ed breakaway processes occur along the pinned dislocations,<sup>3</sup> a computer fitting method<sup>18</sup> can be used to map the true force-distance profile for the dislocation-point-defect interaction.

We believe that this technique can be used to measure the dislocation-point-defect interaction force under a wide variety of controlled conditions.

\*Work supported by the Energy Research and Development Administration under Contract No. AT(11-1)-1198, and by the National Science Foundation under Grant No. GH37907.

<sup>1</sup>For example, F. R. N. Nabarro, *Theory of Crystal Dislocations* (Oxford Univ. Press, London, 1967).

<sup>2</sup>A. H. Cottrell, in *Report of a Conference on Strength of Solids*, *H. H. Wills Physical Laboratory, University of Bristol*, 7–9 July 1947 (The Physical Society of London, London, England, 1948), p. 30.

<sup>3</sup>L. J. Teutonico, K. Lücke, F. W. Heuser, and A. V. Granato, J. Acoust. Soc. Amer. <u>45</u>, 1402 (1969).

<sup>4</sup>G. B. Gibbs, Phil. Mag. <u>20</u>, 611 (1969).

<sup>5</sup>A. V. Granato, K. Lücke, J. Schlipf, and L. J. Teu-

tonico, J. Appl. Phys. 35, 2732 (1964).

<sup>6</sup>N. F. Mott and F. R. N. Nabarro, in *Report of a Conference on Strength of Solids, H. H. Wills Physical Laboratory, University of Bristol, 7-9 July 1947* (The Physical Society of London, London, England, 1948), p. 1.

<sup>7</sup>N. F. Mott, Phil. Mag. 1, 568 (1956).

<sup>8</sup>A. V. Granato and K. Lücke, J. Appl. Phys. <u>27</u>, 583 (1956).

<sup>9</sup>L. J. Teutonico, A. V. Granato, and K. Lücke, J. Appl. Phys. 35, 220 (1964).

<sup>10</sup>K. Lücke, A. V. Granato, and L. J. Teutonico, J. Appl. Phys. <u>39</u>, 5181 (1968).

<sup>11</sup>F. W. Heuser and K. Lücke, to be published.

<sup>12</sup>A. V. Granato and K. Lücke, to be published.

- <sup>13</sup>D. G. Blair, T. S. Hutchison, and D. H. Rogers, J. Appl. Phys. 40, 97 (1969), and Can. J. Phys. 48, 2943,
- 2955 (1970), and Can. J. Phys. 49, 633 (1971).

<sup>14</sup>D. G. Blair, J. Appl. Phys. <u>43</u>, 37 (1972).

<sup>15</sup>P. Peguin and H. K. Birnbaum, J. Appl. Phys. <u>39</u>, 4428 (1968).

<sup>16</sup>K. Hultman and R. B. Schwarz, to be published.

<sup>17</sup>H. Schaefer and F. Povolo, Scr. Met. <u>7</u>, 445 (1973); S. Asano, Scr. Met. <u>8</u>, 947 (1974).

<sup>18</sup>R. B. Schwarz and A. V. Granato, to be published.

## Origin of Very High-Energy Cosmic Rays\*

Stirling A. Colgate

New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, Socorro, New Mexico 87801 (Received 4 November 1974)

It is suggested that a single source of cosmic rays (supernovas) occurring in all galaxies can produce the observed spectrum and the observed anisotropy, and is predictable from supernova shock theory. Below  $10^{13-14}$  eV the source and observed spectrum are the same,  $N(>E) \propto E^{-\alpha}$ ,  $\alpha \simeq 1.75$ . Above  $10^{14}$  eV I predict a source with  $\alpha \simeq 1.2$ . Galactic leakage above  $10^{15}$  eV is linear so that  $\alpha \simeq 2.2$  as observed. Above  $10^{19}$  eV cosmic rays fill the metagalaxy to a flux several times the anisotropic residual flux from a few events in our galaxy as observed.

Cosmic rays are assumed to be either galactic or extragalactic in origin. The total energy required for filling metagalactic space with all cosmic rays is improbably high and, in addition, very heavy nuclei and electrons must then have a separate origin.<sup>1</sup> On the other hand, the near isotropy at energies above where any reasonable galactic magnetic field could affect particle containment dictates an extragalactic origin.

I propose instead that the identical source mechanism occurs in all galaxies and that we observe at very high energy a combination of our own statistically distributed sources as well as an isotropic flux from all other galaxies. This assumption requires a source spectrum that is flatter by one power of *E* than the observed spectrum for  $E > 10^{15}$  eV. The observed spectrum is then a result of leakage from our galaxy as well as attenuation in metagalactic space. The consequences of this assumption are as follows:

(1) The resulting spectrum agrees with observations, including the "bump" at  $10^{13} < E < 10^{15}$  eV.

(2) The anisotropy becomes an increasing function of energy above  $10^{15}$  eV, and the degree of anisotropy agrees with the recent large anisotropy interpreted<sup>2</sup> for all measurements  $E > 10^{19}$  eV.

(3) The energy spectrum of the local anisotropy should be flatter than the isotropic flux as observed.<sup>2</sup> That is, the anisotropy should consist of a few local peaks of flux (not valleys) in solid



FIG. 1. Text in quotes from Wolfendale (Ref. 3): "The integral [energy] spectrum of cosmic-ray nuclei (Kempa et al. 1974) [Kempa, Wdowczyk, and Wolfendale, Ref. 4]. The key to the experimental points is given in that work; briefly the points below  $2 \times 10^{13}$  eV came from... nuclear-active particle spectra as a function of atmospheric depth; H denotes the best line through the Haverah Park measurements of Edge et al. (1973) [Ref. 5], S denotes the measurements of C. J. Bell et al. (1974) [Bell, Kota, and Wolfendale, Ref. 6]. The dotted line is an estimate of the overall best line." The line marked  $\alpha$  =2.2 is also the analytical result of taking a source spectrum of  $\alpha = 1.2$  fitted to the "bump" at  $E = 10^4$  eV and letting it "leak" out of the galaxy according to  $\tau = 2 \times 10^5 (E/10^{15})^{-1}$  yr. The limiting spectra assuming no confinement and filling the supercluster or universe are indicated separately. The two points marked with circles are the calculated energy fluxes at  $10^{19}$  and  $10^{20}$  eV attenuated from the "universe" spectrum by the respective blackbody radiation interactions forming  $e^{\pm}$  pairs and  $\pi$ 's. Permission to use and reproduce part of the figure is kindly granted by A. Wolfendale.

angle that should become higher as a function of increasing energy as observed.

(5) Esthetically, theory need contend with only one canonical source in all galaxies rather than a local galactic source for low-energy, very heavy particles, and electrons, and conversely a high-energy extragalactic source(s) that just (by good fortune) matches onto the local flux at the correct energy.

(5) There is a natural reason in one theory of cosmic-ray origin, the supernova shock acceleration, to predict just such a flattening of the slope ( $\alpha$ ) at  $E > 10^{14}$  eV.

Figure 1 includes a composite of current experimental data of integral energy flux versus

energy from a review by Kempa, Wdowczyk, and Wolfendale<sup>4</sup> as well as the proposed canonical source spectrum. This proposed source spectrum corresponds to an extrapolation of the observed spectrum at  $E > 10^{13-14}$  eV by the relation  $N(>E) \propto E^{-1.2}$  and is marked " $\alpha = 1.2$ ." Above the energy  $E = 10^{15}$  eV, we expect leakage from the galaxy to be linear in energy ( $\propto E^{-1}$  as opposed to the usual<sup>7</sup>  $E^{-2}$ ) because of a wide distribution in sizes of the magnetic field inhomogeneities associated with hydrogen clouds Bell, Kota, and Wolfendale<sup>6</sup> (BKW)]. This produces the observed slope  $N(>E) \propto E^{-2.2}$  up to  $E \simeq 3 \times 10^{18}$  eV, where I have assumed a factor of 3 larger confinement for a galactic model than for the galactic-arm confinement of BKW.

In addition the escaping cosmic rays will tend to fill metagalactic space,<sup>8</sup> and this becomes relatively more important because the proposed source spectrum is flatter than that observed. Confinement in the local supercluster requires an improbably high metagalactic field of  $\simeq 10^{-7}$ G,<sup>3</sup> in which case the local [ $R \simeq 20$  Mpc (megaparsecs)] space density of galaxies is 0.5 galaxy Mpc<sup>-3</sup>. Without confinement the space density<sup>9</sup> is 0.02 galaxy Mpc<sup>-3</sup>, derived from a value of the Hubble constant  $H \simeq 60$  km sec<sup>-1</sup> Mpc<sup>-1</sup>. Since the galaxy volume is  $10^{11}$  pc<sup>3</sup>, corresponding to a disk 300 pc thick and  $10^4$  pc in radius, the volume ratio is  $2 \times 10^7$  or  $5 \times 10^8$  depending upon supercluster confinement or escape, respectively.

The confinement time of cosmic rays in the galaxy is usually interpreted on the basis of nuclear spallation ratios as  $\simeq 2 \times 10^6$  yr. On the other hand the analysis of BKW based upon scattering from magnetic inhomogeneities predicts  $\tau = 2 \times 10^5$ yr for  $E \leq 3 \times 10^{15}$  eV. If additional scattering centers like hydromagnetic waves<sup>10,11</sup> extend the linear leakage down to  $E \simeq 10^{15}$  eV, as the break in the spectrum would indicate, then  $\tau \simeq 6 \times 10^5$ yr for  $E \leq 10^{15}$  eV, closer to the spallation value. If we choose the galactic confinement time of 2  $\times 10^5 \; yr$  of BKW, and the expansion time of the universe of  $2 \times 10^{10}$  yr, the ratio of galactic to extragalactic flux will be variously  $5 \times 10^{-3}$  or  $2 \times 10^{-4}$  depending upon confinement in the supercluster or not. On the other hand, if the confinement time is  $2 \times 10^6$  yr at  $10^{14}$  eV, then the extragalactic fluxes will be 10 times smaller.

The resulting theoretical extragalactic fluxes are shown in Fig. 1 as if there were (1) *no* galactic confinement, (2) "super c"  $(5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ of the ex-}$ trapolated  $\alpha = 1.2$  source), and (3) "univ." (2  $\times 10^{-4}$  of the extrapolated  $\alpha = 1.2$  source). Both these fluxes are greater than the measurements at high energy, but the transition from the presumed source curve of  $\alpha = 1.2$  to the respective extragalactic curves by galactic leakage,  $\tau \propto E^{-1}$ , follows the slope  $\alpha = 2.2$  and is in good agreement with observations provided the energy where "linear" leakage commences is reduced from  $3 \times 10^{15}$ eV. This may be the result of the interconnectedtunnel approximation of  $Cox^{12}$  and reduces the extragalactic fluxes by 3.

It is evident that the supercluster approximation results in an extragalactic flux significantly greater than observed for  $E \ge 10^{17}$  eV and the same comment possibly applies to the "universe" approximation for  $E \ge 3 \times 10^{18}$  eV. However, for  $E \ge 3 \times 10^{18}$  eV positron-electron pairs are produced by interaction with the blackbody radiation and  $\pi$ 's are produced above  $3 \times 10^{19}$  eV.<sup>13,14</sup> The two circled points are calculated as a reduction of the "universe" curve due to these effects at the respective energies 10<sup>19</sup> and 10<sup>20</sup> eV according to BKW. The agreement with the Sydney array data is satisfactory, but it is still possible that a small contribution from the supercluster could flatten the slope in the very high-energy region in better agreement with the Haverah Park results.

Although this model was originally suggested<sup>15</sup> solely on the basis of the spectrum and the advantage of a single canonical galactic source, the recent strong evidence by Krasilnikov *et al.*<sup>2</sup> for anisotropy of cosmic rays at  $E > 10^{19}$  eV (where roughly half of the world total of 104 events fall into three localized directions of a total of  $\simeq 12\%$ of  $4\pi$  sr) strongly supports a partially local origin. Hillas and Ouldridge<sup>16</sup> arrive at a similar conclusion and point out that previous anisotropy measurements at lower energy (either a lower limit or an actual anisotropy) show an anisotropy that increases as a function of increasing energy proportional to the presumed galactic leakage ( $\propto E$ ).

I interpret isotropy along the lines originally proposed by Ramaty, Reames, and Lingenfelter,<sup>17</sup> where a combination of source distribution, frequency, and diffusion gives rise to a limiting statistical probability of anisotropy. What has been added to this model is a presumed isotropic extragalactic flux that becomes important above E> $3 \times 10^{18}$  eV and local sources of flatter spectrum. I therefore expect the largest anisotropy to result from a supernova (or other cosmic-rayproducing event, 1 per 50 yr <sup>18</sup>) occurring close enough to the solar system such that the direct

flux causes an observable anisotropy. If the source in the galaxy has a mean strength of  $\dot{S}_{0}$  $\times E_{15}^{-1.2}$  particles per year, where  $E_{15}$  is the energy in units of  $10^{15}$  eV, then the galactic flux is  $\varphi_{\mathbf{F}} = \dot{\mathbf{S}}_{0} E_{15}^{-1.2} \tau c / V$ , where  $\tau$  is the galactic confinement time and V is the effective cosmic-ray confinement volume of the galaxy.<sup>19</sup> Therefore, the local flux becomes  $\varphi_g = 2 \times 10^3 \dot{S}_0 E_{15}^{-2.2}c$ , where I have used  $\tau = 2 \times 10^5 E_{15}^{-1}$  yr. The flux from a nearby supernova is the direct flux  $\varphi_d$  from an event of size corresponding to 50 yr of  $\tilde{S}_0$  arriving with a time spread  $\Delta t$ , or  $\varphi_d = 50 \dot{S}_0 E_{15}^{-1.2}/$  $4\pi R^2 \Delta t$ . The transit-time spread of various arrival paths will be approximately  $\Delta t \simeq (R/c)(1$  $-\cos\theta$ , where  $\theta$  is the mean angle of deflection of a cosmic ray of energy E in the galactic field traversing a distance R. Since  $(1 - \cos \theta) \simeq \frac{1}{2} (R/t)$  $(R_{\rm L})^2$ , where  $R_{\rm L}$  is the Larmor radius, provided  $R \leq R_{\rm L}/2$ , then the direct flux becomes  $\varphi_d = 2$  $\times 10^{-6} \dot{S}_{0} E_{15}^{0.8} c/R^{5}$ , where R is in kpc and I have assumed a mean orthogonal galactic field of 2  $\times 10^{-6}$  G. The direct and average fluxes become equal when  $R = 0.016E_{15}^{0.6}$  kpc. The condition R  $\leq 2R_{\rm L}$  for validity of the approximation for  $\Delta t$  requires that  $E_{15} \ge 10^3$  and  $R \ge 1$  kpc. Since the direct flux scales as  $R^5$ , the observation of anisotropy is strongly biased to nearby events where the direct and average fluxes are equal. The probability of this occurring is  $\Delta t \times (\text{frequency of } t)$ SN), where  $\Delta t = 400 E_{18}^{-0.2}$  yr and (frequency of SN)  $\simeq \frac{1}{50} (R/10)^2$  per year, so that  $P \simeq 8 \times 10^{-2} E_{18}$ . At  $10^{18}$  eV the probability of seeing the direct flux from a nearby event is small, but at  $2 \times 10^{19}$ eV we should be bathed in the flux of several supernovas lasting 200 yr at  $R \simeq 6$  kpc. At this distance from the solar system the magnetic field geometry is such as to preferentially scatter out the direct flux by the approximate ratio of spiralarm thickness to magnetic deflection,  $\frac{1}{2}(R^2/R_{\rm L})^{-1}$ ~ 븣.

I note that in the analysis of Krasilnikov *et al.*<sup>2</sup> and Hillas and Ouldridge, <sup>16</sup> three peaks in the angular distribution are observed at an amplitude relative to the average of  $\simeq 40\%$ . These peaks are just below the statistical significance of the tests applied to the 87 events analyzed by Linsley and Watson.<sup>20</sup> If there were no extragalactic flux, then the expected peak-to-average ratio should be very much greater.

A flatter slope to the cosmic-ray spectrum for  $E > 10^{13}$ <sup>-14</sup> eV is expected in the shock ejection of the outer supernova layers. It has been shown<sup>21-23</sup> both analytically and numerically how the relativistic shock in the stellar envelope from the su-

pernova explosion increases in strength as  $\Gamma_s$  $\propto F^{-a}$ , where  $\Gamma_s$  is the energy factor  $(1 - \beta_s^2)^{-1/2}$ assumed  $\gg 1$ , with  $c\beta_s$  the velocity of the *fluid* immediately behind the shock; F is the fraction of the mass external to the radius in question, and  $a = \frac{3}{8} \left[ \sqrt{3} / (2 + \sqrt{3}) \right] = 0.174$ . For an adiabatic expansion of the shocked fluid with internal energy  $\epsilon_s$  $=\mu_{\circ}\rho_{\circ}C^{2}$  where the Hugoniot relations demand that  $\mu_s = \Gamma_s$ , the final energy factor of the ejected matter becomes  $\Gamma_f = \Gamma_s \mu_s^{b}$ , where  $b = \sqrt{3}$ , resulting in  $\Gamma_f = F^{-a(1+b)}$ . If this ejected matter is presumed to be cosmic rays, then the integral spectrum  $N(>E) \propto E^{-1/a(1+b)} = E^{-2.10}$  which is steeper than the observed slope  $E^{-1.75}$  up to  $E \simeq 10^{13-14}$  eV.  $10^4 \leq \Gamma \leq 10^5$ . I have suggested that radiation flow behind the shock should partially flatten this slope because the post-shock expansion would be more nearly isothermal than adiabatic. The limit of this approximation should apply after the shock reaches the stellar surface. The shock continues to propagate in the photosphere because it creates its own opacity in the form of pairs, but these pairs rapidly disappear after a small expansion. In the presupernova type-I model of high initial density and *no* red-giant envelope,  $\Gamma_s \simeq 40$  to 80 at a surface  $\int_{r}^{\infty} \rho dr = 10 \text{ g cm}^{-2}$  corresponding to  $\Gamma_f \simeq 10^{4-5}$ . If we assume that the outer layers rapidly become isothermal (modified by their relative Doppler shift,  $T^4 \propto \Gamma_s^{-1}$ ) then  $\mu_s \propto \rho_s^{-1} \Gamma_s^{-1}$ where the post-shock density  $\rho_s \propto \Gamma_s F^{3/4}$  to  $\Gamma_s F$ in the transition from the standard envelope radiative "zero" solution to the photosphere and where the shock compression is taken proportional to  $\Gamma_{s}$ . Then the final energy factor  $\Gamma_{s} \propto \Gamma_{s} \mu_{s}^{b} \propto F^{-0.87}$ to  $F^{-0.30}$  giving  $N(>E) \propto E^{-1.15}$  to  $E^{-0.77}$ . The photosphere approximation is somewhat flatter than desired, but the approximations are a larger uncertainty.

I imply only that radiation flow behind the relativistic shock will give a flatter slope and that this flattening should commence at an energy that logically relates to present observations. Pulsar acceleration<sup>24</sup> also naturally favors high energy, but without predicting such a specific transition.

I am indebted to the support of the NATO Advanced Study Institute on the Origin of Cosmic Rays, Durham, England, 1974, and to Arnold Wolfendale and colleagues. Albert Petschek has significantly aided in discussion and correction of the manuscript.

\*Work partially supported by the National Science Foundation under Grant No. GP-40779.

<sup>1</sup>V. L. Ginzburg and S. I. Syrovatskii, *The Origin of Cosmic Rays* (Pergamon, New York, 1964).

<sup>2</sup>D. D. Krasilnikov, A. I. Kuzmin, J. Linsley, V. A. Orlov, R. J. O. Reid, A. A. Watson, and J. G. Wilson,

J. Phys. A: Proc. Phys. Soc., London <u>7</u>, L176 (1974).
<sup>3</sup>A. W. Wolfendale, Phil. Trans. Roy. Soc. London,
Ser. A 277, 429 (1975).

<sup>4</sup>J. Kempa, J. Wdowczyk, and A. W. Wolfendale, J. Phys. A: Proc. Phys. Soc., London 7, 1213 (1974).

<sup>5</sup>D. M. Edge, A. C. Evans, H. J. Garmston, R. J. O. Reid, A. W. Watson, J. G. Wilson, and A. M. Wray, J. Phys. A: Proc. Phys. Soc., London 6, 1612 (1973).

<sup>6</sup>M. C. Bell, J. Kota, and A. W. Wolfendale, J. Phys. A: Proc. Phys. Soc., London <u>7</u>, 420 (1974), and in *Proceedings of the Thirteenth International Conference on Cosmic Rays, Denver, Colorado, 1973* (University of Colorado, Denver, Colo., 1973), Vol. I, p. 390.

<sup>7</sup>K. Brecher and G. R. Burbidge, Astrophys. J. <u>174</u>, 253 (1972).

<sup>8</sup>A. A. Logunov and Ya. P. Terletskii, Zh. Eksp. Teor. Fiz. <u>29</u>, 701 (1955) [Sov. Phys. JETP <u>2</u>, 353 (1956)].

<sup>9</sup>C. W. Allen, *Astrophysical Quantities* (Athlone Press, London, England, 1973), 3rd ed.

<sup>10</sup>J. Skilling, Mon. Notic. Roy. Astron. Soc. <u>147</u>, 1 (1970).

<sup>11</sup>J. Skilling, Astrophys. J. <u>170</u>, 265 (1971).

<sup>12</sup>D. P. Cox, Astrophys, J. <u>178</u>, 159 (1972).

<sup>13</sup>K. Greisen, Phys. Rev. Lett. <u>16</u>, 748 (1966).

<sup>14</sup>G. T. Zatsepin and V. A. Kuzmin, Zh. Eksp. Teor. Fiz., Pis'ma Red. <u>4</u>, 114 (1966) [JETP Lett. <u>4</u>, 78 (1966)].

<sup>15</sup>S. A. Colgate, comment at plenary session of the NATO Advanced Study Institute on the Origin of Cosmic Rays, Durham, England, 1974 (unpublished).

<sup>16</sup>A. M. Hillas and M. Ouldridge, Nature (London) <u>253</u>, 609 (1975).

<sup>17</sup>R. Ramaty, D. V. Reames, and R. E. Lingenfelter, Phys. Rev. Lett. 24, 913 (1970).

<sup>18</sup>S. A. Ilovaisky and J. Lequeux, Astron. Astrophys. <u>20</u>, 347 (1972).

<sup>19</sup>E. N. Parker, Astrophys. J. <u>145</u>, 811 (1966).

<sup>20</sup>J. Linsley and A. A. Watson, Nature <u>249</u>, 816 (1974).
<sup>21</sup>M. H. Johnson and C. McKee, Phys. Rev. D <u>3</u>, 858 (1971).

<sup>22</sup>S. A. Colgate, C. R. McKee, and B. Blevins, Astrophys. J. <u>173</u>, L87 (1972).

<sup>23</sup>S. A. Colgate and C. R. McKee, Astrophys. J. <u>181</u>, 903 (1973).

<sup>24</sup>R. M. Kulsrud, J. P. Ostriker, and J. E. Gunn, Phys. Rev. Lett. <u>28</u>, 636 (1972).