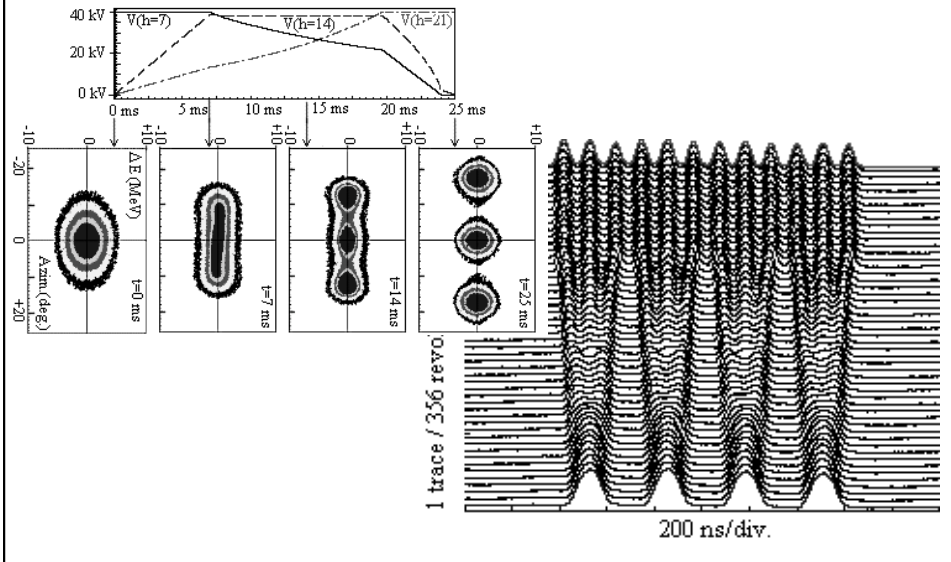


# Introduction to Longitudinal Beam Dynamics

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CERN-LHC



## Bibliography : New Books

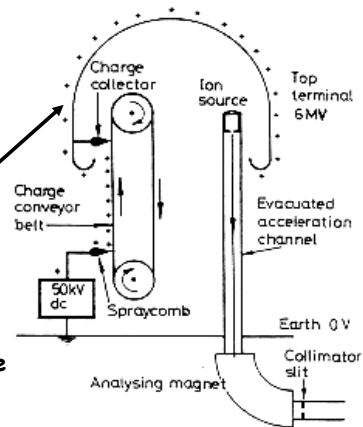
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And Joel LeDuff, CAS Proc, CERN 94-01

# 1.) Electrostatic Machines: (Tandem -) van de Graaff Accelerator (1930 ...)

creating high voltages by mechanical transport of charges



\* Terminal Potential:  $U \approx 12 \dots 28 \text{ MV}$   
using high pressure gas to suppress discharge  
( $\text{SF}_6$ )

Problems: \* Particle energy limited by high voltage discharges  
\* high voltage can only be applied once per particle ...  
... or twice ?

## Energy Gain

... we have to start again from the basics

Lorentz force

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

in long. direction the  
B-field creates no force

$$v \parallel B$$

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

acc. force is given by the electr. Field

In relativistic dynamics, energy and momentum satisfy the relation:

$$E^2 = E_0^2 + p^2 c^2 \quad (E = E_0 + W)$$

Hence:

$$dE = \int F ds = v dp$$

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

$$dW = dE = eE_z ds \Rightarrow W = e \int E_z ds = eV$$

The „Tandem principle“: Apply the accelerating voltage twice ...  
 ... by working with negative ions (e.g.  $H^-$ ) and stripping the electrons in the centre of the structure

$$dW = dE = eE_z ds \quad \Rightarrow \quad W = e \int E_z ds = eV$$

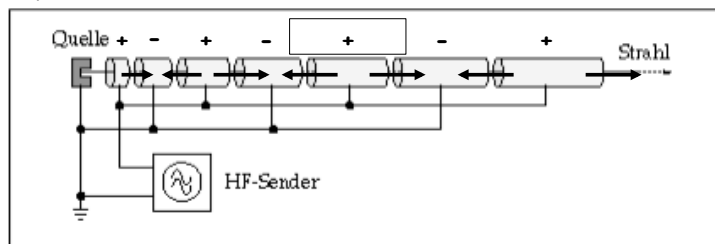


Electro Static Accelerator: 12 MV-Tandem van de Graaff Accelerator at MPI Heidelberg

### 3.) The first RF-Accelerator: „Linac“

1928, Wideroe: how can the acceleration voltage be applied several times to the particle beam

schematic Layout:



Energy gained after n acceleration gaps

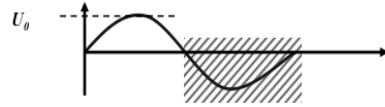
$$E_n = n \cdot q \cdot U_0 \cdot \sin \psi_s$$

n number of gaps between the drift tubes  
 q charge of the particle  
 $U_0$  Peak voltage of the RF System  
 $\psi_s$  synchronous phase of the particle

- \* the problem of synchronisation ... between the particles and the rf voltage
- \* „voltage has to be flipped“ to get the right sign in the second gap  
 → shield the particle in drift tubes during the negative half wave of the RF voltage

### Wideroe-Structure: the drift tubes

shielding of the particles during the negative half wave of the RF



Time span of the negative half wave:  $\tau_{RF}/2$

Length of the Drift Tube:

$$l_i = v_i * \frac{\tau_{RF}}{2}$$

$$\rightarrow v_i = \sqrt{2E_i / m}$$

Kinetic Energy of the Particles

$$E_i = \frac{1}{2} m v_i^2$$

$$l_i = \frac{1}{v_i} * \sqrt{\frac{i * q * U_0 * \sin \varphi_i}{2m}}$$

valid for non relativistic particles ...

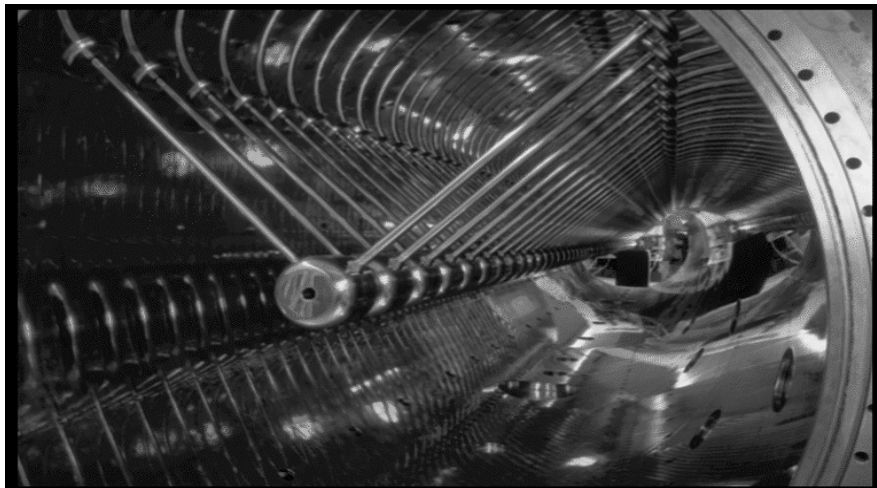
Alvarez-Structure: 1946, surround the whole structure by a rf vessel

Energy:  $\approx 20$  MeV per Nucleon  $\beta \approx 0.04 \dots 0.6$ , Particles: Protons/Ions

GSI: Unilac, typical Energy  $\approx 20$  MeV per Nukleon,  $\beta \approx 0.04 \dots 0.6$ , Protons/Ions,  $\nu = 110$  MHz

Energy Gain per „Gap“:

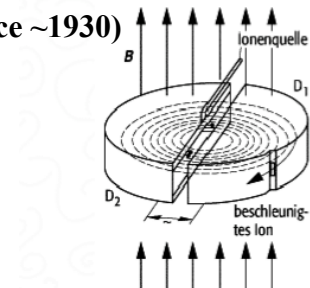
$$W = q U_0 \sin \omega_{RF} t$$



Application: until today THE standard proton / ion pre-accelerator  
CERN Linac 4 is being built at the moment

#### 4.) The Cyclotron: (Livingston / Lawrence ~1930)

Idea:  $B = \text{const}$ ,  $\text{RF} = \text{const}$   
Synchronisation particle / RF via orbit



→ Lorentzforce

$$\vec{F} = q * (\vec{v} \times \vec{B}) = q * v * B$$

circular orbit

$$q * v * B = \frac{m * v^2}{R} \rightarrow B * R = p / q$$

increasing radius for  
increasing momentum  
→ Spiral Trajectory

revolution frequency

$$\omega_z = \frac{v}{R} = \frac{q}{m} * B_z$$

the cyclotron (rf-) frequency  
is independent of the momentum

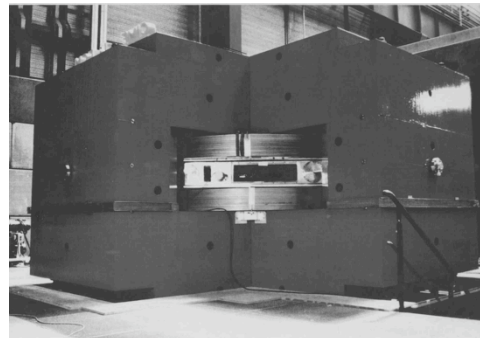
rf-frequency =  $h * \text{revolution frequency}$ ,  $h = \text{“harmonic number”}$

#### Cyclotron:

exact equation for revolution frequency:

$$\omega_z = \frac{v}{R} = \frac{q}{\gamma * m} * B_z$$

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



Cyclotron SPIRAL at GANIL

#### Synchrocyclotron

$B = \text{constant}$

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

$\omega_{\text{RF}}$  decreases with time

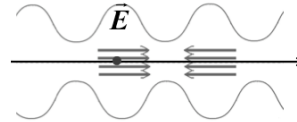
$$\omega_r(t) = \omega_\gamma(t) = \frac{q}{\gamma(t) * m_0} * B$$

keep the synchronisation condition by varying the rf frequency

## RF Cavities, Acceleration and Energy Gain

$$dW = dE = eE_z ds \quad \Rightarrow \quad W = e \int E_z ds = eV$$

RF acceleration:  $V \neq \text{const}$



In this case the electric field is oscillating. So it is for the potential. The energy gain will depend on the RF phase experienced by the particle.

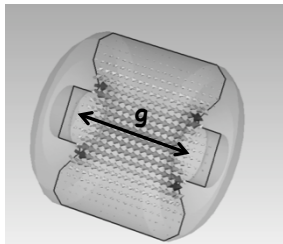
$$\int \hat{E}_z dz = \hat{V} \quad E_z = \hat{E}_z \cos \omega_{RF} t = \hat{E}_z \cos \Phi(t)$$

$$W = e \hat{V} \cos \Phi$$

Z Neglecting the transit time in the gap.

## Energy Gain in RF structures:

### Transit Time Factor



Oscillating field at frequency  $\omega$  (amplitude is assumed to be constant all along the gap)

$$E_z = E_0 \cos \omega t = \frac{V}{g} \cos \omega t$$

Consider a particle passing through the middle of the gap at time  $t=0$ :

$$z = vt$$

The total energy gain is:

$$\Delta W = \frac{eV}{g} \int_{-g/2}^{g/2} \cos \omega \frac{z}{v} dz$$

$$\Delta W = eV \frac{\sin \theta / 2}{\theta / 2} = eVT$$

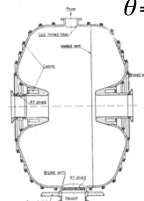
$$T = \frac{\sin \theta / 2}{\theta / 2} \quad \text{transit time factor } (0 < T < 1)$$

$$\theta = \frac{\omega g}{v} \quad \text{transit angle}$$

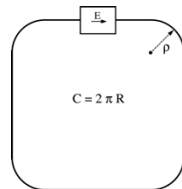
ideal case:  $T = \frac{\sin \theta / 2}{\theta / 2} \rightarrow 1 \Leftrightarrow \theta / 2 \rightarrow 0$

el. static accelerators  $\omega \rightarrow 0$

minimise acc. gap  $g \rightarrow 0$



## The Synchrotron (Mac Millan, Veksler, 1945)



The synchrotron: Ring Accelerator of const. R where the increase in momentum (i.e. B-field) is automatically synchronised with the correct synchronous phase of the particle in the rf cavities

- $eV \sin \Phi$  → Energy gain per turn
- $\Phi = \Phi_s = cte$  → Synchronous particle
- $\omega_{RF} = h\omega$  → RF synchronism
- $\rho = cte \quad R = cte$  → Constant orbit
- $B\rho = P/e \Rightarrow B$  → Variable magnetic field

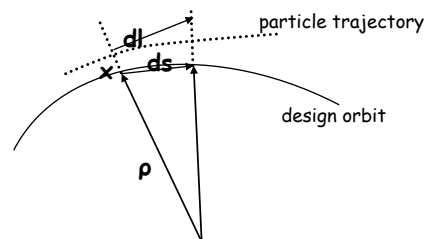


## Momentum Compaction Factor: $\alpha_p$

particle with a displacement  $x$  to the design orbit  
→ path length  $dl$  ...

$$\frac{dl}{ds} = \frac{\rho + x}{\rho}$$

$$\rightarrow dl = \left(1 + \frac{x}{\rho(s)}\right) ds$$



circumference of an off-energy closed orbit

$$l_{\Delta E} = \oint dl = \oint \left(1 + \frac{x_{\Delta E}}{\rho(s)}\right) ds$$

remember:  $x_{\Delta E}(s) = D(s) \frac{\Delta p}{p}$

$$\delta l_{\Delta E} = \frac{\Delta p}{p} \oint \left(\frac{D(s)}{\rho(s)}\right) ds$$

\* The lengthening of the orbit for off-momentum particles is given by the dispersion function and the bending radius.

**Definition:** 
$$\frac{\delta I_\epsilon}{L} = \alpha_p \frac{\Delta p}{p}$$

$$\rightarrow \alpha_p = \frac{1}{L} \oint \left( \frac{D(s)}{\rho(s)} \right) ds$$

**For first estimates assume:**  $\frac{1}{\rho} = \text{const.}$

$$\int_{\text{dipoles}} D(s) ds \approx l_{\Sigma(\text{dipoles})} \cdot \langle D \rangle_{\text{dipole}}$$

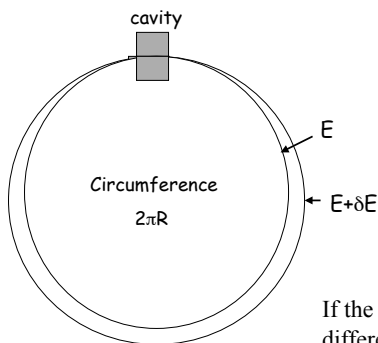
$$\alpha_p = \frac{1}{L} l_{\Sigma(\text{dipoles})} \cdot \langle D \rangle \frac{1}{\rho} = \frac{1}{L} 2\pi\rho \cdot \langle D \rangle \frac{1}{\rho} \rightarrow \alpha_p \approx \frac{2\pi}{L} \langle D \rangle \approx \frac{\langle D \rangle}{R}$$

**Assume:**  $v \approx c$

$$\rightarrow \frac{\delta T}{T} = \frac{\delta I_\epsilon}{L} = \alpha_p \frac{\Delta p}{p}$$

$\alpha_p$  combines via the dispersion function the momentum spread with the longitudinal motion of the particle.

### Dispersion Effects in a Synchrotron



If a particle is slightly shifted in momentum it will have a different orbit:

$$\alpha = \frac{p}{R} \frac{dR}{dp}$$

This is the “momentum compaction” generated by the bending field.

If the particle is shifted in momentum it will have also a different velocity. As a result of both effects **the revolution frequency changes:**

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

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



### Dispersion Effects in a Synchrotron

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

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

$$\frac{df_r}{f_r} = \left( \frac{1}{\gamma^2} - \alpha \right) \frac{dp}{p} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \eta = \frac{1}{\gamma^2} - \alpha$$

$\eta=0$  at the transition energy

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

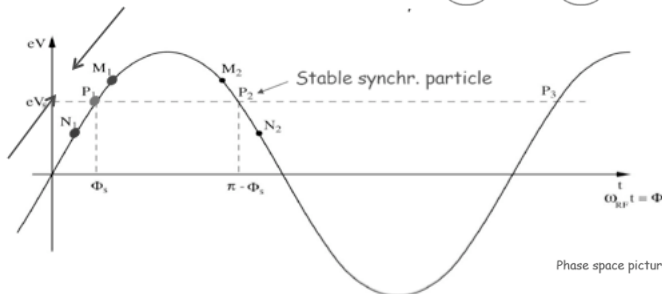
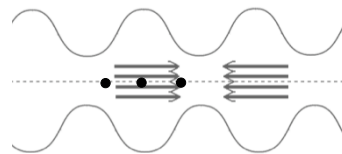
### 14.) The Acceleration for $\Delta p/p \neq 0$

"Phase Focusing" below transition

ideal particle •

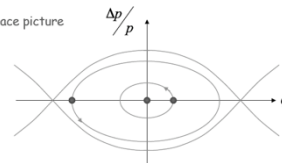
particle with  $\Delta p/p > 0$  • faster

particle with  $\Delta p/p < 0$  • slower



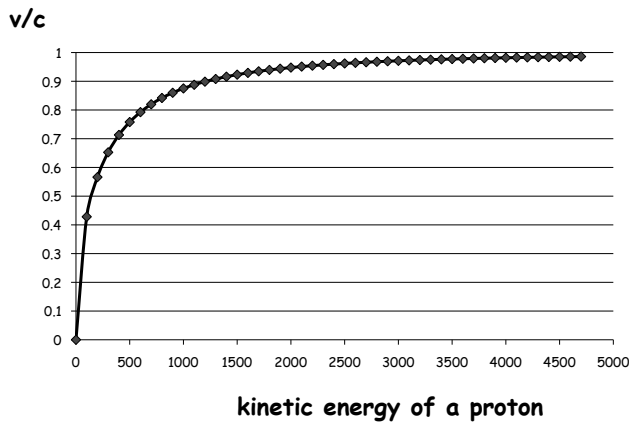
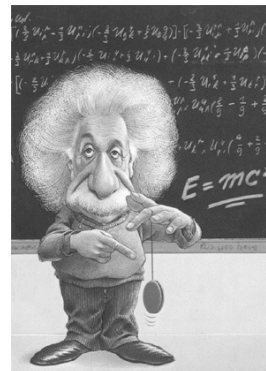
**Focussing effect in the longitudinal direction**  
 keeping the particles close together  
 ... forming a "bunch"

Phase space picture



... so sorry, here we need help from Albert:

$$\gamma = \frac{E_{\text{total}}}{mc^2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}} \rightarrow \frac{v}{c} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{mc^2}{E}}$$



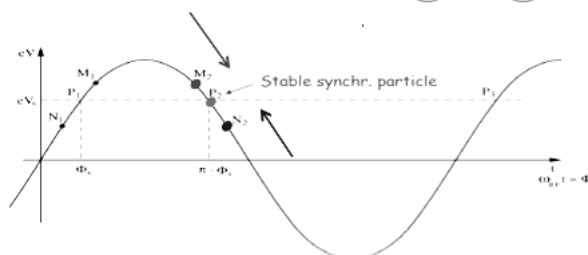
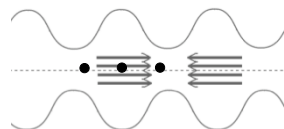
... some when the particles do not get faster anymore

... but heavier !

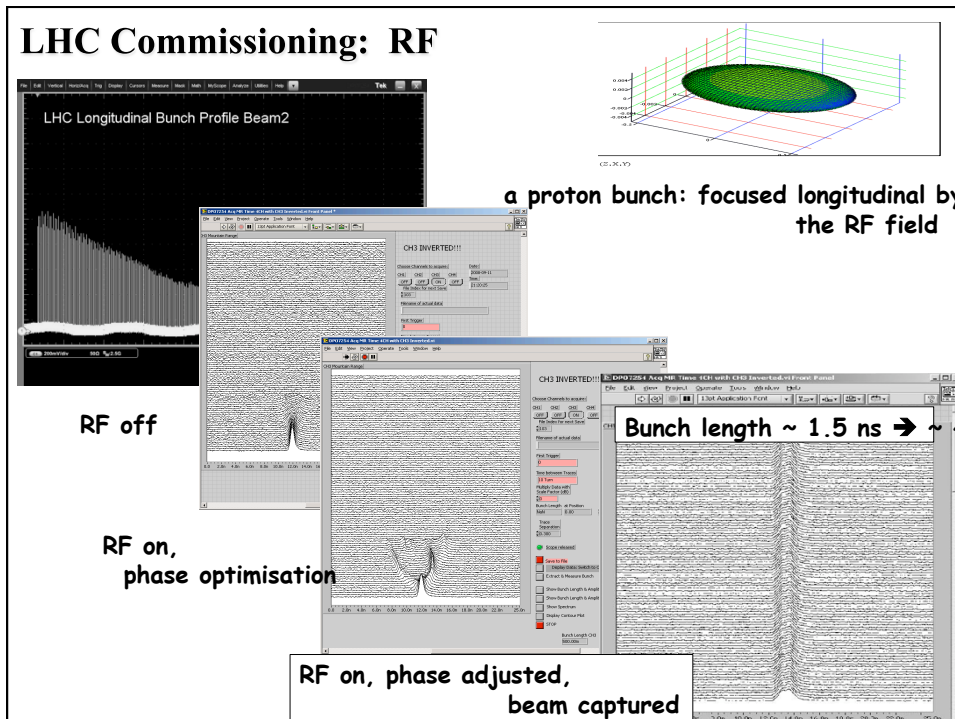
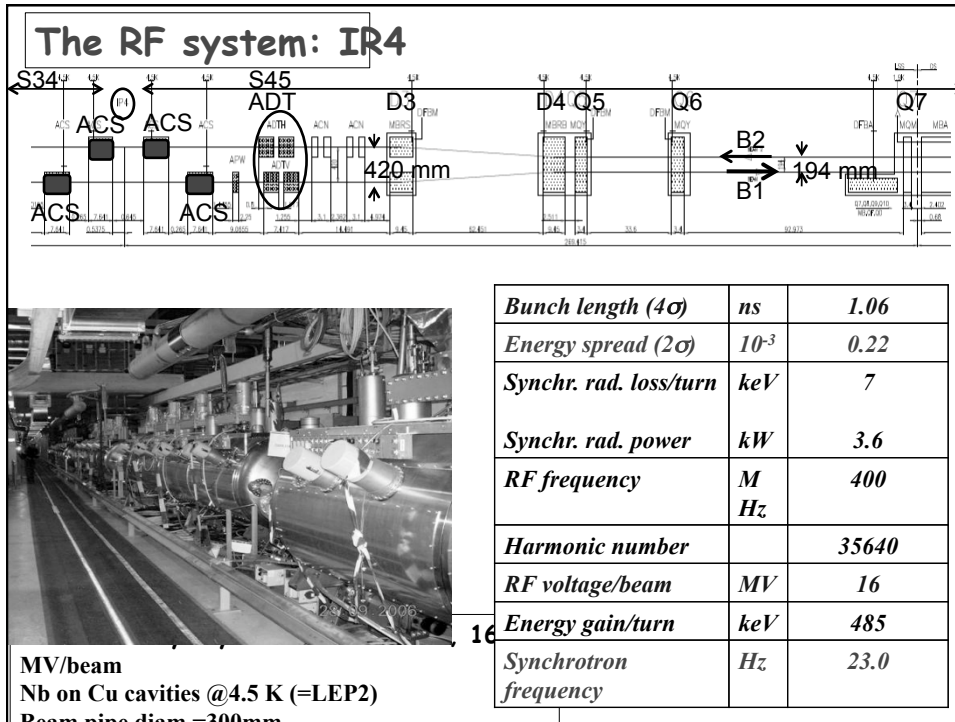
### 15.) The Acceleration for $\Delta p/p \neq 0$

“Phase Focusing” above transition

- ideal particle
- particle with  $\Delta p/p > 0$  • heavier
- particle with  $\Delta p/p < 0$  • lighter



oscillation frequency:  $f_s = f_{rev} \sqrt{-\frac{h\alpha_s + qU_0 \cos \phi_s}{2\pi E_s}} \approx \text{some Hz}$



**... and how do we accelerate now ???  
with the dipole magnets !**

Energy ramping is simply obtained by varying the B field:

$$p = eB\rho \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{dp}{dt} = e\rho \dot{B} \quad \rightarrow \quad (\Delta p)_{turn} = e\rho \dot{B} T_f = \frac{2\pi e\rho R\dot{B}}{v}$$

Energy Gain per turn:  $E^2 = E_0^2 + p^2 c^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \Delta E = v\Delta p$

$$\Delta E_{turn} = \Delta W_{turn} = 2\pi e\rho R\dot{B} = e\hat{V} \sin\phi_s$$

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

### The Synchrotron: Frequency Change

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

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

hence :  $\frac{f_{RF}(t)}{h} = \frac{v(t)}{2\pi R_s} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{e}{m} \langle B(t) \rangle \Rightarrow \frac{f_{RF}(t)}{h} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{ec^2}{E_s(t)} \frac{r}{R_s} B(t)$

Since  $E^2 = (m_0 c^2)^2 + p^2 c^2$

the RF frequency must follow the variation of the **B** field with the law :

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

and as soon as  $B > \frac{m_0 c^2}{ecr}$

$$\frac{f_{RF}(t)}{h} = \frac{c}{2\pi R_s} = \text{const}$$

## Longitudinal Dynamics: synchrotron motion

We have to follow two coupled variables:

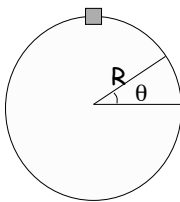
- \* the energy gained by the particle
- \* and the RF phase experienced by the same particle.

Since there is a well defined synchronous particle which has always the same phase  $\phi_s$ , and the nominal energy  $E_s$ , it is sufficient and elegant to follow other particles with respect to that particle.

We will introduce the following relative variables:

revolution frequency :	$\Delta f_r = f_r - f_{rs}$
particle RF phase :	$\Delta\phi = \phi - \phi_s$
particle momentum :	$\Delta p = p - p_s$
particle energy :	$\Delta E = E - E_s$
azimuth angle :	$\Delta\theta = \theta - \theta_s$

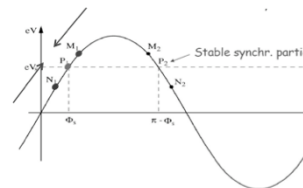
### First Energy-Phase Equation



$$f_{RF} = hf_r \Rightarrow \Delta\phi = -h\Delta\theta \quad \text{with} \quad \theta = \int \omega_r dt$$

For a given particle with respect to the reference one:

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



Since:  $\eta = \frac{p_s}{\omega_{rs}} \left( \frac{d\omega_r}{dp} \right)_s$  and  $E^2 = E_s^2 + p^2 c^2$

$$\Delta E = v_s \Delta p = \omega_{rs} R_s \Delta p$$

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

Keep in mind !!

## Second Energy-Phase Equation

The rate of energy gained by a particle is:

$$\frac{dE}{dt} = \frac{1}{T_r} * e\hat{V} \sin \phi = \frac{\omega_r}{2\pi} * e\hat{V} \sin \phi$$

The rate of relative energy gain with respect to the reference particle is then:

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

Expanding the left hand side to first order:

$$\Delta(\dot{E}T_r) \approx \dot{E}_s\Delta T_r + T_{rs}\Delta\dot{E} = \Delta E\dot{T}_{rs} + T_{rs}\Delta\dot{E} = \frac{d}{dt}(T_{rs}\Delta E)$$

leads to the second energy-phase equation:

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

## Equations of Longitudinal Motion

$$\frac{\Delta E}{\omega_{rs}} = -\frac{p_s R_s}{h\eta\omega_{rs}} \frac{d(\Delta\phi)}{dt} = -\frac{p_s R_s}{h\eta\omega_{rs}} \dot{\phi} \quad 2\pi\frac{d}{dt}\left(\frac{\Delta E}{\omega_{rs}}\right) = e\hat{V}(\sin\phi - \sin\phi_s)$$

deriving and combining

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

This rather formidable looking differential equation simplifies a lot if we consider ...

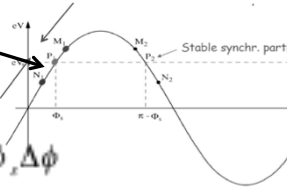
$R_s, p_s, \omega_s, \eta$  as constant (or slowly varying with time).

### Small Amplitude Oscillations

Let's assume constant parameters  $R_s, p_s, \omega_s$  and  $\eta$ :

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

Consider now small phase deviations from the reference particle:



$$\sin\phi - \sin\phi_s = \sin(\phi_s + \Delta\phi) - \sin\phi_s \approx \cos\phi_s \Delta\phi$$

and the corresponding linearized motion  
reduces to a harmonic oscillation:

$$\ddot{\phi} + \Omega_s^2 \Delta\phi = 0 \quad \text{stable for } \Omega_s^2 > 0 \text{ and } \Omega_s \text{ real}$$

### Small Amplitude Oscillations: stable phase

We get a harmonic oscillation of the particle phase

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

with the oscillation frequency

$$\Omega_s = \sqrt{\frac{h\eta\omega_{rs} e \hat{V} \cos\phi_s}{2\pi R_s p_s}}$$

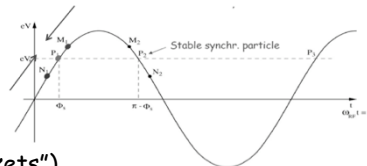
The oscillation is stable for  $\Omega_s^2 > 0$  and  $\Omega_s$  real

$\gamma < \gamma_{tr}$	$\eta > 0$	$0 < \phi_s < \pi/2$
$\gamma > \gamma_{tr}$	$\eta < 0$	$\pi/2 < \phi_s < \pi$

remember

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

And we will find this situation  
"h"-times in the machine



LHC:  
35640 Possible Bunch Positions ("buckets")  
2808 Bunches

### (small) ... Synchrotron Oscillations in Energy and Phase

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

Ansatz:  $\Delta\phi = \Delta\phi_{\max} * \cos(\Omega_s t)$

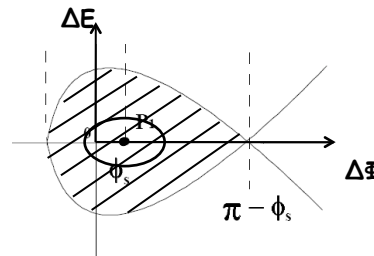
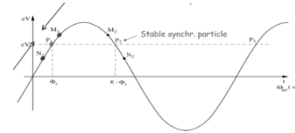
calculate the derivative and put it into ... "keep in mind"  $\frac{d(\Delta\phi)}{dt} = -\frac{h\eta_s}{p_s v_s} \Delta E$

to get an expression for  $\Delta E$ :

$$\Delta E = \Delta E_{\max} * \sin(\Omega_s t) \quad \text{with} \quad \Delta E_{\max} = \frac{\Omega_s}{\omega_s} * \frac{p_s v_s}{h\eta_s} * \Delta\phi_{\max}$$

which defines an ellipse in phase space  $\Delta\Phi, \Delta E$ :

$$\left(\frac{\Delta\Phi}{\Delta\Phi_{\max}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta E}{\Delta E_{\max}}\right)^2 = 1$$



### Large Amplitude Oscillations

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

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

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

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

which for small amplitudes reduces to:

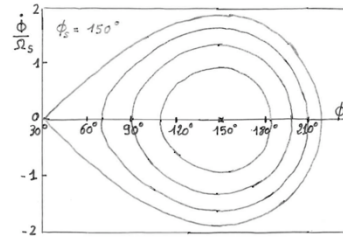
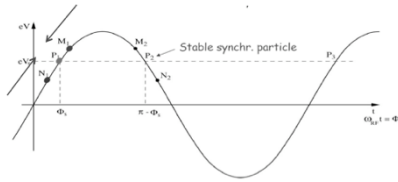
$$\frac{\dot{\phi}^2}{2} + \Omega_s^2 \frac{(\Delta\phi)^2}{2} = I$$

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



## Large Amplitude Oscillations

When  $\phi$  reaches  $\pi - \phi_s$  the force goes to zero and beyond it becomes non restoring. Hence  $\pi - \phi_s$  is an extreme amplitude for a stable motion which in the phase space  $(\frac{\phi}{\Omega_s}, \Delta\phi)$  is shown as closed trajectories.



**Equation of the separatrix:**

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

**Second value  $\phi_m$  where the separatrix crosses the horizontal axis:**

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

## Energy Acceptance

From the equation of motion it is seen that  $\dot{\phi}$  reaches an extremum when  $\dot{\phi} = 0$ , hence corresponding to  $\phi = \phi_s$ .

Introducing this value into the equation of the separatrix gives:

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

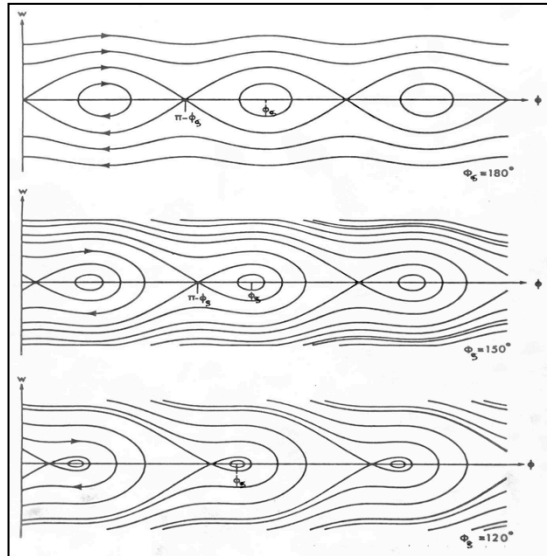
That translates into an acceptance in energy:

$$\left( \frac{\Delta E}{E_s} \right)_{\max} = \mp \beta \left\{ -\frac{e\hat{V}}{\pi h \eta E_s} G(\phi_s) \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

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

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

## RF Acceptance versus Synchronous Phase



As the synchronous phase gets closer to  $90^\circ$  the area of stable motion (closed trajectories) gets smaller. These areas are often called "BUCKET".

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

The phase extension of the bucket is maximum for  $\phi_s = 180^\circ$  (or  $0^\circ$ ) which correspond to no acceleration. The RF acceptance increases with the RF voltage.