Synchrotron Radiation
An Introduction

L. Rivkin

Swiss Light Source

Some references

CAS Proceedings

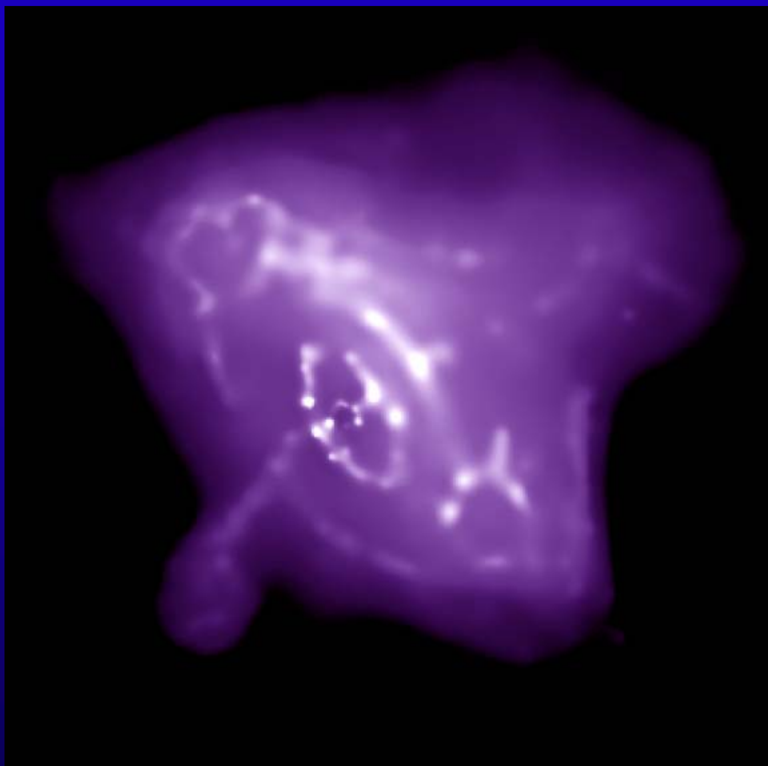
- CAS - CERN Accelerator School: Synchrotron Radiation and Free Electron Lasers, Grenoble, France, 22 - 27 Apr 1996
  CERN Yellow Report 98-04
  (in particular A. Hofmann's lectures on synchrotron radiation)

A. W. Chao, M. Tigner

- Handbook of Accelerator Physics and Engineering, World Scientific 1999

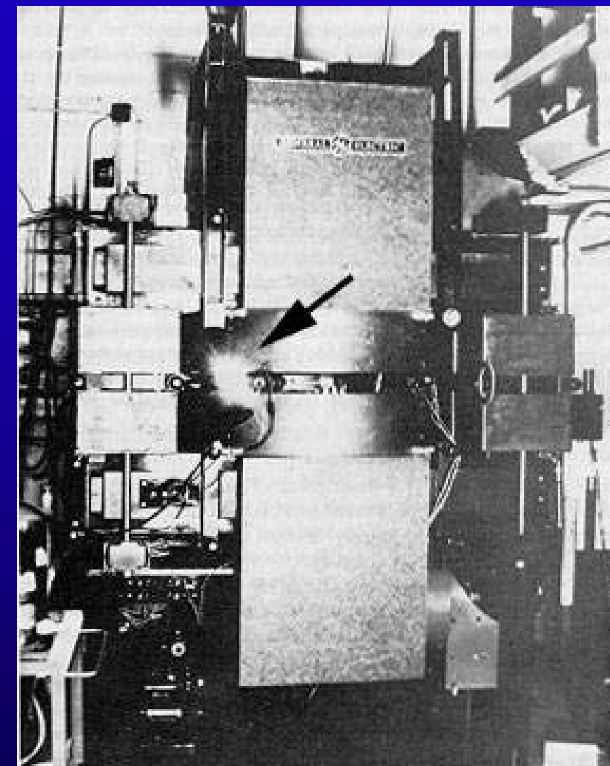
WWW http://www-ssrl.slac.stanford.edu/sr_sources.html

Crab Nebula
6000 light years away



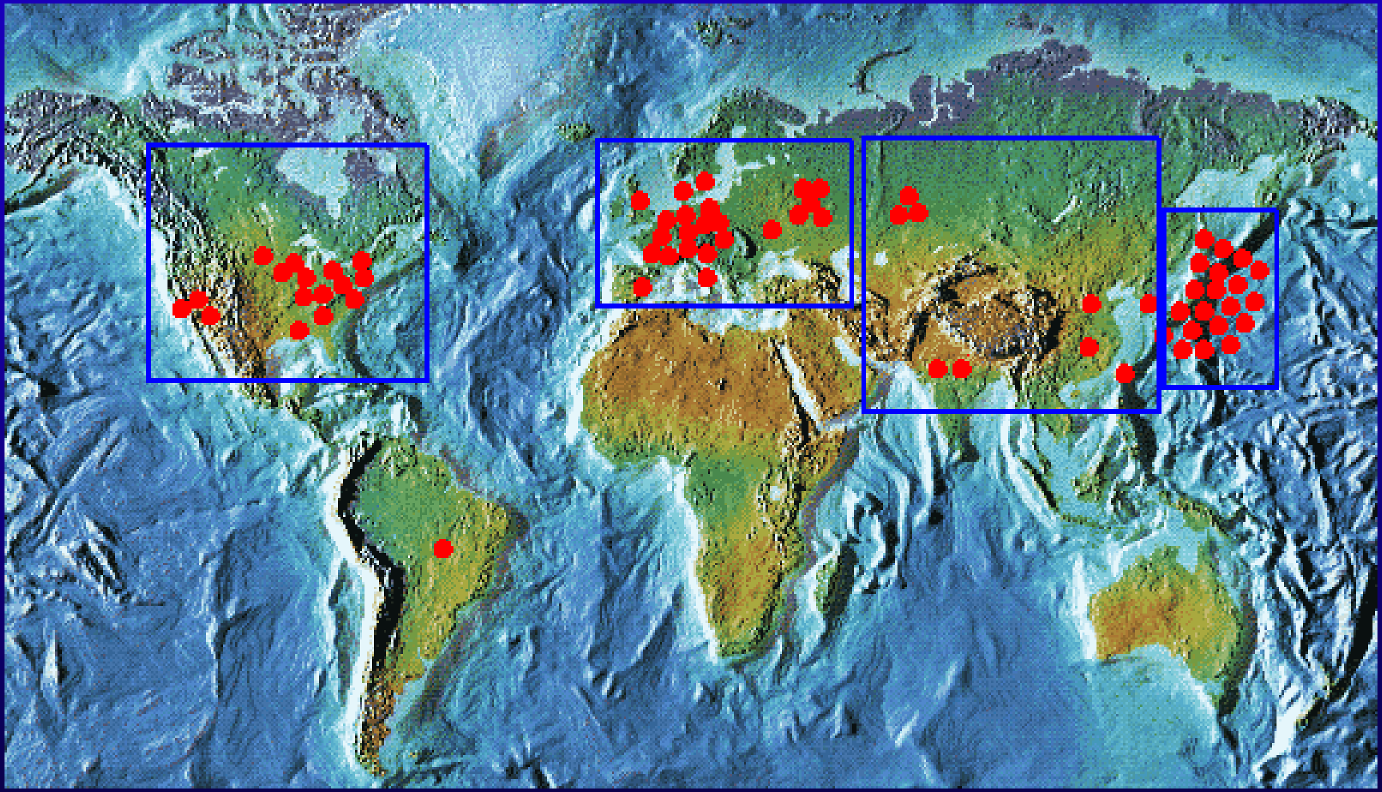
First light observed
1054 AD

GE Synchrotron
New York State



First light observed
1947

20 000 users world-wide

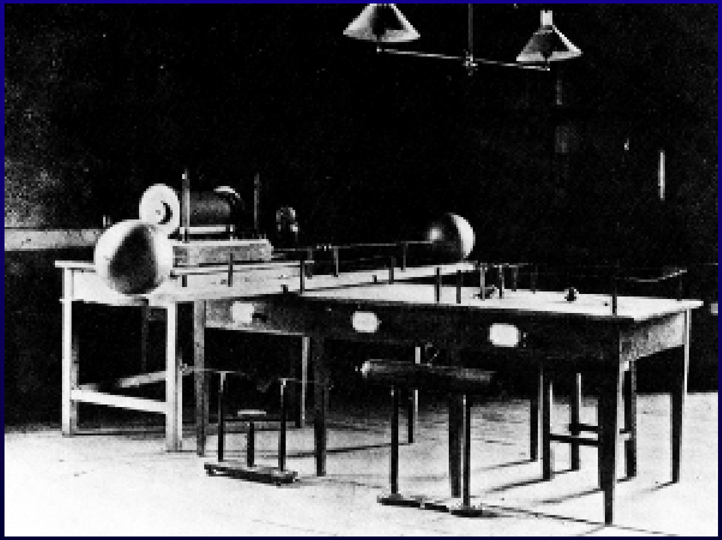


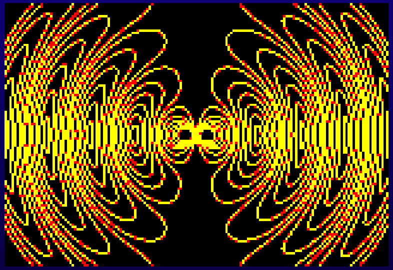
THEORETICAL UNDERSTANDING →

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 !

Maxwell equations (poetry)

War es ein Gott, der diese Zeichen schrieb
Die mit geheimnisvoll verborg'nem Trieb
Die Kräfte der Natur um mich enthüllen
Und mir das Herz mit stiller Freude füllen.

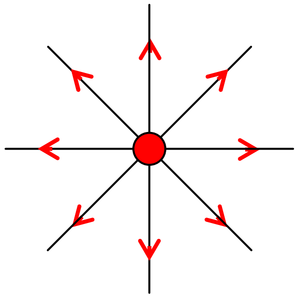
Ludwig Boltzman

Was it a God whose inspiration
Led him to write these fine equations
Nature's fields to me he shows
And so my heart with pleasure glows.

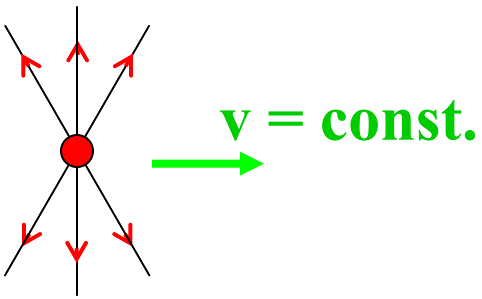
translated by John P. Blewett

Why do they radiate?

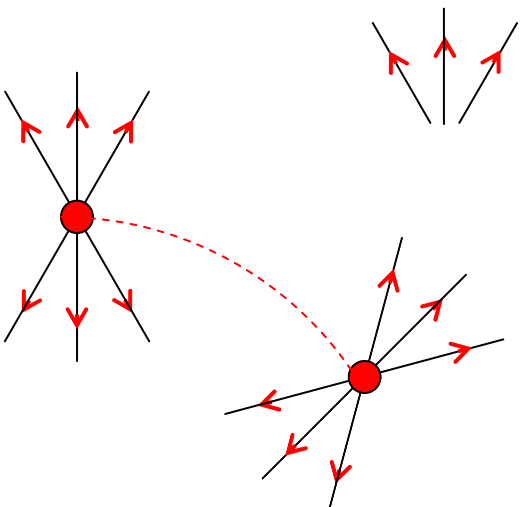
Charge at rest: Coulomb field



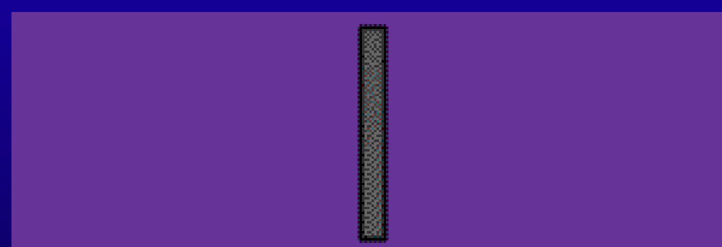
Uniformly moving charge



Accelerated charge



Bremstrahlung



1898 Liénard:

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

(by means of retarded potentials)

L'Éclairage Électrique

REVUE HEBDOMADAIRE D'ÉLECTRICITÉ

CHAMP ÉLECTRIQUE ET MAGNÉTIQUE

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

Admettons qu'une masse électrique en mouvement de densité ρ et de vitesse u en chaque point produit le même champ qu'un courant de conduction d'intensité $u\rho$. En conservant les notations d'un précédent article (¹) nous obtiendrons pour déterminer le champ, les équations

$$\frac{1}{4\pi}\left(\frac{d\gamma}{dy}-\frac{d\beta}{dz}\right)=\rho u_x+\frac{df}{dt} \qquad (1)$$

$$V^2\left(\frac{dh}{dy}-\frac{dg}{dz}\right)=-\frac{1}{4\pi}\frac{d\alpha}{dt} \qquad (2)$$

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

$$\rho=\left(\frac{df}{dx}+\frac{dg}{dy}+\frac{dh}{dz}\right. \qquad (3)$$

$$\frac{d\alpha}{dx}+\frac{d\beta}{dy}+\frac{d\gamma}{dz}=0. \qquad (4)$$

De ce système d'équations on déduit facilement les relations

$$\left(V^2\Delta-\frac{d^2}{dt^2}\right)f=V^2\frac{d\rho}{dx}+\frac{d}{dt}(\rho u_x) \qquad (5)$$

$$\left(V^2\Delta-\frac{d^2}{dt^2}\right)\alpha=4\pi V^2\left[\frac{d}{dz}(\rho u_y)-\frac{d}{dy}(\rho u_z)\right] \qquad (6)$$

Soient maintenant quatre fonctions ψ, F, G, H définies par les conditions

$$\left(V^2\Delta-\frac{d^2}{dt^2}\right)\psi=-4\pi V^2\rho. \qquad (7)$$

$$\left.\begin{aligned}\left(V^2\Delta-\frac{d^2}{dt^2}\right)F&=-4\pi V^2\rho u_x\\ \left(V^2\Delta-\frac{d^2}{dt^2}\right)G&=-4\pi\rho u_y\\ \left(V^2\Delta-\frac{d^2}{dt^2}\right)H&=-4\pi V^2\rho u_z\end{aligned}\right\} \qquad (8)$$

On satisfera aux conditions (5) et (6) en prenant

$$4\pi f=-\frac{d\psi}{dx}-\frac{1}{V^2}\frac{dF}{dt} \qquad (9)$$

$$\alpha=\frac{dH}{dy}-\frac{dG}{dz}. \qquad (10)$$

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

$$\frac{d\psi}{dt}+\frac{dF}{dx}+\frac{dG}{dy}+\frac{dH}{dz}=0. \qquad (11)$$

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

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

(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.

Fig. 1. First page of Liénard's 1898 paper.

Liénard-Wiechert potentials

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

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

and the electromagnetic fields:

$$\nabla\cdot\vec{\mathbf{A}} + \frac{1}{c^2}\frac{\partial\varphi}{\partial t} = 0$$

(Lorentz gauge)

$$\vec{\mathbf{B}} = \nabla\times\vec{\mathbf{A}}$$

$$\vec{\mathbf{E}} = -\nabla\varphi - \frac{\partial\vec{\mathbf{A}}}{\partial t}$$

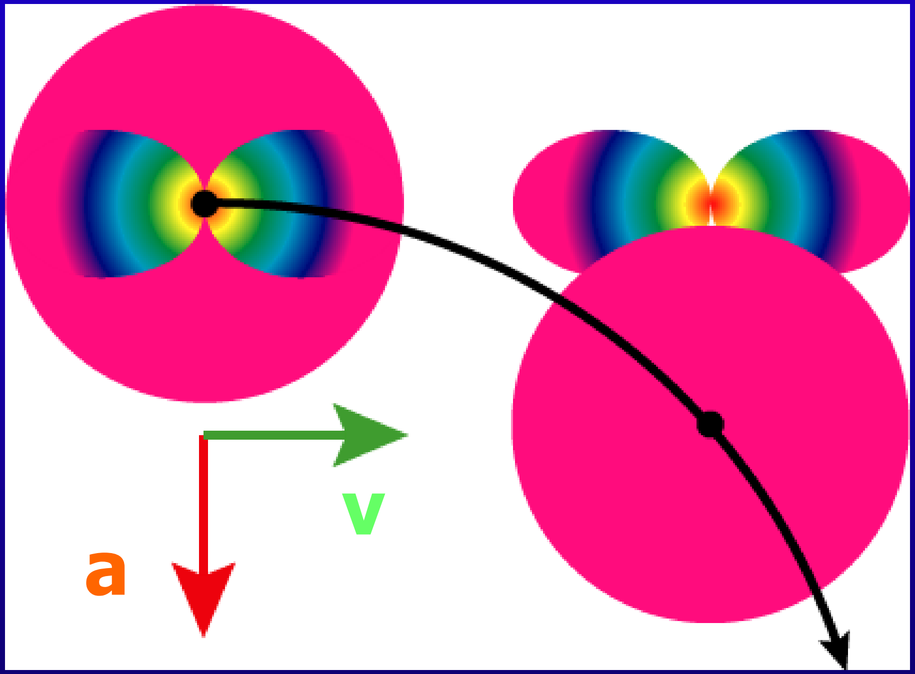
Fields of a moving charge

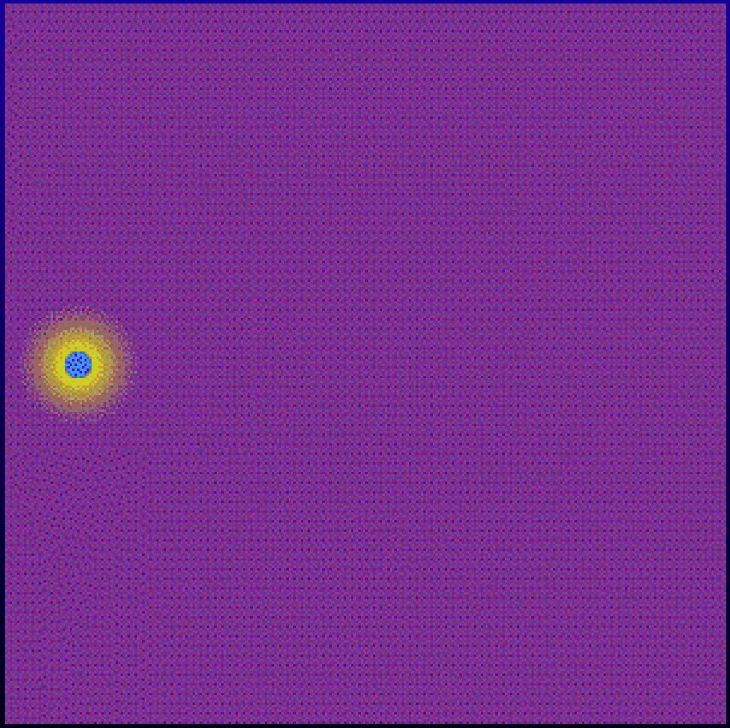
$$\vec{\mathbf{E}}(t) = \frac{q}{4\pi\varepsilon_0}\left[\frac{\vec{\mathbf{n}} - \vec{\beta}}{\left(1 - \vec{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \vec{\beta}\right)^3 \gamma^2} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{1}}{\mathbf{r}^2}\right]_{ret} +$$

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

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

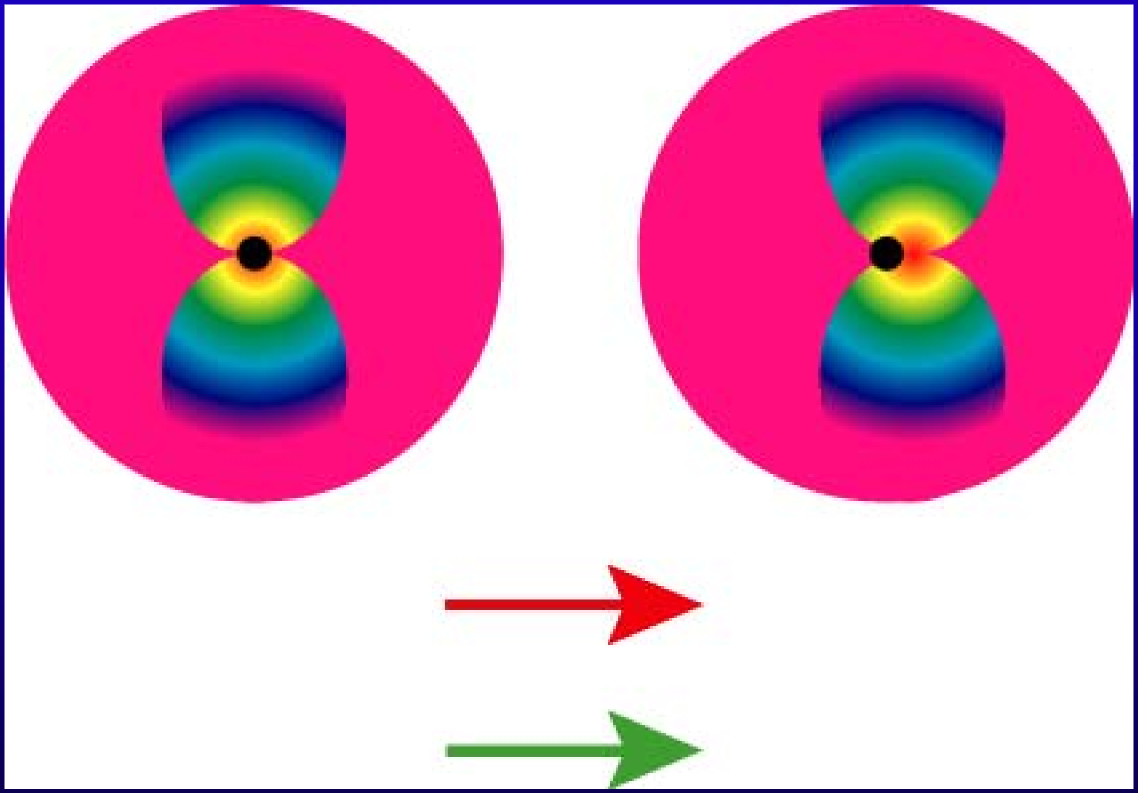
Transverse acceleration





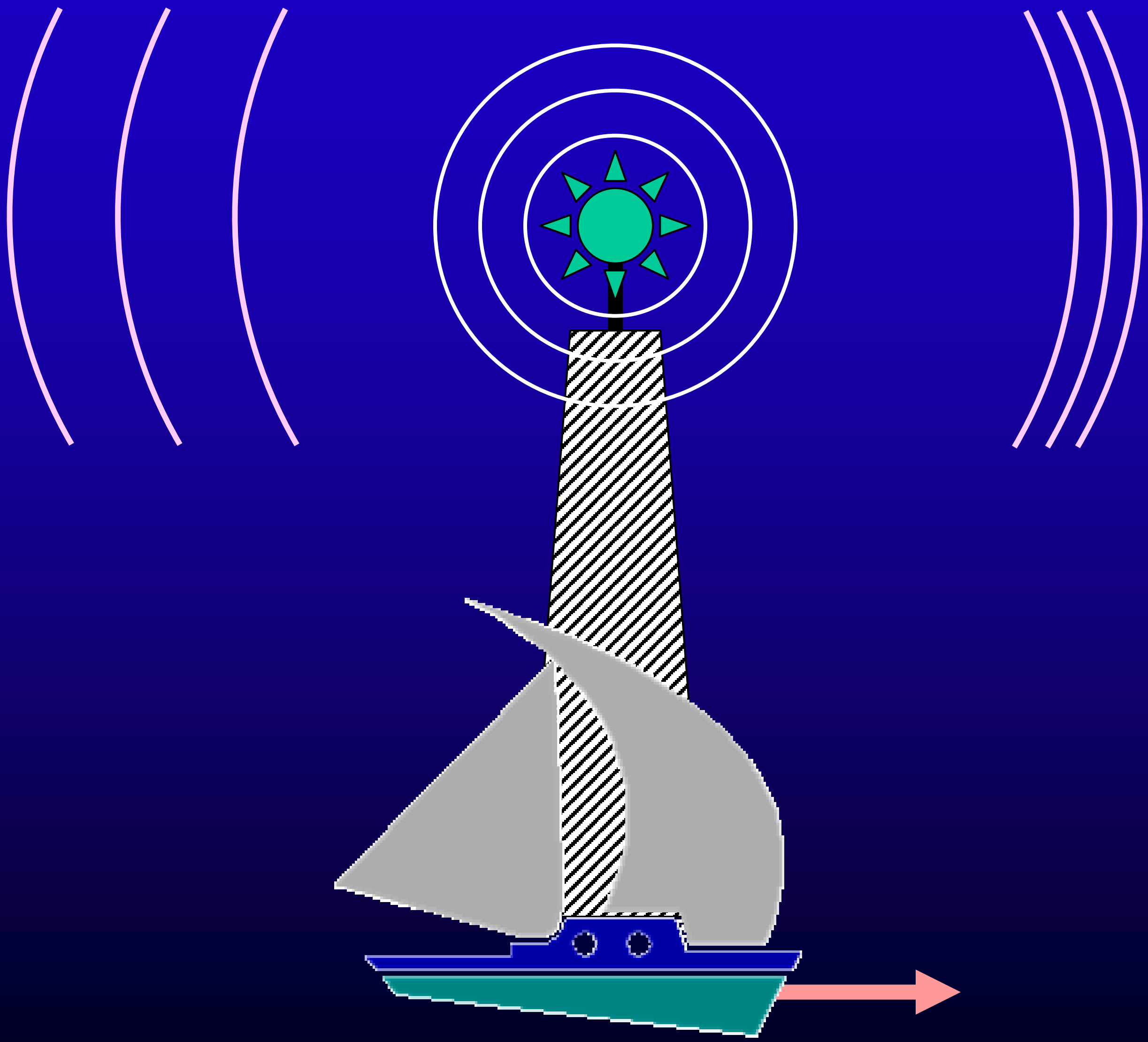
Radiation field quickly separates itself from the Coulomb field

Longitudinal acceleration



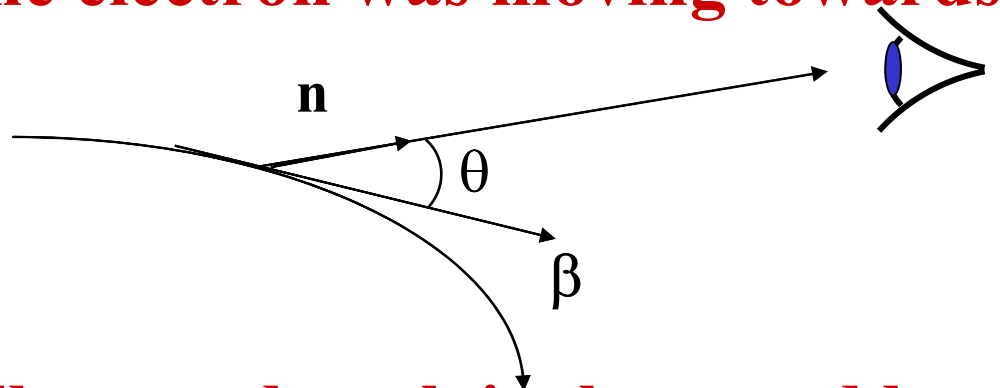
Radiation field cannot separate itself from the Coulomb field

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



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

The wavelength is shortened by the same factor

$$\lambda_{obs} = (1 - \beta \cos\theta)\, \lambda_{emit}$$

in ultra-relativistic case, looking along a tangent to the trajectory

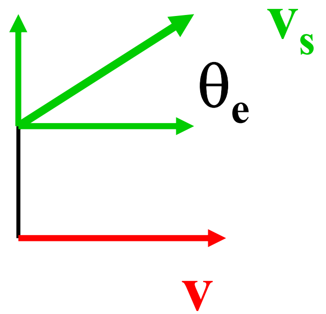
$$\lambda_{obs} = \frac{1}{2\gamma^2} \lambda_{emit}$$

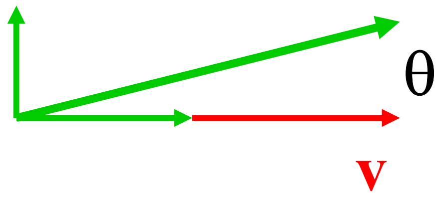
since

$$1 - \beta = \frac{1 - \beta^2}{1 + \beta} \cong \frac{1}{2\gamma^2}$$

Angular Collimation

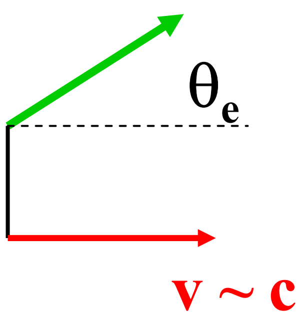
Galileo: sound waves v_s = 331 m/s

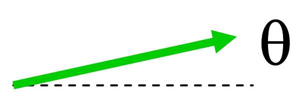


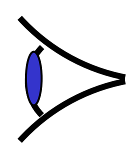


$$\theta = \frac{v_{s\perp}}{v_{s\|} + \mathbf{v}} = \frac{v_{s\perp}}{v_{s\|}} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \frac{\mathbf{v}}{v_s}} \approx \theta_e \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \frac{\mathbf{v}}{v_s}}$$

Lorentz: speed of light c = 3·10^8 m/s

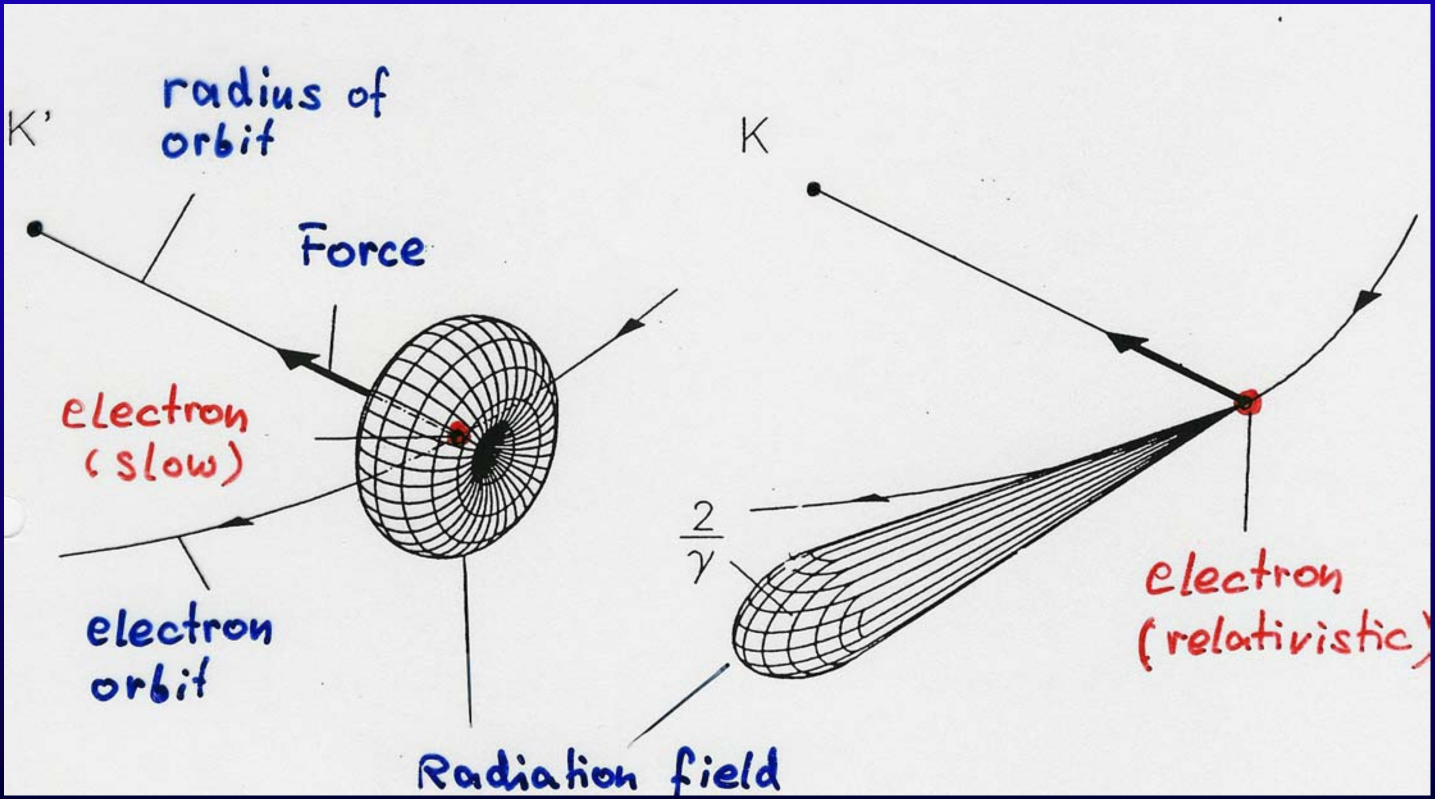


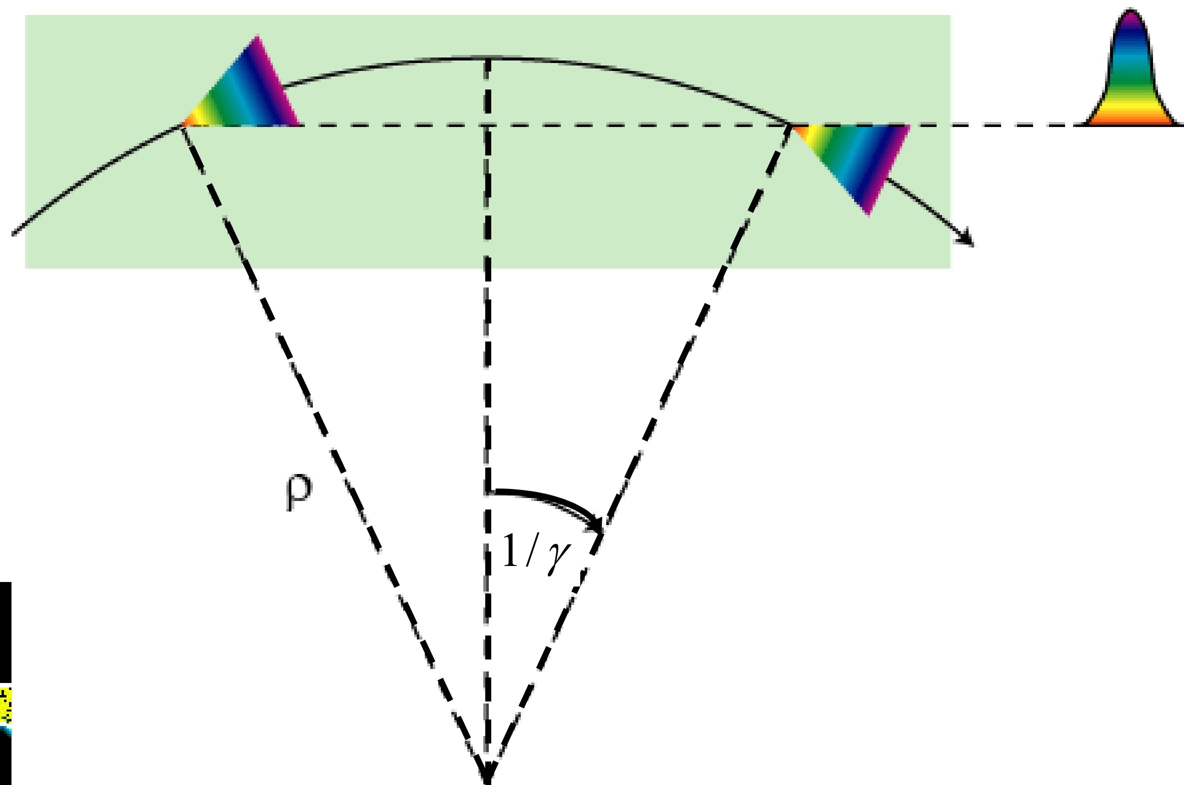




$$\theta = \frac{1}{\gamma} \cdot \theta_e$$

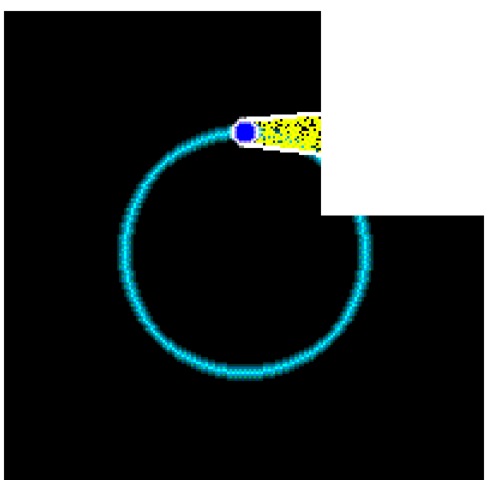
Radiation is emitted into a narrow cone





$$\frac{2\rho}{\gamma c}\cdot\frac{1}{2\gamma^{2}}$$

$$\Delta t \quad \gamma^{3}\omega_{0}$$



Typical frequency of synchrotron light

Due to extreme collimation of light

• observer sees only a small portion of electron trajectory **(a few mm)**

$$l \sim \frac{2\rho}{\gamma}$$

• Pulse length: difference in times it takes an electron and a photon to cover this distance

$$\Delta t \sim \frac{l}{\beta c} - \frac{l}{c} = \frac{l}{\beta c}(1-\beta)$$

Synchrotron radiation power

Power emitted is proportional to:

$$\boldsymbol{P \propto E^2 B^2}$$

$$P_{SR} = \frac{c C_\gamma}{2\pi} \cdot \frac{E^4}{\rho^2}$$

$$P_{SR} = \frac{2}{3} \alpha \hbar c^2 \frac{\gamma^4}{\rho^2}$$

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

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{137}$$

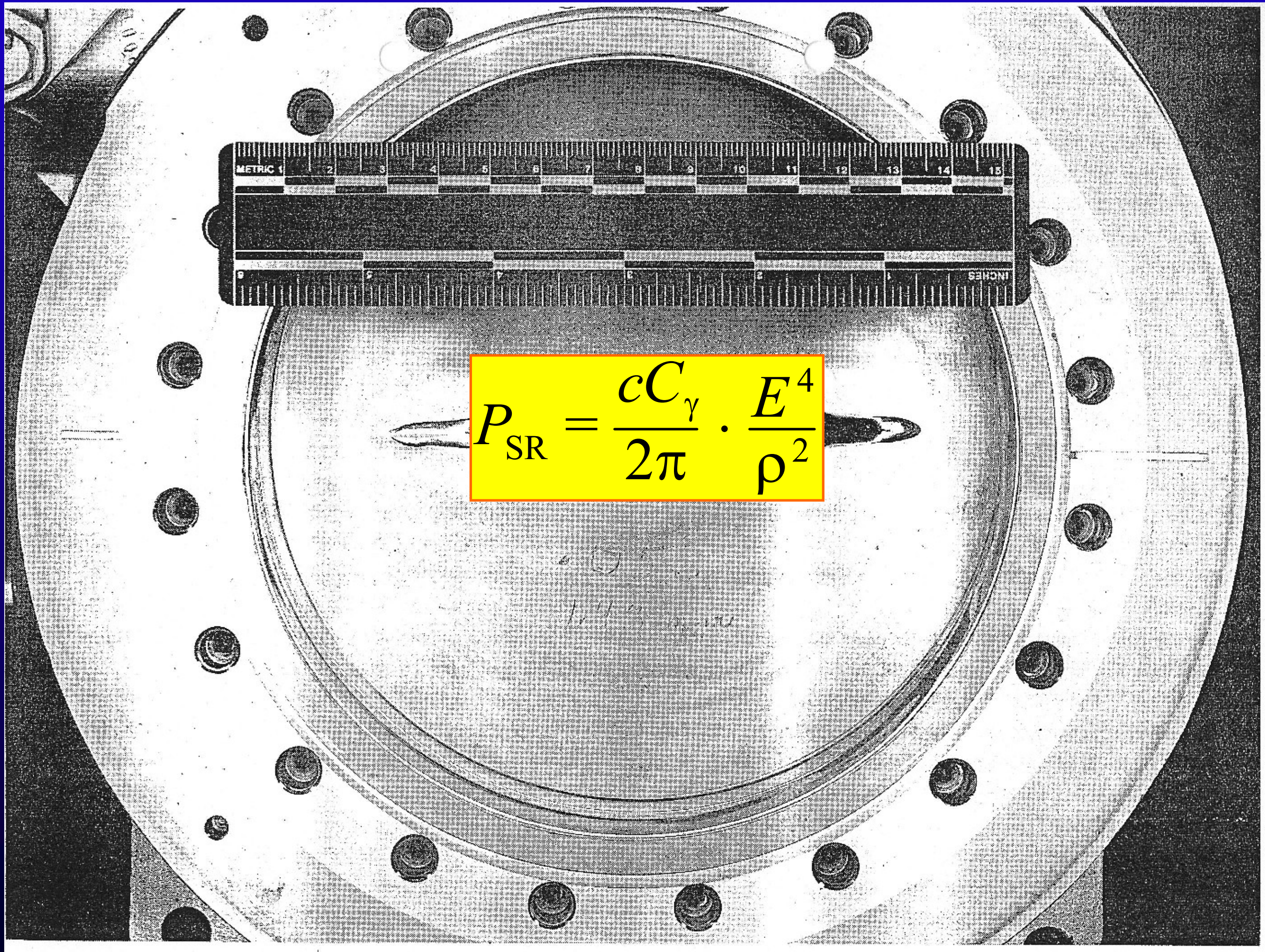
$$\hbar c = 197\ \mathrm{Mev} \cdot \mathrm{fm}$$

Energy loss per turn:

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

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

The power is all too real!

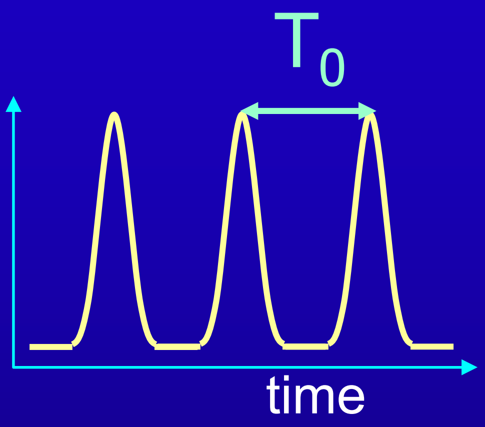


$$P_{SR} = \frac{cC_\gamma}{2\pi} \cdot \frac{E^4}{\rho^2}$$

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.

Spectrum of synchrotron radiation

- Synchrotron light comes in a series of flashes every T_0 (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

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

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

- At high frequencies the individual harmonics overlap

continuous spectrum !

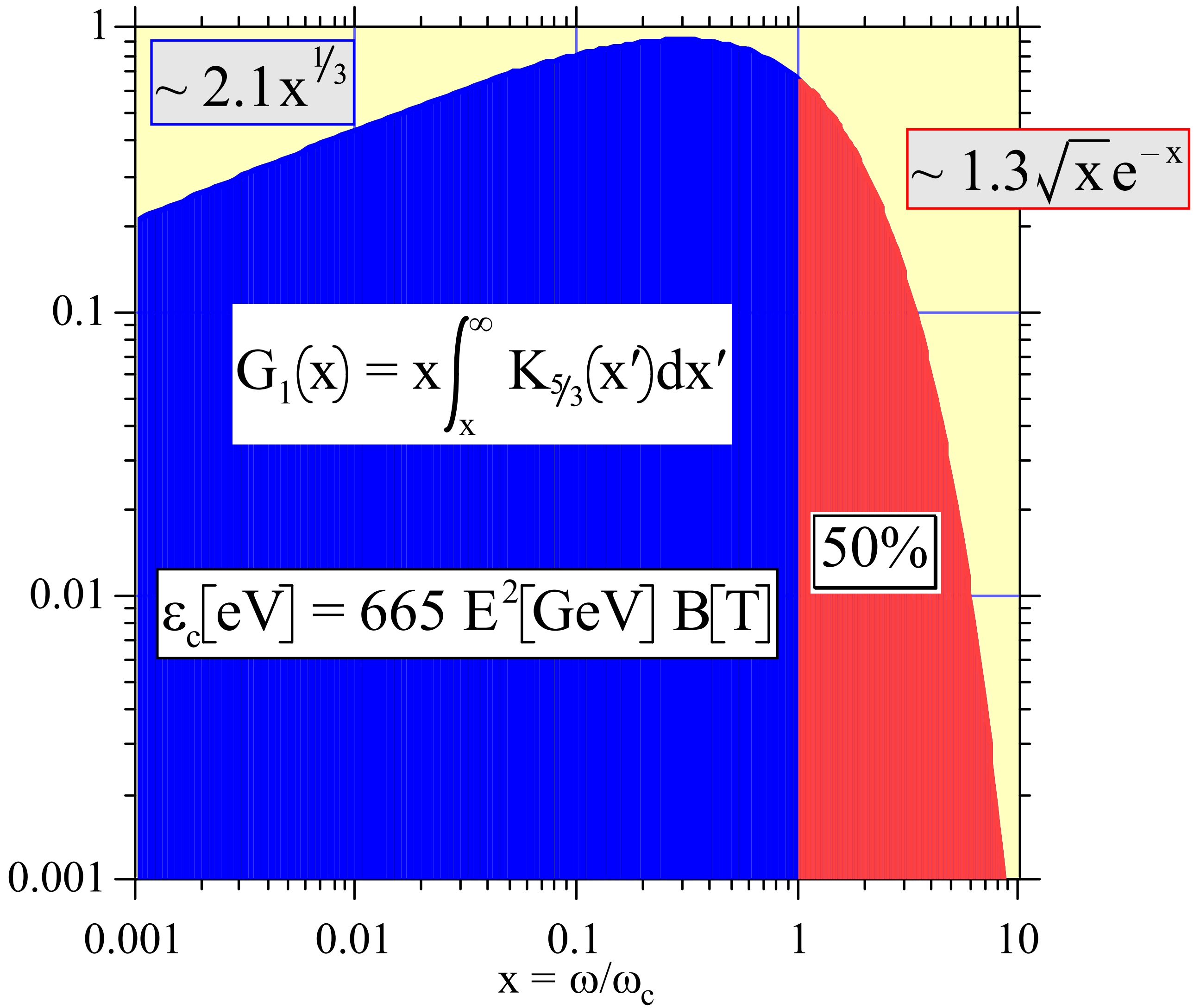
$$\frac{dP}{d\omega} = \frac{P_{tot}}{\omega_c} S\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_c}\right)$$

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

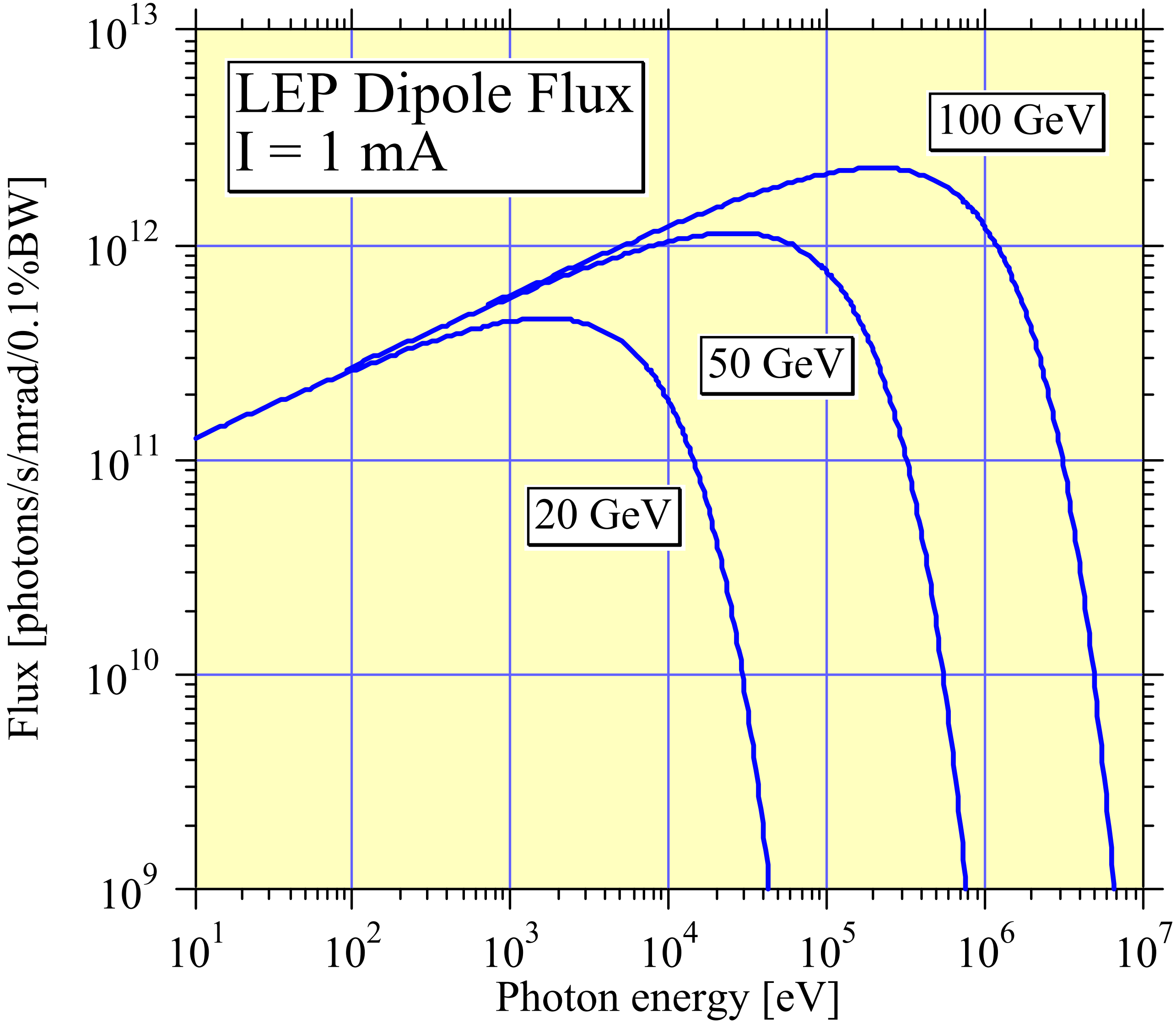
$$\int_0^\infty S(x')dx' = 1$$

$$P_{tot} = \frac{2}{3} \hbar c^2 \alpha \frac{\gamma^4}{\rho^2}$$

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



Synchrotron radiation flux for different LEP energies



Flux from a dipole magnet:

$$\mathrm{Flux}\left[\frac{\mathrm{photons}}{\mathrm{s \cdot mrad \cdot 0.1\%BW}}\right] = 2.46 \cdot 10^{13} \mathrm{E[GeV]}\ \mathrm{I[A]}\ \mathrm{G_1(x)}$$

Power density at the peak:

$$\frac{P_{tot}}{\omega_c} = \frac{4}{9}\alpha \hbar c \frac{\gamma}{\rho}$$

Angular divergence of radiation

The rms opening angle R'

- **at the critical frequency:**

$$\omega = \omega_c \qquad R' \approx \frac{0.54}{\gamma}$$

- **well below**

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

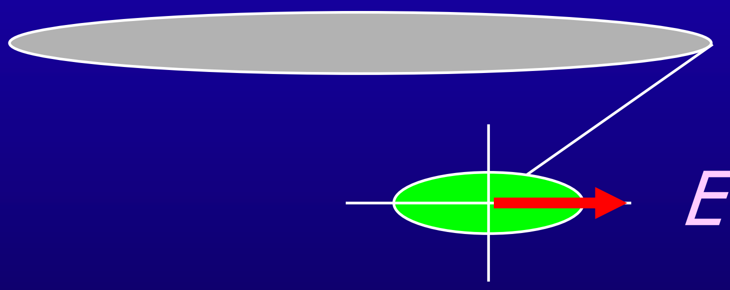
independent of γ !

- **well above**

$$\omega \gg \omega_c \qquad R' \approx \frac{0.6}{\gamma}\left(\frac{\omega_c}{\omega}\right)^{1/2}$$

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 elliptically polarized