

# FESTIVAL INTERNATIONAL DE BALLONS

Château-d'Oex



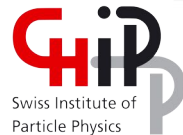
## Espace Ballon - Hot Air Balloons Exhibition at Château-d'Oex

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a historical overview and adding a local touch on the discovering of cosmic rays

Hans Peter Beck, University of Bern, Switzerland

28 November 2019



# Château-d'Oex, Switzerland

A rural village in the Vaudoise alps. Near Gruyère



# International hot-air balloon festival - every year since 1979



CHÂTEAU-D'OEX



42<sup>e</sup> édition  
25 janvier au 2 février 2020



# balloon museum

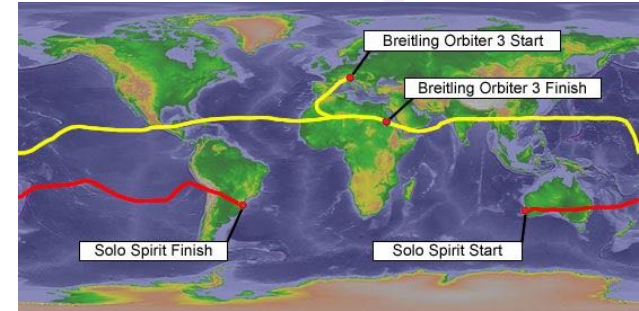
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espace  
**BALLON**



# Breitling Orbiter 3 — Tour around the globe



The Breitling Orbiter 3 combines the features of a hot-air balloon and a gas balloon, with a helium cell within a hot-air envelope. Initially, the helium cell is filled to approximately 47% of its maximum capacity. During ascent, warming by the sun causes the helium to expand even more than the surrounding air, which aids the balloon in gaining altitude.

**Take-off:** 0805hrs UTC on Monday 1st March 1999 in Chateau d'Oex

**Landing:** 0600hrs UTC on Sunday 21st March 1999 in the Egyptian desert

# The Piccard family



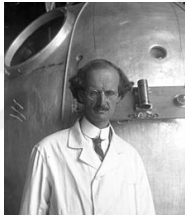
## Bertrand Piccard (1958–)

- Breitling Orbiter 1999  
non-stop around the globe in a balloon
- Solar Impulse 2016  
around the globe with solar powered plane



## Jacques Piccard (1922—2008)

- Bathyscaphe Trieste 1960  
down to the deepest locations  
Mariana Trench, –11'000 m



## Auguste Piccard (1884—1962)

- Gas-balloon to 17'000 m in 1932  
first man in the stratosphere



## Auguste Piccard

born in Basel, CH  
professor of physics in Belgium  
member of the Solvay Congress of  
1922, 1924, 1927, 1930 and 1933  
knew Hergé well and  
inspired Hergé:

prof. Bienlein (german)  
prof. Tournesol (french)  
prof. Calculus (english)



# A question from the director of the balloon museum

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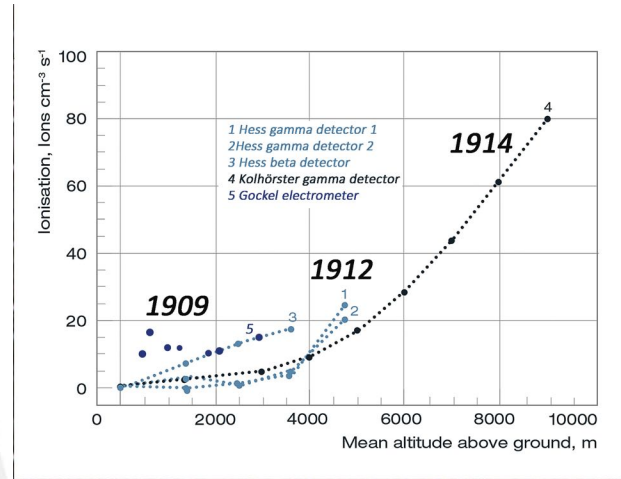
Michael Hoch (arts@CMS) exhibited his artworks in Vevey @ image festival. The director of the balloon museum saw Michael's exhibition in Vevey and contacted him to exhibit also in Chateau-d'Oex.

Michael invited me, asking how to make best use of this offer.

The detection of cosmic rays was done by measuring the ionisation of air in balloon flights, and thus a perfect link can be established to bring particle physics into a balloon museum.

This idea interested the director of the museum, and Michael and I started working.

# Detection of cosmic rays



Ionisation of air increases with altitude.

Nobel prize to Victor Hess in 1936.

Victor Hess (1883-1964) — balloon flight in 1912.



# Albert Gockel — three years earlier in 1909



Professor in Fribourg (CH)



**Albert Gockel** [1860 Stockach (D) - 1927 Freiburg (CH)] made several balloon flights in the years from 1909 onwards up to 4500 m altitude to measure the ionisation of the air. The first flight took place on the occasion of the International Balloon Week in December 1909, when the Swiss Aeroclub provided a gas balloon to Albert Gockel and Alfred de Quervain<sup>1</sup> (1879-1927; geophysicist and meteorologist at ETH Zurich and vice-director of the then Meteorological Central Institute). Gockel came to an initial conclusion after his first balloon flight: **"The result of the measurements is that the penetrating radiation in the free atmosphere is reduced, but by no means to the extent that could be expected if the radiation originated mainly from the ground. Some of this radiation must therefore "come either from the atmosphere or from a star outside the earth".** Even though Albert Gockel does not yet speak of cosmic rays, and also expressed certain doubts about the reliability of his instruments, he can still be counted among the discoverers of cosmic rays.

<sup>1</sup> Around 1922, Alfred de Quervain and **Auguste Piccard** constructed a seismograph for the Swiss Seismological Service.

## Astroparticle Physics 53 (2014) 27-32



Albert Gockel, a pioneer in atmospheric electricity and cosmic radiation

Jan Lacki

History and Philosophy of Science, Faculty of Science, Geneva University, Switzerland

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### ABSTRACT

At the beginning of the 20th century, the community of investigators of atmospheric electricity included scholars from most (Western) European countries and even beyond. Of the most noteworthy among them was Albert Gockel (1860–1927) who spent the biggest part of his scientific career, until his death, at Freiburg (CH) University. Here, I want to take a closer look at Gockel's career, his life-long interest in atmospheric electricity phenomena, and in particular at his substantial contribution to the study of ionizing radiation which led to the discovery of its cosmic origin.

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The year 2012 celebrates the hundredth anniversary of the discovery of cosmic rays by the Austrian Victor Franz Hess. It gives the physics community the opportunity to look back at a century of scientific investigations in a field that offered physics some of its most exciting discoveries. For historians, it is also the occasion to have a closer look at some episodes and remain of the many pioneers, some of them fallen in almost complete oblivion, which made it all possible. As it happened often in the history of discoveries, that of cosmic rays came as a surprise, uncovering a new realm of physical phenomena way beyond what was initially imagined. It was nonetheless the outcome of a sustained effort following a clear rationale. It originated in the field of atmospheric electricity pioneered mainly by Austrian and German investigators at the turn of the 19th century. It was known since at least the observations of Charles Augustin Coulomb (1736–1806) that charged electropopes loose spontaneously their charge (1765) and the phenomenon went under close scrutiny only a century later. At Vienna University, Franz Exner (1849–1926) established from the middle of the eighties on a successful tradition of research in Luftleitfähigkeit while in Germany the fundamental achievements and insights of the remarkable tandem formed by the Gymnasium teachers Julius Elster (1854–1930) and Hans Geitel (1855–1923) inspired the work of many local and foreign researchers.

<sup>1</sup> e-mail address: jan.lacki@unige.ch.

<sup>2</sup> For an overview of the history of the discovery of cosmic rays by his main protagonists see V.F. Hess, *The Electrical Conductivity of the Atmosphere and Its Causes*, New York, 1938; see also William F.G. Swann, *History of cosmic rays*, Am. J. Phys., vol. 29, 1961, 411–419; B. Rossi, *Cosmic Rays*, New York, 1966; S. Sasaki, H. Elias (Eds.), *Early History of Cosmic Ray Studies*, Berlin, 1984; O. A. L.M. Brown, *The Early History of Cosmic Ray Research*, Am. J. Phys., vol. 55, 1987, 23–31 and L.M. Brown, L. Hodson (Eds.), *The Birth of Particle Physics*, Cambridge Univ. Press, 1986. For a recent account see P. Carlson, A. De Angelis, *Naturalism and internationalism in science: The case of the discovery of cosmic rays*, *Erz. Phys.*, vol. 41, no. 3, 2013, 306–329. Retaining in particular the early history before Hess' discovery, this article gives the credits to some of usually overlooked scholars who made their discovery possible with particular emphasis on the work of the Italian Domenico Patini (I refer the reader to this article for more details) only included in the present work.

0927-625X - see front matter © 2013 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.astropartphys.2013.05.006>

At the beginning of the 20th century, the community of investigators of atmospheric electricity included scholars from most (Western) European countries and even beyond. One of the most noteworthy among them was Albert Gockel (1860–1927) who spent the biggest part of his scientific career, until his death, at Freiburg (CH) University. Here, I want to take a closer look at Gockel's career, his life-long interest in atmospheric electricity phenomena, and in particular at his substantial contribution to the study of ionizing radiation which led to the discovery of its cosmic origin.

In order to understand Gockel's achievements one has first to recall what were at the time the research trends and the main issues in the field of atmospheric electricity. Elster and Geitel concluded that the spontaneous discharge of electropopes was due to the presence of ions in the atmosphere (1900) came the question of their origin. The recent discovery of radioactivity (1896) and of its ionizing properties on gases led Elster and Geitel to investigate its presence in the air (1901–1902): the radioactive gaseous emanations corresponding to decay products of active minerals they detected made them conclude that it was indeed the primary cause of the conductivity of air. It was the time when one investigated the natural radioactivity of soils, rocks and air: its effects were examined underground, at ground level and in mountain heights, in land and in seas. While one learned more and more about the radioactive substances and their decay products, hypotheses on the location of the sources responsible for atmospheric ionization were getting more precise. When it turned out that the radioactive decay products of the gaseous emanations in the atmosphere could hardly account alone for its ionization, a direct outgoing radiation from the active substances in the Earth crust came to

<sup>3</sup> For a brief scientific biography of Gockel see H. Schwob, *Albert Gockel et la découverte de rayon cosmiques en 1909*, in *Colloq. de l'Association Suisse de Physique et de Chimie*, Université de Fribourg, 1991; a further list of publications on Gockel and his work can be found at <http://www.unifr.ch/physik/physik/physik/physik/>. This world web site includes links to the full files of several Gockel's key articles, reports and

# Setting up the exhibition

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With balloons, cosmic ray discovery, and a local hero (Gockel), the narrative to set up the exhibition became clear.

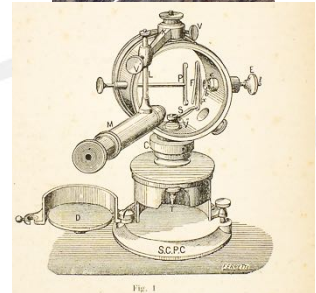
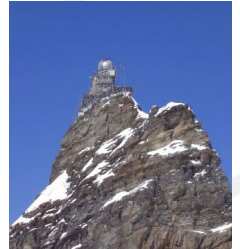
Cosmic ray studies in Switzerland (and elsewhere in the world) opened up a new field of research.

The High Altitude Research Station Jungfraujoch (3500 m) opened up in the mid 1920 and is still active today.

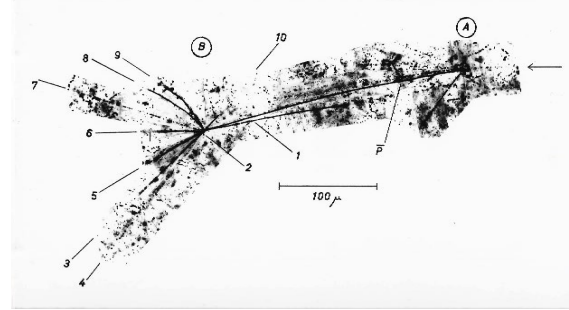
They were happy to provide material.

Uni Fribourg still had an ancient electrometer in their storage.

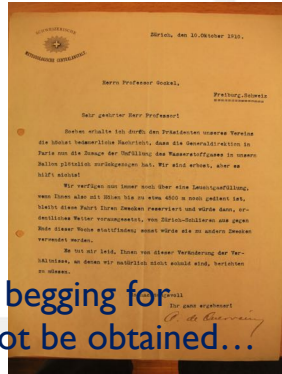
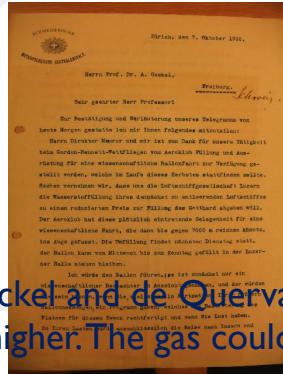
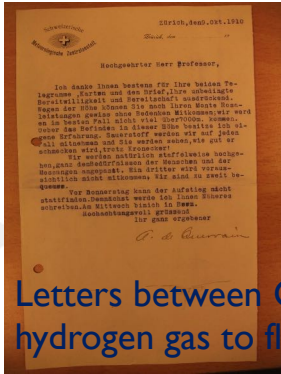
Uni Bern had a spark chamber to put in place.



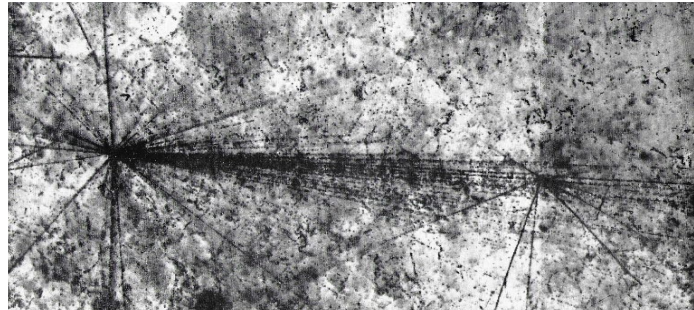
# Original items to show



Electrometer used by Gockel around 1910



Letters between Gockel and de Quevain begging for hydrogen gas to fly higher. The gas could not be obtained...



Emulsion plates from mid 1950's taken at Jungfrauoch

# Putting it all together

Cross disciplinary exhibition on Cosmic Ray Discovery with Balloons, lectures , Junior Scientist booklet, various science & creative lecture and workshops during Balloon Festival January 25<sup>th</sup> – February 1<sup>st</sup> 2020

**ART & SCIENCE**  
du 4 mai 2019 au 31 mars 2020

espace **BALLON**  
CHÂTEAU-D'OEX

ÉVEILLER LA CURIOSITÉ

2 chemin des Ballons - CH - 1660 Château-d'Oex www.espace-ballon.ch +41 78 723 78 33



**Pioneers of Cosmic Rays**      **Entdecker der kosmischen Strahlung**      **Pionniers des rayons cosmiques**

weather balloon 30 000m

ISS - AMS experiment 400 000m, 2011 - ongoing

Air plane traveling altitude 10 000m

Bertrand Piccard World Tour 11 700m

Werner Kohlhörster 9300m 1914

Victor Hess 5200m 1933

Albert Gockel 4500m 1909

Electrometer around 1909

Eiger Mönch Jungfrau 4158m

JungfrauJoch 3500m Sphinx Observatory 1931

IceCube South Pole - 2450m, 2005 - ongoing

Super Kamikande (J) - 1000m, 1996 - ongoing

Pierre Auger Observatory (RA) 1400m, 2004 - ongoing

MAGIC, La Palma (E) 2200m, 2004 - ongoing

Logos: AT, GMI, HFSJG, etc.

# “Art&Science”

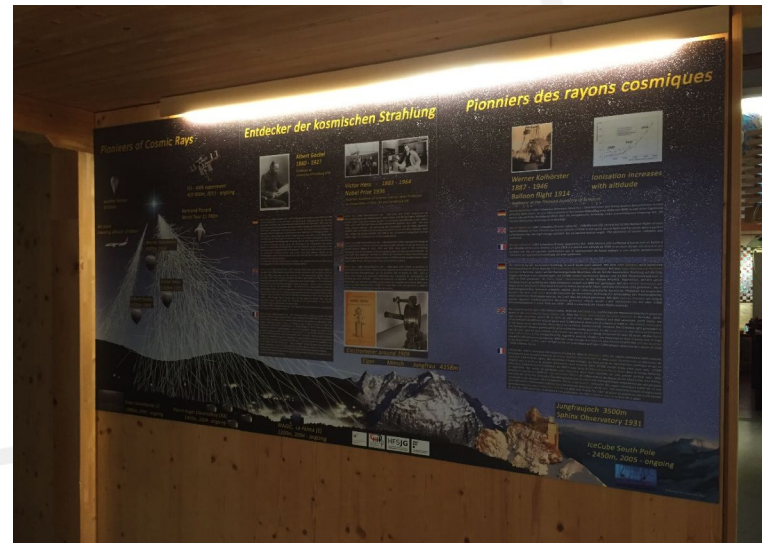
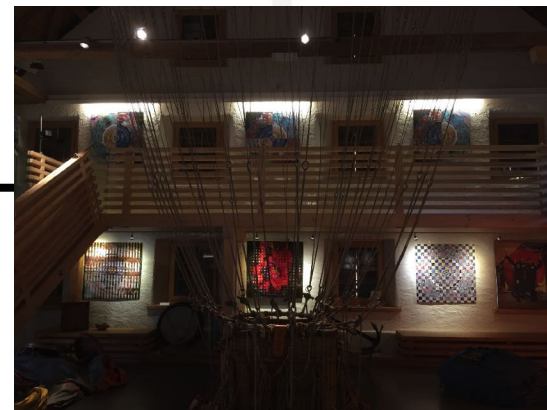
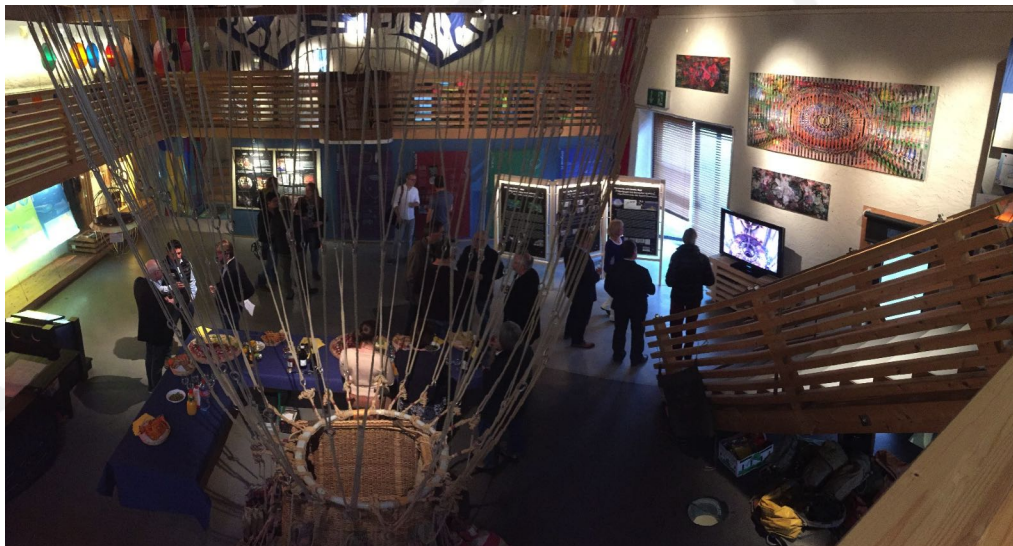
## Through the opening of the exhibition:

Guided tours

lectures

Junior Scientist booklet

<https://www.espace-ballon.ch/copie-de-exposition-temporaire>





# A narrative story with a local touch

## Particle Accelerator Teilchenbeschleuniger Accélérateur de Particules

**1930s** Cockcroft-Walton Accelerator  
Cockroft & Walton

**1952** Van de Graaff Accelerator  
Van de Graaff

**1959** Proton Synchrotron  
CERN

**1974** Paul Scherrer Institute  
PSI

**DE** Teilchenbeschleuniger sind in der Lage geladene Teilchen (Elektronen, Protonen, Neutronen, Ionen) auf sehr hohe Energien zu beschleunigen. Seltener werden auch Neutrinos beschleunigt. Teilchen werden durch elektromagnetische Felder beschleunigt, wobei jeweils ein Teil der Beschleunigung an Lichtenergie (Synchrotronstrahlung) verloren geht. Dieser Verlust wird durch einen Teilchenstrahl, der in einem Ring beschleunigt wird, kompensiert. Teilchen werden durch elektromagnetische Felder beschleunigt, wobei jeweils ein Teil der Beschleunigung an Lichtenergie (Synchrotronstrahlung) verloren geht. Dieser Verlust wird durch einen Teilchenstrahl, der in einem Ring beschleunigt wird, kompensiert.

**EN** Particle accelerators accelerate charged particles (electrons, protons, neutrons, ions) to very high energies, inflicting high energy collisions. Less commonly, neutrinos are also accelerated. Particles are accelerated by electromagnetic fields, with some energy being lost to light energy (synchrotron radiation). This energy loss is compensated by a particle beam that circulates in a ring.

**FR** Les accélérateurs de particules font accélérer des particules chargées (électrons, protons, neutrons, ions) à de très hautes énergies. Moins couramment, les neutrinos sont aussi accélérés. Les particules sont accélérées par des champs électromagnétiques, avec une partie de l'énergie perdue sous forme de rayonnement synchrotron. Cette perte d'énergie est compensée par un faisceau de particules qui circule dans un anneau.

### Inside LHC tunnel:

**DE** LHC - Large Hadron Collider  
LHC @ CERN  
CMS - Compact Muon Solenoid

## Modern Particle Detectors Moderne Teilchendetektoren DéTECTEURS de Particules Actuels

**ATLAS** | Length: 45 m • Width: 27 m • Height: 22 m • Weight: 7000 tons Position: CERN F.1

**LHCb Large Hadron Collider Detector** | Length: 21 m • Width: 13 m • Height: 10 m • Weight: 5400 tons Position: CERN F.8

**DE** ATLAS (Large Hadron Collider) | Länge: 45 m • Breite: 27 m • Höhe: 22 m • Gewicht: 7000 Tonnen Position: CERN F.1

**EN** ATLAS (Large Hadron Collider) | Length: 45 m • Width: 27 m • Height: 22 m • Weight: 7000 tons Position: CERN F.1

**FR** ATLAS (Grand Accélérateur Hadronique) | Longueur: 45 m • Largeur: 27 m • Hauteur: 22 m • Poids: 7000 tonnes Position: CERN F.1

**DE** LHCb (Large Hadron Collider) | Länge: 21 m • Breite: 13 m • Höhe: 10 m • Gewicht: 5400 Tonnen Position: CERN F.8

**EN** LHCb (Large Hadron Collider) | Length: 21 m • Width: 13 m • Height: 10 m • Weight: 5400 tons Position: CERN F.8

**FR** LHCb (Grand Accélérateur Hadronique) | Longueur: 21 m • Largeur: 13 m • Hauteur: 10 m • Poids: 5400 tonnes Position: CERN F.8

## Particles & Interactions Teilchen & Wechselwirkungen des Particules & des Interactions

**DE** Die Elementarteilchen untereinander anzuordnen ist nach der Größe dabei ein Spielchen von der Standardmodell der Teilchenphysik. Man kann die Teilchen in drei Gruppen unterteilen: Quarks, Leptonen und Bosonen. Die Quarks sind die kleinsten Teilchen, die Leptonen sind etwas größer und die Bosonen sind die größten. Die Quarks sind die kleinsten Teilchen, die Leptonen sind etwas größer und die Bosonen sind die größten.

**EN** The elementary particles interact with each other and why forces come into play is described schematically in detail in the standard model of particle physics. One can divide the particles into three groups: quarks, leptons and bosons. Quarks are the smallest particles, leptons are a bit larger and bosons are the largest. Quarks are the smallest particles, leptons are a bit larger and bosons are the largest.

**FR** Les particules élémentaires interagissent entre elles et pourquoi les forces jouent un rôle est décrit schématiquement en détail dans le modèle standard de la physique des particules. On peut classer les particules en trois groupes: les quarks, les leptons et les bosons. Les quarks sont les plus petites particules, les leptons sont un peu plus gros et les bosons sont les plus gros. Les quarks sont les plus petites particules, les leptons sont un peu plus gros et les bosons sont les plus gros.

**DE** Die vier elementaren Teilchen untereinander anzuordnen ist nach der Größe dabei ein Spielchen von der Standardmodell der Teilchenphysik. Man kann die Teilchen in drei Gruppen unterteilen: Quarks, Leptonen und Bosonen. Die Quarks sind die kleinsten Teilchen, die Leptonen sind etwas größer und die Bosonen sind die größten. Die Quarks sind die kleinsten Teilchen, die Leptonen sind etwas größer und die Bosonen sind die größten.

**EN** The four elementary particles interact with each other and why forces come into play is described schematically in detail in the standard model of particle physics. One can divide the particles into three groups: quarks, leptons and bosons. Quarks are the smallest particles, leptons are a bit larger and bosons are the largest. Quarks are the smallest particles, leptons are a bit larger and bosons are the largest.

**FR** Les quatre particules élémentaires interagissent entre elles et pourquoi les forces jouent un rôle est décrit schématiquement en détail dans le modèle standard de la physique des particules. On peut classer les particules en trois groupes: les quarks, les leptons et les bosons. Les quarks sont les plus petites particules, les leptons sont un peu plus gros et les bosons sont les plus gros. Les quarks sont les plus petites particules, les leptons sont un peu plus gros et les bosons sont les plus gros.

### Big Bang & evolution of the Universe:

$$L = -\frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} + i\bar{\psi} D\psi + \psi \gamma_0 \psi_0 + h.c. + \int d^4x \phi^4 - V(\phi)$$

# Interleaving with art





# Film by Uni Fribourg

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## Temporary exhibition

Multidisciplinary exhibition presenting selected works by CERN researcher Michael Hoch, as well as the foundations of particle physics explained and related by CERN researcher Hans Peter Beck, from the Universities of Bern and Fribourg.

The exhibition provides a historical overview and adds a local touch on the discovering of cosmic rays, where the physicist Albert Gockel from Fribourg established first hints in the balloon flights he undertook over a century ago.

Experiments carried out at high altitudes, in balloons, airplanes and in high mountain stations, such as the Jungfrauoch and Gornergrat research stations, allowed researchers to detect radioactivity in the atmosphere and to conclude on the existence of cosmic radiation.

### Contents of the exhibition :

- Michael Hoch 's works, artist and physicist
- Scientific informations on the subject of cosmic rays and particle physics
- A guide entitled ' Young Scientist Program ' for visitors and school groups
- Lectures for the public organized by researchers from CERN and participating universities
- Videos and books on the theme of the exhibition





# 42<sup>e</sup> Festival International de Ballons

## 25<sup>th</sup> January – 2<sup>nd</sup> February 2020

### 25<sup>th</sup> January Saturday Opening Day

- ✓ Historic Balloon flight up to 6000m altitude with real Cosmic Ray measurement – University Fribourg
- ✓ Lecture and Workshop program from 11h30 till 19h
- ✓ key note presentation during the opening

### 26<sup>th</sup> January Sunday

- ✓ Lecture and Workshop program from 11h30 till 19h

### 29<sup>th</sup> January Wednesday – Children Day

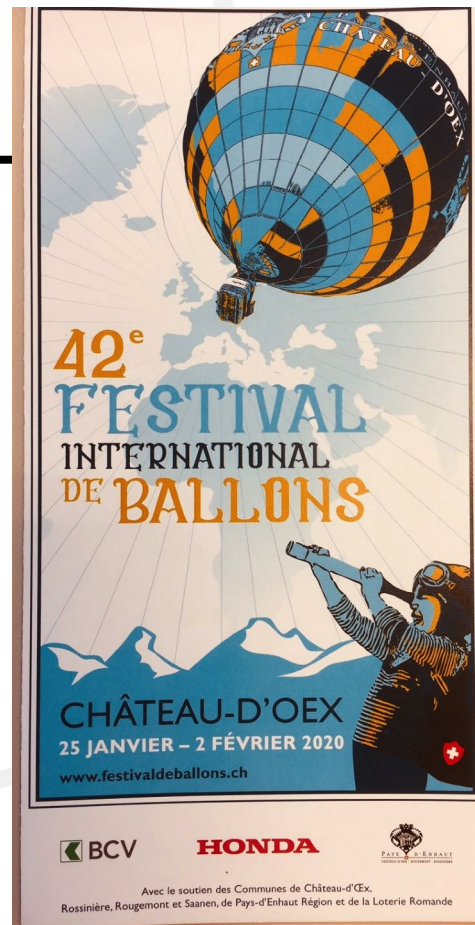
- ✓ Lecture and Workshop program from 11h30 till 19h

### 1<sup>th</sup> February Saturday


- ✓ Lecture and Workshop program from 11h30 till 19h

### 2<sup>nd</sup> February Sunday Closing Day

- ✓ Lecture and Workshop program from 11h30 till 19h



# With help from CAEN and students from Fribourg

CAEN  Electronic Instrumentation

## 2. General Description

The Cosmic Hunter - SP5620CH, as shown in Fig. 2.1, is composed of two Detection Units - SP5622 and one Constant Module - SP5621.



Fig. 2.1: Cosmic Hunter, the educational system to detect the cosmic rays.

The Detection Unit - SP5622, called "tile" in this draft, consists of a plastic scintillator [15 x 15 x 2 cm<sup>3</sup>] and of a small front end electronic board. The following table describes the main features of the Polystyrene-based scintillator used in the system.

Scintillator type	SPS-923A
Density	1.03
Refractive index	1.50
Absorption coefficient (cm <sup>-1</sup> )	0.01-0.003
Light yield	350-360
Hygroscopic	no
Emission peak (nm)	425
Light output (% of anthracene)	85
W/L ratio	1.0
Rise time (ns)	0.3
Decay time (ns)	3.3
Light attenuation length (cm)	400
Important Properties	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>High light output</li> <li>Good transparency</li> <li>Short decay time</li> </ul>

The light produced by the incident radiation is detected by a Silicon Photo-Multiplier (SiPM). The AdvanSID NUV-SiPM (4 x 4 mm<sup>2</sup>) is mounted in the tile corner at 45° (see Fig. 2.2). The front end electronics is directly glued to the scintillator. It is consisting of a transconductance amplifier and a fast discriminator.



Fig. 2.2: Coupling example between SiPM and Plastic Scintillator.

UMXXXX - SP5620CH User Manual rev. 0

Analytical derivation of the geometric factor of a particle detector having circular or rectangular geometry

To cite this article: G R Thomas and D M Willis 1972 *J. Phys. E: Sci. Instrum.* 5 260

Students from Uni Fribourg are estimating and then **measuring the flux of cosmic muons** through a telescope that will be set up with the **CAEN Cosmic Hunter** (adding spacers between tiles), in function of altitude under 90° and 45° up to 7000m.

Temperature will be stabilised in a thermobox, GPS data and air pressure will be constantly measured.

Data will be analysed and compared with their estimations.

Geometric factor of a particle detector

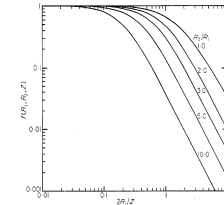


Figure 2: Correction factor  $f$  calculated for unequal circular areas as a function of  $2R_1/Z$  for various values of  $R_1/R_2$ .

which is symmetric in  $R_1, R_2$ . This result, derived using the shadow area approach, agrees with that obtained by Heraschi (1967); cf. his equation (2), using the infinitesimal area approach. The same result was also obtained by Manno *et al.* (1970); cf. their equation (16), again using the infinitesimal area approach. The latter authors suggested that this result would also be obtained using the shadow area approach, but they did not perform the final integration with respect to  $\theta$ . We have proved rigorously that the two approaches yield identical results.

In the limiting case  $R_1^2, R_2^2 \ll Z^2$  equation (5) reduces to the form

$$G \approx \pi^2 R_1^2 R_2^2 / Z^2 \quad (6)$$

Thus the geometric factor is approximated by the product of the areas divided by the square of their separation. This is a useful result which is often used to approximate the geometric factor when the separation of the areas is large compared with their radii. The accuracy of the approximation may be expressed in terms of a correction factor  $f$  defined by

$$f = \frac{G(R_1, R_2, Z)}{G \approx \pi^2 R_1^2 R_2^2 / Z^2} \quad (7)$$

In figure 2 the factor  $f$  is plotted as a function of the ratio  $(2R_1/Z)$  for various values of the ratio  $R_1/R_2 > 1$ . Values of  $f$  for  $R_1 > R_2$  are not plotted in the figure as they would not provide any additional information, owing to the symmetry of  $f$  with respect to  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ .

Gillespie (1970) approximated the integration over infinitesimal areas by the summation of a difference equation. From his table II, for equal circular areas, we have normalized the geometric factor calculated for  $\Delta R/R=0.05$  to the ratio  $A_1/A_2$  (in this notation). The resulting values of the factor  $f$  are in agreement with our analytically derived values to within 0.1%.

Corresponding results can be derived for a 'cos $\theta$ ' variation of intensity. These results are applicable to measurements of

cosmic rays at sea level (Sandström 1965). The analysis proceeds exactly as above, except that an additional  $\cos^2 \theta$  term appears in equation (6), i.e.

$$G = 2\pi^2 R_1^2 \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \theta d\theta + 2\pi \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin \theta \cos^2 \theta d\theta \quad (8)$$

where  $S$  is again given by (3). These integrals may also be evaluated using standard mathematical techniques to yield the result

$$G = \pi^2 \left[ R_1^2 + R_2^2 - \frac{(2R_1 R_2 + R_1^2 + R_2^2 - R_1 R_2)}{((R_1 + R_2)^2 + Z^2)^{3/2}} - 4R_1 R_2 / Z^2 \right] \quad (9)$$

The same result was obtained by Heraschi (1967) using the infinitesimal area approach, which again demonstrates the equivalence of the two approaches. Beusberg (1958) derived the particular result for equal circular areas using the shadow area approach. In the limiting case  $R_1^2, R_2^2 \ll Z^2$  equation (9) reduces to equation (6), as for the isotropic case.

### 3 Rectangular geometry

Figure 3 illustrates the relevant geometry, the two rectangular areas having sides of length  $2X_1, 2Y_1$  and  $2X_2, 2Y_2$ , with  $Z$  being their separation. In the figure  $X_2 > X_1$  and  $Y_2 > Y_1$ .

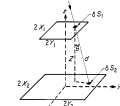


Figure 3: Relevant geometry for the application of the 'infinitesimal area' approach to unequal rectangular areas

but the final result is independent of this assumption. Consider that component of the face  $S_2$  which is incident at an angle  $\theta$  to the detector axis and passes through the two small elements of area  $\delta S_1 = \delta x_1 \delta y_1$  and  $\delta S_2 = \delta x_2 \delta y_2$ . These areas are situated at  $(x_1, y_1, Z)$  and  $(x_2, y_2, 0)$ , respectively. For an isotropic intensity the geometric factor presented to this radiation is

$$\delta G = \delta S_1 \cos \theta \times \delta S_2 \cos \theta / d^2 \quad (10)$$

where  $d$  is the distance between the infinitesimal areas. Substituting for  $\delta S_1$  and  $\delta S_2$ , and using the relationships  $Z^2 = Z^2 + (x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2$  and  $\cos \theta = Z/d$ , equation (10) may be expressed as follows:

$$\delta G = \frac{Z^2 \delta x_1 \delta y_1 \delta x_2 \delta y_2}{(Z^2 + (x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2)^2} \quad (11)$$

The total geometric factor is then given by

$$G = Z^2 \int_{-X_1}^{X_1} \int_{-Y_1}^{Y_1} \int_{-X_2}^{X_2} \int_{-Y_2}^{Y_2} \frac{\delta x_1 \delta y_1 \delta x_2 \delta y_2}{(Z^2 + (x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2)^2} \quad (12)$$

# Conclusion

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- ✓ A museum that initially had nothing to do with science, particle physics, accelerators, CERN, the Universe, etc. was thinking about its next temporary exhibition - initially only Michael's art was an attractor.
- ✓ A narrative with local relevance allowed to bring the visitor, who expected balloons, to get driven into particle physics and the modern understanding of the Universe in an easy to follow story starting with balloon flights in 1909.
- ✓ Adding works of art related to the science shown adds another level of how to emotionally involve visitors in the subject.
- ✓ Visitors were taken in unexpectedly and were immediately fascinated.  
The museum attracted many more visitors than in other years.
- ✓ The museum is planning to prolong this temporary exhibition by one more year till March 2021!
- ✓ Even in a geographically detached and rural location, particle physics enacts fascination !