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2 The Physics Behind the CosmicWatch Desktop Muon 3 Detectors

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7 The CosmicWatch Desktop Muon Detector is a Massachusetts Institute of Technology
8 (MIT) and National Center for Nuclear Research (NCBJ) based undergraduate-level physics
9 project that incorporates various aspects of electronics-shop technical development. The de-
10 tector was designed to be low-power and extremely portable, which opens up a wide range of
11 physics for students to explore. This document describes the physics behind the Desktop Muon
12 Detectors and explores possible measurements that can be made with the detectors. In particu-
13 lar, we explore various physical phenomena associated with the geomagnetic field, atmospheric
14 conditions, cosmic ray shower composition, attenuation of particles in matter, radioactivity, and
15 statistical properties of Poissonian process.



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58 **1 Document overview**

59 This document is concerned with describing the physics associated with the CosmicWatch Desk-
60 top Muon Detectors. It will begin by outlining the forms of ionizing radiation that are capable
61 of triggering the detector. Then, we describe what effect these forms of ionizing radiation have
62 on the detector and why they are important for our consideration. Reading these sections will
63 be useful for those interested in developing their physics knowledge or teaching particle/astro
64 physics in the classroom. We then move to the information specific to the Desktop Muon
65 Detectors, by giving an overview of the technology used and the physics behind them.

66 The latter half of the document is dedicated to illustrating various physical phenomena described
67 in the earlier sections using the detectors. Along the way, we'll briefly mention some fascinating,
68 and perhaps enlightening aspects of physics, which hopefully encourages novices to dive a bit
69 deeper than what we go into here. As new ideas come in, and new data is analysed, we hope
70 this section will be continuously updated.

71 All supplementary material can be found in the GitHub repository located here:

72 <https://github.com/spenceraxani/CosmicWatch-Desktop-Muon-Detector-v2>

73 There are several documents that have been particularly useful when putting this together. Ex-
74 perience physicists will undoubtedly be familiar with the Particle Data Group's (PDG) summary
75 of cosmic rays [1] and energy loss in matter [2], as it is a fantastic reference. A non-physicist may
76 find Prof. Bruno Rossi's *Cosmic Rays*[3], a great entry level book that gives an early account
77 of the initial investigation into cosmic ray physics. It's a great read, although it obviously does
78 not contain information on our modern understanding, as it was published in 1964. A more
79 modern perspective that particularly focuses on the history can be found in Prof. Michael
80 W. Friedlander book entitled *A Thin Cosmic Rain*[4]. The most thorough and comprehensive
81 overview of cosmic ray physics can be found in Dr. Peter K. F. Grieder's textbook *Cosmic Rays*
82 at *Earth*[5]; we will be referencing it often. When discussing higher energy cosmic ray physics,
83 Prof. Thomas K. Gaisser's book entitled *Cosmic Rays and Particle Physics*[6] is extremely
84 useful. Although more heavily focused on the neutrino side of cosmic rays and particle physics,
85 Prof. Masataka Fukagita's two textbooks *Physics of Neutrinos* and *Physics of Neutrinos and*
86 *Applications to Astrophysics*[7], was found to often have interesting bits of information that
87 we could not find in the other readings. The overall best description that on energy loss in
88 matter comes from *Techniques for Nuclear and Particle Physics*[8] by William R. Leo, which is
89 also a great resource for experimental particle physics. We would also recommend Prof. Claus
90 Grupen's textbook entitled *Particle Detectors*[9], which is also a great reference for energy loss
91 in matter but also extremely useful in describing detection methods in particle physics.

92 The CosmicWatch project owes a lot to Dr. Katarzyna Frankiewicz. For both of us, this began
93 as hobby and desire to contribute to the community, and eventually ballooned into a popular
94 and well-developed program thanks in large part to her work. Prof. Janet M. Conrad's support
95 and encouragement throughout the development of this project was equally important to where

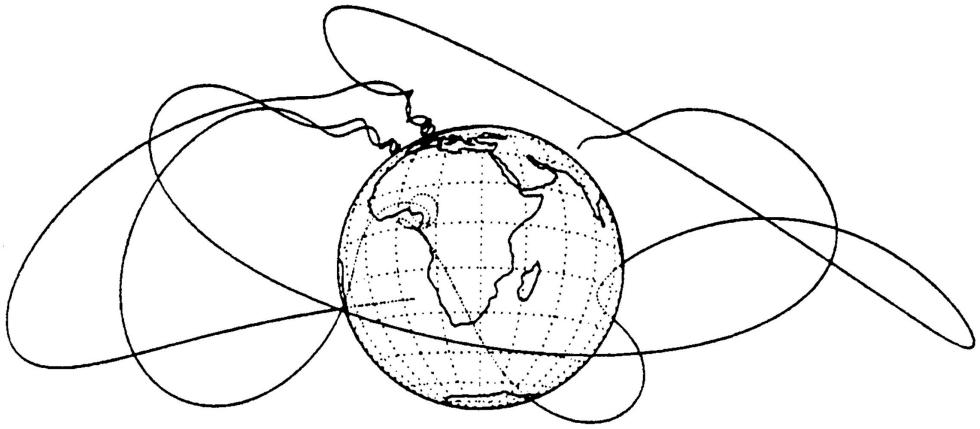


Figure 1: Simulated trajectories of low energy cosmic rays interacting with the geomagnetic field. From Ref. [4]

⁹⁶ the project is now.

⁹⁷ 2 Sources of ionizing radiation

⁹⁸ We'll begin by discussing the various sources of ionizing radiation that are capable of triggering
⁹⁹ the Desktop Muon Detectors. There are a few forms of ionizing radiation that are particularly
¹⁰⁰ important due to their abundances and their energies. In passing, we will also discuss why we
¹⁰¹ are not sensitive to certain other forms of ionizing radiation, however a description of them is
¹⁰² often important for completeness.

¹⁰³ 2.1 Cosmic radiation

¹⁰⁴ The Earth is continuously being bombarded by a flux of particles called *cosmic rays*. Ap-
¹⁰⁵ proximately 74% by mass of this flux comes from ionized hydrogen (free protons), 18% from
¹⁰⁶ helium nuclei (two protons and two neutrons), and the remainder is trace amounts of heavier
¹⁰⁷ elements [1]. The majority of the cosmic ray flux observed at Earth is relativistic, in that the
¹⁰⁸ individual nuclei have kinetic energies greater than their rest mass ($E_k/mc^2 > 1$). The lower
¹⁰⁹ energy cosmic rays (GeV-scale) are greatly influenced by the solar wind as well as the geomag-
¹¹⁰ netic field (see for example Fig. 1) which limits the flux interacting with the Earth, while the
¹¹¹ high energy flux extends up to 10^{11} GeV at which point the cosmic ray loses energy from in-
¹¹² teractions with the cosmic microwave background – this is often referred to as the GZK cutoff¹.

¹The highest energy cosmic ray observed was measured to have approximately 3×10^{20} eV[10] [11], equivalent to a brick falling on your toe[12], all contained in a single proton, and later named the *Oh-My-God Particle*.

113 The energy of the cosmic rays falls off rapidly with energy: below 10^6 GeV, the flux falls off
114 as $E^{-2.7}$, and above this it steepens to approximately $E^{-3.1}$ [6]. For perspective, the number of
115 1 GeV cosmic ray protons is 8.1 orders of magnitude higher than that at 1000 GeV (i.e. 2.7×3),
116 or 16.2 orders of magnitude higher² than that at 10^6 GeV (i.e. 2.7×6).

117 When a primary cosmic ray collides with a nucleus in the upper atmosphere (typically with the
118 nucleus of an oxygen or nitrogen molecule), the energies can be large enough to break apart both
119 or either of the primary particle or the target nucleus through a nuclear interaction. Much of
120 the energy of the collision goes into producing short lived particles known as *mesons*³, the most
121 common being the π -meson or pion (π^+, π^-, π^0) and then the K-meson or kaon (K^+, K^-, K^0).
122 The charged pions (π^\pm) decay within approximately ten billionths of a second [15] producing a
123 same charge muons and a neutrinos (the charged kaons, K^\pm , are a bit more complicated, but
124 they also preferentially decay this ways as well, or to pions). The neutral mesons (π^0, K^0), decay
125 approximately one billion times faster (10^{-17} s) than the charged mesons, preferentially to gamma
126 rays. Unlike the neutral mesons, the charged mesons are able to travel far enough before decaying
127 to interact with another molecule in the atmosphere. This interaction in turn can be in the form
128 of another nuclear interaction (since mesons are made of quarks, they experience the strong
129 force responsible for the nuclear interaction), much like the original cosmic ray interaction. The
130 interaction may then produce even more mesons, contributing to the induced shower of particles
131 induced by the primary interaction. The primary cosmic rays do not penetrate directly to
132 Earth's surface due to the shielding provided by the atmosphere, however, a small flux of nuclear
133 fragments (such as protons and neutrons) from these interactions can occasionally cascade down
134 and make it to the surface. An illustrative diagram of a cosmic ray interaction is shown in Fig. 2.
135 The first interaction of vertical cosmic rays takes place at an altitude approximately between
136 15 km. Cosmic rays entering at an angle, will interact at higher altitudes due to their path
137 passing through more atmosphere[7].

138 The high energy photon from the decay of the neutral mesons quickly materialize into an
139 electron-positron pair, also referred to as *pair production*. These electron-positron pairs then
140 radiate high energy photons, which can again materialize into another electron-positron pair.
141 This electromagnetic cascade process continues, dividing the original energy of the photons be-
142 tween the numerous electrons, positrons, and lower energy photons at the end of the cascade.
143 Photons with energies less than 1.022 MeV, cannot further pair produce and will then their
144 interactions will be dominated by Compton scattering and photoelectric absorption. At lower
145 altitudes, there isn't a fresh supply of high energy neutral mesons due to the rapid decrease of
146 nuclear interactions.

147 The cosmic ray muons (μ^\pm) originate from the decay of the charged mesons. A charged pion will
148 decay to a same-sign muon (and muon-neutrino) with a branching fraction of 99.98%, whereas

²The steep fall of in energy of the cosmic ray flux is why we require large detectors to measure the rare high energy events.

³Mesons are particles that, unlike the proton and neutron, contain only two quarks: one quark and one anti-quark. The lightest meson is the pion, then the kaon. There exists many other combinations of quark/anti quark pairs, however due to their higher masses, they are not preferentially produced and will not be discussed here. More information on this side of particle physics can be found in Ref. [13, 14]

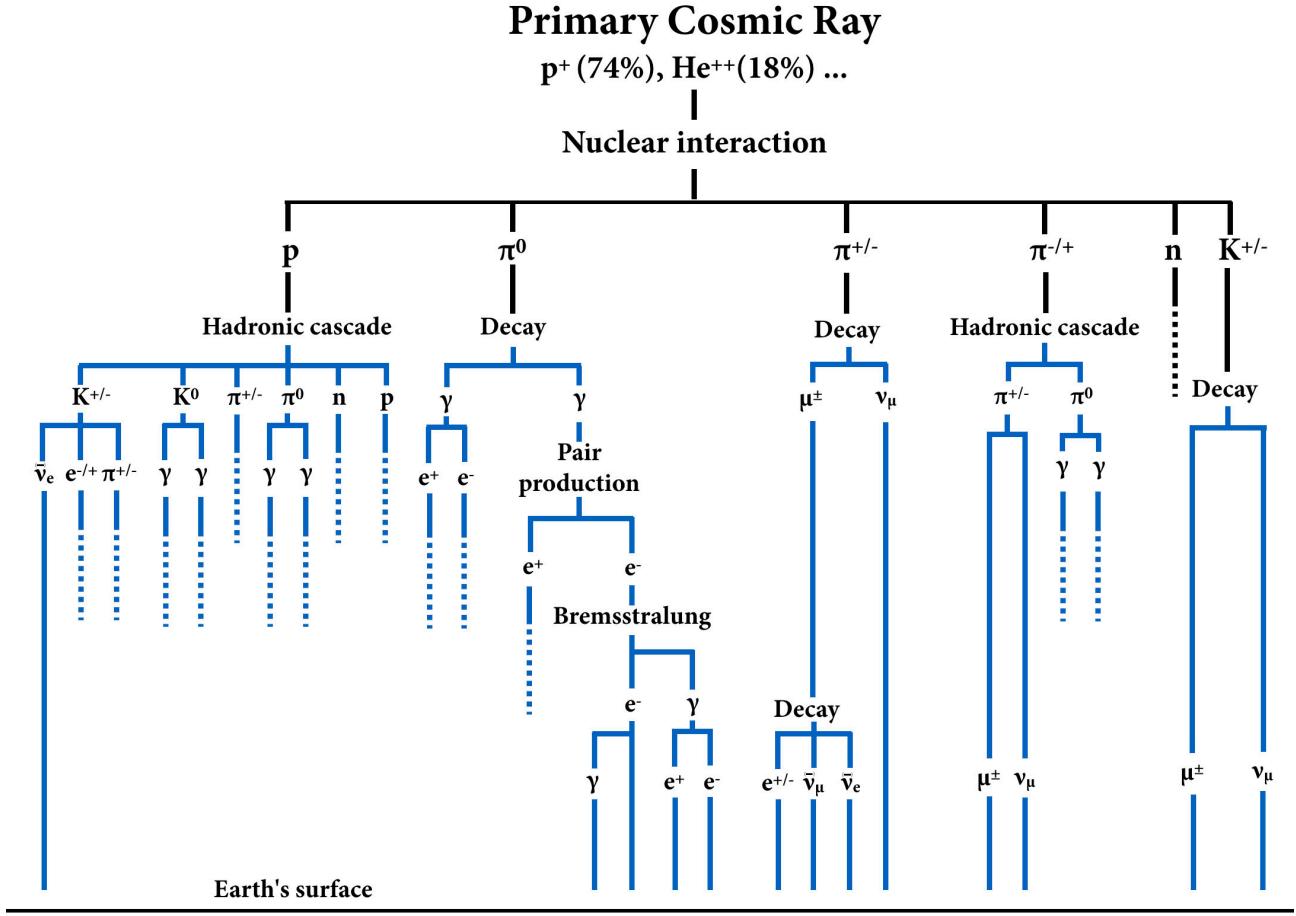


Figure 2: An schematic representation of the various decay and interactions chains that result from the interaction of a cosmic ray in Earth's atmosphere. This is a modified figure from Ref. [3].

149 a charged kaon decays to a muon (and muon-neutrino) 63.5% of the time [16]. The neutrinos
 150 are not electrically charged and only interact through the weak force, therefore they can be fully
 151 ignored in this discussion.

$$\begin{aligned} \pi^\pm &\rightarrow \mu^\pm + \nu_\mu (\bar{\nu}_\mu) \dots (99.98\%) \\ K^\pm &\rightarrow \mu^\pm + \nu_\mu (\bar{\nu}_\mu) \dots (63.5\%) \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

152 Approximately 80-90% of the muon flux in the energy range of interest (GeV to TeV-scale)
 153 comes from the decay of pions, and the remainder from kaons[17]. The muons are particularly
 154 penetrating, that is, they essentially only interact through ionization as they travel through
 155 atmosphere and other matter and can make it through a large amount of material, unlike the
 156 *baryons* (particle comprised of quarks) which also interact through the strong force. This makes

157 muons the most numerous charged particle showering down on the Earth's surface. Muons have
158 a mass of 105.65 MeV and are also unstable particles with a half-life of 2.2×10^{-6} s. They decay
159 to an electron and two neutrinos.

$$\mu^\pm \rightarrow e^\pm + \nu_e(\bar{\nu}_e) + \bar{\nu}_\mu(\nu_\mu) \dots (100.0\%), \quad (2)$$

160 however, again we can ignore the neutrinos. A cosmic ray muon with an energy greater than
161 2.4 GeV will be sufficiently relativistic that its half-life, as seen by an observer on the Earth,
162 will be dilated enough to penetrate the atmosphere before decaying (in other words, the muon
163 decay length becomes greater than 15 km – the approximate altitude of the cosmic ray muon
164 production). Further, a typical muon will lose approximately 2 GeV of energy due to ionization
165 as it passes through the atmosphere on its way to the ground. Combining these two facts, with
166 the fact that the geomagnetic field and interstellar solar winds drive back the GeV-scale cosmic
167 rays, as well as the steeply falling cosmic ray energy spectrum, we can expect the average muons
168 at Earth's surface to be greater than a few GeV. We typically quote the mean cosmic ray muon
169 energy at Earth's surface is approximately 4 GeV[1]. The muons that do not survive the journey
170 to the Earth's surface, decay. The resulting electrons (or positrons in the case of a μ^+), also
171 referred to as *Michelle electrons*, contribute to the low energy electromagnetic component from
172 cosmic ray showers at sea level.

173 Let us now compare the number of particles showering down on us at sea level. We'll limit
174 ourselves to thinking about particles that are coming from one steradian about the zenith,
175 this can be thought of as circular disk around the vertical (zenith) part of the sky whose area
176 represents approximately $1/6^{th}$ of the total visible sky, or equivalently, a half-angle of 32° from
177 the zenith. From this direction, we can describe the number of particles passing through a
178 $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$ horizontal surface, per minute ($\text{cm}^2 \text{ min}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$) by following the measurements outlined
179 in Ref. [1]. We expect approximately $0.4 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ min}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$ from μ^\pm with energies greater than 1 GeV;
180 $0.2 \text{ e}^\pm \text{ cm}^2 \text{ min}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$ above 10 MeV, but the flux falls off fast with energy, becoming becomes
181 negligible above 1 GeV; and $0.0054 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ min}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$ from protons above 1 GeV; and a charged
182 meson flux above 1 GeV two orders of magnitude lower than that of the proton flux. This means
183 that the protons and charged mesons are insignificant at sea level, however, there is a significant
184 muonic and low-energy electromagnetic component. In Ref. [5], the flux is divided into a hard
185 component (essentially fully muons) which can penetrate 15 cm of lead, and soft component
186 (approximately 60-65% muons and the remainder is electrons, positrons, and photons) which
187 cannot. As we'll soon see, there are a variety of physical phenomena that influence fluxes, but
188 the relative contributions listed here represent a useful approximation.

189 As we increase in altitude, the relative contribution from the ionizing radiation fluxes change. In
190 particular, we see a larger contribution from both the protons and electromagnetic component,
191 whereas the charged mesons are still sub-dominant. Once we pass the primary interaction
192 region where the primary cosmic rays are most likely to interact (typically around 15-20 km),
193 the secondary particles produced by the initial nuclear interaction die off and we see a decrease
194 in the ionization radiation flux. The shape of the curve describing the ionizing radiation flux
195 as a function of altitude is called the Pforzer curve, and where the ionizing particle production
196 reaches a maximum is termed the Regener-Pforzer maximum [18].

197 **2.1.1 Flux variations due to solar system properties**

198 There are several properties associated with the interstellar medium that modulate the cosmic
199 ray flux, and in particular the observable cosmic ray muon flux. These properties are primarily
200 associated with behaviour of the Earth and Sun's magnetic field.

201 **The latitude effect:** Roughly speaking, the Earth has a magnetic field that behaves similarly
202 to a magnetic dipole orientated from north to south. The magnetic field points parallel to the
203 surface of the Earth near the equator, and perpendicular to the surface near the poles. Particles
204 travelling towards the Earth will be less deflected ($F=q\vec{v} \times \vec{B}$) near the poles compared to the
205 equator. Low energy charged particles passing through the magnetic field may even become
206 trapped in what's known as the *Van Allen radiation belt*. This presents a low energy cutoff,
207 where the magnetic field is able to deflect protons below approximately 10 GeV near the equator
208 (corresponding to a rigidity of 10 GV) and near 1 GeV at higher latitudes [19, 20].

209 **The East-West asymmetry:** The cosmic ray muon flux is larger looking towards the west
210 compared to the east due to the Earth's magnetic field. This is an effect produced by primary
211 cosmic ray particles being predominately positively charged. The positively charged muons
212 curve towards the east, meaning that the intensity from the west is stronger. This effect is more
213 evident in the upper atmosphere[5], and obviously a larger effect at the geomagnetic equator
214 than at the poles.

215 **The longitudinal effect:** The offset between the geomagnetic and geographic poles creates a
216 longitudinal effect.

217 **Magnetic anomalies:** There are local geomagnetic field variations which causes a change in
218 the cosmic ray intensity. The most prominent being the *South Atlantic Anomaly* [21], which
219 extends from the east coast Brazil to the west coast of southern Africa (-50.0 to 0.0 geographic
220 latitude and from -90.0 to 40.0 longitude). This is the region where Earth's inner Van Allen
221 radiation belt makes its closest approach to the planet's surface.

222 **Solar modulation:** The observed cosmic ray flux at the top of the Earth's atmosphere depends
223 partially on solar activity which manifests itself as an 11-year cycle⁴. Solar winds can drive back
224 low energy cosmic rays entering the solar sphere and the modulation effect decreases with an
225 increase in energy. According to Ref. [7], the 1 GeV cosmic-ray proton flux is twice as small
226 during maximum solar activity compared to minimum solar activity; similarly there is a 10%
227 reduction in the 10 GeV cosmic ray protons during the solar maximum.

228 **Solar Flares:** Solar-flares can eject protons with energies up to several GeV, the upper end of
229 which is able to produce muons through nuclear interactions. These events are rare transients,
230 and since the energy is low, it primarily has an effect on the low energy muon flux [22].

⁴There is also a 22-year cycle since the solar magnetic dipole flips polarity at every solar maximum, which occurs every 22 years [5]

231 **2.1.2 Flux variations due to atmospheric properties**

232 Similar to the previous subsection, there exists terrestrial phenomena that also modulate the
233 cosmic ray muon flux.

234 **The Cosine Squared Law:** At greater angles from the vertical, cosmic ray muons must
235 travel through a much larger distance, and therefore amount of matter, to reach a ground-based
236 observer. A cosmic ray muon travelling vertically downwards may only travel through 15 km of
237 atmosphere, whereas one travelling in the horizontal direction must pass through approximately
238 500 km of atmosphere. The larger path length means that the muon will lose more total energy
239 due to ionization in the atmosphere and also have a higher probability of decaying before reaching
240 the ground. As a function of zenith angle, the cosmic ray muon intensity is expected to follow
241 a cosine squared dependence [1].

242 **The atmospheric attenuation:** Recall that the nuclear interactions between the primary
243 cosmic ray and atmospheric nucleus happen in the upper atmosphere. Therefore, particles
244 reaching sea level must have had sufficient energy to penetrate the remainder of the atmosphere.
245 An increase in atmospheric density (perhaps due to atmospheric pressure changes) will cause
246 secondary particles to lose more energy as they propagate to the Earth's surface. Due to this,
247 the muon rate turns out to be anti-correlated with the pressure (i.e. if the atmospheric pressure
248 increases, the cosmic ray muon rate decreases). The density of the atmosphere will depend the
249 season and therefore exhibits time-dependence. From other measurements, this is expected to
250 be a percent level effect [23].

251 **The positive temperature effect:** To produce a muon, we require a charged meson to decay.
252 However, recall that the charged mesons are typically relativistic and have lifetimes on the
253 order of nanoseconds⁵. This gives the charged mesons sufficient time to potentially interact
254 with another nucleus in the atmosphere rather than decay. As the temperature increases, the
255 atmosphere becomes less dense and there are more particles to interact with and less chance
256 that they decay [24]. Rather than correlating this with the ground based pressure (as in the
257 paragraph above), it is more commonly correlated with atmospheric temperature – taking into
258 account the temperature profile of the atmosphere. This effect is larger at higher energies and
259 therefore is typically measured in laboratories located deep underground where the low energy
260 cosmic rays have less of an influence [25, 26, 27].

261 **The negative temperature effect:** As the temperature of the atmosphere increases, the
262 atmosphere expands, moving the muon production region further out. This means that the
263 muon path length increases, which gives them a higher probability of decay prior to making it
264 to the ground. During the winter when the atmosphere is colder, shallower and more dense,
265 cosmic ray interactions happen closer to the Earth's surface. The charged mesons quickly begin

⁵For example, a 5-GeV π^\pm produced at 15 km will travel approximately 300 m before decaying. This distance is small compared to the interaction path length of approximately 13 km, which means that most charged pions will decay rather than interact. However, at approximately 115 GeV, the pion has an equal probability to interact or decay in the atmosphere.

266 to lose energy and have a less likely chance of decaying into muons.

267 2.2 Radioactive backgrounds

268 The previous section described the ionizing radiation that we expect from showers of particles
269 raining down from the upper atmosphere, and the expected phenomena that can modulate
270 this flux. This section will describe ionizing radiation that originates on the surface of Earth
271 and can also influence our measurements; we'll refer to these as the *radioactive backgrounds*.
272 Radioactive backgrounds are sub-divided into primarily three main processes called alpha, beta,
273 and gamma radiation. Radioactivity is a quantum mechanical effect which is non-deterministic,
274 that is, we cannot predict when a particle will decay, rather we can only assign a probability to
275 it. The energy scale of these processes are relatively low (MeV-scale) compared to the energies
276 associated with the cosmic rays (GeV and above), but their natural abundance on the surface
277 of the Earth is sufficient that these are typically the dominant source of triggers in the Desktop
278 Muon Detector.

279 Alpha decay is the result of an unstable nucleus ejecting a helium nucleus (a bound state of two
280 protons and two neutrons), $(Z, A) \rightarrow (Z - 2, A - 4) + \alpha$. This is a quantum mechanical effect,
281 where a helium state (helium is a very tightly bound state) forms in the nucleus, then quantum
282 tunnels through the nuclear potential barrier, exiting the nucleus. The emitted alpha particle
283 is mono-energetic, and since the helium nucleus has a charge of $+2e$ and mass of approximately
284 4 GeV (therefore, it moves slow and has a large charge), it will lose energy rapidly in matter.
285 A 5-MeV alpha particle will have a range of 3.5 cm in air before losing all of its energy, or
286 equivalently, 23 micrometers in aluminium⁶ [28].

287 Beta radiation is described as the decay of a neutron to a proton⁷: $n \rightarrow p + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e$. The
288 proton remains in the nucleus, while the electron and electron-neutrino are ejected. Since this
289 is a 3-body decay, the electron is not mono-energetic. It is emitted with a continuous energy
290 spectrum whose maximum energy is approximately at the total energy available for the decay
291 (the Q-value). Beta decays typically have energies that can range from tens of keV to a few
292 MeV.

293 Gamma radiation is simply a high-energy photon, emitted during the de-excitation of an atomic
294 nucleus. When the nucleus is in an unstable state (for example, maybe the nucleus absorbed a
295 neutron or was left in an excited state after a beta decay), it will de-excite into a lower energy
296 configuration releasing a photon. This is analogous to the de-excitation of an atomic electron,
297 emitting a characteristic mono-energetic photon. Since the energy levels in the nucleus are

⁶The high energy loss rate that alpha radiation makes it useful for cancer therapies. An alpha particle will deposit all of its kinetic energy into a very local space (order micrometers in human tissue), which is capable of destroying cancerous cells.

⁷More fundamentally, during neutron decays, an up-quark in the neutron converts to a down-quark, emitting a virtual W-Boson $u \rightarrow d + W \rightarrow d + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e$. On the macroscopic level, this appears as the transmutation of an atom converting to another atom with an extra proton and one fewer neutron: $A(Z, N) \rightarrow A'(Z + 1, N - 1) + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e$.

298 quantized, gamma ray are also mono-energetic (with a small spread due to nuclear motion).
299 These energy scales are in the 100 keV to MeV-range.

300 3 Particle interactions with matter

301 In order to detect a particle, it must undergo an interaction with the material of a detector.
302 This section will go through the main interactions that transfer energy from the particle to
303 the absorbing material in sufficient detail to understand the data from the Desktop Muon De-
304 tector. We'll begin with the muons, protons, pions/kaons, and generically other high-energy
305 heavy charged particles, then move to high-energy electrons (and positron), and finally onto the
306 interactions associated with the radioactive backgrounds.

307 3.1 High energy heavy charged particles

308 The description below will be useful when thinking about any charged particles with a mass
309 much greater than that of the electron ($m \gg m_e$). This happens to be all charged particles
310 except for the electron and positron (i.e. the muon, the next lightest charge particle, is 206
311 times more massive than the electron). Unlike the trajectories of heavy charged particles, the
312 trajectories of electrons are not straight lines in a target and special consideration is required.
313 The description below represents an approximation to the underlying processes responsible for
314 energy loss in matter, since the breadth of this subject is far too large to cover in a single
315 document. More information can be found in Ref. [2, 9, 29, 30].

316 The energy loss rate (often called the stopping power), $-dE/dx$, is a measure of how much energy
317 is loss per unit distance travelled. It is often expressed in units of MeV cm²/g (referred to as
318 *mass stopping power*), where one simply has to multiply by the density (in terms of g/cm³) of
319 the absorber to get the energy lost per cm, however ,we've taken care of this by expressing the
320 energy loss rate in terms of water ($\rho = 1.0 \text{ g/cm}^3$), which coincidentally has the same density
321 of plastic scintillator. As a particle travels through matter can be broken up into three energy
322 ranges that are mass dependent:

- 323 • I. The sub-relativistic region: ($E_k < mc^2$)
- 324 • II. The ionization region: ($E_k > mc^2$ and $E < 400 \text{ GeV m}^2/\text{m}_\mu^2$)
- 325 • III. The radiation region ($E > 400 \text{ GeV m}^2/\text{m}_\mu^2$).

326 These three regions are shown in Fig. 3 for a muon travelling in water, however the energy
327 loss can be scaled to another material by simply multiplying by the density (in g/cm³) of the

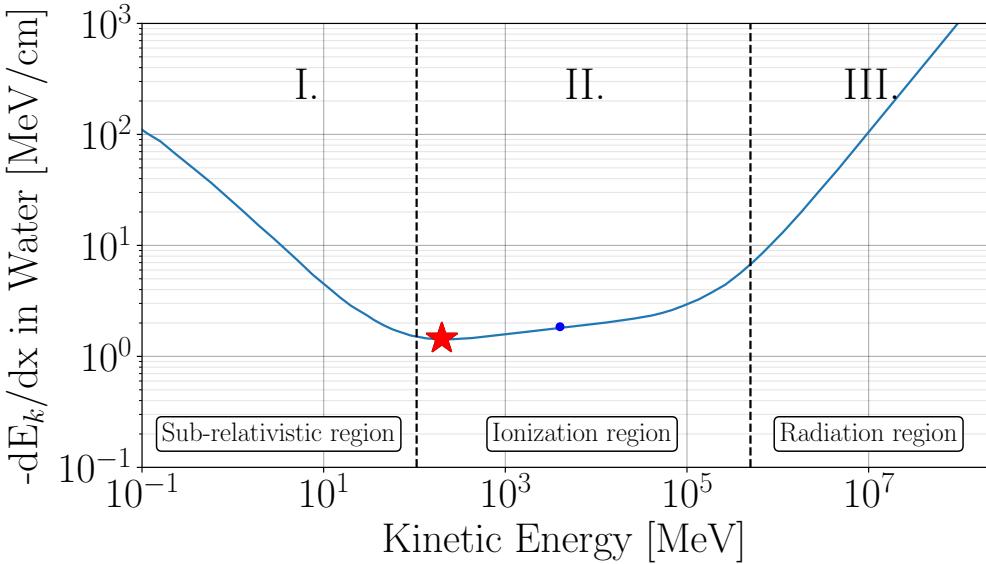


Figure 3: The kinetic energy loss per centimetre travelled, of a muon travelling through H_2O ($\rho = 1.0 \text{ g/cm}^3$). Modified from Ref. [15].

material (for example, the stopping power in lead would be scaled by a factor of 11.34). The energy loss can be scaled to another particle by multiplying by the charge of the particle squared, for example, the energy loss of an alpha particle will be scaled by a factor of 4. This plot is often represented in terms of momentum, but we've scaled it in terms of the kinetic energy of the incident particle to simplify the description. The vertical-dashed lines separate the three regions and can be scaled to another charged particle using the equalities above. For example, a proton will enter the sub-relativistic region at approximately 1 GeV.

In the **sub-relativistic region** (Muon: $E_k \approx 100 \text{ MeV}$; Proton: $E_k \approx 1 \text{ GeV}$), as the particle loses energy, the amount of energy loss per unit distance travelled increases. Essentially, this means that once a particle enters this region, it comes quickly to a stop. This phenomena is also known as the *Bragg peak* [8].

In the **high energy radiation region** (Muon: $E_k \approx 400 \text{ GeV}$; Proton: $E_k \approx 27 \text{ TeV}$), the energy loss is associated with *bremssstrahlung*, pair production, and nuclear interactions, and scales linearly with energy. The radiation term begins dominating at approximately 400 GeV for muons, however, recall that the cosmic ray flux falls off fast with energy. The muons that are in this regime represent a small percentage of the flux and loose energy fast.

Finally, the **ionization region** is where the majority of the cosmic ray muon flux lies. Recall that the mean muon energy at sea level is 4 GeV (indicated as a blue marker in Fig. 3). The energy loss in this region is due to ionization (breaking electromagnetic bonds) and excitation (raise the electron to a higher-lying shell within the absorber atom) of the incident particle and described by the *Bethe Bloch formula* (great descriptions of the formula can be found in Ref. [15, 8, 9]). This region is particularly interesting since the energy loss rate is nearly constant

(well, it actually increases logarithmically), with an average energy loss rate of 2.2 MeV/cm in a density 1.0 g/cm³ material, over many orders of magnitude. The minimum here, indicated by a yellow star in Fig. 3, is where the muon is said to be a minimum ionizing particle (MIP) and represents the energy at which the muon is most penetrating. A MIP will actually often be referred to as a particle that is anywhere near this region since it is so flat. It is also coincidental that the majority of the cosmic ray flux falls into this region. This means that if we want to approximate the penetrating depth of a typical cosmic ray muon, we can simply divide the energy by 2.2 MeV/cm and multiply by the density of the absorber. As an example, a 10 GeV muon will penetrate through approximately 17 m of concrete ($\rho = 2.7 \text{ g/cm}^3$). What about the other heavy charged particles discussed in this document: the protons, pions, and kaons? These will also lose energy through ionization, but since they are composed of quarks, they can also interact via the strong force. The strong force is responsible for the nuclear collisions that can greatly impact the particle and trajectory. This is what makes the muons so unique – they do not interact via the strong nuclear force and they are heavy, which allows them to penetrate through materials with minimal losses due to collisions with the electrons in the absorbers and with minimal deflection on their trajectory⁸.

3.2 High energy electrons/positrons and photons

As described in Section 2.1, there is a non-negligible source of electrons/positrons with energies below 1 GeV showering down onto the Earth’s surface. This section will describe the energy loss in terms of high energy electrons, but the description is valid for positrons as well. It turns out that for an electron above a few tens of MeV, the energy loss will be dominated by radiation losses, predominantly *bremssstrahlung radiation* (“braking radiation” in German). Bremsstrahlung radiation is the emission of photons produced by a particle accelerating and decelerating as it passes near the electric field of the nucleus of the material.

A bremsstrahlung photon with sufficient energy can pair produce an electron and positron, which will subsequently radiate other bremsstrahlung photons, thereby creating a cascade of electrons, positrons, and photons. This process dominates the energy loss of the electron until the energy drops below a few tens of MeV (typically referred to as the critical energy). The radiation energy loss rate actually scales with energy, so in the region

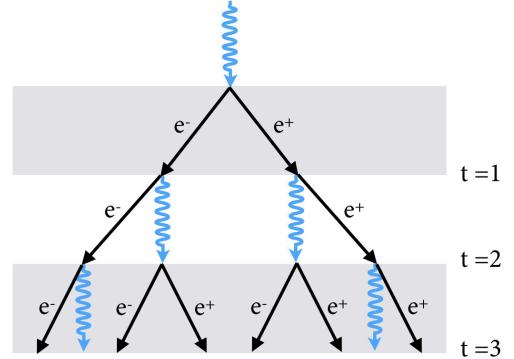


Figure 4: The Heitler Model for electromagnetic cascades.

⁸Since high energy muons are able to penetrate very large distances through material, many experiments are buried kilometres underground to shield against them. For example, the neutrino detector Super-Kamiokande, is buried underneath a 1-km mountain in Japan, in order to reduce the muon flux by a factor of 10^5 so that they are not swamped when looking for the rare, less energetic interactions from neutrino. For similar reasons, the IceCube neutrino detector is buried under 1.4 km of ice in the Antarctic glacier at the South Pole.

385 above the critical energy, dE/dx is proportional to energy. This means that a 20 GeV electron
386 will start off by loosing 1000 times more energy per centimetre travelled then a 20 MeV electron
387 in the form of bremsstrahlung radiation. This causes the high-energy particles to loose their
388 energy rapidly as a function of distance.

389 A *radiation length*, X_0 , is defined is the average thickness of a material that reduces the mean en-
390 ergy of the electron or positron by a factor $1/e$ (Euler's number = 2.71828) due to bremsstrahlung
391 radiation. This means that an electron will lose a factor of e^{-t} energy after travelling through
392 t radiation lengths. For example, after four radiation lengths, a 1 GeV electron will end up
393 with approximately 20 MeV. A simplified model known as the *Heitler Model for electromagnetic
394 cascades*, approximates this saying that one electron-positron pair will be created per radiation
395 length, each of which will receive half of the energy of the photon that produced them. After
396 t radiation lengths, the cascade will contain 2^t particles (electron, positrons, and photons) each
397 with an average energy of approximately $E = E_0/2^t$ [31]. We've illustrated this in Fig. 4.

398 A useful list of radiation lengths for various materials can be found in Table 1. This table
399 includes the information regarding pertinent materials used in the Desktop Muon Detectors or
400 during some measurements below.

Table 1: A table of materials that are mentioned in this document and their corresponding radiation length. *STP indicates that the air is at the standard temperature and pressure: 20°C and 101.325 kPa. The data was collected from Ref. [1, 8].

Material	Density [g/cm ³]	Radiation length [cm]	Critical Energy [MeV]
Water (H ₂ O)	1.00	36.1	92
Lead (Pb)	11.35	0.56	9.51
Concrete	2.5	10.7	
Air at STP*	1.2931	30420	102
Scintillator (Polystyrene)	1.032	42.4	109
Aluminium (Al)	2.70	8.9	51.0

401 3.3 Low energy electrons/positrons

402 Electrons and positrons are the lightest charged particles. The qualitative behaviour for electron
403 scattering is different from the high-energy particles in two ways. First, the energy loss by
404 electrons fluctuates much more than for heavy particles. For example, the maximum transferable
405 kinetic energy of an electron from a 4 GeV electron is... 4 GeV, whereas a muon with the
406 same energy has a maximum transferable energy of 1 GeV. Further, because of its small mass,
407 electrons are particularly susceptible to large angle deflections by scattering off a nucleus. This
408 probability is so high, in fact, that multiply scattered electrons may be turned around in direction
409 altogether, defined as *backscattering*. The backscattering probability is higher at lower energies,
410 and if backscattered, the electrons do not deposit all their energy in the absorbing medium.
411 A 1 MeV electron has approximately a 10% chance of backscattering off of a thick slab of

412 aluminium, and a 50% chance of backscattering off a slab of gold [32].

413 The previous section described electrons and positrons with energy above the critical energy
 414 of a material (typically tens of MeV), where their energy loss is completely dominated by
 415 bremsstrahlung radiation. At lower energies, the electrons-positrons can inelastically interact
 416 through Coulomb collisions with atomic electrons to loose energy [33]. This leads to ioniza-
 417 tion and excitation like the heavier particles. At lower energies still, MeV-scale, the electrons
 418 (positrons) also exhibit *Møller (Bhabha)* scattering.

419 3.4 Low energy gamma rays

420 Gamma-rays interact slightly differently from the charged particles due to their lack in electric
 421 charge. The three main interactions of gamma rays (and X-rays) are shown in Fig. 5.

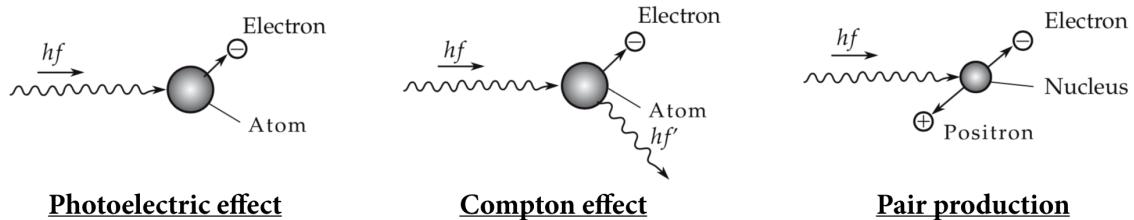


Figure 5: Modified from Ref. [28]

422 An atomic electron can fully absorb the en-
 423 ergy of a gamma ray⁹, resulting in an elec-
 424 tron with the energy of the initial gamma ray
 425 (MeV-scale) minus the binding energy of the
 426 atomic electron (eV-scale). This process is
 427 known as the *photoelectric effect*. As shown
 428 in Fig. 6, the photoelectric effect dominates
 429 for low-energy gamma-rays with a moderate-
 430 to-high density absorber.

431 *Compton scattering* results in the partial
 432 transfer of energy from the incident gamma-
 433 ray to an atomic electron, resulting in the elec-
 434 tron being bumped into a higher energy level
 435 or being ionized. The gamma-ray may change
 436 direction, exiting the material that contained
 437 the electron, or perhaps it scatters again off

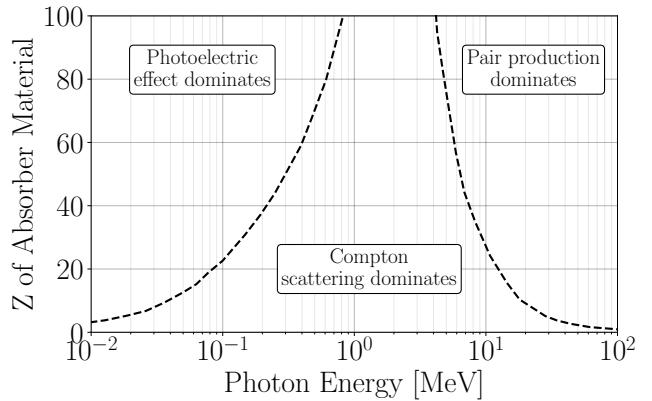


Figure 6: Dominant region for the three gamma ray interactions as a function of the photon energy and the target charge number Z. Modified from Ref. [9]

⁹In order to conserve momentum, the photoelectric effect cannot occur on a free electron, it requires a nucleus to absorb part of the recoil.

438 another electron. Compton scattering domi-
439 nates at low energy for very low-Z materials,
440 and the probability of scattering will be proportional to the electron density and therefore pro-
441 portional to the proton number of the material.

442 At energies above 1.022 MeV, electron-positron pair production plays a role. Pair production
443 follows the same description as that found in the description on high-energy electrons (Sec. 3.2).
444 The only difference being that the chain begins with a photon rather than an electron.

445 Beyond this, there are second order effects, such as *Rayleigh scattering* where the photon wave-
446 length is large enough that it coherently scatters off of the entire atom, and photonuclear inter-
447 actions at higher energies that break up the nucleus [15].

448 3.5 Neutrons

449 Like the photon, the neutron is not electrically charged, therefore it is not subject to Coulomb
450 interactions with the electrons and nuclei. Rather, it interacts through the strong force with
451 nuclei. Due to the short range nature of the strong force, these interactions are comparatively
452 rare (the neutron needs to get close to the nucleus in order to interact). Several interactions
453 that may occur are [8]:

- 454 1. Elastic scattering off a nucleus
- 455 2. Inelastic scattering off nucleus that leaves the nucleus in an excited state that may decay
456 emitting a gamma ray. To excite the nucleus the neutron must transfer MeV-scale energies.
- 457 3. Neutron capture. At low energies, the neutron might be captured by the nucleus, emitting
458 a gamma ray.
- 459 4. Fission
- 460 5. Hadronic shower, particularly at high energies (> 100 MeV).

461 High energy neutrons produced in the primary cosmic ray interaction, will often collide with
462 another nucleus creating a similar interaction as to the primary cosmic ray.

463 **4 Detection methods**

464 **4.1 Single photon detections: photomultipliers**

465 One of the most common instruments used by particle physicists are photomultipliers. Photo-
466 multipliers are devices capable of producing a measurable electrical signal from the interaction
467 of a single photon. Photon detection enables us to extract information related to the incident
468 particle by measuring the photon emission of a particle as it loses energy in a material. The
469 most prolific single photon sensing device is a photomultiplier tubes (PMT), which offers a large
470 photo-sensitive area of coverage at modest cost, they are however bulky and require high-voltage.
471 Other common technologies, such as the Avalanche Photodiode (APD) and PIN photodiode,
472 both have their benefits and drawbacks. Recent improvements in the manufacturing of silicon
473 chips have made it possible to make a new type of photon detector called a *silicon photomulti-
474 plier*, or SiPMs (sometimes they are abbreviated as SPM). SiPMs have many advantages over
475 PMTs, such as being able to operate at low voltages, being insensitive to magnetic fields, be-
476 ing robust, and having a compact form factor. This modern technology is what we use in the
477 Desktop Muon Detectors.

478 SiPMs are constructed out of densely arranged *microcells* (see Fig. 7), each of which is a separate
479 PN junction. When a photon travels through the silicon in the PN junction, and deposits
480 sufficient energy to a bound electron, the electron can be transported to the conduction band,
481 thereby producing an electron-hole pair. If a potential difference is applied between the PN
482 junction, the electron will gain energy and at a certain point collide with other electrons also
483 transporting them into the conduction band. When the potential difference is sufficiently high
484 ($> 5 \times 10^5 \text{ V/cm}$), an electron avalanche (or cascade) can occurs (a Geiger discharge), in which
485 a single electron turns into a current of order millions of electrons. Once the flow of electrons is
486 initiated, the silicon becomes conductive at which point a quenching resistor lowers the potential
487 difference across the PN junction sufficiently to stop the electron cascade. In this way, each
488 microcell acts as a photon triggered switch which lets a small amount of current to briefly flow
489 if it was struck by a photon. The sum of the total current flow is proportional to how many
490 microcells were triggered and therefore is proportional to the incident photon-flux (when the
491 number of triggering photon \ll number of microcells).

492 The Desktop Muon Detector employs the On Semiconductor MicroFC 60035 C-Series [34]. These
493 are most sensitive in the 450 nm range [35], which is a deep blue to purple. If a photon wavelength
494 is too large ($> 1000 \text{ nm}$), the absorption length in the silicon is also too large and the necessary
495 size of the SiPM would be too bulky. If the photon wavelength is too short, it will not penetrate
496 into the sensitive region region of the SiPM, which is required for the detection.

497 The applied potential difference is termed “bias voltage,” and dictates both how large of a region
498 is able to produce the avalanche (the depletion region), and the amount of energy gained by the
499 electron-hole pair. The “breakdown voltage” defines the voltage at which the voltage gradient
500 in the depletion region is large enough to create a Geiger discharge. This is typically between

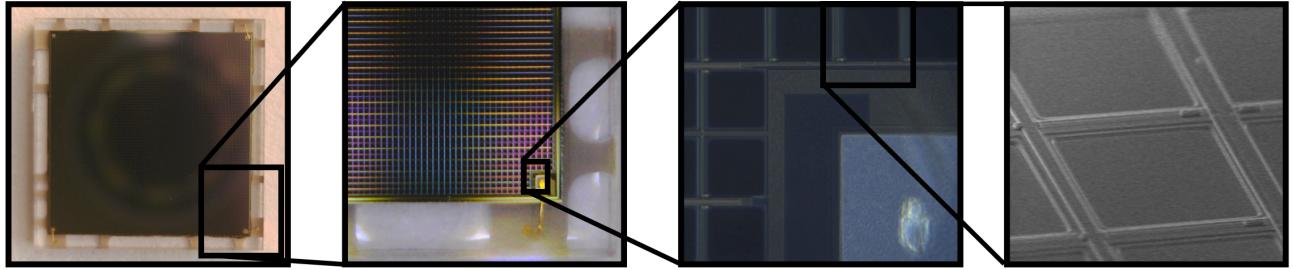


Figure 7: An image of a On Semiconductor MicroFC 60035 C-Series SiPM [34]. The SiPM has a length and width of 7.00 ± 0.05 mm and a thickness of 0.65 ± 0.05 mm. Each one of the tiled squares represents a single microcell, each of which operate independently in Geiger mode.

501 24.2 and 24.7 V for the C-series SiPMs. If the bias voltage is increased beyond the breakdown
 502 voltage, the microcells will still operate in Geiger mode, however the electron cascade in the
 503 PN junction will carry more energy, thus increasing the charge output (or gain) linearly. The
 504 difference in the bias voltage to the breakdown voltage is termed *over-voltage*. An over-voltage
 505 between 1.0 and 5.0 V is recommended. The Desktop Muon Detectors operate at an over-voltage
 506 of 5.0V which corresponds to a gain of roughly 5×10^6 [34].

507 Thermal fluctuations can produce electron-hole pairs, which mimic single photon events. For
 508 our SiPMs, this occurs at rate of approximately 100 kHz per mm², or at several MHz for the
 509 full SiPM. This can be undesirable for many applications that rely on distinguishing between
 510 small numbers of photons. The breakdown voltage required to initiate the electron cascade is
 511 temperature dependent; a lower temperature has a lower breakdown voltage.

512 4.2 Scintillators

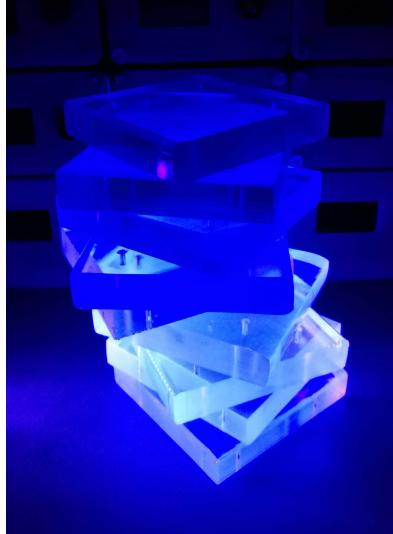
513 Scintillators are simply a material that absorbs energy (through Coulomb interactions) and re-
 514 emits that energy in the form of electromagnetic radiation (scintillation light). Scintillators can
 515 come in different forms: for example, the scintillator could be grown as a crystal (referred to
 516 as an inorganic scintillator) with an added dopant, or the scintillator could have a fluorescing
 517 material embedded in a plastic (such as polystyrene or acrylic) or mixed into a liquid (like
 518 toluene or mineral oil) – these would be examples of organic scintillators. Inorganic scintillators
 519 are typically more expensive, however they can also have a higher density and emit more photons
 520 per unit energy deposited. This makes them more useful for calorimetry. Organic scintillators
 521 on the other hand are typically cheaper since the fluorescent material is suspended in a common,
 522 often low density material like a plastic, which enables them to be easily manufactured.

523 Scintillators are particularly useful since they emit light proportional to the energy deposited
 524 in the material, therefore, one will often see a metric of the quality of the scintillator express-
 525 ing how many photons are emitted per absorbed MeV of energy (often called the scintillator
 526 efficiency). A common organic scintillator may have an efficiency of 10,000 photons/MeV. An-

527 other important quantity associated with scintillators photon emission profile of the scintillator,
528 which determines what photon wavelengths are emitted after de-excitation. Scintillators must
529 also be transparent to the scintillation light so that it can propagate to the photon detector.
530 Plastic scintillators may have attenuation lengths on the order of 0.3 meters to 3 meters [36, 37],
531 whereas liquid scintillators like Linear Alkyl Benzene (LAB) can have attenuation lengths of up
532 to 25 meters [38]. Scintillators also have a very fast response and recovery (excitation and de-
533 excitation of the foreclosing molecules), which happens on the order of nanoseconds for organic
534 scintillators and hundreds of nano-seconds for inorganic scintillators.

535 The CosmicWatch Desktop Muon Detector was designed using an organic plastic scintillator,
536 which consists of a polystyrene base (essentially just an inexpensive transparent plastic) mixed
537 with a primary dopant of 1% by-weight of POP (2,5-diphenyloxazole) and 0.03% secondary
538 dopant POPOP (1,4-bis[2-(5-phenyloxazolyl)]benzene) [39]¹⁰. This plastic scintillator does not
539 emit below 400 nm, and has a maximum emission around 420 nm (deep-purple light). This par-
540 ticular scintillator was developed by FermiLab for the MiNOS [41]/MINER ν A [42] experiments.
541 We'll focus on a description of organic scintillators below, but a good description of inorganic
542 scintillators can be found in Ref. [40].

543 The plastic scintillator requires three components:



555 Figure 8: A UV flash light
556 illuminating scintillator.
557

- 544 • A transparent (in the visible spectrum) base that is used to
545 suspend the fluorescent material. This can be some sort of
546 plastic (like polystyrene) or transparent liquid like mineral
547 oil.
- 548 • A primary fluorescing agent that is excited by the en-
549 ergy transfer from the incident charged particle. The de-
550 excitation of the primary fluorescent material releases ultra-
551 violet light. Ultra-violet light will not travel far in the base
552 (order mm), before being absorbed.
- 553 • A secondary fluorescent agent that absorbs the UV light
554 and converts it to the visible spectrum. The visible light
555 then travels through the scintillator, internally reflecting
556 off the walls until it is absorbed. Some of the visible light
557 will hopefully strike the photon sensor that is coupled to
558 the scintillator.

559 A simple illustration of the UV conversion is shown in Fig. 8.
560 Here, we have illuminated several pieces of scintillator with a UV
561 flash light. The UV is absorbed by the secondary fluorescent
562 agent and re-emitted as a deep blue/purple light. Polystyrene-based scintillator has a density of

¹⁰Interestingly, PPO was one of the earliest compounds to be investigated as a scintillator solute by Hayes et. al (see Ref. [40])from 1953-1958 and is still one of the most widely used

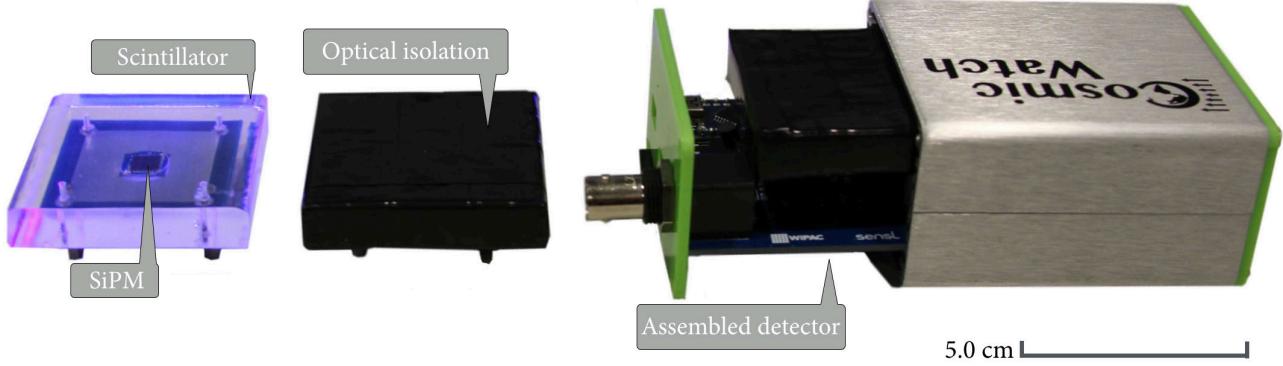


Figure 9: The components of the Desktop Muon Detector. Modified from Ref. [43].

563 roughly 1.032 g/cm^3 (similar to water) and a refractive index at standard atmosphere pressure
 564 of $n = 1.581$ [9].

565 The Desktop Muon Detector couples a SiPM (see Sec. 4.1) to a slab of scintillator via optical
 566 gel which reduces the probability of a photon being reflected at the interface by matching the
 567 index of refraction from the scintillator to the housing of the SiPM, eliminating the $n = 1.0$ air
 568 gap. We also wrap the remaining surface in aluminium foil to reflect photons that escape the
 569 scintillator. It is then wrapped in 2-3 layers of black electrical tape to make the whole thing
 570 light-tight. The assembly of a detector is shown in Fig. 9.

571 5 The CosmicWatch program

572 Many excellent programs exist to provide physics outreach experiences to students, and they each
 573 tend to offer very different opportunities and unique ideas. Recently, we've seen quite a bit of
 574 interest in both the US (such as the Distributed Electronic Cosmic-Ray Observatory, DECO [44])
 575 and Poland-based (the Cosmic-Ray Extremely Distributed Observatory, CREDO [45]) cosmic
 576 ray programs that employs the CCD on a users smart phones to detect the interactions with
 577 cosmic-ray muons. We've also seen, and spoke, with many people who work on the QuarkNet
 578 program [46] which brings elements particle physics to high school teachers, primarily using
 579 lab-grade muon detectors. There are also educational cosmic ray muon detectors, such as Teach
 580 Spin's Muon Physics detector [47], which we've heard great things about.

581 Our approach is slightly different than those mentioned above. The Desktop Muon Detector was
 582 designed to be as portable and self-sufficient as possible, while giving the individual student the
 583 ability to record and analyse their own data. The full detector is open source, and we encouraged
 584 our students/teachers to go through the full build process themselves: acquiring materials, pop-
 585 ulating the circuit boards, troubleshooting the electronics, and finally testing the actual detector.
 586 This gives our students experience in the machine and electrical shop and introduces them to



Figure 10: An array of Desktop Muon Detectors. From Ref. [43].

587 circuit design. Once the detector is built and functioning properly, students can either use our
 588 tools for analysing the data, or they build their own programs for extracting physics from the
 589 data. The data is then used as an educational tool to illustrate various particle/astro physics
 590 phenomena.

591 5.1 The Desktop Muon Detector

592 Particle detectors in general aim to identify each particle, measure the energy and momentum,
 593 as well as localize the particle with sufficient resolution in space and time. A single detector is
 594 never optimal for all of these requirements. The CosmicWatch Desktop Muon Detector aims to
 595 be a general purpose detector that can collect granular information on these requirements such
 596 that it has access to a plethora of physics.

597 As described in Ref. [43], the CosmicWatch Desktop Muon Detector consists of a $5 \times 5 \times 1$ cm³
 598 slab of extruded plastic scintillator instrumented with a silicon photomultiplier (SiPM). When
 599 a charged particle passes through the scintillator and deposits energy, some of that energy is
 600 re-emitted isotropically along the particle track in the form of photons. Photons incident on the
 601 photosensitive area of the SiPM can induce a Geiger discharge in the SiPM microcells. When the
 602 microcells discharge, they produce a measurable current. A single photon can trigger a single
 603 microcell (neglecting second-order effects), whereas multiple photons may trigger multiple cells.
 604 The produced current is sent through a custom designed printed circuit board (PCB), which
 605 amplifies and shapes the signal such that it is suitable to be measured by an inexpensive micro-
 606 controller (in our case, an Arduino Nano [48]). The Arduino Nano measures the event time
 607 stamp and peak ADC value. The measured peak ADC value can then be converted back into
 608 a SiPM peak voltage, which is proportional to the number of photons incident on the SiPM. If
 609 the measured ADC value is above a software defined threshold, the micro-controller records the

610 event data either to a microSD card or directly to a computer through a USB connection. The
611 CosmicWatch website also provides an online application to plot data in real-time or to record
612 data. For each event, the detector records the event number, event time, average measured 10-
613 bit ADC value, calculated SiPM peak voltage (which is proportional to the SiPM pulse charge),
614 total dead-time, and temperature. When plugged directly into a computer, the data can be
615 recorded through a python-based program that also includes the computer time and date of
616 each event.

617 An array of complete detectors is shown in Fig. 10. The front of the detector includes a built-in
618 0.96" OLED screen which displays the count number since the last reset, total uptime, count rate
619 (compensated for the detector dead-time), and an indication bar whose length is proportional
620 to the calculated SiPM peak voltage of the last triggered event. Multiple detectors can also be
621 linked together using a 3.5 mm male-to-male audio cable to make a *coincidence measurement*
622 (see Sec. 6.1). The detector was measured to draw 0.27 W and can be powered through any USB
623 connection (provided it supplies greater than 4.5 V), this includes the USB port on a computer,
624 USB power bank, or power outlet USB. The total mass of the detector, including the aluminium
625 case, is 178 g and the outer dimensions of the detector are 66.4 mm×101.6 mm×39.9 mm
626 (including the protruding BNC receptacle and LED holder). Excluding the aluminium enclosure
627 and end-plates, the detector has a mass of 76 g.

628 The backside of the detector includes a port for inserting and removing a microSD card; a USB-
629 mini port for powering the detector, uploading new code to the Arduino Nano, or recording
630 data directly through a USB port; a 3.5 mm female audio connection port used for connecting
631 multiple detectors together to make a coincidence measurement; a reset button used for resetting
632 the detector or assigning the detector as either the *master* or *coincident* detector in coincidence
633 mode (this will be described in Sec. 5.3.1); and a BNC connection which is connected directly
634 to the SiPM output, and can be used for injecting signals into the PCBs for testing.

635 The supplementary material pertaining to this project can be found in the GitHub repository
636 located in Ref. [49] and will be referred to as needed throughout. Included in the supplementary
637 material is a document (instructions.pdf) that describes the detailed process of building, testing,
638 and troubleshooting the detector.

639 5.2 Building and operating the detector

640 The detectors were designed to be as openly available as possible, and therefore we attempt
641 to use commonly available components all of which have been chosen to reduce the cost of the
642 detector. Occasionally, we find that the manufacturers of the components are out of stock,
643 so it is important for students to understand the provided information on the products we
644 use. The purchasing list (purchasing_list.pdf) found in the supplementary material, includes
645 a detailed description of each components and where they can be purchased. Instructions
646 regarding purchasing the material, and going step-by-step through a complete build can be
647 found in the instructions.pdf document located in the supplementary material.

648 We've also produced a set of YouTube [50] videos, in which we build a detector from scratch,
649 perform a simple measurement, then illustrate how to troubleshoot the detector. These can be
650 found here:

651 Introduction:
652 <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=e4IXzNiNxgU>

653 Populating the Main PCB:
654 https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zdVC8El_Xt8

655 Populating the SiPM PCB:
656 <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yFgin5wlw4I>

657 Troubleshooting:
658 <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ck24HGrjBfY>

659 Beyond this, there are several pieces of software required to operate the detectors. They are
660 used for programming the Arduino and a python based program that we use for recording data
661 or plotting data in real-time on the website.

662 Regarding the Arduino, the supplementary material contains code used to program the Arduino
663 Nano (in the /Arduino directory). The code requires the user to download the Arduino IDE,
664 and install several libraries. A list of the libraries are found at the top of all the Arduino code
665 and within the installation instructions document. A description of the three pieces of code
666 follows:

- 667 1. **Naming.ino:** This code is used to permanently name the detector (permanent up until
668 this code is uploaded again). When this is uploaded to the Arduino, the variable, det_name,
669 is written to the EEPROM memory of the detector. It is recommended that every detector
670 is given a unique name.
- 671 2. **OLED.ino:** This code can be uploaded if the user would like information to print out on
672 the OLED screen.
- 673 3. **SDCard.ino:** This code sets the detector up to record the data directly to the removable
674 microSD card. However, if you are running this code, the OLED screen will not be
675 updated.

676 Ideally, both the OLED.ino and SDcard.ino code would contained in a single script, however,
677 due to the limited SRAM and flash storage on the Arduino, only one of the codes can be run
678 at a time.

679 Depending on the operating system that the student is using there may be special drivers needed
680 in order to get the Arduino Nano to communicate with their computer. In particular, when

681 using a Mac OS, the CH340g driver needs to be installed. This can be found in Ref. [51]. It's
682 best to try and simply get the Arduino Nano working on your computer prior to working with
683 the code above. Arduino provides an example code called Blink.ino, which simply blinks the
684 LED connected to Pin 13 at 1 Hz. Once this is working, it's simple to transition to our software.

685 The python code is used primarily for recording data directly to a computer, or to connect to the
686 website in order to plot the data in real-time. Recording the data directly to the computer has the
687 added benefit that the code will automatically add an extra time stamp to each event from the
688 computer. This gives an accurate time stamp to within approximately 1 ms. The python code,
689 import_data.py, can be found in the Recording_Data directory in the supplementary material.
690 In order to use the Arduino code, the user should have python 2.7 installed, and will have to
691 install two libraries:

- 692 1. **Tornado:** This library is used to communicate with the CosmicWatch server. On a Unix-based
693 machine, it can be installed through terminal using “sudo pip install tornado” or
694 through another package manager.
- 695 2. **Pyserial:** This is used to use python to read the data that is flowing into the USB port.
696 It can also be install through terminal using “sudo pip install pyserial.”

697 Once the libraries are installed. The code can be ran using python. A prompt will offer the user
698 a list of options: record to the computer, copy data from the microSD card, erase data from the
699 microSD card, or connect to the server.

700 5.3 Recording data

701 Data can be collected from the Desktop Muon Detector in many ways:

- 702 1. **Through a microSD card.** To save data to a microSD card, the SDcard.ino Arduino
703 code must be uploaded to the detector and a microSD card (128 Mb is sufficient for all
704 applications in this documents) inserted into the port on the back of the detector. Each
705 time that the detector is reset or powered on, a new file is created with a file name that
706 count sequentially upwards from the previous file, and an “M” or “S” indicating if the
707 detector was in *master* or *coincident* mode respectively.
- 708 2. **Directly to a computer through a mini-USB cable.** To record the data directly to
709 the computer, either the SDcard.ino or the OLED.ino code can be uploaded to the detector.
710 When the detector is plugged into a computer USB port, and the import_data.py is run
711 using python 2.7, the user is prompted to supply the path and name of the file to where
712 the data is to be stored. It will then begin recording the data in real time to the output
713 file. This method also includes a computer time and date stamp.

- 714 3. **Through the website.** Either the OLED.ino or the SDcard.ino code can be uploaded
 715 to the Arduino. When running the import_data.py code with python, there is an option
 716 to connect to the website (option: “Connect to server: www.cosmicwatch.lns.mit.edu”).
 717 After selecting this option, it will prompt the user to go to the website, where data from
 718 the detector will be plotted in real-time. At any point, the data can be saved in the form
 719 of a .txt file with the “save” button.
- 720 4. **Through the Arduino IDE.** When a detector is plugged into the computer, and the
 721 Arduino IDE is opened, the data can be seen accumulating in real-time in the serial
 722 monitor. The data can be copied and pasted into a text editor for later analysis.

723 When data is saved directly through the import_data.py script to the computer (either through
 724 method 2 or 3 above), the computer puts a time stamp with an precision and accuracy of +/-
 725 1 ms, that includes the computer date, computer time, and the detector name. An example of
 726 the data from the computer is shown in Fig. 11.

```
#####
### CosmicWatch: The Desktop Muon Detector
### Questions? saxani@mit.edu
### Comp_date Comp_time Event Ardn_time[ms] ADC[0-1023] SiPM[mV] Deadtime[ms] Temp[C] Name
#####
Detector ID: MrOrange
Detector Mode: Master
Data Service: Computer
2018-07-25 15:17:07.683137 1 5803 83 20.46 320 16.60 MrOrange
2018-07-25 15:17:08.374145 2 6493 512 144.44 358 16.71 MrOrange
2018-07-25 15:17:09.657944 3 7777 120 23.58 399 16.71 MrOrange
2018-07-25 15:17:11.481385 4 9602 143 25.74 471 17.14 MrOrange
2018-07-25 15:17:12.407065 5 10527 364 71.71 509 16.60 MrOrange
2018-07-25 15:17:14.232222 6 12352 271 46.93 583 16.92 MrOrange
2018-07-25 15:17:23.693371 7 21816 624 242.54 893 16.60 MrOrange
2018-07-25 15:17:24.210330 8 22334 332 61.17 934 17.14 MrOrange
2018-07-25 15:17:25.672181 9 23797 280 48.67 973 16.71 MrOrange
2018-07-25 15:17:25.979883 10 24103 335 61.77 1012 16.71 MrOrange
```

Figure 11: Example data format. The header for the file is the first 8 lines and 10 example events follow. This data was recorded using the detector named “MrOrange,” in *master* configuration, recorded directly to the computer through the import_data.py code. The definitions of the columns are listed in the header, as well as a more descriptive description in the text below.

727 The data shown in Fig. 11 is formatted into space delimited columns, each of which is labelled
 728 in the header, and defined as:

- 729
 - **Comp_date:** The date given by the computer. Requires data saved using method 2 or 3
 730 from above.
 - **Comp_time:** The time stamp given by the computer. Requires data saved using method
 731 2 or 3 from above.
 - **Event:** The event number of the detector.

- **Ardn_time [ms]**: The total elapsed Arduino time, measured in milliseconds. This is only accurate to roughly ± 1 min per day, and precise to the nearest millisecond.
- **ADC [0-1023]**: The ADC measurement for the event. The Arduino Nano has a 10-bit ADC, meaning the values reported are from 0-1023 (2^{10} values). The ADC is referenced between ground and 3.3 V using the internal Arduino voltage regulator.
- **SiPM [mV]**: The calculated SiPM peak voltage. This is a number calculated from the measured ADC value. It represents a number roughly proportional to the number of photons that triggered the SiPM. The conversion between the ADC value and the SiPM peak voltage is described in the calibration section of the instructions.pdf document.
- **Dead-time [ms]**: The total dead-time of the detector. This must be subtracted for any rate measurement from the elapsed time to determine the detector livetime.
- **Temp [°C]**: The measured temperature of the detector via the on-board TMP36 temperature sensor. Measured in degrees Celsius.
- **Name**: The detector name. The name is set using the naming.ino program. Requires data saved using method 2 or 3 from above.

When recording data to the microSD card using the SDCard.ino Arduino code, the **Comp_date**, **Comp_time**, and **Name** fields are omitted.

5.3.1 Setting detectors in master and coincidence mode

Many measurements in this document rely on the detectors operating in *coincidence mode*. This mode allows us to improve the purity of the cosmic ray muon sample by rejecting events that likely came from interactions from radioactive backgrounds. Coincidence mode requires two or more detectors connected together using a 3.5 mm male-to-male audio cable (I'll often refer to this as the *coincidence cable*). Once connected together, only one of the detectors requires power while the others are powered through the tip connection of the 3.5 mm cable. To set the detectors into the coincident configuration, simply reset the detectors while they are connected with the coincidence cable. The first detector to be reset becomes the *master* and the subsequent detectors, when reset within 10 ms to 2000 ms of the *master*, will become *coincident* detectors.

The master detector triggers on all events which create a pulse larger than the software defined threshold in the Arduino code. The coincident detector will only record events in which the master detector also triggered. These events are likely to be due to a cosmic ray muon, since the backgrounds and accidental coincidence are unlikely to trigger both detector simultaneously. A summary of why the purity of the cosmic ray muon signal increases when in coincidence mode is below.

- Alpha particles will not penetrate a single detector (either the aluminium enclosure or even the black electrical tape) and therefore cannot trigger both the master and coincident detector at the same time.
- Beta particles can be significantly attenuated by the aluminium case, and have a significant chance of scattering, thus loosing energy. It's unlikely that the beta particle will be able to deposit sufficient energy within the scintillator of the master, exit, then depositing sufficient energy in the coincidence detector.
- Gamma rays can penetrate the aluminium enclosure and plastic scintillator, however they have a significant chance of Compton scattering which will change the direction. If a gamma ray does interact with both detectors, this means that it likely Compton scattered off the scintillator slabs, lost sufficient energy to trigger the detector, then Compton scattered or photoelectrically absorbed in the second detector, also depositing sufficient energy to trigger the detector. This process is unlikely, and represents a small part of the coincidence signal (an estimate of this rate is found in Sec. 6.7).
- Accidental coincidences from random events are unlikely. This will be elaborated on in Sec. 6.
- A typical minimum ionizing muon passing through the slab of scintillator will typically deposit more than 2 MeV of energy in the scintillator, without being deflected. If the muon passes through both scintillators, it will likely trigger both detectors simultaneously.

Now that we understand how to build a detector, record data, and set up the detector into coincidence mode, we can begin making measurements. The remainder of this document will be dedicated to describing measurements we have previously made performed.

789 **6 Example measurements**

790 This section will describe a set of measurements made using the CosmicWatch Desktop Muon
791 Detectors (version 2) [43, 49]. This will be useful for those intending to use the detectors for educational
792 purposes and students who are trying to make their own measurements. The individual
793 measurements below attempt to provide compelling evidence for the physical processes described
794 in the first half of this document. Some of these measurements may be difficult for students
795 to perform, therefore we also provide the majority of the data and the scripts used to produce
796 these plots in the supplementary material. Reproducing these plots will require iPython to be
797 installed with a few extra libraries that are left up to the user.

798 When performing a measurement using the Desktop Muon Detectors, there are a few important
799 things to keep in mind.

800 1. The Arduino Nano is a relatively slow device, it is based off of an old processor called
801 an ATmega328P [4]. Although this makes it cheap to purchase, it also means that there are
802 subtleties that we should be aware of. A critical aspect of any rate measurement performed
803 with the Desktop Muon Detector, is that every command (such as adding two and two, or
804 printing the detector information to the serial port) takes time to perform. Accounting for
805 the time that each command takes is important since the detector is unable to trigger on an
806 event if the detector is busy. The term associated with the time we are unable to make a
807 measurement is *dead-time*. The dead-time is calculated in the Arduino code by measuring the
808 time each command takes in microseconds. This must be subtracted from the up-time in order
809 to accurately calculate the time that the detector was able to make a measurement; the result
810 is called *live-time*. Dead-time is a common feature in all particle physics detectors, however for
811 us it is particularly important due to the limited speed of the Arduino.

812 2. The detector orientation of the master and coincident when making a measurement will
813 have different characteristics. When making a coincidence measurement, it is important to
814 think about what is being measured, and how the orientation will effect the measurement. For
815 example, if we are interested in the angular spectrum of cosmic ray muons, we want to only
816 accept muons coming from a small solid angle. Fig. 12 shows several possible configurations
817 that are used in this document. The left side of Fig. 12, labelled as (a), shows two detectors
818 spaced a few centimetres apart, and connected with a coincidence cable. We see that only the
819 muons that travel downwards through the blue area are able to trigger both detectors. Whereas,
820 Fig. 12 (d) will trigger on muons that come in over a large solid angle.

821 3. Two independent events could have triggered both the master and coincident detector
822 accidentally if they happened to arrive within the coincidence time window. This becomes much
823 more likely at higher count rates. If we assume that the individual count rates are determined by
824 Poisson statistics, and that the two detectors are independent, then the probability of observing n
825 events when the mean number of events is expected to be μ , is given by the Poisson distribution:

$$f(n, \mu) = \frac{\mu^n e^{-\mu}}{n!} \quad (3)$$

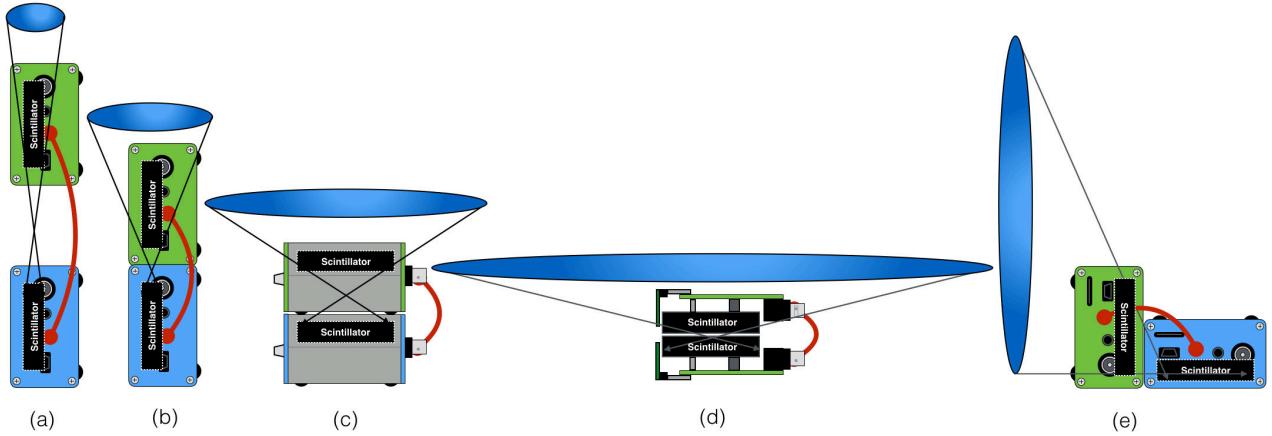


Figure 12: This figure shows several configurations for setting up the detectors in coincidence mode. Moving from left to right the solid angle subtended between detectors increases (illustrated as the blue ovals above the detectors) as well as the coincidence rate as measured by the coincident detector.

826

827 Following Ref. [9], let the count rate on the two detectors be N_1 and N_2 , and the coincidence
 828 window (the time window in which an event will be labelled as a coincident event) be τ . The
 829 average count rate for both detectors at sea level is approximately 1 Hz, and given a coincident
 830 time window of roughly $30\mu\text{s}$, we expect on average 0.000030 events in the time window ($N_{1,2} \times \tau$).
 831 Therefore, the probability of observing zero event in the time window is $f(0, 30 \times 10^{-6})$ and the
 832 probability of one detector observing an event in the coincident time window is $1 - f(0, 30 \times 10^{-6})$.
 833 Since the second detector could have also triggered first, then the rate of accidental triggers is:
 834 $R = 2N_1 N_2 \tau$. This corresponds to an accidental coincident rate for two detectors of 1 every
 835 15,000 events, or roughly six events per day using two detectors.

836 More generally, assuming that there are q detectors, each with the same baseline count rate N ,
 837 then the number of p -fold coincidence out of q detectors is:

$$R_p(q) = \binom{q}{p} p N^p \tau^{p-1} \quad (4)$$

838

839 **6.1 A coincidence measurement**

840 A coincidence measurement refers to a measurement in which we have extracted only the events
841 which have triggered multiple detectors within some time window. The time window when using
842 the 3.5 mm coincidence cable is approximately $30\mu\text{s}$. The implementation of this isn't obvious
843 when examining the Arduino code. It works by having the master detector immediately send
844 Pin 6 on the Arduino HIGH, each time it registers an event. The detector in coincidence mode
845 has its pin 6 set-up as an input. The 3.5 mm coincidence cable connects Pin 6 on both detectors
846 together through the ring terminal. When the coincidence detector registers an event, it first
847 waits approximately $30\mu\text{s}$ before checking to see if the Pin 6 is HIGH; if the pin is HIGH, it counts
848 the event, otherwise the event is dropped. The time window was chosen to accommodate the
849 slow ADC sampling time. A single ADC sample takes approximately $10\mu\text{s}$ (we've increased the
850 sampling speed using a *pre-scaler* in the Arduino code), which means that the master detector
851 may have triggered up to $10\mu\text{s}$ after the coincidence detector. Note that since the time window
852 is so large, we cannot determine which detector actually triggered first (a relativistic particle
853 will travel 9 km in $30\mu\text{s}$), therefore it doesn't matter if the coincidence detector is on-top or
854 below the master detector.

855 Typically, when a detector is placed
856 in coincidence mode, only the coincident
857 events are saved. For this measurement
858 however, we slightly modified the Arduino
859 code such that both the coincident and non-coincident
860 events are saved, and we label each
861 event to indicate what type it was.
862 Two detectors were placed into configura-
863 tion (d) of Fig. 12, and connected via a 3.5mm
864 coincidence cable. The calculated SiPM pulse
865 amplitude for this data set is shown
866 in Fig. 13. We see that the two
867 data subsets (coincident versus non-
868 coincident events) populate different
869 regions. This is due to the discussion
870 found in Sec. 3.1 and 5.3.1

873 In areas of high radioactive backgrounds, the non-coincident events may dominate the spectrum
874 even at 50 mV. The width of the peak shown in the coincident events at a SiPM peak voltage
875 of 50 mV can vary depending on how well the detector was built. For example, if the coupling
876 between the SiPM and scintillator was poor, the SiPM will observe fewer photons per event thus
877 reducing the resolution of the detector.

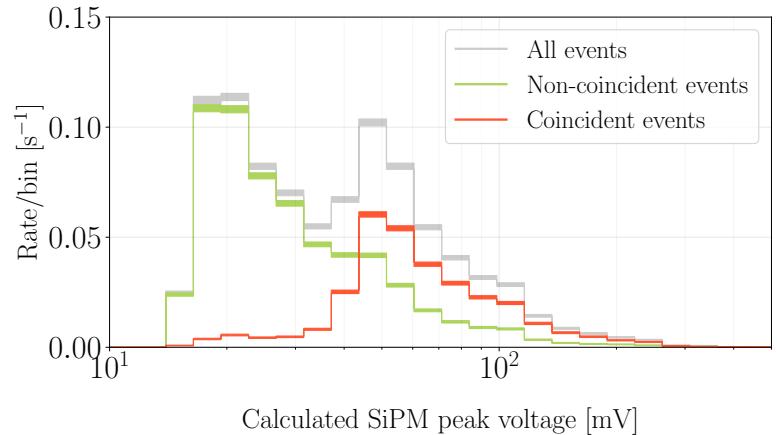


Figure 13: A coincidence measurement showing the calculated SiPM pulse amplitude for the coincident events and non-coincident events.

6.2 Measuring the cosmic ray muon rate in an airplane at 33,000 ft

A rate measurement was performed during a flight from the Boston International Logan Airport (BOS, latitude = 41.8°) to the Chicago O'Hare Airport (ORD, latitude = 41.8°) using a single detector. The data was recorded to a microSD card with and plugged into a 10,000 mAh USB power bank. The altitude of the airplane was collected from the flight records found in Ref. [52].

Fig. 14 (left) shows the trigger rate of the detector in blue as a function of time, binned into 60 second intervals. The error bars shown here are purely statistical. The altitude data of the airplane was linearly interpolated between points to estimate the altitude at any given minute. The interpolated altitude data was the fit to the detector data using a simple exponential plus an offset. Since we did not know the absolute take-off time (data was recorded to the microSD card), we allow the altitude time stamps to shift during the minimization. The best-fit equation is shown at the top left of this figure, where $\text{ALT}[t]$ represents altitude measured in kilometres as a function of time. The best-fit is also plotted in dashed red.

Fig. 14 (right) shows the measured trigger rate as a function of true altitude. Here, we show the exponential fit extended beyond the measured values. The count rate uncertainties were calculated by taking the square root of the sum all the events measured at a particular altitude. One thing to note is that this is data taken with a detector in master mode, which means it is also sensitive to the background radiation from the interior of the plane.

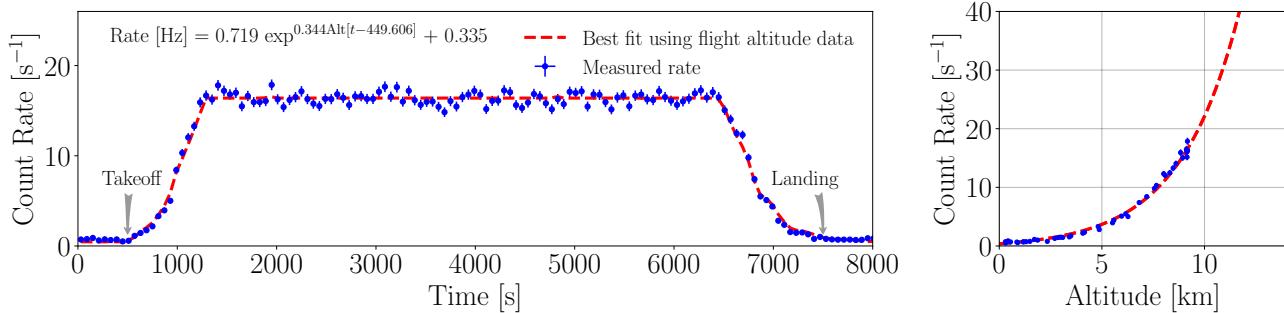


Figure 14: (Left) The count rate measured during a flight from Boston to Chicago as a function of altitude. The red-dashed line shows the actual amplitude of the airplane [52] scaled by a fitted exponential shown at the top left of the plot. (Right) The count rate as a function of altitude.

The cosmic ray muon flux is known to vary also as a function of latitude, which we have avoided by measuring the flux at a near constant latitude. We also expect the exponential fit to fail as we extend to higher altitude, due to the change in flux composition near the primary cosmic ray interaction region.

900 **6.3 High altitude balloon measurement at 107,000 ft**



Figure 15: An image from the high-altitude balloon flight at 107,000 ft. Photo from *Daniel Kaczmar - DNF Systems*.

901 As noted in Sec. 2.1, primary cosmic rays interacting
902 in the upper atmosphere produce showers of
903 particles, some of which decay to muons. Muons
904 are typically produced near an altitude of 15 km.
905 At higher altitudes, there is an increase in the contribu-
906 tion from other ionizing particles, primarily
907 from electrons/positrons, and protons.

908 During the NearSpace2018 conference [53] in Torun
909 Poland, we participated in a high-altitude balloon
910 (HAB) flight to measure the ionizing radiation flux
911 as a function of altitude. Two detectors were used
912 for the flight so that we could measure both the to-
913 tal rate on the master detector and the down-going
914 rate on the coincident detector. The detectors were
915 placed one-on-top of another (configuration (d) in
916 Fig. 12) and taped together to ensure their ori-
917 entation relative to each other remained the same
918 throughout the flight. The BNC connectors and
919 the OLED screens were removed from the PCB to
920 reduce the weight. An 8" 3.5 mm audio cable was used to connect them into coincidence mode
921 and the SDCard.ino code was uploaded to both detectors. An image of the two detectors is
922 shown in Fig. 16. Both detectors were powered by single cell lithium ion battery.

923 The temperature during the ascent was expected to reach -60°C , therefore thermal protection
924 was required both for the battery and in order to minimize the effect on the SiPM described in

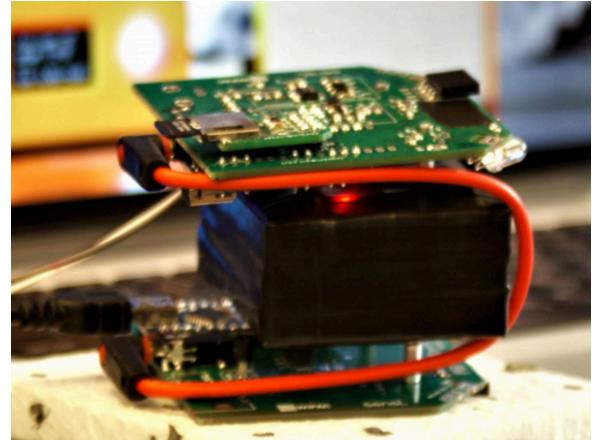


Figure 16: The two detectors flown in the HAB flight. The scintillators were taped together in order to preserve the detector orientation relative to each other.

925 Sec. 4.1. A $10 \times 10 \times 10$ cm 3 Styrofoam enclosure was constructed with a wall thickness of 1 cm,
 926 to house the components. This was sufficiently large that we could place the two detectors and
 927 a small heating element in the enclosure with two single-cell Lithium-ion batteries (one to power
 928 the detectors, and the other to power the heater). A micro-switch was connected to the battery
 929 and wired outside the enclosure so that we could power on the detector just prior to the flight.

930 The HAB was launched on September 22nd, 2018 at 12:53 pm. DFN System recorded the
 931 balloon altitude and location using on-board GPS, they also mounted a camera to the balloon
 932 that looked down at the payloads, an image near the maximum altitude of the flight is shown in
 933 Fig. 15. The master (orange) and coincident (green) detector count rate, binned in to 60 second
 934 intervals, is shown in Fig. 17, along with the altitude data from the GPS (black).

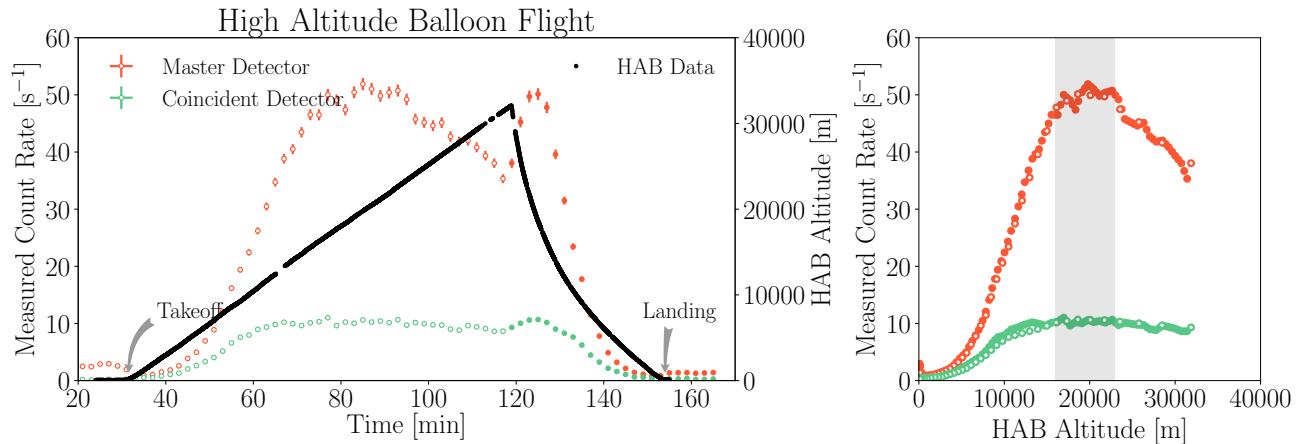


Figure 17: (Left) The measured trigger rate for the master (orange) and coincident (green) detector during the high-altitude balloon flight. Take-off occurred 30 minutes after powering on the detectors. The black data points correspond to the altitude as measured through the on-board GPS. (Right) The GPS altitude as a function of trigger rate. The uncertainty in both these plots are statistical.

935 The shape of the measured spectrum in Fig. 17 corresponds to the Pfotzer curve. We find an
 936 initial maximum count rate (Regener-Pfotzer maximum) for the master detector at an altitude
 937 from approximately 16-23 km approximately 70-95 minutes into the measurement. After the
 938 balloon popped (at minute 118), the detectors fell through the Regener-Pfotzer maximum. The
 939 decrease in the trigger rate after passing the maximum occurs due to the detectors ascending
 940 beyond the primary interaction region.

941 The coincidence detector shows a flatter maximum at an altitude from approximately 12-25 km.
 942 The peak begins at lower altitudes since we are now preferentially triggering on vertically down-
 943 going particles. As described in Sec. 2.1.2, primary particles entering in the Earth's atmosphere
 944 at larger angles from the zenith, will interact at higher altitudes; in agreement with the data.



Figure 18: Leaving McMurdo Station, Antarctica on a C-130 Hercules for the South Pole Station.

945 6.4 Muon rate measurement while flying to the South Pole

946 In December 2018, I flew to the South Pole as part of a field team to perform maintenance and
 947 upgrades on the IceCube Neutrino Observatory [54]. During the flight I measured the ionizing
 948 radiation with two detectors orientated in configuration (d) of Fig. 12. Data was recorded to
 949 the microSD cards and powered through a single 30,000 mAh power bank.

950 The first four flights (from Madison, WI USA to Christchurch, New Zealand) were operated by
 951 United Airlines and New Zealand Airlines. The altitude data was publicly available for these
 952 flights on FlightAware.com [52]. The flight leaving from Christchurch New Zealand, to McMurdo
 953 Antarctica, was on a C-17 military jet operated by the US Air Force. Similarly, we flew on a
 954 C-130 Hercules, the day after to the South Pole. Since these were military flights, the altitude
 955 of this flight was not available, however several altitude measurements on the second flight
 956 were made using GPS. We landed several days later on the 2700 m thick South Pole glacier,
 957 approximately 0.5 km from the actual Geographical South Pole.

958 The full master and coincident detector data are shown in Fig. 19, with descriptions of each
 959 flight in the text boxes. To give perspective for other measurements, the total data collected
 960 by the master detector was about 50 Mb, whereas the coincidence detector was approximately
 961 15 Mb.

962 Fig. 19 illustrates several very interesting properties. First, there is a trend towards lower count
 963 rates near the equator, this is due to the latitudinal variation in the cosmic ray flux described

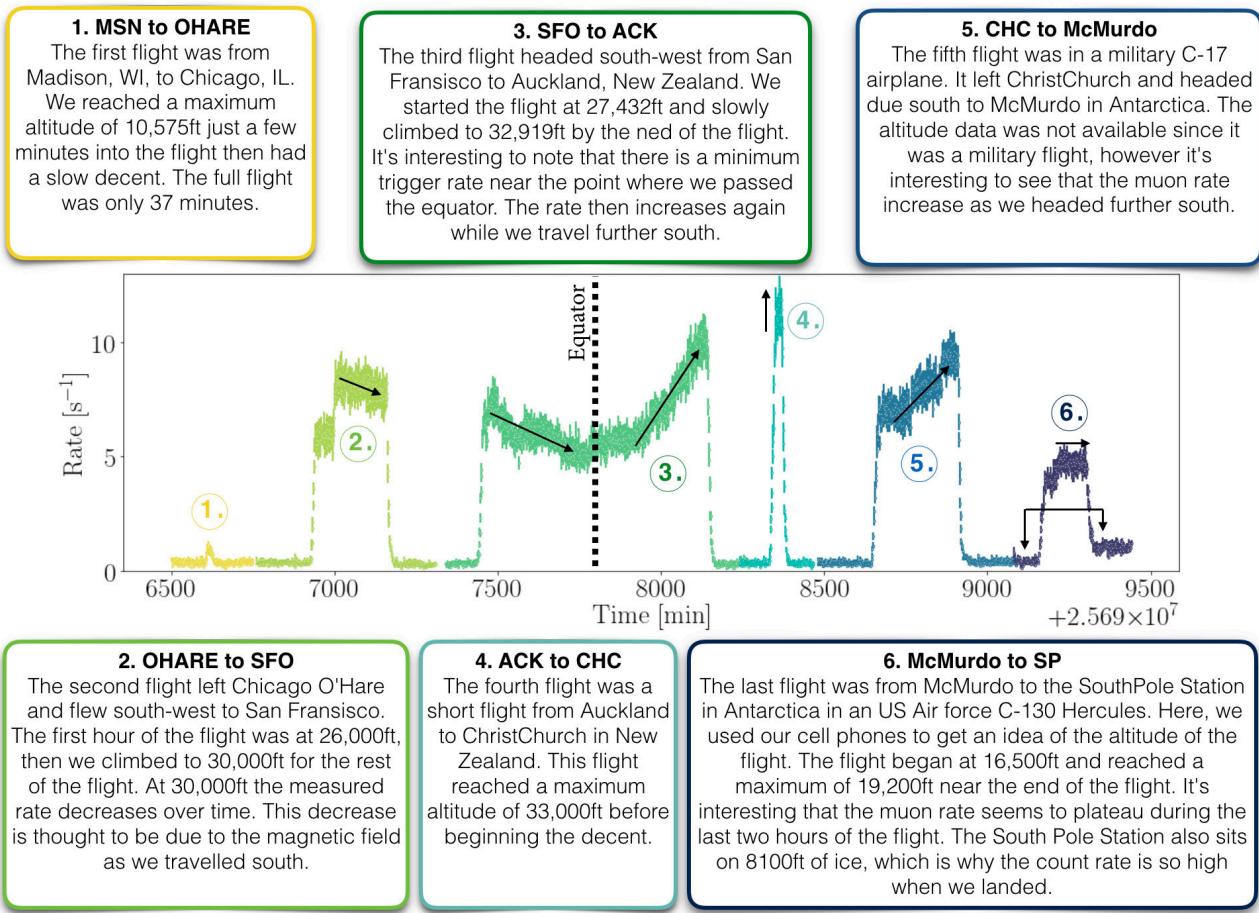


Figure 19

in Sec. 2.1.2. This effect is most obvious in the flight from SFO to ACK, which travelled at nearly a constant altitude and a constant rate of latitude change from $+32^\circ$ to -32° . We see that the rate is not symmetric. This is because the magnetic latitude is offset from the geographical latitude, therefore the magnetic field isn't symmetric about the equator. Second, it's interesting to see that when we landed at the South Pole, there is a noticeable change in trigger rate due to the combination of the elevation and change in Earth's magnetic field.

While flying through equator at 35,000 ft, I performed an East-West measurement using configuration (e) of Fig. 12. We measure a count rate coming from the east of 0.69 ± 0.02 cps, while from the west 0.84 ± 0.03 cps. This represents a $22.2 \pm 7.4\%$ increase in the westward direction. This east-west asymmetry is described in Sec. 2.1.2.

974 **6.5 Latitude correction to the cosmic ray muons**

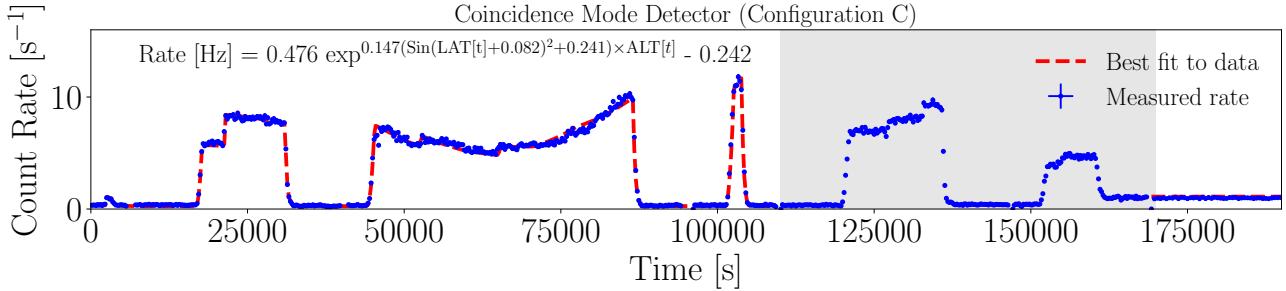


Figure 20: The fitted data based on the altitude and latitude data from the first four flights. The fit also includes a measurement after landing at the South Pole, where the altitude and latitude were known (2700 m and -90°). The two flights military flights were not included in the fit.

975 We observed latitudinal variation in the cosmic ray
976 muon rate in the previous measurements. This was
977 an expected effect due to the change in the Earth's
978 magnetic field as a function of latitude. Here, we
979 will empirically attempt to account for the varia-
980 tion in the latitude and altitude based on the previ-
981 ous measurement. We will assume that the change
982 in the rate as a function latitude follows a sine-
983 squared form; where the minimum occurs near the
984 equator and the maximum occurs near the poles:

$$R[\text{Hz}] = N \exp^{\alpha(\sin(\text{LAT}[t]+\theta)^2+\beta) \times \text{ALT}[t]} - b \quad (5)$$

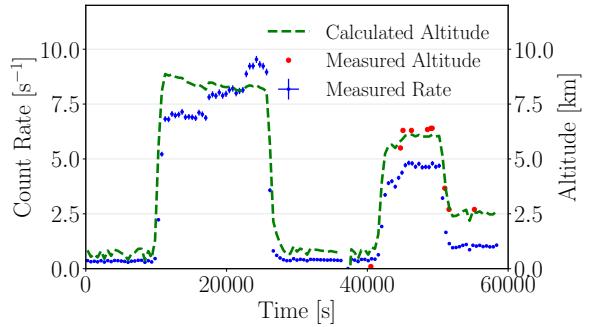


Figure 21: The measured muon rate along with the calculated flight altitude in green. Red shows the few measurements made on the actual altitude..

985 Here, θ represents a phases that offsets the latitude
986 to account for the difference between the geographical latitude and the magnetic latitude, β is a
987 factor that permits an altitude effect at the magnetic equator (set the sine term to zero), α is a
988 scale factor that dictates the strength of the latitudinal and altitude effect, N is a normalization
989 that sets the scale for the exponential component, and b is an offset that accounts for a constant
990 background radiation.

992 Fig. 20 uses the function in Eq. 6.5 to fit the data for the first four flights, plus the data after
993 landing at the South Pole. The best fit values are shown at the top left of Fig. 20. Using this
994 result, we can then invert formula Eq. 6.5 to calculate the altitude of the two military flights
995 (assuming we flew at a constant velocity directly south). The calculated altitude is shown in
996 Fig. 21 for the military flights in green, as well as the measured altitude from GPS in red.

997 6.6 Cosmic-ray muon rate at various locations on Earth

998 Acquiring data at different elevations above sea level can be challenging since many locations
 999 do not have immediate access to large changes in elevations. During 2018, we recorded the
 1000 muon rate at various locations on the planet that we visited. Each measurement was performed
 1001 in configuration (c) of Fig. 12 using the coincidence connection, and all data was recorded
 1002 to the microSD card. The altitude data of each location was found through Google and not
 1003 corrected for changes due to geological features or the altitude of the measuring location (future
 1004 measurements will use GPS to give a more accurate altitudes). The exception being the altitude
 1005 data for the trans-Atlantic flight and the HAB measurement, whose altitude data was found
 1006 using FlightAware.com and GPS respectively. Fig 22 shows the measured count rate at various
 1007 locations (the trans-Atlantic flight data was recorded at an altitude of 33,000 ft and high-altitude
 1008 balloon measurement was taken from the Pforzheim maximum described in Sec. 6.3).

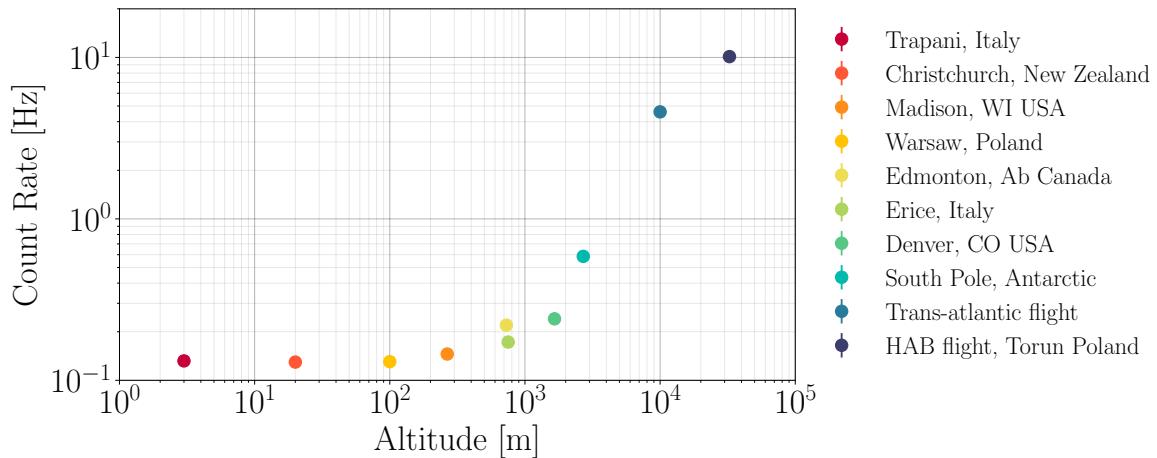


Figure 22: The coincident detector count rate at various locations throughout the world. The trans-Atlantic flight rate was measured at 30,000ft, while the high-altitude balloon data was simply the count-rate at the Pforzheim maximum described in Section 6.3. The statistical error bars of each point are smaller than the marker size.

1009 As expected, at higher altitudes, we observe a statistically significant change in the measured
 1010 count rate. An interesting exception is noted when comparing the measurement at Sherwood
 1011 Park, Alberta Canada, versus Erice, Sicily Italy. They are both at approximately the same
 1012 the same altitude and latitude, however there is a 27% measured rate difference between the
 1013 two. This is thought to be due to the electromagnetic component of the shower not being
 1014 properly shielded in the measurement in Canada. The Erice measurement was performed in a
 1015 large concrete tower with several concrete floors above the detectors, while the measurement in
 1016 Canada was performed on the ground floor of a two story wooden house. The lack of shielding
 1017 against the electromagnetic component of the atmospheric flux is thought to be the primary
 1018 source of this discrepancy.

1019 6.7 Rate measurement 1 km underground at Super-Kamiokande



Figure 23: Dr. Katarzyna Frankiewicz floating in the inner detector of Super-Kamiokande during the Gadolinium upgrade 2018.

1020 Two Desktop Muon Detectors were brought to the Kamioka Observatory located 1 km under-
1021 ground in the Mozumi Mine, Japan. This mine is home to several high profile experiments, per-
1022 haps most notably the 2015 Nobel prize winning particle physics experiment, Super-Kamiokande.
1023 Two detectors were placed in the Super-Kamiokande control room for 8 hours, and connected
1024 together via a 6-inch 3.5 mm audio cable in configuration (c) of Fig. 12. The data was recorded
1025 from the coincidence detector through the import_data.py, directly to a laptop. Using the same
1026 detectors and set-up, a rate measurement was also performed outside the Kamioka mine in
1027 the observatory dormitory and in the airplane at 36,000 ft when travelling between Warsaw to
1028 Tokyo. Fig. 24 shows the trigger rate of the *coincident* detector for these three measurements,
1029 as a function of calculated SiPM peak voltage.

1030 The total number of measured coincident events measured inside the Super-Kamiokande control
1031 room was found to be 101. It was found that 96% of these events were found to be located
1032 below the 50 mV peak described in Sec. 6.1, indicating that these are likely not minimum
1033 ionizing cosmic ray muons.

1034 The average rock density in the mine was measured to be 2.7 g/cm^3 , corresponding to approx-
1035 imately 2,700 m.w.e. (meter-water equivalent) of overburden[7]. Based on this, we expect the
1036 cosmic ray muon rate to be attenuated by a factor of 10^5 compared to a ground level measure-
1037 ment. With this assumption, we only expect approximately 0.04 cosmic ray muon events over
1038 the 8-hour measurement in the Super-Kamiokande control room.

1039 The master detector count rate did not significantly change when it was brought into the mine,

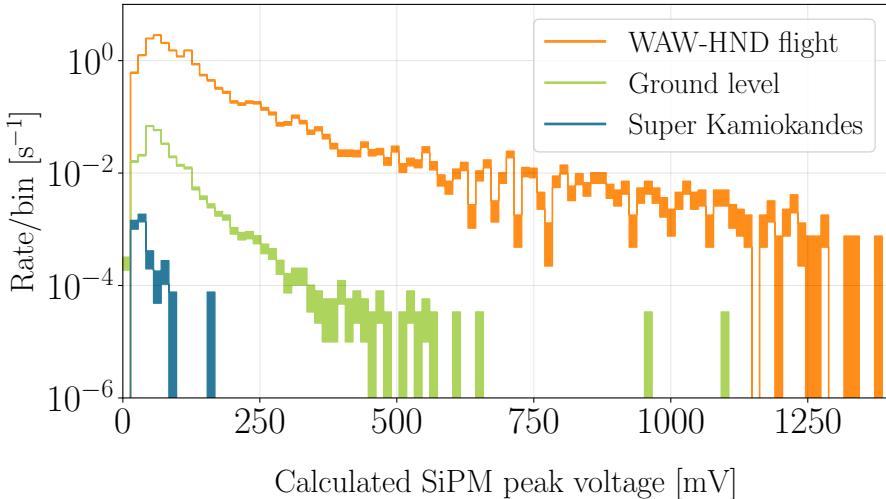


Figure 24: The measured coincidence rate at three locations. Data from Ref. [43].

indicating that the radioactive background was still present in the control room. Given that the master detector count rate was 1 Hz, Eq. 6 suggests that we should expect 1-2 accidental coincidence events over the 8-hour period (see Sec. 6).

An unaccounted background that was briefly mentioned in Sec. 3.3, was events in which a gamma-ray from a radioactive decay, Compton scattered off of the scintillator of the master detector, and were then absorbed, or deposited sufficient energy in the coincident detector scintillator. This is thought to be the dominant source of triggers in this dataset, and a Monte Carlo simulation is currently being developed to investigate this. If these events originate from Compton scattering, we can estimate the rate for these types of events. Given the 101 events (and 1-2 of these are assumed to be accidental coincidences and cosmic ray muons), the calculated accidental Compton scattering coincidence rate in configuration (c) from Fig. 12 is found to be 0.0038 ± 0.0004 . A second 8-hour run was performed using the same configuration and location, which found 92 events (with a similar SiPM peak voltage spectrum) corresponding to a count rate of 0.0035 ± 0.0004 .

This result could be further investigated by repeating the measurement, however this time with a thin piece of lead between the scintillator. Lead, being a dense material, is likely to either absorb the gamma-ray or absorb some of the energy from the gamma-ray through Compton scattering – both processes would reduce the probability of measuring the event with the coincident detector. Another potential source for these events is correlated noise. If the lead does not alter the coincident count rate, this is a potential source for this signal, however, thus far, we have not found any evidence of events due to noise.

1061 6.8 Cosmic ray muon angular distribution

1062 This measurement illustrates the cosmic ray muon angular dependence measured near sea level
 1063 (it was performed in Madison WI, at 266 m above sea level) and was previously described
 1064 in Ref. [43]. Here, two detectors were set to coincidence mode and placed side-by-side as in
 1065 configuration (a) of Fig. 12, spaced 52 mm apart, inside their aluminium enclosure. The distance
 1066 was chose such that we gain sufficient statistics throughout a single day of measuring. If the
 1067 detectors are placed too far apart, the count rate drops significantly and accidental coincidences
 1068 can dominate the signal.

1069 The angle of the detectors was determined by securing the detectors to a 100 cm long rectangular
 1070 bar and then positioning the bar against a wall at a known height (see Fig. 25 (right)). It
 1071 is important when making this measurement that the angle of the detectors are accurately
 1072 measured. Fig. 25 (left) shows the measured relative rate as a function of zenith angle (with
 1073 zero radians representing vertical). Each data point represents approximately 10 hours of data
 1074 and the rate uncertainties are statistical. The horizontal uncertainties represent the calculated
 1075 opening angle of the two detectors when spaced 52 mm apart. The measurement at $\theta = \pi/2$ is
 1076 divided by a factor of 2, since at this angle it accepts cosmic-ray muons from both directions,
 1077 whereas all the other angles only accept down going muons.

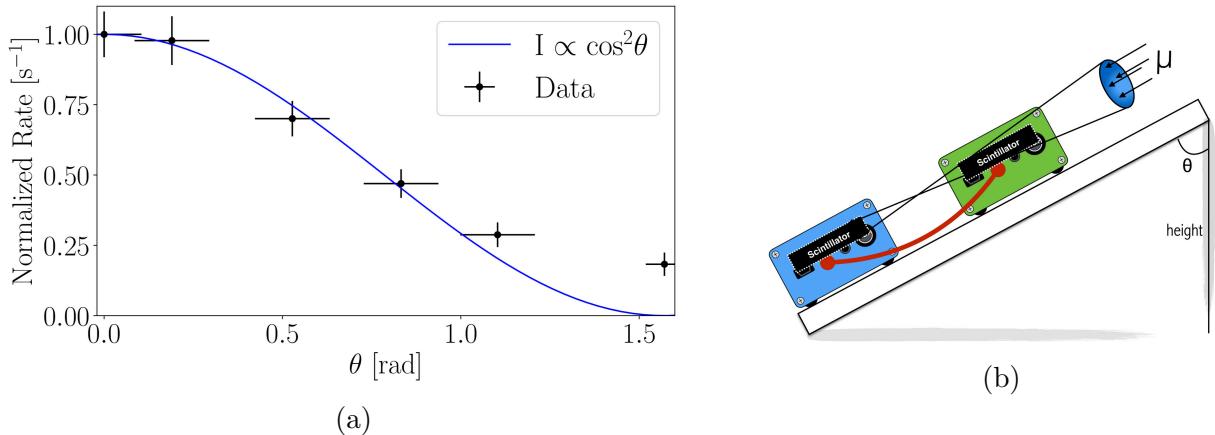


Figure 25: The measured cosmic ray muon angular distribution measured by the coincident detector when connected in coincidence mode. The prediction by the PDG is shown in solid blue. From Ref. [43].

1078 As indicated in Sec. 2.1.2, the angular cosmic ray muon dependence at sea level should follow
 1079 a cosine squared dependence. The overall measured shape of the distribution is found to agree
 1080 relatively well with the cosine squared prediction, however it is shown that the rate does not
 1081 fall completely to zero in the horizontal configuration ($\theta = \pi/2$). This is currently under
 1082 investigation, and could be related to large cosmic ray showers, showers developing in the roof
 1083 above the detector, or perhaps muons producing either high energy electrons photons along the
 1084 track that can trigger both detectors.

1085 **6.9 Electromagnetic component of cosmic ray showers**

1086 We've discussed in Sec. 2.1 that at sea level, there is still have a flux of electrons and positrons
1087 (with energies $< 1\text{GeV}$) showering down on the Earth. We then discussed in Sec. 3.2 that this
1088 electromagnetic component is not particularly penetrating and can be significantly attenuated
1089 with a few tens of cm of concrete (the radiation length in concrete found in Table 1 is 10.7 cm).
1090 We can test this claim by measuring the coincidence rate on top of a building, then again several
1091 floors lower.

1092 We expect a minimal attenuation of the comic ray
1093 muons, however a significant attenuation of the
1094 electromagnetic component. A typical building
1095 may have 15 cm of concrete between each floor. If
1096 we measure the vertical muon rate on the top floor,
1097 then again 5 floors lower, we expect the energy of
1098 the electromagnetic component to be attenuated
1099 by 7 radiation lengths (a factor of 1000).

1100 Two detectors were place in coincidence mode one-
1101 on-top of the other in configuration (c) of Fig. 12.
1102 They were placed on the roof-top of the 10-floor
1103 WiPAC building for 24-hours inside a plastic bag to
1104 protect them against the weather. After the mea-
1105 surement, the same two detectors were placed on
1106 the 5th floor, and the measurement was repeated.
1107 The results of the measurement are shown in Fig. 26.

1108 We see that the rate on top of the building is 27% higher than that of the measurement made on
1109 the 5th floor. The attenuation of this component is thought to be mostly due to the elimination
1110 of the electromagnetic component.

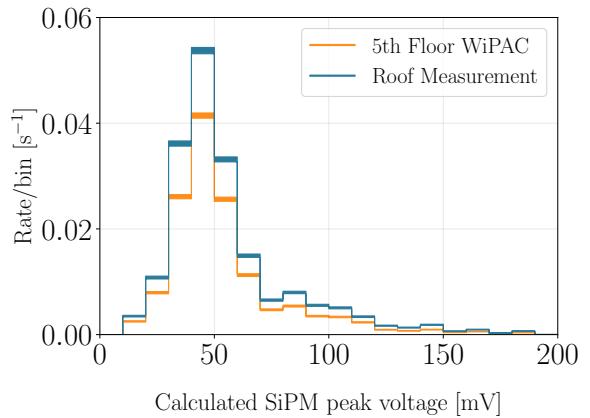


Figure 26: aaa

1111 **6.10 Correlation between the cosmic ray muon rate and atmospheric
1112 pressure**

1113 A correlation exists between the atmospheric pressure and the cosmic ray muon rate. It can be
1114 expressed as follows:

$$\frac{\Delta I}{\bar{I}} = \beta \Delta P, \quad (6)$$

1115 where I represents cosmic ray muon intensity, ΔP is the measured atmospheric pressure com-
1116 pared to the average pressure, and β is the barometric coefficient [55]. This correlation is actually
1117 the result of several processes outlined in Sec. 2.1.2. The barometric coefficient represents the
1118 percent change in detector count rate per hPa change in atmospheric pressure.

1119 For this measurement, we decided to use an array of master-coincident detectors to improve the
1120 statistics. Five pairs of detectors were each connected in configuration (c) of Fig. 12, and left
1121 to record the cosmic ray muon rate over the course of 24.8 days (from 13:35 hrs Nov. 12th to
1122 09:00 hrs Dec. 7th 2018.). Data was recorded directly to a microSD card and powered through
1123 an 8-way USB hub powered through a wall outlet. Since the Arduino does not keep accurate
1124 time over long time-scales, we assume the time drifts linearly with time, and scale the uptime
1125 of all detectors such that they are all the same. This is not ideal, and we would recommend
1126 recording the data directly to a computer through the import_data.py in the future to get an
1127 accurate time stamp on all events. The array of detectors was placed in the 4th floor WiPAC
1128 lab in Madison, WI. Atmospheric pressure for Madison was found in Ref. [56].

1129 Fig. 27 (left) shows the correlation between the detector count rate and the atmospheric pressure.
1130 The calculated correlation is shown in the dotted white line. A least squares fit yielded a
1131 barometric coefficient of $-0.141 \pm 0.007 \text{ \%}/\text{hPa}$, in agreement with Ref. [57].

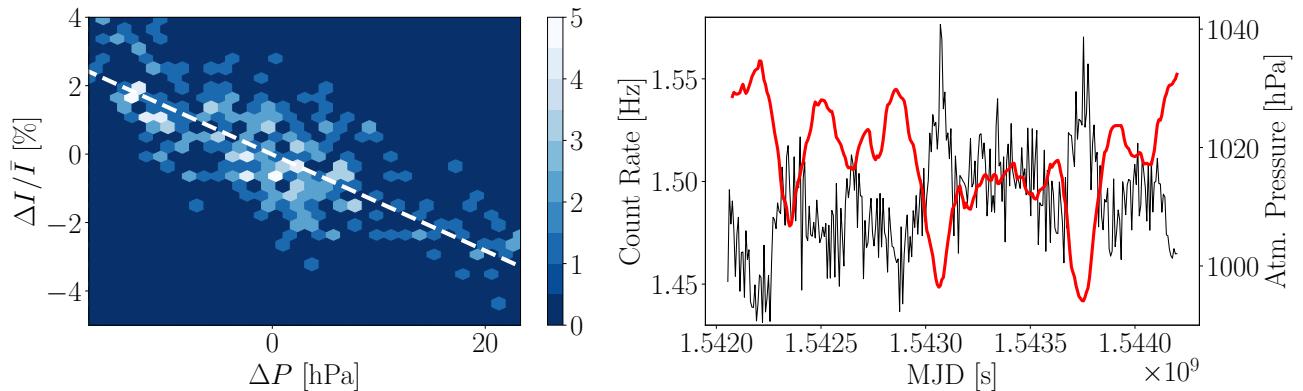


Figure 27: Left: The correlation between the atmospheric pressure and the detector count rate. Right: The detector count rate in blue and the atmospheric pressure in red as a function of modified Julian date (MJD). Both plots show the data binned with a bin size of two hours.

1132 6.11 Reducing the radioactive backgrounds

1133 It can be difficult to shield against the natural radioactivity found in the environment. Typically
 1134 at sea level, the largest component of our signal comes from radioactive backgrounds and
 1135 therefore it would be useful to think about how we can minimize this to improve the purity of
 1136 the cosmic ray muon component of the signal (beyond setting detectors into coincidence mode).

1137 Dense material placed around the detector can attenuate the incoming flux from the background radiation.
 1138 Ideally, we would choose a material that itself is radio-pure, however we can illustrate the
 1139 effect using bricks of lead. Six lead ingots (each measuring 2" x 4" x 8") were positioned in such a way
 1140 to provide 4π coverage around a single detector.
 1141 The detector recorded data directly to the microSD card throughout a full day, then, it was placed
 1142 on a workbench in the same room (far away from the lead), to measure the background spectrum for
 1143 another full day. The resulting calculated SiPM
 1144 peak voltage for the two measurements is shown in Fig. 28. As expected, this is shown to significantly
 1145 reduce the event that contribute to the low SiPM peak voltage region which is dominated by
 1146 the radioactive background.
 1147

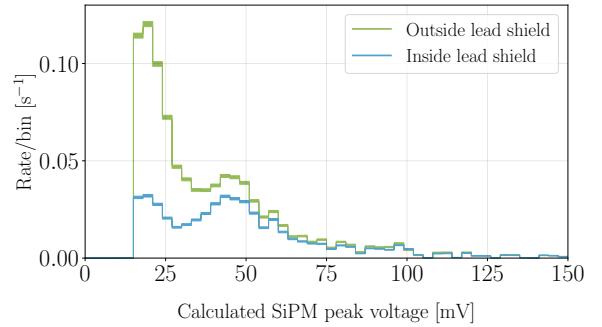


Figure 28: The effect of surrounding a single detector in a lead enclosure.

1148 another full day. The resulting calculated SiPM
 1149 peak voltage for the two measurements is shown in
 1150 Fig. 28. As expected, this is shown to significantly
 1151 reduce the event that contribute to the low SiPM peak voltage region which is dominated by
 1152 the radioactive background.

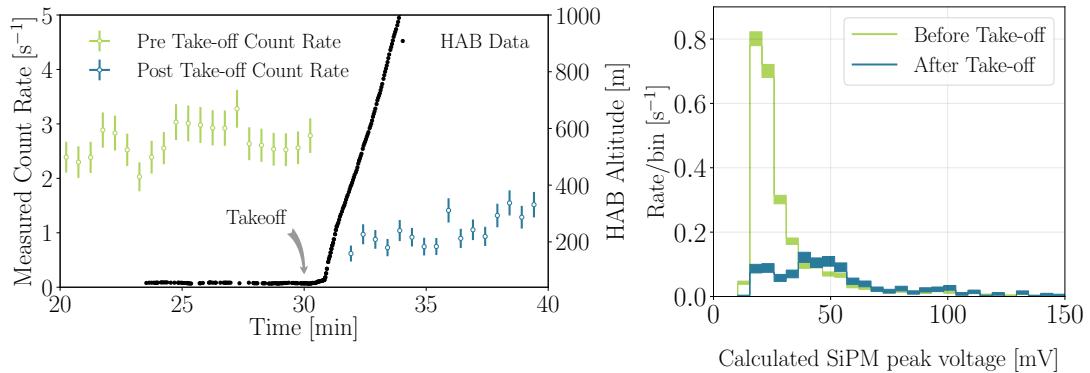


Figure 29: Left: The master detector count rate from the HAB measurement of Sec. 6.3 near take-off. Right: The calculated SiPM peak voltage for pre and post take off. Pre-take-off shown in green, and post take-off shown in blue.

1153 Another measurement that illustrates the effect of background radiation unexpectedly came
 1154 from the HAB flight described in Sec. 6.3. When the balloon pulled the detectors off of the
 1155 ground, there was a significant decrease in the master detector trigger rate as shown in Fig. 29
 1156 (left). Fig. 29 (right) shows the calculated SiPM peak voltage just prior to take-off and after
 1157 take-off. After take-off, we see the decrease in count rate came from the low-voltage region
 1158 which we've indicated primarily consists of the background radiation (see Sec. 6.1).

1159 **6.12 Common sources of radioactivity**

1160 Some common commercially available materials contain radioactive isotopes. Most of them
1161 originate in some form from the daughters of uranium and thorium decay. Table 2 shows a list
1162 we've compiled of items that we have found to contain a measurable amount of radioactivity
1163 using the detectors.

Table 2: Commercially available radioactive sources that are capable of triggering the detectors.
Further details will be added later.

Material	Description
Thorium welding rod	
Thorium lantern net	
Decorative Uranium beads	
Fiesta diner wear	
Uranium glassware	
Potassium salts	
Uranium ores	
Granite	
Old wrist watches	
Tritium wrist watch	
Apricots or Bananas	

1164 Beyond the list above, it can be instructional to show that the detector isn't sensitive to alpha
1165 radiation. Some smoke detectors contain Americium which is an alpha emitter, and when placed
1166 near the detector, the rate was found not to significantly change. There are also commercially
1167 available radioactive button source kits as well, that can be educational. Using radioactive
1168 sources, we can also illustrate the $1/r^2$ (where r represents the distance between the scintillator
1169 and the radioactive source) fall off with distance away from the source.

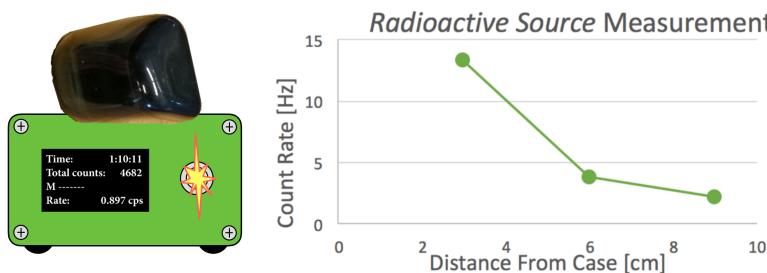


Figure 30: The measured trigger rate as a function of distance between using a rock containing uranium and a detector.

1170 **6.13 Portable trigger system for an accelerator beamline**

1171 This measurement was previously described in Ref. [43] and represents a practical use for the
1172 Desktop Muon Detectors.

1173 A single detector, powered by a 10,000 mAh USB power bank, was placed in the Fermilab M-
1174 Test facility to trigger on secondary particles (GeV-scale pions and electrons) from the Main
1175 Injector. The purpose of this was to trigger a downstream data acquisition system for another
1176 experiment. The BNC output at the back of the detector is the raw SiPM pulse which has a few
1177 nanoseconds rise time and a decay time of roughly $0.5 \mu\text{s}$. This signal is useful for experiments
1178 that want to use a scintillators but require tens of nanosecond timing. The BNC output was
1179 connected to an 80 ft BNC cable to a NIM Module. The signal passed through a $\times 10$ amplifier
1180 and into a discriminator. If the amplified signal was above a certain value, a binary signal was
1181 sent to a AND gate, where it was compared against another scintillator paddle trigger that
1182 was located on the other side of the other experiment. If the AND condition was satisfied (ie.
1183 the particle passed through both the scintillator paddle and the Desktop Muon Detector) a
1184 binary signal was sent to the data acquisition system that began the recording of data of the
1185 downstream experiment. Fig. 31 shows the trigger rate as a function of time; the beam spills
1186 occur every minute for two seconds.

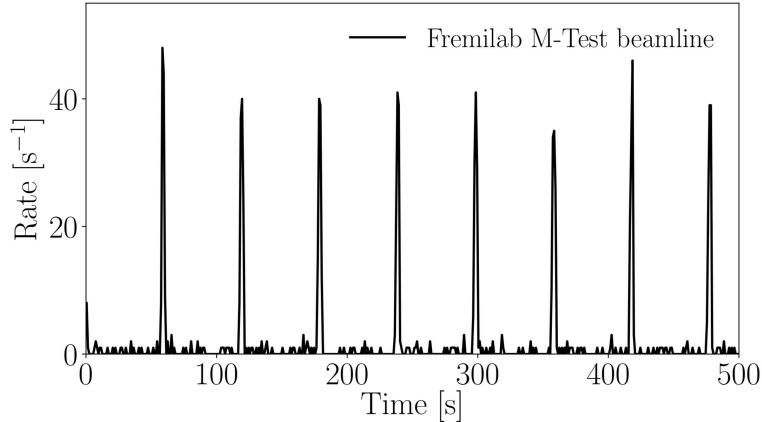


Figure 31: The trigger rate as a function of time of a single detector placed in the Fermilab M-Test beamline. Here, the detector is triggering primarily on GeV-scale pions and electrons from the Fermilab Main Injector.

1187 The detector was found to be a useful beamline trigger due to its simplicity. This ability was
1188 made possible by including a BNC output connected directly to the SiPM. For this measurement,
1189 the approximate 10 ns uncertainty in the trigger was acceptable, however if users would like to
1190 use the FAST output of the SiPM, the SiPM PCB could be modified to get down to single ns
1191 precision. We plan on investigating this sometime in the future.

1192 **6.14 A true random number generator**

1193 Many applications require random numbers. Often, a random number may be generated through
 1194 some algorithm, but this therefore becomes deterministic since if the user knew the algorithm
 1195 and starting conditions, they could determine the output. A random number generator would
 1196 ideally be generated from a random process, such as the arrival times of cosmic ray muons or
 1197 the decay of an isotope. The sum of two random processes will also be random, such as the
 1198 background data from the detectors. Here, I'm following the description found in Ref. [9].

1199 Any number can be expressed in terms of a sequence of ones and zeros, this is known as binary.
 1200 An N-length sequence is able to represent a number from zero to 2^N . For example, the 4-bit
 1201 binary sequence “1011”, corresponds to $1 \times (4^2) + 0 \times (3^2) + 1 \times (2^2) + 1 \times (1^2) = 8 + 0 + 2 + 1 = 11$.

1202 We can convert the time stamp of a radioactive decay trigger into a “1” or a “0” using a *toggle*
 1203 *flip-flop*. The toggle flip-flop is simply a state that changes from one to zero periodically (we
 1204 will use a frequency of 1 kHz). If a particle passes through the scintillator during an even time
 1205 stamp (as measured in milliseconds), we assign it a “1”, if it passes through an odd time stamp,
 1206 we assign it a “0”. After N trigger, we can build an N-bit random number. This is schematically
 1207 illustrated in Fig. 32.

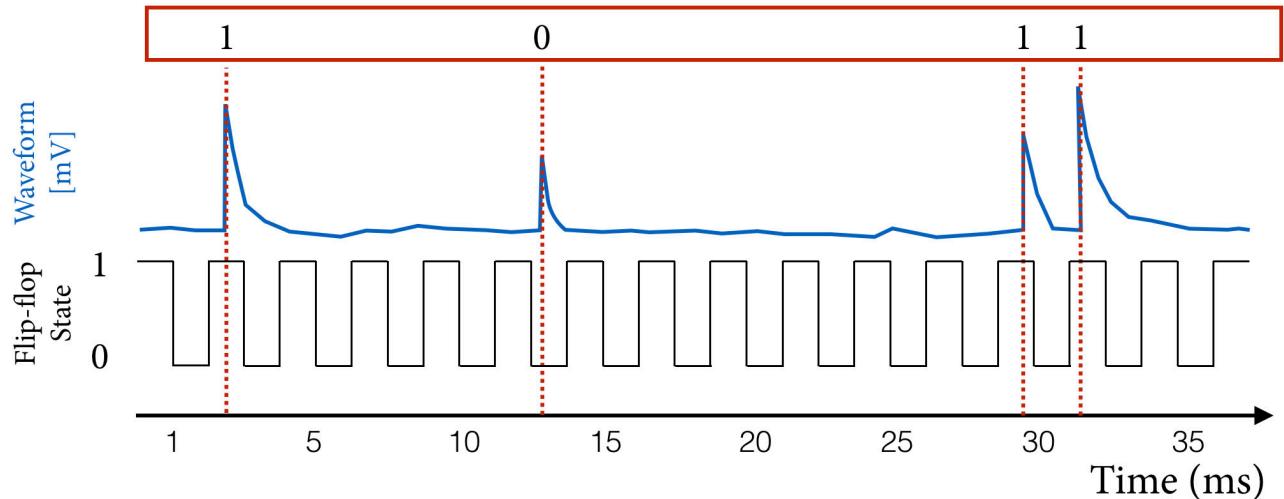


Figure 32: An illustrative diagram of the principle behind the random number generator. The x-axis indicates the time measure in milliseconds. Above this, we have the toggle flip-flop which changes state every millisecond, then an illustrative waveform shown in blue. If the event triggered the detector while in the even state of the flip flop, we assign it a one, otherwise, we assign it a zero. This is shown in the red box at the top of the diagram.

1208 For this measurement, we use data taken from a 20-day background lab measurement. A single
 1209 detector was used. After triggering on t total events, we can build t/N N-bit random numbers.
 1210 To illustrate this, if we chose to generate 8-bit random numbers (from 0 to 255), we can plot
 1211 the number of each occurrence. This is shown in Fig. 33.

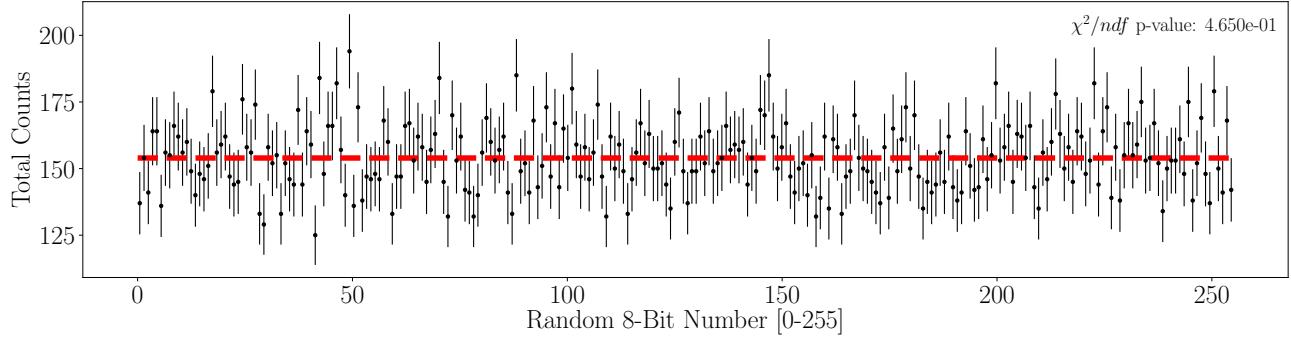


Figure 33: The number of occurrences of the generated numbers from 0-255. The reduced χ^2 assuming that the distribution should be randomly distributed about the average number of occurrences is given at the top right of the figure.

1212 Fig. 33 shows the random nature of the triggers. Each number should be equally probable to
 1213 occur. The reduced χ^2 indicates a p-value for this assumption shown in the top right of the
 1214 plot.

1215 There are several ways that the random number generator can become biased. First, let's think
 1216 about extreme scenarios. Suppose that the trigger rate is roughly 1 Hz, and the flip-flop state
 1217 only changes every 10 seconds. The first roughly ten triggers would give all ones, then the next
 1218 roughly triggers would give all zeroes. The first numbers would be biased high, while the later
 1219 numbers would be biased low. With this extreme example, we see that we need the toggle flip-
 1220 flop to be changing states at a much higher rate than the trigger rate. Secondly, suppose that
 1221 the Arduino does not produce equal numbers of even and odd time stamps due to the internal
 1222 configuration. We found this to be the case when using the microseconds() Arduino function,
 1223 that is, it only reported the time stamp to the nearest even microsecond.

1224 **6.15 The Poissonian nature of radioactive decay**

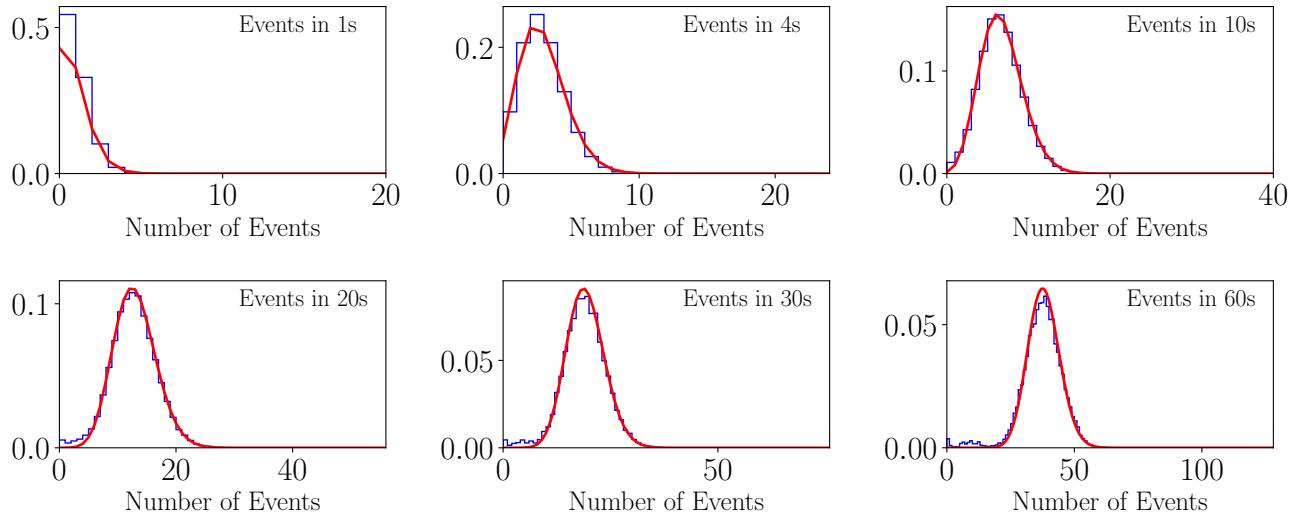


Figure 34: The distribution of count rates, where every entry is measured in a binning time which is labelled at the top right of each cell. The red line is the expected distribution if the data follows Eq. 6.

1225 A Poissonian process is one in which an event happens
 1226 that is completely independent of the occurrence of an-
 1227 other event. This is the case for many processes in na-
 1228 ture: for example, the when atom decays, or the arrival
 1229 times of cosmic rays. The expected probability of ob-
 1230 serving N events in a time interval t of a Poissonian
 1231 process, with an average count rate μ is defined by the
 1232 *Poisson distribution*, Eq. 6.

1233 This example uses the same dataset from the previous
 1234 measurement, however, here we bin the data into bins
 1235 of width t and then histogram the number of measured
 1236 events in that time window. This is shown in Fig. 34.

1237 If a process is Poissonian, the time between successive
 1238 events will follow an exponential. This means that the
 1239 most likely time to observe a radioactive decay occurs
 1240 immediately. A plot of the livetime between successive
 1241 events is shown in Fig. 35 with a fitted exponential.

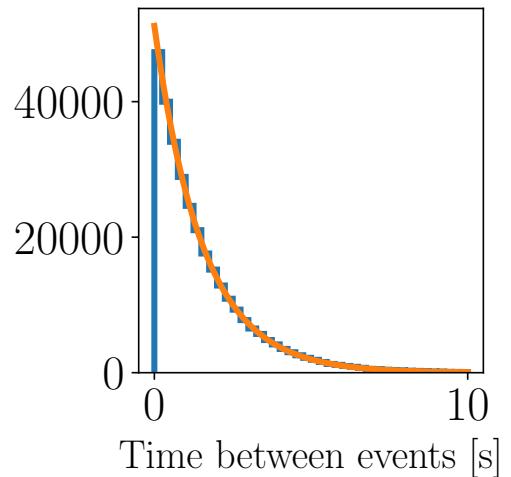


Figure 35: The time between events with an exponential fit.

1242 6.16 Future measurements

1243 This section compiles a list of potential future experiments that we intend to perform. After
1244 gather and analysing the data, these will be added into Sec. 6.

- 1245 1. **Muon rate underwater:** Physicists typically report the equivalent overburden in terms
1246 of how much water would provide the equivalent shielding. A measurement in actual
1247 water can be useful since it provides a homogeneous material and is abundant. We will
1248 attempt to measure the attenuation as a function of depth in a deep lake/ocean. Initially,
1249 we should observe a steep decrease due to the electromagnetic component dropping out,
1250 then a slow decrease as a function of depth.
- 1251 2. **Subway measurement:** Subways are typically buried under a significant amount of
1252 concrete and soil. A measurement at different subways could be interesting since it is
1253 easily accessible.
- 1254 3. **Cosmic ray muon rate at different floors of a large concrete building:** Large
1255 concrete buildings, like FermiLab would be great to measure the floor to floor vertical
1256 attenuation.
- 1257 4. **Special relativity measurement:** A repeat of the measurement that confirmed special
1258 relativity by measuring the muon rate on top and at the bottom of a mountain. This can
1259 be demonstrated using the altitude data here, however, climbing a mountain would make
1260 a good story.
- 1261 5. **Thin lead measurements.** Thin lead sheets, above the coincidence detectors will ac-
1262 tually cause an increase in the count rate. This is due to the muon creating a shower of
1263 secondaries, that spread out and are able to trigger the detectors simultaneously. After a
1264 few inches of lead, the shower is attenuated.
- 1265 6. Background measurement in clean room at SNO+, also a coincidence measurement.
- 1266 7. Measure the Souther Anomaly. This could be performed by flying from Mexico to northern
1267 Africa.
- 1268 8. **The longitudinal effect:** The South Atlantic Anomaly. Off the coast of Brazil[5].
- 1269 9. **Extreme weather events:** Measure muon rate during a low pressure event – like a
1270 hurricane.
- 1271 10. **Solar flare events:** Capture data during an intense solar flare.
- 1272 11. **Solar activity:** There is an 11-year due to the solar activity that modulates the low
1273 energy cosmic rays.

1274 **7 Conclusion**

1275 The CosmicWatch Desktop Muon Detectors are capable of exploring various physical phenomena
1276 in nature. This document outlined in detail the physical processes that influence the detector,
1277 and how they can be extracted from data. We have investigated various phenomena associated
1278 with the geomagnetic field, atmospheric conditions, cosmic ray shower composition, attenuation
1279 of particles in matter, radioactivity, and statistical properties of Poissonian process. Beyond this,
1280 the supplementary material contains further information for developing skills in the machine and
1281 electrical shop, as well in programming. As the CosmicWatch program grows, we expect more
1282 people to contribute to potential measurements and improvements to the detectors. This will
1283 benefit the hundreds to thousands of students already building their own CosmicWatch Desktop
1284 Muon Detectors and learning about physics.

1285 **8 Acknowledgements**

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1291 project. We would also like to thank Prof. Scott A. Hughes from MIT for helping in the
1292 development of this document.

1293 **9 FAQ**

1294 **What about *Cherenkov* radiation?** Cherenkov radiation occurs when a particle is passing
1295 through a material faster than the speed of light in that material. For the case of Polystyrene,
1296 this corresponds to $0.63 c$. Since the vast majority of our particles of interest are faster than
1297 $0.63c$, we expect some amount of Cherenkov radiation. However, the energy deposited in the
1298 scintillator will be nearly four orders of magnitude lower than the collisional energy from the
1299 ionizing particle.

1300 **Gamma-ray spectroscopy?:** We are often asked if the detectors are suitable for gamma-
1301 ray spectroscopy. Several attempts have been made to distinguish between gamma-emitters,
1302 however we've found that they tend to populate the low voltage region such that we do not have
1303 the resolution to identify their energy. Beyond this, the plastic scintillator is not very dense
1304 and therefore the dominate reaction from a gamma ray will be to Compton scatters, and likely
1305 penetrate the full scintillator only depositing a fraction of its energy.

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