



Science and
Technology
Facilities Council

Daresbury Laboratory

CI-ACC-101.2 Particle Accelerators – Types and Uses

Hywel Owen, UKRI-STFC-ASTEC-AP
Accelerator Science and Technology Centre
hywel.owen@stfc.ac.uk, @hywelowen

16th October 2023

Cockcroft Institute Lecture Series

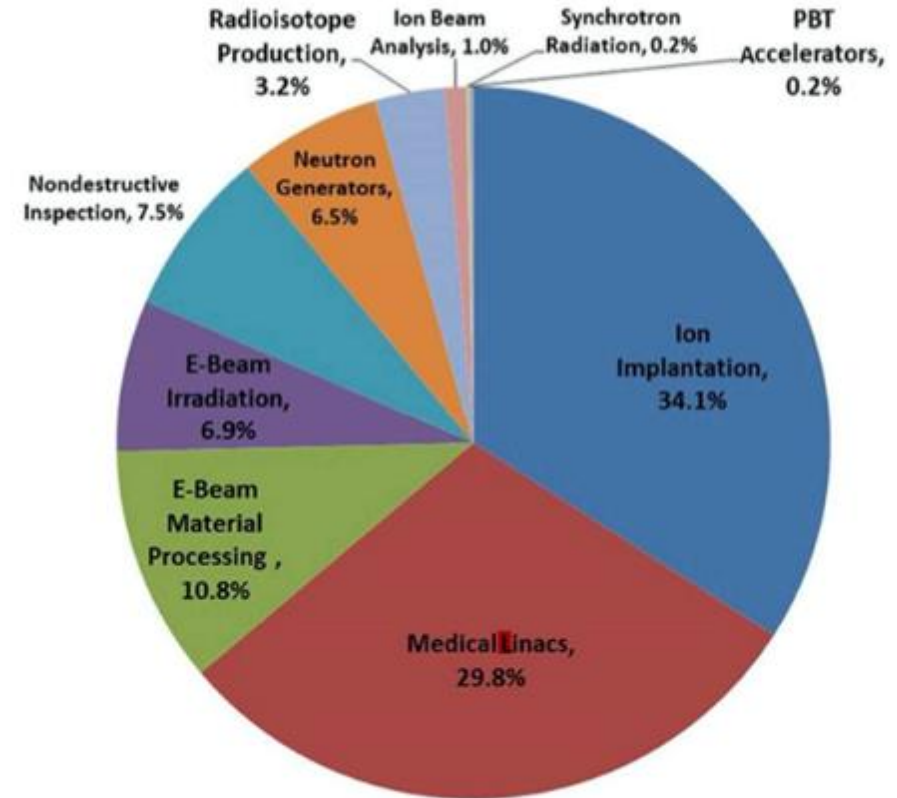
Image © STFC

Types of Accelerator

- DC – simple vacuum tubes, VdGs
- Linacs – Wideroe, Alvarez, etc. etc.
- Cyclotrons, Synchrocyclotrons, Isochronous cyclotrons
- Betatrons, Induction Linacs, Induction Rings
- Synchrotrons, Storage Rings
- Microtrons, Rhodotrons
- FFAGs
- RFQs

- Novel Types– Plasma, Dielectric

- Particle Sources – Thermionic Guns, Photoguns, Ion Sources
- Secondary Sources – Neutrons (spallation, nuclear reactions), ‘exotics’ (pions, muons, antiprotons)



Doyle, McDaniel and Hamm 'The Future of Industrial Accelerators and Applications'
<https://www.worldscientific.com/doi/abs/10.1142/S1793626819300068>

Nobel Prizes involving accelerator science

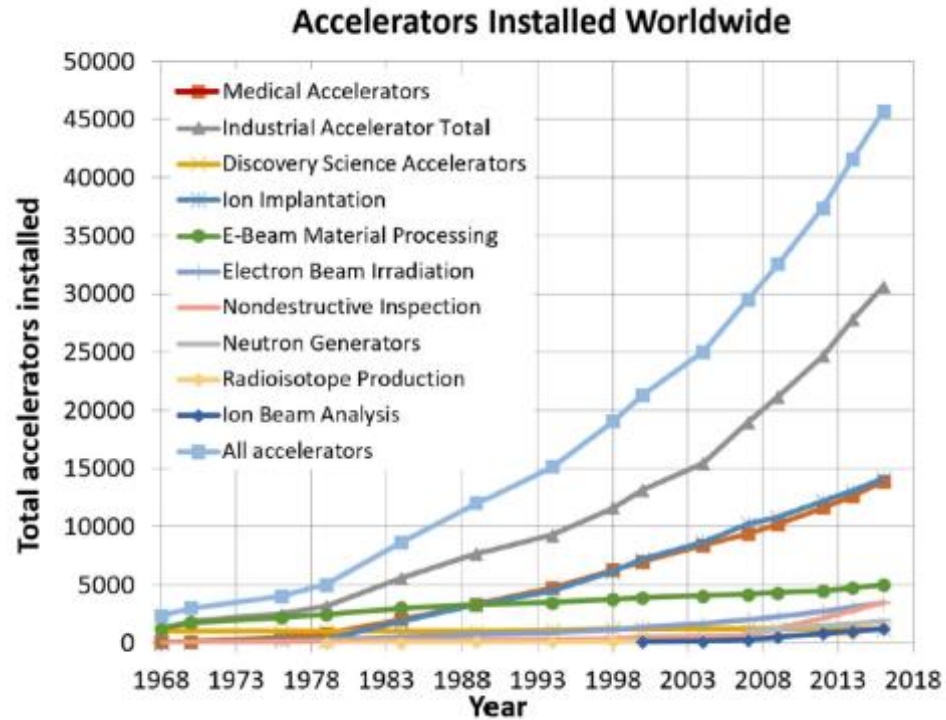


Haussecker, E.F., Chao, A.W. The Influence of Accelerator Science on Physics Research. *Phys. Perspect.* **13**, 146 (2011).
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s00016-010-0049-y>

We show by using a statistical sample of important developments in modern physics that accelerator science has influenced 28% of post-1938 physicists and also 28% of post-1938 physics research. We also examine how the influence of accelerator science has evolved over time, and show that on average it has contributed to a physics Nobel Prize-winning research every 2.9 years.

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

The growth in accelerator applications



Doyle, McDaniel and Hamm 'The Future of Industrial Accelerators and Applications'
<https://www.worldscientific.com/doi/abs/10.1142/S1793626819300068>

Accelerator Methods and Technologies

- Principles – electrodynamics, scattering, ...
 - Single-particle dynamics
 - Multi-particle dynamics

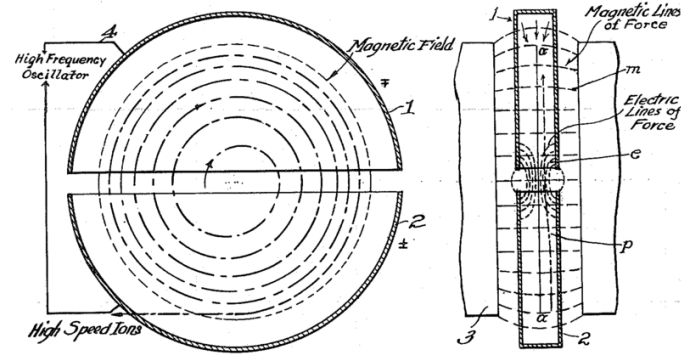
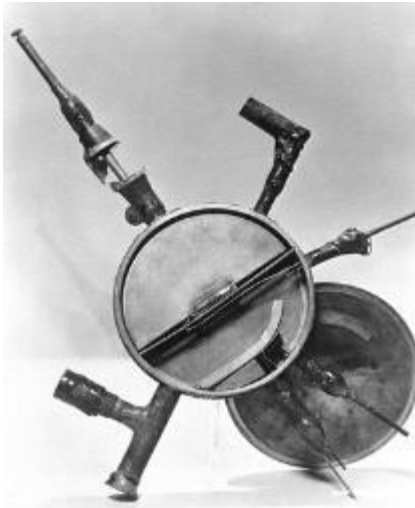
 - Lifecycle – production, injection, acceleration, transport, manipulation, extraction, delivery

 - Methods – analytic, simulation, MC
- Technology – sources, magnets, RF, plasma, laser, vacuum, diagnostics, radiation, geodesics, engineering, controls

 - Discipline – electrodynamics, magnetism, surface science, radiofrequency engineering, FEA, nuclear physics, particle physics, software

 - This is a **multi-disciplinary** institute

Cyclotrons



$$\frac{mv^2}{\rho} = qBv$$

$$B\rho = \frac{p}{q} = \frac{mv}{q} = \frac{\beta\gamma m_0 c}{q}$$

$$\omega = \frac{qB}{m} = \frac{qB}{\gamma m_0}$$

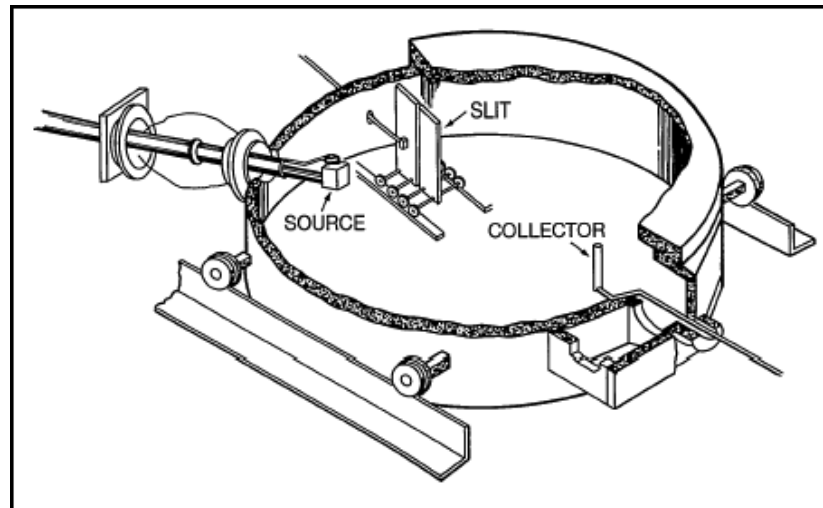
Constant as long as γ is small

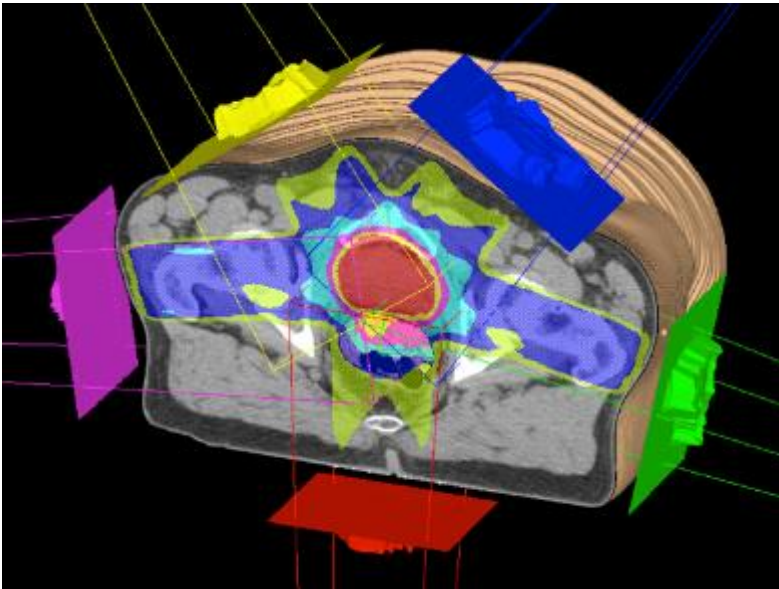
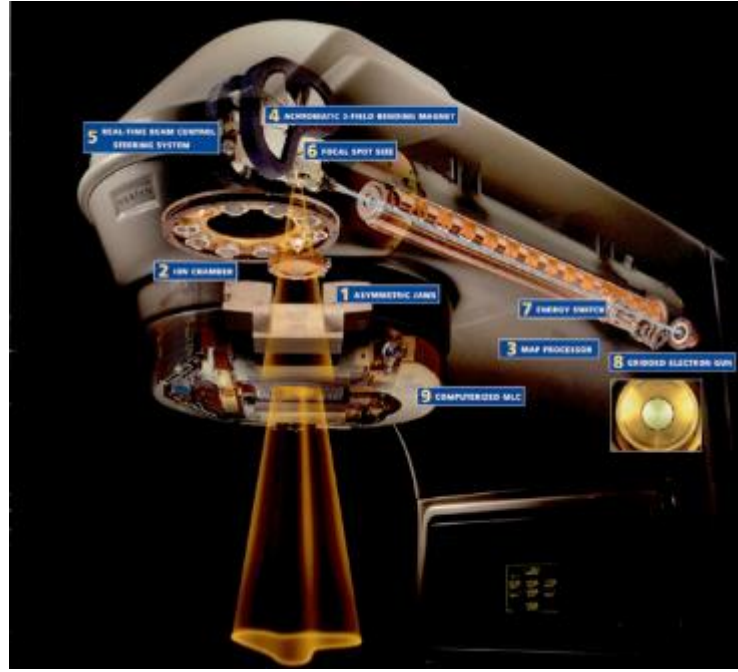


Emilio Segrè and the 37-inch cyclotron deflector foil



'In February 1937 I received a letter from Lawrence containing more radioactive stuff. In particular, it contained a molybdenum foil that had been part of the cyclotron's deflector. I suspected at once that it might contain element 43. The simple reason was that deuteron bombardment of molybdenum should give isotopes of element 43 through well-established nuclear reactions. My sample, the molybdenum deflector lip, had certainly been intensely bombarded with deuterons, and I noted that one of its faces was much more radioactive than the other. I then dissolved only the material of the active face, in this way achieving a first important concentration of the activity. '





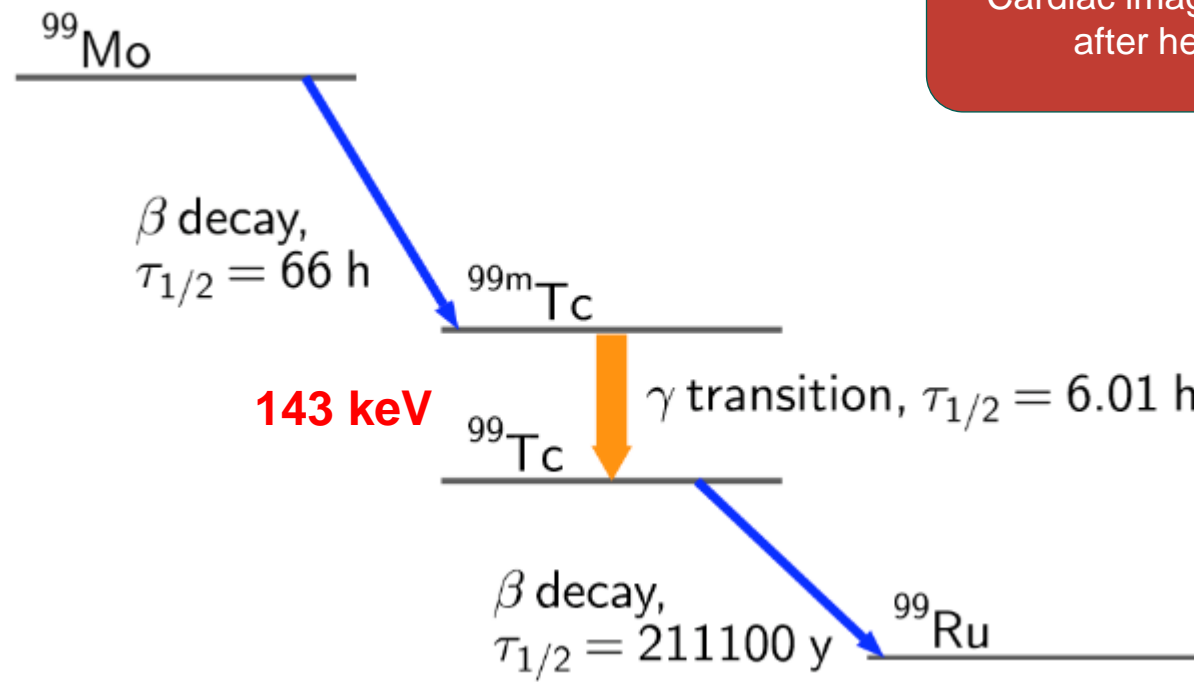
A modern isotope cyclotron



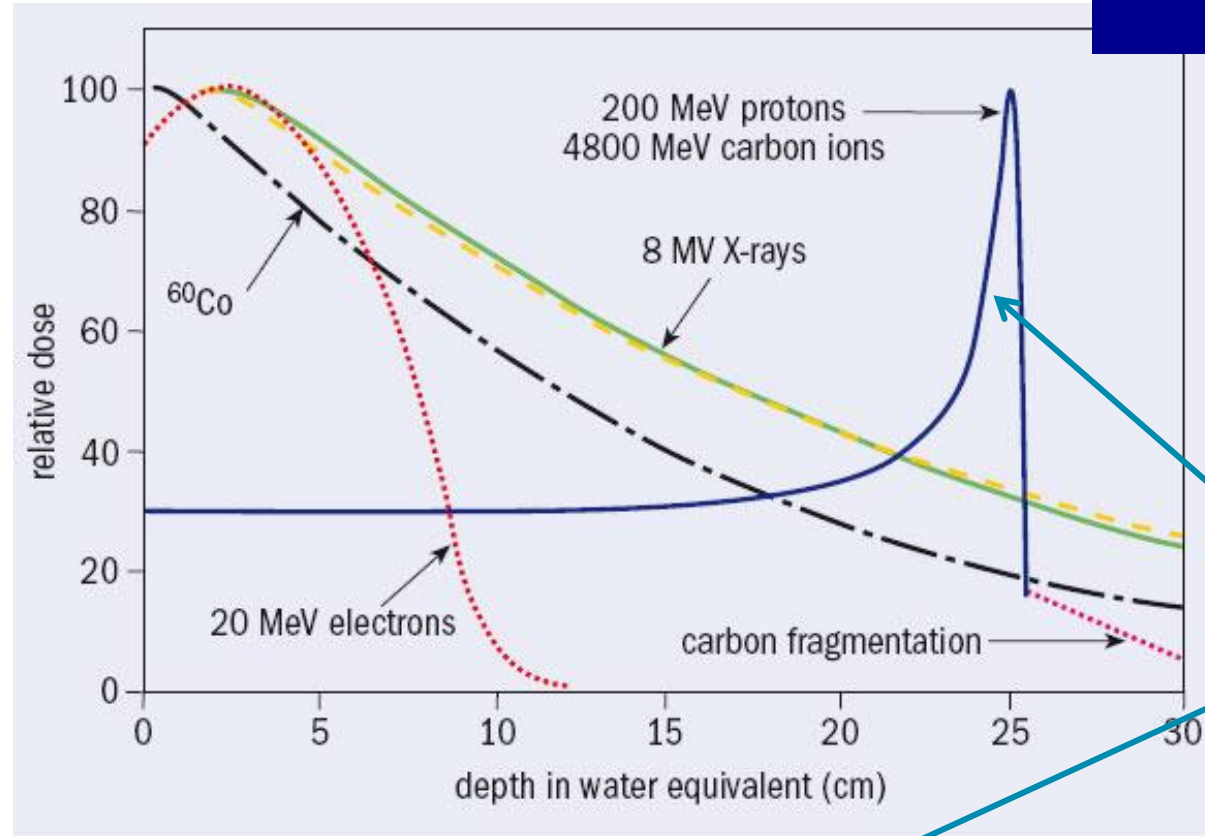
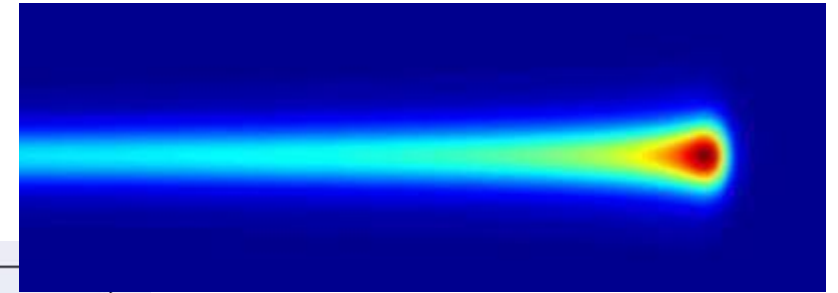
Nuclide	F-18	C-11	N-13	O-15	Ge-68
Half-Life	110min	20.5m	10m	2m	275d
Positron (keV)	630	960	1200	1730	1900
Gammas (keV)	511(2)	511	511	511	511

Mo-99/Tc-99m/Tc-99

30 Million procedures a year



The magic Bragg peak

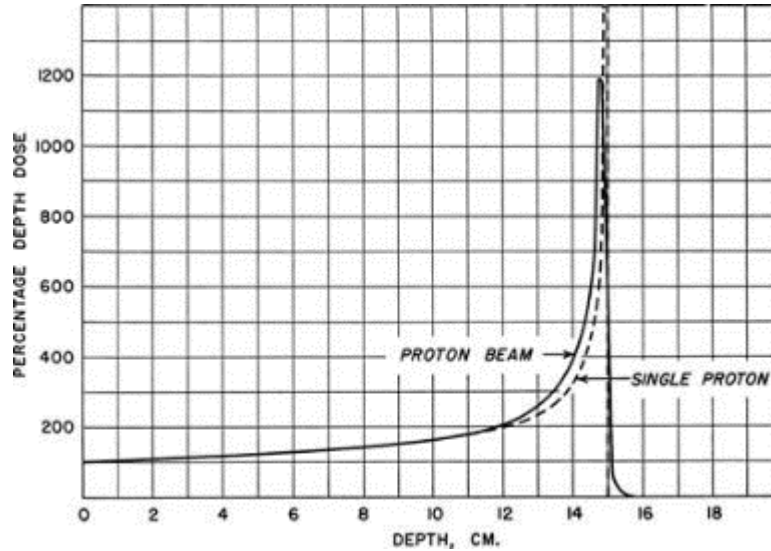


Also transverse scattering (MCS)

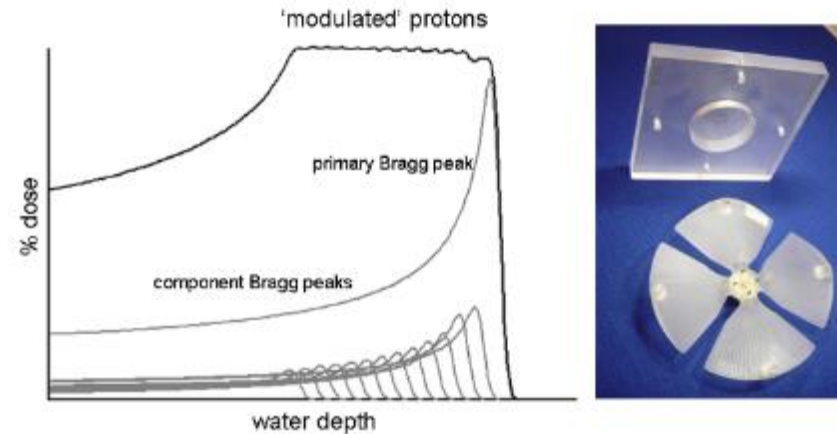
Rate of slowing inverse to energy; gives a peak at the end of range

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = \frac{4\pi}{m_e c^2} \cdot \boxed{\beta^2} \cdot \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\right)^2 \cdot \left[\ln \left(\frac{2m_e c^2 \beta^2}{I \cdot (1 - \beta^2)} \right) - \beta^2 \right]$$

Spreading out the peak



The original picture from R. R. Wilson's paper on proton therapy. (*Radiology* **47**, 487–491, 1946)



Intrinsic - straggling

Deliberate – range modulating

From source to patient

1

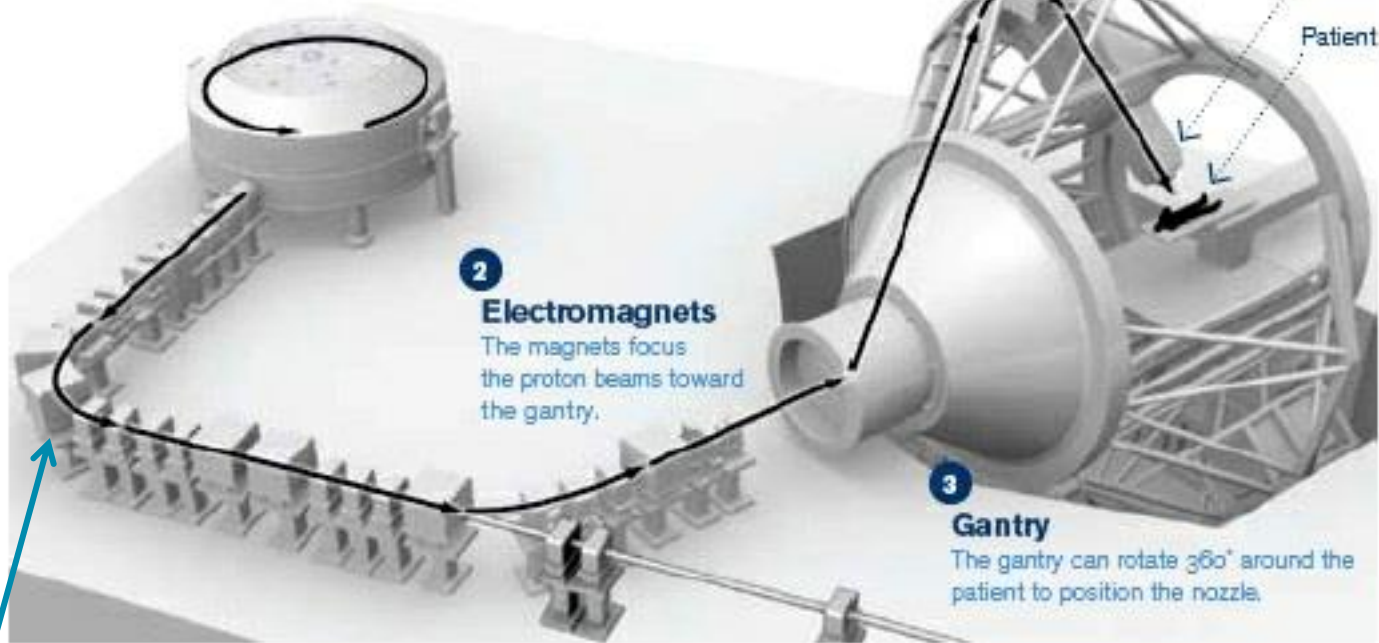
Cyclotron

Using magnetic fields, the cyclotron can accelerate the hydrogen protons to two-thirds the speed of light.

4

Nozzle

A 21,000-pound magnet guides the beam to the patient through a nozzle.



2

Electromagnets

The magnets focus the proton beams toward the gantry.

3

Gantry

The gantry can rotate 360° around the patient to position the nozzle.

Nozzle

Patient

ISIS Spallation Neutron Source

<https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0168900218317820>



		Target Station 1	Target Station 2
Synchrotron injection energy	70 MeV		
Synchrotron extraction energy	800 MeV		
Proton beam current	~225 μA	~180 μA	~45 μA
Beam pulse repetition rate	50 pps	40 pps	10 pps
Proton beam power	~180 kW		
Operational days per year	~200		
Tungsten target configuration		Multi-plate	'Solid' cylinder
No. of neutron instruments		17	10
No. of muon instruments		5	
No. of user visits	2278 (in 2017)		
No. of journal publications	486 (in 2017)		

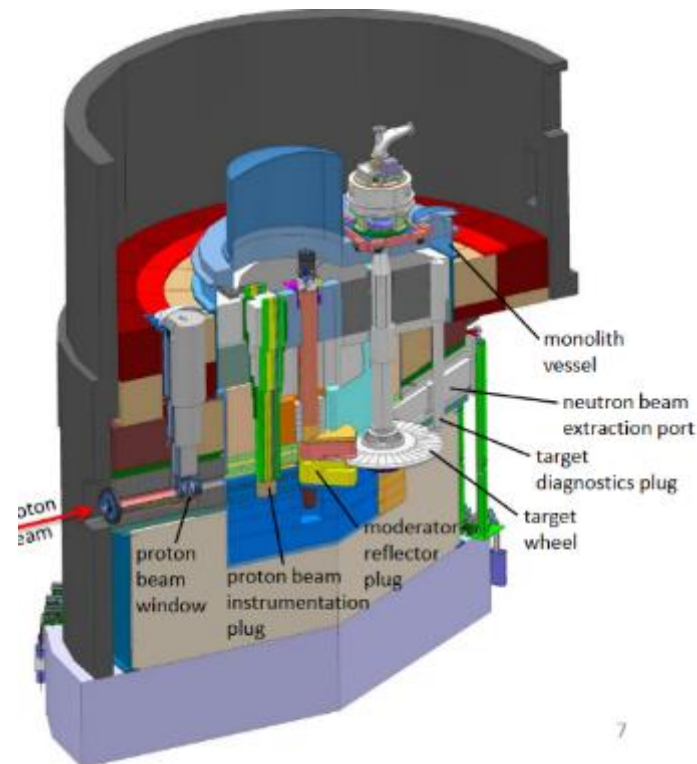
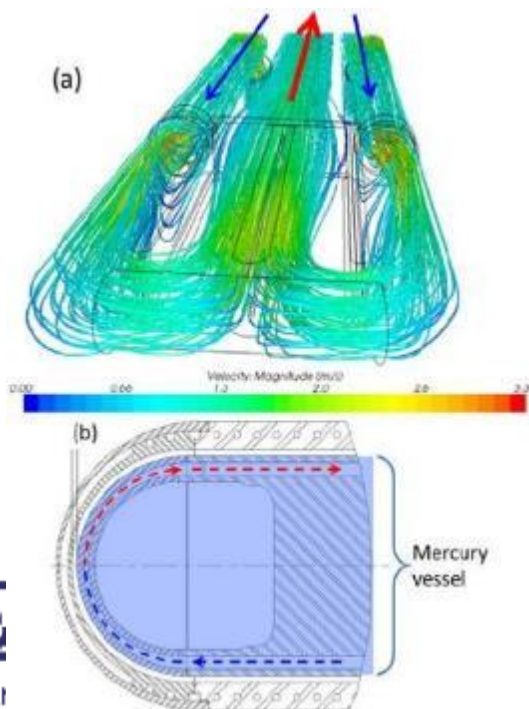
Spallation Targets

SNS (Oak Ridge) 1 MW liquid mercury target



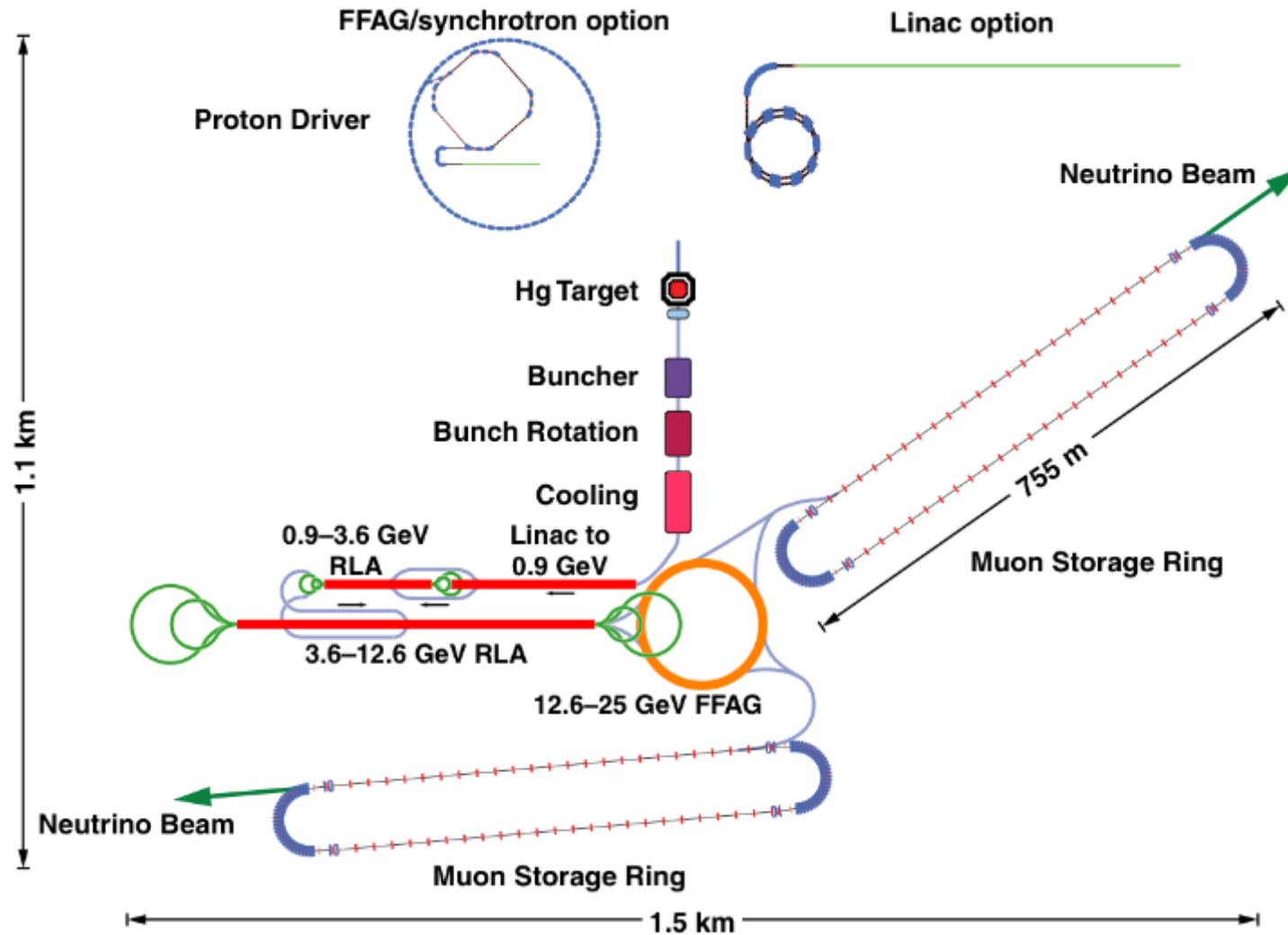
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Vopxry2Jq8c>

ISIS 160 kW solid W target

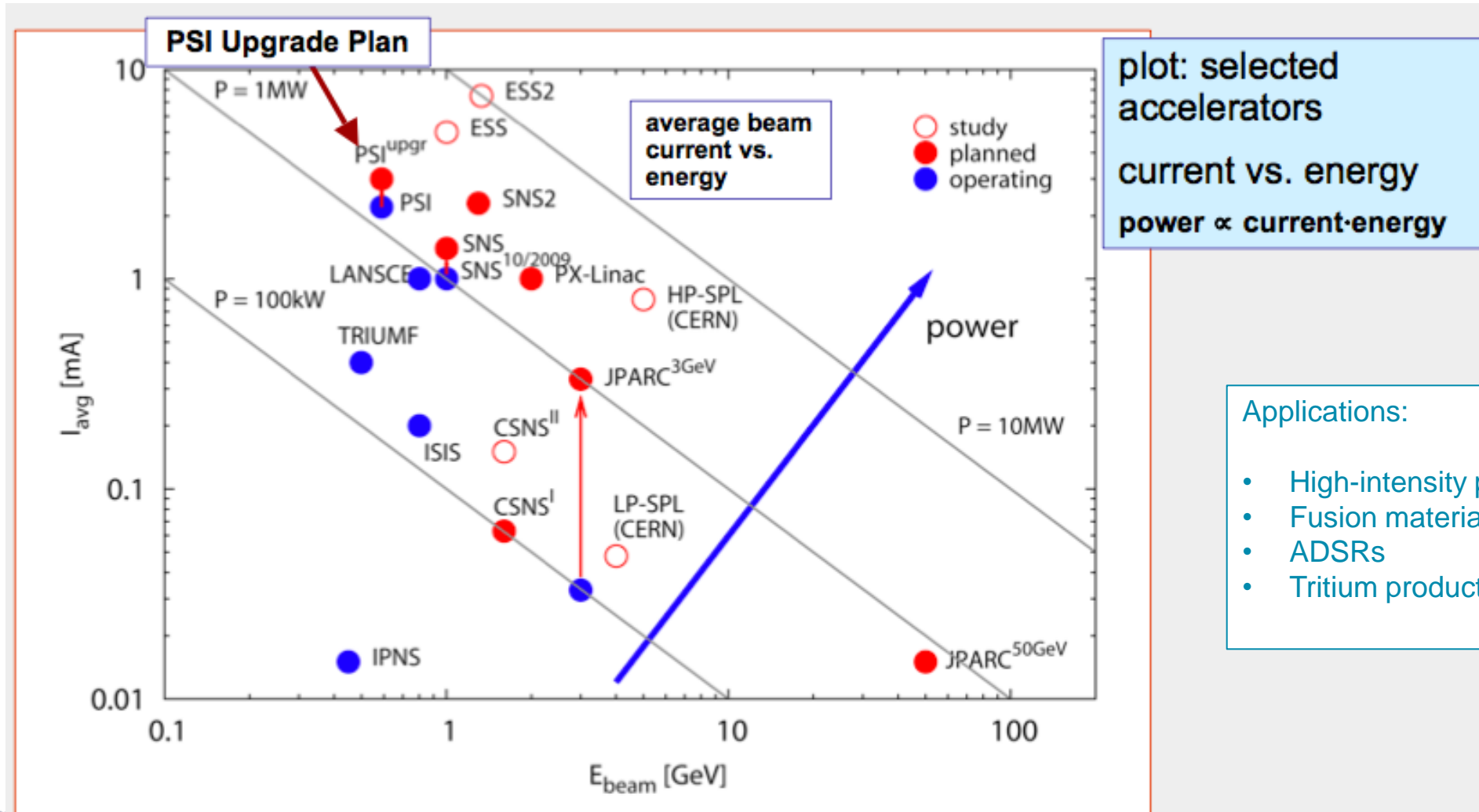


ESS 5 MW solid rotating W target

Neutrino Factory

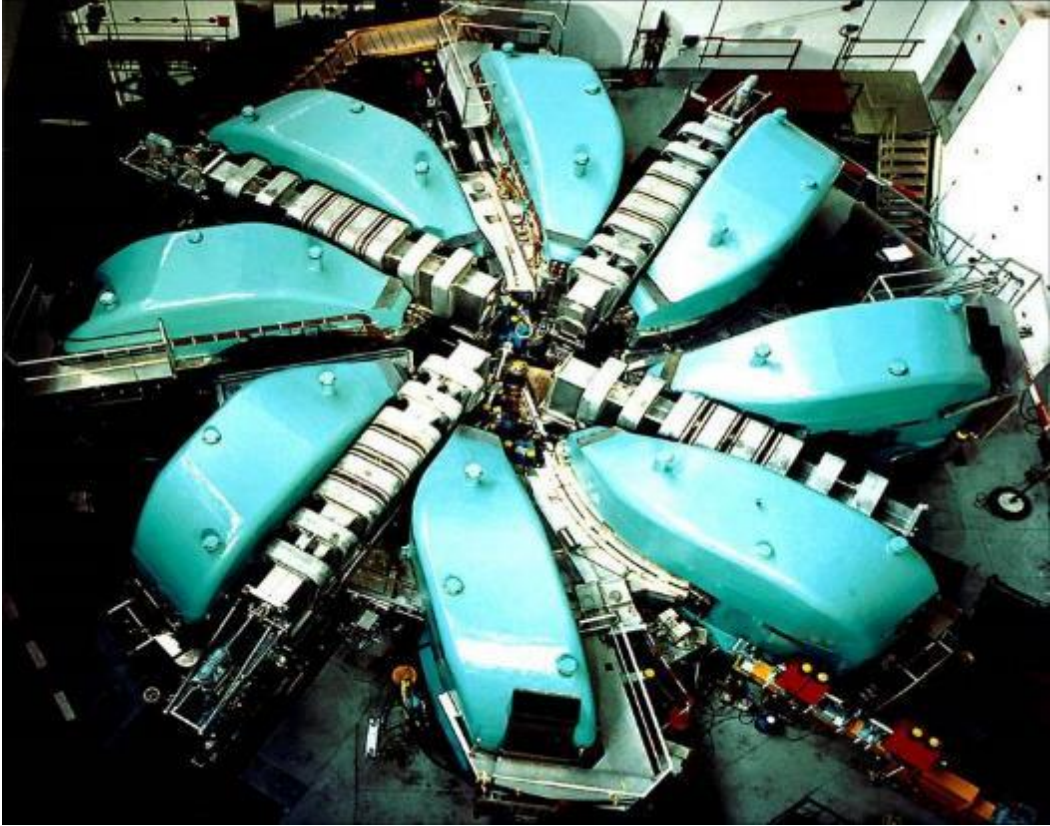


Proton Driver Power



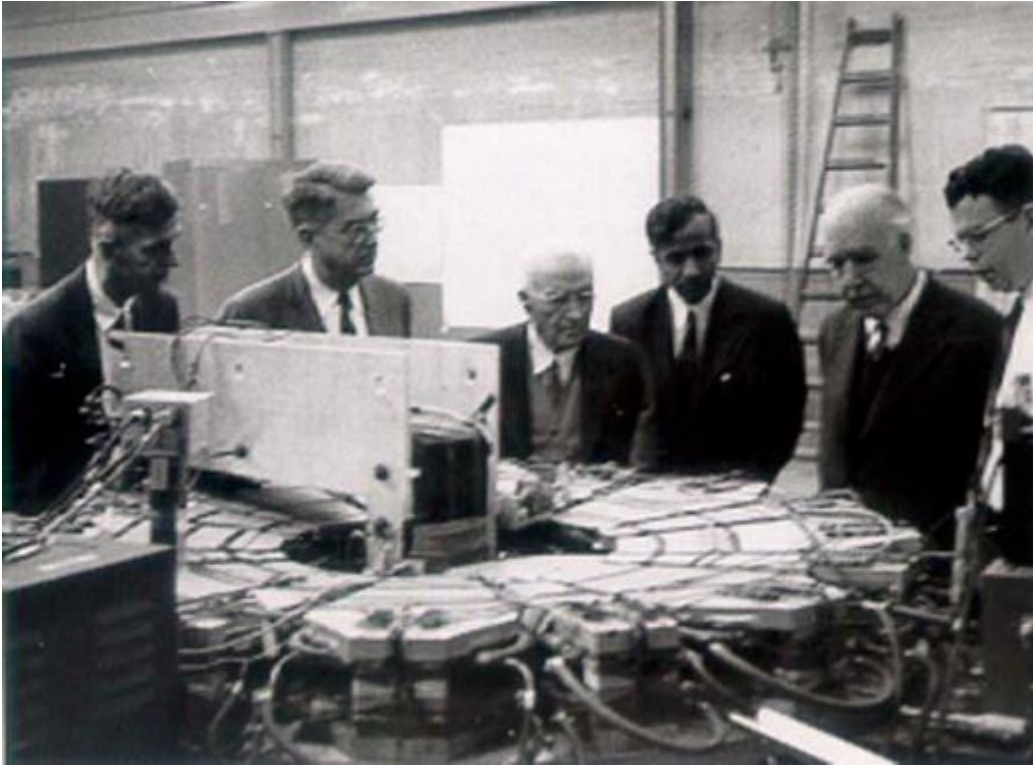
PSI Parameters: [2.2mA, 1.3MW] → [3mA, 1.8MW]

The PSI Cyclotron – (still) the world's highest power accelerator (1.3 MW)

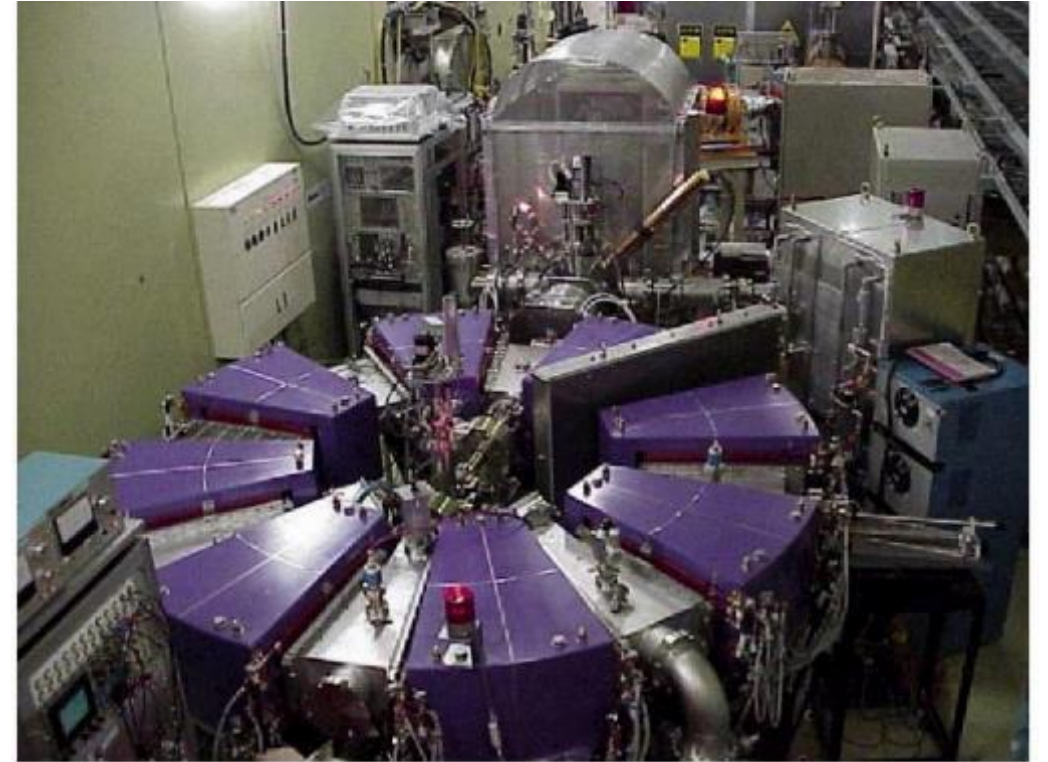


- p^+ 590 MeV
- 2 mA
- (Zurich, Switzerland)

FFAGs – Fixed Field, Alternating Gradient

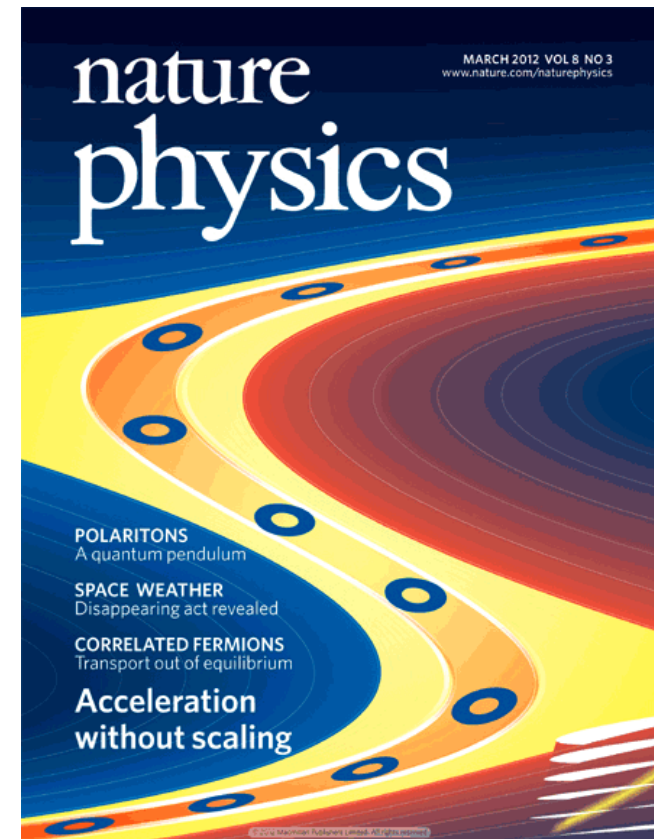
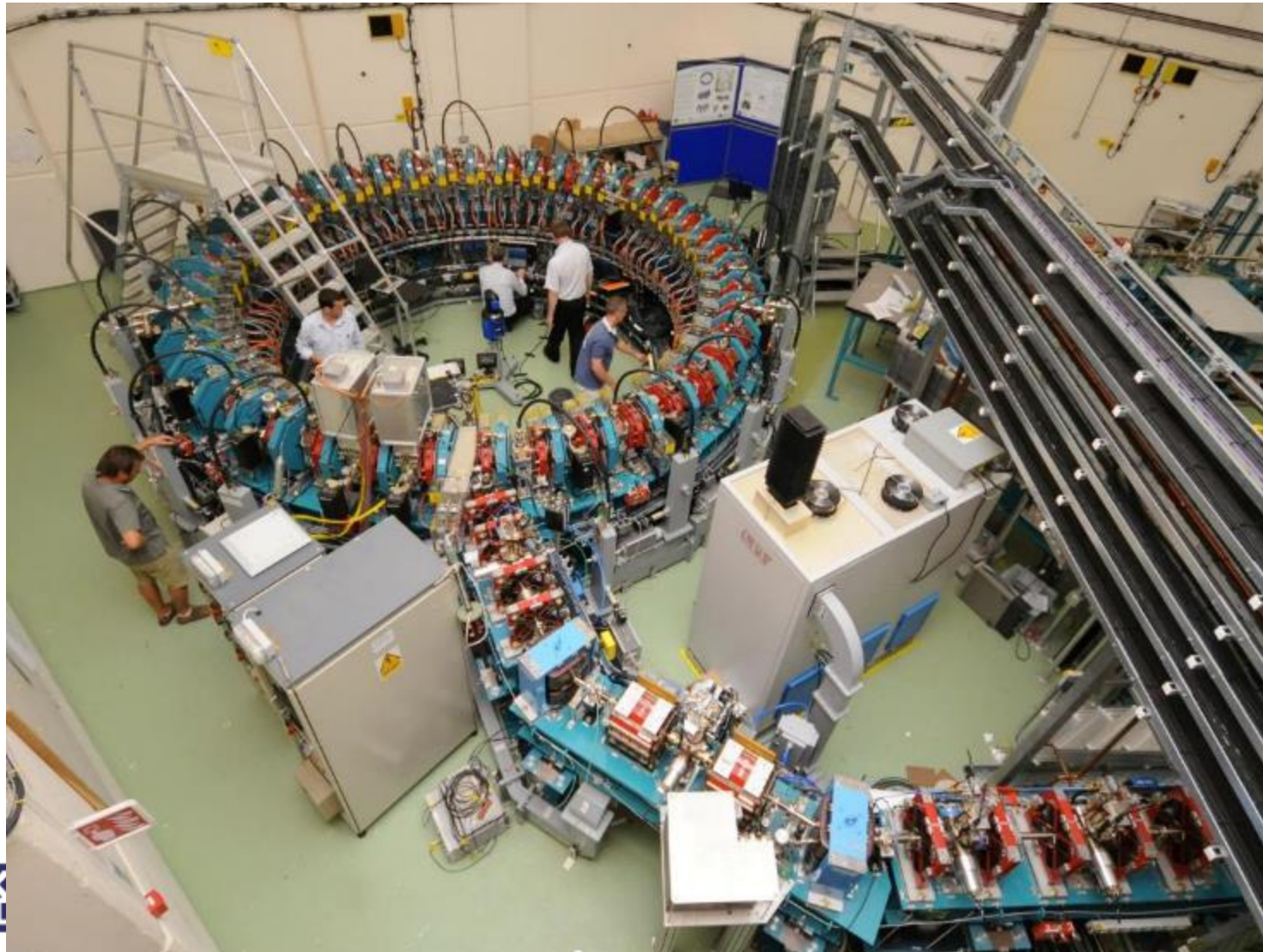


MURA, 1956 – a variant of the betatron



KEK, 2000. First proton FFAG

EMMA – the first NS-FFAG



- Gives a larger energy range
- First one built by Daresbury/CI
- CBETA recently demonstrated at Cornell Uni

ADA – the first electron storage ring

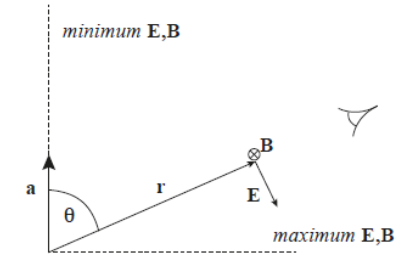
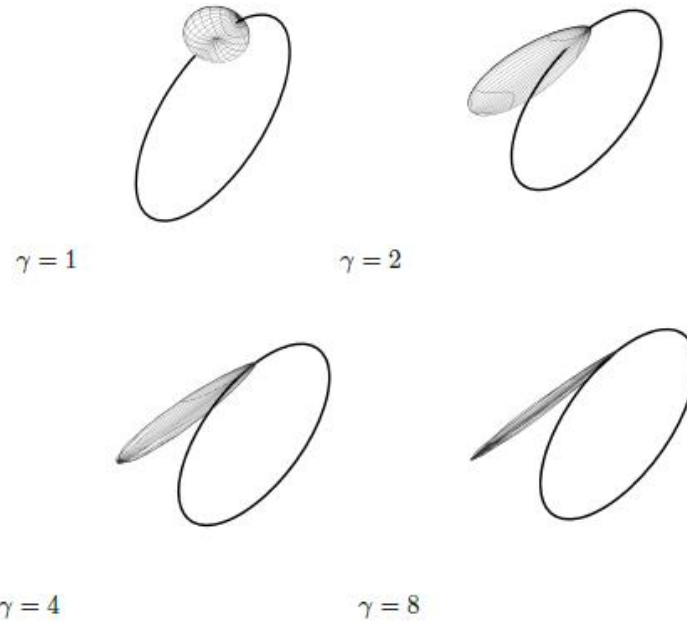
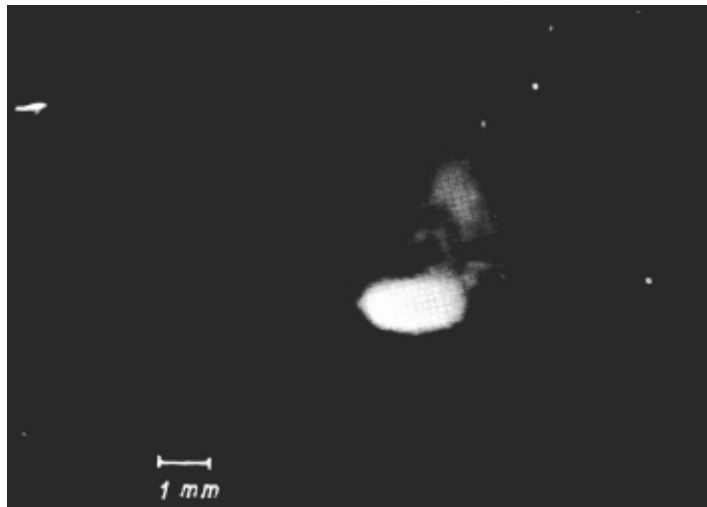
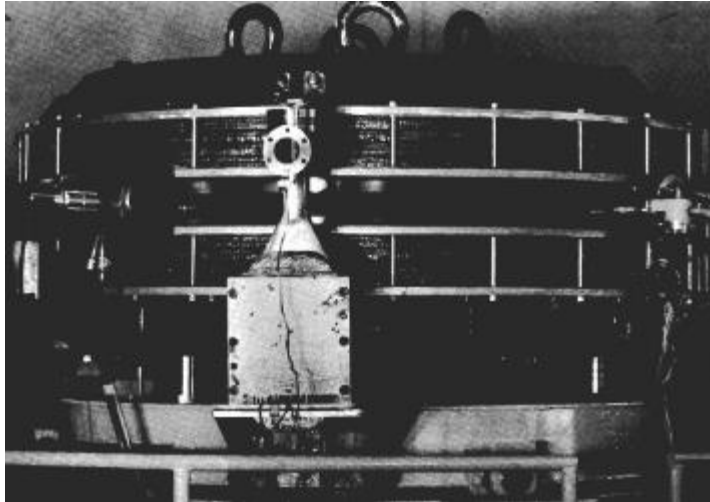


FIGURE 6.5 Illustration of how the magnitude of the emitted electric and magnetic fields vary with observation angle θ .

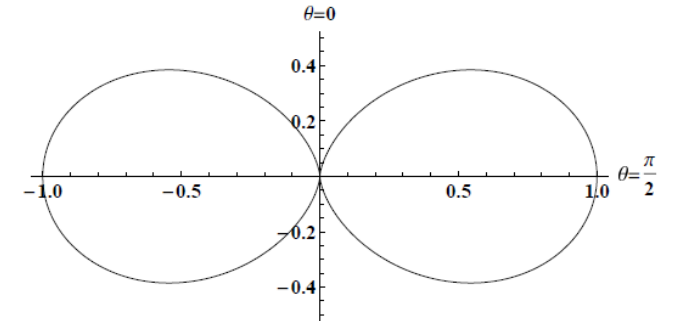
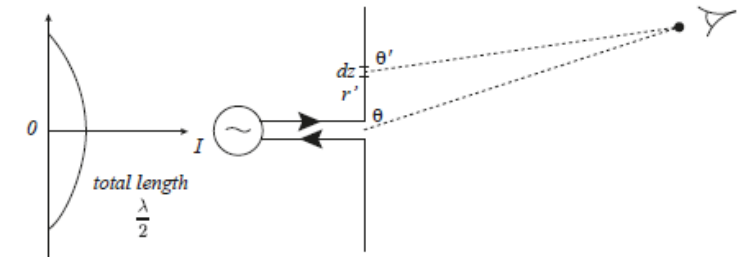
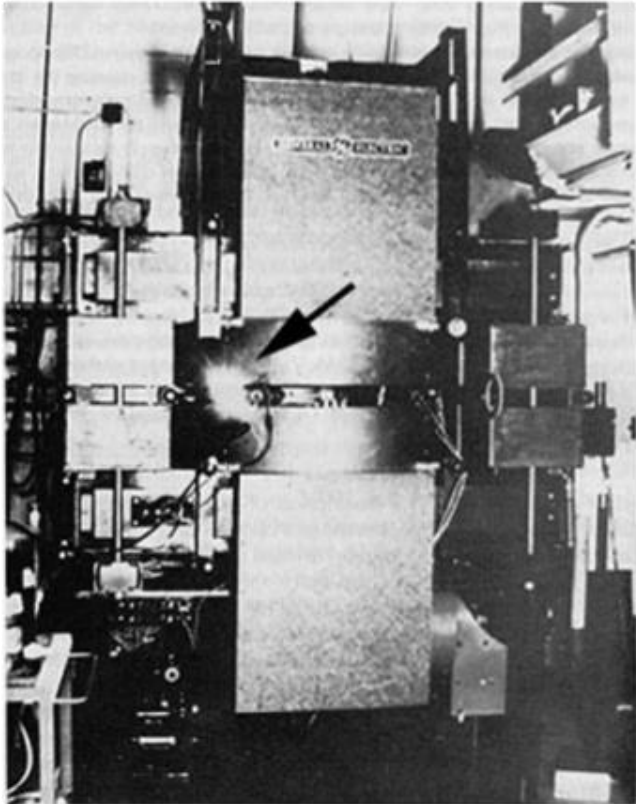


FIGURE 6.6 2D illustration of how the magnitude of the Poynting vector \mathbf{S} (here shown as the distance of the solid from the origin, for any given angle θ) varies with observation angle θ .





'If the accelerator tube of the 100-MeV betatron at Schenectady had not been opaque, the visual observation would probably have been made three years earlier by Westendorp or Blewett soon after the publication of your letter to the Physical Review (Phys. Rev. 65:343, 1944). Unfortunately they were not able to see through the silvered wall of the betatron donut.'

The General Electric Synchrotron

$$P = \frac{e^2 c \gamma^4}{6\pi \epsilon_0 \rho^2}, \langle \epsilon \rangle = \frac{8\sqrt{3}}{45} \frac{\hbar c \gamma^3}{\rho}, U_0 = \frac{e^2 \gamma^4}{3\epsilon_0 \rho}.$$

$$N_\gamma = \frac{U_0}{\langle \epsilon \rangle} = \frac{45}{8\sqrt{3}} \frac{2}{3} \frac{\rho}{\hbar c \gamma^3} \frac{e^2 \gamma^4}{3\epsilon_0 \rho}. \quad N_\gamma = \frac{5\pi}{\sqrt{3}} \alpha \gamma \simeq 0.0662\gamma.$$

$$P_{\text{total}} [\text{kW}] = 88.4 \frac{E [\text{GeV}]^4 I_b [\text{A}]}{\rho [\text{m}]} \quad \text{for electrons}$$

Beam Equilibrium

ABCO Section 6.4

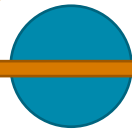
$$\epsilon_x = C_q \frac{\gamma^2}{J_x} \frac{I_5}{I_2} \quad \epsilon_y \simeq \kappa \epsilon_x$$

$$I_5 = \oint \frac{H(s)}{|\rho(s)^3|} ds \quad I_2 = \oint \frac{1}{\rho(s)^2} ds$$

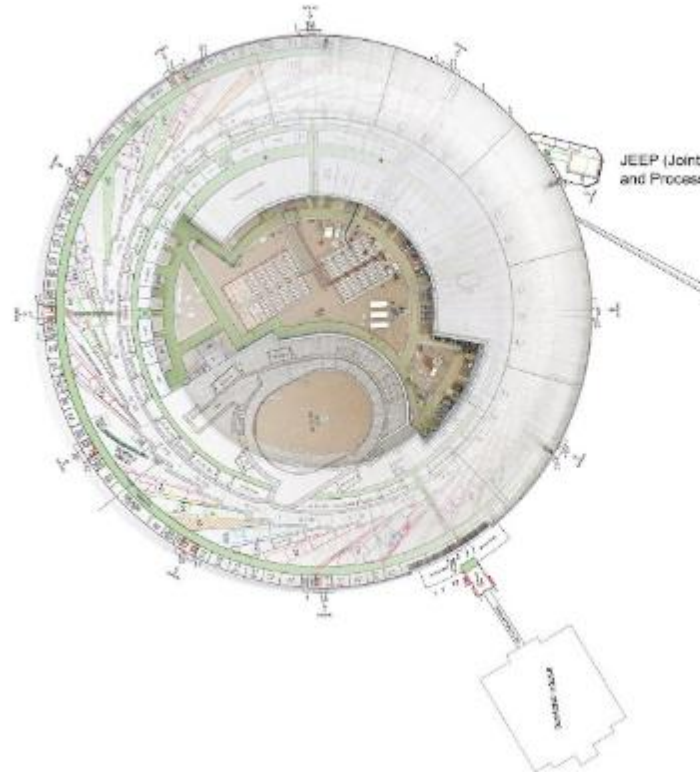
$$H = \gamma\eta^2 + 2\alpha\eta\eta' + \beta\eta'^2$$

$$C_q = 55\hbar c / 32\sqrt{3}m_e c^2$$

Typical storage ring emittance



Typical diffraction-limited emittance
(depends on λ)



Example 6.10

Average photon energy emitted from an electron storage ring

The DIAMOND Light Source in Oxfordshire is the UK's national synchrotron radiation production facility, and one of the brightest such sources on the planet; it is used by thousands of researchers each year. Like all such sources the magnetic field is more complex than being just a single, uniform field B , but there are dipole magnets in which the electrons are bent so that they can be stored; DIAMOND is therefore a *storage ring*.

The electrons in DIAMOND are maintained at a kinetic energy $K = 3$ GeV, and pass through dipole magnets that give a field of 1.4 T, which corresponds to a bending radius $r = 7.1$ m; note that the circumference L of the storage ring is not $L = 2\pi r$, since not all of the path taken by the electrons has a bending field B applied. In fact, in most storage rings only a small fraction of the particle path has dipole field. The word 'circumference' when used for storage rings is therefore a bit of a misnomer; by 'circumference' we mean the total distance travelled by the particle in one orbital period. In DIAMOND, the circumference $L = 561.6$ m, so that the revolution period is $\tau_r = L/c \simeq 1.87 \mu\text{s}$.

Hence the critical energy of the photons (emitted by the electrons within the dipoles) is $E_{crit} = 8.3$ keV. The average photon energy is $\langle E_\gamma \rangle = 2.8$ keV.

Example 6.11

Synchrotron radiation power and number of photons from an electron storage ring

Of course, there isn't just one electron orbiting in DIAMOND. Knowing that an ammeter placed at any point in the storage ring measures a typical passing current of 300 mA and that obviously $I \equiv \Delta Q / \Delta t$, the total charge in the storage ring ΔQ is

$$\Delta Q = I \Delta t = \frac{IL}{c} \quad (6.54)$$

where the circumference is $L = 561.6$ m, and $\Delta t = \tau_r$. The number of electrons is then just

$$N_e = \frac{\Delta Q}{e} \simeq 3.5 \times 10^{12} \quad (6.55)$$

for a current of 300 mA.

By comparing the synchrotron radiation power to the revolution period, we can straightforwardly obtain that the energy loss per orbit revolution is

$$U_0 = \frac{e^2 \gamma^4}{3\epsilon_0 r} \simeq 1.0 \text{ MeV}. \quad (6.56)$$

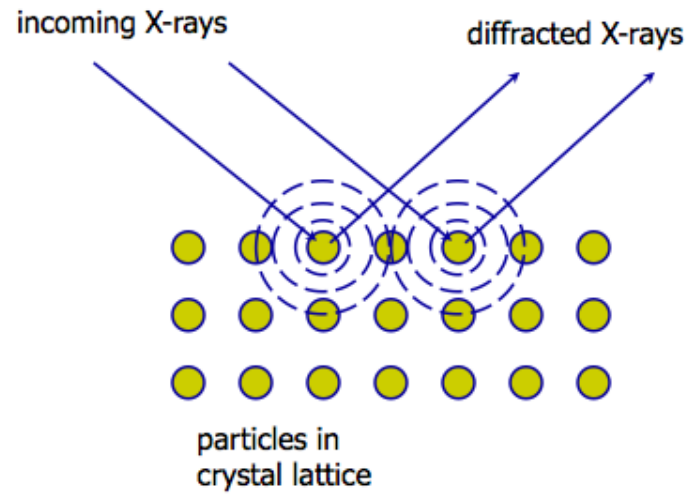
The total power radiated by each electron is $P_e = 86$ nW, but since there are $\sim 10^{12}$ electrons the total power emitted is $P_{total} = N_e P_e \simeq 300$ kW. This is a simply enormous power. Synchrotron radiation facilities such as DIAMOND are the only known method of producing such a large quantity of X-ray photons; they are one of the brightest artificial sources of photons.

Knowing the energy lost per turn and the average photon energy, we can easily calculate the number of photons emitted by each electron as it executes a single orbit. This is

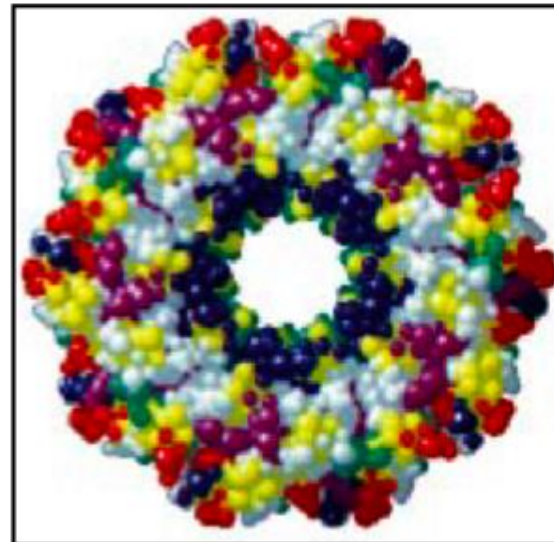
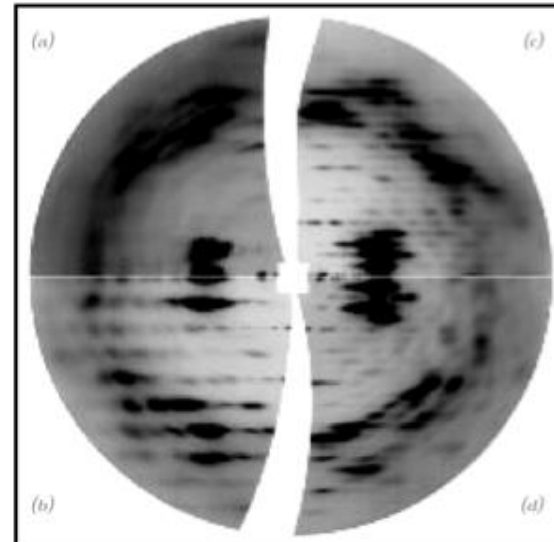
$$N_\gamma = \frac{U_0}{\langle E_\gamma \rangle} \simeq \frac{2}{3} \frac{e^2}{\epsilon_0 \hbar c} \gamma = \frac{2}{3} 4\pi\alpha\gamma = \frac{8\pi}{3}\alpha\gamma, \quad (6.57)$$

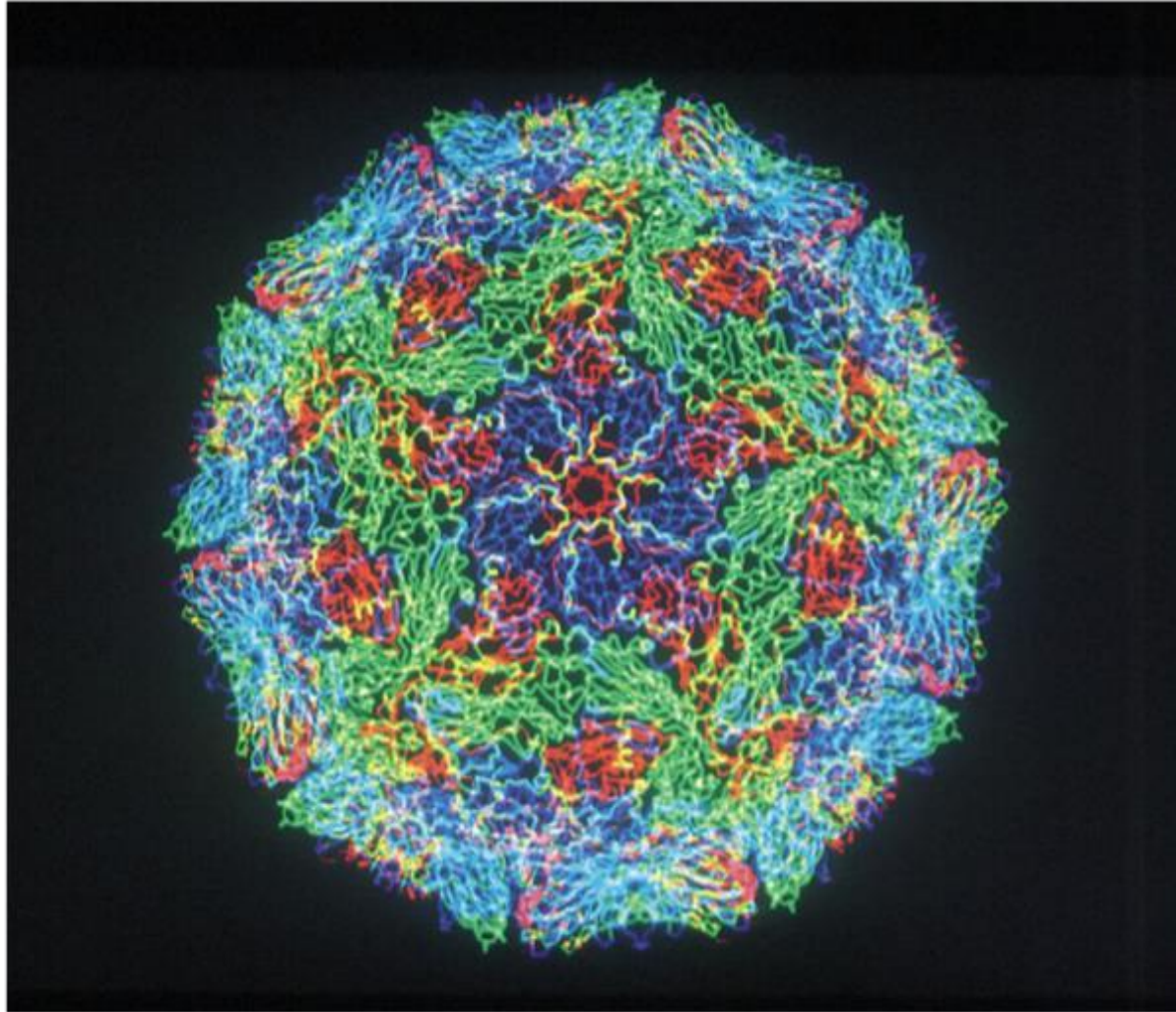
Insertion Devices



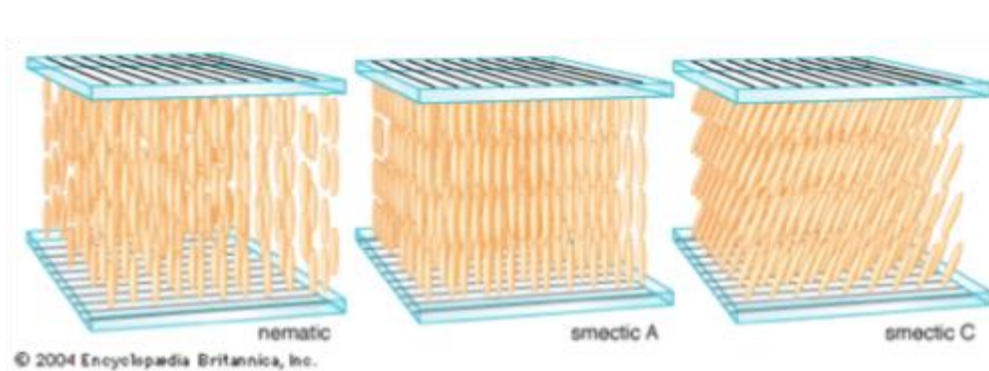
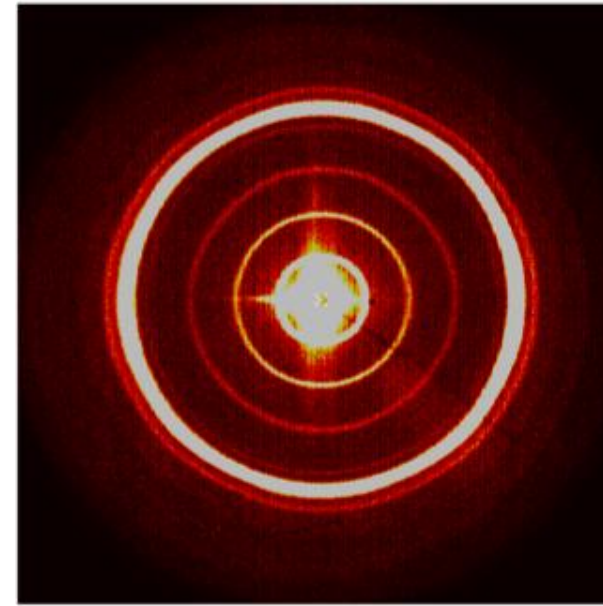
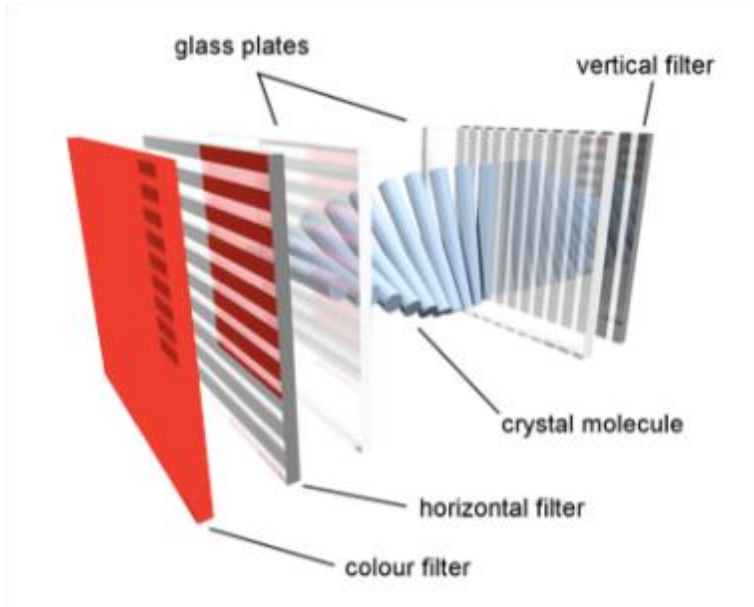


X-ray diffraction

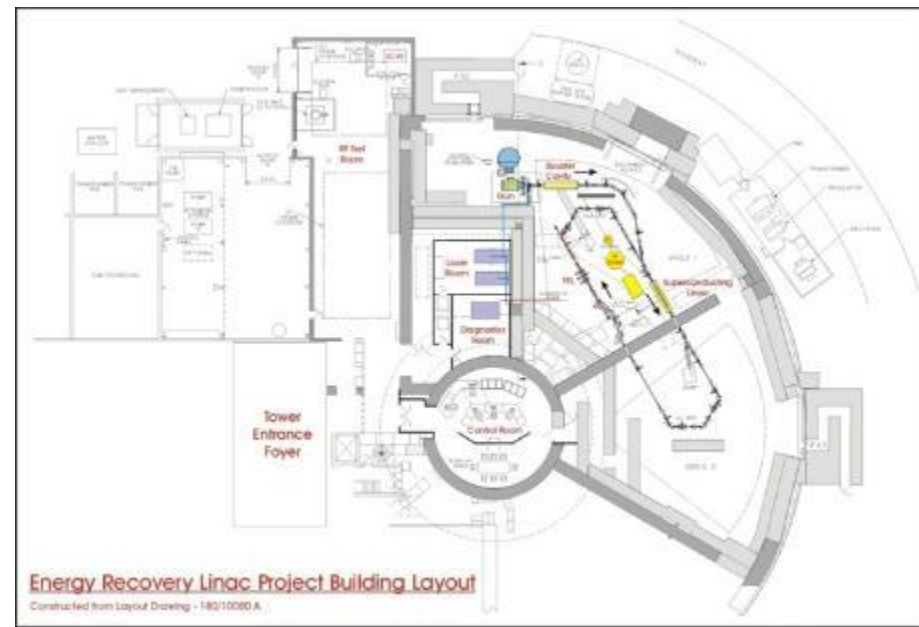
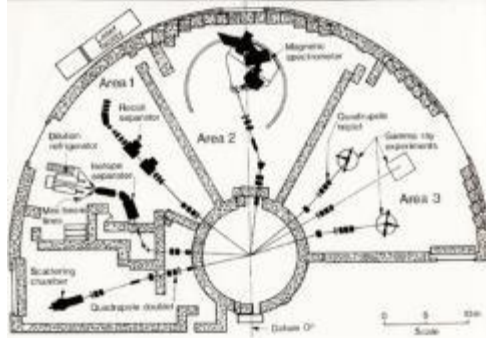




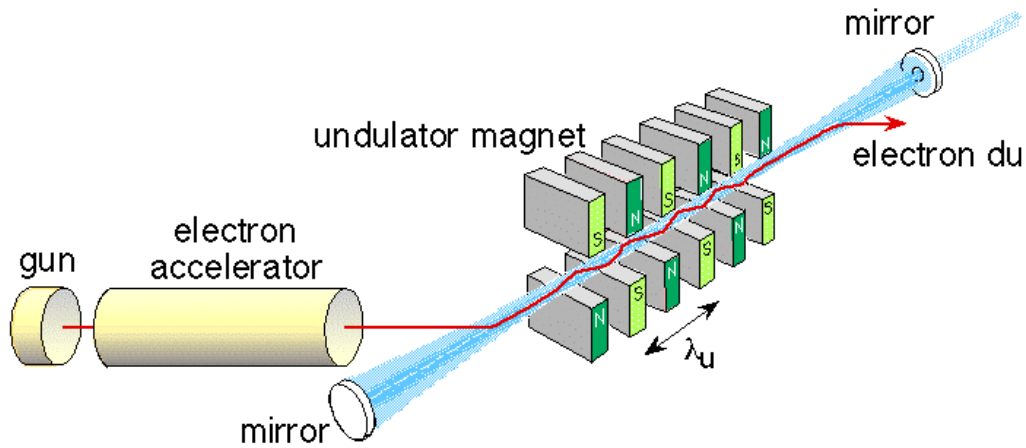
Foot and Mouth Virus



ALICE in Daresbury Tower



Oscillator Free Electron Laser (FEL) Principle



- relativistic electron beam passes through periodic magnetic field - radiates
- mirror feeds spontaneous emission back onto the beam
- spontaneous emission enhanced by stimulated emission

$$\lambda_n = \frac{\lambda_u}{2n\gamma^2} \left[1 + \frac{K^2}{2} + \gamma^2\theta^2 \right]$$

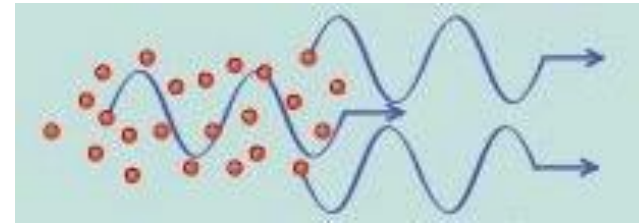
where :

$$n = 1, 2, 3 \dots$$

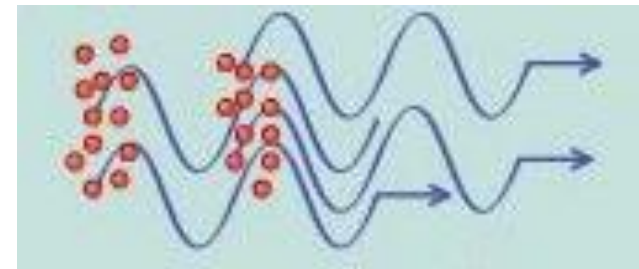
$$\gamma = \frac{E}{m_0 c^2}, \quad K = 0.934 B_0 \lambda_u$$

λ_u is the undulator period

(B_0 is in Tesla and λ_u is in cm)

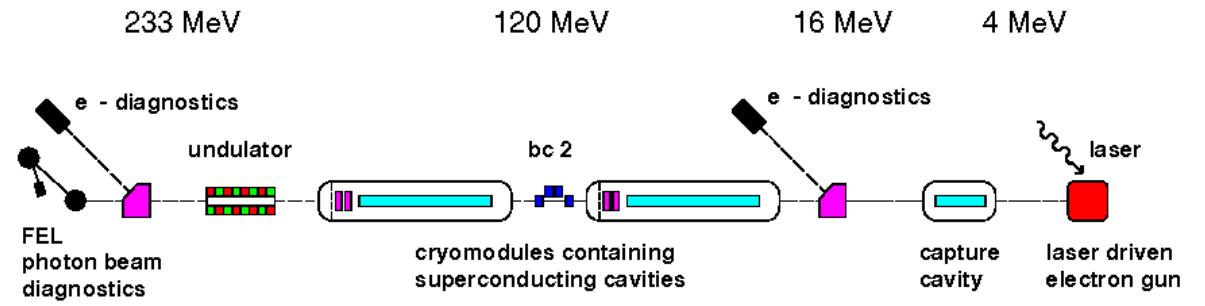
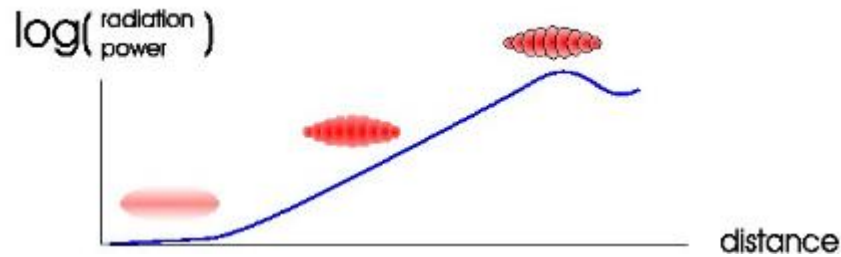
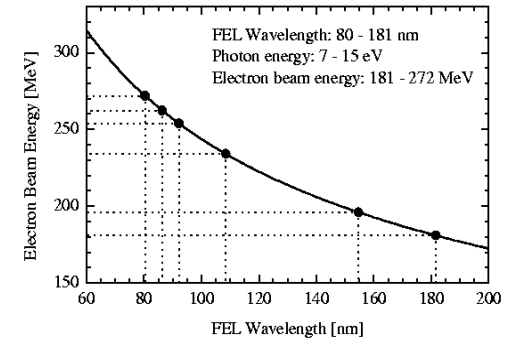
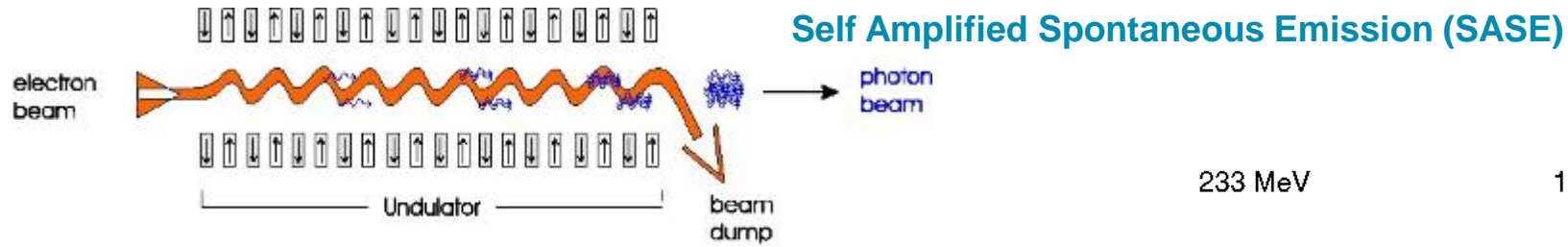


Incoherent emission:
Synchrotron Radiation
Intensity $\sim N_e$



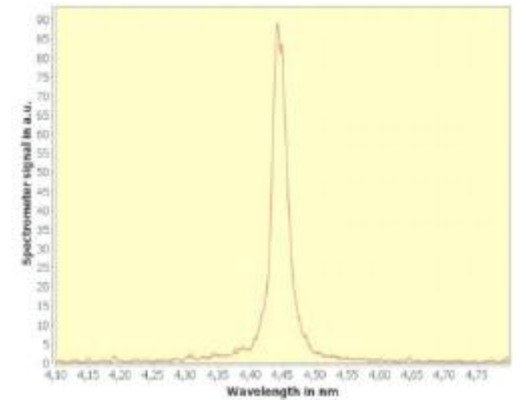
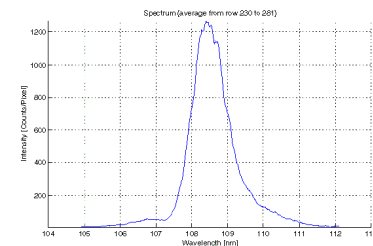
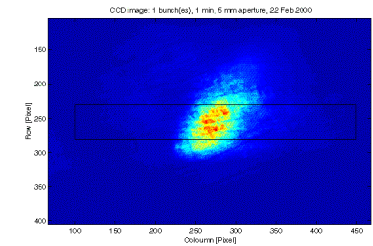
Coherent emission:
Free-Electron Laser (FEL)
Intensity $\sim N_e^2$

High Gain FEL - Single Pass SASE



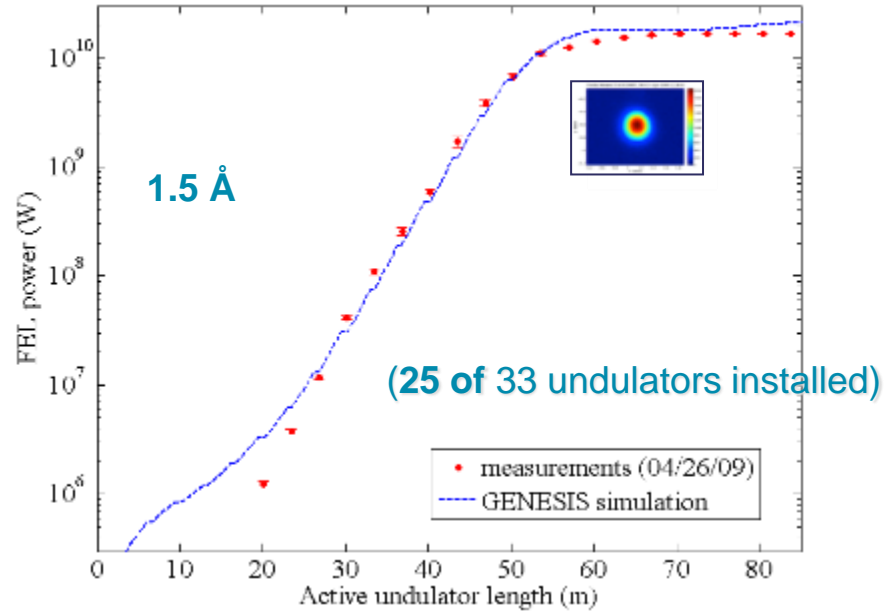
First SASE demonstration at TTF (FLASH), DESY, 2000

- electrons start emitting incoherent radiation
- radiation from the tail of the bunch interacts with electrons nearer the front, causing the electrons to bunch on the scale of the radiation wavelength
- due to the bunching, the electrons emit more coherently
- more radiation → more bunching → more radiation ... *an instability*
- radiation power grows exponentially



June 2010 achieved 4.5 nm at 1.2 GeV

X-Ray Free-Electron Lasers



Linac Coherent Light Source



Use of 1/3 SLAC Linac

14 GeV

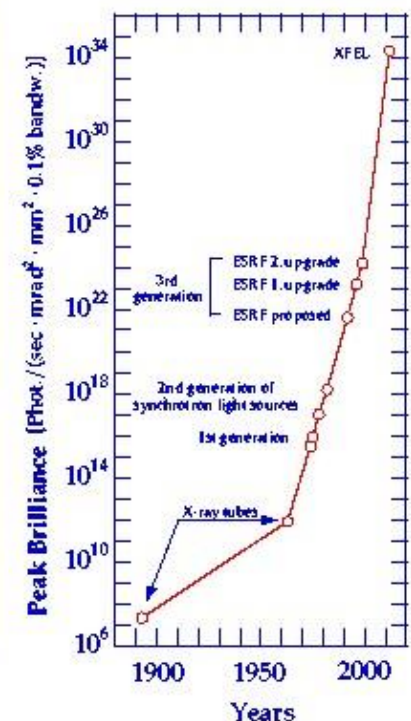
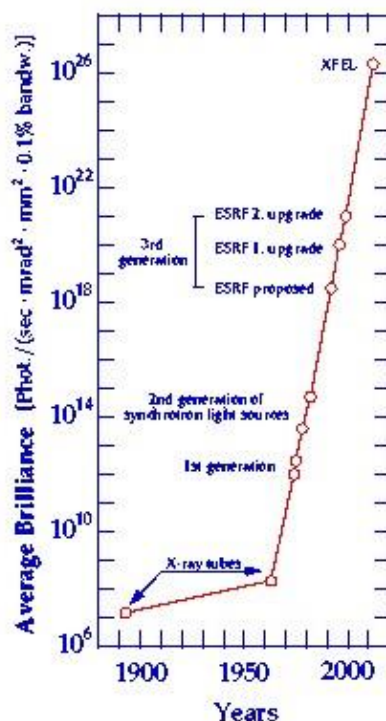
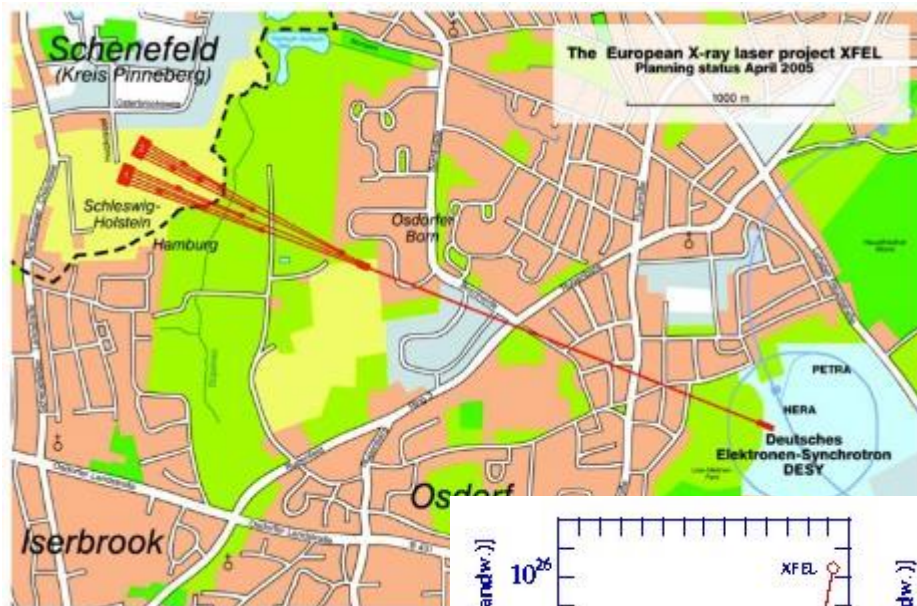
$ge_{x,y} = 0.4 \text{ mm (slice)}$

$I_{pk} = 3.0 \text{ kA}$

$s_E/E = 0.01\% \text{ (slice)}$



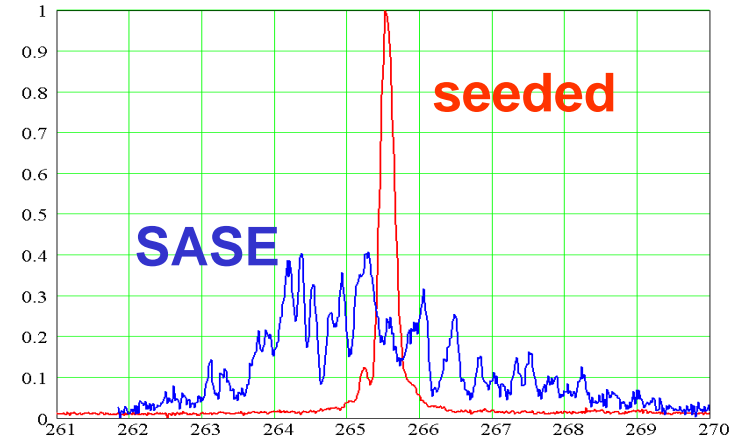
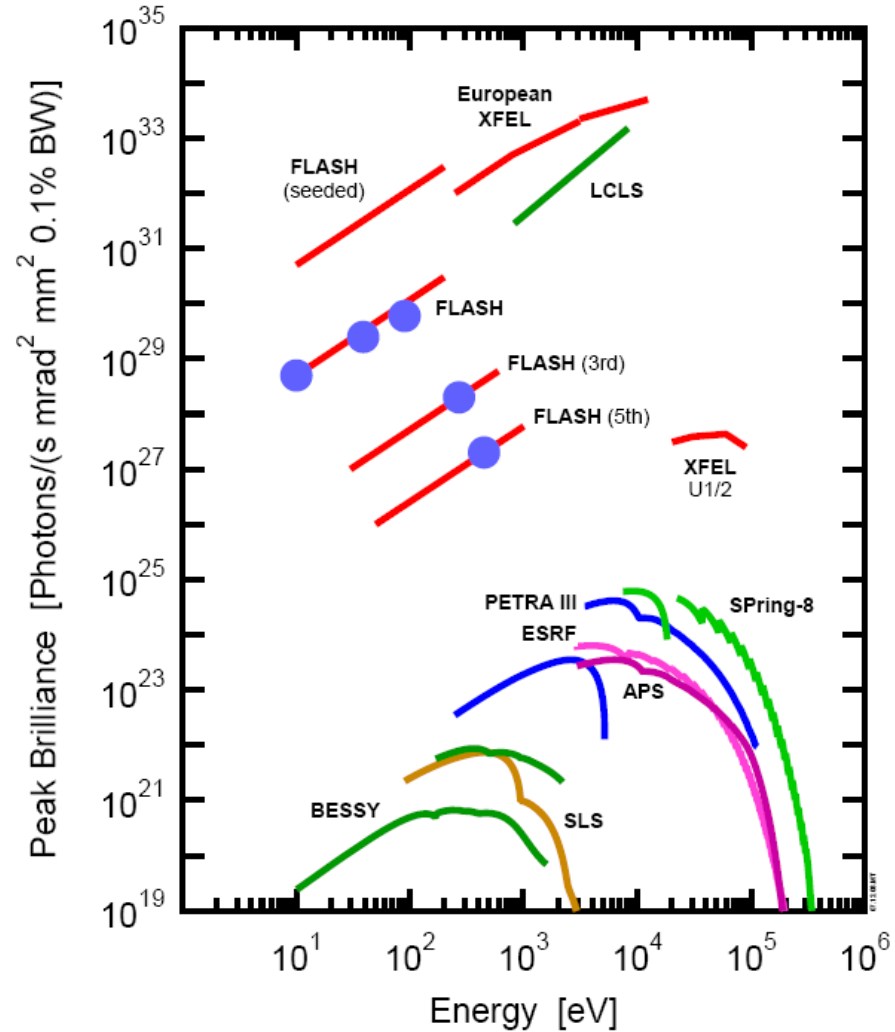
Europe's Answer: XFEL



Performance Goals for the Electron Beam	
Beam Energy Range	10 - 20 GeV
Emittance (norm.)	1.4 mrad · mm
Bunch Charge	1 nC
Bunch Length (1σ)	80 fs
Energy-Spread (uncorrelated)	<2.5 MeV rms
Main Linac	
Acc. Gradient @ 20 GeV	23 MV/m
Linac Length	approx. 1.5 km
Beam Current (max)	5 mA
Beam Pulse Length	0.65 ns
# Bunches p. Pulse (max)	3250
Bunch Spacing (min)	200 ns
Repetition Rate	10 Hz
Avg. Beam Power (max)	650 kW

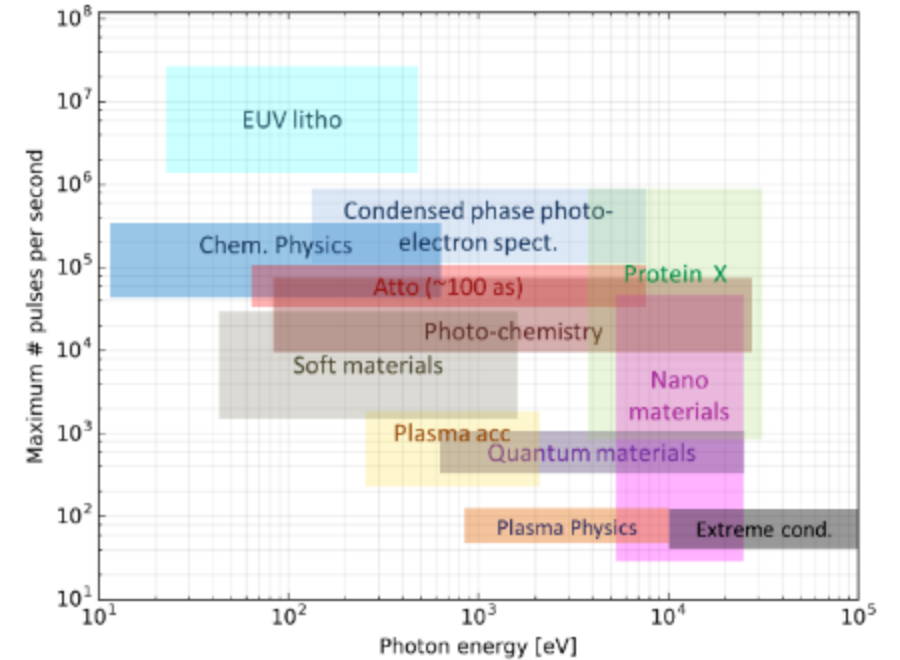
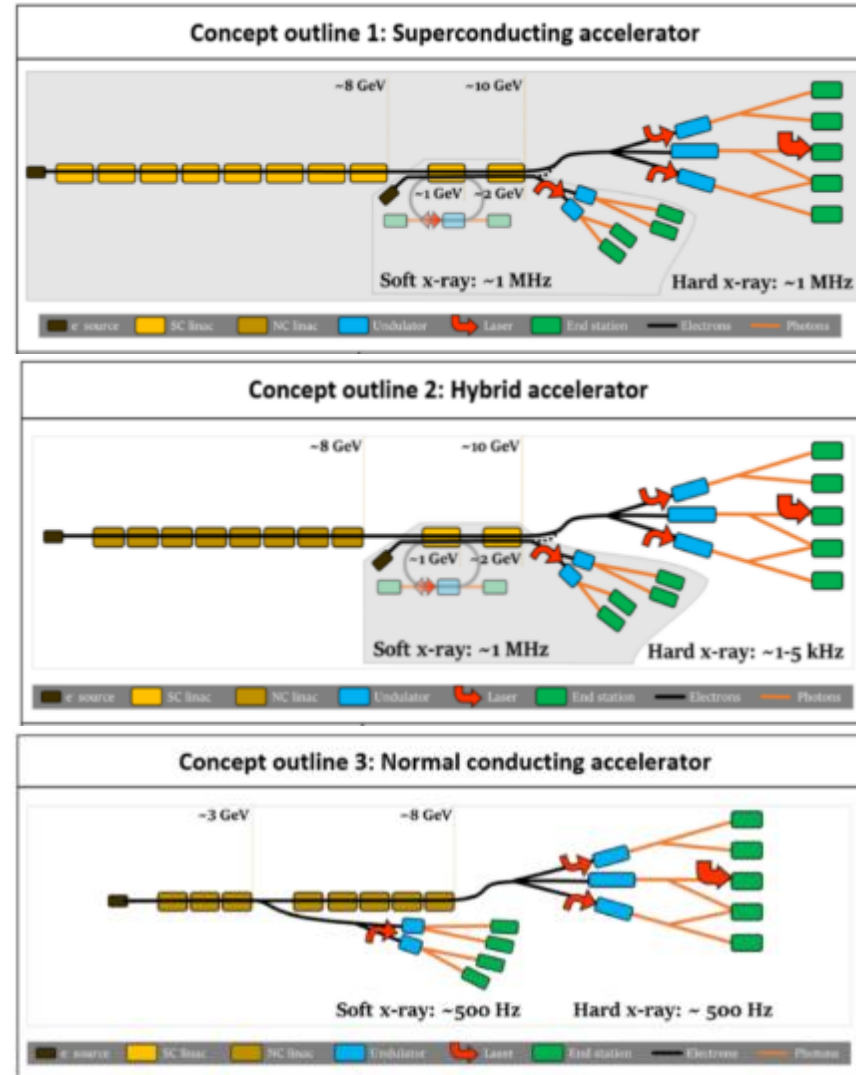
Performance Goals for SASE FEL Radiation	
photon energy	15 – 0.2 keV
Wavelength	0.08 – 6.4 nm
peak power	10 – 20 GW
average power	40 – 80 W
number photon per pulse	0.5 – 4 × 10 ¹²
peak brilliance	2.5 – 0.08 × 10 ³³ *
average brilliance	1 – 0.03 × 10 ²⁵ *
* in units of photons / (s mrad ² mm ² 0.1% bw)	

Comparison of 3rd and 4th Generation Sources



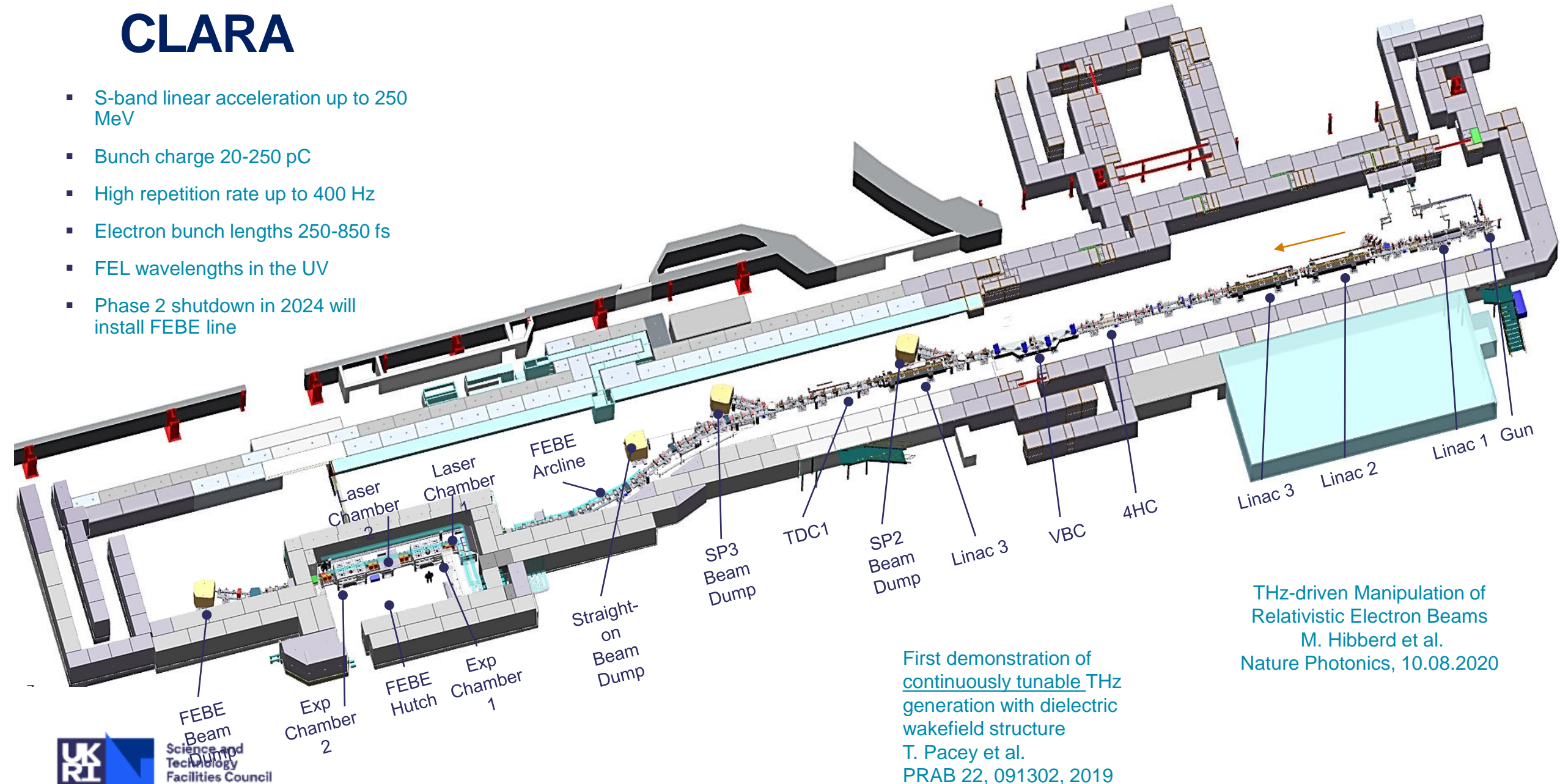
Seeding is very important for FEL beam quality

UK FEL



CLARA

- S-band linear acceleration up to 250 MeV
- Bunch charge 20-250 pC
- High repetition rate up to 400 Hz
- Electron bunch lengths 250-850 fs
- FEL wavelengths in the UV
- Phase 2 shutdown in 2024 will install FEBE line



First demonstration of continuously tunable THz generation with dielectric wakefield structure
T. Pacey et al.
PRAB 22, 091302, 2019

THz-driven Manipulation of Relativistic Electron Beams
M. Hibberd et al.
Nature Photonics, 10.08.2020

Standard Model of FUNDAMENTAL PARTICLES AND INTERACTIONS

The Standard Model summarizes the current knowledge in Particle Physics. It is the quantum theory that includes the theory of strong interactions (quantum chromodynamics or QCD) and the unified theory of weak and electromagnetic interactions (electroweak). Gravity is included on this chart because it is one of the fundamental interactions even though not part of the "Standard Model."

FERMIONS

matter constituents
spin = 1/2, 3/2, 5/2, ...

Leptons spin = 1/2		
Flavor	Mass GeV/c ²	Electric charge
ν_e electron neutrino	<1×10 ⁻⁸	0
e electron	0.000511	-1
ν_μ muon neutrino	<0.0002	0
μ muon	0.106	-1
ν_τ tau neutrino	<0.02	0
τ tau	1.7771	-1

Quarks spin = 1/2		
Flavor	Approx. Mass GeV/c ²	Electric charge
u up	0.003	2/3
d down	0.006	-1/3
c charm	1.3	2/3
s strange	0.1	-1/3
t top	175	2/3
b bottom	4.3	-1/3

Spin is the intrinsic angular momentum of particles. Spin is given in units of \hbar , which is the quantum unit of angular momentum, where $\hbar = M\lambda = 6.58 \times 10^{-27} \text{ GeV s} = 1.05 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}$.

Electric charges are given in units of the proton's charge. In SI units the electric charge of the proton is 1.60×10^{-19} coulombs.

The **energy** unit of particle physics is the electronvolt (eV), the energy gained by one electron in crossing a potential difference of one volt. **Masses** are given in GeV/c² (remember $E = mc^2$), where $1 \text{ GeV} = 10^9 \text{ eV} = 1.60 \times 10^{-10} \text{ joule}$. The mass of the proton is $0.938 \text{ GeV}/c^2 = 1.67 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$.

BOSONS

force carriers
spin = 0, 1, 2, ...

Unified Electroweak spin = 1		
Name	Mass GeV/c ²	Electric charge
γ photon	0	0
W^-	80.4	-1
W^+	80.4	+1
Z^0	91.187	0

Strong (color) spin = 1		
Name	Mass GeV/c ²	Electric charge
g gluon	0	0

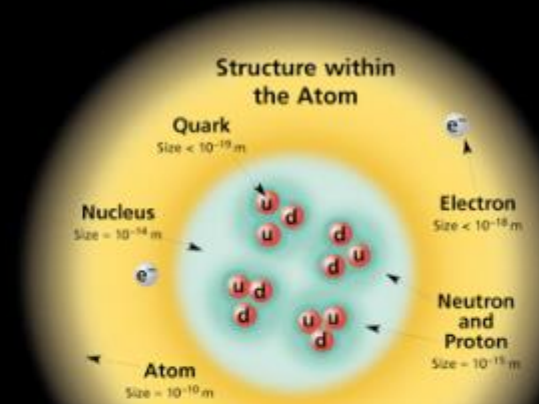
Color Charge
Each quark carries one of three types of "strong charge," also called "color charge." These charges have nothing to do with the colors of visible light. There are eight possible types of color charge for gluons. Just as electrically-charged particles interact by exchanging photons, in strong interactions color-charged particles interact by exchanging gluons. Leptons, photons, and W and Z bosons have no strong interactions and hence no color charge.

Quarks Confined in Mesons and Baryons

One cannot isolate quarks and gluons; they are confined in color-neutral particles called **hadrons**. This confinement (binding) results from multiple exchanges of gluons among the color-charged constituents. As color-charged particles (quarks and gluons) move apart, the energy in the color-force field between them increases. This energy eventually is converted into additional quark-antiquark pairs (see figure below). The quarks and antiquarks then combine into hadrons; these are the particles seen to emerge. Two types of hadrons have been observed in nature: **mesons** (q \bar{q}) and **baryons** (qqq).

Residual Strong Interaction

The strong binding of color-neutral protons and neutrons to form nuclei is due to residual strong interactions between their color-charged constituents. It is similar to the residual electrical interaction that binds electrically neutral atoms to form molecules. It can also be viewed as the exchange of mesons between the hadrons.



If the protons and neutrons in this picture were 10 cm across, then the quarks and electrons would be less than 0.1 mm in size and the entire atom would be about 10 km across.

PROPERTIES OF THE INTERACTIONS

Baryons qqq and Antibaryons $\bar{q}\bar{q}\bar{q}$					
Baryons are fermionic hadrons. There are about 120 types of baryons.					
Symbol	Name	Quark content	Electric charge	Mass GeV/c ²	Spin
p	proton	uud	1	0.938	1/2
\bar{p}	anti-proton	$\bar{u}\bar{u}\bar{d}$	-1	0.938	1/2
n	neutron	udd	0	0.940	1/2
Λ	lambda	uds	0	1.116	1/2
Ω^-	omega	sss	-1	1.672	3/2

Property	Interaction	Gravitational	Weak	Electromagnetic	Strong	
		Mass-Energy	Flavor	Electric Charge	Fundamental	Residual
Acts on:		All	Flavor	Electric Charge	Color Charge	See Residual Strong Interaction Note
Particles experiencing:		All	Quarks, Leptons	Electrically charged	Quarks, Gluons	Hadrons
Particles mediating:		Graviton (not yet observed)	W^+ W^- Z^0	γ	Gluons	Mesons
Strength relative to electromagnetism for two u quarks at:		10^{-41}	0.8	1	25	Not applicable to quarks
	10^{-16} m	10^{-41}	10^{-4}	1	60	
	$3 \times 10^{-17} \text{ m}$	10^{-36}	10^{-7}	1	Not applicable to hadrons	20

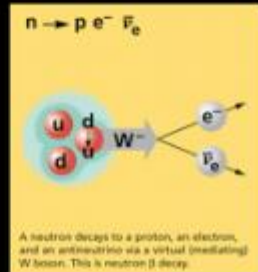
Mesons qq					
Mesons are bosonic hadrons. There are about 140 types of mesons.					
Symbol	Name	Quark content	Electric charge	Mass GeV/c ²	Spin
π^+	pion	$u\bar{d}$	+1	0.140	0
K^-	kaon	$s\bar{u}$	-1	0.494	0
ρ^+	rho	$u\bar{d}$	+1	0.770	1
B^0	B-meson	$d\bar{b}$	0	5.279	0
η_c	eta-c	$c\bar{c}$	0	2.980	0

Matter and Antimatter

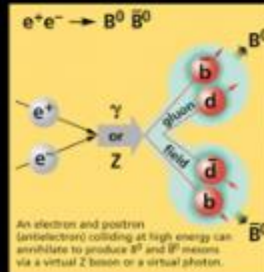
For every particle type there is a corresponding antiparticle type, denoted by a bar over the particle symbol (unless + or - charge is shown). Particle and antiparticle have identical mass and spin but opposite charges. Some electrically neutral bosons (e.g., Z^0 , γ , and $\eta_c = c\bar{c}$, but not $K^0 = d\bar{s}$) are their own antiparticles.

Figures

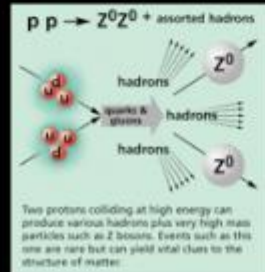
These diagrams are an artist's conception of physical processes. They are not exact and have no meaningful scale. Green shaded areas represent the cloud of gluons or the gluon field, and red lines the quark paths.



A neutron decays to a proton, an electron, and an antineutrino via a virtual (mediating) W^- boson. This is neutron β decay.



An electron and positron (antilepton) colliding at high energy can annihilate to produce γ and Z^0 mesons via a virtual Z boson or a virtual photon.



Two protons colliding at high energy can produce various hadrons plus very high mass particles such as Z bosons. Events such as this one are rare but can yield vital clues to the structure of matter.

The Particle Adventure

Visit the award-winning web feature *The Particle Adventure* at <http://ParticleAdventure.org>

This chart has been made possible by the generous support of:

- U.S. Department of Energy
- U.S. National Science Foundation
- Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory
- Stanford Linear Accelerator Center
- American Physical Society, Division of Particles and Fields
- BURLE INDUSTRIES, INC.**

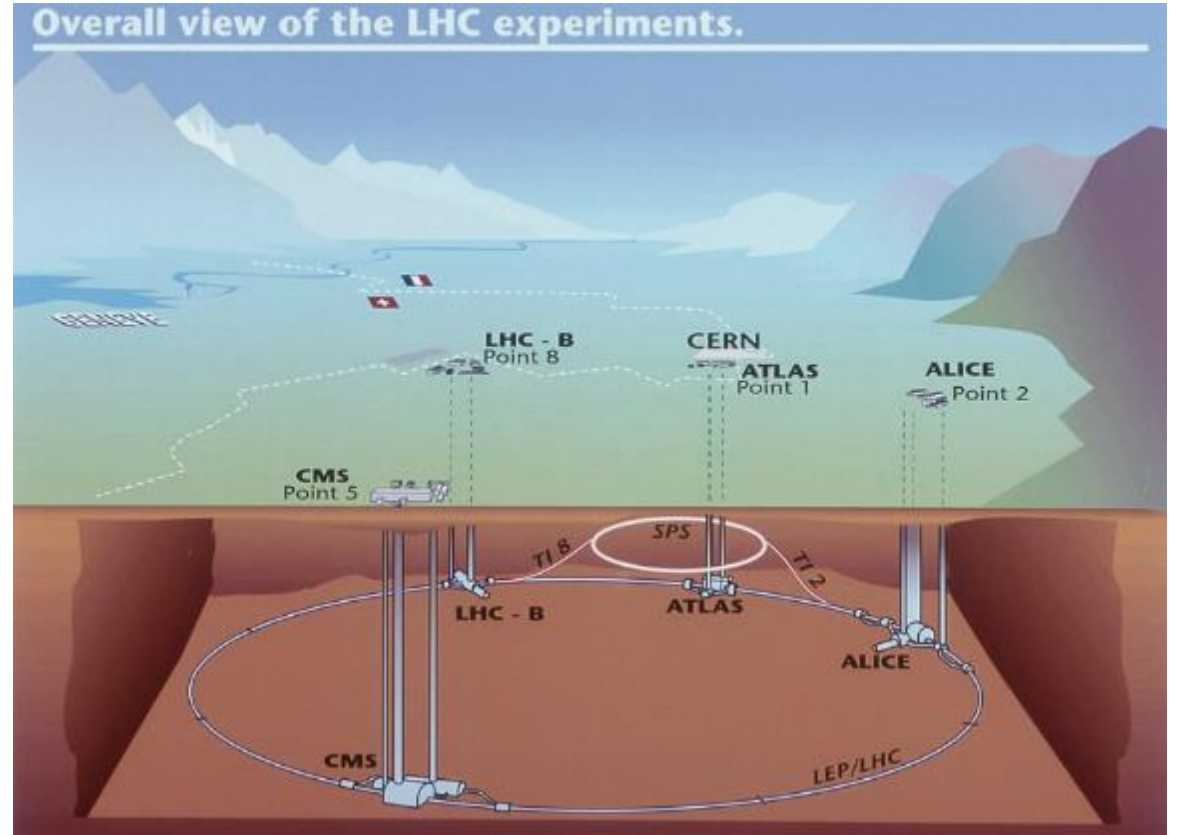
©2000 Contemporary Physics Education Project. CPEP is a non-profit organization of teachers, physicists, and educators. Send mail to: CPEP, MS 50-308, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA, 94720. For information on charts, text materials, hands-on classroom activities, and workshops, see:

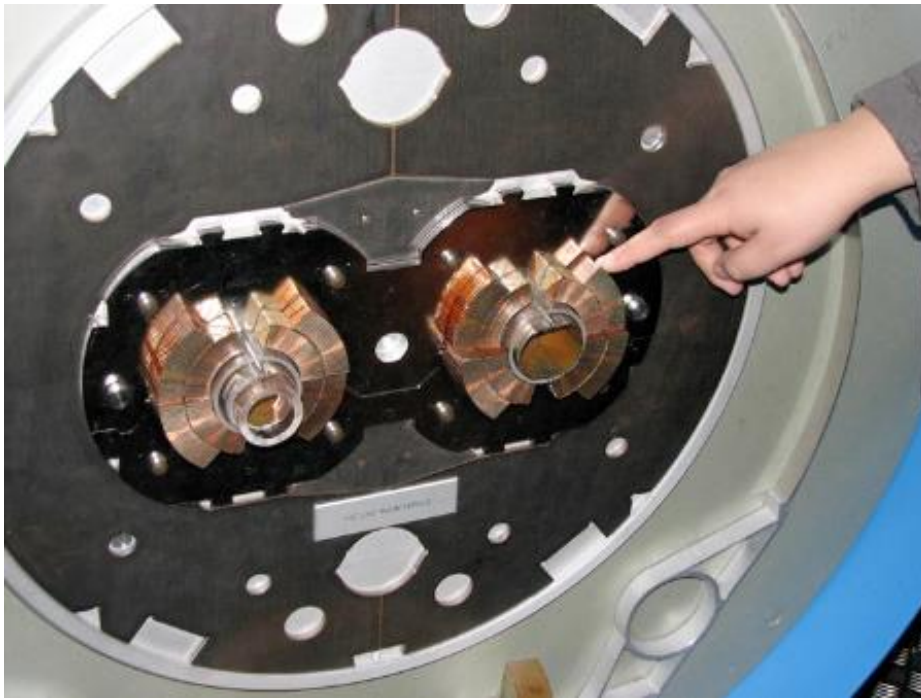
<http://CPEPweb.org>



Daresbury Laboratory

LHC





Circumference	26659 m
Dipole temperature	1.9 K
Lattice	FODO
Number of arcs/straights	8
Cells per arc	23
Number of magnets	9300
Nominal collision energy	7 TeV/c
Peak dipole field/current	8.33 T/11800 A
Stored energy in beam	360 MJ
Number of bunches per beam	2808
Number of protons per bunch	1.15×10^{11}
Number of turns per second	11245
Collisions per second	600 million

Think Big!

