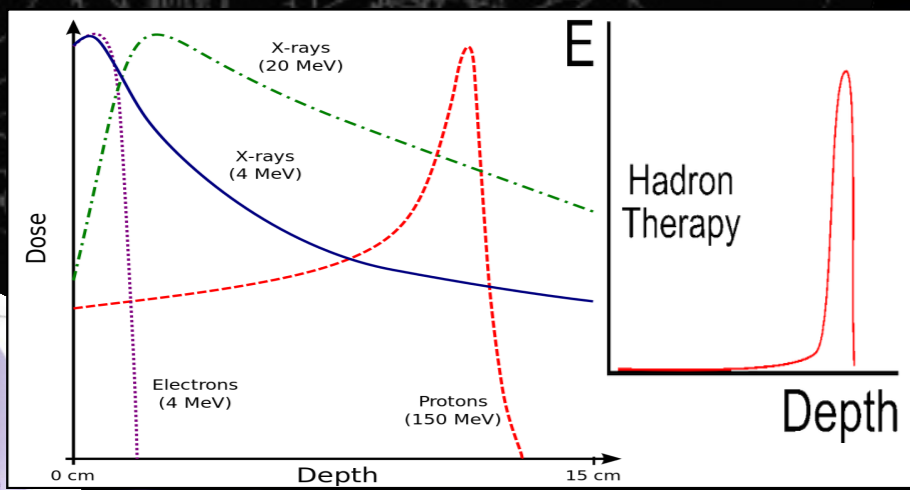
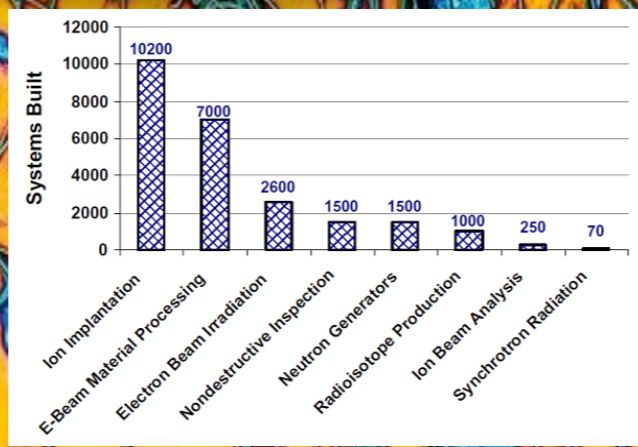


Uses: Hadron Therapy

- Ionising particles such as protons are fired into the body. They are aimed at cancerous tissue.
- Most methods like this irradiate the surrounding tissue too, but protons release most of their energy at the end of their travel. (see graphs)
- This allows the cancer cells to be targeted more precisely, with less damage to surrounding tissue.

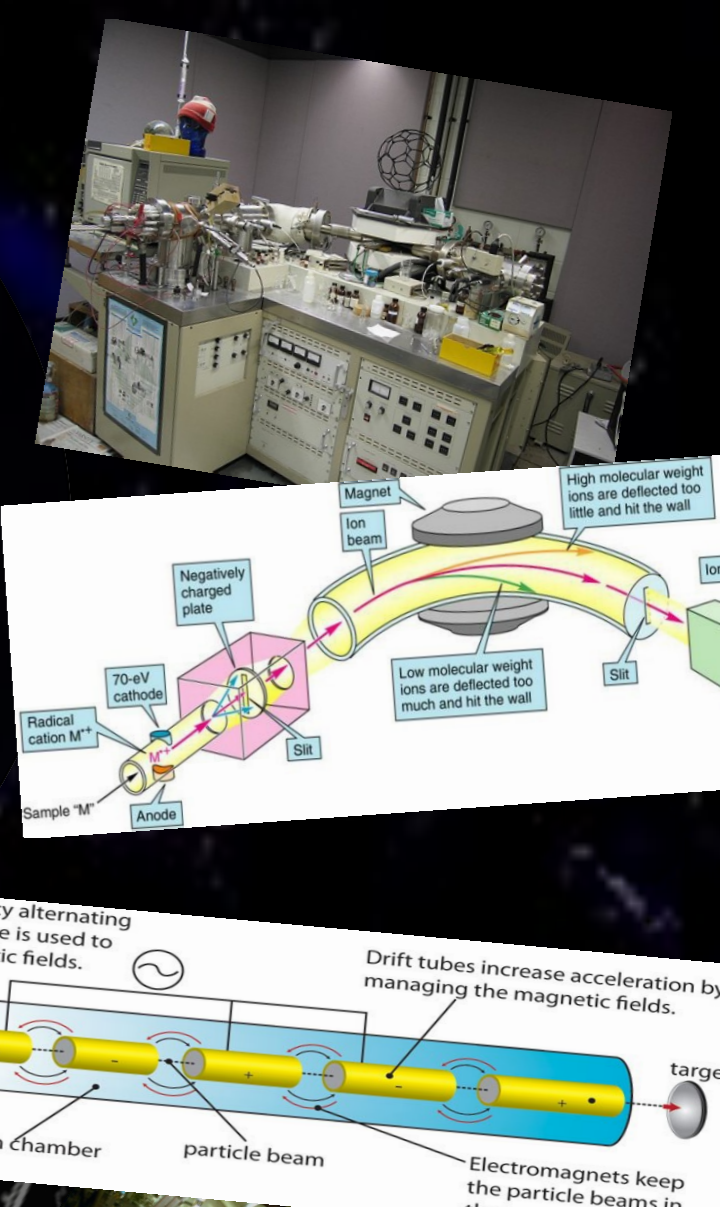
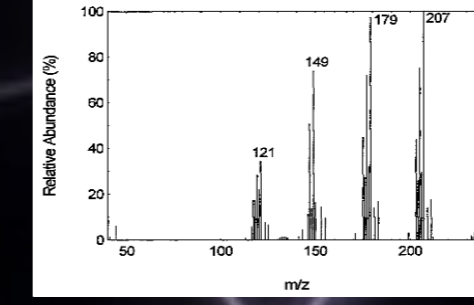


Uses Overview



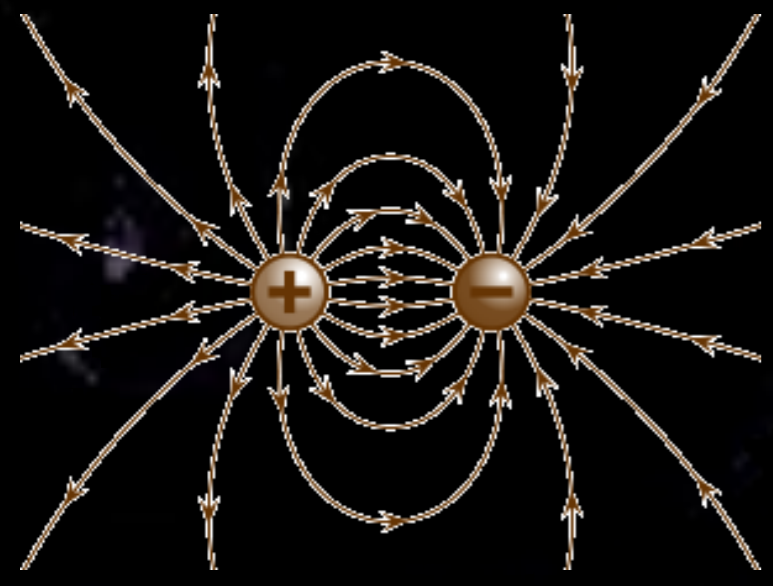
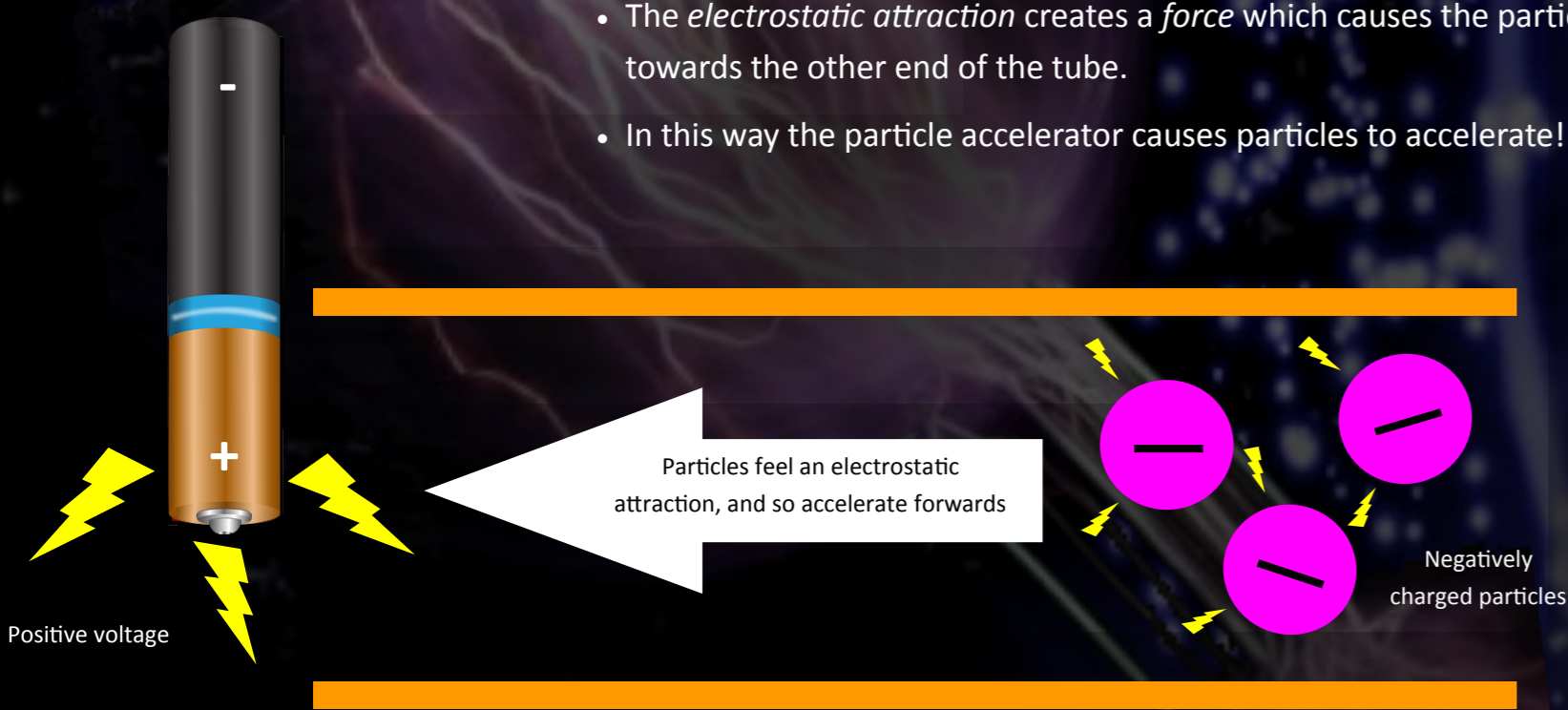
Uses: Mass Spectrometry

- This is a technique in analytical chemistry.
- It allows the identification of chemicals by ionising them and measuring the mass to charge ratio of each ion type against relative abundance.
- It also allows the relative atomic mass of different elements to be measured by comparing the relative abundance of the ions of different isotopes of the element.
- An example mass spectrum is shown below:



Electrostatic Particle Accelerators

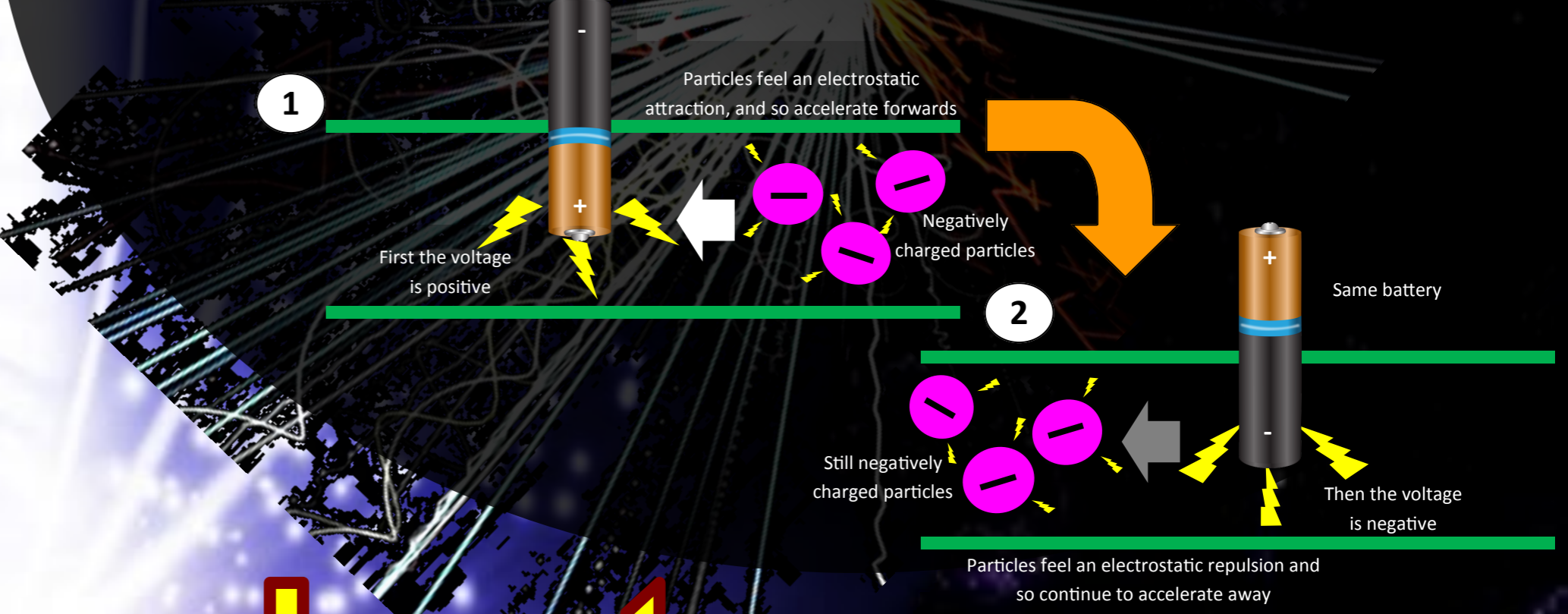
- An electrostatic voltage is provided at one end of a vacuum tube.
- This is like the charge on a magnet.
- At the other end of the tube, there are particles with the opposite charge.
- Like north and south poles on a magnet, the opposite charges attract and the particle is pulled towards the voltage.
- The electrostatic attraction creates a force which causes the particle to accelerate towards the other end of the tube.
- In this way the particle accelerator causes particles to accelerate!



Particle Accelerators

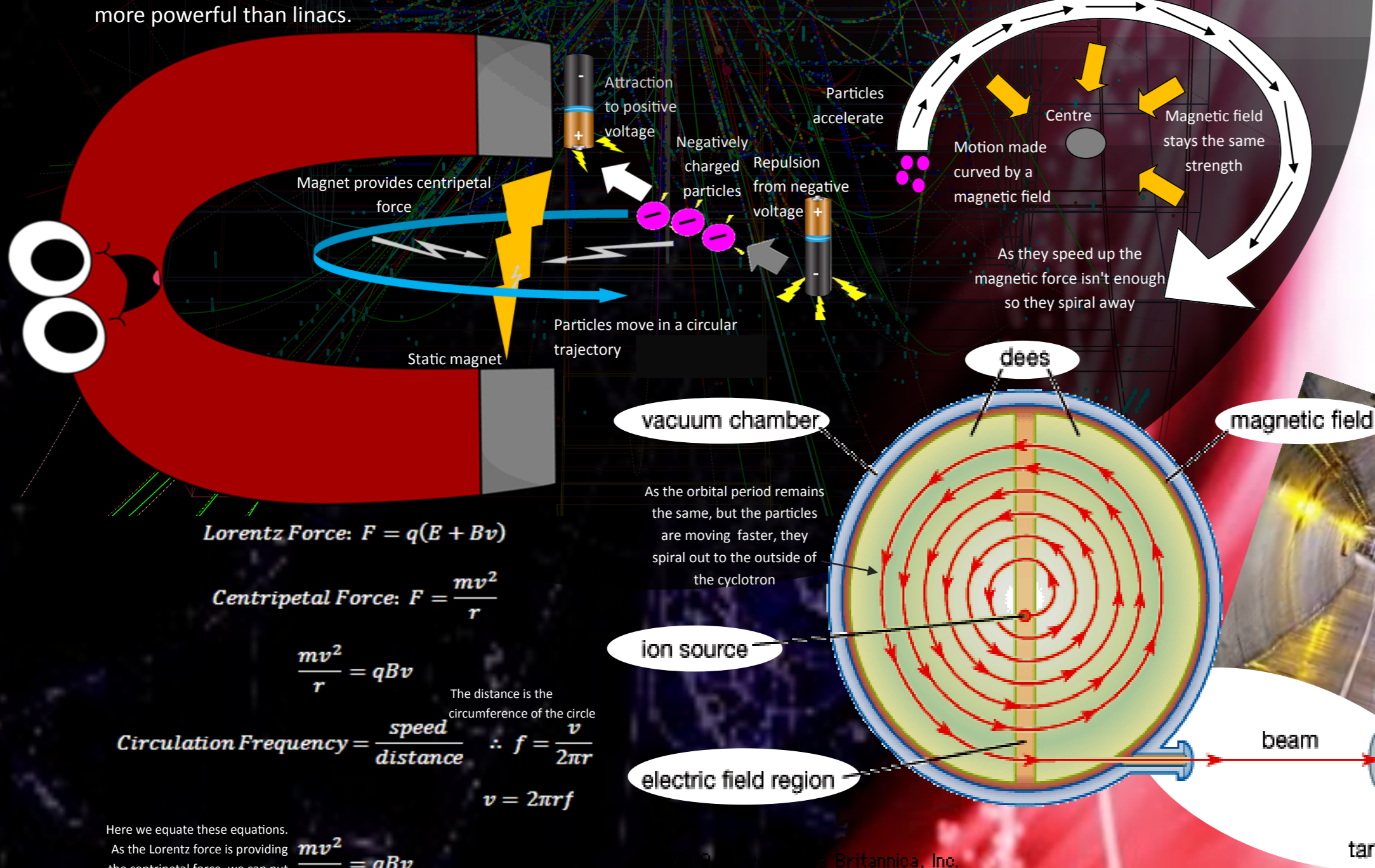
Linear Particle Accelerators

- These are still in a straight line, but now the voltage is no longer static - it is oscillating.
- This means the voltage is changing - so if it were a magnet, it would be first positive, then negative.
- Like the electrostatic accelerator, a charged particle is attracted to it as the charges are opposite, but just as the particle goes past the voltage changes, and the charge of the plate swaps (so it is now the same charge as the particle).
- Again like magnets - the same charges repel (eg north repels north).
- This means the particle receives a force away from the voltage too, so at first it is accelerating towards the voltage, then as it goes past it continues to accelerate away!
- This allows the particle to be accelerated for longer - so it can get to higher speeds.
- There may be many such voltages in a row, with each causing more acceleration, making linacs much more powerful than electrostatic accelerators.



The Cyclotron

- This was the first type of circular particle accelerator.
- The particles move around in a spiral shaped path. The force which keeps them moving this way is provided by a static magnetic field. This is the Centripetal Force (a force that causes circular motion).
- As they orbit (move around the centre) they pass through an alternating electric field which speeds them up in the same way as in the linac.
- But as the particles are moving circularly, they can pass through the same field many times, and thus can be accelerated more, by fewer magnets than a linac (there are normally two - called 'dees').
- As the magnetic field does not change (it's static) the particles have to take the same time to complete one orbit (see the maths below). As they are speeding up, this means they have to travel further each time, and so move out in a spiral trajectory.
- The circular motion and fewer required magnets mean that cyclotrons are much smaller, more cost effective, and more powerful than linacs.



Lorentz Force: $F = q(E + Bv)$

Centripetal Force: $F = \frac{mv^2}{r}$

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

Circulation Frequency = $\frac{\text{speed}}{\text{distance}} \therefore f = \frac{v}{2\pi r}$

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

$\frac{mv}{r} = qB$

$v = \frac{qBr}{m}$

$2\pi r f = \frac{qBr}{m}$

$f = \frac{qB}{2\pi m}$

$f = \frac{qB}{2\pi m}$

- $F = \text{Force}$
- $q = \text{charge of particle}$
- $E = \text{Electric Field Strength}$
- $B = \text{Magnetic Field Strength}$
- $m = \text{particle mass}$
- $v = \text{particle velocity}$
- $r = \text{distance from particle to centre}$
- $f = \text{circulation frequency (number of times the particle moves around per second)}$
- $\pi = \text{pi} = 3.14 \dots$

Neither r nor v appear in this equation

This shows that the circulation frequency is independent of the speed the particle is going, or the distance it is orbiting at! This tells us the frequency will stay constant!

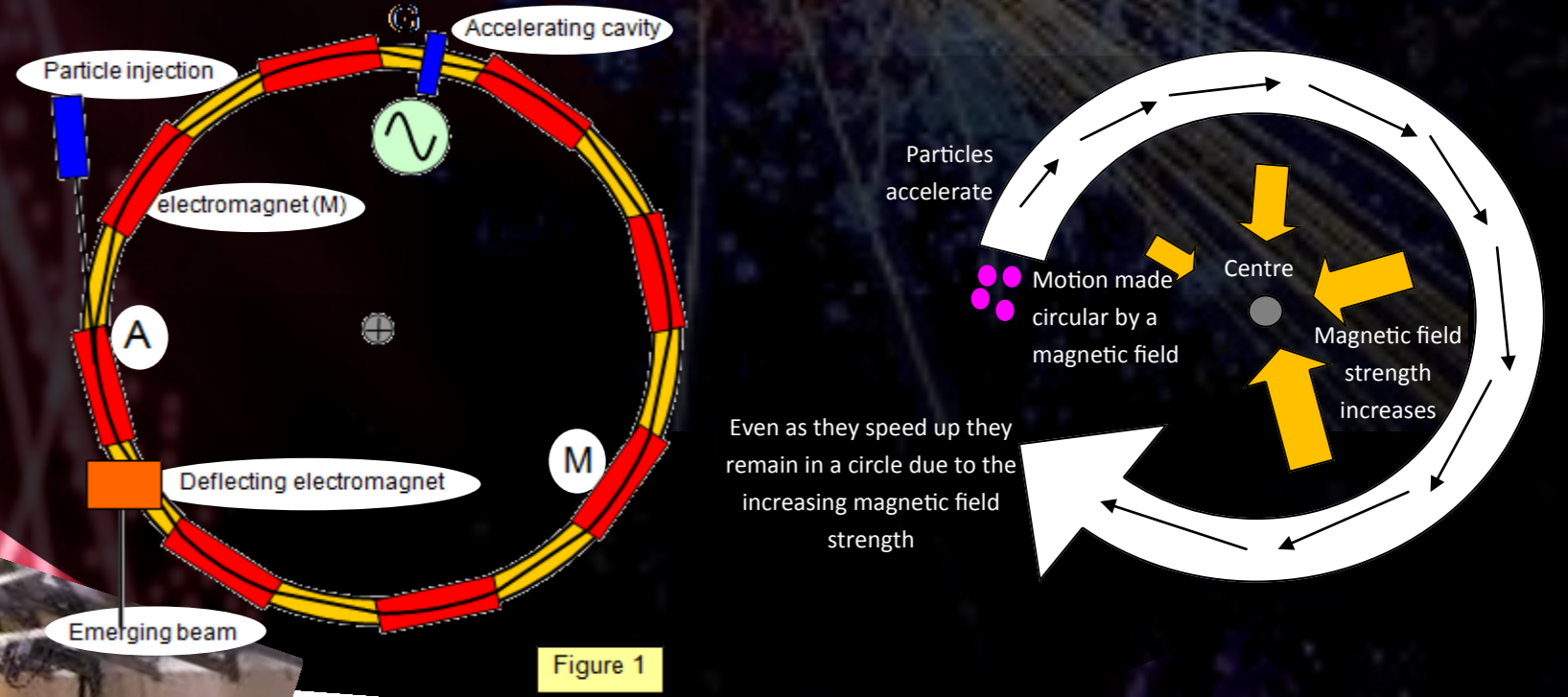
The Synchrotron

- The problem with cyclotrons is Einstein's relativity. As a particle speeds up, its mass increases. This limits the energy of the particles in a cyclotron. The equation for this is:

$$m = \frac{m_0}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$$

- $m = \text{relativistic mass}$
- $m_0 = \text{rest mass}$
- $v = \text{velocity}$
- $c = \text{speed of light in a vacuum} \approx 3 \times 10^8 \text{ms}^{-1}$

- To get around this, the strength of the magnetic field that keeps the particles in a circle can be varied. As the particles go faster, the magnetic field strength (B) can be changed, so even as they change in mass the accelerator can work. This is a synchrotron.
- The magnetic field can be adjusted so precisely, that the particles no longer spiral, but instead are held within a large thin torus (ring doughnut shape).
- This allows much larger, cheaper and more powerful accelerators (such as the LHC at CERN) as you only need the edge of a circle, where the particles spiral from the centre.
- However the synchrotron is a closed circle so there is nowhere for a particle emitter, therefore the synchrotron cannot accelerate particles from rest, and instead needs a linac or cyclotron to fire particles into it.
- These are the most complex, but the largest and most powerful particle accelerators there are.



How a Synchrotron Works

4. Storage Ring
The booster ring feeds electrons into the storage ring, a many-sided donut-shaped tube. The tube is maintained under vacuum, as free as possible of air or other stray atoms that could deflect the electron beam. Computer-controlled magnets keep the beam absolutely true.

5. Focusing the Beam
Keeping the electron beam absolutely true is vital when the material you're studying is measured in billions of metres. This precise control is accomplished with computer-controlled quadrupole (four pole) and sextupole (six pole) magnets. Small adjustments with these magnets act to focus the electron beam.

1. Ready, Aim...
Synchrotron light starts with an electron gun. A heated element, or cathode, produces free electrons which are pulled through a hole in the end of the gun by a powerful electric stream about the width of a human hair.

2. Catch the Wave
The electron stream is fed into a linear accelerator, or linac. High energy microwaves and radio waves chop the electrons into bunches, or pulses. The electrons also pick up speed by 'catching' the microwaves and radio waves. When they exit the linac, the electrons are travelling at 99.999999 per cent of the speed of light and carry about 300 million electron

3. An Energy Boost
The linac feeds into the booster ring which uses magnetic fields to force the electrons to travel in a circle. Radio waves are used to add even more speed. The booster ring ramps up the energy in the electron stream to between 1.5 and 2.9 gigaelectron volts (GeV). This is enough energy to produce synchrotron light in the infrared to hard X-ray range.

Source: University of Saskatchewan / Paradigm Media Group Inc.