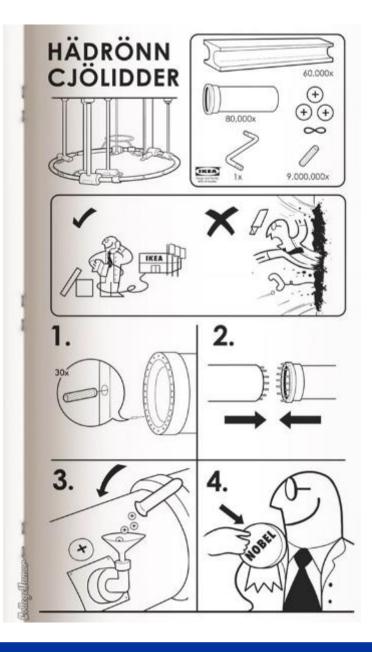
Maurizio Vretenar CERN

2nd Baltic School of High-Energy Physics and Accelerator Technologies



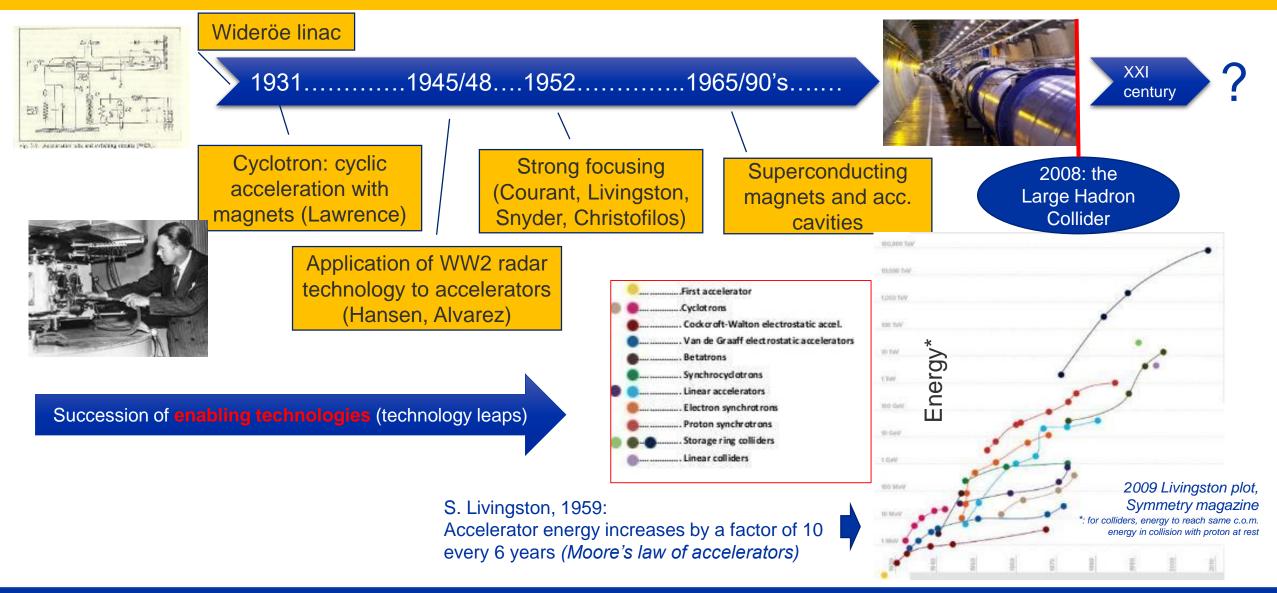
Introduction to Particle Accelerators and their Applications – Part 2

1. Accelerator evolution through innovation





Innovation in the particle accelerator field



CERN

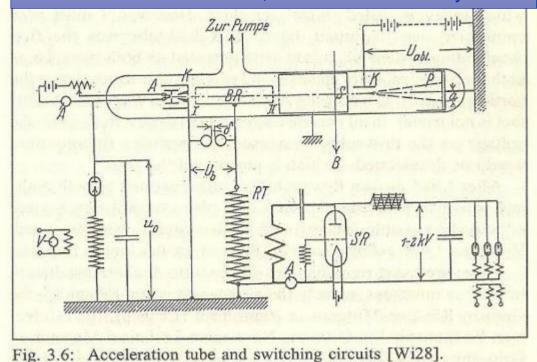
The first Radio-Frequency accelerator: Rolf Wideröe's thesis

Rolf Wideröe: a Norwegian student of electrical engineering at Karlsruhe and Aachen. Inspired by a 1924 paper by G.Ising, a Swedish professor (acceleration of particles using "voltage pulses"), in 1928 he put together for his thesis a device to demonstrate the acceleration of particles by Radio Frequency fields:



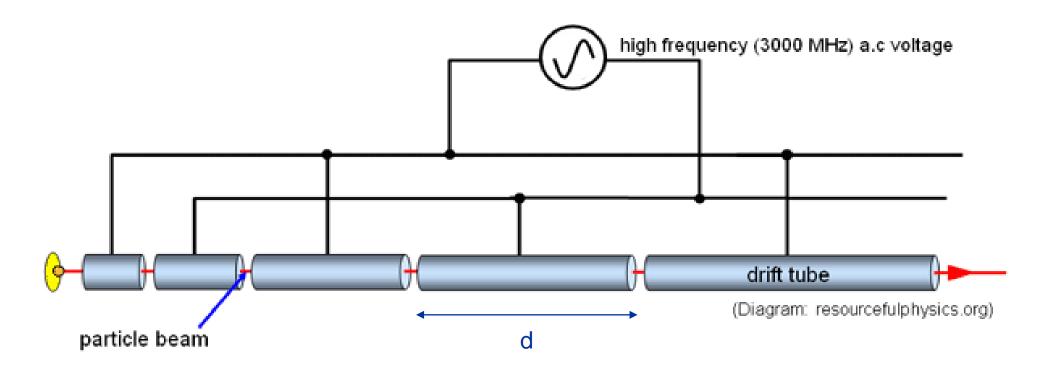
- use of a triode and of <u>radio</u> <u>technology</u> (at the time limited to 1-2 MHz) → marrying radio technology and accelerators.
- Use of a drift tube separating 2 accelerating gaps → invention of <u>synchronous RF</u> accelerators.
- 3. <u>complete</u> accelerator: ion source, RF accelerator, detector, all in vacuum

Acceleration of potassium ions 1+ with 25kV of RF at 1 MHz $\rightarrow 50 \text{ keV}$ acceleration in a 88 cm long glass tube) "at a cost of four to five hundred marks", less than $2'000 \in \text{today}!$





The linear particle accelerator



Linear accelerators are used as injectors to larger accelerators and as stand-alone when large beam intensities are required

Synchronicity:

Time to travel from one accelerating «gap» to the next must be $t = T_{RF}/2$ But t = d / βc , with d = distance between gaps and b relativistic velocity factor

d / $\beta c = T_{RF}/2 = 1/2f_{RF}$, or **d** = $\beta \lambda$ / 2

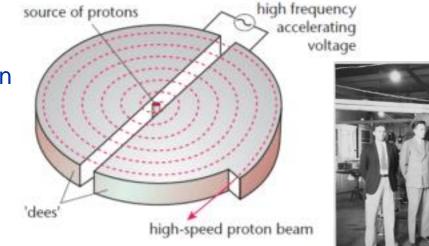


RF with cyclic acceleration: the cyclotron

- Immediately after R. Wideoroe's invention of the linear accelerator, Ernest O. Lawrence at Berkeley proposes to perform radio-frequency acceleration in a circular system, inserted in a big magnet.
- Basic principle: Use RF **electric field** to accelerate, **magnetic field** to keep particle in a circular orbit The cyclotron is born!
- Acceleration in the gap between two "D" → long path of the particles in the D, frequencies ~1 MHz can be effectively used (3.5 MHz, 1st Berkeley cyclotron).
- 2. Fortunate "coincidence": the revolution frequency does not depend on the beam energy \rightarrow RF frequency is constant !

$$\frac{mv^2}{r} = evB \qquad f = \frac{1}{\tau} = \frac{2\pi r}{v} = \frac{2\pi rm}{eBr} = \frac{2\pi m}{eB}$$

f revolution frequency





- Protons are produced by a "source" in the centre
 - They are accelerated in the gap between 2 electrodes fed with RF
- The protons go in larger and larger spirals, and their velocity increases proportionally to the spiral radius, keeping revolution frequency constant.



Basic limitations of Wideröe linac and cyclotron

Limitation to cyclotrons: relativity

The cyclotron principle is valid only for **non-relativistic** particles:

When the mass start to increase accordingly to $m = \gamma m_0$, the revolution frequency increases and the particles are no longer in phase with the RF excitation frequency.

Some corrections (modulation of the excitation frequency or shaping of the magnet field) can be applied, but conventional cyclotrons are limited in energy to ~ 70 MeV. Synchrocyclotrons can go higher (~ 500 MeV) but with high complexity and cost

 \rightarrow invention of the **synchrotron**

Limitation to Widerøe linacs: frequency

As velocity increases, to keep a reasonable distance between gaps the RF excitation frequency must increase: $f_{RF} = v_p / 2d$ When the RF excitation frequency becomes so high that the dimensions of the accelerator are comparable to the RF wavelength, the gaps start to generate electromagnetic waves and to radiate their energy

 \rightarrow invention of the RF accelerating cavity (resonator)

 $\frac{mv^2}{r} = evB \qquad f = \frac{1}{\tau} = \frac{2\pi r}{v} = \frac{2\pi rm}{eBr} = \frac{2\pi m}{eB}$



After the war, high frequencies: linacs and cavities

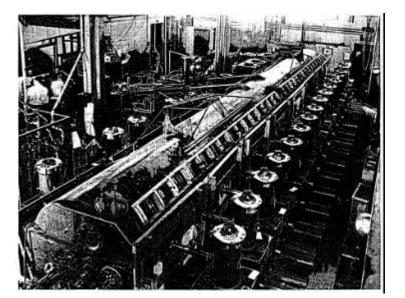
Luis Alvarez and the Drift Tube Linac

The war effort gave the <u>competences</u> and the <u>components</u> to go to frequencies in the MHz - GHz range and to try acceleration of a proton beam to the MeV range using a modified Wideröe principle.

The 1st Drift Tube Linac by L. Alvarez and his team at Berkeley, reaches 32 MeV in 1947.

Alvarez, an experimental physicists, worked at MIT on radar during the war. In 1945 had the tools and the competences to build his own accelerator.

- 1. The "tubes" are inside a cavity resonator.
- Frequency : Alvarez receives from the US Army a stock of 2'000 (!) surplus 202.56 MHz transmitters, built for a radar surveillance system. 26 were installed to power the DTL with a total of 2.2 MW. They were soon replaced because unreliable, but this frequency remained as a standard linac frequency.





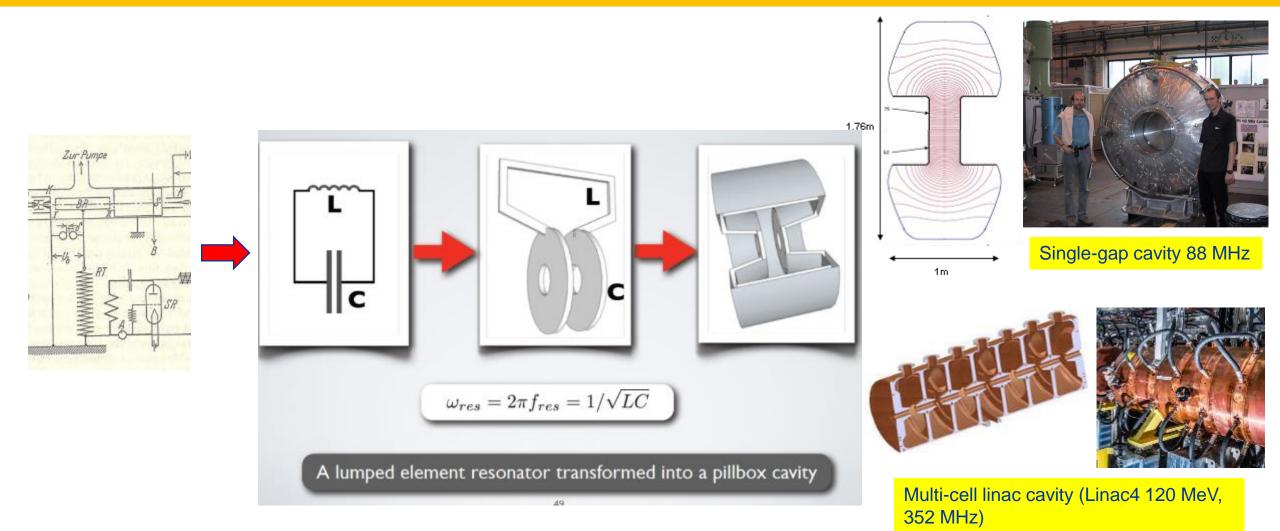


The Drift Tube Linac of Linac4, the new linear injector for the LHC

a tracter for the

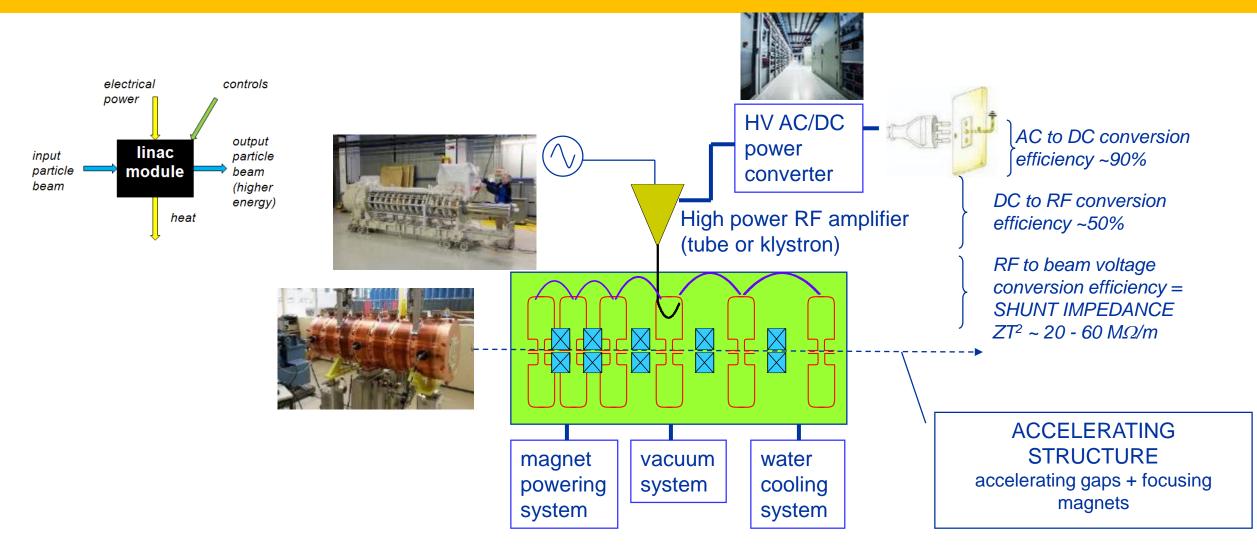


Giving energy to the particles: from the resonant circuit to the accelerating cavity



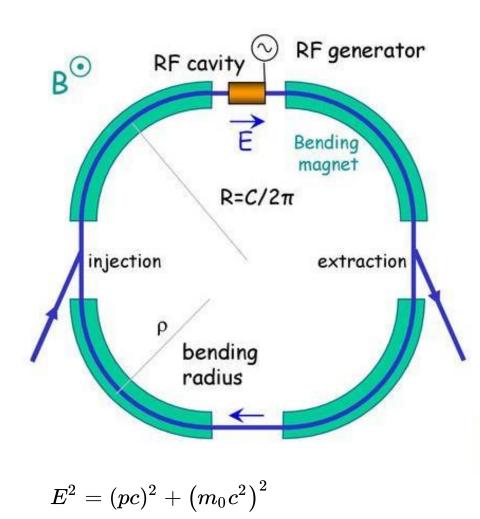


Energy flow: from the power grid to the beam





The synchrotron



Almost independently invented by V. Veksler (USSR, 1944), E. McMillan (USA, 1944) and M. Oliphant (UK, 1945, for protons).

Important step forward from the cyclotron: The orbit is fixed, the magnetic field increases during acceleration. But can work only in pulsed mode!

1. Constant orbit during acceleration

2. B must increase during acceleration proportionally to the momentum, to keep the particles on the closed orbit:

R = p / eB

3. The accelerating RF frequency must increase with time proportionally to the velocity to keep the particles on the stable phase:

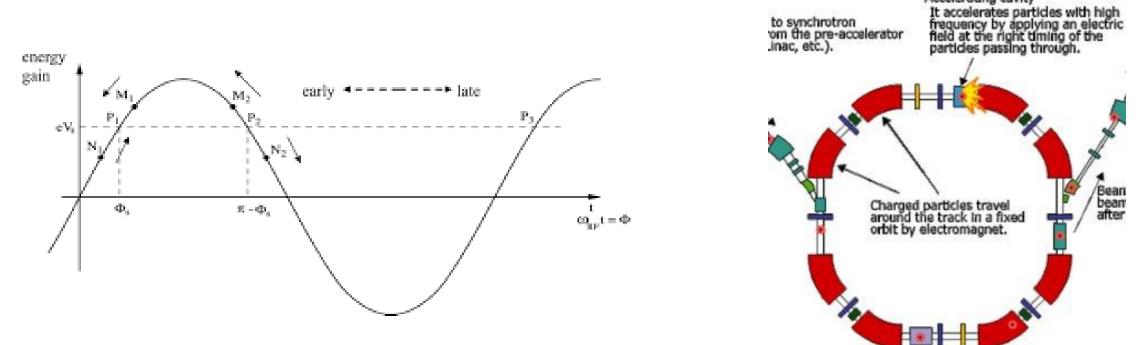
 $T_{rev} = 2\pi R / v$ $f = h/T_{rev} = v/2\pi R$



Phase stability

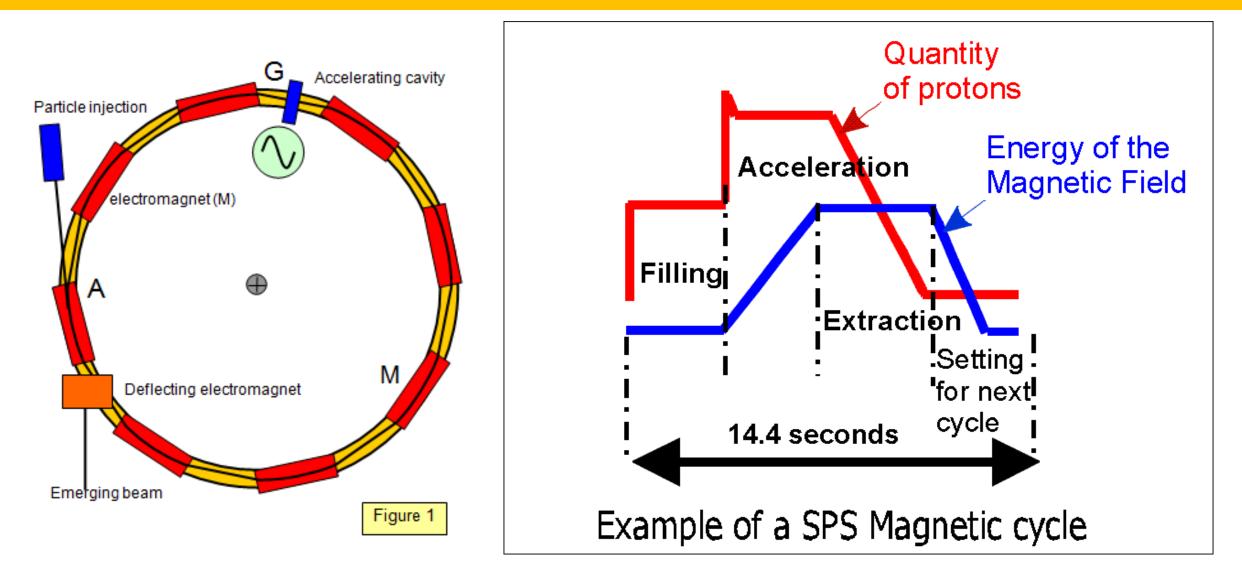
One of the main problems in the synchrotron was to keep the beam "bunched" enough to allow its acceleration during the short accelerating periods of the RF cavity.

A solution to this problem came from the parallel invention of phase stability by V. Veksler (USSR, 1944) and E. McMillan (US, 1945) – McMillan is the first to use the term "synchrotron".





Magnetic cycle





The last missing element: strong focusing

Major problems with the first synchrotrons:

- Large magnet apertures (1.22x0.22m in the Cosmotron at BNL!) to control the beam using only some weak focusing provided by shaping of magnet poles;
- Large frequency changes required for the RF system during acceleration;
- High pulsed power to be fed to the magnets.

Discovery by E. Courant (BNL) of "strong focusing" obtained by "turning" some of the Cosmotron magnets. Published in 1952 by Courant, Livingston and Snyder - the same idea had been independently patented in 1950 by N. Christofilos.

Strong focusing allows a smaller magnet aperture at much lower cost

In 1953 a delegation from CERN arrived at BNL and immediately adopted the new idea for their Proton Synchrotron (achieving 25 GeV instead of 10 GeV with the same dimensions!).

In 1959 the CERN PS was successfully commissioned, and is still in operation.



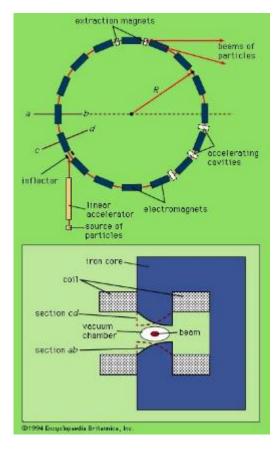
The BNL Cosmotron, 3.3 GeV, 23 m diameter



The CERN PS, 25 GeV, 200 m diameter



Alternating gradient strong focusing in a nutshell



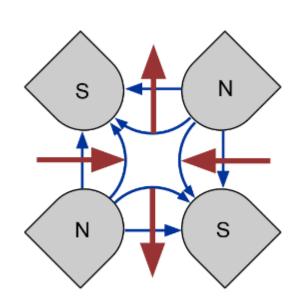


Figure 2.9: Blue magnetic field and red force directions for a focusing quadrupole

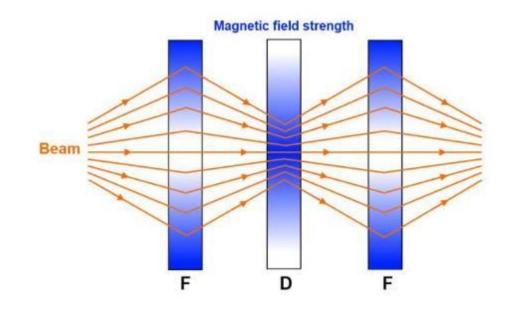
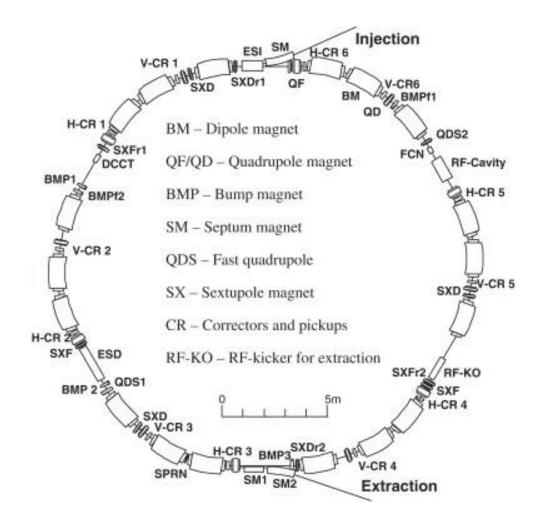


Figure 2.10: Strong focusing with alternating quadrupoles.

From the initial idea of alternate orientation of the focusing/defocusing magnet poles, to the introduction inside the ring of alternate focusing/defocusing quadrupole magnets that "control" the transverse dimensions of the beam. The main advantage is in reducing the size of the magnet aperture, with a strong reduction in magnet cost!



A complete synchrotron



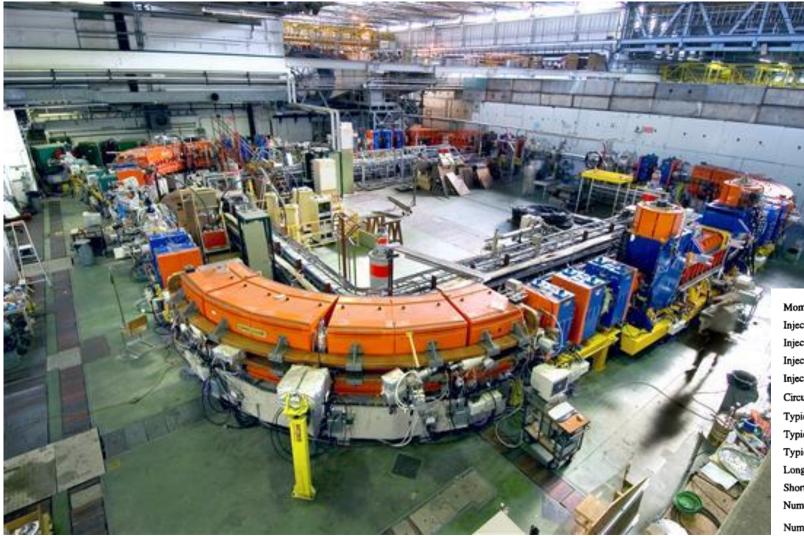
The HIMAC carbon ion therapy synchrotron (Japan)

The synchrotron is made of a long vacuum chamber where the beam circulates, which goes through a large number of different elements arranged in a "lattice":

- Dipole magnets for bending (18 in this case for 20⁰ each)
- Quadrupole magnets for focusing
- Septum magnets for injection and extraction
- Sextupoles for correcting perturbation in orbits
- Correctors and pickups
- RF caviti(es) for acceleration
- Beam diagnostics and measurement devices
- Bump magnets for beam manipulations



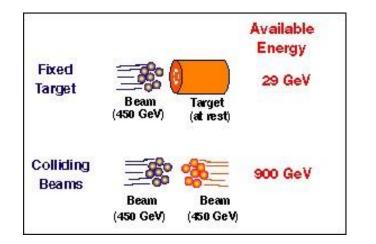
The smallest CERN synchrotron: LEIR



Momentum (kinetic energy) range	0.1-2 GeV/c (5.3 MeV-1.3 GeV)
Injection momentum (kinetic energy) for antiprotons	0.609 GeV/c (180 MeV)
Injection frequency for antiprotons	2 078.18 kHz
Injection momentum (kinetic energy) for protons	0.310 GeV/c (50 MeV)
Injection frequency for protons	1 197.84 kHz
Circumference	78.54 m (= $2\pi \times 12.5$ m)
Typical cycle	109 p injected every 4 000 s
Typical extracted beam	10 ⁵ to 10 ⁶ p/s
Typical spill length	=7 200 s
Long straight sections	4 of 8 m length each
Short straight sections (between quadrupoless and bending magnet)	8 of 0.9 m length each
Number of bending magnets, arc length, field at 2 GeV/c	4, 6.55 m, $B = 1.6$ T
Number of quads, magnetic length, maximum gradient at 2 GeV/c	16, 0.5 m, $k = 1.8 \text{ m}^{-2} (g = 12 \text{ T/m})$



Colliding particle beams



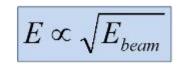
Generation of new particles depends on the centre of mass energy developed in the collision.

Relativity: energy available at centre of mass in fixed target collisions is much lower than the energy of the particle beam.

Head-on collisions of two beams traveling in opposite directions: available energy is exactly twice the energy of a single beam.

Fixed Target





Much of the energy is lost in the target and only part is used to produce secondary particles





 $E = E_{beam1} +$

All energy will be available for particle production



Technical challenges for particle colliders

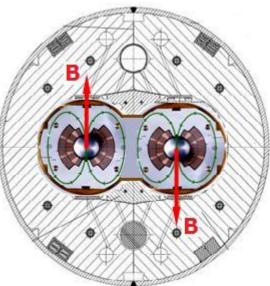
There are only 2 options to make a synchrotron with two circulating beam in opposite directions:

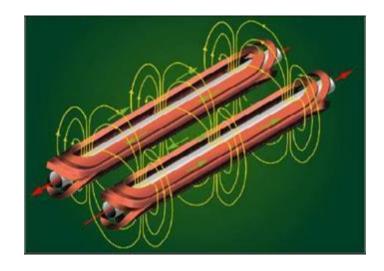
- 1. The particles have same mass but opposite sign and circulate in the same vacuum chamber and magnetic field (ex.: electron-positron and proton-antiproton colliders).
- 2. The particles are the same and they circulate in separate vacuum chambers and opposite magnetic fields (Ex.: the LHC).

Problem with 1) is the need to create intense beams of unstable particles (positrons, antiprotons).

Problem with 2) is the need to use twin-bore dipole magnets or separate magnets

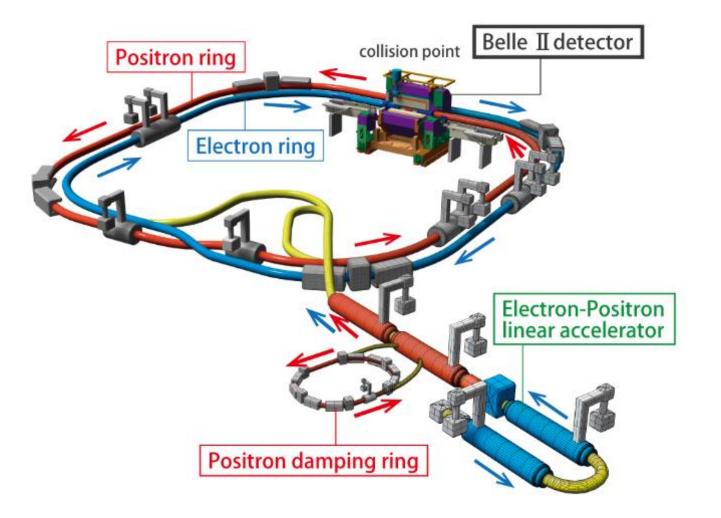








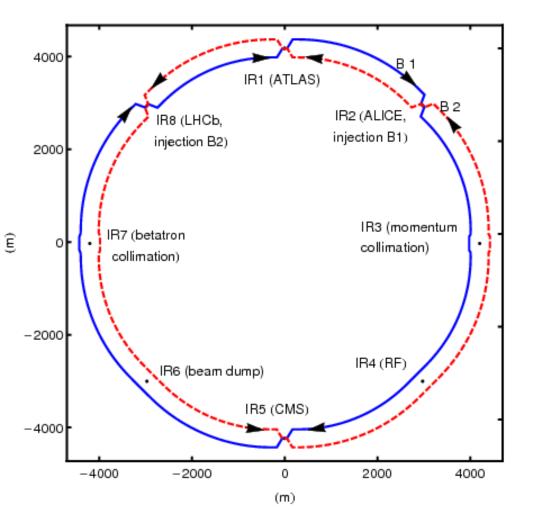
Electron – positron colliders

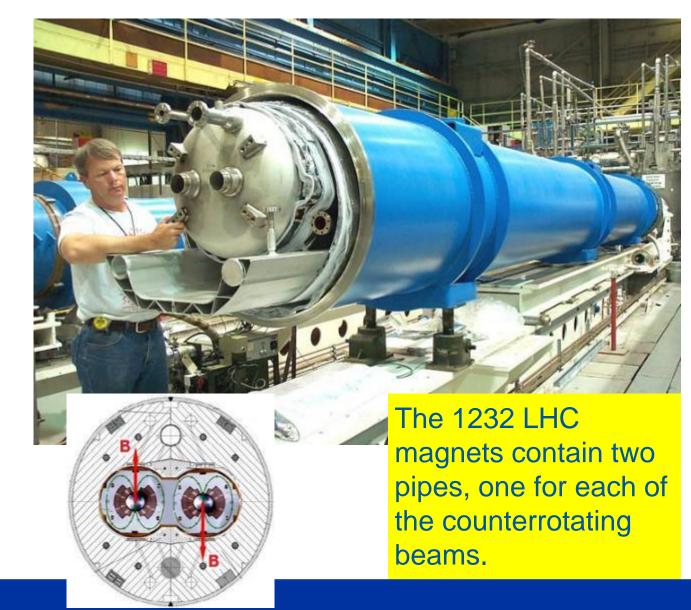


The KEK-B collider (Japan)



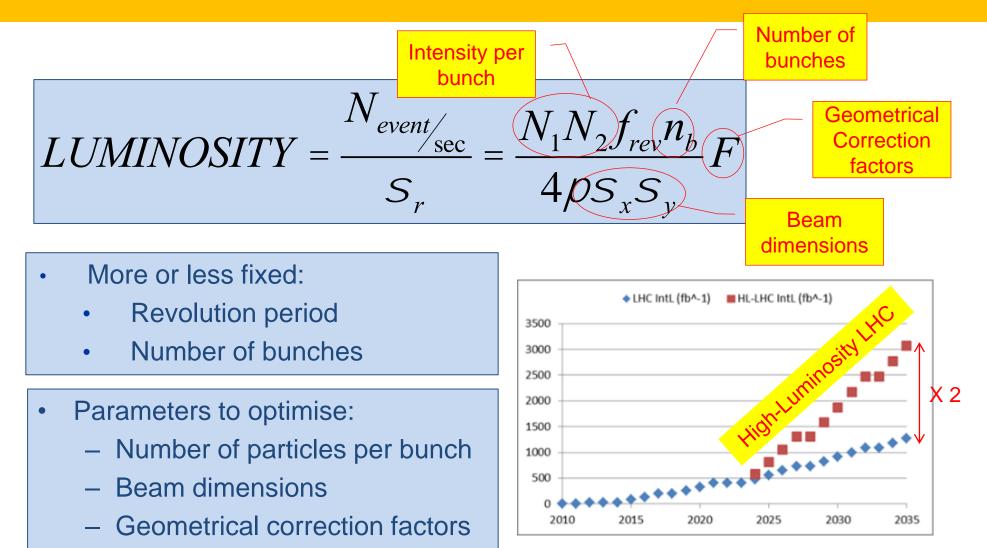
The Large Hadron Collider







Luminosity, the Collider Figure of Merit





Superconductivity and particle accelerators

Some materials present a zero electrical resistance when cooled below a characteristic temperature. Discovered in 1911, explained in 1958, started to be used for accelerators in the 1970's. Allows to build magnets that can stand higher electric currents and higher fields (not limited by water cooling) and accelerating RF cavities that do not dissipate power and have higher electrical efficiency.

Materials used in accelerators are Niobium-Titanium for magnets Niobium for RF cavities.



The LHC magnet superconducting cable



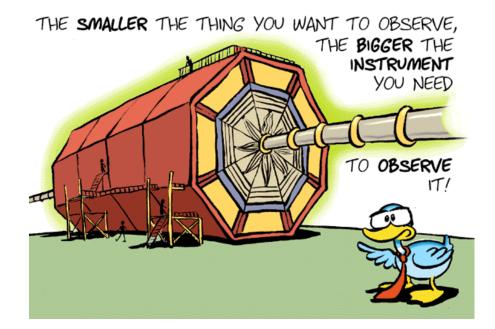
Clean room assembly of superconducting RF cavities

BUT: a superconducting accelerator requires a huge cooling system That keeps all elements at liquid helium temperature

One of the 8 compressor units of the 4.5 K refrigerator for LHC



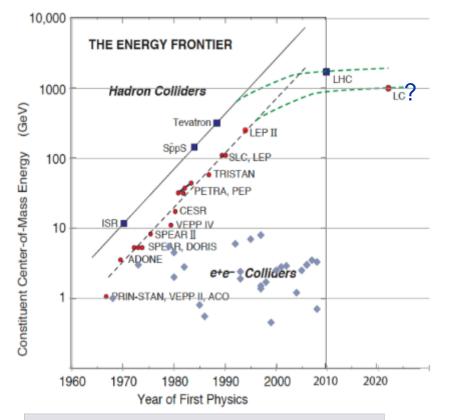
2. Challenges for particle accelerator science in the XXIst century





Particle Accelerators in 2022

We have reached the end of exponential growth...



Updated Livingstone-type chart (Wikipedia 2014, uploaded by J.Nash, Imperial College)

but the field has never been so flourishing!

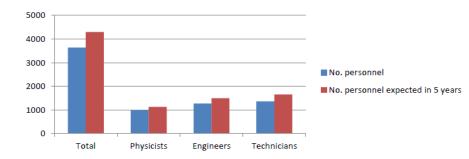


Figure 2.1: Total number of current personnel (blue) engaged in accelerator science activities a research institutes. The number of personnel expected in 5 years is shown in red.

TIARA Need for Accelerator Scientists report, 2013: 3'700 people engaged in accelerator science in Europe, growing to 4'400 by 2018.





As many as **50** ongoing accelerator construction or upgrade projects listed in the 2017 IPAC Conference (13 America, 11 Asia, 26 Europe)

How many particle accelerators there are in the world?



Multiple challenges for accelerator science

There are more than 35'000 particle accelerators in operation around the world:

- For all XXth century, fundamental science has been the driving force for the development of new accelerators, with its continuous quest for high energies required to discover new particles.
- In this early XXI century, we are moving to a new paradigm where together with particle physics, applied science (photon and neutron science) and healthcare appear as driving forces for innovation.

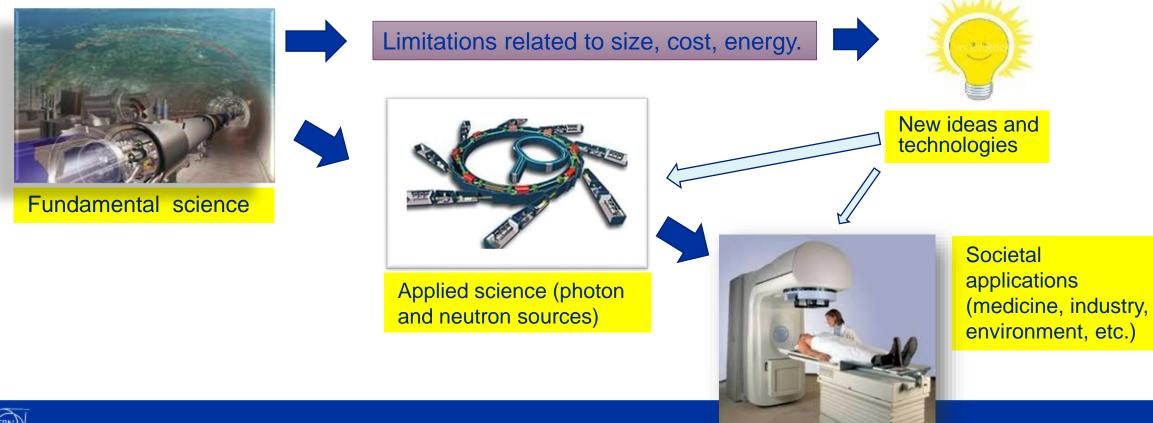
What is the role of accelerators in this transition?

Research		6%
	Particle Physics	0,5%
	Nuclear Physics, solid state, materials	0,5%
	Biology	5%
Medical Applications		35%
	Diagnostics/treatment with X-ray or electrons	33%
	Radio-isotope production	2%
	Proton or ion treatment	0,1%
Industrial Applications		60%
	Ion implantation	34%
	Cutting and welding with electron beams	16%
	Polymerization	7%
	Neutron testing	3.5%
	Non destructive testing	2,3%



Accelerators in transition

- 1. Transition to new more affordable and sustainable technologies for basic science
- 2. Transition from basic science as main technology driver to a multiple system where basic and applied science, medicine and industry will together drive accelerator development.
- 3. Transition from a centralized configuration based on large laboratories to a distributed scheme (project clusters of small and large laboratories and industry)





Big challenges for accelerator science

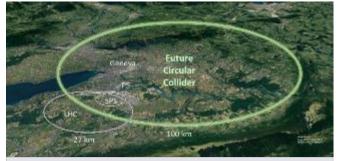
Making accelerator-based particle physics research more sustainable is one of the main challenges to the accelerator community in this XXIst century.

At the same time, we need to work to bring accelerator technology outside of our traditional laboratories, to be used for applied science (materials, biology, etc.), medicine and industry. After the LHC, the next generation of accelerators for basic science will reach unprecedented dimensions and costs.

Developing their technology requires new ideas to be developed in a larger environment than basic science



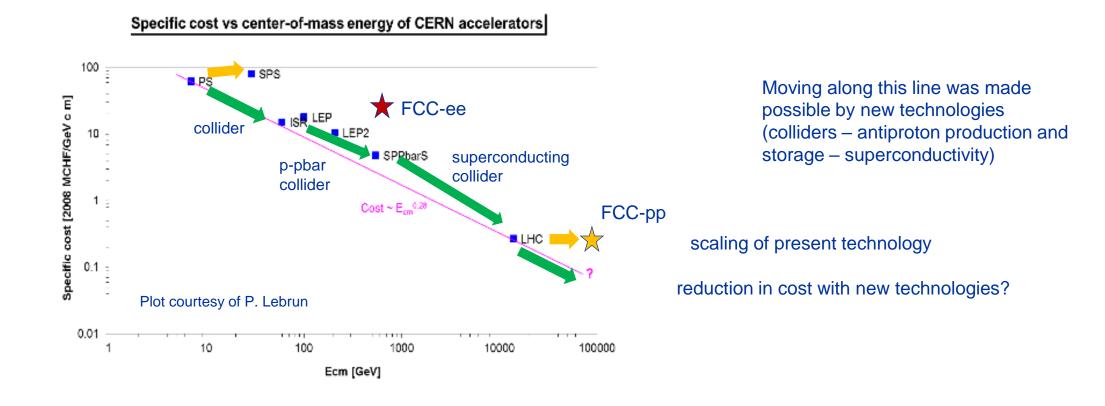
We need new ideas (innovation!) We need a collaborative and creative environment for these ideas to grow



From the LHC (27 km) to the Future Circular Collider (100 km) ?



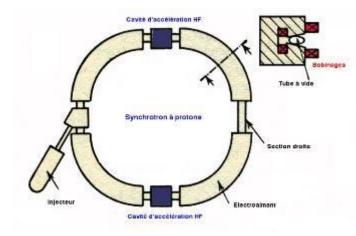
Frontier accelerators – economic sustainability



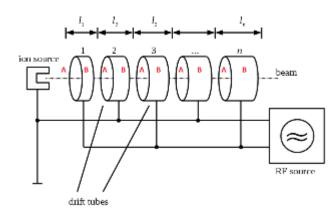
Where is the limit of sustainability? It depends on the economical environment and on the priorities of a given society. To remain within the present limits we need an effort to produce innovative technologies.



Two directions to make smaller accelerators



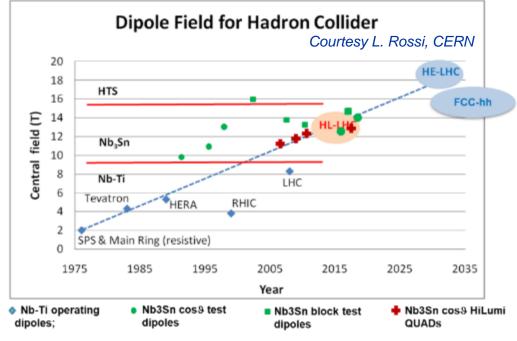
Synchrotrons: p/q=Bp Need to maximise magnetic field Superconductivity is mandatory, the limitations is the critical current density Jc for SC magnets



Linear accelerators: $W=E\ell$ Need to maximise **electric field** Limitations: arcing between electrodes, field emission, etc. (and RF power, proportional to V² !)



The magnetic field frontier in superconducting magnets



R&D towards a 20 T HTS dipole magnet, develop 10 kA cable. REBCO (rare earth barium copper oxyde) deposition on stainless substrate, tape arranged in Roebel cables. values of 900-1200 A/mm2 at 4.2 K, 18-20 T have been obtained





Fig. 1. A 12 mm sape produced by BHTS via ABAD and PLD method.

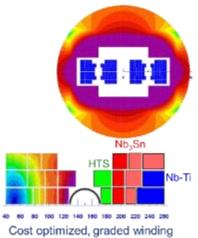


1. **NbTi** (Niobium Titanium as in the LHC): mature but limited to about 9T field.

2. Nb₃Sn (Niobium Tin) technology has seen a great boost in the past decade (factor 3 in J_C w/r to ITER) but is not yet used in an accelerator – The HL-LHC upgrade will be the first one.

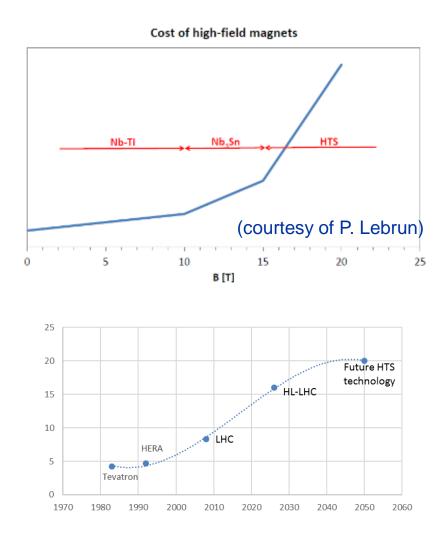
3. **HTS** (High-Temperature Superconductor) technology still in the experimental phase (Production quantities, homogeneity and cost need to evolve!) but can be a disruptive technology for future high-field magnets.

A 20 T HE-LHC dipole L. Rossi & E. Todesco, (CERN)



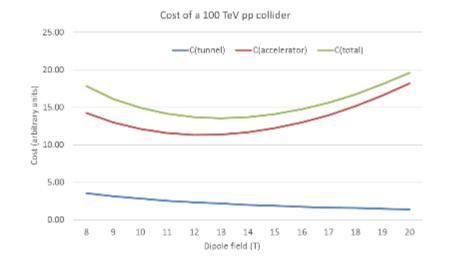
Right: layered structures with sections of different conductors Left: new magnet designs are required for HTS

HTS magnets – reducing cost is the main challenge



HTS allows reducing the size of the accelerator but not (yet) the cost.

HTS is presently about 5 times the cost of Nb3Sn, but other communities (e.g. fusion) could contribute to reducing the price in the next years.



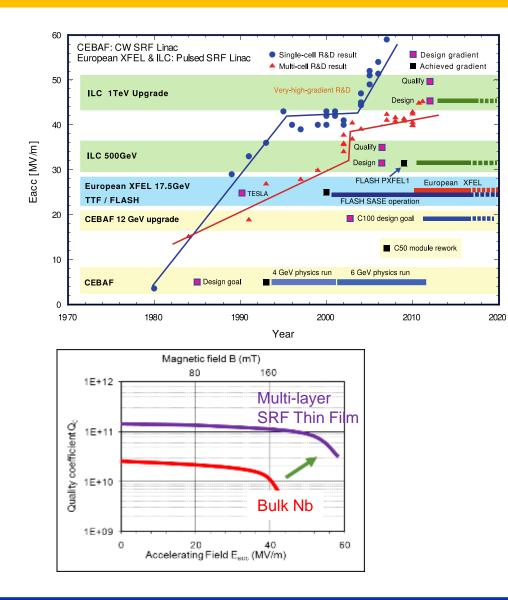


100 CHF (=100\$) of YBCO HTS tape built by Bruker HTS for CERN

Is superconducting magnet technology approaching saturation ? Large increase in cost for small performance improvements



The electric field frontier – superconducting cavities





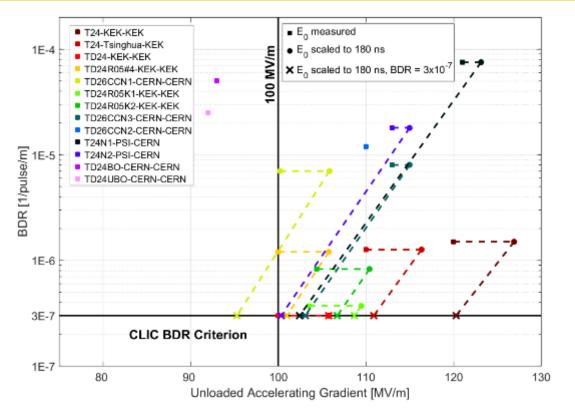
TRENDS:

- Nitrogen infusion process (FNAL) and other doping techniques: high Q operation, gradients ~45 MV/m
- Coating of Nb with a thin layer of Nb₃Sn (allows operation at larger T, improved cryogenic efficiency)
- Coating of Cu cavites with Nb by HiPIMS (High Power Impulse Magnetron Sputtering,

Long-term goal: $60 \rightarrow 90 \text{ MV/m}$



The electric field frontier – normal conducting cavities

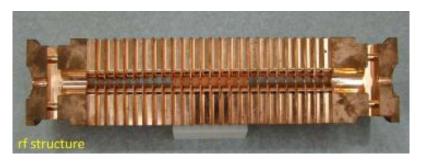


Pulsed systems, characterised by a BreakDown Rate (BDR), pulses lost because of vacuum arcing in the structure

100 MV/m gradient can be achieved (and exceeded)

... but power scales as the square of gradient! High gradient means smaller dimensions but higher power consumption.

Most advanced results by the Compact Linear Collider (CLIC) study based at CERN (X-band, 12 GHz) Large international collaboration to understand the physics of breakdown phenomena.







Efficient energy management – a must for future projects

Total electricity consumption (GWh/y)			
PSI	125		
ESRF	60		
ISIS	70		
KVI	4		
INFN	25		
ALBA-CELLS	20		
GSI	60		
CERN	1200		
SOLEIL	37		
ESS	317		
MAX IV	66		
DESY	150		

Electrical power consumption (MW) for LHC and future projects (estimated)				
	normal	Stand-by		
LHC	122	89		
HL-LHC	141	101		
ILC	230			
CLIC 500 GeV	235	167		
CLIC 1.5 TeV	364	190		
FCC hh	580	300?		

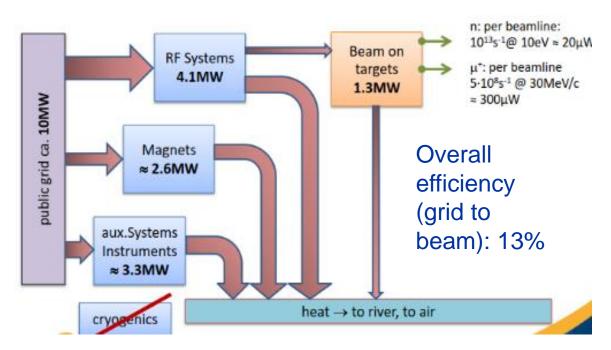
Future large projects require huge amounts of electrical power. Example: the ILC needs about 1/3 of a Fukushima-type nuclear reactor.

Going green? to supply CLIC500 or ILC would be needed 200 large windmills (80m diameter, 2.5 MW, 50% efficiency) covering a 100 km distance.

Accelerators dissipate large amounts of power - this is related to the high «energy quality» of the particle beam energy.

Overall efficiency from <1% to some 20%, depending on the application (more than on the accelerator).

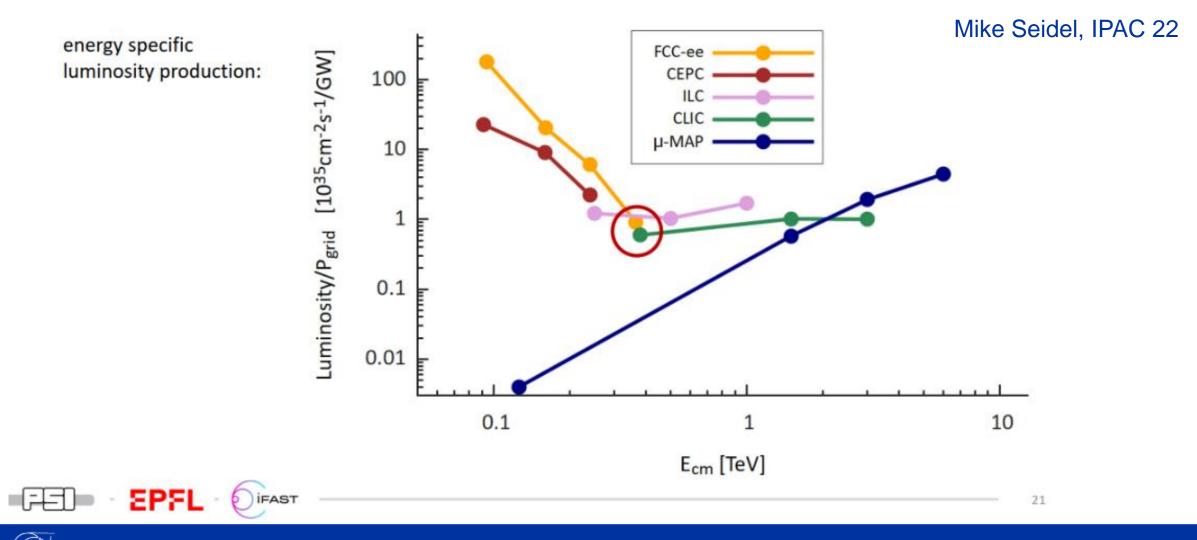
Large efforts ongoing in the accelerator community to develop components with better efficiency (e.g. superconductivity, permanent magnets, highefficiency RF sources). 50% reachable for some high-power superconducting systems.



Example: power flow in the PSI cyclotron facility



Efficiency of proposed high-energy lepton accelerators

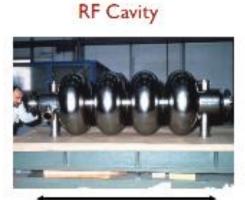


New acceleration techniques using lasers and plasmas

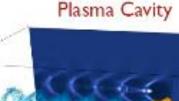
Accelerating field of today's RF cavities or microwave technology is **limited to <100 MV/m** Several tens of kilometers for future linear colliders

Plasma can sustain up to three orders of magnitude much higher gradient

SLAC (2007): electron energy doubled from 42GeV to 85 GeV over 0.8 m \rightarrow 52GV/m gradient



I m => 100 MeV Gain Electric field < 100 MV/m



Imm => 100 MeV Electric field > 100 GV/m

V. Malka et al., Science 298, 1596 (2002)

Lasers can produce huge transverse electric fields (TV/m !)

Can we convert the transverse fields into longitudinal and use them for acceleration?



Send THz Laser into Dielectric Waveguide (Micro-Accelerator)

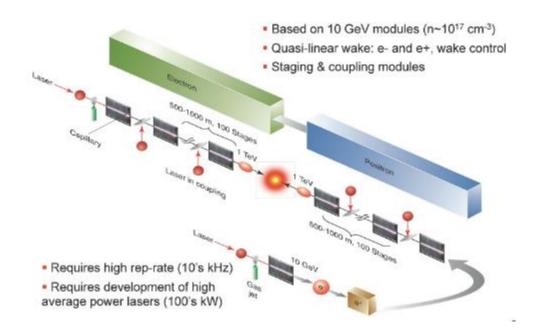


The «accelerator on a chip»

Use a plasma to convert the transverse electrical field of the laser (or the space charge force of a beam driver) into a longitudinal electrical field, by creating plasma waves.

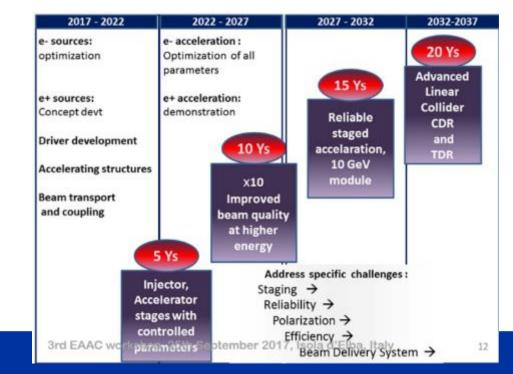


Towards a plasma-based linear collider?



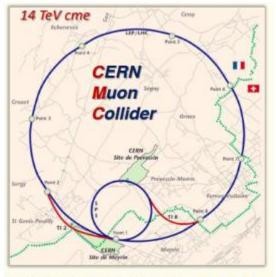
W.P. Leemans & E. Esarey, Physics Today, March 2009 Main challenges

- Beam acceleration with small energy spread
- Preservation of small e-beam emittance
- Concepts for positron acceleration with high brightness
- High efficiency of acceleration for e⁻ and e⁺
- Staging required to reach very high energies
- Repetition rates averaging 10s of kHz
- Beam stability and reproducibility



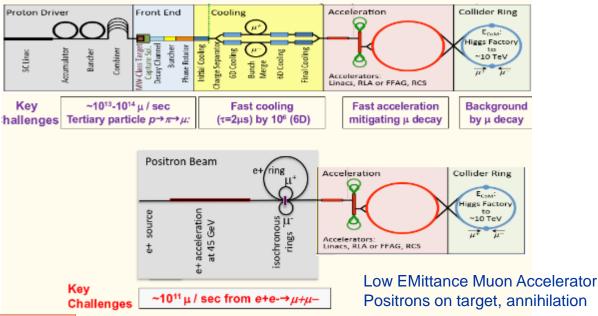


Other options for high energy: muon collider



MOPMF072, IPAC18, V. Shiltzev, D. Neuffer





Colliding muons:

Muons are leptons, similar to electrons but heavier (207 times), produced by pion decay or electron/positron annihilation, have a lifetime of only 2.2 μ s.

Critical components:

- Muon production complex (proton or positron beam, MAP or LEMMA)
- Muon acceleration complex
- Neutrino radiation

- A μ⁺μ⁻ collider offers an ideal technology to extend lepton high energy frontier in the multi-TeV range:
 - No synchrotron radiation (limit of e⁺e⁻ circular colliders)
 - No beamstrahlung (limit of e⁺e⁻ linear colliders)
 - $-\,$ but muon lifetime is 2.2 μs (at rest)
- Best performances in terms of luminosity and power consumption

Excellent in term of power/luminosity, potential for cost savings Many critical technical challenges requiring R&D



3. Accelerators for society



The Economist, October 2013



Accelerators for medicine and industry

>35000 accelerators in use world-wide: Treating cancer
44% for radiotherapy
41% for ion implantation
9% for industrial applications
9% for industrial applications
4% low energy research
4% low energy research
4% medical isotope production
4% research



Radiotherapy electron linac



A tandem accelerator for material and artwork analysis



A commercial system for ion implantation



The IBA Rhodotron for production of intense electron beams



Proton cyclotron for radioisotope production



Particle accelerators for industry, energy and security





Radiation or Reason?

The diffusion of sterilisation with accelerators is limited by very restrictive regulations and very cautious consumer habits. Treatment with «radiation» has no effect on the final consumer and avoids using dangerous chemicals to sterilise food.



Fig. 4.12: E-beam technology for stenilising medical products.





Fig. 4.13: Tetra Pak has a new generation of automated filling machines that uses e-beams to sterilise backaging



Environmental applications of accelerators

Low-energy electrons can break molecular bonds and be used for:

- Flue gas treatment (cleaning of SOx from smokes of fossil fuel power plants)
- Wastewater and sewage treatment
- Treatment of marine diesel exhaust gases (removal of SOx and NOx).
- Maritime transport is the largest contributor to air pollution: a cruise ship emits as much sulphur oxides as 1 million cars!
- Ships burn Heavy Fuel Oil, cheap but rich in Sulphur. Diesels (high efficiency) emit Nitrogen oxides and particulate matter.
- New legislation is going to drastically limit SOx and NOx emissions from shipping, with priority to critical coastal areas.
- So far, technical solutions exist to reduce SOx or NOx, but there is no economically viable solution for both.

Hybrid Exhaust Gas Cleaning Retrofit Technology for International Shipping (HERTIS)

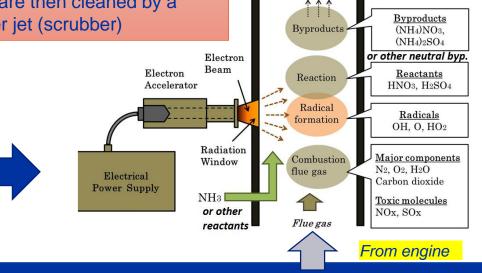
A project based on a patent from INCT Warsaw promoted by a collaboration of research institutions (including CERN), accelerator industry, shipyards, maritime companies, maritime associations (Germany, UK, Switzerland, Poland, Latvia, Italy).



To air

Recovery

150 kV electron accelerator to break the high order molecules that are then cleaned by a water jet (scrubber)





Test of HERTIS at Riga Shipyard, July 2019

Mobile electron accelerator system from FAP Dresden commonly used to treat crops connected to the exhaust funnel of the Orkāns, an old Soviet-built tugboat. The fumes then passed through a small water scrubber before being released in the air.



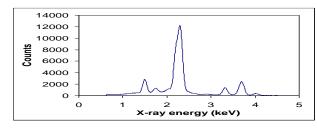


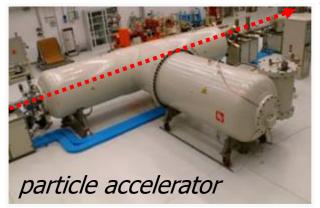
Accelerators for art

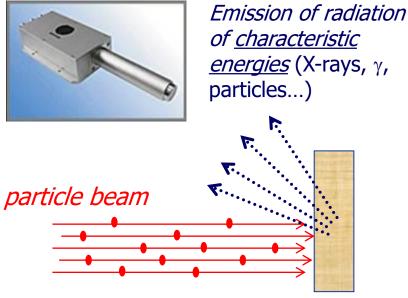
Ion Beam Analysis (e.g. PIXE, Proton Induced X-ray Emission)

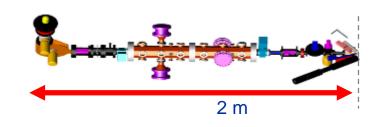
A beam of particles (protons) from an accelerator is sent on a sample (e.g. a painting) The atoms are excited and emit different types of radiation (X-rays, gammas, etc.) Different atomic elements emit X-rays at different energies – Spectral analysis from one or more detectors allows determination of the chemical composition (e.g. of the pigments).

Radiation detection and spectral analysis



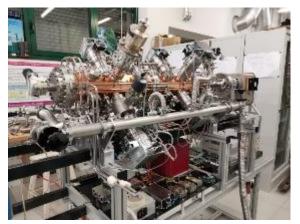








Ritratto Trivulzio by Antonello da Messina, 1476 – analysis at INFN-LABEC (Florence)



Portable PIXE system based on an RFQ linac being built by CERN and LABEC



4. Miniature accelerators?





Towards the miniature accelerator

Important trend towards miniaturization of accelerators, for use in medicine and industry

Here are presented only three examples of recent developments at CERN:

The mini-RFQ (Radio Frequency Quadrupole)



750 MHze 92 mm diameter 2.5 MeV/m



Proton therapy injector (in operation) Artwork PIXE analysis (in construction, transportable) Isotope production (design) Neutron radiography (conceptual stage)



X-band structures



Developed for CLIC, in operation at CLIC test stand

- Compact XFEL (CompactLight Design Study)
- VHEE and FLASH therapy linac (design)

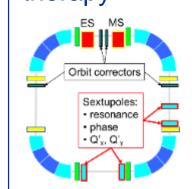
- SmartLight (table top inverse Compton scattering light source, design)



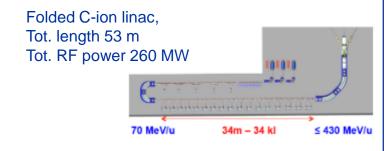
12 GHz

100 MeV/m

Compact accelerators for ion therapy



Superconducting C-ion synchrotron Bmax 3.5 T 27m circumference

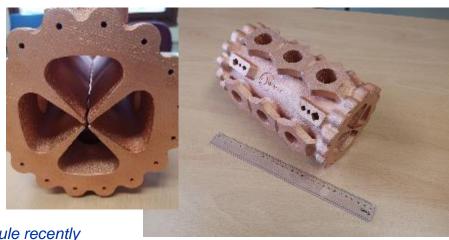




Miniature technologies today

Category	Particle	Configuration	Energy/Footprint (achieved, acc. only)	Ancillaries	Main limitations
Incremental technologies (RF)	protons	mini-RFQ	~ 2 MeV/m ²	RF system	RF power density, beam acceptance
	protons	mini-cyclotron	~ 5 MeV/m ²	RF, power supply	Shielding, magnet weight
	electrons	X-band RF	~ 20 MeV/m ²	RF system	Breakdown rate
Disruptive technologies (laser/based)	p, ions	laser accelerator	~ 10 MeV/m ²	Laser	Energy dispersion, beam emittance, efficiency
	electrons	dielectric laser (DLA)	~ GeV/m ²	Laser	Beam optics, thermal loading, radiation damage, efficiency

- > Some margin for improvement in conventional RF technologies
- Long R&D needed for disruptive laser technologies
- Thermal limitations due to power density: the small accelerator will never be able to generate large beam powers.



The Additive Manufactured Mini-RFQ (750 MHz) prototype module recently developed by I.FAST WP10.2 (RTU, CERN, CNRS, TalTech, CEA, INFN)



The demand for compact accelerators: applications

		Minimum energy	Market	Challenges	Opportunities		
Medicine	Radioisotope production	7 MeV (PET)	Mature (several competing vendors)	Reduce cost/dose, production in hospitals	New isotopes under study or clinical trials (theragnostics, alpha therapy, etc.)		
	Cancer treatment	250 MeV (protons), 100 MeV (electrons) 430 MeV/u (carbon)	Expanding (6 vendors for protons)	Reduce cost, size. Integrate diagnostics.	FLASH treatment for electrons and protons		
Industry	Ion Beam Analysis	2 MeV (protons)	Limited by cost	Reduce cost, size	Artwork analysis, film analysis in industry, etc.		
	Neutron radiography	4 MeV (deuterons, protons)	Presently small	Activation, portability	Industrial imaging		
	X-ray analysis	> 4 MeV electrons	Mature, expanding	Portability	Security		
	Beam treatment	< 1 MeV electrons	Presently limited	Beam power, public perception	Environment (sludge, microplastics, flue gas)		
plus many more ideas on alternative and original usages of particle beams							

- while many companies sell accelerator components, only few company in the market sell a «beam», i.e. are fully responsible for the beam quality.
- > Small ("miniature") accelerators can be excellent entry points for new companies entering the field.



Some examples, protons and ions



The CERN-INFN high-frequency RFQ-based system for artwork analysis: 2 MeV in 1.4 m2, less than 250 kg, 3 electronic racks





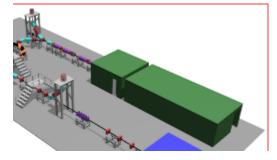
T. Antaya with steel pole and yoke pieces for the lonetix, a 12.5 MeV cyclotron called the Isotron. (Courtesy of Ionetix)



The AMIT superconducting cyclotron of CIEMAT (Spain), 8.5 MeV, 10 uA, in construction



Cyclone KEY from IBA, 9.2 MeV (courtesy IBA)



Design of the 10 MeV laser linac section of LhARA (Laser-hybrid Accelerator for Radiobiological Applications) a collaboration coordinated by Imperial College, UK

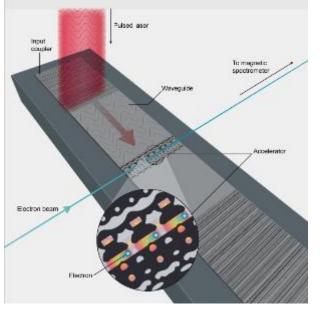


Some examples, electrons

Disruptive

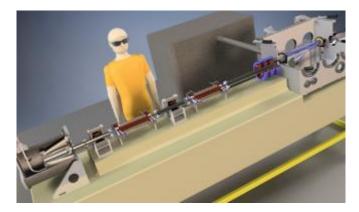
Accelerator on a Chip

A laser, almed from above this silicon chip, hits a grating called an input coupler, which directs the energy into a channel called a waveguide. Electromagnetic waves radiate out, moving parallel to the waveguide until they reach an etched pattern called the accelerator structure. This structure manipulates the waves that hill it to create a focused electromagnetic field. As electrons move through this field, they gain energy and accelerate.

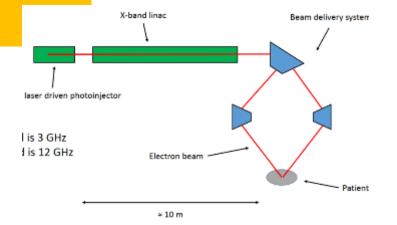


Credit: M. Thomas Baum, Buckyball Design, from "On-Chip Integrated Laser-Driven Particle Accelerator," by Neil V. Sapra et al., in Science, Vol. 367; January 3, 2020

Incremental



Smart*Light, a Compact Inverse Compton Scattering Xray Source in construction at TU Eindhoven (NL), 60 MeV electrons, high brilliance @ 100 keV X-rays



DEFT (Deep Electron FLASH Therapy) facility being built by a collaboration CERN/CHUV, to produce 100 MeV electrons for FLASH cancer therapy.

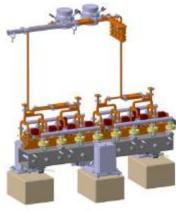
- Maximum energy of beam > 100 MeV Depth of tumor
- Treatment time < 500 ms FLASH effect
- Largest field > 10 cm Clinical scope

The CLIC

module

accelerating

 Current average over treatment > 100 µA – Field size over time capability





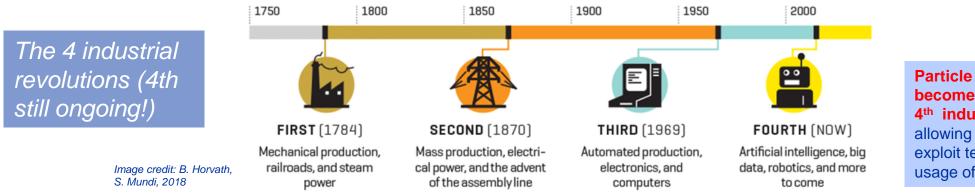
Some conclusions - at the roots of innovation

Particle accelerators are facing a critical moment in their evolution.

The expectations on accelerators from basic science, applied science, medicine and industry are increasing but some of our technologies are still the same as Wideröe's invention almost 100 years ago.

There is today a lot of space and encouragement for **innovative ideas**! But, what are the ingredients of innovation?

- 1. Merge inputs from different science and technology fields (look around you!)
- 2. Challenge the established traditions (but respect experience!)
- 3. Take risks (but foresee mitigations!)



Particle accelerators can become crucial actors of the 4th industrial revolution

allowing industry and medicine to exploit technologies based on the usage of subatomic particles



IFAST

Thank you for your attention, I am looking forward to your questions!



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