



SYNCHROTRON RADIATION

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CERN Accelerator School: Introduction to Accelerator Physics

September 27, 2010, Varna, Bulgaria





Useful books and references

- A. Hofmann, *The Physics of Synchrotron Radiation* Cambridge University Press 2004
- H. Wiedemann, *Synchrotron Radiation* Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 2003
- H. Wiedemann, *Particle Accelerator Physics I and II* Springer Study Edition, 2003
- A. W. Chao, M. Tigner, *Handbook of Accelerator Physics and Engineering*, World Scientific 1999

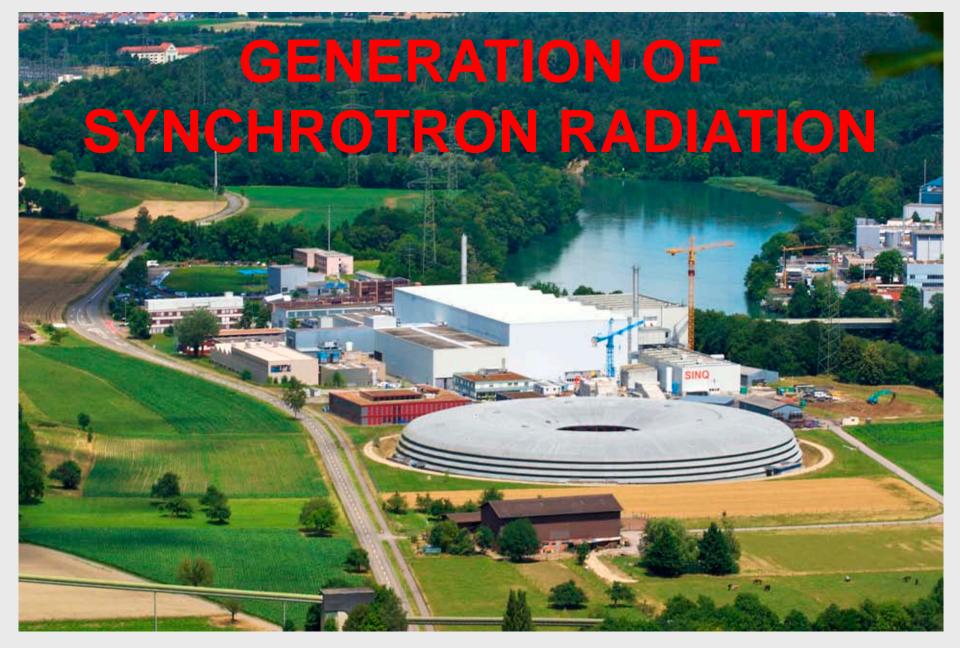
CERN Accelerator School Proceedings

Synchrotron Radiation and Free Electron Lasers

Grenoble, France, 22 - 27 April 1996 (A. Hofmann's lectures on synchrotron radiation) CERN Yellow Report 98-04

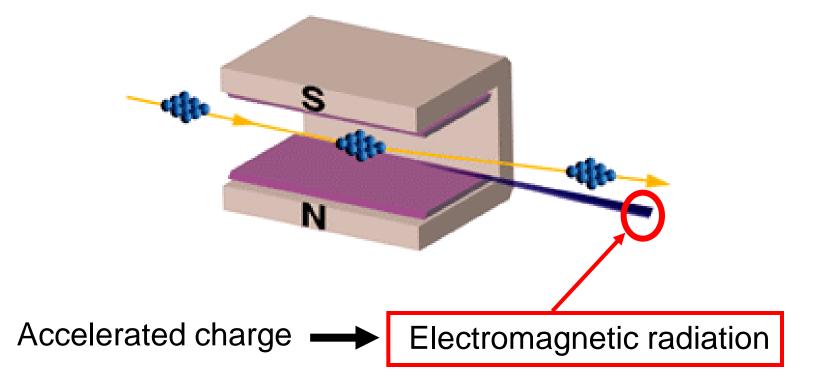
Brunnen, Switzerland, 2 – 9 July 2003 CERN Yellow Report 2005-012

http://cas.web.cern.ch/cas/Proceedings.html

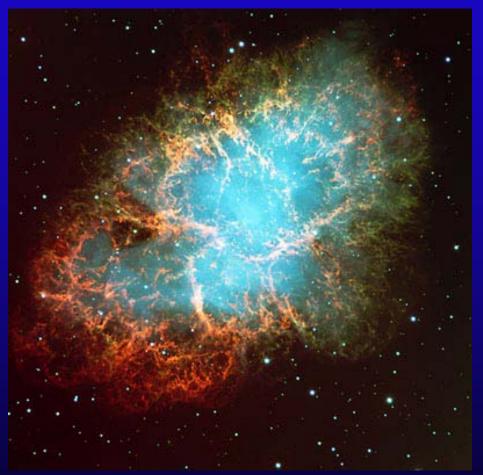


Swiss Light Source, Paul Scherrer Institute, Switzerland

Curved orbit of electrons in magnet field

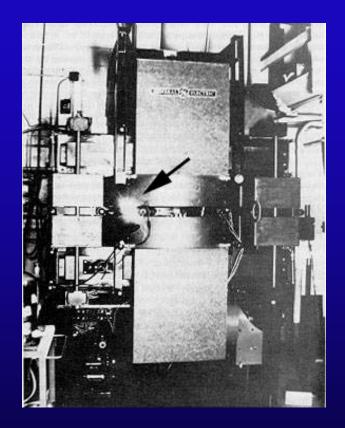


Crab Nebula 6000 light years away



First light observed 1054 AD

GE Synchrotron New York State



First light observed 1947

Synchrotron radiation: some dates

- 1873 Maxwell's equations
- 1887 Hertz: electromagnetic waves
- 1898 Liénard: retarded potentials
- 1900 Wiechert: retarded potentials
- 1908 Schott: Adams Prize Essay

... waiting for accelerators ... 1940: 2.3 MeV betatron,Kerst, Serber

THEORETICAL UNDERSTANDING \rightarrow

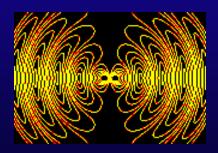
1873 Maxwell's equations

→ made evident that changing charge densities would result in electric fields that would radiate outward

1887 Heinrich Hertz demonstrated such waves:







..... this is of no use whatsoever !

1898 Liénard:

ELECTRIC AND MAGNETIC FIELDS PRODUCED BY A POINT CHARGE MOVING ON AN ARBITRARY PATH

(by means of retarded potentials

proposed first by Ludwig Lorenz in 1867)

L'Éclairage Électrique

REVUE HEBDOMADAIRE D'ÉLECTRICITÉ

DIRECTION SCIENTIFIQUE

A. CORNU, Professeur à l'École Polytechnique, Membre de l'Institut. — A. D'ARSONVAL, Professeur au Collège de France, Membre de l'Institut. — G. LIPPMANN, Professeur à la Sorbonne, Membre de l'Institut. — D. MONNIER, Professeur à l'École centrale des Arts et Manufactures. — H. POINCARE, Professeur à la Sorbonne, Membre de l'Institut. — A. POTIER, Professeur à l'École des Mines, Membre de l'Institut. — J. BLONDIN, Professeur agrégé de l'Université.

CHAMP ÉLECTRIQUE ET MAGNÉTIQUE

PRODUIT PAR UNE CHARGE ÉLECTRIQUE CONCENTRÉE EN UN POINT ET ANIMÉE D'UN MOUVEMENT QUELCONQUE

(1)

(3)

(4)

Admettons qu'une masse électrique en mouvement de densité o et de vitesse u en chaque point produit le même champ qu'un courant de conduction d'intensité us. En conservant les notations d'un précédent article (') nous obtiendrons pour déterminer le champ, les équations

$$\frac{1}{4\pi} \left(\frac{d\gamma}{dy} - \frac{d3}{d\bar{\tau}} \right) = \varphi u_x + \frac{df}{dt}$$
$$V^2 \left(\frac{dh}{dy} - \frac{dg}{d\bar{\tau}} \right) = -\frac{1}{4\pi} \frac{dz}{dt}$$

'avec les analogues déduites par permutation tournante et en outre les suivantes

$$\varphi = \left(\frac{df}{dx} + \frac{dg}{dy} + \frac{dh}{dt}\right)$$
$$\frac{dz}{dx} + \frac{d\tilde{\gamma}}{dy} + \frac{d\tilde{\gamma}}{dt} = 0.$$

De ce système d'équations on déduit facilement les relations

$$\left(\nabla^2 \Delta - \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \right) f = \nabla^2 \frac{dz}{dx} + \frac{d}{dt} (zu_x)$$
(5)
$$\left(\nabla^2 \Delta - \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \right) z = 4\pi \nabla^2 \left[\frac{d}{d\tilde{t}} (zu_y) - \frac{d}{dy} (zu_y) \right]$$
(6)

(1) La théorie de Lorentz, L'Éclairage Électrique, t. XIV, **P.** 417. α , β , γ , sont les composantes de la force magnétique et f. g, h, celles du déplacement dans l'éther. Soient maintenant quatre fonctions ψ , F, G, H définies par les conditions

$$\begin{cases} \left(V^{2} \Delta - \frac{d^{2}}{dt^{2}} \right) \psi = -4\pi V^{2} \vartheta. \qquad (7) \\ \left(V^{2} \Delta - \frac{d^{2}}{dt^{2}} \right) F = -4\pi V^{2} \vartheta u_{x} \\ \left(V^{2} \Delta - \frac{d^{2}}{dt^{2}} \right) G = -4\pi \vartheta u_{y} \end{cases}$$

$$\tag{8}$$

$$V^2 \Delta - \frac{d^2}{dt^2} H = -4\pi V^2 \rho u_{\tau}$$

(2) On satisfera aux conditions (5) et (6) en pre-

$$a\pi f = -\frac{d^4 \gamma}{dx} - \frac{1}{\nabla^2} \frac{dF}{dt}$$
(9)

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{dr} - \frac{1}{d\tilde{i}}.$$
 (10)

Quant aux équations (1) à (4), pour qu'elles soient satisfaites, il faudra que, en plus de (7) et (8), on ait la condition

$$\frac{d \cdot t}{dt} + \frac{d F}{dx} + \frac{d G}{dy} + \frac{d H}{dy} = 0.$$
(11)

Occupons-nous d'abord de l'équation (7). On sait que la solution la plus générale est la suivante :

$$\psi = \int \frac{\rho \left[x', y', \zeta, t - \frac{r}{\nabla} \right]}{r} d\omega' \qquad (12)$$

1912 Schott:

COMPLETE THEORY OF SYNCHROTRON RADIATION IN ALL THE GORY DETAILS (327 pages long)

... to be forgotten for 30 years (on the usefulness of prizes)

ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION

AND THE MECHANICAL REACTIONS ARISING FROM IT

BEING AN ADAMS PRIZE ESSAY IN THE UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE

by

G. A. SCHOTT, B.A., D.Sc.

Professor of Applied Mathematics in the University College of Wales, Aberystwyth Formerly Scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge

> Cambridge : at the University Press 1912

Donald Kerst: first betatron (1940)



"Ausserordentlichhochgeschwindigkeitelektronen entwickelndenschwerarbeitsbeigollitron"

Synchrotron radiation: some dates

- 1946 Blewett observes energy loss due to synchrotron radiation 100 MeV betatron
- 1947 First visual observation of SR 70 MeV synchrotron, GE Lab
- 1949 Schwinger PhysRev paper
- 1976 Madey: first demonstration of Free Electron laser



A larger view

Milky Way Center

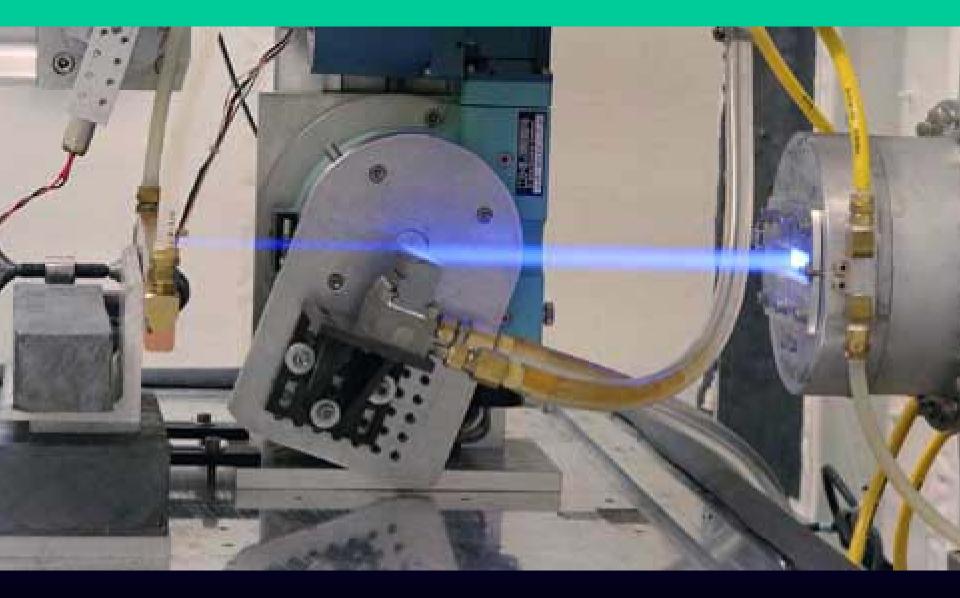
Geminga Pulsar

Vela Pulsar

Crab / Pulsar

Blazar 3C454.3

Storage ring based synchrotron light source



Why do they radiate?

Charge at rest: Coulomb field, no radiation

Uniformly moving charge does not radiate But! Cerenkov! Accelerated charge

Bremsstrahlung or breaking radiation



Liénard-Wiechert potentials

$$\varphi(\mathbf{t}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{\mathbf{q}}{\left[\mathbf{r}(1-\mathbf{\vec{n}}\cdot\mathbf{\vec{\beta}})\right]_{ret}} \qquad \qquad \mathbf{\vec{A}}(\mathbf{t}) = \frac{\mathbf{q}}{4\pi\varepsilon_0 c^2} \left[\frac{\mathbf{v}}{\mathbf{r}(1-\mathbf{\vec{n}}\cdot\mathbf{\vec{\beta}})}\right]_{ret}$$

and the electromagnetic fields:

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{\mathbf{A}} + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = 0 \qquad \text{(Lorentz gauge)}$$
$$\vec{\mathbf{B}} = \nabla \times \vec{\mathbf{A}}$$
$$\vec{\mathbf{E}} = -\nabla \phi - \frac{\partial \vec{\mathbf{A}}}{\partial t}$$

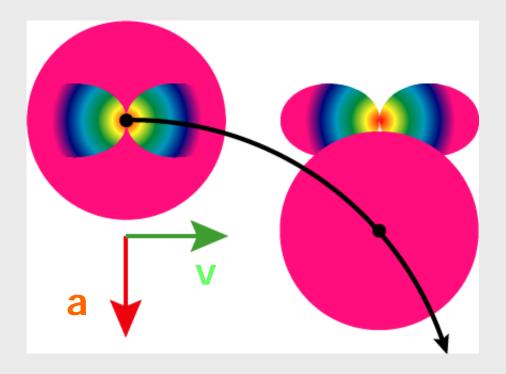
Fields of a moving charge

$$\vec{\mathbf{E}}(t) = \frac{q}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \left[\frac{\vec{\mathbf{n}} - \vec{\beta}}{\left(1 - \vec{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \vec{\beta}\right)^3 \gamma^2} \cdot \frac{1}{\mathbf{r}^2} \right]_{ret} +$$

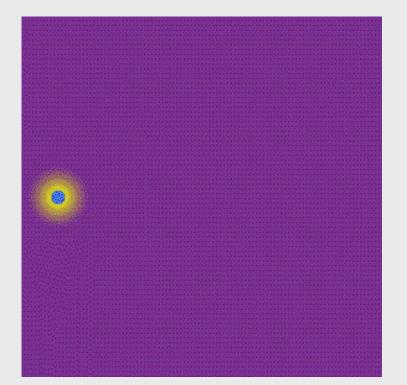
$$\frac{q}{4\pi\varepsilon_0 c} \left[\frac{\vec{\mathbf{n}} \times \left[\left(\vec{\mathbf{n}} - \vec{\beta} \right) \times \vec{\beta} \right]}{\left(1 - \vec{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \vec{\beta} \right)^3 \gamma^2} \cdot \frac{1}{\mathbf{r}} \right]_{ret}$$

$$\vec{\mathbf{B}}(t) = \frac{1}{c} \left[\vec{\mathbf{n}} \times \vec{\mathbf{E}} \right]$$

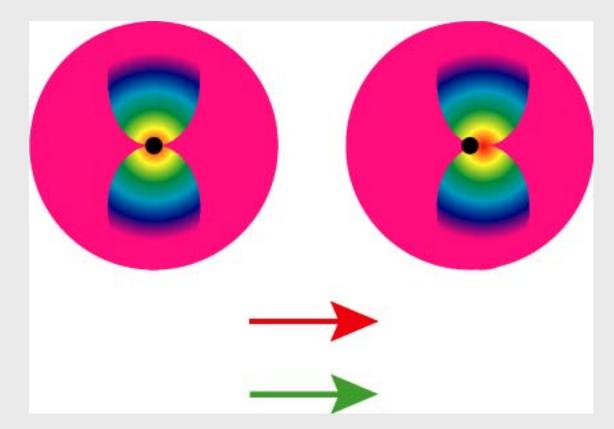
Transverse acceleration



Radiation field quickly separates itself from the Coulomb field

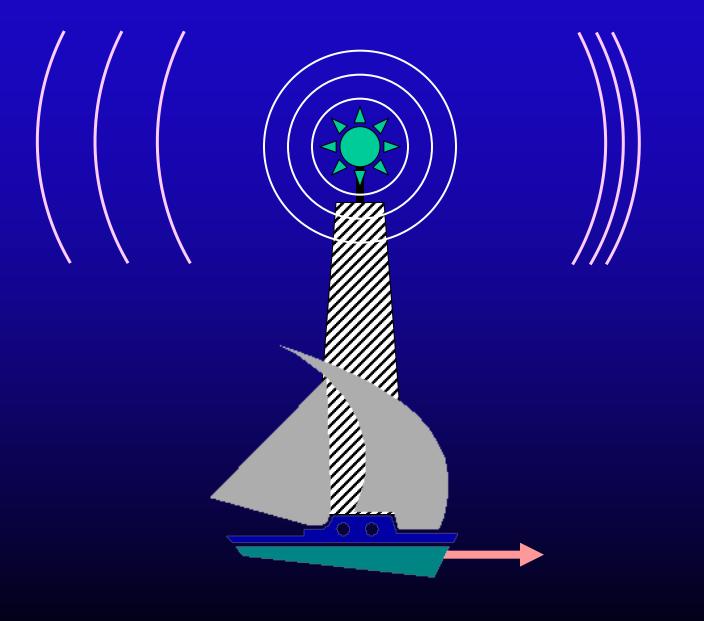


Longitudinal acceleration



Radiation field cannot separate itself from the Coulomb field

Moving Source of Waves





Time compression

Electron with velocity β emits a wave with period T_{emit} while the observer sees a different period T_{obs} because the electron was moving towards the observer

The wavelength is shortened by the same factor

n

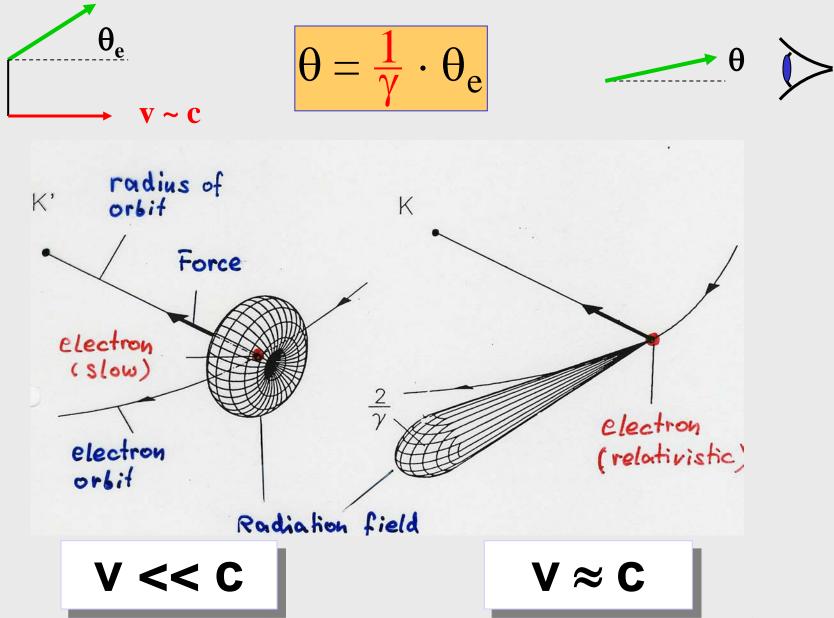
θ

 $\lambda_{obs} = (1 - \beta \cos \theta) \lambda_{emit}$ in ultra-relativistic case, looking along a tangent to the trajectory

$$\lambda_{\text{obs}} = \frac{1}{2\gamma^2} \lambda_{\text{emit}}$$
 since $1 - \beta = \frac{1 - \beta^2}{1 + \beta} \cong \frac{1}{2\gamma^2}$

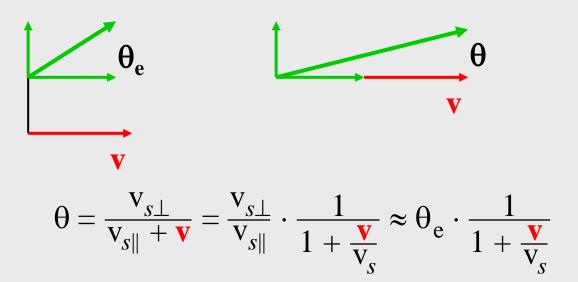
 $T_{obs} = (1 - \mathbf{n} \cdot \boldsymbol{\beta}) T_{emit}$

Radiation is emitted into a narrow cone



Sound waves (non-relativistic)

Angular collimation



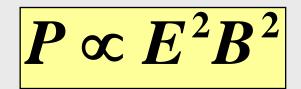


Doppler effect (moving source of sound)

$$\lambda_{heard} = \lambda_{emitted} \left(1 - \frac{\mathbf{v}}{\mathbf{v}_s} \right)$$

Synchrotron radiation power

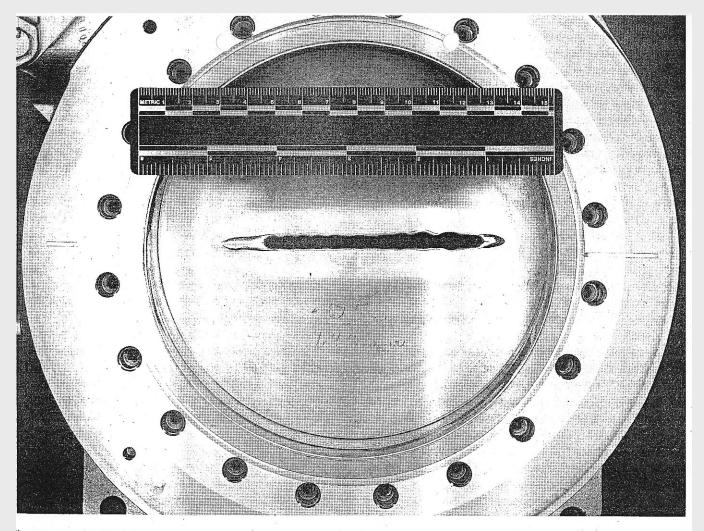
Power emitted is proportional to:



$$P_{\gamma} = \frac{cC_{\gamma}}{2\pi} \cdot \frac{E^4}{\rho^2}$$

$$C_{\gamma} = \frac{4\pi}{3} \frac{r_e}{(m_e c^2)^3} = 8.858 \cdot 10^{-5} \left[\frac{\text{m}}{\text{GeV}^3}\right]$$

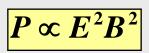
The power is all too real!

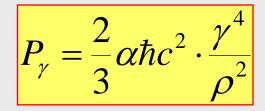


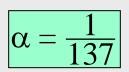
ig. 12. Damaged X-ray ring front end gate valve. The power incident on the valve was approximately 1 kW for a duration estimated to 2-10 min and drilled a hole through the valve plate.

Synchrotron radiation power

Power emitted is proportional to:

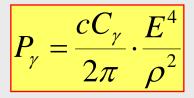








$$U_0 = \frac{4\pi}{3} \alpha \hbar c \frac{\gamma^4}{\rho}$$

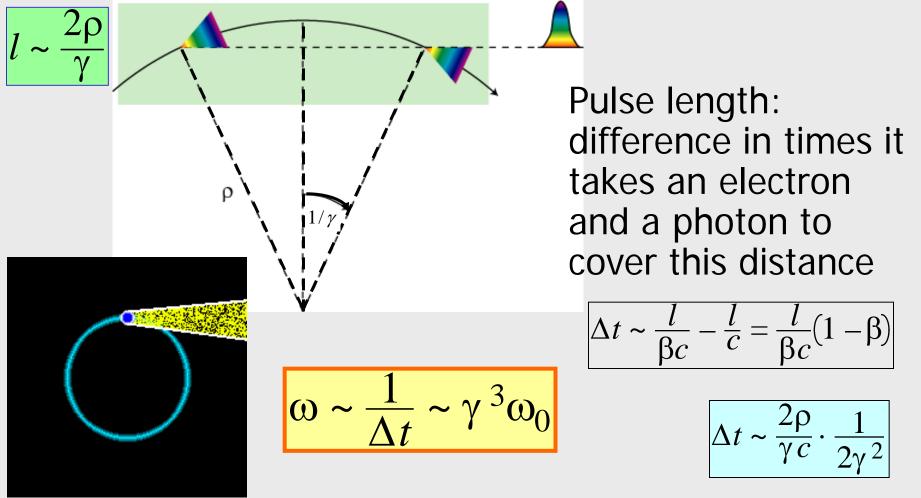


$$C_{\gamma} = \frac{4\pi}{3} \frac{r_e}{(m_e c^2)^3} = 8.858 \cdot 10^{-5} \left[\frac{\text{m}}{\text{GeV}^3}\right]$$

$$U_0 = C_{\gamma} \cdot \frac{E^4}{\rho}$$

Typical frequency of synchrotron light

Due to extreme collimation of light observer sees only a small portion of electron trajectory (a few mm)

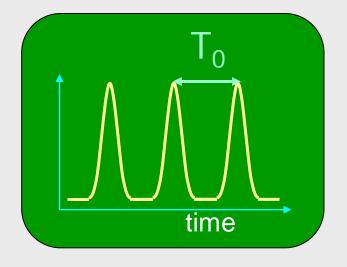


Spectrum of synchrotron radiation

 Synchrotron light comes in a series of flashes every T₀ (revolution period)

 the spectrum consists of harmonics of

$$\omega_0 = \frac{1}{T_0}$$



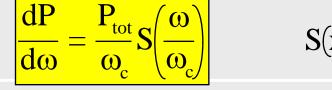
 flashes are extremely short: harmonics reach up to very high frequencies

$$\omega_{typ} \cong \gamma^3 \omega_0$$

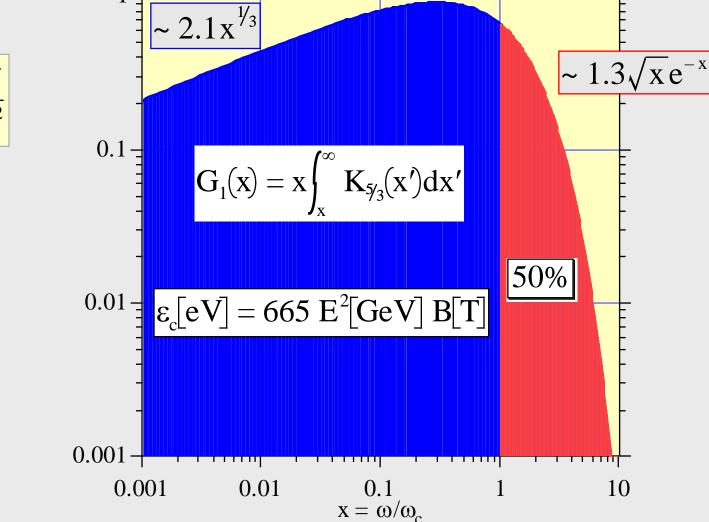
 $\omega_0 \sim 1 \text{ MHz}$ $\gamma \sim 4000$ $\omega_{\text{typ}} \sim 10^{16} \text{ Hz }!$

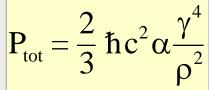
• At high frequencies the individual harmonics overlap

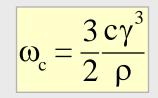
continuous spectrum !



$$S(x) = \frac{9\sqrt{3}}{8\pi} x \int_{x}^{\infty} K_{5/3}(x') dx' \qquad \int_{0}^{\infty} S(x') dx' =$$



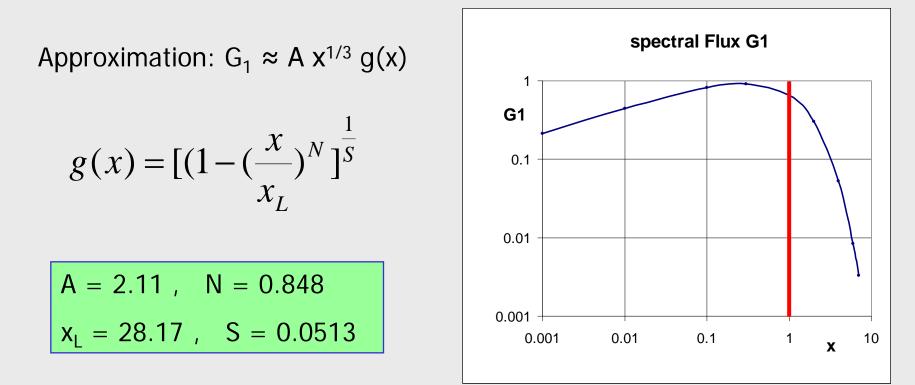




A useful approximation

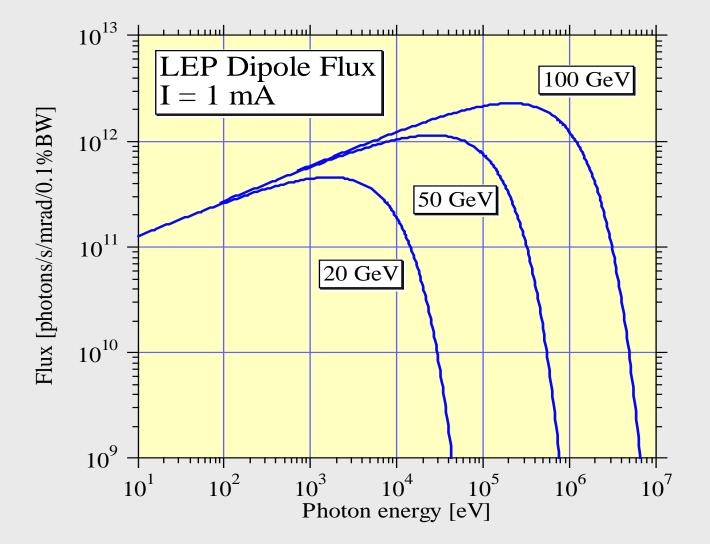
Spectral flux from a dipole magnet with field B

 $\operatorname{Flux}\left[\frac{\operatorname{photons}}{\operatorname{s} \cdot \operatorname{mrad} \cdot 0.1\% \operatorname{BW}}\right] = 2.46 \cdot 10^{13} \operatorname{E}[\operatorname{GeV}] \operatorname{I}[A] \operatorname{G}_{1}(x)$



Werner Joho, PSI

Synchrotron radiation flux for different electron energies



Angular divergence of radiation

The rms opening angle R'

• at the critical frequency:

$$\omega = \omega_{\rm c} \qquad \mathbf{R'} \approx \frac{0.54}{\gamma}$$

well below

$$\omega \ll \omega_{c} \qquad \mathbf{R'} \approx \frac{1}{\gamma} \left(\frac{\omega_{c}}{\omega}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}} \approx 0.4 \left(\frac{\lambda}{\rho}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}}$$

independent of γ !

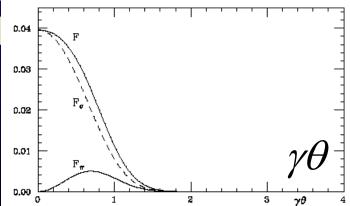
well above

$$\omega \gg \omega_{\rm c} \qquad \mathbf{R'} \approx \frac{0.6}{\gamma} \left(\frac{\omega_{\rm c}}{\omega}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

Polarisation

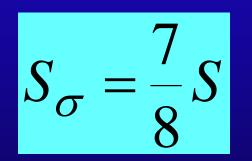
Synchrotron radiation observed in the plane of the particle orbit is horizontally polarized, i.e. the electric field vector is horizontal

Observed out of the horizontal plane, the radiation is elli

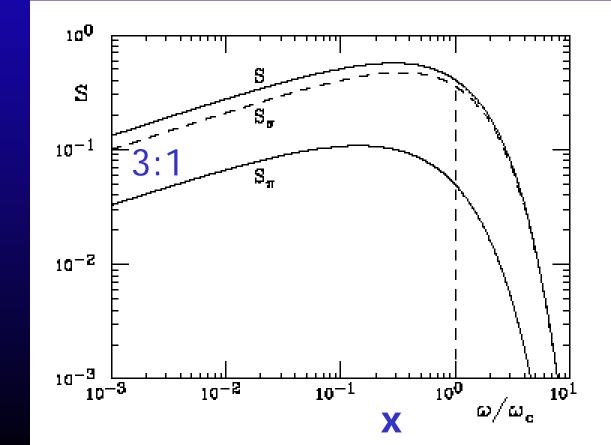


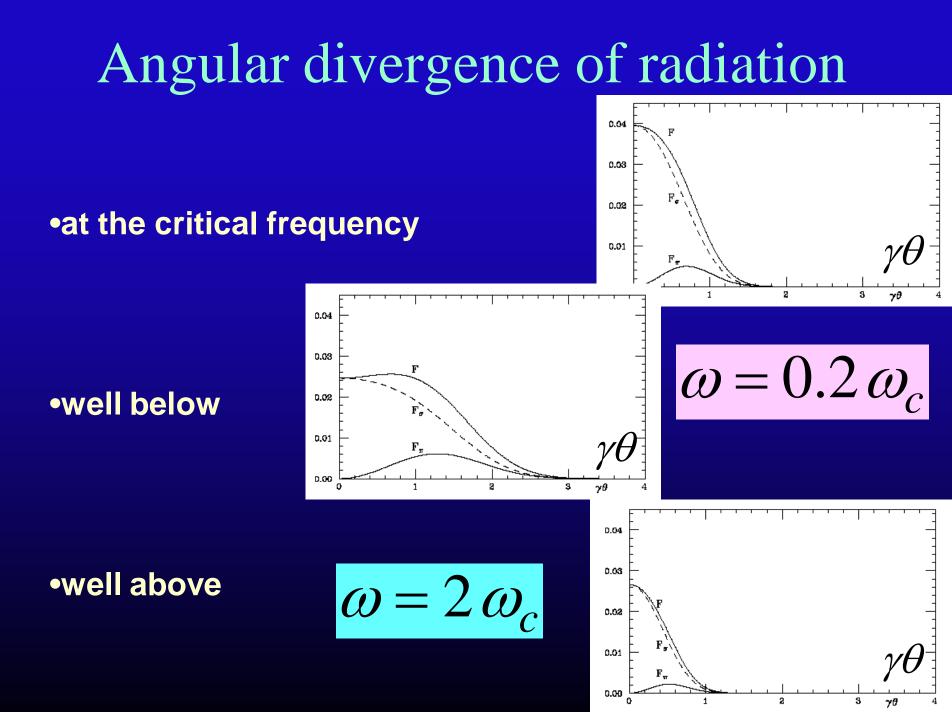
Polarisation: spectral distribution

$$\frac{dP}{d\omega} = \frac{P_{tot}}{\omega_c} S(x) = \frac{P_{tot}}{\omega_c} [S_{\sigma}(x) + S_{\pi}(x)]$$



 S_{π}

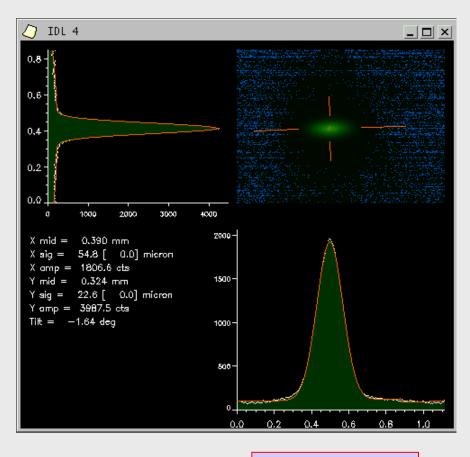




Seeing the electron beam (SLS)

 $\sigma_x \sim 55 \mu m$

X rays



visible light, vertically polarised

