

JUAS

LONGITUDINAL BEAM DYNAMICS

Elias Métral
BE Department - CERN

The present transparencies are inherited from [Frank Tecker](#) (CERN-BE), who gave this course two years ago (I already gave this course in 2011&12) and who inherited them from [Roberto Corsini](#) (CERN-BE), who gave this course in the previous years, based on the ones written by [Louis Rinolfi](#) (CERN-BE) who held the course at JUAS from 1994 to 2002 (see CERN/PS 2000-008 (LP)):
<http://cdsweb.cern.ch/record/446961/files/ps-2000-008.pdf>

Material from [Joel LeDuff's](#) Course at the CERN Accelerator School held at Jyväskylä, Finland the 7-18 September 1992 (CERN 94-01) has been used as well:
<http://cdsweb.cern.ch/record/235242/files/p253.pdf>
<http://cdsweb.cern.ch/record/235242/files/p259.pdf>

I attended the course given by Louis Rinolfi in 1996 and was his assistant in 2000 and 2001 (and the assistant of Michel Martini for his course on transverse beam dynamics)

This course and related exercises (as well as other courses) can be found in my web page:
<http://emmetral.web.cern.ch/emmetral/>

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8 Lectures
4 Tutorials

Fields & Forces
Relativity
Acceleration (electrostatic, RF)
Synchrotrons
Longitudinal phase space
Momentum Compaction
Transition energy
Synchrotron oscillations

Examination: WE 06/02/2013
(09:00 to 10:30)

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WEEK 2

	Monday Jan 14th	Tuesday Jan 15th	Wednesday Jan 16th	Thursday Jan 17th	Friday Jan 18th	
09:00	Transverse Dynamics lecture <i>A. Latina</i>	Longitudinal Dynamics lecture <i>E. Métral</i>	Transverse Dynamics lecture <i>A. Latina</i>	Transverse Dynamics lecture <i>A. Latina</i>	Longitudinal Dynamics lecture <i>E. Métral</i>	09:00
10:00		Coffee Break	Coffee Break	Coffee Break	Coffee Break	10:00
10:15	Bus leaves at 10h15 at JUAS (Lunch at ESRF)	Longitudinal Dynamics tutorial <i>E. Métral</i>	Longitudinal Dynamics lecture <i>E. Métral</i>	Longitudinal Dynamics lecture <i>E. Métral</i>	Longitudinal Dynamics lecture <i>E. Métral</i>	10:15
11:15		Transverse Dynamics lecture <i>A. Latina</i>	Longitudinal Dynamics tutorial <i>E. Métral</i>	Longitudinal Dynamics lecture <i>E. Métral</i>	Longitudinal Dynamics tutorial <i>E. Métral</i>	11:15
12:15		LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	12:15
14:00	VISIT OF ESRF	Intro. to MADX <i>A. Latina / G. Sterbini</i>	MADX <i>A. Latina / G. Sterbini</i>	MADX <i>A. Latina / G. Sterbini</i>	Longitudinal Dynamics tutorial <i>E. Métral</i>	14:00
15:00		Transverse Dynamics tutorial <i>A. Latina / J. Resta Lopez</i>	Longitudinal Dynamics lecture <i>E. Métral</i>	Transverse Dynamics tutorial <i>A. Latina / J. Resta Lopez</i>	Transverse Dynamics lecture <i>A. Latina</i>	15:00
16:00		Coffee Break	Coffee Break	Coffee Break	Coffee Break	16:00
16:15	Return scheduled at 20h00	Longitudinal Dynamics lecture <i>E. Métral</i>	Transverse Dynamics lecture <i>A. Latina</i>	Transverse Dynamics lecture <i>A. Latina</i>	Transverse Dynamics tutorial <i>A. Latina / J. Resta Lopez</i>	16:15
17:15		Shopping to Carrefour Market (Saint-Julien)				17:15
19:00						

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LESSON I

Fields & forces

Acceleration by time-varying fields

Relativistic equations

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Fields and force

Equation of motion for a particle of charge q

$$\vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = q(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B})$$

$\vec{p} = m\vec{v}$	Momentum
\vec{v}	Velocity
\vec{E}	Electric field
\vec{B}	Magnetic field

The fields must satisfy **Maxwell's equations**

The integral forms, in vacuum, are recalled below:

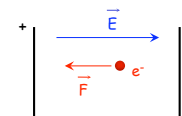
1. Gauss's law (electrostatic) $\int_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \int_V \rho dV$
2. No free magnetic poles (magnetostatic) $\int_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} = 0$
3. Ampere's law (modified by Gauss) (electric varying) $\int_L \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 \int_S \vec{j} \cdot d\vec{s} + \frac{1}{c^2} \int_S \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} \cdot d\vec{s}$
4. Faraday's law (magnetic varying) $\int_L \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = - \int_S \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \cdot d\vec{s}$

Maxwell's equations

The differential forms, in vacuum, are recalled below:

1. Gauss's law $\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho(\vec{r}, t)$
2. No free magnetic poles $\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0$
3. Ampere's law (modified by Gauss) $\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{j}(\vec{r}, t) + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$
4. Faraday's law $\nabla \times \vec{E} = - \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$

Constant electric field



$$\frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = -e \vec{E}$$

1. Direction of the force always parallel to the field
2. Trajectory can be modified, velocity also \Rightarrow momentum and energy can be modified

This force can be used to accelerate and decelerate particles

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Constant magnetic field

$$\frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = \vec{F} = -e(\vec{v} \times \vec{B})$$

1. Direction always perpendicular to the velocity
2. Trajectory can be modified, but not the velocity

$$e v B = \frac{m v^2}{\rho}$$

This force **cannot** modify the energy

magnetic rigidity: $B \rho = \frac{p}{e}$ angular frequency: $\omega = 2\pi f = \frac{e}{m} B$

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Application: spectrometer

Important relationship:

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

Real life example: CTF3

Time-resolved spectrum

Practical units:

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

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Larmor formula

An accelerating charge radiates a power P given by:

$$P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{r_e}{m_0 c} \left\{ \dot{p}_{\parallel}^2 + \gamma^2 \dot{p}_{\perp}^2 \right\}$$

Acceleration in the direction of the particle motion Acceleration perpendicular to the particle motion

↓

"Synchrotron radiation"

Energy lost on a trajectory L

$$W = \int_L \frac{P}{v} ds \rightarrow W [\text{eV/tum}] = 88 \cdot 10^3 \frac{E^4 [\text{GeV}]}{\rho [\text{m}]}$$

For electrons in a constant magnetic field:

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Comparison of magnetic and electric forces

$$|\vec{B}| = 1 \text{ T}$$

$$|\vec{E}| = 10 \text{ MV/m}$$

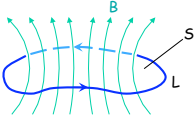
$$\frac{F_{\text{MAGN}}}{F_{\text{ELEC}}} = \frac{e v B}{e E} = \beta c \frac{B}{E} \approx 3 \cdot 10^8 \frac{1}{10^7} \beta = 30 \beta$$

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Acceleration by time-varying magnetic field

A variable magnetic field produces an electric field (Faraday's Law):

$$\int_L \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = -\int_S \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \cdot d\vec{s} = -\frac{d\Phi}{dt}$$


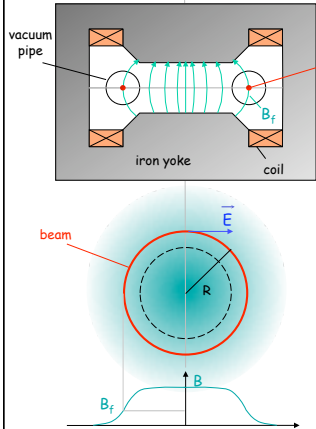
It is the **Betatron** concept

The varying magnetic field is used to guide particles on a circular trajectory as well as for acceleration

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Betatron



$$\int_L \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = 2\pi R E = -\frac{d\Phi}{dt} = -\pi R^2 \frac{dB_{ave}}{dt}$$

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = eE = \frac{1}{2} e R \frac{dB_{ave}}{dt}$$

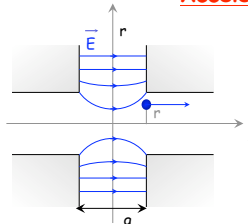
$$B \rho = \frac{p}{e} \Rightarrow \frac{dp}{dt} = e R \frac{dB_f}{dt}$$

$$B_f = \frac{1}{2} B_{ave} + const.$$

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Acceleration by time-varying electric field



- Let V_{RF} be the amplitude of the RF voltage across the gap g
- The particle crosses the gap at a distance r
- The energy gain is:

$$\Delta E = e \int_{-g/2}^{g/2} \vec{E}(s, r, t) d\vec{s}$$

[MeV] [n] [MV/m]
(1 for electrons or protons)

In the cavity gap, the electric field is supposed to be:

$$E(s, r, t) = E_1(s, r) \cdot E_2(t)$$

In general, $E_2(t)$ is a sinusoidal time variation with angular frequency ω_{RF}

$$E_2(t) = E_e \sin(\Phi(t)) \quad \text{where} \quad \Phi(t) = \int_0^t \omega_{RF} dt + \Phi_0$$

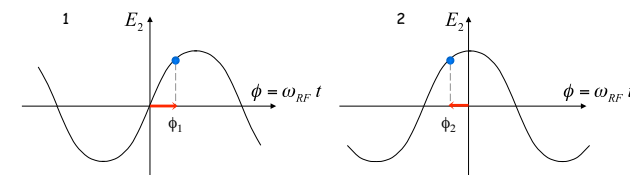
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Convention

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

Time $t=0$ chosen such that:



$$E_2(t) = E_e \sin(\omega_{RF} t)$$

$$E_2(t) = E_e \cos(\omega_{RF} t)$$

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Relativistic Equations

$E = mc^2$

<p style="text-align: center;">normalized velocity</p> $\beta = \frac{v}{c} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{\gamma^2}}$	<p style="text-align: center;">energy</p> $E = E_{kin} + E_0$ <p style="text-align: center;">total kinetic rest</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">total energy rest energy</p> $\gamma = \frac{E}{E_0} = \frac{m}{m_0} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$	<p style="text-align: center;">momentum</p> $p = mv = \beta \frac{E}{c} = \beta \gamma m_0 c$

energy	momentum	mass
eV	eV/c	eV/c ²

$p^2 c^2 = E^2 - E_0^2 \quad \gamma = 1 + \frac{E_{kin}}{E_0}$

$p [\text{GeV}/c] \cong 0.3 B [\text{T}] \rho [\text{m}]$

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First derivatives

$$d\beta = \beta^{-1} \gamma^{-3} d\gamma$$

$$d(cp) = E_0 \gamma^3 d\beta$$

$$d\gamma = \beta (1 - \beta^2)^{-3/2} d\beta$$

Logarithmic derivatives

$$\frac{d\beta}{\beta} = (\beta \gamma)^2 \frac{d\gamma}{\gamma}$$

$$\frac{dp}{p} = \frac{\gamma^2}{\gamma^2 - 1} \frac{dE}{E} = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma + 1} \frac{dE_{kin}}{E_{kin}}$$

$$\frac{d\gamma}{\gamma} = (\gamma^2 - 1) \frac{d\beta}{\beta}$$

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LESSON II

- An overview of particle acceleration
- Transit time factor
- Main RF parameters
- Momentum compaction
- Transition energy

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Relativistic Equations

$E = mc^2$

<p style="text-align: center;">normalized velocity</p> $\beta = \frac{v}{c} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{\gamma^2}}$	<p style="text-align: center;">energy</p> $E = E_{kin} + E_0$ <p style="text-align: center;">total kinetic rest</p>
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energy	momentum	mass
eV	eV/c	eV/c ²

$p^2 c^2 = E^2 - E_0^2 \quad \gamma = 1 + \frac{E_{kin}}{E_0}$

$p [\text{GeV}/c] \cong 0.3 B [\text{T}] \rho [\text{m}]$

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normalized velocity

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

total energy
rest energy

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

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Electrostatic accelerators

- The potential difference between two electrodes is used to accelerate particles
- Limited in energy by the maximum high voltage (~ 10 MV)
- Present applications: x-ray tubes, low energy ions, electron sources (thermionic guns)

Electric field potential and beam trajectories inside an electron gun (LEP Injector Linac at CERN), computed with the code E-GUN

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Electrostatic accelerator Protons & Ions

750 kV Cockcroft-Walton source of LINAC 2 (CERN) © CERN Geneva

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Alvarez structure

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

Synchronism condition ($g \ll L$)

$$L = v_s T_{RF} = \beta_s \lambda_{RF}$$

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

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Proton and ion linacs
(Alvarez structure)

LINAC 1 (CERN) © CERN Geneva

LINAC 2 (CERN) © CERN Geneva

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Electron Linac

Electrons are light \Rightarrow fast acceleration
 $\Rightarrow \beta \approx 1$ already at an energy of a few MeV

Uniform disk-loaded waveguide, travelling wave
 (up to 50 GeV, $f \sim 3$ GHz - S-band)

$E(z, t) = E_0 e^{i(\omega t - k z)}$ Electric field

Wave number $k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_{RF}}$ Phase velocity $v_{ph} = \frac{\omega}{k}$ Group velocity $v_g = \frac{d\omega}{dk}$

Synchronism condition $\Rightarrow v_{el} \approx c = \frac{\omega}{k} = v_{ph}$

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Electron linacs & structures

CLIC Accelerating Structures (30 GHz & 11 GHz)

LEP Injector Linac (LIL)

LIL accelerating structure with quadrupoles

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Used for protons, ions **Cyclotron**

$B = \text{constant}$
 $\omega_{RF} = \text{constant}$

Synchronism condition $\Rightarrow \omega_s = \omega_{RF}$
 $2\pi \rho = v_s T_{RF}$

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

- γ increases with the energy
 \Rightarrow no exact synchronism
- if $v \ll c \Rightarrow \gamma \approx 1$

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TRIUMF 520 MeV cyclotron University of British Columbia - Canada

Cyclotron (H^- accelerated, protons extracted)

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Synchrocyclotron

Same as cyclotron, except a modulation of ω_{RF}

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

The condition:

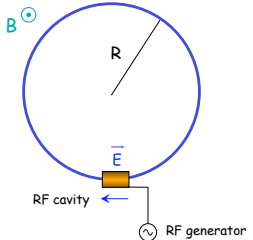
$$\omega_s(t) = \omega_{RF}(t) = \frac{q B}{m_0 \gamma(t)}$$

Allows to go beyond the non-relativistic energies

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Synchrotron



Synchronism condition

$$T_s = h T_{RF}$$

h integer, harmonic number

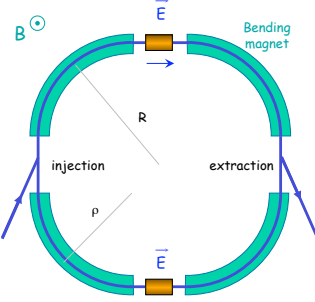
$$\frac{2\pi R}{v_s} = h T_{RF}$$

- ω_{RF} and ω increase with energy
- To keep particles on the closed orbit, B should increase with time

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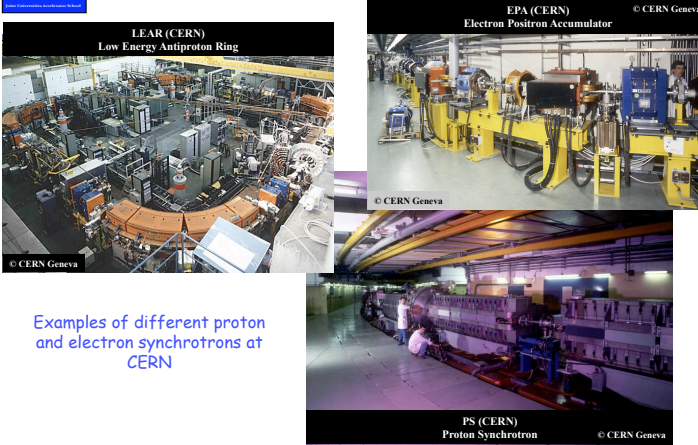
Synchrotron



- In reality, the orbit in a synchrotron is not a circle, straight sections are added for RF cavities, injection and extraction, etc..
- Usually the beam is pre-accelerated in a linac (or a smaller synchrotron) before injection
- The bending radius ρ does not coincide to the machine radius $R = L/2\pi$

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Examples of different proton and electron synchrotrons at CERN

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Parameters for circular accelerators

The basic principles, for the common circular accelerators, are based on the two relations:

- The **Lorentz equation**: the orbit radius can be expressed as:

$$R = \frac{\gamma v m_0}{eB}$$
- The **synchronicity condition**: The revolution frequency can be expressed as:

$$f = \frac{eB}{2\pi \gamma m_0}$$

According to the parameter we want to keep constant or let vary, one has different acceleration principles. They are summarized in the table below:

Machine	Energy (γ)	Velocity	Field	Orbit	Frequency
Cyclotron	~ 1	var.	const.	$\sim v$	const.
Synchrocyclotron	var.	var.	B(r)	$\sim p$	B(r)/ γ (t)
Proton/Ion synchrotron	var.	var.	$\sim p$	R	$\sim v$
Electron synchrotron	var.	const.	$\sim p$	R	const.

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Transit time factor

RF acceleration in a gap g

$E(s, r, t) = E_1(s, r) \cdot E_2(t)$

Simplified model \Rightarrow

$$E_1(s, r) = \frac{V_{RF}}{g} = \text{const.}$$

$$E_2(t) = \sin(\omega_{RF} t + \phi_0)$$

At $t = 0$, $s = 0$ and $v \neq 0$, parallel to the electric field

Energy gain:

$$\Delta E = e \int_{-g/2}^{g/2} E(s, r, t) ds \Rightarrow \Delta E = e V_{RF} T_a \sin \phi_0$$

$$T_a = \frac{\sin \frac{\omega_{RF} g}{2v}}{\frac{\omega_{RF} g}{2v}}$$

where

T_a is called **transit time factor**

- $T_a < 1$
- $T_a \rightarrow 1$ if $g \rightarrow 0$

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Transit time factor II

In the general case, the **transit time factor** is given by:

$$T_a = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} E_1(s, r) \cos\left(\omega_{RF} \frac{s}{v}\right) ds}{\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} E_1(s, r) ds}$$

It is the ratio of the peak energy gained by a particle with velocity v to the peak energy gained by a particle with infinite velocity.

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Main RF parameters

I. Voltage, phase, frequency

In order to accelerate particles, longitudinal fields must be generated in the direction of the desired acceleration

$$E(s,t) = E_1(s) \cdot E_2(t) \quad E_2(t) = E_0 \sin \left[\int_0^t \omega_{RF} dt + \phi_0 \right]$$

$$\omega_{RF} = 2\pi f_{RF} \quad \Delta E = e V_{RF} T_a \sin \phi_0$$

Such electric fields are generated in RF cavities characterized by the voltage amplitude, the frequency and the phase

II. Harmonic number

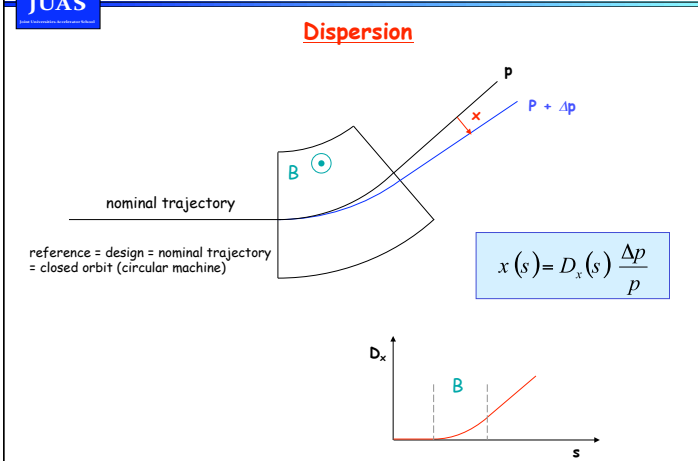
$$T_{rev} = h T_{RF} \Rightarrow f_{RF} = h f_{rev}$$

f_{rev} = revolution frequency	harmonic number in different machines:
f_{RF} = frequency of the RF	AA EPA PS SPS
h = harmonic number	1 8 20 4620

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Dispersion



$$x(s) = D_x(s) \frac{\Delta p}{p}$$

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Momentum compaction factor in a transport system

In a particle transport system, a **nominal trajectory** is defined for the **nominal momentum** p .

For a particle with a momentum $p + \Delta p$ the trajectory length can be different from the length L of the nominal trajectory.

The momentum compaction factor is defined by the ratio:

$$\alpha_p = \frac{dL/L}{dp/p}$$

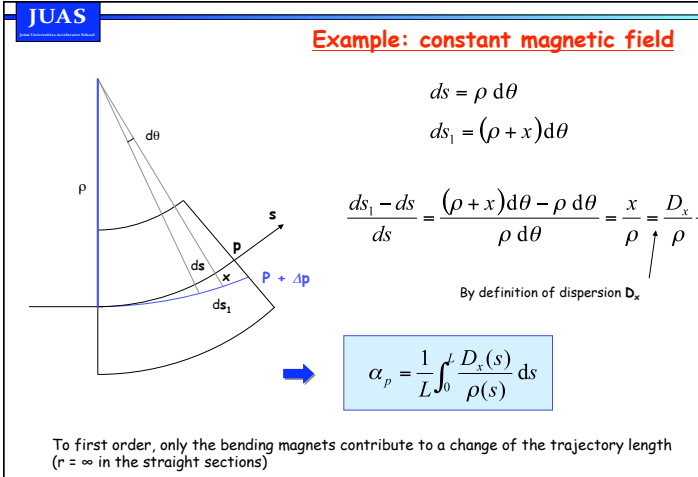
Therefore, for small momentum deviation, to first order it is:

$$\frac{\Delta L}{L} = \alpha_p \frac{\Delta p}{p}$$

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Example: constant magnetic field



$$\alpha_p = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L \frac{D_x(s)}{\rho(s)} ds$$

To first order, only the bending magnets contribute to a change of the trajectory length ($r = \infty$ in the straight sections)

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Longitudinal 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)

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Bunch compressor

$$\Delta L = \left[4\rho \frac{\tan \theta - \theta}{\sin \theta} + 2l \tan^2 \theta \right] \frac{\Delta p}{p}$$

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Bunch compression

Longitudinal phase space evolution for a bunch compressor (PARMELA code simulations)

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Momentum compaction in a ring

In a circular accelerator, a **nominal closed orbit** is defined for the **nominal momentum p**.

For a particle with a momentum deviation Δp produces an orbit length variation ΔC with:

For $B = \text{const.}$

$$\frac{\Delta C}{C} = \alpha_p \frac{\Delta p}{p}$$

$$C = 2\pi R$$

/ circumference
(average) radius of the closed orbit

The momentum compaction factor is defined by the ratio:

$$\alpha_p = \frac{dC/C}{dp/p} = \frac{dR/R}{dp/p}$$

and

$$\alpha_p = \frac{1}{C} \int_C \frac{D_x(s)}{\rho(s)} ds$$

N.B.: in most circular machines, α_p is positive \Rightarrow higher momentum means longer circumference

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Momentum compaction as a function of energy

$$E = \frac{pc}{\beta} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{dE}{E} = \beta^2 \frac{dp}{p}$$

$$\alpha_p = \beta^2 \frac{E}{R} \frac{dR}{dE}$$

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Momentum compaction as a function of magnetic field

Definition of average magnetic field

$$\langle B \rangle = \frac{1}{2\pi R} \int_C B_f ds = \frac{1}{2\pi R} \left(\int_{\text{straights}} B_f ds + \int_{\text{magnets}} B_f ds \right)$$

$$\langle B \rangle = \frac{B_f \rho}{R} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{d\langle B \rangle}{\langle B \rangle} = \frac{dB_f}{B_f} + \frac{d\rho}{\rho} - \frac{dR}{R}$$

$$B_f \rho = \frac{p}{e} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \langle B \rangle R = \frac{p}{e} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{d\langle B \rangle}{\langle B \rangle} + \frac{dR}{R} = \frac{dp}{p}$$

For $B_f = \text{const.}$

$$\alpha_p = 1 - \frac{d\langle B \rangle}{\langle B \rangle} \frac{d p}{p}$$

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Transition energy

Proton (ion) circular machine with α_p positive

- Momentum larger than the nominal ($p + \Delta p$) \Rightarrow longer orbit ($C + \Delta C$)
- Momentum larger than the nominal ($p + \Delta p$) \Rightarrow higher velocity ($v + \Delta v$)

What happens to the revolution frequency $f = v/C$?

- At low energy, v increases faster than C with momentum
- At high energy $v = c$ and remains almost constant

\Rightarrow There is an energy for which the velocity variation is compensated by the trajectory variation \Rightarrow transition energy

Below transition: higher energy \Rightarrow higher revolution frequency
 Above transition: higher energy \Rightarrow lower revolution frequency

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Transition energy - quantitative approach

We define a parameter η (revolution frequency spread per unit of momentum spread):

$$\eta = \frac{df/f}{dp/p} = \frac{d\omega/\omega}{dp/p}$$

$$f = \frac{v}{C} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{df}{f} = \frac{d\beta}{\beta} - \frac{dC}{C}$$

from $p = \frac{m_0 c \beta}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} \Rightarrow \frac{d\beta}{\beta} = \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \frac{dp}{p}$ definition of momentum compaction factor: $\frac{dC}{C} = \alpha_p \frac{dp}{p}$

$$\frac{df}{f} = \left(\frac{1}{\gamma^2} - \alpha_p \right) \frac{dp}{p}$$

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Transition energy - quantitative approach

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

The transition energy is the energy that corresponds to $\eta = 0$
 (α_p is fixed, and γ variable)

↓

$$\gamma_{tr} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\alpha_p}}$$

The parameter η can also be written as

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

- At low energy $\eta > 0$
- At high energy $\eta < 0$

N.B.: for electrons, $\gamma \gg \gamma_{tr} \Rightarrow \eta < 0$
 for linacs $\alpha_p = 0 \Rightarrow \eta > 0$

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LESSON III

- Equations related to synchrotrons
- Synchronous particle
- Synchrotron oscillations
- Principle of phase stability

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Equations related to synchrotrons

$$\frac{dp}{p} = \gamma_{tr}^2 \frac{dR}{R} + \frac{dB}{B}$$

$$\frac{dp}{p} = \gamma^2 \frac{df}{f} + \gamma^2 \frac{dR}{R}$$

$$\frac{dB}{B} = \gamma_{tr}^2 \frac{df}{f} + \left[1 - \left(\frac{\gamma_{tr}}{\gamma} \right)^2 \right] \frac{dp}{p}$$

$$\frac{dB}{B} = \gamma^2 \frac{df}{f} + (\gamma^2 - \gamma_{tr}^2) \frac{dR}{R}$$

p [MeV/c]	momentum
R [m]	orbit radius
B [T]	magnetic field
f [Hz]	rev. frequency
γ_{tr}	transition energy

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I - Constant radius

$dR = 0$

Beam maintained on the same orbit when energy varies

$$\frac{dp}{p} = \frac{dB}{B}$$

$$\frac{dp}{p} = \gamma^2 \frac{df}{f}$$

If p increases

→ B increases
 f increases

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II - Constant energy $dp = 0$

$V_{RF} = 0$ Beam debunches

$$\frac{dp}{p} = 0 = \gamma_{tr}^2 \frac{dR}{R} + \frac{dB}{B}$$

$$\frac{dp}{p} = 0 = \gamma^2 \frac{df}{f} + \gamma^2 \frac{dR}{R}$$

If B increases
 → R decreases
 f increases

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III - Magnetic flat-top $dB = 0$

Beam bunched with constant magnetic field

$$\frac{dp}{p} = \gamma_{tr}^2 \frac{dR}{R} \quad \frac{dB}{B} = 0 = \gamma_{tr}^2 \frac{df}{f} + \left[1 - \left(\frac{\gamma_{tr}}{\gamma} \right)^2 \right] \frac{dp}{p}$$

$$\frac{dB}{B} = 0 = \gamma^2 \frac{df}{f} + (\gamma^2 - \gamma_{tr}^2) \frac{dR}{R}$$

If p increases
 → R increases
 f increase $\gamma < \gamma_{tr}$
 decreases $\gamma > \gamma_{tr}$

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IV - Constant frequency $df = 0$

Beam driven by an external oscillator

$$\frac{dp}{p} = \gamma^2 \frac{dR}{R} \quad \frac{dB}{B} = \left[1 - \left(\frac{\gamma_{tr}}{\gamma} \right)^2 \right] \frac{dp}{p}$$

$$\frac{dB}{B} = (\gamma^2 - \gamma_{tr}^2) \frac{dR}{R}$$

If p increases
 → R increases
 B decreases $\gamma < \gamma_{tr}$
 increase $\gamma > \gamma_{tr}$

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Four conditions - resume

Beam	Parameter	Variations
Debunched	$\Delta p = 0$	$B \uparrow, R \downarrow, f \uparrow$
Fixed orbit	$\Delta R = 0$	$B \uparrow, p \uparrow, f \uparrow$
Magnetic flat-top	$\Delta B = 0$	$p \uparrow, R \uparrow, f \uparrow (\eta > 0)$ $f \downarrow (\eta < 0)$
External oscillator	$\Delta f = 0$	$B \uparrow, p \downarrow, R \downarrow (\eta > 0)$ $p \uparrow, R \uparrow (\eta < 0)$

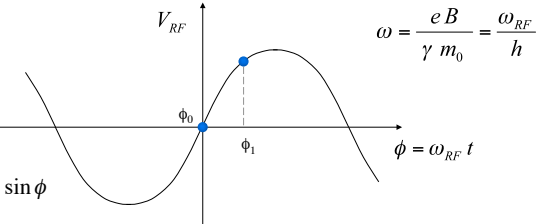
p momentum
 R orbit radius
 B magnetic field
 f frequency

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JUAS **Synchronous particle**

Simple case (no accel.): $B = \text{const.}$ $\gamma < \gamma_{tr}$

Synchronous particle: particle that sees always the same phase (at each turn) in the RF cavity



$$\omega = \frac{eB}{\gamma m_0} = \frac{\omega_{RF}}{h}$$

$\Delta E = e \hat{V}_{RF} \sin \phi$

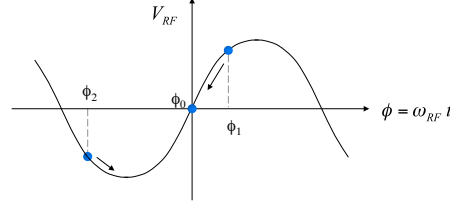
In order to keep the **resonant condition**, the particle must keep a **constant energy**
 The phase of the synchronous particle must therefore be $\phi_0 = 0$ (circular machines convention)
 Let's see what happens for a particle with the same energy and a different phase (e.g., ϕ_1)

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JUAS **Synchrotron oscillations**

ϕ_1

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

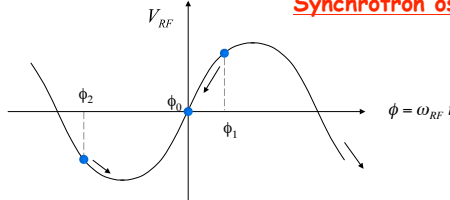


ϕ_2

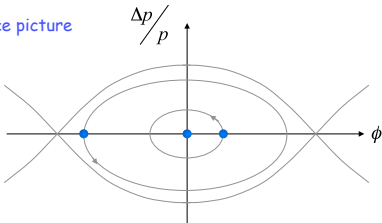
- The particle is decelerated
- decrease in energy - decrease in revolution frequency
- The particle arrives later - tends **toward ϕ_0**

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JUAS **Synchrotron oscillations**



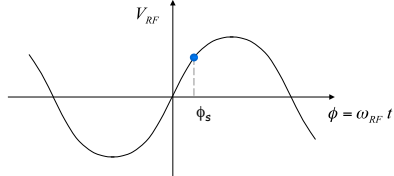
Phase space picture



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JUAS **Synchronous particle**

Case with acceleration **B increasing** $\gamma < \gamma_{tr}$



$\Delta E = e \hat{V}_{RF} \sin \phi$

The phase of the synchronous particle is now $\phi_s > 0$ (circular machines convention)

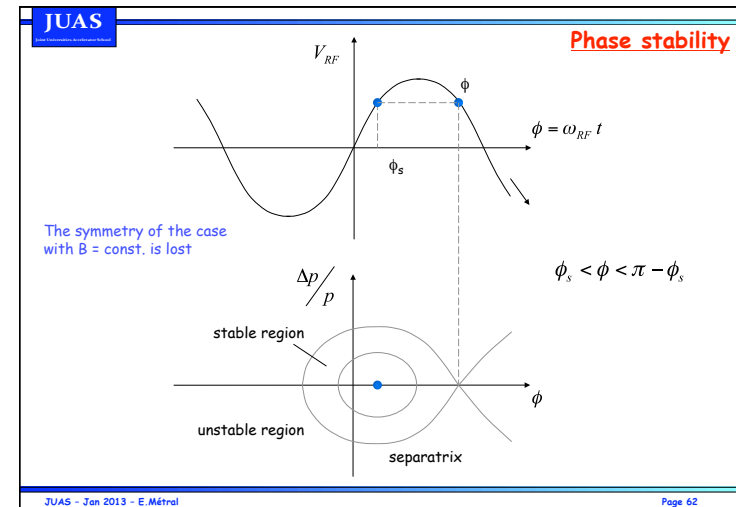
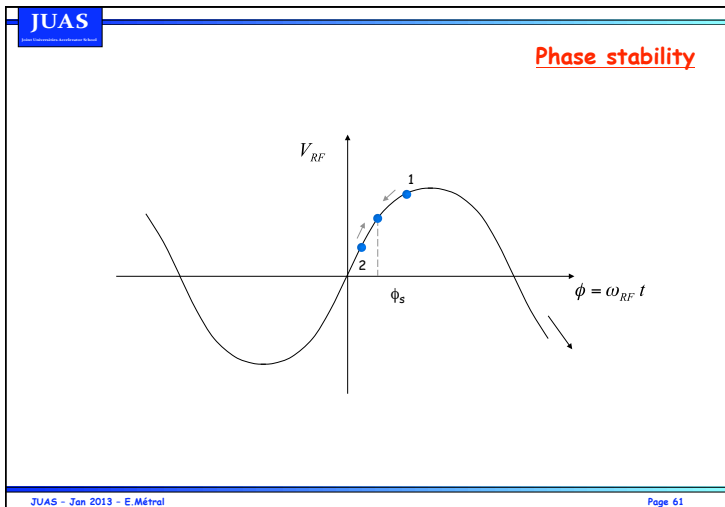
The synchronous particle accelerates, and the magnetic field is increased accordingly to keep the **constant radius R**

$$R = \frac{\gamma v m_0}{eB}$$

The RF frequency is increased as well in order to keep the **resonant condition**

$$\omega = \frac{eB}{\gamma m_0} = \frac{\omega_{RF}}{h}$$

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LESSON IV

RF acceleration for synchronous particle

RF acceleration for non-synchronous particle

Small amplitude oscillations

Large amplitude oscillations - the RF bucket

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JUAS **RF acceleration for synchronous particle - energy gain**

Let's assume a synchronous particle with a given $\phi_s > 0$

We want to calculate its rate of acceleration, and the related rate of increase of B , f .

$$p = e B \rho$$

Want to keep $\rho = \text{const}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dp}{dt} = e \rho \frac{dB}{dt} = e \rho \dot{B}$$

Over one turn: $(\Delta p)_{turn} = e \rho \dot{B} T_{rev} = e \rho \dot{B} \frac{2\pi R}{\beta c}$

We know that (relativistic equations) : $\Delta p = \frac{\Delta E}{\beta c}$

$$\Rightarrow (\Delta E)_{turn} = e \rho \dot{B} 2\pi R$$

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JUAS **RF acceleration for synchronous particle - phase**

$(\Delta E)_{turn} = e \rho \dot{B} 2\pi R$ On the other hand, for the synchronous particle: $(\Delta E)_{turn} = e \hat{V}_{RF} \sin \phi_s$

$$e \rho \dot{B} 2\pi R = e \hat{V}_{RF} \sin \phi_s$$

Therefore:

1. Knowing ϕ_s , one can calculate the increase rate of the magnetic field needed for a given RF voltage:

$$\dot{B} = \frac{\hat{V}_{RF}}{2\pi \rho R} \sin \phi_s$$

2. Knowing the magnetic field variation and the RF voltage, one can calculate the value of the synchronous phase:

$$\sin \phi_s = 2\pi \rho R \frac{\dot{B}}{\hat{V}_{RF}} \Rightarrow \phi_s = \arcsin\left(2\pi \rho R \frac{\dot{B}}{\hat{V}_{RF}}\right)$$

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JUAS **RF acceleration for synchronous particle - frequency**

$$\omega_{RF} = h \omega_s = h \frac{e}{m} \langle B \rangle \quad \left(v = \frac{e}{m} B \rho\right)$$

$$\omega_{RF} = h \frac{e}{m} \frac{\rho}{R} B$$

From relativistic equations:

$$\omega_{RF} = \frac{hc}{R} \sqrt{\frac{B^2}{B^2 + (E_0/ec\rho)^2}}$$

Let $B_0 \equiv \frac{E_0}{ec\rho}$

$$f_{RF} = \frac{hc}{2\pi R} \left(\frac{B}{B_0}\right) \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + (B/B_0)^2}}$$

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JUAS **Example: PS**

At the CERN Proton Synchrotron machine, one has:

$$R = 100 \text{ m}$$

$$\dot{B} = 2.4 \text{ T/s}$$

100 dipoles with $l_{eff} = 4.398 \text{ m}$. The harmonic number is 20

Calculate:

1. The energy gain per turn
2. The minimum RF voltage needed
3. The RF frequency when $B = 1.23 \text{ T}$ (at extraction)

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JUAS **RF acceleration for non synchronous particle**

Parameter definition (subscript "s" stands for synchronous particle):

$f = f_s + \Delta f$	revolution frequency
$\phi = \phi_s + \Delta\phi$	RF phase
$p = p_s + \Delta p$	Momentum
$E = E_s + \Delta E$	Energy
$\theta = \theta_s + \Delta\theta$	Azimuth angle

$$ds = R d\theta$$

$$\theta(t) = \int_{t_0}^t \omega(\tau) d\tau$$

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$\Delta\theta > 0 \Rightarrow \Delta\phi < 0$

Since $f_{RF} = h f_{rev}$

$\Rightarrow \Delta\phi = -h \Delta\theta$
Over one turn θ varies by 2π
 ϕ varies by $2\pi h$

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Parameters versus $\dot{\phi}$

1. Angular frequency

$$\theta(t) = \int_{t_0}^t \omega(\tau) d\tau \quad \Delta\omega = \frac{d}{dt}(\Delta\theta)$$

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

$$= -\frac{1}{h} \frac{d}{dt}(\phi - \phi_s) \quad \frac{d\phi_s}{dt} = 0 \text{ by definition}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{h} \frac{d\phi}{dt}$$

$\Rightarrow \Delta\omega = -\frac{1}{h} \frac{d\phi}{dt}$

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Parameters versus $\dot{\phi}$

2. Momentum

$$\eta = \frac{d\omega/\omega}{dp/p} = \frac{\Delta\omega/\omega}{\Delta p/p}$$

$$\Delta p = \frac{p_s}{\omega_s} \frac{\Delta\omega}{\eta} = \frac{p_s}{\omega_s \eta} \left(-\frac{1}{h} \frac{d\phi}{dt} \right)$$

$\Rightarrow \Delta p = -\frac{p_s}{\omega_s \eta h} \frac{d\phi}{dt}$

3. Energy

$$\frac{dE}{dp} = v \quad \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta p} = v = \omega R$$

$\Rightarrow \Delta E = -\frac{R p_s}{\eta h} \frac{d\phi}{dt}$

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Derivation of equations of motion

Energy gain after the RF cavity

$$(\Delta E)_{turn} = e \hat{V}_{RF} \sin \phi$$

$$(\Delta p)_{turn} = \frac{e}{\omega R} \hat{V}_{RF} \sin \phi$$

Average increase per time unit

$$\frac{(\Delta p)_{turn}}{T_{rev}} = \frac{e}{2\pi R} \hat{V}_{RF} \sin \phi \quad 2\pi R \dot{p} = e \hat{V}_{RF} \sin \phi \quad \text{valid for any particle !}$$

$\Rightarrow 2\pi (R \dot{p} - R_s \dot{p}_s) = e \hat{V}_{RF} (\sin \phi - \sin \phi_s)$

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Derivation of equations of motion

After some development (see J. Le Duff, in Proceedings CAS 1992, CERN 94-01)

$$2\pi \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\Delta E}{\omega_s} \right) = e \hat{V}_{RF} (\sin \phi - \sin \phi_s)$$

An approximated version of the above is

$$\frac{d(\Delta p)}{dt} = \frac{e \hat{V}_{RF}}{2\pi R_s} (\sin \phi - \sin \phi_s)$$

Which, together with the previously found equation

$$\frac{d\phi}{dt} = -\frac{\omega_s \eta h}{p_s} \Delta p$$

Describes the motion of the non-synchronous particle in the longitudinal phase space ($\Delta p, \phi$)

Equations of motion I

$$\begin{cases} \frac{d(\Delta p)}{dt} = A (\sin \phi - \sin \phi_s) \\ \frac{d\phi}{dt} = B \Delta p \end{cases}$$

with $A = \frac{e \hat{V}_{RF}}{2\pi R_s}$

$$B = -\frac{\eta h \beta_s c}{p_s R_s}$$

Equations of motion II

1. First approximation - combining the two equations:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{B} \frac{d\phi}{dt} \right) - A (\sin \phi - \sin \phi_s) = 0$$

We assume that **A** and **B** change very slowly compared to the variable $\Delta\phi = \phi - \phi_s$

$$\rightarrow \frac{d^2\phi}{dt^2} + \frac{\Omega_s^2}{\cos \phi_s} (\sin \phi - \sin \phi_s) = 0$$

with $\frac{\Omega_s^2}{\cos \phi_s} = -AB$ We can also define: $\Omega_0^2 = \frac{\Omega_s^2}{\cos \phi_s} = \frac{e \hat{V}_{RF} \eta h c^2}{2\pi R_s^2 E_s}$

Small amplitude oscillations

2. Second approximation

$$\begin{aligned} \sin \phi &= \sin(\phi_s + \Delta\phi) \\ &= \sin \phi_s \cos \Delta\phi + \cos \phi_s \sin \Delta\phi \end{aligned}$$

$\Delta\phi$ small $\Rightarrow \sin \phi \approx \sin \phi_s + \cos \phi_s \Delta\phi$

$$\frac{d\phi_s}{dt} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{d^2\phi}{dt^2} = \frac{d^2}{dt^2} (\phi_s + \Delta\phi) = \frac{d^2\Delta\phi}{dt^2}$$

by definition

$$\rightarrow \frac{d^2\Delta\phi}{dt^2} + \Omega_s^2 \Delta\phi = 0$$

Harmonic oscillator !

JUAS **Stability condition for ϕ_s**

Stability is obtained when the angular frequency of the oscillator, Ω_s^2 is real positive:

$$\Omega_s^2 = \frac{e \hat{V}_{RF} \eta h c^2}{2\pi R_s^2 E_s} \cos \phi_s \Rightarrow \Omega_s^2 > 0 \Leftrightarrow \eta \cos \phi_s > 0$$

Stable in the region if $\eta > 0$ $\eta < 0$ $\eta < 0$ $\eta > 0$

acceleration deceleration

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JUAS **Small amplitude oscillations - orbits**

For $\eta \cos \phi_s > 0$ the motion around the synchronous particle is a stable oscillation:

$$\begin{cases} \Delta \phi = \Delta \phi_{\max} \sin(\Omega_s t + \phi_0) \\ \Delta p = \Delta p_{\max} \cos(\Omega_s t + \phi_0) \end{cases}$$

with $\Delta p_{\max} = \frac{\Omega_s}{B} \Delta \phi_{\max}$

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JUAS **Lepton machines** et, e-

$\beta \cong 1$, γ large , $\eta \cong -\alpha_p$

↓

$$\omega_s \cong \frac{c}{R_s} \quad , \quad p_s \cong \frac{E_s}{c} \quad \rightarrow \quad \Omega_s = \frac{c}{R_s} \left\{ -\frac{e \hat{V}_{RF} \alpha_p h}{2\pi E_s} \cos \phi_s \right\}^{1/2}$$

Number of synchrotron oscillations per turn:

$$Q_s = \frac{\Omega_s}{\omega_s} = \left\{ -\frac{e \hat{V}_{RF} \alpha_p h}{2\pi E_s} \cos \phi_s \right\}^{1/2} \quad \text{"synchrotron tune"}$$

N.B: in these machines, the RF frequency does not change

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JUAS **Large amplitude oscillations**

$$\ddot{\phi} + \frac{\Omega_s^2}{\cos \phi_s} (\sin \phi - \sin \phi_s) = 0$$

↓ Multiplying by $\dot{\phi}$ and integrating

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

Constant of motion

here $\dot{\phi} = 0$
 $\phi = \pi - \phi_s$

Equation of the separatrix

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

Synchronous phase 150°

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"total energy"

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

"kinetic energy" "potential energy U"

$$\frac{d^2\phi}{dt^2} = F(\phi)$$

$$F(\phi) = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial\phi}$$

Energy diagram

stable equilibrium point

unstable equilibrium point

If the total energy is above this limit, the motion is unbounded

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Phase space trajectories

$\phi_s = 180^\circ$

$\phi_s = 150^\circ$

$\phi_s = 120^\circ$

Phase space trajectories for different synchronous phases

$\gamma > \gamma_{cr}$

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