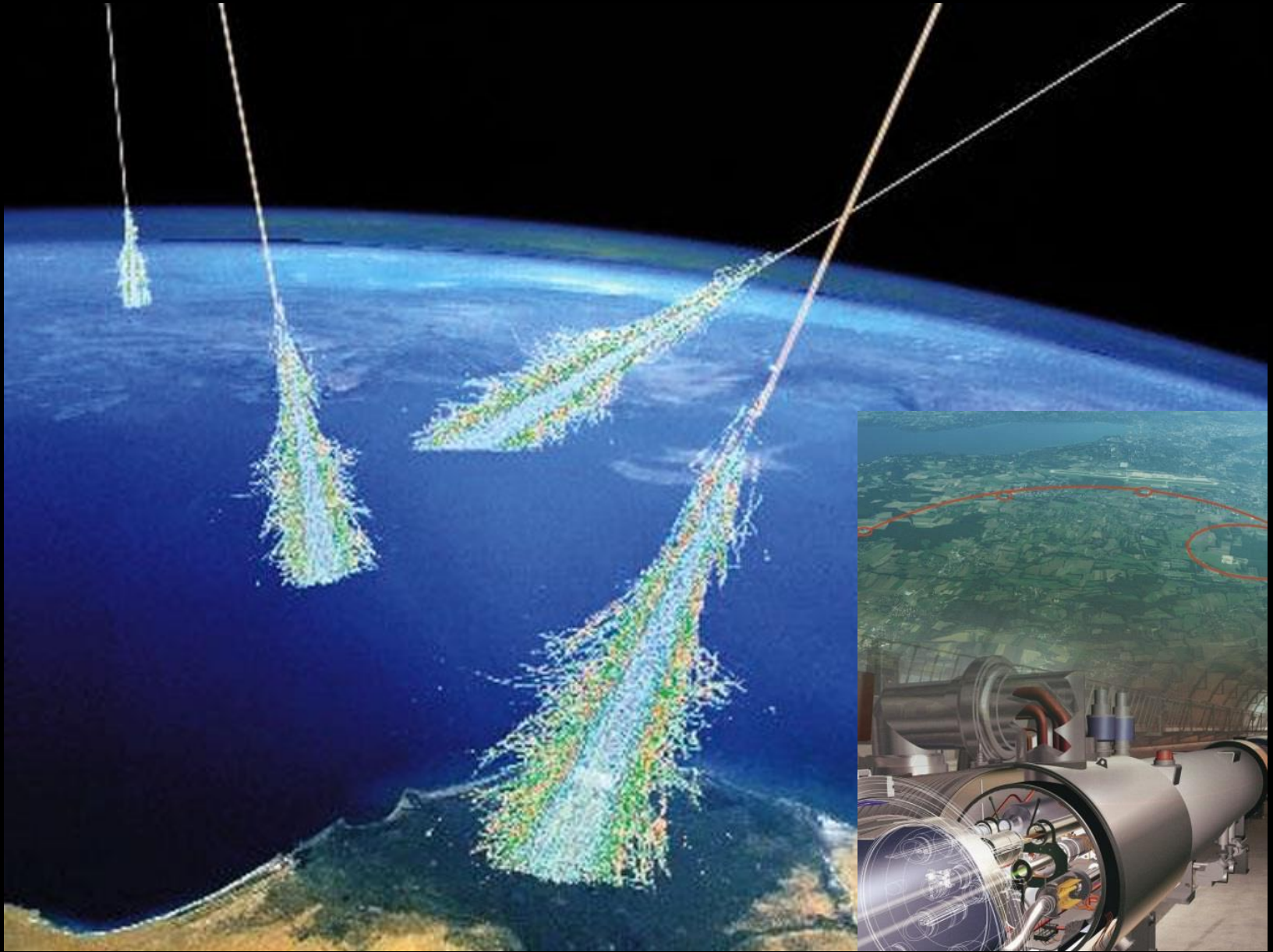


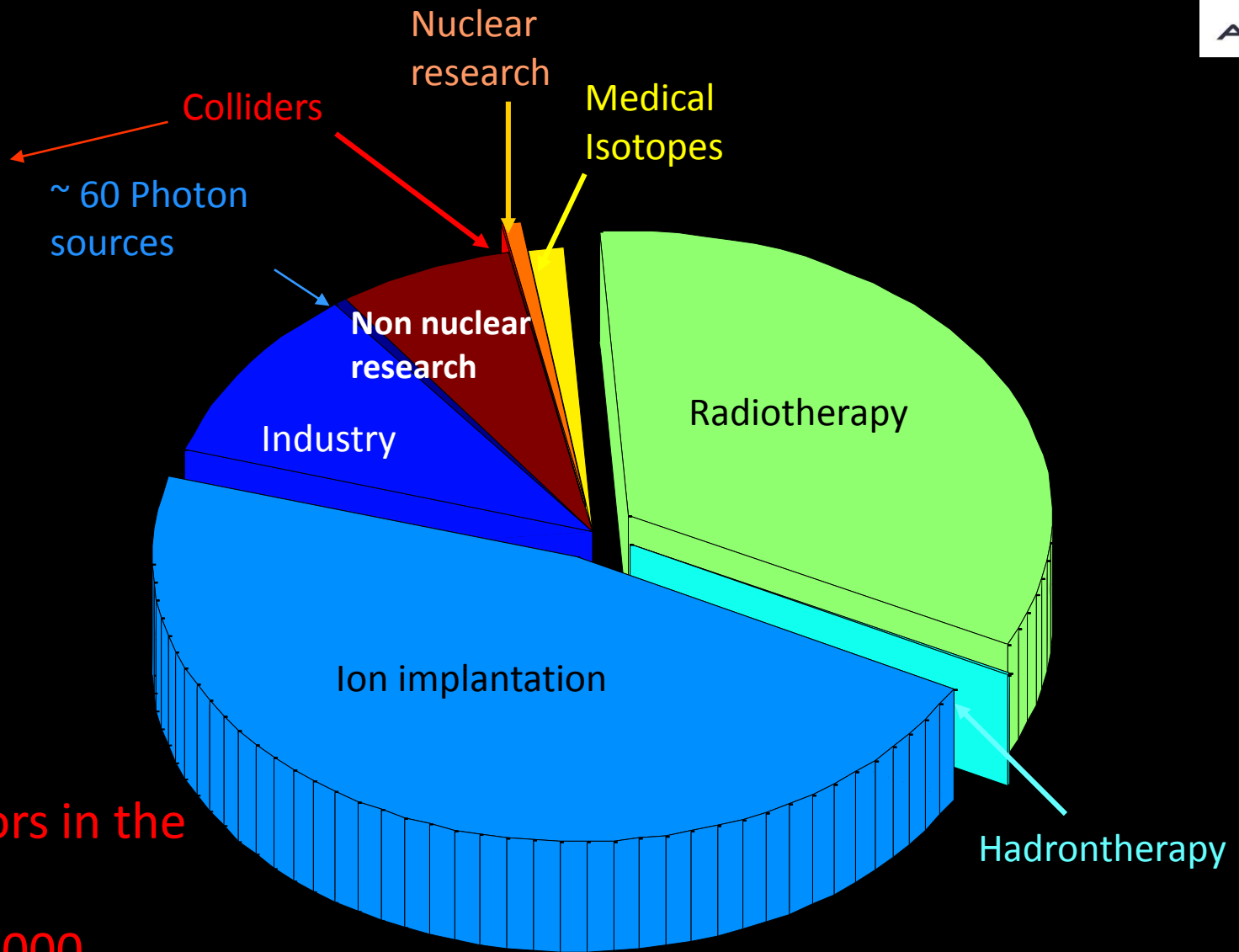


Introduction to Accelerators





- 1 CERN
- 1 Italy
- 2 Russia
- 1 China
- 1 USA
- 1 Japan



Accelerators in the world:
around 30000
(15000 in 2000)



Livingston's chart of accelerators – ~ One century of history

BASICS OF ACCELERATORS AND OF THE ART OF INVENTIVENESS 5

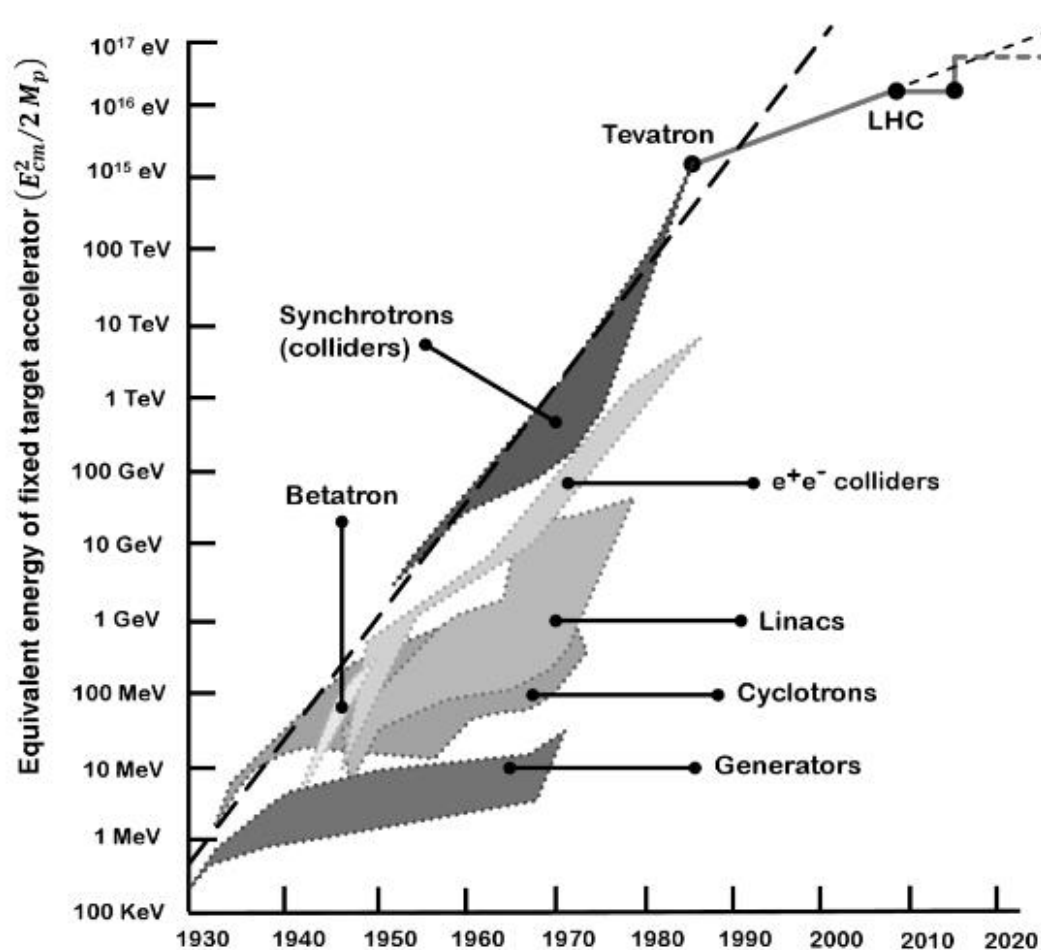
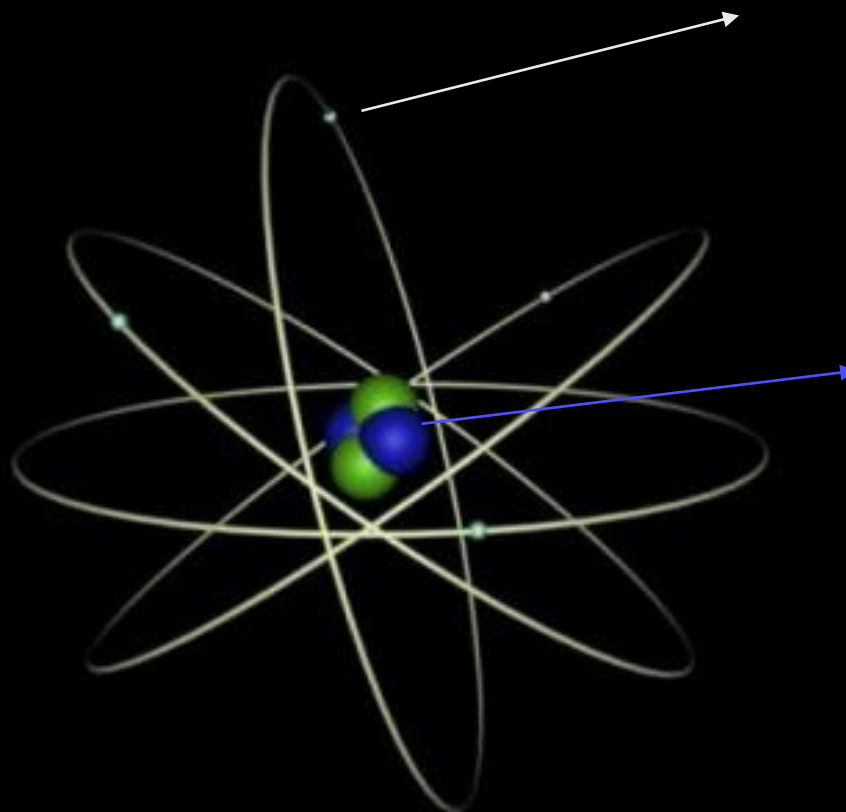


FIGURE 1.6
Livingston plot of evolution of accelerators.

Nearly nine decades of continued growth in the energy reach of accelerators
Driven by continuous innovation in acceleration techniques
Many new acceleration techniques developed to keep pushing the energy frontier

Particle in the accelerators = = charged particles



Electrons

Mass = 9.1×10^{-31} kg

Protons

Mass = $1,7 \times 10^{-27}$ kg

and ions

ATOM



Relativity

For the most part, we will use SI units, except

- *Energy: eV (keV, MeV, etc) [1 eV = 1.6x10⁻¹⁹ J]*
- *Mass: eV/c² [proton = 1.67x10⁻²⁷ kg = 938 MeV/c²]*
- *Momentum: eV/c [proton @ β=.9 = 1.94 GeV/c]*

$$\beta \equiv \frac{v}{c} = \frac{pc}{E}$$

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

momentum $p = \gamma mv$

total energy $E = \gamma mc^2$

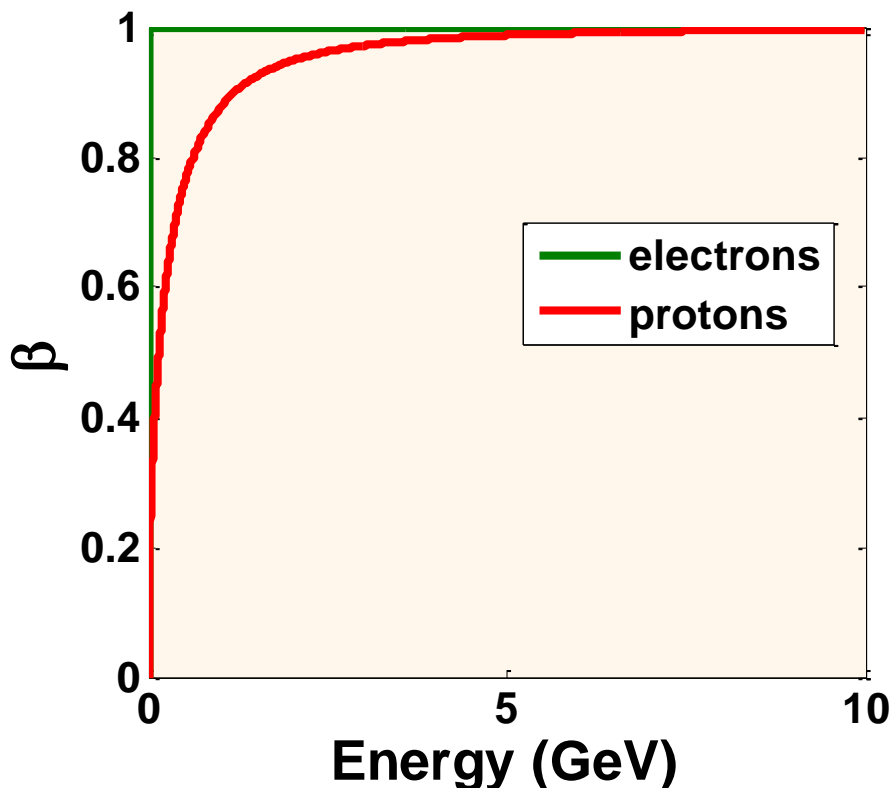
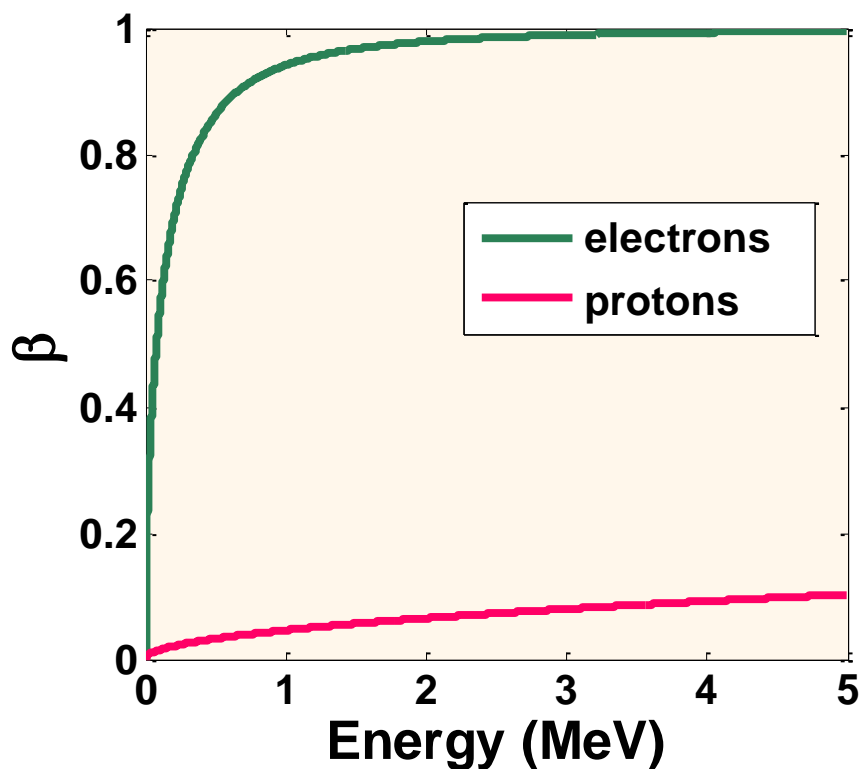
kinetic energy $K = E - mc^2$

$$E^2 = \sqrt{(mc^2)^2 + (pc)^2}$$



Particle velocity as a function of kinetic energy

$$\beta = \frac{v}{c} \quad \beta = 1 \longrightarrow \text{Particle at light velocity } c$$



Electrons are ultrarelativistic at few MeV
Protons at few GeV (mass ~ 2000 times electron mass)

Lorentz's Force

Particle dynamics are governed by the Lorentz force law

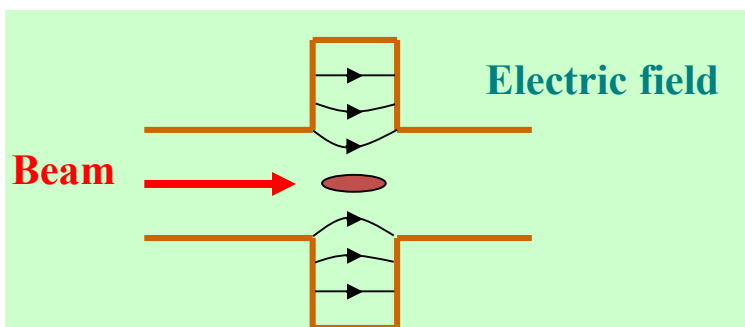
$$\vec{F} = q(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B})$$

$$\vec{F} = m \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} \quad \text{for } v \ll c$$

$$\vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} \quad \text{for any } v$$

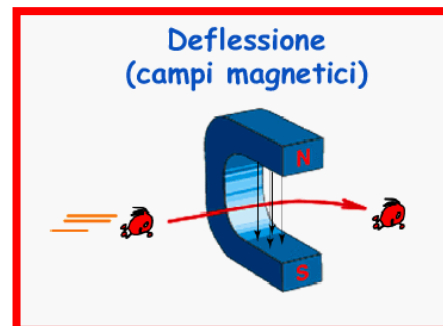
Acceleration

\vec{E} = electric field



Bending and focusing

\vec{B} = magnetic field





Main systems of an accelerator

- Sources
- Rf cavities
- Magnets
- Vacuum system
- Beam diagnostics
- Control system



Main accelerators types and their major utilization

LINACs

Radiotherapy, FELs,
neutron sources,
colliders, injectors

Cyclotrons

Isotope production,
proton therapy, nuclear
physics, neutron
sources

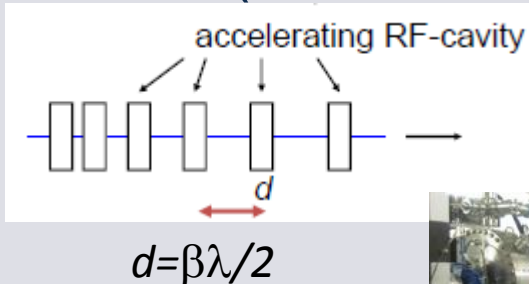
Synchrotrons

colliders, photon
sources, injectors

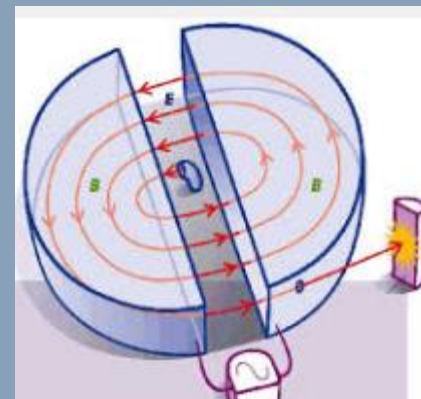
**Others: betatrons, van
der Graaf,
electrostatic, FFAG,
ERL,...**

Main accelerators types and their major utilization

Linac (Linear Accelerator)

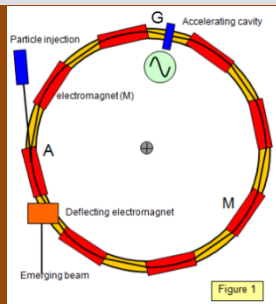


Cyclotron



$$\omega_o = \frac{qB}{m} = \omega_{RF} = \text{costante}$$

Synchrotron





Main accelerators applications and their typical parameters

Colliders (LHC, SuperKEKB,...)

e^+ , e^- , p , p^- , ions

Energy, Luminosity

Photon Sources (ESRF, LCLS, ALBA,...)

electrons

Energy, Brilliance

HPPA (SNS, GSI, ESS,...)

Protons

Energy, Power

Medical applications

(radio and hadrontherapy)

e^- , p , C ions,

Energy, Dose



Colliders

Colliders have made the history of particle physics

Beam beam collision

Fixed target collision

$$W \cong 2\sqrt{E_1 E_2}$$

$$W \cong \sqrt{2E m_t}$$

$W = 1 \text{ GeV}$ in the center of mass

$$E_1 = E_2 = 0.5 \text{ GeV}$$

$$E = 1000 \text{ GeV (e-)}$$

$W = 100 \text{ GeV}$ in the center of mass

$$E_1 = E_2 = 50 \text{ GeV}$$

$$E = 10^7 \text{ GeV (e-)}$$



Colliders

Hadron colliders ->

Lepton colliders - >

Hadron-Lepton Colliders ->

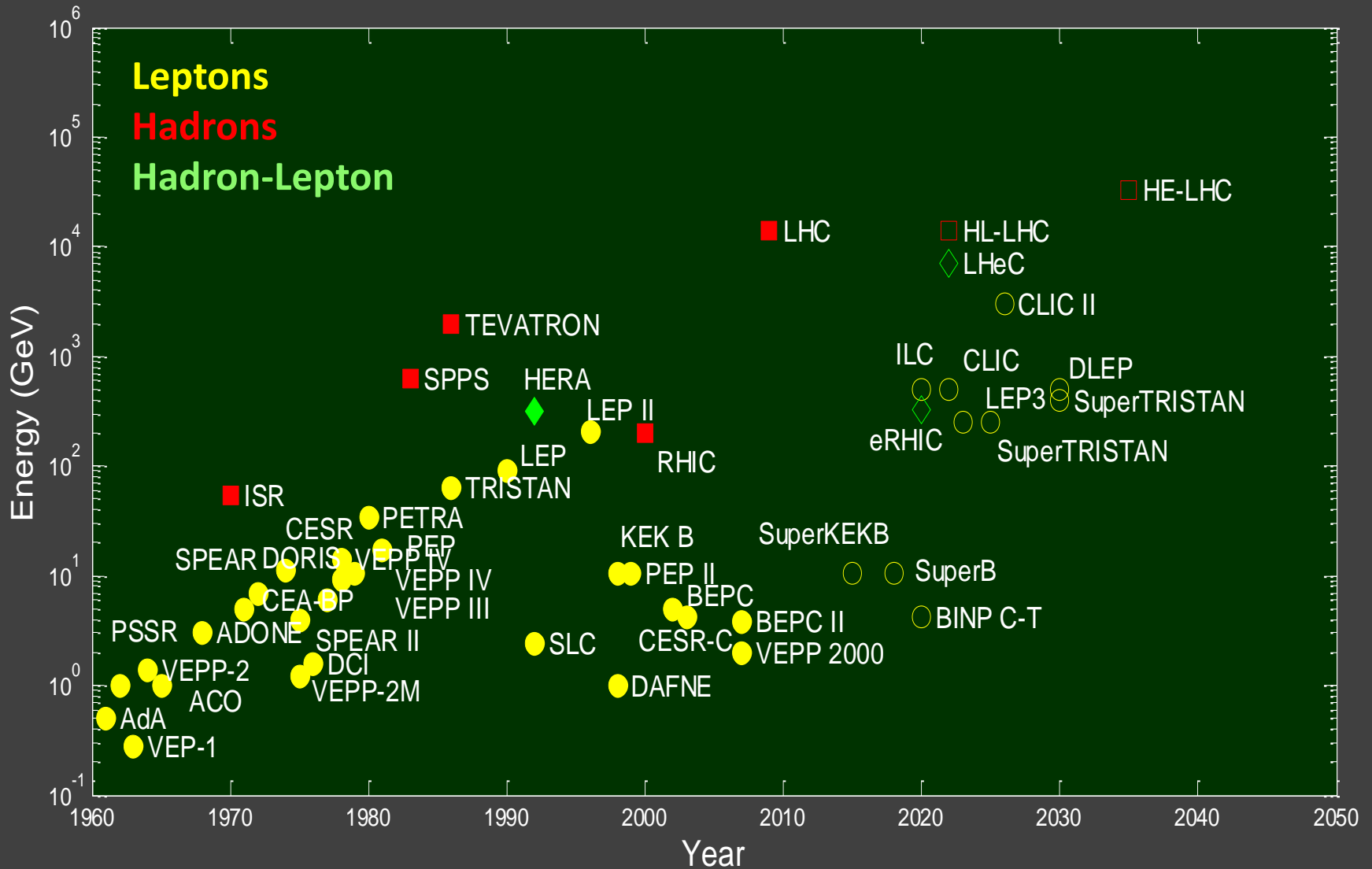
Discovery experiments

Precision experiments

Leptons used to probe
hadron structures

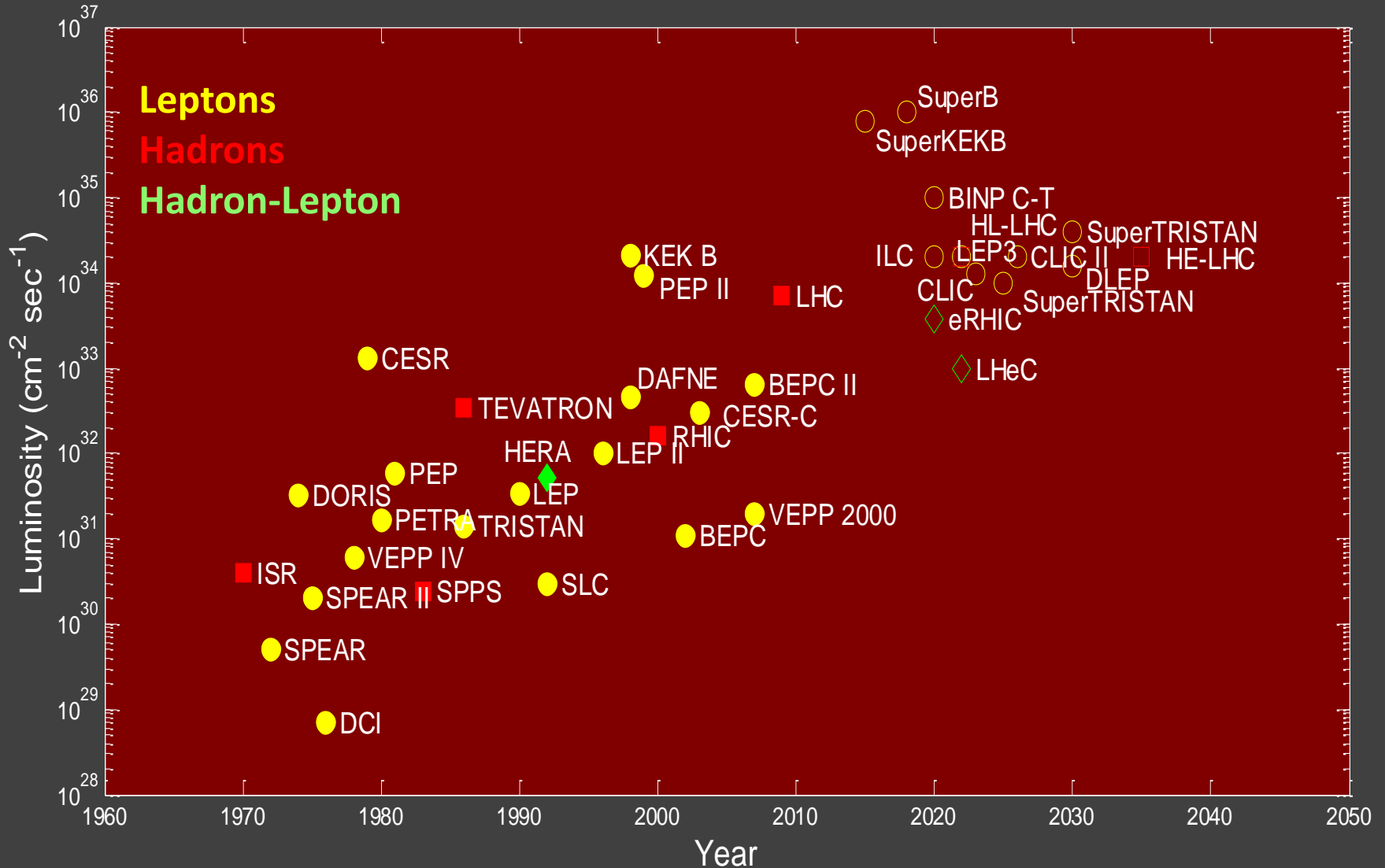


Collider energies



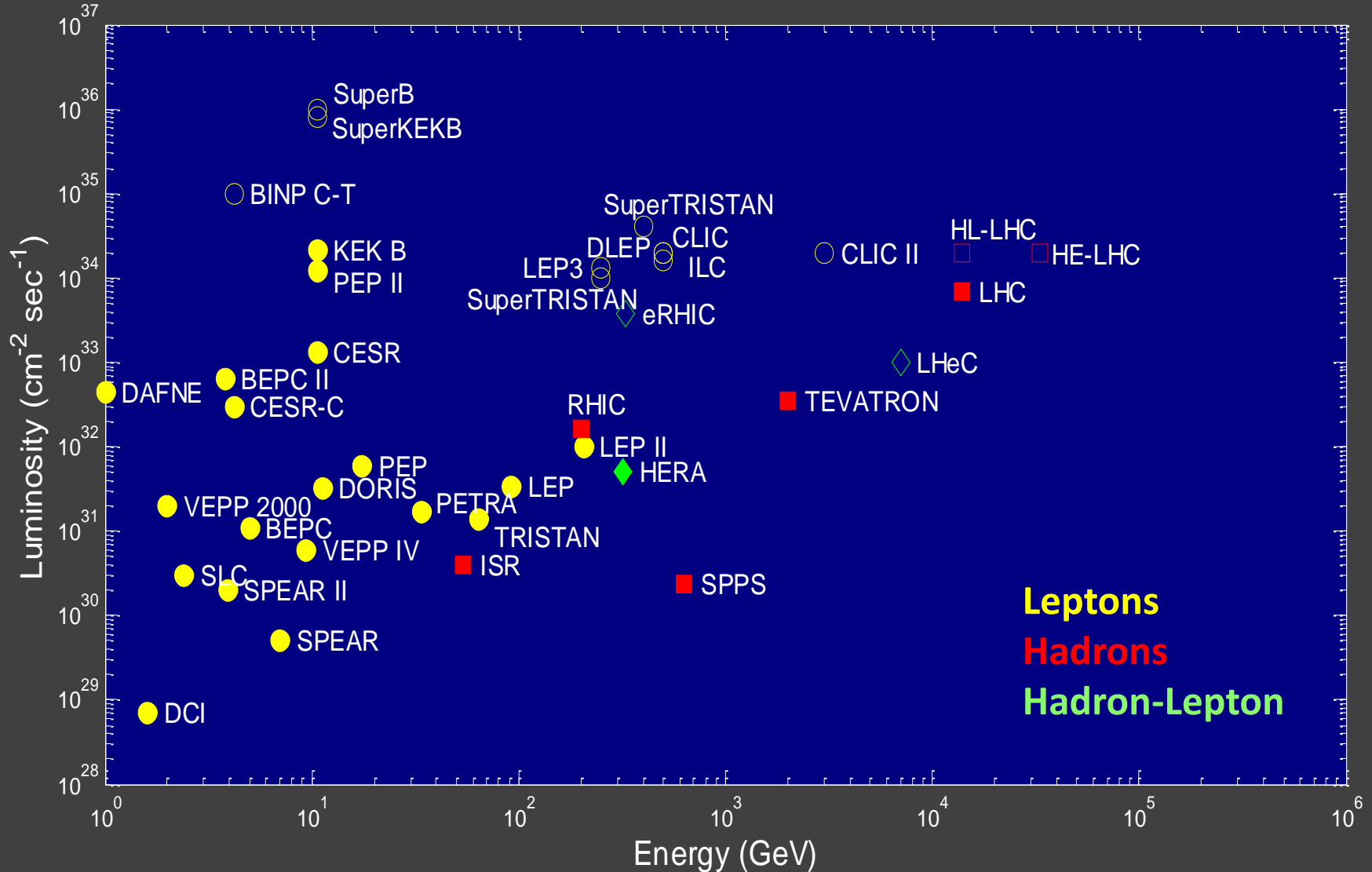


Collider luminosities





Luminosity versus Energy



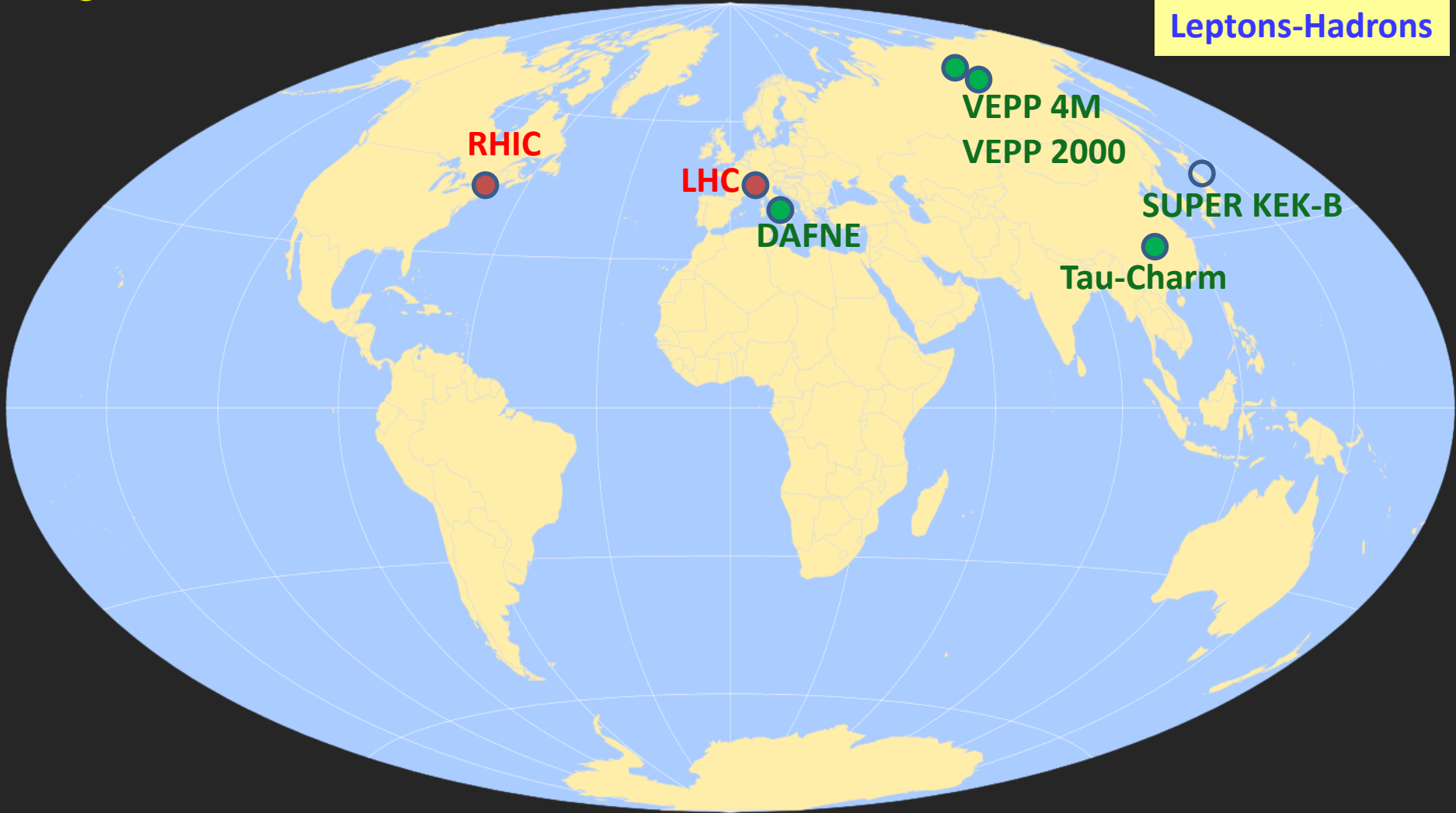
Leptons
Hadrons
Hadron-Lepton



Particle Colliders - 2016

- In operation
- In commissioning

Hadrons
Leptons
Leptons-Hadrons





THE Collider

The LHC

Superconducting Proton Accelerator and Collider
installed in a 27km circumference underground tunnel (tunnel cross-section diameter 4m) at **CERN**
Tunnel was built for LEP collider in 1985

LHC arc view



27 km cooled down to 2K
The coolest place in the world

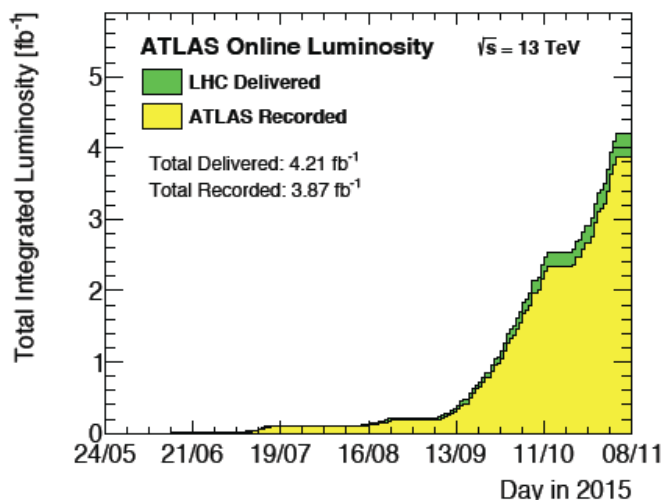
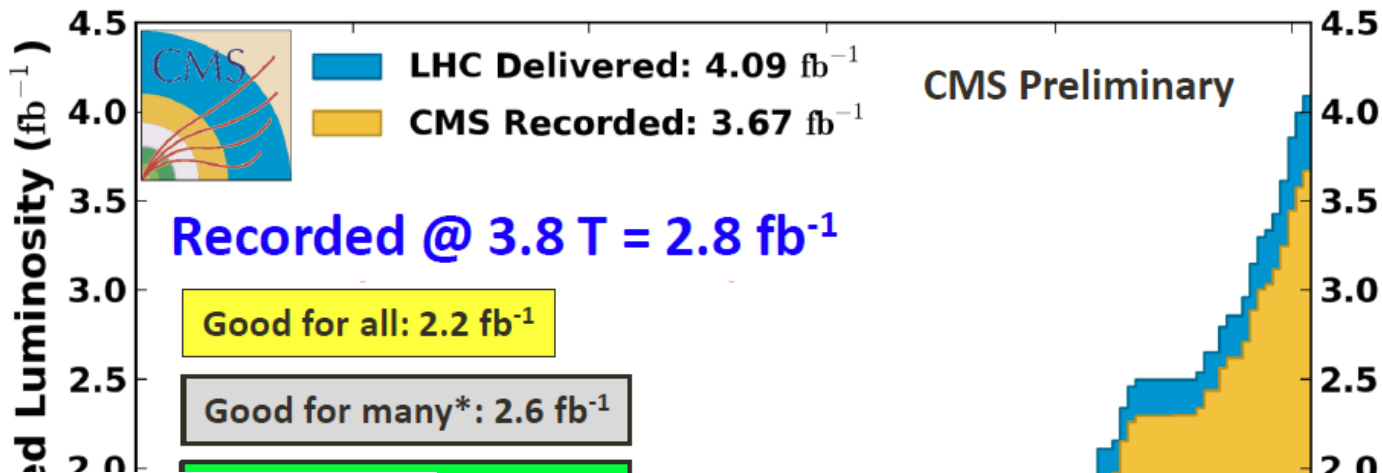


13 TeV dataset

Run 2 – LHC integrated luminosity (CMS)

CMS Integrated Luminosity, pp, 2015, $\sqrt{s} = 13$ TeV

Data included from 2015-06-03 08:41 to 2015-11-03 06:25 UTC



ns: 2.7 fb⁻¹

luminosity uncertainty:

S

CMS Collaboration - 13 TeV Results 15/12/2015



Medical applications



Isotope production

Cancer therapy

Radio therapy

Hadron therapy

- 1937: first X-rays irradiation from van de Graaff electrostatic machine
- 1956 : first patient treated with radiotherapy at Stanford – eye tumor →
- Since then 40 millions patients have been treated
- Today 50% of cancer patients are X-ray treated (70% in industrialized countries), either alone or in combination with other techniques.
- Electron Linacs (4 – 22 MeV) produce e- to be shot on a metallic target and produce X-rays

Courtesy of Department of Radiation Oncology



The first patient to receive radiation therapy from the medical linear accelerator at Stanford was a 2-year-old boy.



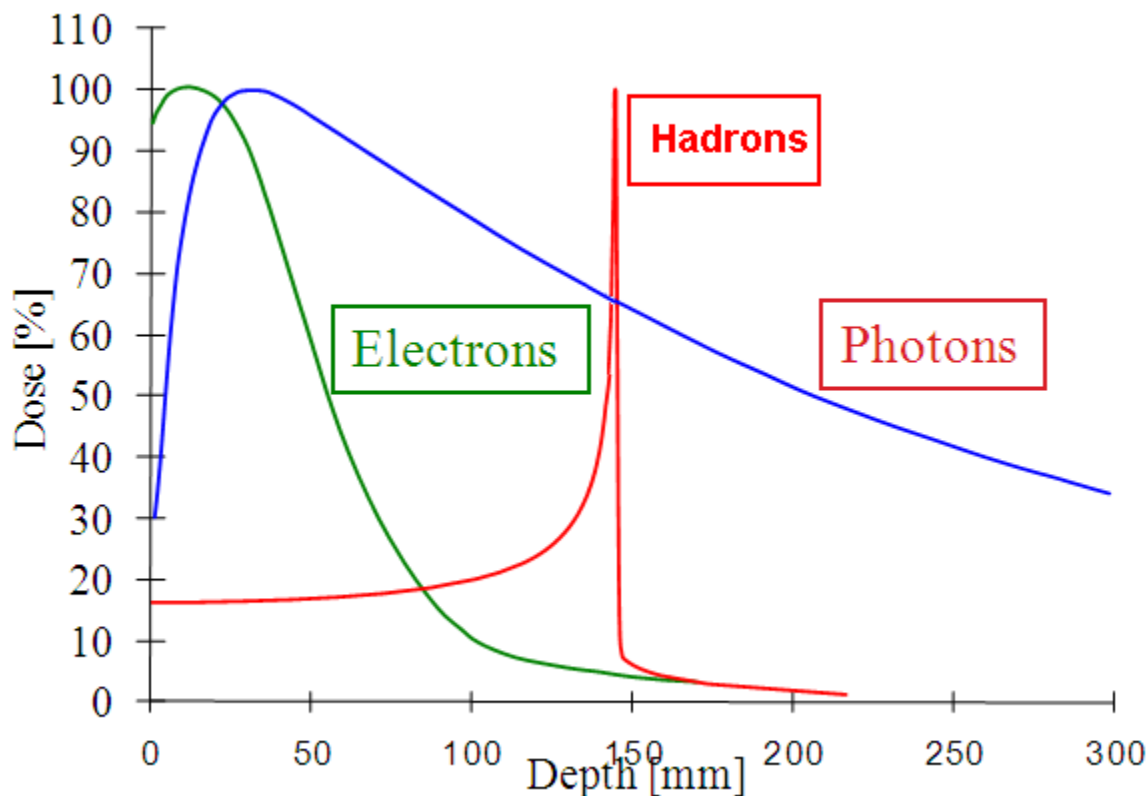
- Commercially produced
 - Thousands of compact and fully reliable Linacs are daily treating patients
 - Control of radiation dose and radiation fields decrease collateral effects
 - IMRT = Intensity Modulated Radiation Therapy



X-Rays and hadrontherapy

Hadrontherapy uses hadrons (protons and ions)

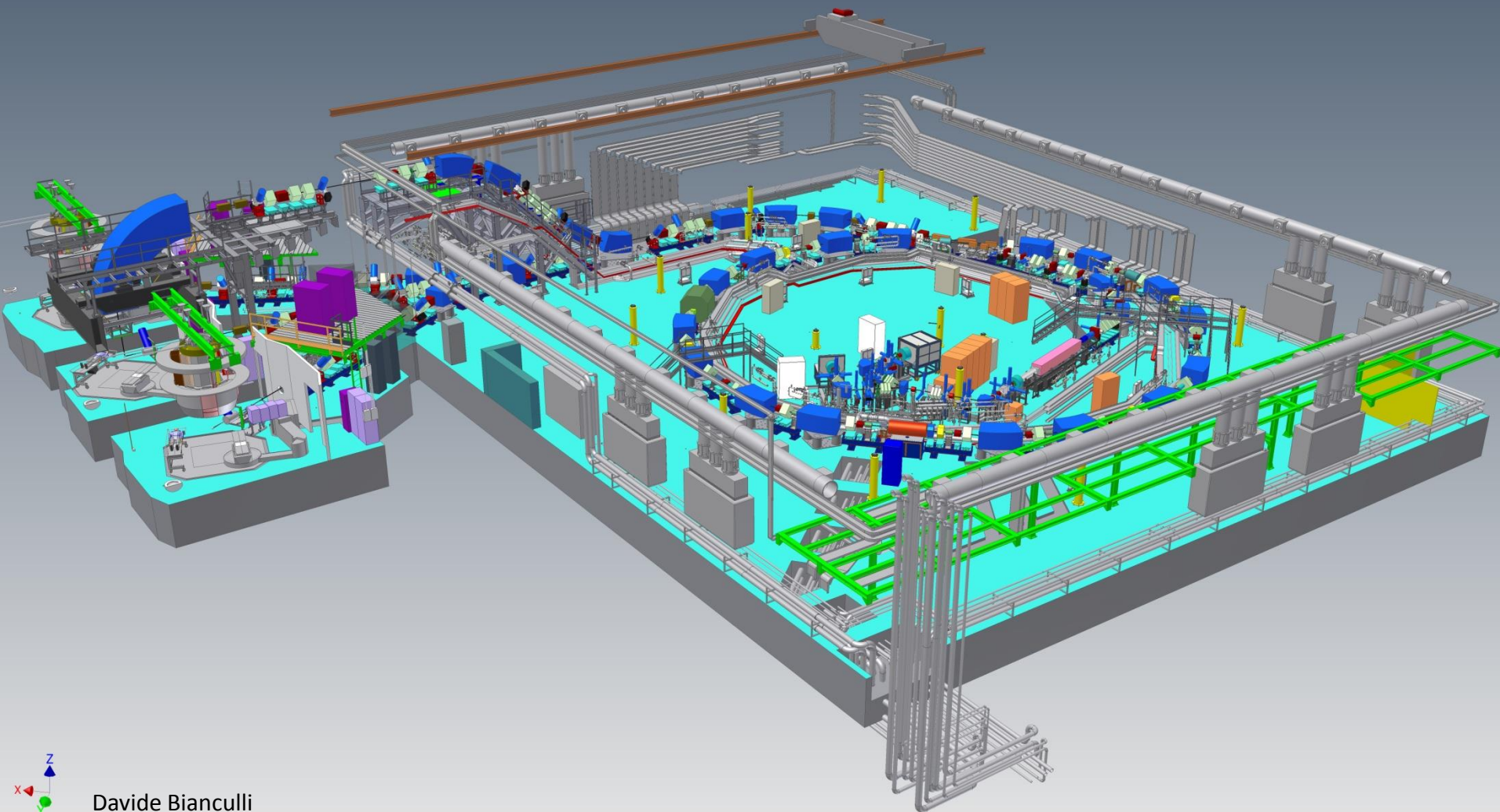
Particles at high energy deposit relatively little energy as they enter an absorbing material but tend to deposit extremely large amounts of energy in a very narrow peak, the Bragg peak, as they reach the end of their range: Very localized depth-dose deposition



The depth and magnitude of the Bragg peak is determined by the mass and charge, as well as the particle initial energy



CNAO (Pavia): Accelerator and Treatment Rooms



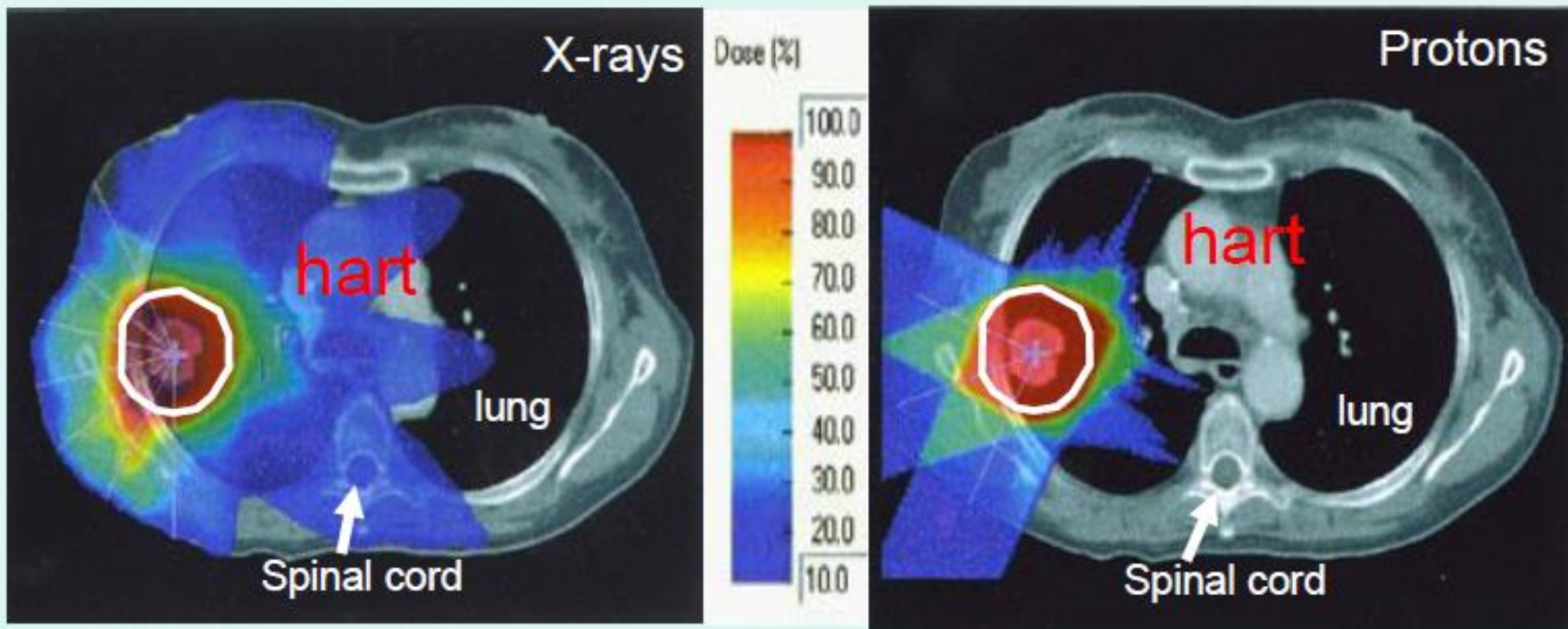
Davide Bianculli



X-rays vs. Protons

X-ray beams (IMRT)
from 7 directions

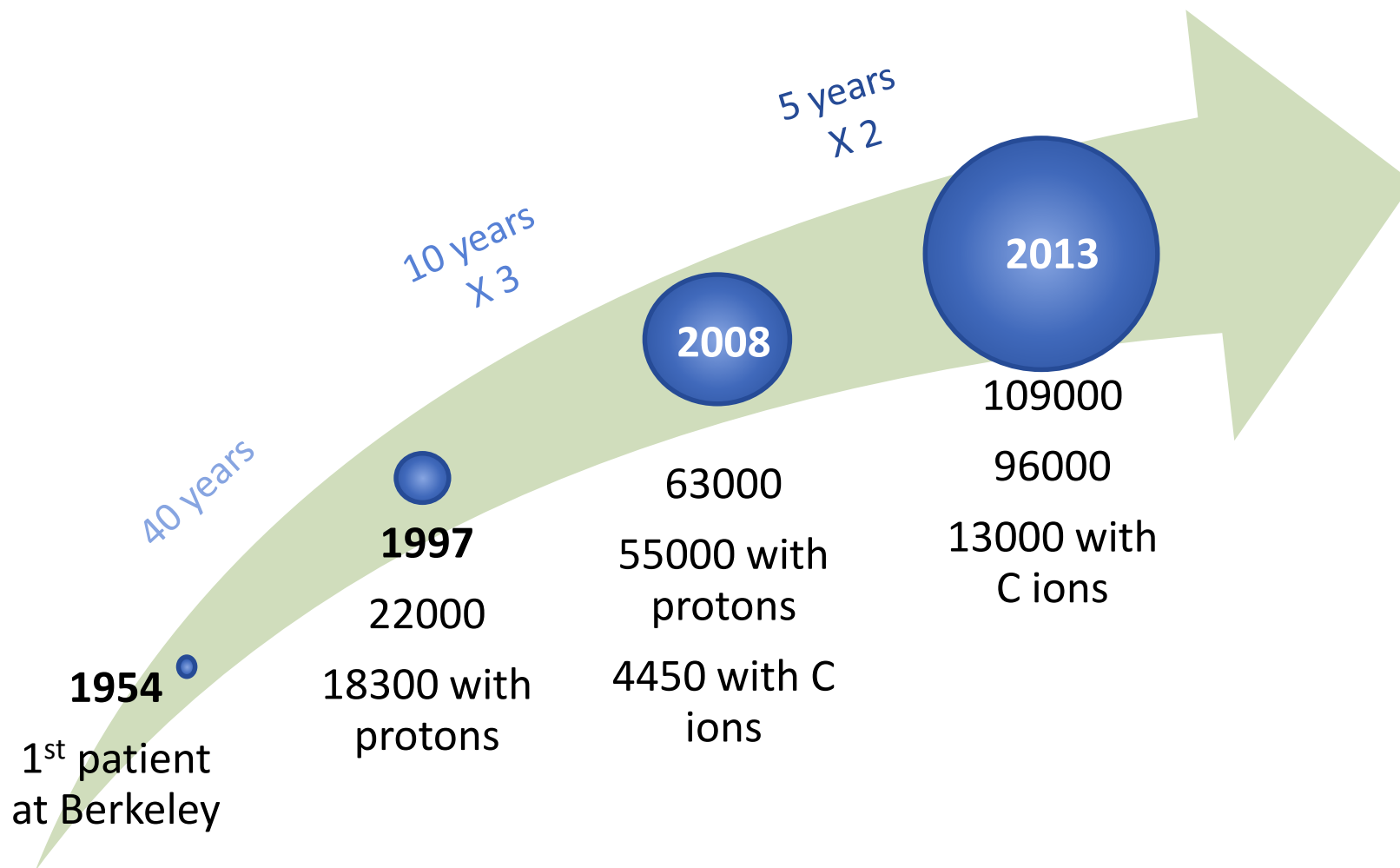
Proton beams
from 3 directions



pictures: Medaustron



Growth of Hadrontherapy





Basics on beam dynamics



Rigidity:

Relation between radius and momentum

$$B\rho = \frac{p}{q}$$

How hard (or easy) is a particle to deflect?

- Often expressed in [Tm] (easy to calculate B)
- Be careful when $q \neq e$!!

$$B\rho [Tm] \approx 3.33 \frac{p \left[\frac{GeV}{c} \right]}{q [e]}$$



Electrons and protons (now in MeV)

$$E_o = 0.511 \text{ MeV} \text{ or } 938.27 \text{ MeV}$$

$$E_{tot} = E_{kin} + E_o$$

$$\gamma = \frac{E_{tot}}{E_o}, \beta = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{\gamma^2}}$$

$$p = \beta E_{tot}$$

$$B\rho = 3.33 \cdot 10^{-3} p$$

<i>Energia [MeV]</i>	<i>Rigidità Bρ [Tm]</i>	
	<i>p</i>	<i>e⁻</i>
1	0,14	0,005
10	0,44	0,035
100	1,45	0,34
1.000	5,66	3,34
10.000	36,35	33,36
100.000	336	336
1.000.000	3335	3335



Ions

Kinetic energy per nucleon: E_{kin}

Total charge = Qe

$$E_e = 0.511 \text{ MeV} \quad E_p = 938.27 \text{ MeV} \quad E_n = 939.57 \text{ MeV}$$

$N_e, Z, N \Rightarrow A = \text{Atomic mass } (Z + N)$

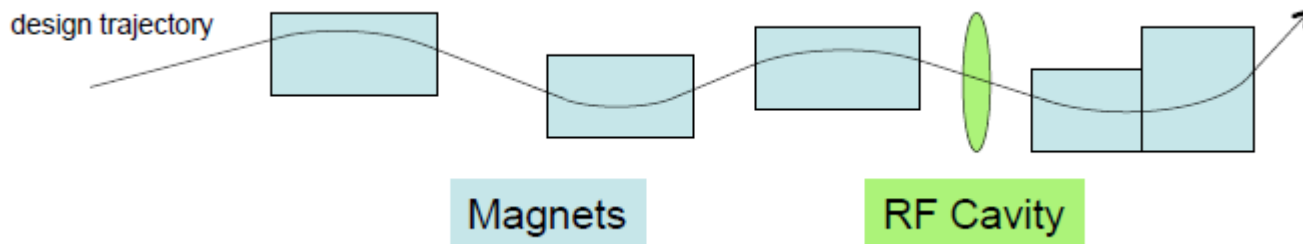
$$E_o = ZE_p + NE_p + N_e E_e - A * 0.8$$

$$E_{tot} = A E_{kin} + E_o$$
$$\gamma = \frac{E_{tot}}{E_o}, \beta = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{\gamma^2}}$$
$$p = \beta E_{tot}$$

$$B\rho = 3.33 \cdot 10^{-3} p/Q$$



Simplified Particle Motion



Design trajectory

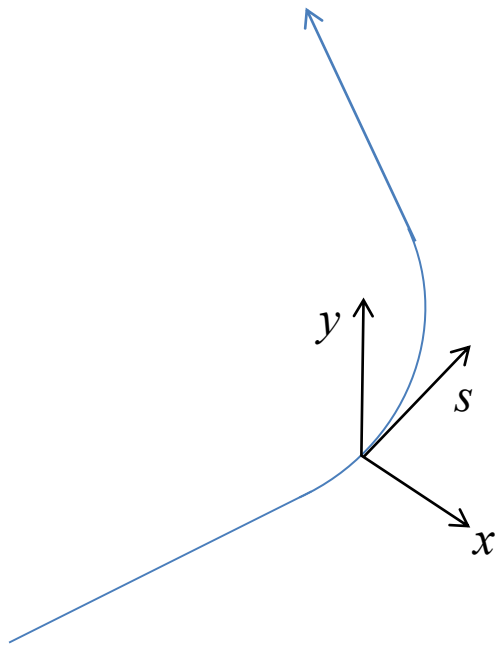
- Particle motion will be expanded around a **design trajectory** or orbit
- This orbit can be over linacs, transfer lines, rings

Separation of fields: Lorentz force

- Magnetic fields from static or slowly-changing magnets transverse to design trajectory
- Electric fields from high-frequency RF cavities in direction of design trajectory
- Relativistic charged particle velocities

The accelerator from the particle point of view is a sequence of

- Drifts – No external fields – Particles go straight
- Magnetic fields – Particles are bent according to the magnetic rigidity
- Electric fields – Particles go straight, gain or lose energy



Reference system

x : horizontal

y : vertical

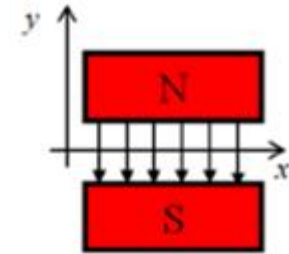
s : longitudinal along the trajectory

Dipoles: used for guiding the particle trajectories

$$B_x = 0$$

$$B_y = B_o = \text{proportional to } B\rho$$

$$B_o/B\rho = 1/\rho \text{ [m}^{-1}\text{]}$$



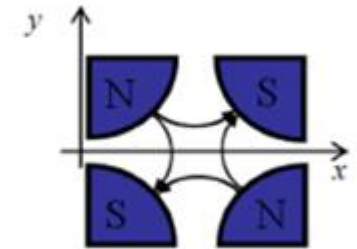
Quadrupoles: used to focus the particle trajectories

$$B_x = G y$$

$$B_y = -G x$$

$$G = \text{proportional to } B\rho$$

$$k = G/B\rho = (1/B\rho) dB_x/dx \text{ [m}^{-2}\text{]}$$



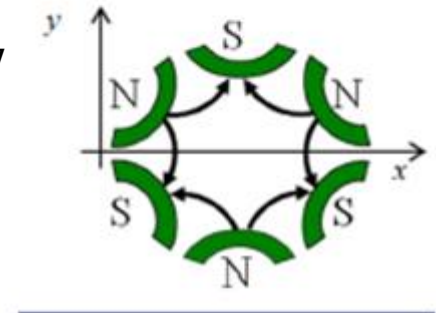
Sextupoles: used to correct chromatism and non linear terms

$$B_x = 2 S x y$$

$$B_y = S (x^2 - y^2)$$

$$S = \text{proportional to } B\rho$$

$$k^2 = S/B\rho = (1/B\rho) d^2B/dx^2 \text{ [m}^{-3}\text{]}$$



Fields

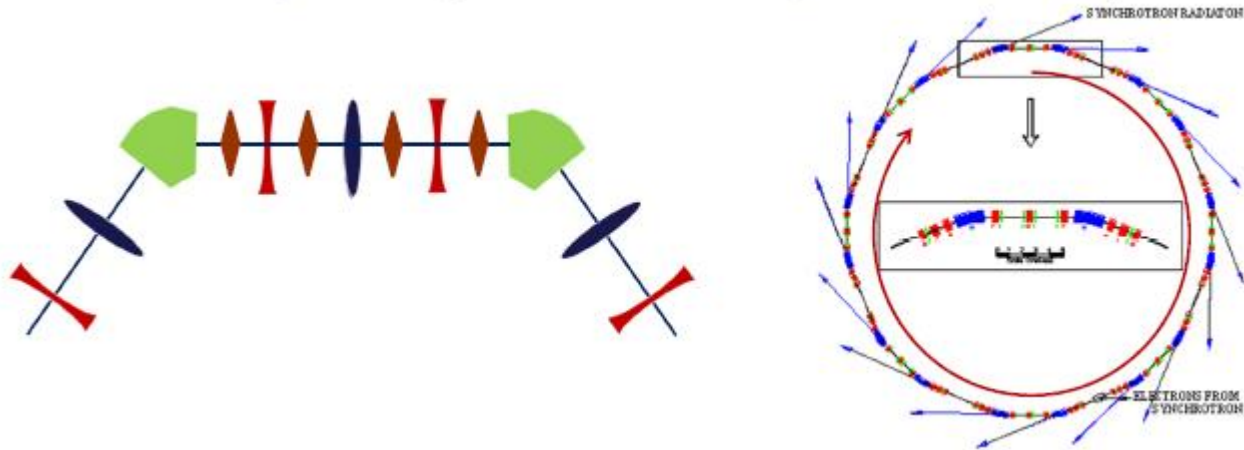


Normalized fields (with magnetic rigidity)



Lattice in an accelerator

Lattice: Sequence of magnets interleaved with drifts (used for diagnostics, vacuum pumping, Injection, extraction, etc)



The first step in calculating a lattice is to consider only the linear components of it (quadrupoles and dipoles). Non linear effects and chromatic aberration corrections will be evaluated later.

The trajectory of the reference particle (the particle with nominal energy and initial position and divergence set to zero) along the optics is calculated.

All the other beam particles are represented in a frame moving along the reference trajectory, and where the reference particle is always in the center.

Coordinate systems used to describe the motion are usually locally Cartesian or cylindrical (typically the one that allows the easiest field representation)



Linear transverse motion (in presence of dipoles and quadrupoles)

Lorentz force +
Linear magnetic fields +
Derivative along s instead of t



$$x'' + \left(\frac{1}{\rho^2} - k \right) x = 0$$

H

$$y'' + ky = 0$$

V

$$k = \frac{g}{p/e} = \frac{1}{B\rho} \frac{dB_y}{dx}$$

Solution of equations of motion:

$$a_1 = x_0 \quad a_2 = \frac{x'_0}{\sqrt{K}}$$

Horizontal : $K = \frac{1}{\rho^2} - k$

Vertical : $K = k$

Here x represents
both x or y

$$x(s) = x_0 \cos(\sqrt{K}s) + x'_0 \frac{1}{\sqrt{K}} \sin(\sqrt{K}s)$$

$$x'(s) = -x_0 \sqrt{K} \sin(\sqrt{K}s) + x'_0 \cos(\sqrt{K}s)$$



Matrix formalism

We can write the equations in matrix formalism: coordinates at point s_1 can be obtained knowing the coordinates at s_0

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ x' \end{pmatrix}_{s_1} = M \begin{pmatrix} x \\ x' \end{pmatrix}_{s_0}$$

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\sqrt{K}L) & \frac{1}{\sqrt{K}} \sin(\sqrt{K}L) \\ -\sqrt{K} \sin(\sqrt{K}L) & \cos(\sqrt{K}L) \end{pmatrix}$$

Example: Drift
Length: L
 $K = 0$

$$M_{Drift} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & L \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= x_0 + Lx'_0 \\ x'_1 &= x'_0 \end{aligned}$$

Focusing quadrupole:
Length L , $K > 0$

$$M_Q = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\sqrt{K}L) & \frac{1}{\sqrt{K}} \sin(\sqrt{K}L) \\ -\sqrt{K} \sin(\sqrt{K}L) & \cos(\sqrt{K}L) \end{pmatrix}$$

Dipole

Sector magnet:

Nominal particle trajectory is perpendicular to dipole entrance

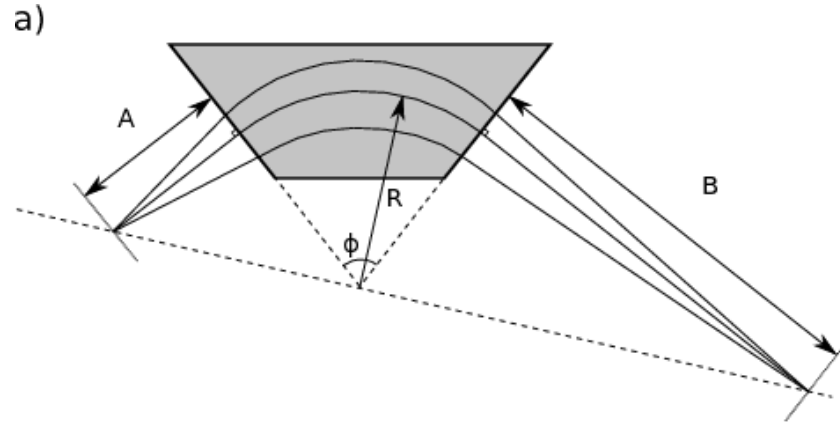
Horizontal plane: $K = 1/\rho^2 - k$

Vertical plane: $K = k$

If $k = 0, L = \rho\theta$

$$M_H = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta & \rho\sin\theta \\ -\frac{1}{\rho}\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{l} \rho = \text{bending radius} \\ \theta = \text{bending angle} \end{array}$$

$$M_V = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho\vartheta \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$





Matrix of a lattice

System of lattice elements: Drifts (M_D), quads (M_Q), bendings (or dipoles) (M_B)

Starting with $\begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ x'_0 \end{pmatrix}$ The final position and divergence of the particle will be $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x'_1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x'_1 \end{pmatrix} = M_{Dn} \cdot M_{Qn} \cdot M_{Dn-1} \cdots \cdot M_{B1} \cdot M_{D2} \cdot M_{Q1} \cdot M_{D1} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ x'_0 \end{pmatrix}$$

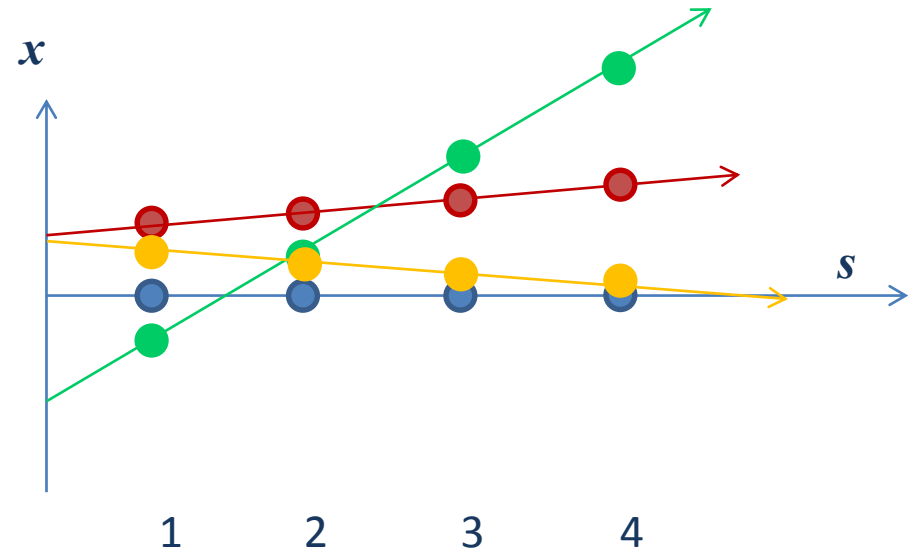
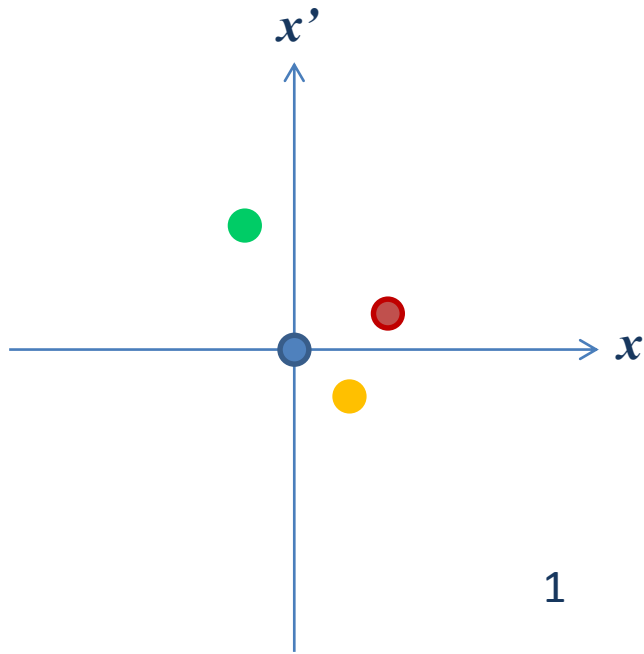
Or simpler

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x'_1 \end{pmatrix} = M(s_1, s_0) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ x'_0 \end{pmatrix}$$

The mathematical representation of an accelerator lattice is a sequence of matrices



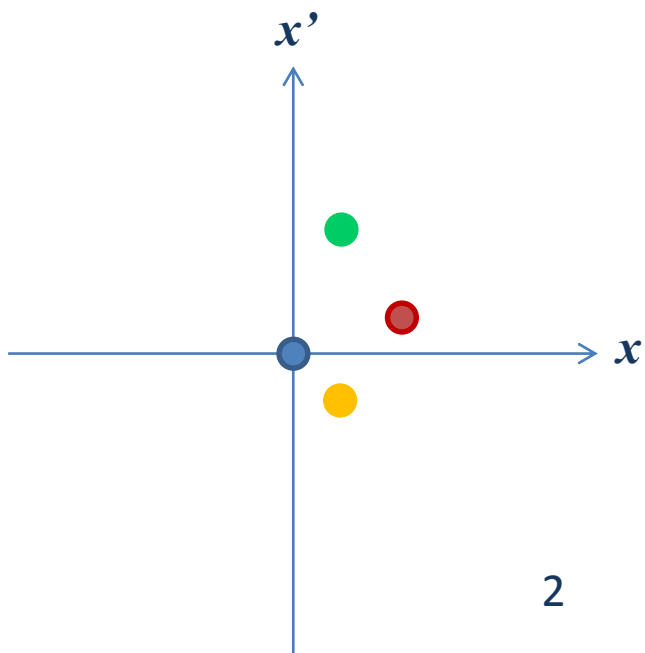
From single particle to emittance



- Reference particle
- ● Other particles

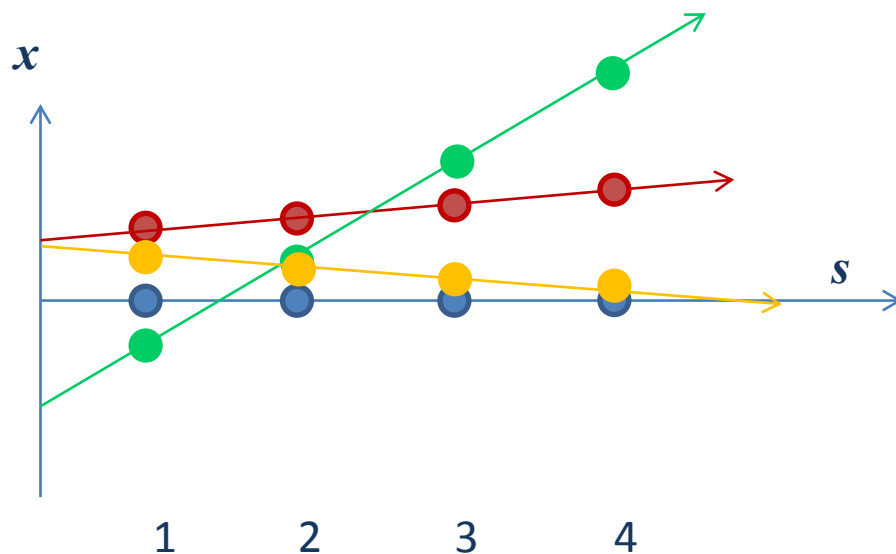


From single particle to emittance



2

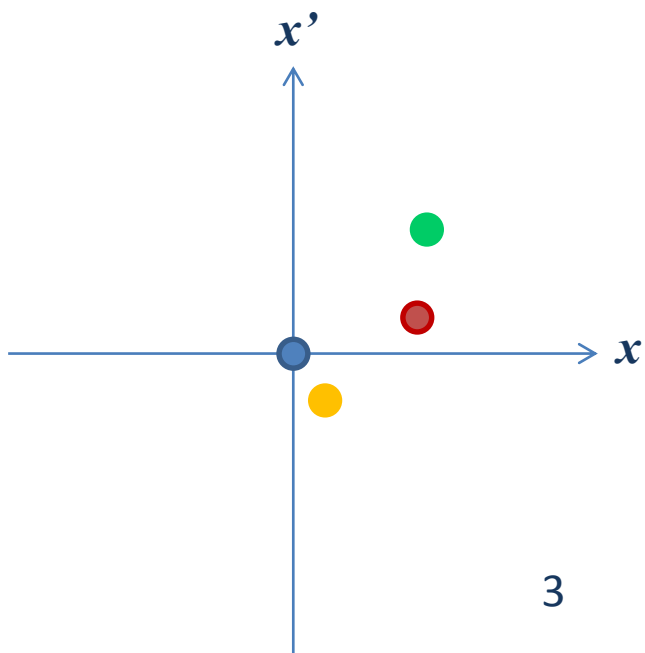
- Reference particle
- Other particles



(No magnetic field from 1 to 4)

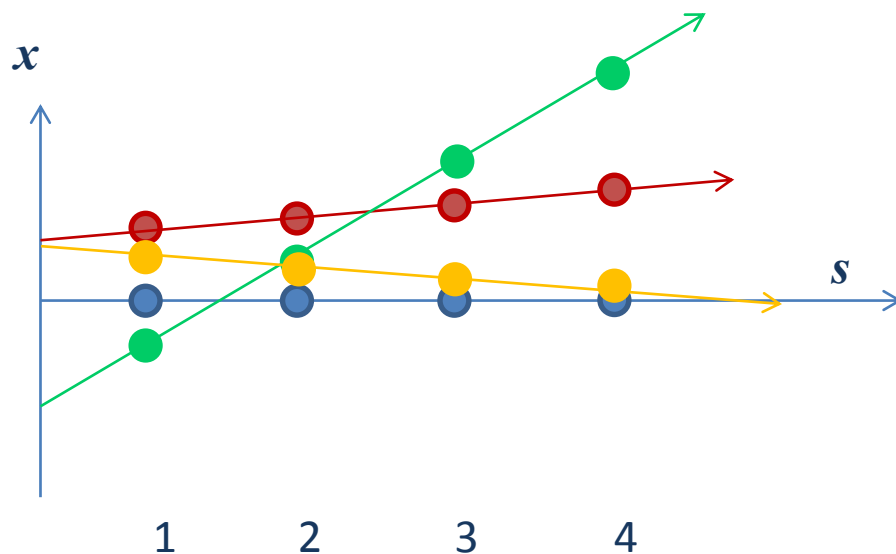


From single particle to emittance

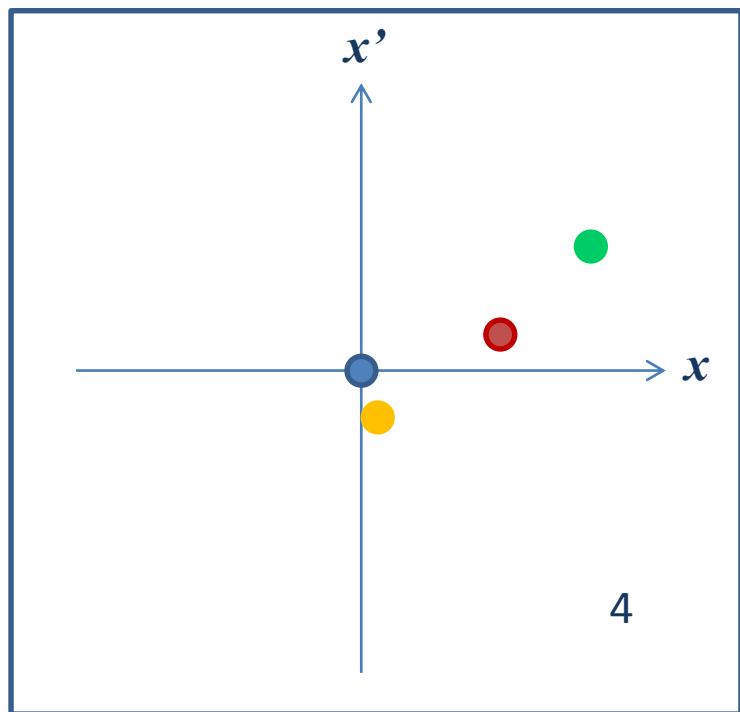


3

- Reference particle
- Other particles

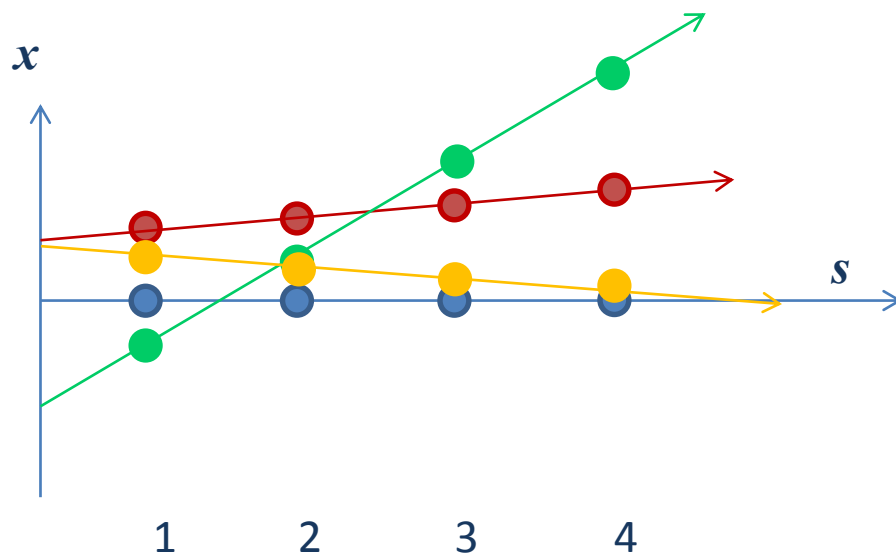


(No magnetic field from 1 to 4)



- Reference particle
- ● ● Other particles

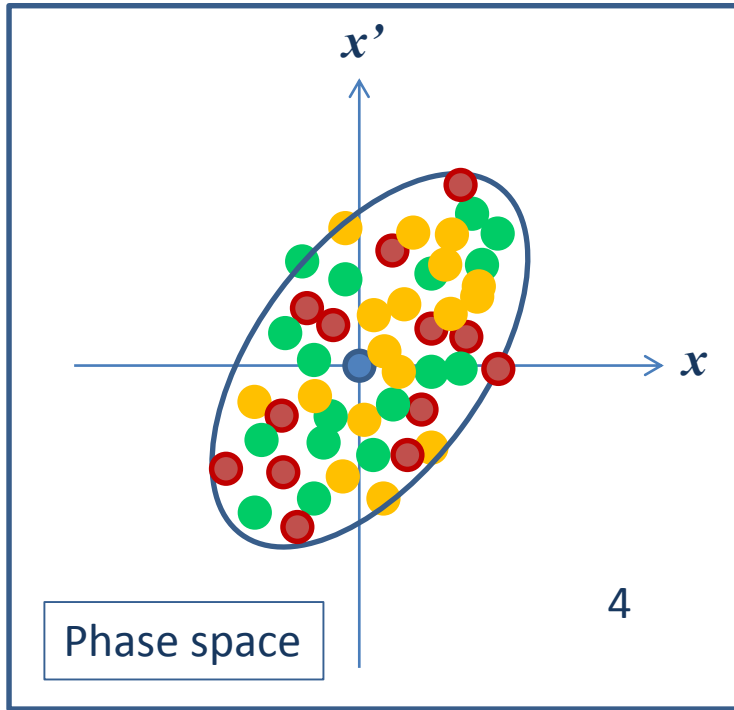
Phase space



(No magnetic field from 1 to 4)



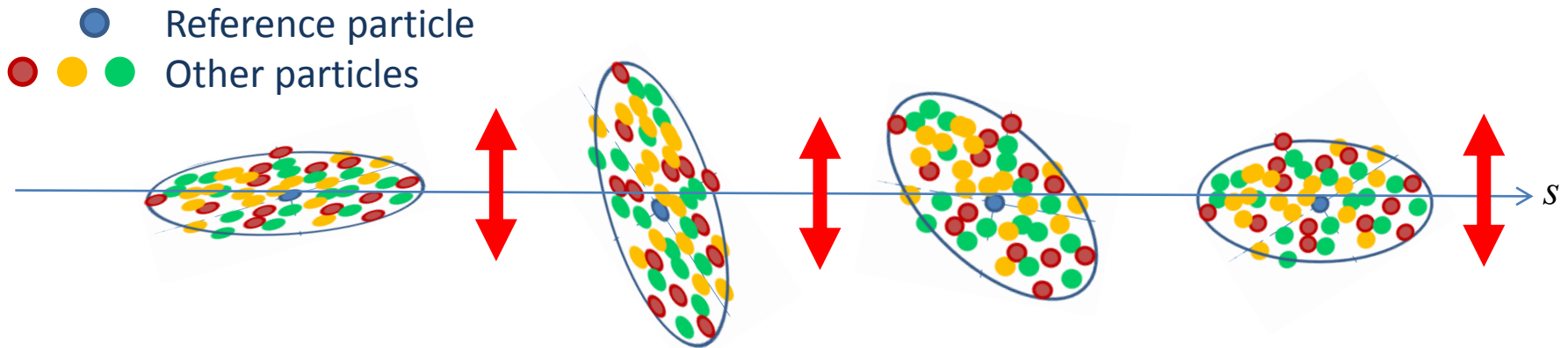
Many particles each of them with its own position and momentum in every point of the accelerator



Emittance = Area of phase space
Each beam will have emittances

- Horizontal (x, x')
- Vertical (y, y')
- Longitudinal (Time-Energy)

In the only presence of linear magnetic fields (\updownarrow) the emittance will be constant, even if the ellipse orientation and axis ratio aspect will change along s



- Reference particle
- Other particles



Twiss parameters – Betatron tune

$$x'' + Kx = 0$$

If $K = \text{constant} \Rightarrow$ motion of harmonic oscillator

$$x'' + K(s)x = 0$$

If K varies with s : Hill's equation

The solution of the Hill equation is given by:

$$x(s) = \sqrt{\varepsilon} \sqrt{\beta(s)} \cos(\varphi(s) + \varphi_0)$$

ε and φ_0 integration constants

Inserting $x(s)$ in the equation of motion it can be shown that the **phase advance** is related to β by

$$\varphi(s) = \int_0^s \frac{ds}{\beta(s)}$$

In storage rings (length of circumference = L) beta is periodic

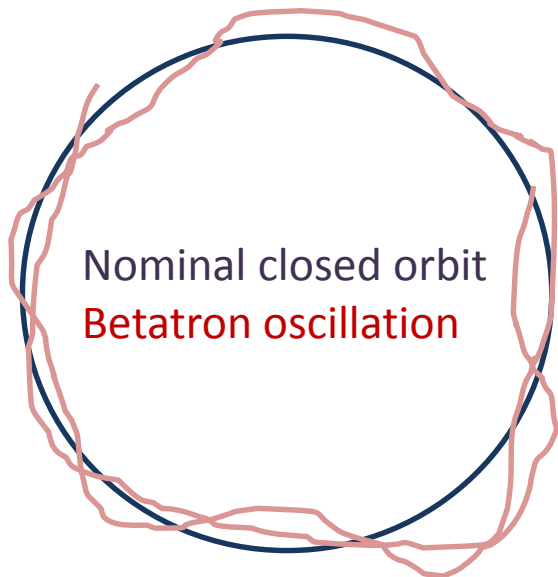
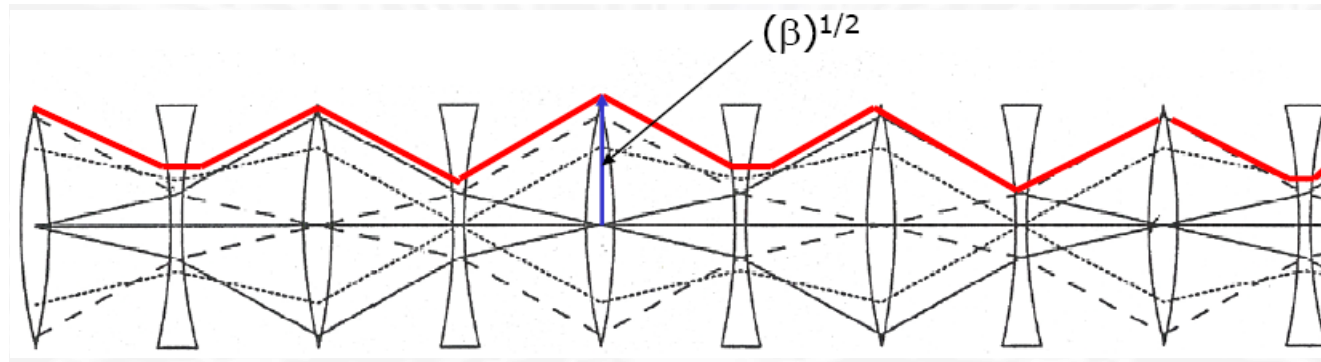
$$\beta(s + L) = \beta(s)$$

One complete turn: phase advance in one turn: **Betatron Tune**

$$Q_{x,y} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \oint \frac{ds}{\beta_{x,y}(s)}$$



Betatron oscillation



Nominal closed orbit
Betatron oscillation

Particles oscillate around the closed orbit, a number of times which is given by the betatron tune. The square of the β function by the emittance represents the envelope of the betatron oscillations



Twiss parameters

Amplitude of an oscillation

$$\hat{x}(s) = \sqrt{\varepsilon} \sqrt{\beta(s)}$$

$\beta(s)$ represents the envelope of all particle trajectories at a given position s in a storage ring

$$x(s) = \sqrt{\varepsilon} \sqrt{\beta(s)} \cos(\varphi(s) + \varphi_0)$$
$$x'(s) = -\frac{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}{\sqrt{\beta(s)}} \{ \alpha(s) \cos(\varphi(s) + \varphi_0) + \sin(\varphi(s) + \varphi_0) \}$$

$$\alpha(s) = -\frac{1}{2} \beta'(s)$$
$$\gamma(s) = \frac{1 + \alpha^2(s)}{\beta(s)}$$

α , β and γ are the Twiss parameters

Inserting in x' eq.

$$\varepsilon = \gamma(s)x^2(s) + 2\alpha(s)x(s)x'(s) + \beta(s)x'^2(s)$$

ε is a constant of motion, not depending on s .

Parametric representation of an ellipse in x, x' phase space defined by α , β , γ : **Courant-Snyder invariant** emittance ε

For a single particle, different positions in the storage ring and different turns:

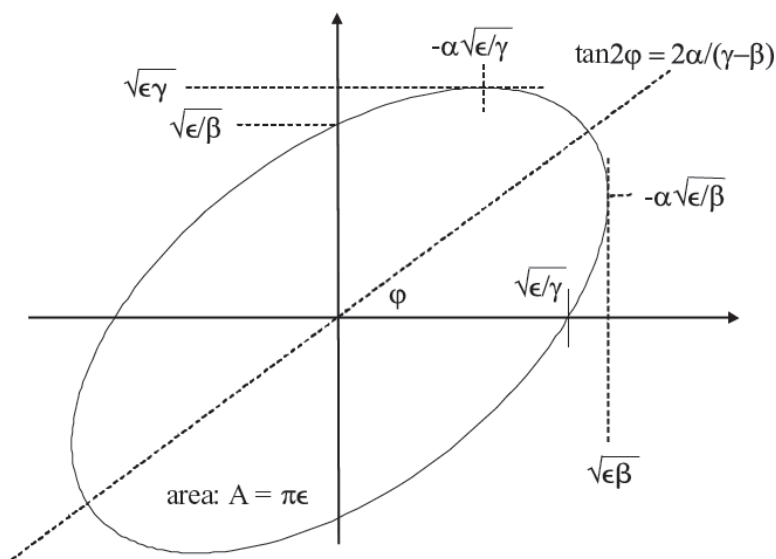
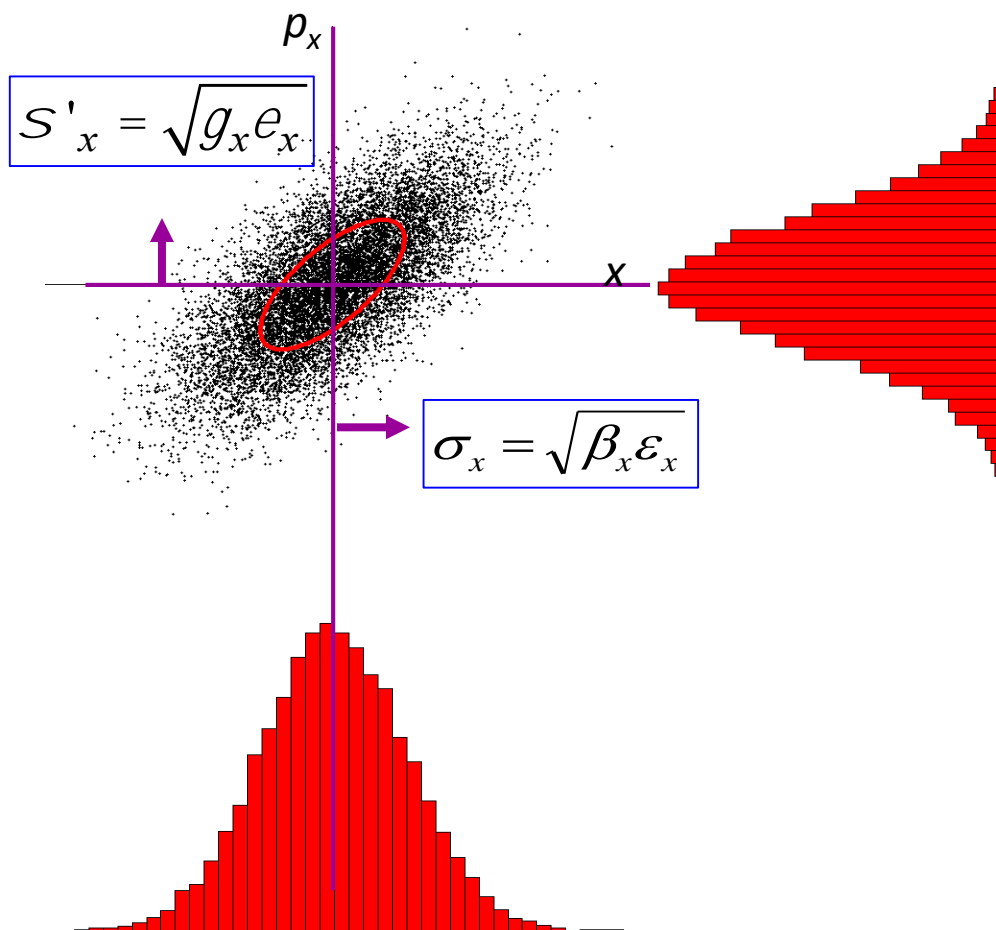


Fig. 5.2. Phase space ellipse



Emittance and beam dimensions

- The emittance is the area of the phase space occupied by the particles
With the emittance and the Twiss parameters in a point of the accelerator, the beam dimensions are obtained : $\sigma_{x,y}$ e $\sigma'_{x,y}$



$$\epsilon_x = \sqrt{\langle x^2 \rangle \langle x'^2 \rangle - \langle xx' \rangle^2}$$

$$\text{Ellipse area} = \pi \epsilon_x$$

$$\langle x^2 \rangle = \beta_x \epsilon_x$$

$$\langle x'^2 \rangle = \gamma_x \epsilon_x$$

$$\langle xx' \rangle = -\alpha_x \epsilon_x$$

$$\beta_x \gamma_x - \alpha_x^2 = 1$$



Adiabatic damping

Transverse emittance while accelerating decreases proportional to increase in momentum

$$x' = \frac{dx}{dx} = \frac{dp_x}{dp}$$

Increasing the longitudinal momentum with increasing energy decreases x' and therefore the transverse emittance

Normalized emittance is defined as the invariant part:

$$\varepsilon_n = \varepsilon \beta \gamma$$

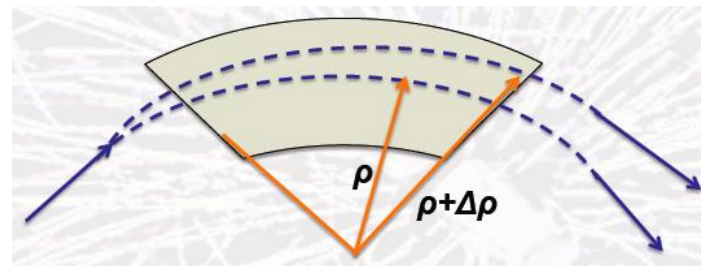
Where now β and γ are not the Twiss parameters, but:

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

Magnets are chromatic elements:

$$\text{Dipoles: } \rho = \frac{p}{eB} \rightarrow \frac{\Delta\rho}{\rho_0} = \frac{\Delta p}{p_0} = \frac{\Delta\theta}{\theta_0}$$

$$\text{Quads: } K = \frac{G}{B\rho} = \frac{Ge}{p}$$



$$\Delta\theta = -\theta_0 \frac{\Delta p}{p_0}$$

$$\Delta K = -K_0 \frac{\Delta p}{p_0}$$

$$\Delta p/p \ll 1$$

Off-momentum particles are not oscillating around design orbit, but around a different closed orbit (chromatic closed orbit). The displacement between the design and chromatic orbits is regulated by the dispersion function $D(s)$, which is periodic in a synchrotron.

For particles with energy deviation the Hill's equation has an extra term and is not homogeneous:

$$x'' + K(s)x = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\Delta p}{p_0}$$

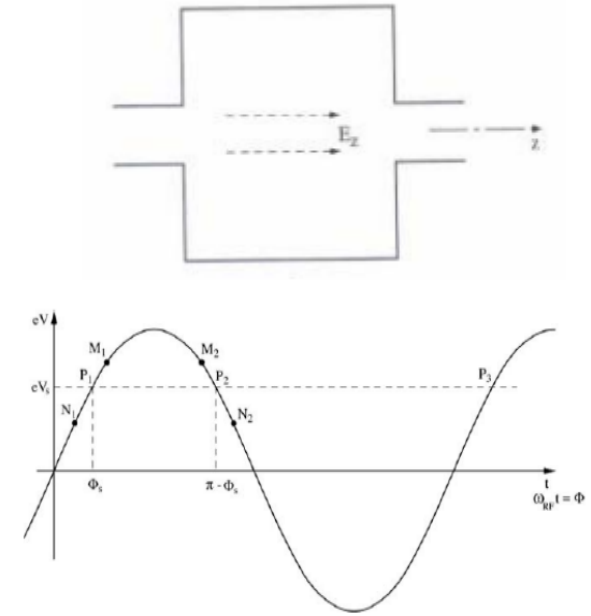
The solution is the sum of the solution of the homogenous equation + a term of dispersion:

$$x = x_{Hom} + D(s) \frac{\Delta p}{p_0}$$

Kinetic energy gain for a particle with charge e passing in a cavity with an electric field :

$$\Delta W = e \int_0^L \vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) d\vec{s} = eV$$

V is the voltage gain for the particle, depends on the particle trajectory and includes the contribution of all electric fields (rf fields, space charge, interaction with vacuum chamber,..)



Assuming a sinusoidal electric field:

$$V = \hat{V} \sin(\omega_{RF} t + \phi_s)$$

The synchronous particle passes at the middle of the gap g , at time $t = 0$:

The energy gain is

$$\Delta W = e\hat{V}T \sin \phi_s$$



- Where T is the transit time, g is the gap length

- $$T = \frac{\sin(\pi g / \beta \lambda)}{\pi g / \beta \lambda}$$

T is the transit-time factor: a factor that takes into account the time variation of the field during particle transit through the gap

In a LINAC the cavities are spaced $L = \beta_s \lambda$

β_s beta after cavity, λ wavelength

The fast particle arrives at $t_a < t_s$ and gains energy $\Delta W_a < \Delta W_s$

The slow particle arrives at $t_b > t_s$ and gains energy $\Delta W_b > \Delta W_s$

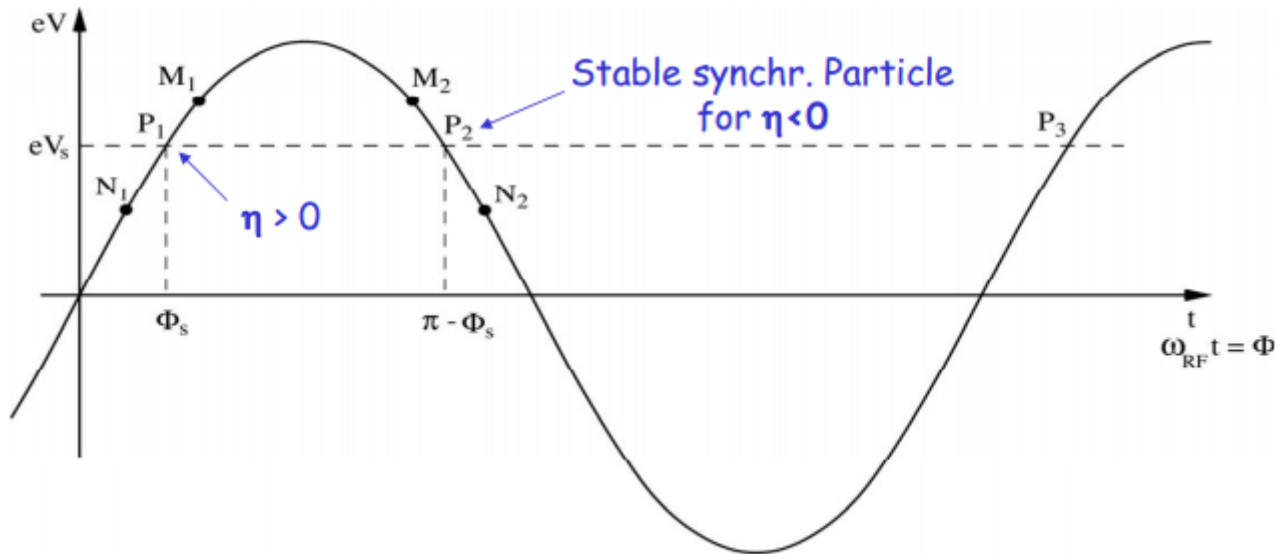
The synchronous particle arrives at the synchronous phase

a, b oscillate in phase (time) about the synchronous particle =>

synchrotron oscillation

Phase Stability in a Synchrotron

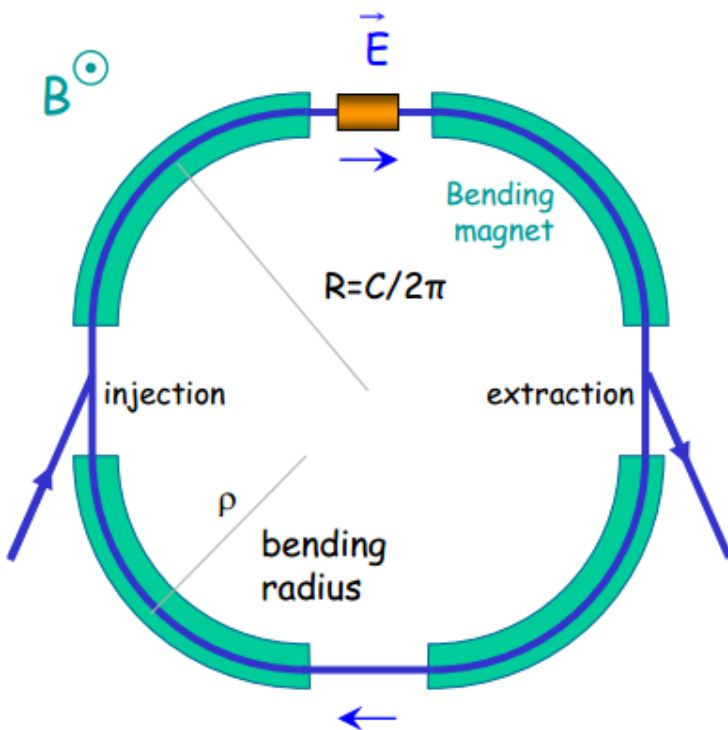
From the definition of η it is clear that below transition an increase in energy is followed by a higher revolution frequency (increase in velocity dominates) while the reverse occurs above transition ($v \approx c$ and longer path) where the momentum compaction (generally > 0) dominates.





Synchrotrons – storage rings

The **synchrotron** is a synchronous accelerator since there is a **synchronous RF phase** for which the energy gain **fits** the **increase of the magnetic field** at each turn. That implies the following operating conditions:



- $e\hat{V} \sin \phi \longrightarrow$ Energy gain per turn
- $\phi = \phi_s = cte \longrightarrow$ Synchronous particle
- $\omega_{RF} = h\omega_r \longrightarrow$ RF synchronism (h - harmonic number)
- $\rho = cte \quad R = cte \longrightarrow$ Constant orbit
- $B\rho = P/e \Rightarrow B \longrightarrow$ Variable magnetic field

Luminosity

How many particles collide in each crossing point?

Many particles per bunch



Low density



High density



Luminosity in a collider

$$R = \frac{dN}{dt} = L(t) \sigma_{event}$$

$$N = \sigma_{event} \int L(t) dt$$

L relates cross-section σ and event rate $R = dN/dt$ at time t
Quantifies performance (“brilliance”) of collider
Relativistic invariant and independent of physical reaction
Accelerator operation aims at maximizing the total number of events N for the experiments

σ_{event} is fixed by nature

L units : [cm⁻² s⁻¹]

aim at maximizing $\int L(t) dt$

Integrated luminosity $\int L dt$ is frequently expressed in pb⁻¹ = 10³⁶ cm⁻² or fb⁻¹ = 10³⁹ cm⁻²

intuitively: higher L if there are more particles and more tightly packed



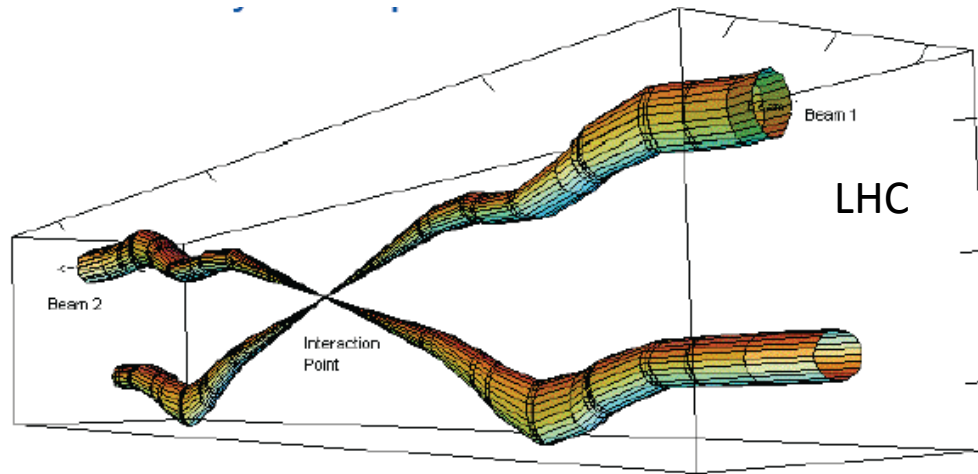
Peak luminosity

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

$$\sigma^*_{x,y} = \sqrt{\varepsilon_{x,y} \beta^*_{x,y}}$$

$$L = \frac{kf N_1 N_2}{4\pi \sqrt{\beta^*_x \beta^*_y \varepsilon_x \varepsilon_y}}$$

High luminosity = High intensity, high frequency, small beam dimensions



Relative beam sizes around IP1 (Atlas) in collision

Effects decreasing peak luminosity: crossing angle, hourglass effect

Beam-beam effect: action of one beam on the opposite beam particles, proportional to current



Summary

- Introduction to existing accelerators
- Electromagnetic fields
- Single particle dynamics – Bunch emittances and dynamics
- Luminosity in a circular collider
- + (not covered in this introduction) collective effects: interaction between particles and their environment and among particles themselves