

**Beam Loss Monitors**  
By Kay Wittenburg,  
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You do not need a BLM System as long as you have a perfect machine without any problems. However, you probably do not have such a nice machine, therefore you better install one.

**Discussing Wire Scanner heat load:**

$$T_h = C \cdot dE / dx \cdot n_{\text{bunch}} \cdot \frac{f_{\text{bunch}}}{v} \cdot \frac{1}{c_p \cdot 2 \cdot \sigma_v} \cdot \alpha \quad [^{\circ}\text{C}]$$

**3. Wire heat load**  
According to Bethe-Blochs formula, a fraction of energy  $dE/dx$  of high energy particles crossing the wire is deposit in the wire. Each beam particle which crosses the wire deposits energy inside the wire. The energy loss is defined by  $dE/dx$  (minimum ionization loss) and is taken to be that for a minimum ionizing particle. In this case the temperature increase of the wire can be calculated by:

$$T = C \cdot dE / dx_m \cdot d' \cdot \frac{N}{c_p \cdot G} \quad [^{\circ}\text{C}]$$

unknown

where N is the number of particles hitting the wire during one scan,  $d'$  is the thickness of a quadratic wire with the same area as a round one and G [g] is the mass of the part of the wire interacting with the beam. The mass G is defined by the beam dimension in the direction of the wire (perpendicular to the measuring direction):

Therefore, the temperature increase of the wire after one scan becomes:

$$T = C \cdot dE / dx_m \cdot d' \cdot N \cdot \frac{1}{c_p \cdot G} \quad [^{\circ}\text{C}]$$

Mass G = wire volume  $\cdot \rho = 2 \cdot \sigma_v \cdot d'^2 \cdot \rho$  [g]

$$N = \frac{d' \cdot f_{\text{rev}}}{v} \cdot (NB \cdot n_{\text{bunch}})$$

$$T_h = C \cdot dE / dx_m \cdot d' \cdot \frac{d' \cdot f_{\text{rev}}}{v} \cdot (NB \cdot n_{\text{bunch}}) \cdot \frac{1}{c_p \cdot 2 \cdot \sigma_v \cdot d'^2 \cdot \rho} \cdot \alpha \quad [^{\circ}\text{C}]$$

with  $\frac{dE / dx_m}{\rho} = dE / dx$   $\left[ \frac{\text{MeV} \cdot \text{cm}^2}{\text{g}} \right]$  and  $f_{\text{rev}} \cdot NB = f_{\text{bunch}}$

$$T_h = C \cdot dE / dx \cdot n_{\text{bunch}} \cdot \frac{f_{\text{bunch}}}{v} \cdot \frac{1}{c_p \cdot 2 \cdot \sigma_v} \cdot \alpha \quad [^{\circ}\text{C}]$$

Parameter table

Where  $h$ , denotes the horizontal (h) scanning direction. The cooling factor 'α' is described in the next section. **Note that the temperature does not depend on the wire diameter and that it depends on the beam dimension perpendicular to the measuring direction. The temperature increase is inverse proportional to the scanning speed, therefore a faster scanner has a correspondingly smaller temperature increase.**

Emittance growth due to a wire scan:

$$\delta \epsilon_{rms} = \sqrt{2\pi} \cdot \delta \Theta^2 \cdot \Psi^2 \cdot \beta$$

$$= 5.1 \cdot 10^{-2} \pi \text{ mm mrad}$$

$\sqrt{2\pi}$  from Literature

D. Möhl, Sources of emittance growth (also P. Bryant; CAS, Beam transfer lines):

$$\delta \epsilon = \pi \frac{1}{2} \cdot \Theta_{rms}^2 \cdot \beta$$

Averaging over all Betatron-phases  
Unit of phase space emittance

M. Giovannozzi (CAS 2005)  $\delta \epsilon = \pi \frac{1}{4} \cdot \Theta_{rms}^2 \cdot \beta$

D. Möhl, Sources of emittance growth, 2007:  $\delta \epsilon_{\sigma} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \Theta_{rms}^2 \cdot \beta$

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You do not need a BLM System as long as you have a perfect machine without any problems. However, you probably do not have such a nice machine, therefore you better install one.

**Introduction**

Beam loss monitor systems are designed for measuring beam losses around an accelerator or storage ring. A detailed understanding of the loss mechanism, together with an appropriate design of the BLM-System and an appropriate location of the monitors enable a wide field of very useful beam diagnostics and machine protection possibilities.

**Contents**

Loss Classes

Common aspects for a sufficient Beam Loss Monitor Systems  
(Lets try to design a BLM system for a superconducting accelerator)

Examples for irregular losses  
Examples for regular losses used for beam diagnostic

## Loss Classes

### Irregular (uncontrolled, fast) losses:

These losses may distributed around the machine and not obviously on the collector system. Can be avoided and should be kept to low levels:

#### Why???

- ✓ to keep activation low enough for hands-on maintenance, personal safety and environmental protection.
- ✓ to protect machine parts from beam related (radiation) damage (incl. Quench protection and protection of the detector components)
- ✓ to achieve long beam lifetimes/efficient beam transport to get high integrated luminosity for the related experiments.

These higher levels losses are very often a result of a misaligned beam or a fault condition, e.g. operation failure, trip of the HF-system or of a magnet power supply. Sometimes such losses have to be tolerated even at a high level at low repetition rates during machine studies. A beam loss monitor system should define the allowed level of those losses. The better protection there is against these losses, the less likely is down time due to machine damage. **A post mortem event analysis is most helpful to understand and analyze the faulty condition.**



## Loss Classes

### Regular (controlled, slow) loss:

Those losses are typically not avoidable and are localized on the collimator system or on other (hopefully known) aperture limits. They might occur continuously during operational running and correspond to the lifetime/transport efficiency of the beam in the accelerator. The lowest possible loss rate is defined by the theoretical beam lifetime limitation due to various effects:

#### Which???

Residual gas, Touschek effect, beam beam interactions, collisions, diffusion, transversal and longitudinal dispersion, residual gas scattering, halo scraping, instabilities etc. Suitable for machine diagnostic with a BLM System.

**It is clearly advantageous to design a BLM System which is able to deal with both loss modes.**



## Principles of loss detection:

### What should a Beam Loss Monitor monitor?

- In case of a beam loss, the BLM system has to establish the **number of lost particles** in a certain position and time interval.
- A typical BLM is mounted outside of the vacuum chamber, so that the monitor normally **observes the shower** caused by the lost particles interacting in the vacuum chamber walls or in the material of the magnets.
- The number of detected particles (amount of radiation, dose) and the signal from the BLM should be **proportional to the number of lost particles**. This proportionality depends on the position of the BLM in respect to the beam, type of the lost particles and the intervening material, but also on the momentum of the lost particles, which may vary by a large ratio during the acceleration cycle.
- Together with the specification for acceptable beam losses as a function of beam momentum, this defines a **minimum required sensitivity and dynamic range** for BLMs.
- Additional sensitivity combined with a larger dynamic range extends the utility of the system for **diagnostic work**.



## Exercise BLM 1a:

Assuming a high energy accelerator, what is the main physical process in a BLM-detector to produce a useful signal?

The signal source of beam loss monitors is mainly the ionizing capability of the charged shower particles. **Ionization Loss described by Bethe-Bloch Formular:**

$$\frac{dE}{dx} = \frac{4\pi}{m_e c^2} \cdot n z^2 \cdot \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \left[ \ln\left(\frac{2m_e c^2 \beta^2}{I \cdot (1 - \beta^2)}\right) - \beta^2 \right]$$

with  $\beta = v/c$  and  $I = 16 \text{ eV} Z^2$

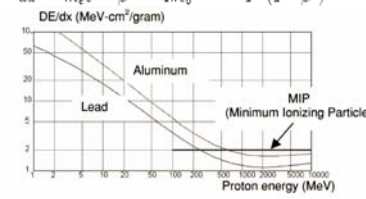


Figure 1. Plot of energy loss  $dE/dx$  vs. energy of incident proton. (from Ref [2])

$dE/dx_{\text{Minimum}}$  at  $\approx 1-2 \text{ MeV}/(g/cm^2)$  = so called: minimum ionizing particle (MIP), valid for many materials. The energy can be used to create electron / ion pairs or photons in the BLM-detector material.



## Useful:

Using the definition of a rad radiation dose as 100 ergs per gram leads to another definition, in terms of MIPs.

$$1 \text{ rad} = \frac{100 \text{ ergs}}{\text{gram}} \cdot \frac{\text{MeV}}{1.6 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ ergs}} \cdot \frac{\text{MIP} \cdot \text{gram}}{2 \text{ MeV} \cdot \text{cm}^2} = 3.1 \cdot 10^7 \text{ MIPs per cm}^2$$

So now we can describe the response of a beam loss monitor in terms of either energy deposition (100 ergs/gram), or in terms of a charged particle (MIPs) flux ( $3.1 \cdot 10^7 \text{ MIPs/cm}^2$ ). (from Ref. [2])



## Exercise BLM 1b:

**Which type of particle detection / detector do you propose for beam loss detection? Why? How the signal creation works? (Discussion in auditorium)**

### Considerations in selecting a Beam Loss Monitor

By R.E.Shafer, BIW 2002

- Sensitivity
- Type of output (current or pulse)
- Ease of calibration (online)
- System end-to-end online tests
- Uniformity of calibration (unit to unit)
- Calibration drift due to aging, radiation damage, outgassing, etc.
- Radiation hardness (material)
- Reliability, Availability, Maintainability, Inspect ability, Robustness
- Cost (incl. Electronics)
- Shieldability from unwanted radiation (Synchrotron Radiation)
- Physical size
- Spatial uniformity of coverage (e.g. in long tunnel, directionality)
- Dynamic range (rads/sec and rads)
- Bandwidth (temporal resolution)
- Response to low duty cycle (pulsed) radiation
- Instantaneous dynamic range (vs. switched gain dynamic range)
- Response to excessively high radiation levels (graceful degradation)



### Exercise BLM 1b:

#### Mostly used devices:

Short ion chambers,  
Long ion chambers,  
Photomultipliers with scintillators (incl. Optical Fibers),  
PIN Diodes (Semiconductors),  
Secondary Emission Multiplier-Tubes,  
...

#### More exotic:

Microcalorimeters,  
Compton Diodes,  
Optical fibers,  
...

Dosimetric is excluded here. Typically interest in long time scales (days-years), BLMs in short time scales (few turns to 10 ms)



### Useful (2)

Energy needed to create an electron in the detector (without (tube-) amplification):

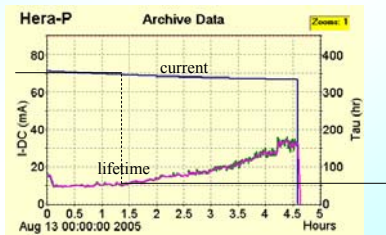
Detector Material	energy to create one electron [eV/e]	number of e / (cm MIP) [e/(cm MIP)] (depends on dE/dx)
Plastic Scintillator:	250 – 2500	$10^3 - 10^4$
Inorganic Scint.	50 - 250	$10^4 - 10^5$
Gas Ionization:	22 – 95	$\approx 10^5$ (N <sub>2</sub> , I atm.)
Semiconductor (Si):	3.6	$10^6$
Secondary emission:	2%/MIP (surface only)	0.02 e/MIP
Cherenkov light	$10^5 - 10^6$	$\approx 10$ (H <sub>2</sub> O, dep. on energy)



### Measuring beam losses

#### Exercise BLM 2a:

**HERAp is a proton storage ring (920 GeV/c) with 6.3 km circumference. How many beam particles are lost within a second ( $N_{lost}$ ), assuming a proton beam current of  $I_p = 70$  mA and a lifetime of  $\tau = 50$  hours ( $=1.8 \cdot 10^5$ s)?**



$$I = I_0 \cdot \exp(-t/\tau)$$

$$I_0 = 70 \text{ mA} = 0.07 \text{ C/s}$$

$$\tau = 50 \text{ h} = 1.8 \cdot 10^5 \text{ s}$$

$$t = 1 \text{ s}$$

$$I = 0.07 \cdot \exp(-1 / 1.8 \cdot 10^5) = 0.069996 \text{ C/s}$$

$$I_0 - I = 3.9 \cdot 10^{-7} \text{ C/s}$$

But 1 lost proton ( $1.6 \cdot 10^{-19} \text{ C}$ ) reduces the current in the ring  $I_p$  (6.3 km  $\Rightarrow$  21  $\mu$ s/turn or  $f_{rev} = 47.6 \text{ kHz}$ ) by:

$$I_p = 1.6 \cdot 10^{-19} \cdot 47.6 \cdot 10^3 = 7.6 \cdot 10^{-15} \text{ C/s/lost proton}$$

(Note: NOT by  $1.6 \cdot 10^{-19} \text{ C/proton only!!!}$ )

$$N_{lost} = (I_0 - I) / I_p = 5.1 \cdot 10^7 \text{ lost Protons /s}$$



### Exercise BLM 2b:

**Assuming all protons are lost in a 1 cm<sup>3</sup> block of iron (penetration length  $L = 1$  cm). Calculate the deposit power  $P$  [W] in the block ( $1 \text{ J} = 6.241 \cdot 10^{18} \text{ eV}$ ):**

$$dE/dx = 11.6 \text{ MeV/cm for Fe}$$

$$\text{Power } P = N_{lost} [1/s] \cdot dE/dx [\text{MeV/cm}] \cdot L [\text{cm}] = 5.9 \cdot 10^8 \text{ MeV /s} = 0.095 \text{ mW}$$

This number gives a macroscopic feeling of the measurable power due to beam losses during a worse luminosity run in HERAp. Possible reasons for these losses are: Beam-beam kicks, transversal and longitudinal dispersion, residual gas scattering, halo scraping, instabilities... These losses can be used for beam diagnostics (see later)

But note that typically losses will not be concentrated at one location only!  
Note also, that at LHC such losses has to be concentrated at the collimators!

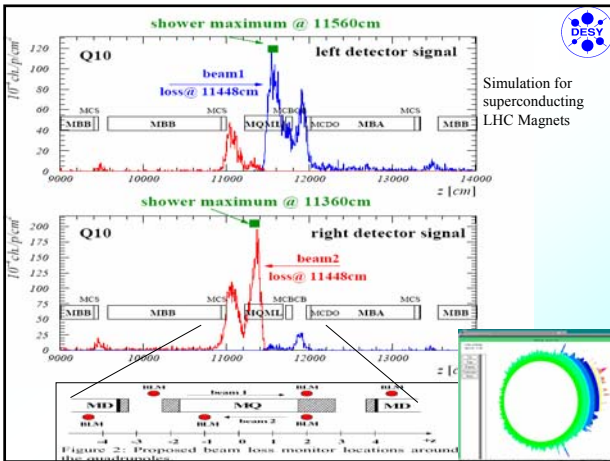
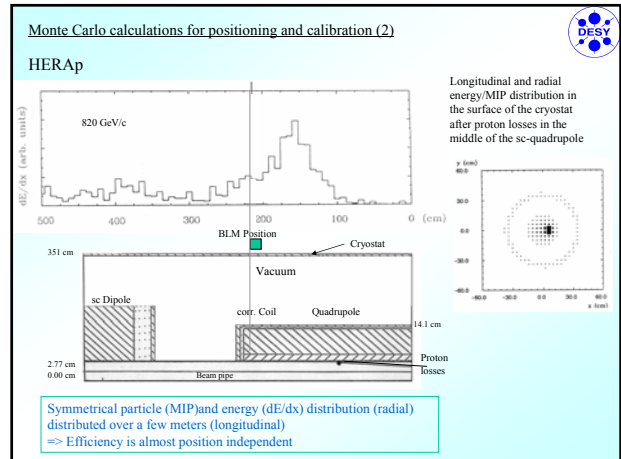
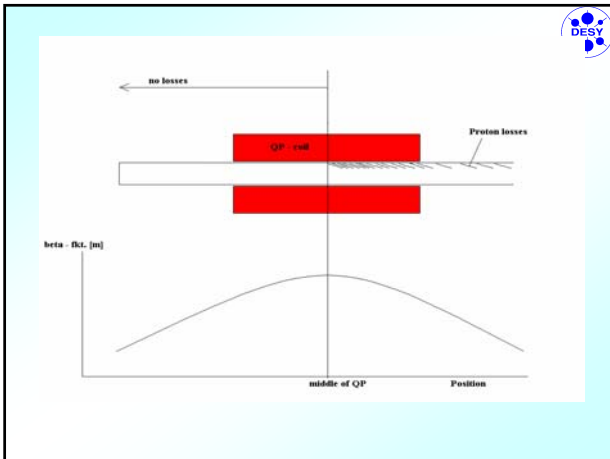


Each BLM at different locations needs its special efficiency-calibration in terms of signal/lost particle. This calibration can be calculated by use of a Monte Carlo Program with the (more or less) exact geometry and materials between the beam and the BLM. For the simulation it might be important to understand the (beam-) dynamics of the losses and the loss mechanism.

#### Where to put the BLMs to measure beam losses?

Preferred locations for beam losses and therefore for BLMs might be Collimators, scraper, aperture limits, and high  $\beta$ -functions..., therefore also the superconducting quadrupoles  
(By the way, why the middle of a quad is a preferred location for a loss of a beam particle?)





### Exercise BLM 2c:

At a certain location of a BLM in HERA (collimator), the efficiency to beam losses is about  $\epsilon = 0.1$  minimum ionizing particles / (cm<sup>2</sup> · lost proton) (at 300 GeV/c) at the BLM location.

**Calculate the resulting current of a 1 litre air filled ionization chamber BLM. Assume that 1/10 of the losses above (exercise 2a: 5.1-107 lost Protons /s) occur here. About  $E_{\text{pair}} = 22 \text{ eV/pair}$  is needed to create an electron / ion pair in air.**

$dE/dx_{\text{air}} = 2.2 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ MeV/cm}$  (from attached data sheet) →

$N_{\text{pair}} = dE/dx_{\text{air}} / E_{\text{pair}} = 100 \text{ e/cm}$  or  $N_{\text{pair}} = 10^5 \text{ e/ltr}$ .

Depending on the HV polarity one can measure either electrons or ions of charge e.

$N_{\text{tot}} = N_{\text{lost}} / 10 \cdot N_{\text{pair}} \cdot \epsilon = 5.1 \cdot 10^{10} \text{ e/s/ltr} = 8.16 \text{ nA/ltr}$

Note that at other locations the efficiency of loss detection might be orders of magnitude less (HERA magnets  $\epsilon = 10^{-3}$ ) and that losses might occur also at other locations. But note also, that these are regular losses, dangerous losses are orders of magnitude higher (see 2.2).

### Irregular Losses:

A serious problem for high current and high brilliance accelerators is the high power density of the beam. A misaligned beam is able to destroy the beam pipe or collimators and may break the vacuum. This fact makes the BLM-System one of the primary diagnostic tools for beam tuning and equipment protection in these machines.

Superconducting accelerators need a dedicated BLM-system to prevent beam loss induced quenches. Such a system has to detect losses fast enough before they lead to a high energy deposition in the superconducting material.

**Some Examples for irregular (uncontrolled, fast) losses**

- Superconducting machines: Quench protection
- Activation of environment due to losses
- Commissioning: Obstacle
- Vacuum Problems (Coulomb Scattering)
- Microparticles
- High current/brilliance machines (Ring or Linac): Destruction of Vacuum-Components

Don't do this again!!!

### Exercise BLM 2d:

**Which design criteria are important for a BLM system to prevent beam loss induced quenches? (Discussion in Plenum)**

- ✓ Typical locations for the protection system monitors are the quadrupoles of the accelerator, where the beam has its largest dimensions. The quadrupoles act as local aperture limits and therefore the chance for a loss is larger there.
- ✓ Adequate dynamic range to cover all beam parameters (e.g. current, energy, ...)
- ✓ A time constant of a few ms is adequate for the main loss system.
- ✓ Some special locations are more sensitive to losses than others, e.g. global aperture limits and collimators. For such locations a special treatment of the alarm-threshold, timing constant (faster) and sensitivity is applicable. Even an additional type of monitor and/or faster measurement might be the right choice.
- ✓ In all cases of fast beam losses, an event archive is most helpful for a post mortem analysis of the data, to find out the reason for the loss. Certainly this will improve the operational efficiency of the accelerator.
- ✓ Care has to be taken, to set-up such a system properly, so that it is not overly active (dumping too often) and also not too relaxed, allowing dangerous loss rates.

In the following we want to calculate the current (signal) in a 1 liter air filled ionization chamber at the critical loss rate at 40 and 820 GeV/c. At that particular location the following values should be assumed

**Exercise BLM 2c:**

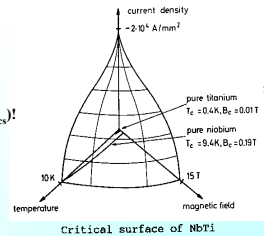
What is a "critical loss rate"? How to define it

**Insertion: Energy deposition in magnets**  
a) quench level of a cable (820 GeV/c)

For NbTi cables (HERA):  $B=5T$  (at coil, 4.7 T in gap),  $T_b = \text{He bath temp} = 4.4 \text{ K}$   
critical values:  
 $T_c(B=0, I=0) = 9.2 \text{ K}$ ;  $B_c = 14.5 \text{ T}$ ;  
 $T_c(B, I=0) = T_c(0) \cdot (1 - (B/B_c))^{0.59}$   
current sharing temp.:  $T_{cs}(B, I) = T_b + (T_c(B, I=0) - T_b) \cdot (1 - J_{op}/J_c)$   
critical current:  $J_c = J_c(B, T)$

With  
 $J_{op} = \text{HERA operating current} \approx 0.7 \cdot J_c = 5025 \text{ A}$   
 $\Rightarrow T_{cs}(B, J_{op}) = 5.2 \text{ K}$

$\Rightarrow \Delta T_c = 0.8 \text{ K}$   
between He-bath-temp. ( $T_b$ ) and quench-temp ( $T_{cs}$ )!



a) quench level of a cable cont.  
Heat capacity  $c_p$  of Copper-NbTi composite cable:  
 $c_p = 10^{-3} \varepsilon \{ (6.8/\varepsilon + 43.8) \cdot T^3 + (97.4 + 69.8 \cdot B) \cdot T \} \text{ [mJ/cm}^3 \cdot \text{K]}$  Ref 2a  
 $\varepsilon$  is the superconductor fraction of the cable:  $\varepsilon = 0.36$  for HERA Type cable

$\Rightarrow c_p = 2.63 \text{ mJ/cm}^3 \cdot \text{K}^{-1}$

$\Rightarrow E_{dep} = 2.1 \text{ mJ/cm}^3$  is needed for a temperature increase of  $\Delta T_c = 0.8 \text{ K}$  (at 820 GeV/c)

- We performed Monte Carlo calculations to simulate the beam loss and the energy deposition in the coils. The critical losses were determined from the critical energy deposition in  $1 \text{ cm}^3$  coil volume (hot spot)
- BLMs cannot protect against instantaneous losses!
- At Tevatron (Ref. 6) they observe beam loss induced quenches at a continuous loss rate (dose) /s) 16 times higher than instantaneous losses.
- Decisions: Measure loss rates in  $\approx 5 \text{ ms}$  intervals = alarm time binning. Definition: critical loss rate/5.2 ms = cont. loss rate  $\cdot 5.2 \cdot 10^{-3}$  Threshold: Accepted loss rate  $\leq 1/10$  critical loss rate BLMs on superconducting Quads (+ warm Quads)

All information to calculate a response of a BLM:

From Monte Carlo calculations:

Momentum [GeV/c]	efficiency $\varepsilon$ [MIP/cm <sup>2</sup> /pr/oton]
40	$3.25 \cdot 10^{-4}$
100	$4.47 \cdot 10^{-4}$
400	$1.53 \cdot 10^{-3}$
820	$2.20 \cdot 10^{-3}$

Tab. 1: Efficiency  $\varepsilon$  vs beam momentum for the BLMs at the superconducting magnets in HERA

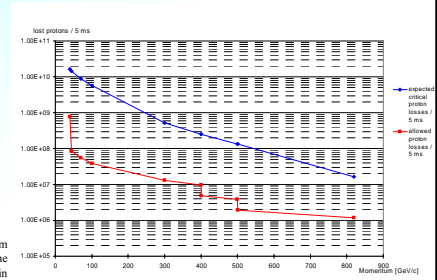


Fig. 2: Critical proton loss rate vs. momentum for the superconducting magnets in HERA

In the following the current (signal) in a 1 liter air filled ionization chamber at the critical loss rate at 40 and 820 GeV/c is calculated.

Signal calculation:  
 $dE/dx_{air} = 2.2 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ MeV/cm}$  (from attached data sheet),  $1 \text{ ltr} = 1000 \text{ cm}^3$   
 $N_{pair} = dE/dx_{air} / E_{pair} = 100 \text{ e/cm}$  or  $N_{pair} = 10^5 \text{ e/ltr}$ .  
Depending on the HV polarity one can measure either electrons or ions of charge  $e$ .

At 40 GeV/c:  $N_{lost} = 1.1 \cdot 10^{10}$  protons/5 ms,  $\varepsilon = 3.25 \cdot 10^{-4}$   
 $I_{ion} (40 \text{ GeV}) = N_{lost} \cdot N_{pair} \cdot e = 7.15 \cdot 10^{13} \text{ e/s/ltr} = 11.4 \mu\text{A (within 5 ms)/ltr}$

At 820 GeV/c:  $N_{lost} = 1.1 \cdot 10^7$  protons/5 ms,  $\varepsilon = 2.2 \cdot 10^{-3}$   
 $I_{tot} (820 \text{ GeV}) = N_{lost} \cdot N_{pair} \cdot e = 4.8 \cdot 10^{11} \text{ e/s/ltr} = 77.4 \text{ nA (within 5 ms)/ltr}$

$\Rightarrow$  dynamic range  $\approx 1.5 \cdot 10^2$

Note that regular losses at this location ( $\varepsilon \approx 1 \cdot 10^{-3}$ ) give an ion-chamber current of  $8.16 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{ nA}$  (exercise 2c). Therefore the dynamic range of this BLM system should exceed  $10^6$  to measure regular losses (diagnostic) as well as dangerous losses (protection).

How to design a readout system with such a huge dynamic range?

See R. Jones talk for the LHC solution to cover the whole range:  $\Rightarrow$  counting technique

current to frequency converter:  
• first stage (input cable length up to 400 m):  
• dynamic: about  $10^7$   
• input current: 30 pA to 50 nA  
• output frequency: 0.05 to several MHz

**Tevatron upgraded BLM System:**  
**Dual Charge Integrator (Burr Brown ACF2101)**  
Alternately integrating or being readout and reset  
Provides continuous measurement  
50 kHz maximum sample rate  
**16-Bit SAR ADC**  
**DAC to give analog scope output**



### Quench Protection at HERAp

HERA has shown, that the BLM-system is very often the last chance to recognize a doomed beam and to dump it before it is lost uncontrollably, possibly quenching magnets. An event archive is most helpful for a **post mortem analysis** of the data to understand the reason of the beam loss

Reason here: Head tail instability => emittance blow up: No effect on Orbit!

BLM	ALHM	4	3	2	1	Dump?	1
WL58	1024	77	62	77	102	211	4872
WL91	1024	268	228	298	310	2962	11974
WL123	1024	96	91	104	99	1393	761
WL162	256	837	976	1361	1268	404	0
WL166	256	349	392	503	595	130	0
WL195	256	179	220	243	297	48	0
WL218	256	225	283	313	379	0	0
WL250	256	252	218	340	363	158	0

Archiver: 10-Mar-1999 00:48:16 142 GeV

### Some examples for regular (controlled, slow) Losses.

#### Examples to make diagnostics with BLMs

- Injection studies
- Vacuum Problems
- Lifetime limitations (Touschek effect, etc.)
- Tail scans
- Tune scans
- Ground motion
- Diffusion

### Injection studies

Useful to improve injection efficiency, even at low injection current (radiation safety issue). BLMs are more sensitive than current transformers and they can distinguish between transversal mismatch (betatron oscillations) and energy mismatch (dispersion).

#### DELTA

Cerenkov light signal from one photomultiplier connected to one fibre around the ring. Three turns in DELTA (one turn = 380 ns). Several peaks per turn result from different centres of beam loss. An online optimisation of the injection chain was possible

#### ALS

Several BPMs report high count rates at injection. After injection the loss rate is low which is commensurate with beam lifetime of about 4 hours. From this graph one can identify the sites of highest beam loss.

Surface plot of beam loss at injection.

ALS Beam Instrumentation; Beam Loss Monitoring. Jim Hinkson, February 1999

### RHIC Commissioning: Obstacle (RF Finger) detected by BLMs

Loss pattern evolution as beam was steered locally around an apparent obstacle at s ≈ 1820 meters (sector 11, quad 6) in the BLUE ring. When the losses there went away, beam began circulating for thousands of turns.

[http://www.rhichome.bnl.gov/RHIC/YcarZero/early\\_beam.html](http://www.rhichome.bnl.gov/RHIC/YcarZero/early_beam.html)

### Vacuum Problems

#### HERAe

BLMe Rate (Hz)

datum	time	curr	GeV/c	tau	
15 Sept 97	20:02:22	37	79261	12.02	6.305215
18 Sept 97	4:54:31	36	14962	12.021	14.26151
20 Feb 97	0:59:2	39	37482	11.966	9.369724

Fring of vacuum leakages at 16 Sept. 97

BLMe Position

### HERAe

#### Microparticles (1)

Lifetime reduction events correlate well with losses seen in the HERA electron loss monitors. In this example the brief disruption of lifetime is seen in the loss monitor SL191, and the irreversible disruption is seen in the monitor WR239

The Electron beam Lifetime Problem in HERA. By D.R.C. Kelly et al. PAC 1995

### Lifetime limitations (1)

**Touschek effect:** Particles inside a bunch perform transverse oscillations around the closed orbit. If two particles scatter they can transform their transverse momenta into longitudinal momenta. If the new momenta are outside the momentum aperture the particles are lost. Good locations for the detection of Touschek scattered particles are in **high dispersion sections** following sections where a high particle density is reached. Since the two colliding particles loose and gain an equal amount of momentum, they will hit the **in- and outside walls** of the vacuum chamber. In principle the selectivity of the detection to Touschek events can be improved by counting losses at these locations in coincidence.

**Coulomb scattering:** Particles scatter elastically or inelastically with residual gas atoms or photons or emit a high energy photon (SR). This leads to betatron or synchrotron oscillations and increases the population of the tails of the beam. If the amplitudes are outside the aperture the particles are lost. Losses from elastic scattering occur at aperture limits (small gap insertions, septum magnet, mechanical scrapers and other obstructions). If, in an inelastic Coulomb collision, the energy carried away by the emitted photon is **too large**, the particle gets lost after the following bending magnet on the **inside wall** of the vacuum chamber.

### Lifetime limitations (2)

Bessy

Vertical beam size, Touschek and Coulomb loss rates during excitation of a vertical headtail mode in Bessy.

Y-axis: current (mA) and loss rates (10<sup>-4</sup> to 10<sup>-2</sup>). X-axis: F<sub>ext</sub> [kHz].

Legend: vert. beam size, elastic Coulomb losses, Touschek losses, beam current (100 mA, 50 mA).

Source: P. Kuske, DIPAC2001, Accelerator Physics Experiments with Beam Loss Monitors at Bessy.

### Lifetime limitation (3)

Bessy, ALS

The cross section for the Touschek scattering process is lower for electrons with parallel spins than for antiparallel spins. Therefore, a polarized beam will have fewer scattering events and a longer lifetime than an unpolarized beam. Thus one can use the beam lifetime, or equivalently a BLM, as a measure for changes in the polarization.

Beam lifetime derived from current monitor and count rate from beam loss detector showing two partial spin depolarizations over a 25 minute period.

Normalized loss detector rate during excitation sweep of spin resonances: a) Sweep through upper sideband and b) lower sideband of a spin resonance.

Useful for **Beam Energy Calibration** and **measurement of Momentum Compaction Factor**.

Source: ENERGY CALIBRATION OF THE ELECTRON BEAM OF THE ALS USING RESONANT DEPOLARIZATION. C. Steier, J. Boyd, P. Kuske. <http://accelconf.web.cern.ch/accelconf/S00/PAPERS/MOP5B03.pdf>

### Tail scans

LEP

Measurement (left) and simulation (right) of the horizontal beam tails for a beam energy of 80.5 GeV and for different collimator settings at LEP. The simulation is the result of tracking particles after Compton scattering on thermal photons (black body radiation of vacuum chamber).

Source: Transverse Beam tails Due To Inelastic Scattering, H. Burkhardt, I. Reichel, G. Roy, CERN-SL-99-068

### Tune Scans

SRRRC, ALS, Bessy

First tune scan test at the Taiwan Light Source

Optimizing machine lattice requires systematic studying of its corresponding tune space. Tune scans are useful for studying insertion devices caused nonlinear resonance. Interpretation of the results is simplified if a good selectivity of the beam loss monitors to the different loss mechanisms can be achieved.

REAL-TIME BEAM LOSS MONITORING SYSTEM AND ITS APPLICATIONS IN SRRC. K. T. Hsu. <http://accelconf.web.cern.ch/accelconf/pac97/papers/pdf/3P068.PDF>

### Ground Motion

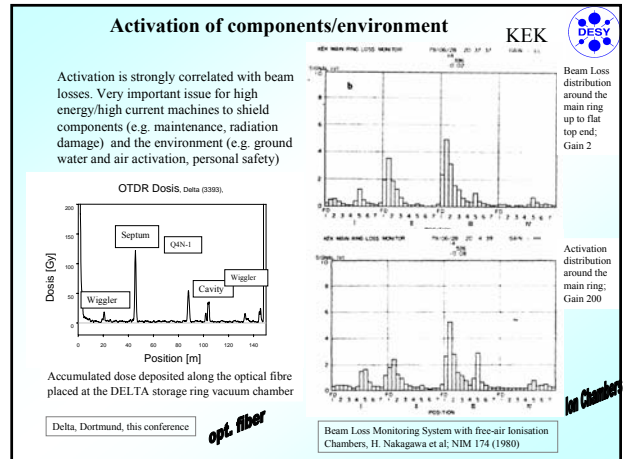
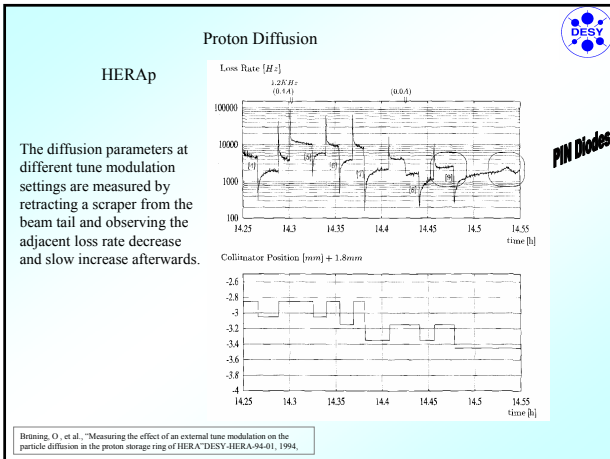
HERAp

Ground motion => Tune modulation + Beam beam = Proton diffusion

Frequency spectrum of BLM at collimator

Frequency spectrum of ground motion

MEASUREMENT OF PROTON BEAM OSCILLATIONS AT LOW FREQUENCIES. By K.H. Meiss, M. Siedel (DESY), 1994. London 1994, Proceedings, EPAC '94.



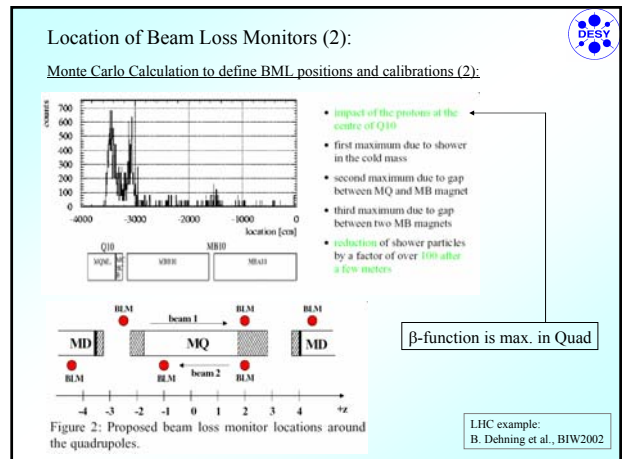
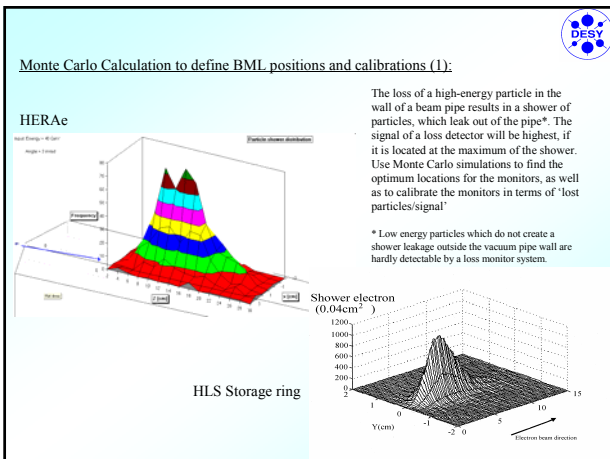
### Conclusions

BLM-systems are multi-faceted beam instrumentation tools, which opens a wide field of applications. A precondition is a proper understanding of the physics of the beam loss to place the monitors at their adequate positions.

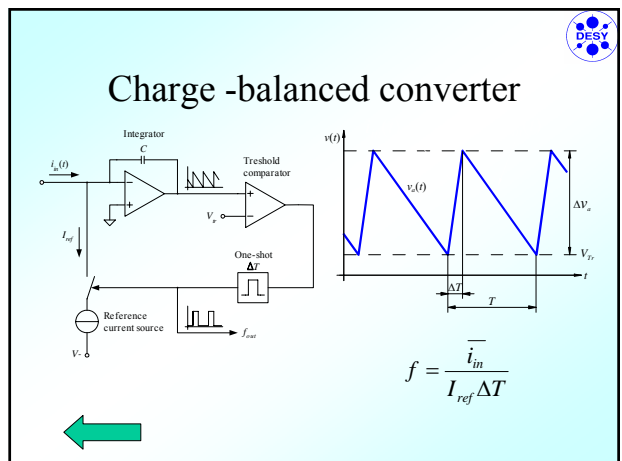
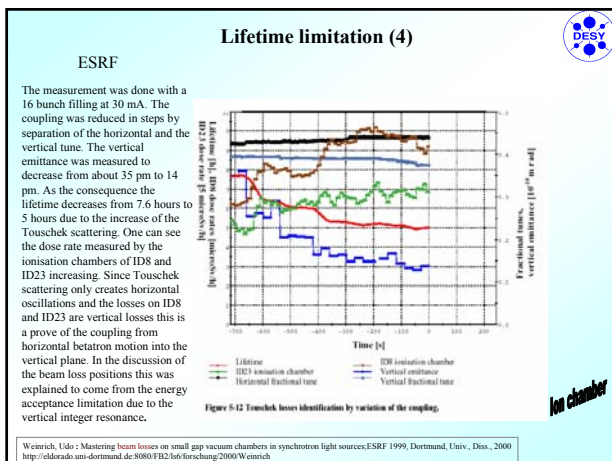
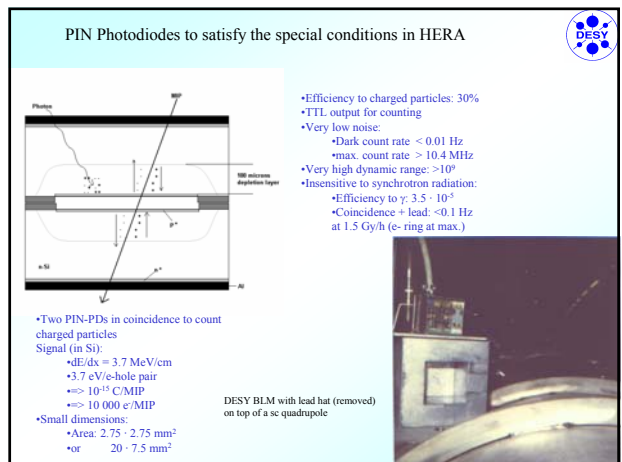
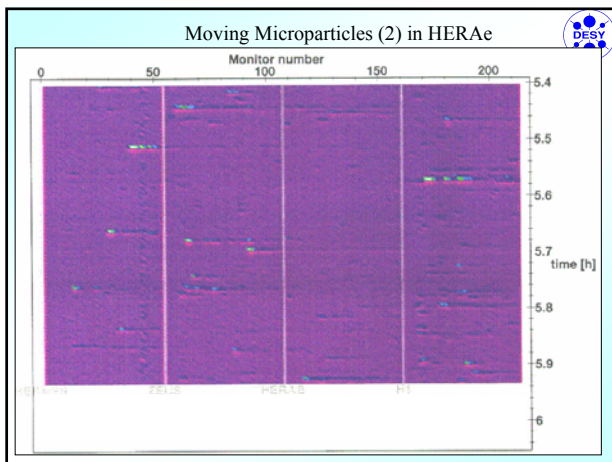
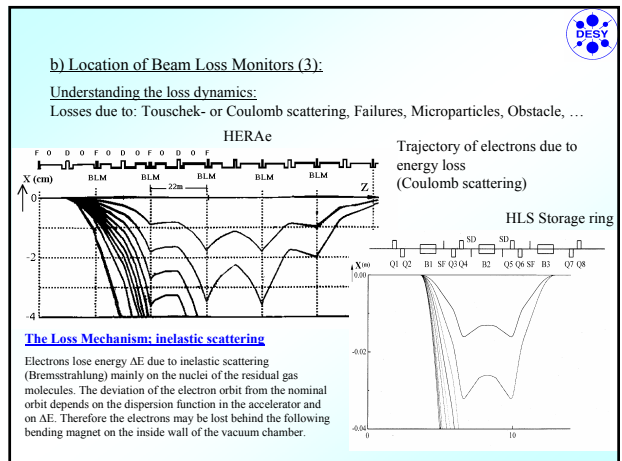
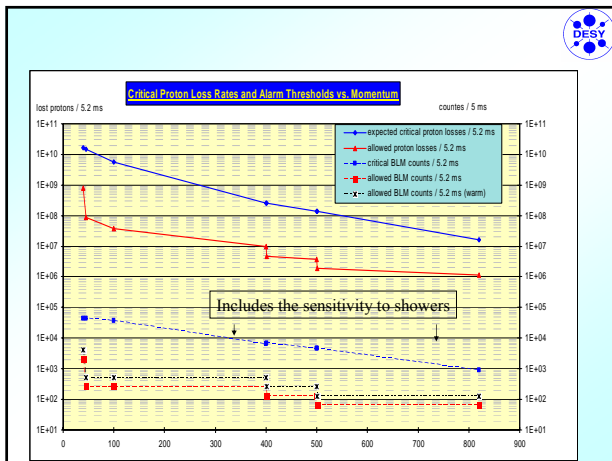
Strahlungsquelle: ELBE [http://www.fz-rossendorf.de/FWQ/ELBE-Palaver u.a.](http://www.fz-rossendorf.de/FWQ/ELBE-Palaver.u.a.)  
P. Michel: Strahlungsverlustmonitore für ELBE

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# The End







6. Atomic and nuclear properties of materials 1

6. ATOMIC AND NUCLEAR PROPERTIES OF MATERIALS

Table 6.1. Selected data from the IAEA database. Elements are listed in order of increasing atomic number (Z). Data for compounds and alloys are from Table 6.2.1 and 6.2.2. Further material and property data are given in Table 6.3 and in Appendix B.1. See also the IAEA database website: <http://www.iaea.org/infocentre/data>

Material	Z	A	(Z,A)	Atomic weight	Atomic number	Atomic mass	Atomic weight	Density	Crystal structure	Melting point	Boiling point
				$[g/mol]$		$[g/mol]$	$[g/cm^3]$	$[g/cm^3]$		$[K]$	$[K]$
Al	13	27	(13,27)	26.9815385	13	26.9815385	2.70	2.70	FCC	933.47	2792
Ar	18	39.948	(18,39.948)	39.948	18	39.948	1.781	1.781	FCC	87.3	87.3
As	33	74.9216	(33,74.9216)	74.9216	33	74.9216	5.727	5.727	Rhombohedral	1093	1617
Be	4	9.012182	(4,9.012182)	9.012182	4	9.012182	1.808	1.808	HCP	2770	3827
C	6	12.0107	(6,12.0107)	12.0107	6	12.0107	2.267	2.267	Diamond	3827	4827
Ca	20	40.078	(20,40.078)	40.078	20	40.078	7.85	7.85	FCC	1522	2840
Cl	17	35.453	(17,35.453)	35.453	17	35.453	3.49	3.49	Orthorhombic	224	338
Co	27	58.933195	(27,58.933195)	58.933195	27	58.933195	8.85	8.85	FCC	1771	2709
Cr	24	51.9961	(24,51.9961)	51.9961	24	51.9961	7.19	7.19	BCC	2180	2750
Fe	26	55.845	(26,55.845)	55.845	26	55.845	7.874	7.874	BCC	1811	3134
Ge	32	72.630	(32,72.630)	72.630	32	72.630	5.323	5.323	Diamond	1212	1512
Li	3	6.941	(3,6.941)	6.941	3	6.941	0.534	0.534	FCC	908	1615
Ni	28	58.6934	(28,58.6934)	58.6934	28	58.6934	8.90	8.90	FCC	1728	2730
Na	11	22.98976928	(11,22.98976928)	22.98976928	11	22.98976928	0.973	0.973	BCC	370.75	1093
Pb	82	207.2	(82,207.2)	207.2	82	207.2	11.34	11.34	FCC	600.61	2023
Pt	78	195.084	(78,195.084)	195.084	78	195.084	21.45	21.45	FCC	2041.4	3825
Si	14	28.0855836	(14,28.0855836)	28.0855836	14	28.0855836	2.329	2.329	Diamond	1687	1687
Sn	50	118.710	(50,118.710)	118.710	50	118.710	7.28	7.28	FCC	505	2319
Sr	38	87.62	(38,87.62)	87.62	38	87.62	2.54	2.54	FCC	1083	1655
Ta	73	180.94788	(73,180.94788)	180.94788	73	180.94788	19.3	19.3	BCC	2750	3290
Ti	22	47.88	(22,47.88)	47.88	22	47.88	4.54	4.54	HCP	1941	2537
U	92	238.02891	(92,238.02891)	238.02891	92	238.02891	19.1	19.1	FCC	3400	4400
W	74	183.84	(74,183.84)	183.84	74	183.84	19.3	19.3	BCC	3695	5808
Zn	30	65.38	(30,65.38)	65.38	30	65.38	7.13	7.13	FCC	1198	1965

Wire Parameters

Parameter	Symbol	Unit	Wire material			
			Al	W	Carbon	Quartz (SiO <sub>2</sub> )
Wire diameter	$d$	cm				
Mean wire diameter	$d = d_0 - \Delta d$	cm				
Conversion factor	$C = 2.54 \times 10^4$	cm/inch				
Speed of light	$c = 3 \times 10^{10}$	cm/s				
Specific heat	$\rho c_p$	cal/g°C	0.21	0.056	0.42	0.18
Capacity					0.17	
Energy loss of ion pair	$dE/dx$	MeV/cm	1.62	1.82	2.3	2.33
Heat conductivity	$k$	W/cm K	230	100-160	30-3000	1.2-1.4
Thermal expansion	$\alpha$	1/K	23	19.3	3.3	1.85
Nuclear cross length	$\lambda$	cm	26	2.6	34	25.4

Table WIRE1: Parameters of wire materials. \* > 500 °C

The beam parameters used in this exercise are shown in the following table:

Parameter	Symbol	Unit	Value
Circumference of accel	circ	m	300
Particle		Proton	
Beam particle momentum	$p$	GeV/c	0.3-7
Beta function	$\beta_x = \beta_y$	m	11.8
Emittance	$\epsilon_{rms}$	$\pi$ mm mrad	15
revolution frequency	$f_{rev}$	MHz	0.93
Bunch spacing	$t_{bunch}$	ns	98
Number of bunches in accel.	NB		11
Bunch charge	$Q_{bunch}$	1/c	$1.1 \cdot 10^{11}$
Beam width measurement 1	$\sigma_x$	mm	1.5
Beam width perpendicular to meas. 1	$\sigma_y$	mm	1

Table WIRE2: Parameters of Beam