“Transverse Profiles”

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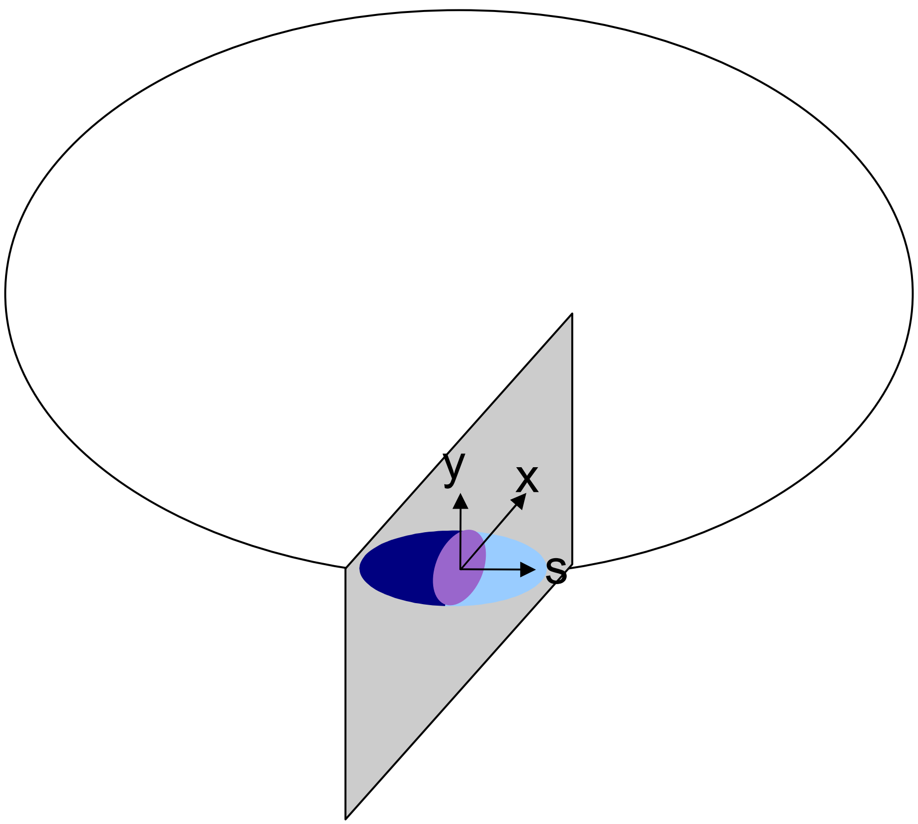
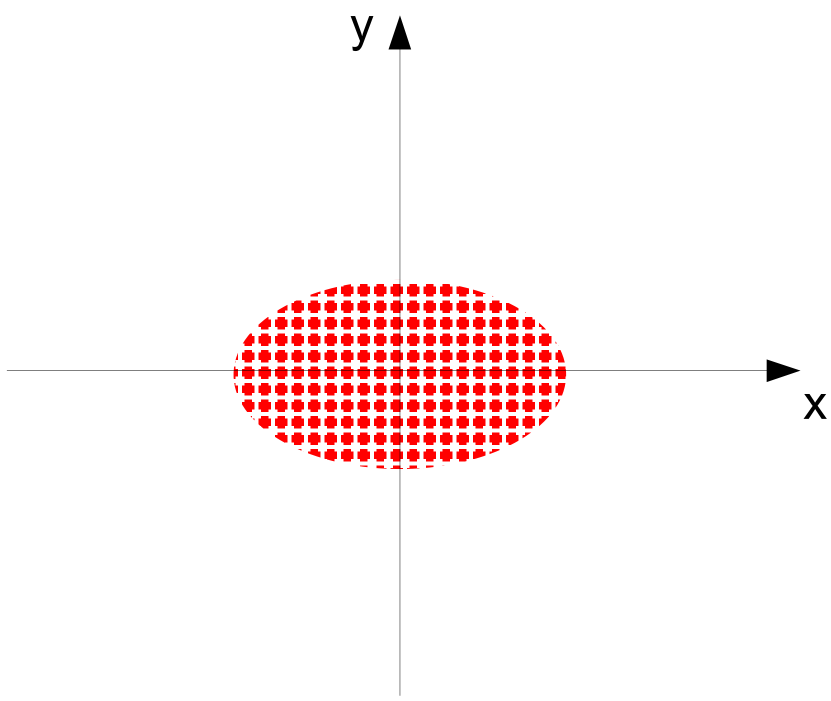
- Coordinate system
- Transverse space
- Transverse phase space
- Interaction of particles with matter
- Radiation emission by charged particles
- Sampling of distributions in 2D space

Coordinate System



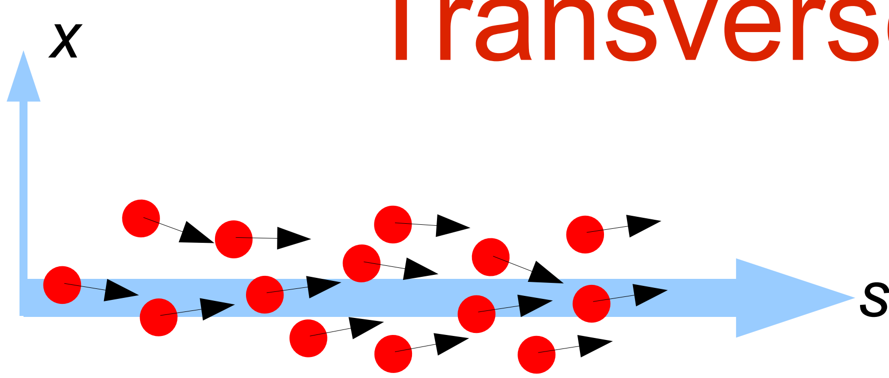
- Longitudinal coordinate
  - defined by the direction of motion of the beam
  - Axis indicated with *s*
- Transverse Plane
  - Plane orthogonal to the close orbit
  - Axes usually indicated with *x* and *y* and referred as *HORIZONTAL* and *VERTICAL*

Transverse *x,y* space

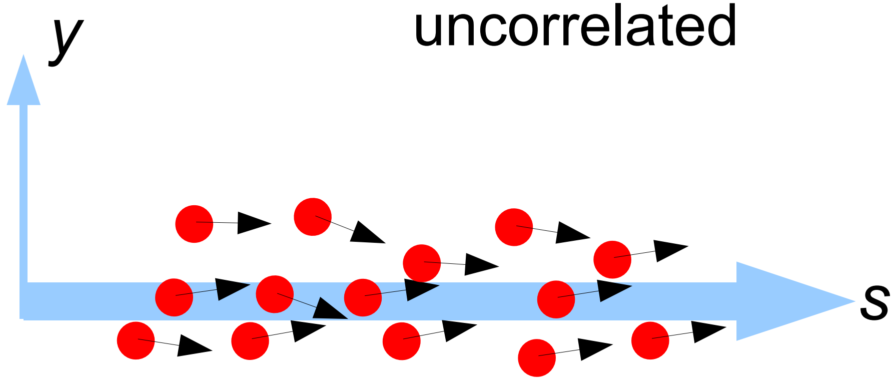


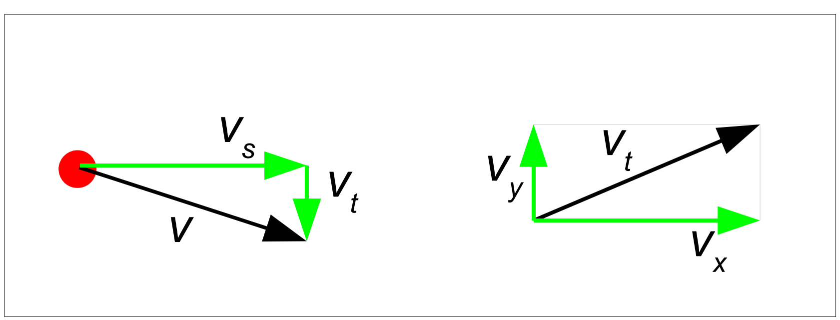
- Define a plane orthogonal to the beam trajectory at a given *s*
- Record the *x,y* coordinates of each particle crossing this plane
- Plot on a 2D chart (*x*, *y*) each particle

Transverse phase space



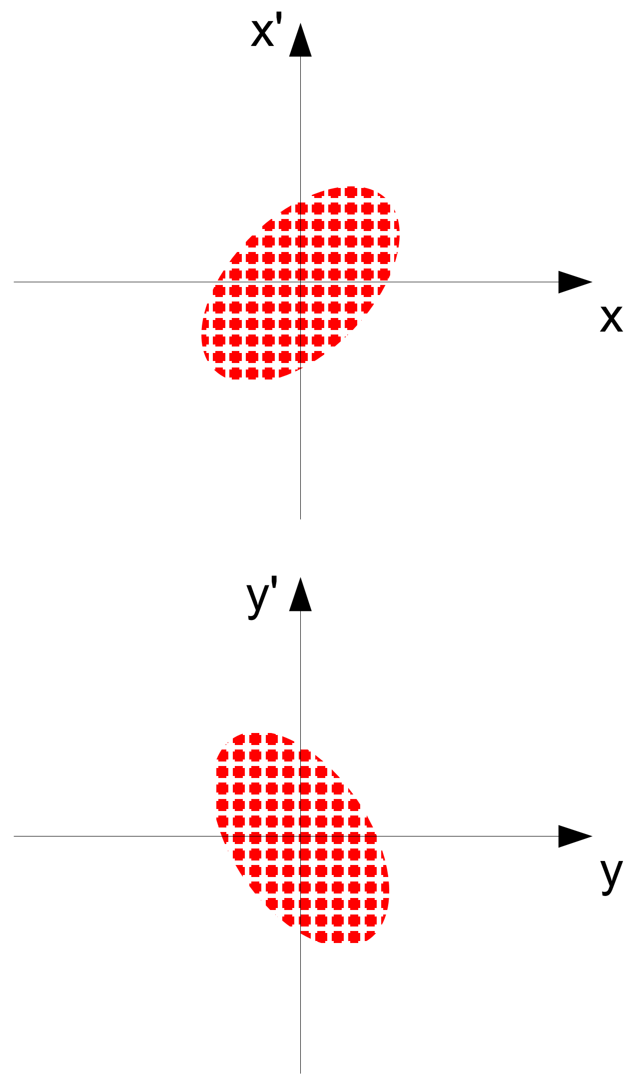
v_x, v_y and v_s are normally uncorrelated





- Beam moves along *s*
- Each particle moves in a different direction
- Velocity has 2 components
  - *Transverse* $v_t = v_x \hat{x} + v_y \hat{y}$
  - *Longitudinal* v_s
- Transverse components also called *x'* and *y'*

Transverse phase space (2)

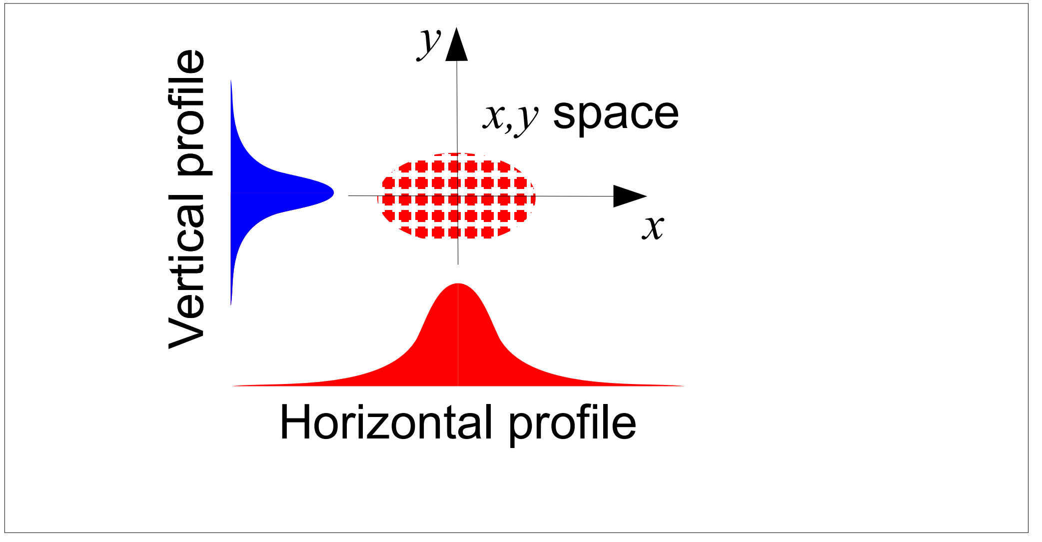


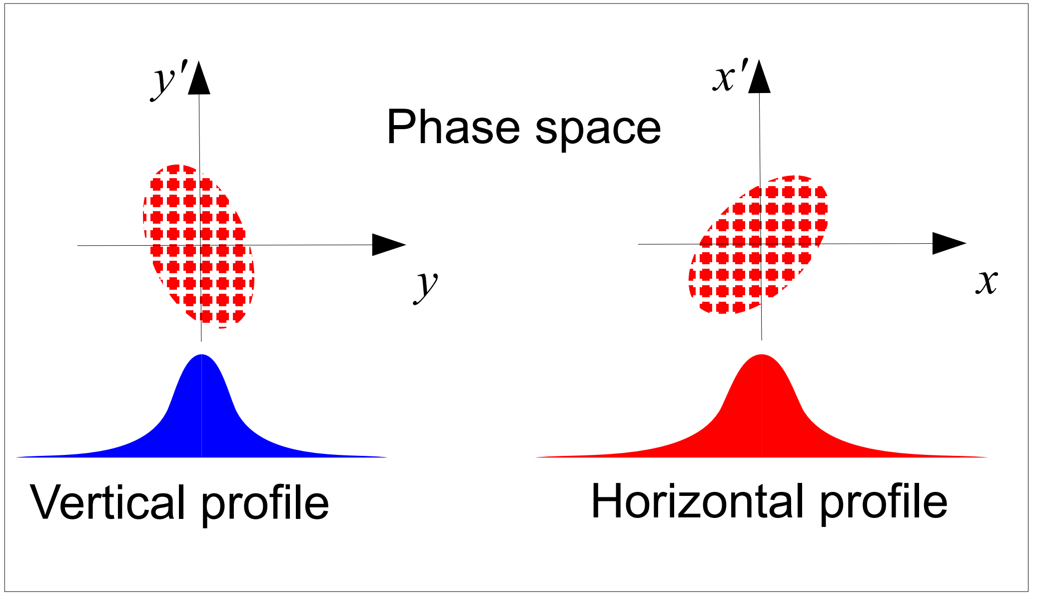
- Take the same plane as before
- Note x, v_x and y, v_y for each particle crossing the plane
- Plot on a 2D chart (x, v_x OR y, v_y) of each particle
- Rename $v_x \rightarrow x'$, $v_y \rightarrow y'$
- Area of the ellipse is an invariant and is called transverse emittance ε_x, ε_y

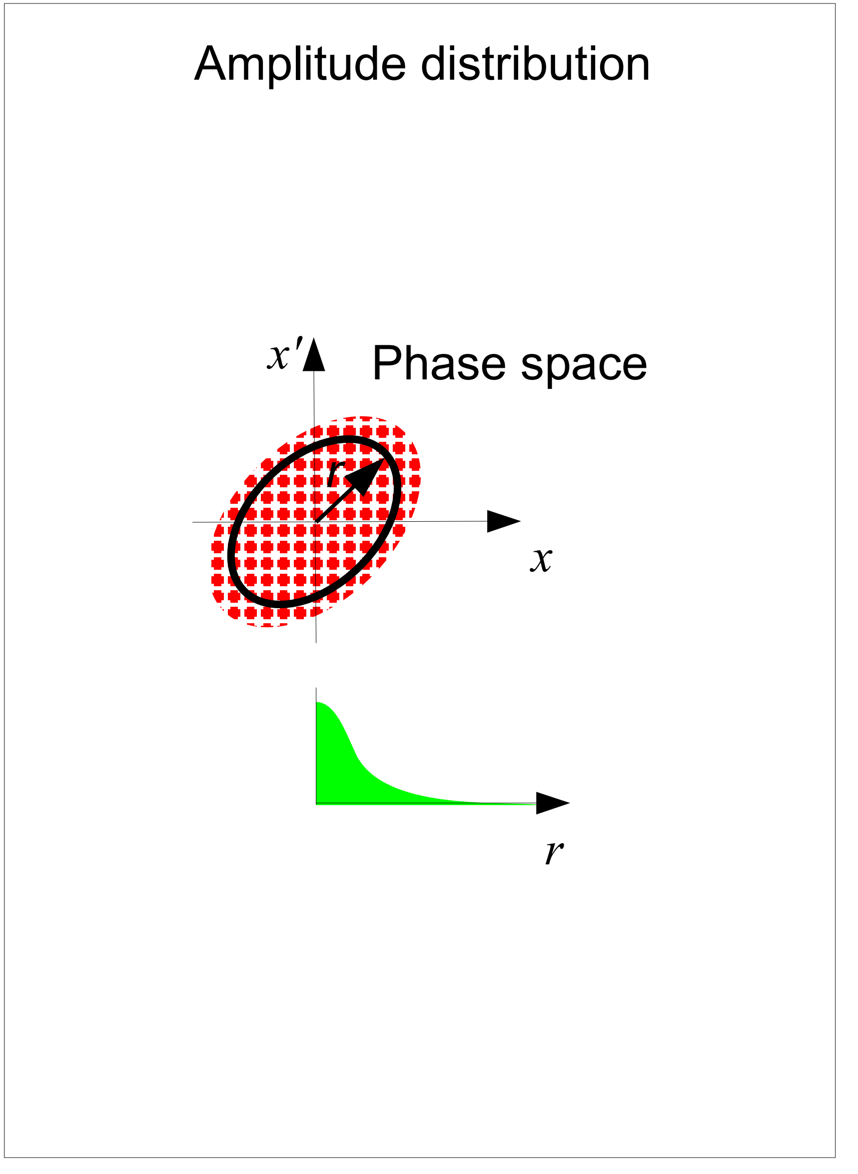
Transverse spaces

- The x,y space and the phase space are different things
- Their projections along x or y are however the same thing
- Phase spaces contain the information needed for beam dynamic calculations
- x,y space is easier to sample
- Perform measurement in x,y and use optics parameters and beam dynamic theories to calculate the phase space

Beam Profiles







Beam Profiles (2)

Particles distribution: $i(x,y)$

Profiles:

$$\begin{cases} Prof_H(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} i(x,y)\,dy \\ Prof_V(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} i(x,y)\,dx \end{cases}$$

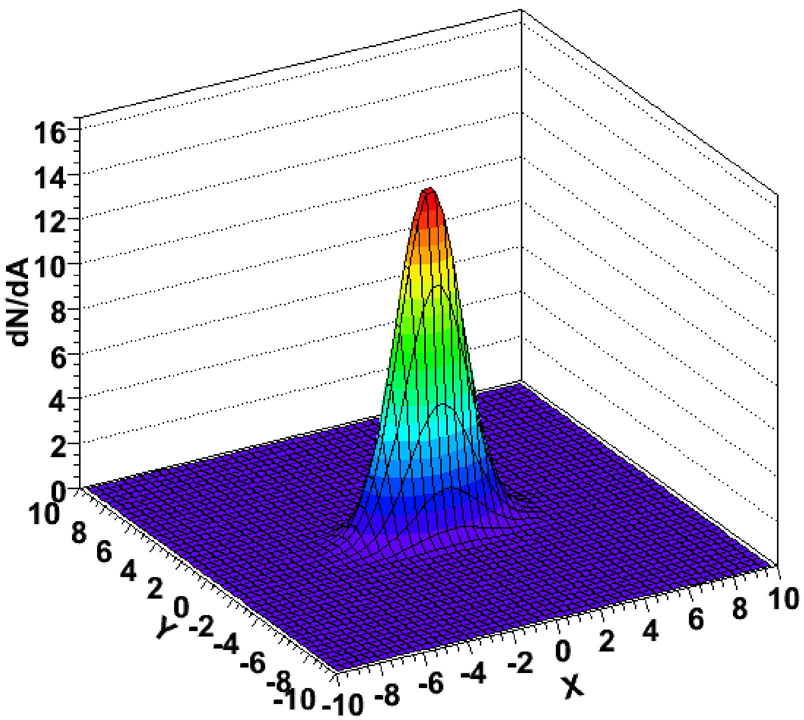
Typically *i(x,y)* is Gaussian:
N_0= total number of particles

$$i(x,y) = \frac{N_0}{2\pi\sigma_x\sigma_y} e^{-\left(\frac{x^2}{2\sigma_x^2}+\frac{y^2}{2\sigma_y^2}\right)}$$

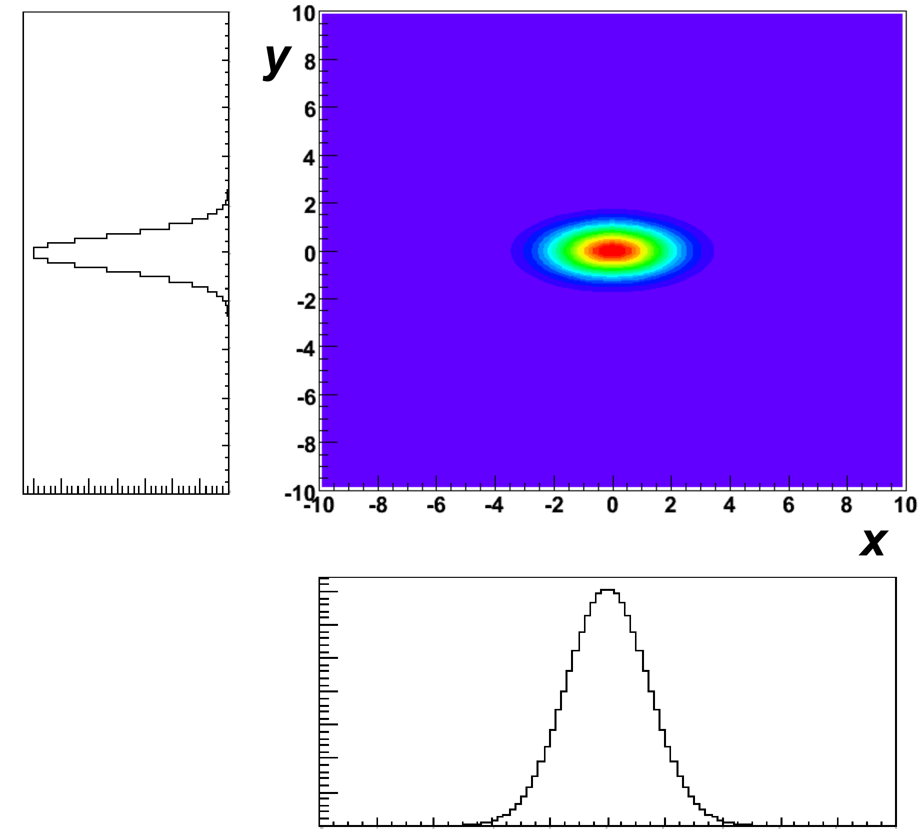
$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} Prof_H(x) = \frac{N_0}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_x} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma_x^2}} \\ Prof_V(y) = \frac{N_0}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_y} e^{-\frac{y^2}{2\sigma_y^2}} \end{cases}$$

Beam Profiles (3)

Particles Distribution



Profiles



Sampling of distributions

- Intercepting methods
  - Scanning wires
  - Wire grids (Harps)
  - Radiative screens
- Non intercepting methods
  - Synchrotron light
  - Rest gas ionization
  - (Inverse Compton scattering / photo dissociation)

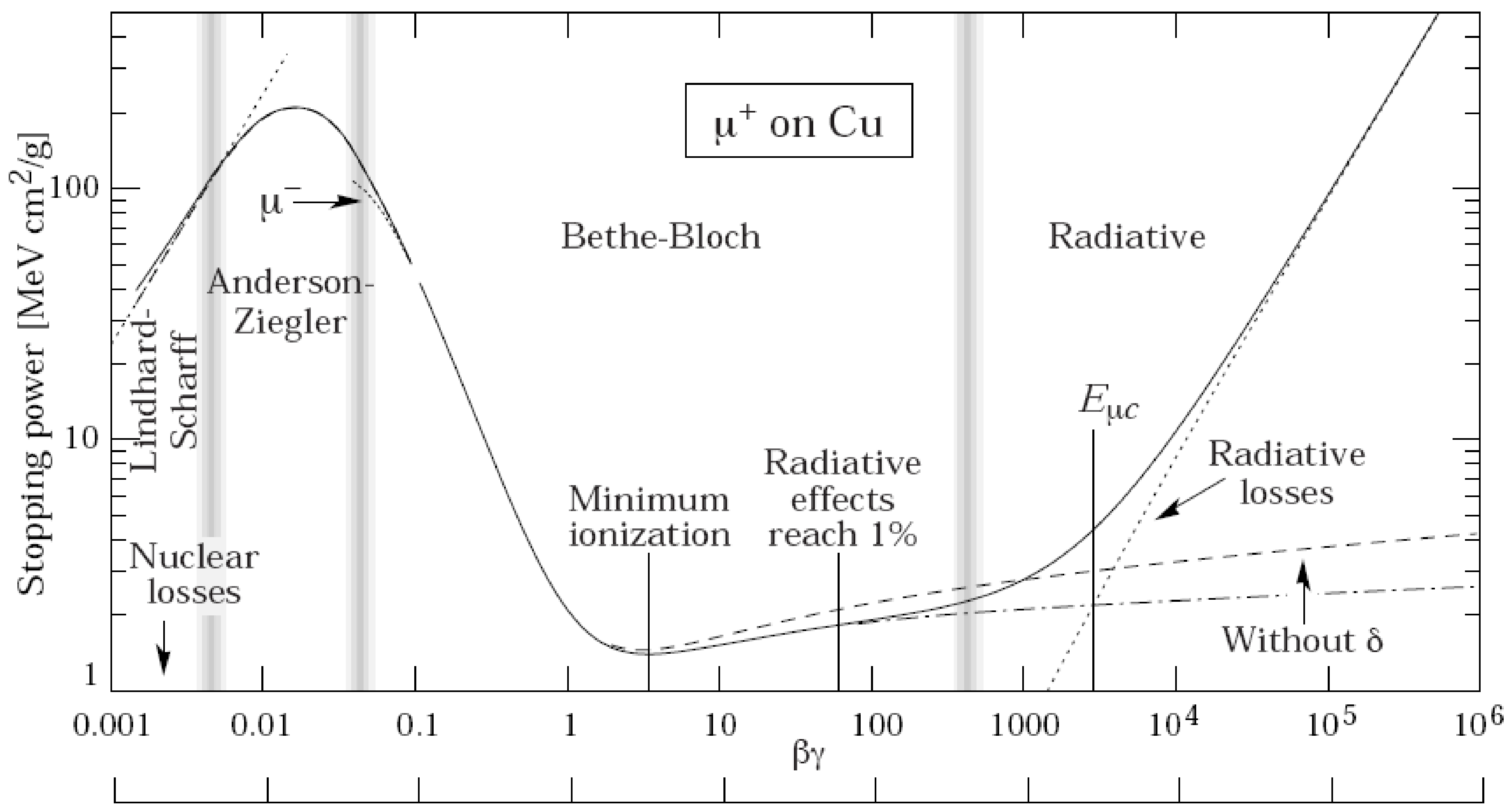
Interaction of particles with matter

- Ionization
  - Creation of electrons/ions pairs
    - Secondary electrons emission (low energy electrons)
  - Emission of photons (decay of excited states)
- Elastic and inelastic scattering
  - Dislocations
  - Production of secondary particles (high energy particles)
- Čerenkov radiation
- Bremsstrahlung
- Optical transition radiation

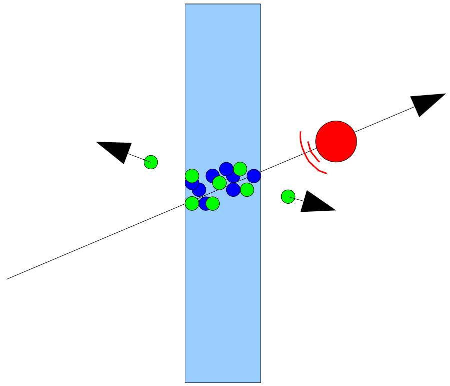
Energy deposition

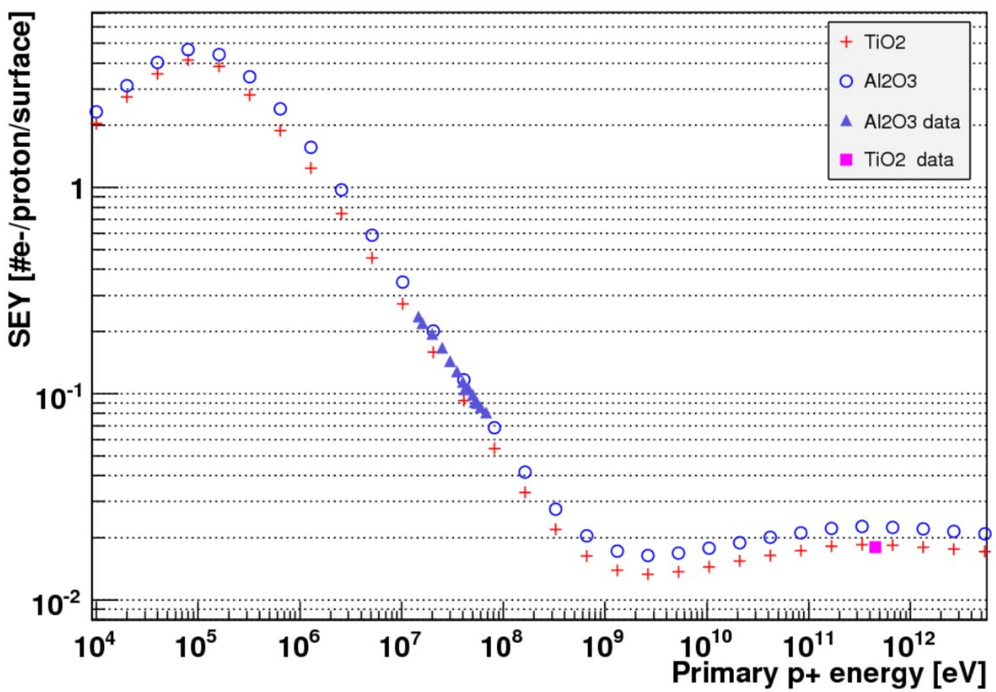
- Energy deposition is probably the most important aspect for all intercepting devices
  - Signals are often proportional to the deposited energy
  - Energy deposition can cause damage to the instrument
- The Bethe-Bloch formula describes energy losses in most cases
- The energy lost by the particles is not necessarily deposited in the sensor

Energy deposition - dE/dx



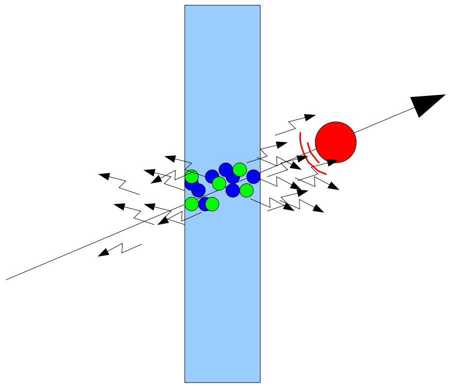
Secondary emission - SEM



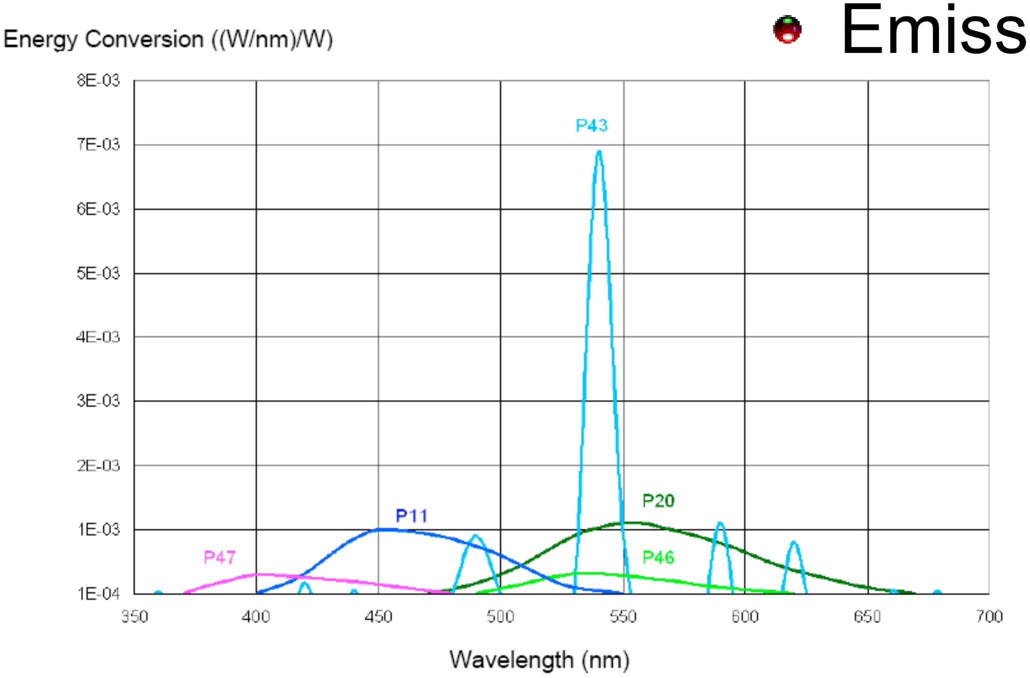


- Linked to ionization
- Surface electrons receive sufficient energy to travel to the surface and leave
- Emission yield depends on particles energy, material, surface state etc.

Scintillation



- Linked to ionization
- Photons are emitted by the de-excitation of atomic states populated by the passage of the particle
- Emission time *ns* to *hours*



Type	Composition	Decay Time	
		Decay of Light Intensity	
		from 90 % to 10 % in	from 10 % to 1 % in
P 43	Gd_2O_2S:Tb	1 ms	1,6 ms
P 46	$Y_3Al_5O_{12}$:Ce	300 ns	90 µs
P 47	Y_2SiO_5:Ce,Tb	100 ns	2,9 µs
P 20	(Zn,Cd)S:Ag	4 ms	55 ms
P 11	ZnS:Ag	3 ms	37 ms

1*MeV* e^- on *5µm* P43 yields ~ *60 ph.*

Scintillation (2)

- Phosphors have very high light yields, but can only be used as thin coating on a rigid support and get damaged very quickly
- Normally used only for very low intensity beams
- Ceramics, glasses and crystals are a more popular choice in high energy accelerators
- Al_2O_3 (Alumina, Aluminium Oxide) is a very common choice (eventually doped with Cr) because it is a very robust ceramic

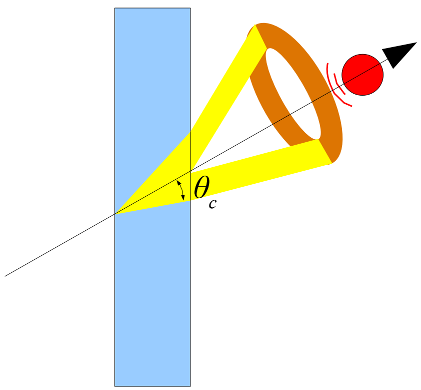
Čerenkov radiation

Index of refraction

$$n = n(\omega)$$

Velocity of particle

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



Čerenkov angle

$$\cos\theta_c = \frac{1}{n(\omega)\beta}$$

Velocity Threshold

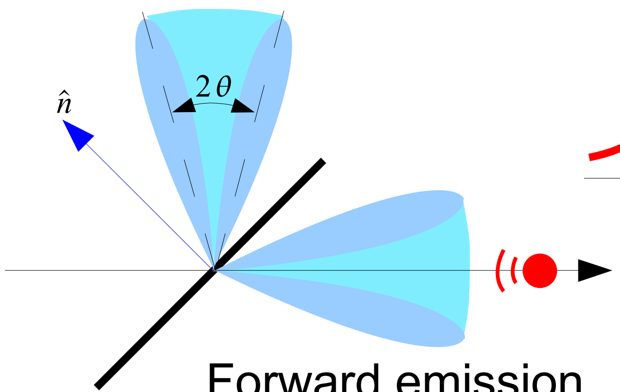
$$\beta_t = \frac{1}{n(\omega)}$$

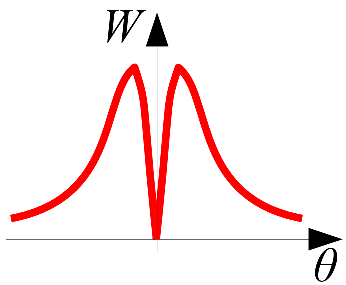
- Linked to the polarization of the atoms in the material
- Threshold effect: particle travels faster than phase velocity of light in material
- Radiation has defined angular distribution
- Not very good resolution in imaging

$$\frac{d^2N}{dx\,d\omega} = \frac{\alpha z^2}{c}\sin^2\theta_c(\omega) = \frac{\alpha z^2}{c}\left(1 - \frac{1}{\beta^2 n^2(\omega)}\right)$$

For $\theta_c = 45^o$ (quartz at $\beta \approx 1$), $\lambda \in [400,500] nm$ and $\delta x = 1mm$ -> $N \sim 10$ photons

Optical Transition Radiation (OTR)





- Radiation is emitted when a charged particle crosses the boundary of different dielectric properties
- Radiation has defined angular distribution
- Radiation is radially polarized
- Thickness of radiator not important

$$\frac{d^2 W}{d\Omega d\omega} \approx \frac{N q^2}{\pi^2 c} \left(\frac{\theta}{\gamma^{-2} + \theta^2} \right)^2$$

Maximum at $\theta = \frac{1}{\gamma}$

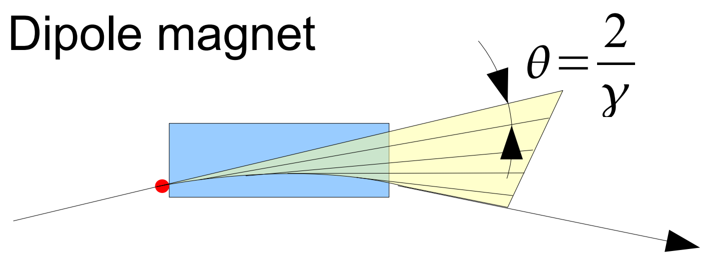
$$W \propto \begin{Bmatrix} \beta^2 & \beta \ll 1 \\ \ln(2\gamma) & \gamma \gg 1 \end{Bmatrix}$$

For *50* MeV electrons ~ *0.3* $ph./el.$

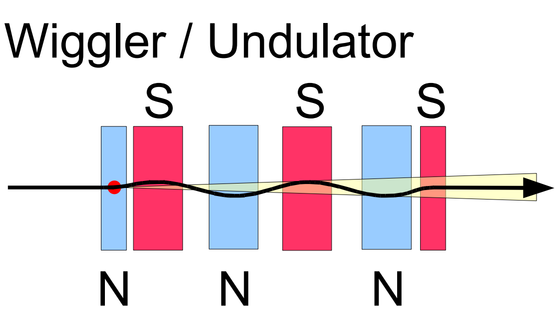
For *100* keV electrons ~ *0.001* $ph./el.$

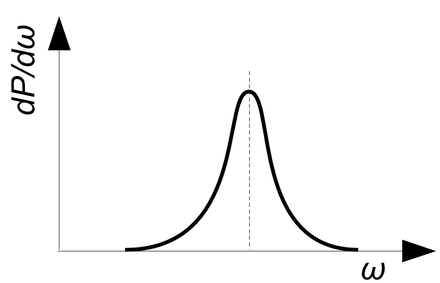
($\lambda \in$ [400, 600] nm)

Synchrotron radiation



$$P = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\frac{2}{3}\frac{c e^2 \gamma^4}{\rho^2}$$

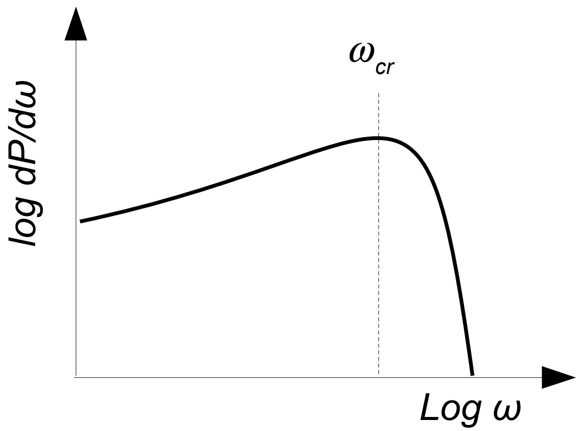




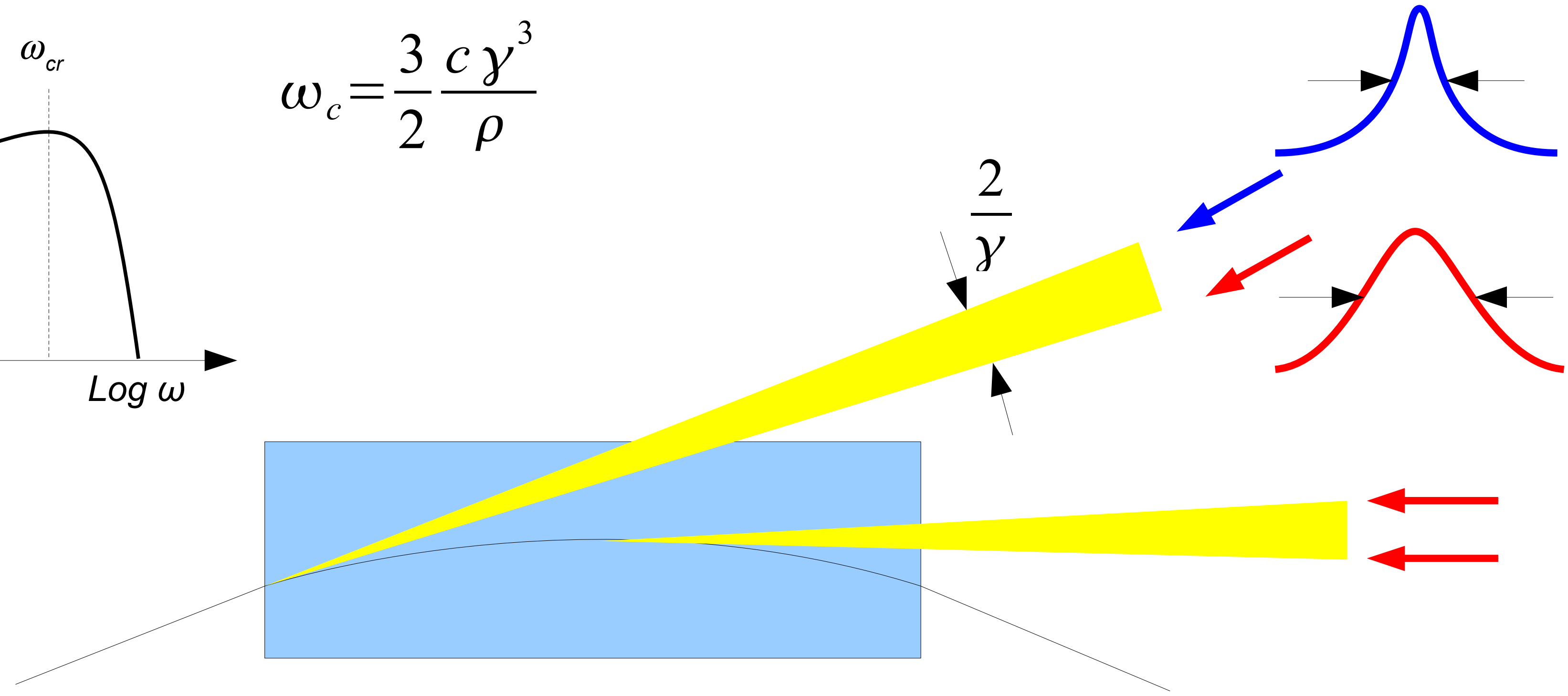
$$\lambda \propto \frac{\lambda_u}{2\gamma^2} \qquad W \propto B_0^2 \gamma^2$$

- Charged particles emit electromagnetic radiation when accelerated
  - Bremsstrahlung: reduction of velocity
  - Synchrotron radiation: change of direction
- Synch. rad. from dipole magnet emits in a fan
- Radiation from undulator has different properties

Synchrotron radiation (2)



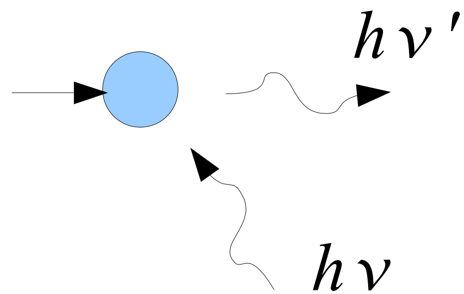
$$\omega_c = \frac{3}{2}\frac{c\gamma^3}{\rho}$$



The red observers will see a pulse which duration is equal to the time it takes to the particle to be deviated by an angle 2/γ and an emission spectrum as the one depicted above.

The blue observer being at the edge of the emission cone will see a shorter pulse. As a consequence the spectrum of the emission will be broadened and extend to higher frequencies (shorter wavelengths)

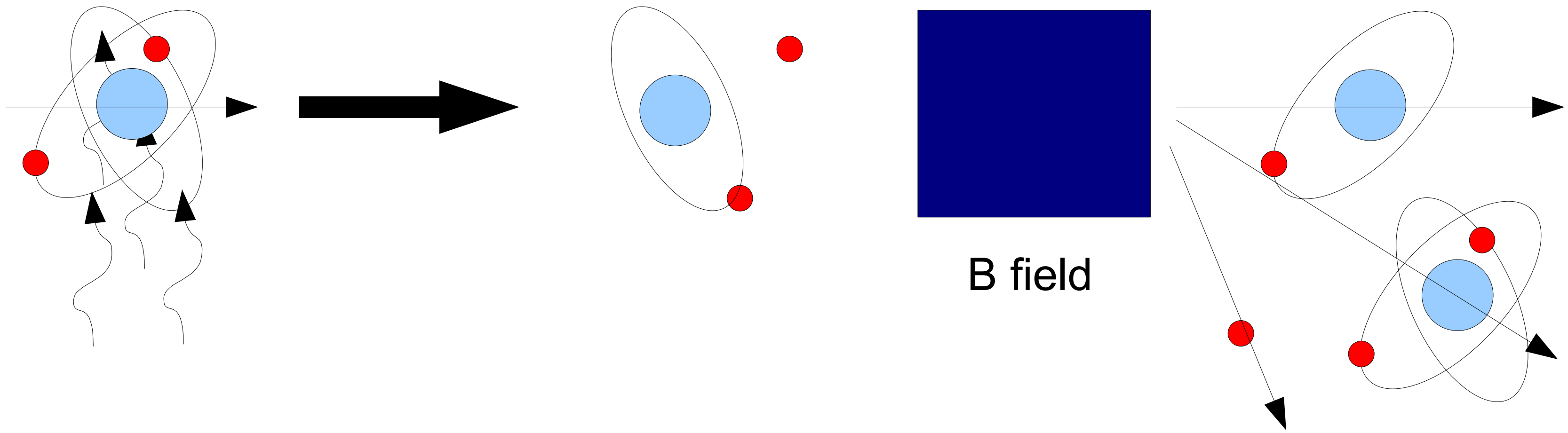
(Inverse) Compton scattering



$$\nu' = \gamma^2 \nu$$

- A low energy photon (few eV) interacts with a high energy charged lepton (e-, e+)
- The photon gets boosted and gains energy to the expense of the particles
- Cross section is small, but usable for leptons, it is however too small for hadrons (protons)

Photo dissociation (H^- beams)



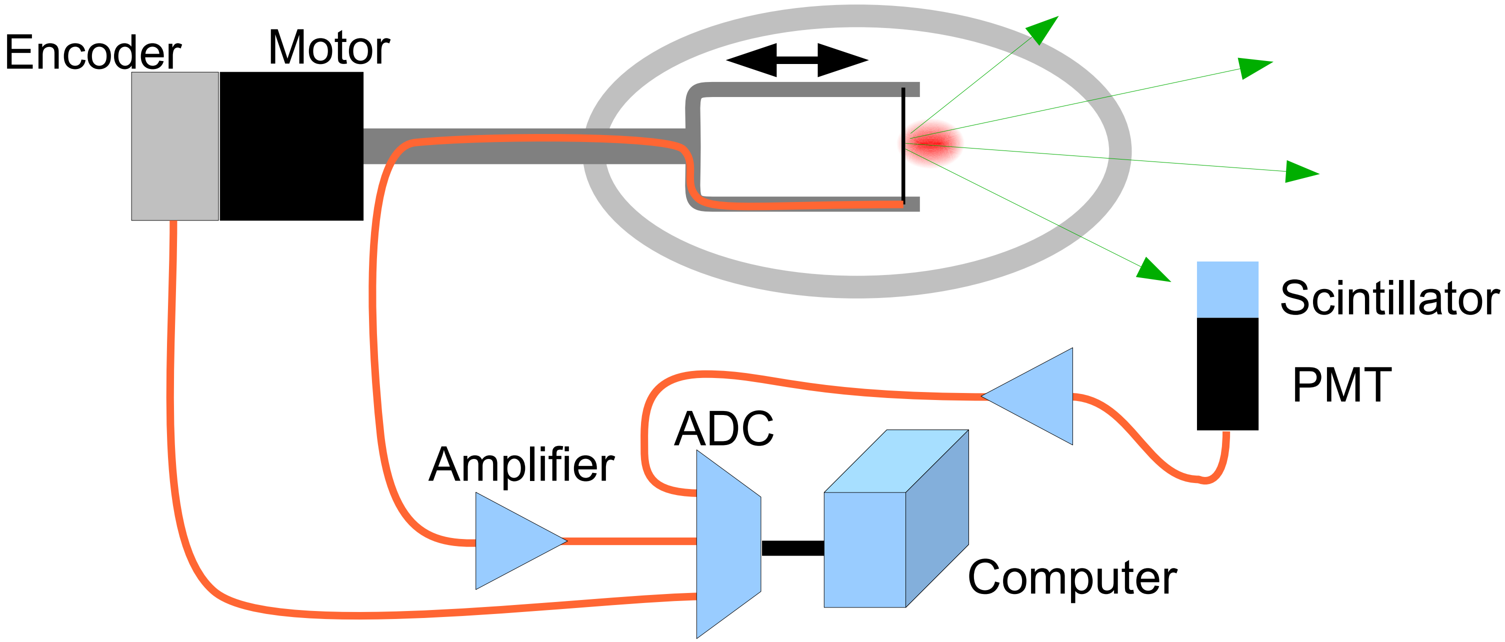
- Photons from a laser are used to separate one electron from the H^- ion. This can be facilitated by external electric or magnetic fields
- Some of the ions will lose the extra electron and become neutral H_0
- The different particles can be separated by a bending magnet

Sampling particle distributions

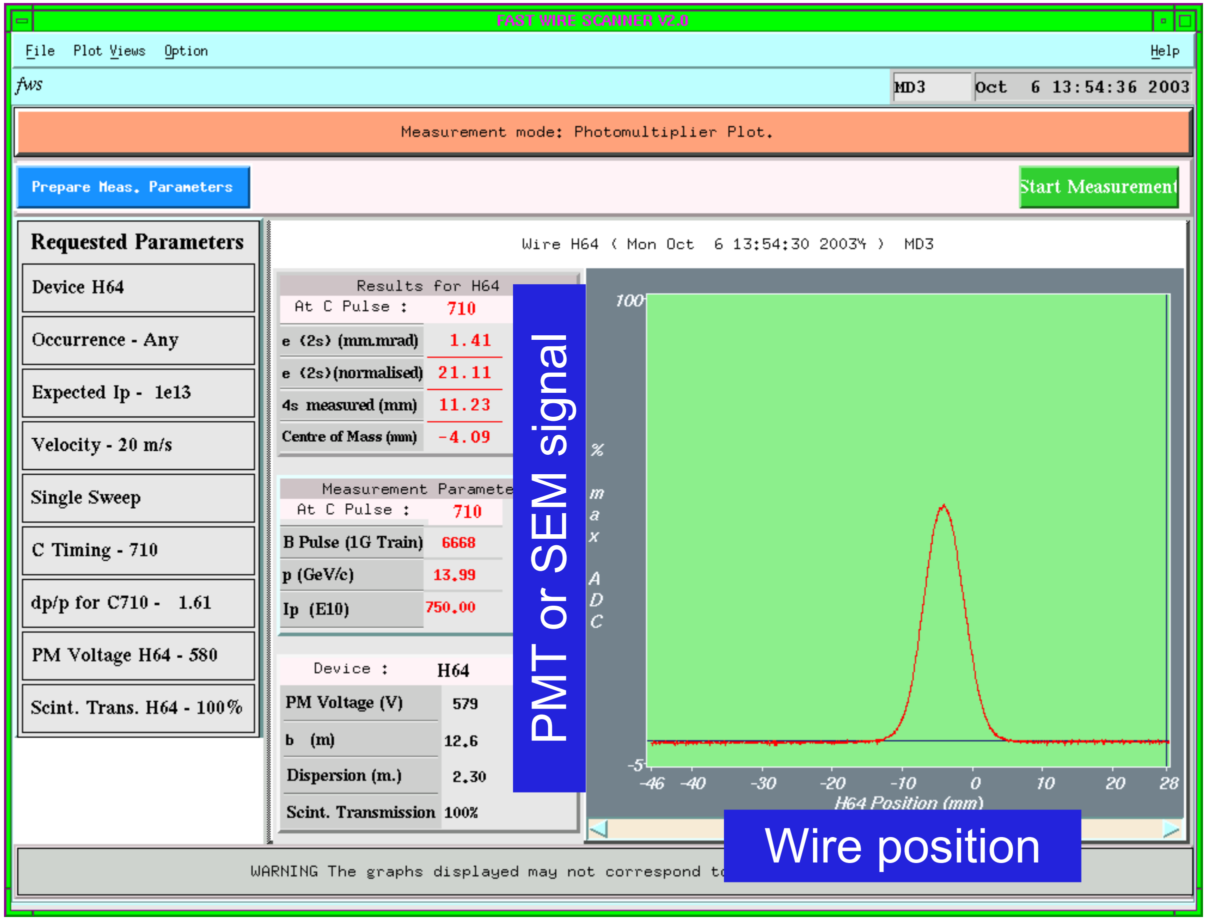
- One dimension sampling
  - Wire scanners
  - Wire grids
  - Rest gas ionization monitors
  - Laser Wire Scanner
- Two dimension sampling
  - Screens and radiators
  - Synchrotron radiation

Wire scanner

- Scans a thin wire or a needle across the beam
- Detects secondary emission current or high energy secondary particles (scintillator + PMT)



Wire scanner (2)

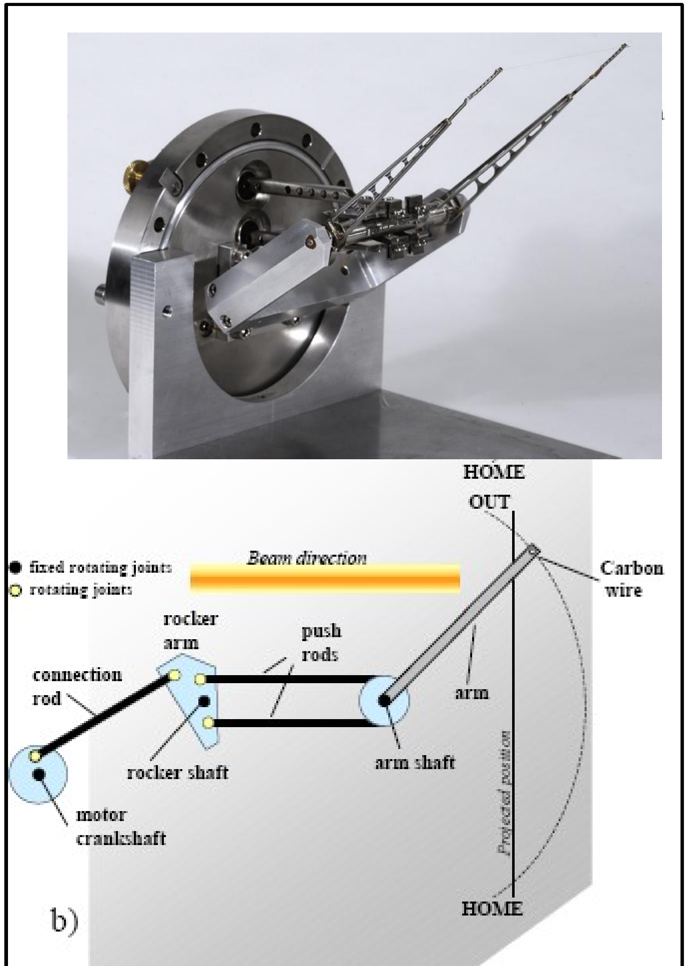


- The position of the wire is read by resolver or an encoder and sampled simultaneously with the signal
- On complex, fast mechanism the error on the position can be the largest contribution, need calibration

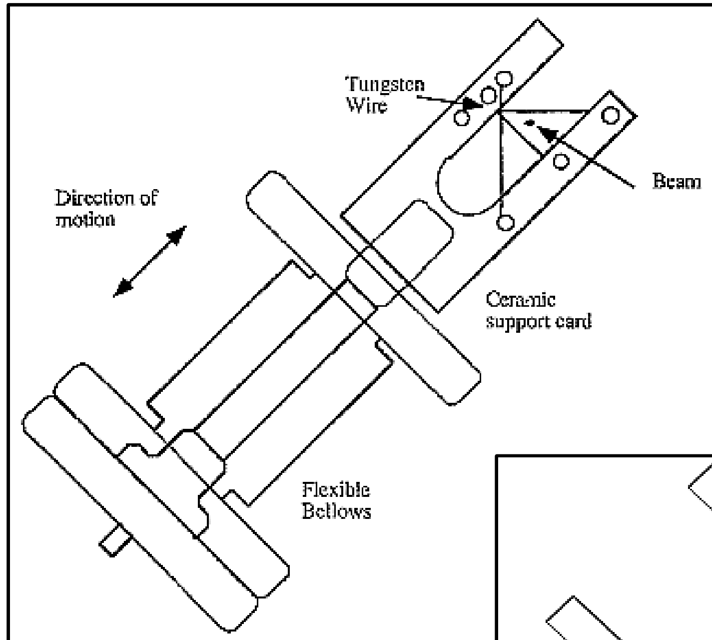
Wire scanner (3)

- Secondary emission
  - Good for low energy beams (no high energy secondary)
  - Small signal
  - If the wire becomes too hot it can start to emit thermionic electrons spoiling the measurement
- High energy secondary
  - No problem with wire heating (well...)
  - Strong signal
  - Detection may be non homogeneous leading to distorted profiles

Wire scanner (4)

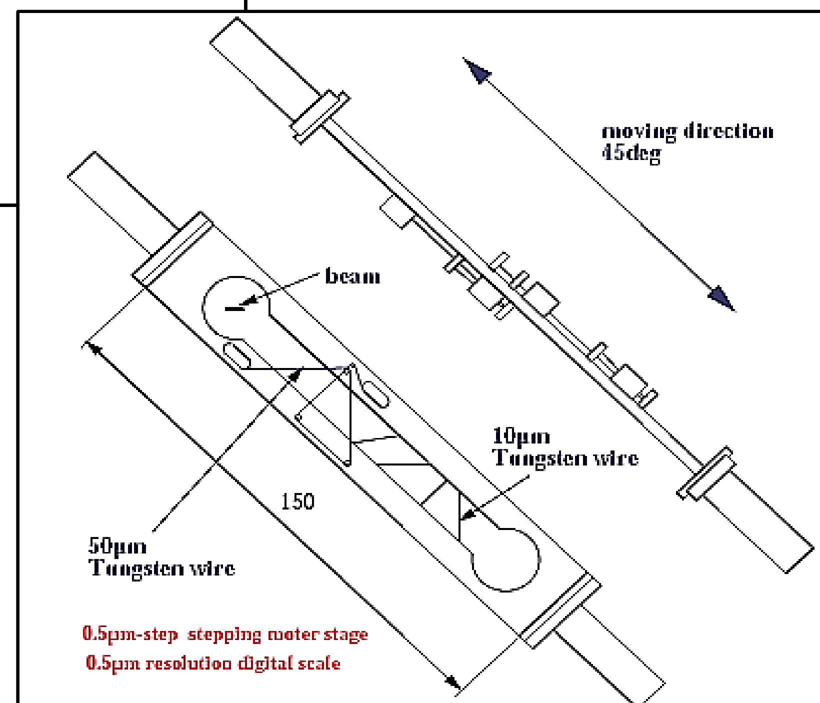


CERN "flying wires"

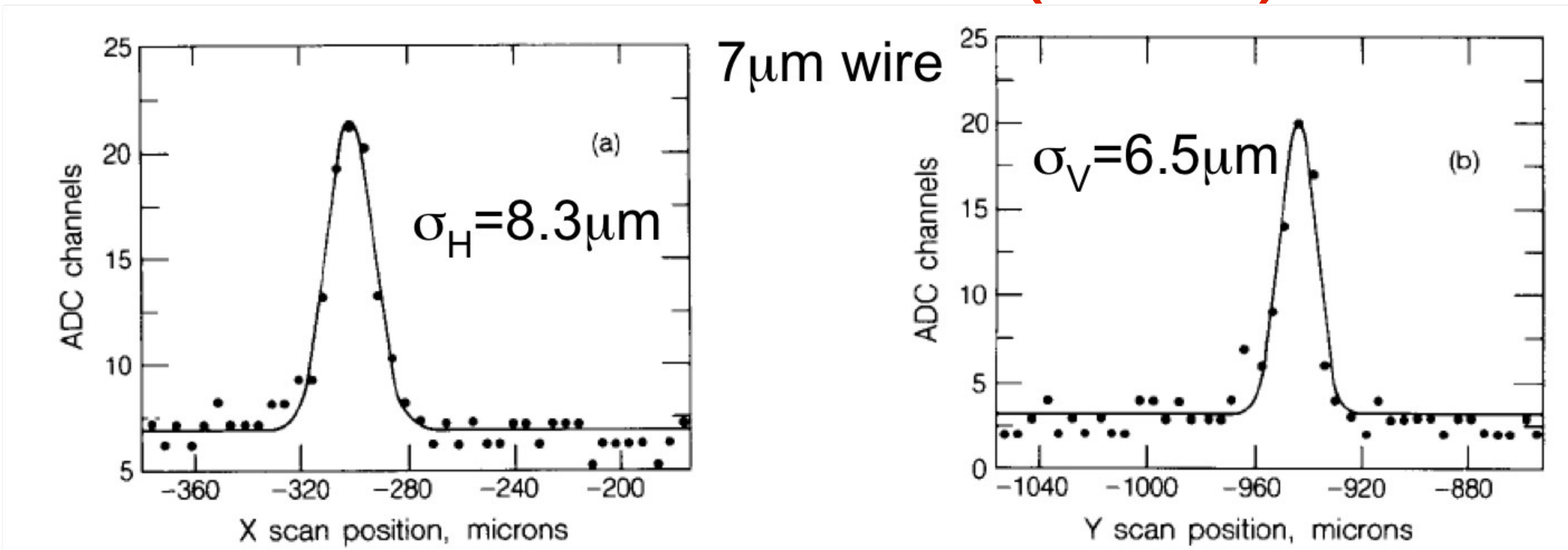


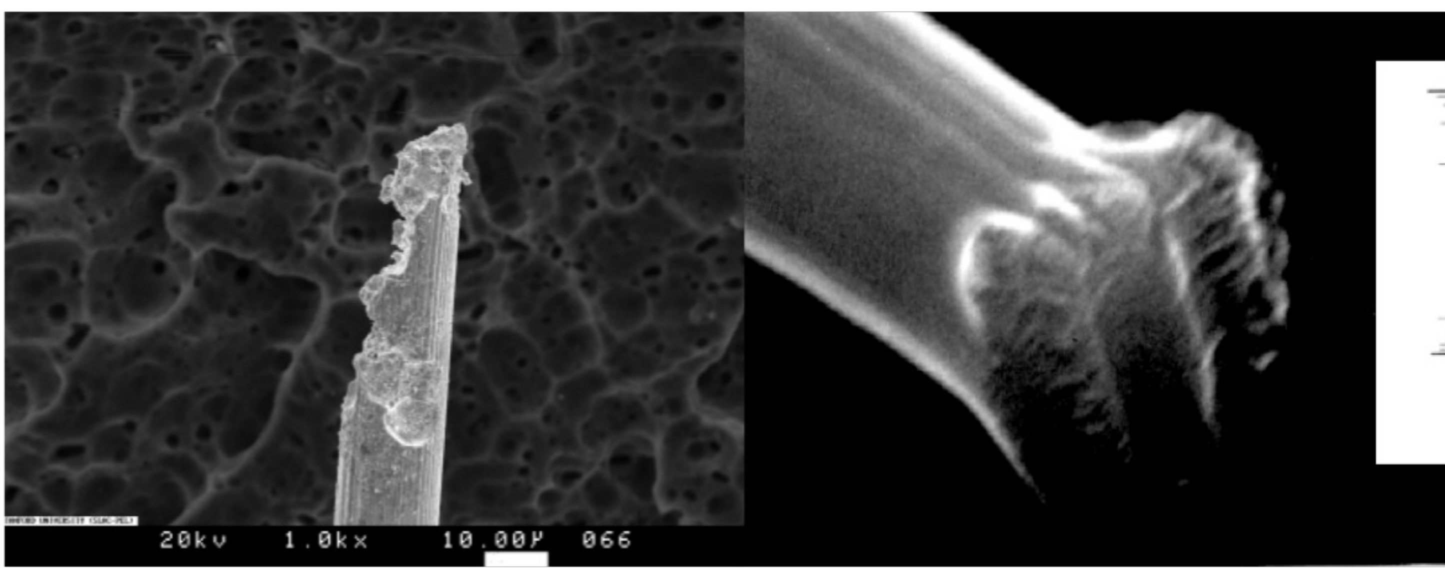
SLAC SLC high resolution 3 axis scanners

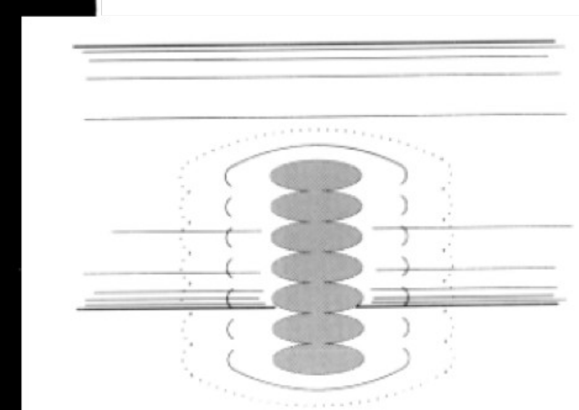
KEK ATF high resolution 3 axis scanners



Wire Scanner (SLC)





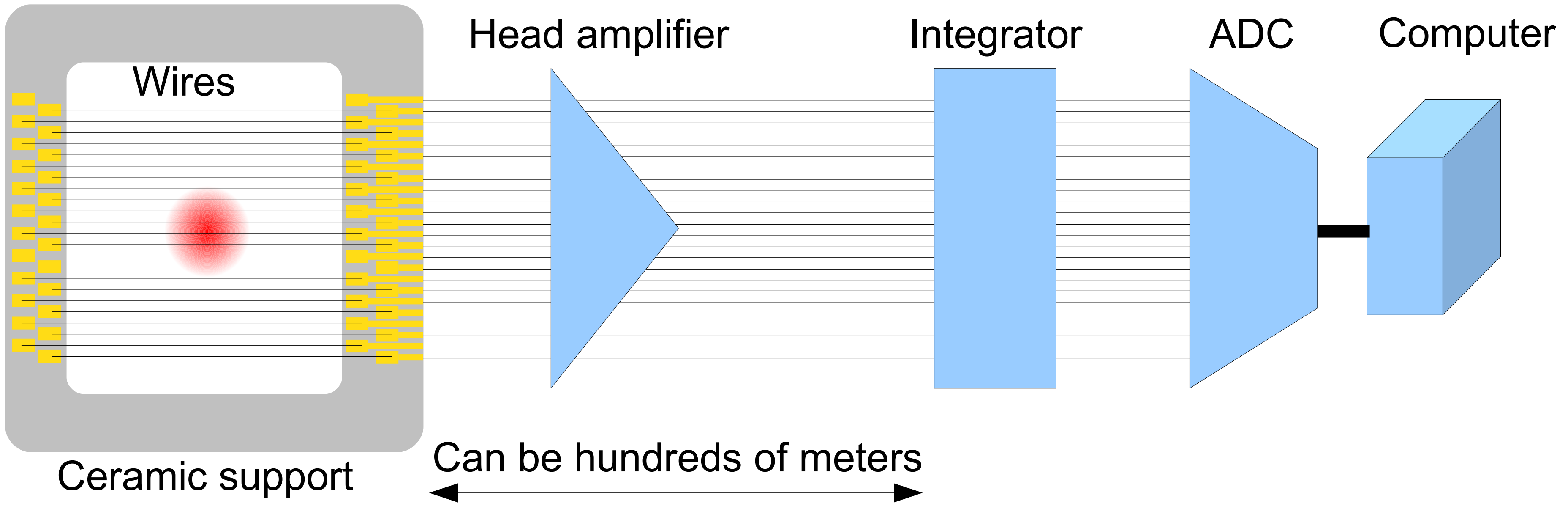


Wire scanner (5)

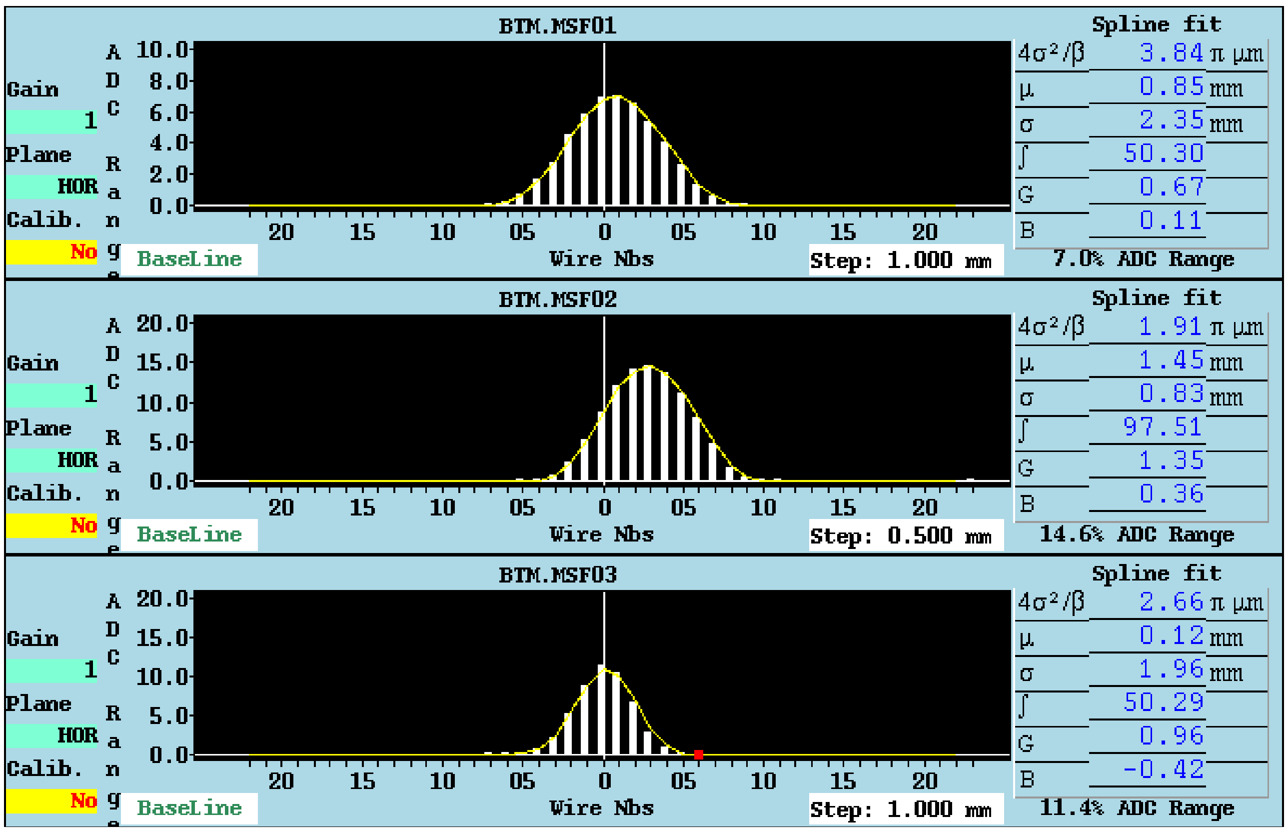
- Fast scanners
  - Present limit is around 20 m/s
  - Usually rotational mechanism
  - Acquire profile snapshots during acceleration without need of plateaus
  - Reduce wire heating (short scan time)
- Slow scanners
  - High wire position accuracy
  - Possibly thinner wires (low accelerations)
  - More reliable mechanisms
  - Long(er) measurement time
  - Tighter intensity limits

SEM Grids (Harps)

- The SEM current from each wire or strip is acquired independently
- Complex (=expensive) cabling/electronics
- Wire spacing down to a few hundreds microns

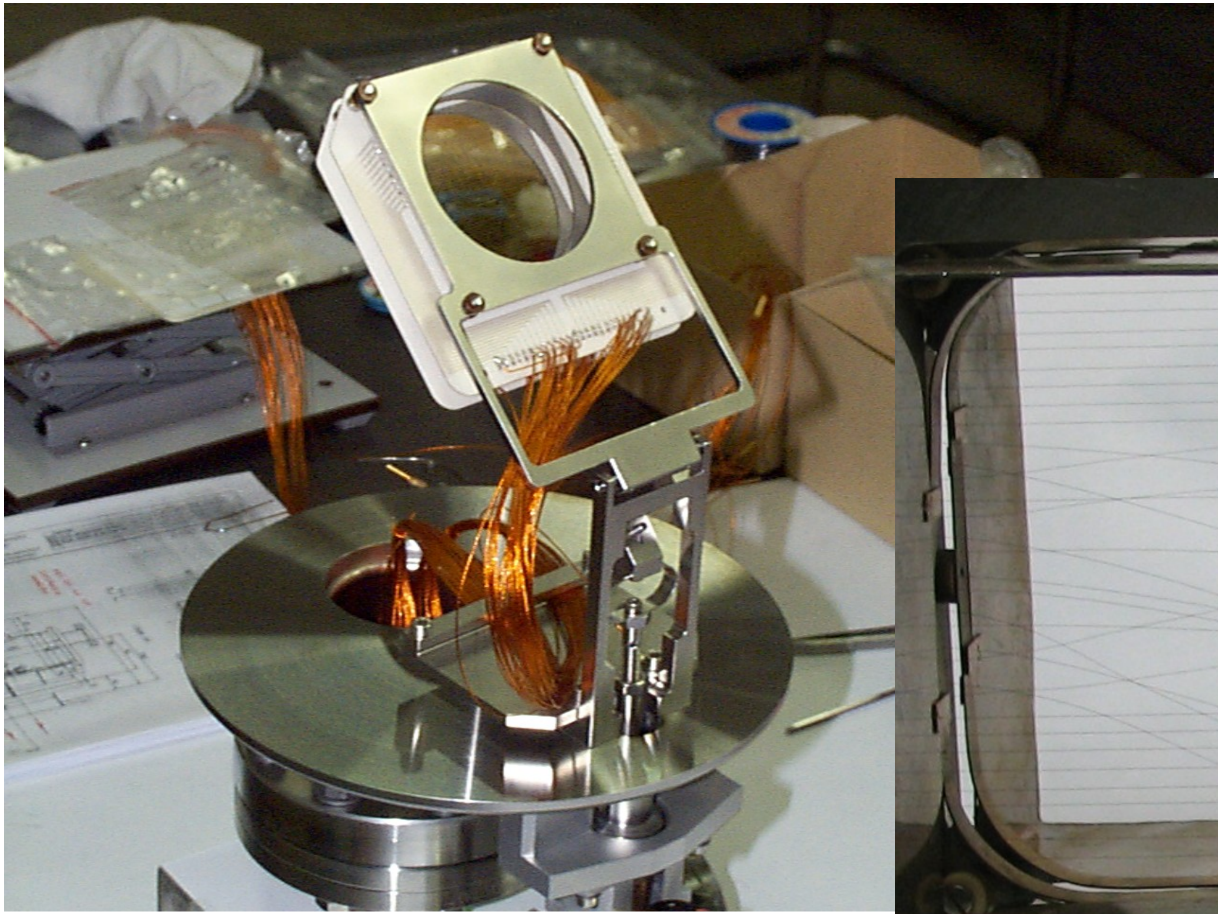


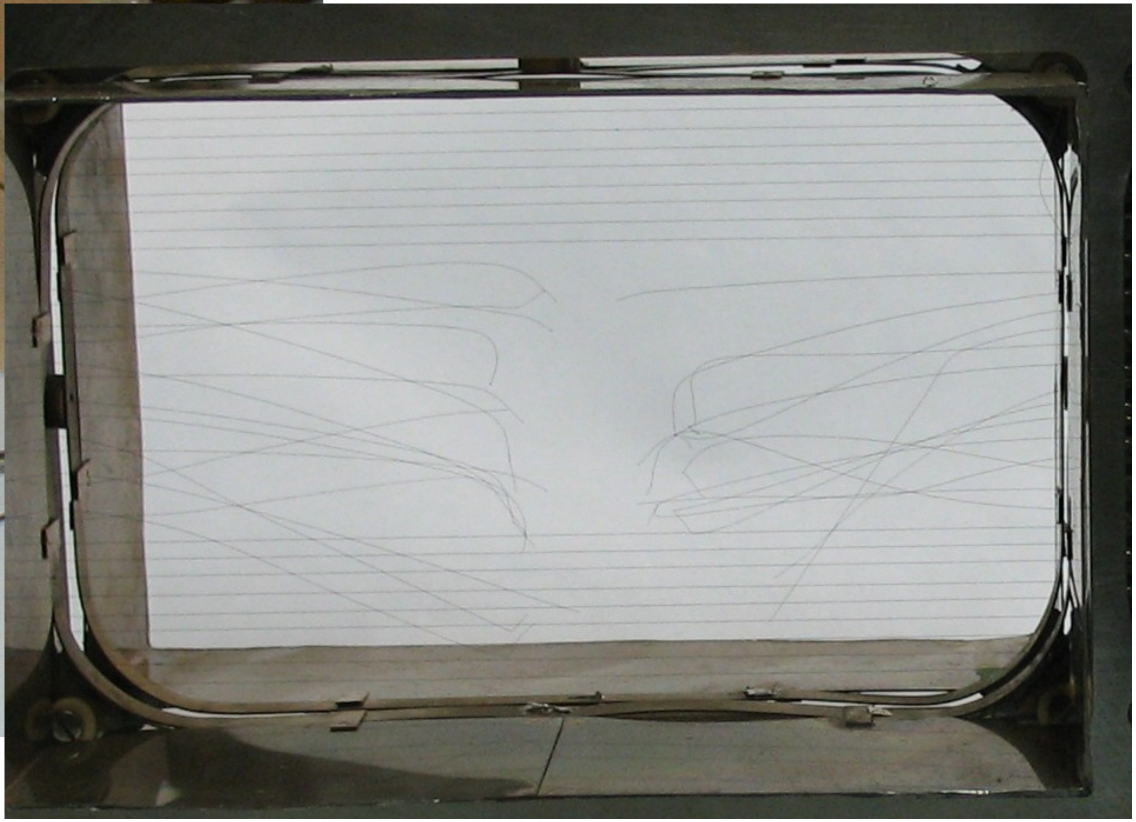
SEM Grids (2)



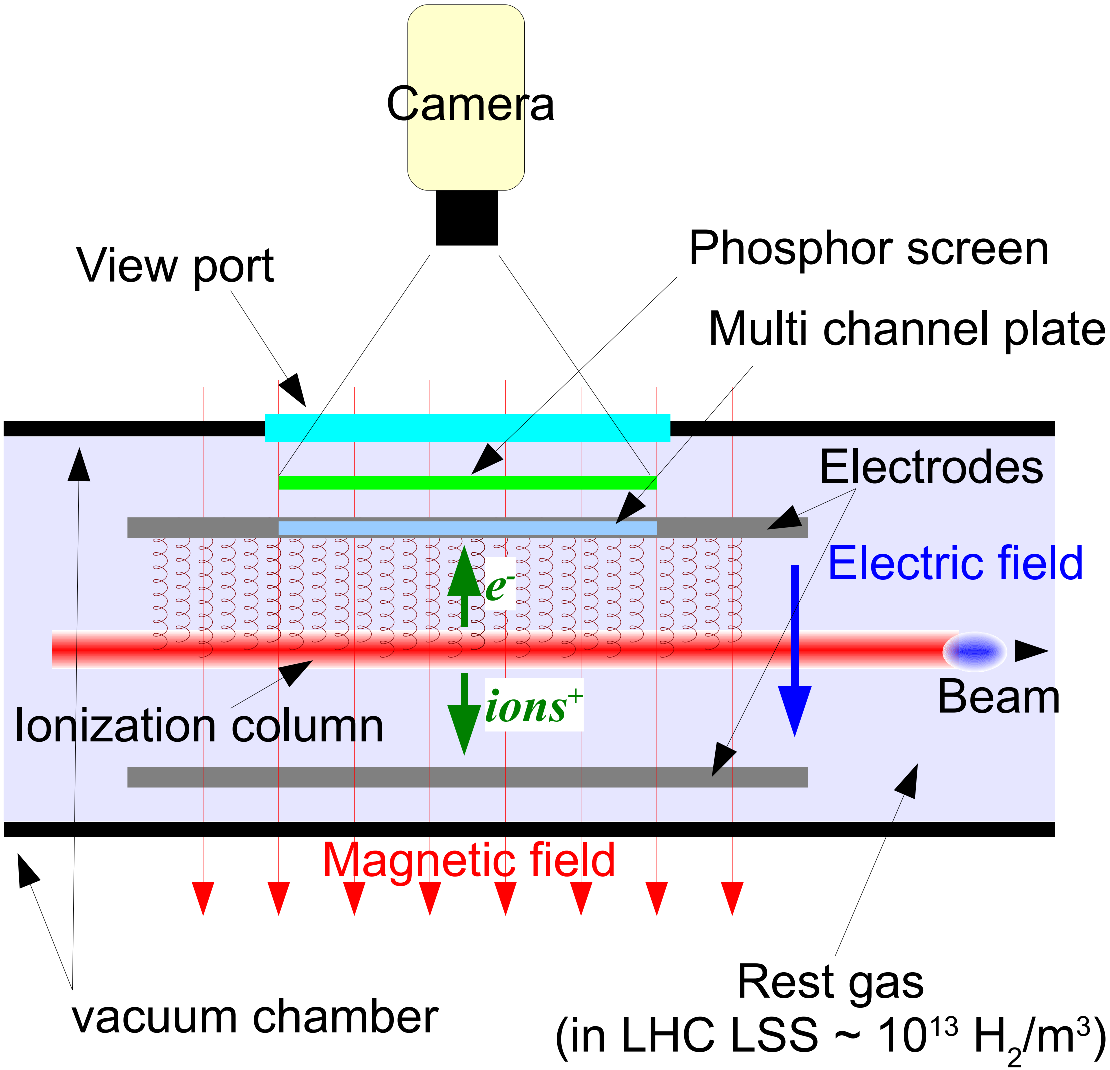
- Advantage of Grids is single shot measurement
- Time resolved measurement is possible (up to ~100 MHz)
- Damage to a single wire can make device unusable

SEM Grids (3)



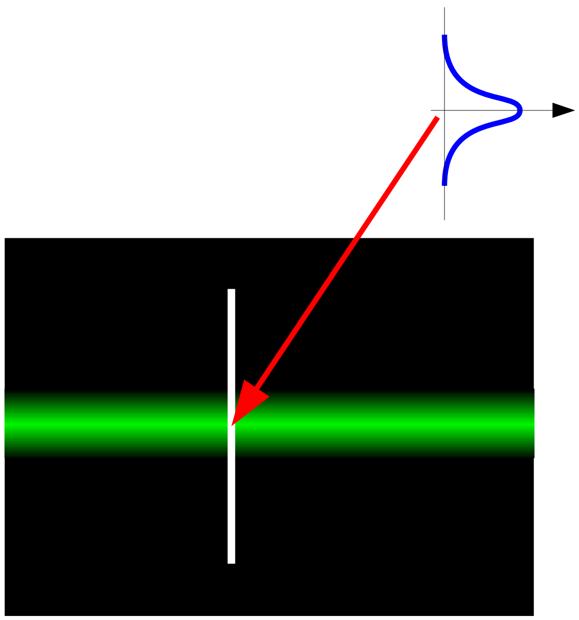


Ionization profile monitor



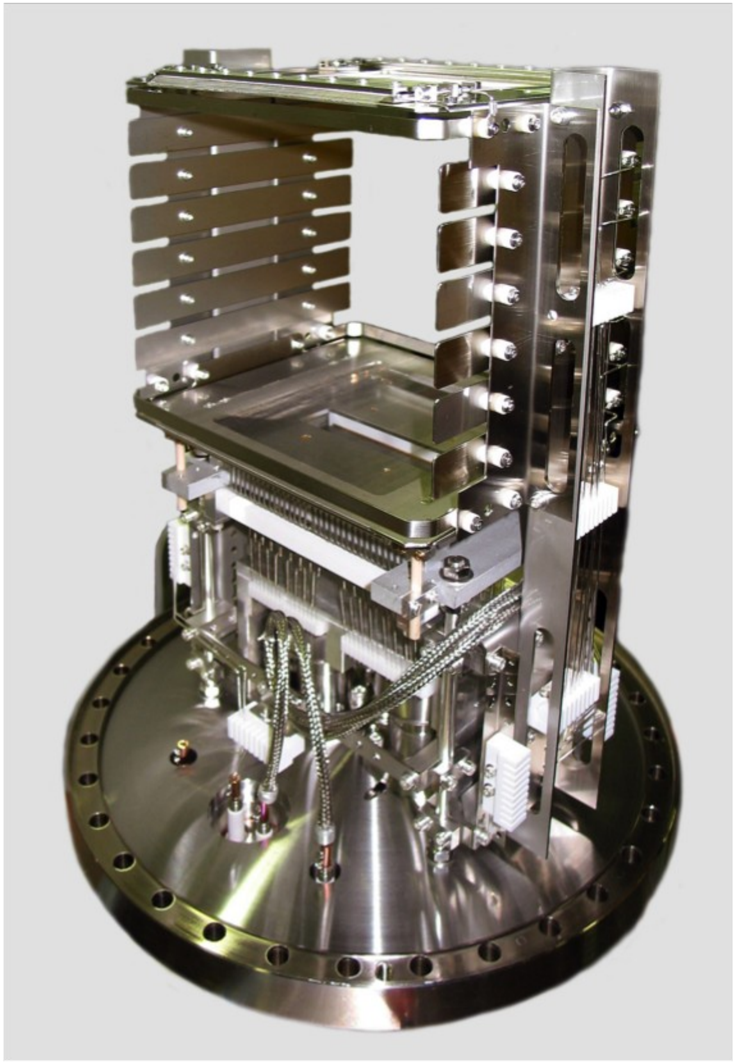
- Beam creates ionization column in rest gas
- Electric field drifts electrons toward detector
- Magnetic field guides the electron
- MCP+phosphor+CCD detects electrons
- If E is reversed ions can be detected instead of electrons (less need for B field)

Ionization profile monitor (2)

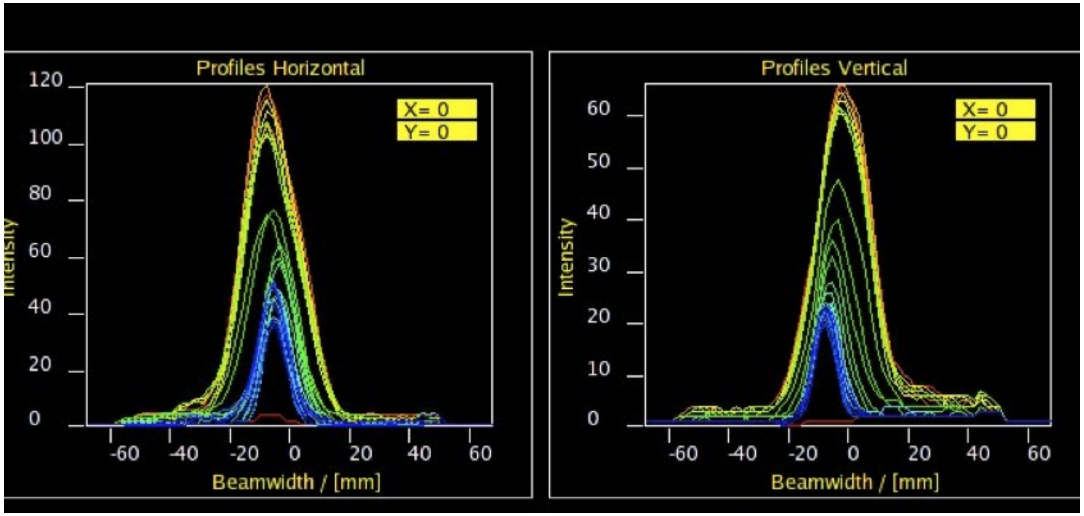


- Image shows a stripe
- Intensity profile of stripe proportional to beam profile
- Detector measures only one plane
- Transverse drift of electrons introduces broadening (need intense B field) and creates “tails”

IPM (GSI)

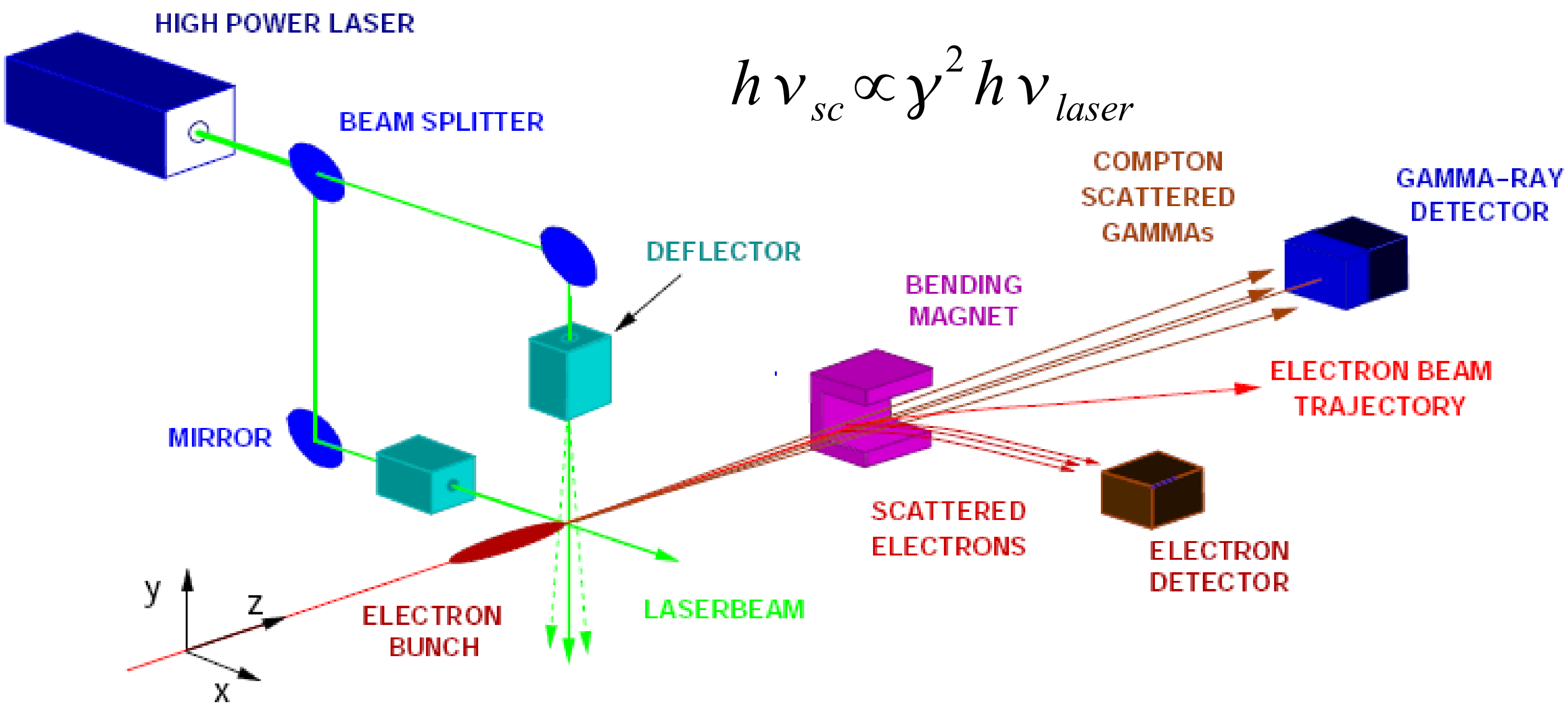


- IPMs allow the continuous monitoring of the transverse plane
- Needs a "minimum" of rest gas



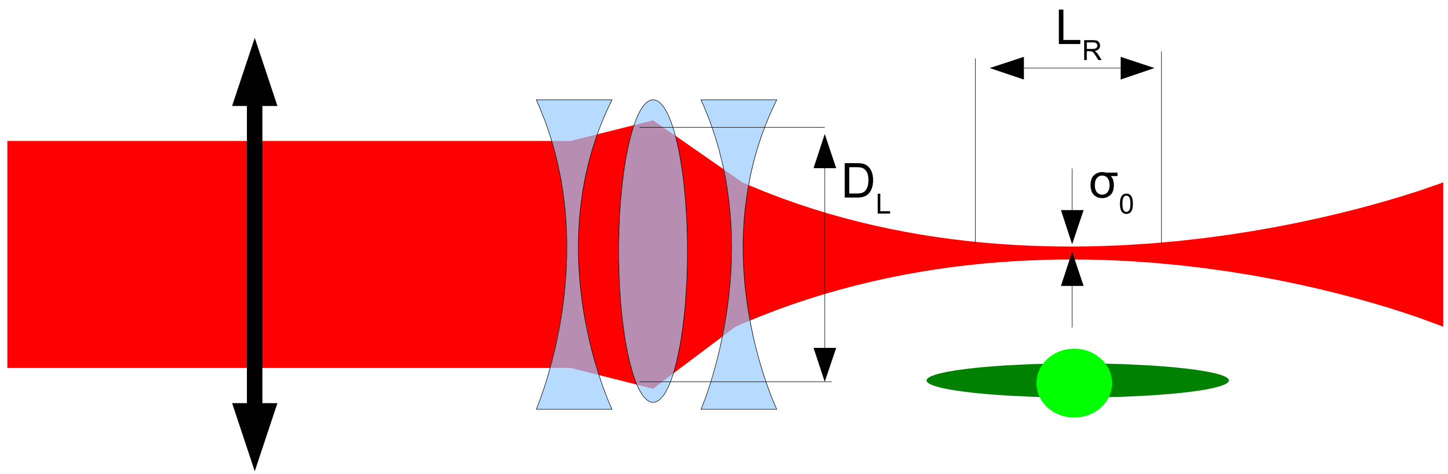
Laser Wire Scanner

- Collide a high power, focused, pulsed laser with an electron beam
- X-ray or γ-ray are produced by Inverse Compton Scattering
- Detect the x-ray / γ-ray or the degraded electrons downstream
- Can also be used on H^- beams exploiting the photo neutralization detecting either the neutral H atoms or the freed electrons



$$h\nu_{sc} \propto \gamma^2 h\nu_{laser}$$

Laser Wire Scanner (2)

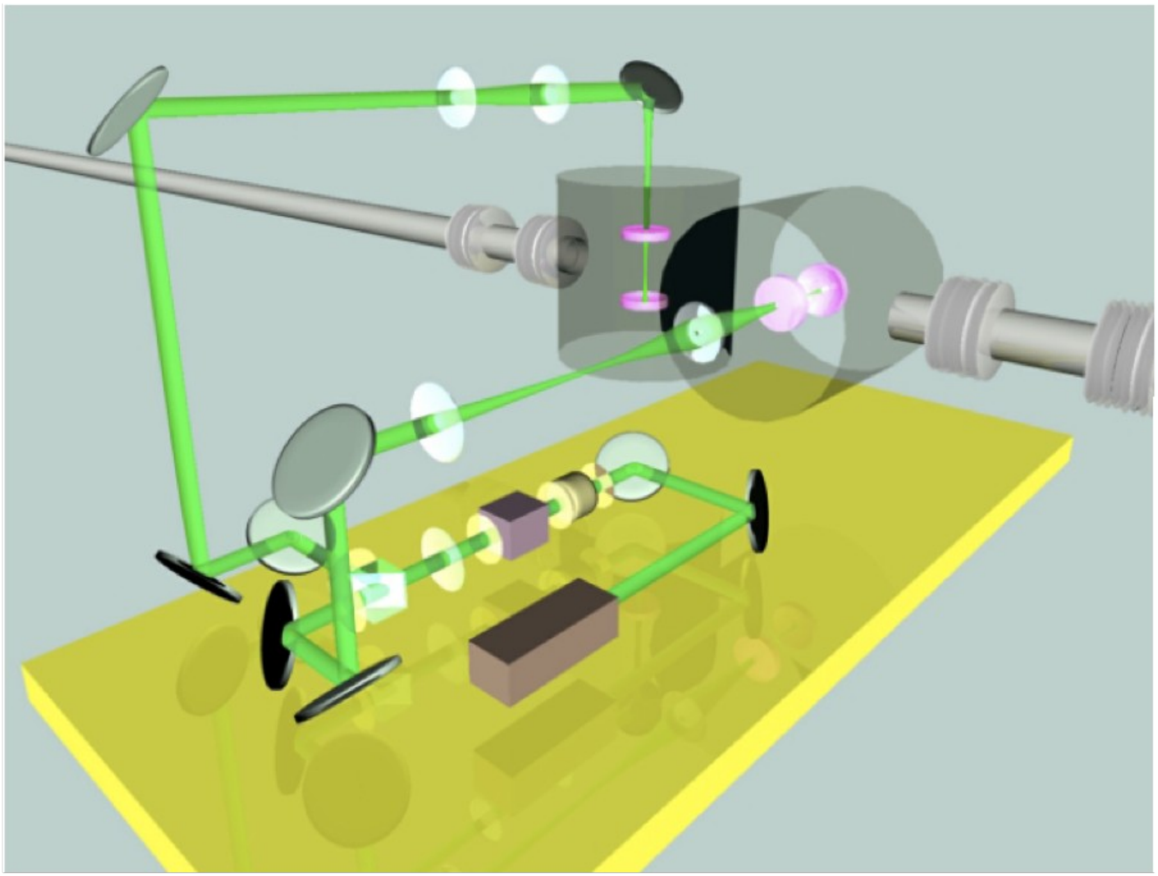


There is a physical limit on the smallest laser spot size and on the distance over which it can remain focused

$$\sigma_0 = \frac{\lambda f}{D_L} = \lambda f / \#$$

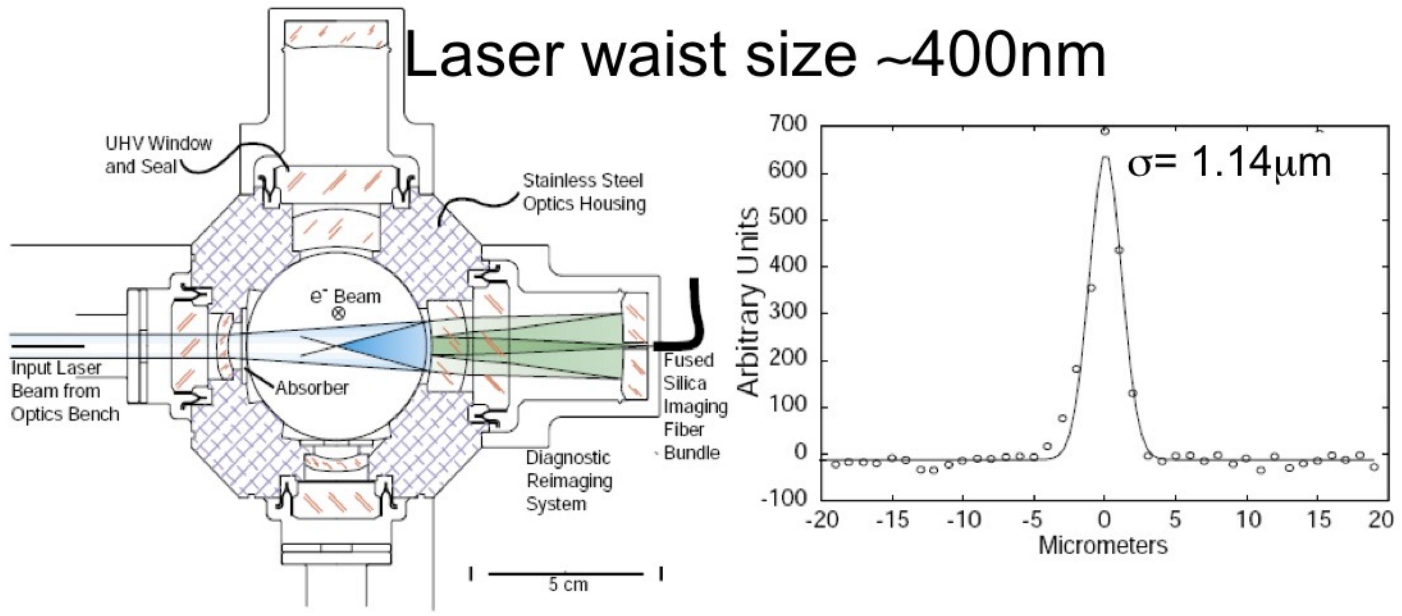
$$L_R = \frac{2\pi\sigma_0^2}{\lambda}$$

Laser Wire Scanner (3)



- At ATF original solution
- Instead of using a powerful laser an optical cavity surrounds the electrons beam
- The whole table is scanned

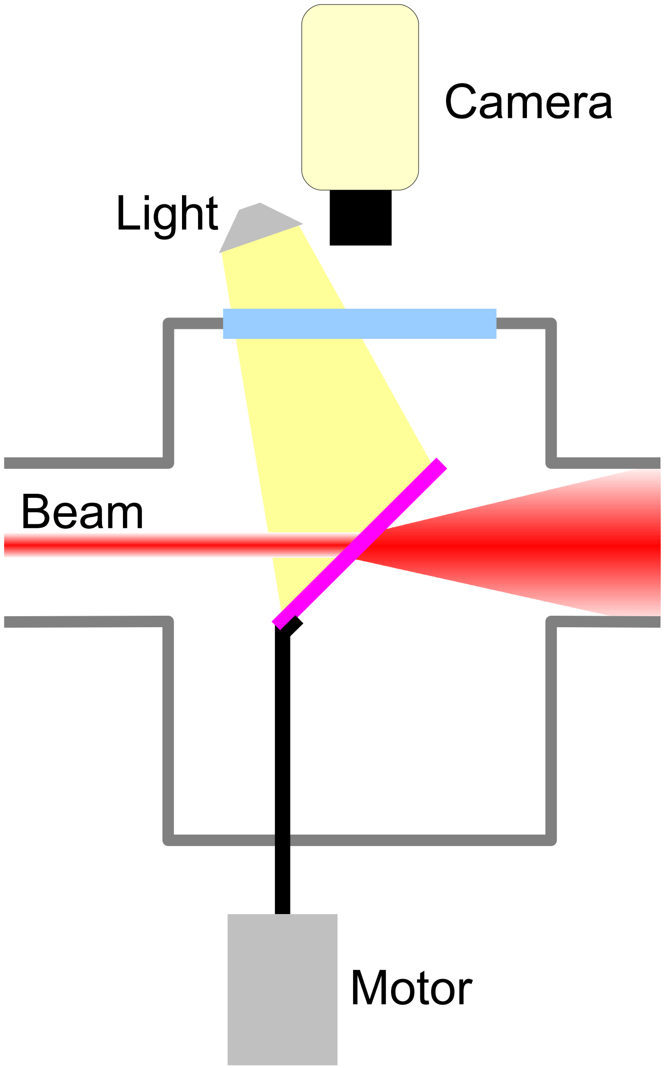
Laser Wire Scanner (SLC)



Laser Wire Scanner (4)

- High resolution LWS require
  - High power, high quality lasers (mJ, ps, M^2~1)
  - Complex focusing systems
  - Precise scanning systems (as an alternative the beam can be moved around)
- The resolution of the laser wire scanners is limited by the minimum waist size (of the order of the wavelength)
- A strongly focused laser beam will have a short waist length (Rayleigh length) and is not adapted for small beams with large aspect ratios
- Other limiting factors are laser stability, vibrations, x-ray detection (if low energy x-rays)

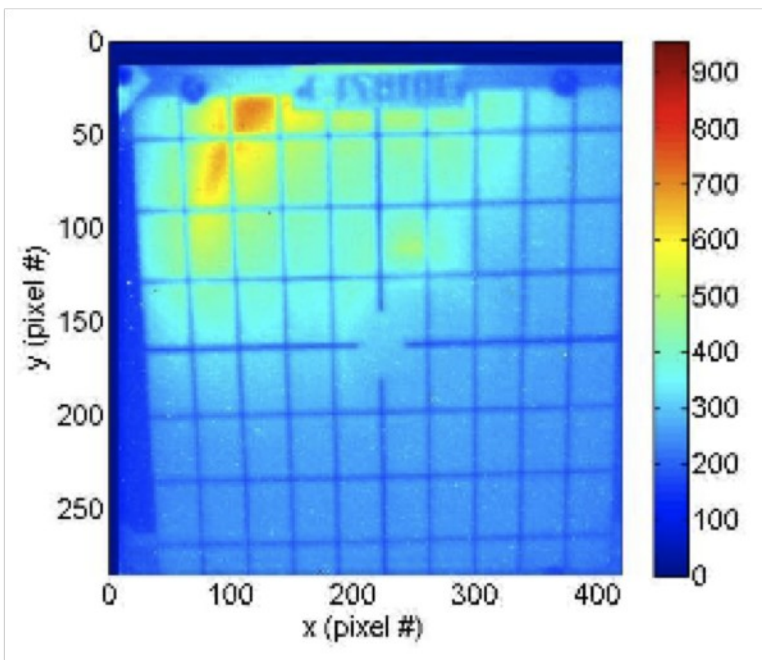
Scintillating screens

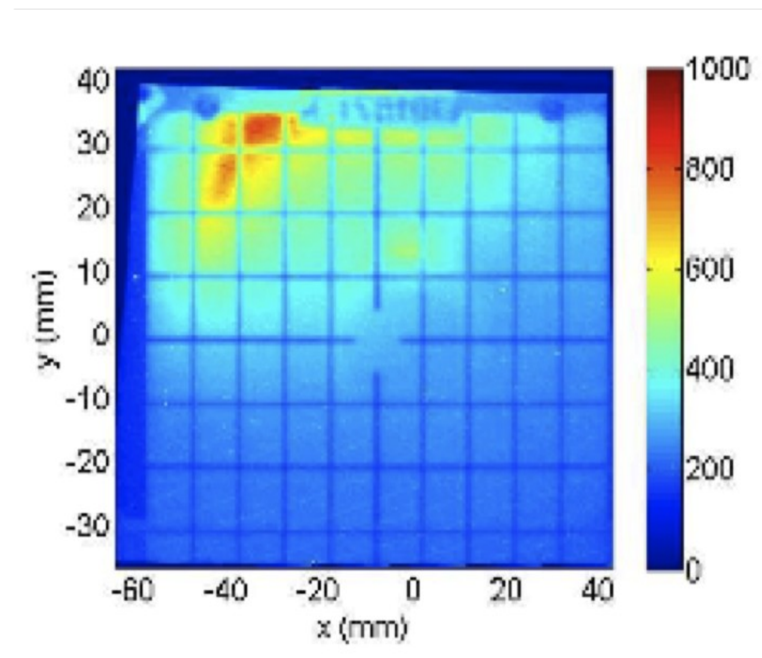


- Particles passing trough the screen excite atoms and molecules
- The screen emits photons that can be observed with a TV camera (CCD)
- Multiple scattering inside screen increases beam divergence
- Typical screens are Al_2O_3 1mm thick. Robust and good for beam observation, but not for precise profile measurements.

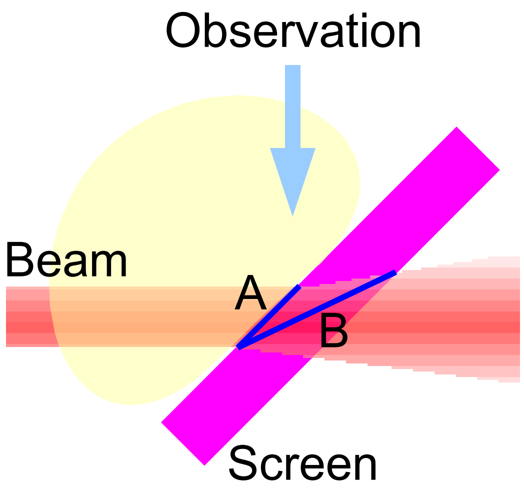
Scintillating screens (2)

- Optical setup may introduce deformations (ex 45° screens)
- Need to perform off line corrections and calibrations

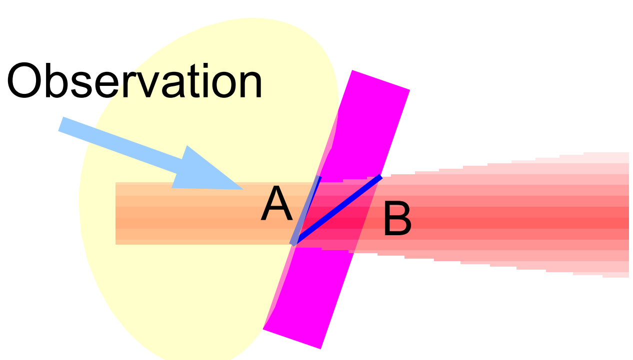




Scintillating screens (2)

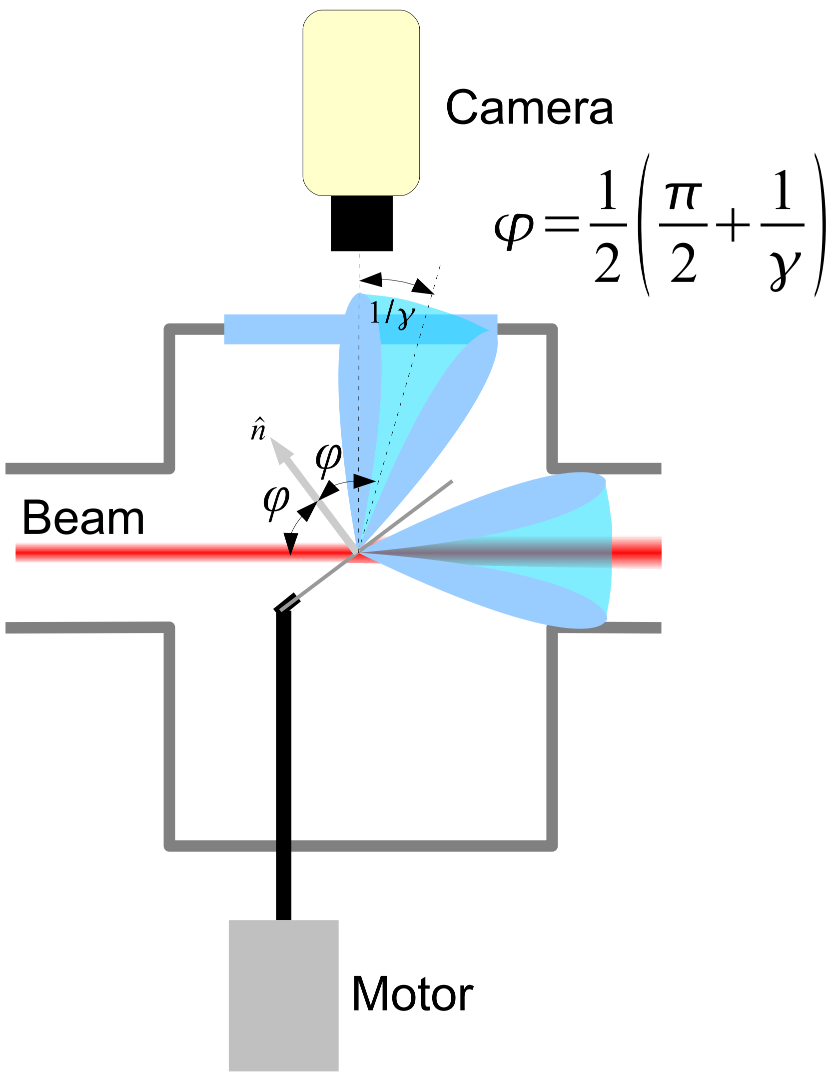


A is what we would like to observe
B is what we really obtain



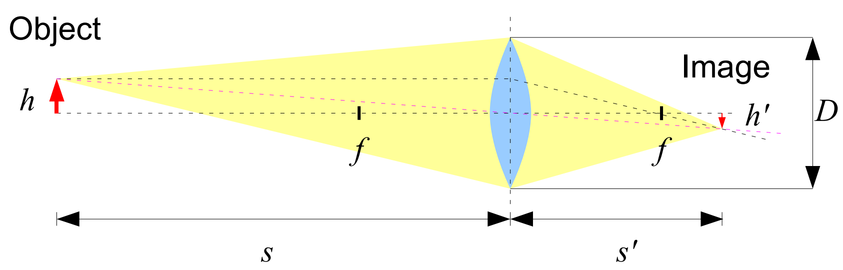
- Photons created inside the screen can escape
- The image observed is distorted
- Thickness of the screen should be small (compared to beam size)
- Observation at 90° is easy to use, but very bad for quality, also for field depth and aberrations

OTR radiators



- Use backward emission
- Reflecting properties of radiator are important (metal foil or metal coating)
- Use thin foil (few μm) or “wafers”, typically Al coated Si ~300 μm
- Angle of radiator depends on beam momentum
- For dense beams use carbon foils or SiC wafers

Optics primer



$$m = \frac{h'}{h} = \frac{s'}{s} \qquad f = \frac{s\,m}{(m+1)}$$

$$\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{s} + \frac{1}{s'} \qquad s' = \frac{s\,f}{s-f}$$

Typical case: $s = 300\ mm,\ m = 0.2 \Rightarrow f = 50\ mm,\ s' = 60\ mm$

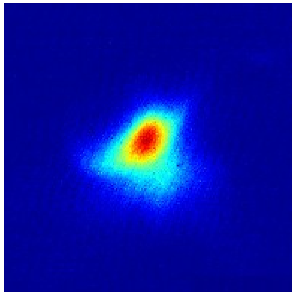
For OTR if $1/\gamma < D/(2\,s)$ the whole lobe can be collected and the observation angle is equal to the specular reflection. If $1/\gamma > D/(2\,s)$ only part of the lobe can be collected and the specular reflection differs from the observation angle

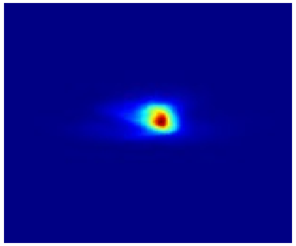
A "good" CCTV $50\ mm$ lens has $f/\# \sim 1.4$

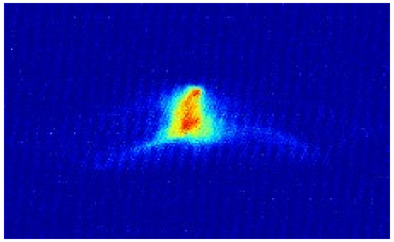
$$D = \frac{f}{f/\#} = \frac{50}{1.4} = 36\,mm \qquad \frac{D}{2\,s} = \frac{36}{600} = 0.06 \qquad \gamma_{min} = \frac{1}{0.06} = 17$$

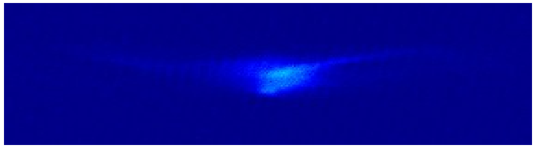
For γ larger than γ_{min} the whole lobe can be observed

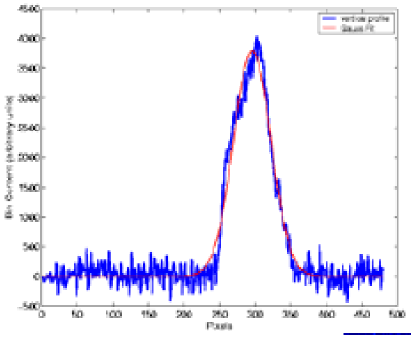
OTR example (DESY)









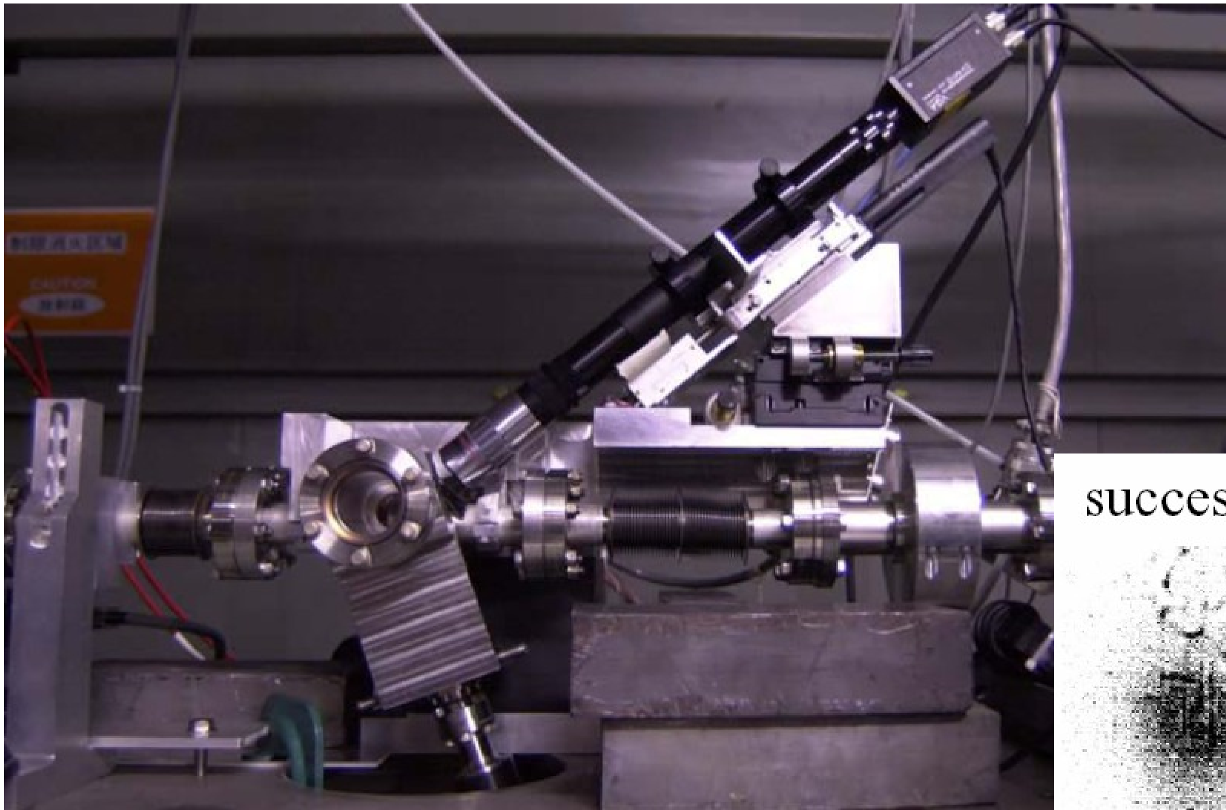


Often beams are far from Gaussian especially in linacs

Camera must be protected from radiation requiring a complex optical lines

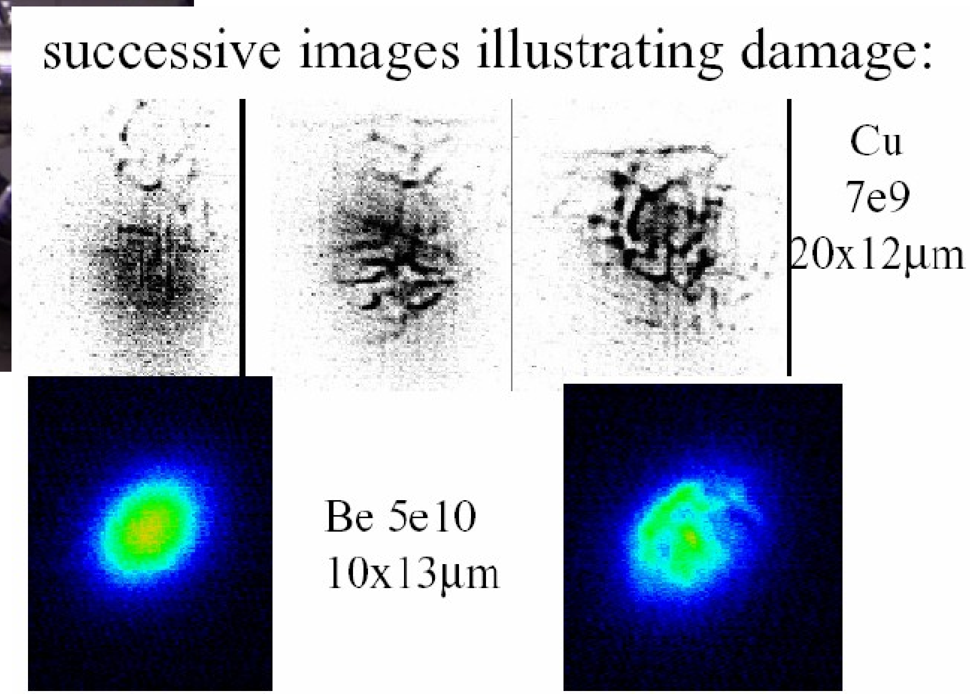
Filters are needed to avoid saturating the camera

OTR example (KEK)



Small beams can be very dense posing a serious problem with radiator damage

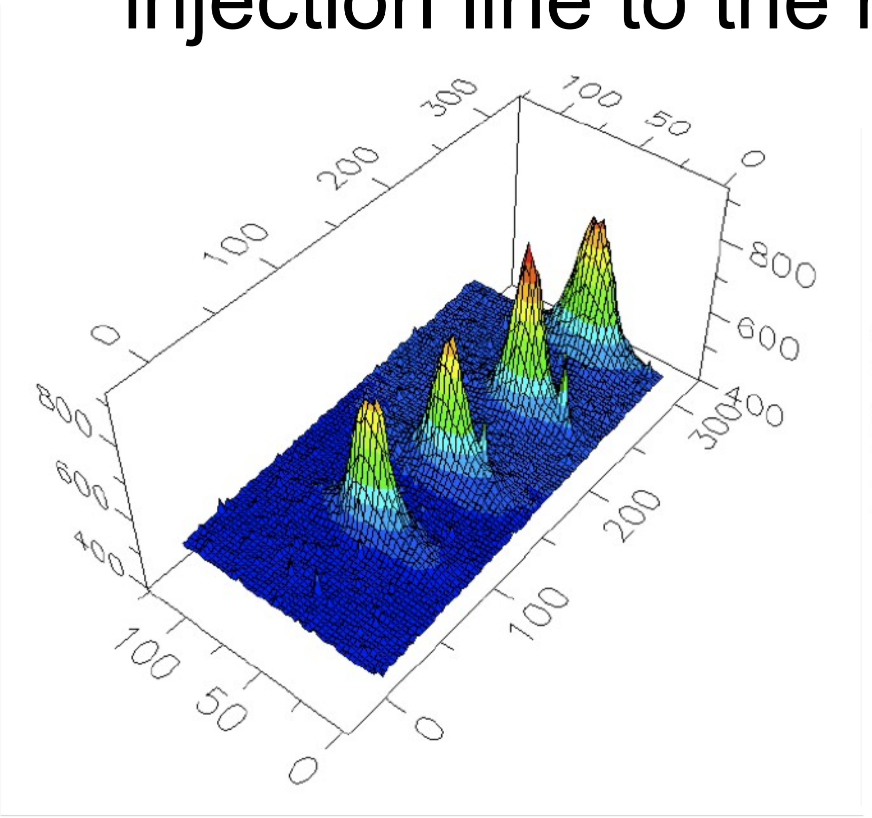
Choosing the right material is essential

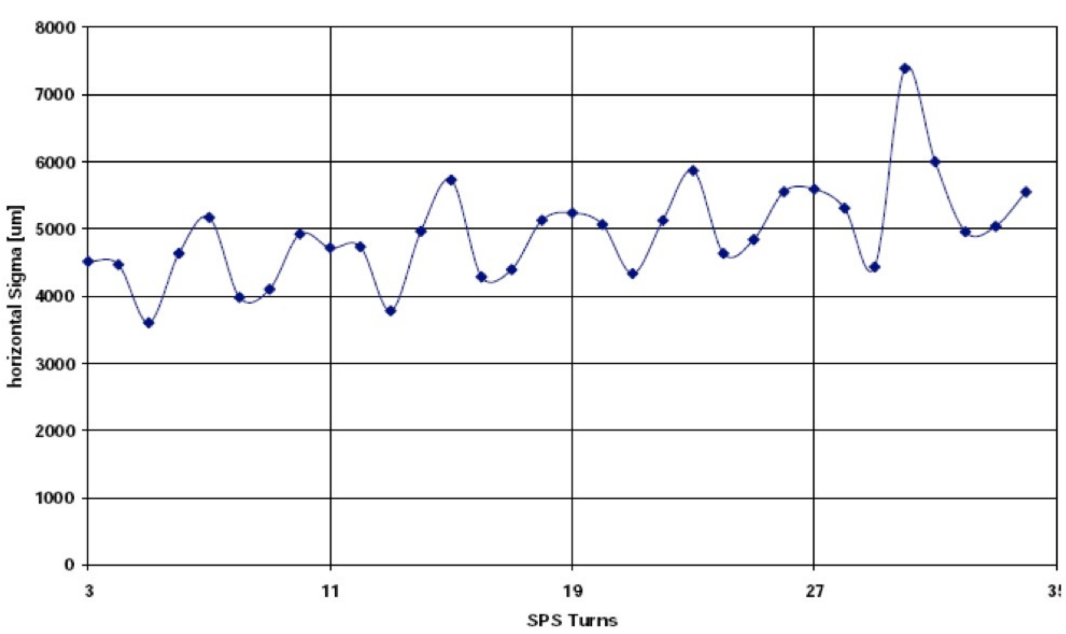


$$\Delta T(x,y)=\frac{dE}{dx}\cdot\frac{i(x,y)}{c_p}$$

OTR example (SPS)

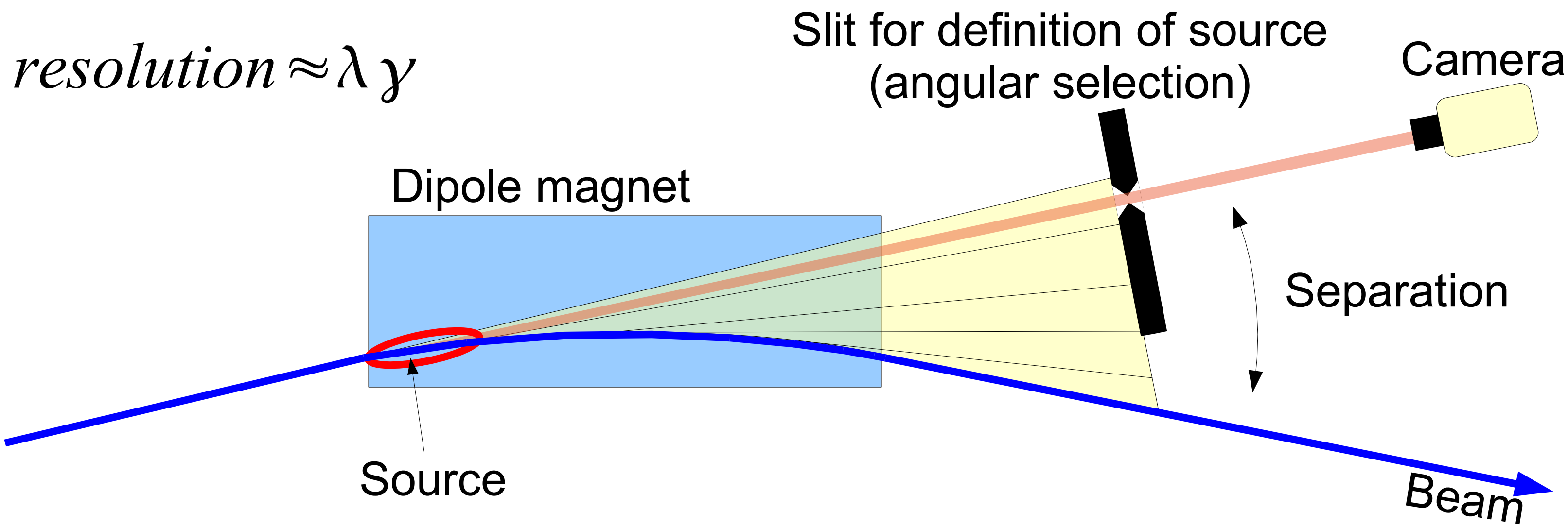
- Consecutive images at each turn are acquired
- This can be used to tune the matching of the injection line to the ring





Synchrotron radiation

$$resolution \approx \lambda \gamma$$



- Radiation inside magnet is constant
- Radiation at the entrance and exit edge has higher frequency components (shorter pulse) “edge radiation”
- Magnet also useful for separating photons from particles
- Source normally near entrance or even entrance edge
- Resolution limited by diffraction

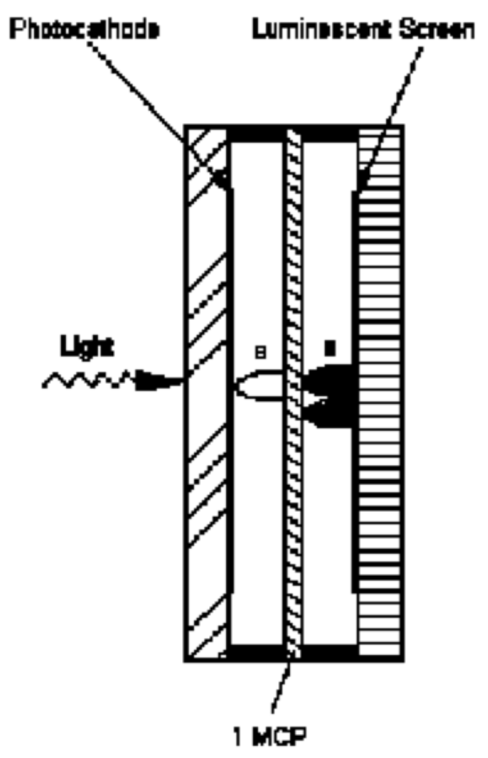
Light sensors

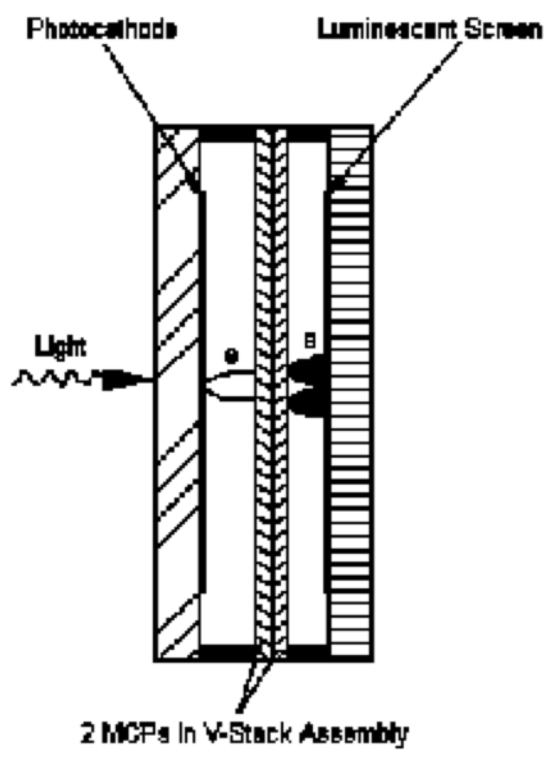
- 1D sensors (Can be fast up to hundreds of MHz)
  - Photo diode array
  - Linear CCD
  - Segmented photomultiplier
- 2D sensors (usually slow ~50Hz, possible up to 100 kHz)
  - image CCD
  - image CMOS
  - (Segmented photomultiplier)

Light sensors (2)

- 1D arrays (photo diodes or photo multipliers)
  - Parallel readout of each channel allows high speed, but limits resolution
- 1D CCD
  - serial readout, good resolution, but reduced speed
- 2D CCD or CMOS
  - serial readout, very good resolution, but reduced speed.
  - Special sensors with local memory and partial parallel readout allow higher acquisition speed.

Image Intensifiers



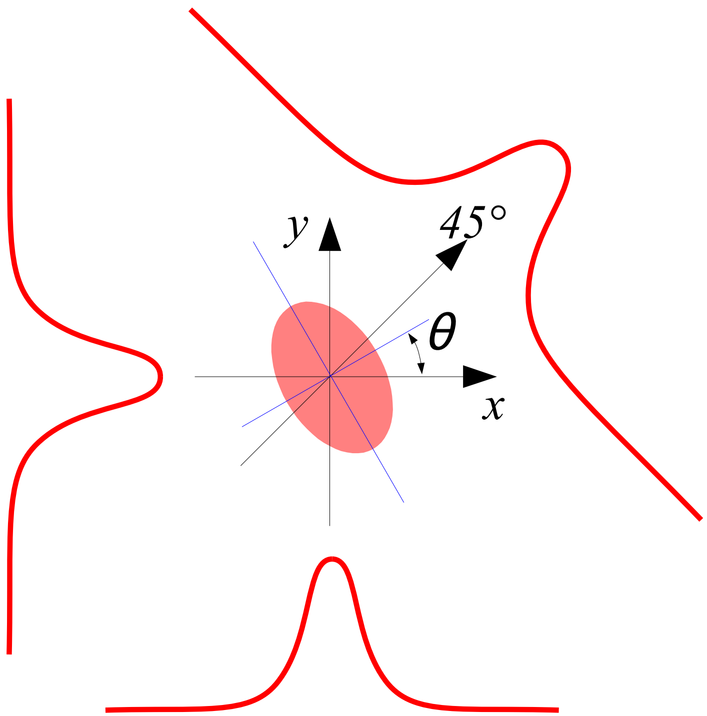


- Image intensifiers converts photons into electrons, multiply them, and then convert them back into photons, maintaining spatial information
- It is also possible to gate them and use them as shutters

Light sensors (3)

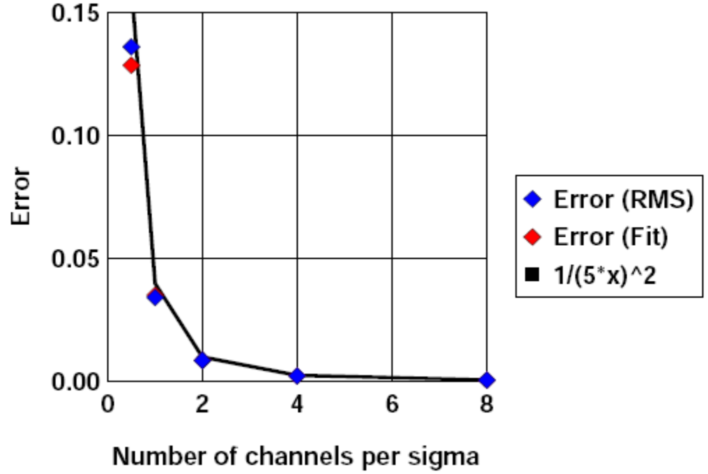
- Photomultipliers are radiation resistant (glass and metal)
- CCD and CMOS are silicon based and thus not very tolerant to radiation
- Tube cameras (ex. VIDICON) are radiation hard, but have worse resolution and sensitivity
- Special fast cameras contain loads of memory and electronics and are very sensitive to radiation (and expensive)
- Sensitivity of image sensors can be increased using image intensifiers, but usually at the expense of resolution

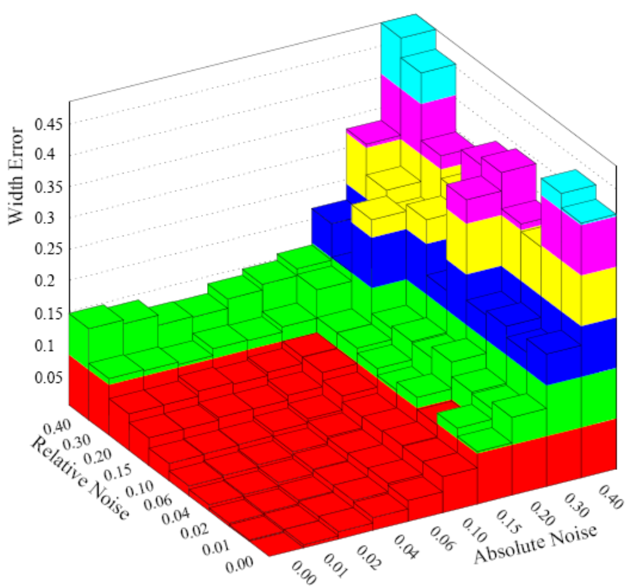
1D vs. 2D



- The 2D image contains the whole spacial information
- With only 2 1D profiles (X and Y) it is impossible to see coupling (rotated ellipse in x,y) or other effects
- Need at least the profile along a third direction (45°)
- Assuming bi-Gaussian beam with tilt: σ_I, σ_{II}, θ.
- 3 D.O.F. need 3 samples

Measurement accuracy





- Accuracy of measurement depends on
  - Detector size
    - Min ±*3σ*
  - Number of points
    - Min 2 points per *σ*
  - Accuracy of each point
    - Both position and signal
  - Noise level
- Use fit wherever possible

Thank you very much for your attention

Questions?