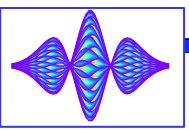


Special relativity, electromagnetism, classical and quantum mechanics: what to remember for particle accelerators

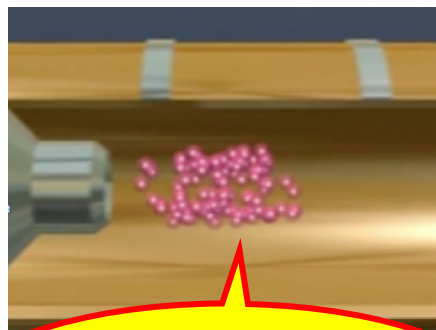
E. Métral (CERN and JUAS director)



What is the link between...?

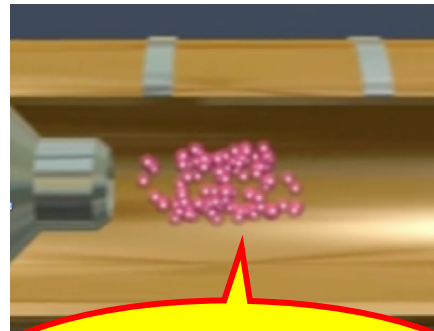


What is the link between...?



Group (“bunch”) of particles (e.g.: p⁺)

What is the link between...?

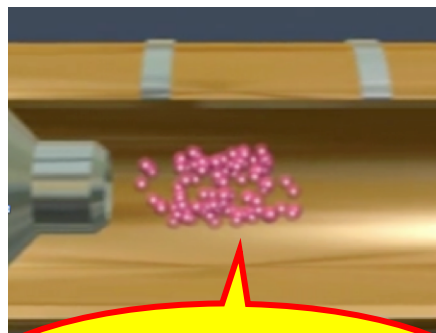


Group (“bunch”) of particles (e.g.: p^+)



Neurons in a human brain

What is the link between...?



Group (“bunch”) of particles (e.g.: p^+)

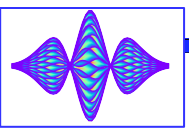


Neurons in a human brain

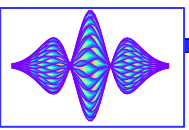


YOU ARE HERE

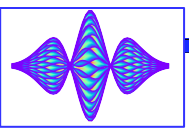
Stars in our galaxy (Milky Way)



=> The number!



=> **The number!**: the number of particles (protons) per bunch in the CERN LHC is similar to the number of neurons in a human brain or the number of stars in our galaxy (Milky Way).



=> **The number!**: the number of particles (protons) per bunch in the CERN LHC is similar to the number of neurons in a human brain or the number of stars in our galaxy (Milky Way).
What is the order of magnitude of this number?

=> **The number!**: the number of particles (protons) per bunch in the CERN LHC is similar to the number of neurons in a human brain or the number of stars in our galaxy (Milky Way).

What is the order of magnitude of this number?

* 10^6

* 10^9

* 10^{11}

* 10^{13}

* 10^{15}

=> **The number!**: the number of particles (protons) per bunch in the CERN LHC is similar to the number of neurons in a human brain or the number of stars in our galaxy (Milky Way).

What is the order of magnitude of this number?

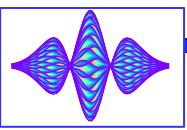
* 10^6

* 10^9

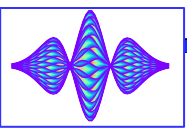
* 10^{11}

* 10^{13}

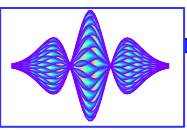
* 10^{15}



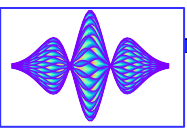
- ◆ Furthermore, there is often much more than only 1 bunch in a particle accelerator



- ◆ Furthermore, there is often much more than only 1 bunch in a particle accelerator: **how many bunches in the LHC?**



- ◆ Furthermore, there is often much more than only 1 bunch in a particle accelerator: ~ **5500 bunches in the LHC!**



- ◆ Furthermore, there is often much more than only 1 bunch in a particle accelerator: ~ **5500 bunches in the LHC!**

=> How can we keep under control

- ◆ Furthermore, there is often much more than only 1 bunch in a particle accelerator: ~ **5500 bunches in the LHC!**

=> How can we keep under control
*1 (charged) particle?

- ◆ Furthermore, there is often much more than only 1 bunch in a particle accelerator: ~ **5500 bunches in the LHC!**

=> How can we keep under control

- * 1 (charged) particle?

- * $\sim 10^{11}$ particles grouped together in 1 bunch?

- ◆ Furthermore, there is often much more than only 1 bunch in a particle accelerator: **~ 5500 bunches in the LHC!**

=> How can we keep under control

- * 1 (charged) particle?

- * $\sim 10^{11}$ particles grouped together in 1 bunch?

- * ~ 5500 bunches?

| Date and time | Subject | Lecturer | Remarks |
|-------------------------|--|------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 11 April 10.00-12.00 | Introduction to accelerators, overview of accelerator types – part 1/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| | History of accelerators – part 1/2 | | |
| 11 April 14.00-16.00 | Special relativity, electromagnetism, classical and quantum mechanics: What to remember for particle accelerators": Part 1/3 | Dr. Elias METRAL (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 12 April 10.00-12.00 | Introduction to accelerators, overview of accelerator types – part 2/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| | History of accelerators – part 2/2 | | |
| 12 April 14.00-16.00 | Special relativity, electromagnetism, classical and quantum mechanics: What to remember for particle accelerators": Part 2/3 | Dr. Elias METRAL (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 13 April 10.00-12.00 | Linear accelerators – part 1/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 13 April 14.00-16.00 | Special relativity, electromagnetism, classical and quantum mechanics: What to remember for particle accelerators": Part 3/3 | Dr. Elias METRAL (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 14 April 14.00-16.00 | Linear accelerators – part 2/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |

| Date and time | Subject | Lecturer | Remarks |
|-------------------------|--|------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 11 April 10.00-12.00 | Introduction to accelerators, overview of accelerator types – part 1/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| | History of accelerators – part 1/2 | | |
| 11 April 14.00-16.00 | Special relativity, electromagnetism, classical and quantum mechanics: What to remember for particle accelerators": Part 1/3 | Dr. Elias METRAL (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 12 April 10.00-12.00 | Introduction to accelerators, overview of accelerator types – part 2/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| | History of accelerators – part 2/2 | | |
| 12 April 14.00-16.00 | Special relativity, electromagnetism, classical and quantum mechanics: What to remember for particle accelerators": Part 2/3 | Dr. Elias METRAL (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 13 April 10.00-12.00 | Linear accelerators – part 1/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 13 April 14.00-16.00 | Special relativity, electromagnetism, classical and quantum mechanics: What to remember for particle accelerators": Part 3/3 | Dr. Elias METRAL (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 14 April 14.00-16.00 | Linear accelerators – part 2/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |

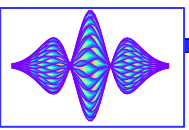
| Date and time | Subject | Lecturer | Remarks |
|-------------------------|--|------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 11 April 10.00-12.00 | Introduction to accelerators, overview of accelerator types – part 1/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| | History of accelerators – part 1/2 | | |
| 11 April 14.00-16.00 | Special relativity, electromagnetism, classical and quantum mechanics: What to remember for particle accelerators": Part 1/3 | Dr. Elias METRAL (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 12 April 10.00-12.00 | Introduction to accelerators, overview of accelerator types – part 2/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| | History of accelerators – part 2/2 | | |
| 12 April 14.00-16.00 | Special relativity, electromagnetism, classical and quantum mechanics: What to remember for particle accelerators": Part 2/3 | Dr. Elias METRAL (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 13 April 10.00-12.00 | Linear accelerators – part 1/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 13 April 14.00-16.00 | Special relativity, electromagnetism, classical and quantum mechanics: What to remember for particle accelerators": Part 3/3 | Dr. Elias METRAL (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 14 April 14.00-16.00 | Linear accelerators – part 2/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |

| Date and time | Subject | Lecturer | Remarks |
|-------------------------|--|------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 11 April 10.00-12.00 | Introduction to accelerators, overview of accelerator types – part 1/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| | History of accelerators – part 1/2 | | |
| 11 April 14.00-16.00 | Special relativity, electromagnetism, classical and quantum mechanics: What to remember for particle accelerators": Part 1/3 | Dr. Elias METRAL (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 12 April 10.00-12.00 | Introduction to accelerators, overview of accelerator types – part 2/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| | History of accelerators – part 2/2 | | |
| 12 April 14.00-16.00 | Special relativity, electromagnetism, classical and quantum mechanics: What to remember for particle accelerators": Part 2/3 | Dr. Elias METRAL (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 13 April 10.00-12.00 | Linear accelerators – part 1/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 13 April 14.00-16.00 | Special relativity, electromagnetism, classical and quantum mechanics: What to remember for particle accelerators": Part 3/3 | Dr. Elias METRAL (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 14 April 14.00-16.00 | Linear accelerators – part 2/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |

| Date and time | Subject | Lecturer | Remarks |
|-------------------------|--|------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 11 April 10.00-12.00 | Introduction to accelerators, overview of accelerator types – part 1/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| | History of accelerators – part 1/2 | | |
| 11 April 14.00-16.00 | Special relativity, electromagnetism, classical and quantum mechanics: What to remember for particle accelerators": Part 1/3 | Dr. Elias METRAL (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 12 April 10.00-12.00 | Introduction to accelerators, overview of accelerator types – part 2/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| | History of accelerators – part 2/2 | | |
| 12 April 14.00-16.00 | Special relativity, electromagnetism, classical and quantum mechanics: What to remember for particle accelerators": Part 2/3 | Dr. Elias METRAL (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 13 April 10.00-12.00 | Linear accelerators – part 1/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 13 April 14.00-16.00 | Special relativity, electromagnetism, classical and quantum mechanics: What to remember for particle accelerators": Part 3/3 | Dr. Elias METRAL (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |
| 14 April 14.00-16.00 | Linear accelerators – part 2/2 | Dr. Maurizio VRETENAR (CERN) | 2 x 45 min + breaks and questions |

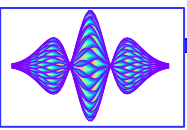
=> 6 × 45 min

(<https://indico.cern.ch/event/1149120/>)



We need a force...

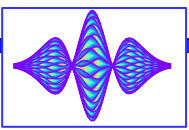




We need a force...



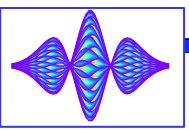
- ◆ Do you know the number of the currently known fundamental forces in the universe?



We need a force...



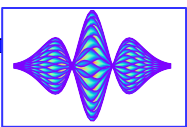
- ◆ Do you know the number of the currently known fundamental forces in the universe?
 - * 1
 - * 2
 - * 4
 - * 5
 - * 10
 - * Infinity



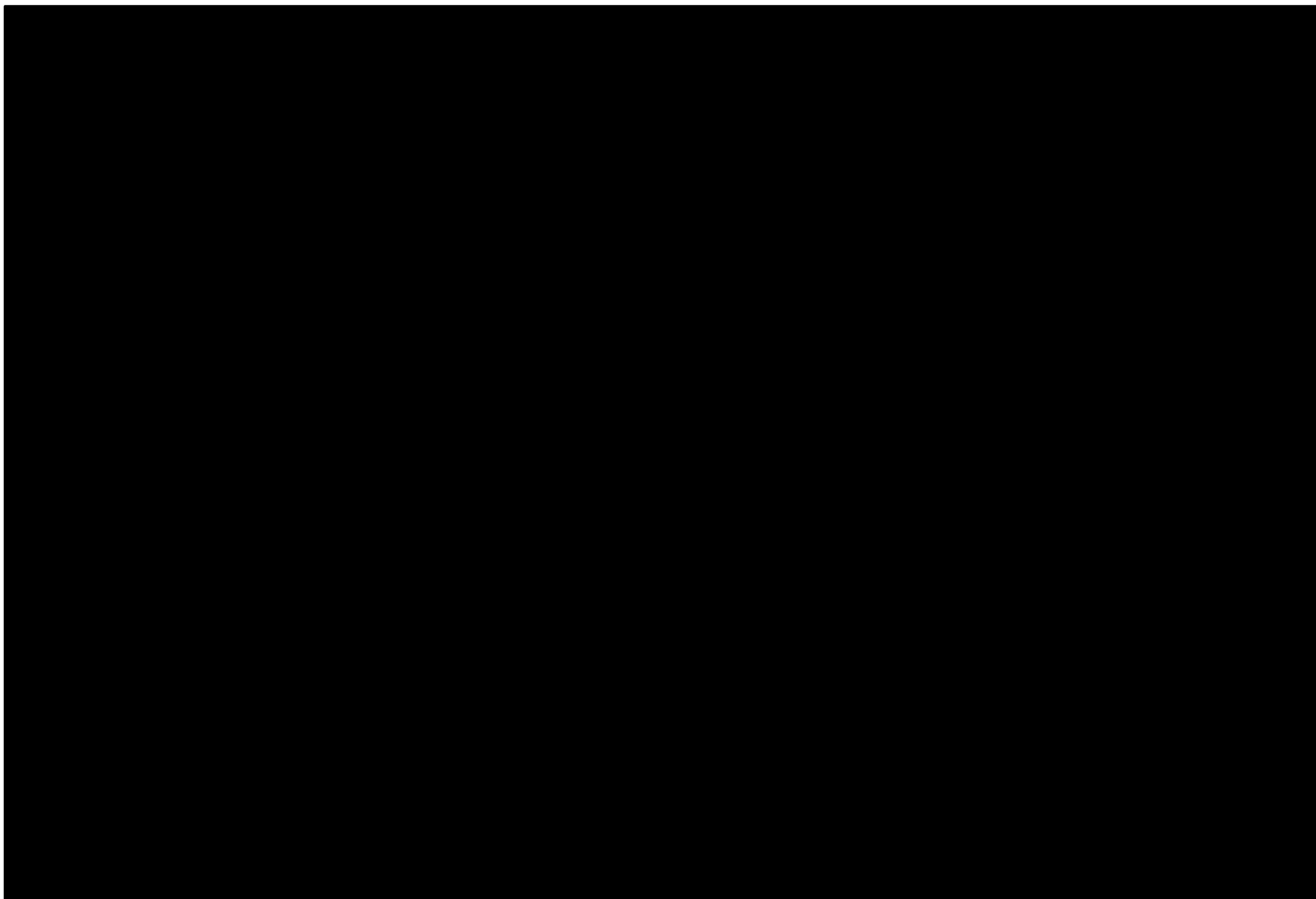
We need a force...



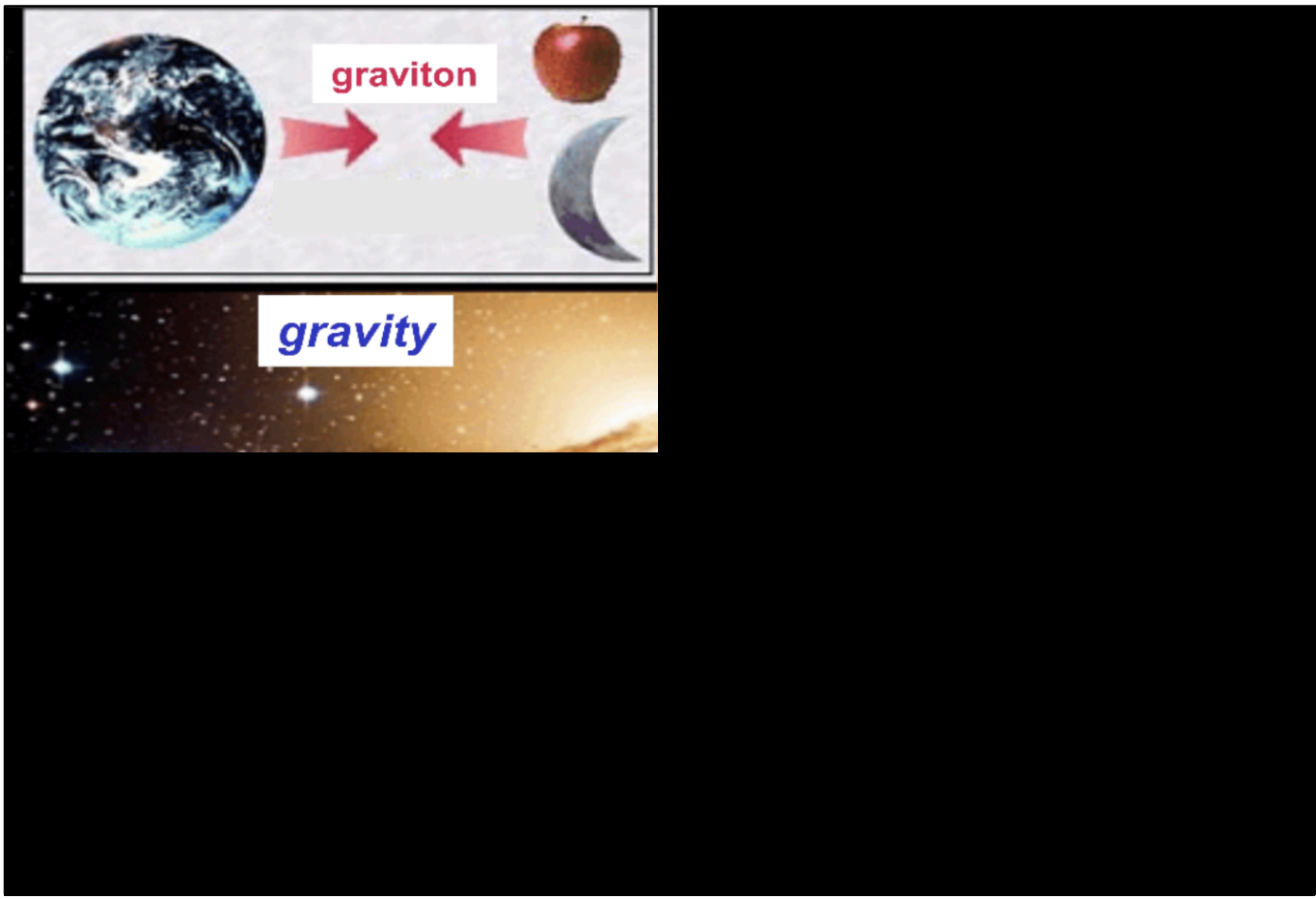
- ◆ Do you know the number of the currently known fundamental forces in the universe?
 - * 1
 - * 2
 - * **4**
 - * 5
 - * 10
 - * Infinity



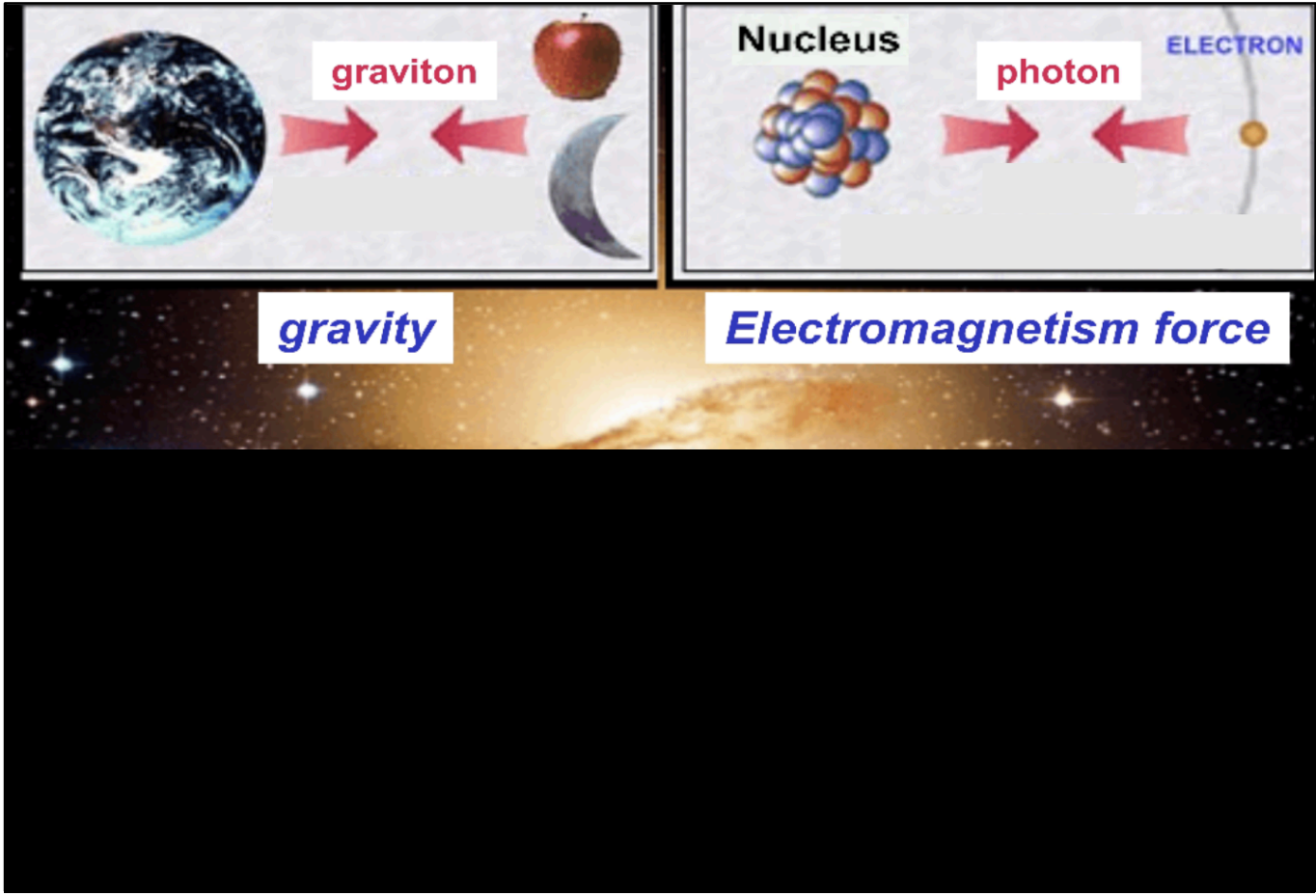
We need a force...



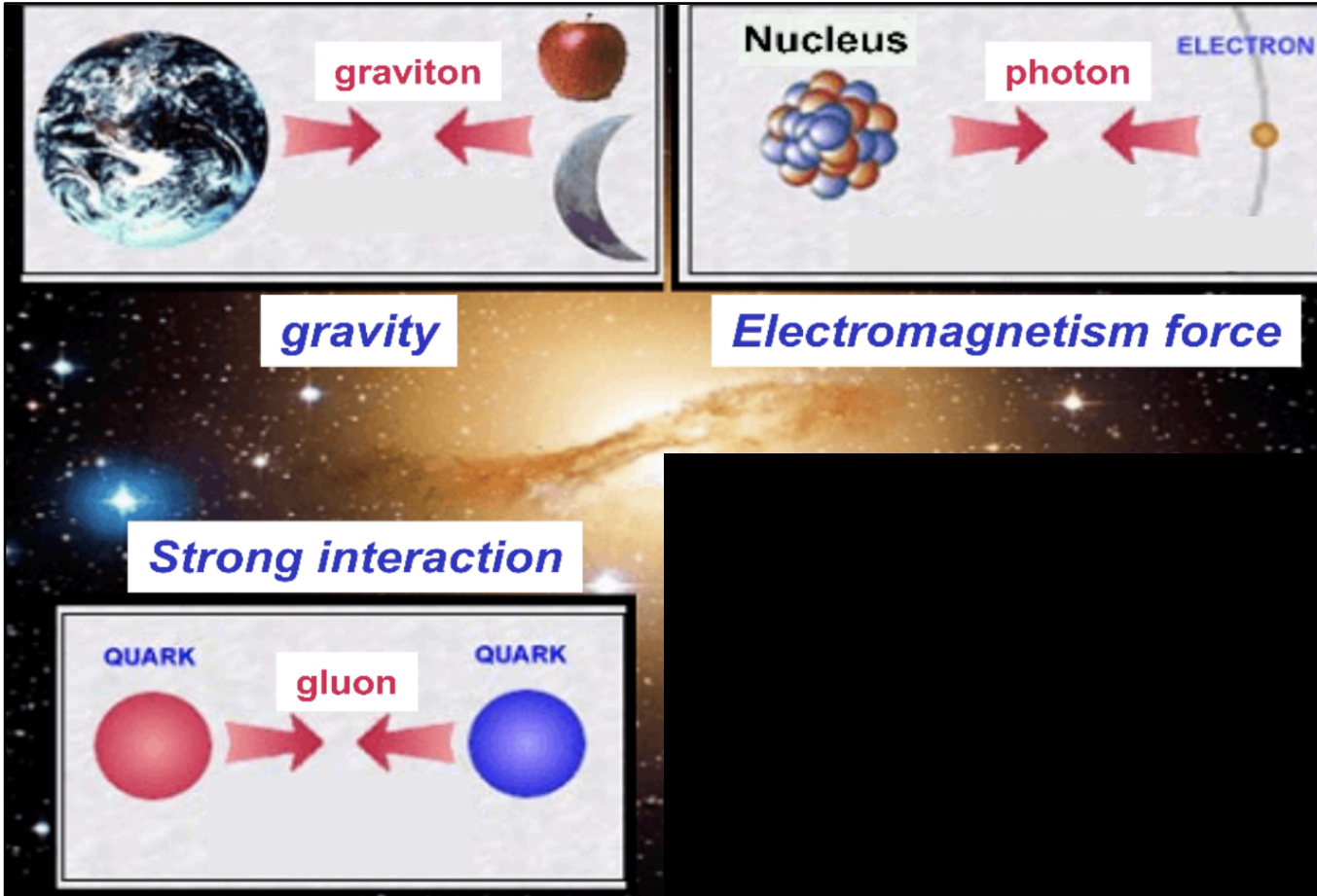
We need a force...



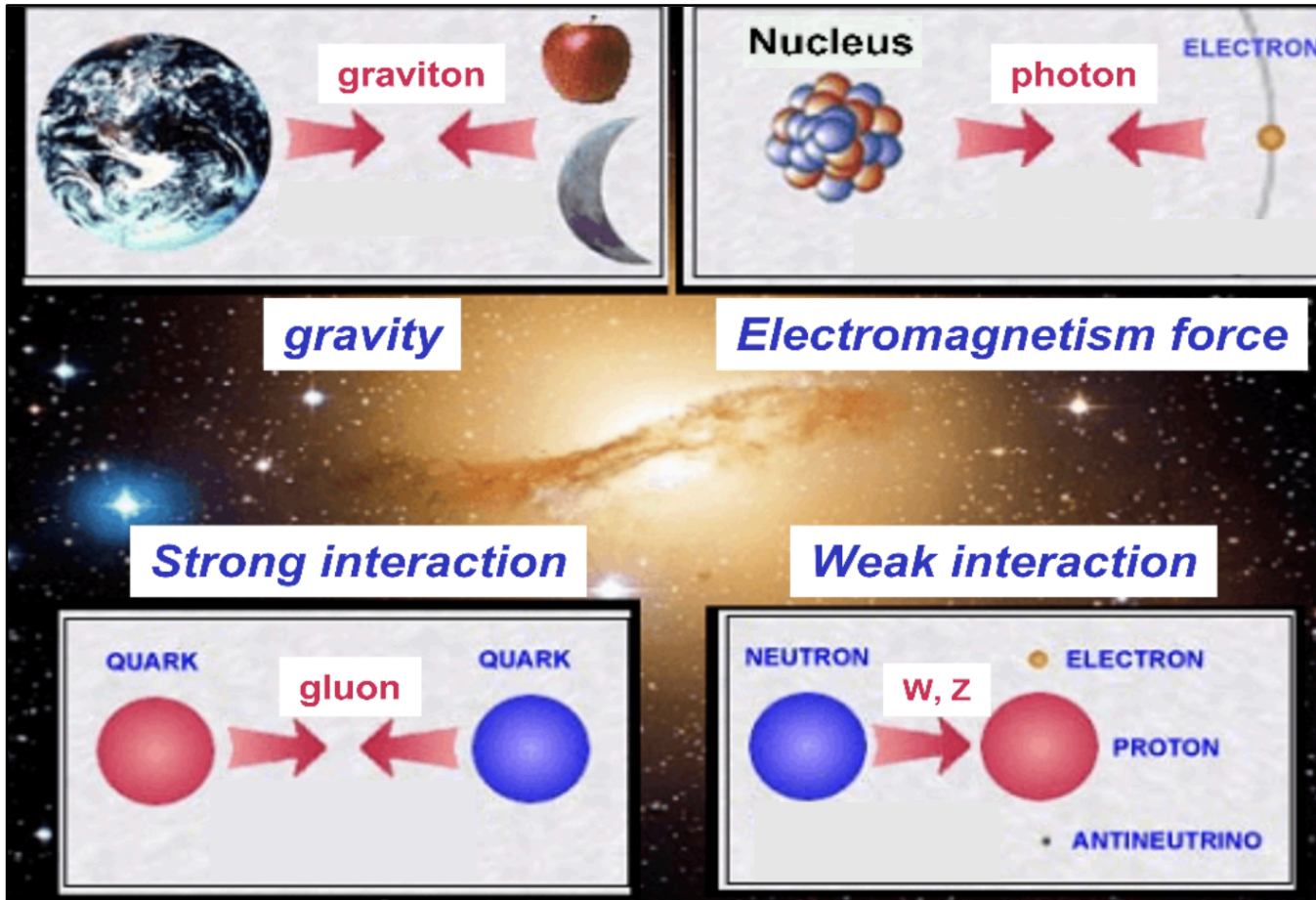
We need a force...



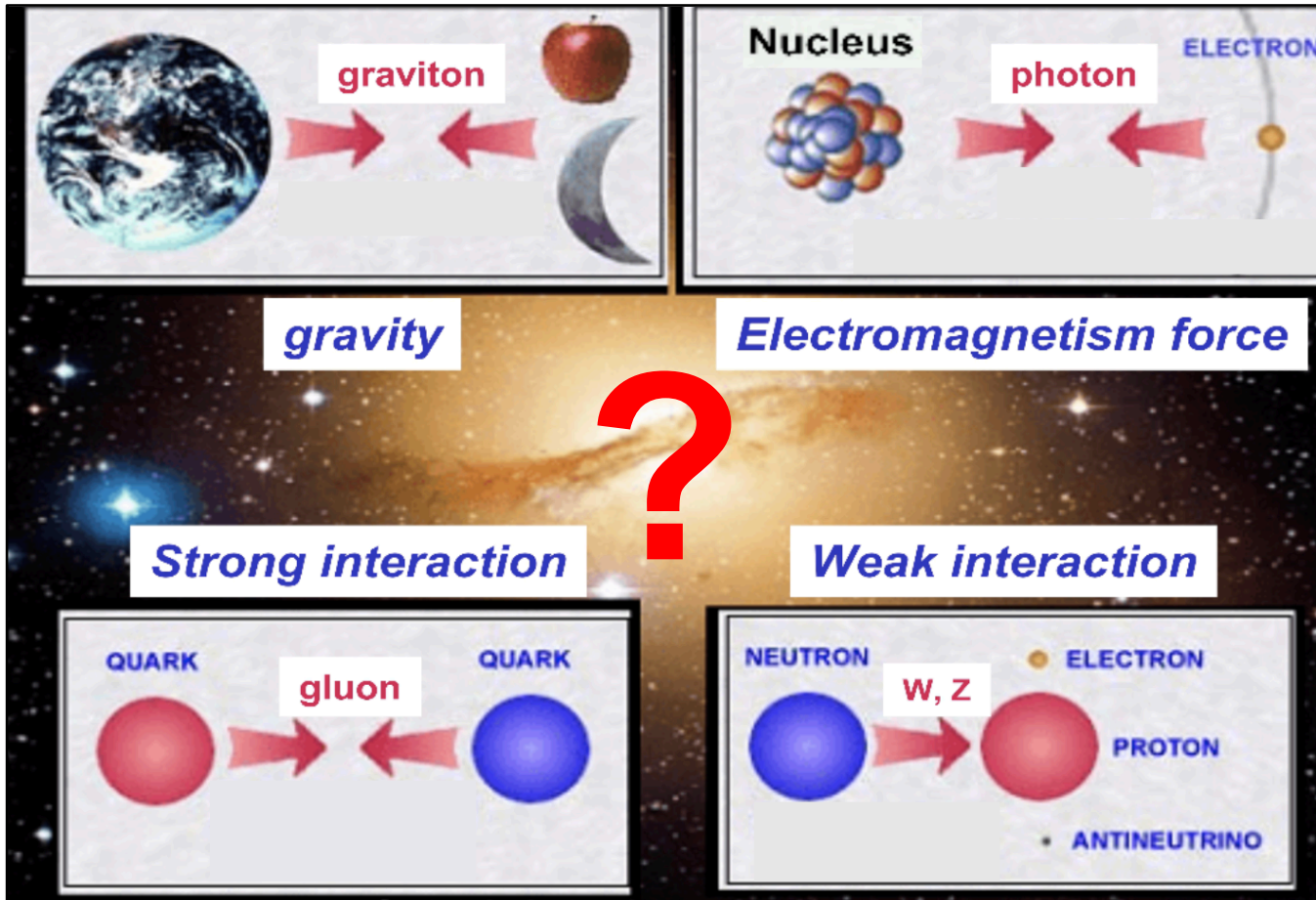
We need a force...



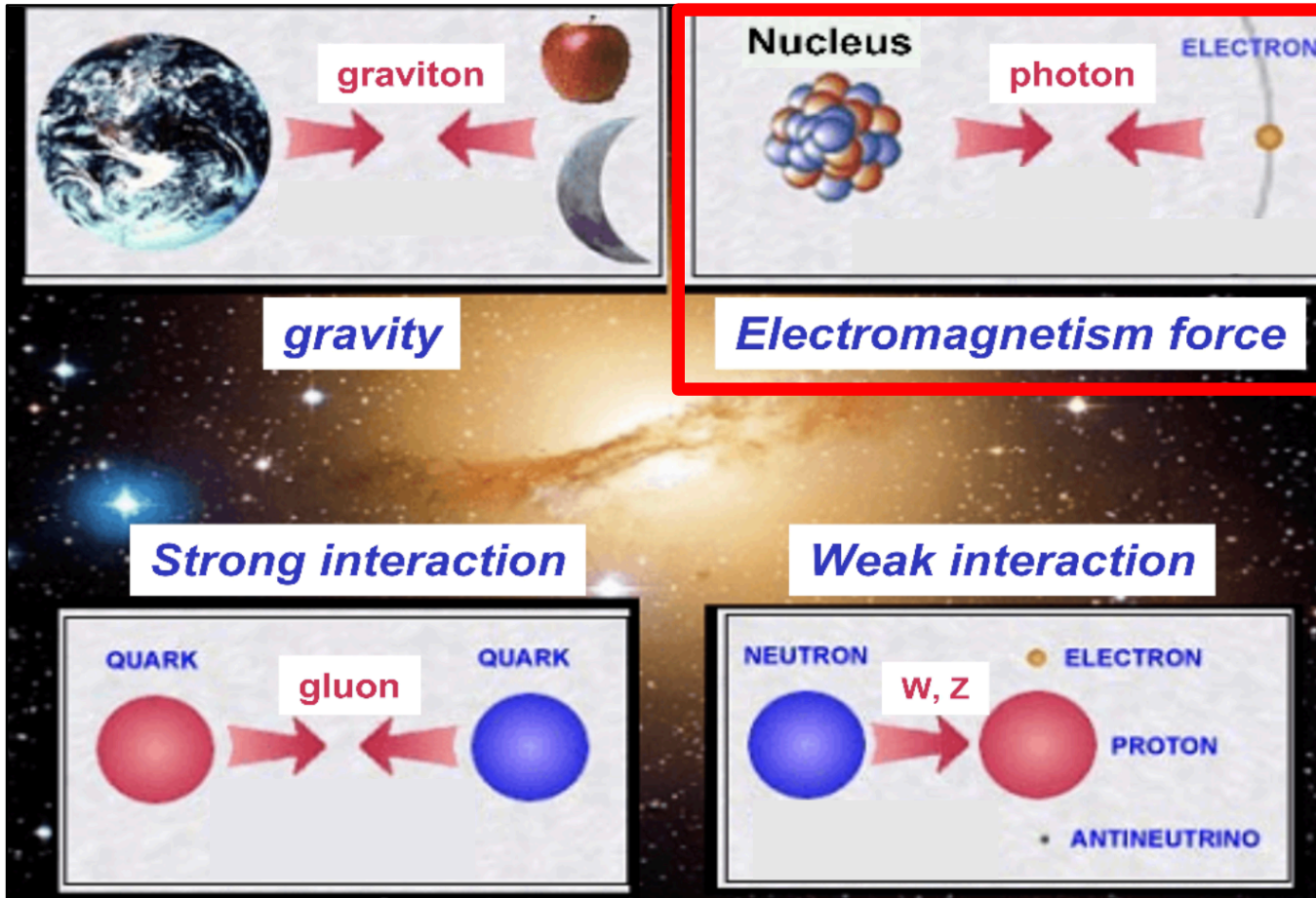
We need a force...

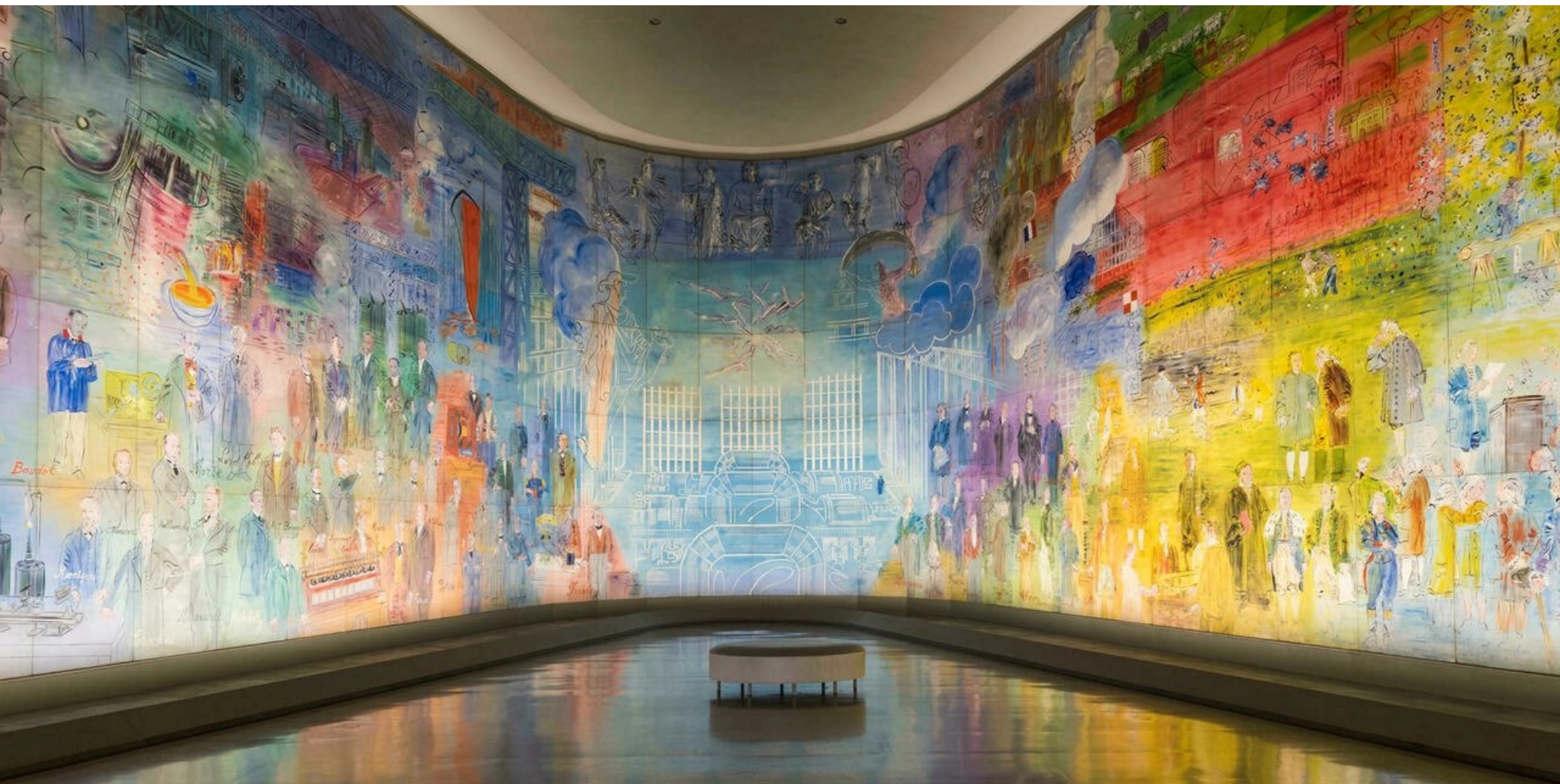


We need a force...



We need a force...





This was the background of my 1st slide...



Do you know what it is?



=> It's the world's largest painting (600 m²)...



**=> It's the world's largest painting (600 m²)...
from Raoul Dufy in Paris's Museum of Modern Art...**

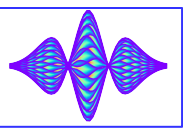


“The Electricity Fairy”

La Fée Electricité



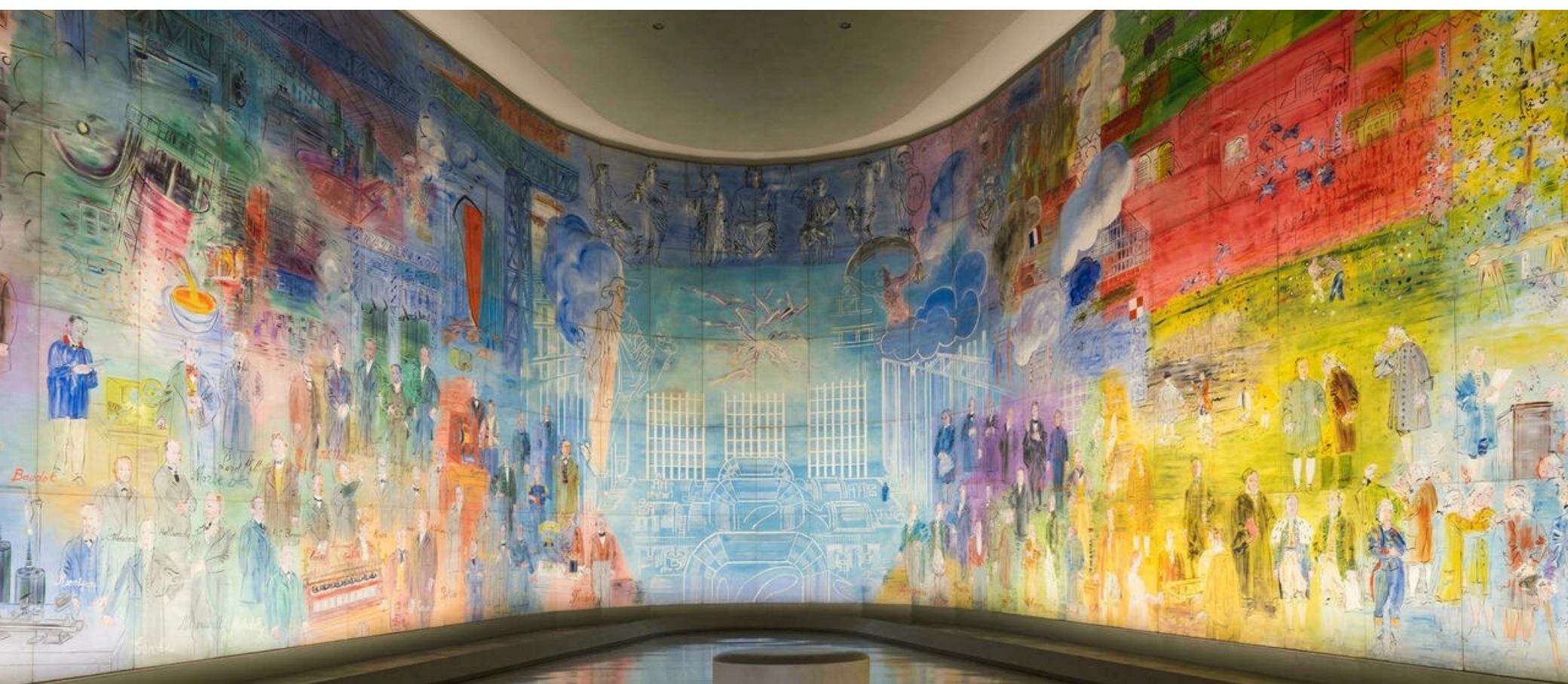
“The Electricity Fairy”



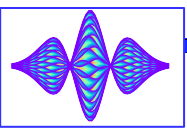
La Fée Electricité

Like Fernand Léger, Robert Delaunay, and several other artists, Raoul Dufy was commissioned to paint huge frescoes for the 1937 International Exposition in Paris. His commission was for the slightly curved wall of the entrance to the Pavillon de la Lumière et de l'Électricité ("Pavilion of Light and Electricity"), built by Robert Mallet-Stevens on the Champ de Mars. He abided by the instructions given to him by the electricity company, La Compagnie Parisienne de Distribution d'Électricité, and told the story of La Fée Électricité ("The Electricity Fairy"), taking inspiration from, amongst other things, Lucretius's *De rerum natura*. The composition unfolds across 600 m², from right to left, on two principal themes: the history of electricity and its applications – from the first observations to the most modern technical applications of it. The upper part is a changing landscape in which the painter has placed some of his favourite subjects: sailing boats, flocks of birds, a threshing machine, and a Bastille-day ball. Stretching the length of the lower half are portraits of one hundred and ten scientists and inventors who contributed to the development of electricity.

"The Electricity Fairy"



**=> Electricity (and Magnetism),
i.e. ElectroMagnetism (EM), is the (only) force
which is used for particle accelerators!**

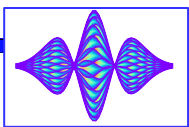


Lorentz force



The motion of a charged particle (proton) in a beam transport channel or a circular accelerator is governed by the **LORENTZ FORCE**

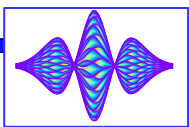
$$\vec{F} = e \left(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B} \right)$$



Lorentz force

The motion of a charged particle (proton) in a beam transport channel or a circular accelerator is governed by the **LORENTZ FORCE**

$$\vec{F} = e \left(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B} \right)$$



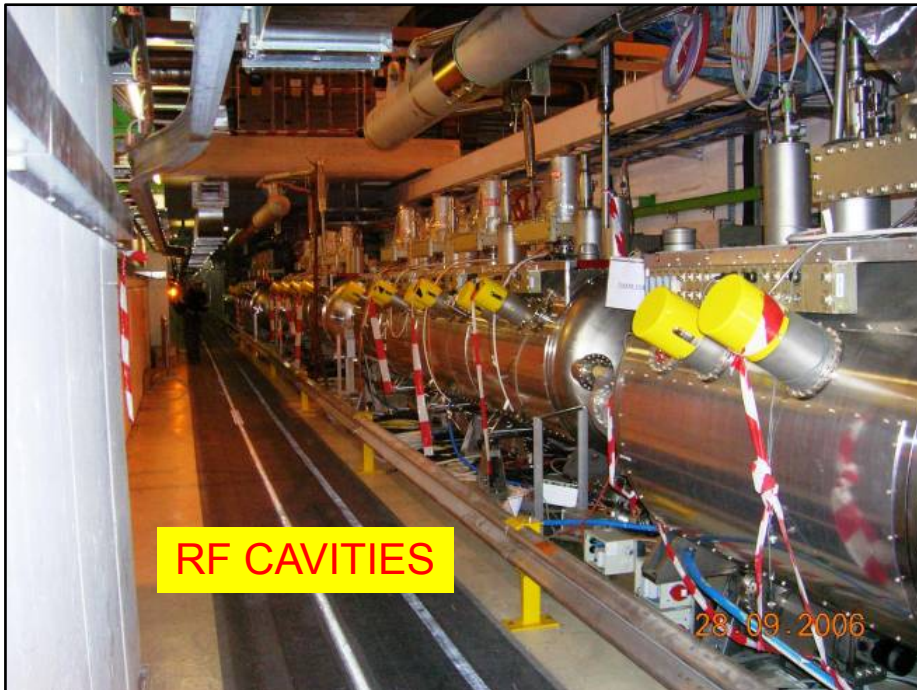
Lorentz force

The motion of a charged particle (proton) in a beam transport channel or a circular accelerator is governed by the **LORENTZ FORCE**

$$\vec{F} = e \left(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B} \right)$$

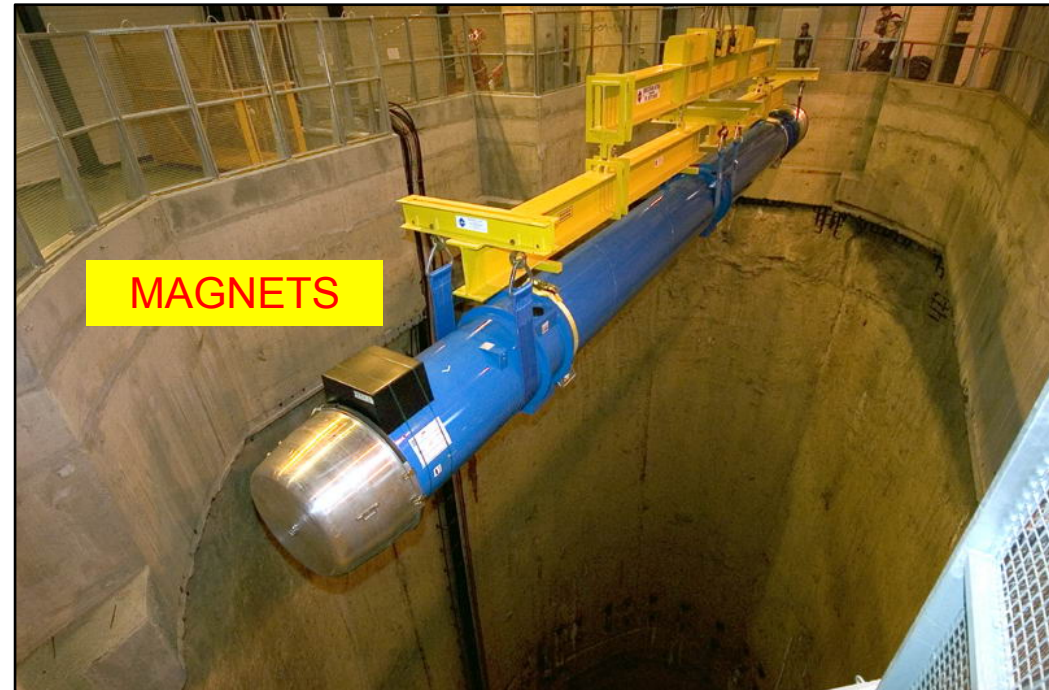
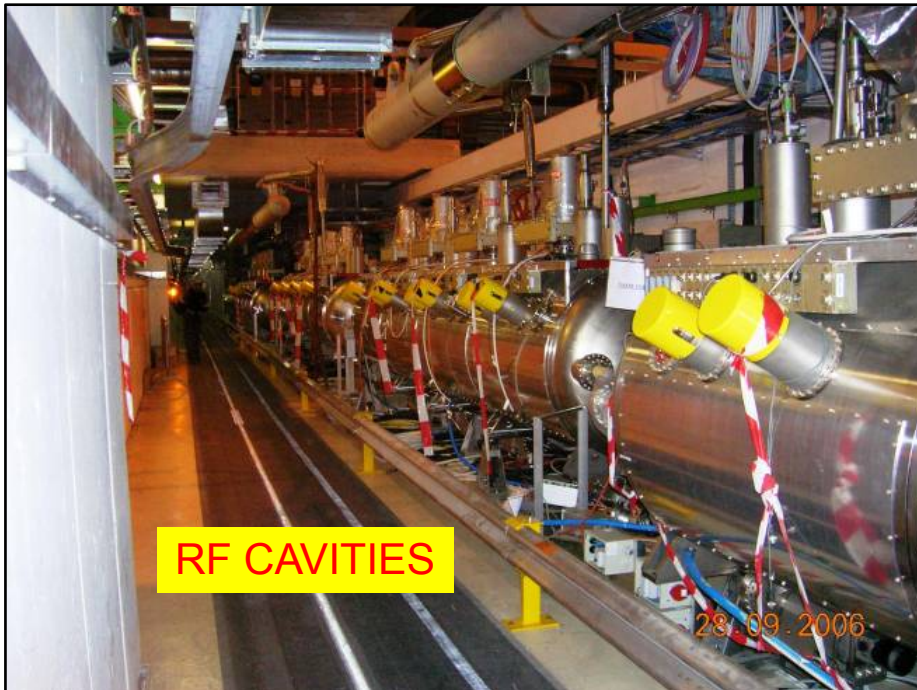
The motion of a charged particle (proton) in a beam transport channel or a circular accelerator is governed by the **LORENTZ FORCE**

$$\vec{F} = e \left(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B} \right)$$



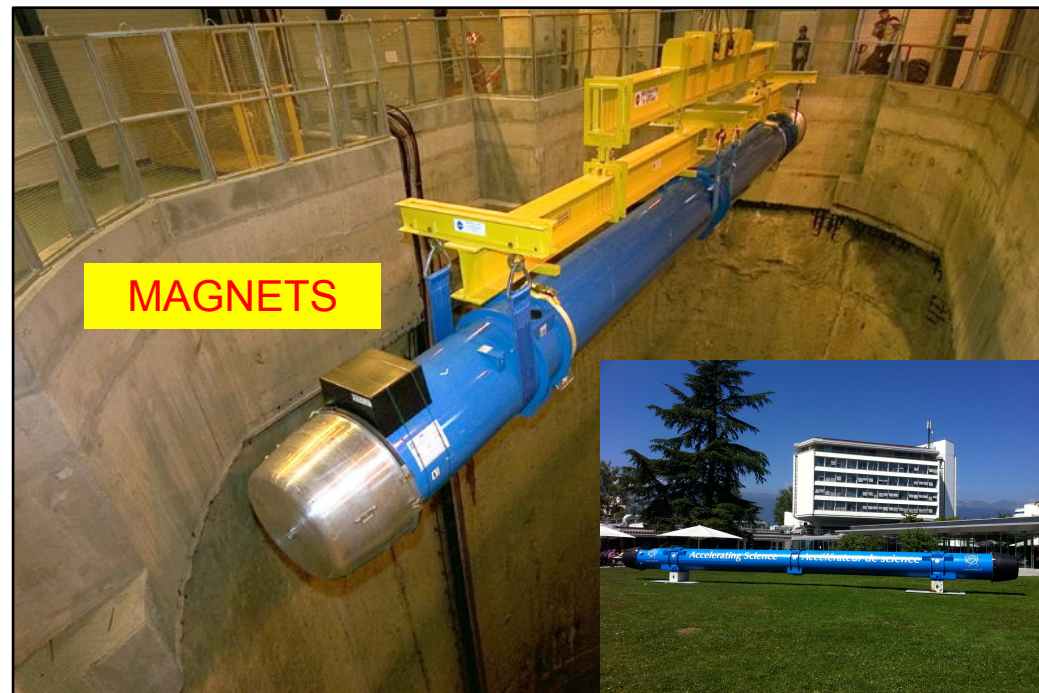
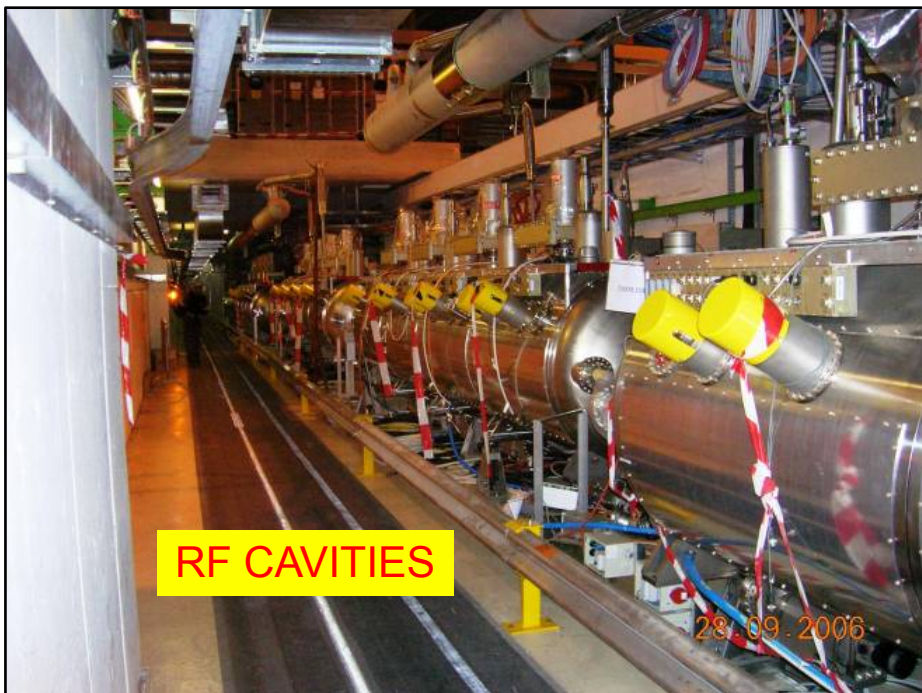
The motion of a charged particle (proton) in a beam transport channel or a circular accelerator is governed by the **LORENTZ FORCE**

$$\vec{F} = e \left(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B} \right)$$



The motion of a charged particle (proton) in a beam transport channel or a circular accelerator is governed by the **LORENTZ FORCE**

$$\vec{F} = e \left(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B} \right)$$



$$\vec{F} = e \left(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B} \right)$$

◆ Cartesian (x,y,s)

$$F_x = e \left(E_x - v B_y \right)$$

$$F_y = e \left(E_y + v B_x \right)$$

$$F_s = e E_s$$

◆ Cylindrical (r,θ,s)

$$F_r = e \left(E_r - v B_\vartheta \right)$$

$$F_\vartheta = e \left(E_\vartheta + v B_r \right)$$

$$F_s = e E_s$$

$$\vec{F} = e \left(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B} \right)$$

◆ Cartesian (x,y,s)

$$F_x = e \left(E_x - v B_y \right)$$

$$F_y = e \left(E_y + v B_x \right)$$

$$F_s = e E_s$$

Transverse magnetic field in MAGNETS to guide and confine the particles

◆ Cylindrical (r,θ,s)

$$F_r = e \left(E_r - v B_\theta \right)$$

$$F_\theta = e \left(E_\theta + v B_r \right)$$

$$F_s = e E_s$$

$$\vec{F} = e \left(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B} \right)$$

◆ Cartesian (x,y,s)

$$F_x = e \left(E_x - v B_y \right)$$

$$F_y = e \left(E_y + v B_x \right)$$

$$F_s = e E_s$$

Transverse magnetic field in MAGNETS to guide and confine the particles

◆ Cylindrical (r,θ,s)

$$F_r = e \left(E_r - v B_\theta \right)$$

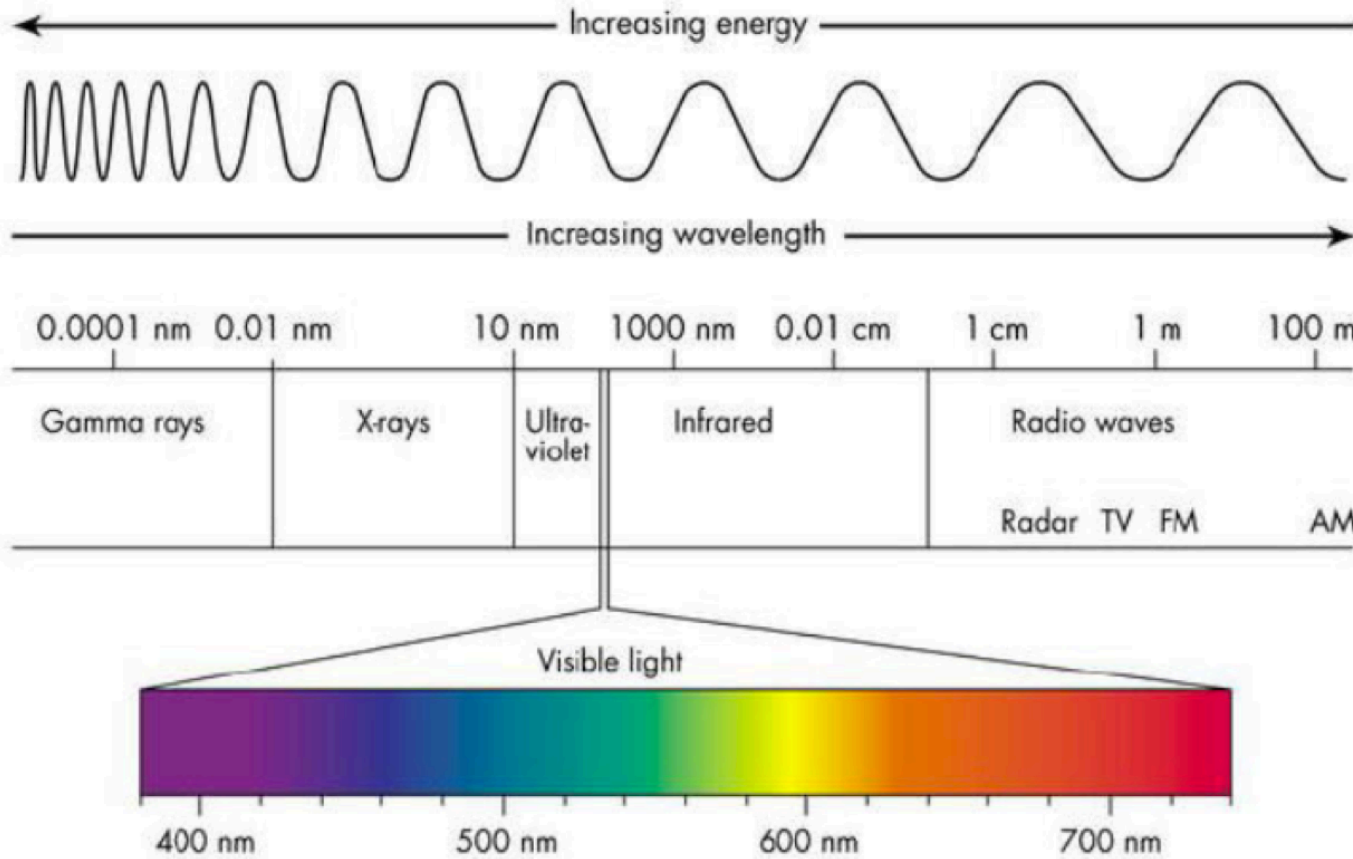
$$F_\theta = e \left(E_\theta + v B_r \right)$$

$$F_s = e E_s$$

Longitudinal electric field in RF CAVITIES to accelerate (or decelerate) the particles

Electromagnetic spectrum

$$E = \frac{h c}{\lambda_{wl}}$$



$$\lambda_{wl} = \frac{c}{f}$$

Reminder: Fundamental physical constants

| Physical constant | symbol | value | unit |
|--|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------|
| Avogadro's number | N_A | 6.0221367×10^{23} | /mol |
| atomic mass unit ($\frac{1}{12}m(C^{12})$) | m_u or u | $1.6605402 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| Boltzmann's constant | k | 1.380658×10^{-23} | J/K |
| Bohr magneton | $\mu_B = e\hbar/2m_e$ | $9.2740154 \times 10^{-24}$ | J/T |
| Bohr radius | $a_0 = 4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar^2/m_e c^2$ | $0.529177249 \times 10^{-10}$ | m |
| classical radius of electron | $r_e = e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0 m_e c^2$ | $2.81794092 \times 10^{-15}$ | m |
| classical radius of proton | $r_p = e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0 m_p c^2$ | $1.5346986 \times 10^{-18}$ | m |
| elementary charge | e | $1.60217733 \times 10^{-19}$ | C |
| fine structure constant | $\alpha = e^2/2\epsilon_0 hc$ | 1/137.0359895 | |
| $m_u c^2$ | | 931.49432 | MeV |
| mass of electron | m_e | $9.1093897 \times 10^{-31}$ | kg |
| $m_e c^2$ | | 0.51099906 | MeV |
| mass of proton | m_p | $1.6726231 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| $m_p c^2$ | | 938.27231 | MeV |
| mass of neutron | m_n | $1.6749286 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| $m_p c^2$ | | 939.56563 | MeV |
| molar gas constant | $R = N_A k$ | 8.314510 | J/mol K |
| neutron magnetic moment | μ_n | $-0.96623707 \times 10^{-26}$ | J/T |
| nuclear magneton | $\mu_p = e\hbar/2m_u$ | $5.0507866 \times 10^{-27}$ | J/T |
| Planck's constant | h | 6.626075×10^{-34} | J s |
| permeability of vacuum | μ_0 | $4\pi \times 10^{-7}$ | N/A ² |
| permittivity of vacuum | ϵ_0 | $8.854187817 \times 10^{-12}$ | F/m |
| proton magnetic moment | μ_p | $1.41060761 \times 10^{-26}$ | J/T |
| proton g factor | $g_p = \mu_p/\mu_N$ | 2.792847386 | |
| speed of light (exact) | c | 299792458 | m/s |
| vacuum impedance | $Z_0 = 1/\epsilon_0 c = \mu_0 c$ | 376.7303 | Ω |

Reminder: Fundamental physical constants

| Physical constant | symbol | value | unit |
|--|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------|
| Avogadro's number | N_A | 6.0221367×10^{23} | /mol |
| atomic mass unit ($\frac{1}{12}m(C^{12})$) | m_u or u | $1.6605402 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| Boltzmann's constant | k | 1.380658×10^{-23} | J/K |
| Bohr magneton | $\mu_B = e\hbar/2m_e$ | $9.2740154 \times 10^{-24}$ | J/T |
| Bohr radius | $a_0 = 4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar^2/m_e c^2$ | $0.529177249 \times 10^{-10}$ | m |
| classical radius of electron | $r_e = e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0 m_e c^2$ | $2.81794092 \times 10^{-15}$ | m |
| classical radius of proton | $r_p = e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0 m_p c^2$ | $1.5346986 \times 10^{-18}$ | m |
| elementary charge | e | $1.60217733 \times 10^{-19}$ | C |
| fine structure constant | $\alpha = e^2/2\epsilon_0 hc$ | 1/137.0359895 | |
| $m_u c^2$ | | 931.49432 | MeV |
| mass of electron | m_e | $9.1093897 \times 10^{-31}$ | kg |
| $m_e c^2$ | | 0.51099906 | MeV |
| mass of proton | m_p | $1.6726231 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| $m_p c^2$ | | 938.27231 | MeV |
| mass of neutron | m_n | $1.6749286 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| $m_p c^2$ | | 939.56563 | MeV |
| molar gas constant | $R = N_A k$ | 8.314510 | J/mol K |
| neutron magnetic moment | μ_n | $-0.96623707 \times 10^{-26}$ | J/T |
| nuclear magneton | $\mu_N = e\hbar/2m_u$ | $5.0507866 \times 10^{-27}$ | J/T |
| Planck's constant | \hbar | 6.626075×10^{-34} | J s |
| permeability of vacuum | μ_0 | $4\pi \times 10^{-7}$ | N/A ² |
| permittivity of vacuum | ϵ_0 | $8.854187817 \times 10^{-12}$ | F/m |
| proton magnetic moment | μ_p | $1.41060761 \times 10^{-26}$ | J/T |
| proton g factor | $g_p = \mu_p/\mu_N$ | 2.792847386 | |
| speed of light (exact) | c | 299792458 | m/s |
| vacuum impedance | $Z_0 = 1/\epsilon_0 c = \mu_0 c$ | 376.7303 | Ω |

Reminder: Fundamental physical constants

| Physical constant | symbol | value | unit |
|--|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------|
| Avogadro's number | N_A | 6.0221367×10^{23} | /mol |
| atomic mass unit ($\frac{1}{12}m(C^{12})$) | m_u or u | $1.6605402 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| Boltzmann's constant | k | 1.380658×10^{-23} | J/K |
| Bohr magneton | $\mu_B = e\hbar/2m_e$ | $9.2740154 \times 10^{-24}$ | J/T |
| Bohr radius | $a_0 = 4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar^2/m_e c^2$ | $0.529177249 \times 10^{-10}$ | m |
| classical radius of electron | $r_e = e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0 m_e c^2$ | $2.81794092 \times 10^{-15}$ | m |
| classical radius of proton | $r_p = e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0 m_p c^2$ | $1.5346986 \times 10^{-18}$ | m |
| elementary charge | e | $1.60217733 \times 10^{-19}$ | C |
| fine structure constant | $\alpha = e^2/2\epsilon_0\hbar c$ | 1/137.0359895 | |
| $m_u c^2$ | | 931.49432 | MeV |
| mass of electron | m_e | $9.1093897 \times 10^{-31}$ | kg |
| $m_e c^2$ | | 0.51099906 | MeV |
| mass of proton | m_p | $1.6726231 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| $m_p c^2$ | | 938.27231 | MeV |
| mass of neutron | m_n | $1.6749286 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| $m_p c^2$ | | 939.56563 | MeV |
| molar gas constant | $R = N_A k$ | 8.314510 | J/mol K |
| neutron magnetic moment | μ_n | $-0.96623707 \times 10^{-26}$ | J/T |
| nuclear magneton | $\mu_p = e\hbar/2m_u$ | $5.0507866 \times 10^{-27}$ | J/T |
| Planck's constant | h | 6.626075×10^{-34} | J s |
| permeability of vacuum | μ_0 | $4\pi \times 10^{-7}$ | N/A ² |
| permittivity of vacuum | ϵ_0 | $8.854187817 \times 10^{-12}$ | F/m |
| proton magnetic moment | μ_p | $1.41060761 \times 10^{-26}$ | J/T |
| proton g factor | $g_p = \mu_p/\mu_N$ | 2.792847386 | |
| speed of light (exact) | c | 299792458 | m/s |
| vacuum impedance | $Z_0 = 1/\epsilon_0 c = \mu_0 c$ | 376.7303 | Ω |

Reminder: Fundamental physical constants

| Physical constant | symbol | value | unit |
|--|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------|
| Avogadro's number | N_A | 6.0221367×10^{23} | /mol |
| atomic mass unit ($\frac{1}{12}m(C^{12})$) | m_u or u | $1.6605402 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| Boltzmann's constant | k | 1.380658×10^{-23} | J/K |
| Bohr magneton | $\mu_B = e\hbar/2m_e$ | $9.2740154 \times 10^{-24}$ | J/T |
| Bohr radius | $a_0 = 4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar^2/m_e c^2$ | $0.529177249 \times 10^{-10}$ | m |
| classical radius of electron | $r_e = e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0 m_e c^2$ | $2.81794092 \times 10^{-15}$ | m |
| classical radius of proton | $r_p = e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0 m_p c^2$ | $1.5346986 \times 10^{-18}$ | m |
| elementary charge | e | $1.60217733 \times 10^{-19}$ | C |
| fine structure constant | $\alpha = e^2/2\epsilon_0\hbar c$ | 1/137.0359895 | |
| $m_u c^2$ | | 931.49432 | MeV |
| mass of electron | m_e | $9.1093897 \times 10^{-31}$ | kg |
| $m_e c^2$ | | 0.51099906 | MeV |
| mass of proton | m_p | $1.6726231 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| $m_p c^2$ | | 938.27231 | MeV |
| mass of neutron | m_n | $1.6749286 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| $m_p c^2$ | | 939.56563 | MeV |
| molar gas constant | $R = N_A k$ | 8.314 | J/mol K |
| neutron magnetic moment | μ_n | -0.96623707 | J/T |
| nuclear magneton | $\mu_p = e\hbar/2m_u$ | $5.0507837 \times 10^{-27}$ | J/T |
| Planck's constant | h | $6.62607015 \times 10^{-34}$ | J s |
| permeability of vacuum | μ_0 | $4\pi \times 10^{-7}$ | N/A ² |
| permittivity of vacuum | ϵ_0 | $8.854187817 \times 10^{-12}$ | F/m |
| proton magnetic moment | μ_p | $1.41060761 \times 10^{-26}$ | J/T |
| proton g factor | $g_p = \mu_p/\mu_N$ | 2.792847386 | |
| speed of light (exact) | c | 299792458 | m/s |
| vacuum impedance | $Z_0 = 1/\epsilon_0 c = \mu_0 c$ | 376.7303 | Ω |

How can we express the speed of light c as a function of some parameters of this table?



Reminder: Fundamental physical constants

| Physical constant | symbol | value | unit |
|--|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------|
| Avogadro's number | N_A | 6.0221367×10^{23} | /mol |
| atomic mass unit ($\frac{1}{12}m(C^{12})$) | m_u or u | $1.6605402 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| Boltzmann's constant | k | 1.380658×10^{-23} | J/K |
| Bohr magneton | $\mu_B = e\hbar/2m_e$ | $9.2740154 \times 10^{-24}$ | J/T |
| Bohr radius | $a_0 = 4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar^2/m_e c^2$ | $0.529177249 \times 10^{-10}$ | m |
| classical radius of electron | $r_e = e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0 m_e c^2$ | $2.81794092 \times 10^{-15}$ | m |
| classical radius of proton | $r_p = e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0 m_p c^2$ | $1.5346986 \times 10^{-18}$ | m |
| elementary charge | e | $1.60217733 \times 10^{-19}$ | C |
| fine structure constant | $\alpha = e^2/2\epsilon_0 hc$ | 1/137.0359895 | |
| $m_u c^2$ | | 931.49432 | MeV |
| mass of electron | m_e | $9.1093897 \times 10^{-31}$ | kg |
| $m_e c^2$ | | 0.51099906 | MeV |
| mass of proton | m_p | $1.6726231 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| $m_p c^2$ | | 938.27231 | MeV |
| mass of neutron | m_n | $1.6749286 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| $m_p c^2$ | | 939.56563 | MeV |
| molar gas constant | $R = N_A k$ | 8.314510 | J/mol K |
| neutron magnetic moment | μ_n | $-0.96623707 \times 10^{-26}$ | J/T |
| nuclear magneton | $\mu_p = e\hbar/2m_u$ | $5.0507866 \times 10^{-27}$ | J/T |
| Planck's constant | h | 6.626075×10^{-34} | J s |
| permeability of vacuum | μ_0 | $4\pi \times 10^{-7}$ | N/A ² |
| permittivity of vacuum | ϵ_0 | $8.854187817 \times 10^{-12}$ | F/m |
| proton magnetic moment | μ_p | $1.41060761 \times 10^{-26}$ | J/T |
| proton g factor | $g_p = \mu_p/\mu_N$ | 2.792847386 | |
| speed of light (exact) | c | 299792458 | m/s |
| vacuum impedance | $Z_0 = 1/\epsilon_0 c = \mu_0 c$ | 376.7303 | Ω |

$$c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon_0 \mu_0}} \approx 300\,000 \text{ km/s}$$

Reminder: Fundamental physical constants

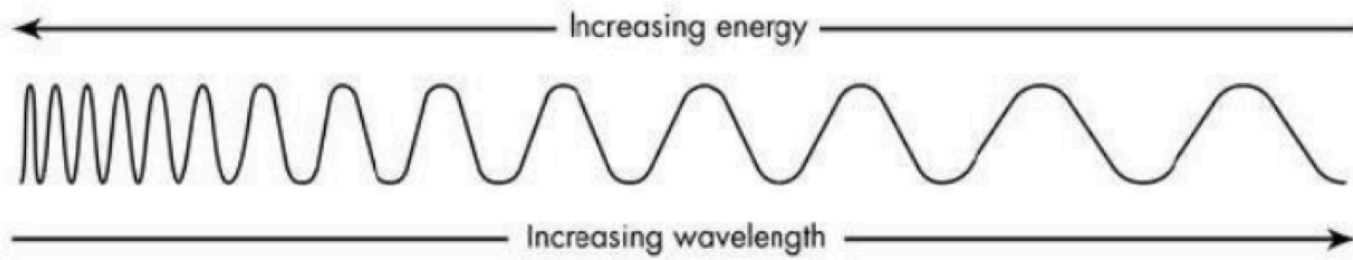
| Physical constant | symbol | value | unit |
|--|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------|
| Avogadro's number | N_A | 6.0221367×10^{23} | /mol |
| atomic mass unit ($\frac{1}{12}m(C^{12})$) | m_u or u | $1.6605402 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| Boltzmann's constant | k | 1.380658×10^{-23} | J/K |
| Bohr magneton | $\mu_B = e\hbar/2m_e$ | $9.2740154 \times 10^{-24}$ | J/T |
| Bohr radius | $a_0 = 4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar^2/m_e c^2$ | $0.529177249 \times 10^{-10}$ | m |
| classical radius of electron | $r_e = e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0 m_e c^2$ | $2.81794092 \times 10^{-15}$ | m |
| classical radius of proton | $r_p = e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0 m_p c^2$ | $1.5346986 \times 10^{-18}$ | m |
| elementary charge | e | $1.60217733 \times 10^{-19}$ | C |
| fine structure constant | $\alpha = e^2/2\epsilon_0 hc$ | 1/137.0359895 | |
| $m_u c^2$ | | 931.49432 | MeV |
| mass of electron | m_e | $9.1093897 \times 10^{-31}$ | kg |
| $m_e c^2$ | | 0.51099906 | MeV |
| mass of proton | m_p | $1.6726231 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| $m_p c^2$ | | 938.27231 | MeV |
| mass of neutron | m_n | $1.6749286 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| $m_p c^2$ | | 939.56563 | MeV |
| molar gas constant | $R = N_A k$ | 8.314510 | J/mol K |
| neutron magnetic moment | μ_n | $-0.96623707 \times 10^{-26}$ | J/T |
| nuclear magneton | $\mu_p = e\hbar/2m_u$ | $5.0507866 \times 10^{-27}$ | J/T |
| Planck's constant | h | 6.626075×10^{-34} | J s |
| permeability of vacuum | μ_0 | $4\pi \times 10^{-7}$ | N/A ² |
| permittivity of vacuum | ϵ_0 | $8.854187817 \times 10^{-12}$ | F/m |
| proton magnetic moment | μ_p | $1.41060761 \times 10^{-26}$ | J/T |
| proton g factor | $g_p = \mu_p/\mu_N$ | 2.792847386 | |
| speed of light (exact) | c | 299792458 | m/s |
| vacuum impedance | $Z_0 = 1/\epsilon_0 c = \mu_0 c$ | 376.7303 | Ω |

The identification of light with an EM wave (with phase velocity related to the electric permittivity and magnetic permeability) was one of the great achievements of 19th century physics

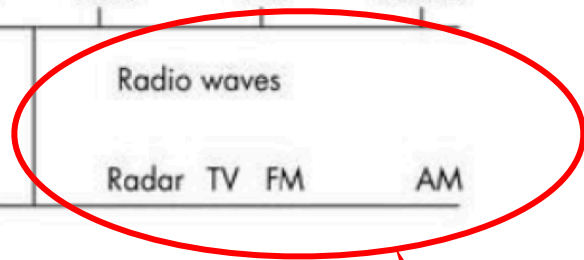
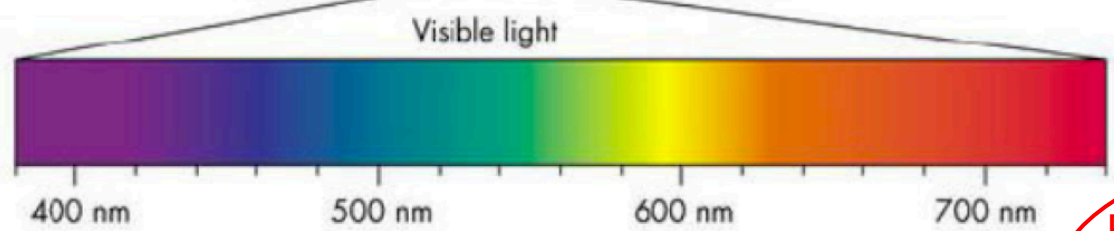
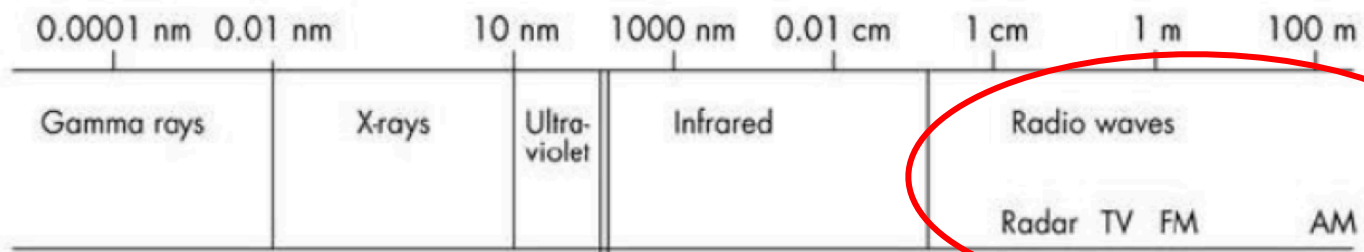
$$c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon_0 \mu_0}} \approx 300\,000 \text{ km/s}$$

Electromagnetic spectrum

$$E = \frac{h c}{\lambda_{wl}}$$



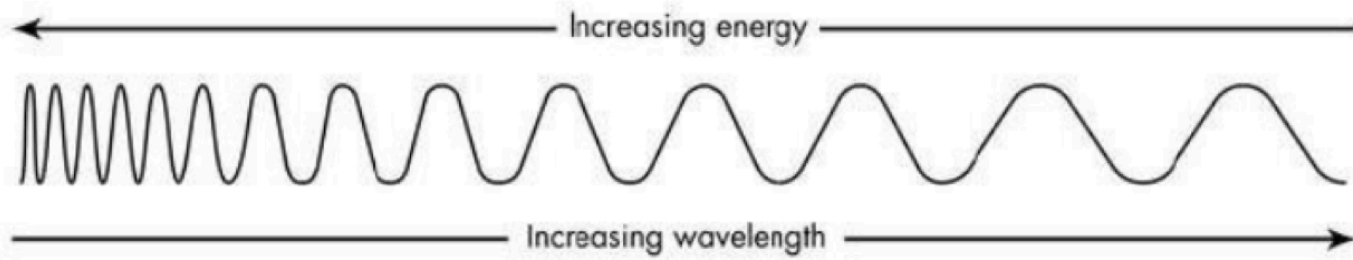
$$\lambda_{wl} = \frac{c}{f}$$



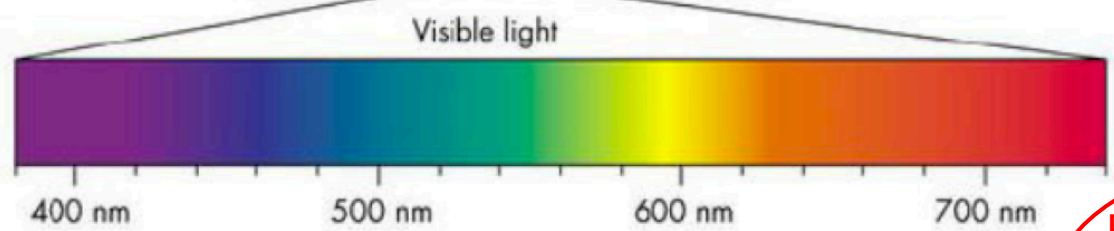
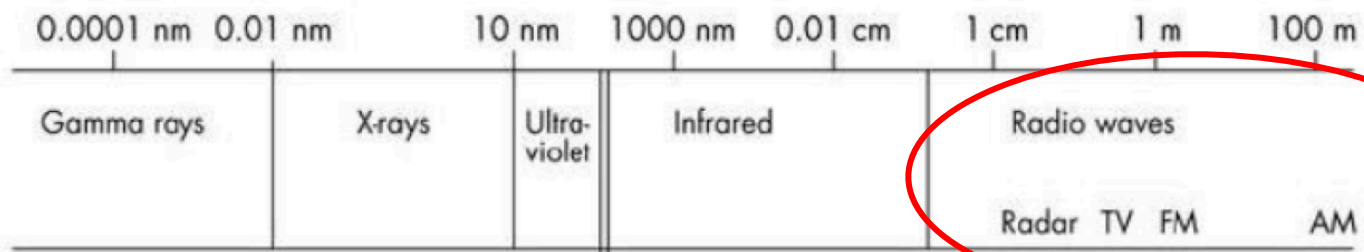
RF = Radio Frequency (from few kHz to hundreds of GHz) used for particle accelerators

Electromagnetic spectrum

$$E = \frac{h c}{\lambda_{wl}}$$



$$\lambda_{wl} = \frac{c}{f}$$

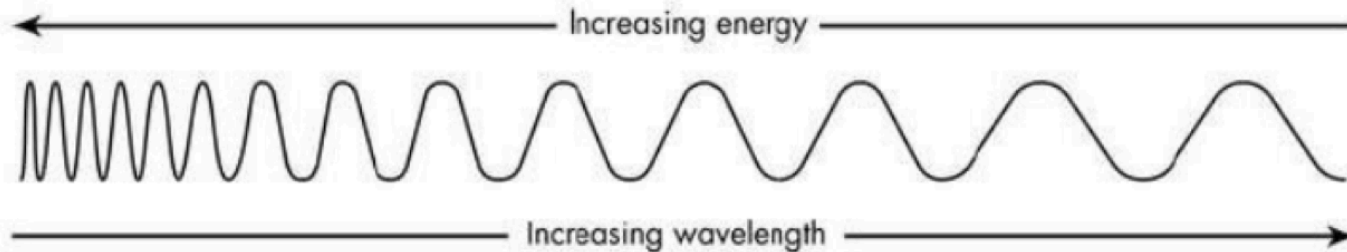


What is the frequency of your preferred radio?

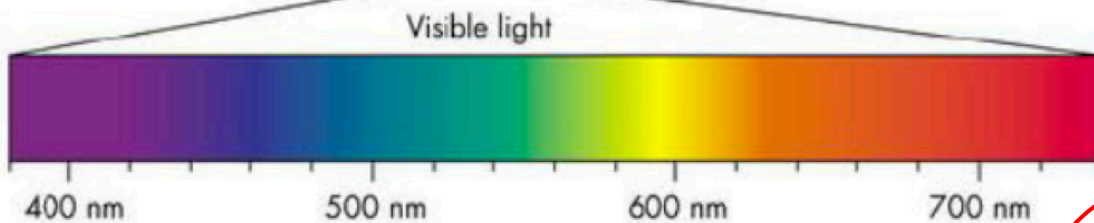
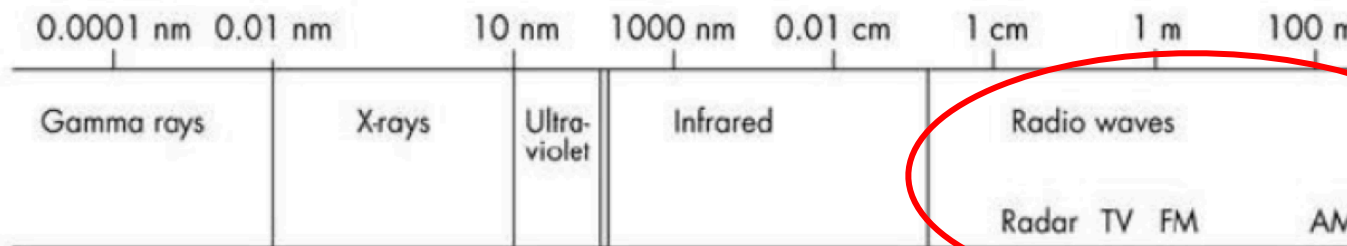
RF = Radio Frequency (from few kHz to hundreds of GHz) used for particle accelerators

Electromagnetic spectrum

$$E = \frac{h c}{\lambda_{wl}}$$

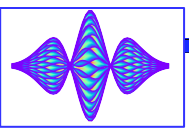


$$\lambda_{wl} = \frac{c}{f}$$

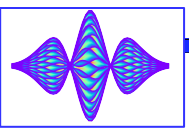


=> For me it is 93.5 MHz (France Inter)

RF = Radio Frequency (from few kHz to hundreds of GHz) used for particle accelerators

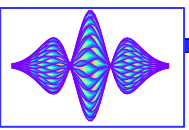


Relationship between the force on an object and the motion of this object?



Classical mechanics

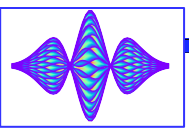




Classical mechanics



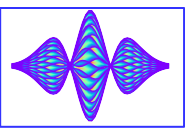
- ◆ Do the Newtonian, Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics describe the same physical mechanisms?
 - * Yes
 - * No



Classical mechanics



- ◆ Do the Newtonian, Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics describe the same physical mechanisms?
 - * Yes
 - * No

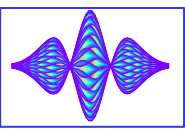


Classical mechanics



CLASSICAL mechanics:

- 1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)**
- 2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)**



- CLASSICAL mechanics:
- 1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
 - 2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)

Newton's laws of motion

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia
(Redirected from [Newtonian mechanics](#))

"Newton's laws" redirects here. For other uses, see [Newton's law](#).

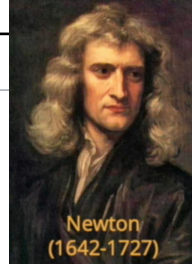
Newton's laws of motion are three [laws](#) of [classical mechanics](#) that describe the relationship between the [motion](#) of an object and the [forces](#) acting on it. These laws can be paraphrased as follows:^[1]

Law 1. A body continues in its state of rest, or in uniform motion in a straight line, unless acted upon by a force.

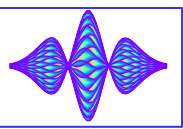
Law 2. A body acted upon by a force moves in such a manner that the time rate of change of [momentum](#) equals the force.

Law 3. If two bodies exert forces on each other, these forces are equal in magnitude and opposite in direction.

The three laws of motion were first stated by [Isaac Newton](#) in his *Philosophiæ Naturalis Principia Mathematica* (*Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy*), first published in 1687.^[2] Newton used them to explain and investigate the motion of many physical objects and systems, which laid the foundation for Newtonian mechanics.^[3]



Newton
(1642-1727)



- CLASSICAL mechanics:**
- 1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
 - 2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)

Newton's laws of motion

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia
 (Redirected from [Newtonian mechanics](#))

"Newton's laws" redirects here. For other uses, see [Newton's law](#).

Newton's laws of motion are three [laws](#) of [classical mechanics](#) that describe the relationship between the [motion](#) of an object and the [forces](#) acting on it. These laws can be paraphrased as follows:^[1]

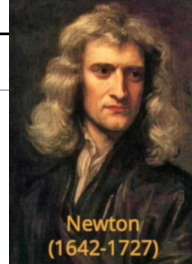
Law 1. A body continues in its state of rest, or in uniform motion in a straight line, unless acted upon by a force.

Law 2. A body acted upon by a force moves in such a manner that the time rate of change of [momentum](#) equals the force.

Law 3. If two bodies exert forces on each other, these forces are equal in magnitude and opposite in direction.

$$\vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt}$$

The three laws of motion were first stated by [Isaac Newton](#) in his *Philosophiæ Naturalis Principia Mathematica* (*Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy*), first published in 1687.^[2] Newton used them to explain and investigate the motion of many physical objects and systems, which laid the foundation for Newtonian mechanics.^[3]



Newton
(1642-1727)

CLASSICAL mechanics:
 1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
 2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)

Newton's laws of motion

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia
 (Redirected from [Newtonian mechanics](#))

"Newton's laws" redirects here. For other uses, see [Newton's law](#).

Newton's laws of motion are three [laws](#) of [classical mechanics](#) that describe the relationship between the [motion](#) of an object and the [forces](#) acting on it. These laws can be paraphrased as follows:^[1]

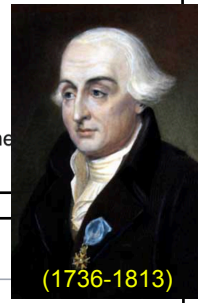
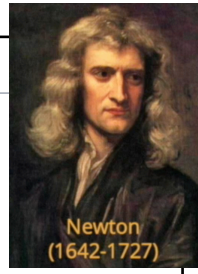
Law 1. A body continues in its state of rest, or in uniform motion in a straight line, unless acted upon by a force.

Law 2. A body acted upon by a force moves in such a manner that the time rate of change of [momentum](#) equals the force.

Law 3. If two bodies exert forces on each other, these forces are equal in magnitude and opposite in direction.

$$\vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt}$$

The three laws of motion were first stated by [Isaac Newton](#) in his *Philosophiæ Naturalis Principia Mathematica* (*Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy*), first published in 1687.^[2] Newton used the investigate the motion of many physical objects and systems, which laid the foundation for Newtonian mechanics.^[3]



Lagrangian mechanics

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Introduced by the Italian-French mathematician and astronomer [Joseph-Louis Lagrange](#) in 1788 from his work *Mécanique analytique*, **Lagrangian mechanics** is a formulation of [classical mechanics](#) and is founded on the [stationary action principle](#).

CLASSICAL mechanics:
 1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
 2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)

Newton's laws of motion

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia
 (Redirected from [Newtonian mechanics](#))

"Newton's laws" redirects here. For other uses, see [Newton's law](#).

Newton's laws of motion are three [laws](#) of [classical mechanics](#) that describe the relationship between the [motion](#) of an object and the [forces](#) acting on it. These laws can be paraphrased as follows:^[1]

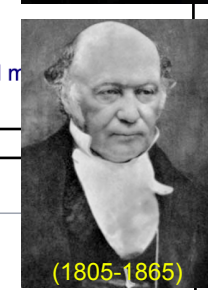
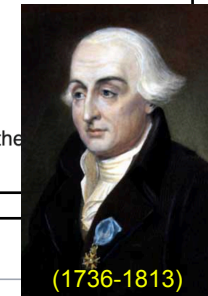
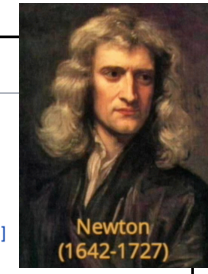
Law 1. A body continues in its state of rest, or in uniform motion in a straight line, unless acted upon by a force.

Law 2. A body acted upon by a force moves in such a manner that the time rate of change of [momentum](#) equals the force.

Law 3. If two bodies exert forces on each other, these forces are equal in magnitude and opposite in direction.

$$\vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt}$$

The three laws of motion were first stated by [Isaac Newton](#) in his *Philosophiæ Naturalis Principia Mathematica* (*Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy*), first published in 1687.^[2] Newton used the investigate the motion of many physical objects and systems, which laid the foundation for Newtonian mechanics.^[3]



Lagrangian mechanics

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Introduced by the Italian-French mathematician and astronomer [Joseph-Louis Lagrange](#) in 1788 from his work *Mécanique analytique*, **Lagrangian mechanics** is a formulation of [classical mechanics](#) founded on the [stationary action principle](#).

Hamiltonian mechanics

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Hamiltonian mechanics emerged in 1833 as a reformulation of [Lagrangian mechanics](#). Introduced by [Sir William Rowan Hamilton](#), Hamiltonian mechanics replaces (generalized) velocities \dot{q}^i used in Lagrangian mechanics with (generalized) *momenta*. Both theories provide interpretations of [classical mechanics](#) and describe the same physical phenomena.

Hamiltonian mechanics has a close relationship with geometry (notably, [symplectic geometry](#) and [Poisson structures](#)) and serves as a [link](#) between classical and [quantum mechanics](#).

CLASSICAL mechanics:
 1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
 2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)

Newton's laws of motion

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia
 (Redirected from [Newtonian mechanics](#))

"Newton's laws" redirects here. For other uses, see [Newton's law](#).

Newton's laws of motion are three [laws](#) of [classical mechanics](#) that describe the relationship between the [motion](#) of an object and the [forces](#) acting on it. These laws can be paraphrased as follows:^[1]

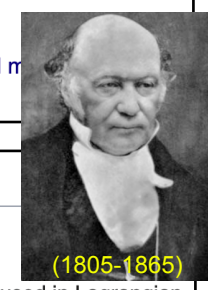
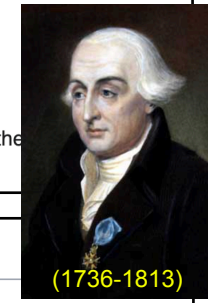
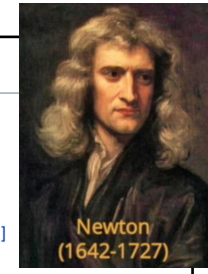
Law 1. A body continues in its state of rest, or in uniform motion in a straight line, unless acted upon by a force.

Law 2. A body acted upon by a force moves in such a manner that the time rate of change of [momentum](#) equals the force.

Law 3. If two bodies exert forces on each other, these forces are equal in magnitude and opposite in direction.

$$\vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt}$$

The three laws of motion were first stated by [Isaac Newton](#) in his *Philosophiæ Naturalis Principia Mathematica* (*Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy*), first published in 1687.^[2] Newton used them to investigate the motion of many physical objects and systems, which laid the foundation for Newtonian mechanics.^[3]



Lagrangian mechanics

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

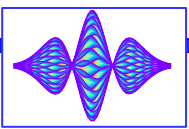
Introduced by the Italian-French mathematician and astronomer [Joseph-Louis Lagrange](#) in 1788 from his work *Mécanique analytique*, **Lagrangian mechanics** is a formulation of [classical mechanics](#) founded on the [stationary action principle](#).

Hamiltonian mechanics

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Hamiltonian mechanics emerged in 1833 as a reformulation of [Lagrangian mechanics](#). Introduced by [Sir William Rowan Hamilton](#), Hamiltonian mechanics replaces (generalized) velocities \dot{q}^i used in Lagrangian mechanics with (generalized) *momenta*. Both theories provide interpretations of [classical mechanics](#) and describe the same physical phenomena

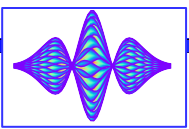
Hamiltonian mechanics has a close relationship with geometry (notably, [symplectic geometry](#) and [Poisson structures](#)) and serves as a [link](#) between classical and [quantum mechanics](#).



Classical mechanics



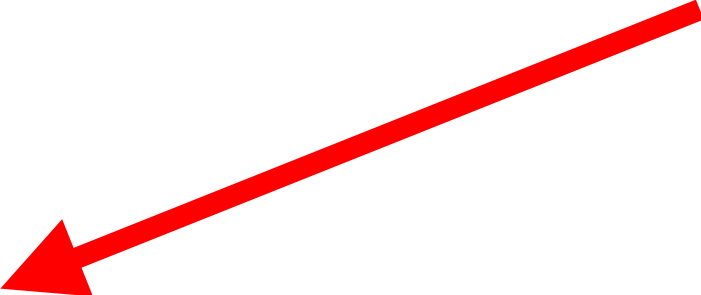
- ◆ For particle accelerators, which one(s) of the following major sub-field of mechanics need to be included?
 - * Quantum mechanics mainly and sometimes special relativity
 - * Special relativity mainly and sometimes quantum mechanics
 - * Quantum mechanics, special relativity and general relativity



- ◆ For particle accelerators, which one(s) of the following major sub-field of mechanics need to be included?
 - ✦ Quantum mechanics mainly and sometimes special relativity
 - ✦ **Special relativity mainly and sometimes quantum mechanics**
 - ✦ Quantum mechanics, special relativity and general relativity

CLASSICAL mechanics:

- 1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
- 2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)



QUANTUM mechanics:
for “small” sizes (atomic
and subatomic scales)

CLASSICAL mechanics:
1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)

QUANTUM mechanics:
for “small” sizes (atomic
and subatomic scales)

SPECIAL RELATIVITY:
for velocities “not small”
compared to the speed
of light

CLASSICAL mechanics:
1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)

QUANTUM mechanics:
for “small” sizes (atomic
and subatomic scales)

SPECIAL RELATIVITY:
for velocities “not small”
compared to the speed
of light

GENERAL RELATIVITY:
for “extremely massive”
objects

CLASSICAL mechanics:
1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)

QUANTUM mechanics:
for “small” sizes (atomic
and subatomic scales)

SPECIAL RELATIVITY:
for velocities “not small”
compared to the speed
of light

~~**GENERAL RELATIVITY:**
for “extremely massive”
objects~~

CLASSICAL mechanics:
1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)

QUANTUM mechanics:
for “small” sizes (atomic
and subatomic scales)

SPECIAL RELATIVITY:
for velocities “not small”
compared to the speed
of light

GENERAL RELATIVITY:
for “extremely massive”
objects

Note that since some time
some people want to test
general relativity on
particle accelerators

CLASSICAL mechanics:
1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)

~~QUANTUM mechanics:
for “small” sizes (atomic
and subatomic scales)~~

SPECIAL RELATIVITY:
for velocities “not small”
compared to the speed
of light

~~GENERAL RELATIVITY:
for “extremely massive”
objects~~

CLASSICAL mechanics:
1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)

QUANTUM mechanics:
for “small” sizes (atomic and subatomic scales)

SPECIAL RELATIVITY:
for velocities “not small”
compared to the speed
of light

GENERAL RELATIVITY:
for “extremely massive”
objects

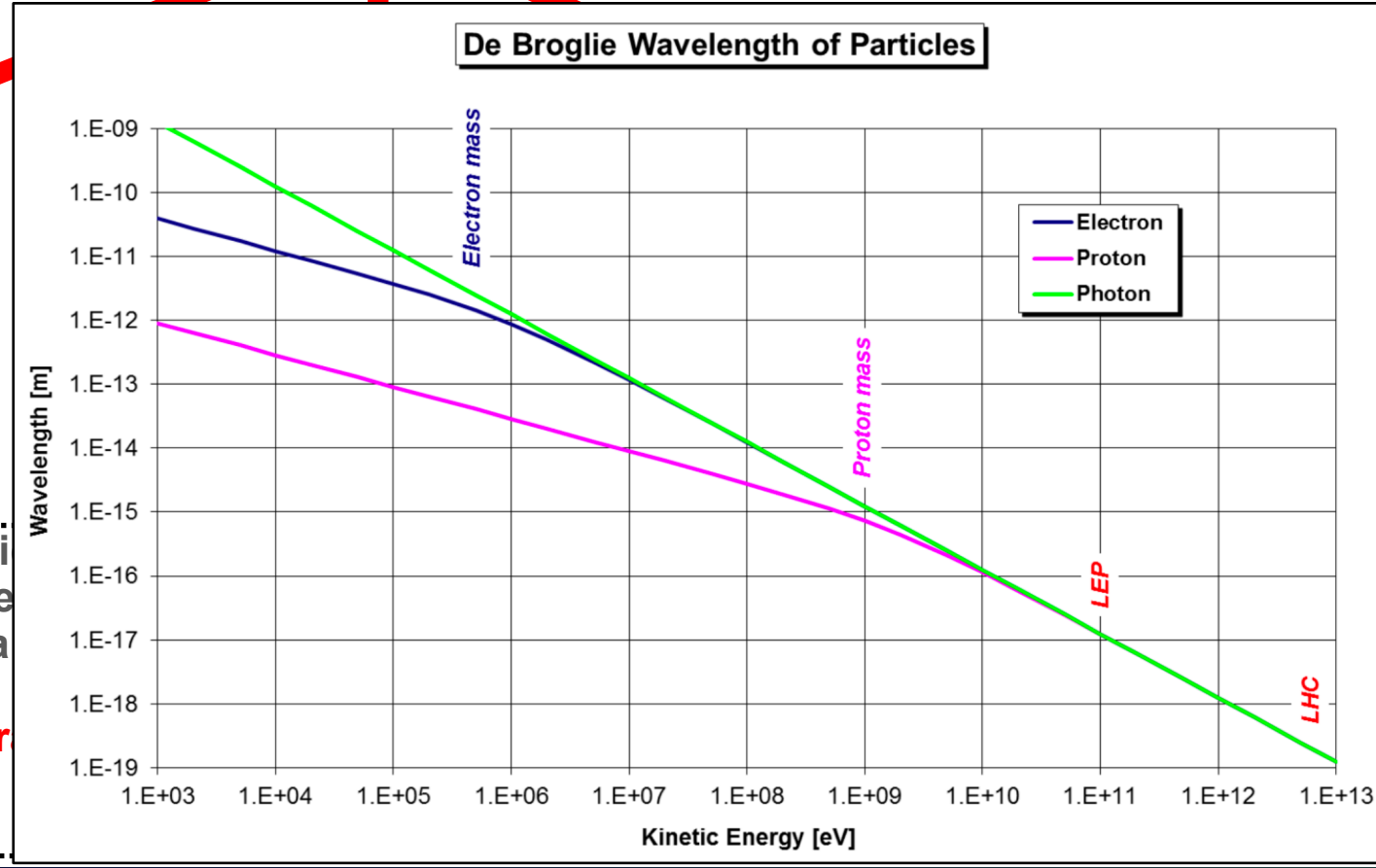
- For most purposes, the particles can be seen as “hard points” and their motion treated with classical point mechanics (due to the fact that **the de Broglie wavelengths of accelerated particles are very small compared to the size of accelerator structures**)

CLASSICAL mechanics:

- 1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
- 2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)

QUANTUM mechanics:
for “small” sizes (atomic and subatomic scales)

- For most purposes, the particles are treated as “points” and their motion treated with classical mechanics (due to the fact that the **wavelengths of accelerated particles are much smaller compared to the size of accelerators**)

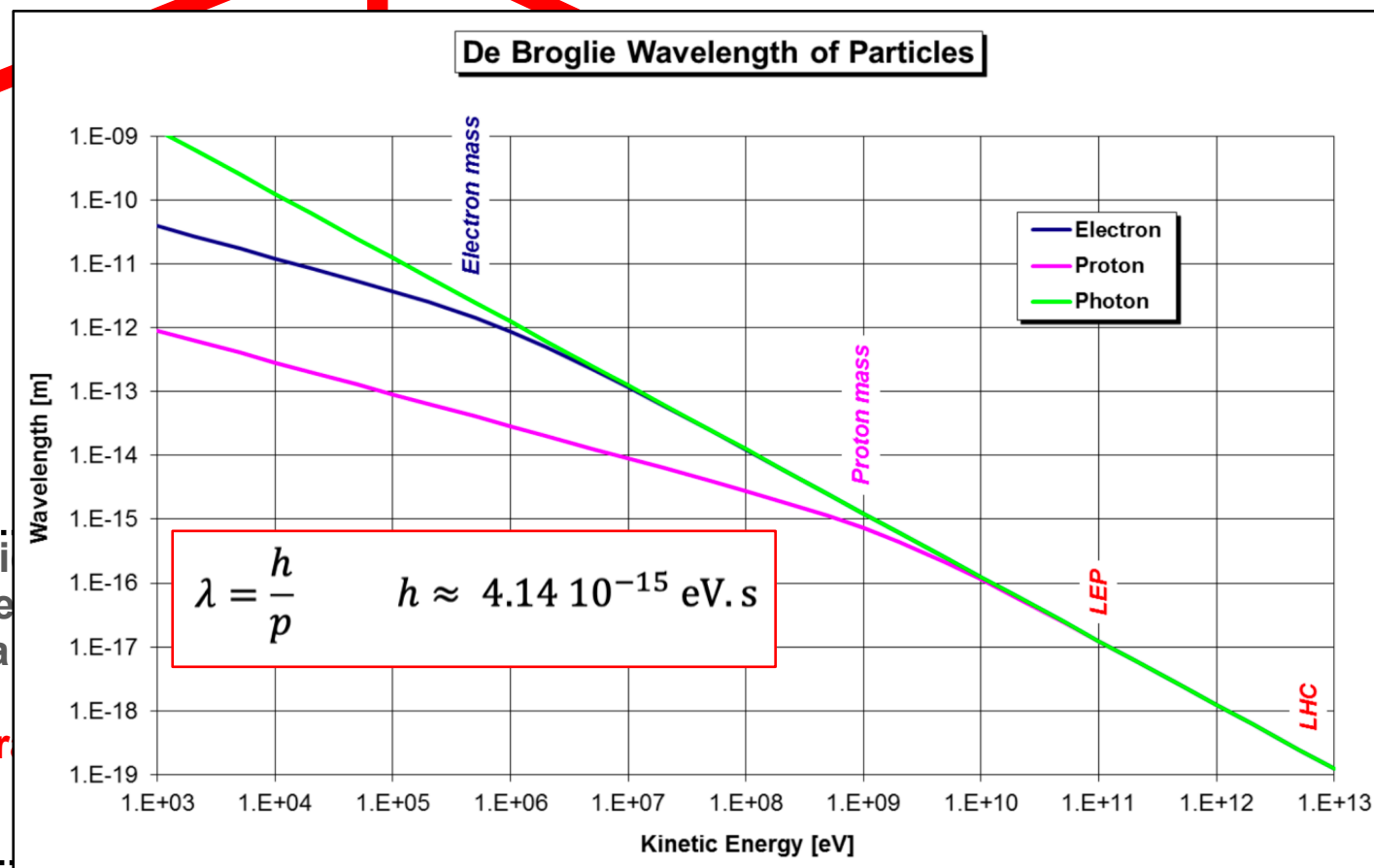


CLASSICAL mechanics:

- 1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
- 2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)

QUANTUM mechanics:
for “small” sizes (atomic and subatomic scales)

- For most purposes, the particles are treated as “points” and their motion treated with classical mechanics (due to the fact that their de Broglie wavelengths of accelerated particles are much smaller compared to the size of accelerators)

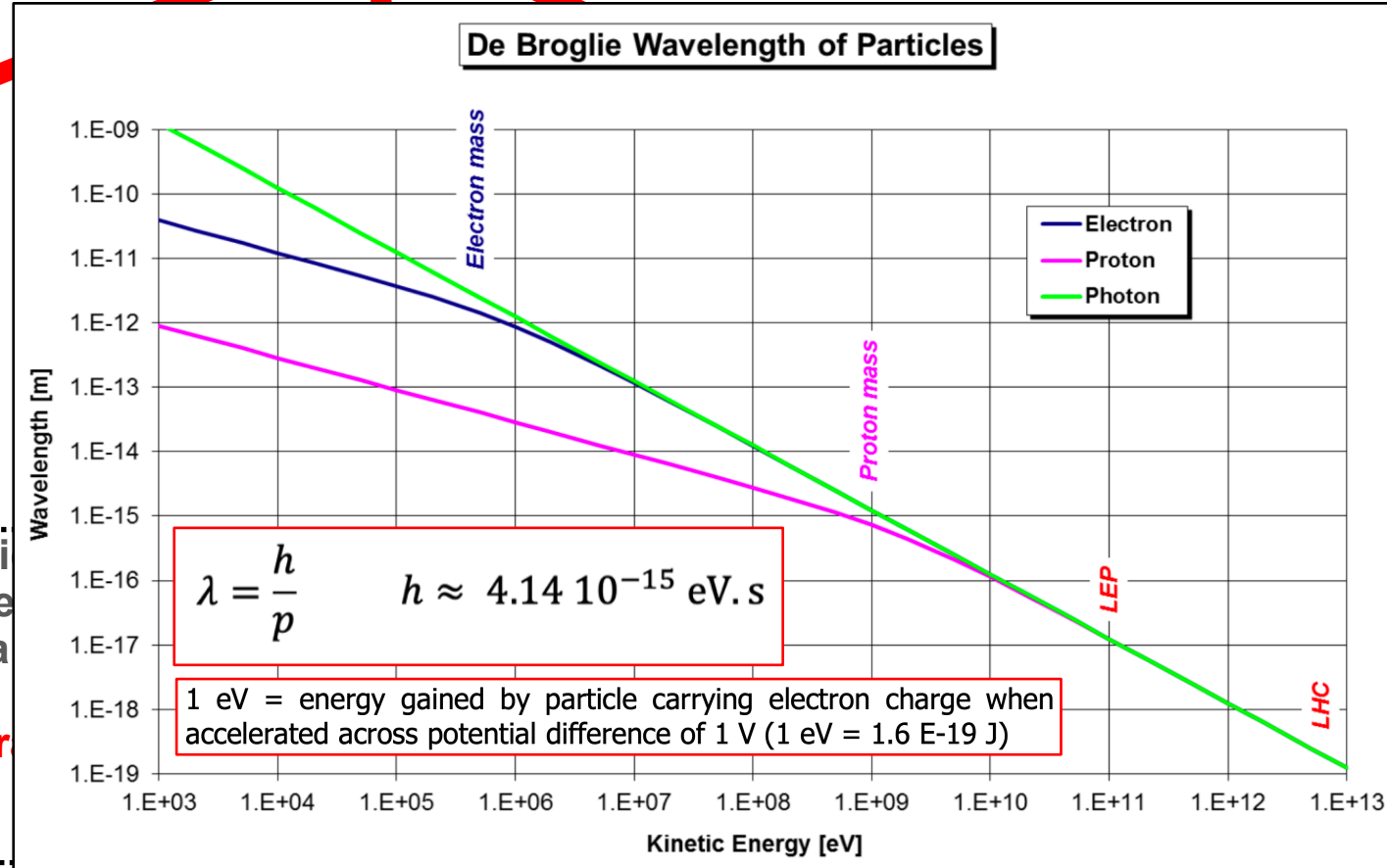


CLASSICAL mechanics:

- 1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
- 2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)

QUANTUM mechanics:
for “small” sizes (atomic and subatomic scales)

- For most purposes, the particles are treated as “points” and their motion treated with classical mechanics (due to the fact that the **wavelengths of accelerated particles are much smaller compared to the size of accelerators**)



CLASSICAL mechanics:
1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)

QUANTUM mechanics:
for “small” sizes (atomic and subatomic scales)

SPECIAL RELATIVITY:
for velocities “not small” compared to the speed of light

GENERAL RELATIVITY:
for “extremely massive” objects

- For most purposes, the particles can be seen as “hard points” and their motion treated with classical point mechanics (due to the fact that the de Broglie wavelengths of accelerated particles are very small compared to the size of accelerator structures)
- **However, it is needed e.g. when radiations emitted by the particles, scattering and superconductivity are discussed**

CLASSICAL mechanics:
 1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
 2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)

QUANTUM mechanics:
 for “small” sizes (atomic and subatomic scales)

SPECIAL RELATIVITY:
 for velocities “not small” compared to the speed of light

~~**GENERAL RELATIVITY:**
 for “extremely massive” objects~~

- For most purposes, the particles can be seen as “hard points” and their motion treated with classical point mechanics (due to the fact that the de Broglie wavelengths of accelerated particles are very small compared to the size of accelerator structures)
 - **However, it is needed e.g. when radiations emitted by the particles, scattering and superconductivity are discussed**

=> See for instance “Quantum aspects of beam physics” from 1999 (<https://accelconf.web.cern.ch/p99/PAPERS/TUCR1.PDF>)

CLASSICAL mechanics:
 1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
 2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)

QUANTUM mechanics:
 for “small” sizes (atomic and subatomic scales)

SPECIAL RELATIVITY:
 for velocities “not small” compared to the speed of light

GENERAL RELATIVITY:
 for “extremely massive” objects

- For most purposes, the particles can be seen as “hard points” and their motion treated with classical point mechanics (due to the fact that the de Broglie wavelengths of accelerated particles are very small compared to the size of accelerator structures)
 - **However, it is needed e.g. when radiations emitted by the particles, scattering and superconductivity are discussed**

There are undoubtedly other important QM effects than we can poorly envision here. But even with this rather limited scope, it is hopefully evident that this new subject, quantum beam physics, will only become more prominent in the next century.

CLASSICAL mechanics:
1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)

~~QUANTUM mechanics:
for “small” sizes (atomic
and subatomic scales)~~

SPECIAL RELATIVITY:
for velocities “not small”
compared to the speed
of light

~~GENERAL RELATIVITY:
for “extremely massive”
objects~~

**=> CLASSICAL
RELATIVISTIC
MECHANICS IS WHAT
IS MOST OFTEN USED!**

CLASSICAL mechanics:
 1) Newtonian mechanics (more “physical”)
 2) Lagrangian and Hamiltonian mechanics (more “mathematical”)

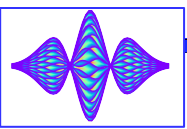
SPECIAL RELATIVITY:
 for velocities “not small”
 compared to the speed
 of light

~~**GENERAL RELATIVITY:**
 for “extremely massive”
 objects~~

**=> CLASSICAL
 RELATIVISTIC
 MECHANICS IS WHAT
 IS MOST OFTEN USED!**

$\vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt}$ (from
 Newton’s second law of
 motion, including special
 relativity)

~~**QUANTUM mechanics:**
 for “small” sizes (atomic
 and subatomic scales)~~



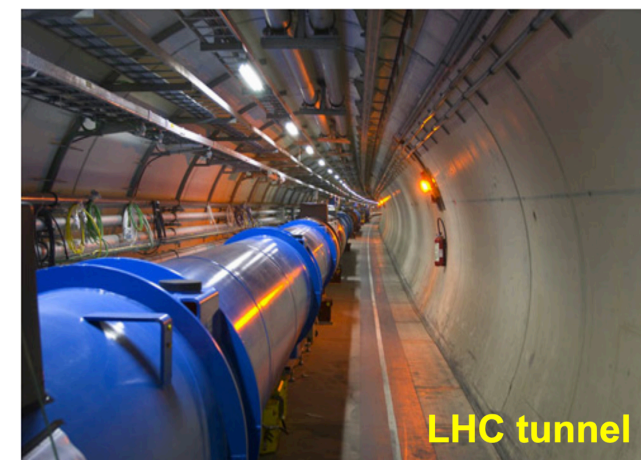
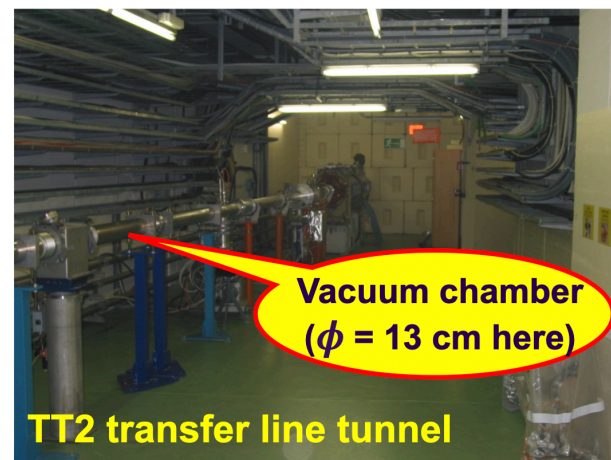
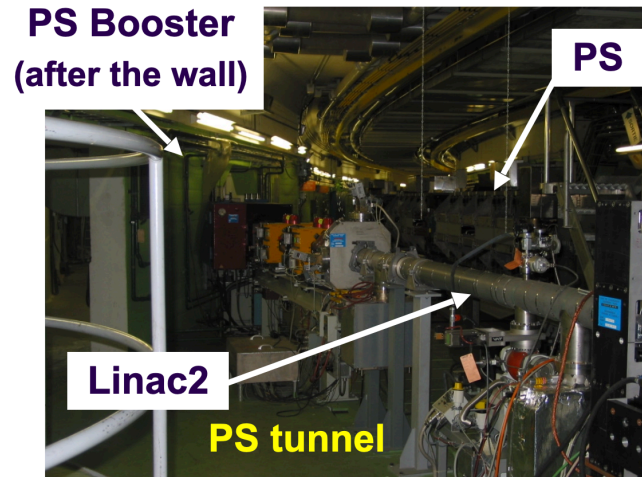
Particle accelerators

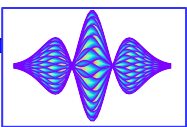


- ◆ Particle accelerators are devices that handle the motion of particles by means of **EM fields**

- ◆ Particle accelerators are devices that handle the motion of particles by means of **EM fields**

Example of some particle accelerators from CERN

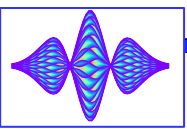




Particle accelerators



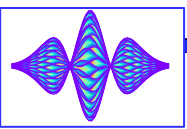
- ◆ 3 conditions must be satisfied: **which ones?**



Particle accelerators



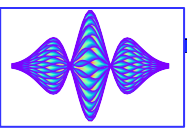
- ◆ 3 conditions must be satisfied
 - ✦ **Charged particles (e.g. p^+ , e^- , ions or anti-particles)**



Particle accelerators



- ◆ 3 conditions must be satisfied
 - ✦ **Charged particles** (e.g. p^+ , e^- , ions or anti-particles)
 - ✦ **Stable particles** (during the manipulation time)



Particle accelerators



- ◆ 3 conditions must be satisfied
 - ✦ **Charged particles** (e.g. p^+ , e^- , ions or anti-particles)
 - ✦ **Stable particles** (during the manipulation time)
 - ✦ **Sufficient vacuum**

- ◆ 3 conditions must be satisfied
 - ✦ **Charged particles** (e.g. p^+ , e^- , ions or anti-particles)
 - ✦ **Stable particles** (during the manipulation time)
 - ✦ **Sufficient vacuum**



**$\sim 10^{-10}$ Torr in the LHC
= ~ 3 million molecules
/ cm^3**

LHC tunnel

- ◆ 3 conditions must be satisfied
 - ✦ **Charged particles** (e.g. p^+ , e^- , ions or anti-particles)
 - ✦ **Stable particles** (during the manipulation time)
 - ✦ **Sufficient vacuum**

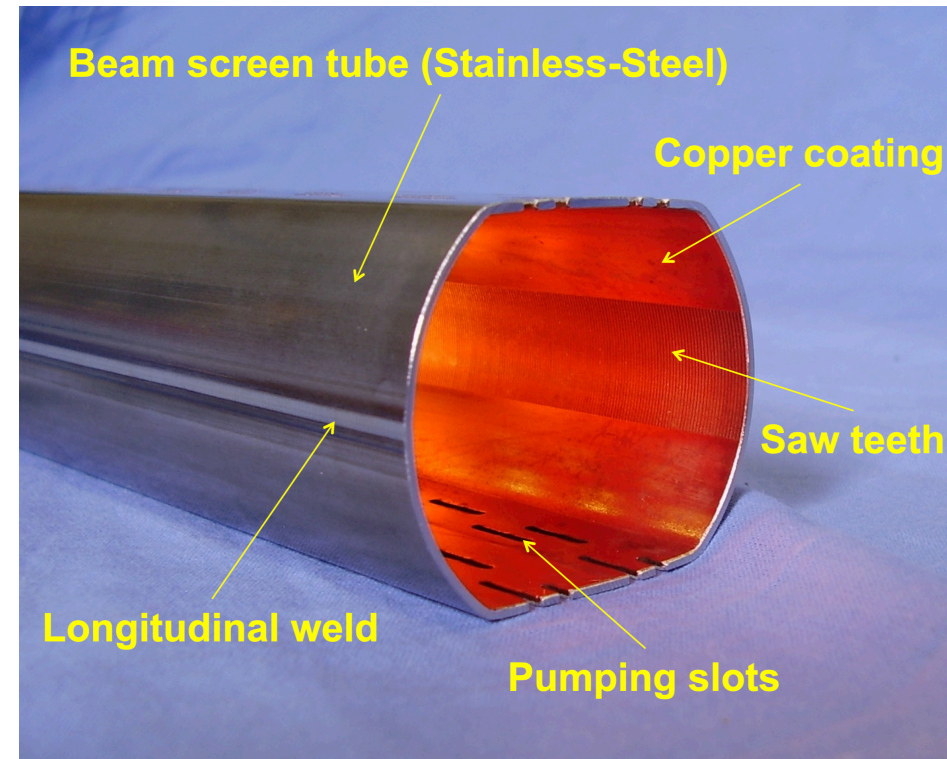
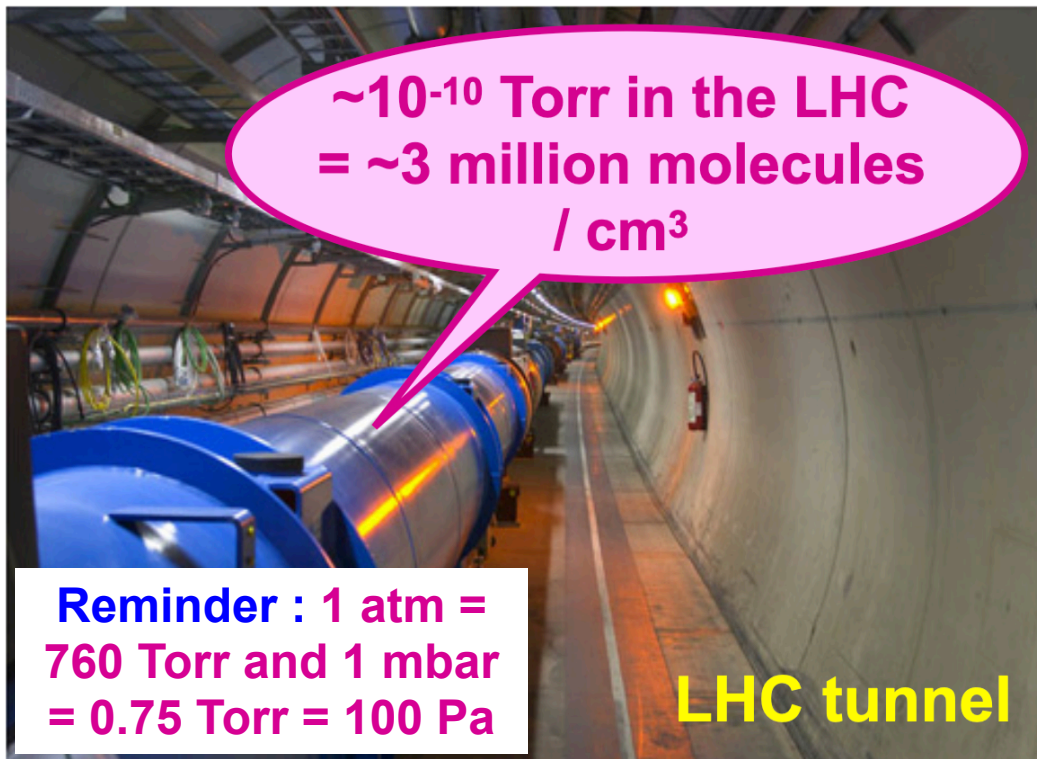


**$\sim 10^{-10}$ Torr in the LHC
= ~ 3 million molecules
/ cm^3**

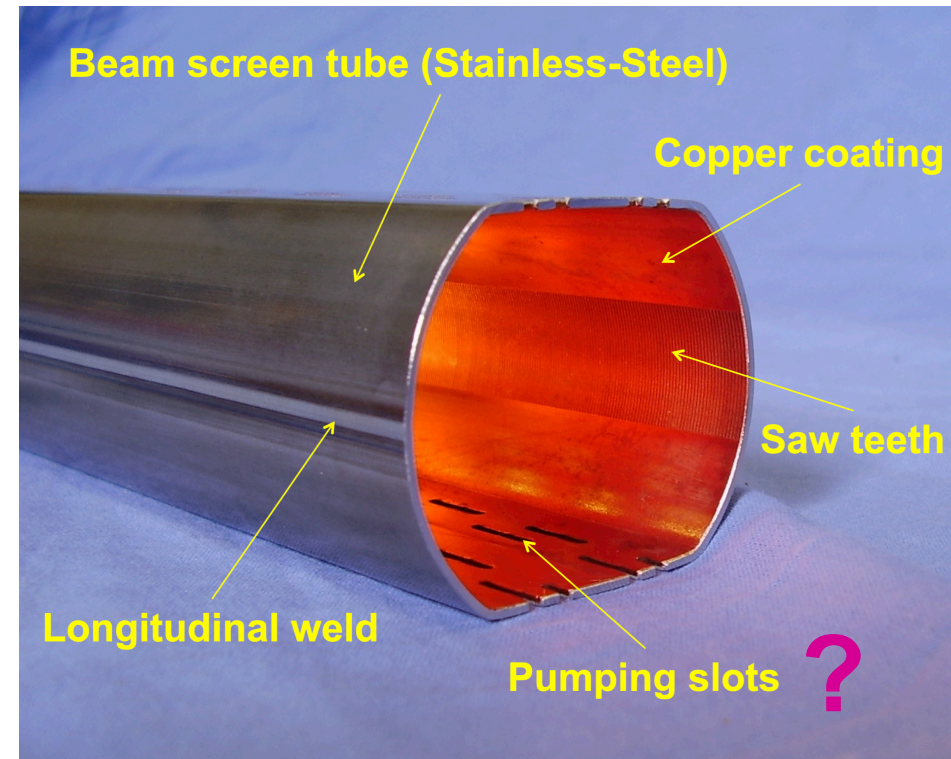
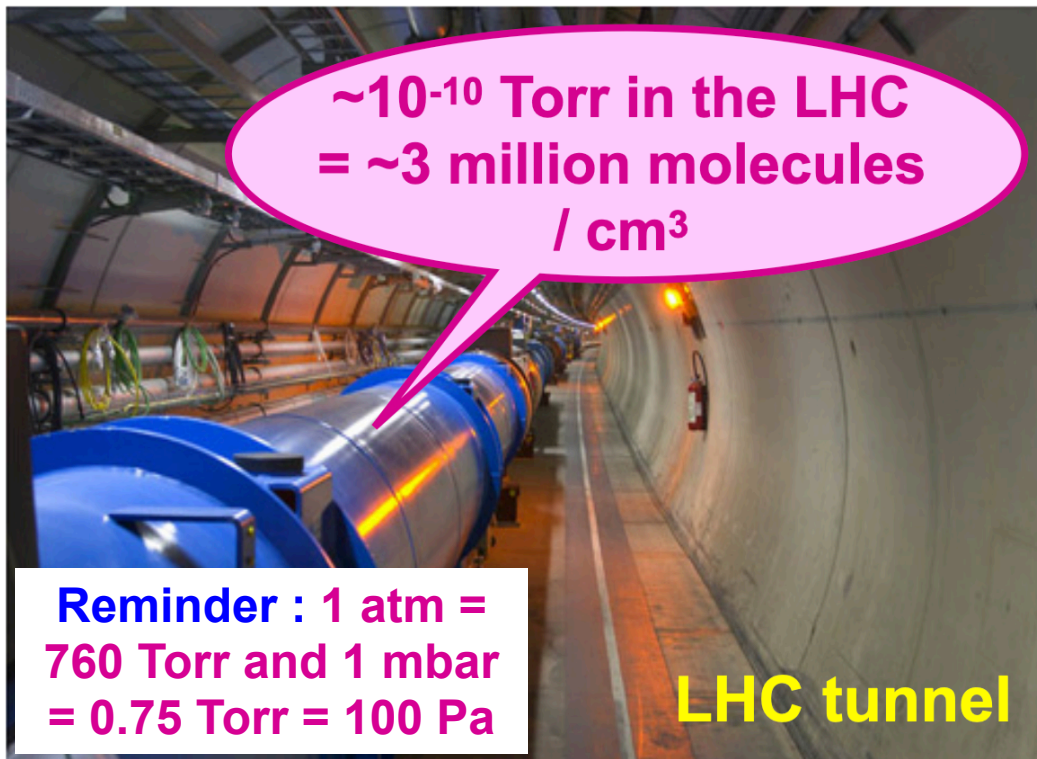
**Reminder : 1 atm =
760 Torr and 1 mbar
= 0.75 Torr = 100 Pa**

LHC tunnel

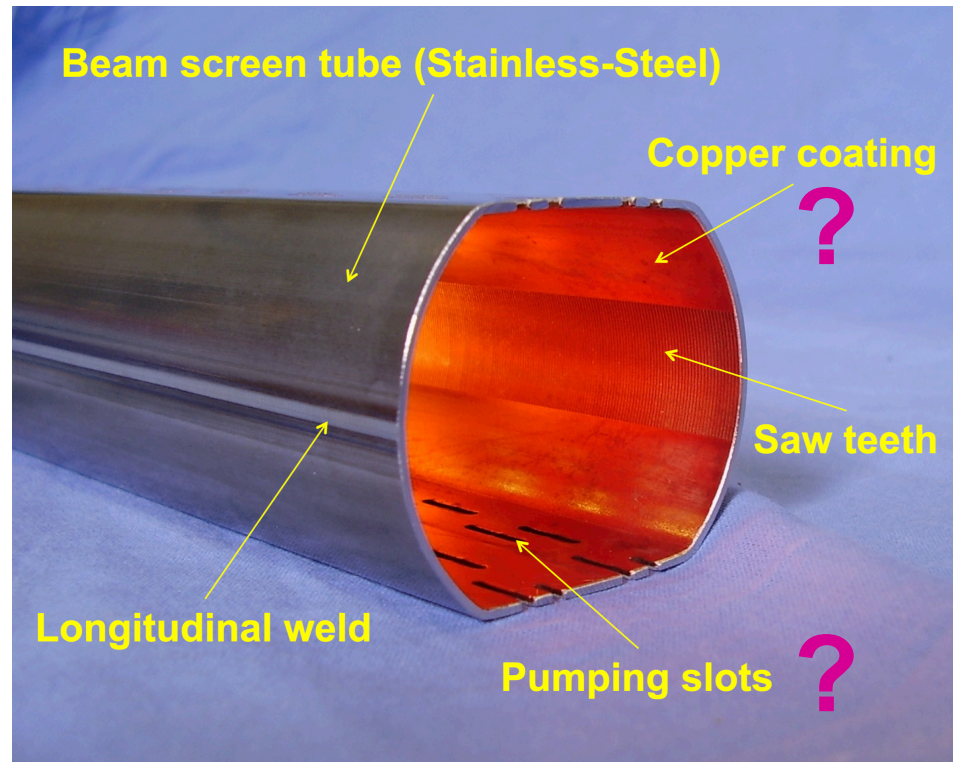
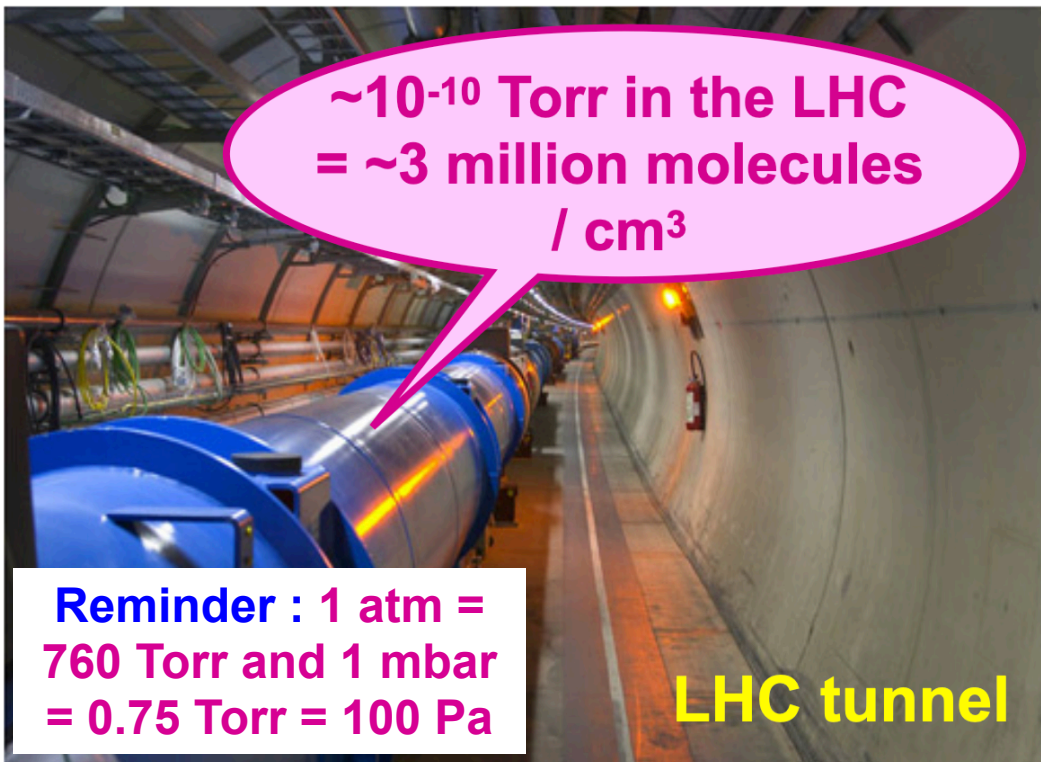
- ◆ 3 conditions must be satisfied
 - ✦ **Charged particles** (e.g. p^+ , e^- , ions or anti-particles)
 - ✦ **Stable particles** (during the manipulation time)
 - ✦ **Sufficient vacuum**



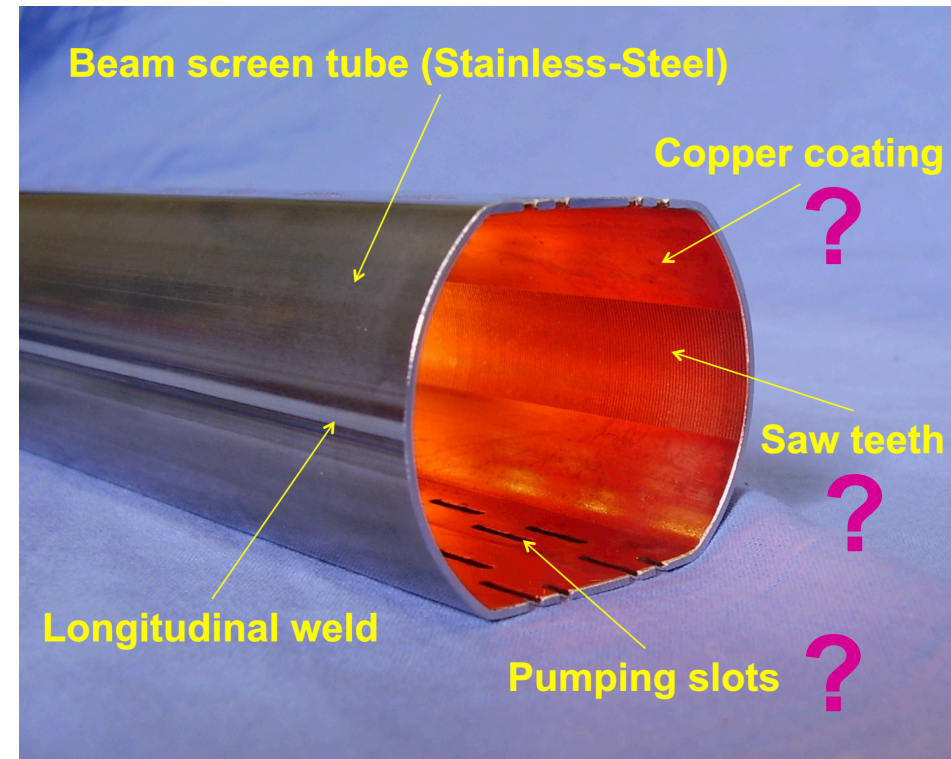
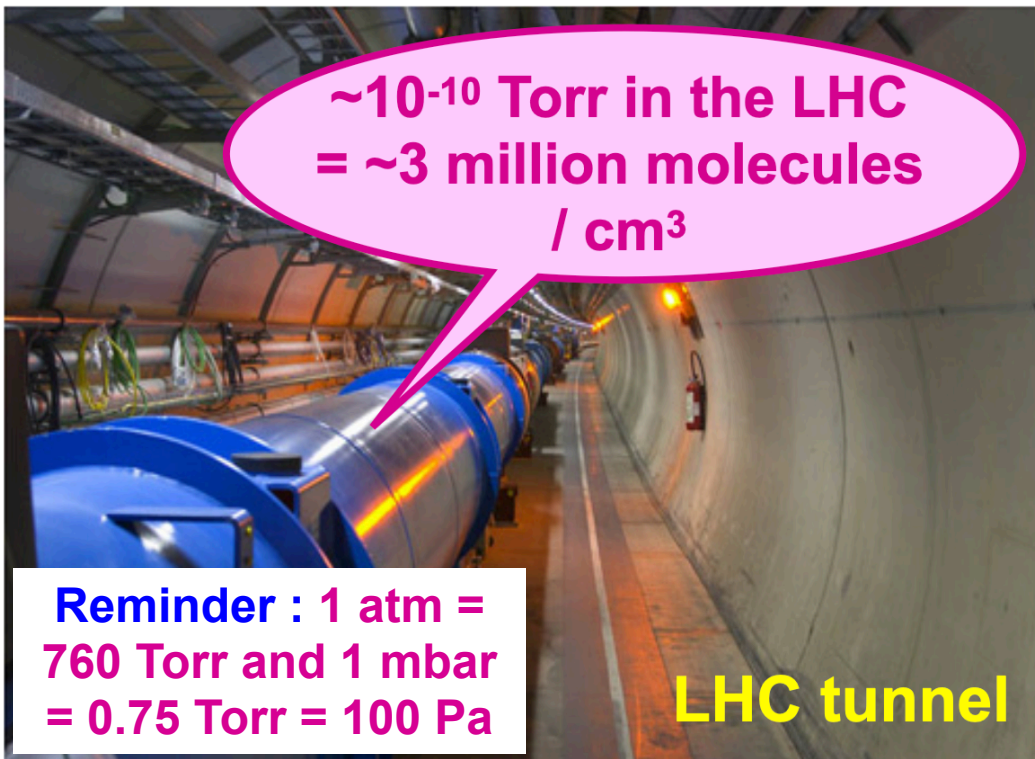
- ◆ 3 conditions must be satisfied
 - ✦ **Charged particles** (e.g. p^+ , e^- , ions or anti-particles)
 - ✦ **Stable particles** (during the manipulation time)
 - ✦ **Sufficient vacuum**

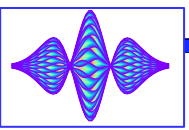


- ◆ 3 conditions must be satisfied
 - ✦ **Charged particles** (e.g. p^+ , e^- , ions or anti-particles)
 - ✦ **Stable particles** (during the manipulation time)
 - ✦ **Sufficient vacuum**



- ◆ 3 conditions must be satisfied
 - ✦ **Charged particles** (e.g. p^+ , e^- , ions or anti-particles)
 - ✦ **Stable particles** (during the manipulation time)
 - ✦ **Sufficient vacuum**

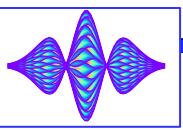




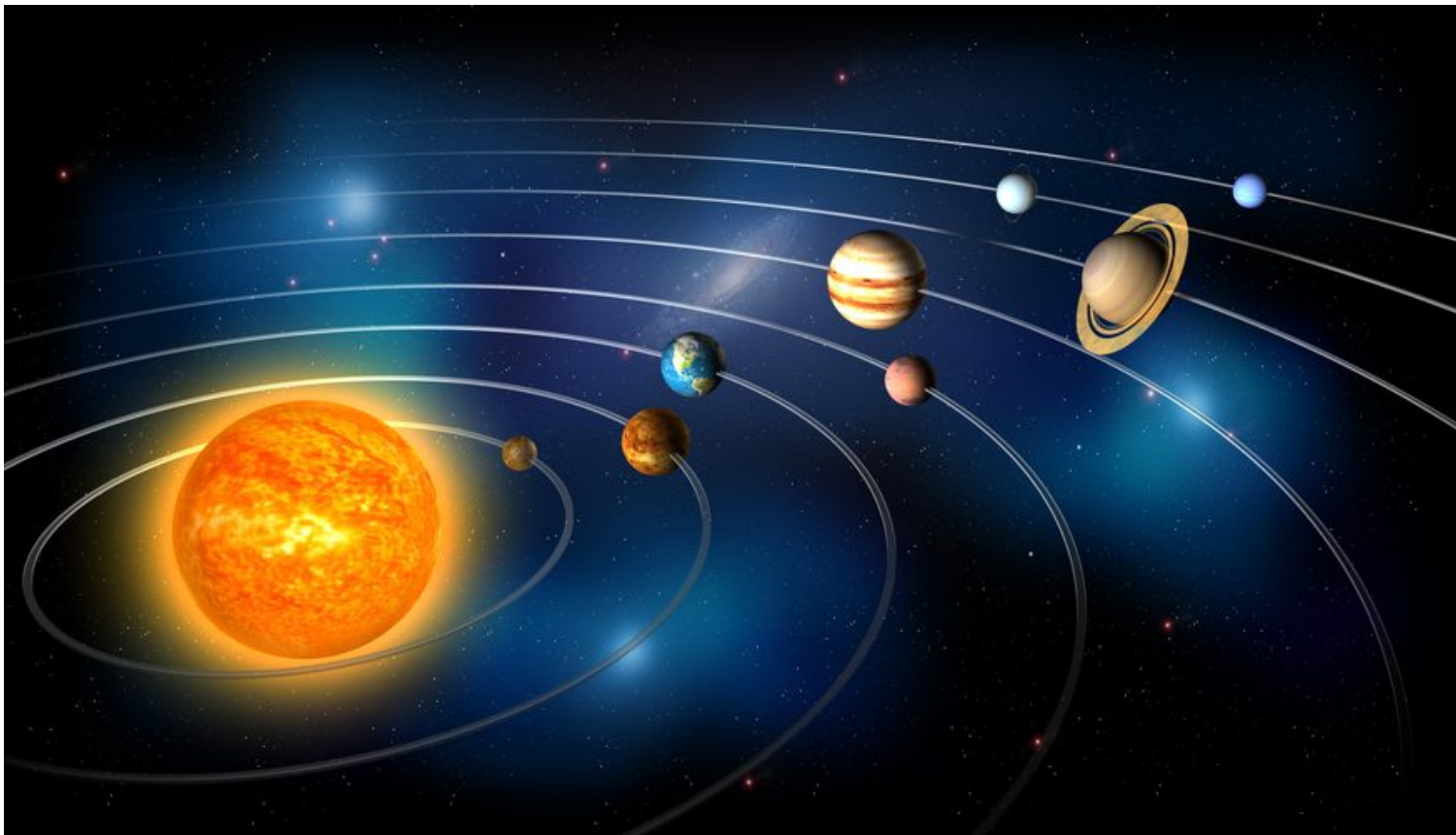
Particle accelerators

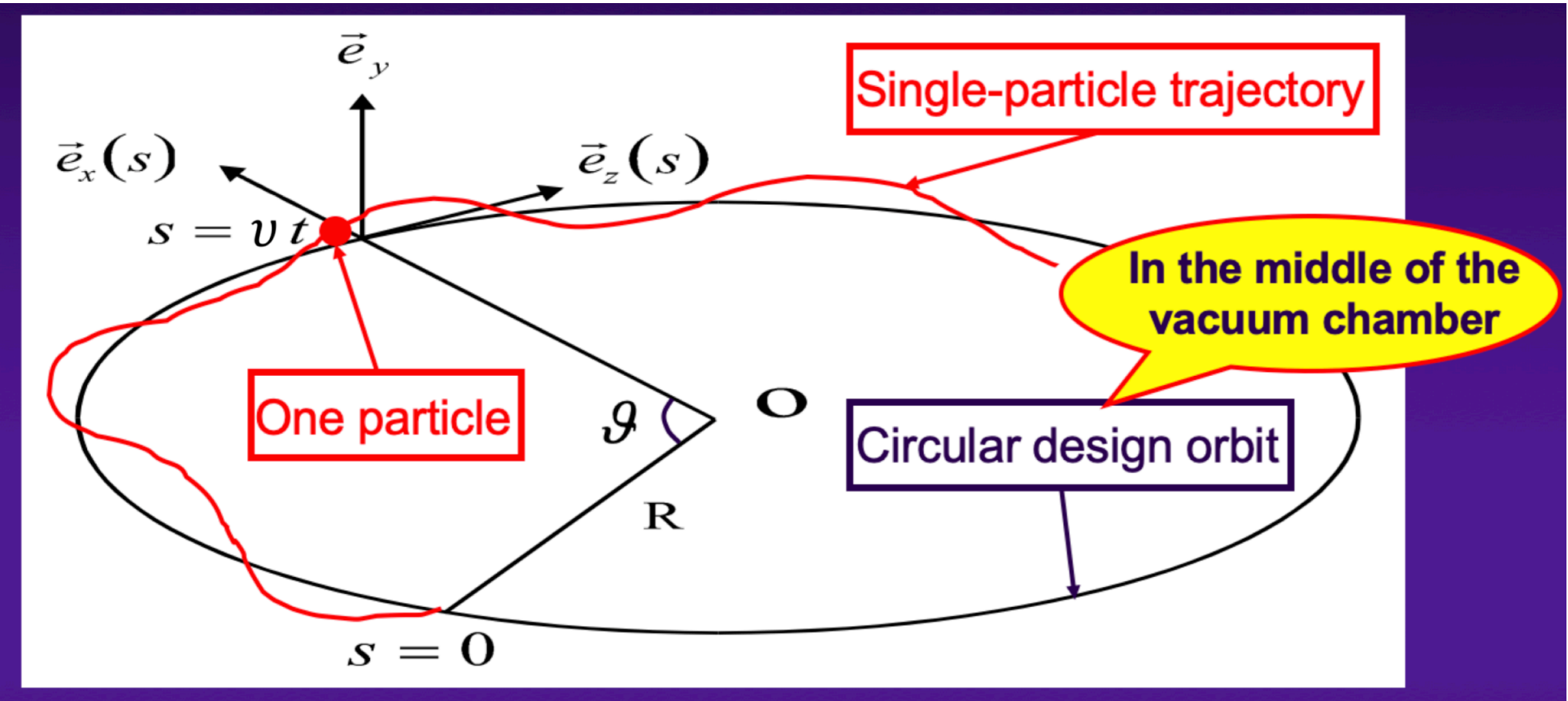


◆ **TRICK** of particle accelerators: ?

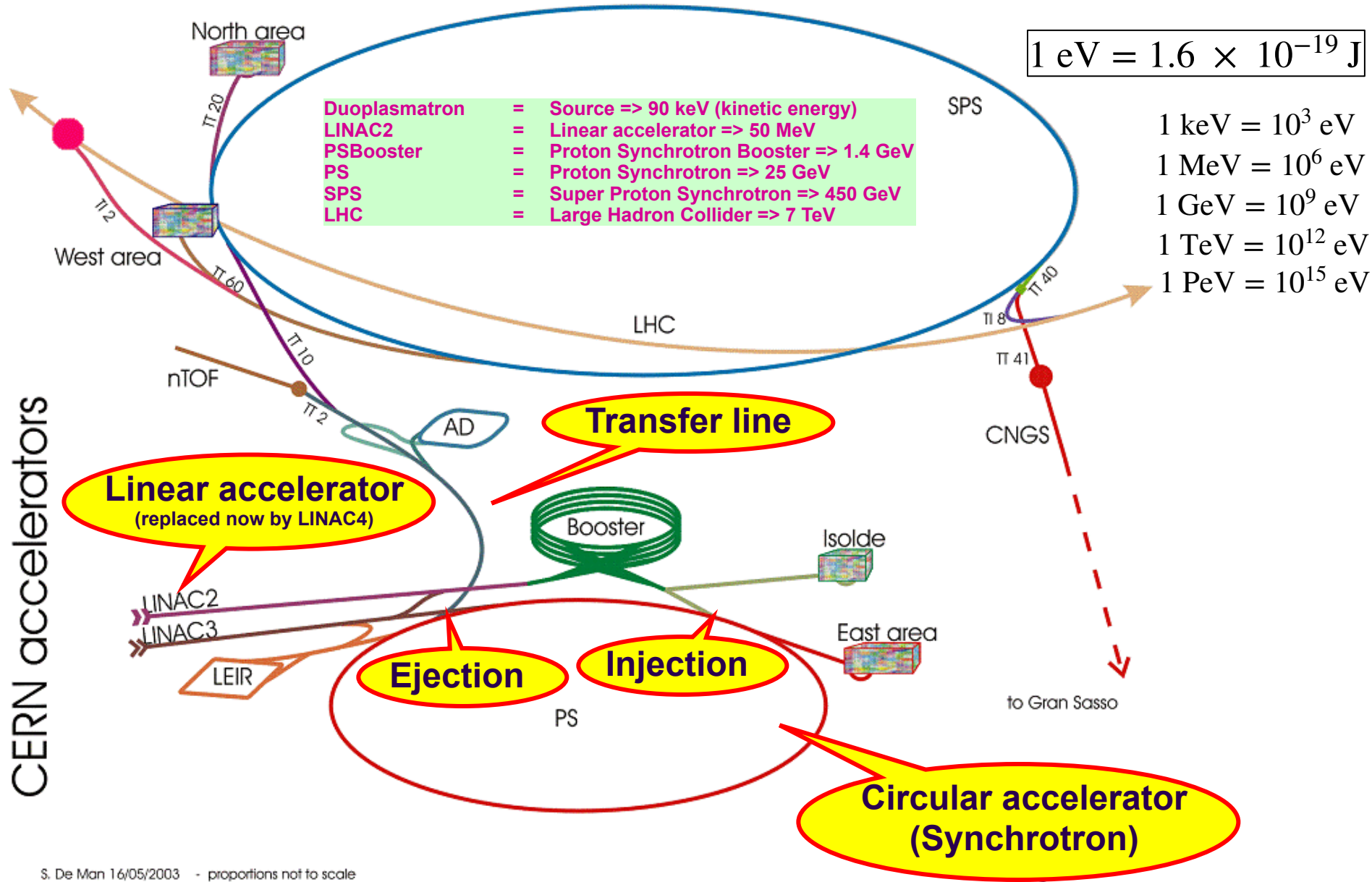


- ◆ **TRICK of particle accelerators:** the best way to keep something (here particles) under control (i.e. stable) is to **make it oscillate!** And this is what we are doing...in the 3 planes



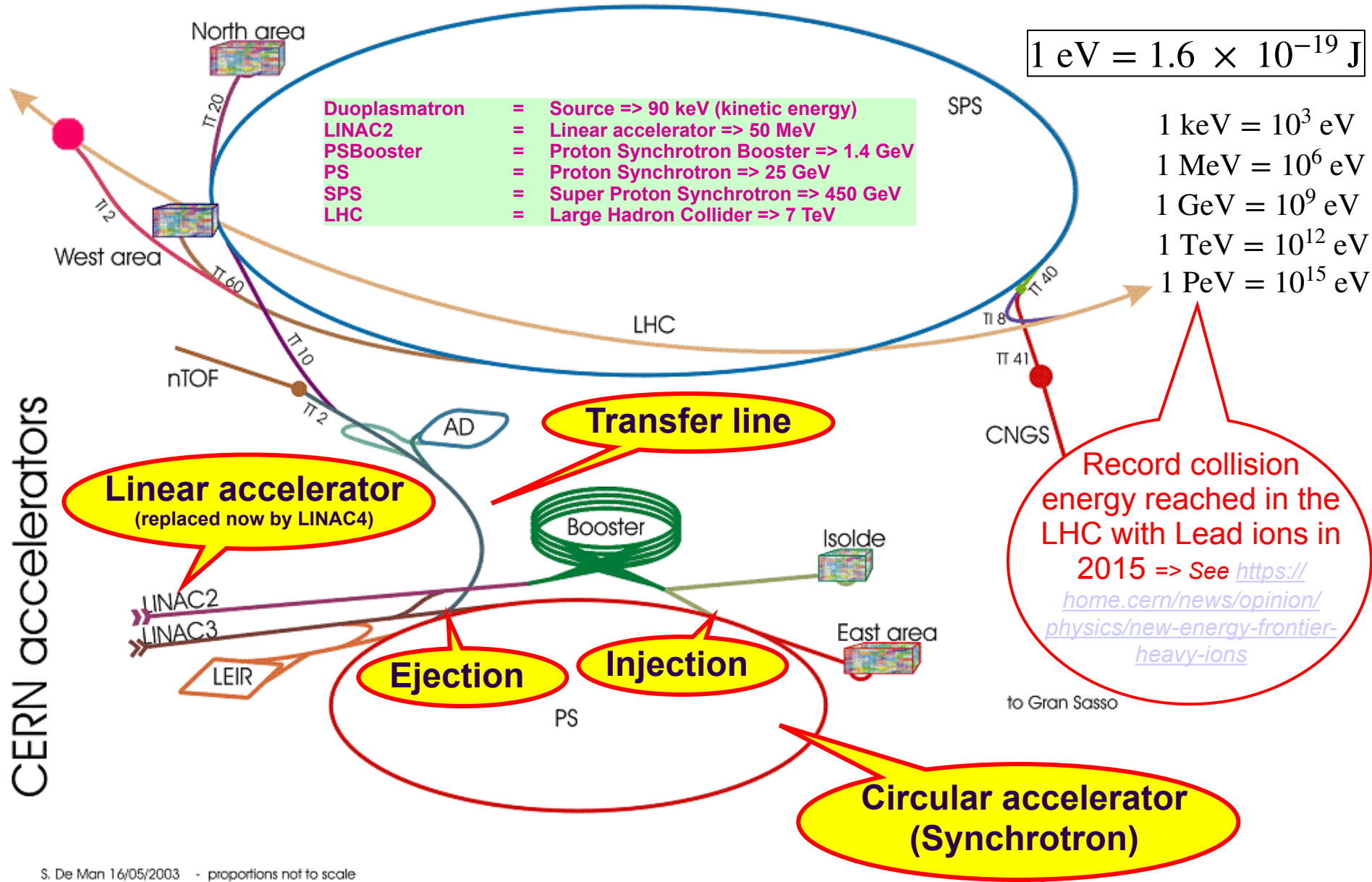


Case here of a “synchrotron”



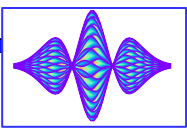
S. De Man 16/05/2003 - proportions not to scale

LHC proton beam in the injector chain



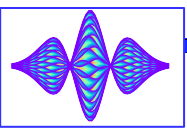
S. De Man 16/05/2003 - proportions not to scale

LHC proton beam in the injector chain



Notion of phase space (instead of real space)

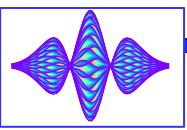




Notion of phase space (instead of real space)



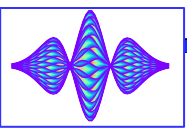
- ◆ Using the Hamiltonian formalism, we can use the constant of motion (**the Hamiltonian H**) to derive the dynamics of a particle



Notion of phase space (instead of real space)



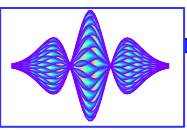
- ◆ Using the Hamiltonian formalism, we can use the constant of motion (**the Hamiltonian H**) to derive the dynamics of a particle
- ◆ H is ?



Notion of phase space (instead of real space)

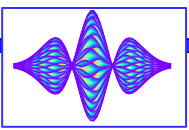


- ◆ Using the Hamiltonian formalism, we can use the constant of motion (**the Hamiltonian H**) to derive the dynamics of a particle
- ◆ **H is equal to the total energy of the particle**



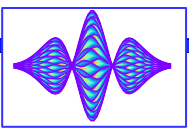
Notion of phase space (instead of real space)

- ◆ Using the Hamiltonian formalism, we can use the constant of motion (**the Hamiltonian H**) to derive the dynamics of a particle
- ◆ **H is equal to the total energy of the particle**
- ◆ Each degree of freedom, i.e. each dimension in space (x, y, z) for a single particle, is described by a variable pair (x, p_x) , (y, p_y) and (z, p_z)



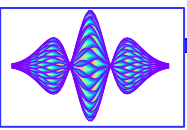
Notion of phase space (instead of real space)

- ◆ Using the Hamiltonian formalism, we can use the constant of motion (**the Hamiltonian H**) to derive the dynamics of a particle
- ◆ **H is equal to the total energy of the particle**
- ◆ Each degree of freedom, i.e. each dimension in space (x, y, z) for a single particle, is described by a variable pair (x, p_x) , (y, p_y) and (z, p_z)
- ◆ The variables in each pair are called “**canonical conjugate variables**”



Notion of phase space (instead of real space)

- ◆ Using the Hamiltonian formalism, we can use the constant of motion (**the Hamiltonian H**) to derive the dynamics of a particle
- ◆ **H is equal to the total energy of the particle**
- ◆ Each degree of freedom, i.e. each dimension in space (x, y, z) for a single particle, is described by a variable pair (x, p_x) , (y, p_y) and (z, p_z)
- ◆ The variables in each pair are called “**canonical conjugate variables**”
- ◆ The equations of motion are given by the **Hamilton equations** (e.g. in x)

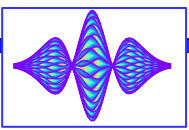


Notion of phase space (instead of real space)

- ◆ Using the Hamiltonian formalism, we can use the constant of motion (**the Hamiltonian H**) to derive the dynamics of a particle
- ◆ **H is equal to the total energy of the particle**
- ◆ Each degree of freedom, i.e. each dimension in space (x, y, z) for a single particle, is described by a variable pair (x, p_x) , (y, p_y) and (z, p_z)
- ◆ The variables in each pair are called “**canonical conjugate variables**”
- ◆ The equations of motion are given by the **Hamilton equations** (e.g. in x)

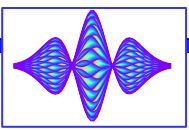
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_x}$$

$$\frac{dp_x}{dt} = - \frac{\partial H}{\partial x}$$



Notion of phase space (instead of real space)

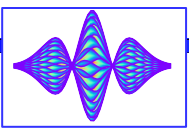
- ◆ Let's have a look to the simple case of a harmonic oscillator: $H = \omega \frac{x^2 + p_x^2}{2}$



Notion of phase space (instead of real space)

◆ Let's have a look to the simple case of a harmonic oscillator: $H = \omega \frac{x^2 + p_x^2}{2}$

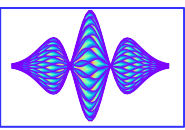
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_x}$$



Notion of phase space (instead of real space)

◆ Let's have a look to the simple case of a harmonic oscillator: $H = \omega \frac{x^2 + p_x^2}{2}$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_x} \Rightarrow \frac{dx}{dt} = \omega p_x$$

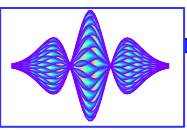


Notion of phase space (instead of real space)

- ◆ Let's have a look to the simple case of a harmonic oscillator: $H = \omega \frac{x^2 + p_x^2}{2}$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_x} \Rightarrow \frac{dx}{dt} = \omega p_x$$

$$\frac{dp_x}{dt} = - \frac{\partial H}{\partial x}$$

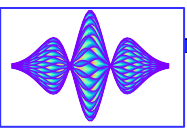


Notion of phase space (instead of real space)

- ◆ Let's have a look to the simple case of a harmonic oscillator: $H = \omega \frac{x^2 + p_x^2}{2}$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_x} \Rightarrow \frac{dx}{dt} = \omega p_x$$

$$\frac{dp_x}{dt} = - \frac{\partial H}{\partial x} \Rightarrow \frac{dp_x}{dt} = - \omega x$$



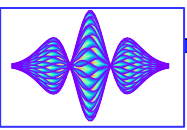
Notion of phase space (instead of real space)

- ◆ Let's have a look to the simple case of a harmonic oscillator: $H = \omega \frac{x^2 + p_x^2}{2}$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_x} \Rightarrow \frac{dx}{dt} = \omega p_x$$

$$\frac{dp_x}{dt} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial x} \Rightarrow \frac{dp_x}{dt} = -\omega x$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \omega^2 x = 0$$



Notion of phase space (instead of real space)

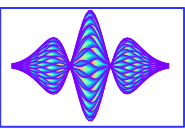
- ◆ Let's have a look to the simple case of a harmonic oscillator: $H = \omega \frac{x^2 + p_x^2}{2}$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_x} \Rightarrow \frac{dx}{dt} = \omega p_x$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \omega^2 x = 0$$

$$\frac{dp_x}{dt} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial x} \Rightarrow \frac{dp_x}{dt} = -\omega x$$

$$\Rightarrow x(t) \propto \cos(\omega t) \quad \text{or} \quad x(t) \propto \sin(\omega t)$$



Notion of phase space (instead of real space)

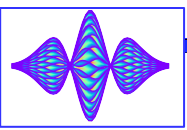
- ◆ Let's have a look to the simple case of a harmonic oscillator: $H = \omega \frac{x^2 + p_x^2}{2}$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_x} \Rightarrow \frac{dx}{dt} = \omega p_x$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \omega^2 x = 0$$

$$\frac{dp_x}{dt} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial x} \Rightarrow \frac{dp_x}{dt} = -\omega x$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{array}{ll} x(t) \propto \cos(\omega t) & \text{or } x(t) \propto \sin(\omega t) \\ p_x(t) \propto \sin(\omega t) & p_x(t) \propto \cos(\omega t) \end{array}$$



Notion of phase space (instead of real space)

- ◆ Let's have a look to the simple case of a harmonic oscillator: $H = \omega \frac{x^2 + p_x^2}{2}$

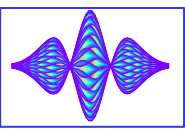
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_x} \Rightarrow \frac{dx}{dt} = \omega p_x$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \omega^2 x = 0$$

$$\frac{dp_x}{dt} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial x} \Rightarrow \frac{dp_x}{dt} = -\omega x$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{array}{ll} x(t) \propto \cos(\omega t) & \text{or } x(t) \propto \sin(\omega t) \\ p_x(t) \propto \sin(\omega t) & p_x(t) \propto \cos(\omega t) \end{array}$$

=> Circular motion in phase space



Notion of phase space (instead of real space)

- ◆ Let's have a look to the simple case of a harmonic oscillator: $H = \omega \frac{x^2 + p_x^2}{2}$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_x} \Rightarrow \frac{dx}{dt} = \omega p_x$$

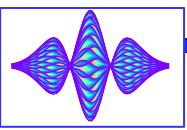
$$\frac{dp_x}{dt} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial x} \Rightarrow \frac{dp_x}{dt} = -\omega x$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \omega^2 x = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{array}{ll} x(t) \propto \cos(\omega t) & \text{or } x(t) \propto \sin(\omega t) \\ p_x(t) \propto \sin(\omega t) & p_x(t) \propto \cos(\omega t) \end{array}$$

=> Circular motion in phase space

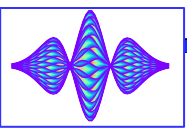
- ◆ And similarly for the other directions y and z => **The motion of a particle in the 3D real space is studied and described in a 6D phase space**



Notion of phase space (instead of real space)



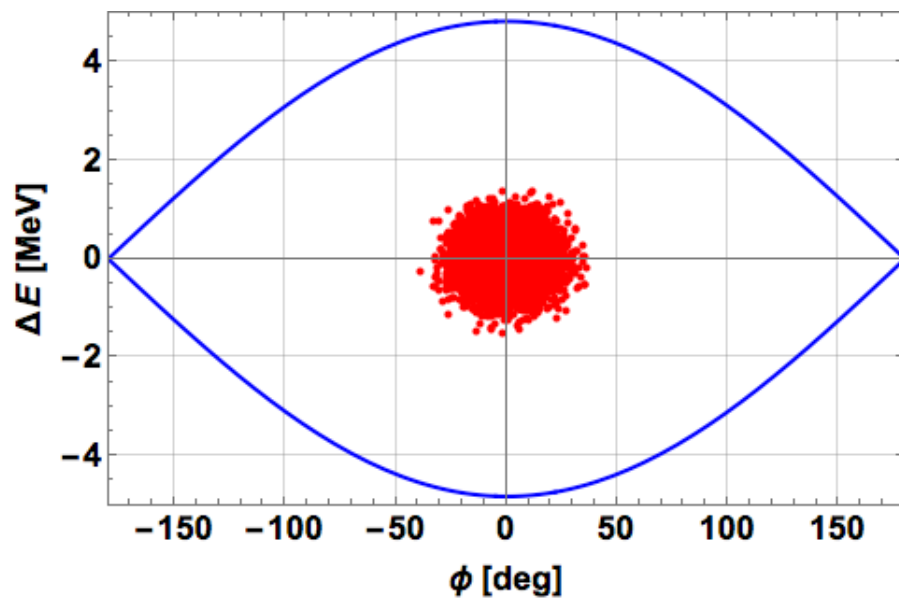
- ◆ Let's have a look, for instance, to the **motion of a bunch of particles, turn after turn, in the longitudinal phase space (z, p_z)**

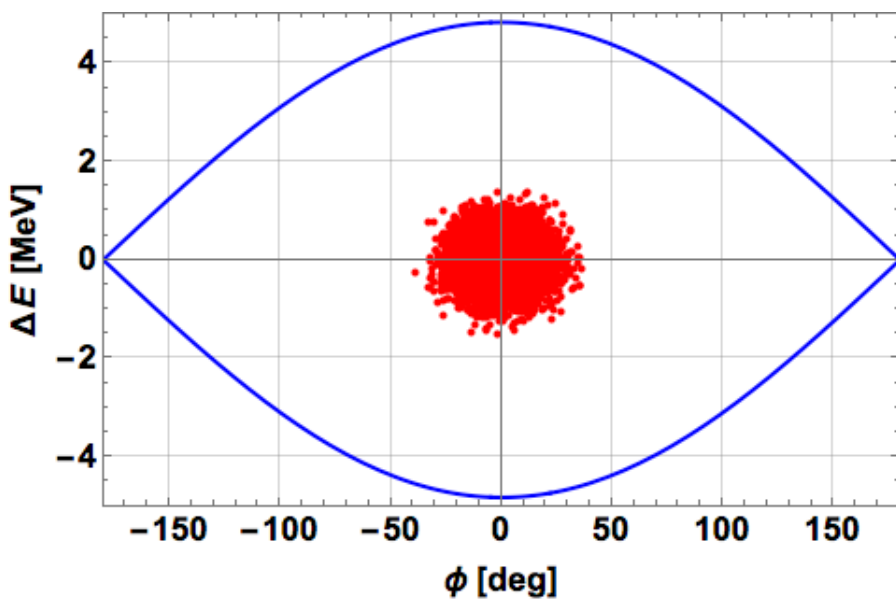
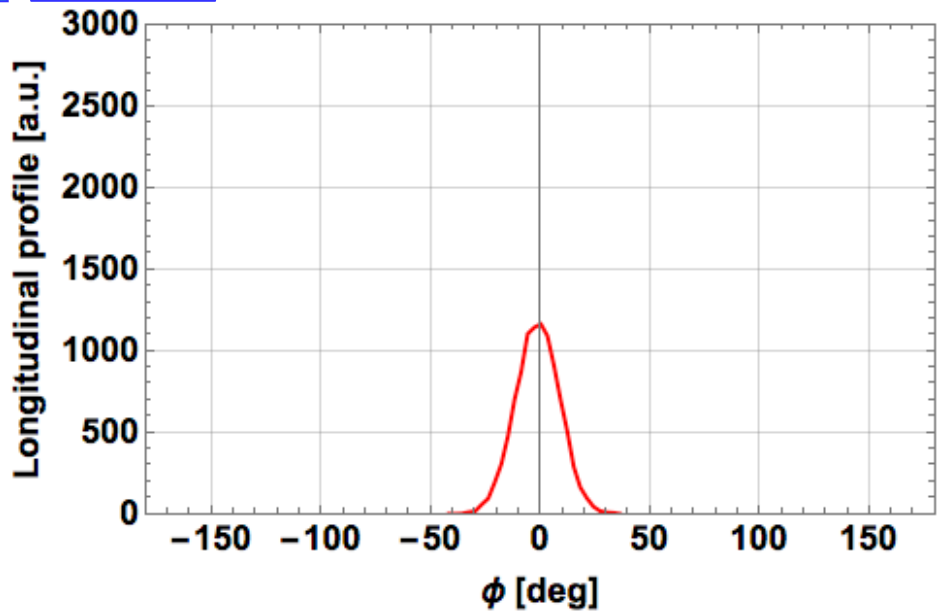


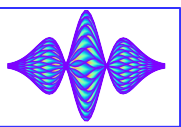
Notion of phase space (instead of real space)



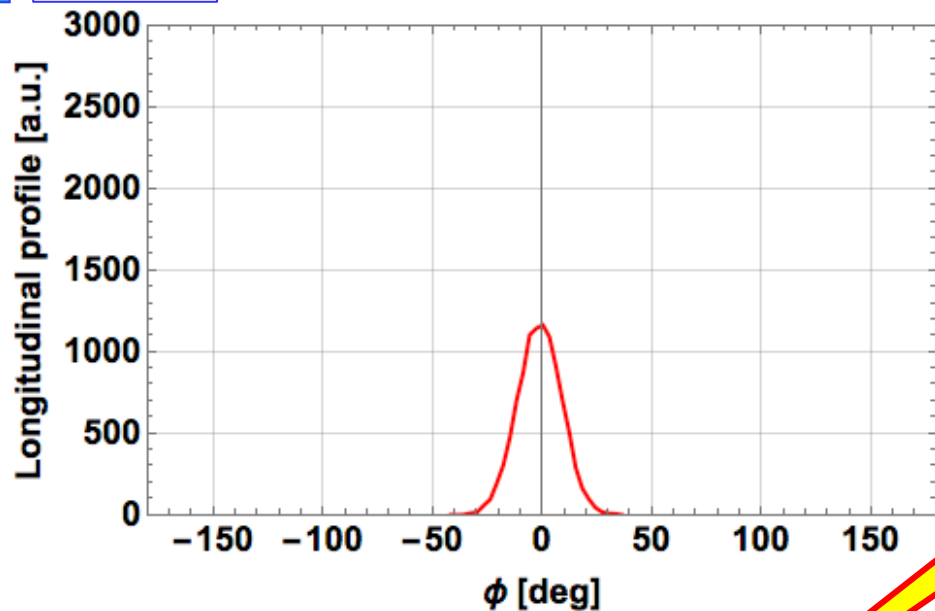
- ◆ Let's have a look, for instance, to the **motion of a bunch of particles, turn after turn, in the longitudinal phase space** $(z, p_z) \Rightarrow$ Using here some other normalised parameters proportional to z (for the horizontal axis) and p_z (for the vertical axis)





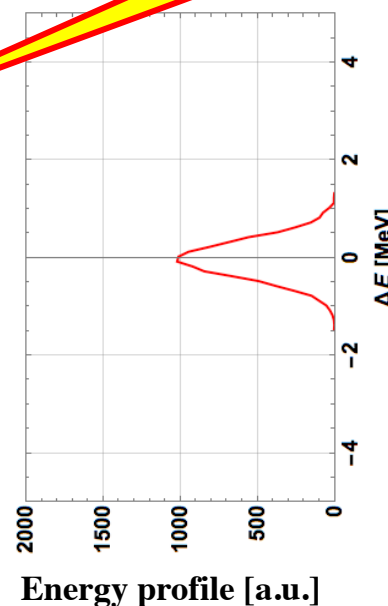
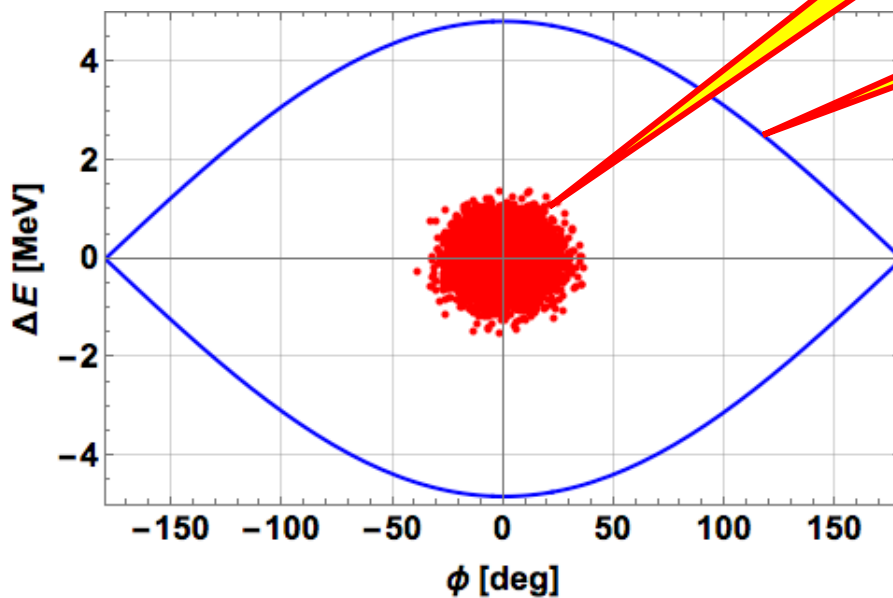


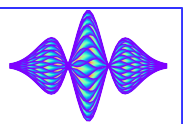
MATCHED BUNCH



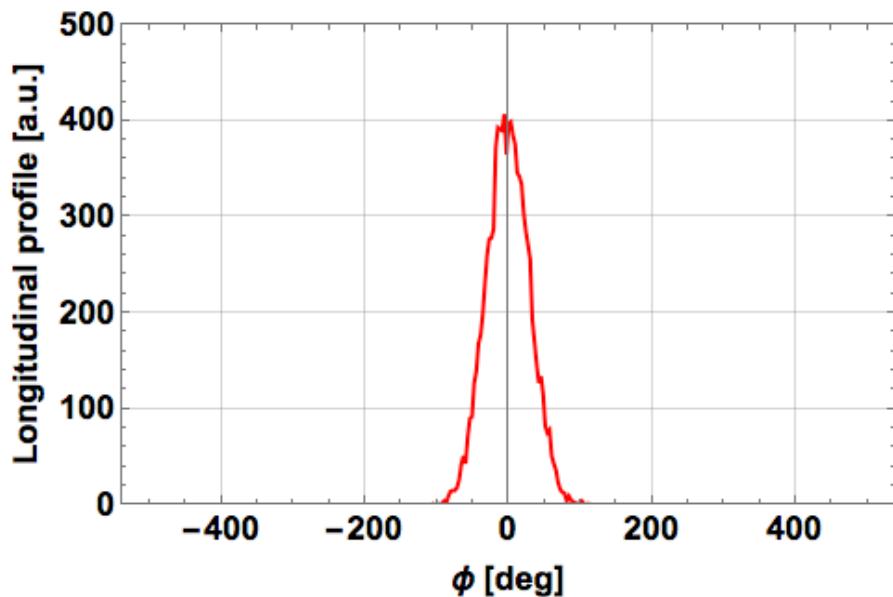
**Surface =
Longitudinal EMITTANCE
of the bunch
= ϵ_L**

Separatrix

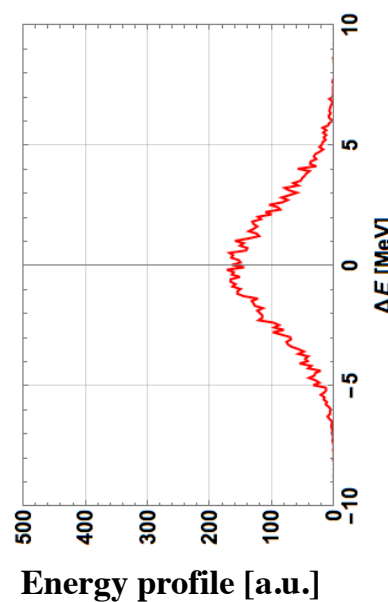
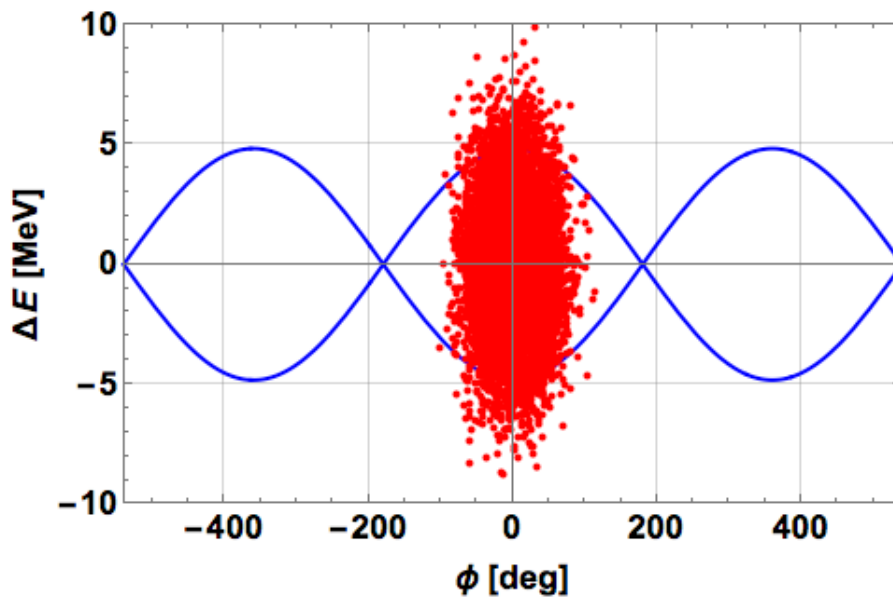


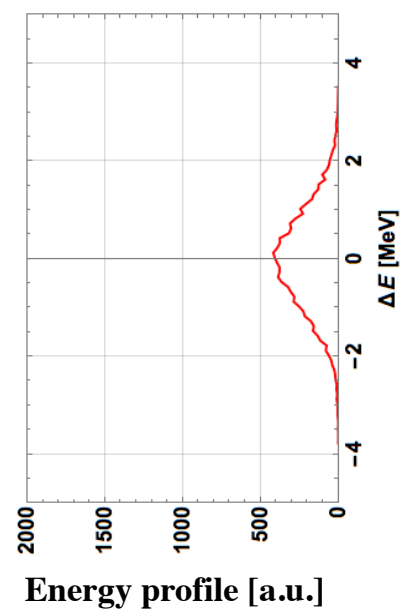
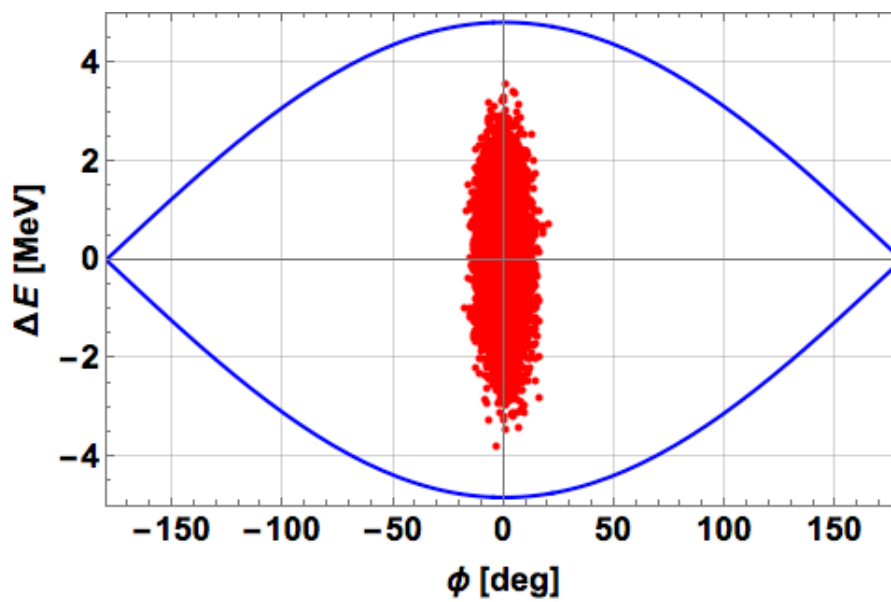
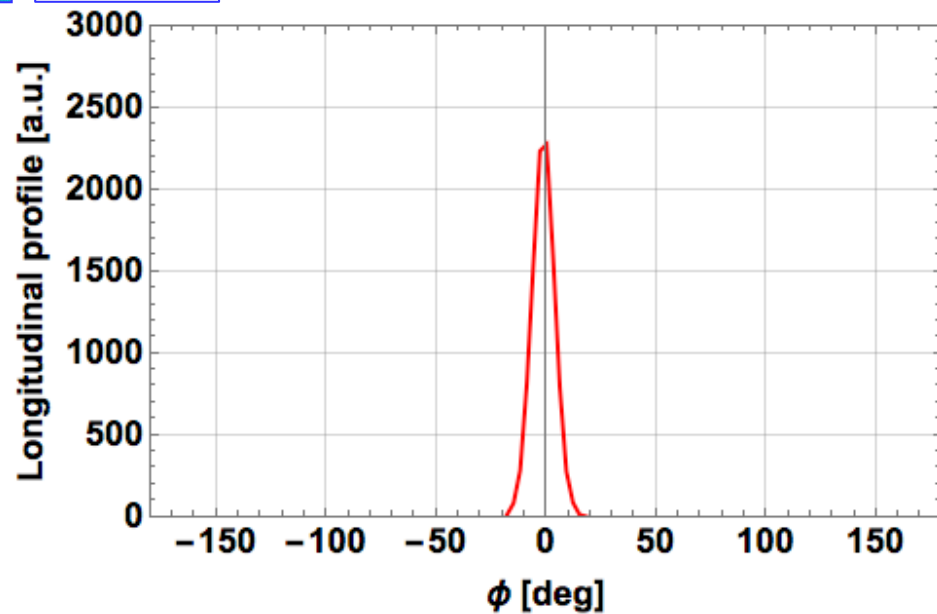


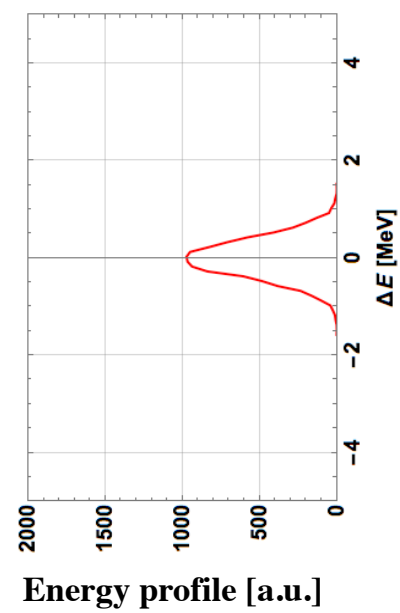
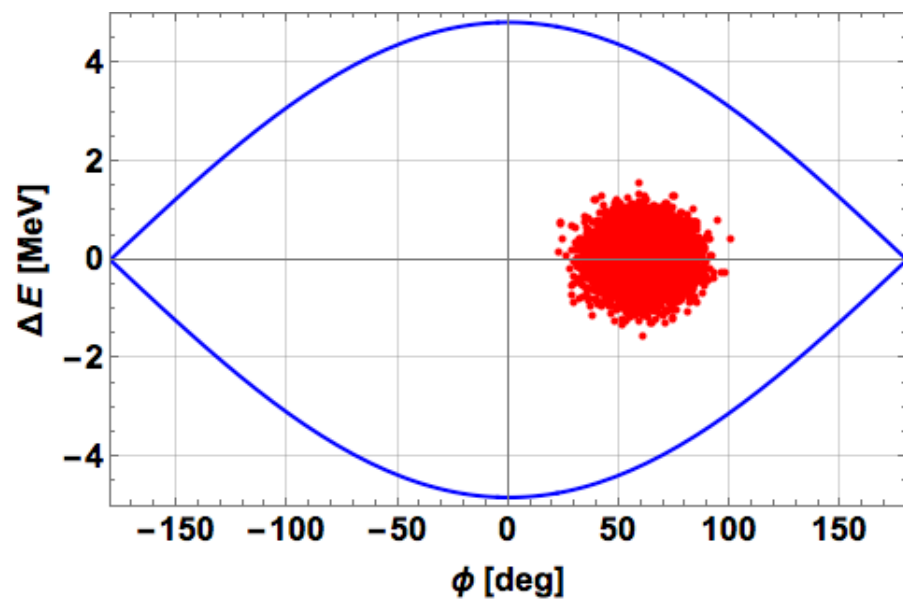
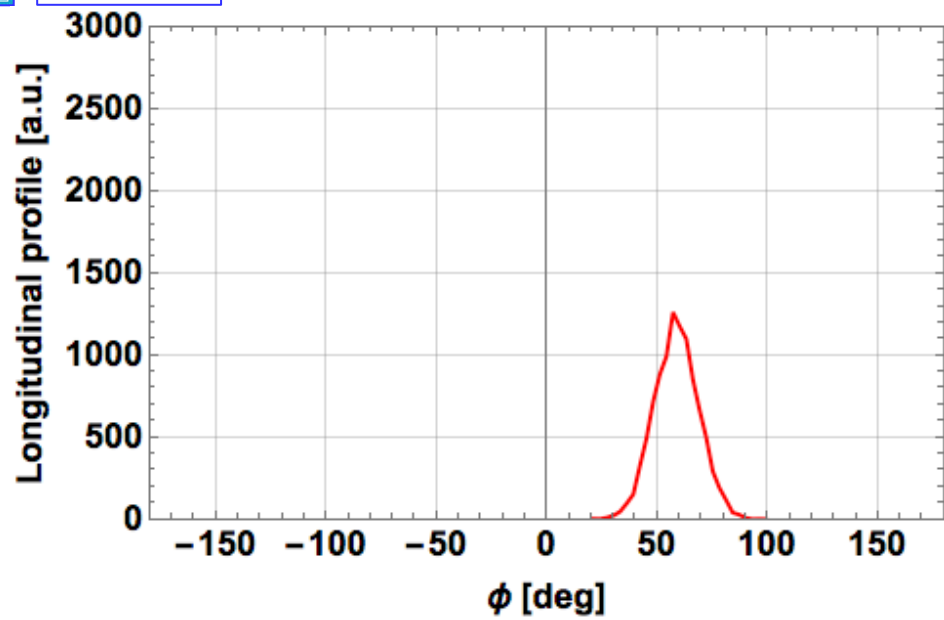
MISMATCHED BUNCH

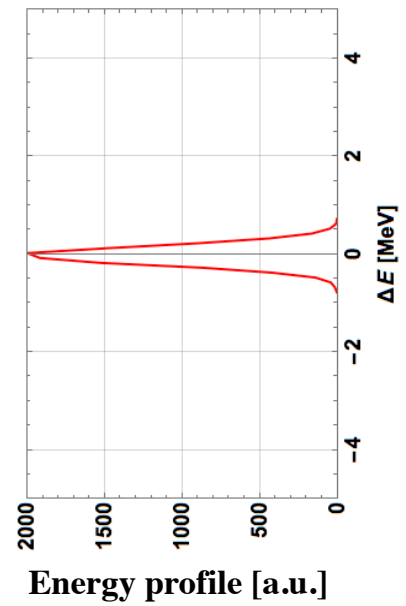
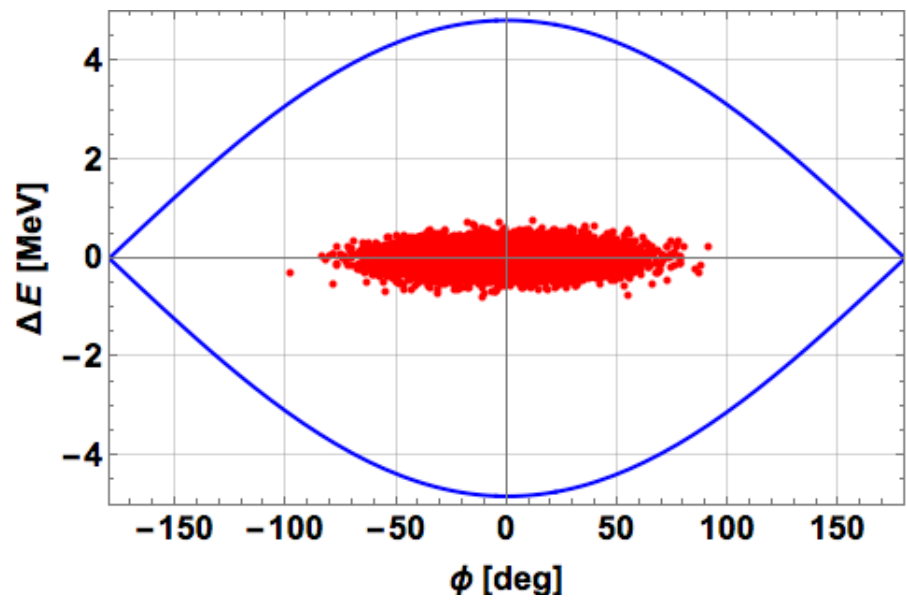
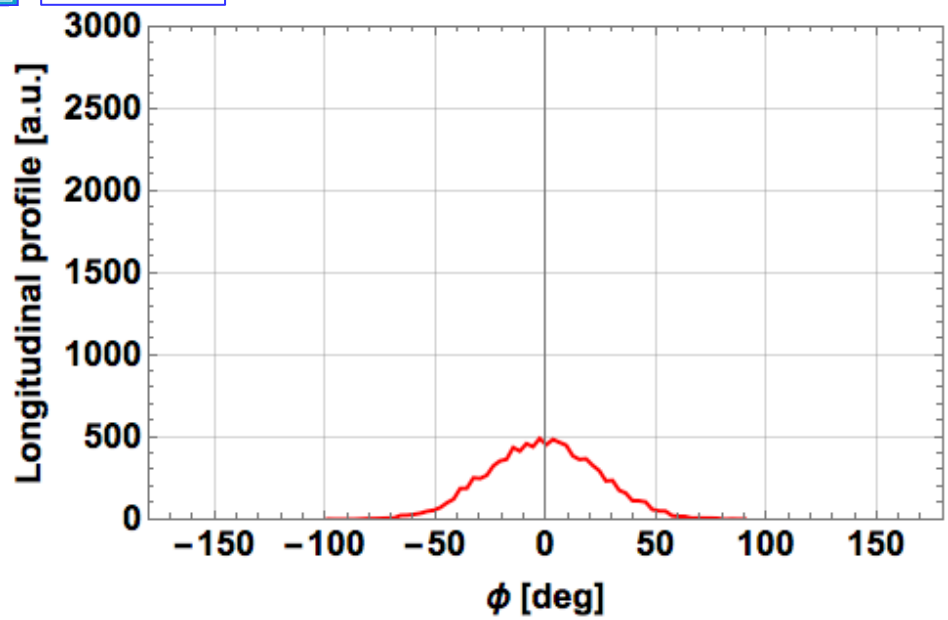


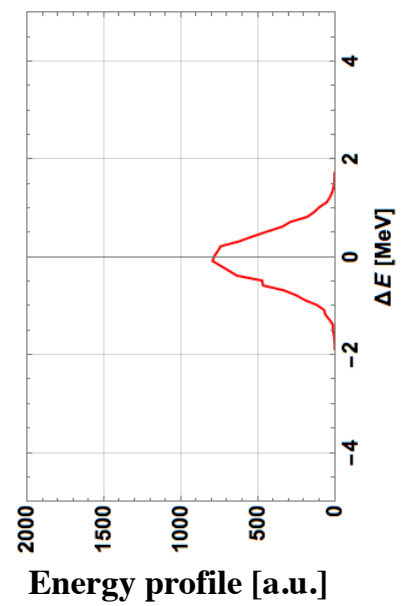
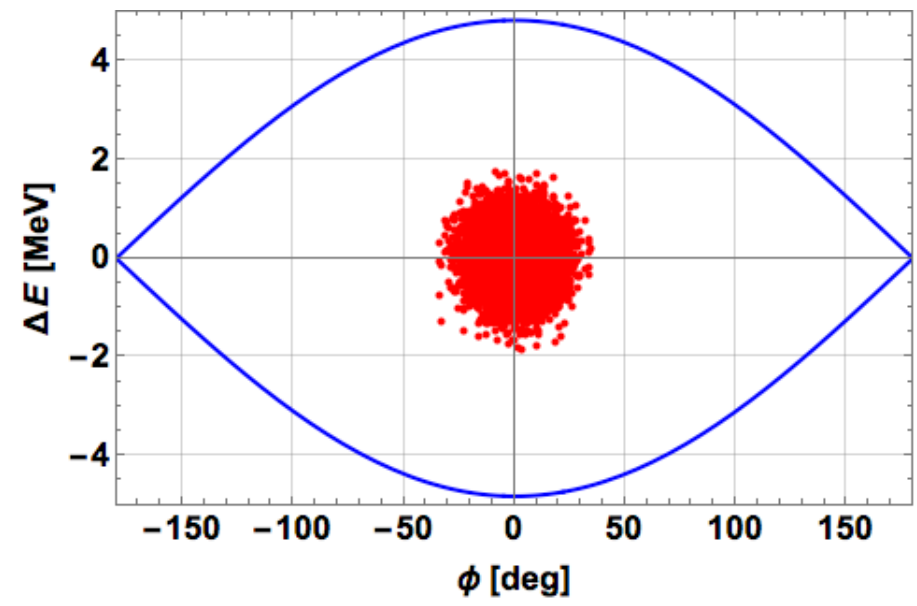
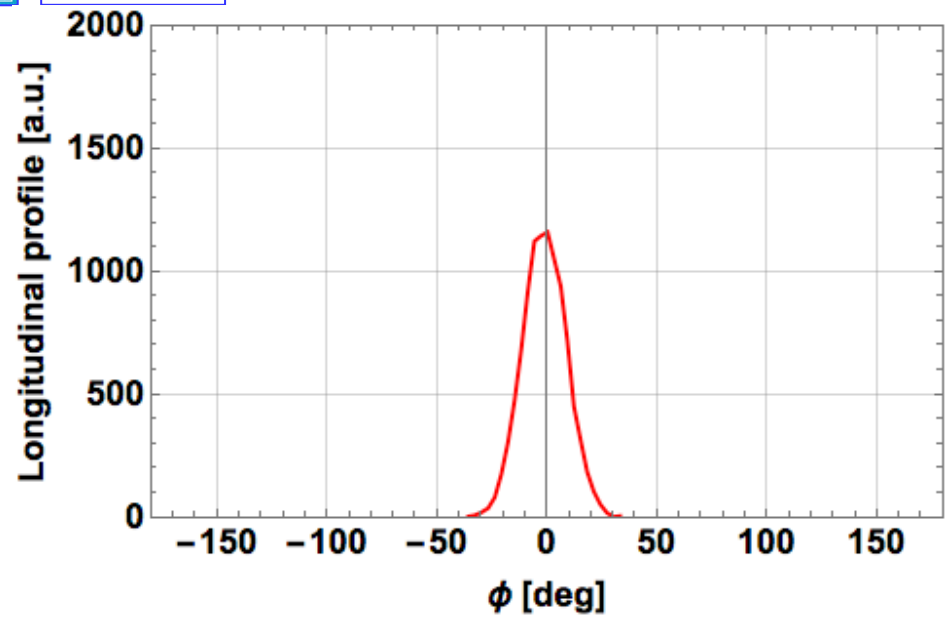
Leads to an increase of the longitudinal emittance and/or particle losses

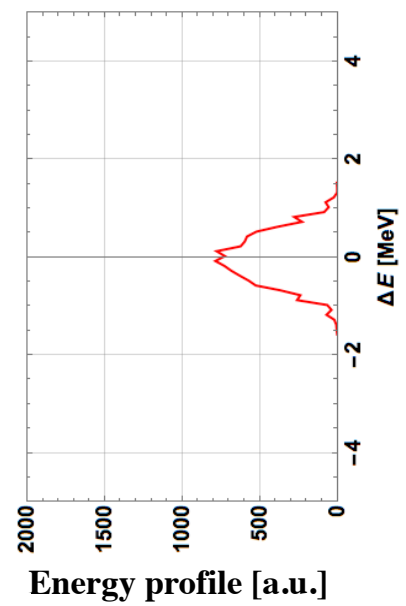
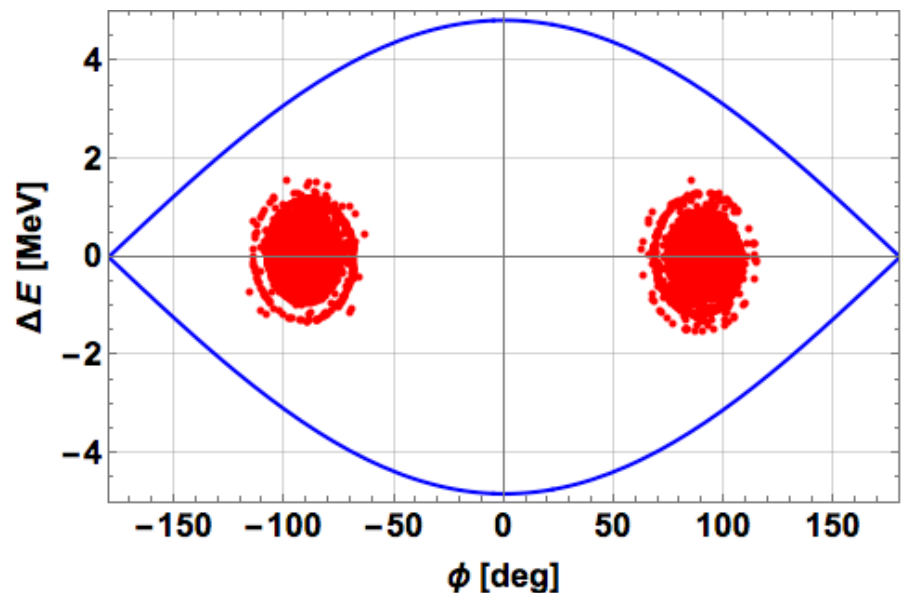
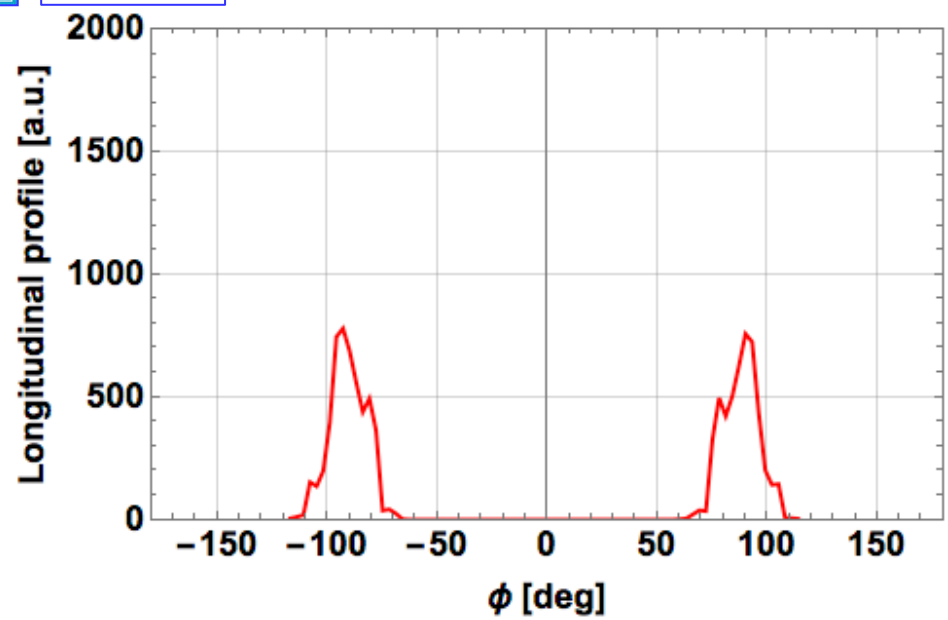


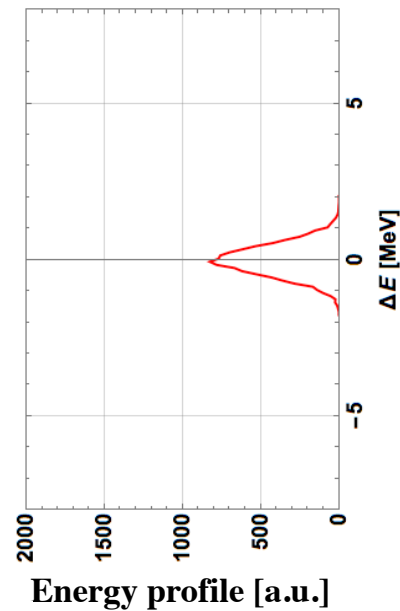
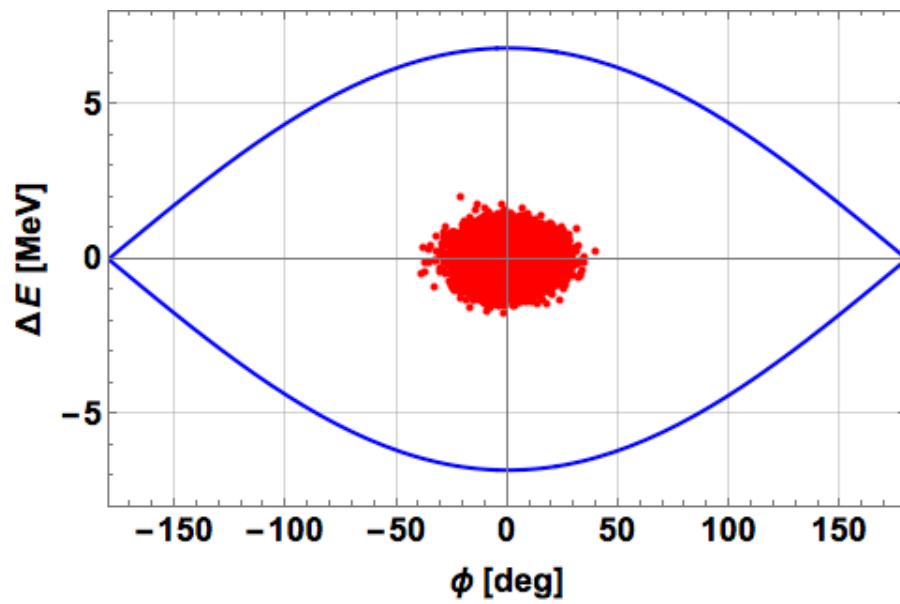
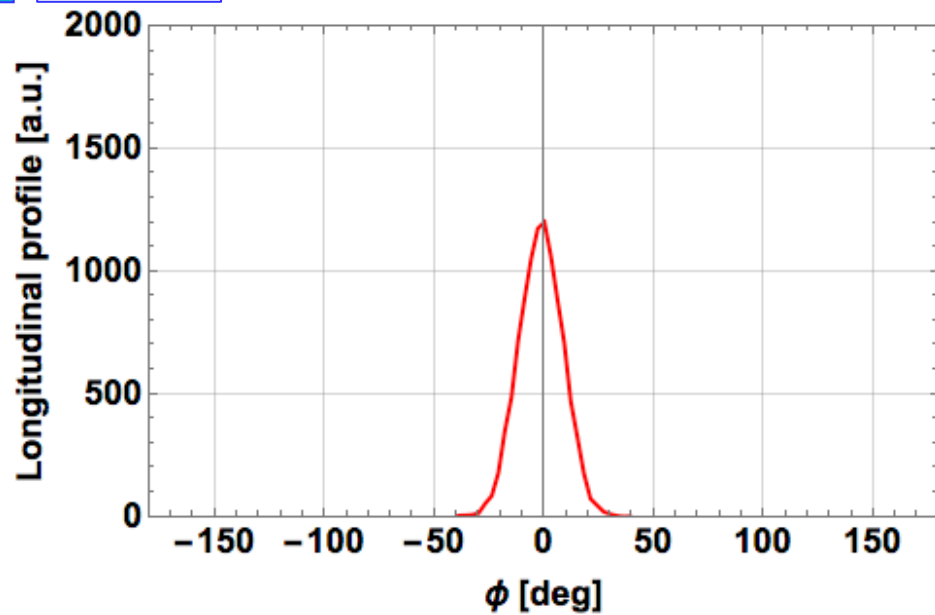


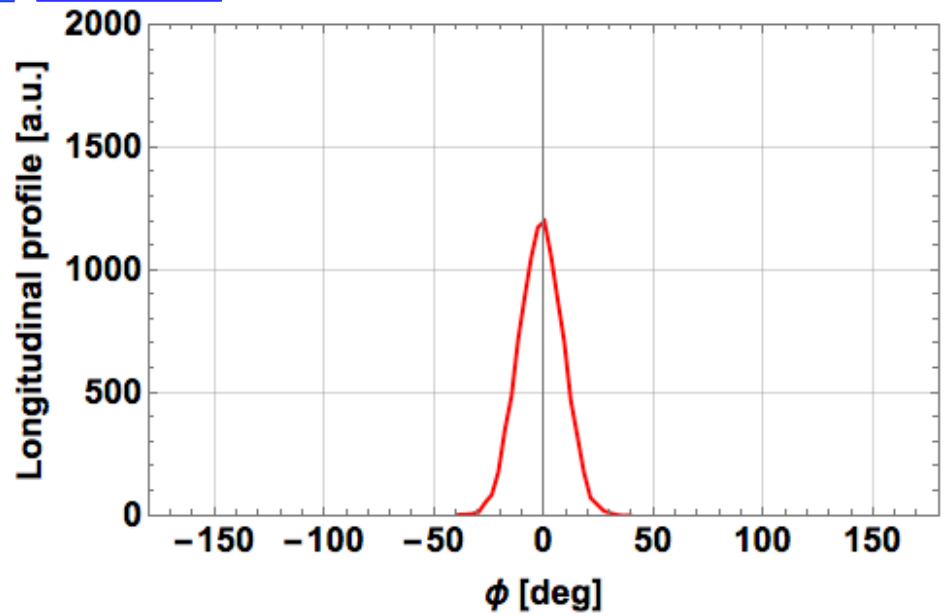




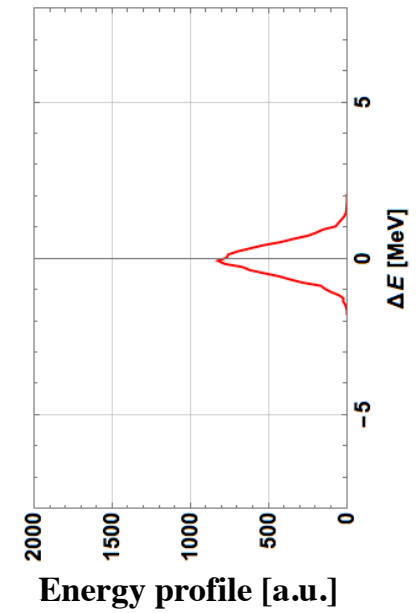
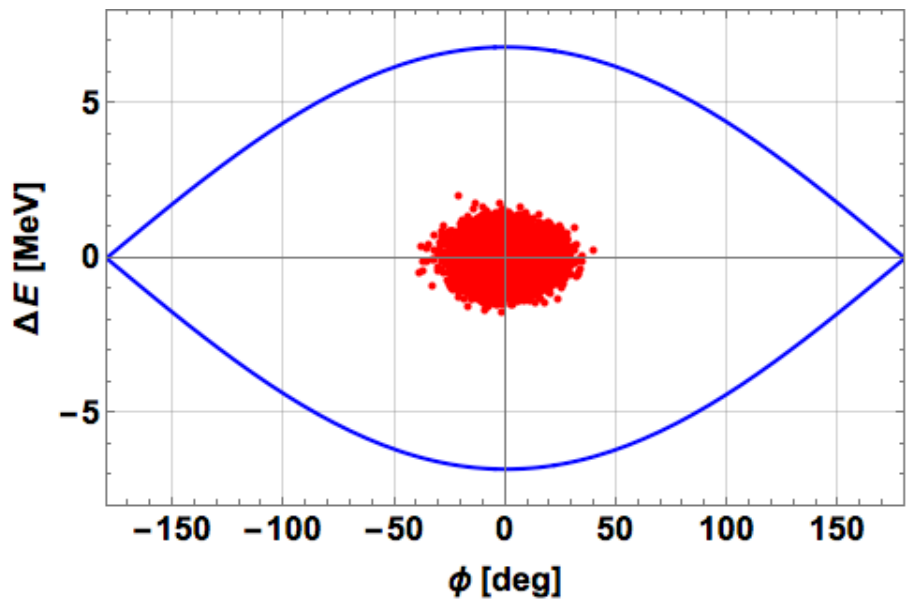
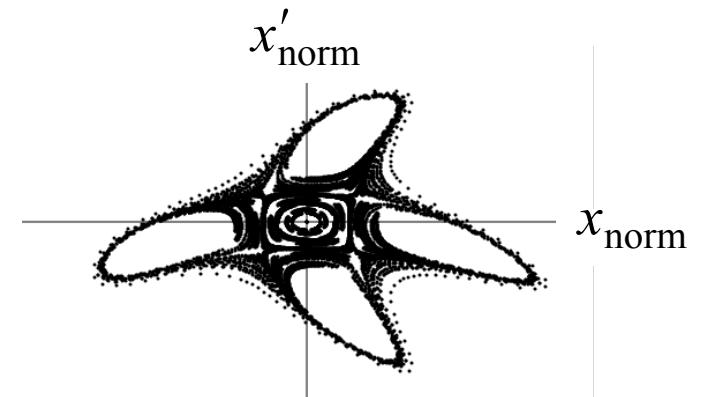


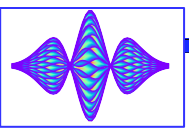






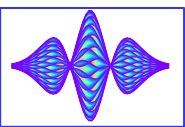
- Similarly, in the transverse (e.g. x) plane, linear and nonlinear motions can also be observed depending on the amplitude





Beam emittance

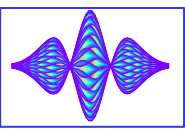




Beam emittance

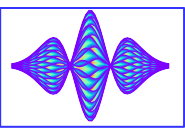


- ◆ Similarly, in the transverse planes (x or y), these definitions are usually used



- ◆ Similarly, in the transverse planes (x or y), these definitions are usually used

◆ **BEAM EMITTANCE = Measure of the spread in phase space of the points representing beam particles \Rightarrow 3 definitions**



- ◆ Similarly, in the transverse planes (x or y), these definitions are usually used

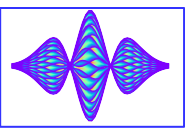
◆ **BEAM EMITTANCE = Measure of the spread in phase space of the points representing beam particles \Rightarrow 3 definitions**

1) In terms of the phase plane “amplitude” a_q enclosing q % of the particles

$$\iint dx dx' = \pi \varepsilon_x^{(q\%)}$$

ellipse of
"amplitude" a_q

[mm mrad] or [μm]



- ◆ Similarly, in the transverse planes (x or y), these definitions are usually used

- ◆ **BEAM EMITTANCE = Measure of the spread in phase space of the points representing beam particles \Rightarrow 3 definitions**

- 1) In terms of the phase plane “amplitude” a_q enclosing q % of the particles

$$\iint dx dx' = \pi \varepsilon_x^{(q\%)}$$

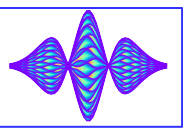
ellipse of
"amplitude" a_q

[mm mrad] or [μm]

- 2) In terms of the 2nd moments of the particle distribution

$$\varepsilon_x^{(\text{stat})} \equiv \sqrt{\langle x^2 \rangle \langle x'^2 \rangle - \langle x x' \rangle^2}$$

Determinant of the
covariance matrix



- ◆ Similarly, in the transverse planes (x or y), these definitions are usually used

- ◆ **BEAM EMITTANCE = Measure of the spread in phase space of the points representing beam particles \Rightarrow 3 definitions**

- 1) In terms of the phase plane “amplitude” a_q enclosing q % of the particles

$$\iint dx dx' = \pi \varepsilon_x^{(q\%)}$$

ellipse of
"amplitude" a_q

[mm mrad] or [μm]

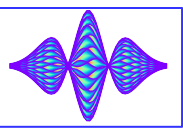
- 2) In terms of the 2nd moments of the particle distribution

$$\varepsilon_x^{(\text{stat})} \equiv \sqrt{\langle x^2 \rangle \langle x'^2 \rangle - \langle x x' \rangle^2}$$

Determinant of the
covariance matrix

- 3) In terms of σ_x the standard deviation of the particle distribution in real space (= projection onto the x -axis)

$$\varepsilon_x^{(\sigma_x)} \equiv \frac{\sigma_x^2}{\beta_x}$$



- ◆ Similarly, in the transverse planes (x or y), these definitions are usually used

- ◆ **BEAM EMITTANCE = Measure of the spread in phase space of the points representing beam particles \Rightarrow 3 definitions**

- 1) In terms of the phase plane “amplitude” a_q enclosing q % of the particles

$$\iint dx dx' = \pi \varepsilon_x^{(q\%)}$$

ellipse of
"amplitude" a_q

[mm mrad] or [μm]

- 2) In terms of the 2nd moments of the particle distribution

$$\varepsilon_x^{(\text{stat})} \equiv \sqrt{\langle x^2 \rangle \langle x'^2 \rangle - \langle x x' \rangle^2}$$

Determinant of the
covariance matrix

- 3) In terms of σ_x the standard deviation of the particle distribution in real space (= projection onto the x -axis)

The β -function reflects the size of the beam and depends only on the lattice

$$\varepsilon_x^{(\sigma_x)} \equiv \frac{\sigma_x^2}{\beta_x}$$

◆ Similarly, in the transverse planes (x or y), these definitions are usually used

◆ **BEAM EMITTANCE = Measure of the spread in phase space of the points representing beam particles \Rightarrow 3 definitions**

1) In terms of the phase plane “amplitude” a_q enclosing q % of the particles

$$\iint dx dx' = \pi \epsilon_x^{(q\%)}$$

ellipse of "amplitude" a_q

[mm mrad] or [μm]

2) In terms of the 2nd moments of the particle distribution

$$\epsilon_x^{(\text{stat})} \equiv \sqrt{\langle x^2 \rangle \langle x'^2 \rangle - \langle x x' \rangle^2}$$

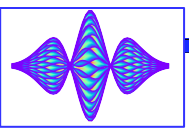
Determinant of the covariance matrix

3) In terms of σ_x the standard deviation of the particle distribution in real space (= projection onto the x -axis)

The β -function reflects the size of the beam and depends only on the lattice

$$\epsilon_x^{(\sigma_x)} \equiv \frac{\sigma_x^2}{\beta_x}$$

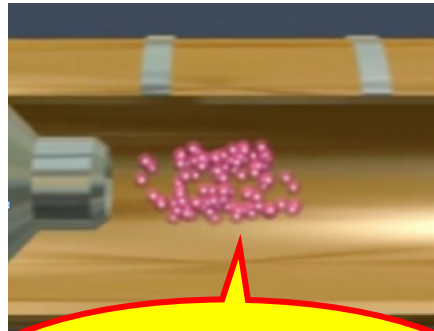
LATTICE = Arrangement of magnets along the design orbit



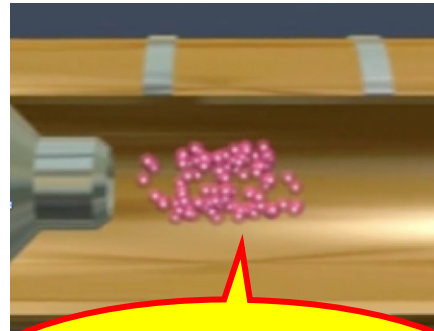
Special relativity will help...



Special relativity will help...

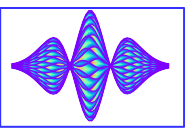


Group (“bunch”) of particles (e.g.: p^+)

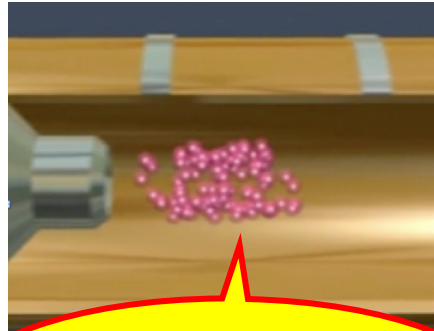


Group (“bunch”) of particles (e.g.: p^+)

- ◆ With the Coulomb repulsion

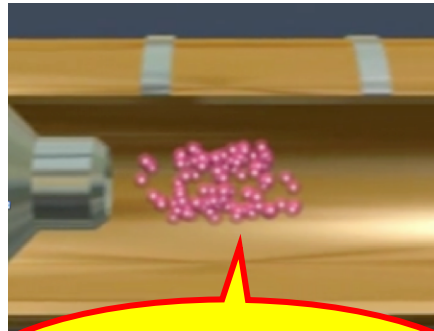
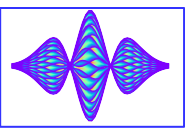


Special relativity will help...



Group (“bunch”) of particles (e.g.: p^+)

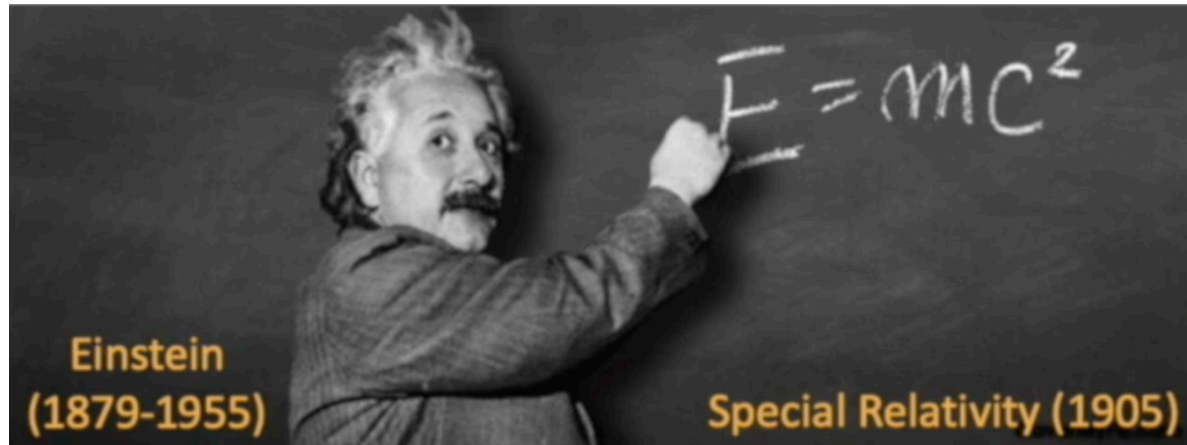
- ◆ With the Coulomb repulsion
- ◆ The short muon lifetime ($\sim 2.2 \mu\text{s}$ at rest) for a possible future muon collider

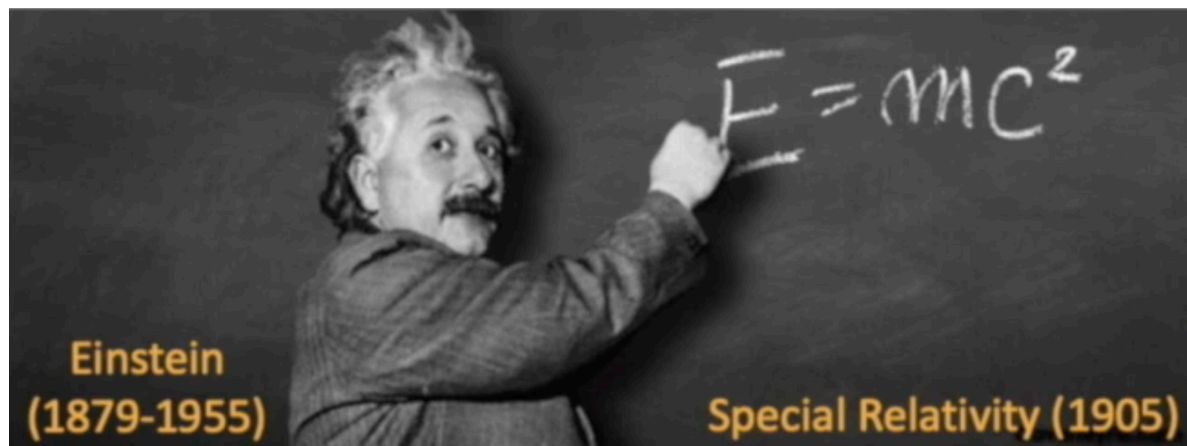


Group (“bunch”) of particles (e.g.: p^+)

- ◆ With the Coulomb repulsion
- ◆ The short muon lifetime ($\sim 2.2 \mu s$ at rest) for a possible future muon collider
- ◆ Etc.

Special relativity

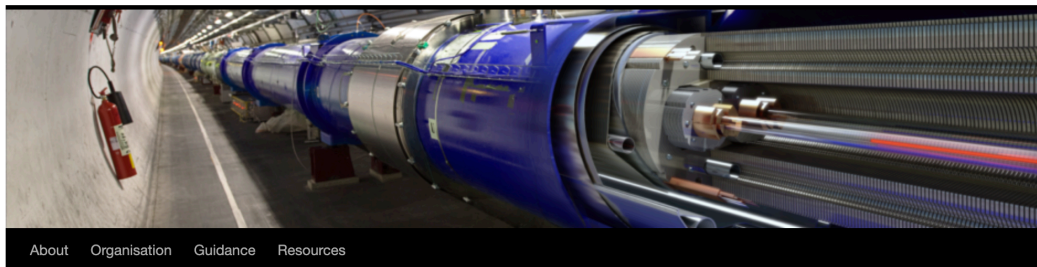




=> See **MOOC** (Massive Open Online Course) on **Special Relativity (SR)**: <http://mooc.particle-accelerators.eu/special-relativity/>

An online course about particle accelerators

Massive Online Open Course on
Accelerator Science and Technology



About Organisation Guidance Resources

Special relativity

Previous: [Electromagnetism](#)

Special relativity
by ARIES · 1/15

- Introduction and motivation
ARIES
- Lorentz Transformation
ARIES
- Length contraction and time dilation
ARIES
- Relativistic dynamics
ARIES
- Nuclear Power plants vs particle accelerators
ARIES



Work funded by ARIES

This work is funded by the [ARIES project](#). ARIES is co-funded by the European Commission Grant Agreement number 73087.

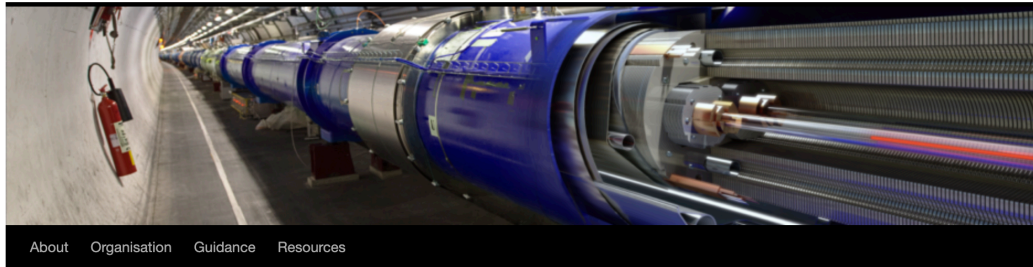
Licence

This course is released under Creative Commons License [CC-BY-NC-SA](#). This licence allows non-commercial uses with attribution of the credits to the authors and share alike.

Next: [Applications of Accelerators](#)

An online course about particle accelerators

Massive Online Open Course on Accelerator Science and Technologie



About Organisation Guidance Resources

Special relativity

Previous: [Electromagnetism](#)

Next: [Applications of Accelerators](#)



Work funded by ARIES

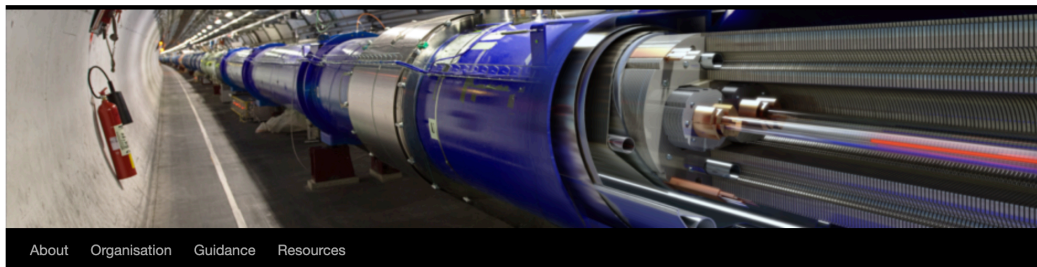
This work is funded by the [ARIES project](#). ARIES is co-funded by the European Commission Grant Agreement number 73087.

Licence

This course is released on under Creative Commons License [CC-BY-NC-SA](#). This licence allows non commercial uses with attribution of the credits to the authors and share alike.

An online course about particle accelerators

Massive Online Open Course on Accelerator Science and Technology



About Organisation Guidance Resources

Special relativity

Previous: [Electromagnetism](#)

| | |
|---|---|
| 1 | Introduction and motivation |
| 2 | Lorentz Transformation |
| 3 | Length contraction and time dilation |
| 4 | Relativistic dynamics |
| 5 | Nuclear Power plants vs particle accelerators |

Next: [Applications of Accelerators](#)



Work funded by ARIES
This work is funded by the **ARIES project**. ARIES is co-funded by the European Commission Grant Agreement number 73087.

Licence

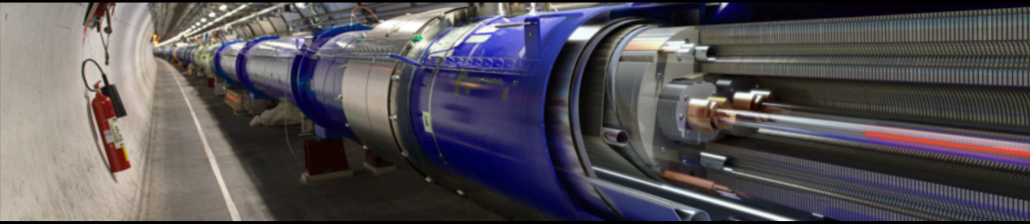
This course is released under Creative Commons License **CC-BY-NC-SA**. This licence allows non-commercial uses with attribution of the credits to the authors and share alike.

| | |
|----|---|
| 4 | vectors |
| 7 | Invariants |
| 8 | Relativistic transformation |
| 9 | Electric and magnetic fields |
| 10 | Motion in constant electric and magnetic fields |

| | |
|----|---|
| 11 | Electromagnetic force between particles |
| 12 | Accelerators vs massificators |
| 13 | Emission of radiation |
| 14 | Special Relativity corrections in Daylife |
| 15 | Relativistic Doppler |

An online course about particle accelerators

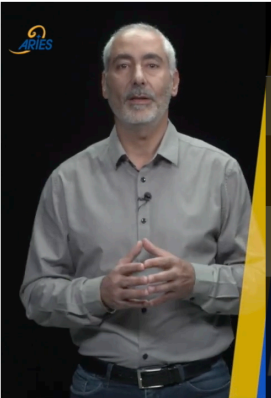
Massive Online Open Course on Accelerator Science and Technologie



About Organisation Guidance Resources

Special relativity

Previous: [Electromagnetism](#)




Special relativity by ARIES • 1/15

- 1 Introduction and motivation ARIES
- 2 Lorentz Transformation ARIES
- 3 Length contraction and time dilation ARIES
- 4 Relativistic dynamics ARIES
- 5 Nuclear Power plants vs particle accelerators ARIES

Next: [Applications of Accelerators](#)

An online course about particle accelerators


Proudly powered by WordPress.



Special relativity Postulates of Special Relativity

by ARIES • 6/15

- 4 vectors ARIES
- 7 Invariants ARIES
- 8 Relativistic transformation ARIES
- 9 Electric and magnetic fields ARIES
- 10 Motion in constant electric and magnetic fields ARIES



Special relativity

by ARIES • 8/15

- 11 Electromagnetic force between particles ARIES
- 12 Accelerators vs massifiers ARIES
- 13 Emission of radiation ARIES
- 14 Special Relativity corrections in Daylife ARIES
- 15 Relativistic Doppler ARIES

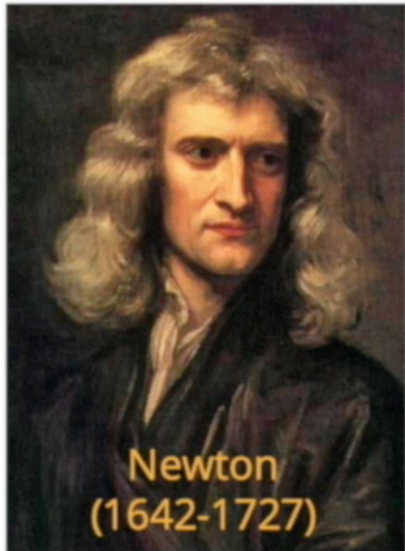
=> Let's have a look to the first 2 minutes...: <http://mooc.particle-accelerators.eu/special-relativity/>

Special relativity

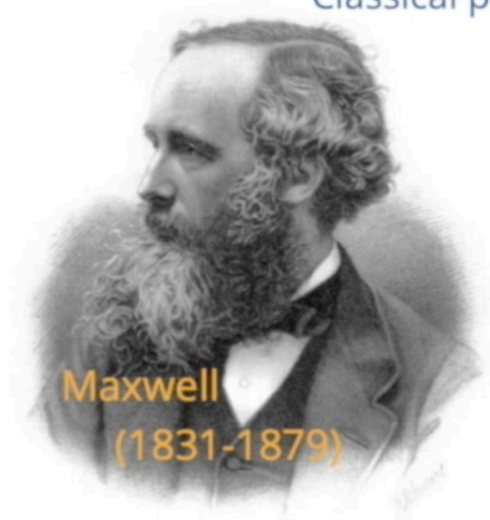
ARIES

★ *Galilée (1564 - 1642)* ★ *Newton (1642 - 1727)* ★ *Maxwell (1831 - 1879)* **1905**

Classical physics



Newton
(1642-1727)



Maxwell
(1831-1879)

Special relativity

ARIES

★ Galilée (1564 - 1642) ★ Newton (1642 - 1727) ★ Maxwell (1831 - 1879) 1905

Classical physics

Newton
(1642-1727)

Maxwell
(1831-1879)

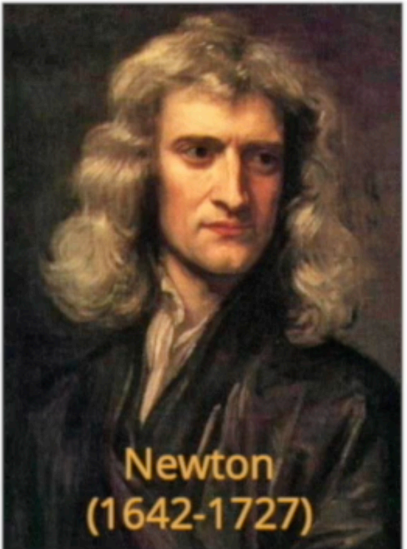
?

?


★ *Galilée (1564 - 1642)* ★

★ *Newton (1642 - 1727)* ★

★ *Maxwell (1831 - 1879)* 1905




Newton
(1642-1727)



Maxwell
(1831-1879)

Classical physics

- Theory of gravitation
- Space and time are 2 different absolute entities
- Speed is relative (Galilean transformation)

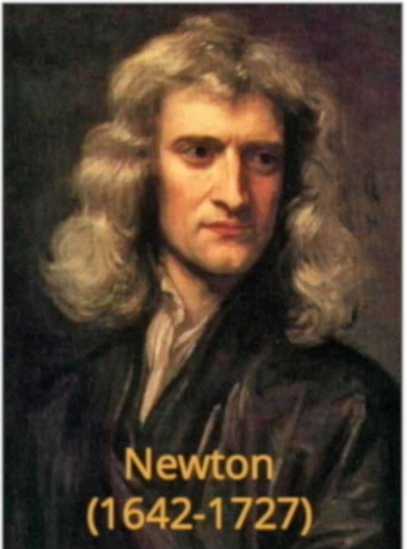


★ *Galilée* (1564 - 1642)

★ *Newton* (1642 - 1727)

★ *Maxwell* (1831 - 1879) **1905**

Classical physics



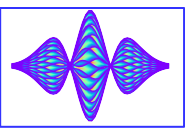
Newton
(1642-1727)

- Theory of gravitation
- Space and time are 2 different absolute entities
- Speed is relative (Galilean transformation)



Maxwell
(1831-1879)

- Theory of electromagnetism
- Light is an electromagnetic wave, propagating through the "ether"
- Speed of light is constant in vacuum in all frames



Special relativity



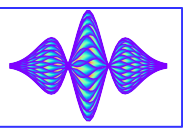
ARIES

EINSTEIN'S POSTULATES AND CONSEQUENCES

EINSTEIN'S POSTULATES AND CONSEQUENCES

- The 2 postulates of the theory of Special Relativity



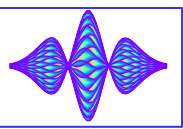


EINSTEIN'S POSTULATES AND CONSEQUENCES

- The 2 postulates of the theory of Special Relativity
 - Laws of physics are the same wherever tested in all inertial (or Galilean) frames

EINSTEIN'S POSTULATES AND CONSEQUENCES

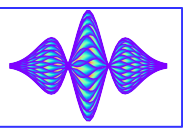
- The 2 postulates of the theory of Special Relativity
 - Laws of physics are the same wherever tested in all inertial (or Galilean) frames
 - Speed of light is a fixed constant of the universe



EINSTEIN'S POSTULATES AND CONSEQUENCES

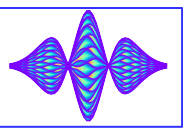
- The 2 postulates of the theory of Special Relativity
 - Laws of physics are the same wherever tested in all inertial (or Galilean) frames
 - Speed of light is a fixed constant of the universe
- Consequences





EINSTEIN'S POSTULATES AND CONSEQUENCES

- The 2 postulates of the theory of Special Relativity
 - Laws of physics are the same wherever tested in all inertial (or Galilean) frames
 - Speed of light is a fixed constant of the universe
- Consequences
 - End of notion of an "ether", as it is not needed anymore



EINSTEIN'S POSTULATES AND CONSEQUENCES

- The 2 postulates of the theory of Special Relativity
 - Laws of physics are the same wherever tested in all inertial (or Galilean) frames
 - Speed of light is a fixed constant of the universe
- Consequences
 - End of notion of an "ether", as it is not needed anymore
 - End of notion of an "absolute time" and an "absolute space"
=> Space and time are linked in a new concept of "spacetime", where time is the 4th dimension

**Galileo Galilei
(1564-1642)**

VELOCITY-ADDITION FORMULA

$$P \begin{vmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{vmatrix} \quad P \begin{vmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \end{vmatrix} \quad y = y' \quad z = z'$$

Galilean transformation

BEFORE 1905

$$x = x' + v t \quad \vec{V} = \vec{V}' + \vec{v}$$

$$t = t'$$

S & S' 2 inertial (ref.) frames (equal at $t = 0$)

Galileo Galilei
(1564-1642)

VELOCITY-ADDITION FORMULA

$$P \begin{vmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{vmatrix} \quad P \begin{vmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \end{vmatrix} \quad y = y' \quad z = z'$$

Galilean transformation

BEFORE 1905

$$x = x' + vt \quad \vec{V} = \vec{V}' + \vec{v}$$

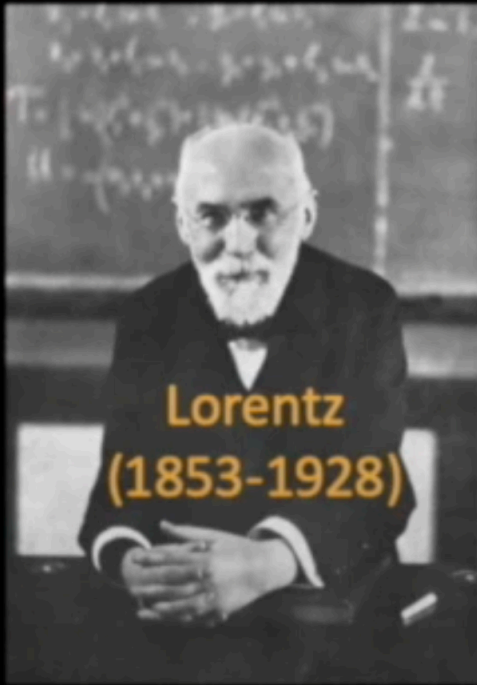
$$t = t'$$

AFTER 1905

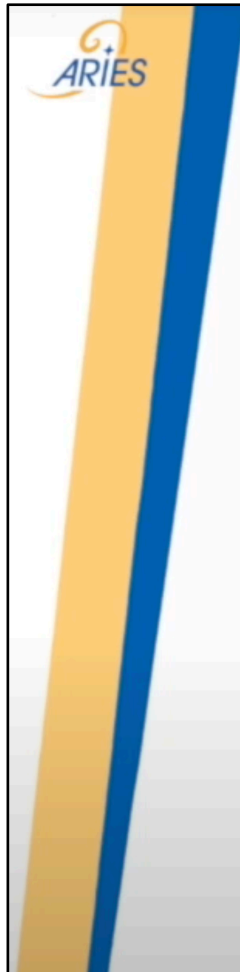
~~$$x = x' + vt$$~~
~~$$t = t'$$~~
~~$$\vec{V} = \vec{V}' + \vec{v}$$~~

S & S' 2 inertial (ref.) frames (equal at $t = 0$)

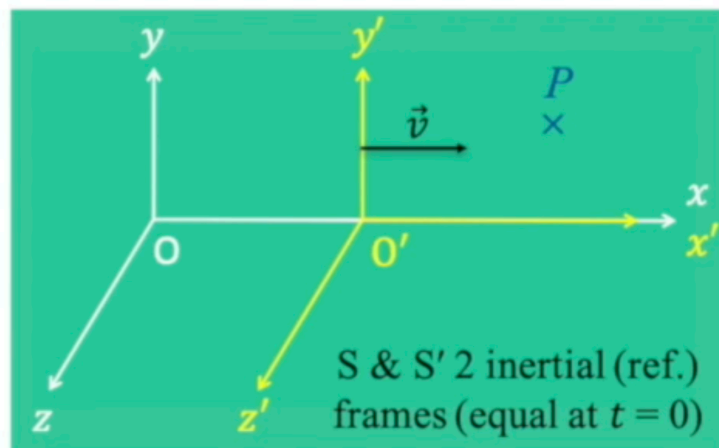
Lorentz transformation



Instead of the
Galilean transformation



- Finally, the Lorentz transformation writes



$$t = \gamma \left(\frac{\beta}{c} x' + t' \right)$$

$$x = \gamma (x' + \beta c t')$$

$$y = y'$$

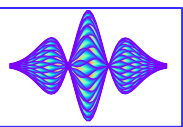
$$z = z'$$

$$\beta = \frac{v}{c}$$

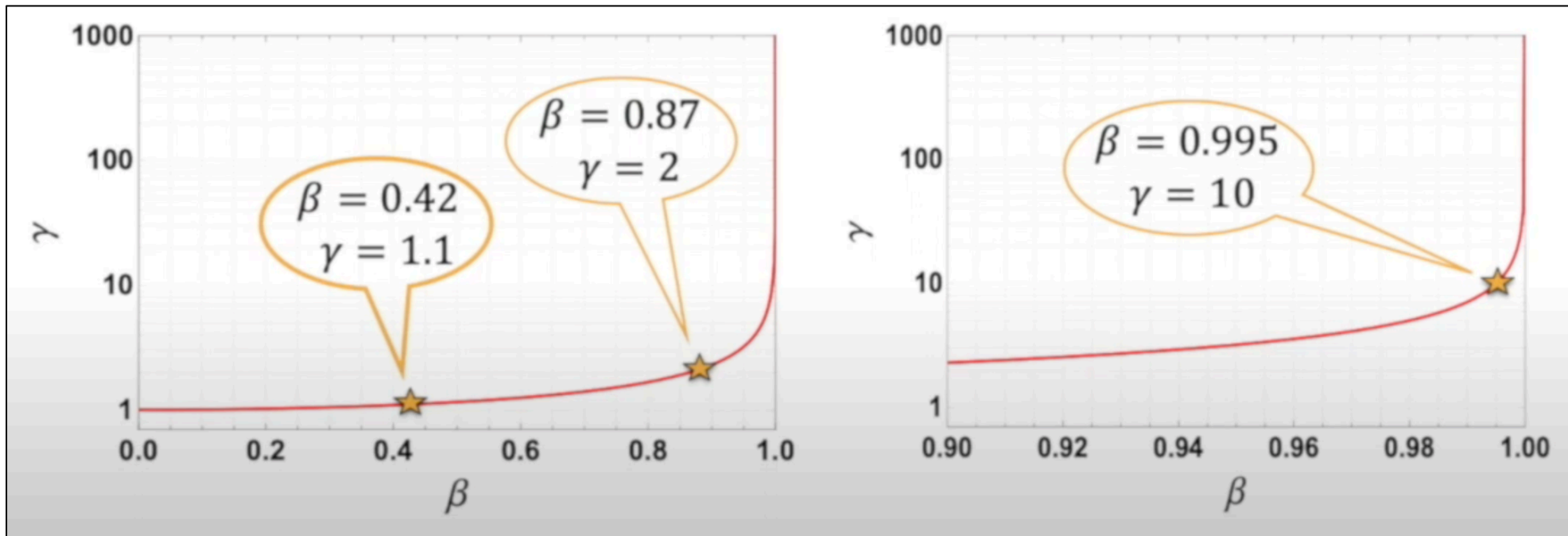
$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$$

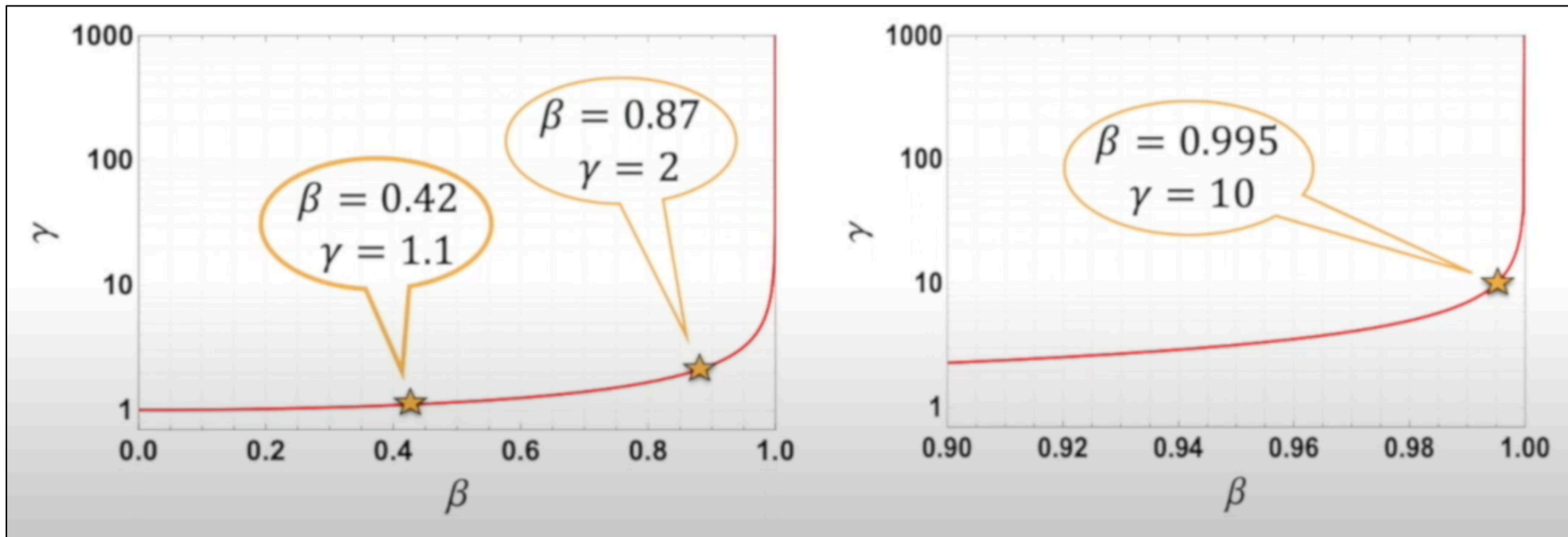
Relativistic Lorentz (velocity) factor

Relativistic Lorentz (mass) factor

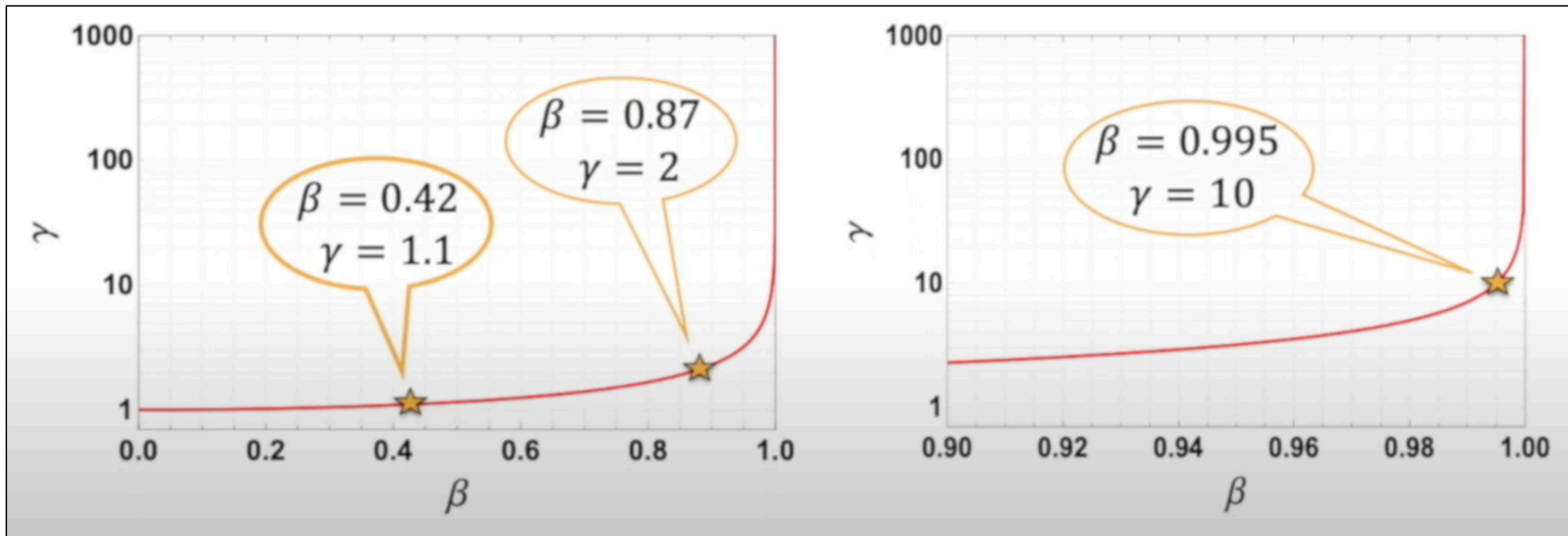


Special relativity

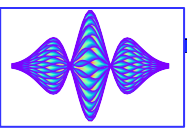




◆ Length contraction $L = \frac{L'}{\gamma}$



- ◆ Length contraction $L = \frac{L'}{\gamma}$
- ◆ Time dilation $t = \gamma t'$



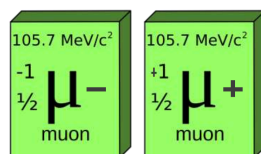
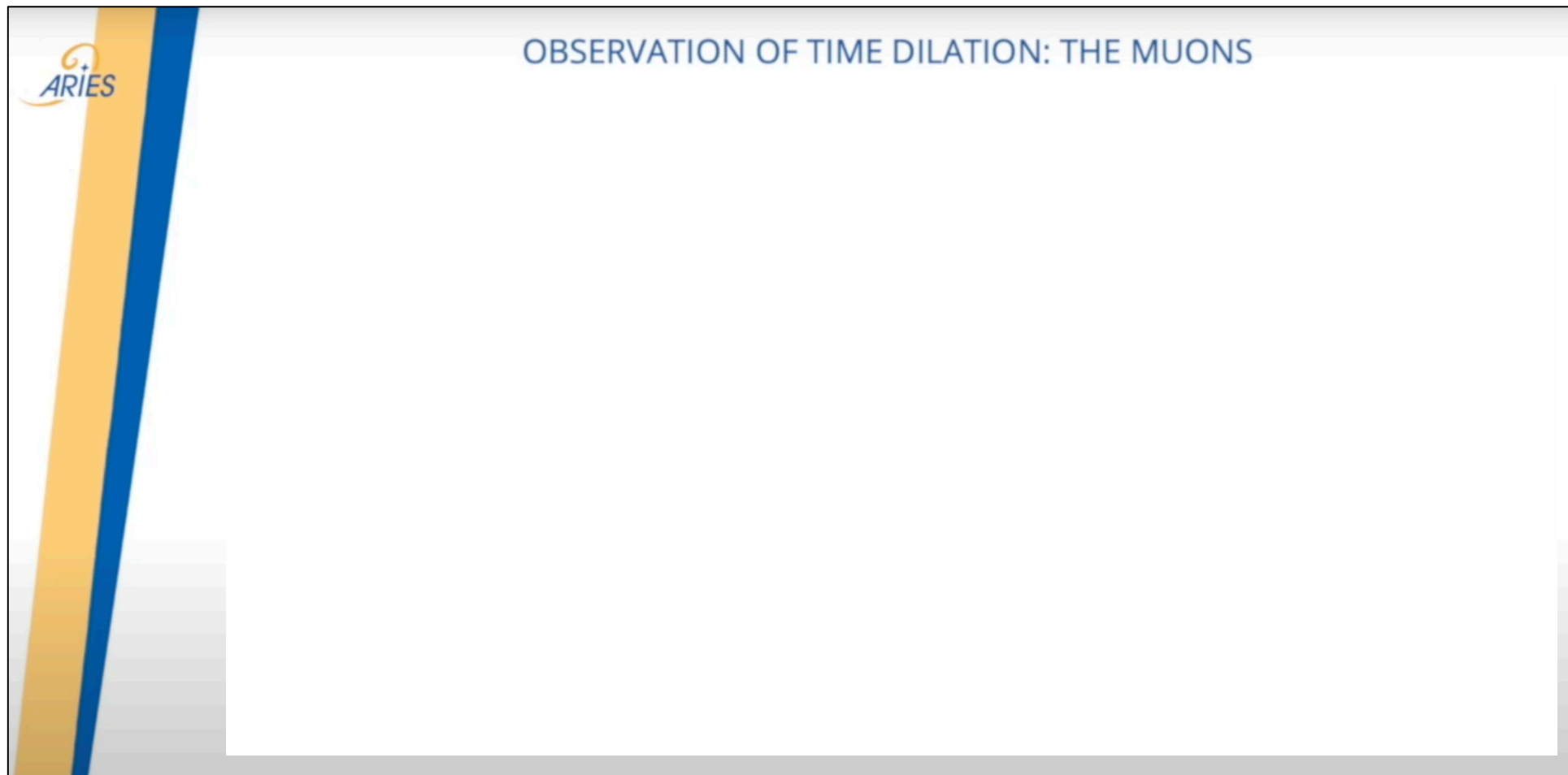
Special relativity



OBSERVATION OF TIME DILATION: THE MUONS



Special relativity



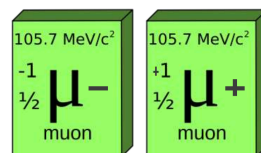
$$m_{\mu} = 105.7 \text{ MeV}/c^2$$

$$\tau_{\mu} = 2.2 \mu\text{s}$$

OBSERVATION OF TIME DILATION: THE MUONS



- This effect (lengthening of the muons lifetime) was also reproduced in particle accelerators at CERN (using a beam from the Proton Synchrotron machine) and published in Nature in 1977



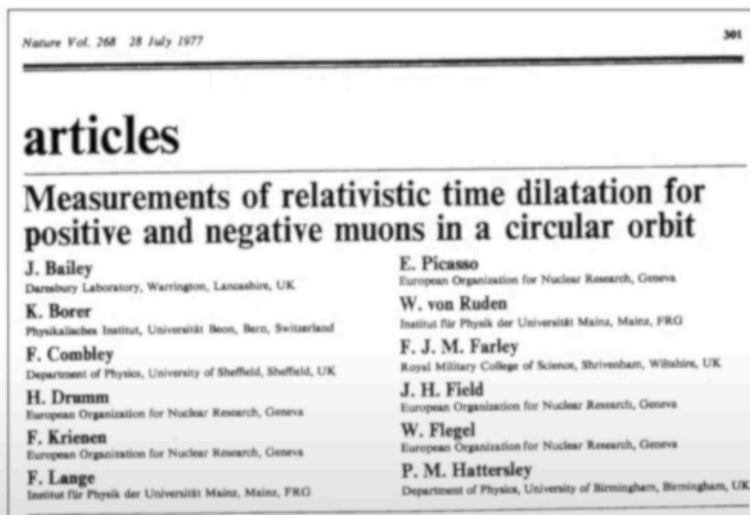
$$m_{\mu} = 105.7 \text{ MeV}/c^2$$

$$\tau_{\mu} = 2.2 \mu\text{s}$$

Special relativity

OBSERVATION OF TIME DILATION: THE MUONS

- This effect (lengthening of the muons lifetime) was also reproduced in particle accelerators at CERN (using a beam from the Proton Synchrotron machine) and published in Nature in 1977



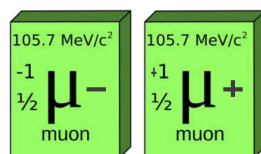
The lifetimes of both positive and negative relativistic ($\gamma = 29.33$) muons have been measured in the CERN Muon Storage Ring with the results

$$\tau^+ = 64.419 (58) \mu\text{s}, \quad \tau^- = 64.368 (29) \mu\text{s}$$

The value for positive muons is in accordance with special relativity and the measured lifetime at rest: the Einstein time dilation factor agrees with experiment with a fractional error of 2×10^{-3} at 95% confidence. Assuming special relativity, the mean proper lifetime for μ^- is found to be

$$\tau_0^- = 2.1948 (10) \mu\text{s}$$

the most accurate value reported to date. The agreement of this value with previously measured values of τ_0^+ confirms CPT invariance for the weak interaction in muon decay.

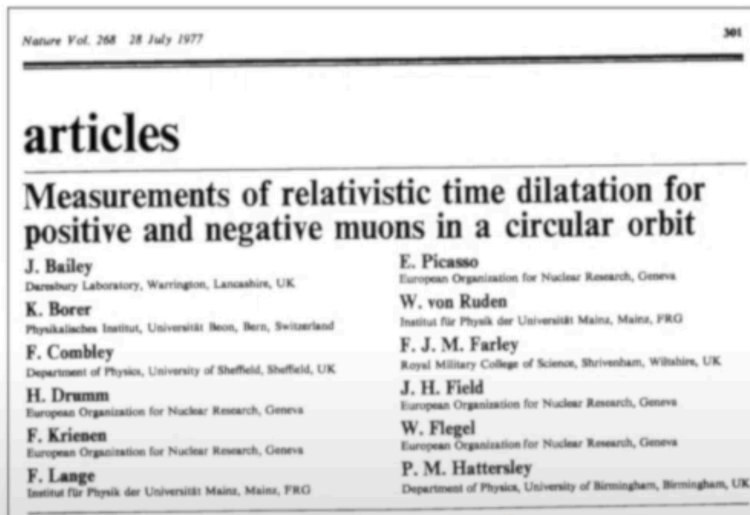


$$m_\mu = 105.7 \text{ MeV}/c^2$$

$$\tau_\mu = 2.2 \mu\text{s}$$

OBSERVATION OF TIME DILATION: THE MUONS

- This effect (lengthening of the muons lifetime) was also reproduced in particle accelerators at CERN (using a beam from the Proton Synchrotron machine) and published in Nature in 1977



The lifetimes of both positive and negative relativistic ($\gamma = 29.33$) muons have been measured in the CERN Muon Storage Ring with the results

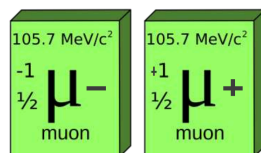
$$\tau^+ = 64.419 (58) \mu\text{s}, \quad \tau^- = 64.368 (29) \mu\text{s}$$

The value for positive muons is in accordance with special relativity and the measured lifetime at rest: the Einstein time dilation factor agrees with experiment with a fractional error of 2×10^{-3} at 95% confidence. Assuming special relativity, the mean proper lifetime for μ^- is found to be

$$\tau_0^- = 2.1948 (10) \mu\text{s}$$

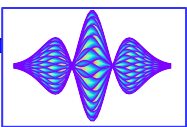
the most accurate value reported to date. The agreement of this value with previously measured values of τ_0^+ confirms CPT invariance for the weak interaction in muon decay.

$$\sim 2.2 \mu\text{s} \times 29.33 \approx 64.5 \mu\text{s}!$$



$$m_\mu = 105.7 \text{ MeV}/c^2$$

$$\tau_\mu = 2.2 \mu\text{s}$$

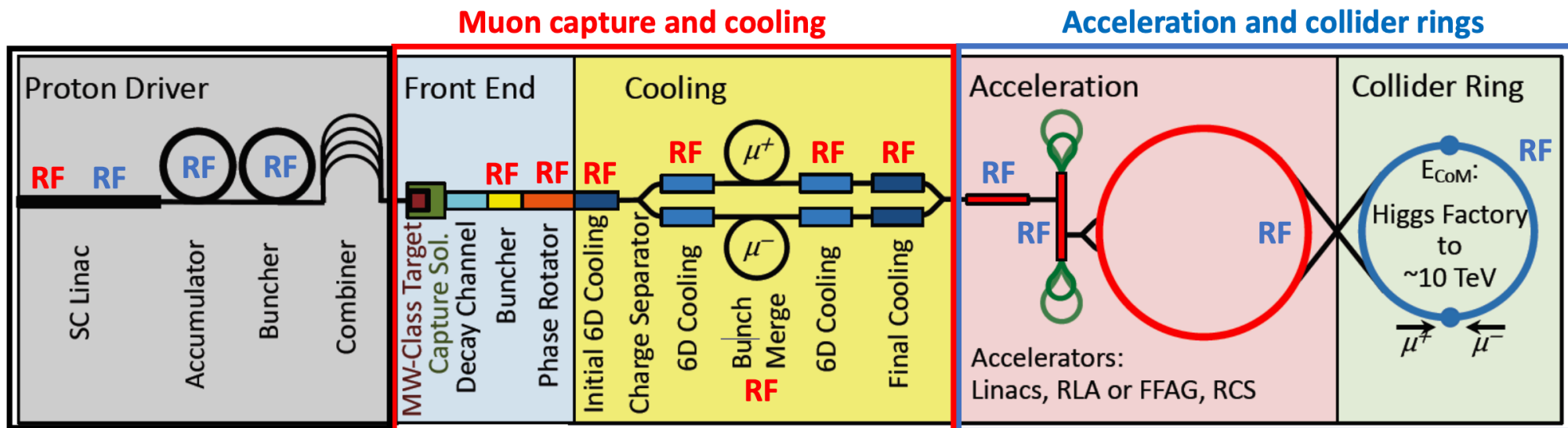


Special relativity

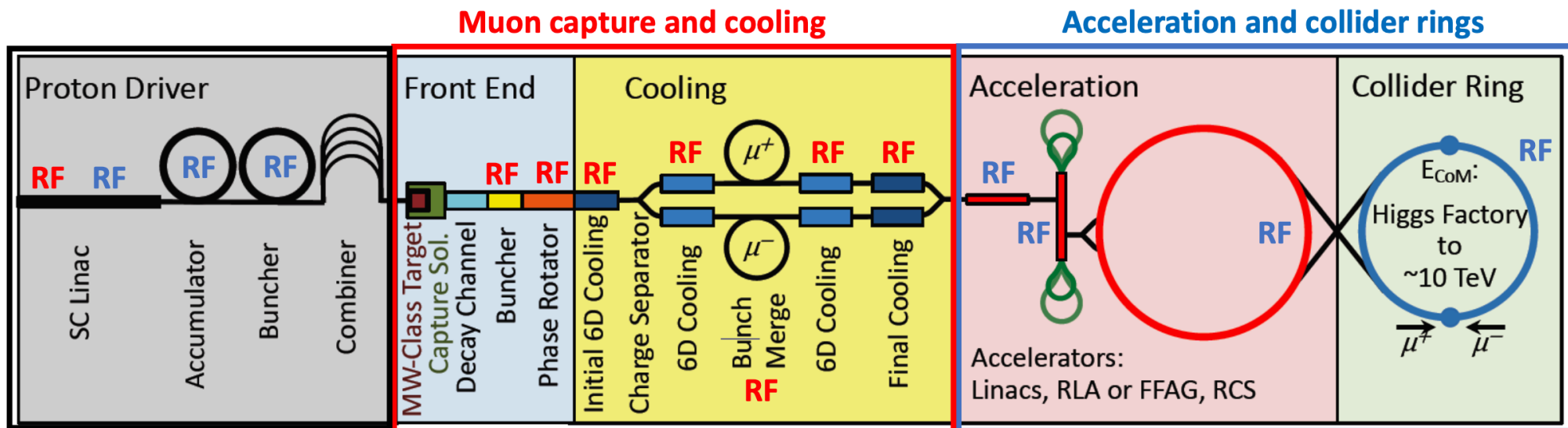


- ◆ A muon collider has been discussed for some time as the ultimate lepton collider (see <https://muoncollider.web.cern.ch/>)

- ◆ A muon collider has been discussed for some time as the ultimate lepton collider (see <https://muoncollider.web.cern.ch/>)



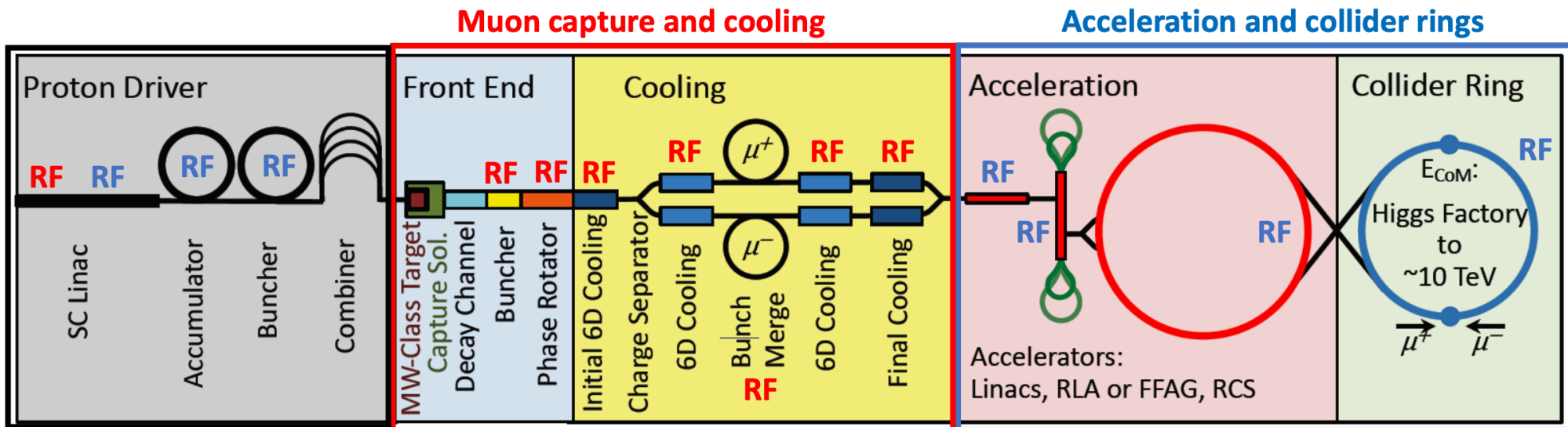
- ◆ A muon collider has been discussed for some time as the ultimate lepton collider (see <https://muoncollider.web.cern.ch/>)



$$\tau = \gamma \tau_0$$

~ 150 ms
at 7 TeV

- ◆ A muon collider has been discussed for some time as the ultimate lepton collider (see <https://muoncollider.web.cern.ch/>)

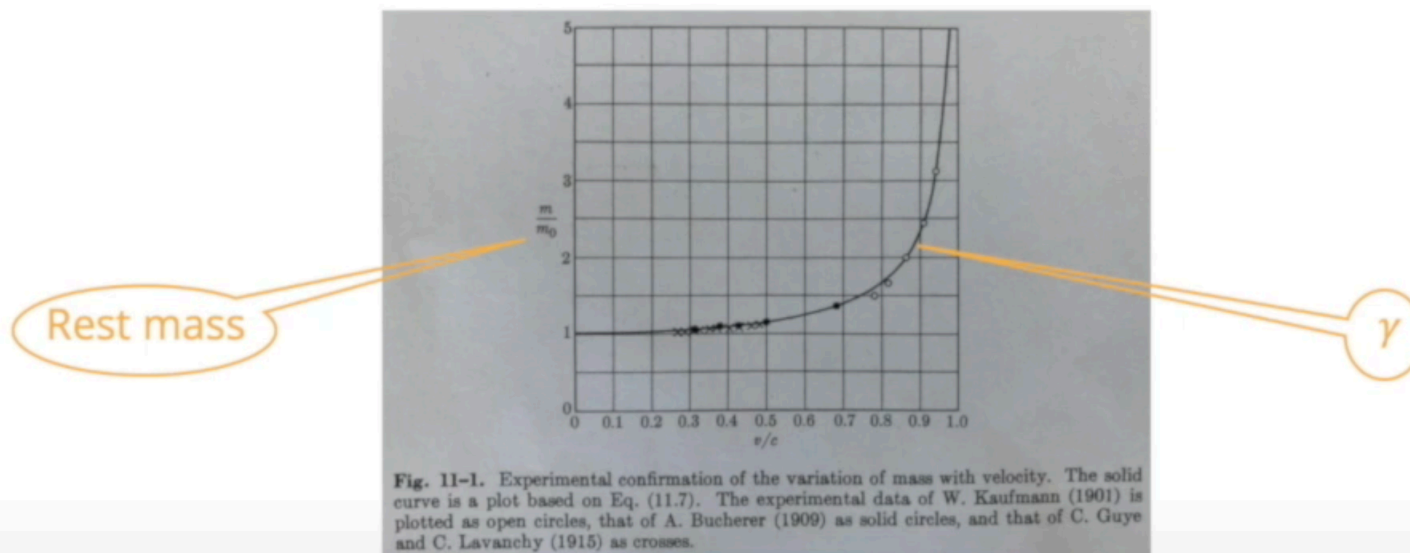


$$\tau = \gamma \tau_0$$

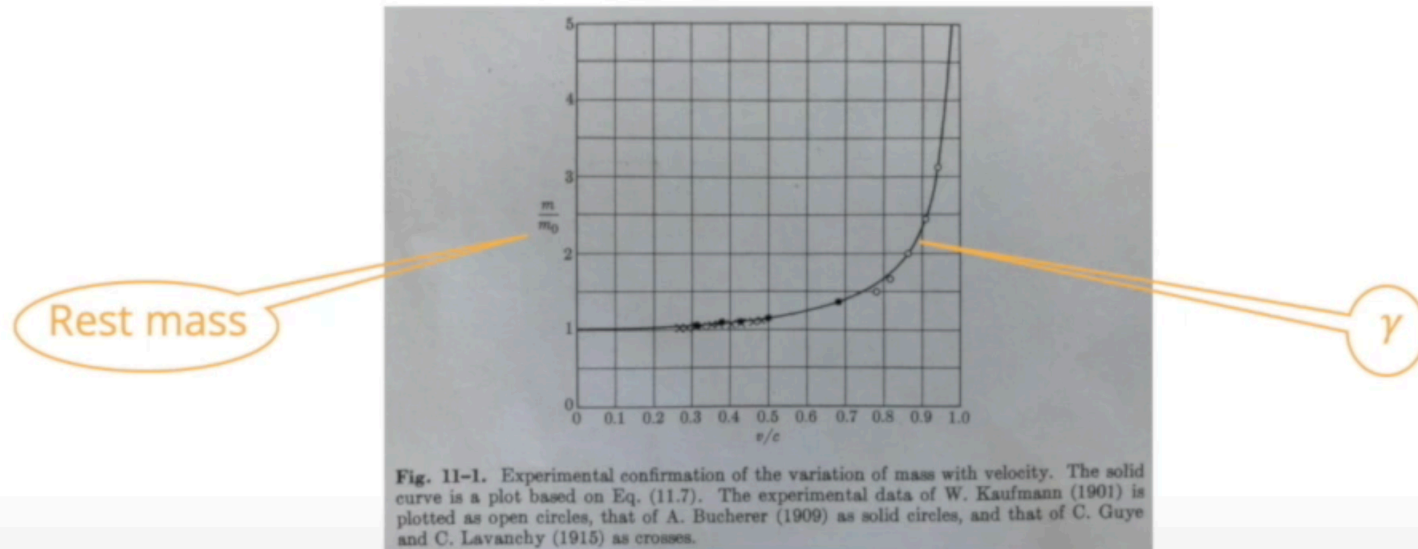
~ 150 ms
at 7 TeV

=> Everything needs to be done swiftly!

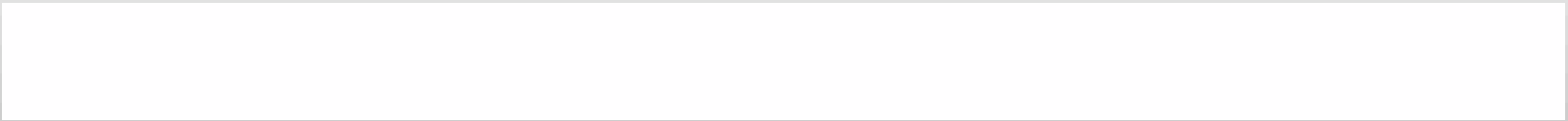
- **Kaufmann's experiment** in 1901 (see Alonso-Finn, Fundamental university physics, vol. 1 mechanics, Addison-Wesley, 2nd printing, May 1969, p. 321)



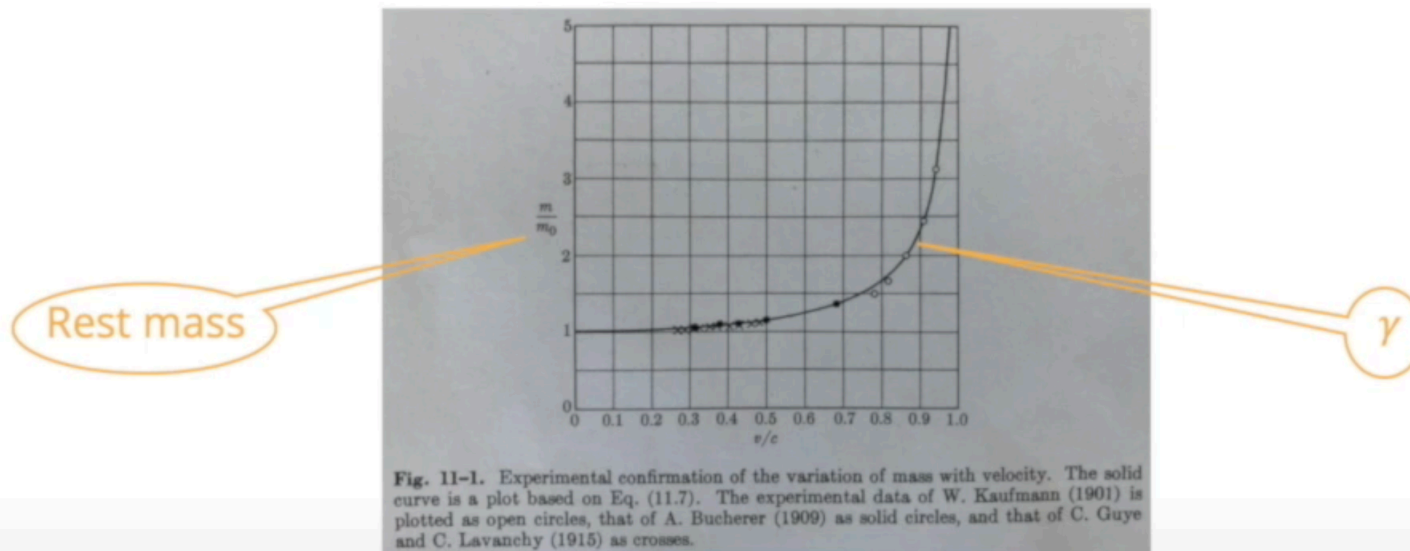
- **Kaufmann's experiment** in 1901 (see Alonso-Finn, Fundamental university physics, vol. 1 mechanics, Addison-Wesley, 2nd printing, May 1969, p. 321)



- One thus defines the **relativistic mass** as $m = m(v) = \gamma m_0$



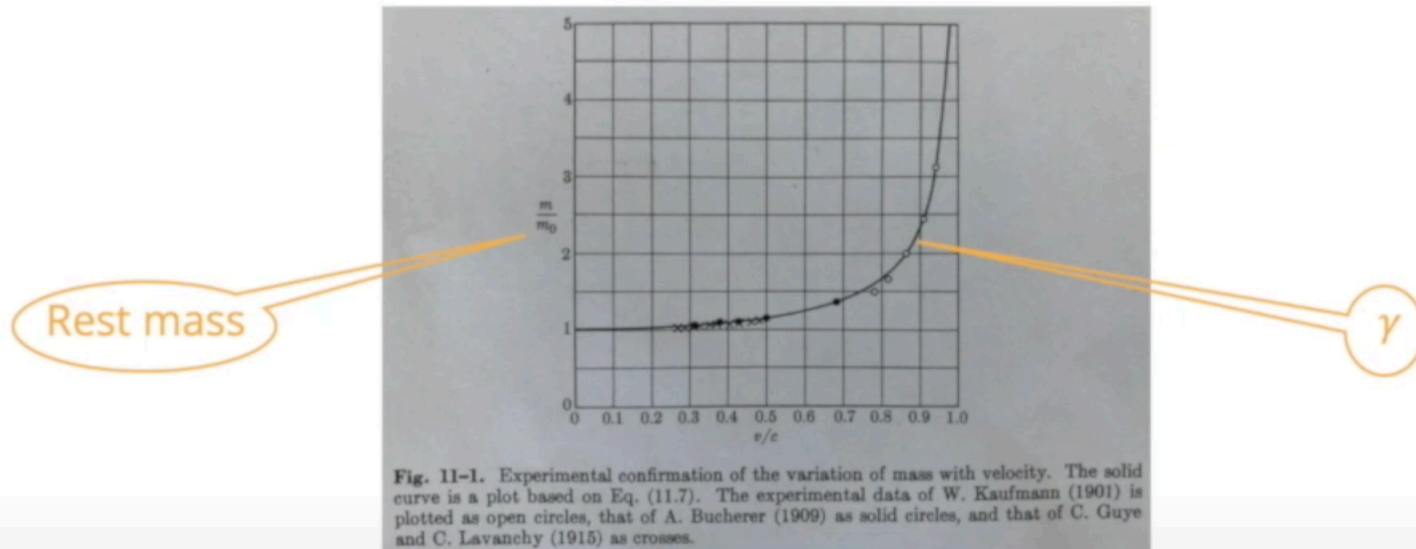
- **Kaufmann's experiment** in 1901 (see Alonso-Finn, Fundamental university physics, vol. 1 mechanics, Addison-Wesley, 2nd printing, May 1969, p. 321)



- One thus defines the **relativistic mass** as $m = m(v) = \gamma m_0$
- The **relativistic particle momentum** is given by $\vec{p} = m(v) \vec{V}$

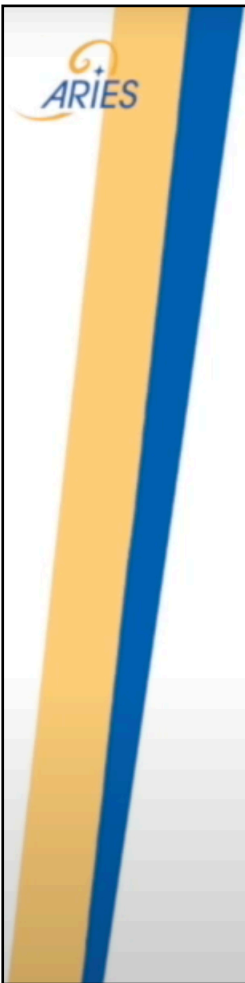
Special relativity

- **Kaufmann's experiment** in 1901 (see Alonso-Finn, Fundamental university physics, vol. 1 mechanics, Addison-Wesley, 2nd printing, May 1969, p. 321)

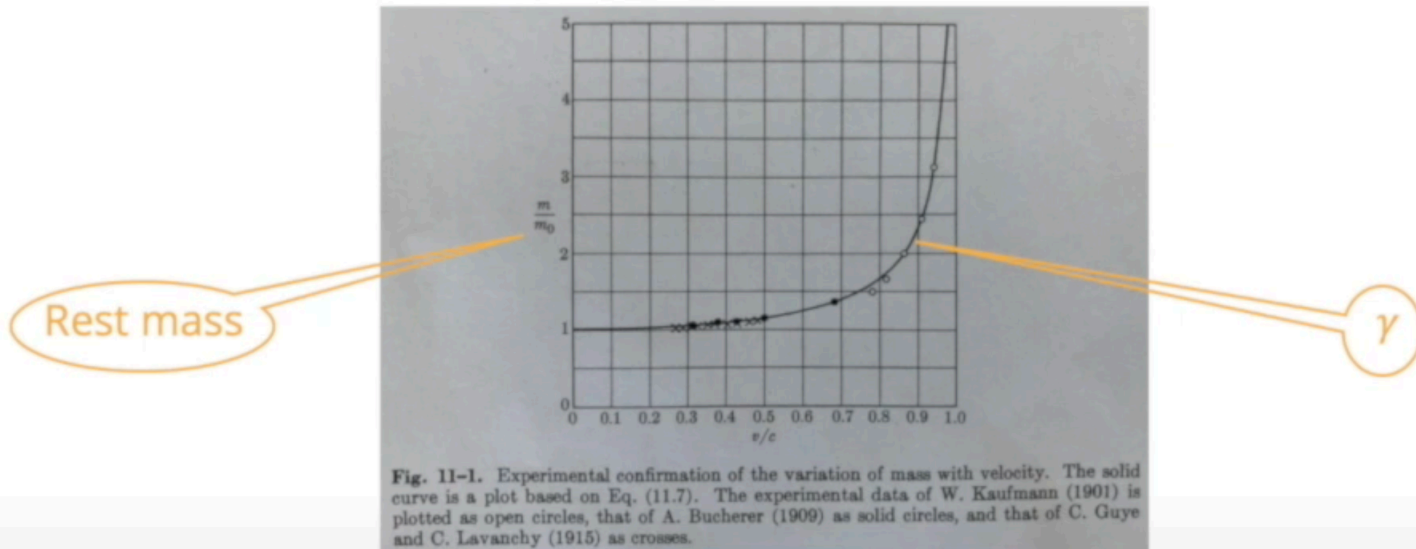


- One thus defines the **relativistic mass** as $m = m(v) = \gamma m_0$
- The **relativistic particle momentum** is given by $\vec{p} = m(v) \vec{V}$

→ $E = \gamma m_0 c^2 = m c^2$ is the total particle energy



- **Kaufmann's experiment** in 1901 (see Alonso-Finn, Fundamental university physics, vol. 1 mechanics, Addison-Wesley, 2nd printing, May 1969, p. 321)



- One thus defines the **relativistic mass** as $m = m(v) = \gamma m_0$
- The **relativistic particle momentum** is given by $\vec{p} = m(v) \vec{V}$

→ $E = \gamma m_0 c^2 = m c^2$ is the total particle energy

As m_0 and c are constant, the following quantity is a relativistic invariant

$$E^2 - p^2 c^2 = E_0^2$$

$$E = mc^2$$

normalized velocity

$$\beta = \frac{v}{c} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{\gamma^2}}$$

total energy
rest energy

$$\gamma = \frac{E}{E_0} = \frac{m}{m_0} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$$

energy

$$E = E_{kin} + E_0$$

total kinetic rest

momentum

$$p = mv = \beta \frac{E}{c} = \beta \gamma m_0 c$$

| energy | momentum | mass |
|--------|----------|-------------------|
| eV | eV/c | eV/c ² |

$$p^2 c^2 = E^2 - E_0^2 \qquad \gamma = 1 + \frac{E_{kin}}{E_0}$$

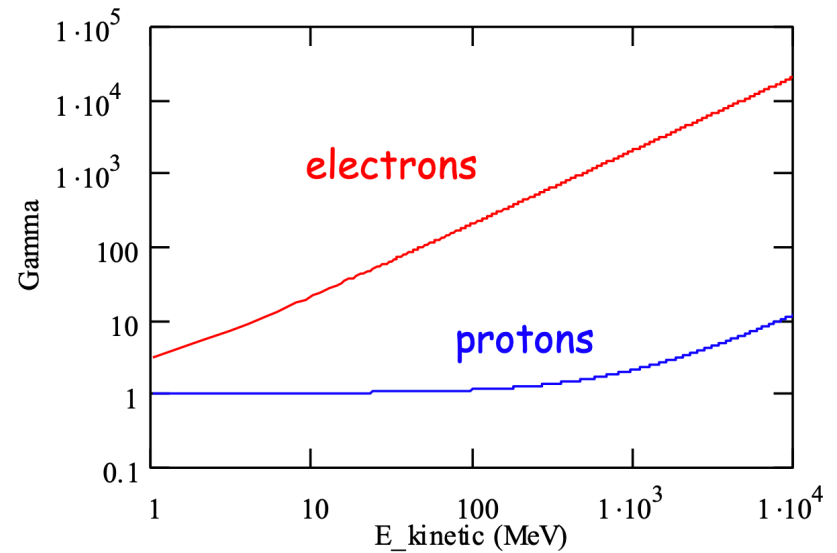
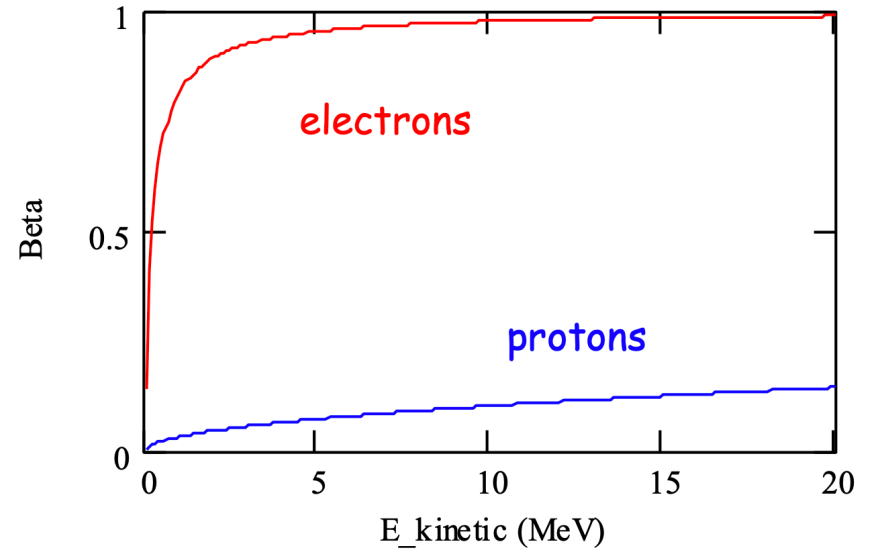
| Physical constant | symbol | value | unit |
|---|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------|
| Avogadro's number | N_A | 6.0221367×10^{23} | /mol |
| atomic mass unit ($\frac{1}{12}m(\text{C}^{12})$) | m_u or u | $1.6605402 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| Boltzmann's constant | k | 1.380658×10^{-23} | J/K |
| Bohr magneton | $\mu_B = e\hbar/2m_e$ | $9.2740154 \times 10^{-24}$ | J/T |
| Bohr radius | $a_0 = 4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar^2/m_e c^2$ | $0.529177249 \times 10^{-10}$ | m |
| classical radius of electron | $r_e = e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0 m_e c^2$ | $2.81794092 \times 10^{-15}$ | m |
| classical radius of proton | $r_p = e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0 m_p c^2$ | $1.5346986 \times 10^{-18}$ | m |
| elementary charge | e | $1.60217733 \times 10^{-19}$ | C |
| fine structure constant | $\alpha = e^2/2\epsilon_0 hc$ | 1/137.0359895 | |
| $m_u c^2$ | | 931.49432 | MeV |
| mass of electron | m_e | $9.1093897 \times 10^{-31}$ | kg |
| $m_e c^2$ | | 0.51099906 | MeV |
| mass of proton | m_p | $1.6726231 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| $m_p c^2$ | | 938.27231 | MeV |
| mass of neutron | m_n | $1.6749286 \times 10^{-27}$ | kg |
| $m_p c^2$ | | 939.56563 | MeV |
| molar gas constant | $R = N_A k$ | 8.314510 | J/mol K |
| neutron magnetic moment | μ_n | $-0.96623707 \times 10^{-26}$ | J/T |
| nuclear magneton | $\mu_p = e\hbar/2m_u$ | $5.0507866 \times 10^{-27}$ | J/T |
| Planck's constant | h | 6.626075×10^{-34} | J s |
| permeability of vacuum | μ_0 | $4\pi \times 10^{-7}$ | N/A ² |
| permittivity of vacuum | ϵ_0 | $8.854187817 \times 10^{-12}$ | F/m |
| proton magnetic moment | μ_p | $1.41060761 \times 10^{-26}$ | J/T |
| proton g factor | $g_p = \mu_p/\mu_N$ | 2.792847386 | |
| speed of light (exact) | c | 299792458 | m/s |
| vacuum impedance | $Z_0 = 1/\epsilon_0 c = \mu_0 c$ | 376.7303 | Ω |

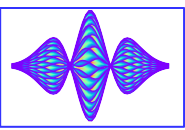
normalized velocity

$$\beta = \frac{v}{c} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{\gamma^2}}$$

total energy
rest energy

$$\gamma = \frac{E}{E_0} = \frac{m}{m_0} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$$

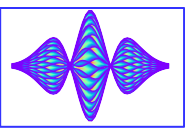




EM: the ? Maxwell equations



Maxwell
(1831-1879)



EM: the 4 Maxwell equations



Maxwell
(1831-1879)

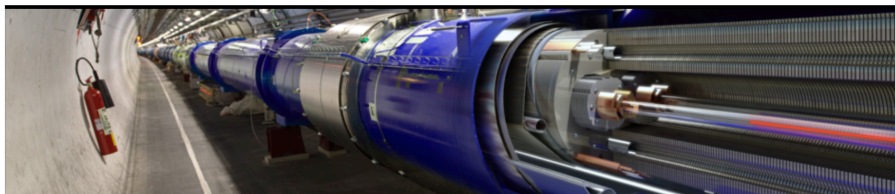


Maxwell
(1831-1879)

=> See also **MOOC on Electromagnetism**: <http://mooc.particle-accelerators.eu/electromagnetism/>

An online course about particle accelerators

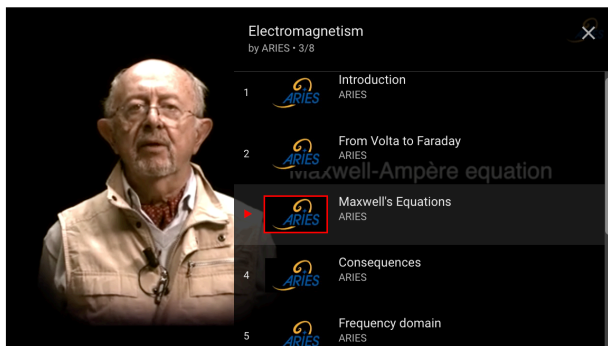
Massive Online Open Course on Accelerator Science and Technologie



About Organisation Guidance Resources

Electromagnetism

Previous: [Introduction to Particle Accelerators](#)



Work funded by ARIES

This work is funded by the [ARIES project](#). ARIES is co-funded by the European Commission Grant Agreement number 73087.

Licence

This course is released under Creative Commons License [CC-BY-NC-SA](#). This licence allows non commercial uses with attribution of the credits to the authors and share alike.

Note: In these videos the lecturer refers the LHS and RHS. LHS is the abbreviation for the "Left Hand Side" term in an equation and RHS is the abbreviation for the "Right Hand Side" term in an equation.

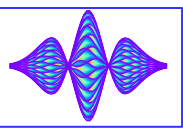
Next: [Special Relativity](#)

More advanced course on the same topic: [Radiofrequency](#)

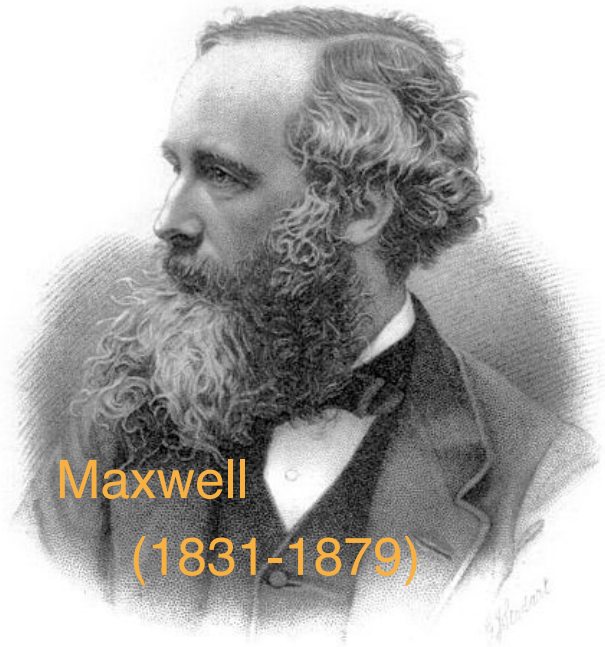
An online course about particle accelerators

Proudly powered by WordPress.

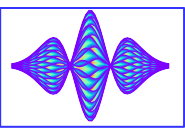
| Electromagnetism | |
|------------------|---|
| by ARIES · 3/8 | |
| 4 | ARIES |
| 5 | Frequency domain ARIES |
| 6 | Maxwell-Ampère equation Accelerating cavities ARIES |
| 7 | Coaxial cables ARIES |
| 8 | Waveguides ARIES |



- ◆ 4 “coupled” equations, which combine the work of **Gauss**, **Faraday**, **Lenz** and **Ampere**

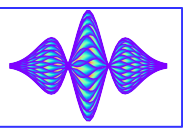


Maxwell
(1831-1879)



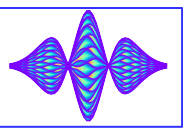
Maxwell
(1831-1879)

- ◆ 4 “coupled” equations, which combine the work of **Gauss**, **Faraday**, **Lenz** and **Ampere**
- ◆ Apply to all electric and magnetic phenomena and describe the behavior of the electric and magnetic fields, and electric charges and currents (the magnetic charge does not exist) => **Framework for all calculations involving EM fields**



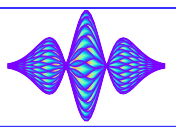
Maxwell
(1831-1879)

- ◆ 4 “coupled” equations, which combine the work of **Gauss**, **Faraday**, **Lenz** and **Ampere**
- ◆ Apply to all electric and magnetic phenomena and describe the behavior of the electric and magnetic fields, and electric charges and currents (the magnetic charge does not exist) => **Framework for all calculations involving EM fields**
- ◆ Predicted **EM waves**



Maxwell
(1831-1879)

- ◆ 4 “coupled” equations, which combine the work of **Gauss**, **Faraday**, **Lenz** and **Ampere**
- ◆ Apply to all electric and magnetic phenomena and describe the behavior of the electric and magnetic fields, and electric charges and currents (the magnetic charge does not exist) => **Framework for all calculations involving EM fields**
- ◆ Predicted **EM waves**
- ◆ Led Einstein to discover special relativity (together with the “failed” Michelson-Morley experiment)



◆ Differential forms

$$(1) \operatorname{div} \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon}$$

Gauss's law for electric charge

$$(2) \operatorname{div} \vec{H} = 0$$

Gauss's law for magnetic charge

$$(3) \overrightarrow{\operatorname{rot}} \vec{E} = -\mu \frac{\partial \vec{H}}{\partial t}$$

Faraday's and Lenz law

$$(4) \overrightarrow{\operatorname{rot}} \vec{H} = \vec{J} + \epsilon \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$$

Ampere's law

◆ Integral forms

$$\iiint \operatorname{div} \vec{E} dV = \iint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{S} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \iiint \rho dV$$

$$\iiint \operatorname{div} \vec{H} dV = \iint \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{S} = 0$$

$$\iint \overrightarrow{\operatorname{rot}} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{S} = \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = -\mu \iint \frac{\partial \vec{H}}{\partial t} \cdot d\vec{S}$$

$$\iint \overrightarrow{\operatorname{rot}} \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{S} = \oint \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{s} = \iint \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{S} + \epsilon \iint \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} \cdot d\vec{S}$$

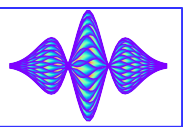
with

$$\vec{B} = \mu \vec{H}$$

$$\vec{D} = \epsilon \vec{E}$$

$$\vec{J} = \rho \vec{v} + \sigma \vec{E}$$

Maxwell equations valid in homogeneous, isotropic, continuous media



permeability

conductivity

$$\vec{B} = \mu \vec{H}$$

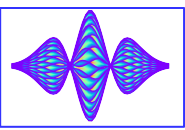
$$\mu = \mu_0 \mu_1 = \mu_0 \mu_r (1 - j \tan \vartheta_M)$$

$$\vec{D} = \epsilon \vec{E}$$

$$\epsilon = \epsilon_0 \epsilon_1 = \epsilon_0 (\epsilon'_r - j \epsilon''_r) = \epsilon_0 \epsilon_b + \frac{\sigma}{j2\pi f}$$

permittivity

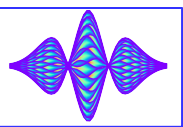
Imaginary parts describe the losses



EM: the 4 Maxwell equations



- ◆ q : electric charge [C] => $q = e$ for a proton
- ◆ ρ : electric charge density [C/m³]
- ◆ I, \vec{J} : electric current [A], electric current density [A/m²]
- ◆ \vec{E} : electric field [V/m]
- ◆ \vec{H} : magnetic field [A/m]
- ◆ \vec{D} : electric displacement [C/m²]
- ◆ \vec{B} : magnetic induction or magnetic flux density [T] => But, beware: it is often called “magnetic field”



◆ Cartesian (x,y,s)

$$\vec{\nabla} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \end{pmatrix}$$

◆ Cylindrical (r,θ,s)

$$\vec{\nabla} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \\ \frac{1}{r} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \vartheta} \right) \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \end{pmatrix}$$

Also noted
 $\overrightarrow{curl} \vec{E}$ or $\vec{\nabla} \wedge \vec{E}$

$$\overrightarrow{grad} \rho \equiv \vec{\nabla} \rho = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial s} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\overrightarrow{rot} \vec{E} \equiv \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial E_s}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial E_y}{\partial s} \\ \frac{\partial E_x}{\partial s} - \frac{\partial E_s}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial E_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial E_x}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\overrightarrow{grad} \rho = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial r} \\ \frac{1}{r} \left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial \vartheta} \right) \\ \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial s} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\overrightarrow{rot} \vec{E} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{r} \left(\frac{\partial E_s}{\partial \vartheta} \right) - \frac{\partial E_\theta}{\partial s} \\ \frac{\partial E_r}{\partial s} - \frac{\partial E_s}{\partial r} \\ \frac{1}{r} \left[\frac{\partial (r E_\theta)}{\partial r} - \frac{\partial E_r}{\partial \theta} \right] \end{pmatrix}$$

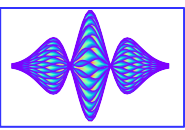
$$div \vec{E} \equiv \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\partial E_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial E_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial E_s}{\partial s}$$

$$div \vec{E} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r E_r) + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial E_\theta}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\partial E_s}{\partial s}$$

$$\Delta \rho \equiv \nabla^2 \rho = \text{Laplacian operator}$$

$$= \frac{\partial^2 \rho}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \rho}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \rho}{\partial s^2}$$

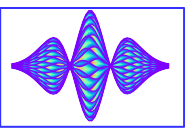
$$\Delta \rho = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \rho}{\partial \theta^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \rho}{\partial s^2}$$



EM: the 4 Maxwell equations



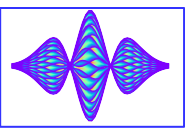
- ◆ Maxwell Eqs. (2) and (3) are independent of ρ and $\vec{J} \Rightarrow$ They are referred to as the “**homogenous Maxwell equations**”



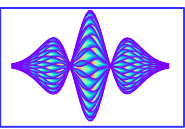
EM: the 4 Maxwell equations



- ◆ Maxwell Eqs. (2) and (3) are independent of ρ and $\vec{J} \Rightarrow$ They are referred to as the “**homogenous Maxwell equations**”
- ◆ Maxwell Eqs. (1) and (4) depend on ρ and $\vec{J} \Rightarrow$ They are referred to as the “**inhomogenous Maxwell equations**”



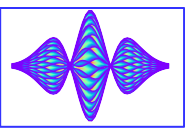
- ◆ Maxwell Eqs. (2) and (3) are independent of ρ and $\vec{J} \Rightarrow$ They are referred to as the “**homogenous Maxwell equations**”
- ◆ Maxwell Eqs. (1) and (4) depend on ρ and $\vec{J} \Rightarrow$ They are referred to as the “**inhomogenous Maxwell equations**”
- ◆ ρ and \vec{J} may be regarded as **sources of EM fields**



EM: the 4 Maxwell equations



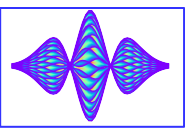
- ◆ When ρ and \vec{J} are specified, one can integrate Maxwell equations to find possible electric and magnetic fields in the system



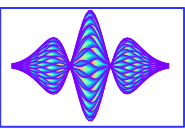
EM: the 4 Maxwell equations



- ◆ When ρ and \vec{J} are specified, one can integrate Maxwell equations to find possible electric and magnetic fields in the system
- ◆ The solution one finds by integration is not unique: for example, there are many possible field patterns that may exist in a cavity (or waveguide) of given geometry



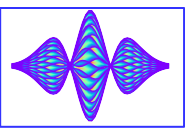
- ◆ When ρ and \vec{J} are specified, one can integrate Maxwell equations to find possible electric and magnetic fields in the system
- ◆ The solution one finds by integration is not unique: for example, there are many possible field patterns that may exist in a cavity (or waveguide) of given geometry
- ◆ Most realistic situations are sufficiently complicated that solutions to Maxwell equations cannot be obtained analytically
=> A variety of computer codes exist to provide solutions numerically



EM: the 4 Maxwell equations

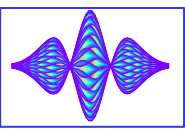


- ◆ Important feature of Maxwell equations: for systems containing materials **with constant permittivity and permeability** (i.e. permittivity and permeability that are independent of the fields present), the **equations are linear in the fields and sources** => As a consequence, **the principle of superposition applies**



- ◆ Important feature of Maxwell equations: for systems containing materials **with constant permittivity and permeability** (i.e. permittivity and permeability that are independent of the fields present), the **equations are linear in the fields and sources** => As a consequence, **the principle of superposition applies**

- If (\vec{E}_1, \vec{B}_1) and (\vec{E}_2, \vec{B}_2) are solutions of Maxwell equations with given boundary conditions, then $(\vec{E}_1 + \vec{E}_2, \vec{B}_1 + \vec{B}_2)$ will also be solutions of Maxwell equations, with the same boundary conditions

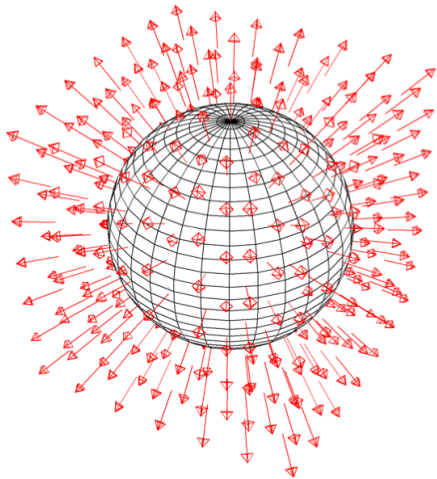


- ◆ Important feature of Maxwell equations: for systems containing materials **with constant permittivity and permeability** (i.e. permittivity and permeability that are independent of the fields present), the **equations are linear in the fields and sources** => As a consequence, **the principle of superposition applies**
 - If $\left(\vec{E}_1, \vec{B}_1\right)$ and $\left(\vec{E}_2, \vec{B}_2\right)$ are solutions of Maxwell equations with given boundary conditions, then $\left(\vec{E}_1 + \vec{E}_2, \vec{B}_1 + \vec{B}_2\right)$ will also be solutions of Maxwell equations, with the same boundary conditions
 - An important and widely used **analysis technique** for EM systems, including RF cavities and waveguides, is **to find a set of solutions to Maxwell equations from which more complete and complicated solutions may be constructed**

- ◆ From Eq. (1)

$$\iiint \operatorname{div} \vec{E} dV = \iint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{S} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \iiint \rho dV$$

= total charge q



=> Coulomb's law:

$$E = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon r^2}$$

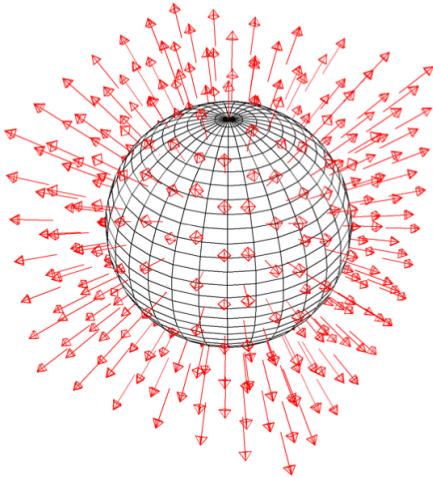
◆ From Eq. (1)

$$\iiint \operatorname{div} \vec{E} \, dV = \iint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{S} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \iiint \rho \, dV$$

= total charge q

=> Coulomb's law:

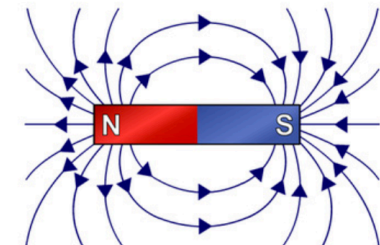
$$E = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon r^2}$$

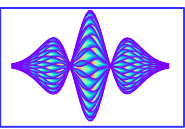


◆ From Eq. (2)

$$\iiint \operatorname{div} \vec{H} \, dV = \iint \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{S} = 0$$

=> Absence of magnetic monopoles
(lines of magnetic flux always occur in closed loop)

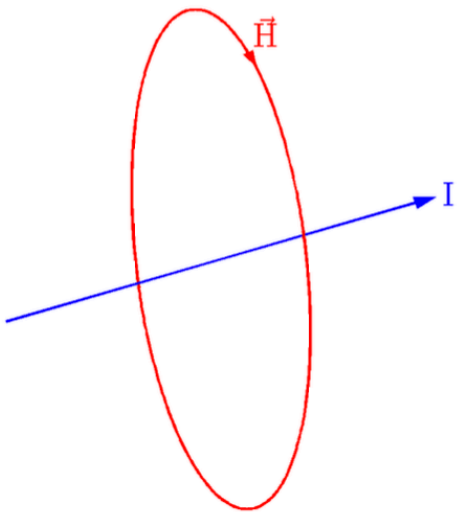




- ◆ From Eq. (4)

$$\oint \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{s} = \iint \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{S} + \varepsilon \iint \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} \cdot d\vec{S}$$

=> In absence of 2nd term

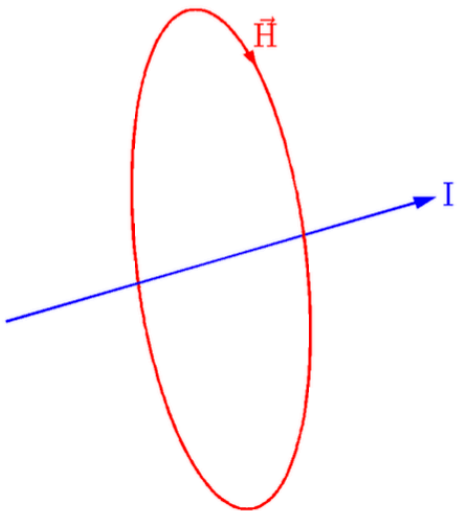


$$B = \frac{\mu I}{2\pi r}$$

◆ From Eq. (4)

$$\oint \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{s} = \iint \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{S} + \varepsilon \iint \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} \cdot d\vec{S}$$

=> In absence of 2nd term

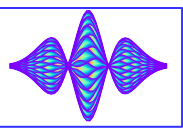


$$B = \frac{\mu I}{2\pi r}$$

◆ From Eq. (3)

$$\iint \overrightarrow{rot} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{S} = \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = -\mu \iint \frac{\partial \vec{H}}{\partial t} \cdot d\vec{S}$$

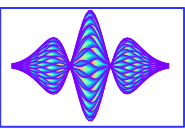
Eqs. (3) and (4) tell us that a time dependent electric (magnetic) field will induce a magnetic (electric) field
=> Fields in RF cavities and waveguides always consist of both electric and magnetic fields



- EM fields can be written as derivatives of **scalar and vector potentials** $\phi(x, y, s)$ and $\vec{A}(x, y, s)$

$$\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}\phi - \frac{\partial\vec{A}}{\partial t}$$

$$\vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} = \text{curl}\vec{A}$$

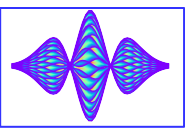


- EM fields can be written as derivatives of **scalar and vector potentials** $\phi(x, y, s)$ and $\vec{A}(x, y, s)$

$$\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}\phi - \frac{\partial\vec{A}}{\partial t}$$

$$\vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} = \text{curl}\vec{A}$$

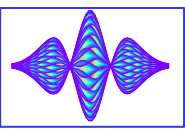
- The knowledge of the potentials allows the computation of the fields



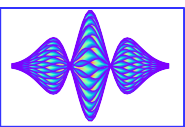
EM: the 4 Maxwell equations



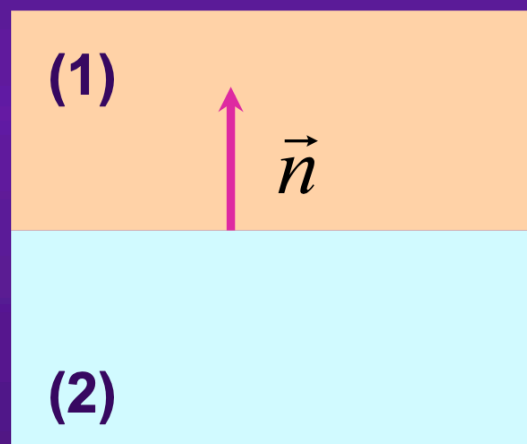
- ◆ While the absolute values of the electric and magnetic fields can be measured, the absolute values of the potentials are not defined. The EM potentials are merely auxiliary “constructions”, although very important ones, in particular, for the relativistic formulation of the EM theory



- ◆ While the absolute values of the electric and magnetic fields can be measured, the absolute values of the potentials are not defined. The EM potentials are merely auxiliary “constructions”, although very important ones, in particular, for the relativistic formulation of the EM theory
- ◆ **The scalar and vector potentials are used in particular if one uses the Hamiltonian formalism** to describe the beam dynamics (which leads to the same results as the ones obtained using the Lorentz force and Newton’s second law of motion)



Consider a surface separating two media “1” and “2”. The following boundary conditions can be derived from Maxwell equations for the normal (\perp) and parallel (\parallel) components of the fields at the surface



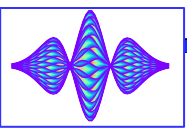
$$\vec{E}_{\parallel}^1 = \vec{E}_{\parallel}^2$$

$$\vec{H}_{\parallel}^1 - \vec{H}_{\parallel}^2 = \vec{K}$$

$$D_{\perp}^1 - D_{\perp}^2 = \Sigma$$

$$B_{\perp}^1 = B_{\perp}^2$$

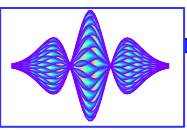
where Σ is the surface charge density and \vec{K} is the surface current density



Energy of EM waves

- ◆ Poynting vector: $\vec{S} = \vec{E} \times \vec{H}$

=> It points in the direction of propagation and describes the “energy flux”, i.e. the energy crossing a unit area per second

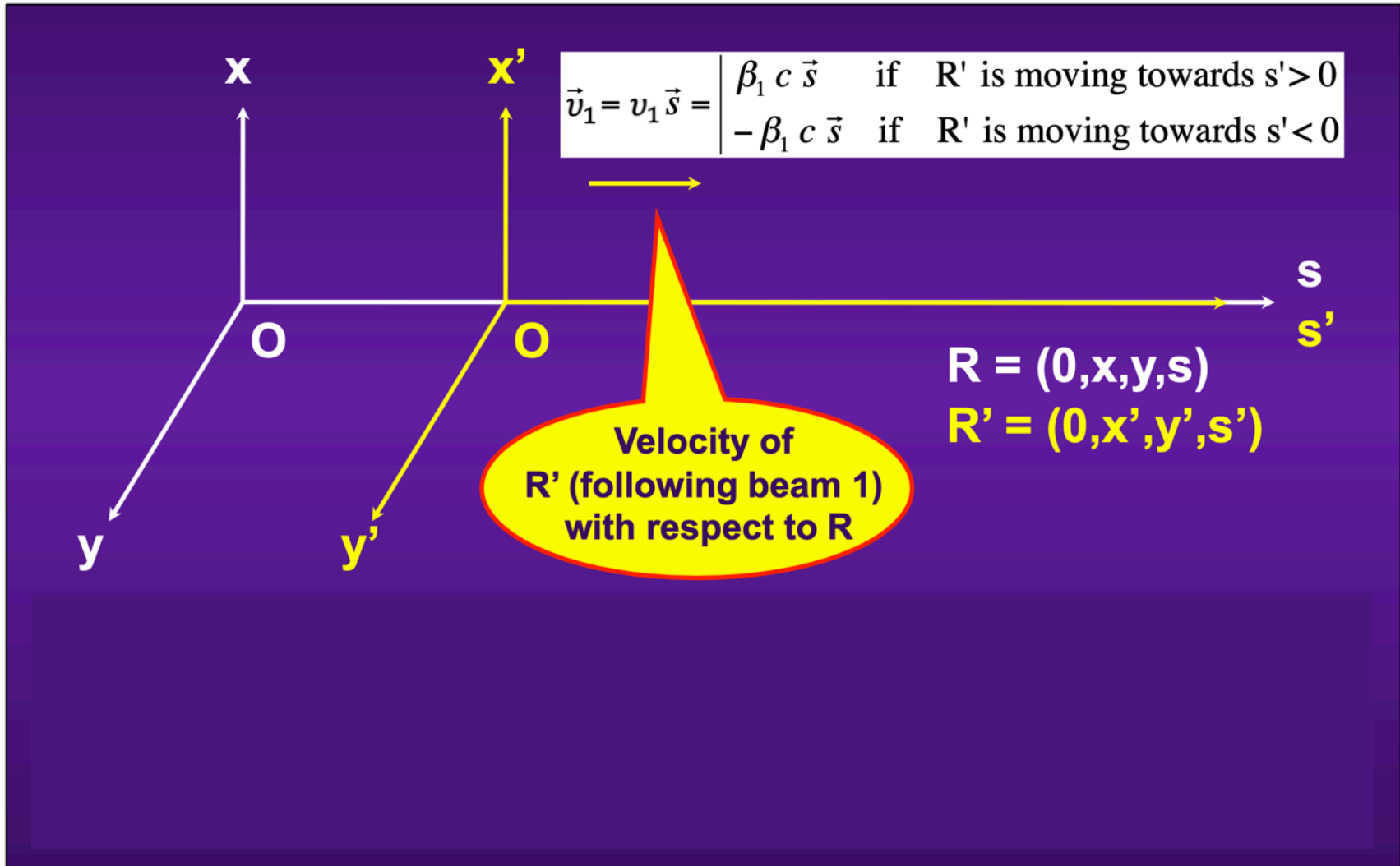


- ◆ **Poynting vector:** $\vec{S} = \vec{E} \times \vec{H}$

=> It points in the direction of propagation and describes the “energy flux”, i.e. the energy crossing a unit area per second

- ◆ **Remark on complex notations for vectors**
 - As long as we deal with linear equations, we can carry out all the algebraic manipulations using complex field vectors, where **it is implicit that the physical quantities are obtained by taking the real parts of the complex vectors**
 - However, when using the complex notation, particular care is needed when taking the product of two complex vectors: to be safe, one should always take the real part before multiplying two complex quantities, the real parts of which represent physical quantities

Relativistic transformation of EM fields

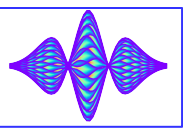


Relativistic transformation of EM fields

$$\vec{v}_1 = v_1 \vec{s} = \begin{cases} \beta_1 c \vec{s} & \text{if } R' \text{ is moving towards } s' > 0 \\ -\beta_1 c \vec{s} & \text{if } R' \text{ is moving towards } s' < 0 \end{cases}$$

$R = (0, x, y, s)$
 $R' = (0, x', y', s')$

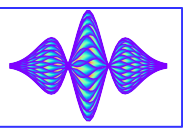
| | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|--|
| $E'_x = \gamma_1 (E_x - v_1 B_y)$ | $B'_x = \gamma_1 \left(B_x + \frac{v_1}{c^2} E_y \right)$ | $B'_y = \gamma_1 \left(B_y - \frac{v_1}{c^2} E_x \right)$ |
| $E'_y = \gamma_1 (E_y + v_1 B_x)$ | | |
| $E'_s = E_s$ | $B'_s = B_s$ | |



Relativistic transformation of EM fields

- ◆ Lorentz force on the particle 2 moving with velocity $\vec{v}_2 = v_2 \vec{s}$

$$\vec{F} = e \left(\vec{E} + \vec{v}_2 \times \vec{B} \right)$$



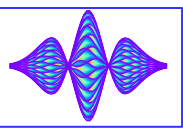
Relativistic transformation of EM fields

- ◆ Lorentz force on the particle 2 moving with velocity $\vec{v}_2 = v_2 \vec{s}$

$$\vec{F} = e \left(\vec{E} + \vec{v}_2 \times \vec{B} \right)$$

- ◆ Beam 1 produces only an electric field in its rest frame R'

$$B'_x = B'_y = B'_s = 0$$



Relativistic transformation of EM fields

- ◆ Lorentz force on the particle 2 moving with velocity $\vec{v}_2 = v_2 \vec{s}$

$$\vec{F} = e \left(\vec{E} + \vec{v}_2 \times \vec{B} \right)$$

- ◆ Beam 1 produces only an electric field in its rest frame R'

$$B'_x = B'_y = B'_s = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad B_x = -\frac{v_1}{c^2} E_y \quad B_y = \frac{v_1}{c^2} E_x \quad B_s = 0$$

Relativistic transformation of EM fields

- ◆ Lorentz force on the particle 2 moving with velocity $\vec{v}_2 = v_2 \vec{s}$

$$\vec{F} = e \left(\vec{E} + \vec{v}_2 \times \vec{B} \right)$$

- ◆ Beam 1 produces only an electric field in its rest frame R'

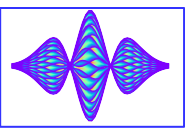
$$B'_x = B'_y = B'_s = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow B_x = -\frac{v_1}{c^2} E_y \quad B_y = \frac{v_1}{c^2} E_x \quad B_s = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow F_{x,y} = e E_{x,y} \begin{cases} (1 - \beta_1 \beta_2) & \text{if 2 moves in same direction as 1} \\ (1 + \beta_1 \beta_2) & \text{if 2 moves in oppo. direction as 1} \end{cases}$$

Space charge

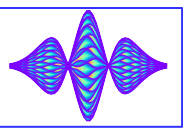
Beam beam



Relativistic transformation of EM fields



- ◆ **Let's assume SC regime and $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta$**



Relativistic transformation of EM fields

- ◆ Let's assume SC regime and $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta$

$$\Rightarrow F_{x,y} = e E_{x,y} (1 - \beta^2) = e \frac{E_{x,y}}{\gamma^2}$$

Electric part

Magnetic part

Relativistic transformation of EM fields

◆ Let's assume SC regime and $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta$

$$\Rightarrow F_{x,y} = e E_{x,y} (1 - \beta^2) = e \frac{E_{x,y}}{\gamma^2}$$

Electric part

Magnetic part

and

$$E'_{x,y} = \frac{E_{x,y}}{\gamma}$$

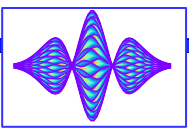
$$B_x = -\frac{\beta}{c} E_y$$

$$E'_s = E_s$$

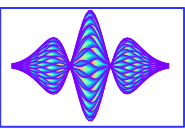
$$B_y = \frac{\beta}{c} E_x$$

$$B'_x = B'_y = B'_s = 0$$

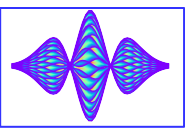
$$B_s = 0$$



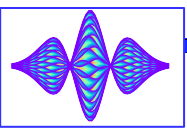
- ◆ At the surface of an **ideal (or perfect) conductor** (i.e. with **no energy dissipation**), the normal component of \vec{B} and the tangential component of \vec{E} must both vanish => **Standing waves that can persist within the cavity are determined by the shape of the cavity**



- ◆ At the surface of an **ideal (or perfect) conductor** (i.e. with **no energy dissipation**), the normal component of \vec{B} and the tangential component of \vec{E} must both vanish => **Standing waves that can persist within the cavity are determined by the shape of the cavity**
- ◆ Usually, the energy stored in an RF cavity is needed to **manipulate a charged particle beam in a particular way**
 - **Accelerate** the beam => Most of the time
 - **Decelerate** the beam => Used in some cases
 - **Deflect** the beam => e.g. Crab Cavities for future LHC



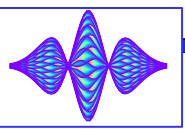
- ◆ At the surface of an **ideal (or perfect) conductor** (i.e. with **no energy dissipation**), the normal component of \vec{B} and the tangential component of \vec{E} must both vanish => **Standing waves that can persist within the cavity are determined by the shape of the cavity**
- ◆ Usually, the energy stored in an RF cavity is needed to **manipulate a charged particle beam in a particular way**
 - **Accelerate** the beam => Most of the time
 - **Decelerate** the beam => Used in some cases
 - **Deflect** the beam => e.g. Crab Cavities for future LHC
- ◆ The effect on the beam is determined by the field pattern. Therefore, it is important to design the shape of the cavity, so that the fields in the cavity interact with the beam in the desired way; and that undesirable interactions (which always occur to some extent) are minimized



(RF) cavities & waveguides



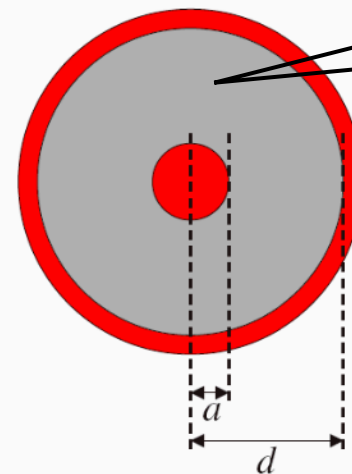
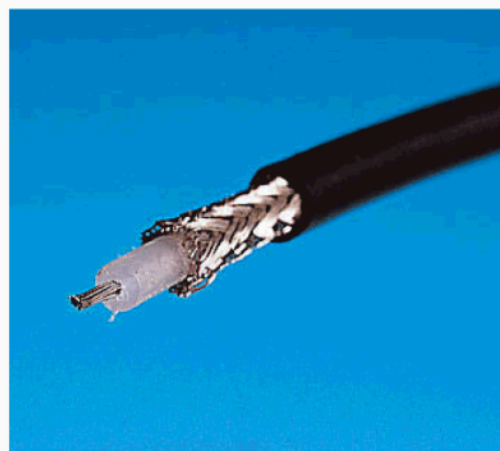
- ◆ Cavities are useful for storing energy in EM fields, but it is also necessary to transfer EM energy between different locations, e.g. from an RF power source such as a klystron, to an RF cavity



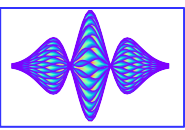
- ◆ Cavities are useful for storing energy in EM fields, but it is also necessary to transfer EM energy between different locations, e.g. from an RF power source such as a klystron, to an RF cavity
- ◆ **Waveguides** are generally used for carrying large amounts of energy (**high power RF**)



- ◆ Cavities are useful for storing energy in EM fields, but it is also necessary to transfer EM energy between different locations, e.g. from an RF power source such as a klystron, to an RF cavity
- ◆ **Waveguides** are generally used for carrying large amounts of energy (**high power RF**)
- ◆ For **low power RF** signals (e.g. for timing or control systems), **transmission lines** are generally used (over short distances)



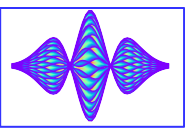
Dielectric (ϵ, μ)



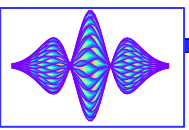
(RF) cavities & waveguides



- ◆ Cavities are useful for storing energy in EM fields, but it is also necessary to transfer EM energy between different locations, e.g. from an RF power source such as a klystron, to an RF cavity
- ◆ **Waveguides** are generally used for carrying large amounts of energy (**high power RF**)
- ◆ For **low power RF** signals (e.g. for timing or control systems), **transmission lines** are generally used (over short distances)
- ◆ Although the basic physics in waveguides and transmission lines is the same – both involve EM waves propagating through bounded regions – different formalisms are used for their analysis, depending on the geometry of the boundaries

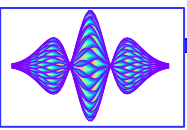


- ◆ Cavities are useful for storing energy in EM fields, but it is also necessary to transfer EM energy between different locations, e.g. from an RF power source such as a klystron, to an RF cavity
- ◆ **Waveguides** are generally used for carrying large amounts of energy (**high power RF**)
- ◆ For **low power RF** signals (e.g. for timing or control systems), **transmission lines** are generally used (over short distances)
- ◆ Although the basic physics in waveguides and transmission lines is the same – both involve EM waves propagating through bounded regions – different formalisms are used for their analysis, depending on the geometry of the boundaries
- ◆ As was the case for cavities, the patterns of the fields in the resonant modes are determined by the geometry of the boundary



Conclusions on EM & SR

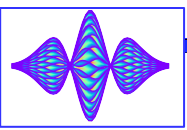




Conclusions on EM & SR



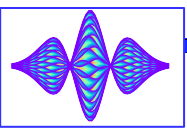
- ◆ 2 main pre-requisites to understand in detail the accelerator physics and perform all the necessary computations
 - **Electromagnetism**
 - **Special relativity**



Conclusions on EM & SR



- ◆ 2 main pre-requisites to understand in detail the accelerator physics and perform all the necessary computations
 - **Electromagnetism**
 - **Special relativity**
- ◆ You will now use these concepts to make many computations

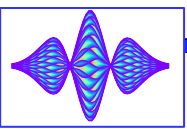


Conclusions on EM & SR



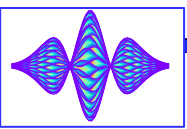
- ◆ 2 main pre-requisites to understand in detail the accelerator physics and perform all the necessary computations
 - **Electromagnetism**
 - **Special relativity**

- ◆ You will now use these concepts to make many computations
 - **Transverse beam dynamics:** motion of independent particles under the Lorentz force from a **magnetic field** (lin. & nonlinear)



- ◆ 2 main pre-requisites to understand in detail the accelerator physics and perform all the necessary computations
 - **Electromagnetism**
 - **Special relativity**

- ◆ You will now use these concepts to make many computations
 - **Transverse beam dynamics:** motion of independent particles under the Lorentz force from a **magnetic field** (lin. & nonlinear)
 - **Longitudinal beam dynamics:** motion of independent particles under the Lorentz force from an **electric field** (lin. & nonlinear)



- ◆ 2 main pre-requisites to understand in detail the accelerator physics and perform all the necessary computations
 - **Electromagnetism**
 - **Special relativity**

- ◆ You will now use these concepts to make many computations
 - **Transverse beam dynamics:** motion of independent particles under the Lorentz force from a **magnetic field** (lin. & nonlinear)
 - **Longitudinal beam dynamics:** motion of independent particles under the Lorentz force from an **electric field** (lin. & nonlinear)
 - **Space charge:** EM interaction between the particles of a beam

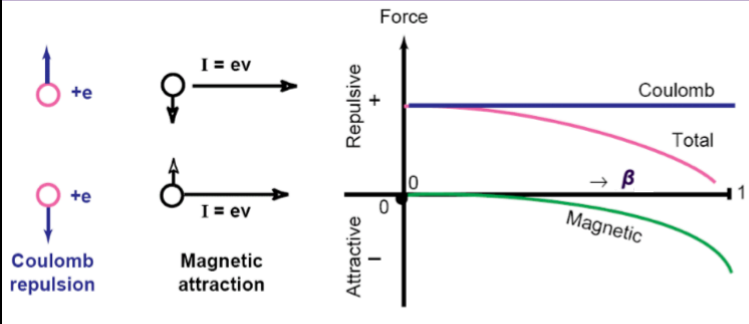
- ◆ 2 main pre-requisites to understand in detail the accelerator physics and perform all the necessary computations
 - **Electromagnetism**
 - **Special relativity**
- ◆ You will now use these concepts to make many computations
 - **Transverse beam dynamics:** motion of independent particles under the Lorentz force from a **magnetic field** (lin. & nonlinear)
 - **Longitudinal beam dynamics:** motion of independent particles under the Lorentz force from an **electric field** (lin. & nonlinear)
 - **Space charge:** EM interaction between the particles of a beam
 - **Beam beam:** EM interaction between the two beams of a collider

- ◆ 2 main pre-requisites to understand in detail the accelerator physics and perform all the necessary computations
 - **Electromagnetism**
 - **Special relativity**
- ◆ You will now use these concepts to make many computations
 - **Transverse beam dynamics:** motion of independent particles under the Lorentz force from a **magnetic field** (lin. & nonlinear)
 - **Longitudinal beam dynamics:** motion of independent particles under the Lorentz force from an **electric field** (lin. & nonlinear)
 - **Space charge:** EM interaction between the particles of a beam
 - **Beam beam:** EM interaction between the two beams of a collider
 - **Instabilities:** EM interaction between the particles and their **environment** (and/or another beam; **electron cloud**; **ions**; etc.)

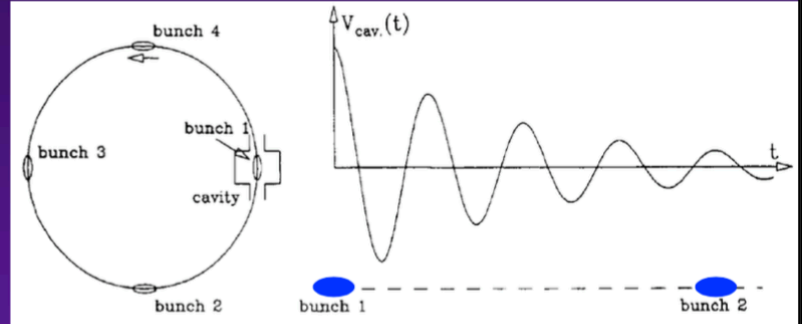
- ◆ 2 main pre-requisites to understand in detail the accelerator physics and perform all the necessary computations
 - **Electromagnetism**
 - **Special relativity**

- ◆ You will now use these concepts to make many computations
 - **Transverse beam dynamics:** motion of independent particles under the Lorentz force from a **magnetic field** (lin. & nonlinear)
 - **Longitudinal beam dynamics:** motion of independent particles under the Lorentz force from an **electric field** (lin. & nonlinear)
 - **Space charge:** EM interaction between the particles of a beam
 - **Beam beam:** EM interaction between the two beams of a collider
 - **Instabilities:** EM interaction between the particles and their **environment** (and/or another beam; **electron cloud**; **ions**; etc.)
 - Etc. => **To correctly describe the dynamics of a beam of particles, all the wanted and unwanted EM interactions need to be taken into account!**

SPACE CHARGE

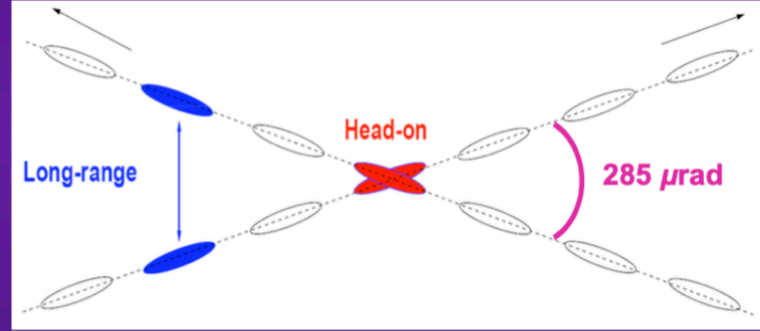


WAKE FIELD (or IMPEDANCE)

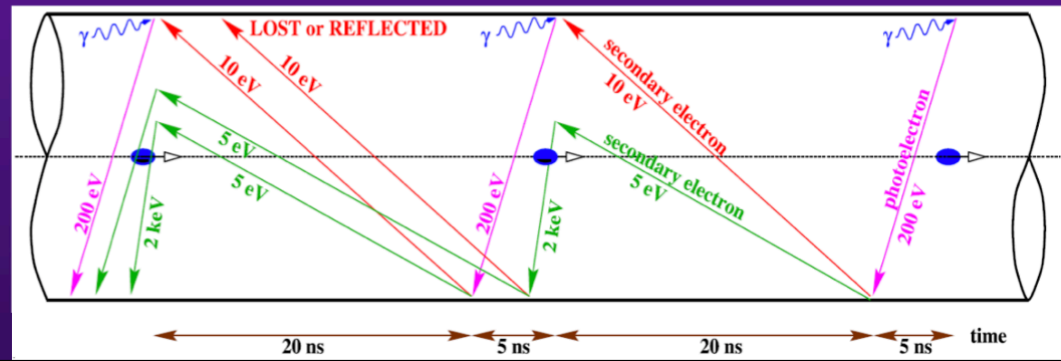


IBS = INTRA-BEAM SCATTERING
 (due to collisions between the particles), etc.

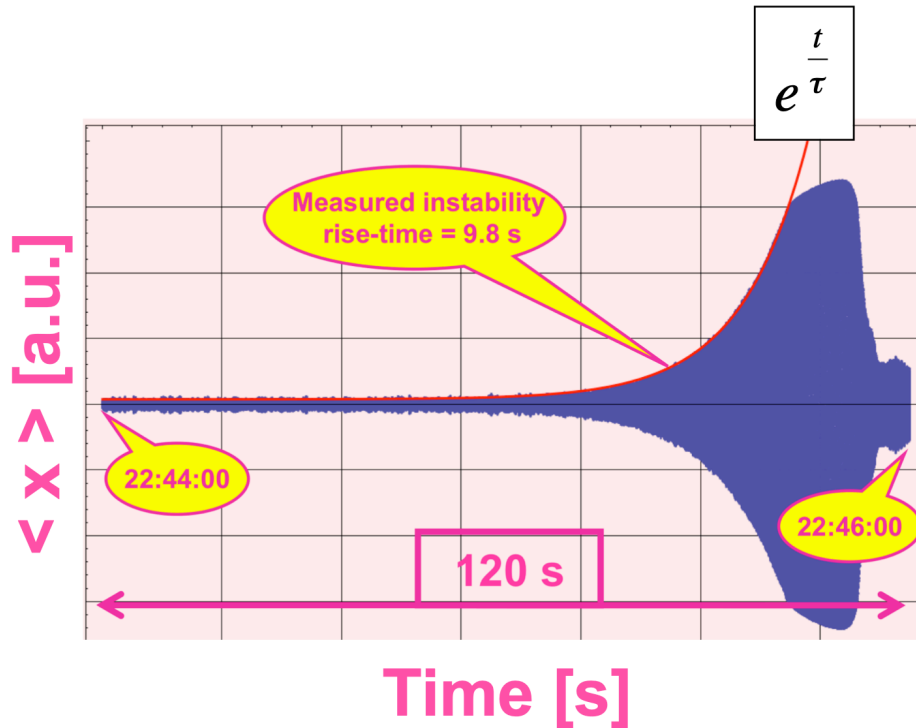
BEAM-BEAM



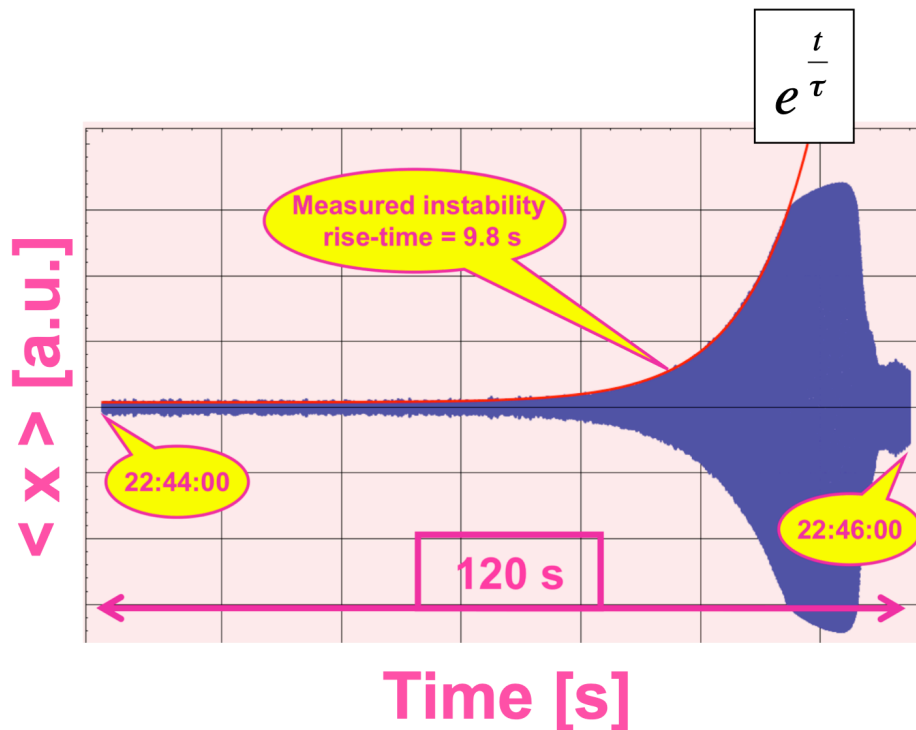
ELECTRON CLOUD



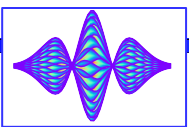
- ◆ Example of a coherent instability due to the wake field in the CERN LHC



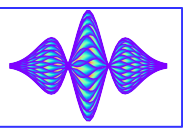
- Example of a coherent instability due to the wake field in the CERN LHC



- Many kinds of instabilities exist and several mitigation measures are needed to push the performance of particle accelerators



2 modes of particle accelerators: Fixed-target vs. Collider



2 modes of particle accelerators: Fixed-target vs. Collider

- We saw before, considering 1 particle, that the relativistic invariant is

$$E^2 - p^2c^2 = m_0^2c^4$$

2 modes of particle accelerators: Fixed-target vs. Collider

- We saw before, considering 1 particle, that the relativistic invariant is

$$E^2 - p^2 c^2 = m_0^2 c^4$$

- The same result is obtained for any isolated system, e.g. composed of 2 particles, called 1 and 2, which will collide



$$(E_1 + E_2)^2 - (\vec{p}_1 + \vec{p}_2)^2 c^2 = (m_{01} + m_{02})^2 c^4$$

2 modes of particle accelerators: Fixed-target vs. Collider

ARIES

- We saw before, considering 1 particle, that the relativistic invariant is

$$E^2 - p^2 c^2 = m_0^2 c^4$$

- The same result is obtained for any isolated system, e.g. composed of 2 particles, called 1 and 2, which will collide

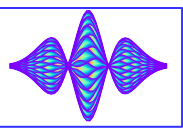


$$(E_1 + E_2)^2 - (\vec{p}_1 + \vec{p}_2)^2 c^2 = (m_{01} + m_{02})^2 c^4$$

- The available **energy in the Centre-of-Mass (CM)** of the system (to create new particles) is thus given by

$$E_{CM} = \sqrt{(E_1 + E_2)^2 - (\vec{p}_1 + \vec{p}_2)^2 c^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow E_{CM} = \sqrt{m_{01}^2 c^4 + m_{02}^2 c^4 + 2(E_1 E_2 - \vec{p}_1 \cdot \vec{p}_2 c^2)}$$



2 modes of particle accelerators: Fixed-target vs. Collider

ARIES

- For a **Fixed Target** ($\vec{p}_2 = 0$) and if we neglect the masses (i.e. if we are at sufficiently high energy)

$$E_{CM} = \sqrt{2E_1 m_0 c^2}$$

2 modes of particle accelerators: Fixed-target vs. Collider

ARIES

- For a **Fixed Target** ($\vec{p}_2 = 0$) and if we neglect the masses (i.e. if we are at sufficiently high energy)

$$E_{CM} = \sqrt{2E_1 m_0 c^2}$$

- For a **Collider** ($\vec{p}_2 = -\vec{p}_1$)

$$E_{CM} = E_1 + E_2$$

2 modes of particle accelerators: Fixed-target vs. Collider

ARIES

- For a **Fixed Target** ($\vec{p}_2 = 0$) and if we neglect the masses (i.e. if we are at sufficiently high energy)

$$E_{CM} = \sqrt{2E_1 m_0 c^2}$$

- For a **Collider** ($\vec{p}_2 = -\vec{p}_1$)

$$E_{CM} = E_1 + E_2$$

- **➔ To have the same energy in the CM**, the energy required is much higher for an accelerator with Fixed Target (FT) than for a Collider (C)

$$E_{FT} = 2 \gamma_C E_C$$

2 modes of particle accelerators: Fixed-target vs. Collider

ARIES

- For a **Fixed Target** ($\vec{p}_2 = 0$) and if we neglect the masses (i.e. if we are at sufficiently high energy)

$$E_{CM} = \sqrt{2E_1 m_0 c^2}$$

- For a **Collider** ($\vec{p}_2 = -\vec{p}_1$)

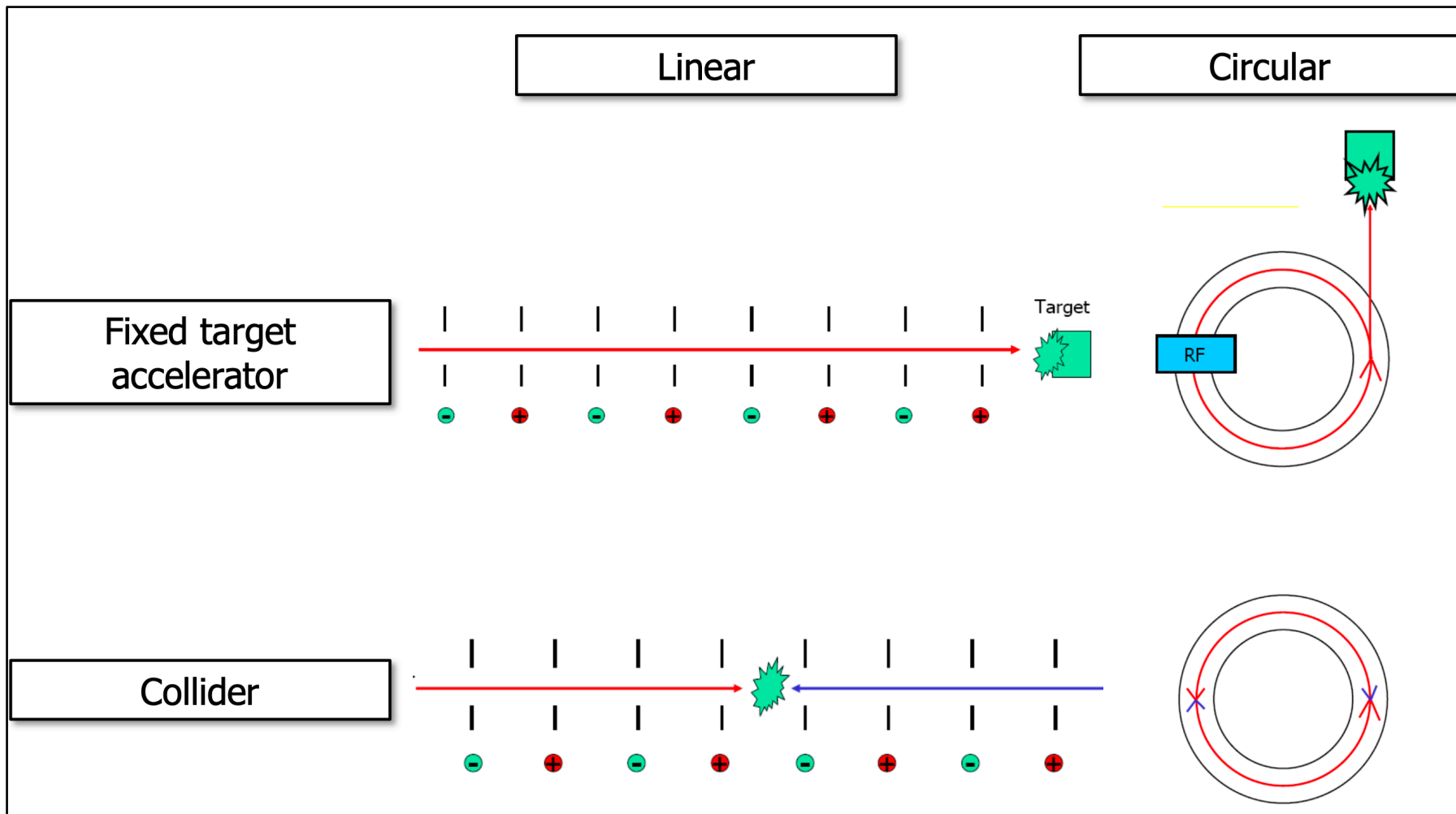
$$E_{CM} = E_1 + E_2$$

- **➔ To have the same energy in the CM**, the energy required is much higher for an accelerator with Fixed Target (FT) than for a Collider (C)

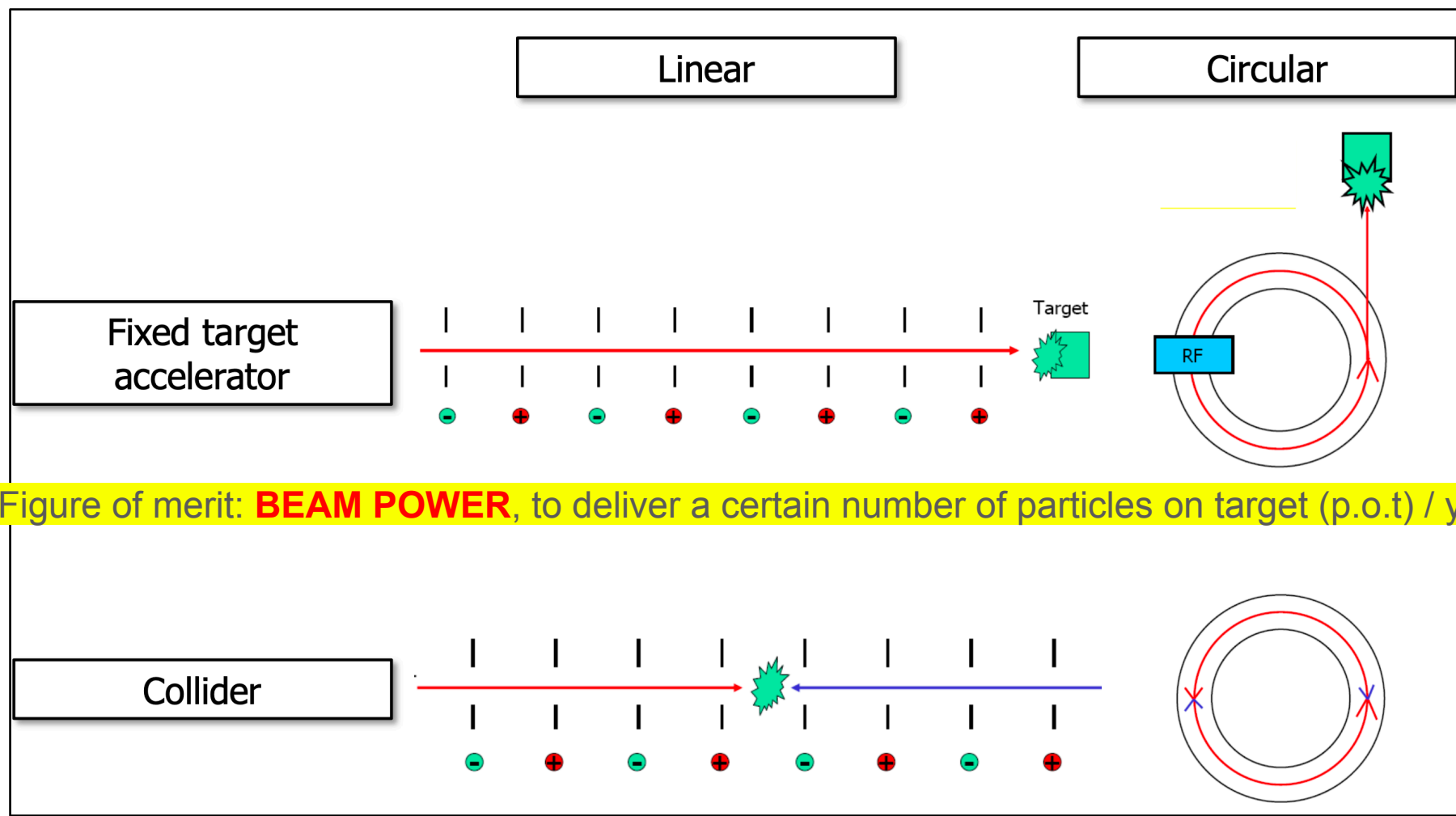
$$E_{FT} = 2 \gamma_C E_C$$

In the CERN
LHC, $\gamma_C \approx 7460$
 $\Rightarrow 2 \gamma_C \approx 15000!$

2 modes of particle accelerators: Fixed-target vs. Collider

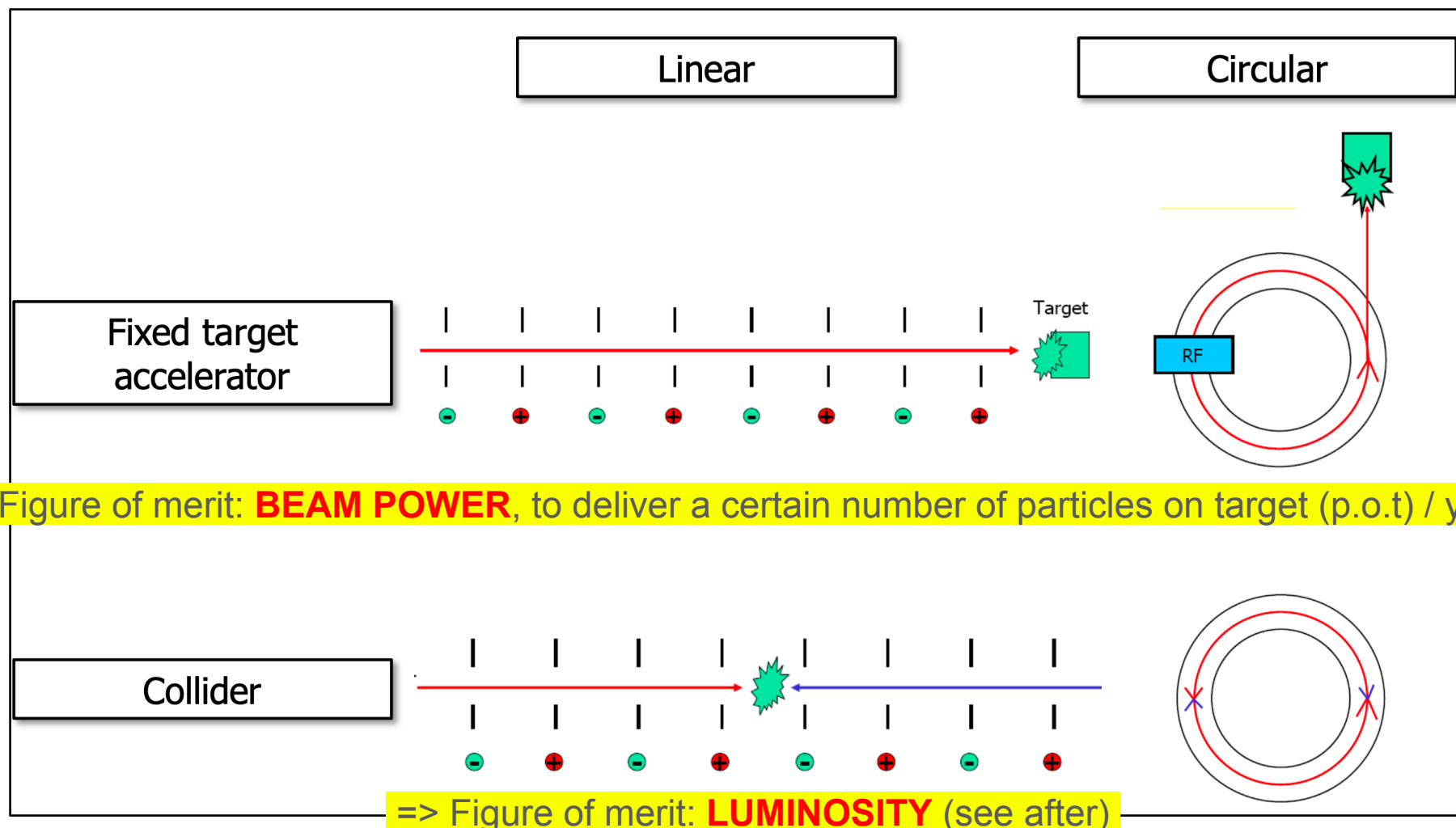


2 modes of particle accelerators: Fixed-target vs. Collider



=> Figure of merit: **BEAM POWER**, to deliver a certain number of particles on target (p.o.t) / year

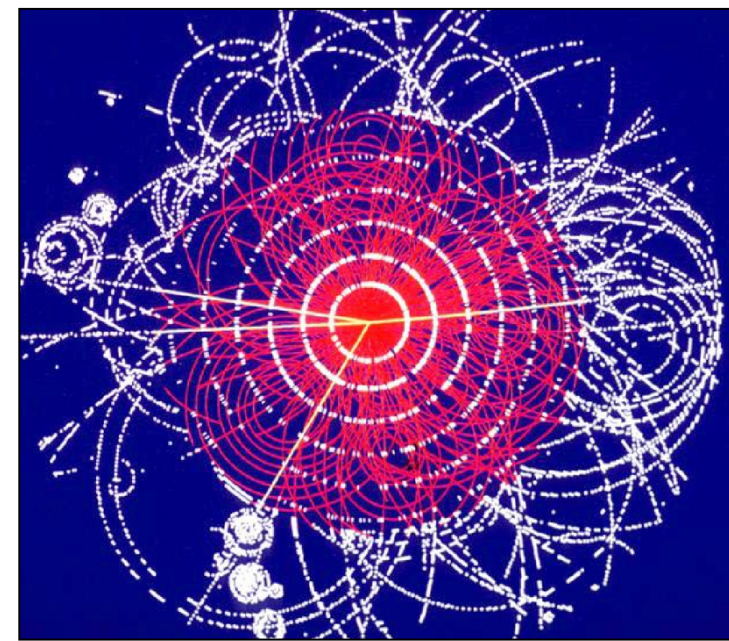
2 modes of particle accelerators: Fixed-target vs. Collider

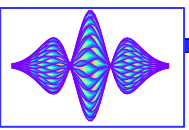


=> Figure of merit: **BEAM POWER**, to deliver a certain number of particles on target (p.o.t) / year

=> Figure of merit: **LUMINOSITY** (see after)

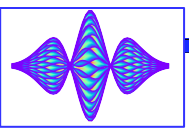
Short intro to colliders (luminosity and pile-up)





Why colliders?

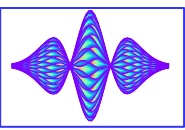




Why colliders? => Particle



discoveries and precision measurements



Why colliders? => Particle



discoveries and precision measurements

Accelerators contributed to 26 Nobel Prizes in physics
since 1939

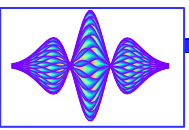
Courtesy of P. Lebrun

discoveries and precision measurements

Accelerators contributed to 26 Nobel Prizes in physics
since 1939

- 1939 Ernest O. Lawrence
- 1951 John D. Cockcroft & Ernest Walton
- 1952 Felix Bloch
- 1957 Tsung-Dao Lee & Chen Ning Yang
- 1959 Emilio G. Segrè & Owen Chamberlain
- 1960 Donald A. Glaser
- 1961 Robert Hofstadter
- 1963 Maria Goeppert Mayer
- 1967 Hans A. Bethe
- 1968 Luis W. Alvarez
- 1976 Burton Richter & Samuel C.C. Ting
- 1979 Sheldon L. Glashow, Abdus Salam & Steven Weinberg
- 1980 James W. Cronin & Val L. Fitch
- 1981 Kai M. Siegbahn
- 1983 William A. Fowler
- 1984 Carlo Rubbia & Simon van der Meer
- 1986 Ernst Ruska
- 1988 Leon M. Lederman, Melvin Schwartz & Jack Steinberger
- 1989 Wolfgang Paul
- 1990 Jerome I. Friedman, Henry W. Kendall & Richard E. Taylor
- 1992 Georges Charpak
- 1995 Martin L. Perl
- 2004 David J. Gross, Frank Wilczek & H. David Politzer
- 2008 Makoto Kobayashi & Toshihide Maskawa *Higgs boson in the CERN LHC (2012)*
- **2013 François Englert & Peter Higgs**
- 2015 Takaaki Kajita & Arthur B. MacDonald

Courtesy of P. Lebrun

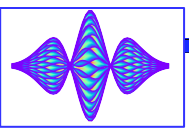


Short history of colliders



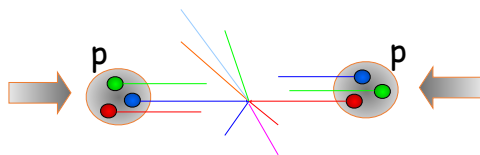
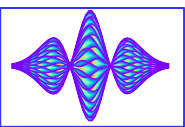
- 1943, R. Widerøe patents the concept of colliding beams in storage rings
 - 1961, the first electron-positron storage ring AdA is built in Frascati
 - 1971, CERN starts operating the ISR, first proton-proton collider
 - 1982, the CERN SPS is converted into a proton-antiproton collider
 - 1987, the TeVatron at Fermilab is converted into a proton-antiproton collider
 - 1987, the SSC, a 40 TeV proton-proton collider, is approved for construction in the USA. The project was subsequently cancelled in 1993.
-
- 1989, CERN starts operating the 26.7 km, high-energy electron-positron collider LEP
 - 1989, SLAC starts operating the SLC, first linear collider converted from the linac
 - 1991, HERA at DESY becomes the first proton-electron collider
 - 1999, RHIC at BNL becomes the first heavy-ion collider
 - 2008, CERN starts operation of the LHC, 14 TeV proton-proton collider
 - 2012, design studies are published for electron-positron linear colliders, ILC and CLIC
 - 2014, CERN launches design study for Future Circular Colliders (100 km circumference)

Courtesy of P. Lebrun



Hadrons vs. Leptons in circular colliders

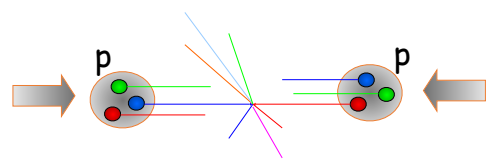




6 quarks

hadron collider => frontier of physics

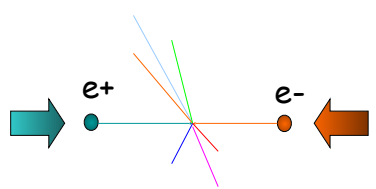
- discovery machine
- collisions of quarks
- not all nucleon energy available in collision
- huge background



6 quarks

hadron collider => frontier of physics

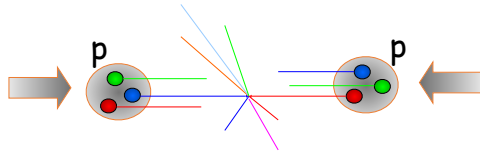
- discovery machine
- collisions of quarks
- not all nucleon energy available in collision
- huge background



2 leptons

lepton collider => precision physics

- study machine
- elementary particles collisions
- well defined CM energy
- polarization possible



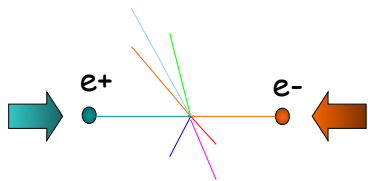
6 quarks

Limited by the dipole field available
and the ring size

$$p[\text{GeV}/c] \simeq 0.3B[\text{T}]\rho[\text{m}]$$

hadron collider => frontier of physics

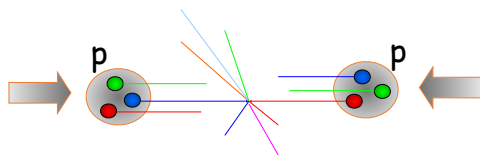
- discovery machine
- collisions of quarks
- not all nucleon energy available in collision
- huge background



2 leptons

lepton collider => precision physics

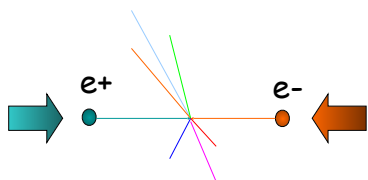
- study machine
- elementary particles collisions
- well defined CM energy
- polarization possible



6 quarks

hadron collider => frontier of physics

- discovery machine
- collisions of quarks
- not all nucleon energy available in collision
- huge background



2 leptons

lepton collider => precision physics

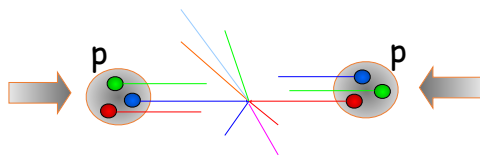
- study machine
- elementary particles collisions
- well defined CM energy
- polarization possible

Limited by the dipole field available and the ring size

$$p[\text{GeV}/c] \simeq 0.3B[\text{T}]\rho[\text{m}]$$



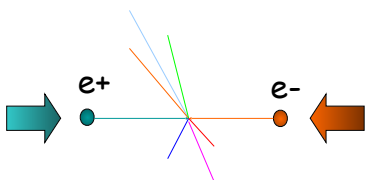
Go to higher magnetic fields
(=> Superconducting) or/and
large circumferences
(=> ten's km)



6 quarks

hadron collider => frontier of physics

- discovery machine
- collisions of quarks
- not all nucleon energy available in collision
- huge background



2 leptons

lepton collider => precision physics

- study machine
- elementary particles collisions
- well defined CM energy
- polarization possible

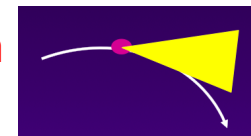
Limited by the dipole field available and the ring size

$$p[\text{GeV}/c] \simeq 0.3B[\text{T}]\rho[\text{m}]$$

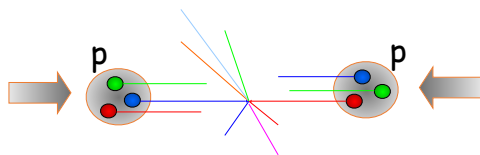


Go to higher magnetic fields
(=> Superconducting) or/and
large circumferences
(=> ten's km)

Limited by energy lost from synchrotron radiation



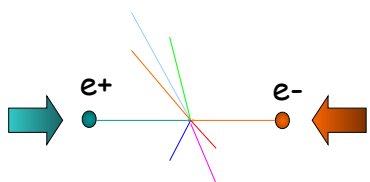
$$U_{lost} \propto \frac{E^4}{\rho E_0^4}$$



6 quarks

hadron collider => frontier of physics

- discovery machine
- collisions of quarks
- not all nucleon energy available in collision
- huge background



2 leptons

lepton collider => precision physics

- study machine
- elementary particles collisions
- well defined CM energy
- polarization possible

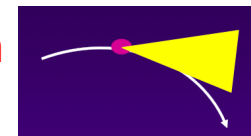
Limited by the dipole field available and the ring size

$$p[\text{GeV}/c] \simeq 0.3B[\text{T}]\rho[\text{m}]$$



Go to higher magnetic fields
(=> Superconducting) or/and
large circumferences
(=> ten's km)

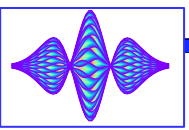
Limited by energy lost from synchrotron radiation



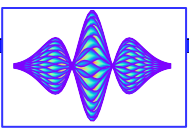
$$U_{lost} \propto \frac{E^4}{\rho E_0^4}$$



Go to linear colliders or heavier leptons

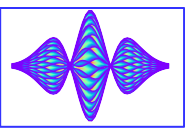


Luminosity: figure of merit of a collider



Luminosity: figure of merit of a collider

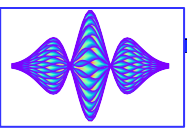
The number of events N_{exp} is the product of the cross-section of interest σ_{exp} and the time integral over the instantaneous luminosity $L(t)$



Luminosity: figure of merit of a collider

The number of events N_{exp} is the product of the cross-section of interest σ_{exp} and the time integral over the instantaneous luminosity $L(t)$

$$N_{exp} = \sigma_{exp} \times \int L(t) dt$$



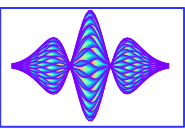
Luminosity:

figure of merit of a collider

The number of events N_{exp} is the product of the cross-section of interest σ_{exp} and the time integral over the instantaneous luminosity $L(t)$

$$N_{exp} = \sigma_{exp} \times \int L(t) dt$$

Detector



Luminosity:

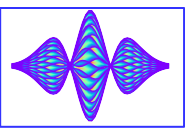
figure of merit of a collider

The number of events N_{exp} is the product of the cross-section of interest σ_{exp} and the time integral over the instantaneous luminosity $L(t)$

$$N_{exp} = \sigma_{exp} \times \int L(t) dt$$

Detector

Nature



Luminosity:

figure of merit of a collider

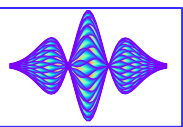
The number of events N_{exp} is the product of the cross-section of interest σ_{exp} and the time integral over the instantaneous luminosity $L(t)$

$$N_{exp} = \sigma_{exp} \times \int L(t) dt$$

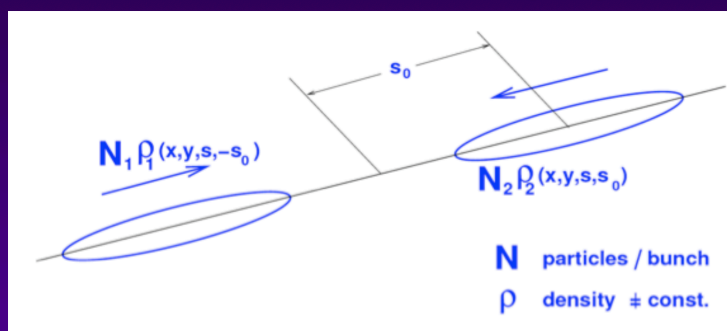
Detector

Nature

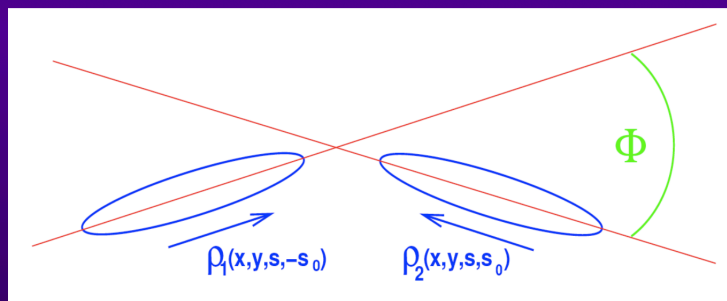
Accelerator



- Collision without crossing angle



- Collision with crossing angle (general case)



- Collision without crossing angle

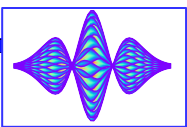
- Collision with crossing angle (general case)

◆ Luminosity in the absence of crossing angle (and transverse beam offset and hourglass effect => See later)

Number of bunches

$$M f_{rev} = f_{coll}$$

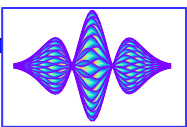
$$L = M N_1 N_2 f_{rev} 2 \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \rho_1(x, y, s, -s_0) \rho_2(x, y, s, s_0) dx dy ds ds_0$$



Luminosity for the **SIMPLEST** case



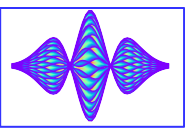
- ◆ With several assumptions



Luminosity for the **SIMPLEST** case



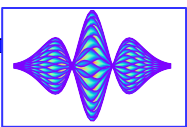
- ◆ With several assumptions
 - ✦ 1) Uncorrelated densities in all planes



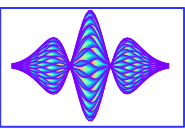
Luminosity for the **SIMPLEST** case



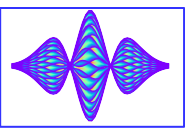
- ◆ With several assumptions
 - ✱ 1) Uncorrelated densities in all planes
 - ✱ 2) Gaussian distributions in all dimensions



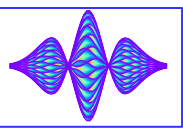
- ◆ With several assumptions
 - ✱ 1) Uncorrelated densities in all planes
 - ✱ 2) Gaussian distributions in all dimensions
 - ✱ 3) Same longitudinal dimension for both beams (rms beam size σ_s)



- ◆ With several assumptions
 - ✱ 1) Uncorrelated densities in all planes
 - ✱ 2) Gaussian distributions in all dimensions
 - ✱ 3) Same longitudinal dimension for both beams (rms beam size σ_s)
 - ✱ 4) Same transverse dimensions for both beams (rms beam sizes σ_x and σ_y)



- ◆ With several assumptions
 - ✱ 1) Uncorrelated densities in all planes
 - ✱ 2) Gaussian distributions in all dimensions
 - ✱ 3) Same longitudinal dimension for both beams (rms beam size σ_s)
 - ✱ 4) Same transverse dimensions for both beams (rms beam sizes σ_x and σ_y)
 - ✱ 5) No modifications during the bunch crossing

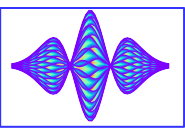


- ◆ With several assumptions
 - * 1) Uncorrelated densities in all planes
 - * 2) Gaussian distributions in all dimensions
 - * 3) Same longitudinal dimension for both beams (rms beam size σ_s)
 - * 4) Same transverse dimensions for both beams (rms beam sizes σ_x and σ_y)
 - * 5) No modifications during the bunch crossing

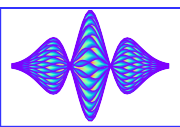
the simplest formula for the **peak luminosity** is obtained

$$L = \frac{M N_1 N_2 f_{rev}}{4 \pi \sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

Let's call it L_0

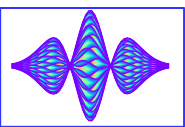


- ◆ Assuming now a round beam ($\sigma_x = \sigma_y = \sigma$), but flat optics can also be used, and the same bunch intensities ($N_1 = N_2 = N_b$), this leads to



- ◆ Assuming now a round beam ($\sigma_x = \sigma_y = \sigma$), but flat optics can also be used, and the same bunch intensities ($N_1 = N_2 = N_b$), this leads to

$$L_0 = \frac{M N_b^2 f_{rev} \beta \gamma}{4 \pi \beta^* \varepsilon_n}$$



- Assuming now a round beam ($\sigma_x = \sigma_y = \sigma$), but flat optics can also be used, and the same bunch intensities ($N_1 = N_2 = N_b$), this leads to

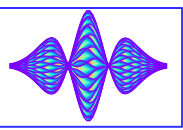
$$L_0 = \frac{M N_b^2 f_{rev} \beta \gamma}{4 \pi \beta^* \varepsilon_n}$$

using

$$\varepsilon_n = \beta \gamma \varepsilon = \beta \gamma \frac{\sigma^2}{\beta^*}$$

Normalized
transverse beam
emittance

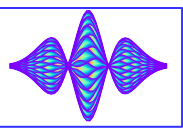
β -function at the
collision point



Luminosity for the **GENERAL** case

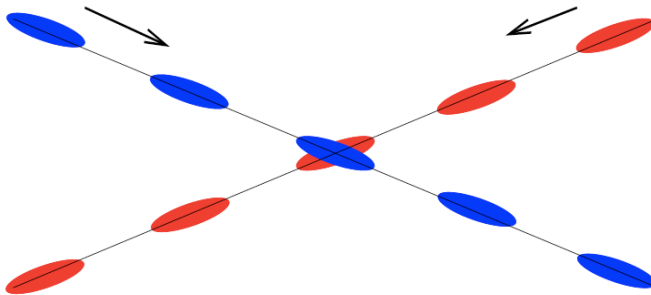


- ◆ In the general case: $L = L_0 \times F$ with $0 \leq F \leq 1$



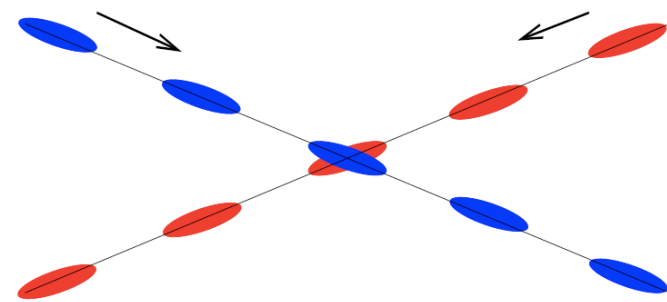
- ◆ In the general case: $L = L_0 \times F$ with $0 \leq F \leq 1$

* **Crossing angle**



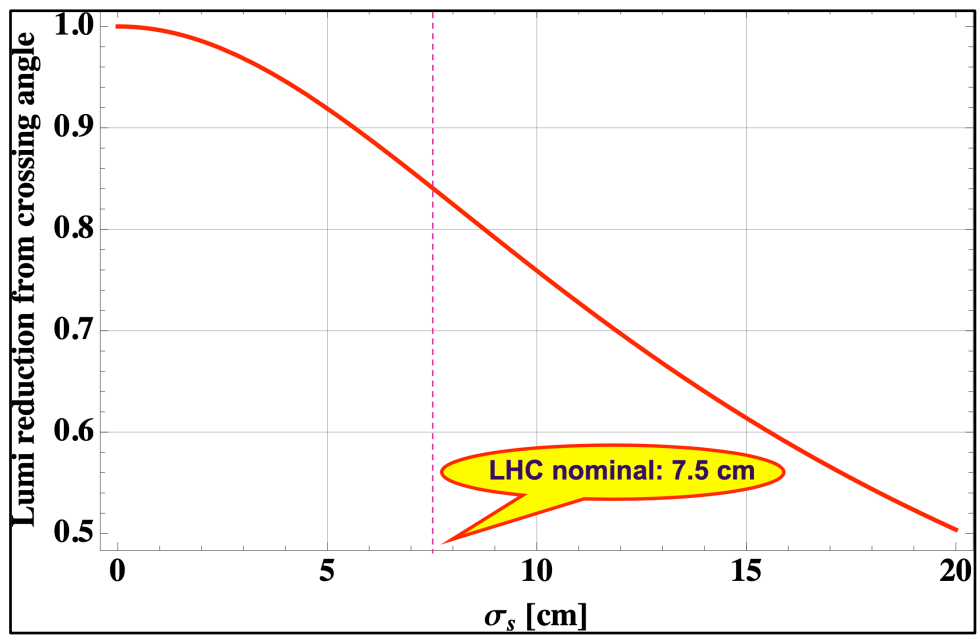
◆ In the general case: $L = L_0 \times F$ with $0 \leq F \leq 1$

* Crossing angle



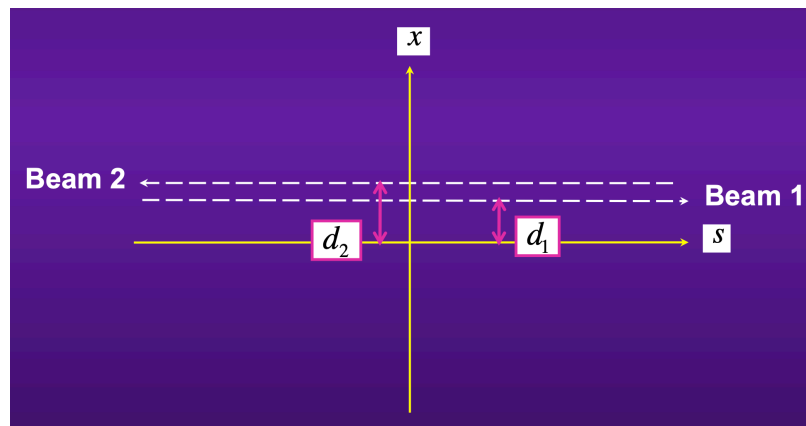
$$F_{CA} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_s}{\sigma_x} \tan \frac{\Phi}{2} \right)^2}}$$

$\tan \Phi / 2 \sim \Phi / 2$



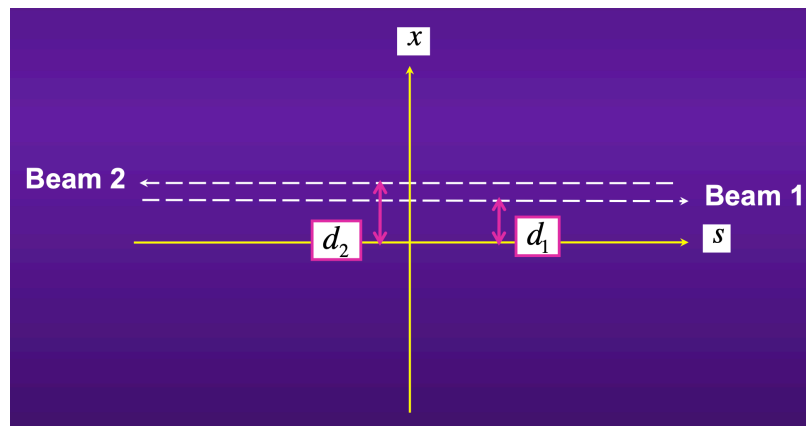
- ◆ In the general case: $L = L_0 \times F$ with $0 \leq F \leq 1$

* Transverse offset

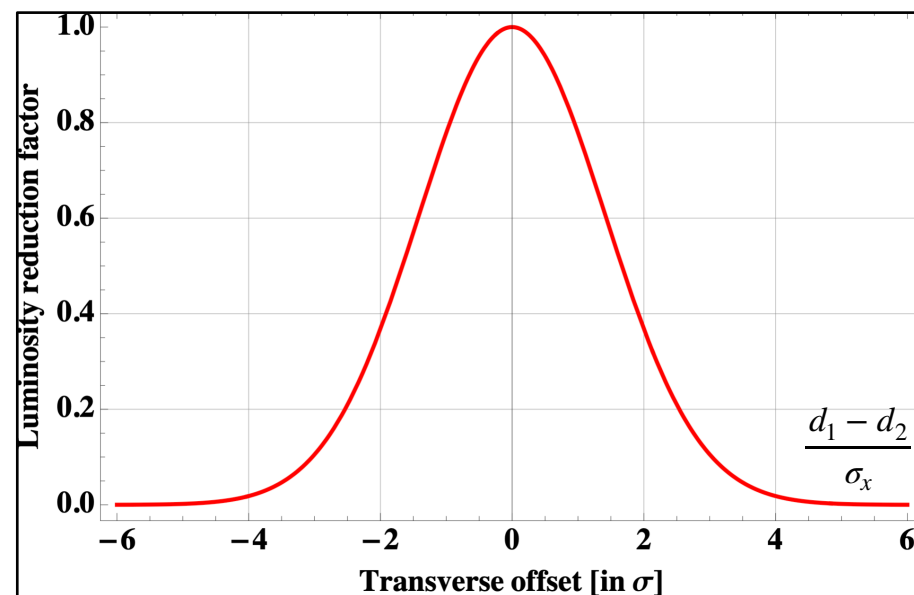


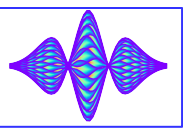
◆ In the general case: $L = L_0 \times F$ with $0 \leq F \leq 1$

* Transverse offset



$$F_{TO} = e^{-\left(\frac{d_1 - d_2}{2\sigma_x}\right)^2}$$





◆ In the general case: $L = L_0 \times F$ with $0 \leq F \leq 1$

* Hourglass effect

$$\beta(s) = \beta^* \left[1 + \left(\frac{s}{\beta^*} \right)^2 \right]$$

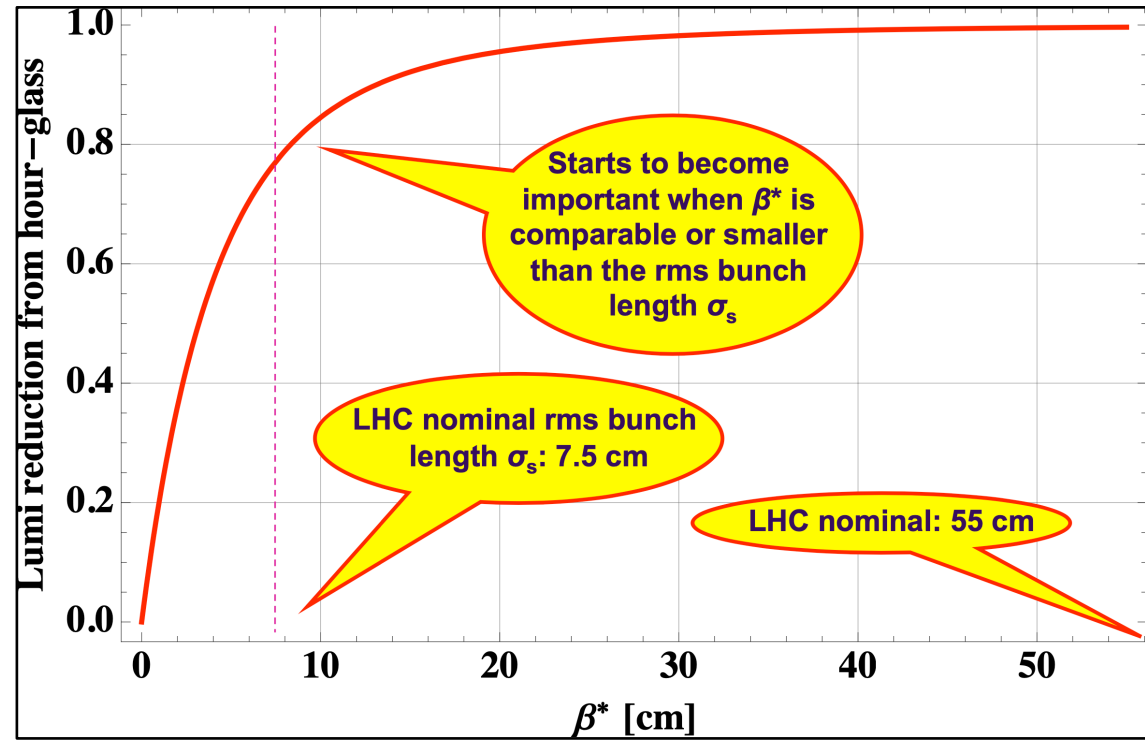
◆ In the general case: $L = L_0 \times F$ with $0 \leq F \leq 1$

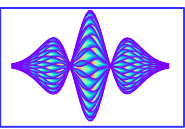
✳ Hourglass effect

$$\beta(s) = \beta^* \left[1 + \left(\frac{s}{\beta^*} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$L_{CA\&HG} = L_{CA} F_{HG}$$

$$F_{HG} = \frac{\sqrt{\frac{\sin^2 \frac{\Phi}{2}}{\sigma_x^{*2}} + \frac{\cos^2 \frac{\Phi}{2}}{\sigma_s^2}}}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} ds e^{-s^2 \left[\frac{\sin^2 \frac{\Phi}{2}}{\sigma_x^{*2} \left[1 + \left(\frac{s}{\beta^*} \right)^2 \right]} + \frac{\cos^2 \frac{\Phi}{2}}{\sigma_s^2} \right]}$$





- ◆ The unit of the cross-section (σ_{exp}) is the **barn**:

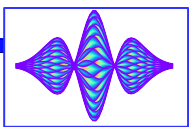
$$1 \text{ barn} = 10^{-28} \text{ m}^2 = 10^{-24} \text{ cm}^2$$

$$1 \text{ barn}^{-1} = 10^{28} \text{ m}^{-2} = 10^{24} \text{ cm}^{-2}$$

$$1 \text{ } \mu\text{b}^{-1} = 10^{34} \text{ m}^{-2} = 10^{30} \text{ cm}^{-2}$$

$$1 \text{ pb}^{-1} = 10^{40} \text{ m}^{-2} = 10^{36} \text{ cm}^{-2}$$

$$1 \text{ fb}^{-1} = 10^{43} \text{ m}^{-2} = 10^{39} \text{ cm}^{-2}$$



- ◆ The unit of the cross-section (σ_{exp}) is the **barn**:

$$1 \text{ barn} = 10^{-28} \text{ m}^2 = 10^{-24} \text{ cm}^2$$

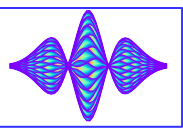
$$1 \text{ barn}^{-1} = 10^{28} \text{ m}^{-2} = 10^{24} \text{ cm}^{-2}$$

$$1 \text{ } \mu\text{b}^{-1} = 10^{34} \text{ m}^{-2} = 10^{30} \text{ cm}^{-2}$$

$$1 \text{ pb}^{-1} = 10^{40} \text{ m}^{-2} = 10^{36} \text{ cm}^{-2}$$

$$1 \text{ fb}^{-1} = 10^{43} \text{ m}^{-2} = 10^{39} \text{ cm}^{-2}$$

- ◆ The **inverse femtobarn (fb^{-1})** is the unit typically used to measure the number of particle collision events per femtobarn of target cross-section, and **is the conventional unit for time-integrated luminosity**



- ◆ The unit of the cross-section (σ_{exp}) is the **barn**:

$$1 \text{ barn} = 10^{-28} \text{ m}^2 = 10^{-24} \text{ cm}^2$$

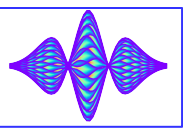
$$1 \text{ barn}^{-1} = 10^{28} \text{ m}^{-2} = 10^{24} \text{ cm}^{-2}$$

$$1 \text{ } \mu\text{b}^{-1} = 10^{34} \text{ m}^{-2} = 10^{30} \text{ cm}^{-2}$$

$$1 \text{ pb}^{-1} = 10^{40} \text{ m}^{-2} = 10^{36} \text{ cm}^{-2}$$

$$1 \text{ fb}^{-1} = 10^{43} \text{ m}^{-2} = 10^{39} \text{ cm}^{-2}$$

- ◆ **The inverse femtobarn (fb^{-1})** is the unit typically used to measure the number of particle collision events per femtobarn of target cross-section, and **is the conventional unit for time-integrated luminosity**
- ◆ Thus if a detector has accumulated 100 fb^{-1} of integrated luminosity, one expects to find 100 events per femtobarn of cross-section within these data



- ◆ **Pile-Up (PU) = Number of events / crossing for a given luminosity**

$$PU = \frac{L\sigma_{exp}}{Mf_{rev}}$$

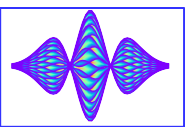
- This is a limit coming from the experiments' detectors => Better to have larger number of bunches (for the same beam intensity)
- ◆ In case the pile-up is too big, luminosity leveling techniques could be used to remain at the limit => Playing with the different parameters which can reduce the luminosity (transverse beam offset, β^* , etc.)

- ◆ **Pile-Up (PU) = Number of events / crossing for a given luminosity**

$$PU = \frac{L\sigma_{exp}}{Mf_{rev}}$$

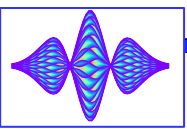
*PU = 19 from
LHC Design Report
(ATLAS and CMS)*

- This is a limit coming from the experiments' detectors => Better to have larger number of bunches (for the same beam intensity)
- ◆ In case the pile-up is too big, luminosity leveling techniques could be used to remain at the limit => Playing with the different parameters which can reduce the luminosity (transverse beam offset, β^* , etc.)



Summary: how to reach high luminosity in a collider?

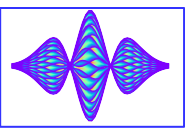




Summary: how to reach high luminosity in a collider?



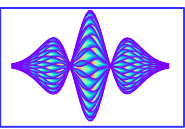
◆ High beam intensities



Summary: how to reach high luminosity in a collider?

◆ High beam intensities

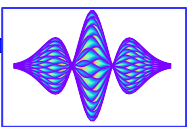
- High bunch intensity => More efficient (for the same beam intensity) but pile-up issue for the experiments' detectors



Summary: how to reach high luminosity in a collider?

◆ High beam intensities

- High bunch intensity => More efficient (for the same beam intensity) but pile-up issue for the experiments' detectors
- High number of bunches => Less efficient but better for the pile-up

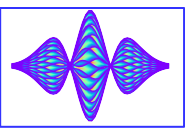


Summary: how to reach high luminosity in a collider?

◆ High beam intensities

- High bunch intensity => More efficient (for the same beam intensity) but pile-up issue for the experiments' detectors
- High number of bunches => Less efficient but better for the pile-up

◆ Small transverse beam sizes (small transverse emittance and beta function at the IP)



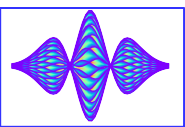
Summary: how to reach high luminosity in a collider?

◆ High beam intensities

- High bunch intensity => More efficient (for the same beam intensity) but pile-up issue for the experiments' detectors
- High number of bunches => Less efficient but better for the pile-up

◆ Small transverse beam sizes (small transverse emittance and beta function at the IP)

◆ High energy



Summary: how to reach high luminosity in a collider?

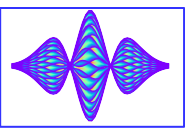
◆ High beam intensities

- High bunch intensity => More efficient (for the same beam intensity) but pile-up issue for the experiments' detectors
- High number of bunches => Less efficient but better for the pile-up

◆ Small transverse beam sizes (small transverse emittance and beta function at the IP)

◆ High energy

◆ Small crossing angle



Summary: how to reach high luminosity in a collider?

◆ High beam intensities

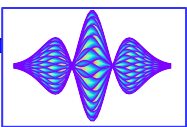
- High bunch intensity => More efficient (for the same beam intensity) but pile-up issue for the experiments' detectors
- High number of bunches => Less efficient but better for the pile-up

◆ Small transverse beam sizes (small transverse emittance and beta function at the IP)

◆ High energy

◆ Small crossing angle

◆ Small transverse offset



Summary: how to reach high luminosity in a collider?

◆ High beam intensities

- High bunch intensity => More efficient (for the same beam intensity) but pile-up issue for the experiments' detectors
- High number of bunches => Less efficient but better for the pile-up

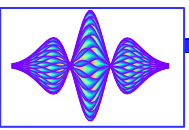
◆ Small transverse beam sizes (small transverse emittance and beta function at the IP)

◆ High energy

◆ Small crossing angle

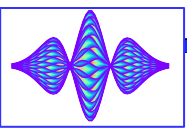
◆ Small transverse offset

◆ Short bunches



6 major challenges for future high-energy colliders?

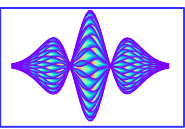




6 major challenges for future high-energy colliders?



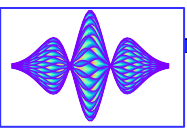
1. Synchrotron radiation



6 major challenges for future high-energy colliders?



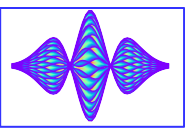
1. Synchrotron radiation
2. Bending magnetic fields



6 major challenges for future high-energy colliders?



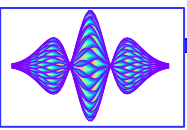
1. Synchrotron radiation
2. Bending magnetic fields
3. Accelerating gradient



6 major challenges for future high-energy colliders?



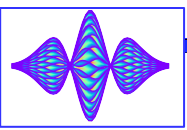
1. Synchrotron radiation
2. Bending magnetic fields
3. Accelerating gradient
4. Particle production (e^+ , \bar{p} , μ)



6 major challenges for future high-energy colliders?



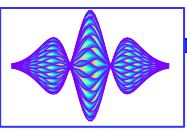
1. Synchrotron radiation
2. Bending magnetic fields
3. Accelerating gradient
4. Particle production (e^+ , \bar{p} , μ)
5. Power consumption and sustainability



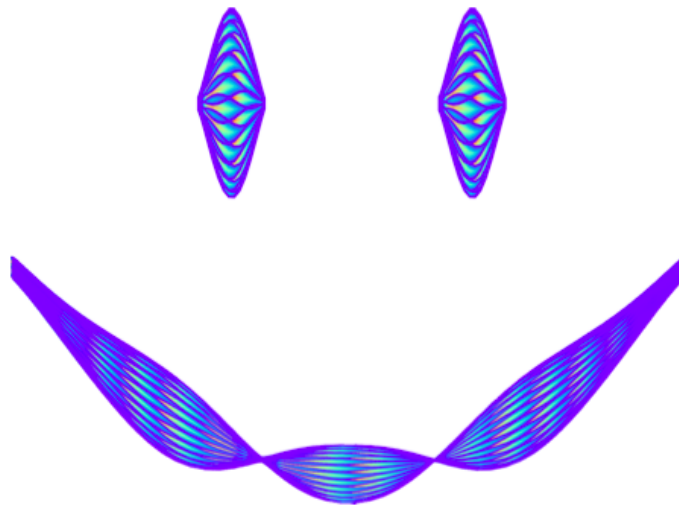
6 major challenges for future high-energy colliders?

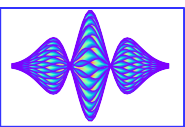


1. Synchrotron radiation
2. Bending magnetic fields
3. Accelerating gradient
4. Particle production (e^+ , \bar{p} , μ)
5. Power consumption and sustainability
6. Cost



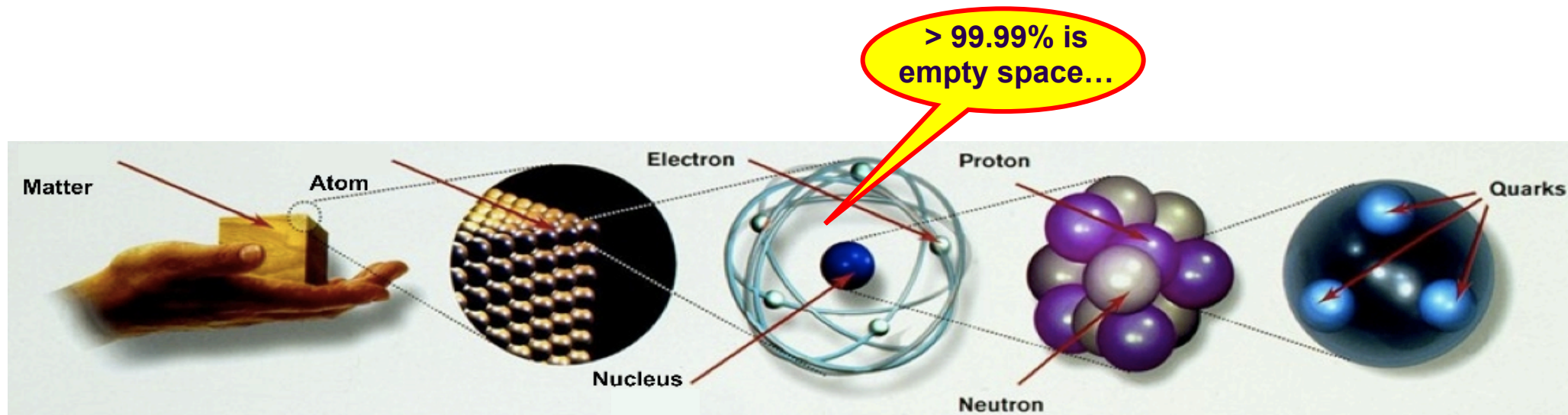
**Many thanks for your attention
and welcome to the fascinating
world of particle accelerators!**

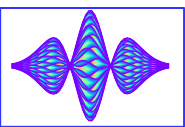




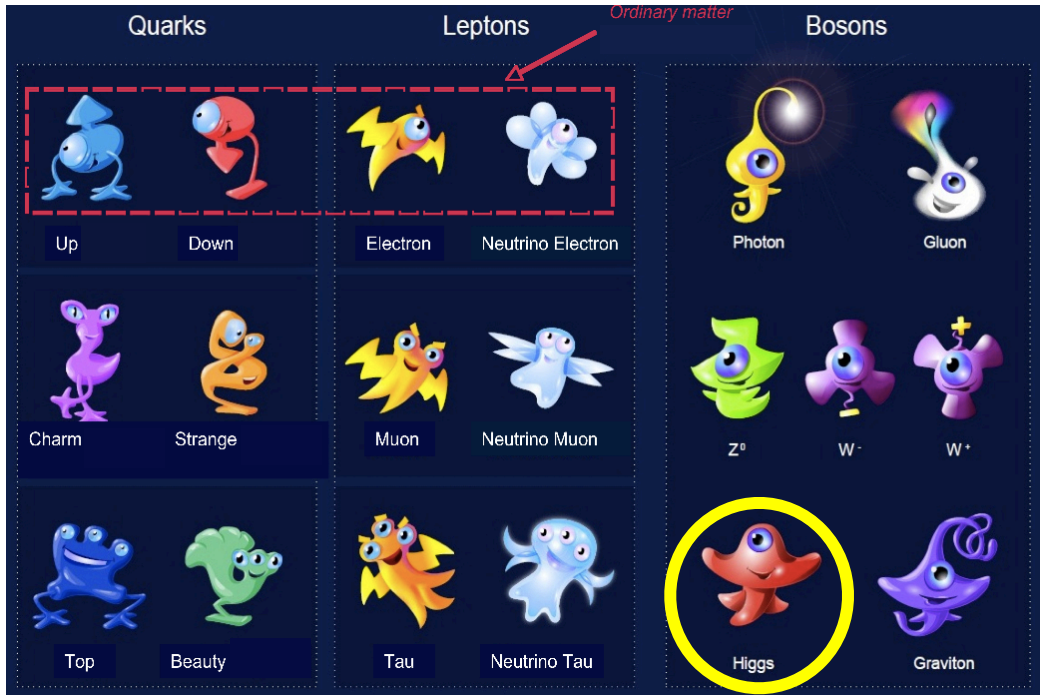
APPENDIX

- ◆ After a century of discoveries and measurements, the particle physicists have developed the Standard Model, explaining almost all the components of matter and the forces between them

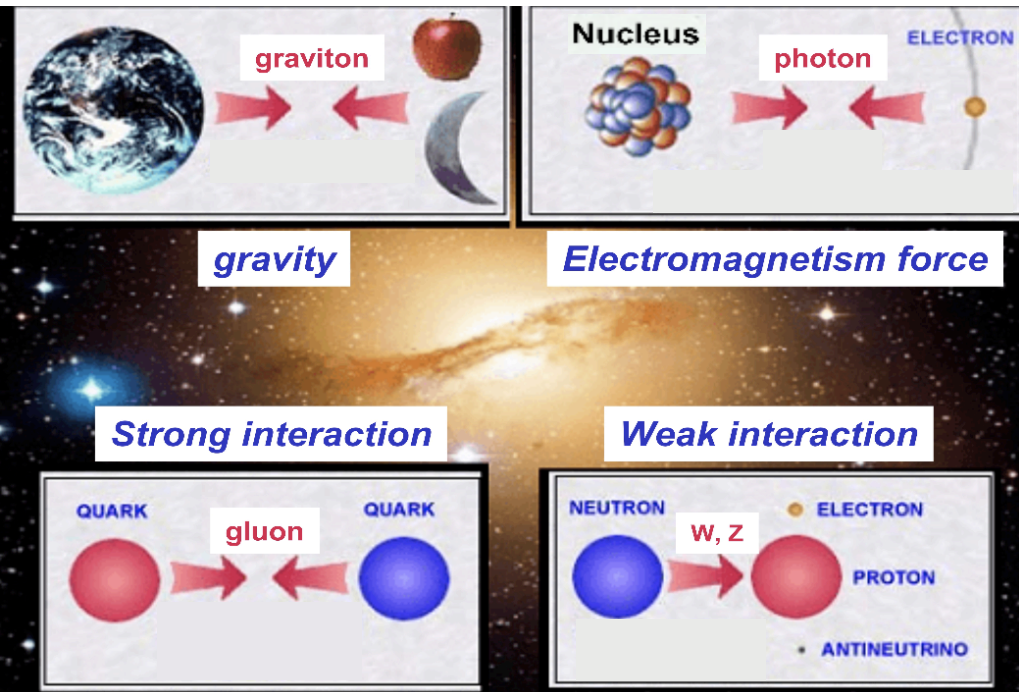
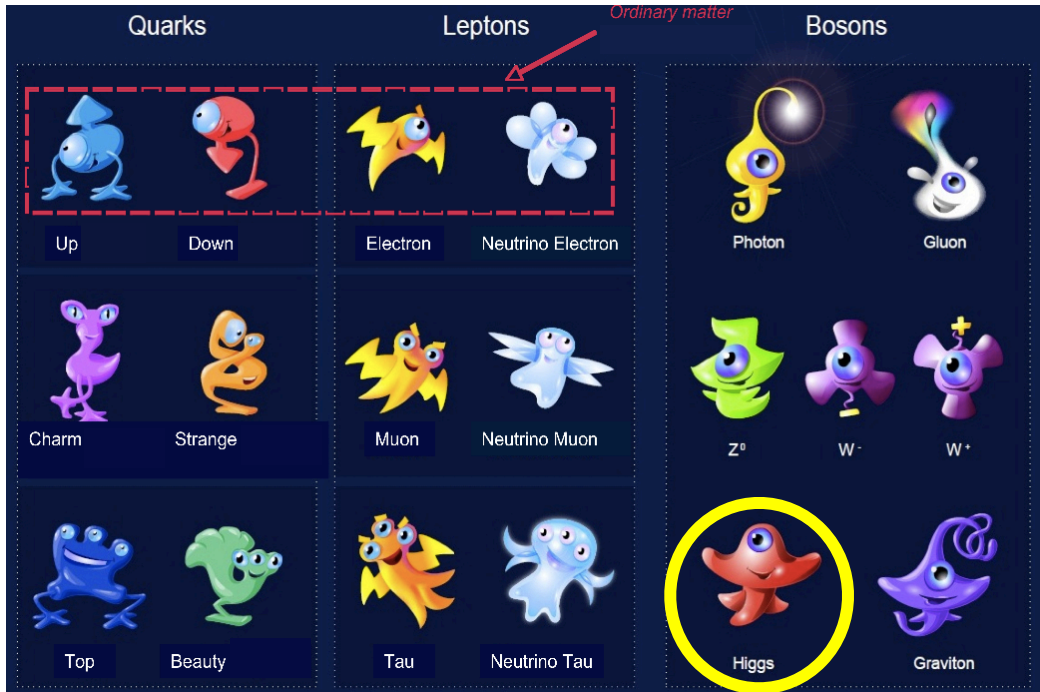


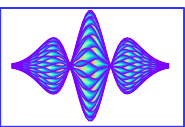


Standard Model

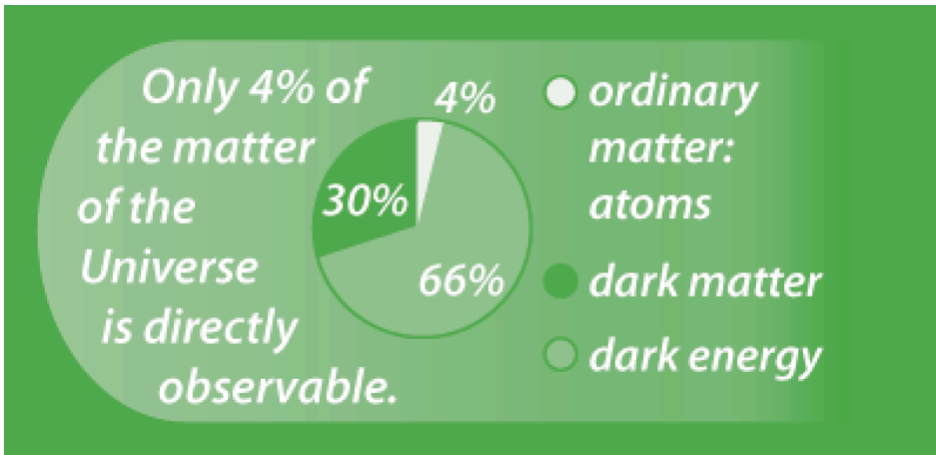
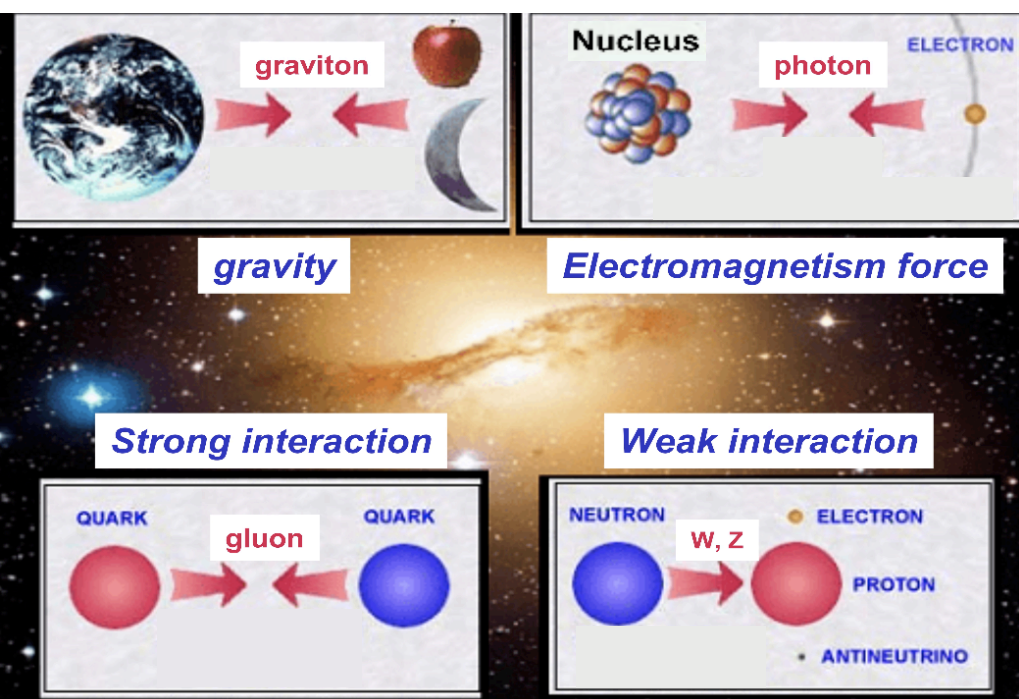
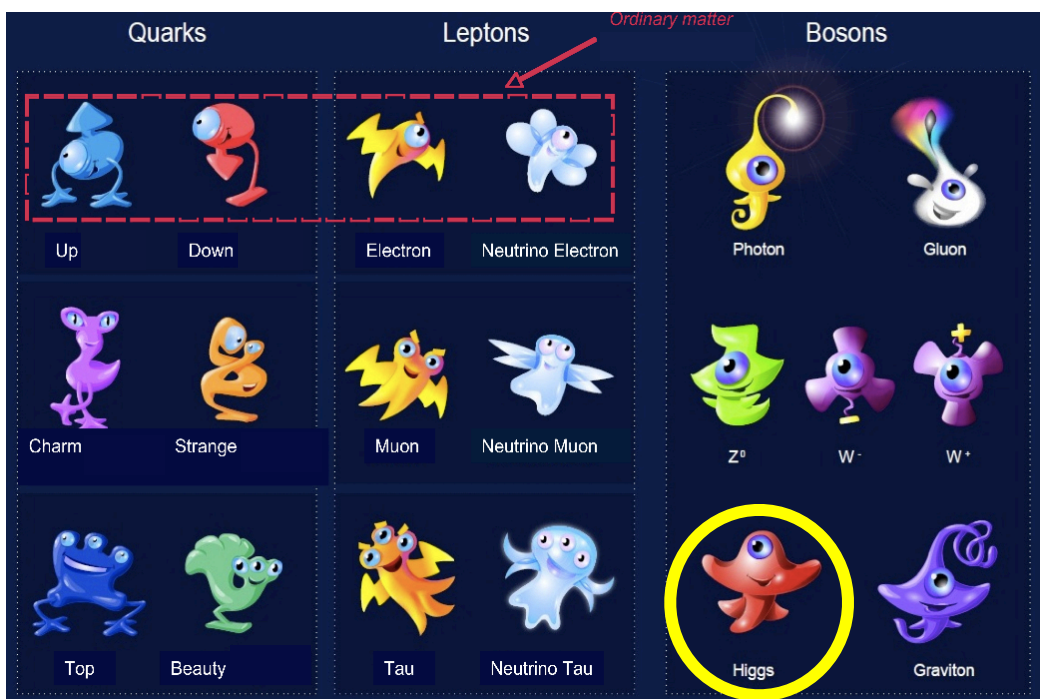


Standard Model





Standard Model



■ Components of matter

- **Fermions (1/2 integer spin*)**
 - ◇ 12 quarks (6 q + 6 anti-q)
 - ◇ 12 leptons (6 l + 6 anti-l)

Main distinction between quarks and leptons is that there is NO strong interaction for the leptons

- **Bosons (integer spin*)**

** The spin of a particle is a quantum characteristic, often represented by a "toupie" rotating around an axis*

- By assembling quarks we create **HADRONS** (= Heavy in Greek) => 2 families

- **BARYONS** (odd number of quarks => 1/2 integer spin)
Ex: p⁺, n
- **MESONS** (even number of quarks => Integer spin)
Ex: pion

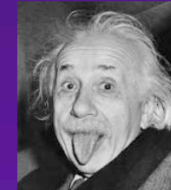
Leptons => Light in Greek

◆ The 2 roles of energy

1) Producing new particles (see before)

2) Resolving the inner structure of matter

| Object | Size [m] | Energy needed [GeV] |
|---------|-----------------|---------------------|
| Atom | 10^{-10} | $\sim 10^{-5}$ |
| Nucleus | 10^{-14} | ~ 0.1 |
| Nucleon | 10^{-15} | ~ 1 |
| Quark | $\sim 10^{-19}$ | $\sim 10^4$ |



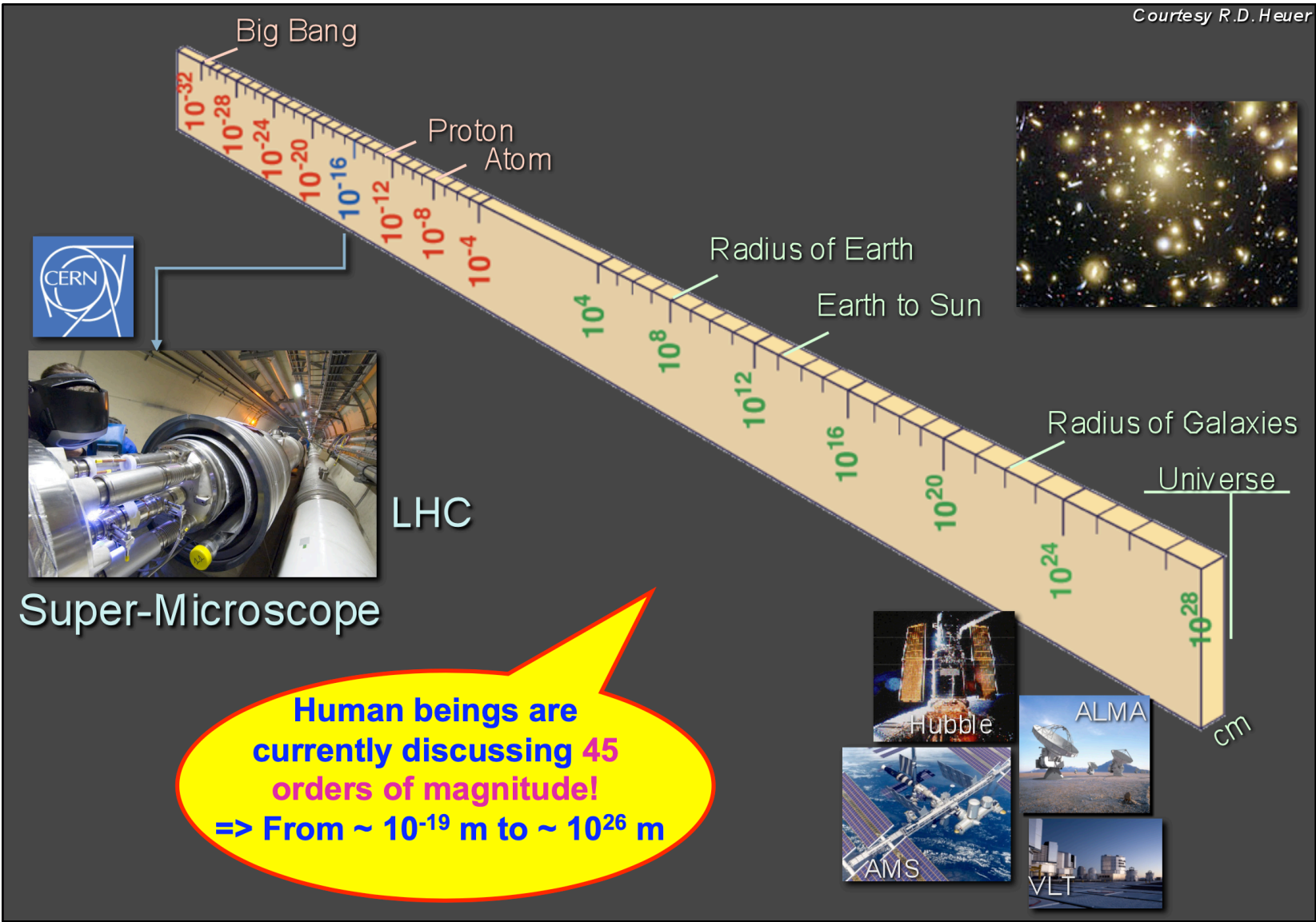
$$E = \frac{h c}{\lambda}$$

*Wavelength =>
Should be < object
to be resolved*

*Planck constant
 $\approx 6.62 \cdot 10^{-34}$ Js*

Energy

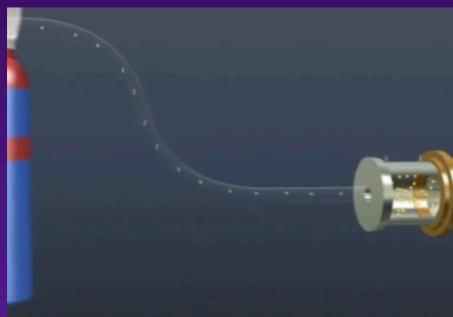
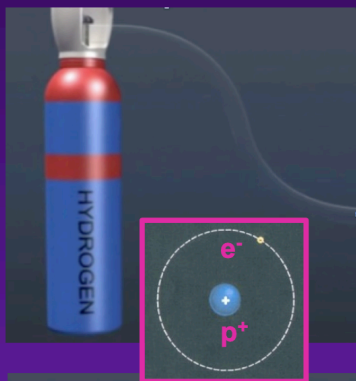
Courtesy R.D. Heuer



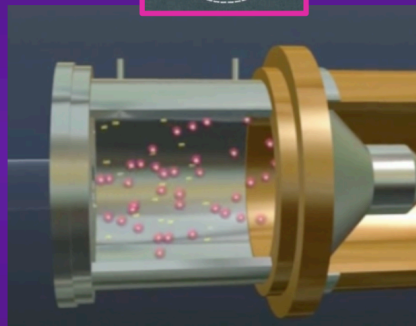
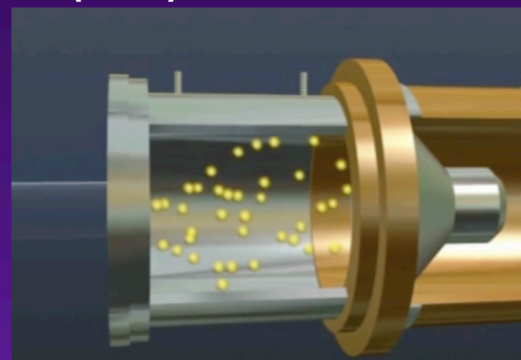
Human beings are currently discussing 45 orders of magnitude!
=> From $\sim 10^{-19}$ m to $\sim 10^{26}$ m

The CERN LHC

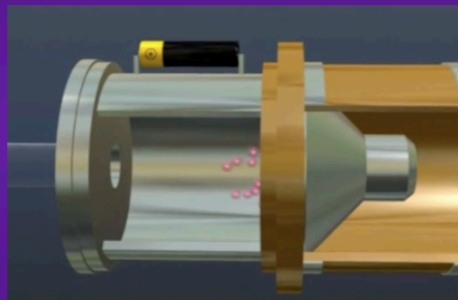
THE LHC: HOW DOES IT WORK? (1/34)



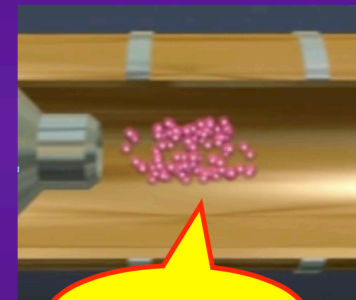
H atoms are taken from a bottle



p⁺ created by stripping orbiting e⁻ from H atoms



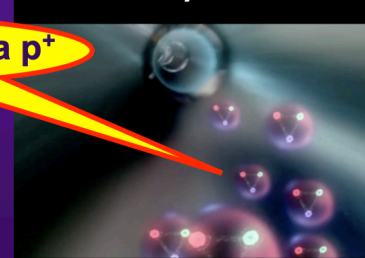
Acceleration by **electric fields** (voltage differences)



Bunch of p⁺



The 3 quarks of a p⁺



“collision” or “interaction”

Guidance and focalization by **magnetic fields**

Beam power for fixed-target experiments

- ◆ The European Spallation Source (ESS) in Lund (Sweden) is a multi-disciplinary research facility based on the world's brightest pulsed neutron source driven by **the most powerful proton linac (5 MW)**
- ◆ ESS will start the scientific user programme in 2025

$$P_{beam} = \frac{Energy}{e} \times Current \times RepRate \times PulseLength = 5 MW.$$

