# Lecture 21 Beam Instrumentation & Diagnostics

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#### Introduction

- Beam circulating inside closed vacuum chamber is not visible from outside.
- Access close to accelerator prohibited during operation.
- Equip accelerator with wide range of measuring instruments - monitors
  - Establish whether there is beam in machine.
  - Measure physical parameters of machine.

An accelerator is only as good as its diagnostic equipment.

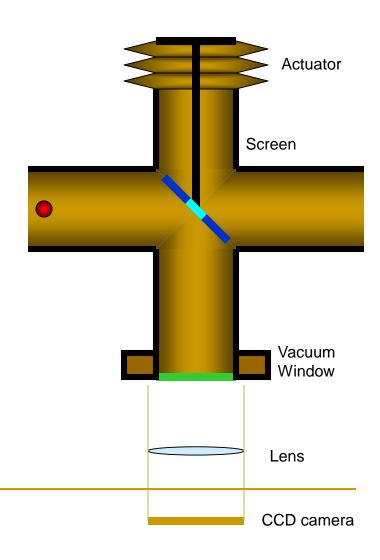
## What are Beam Diagnostics?

- Diagnostics are the 'eyes and ears' of accelerator:
  - Measure physical properties of the beam, like charge, position, transverse and temporal profile.
  - Consist of devices to sense these properties (pick-ups) and associated processing electronics and software (amplifiers, filters, converters, calculations).
  - Essential in the commissioning phase to establish operating conditions and tune parameters for optimum performance (beam optics, timing, accelerating field amplitudes and phases).
  - Essential in the operation to ensure stable conditions (stable orbit, tune, timing). Thus, diagnostics are required to be reliable and stable in their own right.

## OBSERVATION OF BEAM & MEASUREMENT OF BEAM CURRENT

## Screens (Phosphor or Scintillator)

- Full 2D transverse profile in one shot.
- Generally destructive to the beam (energy absorbed, scattering of particles as they pass through screen).
- Actuator required to remove screen from beam path.
- Camera shutter should be synchronised to beam arrival for best results.



#### Fluorescent Screen

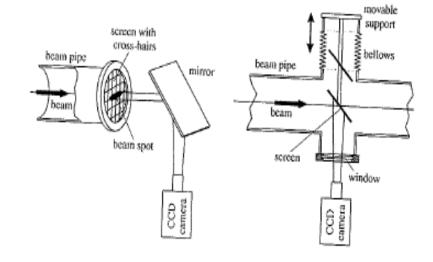
#### Applications

- Measurement of beam position
- Beam profile
- Beam intensity

- ZnS is effective fluorescent material
  - Mixed with sodium silicate, it is applied in thin layers onto glass, ceramic or metal.
  - Screens emit green light with high light yield.
  - Disadvantages
    - Limited use in highvacuum environments.
    - Limited lifetime & burn out at beam spot after extended exposure.

#### Fluorescent Screen

- Thicker screens made of Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> doped with chrome.
  - Predominantly red light.
  - High tolerance to beam exposure.
  - Low degassing rate and may be used in UHV.



Left – fixed version at the end of linac.

Right – movable screen which may be moved in/out of beam line.

#### Fluorescent Screen

#### Read-out

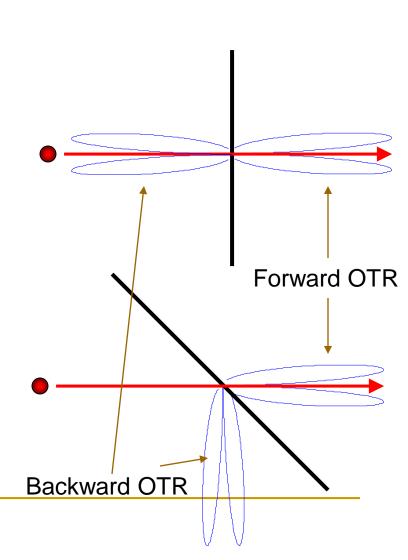
- Emitted light viewed using television (CCD) camera in control room.
- CCDs are susceptible to radiation damage.
  - Protect by lead shielding and install at low radiation level locations.

#### Limitations

- Non-linear relationship between light yield and beam intensity
- Long afterglow
  - Several ms to seconds
    - Not possible to resolve time structure of beam (ns. range).

## Optical Transition Radiation (OTR)

- Transition Radiation is created when relativistic charged particles cross a dielectric boundary.
- Typically, metal targets are used, as metals have large negative dielectric constant at optical frequencies.
- A part of the emitted photons (OTR) is in the visible spectrum and can be used to image the particle distribution.
- Forward OTR is emitted in a cone around the particle trajectory.
- Backward OTR is emitted in a cone around the 'reflected' particle trajectory.



## Properties of OTR

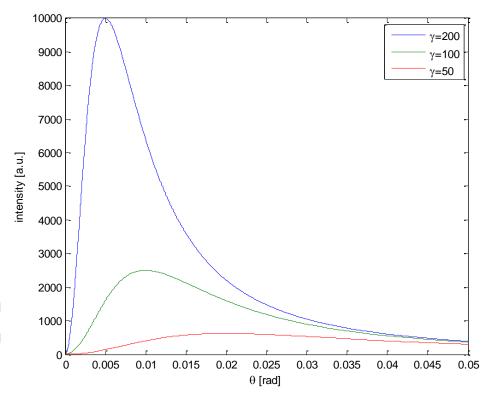
Intensity scales with:

$$I \propto \frac{\theta^2}{(\theta^2 + \gamma^{-2})^2}$$

- Maximum at 1/γ
- Number of (visible) photons per electron:

$$N = \frac{1}{137\pi} (2 \ln \gamma - 1) \cdot \ln \left( \frac{\lambda_{red}}{\lambda_{blue}} \right)$$

Practically: 1-3%



## OTR Advantages/Disadvantages

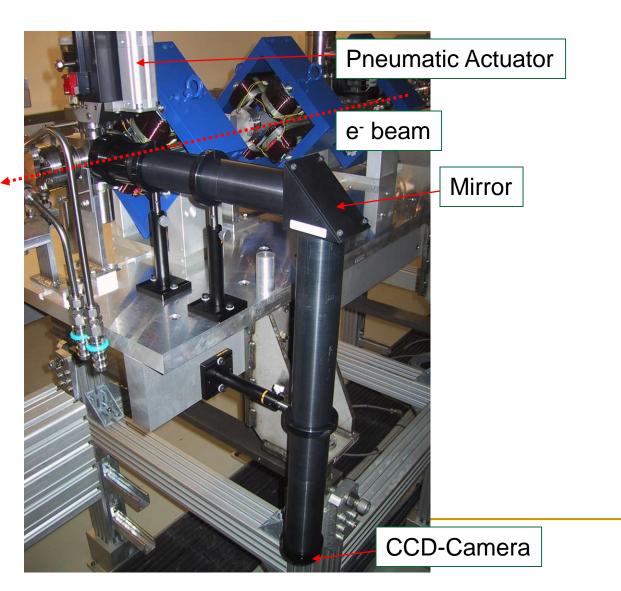
#### Advantages

- Like a phosphor screen, but without resolution limits (resolution possible down to optical wavelength).
- No saturation, linear intensity to destruction threshold (>10<sup>12</sup>e<sup>-</sup>/mm<sup>2</sup>).

#### Disadvantages

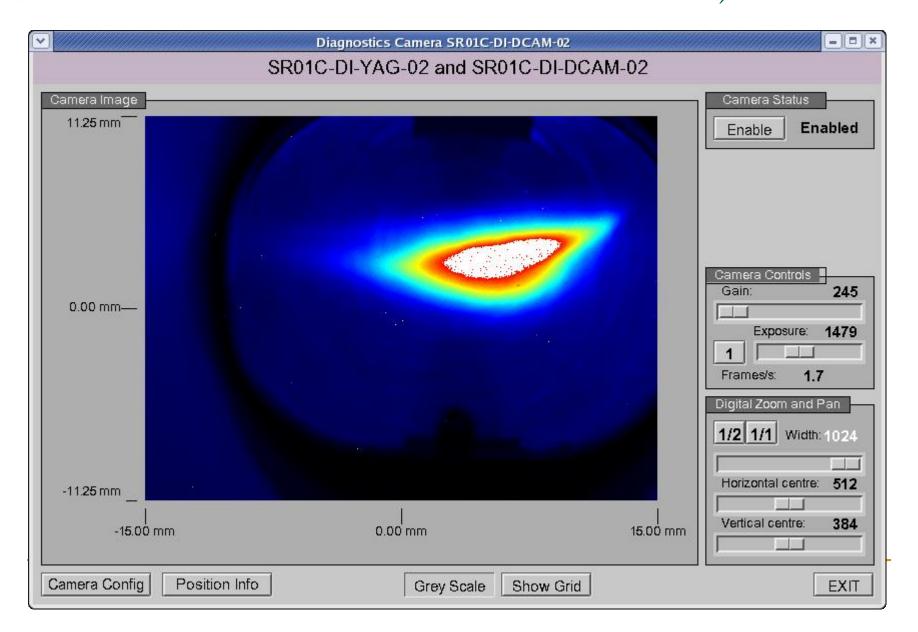
- Few photons per electron, which are emitted in a large angle at low particle energies.
- □ Practically only feasible for strongly relativistic particles ( $\gamma$ >100).

## Screens and Optics





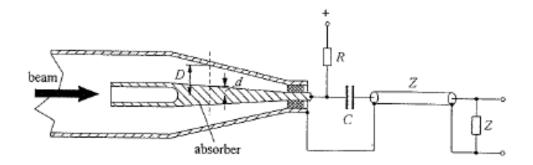
## Beam Profiles in the Diamond Injector



## Faraday Cup

#### Applications

- Simplest method to measure beam current/intensity is to completely absorb beam in block of conducting material.
  - Measure captured charge by measuring resulting current.



#### Faraday cup with coaxial structure

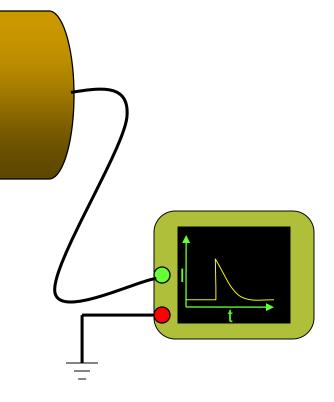
- At high energies, penetration depth is large – material block must be very thick.
- Large energy transfer to absorber strong heating.
- Multiple scattering transverse broadening of beam -> particle losses
- Secondary particle production by pair production.
- Therefore, Faraday cup restricted to low-energy beam applications.

## Faraday Cup Principle

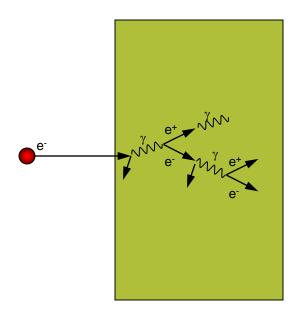




- Charge is transferred to FC.
- FC is discharged through current measurement.
- Integral of current over time equals charge.

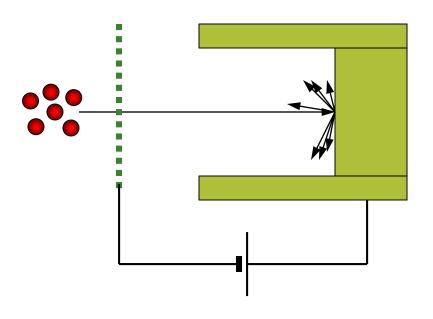


#### Interaction of Particles with Matter



- Need to consider ionisation losses (dominant up to a few MeV), bremsstrahlung and e<sup>+</sup>e<sup>-</sup> pair production.
- Higher energy particles will need more length or higher density material to be stopped.
- At lower energies (up to a few 10MeV) calculations of absorption length and Moliere radius etc. using empirical formulae will be sufficient.
- At higher energies, simulation of scattering, pair-production and energy deposition is required (e.g. <u>E</u>lectron <u>G</u>amma <u>S</u>hower)

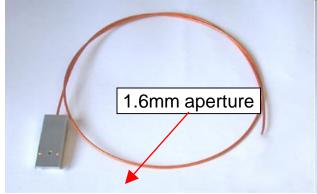
#### Backscatter



- Angular distribution depends on energy of particles and on density of material.
- Generally least in direct reverse direction.
- Backscattered (or secondary) particles have less energy.
- Low Z material, side walls or biased grid to reduce.

## Some Faraday Cups

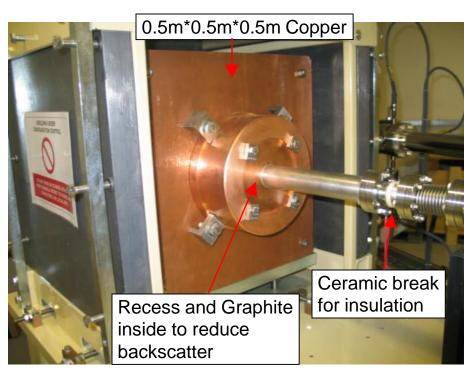




Kimball Physics



Actuator mounted coaxial FC Diamond LINAC @ 90 keV and 4 MeV



3 GeV FC at the exit of the Diamond Booster

## Wall Current Monitor (WCM)

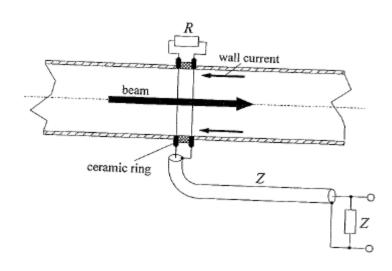
- Cyclic Accelerator
  - Need to measure the current without disturbing the beam.
- Current
  - Outside vacuum tube

$$\oint B_{\text{external}} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0.$$

Within vacuum tube

$$\frac{1}{\mu_0} \oint B_{\text{beam}} \cdot dr = I_{\text{beam}},$$

 There is a wall current I<sub>wall</sub> flowing in vacuum chamber



Lay-out of wall current monitor

$$I_{beam} = -I_{wall}$$

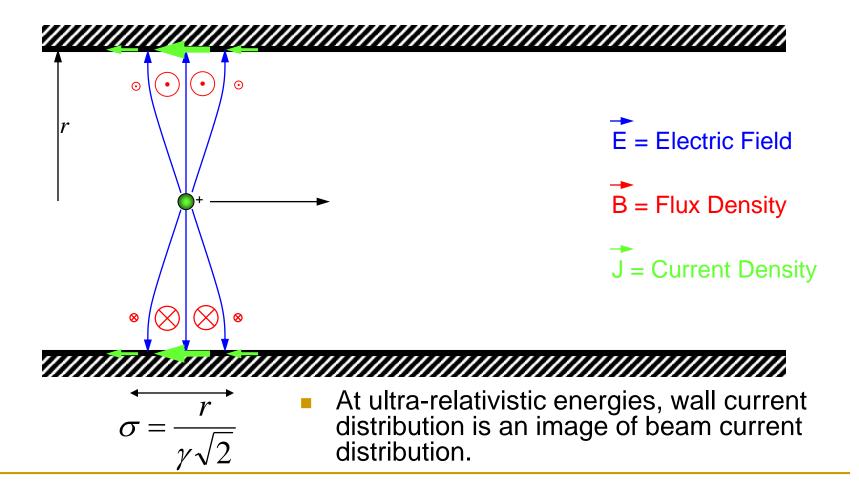
## Wall Current Monitor (WCM)

- Beam current determined by measuring current in vacuum chamber wall.
- Measure voltage V developed over ohmic resistance R (~ 1 Ω) across a ceramic gap.

$$U_R = R I_{beam} = -R I_{wall}$$

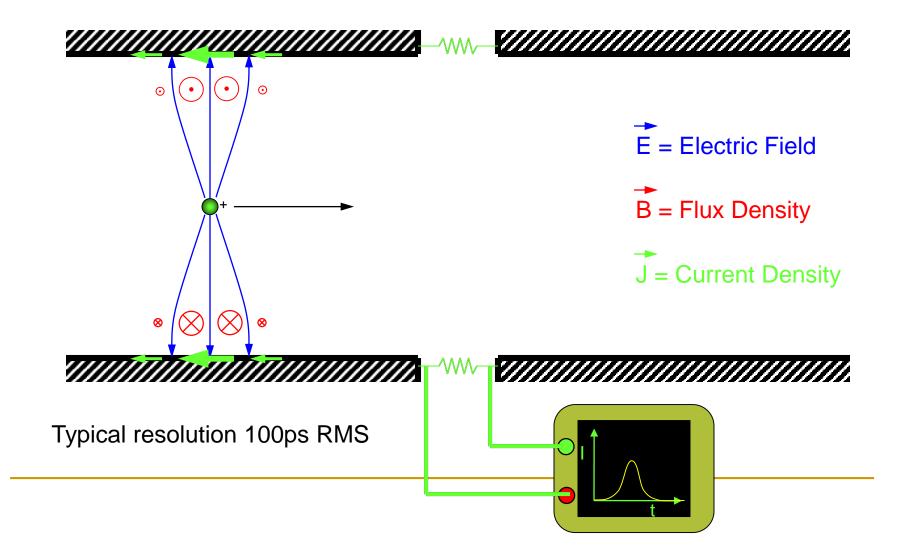
- Large number of resistors are used, connected in parallel around the vacuum chamber
  - Wall current monitor can achieve very high bandwidths (several GHz).

## Fields and Currents of a Charged Particle at Relativistic Speed



No field outside tube (only DC magnetic field)

## Wall Current Monitor (WCM)



## WCM Example Measurements



Mechanical Assembly

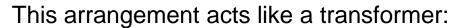


#### Beam Current Transformer

$$I_{\rm beam}(t) \ = \ \frac{Ne}{\sqrt{2\pi} \ \tau} \exp\left(-\frac{(t-t_0)^2}{2\tau^2}\right) \qquad \ \ {\rm with} \qquad \ \ \tau \ = \ \frac{\sigma_s}{c}$$

$$B(t) = \frac{\mu_0 \mu_t}{2\pi R_{\rm core}} I_{\rm beam}(t)$$

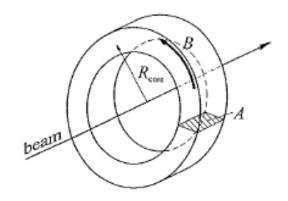
$$U_{\rm ind}(t) = n A \dot{B}(t) = \frac{\mu_0 \mu_{\rm r} n A}{2\pi R_{\rm core}} \dot{I}_{\rm beam}(t)$$



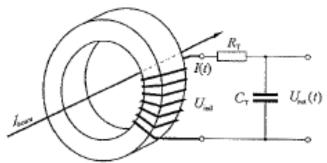
Primary winding – particle beam

Secondary winding – inductive coil

→ Beam Transformer

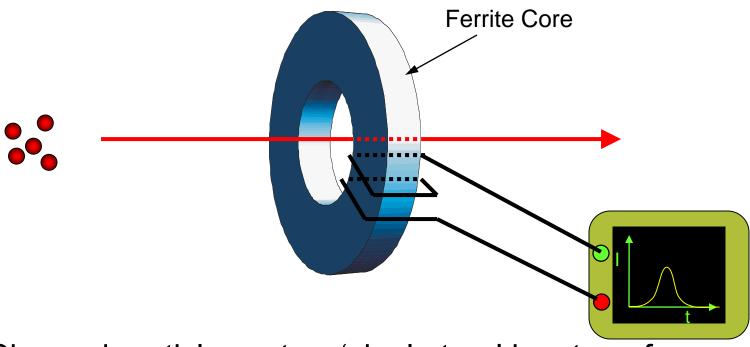


Ideal iron core around particle beam



Equivalent circuit of beam transformer

## Beam Current Transformer Principle



- Charged particles act as 'single turn' in a transformer.
- Proportional current is induced into windings.
- Integral of current over time equals charge.

#### Beam Current Transformer

 Beam transformer output (secondary) voltage U<sub>out</sub>

$$U_{\mathrm{out}}(t) = \frac{1}{C_{\mathrm{T}}} \int I(t) dt.$$

$$\dot{I}(t) + \frac{1}{C_{\mathrm{T}}R_{\mathrm{T}}}\,I(t) \;=\; \frac{\dot{U}_{\mathrm{ind}}}{R_{\mathrm{T}}}. \label{eq:eq:ind_loss}$$

 C<sub>T</sub>R<sub>T</sub> long compared to duration of bunch pulses →

$$\dot{I}(t) \approx \frac{\dot{U}_{\rm ind}}{R_{\rm T}} \Longrightarrow I(t) \approx \frac{U_{\rm ind}}{R_{\rm T}} + C_1.$$

Secondary voltage becomes:

$$U_{\mathrm{out}}(t) \; = \; rac{1}{C_{\mathrm{T}}} \int I(t) \, dt pprox rac{1}{C_{\mathrm{T}} R_{\mathrm{T}}} \int U_{\mathrm{ind}} \, dt.$$

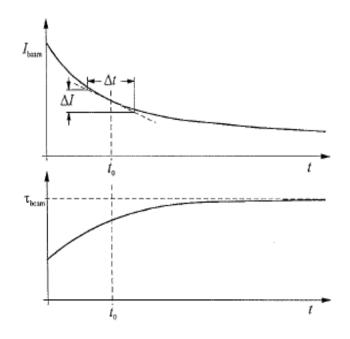
$$U_{\text{out}}(t) = \frac{1}{C_{\text{T}}R_{\text{T}}} \frac{\mu_0 \mu_{\text{r}} n A}{2\pi R_{\text{core}}} I_{\text{beam}}(t).$$

- Time dependence of output voltage U<sub>out</sub> is only roughly proportional to beam current I<sub>beam</sub>(t).
- True for relatively long bunches with limited frequency components
  - For short bunches U<sub>out</sub> is considerably longer than the current pulse.
  - Area under voltage pulse can be used as good approximation of number of particles.

## BEAM LIFETIME IN STORAGE RING

## Beam Lifetime in Storage Ring

- Beam circulating in storage ring decays in intensity due to:
  - Collisions with residual gas molecules.
  - Occasional large energy losses through synchrotron radiation (for electrons).
  - Non-linear resonances



Time dependence of beam current and lifetime

## Beam Lifetime in Storage Ring

 Decline in intensity has exponential form with τ<sub>beam</sub> being the beam lifetime:

$$I(t) = I_0 \exp \left(-\frac{t}{\tau_{\text{beam}}}\right).$$

$$dI(t)/dt = -I_0/\tau_{beam} \exp(-t/\tau_{beam}) = I(t)/\tau_{beam}$$

$$\tau_{\text{beam}} = \frac{I(t)}{dI/dt}$$
.

- Lifetime is not constant during machine operation.
  - Lifetime relatively short at beginning (when intensity is high) because intense synchrotron radiation (for electron beams) causes high level of gas desorption on vacuum chamber surface increasing vacuum pressure.
  - As beam current decreases, vacuum improves and lifetime increases.

## Beam Lifetime in Storage Ring

- Using a beam current monitor, the current is continuously monitored, with measurements repeated at frequent intervals.
- Since beam lifetime can vary from few seconds to many hours (depending on operating conditions), it is useful to vary the time interval between measurements.
  - Short lifetimes beam current varies rapidly & only few measurements required for reliable lifetime measurement > short time interval.
  - Long lifetimes individual current measurements must last sufficiently long for statistical fluctuations not to cause large errors in lifetime measurement.

## MEASUREMENT OF MOMENTUM & ENERGY OF PARTICLE BEAM

## Measurement of Momentum & Energy

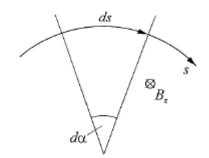
 Measure angle of deflection in known Bfield.

$$d\alpha(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{e}{p} B_z(\mathbf{r}) ds$$
,

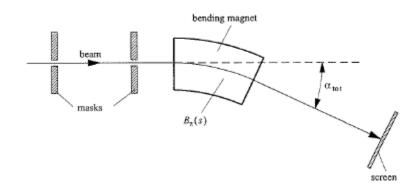
$$p = \frac{e}{\alpha_{\text{tot}}} \int_{\text{path}} B_z ds.$$

$$E = \sqrt{p^2c^2 + (m_0c^2)^2}$$

$$E = pc = \frac{ec}{\alpha_{\text{tot}}} \int_{\text{path}} B_z ds.$$



Deflection of a charged particle in a magnetic field.



Magnetic spectrometer to measure particle momentum & energy

### Measurement of Momentum & Energy

- Measurement Parameters
  - Incoming beam angle must be precisely defined.
    - Fix beam position using precisely aligned screens.
    - Measure bending angle after deflection using fluorescent screen.
  - □ JB<sub>z</sub> required, which is obtained by measurement of the B-field as a function of coil current.
    - Watch out for hysteresis of iron magnets!

- Cyclic Accelerators
  - Total bending angle of all dipole magnets must be 2π.

$$E = \frac{e c}{2\pi} \oint_{\text{dipole}} B_z ds.$$

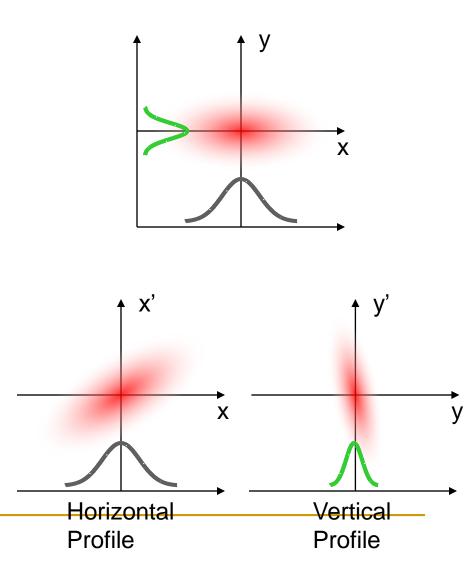
- Connect additional dipole in series with accelerator dipoles and install precise field gauge within it – e.g. NMR probe.
  - Field and energy continuously monitored.
  - $\Delta E/E \sim 2 \cdot 10^{-4}$ .

## MEASUREMENT OF TRANSVERSE BEAM POSITION

## Transverse Space v Phase Space

 Transverse profile is distribution of particle positions in the x/y plane at a fixed s location.

- Transverse phase space are the distributions of particle positions and directions at a fixed s location.
- Transverse emittances equal 'areas' of phase space distributions.

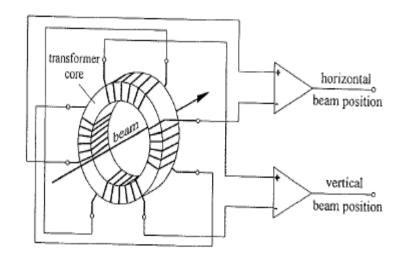


#### Transverse Beam Position

- Require centre of beam to always lie as close as possible to ideal orbit.
  - Defined by quadrupole axes.
  - Transverse deviation of circulating beam from orbit must be less than 100-150 μm.
- Measure transverse position of beam at as many points around the accelerator and implement corrective measures.

# Magnetic Beam Position Monitor

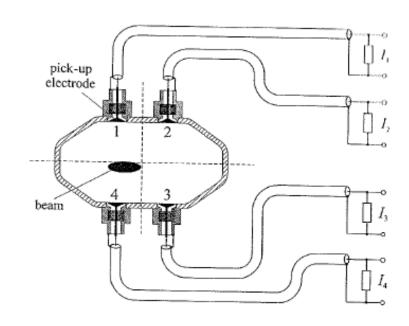
- Measure induced B-field due to beam.
- The difference in signals from the two opposite coils within each pair provides measure of beam position in that plane.
- In order to measure position in both planes simultaneously, install 4 coils arranged at 90° intervals around transformer coil.



Magnetic beam position monitor

#### Electrode Beam Position Monitor

- Consists of 4
   electrodes (electrical
   pick-ups) arranged
   symmetrically around
   beam axis coupling to
   E-field.
- Electrodes tilted away from beam axis by 45° in order to reduce amount of synchrotron radiation hitting them directly.



Beam position monitor with four electrodes

$$\Delta x = a \frac{(I_2 + I_3) - (I_1 + I_4)}{\sum_{j=1}^{4} I_j}$$

$$\Delta z = a \frac{(I_1 + I_2) - (I_3 + I_4)}{\sum_{j=1}^{4} I_j},$$

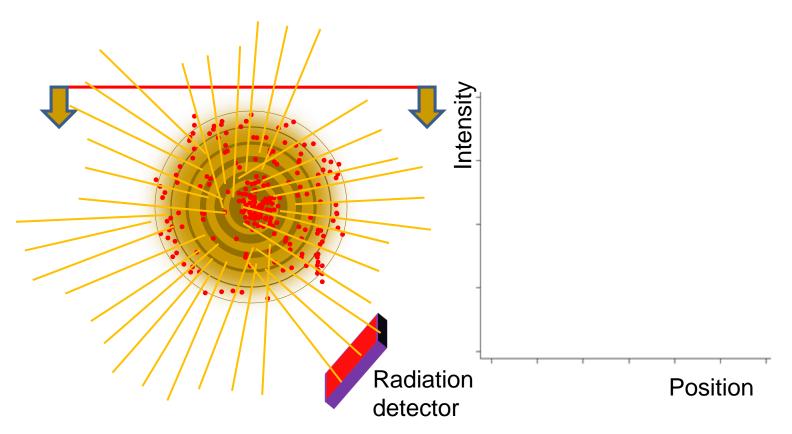
#### Monitor with Four Electrodes

- If beam lies exactly in middle of monitors, ideally all signals will have same intensity.
- But there are variations in signal sizes
  - Electrode tolerance
  - Vacuum chamber geometry
  - Cables and electronics which follow for read-out
- If signal has intensity  $I_o + \Delta I$ , will then have position error of  $\Delta x_{\text{error}} = a \frac{\Delta I}{4 I_o}$
- For a=35 mm and want  $\Delta x_{error} < 0.1$  mm then the relative error in an electrode signal may not be larger than  $\frac{\Delta I}{I_0} = \frac{4 \Delta x_{error}}{a} < 1.2\%$ .

#### Monitor with Four Electrodes

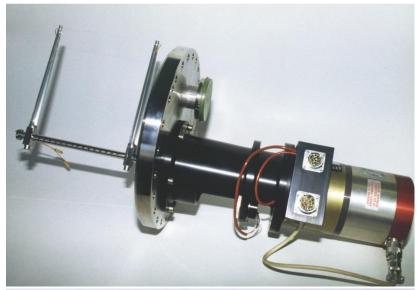
- Fundamentally, it is not possible to define with arbitrary precision the point relative to which the beam position is being measured.
  - Monitor connected to vacuum chamber, which is generally fixed to magnets.
    - Magnets positioned with tolerance of  $\pm 0.2$  mm.
    - Alignment errors of quadrupoles also create orbit distortions.
- Even if beam position adjusted so that it has no offset in any of the monitors, this will not necessarily correspond to real ideal orbit.

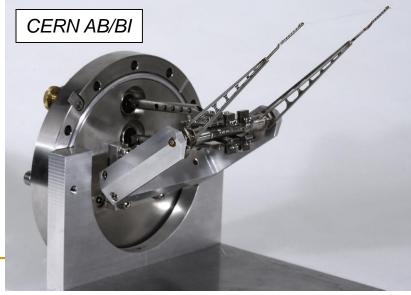
## Principle of Wire Scanner



- 1D-Profile is measured either as intensity of radiation (Bremsstrahlung) or as secondary emitted electron current over position of wire.
- Resolution down to wire diameter (5-6 μm).
- Instead of movement, many wires can be used in a 'harp'.

# Wire Scanner Designs







#### Limitations of Wire Scanners

- The smallest measurable beam size is limited by the finite wire diameter of a few microns.
- Higher Order Modes may couple to conductive wires and can destroy them.
- High beam intensities combined with small beam sizes will destroy the wire due to the high heat load, thus scan as fast as possible.
- Emittance blow up.

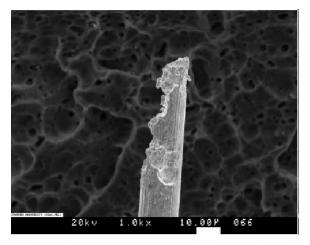


FIGURE 3. Failed 15 μm diameter tungsten wire showing the rough surface resulting from many discharges.

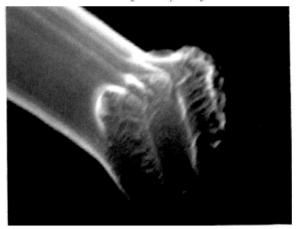


Figure 2: Broken 4µm carbon wire at SLC. It is possible to observe how successive pulses have eroded the wire.

# MEASUREMENT OF BETATRON FREQUENCY & TUNE

# Betatron Frequency & Tune

- Once set of beam optics has been installed, the working point – tune Q – must be measured to check that it lies far enough away from strong optical resonances.
  - □ Tune Q = q + a
    - q = integer
    - 0 ≤ a ≤ 1
- Measuring tune also allows detection of changes in focusing.
  - B-field imperfection
  - Space charge effect

- Use the tune to monitor stability of the beam focusing during machine operation.
- Amounts to measuring frequency of transverse beam oscillations.

## Betatron Frequency and Tune

The solution of the oscillation equation

$$\bar{x}(t) + \frac{2}{\tau}\dot{x}(t) + \Omega^2 x(t) = 0$$

$$\Omega = \frac{2\pi}{T_v}a = \omega_u a \qquad 0 \le a \le 0.5.$$

(assuming very weak damping from synchrotron radiation)

$$x(t) = \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau}\right) \left\{ x_0 \cos\left(2\pi a \frac{t}{T_u}\right) + \left[\frac{\beta_0 \dot{x}_0}{c} + \alpha_0 x_0\right] \sin\left(2\pi a \frac{t}{T_u}\right) \right\}$$

#### Measurement

- Fractional tune a
  - If beam undergoes betatron oscillations, measure Ω with fast position monitor since revolution frequency is fixed.

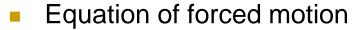
#### Integer tune q

 Difference between reference orbit and standing betatron oscillation about reference orbit caused by altering steering coil strength.

# Betatron Frequency & Tune

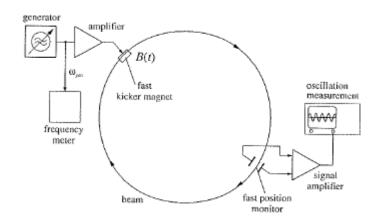
- Excite beam into coherent transverse oscillations.
  - Fast bending magnet (10<sup>-4</sup> Tm)
     which produces periodic field

$$B(t) = B_0 \sin \omega_{\text{gen}} t$$



$$\ddot{x}(t) + \frac{2}{\tau}\dot{x}(t) + \Omega^2 x(t) = \kappa_{\rm eff} \sin \omega_{\rm gen} t.$$

As damping is very weak,
 resonance occurs if ω<sub>gen</sub> = Ω



A fast kicker magnet stimulates beam at frequency  $\omega_{\text{gen}}$ , which is varied until resonance is found.

Amplitude of induced betatron oscillation measured using fast position monitor

# MEASUREMENT OF BEAM OPTICAL PARAMETERS

# Beam Optical Parameters - Dispersion

- Determined from position measurements at several points around the orbit.
- Vary momentum p of particles by ∆p while keeping magnet strengths constant.
- Beam position shifts distance  $\Delta x(s) = D(s) \Delta p/p$  onto dispersive trajectory.
- Dispersion is

$$D(s_i) = \frac{\Delta x(s_i)}{\Delta v/v} \quad \text{with} \quad \Delta x(s_i) = u(s_i) - u^0(s_i).$$

# Beam Optical Parameters - Dispersion

- Change frequency v<sub>RF</sub> of accelerating voltage by ∆ v.
- Since phase focusing means the harmonic number remains constant, circumference of particle trajectory changes and hence no longer matches orbit.

Stable particle path shifts onto dispersive trajectory → corresponding change of momentum ∆p

$$\frac{\Delta p}{p} = -\frac{1}{\alpha} \frac{\Delta \nu_{RF}}{\nu_{RF}}$$
.

# Beam Optical Parameters – β Function

 If strength of quadrupole changes by amount Δk, tune of cyclic machine shifts by

$$\Delta Q = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{s_0}^{s_0+l} \Delta k \, \beta(s) \, ds.$$

- The size of shift is proportional to value of β function in quadrupole.
- Assuming k is constant along quadrupole axis and variation of β function is small in quadrupole

$$\Delta Q = rac{\Delta k}{4\pi} \int\limits_{t_0}^{s_0+t} eta(s) \, ds pprox rac{\Delta k}{4\pi} \left l.$$

- Start from particular setup of beam optics and impose well-defined change in quadrupole strength Δk.
- By measuring tune Q before & after change the average β function in quadrupole is

$$\langle \beta \rangle = \frac{4\pi}{l} \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta k}.$$

# Beam Optical Parameters - Chromaticity

- Chromaticity
   measurement essential
   for correct tuning of
   sextupoles.
- Vary the momentum of circulating particles and measure tune Q before and after change.
- Momentum varied by changing RF frequency.

- Relationship between change in momentum and tune is far from linear.
  - Measure function
     ΔQ(Δp/p) whose value in the region around nominal value yields chromaticity.

# Acknowledgements and References

- Guenther Rehm, *Diagnostics*, Cockcroft Institute Academic Training Programme 2008-2009
- Klaus Wille, The Physics of Particle
   Accelerators, Oxford University Press, 2005
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With special thanks!