

# "The Machine" (a.k.a. Ring-based Synchrotron Light Sources)

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### Outline

- The mission of a synchrotron light source designer
- The photon as an (almost) ideal investigation tool
- Electrons as sources of high quality photons
- Properties of synchrotron radiation
- Building the accelerator ring-based synchrotron light sources
- Optimizing the accelerator for use as a synchrotron light source





#### Synchrotron Light Source Designer's Mission



SPring-8 (Hyogo, Japan)



MAX IV (Lund, Sweden)

### "Design the best probe to characterize natural processes and derive laws of nature."

ESRF (Grenoble, France)



SSRF (Shanghai, China)





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#### In the Broadest Sense





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# **Probing Nature: Resolution Requirements**

- Size of the probe defines the spatial resolution of the measurement
  → probe must be smaller or at least comparable in size to the object
  to be measured → photons allow covering broad range
- Similarly, if you want to measure fast phenomena you have to probe them with a high temporal resolution → short *photon pulses* are such a probe
- Photons with appropriate ∆E can be absorbed by atoms → want to select specific probe energy with high accuracy → energy resolution
- Experimental physicist/engineer who wants to build a great probe: has to find the way to generate short pulses with lots of photons at many wave-lengths distributed over a tightly controlled bandwidth!





 Lasers do that to a certain extent, but if you need many photons per pulse or wavelengths all the way down to hard x-rays → synchrotron light sources









# **Accelerated Electrons as Sources of Photons**

 According to quantum field theory, a particle moving in free space is "surrounded" by a cloud of additional virtual particles including photons that form and dissolve, and indissolubly travel with it



• Such photons live for extremely short periods of time and are bound so tightly to the particle that they cannot be detected (hence the attribute "virtual")



- However, if a particle undergoes strong transverse acceleration, it can detach itself from its virtual photons which then become real and can be detected (and used!)
- In accelerators, charged particles can be forced on curved trajectories by magnetic fields. This transverse acceleration allows for the separation of virtual photons → synchrotron radiation (SR) is generated





# **Accelerated Electrons as Sources of Photons (cont.)**

• So how does this transverse acceleration generate synchrotron radiation (SR)? • Alfred Liénard, 1898: high-velocity particle undergoing centripetal acceleration along a circular trajectory at radiates:  $\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$ 

$$P_{\perp} = \frac{q^2 c}{6\pi\varepsilon_0 (mc^2)^2} \left( \frac{d\vec{p_{\perp}}}{dt} \right)^2 \qquad \gamma = \frac{E_{\text{tot}}}{mc^2}$$



• For a particle accelerator this results in the following SR power:

 $P_{\perp} = \frac{c}{6\pi\varepsilon_0} q^2 \frac{(\beta\gamma)^4}{\rho^2}, \quad \rho = \text{curvature radius}$ 



- Radiated power increases *dramatically* with energy γ → sets practical limit for maximum energy obtainable with a synchrotron
- The higher the particle energy γ and the sharper the curved trajectory ρ, the shorter the wavelength photons can have, and the larger the number of photons generated → lighter particles radiate more photons than heavier ones
- Need to build compact high-energy electron accelerators for generation of SR





# The Troubled Origins of Synchrotron Radiation



- First observation of synchrotron radiation (SR) from an accelerator in **1947**: from 70 MeV electron beam at the General Electric
   Synchrotron (hence the name) in Schenectady, NY
- Electron accelerators were initially developed to probe elementary (subnuclear) particles to study the fundamental nature of matter, space, time, and energy





- In such accelerators, SR had been considered a **waste product** limiting achievable performance in circular electron accelerators
- However, other researchers soon realized that SR was the brightest source of infrared, ultraviolet, and x-rays, and that it could be most useful for studying matter on the scale of atoms & molecules





# **Brightness of a Light Source**

• **Photon brightness** (sometimes referred to as *spectral brightness* or *brilliance*) is the ultimate parameter to characterize performance of a light source



Flux unit = 
$$\frac{\text{number of photons in a given } \Delta \lambda / \lambda}{\text{unit time}}$$



• From this definition, one can see that brightness represents the *photon density in 4-D transverse phase space* within a bandwidth and averaged over a unit of time



SLS (Villigen, Switzerland)



# How Bright are Synchrotron Light Sources?



he LCLS





### How Bright are Synchrotron Light Sources?



High brightness is very desirable: faster experiments, higher coherence, improved spatial, time and energy resolutions in experiments, ...



# **Properties of Synchr. Radiation: Angular Distribution**

• At high energies synchrotron radiation becomes more focused



- This is a *relativistic effect*
- Can show that **cone angle scales like 1/\gamma \rightarrow** for high-energy rings this forward-directed cone becomes extremely narrow





#### **Properties of Synchr. Radiation: Bandwidth**

 Since emission cone is so narrow, observer sees only very short section of electron trajectory (only few mm)

$$\Delta l_{A \to B} = 2\Theta \rho \approx \frac{2\rho}{\gamma}$$



 Think of a search light → pulse length is determined by path length difference between electron and photon , Relativistic Doppler boost

$$\Delta t = t_e - t_\gamma = \frac{\Delta l}{\beta c} - \frac{\Delta l}{c} = \frac{\Delta l}{\beta c} (1 - \beta) = \frac{\Delta l}{\beta c} \frac{1 - \beta^2}{1 + \beta} \approx \frac{\Delta l}{\beta c} \frac{1}{2\gamma^2} \approx \frac{\rho}{c\gamma^3}$$
  
eads to very short pulses with huge bandwidth  $\Delta \omega = \frac{1}{\Delta t} \approx \frac{c\gamma^3}{\rho}$ 

- This leads to very short pulses with huge bandwidth
  - Example: ALS at 1.9 GeV with 5-m bending radius

$$\Delta l \approx 2.70 \text{ mm} \rightarrow \Delta t \approx 3.29 \times 10^{-19} \text{ s} \rightarrow \Delta \omega \approx 3.04 \times 10^{18} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

$$f_{\rm max} \approx \frac{\Delta \omega}{2\pi} \approx 4.83 \times 10^{17} \text{ Hz} \longrightarrow \lambda_{\rm min} = \frac{c}{f_{\rm max}} \approx 0.62 \text{ nm}$$

Very broad band!





# **Properties of Synchr. Radiation: Polarization**

- Synchrotron radiation observed in the plane of the particle orbit is is horizontally polarized
- To an out-of-plane observer, synchrotron radiation is elliptically polarized









- This characteristic of synchrotron radiation is heavily exploited in experiments where polarization of the incident photons is important
- As we'll see later, there are specific devices we use to control and optimize the polarization of the generated synchrotron radiation for each individual experiment





# **Building the Accelerator: Main Ingredients**

- Maxwell's equations (in vacuum, differential form, SI units)
  - $\vec{\nabla}\vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$  $\vec{\nabla}\vec{B} = 0$ No-name law  $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$  $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{j} + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$

Gauss' law / Coulomb's law

Faraday's law

**Ampère's law** 

- Lorentz force  $\vec{F} = q \left( \vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B} \right)$ 
  - $\rho$ : charge density  $\vec{j}$ : current density
  - $\vec{j} = \sigma \vec{E}, \quad \sigma : \text{ conductivity}$

 $\epsilon_0 \mu_0 c^2 = 1$ 

 $\epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \,\mathrm{F/m} \,\left[\mathrm{C}^2/\mathrm{Nm}^2\right]$  $\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \, \text{H/m} \, [\text{N/A}^2]$ 

Permittivity of free space Permeability of free space









# **Building the Accelerator: Accelerating Particles**

 Lorentz force tells us we'll use electric fields to accelerate particles (and magnetic fields will be used to guide and deflect) because magnetic fields cannot perform work

$$\vec{F} = q\left(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B}\right)$$
$$W = \int \vec{F} \, d\vec{s} = q \int \vec{E} \, d\vec{s} + q \int \left(\vec{v} \times \vec{B}\right) \, d\vec{s} = q \int \vec{E} \, d\vec{s} + q \int \left(\frac{d\vec{s}}{dt} \times \vec{B}\right) \, d\vec{s}$$
$$\neq 0 \text{ unless } \vec{E} \perp \vec{s} \qquad \text{always} = 0$$

- → Electric fields can can modify particle energy ("accelerate")
- Most accelerators rely on **magnetic fields** to *steer*, eg. particle with momentum *p* and charge *q* in a uniform magnetic field *B* moves on a circle with radius  $\rho = \frac{p}{qB}$  Larmor radius





# **Electric Fields for Acceleration**

- There are many ways to generate strong electric fields
- High efficiency and reliability in storage rings (=synchrotron operating at fixed energy) can be achieved with radio-frequency (RF) cavities



• For the TM<sub>010</sub> mode in a metallic "pillbox" cavity:  $E_z^{TM_{010}} = E_0(r) \cos(\omega_c t)$ 

$$f_c = \frac{\omega_c}{2\pi} \approx \frac{2.405 \, c}{2\pi \, a}$$

**Example:** ALS RF cavities at  $f_{rf}$  = 500 MHz  $\rightarrow a$  = 229.5 mm

• RF fields need to be synchronized to particle's arrival time:





 $V_{\rm rf}(t) = V_0 \sin(2\pi f_{\rm rf} t)$  $T_0 = h T_{\rm rf} \longrightarrow f_0 = \frac{f_{\rm rf}}{h}, \quad h \in \mathbb{N}$ Synchronicity Condition



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## **Electric Fields for Acceleration: Real RF Cavities**









Most light sources rely on room temperature RF cavities, but sometimes we also encounter superconducting cavities (eg. CLS, DIAMOND, SLS 3HC).







# **Magnetic Fields for Steering/Focusing**

- Various types of magnets are used for beam confinement
  - Dipoles → used to steer and deflect beams
  - -Quadrupoles  $\rightarrow$  used to *focus* beams  $\vec{B} = \begin{pmatrix} Ky \\ Kx \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ , K = const



- Octupoles, Decapoles, … → correct higher-order aberrations
- And sometimes we use hybrids, i.e. "combined-function magnets"





 $\vec{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ B_y \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad B_y = \text{const}$ 

#### **Magnetic Fields for Steering/Focusing: Real Magnets**



**APS Dipole** 



**SESAME Quadrupoles** 



AS sextupole



**ALS Gradient Dipole** 



MAX IV octupole (lower half)

These are all room temperature electromagnets, but superconducting and permanent magnet-based schemes are also employed.







# Vacuum Systems Ensure Beam Quality & Lifetime

 Vacuum systems consisting of vacuum chambers & vacuum pumps ensure UHV conditions (≈10<sup>-9</sup> mbar or torr) for the stored electron beam → limit scattering → long beam lifetime, good beam quality \_\_\_\_\_



 Vacuum chambers also integrate many other integral pieces of equipment, eg. beam diagnostics (beam position monitors, current transformers, profile monitors [flags/screens], pressure gauges, etc.)



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#### Putting it all together — real accelerators







ALS

# At a Glance: Particle Dynamics in a Storage Ring

- Electrons **oscillate** around the nominal particle position and energy!
- **Damping** of these oscillations is due to the emission of synchrotron radiation
- Motion in the **transverse plane**:



• Longitudinal motion:

$$\Delta s(t) = e^{-\alpha_D t} \left( A e^{i\Omega t} + B e^{-i\Omega t} \right)$$
$$\Delta E(t) = -i\Omega \frac{p_0}{\eta_c} e^{-\alpha_D t} \left( A e^{i\Omega t} - B e^{-i\Omega t} \right)$$







# **From Single Particle to Beam**

- So far we have discussed the dynamics of a single particle, but in typical accelerators particles circulate in bunches (10<sup>5</sup>-10<sup>13</sup> particles per bunch) with many such bunches making up the entire beam
- Fortunately, statistical mechanics gives us well developed and highly suited tools for representing and understanding these large numbers of particles
- Particles lose their individuality and are instead represented by their distribution in phase space (position-momentum space)
- The evolution of such a phase space distribution in the ring can be studied and the behavior of the whole beam characterized



Visible synchrotron radiation at MAX IV





# From Single Particle to Beam (cont.)

- Two important consequences follow: collective effects & emittance
- Collective effects
  - beam particles interact with other beam particles (space charge, scattering) as well as beam surroundings (impedance) → beam instability, particle loss → need to avoid this (such effects usually limit maximum current that can stably be stored)
- Electron beam emittance
  - measure of electron beam phase space density directly related to brightness of the emitted synchrotron radiation
  - in order to create high-brightness photon sources, the ultimate goal is therefore to design for low-emittance beams of high current ("high-brightness electron beam")





# **Electron Beam Emittance in Storage Rings**

- Emittance in a ring is an equilibrium state that results primarily from two competing processes
  - *Recoil* during photon emission damps/reduces electron oscillations (radiation damping)
  - *Random energy loss* associated with photon emission induces/increases electron oscillations (quantum excitation)



- Small emittances (small phase space volume) therefore require large radiation damping and small quantum excitation
- It can be shown that in storage rings this is obtained by increasing synchrotron radiation losses and minimizing the "dispersion" (path difference between on- and off-energy electrons)





# The Quest for Lower and Lower Emittance Lattices







Achromat = section of magnetic lattice with zero dispersion at both ends

- Storage rings typically built from modular cells called "sectors"
- Sector is usually composed of arc (where most magnets are located) and straight sections to house insertion devices (IDs)
- Sector magnetic design is called lattice → most storage ring properties are determined by this magnetic lattice
- Latest ultra-low emittance lattice designs employ strong focusing lattices called "multi-bend achromats" (MBAs) where dispersion is focused to very lower values → "4th-generation storage rings" (such as ALS-U)





# **Ultralow Emittance & the Diffraction Limit**

- Scientific case for a light source defines target photon wavelength region (eg. UV, soft, tender, hard x-rays)
- Phase space area (emittance) occupied by a photon of wavelength  $\lambda$ is:  $\lambda/4\pi$  (ALS optimized for  $\approx 1$  keV photons [ $\lambda \approx 1.2$  nm]  $\rightarrow \approx 0.1$  nm rad emittance)
- When electron beam emittance in storage ring is smaller than singlephoton emittance → light source is "diffraction limited" (photons appear to emerge from point source)
- Example:
  - ALS electron beam emittance optimized over the years from ≈6 nm rad to ≈2 nm rad today
  - ALS-U emittance will reach ≈0.08 nm rad
    → diffraction limit achieved (by virtue of ambitious *multi-bend achromat* lattice design)



SOLEIL (Gif-sur-Yvette, France)





# **Ultralow Emittance & the Diffraction Limit (cont.)**



Achieving/surpassing diffraction limit → high transverse coherence





# **Optimizing the Photon Source**

- The battle to maximize photon brightness is fought on two fronts:
  - In the accelerator → optimizing the design to get high stored current and smallest emittances (as just discussed)
  - In the accelerator elements where synchrotron radiation is actually generated: dipole magnets and insertion devices (IDs)
    → This is what we'll discuss in the final part of this tutorial



NSLS-II (Brookhaven, NY)





### **Bending Magnet Sources & Radiation**

 Bend magnet spectrum is divided evenly (in power) at the critical frequency:

 $\omega_c = \frac{3c\gamma^3}{2\rho} \quad \bullet$ 

• This frequency corresponds to a **photon energy** we can express as a function of *electron beam energy* and *bend magnet field* alone:  $E_c [eV] = 665 E^2 [GeV] B [T]$ 

Bend Type	Beam Energy [GeV]	Bend Field [T]	Critical Energy [keV]
ALS	1.9	1.5	3.6
ALS superbends	1.9	5.0	12.0
ALS-U	2.0	0.86	2.3
ALS-U high- field bend	2.0	3.2	8.5







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# **Insertion Devices: Undulators & Wigglers**

- Arrays of alternating permanent magnets (invented) by *K. Halbach* at LBNL, 1981) → as if election beam traversed many small bending magnets and mitted synchrotron radiation at each
- Permanent magnet arrays installed on movable girders → by adjusting **magnetic gap** we modify the field at beam and therefore the properties of the emitted photons











# **Undulator Radiation**

- In a wiggler we get a lot of radiation in a broad bend magnet-like spectrum
- In an undulator
  - beam oscillates at much smaller amplitude → constructive interference between radiation emitted on different "wiggles" along device leads to discrete peaks in spectrum
  - we get "higher harmonics" because constructive interference satisfied for λ is obviously also satisfied for λ/N → undulators can emit high-energy photons (within narrow bandwidth) even in rings with low/medium beam energy

Fundamental 
$$\lambda = \lambda_u \cos \theta - ct_{\rm AC} \approx \frac{\lambda_u}{2\gamma_{\star}^2} \left(1 + \frac{K^2}{2} + \gamma^2 \theta^2\right)$$
 [1<sup>st</sup> harmonic]

the strength parameter K determines the wavelength of the peaks in the spectrum → K is adjusted by varying the gap in the undulator → wavelength-tunable device!







$$t_{\rm AC} = \frac{\lambda_u}{v} = \frac{\lambda_u}{c \left[1 - \frac{1}{2\gamma^2} \left(1 + \frac{K^2}{2}\right)\right]}$$
$$= \frac{\lambda_u q \tilde{B}}{2\pi m c}, \quad \tilde{B} = B_0 \cosh^{-1}\left(\pi \frac{g}{\lambda_u}\right)$$

K

Lorentz boost

# **Elliptically Polarizing Undulators (EPUs)**

- Permanent magnet arrays are split and can be mechanically shifted (in the longitudinal direction),
   → modifies plane of "wiggling" and thus the polarization of the emitted synchr. radiation
- EPUs allow for complete control of the polarization from linear (H, V, and inclined) to elliptical (incl. circular)



ALS EPU50 (1998





#### **Questions?**

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#### Zoom Poll

Besides electrons, which of the following is best suited as source of synchrotron radiation?

- A) Proton
- B) Baseball
- C) Positron
- D) Higgs Boson





#### Zoom Poll

Besides electrons, which of the following is best suited as source of synchrotron radiation?

- A) Proton
- B) Baseball
- C) Positron
- D) Higgs Boson
- →C) is a suitable source of SR. Most light sources rely on electrons. But there are notable exceptions that use positrons (eg. PETRA III).





