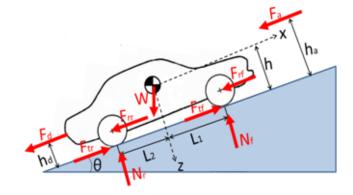
LONGITUDINAL DYNAMICS



Frank Tecker CERN, BE-OP





Basics of Accelerator Science and Technology at CERN Chavannes de Bogis, 6-10 February 2017

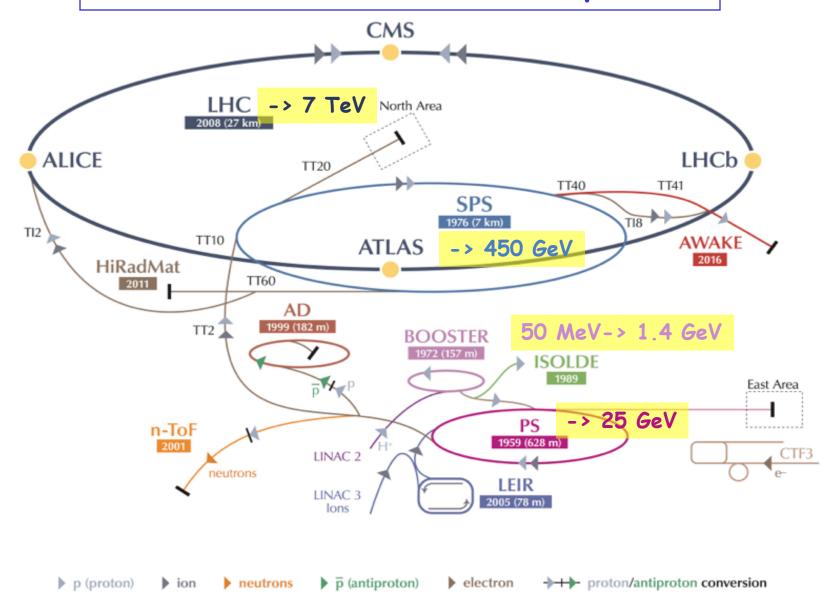
Summary of the 2 lectures:

- Acceleration methods
- Accelerating structures
- Linac: Phase Stability + Energy-Phase oscillations
- Circular accelerators: Cyclotron / Synchrotron
- Dispersion Effects in Synchrotron
- Stability and Longitudinal Phase Space Motion
- Injection Matching
- RF manipulations in the PS

Two more related lectures:

- Linacs Alessandra Lombardi
- RF Systems myself

The CERN Accelerator Complex



Particle types and acceleration

The accelerating system will depend upon the evolution of the particle velocity along the system

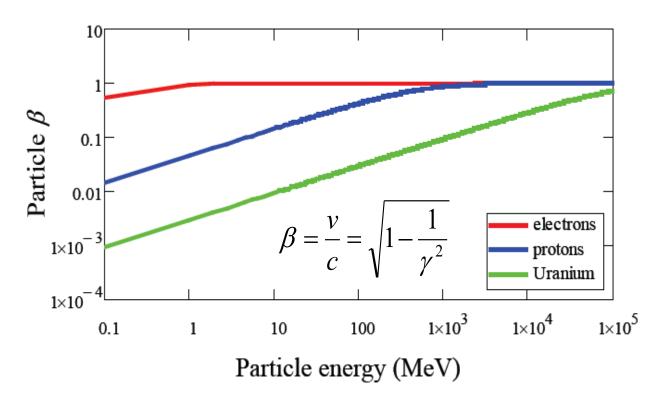
- electrons reach a constant velocity at relatively low energy
- · heavy particles reach a constant velocity only at very high energy
 - -> we need different types of resonators, optimized for different velocities

Particle rest mass:

electron 0.511 MeV proton 938 MeV ²³⁹U ~220000MeV

Relativistic gamma factor:

$$\gamma = \frac{E}{E_0} = \frac{m}{m_0}$$



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Velocity, Energy and Momentum

normalized velocity
$$\beta = \frac{v}{c} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{\gamma^2}}$$

=> electrons almost reach the speed of light very quickly (few MeV range)

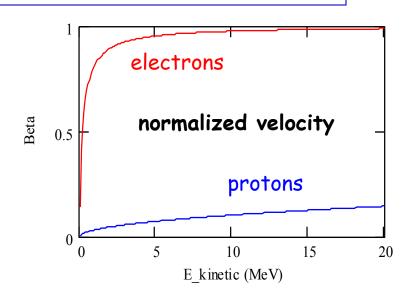
total energy rest energy

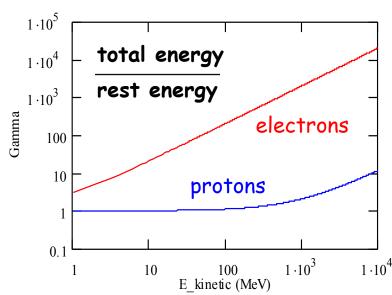
$$E = \gamma m_0 c^2$$

$$\gamma = \frac{E}{E_0} = \frac{m}{m_0} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$$

Momentum
$$p = mv = \frac{E}{c^2}\beta c = \beta \frac{E}{c} = \beta \gamma m_0 c$$

=> Magnetic field needs to follow the momentum increase





Acceleration: May the force be with you

To accelerate, we need a force in the direction of motion!



Newton-Lorentz Force on a charged particle:

$$\vec{F} = \frac{\mathrm{d}\vec{p}}{\mathrm{dt}} = e\left(\vec{E} + \vec{v}\right)\vec{B}$$

2nd term always perpendicular to motion => no acceleration

Hence, it is necessary to have an electric field E (preferably) along the direction of the initial momentum (z), which changes the momentum of the particle.

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = eE_z$$

The 2nd term - larger at high velocities - is used for:

- BENDING: generated by a magnetic field perpendicular to the plane of the particle trajectory. The bending radius ρ obeys to the relation :

$$\frac{p}{e}$$
= $B\rho$

in practical units:
$$B \rho [\text{Tm}] \approx \frac{p [\text{GeV/c}]}{0.3}$$

- FOCUSING: the bending effect is used to bring the particles trajectory closer to the axis, hence to increase the beam density.

Energy Gain

The acceleration increases the momentum, providing kinetic energy to the charged particles.

In relativistic dynamics, total energy E and momentum p are linked by

$$E^2 = E_0^2 + p^2 c^2$$

$$(E = E_0 + W)$$
 W kinetic energy

Hence:
$$dE = vdp$$

$$(2EdE = 2c^2p dp \Leftrightarrow dE = c^2mv / E dp = vdp)$$

The rate of energy gain per unit length of acceleration (along z) is then:

$$\frac{dE}{dz} = v \frac{dp}{dz} = \frac{dp}{dt} = eE_z$$

and the kinetic energy gained from the field along the z path is:

$$dW = dE = eE_z dz$$
 \rightarrow $W = e \int E_z dz = eV$

where V is just a potential.

Unit of Energy

Today's accelerators and future projects work/aim at the TeV energy range.

LHC: 7 TeV -> 14 TeV

CLIC: 3 TeV

HE/VHE-LHC: 33/100 TeV

In fact, this energy unit comes from acceleration:

1 eV (electron Volt) is the energy that 1 elementary charge e (like one electron or proton) gains when it is accelerated in a potential (voltage) difference of 1 Volt.

Basic Unit: eV (electron Volt)

 $keV = 1000 eV = 10^3 eV$

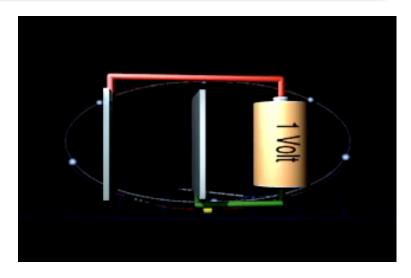
 $MeV = 10^6 eV$

GeV = 10⁹ eV

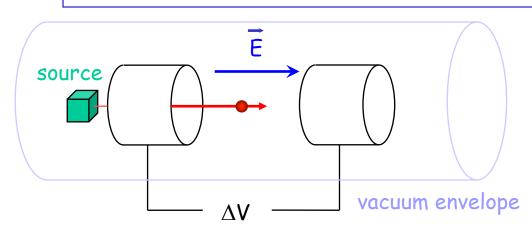
 $TeV = 10^{12} eV$

LHC = ~450 Million km of batteries!!!

3x distance Earth-Sun



Electrostatic Acceleration



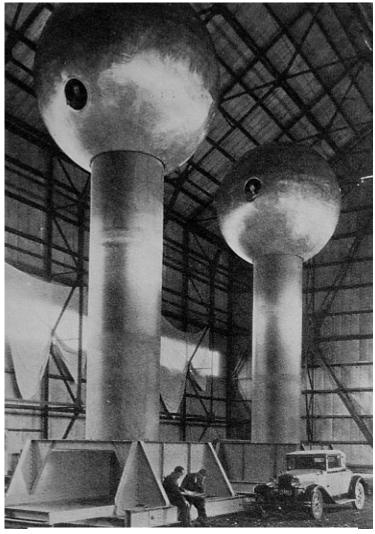
Electrostatic Field:

Force: $\vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = e \vec{E}$

Energy gain: $W = e \Delta V$

used for first stage of acceleration: particle sources, electron guns, x-ray tubes

Limitation: insulation problems maximum high voltage (~ 10 MV)



Van-de-Graaf generator at MIT

Methods of Acceleration: Time varying fields

Electrostatic field is limited by insulation problems, the magnetic field does not accelerate at all.

Circular machine: DC acceleration impossible since $\oint ec{E} \cdot \mathrm{d} ec{s} = 0$



From Maxwell's Equations:
$$\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}\phi - \frac{\partial A}{\partial t}$$

$$\vec{B} = \mu \vec{H} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$$

or
$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$$

The electric field is derived from a scalar potential φ and a vector potential AThe time variation of the magnetic field H generates an electric field E

The solution: => time varying electric fields

- Induction
- RF frequency fields

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = -\iint \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \cdot d\vec{A}$$

Consequence: We can only accelerate bunched beam!

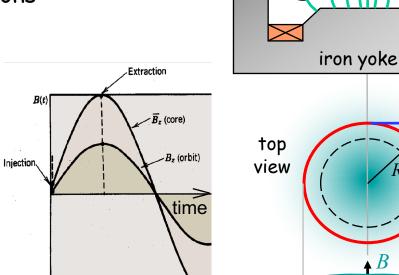
Acceleration by Induction: The Betatron

It is based on the principle of a transformer:

- primary side: large electromagnet - secondary side: electron beam. The ramping magnetic field is used to guide particles on a circular trajectory as well as for acceleration.

Limited by saturation in iron (~300 MeV e-)

Used in industry and medicine, as they are compact accelerators for electrons



vacuum

pipe

side view

Donald Kerst with the first betatron, invented at the University of Illinois in 1940

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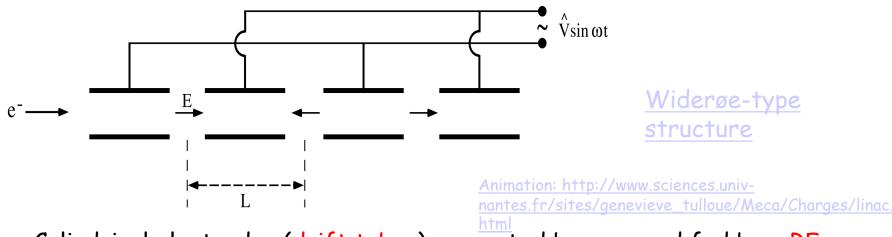
beam

beam

coil

Radio-Frequency (RF) Acceleration

Electrostatic acceleration limited by isolation possibilities => use RF fields

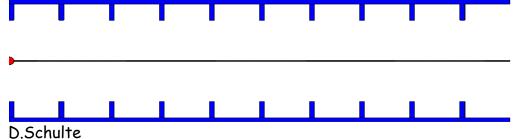


Cylindrical electrodes (drift tubes) separated by gaps and fed by a RF generator, as shown above, lead to an alternating electric field polarity

Synchronism condition

$$\rightarrow$$
 L = v T/2

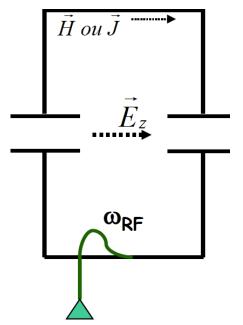
v = particle velocity T = RF period



Similar for standing wave cavity as shown (with $v \approx c$)

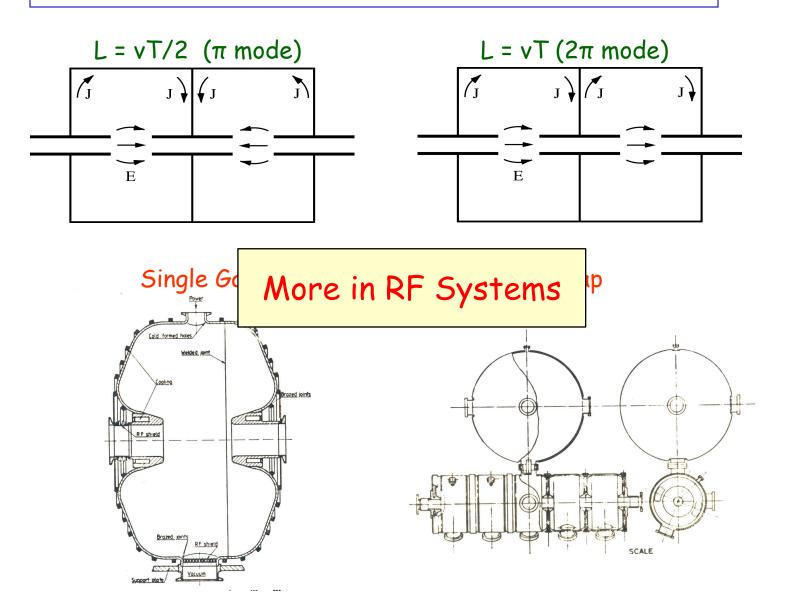
Resonant RF Cavities

- Considering RF acceleration, it is obvious that when particles get high velocities the drift spaces get longer and one looses on the efficiency.
 The solution consists of using a higher operating frequency.
- The power lost by radiation, due to circulating currents on the electrodes, is proportional to the RF frequency.
 - => The solution consists of enclosing the system in a cavity which resonant frequency matches the RF generator frequency.



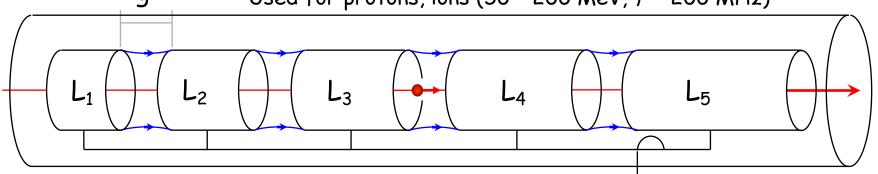
- The electromagnetic power is now constrained in the resonant volume
- Each such cavity can be independently powered from the RF generator
- Note however that joule losses will occur in the cavity walls (unless made of superconducting materials)

Some RF Cavity Examples



RF acceleration: Alvarez Structure

Used for protons, ions (50 - 200 MeV, $f \sim 200$ MHz)

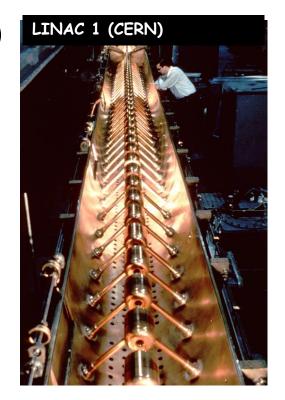


RF generator (\sim





$$\omega_{RF} = 2\pi \frac{v_s}{L}$$



Summary: Relativity + Energy Gain

Newton-Lorentz Force
$$\vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = e(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B})$$

2nd term always perpendicular to motion => no acceleration

Relativistics Dynamics

$$\beta = \frac{v}{c} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{\gamma^2}} \qquad \gamma = \frac{E}{E_0} = \frac{m}{m_0} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} \qquad E_z = \hat{E}_z \sin \omega_{RF} t = \hat{E}_z \sin \phi(t)$$

$$p = mv = \frac{E}{c^2}\beta c = \beta \frac{E}{c} = \beta \gamma m_0 c$$

$$E^2 = E_0^2 + p^2 c^2 \longrightarrow dE = vdp$$

$$\frac{dE}{dz} = v \frac{dp}{dz} = \frac{dp}{dt} = eE_z$$

$$dE = dW = eE_z dz \rightarrow W = e \int E_z dz$$

RF Acceleration

$$E_z = \hat{E}_z \sin \omega_{RF} t = \hat{E}_z \sin \phi(t)$$

$$\int \hat{E}_z \, dz = \hat{V}$$

$$W = e\hat{V}\sin\phi$$

(neglecting transit time factor)

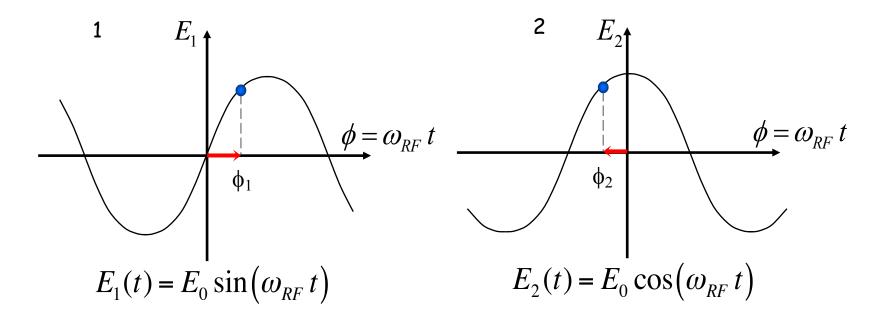
The field will change during the passage of the particle through the

=> effective energy gain is lower

Common Phase Conventions

- 1. For circular accelerators, the origin of time is taken at the zero crossing of the RF voltage with positive slope
- 2. For linear accelerators, the origin of time is taken at the positive crest of the RF voltage

Time t= 0 chosen such that:



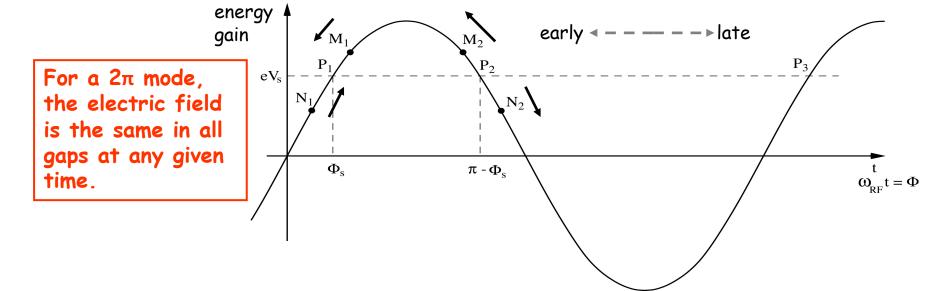
3. I will stick to convention 1 in the following to avoid confusion

Principle of Phase Stability (Linac)

Let's consider a succession of accelerating gaps, operating in the 2π mode, for which the synchronism condition is fulfilled for a phase Φ_{s} .

$$eV_S = e\hat{V}\sin\Phi_S$$

is the energy gain in one gap for the particle to reach the $eV_S = e\hat{V}\sin\Phi_S$ next gap with the same RF phase: P₁, P₂, are fixed points.



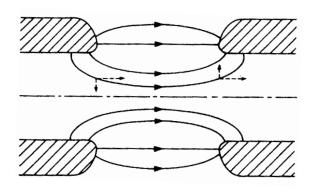
If an energy increase is transferred into a velocity increase =>

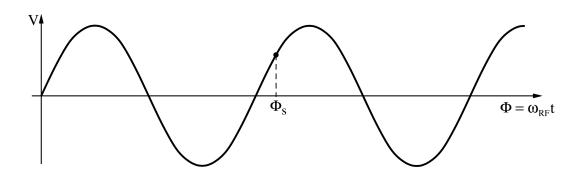
 $M_1 & N_1$ will move towards P_1 => stable

 M_2 & N_2 will go away from P_2 => unstable

(Highly relativistic particles have no significant velocity change)

A Consequence of Phase Stability





The divergence of the field is zero according to Maxwell:

$$\nabla \vec{E} = 0 \implies \frac{\partial E_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial E_z}{\partial z} = 0 \implies \frac{\partial E_x}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial E_z}{\partial z}$$

Transverse fields

- focusing at the entrance and
- defocusing at the exit of the cavity.

Electrostatic case: Energy gain inside the cavity leads to focusing

RF case: Field increases during passage => transverse defocusing!

External focusing (solenoid, quadrupole) is then necessary

Energy-phase Oscillations (Small Amplitude) (1)

- Rate of energy gain for the synchronous particle:

$$\frac{dE_s}{dz} = \frac{dp_s}{dt} = eE_0 \sin \phi_s$$

- Rate of energy gain for a non-synchronous particle, expressed in reduced variables, $_{\mathcal{W}}=W-W_{_{\mathrm{c}}}=E-E_{_{\mathrm{c}}}$ and $_{\mathcal{Q}}=\phi-\phi_{_{\mathrm{c}}}$:

$$\frac{dw}{dz} = eE_0[\sin(\phi_s + \varphi) - \sin\phi_s] \approx eE_0\cos\phi_s.\varphi \quad (small \varphi)$$

- Rate of change of the phase with respect to the synchronous one:

$$\frac{d\varphi}{dz} = \omega_{RF} \left(\frac{dt}{dz} - \left(\frac{dt}{dz} \right)_{s} \right) = \omega_{RF} \left(\frac{1}{v} - \frac{1}{v_{s}} \right) \cong -\frac{\omega_{RF}}{v_{s}^{2}} \left(v - v_{s} \right)$$

Leads finally to:
$$\frac{d\varphi}{dz} = -\frac{\omega_{RF}}{m_0 v_s^3 \gamma_s^3} w$$

Energy-phase Oscillations (Small Amplitude) (2)

Combining the two 1st order equations into a 2nd order equation gives the equation of a harmonic oscillator:

$$\frac{d^2\varphi}{dz^2} + \Omega_s^2 \varphi = 0$$

with

$$\Omega_s^2 = \frac{eE_0\omega_{RF}\cos\phi_s}{m_0v_s^3\gamma_s^3}$$

Slower for higher energy!

Stable harmonic oscillations imply:

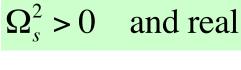
hence:
$$\cos \phi_{\rm s} > 0$$

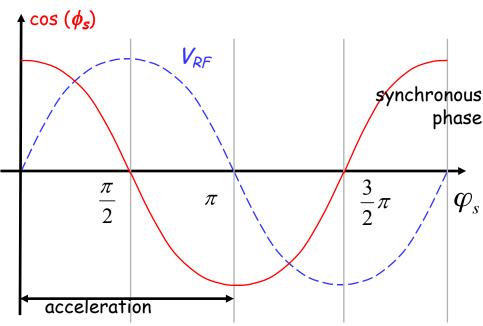
And since acceleration also means:

$$\sin \phi_s > 0$$

You finally get the result for the stable phase range:

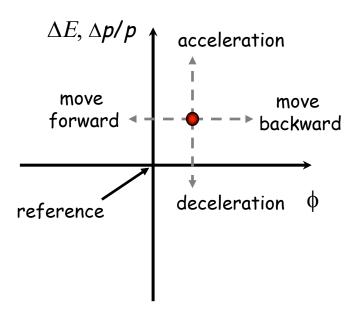
$$0 < \phi_s < \frac{\pi}{2}$$



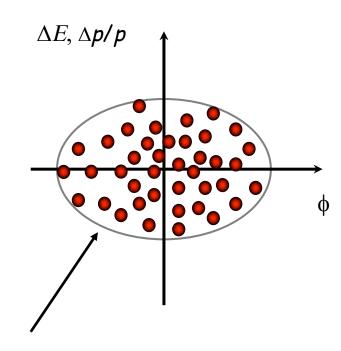


Longitudinal phase space

The energy - phase oscillations can be drawn in phase space:



The particle trajectory in the phase space $(\Delta p/p, \phi)$ describes its longitudinal motion.



Emittance: phase space area including all the particles

NB: if the emittance contour correspond to a possible orbit in phase space, its shape does not change with time (matched beam)

Summary up to here...

- Acceleration by electric fields, static fields limited
 time-varying fields
- Synchronous condition needs to be fulfilled for acceleration
- Particles perform oscillation around synchronous phase
- visualize oscillations in phase space
- Electrons are quickly relativistic, speed does not change use traveling wave structures for acceleration
- Protons and ions need changing structure geometry

Circular accelerators

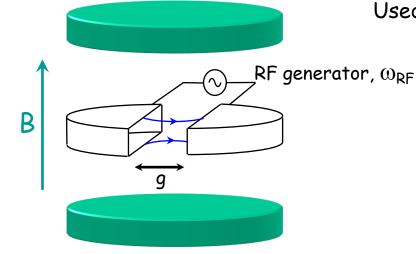
Cyclotron
Synchrotron

Circular accelerators: Cyclotron



Courtesy: EdukiteLearning, https://youtu.be/cNnNM2ZqIsc

Circular accelerators: Cyclotron



Used for protons, ions

= constant

 ω_{RF} = constant

Synchronism condition



$$\omega_{s} = \omega_{RF}$$

$$\omega_{s} = \omega_{RF}$$

$$2\pi \ \rho = v_{s} \ T_{RF}$$

$$\omega = \frac{q B}{m_0 \gamma}$$

- γ increases with the energy ⇒ no exact synchronism
- 2. if $\mathbf{v} \ll \mathbf{c} \Rightarrow \gamma \cong \mathbf{1}$

Cyclotron Animation

Animation: http://www.sciences.univ-nantes.fr/sites/genevieve_tulloue/Meca/Charges/cyclotron.html

Circular accelerators: Cyclotron



Courtesy Berkeley Lab, https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cutKuFxeXmQ

Cyclotron / Synchrocyclotron





Synchrocyclotron: Same as cyclotron, except a modulation of $\omega_{\sf RF}$

B = constant

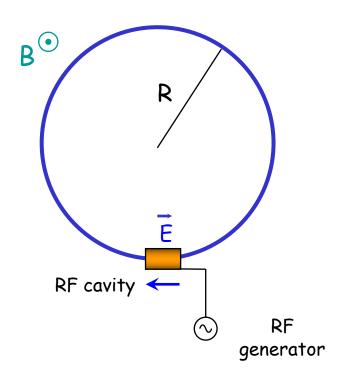
 $\gamma \omega_{RF}$ = constant ω_{RF} decreases with time

The condition:

$$\omega_s(t) = \omega_{RF}(t) = \frac{q B}{m_0 \gamma(t)}$$

Allows to go beyond the non-relativistic energies

Circular accelerators: The Synchrotron



- 1. Constant orbit during acceleration
- 2. To keep particles on the closed orbit, B should increase with time
- 3. ω and ω_{RF} increase with energy

RF frequency can be multiple of revolution frequency

$$\omega_{RF} = h\omega$$

Synchronism condition



$$T_{s} = h T_{RF}$$

$$\frac{2\pi R}{v_{s}} = h T_{RF}$$

h integer,
harmonic number:
number of RF cycles
per revolution

Circular accelerators: The Synchrotron

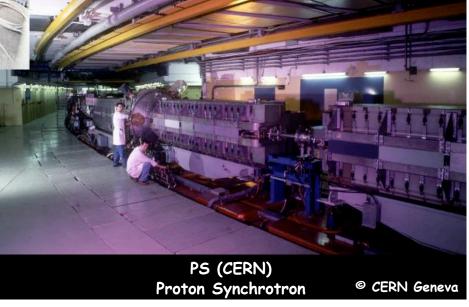


EPA (CERN)
Electron Positron Accumulator

© CERN Geneva

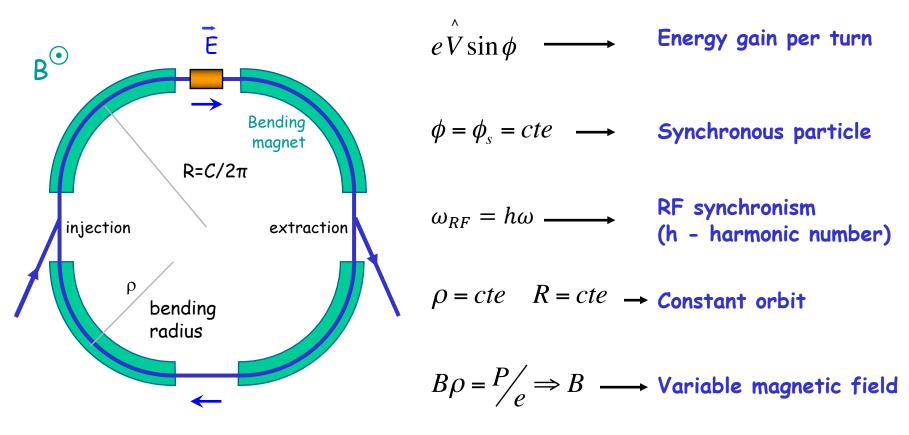
Examples of different proton and electron synchrotrons at CERN

+ LHC (of course!)



The Synchrotron

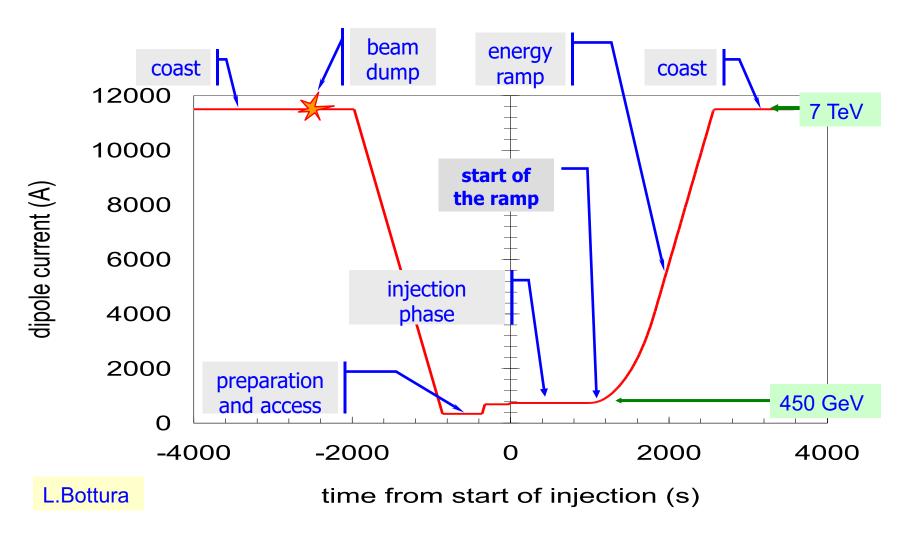
The synchrotron is a synchronous accelerator since there is a synchronous RF phase for which the energy gain fits the increase of the magnetic field at each turn. That implies the following operating conditions:



If $v \approx c$, ω hence ω_{RF} remain constant (ultra-relativistic e^{-})

The Synchrotron - LHC Operation Cycle

The magnetic field (dipole current) is increased during the acceleration.



The Synchrotron - Energy ramping

Energy ramping by increasing the B field (frequency has to follow v):

$$p = eB\rho \implies \frac{dp}{dt} = e\rho \,\dot{B} \implies (\Delta p)_{turn} = e\rho \,\dot{B}T_r = \frac{2\pi \,e\rho \,R\dot{B}}{v}$$

Since:

$$E^2 = E_0^2 + p^2 c^2 \implies \Delta E = v \Delta p$$

$$(\Delta E)_{turn} = (\Delta W)_s = 2\pi e \rho R \dot{B} = e \hat{V} \sin \phi_s$$

Stable phase φ_s changes during energy ramping

- The number of stable synchronous particles is equal to the harmonic number h. They are equally spaced along the circumference.
- Each synchronous particle satisfies the relation $p=eB\rho$. They have the nominal energy and follow the nominal trajectory.

The Synchrotron - Frequency change

During the energy ramping, the RF frequency increases to follow the increase of the revolution frequency:

$$\omega = \frac{\omega_{RF}}{h} = \omega(B, R_S)$$

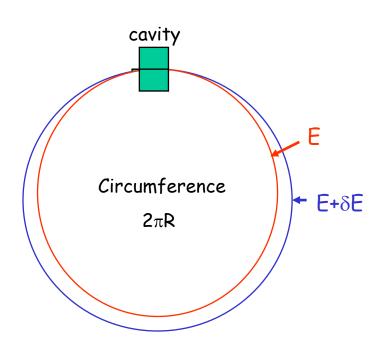
Hence:
$$\frac{f_{RF}(t)}{h} = \frac{v(t)}{2\pi R_s} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{ec^2}{E_s(t)} \frac{\rho}{R_s} B(t)$$
 (using $p(t) = eB(t)\rho$, $E = mc^2$)

Since $E^2 = (m_0 c^2)^2 + p^2 c^2$ the RF frequency must follow the variation of the B field with the law

$$\frac{f_{RF}(t)}{h} = \frac{c}{2\pi R_s} \left\{ \frac{B(t)^2}{(m_0 c^2 / ec\rho)^2 + B(t)^2} \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

This asymptotically tends towards $f_r \to \frac{c}{2\pi R_s}$ when B becomes large compared to $m_0c^2/(ec\rho)$ which corresponds to $v \to c$

Dispersion Effects in a Synchrotron



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:

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

If the particle is shifted in momentum it will have also a different velocity.

As a result of both effects the revolution frequency changes with a "slip factor":

$$\eta = \frac{\frac{\mathrm{d} f_r}{f_r}}{\frac{\mathrm{d} p}{p}} \Rightarrow \eta = \frac{p}{f_r} \frac{df_r}{dp}$$

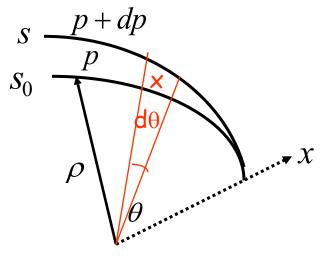
p=particle momentum
R=synchrotron physical radius
f_r=revolution frequency

Momentum Compaction Factor

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

$$ds_0 = \rho d\theta$$
$$ds = (\rho + x)d\theta$$

$$ds = (\rho + x)d\theta$$



The elementary path difference

from the two orbits is: definition of dispersion D_x

$$\frac{dl}{ds_0} = \frac{ds - ds_0}{ds_0} = \frac{x}{\rho} = \frac{D_x}{\rho} \frac{dp}{p}$$

leading to the total change in the circumference:

$$dL = \int_{C} dl = \int_{C} \frac{x}{\rho} ds_0 = \int_{C} \frac{D_x}{\rho} \frac{dp}{p} ds_0$$

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

we get:

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

 $\langle \rangle_{m}$ means that the average is considered over the bending magnet only

Dispersion Effects - Revolution Frequency

There are two effects changing the revolution frequency: the orbit length and the velocity of the particle

$$f_r = \frac{\beta c}{2\pi R}$$
 \Rightarrow $\frac{df_r}{f_r} = \frac{d\beta}{\beta} - \frac{dR}{R} = \frac{d\beta}{\beta} - \alpha_c \frac{dp}{p}$

definition of momentum compaction factor

$$p = mv = \beta \gamma \frac{E_0}{c} \implies \frac{dp}{p} = \frac{d\beta}{\beta} + \frac{d(1-\beta^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}}{(1-\beta^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}} = \underbrace{(1-\beta^2)^{-1}}_{\gamma^2} \frac{d\beta}{\beta}$$

$$\frac{df_r}{f_r} = \left(\frac{1}{\gamma^2} - \alpha_c\right) \frac{dp}{p} \qquad \xrightarrow{f_r} = \eta \frac{dp}{p}$$

$$\eta = \frac{1}{\gamma^2} - \alpha_c$$

$$\frac{df_r}{f_r} = \eta \frac{dp}{p}$$

$$\eta = \frac{1}{\gamma^2} - \alpha_c$$

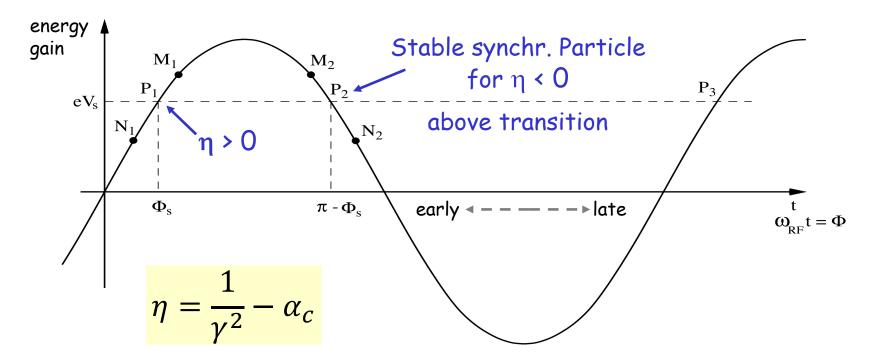
 $\eta=0$ at the transition energy

$$\gamma_t = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_c}}$$

Phase Stability in a Synchrotron

From the definition of η it is clear that an increase in momentum gives

- below transition ($\eta > 0$) a higher revolution frequency (increase in velocity dominates) while
- above transition (η < 0) a lower revolution frequency ($v \approx c$ and longer path) where the momentum compaction (generally > 0) dominates.



Crossing Transition

At transition, the velocity change and the path length change with momentum compensate each other. So the revolution frequency there is independent from the momentum deviation.

Crossing transition during acceleration makes the previous stable synchronous phase unstable. The RF system needs to make a rapid change

of the RF phase, a 'phase jump'.

$$\alpha_c \sim \frac{1}{Q_x^2} \qquad \gamma_t = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_c}} \sim Q_x$$

In the PS: γ_t is at ~6 GeV

In the SPS: γ_t = 22.8, injection at γ =27.7

=> no transition crossing!

In the LHC: γ_t is at ~55 GeV, also far below injection energy

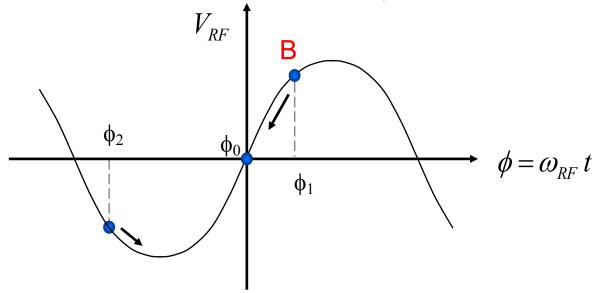
Transition crossing not needed in leptons machines, why?

Dynamics: Synchrotron oscillations

Simple case (no accel.): B = const., below transition $\gamma < \gamma_t$

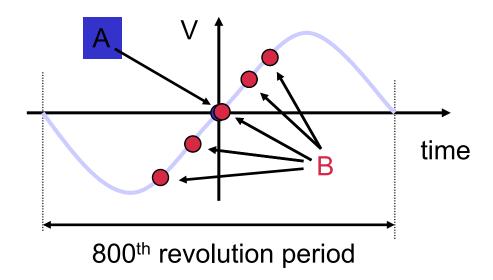
The phase of the synchronous particle must therefore be $\phi_0 = 0$.

- Φ_1 The particle B is accelerated
 - Below transition, an energy increase means an increase in revolution frequency
 - The particle arrives earlier tends toward ϕ_0

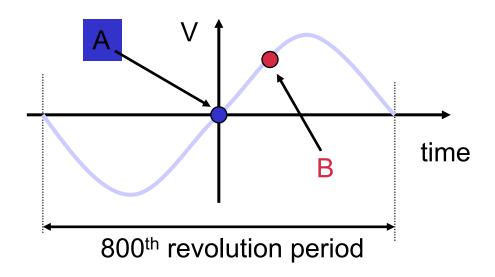


- ϕ_2 The particle is decelerated
 - decrease in energy decrease in revolution frequency
 - The particle arrives later tends toward ϕ_0

Synchrotron oscillations



Synchrotron oscillations



Particle B has made one full oscillation around particle A.

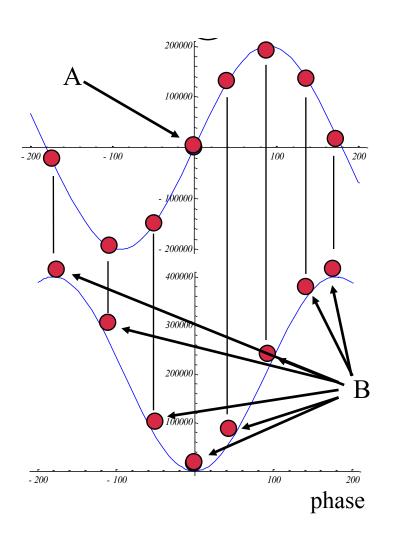
The amplitude depends on the initial phase and energy.

Exactly like the pendulum

This oscillation is called:

Synchrotron Oscillation

The Potential Well



Cavity voltage

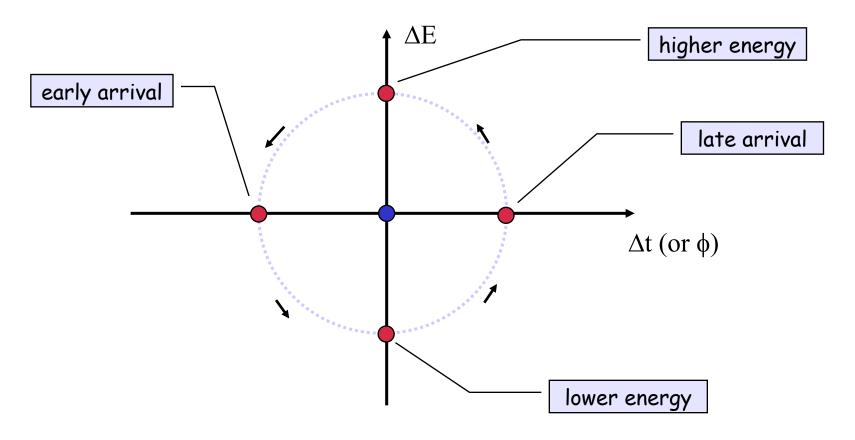
Potential well

Longitudinal Phase Space Motion

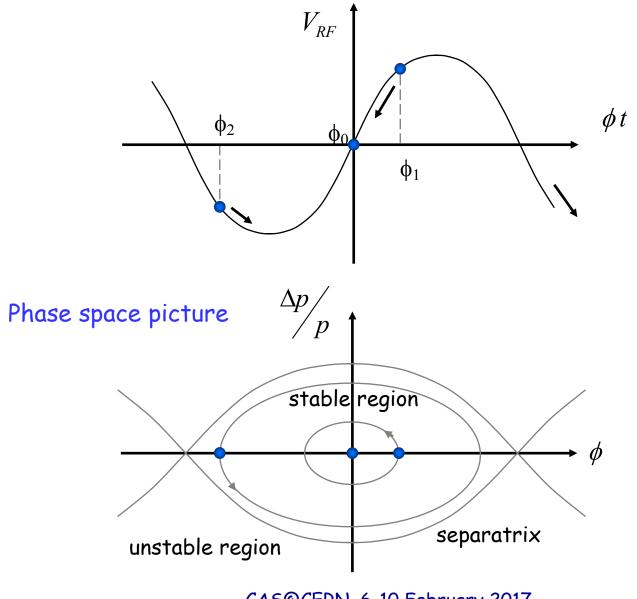
Particle B oscillates around particle A

This is a synchrotron oscillation

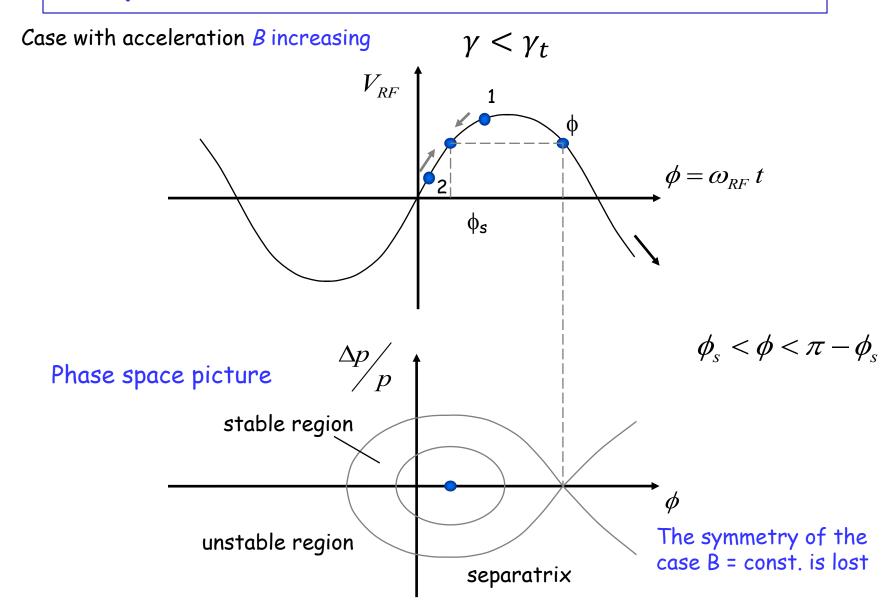
Plotting this motion in longitudinal phase space gives:



Synchrotron oscillations - No acceleration



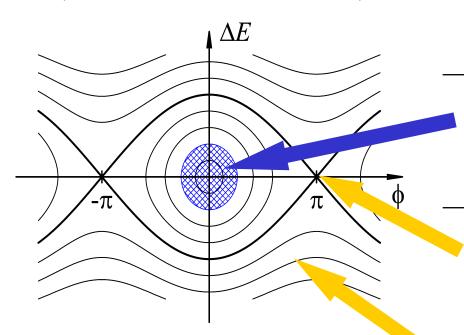
Synchrotron oscillations (with acceleration)



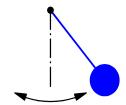
Synchrotron motion in phase space

 ΔE - ϕ phase space of a stationary bucket (when there is no acceleration)

Dynamics of a particle Non-linear, conservative oscillator \rightarrow e.g. pendulum



Particle inside the separatrix:

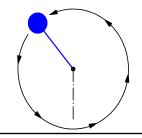


Particle at the **unstable fix-point**



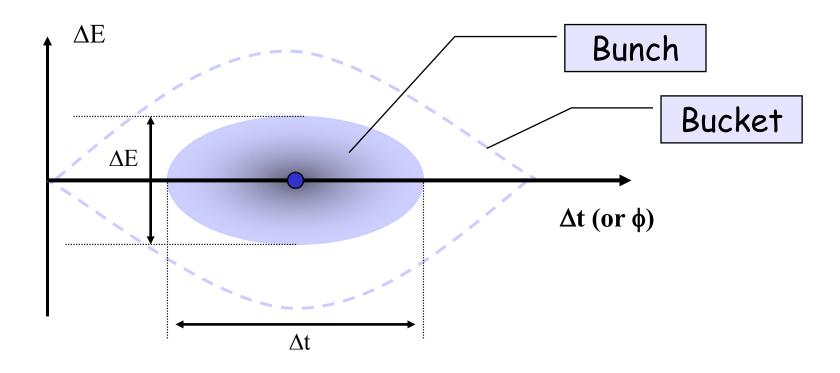
Bucket area: area enclosed by the separatrix The area covered by particles is the longitudinal emittance

Particle outside the separatrix:



(Stationary) Bunch & Bucket

The bunches of the beam fill usually a part of the bucket area.



Bucket area = Iongitudinal Acceptance [eVs]

Bunch area = longitudinal beam emittance = $4\pi \sigma_E \sigma_t$ [eVs]

Attention: Different definitions are used!

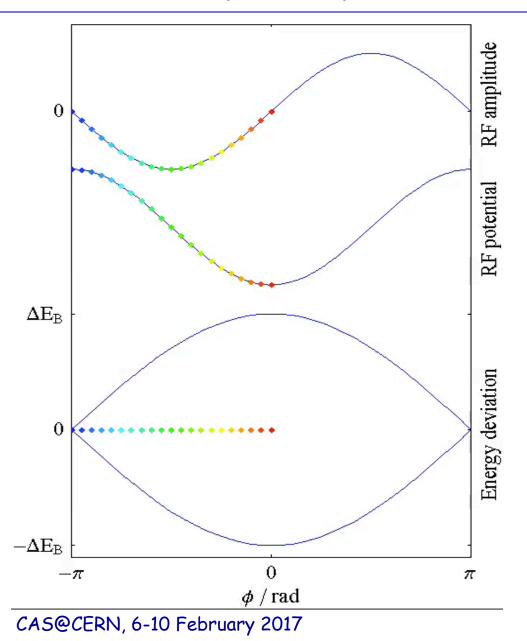
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Synchrotron motion in phase space

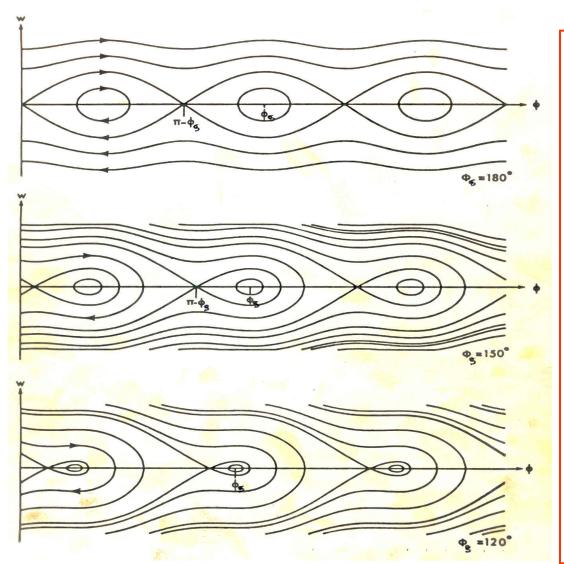
The restoring force is non-linear.

⇒ speed of motion depends on position in phase-space

(here shown for a stationary bucket)



RF Acceptance versus Synchronous Phase



The areas of stable motion (closed trajectories) are called "BUCKET".

As the synchronous phase gets closer to 90° the buckets gets smaller.

The number of circulating buckets is equal to "h".

The phase extension of the bucket is maximum for ϕ_s =180° (or 0°) which correspond to no acceleration . The RF acceptance increases with the RF voltage.

Longitudinal Dynamics in Synchrotrons

It is also often called "synchrotron motion".

The RF acceleration process clearly emphasizes two coupled variables, the energy gained by the particle and the RF phase experienced by the same particle. Since there is a well defined synchronous particle which has always the same phase ϕ_s , and the nominal energy E_s , it is sufficient to follow other particles with respect to that particle.

So let's introduce the following reduced variables:

revolution frequency: $\Delta f_r = f_r - f_{rs}$

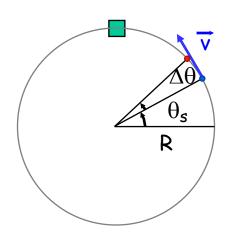
particle RF phase : $\Delta \phi = \phi - \phi_s$

particle momentum : $\Delta p = p - p_s$

particle energy : $\Delta E = E - E_s$

azimuth angle : $\Delta\theta = \theta - \theta_s$

First Energy-Phase Equation



$$f_{RF} = hf_r \implies \Delta \phi = -h\Delta \theta \quad \text{with} \quad \theta = \int \omega \ dt$$
 particle ahead arrives earlier => smaller RF phase

For a given particle with respect to the reference one:

$$\Delta \omega = \frac{d}{dt} (\Delta \theta) = -\frac{1}{h} \frac{d}{dt} (\Delta \phi) = -\frac{1}{h} \frac{d\phi}{dt}$$

Since:
$$\eta = \frac{p_s}{\omega_{rs}} \left(\frac{d\omega}{dp}\right)_s$$

and

$$E^{2} = E_{0}^{2} + p^{2}c^{2}$$

$$\Delta E = v_{s}\Delta p = \omega_{rs}R_{s}\Delta p$$

$$\frac{\Delta E}{\omega_{rs}} = -\frac{p_s R_s}{h \eta \omega_{rs}} \frac{d(\Delta \phi)}{dt} = -\frac{p_s R_s}{h \eta \omega_{rs}} \dot{\phi}$$

Second Energy-Phase Equation

The rate of energy gained by a particle is: $\frac{dE}{dt} = e\hat{V}\sin\phi \frac{\omega_r}{2\pi}$

The rate of relative energy gain with respect to the reference particle is then: $/\div$

 $2\pi\Delta\left(\frac{\dot{E}}{\omega_r}\right) = e\hat{V}(\sin\phi - \sin\phi_s)$

Expanding the left-hand side to first order:

$$\Delta \left(\dot{E}T_r \right) \cong \dot{E}\Delta T_r + T_{rs}\Delta \dot{E} = \Delta E \dot{T}_r + T_{rs}\Delta \dot{E} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(T_{rs}\Delta E \right)$$

leads to the second energy-phase equation:

$$2\pi \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\Delta E}{\omega_{rs}} \right) = e\hat{V} \left(\sin \phi - \sin \phi_{s} \right)$$

Equations of Longitudinal Motion

$$\frac{\Delta E}{\omega_{rs}} = -\frac{p_s R_s}{h \eta \omega_{rs}} \frac{d(\Delta \phi)}{dt} = -\frac{p_s R_s}{h \eta \omega_{rs}} \dot{\phi}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left[\frac{R_s p_s}{h \eta \omega_{rs}} \frac{d\phi}{dt} \right] + \frac{e\hat{V}}{2\pi} (\sin \phi - \sin \phi_s) = 0$$

This second order equation is non linear. Moreover the parameters within the bracket are in general slowly varying with time.

We will study some cases in the following...

Small Amplitude Oscillations

Let's assume constant parameters R_s , p_s , ω_s and η :

$$\ddot{\phi} + \frac{\Omega_s^2}{\cos\phi_s} \left(\sin\phi - \sin\phi_s\right) = 0 \quad \text{with} \quad \Omega_s^2 = \frac{h\eta\omega_{rs}e\hat{V}\cos\phi_s}{2\pi R_s p_s}$$

Consider now small phase deviations from the reference particle:

$$\sin\phi - \sin\phi_s = \sin(\phi_s + \Delta\phi) - \sin\phi_s \cong \cos\phi_s \Delta\phi$$
 (for small $\Delta\phi$)

and the corresponding linearized motion reduces to a harmonic oscillation:

$$\ddot{\phi} + \Omega_s^2 \Delta \phi = 0$$

where Ω_s is the synchrotron angular frequency

Stability condition for ϕ_s

Stability is obtained when Ω_s is real and so Ω_s^2 positive:

$$\Omega_{s}^{2} = \frac{e \, \hat{V}_{RF} \, \eta \, h \, \omega_{s}}{2 \pi \, R_{s} \, p_{s}} \cos \phi_{s} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \Omega_{s}^{2} > 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \eta \cos \phi_{s} > 0$$

$$\frac{\pi}{2} \qquad \pi \qquad \qquad \frac{3}{2} \pi \qquad \phi$$
Stable in the region if
$$\frac{\pi}{2} \qquad \eta < 0 \qquad \eta < 0 \qquad \eta > 0$$

$$\frac{\pi}{2} \qquad \eta < 0 \qquad \eta < 0 \qquad \eta > 0$$

$$\frac{\pi}{2} \qquad \eta < 0 \qquad \eta < 0 \qquad \eta > 0$$

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Large Amplitude Oscillations

For larger phase (or energy) deviations from the reference the second order differential equation is non-linear:

$$\ddot{\phi} + \frac{\Omega_s^2}{\cos\phi_s} \left(\sin\phi - \sin\phi_s\right) = 0 \qquad (\Omega_s \text{ as previously defined})$$

Multiplying by $\dot{\phi}$ and integrating gives an invariant of the motion:

$$\frac{\dot{\phi}^2}{2} - \frac{\Omega_s^2}{\cos\phi_s} (\cos\phi + \phi\sin\phi_s) = I$$

which for small amplitudes reduces to:

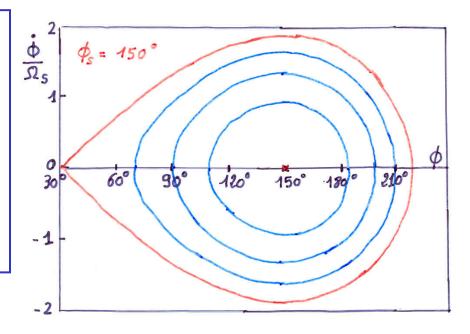
$$\frac{\dot{\phi}^2}{2} + \Omega_s^2 \frac{(\Delta \phi)^2}{2} = I'$$
 (the variable is $\Delta \phi$, and ϕ_s is constant)

Similar equations exist for the second variable : $\Delta E \propto d\phi/dt$

Large Amplitude Oscillations (2)

When ϕ reaches π - ϕ_s the force goes to zero and beyond it becomes non restoring.

Hence π - ϕ_s is an extreme amplitude for a stable motion which in the phase space($\frac{\dot{\phi}}{\Omega_s}$, $\Delta\phi$) is shown as closed trajectories.



Equation of the separatrix:

$$\frac{\dot{\phi}^2}{2} - \frac{\Omega_s^2}{\cos\phi_s} (\cos\phi + \phi\sin\phi_s) = -\frac{\Omega_s^2}{\cos\phi_s} (\cos(\pi - \phi_s) + (\pi - \phi_s)\sin\phi_s)$$

Second value ϕ_m where the separatrix crosses the horizontal axis:

$$\cos\phi_m + \phi_m \sin\phi_s = \cos(\pi - \phi_s) + (\pi - \phi_s) \sin\phi_s$$

Energy Acceptance

From the equation of motion it is seen that ϕ reaches an extreme when $\ddot{\phi}=0$, hence corresponding to $\phi=\phi_{\!\scriptscriptstyle S}$.

Introducing this value into the equation of the separatrix gives:

$$\dot{\phi}_{\text{max}}^2 = 2\Omega_s^2 \left\{ 2 + \left(2\phi_s - \pi \right) \tan \phi_s \right\}$$

That translates into an acceptance in energy:

$$\left(\frac{\Delta E}{E_s}\right)_{\text{max}} = \mp \beta \sqrt{-\frac{e\hat{V}}{\pi h \eta E_s}} G(\phi_s)$$

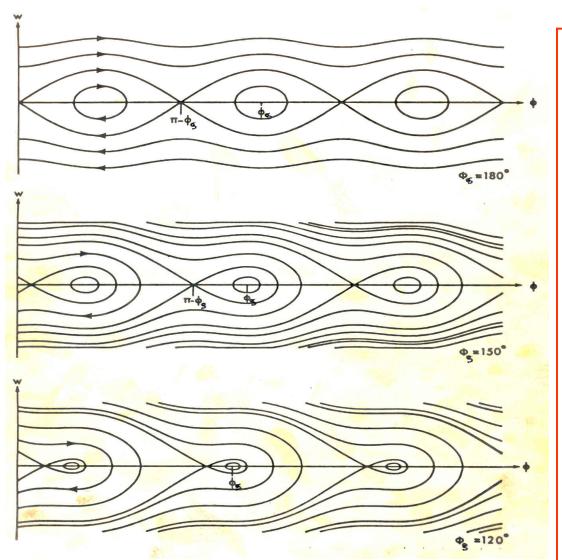
$$G(\phi_s) = \left[2\cos\phi_s + \left(2\phi_s - \pi\right)\sin\phi_s\right]$$

This "RF acceptance" depends strongly on ϕ_s and plays an important role for the capture at injection, and the stored beam lifetime.

It's largest for ϕ_s =0 and ϕ_s = π (no acceleration, depending on η).

Need a higher RF voltage for higher acceptance.

RF Acceptance versus Synchronous Phase



The areas of stable motion (closed trajectories) are called "BUCKET".

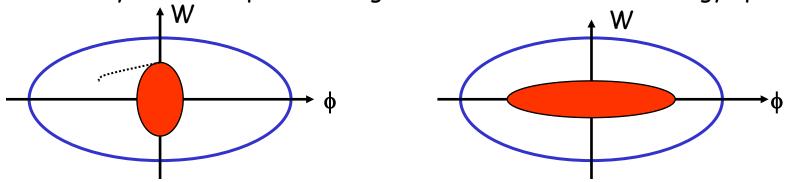
As the synchronous phase gets closer to 90° the buckets gets smaller.

The number of circulating buckets is equal to "h".

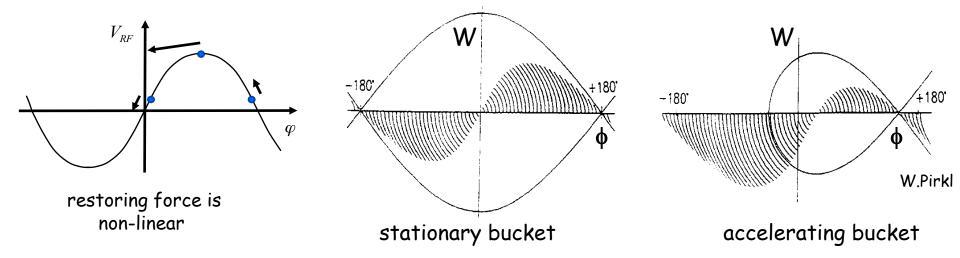
The phase extension of the bucket is maximum for ϕ_s =180° (or 0°) which correspond to no acceleration . The RF acceptance increases with the RF voltage.

Effect of a Mismatch

Injected bunch: short length and large energy spread after 1/4 synchrotron period: longer bunch with a smaller energy spread.



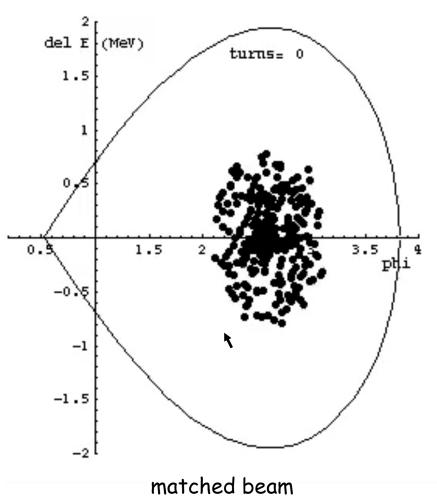
For larger amplitudes, the angular phase space motion is slower (1/8 period shown below) => can lead to filamentation and emittance growth

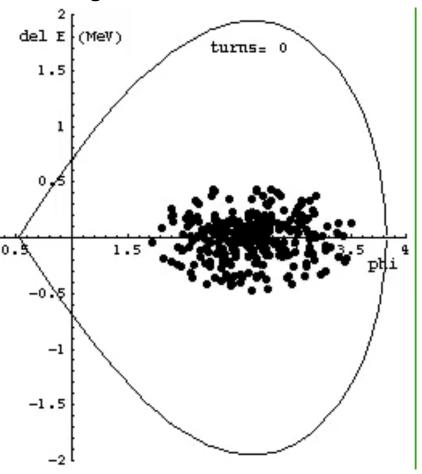


Effect of a Mismatch (2)

Evolution of an injected beam for the first 100 turns.

For a matched transfer, the emittance does not grow (left).



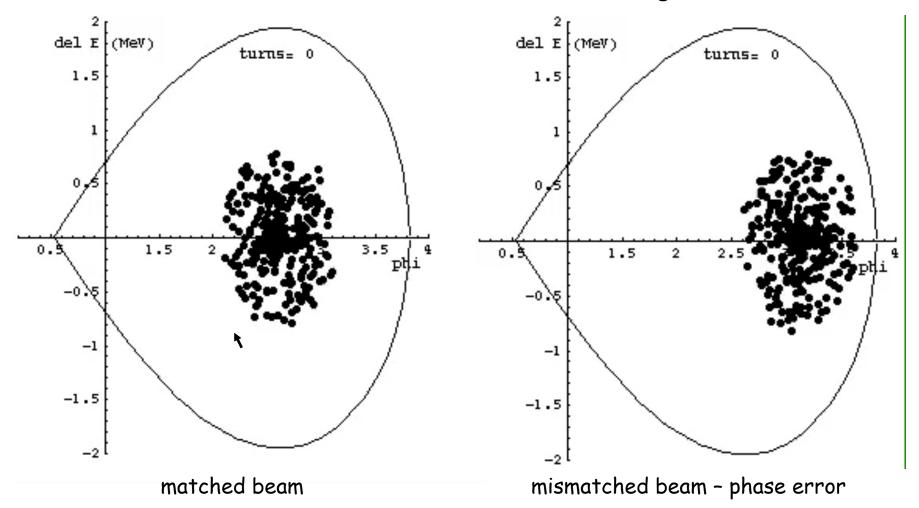


mismatched beam - bunch length

Effect of a Mismatch (3)

Evolution of an injected beam for the first 100 turns.

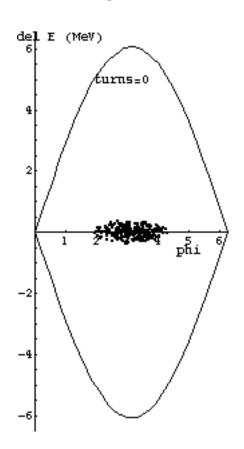
For a mismatched transfer, the emittance increases (right).

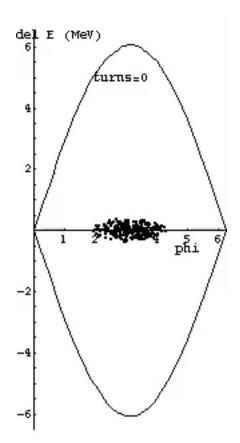


Bunch Rotation

Phase space motion can be used to make short bunches.

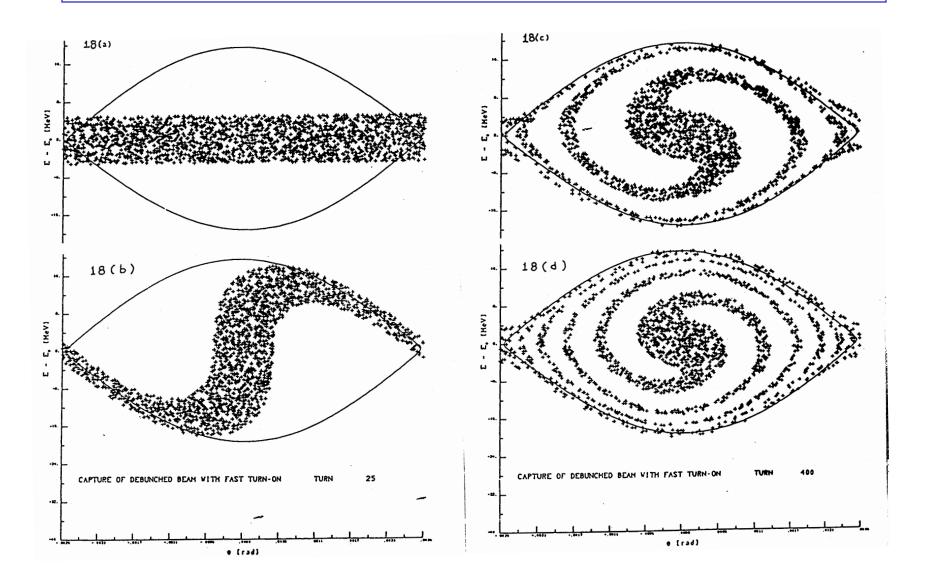
Start with a long bunch and extract or recapture when it's short.



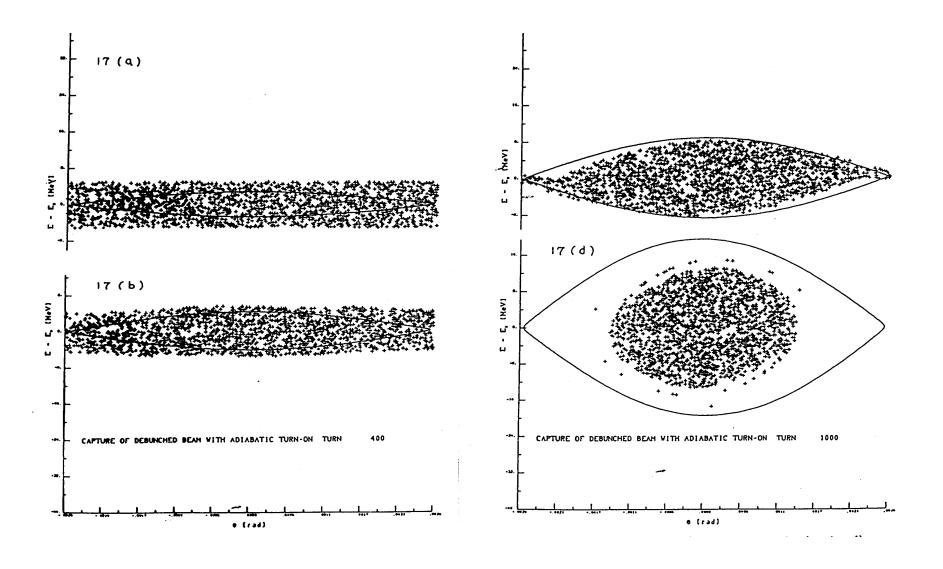


initial beam

Capture of a Debunched Beam with Fast Turn-On

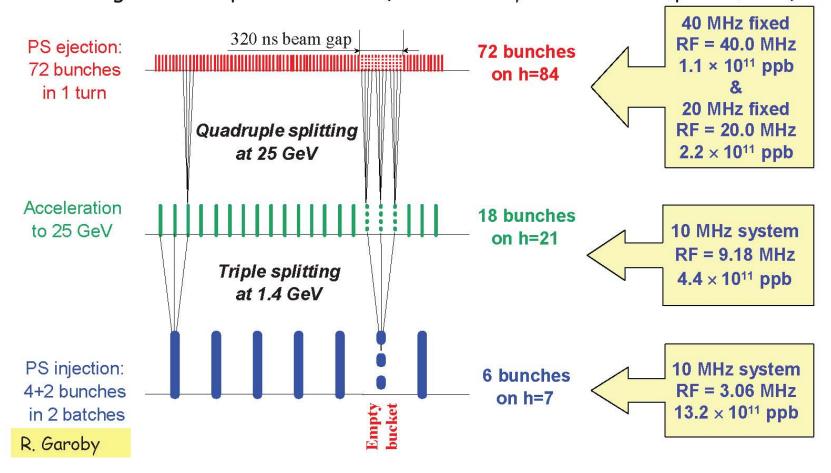


Capture of a Debunched Beam with Adiabatic Turn-On



Generating a 25ns Bunch Train in the PS

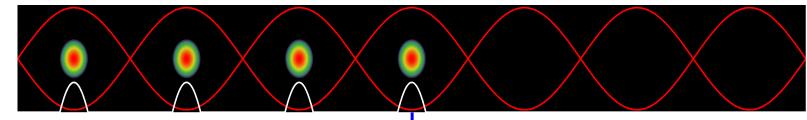
- Longitudinal bunch splitting (basic principle)
 - Reduce voltage on principal RF harmonic and simultaneously rise voltage on multiple harmonics (adiabatically with correct phase, etc.)



Use double splitting at 25 GeV to generate 50ns bunch trains instead

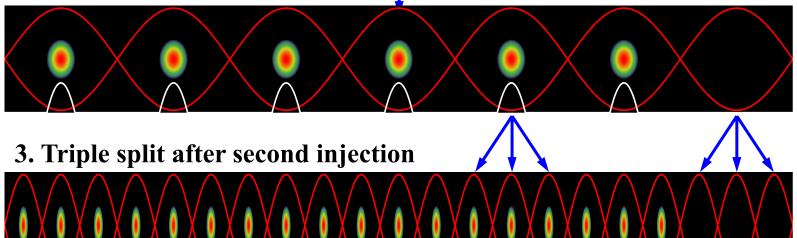
Production of the LHC 25 ns beam

1. Inject four bunches $\sim 180 \text{ ns}, 1.3 \text{ eVs}$



Wait 1.2 s for second injection

2. Inject two bunches

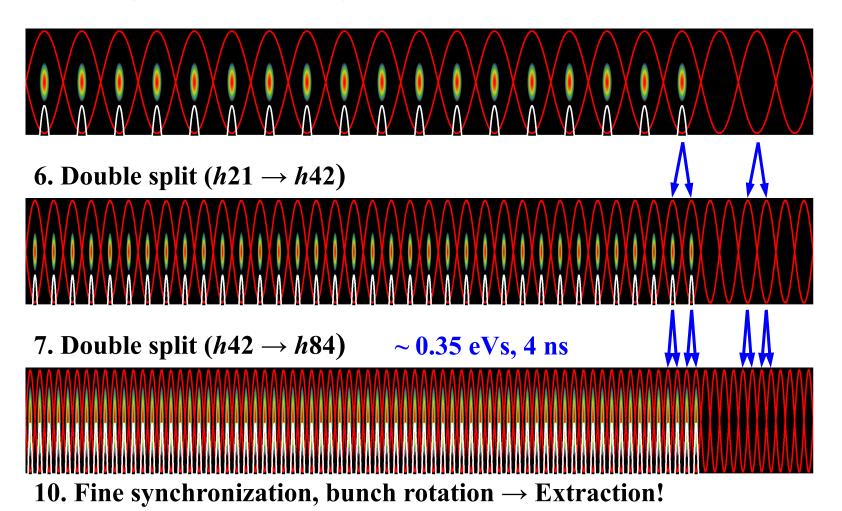


 $\sim 0.7 \text{ eVs}$

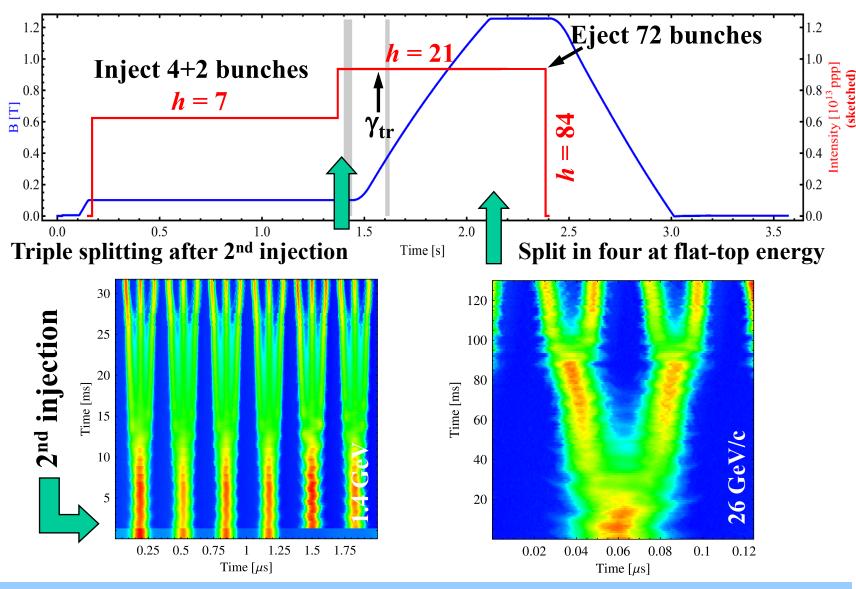
4. Accelerate from 1.4 GeV (E_{kin}) to 26 GeV

Production of the LHC 25 ns beam

5. During acceleration: longitudinal emittance blow-up: 0.7 - 1.3 eVs

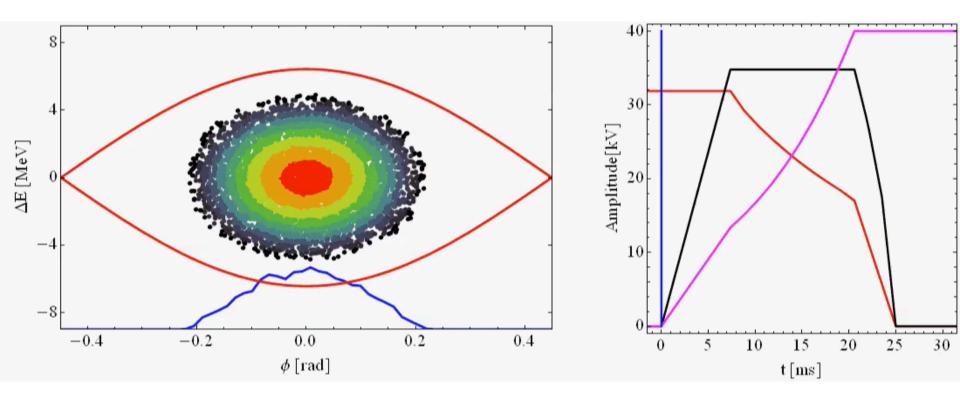


The LHC25 (ns) cycle in the PS



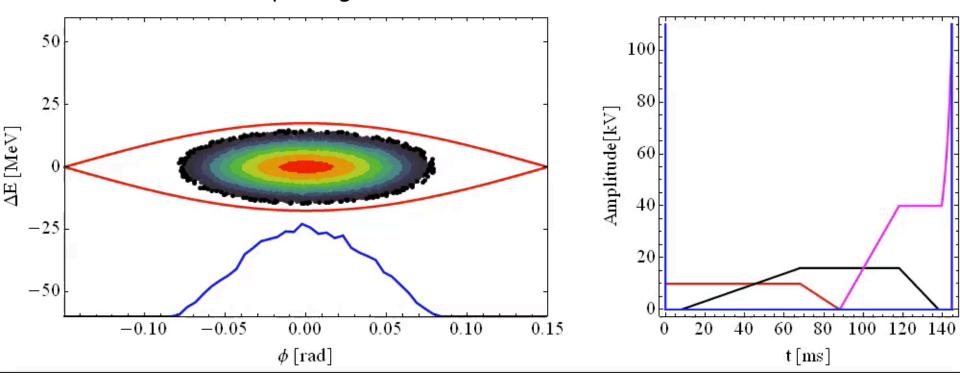
 \rightarrow Each bunch from the Booster divided by 12 \rightarrow 6 \times 3 \times 2 \times 2 = 72

Triple splitting in the PS



Two times double splitting in the PS

Two times double splitting and bunch rotation:



- Bunch is divided twice using RF systems at h = 21/42 (10/20 MHz) and h = 42/84 (20/40 MHz)
- Rotation: first part h84 only + h168 (80 MHz) for final part

Summary

- Cyclotrons/Synchrocylotrons for low energy
- Synchrotrons for high energies constant orbit, rising field and frequency
- Particles with higher energy have a longer orbit (normally) but a higher velocity
 - at low energies (below transition) velocity increase dominates
 - at high energies (above transition) velocity almost constant
- Particles perform oscillations around synchronous phase
 - synchronous phase depending on acceleration
 - below or above transition
- bucket is the region in phase space for stable oscillations
- matching the shape of the bunch to the bucket is important

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And CERN Accelerator Schools (CAS) Proceedings

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