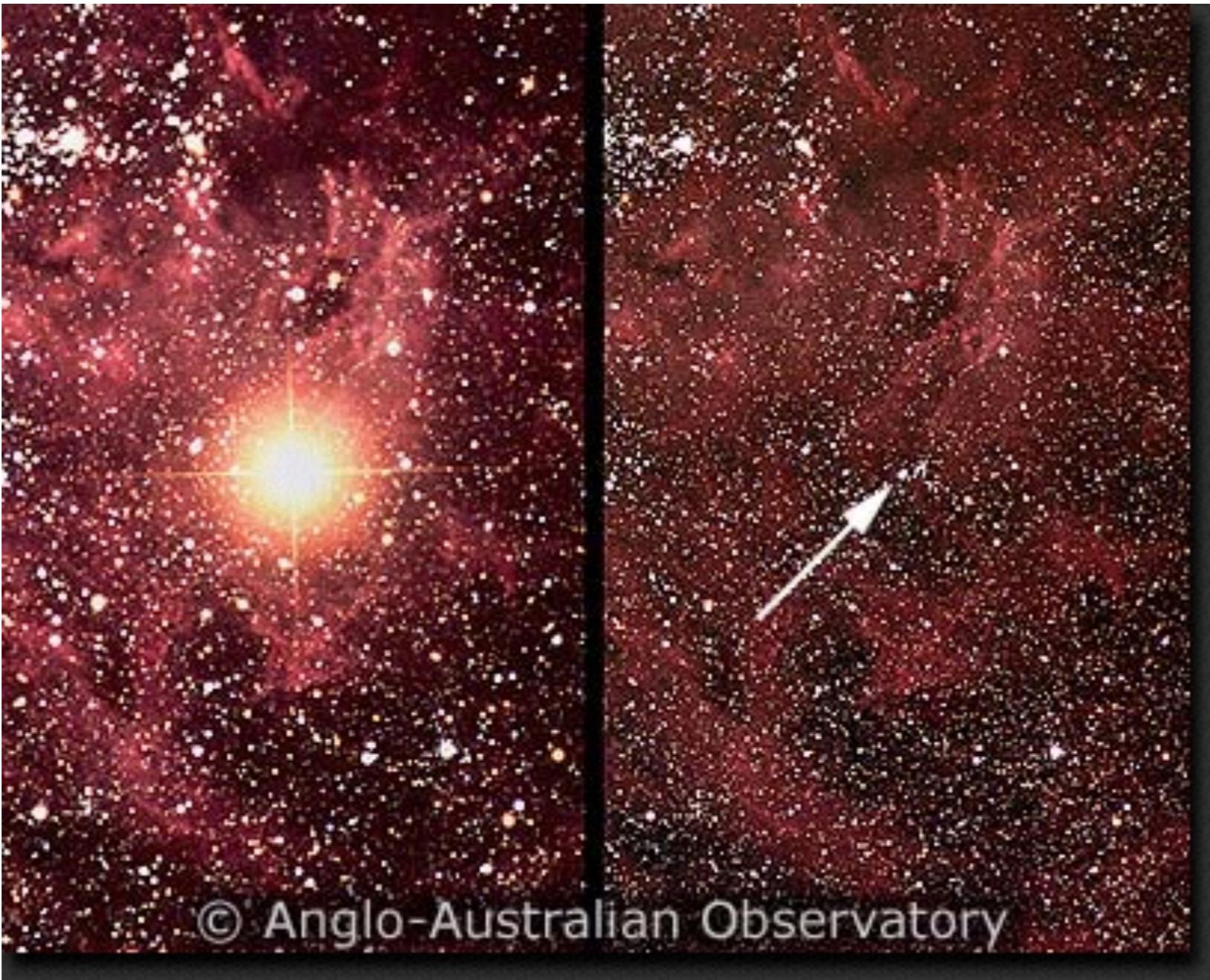
# Supernovae

- Classification into main types
  - SN I: no hydrogen lines in spectrum
    - SN Ia collapse of an accreting white dwarf in a binary star system to a neutron star
  - SN II: hydrogen lines visible
    - Gravitational collapse of a massive star at the end of its life
    - Star burns up to the formation of iron in the core, then no radiation pressure to counter gravitation
      - ▶ Atoms are converted to neutrons via electron capture
      - ▶ Star collapses with a speed of  $\sim 0.1 c$
      - ▶ Matter is reflected at the stable neutron star in the core
      - ▶ A shock wave runs outwards
      - ▶ An enormous number of neutrinos is produced ( $\sim 10^{58}$ ), despite their small interaction cross section they further drive the shock wave



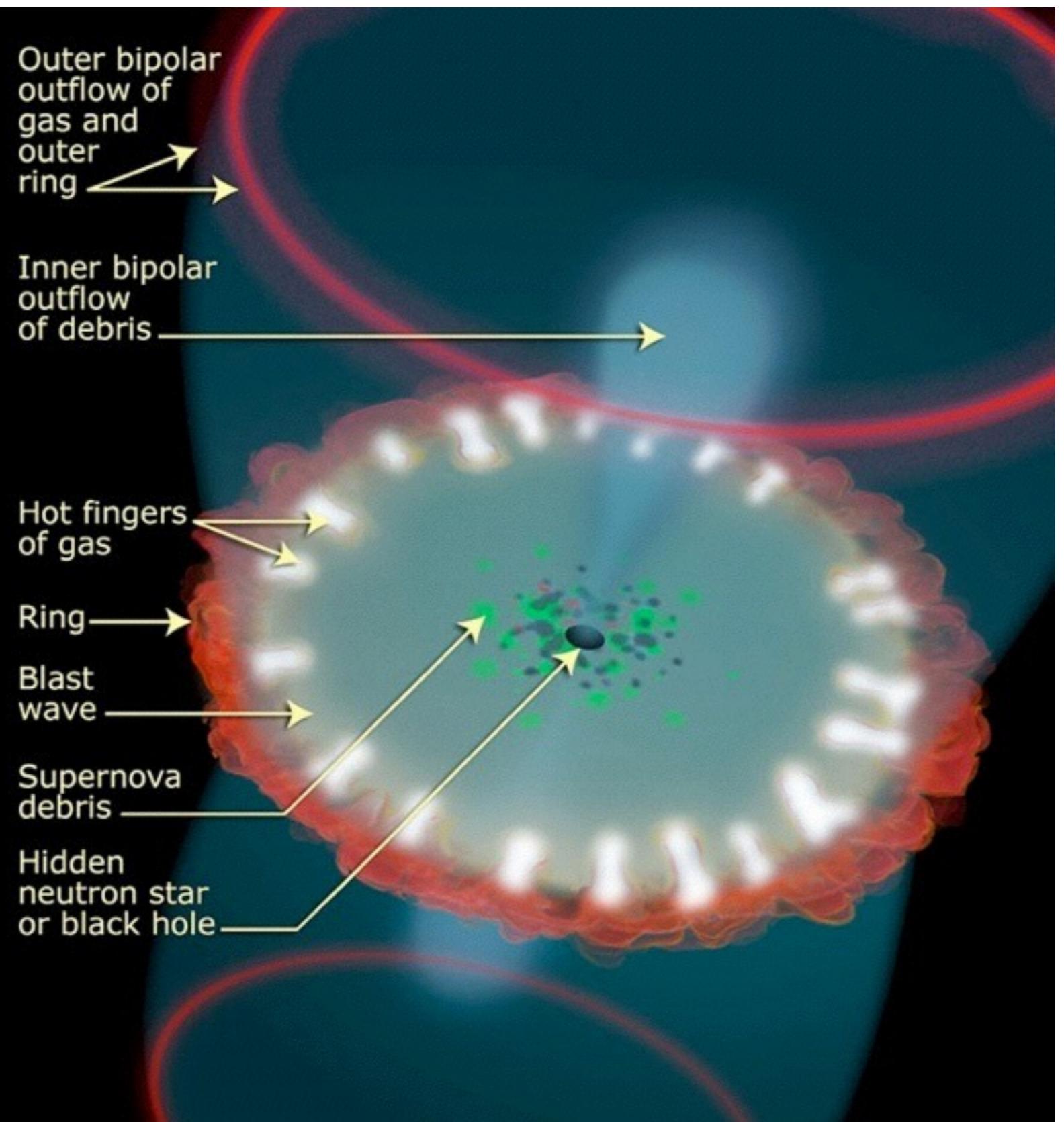
# Supernova SN1987a

- Supernova explosion 1987 in the great Magellanic Cloud (small partner galaxy of the Milky Way)



# Supernova SN1987a

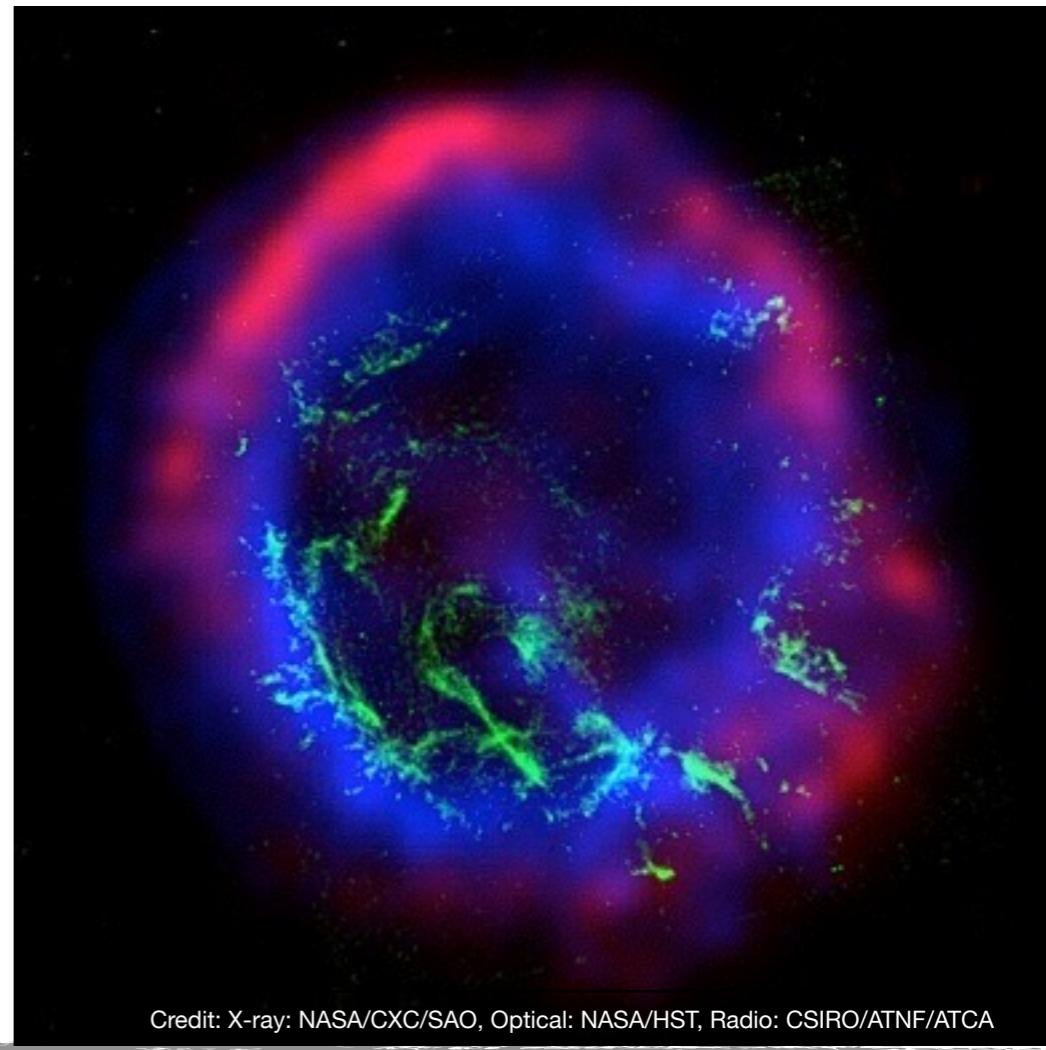
## Inner debris of the Supernova 1987A (SN 1987A) ring



Credit:NASA, ESA, and A. Feild (STScI)

# First Order Fermi Acceleration

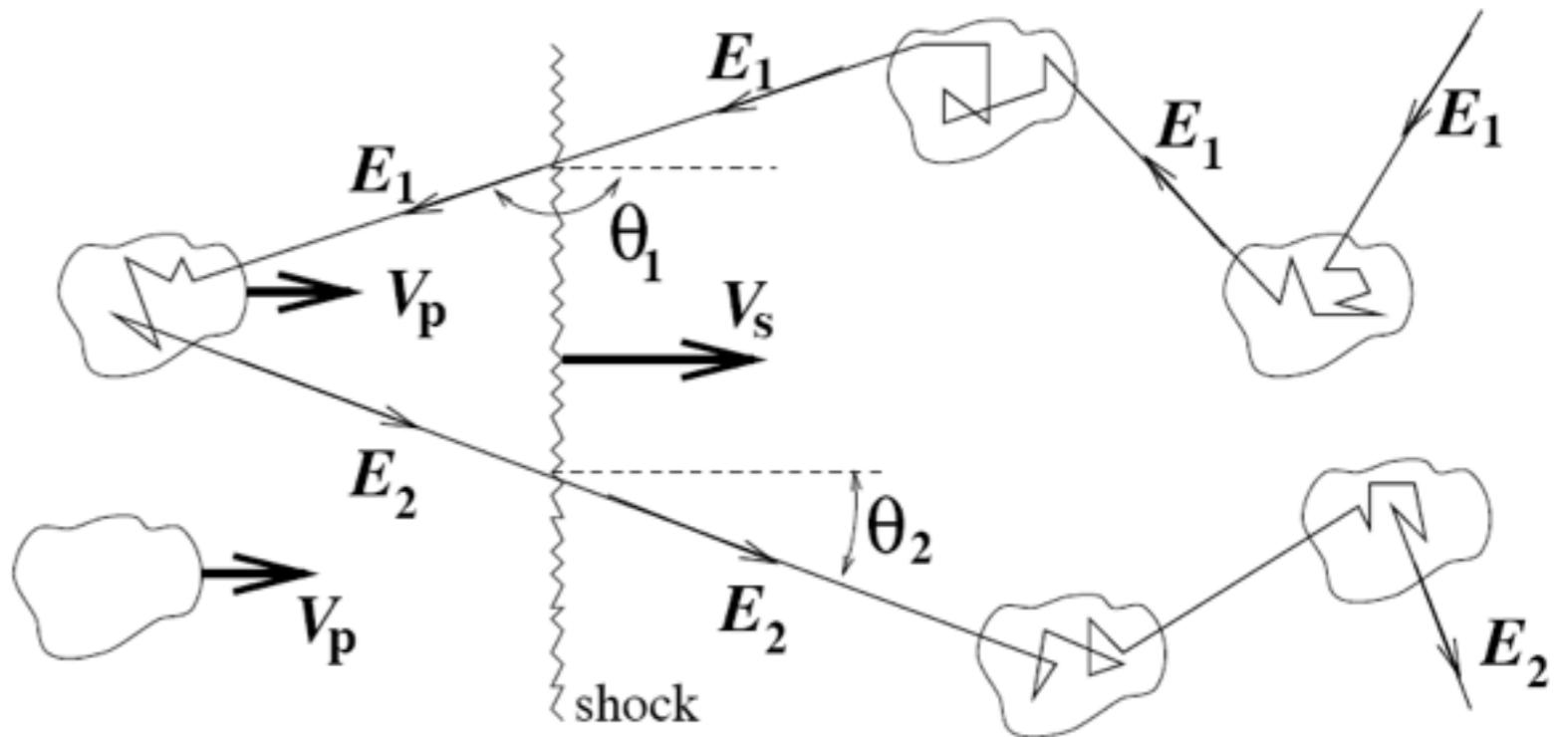
- Extension of Fermi acceleration concept to supernova shocks
- Formation of the shock wave:
  - SN ejects large amounts of material (several solar masses) with high velocity into the interstellar medium
  - $v_{\text{material}} \gg v_{\text{sound(ISM)}}$  ,  $v_{\text{material}} \sim 10^7 \text{ m/s}$  ,  $v_{\text{sound(ISM)}} \sim 10^4 \text{ m/s}$
  - ▶ Since the matter is much faster than the speed of sound a shock front develops
- The shock wave propagates in the ionized plasma of the ISM (single atoms, specific heat 5/3)
- Hydrodynamics can show that the speed of the shock wave is:  
 $v_{\text{shock}}/v_{\text{material}} \sim 4/3$



Credit: X-ray: NASA/CXC/SAO, Optical: NASA/HST, Radio: CSIRO/ATNF/ATCA

# First Order Fermi Acceleration

- Particle acceleration by repeated crossing of shock fronts
- As for second order Fermi Acceleration the particles are scattered by magnetic field inhomogeneities / turbulences
  - Key “feature”: behind the shock, these turbulences move with the speed of the ejected matter

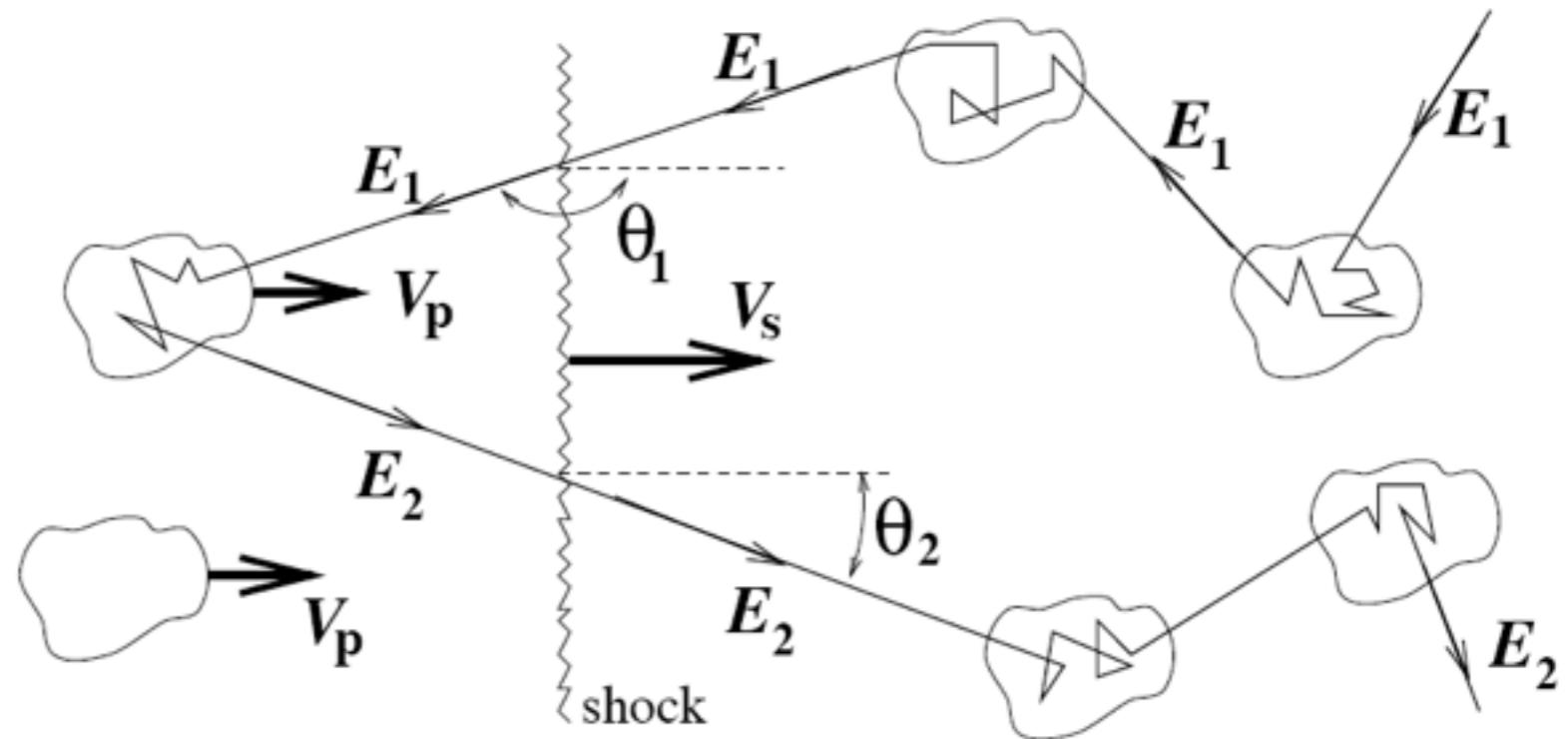


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- Considerations concerning incidence angles of particles:

- Shock front introduces directional motion - projection of flux onto front

Effective area

$$A' = -A \cos\Theta_1$$

Flux crossing shock

$$\frac{dN}{dcos\Theta_1} \propto -\cos\Theta_1$$

# First Order Fermi Acceleration

- Mean value of angles (key point here: Crossing of shock only for  $\cos\Theta_1 < 0$ , other particles do not contribute!):

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \cos\Theta_1 \rangle &= \frac{\int_{-1}^0 \frac{dN}{dcos\Theta_1} \cos\Theta_1 dcos\Theta_1}{\int_{-1}^0 \frac{dN}{dcos\Theta_1} dcos\Theta_1} \\ &= \frac{\int_{-1}^0 -\cos^2\Theta_1 dcos\Theta_1}{\int_{-1}^0 -\cos\Theta_1 dcos\Theta_1} = -\frac{2}{3}\end{aligned}$$

analog:  $\langle \cos\Theta_2 \rangle = \frac{2}{3}$

# First Order Fermi Acceleration

- Mean energy change (analogous to second order FA):

$$\frac{\Delta E}{E} = \frac{(1 - \beta \cos \Theta_1)(1 + \beta \cos \Theta'_2)}{1 - \beta^2} - 1$$

$\beta$ : Speed of matter behind  
shock wave



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- for  $\beta \ll 1$

$$\frac{\langle \Delta E \rangle}{E} \approx \frac{4}{3}\beta$$

# First Order Fermi Acceleration

- Mean energy change (analogous to second order FA):

$$\frac{\Delta E}{E} = \frac{(1 - \beta \cos \Theta_1)(1 + \beta \cos \Theta'_2)}{1 - \beta^2} - 1$$

$\beta$ : Speed of matter behind shock wave

$$\frac{\langle \Delta E \rangle}{E} = \frac{(1 + \frac{2}{3}\beta)(1 + \frac{2}{3}\beta)}{1 - \beta^2} - 1$$

- for  $\beta \ll 1$

$$\frac{\langle \Delta E \rangle}{E} \approx \frac{4}{3}\beta$$

- ▶ Substantially more efficient than second order acceleration due to two effects:
  - ▶ large velocity differences of material before and after shock front
  - ▶ directed motion of shock instead of random drifting
- ▶  $\beta \sim 3 \times 10^{-2}$ , acceleration linear in  $\beta$  (first order in  $\beta$ )

# Energy Spectrum

- Energy gain per cycle

$$\frac{\langle \Delta E \rangle}{E} = \zeta \approx \frac{4}{3} \beta_{Plasma} \approx \beta_{Shock}$$
$$\Rightarrow E = E_0 (1 + \zeta)^k \quad \text{after k cycles}$$

- Reminder:

$v_{shock}/v_{material} \sim 4/3$   
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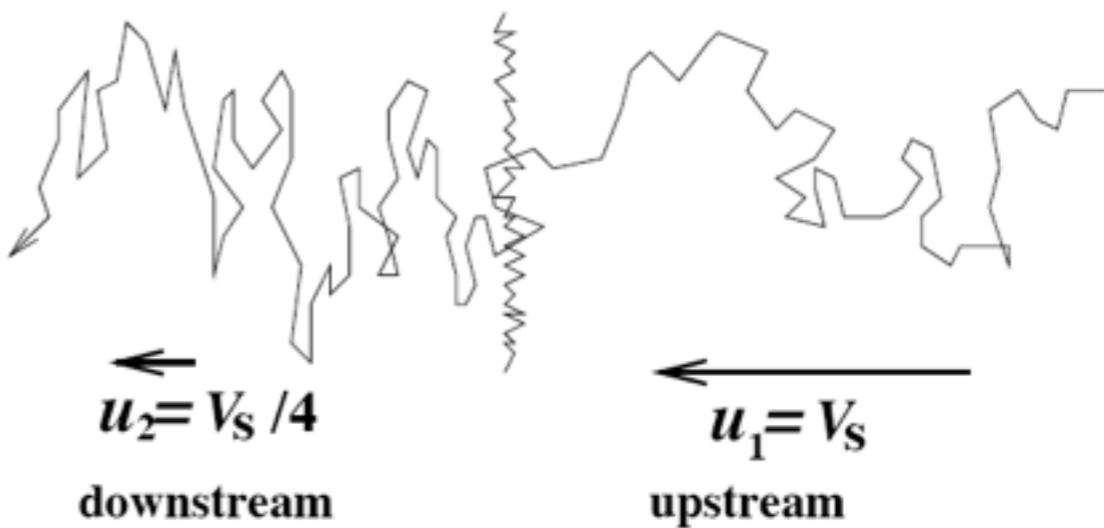
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  - particles can be lost downstream of the shock

behind the shock the plasma is  $v_s/4$  slower than the shock wave itself, particles “diffuse” in the plasma

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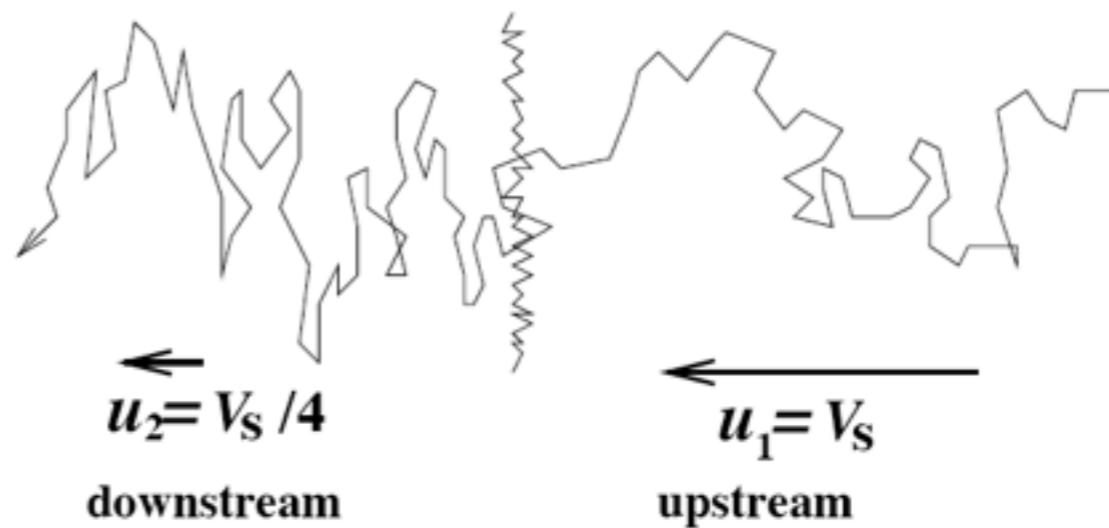
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In general: the material behind the shock is 1/4 slower than the front itself, the loss rate depends on that difference:

$$R_{loss} = n_{CR} v_s / 4 \quad n_{CR} \text{ is the particle density}$$

# Energy Spectrum

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Particle movement relative to shock (particle velocity  $v_t$ )

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$$P_{escape} = \frac{R_{loss}}{R_{cross}} = \frac{v_s}{v_t} \quad \text{NB: } v_t \sim c$$

The probability to cross the shock front at least  $k$  times is:

$$P_{cross>k} = (1 - P_{escape})^k = \left(1 - \frac{v_s}{v_t}\right)^k \approx (1 - \beta_{Schock})^k$$



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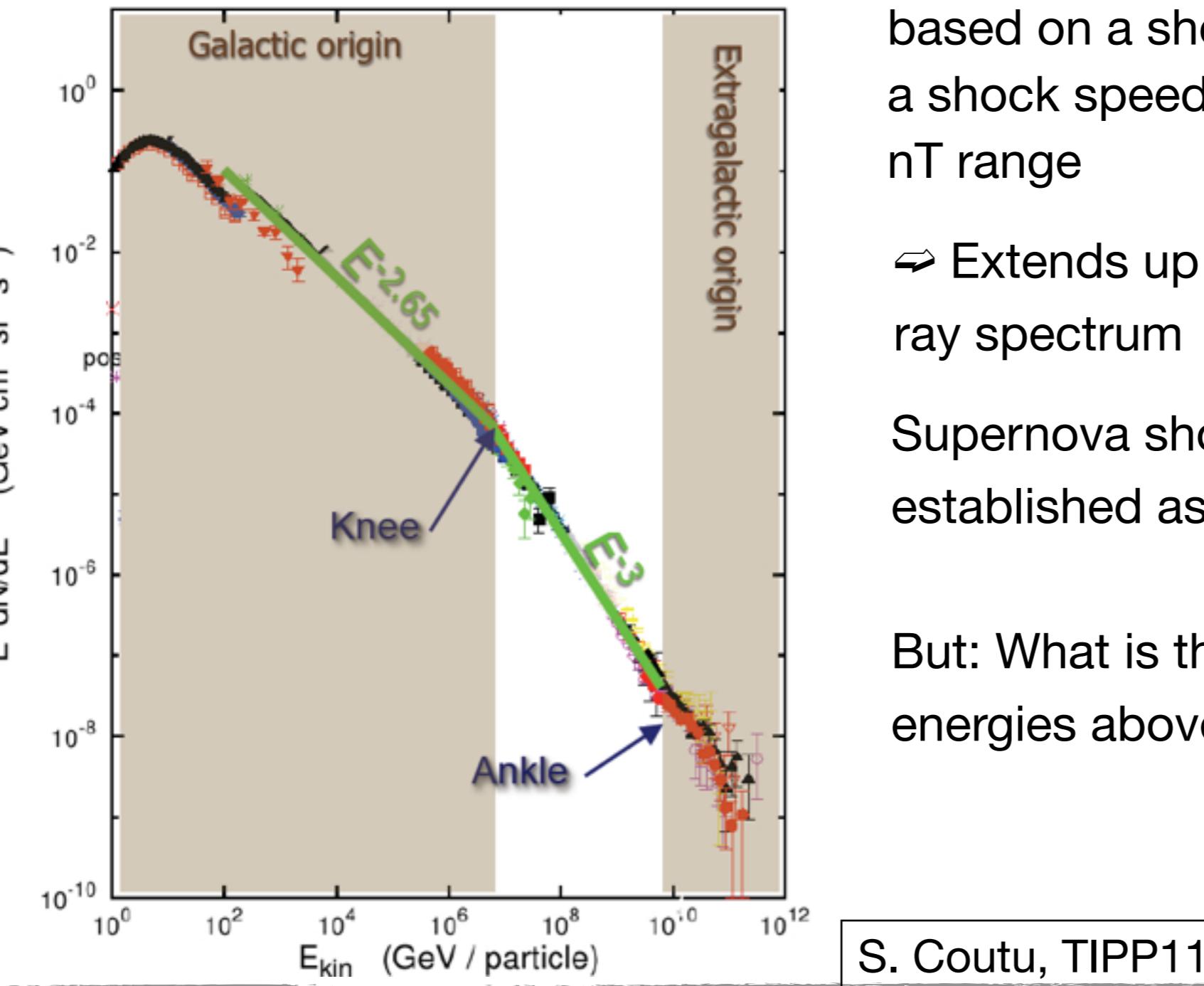
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- Differential particle spectrum

$$\frac{dN}{dE} \propto E^{-2}$$

# Maximum Energy

- First order Fermi Acceleration can reach energies up to  $\sim 10^{14}$  eV for shock waves originating from supernova explosions (incomplete derivation in Backup)



based on a shock lifetime of  $\sim 1000$  years  
a shock speed of 0.03 c, and a B field in the  
nT range

⇒ Extends up to the knee of the cosmic  
ray spectrum

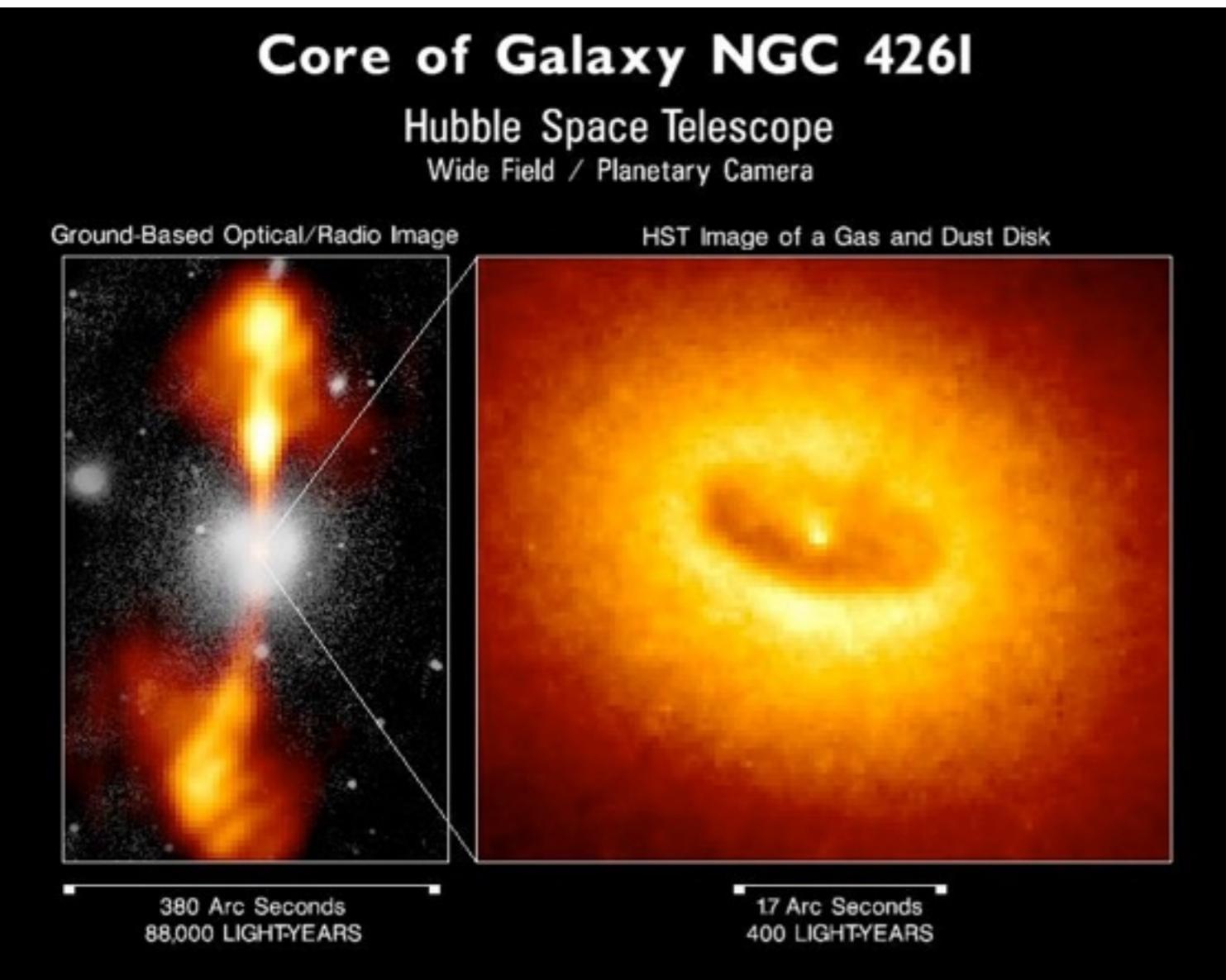
Supernova shock acceleration is well  
established as a source for cosmic rays

But: What is the origin of the very highest  
energies above  $10^{18}$  GeV?

S. Coutu, TIPP11

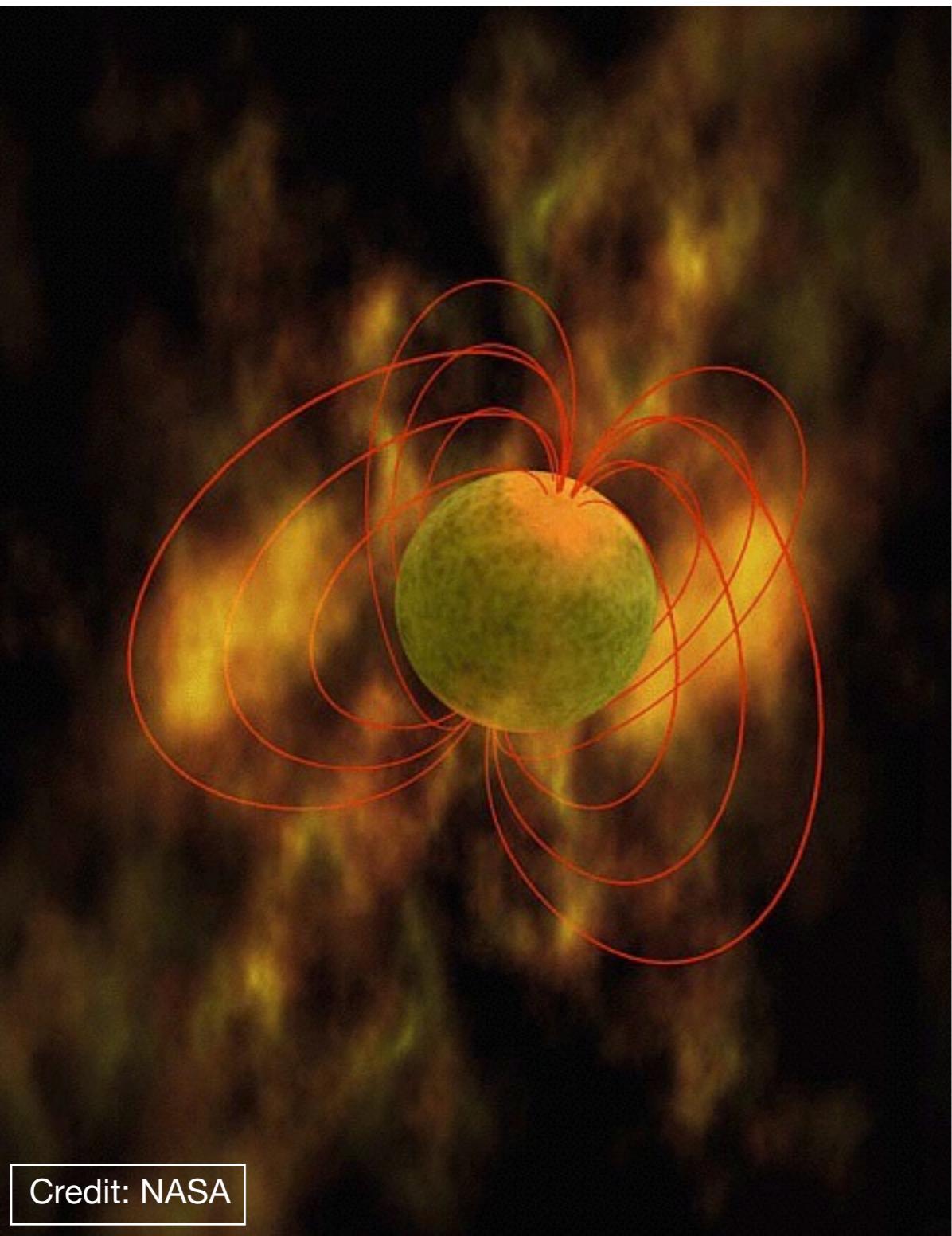
# Highest Energies?

- How are energies  $> 1$  PeV reached?



- More energetic events
  - Active galactic nuclei
  - Pulsars (neutron stars)
  - GRB's
- ⇒ Extreme magnetic fields
- ⇒ Shock acceleration in highly relativistic jets: additional  $\gamma$  - Factor

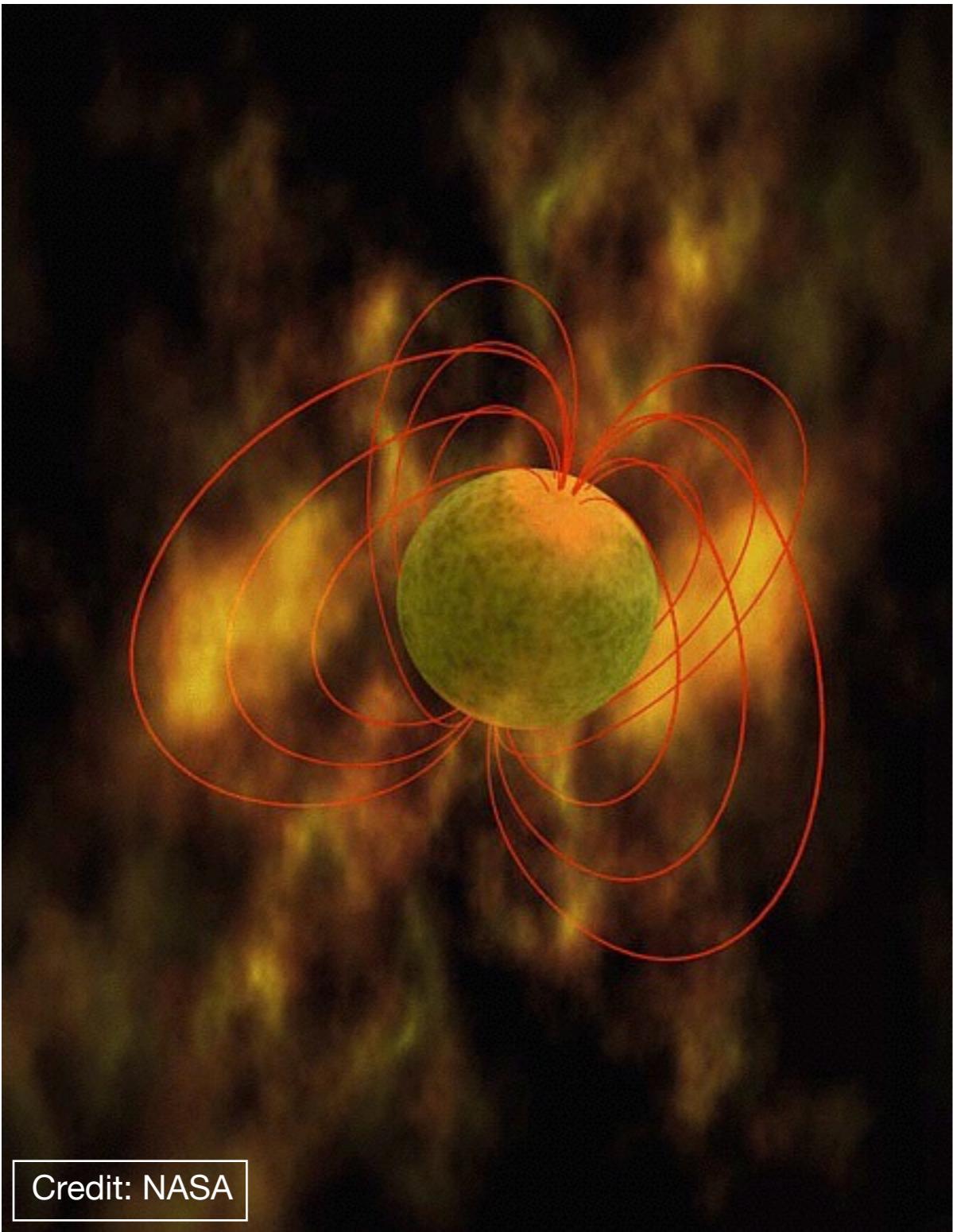
# One Example: Neutron Stars



Credit: NASA

- Neutron stars: compact remnants of supernova explosions
  - radius  $\sim 10$  km
  - extreme rotation: up to  $\sim 40\,000$  RPM
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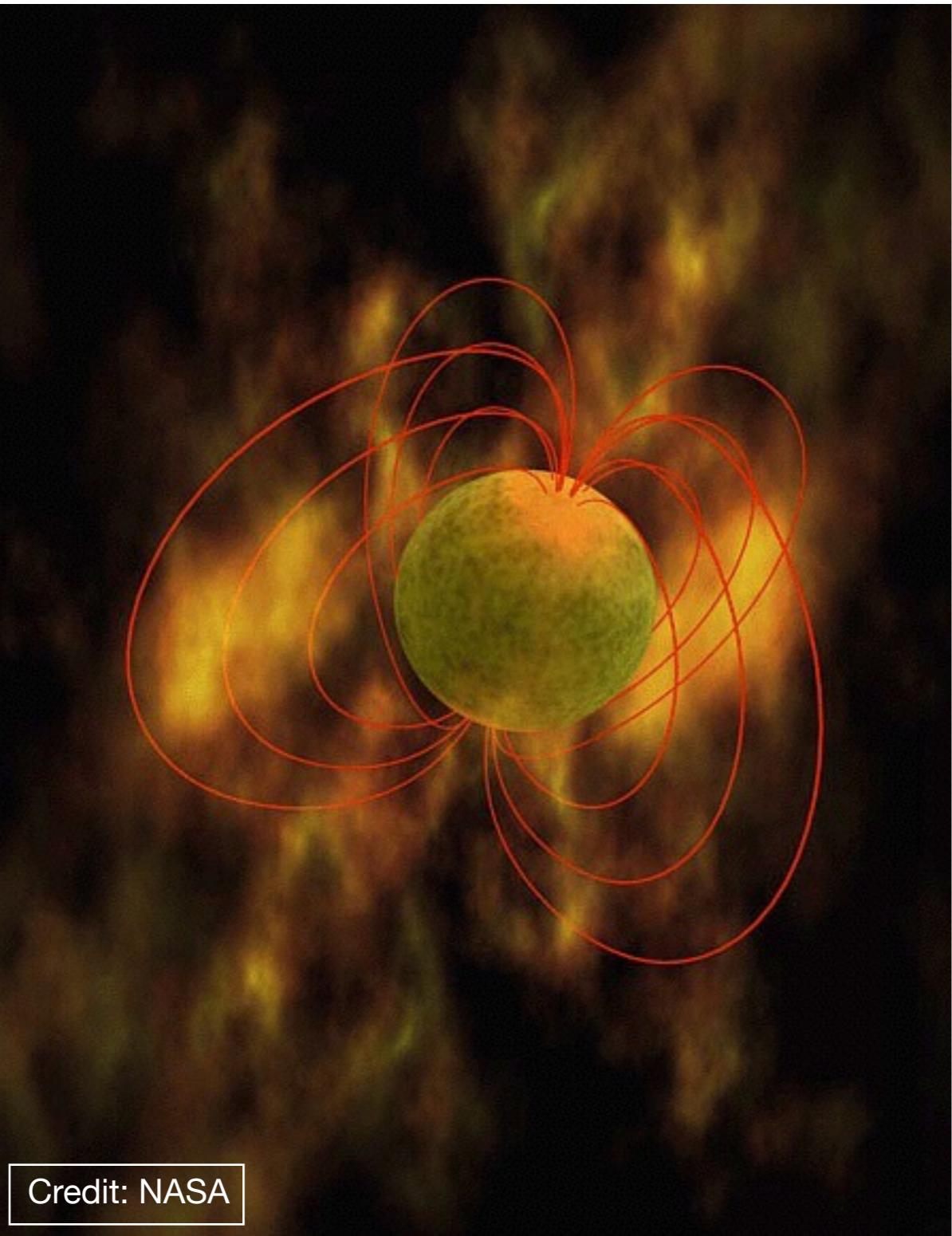


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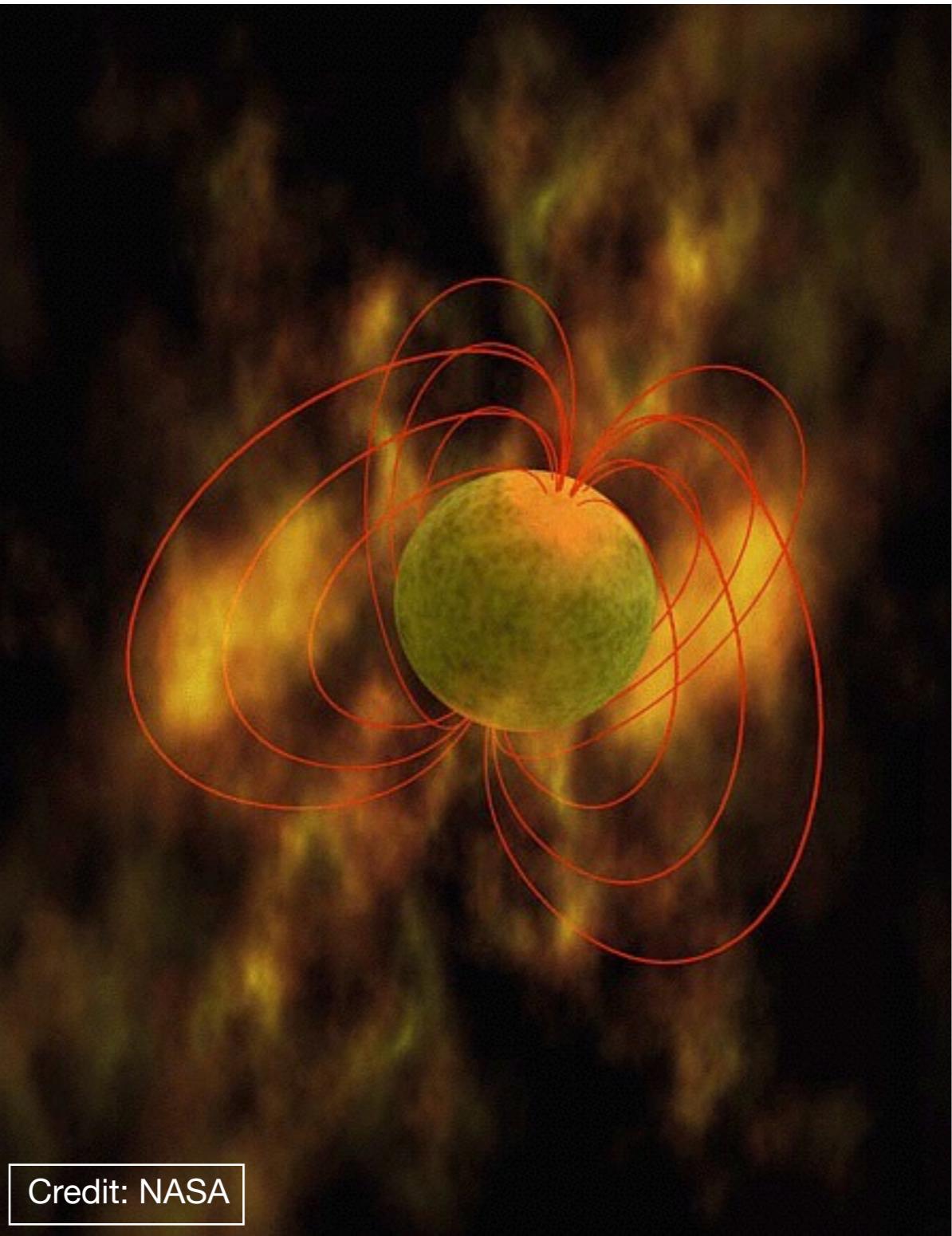
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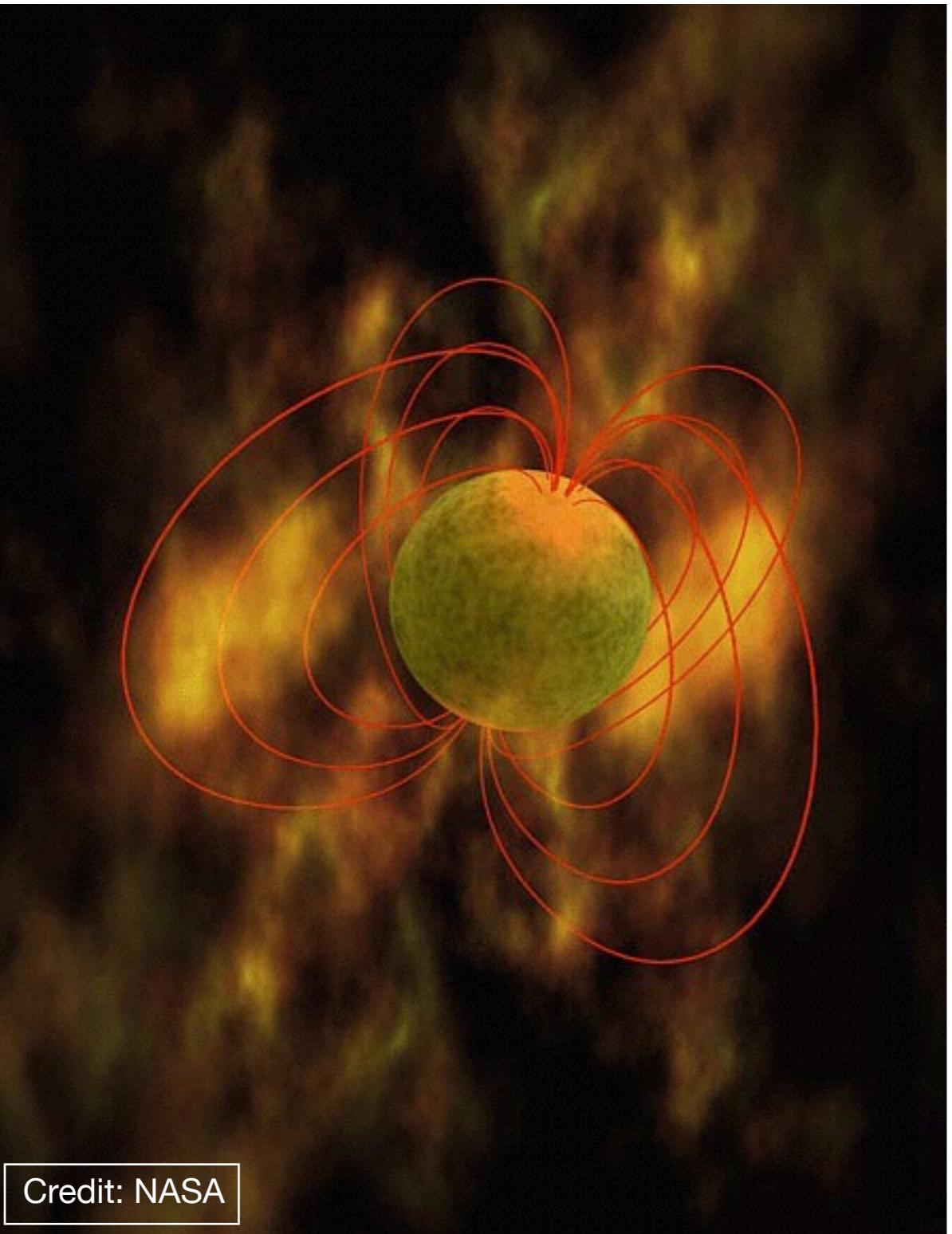
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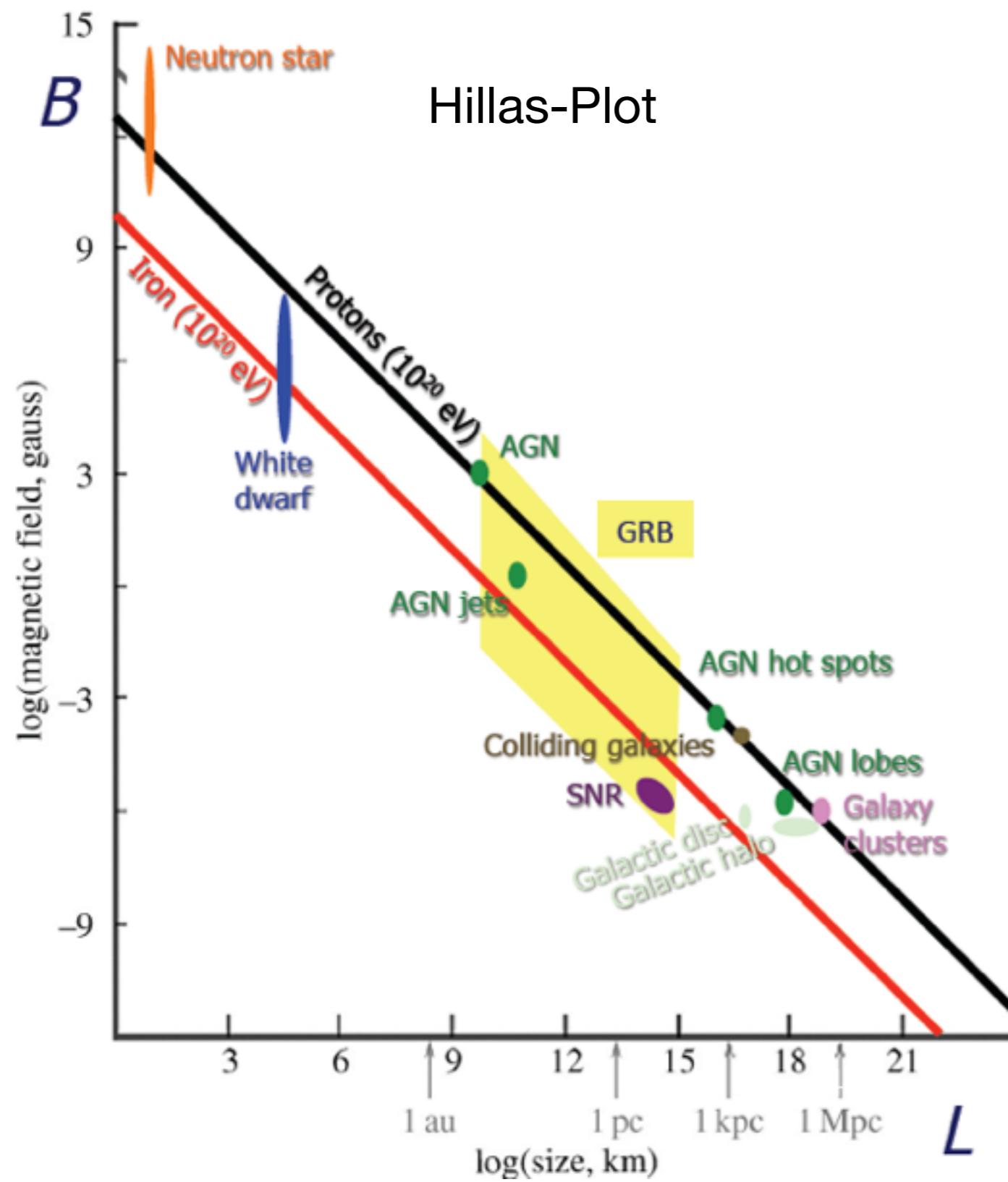
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For  $Z = 1$  (protons):

$$E_{\max} \sim 5 J = 3 \times 10^{20} \text{ eV}$$

# Candidates for the Highest Energies



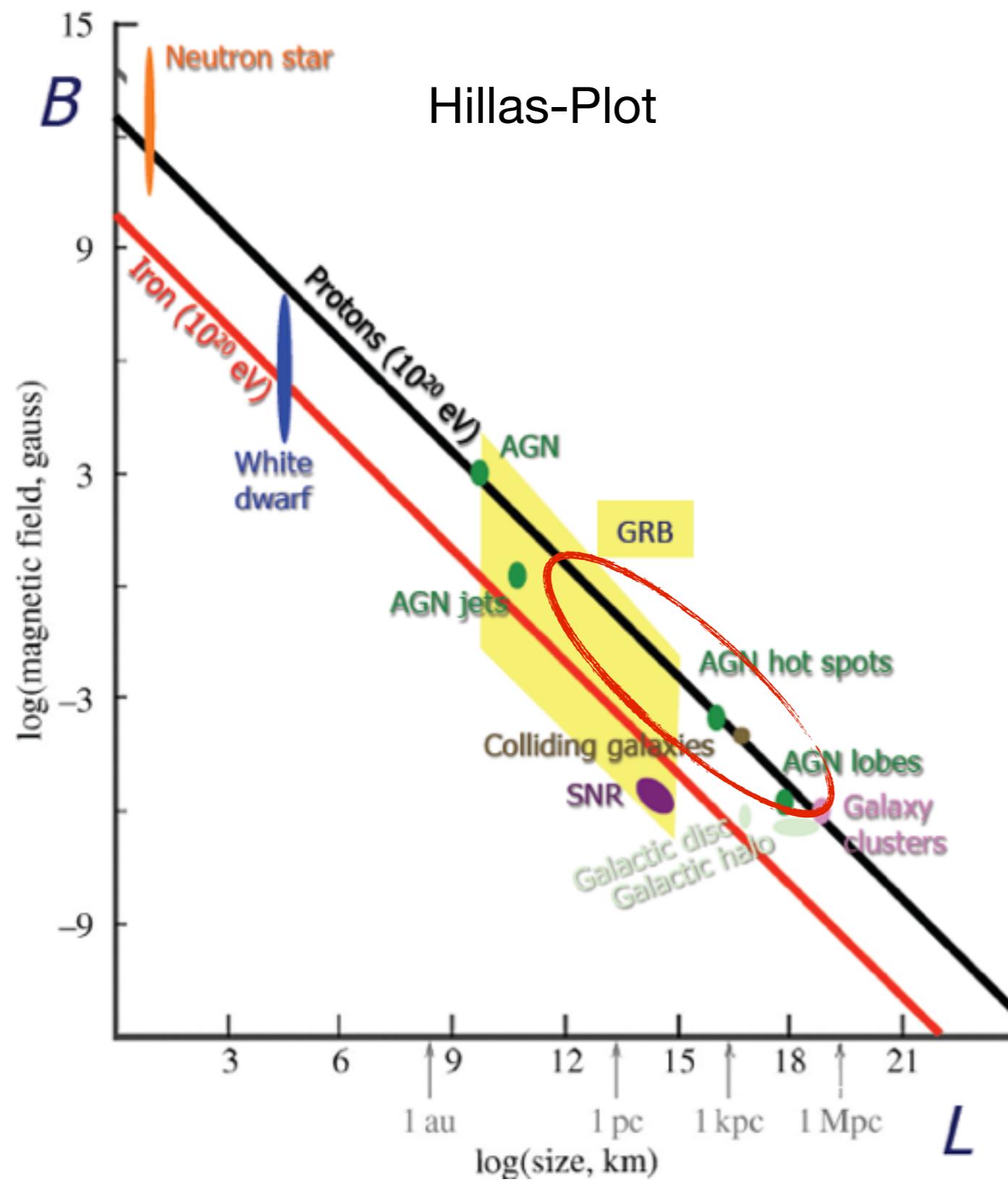
Particles are accelerated as long as they stay in the high field region:  $r_L < L$

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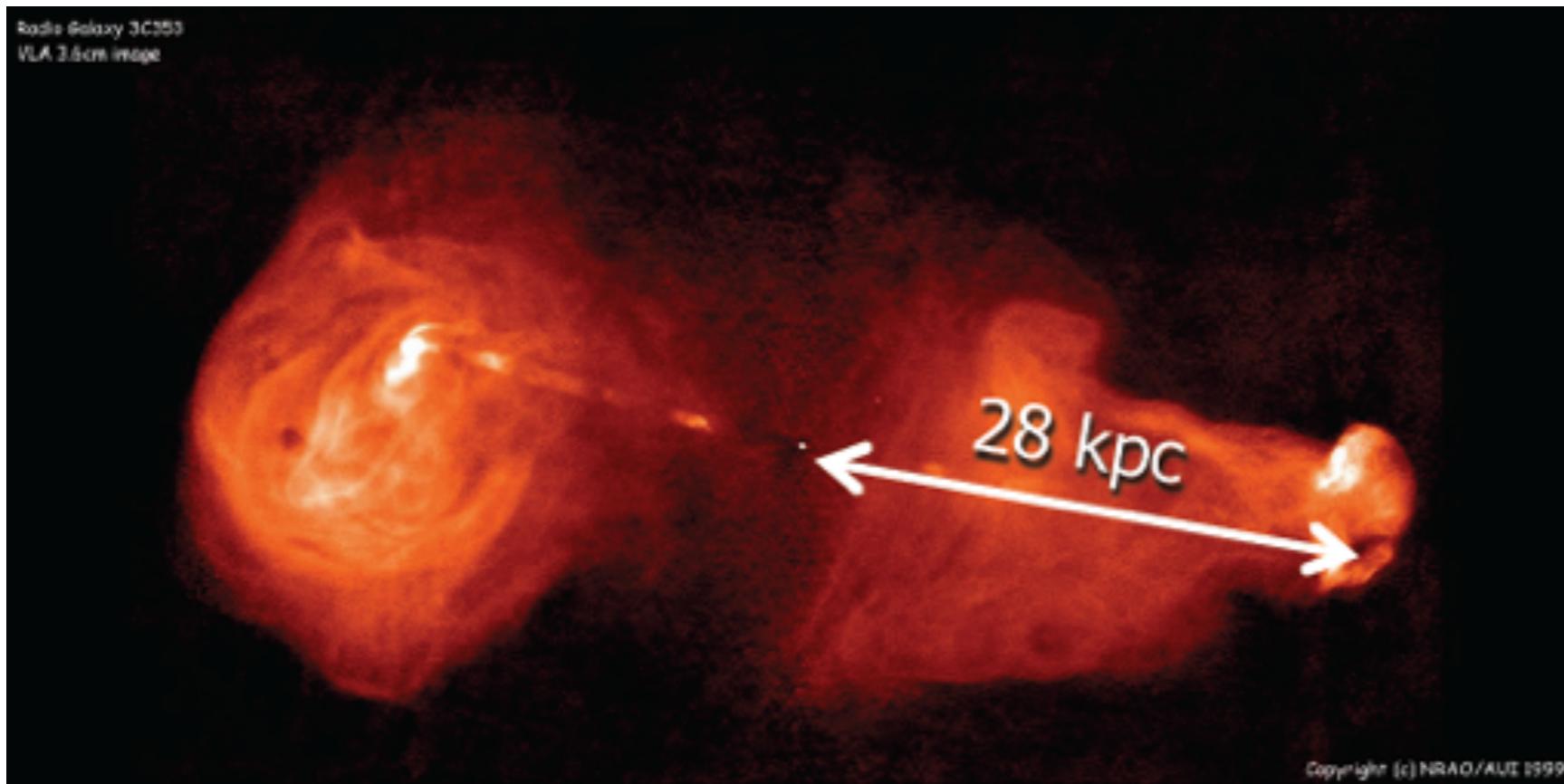
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Beyond this simple consideration:  
Radiation losses in the source have to be taken into account:  
synchotron radiation, photo reactions

S. Coutu, TIPP11

# One Example

- 3C353 - Active galaxy 130 Mpc away



... more about the highest energies next week!

# Propagation of Cosmic Rays

- The source spectrum of shock acceleration follows an  $E^{-2}$  distribution, but we observe  $E^{-2.7}$ , why?
- ▶ Energy-dependent loss of particles when travelling through the galaxy
- Important contributions:
  - diffusion
  - convection
  - acceleration
  - decay of unstable particles and nuclei
  - collisions
  - cascade production, spallation of heavy nuclei

transport in turbulent  
galactic magnetic fields

loss processes



# Leaky Box Model

- Very simple model assuming cosmic rays propagate freely in the galaxy with a constant escape / loss probability

$$N(E, t) = N_0(E) e^{-t/\tau_{escape}}$$



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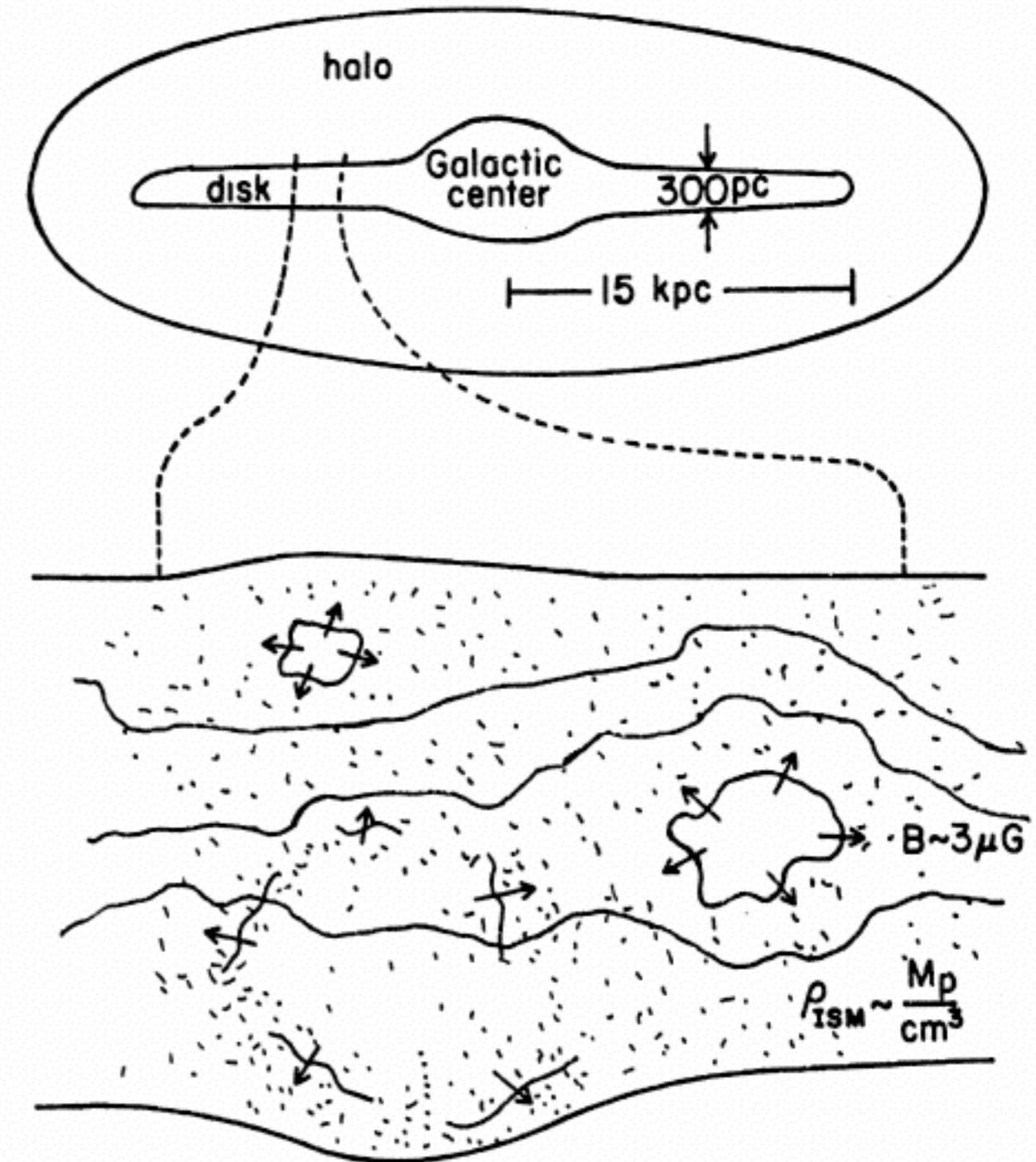
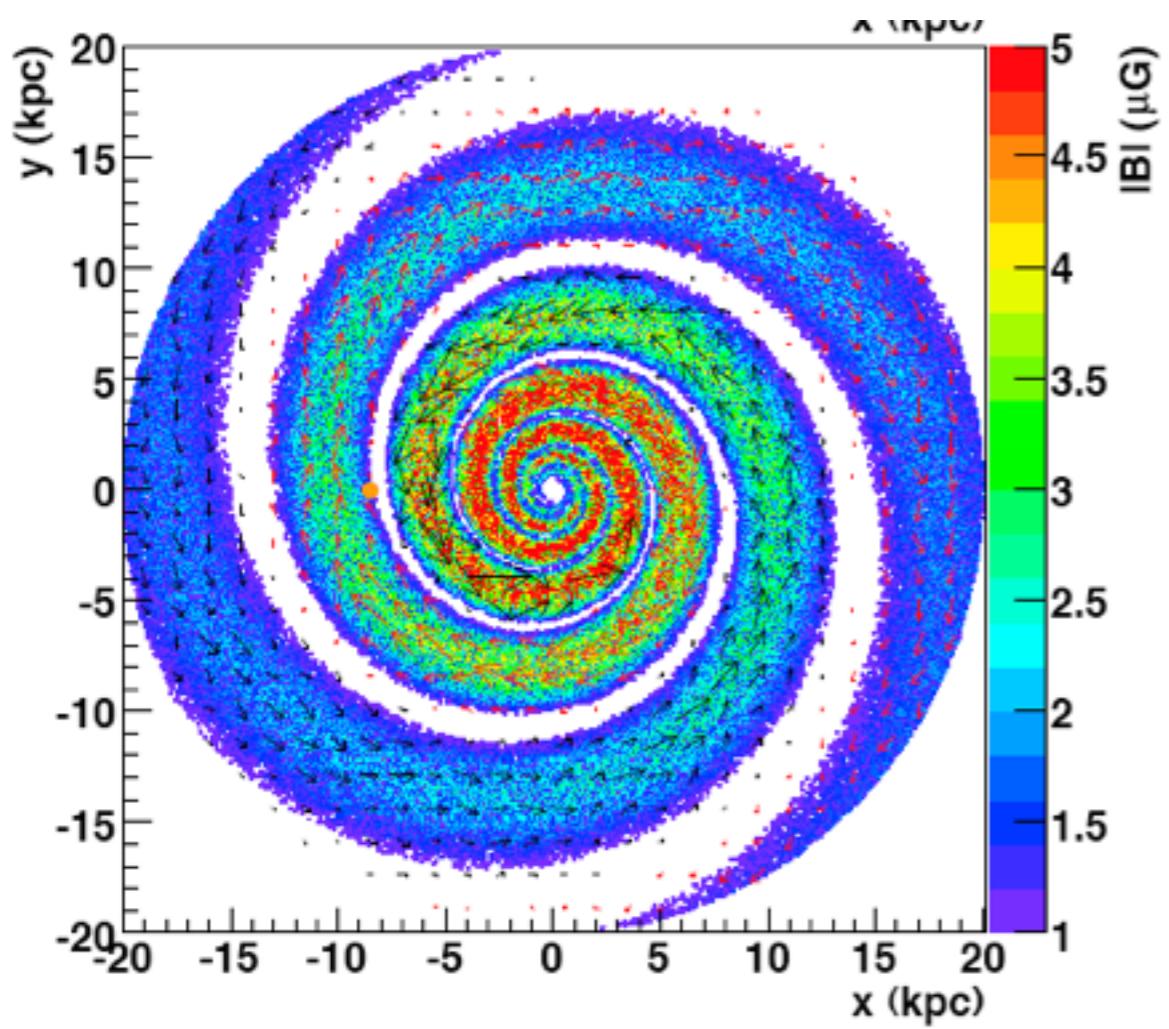
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    - ▶ The observed spectrum gets steeper than the source spectrum:  $E^{-2.7}$
- Loss probability due to inelastic reactions depends on amount of traversed matter
  - Density of the ISM in the galaxy:  $\sim 1 \text{ proton/cm}^3 \sim 1.7 \times 10^{-24} \text{ g/cm}^3$ 
    - ▶ per year one particle traverses  $\sim 1.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ g/cm}^2$
    - ▶ loss after traversing  $\sim 5 - 10 \text{ g/cm}^2$  (derived from observed composition)
    - ▶ Particles stay in the galaxy for about  $5 \times 10^6$  years



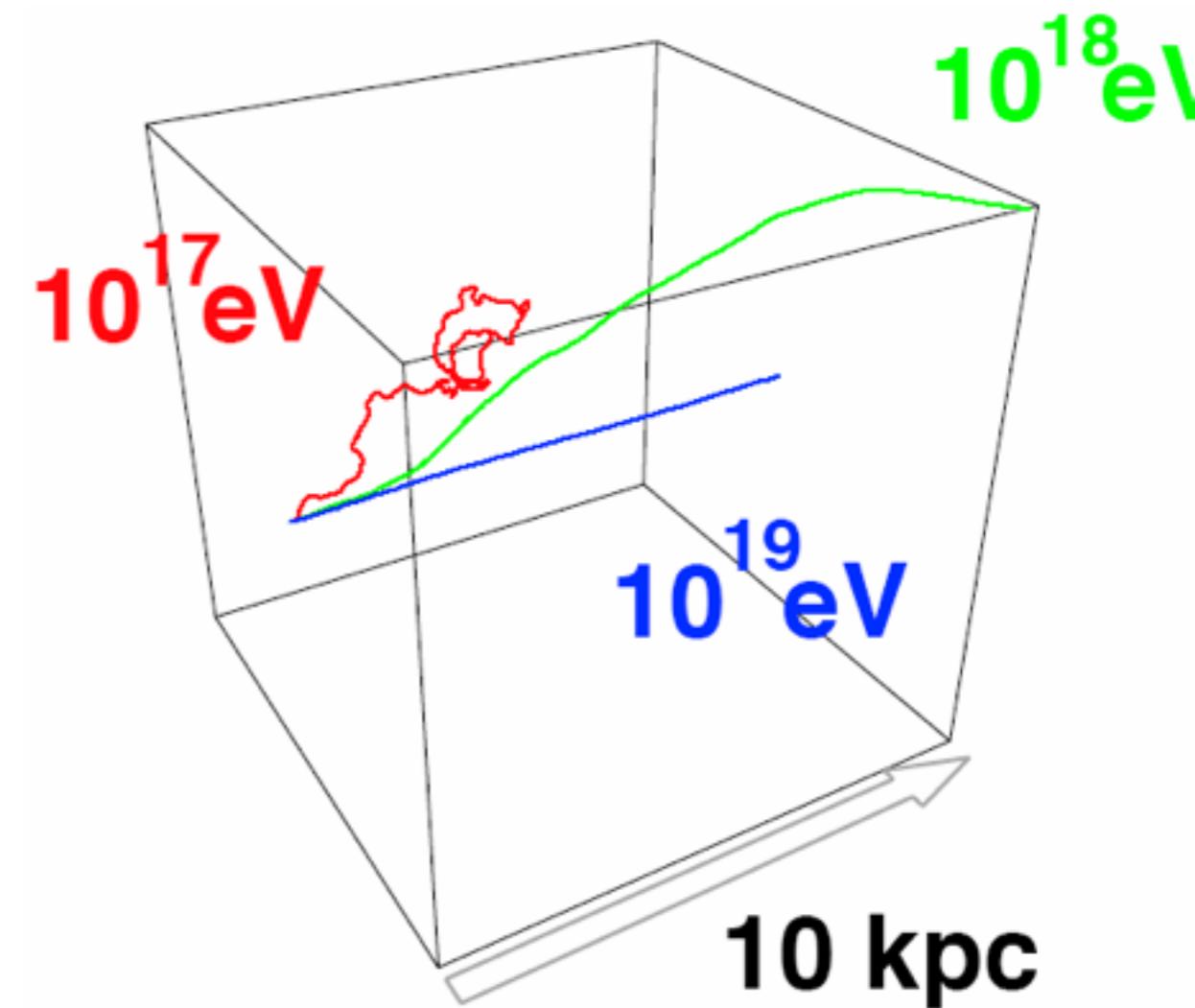
# Magnetic Fields in the Galaxy

- Magnetic field in the galaxy along spiral arms, with additional turbulent contributions overlaid
- typical strength  $\sim 0.1$  nT



# Propagation of Particles in Magnetic Fields

- Charged particles are deflected by cosmic magnetic fields
- To demonstrate: toy simulation with magnetic fields of  $\sim 0.1$  nT and a coherence length of  $\sim 100$  pc
  - Particles start from the left center with different energies
- ▶ Only the very highest energies ( $E \sim 10^{19}$  eV) can show the way to their sources - all other particles get substantially deflected and arrive from random directions



# Summary

- Cosmic rays are known since 100 years
  - Discovered by Victor Hess on balloon flights
- Acceleration mechanism via scattering on randomly moving cosmic clouds proposed by Fermi 60 years ago (second order Fermi Acceleration)
  - A proof of principle, but insufficient to reach high energies
- Acceleration in shock fronts created by supernovae (first order Fermi Acceleration) can explain energies at least up to  $\sim 10^{14}$  eV
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Next Lecture: 08.06., “Cosmic Rays I”, F. Simon



# Topics - Overview

13.04.	Einführung / Introduction
20.04.	<b>Achtung - keine Vorlesung! No Lecture!</b>
27.04.	Erdgebundene Beschleuniger / Accelerators
04.05.	Detektoren in der Nicht-Beschleuniger-Physik / Detectors
11.05.	Das Standardmodell / The Standard Model
18.05.	QCD und Jet Physik an Lepton Beschleunigern
25.05.	<b>Pfingsten - Keine Vorlesung! No Lecture</b>
01.06.	Kosmische Beschleuniger / Cosmic Accelerators
08.06.	Kosmische Strahlung I / Cosmic Rays I
15.06.	Kosmische Strahlung II / Cosmic Rays II
22.06.	Präzisionsexperimente (g-2) / Precision Experiments
29.06.	Neutrinos I
06.07.	Neutrinos II
13.07.	Dunkle Materie & Dunkle Energie / Dark Matter & Dark Energy



# Backup

# Erreichbare Energie

- Die Rate des Energiezuwaches ist gegeben durch die Dauer eines Zyklus und durch den Zuwachs pro Zyklus:

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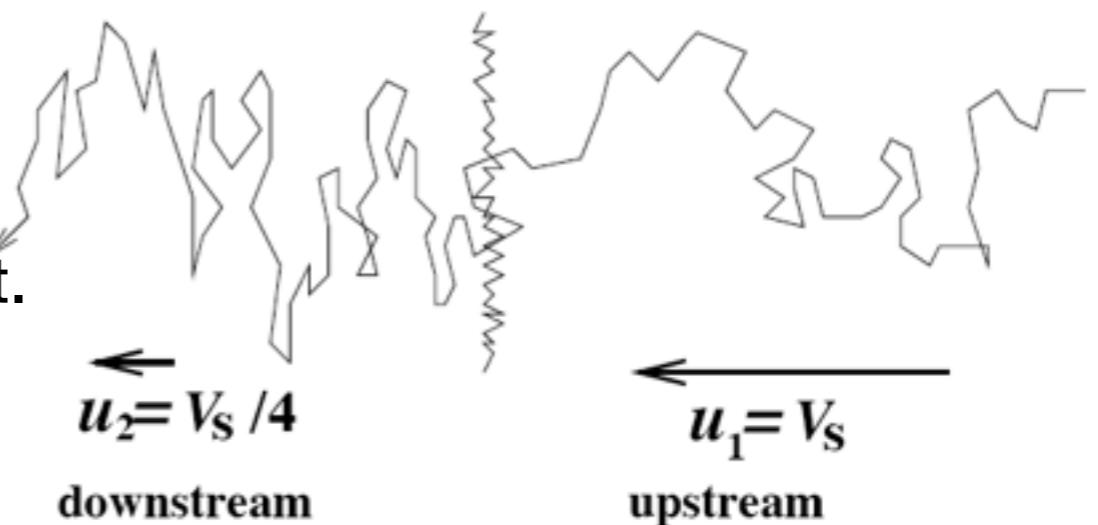
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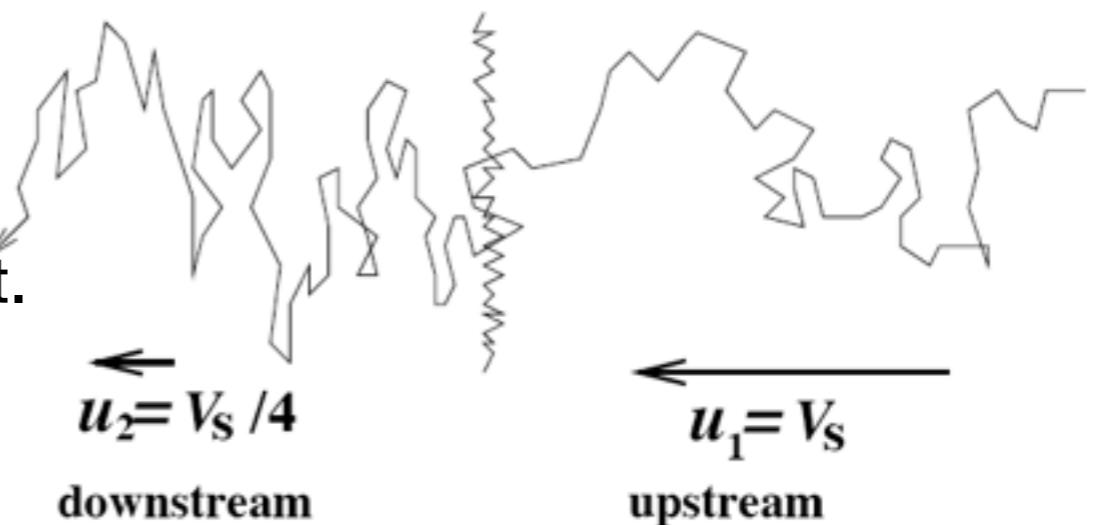
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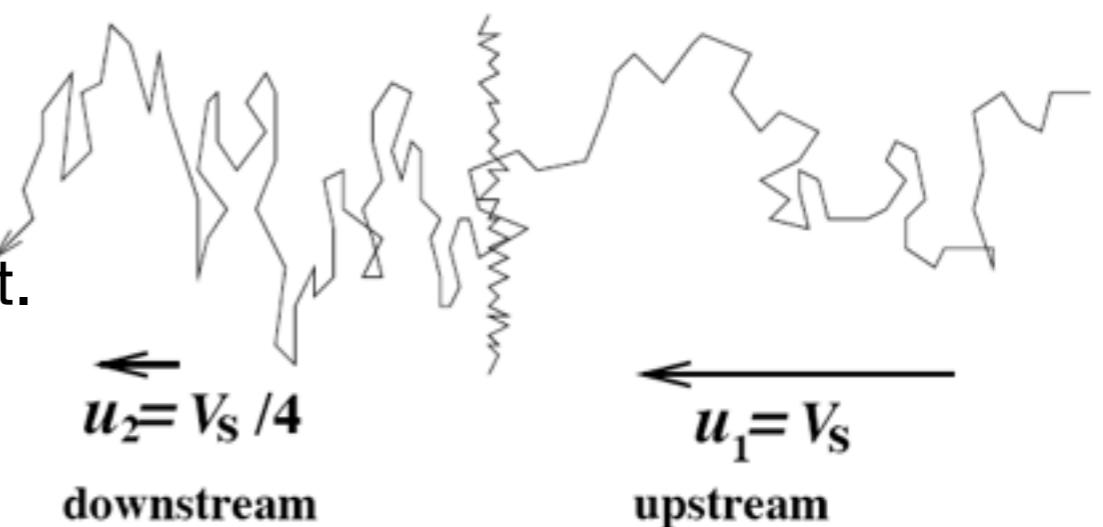
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Hohe Wahrscheinlichkeit, den Schock für immer zu verlassen:  $\sqrt{k_2 t} \ll u_2 t$

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- “Grenze”, die entscheidet, ob ein Teilchen “verloren” ist:  $\sim k_2/u_2$
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  - $k_1/u_1$  markiert hier die Grenze zwischen Teilchen, die schon von hinter dem Schock gekommen und solchen, die noch nie durch den Schock gegangen sind
- Damit ergibt sich die Zyklus-Dauer:

$$t_{cycle} = t_1 + t_2 \approx \frac{4}{c} \left( \frac{k_1}{u_1} + \frac{k_2}{u_2} \right) = \frac{4}{\beta_{Schock} c^2} (k_1 + 4k_2)$$

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- Für typische Werte ( $\beta_{Shock} \sim 0.03$ ,  $B \sim 0.3$  nT,  $t_{acc} \sim 1000$  Jahre)  
 $E_{max} \sim 10^{14}$  eV (für Protonen)
- bis zum Knie der Verteilung