

**LONGITUDINAL BEAM DYNAMICS**

Elias Métral (CERN BE Department)

The present transparencies are inherited from Frank Tecker (CERN-BE), who gave this course in 2010 (I already gave this course in 2011-12-13-14) 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/p289.pdf>

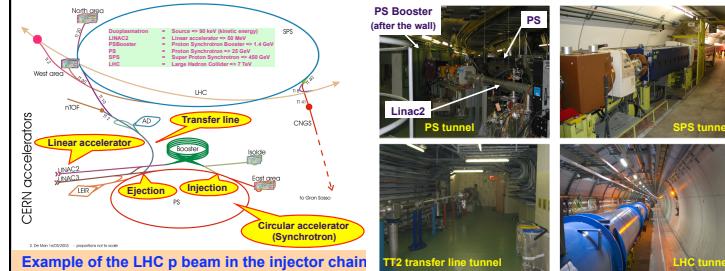
I attended the course given by Louis Rinolfi in 1996 and was his assistant in 2000 and 2001 (and the assistant of Michel Martini for his course on transverse beam dynamics)

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

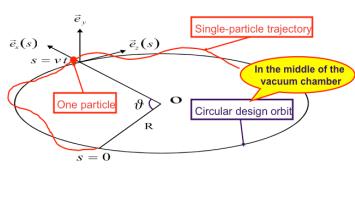
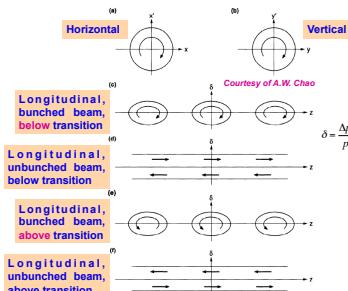
Assistant since last year: Elena Benedetto (CERN BE Department)

**PURPOSE OF THIS COURSE**

Discuss the oscillations of the particles in the longitudinal plane of synchrotrons, called **SYNCHROTRON OSCILLATIONS** (similarly to the betatron oscillations in the transverse planes), and derive the basic equations



Example of the LHC p beam in the injector chain

**PURPOSE OF THIS COURSE****IN REAL SPACE****IN PHASE SPACE****8 Lectures****4 Tutorials**

**Fields & Forces**  
**Relativity**  
**Acceleration (electrostatic, RF)**  
**Synchrotrons**  
**Longitudinal phase space**  
**Momentum Compaction**  
**Transition energy**  
**Synchrotron oscillations**  
**RF manipulations**  
**The ESME simulation code**

**Examination: WE 11/02/2015  
(09:15 to 10:45)**

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**WEEK 2**

	Monday Jan 19 <sup>th</sup>	Tuesday Jan 20 <sup>th</sup>	Wednesday Jan 21 <sup>st</sup>	Thursday Jan 22 <sup>nd</sup>	Friday Jan 23 <sup>rd</sup>	
09:15	Transverse Dynamics lecture A. Latina	Longitudinal Dynamics lectures E. Métral	Transverse Dynamics lecture A. Latina	Transverse Dynamics lecture A. Latina	Longitudinal Dynamics lecture E. Métral	09:15
10:15	Coffee Break	Coffee Break	Coffee Break	Coffee Break	Coffee Break	10:15
10:30	Transverse Dynamics lecture A. Latina	Longitudinal Dynamics tutorial E. Métral / E. Benedetto	Longitudinal Dynamics lecture E. Métral	Longitudinal Dynamics lecture E. Métral	Longitudinal Dynamics lecture E. Métral	10:30
11:30	Transverse Dynamics tutorial A. Latina	Transverse Dynamics lecture A. Latina	Longitudinal Dynamics tutorial E. Métral / E. Benedetto	Longitudinal Dynamics lecture E. Métral	Longitudinal Dynamics tutorial E. Métral / E. Benedetto	11:30
12:30	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	12:30
14:00	Exercises in computer room					14:00
	<i>Bus leaves at 13:30 from JUAS</i>					
15:00	VISIT AT CERN (Visit of CTF3 and Synchrocyclotron)	A. Latina / J. Resta Lopez	E. Métral	A. Latina / J. Resta Lopez	E. Métral / E. Benedetto	15:00
16:00	Coffee Break	Transverse Dynamics lecture A. Latina	Longitudinal Dynamics lecture E. Métral	Transverse Dynamics lecture A. Latina / J. Resta Lopez	Longitudinal Dynamics lecture A. Latina	16:00
16:15	Intro. to MADX	MADX	MADX	MADX	MADX	16:15
17:15	MADX	G. Sterbini / A. Latina / J. Resta Lopez / N. Fuster	G. Sterbini / A. Latina / J. Resta Lopez / N. Fuster	G. Sterbini / A. Latina / J. Resta Lopez / N. Fuster	G. Sterbini / A. Latina / J. Resta Lopez / N. Fuster	17:15
18:15	Return scheduled at 18:00 G. Sterbini / A. Latina / J. Resta Lopez / N. Fuster					

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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

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

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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

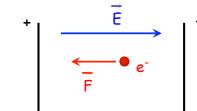
$$\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0$$

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

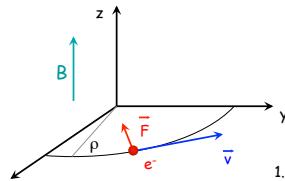
$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = - \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$$

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

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

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

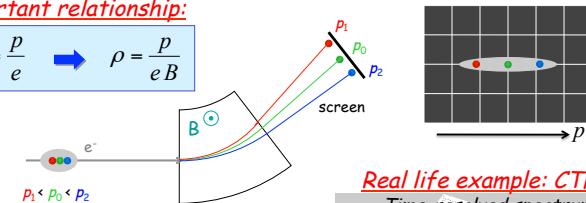
This force cannot modify the energy

$$\text{magnetic rigidity: } B \rho = \frac{p}{e}$$

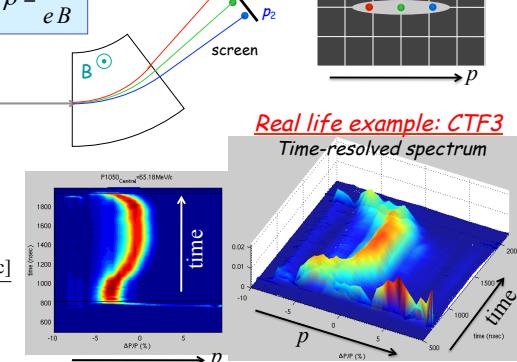
$$\text{angular frequency: } \omega = 2\pi f = \frac{e}{m} B$$

Application: spectrometerImportant relationship:

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

Practical units:

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



Larmor formula

An accelerating charge radiates a power  $P$  given by:

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

Acceleration in the direction  
of the particle motion

Acceleration perpendicular to  
the particle motion



"Synchrotron radiation"

Energy lost on a trajectory  $L$

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

Comparison of magnetic and electric forces

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

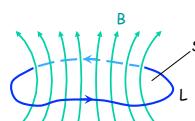
$$|\vec{E}| = 10 \text{ MV/m}$$

$$\left( \frac{F_{MAGN}}{F_{ELEC}} \right) = \frac{evB}{eE} = \beta c \frac{B}{E} \cong 3 \cdot 10^8 \frac{1}{10^7} \beta = 30 \beta$$

Acceleration by time-varying magnetic field

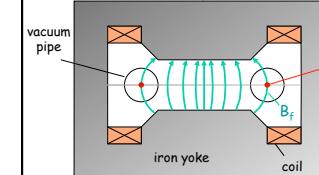
A variable magnetic field produces an electric field (Faraday's Law):

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



It is the **Betatron** concept

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

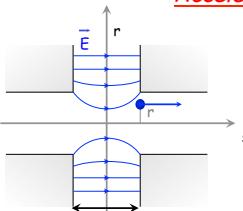
Betatron

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

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

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

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

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:

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

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

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

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

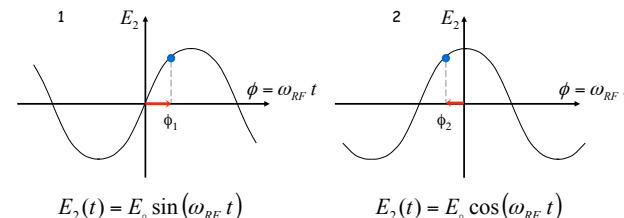
In general,  $E_2(t)$  is a sinusoidal time variation with angular frequency  $\omega_{RF}$

$$E_2(t) = E_0 \sin \Phi(t) \quad \text{where} \quad \Phi(t) = \int_{t_0}^t \omega_{RF} dt + \Phi_0$$

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:

Relativistic Equations

$$E = m c^2$$

<b>normalized velocity</b> $\beta = \frac{v}{c} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{\gamma^2}}$	<b>energy</b> $E = E_{kin} + E_0$ <p style="text-align: center;">total kinetic      rest</p>	<b>momentum</b> $p = mv = \beta \frac{E}{c} = \beta \gamma m_0 c$
<b>total energy</b> <b>rest energy</b> $\gamma = \frac{E}{E_0} = \frac{m}{m_0} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$		
<b>energy</b> <b>momentum</b> $p^2 c^2 = E^2 - E_0^2$	$\gamma = 1 + \frac{E_{kin}}{E_0}$	$p [\text{GeV}/c] \cong 0.3 B [\text{T}] \rho [\text{m}]$
<b>eV</b> $eV/c$	$eV/c^2$	

First derivatives

$$\begin{aligned} d\beta &= \beta^{-1} \gamma^{-3} d\gamma \\ d(cp) &= E_0 \gamma^3 d\beta \\ d\gamma &= \beta (1 - \beta^2)^{-1/2} d\beta \end{aligned}$$

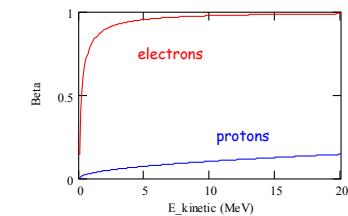
Logarithmic derivatives

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\beta}{\beta} &= (\beta \gamma)^{-2} \frac{d\gamma}{\gamma} \\ \frac{dp}{p} &= \frac{\gamma^2}{\gamma^2 - 1} \frac{dE}{E} = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma + 1} \frac{dE_{kin}}{E_{kin}} \\ \frac{d\gamma}{\gamma} &= (\gamma^2 - 1) \frac{d\beta}{\beta} \end{aligned}$$

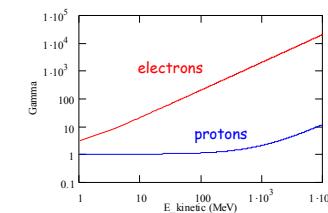
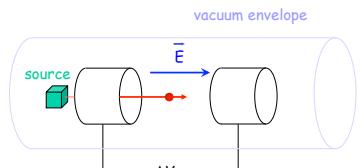
***LESSON II****An overview of particle acceleration**Transit time factor**Main RF parameters**Momentum compaction**Transition energy*

normalized velocity

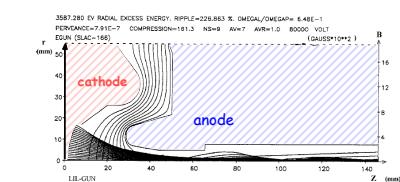
$$\beta = \frac{v}{c} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{\gamma^2}}$$

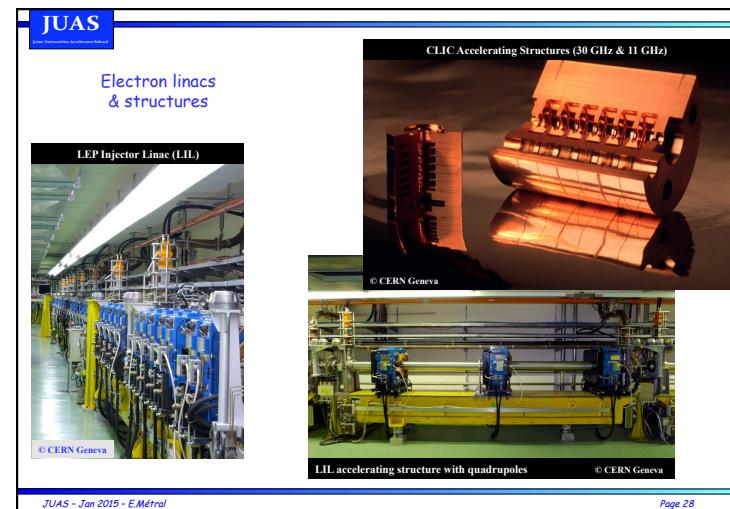
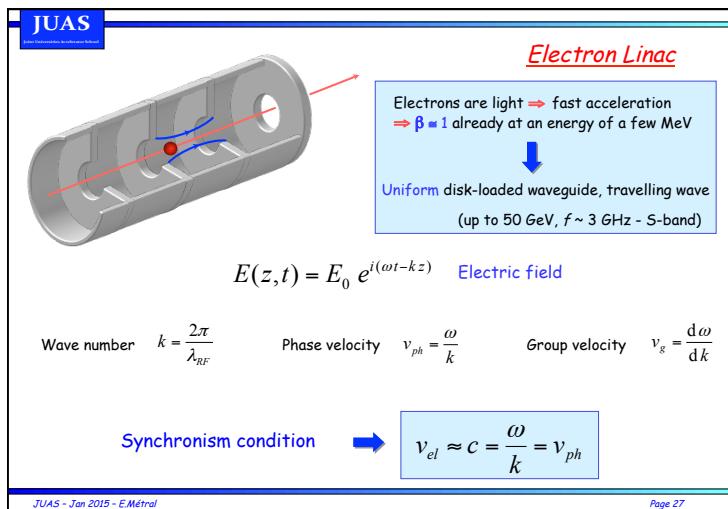
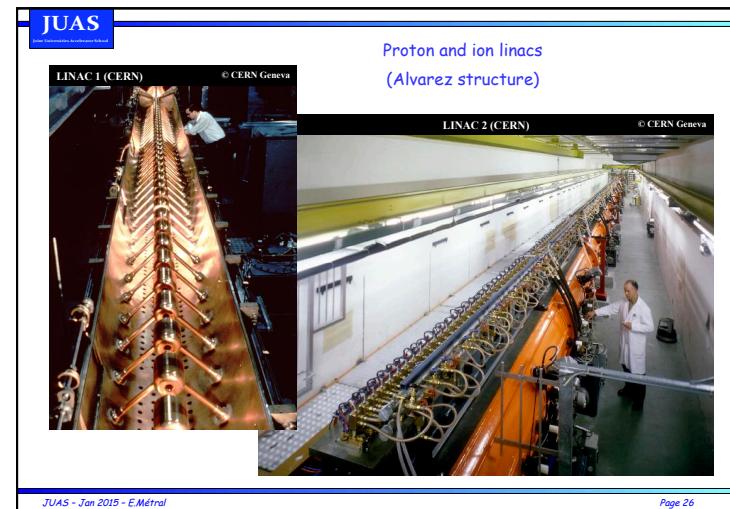
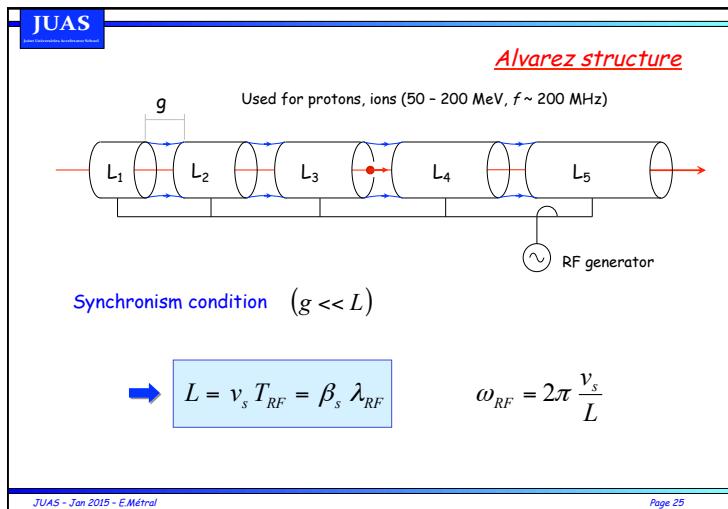
total energy  
rest energy

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

***Electrostatic accelerators***

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

Electrostatic accelerator  
Protons & Ions



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Used for protons, ions

**Cyclotron**

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

**Synchronism condition**

$$\omega_s = \omega_{RF}$$

$$2\pi \rho = v_s T_{RF}$$

**Cyclotron frequency**

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

1.  $\gamma$  increases with the energy  
 $\Rightarrow$  no exact synchronism

2. if  $v \ll c \Rightarrow \gamma \approx 1$

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**Synchrocyclotron**

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

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

$$T_s = h T_{RF}$$

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

$h$  integer, harmonic number

1.  $\omega_{RF}$  and  $\omega$  increase with energy

2. 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  $p$  does not coincide to the machine radius  $R = L/2\pi$

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LEAR (CERN)  
Low Energy Antiproton Ring

EPA (CERN)  
Electron Positron Accumulator

PS (CERN)  
Proton Synchrotron

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 ( $\gamma$ )	Velocity	Field	Orbit	Frequency
Cyclotron	$\sim 1$	var.	const.	$\sim v$	const.
Synchrocyclotron	var.	var.	$B(r)$	$\sim p$	$B(r)/\gamma(t)$
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:

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

where

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

$T_a$  is called transit time factor

- $\cdot T_a \ll 1$
- $\cdot T_a \rightarrow 1$  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.

Main RF parameters

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

$$E(s, t) = E_1(s) \cdot E_2(t) \quad E_2(t) = E_0 \sin\left[\int_{t_0}^t \omega_{RF} dt + \phi_0\right]$$

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

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

II. Harmonic number

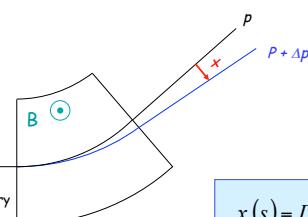
$$T_{rev} = h T_{RF} \Rightarrow f_{RF} = h f_{rev}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f_{rev} &= \text{revolution frequency} \\ f_{RF} &= \text{frequency of the RF} \\ h &= \text{harmonic number} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{array}{llll} & \text{harmonic number in different machines:} \\ AA & EPA & PS & SPS \\ 1 & 8 & 20 & 4620 \end{array}$$

Dispersion

nominal trajectory  
reference = design = nominal trajectory  
= closed orbit (circular machine)



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

Momentum compaction factor in a transport system

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

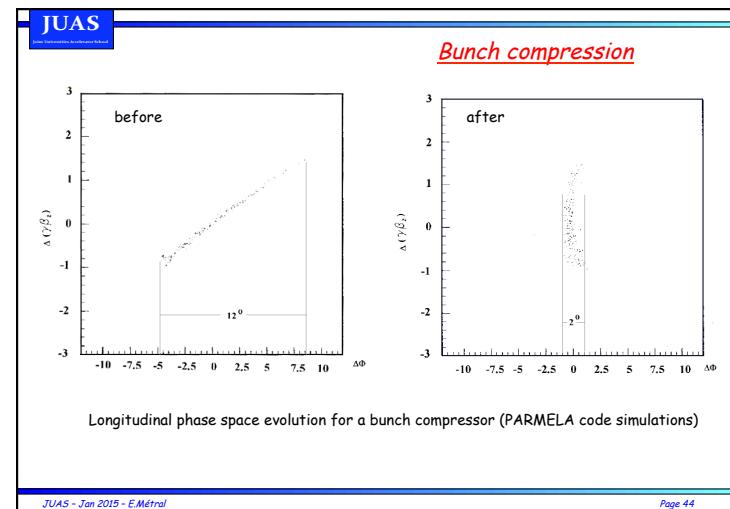
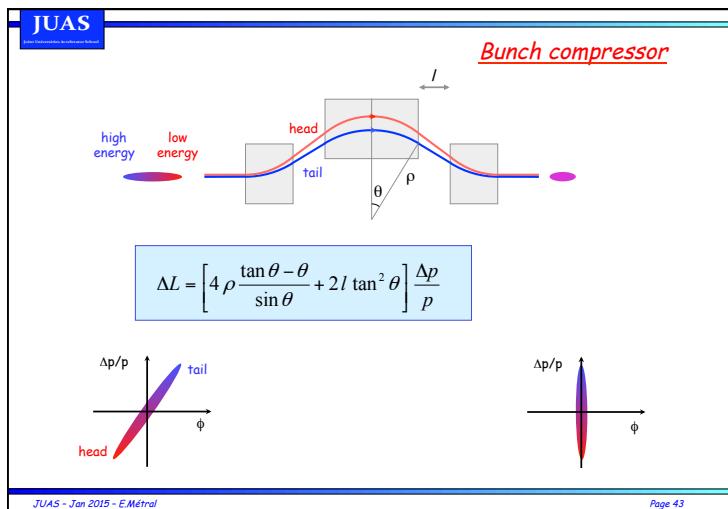
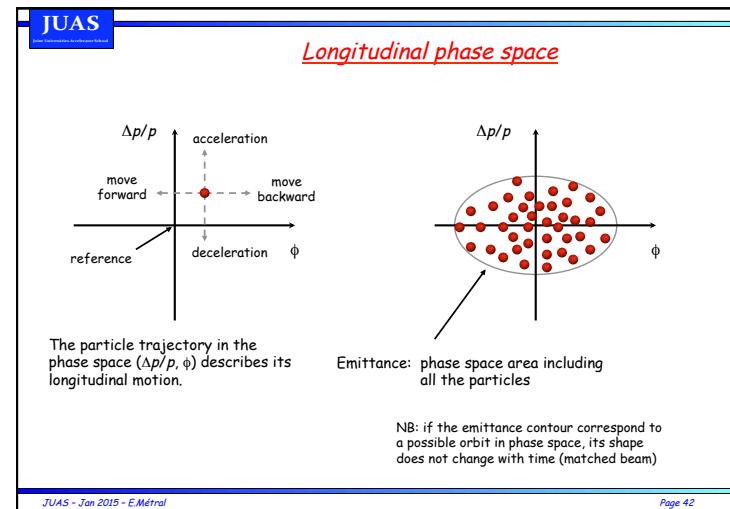
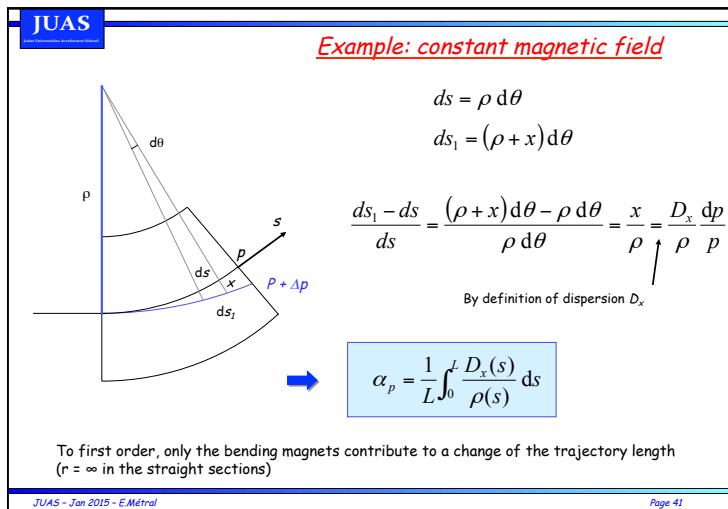
For a particle with a momentum  $p + \Delta p$  the trajectory length can be different from the length  $L$  of the nominal trajectory.

The momentum compaction factor is defined by the ratio:

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

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

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



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  $\Delta p$  produces an orbit length variation  $\Delta C$  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:

$$\alpha_p = \frac{dC/C}{dp/p} = \frac{dR/R}{dp/p} \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha_p = \frac{1}{C} \int \frac{D_x(s)}{\rho(s)} ds$$

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

Momentum compaction as a function of energy

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

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

Momentum compaction as a function of magnetic field

Definition of average magnetic field

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

$$\langle B \rangle = \frac{B_f \rho}{R} \quad \Rightarrow \quad = 0 \quad 2\pi \rho B_f$$

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

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

For  $B_f = \text{const.}$

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

Transition energy

Proton (ion) circular machine with  $\alpha_p$  positive

1. Momentum larger than the nominal ( $p + \Delta p$ )  $\Rightarrow$  longer orbit ( $C + \Delta C$ )
2. 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  $v \approx c$  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

Transition energy - quantitative approach

We define a parameter  $\eta$  (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:  $\frac{dC}{C} = \alpha_p \frac{dp}{p}$

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

Transition energy - quantitative approach

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

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

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

The parameter  $\eta$  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  $\alpha_p = 0 \Rightarrow \eta > 0$

LESSON IIIEquations related to synchrotronsSynchronous particleSynchrotron oscillationsPrinciple of phase stabilityEquations related to synchrotrons

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

$p$  [MeV/c] momentum

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

$R$  [m] orbit radius

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

$B$  [T] magnetic field

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

$f$  [Hz] rev. frequency

$\gamma_{tr}$  transition energy

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  
 $\rightarrow$   
 B increases  
 f increases

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  
 $\rightarrow$   
 R decreases  
 f increases

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  
 $\rightarrow$   
 R increases  
 f increase  
 decreases  
 $\gamma < \gamma_{tr}$   
 $\gamma > \gamma_{tr}$

IV - Constant frequency

$$df = 0$$

Beam driven by an external oscillator

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

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

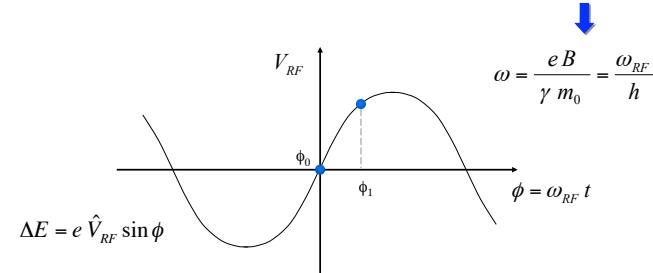
If  $p$  increases  
 $\rightarrow$   
 R increases  
 B decreases  
 increase  
 $\gamma > \gamma_{tr}$

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* frequencySimple case (no accel.):  $B = \text{const.}$     $\gamma < \gamma_{tr}$ Synchronous particle

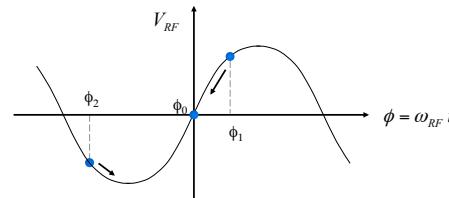
Synchronous particle: particle that sees always the same phase (at each turn) in the RF cavity



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.,  $\phi_1$ )

Synchrotron oscillations $\phi_1$ 

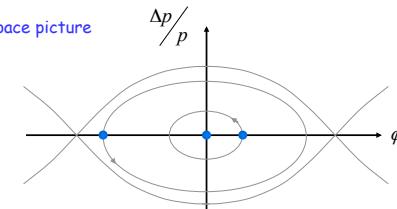
- The particle is accelerated
- Below transition, an increase in energy means an increase in revolution frequency
- The particle arrives earlier - tends toward  $\phi_0$

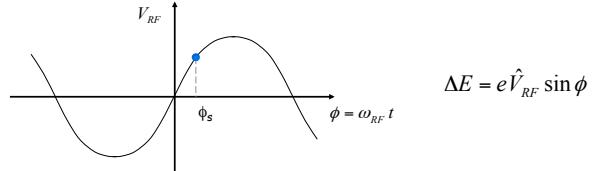
 $\phi_2$ 

- The particle is decelerated
- decrease in energy - decrease in revolution frequency
- The particle arrives later - tends toward  $\phi_0$

Synchrotron oscillations

Phase space picture

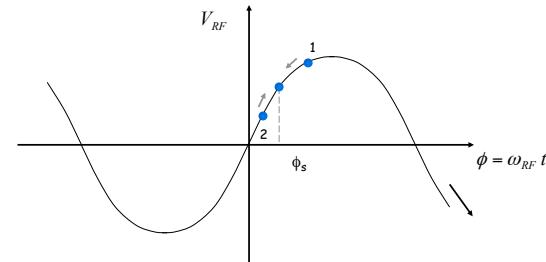
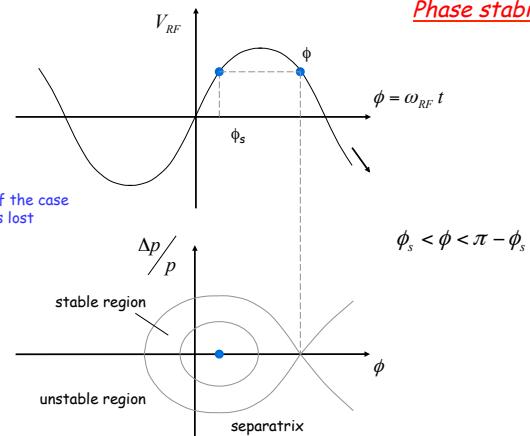


Case with acceleration  $B$  increasing  $\gamma < \gamma_{tr}$ Synchronous particleThe phase of the synchronous particle is now  $\phi_s > 0$  (circular machines convention)The synchronous particle accelerates, and the magnetic field is increased accordingly to keep the constant radius  $R$ 

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

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

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

Phase stabilityThe symmetry of the case with  $B = \text{const.}$  is lostPhase stabilityLESSON IVRF acceleration for synchronous particleRF acceleration for non-synchronous particleSmall amplitude oscillationsLarge amplitude oscillations - the RF bucket

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  $B$ ,  $f$ .

$$p = eB\rho$$

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

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

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

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

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

RF acceleration for synchronous particle - phase

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

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

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

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

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

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

RF acceleration for synchronous particle - frequency

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

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

From relativistic equations:

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

Let

$$B_0 = \frac{E_0}{ec\rho} \rightarrow f_{\text{RF}} = \frac{hc}{2\pi R} \left( \frac{B}{B_0} \right) \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + (B/B_0)^2}}$$

Example: PS

At the CERN Proton Synchrotron machine, one has:

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

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

100 dipoles with  $l_{\text{eff}} = 4.398 \text{ m}$ . 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)

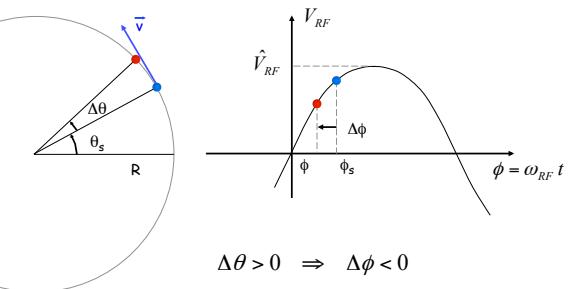
RF acceleration for non synchronous particle

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

$$ds = R d\theta$$

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



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

$\Delta\phi = -h \Delta\theta$  Over one turn  $\theta$  varies by  $2\pi$   
 $\phi$  varies by  $2\pi h$

## 1. Angular frequency

Parameters versus  $\phi$ 

$$\begin{aligned} \theta(t) &= \int_{t_0}^t \omega(\tau) d\tau & \Delta\omega &= \frac{d}{dt}(\Delta\theta) \\ &= -\frac{1}{h} \frac{d}{dt}(\Delta\phi) & & \\ &= -\frac{1}{h} \frac{d}{dt}(\phi - \phi_s) & \frac{d\phi_s}{dt} &= 0 \text{ by definition} \\ &= -\frac{1}{h} \frac{d\phi}{dt} & & \end{aligned}$$

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

## 2. Momentum

Parameters versus  $\phi$ 

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

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

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

## 3. Energy

$$\frac{dE}{dp} = v$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

- 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  $\frac{\Omega_s^2}{\cos \phi_s} = -A B$  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

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

$$\Delta\phi \text{ small} \Rightarrow \sin \phi \approx \sin \phi_s + \cos \phi_s \Delta\phi$$

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

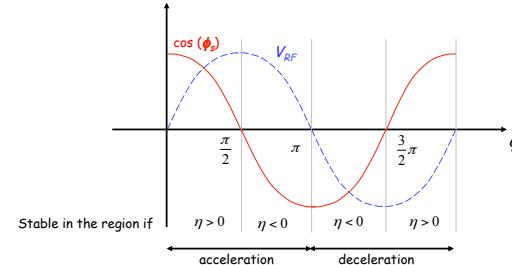
by definition

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

Harmonic oscillator!

Stability condition for  $\phi_s$ Stability is obtained when the angular frequency of the oscillator,  $\Omega_s^2$ , is real positive:

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

Small amplitude oscillations - orbitsFor  $\eta \cos \phi_s > 0$  the motion around the synchronous particle is a stable oscillation:

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

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

Lepton machines $e^+, e^-$ 

$$\beta \approx 1, \gamma \text{ large}, \eta \approx -\alpha_p$$

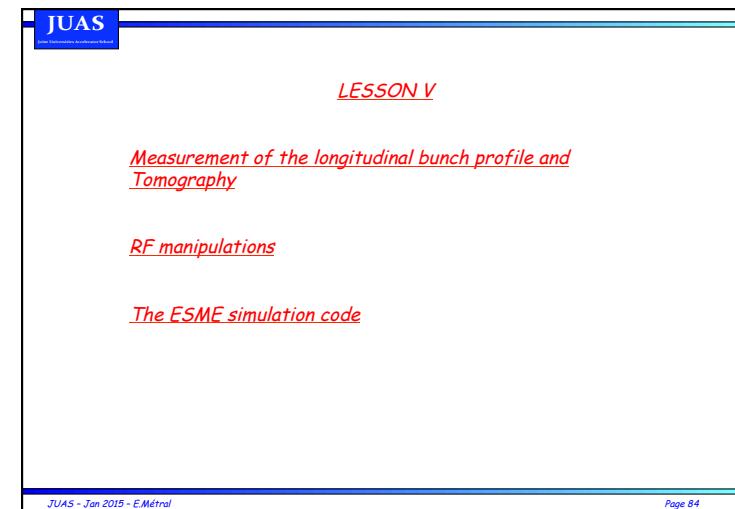
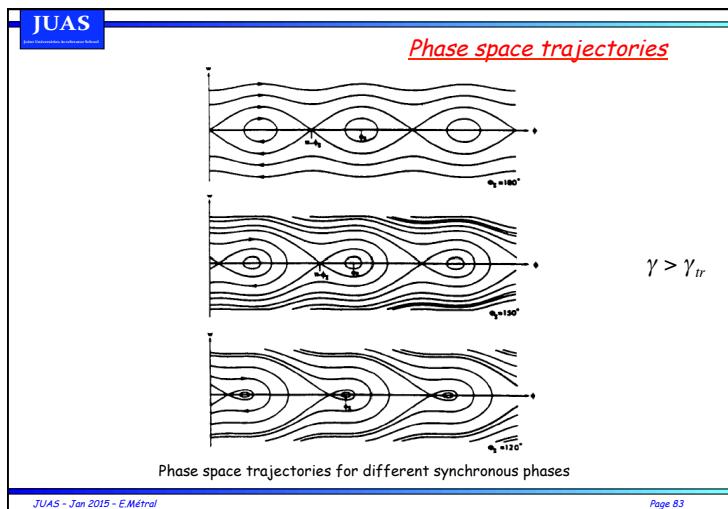
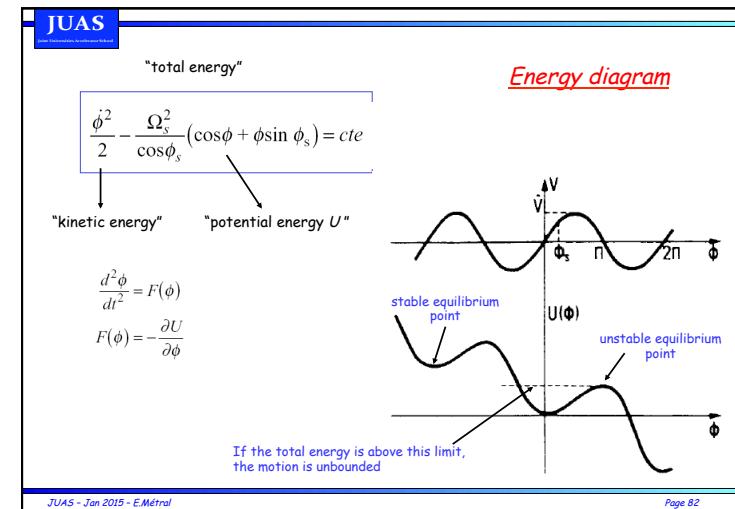
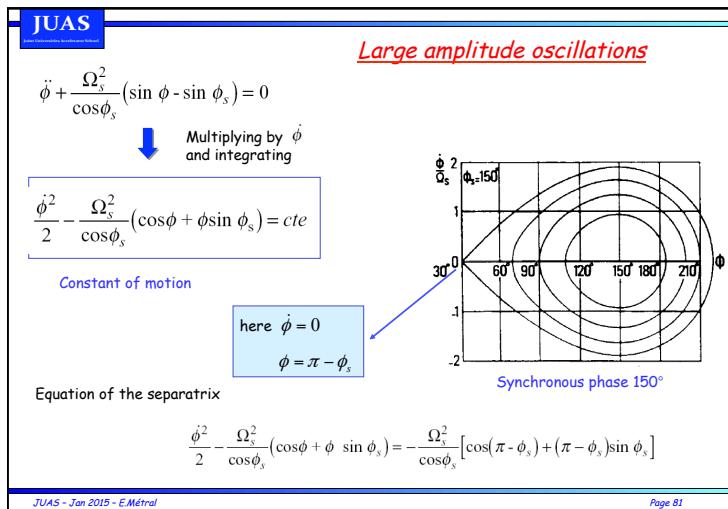


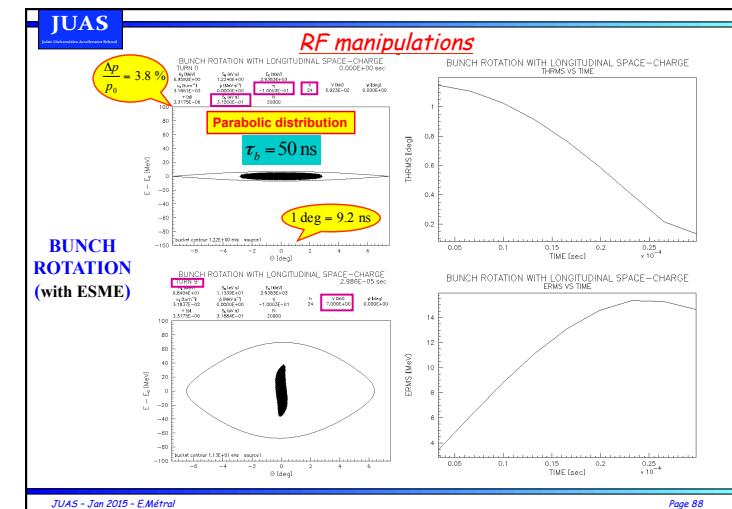
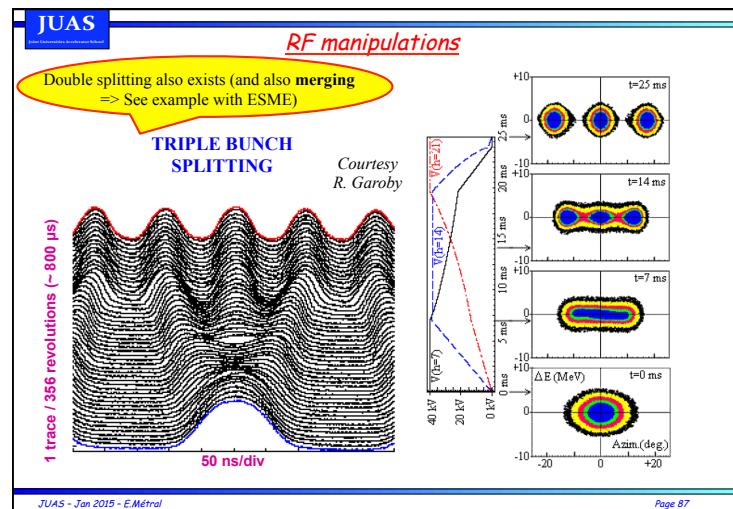
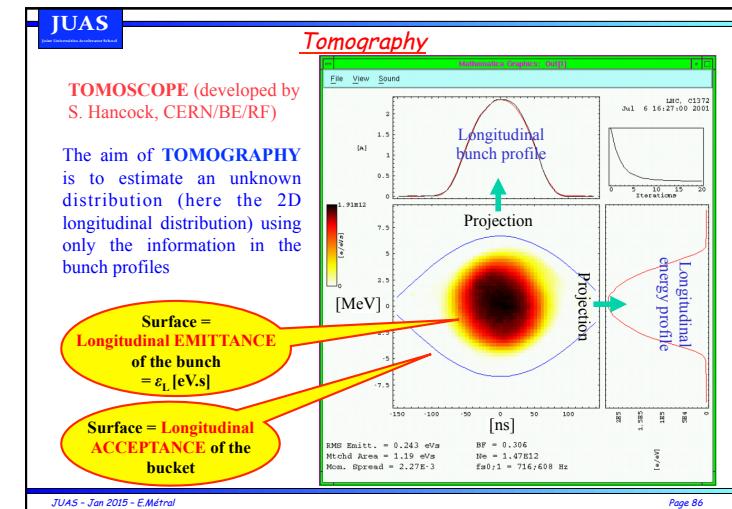
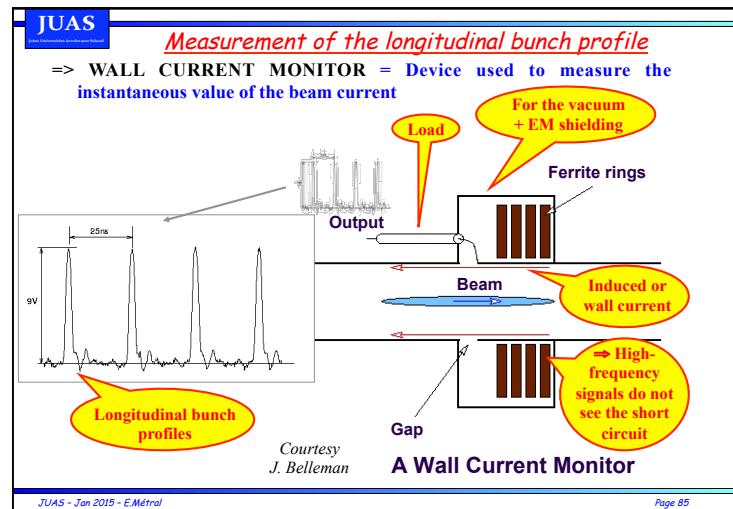
$$\omega_s \approx \frac{c}{R_s}, \quad p_s \approx \frac{E_s}{c} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \Omega_s = \frac{c}{R_s} \left\{ -\frac{e \hat{V}_{RF} \alpha_p h}{2\pi E_s} \cos \phi_s \right\}^{1/2}$$

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





*The ESME simulation code*

Want to calculate the evolution of a distribution of particles in energy and azimuth as it is acted upon by the Radio Frequency (RF) system of a synchrotron or storage ring? => [Use ESME code](#)

Several RF systems and many other effects can be included

ESME => It is not an acronym. The name is that of the heroine of J. D. Salinger's short story "To Esme with Love and Squelor"

Code initially developed during the years 1981-82 for the design of the Tevatron I Antiproton Source and first documented for general use in 1984

Homepage = <http://www-ap.fnal.gov/ESME/>

*The ESME simulation code*

Download and execution of the ESME code in local:

Procedure given in  
<http://www-ap.fnal.gov/ESME/>

- 1) We need a recent version of `gcc / gfortran` (to compile the fortran program) and the `pgplot` library
- 2) My local executable (many thanks Laurent Deniau, due to my old MAC!) is called `esme` in the folder `/Users/eliasmetral/Documents/CERN/Private_Since_07-12-08/Courses/JUAS/2014/ESME_Tutorial` (Reminder to make this file an executable: `chmod +x esme`)
- 3) To have the labels on the pictures, we need also to install 2 files: `grfont.dat` and `rgb.txt`
- 4) A first example can be taken from the source code downloaded => In the folder EXAMPLES, the first input file is called `docdat1.dat` => Put it in the folder where the executable is

*The ESME simulation code*

5) To run the program with this input file, type: `./esme -i -f docdat1.dat`  
=> The program starts to run and ask for Device Specification (? for list):  
=> Typing `? + enter`, one can see the different options for the plots

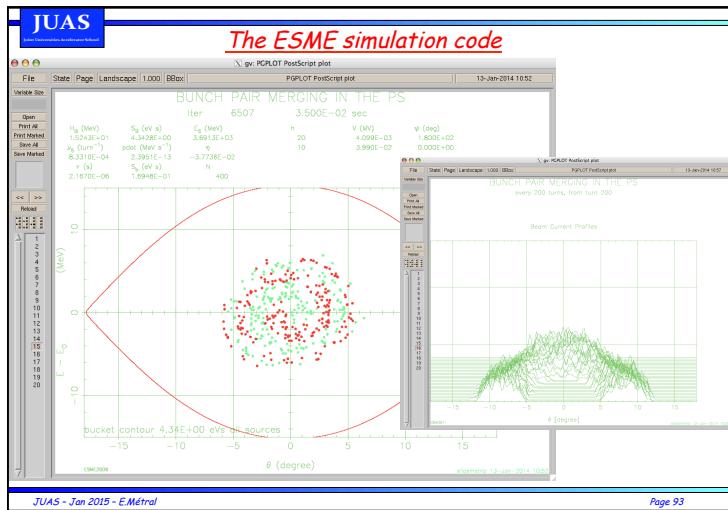
```
Device Specification (? for list) :?
PGPLOT v5.2.2 Copyright 1997 California Institute of Technology
Interactive devices:
/XWINDOW (X window window@node:display.screen/xw)
/XSERVE (A /XWINDOW window that persists for re-use)
Non-interactive file formats:
/GIF (Graphics Interchange Format file, landscape orientation)
/VGIF (Graphics Interchange Format file, portrait orientation)
/LATEX (LaTeX picture environment)
/NULL (Null device, no output)
/PNG (Portable Network Graphics file)
/TPNG (Portable Network Graphics file - transparent background)
/PS (PostScript file, landscape orientation)
/VPS (PostScript file, portrait orientation)
/CPS (Colour PostScript file, landscape orientation)
/VCP5 (Colour PostScript file, portrait orientation)
```

=> Typing `/CPS + enter`, the program finishes and produces plots in colour, in a ps file and landscape orientation (called `pgplot.ps`)

*The ESME simulation code*

6) Typing `gv pgplot.ps` & gives the following result





The ESME simulation code  
Some info about the input file

Initialize memory for certain arrays according to input data

Write comment in output

Ring parameters

Acceleration (RF)

Populate phase space

Graphical Output

Display graphical Output

Track distribution

Select quantities to be plotted from history

Quit

I This memory allocation reduces the default allocation.  
SMEMORY KNPAGE=2001 /END

R CERN PS at 3.57 GeV/c  
SRING REB=100., GANT3Q=37.21, W01=2753., FRAC=5., KURWEB=0 /END

A h=20 and h=10 RF system: turn down h=10 and turn up h=20 linearly.  
SRF NRF=2 H=20,10 V1=40.E-3,4.E-3 VF=4.E-3 TVEND=0.0351,0.0351 KURVE=1,1 /END

P PS1I=0.,-90. PS1F=0.,-90. TPEEG=0.,0. TPEND=.0351,.0351 KURVP=1,1 /END

P Parabolic bunch 1; center it in h=20 bucket. Distinguish it from bunch 2.  
SPORTR KINH=1.5 SORTR=0.4 NPUNI=200 THOFF=-3. /END

P Parabolic bunch 2. Center it in next h=20 bucket.  
SPORTR THOFF=3. /END

K RF for tracking. Only the phases have changed; everything else is the same.  
SRF PS1I=380.,0. PS1F=380.,0. SEND

O Output format: Plot Delta E, Delta Theta scatter plot every 5000 turns.  
SGRAPH MPLOT=500 PLTSW(8)=.F., PLTSW(10)=.F.,  
TRE=0 THPMIN=-18. THPMAX=18. DEPMIN=-15. DEPMAX=15.  
TITLE='BUCHN PAIR MERGING IN THE PS' /END

D Plot at start.

M Set up Mountain Range for a trace every 200 turns.  
SMRANGE MRMPLOT=200 IPU=T MRBNIN=200 MRMIN=-18. MRMAX=18. /END

T Tracking conditions: just go for 0.035 s.  
SCYCLE TTRACK=0.035 RSCALE=0.97 HISTRY=T /END

N Plot mountain range with two iterations of local smoothing  
SMRPLT  
SMOOTH=-2 NTRACE=80 SCALE=0.2 MRMIN=-18. MRMAX=18. /END

H HISTRY NPILT=1,14 1,18 1,6 1,18 /END

Q ESME stop.

M => Save azimuthal histograms for composition of a Mountain-range plot

N => Plot mountain-range data

The command character must be in its correct case, but parameter input is not case sensitive

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