

Simulation of High Energy Cosmic Ray Showers using CORSIKA

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Declaration

I hereby declare that the thesis titled "Simulation of High Energy Cosmic Ray Showers using CORSIKA" is submitted to the Department of Mathematics and Natural Sciences of BRAC University as part of the requirements for the degree of Bachelors of Science (BS) in Applied Physics and Electronics. The presented work is a product of my own research and has not been submitted elsewhere for any other degree or diploma. All related research work that has been used as reference for this work has been properly cited.

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The task is not so much to see what no one has yet seen; but to think what nobody has yet thought, about that which everybody sees.

-Erwin Schrödinger

Contents

1	Introduction	8
1.1	Origin and Energy Spectrum of Cosmic Rays	8
1.2	Extensive Air Showers (EAS)	10
1.3	Secondary Cosmic Radiation	13
1.4	Detection of EAS	14
1.4.1	Ground Detection	15
1.4.2	Detection of Cerenkov Radiation	15
1.4.3	Detection of Atmospheric Fluorescence	16
1.5	The GZK Cut-Off	18
1.5.1	GZK Cut-Off Calculation	18
1.6	Point Sources of Ultra-High Energy Cosmic Radiation (UHECR)	21
1.6.1	Criterion for Possible UHECR Sources	22
1.6.2	Sources of UHECR	24
2	Cosmic radiation detection and analysis at ALICE	26
2.1	About the CORSIKA Simulation Program	27
2.2	The Monte Carlo Method	28
2.3	Some Relevant CORSIKA High-Energy Hadronic Interaction Models	29
2.3.1	DPMJET Version	29
2.3.2	EPOS Option	29
2.3.3	HDPM Routines	29
2.3.4	QGSJET Option	29
2.3.5	VENUS Option	30
2.4	CORSIKA Low-energy Hadronic Interaction Models	30
2.4.1	FLUKA Option	30
2.4.2	GHEISHA Option	30
2.4.3	URQMD Option	31

3	CORSIKA Simulation Details and Results	32
3.1	High-Energy Hadronic Interaction Model EPOS	32
3.2	Low-Energy Interaction Model UrQMD	33
3.3	CORSIKA Input File	34
3.4	Results	37
4	Conclusion	41

List of Figures

1.1	Cosmic Ray Spectrum	9
1.2	Decay of pions and muons in the atmosphere	13
1.3	Huygen's construct for Cerenkov radiation	15
1.4	Simulated shower profile depicting various detected radiation .	17
1.5	Hillas Plot depicting the relationship between magnetic field strength B and R and potential UHECR sites	23
3.1	Parton-parton scattering	32
3.2	Total cross-section of proton-carbon interactions against Energy as compared with different hadronic interaction models .	33
3.3	Surface level Vs ALICE level	37
3.4	Muon distribution and relation with detector area	38
3.5	No. of Events vs Muon Energy	39
3.6	Muon multiplicity distribution generated by CORSIKA	40

List of Tables

3.1	CORSIKA input card setup	34
3.2	CORSIKA input card Used	36

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Origin and Energy Spectrum of Cosmic Rays

The surface of the Earth is continuously bombarded by very high energy particles, most of them relativistic and some non relativistic particles ranging in energy values from a few GeV to 10^{20} eV. The primary spectrum consists of charged particles, principally protons (86%) along with alpha particles, electrons (2%) and nuclei of some heavier elements up to uranium (1%). There are also small proportions of positrons and anti-protons which are believed to be of secondary origin, produced during the interaction of the charged primaries with interstellar gas. Neutral particles in the cosmic ray spectrum consist of γ rays, neutrinos and anti-neutrinos. The identified γ ray sources are the Crab Nebula and Active Galactic Nuclei (AGNs) while neutrinos are ejected from the Sun as a product of fusion reactions in its core [14].

Examining the energy density from the cosmic ray spectrum shows that although bulk of the incident radiation is of galactic origin, the energy spectrum rising to 10^{20} eV provides evidence of extra galactic origin [7]. The interstellar magnetic fields are very significant inside our own galaxy and they follow the spiral arms. The average magnitude of the galactic field is about $3 \mu G$ ($0.3nT$) with an energy density of about $0.2 eVcm^{-3}$ comparable to cosmic microwave radiation having energy density $0.26 eVcm^{-3}$ and that of deep space cosmic radiation ($1 eVcm^{-3}$). Although the intergalactic field is only of the order of about 10^{-5} of the present galactic field, those very intense

fields associated with supernova explosions are considered to be the main accelerators of the cosmic rays that reach the surface of the Earth [14]. The following figure depicts the energy spectrum of cosmic ray protons showing the power law $E^{-2.7}$ dependence at energies below the so-called 'knee' region.

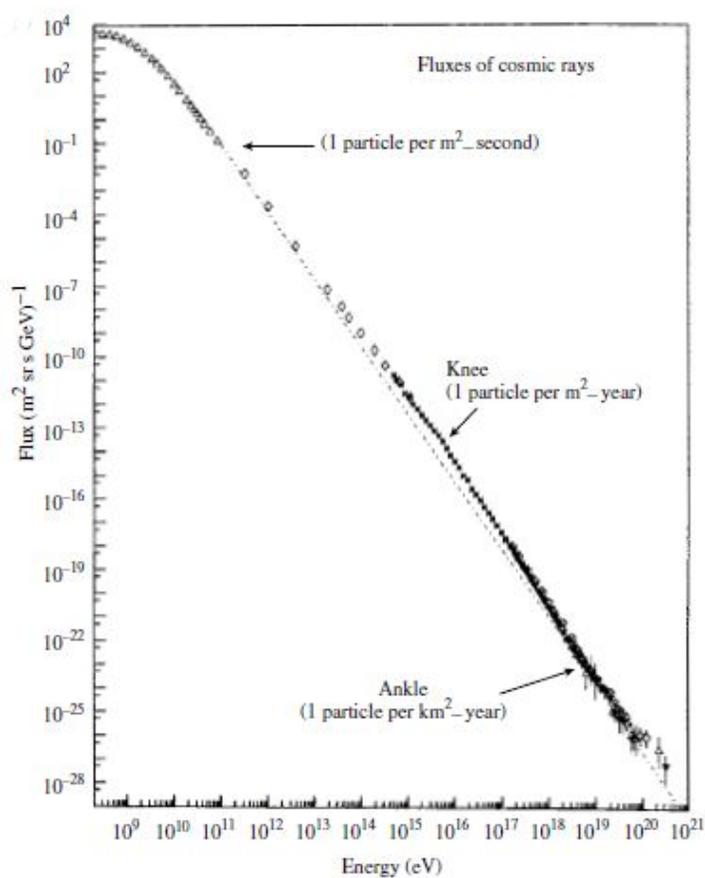


Figure 1.1: Cosmic Ray Spectrum

As the figure elucidates, the primary spectrum up to the knee at 10¹⁶eV follows a simple power law but as energy increases further, the spectrum becomes steeper before flattening again at the ankle region indicated. To

summarise, at energies below the knee, the following power law is observed.

$$N(E)dE = \text{const.}E^{-2.7}dE \quad (1.1)$$

Above this knee but below the ankle, ($E_{ankle} > E > E_{knee}$), the index increases to -3.0 such that

$$N(E)dE = \text{const.}E^{-3.0} \quad (1.2)$$

and above the ankle, the index decreases to -2.69 as we reach the GZK cut-off above 4×10^{19} eV, i.e for ($E_{GZK} > E > E_{ankle}$)

$$N(E)dE = \text{const.}E^{-2.69} \quad (1.3)$$

Beyond this threshold, i.e $E > E_{GZK} = 4 \times 10^{19}$ eV, the experimentally detected spectra (the AUGER and Hires experiments) is seen to flatten again. This region of the spectrum is parametrised by the following power law

$$N(E)dE = \text{const.}E^{-4.2}dE \quad (1.4)$$

Bulk of the radiation, at energies above 30 GeV in extensive air showers are isotropic as influence of the magnetic fields of the Earth or the Sun become unimportant. However, AUGER air shower experiment does detect anisotropies and significant correlation between the showers and Active Galactic Nuclei (AGN)'s at energies above 6×10^{19} within approximately 75 Mpc of Earth [14]

1.2 Extensive Air Showers (EAS)

The Extensive Air Shower (EAS) is a phenomenon that occurs when high energy cosmic ray primaries-protons or heavy nuclei-are incident on the Earth's atmosphere. The bombardment of the primaries with air nuclei results in the formation of huge numbers of charged and neutral secondary particles which in turn interacts with the atmospheric constituents or decays to give other particles [15]. Typically, two types of showers develop in the atmosphere; namely nuclear cascade and electromagnetic cascade.

The high energy primaries are hadrons which collide with air nuclei several times as they traverse the atmospheric depth. Each of these collisions

results in the production of large numbers of secondary particles such as π^0, π^+, π^-, K^+ , etc. Some of the unstable hadrons decay into more penetrating particles, like μ mesons, while others show further interaction as they fall further downwards, giving rise to a series of interactions known as a nuclear cascade [15].

The π^0 produced in various interactions in the build-up to the nuclear cascade, decays almost instantaneously into high energy gamma rays which trigger huge electromagnetic cascades. The products of these cascades are photons, electrons and positrons which comprise the electromagnetic component of air showers.

$$\pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma + \gamma \quad (1.5)$$

Some of the other interactions that take place are :

$$K^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ + \nu \quad (1.6)$$

$$K^- \rightarrow \mu^- + \nu \quad (1.7)$$

The μ mesons form the muon component of the shower while the neutrinos, which have only weak interaction like muons, escape and carry away significant fraction of the primary energy with them. The surviving hadrons, all of them having strong interaction, make up the hadronic component of the shower [15].

In showers triggered by photon-electron collisions, the electrons lose most of their energies in one radiation length. In contrast, in nucleon induced showers the nucleons can penetrate several interaction lengths losing only about 25% of their energies in each encounter with other nucleons or mesons, making nuclear cascades more penetrating than electromagnetic ones [14].

Atmospheric density decreases exponentially with height due to the nature of the Earth's atmospheric gases and the gravitational field. As density decreases upwards, interaction lengths of the primaries are longer which leads to some of them decaying into secondaries. This exponential relation also allows the secondary particles to spread laterally as they descend towards Earth; the lower energy particles will have larger opening angles meaning these will spread more compared to their high energy counterparts. Hence, EAS is defined to have a dense core of high energy particles and the density

decreases with distance from the core. The lateral spread of density of particles away from the core is different for different species which enables the detection and identification of shower particles. Furthermore, the extended shape of the atmosphere introduces a characteristic arrival time for the different shower particles at detection level. It is found that mesons, with their lower mass, arrive first leading the heavier particles [15].

The defining factor of lateral spread of the shower particles is their transverse momentum which is typically about $0.3\text{GeV}/c$ for nuclear cascades, much larger than for electromagnetic cascades of the same primary energy. Hence, EAS mostly consists of a high-energy core dominated by nucleons and a wider spread of particles outward containing the electron-photon component which gives rise to further electromagnetic cascades by means of pion production and decay [14].

1.3 Secondary Cosmic Radiation

The charged primaries that are incident on the Earth gives rise to air showers as elucidated in the previous section. The resulting particles of these atmospheric interactions are known as the secondary cosmic ray particles. These secondaries subsequently decays or interacts further along their trajectories. Secondary particles include mostly pions in all three, charged and neutral,

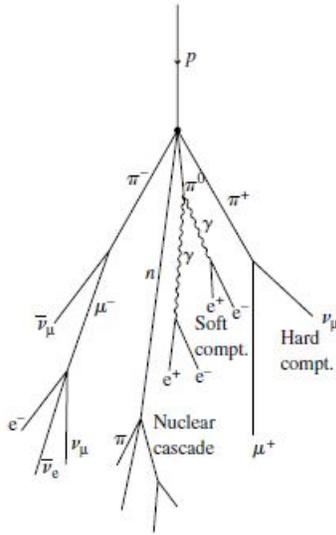


Figure 1.2: Decay of pions and muons in the atmosphere

states and some radioisotopes, most importantly $^{14}_6\text{C}$. The nuclear interaction mean free path for a proton ($\lambda \approx 100\text{gmc}m^{-2}$) which is very much less than total atmospheric depth ($X = 1030\text{gmc}m^{-2}$), as a result of which the pions are produced in the stratosphere. The charged pions decay to form muons, neutrinos and anti-neutrinos with a proper half-life of $\tau = 26\text{ns}$.

$$\pi^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ + \nu_\mu \quad (1.8)$$

and

$$\pi^- \rightarrow \mu^- + \bar{\nu}_\mu \quad (1.9)$$

The daughter muons are unstable themselves, undergoing decay with $\tau = 2200\text{ns}$

$$\mu^+ = e^+ + \nu_e + \bar{\nu}_\mu \quad (1.10)$$

Mass of the muon is about 0.105GeV and a 1GeV energy muon has an average decay length of about 6.6km which is about the same as the scale height of the atmosphere. Hence, muons of energy 1GeV or less will decay in flight in the atmosphere without any competition from nuclear interaction as muons do not have strong interactions (Perkins,2009). However, muons of energy 3GeV have mean decay length of about 20km meaning that these energetic muons can traverse the atmosphere without decaying or being brought to rest and reach sea level on Earth. Even more energetic muons can reach deep underground which is why they are referred to as the 'hard component' of cosmic radiation [14].

Neutral pions undergo electromagnetic decay with $\tau = 8 \times 10^{-7}\text{s}$

$$\pi^0 \rightarrow 2\gamma \quad (1.11)$$

The resulting photons develop electron-photon cascades of relatively shorter absorption lengths, in the higher atmosphere. Due to the fact that these photons are easily absorbed in the upper atmosphere, the cascades are said to constitute the 'soft component' of cosmic radiation [14].

Among the products of nuclear interactions of the cosmic ray primaries are radioisotopes. $^{14}_6\text{C}$ is of particular significance as it the presence of this isotope of a mean lifetime of 5600 years that makes radioactive carbon dating possible. It is formed by neutron capture in Nitrogen [14].



1.4 Detection of EAS

Primary particles that initiate EAS interact high in the atmosphere which makes it very challenging to detect them directly as it involves detectors being carried up by balloons or satellites. However, the very low flux at the highest energies of the cosmic ray primaries makes this method virtually impossible [13]. Hence, surface detection using array of ground detectors and mirror-photomultiplier systems to detect light due to charged particles traversing the atmosphere, have been employed to detect the secondary cosmic rays arriving and from these shower profiles, inferences can be made about which showers were initiated by electrons or which were initiated by nucleons [14].

1.4.1 Ground Detection

Ground detection of EAS is accomplished by using an extended array of ground detectors which samples the charged particles in the shower, typically by employing liquid scintillators or water Cerenkov counters. Showers detected in ground level are of primary energies, E_0 of about $1000TeV$ while at mountain heights, $E_0 \approx 100TeV$. As a result of the shower particles being relativistic ($v \approx c$), the shower front is well defined which enables accurate measurement of the direction of primary particles by timing the different parts of the shower front as it reaches the detector array [14].

1.4.2 Detection of Cerenkov Radiation

When a relativistic charged particle traverses a medium with a greater phase velocity than that of light in that medium, the loss in energy of the particle will give rise to coherent wavefronts in the path of the charged particle and an electromagnetic wave will be observed as a result, mainly in the UV or blue region of the spectrum [18].

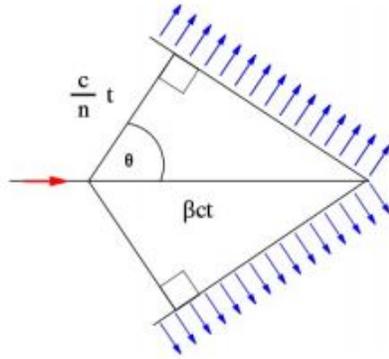


Figure 1.3: Huygen's construct for Cerenkov radiation

Following from the figure, we get

$$\cos \theta = \frac{1}{\beta n} \quad (1.13)$$

Here, θ is the opening angle, n is the refractive index of the medium and $\beta = \frac{v}{c}$ where v is the speed of the particle in the medium and c is the speed

of light in vacuum. The equation puts forward the notion of a threshold value for β below which no Cerenkov light is observed; however, most of the components of EAS have energies much greater than this threshold so that a significant amount of Cerenkov light is produced [14].

Cerenkov light can be detected by employing arrays of large spherical mirrors to direct the light on to photo-multipliers placed at the focus. The light is constricted in a narrow angular range, such that maximum opening angle, $\theta_{max} = \cos^{-1} \frac{1}{n}$, which results in the radius of the radiation to be restricted of around $100m$ around the shower axis which means that the mirrors and the photo-multipliers need to be in close proximity for effective recording of the radiation data [14].

1.4.3 Detection of Atmospheric Fluorescence

A healthy fraction of the energy of shower particles is dissipated in exciting and ionising air molecules. For shower detection, the excitation and subsequent emission of photons in the blue wavelength region is of vital importance and this phenomena is given the name atmospheric fluorescence [13]. In contrast with Cerenkov radiation which is emitted in a very narrow opening angle, this fluorescence light is given off isotropically in all directions [14].

A similar technique of imaging showers by photomultiplier tubes as in the detection of Cerenkov radiation is employed to detect atmospheric fluorescence. However, as fluorescence light is isotropic, the light pool is much more extensive than that received for Cerenkov radiation which enables the detection of distant shower particles which were not incident directly on the mirror-photomultiplier system [14].

Although, this mirror-photomultiplier technique is adept at detecting shower particles with significant accuracy, many limitations exist nonetheless. For instance, the incoming light signal is only appreciably detected on clear moonless nights when the optical background is low enough to be able to distinguish the very faint light signals from both fluorescence and Cerenkov radiations [13]. Even so, the detection system has a very poor duty cycle such that even in the most favourable environments, duty cycle can only improve to 10% [14]. A simulated shower profile obtained from a mirror photo-multiplier system is given below which validates the discussion above

that fluorescence light is more widely detected rather than Cerenkov light.

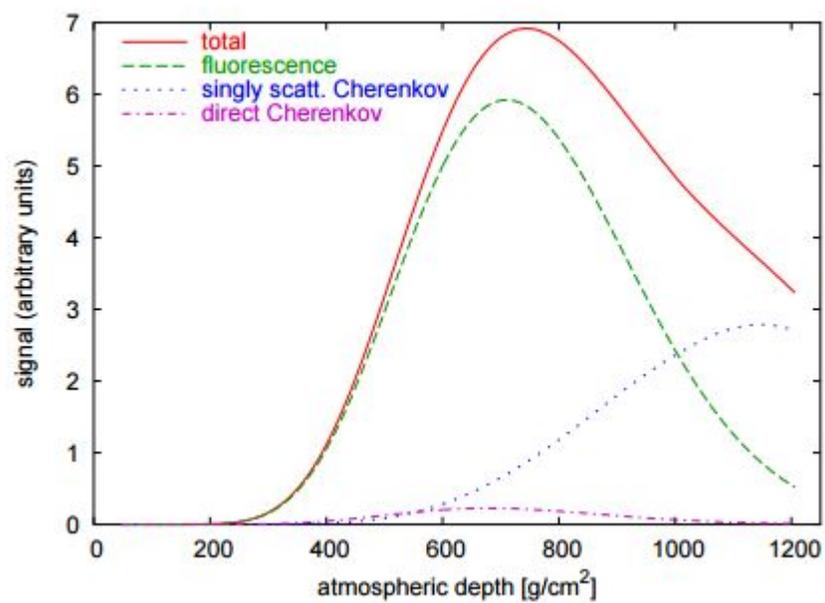


Figure 1.4: Simulated shower profile depicting various detected radiation

1.5 The GZK Cut-Off

The Greisen-Zatspein-Kuzmin (GZK) limit is a theoretical upper limit on the energy of cosmic rays and is taken to be about 5×10^{19} eV. This limiting value is approximately the same order of magnitude as the highest energy cosmic rays that have been detected on Earth [14].

Greisen, Kuzmin and Zatspein independently computed this upper limit based on the apparent interaction of cosmic ray protons and the photons of Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB) radiation. They predicted the interaction as

$$\gamma_{CMB} + p \rightarrow \Delta^+ \rightarrow p + \pi^0 \quad (1.14)$$

or as

$$\gamma_{CMB} + p \rightarrow \Delta^+ \rightarrow n + \pi^+ \quad (1.15)$$

where cosmic ray protons of energy over the threshold of 5×10^{19} eV interact with CMB radiation resulting in pions via the Δ resonance. Eventually, the pions and neutrons decay resulting in a number of particles. π^0 decay to photons, π^+ decay to photons, positrons and various neutrinos while neutrons decay to give similar products. The combined effect of these decays is such that the energy of any cosmic ray proton is drained off by the production of high energy photons and high energy electron-positron and neutrino pairs so that an upper limit to the incident energy is implemented [6].

1.5.1 GZK Cut-Off Calculation

For calculation purposes, let's consider interaction of protons with CMB radiation to produce π^+ .

$$\gamma_{CMB} + p \rightarrow \Delta^+ \rightarrow n + \pi^+ \quad (1.16)$$

Charge conservation is ensured by the presence of the positively charged pion. However, energy conservation mandates a maximum value of energy that the proton can have in order for the process to be possible.

Energy of an usual CMB photon, whose temperature is presently know to be about 3 kelvin, is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
k_B T &= 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \times 3 \\
&= 4.2 \times 10^{-23} J \\
&= 2.63 \times 10^{-4} eV
\end{aligned}$$

This energy is very little compared to that of the incoming ultra-high energy proton. Because relativistic particles are on the agenda, the calculations must proceed by writing the 4-momentum of each particle and then squaring them to check for momentum conservation. The notations that will be used are

\mathbf{p}_p = proton 4-momentum in lab frame before collision
 \mathbf{p}_γ = CMB photon 4-momentum in lab frame before collision
 \mathbf{p}_n = neutron 4-momentum in centre-of-mass frame after collision
 \mathbf{p}_π = pion 4-momentum in centre-of-mass frame after collision

Therefore, momentum is conserved if

$$(\mathbf{p}_p + \mathbf{p}_\gamma)^2 = (\mathbf{p}_n + \mathbf{p}_\pi)^2$$

π^+ and n are both produced at rest and so has total energy $(M_n + M_\pi)c^2$. In the centre-of-mass frame, their total energy is zero and hence, the right hand side of the equation equals

$$(\mathbf{p}_n + \mathbf{p}_\pi)^2 = -(M_n + M_\pi)^2 c^2 \quad (1.17)$$

Now, taking the dot product of the term on the left hand side gives,

$$(\mathbf{p}_p + \mathbf{p}_\gamma)^2 = (\mathbf{p}_p + \mathbf{p}_\gamma) \cdot (\mathbf{p}_p + \mathbf{p}_\gamma) = (\mathbf{p}_p)^2 + 2(\mathbf{p}_p)(\mathbf{p}_\gamma) + (\mathbf{p}_\gamma)^2 \quad (1.18)$$

where, all terms on the right are 4-vector dot products. Furthermore, we have

$$(\mathbf{p}_p)^2 = -M_p^2 c^2$$

and

$$(\mathbf{p}_\gamma)^2 = 0$$

Hence, combining equation (1.9) and (1.8) and using the above expressions,

$$-M_p^2 c^2 + 2\mathbf{p}_p \cdot \mathbf{p}_\gamma = -(M_n + M_\pi)^2 c^2 \quad (1.19)$$

Also, the 4-momentum vectors for the proton and the CMB radiation are

$$\mathbf{p}_p = \begin{pmatrix} E_p/c \\ E_p/c \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.20)$$

and

$$\mathbf{p}_\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} E_\gamma/c \\ -E_\gamma/c \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.21)$$

Therefore, the dot product in (1.10) is evaluated using the matrices and we are left with

$$\mathbf{p}_p \cdot \mathbf{p}_\gamma = -\frac{2E_p E_\gamma}{c^2}$$

Finally, by substituting this expression into (1.10), GZK cut-off can be calculated as

$$\begin{aligned} M_p^2 c^2 + 4\frac{E_p E_\gamma}{c^2} &= (M_n + M_\pi)^2 c^2 \\ \Rightarrow 4E_p E_\gamma &= (M_n c^2 + M_\pi)^2 - (M_p c^2)^2 \\ \Rightarrow E_p &= \frac{(M_n c^2 + M_\pi c^2)^2 - (M_p c^2)^2}{4E_\gamma} \end{aligned}$$

In units of $c=1$, $M_n = 939.6 \text{ MeV}/c^2$, $M_p = 938.3 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ and $M_\pi = 139.6 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ which gives the value of $E_p \approx 3 \times 10^{20} \text{ eV}$.

However, the energetically favourable process is the interaction of the cosmic ray protons with the CMB radiation that results in π^0 because the final

state particles are lighter. Although it appears that the proton is reproduced in the interaction, energy is transferred to the π^0 and the proton will be about 15% less energetic, falling far below the GZK limit. Taking this and other factors into consideration, the threshold energy is calculated similarly for the $p + \gamma \rightarrow p + \pi^0$ and is found to be about $5 \times 10^{19} eV$ which is known as the GZK cut-off [6].

Theoretically, no cosmic radiation which exceeds this threshold energy, is expected to be detected on Earth as any such cosmic ray particle will scatter off the CMB photons.

1.6 Point Sources of Ultra-High Energy Cosmic Radiation (UHECR)

The highest energy cosmic rays, in and around the knee region in Figure 1.1, of energies exceeding $10^{15} eV$, are given the name of Ultra-High Energy Cosmic Radiation (UHECR). UHECR is believed to have both galactic (energies below the knee) and extra-galactic (energies above the knee) origin and only a minute fraction of ultra-energetic particles which exceeds the ankle region are ever detected on Earth. The highest energy UHECR ever detected was by the Fly's Eye experiment in Utah, USA, whose shower energy is estimated to be around $3 \times 10^{20} eV$ which exceeds the GZK cut-off value, contradicting special relativity on which premise the GZK limit was calculated. On an average, detection of UHECR flux of order greater than $10^{20} eV$ is approximately estimated to be 0.5 to 1 event per square kilometre per century per steradians and even large detector arrays, covering tens of square kilometres are able to detect few such events in a span of ten years [16]. Judging by the very few number of events of such extreme energies, discrepancies in detectors and inaccuracy in measuring techniques could be used to argue against the validity of these events. Nonetheless, the possible sources of UHECR are of huge interest, mainly because these extreme energy values could potentially take physics to uncharted territories, some of which will be briefly discussed.

1.6.1 Criterion for Possible UHECR Sources

The uncertainty surrounding the existence of UHECR and their origins lead us to define possible UHECR sources with considerable precaution. Before an astrophysical entity can be touted as a possible candidate, it has to satisfy several prerequisites.

i) Geometry : The particle which is accelerated must be maintained within the object during the accelerating process.

ii) Power : The source needs to have sufficient energy which it can transfer to accelerate the particle.

iii) Radiation Loss : Energy must be conserved which means that energy gained by the accelerating particle is equal to its radiation energy loss.

iv) Interaction Loss : Energy lost by the particle must always be balanced by the energy it loses due to its interaction with other particles.

v) Emissivity : The detected radiation flux of UHECR must be compatible with the density and power of the source.

vi) Coexisting Radiation : The observed UHECR flux must always be greater than the associated photon, neutrino and the low-energy cosmic radiation flux.

vii) The Hillas Criterion : The maximum energy that an accelerating particle can have before it leaves the region it is being accelerated in can be expressed as follows:

$$\varepsilon_{max} = qBR \tag{1.22}$$

where q is the particle's electric charge, B is the magnetic field it is subjected to and R is the size of the accelerating region. Equation (1.22) is subject to a restriction imposed by a general geometrical criterion, named the Hillas Criterion, which demands that the Larmor radius of the accelerating particle (also known as the gyroradius),

$$R_L = \frac{mv}{qB}$$

does not exceed the radius of the accelerating site,

$$R = \frac{\varepsilon}{qB}$$

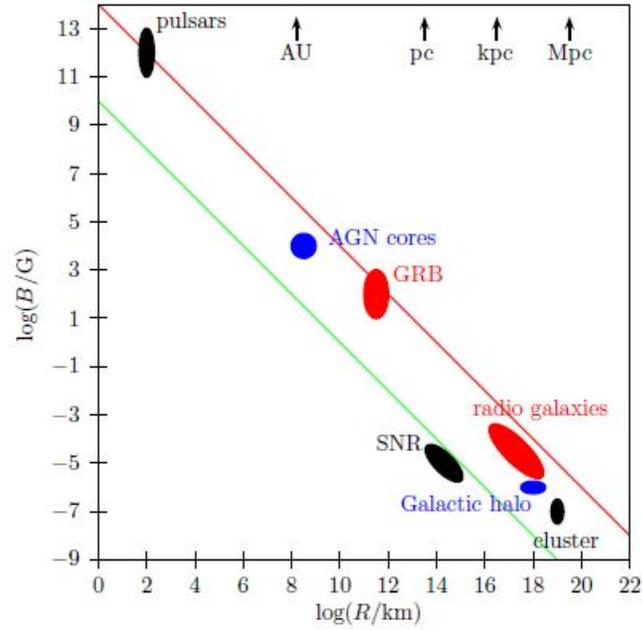


Figure 1.5: Hillas Plot depicting the relationship between magnetic field strength B and R and potential UHECR sites

Figure 1.5 shows how the size of an UHECR source, R , is related to the magnetic field strength, B , of the source for a specific value of ε_{max} . Sources marked above the top (red) line are able to accelerate protons up to $10^{21} eV$ while those marked above the bottom (green) line are capable of accelerating iron up to $10^{20} eV$.

Any potential UHECR source needs to satisfy the aforementioned prerequisites. A source satisfying all these requirements can be of galactic origin, which includes Type II supernovae, pulsars and shock acceleration in supernova remnants, while extragalactic sources consist of Active Galactic Nuclei (AGN) and γ ray bursts ([3]).

1.6.2 Sources of UHECR

This subsection is intended to briefly describe some of the astrophysical objects, both of galactic and extra galactic origin, that are touted as possible UHECR sources.

i) Pulsars: Pulsar, a highly magnetised and rotating neutron star, is the remains of a massive star that underwent gravitational collapse, that emits a beam of electromagnetic radiation. It is very dense and has a precise radiation interval and rotational period. The very high magnetic field associated with a pulsar is of order 10^{13} Gauss and has the ability to accelerate charged nuclei up to energies of $10^{20} eV$ which is why it is a very possible source of UHECR [16].

ii) Active Galactic Nuclei (AGN): A compact region at the centre of a galaxy with a greater than average luminosity, is called an Active Galactic Nucleus (AGN). Luminosity range of an AGN extends mostly all over the electromagnetic spectrum. Any galaxy that hosts an AGN at its centre is known as an Active Galaxy. Quasars, for instance, are associated with AGNs which has time-variant luminosities of enormous magnitudes, typically 10^{13} times that of our Sun (3.9×10^{26} W). Such high luminosities can only result from very high power generated in a very compact region, leaving black holes as the only conceivable object which can do so by accretion of inflowing matter. Hence, any AGN must be associated with a supermassive black hole at the galactic centre. The black hole is surrounded by an accretion disk of matter - gas, dust and stars - which contributes to its growth. The emitted energy is a result of release of gravitational energy when any material in the accretion disk is gobbled up by the black hole. In this manner, about half the mass energy of the accreted matter is released which is enough to generate the aforementioned energy output. In the course of the absorption process, the accretion matter undergoes violent oscillations resulting in them being ionised as a plasma. Plasma is a magneto-fluid and as a result the enormous number of charge carriers are accelerated to very high energies which generates a plasma current and that in turn induces a magnetic field. Such conditions allows the subsequent emission of radiation in the optical, infrared and X-ray frequencies. However, the accretion process cannot go on indefinitely and after the nearby matter is exhausted, the AGN reduces to a normal galaxy containing a quiet black hole at the centre ([14]).

iii) **γ ray bursts (GRB)**: γ ray burst (GRB) is one of the most powerful and yet the least understood explosion phenomena in the Universe, typically of energy of $\approx 10^{44}$ J suggestive of these bursts being associated with a Type II supernova explosion ($\approx 10^{46}$ J) (Perkins, 2009, p. 249). The bursts are quite common with one or two bursts detected everyday by NASA detectors (NASA, 2013). The burst can be categorised into two classes of different origins and durations; short-duration bursts (period < 2 s) and long-duration bursts (period $2 - 10$ s). Only vague ideas about the origin and mechanism have developed about short duration bursts but the very short burst lengths is indicative of extremely compact objects from whence these originate. For instance, a possible origin for short duration bursts are orbiting neutron stars in a binary system when they undergo gravitational collapse, forming black holes. In contrast, long duration bursts are better understood and they originate from events called *collapsars* which arise from the collapse of very massive, rapidly rotating and low-metallicity Wolf-Rayet (W-R) stars ($\approx 20 - 100$ solar masses). Due to their humongous mass, the lifetime of such stars are significantly shorter than that of our Sun. Thus, the W-R stars evolve rapidly, burning silicon at a very high rate, and collapses directly into a black hole when the fuel is exhausted. The resulting black hole sucks in the enormous amount of mass surrounding the accretion disk which is accompanied by a blast of γ -rays carrying out enormous amount of energy [14].

Chapter 2

Cosmic radiation detection and analysis at ALICE

ALICE (A Large Ion Collider Experiment) is one of the seven detector experiments at the Large Hadron Collider (LHC) at CERN. The primary objective of the ALICE experiment is to study the formation of quark-gluon plasma which is a state of matter formed at extreme energies. The protons and neutrons, that make up all matter, consist of particles called quarks which are held together by other particles named gluons. These quarks are confined inside protons and neutrons and due to this *quark confinement* no quark has ever been discovered in isolation. Collision experiments in the LHC are designed under extreme temperatures, greater than 100000 times hotter than the centre of the Sun, recreating conditions similar to those after the Big Bang. Under these extreme laboratory conditions, protons and neutrons *melt* which breaks the bond between the quarks and gluons and gives rise to a phase of matter known as the *quark-gluon plasma*. The existence of this phase and its properties are key to fully comprehend the phenomenon of confinement [4].

Additionally, ALICE contributes in the study of cosmic ray physics with the help of ACORDE (ALICE Cosmic Ray Detector). The ALICE underground cavern makes for a suitable place to enable the detection of high energy atmospheric muons coming from cosmic ray showers. ACORDE detects cosmic ray showers by triggering the arrival of muons to the top of the ALICE magnet. The cosmic ray trigger consists of 60 scintillator modules distributed on the three upper faces of the ALICE magnet. The array can

be configured to detect single to multi-muon events and ACORDE's high resolution enables the recording of cosmic events with very high multiplicity of parallel muon tracks known as 'muon bundles' [?].

There are two main aspects which motivated the use of ACORDE to contribute to cosmic ray physics. Firstly, study of cosmic rays would lead to a better understanding of nuclear interaction at high energies. Particle production at high energies can be estimated based on extrapolation of the accelerator data. Different interaction models are employed for identifying primary cosmic ray particles and interpreting the accelerator data. Currently some of the models used are the VENUS, DPMJET, QGSJET, EPOS, etc for high energy hadronic interactions and GHEISHA, FLUKA and URQMD for low energy hadronic interactions. Explanation of all such models will be given in this paper. The underground location of ALICE with 30 m of overburden composed of sub-alpine Molasses, is an ideal place for muon-based underground experiments. From geological surveys, it is known that the surface above ALICE location is flat within a radius of at least 200 m from the ALICE interaction point and the rock composition is almost uniform, enabling accurate measurements of muon absorption and energy loss for the muons reaching the central magnet with a threshold energy, $E_{\mu th} > 17$ GeV. The motive of these experiments is to observe underground multi-muon events and analyse the large muon-multiplicities of very high energy cosmic rays and to search for rare exotic cosmic ray events making a direct contribution to Cosmic Ray (CR) physics, the second objective of ACORDE [11].

2.1 About the CORSIKA Simulation Program

CORSIKA (Cosmic Ray SIMulation for KASCADE) is a detailed Monte Carlo program which uses only standard FORTRAN routines to study the evolution and properties of Extensive Air Showers (EAS) in the atmosphere. The program is able to analyse and model the cascade that develops when a high energy particle enters the atmosphere. It was first developed to perform simulations for the KASCADE experiment at Karlsruhe, Germany. It also gives the type, energy, location, direction and arrival times of all the secondary particles created in an EAS passing a specific observation level [5].

The CORSIKA program consists essentially of four parts. The first part

is a general program frame which identifies an input and produces an output, perform decays of unstable particles and tracks the particles taking into consideration ionisation energy loss and deflection by multiple scattering and the Earth's magnetic field. The second part simulates hadronic interactions of the nuclei and hadrons with air nuclei at high energies. The third part simulates hadronic interactions at lower energies while the fourth part enunciates the transport and interaction of electrons, positrons and photons. Varying options can be selected and the simulation steered by choosing different types of interaction models that best suites our interest [10].

2.2 The Monte Carlo Method

Monte Carlo (MC) method is a range of computational algorithms which has a range of uses in many fields including computational physics and astrophysics. The method is very useful in modelling phenomena with significant uncertainties in inputs or in simulating systems with many coupled degrees of freedom. In principle, MC method can be used to solve any problem having a probabilistic interpretation. In air-shower physics, the method is used to generate momentum and spatial coordinates of all shower particles produced in subsequent interactions and track all sub-showers along with the primary shower down to the ground [1].

MC method is employed in the CORSIKA simulation program because of the large uncertainties associated with shower simulations. The goal of the simulation programme is to produce MC data which exactly matches the shower profile from the actual detector. This is ensured by comparing distributions of many observables produced by the experimental data and the MC method [2]. This reconstruction and matching process is time consuming which is precisely why the CORSIKA simulation program requires a large CPU time in processing the output.

2.3 Some Relevant CORSIKA High-Energy Hadronic Interaction Models

2.3.1 DPMJET Version

DPMJET (Dual Parton Model with JETs) is a program developed to describe high energy hadronic interactions of hadron-nucleus and nucleus-nucleus collisions. It takes about the same CPU time as the VENUS model at primary energies of 10^{15} eV and it is possible to use DPMJET model up-to the highest energies [10].

2.3.2 EPOS Option

EPOS (Energy conserving quantum mechanical multi-scattering approach, based on Partons, Off-shell remnants and Splitting parton ladders) combines features of the VENUS and QGSJET 01 models to safely extrapolate to higher energies. The most actual version is the EPOS LHC in which the LHC data are considered to constrain the model parameters. It takes about 7.5 times CPU time than the DPMJET version at similar energy range. EPOS also activates all inelastic hadron-nucleus cross-sections and these are calculated by built-in subroutines [10].

2.3.3 HDPM Routines

HDPM routines take a fairly smaller amount of CPU time and are adjusted to experimental data. Proton-proton interactions simulated with HDPM routines dovetail pretty well with the simulations using other models but HDPM fails when it comes to nucleus-nucleus and nucleon-nucleus interactions due to simpler modelling and shortage of experimental data [10].

2.3.4 QGSJET Option

QGSJET (Quark Gluon String model with JETs) is a programme developed to describe high-energy hadronic interactions using the Pomeron parametrization for the elastic hadron-nucleon scattering amplitude. The hadronization process is treated in the quark-gluon string model and the most actual version of the programme, QGSJET-II-04 includes LHC tuned Pomeron loops

and cross-sections. The run time for this routine is about 3 times that of HDPM routines [10].

2.3.5 VENUS Option

VENUS (Very Energetic NUClear Scattering) is a programme that simulates ultra-relativistic heavy-ion collisions. VENUS cross-section are defined automatically while extracting the FORTRAN code when the VENUS option is selected. CPU time is about 15 times more than that of the HDPM routines [10].

2.4 CORSIKA Low-energy Hadronic Interaction Models

2.4.1 FLUKA Option

FLUKA (FLUctuating KAscade) is a set of routines that follow energetic particles through matter by the Monte Carlo method and combined with CORSIKA, only tracks those hadronic interactions which are of low energy. FLUKA is employed in CORSIKA to calculate hadronic cross-sections with the components of air and perform their interactions and track the production of secondary particles including many details about the de-excitation of target nuclei. FLUKA option cannot be combined with the DPMJET option because of several identical subroutines used within FLUKA and DPMJET [10].

2.4.2 GHEISHA Option

GHEISHA (Gamma Hadron Electron Interaction SHower code) is a program designed capable of describing hadronic collisions up-to 100 GeV energy. Among other uses, GHEISHA routine is used in CORSIKA to calculate elastic and inelastic cross-sections of hadrons below 80 GeV in air and their interaction and particle production [10].

2.4.3 URQMD Option

URQMD (Ultra Relativistic Quantum Molecular Dynamics) is designed to describe hadron-nucleus interactions at low energies. Its use in CORSIKA program lies in performing elastic and inelastic hadronic interactions below 80 GeV energy in air [10].

Chapter 3

CORSIKA Simulation Details and Results

This chapter is intended to elucidate on the work carried out by myself and the results obtained. This will include detailed explanation of the CORSIKA parameters that were used and the analysis carried out using ROOT programme. Furthermore, shower profiles and particle distributions are also explained with the help of graphs generated by CORSIKA.

3.1 High-Energy Hadronic Interaction Model EPOS

Many elementary collisions occur in a nucleus-nucleus or proton-proton scattering. These scattering phenomena are called "parton ladder" or the cut Pomeron [12].

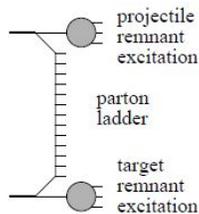


Figure 3.1: Parton-parton scattering

As a simple model, hadron-hadron interaction can be taken as an exchange of a "parton ladder" between the two hadrons. In EPOS, "parton ladder" consists of two parts; a hard scattering between the projectile and the target and a soft scattering component. The EPOS model takes into account energy conservations when calculating cross sections and strings unlike other models, which makes it a consistent quantum mechanical multiple scattering approach based on partons and strings. Furthermore, to enhance the predictive ability of the model, non-linear effects of hadron-hadron interactions have been made more consistent to describe both proton-proton, hadron-nucleus and nucleus-nucleus data as shown in Figure 3.2.[12].

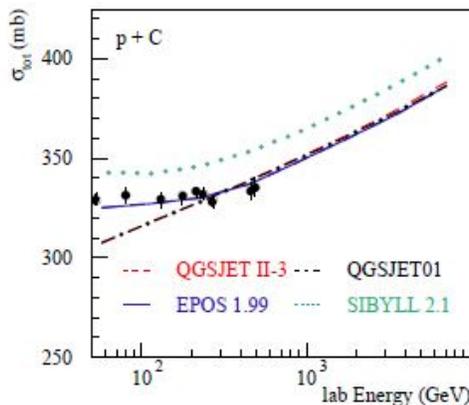


Figure 3.2: Total cross-section of proton-carbon interactions against Energy as compared with different hadronic interaction models

The EPOS option is improved from the older VENUS and QGSJET 01 options in that many technical problems have been solved and the screening effects made more efficient by including the recent Relativistic Heavy Ion Collider (RHIC) data. In addition, high density effects have been considered and the most actual version, used in this work, EPOS LHC has been incorporated with the LHC data in modelling constraint parameters [10].

3.2 Low-Energy Interaction Model UrQMD

The UrQMD model is a microscopic model which describes the phenomenology of hadronic interactions at low and intermediate energies ($\sqrt{s} < 5$ GeV)

in terms of interactions between known hadrons and their resonances. At higher energies, $\sqrt{s} > 5$ GeV, the excitations of colour strings and their subsequent disintegration into hadrons are taken into account in the UrQmd model [17].

The combination of high-energy and low-energy interaction models determine how accurately a shower profile is constructed. All the models mentioned above have their strengths and weakness and so a good combination is important for greater accuracy. UrQMD model takes a longer CPU time than FLUKA model but gives a more accurate ionisation profile [1].

3.3 CORSIKA Input File

After installing CORSIKA and setting EPOS LHC and UrQMD models as high-energy and low-energy interaction models respectively as the modelling parameters for showers incident on a horizontal array of detectors, an input file is generated. This file consists of a number of shower parameters that can be altered for getting different shower profiles. An example of such an input *card* is given in the table below.

Table 3.1: CORSIKA input card setup

Begin of input card		
Parameter	Value	Explanation
RUNNR	xxxx	run number
EVNTNR	x	number of first shower events
NSHOW	xxxx	number of showers to generate
PRMPAR	xx	particle type of primary particle
ESLOPE	-2.7	slope of primary spectrum
ERANGE	1.E5 1.E6	energy range of primary particle [GeV]
THETAP	0. 50.	range of zenith angle (in degrees)
PHIP	0. 360.	range of azimuth. angle (in degrees)
SEED	x 0 0	seed for 1. random
SEED	x 0 0	seed for 2. random
SEED	x 0 0	seed for 3. random
OBSLEV	479.E2	observation level CERN (in cm)
FIXHEI	0. 0.	first interaction height and target
FIXCHI	0.	starting altitude (g/cm^2)

Continuation of input card 3.1		
Parameter	Value	Explanation
MAGNET	22.1 41.6	magnetic field CERN
HADFLG	0 0 0 0 0 2	flags hadr. interact. and fragmentation
EPOS	T 0	EPOS as hadronic interaction model
EPOSIG	T	EPOS hadronic cross-sections
ECUTS	1.0 1.0 0.003 0.003	energy cuts had mu e photon
MUADDI	T	additional info for muons
MUMULT	T	muon multiple scattering angle
ELMFLG	T F	em. interaction flags
STEPFC	10.	mult. scattering step length factor
RADNKG	200.E2	outer radius for NKG lat.dens.distr.
ARRANG	0.	rotation of array to north
LONGI	F 20. T F	longit.distr. and step size and fit and out
ECTMAP	1.E4	cut on gamma factor for printout
MAXPRT	xxx	max. number of printed events
DIRECT	./	output directory
DATBAS	T	write .dbase file
PAROUT	T/F T/F	
USER	name	user
DEBUG	T/F x T/F xxxxxxxx	debug flag and log.unit for out
End of Input card		

The values marked with "x's" are the parameters that can be changed to obtain different shower profiles. Note that, in the table, EPOS was marked as T (True). If any other hadronic interaction model were used, for instance QGSJET, that would have taken the place of EPOS in the input file.

A modified input file for simulation of 500 shower events using the EPOS LHC hadronic interaction model is given which was used in this work. Proton shower was simulated by inputting 14 in the PRMPAR portion of the input card. A wide range of other particles can also be chosen using appropriate entry numbers, for instance, for iron it is 5626.

Table 3.2: CORSIKA input card Used

Begin of input card		
Parameter	Value	Explanation
RUNNR	001300	run number
EVNTNR	1	number of first shower events
NSHOW	500	number of showers to generate
PRMPAR	14	particle type of primary particle
ESLOPE	-2.7	slope of primary spectrum
ERANGE	1.E5 1.E6	energy range of primary particle [GeV]
THETAP	0. 50.	range of zenith angle (in degrees)
PHIP	0. 360.	range of azimuth. angle (in degrees)
SEED	9 0 0	seed for 1. random
SEED	3 0 0	seed for 2. random
SEED	6 0 0	seed for 3. random
OBSLEV	479.E2	observation level CERN (in cm)
FIXHEI	0. 0.	first interaction height and target
FIXCHI	0.	starting altitude (g/cm^2)
MAGNET	22.1 41.6	magnetic field CERN
HADFLG	0 0 0 0 0 2	flags hadr. interact. and fragmentation
EPOS	T 0	EPOS as hadronic interaction model
EPOSIG	T	EPOS hadronic cross-sections
ECUTS	1.0 1.0 0.003 0.003	energy cuts had mu e phot
MUADDI	T	additional info for muons
MUMULT	T	muon multiple scattering angle
ELMFLG	T F	em. interaction flags
STEPFC	10.	mult. scattering step length factor
RADNKG	200.E2	outer radius for NKG lat.dens.distr.
ARRANG	0.	rotation of array to north
LONGI	F 20. T F	longit.distr. and step size and fit and out
ECTMAP	1.E4	cut on gamma factor for printout
MAXPRT	2	max. number of printed events
DIRECT	./	output directory
DATBAS	T	write .dbase file
PAROUT	T F	
USER	alessand	user
DEBUG	F 6 F 1000000	debug flag and log.unit for out
End of Input card		

3.4 Results

With the corresponding inputs discussed in the preceding section, CORSIKA generated three output files namely *DAT 001300*, *DAT 001300.dbase* and *p-1014-1015-100.out*. The first two files contain information about which models and parameters were used, while the third file is the file which contains information about the shower profile.

In the process of generating *DAT 001300*, a ROOT macro is subsequently generated by CORSIKA. This macro is used to read *DAT 001300* using ROOT programme. This is the final process in the analysis of the shower and it generates a number of graphs which provides various features of the simulated shower. The ROOT macro is written in C++ language and the detailed coding is given in the appendix of this paper.

The graphs generated are discussed below:

i) Comparison of Detector Core at surface level and ALICE level:

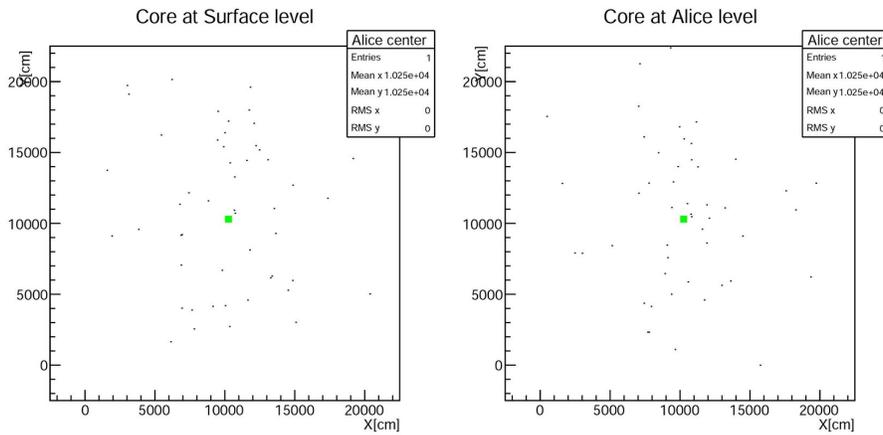


Figure 3.3: Surface level Vs ALICE level

This graph is a comparison of detected muons at surface level detectors and detectors at ALICE which is an underground facility. Both graphs show a similar profile which suggests that most muons detected at surface level are energetic enough to penetrate to the deep levels of the ALICE detectors.

ii) Muon distribution in correlation with detector area:

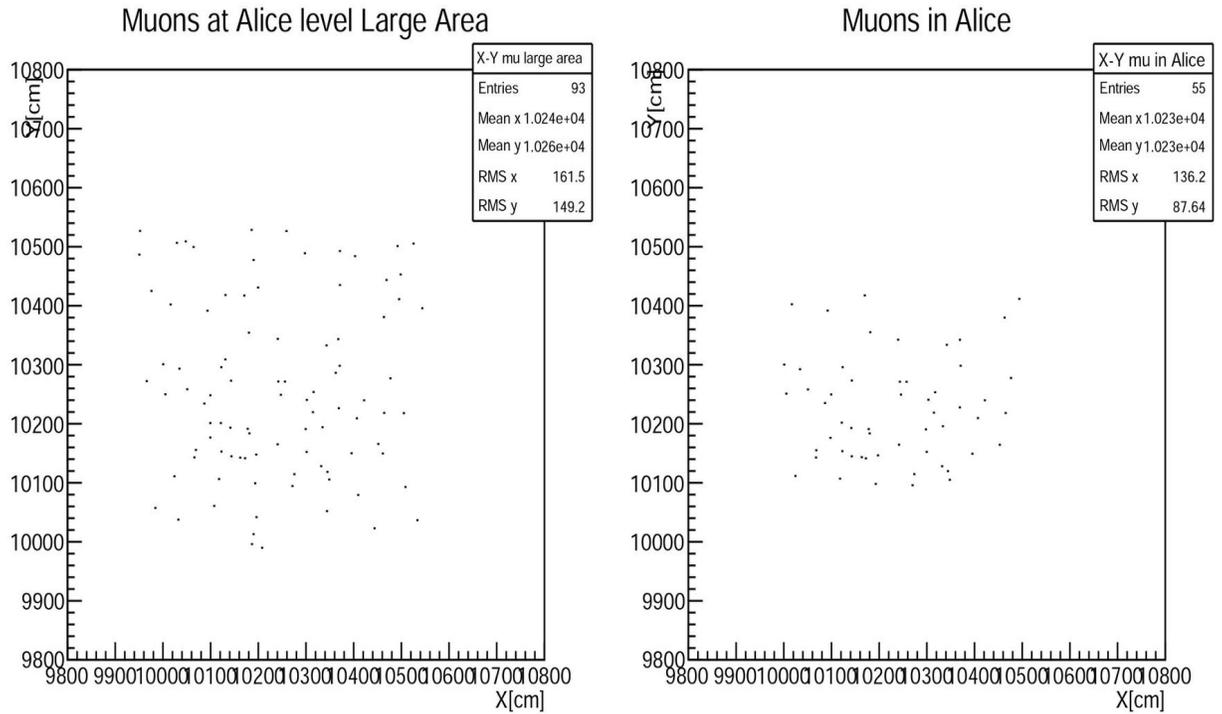


Figure 3.4: Muon distribution and relation with detector area

This graph is a comparison that between detection of muons in relation to detector area. In the ALICE experiment, there is a in-built muon re-constructor which can identify and track muons. Moreover, the ACORDE detector, used to detect energetic cosmic ray particles, is located over a vast area underground. The graphs demonstrate that larger the area, greater the number of muons detected.

iii) Relation of muon energy with number of events

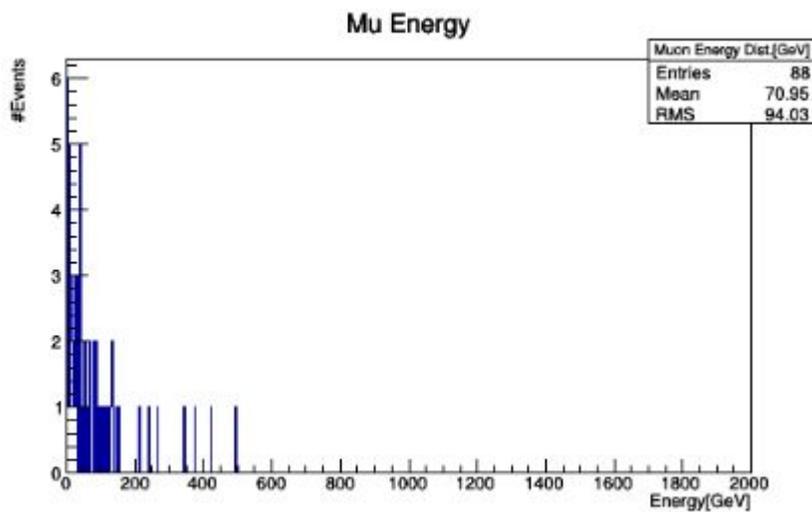


Figure 3.5: No. of Events vs Muon Energy

This graph essentially relates the incident muon energy with the number of interactions it is subjected to on its trajectory. It can be seen that, higher the muon energy, the lower number of events initiated by that muon. It is logical because the highest energy muons pass straight through to the detector without much interaction due to the fact that they do not show strong interaction.

iv) Muon multiplicities at energies above the knee

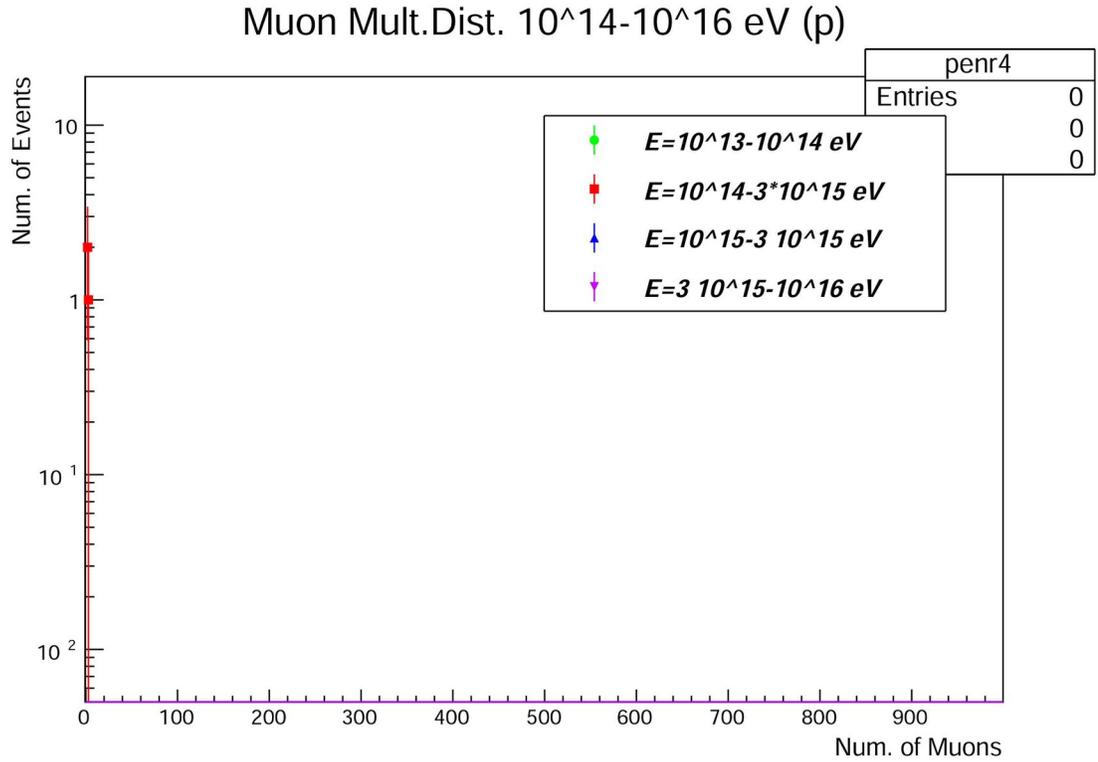


Figure 3.6: Muon multiplicity distribution generated by CORSIKA

This graph intends to establish a relation between the number of muons and the number of shower events for different energy ranges. Following from the previous graph, this graph is in good agreement. The greater the energy range of the muons, the least number of interactions it is subjected to and hence generates the lowest number of subsequent events.

Chapter 4

Conclusion

To summarise, the objectives of this thesis project were to simulate cosmic ray showers, investigate the muonic components in the shower profile and build a relation between the primary shower energy and the consequent events that occur as a result of particle interactions in the atmosphere. Simulation was done using CORSIKA, a complex Monte Carlo simulation program and the analysis of the shower profile was done using ROOT, a programme developed by CERN for detailed data analysis. The muons generated in the shower simulation were separated from the other other shower secondaries and a relation between their energies and the number of interaction events they give rise to.

Although a significant amount of time was taken in undertaking this research project, there were limitations to the generated shower data. The enormous amount of CPU time that is required to generate a single initiating event was nearly twelve hours, which was interrupted several times due to numerous power cuts. If the initiating event number were greater than one and if a larger number of secondary showers were used in the input command, the shower profiles would have looked more healthy. The subsequent data analysis would also have returned graphs more enriched than the existing graphs.

Appendix A: CORSIKA Code

```
1 #include <string>
2 #include <iostream>
3 #include <fstream>
4 #include <stdio.h>
5 #include <stdlib.h>
6 #include <math.h>
7 #include <time.h>
8 #include <TFile.h>
9 #include <TCanvas.h>
10 #include <TTree.h>
11 #include "aliana_corsika.h"
12 using namespace std;
13
14
15 extern void AnaEv(int n);
16
17 Int_t nn;
18 Float_t run,slope,nev,part_id,eneprim,emin,emax;
19 Float_t eneprimPeV,enerefPeV; //ak
20 Float_t gammagen,gammaknee,deltagenknee,deltakneegen; //ak
21 Int_t tagg30; //ak
22 Float_t rapene; //ak
23 Int_t num_ev_tot,num_ev_run,num_ev_ene;
24 Int_t num_ev_tot_g30,num_ev_run_g30,num_ev_ene_g30; //ak
25 Int_t num_ev_test;
26 Float_t
    tetaprim,phiprim,tetaprimgrad,phiprimgrad,phiprimpos,elle,emme,enne;
27 Float_t xdeep,ydeep;
28 Int_t nmutdis[LOOPCORE];
```

```

29 Float_t primev;
30 Float_t
    nmu[ILOOP],tnmu[ILOOP],tdensmu[ILOOP],emur[ILOOP],temur[ILOOP];
31 Float_t tnmu_app_zero[ILOOP],tnmu_core_zero[ILOOP];
32 Float_t tnmu_app_ecut[ILOOP],tnmu_core_ecut[ILOOP];
33 Float_t dtnmu_app_zero[ILOOP],dtnmu_core_zero[ILOOP];
34 Float_t dtnmu_app_ecut[ILOOP],dtnmu_core_ecut[ILOOP];
35 Float_t distmuapp,distmu,distmureal;
36 Float_t nmutot,sizenkg,nmut15;
37 Float_t rag[ILOOP+1],area[ILOOP];
38 Float_t media_nmutot,media_nmut15,media_sizenkg;
39 Float_t err_media_nmutot,err_media_nmut15;
40
41 Float_t ltot=20500;    // total lenght in X and Y of the surface
    above Alice in cm.
42 const Int_t maxmu=4000; // max. number of muons forseen inside
    large area around Alice
43 Float_t nmuali;      // number of muons inside large area around
    Alice (6x6 m**2)
44 Int_t idchmu[maxmu];    // identify charge of the muon
45 Int_t tagmucell[maxmu]; // tagmu=1 muon in Alice
46 Float_t emucell[maxmu];
47 Float_t tmucell[maxmu];
48 Float_t xmucell[maxmu];
49 Float_t ymucell[maxmu];
50 Float_t xmucellsurf[maxmu];
51 Float_t ymucellsurf[maxmu];
52 Float_t pxmucell[maxmu];
53 Float_t pymucell[maxmu];
54 Float_t pzmucell[maxmu];
55 Float_t pmucell[maxmu];
56 Float_t tetamucell[maxmu];
57 Float_t phimucell[maxmu];
58 Float_t aemucell;
59 Float_t aemuev;
60 Float_t dtmucell;
61
62 Int_t tagmu[maxmu];    // tagmu=1 muon in Alice
63 Float_t emuev[maxmu];
64 Float_t dtmuev[maxmu];

```

```

65 Float_t xmualiev[maxmu];
66 Float_t ymualiev[maxmu];
67 Float_t xmasurev[maxmu];
68 Float_t ymasurev[maxmu];
69 Float_t pxmuev[maxmu];
70 Float_t pymuev[maxmu];
71 Float_t pzmuev[maxmu];
72 Float_t pmuev[maxmu];
73 Float_t tetamuev[maxmu];
74 Float_t phimuev[maxmu];
75 Float_t tmuevmin;
76 Float_t adtmuev;
77 Int_t iasmin;
78 Int_t idcell,nmuev,nmuvec;
79 Float_t xco,yco; /* x core, y core */
80 Int_t nmuinali; // number of muons inside Alice (5 x 3 m**2)
81
82 Float_t a1;
83 Float_t rea[50];
84 Int_t i;
85
86 union heads{
87     Float_t header ;
88     Char_t headname[4] ;
89 } head ;
90
91 //Float_t buf[21][273] defined in aliana_corsika.h
92 Float_t firstlast ;
93 FILE *bufana;
94
95 Char_t infilnam[150];
96
97 Int_t main(){
98
99     Int_t loopf;
100     Int_t loopf_ene; //ak
101
102     // Area = 205 x 205 m**2 0<teta<50 0<phi<360 solid angle~1.8 sr
103     // All-particle gamma=-2.7 gammaknee=-3.0
104

```

```

105 // Index gamma of the generation (CORSIKA) and our gamma of the
      knee
106 gammagen = -2.7; //ak gamma used in Corsika
107 gammaknee = -3.0; //ak gamma used after the knee
108 deltagenknee = gammagen-gammaknee; //ak
109 deltakneegen = gammaknee-gammagen; //ak
110
111 // Input for analyze some simulated runs
112 const Int_t nfile1=1; // first file to be analysed
113 const Int_t nfile2=1; // last file to be analysed
114 const Int_t nfilevec=30; // maximum number of files
115 Int_t nevf[nfilevec]; //max. number of events per file
116 Int_t nevf_ene[5]; //ak max num. of events for each range of
      energy
117
118
119     nevf_ene[0]=1000000; // ak gamma=-3.0 3 10**15-10**16 files:0-5
120     nevf_ene[1]=0; // ak 10**16-3 10**16      files:6-9
121     nevf_ene[2]=0; // ak 3 10**16-10**17      files:10-13
122     nevf_ene[3]=0; // ak 10**17-3 10**17      files:14-15
123     nevf_ene[4]=0; // ak 3 10**17-10**18      files:16
124
125 for(i=0; i<nfilevec; i++){
126     nevf[i]=10000000;
127 }
128
129
130 // Ntupla:
131     // 1-loopf -> to identify the input file created by Corsika
132     // 2-part_id -> primary cosmic ray p=14, Fe=5626
133     // 3-eneprim -> energy of the primary [GeV]
134     // 4-tetaprimgrad -> zenith angle of the primary in degree
135     // 5-hiprimgrad -> azimuth angle of the primary in degree
136     // 6-num_ev_run -> number of the event in the actual
      input file
137     // 7-xco -> X of the core at surface level [cm]
138     // 8-yco -> Y of the core at surface level [cm]
139     // 9-xcoali -> X of the core at Alice level [cm]
140     // 10-ycoali -> Y of the core at Alice level [cm]

```

```

141         // 11-nmuev -> num. of muons arriving in an area 6 x 6
           //      m**2 around Alice
142         // 12-nmuinali -> num. of muons inside Alice 5 x 3.4 m**2
143         // 13-tagmu[nmuev] ->tagmu=0 outside Alice,tagmu=1
           //      inside Alice(for each mu)
144         // 14-emuev[nmuev] -> mu energy (for each mu)
145         // 15-dtmuev[nmuev] -> arriving time of the mu (for each
           //      mu)
146         // 16-xmualiev[nmuev] -> X of the mu at Alice level (for
           //      each mu)
147         // 17-ymualiev[nmuev] -> Y of the mu at Alice level (for
           //      each mu)
148         // 18-xmusurev[nmuev] -> X of the mu at surface level
           //      (for each mu)
149         // 19-ymusurev[nmuev] -> Y of the mu at surface level
           //      (for each mu)
150         // 20-pxmuev[nmuev] -> Px of the mu at surface (for each
           //      mu)
151         // 21-pymuev[nmuev] -> Py of the mu at surface (for each
           //      mu)
152         // 22-pzmuev[nmuev] -> Pz of the mu at surface (for each
           //      mu)
153         // 23-pmuev[nmuev] -> P of the mu at surface (for each
           //      mu)
154         // 24-tetamuev[nmuev] -> zenith angle of the mu (for
           //      each mu)
155         // 25-phimuev[nmuev] -> azimuth angle of the mu (for
           //      each mu)
156         // 26-aemuev -> average energy of the muon in the event
157         // 27-adtmuev -> average arrival time of the muon in the
           //      event
158         // 28-idchmu[nmuev] -> charge of the muon (for each
           //      muon) (added later)
159
160 //      Prepare the TREE
161 TFile *ftree1 = new
           TFile("ptest_tree_31015_1016_1.root","RECREATE","alicors_tree");
162 TTree *ev_tree = new TTree("AliCorsEv","AliCors_ev_tree");
163 ev_tree->Branch("loopf",&loopf,"loopf/I");
164 ev_tree->Branch("part_id",&part_id,"part_id/F");

```

```

165 ev_tree->Branch("eneprim",&eneprim,"eneprim/F");
166 ev_tree->Branch("tetaprimgrad",&tetaprimgrad,"tetaprimgrad/F");
167 ev_tree->Branch("phiprimgrad",&phiprimgrad,"phiprimgrad/F");
168 // ev_tree->Branch("num_ev_run",&num_ev_run,"num_ev_run/I");
169 ev_tree->Branch("num_ev_run",&num_ev_run_g30,"num_ev_run_g30/I");
    //ak
170 ev_tree->Branch("xco",&xco,"xco/F");
171 ev_tree->Branch("yco",&yco,"yco/F");
172 ev_tree->Branch("xcoali",&xdeep,"xdeep/F");
173 ev_tree->Branch("ycoali",&ydeep,"ydeep/F");
174 ev_tree->Branch("nmuev",&nmuev,"nmuev/I");
175 ev_tree->Branch("nmuinali",&nmuinali,"nmuinali/I");
176 ev_tree->Branch("tagmu",&tagmu,"tagmu[nmuev]/I");
177 ev_tree->Branch("emuev",emuev,"emuev[nmuev]/F");
178 ev_tree->Branch("dtmuev",dtmuev,"dtmuev[nmuev]/F");
179 ev_tree->Branch("xmualiev",xmualiev,"xmualiev[nmuev]/F");
180 ev_tree->Branch("ymualiev",ymualiev,"ymualiev[nmuev]/F");
181 ev_tree->Branch("xmasurev",xmasurev,"xmasurev[nmuev]/F");
182 ev_tree->Branch("ymasurev",ymasurev,"ymasurev[nmuev]/F");
183 ev_tree->Branch("pxmuev",pxmuev,"pxmuev[nmuev]/F");
184 ev_tree->Branch("pymuev",pymuev,"pymuev[nmuev]/F");
185 ev_tree->Branch("pzmuev",pzmuev,"pzmuev[nmuev]/F");
186 ev_tree->Branch("pmuev",pmuev,"pmuev[nmuev]/F");
187 ev_tree->Branch("tetamuev",tetamuev,"tetamuev[nmuev]/F");
188 ev_tree->Branch("phimuev",phimuev,"phimuev[nmuev]/F");
189 ev_tree->Branch("aemuev",&aemuev,"aemuev/F");
190 ev_tree->Branch("adtmuev",&adtmuev,"adtmuev/F");
191 ev_tree->Branch("idchmu",&idchmu,"idchmu[nmuev]/I");
192
193
194 //          Plot Multiplicity, Energy, DTime events with Nmu>=0 or
    Nmu>0
195 TFile *froot = new
    TFile("ptest_plot_31015_1016_1.root","RECREATE","alicors_plot");
196 TH1F *h1=new TH1F("Muon Multiplicity Dist.,""Muon Mult. Nmu>=0;
    Num.Muons; #Events",1002,-1.5,2000.5);
197 TH1F *h2=new TH1F("Muon Mult. Dist. Nmu>0","Muon Mult. Nmu>0;
    Num.Muons; #Events",1002,-1.5,2000.5);
198 TH1F *h6=new TH1F("Muon Mult. Dist. in ALICE Nmu>0","Muon Mult.
    in ALICE Nmu>0; Num.Muons; #Events",1002,-1.5,1000.5);

```

```

199  TH1F *h3=new TH1F("Average Muon Energy Dist. [GeV]","Av.Mu Energy;
      Energy[GeV];#Events",1000,0.,2000.);
200  TH1F *h5=new TH1F("Muon Energy Dist. [GeV]","Mu Energy;
      Energy[GeV];#Events",1000,0.,2000.);
201  TH1F *h4=new TH1F("Muon DTime Dist. [psec]","Time Of Flight;
      Dtime[ps]; #Events",1000,0.,10000.);
202  //      Energy of the primary all the events
203  TH1F *heneprim=new TH1F("Eneprim","Primary Energy Spectrum;
      E[PeV]; Num.of events",1000,0,100);
204  //  TH2F *hc1=new TH2F("Cell Distribution","Cell Distribution; X;
      Y",50,-5,45,50,-5,45);
205  //  TH2F *hc2=new TH2F("LEGO PLOT Nmu per
      cell","",50,-5,45,50,-5,45);
206  TH2F *hc3=new TH2F("X and Y Core Distribution","Core
      Distribution; X; Y",500,-2500.,22500.,500,-2500.,22500.);
207  //  TH2F *hmsd=new TH2F("X and Y Muons","Muon Spatial Distribution
      in Alice; X; Y",500,-2500.,22500.,500,-2500.,22500.);
208
209
210  //Some initializations for counting
211  num_ev_tot = 0;
212  num_ev_run = 0;
213  num_ev_test = 0;
214  num_ev_ene = 0;
215  num_ev_tot_g30 = 0; //ak
216  num_ev_run_g30 = 0; //ak
217  num_ev_ene_g30 = 0; //ak
218  media_nmutot = 0 ;
219  media_nmut15 = 0 ;
220  media_sizenkg = 0 ;
221
222  // Initialization for lateral density of muons [in cm]
223  for(i=0; i<=ILOOP; i++){
224    rag[i]= 200*i;
225  }
226  for(i=0; i<ILOOP; i++){
227    area[i]=PIGR * ((rag[i+1]*rag[i+1])-(rag[i]*rag[i]));
228    tnmu_app_zero[i] = tnmu_core_zero[i] = 0;
229    tnmu_app_ecut[i] = tnmu_core_ecut[i] = 0;
230  }

```

```

231
232 // Initialize random seed (defined in library time.h)
233 srand(time(NULL));
234 Float_t randvalue;
235
236 ifstream inFileC;
237 bool eof();
238
239 bufana = fopen("ptest_bufana_31015_1016_1.dat","wt"); // info and
    summary run (input file Corsika)
240
241
242 //          Here START the loop on RUN (FILES)
243 // Open Input File (binary file written from fortran) C++ style
244 for(loopf=nfile1;loopf<nfile2+1;loopf++){ //Starting loop on
    input files
245
246
247 //----- Example input : many files -----
248     if(loopf==1){
249         sprintf(infilnam,"DAT001300");
250         num_ev_ene=0; // Number of events of the same range of energy
251         num_ev_ene_g30=0; //ak Num. ev. same energy range (gamma=-3.0
            put knee)
252         loopf_ene=0; //ak Range of energy
253         enerefPeV=3; //ak Reference energy for this range in PeV
            (lowervalue)
254     }
255     if(loopf==2){
256         sprintf(infilnam,"DAT001301");
257         loopf_ene=0; //ak Range of energy
258         enerefPeV=3; //ak Reference energy for this range in PeV
            (lowervalue)
259     }
260
261
262     inFileC.open(infilnam,ios::binary);
263     fprintf (bufana,"\n %d) ===== OPEN FILE : %s =====
        \n",loopf,infilnam);
264     cout << loopf << ") OPEN FILE : " << infilnam << endl;

```

```

265     nev = 0 ; // Event number given by Corsika buf[n][1]
266     num_ev_run=0; // Number of events and event number in the run
           (file)
267     num_ev_test=0;
268     num_ev_run_g30=0; //ak Num. ev. with gamma=-3.0 in the run
           (put the knee)
269
270
271     if (infileC.bad()){
272         fprintf (bufana,"Open input file ERROR unable to open it :
           loopf = %d \n",loopf);
273         return(1);
274     }
275
276
277     Int_t whilecount=0 ;
278
279     // loop to read all the events in the open file DAT%%%%% or
           input file
280
281     while(1) {
282
283         whilecount++;
284
285         // Read a record that is 21 x 273 (n=0->20 l=0->272)
286         // words. Each word 4 bytes
287         // but in DAT%%%%% first and last word
288         // of a record has to be skipped and record
289         // is 21 x 275 words (due to fortran write and c read).
290         // In DAT%%%%% buf[0][0] has to be read twice the first has
           no meaning
291         // In DAT%%%%% buf[20][272] has to be read twice the last
           has no meaning
292
293
294     // ----- Here is the START to READ a record -----
295
296     for (int n=0;n<21;n++) {
297         for (int l=0;l<273;l++) {
298

```

```

299 // Initialize buf
300     buf[n][1]=0;
301
302 if(n==0 && l==0){
303     // Read first element of the record that is without meaning
304     // and put it in variable firstlast
305     inFileC.read((char*)&firstlast,sizeof(Float_t));
306 }
307     // Read good data of DAT%%%% and put it in the variable
308     // buf[n][1]
309     inFileC.read((char*)&buf[n][1],sizeof(Float_t));
310 // Read last element of the record that is without meaning and
311 // put it in variable firstlast
312 if(n==20 && l==272){
313     inFileC.read((char*)&firstlast,sizeof(Float_t));
314 }
315     if(l==0)head.header = buf[n][1] ;
316 } // END for (int l=0;l<273;l++)
317 // END for (int n=0;n<21;n++)
318
319 // ----- Here is the END to READ a record -----
320 // ***** START ANALYSING a record *****
321 // Analazing a record buf[21][273] buf(0:20-0:272) 21 x 273
322 // words in c
323
324 for (int n=0;n<21;n++) {
325     head.header = buf[n][0] ;
326
327     if(strncmp(head.headname,"RUNH",4)==0) {
328         run = buf[n][1];
329         slope = buf[n][15];
330         emin = buf[n][16];
331         emax = buf[n][17];

```

```

335     }          // end RUNH
336
337     //      if (blkt1==eEVTH) { //fort.8
338
339     if(strncmp(head.headname,"EVTH",4)==0) {
340
341         if(nev==0) primev = buf[n][1];
342     nev = buf[n][1];
343         num_ev_test ++;
344 // num_ev_run ++;
345
346
347     part_id = buf[n][2];
348     // Ev_prim.EvNum = (int)num_ev_run;          // event number
349     // Ev_prim.PrPart = (int)part_id;          // primary particle
350     // Ev_prim.PrEne = (double)buf[n][3]; // energy of the primary
351         eneprim = buf[n][3]; // primary energy
352     tetaprim = buf[n][10]; // teta primary in radiant
353     phiprim = buf[n][11]; // phi primary in radiant from -pigreco to
354         +pigreco
355         tetaprimgrad = tetaprim/degree;
356         phiprimgrad = phiprim/degree;
357         phiprimpos = phiprimgrad;
358         if(hiprimpos<0)hiprimpos=hiprimpos+360;
359
360
361     henepri->Fill(eneprim/1000000); // Primary Energy in [PeV]
362
363 //      This part is to get a energy spectrum above the knee (E=3
364 //      PeV) with
365 //      a slope gamma=-3.0. The generation with Corsika has been
366 //      done with
367 //      gamma=-2.7 so to obtain a correct spectrum with gamma=-3.0
368 //      we have
369 //      to cut some events.
370
371 //      Part after the knee ak
372 //      Tag if the event is good for gamma=-3.0 cut some events to
373 //      get the knee
374 //      Good event tagg30=1, cut the event tagg30=0
375 //      tagg30 = 0; //ak

```

```

370     eneprimPeV=eneprim/1000000; //ak Primary Energy in PeV
371     rapene=TMath::Power(eneprimPeV,deltakneegen)*TMath::Power(enerrefPeV,deltagenknee
        //ak ratio to choose
372     // Take a random number between 0 and 1
373     randvalue = rand()%32000+1; //ak integer random number
        between 1-32000
374     randvalue /= 32000; //ak random value between ~0 and 1.
375     if(rapene>=randvalue){ //ak
376         tagg30=1; //ak
377         num_ev_run_g30 ++; //ak
378         num_ev_ene_g30 ++; //ak Num.ev.in the same energy range
            g30
379 //     heneprim_g30->Fill(eneprim/1000000); //ak Primary Energy
        in [PeV]
380     if(num_ev_run_g30%100==0){
381         printf ("Loopf= %d, Loopf_ene= %d, NUM_EV_RUN_G30= %d,
            nev = %f, NUM_SAME_ENE_G30= %d Max.n.ev.same
            en.range= %d
            \n",loopf,loopf_ene,num_ev_run_g30,nev,num_ev_ene_g30,nevf_ene[loopf_ene]
382         printf ("nevf_ene[0]= %d, nevf_ene[1]= %d, nevf_ene[2]=
            %d, nevf_ene[3]= %d, nevf_ene[4]= %d
            \n",nevf_ene[0],nevf_ene[1],nevf_ene[2],nevf_ene[3],nevf_ene[4]);
383
384         printf ("*****\n
            \n");
385     }
386     } // END if(rapene>=randvalue)
387 //     End part after the knee ak
388
389
390     elle = sin(tetaprim)*cos(hiprim);
391     emme = sin(tetaprim)*sin(hiprim);
392     enne = cos(tetaprim);
393
394     if (nev==primev) {
395         fprintf(bufana,"Event Number nev : %f \n",nev);
396         fprintf(bufana,"Run Number = %f, Slope en. spectrum = %f
            \n",run,slope);
397         fprintf(bufana,"Emin = %f, Emax = %f \n",emin,emax);

```

```

398         fprintf(bufana,"Range of theta: %f
           %f\n",buf[n][80],buf[n][81]);
399 fprintf(bufana,"Range of phi : %f %f\n",buf[n][82],buf[n][83]);
400 fprintf(bufana,"NKG radial distr. range in cm
           %f\n",buf[n][146]); // 147 ?
401     fprintf(bufana,"Event Number = %d, Prim. Particle = %f,
           Energy %f \n",num_ev_run+1,part_id,eneprim);
402     fprintf(bufana,"Theta = %f, Phi = %f
           \n",tetaprimgrad,phiprimgrad);
403 }
404
405 // Take randomly the core coordinate xco,yco inside the
           sampling area
406 randvalue = rand()%32000+1; //integer random number between
           1-32000
407 randvalue /= 32000; /*random value between ~0 and 1.*/
408 xco = randvalue * ltot;
409 randvalue = rand()%32000+1; //integer random number between
           1-32000
410 randvalue /= 32000; /*random value between ~0 and 1.*/
411 yco = randvalue * ltot;
412 hc3->Fill(xco,yco,1.); // position of the core
413
414 // Initialize at the beginning of the event the vectors for
           muons
415 nmuali=0;
416 nmuinali=0;
417 for(Int_t imu=0;imu<maxmu;imu++){
418     idchmu[imu]=0;
419     tagmucell[imu]=0;
420     emucell[imu]=0;
421     tmucell[imu]=0;
422     xmucell[imu]=0;
423     ymucell[imu]=0;
424     xmucellsurf[imu]=0;
425     ymucellsurf[imu]=0;
426     pxmucell[imu]=0;
427     pymucell[imu]=0;
428     pzmucell[imu]=0;
429     pmucell[imu]=0;

```

```

430     tetamucell[imu]=0;
431     phimucell[imu]=0;
432 }
433
434 // zdeep is the position of Alice in z (-4000 cm ==>
      underground)
435 // coordinates xdeep, ydeep of the core at z=zdeep cm. All
      in cm.
436 xdeep = elle * (zdeep/enne)+xco; // X coordinate of the
      core underground
437 ydeep = emme * (zdeep/enne)+yco; // Y " " " " "
438
439 // Initialize muon counters
440 nmutot=nmut15=0;
441 for (int k=0;k<LOOPCORE;k++)
442 nmutdis[k] = 0;
443 for (int k=0;k<ILOOP;k++)
444 nmu[k] = tnmu[k] = emur[k] = temur[k] = 0.;
445
446 } // END if(strncmp(head.headname,"EVTH",4)==0) END EVTH
447
448 if(strncmp(head.headname,"EVTE",4)==0) {
449 // fprintf(bufana," ===== Found EVTE =====
      Block \n");
450
451 sizenkg = buf[n][184]; // Size=electr.numb. at obs.level
      g/cm**2 (10 level)
452
453 // Fill the HISTO at the end of the event
454 // fprintf(bufana,"Real Event Number in the RUN %f
      \n",num_ev_run);
455 h1->Fill(nmuali,1.); // muon mult.distr. Nmu>=0
456 nmuev=int(nmuali); // number of muons in the events
457 nmuevc=nmuev-1; // num. of muons used as index vector
458 aemuev=0; // average muon energy
459 adtmuev=0; // average delta time among muons
460
461 // CUT THE EVENT TO HAVE A POWER LAW GAMMA=gammaknee (tagg30=1)
462 // instead gamma=-2.7 that is the generation
463 if(tagg30==1){ //ak

```

```

464
465
466     if(nmuev>0){
467         h2->Fill(nmuiali,1.); // muon mult. distr. Nmu>0
468     }
469
470     if(nmuinali>0){
471         h6->Fill(nmuinali,1.); // muon mult. distr. Nmu>0 inside Alice
472     }
473
474     if(nmuev==0){
475         nmuvec=0;
476         tagmu[nmuvec]=0;
477         emuev[nmuvec]=-1000;
478         dtmuev[nmuvec]=-1000.;
479         aemuev=-1000;
480         adtmuev=-1000.;
481         xmualiev[nmuvec]=-999999;
482         ymualiev[nmuvec]=-999999;
483         xmasurev[nmuvec]=-999999;
484         ymasurev[nmuvec]=-999999;
485         pxmuev[nmuvec]=-1000;
486         pymuev[nmuvec]=-1000;
487         pzmuev[nmuvec]=-1000;
488         pmuev[nmuvec]=-1000;
489         tetamuev[nmuvec]=-1000;
490         phimuev[nmuvec]=-1000;
491     } // if(nmuev==0)
492
493     if(nmuev==1){
494         tagmu[nmuvec]=tagmucell[nmuvec];
495         emuev[nmuvec]=emucell[nmuvec];
496         dtmuev[nmuvec]=-1000.;
497         aemuev=emuev[nmuvec];
498         adtmuev=-1000.;
499         xmualiev[nmuvec]=xmucell[nmuvec];
500         ymualiev[nmuvec]=ymucell[nmuvec];
501         xmasurev[nmuvec]=xmucellsurf[nmuvec];
502         ymasurev[nmuvec]=ymucellsurf[nmuvec];
503         pxmuev[nmuvec]=pxmucell[nmuvec];

```

```

504     pymuev[nmuvec]=pymucell[nmuvec];
505     pzmuev[nmuvec]=pzmucell[nmuvec];
506     pmuev[nmuvec]=pmucell[nmuvec];
507     tetamuev[nmuvec]=tetamucell[nmuvec];
508     phimuev[nmuvec]=phimucell[nmuvec];
509 } // if(nmuev==1)
510
511 if(nmuev>1){ // aemucell & dtmucell for event with at least 2
    muons
512     aemucell=emucell[0];
513     dtmucell=tmucell[0];
514     tmuevmin=tmucell[0];
515     iasmin=0;
516     tagmu[0]=tagmucell[0];
517     emuev[0]=emucell[0];
518     xmualiev[0]=xmucell[0];
519     ymualiev[0]=ymucell[0];
520     xmusurev[0]=xmucellsurf[0];
521     ymusurev[0]=ymucellsurf[0];
522     pxmuev[0]=pxmucell[0];
523     pymuev[0]=pymucell[0];
524     pzmuev[0]=pzmucell[0];
525     pmuev[0]=pmucell[0];
526     tetamuev[0]=tetamucell[0];
527     phimuev[0]=phimucell[0];
528
529     h5->Fill(emucell[0],1.);
530     for(Int_t ias=1;ias<nmuev;ias++){
531         aemucell+=emucell[ias]; // average muon energy in the event
532         h5->Fill(emucell[ias],1.);
533         tagmu[ias]=tagmucell[ias];
534         emuev[ias]=emucell[ias];
535         xmualiev[ias]=xmucell[ias];
536         ymualiev[ias]=ymucell[ias];
537         xmusurev[ias]=xmucellsurf[ias];
538         ymusurev[ias]=ymucellsurf[ias];
539         pxmuev[ias]=pxmucell[ias];
540         pymuev[ias]=pymucell[ias];
541         pzmuev[ias]=pzmucell[ias];
542         pmuev[ias]=pmucell[ias];

```

```

543         tetamuev[ias]=tetamucell[ias];
544         phimuev[ias]=phimucell[ias];
545         if(tmucell[ias]<tmuevmin){
546             tmuevmin=tmucell[ias];
547             iasmin=ias;
548         }
549     }
550     for(Int_t ias=0;ias<nmuev;ias++){
551         dtmuev[ias]=-1000.; // initialize
552
553         if(ias!=iasmin){
554             dtmucell=(tmucell[ias]-tmuevmin*1000.); // Deltatime
                    in ps
555             dtmuev[ias]=dtmucell;
556             h4->Fill(dtmucell,1.);
557             adtmuev += dtmuev[ias]; // average muon dtime in the
                    event
558         }
559     } // close for(Int_t ias=0;ias<nmuev;ias++)
560
561     aemucell /=nmuev;
562     h3->Fill(aemucell,1.);
563     aemuev=aemucell;
564     if(nmuev>1)adtmuev /= (nmuev+1);
565     if(nmuev<=1)adtmuev=-1000.;
566
567 } // END if(nmuev>1)
568
569
570
571 // Built here the entupl --> ev_tree only when nmuev>0
572 // 1-loopf, 2-part_id, 3-eneprim, 4-tetaprimgrad,
5       5-hiprimgrad
573 // 6-num_ev_run, 7-xco, 8-yco, 9-xcoali, 10-ycoali
574 // 11-nmuev, 12-nmuinali
575 // 13-tagmu[nmuev], 14-emuev[nmuev], 15-dtmuev[nmuev]
576 // 16-xmualiev[nmuev] 17-ymualiev[nmuev]
577 // 18-xmusurev[nmuev] 19-ymusurev[nmuev]
578 // 20-pxmuev[nmuev] 21-pymuev[nmuev] 22-pzmuev[nmuev]
579 // 23-pmuev[nmuev] 24-tetamuev[nmuev] 25-phimuev[nmuev]

```

```

580         // 26-aemuev          27-adtmuev
581         // 28-idchmu[nmuev]
582
583         if(nmuev>=0)ev_tree->Fill();
584         num_ev_run ++;
585
586     if(num_ev_run%100==0||num_ev_run==nevf[loopf]){
587         printf ("Loopf= %d, nev = %f, NUM_EV_RUN= %d
588             Total_events_run= %d
589             \n",loopf,nev,num_ev_run,nevf[loopf]);
590         printf ("*****\n
591             \n");
592     }
593
594     // Check on tree variables
595     if(nmuev>0&&loopf==1&&num_ev_run<=100){
596         fprintf(bufana,"***** Start Check on TREE
597             variables *****\n ");
598         fprintf(bufana,"Ev.number= %d, N.mu large area= %d
599             N.mu in Alice= %d \n",num_ev_run,nmuev,nmuinali);
600         fprintf(bufana,"loopf= %d, part_id= %f, eneprim= %f,
601             tetaprimgrad= %f, phiprimgrad= %f , phiprimpos= %f
602             \n",loopf,part_id,eneprim,tetaprimgrad,phiprimgrad,phiprimpos);
603         fprintf(bufana,"xcoresurface [m] = %f, ycoresurface
604             [m] = %f \n",xco/100,yco/100);
605         fprintf(bufana,"xcorealilevel [m] = %f, ycorealilevel
606             [m] = %f \n",xdeep/100,ydeep/100);
607
608     for(Int_t ias=0;ias<nmuev;ias++){
609         fprintf(bufana,"Muon num.= %d, tagmu[ias]= %d
610             \n",ias,tagmu[ias]);
611         fprintf(bufana,"Muon num.= %d, xmusurface [m] = %f,
612             ymusurface [m] = %f
613             \n",ias,xmusurev[ias]/100,ymusurev[ias]/100);
614         fprintf(bufana,"Muon num.= %d, xmualevel [m]= %f,
615             ymualevel [m]= %f
616             \n",ias,xmualev[ias]/100,ymualev[ias]/100);

```

```

605         fprintf(bufana,"Muon num.= %d, pxmusurf= %f,
           pymusurf= %f, pzmusurf= %f
           \n",ias,pxmuev[ias],pymuev[ias],pzmuev[ias]);
606         fprintf(bufana,"Muon num.= %d, pmusurf= %f,
           tetamusurf= %f, phimusurf= %f
           \n",ias,pmuev[ias],tetamuev[ias],phimuev[ias]);
607     }
608     } // END if(nmuev>0)
609 } //ak END if(tagg30==1) do not write the event if tagg30=0
610 } // END if(strncmp(head.headname,"EVTE",4)==0) END EVTE
    event end

611
612
613     if(strncmp(head.headname,"RUNE",4)==0) {
614
615     fprintf(bufana," ===== Found RUNE ===== Block
        \n");
616
617         fprintf(bufana,"N. events in the run = %d, Total N. events
           before this run = %d\n",num_ev_run,num_ev_tot);
618
619     fprintf(bufana,"=====END RUNE===== \n");
620
621     } // END if(strncmp(head.headname,"RUNE",4)==0) end RUNE
        run end

622
623
624     // Analysis of the particles function AnaEv
625
626     if(strncmp(head.headname,"RUNH",4)!=0 &&
        strncmp(head.headname,"EVTH",4)!=0 &&
627     strncmp(head.headname,"EVTE",4)!=0 &&
        strncmp(head.headname,"RUNE",4)!=0)
628     {AnaEv(n); /* n is the block */
629     }
630
631     } // END for (int n=0;n<21;n++) End Analazing a record
        buf[21][273]

632
633     // Stop when a proper number of events are analyzed for this run

```

```

634 //   if(num_ev_run==nevf[loopf]+1||inFileC.eof()){
635
636     if(num_ev_ene_g30>=nevf_ene[loopf_ene]+1||inFileC.eof()){ //ak
637
638         num_ev_tot += num_ev_run; //ak total number of events
639 //     num_ev_ene += num_ev_run; // total num. of ev. in the same
energy range
640         num_ev_tot_g30 += num_ev_run_g30; //ak total number of events
g30
641 //     num_ev_ene_g30 += num_ev_run_g30; // tot.num.of ev.same
en.range g30
642
643         fprintf(bufana, " ===== SUMMARY RUN
===== \n");
644         fprintf(bufana, "Loopf = %d , Num.ev.run g30 = %d , Num.ev.run
= %d \n", loopf, num_ev_run_g30, num_ev_run);
645         fprintf(bufana, "Loopf_ene = %d, MAX ev.ene range g30 = %d ,
NUM.EV.SAME ENERGY RANGE g30 = %d, Num.ev.consumed same
ene = %d
\n", loopf_ene, nevf_ene[loopf_ene], num_ev_ene_g30, num_ev_ene);
646         fprintf(bufana, " Tot.ev consumed = %d, TOT.EV g30 = %d
\n", num_ev_tot, num_ev_tot_g30);
647         fprintf(bufana, " ===== END SUMMARY RUN
===== \n");
648
649         cout << "Loop = " << loopf << " Num. ev run g30 = " <<
num_ev_run_g30 << " Num. ev. run = " << num_ev_run << "
Tot. ev consumed = " << num_ev_tot << " TOTAL EVENTS
gammaknee = " << num_ev_tot_g30 << endl;
650
651         break; // stop loop on this run (file)
652
653     } // END if(num_ev_run==nevf[loopf]+1||inFileC.eof())
654
655 } // end while(1) loop to read all the events in the open file
656
657 printf ("End Read Events\n");
658 inFileC.close();
659
660 } // end loop on input files : loopf

```

```

661
662 // Plot Primary Energy
663 TCanvas *e1=new TCanvas("e1","Primary Energy
        Spectrum",10,10,800,800);
664 e1->cd(1);
665 heneprim->SetLineColor(kRed);
666 heneprim->Draw();
667
668
669 // Draw here the global results of all the input files together
670
671 TCanvas *c1=new TCanvas("c1","Num. Muons",10,10,1000,800);
672 TCanvas *c2=new TCanvas("c2","Energy Time",10,10,1000,800);
673 TCanvas *c3=new TCanvas("c3","Core position",10,10,1000,800);
674 // TCanvas *c4=new TCanvas("c4","Muon's position",10,10,1000,800);
675
676 c1->Divide(1,3);
677 c1->cd(1);
678 h1->Draw();
679 c1->cd(2);
680 h2->Draw();
681 c1->cd(3);
682 h6->Draw();
683
684 c2->Divide(1,3);
685 c2->cd(1);
686 h3->Draw();
687 c2->cd(2);
688 h5->Draw();
689 c2->cd(3);
690 h4->Draw();
691
692 // c1->cd(6);
693 // hc1->Draw();
694 // hc2->Draw();
695 // c1->cd(7);
696 // hc2->Draw("lego");
697
698 c3->cd(1);
699 hc3->Draw();

```

```
700
701 // c4->cd(1);
702 // hmusd->Draw();
703
704 // ev_tree->Print();
705 // ftree1->cd();
706 // ev_tree->Write();
707 // ftree1->Close();
708 ftree1->cd();
709 ftree1->Write();
710 ftree1->Close();
711
712 froot->cd();
713 // tree1->Print();
714 // tree1->Write();
715
716 froot->Write();
717 froot->Close();
718
719
720 }
```

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