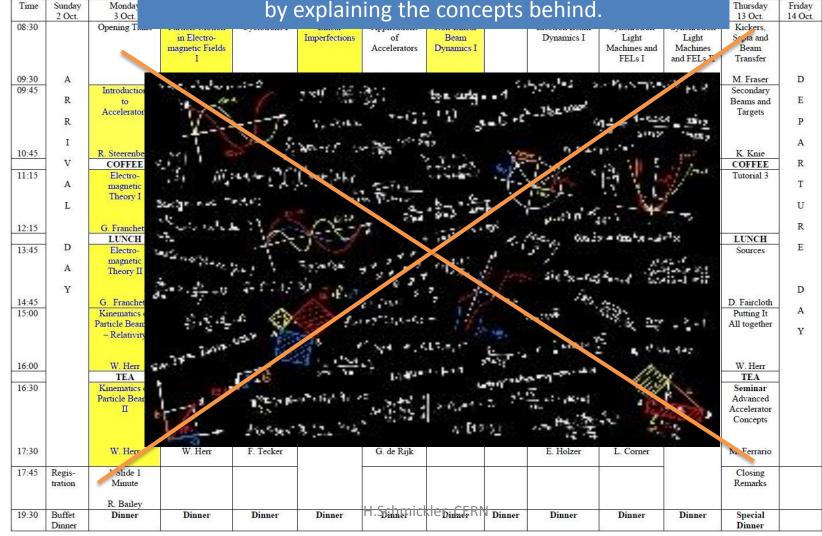






16 hours of compact lectures summarized in 2 hours.

Only possible by leaving out most of the mathematics and by explaining the concepts behind.







Basics:

- Lorentz-Force, Maxwell's Equations
- Phenomenology of Special relativity, formulae for relativistic beams
- simple examples of E-fields and B-fields, multipole expansion of B-fields

Linear Optics:

- Hamiltonian formalism→ derivative of Hill's equation from Hamiltonian Hamiltonian in different Coordinate Systems, weak focusing
- linear optics: motion of single particle in a lattice, phase space plots
 - trajectory, closed orbit, dispersion, weak focusing
 - strong focusing, tune, chromaticity
 - linear Imperfections, down-feed, coupling
- "A taste" of non-linear dynamics

Liouville's Theorem:

- Definition of emittance
- emittance preservation in conservative systems
- filamentation due to non-linearities

Phenomenology of Collective Effects:

- Space Charge
- Touschek and Intrabeam Scattering
- Wakefields

Slides partially or fully taken from the lecturers in Budapest:

S. Sheehy

W. Herr

B. Holzer

G. Franchetti

A. Wolski

R. Tomas

F. Tecker

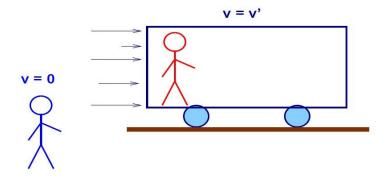
V. Kain (Erice 2017)



Relativity: historical background



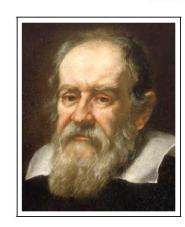
Assume a frame at rest (S) and another frame (S') moving in x-direction with velocity $\vec{v} = (v', 0, 0)$



Galilei transformation

Galilei transformation between observers in the rest frame and in a moving frame describes well classical mechanics:

→ Severe problems with electrodynamics (end 19th century)



$$x' = x - v_x t$$

$$y' = y$$

$$z' = z$$

$$t' = t$$

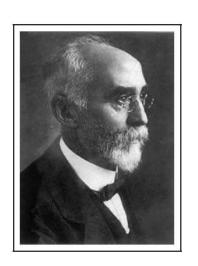
Galilei transformations relate observations in two frames moving relative to each other (here with constant velocity v_x in x-direction).

Only the position is changing with time





Lorentz transformation



$$x' = \frac{x - vt}{\sqrt{(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2})}} = \gamma \cdot (x - vt)$$

$$y' = y$$

$$z' = z$$

$$t' = \frac{t - \frac{v \cdot x}{c^2}}{\sqrt{(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2})}} = \gamma \cdot (t - \frac{v \cdot x}{c^2})$$

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{dt}{dt} dt = \frac{v}{\sqrt{(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2})}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(1 - \beta_r^2)}}$$

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{dt}{dt} dt = \frac{v}{\sqrt{(1 - \beta_r^2)}}$$

Definition of relativistic factors

$$\beta_r = \frac{v}{c}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2})}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(1 - \beta_r^2)}}$$

Transformation for constant velocity v along x-axis Time is now also transformed

Note: for $v \ll c$ it reduces to a Galilei transformation!

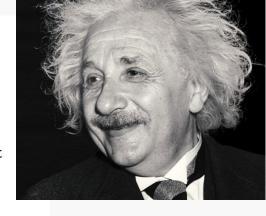
It seems, in the beginning Lorentz did not believe in this description...but Einstein did....



Proper Length and Proper Time

Time and distances are relative:

- ightharpoonup au is a fundamental time: proper time au
- The time measured by an observer in the frame of the event
- From frames moving <u>relative</u> to it, time appears longer



- $\triangleright \mathcal{L}$ is a fundamental length: proper length \mathcal{L}
- The length measured by an observer in the frame of the event
- From frames moving relative to it, it appears shorter

Accelerator related examples:

muon lifetime: in its restframe the muon decays in about $2 \cdot 10^{-6}$ s

we measure a lifetime γ times longer

Relativistic electron with 1 GeV/c momentum ($\beta = 0.99999987$):

bunchlength in lab-frame: σ_z \rightarrow in rest frame of electron: $\gamma \sigma_z$

length of an object (magnet, distance between magnets)

lab frame: L $\rightarrow L/_{\gamma}$ in frame of electron







Conservation of transverse momentum

 \rightarrow A moving object in its frame S' has a mass m' = m/γ

Or
$$m=\gamma m_0=\frac{m_0}{\sqrt{1-(\frac{v}{c})^2}}\cong m_0+\frac{1}{2}m_0v^2(\frac{1}{c^2})$$
 (approximation for small v)

Multiplied by c^2 :

$$mc^2 \cong m_0c^2 + \frac{1}{2}m_0v^2 = m_0c^2 + T$$

Interpretation:

 \rightarrow Total energy E is $E = m \cdot c^2$

→ For small velocities the total energy is the sum of the kinetic energy plus the rest energy

 \rightarrow Particle at rest has rest energy $E_0 = m_0 \cdot c^2$

ightarrow Always true (Einstein) $E=m\cdot c^2=\gamma m_0\cdot c^2$



Relativistic momentum $p = mv = \gamma m_0 v = \gamma m_0 \beta c$



From page before (squared):

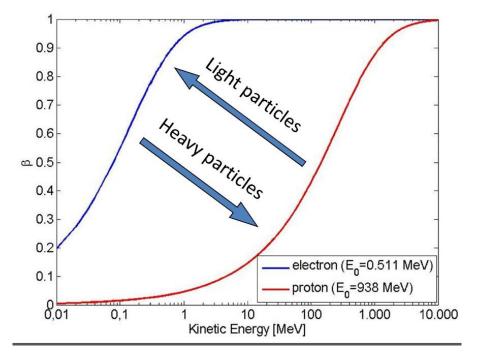
$$E^{2} = m^{2}c^{4} = \gamma^{2}m_{0}^{2}c^{4} = (\frac{1}{1-\beta^{2}})m_{0}^{2}c^{4} = (\frac{1-\beta^{2}+\beta^{2}}{1-\beta^{2}})m_{0}^{2}c^{4} = (1+\gamma^{2}\beta^{2})m_{0}^{2}c^{4}$$

$$E^{2} = (m_{0}c^{2})^{2} + (pc)^{2} \qquad \qquad \boxed{\frac{E}{c} = \sqrt{(m_{0}c)^{2} + p^{2}}}$$

Or by introducing new units [E] = eV; [p] = eV/c; $[m] = eV/c^2$

$$E^2 = m_0^2 + p^2$$

Due to the small rest mass electrons reach already the speed of light with relatively low kinetic energy, but protons only in the GeV range







CERN

Collect the formulae: useful kinematic relations

	ср	T	${f E}$	γ
$\beta =$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{(\frac{E_0}{cp})^2+1}}$	$\sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{(1 + \frac{T}{E_0})^2}}$	$\sqrt{1-\left(\frac{E_0}{E}\right)^2}$	$\sqrt{1-\gamma^{-2}}$
cp =	cp	$\sqrt{T(2E_{\rm o}+T)}$	$\sqrt{E^2 - E_0^2}$	$E_0\sqrt{\gamma^2-1}$
$E_{\rm o} =$	$\frac{cp}{\sqrt{\gamma^2-1}}$	$T/(\gamma-1)$	$\sqrt{E^2 - c^2 p^2}$	E/γ
T =	$cp\sqrt{\frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma+1}}$	${f T}$	$E-E_{\rm o}$	$E_{\rm o}(\gamma-1)$
$\gamma =$	$cp/E_{ m o}eta$	$1+T/E_{\rm o}$	$E/E_{\rm o}$	γ

Kinematic relations - logarithmic derivatives

	$\frac{d\beta}{\beta}$	$\frac{dp}{p}$	$\frac{dT}{T}$	$\frac{dE}{E} = \frac{d\gamma}{\gamma}$
$\frac{d\beta}{\beta} =$	$\frac{d\beta}{\beta}$	$\frac{1}{\gamma^2} \frac{dp}{p}$	$\frac{1}{\gamma(\gamma+1)}\frac{dT}{T}$	$\frac{1}{(\beta\gamma)^2} \frac{d\gamma}{\gamma}$
$\frac{dp}{p} =$	$\gamma^2 \frac{d\beta}{\beta}$	$\frac{dp}{p}$	$[\gamma/(\gamma+1)]\frac{dT}{T}$	$\frac{1}{\beta^2} \frac{d\gamma}{\gamma}$
$\frac{dT}{T} =$	$\gamma(\gamma+1)\frac{d\beta}{\beta}$	$(1+\frac{1}{\gamma})\frac{dp}{p}$	$\frac{dT}{T}$	$\frac{\gamma}{(\gamma-1)} \frac{d\gamma}{\gamma}$
$\frac{dE}{E} =$	$(\beta\gamma)^2 \frac{d\beta}{\beta}$	$\beta^2 \frac{dp}{p}$	$(1-\frac{1}{\gamma})\frac{dT}{T}$	$\frac{d\gamma}{\gamma}$
$\frac{d\gamma}{\gamma} =$	$(\gamma^2 - 1) \frac{d\beta}{\beta}$	$\frac{dp}{p} - \frac{d\beta}{\beta}$	$(1-\frac{1}{\gamma})\frac{dT}{T}$	$\frac{d\gamma}{\gamma}$



Electromagnetic Fields and forces onto charged particles



- Described by Maxwell's equations and by the Lorentz-force
- Lots of mathematics, we will only "look" at the equations
- Only electric fields can transfer momentum to charged particles
 - \rightarrow EM cavities for acceleration \rightarrow F. Tecker
- Magnetic fields are used to bend or focus the trajectory of charged particles
 - → construction of different types of accelerator magnets
- Also electrostatic forces can bend and focus beams; but since the forces are small we often neglect this part

Integral form
$$\int_{S} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_{0}} \qquad \nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_{0}} \qquad typical velocity in high energy machines: \qquad v \approx c \approx 3*10^{8} \frac{m}{s}.$$

$$\int_{S} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A} = 0 \qquad \nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \qquad Example: \qquad Example: \qquad B = 1T \implies F = q * 3*10^{8} \frac{m}{s} * 1 \frac{Vs}{m^{2}} \qquad technical limit for el. field$$

$$\oint_{\Gamma} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_{0} \left(I + \epsilon_{0} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{S} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} \right) \qquad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_{0} \left(\vec{j} + \epsilon_{0} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \vec{E} \right) \qquad Example: \qquad Exam$$



But: for specific cases we also use electrostatic elements





quadrupole

Separators for electron and positron beams in the same vacuum chamber



We need real magnets in an accelerator...not any arbitrary shapes of magnetic fields, but nicely classified field types by making reference to a multipole expansion of magnetic fields:

In the usual notation:

$$B_{y} + iB_{x} = B_{ref} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (b_{n} + ia_{n}) \left(\frac{x + iy}{R_{ref}}\right)^{n-1}$$

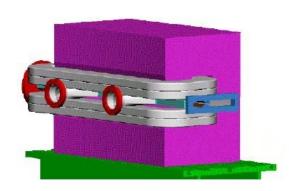
b_n are "normal multipole coefficients" (LEFT) and a_n are "skew multipole coefficients" (RIGHT) 'ref' means some reference value

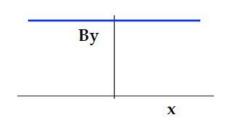
n=1, dipole field n=2, quadrupole field n=3, sextupole field

bn a_n n = 1n = 1n = 2n = 2n = 3

Images: A. Wolski, https://cds.cern.ch/record/1333874

Multipole Magnets





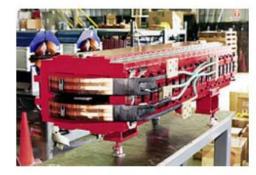


Image: Wikimedia commons



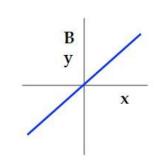
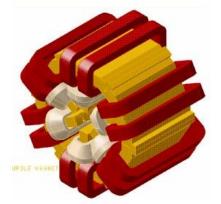




Image: STFC



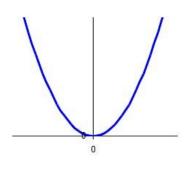




Image: Danfysik

Images: Ted Wilson, JAI Course 2012



Back to relativity: transformation of fields into a moving frame



Use Lorentz transformation of $F^{\mu\nu}$ and write for components:

$$E'_{x} = E_{x}$$

$$E'_{y} = \gamma(E_{y} - v \cdot B_{z})$$

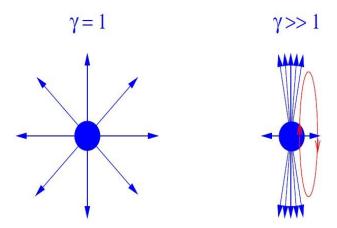
$$B'_{y} = \gamma(B_{y} + \frac{v}{c^{2}} \cdot E_{z})$$

$$E'_{z} = \gamma(E_{z} + v \cdot B_{y})$$

$$B'_{z} = \gamma(B_{z} - \frac{v}{c^{2}} \cdot E_{y})$$

Lecture of W. Herr

Example Coulomb field: (a charge moving with constant speed)



- In rest frame purely electrostatic forces
- ightharpoonup In moving frame $ec{E}$ transformed and $ec{B}$ appears



Transverse Beam Dynamics



??? high intensity beam described in 6D phase space??? No...

But:	Starting point: - Single particle in single magnetic element - complete decoupling of long., hor.& ver. motion - particle with nominal momentum	
	My first accelerator: - Single particle in many magnetic elements - circular structure: synchrotron - twiss parameters, orbit, tune	
	Off-momentum particle: - Dispersion - Momentum compaction - Chromaticitya taste of non-linearities	
	Finally a beam of many particles (not too many!) - emittance - Liouville's theorem - adiabatic damping and radiation damping	



Linear Optics – Hamiltonian (1/3)



A little reminder of classical mechanics:

- Take a set of "canonical conjugate variables" (q, p in a single one dimensional case)
- q is called the generalized coordinate and p the generalized momentum
- Construct a function H, which satisfies the dynamical equations of the system:

$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial t} = \dot{q} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p}$$
 and $\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = \dot{p} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q}$

- H "= the Hamiltonian " of the system is a constant of motion (= H does not explicitly depend on t).
- The Hamiltonian of a system is the total energy of the system: H = T +V (sum of potential and kinetic energy)

Proof:
$$\dot{H} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial H}{\partial x_{i}} \dot{x}_{i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_{i}} \dot{p}_{i}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial H}{\partial x_{i}} \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_{i}} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_{i}} \left(-\frac{\partial H}{\partial x_{i}} \right) = 0.$$

Used x instead of q just to test your attention



Linear Optics – Hamiltonian (2/3)



This leads immediately to the question:

What are canonically conjugate variables?

* Complete answer: Lecture of W.Herr later this course

Short answer:

Several combinations are possible, the most relevant for us are

- x (space) and p (momentum)
- E (energy) and t (time).

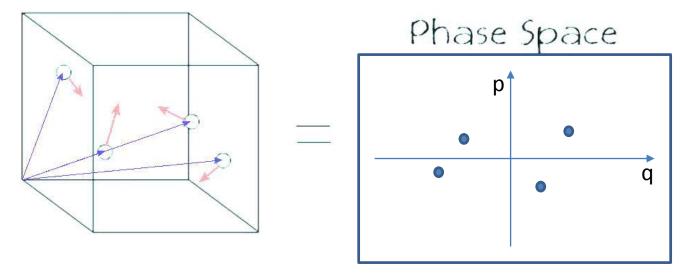
We can learn most of the physics, when we construct quantities from these canonical variables, which are constants of motion (energy, action...)

- * Hint to a more complete answer:
- Describe the particle motion by a Lagrange function of generalized coordinates and generalized velocities and time.
 - define an action variable and assume that nature is made such that the action between any two points of particle motion is stationary
- This is fulfilled for Lagrange functions satisfying the Euler-Lagrange equation
- And this leads finally to the definition of **generalized momenta** instead of **generalized velocities**, the definition of the Hamiltonian function and then to the two equations of motion as shown on the last slide.



Recall: what is the "action" variable; what is phase space





Define action "S":=
$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} p \ dq$$

"Stationary" action principle:= Nature chooses path from t_1 to t_2 such that the action integral is a minimum

Warning: We often use the term phase space for the 6N dimensional space defined by x, x' (space, angle), but this the "trace space" of the particles. At constant energy phase space and trace space have similar physical interpretation



Linear Optics – Hamiltonian (3/3)



Example: Mass-spring system

$$H = T + V = \frac{1}{2} k x^2 + \frac{p^2}{2m} = E$$

Hamiltonian formalism to obtain the equations of motion:

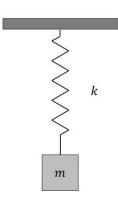
$$\frac{\delta x}{\delta t} = \dot{x} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p} = \frac{p}{m} \text{ or } p = m\dot{x} = mv$$

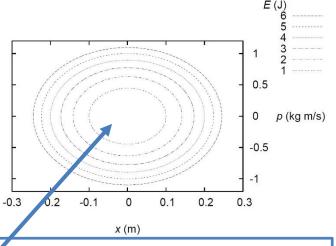
$$\frac{\delta p}{\delta t} = \dot{p} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial x} = -kx$$

We are used to start with the force equation:

$$F = ma = m\ddot{x} = -kx$$

With the well known sinusoidal solution for x(t).



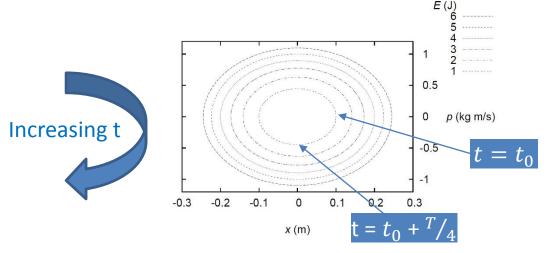


Instead we look at the trajectory of the system in a phase space. In this simple case the Hamiltonian itself is the equation of the ellipse.



A further look at phase-space plots





- The particle follows a in phase space a trajectory, which has an elliptic shape.
- In the example, the free parameter along the trajectory is time (we are used to express the space-coordinate and momentum as a function of time)
- This is fine for a linear one-dimensional pendulum, but it is not an adequate description for transverse particle motion in a circular accelerator
 - → we will choose soon "s", the path length along the particle trajectory as free parameter
- Any linear motion of the particle between two points in phase space can be written as a matrix transformation: $\binom{x}{x'}(s) = \binom{a}{c} \binom{x}{x'}(s_0)$
- In matrix annotation we define an action "J" as product J:= $\frac{1}{2} {x \choose x'} (s) {x \choose x'} (s_0)$.
- J is a motion invariant and describes an ellipse in phase space. The area of the ellipse is $2\pi J$



Particle Motion through accelerator components



Linear treatment: matrix multiplication

$$\binom{x}{x'}(s) = \binom{a}{c} \quad \binom{x}{d} \binom{x}{x'}(s_0)$$

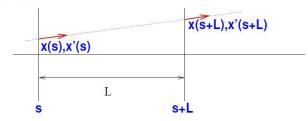
More general treatment: application of a map:

$$\binom{x}{x'}(s) = M \binom{x}{x'}(s_0)$$

- the map can be any function of x and x', but must not depend on the input parameters x (s_0) and x'(s_0);
- the map must be symplectic (→ more details: again W. Herr this course)
 (by the way: every matrix is a map, but not every map is a matrix)
- Following a particle through various elements is equivalent to multiplying the maps.

First (simple) case:

A drift space (one dimension only) of length L, starting at position s and ending at s+L



The simplest description (1D, using x, x') is (should be in 3D of course):

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ x' \end{pmatrix}_{s+L} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & L \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \circ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ x' \end{pmatrix}_{s} = \begin{pmatrix} x+x'\cdot L \\ x' \end{pmatrix}$$



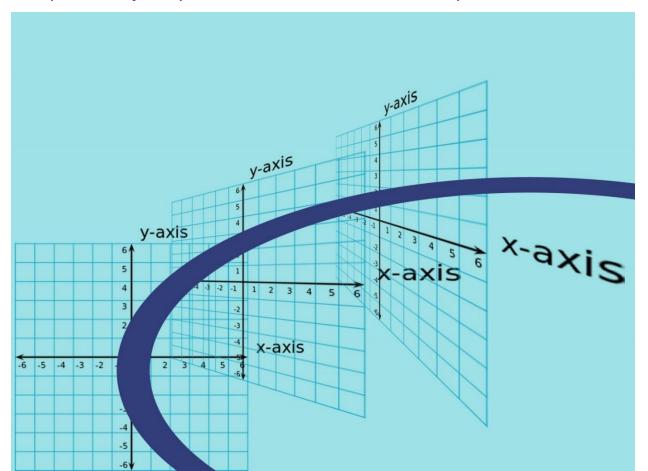
Back to the Hamiltonian for a moment:



So far we have been switching from time-dependent variables to s-dependent variables without paying attention to it:

In a linear 1 D motion this is a equivalent since s= vt

But if we want to describe motion transverse to a curved reference line, we must use "s" as independent variable. At every moment we have perpendicular to the tangent vector of the particle trajectory a transverse Cartesian coordinate system.



Hamiltonian for a (ultra relativistic, i.e. $\gamma \gg 1$, $\beta \approx 1$) particle in an electro-magnetic field is given by (any textbook on Electrodynamics):

$$H(\vec{x}, \vec{p}, t) = c \sqrt{(\vec{p} - e\vec{A}(\vec{x}, t))^2 + m_0^2 c^2} + e\Phi(\vec{x}, t)$$
 (ugly...)

where $\vec{A}(\vec{x},t)$, $\Phi(\vec{x},t)$ are the vector and scalar potentials (i.e. the V)

Using <u>canonical variables</u> (2D*) and the design path length s as independent variable (bending field B_0 in y-plane) and no electric fields:

$$H = -(1 + \frac{x}{\rho}) \cdot \sqrt{(1 + \delta)^2 - p_x^2 - p_y^2} + \frac{x}{\rho} + \frac{x^2}{2\rho^2} - \frac{A_s(x, y)}{B_0 \rho}$$

where $p = \sqrt{E^2/c^2 - m^2c^2}$ total momentum, $\delta = (p - p_0)/p_0$ is relative momentum deviation and $A_s(x,y)$ (normalized) longitudinal (along s) component of the vector potential.

*) Only transverse fields now, skipping several steps (see e.g. S. Sheehy, CAS Budapest 2016)..





Where are we now?

- we describe every element in the trajectory of a particle with the corresponding Hamiltonian.
- we describe the particle motion through an element by a matrix (map) multiplication onto its phase-space vector.
- we generate more complex accelerator configurations by multiplying the maps of the induvial elements.
- we have changed the coordinate system and describe now the trajectory of a particle as a function of "s" and not of "t".
- But: we are still treating single particles in a single passage through an accelerator component.

What comes next?

- We show that Hill's equations come naturally out of the Hamiltonian formalism
- We look at transverse focusing...in particular a FODO lattice
- We look again and again at phase space diagrams.

A first application - the simplest possible:

Keeping only the lower orders (focusing) and $\delta = 0$ we have:

$$H = \frac{p_x^2 + p_y^2}{2} - \frac{x^2}{2\rho^2(s)} + \frac{k_1(s)}{2}(x^2 - y^2)$$

Putting it into Hamilton's equations (for x, ditto for y):

$$\frac{\partial H}{\partial x} = -\frac{dp_x}{ds}$$

$$\frac{\partial H}{\partial p_x} = \frac{dx}{ds} = p_x$$

it follows immediately:

$$\frac{d^2x}{ds^2} + \left(\frac{1}{\rho(s)^2} - k_1(s)\right) x = 0 \qquad \qquad \frac{d^2y}{ds^2} + k_1(s) y = 0$$

Hill's equations are a direct consequence of Hamiltonian treatment of EM fields to lower orders





Hamiltonians of some machine elements (3D)

In general for multipole n:

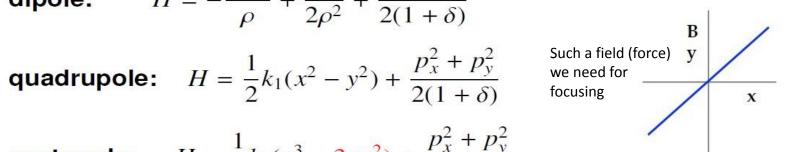
$$H_n = \frac{1}{1+n} \Re \left[(k_n + ik_n^{(s)})(x+iy)^{n+1} \right] + \frac{p_x^2 + p_y^2}{2(1+\delta)}$$

We get for some important types (normal components k_n only):

dipole:
$$H = -\frac{-x\delta}{\rho} + \frac{x^2}{2\rho^2} + \frac{p_x^2 + p_y^2}{2(1+\delta)}$$

quadrupole:
$$H = \frac{1}{2}k_1(x^2 - y^2) + \frac{p_x^2 + p_y^2}{2(1+\delta)}$$

sextupole:
$$H = \frac{1}{3}k_2(x^3 - 3xy^2) + \frac{p_x^2 + p_y^2}{2(1+\delta)}$$





Weak focusing from dipoles



dipole:
$$H = -\frac{-x\delta}{\rho} + \frac{x^2}{2\rho^2} + \frac{p_x^2 + p_y^2}{2(1+\delta)}$$

quadrupole: $H = \frac{1}{2}k_1(x^2 - y^2) + \frac{p_x^2 + p_y^2}{2(1+\delta)}$

quadrupole:
$$H = \frac{1}{2}(x_1^2 - y^2) + \frac{p_x^2 + p_y^2}{2(1+\delta)}$$

This means that we can construct a focusing circular accelerator based only on dipoles... in particular when p is small.

This has been done in the 1950's and it was called "a weak focusing synchrotron" For this evening (with a cold beer):

How about the vertical plane? There are no dipoles. Or why do the particles not fall down?

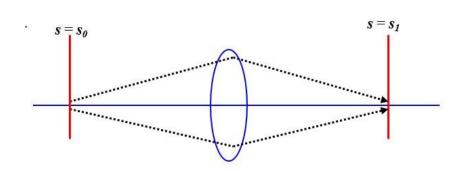




We need stronger focusing....quadrupoles



$$M_{foc} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\sqrt{|K|}s) & \frac{1}{\sqrt{|K|}}\sin(\sqrt{|K|}s) \\ -\sqrt{|K|}\sin(\sqrt{|K|}s) & \cos(\sqrt{|K|}s) \end{pmatrix}_{0}$$



$$f = \frac{1}{kl_q} >> l_q$$

 $f = \frac{1}{kl_a} >> l_q$... focal length of the lens is much bigger than the length of the magnet

limes: $l_q \rightarrow 0$ while keeping $k l_q = const$

$$M_x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{f} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

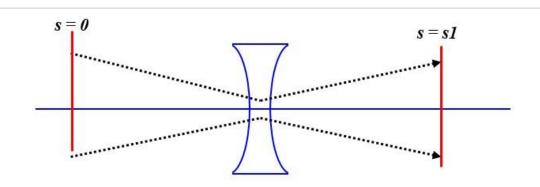
Negative = focusing



The negative sign in the Hamiltonian makes the same quadrupole defocusing the other plane.



$$M_{defoc} = \begin{pmatrix} \cosh \sqrt{|K|}l & \frac{1}{\sqrt{|K|}}\sinh \sqrt{|K|}l \\ \sqrt{|K|}\sinh \sqrt{|K|}l & \cosh \sqrt{|K|}l \end{pmatrix}$$



$$f = \frac{1}{kl_q} >> l_q$$
 ... focal length of the lens is much bigger than the length of the magnet

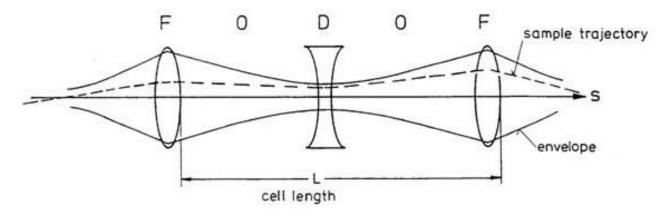
limes:
$$l_q \rightarrow 0$$
 while keeping $k l_q = const$

$$M_x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{f} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$





Consider an alternating sequence of focussing (F) and defocussing (D) quadrupoles separated by a drift (O)



The transfer matrix of the basic FODO cell reads

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{f} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{L}{2} \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{f} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{L}{2} \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \frac{L}{2f} & L \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \frac{L}{4f} \\ -\frac{L}{2f^2} & 1 - \frac{L}{2f} - \frac{L^2}{4f^2} \end{pmatrix}$$



Transfer Matrix in 6-D



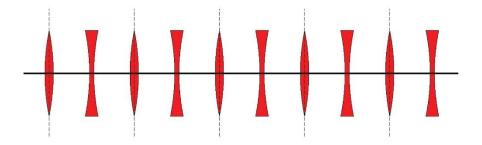
In order to calculate numbers one usually defines a FODO cell from the middle of the first F-quadrupole up to the middle of the last F-quadrupole.

Hence the resulting transfer matrix looks a little different:

$$M = M_Q(2f_0) \cdot M_D(L) \cdot M_Q(-f_0) \cdot M_D(L) \cdot M_Q(2f_0)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 - \frac{L^2}{2f_0^2} & \frac{L}{f_0}(L + 2f_0) & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{L}{4f_0^3}(L - 2f_0) & 1 - \frac{L^2}{2f_0^2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 - \frac{L^2}{2f_0^2} & -\frac{L}{f_0}(L - 2f_0) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{L}{4f_0^3}(L + 2f_0) & 1 - \frac{L^2}{2f_0^2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{2L}{\beta_0^2\gamma_0^2} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



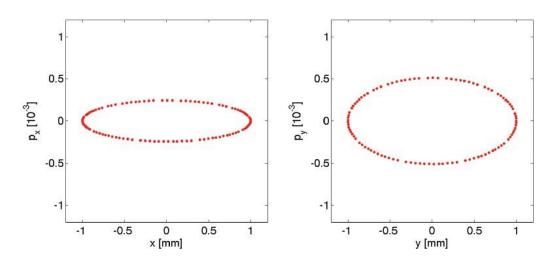




Let us consider the case $L=1\,\mathrm{m},\ f_0=\sqrt{2}\,\mathrm{m}.$ Take a particle with initial coordinates at the start of a FODO cell:

$$x = 1 \,\text{mm}, \quad p_x = 0, \quad y = 1 \,\text{mm}, \quad p_y = 0$$

Now track the particle through 100 FODO cells by applying the transfer matrix to the vector constructed from the coordinates, and plot p_x vs x, and p_y vs y:

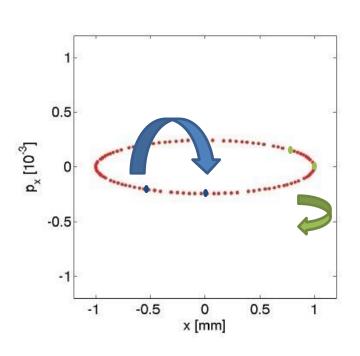


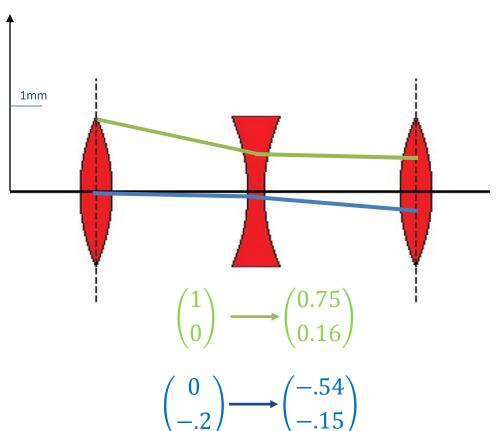
H.Schmickler, CERN



More details on the Illustrating Example





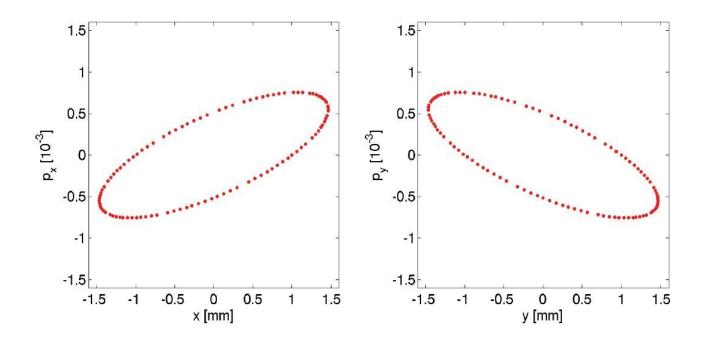


$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -.2 \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -.54 \\ -.15 \end{pmatrix}$$





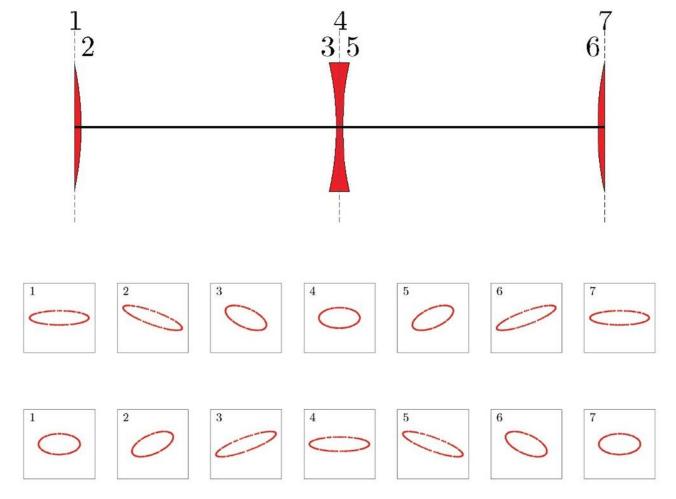
What happens if we repeat the exercise, but starting the FODO cell at the center of the drift before the (horizontally) defocusing quadrupole? Again, we plot ellipses, but this time, they are tilted:







Evolution of the Phase Space Ellipse in a FODO Cell



H.Schmickler, CERN



Our first synchrotron



The previous example of 100 consecutive FODO cells describes very well a regular transport line or a linac (in which we have switched off the cavities).

If we add dipoles into the driftspaces, the situation for the transverse particle motion does not change (neglecting the weak focusing part).

So actually with the previous description we also describe a very simple regular synchrotron.

The phase space ellipse we can compute provided we know the total transfer map (matrix) M_{tot} :

$$J = \frac{1}{2} {x \choose x'} (s_0) {x \choose x'} (s_0 + C) = \frac{1}{2} {x \choose x'} (s_0) \operatorname{Mtot} {x \choose x'} (s_0)$$

The phase space plots will look qualitatively the same as in the previous case.

Definition: trajectory (single passage) or closed orbit (multiple passages):

(1)

Fix point of the transfer matrix...in our cases so far the "0" centre of all ellipses.



Courant – Snyder formalism / Twiss parameters



- Same beam dynamics
- Introduced in the late 50's by
- The classical way to parametrize the evolution of the phase space ellipse along the accelerator

Basic concept of this formalism:

1) Write the transfer matrix in this form (2 dimensional case):

$$M = I \cos \mu + S \cdot A \sin \mu$$

$$I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}; \quad S = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma & \alpha \\ \alpha & \beta \end{pmatrix}$$

- 2) M must be symplectic $\rightarrow \beta \gamma \alpha^2 = 1$
- 3) Four parameters: $\alpha(s)$; $\beta(s)$; $\gamma(s)$ and $\mu(s)$, with one interrelation (2) \rightarrow Three independent variables
- 4) Again, the preserved action variable J describes an ellipse in phase-space:

$$J = \frac{1}{2} (\gamma x^2 + 2\alpha x p + \beta p^2)$$

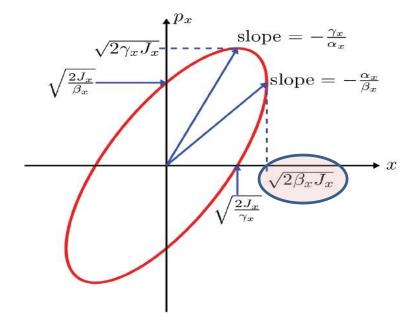


$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ x' \end{pmatrix}_{s} = M * \begin{pmatrix} x \\ x' \end{pmatrix}_{s0} M = \begin{pmatrix} C & S \\ C' & S' \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \beta \\ \alpha \\ \gamma \end{pmatrix}_{s} = \begin{pmatrix} C^{2} & -2SC & S^{2} \\ -CC' & SC' + CS' & -SS' \\ C'^{2} & -2S'C' & S'^{2} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{0} \\ \alpha_{0} \\ \gamma_{0} \end{pmatrix}$$

The Phase Space Ellipse

$$J_x = \frac{1}{2} \left(\gamma_x x^2 + 2\alpha_x x p_x + \beta_x p_x^2 \right) \qquad \text{Area} = 2\pi J_x$$



Example: Propagation of twiss parameters along s between two focusing quadrupoles



$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ x' \end{pmatrix}_{s} = M * \begin{pmatrix} x \\ x' \end{pmatrix}_{s0} M = \begin{pmatrix} C & S \\ C' & S' \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \beta \\ \alpha \\ \gamma \end{pmatrix}_{s} = \begin{pmatrix} C^{2} & -2SC & S^{2} \\ -CC' & SC' + CS' & -SS' \\ C'^{2} & -2S'C' & S'^{2} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{0} \\ \alpha_{0} \\ \gamma_{0} \end{pmatrix}$$

And in Matrix-Annotation:

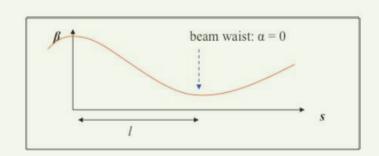
$$A_{S_0} = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma & \alpha \\ \alpha & \beta \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow A_S = M^T A_{S_0} M$$

$$\beta_s = C^2 \beta_0 - 2SC \alpha_0 + S^2 \gamma_0 = \beta_0 + s^2 / \beta_0$$

Example: Beta function between two strong focusing quadrupoles

Drift
$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & s \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A_{s_0} = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_0 & \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_0 & \beta_0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_0 & 0 \\ 0 & \beta_0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\beta_0 & 0 \\ 0 & \beta_0 \end{pmatrix}$$



Starting from waist
$$\alpha = 0$$
 Using: $\beta \gamma - \alpha^2 = 1$



$$A_{S} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ S & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1/\beta_{0} & 0 \\ 0 & \beta_{0} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & S \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\beta_{0} & S/\beta_{0} \\ S/\beta_{0} & \beta_{0} + S^{2}/\beta_{0} \end{pmatrix} \qquad \beta_{S} = \beta_{0} + S^{2}/\beta_{0}$$

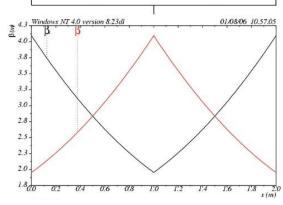
$$\beta_s = \beta_0 + s^2/\beta_0$$



Interpretation of the Twiss parameters (1/2)

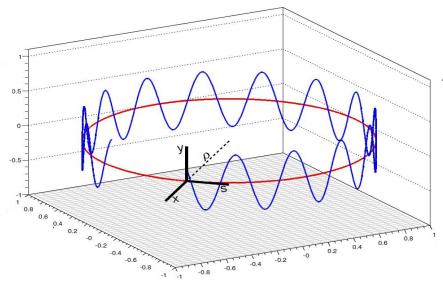


1) Horizontal and vertical beta function $\beta_{H,V}(s)$:

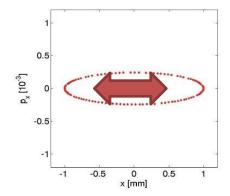


- Proportional to the square of the projection of the phase space ellipse onto the space coordinate
- Focusing quadrupole → low beta values

Although the shape of phase space changes along s, the rotation of the particle on the phase space ellipse projected onto the space co-ordinate looks like an harmonic oscillation with variable amplitude: called **BETATRON-Oscillation**



$$x(s) = const \cdot \sqrt{\beta(s)} \cdot cos\{\mu(s) + \varphi\}$$





Interpretation of the Twiss parameters (2/2)



$$2.) \qquad \alpha = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d\beta}{ds}$$

 α indicates the rate of change of β along s α zero at the extremes of beta (waist)

3.)
$$\mu = \int_{s1}^{s2} \frac{1}{\beta} \, ds$$

Phase Advance: Indication how much a particle rotates in phase space when advancing in s

Of particular importance: Phase advance around a complete turn of a circular accelerator, called the betatron tune Q (H,V) of this accelerator

$$Q_{H,V} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^C \frac{1}{\beta_{H,V}} ds$$



Importance of betatron tunes

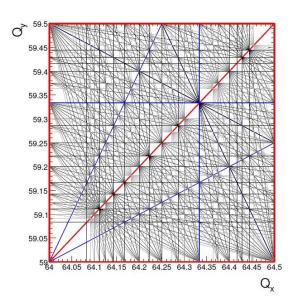


If we include vertical as well as horizontal motion, then we find that resonances occur when the tunes satisfy:

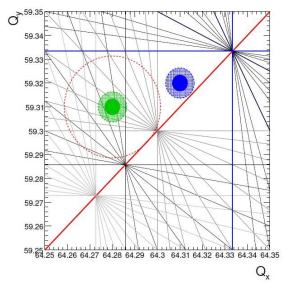
$$m_x \nu_x + m_y \nu_y = \ell,$$

where m_x , m_y and ℓ are integers.

The order of the resonance is $|m_x| + |m_y|$.



(a) Full tune diagram



(b) Zoom around LHC Q working points

Integer values of the betatron tunes or other multiple integer combination can lead to particle losses (resonances)

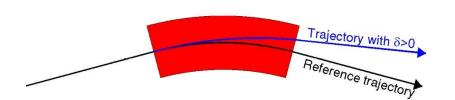
The tunes can be measured (see lecture of R.Jones) and are corrected by changing the strength of the quadrupoles.

The couple (Q_H, Q_V) is called the working point of the accelerator.



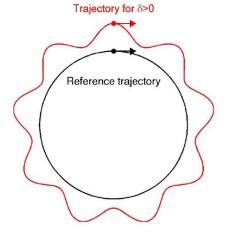
Slides on "off-momentum" particles in a synchrotron

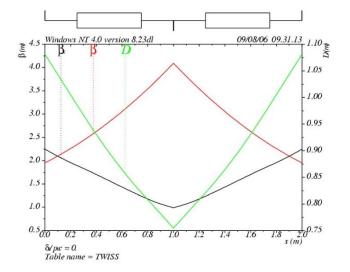




What happens: A particle with a momentum deviation $\delta = \frac{\delta p}{p} > 0$ gets bent less in a dipole.

- In a weakly focusing synchrotron it would just settle to another circular orbit with a bigger diameter
- In an alternate gradient synchrotron it is more complicated: The focusing/defocusing is also dependent on the momentum, so the resulting orbit follows the optics of the accelerator.



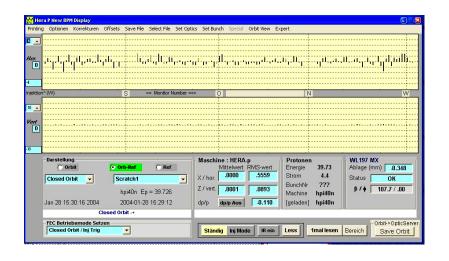


We describe the dispersion as a function of s as D(s); the resulting position of a particle is thus simply:

$$x_{\delta p} = x_0 + D(s) \frac{\delta p}{p}$$

Typical values of D(s) are some meters, with $\frac{\delta p}{p} = 10^{-3}$ the orbit deviation becomes millimeters

Measurement example



HERA Standard Orbit

This gives also an example of an orbit measurement.

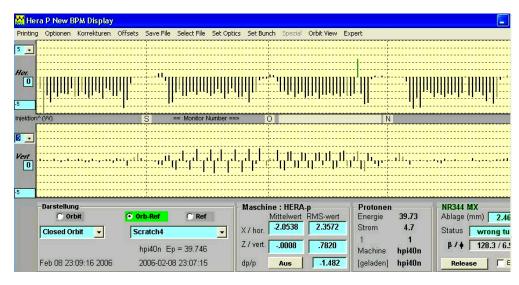
More on this: again R.Jones (BI)

dedicated energy change of the stored beam

→ closed orbit is moved to a dispersions trajectory

$$x_D = D(s) * \frac{\partial p}{p}$$

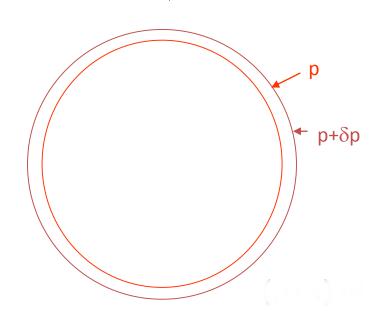
HERA Dispersion Orbit





Momentum compaction factor





If a particle is slightly shifted in momentum it will have a different orbit and the orbit length is different.

The "momentum compaction factor" is defined as:

$$\alpha_c = \frac{dL/_L}{dp/_p} \qquad \alpha_c = \frac{p}{L}\frac{dL}{dp}$$

$$\alpha_c = \frac{p}{L} \frac{dL}{dp}$$

$$\alpha_c = \frac{1}{L} \int_C \frac{D_x(s)}{\rho(s)} ds_0$$
 With $\rho = \infty$ in straight sections

we get:

$$\alpha_c = \frac{\langle D_x \rangle_m}{R}$$

<> means that the average is considered over the bending magnet only

Typical numbers:
$$\alpha_c \approx 10^{-3} ... 10^{-4}$$
; $^{\Delta p}/_p \approx 10^{-3} \rightarrow ^{\Delta L}/_L \approx 10^{-6} ... 10^{-7}$

→ Much more on this in long. dynamics (F. Tecker).



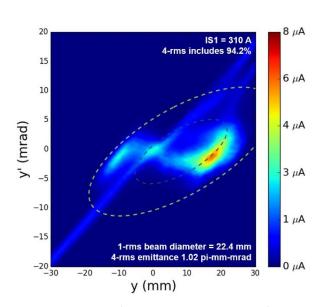


Finally: a beam

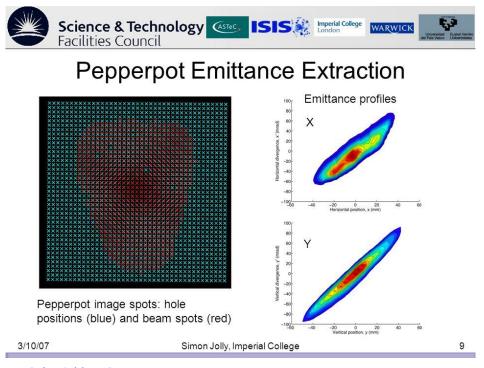


We focus on "bunched" beams, i.e. many (10 ¹¹) particles bunched together longitudinally (much more on this in the RF classes).

From the generation of the beams the particles have transversally a spread in their original position and momentum.



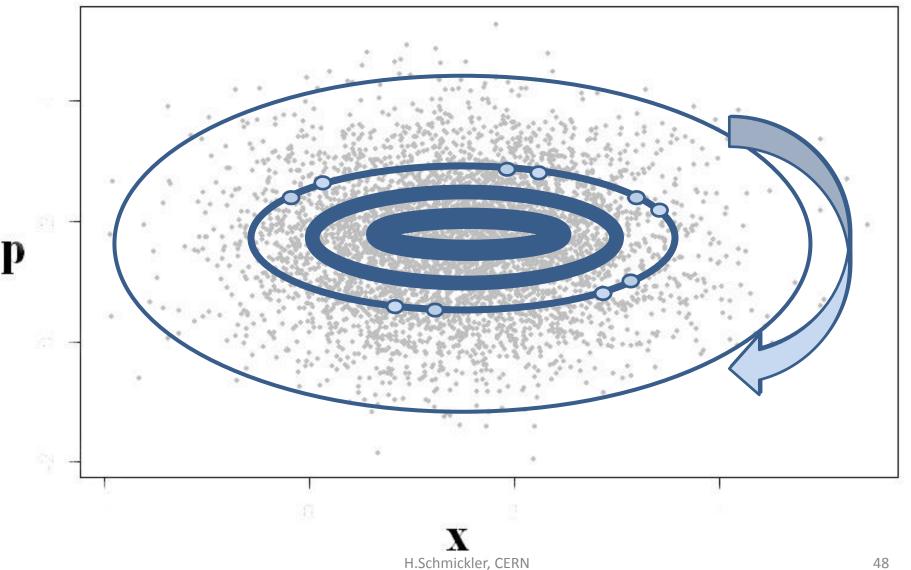
Source: ISODAR (Isotope at rest experiment)





Gaussian beam profile in x and p



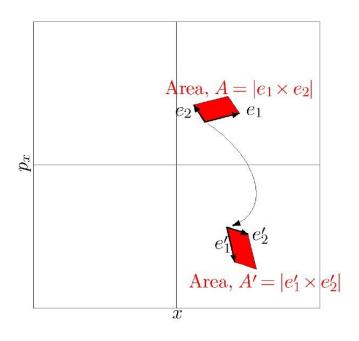




Liouville's Theorem (1/2)



- 1. All particle rotate in phase space with the same angular velocity (in the linear case)
- 2. All particle advance on **their** ellipse of constant action
- All constant action ellipses transform the same way by advancing in "s"



Physically, a symplectic transfer map conserves phase space volumes when the map is applied.

This is Liouville's theorem, and is a property of charged particles moving in electromagnetic fields, in the absence of radiation.

→ Since volumes in phase space are preserved, (1)-(3) means That the whole beam phase space density distribution transforms the same way as the individual constant action ellipses of individual particles.



Liouville's Theorem (2/2)



We now define the emittance of a beam as the average action of all particles!

- \rightarrow Since the action J of a particle is constant and the phase space area A covered by the action ellipse is $A=2\pi J$, we can represent the whole beam in phase space by an ellipse with a surface = $2\pi\langle J\rangle$ *
- → all equations for the propagation of the phase space ellipse apply equally for the whole beam

!!! In case we talk about a single particle, the ellipse we draw is "empty" and any particle moves from one point to another; if we consider a beam, the ellipse is full of particles!!!

- There are several different definitions of the emittance ε , also different normalization factors. This depends on the accelerator type, but the above definition describes best the physics.
 - Another often used definition is called RMS emittance $\varepsilon = const * \langle x^2 \rangle \langle p^2 \rangle \langle xp \rangle^2 \quad \text{or} \quad \varepsilon = const * \langle x^2 \rangle \langle x'^2 \rangle \langle xx' \rangle^2$ attention: the first definition describes well the physics, the second describes what we eventually can measure



Remarks



- We have already identified the action as a preserved quantity in a conservative system ← →
 the emittance of a particle beam is preserved in a conservative beam line.
- 2. The sentence above is often quoted as Liouville's theorem, but this is incorrect. Liouville's theorem describes the preservation of phase space volumes, the preservation of the phase space of a beam is then just results from the Hamiltonian description.
- 3. We can identify the constant in the previous equation:

$$x(s) = \sqrt{\varepsilon} \cdot \sqrt{\beta(s)} \cdot cos\{\mu(s) + \varphi\}$$



More on beam emittance



The reference momentum increases during acceleration

So the transverse emittances scale with the product $\beta\gamma$

For this reason we define:

normalized emittance ε_N : = $\beta \gamma \varepsilon$ and we call ε the geometric emittance The "shrinking" of the transverse emittance during acceleration is called "adiabatic damping" (only $\varepsilon = const * (x^2)(x'^2) - (xx')^2$ scales with energy)

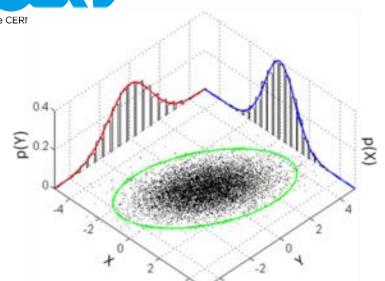
Other ways to influence the emittance (advanced subjects):

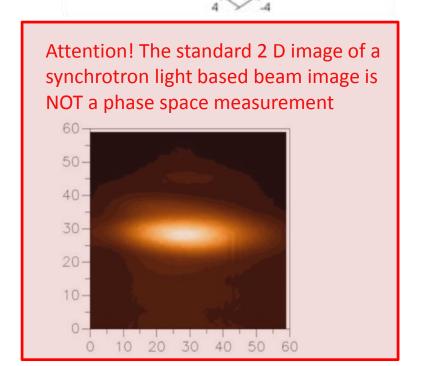
- make it bigger by error (injection errors....)
- make it smaller by cooling (stochastic cooling; electron-cooling....)

Not to be confused with:

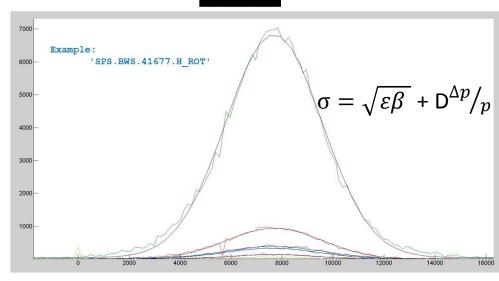
Radiation damping = Reduction in emittance due to the emission of photons as synchrotron radiation

What do we normally measure from the phase-space ellipse?





FITTING

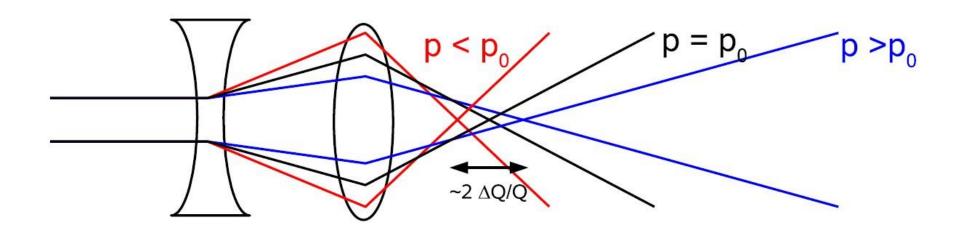




A first taste of non-linearities (1/6)



- So far we have completely neglected the longitudinal plane
- Still, we will not couple the motion in the longitudinal and transverse plane (advanced course), but we need to consider "off momentum particles" with a longitudinal momentum $\frac{\Delta p}{p_0} \neq 0$.
- We already defined the Dispersion function, which describes the change in orbit
- Now we look at what happens to the focusing in the quadrupoles:





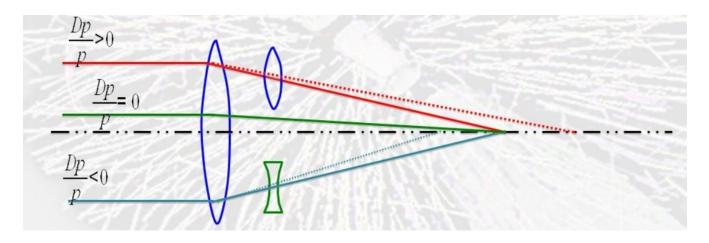
A first taste of non-linearities (2/6)



 Due to the change in focusing strength of the quadrupoles with varying momentum, particles have different betatron-tunes:

Definition: Chromaticity (H,V) := Dependence of tune on momentum $\Delta Q = Q' \frac{\Delta p}{p}$ or relative chromaticity $\xi = \frac{Q'}{Q}$

- Is this bad? : Yes, the working point gets a "working blob"
- We need to correct. How?
 - i) Inserting a magnetic element where we have dispersion (this separates in space particles with lower and higher momenta
 - ii) Having there a "quadrupole", for which the strength grows for larger distances from the centre: a sextupole





A first taste of non-linearities (3/6)



We will have a high price to pay for this chromaticity correction!

→ we have introduced the first non-linear element into our accelerator

The map M (no longer a matrix) of a single sextupole represents a "kick" in the transverse momentum:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ x' \end{pmatrix}_{s} = M * \begin{pmatrix} x \\ x' \end{pmatrix}_{s0}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
x & \mapsto & x, \\
p_x & \mapsto & p_x - \frac{1}{2}k_2Lx^2
\end{array}$$

We choose a fixed value $k_2L = -600 \text{ m}^{-2}$ and we construct phase space portraits after repeated application of the map.

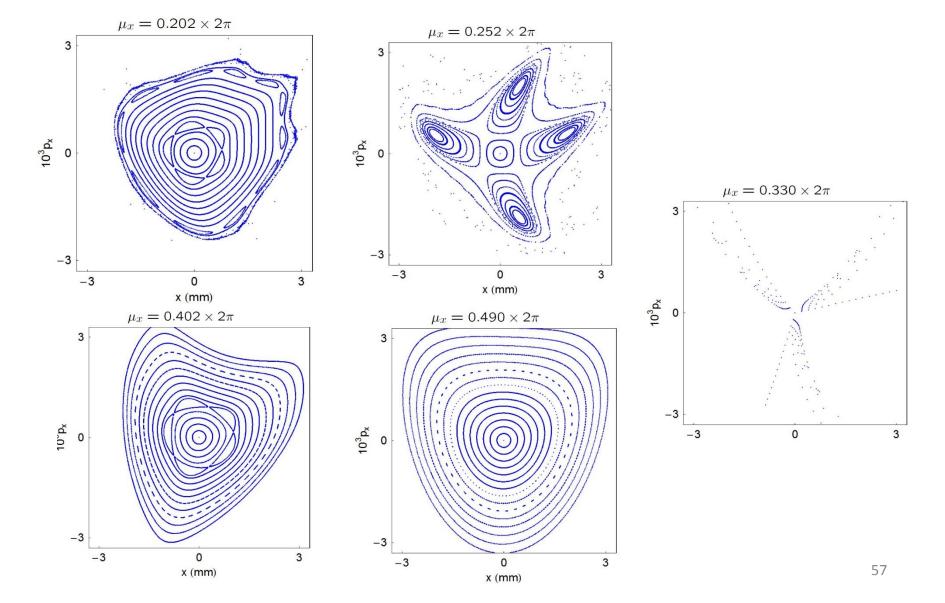
We vary the phase advance per turn (fractional part of the tune) from

$$0.2 \cdot 2\pi$$
 to $0.5 \cdot 2\pi$



A first taste of non-linearities (4/6)

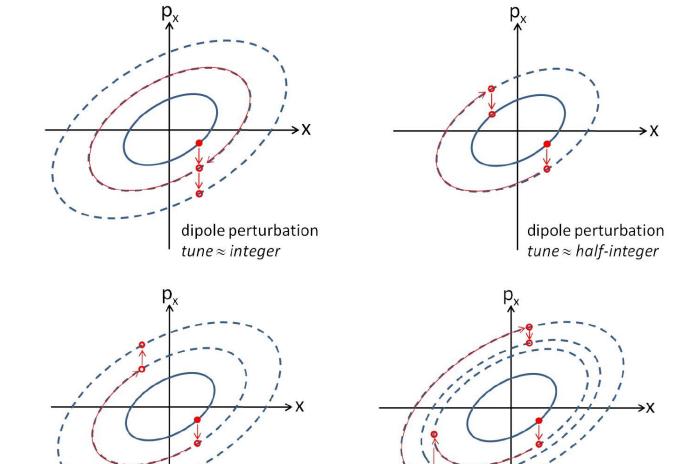






A first taste of non-linearities (6/6)





quadrupole perturbation

l tune ≈ half-integer

sextupole perturbation

I tune ≈ third-integer



Another useful example: Injection missteering



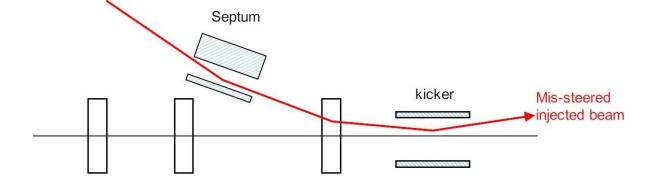
The emittance is the average action of all particles in the beam:

$$\varepsilon_x = \langle J_x \rangle$$

RMS emittance:

$$\varepsilon = \sqrt{|\sigma|} = \sqrt{\langle x^2 \rangle \langle x'^2 \rangle - \langle xx' \rangle^2}$$

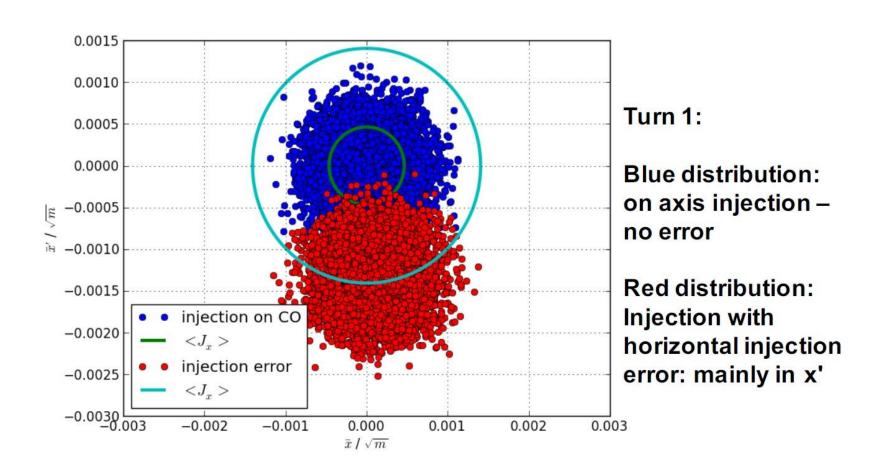
Example:



 Injection oscillations = if beam is not injected on the closed orbit, beam oscillates around closed orbit and eventually filaments (if not damped)

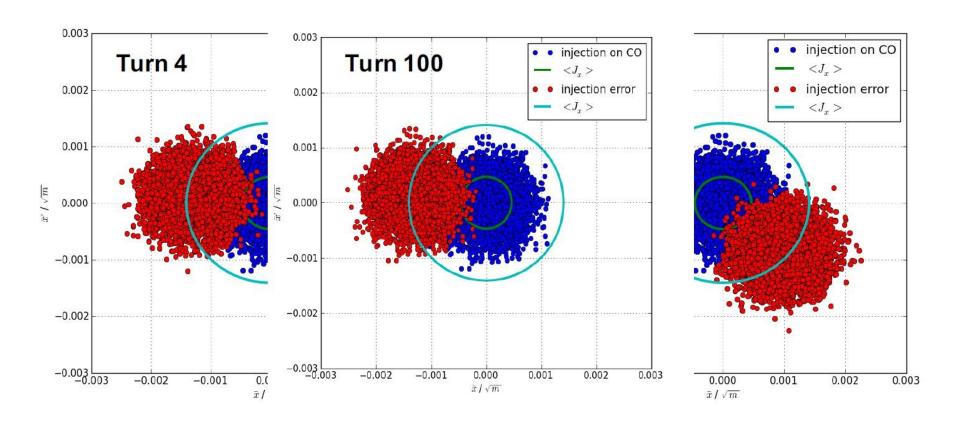
Steering error – linear machine

What will happen to particle distribution and hence emittance?



Steering error – linear machine

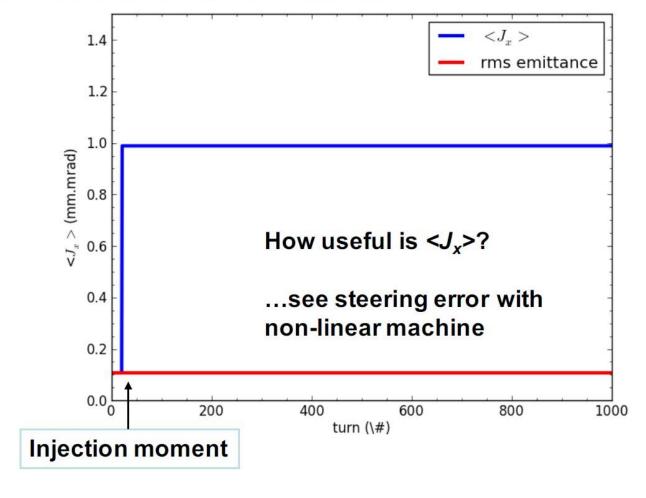
What will happen to particle distribution and hence emittance?



The beam will keep oscillating. The centroid will keep oscillating.

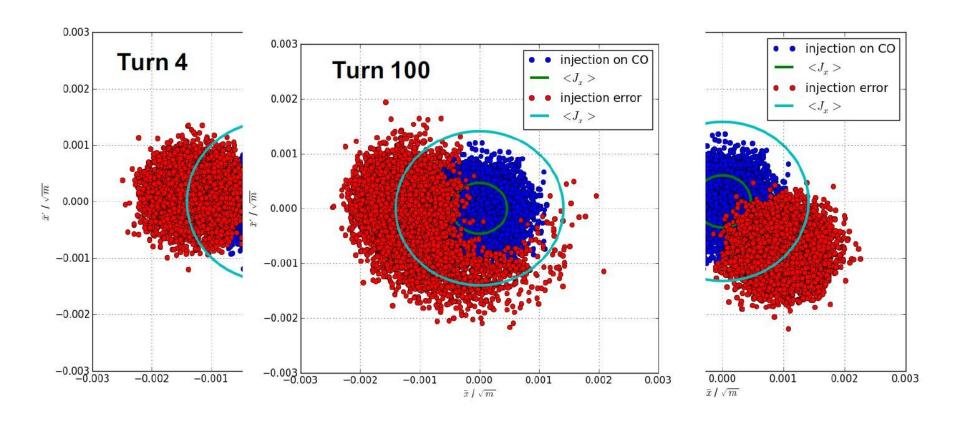
Steering error – linear machine

- How does $\langle J_{\chi} \rangle$ behave for steering error in linear machine?
- And what about the rms definition?



Steering error – non-linear machine

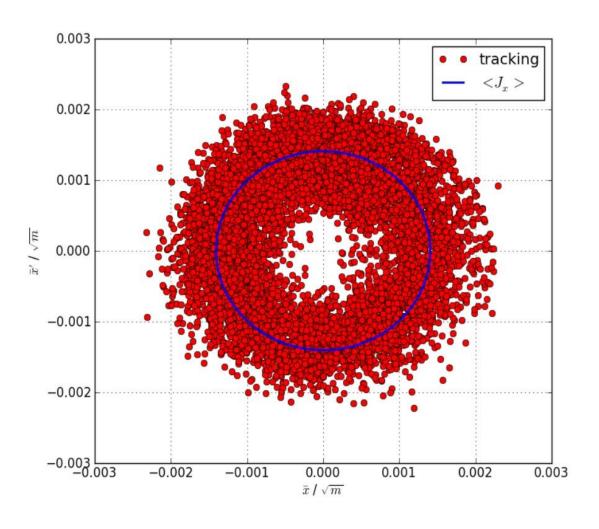
What will happen to particle distribution and hence emittance?



The beam is filamenting....

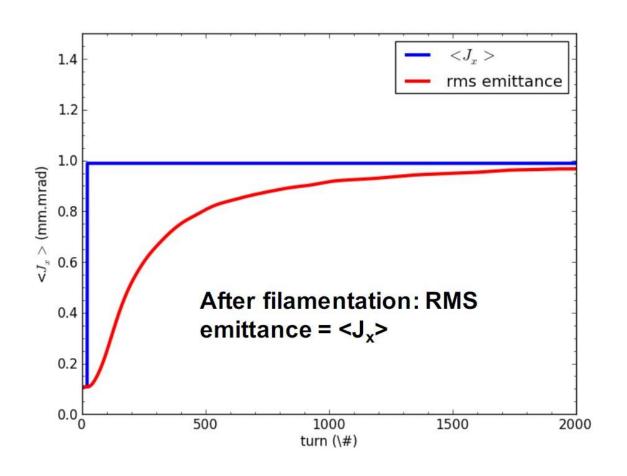
Steering error – non-linear machine

Phase-space after an even longer time



Steering error – non-linear machine

- How does $\langle J_{\chi} \rangle$ behave for steering error in non-linear machine?
- And what about the rms emittance





Linear Imperfections



- Up to now we have constructed an alternate –gradient focusing synchrotron
- We have a well chosen working point
- We have corrected chromaticity
- (We still cannot accelerate! → see F. Tecker (long. Dynamics)
- We assume:
 - All magnetic elements have the calculated field strength and field quality
 - All magnetic elements are in the right place and powered with the right polarity
- Reality tells us:
 - Magnets have field errors, have other multipole components, have time varying fields due to ripple in the connected power converter
 - Magnets are wrongly mounted with horizontal and/or vertical offsets, rotations or tilts
- These effects influence:
 - the beta functions and phase advance around the ring (implicitly the tunes)
 - the closed orbit
 - the coupling between horizontal and vertical motion

...

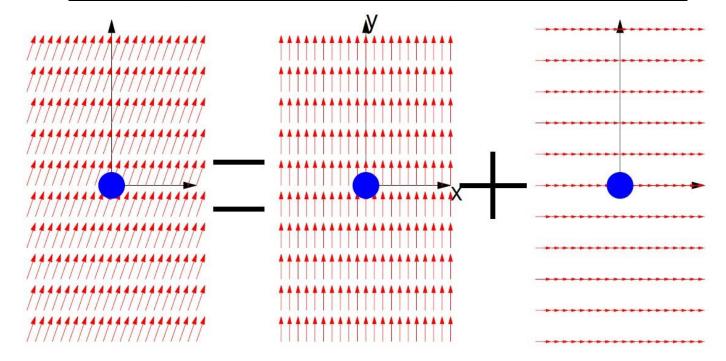
 We need to diagnose and correct: Strong interaction between beam measurements and corrections (see also R.Jones BDI talks)







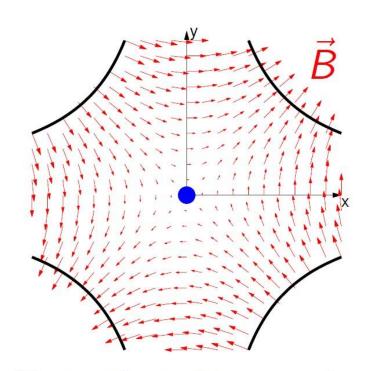
error	effect	correction
strength (k)	change in deflection	change excitation current, replace magnet
lateral shift	none	
tilt	additional vertical deflection	corrector dipole magnet

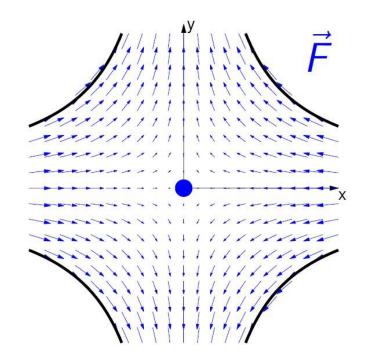




Quadrupole Errors (1/2)







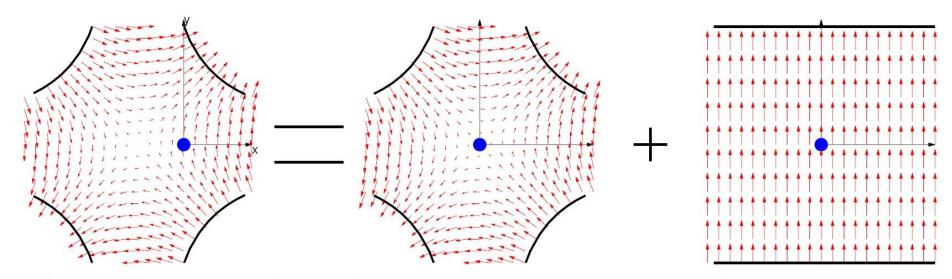
Note that $F_x = -kx$ and $F_y = ky$ making horizontal dynamics totally decoupled from vertical.







Error type	effect on beam	correction(s)
strength	Change in focusing,	Change excitation current,
	"beta-beating"	Repair/Replace magnet
Lateral shift	Extra dipole kick	Excitation of a corrector
		dipole magnet
tilt	Coupling of the beam	Excitation of a additional
	motion in the two planes	"skewed quadrupoles (45°)

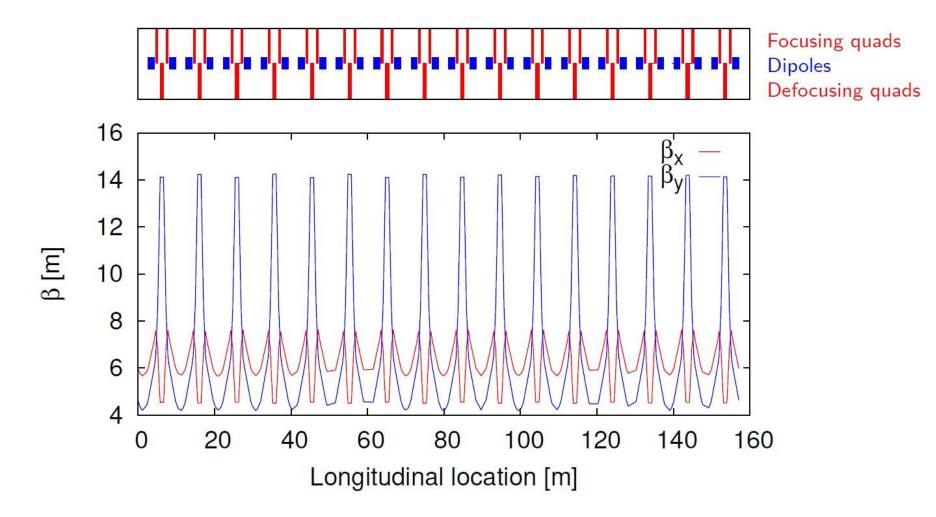


An offset quadrupole is seen as a centered quadrupole plus a dipole.



Beta-beating (1/2)

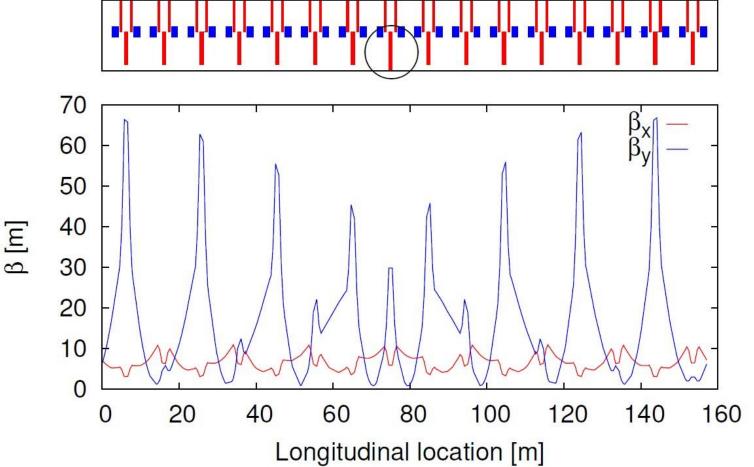






Beta-beating (2/2)



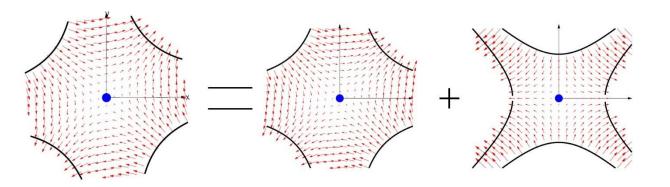


$$eta$$
 functions change (eta -beating $=rac{\Deltaeta}{eta}=rac{eta_{pert}-eta_0}{eta_0}$).

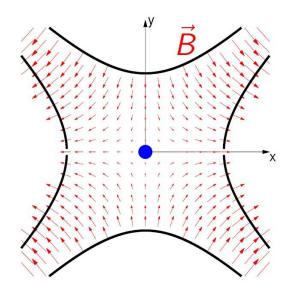


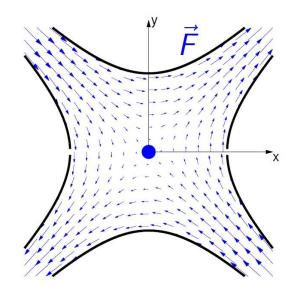
Quadrupole Errors 3/3





Any tilted quadrupole is seen as a normal quadrupole plus another quadrupole tilted by 45°. (skew quad)





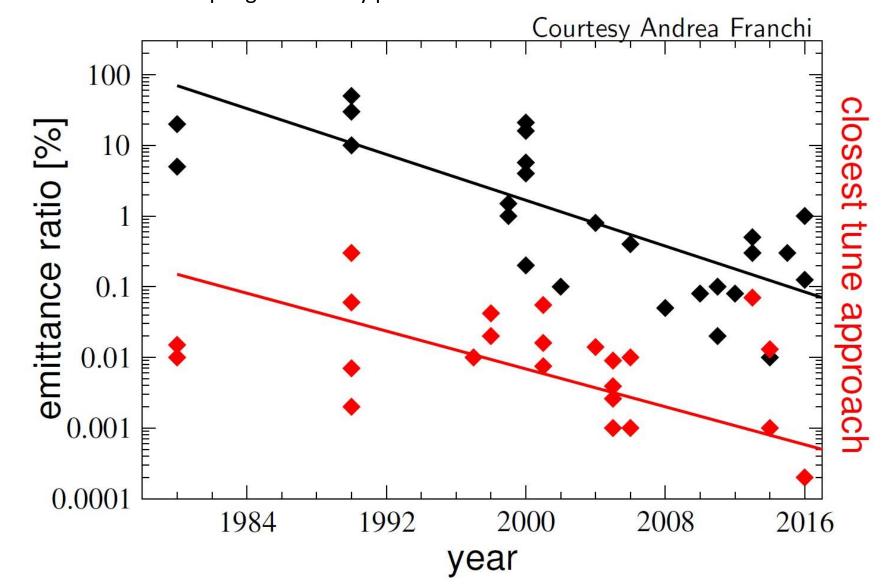
Note that in a skew quad $F_x = k_s y$ and $F_y = k_s x$ produce coupling between the x and y planes

Additional skew quads in an accelerator are used to compensate coupling



Coupling control is most important in synchrotron light sources, since small vertical emittance (yielding high brightness of the photon beams) is predominantly achieved by decoupling the x and y planes.

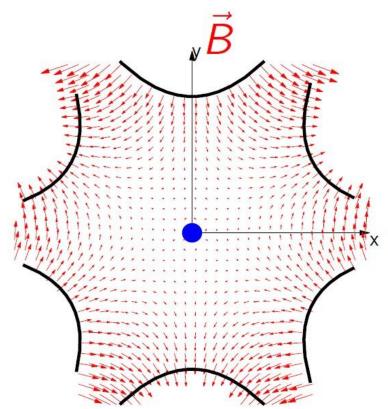


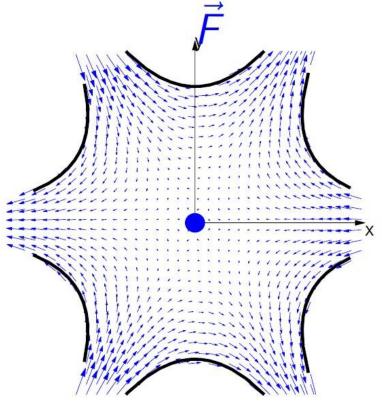




Last not least: Sextupole errors (1/2)







$$F_x = \frac{1}{2}K_2(x^2 - y^2)$$
, $F_y = -K_2xy$

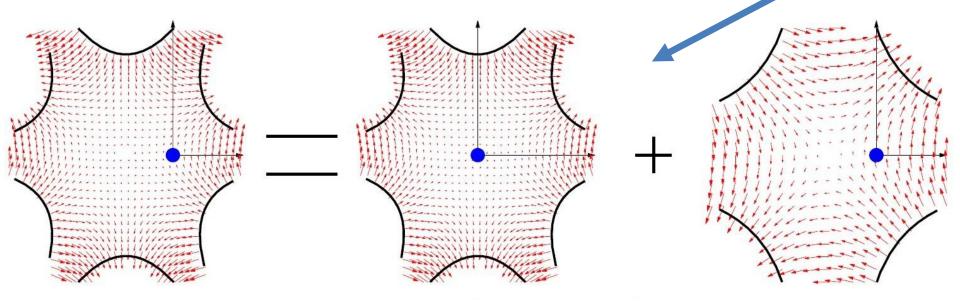


Last not least: Sextupole errors (2/2)



Error type	effect on beam	correction(s)
strength	Change in chromaticity	Change excitation current,
	correction, beta-beating	Repair/Replace magnet
Lateral shift	Extra quadrupole and skew	Compensation with
	quadrupole, beat-beating,	quadrupoles and skew
	tune change, coupling	quadrupoles, realignment
tilt	Error in the chromaticity	Excitation of a additional
	correction	"skewed sextupoles (45°)

A horizontally (vertically) displaced sextupole is seen as a centred sextupole plus an offset quadrupole (skew quadrupole)





Correction summary



Effect of dipole kicks (θ_i ; Φ_i) on closed orbit (CO)

$$CO(s) = \underbrace{\frac{\sqrt{\beta(s)}}{2\sin\pi Q}}_{i} \underbrace{\sqrt{\beta_{i}}\theta_{i}\cos(\pi Q - |\phi(s) - \phi_{i}|)}_{i}$$

Effects of strength error in quadrupoles
$$\Delta \textit{Q}_{\textit{x}} \approx \frac{1}{4\pi} \overline{\beta_{\textit{x}}} \Delta \textit{k}_{\textit{i}} \textit{L}_{\textit{i}}, \quad \Delta \textit{Q}_{\textit{y}} \approx -\frac{1}{4\pi} \overline{\beta_{\textit{y}}} \Delta \textit{k}_{\textit{i}} \textit{L}_{\textit{i}}$$

 β -beating from many sources:

$$\frac{\Delta \beta}{\beta}(s) \approx \pm \sum_{i} \frac{\Delta k_{i} L_{i} \overline{\beta_{i}}}{2 \sin(2\pi Q)} \cos(2\pi Q - 2|\phi(s) - \phi_{i}|)$$

- Best correction: identify error source and repair(realignment; coil repair...)
- If not: Typically close to every quadrupole small dipole correctors are installed. So by measurement campaigns and data analyses corrections strength for these small dipoles and to (skew) quadrupoles are applied.
- More on this in the diagnostics lecture and the advanced part.



Last not least: Collective effects



Collective effects:

= Summary term for all effects when the coulomb force of the particles in a bunch can no longer be neglected; in other words when there are too many particles...

We distinguish:

- i) self interaction of the particles within a bunch:
 - 1) space charge effects
 - 2) Intra beam scattering
 - 3) Touschek scattering

leads to emittance growth and particle loss

- ii) Interaction of the particles with the vacuum wall
 - -> concept of impedance of vacuum system

leads to instabilities of single bunches and multiple bunches

- iii) Interaction of with particles from other counter-rotating beam
 - → beam-beam effects (→ T.Pieloni this school)

Most is very advanced matter \rightarrow here only concepts and buzz-words



Space-charge Forces



In the rest frame of a bunch of charged particles, the bunch will expand rapidly (in the absence of external forces) because of the Coulomb repulsion between the particles.

The electric field around a single particle of charge q at rest is a radial field:

$$E_r = \frac{q}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{1}{r^2}$$

Applying a Lorentz boost along the z axis, with relativistic factor γ , the field becomes:

$$E_{x} = \frac{q}{4\pi\varepsilon_{0}} \frac{\gamma x}{\left(x^{2} + y^{2} + \gamma^{2}z^{2}\right)^{3/2}} \qquad E_{y} = \frac{q}{4\pi\varepsilon_{0}} \frac{\gamma y}{\left(x^{2} + y^{2} + \gamma^{2}z^{2}\right)^{3/2}} \qquad E_{z} = \frac{q}{4\pi\varepsilon_{0}} \frac{\gamma z}{\left(x^{2} + y^{2} + \gamma^{2}z^{2}\right)^{3/2}}$$

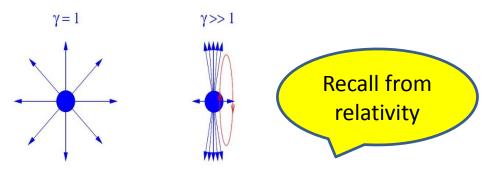
For large γ , the field is strongly suppressed, and falls rapidly away from z=0. In other words, the electric field exists only in a plane perpendicular to the direction of the particle.



Space Charge: Scaling with energy



Example Coulomb field: (a charge moving with constant speed)



- In rest frame purely electrostatic forces
- \blacktriangleright In moving frame \vec{E} transformed and \vec{B} appears

Electrical field: repulsive force between two charges of equal polarity

Magnetic field: attractive force between two parallel currents

after some work:

$$F_{\rm r} = \frac{eI}{2\pi\varepsilon_0\beta c} \underbrace{1 - \beta^2}_{1} \underbrace{\frac{r}{a^2}}_{1} = \frac{eI}{2\pi\varepsilon_0\beta c} \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \frac{r}{a^2}$$

- \rightarrow space charge diminishes with $\frac{1}{\nu^2}$ scaling
- → each particle source immediately followed by a linac or RFQ for acceleration



Space Charge Tune Shift



The tune spread from space-charge forces for particles in a Gaussian bunch of N_0 particles and rms bunch length σ_z is given by:

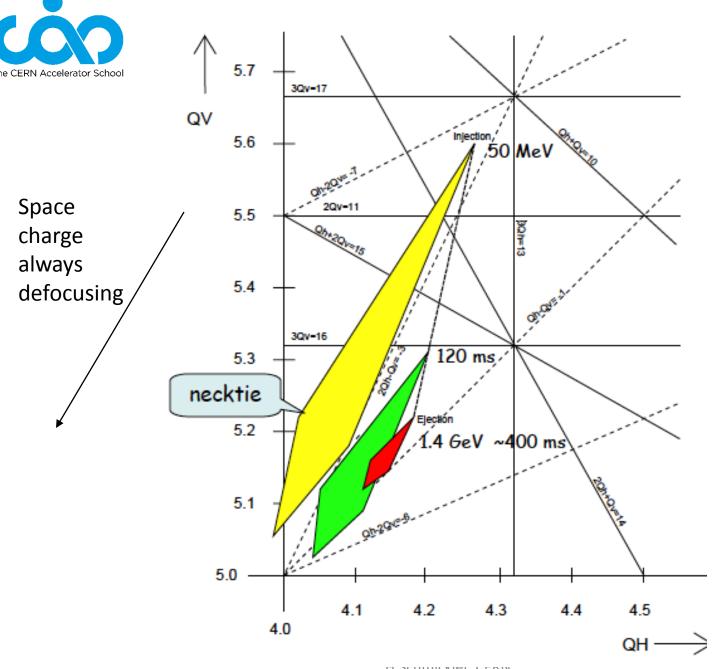
$$\Delta V_{y} = -\frac{2r_{e}N_{0}}{(2\pi)^{3/2}\sigma_{z}\beta^{2}\gamma^{3}} \oint \frac{\beta_{y}}{\sigma_{y}(\sigma_{x} + \sigma_{y})} ds$$

where the integral extends around the entire circumference of the ring.

Since every particle in the bunch experiences a different tune shift, it is not possible to compensate the tune spread as one could for a *coherent* tune shift (for example, by adjusting quadrupole strengths).

Note that the tune spread gets larger for:

- larger bunch charges
- shorter bunches
- larger beta functions
- lower beam energy (very strong scaling!)
- larger circumference
- smaller beam sizes





"footprint" of particles with space charge tune shift.

The effect dramatically reduces at higher energies

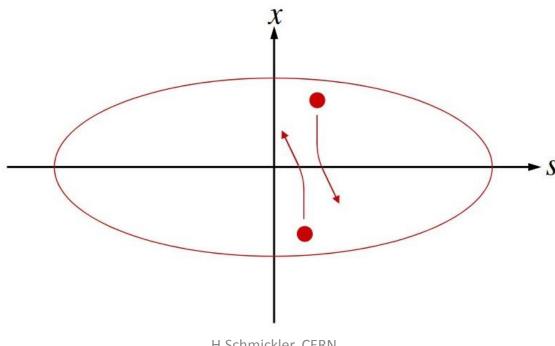


Intrabeam Scattering



Particles within a bunch can collide with each other as they perform betatron and synchrotron oscillations. The collisions lead to a redistribution of the momenta within the bunch, and hence to a change in the emittances.

If a collision results in the transfer of transverse to longitudinal momentum at a location where the dispersion is non-zero, the result (after many scattering events) can be an increase in both transverse and longitudinal emittance.

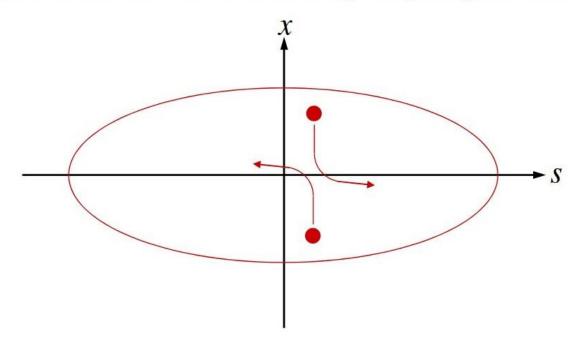




Touscheck effect



The Touschek effect is related to intrabeam scattering, but refers to scattering events in which there is a large transfer of momentum from the transverse to the longitudinal planes. IBS refers to multiple small-angle scattering; the Touschek effect refers to single large-angle scattering events.



If the change in longitudinal momentum is large enough, the energy deviation of one or both particles can be outside the energy acceptance of the ring, and the particles will be lost from the beam.

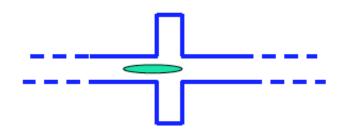


Interaction of beam with vacuum chamber



Resistive wall effect: Finite conductivity

Narrow-band resonators: Cavity-like objects



Broad-band resonators:

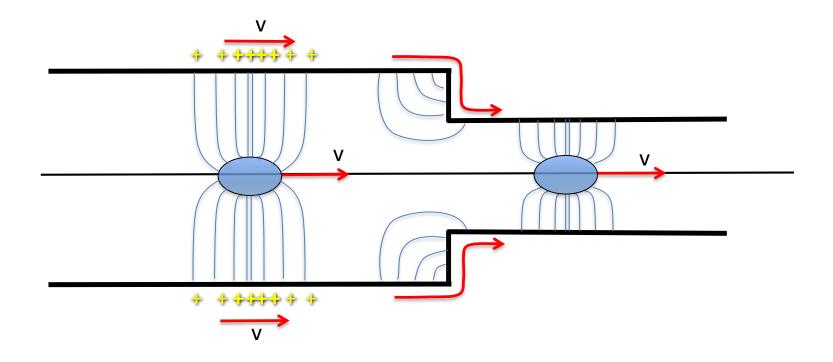
Tapers, other non-resonant structures





Bunch in a conducting pipe with sudden change

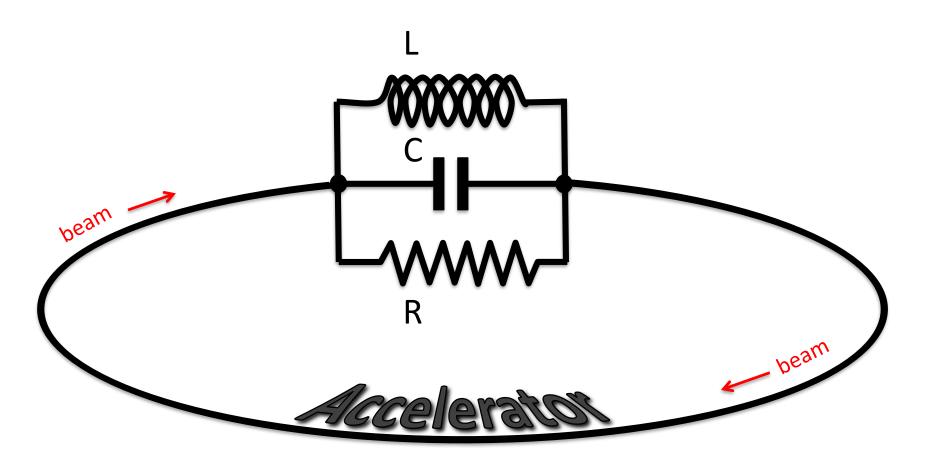






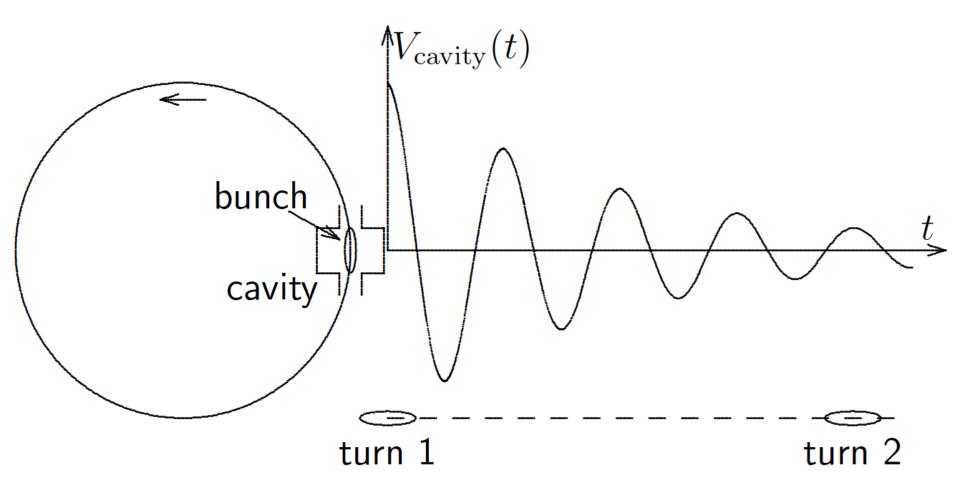
All together







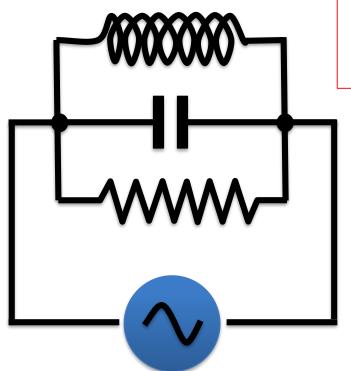






Impedance





$$I = \hat{I}\cos(\omega t)$$

Impedance

$$V(t) = Z_r(\omega)\hat{I}\cos(\omega t) - Z_i(\omega)\hat{I}\sin(\omega t)$$

$$Z_r(\omega) = R \frac{1}{1 + Q^2 \left(\frac{\omega^2 - \omega_r^2}{\omega_r \omega}\right)^2}$$

$$Z_{i}(\omega) = -R \frac{Q^{\frac{\omega^{2} - \omega_{r}^{2}}{\omega_{r}\omega}}}{1 + Q^{2} \left(\frac{\omega^{2} - \omega_{r}^{2}}{\omega_{r}\omega}\right)^{2}}$$

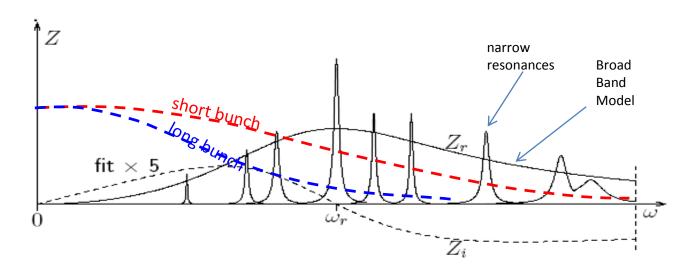
The real (resistive) part dissipates energy, the imaginary part creates instabilities

Consequences of impedances



Energy loss on pipes → heating (important in a superconducting accelerator)

Tune shift



Single bunch instabilities (head-tail)

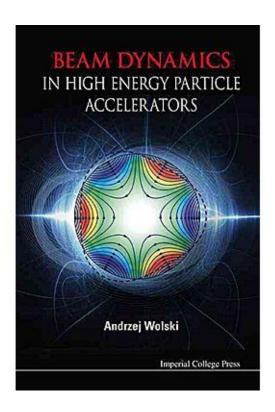
Multibunch instabilities

More on this: Feedback lecture on Wednesday



We have discussed:

- 1) Back to school: relativity, EM fields, magnets...
- 2) Hamiltonian and canonical variables \rightarrow equations of motion + invariants; map-approach
- 3) Single particle in various magnetic elements...action as invariant
- 4) multiple elements; circular accelerator
- 5) Twiss parameters
- 6) Finally a beam: emittance and emittance preservation
- 7) A taste of non-linearities
- 8) Linear imperfections (and some corrections)
- 9) Collective effects



Recommended reading:

- A. Wolski, Beam Dynamics in high energy particle accelerators, Imperial College Press, ISBN 978-1-78326-277-9
- CAS proceedings and references therin