Linear Accelerators

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Introduction to Accelerator Physics

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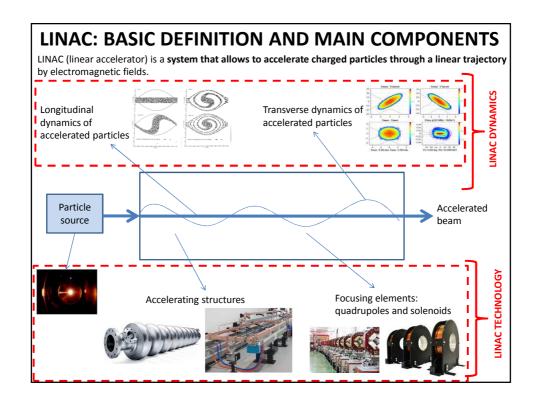
Several pictures, schemes, images and plots have been taken from papers and presentations reported at the end of the presentation.

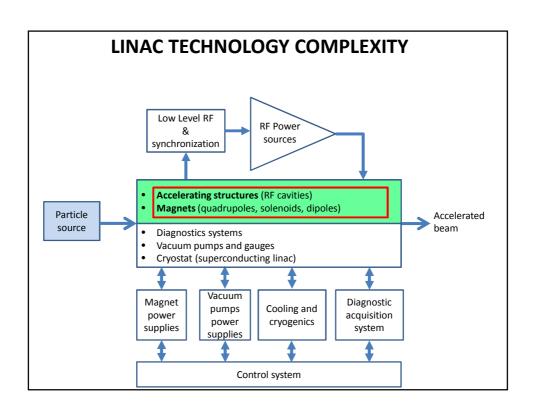
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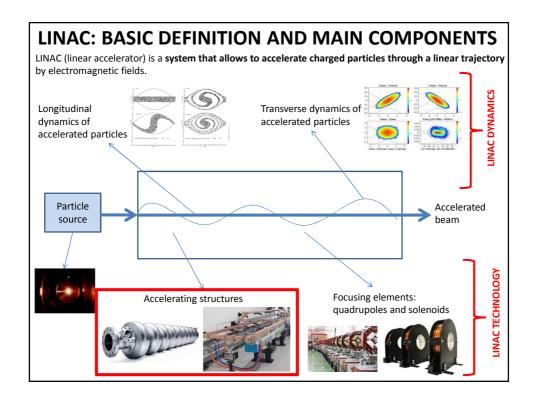
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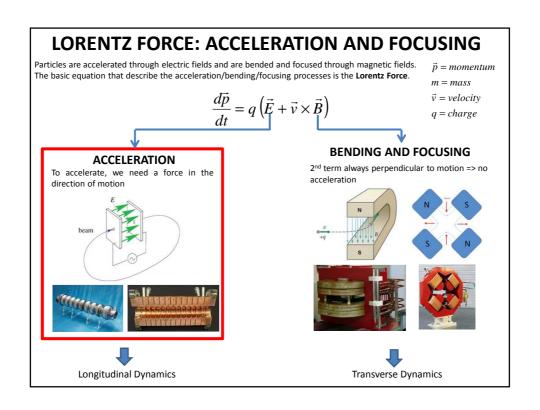
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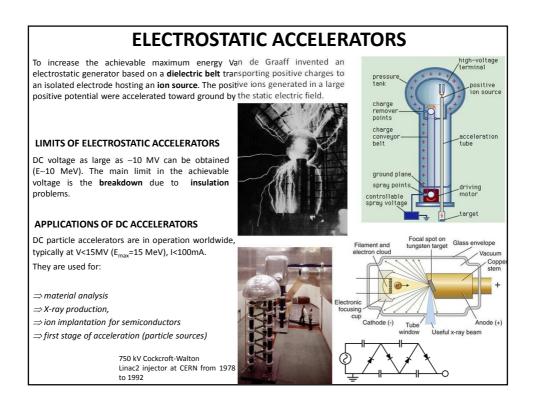






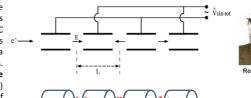


ACCELERATION: SIMPLE CASE The first historical particle accelerator was built by the Nobel prize Wilhelm Conrad Röntgen (1900). It consisted in a vacuum tube containing a cathode connected to the negative pole of a DC voltage generator. Electrons emitted by the heated cathode were accelerated while flowing to another electrode connected to the positive generator pole (anode). Collisions between energetic electrons and anode produced X-rays. Anode Bertha Cathode Röntgen's Hand 8 Nov, 1895 Voltage ΔV The energy gained by the electrons **Particle** energies travelling from cathode to anode is equal typically expressed in to their charge multiplied the DC voltage electron-volt [eV], equal between the two electrodes. to the energy gained by 1 electron accelerated $\frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = q\vec{E} \implies \Delta E = q\Delta V$ through an electrostatic potential of 1 volt: 1 eV=1.6x10⁻¹⁹ J $\vec{p} = momentum$ q = chargeE = energy



RF ACCELERATORS: WIDERÖE "DRIFT TUBE LINAC" (DTL)

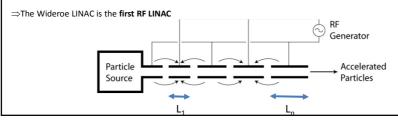
Basic idea: the particles are accelerated by the electric field in the gap between electrodes connected alternatively to the poles of an AC generator. This original idea of Ising (1924) was eimplemented by Wideroe (1927) who applied a sine-wave voltage to a sequence of drift tubes. The particles do not experience any force while travelling inside the tubes (equipotential regions) and are accelerated across the gaps. This kind of structure is called Drift Tube LINAC (DTL).



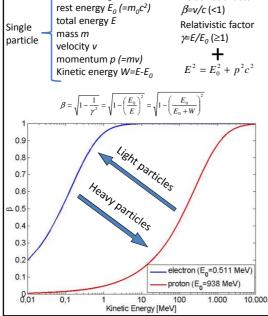


 \Rightarrow If the **length of the tubes** increases with the particle velocity during the acceleration such that the time of flight is kept constant and equal to half of the RF period, the particles are subject to a **synchronous accelerating voltage** and experience an energy gain of $\Delta W = q\Delta V$ at each gap crossing.

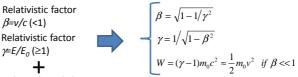
⇒In principle a single **RF generator** can be used to indefinitely accelerate a beam, **avoiding the breakdown limitation** affecting the electrostatic accelerators.



PARTICLE VELOCITY VS ENERGY: LIGHT AND HEAVY PARTICLES



rest mass m₀

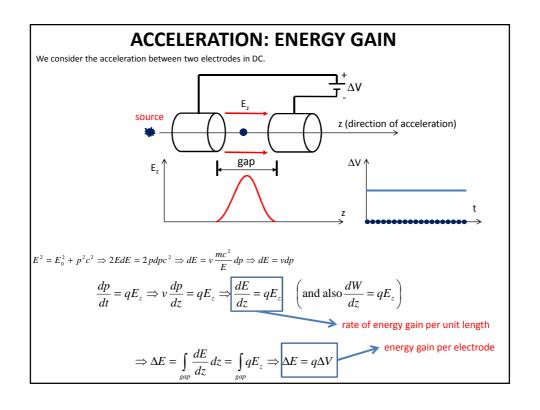


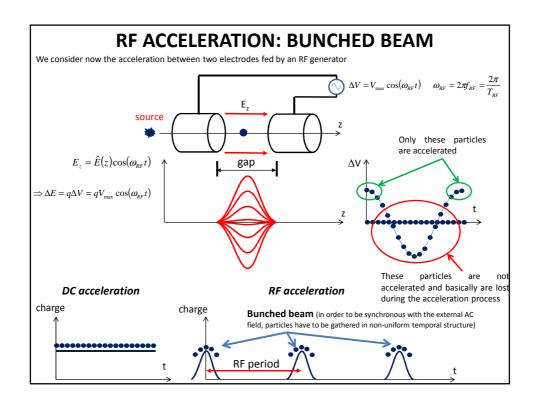
 \Rightarrow Light particles (as electrons) are practically fully relativistic (β \cong 1, γ >>1) at relatively low energy and reach a constant velocity (\sim c). The acceleration process occurs at constant particle velocity

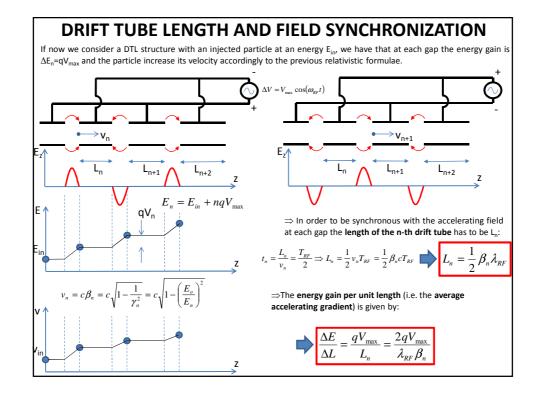
⇒Heavy particles (protons and ions) are typically weakly relativistic and reach a constant velocity only at very high energy. the velocity changes a lot during acceleration process.



⇒This implies **important differences** in the technical characteristics of the **accelerating structures**. In particular for protons and ions we need different types of accelerating structures, **optimized for different velocities** and/or the accelerating structure has to vary its geometry to take into account the velocity variation.







ACCELERATION WITH HIGH RF FREQUENCIES: RF CAVITIES

There are two important consequences of the previous obtained formulae:

$$L_n = \frac{1}{2} \beta_n \lambda_{RF}$$



The condition $L_n << \lambda_{RF}$ (necessary to model the tube as an equipotential region) requires $\beta << 1$. \Rightarrow The Wideröe technique can not be applied to relativistic particles. Moreover it is obvious that when particles get high velocities the drift spaces get longer and one looses on the efficiency.

$$\frac{\Delta E}{\Delta L} = \frac{qV_{\text{max}}}{L_n} = \frac{2qV_{\text{max}}}{\lambda_{RF}\beta_n}$$



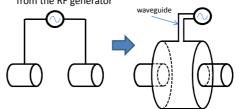
The average accelerating gradient increase pushes towards small $\lambda_{\mbox{\tiny RF}}$ (high frequencies).

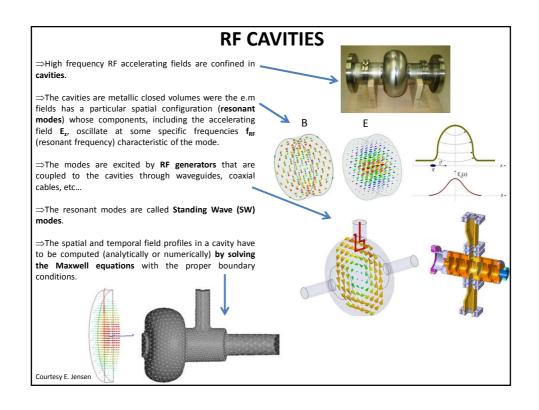
High frequency high power sources became available after the 2^{nd} world war pushed by military technology needs (such as radar). However, the concept of equipotential DT can not be applied at small $\lambda_{\rm RF}$ and the power lost by radiation is proportional to the RF frequency.

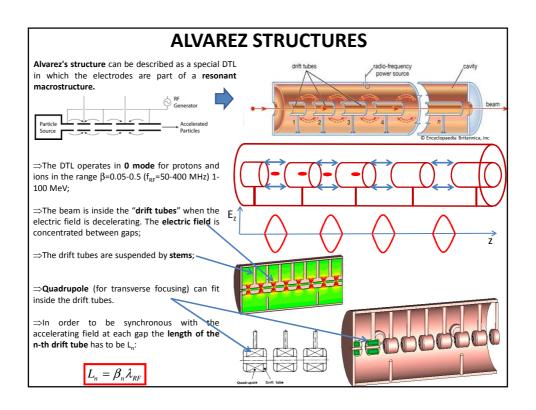
As a consequence we must consider accelerating structures different from drift tubes.

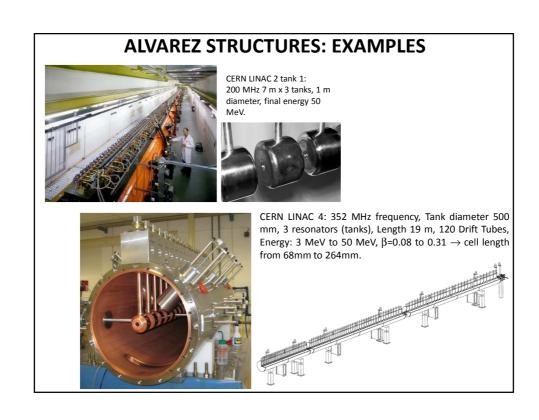
⇒The solution consists of **enclosing the system in a cavity** which resonant frequency matches the RF generator frequency.

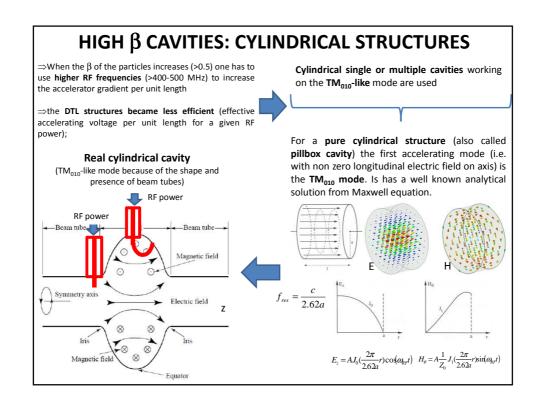
 $\Rightarrow\!\!$ Each such cavity can be independently powered from the RF generator

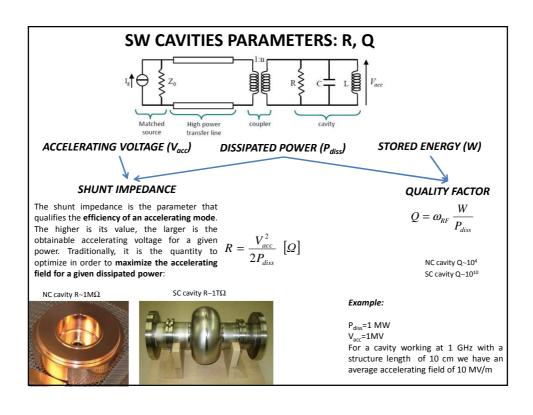


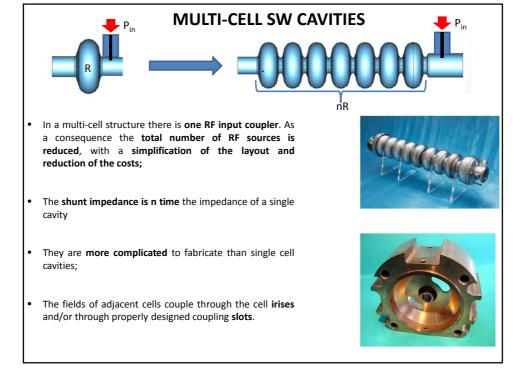


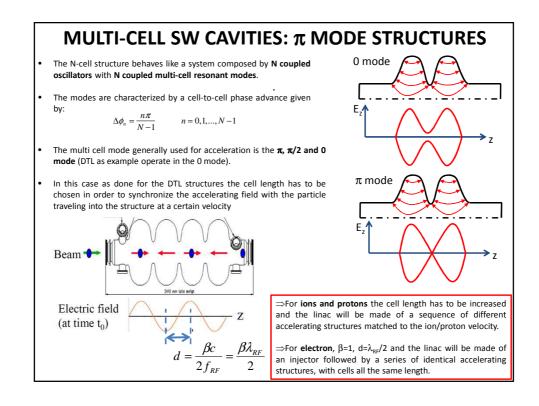


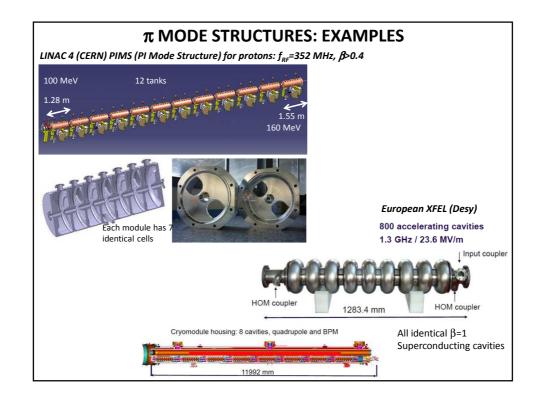


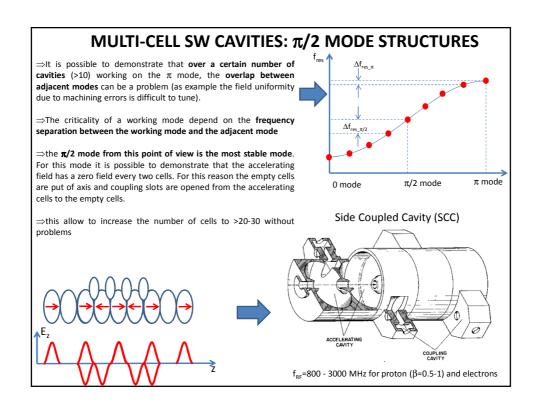


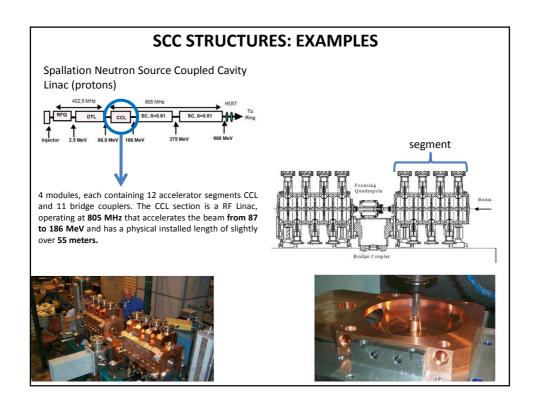




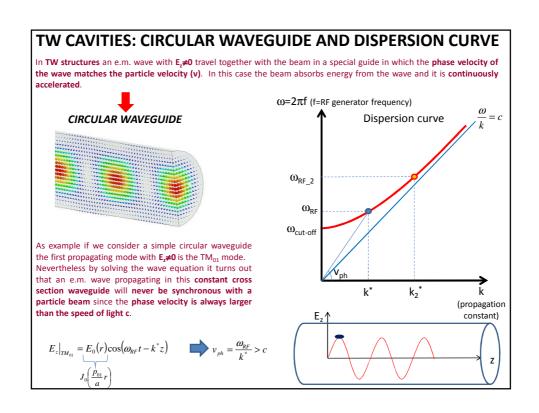


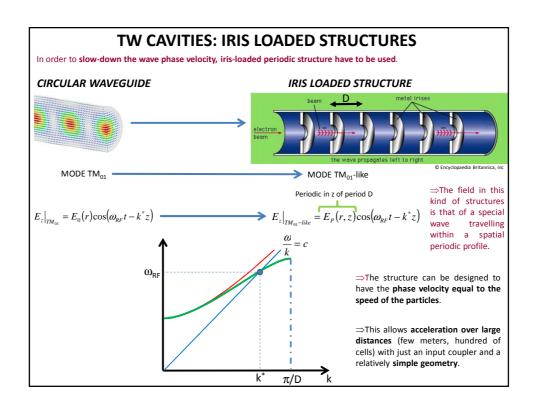


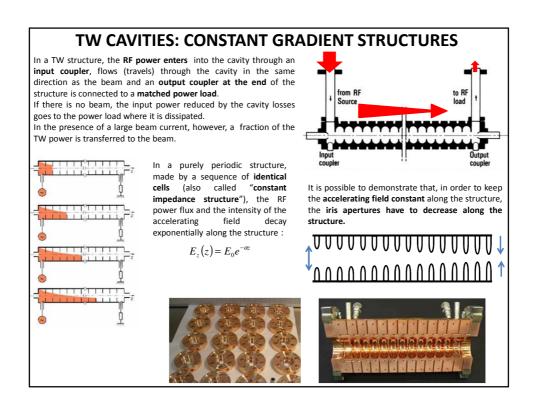




TRAVELLING WAVE (TW) STRUCTURES \Rightarrow To accelerate charged particles, the electromagnetic field must have an electric field along the direction of propagation of the particle. ⇒The field has to be synchronous with the particle velocity. $\Rightarrow\!\!\mathsf{Up}$ to now we have analyzed the cases standing standing wave (SW) structures in which the field has basically a given profile and oscillate in time (as example in DTL or resonant cavities operating on the ${\rm TM}_{\rm 010}$ -like). Time oscillation $E_z(z,t) = E_{RF}(z) \cos(\omega_{RF}t)$ field profile ⇒There is another possibility to accelerate particles: using a travelling wave (TW) structure in which the RF wave is co-propagating with the beam with a phase velocity equal to the beam velocity. Ε, ⇒Typically these structures are used for **electrons** because in this case the phase velocity can be constant all over the structure and equal to c. On the other hand it is difficult to modulate the phase velocity itself very quickly for a low $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ particle that changes its velocity during acceleration.



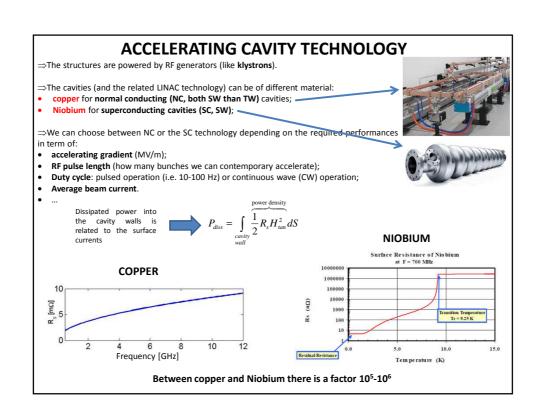




LINAC TECHNOLOGY







NORMAL CONDUCTING AND SUPER CONDUCTING

NC: COPPER





The most widely used NC metal for RF structures is **OFHC** copper (Oxigen free high conductivity) for several reasons:

- Easy to machine (good achievable roughness at the few nm level)
- 2) Easy to braze/weld
- 3) Easy to find at relatively low cost
- 4) Very good electrical (and thermal) conductivity
- 5) Low SEY (multipacting phenomena)
- 6) Good performances at high accelerating gradient



- -Higher dissipation
- -Pulsed operation
- -Higher peak accelerating gradient (up to 50-100 MV/m) -Standard cleaning procedures for the cavity fabrication
- -Cooling of dissipated power with pipes





SC: NIOBIUM



The most common material for SC cavities is Nb because:

- Nb has a relatively high transition temperature (Tc=9.25 K).
- SC can be destroyed by magnetic field greater than a critical field H_c ⇒ Pure Nb has a relatively high critical magnetic field Hc=170-180 mT.
- It is chemically inert
- 4) It can be machined and deep-drawn
- It is available as bulk and sheet material in any size, fabricated by forging and rolling....



-lower dissipation

-Allow continuous operation

-lower peak accelerating gradient (max 30-40 MV/m)

-Special cleaning procedures for the cavity fabrication

-They need a **cryostat** to reach the SC temperature of few K

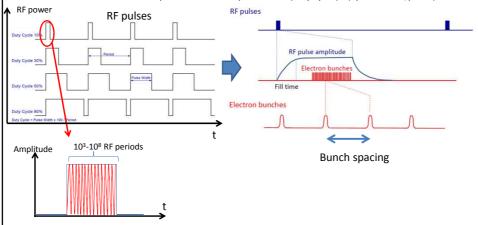




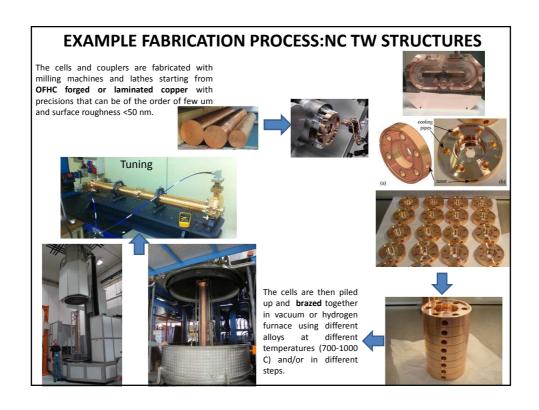
RF STRUCTURE AND BEAM STRUCTURE

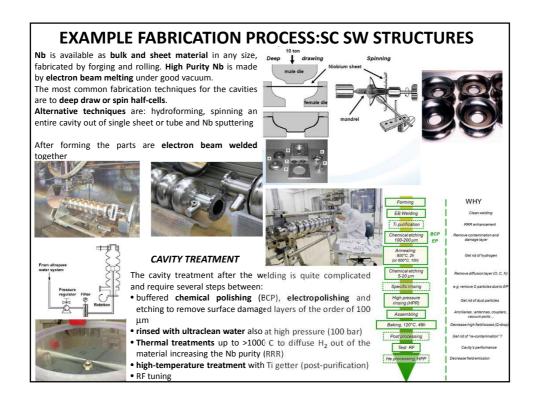
The "beam structure" in a LINAC is directly related to the "RF structure". There are basically two possible type of operations:

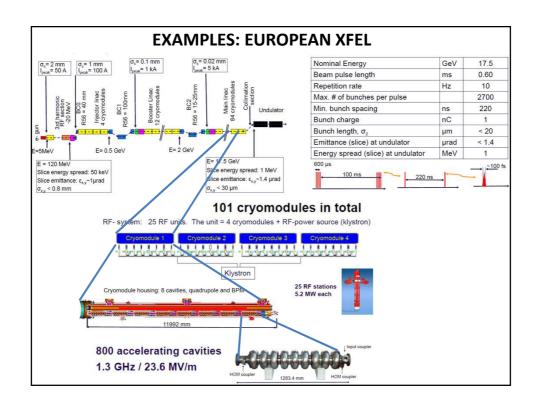
- ullet CW (continuous wave) \Rightarrow allow, in principle, to operate with a continuous beam
- PULSED OPARATION ⇒ there are RF pulses at a certain repetition rate (Duty Cycle (DC)=pulsed width/period)

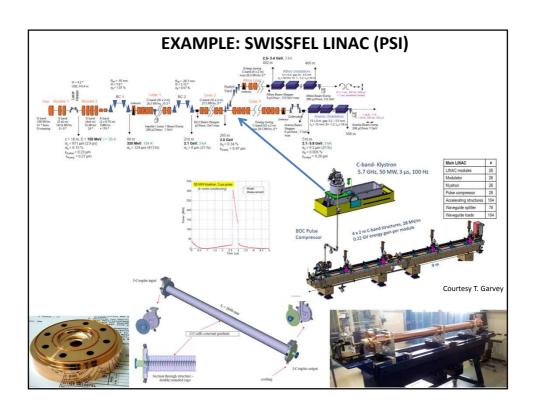


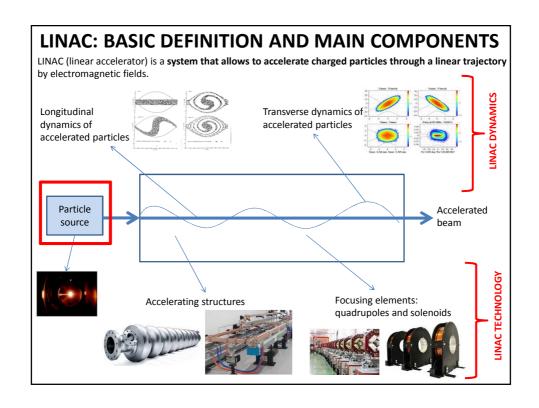
- ⇒Because of the very low power dissipation and low RF power required to achieve a certain accelerating voltage the SC structures allow operation at very high Duty Cycle (DC) up to a CW operation with high gradient (>20 MV/m).
- ⇒On the other hand **NC structures can operate in pulsed mode** at very low DC with **higher peak field** (TW structures can >50-80 MV/m peak field).
- ⇒NC structures can also operate in CW but at very low gradient because of the dissipated power.

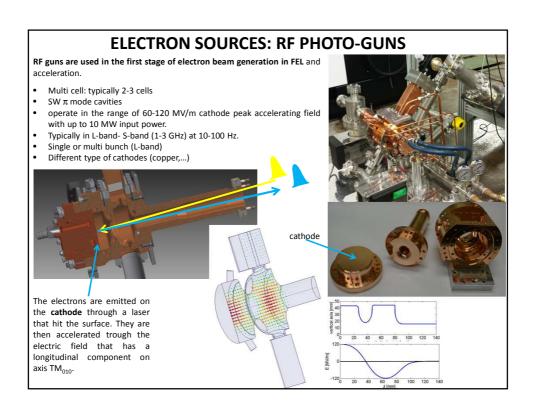


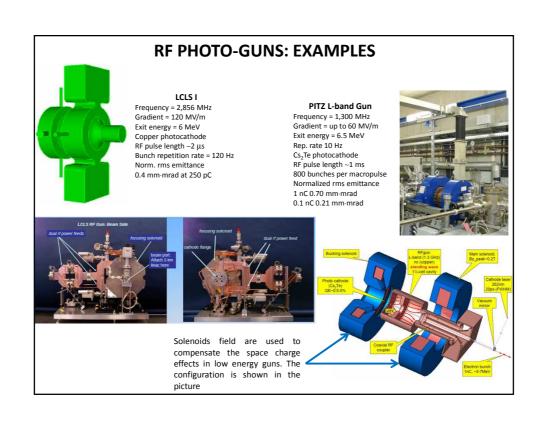


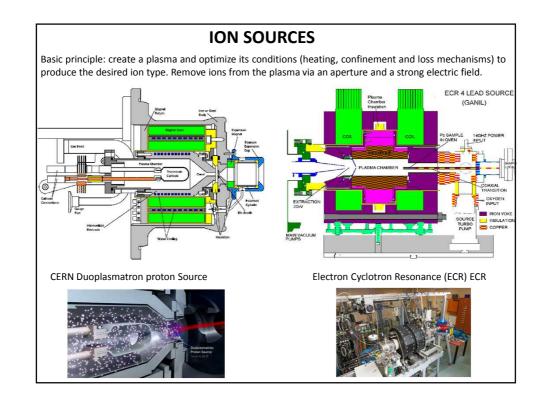


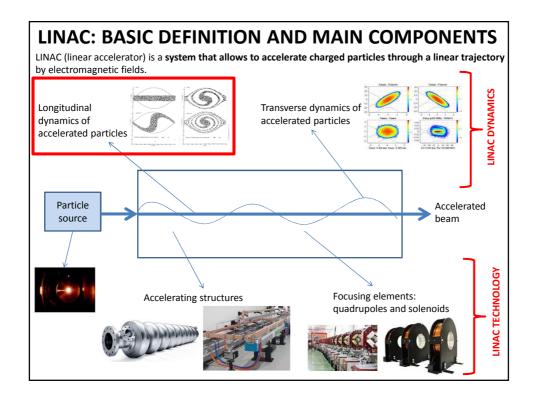


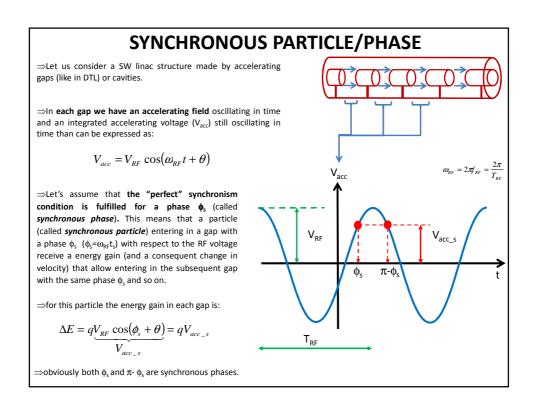






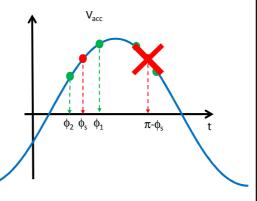






PRINCIPLE OF PHASE STABILITY

 $\Rightarrow \!\! \text{On the contrary} \text{ if we consider now the synchronous particle at phase } \pi\text{-}\varphi_s \text{ and another particle "near" to the synchronous one that arrives later or before in the gap, it will receive an energy gain that will increase further its distance form the synchronous one$

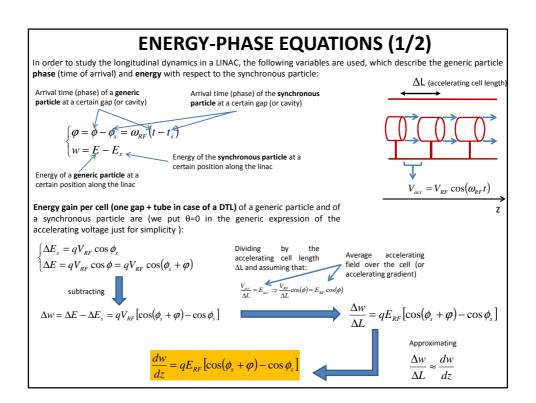


⇒The choice of the synchronous phase in the positive slope of the RF voltage provides longitudinal focusing of the beam: **phase stability principle**.

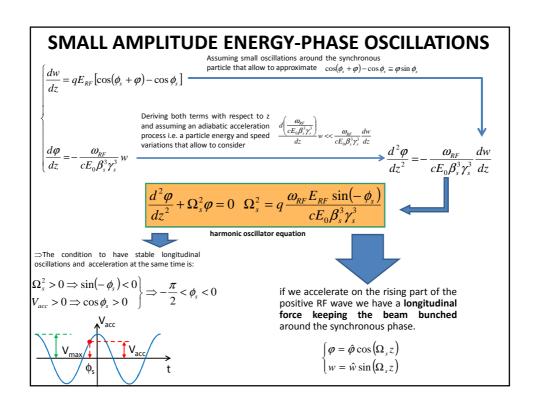


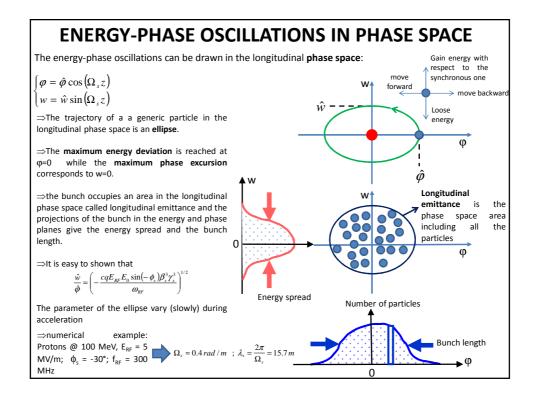
⇒The synchronous phase on the negative slope of the RF voltage is, on the contrary, **unstable**

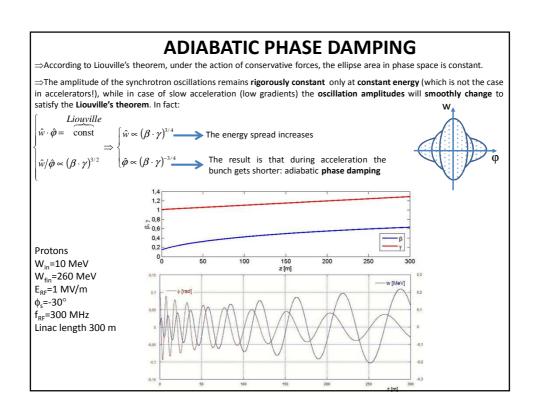
⇒Relying on particle velocity variations, longitudinal focusing does not work for fully relativistic beams (electrons). In this case acceleration "on crest" is more convenient.



ENERGY-PHASE EQUATIONS (2/2) On the other hand we have that the phase variation per cell of a generic particle and of a synchronous particle are $\begin{cases} \Delta\phi_{s}=\omega_{RF}\Delta t_{s} & \text{ Δt is basically the time of} \\ \Delta\phi=\omega_{RF}\Delta t & \text{ accelerating cells} \end{cases}$ v. v. are the average subtracting ____ accelerating cell length ΔL $\frac{\Delta \varphi}{\Delta L} \cong \frac{d\varphi}{dz}$ This system of coupled (non linear) differential equations describe the motion of a non synchronous particles in the $\frac{dw}{ds} = qE_{RF} \left[\cos(\phi_s + \varphi) - \cos\phi_s \right]$ longitudinal plane with respect to the synchronous one. $\omega_{RF}\left(\frac{1}{v} - \frac{1}{v_s}\right) = \omega_{RF}\left(\frac{v_s - v}{vv_s}\right) \underbrace{\equiv}_{vv_s \equiv v^2} - \frac{\omega_{RF}}{v_s^2} \Delta v = -\frac{\omega_{RF}}{c} \frac{\Delta \beta}{\beta_s^2} \text{ remembering that } \beta = \sqrt{1 - 1/\gamma^2} \Rightarrow \beta d\beta = d\gamma/\gamma^3 \Rightarrow -\frac{\omega_{RF}}{c} \frac{\Delta \beta}{\beta_s^2} \equiv -\frac{\omega_{RF}}{c} \frac{\Delta \gamma}{\beta_s^3 \gamma_s^3} = -\frac{\omega_{RF}}{c} \frac{\Delta \gamma}{E_0 \beta_s^2 \gamma_s^3} + \frac{\omega_{RF}}{c} \frac{\Delta \beta}{E_0 \beta_s^2 \gamma_s^3} = -\frac{\omega_{RF}}{c} \frac{\Delta \gamma}{\beta_s^2 \gamma_s^3} = -\frac{\omega_{RF}}{c} \frac{\Delta \gamma}$







LARGE OSCILLATIONS

To study the longitudinal dynamics at large oscillations, we have to consider the non linear system of differential equations without approximations. By neglecting particle energy and speed variations along the LINAC (adiabatic acceleration) it is possible to obtain easily the following relation between w and ϕ that is the Hamiltonian of the system related to the total particle energy.

a particle energy.
$$\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\omega_{RF}}{c E_0 \beta_s^3 \gamma_s^3} \right)^2 w^2 + \frac{\omega_{RF}}{c E_0 \beta_s^3 \gamma_s^3} \left[\sin(\phi_s + \varphi) - \varphi \cos \phi_s - \sin(\phi_s) \right] = \cos t = H$$

 \Rightarrow For each H we have different trajectories in the longitudinal phase space

⇒the oscillations are **stable** within a region bounded by a special curve called **separatrix**: its equation is:

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{\omega_{RF}}{cE_0 \beta_s^3 \gamma_s^3} w^2 + q E_{RF} \left[\sin(\phi_s + \varphi) - (2\phi_s + \varphi) \cos \phi_s + \sin(\phi_s) \right] = 0$$

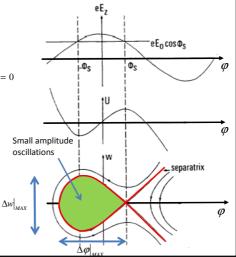
 \Rightarrow the region inside the separatrix is called **RF bucket**. The dimensions of the bucket shrinks to zero if $\phi_{\rm s}$ =0.

⇒trajectories outside the RF buckets are unstable.

⇒we can define of the acceptance as the maximum extension in phase and energy that we can accept in an accelerator:

$$\Delta \varphi|_{MAX} \cong 3\phi_s$$

$$\Delta w\big|_{MAX} = \pm 2 \left[\frac{qcE_o \beta_s^3 \gamma_s^3 E_{RF} (\phi_s \cos \phi_s - \sin \phi_s)}{\omega_{RF}} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$



LONGITUDINAL DYNAMICS OF LOW ENERGY ELECTRONS (1/2)

From previous formulae it is clear that there is no motion in the longitudinal phase $\[$ plane for ultrarelativistic particles ($\gamma >>1$).

⇒This is the case of **electrons** whose velocity is always close to speed of light c even at low energies.

⇒Accelerating structures are designed to provide an accelerating field synchronous with particles moving at v=c. like **TW structures** with phase velocity equal to c.

It is interesting to analyze what happen if we inject an electron beam produced by a cathode (at low energy) directly in a TW structure (with v_{ph}=c) and the conditions that allow to capture the beam (this is equivalent to consider instead of a TW structure a SW designed to accelerate ultrarelativistic particles at v=c).

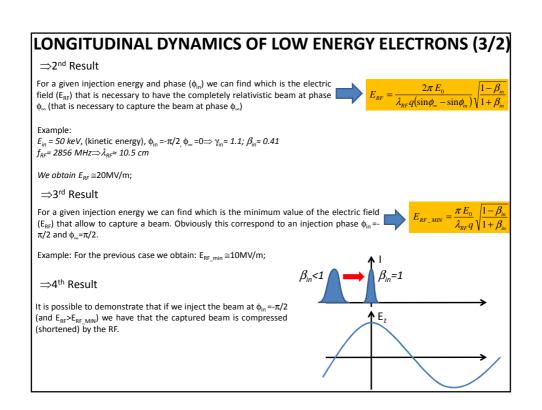
Particles enter the structure with velocity vcc and, initially, they are not synchronous with the accelerating field and there is a so called slippage.

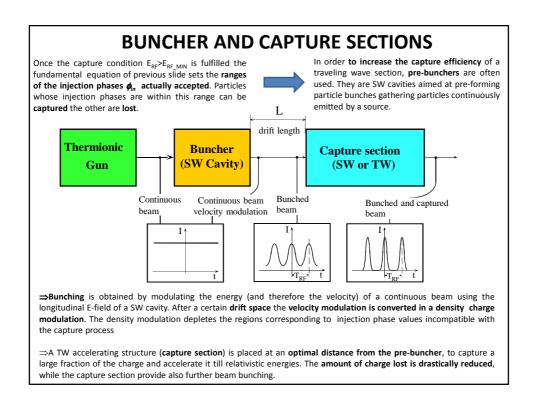
After a certain distance they can reach enough energy (and velocity) to become synchronous

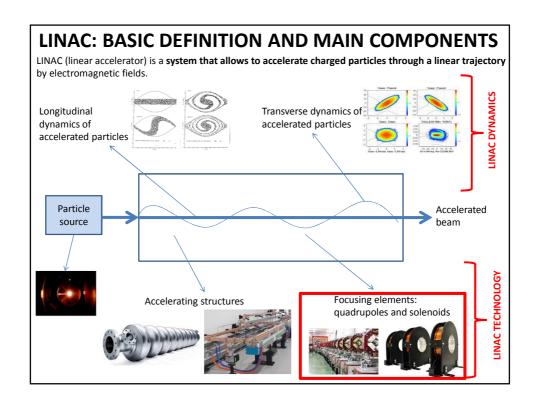
After a certain distance they can reach enough energy (and velocity) to become synchronous with the accelerating wave. This means that they are captured by the accelerator and from this point they are stably accelerated.

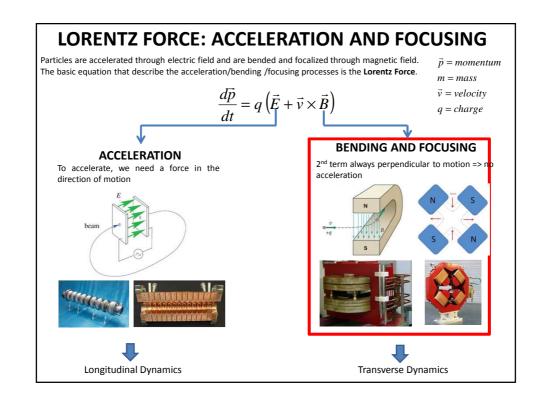
If this does not happen (the energy increase is not enough to reach the velocity of the wave) they are lost

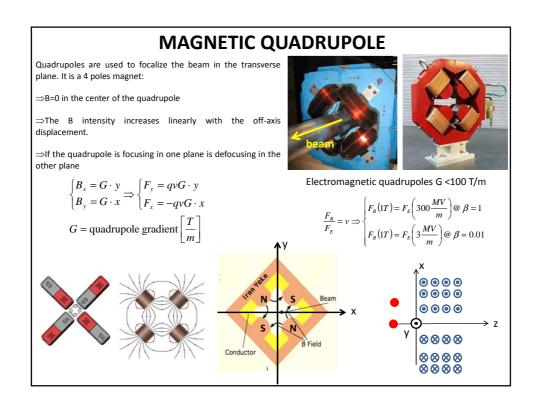
LONGITUDINAL DYNAMICS OF LOW ENERGY ELECTRONS (2/2) The accelerating field of a The equation of motion of a particle with a TW structure can be position z at time t accelerated by the TW is then expressed by $\frac{d}{dt}(mv) = qE_{RF}\cos\phi(z,t) \Rightarrow m_0c\frac{d}{dt}(\gamma\beta) = m_0c\gamma^3\frac{d\beta}{dt} = qE_{RF}\cos\phi$ $E_{acc} = E_{RF} \cos(\omega_{RF} t - kz)$ This is the phase of the TW wave seen by the particle at a certain The phase motion during acceleration is then time t and position z $\frac{d\phi}{dt} = \omega_{RF} - k \frac{dz}{dt} = \omega_{RF} - \frac{\omega_{RF}}{c} \frac{dz}{dt} \Rightarrow \frac{d\phi}{dt} = \omega_{RF} \left(1 - \beta\right) > 0$ The phase of the wave "seen" by the particle always increase because β <1. It is useful to find which is the relation between β and φ $m_{0}c\gamma^{3}\frac{d\beta}{dt} = m_{0}c\gamma^{3}\frac{d\beta}{d\phi}\frac{d\phi}{dt} = \frac{1}{\left(1+\beta\right)\sqrt{1-\beta^{2}}}\frac{d\beta}{d\phi} = \frac{qE_{RF}}{\omega_{RF}m_{0}c}\cos\phi$ $\sin \phi_{fin} = \sin \phi_{in} + \frac{2\pi E_0}{\lambda_{RF} q E_{RF}} \left(\sqrt{\frac{1 - \beta_{in}}{1 + \beta_{in}}} - \sqrt{\frac{1 - \beta_{fin}}{1 + \beta_{fin}}} \right)$ Suppose that the particle $\sin \phi_{\infty} = \sin \phi_{in} + \frac{2\pi E_0}{\lambda_{RF} q E_{RF}} \sqrt{\frac{1 - \beta_{in}}{1 + \beta_{in}}}$ reach asymptotically the value β_{fin} =1 we have: ⇒1st Result $\sin \phi_{\infty} > \sin \phi_{in} \Rightarrow \phi_{\infty} > \phi_{in}$

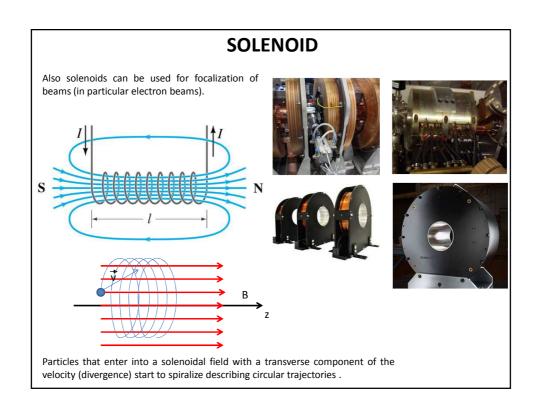


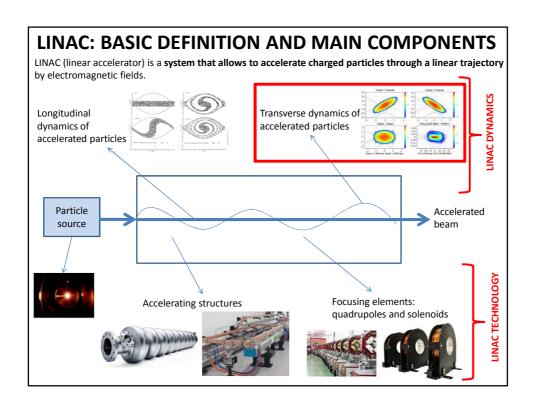


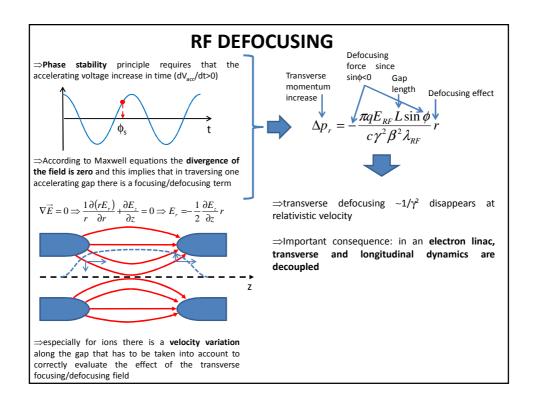


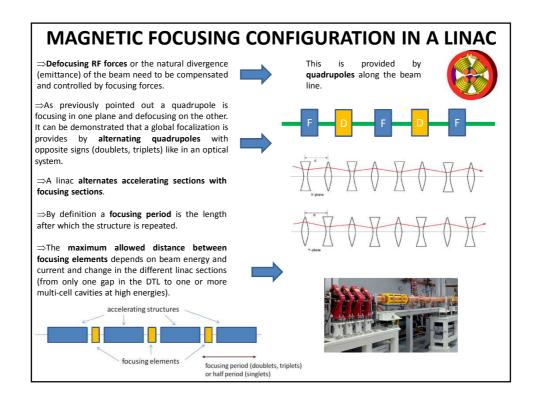


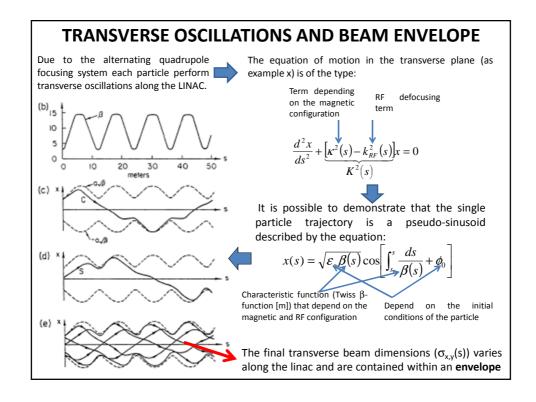


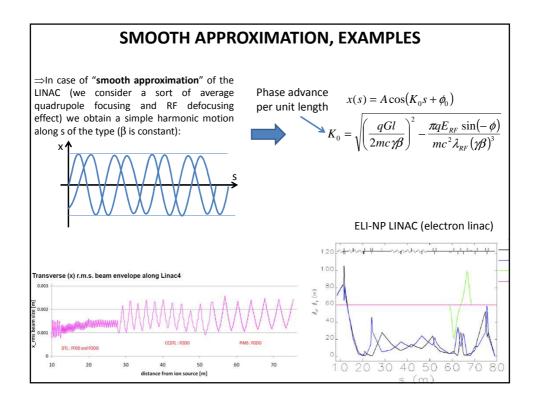




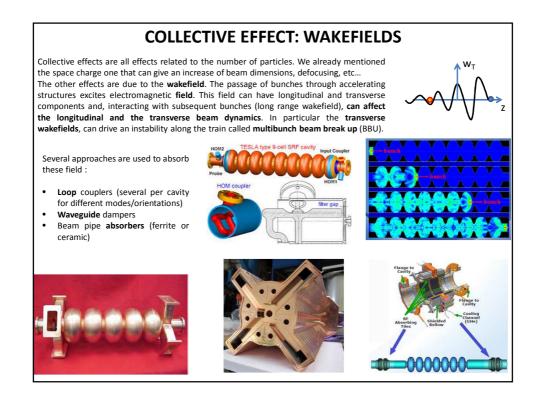


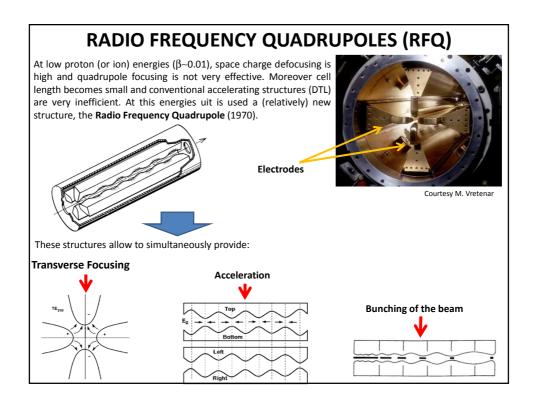


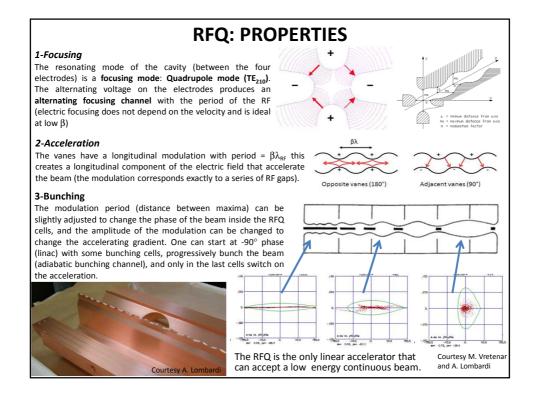


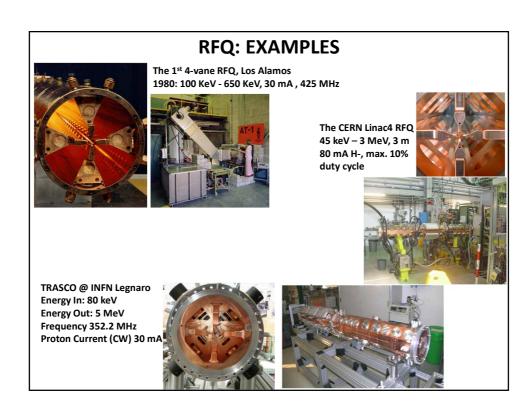


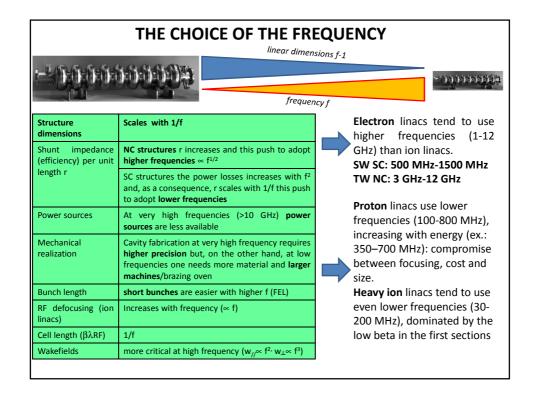
SPACE CHARGE EFFECTS Uniform and infinite cylinder of charge In the longitudinal and transverse beam dynamics moving along z we have neglected up to now the effect of Coulomb repulsion between particles (space charge). These effects cannot be neglected especially at low energy and at high current because the space charge forces scales as $1/\gamma^2$ and with the current I. $\overrightarrow{F_{SC}} = q(E_r - vB_\theta)\hat{r} = q\frac{I}{2\pi\varepsilon_0 R_b^2 \beta c \gamma^2}$ In case of smooth approximation and ellipsoidal beam we The individual particles have: satisfy the equation $\frac{\pi q E_{RF} \sin(-\phi)}{mc^2 \lambda_{RF} (\gamma \beta)^3} - \frac{3 Z_0 q I \lambda_{RF} (1-f)}{8 \pi m c^2 \beta^2 \gamma^3 r_x r_y r_z}$ $\frac{d^2x}{r^2} + K^2(s)x - F_{SC} = 0$ I= beam current Space charge term r_{x,y,z}=ellipsoid semi-axis f= form factor External forces Space Charge forces Z_0 =free space impedance (377 Ω) that is in general (magnets+RF) nonlinear and beam For ultrarelativistic electrons RF defocusing and space charge current dependent disappear and the external focusing is required to control the emittance and to stabilize the beam against instabilities.











THE CHOICE OF THE ACCELERATING STRUCTURE

In general the choice of the accelerating structure depends on:

- ⇒ Particle type: mass, charge, energy
- ⇒ Beam current
- \Rightarrow Duty cycle (pulsed, CW)
- ⇒ Frequency
- ⇒ Cost of fabrication and of operation

Moreover a given accelerating structure has also a curve of efficiency (shunt impedance) with respect to the particle energies and the choice of one structure with respect to another one depends also on this.

As example a very general scheme is given in the Table (absolutely not exhaustive).

Cavity Type	β Range	Frequency	Particles
RFQ	0.01-0.1	40-500 MHz	Protons, lons
DTL	0.05 - 0.5	100-400 MHz	Protons, Ions
SCL	0.5 – 1	600 MHz-3 GHz	Protons, Electrons
SC Elliptical	> 0.5-0.7	350 MHz-3 GHz	Protons, Electrons
TW	1	3-12 GHz	Electrons

APPENDIX: SEPARATRIX

To study the longitudinal dynamics at large oscillations, we have to consider the non linear system of differential equations without approximations. By neglecting particle energy and speed variations along the LINAC we obtain:

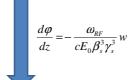
$$\frac{d^2\varphi}{dz^2} = -\frac{\omega_{RF}qE_{RF}}{cE_0\beta_s^3\gamma_s^3} \left[\cos(\phi_s + \varphi) - \cos\phi_s\right] = F$$

The restoring force **F** can not be considered purely elastic anymore and may by derived from a **potential function** according to the usual definition:

$$U = -\int_{0}^{\varphi} F d\varphi' = \frac{\omega_{RF} q E_{RF}}{c E_{0} \beta_{s}^{3} \gamma_{s}^{3}} \left[\sin(\phi_{s} + \varphi) - \varphi \cos \phi_{s} - \sin(\phi_{s}) \right]$$

With few simple passages we obtain an "energy conservation"–like law:

$$\frac{d}{dz} \left[\left(\frac{d\varphi}{dz} \right)^2 \right] = 2 \frac{d\varphi}{dz} \frac{d^2 \varphi}{dz^2} = 2 \frac{d\varphi}{dz} \cdot \left(-\frac{dU}{d\varphi} \right) = -2 \frac{d}{dz} U \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dz} \left[\left(\frac{d\varphi}{dz} \right)^2 + 2U \right] = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d\varphi}{dz} \right)^2 + U = \text{cost}$$



$$\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\omega_{RF}}{cE_0 \beta_s^3 \gamma_s^3} \right)^2 w^2 + \frac{\omega_{RF}}{cE_0 \beta_s^3 \gamma_s^3} \left[\sin(\phi_s + \varphi) - \varphi \cos \phi_s - \sin(\phi_s) \right] = \text{const} = \mathbf{H}$$

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