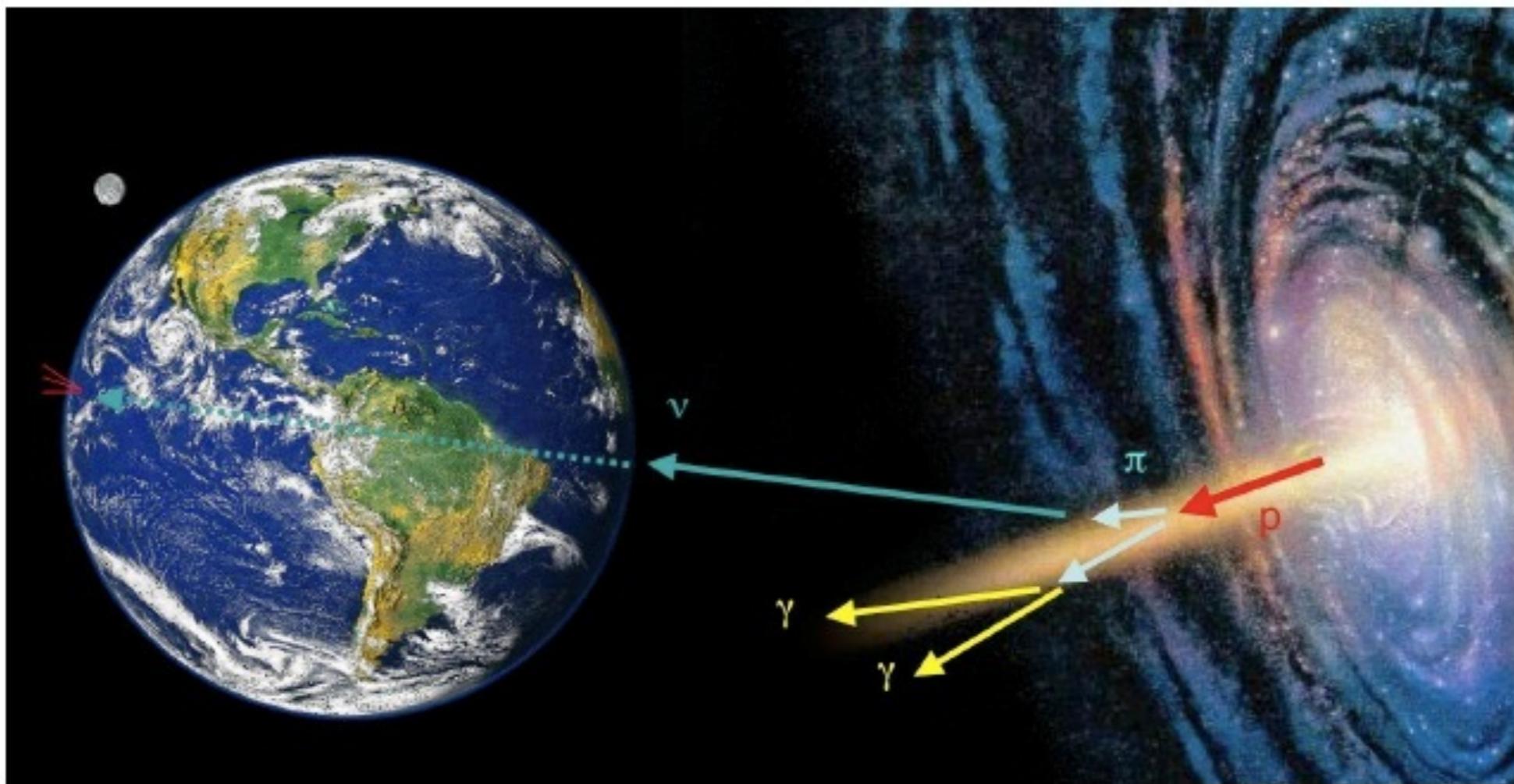


Teilchenphysik mit kosmischen und mit erdgebundenen Beschleunigern



02. Ground-based Accelerators

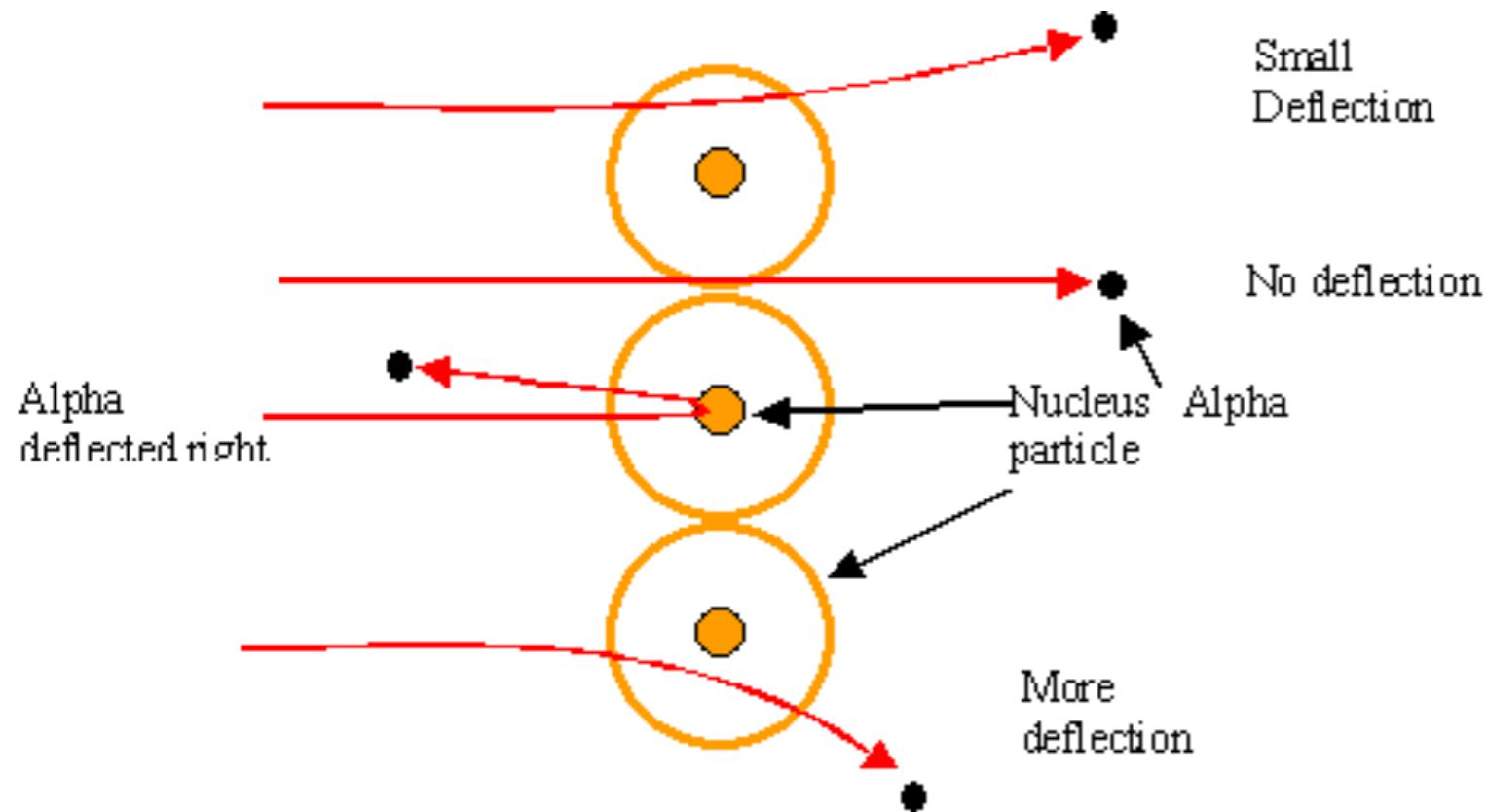
16.04.2018

Dr. Frank Simon

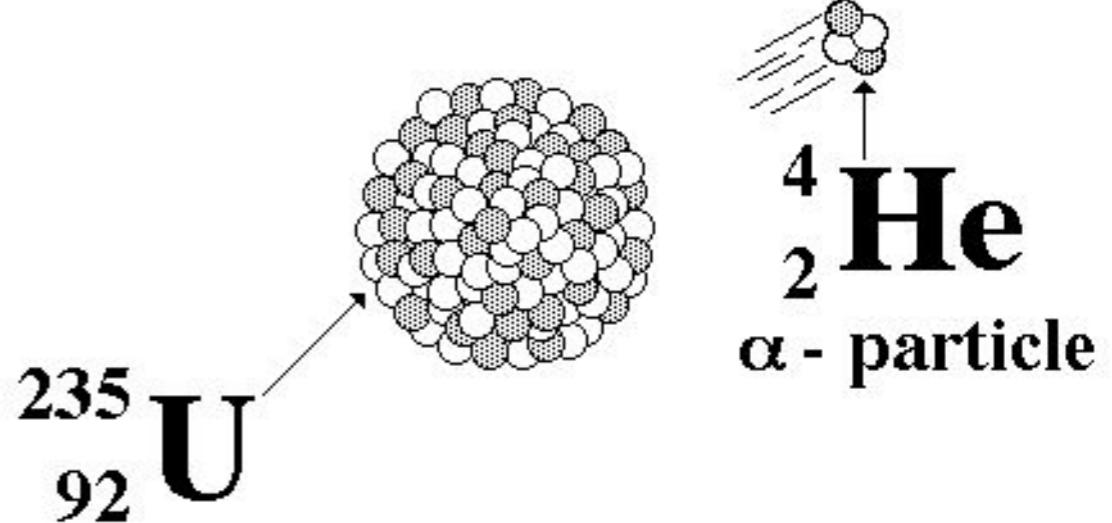


100 Years ago: How it started

- 1911 Rutherford discovered the atomic nucleus by experiments with α particles on a thin Gold foil



- Uranium as natural “accelerator”
MeV - scale particles from
radioactive decay



Motivation for Accelerators

- Initially, accelerators were only used for basic research:
To look into the structure of matter, you need short wavelengths, e.g. high energies

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p} \approx \frac{(1.2 \text{ fm})}{p \text{ (in GeV/c)}}$$

1 GeV probes the size of the proton!



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1 GeV probes the size of the proton!

- To create new, previously unknown particles, you need energy

$$E = mc^2$$



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To look into the structure of matter, you need short wavelengths, e.g. high energies
$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p} \approx \frac{(1.2 \text{ fm})}{p \text{ (in GeV/c)}} \quad 1 \text{ GeV probes the size of the proton!}$$
- To create new, previously unknown particles, you need energy
- If you are looking for something that is rare (small cross-section!), you need

Intensity



Applications

- Basic research in high energy physics
- Sources of synchrotron radiation for material science, chemistry, biology
- Radiation Therapy
- Production of radio isotopes for medical diagnostics
- Ion implantation in semiconductor industry
- ...



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- Sources of synchrotron radiation for material science, chemistry, biology
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Bill Barletta in Physics Today, 02/2010: Estimated 26 000 accelerators world-wide
1% are research machines with energies above 1 GeV; about **44%** are for
radiotherapy, **41%** for ion implanters and surface modification of materials, **9%** for
industrial processing and research, **4%** for biomedical and other lower-energy
research, and **1%** for making medical radioisotopes



Wide field of application

The impact of accelerators on Society

Fundamental physics
Biological & chemical sciences
Materials science

Research

Cleaning flue
gases of thermal
power plants

Treating cancer
Medical Imaging

Health & Medicine

Ion implantation for electronics
Hardening surfaces
Hardening materials
Welding and cutting
Treating waste & medical material

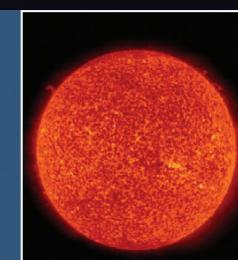
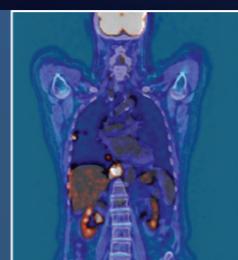
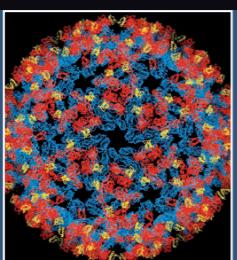
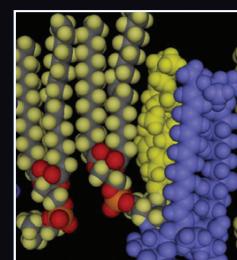
Industrial applications

Non-destructive
testing
Cultural heritage
Authentication
Cargo scanning

Material
identification

Safe nuclear
power
Replacing ageing
research reactors

Prospects



Materials research
Beams of photons, neutrons and muons are essential tools to study materials at the atomic level.

Protein modelling
Synchrotron light allows scientists to solve the 3D structure of proteins e.g. the Chikungunya virus.

Controlling power plant gas emission
In some pilot plants, electron beams are used to control emission of sulphur and nitrogen oxides.

Hadron therapy
Proton and ion beams are well suited for the treatment of deep seated tumours.

Positron Emission Tomography (PET)
Radioisotopes used in PET-CT scanning are produced with accelerators.

Ion implantation for electronics
Many digital electronics rely on ion implanters to build fast transistors and chips.

Hardening materials
Replacing steel with X-ray cured carbon composites can reduce car energy consumption by 50%.

Cultural heritage
Particle beams are used for non-destructive analysis of works of art and ancient relics.

Energy
Accelerator technologies may bring the power of the sun "down to earth", treat nuclear waste and allow for safer operation of reactors.

Historical Overview

- 1928: R. Wideroe reports the operation of the first linear accelerator (Ka and Na-Ions)
- 1931: Van de Graaff constructs the first high voltage generator
- 1932: Lawrence and Livingston present first proton beams from a 1.2 MeV Cyclotron
- 1939: Hansen, Varian and Varian invent the Klystron
- 1941: Kerst and Serber introduce the Betatron
Touschek and Wideroe invent the principle of ring accelerators
- 1947: Alvarez develops the first proton linear accelerator
- 1950 Christofilos formulates the concept of strong focusing



E.O. Lawrence

Accelerator Basics



The Basics of Particle Acceleration

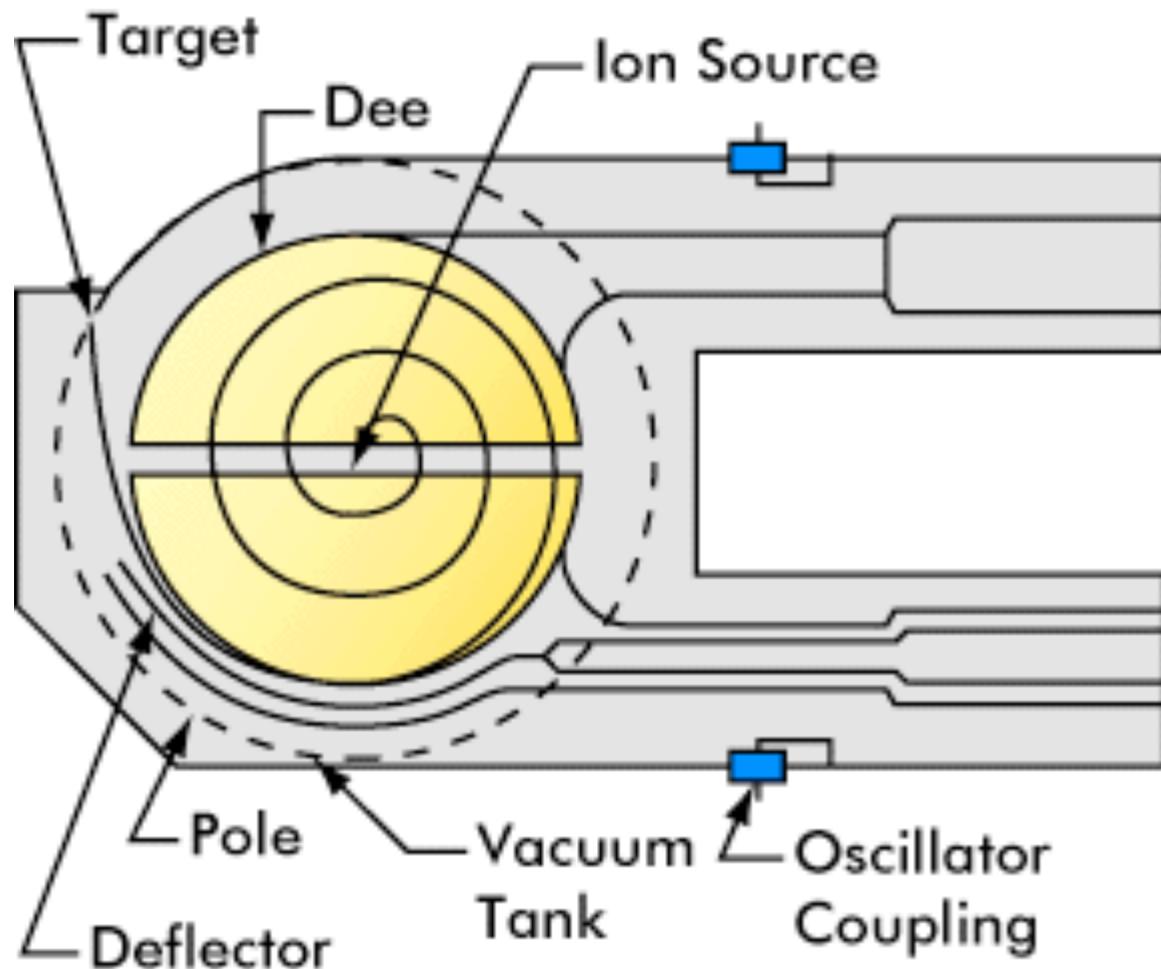
- The underlying equations: Maxwell-Equations

Differentialform	Integralform
$\text{div } \vec{D} = \rho_{\text{frei}}$	$\oint \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{A} = Q$
$\text{div } \vec{B} = 0$	$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A} = 0$
$\text{rot } \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$	$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = -\frac{d}{dt} \int \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A}$
$\text{rot } \vec{H} = \vec{j} + \frac{\partial \vec{D}}{\partial t}$	$\oint \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{s} = I + \frac{d}{dt} \int \vec{D} \cdot d\vec{A}$

The key: Lorentz-Force $\vec{F} = q(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B})$

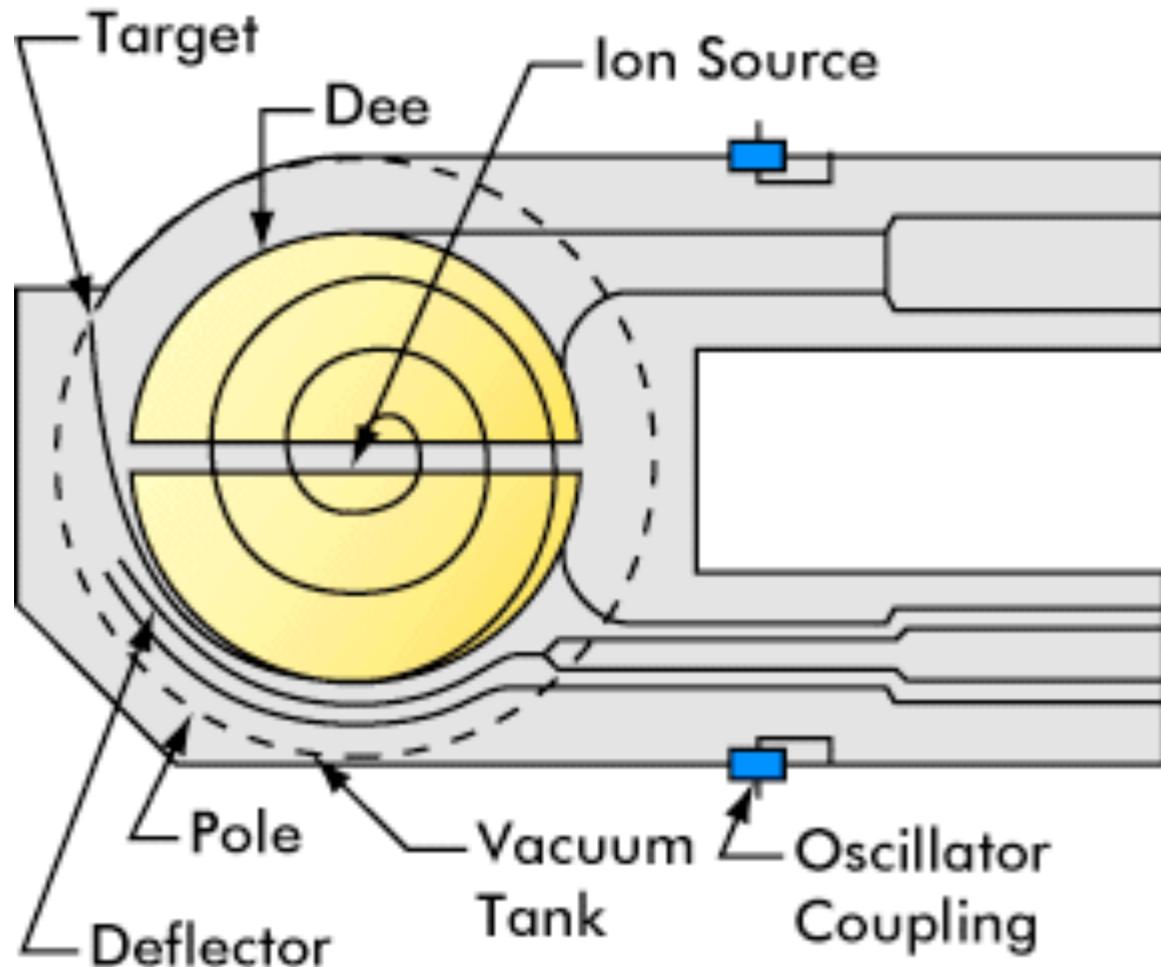
n.b.: The Lorentz-force is non-conservative for time-dependent fields!

Basic Accelerator Types: Cyclotron, Linac

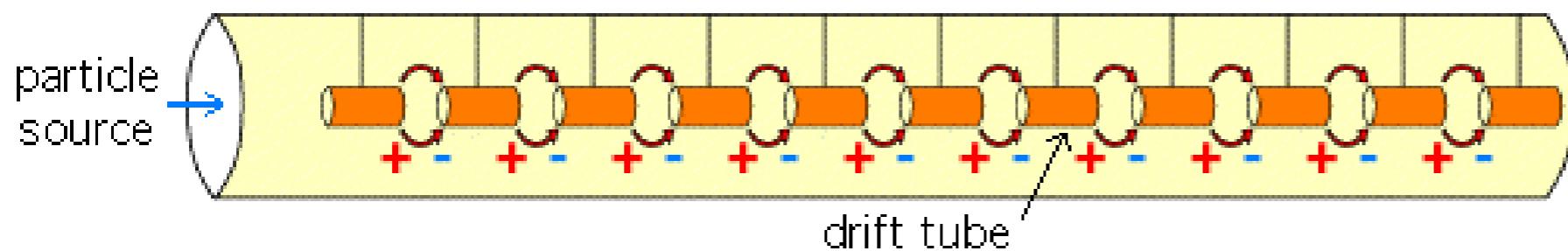


- **Cyclotron:**
 - Magnetic field to bend particles
 - Alternating electric field for acceleration

Basic Accelerator Types: Cyclotron, Linac



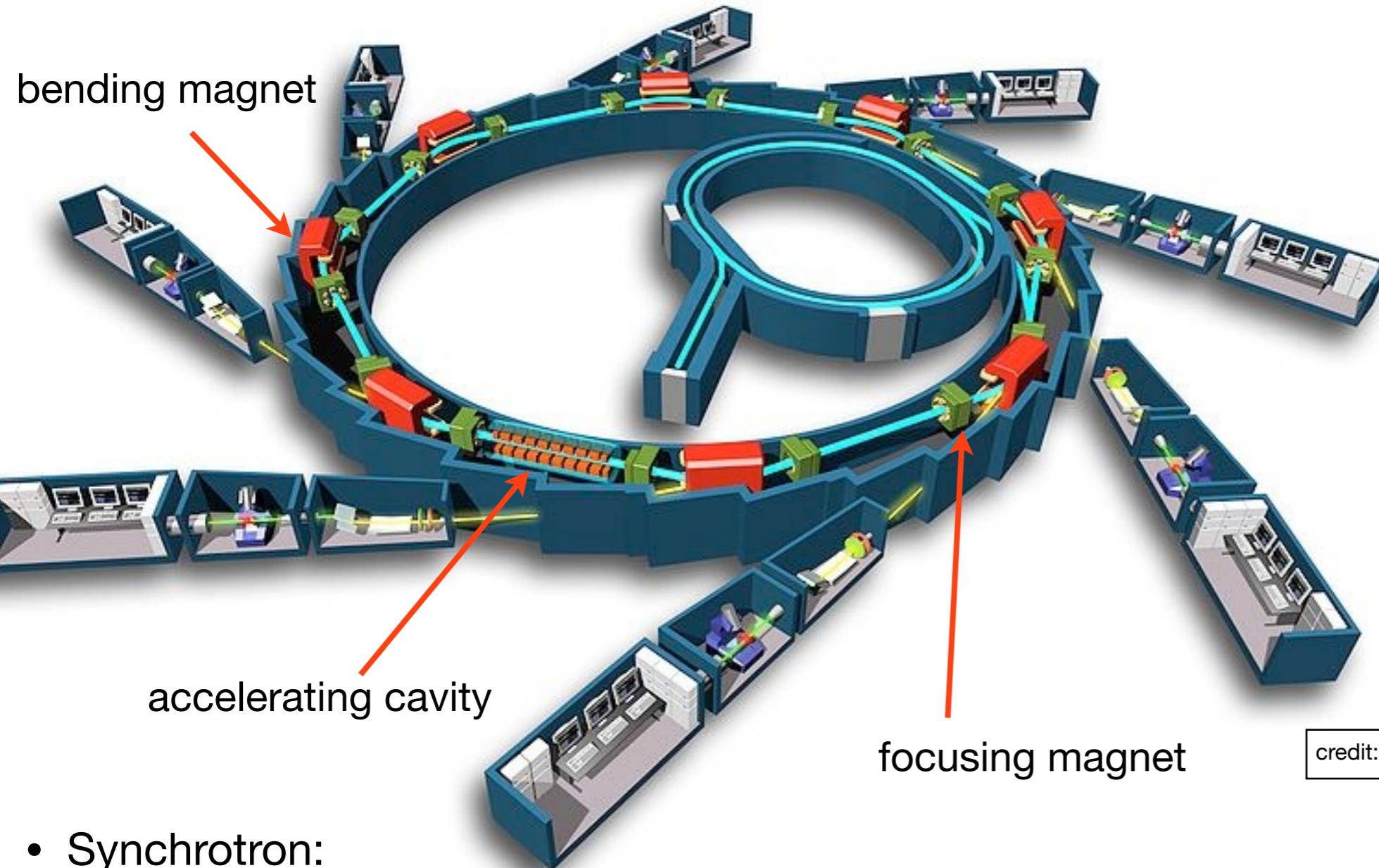
- Cyclotron:
 - Magnetic field to bend particles
 - Alternating electric field for acceleration



- Linear accelerator:
 - Alternating electric field for acceleration



Basic Accelerator Types: Synchrotron



credit:EPSIM 3D/JF Santarelli, Synchrotron Soleil

- Synchrotron:
 - Magnetic bending field gets ramped up with particle energy: Particles can stay on fixed path
 - Magnetic field only needed locally
 - Same accelerating cavities get passed many times

Keeping on Track: Bending Power

- Strong dipole magnets keep particles on their track in a synchrotron
Magnetic field and radius define energy!

$$\vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = q(\vec{v} \times \vec{B})$$

Lorentz force acts on moving charge

It forces the particle on a circular track:

$$\rho = \frac{p}{qB} \Rightarrow \rho[\text{m}] \approx \frac{p[\text{MeV}/c]/300}{B[\text{T}]}$$

Often, the term “stiffness” is used:

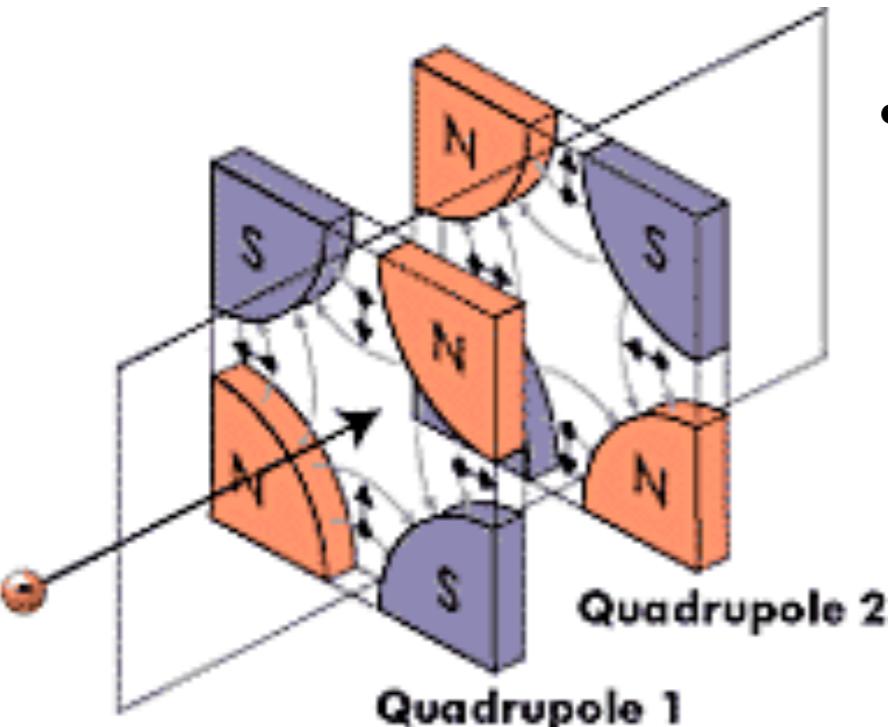
$$(B\rho) = \frac{p}{q} \Rightarrow (B\rho)[\text{Tm}] \approx \frac{p[\text{MeV}/c]}{300}$$

LHC : $(B\rho) \sim 23000 \text{ Tm}$

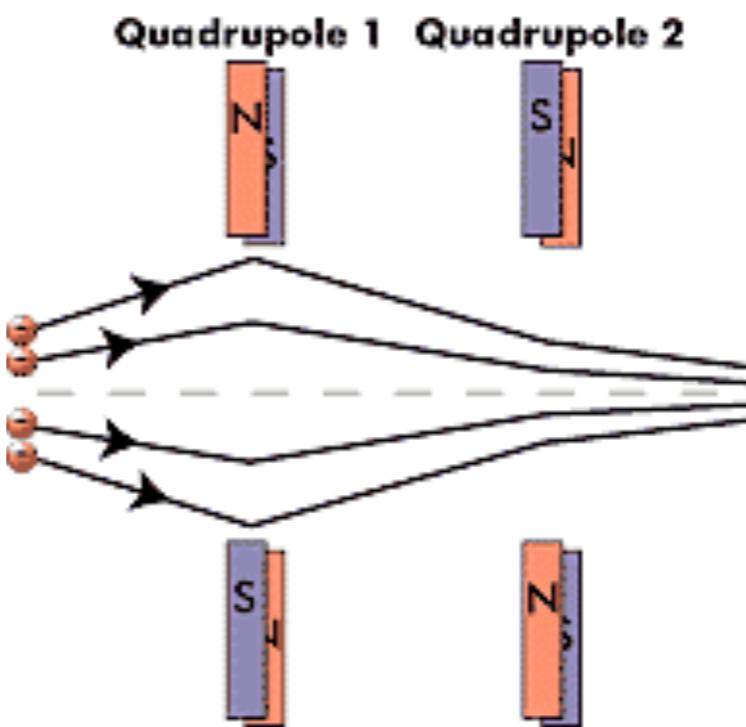


Strong Focusing

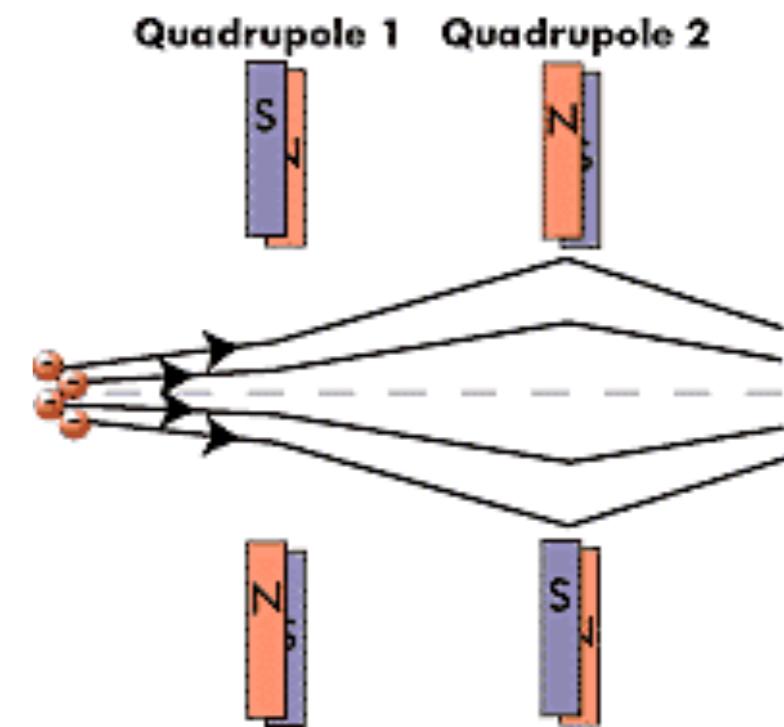
- Strong Focusing, or Alternating Gradient Synchrotron: Breakthrough that allowed to reach high energies of 10 GeV and more



- Two crossed quadrupole fields have a net focusing effect, if they are placed at the right distance d (smaller than the focal length) - Just like a lens system in optics!



$$\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} - \frac{d}{f_1 f_2}$$



Limits for Ring Accelerators: Synchrotron Radiation

- Charged particles loose energy when accelerated:

$$P = \frac{1}{6\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2 a^2}{c^3} \gamma^4 \quad a = \frac{v^2}{\rho} \quad \rho: \text{bending radius}$$

scales with γ^4 , at constant energy with $1/m^4 \Leftrightarrow$ Electrons loose 10^{13} times more energy than protons!

- Energy loss of electrons per turn in a storage ring

$$\Delta E = 8.85 \times 10^{-5} \frac{E^4 [\text{GeV}^4]}{\rho [\text{km}]} \text{MeV}$$



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- \Rightarrow Highest energies are not possible with electrons using synchrotrons!



High Energies: Colliders

- The first experiments with accelerators were fixed-target experiments:
(Relatively) easy to manage: Shoot a beam at a target
- Much higher energy can be obtained in collider mode:
Two beams collider, the center of mass can be at rest in the laboratory



For colliding protons

$$E_{cm} = \sqrt{2(\gamma + 1)m_p c^2}$$

$$E_{cm} = 2E = 2\gamma m_p c^2$$

Key Collider Parameters

- Event Rate

$$R = L \cdot \sigma$$

- Luminosity

$$L = f \frac{n_1 n_2}{4\pi \sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

f: Collision frequency

n_i : Number of particles in bunch i

σ_x : horizontal beam size

σ_y : vertical beam size

... assuming a gaussian beam profile and perfect overlap



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... assuming a gaussian beam profile and perfect overlap

- Luminosity is often expressed in terms of the “ β function” at the collision point and in terms of “emittance”

- β^* is related to the beam optics
- ϵ is related to the beam quality, and gives the phase space of the beam particles (units length * angle)

$$L = f \frac{n_1 n_2}{4\sqrt{\epsilon_x \beta_x^* \epsilon_y \beta_y^*}}$$

f: Collision frequency

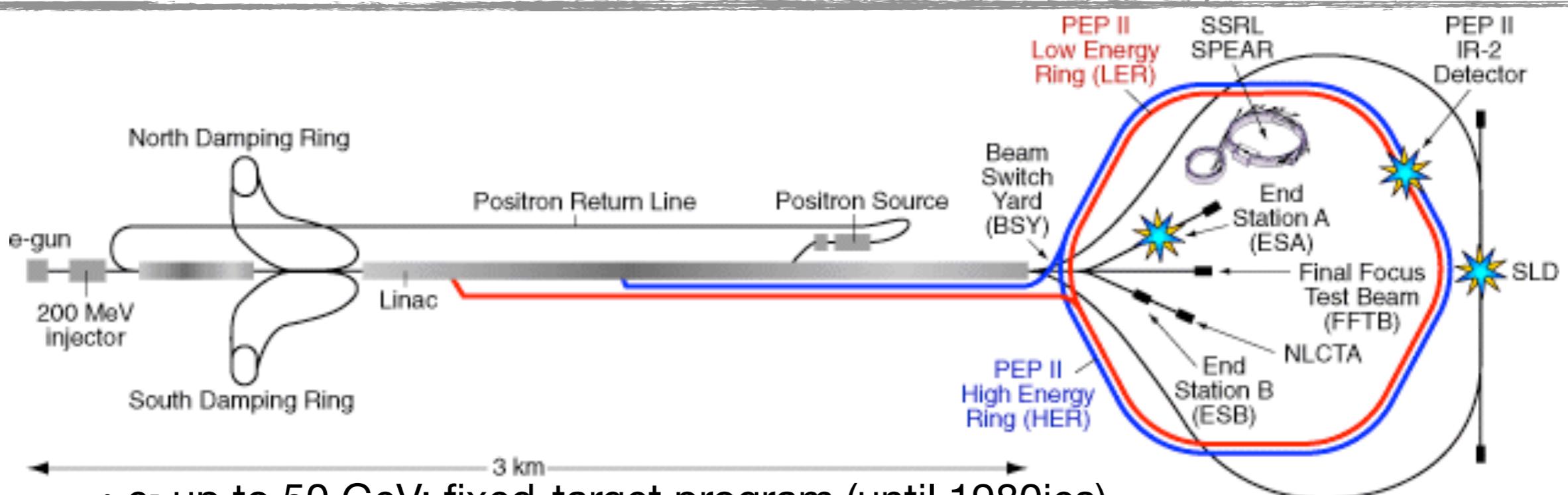
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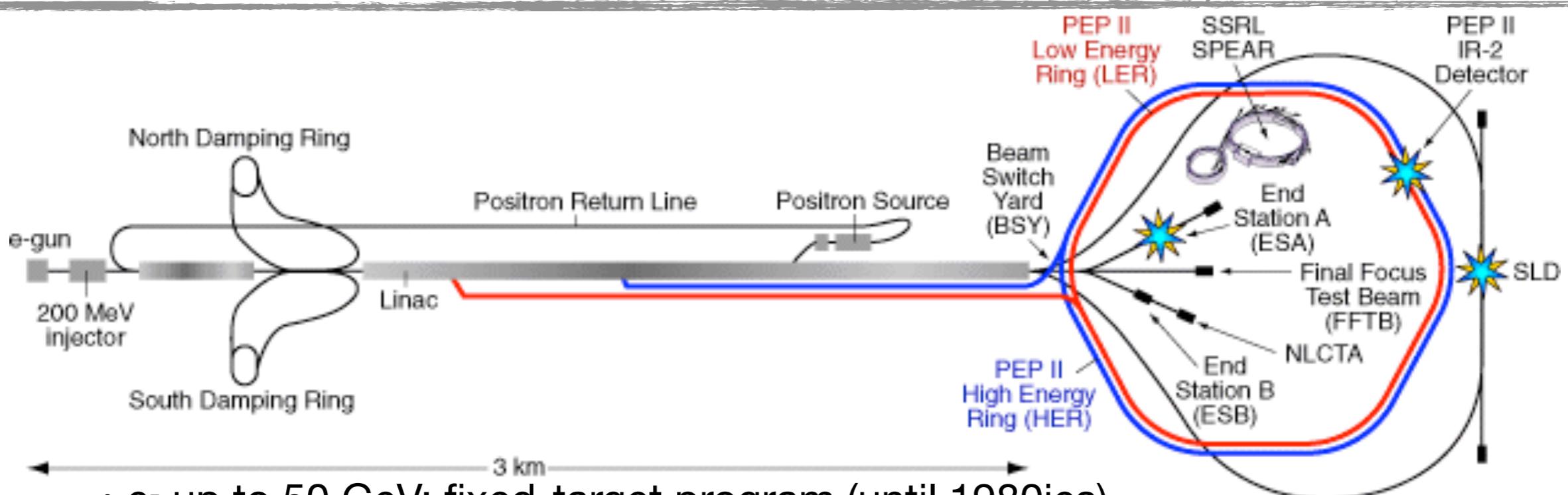


SLAC Linear Collider SLC



- e^- up to 50 GeV; fixed-target program (until 1980ies)
- e^- und e^+ for PEP-I storage ring ($E_{cm} = 29$ GeV; early 1980ies)
- e^- und e^+ for SLC collider ($E_{cm} = M_Z \sim 91$ GeV; 1989 - 1999)
- e^- und e^+ for PEP-II storage ring ($E_{cm} \sim 10$ GeV; 1999 - 2008)

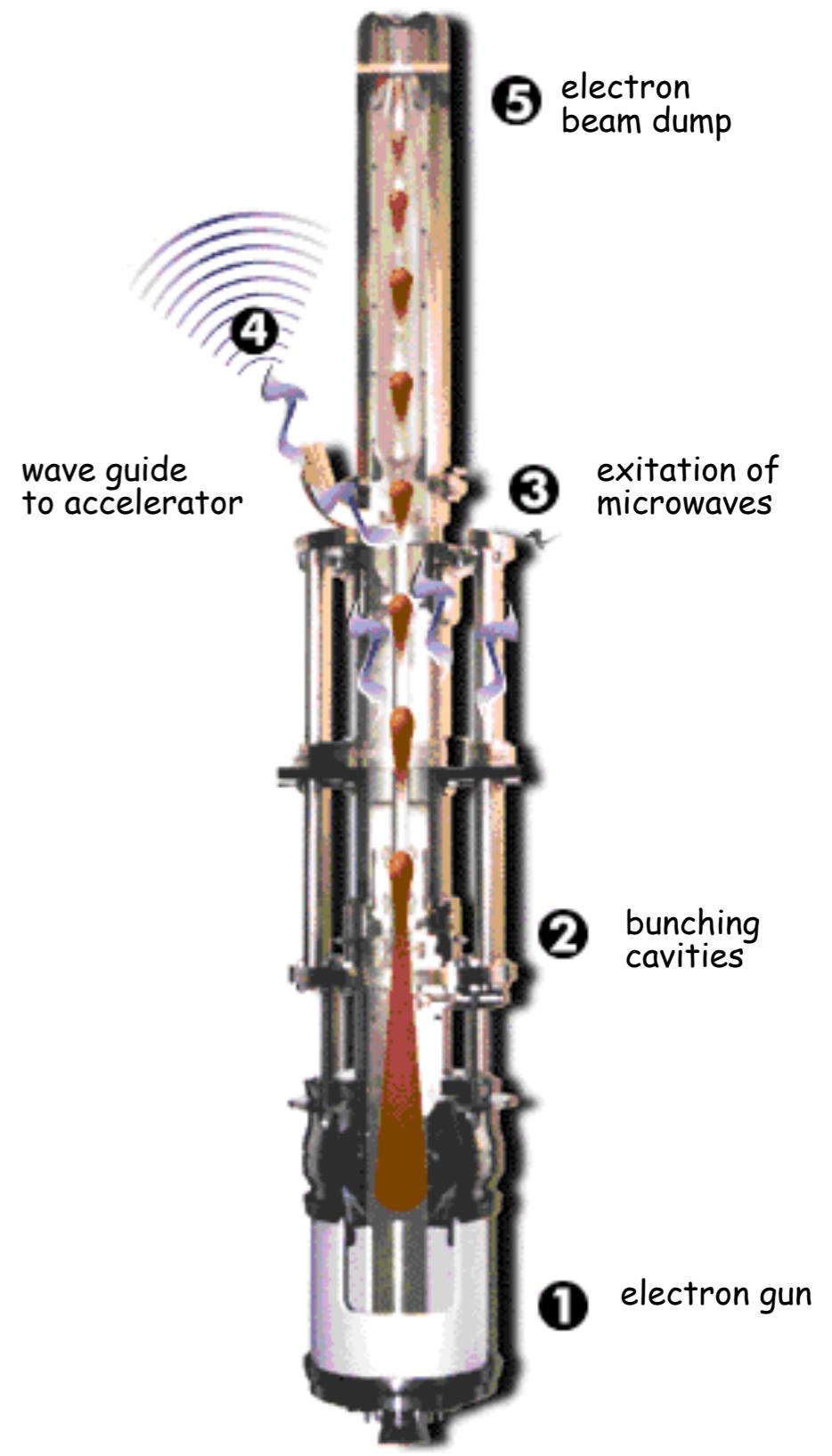
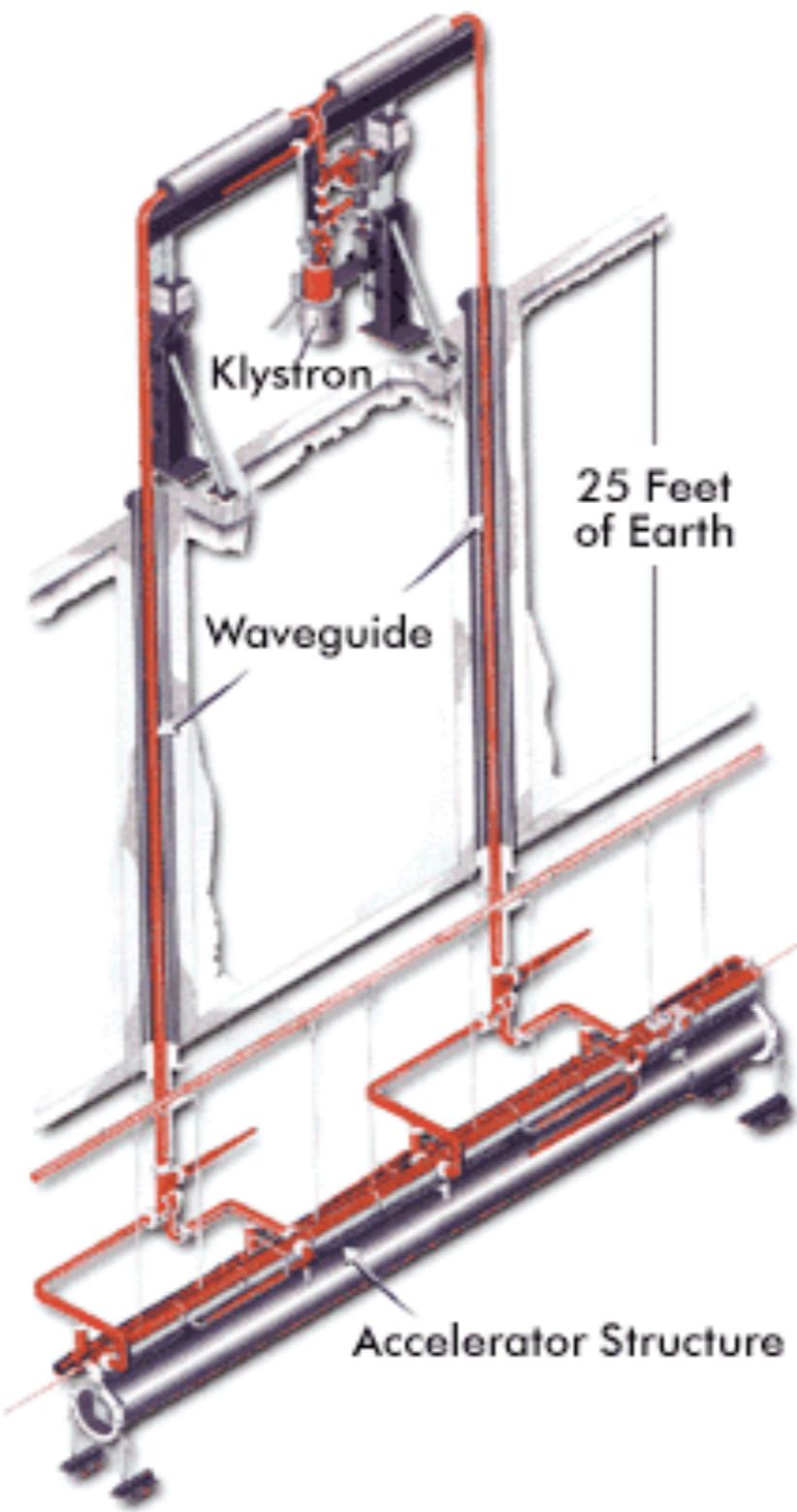
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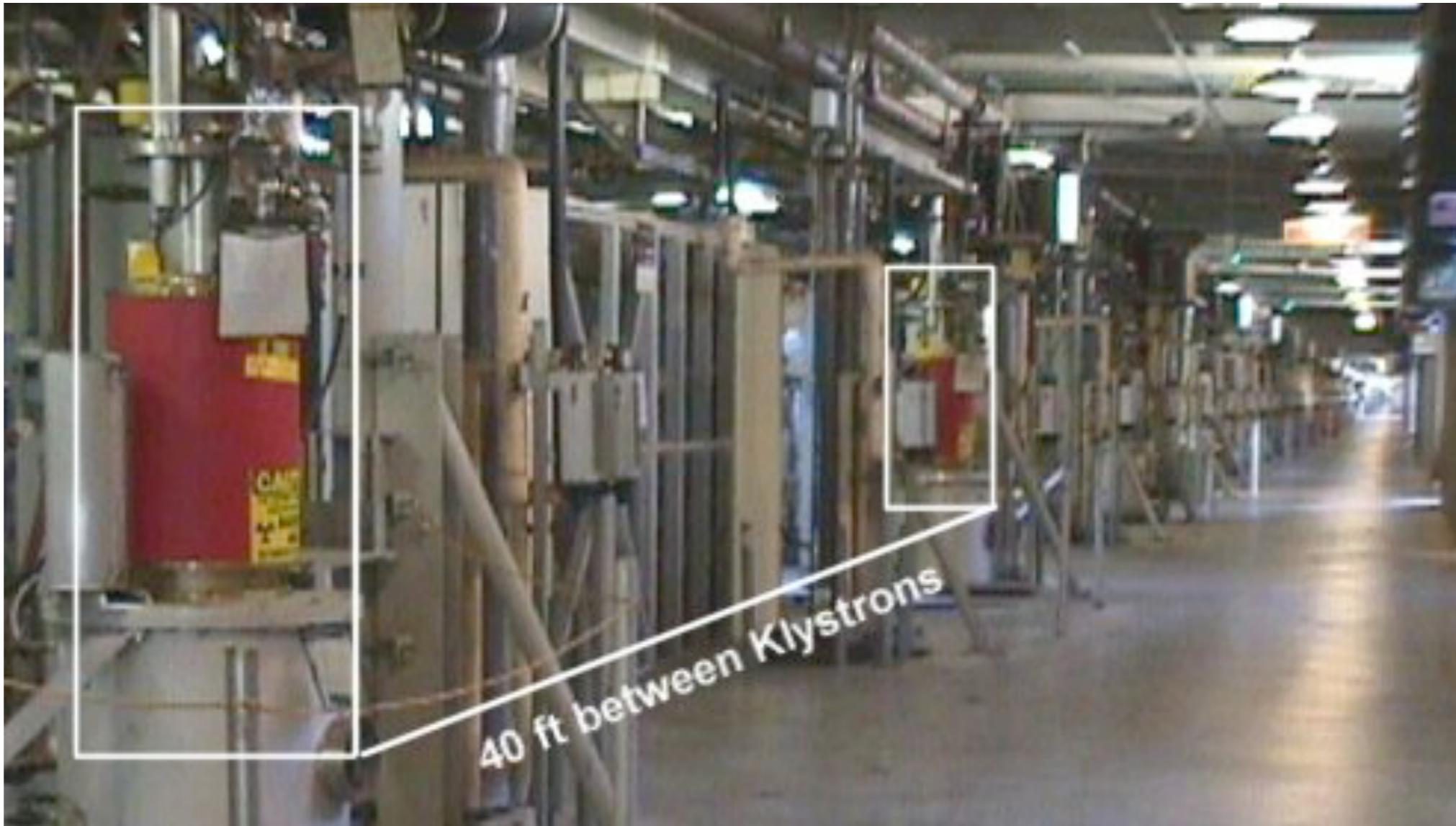
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Powering Accelerators: Klystrons



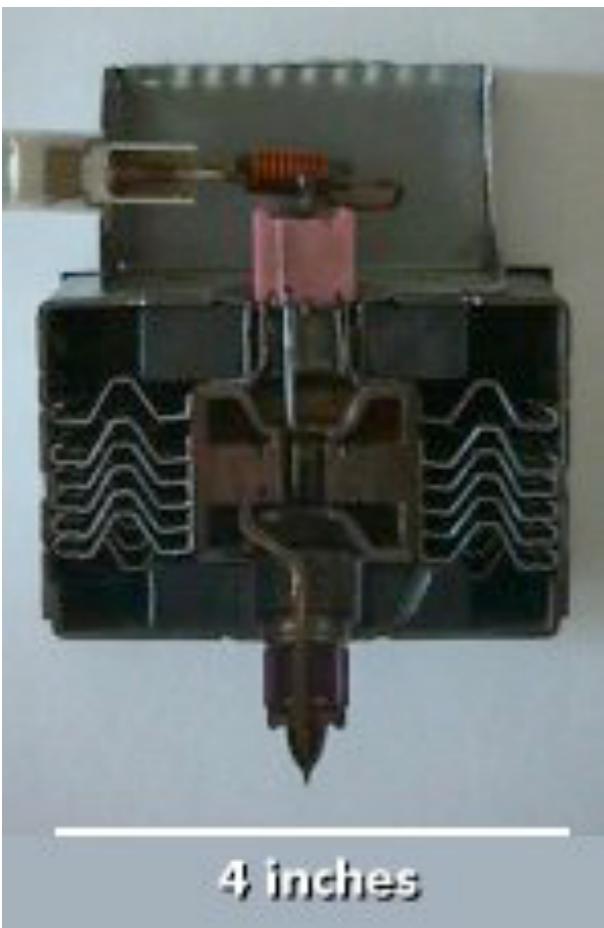
Klystrons



Microwave generator
in a Microwave Oven

SLAC Klystron Gallery

Klystrons

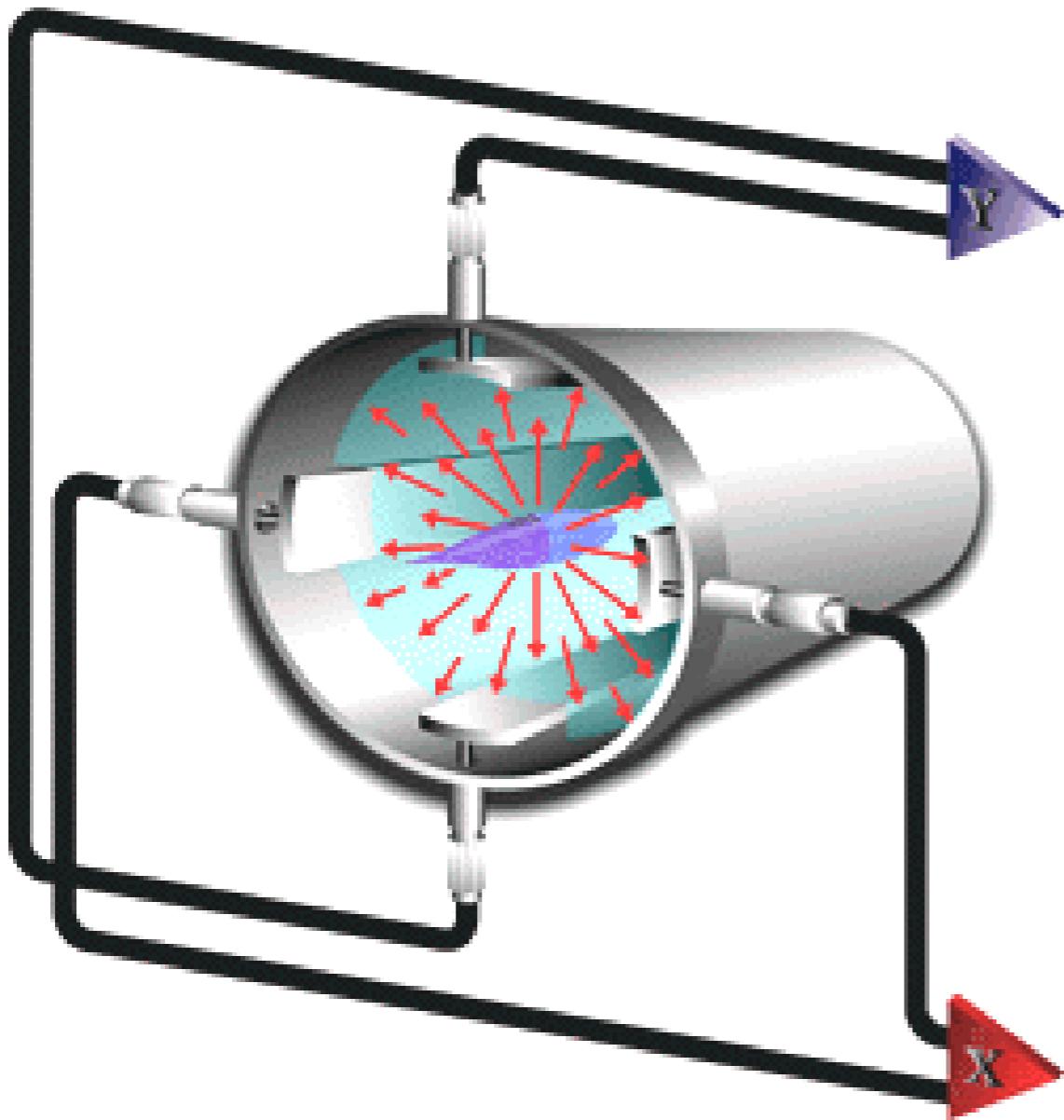


Microwave generator
in a Microwave Oven

SLAC Klystron Gallery

Diagnosing the Beam

- Important for steering of the beams: Know where the particles are!



- Beam position monitors:
Pick-up electrodes provide spatial information

Past Electron Colliders: DESY

- DESY Hamburg: Petra (e^+e^-), Hera (ep)

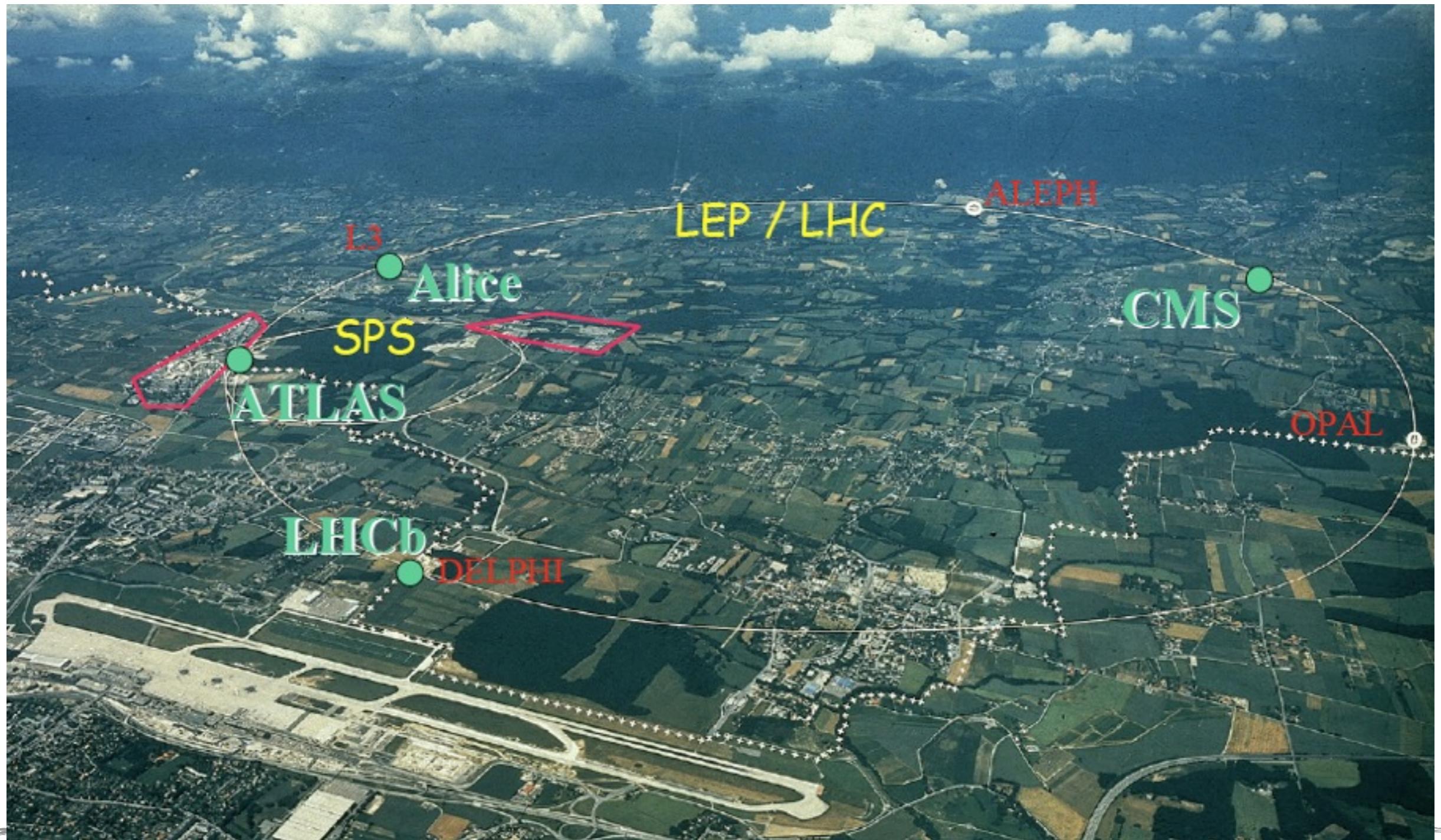


Petra (1976-1986)
up to 19 GeV per beam

discovery of the gluon in 1979

Past Electron Colliders: LEP (1989 - 2000)

- Up to now the highest energy collider for leptons: Up to 209 GeV center of mass energy



The LEP Tunnel



- Focusing quadrupoles
- Main dipoles

Foto: CERN

The LEP Tunnel



- Focusing quadrupoles
- Main dipoles

Now: Home of the LHC

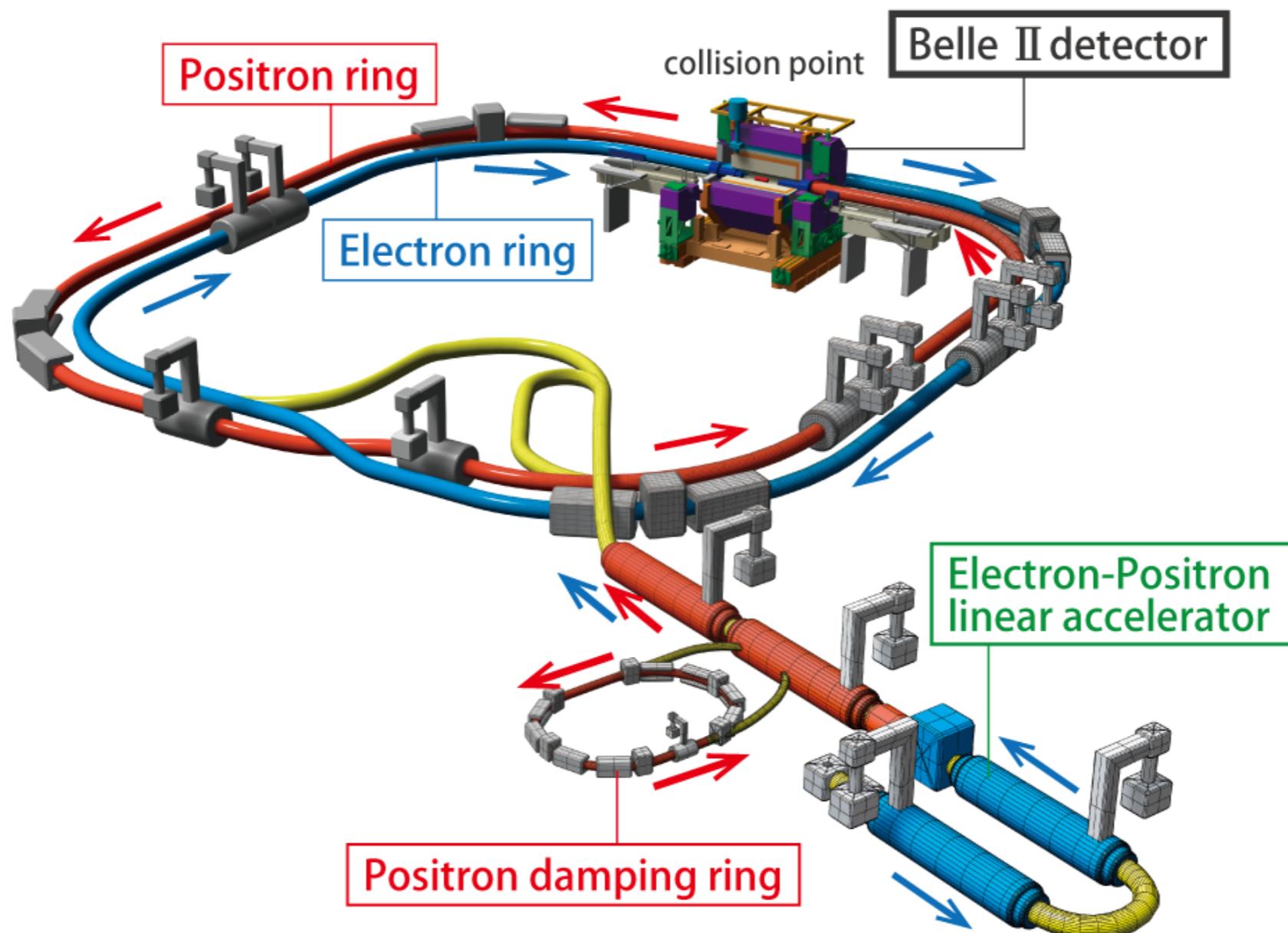
Much higher energy for protons: Limited by dipole magnet strength, LEP was limited by accelerating cavity power (synchrotron radiation!)

Foto: CERN



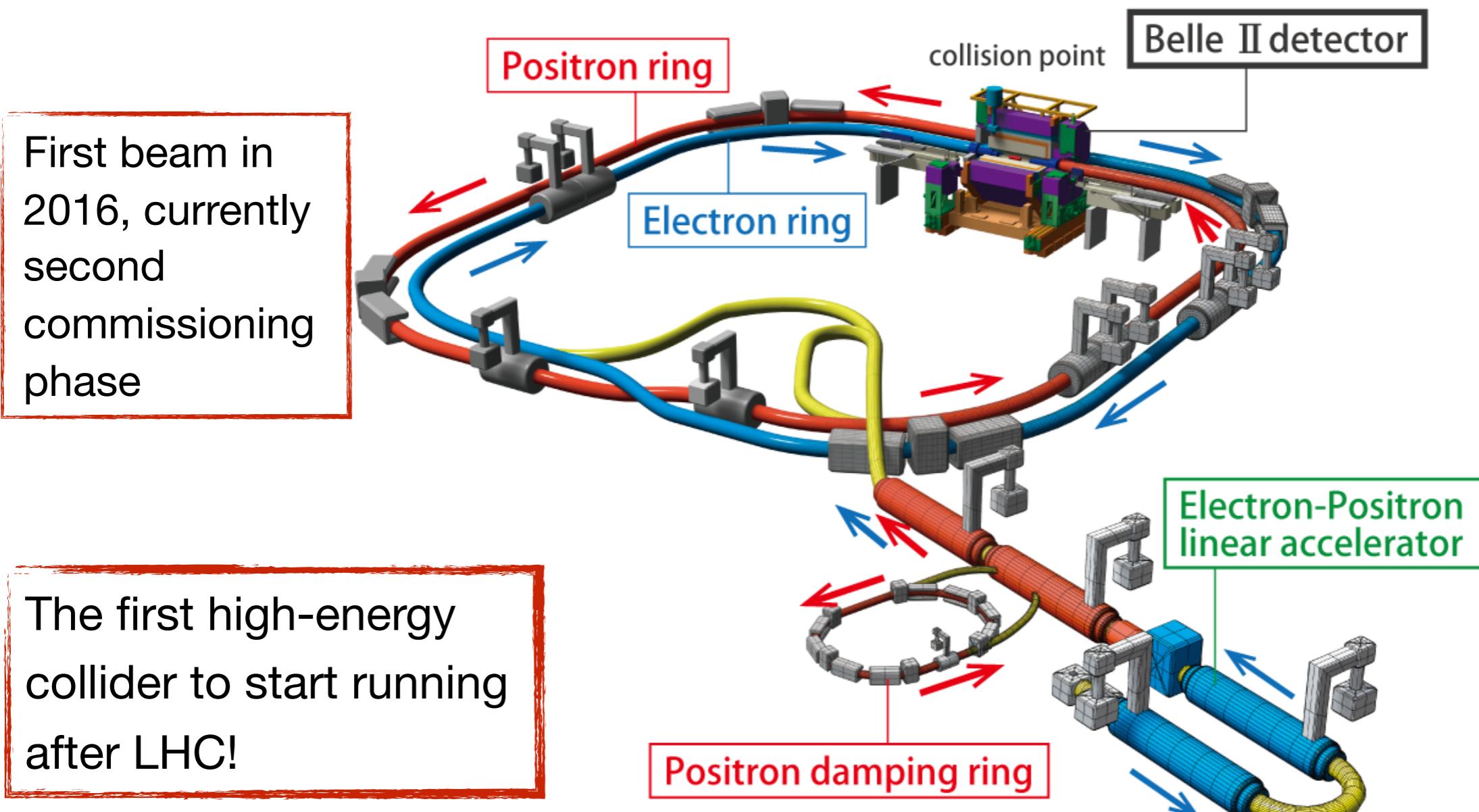
The Latest Addition: SuperKEKB

- Asymmetric e^+e^- collider: 7 GeV on 4 GeV to produce boosted $\Upsilon(4s)$ at a center of mass energy of 10.58 GeV, decays into entangled B mesons
 - Used to study CP violation, indirect searches for New Physics



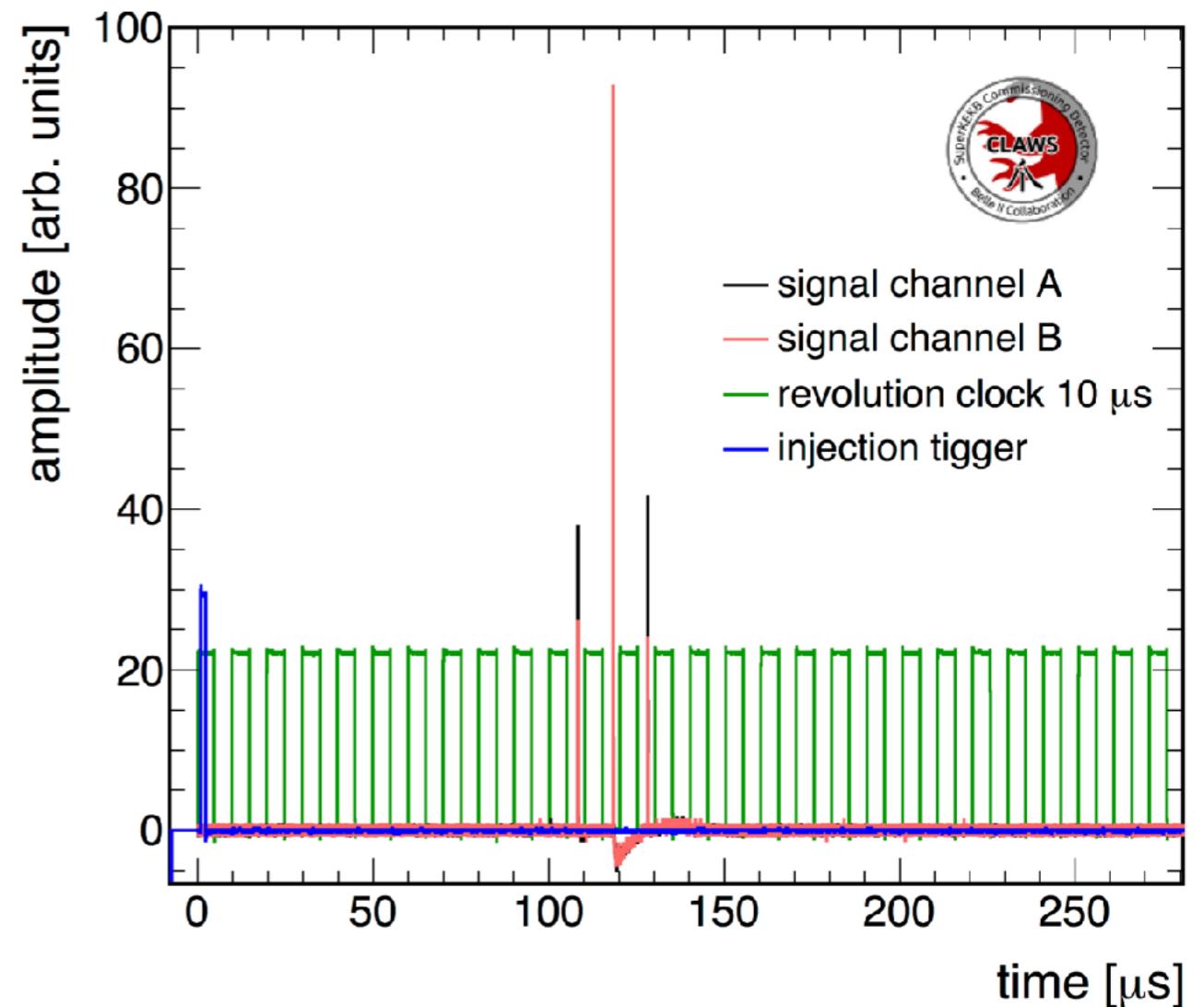
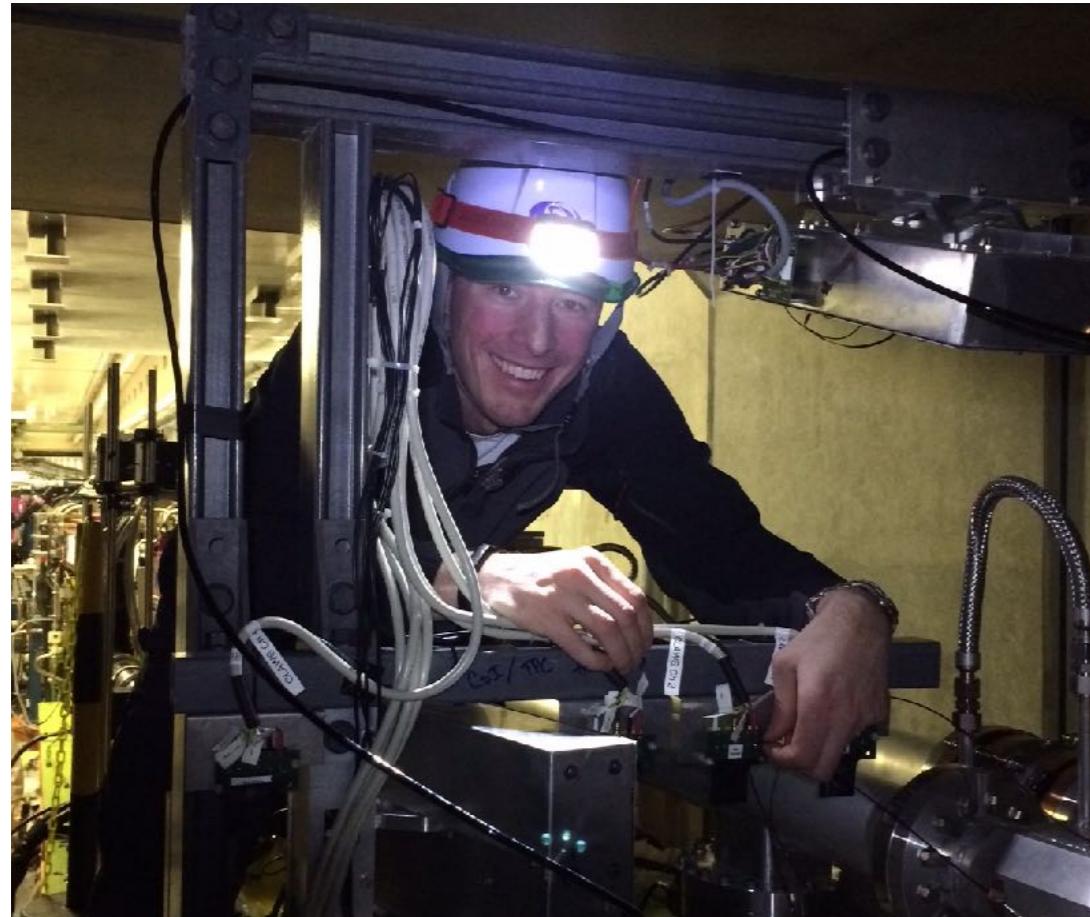
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SuperKEKB Startup: With MPP Detectors

- A small scintillator system was installed at the SuperKEKB interaction point to monitor background levels prior to the installation of the Belle-II detector
 - Saw the first particles from the accelerator (interactions of electrons with remaining gas in the beam pipe)



Collider Parameters - Overview

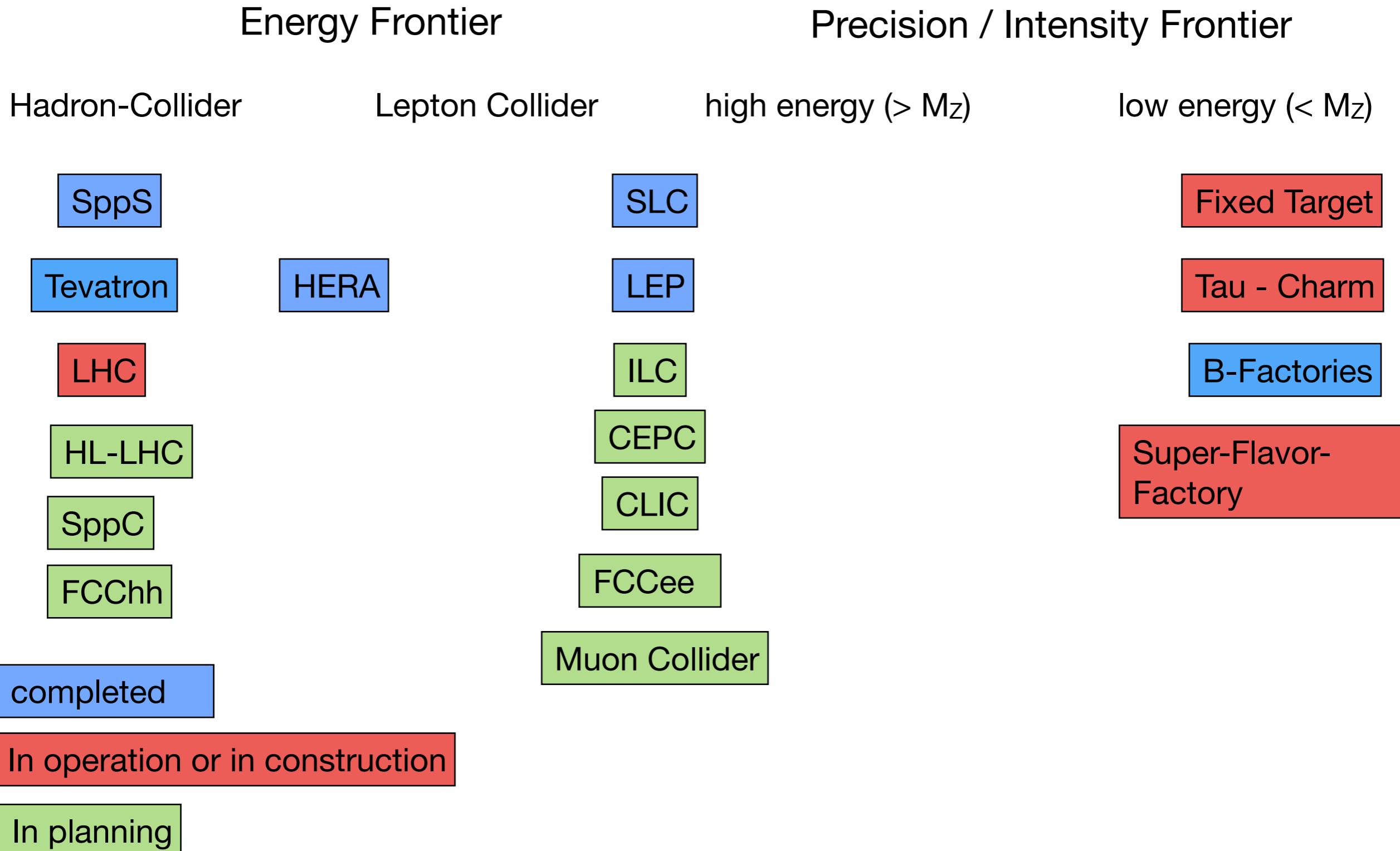
Collider	start – end date	beam type	max. beam energy (GeV)	circumference <i>or length (km)</i>	L (cm ⁻² s ⁻¹)
PETRA (DESY)	1978 - 1986	e ⁺ e ⁻	23.4	2.304	10 ³⁰
SLC (SLAC)	1989 – 1999	e ⁺ e ⁻	50	1.45 + 1.47	3x10 ³⁰
LEP (CERN)	1989 – 2000	e ⁺ e ⁻	104	26.7	10 ³²
ILC (??)	2030+ (?)	e ⁺ e ⁻	250 (500)	15 + 15	2x10 ³⁴
KEKB (KEK)	1999 - 2010	e ⁺ e ⁻	8 x 3.5	3.0	2x10 ³⁴
PEP-II (SLAC)	1999 -	e ⁺ e ⁻	9 x 3.1	2.2	10 ³⁴
SuperKEKB	2016- (?)	e ⁺ e ⁻	7 x 4		8 x10 ³⁵
HERA (DESY)	1991 -	e p	30 x 920	6.3	8x10 ³¹
SppS (CERN)	1981 – 1990	p \bar{p}	315	6.9	6x10 ³⁰
TEVATRON (Fermilab)	1987 - 2011	p \bar{p}	1000	6.28	2x10 ³²
LHC (CERN)	2009 -	pp	7000	26.7	10 ³⁴



Future Accelerators

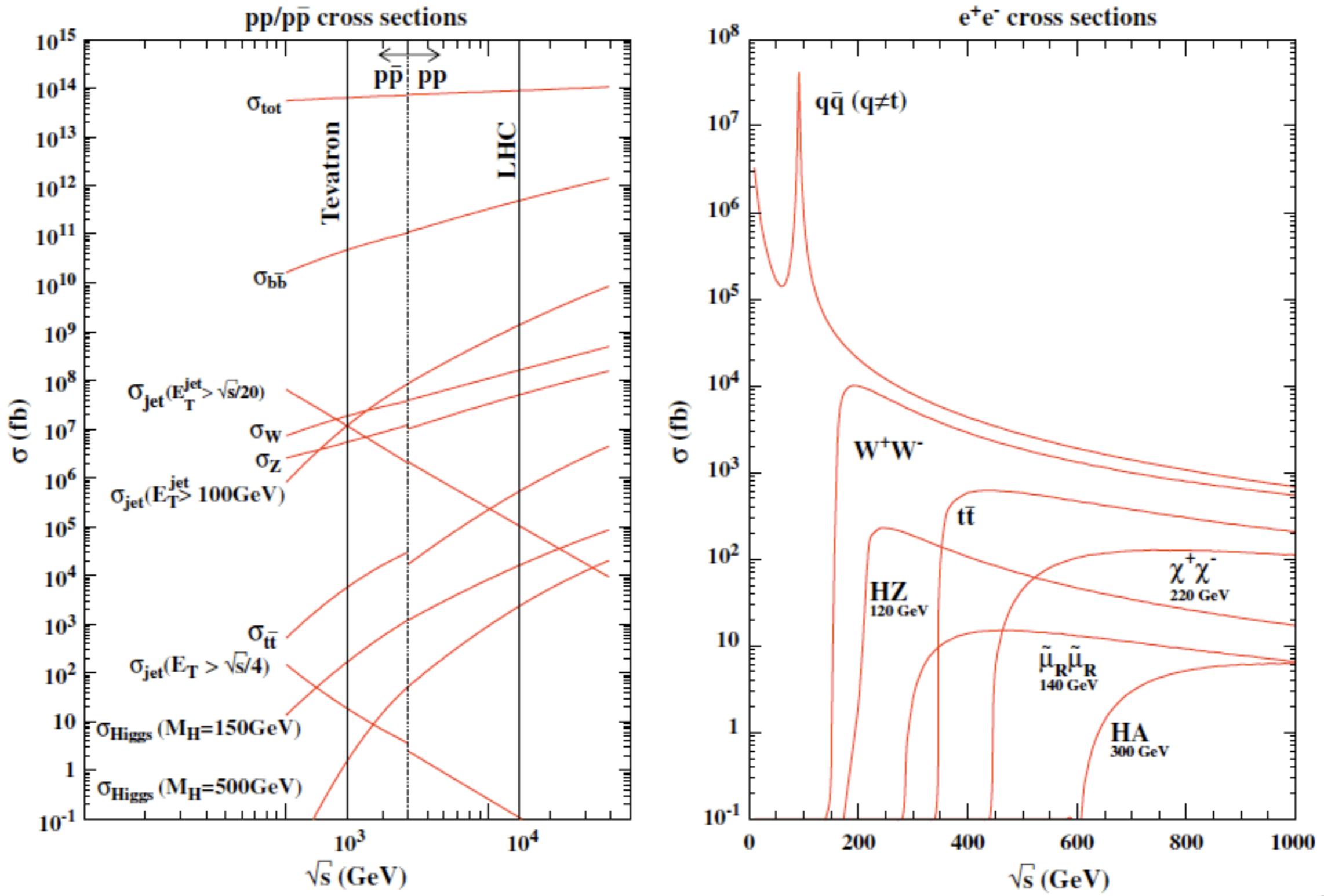


Current and Future Accelerator Projects in HEP



Proton vs. Lepton-Colliders

G. Weiglein et al. / Physics Reports 426 (2006) 47–358



High Energy Lepton Colliders

- Solutions for the problem of synchrotron radiation:
 - No curves: Linear accelerators for electrons
 - High mass: muons instead of electrons



High Energy Lepton Colliders

- Solutions for the problem of synchrotron radiation:
 - No curves: Linear accelerators for electrons
 - High mass: muons instead of electrons
- Both options are being studied, both have pros and cons:
 - Linear Collider: Energy has to be reached in a single shot, requires many accelerating cavities, no re-use of particles after collision
 - Muon Collider: Muons are unstable and can only be stored for short times. Capturing and “cooling” of the Muons, so that they can be used in a storage ring is far from trivial (remember: Muons are tertiary particles: Produced from pions decaying in flight, the pions are produced by shooting protons at a target)



High Energy Lepton Colliders

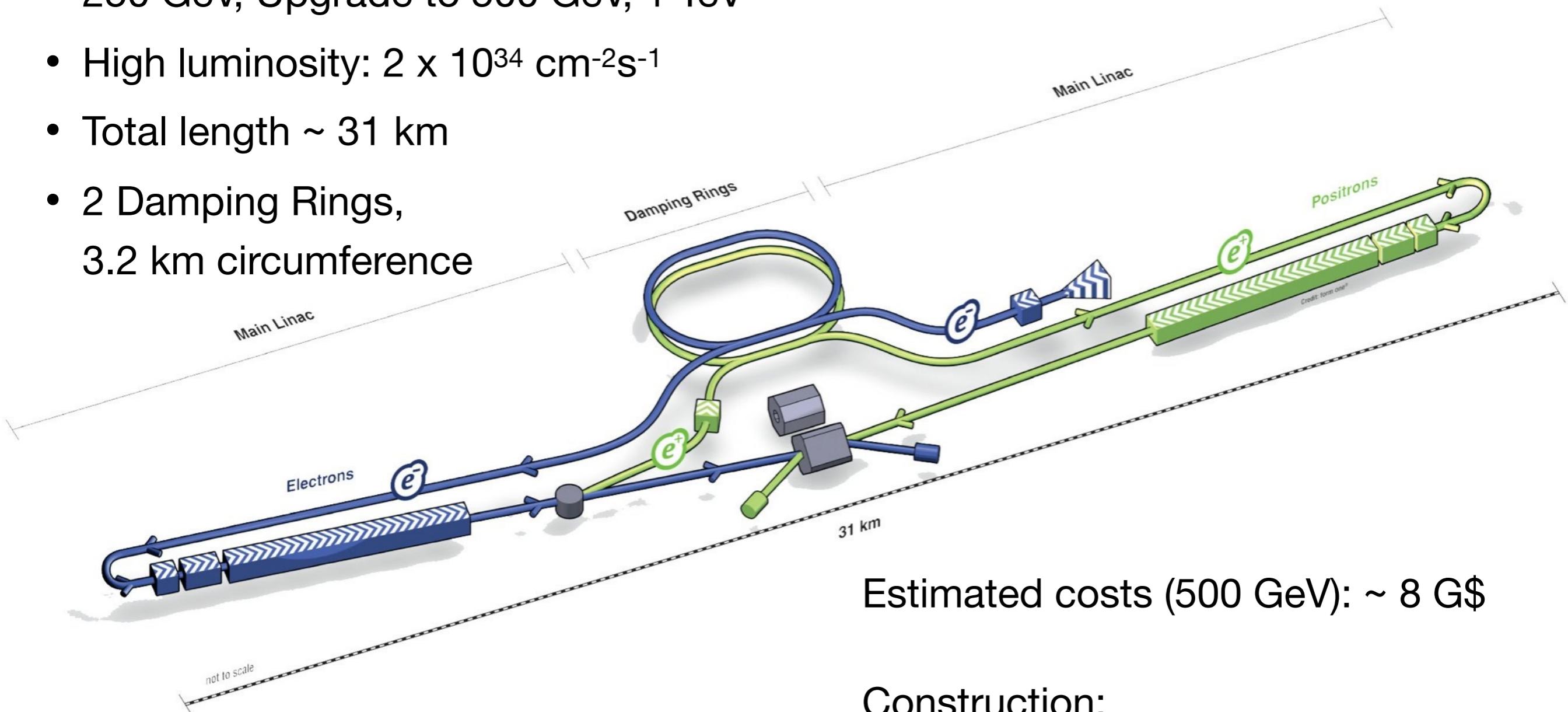
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The Linear Collider concept is already very mature, while many issues for a Muon Collider still need to be solved



The International Linear Collider ILC

- Planned e^+e^- Collider with a center of mass energy of 250 GeV, Upgrade to 500 GeV, 1 TeV
- High luminosity: $2 \times 10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$
- Total length $\sim 31 \text{ km}$
- 2 Damping Rings,
3.2 km circumference



Estimated costs (500 GeV): $\sim 8 \text{ G\$}$

Construction:
 ~ 9 years until commissioning

Accelerating Structures for the ILC

- The key figure of merit: The acceleration gradient
 - ▶ Determines the length of a linear accelerator to reach a certain energy

The solution for ILC: Superconducting cavities

Advantages:

- No energy losses in the resonator walls: Efficient acceleration, long pulses possible
- relatively low frequency: 1.4 GHz
 - High stability because of manageable tolerances
 - Simple RF (radio frequency) generation



Accelerating Structures for the ILC

- The key figure of merit: The acceleration gradient
 - ▶ Determines the length of a linear accelerator to reach a certain energy

The solution for ILC: Superconducting cavities

Advantages:

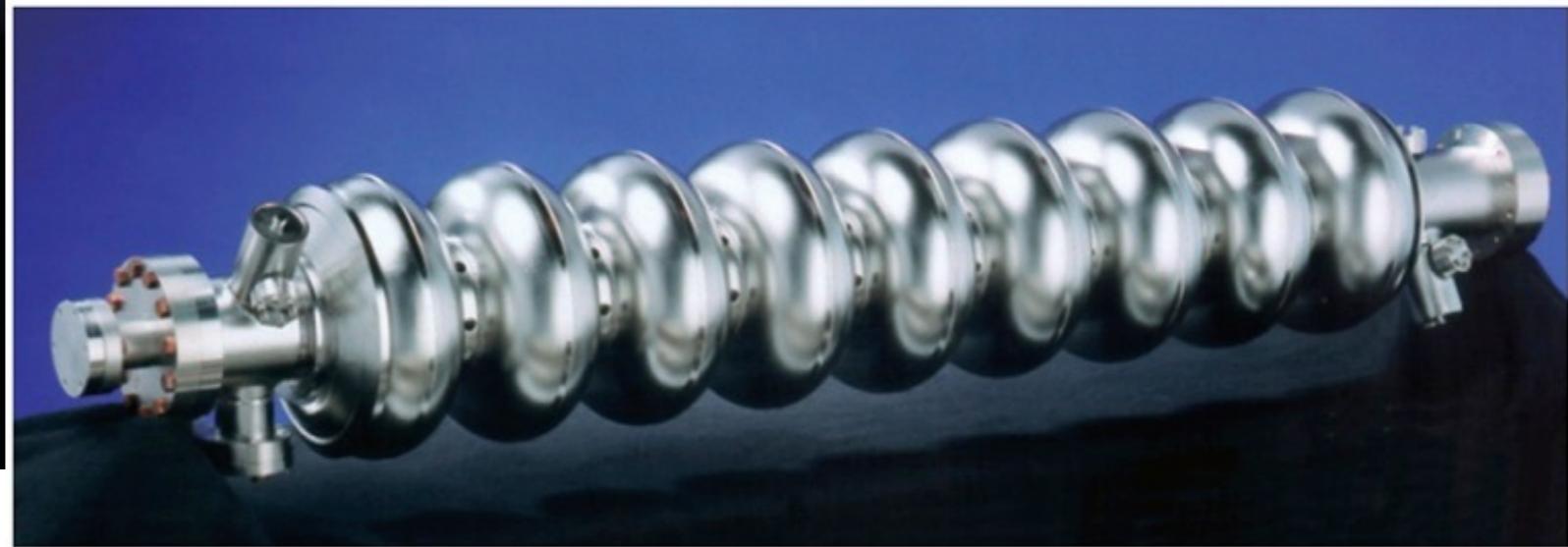
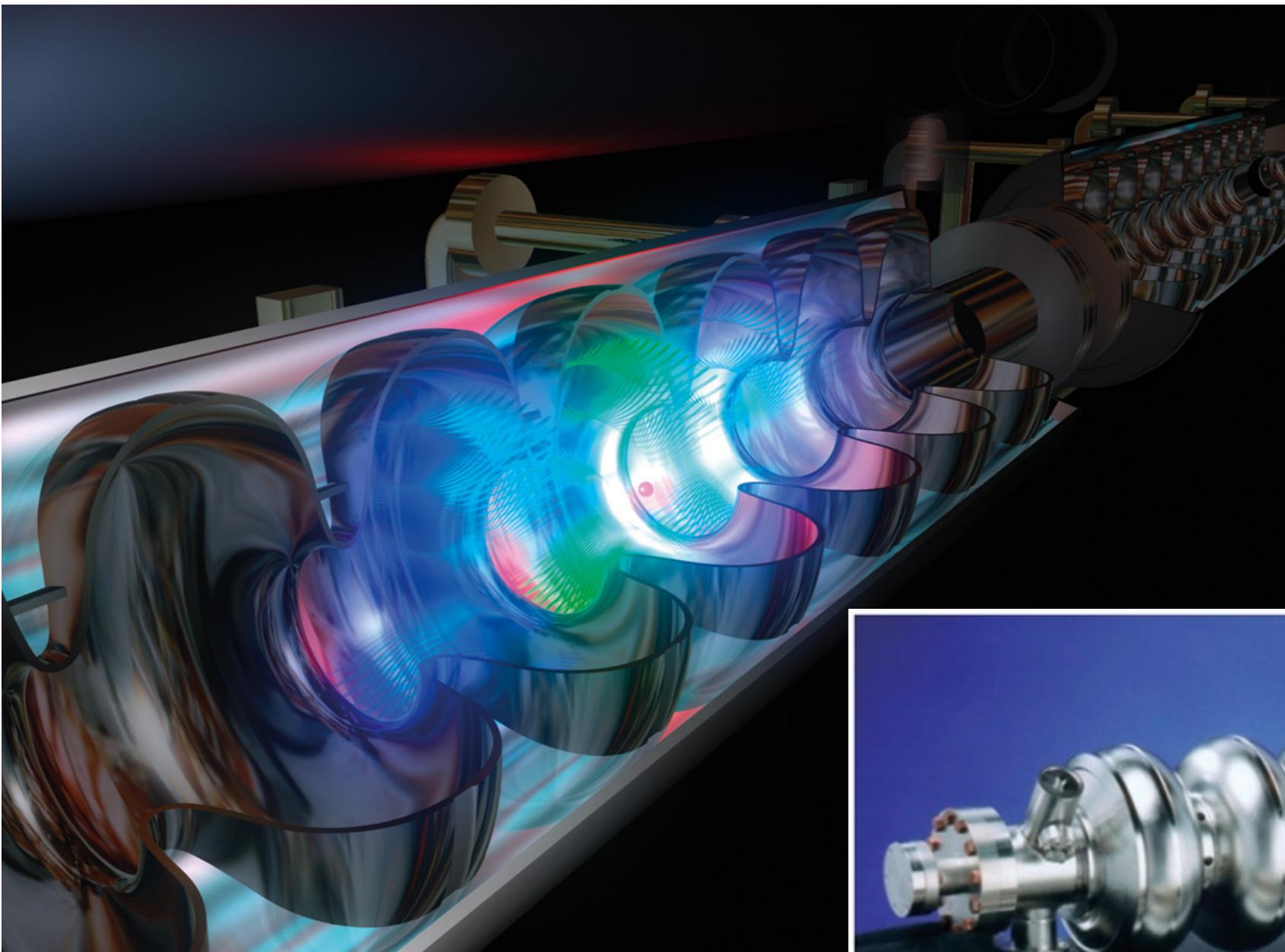
- No energy losses in the resonator walls: Efficient acceleration, long pulses possible
- relatively low frequency: 1.4 GHz
 - High stability because of manageable tolerances
 - Simple RF (radio frequency) generation

Alternatives: Normal-conducting (copper) cavities

- No cryogenics required
- Can achieve higher acceleration gradients (with very high frequencies)
- but: extremely small tolerances, high frequency => challenging RF generation, short pulses to keep losses tolerable
- NLC-Design: 11.4 GHz, to reach sufficient acceleration gradients



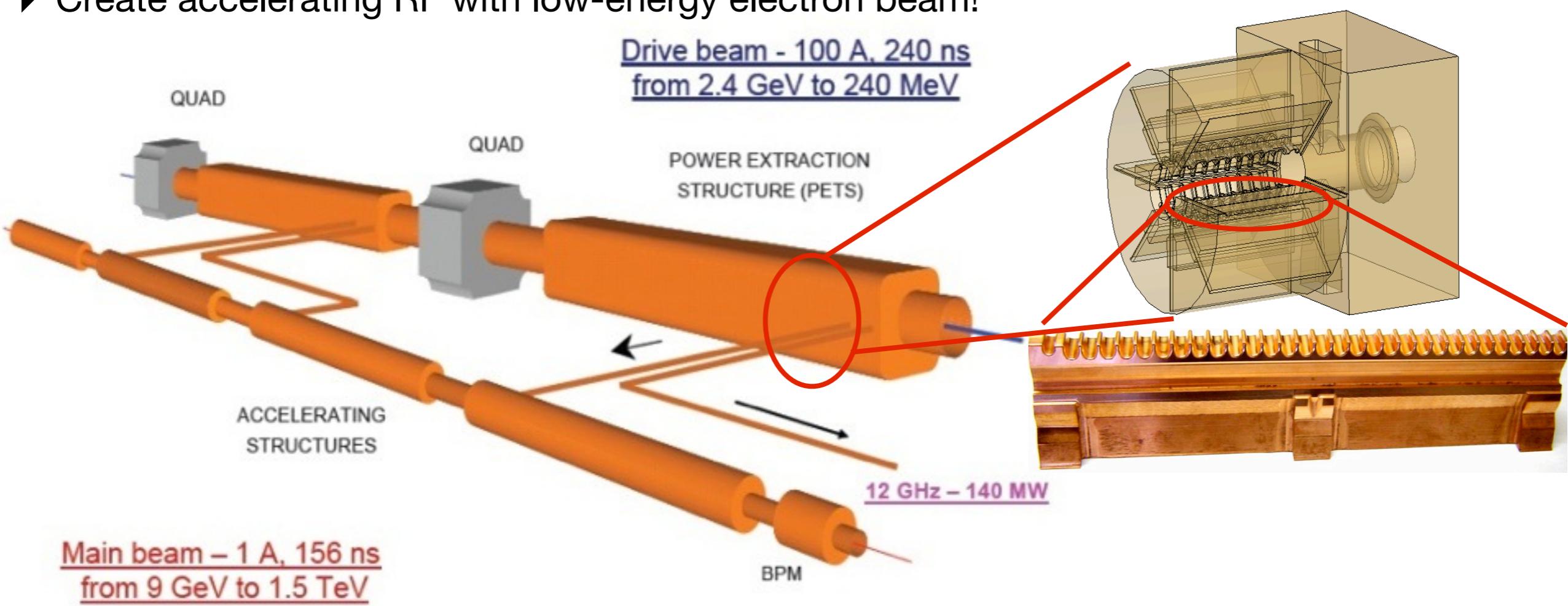
Accelerating Structures for the ILC



- Gradient $\sim 31.5 \text{ MV/m}$ - ILC technology has already reached gradients $> 40 \text{ MV/m}$ for some test modules

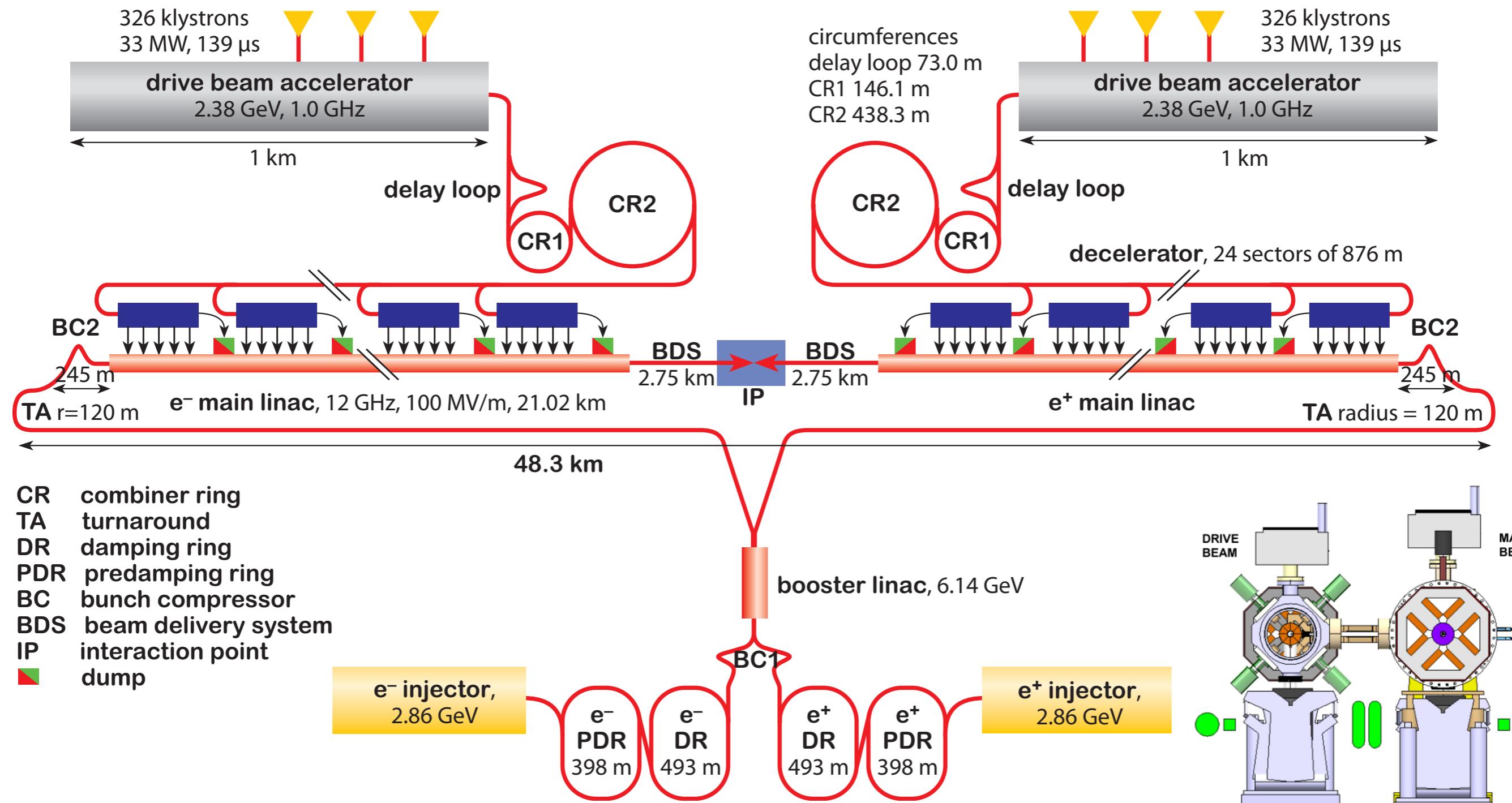
The Path to Higher Energies: 2 Beam Acceleration

- Das Issue: For energies of ~ 3 TeV the ILC technology is not practical: Length of the accelerator > 100 km
 - Higher acceleration gradients are needed - achievable with normal-conducting structures and high frequencies (12 GHz) - CLIC: 100 MV/m
 - To reach a satisfactory accelerator efficiency, a new way to create the RF is needed (standard Klystrons are good at ~ 1 GHz, not 12 GHz)
 - Create accelerating RF with low-energy electron beam!



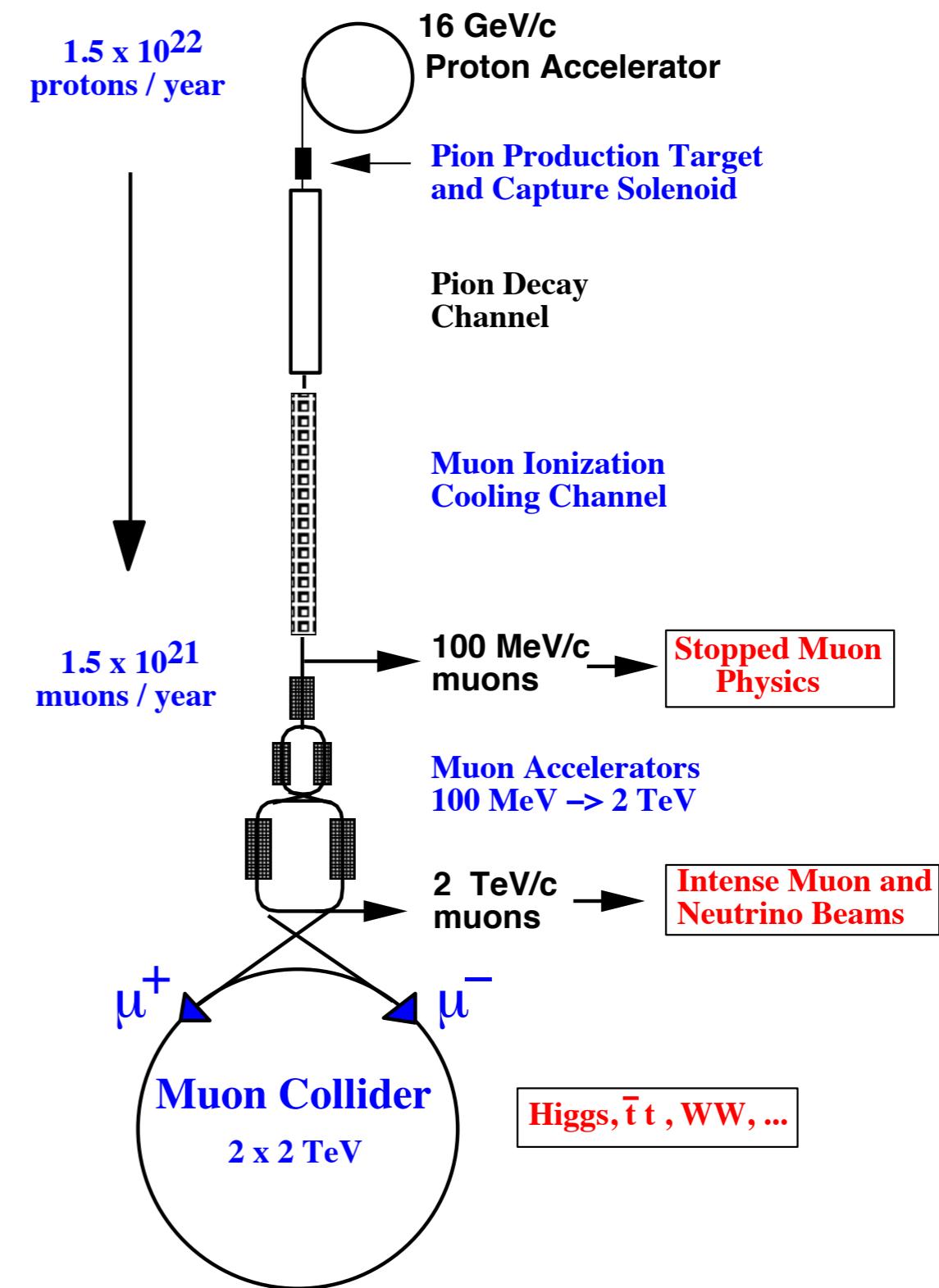
CLIC: “Compact” Linear Collider

- 3 TeV center of mass energy, 2 beam acceleration; Luminosity up to $6 \times 10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$



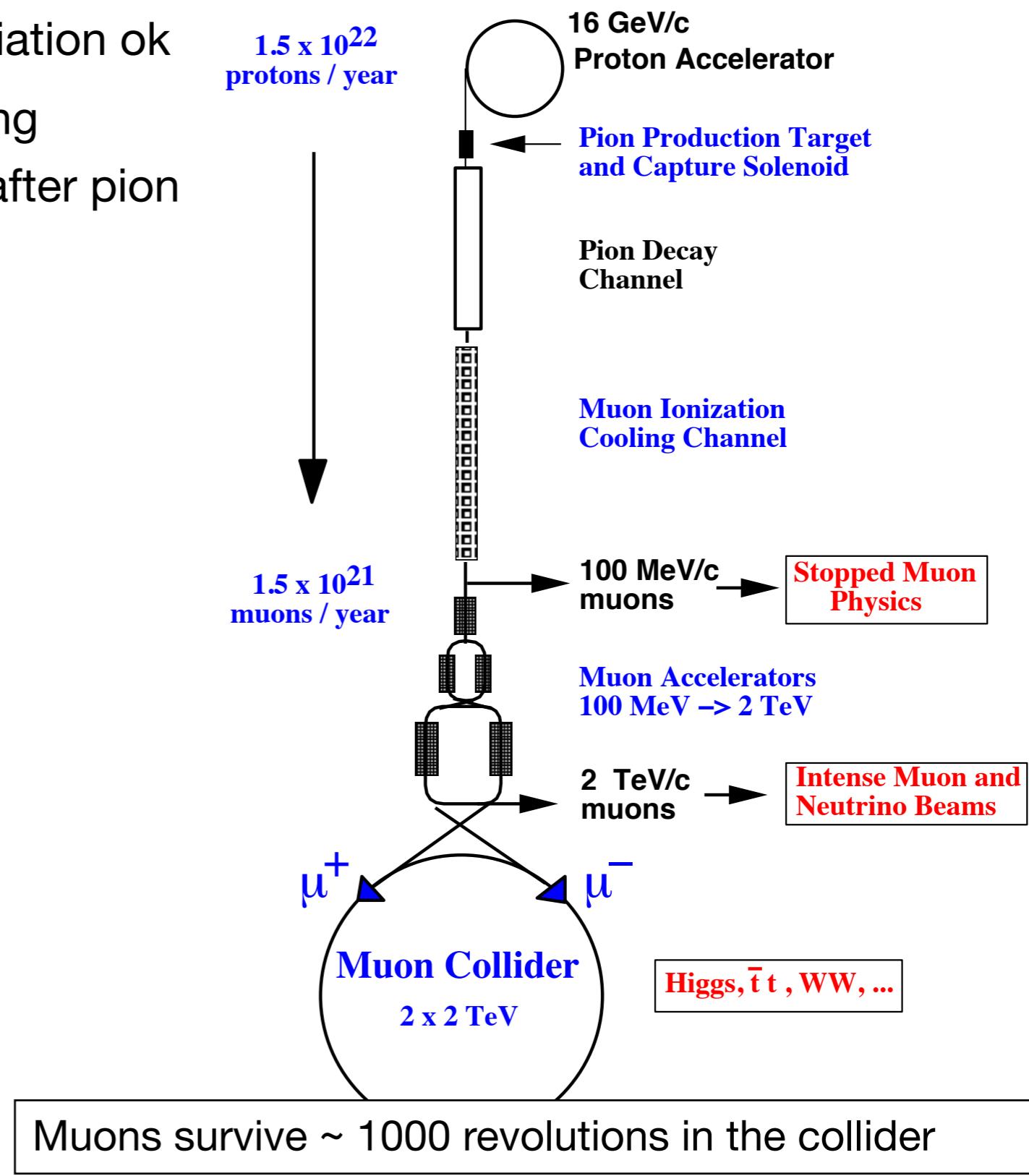
Beyond Electrons: Muon Collider

- Storage ring for muons: Synchrotron radiation ok
 - The challenge: Getting muons into the ring
Requires reduction of the phase space (after pion decay) by a factor of 10^5 bis 10^6
- Cooling!



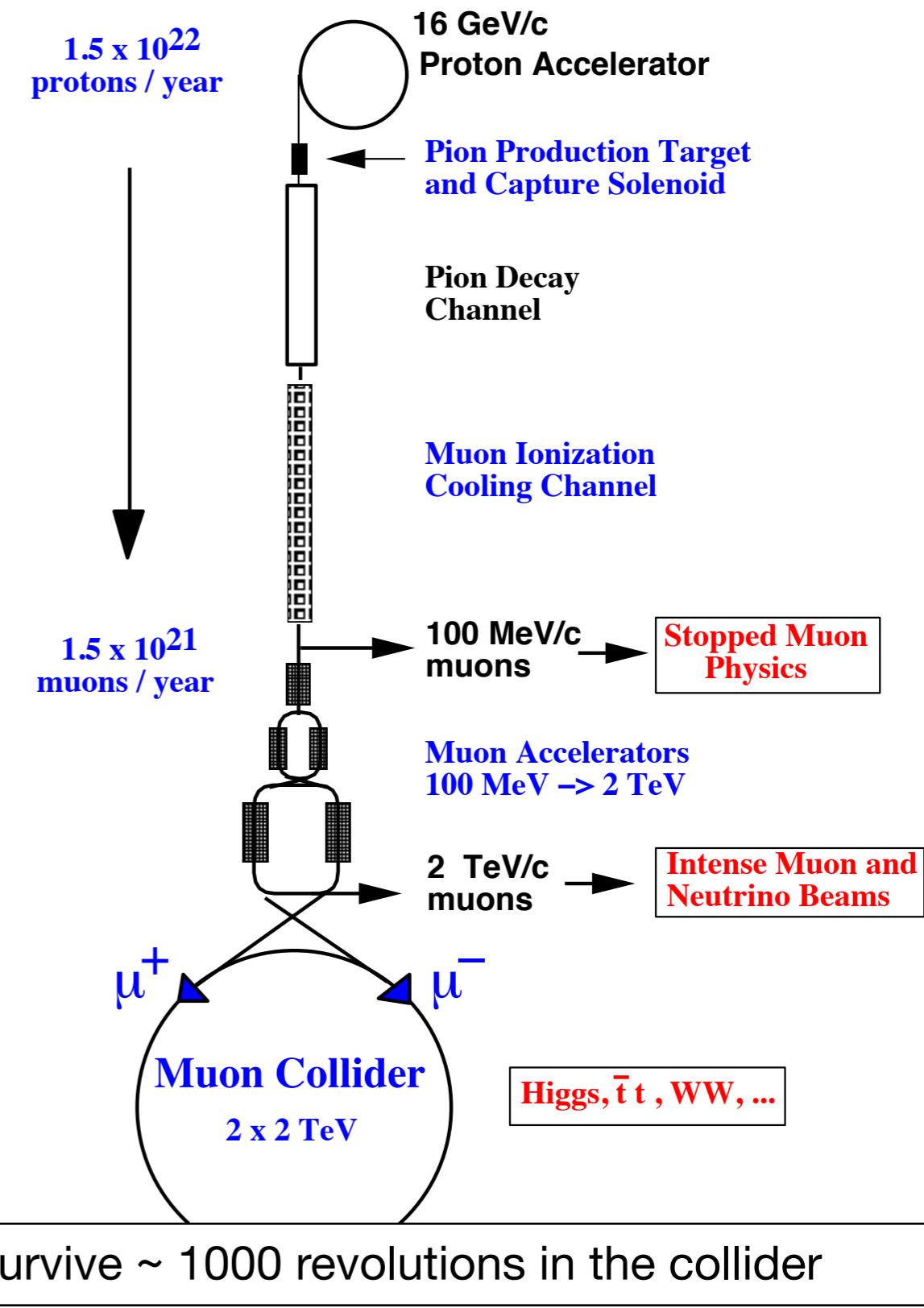
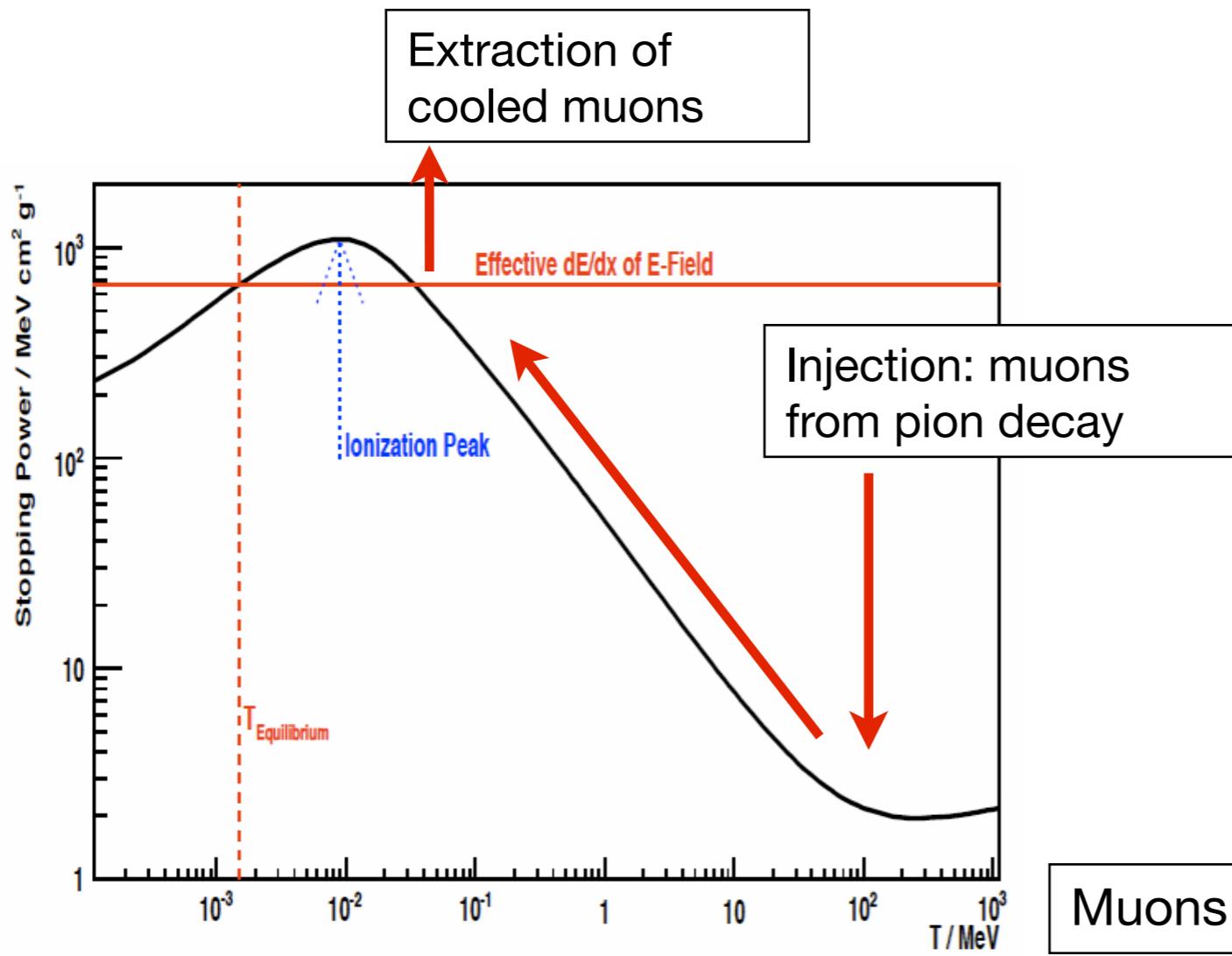
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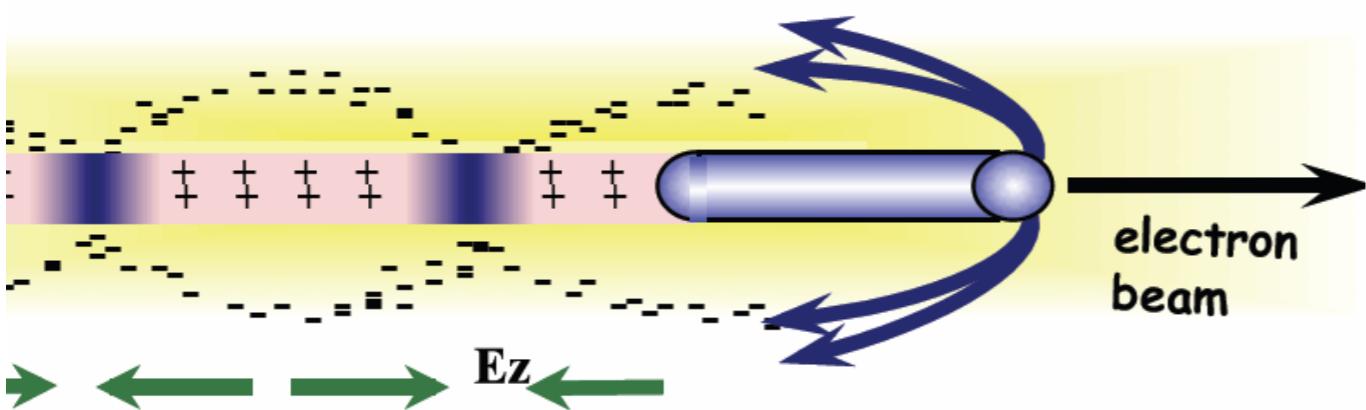
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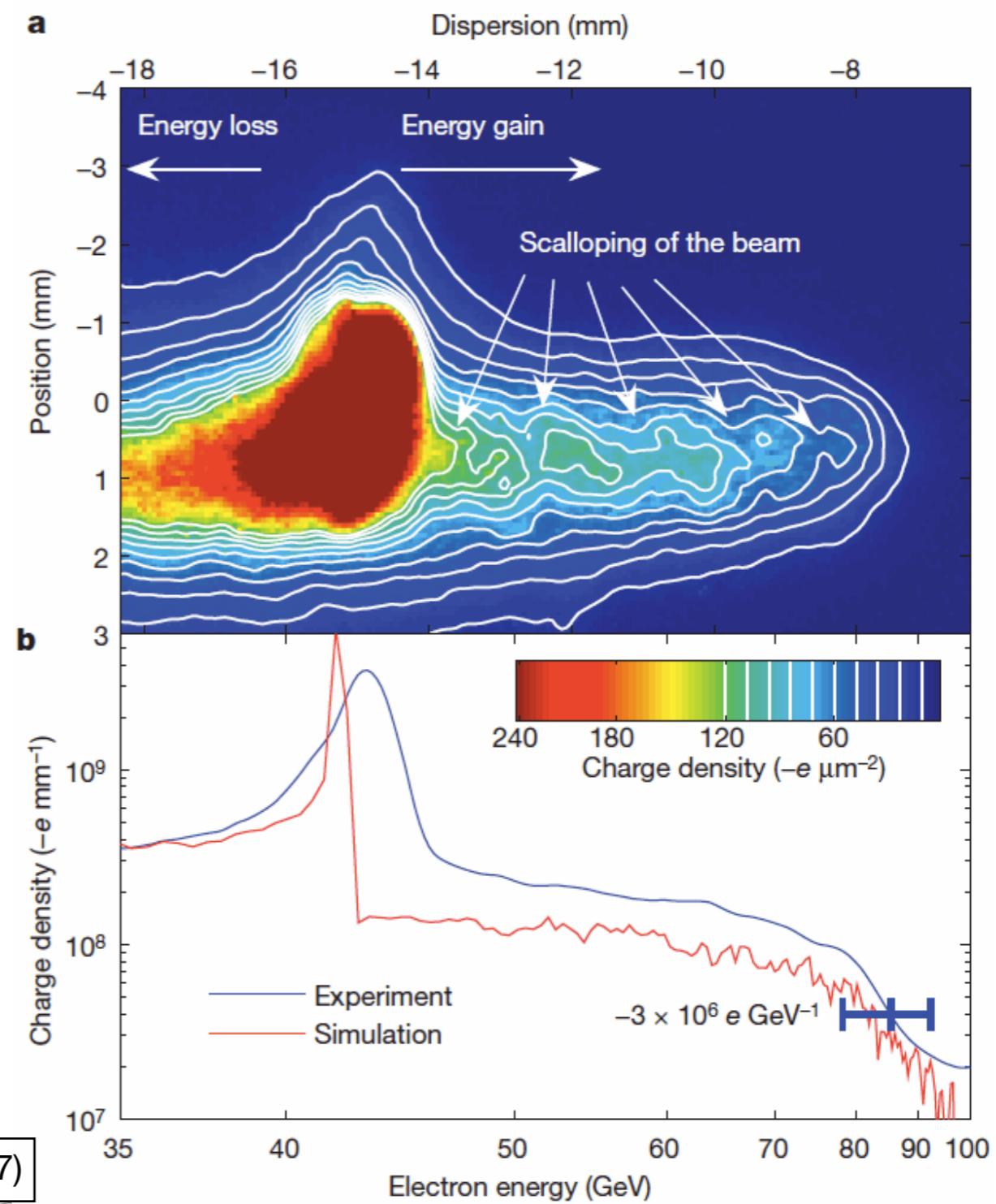


Plasma Wakefield Acceleration

- For high-energy linear colliders: Need much higher acceleration gradient to go significantly beyond ~ 1 TeV beams
 - Conventional accelerating structures limited at ~ 100 MV/m or below



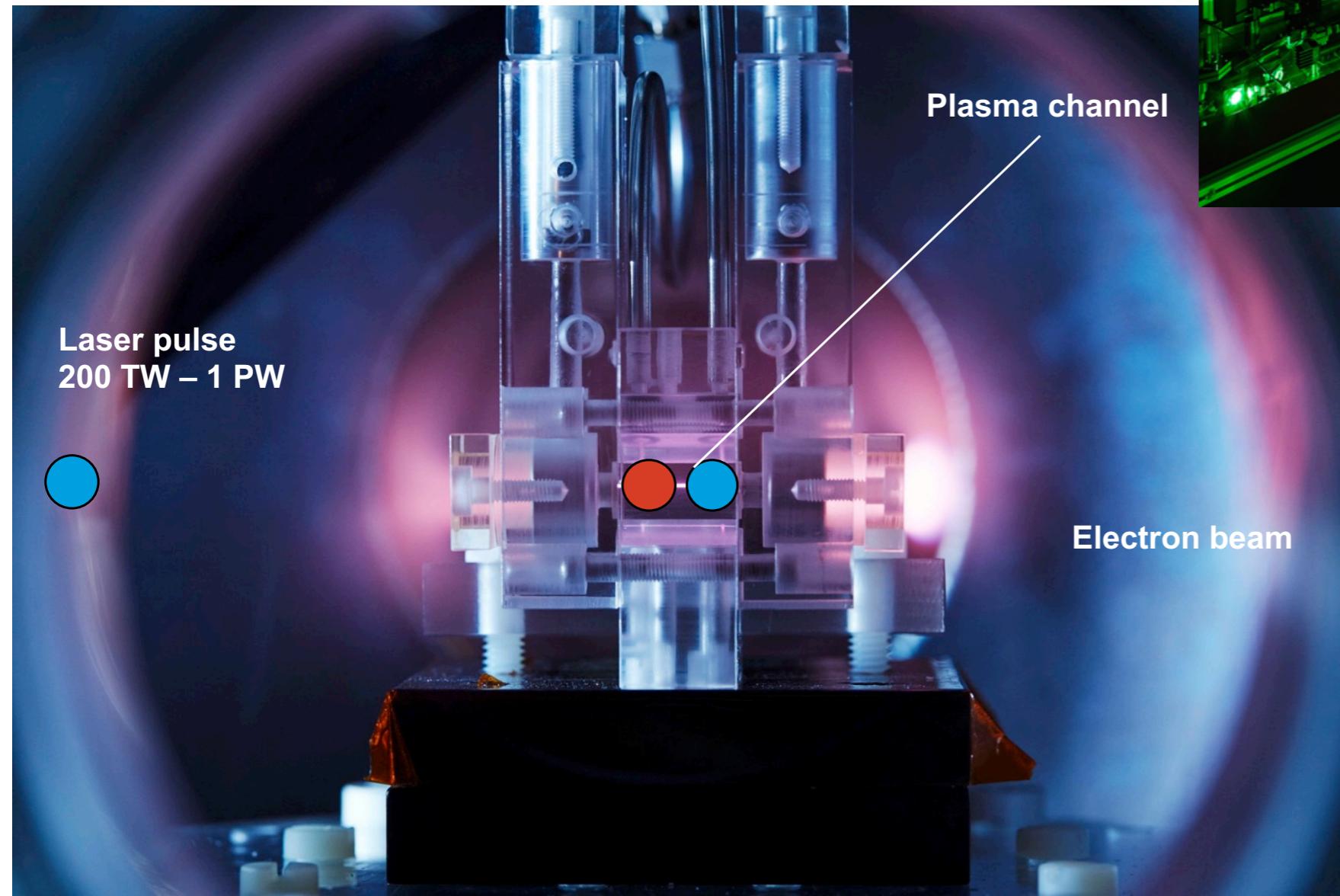
- Demonstration of high energy acceleration of electrons at SLAC: E-164X
- doubling of beam energy observed:
40 GeV energy gain over less than 1 m of plasma $\rightarrow \sim 50$ GV/m



Nature 445, 741 (2007)

Laser Plasma Accelerator

- Today: can routinely produce \sim GeV beams with good quality with industrial lasers
 - but: low power - 50 J in a laser pulse, vs MJ beams for particle physics



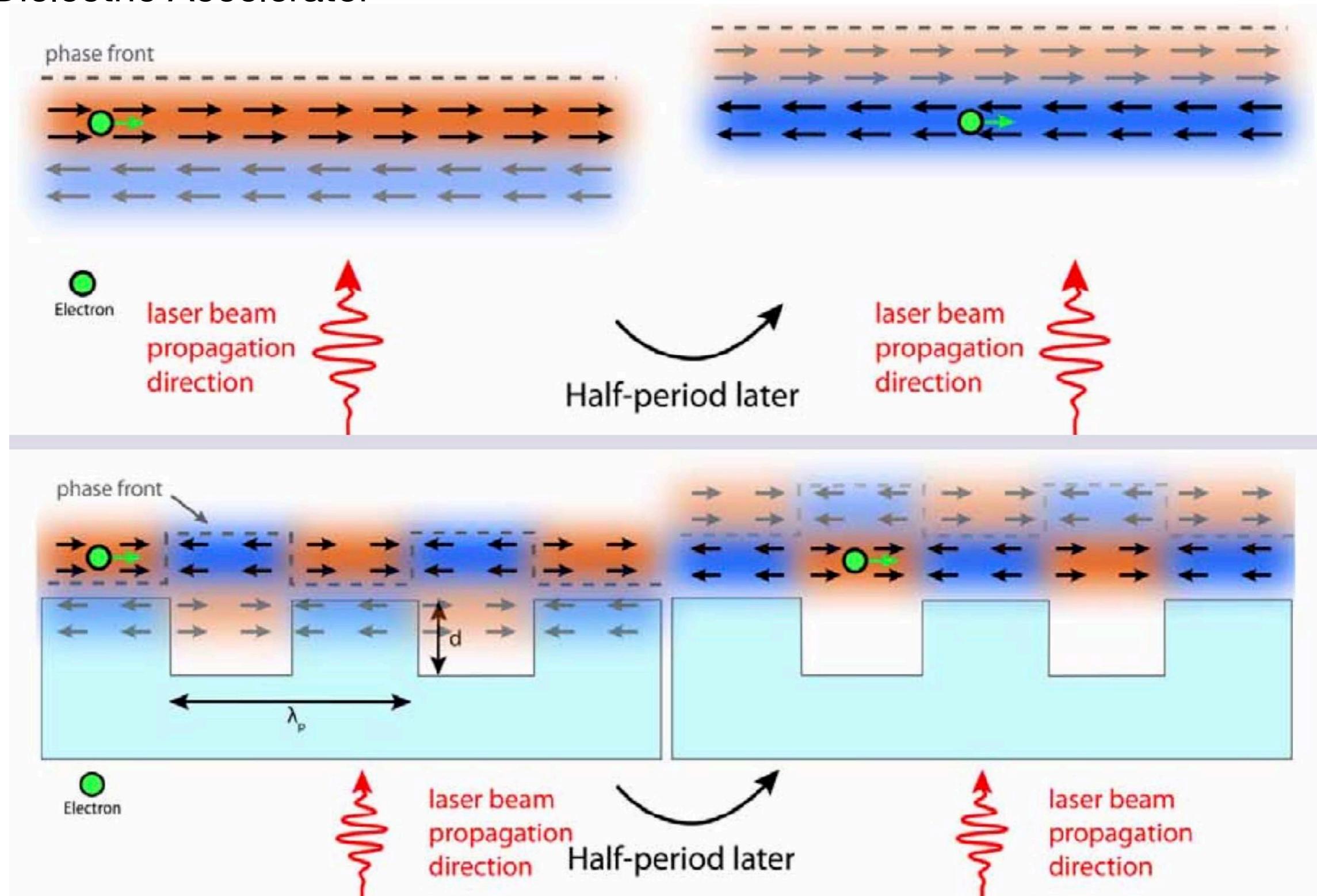
Amazingly compact

- A few cm of plasma give the same energy of 100 m of superconducting LINAC



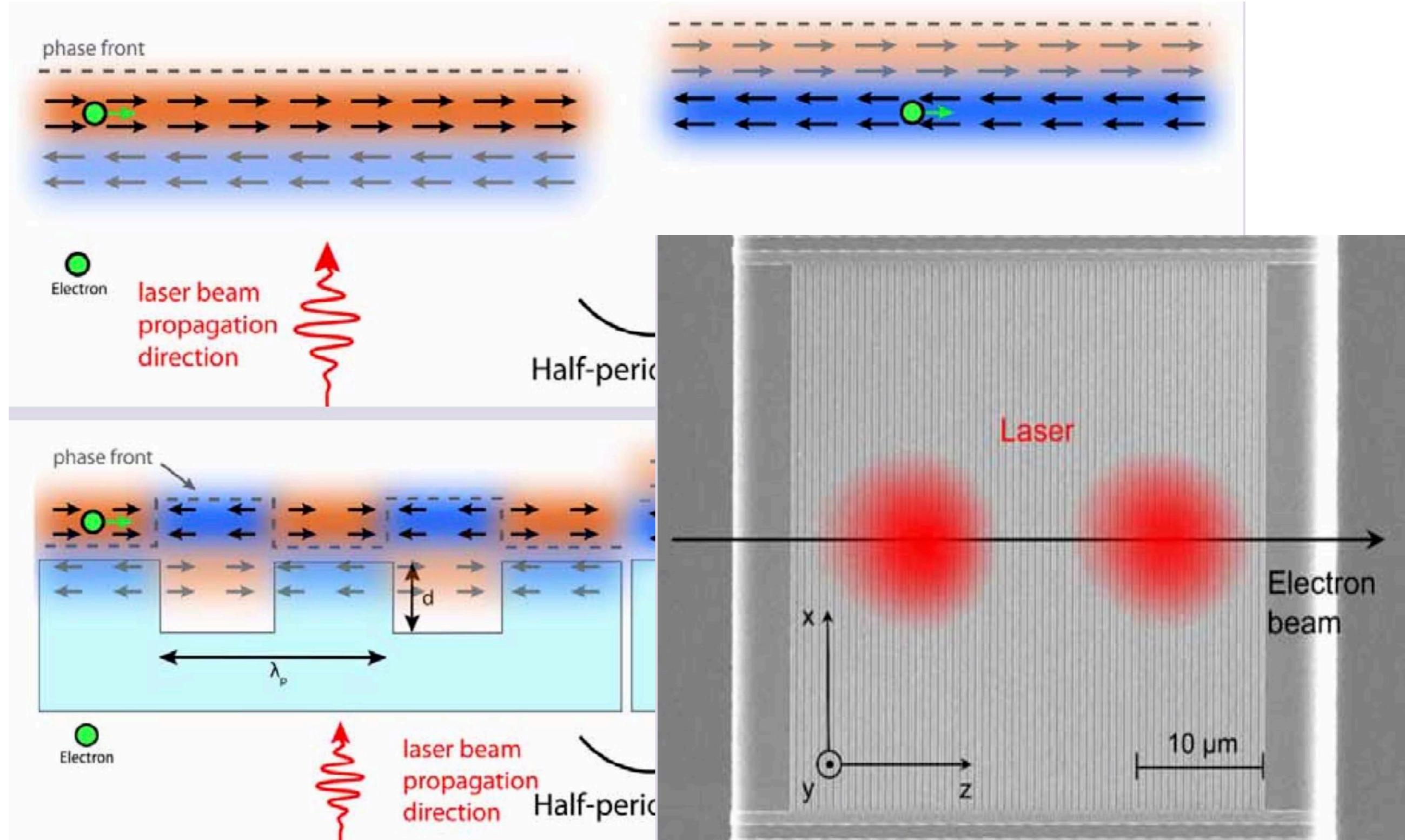
Even smaller: Accelerator on a Chip

Dielectric Accelerator



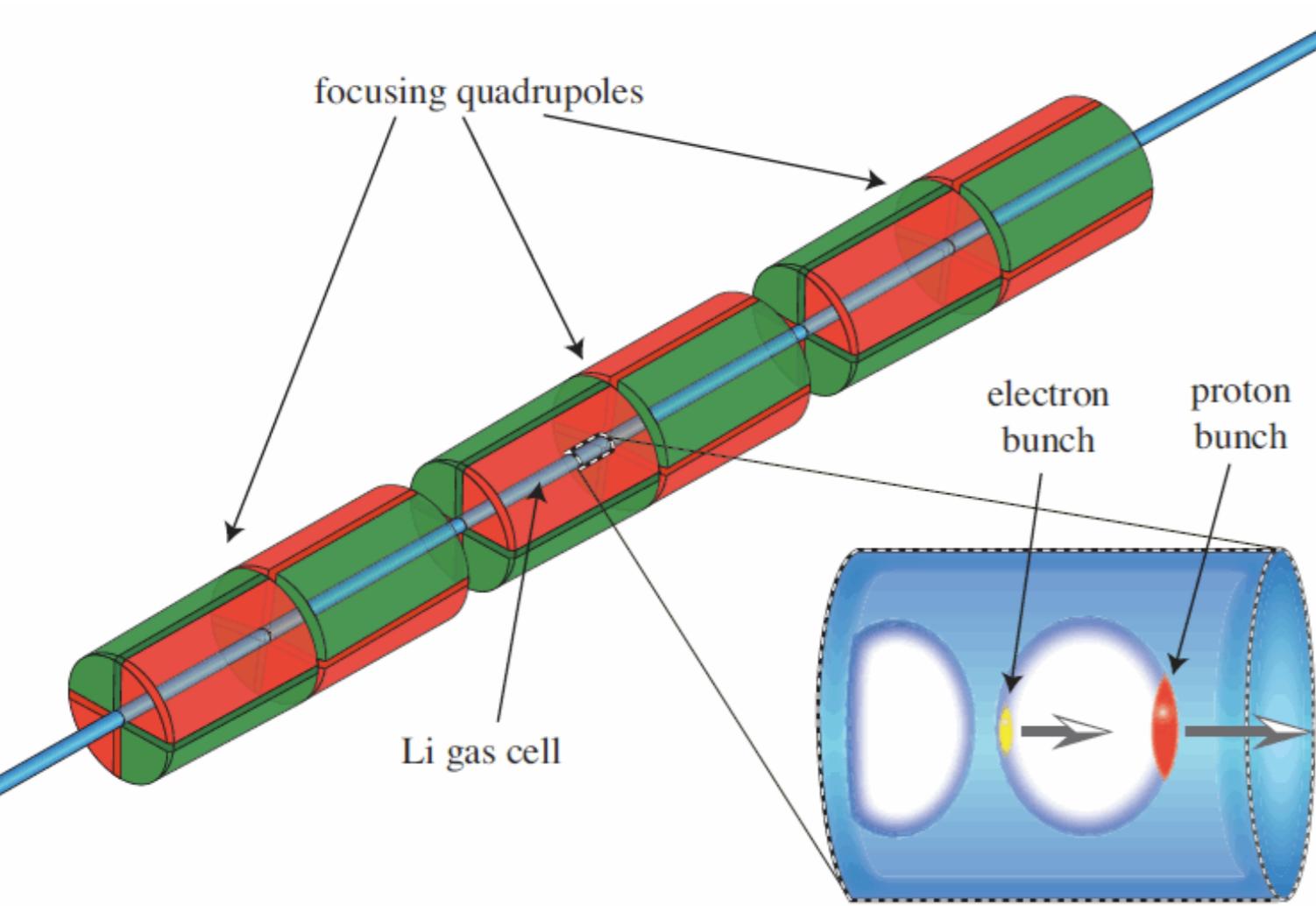
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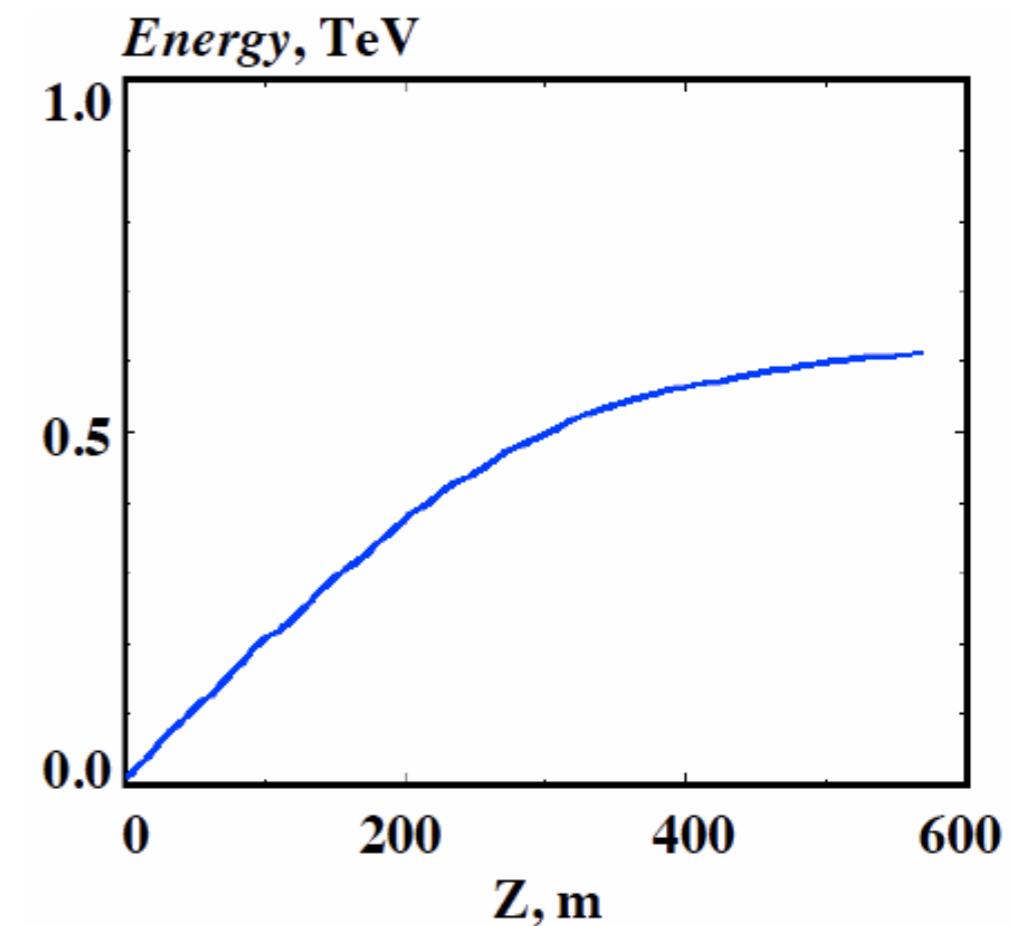


Plasma Wakefield Acceleration

- Need to get the energy into the plasma
 - Lasers - used for extreme gradients over very short distances (\sim mm)
 - Beams - Much higher power - Long acceleration distances possible
 - Idea followed at MPP: Use protons to drive plasma: Very high energy available!



Simulation with 1 TeV proton beam



Plasma Wakefield Acceleration

- Need to get the energy into the plasma
 - Lasers - used for extreme gradients over very short distances (\sim mm)

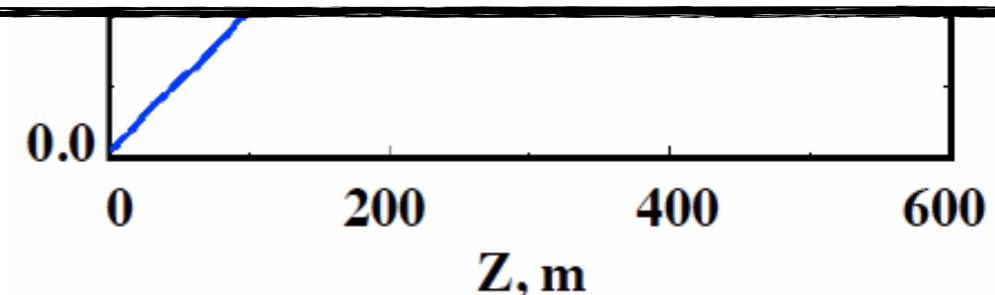
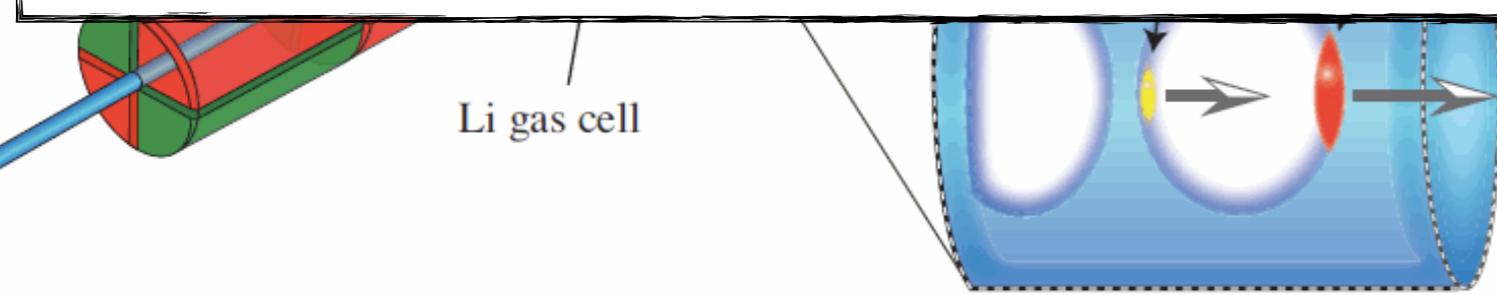
Key challenges (so far unsolved) for all techniques:

How to get very sharp energy distributions, high repetition rate,
high currents and good focusing?

How to accelerate positrons with a comparably high gradient?

Or, in short:

How to get high luminosity for a collider?



Summary

- Accelerators are key instruments in particle physics - with many applications beyond fundamental research
- Two basic concepts are in use today
 - Linear accelerators
 - Synchrotrons
- A high-energy e^+e^- linear collider is a likely future project in HEP
 - Other projects are developed as well
- Accelerator technology is constantly developed further
 - Current concepts: Superconducting cavities, two-beam acceleration schemes
 - Possible future technology: Plasma wakefield acceleration



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Next Lecture: 23.04., “Cosmic Accelerators”, B. Majorovits



Lecture Overview

09.04.	Einführung / Introduction
16.04.	Ground-based Accelerators
23.04.	Cosmic Accelerators
30.04.	Detectors in Astroparticle Physics
07.05.	The Standard Model
14.05.	QCD and Jets at e^+e^- Colliders
21.05.	Holiday - No Lecture
28.05.	Precision Experiments with low-energy accelerators
04.06.	Dark Matter & Dark Energy
11.06.	Cosmic Rays I
18.06.	Cosmic Rays II
25.06.	Gravitational Waves, Neutrino Introduction
02.07.	Neutrinos I
09.07.	Neutrinos II

