



Particle Accelerator Physics

Anke-Susanne Müller, Axel Bernhard, Bastian Härer, Bennet Krasch, Nathan Ray



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III - Beam optics & beam dynamics

- Basics of transverse beam optics
 Magnetic lenses
 Equations of motion and transfer matrices
 Optic functions and emittance
 Tune, chromaticity and resonances
 Dispersion and beam size
- Basics of longitudinal beam dynamics
 Longitudinal oscillations
 RF buckets and stable phase
- Oscillations and damping
 Many-particle systems



Basics of beam dynamics



- A bunch typically consists of some 10⁹ particles.
- Different processes (synchrotron radiation, scattering at residual gas molecules, ...) lead to a distribution of beam energy around the nominal energy.
- Without focusing, the vacuum chambers would have to be large requiring extremely strong magnets.
- Electric and magnetic fields are used to steer and focus the particle beams:

 $\overrightarrow{F} = q(\overrightarrow{E} + \overrightarrow{v} \times \overrightarrow{B})$

At relativistic velocities E and B have the same effect if

E = cB

$$\Rightarrow B = 1 T \checkmark \Leftrightarrow E = 3 \times 10^8 \,\text{V/m} \checkmark$$

Right-handed orthogonal coordinate system Simplification: $\vec{v} = (0,0,v_s)$ and $\vec{B} = (B_x, B_y, 0)$



Frenet-Serret coordinate system

Magnetic fields along the beam trajectory



For highly relativistic particles follows from equality of Lorentz and Centripetal Force

$$\frac{1}{\rho(x,y,s)} = \left| \frac{e}{p} B_y(x,y,s) \right| = \left| \frac{e}{\beta E} B_y(x,y,s) \right|$$

Taylor expansion of the magnetic field in the vicinity of the nominal trajectory (x = 0):

$$B_{y}(x) = B_{y0} + \frac{dB_{y}}{dx} x + \frac{1}{2!} \frac{d^{2}B_{y}}{dx^{2}} x^{2} + \frac{1}{3!} \frac{d^{3}B_{y}}{dx^{3}} x^{3} + \dots$$

This immediately leads to



Structures that only consist of dipole and quadrupole fields are called "linear lattices". The linear lattice determines trajectory ("orbit") and focusing properties, higher-order field components are used for correction and error compensation.

Dipole

The magnetic field is calculated by

$$\oint \vec{H} d\vec{s} = hH_0 + lH_E = nI.$$
$$H_E = \frac{1}{\mu_r} H_0$$

For $\mu_{\rm r} \gg 1$ the field of a dipole magnet is $B_0 = \mu_0 H_0 = \frac{\mu_0 n I}{h}$ with gap *h*.

With radius ρ the dipole strength is $\frac{1}{\rho}[m^{-1}] = \frac{e}{p}B_0 = 0.2998 \frac{B_0[T]}{p[GeV/c]}.$









Dipol — edge field

- The magnetic field decreases at the edge.
- The useful field region can be increased by partial compensation of the edge field.
 - \Rightarrow Fit so-called "shims" to the edge of the poles.



Quadrupole

The quadrupole field increases linearly with transverse distance from the magnet center:

 $B_x(y) = -g \cdot y$ $B_y(x) = -g \cdot x$

Is I the current in n windings of the coils and R the distance of the poles to the magnet center, a perfectly formed pole has the gradient

$$g = \frac{\partial B_y}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial B_x}{\partial y} = g = \frac{2\mu_0 nI}{R^2}.$$

Definition of a normalized quadrupole strength in analogy of the deflection strength $1/\rho$ of a dipole magnet:

$$k = \frac{e}{p} g$$







Quadrupole gradient

Like the dipole strength, the field gradient is determined from the relationship of field integral and current in the coil windings:

 $\left| \oint \vec{H} \, \vec{ds} \right| = nI$

The integral from I via II to III may be broken up as follows:

$$\oint \vec{H} \vec{ds} = \int_{I}^{II} \vec{H}_{0} \vec{ds} + \int_{II}^{III} \vec{H}_{E} \vec{ds} + \int_{III}^{I} \vec{H} \vec{ds}$$

The second and third term vanish:

$$\vec{H}_E \vec{ds} = 0$$
 because $\mu_r \gg 1$ and $\int_{UU}^{I} \vec{H} \vec{ds} = 0$ because $\vec{H} \perp \vec{ds}$

The field between the poles is determined by $B_x = -gy$ and $B_y = -gx$. From this follows that

$$H = B/\mu_0 = -(g/\mu_0)\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = -(g/\mu_0) r$$

$$\blacksquare \text{ Integration up to the pole radius } R: \quad nI = \left| \int_{I}^{II} Hds \right| = \left| -\frac{g}{\mu_0} \int_{0}^{R} rds \right| = \frac{g}{\mu_0} \frac{R^2}{2} \quad \rightarrow \quad g = \frac{2\mu_0 nI}{R^2}$$

 $\mu_r \gg 1$ $\mu_r \gg 1$ $\mu_r \gg 1$

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Quadrupole "focal length"

In analogy to the dipole magnet, the normalized quadrupole gradient can be written as

 $k[m^{-2}] = 0.2998 \frac{g[T/m]}{p[GeV/c]}$

The deflection ("kick") of a particle passing through a quadrupole of length *l* with offset *x* is

$$\Delta x' = \Delta \left(\frac{dx}{ds}\right) = klx.$$

The focal length *f* of a quadrupole of length *l* is given by $\frac{1}{f} = -k \ l.$

In the case of $f \gg l$, we speak of **thin lenses**, no matter how large *l* actually is.



KARA quadrupole

Synchrotron radiation in quadrupoles



- A particle undergoes a deflection in the quadrupole: again synchrotron radiation occurs!
 - Since the quadrupole field increases linearly with the particle offset, the energy loss is also position dependent.
 - The ensemble of particles has an average energy loss, which can be calculated from beam size and position.



Synchrotron radiation in quadrupoles II



The transverse radiation power is $P_{\gamma} = \frac{C_{\gamma}}{2\pi} c \frac{E^4}{\rho^2}$.

- The quadrupole field is $B_x = \frac{k p}{e} y$ and $B_y = \frac{k p}{e} x$, respectively.
- Thus the bending radius inside the quadrupole is $1/\rho = k \ u$ and $P_{\gamma} = \frac{c \ C_{\gamma}}{2\pi} \ E^4 \ k^2 \ u^2$ for u = (x, y).
- Integration over the time of flight in the quadrupole field provides the energy loss:

$$\Delta E_i = \int_{\Delta t_i} \mathrm{d}t P_{\gamma} = \frac{c \ C_{\gamma}}{2\pi} \ E^4 \ k^2 \ u^2 \ \frac{l_i}{c}$$

For a bunch with Gaussian-distributed charge density is $\Delta E_i = \frac{C_{\gamma} l_i}{2\pi} k^2 E^4 \int du \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \sigma} u^2 e^{\left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{(u-u_0)^2}{\sigma_u^2}\right)}$

Substitutions: $\xi^2 = (u - u_0)^2 / (2\sigma_u^2), \quad \xi = (u - u_0) / (\sqrt{2}\sigma_u), \quad d\xi/du = 1 / (\sqrt{2}\sigma_u), \quad du = \sqrt{2}\sigma_u d\xi$ und $u = \sqrt{2}\sigma_u \xi + u_0$

Finally, the energy loss is $\Delta E_i = \frac{C_{\gamma} l_i}{2\pi} k^2 E^4 (\sigma_u^2 + u_0^2).$

Synchrotron radiation in quadrupoles III



This result is generally valid for probability density functions f(x) normalised to $\int_a^b dx f(x) = 1$, if mean value μ and variance σ_{μ}^2 exist.

In general, $a = -\infty$ and $b = +\infty$. In real accelerators *a* and *b* are limited by the vacuum chamber.

The mean value of a distribution is

$$\int_{a}^{b} \mathrm{d}x \ x \ f(x) = \mu$$

From the definition of the variance, one immediately obtains the result derived for the special case

$$\sigma_{\mu}^{2} = \int_{a}^{b} dx \ (x - \mu)^{2} \ f(x) = \int_{a}^{b} dx \ x^{2} \ f(x) - 2\mu \int_{a}^{b} dx \ x \ f(x) + \mu^{2} \int_{a}^{b} dx \ f(x)$$
$$= \int_{a}^{b} dx \ \left\{ x^{2} \ f(x) \right\} \ - \ \mu^{2} \qquad \Rightarrow \int_{a}^{b} dx \ x^{2} \ f(x) \ = \ \mu^{2} + \sigma_{\mu}^{2}$$

Synchrotron radiation in quadrupoles IV



This can be generalized to two dimensions: Because of the rotational symmetry in x-y ($P_{\gamma} \propto k^2(x^2 + y^2)$) one can always find a transformation, so that the 2D function factorizes: h(x, y) = f(x)g(y), where g such as f is a probability density function with mean value ν and variance σ_{ν}^2 .

The integral is then

$$\int_{a}^{b} \int_{c}^{d} dx \, dy \, \left(x^{2} + y^{2}\right) \, h(x, y) = \int_{a}^{b} \int_{c}^{d} dx \, dy \, x^{2} f(x) \, g(y) \, + \, \int_{a}^{b} \int_{c}^{d} dx \, dy \, y^{2} \, f(x) \, g(y)$$
$$= \int_{a}^{b} dx \, x^{2} f(x) \, + \, \int_{c}^{d} dy \, y^{2} \, g(y)$$
$$= \mu^{2} + \sigma_{\mu}^{2} + \, \nu^{2} + \sigma_{\nu}^{2}.$$

Thus, the energy loss with transverse offset and finite beam size in x and y is

$$\Delta E_i = \frac{C_{\gamma} l_i}{2\pi} k^2 E^4 \left(x_0^2 + y_0^2 + \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2 \right).$$

The FODO lattice

 The alternating arrangement of (horizontally) focusing and (horizontally) defocusing quadrupoles allows to build compact systems.
 A frequently used arrangement is the periodic so-called
 "FODO structure".



F and D quadrupoles have comparable strength and the distance between two equal lenses is $\leq 2f$.



Equations of motion



- For a (horizontally) focusing quadrupole is k < 0.
- A particle with vertical offset y in a thin quadrupole of length ds and strength k undergoes a vertical deflection of

 $\mathrm{d} y' = - k y \, \mathrm{d} s.$

With this, a differential equation for the motion can be written immediately, called "Hill's differential equation" with the periodic coefficient k(s):

 $y'' + k(s) \ y = 0$

In general, for the coordinate u(s) and the length of the periodic structure l we write

$$u'' + K(s) \ u = 0$$
 with $K(s + l) = K(s)$
$$K(s) = \begin{cases} -k(s) + \frac{1}{\rho(s)^2} & \text{horizontal} \\ +k(s) & \text{vertical} \end{cases}$$

Solutions of Hill's differential equation



Structure of a simple harmonic oscillator — but with variable reset constant K(s)

The independent solutions are

$$u(s) = a\sqrt{\beta(s)} \ e^{\pm i\left(\Phi(s) + \Phi_0\right)}$$

with $\Phi'(s) = \frac{1}{\beta(s)}$ and $a = \text{const}$.

The phase function $\Phi(s)$ increases non-linearly with time or longitudinal position *s*, but — as the amplitude function $\beta(s)$ — must have the same periodicity as the magnetic lattice.

The phase advance μ per period length *l* is derived from the betafunction $\beta(s)$:

$$\mu = \mu(s, l) = \Phi(s + l) - \Phi(s) = \int_{s}^{s+l} \frac{1}{\beta(t)} dt$$

Particle trajectory

Illustration:

- Particle trajectory in regular FODO cells
- Periodicity of 4 FODO cells, $\Rightarrow \mu(s, l) = \pi/2$
- Normalised representation: $X(s) = x(s)/\sqrt{\beta(s)}$



Equations of motion II



The general solutions of the equation u'' + K(s)u = 0 are "Cosinelike" and "Sinelike" trajectories:

$$C(s) = \cos(\sqrt{K}s) \quad \text{and} \quad S(s) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{K}}\sin(\sqrt{K}s) \quad \text{for} \quad K > 0$$
$$C(s) = \cosh(\sqrt{|K|}s) \quad \text{and} \quad S(s) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|K|}}\sinh(\sqrt{|K|}s) \quad \text{for} \quad K < 0$$

These linearly independent solutions fulfill following initial conditions:

$$C(0) = 1,$$
 $C'(0) = \frac{dC}{ds} = 0,$ $S(0) = 0,$ $S'(0) = \frac{dS}{ds} = 1$

Any solution u(s) can be written as linear combination :

 $u(s) = C(s)u_0 + S(s)u'_0$

 $u'(s) = C'(s)u_0 + S'(s)u'_0$

Wronskian



The solutions of the equation of motion can be written as a (transfer) matrix:

 $\begin{pmatrix} u(s) \\ u'(s) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} C(s) & S(s) \\ C'(s) & S'(s) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_0(s) \\ u'_0(s) \end{pmatrix}$

Consider a general homogeneous linear differential equation of second order:

u'' + v(s)u' + w(s)u = 0

\blacksquare For two two linearly independent solutions the Wronski determinant \mathbb{W} can be formed:

$$\mathbb{W} = \begin{vmatrix} u_1(s) & u_2(s) \\ u_1'(s) & u_2'(s) \end{vmatrix} = u_1 u_2' - u_2 u_1'$$

Combination of the two solutions:

 $u_1'' + v(s)u_1' + w(s)u_1 = 0 \qquad |(-u_2)|$ $u_2'' + v(s)u_2' + w(s)u_2 = 0 \qquad |u_1|$ $(u_1u_2'' - u_2u_1'') + v(s)(u_1u_2' - u_2u_1') = 0$ From this follows a differential equation for W: $\frac{dW}{dt} + v(s)W = 0$

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Wronskian II



Differential equation for W: $\frac{dW}{ds} + v(s)W = 0$

Integration immediately yields: $\mathbb{W}(s) = \mathbb{W}_0 e^{-\int_{s_0}^s d\tilde{s} v(\tilde{s})}$

Without acceleration or energy loss due to synchrotron radiation, in linear beam dynamics v(s) = 0 and thus $W(s) = W_0 = \text{const.}$ With Sinelike and Cosinelike solutions

 $\mathbb{W}_0 = C_0 S'_0 - C'_0 S_0 = 1$

For the transfer matrix applies in general

 $\mathbb{W}(s) = \begin{vmatrix} C(s) & S(s) \\ C'(s) & S'(s) \end{vmatrix} = 1$

 \Rightarrow Phase space density and energy are conserved

This result is valid for any beam guiding system as long as v(s) = 0 and w(s) = K(s).

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Beam optics example



$$u(s) = a\sqrt{\beta(s)} e^{\pm i(\Phi(s) + \Phi_0)}$$

Beam optics functions of a LEP FODO cell calculated by "MAD"

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Trajectories and β

- The trajectories x_i(s) are individual solutions of the equation of motion and have different initial conditions.
- The envelope E(s) of all trajectories is proportional to the beta function:

 $E(s) \propto \sqrt{\beta(s)}$



Matrix formalism



 $u(s) = a\sqrt{\beta(s)} \cos(\Phi(s) - \delta)$

Full description of particle state by vector U = (u, u')

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}u(s)}{\mathrm{d}s} = u'(s) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\beta(s)}} \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}s} \beta(s) \ a \cos(\Phi(s) - \delta) - a\sqrt{\beta(s)} \sin(\Phi(s) - \delta) \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}s} \Phi(s)$$
$$= -\frac{a}{\sqrt{\beta(s)}} \left(\sin(\Phi(s) - \delta) - \frac{1}{2}\beta'(s) \cos(\Phi(s) - \delta)\right)$$

Linear differential equations can be transferred from location s_1 to location s_2 with a transfer matrix:

$$\begin{pmatrix} u(s_2) \\ u'(s_2) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b & c \\ f & g \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u(s_1) \\ u'(s_1) \end{pmatrix} = M(s_2 | s_1) \begin{pmatrix} u(s_1) \\ u'(s_1) \end{pmatrix}$$

For simplification we write $w = \sqrt{\beta}$, $u(s_i) = u_i$, $\phi_i = \Phi_i - \delta$

There are two classes of solutions: the "Cosinelike with $\delta = 0$ and the "Sinelike" with $\delta = \pi/2$.



Matrix formalism II

The matrix equation results in

 $u_2 = bu_1 + cu'_1$ und $u'_2 = fu_1 + gu'_1$ $\tilde{u}_2 = b\tilde{u}_1 + c\tilde{u}'_1$ und $\tilde{u}'_2 = f\tilde{u}_1 + g\tilde{u}'_1$

Substituting the solutions of u_1 and u_2 results in

(1)
$$a w_2 \cos \phi_2 = b (a w_1 \cos \phi_1) + c (a w_1' \cos \phi_1 - (a/w_1) \sin \phi_1)$$

(2)
$$a w_2 \sin \phi_2 = b (a w_1 \sin \phi_1) + c (a w_1' \sin \phi_1 + (a/w_1) \cos \phi_1)$$

Summation of (1) ·
$$w_1 \cos \phi_2$$
 and (2) · $w_1 \sin \phi_2$ gives
(3) $w_1 w_2 \cos^2 \phi_2 = b (w_1^2 \cos \phi_1 \cos \phi_2) + c (w_1 w_1' \cos \phi_1 \cos \phi_2 - \sin \phi_1 \cos \phi_2)$
(4) $w_1 w_2 \sin^2 \phi_2 = b (w_1^2 \sin \phi_1 \sin \phi_2) + c (w_1 w_1' \sin \phi_1 \sin \phi_2 + \cos \phi_1 \sin \phi_2)$
(3)+(4) $w_1 w_2 = (b w_1^2 + c w_1 w_1') (\cos \phi_1 \cos \phi_2 + \sin \phi_1 \sin \phi_2) + c (\cos \phi_1 \sin \phi_2 - \sin \phi_1 \cos \phi_2)$
(3)+(4) $w_1 w_2 = (b w_1^2 + c w_1 w_1') (\cos \Delta \phi + c \sin \Delta \phi)$

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Matrix formalism III

Analogous addition of (1) · $w_1 \cos \phi_1$ and (2) · $w_1 \sin \phi_1$ (5) $w_1 w_2 \cos \phi_1 \cos \phi_2 = b (w_1^2 \cos^2 \phi_1) + c (w_1 w_1' \cos^2 \phi_1 - \sin \phi_1 \cos \phi_1)$ (6) $w_1 w_2 \sin \phi_1 \sin \phi_2 = b (w_1^2 \sin^2 \phi_1) + c (w_1 w_1' \sin^2 \phi_1 + \sin \phi_1 \cos \phi_1)$ (5)+(6) $w_1 w_2 \cos \Delta \phi = b w_1^2 + c w_1 w_1'$

With the previous result: two equations for the determination of b and c (3)+(4) $w_1w_2 = (bw_1^2 + cw_1w_1') \cos \Delta \phi + c \sin \Delta \phi$ $c \sin \Delta \phi = w_1w_2 \sin^2 \Delta \phi \rightarrow c = w_1w_2 \sin \Delta \phi$

Substitution of c in (5)+(6)

$$b w_1^2 = w_1 w_2 \cos \Delta \phi - w_1^2 w_2 w_1' \sin \Delta \phi \rightarrow b = (w_2/w_1) \cos \Delta \phi - w_1' w_2 \sin \Delta \phi$$

After analogous procedure for f and g is

$$M(s_{2}|s_{1}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{w_{2}}{w_{1}}\cos\Delta\phi - w'_{1}w_{2}\sin\Delta\phi & w_{1}w_{2}\sin\Delta\phi \\ -\frac{1+w_{1}w'_{1}w_{2}w'_{2}}{w_{1}w_{2}}\sin\Delta\phi - \left(\frac{w'_{1}}{w_{2}} - \frac{w'_{2}}{w_{1}}\right)\cos\Delta\phi & \frac{w_{1}}{w_{2}}\cos\Delta\phi + w_{1}w'_{2}\sin\Delta\phi \end{pmatrix}$$

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Twiss matrix

General transfer matrix from s_1 to s_2 :

$$M(s_{2}|s_{1}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{w_{2}}{w_{1}}\cos\Delta\phi - w_{1}'w_{2}\sin\Delta\phi & w_{1}w_{2}\sin\Delta\phi \\ -\frac{1+w_{1}w_{1}'w_{2}w_{2}'}{w_{1}w_{2}}\sin\Delta\phi - \left(\frac{w_{1}'}{w_{2}} - \frac{w_{2}'}{w_{1}}\right)\cos\Delta\phi & \frac{w_{1}}{w_{2}}\cos\Delta\phi + w_{1}w_{2}'\sin\Delta\phi \end{pmatrix}$$

Simplification with periodic boundary conditions: $w_1 = w_2, w_1' = w_2', \Delta \phi \rightarrow \mu$

$$\boldsymbol{M} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \mu - w \, w' \sin \mu & w^2 \sin \mu \\ -\frac{1 + w^2 w'^2}{w^2} \sin \mu & \cos \mu + w \, w' \sin \mu \end{pmatrix}$$

Definition of new functions:

$$w w' = -\frac{\beta'}{2}$$
 $\beta = w'$

$$\gamma = \frac{1 + (ww')^2}{w^2} = \frac{1 + \alpha}{\beta}$$

Thus, the Twiss matrix for periodic structures has the form

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} b & c \\ f & g \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \mu + \alpha \sin \mu & \beta \sin \mu \\ -\gamma \sin \mu & \cos \mu - \alpha \sin \mu \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} C & S \\ C' & S' \end{pmatrix}$$

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Symplectic matrices

• A $2n \times 2n$ dimensional matrix is "symplectic", if

$$A^{\dagger}SA = S$$
 with $S = \begin{pmatrix} \emptyset & \mathbb{I} \\ -\mathbb{I} & \emptyset \end{pmatrix}$ for real matrices $A^{\dagger} =$

 $\rightarrow A$ is symplectic, if $A^{-1} = S^T A^{\dagger} S$

If a symplectic matrix consists of the $(n \times n)$ matrices P, Q, R, S

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} P & Q \\ R & S \end{pmatrix} \text{ then follows for } A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} S^{\dagger} & -R^{\dagger} \\ -Q^{\dagger} & P^{\dagger} \end{pmatrix}$$

 \rightarrow The set of symplectic ($2n \times 2n$) matrices is closed under multiplication and inversion and therefore form a group.

 $\rightarrow A$ is symplectic, if it preserves the symplectic form $\vec{x}^{\dagger}S\vec{y}$:

 $(\mathbf{A} \ \vec{x})^{\dagger} \ \mathbf{S} \ (\mathbf{A} \ \vec{y}) = \vec{x}^{\dagger} \ \mathbf{S} \ \vec{y} \quad \forall \quad \vec{x}, \vec{y}$

This is analogous to the case of preserving the scalar product by a unitary matrix $m{U}$:

 $(\boldsymbol{U} \ \vec{x})^{\dagger} \ (\boldsymbol{U} \ \vec{y}) = \vec{x}^{\dagger} \ \vec{y}$

 A^T

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Symplecticity of the Twiss matrix

Transfer matrices for beam steering systems in general are symplectic. Example: Twissmatrix

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \mu + \alpha \sin \mu & \beta \sin \mu \\ -\gamma \sin \mu & \cos \mu - \alpha \sin \mu \end{pmatrix}$$

$$As M is real \qquad M^{\dagger} = M^{T} = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Condition for symplecticity: \qquad M^{T} S M = S, also$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c & d \\ -a & -b \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} ac - ca & ad - bc \\ bc - ad & bd - db \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & ad - bc \\ -(ad - bc) & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Using
$$\beta \gamma - \alpha^2 = \beta \frac{(1+\alpha^2)}{\beta} - \alpha^2 = 1$$
 yields:
 $ad - bc = \cos^2 \mu - \alpha \cos \mu \sin \mu + \alpha \cos \mu \sin \mu - \alpha^2 \sin^2 \mu - (-\beta \gamma \sin^2 \mu)$
 $= \cos^2 \mu + \sin^2 \mu (\beta \gamma - \alpha^2) = 1$ q.e.d.

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Recap

- Right-handed orthogonal coordinate system Simplification: $\vec{v} = (0,0,v_s)$ and $\vec{B} = (B_x, B_y, 0)$
 - Taylor expansion of the magnetic field in the vicinity
of the nominal trajectory (x = 0):Frenet-Serret coordinate $\frac{e}{p} B_y(x) = \frac{e}{p} B_{y0}$ $+ \frac{e}{p} \frac{dB_y}{dx} x$ $+ \frac{1}{2!} \frac{e}{p} \frac{d^2B_y}{dx^2} x^2$ $+ \frac{1}{3!} \frac{e}{p} \frac{d^3B_y}{dx^3} x^3 + \dots$ $= \frac{1}{\rho}$ + k x $+ \frac{1}{2!} m x^2$ $+ \frac{1}{3!} o x^3 + \dots$ \Rightarrow dipole+ quadrupole+ sextupole+ octupole $+ \dots$
- Structures that only consist of dipole and quadrupole fields are called "linear lattices". The linear lattice determines trajectory ("orbit") and focusing properties, higher-order field components are used for correction and error compensation.

observed particle

x(s)

y(s)

design orbit



Recap II

Magnets of the linear lattice:

Dipole
$$\frac{1}{\rho}[\mathrm{m}^{-1}] = \frac{e}{p}B_0 = 0.2998 \frac{B_0[\mathrm{T}]}{p[\mathrm{GeV/c}]}$$

Quadrupole $k[\mathrm{m}^{-2}] = \frac{e}{p}\frac{\mathrm{d}B_y}{\mathrm{d}x} = 0.2998 \frac{g[\mathrm{T/m}]}{p[\mathrm{GeV/c}]} \Rightarrow$ "Thin lenses": $\frac{1}{f} = -k l$

Equations of motion

Hill's differential equation with periodic coefficients

 $u'' + K(s) \ u = 0 \qquad \text{with} \ K(s+l) = K(s) \qquad \text{and} \ K(s) = \begin{cases} -k(s) + \frac{1}{\rho(s)^2} & \text{horizontal} \\ +k(s) & \text{vertical} \end{cases}$

General solutions: "Cosinelike" and "Sinelike" functions

Wronski determinant W for two linearly independent solutions

Differential equation for \mathbb{W} ; for transfer matrices applies $\mathbb{W}(s) = 1$

Recap III



- **Transfer matrices** (map the trajectory vector from s_1 to s_2)
 - "Twiss matrix" for periodic structures determined from solutions of the equation of motion

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \mu + \alpha \sin \mu & \beta \sin \mu \\ -\gamma \sin \mu & \cos \mu - \alpha \sin \mu \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} C & S \\ C' & S' \end{pmatrix}$$

with the optical functions: $\alpha(s) = -\frac{\beta(s)'}{2}$, $\beta(s)$, $\gamma(s) = \frac{1 + \alpha(s)^2}{\beta(s)}$

are symplectic: form a group (multiplication of transfer matrices yields another transfer matrix)
 ⇒ conservation of energy

Composite structures



The individual components of an accelerator can each be represented as transfer matrices M_{i} .

The entire structure can be written as a product of the individual component matrices: $M = M_n \dots M_3 M_2 M_1$


Stability criterion



- Be M_p the transfer matrix for one period length, then the movement is only stable if the product matrix $M = (M_p)^{Nk}$ for N periods and k turns does not diverge.
- M is given by

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} b & c \\ f & g \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \mu + \alpha \sin \mu & \beta \sin \mu \\ -\gamma \sin \mu & \cos \mu - \alpha \sin \mu \end{pmatrix}$$

With U = (u, u'), the eigenvalues of M are given by $MU = \lambda U$ with det $(M - \lambda I) = 0$. Since det M = 1 one obtains

$$0 = (b - \lambda)(g - \lambda) - cf = (bg - cf) - \lambda(g + b) + \lambda^{2} = 1 - \lambda(b + g) + \lambda^{2}$$

The trace of *M* is tr $M = 2 \cos \mu = (b + g)$. Substitution yields the quadratic equation $0 = 1 - 2\lambda \cos \mu + \lambda^2$. The eigenvalues are thus

$$\lambda = \cos \mu \pm \sqrt{\cos^2 \mu - 1} = \cos \mu \pm \sqrt{-\sin^2 \mu} = \cos \mu \pm i \sin \mu = e^{\pm i\mu}$$

Stability is ensured for real μ ($|\cos \mu| \le 1$). That implies $\left|\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{tr} M\right| \le 1$ and $|\lambda| = 1$



The LEP FODO cell



Institute for Beam Physics and Technology (IBPT)

Example: FODO structure



As an example of a simple composite structure, we consider a regular FODO structure in thin lens approximation.



Remark: L is <u>half</u> the cell length and f is the focal length of a <u>half</u> quadrupole

Example: FODO structure



As an example of a simple composite structure, we consider a regular FODO structure in thin lens approximation. From the center of the F quadrupole to the center of the D quadrupole the transfer matrix is

$$\boldsymbol{M}_{\rm FD} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1/f_2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & L \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1/f_1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - L/f_1 & L \\ -1/f^* & 1 - L/f_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{mit} \quad \frac{1}{f^*} = \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} - \frac{L}{f_1 f_2}$$

In order to complete the period, the "backward" structure must be traversed, i.e.

$$M_{\rm FD} = M = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow M_r = \begin{pmatrix} d & b \\ c & a \end{pmatrix}$$
The overall matrix is then
$$M_{\rm tot} = M_r M = \begin{pmatrix} ad + bc & 2bd \\ 2ac & ad + cb \end{pmatrix}$$
Einsetzen mit $f_1 = -f_2 = f$ ergibt
$$M_{\rm FODO} = M_r M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - 2L^2/f^2 & 2L(1 + L/f) \\ -2(1 - L/f)(L/f^2) & 1 - 2L^2/f^2 \end{pmatrix}$$
Remark: L is half the cell length and

Remark: L is <u>half</u> the cell length and f is the focal length of a <u>half</u> quadrupole



FODO II

In the general case, $f_1 \neq -f_2$, the transfer matrix is

$$M_{\text{FODO}} = M_r M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - 2L/f^* & 2L(1 - L/f_2) \\ -(2/f^*)(1 - L/f_1) & 1 - 2L/f^* \end{pmatrix}$$

From the trace, the stability criterion results in

tr
$$M = \left| 2 - \frac{4L}{f^*} \right| < 2$$
 and thus $0 < \frac{L}{f^*} < 1$
For $u = L/f_1$ and $v = L/f_2$ and with $L/f^* = L/f_1 + L/f_2 - L^2/(f_1f_2)$ we get $0 < u + v - uv < 1$

If one solves these inequalities, one obtains the boundaries of the stable region:

$$|u| = 1,$$
 $|v| = \frac{|u|}{1 - |u|},$
 $|v| = 1,$ $|u| = \frac{|v|}{1 + |v|}$





In phase space

The equations of the particle trajectory (solution of Hill's differential equation) and its derivative with respect to *s* form a parametric representation of an ellipse in *u*-*u*' at location *s*:

$$u(s) = a\sqrt{\beta(s)} \cos(\Phi(s) - \delta)$$
$$u'(s) = -\frac{a}{\sqrt{\beta(s)}} \left(\sin(\Phi(s) - \delta) - \frac{1}{2}\frac{d}{ds}\beta(s)\cos(\Phi(s) - \delta)\right)$$

In absence of dissipative forces, the surface of this ellipse, πA^2 , is independent of *s* (Liouville's theorem).

The parameter a^2 is referred to as the "Courant Snyder invariant".

$$\gamma u^2 + 2\alpha u u' + \beta u'^2 = W_u$$

 $\alpha = -\frac{1}{2} \beta' \text{ and } \gamma = \frac{1+\alpha^2}{\beta}$

The location dependent functions $\alpha(s)$, $\beta(s)$ and $\gamma(s)$ are called the "optical functions" (formerly often known as "Twiss parameters").



Phase space ellipse II



This means that the particle returns after each turn to the same ellipse but with a different phase.







Evolution of phase space ellipse along the lattice



Beta matrix



Transformation of the solutions of Hill's equation gives (remember $\phi(s) = \Phi(s) - \delta$):

$$\cos(\phi(s)) = \frac{u}{a\sqrt{\beta(s)}} \quad \text{und} \quad -\sin(\phi(s)) = \frac{\sqrt{\beta(s)} u'}{a} + \frac{\alpha(s) u}{a\sqrt{\beta(s)}}$$

With $\sin^2 \phi(s) + \cos^2 \phi(s) = 1$ and $\gamma = (1 + \alpha^2)/\beta$ follows

$$\frac{u^2}{\beta(s)} + \left(\beta(s)u'^2 + \frac{2\sqrt{\beta(s)}\alpha(s)uu'}{\sqrt{\beta(s)}} + \frac{\alpha^2(s)u^2}{\beta(s)}\right) = a^2 = W_u$$

$$\gamma(s)u^2 + 2\alpha(s)uu' + \beta(s)u'^2 = a^2$$

The elliptic equation can also be written in the following way:

$$W_u = (u \quad u') \begin{pmatrix} \gamma & \alpha \\ \alpha & \beta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u \\ u' \end{pmatrix} = \boldsymbol{U}^T \boldsymbol{B}^{-1} \boldsymbol{U}$$

The "beta matrix" **B** with det **B** = 1 is given by **B** = $\begin{pmatrix} \beta & -\alpha \\ -\alpha & \gamma \end{pmatrix}$

Transformation of the beta matrix



The trajectory vector transforms like U₂ = M U₁. For matrix M applies M⁻¹M = 1 and M^T(M^T)⁻¹ = 1.
 Using the matrix relations A^TB^T = (BA)^T and A⁻¹B⁻¹ = (BA)⁻¹ the definition of the beta matrix can be rewritten:

$$W_{u} = U_{1}^{T} B_{1}^{-1} U_{1} = U_{1}^{T} (M^{T} (M^{T})^{-1}) B_{1}^{-1} (M^{-1} M) U_{1}$$

$$= U_{1}^{T} M^{T} ((M^{T})^{-1} B_{1}^{-1} M^{-1}) M U_{1} = U_{1}^{T} M^{T} ((M^{T})^{-1} (M B_{1})^{-1}) M U_{1}$$

$$= U_{1}^{T} M^{T} (M B_{1} M^{T})^{-1} M U_{1} = (M U_{1})^{T} (M B_{1} M^{T})^{-1} M U_{1}$$

with the transformation relation $U_{2}^{T} = (M U_{1})^{T}$ follows immediately:

$$W_{u} = U_{2}^{T} (M B_{1} M^{T})^{-1} U_{2}$$

Because W_{μ} is independent of *s* also applies:

$$W_u = \boldsymbol{U}_2^T \boldsymbol{B}_2^{-1} \boldsymbol{U}_2$$

By comparison we obtain the transformation relation of the beta matrix:

$$\boldsymbol{B}_2 = \boldsymbol{M}\boldsymbol{B}_1\boldsymbol{M}^2$$

Transport of β

Example: With the transformation relation $B_2 = MB_1M^T$ one can observe the evolution of the beta function in the area of a symmetry point.

In a symmetry point s = 0 following conditions apply: $\beta = \beta^*$ and $\alpha^* = 0$.

A simple translation over a distance l is given by

 $(u, u') \rightarrow (u + lu', u')$

As a consequence the beta matrix is transformed like

$$B_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & s \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \beta^* & 0 \\ 0 & 1/\beta^* \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ s & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} \beta^* + (s^2/\beta^*) & s/\beta^* \\ s/\beta^* & 1/\beta^* \end{pmatrix}$$

The smaller the beta function, the more divergent is the beam (Consequence of "Liouville's theorems").



eta and aperture



- For the symmetry point at s = 0 applies $\beta = \beta^*$ and $\alpha^* = 0$. By definition $\gamma = (1 + \alpha^2)/\beta$.
- For a simple drift space of length *L* the value of the beta function expressed as a function of *L* and β^* is:

$$\beta(s=L) = \beta^* + \frac{L^2}{\beta^*}$$

Example: Be $\beta^* = 1$ cm at the symmetry point and the RMS beam size $\sigma_u = 0.1$ mm.

- The wall of the vacuum chamber should be at least 10 standard deviations (beam sizes) from the center of the beam.
- At a distance of 5 m from the symmetry point β is

$$\beta_L = 10^{-2} \text{ m} + \frac{25 \text{ m}^2}{10^{-2} \text{ m}} \approx 2.5 \text{ km}$$

eta and aperture II



For the beam size applies $\sigma \propto \sqrt{\beta}$. That consequently means

$$\sigma_L \propto \sqrt{\beta_L} \quad \text{und} \quad \sigma^* \propto \sqrt{\beta^*}$$

$$\frac{\sigma_L}{\sigma^*} = \frac{\sqrt{\beta_L}}{\sqrt{\beta^*}} \quad \text{and therefore} \quad \sigma_L = \sigma^* \sqrt{\frac{\beta_L}{\beta^*}} = 100 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ m} \sqrt{\frac{2500}{10^{-2}}}$$

$$= 10^{-4} \text{ m} \sqrt{25 \cdot 10^4} = 5 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{ m}$$

The minimum diameter (" 10σ ") of the vacuum chamber at a distance of 5 m from the symmetry point is thus

 $d = 2 \ 10 \ \sigma_L = 1 \ \mathrm{m} \ !$

In the large detectors at interaction (symmetry) points the beam increases rapidly towards both sides

 \rightarrow Luminosity reduction due to the "hourglass effect"

 \rightarrow Large beam in strong final focus quadrupoles \Rightarrow synchrotron radiation, background, ...

Liouville's theorem



"Under the influence of conservative forces, the phase volume remains constant."

 Liouville can be used to describe the properties of the beam as a whole.
 Starting point: Time evolution of a 6d phase space element Number of particles in the phase space element of density Ψ:

 $\Psi(x, y, s, p_x, p_y, p_s) \ dx \ dy \ ds \ dp_x \ dp_y \ dp_s$

The movement of the particle generates the current $\vec{j} = (\Psi \dot{x}, \Psi \dot{y}, \Psi \dot{s}, \Psi \dot{p}_x, \Psi \dot{p}_y, \Psi \dot{p}_s)$, where the time derivative is taken after the time τ along the trajectory of the phase space element: $\dot{x} = dx/d\tau$

The current in phase space must fulfil the continuity equation:

$$\nabla \vec{j} + \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial \tau} = 0$$

Liouville's theorem II



Assuming that location and momentum are independent of each other, the following is true

 $-\frac{\partial\Psi}{\partial\tau} = \nabla_r \left(\Psi \,\dot{\vec{r}}\right) + \nabla_p \left(\Psi \,\dot{\vec{p}}\right) = \dot{\vec{r}} \nabla_r \Psi + \Psi \left(\nabla_r \dot{\vec{r}}\right) + \dot{\vec{p}} \nabla_p \Psi + \Psi \left(\nabla_p \dot{\vec{p}}\right)$

The temporal derivative does not depend of the location \vec{r} itself ($\beta = pc/E$)

 $\frac{\vec{r}}{c} = \frac{c \vec{p}}{\sqrt{c^2 p^2 + m^2 c^4}} \text{ and therefore } \nabla_r \dot{\vec{r}} = 0$

From the Lorentz force equation follows

$$\nabla_{p} \dot{\vec{p}} = \frac{e}{c} \nabla_{p} [\dot{\vec{r}} \times \vec{B}] = \frac{e}{c} \vec{B} (\nabla_{p} \times \dot{\vec{r}}) - \frac{e}{c} \dot{\vec{r}} (\nabla_{p} \times \vec{B})$$

The second term vanishes, because \vec{B} does not depend on the momentum. In the first term is $\nabla_p \times \dot{\vec{r}} = 0$, as

$$(\nabla_p \times \dot{\vec{r}})_x = \frac{\partial \dot{s}}{\partial p_y} - \frac{\partial \dot{y}}{\partial p_s} \text{ and } (p^2 = p_x^2 + p_y^2 + p_s^2)$$

$$\frac{\partial \dot{s}}{\partial p_y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial p_y} \frac{c \ p_s}{(p^2 + m^2 c^2)^{1/2}} = \frac{c \ p_y \ p_s}{(p^2 + m^2 c^2)^{3/2}} = \frac{\partial \dot{y}}{\partial p_s}$$

• Analog calculation for remaining components in the end provides $\nabla_p \vec{p} = 0$



Liouville's theorem III

Therefore we can write

$$\frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial \tau} + \nabla_r \Psi \dot{\vec{r}} + \nabla_p \Psi \dot{\vec{p}} = \frac{d\Psi}{d\tau} = 0$$

 \rightarrow Thus, the phase space density is invariant in time.

The invariance can also be shown using the properties of the transfer matrix:

→ For a determinant consisting of the components of six vectors \vec{x} defining a 6d phase space volume and transforming like $y_i = M x_i$, one can show that

 $|\overrightarrow{y_1}, \overrightarrow{y_2}, ..., \overrightarrow{y_6}| = |\boldsymbol{M}| |\overrightarrow{x_1}, \overrightarrow{x_2}, ..., \overrightarrow{x_6}|$

ightarrow For beam steering systems |M| is the Wronski determinant $\mathbb W$ with

 $\mathbb{W} = |\boldsymbol{M}| = 1.$

 \rightarrow Thus, the phase space volume is constant.

Emittance

- As a consequence of Liouville's theorem the *W* is locationally invariant. *W* corresponds to a "single particle emittance".
- In good approximation, the transverse charge density distribution in a particle beam is Gaussian.
- The beam size is defined as the standard deviation of the charge density distribution:

 $\sigma_u(s) = \sqrt{\varepsilon \beta(s)}$

 $\varepsilon = \frac{\sigma_u^2(s)}{\beta(s)}.$

The (equilibrium) emittance is thus given by

The maximum possible emittance limited by the aperture is called the acceptance.







Karlsruhe Institute of Technology

Trajectories and β

- The trajectories x_i(s) are individual solutions of the equation of motion and have different initial conditions.
- The envelope E(s) of all trajectories is proportional to beta function and emittance:

 $E(s) = \sqrt{\epsilon \beta(s)}$



Optical functions



There are two ways of looking at the optics functions:

- The first is to regard them as a parametric way of expressing the equation of motion and its solution. This interpretation makes the bridge from tracking single particles to the wider view of calculating beam envelopes.
- The second is to regard them as purely geometric parameters for defining ellipses and hence beam envelopes. Dropping the strict correspondence to individual particles can lead to some interesting extensions such as the inclusion of scattering.



The beam matrix

- One can specify a covariance matrix *C* for the particle distribution in the phase space. The elements of this matrix are given by $C_{ij} = \langle ij \rangle \langle i \rangle \langle j \rangle$, where *i* and *j* represent the coordinates.
- The covariance matrix

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} C_{ii} & C_{ij} \\ C_{ji} & C_{jj} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon\beta & -\varepsilon\alpha \\ -\varepsilon\alpha & \varepsilon\gamma \end{pmatrix}$$

With

 $\det C = \varepsilon^2 \left(\beta \gamma - \alpha^2\right) = \varepsilon^2$

the RMS emittance is given by

 $\varepsilon_{\text{RMS}}^2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \det \mathbf{C} = C_{xx} C_{x'x'} - C_{xx'}^2$

This definition is valid for any distribution and can easily be extended to 6D.



Emittance terms



Single particle emittance

- Courant Snyder invariant: $W_u = \gamma u^2 + 2\alpha u u' + \beta u'^2$
- Area of the phase space ellipse delimited by the possible trajectory vectors U of a single particle at a certain location divided by π : $W_{\mu} = A / \pi$

Equilibrium emittance

- Effective emittance resulting from the effects of both radiation damping and quantum excitation by synchrotron radiation.
- ... is determined by the lattice design.

RMS emittance ("root mean square")

- Derived from the charge density distribution of the beam
- The "RMS beam size" is given by $\sigma_u^2 = \langle u^2 \rangle \langle u \rangle^2$
- Thus, the RMS emittance is $\varepsilon_{\rm RMS} = \sigma_u^2(s) / \beta(s)$
- The RMS emittance can be equal to the equilibrium emittance.

Energy independent emittance



All emittances defined so far are dependent on the beam energy. "Adiabatic damping" during acceleration process: $\varepsilon \propto 1/E_0$

→ Phase space elements in transverse beam dynamics: $\Delta u \Delta u'$ instead of correctly according to Liouville $\Delta u \Delta p_u$ with $\Delta p_u = p_0 u'$

 \rightarrow During acceleration p_0 increases, thus the geometric ("physical") emittances $\Delta u \Delta u'$ decrease to keep the product $\Delta u \Delta p_u$ constant.

Definition of a "normalized emittance": where $\beta = v/c$ and $\gamma = E/(m_0c^2)$.

$$\varepsilon_N = (\beta \gamma) \varepsilon$$

Normalised coordinates

U



W

Reminder: The particle trajectory is given by $u(s) = a \sqrt{\beta(s)} \cos(\Phi(s))$

A practical normalization ("Floquet's coordinates") transforms the phase space ellipse into a circle:

$$w(\theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\beta}} = a \cos \Phi$$

$$\frac{dw}{d\Phi} = \sqrt{\beta} u' + \frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{\beta}} u = -a \sin \Phi$$
The Courant Snyder invariant immediately becomes
$$w^{2} + \left(\frac{dw}{d\Phi}\right)^{2} = a^{2}$$
Also convenient: Angle-action-coordinated
Non-linearities lead to deviations of the circular shape

Normalised coordinates II

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Example:

Simulation of the horizontal phase space in the CERN PS



Summary

Matrix formalism

- Matrices can be derived either from solution of equation of motion or optical properties with the same numerical result
- The trajectory is stable, if stability criterion is fulfilled: $\frac{1}{2}$ tr $M \leq 1$

Phase space

- Solutions of the equation of motion represent an ellipse in phase space.
- The area of the ellipse ("Courant Snyder invariant") is conserved as a consequence of Liouville's theorem.
- Transition for single particle to particle ensemble: phase space area occupied by the beam defines beam emittance.

$$\sigma(s) = \sqrt{\epsilon \,\beta(s)}$$









Particle Accelerator Physics

Anke-Susanne Müller, Axel Bernhard, Bastian Härer, Bennet Krasch, Nathan Ray



www.kit.edu

III - Beam optics & beam dynamics

- Basics of transverse beam optics
 Magnetic lenses
 Equations of motion and transfer matrices
 Optic functions and emittance
 Tune, chromaticity and resonances
 Dispersion and beam size
- Basics of longitudinal beam dynamics
 Longitudinal oscillations
 RF buckets and stable phase
- Oscillations and damping
 Many-particle systems



Recap: Composite structures



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Tunes and resonances



The "tune" or working point of an accelerator with N periods is defined as the number of betatron oscillations per revolution.

$$Q = \frac{N \mu}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{0}^{L} \frac{\mathrm{d}s}{\beta(s)} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \oint \frac{\mathrm{d}s}{\beta(s)}$$

- If the tune reaches certain rational numbers, the movement becomes unstable.
- Condition for optical resonances:

 $mQ_x + nQ_y = p \text{ mit } m, n, p \in \mathbb{Z}$

• Order of the resonance: |m| + |n|

$$x_n$$

kick μ

Tunes and resonances



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Synchro betatron resonances







Synchro betatron resonances





Gradient errors



The unperturbed transport matrix for one turn is given by ($\Phi_0 = N\mu = 2\pi Q$)

 $M_0 = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \Phi_0 + \alpha \sin \Phi_0 & \beta \sin \Phi_0 \\ -\gamma \sin \Phi_0 & \cos \Phi_0 - \alpha \sin \Phi_0 \end{pmatrix}$

Representations for an unperturbed and a perturbed quadrupole are

 $\boldsymbol{m}_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -k_0 \mathrm{d}s & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ und $\boldsymbol{m} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -(k_0 + \Delta k) \mathrm{d}s & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

In order to incorporate the perturbation into the overall matrix, one goes "backwards" through the affected quadrupole:

$$M = m m_0^{-1} M_0 \quad \text{with} \quad m m_0^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -\Delta k \, \mathrm{d}s & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$M = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \Phi_0 + \alpha \sin \Phi_0 & \beta \sin \Phi_0 \\ -\Delta k \, \mathrm{d}s \, (\cos \Phi_0 + \alpha \sin \Phi_0) - \gamma \sin \Phi_0 & -\Delta k \, \mathrm{d}s \, \beta \sin \Phi_0 + \cos \Phi_0 - \alpha \sin \Phi_0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Since tr $M = 2 \cos \Phi$, the change in $\cos \Phi$ can be written as

$$\Delta(\cos\Phi) = -\Delta\Phi \sin\Phi_0 = (\operatorname{tr} M - \operatorname{tr} M_0)/2 = -\frac{\sin\Phi_0}{2}\beta \Delta k \, \mathrm{d}s$$
$$|\Delta\Phi| = \frac{\beta \Delta k \, \mathrm{d}s}{2} = 2\pi\Delta Q \text{ and } \Delta Q = \frac{1}{4\pi} \oint \beta(s)\Delta k(s) \, \mathrm{d}s$$
Half-integer resonance



- A more detailed derivation based on the inhomogeneous equation of motion with perturbation term yields higher-order terms to the static tune displacement.
- The following approximation can be obtained for small perturbations:

$$\Delta Q = -\frac{1}{4\pi} \oint \beta(s) \ \Delta k(s) \ ds$$

$$-\frac{1}{4\pi} \sin(2\pi Q_0) \ \oint \beta(s) \ \Delta k(s) \sin\left(2Q_0[\pi - \chi(s)]\right) \ ds$$

where $ds = Q_0 \beta(s) d\chi$

- The first term corresponds to a tune shift, the second is an oscillation term that averages out over many turns unless Q_0 is half-integer.
- Resonance condition: $Q_0 \neq \frac{1}{2}n$

Tune-Diagramme

 $\mathfrak{m} Q_{\mathtt{x}} + \mathfrak{n} Q_{\mathtt{y}} + \mathfrak{l} Q_{\mathtt{s}} \; = \; p \qquad \quad \mathrm{mit} \quad \mathfrak{m}, \mathfrak{n}, \mathfrak{l}, p \in$

4. Ordnung

14. Ordnung



Momentum offset: dispersion orbit



The deflection angle in the dipole magnets depends on the particle energy.
 In a storage ring, dipoles deflect horizontally, therefore mainly horizontal dispersion.
 Vertical dispersion is caused by field errors or misalignment for example.

As a consequence, the equation of motion becomes an inhomogeneous differential equation with an additional term on the right hand side:

$$x'' + K(s) \ x = \frac{\Delta p}{p_0} \frac{1}{\rho}$$

The horizontal particle position at location s relative to the nominal orbit consists of two components:

 $x(s) = x_{\beta}(s) + x_{D}(s)$

Dispersion orbit with homogeneous dipole field





- x_D can be understood as a special orbit for the particle with momentum offset.
- Normalizing this orbit with respect to $\Delta p/p_0$ yields the dispersion function

$$D_x(s) = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta p/p_0}$$

that describes the change of transverse position Δx due to a momentum deviation $\Delta p/p_0$.

The total transverse offset for a particle with $\Delta p/p_0 \neq 0$ is then

$$x(s) = x_{\beta}(s) + x_{D}(s) = x_{\beta}(s) + D_{x}(s) \frac{\Delta p}{p_{0}}$$

The beam size increases due to off-momentum particles in dispersive sections:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\epsilon\beta + D^2 (\Delta p/p_0)^2}$$

Momentum compaction factor



A particle with $\Delta p/p_0 > 0$ has a longer path length than the reference particle. The dependence of the relative change of orbit length $\Delta L/L$ on the momentum deviation $\Delta p/p_0$ defines the "momentum compaction factor":

$$\frac{\Delta L}{L} = \alpha_c \frac{\Delta p}{p_0}$$

The change of orbit length of a particle that follows the closed dispersion orbit $x_D(s)$ is

$$\Delta L = \oint ds \ \frac{x_D(s)}{\rho(s)} = \frac{\Delta p}{p_0} \ \oint ds \ \frac{D(s)}{\rho(s)}.$$

With this we can also write α_c as

$$\alpha_c = \frac{1}{L} \oint \mathrm{d}s \; \frac{D(s)}{\rho(s)}$$

As a rough approximation, α_c can also be estimated from the (integer part of the) horizontal tune:

$$\alpha_c \approx \frac{1}{Q_x^2}$$
 z. B. $Q_x \approx 100$, $\alpha_c \approx 1 \cdot 10^{-4}$

Perturbation terms



Ansatz for the particular solution of the inhomogeneous differential equation including perturbation p(s):

$$P''(s) + K(s) P(s) = p(s)$$

A solution can be written from the principal solutions of the homogeneous differential equation using Green's function $G(s, \tilde{s}) = S(s)C(\tilde{s}) - C(s)S(\tilde{s})$:

$$P(s) = \int_{0}^{s} p(\tilde{s}) G(s, \tilde{s}) d\tilde{s}$$

Insertion (with $\tilde{C} = C(\tilde{s}), \tilde{S} = S(\tilde{s}), \tilde{p} = p(\tilde{s}), C = C(s)$, etc.) yields
$$P(s) = S \int_{0}^{s} \tilde{p} \tilde{C} d\tilde{s} - C \int_{0}^{s} \tilde{p} \tilde{S} d\tilde{s}$$

First derivative:

$$P'(s) = S' \int_0^s \tilde{p} \tilde{C} d\tilde{s} + S C p - C' \int_0^s \tilde{p} \tilde{S} d\tilde{s} - S C p$$
$$= S' \int_0^s \tilde{p} \tilde{C} d\tilde{s} - C' \int_0^s \tilde{p} \tilde{S} d\tilde{s}$$



Perturbation terms II

Second d

lerivative:
$$P'(s) = S' \int_0^s \tilde{p} \ \tilde{C} \ d\tilde{s} - C' \int_0^s \tilde{p} \ \tilde{S} \ d\tilde{s}$$

 $P''(s) = S'' \int_0^s \tilde{p} \ \tilde{C} \ d\tilde{s} + S' \ C \ p - C'' \int_0^s \tilde{p} \ \tilde{S} \ d\tilde{s} - C' \ S \ p$
 $= p(CS' - C'S) + S'' \int_0^s \tilde{p} \ \tilde{C} \ d\tilde{s} - C'' \int_0^s \tilde{p} \ \tilde{S} \ d\tilde{s}$

CS.

cs.

Reminder: $(CS' - C'S) = \mathbb{W} = 1$. Furthermore, for the solutions of the homogeneous differential equation S'' + KS = 0 and C'' + KC = 0. From this follows

Ξ.

$$P''(s) = p - K S \int_0^s \tilde{p} \tilde{C} d\tilde{s} + K C \int_0^s \tilde{p} \tilde{S} d\tilde{s} = p + K \left[\int_0^s \tilde{p} C \tilde{S} d\tilde{s} - \int_0^s \tilde{p} S \tilde{C} d\tilde{s} \right]$$
$$= p + K \left[\int_0^s \tilde{p} \left(C \tilde{S} - S \tilde{C} \right) d\tilde{s} \right] = p + K \left[\int_0^s \tilde{p} G(s, \tilde{s}) d\tilde{s} \right]$$
$$= p(s) - K(s) P(s) \implies p(s) = P''(s) + K(s) P(s)$$

The general solution of the equations of motion is thus u(s) = aC(s) + bS(s) + P(s).

Dispersion function



Application to the case of deflection of a particle with energy deviation in a dipole:

$$u'' + K(s)u = \frac{1}{\rho_0(s)} \frac{\Delta p}{p_0} = \frac{1}{\rho_0(s)} \delta$$

General solution with perturbation term:

$$u(s) = aC(s) + bS(s) + \delta D(s)$$

$$u'(s) = aC'(s) + bS'(s) + \delta D'(s)$$

Ansatz with Green's function:

$$D(s) = \int_0^s \frac{1}{\rho_0}(\tilde{s}) \left[S \ \tilde{C} \ - \ C \ \tilde{S} \right] \, \mathrm{d}\tilde{s} = S(s) \int_0^s \frac{1}{\rho_0}(\tilde{s}) \ C(\tilde{s}) \, \mathrm{d}\tilde{s} \ - \ C(s) \int_0^s \frac{1}{\rho_0}(\tilde{s}) \ S(\tilde{s}) \, \mathrm{d}\tilde{s}$$

For D(s) to vanish at a location s_d , the quotient

$$\frac{S(s_d)}{C(s_d)} = \frac{\int_0^{s_d} \frac{1}{\rho_0} S \,\mathrm{d}\tilde{s}}{\int_0^{s_d} \frac{1}{\rho_0} C \,\mathrm{d}\tilde{s}}$$

Adjustment by manipulation of the focusing structure

Achromatic structures



In an achromatic structure is at position s_d : $D(s_d) = D'(s_d) = 0$. This means that from s_d to the next dipole the dispersion disappears. • With $I_C = \int_{0}^{s_d} \frac{1}{\rho_0} C d\tilde{s}$ and $I_S = \int_{0}^{s_d} \frac{1}{\rho_0} S d\tilde{s}$ this condition is satisfied if $D(s_d) = 0 = -S(s_d) I_c + C(s_d) I_s$ and $D'(s_d) = 0 = -S'(s_d) I_c + C'(s_d) I_s$ Resolving to I_C and I_S gives $[C(s_d) S'(s_d) - S(s_d) C'(s_d)] I_C = 0$ and $[C(s_d) S'(s_d) - S(s_d) C'(s_d)] I_S = 0$, Since $\mathbb{W} = 1$, the condition for vanishing dispersion is $I_C = \int_{0}^{s_d} \frac{1}{\rho_0} C \, \mathrm{d}\tilde{s} = 0$ and $I_S = \int_{0}^{s_d} \frac{1}{\rho_0} S \, \mathrm{d}\tilde{s} = 0.$ Such a structure is called a (first order) achromat.



Low emittance lattices



Chromaticity



- The focusing in the quadrupole that a particle experiences depends on its momentum.
- The tune therefore also depends on particle momentum (tune distribution in the beam) and one defines the so-called "chromaticity" as

$$Q' = p_0 \frac{\mathrm{d}Q}{\mathrm{d}p} \approx \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta p/p_0}$$

The natural chromaticity of a linear lattice is

 $Q'_u = - \frac{1}{4\pi} \oint \mathrm{d}s \ \beta_u(s) \ K(s) \, .$

- Chromaticity can also be considered as a gradient error of the quadrupole.
- In general, one observes a superposition of the effects of Q' and D, which leads to a shift of the longitudinal and transverse position of the focal point.
- For large circular accelerators Q' can become very large (z.B. -150 at LEP, <-2000 at FCC-ee) and has to be compensated.</p>

Sextupole magnets







Phase space

- Non-linear fields cause non-linear oscillations.
- The frequency of such a n oscillation depends on the amplitude.
- Particle loss due to resonances limitations of an accelerator's dynamic aperture.
- Conservation in normalized phase space (Ellipse \rightarrow Kreis): $X = x/\sqrt{\beta_x}$ and $X' = \sqrt{\beta_x}x' + \alpha_x x/\sqrt{\beta_x}$
- Example: iterative elimination to determine the size of a resonant island for protons (Monte Carlo methods and tracking)









Synchrotron tune

• With the relativistic relation $\Delta v / v_0 = (1/\gamma^2) (\Delta p / p_0)$ we get

$$\frac{\Delta T}{T_0} = \alpha_c \frac{\Delta p}{p_0} - \frac{\Delta v}{v_0} = \alpha_c \frac{\Delta p}{p_0} - \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \frac{\Delta p}{p_0} = \left(\alpha_c - \frac{1}{\gamma^2}\right) \frac{\Delta p}{p_0}$$

Since $\Delta \psi = 2\pi f_{RF} \Delta T$ and $f_{RF} = h f_{rev}$ the phase shift is

$$\Delta \psi = 2\pi h \left(\alpha_c - \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \right) \frac{\Delta p}{p_0} = 2\pi h \left(\frac{1}{\gamma_{tr}^2} - \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \right) \frac{\Delta p}{p_0} = -2\pi h \eta_c \frac{\Delta p}{p_0}$$

 \rightarrow At $\gamma = \gamma_{tr}$ there is no phase focusing.

• For negligible radiation damping the equation for the oscillation is $\ddot{\psi} + \Omega^2 \psi = 0$ with frequency

$$\Omega^2 = \omega_{\rm rev}^2 \left(\frac{\eta_c h}{2\pi E_0}\right) e \frac{{\rm d}V(\psi_s)}{{\rm d}\psi}$$

For small oscillation amplitude $dV/d\psi$ is constant. Using the condition for stable phase angle $U_0 = e V_0 \sin \psi_s$, the synchrotron tune is defined as

$$Q_s^2 = \left(\frac{\Omega}{\omega_{\text{rev}}}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{\eta_c h}{2\pi E_0}\right) e V_0 \cos \psi_s = \left(\frac{\eta_c h}{2\pi E_0}\right) \sqrt{e^2 V_0^2 - U_0^2}$$

Transition



In many (old) proton synchrotrons of middle and high energy E > 5 GeV the point of $\gamma = \gamma_{\text{tr}}$ must be crossed. As phase focusing is paused at this point, the transition must be quick: " γ_{tr} jump"

 \rightarrow Change of optics, since $\gamma_{\rm tr} = 1/\sqrt{\alpha_{\rm c}}$ with $\alpha_{\rm c} = \frac{1}{L} \oint ds \frac{D(s)}{\rho(s)}$ Reminder: Tune shift is $\Delta Q = \frac{1}{4\pi} \oint \beta(s) \Delta k(s) ds$ 100 ms Tune neutral γ_{tr} manipulation, if $\beta_1 K_1 + \beta_2 K_2 = 0$ **Example: CERN PS** $\gamma_{\rm tr}$ $\rightarrow 2 \leq E_0 \leq 26 \, \text{GeV}$ $\rightarrow O \approx 6.25$ $\rightarrow \gamma_{\rm tr} = 6.1$ $\rightarrow d\gamma/dt = 40 \text{ s}^{-1}$ time

Longitudinal phase space



- For real values of the synchrotron frequency the phase can be written as $\psi = \psi_0 \cos(\Omega t + \chi_i)$, where χ_i is any phase for the ith particle at time t = 0.
- The temporal derivative of the phase is $\dot{\psi} = -\psi_0 \Omega \sin(\Omega t + \chi_i)$. Analogous to the transverse phase space, ψ and $\dot{\psi}$ describe the longitudinal motion in the phase space $(\psi, \dot{\psi})$.

From $\dot{\psi} = \frac{\Delta \psi}{\Delta t} = \frac{\Delta \psi (\beta c)}{2\pi} = -\beta c h \eta_c \frac{\Delta p}{p_0}$ an oscillation equation can be derived for the energy deviation (with $\beta c = 2\pi/T_0 = \omega_{rev}$): $\delta = \frac{\Delta p}{p_0} = -\frac{\dot{\psi}}{h\omega_{rev}\eta_c} = \frac{\Omega \psi_0}{h\omega_{rev}\eta_c} \sin(\Omega t + \chi_i)$

- \rightarrow Particle energy oscillates with synchrotron frequency ψ_s .
- ightarrow The energy deviation is the conjugate variable to the phase ψ .
- In general, the equation for the phase is

$$\ddot{\psi} + \frac{\Omega^2}{\cos\psi_s} \left(\sin(\psi_s + \psi) - \sin\psi_s\right) = 0$$



Separatrix

- The boundary line between stable and unstable trajectories in the phase space is called "separatrix".
- The stable area enclosed by the separatrix is also called the "RF Bucket".



RF bucket and $\psi_{ m s}$



The ratio of the available RF voltage and the energy loss per turn is defined as the "over voltage factor":

 $q = e V_0 / U_0 = 1 / \sin \psi_s$

Looking at the separatrix, the momentum acceptance can be written after some transformations as

$$\left(\frac{\Delta p}{p_0}\right)_{acc}^2 = \frac{eV_0 \sin\psi_s}{\pi \ h \ |\eta_c| \ cp_0} \ 2 \ \left(\sqrt{q^2 - 1} \ - \ \arccos\frac{1}{q}\right)$$

The momentum acceptance therefore depends on the selected RF voltage.





Adjacent buckets

• $\psi_s = 180^{\circ}$: stationary case

• $\psi_s = 150^{\circ}$: during acceleration

Particle "migration" between adjacent buckets is possible





"Ghost bunches" in the SPS



CERN document server: Oliver Stein, PhD thesis

Institute for Beam Physics and Technology (IBPT)

Injection losses in LHC due to ghost bunches







CERN document server: Oliver Stein, PhD thesis

Institute for Beam Physics and Technology (IBPT)



Summary

Tune: number of betatron oscillations per revolution $Q = \frac{N \mu}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int \frac{ds}{\beta(s)} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \oint \frac{ds}{\beta(s)}$

- Condition for optical resonances: $mQ_x + nQ_y = p$ mit $m, n, p \in \mathbb{Z}$
- Order of the resonance: |m| + |n|

Chromaticity: Change of tune for particles with energy deviation $Q'_{u} = -\frac{1}{4\pi} \phi ds \beta_{u}(s) K(s)$

Dispersion function:

 $D_u(s) = \frac{\Delta u}{\Delta p/p_0}$

The horizontal particle position at location *s* relative to the nominal orbit:

$$x(s) = x_{\beta}(s) + x_{D}(s) = x_{\beta}(s) + D_{x}(s) \frac{\Delta p}{p_{0}}$$

Summary II



Momentum compaction factor
$$\alpha_{c} = \frac{\Delta L}{L} / \frac{\Delta p}{p_{0}} = \frac{1}{L} \oint ds \frac{D(s)}{\rho(s)}$$

Synchrotron oscillation: Longitudinal oscillation around reference particle
 Particle energy oscillates with synchrotron frequency

Synchrotron tune:
$$Q_s^2 = \left(\frac{\alpha_c h}{2\pi E_0}\right) \sqrt{e^2 V_0^2 - U_0^2}$$

Separatrix: Boundary line between stable and unstable trajectories
 RF bucket: stable area enclosed by the separatfix

