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This is the second of two volumes published in conjunction with the Halbach Symposium on Magnet Technology held at Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory on February 3, 1995, in honor of Klaus Halbach's 70th birthday. Volume 1 (LBL PUB 754), A Festschrift in Honor of Klaus Halbach, contains technical papers and personal remembrances written by Dr. Halbach's colleagues expressly for the Halbach Symposium and dedicated to him.

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## **VOLUME 2**

# The Art and Science of Magnet Design **Selected Notes of Klaus Halbach**

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February 1995 Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory University of California Berkeley, CA 94720

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Prepared for the U.S. Department of Energy under Contract DE-AC03-76SF00098

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## Preface

This volume contains a compilation of 57 notes written by Dr. Klaus Halbach selected from his collection of over 1650 such documents. It provides an historic snapshot of the evolution of magnet technology and related fields as the notes range from as early as 1965 to the present, and is intended to show the breadth of Dr. Halbach's interest and ability that have long been an inspiration to his many friends and colleagues.

As Halbach is an experimental physicist whose scientific interests span many areas, and who does his most innovative work with pencil and paper rather than at the workbench or with a computer, the vast majority of the notes in this volume were handwritten and their content varies greatly—some reflect original work or work for a specific project, while others are mere clarifications of mathematical calculations or design specifications. As we converted the notes to electronic form, some were superficially edited and corrected, while others were extensively re-written to reflect current knowledge and notation.

The notes are organized under five categories which reflect their primary content: Beam Position Monitors (bpm), Current Sheet Electron Magnets (csem), Magnet Theory (thry), Undulators and Wigglers (u-w), and Miscellaneous (misc). Within the category, they are presented chronologically starting from the most recent note and working backwards in time. The note number, listed in the Table of Contents and at the bottom of each note's first page, comes from a database we have created which includes the titles of the entire collection of notes, and a recently added sixth category, Conformal Transformations (ctr). The appendixes contain a table of all the notes in the database and a list of Dr. Halbach's publications.

The extensive use of hand-written notes by Dr. Halbach leads us to believe that there may be many that were sent to colleagues which were not retained in Dr. Halbach's files, and thus are missing from the database. If you happen to have a note of scientific interest from Dr. Halbach and believe it to be an original, we would appreciate receiving a copy.

Brian M. Kincaid Simonetta Turek November 1994

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## Table of Contents

Halbach Geometries		ix
Beam Position Monitors		
Exact, Complete Proofs of Reciprocity Theorems for Electrostatic and Magnetostatic Beam Monitors	0022bpm	1
Current Sheet Electron Magnets		
Integral for Excess Flux Calculation	0336csem	5
H* at End of CSEM Block	0335csem	9
Summary of Excess Flux Formulae for Gm3, Gm18, and Gm40	0332csem	11
Anti-Symmetric Undulator to Make Vertically Polarized or Circularly Polarized Light	0208csem	15
Hybrid Undulator with Superimposed Quadrupole Field	0187csem	19
Excess Flux into Gm13	0183csem	23
Flux Distribution Symmetry Theorem	0143csem	27
Stored Energy in CSEM	0142csem	29
Earnshaw's Theorem for Non-Permeable Material	0076csem	31
Harmonics Produced by Rectangular REC Block	0059csem	33
A Possible REC Undulator for SSRL	0038csem	35
Miscellaneous		
A Simple Derivation of the Lorentz Transformation Without Talking about Light	0287misc	39
Dimensional Analysis of Trajectory of Non-Relativistic Charged Particles in Stationary Electric and Magnetic Fields	0278misc	43
Analog Integrator Dynamics	0267misc	47
Local Interpolation with Continuous Function and its First N Derivatives	0177misc	49
Linear Least Squares with Erroneous Matrix	0038misc	53
Matrix Describing Second Order Effects to Second Order in One Dimension	0006misc	55

v

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',

50

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## Theory

•		
Curvature of 2D Magnetic Field Lines and Scalar Potential Lines	0611thry	59
Fringe Field Model Function for Dipoles	0610thry	63
Comments about RAYTRACE	0609thry	65
Stored Energy in H-Magnet for $\mu = \infty$	0607thry	69
H-Magnet with Minimal Yoke Flux Density	0606thry	73
Dipole with Small Gap Bypass	0591thry	75
Boundary Condition at Iron-Air Interface for AC and Application to 2-Dimensional Cylinder	0492thry	77
Flux into a Rectangular Box	0491thry	81
Propagation of Fast Perturbation in Dipole	0489thry	83
Description of the Properties of an Ellipse	0476thry	87
Characterization of Dipole Fringe Fields with Field Integrals	0438thry	91
Penetration of Solenoidal Field through Conducting Shell	0437thry	95
Rogowski Dipole	0397thry	99
Rogowski Quadrupole: Formulation of Problem	0326thry	101
Eddy Currents for Fast Permanent Magnet Magnetization	0264thry	103
Change of Determinant for Small Changes of One Element of the Matrix that Describes a System that is Least Squares Optimized with Restraints and has Least Squares Limitations on Parameters	0072thry	109
Sensitivity of Solution of Linear Equations to Change of an Individual Matrix Element	0071thry	111
Fourier Analysis of Numerical Data	0059thry	113
Curvature of Field Lines in a Quadrupole	0009thry	117
Skin Effect in Fe	0007thry	119
Magnetic Field Energy Calculations	0006thry	125

ŝ

## Undulator-Wiggler

	Scalar Potential for 3D Fields in "Business Region" of Insertion Device with Finite Width Poles	0144u-w	129
	Magnetic Measurement and Data Reduction to Identify Some Specific Error Field Consequences	0142u-w	133
	Least Square Fit of $f(z)$ with $a + bz$ in $0 \le z \le 1$	0141u-w	141
	Normalizations Factors $\mathcal{E}_1$ and $\mathcal{E}_2$ for Comparison of First and Second Order Phase Shifts, with Analytical Model of $b(z)$	0140u-w	143
	Comparison of First and Second Order Contributions of Error Fields to Phase Shift	0139u-w .	147
	Connection Between Undulator Field Errors and Optical Phase	0138u-w	149
	$\rho$ , $A_0/B_1$ for Hybrid Insertion Device	0137u-w	151
	Simple Analytical Model for Fields from One Pole of Hybrid Insertion Device	0136u-w	153
	Wiggler Parameter K Definitions	0135u-w	157
	NPOLE	0134u-w	159
	Error of Flux Calculation for Finite Pole Width with Excess Flux Coefficient	0133u-w	169
	Excess Flux into Pole and Flux into Side of Gm40	0131u-w	175
	Flux Transport along Axial Direction of Electro-Magnetic Wiggler	0129u-w	179
	3D Scalar Potential for Saturation-Caused Fields in the Insertion Device	0125u-w	187
	Scalar Potential for 3D Insertion Device Fields	0124u-w	189
	Gradient Measurement in Insertion Device	0120u-w	191
	Undulator Trajectory and Radiation	0101u-w	193
	Mathematical Representation of Undulator and Wiggler Fields	0055u-w	195
Арреі	ndix A - Publications of Klaus Halbach		A-1
Apper	ndix B - Notes of Klaus Halbach		<b>B-</b> 1

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vii

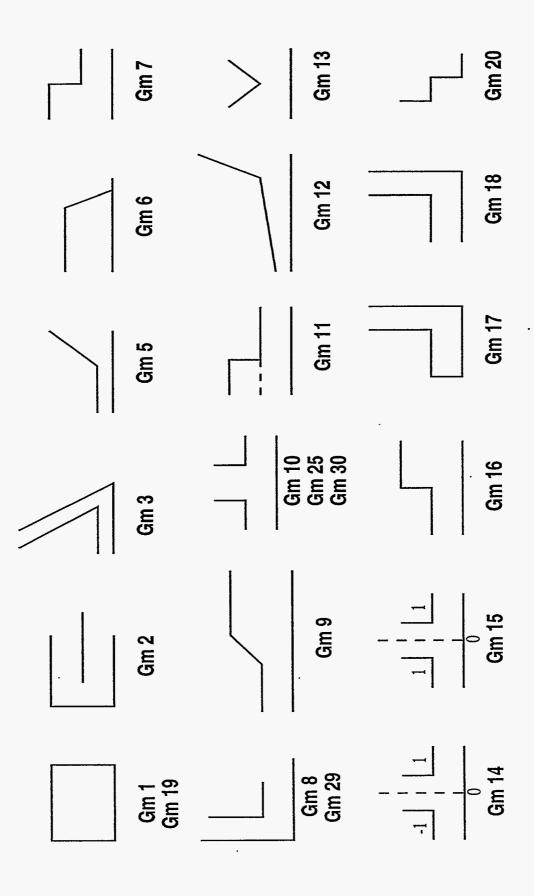
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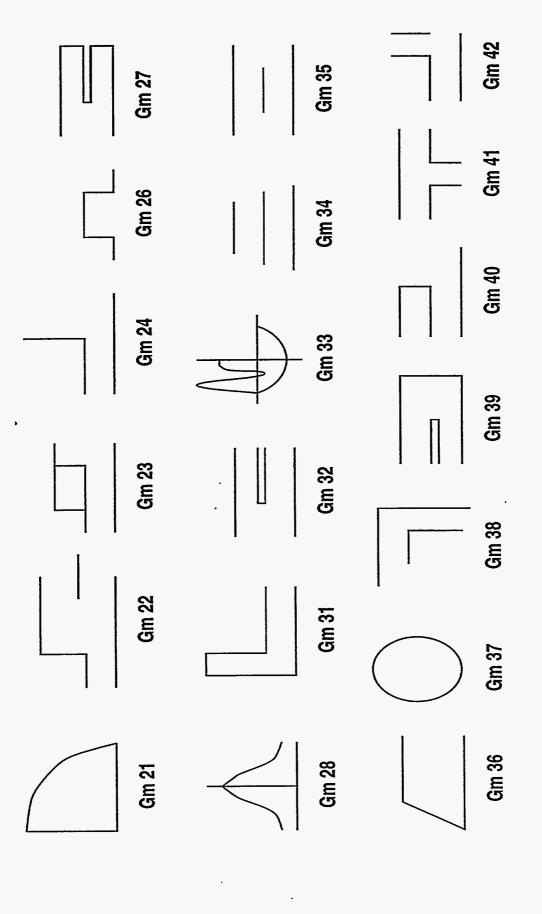
#### Halbach Geometries

The Halbach Geometries, referred to in the notes as Gm, are a collection of simple geometric shapes, simple function representations, and 2-dimensional electromagnetic geometries for which conformal mapping calculations have been done to compute basic features such as capacitance, excess flux, etc. For examples of calculations of excess flux, see documents 0336csem (p. 5), 0332csem (p. 11), 0183csem (p. 23), and 0131u-w (p. 175).

The following two pages summarize Dr. Halbach's representations and shorthand notations of his "Geometries." The reader is encouraged to refer back to them when encountering such abbreviations as Gm3 or Gm21 while reading the notes. (Note: Not all the Halbach Geometries are referenced in this collection.)



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#### Exact, Complete Proofs of Reciprocity Theorems for Electrostatic and Magnetostatic Beam Monitors

The following is an excercise in Maxwell's equations in a region that is bounded by perfect metal walls and contains nothing but moving electric charges.

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{j} + \dot{\mathbf{D}} \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{H} = 0,$$
 (1.1), (1.2)

where j comes from the moving charges represented by charge density  $\rho(x, y, z, t)$  in the beam, and

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\dot{\mathbf{B}}$$
 and  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \varrho$ , (2.1), (2.2)

We integrate all equations over time, starting before the front-end wake fields begin, and ending after the end wake fields and RF are gone.

$$\int \dot{\mathbf{D}} dt = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \int \dot{\mathbf{B}} dt = 0,$$
  
$$\nabla \times \mathcal{H} = \mathbf{J} \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla \cdot \mathcal{H} = 0, \qquad (3,1), (3.2)$$

 $\nabla \times \mathcal{V} = 0$  and  $\nabla \cdot \mathcal{V} = R.$  (4,1),(4.2)

The new symbols stand for integrals over time at every x, y, z.

#### Electrostatic Pick-up.

The beam with R produces  $V_1(x, y, z)$ , with  $V_1 = 0$  on wall everywhere, including on the electrode. An electrode on  $V_{20}$  produces  $V_2(x, y, z)$ , with  $V_2 = 0$  on wall except on the electrode<sup>\*</sup>.

Using (4.1) and (4.2) we notice that  $V_2$  is the actual potential and  $V_1$  is the integrated potential over time. With  $\mathcal{H} = -\Delta V$ ,

$$U = \int \nabla \cdot (V_1 \nabla V_2 - V_2 \nabla V_1) \, dv$$
  
=  $\int \left( V_1 \underbrace{\nabla \cdot \nabla V_2}_{0} - V_2 \underbrace{\nabla \cdot \nabla V_1}_{-R} \right) \, dv$   
=  $\int V_2 R dv.$ 

December, 1986. Note 0022bpm.

<u>ابر:</u>

<sup>\*</sup> For subscript 2, the quantities are not averaged over time but are time independent, as are all time integrated quantities.

But it is also true that, for the charge  $q_e$ ,

$$U = \int (V_1 \nabla V_2 - V_2 \nabla V_1) \cdot d\mathbf{a} = V_{20} \cdot Q \quad \text{with} \quad Q = \int q_e dt,$$

induced by electrons on electrode.

The total charge in the bunch,  $Q_B$ , is related to  $\rho(x, y, z, t)$  through

$$\int \varrho dt da = Q_B/v,$$

$$\int Rv da = \int \varrho dt v da = \int Q'_B da,$$

$$Q \cdot V_{20} = \frac{1}{v} \int V_2 Q'_B dv = \boxed{\frac{1}{v} \int Q_B V_2 dz},$$

where  $Q'_B$  is independent of z, and is the charge going through area da, divided by da. The units for  $[Q_B] = A$  sec, and  $[Q] = A \sec^2$ .

#### Magnetostatic Pick-up.

We use (3.1) and (3.2). The beam with **J** produces  $A_1(x, y, z)$ , and  $\mathcal{H}_1(x, y, z)$ . In the coil, the flux from **J** integrated over t is

$$\Phi_2 = \int \mu_0 \mathcal{H}_1 \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \int \nabla \times \mathbf{A}_1 \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \mu_0 \oint \mathbf{A}_1 \cdot d\mathbf{s}.$$

In addition, we use a coil with a current,  $I_2$ , that produces  $A_2(x, y, z)$ ,  $\mathcal{H}_2(x, y, z)$ . We now use, equivalently to the electrostatic case,

$$U = \int \nabla \cdot (\mathbf{A}_1 \times \mathcal{H}_2 - \mathbf{A}_2 \times \mathcal{H}_1) \, dv,$$

where  $A_1$  is the integrated vector potential, and  $A_2$  is the actual potential associated with  $I_2$ .

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A}_1 \times \mathcal{H}_2 = \mathcal{H}_2 \cdot \nabla \times \mathbf{A}_1 - \mathbf{A}_1 \cdot \nabla \times \mathcal{H}_2 = \mathcal{H}_2 \cdot \mathcal{H}_1 - \mathbf{A}_1 \cdot \mathbf{J}_2,$$

thus,

$$U = \int \left( \mathbf{A}_2 \cdot \mathbf{J}_1 - \mathbf{A}_1 \cdot \mathbf{J}_2 \right) dv.$$

With

$$\mathbf{J}_1 = J_1 \mathbf{e}_z$$
 and  $\int J_1 da = \int j_1 da dt = Q_B$ ,

we get

$$\int \mathbf{A}_2 \cdot \mathbf{J}_1 dv = Q_B \cdot \int A_{2z} dz,$$
$$\int \mathbf{A}_1 \cdot \mathbf{J}_2 dv = I_2 \int \mathbf{A}_1 \cdot d\mathbf{s} = I_2 \Phi_2 / \mu_0,$$

and get

$$U = Q_B \cdot \int A_{2z} dz - I_2 \Phi_2 / \mu_0 = \int \left( \mathbf{A}_1 \times \mathcal{H}_2 - \mathbf{A}_2 \times \mathcal{H}_1 \right) \cdot d\mathbf{a}$$

with the last integral taken over the "superconducting" wall. In the vicinity of the wall we use  $\mathcal{H} = -\nabla V$ . Thus,

$$U = \int \left( \mathbf{A}_2 \times \nabla V_1 - \mathbf{A}_1 \times \nabla V_2 \right) \cdot d\mathbf{a}.$$

In general,  $\nabla \times (V_1 \mathbf{A}_2) = V_1 \nabla \times \mathbf{A}_2 - \mathbf{A}_2 \times \nabla V_1$ , thus

$$U = \int (V_1 \nabla \times \mathbf{A}_2 - V_2 \nabla \times \mathbf{A}_1) \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \int (V_1 \mathcal{H}_2 - V_2 \mathcal{H}_1) \cdot d\mathbf{a} = 0.$$

The last integral vanishes because on the superconducting wall the component of  $\mathcal{H}$  perpendicular to the wall (i.e. parallel to da) is zero. We therefore get

$$\Phi_2 = \mu_0 Q_B \int A_{2z} dz / I_2.$$

The units are  $[\Phi_2] = \mu_0 A$  m sec,  $[\mathbf{A}_2] = A$ ,  $[\mu_0 Q_B \int A_{2z} dz/I_2] = \mu_0 A$  m sec. It is important to notice that  $\Phi_2$  is the integrated flux, and the flux is the integrated induced voltage.

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## Integral for Excess Flux Calculation

$$J = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \underbrace{\frac{f(t)}{(t-t_1)^{n_1}(t_3-t)^{n_3}}}_{G} dt$$

We have shown in an earlier note that for  $n_1 = n_3 = 1/2$ ,

$$J = 3 \int_{-1}^{1} \frac{f(t)}{\sqrt{4 - x^2}} dx, \quad t = \frac{1}{4} (2(t_2 + t_1) + (t_2 - t_1)x(3 - x^2)).$$

For  $n_1, n_3 \neq 1/2$ , the approach that gave the above equation becomes very complicated, especially if one wants to have generally valid and simple integration. For the general case, we use (arbitrarily, for simplicity)

$$t_2 = 1/2(t_3 + t_1)$$
 and  $J = J_1 + J_3$ 

where

$$J_1 = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} G(t) dt$$
 and  $J_3 = \int_{t_2}^{t_3} G(t) dt$ ,

We solve for  $J_1$ :

$$A dx = (t - t_1)^{-n_1}, \quad Ax = \frac{(t - t_1)^{m_1}}{m_1} \text{ and } A = \frac{(t_2 - t_1)^{m_1}}{m_1} \text{ when } x(t_2) = 1,$$

with

$$m_1 = 1 - n_1 \quad p_1 = \frac{1}{m_1}$$
  
$$t = t_1 + (t_2 - t_1)x^{p_1}, \qquad t_3 - t = (t_2 - t_1)(2 - x^{p_1}).$$

Thus,

$$J_{1} = \frac{(t_{2} - t_{1})^{m_{1}}}{m1(t_{2} - t_{1})^{n_{3}}} \int_{0}^{1} \frac{f(t)}{(2 - x^{p_{1}})^{n_{3}}} dx$$
$$= \boxed{\frac{(t_{2} - t_{1})^{1 - n_{1} - n_{3}}}{1 - n_{1}} \int_{0}^{1} \frac{f(t)}{(2 - x^{p_{1}})^{n_{3}}} dx}.$$

June, 1993. Note 0336csem.

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Equivalently, solving for  $J_3$ :

$$-B dx = (t_3 - t)^{n_3} dt, \quad Bx = \frac{(t_3 - t)^{m_3}}{m_3} \text{ and } B = \frac{(t_2 - t_1)^{m_3}}{m_3},$$

$$t = t_3 - (t_2 - t_1)x^{p_3}$$
  $t - t_1 = (t_2 - t_1)(2 - x^{p_3}).$ 

Thus,

$$J_3 = \frac{(t_2 - t_1)^{1 - n_1 - n_3}}{1 - n_3} \int_0^1 \frac{f(t)dx}{(2 - x^{p_3})^{n_1}}.$$

We may now now conclude that

$$J = \int_{t_1}^{t_3} \frac{f(t)}{(t-t_1)^{n_1}(t_3-t)^{n_3}} dt$$
$$= \left[ (t_2-t_1)^{1-n_1-n_3} \left\{ \int_0^1 \frac{f(t_1+\Delta tx^{\frac{1}{1-n_1}}) dx}{(2-x^{\frac{1}{1-n_1}})^{n_3}(1-n_1)} + \int_0^1 \frac{f(t_3-\Delta tx^{\frac{1}{1-n_3}}) dx}{(2-x^{\frac{1}{1-n_3}})^{n_1}(1-n_3)} \right\}.$$

We examine a specific case of excess flux in the pole in the geometry of Figure 1,

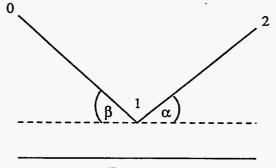


Figure 1.

where,

$$\pi E_{12} = \frac{1}{n_1} \ln((n_1 + n_2)I_1),$$

$$n_1 = \frac{lpha}{\pi}$$
 and  $n_2 = \frac{eta}{\pi}$ ,

$$I_{1} = \int_{0}^{1} \frac{dt}{t^{n_{1}}(1-t)^{1-(n_{1}+n_{2})}}$$
$$= \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n_{2}} \left\{\frac{1}{1-n_{1}}\int_{0}^{1} \frac{dx}{\left(2-x^{\frac{1}{1-n_{1}}}\right)^{1-(n_{1}+n_{2})}} + \frac{1}{n_{1}+n_{2}}\int_{0}^{1} \frac{dx}{\left(2-x^{\frac{1}{n_{1}+n_{2}}}\right)^{n_{1}}}\right\}.$$

We may conclude that  $I_2 = (I_1)_{n_1 \Leftrightarrow n_2}$ . Further, the expression  $I_1 \frac{\sin \alpha}{\alpha} = I_2 \frac{\sin \beta}{\beta}$  should be true. This is a non-trivial assertion and comes from a derivation of the expression for  $E_{12}$  in an earlier note.

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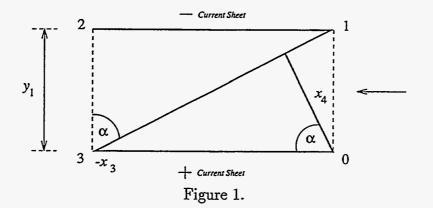
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### $H^*$ at End of CSEM Block



$$H^*(z) = \frac{I}{2\pi i} \cdot \frac{1}{z - z_0} \longrightarrow -\frac{I'}{2\pi i} \ln \frac{z}{z + x_3} \cdot \frac{z - z_2}{z - z_1}.$$

In the vicinity of z = 0,

$$H^* = -\frac{H_c}{2\pi i} \ln \frac{z \, z_2}{z_1 x_3},$$

where

$$\frac{z_1 x_3}{z_2} = \frac{i y_1 x_3}{i y_1 - x_3} = \frac{y_1 x_3}{y_1 + i x_3} = \frac{x_3}{1 + i x_3 / y_1} = x_4 e^{-i\alpha},$$
$$x_4 = \frac{x_3}{\sqrt{1 + x_3^2 / y_1^2}} = x_3 \cos \alpha \quad \text{and} \quad z = r e^{i\varphi}.$$

Thus,

$$H^* = -\frac{H_c}{2\pi i} \ln \frac{r e^{i(\varphi + \alpha)}}{x_4} = -\frac{H_c}{2\pi i} \left(\varphi + \alpha + i \ln \frac{x_4}{r}\right) \,.$$

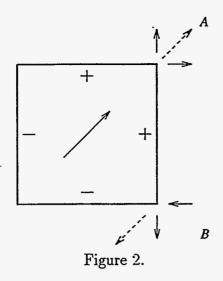
Field "blows up" at r = 0. Thus, for scaling purposes, at location where  $\ln \frac{x_4}{r} = 2\pi$ ,  $r = x_4 e^{-2\pi} = x_4 \cdot 1.9 \times 10^{-3}$ .

There is a strong local field perpendicular to the "current sheet side", which is not problematic when easy axis is parallel to the "current sheet side". It is easier to see with charge sheet, and it leads to the same answer.

Interesting damage results for block not magnetized in either a perpendicular or parallel direction to the sides.

May, 1993. Note 0335csem.

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No damage will result in corner A, but there is a potential of demagnetization at corner B, and at symmetrically located corners.

#### Summary of Excess Flux Formulae for Gm3, Gm18 and Gm40

Unless otherwise noted, the following definitions hold for all geometries in this Note

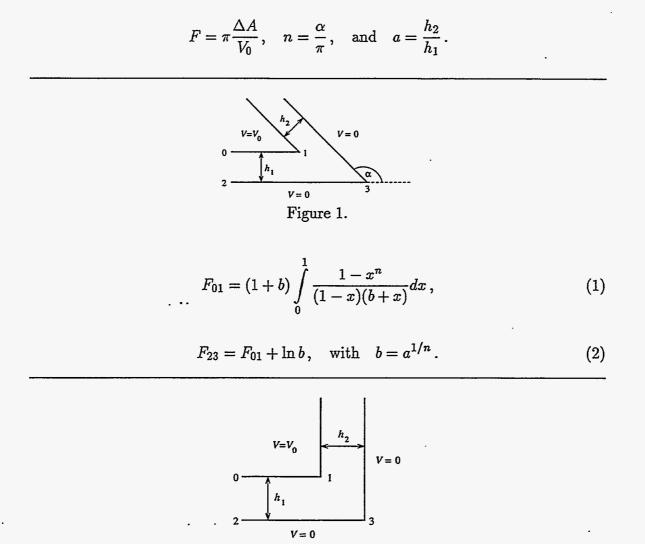


Figure 2.

For Figures 2, 3, and 4 (Gm18 and Gm40)  $\alpha = \pi/2$ .

$$F_{01} = \ln \frac{1 + 1/a^2}{4} + 2a \arctan \frac{1}{a}, \qquad (3)$$

$$F_{23} = \ln \frac{1+a^2}{4} + 2a \arctan \frac{1}{a}, \qquad (4)$$

April, 1989. Note 0332csem.

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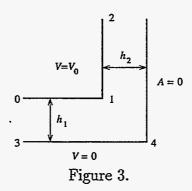
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We summarize here the the sum of excess fluxes for (1) and (3). For (1), we get

$$(F_{01}(a) + F_{01}(1/a)) = (1+b)^2 \int_0^1 \frac{(1-x^n)(1+x)}{(1-x)(b+x)(1+xb)} dx.$$
(1D)

And for (3), we have

$$(F_{01}(a) + F_{01}(1/a)) = 2 \ln \frac{a+1/a}{4} + 2a \arctan(1/a) + 2(1/a) \arctan a.$$
(3D)

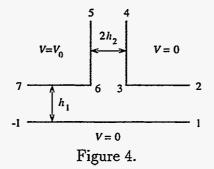


$$F_{34} = \ln(1+a^2) + 2a \arctan(1/a), \qquad (5)$$

$$F_{12} = 2\ln\left(a + \sqrt{1 + a^2}\right),$$
 (6)

$$F_{01} = F_{34} - F_{12} \,. \tag{7}$$

Continued on following page.



$$F_{-11} = \ln(1 + a^2) + 2a \arctan(1/a), \qquad (8)$$

$$F_{67} = \ln \frac{1+a^2}{2a\left(a+\sqrt{1+a^2}\right)} + 2a \arctan \frac{1}{a},$$
(9)

$$F_{56} = \ln \frac{\sqrt{1+a^2} \left(a + \sqrt{1+a^2}\right)}{2} + \frac{1}{a} \arctan a , \qquad (10)$$

$$F_{567} = \ln \frac{\left(\sqrt{1+a^2}\right)^3}{4a} + 2a \arctan \frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{a} \arctan a, \qquad (11)$$

$$F_{234} = \ln \frac{\sqrt{1+1/a^2}}{4} + \frac{1}{a} \arctan a \,. \tag{12}$$

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## Anti-Symmetric Undulator to Make Vertically Polarized or Circularly Polarized Light

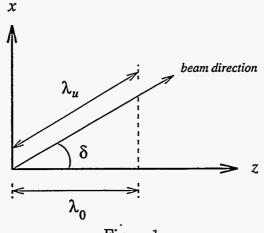


Figure 1.

We have

$$-V = \frac{B_0}{k_0} \sin k_0 z \cosh k_0 y, \tag{1}$$

with fields anti-symmetric to the midplane y = 0.

$$B_z = B_0 \cosh k_0 y \cos k_0 z \quad \text{and} \quad B_y = B_0 \sinh k_0 y \sin k_0 z \tag{2}$$

in direction  $\delta$  relative to the z-axis.

$$\lambda_u = \lambda_0 / \cos \delta, \tag{3.1}$$

$$B_{\perp} = \underbrace{B_0 \cosh k_0 y \sin \delta}_{B_2} \cos k_0 z, \qquad (3.2)$$

$$B_y = \underbrace{B_0 \sinh k_0 y}_{B_1} \sin k_0 z. \tag{3.3}$$

Linearly Polarized Light.

Let 
$$y = 0, B_y = 0,$$
  
$$B_2 = \sin \delta B_0 = \sin \delta B_0 \left( \frac{g}{\lambda_x} \cdot \frac{1}{\cos \delta} \right).$$
(4)

By the above  $B_0$  is indicated the achievable  $B_0$  as a function of  $g/\lambda_0$ , where  $\lambda_0$  is the period in the z-direction, and g is the magnet gap.

October, 1984. Note 0208csem.

To have a better understanding, we look at the pure CSEM undulator:

$$B_0 = B_3 e^{-\pi g/\lambda_0},$$

with  $B_3$  equal to the product of  $2B_r$ , the segmentation factor and the finite height factor.

$$B_2 = B_3 \sin \delta e^{-a/\cos \delta}, \quad \text{with} \quad a = \pi g/\lambda_u. \tag{5.1}$$

We optimize with  $\delta$  for given  $g/\lambda_u$ . With  $B'_2 = 0$ ,

$$\cos\delta - a\tan^2\delta = 0.$$

Instead of solving for given a, we make a table of  $a vs. \delta$ .

$$a = \frac{\cos^3 \delta}{\sin^2 \delta},\tag{5.2}$$

$$B_2 = B_3 \sin \delta e^{-\cot^2 \delta} = B_3 y. \tag{5.3}$$

Compared to a "normal" undulator:

$$B_{2n} = B_3 e^{-a} = B_3 e^{-\cos\delta/\tan^2\delta} = B_3 y, \tag{5.4}$$

$$\frac{B_2}{B_{2n}} = \sin \delta e^{-\cot^2 \delta} e^{\cos \delta \cot^2 \delta} = \frac{y}{y_o},\tag{5.5}$$

δ	$g/\lambda_u$	y	$y/y_0$
30.00	0.83	0.02	0.33
35.00	0.53	0.07	0.40
40.00	0.35	0.16	0.46
45.00	0.23	0.26	0.53
50.00	0.14	0.38	0.60
55.00	0.09	0.50	0.66
60.00	0.05	0.62	0.73

Table 1.

#### Circularly Polarized Light.

We set  $y = y_1$ , and  $k_0y_1 = \beta$ . From (3.2) and (3.3), we see we need to satisfy  $\cosh\beta\sin\delta = \sinh\beta$  for the helical undulator action, thus

$$\sin \delta = \tanh \beta, \tag{6.1}$$

or

$$\cos \delta = \sqrt{1 - \tanh^2 \beta} = 1/\cosh \beta, \tag{6.2}$$

or

$$\tan \delta = \sinh \beta, \tag{6.3}$$

$$B_u = B_0 \sinh \beta = B_0 \tan \delta = B_0 \left(\frac{g/\lambda_u}{\cos \delta}\right) \tan \delta.$$
(7)

We assess the reasonableness and feasability of the above analysis. Clearly,

$$\varepsilon = \frac{2y_1}{g} \tag{8.1}$$

is an important parameter.

$$\beta = \frac{2\pi y_1}{\lambda_0} = \frac{2y_1}{g} \cdot \pi \cdot \frac{g}{\lambda_u \cos \delta},$$

and for  $p = g/\lambda_u$ ,

$$\beta = \varepsilon p \frac{\pi}{\cos \delta} = \varepsilon \frac{a}{\cos \delta},\tag{8.2}$$

$$\varepsilon = \frac{\beta \cos \delta}{a}.\tag{8.3}$$

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The indicated procedure is as follows. Given  $p = g/\lambda_u$  and  $B_0(g/\lambda_0) = B_0(p/\cos \delta)$ , we optimize  $B_u$  with  $\delta$  and get  $\varepsilon$  from (8.3).

For a pure REC undulator,

(1.3) (1.3)

$$B_0 = B_3 e^{-a/\cos\delta}$$
 with  $a = \pi g/\lambda_u = \pi p$ ,  
 $B_u = B_3 \tan\delta \cdot e^{-a/\cos\delta}$ .

With  $B'_u = 0$ ,

$$\frac{1}{\cos^2\delta} - a\tan\delta \cdot \frac{\sin\delta}{\cos^2\delta} = 0,$$

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$$a\frac{\sin^2 \delta}{\cos \delta} = a\frac{1-\cos^2 \delta}{\cos \delta} = 1,$$

$$\cos \delta = -\frac{1}{2a} + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4a^2} + 1}.$$
(9.1)

For  $\cosh\beta = 1/\cos\delta$ ,

$$\beta = \ln\left(\sqrt{\cosh^2\beta - 1} + \cosh\beta\right).$$
(9.2)

$$\varepsilon = \beta \cos \frac{\delta}{a}.$$
(9.3)

$$\frac{B_u}{B_3} = \tan \delta \cdot e^{-a/\cos \delta}.$$
(9.4)

For extreme "legal"  $\varepsilon = 1$ :

$$\beta \cos \frac{\delta}{a} = \sin^2 \delta \cdot \beta = \sin^2 \delta \cdot \ln \left( \sqrt{1 + \tan^2 \delta} + \tan \delta \right) = \sin^2 \delta \cdot \ln \frac{1 + \sin \delta}{\cos \delta},$$
  
 $\beta = 60.27^{\circ}, \quad g/\lambda_u = .21, \quad \text{and} \quad B_u/B_3 = .46.$ 

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## Hybrid Undulator with Superimposed Quadrupole Field

With the electron beam in the z-direction, and the midplane the xz-plane, the normal undulator fields can be described by

$$B_z = iB_y = B_1^* = iF_1' = iB_1 \cos k(z + iy).$$

For the complex potential  $F_1 = A_1 + V_1$ , with  $A_1$  and  $V_1$  the vector and scalar potentials respectively, it follows that

$$F_1 = \frac{B_1}{k} \sin k(z+iy)$$
 and  $V_1 = \frac{B_1}{k} \cos kz \sinh ky.$ 

The desired normal quadrupole fields are given by

$$B_0^* = iF_0' = iB_0'z$$
  $F_0 = \frac{1}{2}B_0'z^2$ , and  $V_0 = B_0'xy$ .

For the scalar potential and the combined undulator and quadrupole fields, we therefore have

$$V = V_1 + V_0 = \frac{B_1}{k} \cos kz \sinh ky + B'_0 xy.$$

Setting this equal to a constant gives the associated surface of a pole made with infinitely permeable material. With  $y_0$  the half-gap of the pole at z = x = 0,

$$0 = \cos kz \sinh ky - \sinh ky_0 + \frac{B'_0}{kB_1}kxky.$$

With the following substitutions:

$$a = \cos kz$$
,  $\mathcal{E} = \frac{B'_0}{kB_1}$ ,  $u = kx$ , and  $v = ky$ ,

we arrive at the following equation for the ideal 3D pole:

$$a \sinh v - \sinh v_0 + \mathcal{E}uv = G = 0.$$

To understand what this means, we look at some derived quantities:

$$y' = \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{G'_x}{G'_y} = -\frac{G'_u}{G'_v} = -\frac{\mathcal{E}v}{a\cosh v + \mathcal{E}u}$$

January, 1984. Note 0187csem.

is the slope of the pole in the xy-plane. For x = z = 0 it is reduced to

$$y_0' = -\frac{B_0' y_0 / B_1}{\cosh v_0} = -\frac{\mathcal{E} v_0}{\cosh v_0}.$$

Looking at the slope just above the axis of the system, i.e. for x = 0,

$$a \sinh v_1 = \sinh v_0,$$

and

$$y' = -\frac{\mathcal{E}v_1}{a\cosh v_1},$$

where the subscript 1 refers to the case of x = 0 and z equal to anything. For z = 0 this reduces to

$$y' = -\frac{B_0' y_0/B_1}{\cosh v_0} = -\frac{\mathcal{E}v_0}{\cosh v_0}$$

Eliminating  $a = \cos kz$  gives

$$y' = -\mathcal{E}v_1 rac{ anh v_1}{\sinh v_0}.$$

For the curvature of the pole in the xy-plane we need

$$\begin{split} y'' &= \frac{\partial y'}{\partial x} + \frac{dy}{dx} \cdot \frac{\partial y'}{\partial y} \\ &= k \left( \frac{\partial y'}{\partial u} + y' \frac{\partial y'}{\partial v} \right) \\ &= k \left( \frac{\mathcal{E}^2 v}{(a \cosh v + \mathcal{E}u)^2} + \frac{\mathcal{E}^2 v}{(a \cosh v + \mathcal{E}u)} \cdot \frac{a \cosh v + \mathcal{E}u - av \sinh v}{(a \cosh v + \mathcal{E}u)^2} \right). \end{split}$$

For u = 0, this reduces to

$$y'' = \frac{k\mathcal{E}^2 v_1 a}{a^3 \cosh^3 v_1} (2 \cosh v_1 - v_1 \sinh v_1)$$
  
=  $\mathcal{E}^2 k \frac{v_1 \tanh^2 v_1}{\sinh^2 v_0} (2 - v_1 \tanh v_1).$ 

We let  $|y'| \ll 1$ , and therefore  $\sqrt{1+(y')^2}^3 \approx 1$ . With radius of curvature R, we get

$$\frac{1}{k\mathcal{E}^2} \cdot \frac{\sinh^2 v_0}{v_1 \tanh^2 v_1 (2 - v_1 \tanh v_1)} = \left[ R = \frac{y_0}{\mathcal{E}^2} \cdot \frac{\sinh^2 v_0}{v_0 v_1 \tanh^2 v_1 (2 - v_1 \tanh v_1)}, \right]$$

For  $v_1 = v_0$ , and  $y'_0 = -\mathcal{E}v_0/\cosh v_0$ :

$$R_0 = \frac{y_0}{\mathcal{E}^2} \cdot \frac{\cosh^2 v_0}{v_0^2 (2 - v_0 \tanh v_0)} = \frac{y_0}{(y_0')^2} \cdot \frac{1}{v_0^2 (2 - v_0 \tanh v_0)}.$$

We make the following assignments:

$$rac{1}{k\mathcal{E}^2} = rac{kB_1^2}{(B_0')^2} = y_0 rac{B_1^2}{y_0^2(B_0')^2} v_0 \quad ext{and} \quad b = rac{B_1^2}{y_0^2(B_0')^2},$$

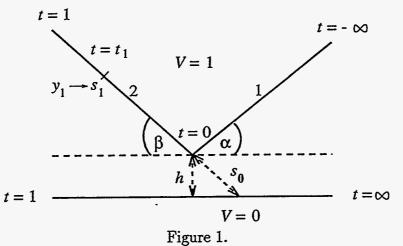
and re-write

$$R = y_0 b \cdot \frac{v_0}{v_1} \cdot \frac{\sinh^2 v_0}{\tanh^2 v_1 (2 - v_1 \tanh v_1)},$$

where for  $2 - v \tanh v = 0, v = \frac{2\pi y}{\lambda} = 2.0653.$ 

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## Excess Flux into Gm13



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For the above graph,

$$rac{lpha}{\pi} = n_1\,, \quad rac{eta}{\pi} = n_2^{\,\cdot}\,, \quad ext{and} \quad n_1 + n_2 = n_3\,.$$

The conformal map is described by

$$\dot{z} = a rac{t^{n_3}}{\left(t-1\right)^{1+n_2}}, \quad a \in \Re.$$

From

$$\pi \dot{F} = \frac{1}{t-1}$$
 follows  $\pi F = \ln(t-1)$ .

We describe the flux into surface 2 of Figure 1 as

$$\Phi_2 = -\frac{1}{\pi} \ln(1-t_1) = \int_{s_0}^{s_1} \frac{ds}{\beta s} + \Delta A_2.$$

Thus

$$\beta \Delta A_2 = -n_2 \ln(1 - t_1) - \ln\left(1 + \frac{s_1 - s_0}{s_0}\right)$$
$$= \ln \frac{(1 - t_1)^{-n_2}}{\left(1 + \frac{a}{s_0} \int_0^{t_1} \frac{t^{n_3} dt}{(1 - t)^{1 + n_2}}\right)}$$

September, 1983. Note 0183csem.

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and by l'Hôpital's Rule,

$$= \ln \frac{n_2(1-t_1)^{-n_2-1}}{\left(\frac{a}{s_0}t_1^{n_3}(1-t_1)^{-n_2-1}\right)}$$
$$= \ln \frac{n_2 s_0}{a},$$

and therefore

$$\Delta A_2 = \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left( \frac{h}{\pi} \frac{\beta}{a \sin \beta} \right) \,. \tag{1}$$

We need to calculate h/a, and we begin with

$$y_1 = h + a \sin \beta \int_0^{t_1} \frac{t^{n_3} dt}{(1-t)^{n_2+1}}.$$
 (2)

We now calculate  $y_1$  by going around the singularity at t = 1 on circle with  $\rho = \rho_1 = 1 - t_1$ , that is

$$t = 1 + \varrho_1 e^{i\varphi}$$
 and  $dt = i\varrho_1 e^{i\varphi} d\varphi$ ,

and thus

$$y_{1} = \Im i \varrho_{1} a \int_{0}^{\pi} \frac{(1+\varrho_{1}e^{i\varphi})^{n_{3}}}{\varrho_{1}^{1+n_{2}}e^{i\varphi(1+n_{2})}} e^{i\varphi} d\varphi$$
$$= \Im \frac{ia}{\varrho_{1}^{n_{2}}} \int_{0}^{\pi} (1+\varrho_{1}e^{i\varphi})^{n_{3}}e^{-in_{2}\varphi} d\varphi.$$

For  $\rho_1$  sufficiently small,

$$y_1 = \Im \frac{ia}{\varrho_1^{n_2}} \frac{e^{-in_2\pi} - 1}{-in_2} = \frac{a \sin \beta}{n_2 \varrho_1^{n_2}}.$$

Re-writing (2) with  $t = 1 - \rho$ 

$$y_1 = h + a \sin \beta \int_{\varrho_1}^1 \frac{(1-\varrho)^{n_3}}{\varrho^{n_2+1}} d\varrho = \frac{a \sin \beta}{n_2 \varrho_1^{n_2}}.$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{h}{a\sin\beta} &= \frac{1}{n_2 \varrho_1^{n_2}} - \int\limits_{\varrho_1}^1 \frac{(1-\varrho)^{n_3}}{\varrho^{n_2+1}} d\varrho \\ &= \frac{1}{n_2 \varrho_1^{n_2}} + \frac{(1-\varrho)^{n_3}}{n_2 \varrho^{n_2}} \bigg|_{\varrho_1}^1 + \frac{n_3}{n_2} \int\limits_{\varrho_1}^1 \frac{(1-\varrho)^{n_3-1}}{\varrho^{n_2}} d\varrho \,, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\frac{hn_2}{a\sin\beta} = \frac{h\beta}{\pi a\sin\beta} = n_3 I_2$$

where

$$I_2 = \int_0^1 \frac{dt}{t^{n_2}(1-t)^{1-n_3}} \quad \text{and} \quad I_1 = \int_0^1 \frac{dt}{t^{n_1}(1-t)^{1-n_3}}.$$

Therefore we may now summarize from (1) that

$$\Delta A_2 = \frac{1}{\beta} \ln(n_3 I_2) \,,$$

and equivalently

$$\Delta A_1 = \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln(n_3 I_1) \,.$$

Further, since

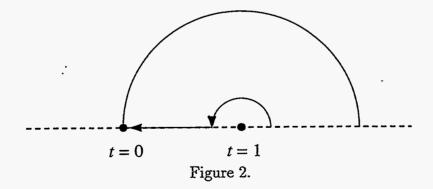
$$\frac{h}{\pi a} = n_3 I_2 \frac{\sin \beta}{\beta} = n_3 I_1 \frac{\sin \alpha}{\alpha},$$
$$\boxed{n_3 I_1 = n_3 I_2 \frac{\sin \beta/\beta}{\sin \alpha/\alpha}.}$$

A different way to look at what was done earlier:

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Since, clearly,  $h = \Im \int_{1+}^{0} \dot{z} dt$ , one may take a path from any point on the real *t*-axis to the right of t = 1 to t = 0.

In this note the path followed a  $\rho_1 \Rightarrow 0$  half-circle around t = 1, and then on axis to t = 0.

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### Flux Distribution Symmetry Theorem

Even though this case is the same as the electrostatic case, it is formulated for magnetic fields because of the application to CSEM in hybrid systems.

#### Theorem.

There are N bodies with  $\mu = \infty$ . The matrix M, which describes the relationship between potentials  $V_n$  on fluxes  $F_n$  leaving body n, is symmetrical, i.e.: F = MV,  $M^t = M$ . In this notation, the subscript 0 indicates the reference body on potential V = 0. Thus, the theorem states

$$M_{nm} = M_{mn}$$

#### Analysis.

Stored energy in the field is unique: it depends only on the initial state (we assume  $V_n = 0$ ) and the end state. By going from the initial to the end state by bringing bodies in any sequence from  $V_n = 0$  to the final  $V_n$ , and doing so by moving magnetic charges from infinity, we get

$$\mathcal{E} = \int V^t dF = \int V^t M dV.$$

 $\mathcal{E}$  must be independent of sequence in which this is done: the right hand side must be a complete differential leading to  $M_{nm} = M_{mn}$ . We show this explicitly for  $V_1, V_2$ and all other  $V_n = 0$ :

$$\mathcal{E} = \int (V_1 \quad V_2) \begin{pmatrix} M_{11}dV_1 - M_{12}dV_2 \\ -M_{21}dV_1 + M_{22}dV_2 \end{pmatrix}$$
  
=  $\int M_{11}V_1dV_1 + \int M_{22}V_2dV_2 - \underbrace{\int (M_{12}V_1dV_2 + M_{21}V_2dV_1)}_G.$ 

We simplify G by making the following substitutions:

$$M_{12} = S + D, \quad M_{21} = S - D, \quad \text{and} \quad S = \frac{1}{2}(M_{12} + M_{21}), \quad D = \frac{1}{2}(M_{12} - M_{21}),$$
$$G \stackrel{\cdot}{=} S \int \underbrace{(V_1 dV_2 + V_2 dV_1)}_{(a)} + D \underbrace{\int (V_1 dV_2 - V_2 dV_1)}_{(b)},$$

where (a) is  $d(V_1 \quad V_2)$  and is therefore independent of the sequence, and (b) would

November, 1986. Note 0143csem.

be dependent on our sequence. Since G must be independent of the sequence, it follows that D = 0.

In a CSEM circuit,  $\mathbf{F}$  equals the vector of charges deposited by the CSEM on the surfaces (with all V = 0). Therefore, a hybrid system can be represented by magnetic capacitors and sources that deposit DC charges. If one finds this more convenient, one may also do this analysis with capacitors and AC current sources, or with resistors and DC currents.

The theorems known for these circuits apply, such as Kirchhoff's reciprocity theorem, i.e. the nodal equations, etc. One can also use  $2 \times 2$  matrix methods for systems like ladder networks, and apply them directly to hybrid wigglers. One can use concepts like characteristic impedance of networks and quadrupole theory, i.e. all the tools that have been developed for analog network analysis.

### Stored Energy in CSEM

We define the energy density as

$$\mathcal{E} = \int \mathbf{H} \cdot d\mathbf{B}.$$

We can look at the easy-axis direction and the direction perpendicular to the easy-axis separately. The lower integral limit is arbitrary, but must be fixed.

With  $B_{\parallel} = B_r + \mu_0 \mu_{\parallel} H_{\parallel}$  and  $B_{\perp} = \mu_0 \mu_{\perp} H_{\perp}$ :

$$\mathcal{E}_{\|} = \int_{H_{\|}=0}^{H_{\|}} H_{\|} dB_{\|} = \int_{H_{\|}=0}^{H_{\|}} H_{\|} \frac{dB_{\|}}{dH_{\|}} dH_{\|} = \mu_{0} \mu_{\|} \int_{H_{\|}=0}^{H_{\|}} H_{\|} dH_{\|}.$$

Thus,

$$\mathcal{E}_{\parallel} = \frac{1}{2} \mu_0 \mu_{\parallel} H_{\parallel}^2,$$

and similarly,

$$\mathcal{E}_{\perp} = \frac{1}{2} \mu_0 \mu_{\perp} H_{\perp}^2,$$

with

$$\mathcal{E}_{tot} = \mathcal{E}_{\parallel} + \mathcal{E}_{\perp}.$$

This obviously gives  $H_{\parallel}$  a unique role.

November, 1982. Note 0142csem.

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### Earnshaw's Theorem for Non-Permeable Material

**Problem:** There is an assembly of "frozen" magnetic charges  $\rho(\mathbf{r})^{\dagger}$  in an external magnetic field (produced by solenoid or other REC assembly) without any permeable material in the system.

Question: What is the restoring force for small displacements?

Analysis: The force components in the  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  coordinate system are

$$F_1 = -\int \varrho V_1' dv, \quad F_2 = -\int \varrho V_2' dv, \quad \text{and} \quad F_3 = -\int \varrho V_3' dv.$$

We displace the system by  $\Delta x_1, \Delta x_2, \Delta x_3$ , which is the same as displacing the external fields by  $-\Delta x_1, -\Delta x_2, -\Delta x_3$  without changing  $\rho$ , and get

$$\Delta F_n = \int \sum \Delta x_m \frac{\partial}{\partial x_m} \varrho \frac{\partial V}{\partial x_n} dv$$
  
=  $\sum M_{nm} \Delta x_m$  with  $M_{nm} = \int \varrho \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_m} V dv$ ,

$$\Delta \mathbf{F} = M \cdot \Delta \mathbf{x}.$$

In general, M will not be a diagonal matrix. We assume that it can be made diagonal (by going to a new coordinate system) with matrix C, where

$$C\Delta \mathbf{F} = \Delta \mathbf{F}_{d} = CMC^{-1} \cdot C\Delta \mathbf{x} = CMC^{-1} \cdot \Delta \mathbf{x}_{d},$$
$$CMC^{-1} = M_{d} = \int \rho \begin{pmatrix} V''_{xx} & 0 & 0\\ 0 & V''_{yy} & 0\\ 0 & 0 & V''_{zz} \end{pmatrix} dv,$$

where x, y, z are the new coordinates. From this, it follows that

$$\frac{\Delta F_x}{\Delta x} + \frac{\Delta F_y}{\Delta y} + \frac{\Delta F_z}{\Delta z} = \int \varrho \underbrace{\left(V_{xx}^{''} + V_{yy}^{''} + V_{zz}^{''}\right)}_{=\nabla^2 V = 0} dv = 0.$$

Since a stable system requires a negative restoring force in each of the three coordinate directions, any such system will be unstable.

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June, 1981. Note 0076csem.

<sup>†</sup> REC can be considered this way if one assumes differential permeability  $\equiv 1$ .

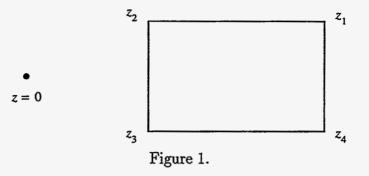
In applications, it will often be clear a priori in which coordinate system the matrix M will be diagonal, and the above equation can then be used directly in its final form. This means that for systems with cylindrical symmetry about the z-axis, that because

$$\frac{\Delta F_y}{\Delta y} = \frac{\Delta F_x}{\Delta x} \Rightarrow \frac{\Delta F_r}{\Delta r} \quad \text{and} \quad 2\frac{\Delta F_r}{\Delta r} + \frac{\Delta F_z}{\Delta z} = 0,$$

only one of the stiffnesses needs to be calculated from basics.

It is interesting to note that Earnshaw's Theorem is often stated in an overly broad fashion. For instance, stable support *is* possible if one allows forces not derived from a potential satisfying  $\nabla^2 V = 0$ . The forces between contacting solid materials, for example, such as mechanical bearings, are due to the quantum nature of solids, and hence do not obey Earnshaw's Theorem. It is also clear without any mathematics that a permanent magnet is stably supported in a superconducting bowl. This is similarly true for an extreme diamagnetic bowl.

# Harmonics Produced by Rectangular REC Block -



In this document we refer to the above diagram and (4b) and (16b) of the Nuclear Instruments and Methods article<sup> $\dagger$ </sup>

$$\underline{B}^{*}(z_{0}) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_{n} z_{0}^{n-1},$$
$$b_{n} = \frac{\underline{B}_{r}}{2\pi i} \oint \frac{dx}{z^{n}}.$$

For n = 1,

$$b_1 = \frac{\underline{B}_r}{2\pi i} \ln \frac{z_2}{z_1} \cdot \frac{z_4}{z_3} = \frac{\underline{B}_r}{2\pi i} \ln \frac{z_2/z_1}{z_3/z_4}$$
$$= \boxed{\frac{\underline{B}_r}{\pi} \Im \ln \frac{z_2}{z_1}}.$$

For  $n \geq 2$ ,

$$b_n = -\frac{\underline{B}_r}{2\pi i} \cdot \frac{1}{n-1} \left( \frac{1}{z_2^{n-1}} - \frac{1}{z_1^{n-1}} + \frac{1}{z_4^{n-1}} - \frac{1}{z_3^{n-1}} \right)$$
$$= \boxed{-\frac{\underline{B}_r}{\pi} \cdot \frac{1}{n-1} \Im\left(\frac{1}{z_2^{n-1}} - \frac{1}{z_1^{n-1}}\right)}.$$

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October, 1980. Note 0059csem.

<sup>†</sup> Halbach, H., Nuclear Instruments and Methods 169, 1 (1980).

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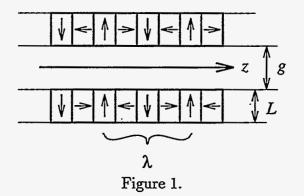
### A Possible REC Undulator for SSRL

#### I. Reason for REC.

It may be possible to use some very specific ferrite. All other materials, like the Alnicos, are not only significantly inferior in performance, but would probably also have to be magnetized in final assembly which may be difficult to do.

A potential future advantage is that the permanent magnet undulator can be scaled down in physical size without difficulty. One can therefore envision the following scheme: design a REC undulator for very small gap and  $\lambda$  and have it inside vacuum. Move the two arrays apart to have the large gap necessary during beam formation. When beam is established, move the 2 arrays together to form the design gap that the beam allows. Clearly, this would be nearly impossible with either a conventional, or even a superconducting, undulator.

II. Use of Nomogram and Notation.



$$B_y + iB_z = B_0 \cos \frac{2\pi(z+iy)}{\lambda},$$

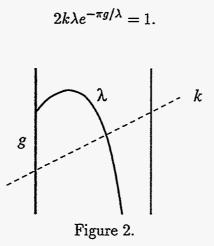
$$K = B_0 \lambda,$$

$$k = \frac{B_r}{K} \underbrace{\frac{\sin \pi/M'}{\pi/M'}}_{E_1} \underbrace{\left(1 - e^{-2\pi L/\lambda}\right)}_{E_2},$$

where  $B_r$  is the remanent field of REC, M' is the number of pieces with fixed easy-axis

April, 1979. Note 0038csem.

per period.



Because  $E_1, E_2$  are close to 1, and one usually chooses  $K \approx 1$  T(cm), k (cm<sup>-1</sup>) is numerically close to  $B_r$ .

In this document, all lengths will be in cm, and B's in Tesla.

#### III. Design Considerations.

• <u>End Section</u>. Normalize center to z = 0 and that piece has easy-axis parallel to the y axis. The last pieces at both ends must have the same easy-axis as piece at z = 0, but should have only half of normal length in the z-direction. One may want to use coils to fine-tune the end sections, but it would not be surprising if this were unnecessary.

In order to reduce the effects from finite length in x-direction (or to get away with shorter length in that direction) and to avoid 3D fringe effects at the ends in z-direction by cutting end fields off rapidly, one should back-up REC with a soft steel plate with reasonable overhang in z and x directions. This will not affect the amplitude of the  $\cos(2\pi(z+iy)/\lambda)$  term, but will introduce a very weak, unnoticeable in the midplane, third harmonic (for M' = 4).

• <u>Length of REC in x-direction</u>. The present estimate is that it should be approximately the sum of the width of the beam and 2g. The 3D effects discussed in the previous section are easily analyzed computationally and should be done before ordering materials!

• <u>Choice of M' and L</u>. It is recommended, at least for the first undulator, to use M' = 4 (giving  $E_1 = .9$ ) and  $L = \lambda/2$  (giving  $E_2 = .96$ ) or  $L = \lambda/4$  (giving  $E_2 = .79$ ). With these choices, the undulator can be assembled from identical REC pieces with square cross-section and the easy-axis parallel to a side. The exception would be with the end pieces which could be obtained by cutting or grinding the normal pieces.

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### IV. Specific Calculations.

For a realistic undulator with g = 2.8 cm,  $B_r = .95$  T, K = 1 T cm and M' = 4:

L (cm)	$k \ (\mathrm{cm}^{-1})$	$\lambda$ (cm)	
$\lambda/4 = 1.18$	.68	4.73	
$\lambda/2 = 2.22$	.82	4.44	

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Since  $\lambda/4$  uses only half the REC of the  $\lambda/2$  case and  $\lambda$  is only less than 10% larger, this is the preferable design. The volume for  $\lambda/4$  is V = 3540 cm<sup>3</sup>, and for  $\lambda/2$  is V = 6660 cm<sup>3</sup>.

The REC price would probably be approximately  $1-2/cm^{-3}$ .

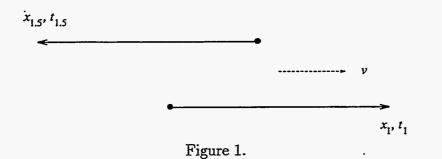
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## A Simple Derivation of the Lorentz Transformation Without Talking About Light

**Postulate:** Physics is independent of location, time and uniform motion of the system in which the experiment is performed.

We look at two systems that move with velocity, v, relative to each other. We establish clocks and space (x) markers in each system.



We locate the origins and synchronize the clocks so that  $x_1 = 0$ ,  $t_1 = 0$ ,  $x_{1.5} = 0$ , and  $t_{1.5} = 0$ . Also notice that the "1.5" system has x increasing in the opposite direction from the "1" system.

We want to know  $(x_{1.5}, t_{1.5})$  as a function of  $(x_1, t_1)$ .

We know that  $\Delta x_{1.5}/\Delta x_1$ ,  $\Delta x_{1.5}/\Delta t_1$ ,  $\Delta t_{1.5}/\Delta x_1$ , and  $\Delta t_{1.5}/\Delta t_1$  can not depend on  $x_1, t_1$  because of our postulate. This means that the relationship between the two systems is linear, and can be expressed as a 2 by 2 matrix.

$$\begin{array}{c} x_{1.5} = a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}t_1 \\ t_{1.5} = a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}t_1 \end{array} \} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad r_{1.5} = \begin{pmatrix} x_{1.5} \\ t_{1.5} \end{pmatrix} = A \cdot r_1$$

The velocity of a particle in system "1.5" (e.g. at  $x_{1.5} = 0$ ) as seen from system "1" is  $v = -a_{12}/a_{11}$ . Thus

$$a_{12} = -a_{11}v$$

with  $a_{11} \neq 0$  always true.

The choice of the relative sign of x in the two systems means that the observer in each system sees the other system move in the positive x-direction with velocity v.

July 30, 1992. Note 0287misc.

141

Therefore,

$$r_1 = A \cdot r_{1.5} = A \cdot A \cdot r_1,$$

and also,

$$A^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

must be satisfied. By multiplication and substitution,

$$A^{2} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}(a_{11} - a_{21})v & -a_{11}v(a_{11} + a_{22}) \\ a_{21}(a_{11} + a_{22}) & a_{22}^{2} - a_{21}a_{11}v \end{pmatrix}.$$

Therefore,

$$a_{11} = -a_{22}$$

and

$$a_{21} = (1 - a_{22}^2)/(a_{22}v).$$

By further substitution,

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} -a_{22} & a_{22}v \\ (1/a_{22} - a_{22})/v & a_{22} \end{pmatrix}.$$

We introduce  $x_2 = -x_{1.5}, t_2 = t_{1.5}$  and

$$r_2 = B \cdot r_1, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} a_{22} & -a_{22}v \\ (1/a_{22} - a_{22})/v & a_{22} \end{pmatrix}.$$

We further define

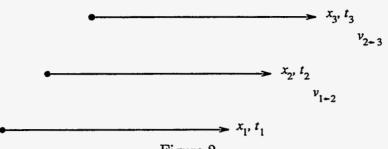
$$\gamma = a_{22}.$$

$$g = 1/a_{22}^2 - 1 = 1/\gamma^2 - 1,$$

and therefore

$$B = \gamma \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -v \\ g/v & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

It is important to notice that the diagonal elements are identical.





We define

$$\begin{aligned} r_2 &= B_{1 \to 2} \cdot r_1 \\ r_3 &= B_{2 \to 3} \cdot r_2 \\ &= B_{2 \to 3} \cdot B_{1 \to 2} \cdot r_1 \end{aligned}$$

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and thus

$$B_{1 \to 3} = \gamma_{1 \to 2} \gamma_{2 \to 3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -v_{2 \to 3} \\ g_{2 \to 3}/v_{2 \to 3} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -v_{1 \to 2} \\ g_{1 \to 2}/v_{1 \to 2} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and further,

$$B_{1\to3} = \gamma_{1\to2}\gamma_{2\to3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 - v_{2\to3}g_{1\to2}/v_{1\to2} & -(v_{1\to2} + v_{2\to3}) \\ g_{2\to3}/v_{2\to3} + g_{1\to2}/v_{1\to2} & 1 - v_{1\to2}g_{2\to3}/v_{2\to3} \end{pmatrix}.$$

By the identical diagonal elements we have:

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$$\frac{v_{2\rightarrow3}g_{1\rightarrow2}}{v_{1\rightarrow2}} = \frac{v_{1\rightarrow2}g_{2\rightarrow3}}{v_{2\rightarrow3}} \implies \frac{g_{1\rightarrow2}}{v_{1\rightarrow2}^2} = \frac{g_{2\rightarrow3}}{v_{2\rightarrow3}^2}.$$

Thus, we may generalize our equation and we have

$$g/v^2 = \frac{(1/\gamma^2 - 1)}{v^2} = k = \text{constant of nature.}$$

Here

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+kv^2}}.$$

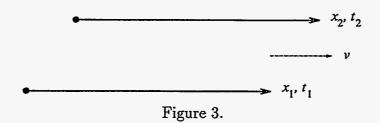
We have to verify that other relationships are also satisfied (e.g. relation between elements [11] and [12], etc.). We have shown that if the postulate is true, the relationship between x and t of the systems moving with velocity v relative to each other must be

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_2 \\ t_2 \end{pmatrix} = \gamma \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -v \\ kv & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ t_1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+kv^2}}$$

We have not shown that  $k \neq 0$ , but the value of k can be obtained from "any" experiment, e.g. lifetime of meson, etc., and experiments do not have to use light.

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$$\begin{pmatrix} x_2 \\ t_2 \end{pmatrix} = \gamma \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -v \\ -v/c^2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ t_1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ t_1 \end{pmatrix} = \gamma \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -v \\ -v/c^2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_2 \\ t_2 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$$

1) The lifetime of particle at rest at  $x_1 = 0$  in system "1" is  $\tau_1$ . What is it in system "2"?

$$x_1 = 0, \quad t_1 = \tau_1 \implies t_2 = \tau_2 = \gamma \tau_1$$

2) The distance  $x_1$  covered by observer at rest at  $x_2 = 0$  in time  $t_2$ :

$$x_2 = 0, \quad x_1 = \gamma v t_2, \quad \boxed{x_1/t_2 = \gamma v}$$

Note that

$$v\gamma = c$$
 for  $v/c = 1/\sqrt{2}$ .

## Dimensional Analysis of the Trajectory of Non-Relativistic Charged Particles in Stationary Electric and Magnetic Fields (MKS units, with and without space charge)

#### Motivation.

To explain the structure of trajectory equations to engineers working on cyclotronmass spectrometer.

We use linear scaling length  $D_0$ , and represent **B** and **E** fields by the scaling quantities  $B_0$  and  $E_0 = V_0 D_0$  times the appropriate dimensionless functions of  $x/D_0$ ,  $y/D_0$ , and  $z/D_0$ . We must be able to represent the trajectory x(t) (t = 0 at start of trajectory) as the product of  $D_0$  and a function of dimensionless products  $P_n$ . The list of parameters to form P's has, in addition to  $D_0, B_0, V_0(E_0), t$ , the quantity m/e due to the equation of motion. Thus, the complete list consists of  $m/e, D_0, B_0, V_0(E_0), t$ .

We construct P's by first finding the appropriate physics relationship, then re-writing them in product form with parameters from the above list, and finally by solving for P, i.e.:

$$m\ddot{\mathbf{x}} = e\mathbf{E} \quad \rightarrow \quad m\frac{D_0}{t^2} = e\frac{V_0}{D_0} \quad \rightarrow \qquad P_1 = t^2 \frac{e}{m} \frac{V_0}{D_0^2}.$$

For construction of next P, consider the parameter list without e/m:

$$\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B} \quad \rightarrow \quad E_0 = B_0 \frac{D_0}{t} \quad \rightarrow \quad P_2 = \frac{B_0}{E_0} \frac{D_0}{t} = \frac{B_0 D_0^2}{V_0 t}.$$

We use  $P_1$  to form  $P_3$  without t, and use  $P_3$  instead of  $P_2$ :

$$P_3 = P_2^2 P_1 = \frac{B_0^2}{E_0^2} \frac{e}{m} V_0 \quad \rightarrow \quad P_3 = \frac{e}{m} \frac{B_0^2 D_0^2}{V_0}.$$

We now remove  $B_0$  from the parameter list, leaving only  $D_0, V_0(E_0), t$ , and we see that no additional P's are possible. Thus, we have

$$x(t) = D_0 F_x(P_1, P_3) = D_0 F_x\left(t^2 \frac{e}{m} \frac{V_0}{D_0^2}, \frac{e}{m} \frac{B_0^2 D_0^2}{V_0}\right),$$

and this is equivalently true for y(t) and z(t).

April, 1992. Note 0278misc.

These expressions show the available options for changing the values of parameters if one of these has to be changed in a particular way and if one does not want to change the trajectory. If one does not care how long it takes for the particle to traverse its trajectory, then  $P_3$  is the only P that is to be kept constant.  $P_1$  can be considered to be an expression for the time to traverse the system.

If one wants to include space charge effects, one must include I, e, and  $\varepsilon_0$  to the remaining list of parameters  $D_0, V_0, t$ . If the magnetic fields produced by the moving charges are important, one must add  $\mu_0$  as well.

When writing the P's, we shall use the fact that space charge and magnetic fields for charged particles go to 0 as  $1/\epsilon_0$  and  $\mu_0$  go to 0. The space charge effects come from

$$abla \cdot \varepsilon_0 \mathbf{E} = \varrho \quad o \quad \varepsilon_0 \frac{E_0}{D_0} = I \frac{t}{D_0^3} \quad o \quad P_4 = \frac{I}{\varepsilon_0} \frac{t}{V_0 D_0}.$$

We remove t with  $P_2$  to get

$$P_5 = P_4 P_2 = \frac{I}{\varepsilon_0} \frac{1}{V_0} \frac{B_0}{E_0} \quad \rightarrow \quad P_5 = \frac{I}{\varepsilon_0} \frac{B_0 D_0}{V_0^2}.$$

We remove  $B_0$  with  $P_3$  to get

$$P_6 = \frac{P_5^2}{P_3} = \left(\frac{I}{\varepsilon_0}\right)^2 \frac{D_0^2}{V_0^4} \frac{m}{e} \frac{V_0}{D_0^2} \quad \rightarrow \qquad P_6 = \left(\frac{I}{\varepsilon_0}\right)^2 \frac{m/e}{V_0^3}$$

with  $P_4, P_5$  discarded.

We remove I from our parameter list and are left with  $e, \varepsilon_0, D_0, t, V_0$  for

$$abla \cdot \varepsilon_0 \mathbf{E} = \varrho, \quad \varepsilon_0 E_0 = \frac{e}{D_0^2} \quad \rightarrow \quad \left| P_7 = \frac{e}{\varepsilon_0 D_0 V_0} \right|.$$

By removing  $\varepsilon_0$  we see that no more P's are possible with just  $e, D_0, t, V_0$ . Thus, we have

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &= D_0 F_x(P_1, P_3, P_6, P_7) \\ &= D_0 F_x \left( \frac{e}{m} \frac{V_0 t^2}{D_0}, \frac{e}{m} \frac{B_0^2 D_0^2}{V_0}, \frac{I^2}{\varepsilon_0^2} \frac{m/e}{V_0^3}, \frac{e}{\varepsilon_0 D_0 V_0} \right), \end{aligned}$$

and this is equivalently true for y(t) and z(t).

We expect that some P's are not significant if  $\varepsilon_0$  is large enough so that  $P_6$  and/or  $P_7$  are small enough. For instance, for  $D_0 = 10^{-2}$ m,  $V_0 = 10^3$ V, and e = charge of electron, we have  $P_7 = 1.8 \times 10^{-9} \ll 1$ , thus  $P_7$  is probably not important.

We now add  $\mu_0$  to the parameter list, and for  $e, D_0, t, V_0, \mu_0$ , we have

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\dot{\mathbf{B}} \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{E_0}{D_0} = \frac{V_0}{D_0^2} = \frac{\mu_0(e/t)/D_0}{t} = \frac{\mu_0 e}{t^2 D_0},$$
$$P_8 = \frac{\mu_0 e D_0}{t^2 V_0}.$$

Using other P's, we get

$$P_9 = \frac{\mu_0 I}{D_0 B_0}.$$

We remove  $\mu_0$  from the parameter list, and see that no more P's are possible, and we have

$$x(t) = D_0 F_x(P_1, P_3, P_6, P_7, P_9),$$

and this is equivalently true for y(t) and z(t).

#### Application to System with Fixed $D_0, B_0$ (Cyclotrino).

We ignore  $P_1$  since it determines traversal time. Without space charge and currentfield effects, we must keep  $V_0m/e$  constant to get same behavior when the particle is changed, i.e.  $V_0 \sim e/m$  is necessary. To see how space charge limitation affects "permissible" current, one must look at  $P_6$ :

$$\frac{I^2 m/e}{V_0^3} = \frac{I^2 (m/e)^4}{(V_0 m/e)^3} = \text{constant}$$

and this implies that  $(m/e)^2 \cdot I$  should be a constant or small enough. As stated earlier,  $P_7$  will be small enough to cause no problems, and the same will be true for  $P_9$ .

#### Further Comments.

While this theory was formulated with scale factors in mind, the P's also have local meaning. That is, if the "local"  $V^{\dagger}$  is interpreted as potential energy (divided by e), it becomes clear that  $P_6$  and  $P_7$  (with the local V and D) cannot be sufficiently small to be ignored everywhere since the particles start somewhere with eV = 0. But if the ion source is considered as a separate entity the ignorability argument will hold. It is also clear that looking at the P's with subscripted V,  $V_0$  applies not only to applied potentials within the structure, but also to the energy of the incoming beam.<sup>‡</sup>

<sup>†</sup> Without the subscript 0 that identifies the "global" scale.

<sup>‡</sup> This study was motivated by Tony Young's question about how  $V_0$  has to be changed when  $B_0$  differs from its original design value. Using  $P_3$  we must have  $B_0^2/V_0 = \text{constant}$ .

### Some Practical Numbers.

Use  $\gamma$  sufficiently smaller than 1 to make a P ignorable. Then  $P_7$ ,  $\sqrt{P_6}$  can be ignored if

$$P_{7} = \frac{e}{\varepsilon_{0} D_{0} V_{0}} < \gamma \quad \rightarrow \qquad D_{0} V_{0} = \frac{e}{\varepsilon_{0}} \frac{1}{\gamma} > \frac{1.8 \times 10^{-8}}{\gamma},$$

$$\sqrt{P_{6}} = \frac{I}{\varepsilon_{0}} \frac{\sqrt{m/e}}{V_{0}^{3/2}} < \gamma \quad \rightarrow \quad I < V_{0}^{3/2} \gamma \varepsilon_{0} \sqrt{e/m}.$$

With  $e_c$  = electron charge, and  $m_p$  = proton mass,

$$I < V_0^{3/2} \gamma \sqrt{\frac{e/e_c}{m/m_p}} \varepsilon_0 \sqrt{\frac{e_c}{m_p}} = V_0^{3/2} \gamma \sqrt{\frac{e/e_c}{m/m_p}} 8.7 \times 10^{-8}$$
$$I < V_0^{3/2} \gamma \sqrt{\frac{e/e_c}{m/m_p}} 8.7 \times 10^{-8}.$$

### **Analog Integrator Dynamics**

Contrary to conventional analysis, which expresses the output signal in terms of the input signal, the quantity one wants (time integral over input integral) is expressed in terms of output signal (in digital form or as a scope trace), with all dynamic effects taken into account. In addition to dynamic terms being caused by the frequency response of the operational amplifier, the first order sensitivity is also affected by its dynamic behavior.

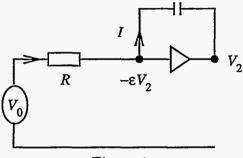


Figure 1.

For p the Laplace transform variable, and  $RC = \tau_1$ ,

$$\frac{V_0 + \varepsilon V_2}{R} = -V_2(1 + \varepsilon)pC,$$

where  $\mu = 1/\varepsilon \gg 1$  is the open loop gain of the operational amplifier, and

$$V_0 = -V_2(p\tau_1(1+\varepsilon)+\varepsilon) = -V_2 \cdot F.$$

We use the following rough numbers:

$$\varepsilon = 0$$
,  $\int V_0 dt = 10^{-6} \text{Vsec}$ ,  $\tau_1 = 10^{-3} \text{sec}$ , and  $-V_2 = \frac{\int V_0 dt}{\tau_1} = 10^{-3} \text{V}$ .

The frequency response of the operational amplifier is

$$\mu_1(p)=\frac{\mu_0}{1+p\tau_0}.$$

It actually behaves in this fashion until the open loop gain is much less than 1. If the operational amplifier were not to behave this way, it would be useless for many

January, 1989. Note 0267misc.

applications. We characterize the frequency response either by the time constant  $\tau_0$ , or the frequency (times  $2\pi$ ) where the amplitude gain is reduced to 1:

$$1 = \frac{\mu_0}{\omega_2 \tau_0} = \frac{1}{\omega_2 \varepsilon_0 \tau_0} = \frac{1}{\omega_2 \tau_2}$$

with

$$au_2 = rac{1}{\omega_2} pprox 10^{-7} {
m sec}, \quad \mu_0 = 1/arepsilon_0 pprox 10^6, \quad {
m and} \quad arepsilon = arepsilon_0 (1+p au_0) = arepsilon_0 + p au_2,$$

and for  $\tau_1^* = (\tau_1 + \tau_2)$ :

$$F = p\tau_1(1 + p\tau_2) + \varepsilon_0 + p\tau_2$$
  
=  $p\tau_1^* + \varepsilon_0 + p^2\tau_1\tau_2$   
=  $p\tau_1^* + \varepsilon_0 + p^2\tau_2(\tau_1^* - \tau_2),$ 

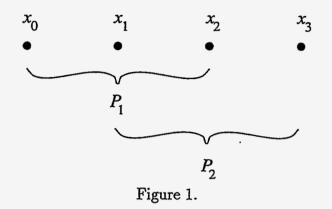
$$-\frac{V_0}{p\tau_1^*} = V_2 \left( 1 + \frac{1}{p\mu_0\tau_1^*} + \frac{p\tau_2\tau_1}{\tau_1^*} \right).$$

In the time domain, the quantity of interest,  $\int V_0(\tau) d\tau$ , is expressed in terms of the measured quantity  $V_2(t)$  by

$$\int V_0(\tau) d\tau = V_2(t) \cdot \tau_1^* + \frac{\int V_2(\tau) d\tau}{\mu_0} + \dot{V}_2(t) \tau_2 \tau_1.$$

One has to choose the time constants and open loop gain such that the second and third terms are small compared to the first term so that they can effectively be ignored or corrections can easily be made. It should be noted that the frequency response of the operational amplifier can make a small, but noticeable, correction to the effective time constant  $\tau_1^*$  through  $\tau_2$ .

## Local Interpolation with Continuous Function and its First N Derivatives



1. Real function  $y_0(x)$  must have known values at  $x = x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n$ .

2. Establish interpolation functions  $P_{1,\dots,n-1}(x)$ , that have properties appropriate to model  $y_0(x)$  in small regions. This necessitates continuous functions, and continuous and meaningful first N derivatives.  $P_j(x)$  must reproduce  $y_0(x)$  exactly for  $x = x_{j-1}$ ,  $x = x_j$  and  $x = x_{j+1}$ , for  $1 \le j \le n-1$ .

3. Calculate the approximate function y(x) from  $y(x) = P_1(x)W_1(x) + P_2(x)W_2(x)$ in interval  $x_1 \le x \le x_2$ , and similarly in other intervals. Make the choices, to some degree arbitrary, for the weight functions  $W_{1,\dots,n-1}(x)$  so that the desired goal is obtained in a reasonable fashion.

4. If,  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  are the same as  $y_0(x)$ , we do not want the interpolation scheme to destroy the relationship  $y(x) = y_0(x)$ . Therefore, we must have that

Condition 1:  $W_1(x) + W_2(x) = 1$ .

And if the above is satisfied, it is also true that

Condition 2:  $W_1^{(n)}(x) + W_2^{(n)}(x) = 0$ .

5. We examine  $y^{(n)}(x)$ :

$$y^{(n)}(x) = P_1^{(n)} W_1 + n P_1^{(n-1)} W_1^{(1)} + \ldots + n P_1^{(1)} W_1^{(n-1)} + P_1 W_1^{(n)} + P_2^{(n)} W_2 + n P_2^{(n-1)} W_2^{(1)} + \ldots + n P_2^{(1)} W_2^{(n-1)} + P_2 W_2^{(n)},$$

May, 1981. Note 0177misc.

for n = 1, 2, ..., N. We choose  $W^{(1)}$  so that all needed derivatives exist. At  $x = x_1$  or  $x = x_2$ ,

$$P_1 W_1^{(n)} + P_2 W_2^{(n)} = P_1 (W_1^{(n)} + W_2^{(n)}) = 0$$

because  $P_1$ ,  $P_2$  fit  $y_0(x)$  exactly at  $x = x_1$ ,  $x = x_2$ , and due to Condition 2. We now choose the weight functions such that at  $x = x_1$ ,  $y^{(n)} = P_1^{(n)}$ , and at  $x = x_2$ ,  $y^{(n)} = P_2^{(n)}$ . We do this by requiring that weight functions fulfill

Condition 3:

$$W_1(x_1) = 1, \quad W_1(x_2) = 0, \text{ and} \\ W_2(x_1) = 0, \quad W_2(x_2) = 1,$$

and fulfill

Condition 4: 
$$W_1^n(x_1) = W_1^n(x_2) = 0$$
 and  $W_2^n(x_1) = W_2^n(x_2) = 0$  for  $n = 1, 2, ..., N - 1$ .

With the above choices, y and its first N derivatives at  $x = x_n$  depend only on  $P_n$ , independently of whether we get to  $x_n$  from an upper or lower interval, i.e., y and its derivatives are continuous everywhere.

6. The construction of the weight functions that satisfy Conditions 1 (and therefore Condition 2), 3, and 4, is not unique. We introduce

$$u(x) = \frac{x - (x_1 + x_2)/2}{(x_2 - x_1)/2} = \frac{2x - (x_1 + x_2)}{(x_2 - x_1)}.$$

This gives us

$$u(x_1) = -1,$$
  
 $u((x_1 + x_2)/2) = 0,$   
 $u(x_2) = 1.$ 

We now have that

$$W_2(x) = \frac{1}{2} \big( 1 + g_N(x) \big),$$

$$W_1(x) = \frac{1}{2}(1 - g_N(x)),$$

$$y(x) = \frac{1}{2} (P_2(x) + P_1(x) + (P_2(x) - P_1(x)) \cdot g_N(x))$$
  
=  $P_1(x)W_1(x) + P_2(x)W_2(x)$ ,

where,

$$g_N(x) = a_N \int_0^{u(x)} (1-v^2)^{N-1} dv$$
 and  $\frac{1}{a_N} = \int_0^1 (1-v^2)^{N-1} dv$ .

We may now conclude that, clearly, Conditions 1 and 3 are satisfied, and from

$$W_2^{(1)}(x) = \frac{g_N(x)}{x_2 - x_1}$$
  
=  $\frac{a_N}{x_2 - x_1} (1 - u^2)^{N-1}$   
=  $\frac{a_N}{x_2 - x_1} (1 - u)^{N-1} (1 + u)^{N-1}$ ,

it follows that Condition 4 is satisfied as well.

We introduce here some further details. Given

$$\frac{1}{a_N} = \int_0^1 (1 - v^2)^{N-1} dv = b_N \,,$$

we have that

$$b_N = \int_0^1 (1 - v^2)^{N-2} (1 - v^2) dv$$
$$= b_{N-1} - \int_0^1 (1 - v^2)^{N-2} v^2 dv.$$

For

$$du = -1(1-v^2)^{N-2}vdv$$
 and  $u = \frac{(1-v^2)^{N-1}}{2(N-1)}$ ,  
 $r = v$  and  $dr = dv$ ,

we have that

$$b_N = \frac{b_{N-1}}{1 + \frac{1}{2(N-1)}},$$
$$a_N = a_{N-1} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2(N-1)} \right).$$

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Thus, for  $a_1 = 1$ 

$$\dot{a}_N = a_{N-1} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2(N-1)} \right) = \prod_{n=1}^{N-1} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2(N-1)} \right) \,.$$

And further,

$$a_N = \prod_{1}^{N-1} \frac{2n+1}{2n} = \frac{3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2N-1)}{2^{N-1}(N-1)!} = \frac{(2N-1)!}{2^{N-1}(N-1)!^2} = \frac{(2N-1)!}{4^{N-1}(N-1)!^2}$$

### Summary.

 $P_1$  fits  $y_0$  exactly at  $x = x_0, x_1, x_2$ .  $P_2$  fits  $y_0$  exactly at  $x = x_1, x_2, x_3$ .

.

$$y(x) = P_1(x)W_1(x) + P_2(x)W_2(x),$$
  

$$W_2(x) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + g_N(x)),$$
  

$$W_1(x) = \frac{1}{2}(1 - g_N(x)),$$
  

$$u(x) = \frac{2x - (x_1 + x_2)}{(x_2 - x_1)},$$
  

$$\frac{1}{a_N} = \int_0^1 (1 - v^2)^{N-1} dv,$$
  

$$g_N(x) = a_N \int_0^{u(x)} (1 - v^2)^{N-1} dv.$$

Special Cases.

$$N = 1:$$

$$g_{1} = u.$$

$$g_{2} = a_{2} \int_{0}^{u} (1 - v^{2}) dv = a_{2}u(1 - u^{2}/3), \quad 1/a_{2} = 2/3$$

$$g_{2} = \frac{1}{2}u(3 - u^{2}).$$

$$g_{3} = a_{3} \int_{0}^{u} (1 - 2v^{2} + v^{4}) = a_{3}u \left(1 - \frac{2}{3}u^{2} + \frac{u^{4}}{5}\right), \quad \frac{1}{a^{3}} = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} = \frac{8}{15},$$

$$g_{3} = \frac{1}{8}u(15 - 10u^{2} + 3u^{4}).$$

### Linear Least Squares with Erroneous Matrix

When one is dealing with a system in which the relationships between parameter changes,  $\Delta p$ , and the system performance changes,  $\Delta s$ , are in good approximation represented by the linear relationship

$$\Delta s = M \Delta p$$

achieving a desired performance change is simply accomplished by parameter changes

$$\Delta p = M^{-1} \Delta s$$

as long as one has as many parameters as system performance characteristics.

When the desired change,  $\Delta s$ , has more components than  $\Delta p$ , it is often adequate to minimize the weighted sum of the deviations from the desired performance, i.e. one minimizes

$$S = \Delta s^t W \Delta s,$$

where W is a diagonal square matrix with appropriate weights on the diagonal. S is minimized in the first iteration if the parameter vector is changed by

$$\Delta p_1 = A \Delta s_1$$
 where  $A = (M^t W M)^{-1} M^t W$ .

If the matrix M used for this operation deviates by  $\Delta M = M_{\Re} - M$  from the real matrix  $M_{\Re}$ , the desired change  $\Delta s_2$  with the new parameters is given by

$$\Delta s_2 = \Delta s_1 - (M + \Delta M) \Delta p_1 = (I - MA - \Delta MA) \Delta s_1$$

If the effort to determine  $M_{\Re}$  (often by elaborate measurements) is too large one can iterate the procedure, and it would be of interest to estimate the asymptotic  $\Delta s_{\infty}$ . To obtain this, we introduce

$$I - MA = B$$
 and  $-\Delta MA = D$ 

Thus,

$$\Delta s_n = (B+D)^{n-1} \Delta s_1$$
 and  $\Delta p_n = A(B+D)^{n-1} \Delta s_1$ 

Notice that AM = I, AB = 0, DB = 0 and  $B^2 = I - 2MA + MAMA = B$ .

November, 1971. Note 0038misc.

Further,

$$(B+D)^2 = B(I+D) + D^2$$
  
 $(B+D)^3 = B(I+D+D^2) + D^3$ 

and so forth such that

$$(B+D)^n = B(I-D)^{-1}(1-D^n) + D^n.$$

Therefore,

$$\Delta s_n = (B(I - D)^{-1}(1 - D^{n-1}) + D^{n-1})\Delta s_1$$

$$\Delta p_n = AD^{n-1}\Delta s_1$$

as it must be, because for  $\Delta M = 0$  and  $n \ge 2$ ,  $\Delta p_n = 0$  and  $\Delta s_n = \Delta s_2$ .

If  $\Delta M$  is small enough, the absolute values of the eigenvalues of D will be less than 1, resulting in the following for large enough n:

$$\Delta s_{\infty} = B(I-D)^{-1} \Delta s_1 = (I-MA)(1+\Delta MA)^{-1} \Delta s_1.$$

Judging whether one is close to this value is possible by observing the decrease in  $\Delta p_n$  with increasing n.

## Matrix Describing Second Order Effects to Second Order in One Dimension

### No Momentum Errors.

The normalized equation of motion is

$$y'' = y + by^2.$$

Expand y in terms of initial conditions  $y_0, y'_0$  up to  $2^{nd}$  order:

$$y = a_{11}y_0 + a_{12}y'_0 + a_{13}y_0^2 + a_{14}y_0y'_0 + a_{15}y'_0^2.$$

Initial conditions for a(x)

$$a_{11}(0) = a_{12}'(0) = 1,$$

all others are 0. The equation for a(x) is:

$$a_{11}'' = a_{11}, \text{ and } a_{12}'' = a_{12} \implies \begin{cases} a_{11} = \cosh x, & a_{12} = \sinh x, \\ a_{21} = \sinh x, & a_{22} = \cosh x. \end{cases}$$

$$a_{13}'' = a_{13} + ba_{11}^2$$
,  $a_{14}'' = a_{14} + 2ba_{11}a_{12}$ , and  $a_{15}'' = a_{15} + ba_{12}^2$ .

Because in all three cases a(0) = q'(0) = 0:  $\mathcal{L}(a'') = p^2 \mathcal{L}(a)$ . For  $a_{13}$ ,

$$a_{11}^2 = \frac{1}{4} \left( e^{2x} + e^{-2x} + 2 \right) \rightleftharpoons \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{1}{p-2} + \frac{1}{p+2} + \frac{2}{p} \right).$$

In general,

$$\frac{1}{(p-1)(p+1)(p+c)} \rightleftharpoons \frac{e^x}{2(1+c)} + \frac{e^{-x}}{2(1-c)} + \frac{e^{-cx}}{c^2 - 1},$$

thus,

$$\frac{4a_{11}^2}{p^2 - 1} \rightleftharpoons \frac{4}{3} \cdot \frac{e^x}{2} + \frac{4}{3} \cdot \frac{e^{-x}}{2} + \frac{e^{2x} + e^{-2x}}{3} - 2$$
$$= \frac{4}{3} \cosh x + \frac{2}{3} \cosh 2x - 2.$$

Therefore,

$$a_{13} = \frac{b}{6} \left( 2 \cosh x + \cosh 2x - 3 \right)$$
 and  $a'_{13} = a_{23} = \frac{b}{3} \left( \sinh x + \sinh 2x \right).$ 

February, 1966. Note 0006misc.

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For  $a_{14}$ ,

$$a_{11}a_{12} = \frac{1}{4} \left( e^{2x} - e^{-2x} \right) \rightleftharpoons \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{1}{p-2} - \frac{1}{p+2} \right)$$

and thus,

$$\frac{4a_{11}a_{12}}{p^2 - 1} \rightleftharpoons \frac{-4}{3} \cdot \frac{e^x}{2} + \frac{4}{3} \cdot \frac{e^{-x}}{2} + \frac{e^{2x} - e^{-2x}}{3}$$
$$= -\frac{4}{3}\sinh x + \frac{2}{3}\sinh 2x.$$

Therefore,

$$a_{14} = \frac{b}{3}(\sinh 2x - 2\sinh x)$$
 and  $a'_{14} = a_{24} = \frac{2b}{3}(\cosh 2x - \cosh x)$ .

Similarly, for  $a_{15}$ ,

$$a_{12}^2 = \frac{1}{4} \left( e^{2x} + e^{-2x} - 2 \right) \rightleftharpoons \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{1}{p-2} + \frac{1}{p+2} - \frac{2}{p} \right),$$

thus,

$$\frac{4a_{12}^2}{p^2 - 1} \rightleftharpoons \frac{-8}{3} \cdot \frac{e^x}{2} + \frac{-8}{3} \cdot \frac{e^{-x}}{2} + \frac{e^{2x} + e^{-2x}}{3} + 2$$
$$= -\frac{8}{3}\cosh x + \frac{2}{3}\cosh 2x + 2.$$

.

Therefore,

$$a_{15} = \frac{b}{6} \left( \cosh 2x - 4 \cosh x + 3 \right)$$
 and  $a'_{15} = a_{25} = \frac{b}{3} \left( \sinh 2x - 2 \sinh x \right)$ .

#### Inclusion of Momentum Error $\alpha$ .

The normalized equation of motion is

$$y'' = y + \alpha + by^2.$$

First, add the term linear in  $\alpha$  to the expansion in  $y_0, y_0'$ : add  $a_{16}\alpha$ . The initial conditions are

$$a_{16}(0) = a'_{16}(0) = 0, \quad a''_{16} = a_{16} + 1 \implies a_{16} = \cosh x - 1.$$

Second, take the terms  $\alpha^2$ ,  $\alpha y_0$ ,  $\alpha y'_0$  into account, where the procedure is the same as in the calculation of  $a_{13}$ ,  $a_{14}$ , and  $a_{15}$ .

Third, do not add any terms, but introduce  $z = y + \beta$  ( $\beta$  is a constant) in the differential equation. Thus,

$$z'' = z - \beta + \alpha + b(z^2 - 2z\beta + \beta^2),$$
  
$$\beta^2 - \frac{\beta}{b} + \frac{\alpha}{b} = 0 \implies \beta = \frac{1}{2b} \left( 1 - \sqrt{1 - 4\alpha\beta} \right)$$
  
$$z(1 - 2b\beta) + bz^2 = \boxed{z'' = z\sqrt{1 - 4\alpha\beta} + bz^2.}$$

This procedure requires the calculation of a new matrix for every  $\alpha$  of interest, but this will give more insight in return.

#### General Procedure.

Description of higher order effects with power expansion and the consequences for stability.

We describe deviations from the closed orbit by the column vector

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_k \end{pmatrix}$$

where the components of  $y_1$  are y and y', and components of  $y_2, y_3, \ldots, y_k$  are, respectively, the second, third,  $\ldots, k^{\text{th}}$  order contributions of y and y'. Then,

$$\mathbf{v}_{2} = M\mathbf{v}_{1}, \text{ with } M = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} & \dots & A_{1k} \\ 0 & A_{22} & A_{23} & \dots & A_{2k} \\ 0 & 0 & A_{33} & \dots & A_{3k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & A_{kk} \end{pmatrix}.$$

In M,  $A_{11}$  describes the first order effects,  $A_{12}$  the second order effects, etc. The

other matrices reproduce the higher than first order components of v. The diagonal elements  $A_{22}, A_{33}, \ldots, A_{kk}$  depend only on the matrix element of  $A_{11}$ . The eigenvalues of M do not depend on  $A_{12}, \ldots, A_{1k}$ . Thus, the stability of the system does not depend, in this approximation, on the non-linear effects described by these elements. Since stability obviously can depend on non-linear effects, this implies that the power expansion for many passes through the system has a progressively shrinking radius of convergence. One can thus conclude that although this method is worthless to evaluate the effect of non-linearities on stability, it might still yield valuable information provided the system does not become unstable because of the non-linearities.

We show rough numbers for

$$F_3 = a_{13}/b, \quad F_4 = a_{14}/b, \quad F_5 = a_{15}/b,$$

x	$\pi/4$	$\pi/2$	π
$e^x$	2.2 .	4.8	23
$e^{-x}$	0.46	0.21	0
$\cosh x$	1.33	2.5	11.5
$\sinh x$	0.87	2.3	11.5

$F'_3 = a'_{13}/b = a_{23}/b,  F'_4$	$=a_{14}'/b=a_{24}/b,$	$F_5' = a_{15}'/b = a_{25}/b.$
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x	$\pi/4$	$\pi/2$	x
$F_3(x)$	0.77	2.25	$F_3'(x)$
$F_4(x)$	0.18	2.3	$F_4'(x)$
$F_5(x)$	0.03	0.75	$F_5'(x)$

		•
x	$\pi/4$	$\pi/2$
$F'_3(x)$	1.06	4.6
$F'_4(x)$	0.78	6
$F_5'(x)$	0.18	2.3

### Curvature of 2D Magnetic Field Lines and Scalar Potential Lines

#### I. Preparation and Background.

Magnetic fields. 2D magnetic fields can be derived from a scalar potential V or a vector potential A, or the complex potential F(z) = A + iV, an analytic function of the complex variable z = x + iy, according to

$$B_x - iB_y = B^* = i\frac{dF}{dz} = iF'.$$
(1)

Field lines and scalar potential lines in the z-plane are the z(F) maps of straight lines parallel to either the imaginary or real axis of the F-plane.

Modification of the curvature by a conformal map. If a curve in the z-plane has a local tangent in the direction  $e^{i\alpha_z}$ , the conformal map w(z) of that region has a local tangent in the direction

$$e^{i\alpha_z} = e^{i\alpha_z} \frac{w'}{|w'|}.$$
(2)

This equation shows that the angle of intersection of any two curves in the z-plane is preserved under the transformation w(z), hence the name conformal transformation. If the curve at that location in the z-plane is  $k_z$ , then the curvature of the map of that point can be shown to be

$$k_w = \frac{\left(k_z + \Im\left(\frac{w''}{w'}e^{i\alpha_z}\right)\right)}{|w'|}.$$
(3)

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The sign convention used for this formula is such that a positive curvature means that if one proceeds in the direction of the tangent, the curve turns to the left, i.e. the conventional mathematically positive direction.

#### II. Application of (2).

Fundamental relationships. There are several ways to apply (2) to this problem. The most natural way to do so seems to be, at least at first, to assign quantities w and z in (2) to the the variables F and z of our problem, since we are looking at the map of a region of the F-plane to the z-plane. For most applications, this is not very practical since one then gets the curvature of the maps of constant potential lines as a function of A and V, when in fact one wants the curvature as a function of x and

January, 1994. Note 0611thry.

y. We therefore proceed in the following manner: we assign z and w to z and F, and look in

$$k_F = \frac{\left(k_z + \Im\left(\frac{F''}{F'}e^{i\alpha_z}\right)\right)}{|F'|},\tag{4}$$

for  $k_F = 0$ , i.e. the curvature of maps of straight lines in the F-plane is given by

$$k_z = -\Im\left(\frac{F''}{F'}e^{i\alpha_z}\right).$$
(5)

To get a more practical formula, we express  $e^{i\alpha_z}$  with the help of (2) through

$$e^{i\alpha_z} = e^{i\alpha_F} \frac{|F'|}{F'},\tag{6}$$

and the derivatives of F through the fields as given in (1), yielding

$$k_z = -\Re\left(\frac{B^{*'}}{B^{*2}}|B|e^{i\alpha_F}\right). \tag{7}$$

For some expressions of the fields, it is more convenient to write this as

$$k_z = +\Re\left(\left(\frac{1}{B^*}\right)'|B|e^{i\alpha_F}\right).$$
(8)

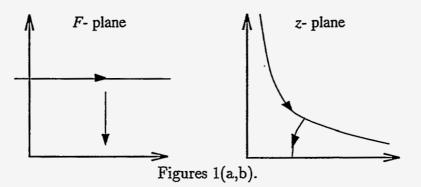
In both (7) and (8),  $e^{i\alpha_F}$  has the absolute value 1 and is real if one is looking at a scalar potential line, and is purely imaginary if one looks at a field line.

Comments. It is worth noting that in order to calculate the curvatures of interest, one needs only the expressions for the complex field, not the complex potential. Under most circumstances, the expression for the complex potential is not more complicated than the expression for the complex field. There are, however, exceptions. For instance, the field of a modified sextupole is given by

$$B^* = iz^2 e^{az^2}. (9)$$

Integrating this to get the complex potential, (1), leads to the error function in the complex plane.

#### **III.** Applications.



(i) The regular multipole. For a multipole of order n with the field perpendicular to the midplane, the field is given by

$$B^* = iz^{n-1}.$$
 (10)

Substituting in (8) gives directly

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$$k_{z} = (n-1) \left| z^{n-1} \right| \Re \left( i z^{-n} e^{i \alpha_{w}} \right).$$
 (11)

Using, for  $e^{i\alpha_F}$ , the phases corresponding to the arrows in Figures 1(a) and 1(b), and using  $z = re^{i\varphi}$ , gives, for the curvature of the field line and the scalar equipotential:

$$k_z = (n-1)\cos\frac{n\varphi}{r},\tag{12A}$$

$$k_z = (n-1)\sin\frac{n\varphi}{r}.$$
(12V)

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(ii) The modified sextupole. This particular implementation of a modified sextupole has the field in the midplane perpendicular to the midplane, and behaves like a good sextupole close to the origin, but has a stronger modified field, proportional to  $x^2 e^{ax^2}$ ,  $a \in \Re$ , as one moves away from the origin of the coordinate system. The complex field is therefore given by

$$B^* = ize^{ax^2}.$$

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#### Fringe Field Model Function for Dipoles

For a number of beam optics tasks, it is important to have an analytical function that describes the field in the fringe field region of a dipole  $^{\dagger}$ . We restrict ourselves to the simple case of a dipole that has a straght effective field boundary, making this a very simple problem of describing two dimensional fields. Putting the x-axis into the midplane of a dipole whose half gap is normalized to be equal to 1, with large x > 0 describing the outside of the magnet, and the far negative end of the x-axis the deep inside region of the magnet, the field in the region of interest can be described by

$$\frac{B_y(x,y) + iB_x(x,y)}{B_0} = G(z) = D_1(z) + D_2(z) + D_3(z), \tag{0.0}$$

$$z = x + iy, \tag{0.1}$$

and the functions  $D_1, D_2, D_3$  chosen such that the asymptotic behavior of G(z) reflects the properties of the fields in the regions deep inside and far outside the magnet. In addition, G(z) should not have any singularities for the space within -1 < y < 1. The following functions satisfy these conditions:

$$D_1(z) = \frac{1 + nAe^{\pi z/2}}{\left(1 + Ae^{\pi z/2}\right)^n},\tag{1}$$

$$D_2(z) = C_1 e^{-C_2(z-x_2)^2},$$
(2)

$$D_3(z) = K_1 \cdot \frac{\left(1 + K_3 e^{-\pi z/2}\right)^m}{\left(1 + K_2 (z - x_3)^2\right)^{3/2}},$$
(3)

with all coefficients real,  $n \ge 2$ ,  $K_2 > 1$ , and  $A, C_2, K_3, m > 0$ . The fields deep inside the magnet are dominated by the "longest surviving" term  $e^{\pi z}$  from  $D_1(z)$ , while far outside the magnet the field is dominated, as desired, by the "longest surviving" term proportional to  $1/z^3$  from  $D_3$ , with clearly no singularities for -1 < y < 1.  $D_2(z)$  has been added (and one could add more such terms) to allow a good fit of G(z) to measured or computed data in the transition region. While this suggested model function G(z) has enough free parameters to fit data, the quality of such a fit has not been tested on a real problem, but the G(z) given here should contain a sufficient number of suggestions that this approach to the Enge function promises to be successful.

December, 1993. Note 0610thry.

<sup>†</sup> See document 0609thry, Comments about RAYTRACE.

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### **Comments about RAYTRACE**

#### Introduction.

Several years ago I was asked at a workshop to comment on the representation of magnetic fields in the RAYTRACE code, a computer program that was developed by H. A. Enge and his students in the 1960's<sup> $\dagger$ </sup>. Since my comments contained not only some academically interesting points, but also suggestions for improvement of this enormously successful code, several people asked me to put my thoughts on this subject on paper. After describing the specific aspects of the code that I want to discuss, I will elaborate on what I would characterize as shortcomings, together with suggestions for eliminating them, and a description of some mathematical detail at the end.

#### Fields in RAYTRACE.

Even though it is not a major effort to generalize my comments, I restrict the discussion to the case of the fringe field region of a dipole magnet that has a straight effective field boundary in the region of interest. This means that we are dealing with two dimensional fields, with all the associated simplifications that make it possible to address the core of the problem without unnecessary distractions.

Using the midplane of the magnet as the x-axis of the xy coordinate system, with large positive x representing the region far outside the dipole, and the other extreme the region deep inside the magnet, the field is characterized by the following function, commonly called the Enge function :

$$B_y(x,0) = \frac{B_0}{1 + e^{P(x)}},$$
 (1a)

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where

$$P(x) = C_0 + C_1 x + C_2 x^2 + \ldots + C_n x^n,$$
 (1b)

with n an odd integer and  $C_n > 0$ .

The coefficients are obtained by fitting measured or computed field values in the midplane to (1), and fields off the midplane are obtained by using a Taylor series expansion, with the derivatives obtained from (1).

#### Comments and Suggestions.

I have problems with three tightly linked aspects of this procedure:

December, 1993. Note 0609thry.

<sup>†</sup> Spencer, J. E. and Enge, H. A., Nuclear Instruments and Methods 49, 181 (1967).

(A) It is true, in general, that if one fits parameters of a function so that the fields on the surface of a volume are well represented by that function, the quality of the fields computed with that function inside the volume is at least as good as (but usually better than) the original data on the surface. It is, of course, assumed that the function and field calculation algorithm satisfy all the relevant vacuum field equations. Conversely, calculating fields in the volume from a function whose free parameters were determined on a line inside the volume gives fields that are not nearly as accurate as the original data. These facts are qualitatively clear if one thinks of the fringe fields in the midplane of the dipole: significantly different pole contours produce very similar fields in the midplane. That means that if one calculates fields off the midplane accurately from the fields in the midplane, small differences in the function there will give significantly different fields far away from the midplane.

(B) Calculating fields off the midplane with a Taylor series expansion makes no sense in this case for the following reasons: since  $B_x - iB_y$  or, more conveniently in this case,  $B_y + iB_x$ , is an analytical function of the complex variable z = x + iy, the field at location (x, y) can be obtained directly, without any approximation, by evaluating (1) for complex argument:

$$B_y(x,y) + iB_x(x,y) = B_y(x+iy,0) = \frac{B_0}{1+e^{P(x+iy)}}.$$
(2)

This very simple evaluation of fields from a midplane model function makes it obviously easy to fit the parameters of the model, no matter the nature of that function, to fields off the midplane, thus eliminating the objection raised in (A).

(C) It seems to me that the form of the Enge function is not well suited to this problem for two reasons: 1) the function does not have ther appropriate asymptotic behavior far away from either end of the magnet; and 2) unless one makes a careful study of the Enge function, it may have one or more singularities in the "business" region. Avoiding that kind of disaster by evaluating the field only approximately is clearly not a satisfactory answer to this problem. While it is fairly easy with the help of (2) to make the singularity check (see Appendix), it might be simpler to "design" a function that can not have that kind of singularity, in addition to having the proper asymptotic behavior. I have some very promising candidates but have not made the effort to test them on some real problems.

#### Appendix.

For the Enge function to have no damaging singularity it is necessary and sufficient that the equation

$$P(z) = im\pi$$
 with  $m = \text{odd integer} \neq 0$  (3)

has no solution for z between the midplane and a line parallel to the midplane one half gap, h, away from the midplane. This test is most easily carried out with the argument principle that states, in this case, that the number of zeroes of w(z) within a region of the z-plane equals the number of times w(z) goes around w = 0 when z traces the boundary of the region. Since, in this case,

$$w(z) = P(z) + im\pi, \tag{4}$$

with all  $C_n$  in P(z) real, it is only necessary to find the locations where the map of the straight line parallel to the midplane at distance h intersects the imaginary axis of P(z), i.e. one has to find  $\Im P(z)$  at the locations where  $\Re P(x+ih) = 0$ . Since  $\Re P(x+ih) = 0$  means nothing more than finding the real roots (in x) of a polynomial of order n, this a very simple exercise for a computer. Having these points, it is trivial to see whether w(z) = 0 is possible for any odd m. I have carried out that test for the example given by Spencer and Enge, and for four cases given to me by S. Kowalski. I am happy to report that while none of these cases had singularities within one half gap of the midplane, there were some singularities just outside the end of the dipole only a little more than a half gap away from the midplane.

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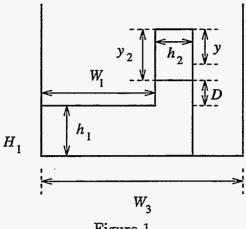
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$$2\mathcal{E} = \int \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{H} dv = \int \mathbf{H} \cdot \nabla \times \mathbf{A} dv.$$

From

$$\nabla \cdot (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{H}) = \mathbf{H} \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) - \mathbf{A} \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{H}),$$

we have that, with  $\mathbf{j} = j\mathbf{e}_z$ ,

$$2\mathcal{E} = \int \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{j} dv + \int (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{H}) \cdot d\mathbf{a}$$
$$= \int \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{j} dv + \int \mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{H} \times d\mathbf{a}),$$

where  $\mathbf{H} \times d\mathbf{a} = 0$  on  $\mu = \infty$  surface.

In case of a long magnet,  $\int j \, da \equiv 0$  which means that we can add any constant to A without changing anything. We make A = 0 along the y-axis. We now use  $\mathbf{A} = \mu_0 A \mathbf{e}_z$ , so that the total energy per unit length is

$$\mathcal{E}' = rac{1}{2} \mu_0 \, j \int A dx dy$$

where the integral is evaluated over the coil in the first quadrant.

January, 1993. Note 0607thry.

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To get

$$J_1 = \int A(x,y) dx dy$$

we look at

$$J_2(y) = \int_0^{y < y_2} \int_0^{h_2} H_x dx dy = \int \int \frac{\partial A}{\partial y} dy dx$$
  
=  $\int (A(x, y) - A_t) dx = \int A(x, y) dx - A_t h_2,$ 

where  $A_t$  is A at top of the coil slot.

We integrate the original expression for  $J_2$  over x first, and by Ampère's Law,

$$J_2(y) = \int_0^y \frac{I}{y_2} y \, dy = \frac{Iy^2}{2y_2}.$$

Therefore,

$$\int A(x,y)dx = \frac{Iy^2}{2y_2} + A_th_2,$$

$$J_1 = \int_0^{y_2} \int A(x,y) dx dy = \frac{Iy_2^2}{6} + A_t h_2 y_2.$$

From H-Magnet With Minimal Yoke Flux Density  $^{\dagger}$  we know that

$$A_t = I\left(\frac{W_1}{h_1} + \frac{D + y_2/2}{h_2} + E_1\right),$$

and thus we have that

$$J_{1} = Ih_{2}y_{2}\left(\frac{W_{1}}{h_{1}} + \frac{D + y_{2}/2}{h_{2}} + E_{1} + \frac{y_{2}}{6h_{2}}\right).$$
$$jJ_{1} = I^{2}\left(\frac{W_{1}}{h_{1}} + \frac{2y_{2}}{3h_{2}} + \frac{D}{h_{2}} + E_{1}\left(\frac{h_{1}}{h_{2}}\right)\right).$$
$$\mathcal{E}' = \frac{1}{2}\mu_{0}(jJ_{1}),$$

† Document 0606thry.

where

$$I = H_1 h_1 = j h_2 y_2,$$
$$E_1(a) = a + \frac{2}{\pi} \left( \ln \frac{a + 1/a}{4} + \left( \frac{1}{a} - a \right) \arctan a \right) \quad \text{with} \quad a = h_2/h_1.$$

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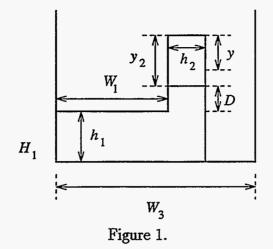
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 $W_1$ ,  $H_1$ ,  $W_3$ , D, and  $h_1$  are given. We want to minimize  $\overline{B}_{yoke,max}$  for  $\mu = \infty$  by chosing the proper  $h_2$ .

#### Procedure.

Calculate flux for 0-thickness coil at top of coil slot using excess flux coefficient  $E_1$  for corner. Subtract "window frame flux" from combination of real coil and 0-thickness coil.

For  $V = H_1h_1 = jh_2y_2$  we chose  $h_2$  and j. Thus,

$$A = V \left( \frac{W_1}{h_1} + \frac{D + y_2}{h_2} + E_1 \left( \frac{h_1}{h_2} \right) - \frac{y_2}{2h_2} \right) \mu_0$$
$$= \boxed{\mu_0 V \left( \frac{W_1}{h_1} + \frac{D + y_2/2}{h_2} + E_1 \left( \frac{h_1}{h_2} \right) \right)}$$

$$\overline{B}_{\text{yoke,max}} = \frac{A}{W_3 - W_1 - h_2}.$$

We determine the minimum value of  $\overline{B}_{yoke,max}$  by varying  $h_2$ , and we define

$$E_1(a) = a + \frac{2}{\pi} \left( \ln \frac{a+1/a}{4} + \left(\frac{1}{a} - a\right) \arctan a \right) \quad \text{with} \quad a = h_2/h_1.$$

January, 1993. Note 0606thry.

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# Dipole with Small Gap Bypass

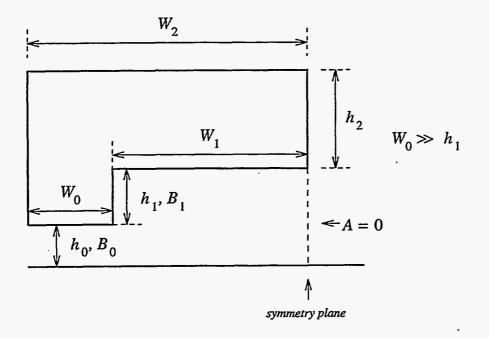


Figure 1.

$$B_0 h_0 + h_1 \mu_0 H(B_0) = B_1(h_1 + h_0)$$
(1)

For  $W_0/W_2 = \varepsilon_0$ ,

$$B_2W_2 = B_0W_0 + B_1W_1$$
 and thus  $B_2 = B_0\varepsilon_0 + B_1(1 - \varepsilon_0)$ ,

$$V_{00} = \frac{B_1}{\mu_0}(h_0 + h_1) + h_2 H(B_0 \varepsilon_0 + B_1(1 - \varepsilon_0))$$

The exact equation

$$\mu_0 V_{00} = B_1(h_0 + h_1) + \mu_0 h_2 H(B_0 \varepsilon_0 + B_1(1 - \varepsilon_0))$$
(2)

has the following implementations

$$B_1 \rightarrow B_0$$
 and then  $B_1, B_0 \rightarrow V_{00}$ .

We will now examine three special cases.

С,

June, 1993. Note 0591thry.

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In Case 1,  $V_{00}$  is so small that  $\mu_0 H(B) = \gamma B$ ,

$$B_{0}(h_{0} + \gamma h_{1}) = B_{1}(h_{0} + h_{1}),$$

$$\mu_{0}V_{00} = B_{1}\underbrace{\left(h_{0} + h_{1} + \gamma h_{2}\left(\varepsilon_{0}\frac{h_{0} + h_{1}}{h_{0} + \gamma h_{1}} + 1 - \varepsilon_{0}\right)\right)}_{K},$$

where

$$\frac{h_0 + h_1}{h_0 + \gamma h_1} = 1 + \frac{(1 - \gamma)h_1}{h_0 + \gamma h_1} \quad \text{and} \quad K'_{h_0} = 1 - \frac{\gamma h_1 \varepsilon_0 h_2 (1 - \gamma)}{(h_0 + \gamma h_1)^2},$$
  
$$B_1 = \frac{\mu_0 V_{00}}{K}, \quad B'_1 = \frac{-\mu_0 V_{00}}{K^2} K' = \frac{\mu_0 V_{00}}{K^2} \left(\frac{\gamma h_1 \varepsilon_0 h_2 (1 - \gamma)}{(h_0 + \gamma h_1)^2} - 1\right).$$

For  $h_0 \ll \gamma h_1$ :

$$B_1' = \frac{\mu_0 V_{00}}{K^2} \left( \frac{\varepsilon_0 h_2 (1-\gamma)}{\gamma h_1} - 1 \right) > 0.$$

$$\begin{split} K' &= 0 \text{ for } h_0 + \gamma h_1 = \sqrt{\varepsilon_0 \gamma h_1 h_2 (1 - \gamma)} \text{ such that} \\ h_0 &= \gamma h_1 \left( \underbrace{\sqrt{\frac{\varepsilon_0 h_2 (1 - \gamma)}{\gamma h_1}}}_{\gg 1} - 1 \right) \approx \sqrt{\varepsilon_0 h_1 h_2 (1 - \gamma) \gamma}. \end{split}$$

For  $h_1 = 1, h_2 = 5, \varepsilon_0 = 1/2, \gamma = 10^{-3}$ , we have

$$h_0 = \sqrt{1/2 \cdot 1 \cdot 5 \cdot 10^{-3}} = \frac{1}{20} \,\mathrm{cm} \,.$$

In Case 2, we need  $V_{00}$  large enough so that  $B_0 \approx B_s$ , but small enough so that for (2)  $\mu_0 H(B) = \gamma B$ , thus

$$\mu_0 V_{00} = B_1(h_0 + h_1) + B_1 h_2 \gamma (1 - \varepsilon_0) + B_s h_2 \gamma \varepsilon_0 ,$$

where

$$B_{1} = \frac{\mu_{0}V_{00} - B_{s}\gamma h_{2}\varepsilon_{0}}{h_{0} + h_{1} + h_{2}\gamma(1 - \varepsilon_{0})}.$$

In a third, simple case, Case 3, for a still higher  $V_{00}$ ,

 $B_s \varepsilon_0 + B_1 (1 - \varepsilon_0) \rightarrow B_s$ ,

i.e. it is independent of  $V_{00}$ , and thus

$$B_1=B_s.$$

## Boundary Condition at Iron-Air Interface for AC and Application to 2-Dimensional Cylinder

Interface at y = 0,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial y} = '.$$

$$\mathbf{H} = H\mathbf{e}_x, \quad \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{e}_z \sigma E \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{e}_z E.$$

$$(\nabla \times \mathbf{H})_z = -H' = \sigma E \quad \text{and} \quad E = -\varrho H'.$$

$$(\nabla \times \mathbf{E})_x = E' = -\mu_0 \mu p H = -\varrho H'' \quad \text{and} \quad H'' - k^2 H =$$

where, depending on the application, p is either the Laplace transform variable or, for sinusoidal excitation,  $i\omega$ .

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$$k = \sqrt{\sigma \mu_0 \mu p} = \frac{1}{D_1}$$

$$H = H_0 e^{-ky}$$
 and  $\Phi = \mu_0 \mu \int_0^\infty H dy = \frac{H_0 \mu_0 \mu}{k} = \mu_0 H_0 \mu D_1.$ 

Therefore, with

Given an iron cylinder with  $D_2$ , of radius 1, in far-field  $\mathbf{H} = H_{\infty} \mathbf{e}_x$ , we try to solve for the complex potential F. Ansatz: the superposition of the macro and micro dipoles, with normalized units.

$$F = -iH_1(z + 1/z) - iH_2(z - 1/z).$$

with z = x + iy, normalized with radius  $r_0$  of the cylinder.

May, 1988. Note 0492thry.

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On |z| = 1

$$F = A + iV = 2H_2 \sin \varphi - i2H_1 \cos \varphi,$$
$$H^* = iF' = H_x - iH_y \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{H} = H_r + iH_\varphi = He^{-i\varphi},$$
$$\mathcal{H}^* = H^* e^{i\varphi}.$$

and the boundary condition is, with

$$H_{\parallel} = H_{\varphi}$$
 and  $H_{\perp} = -H_r$ ,  
 $H_{\tau} = -D_2 \frac{\partial H_{\varphi}}{\partial \varphi}$ 

$$H^* = H_1(1 - 1/z^2) + H_2(1 + 1/z^2) = e^{-i\varphi} \mathcal{H}^*.$$

On the surface,

$$\mathcal{H}^* = H_\tau - iH_\varphi = 2iH_1\sin\varphi + 2H_2\cos\varphi,$$

$$H_r = 2H_2\cos\varphi$$
 and  $H_{\varphi} = 2H_1\sin\varphi$ 

and the boundary condition is, with

$$2H_2\cosarphi=D_22H_1\sinarphi+2H_2\cosarphi$$
 and  $H_2=D_2H_1,$ 

$$H_{\infty} = H_1 + H_2 = H_1(1 + D_2),$$

$$H_1 = \frac{H_\infty}{1+D_2}, \quad H_2 = \frac{H_\infty D_2}{1+D_2},$$

$$H_{\tau} = 2H_{\infty} \frac{D_2}{1+D_2} \cos \varphi$$
 and  $H_{\varphi} = -2H_{\infty} \frac{\sin \varphi}{1+D_2}$ 

normalized with radius  $r_0$  of the cylinder.

Using SI units, we choose  $\sigma\mu_0 = 10$ ,  $\mu = 10^4$  and  $\omega = 2\pi \cdot 60$ Hz, and therefore we have

$$|D_2| = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\sigma\mu_0\omega}} = \frac{10^2}{\sqrt{10^4(.12\pi)}},$$
$$|D_2| = 1.6m$$
$$|D_1| = .16mm \text{ and } |D_1|\sqrt{2} = .23mm$$

For sinusoidal excitation,

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$$D_2 = |D_2| \frac{(1-i)}{\sqrt{2}},$$

$$|1 + D_2| = \sqrt{\left(1 + \frac{|D_2|}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 + \frac{|D_2|^2}{2}} = \sqrt{1 + |D_2|^2 + |D_2|\sqrt{2}}.$$

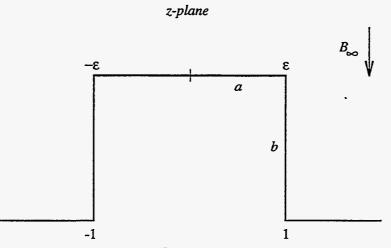
Normalized, where  $r_0$  is the radius of the cylinder:

$$D_2=\frac{D_2(\mathrm{m})}{\mathrm{r}_0(\mathrm{m})}\,.$$

That is, for same material and frequency,  $|D_2|$  is large for a small cylinder and  $|D_2|$  is small for a large cylinder.

Unfortunately, if  $H_{\perp} = D_2 \frac{\partial H_{\parallel}}{\partial s_{\parallel}}$  is valid in z-geometry, it is not satisfied in conformally mapped w-geometry, i.e. dealing with this problem in mapped geometry is not practical.

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Figure 1.

$$\dot{z} = c \frac{\sqrt{t^2 - \varepsilon^2}}{\sqrt{t^2 - 1}}$$

For

$$t = \varepsilon \sin \varphi, \quad dt = \varepsilon \cos \varphi \, d\varphi \, \sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2} = \varepsilon_1,$$

we have

$$\frac{a}{c} = \int_{0}^{\pi/2} \sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2 \sin^2 \varphi} \, d\varphi - \varepsilon_1^2 \int_{0}^{\pi/2} \frac{d\varphi}{\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2 \sin^2 \varphi}}$$
$$\frac{a}{c} = E(\varepsilon^2) - \varepsilon_1^2 K(\varepsilon^2) \, .$$

For

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$$t = \cos \varphi$$
,  $dt = -\sin \varphi \, d\varphi$ ,  $\varepsilon = \cos \alpha$ ,  $\varepsilon_1 = \sin \alpha$ ,

May, 1988. Note 0491thry.

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$$\sin \varphi = \varepsilon_1 \sin \psi, \ d\varphi = \frac{\varepsilon_1 \cos \psi \, d\psi}{\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon_1^2 \sin^2 \psi}},$$

we have

$$\frac{b}{c} = \int_{\varepsilon}^{1} \frac{\sqrt{t^2 - \varepsilon^2}}{\sqrt{1 - t^2}} dt = \int_{0}^{\alpha} \sqrt{\varepsilon_1^2 - \sin^2 \varphi} d\varphi = \varepsilon_1^2 \int_{0}^{\pi/2} \frac{\cos^2 \psi}{\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon_1^2 \sin^2 \psi}} d\psi$$
$$\boxed{\frac{b}{c} = E(\varepsilon_1^2) - \varepsilon^2 K(\varepsilon_1^2) .}$$

Thus

$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{E(\varepsilon^2) - \varepsilon_1^2 K(\varepsilon^2)}{E(\varepsilon_1^2) - \varepsilon^2 K(\varepsilon_1^2)} \ .$$

For

$$F(t) = cB_{\infty}t, \quad F' = B_{\infty}\frac{\sqrt{t^2 - 1}}{\sqrt{t^2 - \varepsilon^2}}, \quad B_0 = \frac{B_{\infty}}{\varepsilon}.$$

and therefore

$$F(\varepsilon) = \frac{aB_{\infty}\varepsilon}{E(\varepsilon^2) - \varepsilon_1^2 K(\varepsilon^2)} ,$$

$$F(1) = rac{aB_{\infty}}{E(\varepsilon^2) - \varepsilon_1^2 K(\varepsilon^2)}$$
.

Given a square box, with dimensions  $\varepsilon^2 = 1/2$ , E(1/2) = 1.3506, K(1/2) = 1.8541,

$$F(\varepsilon) = F(\sqrt{1/2}) = 1.67aB_{\infty}, \ F(1) = 2.361aB_{\infty}, \ B_0 = 1.41B_{\infty}$$

# Propagation of Fast Perturbation in Dipole

We describe the boundary condition as

$$H_y(h) = D_2 \frac{\partial H_x}{\partial x}$$
 with  $D_2 = \mu D_1 = \frac{\mu}{\sqrt{i\omega\sigma\mu_0\mu}}$ .

Ansatz:

$$H_y(x,y) = \sum a_n \cos k_n y \, e^{-k_n x}$$

where we look to satisfy the  $H_y(-y) = H_y(y)$  symmetry only.  $\nabla^2 H_y = 0$  is obviously satisfied.

$$\frac{\partial H_x}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial H_y}{\partial x} = -\sum a_n k_n \cos k_n y \, e^{-k_n x}$$
$$H_x = -\sum a_n \sin k_n y \, e^{-k_n x} \, .$$

At the boundary we have

$$\sum a_n \cos k_n h e^{-k_n x} = \sum a_n D_2 k_n \sin k_n h e^{-k_n x}.$$

For

$$D_2 k_n \tan k_n h = 1$$
 and  $\alpha_n = k_n h$ ,

we therefore have

$$\alpha_n \tan \alpha_n = \frac{h}{D_2}$$

where

$$\frac{1}{D_2} = \sqrt{\frac{i\omega\sigma\mu_0}{\mu}}$$

November, 1987. Note 0489thry.

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Case 1: "normal" case,  $\mu \to \infty$   $\alpha_n = n\pi$ . Case 2: superconducting case,  $\sigma \to \infty$   $\alpha_n = (n+1/2)\pi$ . Case 3: using iron with  $\omega = 2\pi 60$ Hz, and given that  $D_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{i\omega\sigma\mu_0\mu}}$ ,

$$|D_1| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi \cdot 60 \cdot 10^{1+3}}} = 5.2 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{m} = .52 \text{mm}$$
$$|D_2| = \mu |D_1| = 52 \text{cm}.$$

We introduce

$$\alpha_0 \tan \alpha_0 = \frac{h}{D_2} = \varepsilon = h \sqrt{\frac{i\omega\sigma\mu_0}{\mu}}$$

and for  $|\varepsilon| << 1$ ,  $\alpha_0 \approx \sqrt{\varepsilon}$ . Thus, for  $\alpha_n = n\pi + \delta_n$ ,

$$(n\pi + \delta_n) \tan \delta_n = \varepsilon \implies \delta_n \approx \frac{\varepsilon}{n\pi}.$$

For a better notation of  $\alpha_0$  we have that, for

$$\alpha_0^2 + \alpha_0^4/3 = \varepsilon \implies \alpha_0^2 = -3/2 + \sqrt{9/4 + 3\varepsilon}.$$

and it follows that

$$\alpha_0^2 = \frac{3\varepsilon}{\frac{3}{2} + \sqrt{\frac{9}{4} + 3\varepsilon}} = \frac{2\varepsilon}{1 + \sqrt{1 + \frac{4\varepsilon}{3}}},$$

$$\alpha_0^2 = \frac{2\varepsilon}{2 + \frac{2\varepsilon}{3}} = \frac{\varepsilon}{1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{3}}.$$

To determine  $a_n$  from  $H_y(y)$  at x = 0 we try

$$\int_{0}^{h} H_{y}(y) \cos k_{m} y \, dy = \sum a_{n} \int_{0}^{h} \cos k_{n} y \, \cos k_{m} y \, dy \, .$$

Since  $2\cos k_n y \cos k_m y = \cos(k_n + k_m)y + \cos(k_n - k_m)y$ ,

$$\frac{2}{h} \int_{0}^{n} \cos k_{m} y \, \cos k_{m} y \, dy = \frac{\sin(\alpha_{n} + \alpha_{m})}{\alpha_{n} + \alpha_{m}} + \frac{\sin(\alpha_{n} - \alpha_{m})}{\alpha_{n} - \alpha_{m}}$$

$$= \frac{\alpha_{n} (\sin(\alpha_{n} + \alpha_{m}) + \sin(\alpha_{n} - \alpha_{m}))}{\alpha_{n}^{2} - \alpha_{m}^{2}}$$

$$- \frac{\alpha_{m} (\sin(\alpha_{n} + \alpha_{m}) - \sin(\alpha_{n} - \alpha_{m}))}{\alpha_{n}^{2} - \alpha_{m}^{2}}$$

$$= \frac{2(\alpha_{n} \sin \alpha_{n} \cos \alpha_{m} - \alpha_{m} \cos \alpha_{n} \sin \alpha_{m})}{\alpha_{n}^{2} - \alpha_{m}^{2}}$$

$$= \frac{2 \cos \alpha_{n} \cos \alpha_{m} (\alpha_{n} \tan \alpha_{n} - \alpha_{m} \tan \alpha_{m})}{\alpha_{n}^{2} - \alpha_{m}^{2}}$$

$$= 0 \quad \text{for} \quad n \neq m.$$

Note: this orthogonality condition is not satisfied for  $\int_0^h \sin k_n y \sin k_m y \, dy$ . So, for instance, V(0, y) would not work "directly". One would have to first calculate  $H_y(0, y)$ .

## Description of the Properties of an Ellipse

For many problems, one needs integrals over the circumference of an ellipse, whose equation is

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1.$$

One may describe the ellipse by the parametric representation

$$z = a\cos\varphi + ib\sin\varphi,$$

and use  $\varphi$  as the integration variable.

However, in many cases, it is mathematically more convenient to use z on the circumference as the integrations variable. If one can represent all quantities of interest on the circumference as analytic functions of z, one can then use the Cauchy Theorem to execute the integration.

In using the parametric representation, one usually does something similar by introducing  $e^{i\varphi}$  as the new integration variable. While this oftens works very well, it can lead to difficulties: for example, when  $e^{kz}$  appears in the function to be integrated.

In general, problems are much simpler for circles, where a = b. When  $b \neq a$  it often becomes so difficult to execute the integral that it is most convenient to expand in a quantity that is equivalent to a - b and thus the formulas will be easily written and therefore the expansion will be similarly easy.

Thus,

$$\varepsilon = a\cos\varphi + ib\sin\varphi = e^{i\varphi}\frac{a+b}{2} + e^{-i\varphi}\frac{a-b}{2},\tag{1}$$

$$0 = e^{i\varphi} - 2\frac{z}{a+b} + e^{-i\varphi}\frac{a-b}{a+b} = 0$$
  
=  $e^{2i\varphi}(a+b)^2 - 2ze^{i\varphi}(a+b) + \varepsilon$ ,

$$\varepsilon = a^2 - b^2$$
 and  $W_1 = \sqrt{1 - \varepsilon/z^2}$ . (2)

$$e^{i\varphi} = \frac{z + \sqrt{z^2 - \varepsilon}}{a + b} = z \frac{1 + W_1}{a + b},$$
 (3.1)

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January, 1988. Note 0476thry.

$$e^{-i\varphi} = 2\frac{z}{a-b} - e^{i\varphi}\frac{a+b}{a-b}$$
$$= \frac{z-\sqrt{z^2-\varepsilon}}{a-b} = z\frac{1-W_1}{a-b}$$
(3.2)

$$=\frac{(a+b)/z}{1+W_1}.$$
 (3.3)

For  $\cos \varphi$ ,  $\sin \varphi$ :

$$\frac{1}{a+b} + \frac{1}{a-b} = \frac{2a}{\varepsilon} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{a+b} - \frac{1}{a-b} = \frac{-2b}{\varepsilon},$$
$$\cos\varphi = \frac{az - b\sqrt{z^2 - \varepsilon}}{\varepsilon} = \frac{z^2 + b^2}{az + b\sqrt{z^2 - \varepsilon}} = \frac{z^2 + b^2}{z(a+bW_1)},$$
(4.1)

$$i\sin\varphi = \frac{-bz + a\sqrt{z^2 - \varepsilon}}{\varepsilon} = \frac{z^2 - a^2}{bz + a\sqrt{z^2 - \varepsilon}} = \frac{z^2 - a^2}{z(b + aW_1)}.$$
(4.2)

$$ds = \sqrt[7]{a^2 \sin^2 \varphi + b^2 \cos^2 \varphi} \, d\varphi. \tag{5}$$

From (3.1) we have

$$ie^{i\varphi}d\varphi = \frac{\left(1 + \left(z/\sqrt{z^2 - \varepsilon}\right)\right)dz}{a + b} = \frac{e^{i\varphi}dz}{zW_1},$$
$$d\varphi = \frac{1}{i}\frac{dz}{zW_1}.$$
(6.0)

Thus,

$$\begin{split} \varepsilon^2 G &= \varepsilon^2 (a^2 \sin^2 \varphi + b^2 \cos^2 \varphi) \\ &= z^2 (b^2 (a - bW_1)^2 - a^2 (b - aW_1)^2) \\ &= z^2 (W_1^2 (b^4 - a^4) + 2abW_1 (a^2 - b^2)) \\ &= z^2 \left( \frac{\varepsilon (a^2 + b^2)}{z^2} - (a - b)^2 - 2ab \frac{1 - W_1^2}{1 + W_1} \right), \\ G &= a^2 + b^2 - z^2 \frac{\varepsilon}{(a + b)^2} - \frac{2ab}{1 + W_1}, \end{split}$$

where

$$\frac{2}{1+W_1} = 1 + \frac{1-W_1}{1+W_1}$$

and thus

$$G = a^{2} + b^{2} - ab - z^{2} \frac{\varepsilon}{(a+b)^{2}} - ab \frac{1 - W_{1}}{1 + W_{1}}$$

$$= (a-b)^{2} + ab - z^{2} \frac{\varepsilon}{(a+b)^{2}} - ab \frac{1 - W_{1}}{1 + W_{1}}$$

$$= \frac{\varepsilon^{2}}{(a+b)^{2}} + ab - z^{2} \frac{\varepsilon}{(a+b)^{2}} - ab \frac{1 - W_{1}}{1 + W_{1}}$$

$$= \boxed{ab - \varepsilon \frac{z^{2} - \varepsilon}{(a+b)^{2}} - ab \frac{1 - W_{1}}{1 + W_{1}}}.$$
(7.1)

To expand an expression like

$$rac{1-W_1}{1+W_1}$$
 with  $W_1=\sqrt{1-arepsilon/z^2},$ 

in  $\varepsilon$ , it is often convenient to break it up into an even and odd part in  $\varepsilon$ :

$$2F(\varepsilon) = F(\varepsilon) + F(-\varepsilon) + F(\varepsilon) - F(-\varepsilon)$$
 with  $W_2 = \sqrt{1 + \varepsilon/z^2}$ ,

$$2\frac{1-W_1}{1+W_1} = 2H = \frac{1-W_1}{1+W_1} + \frac{1-W_2}{1+W_2} + \frac{1-W_1}{1+W_1} - \frac{1-W_2}{1+W_2},$$

 $2H(1 + W_1W_2 + W_1 + W_2) = (1 - W_1)(1 + W_2) + (1 + W_1)(1 - W_2)$  $+ (1 - W_1)(1 + W_2) - (1 + W_1)(1 - W_2)$  $= 2(1 - W_1W_2 + W_2 - W_1),$ 

$$\frac{1 - W_1}{1 + W_1} = \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2 / z^4} + \sqrt{1 + \varepsilon / z^2} - \sqrt{1 - \varepsilon / z^2}}{1 + \sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2 / z^4} + \sqrt{1 + \varepsilon / z^2} + \sqrt{1 - \varepsilon / z^2}}.$$

To second order in  $\varepsilon$ :

$$\frac{1 - W_1}{1 + W_1} = \frac{\varepsilon}{z^2} \frac{1 + \varepsilon/2z^2}{4}.$$
(7.2)

A comment about the expansion in  $\varepsilon$  and subsequent integration: the expansion has to be valid and good for z on the ellipse. If, to carry out the integration, one later modifies the integration path (in particular, to a very small circle around z = 0), this will not invalidate the original expansion.

Addendum. A different way to derive G.

For

$$W_0 = \sqrt{z^2 - \varepsilon},$$
  
 $\varepsilon = a^2 - b^2 \text{ and } s = a^2 + b^2,$   
 $s^2 - \varepsilon^2 = 4a^2b^2 \text{ and } 2ab = \sqrt{s^2 - \varepsilon^2},$ 

we have

$$\begin{split} \varepsilon^2 G &= (b\varepsilon \cos \varphi + ia\varepsilon \sin \varphi)(b\varepsilon \cos \varphi - ia\varepsilon \sin \varphi) \\ &= W_0 (2abz - W_0 (a^2 + b^2)) \\ &= sW_0 \left( z\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2/s^2} - W_0 \right) \\ &= sW_0 \frac{z^2 (1 - \varepsilon^2/s^2) - z^2 + \varepsilon}{z\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2/s^2} + W_0}, \end{split}$$

$$G = sW_0 \frac{1 - \varepsilon z^2/s^2}{z\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2/s^2} + W_0} = \left| sW_1 \frac{1 - \varepsilon z^2/s^2}{\sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2/s^2} + W_1} \right|$$

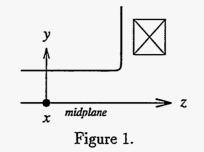
To first order in  $\varepsilon$ :

$$G = s\frac{1}{2}\left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{2z^2}\right)\left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon z^2}{s^2}\right)\left(1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{4z^2}\right) = \frac{s}{2}\left(1 - \varepsilon\left(\frac{z^2}{s^2} + \frac{1}{4z^2}\right)\right),$$

for  $s = 2a^2$  and  $s^2 = 4a^4$ ,

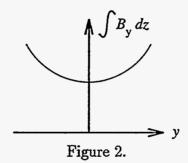
$$\sqrt{G} = a \left( 1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \left( \frac{z^2}{s^2} + \frac{1}{4z^2} \right) \right),$$
$$\sqrt{G} = a \left( 1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{8a^2} \left( \frac{z^2}{a^2} + \frac{a^2}{z^2} \right) \right).$$

## Characterization of Dipole Fringe Fields with Field Integrals



#### Background and Introduction.

The quantity  $\int B_y(x, y, z)dz$  was measured as a function of y for a fixed x, with integration region beginning in the homogenous field region inside the dipole magnet and reaching into the essentially field-free region outside. This resulted in the approximate plotted curve of Figure 1 below.



The conclusion reached pointed to the coil being too close to or too far from the midplane. For didactic purposes this is a very interesting problem for two reasons.

(1) The coil position is only indirectly responsible. The fact that  $\int B_y dz$  depends on y indicates that this is a 3D problem: namely,  $\int B_y(x,0,z)dz$  will have a curvature of opposite polarity (i.e. effective field boundary is curved). This is due either to a curvature of the pole ends (when projected into the xz-plane) or to the finite width in the x-direction. If the latter is the cause, the problem is magnified by the absence (or incorrect design) of the field clamp and by a coil that is too far from the midplane.

(2) The characterization of the fringe field by measuring  $\int B_y(x,0,z)dz$  gives, in case of midplane symmetry, more information than  $\int B_y(0,y,z)dz$  alone.

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May, 1986. Note 0438thry.

#### Analysis.

We assume midplane symmetry. Violation of midplane symmetry should be detected and/or measured, preferably with null method.

In vacuum, full 3D, the following hold:

$$\frac{\partial B_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial B_x}{\partial y} = 0, \tag{1.1}$$

$$\frac{\partial B_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial B_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial z} = 0.$$
(1.2)

We now investigate the properties of

$$\int_{z_1}^{z_2} B_x(x,y,z) dz/L = b_x(x,y) \text{ and } \int_{z_1}^{z_2} B_y(x,y,z) dz/L = b_y(x,y)$$
(2a,b)

where  $z_1, z_2$  are constants, i.e. they are not considered variables; L is a convenient length that is used only for normalization purposes. Integration is performed over (1.1). Integration and differentiation can be interchanged and thus

$$\frac{\partial b_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial b_x}{\partial y} = 0. \tag{3.1}$$

Integration is performed over (1.2) and

$$\frac{\partial b_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial b_y}{\partial y} = (B_z(x, y, z_1) - B_z(x, y, z_2))/L.$$
(3.2)

If, independently of x and y,  $B_z$  at the two end-points is the same<sup>†</sup>, we have

$$\frac{\partial b_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial b_y}{\partial y} = 0. \tag{3.3}$$

(3.1) and (3.2) mean that  $b_x$  and  $-b_y$  satisfy the Cauchy-Riemann conditions of real and imaginary parts of the analytic function of Z = x + iy:

$$b_x - ib_y = b^*(Z). \tag{4}$$

We use the Taylor series to represent  $b^*(Z)$ :

$$b^*(Z) = -i\sum_{0}^n a_n Z^n,$$

where n = multipole order -1, i.e.  $n = 0 \implies$  dipole,  $n = 1 \implies$  quadrupole, etc. Because of midplane symmetry all  $a_n$  must be real. Notice that for y = 0,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>†</sup> In the case under discussion here,  $B_z = 0$  at both ends even though  $B_z \neq 0$  in the fringe field region.

 $b_y(x,0) = \sum a_n x^n$ , i.e. all harmonics contribute; while for x = 0, only  $a_n$  with even n contributes to  $b_y(0,y)$ . If one measures for x = 0 both  $b_y$  and  $b_x$ , then one gets information about all harmonics. There is an advantage to measuring both  $b_y(0,y)$  and  $b_x(0,y)$  since one gives only the odd harmonics and the other only the even, while they are all mixed when calculating  $b_y(x,0)$ .

Looking at (5) it is obvious that if  $b_y(0, y)$  is not constant, but depends on y, then  $b_y(x, 0)$  must depend on x. That is, one is in fact dealing with 3D fields which must be due to curved (in projection on xy-plane) poles or poles of insufficient width in the x-direction, and failure to use a field clamp. It is also qualitatively clear that these 3D effects get more pronounced with increasing distance of the coils from the midplane.

Specifically, for a known value of  $b_y(0, y)$ , what is  $b_y(x, 0)$ ?

$$b_y(0,y) = \sum_{0}^{m} a_{2m} y^{2m} (-1)^m, \qquad (6.1)$$

$$b_y(x,0) = \sum_{0}^{m} a_{2m} x^{2m} + \sum_{0}^{m} a_{2m+1}, \qquad (6.2)$$

where in (6.2)  $a_{2m+1}$  is not obtainable from  $b_y(0, y)$ , but can be obtained from  $b_x(0, y)$ . If one measures  $b_x(0, y)$ , one gets

$$b_x(0,y) = \sum_{0}^{m} a_{2m+1} y^{2m+1} (-1)^m.$$
(6.3)

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For simple analysis, one should plot  $b_y(0,y)$  vs  $y^2$ , and  $b_x(0,y)/y$  vs  $y^2$ . One has to be careful to make the measurements in such a way that they really mean something. The flux loop and integrator method is perhaps best because it can practically always be done in such a way that one makes a null measurment.

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# Penetration of Solenoidal Field through Conducting Shell

**Preliminaries:** Solenoid, shield infinitely long. Thin shell, circular cross-section: treat eddy currents in it in plane geometry with proper boundary values. Only one shell: matrix formulation not needed.

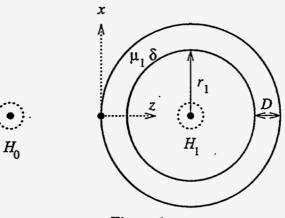


Figure 1.

At z = 0,

$$H_y = H_0(p) =$$
 given solenoid current.

At z = D,

$$E_x = \frac{\mu_0 p H_1 \pi r_1^2}{2\pi r_1} = \frac{r_1}{2} \mu_0 p H_1.$$

In shell,

$$\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{e}_{y}H, \quad \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{e}_{x}E, \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma = \frac{\partial}{\partial z}.$$
$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \sigma \mathbf{E} \implies -H' = \sigma E,$$
$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\mu_{0}\mu p \mathbf{H} \implies E' = -\mu_{0}\mu p H$$

For  $\mu_0 \mu \sigma p = k^2$ ,

$$H'' = -\sigma E' = \mu_0 \mu \sigma p H = k^2 H,$$

$$H = H_0 \cosh kz + b \sinh kz,$$

and for  $\gamma = kD$ ,

$$H_1 = H_0 \cosh \gamma + b \sinh \gamma, \quad ext{and thus} \quad b = rac{H_1 - H_0 \cosh \gamma}{\sinh \gamma},$$

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May, 1986. Note 0437thry.

$$E_1 = \frac{r_1}{2} \mu_0 p H_1 = -\frac{H_1'}{\sigma} = -\frac{k}{\sigma} (H_0 \sinh \gamma + b \cosh \gamma),$$
$$H_1 = \frac{\mu_0 \sigma p r_1}{2k} = -\left(H_0 \sinh \gamma + \frac{\cosh \gamma (H_1 - H_0 \cosh \gamma)}{\sinh \gamma}\right),$$

where, for

$$\frac{\mu_0 \sigma p r_1}{2k} = \frac{k^2 r_1 / \mu}{2k} = \frac{r_1}{2} \frac{k}{\mu} = \gamma \varepsilon, \text{ and thus } \varepsilon = \frac{r_1}{2\mu D},$$

where diffusion occurs for  $\mu \gg 1$ . Thus, for

$$H_1(\varepsilon\gamma\sinh\gamma+\cosh\gamma)=H_0,$$

$$H_1(p) = rac{H_0}{\cosh \gamma + arepsilon \gamma \sinh \gamma}.$$

The zeroes of  $\cosh \gamma + \epsilon \gamma \sinh \gamma$  are given, with

$$\gamma_n = D\sqrt{\mu_0\mu\sigma p_n} = i\alpha_n.$$

And

$$\cosh \gamma + \varepsilon \gamma \sinh \gamma = \cos \alpha_n - \varepsilon \alpha_n \sin \alpha_n = 0,$$
$$\boxed{\frac{1}{\varepsilon} = \alpha_n \tan \alpha_n,}$$

$$p_n = \frac{-\alpha_n^2}{\mu_0 \mu \sigma D^2}.$$

One may expect difficulties for some calculations because  $\gamma = D\sqrt{\mu_0\mu\sigma p}$ , but this is not so, for

$$\cosh \gamma + \varepsilon \gamma \sinh \gamma = 1 + \gamma^2 \left(\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon\right) + \gamma^4 \left(\frac{1}{4!} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3!}\right) + \gamma^6 \left(\frac{1}{6!} + \frac{\varepsilon}{5!}\right) + \cdots$$
$$= 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \gamma^{2n} \left(\frac{1}{(2n)!} + \frac{\varepsilon}{(2n-1)!}\right),$$

and  $\cosh \gamma + \varepsilon \gamma \sinh \gamma$  is a simple function of  $\gamma^2$ , not a complicated function of  $\gamma$ . For

$$\varepsilon \gg 1 \implies \alpha_0^2 \approx \frac{1}{\varepsilon} = \mu_0 \mu \sigma p_0 D^2 = \frac{2\mu D}{r_1} \implies \mu_0 \sigma D r_1 p_0 = 2,$$

with  $\sigma D$  implying non-diffusion.

The roots, in quadrants 1 and 3, are given by,

$$\tan \alpha_n = \frac{1}{\alpha_n \varepsilon}.$$

Where, for  $\alpha_n \varepsilon \gg 1$ ,  $\alpha_n = n\pi + \sigma_n$ , and thus

$$\sigma = \frac{1}{\varepsilon(n\pi + \sigma_n)} \approx \frac{1}{\varepsilon n\pi}.$$

The residue contribution from  $\cosh \gamma + \epsilon \gamma \sinh \gamma$  is given by

$$\frac{1}{\cosh \gamma + \varepsilon \gamma \sinh \gamma} \implies R = \frac{1}{\frac{d\gamma}{dp}(\sinh \gamma + \varepsilon \sinh \gamma + \varepsilon \gamma \cosh \gamma)},$$

where  $d\gamma/dp = \gamma/2p$  and  $\epsilon\gamma = -\cosh\gamma/\sinh\gamma$ . Thus,

$$R = \frac{2p}{\gamma} \frac{\sinh \gamma}{\varepsilon \sinh^2 \gamma - 1} = \frac{2p}{\gamma^2} \frac{\gamma \sinh \gamma}{\varepsilon \sinh^2 \gamma - 1} = \frac{2p}{\gamma^2} \frac{\alpha_n \sin \alpha_n}{\varepsilon \sin^2 \alpha_n + 1}$$

For  $\cot \alpha_n = \alpha_n \varepsilon$ , and  $\sin \alpha_n = 1/\sqrt{1 + \cot^2 \alpha^2} = 1/\sqrt{1 + \alpha_n^2 \varepsilon^2}$ ,

$$R_n = \frac{2}{\mu_0 \mu D^2 \sigma} \frac{\alpha_n}{\sqrt{1 + \alpha_n^2 \varepsilon^2} \left(1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{1 + \alpha_n^2 \varepsilon^2}\right)} = \frac{2}{\mu_0 \mu D^2 \sigma} \frac{\alpha_n \sqrt{1 + \alpha_n^2 \varepsilon^2}}{1 + \alpha_n^2 \varepsilon^2 + \varepsilon}.$$

For  $\alpha_0^2 = 1/\varepsilon$ ,

$$R_0 = \frac{2}{\mu_0 \mu \sigma D^2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}} \frac{\sqrt{1+\varepsilon}}{1+2\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{\mu_0 \mu \sigma D^2 \varepsilon} \frac{\sqrt{1+1/\varepsilon}}{1+1/2\varepsilon}.$$

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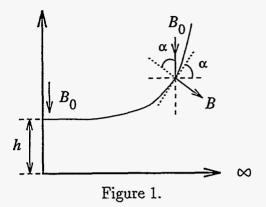
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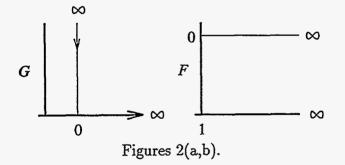
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# Rogowski Dipole



$$B = B_0 \cos \alpha \cdot \frac{e^{i\alpha}}{i} \quad \text{and} \quad B^* = iB_0 \cos \alpha \cdot e^{-i\alpha},$$
$$\frac{iB_0}{B^*} = \boxed{G = \frac{e^{i\alpha}}{\cos \alpha} = 1 + i \tan \alpha} \quad \text{with} \quad G = \frac{1}{F'} = \frac{\dot{z}}{\dot{F}}$$

On pole:  $\Re G = 0$ . On  $0, 1, \infty$ :  $\Im G = 0$ .



$$\dot{G} = \frac{a/2}{\sqrt{t}}$$
 and  $G = 1 + a\sqrt{t}$ ,  
 $\dot{F} = \frac{b/2}{\sqrt{t}\sqrt{t-1}}$  and  $F = b\ln\left(\sqrt{t} + \sqrt{t-1}\right)$ .

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$$\dot{z} = \dot{F}G = \frac{b}{2} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{t}\sqrt{t-1}} + \frac{a}{\sqrt{t-1}} \right) \text{ and } \boxed{z = b \left( \ln \left( \sqrt{t} + \sqrt{t-1} \right) + a\sqrt{t-1} \right).}$$

February, 1981. Note 0397thry.

Since  $ih = b(\ln i + ia) = ib(\pi/2 + a)$ , we let

$$\pi/2 + a = C$$
 and  $h = bC$ .

On pole:  $t = -\tau < 0$ ,

$$x + iy = b(i\pi/2 + \ln(\sqrt{\tau} + \sqrt{\tau+1}) + ia\sqrt{\tau+1}),$$

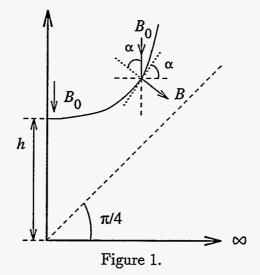
with

$$au = \sinh^2 \alpha, \qquad x = b\alpha,$$

$$b\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + a\cosh\alpha\right) = \frac{h}{C}\left(C + a\left(\cosh\frac{x}{b} - 1\right)\right) = \boxed{y = h\left(1 + \frac{a}{c}\left(\cosh C\frac{x}{h} - 1\right)\right)},$$

and

$$G(1) = 1 + a = \frac{B(z = ih)}{B(z = 0)}.$$



$$\mu = \infty$$
, and  $B^* = +iB_0$ .

$$B=B_0\coslpha\cdotrac{e^{ilpha}}{i}, \hspace{0.3cm} ext{and} \hspace{0.3cm} B^*=iB_0\coslpha\cdot e^{-ilpha}.$$

Thus,

$$\frac{iB_0}{B^*} = G = \frac{e^{i\alpha}}{\cos\alpha} = 1 + i\tan\alpha,$$

on the pole, with  $\Re G = \text{constant} = 1$ , and

$$|G| = \frac{B_0}{|B|}.$$

On the 45° line,

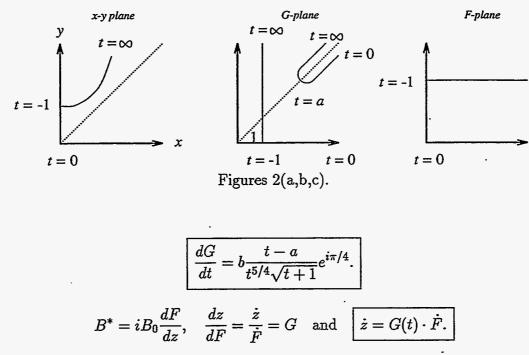
$$B \approx e^{i\pi/4}/i$$
,  $B^* \approx i e^{i\pi/4}$ , and  $G \approx e^{i\pi/4}$ .

February, 1981. Note 0326thry.

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### Observe Figures 2(a,b,c):



In the *F*-plane, for  $-1 \le t \le 0$ :

$$\pi \dot{F} = \frac{c:}{\sqrt{t}\sqrt{t+1}}.$$

The mathematical difficulty arises in the integration of  $\dot{G}$ . For

$$t = w^4$$
,  $dt = 4w^3 dw$ ,  $\frac{dt}{t^{5/4}} = \frac{4w^3 dw}{w^5} = \frac{4dw}{w^2}$ ,

we solve the elliptic integral

$$G = b \int \frac{w^4 - a}{w^2 \sqrt{1 + w^4}} dw.$$

The integration of  $\dot{z} = (\dot{GF}) - \dot{GF}$  leads to

$$z = GF - be^{i\pi/4} \int \frac{t-1}{t^{5/4}\sqrt{t+1}} F dt$$

and therefore

$$F = 2C \ln \left(\sqrt{t} + \sqrt{t+1}\right).$$

### Eddy Currents for Fast Permanent Magnet Magnetization

Sometimes permanent magnets are magnetized by "hitting" them for a short time with high H. It is of interest to know how the magnetization front propagates through the material. Since this is a highly non-linear problem, a strongly simplified model is used in this document, but one which has all the essential features of the real process.

At the left edge of the material, assume a step function excitation starting at t = 0, with amplitude  $H_{00}$ . Our model is a 1-dimensional block of material with the left edge at x = 0, and

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} = 0$$
,  $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{e}_y H$ ,  $\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{e}_z E$ , and  $\mathbf{j} = \sigma \mathbf{E}$ .

For the times of interest,  $H \ge 0$  everywhere. We use a strongly simplified B(H) curve.

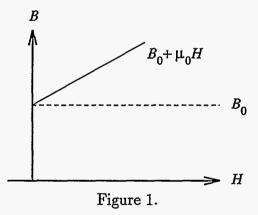


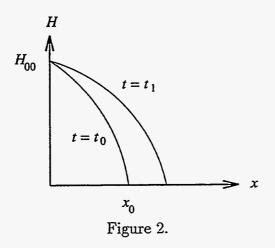
Figure 1 shows that in the beginning, the material "sees" no H and B = 0. As soon as it "sees" H > 0, it becomes magnetized according to the above curve.

To reach an initial understanding of the problem, only the propagation in a medium that is, at least at first, unlimited to the right is treated.

$$abla imes \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{j} \implies H' = \sigma E, \quad ext{with} \quad H' = rac{\partial}{\partial x}.$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\dot{\mathbf{B}} \implies +E' = +\dot{B}.$$

August, 1977. Note 0264thry.



The "location" of the front is designated by  $x_0(t)$ . We integrate  $E' = \dot{B}$  over x across  $x_0(t)$ :

$$E(x_0+\varepsilon)-E(x_0-\varepsilon)=-E(x_0)=\int \dot{B}dx=B_0\dot{x}_0,$$

giving the equation of the front for both Case I and Case II below.

Case I:  $B(H) = B_0$ . For  $x < x_0$ :

$$E'=0, \quad \mathrm{and} \quad E=-B_0\dot{x}_0=arrho H'.$$

$$H(x)=H_{00}-\sigma B_0 x \dot{x}_0,$$

meaning that for this B(H) model, the H(x) curves of Figure 2 are straight lines.

$$H(x_0) = 0 = H_{00} - \sigma B_0 x_0 \dot{x}_0.$$

Integrating over t gives  $H_{00}t - \sigma B_0 x_0^2/2$ , giving the following result for the propagation of the front:

$$\frac{2tH_{00}}{B_0\sigma} = \frac{B_{00}}{B_0} \cdot \frac{2t}{\mu_0\sigma} = \boxed{x_0^2 = r\frac{2t}{\mu_0\sigma}}, \quad \text{with} \quad r = \frac{\mu_0H_{00}}{B_0} = \frac{B_{00}}{B_0}.$$

Case II:  $B = B_0 + \mu_0 H$ .

For  $x < x_0$ :  $H' = \sigma E$ , and  $E' = \mu_0 \dot{H}^{\dagger}$ . For  $x = x_{0_+}$ : H = 0.

<sup>†</sup> The right side of this last equation is now non-zero in contrast to Case I where  $\dot{B} = 0$  in the magnetized part of the material; i.e.  $\dot{B} \neq 0$  only at the propagating front.

For  $x = x_{0-}$ :  $B = B_0$ ,  $E = -B_0 \dot{\mathbf{x}}_0 = \varrho H'$ . For x = 0:  $H = H_{00}$ . The differential equation is  $H'' = \mu_0 \sigma \dot{H}$ . We introduce

$$\sqrt{rac{t}{\mu_0\sigma}}= au$$
 and thus  $t= au^2\mu_0\sigma,$ 

and get

$$\dot{H} = rac{\partial H}{\partial au} \cdot rac{d au}{dt} = rac{\partial H}{\partial au} \cdot rac{1}{2 au \mu_0 \sigma}, \quad ext{and} \quad rac{\partial^2 H}{\partial x^2} = rac{\partial H}{\partial au} \cdot rac{1}{2 au}.$$

We use the dimensional analysis argument that x and  $\tau$  are the only dimensional quantities entering the problem. This means that H must be a function of  $x/\tau$ . We let  $u = x/2\tau$ . For H = F(u):

$$\frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial x^2} = \frac{F''}{4\tau^2} = \frac{1}{2\tau} \cdot F' \cdot \frac{-u}{\tau} = \frac{-F'u}{2\tau^2}, \text{ and thus } F'' + 2uF' = 0,$$
$$\ln \frac{F'}{F'_0} + u^2 = 0, \text{ and } F' = -ae^{-u^2},$$

with  $F'_0 = -a$  because F' has to be less than 0. The boundary conditions, with fixed  $\tau > 0$ , are

$$F = H(u) = H_{00} - a \int_{0}^{u} e^{-u^{2}} du.$$

 $u_0 = x_0/2\tau$  and  $x_0$  refer to the location of front.

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$$H(u_0) = H_{00} - a \int_0^{u_0} e^{-u^2} du = 0$$
, with  $a = \frac{H_{00}}{\int_0^{u_0} e^{-u^2} du}$ .

Just as in Case I, the location  $x_0$  of the front is proportional to  $\sqrt{t}$ . Thus,

$$\frac{\partial H(u_0)}{\partial x} = \frac{-ae^{-u_0^2}}{2\tau} = \sigma E = -B_0 \sigma \dot{x}_0 = -B_0 \sigma \cdot \frac{dx_0}{d\tau} \cdot \frac{1}{2\tau \mu_0 \sigma}$$
$$a = e^{u_0^2} \cdot \frac{B_0}{\mu_0} \cdot \frac{dx_0}{d\tau} \quad \text{and} \quad \boxed{\frac{B_{00}}{B_0} = r = \frac{dx_0}{d\tau} \cdot e^{-u_0^2} \cdot \int_0^{u_0} e^{-u^2} du.}$$

Since  $u_0 = x_0/2\tau$ , this is a first order differential equation that looks difficult at first.

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However, it is obvious that from dimensional considerations the solution must be

$$x_0=2\tau g(r),$$

where the factor of 2 is for neatness. That is,  $u_0 = g(r)$ , and then g(r) is determined by

$$r = 2ge^{g^2} \int\limits_{0}^{g} e^{-u^2} du.$$

For small g:

$$r = 2g^2 \implies g = \sqrt{r/2}, \text{ and } x_0 = \tau \sqrt{2r} = \sqrt{r \cdot \frac{2t}{\mu_0 \sigma}},$$

where  $x_0$  has the same solution as the case of  $B = B_0$ , as it has to be. Evaluation with a TI59 gives the following results:

g	0.01	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	<sup>-</sup> 0.8	1.0
r	$2.0  imes 10^{-4}$	$2.01  imes 10^{-2}$	$8.22  imes 10^{-2}$	.191	.356	.920	2.00	4.06

g	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.8	2.0
r	5.76	8.17	11.7	16.8	24.4	35.8	80.6	193

If r is of order 4, then

$$g \approx 1 \implies x_0 = 2\tau = 2\sqrt{\frac{t}{\mu_0\sigma}}.$$

Case III: H after complete penetration of the slab.

When the front has reached  $x_0 = x_1$ , where  $2x_1$  is the slab thickness, the boundary conditions change. In contrast to our earlier analysis, a given length  $x_1$  enters the problem implicitly, and thus the dimensional analysis argument that H must be equal to  $F(x/2\tau)$  is no longer valid. If time is counted anew, with t = 0 when  $x_0 = x_1$ , we are dealing with a linear system with boundary condition

$$H(x_1 + \Delta x) = H(x_1 - \Delta x) \text{ for } t \ge 0,$$

with known and given H(x) for t = 0 and  $0 \le x \le 2x$ .

If  $H(x) - H_{00}$  is defined to be an odd function of x with respect to x = 0, and an even function with respect to  $x = \pm x_1$ , and this function is expanded into a Fourier series, then the period is  $4x_1$ , and

$$H(x) - H_{00} = \sum a_n(t) \sin\left(n\frac{2\pi}{4x_1}x\right).$$

To satisfy these symmetry conditions n must be odd, and we get

$$H(x) = H_{00} + \sum a_{2m+1}(t) \sin\left((2m+1)\frac{\pi x}{2x_1}\right)$$

and  $a_{2m+1}(0)$  from known H(x) at t = 0, the time of complete penetration. Recalling the differential equation,  $H'' = \mu_0 \sigma \dot{H}$ , with n = 2m + 1 we have

$$-a_n\left(\frac{n\pi}{2x_1}\right)^2=\mu_0\sigma\dot{a}_n,$$

$$a_n(t) = a_n(0) \cdot e^{-\left(\frac{n\pi}{2x_1}\right)^2 \frac{t}{\mu_0 \sigma}},$$
$$a_{2m+1}(t) = a_{2m+1}(0) \cdot e^{-(2m+1)^2 \frac{\pi^2 t}{4x_1^2 \mu_0 \sigma}}.$$

At t = 0:

$$H(x) = H_{00} - H_{00} \frac{\int_0^u e^{-u^2} du}{\int_0^{u_0} e^{-u^2} du} = H_{00} \left( 1 - \frac{\int_0^g \frac{x}{x_1} e^{-u^2} du}{\int_0^g e^{-u^2} du} \right),$$

$$-H_{00}\frac{\int_{0}^{g\frac{x}{x_{1}}}e^{-u^{2}}du}{\int_{0}^{g}e^{-u^{2}}du}=\sum a_{2m+1}(0)\sin\left((2m+1)\frac{\pi x}{2x_{1}}\right).$$

To determine  $a_{2m+1}(0)$  we let

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$$a_{n}(0) \cdot \int_{0}^{1} \sin^{2}\left(n\frac{\pi}{2}v\right) dv = -\frac{H_{00}}{\int_{0}^{g} e^{-u^{2}} du} \cdot \int_{0}^{1} \underbrace{\left(\int_{0}^{gv} e^{-u^{2}} du\right)}_{\zeta} \underbrace{\frac{\sin\left(n\frac{\pi}{2}v\right) dv}{d\eta}}_{d\eta},$$

with

$$\int_{0}^{1} \sin^{2}\left(n\frac{\pi}{2}v\right) dv = \frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{1} (1 - \cos(n\pi v)) dv = \frac{1}{2},$$

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$$\zeta = \int_{0}^{gv} e^{-u^{2}} du, \quad \text{and} \quad d\zeta = g e^{-g^{2}v^{2}},$$
$$d\eta = \sin\left(n\frac{\pi}{2}v\right) dv, \quad \text{and} \quad \eta = -\frac{\cos\left(n\frac{\pi}{2}v\right)}{n\frac{\pi}{2}v},$$
$$\left(\int_{0}^{1} \zeta d\eta\right)_{n=\text{odd}} = \frac{2g}{n\pi} \int_{0}^{1} e^{-g^{2}v^{2}} \cos\left(n\frac{\pi}{2}v\right) dv.$$

Thus,

$$a_{2m+1} = -H_{00} \cdot \frac{4}{(2m+1)\pi} \cdot \frac{\int\limits_{0}^{1} e^{-g^2 v^2} \cos\left((2m+1)\frac{\pi}{2}v\right) dv}{\frac{1}{g} \int\limits_{0}^{g} e^{-u^2} du}.$$

One would let

$$\frac{1}{g}\int_{0}^{g}e^{-u^{2}}du=\int_{0}^{1}e^{-g^{2}v^{2}}dv,$$

if one wants to evaluate it with the integral of the numerator. Otherwise, one may return to the definition of g and use

$$\frac{1}{g} \int_{0}^{g} e^{-u^2} du = \frac{re^{-g^2}}{2g}.$$

The total time required to get good magnetization is determined as follows:

(1) Time to reach  $x = x_1$ :  $t_1 = \mu_0 \sigma(x_1^2/4)$ .

(2) Time for  $a_1$  to decay by a factor of e:  $t_2 = \mu_0 \sigma x_1^2 (4/\pi^2)$ . Thus,

$$\mu_0 \sigma x_1^2 \left( \frac{1}{4} + \frac{4}{\pi^2} \right) = \boxed{t_{\text{total}} \approx .65 \mu_0 \sigma x_1^2}.$$

(3) If time for  $a_1$  to decay by  $e^{\pi}$  is used,  $t_2 = \mu_0 \sigma x_1^2(4/\pi)$ , and

$$\mu_0 \sigma x_1^2 (0.25 + 1.27) = \boxed{t_{\text{total}} \approx 1.5 \mu_0 \sigma x_1^2}.$$

Change of Determinant for Small Changes of One Element of the Matrix that Describes a System that Is Least Squares Optimized with Restraints and Has Least Squares Limitations on Parameters

We let

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} M^t W M + V & N^t \\ N & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and consider only those terms linear in  $\Delta M_{nm}$  or  $\Delta N_{nm}$ . 1)

$$\Delta M_{ik} = \Delta M_{nm} \delta(i-n) \delta(k-m)$$
 with  $\Delta M_{nm} = a$ .

Here and below we sum over indices appearing more than once.

$$\begin{split} \left(M^{t}WM\right)_{ik} &= M_{li}W_{ll}M_{lk} \\ & \rightarrow \quad \left(M_{li} + a\delta(l-n)\delta(i-m)\right)W_{ll}\left(M_{lk} + a\delta(l-n)\delta(k-m)\right) \\ &= M_{li}W_{ll}M_{lk} + aW_{nn}\left(M_{ni}\delta(k-m) + M_{nk}\delta(i-m)\right) + a^{2}. \end{split}$$

To get  $||A + \Delta A||$  to first order in *a*, one must differentiate  $||A + \Delta A||$  with respect to *a* and then evaluate, knowing that  $A^{-1}$  is Hermitian.

$$\|A + \Delta A\| = \|A\| + aW_{nn} \cdot 2M_{nk}K_{mk},$$

where K is the co-factor, and summation over k is done only over values consistent with the number of rows in M.

$$\frac{\parallel A + \Delta A \parallel}{\parallel A \parallel} = 1 + \frac{\Delta M_{nm}}{M_{nm}} \cdot 2W_{nn}M_{nm} \cdot \sum_{k} M_{nk}A_{km}^{-1}$$

where  $W_{nn} \sum_{k} M_{nk} A_{km}^{-1} = (A^{-1}M^{t}W)_{mn}$ . 2)

$$\Delta N_{ik} = \Delta N_{nm} \delta(i-n) \delta(k-m),$$

$$|| A + \Delta A || = || A || + 2\Delta N_{nm} K_{nm},$$

$$\frac{\|A + \Delta A\|}{\|A\|} = 1 + \frac{\Delta N_{nm}}{N_{nm}} \cdot 2N_{nm}A_{mn}^{-1}.$$

November, 1968. Note 0072thry.

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## Sensitivity of Solution of Linear Equations to Change of an Individual Matrix Element

We let

$$MP = S, \quad M^{-1} = N \quad \text{and} \quad P = NS,$$

$$(M + \Delta M)(P + \Delta P) = M(I + A)(P + \Delta P) = S$$
 where  $A = N\Delta M$ ,  
 $P + \Delta P = (I + A)^{-1}P$  and  $\Delta P = ((I + A)^{-1} - I)P$ .

Further

$$\Delta M_{nm} = a\delta(n - n_0)\delta(m - m_0) \text{ where } a = \Delta M_{n_0m_0},$$

$$A_{km} = N_{kn}\Delta M_{nm} = aN_{kn}\delta(n - n_0)\delta(m - m_0) = aN_{kn_0}\delta(m - m_0),$$

$$A_{km}^2 = A_{ki}A_{im} = a^2N_{kn_0}\delta(i - m_0)N_{in_0}\delta(m - m_0),$$

where  $A^2 = a N_{m_0 n_0} A$ , and we let  $\alpha = a N_{m_0 n_0}$ .

$$(I+A)^{-1} = I + \gamma A$$
 and  $(I+A)(I+\gamma A) = I + A(I+\gamma+\gamma\alpha) = I$ ,

thus,

$$\gamma = -\frac{1}{1 + \Delta M_{n_0 m_0} N_{m_0 n_0}} \quad \text{with} \quad \Delta M_{n_0 m_0} N_{m_0 n_0} \neq -1$$

$$\Delta P = \gamma AP$$

$$\Delta P_k = \gamma A_{km} P_m = \gamma a N_{kn_0} \delta(m - m_0) P_m,$$

$$\Delta P_k = -\frac{\Delta M_{n_0 m_0} P_{m_0}}{1 + \Delta M_{n_0 m_0} N_{m_0 n_0}} \cdot N_{kn_0}$$

That the matrix M becomes exactly singular for  $\Delta M_{n_0m_0} = -1/N_{m_0n_0}$  is easily shown with *Cramer's Rule*. Let  $K_{nm}$  be the co-factor to the nm element, and  $||M + \Delta M|| = ||M|| + \Delta M_{n_0m_0}K_{m_0n_0}$ :

$$\Delta M_{n_0 m_0} \cdot \frac{K_{n_0 m_0}}{\|M\|} = \Delta M_{n_0 m_0} N_{m_0 n_0} = -1$$

which is the necessary condition for a singular matrix.

November, 1968. Note 0071thry.

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This condition can easily be used to judge whether a matrix is "close" to being singular. One would test

$$\frac{M_{n_0 m_0}}{\Delta M_{n_0 m_0}} = -M_{n_0 m_0} N_{m_0 n_0}$$

and when the result is large compared to the inverse of the relative error of  $M_{n_0m_0}$ , one is likely to be in trouble. This is of particular importance when the matrix elements are experimentally determined.

### Fourier Analysis of Numerical Data

We assume that the spacing between data points is uniform,  $2\pi/N$ . Representing  $F(\varphi)$  by a Fourier series with unknown coefficients and making the coefficients such that

$$\sum_{\varphi_n} \left( F(\varphi_n) - \sum_m a_m e^{im\varphi_n} \right)^2 = \min$$

gives the same coefficients that one obtains by evaluating the integral

$$\int F(\varphi) e^{-im\varphi} d\varphi$$

with trapezoidal rule applied to the whole integrand:

$$a_m^* = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int F(\varphi) e^{im\varphi} d\varphi \implies \frac{\Delta \varphi}{2\pi} \sum F(\varphi_n) e^{im\varphi_n} = \frac{1}{N} \sum F(\varphi_n) e^{im\varphi_n}.$$

A better way to integrate would be to assume that not the whole integrand changes linearly over an individual interval, but that only  $F(\varphi)$  changes linearly over the interval.

For one interval,

$$\int F(\varphi)e^{i(m\varphi+\alpha)}d\varphi = \int (a+b\varphi)e^{i(m\varphi+\alpha)}d\varphi = (a+b\varphi)\frac{e^{i(m\varphi+\alpha)}}{im} + \frac{be^{i(m\varphi+\alpha)}}{m^2}.$$

When summing over the whole range of  $\varphi$ , the first term contributions cancel. With  $b = (F_2 - F_1)/\Delta \varphi$ , we get

$$I = \int_{\text{interval}} F(\varphi)e^{i(m\varphi+\alpha)}d\varphi$$
  
=  $\frac{F_2 - F_1}{m^2 \Delta \varphi} \left(e^{i(m\varphi_2+\alpha)} - e^{i(m\varphi_1+\alpha)}\right)$   
=  $\frac{F_2 e^{i(m\varphi_2+\alpha)} \left(1 - e^{-im\Delta \varphi}\right) - F_1 e^{i(m\varphi_1+\alpha)} \left(e^{im\Delta \varphi} - 1\right)}{m^2 \Delta \varphi}.$ 

August, 1968. Note 0059thry.

When summing over the whole circle, we get:

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} F(\varphi)e^{i(m\varphi+\alpha)}d\varphi = \sum \frac{F(\varphi_n)\left(1 - e^{-im\Delta\varphi} - e^{im\Delta\varphi} + 1\right)}{m^2\Delta\varphi}e^{i(m\varphi_n+\alpha)}$$
$$= \sum \frac{F(\varphi_n)4\sin^2\varepsilon}{m^2\Delta\varphi}e^{i(m\varphi_n+\alpha)} \quad \text{with} \quad \varepsilon = \frac{m\Delta\varphi}{2}$$
$$= \boxed{\left(\frac{\sin\varepsilon}{\varepsilon}\right)^2\Delta\varphi\sum F(\varphi_n)e^{i(m\varphi_n+\alpha)}}$$

with

$$\frac{m\Delta\varphi}{2} = \varepsilon = m\frac{\pi}{N}.$$

A parabolic approximation for F over two intervals,  $-\Delta \varphi \leq \varphi \leq \Delta \varphi$ , without  $e^{i\alpha}$ , gives after some calculation:

$$I_2 = \left(\frac{\sin^4 \varepsilon}{\varepsilon^2} + \cos \varepsilon \left(\frac{\sin \varepsilon}{\varepsilon}\right)^3\right) \cdot \Delta \varphi \cdot \sum_n F(\varphi_n) e^{i(m\varphi_n + \alpha)}$$

with  $\varepsilon = m\pi/N$ , and

$$\left(\frac{\sin^4\varepsilon}{\varepsilon^2} + \cos\varepsilon \left(\frac{\sin\varepsilon}{\varepsilon}\right)^3\right) = t = \left(\frac{\sin\varepsilon}{\varepsilon}\right)^2 \left(\sin^2\varepsilon + \cos\varepsilon \frac{\sin\varepsilon}{\varepsilon}\right)$$

# Program to Calculate t, and Results.

```
5 CLS
10 FOR N=1 TO 18
15 E=N*3.14159265/36
20 PRINT ((SIN(E)/E)<sup>2</sup>*((SIN(E))<sup>2</sup>+COS(E)*SIN(E)/E)
30 NEXT N
```

```
For \varepsilon = N^*5:
```

ε	5°	10°	15°	20°	25°	30°	35°	40°	45°
t	.99999	.9998	.9988	.9962	.9911	.9821	.9682	.9482	.9213

ε	50°	55°	<sup>.</sup> 60°	65°	70°	75°	80°	85°	90°
t	.8870	.8450	.7957	.7397	.6780	.6120	.5434	.4739	.4053

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**Program to Calculate**  $K_1/\varepsilon^2$  and  $K_2/\varepsilon^2$ , and Results.

5 CLS

10 FOR N=1 TO 18

20 E=N\*3.14159265/36

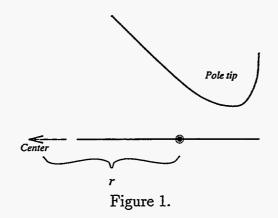
30 PRINT N\*5, (3+COS(4\*E)-SIN(4\*E)/E)/(4\*E^2), (SIN(2\*E)/(2\*E)-COS(2\*E))/(E^2) 40 NEXT N

6	$K_{\rm c}/c^2$	$K_2/\varepsilon^2$	
ε	$K_1/\varepsilon^2$	Λ2/ε	
5°	.67069299	1.3292762	
10°	.68235368	1.3171576	
15°	.70042915	1.2971353	
20°	.72300072	1.2694693	
25°	.74761149	1.2345172	
30°	.77147163	1.1927287	
35°	.79169091	1.1446375 -	
40°	.80551841	1.0908528	
45°	.81056947	1.0320491	
50°	.8050208	.96895504	
55°	.78775796	.90234147	
60°	.75866353	.83300908	
65°	.71763969	.76177546	
70°	.6665645	.68946226	
75°	.60718709	.61688241	
80°	.54197173	.54482766	
85°	.47370526	.47405682	
90°	.40528474	.40528474	

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# Curvature of Field Lines in a Quadrupole



$$F(z) = (z+r)^2$$
 with  $r = 1/K$ .

The field line is described by  $\Re(z+r)^2 = (x+r)^2 - y^2 = \text{constant}$ , thus

$$(x+r)^2 - y^2 = (x_0+r)^2 \quad \rightarrow \quad x = -r + \sqrt{y^2 + (x_0+r)^2}.$$

Further,  $1/R = x'' / (1 + (x')^2)^{3/2}$ , with

$$x' = rac{y}{\sqrt{y^2 + (x_0 + r)^2}}$$
 and  $x'' = rac{(x_0 + r)^2}{(y^2 + (x_0 + r)^2)^{3/2}}$ 

$$1 + (x')^2 = \frac{2y^2 + (x_0 + r)^2}{\sqrt{y^2 + (x_0 + r)^2}}, \quad \text{and} \quad \left(1 + (x')^2\right)^{3/2} = \frac{\left(2y^2 + (x_0 + r)^2\right)^{3/2}}{\left(y^2 + (x_0 + r)^2\right)^{3/2}}.$$

Thus,

$$\frac{1}{R} = \frac{(x_0 + r)^2}{\left(2y^2 + (x_0 + r)^2\right)^{3/2}} \quad \text{and} \quad \boxed{R = (x_0 + r)\left(1 + \frac{2y^2}{(x_0 + r)^2}\right)^{3/2}}$$

for field line starting at  $x_0$ .

May, 1986. Note 0009thry.

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The field line at x, y is described by

$$\frac{\left((x+r)^2+y^2\right)^{3/2}}{(x+r)^2-y^2} = \left| R = (x+r)\frac{\left(1+\left(\frac{y}{x+r}\right)^2\right)^{3/2}}{1-\left(\frac{y}{x+r}\right)^2}.\right|$$

We make the following substitutions:

$$\frac{y}{x+r} = \tan \alpha, \quad 1 + \tan^2 \alpha = \frac{1}{\cos^2 \alpha}, \quad \text{and} \quad 1 - \tan^2 \alpha = \frac{\cos 2\alpha}{\cos^2 \alpha},$$

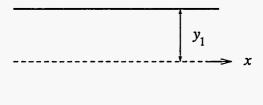
and thus,

$$R = \frac{(x+r)}{\cos\alpha\cos 2\alpha}.$$

Also,

$$\sqrt{(x+r)^2 + y^2} \left(\frac{1 + \tan^2 \alpha}{1 - \tan^2 \alpha}\right) = \left[ R = \frac{\sqrt{(x+r)^2 + y^2}}{\cos 2\alpha} \right].$$

## Skin Effect in Fe





We introduce initial conditions and definitions:

 $\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{e}_x E, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{e}_z B \quad \text{with} \quad B = \mu_0 \mu_{\text{rel}} H = \mu H,$  $\frac{\partial}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} = 0, \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \neq 0,$  $\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = H' = \sigma E = j, \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -E' = -i\omega\mu H,$  $\sigma E' = j' = i\omega\mu\sigma H.$ 

We let  $i\omega\mu\sigma = k^2$ , and

$$H'' - k^2 H = 0$$
,  $H = H_0 \cosh ky$ , and  $j = H_0 k \sinh ky$ .

The average field in the sheet,  $\overline{H}$ , compared to the field outside,  $H_1$ , is given by

$$\overline{H} = \frac{1}{2y_1} \int_{-y_1}^{y_1} H dy = H_0 \frac{\sin ky_1}{ky_1}, \quad H_1 = H_0 \cosh ky_1, \quad \text{and} \quad H_0 = \frac{H_1}{\cosh ky_1},$$

$$\frac{\overline{H}}{H_1} = \frac{\tanh ky_1}{ky_1}.$$
(1)

In (1), we let  $x = ky_1$ , and solve

February, 1966. Note 0007thry.

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$$\frac{\overline{H}}{H_1} = \frac{\tanh x}{x} \approx \frac{1 + x^2/6 + x^4/120}{1 + x^2/2 + x^4/24} \\
\approx \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{6} + \frac{x^4}{120}\right) \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{5x^4}{24} + \cdots\right) \\
\approx \boxed{1 - \frac{1x^2}{3} + \frac{2x^4}{15}}.$$
(2)

The power dissipation per cubic meter is given by

$$P = \frac{\varrho}{2}|j|^2 = \frac{1}{2}\rho H_0^2|k|^2|\sinh^2 ky|.$$

We let  $ky = \alpha + i\alpha$  where  $\alpha = |k|/\sqrt{2}$  thus

 $\sinh(\alpha + i\alpha) = \sinh \alpha \cos \alpha + i \cosh \alpha \sin \alpha,$ 

$$\begin{split} |\sinh(\alpha + i\alpha)|^2 &= \sinh^2 \alpha \cos^2 \alpha + \cosh^2 \alpha \sin^2 \alpha \\ &= \sinh^2 \alpha \cdot (1 - \sin^2 \alpha) + (1 - \sinh^2 \alpha) \cdot \sin^2 \alpha \\ &= \sinh^2 \alpha + \sin^2 \alpha \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2\alpha + \cosh 2\alpha - 1) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\cosh 2\alpha - \cos 2\alpha), \end{split}$$

and

$$\overline{|\sinh(\alpha + i\alpha)|^2} = \frac{1}{2y_1} \int_{0}^{y_1} (\cosh 2\alpha - \cos 2\alpha) dy$$
$$= \frac{1}{2\alpha_1} \int_{0}^{\alpha_1} (\cosh 2\alpha - \cos 2\alpha) d\alpha$$
$$= \frac{1}{4\alpha_1} (\sinh 2\alpha_1 - \sin 2\alpha_1).$$

Thus,

$$\overline{P} = \frac{H_0^2 \mu}{2} \cdot \omega \cdot \frac{\sinh 2\alpha_1 - \sin 2\alpha_1}{4\alpha_1} \quad \text{with} \quad \alpha_1 = y_1 \sqrt{\frac{\omega \mu \sigma}{2}}.$$

For

$$\frac{\sinh x - \sin x}{x} \approx \frac{2 \cdot \left(\frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^7}{7!}\right)}{x} = \frac{x^2}{3} \left(1 + \frac{x^4}{7!/3!}\right) = \frac{x^2}{3} \left(1 + \frac{x^4}{840}\right) \approx \frac{x^2}{3}$$

and thus,

$$\frac{\sinh 2\alpha_1 - \sin 2\alpha_1}{4\alpha_1} = \frac{(2\alpha_1)^2}{6} = \frac{(\sqrt{2}\gamma_1)^2}{6} = \frac{\gamma_1^2}{3}, \text{ with } \gamma_1 = y_1 \sqrt{\omega\mu\sigma} = \sqrt{2}\alpha_1.$$

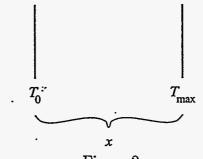
Therefore,

$$\overline{P} = \frac{H_0^2 \mu}{2} \cdot \omega \cdot \frac{y_1^2 \omega \mu \sigma}{3}.$$

For  $H_0\mu = B_0$ ,

$$\overline{P} = \frac{B_0^2}{2} \cdot \frac{y_1^2 \omega^2 \sigma}{3} = \frac{B_0^2}{2} \cdot \frac{(2y_1)^2 \omega^2 \sigma}{12}.$$

Resulting, thermally, in a trivial geometry:





For heat conductivity,  $S = \lambda T'$  in power/m<sup>2</sup>,

$$\Delta S(x) = \overline{P} \Delta x, \quad ext{and thus} \quad \overline{P} = S' = \lambda T'',$$

and thus,

$$T_{\max} - T_0 = \frac{x^2 \overline{P}}{2\lambda}.$$

Typical Numbers for Dynamo Steel.

We let

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$$\varrho = 46\mu\Omega\,\mathrm{cm} = 4.6\times10^{-7}\Omega\,\mathrm{m},$$

$$\mu(14kG) = 2100$$
, and  $\mu(18kG) = 125$ ,

$$\lambda = 27 - 36 \frac{\text{BTU/h}}{\text{ft} \circ F} \text{ with } 1 \frac{\text{BTU/h}}{\text{ft} \circ F} = \frac{0.293}{1.84} \frac{\text{Watts}}{\text{m} \circ C}$$
$$= 47.5 - 63.5 \text{ Watts/m} \circ C.$$

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(1) For  $|x^2|/3 = 1/10$  we have

$$\frac{|x^2|}{3} = \frac{\omega\mu}{3\varrho} \cdot y_1^2 = \frac{1}{10}, \text{ and } y_1 = \sqrt{\frac{0.3\varrho}{\omega\mu}} = 10^{-3}\sqrt{\frac{2.3}{16.8}} = 0.37 \times 10^{-3} \text{m} = 0.37 \text{mm},$$
$$\boxed{2y_1 = 0.74 \text{mm}}.$$

(2) For  $B_0 = 14 \text{ kG} = 1.4 \text{ T}$  and the above  $2y_1$ ,

$$\overline{P} = \frac{60}{4.6} \times 10^3 = 13 \times 10^3 \text{ Watts/m}^3 = 13 \times 10^{-3} \text{ Watts/cm}^3.$$

(3) For x = 0.4m and the above  $\overline{P}$ ,

$$\Delta T = \frac{(.16)(13 \times 10^3)}{(2)(50)} = (13)(.16)^{\circ}C \approx 21^{\circ}C.$$

If the field is a sinusoidal function between B = 0T and 14kG, one has to use  $B_0 = 7$ kG.

### A More Detailed Expression for $\overline{H}/H_1$ .

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With  $2y_1 = D$ , we let

$$x = \frac{kD}{2} = \frac{D}{2}\sqrt{i\omega\mu\sigma} = \frac{D}{2}\sqrt{2}\sqrt{i\frac{\omega\mu\sigma}{2}}.$$

With  $\lambda = \sqrt{2/\omega\mu\sigma}$ ,

$$x = \sqrt{i} \frac{D}{\sqrt{2\lambda}} = \sqrt{i}\varepsilon$$
, where  $\varepsilon = \frac{D}{\sqrt{2\lambda}}$ .

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{\frac{H}{H_1}} &= 1 - i\frac{\varepsilon^2}{3} - \frac{2\varepsilon^4}{15} \quad \text{and} \quad \boxed{\tan\varphi \approx \frac{\varepsilon^2}{3} = \frac{(D/\lambda)^2}{6},} \\ &\left|\frac{\overline{H}}{H_1}\right|^2 = 1 - \frac{7\varepsilon^4}{45}, \quad \text{and} \quad \left|\frac{\overline{H}}{H_1}\right| = 1 - \frac{7\varepsilon^4}{90}, \end{aligned}$$

and thus,

$$\left|\frac{\overline{H}}{H_1}\right| = 1 - \frac{7}{(4)(90)} \frac{D^4}{\lambda}.$$

Results for Al, Cu and Fe at 60Hz.

For Al and Cu, we let

$$\begin{split} \lambda &= \sqrt{\frac{2\varrho}{\sigma\mu_0}} = \sqrt{\frac{10^4\varrho}{2.4}}.\\ \varrho_{\rm Al} &= 2.8 \times 10^{-8} \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda_{\rm Al} = 1.08 \text{cm},\\ \varrho_{\rm Cu} &= 1.7 \times 10^{-8} \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda_{\rm Cu} = 0.84 \text{cm}, \end{split}$$

and D = (1/4)in = 0.635cm:

	$D/\lambda$	$(D/\lambda)^2$	$(D/\lambda)^2/6$	$0.7 \ (D^2/6\lambda^2)^2$
Cu	0.755	0.570	0.095	0.00635
Al	0.587	0.345	0.0575	.0023

For Fe with  $\mu \approx 2000$ ,

$$\varrho_{\rm Fe} = 4.6 \times 10^{-7} \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda_{\rm Fe} \approx 1 \, {\rm mm},$$

and D = 14mm:

	$D/\lambda$	$(D/\lambda)^2$	$(D/\lambda)^2/6$	$0.7 \ (D^2/6\lambda^2)^2$
Al	0.350	0.1225	0.0205	0.00029

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### **Magnetic Field Energy Calculations**

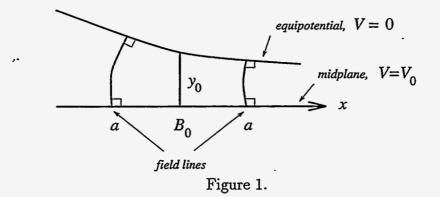
$$E = \frac{1}{2} \int (\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{H}) d\tau = \frac{1}{2} \int (\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla V) d\tau = \frac{1}{2} \int \mathbf{H} \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) d\tau,$$

with

$$\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla V = \nabla \cdot (V\mathbf{B}) - V\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = \nabla \cdot (V\mathbf{B}),$$
  
$$\mathbf{H} \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{A} \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{H}) = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{j}.$$

#### Field Energy in the Airspace of a Long, Symmetrical Bending Magnet.

The airspace is bounded by the midplane, an equipotential and two field lines (lines starting at two locations on the midplane).



Derive B from the potential:  $\mathbf{B} = \nabla V$ ,

$$2\mu_0 E = \int (\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla V) d\tau = \int \nabla \cdot (V\mathbf{B}) d\tau = \int V\mathbf{B} \cdot d\boldsymbol{\sigma}.$$

Normalize V = 0 on equipotential, then contribution on equipotential is 0, as well as being 0 along the field lines:

$$2\mu_0 E = LV_0 \int B_y dx,$$

where L is the length of the magnet.

February, 1966. Note 0006thry.

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For  $B_y = B_0(1 + Kx)$ :

$$\int_{-a}^{a} B_{y} dx = 2aB_{0}, \text{ and } V_{y}'|_{x=0} = B_{y} = B_{0} \implies V_{0} = yB_{0}.$$

Thus,

$$2\mu_0 E = LB_0 y_0 2aB_0 \implies \frac{E}{L} = \frac{B_0^2}{2\mu_0} 2ay_0.$$

 $y_0$  equipotential is the hyperbola tangent to an ellipse with half-axis a:

$$y_0 = \frac{c}{r_0} = \frac{b}{r_0 a} \sqrt{(x+r_0)^3 x} = b \frac{r_0}{a} \sqrt{\frac{x}{r_0} \left(\frac{x}{r_0} + 1\right)^3}.$$

For  $a/r_0 = \varepsilon$ ,

$$s = \frac{x}{r_0} = \frac{2\varepsilon^2}{1 + \sqrt{1 + 8\varepsilon^2}} = \frac{1}{4} \left( \sqrt{1 + 8\varepsilon^2} - 1 \right),$$

we redefine  $y_0 = bF(\varepsilon)$ , where

$$F(\varepsilon) = \sqrt{\frac{s(s+1)^3}{\varepsilon^2}} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{1+\sqrt{1+8\varepsilon^2}} \left(\frac{3+\sqrt{1+8\varepsilon^2}}{4}\right)^3}.$$

For  $8\epsilon^2 \ll 1$ :

$$\sqrt{1+8\varepsilon^2} = 1+4\varepsilon^2.$$

$$F^{2}(\varepsilon) = \frac{2}{2+4\varepsilon^{2}} \left(\frac{4+4\varepsilon^{2}}{4}\right)^{3} = (1-2\varepsilon^{2})(1+3\varepsilon^{2}),$$

$$F(\varepsilon) = 1 + \varepsilon^2/2.$$

For  $\varepsilon = 1/2$ , F(1/2) = 1.2, while if  $\varepsilon = 1$ , F(1) = 1.3.

Magnetic Energy of 2D Vacuum Field Inside Arbitrary Boundary.

Represent **B** by scalar potential:  $\mathbf{B} = \nabla V$ ,

$$2\mu_{0}E = \int (\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla V)d\tau = \int \nabla \cdot (V\mathbf{B})d\tau = \int V (\mathbf{B} \cdot d\boldsymbol{\sigma}).$$

The expression for scalar product of two vectors in 2-dimensional space, when vectors are expressed by the complex numbers  $a = a_x + ia_y$  and  $b = b_x + ib_y$ , is

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = a_x b_x + a_y b_y = \Re a b^* = \Re a^* b.$$

Thus, for  $d\sigma = iLdz$ :

$$2\mu_0 E/L = \Re \int V i B^* dz.$$

For V = v, and  $iB^* = F'$ :

$$2\mu_0 E/L = \Re \int vF'dz = \Re \int vdF = \Re \int v(du + idv)$$
$$= \int vdu = \int v(u'_x + u'_y y')dx.$$

Special Case.

The energy of field derived from  $F = (B_0 K/2)(z + r_0)^2$ , with  $r_0 = 1/K$ , inside the ellipse described by  $(x/a)^2 + (y/b)^2 = 1$ , is given by

$$F = \frac{1}{2} B_0 K \left( (x + r_0)^2 - y^2 + 2iy(x + r_0) \right).$$

With

$$u'_x = B_0 K(x+r_0), \quad u'_y = -B_0 Ky, \quad v = B_0 Ky(x+r_0), \quad y' = -\frac{b^2}{a^2} \frac{x}{y},$$

and

$$x = a \sin \varphi, \quad dx = a \cos \varphi d\varphi, \quad y = b \sqrt{1 - (x/a)^2} = b \cos \varphi,$$

and  $a/r_0 = \varepsilon$ ,

$$\begin{split} 2\mu_0 E/L &= B_0^2 K^2 \int y(x+r_0) \left(x+r_0+y\frac{b^2 x}{a^2 y}\right) dx \\ &= B_0^2 K^2 \int (x+r_0) \left(r_0+x \left(1+\frac{b^2}{a^2}\right)\right) y dx \\ &= B_0^2 a b \int_0^{2\pi} (1+\varepsilon \sin \varphi) \left(1+\varepsilon \sin \varphi \left(1+\frac{b^2}{a^2}\right)\right) \cos^2 \varphi d\varphi \\ &= B_0^2 a b \int_0^{2\pi} \left(1+\varepsilon \sin \varphi \left(2+\frac{b^2}{a^2}\right)+\varepsilon^2 \sin^2 \varphi \left(1+\frac{b^2}{a^2}\right)\right) \cos^2 \varphi d\varphi \\ &= B_0^2 a b \left(\pi+0+\varepsilon^2 \frac{\pi}{4} \left(1+\frac{b^2}{a^2}\right)\right) \\ &= \boxed{B_0^2 a b \pi \left(1+\frac{a^2+b^2}{4r_0^2}\right)}. \end{split}$$

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## Scalar Potential for 3D Fields in "Business Region" of Insertion Device with Finite Width Poles

#### Task.

In the absence of random errors, we are interested in the formulation of 3-dimensional V(x, y, z) (with  $\nabla^2 V = 0$ ) for **B** in the "business region" of an insertion device (hybrid or electro-magnetic) with finite width poles, and containing only a small number of free, easily measured constants.

#### Notation and Coordinate System.

The beam will be in the direction of the z-axis. The midplane will be in the xz-plane. The field will be in the y-direction in the midplane.

#### Field Symmetries.

 $B_y$  will be the even function of x, y and  $B_x$  will be the odd function of x, y.

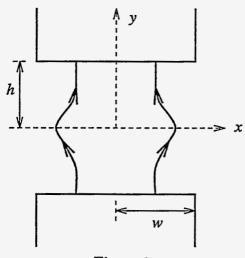


Figure 1.

Representation of V(x, y, z).

We represent V(x, y, z) by a Fourier series in z:

$$V(x, y, z) = \sum_{n = \text{odd}} \cos nk_3 z \cdot G_n(x, y) \quad \text{with} \quad k_3 = 2\pi/\lambda, \tag{1}$$

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where

$$\nabla^2 = 0 \implies \nabla^2 G_n = n^2 k_3^2 G_n. \tag{2}$$

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February, 1992. Note 0144u-w.

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For an infinitely wide pole:

$$\partial G_n/\partial x = 0 \implies G_n(x,y) = a_n \sinh nk_3 y,$$

which is a standard 2D solution. The effect of the finite width pole is described by

$$G_n = a_n \sinh nk_3 y + g_n(x, y),$$

where  $g_n$  is the effect of the finite width pole. Thus

$$\nabla^2 g_n = n^2 k_3^2 g_n. \tag{3}$$

Case 1:

$$\mu_{\rm Fe} = \infty \implies B_x(x, \pm h, u\lambda/2) = 0$$
 (4)

where u is an integer.

1.1) We initially assume that

$$G_n = g_n = 0$$
 for  $n > 1$ 

and we see that the symmetries and (4) give  $g'_{1x}(x,0) = g'_{1x}(x,\pm h) = 0$ . We expand  $g'_{1x}(x,y)$  in a Fourier series in y with a 2h period, and see that

$$g'_{1x}(x,y) = b'_m(x)\sin mk_2 y$$
 with  $k_2 = \pi/h.$  (5)

We now substitute (5) into (3). We have  $b''_m = b'_m (m^2 k_2^2 + n^2 k_3^2)$ , with n = 1. A solution which satisfies this equation and the symmetries is given by

$$b_m(x) = c_m \cosh k_{nm} x$$
, where  $k_{nm} = (m^2 k_2^2 + n^2 k_3^2)^{1/2}$ . (6)

A complete solution is given by

$$V(x,y,z) = \cos k_3 z \cdot a_0 \left( \sinh k_3 y + \sum_{m=1} \sin m k_2 y \cosh k_{1m} x \cdot \frac{a_m}{\cosh k_{1m} w} \right).$$
(7)

 $c_m$  is chosen such that  $a_m$  can be expected to be only weakly dependent on w.

1.2) We now assume that

$$G_n = g_n \neq 0$$
 for  $n \ge 1$ .

(7) can be generalized, but one must realize that the resulting formula does not have the same force of logic that was inherent in its original derivation. This generalized formula allows the possibility that contributions from many n could combine to make  $B_x(x, \pm h, u\lambda/2) = 0.$ 

$$V(x, y, z) = \sum_{n = \text{odd}} \cos nk_3 z \cdot G_n(x, y)$$

$$G_n(x, y) = A_{n0} \left( \sinh nk_3 y + \sum_{m=1} \sin mk_2 y \cosh k_{nm} x \cdot \frac{a_{nm}}{\cosh k_{nm} w} \right)$$

$$k_{nm} = (n^2 k_3^2 + m^2 k_2^2)^{1/2} \quad \text{with} \quad k_3 = 2\pi/\lambda \quad \text{and} \quad k_2 = \pi/h.$$
(8)

Notice that in the above set of equations  $A_{n0}$  has units of Tesla-meters and  $a_{nm}$  is dimensionless.

We expect that  $a_{nm}$  is of the first order, the finite width effects decrease with increasing n and m, and further, that only a few  $a_{nm}$  are needed.

Case 2:

$$\mu_{\rm Fe} < \infty \quad \Longrightarrow \quad B_x(x, \pm h, u\lambda/2) = -B_x(-x, \pm h, u\lambda/2) \neq 0. \tag{9}$$

The contributions from Fe alone are given by the addition of  $Q_n(x,y)$ :

$$V = \sum \cos nk_3 z \cdot Q_n(x,y) \quad \text{where} \quad \nabla^2 Q_n = n^2 k_3^2 Q_n.$$

For the sake of simplification, we shall look at one  $Q_n$ , normalize lengths so that  $nk_3 = 1$ , and denormalize at the end

$$\nabla^2 Q = Q. \tag{10}$$

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We follow the logic of Case 1 as well as also satisfying  $Q'_y(x,0) \approx x^2$  for sufficiently small x. Thus, we start with

$$Q(x,y) = (\cosh \eta x - 1)P_1(y) + P_2(y), \tag{11}$$

where  $\eta$  is real and arbitrary. Later we will let  $\eta \to 0$ . We substitute (11) into (10) and get

$$\nabla^2 Q = \eta^2 c P_1 + (c-1) P_1'' + P_2''$$
  
= Q  
= (c-1) P\_1 + P\_2.

where  $c = \cosh \eta x$  and  $P_1, P_2$  are unknown. Separating into terms with and without

c, we have

$$\eta^2 P_1 + P_1'' = P_1, \quad P_2'' - P_1'' = P_2 - P_1,$$
 (12)

$$p^{2} = 1 - \eta^{2}, \quad P_{1}'' - p^{2}P_{1} = 0 \implies P_{1} = \sinh py,$$
 (13)

$$P_2'' - P_2 = P_1'' - P_1 = -\eta^2 P_1 = -\eta^2 \sinh py,$$

$$P_2 = \sinh py - p \sinh y, \tag{14}$$

in which the second term serves to satisfy the condition  $P'_{2y}(0) = 0$ .

$$Q(x,y) = (\cosh \eta x - 1) \sinh py + \sinh py - p \sinh y, \qquad (15)$$

with  $\eta \to 0$  and  $p \to (1 - \eta^2/2)$ .

$$Q(x,y) = \frac{\eta^2}{2} (x^2 \sinh y - y \cosh y + \sinh y). \tag{16}$$

We denormalize (16) and drop  $\eta^2/2$  and get

$$Q_n(x,y) = (nk_3x)^2 \sinh nk_3y - nk_3y \cosh nk_3y + \sinh nk_3y,$$
(17)

$$V(x, y, z) = \sum_{n = \text{odd}} \cos nk_3 z (G_n(x, y) + Q_n(x, y)).$$
(18)

#### Magnetic Measurements.

First, the simplest implementation consists of measuring the Fourier coefficients of the expansion of  $B_z, B_y, B_x$  in  $\sin nkz$  and  $\cos nkz$  and determining the value of the free coefficients in  $G_n$  and  $Q_n$  that best fit the data. Use a "filter" to remove the random errors from the data sets.

Second, choose x, y very carefully for each of these sets of measurements in order to take advantage of the properties of  $G_n(x,y)$  and  $Q_n(x,y)$  and its derivatives with respect to x, y. This is particularly important for the contributions originating from  $\sin mk_2 y$  in  $G_n(x,y)$ .

Third, investigate suitability of less conventional magnetic measurements, like a Hall probe or flux loop that vibrates in the x-direction, with phase sensitive de-modulation.

#### Use of Model.

After verification of the validity region of the model is completed, it can be used for trajectory calculations. Furthermore, one can use this model to determine the maximal narrowness of the pole before detrimental effects become intolerable.

In application to existing hardware, one can break up the total field into the ideal 3D field and the random errors.

### Magnetic Measurement and Data Reduction to Identify Some Specific Error Field Consequences

#### Measurement of Steering in Wigglers and Undulators.

Prefer null measurement method, if it can be done.

In "body" of wiggler or undulator: use coil with length equal to the product of period and integer.

In the end-region, from the field-free region to the periodic part: measure using long coil reaching from the outside to the periodic part, together with an attached compensation coil in the periodic part. This gives a signal that depends only on the steering integral, and is independent of position in the periodic part. It is an important tool for correcting the ends.

Normalized sensitivity of system, for  $\varphi = kz = 2\pi z/\lambda$  is given by

$$S(\varphi) = S_0(\varphi) + S_1(\varphi),$$

where  $S_0$  refers to the main coil, and  $S_1$  to the compensation coil. With  $\varphi = 0$  referring to the end of the main coil, and  $\varphi = -\alpha$  to the center of the correction coil (of length  $2\varphi_1$ ) relative to the end of the main coil, we have, in the coil coordinate system,

$$\begin{split} S_0(\varphi) &= 1 \text{ at } -\infty \leq \varphi \leq 0, \\ S_0(\varphi) &= 0 \text{ at } 0 \leq \varphi, \\ S_1(\varphi) &= \varepsilon \text{ at } -\alpha - \varphi_1 \leq \varphi \leq -\alpha + \varphi_1, \\ S_1(\varphi) &= 0 \text{ at } \varphi \text{ outside the above region} \end{split}$$

For the periodic region,  $\varphi > 0$  and

$$B = \sum_{n = \text{odd}} na_n \cos n\varphi = \Re \sum na_n e^{in\varphi},$$

with the end of main coil at  $\varphi_0 > \pi$  in the field coordinate system, the signal from the main coil is

$$F_0 = \int_{-\infty}^{0} Bd\varphi + \int_{0}^{\varphi_0} \Re \sum na_n e^{in\varphi} d\varphi = \text{Steering} \int + \Re \sum a_n \left( e^{in\varphi_0} - 1 \right) / i,$$

and similarly, the signal from the compensating coil is

$$F_1 = \varepsilon \int_{\varphi_0 - \alpha - \varphi_1}^{\varphi_0 - \alpha + \varphi_1} \sum n a_n e^{in\varphi} d\varphi = \Re \sum a_n e^{in(\varphi_0 - \alpha)} 2\varepsilon \sin \varphi_1,$$

September, 1993. Note 0142u-w.

Presented at the ID Measurement Workshop, ANL, September, 1993.

$$F_0 - F_1 = \text{Steering} \int + \Re \sum a_n e^{in\varphi_0} \left(\frac{1}{i} - 2\varepsilon e^{-in\alpha} \sin n\varphi_1\right).$$

We want  $F_0 - F_1$  independent of  $\varphi_0$ , thus

$$2\varepsilon \sin n\alpha \sin n\varphi_1 = 1$$
, and  $2\varepsilon \cos n\alpha \cos n\varphi_1 = 0$ .

When harmonics are weak (undulator), we need to satisfy these conditions only for n = 1, but when strong harmonics are present (wiggler), we need to satisfy them for all odd n: to get

$$\cos n\alpha = 0$$
 choose  $\alpha = \pi/2,$   
 $\sin n\alpha = (-1)^{(n-1)/2}$  choose  $\varphi_1 = \pi/2,$   $\varepsilon = 1/2.$ 

 $\varphi_1 = \pi/2$  needs to be done by hardware,  $\alpha = \pi/2$ ,  $\varepsilon = 1/2$ , can be done by "tuning" if one provides for it. Other solutions should be obvious.

This scheme can also be implemented with simple coil (or Hall probes) and software. However, software implementation is not a null method and therefore suffers much more from equipment imperfections.

#### Phase Shifts of Emitted Light Due to Error Fields.

This is one of a number of ways to develop more insight into why or how synchrotron light properties deteriorate because of error fields.

We make the following definitions:

$$x'' = \frac{g}{\gamma}B$$
, with  $g = \frac{e}{m_0c}$ ,  
 $= \frac{\partial}{\partial z}$ ,  $\varphi = kz$ , and  $k = \frac{2\pi}{N}$ .

For the reference trajectory:

$$B(\varphi)=B_0\cos\varphi,$$

$$x_0' = \frac{gB_0}{\gamma k} \sin \varphi = \frac{K}{\gamma} \sin \varphi, \quad \text{with} \quad \frac{gB_0}{k} = K = .934 \cdot B_0(T) \cdot \lambda(\text{cm}),$$
$$x_0 = -\frac{K}{k\gamma} \cos \varphi,$$
$$\boxed{x_W = \frac{K}{k\gamma}}.$$

We define the trajectory length error as

$$\Delta s = \int_{-\infty} \left( \sqrt{1 + (x_0' + \Delta x')^2} - \sqrt{1 + {x_0'}^2} \right) dz$$
$$= \int \left( x_0' \Delta x' + \frac{1}{2} \Delta {x'}^2 \right) dz$$
$$= x_0 \Delta x' - \int x_0 \Delta x'' dz + \frac{1}{2} \int \Delta {x'}^2 dz.$$

For  $D = \Delta B/B_0$  as a function of  $\varphi$ :

$$\Delta x'' = \frac{gB_0}{\gamma} \frac{\Delta B}{B_0} = \frac{gB_0}{\gamma} D = \frac{Kk}{\gamma} D,$$
$$\Delta x' = \frac{K}{\gamma} \int Dd\varphi.$$

Thus,

$$\Delta s = \left(\frac{K}{\gamma}\right)^2 \frac{1}{k} \left(-\cos\varphi \int Dd\varphi + \int \cos\varphi Dd\varphi + \frac{1}{2} \int \left(\int Dd\varphi\right)^2 d\varphi\right),$$

With  $\Delta t = \Delta s/c$ ,  $\Delta \Phi = \omega_L \Delta t = \Delta s \omega_L/c = \Delta s k_L$ , and

$$\lambda_L = \frac{\lambda}{2\gamma^2} \left( 1 + \frac{K^2}{2} \right) = \frac{\lambda K^2}{4\gamma^2} \left( 1 + \frac{2}{K^2} \right),$$

$$\Delta \Phi = P\left(\underbrace{-\cos\varphi \int Dd\varphi}_{(G_1)} + \underbrace{\int \cos\varphi Dd\varphi}_{(G_2)} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \int \left(\int Dd\varphi\right)^2 d\varphi}_{(G_3)}\right),$$

where

$$P = \frac{4}{1+2/K^2}.$$

Notice that, as a function of K,  $\Delta \Phi \approx K^2$  for  $K^2 \ll 2$ , and  $\Delta \Phi$  is independent of  $K^2$  for  $K^2 \gg 2$ .  $G_1$  produces harmonics and reduces the intensity of the fundamental, but only if steering is not 0. The  $G_2 \neq 0$  contribution depends on symmetry of D, not on the presence or absence of steering. In  $G_3$  only steering errors contribute and it always gives  $\Delta \Phi$  of the same sign.  $G_3$  being of second order, we may expect a significant contribution only for a long undulator. We will see below that  $G_3$  can be surprisingly large even for a short undulator.

We present order of magnitude estimates for  $\overline{G_2^2}, \overline{G_3^2}$ , for the ensemble. For  $G_2$  from one primary source:

$$G_2 = \varepsilon_2 D_2 \frac{\lambda}{2} \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \varepsilon_2 D_2 \pi.$$

For  $n_2$  sources per period: after  $N_1 = z/\lambda$  periods

$$\overline{G_2^2} = \overline{(\varepsilon_2 D_2 \pi)^2} n_2 \frac{z}{\lambda} = \overline{D_2^2} \pi^2 \varepsilon_2^2 n_2 \frac{z}{\lambda}.$$

Without  $\cos \varphi$  in the integrand, we may expect from steering:

$$\overline{G_0^2} = \overline{D_0^2} \pi^2 \varepsilon_0^2 n_0 \frac{z}{\lambda} = \overline{D_0^2} \pi^2 \varepsilon_0^2 n_0 N_1.$$

$$\overline{G_3} = \frac{1}{2} \overline{D_0^2} \pi^2 \varepsilon_0^2 n_0 \int_0^{L=N_1\lambda} \frac{z}{\lambda} dz \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \frac{1}{2} \overline{D_0^2} \pi^3 \varepsilon_0^2 n_0 N_1^2.$$

$$\varepsilon_4 = \frac{\overline{G_3}}{\sqrt{\overline{G_2^2}}} = \frac{\overline{D_0^2} \pi^3 \varepsilon_0^2 n_0 N_1^2 / 2}{\sqrt{\overline{D_2^2}} \pi \varepsilon_2 \sqrt{n_2} \sqrt{N_1}} = \frac{\varepsilon_0^2 n_0 \overline{D_0^2}}{\sqrt{\varepsilon_2 n_2 \overline{D_2^2}}} \frac{\pi^2}{2} N_1^{3/2}.$$

To get a feeling for the order of magnitude, we assume that the first order term,  $\sqrt{\overline{G_2^2}}$ , contributes twice the contribution of the second order term,  $\overline{G_3}$ , i.e.  $\varepsilon_4 = 1/2$ , and further,  $\varepsilon_0 = \varepsilon_2 = 1$   $n_0 = n_2 = 4$ ,  $N_1 = 10^2 \overline{D_0^2} = \overline{D_2^2}$ , then

$$\sqrt{\overline{D_0^2}} = \frac{1}{20 \times 10^3} = 5 \times 10^{-5}$$

has to be satisfied. And for  $\sqrt{\overline{D_0^2}} = 10^{-3}$ ,  $\varepsilon_0 = 1$ ,  $n_0 = 4$ ,  $N_1 = 10^2$ ,

$$\Delta \Phi = .6 \text{ radians.}$$

 $\Delta \Phi$  over-estimates the damage done to the emitted light because  $\Delta \Phi = a + bz$  causes no real damage. We subtract the straight line from the original  $\Delta \Phi(z) = f(z)$ , and then normalize the length of the undulator to 1:

$$H = \int_0^1 (a+bz-f(z))^2 dz$$

and minimize H with a, b,

$$\int f(z)dz = F_0, \quad \int zf(z)dz = F_1, \quad ext{and} \quad \int f^2(z)dz = F_2.$$

The solution gives

$$a = 2(2F_0 - 3F_1)$$
, and  $b = 6(2F_1 - F_0)$ ,

and this gives

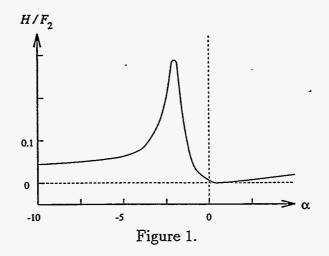
$$H = F_2 - 4(F_0^2 + 3F_1(F_1 - F_0)).$$

For a specific function  $f(z) = u\sqrt{z} + vz^2$ , corresponding to the ensemble model used above, and after optimization (see Appendix A for details),

$$H = \left(\frac{1}{180}\right)\frac{2u^2}{5} - \frac{8uv}{7} + v^2,$$

With  $\alpha = v/u$ , we get the following improvement factor:

$$\frac{H}{F_2} = \left(\frac{1}{36}\right) \frac{\alpha^2 - 8\alpha/7 + 2/5}{\alpha^2 + 20\alpha/7 + 5/2}.$$



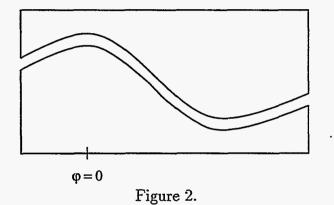
For Figure 1,  
$$(H/F_2)_{\min} = 4.5 \times 10^{-4}$$
 at  $\alpha = .605$ ,

 $\{ e_i \}_{i \in I}$ 

$$(H/F_2)_{\rm max} = .274$$
 at  $\alpha = -1.65$ ,

Even if one does not consider the model of  $f(z) = u\sqrt{z} + vz^2$  a realistic one, it is quite clear that (a) one should optimize not  $\Delta \Phi(z)$ , but  $\Delta \Phi(z)$  minus "best" straight line, and that (b) gains can be remarkable. In other words, the quality of the light generated may be much better than one would think if one were to only look at  $\Delta \Phi(z)$  or D(z). We make a trivial, but interesting observation: since H (before or after subtraction of straight line) is a quadratic function of u, v, an *increase* in the  $G_2$  or  $G_3$  contribution may lead to a *decrease* of H.

For the measurement of  $G_2 = \int \cos \varphi D d\varphi$ , consider the following 2-coil configuration:



The above design will measure the integral over  $\cos \varphi \cdot B(\varphi)$ . But,  $\cos \varphi \cdot B_0 \cos \varphi$  gives a large signal, therefore the null-coil system is needed. The proposed system cancels  $B_0 \cos \varphi$  but also "sees" steering; thus, it is fine only if steering is small enough or known. Therefore, we give below only the basic design and performance equations for system components, and one system.

Since  $\Delta \Phi$  is only relevant for undulator, we ignore the harmonics.

The compensation coil is the same for measurement of steering at ends.

The main coil sensitivity is  $S_0 = \cos(\alpha_0 + \varphi)$  at  $-\varphi_2 \leq \varphi \leq \varphi_2$ , and  $S_0 = 0$  outside this region. At the center of the coil, sensitivity is  $\cos \alpha_0$ , and  $B = \cos \varphi_0 = \Re e^{i\varphi_0} = B$ .

$$F_{0} = \Re \int_{-\varphi_{2}}^{\varphi_{2}} e^{i(\varphi_{0}+\varphi)} \cos(\alpha_{0}+\varphi) d\varphi$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \Re e^{i\varphi_{0}} \int_{-\varphi_{2}}^{\varphi_{2}} (e^{i\alpha_{0}} e^{2i\varphi} + e^{-i\alpha_{0}}) d\varphi$$
$$= \boxed{\frac{1}{2} \Re e^{i\varphi_{0}} (e^{i\alpha_{0}} \sin 2\varphi_{2} + e^{-i\alpha_{0}}2\varphi_{2})}.$$

The compensation coil sensitivity is  $S_1(\varphi) = \varepsilon_1$  at  $-\varphi_1 \leq \varphi \leq \varphi_1$ , and  $S_1(\varphi) = 0$  outside this region. At the center of the coil,  $B = \cos(\varphi_0 + \beta) = \Re e^{i(\varphi_0 + \beta)}$ .

$$F_{1} = \Re \varepsilon \int_{-\varphi_{1}}^{\varphi_{1}} e^{i(\varphi_{0} + \beta + \alpha)} d\varphi$$
$$= 2\varepsilon_{1} \Re e^{i(\varphi_{0} + \beta)} - \sin \varphi_{1}.$$

With  $\varepsilon = 4\varepsilon_1 \sin \varphi_1$  and  $2\varphi_2 = \gamma$ ,

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$$F_0 + F_1 = \frac{1}{2} \Re e^{i\varphi_0} \left( e^{i\alpha_0} \sin \gamma + e^{-i\alpha_0} \gamma + \varepsilon e^{i\beta} \right).$$

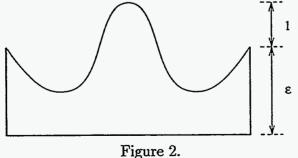
To get no signal for all  $\varphi_0$ , we must satisfy

$$\cos \alpha_0 (\sin \gamma + \gamma) = -\varepsilon \cos \beta$$
, and  $\sin \alpha_0 (\sin \gamma - \gamma) = -\varepsilon \sin \beta$ ,

and since there are four parameters to satisfy two equations there are many possible solutions. We pick one with  $\beta = 0$  and  $\alpha_0 = 0$  and have

$$\varepsilon = 4\varepsilon_1 \sin \varphi_1 = -(\gamma + \sin \gamma), \quad \varepsilon_1 = -\frac{2\varphi_2 + \sin 2\varphi_2}{4\sin \varphi_1}.$$

If  $|\varepsilon_1| > 1$ , we can use a combined coil system as follows, with  $\varphi_2 = \varphi_1 = 3\pi/2$  and therefore  $\varepsilon_1 = 3\pi/4$ .



This is not the ultimate answer, but only a first step, and it may start similar thinking on other issues.

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# Appendix A.

For the execution of the optimization of H, we let

$$a + b/2 = F_0$$
,  $2F_1 - F_0 = b/3$ ,  $a/2 + b/3 = F_1$ ,  
 $b = 6(2F_1 - F_0)$   $a = 2(2F_0 - 3F_1)$ .

With the above, we have

$$H = a^{2} + b^{2}/3 + F_{2} - 2aF_{0} - 2bF_{1} + ab$$

$$= a\underbrace{(a+b/2)}_{F_{0}} + b\underbrace{(b/3+a/2)}_{F_{1}} + F_{2} - 2aF_{0} - 2bF_{1}$$

$$= F_{2} - aF_{0} - bF_{1}$$

$$= F_{2} - 2F_{0}(2F_{0} - 3F_{1}) - 6F_{1}(2F_{1} - F_{0})$$

$$= \boxed{F_{2} - 4F_{0}^{2} - 12F_{1}^{2} + 12F_{0}F_{1}}.$$

For the special case of  $f(z) = \sqrt{z} + \alpha z^2$ :

$$F_0 = 2/3 + \alpha/3 = (\alpha + 2)/3$$
, and  $F_1 = 2/5 + \alpha/4$ ,

and for  $f^2(z) = z + \alpha^2 z^4 + 2\alpha z^{2.5}$ ,  $F_2 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\alpha^2}{5} + \frac{4\alpha}{7}$ . Therefore,

$$F_{2} - H = \frac{4}{9}(\alpha + 2)^{2} + 12\left(\frac{\alpha}{4} + \frac{2}{5}\right)^{2} - 4(\alpha + 2)\left(\frac{\alpha}{4} + \frac{2}{5}\right)$$
$$= \frac{7\alpha^{2}}{36} + \frac{26\alpha}{45} + \frac{112}{225},$$
$$H = \alpha^{2}\left(\frac{1}{5} - \frac{7}{36}\right) + \alpha\left(\frac{4}{7} - \frac{26}{45}\right) + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{112}{225}$$
$$= \boxed{\frac{1}{180}\left(\alpha^{2} - \frac{8\alpha}{7} + \frac{2}{5}\right)} = \boxed{\frac{1}{180}\left(v^{2} - \frac{8uv}{7} + \frac{2u^{2}}{5}\right)}.$$
$$\boxed{\frac{H}{F_{2}} = \frac{1}{36}\frac{\alpha^{2} - 8\alpha/7 + 2/5}{\alpha^{2} + 20\alpha/7 + 5/2}}.$$

## Least Square Fit of f(z) with a + bz in $0 \le z \le 1$

Origin and Purpose of Study. If f(z) = phase shift, the difference between f(z) and a + bz is the only damaging property of f(z) since a would be an irrelevant shift of phase reference, and b represents a shift of center of line without any broadening. We define

$$S = \int (a + bz - f(z))^2 dz.$$

For  $S'_a = 0$ :  $a + b/2 = F_0 = \int f(z)dz$ , For  $S'_b = 0$ :  $a/2 + b/3 = F_1 = \int zf(z)dz$ . Therefore,

$$b = 12F_1 - 6F_0$$
 and  $a = 4F_0 - 6F_1$ .

For  $\int f(z)^2 dz = F_2$ ,

$$S = a^{2} + b^{2}/3 + F_{2} + ab - 2aF_{0} - 2bF_{1}$$
  
=  $a(a + b/2) + b(a/2 + b/3) - 2aF_{0} - 2bF_{1} + F_{2}$   
=  $F_{2} - aF_{0} - bF_{1}$   
=  $F_{2} - F_{0}(4F_{0} - 6F_{1}) - F_{1}(12F_{1} - 6F_{0})$   
=  $F_{2} - 4(F_{0}^{2} + 3F_{1}^{2} - 3F_{0}F_{1}).$ 

For a specific function,  $f(z) = \sqrt{z} + \alpha z^2$ ,

$$f(z)^2 = z + 2\alpha z^{5/2} + \alpha^2 z^4,$$

$$F_0 = \frac{2}{3} + \frac{\alpha}{3}, \quad F_1 = \frac{2}{5} + \frac{\alpha}{4}, \quad \text{and} \quad F_2 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{4\alpha}{7} + \frac{\alpha^2}{5},$$

thus,

$$S = \frac{\alpha^2}{5} + \frac{4\alpha}{7} + \frac{1}{2} - 4\left(\frac{1}{9}(\alpha^2 + 4\alpha + 4) + 3\left(\frac{\alpha^2}{16} + \frac{\alpha}{5} + \frac{4}{25}\right) - (\alpha + 2)\left(\frac{\alpha}{4} + \frac{2}{5}\right)\right)$$
$$= \alpha^2 \left(\frac{1}{180}\right) - \alpha \left(\frac{2}{315}\right) + \frac{1}{450}$$
$$= \alpha^2 a_2 + \alpha a_1 + a_0$$

with

$$a_2 = \frac{1}{180}$$
,  $a_1 = -\frac{2}{315}$ , and  $a_0 = \frac{1}{450}$ ,

August, 1993. Note 0141u-w.

therefore,

$$S = \frac{1}{180} \left( \alpha^2 - \frac{8\alpha}{7} + \frac{2}{5} \right),$$
$$\frac{S}{F_2} = \frac{1}{36} \cdot \frac{\alpha^2 - \frac{8\alpha}{7} + \frac{2}{5}}{\alpha^2 + \frac{20\alpha}{7} + \frac{5}{2}}.$$

For  $\alpha \gg 1$ ,  $\sqrt{S/F_2}$  is improved by a factor of 6, and for  $\alpha \ll 1$ ,  $\sqrt{S/F_2}$  is improved by a factor of 15.

 $S/F_2$  is a strongly peaked function:

$$(S/F_2)_{max} \approx .274$$
 at  $\alpha \approx -1.65$ ,  
 $S/F_2 \approx .125$  at  $\alpha \approx -3$ ,  
 $S/F_2 \approx .004$  at  $\alpha \approx 0$ .  
 $(S/F_2)_{min} \approx 4.5 \times 10^{-4}$  at  $\alpha \approx .605$ ,

Since a + bz represents the error-free condition, looking at the deviation of phase shift from the straight line may represent the best way to characterize the consequences of the error fields.

$$S_{min} = rac{1}{180} \left( rac{2}{5} - rac{16}{49} 
ight) = rac{1}{50 \cdot 49} \quad ext{with} \quad lpha = rac{4}{7},$$

and the values for a, b are

$$a = 4F_0 - 6F_1 = \frac{4}{3}(\alpha + 2) - 6\left(\frac{\alpha}{4} + \frac{2}{5}\right) = \boxed{-\frac{\alpha}{6} + \frac{4}{15}},$$
$$b = 12F_1 - 6F_0 = 3\left(\alpha + \frac{8}{5}\right) - 2(\alpha - 2) = \boxed{\alpha + \frac{4}{5}}.$$

# Normalizations Factors $\varepsilon_1$ and $\varepsilon_2$ for Comparison of First and Second Order Phase Shifts, with Analytical Model of b(z)

At the center

$$\Delta B = b(0)$$

$$= \frac{V_1}{h} \frac{1}{k_0(x_2 - x_1)} \ln \frac{\cosh k_0 x_2 + 1}{\cosh k_0 x_1 + 1}$$

$$= \boxed{\frac{V_1}{h} \cdot \frac{\left(\ln \frac{\sinh k_0 x_2/2}{\sinh k_0 x_1/2}\right)}{\left(\frac{k_0(x_2 - x_1)}{2}\right)},}_{g_0}}$$

with  $k_0 = \pi/h$  and  $k_1 = 2\pi/\lambda$ . Further,

$$\int b(z)\cos(k_1z)k_1dz = \frac{V_1}{h} \cdot \frac{2}{\pi} \cdot k_1 \cdot \frac{2\pi}{k_0} \cdot \int_{x_1}^{x_2} \frac{\sin k_1x}{\sinh(\pi k_1/k_0)} \cdot \frac{dx}{x_2 - x_1}$$
$$= \boxed{\frac{V_1}{h} \cdot \frac{4k_1}{k_0} \cdot \frac{\sin(k_1\Delta x/2)/(k_1\Delta x/2)}{\sinh(\pi k_1/k_0)}}_{g_1},$$

$$\boxed{\frac{V_1}{h} = \frac{\Delta B}{g_0}},$$

$$\int b(z) \cos(k_1 z) k_1 dz = \frac{\Delta B}{g_0} g_1,$$

$$\int b\,dz = \frac{V_1}{h} \cdot \frac{\lambda}{2} = \frac{\Delta B \cdot \lambda/2}{g_0}.$$

Thus,

$$\int \frac{\Delta B}{B_0} k_1 dz = \varepsilon_2 \pi \frac{\Delta B}{B_0} = \frac{\Delta B}{B_0} \frac{\lambda/2}{g_0} \frac{2\pi}{\lambda},$$

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$$\varepsilon_2 = \frac{1}{g_0}.$$

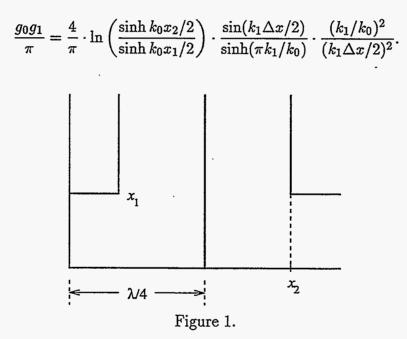
Similarly,

$$\frac{1}{B_0} \int b \cos(k_1 z) k_1 dz = \frac{\Delta B}{B_0} \frac{g_1}{g_0} = \varepsilon_1 \pi \frac{\Delta B}{B_0},$$
$$\varepsilon_1 = \frac{g_1}{\pi g_0}.$$

Thus,

$$\frac{\varepsilon_1}{\varepsilon_2^2} = \frac{g_0 g_1}{\pi},$$

and



For the above figure,

$$x_{1} + \frac{1}{2}(x_{2} - x_{1}) = \frac{\lambda}{4} = \frac{x_{1} + x_{2}}{2}$$
$$\frac{\lambda/4}{x_{1}} = 3, \quad \boxed{x_{1} = \frac{\lambda}{12}},$$
$$x_{2} = \frac{\lambda}{2} - x_{1} = \lambda \frac{5}{12}.$$

Further,

$$k_1 \frac{\Delta x}{2} = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{4\lambda}{12} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\pi}{3}, \\ \frac{\pi}{3}, \\ \frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{\pi}{h} \cdot \frac{5\lambda}{24} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\lambda}{h} \cdot \frac{5\pi}{24}, \\ \frac{\pi}{h} \cdot \frac{5\pi}{24}, \\ \frac{\pi}{h} \cdot \frac{2\pi}{24} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\lambda}{h} \cdot \frac{\pi}{24}, \\ \frac{\pi}{h} \cdot \frac{\pi}{24}, \\ \frac{\pi}{h} = \frac{2h}{\lambda}, \quad \frac{\lambda}{h} = a.$$

Thus,

$$\frac{g_0 g_1}{\pi} = \frac{36 \cdot 4}{\pi^3} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \cdot \ln\left(\frac{e^{a5\pi/12} - 1}{e^{a\pi/12} - 1}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{a^2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sinh(2\pi/a)},$$

where for  $\frac{2h}{\lambda} = b = \frac{2}{a}$ , and  $a = \frac{2}{b}$ ,

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$$\frac{g_0 g_1}{\pi} = \frac{36\sqrt{3}}{\pi^3} \cdot b^2 \cdot \ln\left(\frac{e^{5\pi/6b} - 1}{e^{\pi/6b} - 1}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{2\sinh(\pi b)}.$$

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## Comparison of First and Second Order Contributions of Error Fields to Phase Shift

We introduce, for  $kz = \varphi$ ,  $kdz = d\varphi$ , and  $\frac{\Delta B}{B_0} = D^{\dagger}$ ,

$$\Delta \Phi = P\left(\underbrace{-\cos\varphi\int Dd\varphi}_{(A_1)} + \underbrace{\int\cos\varphi Dd\varphi}_{(B_1)} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}\int\left(\int Dd\varphi\right)^2 d\varphi}_{(B_2)}\right),$$

where

$$P = \frac{4}{1+2/K^2}.$$

Notice that  $\Delta \Phi \approx K^2$  for  $K^2 \ll 2$ , and  $\Delta \Phi$  is independent of  $K^2$  for  $K^2 \gg 2$ . We denote the "typical" case of  $B_1$  as

$$B_1 = \varepsilon_1 D \frac{\lambda}{2} \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \varepsilon_1 \pi D.$$

At every error source,  $B_1$  changes by the above "typical" value of  $B_1^{\ddagger}$ . We assume n contributions per period. After  $N = z/\lambda$  periods, the total expectation value is

$$\overline{B_1^2} = n \frac{z}{\lambda} \overline{(\varepsilon_1 \pi D)^2}.$$

When

$$B_1=\int Dd\varphi,$$

we expect

$$\overline{B_1^2} = n \frac{z}{\lambda} \overline{(\varepsilon_2 \pi D)^2}.$$

At the end of insertion device with N periods we expect

$$\langle B_1^2 \rangle = \varepsilon_1^2 \pi^2 \overline{D^2} n N,$$

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<sup>†</sup> See document 0138u-w for the origins of this equation.

<sup>‡</sup> See document 0140u-w for derivations of  $\varepsilon_1$  and  $\varepsilon_2$ .

$$\langle B_2 \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon_2^2 \pi^2 \overline{D^2} n \frac{(N\lambda)^2}{2\lambda} \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$$
  
 $= \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon_2^2 \pi^3 \overline{D^2} n N^2$   
 $= \varepsilon_3 \sqrt{\langle B_1^2 \rangle} \quad \text{with} \quad \varepsilon_3 < 1.$ 

This means that

$$\frac{1}{2}\varepsilon_2^2 \pi^3 \overline{D^2} n N^2 = \varepsilon_3 \varepsilon_1 \pi \sqrt{\overline{D^2}} \sqrt{n} \sqrt{N}$$
$$\sqrt{\overline{D^2}} = \frac{2\varepsilon_3 \varepsilon_1 / \varepsilon_2^2}{\pi^2 \sqrt{n} \left(\sqrt{N}\right)^3}.$$

We make the following definitions:

$$\varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon_2 = 1$$
,  $2\varepsilon_3 = 1$ ,  $n = 4$  and  $N = 81$ .

Thus,

$$\sqrt{\overline{D^2}} pprox rac{1}{20 imes 10^3} pprox 5 imes 10^5.$$

This means that the second order contributions will dominate. Or, similarly

$$\varepsilon_3 = \frac{\pi^2}{2} \frac{\varepsilon_2^2}{\varepsilon_1} \sqrt{\overline{D^2}} \sqrt{n} \left(\sqrt{N}\right)^3,$$

and for  $\sqrt{\overline{D^2}} = 10^{-3}$ ,

$$\varepsilon_3 \approx 5 \times 2 \times 10^{-3+} \times 10^3 \approx 10$$

still demonstrating that second order contributions will dominate.

The magnitude of the  $\Delta\Phi$  shift along the length of the insertion device with second order contributions is

$$\begin{split} \Delta \Phi &= 4 \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon_2^2 \pi^3 \overline{D^2} n N^2 \\ &\approx 2 \times 30 \times 10^{-6} \times 4 \times 6.5 \times 10^3 \\ &\approx 30 \times 50 \times 10^{-3} \\ &\approx 1.5 \text{ radians.} \end{split}$$

Thus,

$$\frac{\varepsilon_1}{\varepsilon_2^2} \approx .5 \to D$$

for equal contributions (i.e.:  $\varepsilon_3 = 1$ ), and for

$$D \approx 5 \times 10^{-5} \rightarrow D \approx 5 \times 10^{-3} \rightarrow \alpha = 100$$

for representation of phase shift by straight line.

## **Connection Between Undulator Field Errors and Optical Phase**

We begin with the following definitions:

$$x'' = \frac{g}{\gamma}B$$
 and  $g = \frac{e}{m_0c}$ .

We introduce the following references:

$$B(z)=B_0\cos kz,$$

$$x_0' = \frac{gB_0}{\gamma k} \sin kz = \frac{K}{\gamma} \sin kz \quad \text{with} \quad \frac{gB_0}{k} = K,$$
$$x_0 = -\frac{K}{k\gamma} \cos kz,$$
$$\boxed{x_W = \frac{K}{k\gamma}}.$$

We now proceed with the analysis.

$$\Delta s = \int \left( \sqrt{1 + (x'_0 + \Delta x')^2} - \sqrt{1 + (x'_0)^2} \right) dz = \int \left( x'_0 \Delta x' + \frac{1}{2} \Delta (x')^2 \right) dz.$$

By integration by parts, with  $du = x'_0 dz$ ,  $u = x_0$ ,  $v = \Delta x'$ , and  $dv = \Delta x'' dz$ ,

$$\Delta s = x_0 \Delta x' - \int x_0 \Delta x'' dz + \frac{1}{2} \int \Delta (x')^2 dz,$$

with

$$\Delta x' = rac{gB_0}{\gamma k} \int rac{\Delta B}{B_0} k dz \quad ext{and} \quad \Delta x'' = rac{gB_0}{\gamma} rac{\Delta B}{B_0},$$

where  $gB_0/\gamma k = K/\gamma$ , and thus

$$\Delta s = \frac{K^2}{\gamma^2 k} \left( -\cos kz \int \frac{\Delta B}{B_0} k dz + \int \cos(kz) \frac{\Delta B}{B_0} k dz + \frac{1}{2} \int \left( \int \frac{\Delta B}{B_0} k dz \right)^2 k dz \right).$$

Furthermore,

$$\Delta t = \frac{\Delta s}{c},$$

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$$\Delta \varphi = \omega \Delta t = \Delta s \frac{\omega}{c} = \Delta s \cdot k_L,$$

where,

$$\lambda_L = \frac{\lambda}{2\gamma^2} \left( 1 + \frac{K^2}{2} \right),$$
$$k_L = k \frac{4\gamma^2}{K^2 \left( 1 + \frac{2}{K^2} \right)},$$

and therefore,

$$\Delta \varphi = P\left(\underbrace{-\cos kz \int \frac{\Delta B}{B_0} kdz}_{(a)} + \underbrace{\int \cos(kz) \frac{\Delta B}{B_0} kdz}_{(b)} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \int \left(\int \frac{\Delta B}{B_0} kdz\right)^2 kdz}_{(c)}\right),$$

with ·

$$P = \frac{4}{1+2/K^2}.$$

Term (c) is of second order and is important only for a long insertion device. Term (a) gives harmonics and reduces line intensity for steering errors, but produces no effect if there is no steering. Term (b) produces phase shift and line broadening. Whether or not it is equal 0 depends on such elements as symmetry, but not on presence of net steering.

## $\rho$ , $A_0/B_1$ for Hybrid Insertion Device

This note is a result of ANL lecture notes, and from Simple Analytical Model For Fields From One Pole Of Hybrid Insertion Device,<sup>†</sup> with  $k_1 = 2\pi/\lambda$  and  $k_n = nk_1$ , and

$$B(x) = \sum_{n = \text{odd}} B_n \cos k_n x,$$

from poles with  $\pm$  "1", and

$$B_n = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} b(x) \cos k_n x \, dk_1 x,$$

where b(x) is the field from one pole with excitation +1. For V from 0 to  $V_1$  at the edge of pole going from  $-x_1$  to  $x_1$ ,

$$B_n = 4 \frac{k_1}{k_0} \frac{\sin k_n x_1}{\sinh(\pi k_n/k_0)} \frac{V_1}{h}$$
 with  $k_0 = \pi/h$ .

For V going linearly from 0 to  $\dot{V}_1$  over thickness of CSEM =  $(x_2 - x_1)/2$ , we have

$$A_0 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} b(x) dx = \frac{V_1}{h} \frac{\lambda}{2},$$

$$B_n = 4 \frac{k_1}{k_0} \frac{V_1}{h} \frac{\sin(k_n(x_2 - x_1)/2)}{(k_n(x_2 - x_1)/2)} \frac{1}{\sinh(\pi k_n/k_0)}.$$

For  $k_1(x_2-x_1)^2/6 \ll 1$ ,

$$B_1 = 4\frac{k_1}{k_0}\frac{V_1}{h}\frac{1}{\sinh(\pi k_1/k_0)} = \frac{4}{\pi}\frac{V_1}{h}\frac{\alpha}{\sinh\alpha} \quad \text{with} \quad \alpha = \pi\frac{k_1}{k_0} = 2\pi\frac{h}{\lambda} = \pi\frac{g}{\lambda}.$$

We may now conclude that

$$\frac{A_0}{B_1} = \lambda \frac{\pi \sinh \alpha}{8}.$$

August, 1993. Note 0137u-w.

† Document 0136u-w

For

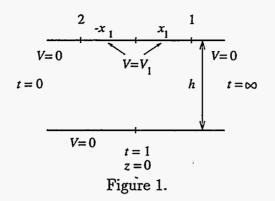
.

$$\varrho = \frac{A_0}{\int_{-\lambda/4}^{\lambda/4} B_1 \cos k_1 x \, dx} = \frac{B_1 \lambda \frac{\pi \sinh \alpha}{8 - \alpha}}{B_1(2/k_1)} = \frac{k_1 \lambda \pi}{16} \frac{\sinh \alpha}{\alpha} = \frac{\pi^2}{8} \frac{\sinh \alpha}{\alpha},$$

we have

ę	1.5	2.0	2.5	3.0	4.0	5.0
$g/\lambda$	.35	.57	.70	.79	.94	1.05

## Simple Analytical Model for Fields from One Pole of Hybrid Insertion Device



Model: midplane on V = 0, and pole from  $-\infty$  to  $+\infty$  on V = 0, except on  $V = V_1$  for  $-x_1 \le x \le x_1$ .

The above geometry is described by the following conformal map

$$\dot{\pi}\dot{z} = \frac{h}{t},$$

and the following elements

$$k_0z = \ln t, \quad t = e^{k_0z} \quad ext{and} \quad k_0 = rac{\pi}{h},$$

and where  $x_1$  is the half-width of the pole. Putting  $\pm$  current filaments at  $x = \pm x_1$ ,

$$\pi F = V_1 \ln \frac{(t-t_1)}{(t-t_2)},$$

$$F' = \frac{V_1}{h} \left( \frac{t}{t - t_1} - \frac{t}{t - t_2} \right)$$
$$= \frac{V_1}{h} \left( \frac{1}{t/t_1 - 1} - \frac{1}{t/t_2 - 1} \right).$$

where  $t = e^{k_0 z}$ ,  $t_1 = e^{k_0(x_1+ih)} = -e^{k_0 x_1}$ . Thus,

August, 1993. Note 0136u-w.

$$F'\frac{h}{V_{1}} = \frac{1}{e^{k_{0}(z+x_{1})}+1} - \frac{1}{e^{k_{0}(z-x_{1})}+1}$$
$$= -\frac{e^{k_{0}z} \left(e^{k_{0}x_{1}} - e^{-k_{0}x_{1}}\right)}{e^{2k_{0}z}+1+e^{k_{0}z} \left(e^{k_{0}x_{1}} + e^{-k_{0}x_{1}}\right)}$$
$$= \boxed{-\frac{\sinh k_{0}x_{1}}{\cosh k_{0}z + \cosh k_{0}x_{1}}} = -b(z).$$
(1)

The odd harmonics of the field are described by

$$B_N = a \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} b(x) \cos(Nk_1 x) dx, \qquad (2)$$

where N = 2n + 1,  $k_N = k_1 N = k_1 (2n + 1)$ ,  $k_1 = 2\pi/\lambda$ , and a is a constant, thus

$$\frac{B_N}{a} = \sinh k_0 x_1 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\cos(k_N x) dx}{\cosh k_0 x + \cosh k_0 x_1}$$
$$= \sinh k_0 x_1 \cdot G_N, \tag{3}$$

$$G_N = \Re \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{ik_N x}}{\cosh k_0 x + \cosh k_0 x_1} dx, \tag{4}$$

That is, to evaluate this integral, one can integrate a line integral along the real axis of the complex z-plane, and close it at  $\infty$  in the upper half-plane without changing its value.

There are singularities at  $\cosh k_0 z = -\cosh k_0 x_1$  in the upper half-plane, with  $k_0 z = \pm k_0 x_1 + i\pi (2m + 1)$ , for m = 0, 1, 2, ... We take the first singularity at  $k_0 z = +k_0 x_1 + i\pi M$  and do others later by replacing  $x_1$  by  $-x_1$ . We integrate over the upper half-plane:

$$G_{N+} = \Re \int \frac{e^{ik_N z} dz}{\cosh k_0 z + \cosh k_0 x_1}$$
  
=  $\Re \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{ik_N (x_1 + i\pi M/k_0)}}{k_0 \sinh k_0 z_m} \cdot 2\pi i$   
=  $+ \frac{2\pi}{k_0} \cdot \frac{\sin k_N x_1}{\sinh k_0 x_1} \cdot \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} e^{-\pi (k_N/k_0)(2m+1)}$   
=  $+ \frac{2\pi}{k_0} \cdot \frac{\sin k_N x_1}{\sinh k_0 x_1} \cdot \frac{e^{-\pi k_N/k_0}}{1 - e^{-2\pi k_N/k_0}}$   
=  $+ \frac{2\pi}{k_0} \cdot \frac{\sin k_N x_1}{\sinh k_0 x_1} \cdot \frac{1}{2\sinh(\pi k_N/k_0)}$   
=  $\frac{\pi}{k_0} \cdot \frac{\sin k_N x_1}{\sinh k_0 x_1} \cdot \frac{1}{\sinh(\pi k_N/k_0)}$ .

One solves for  $G_{N-}$  similarly. Thus, we may re-write (3),

$$\frac{B_N}{a} = \frac{2\pi}{k_0} \cdot \frac{\sin k_N x_1}{\sinh(\pi k_N/k_0)},\tag{5}$$

and further,

$$\frac{B_{(2n+1)}}{B_1} = \frac{\sin(k_1(2n+1)x_1)}{\sinh((\pi k_1/k_0)(2n+1))} \cdot \frac{\sinh(\pi k_1/k_0)}{\sin(k_1x_1)},\tag{6}$$

with 
$$k_0=rac{\pi}{h}, \quad k_1=rac{2\pi}{\lambda}, \quad ext{and thus} \quad \pi rac{k_1}{k_0}=2\pi rac{h}{\lambda}$$

This model of b(z), and the resultant  $B_N$ , assume that the potential increases like a step function at the edge of the pole. As a next approximation, to improve this model, one would assume that the potential increases linearly over the size of the CSEM and represent this by the operation

$$\frac{1}{x_2 - x_1} \int_{x_1}^{x_2} dx_1,$$

which is easily executed on both b(z) and  $B_N$ . For b(z) we have

$$\int \frac{\sinh k_0 x_1}{\cosh k_0 z + \cosh k_0 x_1} \cdot \frac{dx_1}{(x_2 - x_1)} = \frac{1}{k_0 (x_2 - x_1)} \ln \frac{\cosh k_0 z + \cosh k_0 x_2}{\cosh k_0 z + \cosh k_0 x_1}, \quad (7)$$

and for  $B_N$  we have

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$$\int \sin(Nk_1x_1) \frac{dx_1}{(x_2 - x_1)} = \frac{\cos Nk_1x_1 - \cos Nk_1x_2}{Nk_1(x_2 - x_1)}$$
$$= -\sin\left((2n+1)k_1\frac{x_2 + x_1}{2}\right) \frac{\sin\left((2n+1)k_1\frac{x_2 - x_1}{2}\right)}{\frac{(2n+1)}{k_1} \cdot \frac{x_2 - x_1}{2}}$$
(8)

where

$$-\sin\left(k_1(2n+1)\left(\frac{x_2+x_1}{2}\right)\right) = (-1)^{n+1},$$

$$rac{x_2+x_1}{2}=rac{\lambda}{4} \quad ext{and} \quad (2n+1)k_1rac{x_2-x_1}{2}=rac{\pi}{2}+n\pi.$$

The argument of the log function can, and should be, operated on in the same manner, such that for

$$\cosh k_0 z = C_0$$
,  $\cosh k_0 x_1 = C_1$ , and  $\cosh k_0 x_2 = C_2$ ,

$$\frac{C_0 + C_2}{C_0 + C_1} = \frac{C_0 + a + b}{C_0 + a - b} = \frac{1 + \frac{b}{C_0 + a}}{1 - \frac{b}{C_0 + a}}$$

where

$$a = \frac{C_2 + C_1}{2}, \quad b = \frac{C_2 - C_1}{2}, \quad \text{and} \quad \ln \frac{H\varepsilon}{1 - \varepsilon} = 2\left(\varepsilon + \frac{\varepsilon^3}{3} + 10\right).$$

## Wiggler Parameter K Definitions

For v = c we have

$$m_0 \gamma v^2 x'' = evB = evA',$$
  
 $x' = \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{e}{m_0 v} A \text{ and } x'_{\max} = \frac{K_1}{\gamma}.$ 

Definition 1:

$$K_1 = \frac{e}{m_0 c} A_{\max} = \frac{e}{2\pi m_0 c} 2\pi A_{\max}.$$

For a pure sinusoidal field we have

$$B = B_0 \sin kz$$
 and  $A = \frac{B_0}{k} \cos kz$ .

Thus

$$A_{\max} = \frac{B_0}{k} \implies K_1 = \frac{e}{2\pi m_0 c} B_0 \lambda_u$$

### **Definition 2:**

The "path length" slippage in  $\lambda_u$  equals  $\lambda_{\text{light}}$ . (We shall refer to  $\lambda_{\text{light}}$  as  $\lambda_{\text{L}}$  for the remainder of this document.)

$$\Delta t = rac{s}{ceta} - rac{\lambda_u}{c} = rac{\lambda_L}{c} \quad ext{and thus} \quad \lambda_L = \lambda_u \left(rac{s}{\lambda_u eta} - 1
ight)$$

where s = path length over one period, and  $s' = \sqrt{1 + {x'}^2}$ . Proceeding from above, we now have that

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$$\frac{\lambda_{\rm L}}{\lambda_u} = \frac{1}{\beta \lambda_u} \int_0^{\lambda_u} \left(1 + \frac{{x'}^2}{2}\right) dz - 1$$
$$= \frac{1}{\beta} - 1 + \frac{1}{2\lambda_u} \int_0^{\lambda_u} {x'}^2 dz \,.$$

June, 1993. Note 0135u-w.

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By introducing

$$\beta^2 + \frac{1}{\gamma^2} = 1$$
 and thus  $\beta^{-1} = \left(1 - \frac{1}{\gamma^2}\right)^{-1/2} = 1 + \frac{1}{2\gamma^2}$ ,

we further simplify

$$\begin{split} \frac{\lambda_{\rm L}}{\lambda_u} &= \frac{1}{2\gamma^2} + \frac{1}{2\lambda_u} \int_0^{\lambda_u} {x'}^2 dz \\ &= \frac{1}{2\gamma^2} \left( 1 + \underbrace{\left(\frac{e}{m_0 c}\right)^2 \frac{\int_0^{\lambda_u} A^2 dz}{\lambda_u}}_{K_2^2/2} \right). \end{split}$$

and we now arrive at our definition

$$K_2^2 = \left(\frac{e}{m_0 c}\right)^2 \frac{2}{\lambda_u} \int_0^{\lambda_u} A^2 dz \,.$$

For  $A = \frac{B_0}{k} \cos kz$  we have

$$K_2^2 = \left(\frac{e}{m_0 c}\right)^2 \frac{2}{\lambda_u} \frac{B_0^2}{k^2} \frac{\lambda_u}{2} = \left(\frac{e}{2\pi m_0 c} B_0 \lambda_u\right)^2$$

where  $(e/2\pi m_0 c) = .934 \cdot 10^2$  in SI units.

We define  $(2\pi m_0 c/e) = A_e$  and thus  $1/A_e = .934 \cdot 10^2$  MKS. We now reformulate our **Definitions 1** and **2** such that

$$K_1 = \frac{2\pi}{A_e} A_{\max}$$

and

$$K_2 = \frac{2\pi}{A_{\grave{e}}} \sqrt{\frac{2\int_0^{\lambda_u/4} A^2 dz}{\lambda_u/4}}.$$

**Definition 3:** 

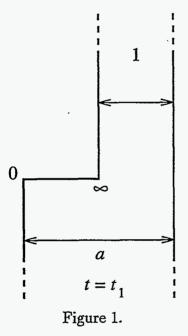
$$K_3 = \frac{B_0 \lambda_u}{A_e} = \frac{V_0}{A_e} \, 4 \frac{\lambda_u/4}{D_4} \, .$$

Where  $D_4$  refers to the NPOLE1.BAS program variable which describes the distance factor in the transformation from scalar potential to the field.

## NPOLE

A recreation, with "Korea modification," of a program (for HP71B) to design and analyze  $\lambda/4$  of hybrid insertion device.

We will begin by establishing some background information for the conformal map and the limits for  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ .

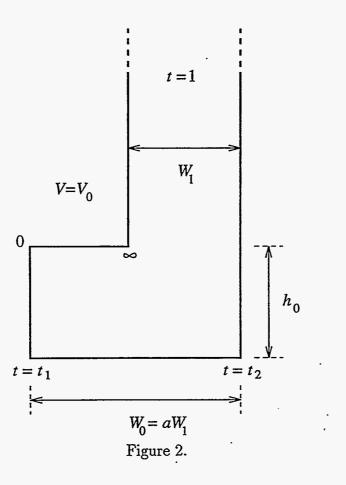


For the map of Figure 1,

$$\pi \dot{z} = -i \frac{1 - t_1}{\sqrt{t}(t - t_1)(t - 1)}$$

$$a = rac{1}{\sqrt{t_1}} \quad ext{and thus} \quad t_1 = rac{1}{a^2}.$$

June, 1993. Note 0134u-w.



We proved in Korea in 1987 that

$$0 < t_1 < 1/a^2 < t_2 < 1$$
 and  $rac{1}{a^2} = \left(rac{W_1}{W_0}
ight)^2$ 

for the geometry of Figure 2.

Therefore, in program NPOLE1.BAS (included at the end of this document),

$$t_1 = \frac{1}{a^2}$$
RANG(C1),  $t_2 = \frac{1}{a^2} + \left(1 - \frac{1}{a^2}\right)$ RANG(C2),

with 0 < RANG(x) < 1 as used in the first version, and  $\text{RANG}(x) = 1/(1 + e^x)$  as specifically used now.

The map for geometry with corners at  $t_1, t_2$  is described by

$$\dot{z} = -iW_1 \frac{Q_1}{\sqrt{t}\sqrt{t-t_1}\sqrt{t-t_2}(t-1)}$$
 and  $Q_1 = \frac{\sqrt{1-t_1}\sqrt{1-t_2}}{\pi}$ .

We determine  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  from

$$\frac{h_0}{W_1} = Q_1 \int_0^{t_1} \frac{dt}{\sqrt{t}\sqrt{t_1 - t}\sqrt{t_2 - t}(1 - t)}$$

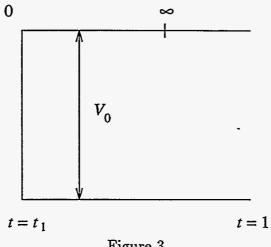
$$\frac{W_0}{W_1} = Q_1 \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \frac{dt}{\sqrt{t}\sqrt{t-t_1}\sqrt{t_2-t}(1-t)} \,.$$

To evaluate the integrals, we use

$$\boxed{\int_{t_1}^{t_2} \frac{f(t)dt}{\sqrt{t-t_1}\sqrt{t_2-t}} = 3\int_{-1}^{1} \frac{f(t)}{\sqrt{4-x^2}} dx,}$$
$$t = \frac{2(t_2+t_1) + (t_2-t_1)x(3-x^2)}{4}$$

We use Gaussian integration with segmented intervals for testing and accuracy purposes. We use a "2D" secant equation solver to determine  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  from the above integrals.

We describe the complex potentials for fluxes, fields:





$$\dot{F} = -\frac{Q_2 V_0}{\sqrt{t} \sqrt{t - t_1} (t - 1)}$$
 and  $Q_2 = \frac{\sqrt{1 - t_1}}{\pi}$ .

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We therefore have

$$F = -Q_2 V_0 \int \frac{dt}{t^2 \sqrt{1 - t_1/t} (1 - 1/t)} = -Q_2 \int \frac{2du}{t_1 (1 - (1 - u^2)/t_1)} V_0$$

where

$$\sqrt{1 - \frac{t_1}{t}} = u, \quad \frac{t_1}{t} = 1 - u^2, \text{ and thus } \frac{dt}{t^2} = \frac{2udu}{t_1}$$

$$\boxed{1 - t_1 = t_3^2.}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{split} \frac{1}{V_0}F &= -Q_2 \int \frac{2du}{u^2 - t_3^2} \\ &= -Q_2 \int \left(\frac{1}{u - t_3} - \frac{1}{u + t_3}\right) \frac{du}{t_3} \\ &= \frac{Q_2}{t_3} \ln \frac{u + t_3}{u - t_3} \\ &= \boxed{\frac{Q_2}{t_3} \ln \frac{\sqrt{1 - t_1/t} + t_3}{\sqrt{1 - t_1/t} - t_3}}. \end{split}$$

Flux into pole /  $V_0$ :

$$E_p = \frac{Q_2}{t_3} \ln \left\| \frac{\sqrt{1 + t_1/\tau} + t_3}{\sqrt{1 + t_1/\tau} - t_3} \right\|_0^\infty$$
$$= \boxed{\frac{Q_2}{t_3} \ln \frac{1 + t_3}{1 - t_3}}.$$

Flux into midplane (for K):

$$E_M = \left(F(t_2) - F(t_1)\right)/V_0$$
  
= 
$$\boxed{\frac{Q_2}{t_3} \ln \frac{t_3 + \sqrt{1 - t_1/t_2}}{t_3 - \sqrt{1 - t_1/t_2}},}$$

with  $K_1 = 2\pi V_0 E_M(1/A_e)$  where  $(1/A_e) = .934 \cdot 10^2$  MKS. We calculate the excess flux coefficient for the side of the pole  $(V_0 = 1)$ :

$$\left(A(t) - A(\infty) = \frac{y(t) - y(\infty)}{W_1} + E_s\right)_{t \to 1}$$

$$E_{s} = \int_{1}^{\infty} \left( -\dot{F} + \frac{\dot{z}}{i} \right) dt = \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{t}\sqrt{t - t_{1}(t - 1)}} \underbrace{\left( Q_{2} - \frac{Q_{1}}{\sqrt{t - t_{2}}} \right)}_{G_{1}} dt$$

where

$$G_{1} = Q_{2} \left( 1 - \frac{\sqrt{1 - t_{2}}}{\sqrt{t - t_{2}}} \right)$$
$$= \frac{Q_{2}}{\sqrt{t - t_{2}}} (\sqrt{t - t_{2}} - \sqrt{1 - t_{2}})$$
$$= \frac{Q_{2}(t - 1)}{\sqrt{t - t_{2}} (\sqrt{t - t_{2}} + \sqrt{1 - t_{2}})}$$

and thus

$$E_{s} = Q_{2} \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{dt}{\sqrt{t}\sqrt{t - t_{1}}\sqrt{t - t_{2}}\left(\sqrt{t - t_{2}} + \sqrt{1 - t_{2}}\right)}$$
$$= \boxed{Q_{2} \int_{0}^{1} \frac{dt}{\sqrt{1 - t_{1}t}\sqrt{1 - t_{2}t}\left(\sqrt{t - t_{2}t} + \sqrt{t}\sqrt{1 - t_{2}}\right)}.$$

The field  $B_0$  at  $t = t_1$  is  $(\dot{F}/\dot{z})$ . With  $V_0$  on pole,

$$B_0 = \frac{V_0}{W_1} \frac{Q_2}{Q_1} \sqrt{t_2 - t_1} = \frac{V_0}{W_1} \frac{\sqrt{t_2 - t_1}}{\sqrt{1 - t_2}} = \frac{V_0}{D_4}$$

where  $D_4$  is an old notation and

$$D_4 = W_1 \frac{\sqrt{1 - t_2}}{\sqrt{t_2 - t_1}} \,.$$

For the second definition of K,

$$K_2 = 2\pi \frac{1}{A_e} \sqrt{\frac{2\int_0^{\lambda_u/4} A^2 dz}{\lambda_u/4}}.$$

We need  $\int F^2 dz$ , thus,

$$\int A^2 dz = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} F^2 \dot{z} \, dt = G_2 \, .$$

Therefore, we have that

$$G_2 = \frac{Q_1 Q_2^2}{t_3^2} V_0^2 W_1 \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \left( \ln \frac{t_3 + \sqrt{1 - t_1/t}}{t_3 - \sqrt{1 - t_1/t}} \right)^2 \frac{dt}{\sqrt{t}\sqrt{t - t_1}\sqrt{t_2 - t}(1 - t)}.$$

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$$\frac{G_2}{\lambda_u/4} = \frac{G_2}{W_0} = V_0^2 \frac{W_1}{W_0} \frac{Q_1 Q_2^2}{t_3^2} J$$

where

$$J = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \left( \ln \frac{t_3 + \sqrt{1 - t_1/t}}{t_3 - \sqrt{1 - t_1/t}} \right)^2 \frac{dt}{\sqrt{t}\sqrt{t - t_1}\sqrt{t_2 - t(1 - t)}},$$

and thus we may summarize

$$K_2 = 2\pi V_0 \frac{1}{A_e} \sqrt{\frac{2W_1 Q_2^2 Q_1}{t_3^2 W_0} J} \ .$$

### **Program NPOLE1.BAS**

```
PRINT: PRINT DATES: " TIMES: " NPOLE1"
'GOTO BYPASS
PRINT "Determines parameter values and evaluates flux into midplane (Em) and"
PRINT "pole (Ep) of ID, and excess flux coefficient for side of pole (Es)."
PRINT "K1,K2,K3 are obtained by multiplying the printed values by the scalar"
PRINT "potential of pole in Tcm. K1 is for maximum deflection angle, K2 for"
PRINT "trajectory length effect, and K3 for B0*period. D4=V0/B0 for V0=1."
REM--List of P1() elements:0>W01^(-2),1>T1,2>T2,3>T3,5>Q1,6>Q2,9>Function ID
BYPASS:
DEFINT J:DEFDBL A-Z
PI=4*ATN(1):A1$="##.###~~~~ ":TAP=0
A2$=" Em
               Ер
                            Es
                                       K1
                                                  K2
                                                             KЗ
                                                                        D4"
A3$="
                    HO=##.## WO=##.## W1=##.##"
DIM P1(0:9),GX(1:4),GW(1:4)
SHARED PI,GX(),GW(),P1(),A1$
REM--GX, GW=(normalized) abscissas; P1=parameters for Gauss integrator
DATA .1834346425,.3626837834,.5255324099,.3137066459
DATA .7966664774,.2223810345,.9602898565,.1012285363
FOR J1=1 TO 4:READ GX(J1),GW(J1):NEXT J1:REM--Abscissas, weights for Gauss
REM-----
'C10=1:C20=1
PRINT:PRINT TAB(TAP);:PRINT A2$
DO
AGAIN:
INPUT; "HO, W0, >W1=", HOO, W00, W10: REM--INPUT unnormalized 1/2gap, period/4,
IF H00>0 THEN H0=H00:REM--pole to symmetry line distance, stored temporarily
IF W00>0 THEN W0=W00:REM--in H00,W00,W10, then in H0,W0,W1(=not-normalized).
IF W10>0 THEN W1=W10:REM--H01,W01=normalized with W1, used in program.
IF HOO=O AND WOO=O AND W10=O THEN END
IF WO<W1 THEN PRINT TAB(20);:PRINT "WO must be larger than W1!":GOTO AGAIN
PRINT TAB(24); : PRINT USING A3$; HO; WO; W1
H01=H0/W1:W01=W0/W1:P1(0)=1/(W01*W01):DC1=.1:DC2=.1
GOSUB SOLVIT
PRINT TAB(TAP);:PRINT USING A1$;EM;EP;ES;K1;K2;K3;D4
LOOP
SOLVIT:
C11=C10+DC1:C21=C20:C12=C10:C22=C20+DC2
CALL EVAL(C10,C20,S10,S20):S10=S10-H01:S20=S20-W01:S00=ABS(S10)+ABS(S20)
CALL EVAL(C11,C21,S11,S21):S11=S11-H01:S21=S21-W01:S01=ABS(S11)+ABS(S21)
CALL EVAL(C12,C22,S12,S22):S12=S12-H01:S22=S22-W01:S02=ABS(S12)+ABS(S22)
```

DO

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REM--REARR puts "worst" set into last column, to be discarded later
GOSUB REARR
N1=1/((S11-S10)*(S22-S20)-(S12-S10)*(S21-S20)): REM--Start of 2D secant
D1=N1*(S20*S12-S10*S22):D2=N1*(S10*S21-S20*S11):REM--equation solver
DC1=(C11-C10)*D1+(C12-C10)*D2:DC2=(C21-C20)*D1+(C22-C20)*D2
C12=C11:C22=C21:C11=C10:C21=C20:S12=S11:S22=S21:S11=S10:S21=S20
S02=S01:S01=S00:C10=C10+DC1:C20=C20+DC2:REM--Recommended new parameters
CALL EVAL(C10,C20,S10,S20):S10=S10-H01:S20=S20-W01:S00=ABS(S10)+ABS(S20)
LOOP UNTIL SOO<.001
P1(9)=3:CALL SGAUSSINT8(0,1,G2,-.001):Q2=P1(6):T1=P1(1):T2=P1(2):T3=P1(3)
Q1=P1(5):ES=Q2*G2:EP=Q2/T3*LOG((1+T3)/(1-T3)):D4=W1*SQR((1-T2)/(T2-T1))
EM=Q2/T3*LOG(2/(1-SQR(1-T1/T2)/T3)-1):K1=2*PI*EM*.934:K3=4*W0/D4*.934
P1(9)=4:CALL SGAUSSINT8(-1,1,K2,-.001):K2=2*PI*Q2/P1(3)*SQR(2*Q1*3*K2/W01)*.934
RETURN
REARR:
IF SOO>SO1 THEN GOSUB SW01
IF S01>S02 THEN GOSUB SW12
RETURN
SW01:
SWAP S00,S01:SWAP S10,S11:SWAP S20,S21:SWAP C10,C11:SWAP C20,C21:RETURN
SW12:
SWAP S01, S02: SWAP S11, S12: SWAP S21, S22: SWAP C11, C12: SWAP C21, C22: RETURN
SUB EVAL(C1,C2,S1,S2):REM--Calculates H01,W01 for set of parameters C1,C2>T1,T2
T1=P1(0)*RANG(C1):T2=P1(0)+(1-P1(0))*RANG(C2)
T3=SQR(1-T1):P1(1)=T1:P1(2)=T2:P1(3)=T3
Q2=T3/PI:Q1=Q2*SQR(1-T2):P1(5)=Q1:P1(6)=Q2
P1(9)=1:CALL SGAUSSINT8(-1,1,G2,-.001):S1=3+Q1+G2
P1(9)=2:CALL SGAUSSINT8(-1,1,G2,-.001):S2=3*Q1*G2
END SUB
SUB SGAUSSINT8(X0,X3,G2,DG):REM--Gauss integrator, with interval segmentation
IF DG>0 THEN E1=DG:E2=0 ELSE E1=0:E2=-DG:REM--For DG>/<0,DG=absol./rel. error
CALL GAUSSINT8(X0,X3,G2):J1=1:J4=16:REM--J4=largest # subdiv.
DO
  G1=G2:G2=0:J1=2*J1:DX=(X3-X0)/J1:REM--G1/G2=last/next computed integral
  IF J1>J4 THEN PRINT " Not converged":END
  FOR J2=0 TO J1-1
    CALL GAUSSINT8(X0+J2*DX,X0+(J2+1)*DX,G3)
    G2=G2+G3:REM-----
                                               ---G2=integral
```

```
NEXT J2
```

```
LOOP UNTIL ABS(G2-G1)<E1+E2*ABS(G2) OR J1>J4
END SUB
```

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SUB GAUSSINT8(X1,X2,G2):REM-----
                                 -----Integrator; G2=value of integral
X0=.5*(X2+X1):X3=X0-X1:G2=0
ON P1(9) GOTO INTEGRAND1, INTEGRAND2, INTEGRAND3, INTEGRAND4
INTEGRAND1:
FOR J1=1 TO 4
 DX=GX(J1)*X3:G2=G2+GW(J1)*(GCT1(X0+DX)+GCT1(X0-DX))
NEXT J1:G2=G2*X3
EXIT SUB
INTEGRAND2:
FOR J1=1 TO 4
DX=GX(J1)*X3:G2=G2+GW(J1)*(GCT2(X0+DX)+GCT2(X0-DX))
NEXT J1:G2=G2*X3
EXIT SUB
INTEGRAND3:
FOR J1=1 TO 4
DX=GX(J1)*X3:G2=G2+GW(J1)*(GCT3(X0+DX)+GCT3(X0-DX))
NEXT J1:G2=G2*X3
EXIT SUB
INTEGRAND4:
FOR J1=1 TO 4
DX=GX(J1)*X3:G2=G2+GW(J1)*(GCT4(X0+DX)+GCT4(X0-DX))
NEXT J1:G2=G2*X3
END SUB
FUNCTION GCT1(X):REM-----First of functions to be integrated.
TT=P1(1)*(2+X*(3-X*X))/4:GCT1=1/SQR((P1(2)-TT)*(4-X*X))/(1-TT)
END FUNCTION
FUNCTION GCT2(X)
TT=((P1(2)+P1(1))*2+(P1(2)-P1(1))*X*(3-X*X))/4
GCT2=1/SQR(TT*(4-X*X))/(1-TT)
·END FUNCTION
FUNCTION GCT3(X)
S1=SQR(1-P1(2)*X):GCT3=1/SQR(1-P1(1)*X)/(S1*(S1+SQR(X*(1-P1(2)))))
END FUNCTION
FUNCTION GCT4(X)
TT=((P1(2)+P1(1))*2+(P1(2)-P1(1))*X*(3-X*X))/4:T4=SQR(1-P1(1)/TT)/P1(3)
GCT4=(LOG((1+T4)/(1-T4)))^2/(1-TT)/SQR(TT*(4-X*X))
END FUNCTION
```

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FUNCTION RANG(X):REM------O<RANG(X)<1

RANG =1/(1+EXP(X)) END FUNCTION

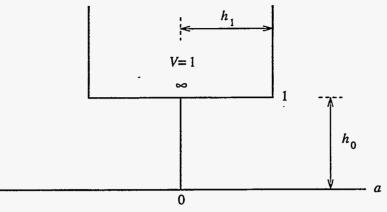
DEF FNPOLE(X)=((X+1)\*LOG(X+1)-(X-1)\*LOG(X-1))/PI

### **Program Results**

06-28-1993 10:14:02 NPOLE1 Determines parameter values and evaluates flux into midplane (Em) and pole (Ep) of ID, and excess flux coefficient for side of pole (Es). K1,K2,K3 are obtained by multiplying the printed values by the scalar potential of pole in Tcm. K1 is for maximum deflection angle, K2 for trajectory length effect, and K3 for B0\*period. D4=V0/B0 for V0=1.

Em	Ep	Es	K1	K2	КЗ		D4
HO, WO,>W1	= .5,1.4		HO=	0.50 WO=	: 1.00	W1	= 0.40
1.373E+00	1.515E+00	2.532E-01	8.055E+00	7.890E+00	7.310E+	H <b>OO</b> ,	5.111E-01

# Error of Flux Calculation for Finite Pole Width with Excess Flux Coefficient





$$\dot{z} = -rac{\sqrt{t^2 - 1}}{\sqrt{t^2 - a^2}^3}$$

We have

$$h_0 = \int_0^\infty \frac{\sqrt{1+t^2}}{\sqrt{a^2+t^2}} dt$$
 and  $h_1 = \int_1^\infty \frac{\sqrt{1-t^2}}{\sqrt{t^2-a^2}} dt$ .

We introduce

$$\sqrt{a^2 + t^2} = \frac{1}{u}, \quad t = \sqrt{\frac{1}{u^2} - a^2} = \frac{\sqrt{1 - a^2 u^2}}{u}$$

$$dt = -\frac{\frac{a^2u^2}{\sqrt{1-a^2u^2}} + \sqrt{1-a^2u^2}}{u^2} du = -\frac{1}{u^2\sqrt{1-a^2u^2}} du$$
$$1 + t^2 = 1 - a^2 + \frac{1}{u^2} = b^2 + \frac{1}{u^2}, \qquad b^2 = 1 - a^2$$

we therefore have

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$$h_0 = -\frac{1}{a} \int_0^{1/a} \frac{\sqrt{1+b^2 u^2}}{\sqrt{1-a^2 u^2}} \, du \, .$$

June, 1993. Note 0133u-w.

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And given  $au = \sin \varphi$ , and  $du = \frac{\cos \varphi \, d\varphi}{a}$ ,

$$h_{0} = -\frac{1}{a} \int_{0}^{\pi/2} \sqrt{1 + \frac{b^{2}}{a^{2}} \sin^{2} \varphi} \, d\varphi$$
$$= -\frac{1}{a} \int_{0}^{\pi/2} \sqrt{1 + \frac{b^{2}}{a^{2}} - \frac{b^{2}}{a^{2}} \cos^{2} \varphi} \, d\varphi$$
$$= -\frac{1}{a^{2}} \int_{0}^{\pi/2} \sqrt{1 - b^{2} \cos^{2} \varphi} \, d\varphi$$
$$= \boxed{-\frac{1}{a^{2}} E(b^{2})}.$$

For  $t = \frac{1}{u}$ ,  $dt = -\frac{du}{u^2}$ , and  $u = \sin \alpha$ 

$$h_1 = -\int_0^1 \frac{\sqrt{1/u^2 - 1}}{\sqrt{1/u^2 - a^{2^3}}} \frac{du}{u^2}$$
$$= -\int_0^1 \frac{\sqrt{1 - u^2}}{\sqrt{1 - a^2 u^{2^3}}} du$$
$$= -\int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{\cos^2 \alpha \, d\alpha}{\sqrt{1 - a^2 \sin^2 \alpha^3}}$$

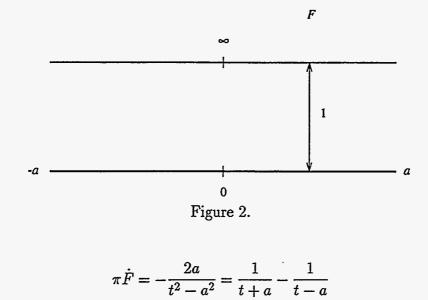
From Jahnke and Emde<sup>1</sup>:

$$h_1 = -\frac{K(a^2) - E(a^2)}{a^2}$$

and therefore

$$\frac{h_1}{h_0} = \frac{K(a^2) - E(a^2)}{E(1 - a^2)}.$$

1 Table of Functions with Formulae and Curves, Dover Publications, 1945: p. 56.



$$\pi F = \ln \frac{t+a}{t-a} = \ln \frac{1+a/t}{1-a/t}$$

The flux into the poleface is

$$A(1) - A(\infty) = A_{\text{ideal}} = \boxed{\frac{1}{\pi} \ln \frac{1+a}{1-a}}.$$

Comparing this flux to the homogeneous flux and the excess flux for the end of a semi-infinite pole with half-gap =  $h_0$ , we have

$$A_{\text{approx}} = \frac{h_1}{h_0} + \frac{1}{\pi} (2 - \ln 4)$$
$$= \boxed{\frac{K(a^2) - E(a^2)}{E(1 - a^2)} + .195.}$$

Therefore we have

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$$G\left(\frac{h_{1}}{h_{0}}\right) = \frac{A_{\text{approx}} - A_{\text{ideal}}}{A_{\text{ideal}}} = \frac{A_{\text{approx}}}{A_{\text{ideal}}} - 1 = \left|\frac{\frac{h_{1}}{h_{0}} + \frac{1}{\pi}(2 - \ln 4)}{\frac{1}{\pi}\ln\frac{1+a}{1-a}} - 1\right|.$$

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#### **Program EXCFLTST.BAS**

```
CLS
DEFDBL A-Z
PRINT DATE$ ;" ";TIME$ ;" EXCFLTST"
REM--Error of flux calculation for finite width pole with excess flux
REM--coefficient.
                   INPUT parameter = 1/2-width of pole / 1/2-gap.
PI=4*ATN(1):A1$="dA=##.###**** dA/A=##.###**** dX/H1=##.###****
E1=(2-LOG(4))/PI:X2=1:DY=1E-6
DIM P1(0:2)
DO
INPUT;"H1/HO=",HO
X1=.9*X2:P1(0)=H0:REM--G1=2/(1+EXP(PI*H0+2)):E1=2/PI*(1-G1-LOG(2-G1))
CALL SECANTS(X1,X2,DY,Y2,P1())
A1=1/SQR(1+EXP(X2)):A0=LOG((1+A1)/(1-A1))/PI:AE=H0+E1
PRINT TAB(15);:PRINT USING A1$;AE-A0;AE/A0-1;(AE-A0)/H0
LOOP
SUB SECANTS(X1,X2,DY,Y2,P1())
CALL FCTY(X1,Y1,P1()):CALL FCTY(X2,Y2,P1())
IF ABS(Y1)<ABS(Y2) THEN SWAP Y1,Y2:SWAP X1,X2
J1%=0
DO
DX=Y2*(X1-X2)/(Y2-Y1)
X1=X2:Y1=Y2:X2=X1+DX:J1%=J1%+1
CALL FCTY(X2, Y2, P1())
LOOP UNTIL ABS(Y2) < DY OR J1%=15
IF J1%=15 THEN PRINT "NOT CONVERGED"
END SUB
SUB FCTY(X1,Y1,P1())
A2=1/(1+EXP(X1))
Y1=(ELLK(A2)-ELLE(A2))/ELLE(1-A2)-P1(0)
END SUB
FUNCTION ELLK(X1)
X=1-X1:S1=.01451196212*X+.03742563713:S1=S1*X+.03590092383
S1=S1*X+.09666344259:S1=S1*X+1.38629436112:S2=.00441787012*X+.03328355346
S2=S2*X+.06880248576:S2=S2*X+.12498593597:S2=S2*X+.5
ELLK=S1-S2*LOG(X)
END FUNCTION
```

FUNCTION ELLE(X1) X=1-X1:S1=.01736506451\*X+.04757383546:S1=S1\*X+.0626060122 S1=S1\*X+.44325141463:S2=X\*.00526449639+.04069697526 S2=S2\*X+.09200180037:S2=S2\*X+.2499836831 ELLE=X\*S1+1-X\*S2\*LOG(X) END FUNCTION

# **Program Results**

06-16-1993	09:09:24 EXCFLT	ST	
H1/H2=.1	dA= 4.832E-02	dA/A= 1.956E-01	dX/H1= 4.832E-01
H1/H2=.2	dA= 2.240E-02	dA/A= 6.022E-02	dX/H1= 1.123E-01
H1/H2=.3	dA= 1.129E-02	dA/A= 2.331E-02	dX/H1= 3.762E-02
H1/H2=.4	dA= 5.848E-03	dA/A= 9.920E-03	dX/H1= 1.462E-02
H1/H2=.5	dA= 3.074E-03	dA/A= 4.441E-03	dX/H1= 6.149E-03
H1/H2=.6	dA= 1.627E-03	dA/A= 2.050E-03	dX/H1= 2.712E-03
H1/H2=.7	dA= 8.645E-04	dA/A= 9.665E-04	dX/H1= 1.235E-03
H1/H2=.8	dA= 4.602E-04	dA/A= 4.626E-04	dX/H1= 5.752E-04
H1/H2=.9	dA= 2.452E-04	dA/A= 2.239E-04	dX/H1= 2.725E-04
H1/H2=1	dA= 1.307E-04	dA/A= 1.094E-04	dX/H1= 1.307E-04
H1/H2=2	dA= 3.008E-07	dA/A= 1.370E-07	dX/H1= 1.504E-07

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## Excess Flux Into Pole and Flux Into Side of Gm40

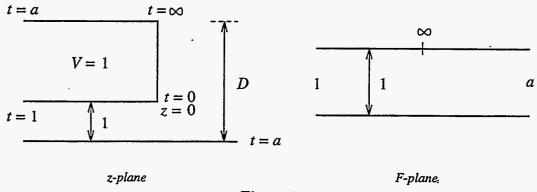


Figure 1.

The conformal map is described by

$$\pi \dot{z} = \frac{\sqrt{t}(a-1)^2}{(t-1)(t-a)^2}.$$

To determine the value a that produces the desired D, we use  $t = a + \tau$ ,  $|\tau| \ll a$ . Expanding in  $\tau$  gives

$$\pi \frac{dz}{d\tau} = \frac{(a-1)^2 \sqrt{a} \left(1 + \frac{\tau}{2a}\right)}{(a-1) \left(1 + \frac{\tau}{a-1}\right)} \cdot \frac{1}{\tau^2}.$$

Expanding more, and then integrating over the half-circle around t = a, we get

$$D = -(a-1)\sqrt{a}\left(\frac{1}{2a} - \frac{1}{a-1}\right)$$
$$= \sqrt{a} \cdot \frac{a+1}{2a}$$
$$= \boxed{\frac{1}{2}\left(\sqrt{a} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{a}}\right)}.$$

By substitution and integration, we have

$$\frac{1}{(a-1)^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial a} \int \frac{\sqrt{t} \, dt}{(t-1)(t-a)} = \frac{\partial}{\partial a} J,$$

April, 1993. Note 0131u-w.

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where, for  $t = W^2$  and dt = 2WdW,

$$J = \int \frac{2tdW}{(t-1)(t-a)}$$
  
=  $\int \frac{2}{a-1} \left( \frac{a}{t-a} - \frac{1}{t-1} \right) dW$   
=  $\frac{1}{a-1} \int \left( \sqrt{a} \left( \frac{1}{W-\sqrt{a}} - \frac{1}{W+\sqrt{a}} \right) - \left( \frac{1}{W-1} - \frac{1}{W+1} \right) \right) dW$   
=  $\left[ \frac{1}{a-1} \left( \sqrt{a} \ln \frac{\sqrt{a}-W}{\sqrt{a}+W} + \ln \frac{1+W}{1-W} \right) \right]$ 

Further, we have that

$$\begin{split} \sqrt{a} \, \frac{\partial}{\partial a} \ln \frac{\sqrt{a} - W}{\sqrt{a} + W} &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{a} - W} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{a} + W} \right) = \frac{W}{a - t} \,. \\ \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{a} - 1/\sqrt{a}} \right)' &= -\frac{1}{2a} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{a} + 1/\sqrt{a}}{(\sqrt{a} - 1/\sqrt{a})^2} = -\frac{D}{(a - 1)^2} \,, \\ \left( \frac{1}{a - 1} \right)' &= -\frac{1}{(a - 1)^2} \,. \end{split}$$

Thus,

$$J' = -\frac{1}{(a-1)^2} \left( \ln \frac{1+W}{1-W} + D \ln \frac{\sqrt{a}-W}{\sqrt{a}+W} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{a-1} \cdot \frac{W}{a-t} \right) \,,$$

and therefore,

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$$\pi z = (a-1)\frac{W}{a-t} + D\ln\frac{\sqrt{a}+W}{\sqrt{a}-W} - \ln\frac{1+W}{1-W}.$$

Further, for

$$\pi \dot{F} = -\frac{a-1}{(t-1)(t-a)} = \frac{1}{t-1} - \frac{1}{t-a}$$
$$\pi F = \ln \frac{1-t}{1-t/a}.$$

The flux into the side of the pole, for  $-\infty \le t \le 0$ , is

$$A_S = \frac{1}{\pi} \ln(a) \,.$$

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We describe the excess flux into the poleface by

$$\Delta A_P = F(0) - F(1 - \varepsilon) - (z(0) - z(1 - \varepsilon)) \quad \text{follows} \quad \varepsilon \to 0 ,$$

$$\pi \Delta A_P = \ln \frac{1 - 1/a}{\varepsilon} + \left(1 + D \ln \frac{\sqrt{a} + 1}{\sqrt{a} - 1} - \ln \frac{2}{\varepsilon/2}\right) ,$$

$$\frac{a - 1\varepsilon}{\varepsilon a} \frac{\varepsilon}{4} = \frac{a - 1}{4a} ,$$

$$\Delta A_P = \frac{1}{\pi} \left(1 + \ln \frac{a - 1}{4a} + D \ln \frac{\sqrt{a} + 1}{\sqrt{a} - 1}\right) .$$

The definition of  $\Delta A_P$  means that the flux into the pole surface is the same as the uniform flux into a pole whose width is increased, on both sides, by the product of the half-gap and the expression for  $\Delta A_P$ . The definition of  $A_S$  means that the total flux into each side of the pole equals the product of the scalar potential of the pole and the expression for  $A_S$ .

From our expression for D, and  $a - 2D\sqrt{a} + 1 = 0$ , we have

$$\sqrt{a} = D + \sqrt{D^2 - 1} \,.$$

We may now eliminate a from  $A_S$  and  $\Delta A_P$ . Thus,

$$A_S = \frac{2}{\pi} \ln(D + \sqrt{D^2 - 1}),$$

and further,

$$1/\sqrt{a} = D - \sqrt{D^2 - 1},$$

$$\frac{\sqrt{a} + 1}{\sqrt{a} - 1} = \frac{D + 1 + \sqrt{D^2 - 1}}{D - 1 + \sqrt{D^2 - 1}} = \frac{\sqrt{D + 1}}{\sqrt{D - 1}} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{D + 1} + \sqrt{D - 1}}{\sqrt{D - 1} + \sqrt{D + 1}} = \sqrt{\frac{D + 1}{D - 1}},$$

$$\frac{a - 1}{4a} = \frac{\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{1/a}}{4\sqrt{a}} = \frac{\sqrt{D^2 - 1}}{2(D + \sqrt{D^2 - 1})} = \frac{1}{2(1 + 1/\sqrt{1 - 1/D^2})},$$

$$\Delta A_P = \frac{1}{\pi} \left( 1 + \frac{D}{2} \ln \frac{D + 1}{D - 1} - \ln \left( 2 \left( 1 + \frac{D}{\sqrt{D^2 - 1}} \right) \right) \right).$$

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그 것 이 밖은 전 옷을 많이 것이다. 것이 많이 많이 것 같아요.

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## Flux Transport Along Axial Direction of Electro-Magnetic Wiggler

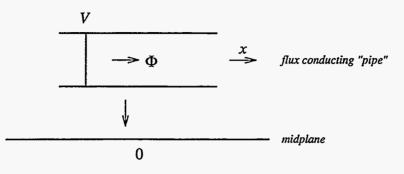


Figure 1.

Status characterized by status vector  $v = \begin{pmatrix} V \\ \Phi \end{pmatrix}$ , where V is the scalar potential with respect to the midplane, and  $\Phi$  is the flux transported to the right. Going "downstream", V and  $\Phi$  change because of the  $\int Hds$  "loss" in iron (and due to small gaps), and because of flux going to the midplane. Over a short distance,

$$\frac{d\Phi}{dx} = -V \cdot \varepsilon \,, \tag{1}$$

with  $\varepsilon$  to 0th approximation (detailed later in this note) is given by

$$\varepsilon = \frac{W}{h},\tag{2}$$

with h having the value of the half-gap, and W being the width over which the flux "escapes" to the midplane.

$$\frac{dV}{dx} = -\Phi \cdot k_2 \,, \tag{3}$$

April, 1993. Note 0129u-w.

with  $k_2$  in 0th approximation (also detailed later) given by

$$k_2 = \frac{1}{a\mu} = \gamma/a \,, \tag{4}$$

where a is the cross-section area of the flux "duct", and  $\mu$  is the permeability. The voltage drop due to small gaps perpendicular to the flux flow will be added later. Within the section with constants  $k_2$  and  $\varepsilon$ , we get

$$V'' = -k_2 \Phi' = V k^2 \quad \text{with} \quad k^2 = \varepsilon k_2 \,. \tag{5}$$

The solution within the uniform section of length x is

$$V = \alpha C + \beta S$$
 with  $C = \cosh kx$  and  $S = \sinh kx$ ,

$$\Phi = -V'/k_2 = -(\alpha S + \beta C)k/k_2,$$

$$v(x) = \begin{pmatrix} C & S \\ -Sk/k_2 & -Ck/k_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} \text{ with } \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -k_2/k \end{pmatrix} v(0),$$

$$v(x) = M \cdot v(0), \quad v = \begin{pmatrix} V \\ \Phi \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } M = \begin{pmatrix} C & -Sk_2/k \\ -Sk/k_2 & C \end{pmatrix}.$$
(6)

By reversing the direction arrow of  $\Phi$ , i.e., by re-defining the sign of  $\Phi$ , the off-diagonal minus signs disappear. The sequence of sections with different properties are taken into account by multiplying their matrices. v remains unchanged when crossing the interface from one section to the next unless there is a (steering) coil, or a local field clamp, thus introducing an additive  $\Delta v$  when going through that interface.

It is clear that 1/k is the important scaling distance that describes how transported flux decays.

Structure of Solution to Simple Problem.

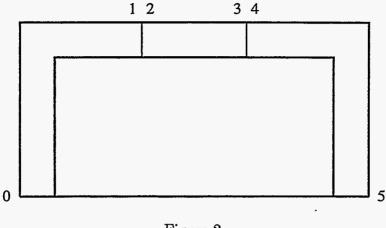


Figure 2.

There are field clamps at each end, i.e. at point 0 and point 5. There are  $\pm \Delta V$  coils at the interfaces between points 1 and 2, and between points 3 and 4. The status vectors  $v_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \Phi_0 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $v_5 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \Phi_5 \end{pmatrix}$  describe that the points 0 and 5 are located in the midplane, and that they contain the to-be-determined values  $\Phi_0$  and  $\Phi_5$  which represent the fluxes going to the midplane through the field clamps. Of similar interest are the  $\Phi$ -components of  $v_2$  and  $v_4$ .

Given 
$$\Delta v_0 = \begin{pmatrix} \Delta v_0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
, we describe the coil(s) by

$$v_2 = M_{01}v_0 + \Delta v_0 \,. \tag{7.1}$$

$$v_4 = M_{23}v_2 - \Delta v_0 = M_{23}M_{01}v_o + (M_{23} - I)\Delta v_0, \qquad (7.2)$$

where I is the unit matrix.

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$$v_5 = M_{45}v_4 = \underbrace{M_{05}}_{a_{ik}} v_0 + \underbrace{M_{45}(M_{23} - I)}_{b_{ik}} \Delta v_0 , \qquad (7.3)$$

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where  $a_{ik}$  and  $b_{ik}$  are elements of these matrices, and thus

$$v_{5} = \Phi_{0} \begin{pmatrix} a_{12} \\ a_{22} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} \\ b_{21} \end{pmatrix} \Delta V_{0} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \Phi_{5} \end{pmatrix} .$$

$$\Phi_{0} = -\Delta V_{0} b_{11} / a_{12} .$$

$$(7.4)$$

$$\Phi_{5} = \Phi_{0}a_{22} + \Delta V_{0}b_{21} = \Delta V_{0}(b_{21} - a_{22}b_{11}/a_{12})$$

$$\Phi_{5} = \Delta V_{0}(a_{12}b_{21} - a_{22}b_{11})/a_{12}.$$
(7.5)

With  $\Phi_0$  and  $\Phi_5$  now known, (7.1) and (7.2) give the flux produced by the coils in the section delimited by points 2 and 3.

#### Details of $k_2$ .

One has to be careful to use the correct value for  $\mu$ . If the field associated with this flux is parallel to the pre-existing field, one has to use  $\mu = \frac{dB}{dH}$ . If it is perpendicular to the pre-existing flux, one must use  $\mu = \frac{B}{H}$  which is the "normal  $\mu$ ".

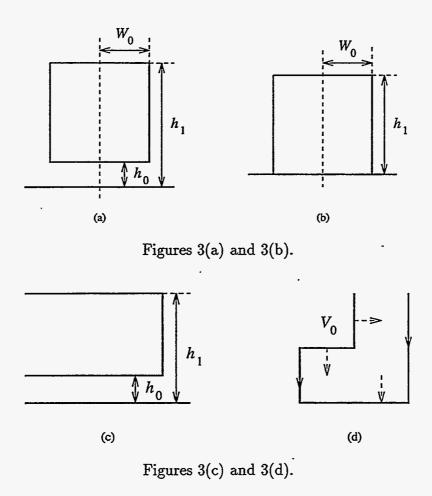
Now we must look at the effect of a thin gap over a large area.  $\Delta V$  across that gap from flux  $\Phi$  is gotten from  $\Phi = \int \frac{\Delta V \, da}{g}$  and thus  $\Delta V = \frac{\Phi}{\int \frac{da}{g}}$ . If a gap-less length L of  $\mu$  is associated with this gap, the total  $\Delta V$  is given by

$$\Delta V = \Phi\left(\frac{1}{\int \frac{da}{g}} + \gamma \frac{L}{A}\right) = \Phi L\left(\frac{\gamma}{a} + \frac{1/L}{\int \frac{dg}{a}}\right),$$

$$k_2 = \frac{\gamma}{a} + \frac{1/L}{\int \frac{da}{g}}.$$
(8)

Details of  $\varepsilon$ .

Only the general approach and the results derived in a separate note are given here. There are three contributions to  $\varepsilon$ : flux from the top, from the sides, and from the poles facing the midplane.



To get the flux into the top per unit length in direction perpendicular to the paper plane, we use as a model the solid block that touches the midplane of Figure 3(b). For the flux into each side, we use the geometry of Figure 3(c) and calculate the flux into the side. If the side has "pole structure" we take it into account with an excess voltage drop coefficient approximation (if necessary). For flux from the poles to the midplane, we calculate the flux for the geometry of Figure 3(d), and we use

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the excess flux coefficient for a solid block of Figure 3(c) to correct the width  $2W_0$  of the cross-section shown in Figure 3(a).

#### Results for the Geometry of Figure 3(d).

$$\varepsilon_P = \frac{\Phi(\lambda/4)}{V_0} \frac{4}{\lambda} (W_0 + \Delta W_0) 2, \qquad (9.1)$$

with  $\frac{\Phi(\lambda/4)}{V_0}$  calculated by POISSON or an analytical program.

We calculate  $\Delta W_0$  from the geometry of Figure 3(c), with

$$D = h_1 / h_0 , (9.2)$$

$$\Delta W_0 = h_0 \frac{1}{\pi} \left( 1 + \frac{D}{2} \ln \left( \frac{D+1}{D-1} \right) - \ln \left( 2 \left( 1 + \frac{D}{\sqrt{D^2 - 1}} \right) \right) \right) .$$
(9.3)

The contribution from the flux into the top is

$$\varepsilon_T = \frac{2}{\pi} \ln \frac{1+a_1}{1-a_1}, \qquad (10.1)$$

where  $a_1$  is determined from

$$\frac{h_1}{W_0} = \frac{E(b) - a_1^2 K(b)}{E(a_1) - b^2 K(a_1)}$$
(10.2)

with  $b^2 = 1 - a_1^2$ , and

$$E(a_1) = \int_{0}^{\pi/2} \sqrt{1 - a_1^2 \sin^2 \varphi} \, d\varphi \quad \text{and} \quad K(a_1) = \int_{0}^{\pi/2} \frac{d\varphi}{\sqrt{1 - a_1^2 \sin^2 \varphi}} \,. \tag{10.3}$$

The flux into the sides contributes

$$\varepsilon_S = \frac{4}{\pi} \ln \left( D + \sqrt{D^2 - 1} \right) \,,$$

with D given by (9.2).

(11.1) assumes smooth sides, i.e., the excess potential drop is ignored. It should be noted that the area a in (8) is smaller than the cross-section shown in Figure 3(a), the latter includes the poles, while the former does not.

We make here further clarifications on units. If we were to deal with a uniform field over a width W of a flat pole, at distance  $h_0$  from the midplane,  $\varepsilon$  would be exactly  $\varepsilon = \frac{W}{H}$ . That is,  $\frac{d\Phi}{dx}$  and V have the same dimensions, meaning that either  $\mu_0 = 4\pi \cdot 10^{-7}$  is incorporated in the vector potential V, or  $\mu_0$  is left out of the definition of  $\Phi$ . The meaning of  $\varepsilon$  is the flux per unit length in the axial direction of the structure on potential V, divided by V.

 $\varepsilon_S$  with excess potential drop is given by

3.

$$\varepsilon_S = \frac{4}{\pi} \ln \left( D_1 + \sqrt{D_1^2 - 1} \right)$$
 (11.2)

with

$$D_1 = \frac{h_1 + \frac{2}{\pi} \Delta L}{h_0 + \frac{2}{\pi} \Delta L}.$$
 (11.3)

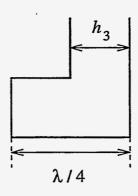


Figure 4.

$$\alpha = \frac{\lambda/4}{h_3} \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta L = \frac{h_3}{\pi} \left( (\alpha + 1) \ln(1 + 1/\alpha) + (\alpha - 1) \ln(1 - 1/\alpha) \right) \,. \tag{11.4}$$

The effect of  $\Delta L$  will be very small under most circumstances. The excess flux

potential drop is too small to be of concern for  $\varepsilon_T$ .

#### 3D Scalar Potential for Saturation-Caused Fields in the Insertion Device

This entails the same approach as for the case of  $\mu = \infty$ , except that the condition  $\partial V/\partial x = 0$  at y = h is to be dropped:

$$V = \sum \cos nk_z z \cdot g_n(x, y) ,$$
$$\nabla^2 V = 0 \implies \nabla^2 g_n = n^2 k_z^2 g_n .$$

We introduce  $nk_z x = u$ , and  $nk_z y = v$ :

$$\nabla^2_{u,v}g = g. \tag{1}$$

We construct g(u, v) that has the following properties: odd in y, g(-v) = -g(v), and gives field approximating  $\cosh \varepsilon u - 1$  for y = 0.  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary, real or imaginary, and the field equals 0 for u = 0 when letting  $\varepsilon \to 0$  at end.

We try  $g = \cosh \varepsilon u \sinh av$ . To satisfy (1):

$$\varepsilon^2 + a^2 = 1$$
 and thus  $a = \sqrt{1 - \varepsilon^2}$ 

has to hold. We add a function of v, such that  $g'_v$  is proportional to  $\cosh \varepsilon u - 1$  for v = 0. The only odd function of v that will satisfy this requirement and also satisfy (1) is  $-a \sinh v$ , thus

$$g = \cosh \varepsilon u \sinh av - a \sinh v \,. \tag{2}$$

One can use the superposition of such functions with different  $\varepsilon$ , but this would probably not be practical.

The expansion for  $\varepsilon \to 0$  is

$$g = \frac{\varepsilon^2}{2} \left( u^2 \sinh v - v \cosh v + \sinh v \right).$$
(3)

For v = 0, we obtain the expected sextupole field:

$$g'_v(u,0) = \frac{\varepsilon^2}{2}u^2.$$
(4)

At the pole, where  $v_h = nk_z h$ ,

$$g'_u(u, v_h) = \frac{\varepsilon^2}{2} 2u \sinh v_h, \tag{5}$$

223

It is this field in the x-direction that is responsible for the sextupole field in the midplane.

February, 1992. Note 0125u-w.

(5) allows us to make an estimate of the saturation effects in the midplane during the design phase. Thus,

$$\frac{g'_v(u,0)}{g'_u(u,v_h)} = \frac{u}{2\sinh v_h} = \frac{nk_z x}{2\sinh nk_z h} = \frac{x}{2h} \cdot \frac{nk_z h}{\sinh nk_z h}.$$
 (6)

It is interesting to note that every additional expansion of (2) in  $\varepsilon^2$  leads to a new solution to (1) describing the fields in the midplane to the highest orders  $\sim x^4, x^6$ , etc.

To check on (3), its expansion in  $k_z$  up to the 3rd order terms in  $\{u, v\}$  gives, as expected,

$$g = \frac{\varepsilon^2}{2} \left( u^2 v - v \left( 1 + \frac{v^2}{2} - \left( 1 + \frac{v^2}{6} \right) \right) \right)$$
$$= \frac{\varepsilon^2}{2} \left( u^2 v - \frac{v^3}{3} \right)$$
$$= \frac{\varepsilon^2}{6} \Im(u + iv)^3.$$
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(1) 
$$V = \sum_{n = \text{odd}} b_n \cos nk_z z \cdot \sinh nk_z y \quad \text{with} \quad k_z = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}.$$

In order to simplify matters, we drop the sum, and re-introduce it at the end. The effects of lateral ends are equally periodic in z, thus  $nk_z \Rightarrow k_z$ , and

(2) 
$$V_{LE} = \cos k_z z \cdot g(x, y) \,.$$

Where g(x, y) is valid only in the vacuum region of the  $\{x, y\}$  space. Further, we have that

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with  $k_m^2 = k_z^2 + m^2 k_y^2$ . We use  $a_m = b_0 b_m / \cosh k_m W$ , where W is half the pole width, and we expect  $b_m$  to be only weakly dependent on W.

(4) 
$$\begin{cases} V = \sum_{n=\text{odd}} b_{n_0} \cos nk_z z \cdot (\sinh nk_z y + g_n), \\ g_n = \sum_{m=1} \frac{b_{nm} \sin mk_y y \cdot \cosh k_{nm} x}{\cosh k_{nm} W}, \\ k_{nm}^2 = n^2 k_z^2 + m^2 k_y^2, \quad \text{with } k_z = 2\pi/\lambda, \, k_y = \pi/h, \\ k_{nm}^2 = m^2 k_y^2 \left(1 + \frac{n^2}{m^2} \left(\frac{k_z}{k_y}\right)^2\right), \quad \text{with } \frac{k_z}{k_y} = \frac{2h}{\lambda} = \frac{\text{gap}}{\lambda}. \end{cases}$$

Under most circumstances,  $\frac{k_z}{k_y} \leq .5$ . For n = 1,  $k_{nm} \approx mk_y$ .

February, 1992. Note 0124u-w.

In the region of interest, only the case of m = 1 is of importance. That is, the dominant term is

(5) 
$$g_1 = \frac{b_{11} \sin k_y y \cdot \cosh k_{11} x}{\cosh k_{11} W}.$$

We may now proceed to conclude that (6)

$$-H_y = k_z \sum n b_{n_0} \cos n k_z z \left( \cosh n k_z y + \sum b_{nm} \frac{m k_y}{n k_z} \cdot \frac{\cos m k_y y \cdot \cosh k_{nm} x}{\cosh k_{nm} W} \right) \,.$$

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#### Suggestions for Magnetic Measurements.

Make all measurements as function of z, filter out random errors, and then do the harmonic analysis by measuring the quantities derived from  $\sinh nk_z y + g_n$ . To measure field components, measure  $B_y$  at y = 0 for a number of values of x close enough to the lateral edge to get values of  $b_{n1}$  and  $b_{n2}$ . Then measurements of  $B_x$  close to the lateral ends are made, at  $y \simeq h/2$ , to check the validity of V(x, y, z). If agreement is reached, an investigatation of whether  $b_{nm}$  are more easily obtained from  $B_x$  measurements is to be done. To verify the model, compare the measurements at individual points, without the harmonic analysis, to the model calculations.

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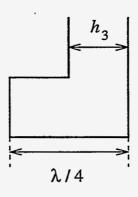


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February, 1992. Note 0125u-w.

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February, 1992. Note 0124u-w.

14

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#### Gradient Measurement in Insertion Device

The beam is in the z direction. The midplane is the  $\{x, z\}$  plane. We use a vibrating coil to measure  $\partial B_y/\partial x$ .

As a general mechanical design principle, make the wanted resonance frequency and its harmonics different from the resonance frequencies of other vibrating modes.

We want to measure  $\partial B_y/\partial x$ . We move a  $B_y$ -coil in the x direction that is "long" in z and short in x. The problem arises that this motion may excite vibration in the y direction, adding a  $\partial B_y/\partial y$  signal. A better way to collect the same information is to measure  $\partial B_x/\partial y$ , by vibrating a  $B_x$ -coil in the y direction such that it is "long" in z and short in y. Possible contamination due to  $\partial B_x/\partial z$  drops out in the Fourier analysis in z.

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February, 1992. Note 0120u-w.

192

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# Undulator Trajectory and Radiation

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We begin with the following definitions:

$$\ddot{\mathbf{r}}\gamma m = -e(\mathbf{e}_x \dot{x} + \mathbf{e}_y \dot{y} + \mathbf{e}_z \dot{z}) \times \mathbf{e}_y B,$$
$$\ddot{x}\gamma m = e\dot{z}B = e\dot{z}A'_z,$$
$$\dot{x}\gamma m = \epsilon A(z),$$
$$dt\beta c = ds = dz\sqrt{1 + {x'}^2}, \quad \dot{x} = {x'}\frac{\beta c}{\sqrt{1 + {x'}^2}},$$
$$A = B_0 \int \cos kz dz = \frac{B_0}{k}\sin kz$$
$$\frac{x'}{\sqrt{1 + {x'}^2}} = \epsilon \sin kz, \quad \varepsilon = \frac{B_0/k}{\beta\gamma m c/e} = \frac{K}{\gamma},$$
$$\frac{1}{{x'}^2} + 1 = \frac{1}{{\varepsilon}^2 \sin^2 kz}, \quad \boxed{x' = \frac{es}{\sqrt{1 - {\varepsilon}^2 \sin^2 kz}}.$$

Thus,

$$J=\int \dot{x}e^{i\varphi}dt,$$

where

$$\varphi = \omega \left( t - \frac{z}{c} \right) = \frac{\omega}{\beta c} \left( \beta c t - \beta z \right) = \frac{\omega}{\beta c} \int \left( \sqrt{1 + {x'}^2} - \beta \right) dz,$$
$$1 + {x'}^2 = \frac{1}{1 - \varepsilon^2 \sin^2 k z},$$
$$\beta = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{\gamma^2}} \simeq 1 - \frac{1}{2\gamma^2}.$$

and furthermore,

$$\sqrt{1+{x'}^2} - \beta = 1 + \frac{\varepsilon^2 \sin^2 kz}{2} - 1 + \frac{1}{2\gamma^2} = \frac{1}{2\gamma^2} (1 + \varepsilon^2 \gamma^2 \sin^2 kz),$$

March, 1990. Note 0101u-w.

47 -

and

$$\varphi = \frac{\omega}{2\beta c\gamma^2} \int (1+K^2 \sin^2 kz) dz = \left[ \frac{\omega}{2\beta c\gamma^2} \int \left( 1+\frac{K^2}{2}-\frac{K^2}{2} \cos 2kz \right) dz, \right]$$

where, for  $\beta \approx 1$ ,

$$\varphi = \frac{\omega}{2c\gamma^2} \left( 1 + \frac{K^2}{2} \right) z - \frac{\omega}{2c\gamma^2} \frac{K^2}{2} \frac{\sin 2kz}{2k}.$$

Therefore,

$$J = \int x' dz \cdot e^{i\varphi}, \quad \text{with} \quad \frac{\omega}{c} = k_L,$$
$$J = \frac{\varepsilon}{2i} \int e^{i\left(\frac{k_L}{2\gamma^2}\left(1 + \frac{K^2}{2}\right) - k\right)z - i\left(\frac{k_L}{2\gamma^2} \frac{K^2}{2} \frac{\sin 2kz}{2k}\right)} dz,$$

where

$$\Delta k = \left(\frac{k_L}{2\gamma^2} \left(1 + \frac{K^2}{2}\right) - k\right),\,$$

$$e^{iu\sin x} = \sum J_n(u)e^{inx}$$
, with  $u = \frac{k_L K^2}{8\gamma^2 k}$  and  $x = kz$ .

Thus,

$$J = \frac{\varepsilon}{2i} \int e^{i(\Delta kz - 2nkz)} J_n(u) dz.$$

Further, from

$$\frac{k_L(1+K^2/2)}{2\gamma^2} - (2n+1)k = 0,$$

and solving for  $\frac{k_L}{k}$ , we have

$$u = \frac{(n+1/2)K^2/2}{1+K^2/2}.$$

## Mathematical Representation of Undulator and Wiggler Fields

Undulator and wiggler fields that are not uniform in the transverse direction are usually derived from

$$V = V \cosh k_1 x \sinh k_2 y \cos z \quad \text{with} \quad k_1^2 + k_2^2 = k^2.$$
 (1)

Starting with  $\nabla^2 V$  in cylindrical co-ordinates, we have

$$r^{2}\nabla^{2}V = \left(r^{2}\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial r^{2}} + r\frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial \varphi^{2}} + r^{2}\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial z^{2}}\right)V = 0.$$

Assuming, without loss of generality, midplane symmetry, we write

$$V = \sum F_n \sin n\varphi \cos kz, \qquad (2.1)$$

thus getting

$$\left(r^2\frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + r\frac{\partial}{\partial r} - n^2 - k^2r^2\right)F_n = 0.$$
(3)

and therefore,

$$F_n = a_n I_n(kr). \tag{2.2}$$

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An interesting consequence is that whether one uses (1) or (2), one would get the same fields and pole shapes for a sufficiently small kr.

$$\sum a_n I_n(kr) \sin n\varphi = V_0 \cosh(k_1 r \cos \varphi) \sinh(k_2 r \sin \varphi), \qquad (4)$$

and, in particular, this means that

$$a_n I_n(kr)\pi = V_0 \int_0^{2\pi} \cosh(k_1 r \cos \varphi) \sinh(k_2 r \sin \varphi) \sin n\varphi d\varphi.$$
(5)

This must hold in particular for  $kr \ll 1$ , i.e. by comparing the lowest order term in r and executing the trivial integrations, one gets  $a_n$  which then leads to an extremely interesting integral representation of  $I_n(kr)$ .

July, 1986. Note 0055u-w.

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## Technical Notes of Klaus Halbach

Database Reference	Title	Year
0001bpm	"Notes on a beam position monitor	86
0002bpm	Beam position error due to error in electric signals	86
0003bpm	2D pickup electrode design (square box)	86
0004bpm	Position monitor signal for finite size beam	86
0005bpm	Justification for treating beam position monitors 2D and statically	86
0006bpm	2D pickup electrode system design (diamond box)	86
0007bpm	Moments $g_m = \int z^m \rho(x, y) dx dy$ of charge distributions, and properties of Gaussian distribution	86
0008bpm	Measurement of harmonic coefficients of beam pos. monitor model	86
0009bpm	Harmonics for various mixing patterns of beam position detector signals & their use	86
0010bpm	Algorithms for evaluation of fields from electrode in diamond duct	86
0011bpm	Formula summary	86
0012bpm	Specific design options; double electrode systems	86
0013bpm	Length normalization, and desirable duct size	86
0014bpm	F from dipole moment $q' \Delta z $ on duct surface	86
0015bpm	Actual integrated charge on electrode	86
0016bpm	Map of duct with photon slot onto circular disk	86
0017bpm	Expansion coefficients of finite size round electrodes flush in 2D duct	86
0018bpm	Reciprocity theorem for current $\rightarrow$ pickup loop	86
0019bpm	Outline for calculation of integrated harmonics along an axis that is skewed relative to axis of finite length multipole	86
0020bpm	Algorithm for calculation of beam position from measurements	86
0021bpm	$W = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} V(z) dz$ from finite length electrode in 2D geometry	86
0022bpm	Exact, complete proofs of reciprocity theorems for electrostatic and magnetostatic beam monitors	86
0023bpm	Design objectives to be achieved by electrode placements in duct	86
0024bpm	Performance requirements for BPM signal processing system	86
0025bpm	Details about model time domain transfer functions for BPM signal process	86
0026bpm	Farler method to design single and double integrator	86
0027bpm	Design of wide flat top $F(u)$	86
0028bpm	Some thoughts on integrators	86

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.

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0029bpm	Possible problems, and fixes, associated with charges induced on magnetic pick up "loop"	86
0030bpm	Generalization of $\mathbf{j}_B \leftrightarrow \varphi_{\text{coil}}$ reciprocity for coil with finite conductor cross section, and some interesting applications	86
0031bpm	Listings of old BPM program	87
0032bpm	Formulas for new integrator programs	87
0033bpm	Initial work on $F(u) = u^2 e^{-u} + a \alpha^2 u^2 e^{-\alpha u}$ with $F^n = 0$ for $n = m$ , m + 1, m + 2,	86
0034bpm	Magnetostatic and electrostatic $F$ - mixing formulas	87
0035bpm	Solution to Dirichlet problem in unit circle	87
0036bpm	Copy of 2/86 note on flux into cylindric pole	86
0037bpm	BPM models for $C_n$ measurement	87
0038bpm	Difficulties to get p2 with 4 sensor system as proposed for ATA, ALS	87
0039bpm	G's to 3rd order for $p_2 = ae^{2i\alpha}$	87
0040bpm	Eddy current integrator for BPM	87
0041bpm	Properties of duct $\leftrightarrow$ circular disk maps	87
0042bpm	Expansion coefficients of $\tan_z$ , $\tanh_z$	87
0043bpm	Normalization of POISSON runs for mapping information	87
0044bpm	Expansion coefficients of finite size round electrodes flush in 2D duct, #2	87
0045bpm	Effect of perturbation in z-boundary on translation matrix	87
0046bpm	Equivalent circuit for eddy current disk or cylinder, to serve as integrator	87
0047bpm	Solution to problems in circular disk	87
0048bpm	Centroid determination during injection into storage ring	87
0049bpm	INTEGR 3	87
0050bpm	TRANSL 1	87
0051bpm	References from Paul Concus	87
0052bpm	Damping of electomagnetic wave between two parallel plates	87
0053bpm	Newton's method in 2D for BPM signal reduction	87
0054bpm	BPM in Gm1 duct	87
0055bpm	Choice of $a_2$ in $y = -a_2 x^2 + a_4 x^4$	87
0056bpm	Electromagnetic waves between two parallel plates	87
0057bpm	EM waves in (general) cylindrical wave guides	87
0058bpm	Expansion coefficients for round electrode in infinitely long duct	87
0059bpm	2D reciprocity relations for MS pickup	88
0060bpm	Index for 2D reciprocity relations for MS pickup	88
0061bpm	Inductance of round conductor in round SC pipe & next to SC plane	88

ي . مرب

•

0062bpm	Multipole expansion of field produced by circular electrode in circular duct	89
0063bpm	Proof that for reciprocity potential in BPM duct	<b>89</b>
	$G(x, y, s) = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y^2}\right) \int V_3(x + sz, y, z) dz \neq 0 \text{ for } s \neq 0$	
0064bpm	Uniqueness of beam position from BPM signals	93
0065bpm	BPM data reduction program BPM5	93
0066bpm	Proper signs of coefficients for $F(z)$ for electrostatic BPM	93
0067bpm	Uniqueness of beam location from BPM signals	93
0068bpm	BPM designed to measure $p_2$	93
0069bpm	BPM in parallel plate duct, without harmonic expansion	93
0070bpm	BPM in parallel plate duct, with harmonic expansion	93
0071bpm	Map of interior of Gm1 onto circular unit disk for BPM creation	93
0001csem	Description of REC material in magnetic circuit	78
0002csem	Analytical fields for 4-pole with 2 REC blocks in 45 d sector	78
0003csem	REC quadrupole with continuously changing M direction	78
0004csem	Permanent REC multipole with continuously changing magnetization direction	78
0005csem	Properties of REC magnetic buckets with geometry invariant against rotation by $2\pi/M$	78
0006csem	Ideas about manufacturing procedures for REC quads	78
0007csem	Production of solenoidal fields with REC	78
0008csem	Properties of REC multipole buckets (includes easy axis rotation theorem)	78
0009csem	Reduction of REC material in "my" REC quadrupoles by replacing part of it with $\mu = \infty$ steel	78
0010csem	Magnetization of hexagon and triangle for quadrupole production	78
0011csem	Tuning parameters for 16-piece REC quad	78
0012csem	Multipiece REC quad: design and tolerances	78
0013csem	Multipiece REC multipole	78
0014csem	Efficiency of REC use in continuous quadrupole	78
0015csem	Multipiece quad with Ron-shaped pieces	78
0016csem	Properties of Ron-shaped poles	78
0017csem	Recommended geometry for PIGMI quads	78
0018csem	Memo to Swenson, Farrell, Knapp	78
0019csem	Quad from magnetized REC circular rods of given size	78
0020csem	Magnetic fields produced by some REC configurations	78

.

÷

0021csem	Different method to drive fields for continuous REC multipoles and optimum design	78
0022csem	Segmented REC multipole in $\mu = \infty$ shell	78
0023csem	Linear array of REC magnets as plasma bucket wall (with bucket physics)	78
0024csem	Data for Ron's 16-piece quad, and general REC price information	78
0025csem	Elimination of first allowed harmonic in multipiece REC multipoles	78
0026csem	REC quad with circular rods	79
0027csem	Various methods to calculate fields produced by REC pieces	79
0028csem	Fields produced by rectangular charge sheet	79
0029csem	Nomogram for wiggler design	79
0030csem	Helical wiggler performance evaluation	79
0031csem	Continuous helical REC wiggler; Fourier expansion of $H_c$	79
0032csem	Helical wiggler fields, with all Fourier components	82
0033csem	Fourier decomposition of $\mathbf{H}_{c}$ in segmented helical multipoles	82
0034csem	Continuous helical multipole magnet	79
0035csem	Rough comparison between REC wiggler and REC wiggler with steel pole	79
0036csem	REC in circular $\mu = \infty$ shell	79
0037csem	Fringe fields at the ends of REC multipoles (general properties)	79
0038csem	A possible REC undulator for SSRL	79
0039csem	Periodic solenoidal fields with continuous REC easy axis orientation	79
0040csem	Optimum easy axis orientation of REC to produce solenoidal field $\approx \sin kz_0$	79
0041csem	REC dipole with $\mu = \infty$ steel	79
0042csem	Field on axis produced by REC rings with fixed easy axis	79
0043csem	List of problems to be done for prod of solenoidal fields with pure REC structures	79
0044csem	Finite REC structure (for solenoidal fields) with $H_{z,center} = Max$ with given $r_1$	79
0045csem	Optimization of field at center of single cylindrical REC shell	79
0046csem	Perturbation effects in segmented REC multipoles	79
0047csem	Numbered equations of my REC multipole paper	79
0048csem	Fields on axis of 1/0 long filamentary helix	79
0049csem	Fringe fields of REC undulator in direction perp beam: primitive model	79
0050csem	Forces between 2 halves of linear undulator	79
0051csem	Stray field from continuous REC undulator in direction perp beam	79

0052csem	Quadrupole fringe field calculations	79
0053csem	Fringe field at the end of quadrupole, with num. evaluation and Apple program	79
0054csem	Fourier decomposition of $\mathbf{H}_{c}$	79
0055csem	Fringe field at entrance and exit end of continuous linear 2D array of REC	79
0056csem	Fringe field at entrance and exit end of continuous linear 2D array of REC with Fourier transformation	79
0057csem	Summary of fields outside segmented REC quad	79
0058csem	Segmented REC quad with 8 trapezoidal and eight rectangular blocks	79
0059csem	Harmonics produced by rectangular REC block	80
0060csem	Summary for undulator fringe field perpendicular to beam	80
0061csem	Periodic linear array to give maximum $B_y$ at $z_o = n\lambda$	80
0062csem	Upper limit of magnetic field achievable with REC and steel undulator	80
0063csem	Strength of REC quad assembled from rectangular pieces	80
0064csem	Fields produced by REC magnets, and displaced and/or rotated REC magnets	80
0065csem	REC inside circular shell with $\mu = \infty$ , and quadrupole with shell	81
0066csem	REC dipole with steel	81
0067csem	Quad fields produced by 2 concentric REC quads rotated against each other	81
0068csem	Change of force on circular REC cylinder when displaced in external magnetic field	81
0069csem	Field from axially magnetized circular REC cylinder	81
0070csem	Radial bearing test stand	81
0071csem	2D REC quad assembled from circular disks	81
0072csem	Inexpensive REC quad for linear collider	80
0073csem	REC multipole magnet assembled from rectangular pieces	81
0074csem	REC quad with elliptical aperture	80
0075csem	Force and torque on REC in 2D	81
0076csem	Earnshaw's theorem for non-permeable material	81
0077csem	Analysis and optimization of steel and REC double magnet	81
0078csem	Design of strong REC and steel quadrupole	81
0079csem	Optimization of a REC block in a REC and steel dipole magnet	81
0080csem	REC and steel wiggler performance limitations	81
0081csem	K in formulas for wiggler and undulator radiation	81

•

7

1.2

.

2.

0082csem	Conversion between coordinate system used in iron and REC perturbation papers and conventional measurement coordinate system	81
0083csem	EFB of REC quad next to steel plate	81
0084csem	REC and steel quadrupole design	82
0085csem	Different methods for understanding, or design, of REC magnets	82
0086csem	CTR multi-aperture magnet MAM	82
0087csem	A new method to design REC and steel (hybrid) magnets	82
0088csem	Fields produced by a REC helical undulator (summary)	82
0089csem	Fields produced by coils with rectangular cross section (ELF #51)	82
0090csem	Formulas for REC-steel (hybrid) dipole corner: excess flux and flux from REC	82
0091csem	Excess flux in Gm2	82
0092csem	Excess flux in Gm3 corner $3\pi/4$ corner	82
0093csem	Excess flux in Gm3 corner with arbitrary angle	82
0094csem	Excess flux in Gm5 corner with arbitrary angle	82
0095csem	Flux deficiency of Gm6 corner with arbitrary angle	82
0096csem	Flux deficiency of 90° inside corner	82
0097csem	Summary of formulas for calculation of excess flux and flux deficiencies at corners	82
0098csem	Hybrid dipole formulae	82
0099csem	Incorporation of finite $\mu - 1$ of REC into hybrid design	82
0100csem	Flux deposition by magnetic charge between two parallel plates (3D)	82
0101csem	HFIX notes (old)	81
0102csem	· 3D quad fringe field note (old)	81
0103csem	Hybrid wiggler/undulator optimization - notes	81
0104csem	Hybrid wiggler design information	82
0105csem	Fraction of magnetic charge deposited on steel plate	82
0106csem	Harmonics produced by a rectangular block	82
0107csem	Excess flux into "open end" of steel of hybrid dipole/wiggler	82
0108csem	Excess flux into Gm7	82
0109csem	Analytical hybrid wiggler model	82
0110csem	Ideas and program to develop a variable strength hybrid quadrupole and dipole	82
0111csem	Conjecture about charge deposited (in V-Q model) by dipole	82
0112csem	Charge deposition on 3D steel surfaces of V-Q model by magnetic charge and dipole	82
0113csem	Force, torque on rotatable ring in VSHQ	82

0114csem	A simple method to correct harmonics of segmented quad with trapezoidal pieces	82
0115csem	A method to correct excitation errors of poles of adjustable strength quads	82
0116csem	Comment on notation in notes in this file	82
0117csem	"Proper" design of $\mu = \infty$ periodic wiggler pole	82
0118csem	Flux-potential matrix for hybrid quad	82
0119csem	Correction of excitation errors in variable hybrid quad	82
0120csem	Gm8 corner fields, potentials	82
0121csem	Permanent REC (or ferrite) dipole with all REC touching steel (for H.W.)	82
0122csem	Hybrid quad design numbers (1)	82
0123csem	Hybrid quad design formulae and program (2)	82
0124csem	Program for design (analysis) of adjustable hybrid quad, with prog and sample	82
0125csem	Splitting of VSHQ-excitation into midplane - symmetric and antisymmetric part	82
0126csem	Optimization of REC in corner of dipole	82
0127csem	Methods to avoid or correct skew quad component in variable strength hybrid quad	82
0128csem	Fields in Gm9, especially "exponential decay"	82
0129csem	Box CSEM dipole magnet	82
0130csem	Thoughts on determining and then correcting field errors caused by CSEM tolerances	82
0131csem	Magnetic field between 45° line and points on a straight side of pole, with CSEM touching pole	82
0132csem	VSHQ issues, problems, solutions	82
0133csem	Force, torque, to rotate ring in VSHQ	82
0134csem	Temperature compensation of hybrid permanent magnet	82
0135csem	Pattern of harmonics produced by direct and indirect error fields in VSHQ	82
0136csem	Excitation of exponentially decaying fields by $I, Q$	82
0137csem	VSHQ implementation ideas	82
0138csem	Excitation variation, and $B_{\text{max}}$ at outer boundary of poles, of VSHQ	82
0139csem	$\overline{B}$ , $\overline{B'_x}$ between 45° line and points on straight side of pole, with CSEM (easy-axis perpendicular to x-axis) touching side of pole	82
0140csem	HDIP printout rotation	82
0141csem	1/8 box hybrid dipole magnet - with program and sample run	82
0142csem	Stored energy in CSEM	82

. . . .

1

.

,

0143csem	Flux distribution symmetry theorem	82
0144csem	Design of hybrid wiggler pole for "perfect" cosine field	83
0146csem	Equivalent circuit analysis of hybrid wiggler with midplane symmetry	83
0147csem	List of work by Nestle	83
0148csem	LBL hybrid wiggler members	83
0149csem	Effectiveness of CSEM in "unused corner" of 2D box magnet, and in a 3D magnet	83
0150csem	Behavior of F, $Fdz$ , F' in vicinity of a corner	83
0151csem	Optimization of PM wiggler for max intensity of light received by small receiver at $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$	83
0152csem	Thoughts and comments to wiggler optimization	83
0153csem	Optimization of PM wiggler for max light into receiver small in bend plane and integrating in dir. perp bendplane	83
0154csem	Variation of undulator $\lambda, K$ with gap for fixed $K, \lambda$	83
0155csem	3D off axis pot. and fields for 1/0 periodic array of dipole rings	83
0156csem	3D fields on axis from dipole ring magnet	83
0157csem	3D off axis potential from 3D on axis potential for ring dipole	83
0158csem	Necessary $r_1$ of ring dipole to get given field quality in 2D	83
0159csem	Matrix representation of ladder network with coupling across 2 rungs	82
0160csem	Correction of hybrid dipole field strength by changing gap	82
0161csem	Execution of dipole with anomalously small overhang	82
0162csem	Suggestions for execution of stack design for low overhang dipole	82
0163csem	Triplett, with $k_1 = k_2$ , $\varphi_1 = \varphi_2$ , hard edge, with given L, $\overline{1/f}$	82
0164csem	Design of $\cos 2\varphi$ quadrupole	82
0165csem	Hard edge solenoid as objective, and comparison of mass with that of hard edge triplett	82
0166csem	Steering magnet	82
0167csem	Linear model of outer pole circle of VSHQ, to calculate strength range, field on pole surface, torque, field in CSEM for split-ring strength adjuster	82
0168csem	Suitability of matrix, from harmonics pattern from 3 sources, for inversion	82
0169csem	Excess flux in Gm10	82
0170csem	Representation of gap between CSEM and steel on sloping side of VSHQ, for use in POISSON-tolerance run	82
0171csem	Summary of excess flux formulae	. 82
0172csem	Extraction of absolute tolerances of VSHQ from POISSON runs	82

.

· .

0173csem	Fraction of charge deposited on several surfaces on $V = 0$	82
0174csem	"DNA-Project" (Vachette)	82
0175csem	Investigation of possible geometries for dipoles and quadrupoles suitable as elements of an e-storage ring	82
0176csem	Reprints left at Orsay	82
0177csem	Use of HD1P2, VHYBQ6, 7; LEFF	82
0178csem	Optimum operating point of CSEM	83
0179csem	Effectiveness of CSEM in "unused" corner of 2D box magnet, and in a 3D magnet	83
0180csem	Calculation of $\int_{-\infty}^{0} \frac{V(x)dx}{V_0}$ for Gm11	83
0181csem	Calculation of $\int_{-\infty}^{0} \frac{V(x)dx}{V_0}$ for Gm11 (more concise)	84
0182csem	Excess flux into corner in Gm12	83
0183csem	Excess flux into Gm13	83
0184csem	Conceptual design procedure for hybrid wiggler with superimposed "uniform" field	83
0185csem	Charge deposition in wiggler excited as a dipole	83
0186csem	Excess flux in Gm14 and Gm15	83
0187csem	Hybrid undulator with superimposed quadrupole field	83
0188csem	Practical approximations for flux deposition from charge sheet in Gm16	83
0189csem	SC transf. of Gm17, and excess flux, for POLE	83
0190csem	Design procedure for a hybrid-hybrid wiggler (ELF #93)	84
0191csem	2D hybrid-hybrid design formulae (ELF #94)	84
0192csem	Hybrid wiggler with 1/0-thin pole	84
0193csem	$H^*$ and F produced by trapezoidal block of CSEM	84
0194csem	Calculation of $H^*$ and $F$ produced by "polygonal" block of CSEM	84
0195csem	Measurement of magnetic properties of trapezoidal block of CSEM for multiple magnet	84
0196csem	Estimate of Leff of hybrid quad without field clamp	84
0197csem	Minimization of excitation errors in hybrid quads	84
0198csem	$\int B^2 dx$ – deficiency in midplane of Gm8	84
0199csem	Design of CSEM damping wiggler - (for DW1 program)	84
0200csem	Summary of excess flux formulae and copies	82
0201csem	Calculation of gradient off axis from gradient on axis	84
0202csem	Formulae for optimization of volume of ring magnet to produce given field	84
0203csem	Program for development of balloon magnet	84

•

9

· · · · ·

0204csem	Program and printout of optimum dipole ring magnet for given field	84
0205csem	Tolerances that lead to field errors in hybrid U/W	84
0206csem	"Simple flux" into conical surfaces in cyl. geometry	84
0207csem	Ring-magnet design program LA1	84
0208csem	Antisymmetric Undulator to make vertically polarized or circularly polarized light	84
0209csem	Hybrid pole width optimization (neomax)	84
0210csem	CSEM "no center piece" septum magnet	84
0211csem	Thoughts on the design of antisymmetric hybrid W/U	84
0212csem	Antisymmetric hybrid W/U analysis/design	84
0213csem	HDIP5	84
0214csem	Field produced by rectangular charge sheet (87 - Zylin note)	82
0215csem	$\int V dx$ in Gm18 corner	84
0216csem	Representation of hybrid W/U by ladder network	84
0217csem	<i>V</i> , <i>A</i> in Gm19	85
0218csem	SC transformation and fields in Gm20	85
0219csem	Scheme to achieve cancellation of net flux into beam region of U due to change gap	85
0220csem	Flux load on V-bus due to statistical fluctuations in CSEM flux deposition on poles	85
0221csem	Direct flux to midplane due to half-gap change of one pole	85
0222csem	Flux deposition on $V =$ constant surface from magnetic charges, with anisotropic medium	85
0223csem	Even vs. odd number of poles in U/W	85
0224csem	New approximation for flux deposition from charge sheets in Gm16	85
0225csem	Explicit expansion of fields for $x \rightarrow \infty$ in Gm16	85
0226csem	Charge deposition from coil on pole in 2D	85
0227csem	An apparent paradox associated with charge deposition from coil on pole in 3D	85
0228csem	"Excess" flux at inside corner of Gm3	83
0229csem	Flux into end of hybrid quad	84
0230csem	End flux in VHBQ (for HQ1)	84
0231csem	VHBQ end flux formulas for comp. progr.	84
0232csem	2D hybrid U/W that is equivalent to helical hybrid U/W	85
0233csem	"Flux" seen by straight trajectory under one CSEM block pair in pure CSEM undulator	85
0234csem	Measurement of properties of CSEM block to be used in CSEM- iron circuit	85
0235csem	Fields in Gm16	85

0236csem	Ideal helical U/W fields	85
0237csem	Lin. hybrid U that is equivalent to helical hybrid U (details)	85
0238csem	Pure CSEM dipole fields	85
0239csem	Antisymmetric hybrid undulator	84
0240csem	Performance limit of antisymmetric helical U	85
0241csem	EM vibrator for Earth Sciences project	85
0242csem	$A = \int B \cdot B_r \cdot \frac{da}{V_o  B_r }$ for some geometries between two circular	85
	cylinders	
0243csem	Excitation for helical U/W	85
0244csem	Flux equation for helical U	85
0245csem	Helical U/W excitation patterns	85
0246csem	Effect of finite slice thickness in helical U/W	85
0247csem	$\overline{1/y}$ for Gm21	85
0248csem	Optimization of flux into circular cylinder next to 1/0 plane	85
0249csem	V-bus with varying circular cross-section	85
0250csem	Flux density in PM assisted V-bus for hybrid quadrupole	85
0251csem	$\int V ds / V_0$ in field of circular cylinder next to infinite plane	85
0252csem	Correlation functions associated with $(1/\cosh x)$ , $(x/\cosh x)$	85
0253csem	Fourier transforms of $(1/\cosh x)$ , $(x/\cosh x)$	85
0254csem	V-surface to orient homogeneously a block of CSEM	85
0255csem	V-surfaces for homogeneous orientation of 2D CSEM ellipse	85
0256csem	V-surfaces for homogeneous orientation of 2D CSEM circle	85
0257csem	Formulas for calculation of flux induced on surfaces by CSEM in Gm16 geometry	86
0258csem	Microtron magnet (for Louis A) (M/C1)	86
0259csem	e trapping with PM in ALS pump (ALS1)	86
0260csem	Laterally long pure CSEM "quadrupole"	86
0261csem	Field on $t = \text{constant line in Gm16}$ (HW4)	86
0262csem	Harmonics for CSEM ring with $\alpha = m\psi$ , but externally centered	86
0263csem	Multiple aperture hybrid quadrupole system	86
0264csem	Bmax in pole of hybrid quad	86
0265csem	HIFQ1	86
0266csem	Field inside homogeneously magnetized CSEM rotational ellipsoid	86
0267csem	PM assisted electromagnets $\rightarrow$ laced em	86
0268csem	Field lines in Gm22	86
0269csem	Program for expansion of F in Gm16, and $\int V(y)dy$ , $\int V(x)dx$	86
0270csem	Hybrid buckets	86

.

•

. .

0271csem	Design of bucket system (Physics)	86
0272csem	Thoughts on CSEM and iron solenoid magnet for Ed Rowe	86
0273csem	Excess voltage in Gm16	86
0274csem	Excess voltage in Gm16 (see work of 10/86 note)	88
0275csem	Ideas on producing strong solenoidal fields with a hybrid CSEM system (for Aladdin user)	86
0276csem	Execution of strong hybrid solenoid design	86
0277csem	Excitation of cylindrical box magnet/hybrid solenoid	86
0278csem	CSEM ring dipole assembled with square blocks	86
0279csem	Analysis of low field performance of PM assisted em	86
0280csem	HQ1, B <sub>max</sub> for HQ1	86
0281csem	Laud quad	86
0282csem	$V = \text{constant surfaces inside CSEM multipole } (n \ge 2)$	87
0283csem	Solenoid fields from CSEM cylinder, axially magnetized (for Ian Brown)	87
0284csem	Stan Ruby's problem	87
0285csem	New version of bitter map for Gm17	88
0286csem	An important theorem, and a new map for Gm17	87
0287csem	Manageable integrals for map of Gm17	88
0288csem	$F_{01}$ and $F_{12}$ for small n for Gm5	88
0289csem	$\int B' dz$ for CSEM quad with conical ends	88
0290csem	Some excess flux geometries that are very easily analyzed	88
0291csem	Fields, flux, etc. in 2D hybrid wiggler with 0 thickness poles	88
0292csem	Calculation of flux entering $\mu = \infty$ surfaces	88
0293csem	$\Delta B^*$ due to displacement of rectangular 2D CSEM block in vacuum	88
0294csem	Use of 2D excess flux formulae in cylindrical geometry and for 3D edges	88
0295csem	Excess flux into pole in Gm34	88
0296csem	Excess flux into Gm35	88
0297csem	Preliminary design of hybrid orange spectrometer	88
0298csem	Orange spectrometer ray tracing in midplane	88
0299csem	Excess flux in Gm2	88
0300csem	Efficiency of use of CSEM in Ian B.'s magnet	88
0301csem	Hybrid U/W design in dipole geometry	88
0302csem	Excess flux in Gm36	88
0303csem	Excess flux coefficients/calculation for the end of hybrid multipoles	88
0304csem	<i>H</i> <sup>*</sup> at edge of CSEM block, with recipe for $\Im \ln \frac{z-z_2}{z-z_1}$	88
0305csem	Laced cylindrical electromagnet	88

0306csem	Continuously laced cylindrical magnet	88
0307csem	Ian Brown's cylindrical hybrid	88
0308csem	Weber/Vrakking magnet	88
0309csem	Some points that help to visualize/calculate the force between coil(s) and block(s) of CSEM	88
0310csem	Determination of b for mapping of Gm1 onto Gm37	88
0311csem	Tuning block efficiency	<b>89</b>
0312csem	Maximum achievable field in hybrid (CSEM and iron) quadrupole	<b>89</b>
0313csem	Further work on hybrid quadrupole performance	<b>89</b>
0314csem	Shorting ring in hybrid quadrupole	89
0315csem	Flux between cylinder next to infinite plane, and that plane	89
0316csem	Proper placement of CSEM in adjustable hybrid quadrupole	90
0317csem	Cylindrical magnetic bucket system with 1 "must" hole	90
0318csem	Direct flux from round block of CSEM with $B_r$ = constant, in general, and in Gm38	90
0319csem	Ellipse with $\mu_1$ inside medium with $\mu_2$	90
0320csem	Effect of hole through yoke of spectrometer on field in business region	90
0321csem	Generalization of flux calculation with reciprocity theorem	90
0322csem	$\int B_y \cos kx dx$ from individual (error free) CSEM blocks in iron- free $M' = 4$ insertion device	90
0323csem	Steering and displacement of electron beam from individual (error free) CSEM blocks in iron-free $M' = 4$ insertion device	90
0324csem	Summary of steering, displacement, and $\int B_y \cos kz dz$	90
0325csem	Shaped bucket pole	90
0326csem	Excess flux coefficient for Gm39	90
0327csem	Excitation of hybrid quadrupole	90
0328csem	Excess flux on 0-thickness pole	91
0329csem	Torque and force on uniformly magnetized CSEM cylinder in ${f H}$	91
0330csem	Periodic pole structure SC map	91
0331csem	Excess flux formulae for Gm30	89
0332csem	Summary of excess flux formulae for Gm3, Gm18, and G0208cm30	89
0333csem	Flux induced by rectangular and horizontal CSEM block between three circles	91
0334csem	Cyclotrino magnet	91
0335csem	H* at end of CSEM block	93
0336csem	Integral for excess flux calculation	93
0337csem	Comments and background for EXCESFL	93

. . .

•

: ×

4

,

0338csem	Fields from charge sheet in xy-plane at $z = 0$	93
0001ctr	Field perturbation of homogeneous field by sphere	76
0002ctr	$2K = \int \frac{B(B_o - B)}{B_o^2} dz \text{ for Gm24}$	76
0003ctr	$2K = \int \frac{B(B_o - B)}{B_o^2} dz \text{ for Gm42}$	76
0004ctr	Flux and EFB for corner magnet (Gm24)	76
0005ctr	At least one focus for any hard edge magnet	76
0006ctr	First order optics for swap magnet without space charge	76
0007ctr	First order matrices for bending magnet	76
0008ctr	Bend magnet with two EFBs parallel to each other	76
0009ctr	Some optical properties of reflection sweep magnet	76
0010ctr	Extrapolated penetration for exponential field	76
0011ctr	Achromatization condition for displacement in reflection magnet	76
0012ctr	Continuation of 0011ctr	78
0013ctr	Two-step field distribution to give minimum of extrapolated penetration	76
0014ctr	Results of transmission magnet and various notes	77
0015ctr	How to deal with multiple beams in bendplane	76
0016ctr	Space charge effects on a straight line in phase space	76
0017ctr	Effects of constant E on phase space point	76
0018ctr	Space charge effects in band beam	76
0019ctr	Scraping of beam at walls parallel to the midplane (two versions)	76
0020ctr	Minimum spot size and maximum density in bend magnet	76
0021ctr	Production of second half of reflection matrix	76
0022ctr	Analytical bend plane matrix properties	76
0023ctr	Actual numbers for power deposition normalization	76
0024ctr	First order matrix in bend plane for $B_z(x,y) = B(y)$	76
0025ctr	Matrix perpendicular to bendplane (two versions)	77
0026ctr	Trajectories in strip magnet III	76
0027ctr	Trajectories in strip magnet II (Reference trajectory in midplane)	76
0028ctr	Trajectories in strip magnet I	76
0029ctr	Fluxes in Gm25 for three stacked dipoles	77
0030ctr	Three stacked dipoles with three power supplies	77
0031ctr	Summary of optics formulae	77
0032ctr	Eddy currents effects from cylinder excited by multipole field	77
0033ctr	Conducting cylinder in time dependent homogenous field perpendicular to axis	77

<u>.</u>

÷

0034ctr	Eddy currents in cylinder in time dependent field parallel to axis	77
0035ctr	Strip magnet orientation	77
0036ctr	Power density perpendicular to reference trajectory	77
0037ctr	New method to calculate power densities, including Gaussian distributions	77
0038ctr	Eddy currents in ferromagnetic spherical shells and balls	77
0039ctr	Summary of eddy currents formulae	77
0040ctr	Transmission through two apertures	77
0041ctr	C = BA	77
0042ctr	Aperture projection for curved source and drift I	77
0043ctr	Aperture projection for curved source and drift II	77
0044ctr	Aperture projection	77
0045ctr	Transmission through two half apertures	77
0046ctr	Transmission through apertures with general $m_{11}$ and $m_{12}$	77
0047ctr	General aperture projection	77
0048ctr	Flux exclusion from Gm1	77
0049ctr	Superconducting circular pipe in multipole field	77
0050ctr	Thoughts on eddy current problem	77
0051ctr	A potentially useful conformal transformation	77
0052ctr	Superconducting and $\mu = \infty$ elliptical pipe	77
0053ctr	Approximation to S-C transform of outside of Gm1 to outside of Gm37	77
0054ctr	Eddy current distribution in a special box	77
0055ctr	Phase space transform	77
0056ctr	Field perturbation by superconducting box	77
0057ctr	Shielding bar optimization results	78
0058ctr	Steel grid with maximum pumping	77
0059ctr	Aperture projection for curved source and drift space, and application	77
0060ctr	Absolute duct protection program	77
0061ctr	Projection of general duct into starting phase space, for general transform matrix	77
0062ctr	Eddy current fields from D3, neutral beam boxes (and other notes)	77
0063ctr	Pressure distribution in neutralizer tube	77
0064ctr	Properties of molecular flow in general duct	78
0065ctr	Probability treatment of molecular flow in general duct	77
0066ctr	Optimization of flow role through neutralizer	78
0067ctr	Chevron transmission coefficient	78

·····

----

0068ctr	Transmission of fields through shielding bars	78
0069ctr	Field penetration through shielding bars	78
0070ctr	Duct with changing cross-section $A$ and circumference $U$	78
0071ctr	Temperature rise in insertion device, two layer structure	77
0072ctr	Transmission numbers through duct, with absolute protection	77
0073ctr	Angular distribution for 2D flow, if 3D distribution follows Lambert's law (Original and Corrected version)	77
0074ctr	Absolute protection of tilted duct	78
0075ctr	What is $\frac{d^2T}{\partial m_{11}^2}$ for $m_{11} = \partial$	78
0076ctr	Transmission through aperture with general $m_{11}$ , $m_{12}$ , for T159	78
0077ctr	Simple representation of "streaming" into duct	78
0078ctr	Behavior of eddy current caused power dissipation	78
0079ctr	Eddy current power dissipation in thin walled, infinitely long cylinder with field parallel and perpendicular to axis	78
0080ctr	Eddy current — energy deposition	78
0081ctr	Eddy current — energy deposition	78
0082ctr	Working formulas for eddy current energy deposition	78
0083ctr	Power density perpendicular beam	78
0084ctr	Extreme location of full energy	78
0085ctr	Eddy current energy deposition in whale bone pipe structure	78
0086ctr	TI59 program for shielding bar calculations	78
0087ctr	Pressure changes due to change of conductance or pumping speed	78
0088ctr	Summary of formulas of interest for 2D-shielding	78
0089ctr	Two shielding problems	78
0090ctr	Magnetic field inside eddy current shielded box	78
0091ctr	Loss of beam on poleface	78
0092ctr	Feasibility of decreasing power density at calorimeter at the expense of some transmission loss at symmetric collimator down, by choosing appropriate focal point	78
0093ctr	Calorimeter power density and collimator transmission versus FP	78
0094ctr	Calorimeter power density and collimator transmission versus FP for various $z'_{00}$	78
0095ctr	Absolute duct protection geometry in vertical direction	78
0096ctr	Ellipse made of superconductor, or steel, or both	78
0097ctr	Cylindrical shielding with conductors, steel, conducting steel	78
0098ctr	Tapered shielding finger system with maximum conductance	78
0099ctr	Realistic $\mu = \infty$ finger shielding factor	78
0100ctr	Shielding of inside of Gm40 against dipole field	78

¥ 7.

0101ctr	T-measurement in plate	78
0102ctr	A useful procedure for measurement of total power in an isolated	78
	ion species on D3 injector beam dump	
0103ctr	Point on inclined plate where power density is independent (to 1st order) of $z_{00}^{\prime}$	78
0104ctr	Thermistor location procedure	78
0105ctr	Temperature rise in solid insertion device plate	76
0106ctr	Temperature distribution on ion dump resulting from non-uniform energy deposition	78
0107ctr	Summary of <i>T159</i> runs to determine best location for thermistor array on beam dump	79
0108ctr	Aperture projection program for T159	79
0109ctr	Effect of collimator on power density in beam dump	79
0110ctr	Beam dump sensors problem	79
0111ctr	Insertion device power density on axis perpendicular to beam for ZEPHYR	80
0001u-w	Analysis of bus system	85
0002 <b>u</b> -w	Analysis of undulator with V-busses	85
0003u-w	Formulas for new POLE/HH progr.	85
0004u-w	Summary of formulas for new POLE/HH progr.	85
0005u-w	Optimization of wiggler coil area	85
000би-w	Flux into pole Gm23 from end of CSEM block	85
0007u-w	Design of pole of EM wiggler with rectangular coil	85
0008u-w	2nd optimization of EM wiggler pole shape	85
0009u-w	Trajectory displacement due to a single pole (above and below midplane), and $\pm$ pairs of poles, of an iron wiggler array	85
0010u-w	Design of wiggler taper adjustment system that avoids trajectory displacement	85
0011u-w	Trajectory displacement due to $\gamma$ -change in wiggler consistency of 1 –2 1 modules	85
0012u-w	$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} B(z) z^2 dz \text{ for } B(-z) = B(z) \text{ from ELF wiggler}$	85
0013u-w	Steering strategy for ATA wiggler: definition of problem	85
0014u-w	Summary of work on displacement in EM w, and methods to avoid it (chronologically)	85
0015u-w	Translation of excitation patterns in EM W/U into CSEM needed for excitation of hybrid U/W	85
001би-w	Recent work talk, 3/26/85	85
0017u-w	Error of pattern 1-2 3-4 3-2 1	85

Ĩ.-

÷7.

it in

0018u-w	Detailed formulae for design of tapered EM U/W (with no focusing) that gives no deflection and displacement	85
0019u-w	Formulas for design of tapered W/U: asymmetric derivation	85
0020u-w	Tapered W/U excitation with patterns encompassing an even or an odd number of poles (displacement, but there are errors)	85
0021u-w	Flux traversed by e when in flat region of U/W with iron poles	85
0022u-w	Flux traversed by e in U/W with iron poles	85
0023u-w	Parabolic wiggler profile with $\gamma = \text{constant: comparison between}$ continuous field amplitude change, $\pm$ pole pairs with same excitation, and poles with individual excitation	85
0024u-w	Achievable field in EM U with rectangular pole and coil	85
0025u-w	Different formulation of achievable <i>B</i> in EM with straight pole and coil	85
0026u-w	Achievable field in EM U with shaped pole and rectangular coil	85
0027u-w	Achievable field in EM U with shaped pole and two rectangular coils	85
0028u-w	Achievable field in EM U with shaped pole and coil that fills all non-iron space between poles	85
0029u-w	Achievable field in CSEM assisted EM U with rectangular pole and coil	85
0030u-w	Notation in 8/85 notes on EM U with straight shaped poles, and computer runs	85
0031u-w	Vertical steering due to horizontal displacement of Ted poles	85
0032u-w	Effect of steering in the presence of focusing	85
0033u-w	Calculation of flux associated with horizontal steering	85
0034u-w	Displacement of electron beam in flat part of undulator/wiggler for $\gamma$ = constant	85
0035u-w	Excitation pattern for U/W with focusing	85
003би-w	Switching from U/W excitation pattern 1-2 1 to 1-3 3-1	85
0037u-w	A possible reason for the increase of $\Delta B/B$ with $g/\lambda$ in hybrid undulator/wiggler	85
0038u-w	Overlapping area of straight line poles of SU	85
0039u-w	Design formulas and progr. for (PM assisted) strong EM U/W	85
0040u-w	Coil system to measure "non-zero-ness" of field integrals of Ted poles excited with flux = 0 pattern	85
0041u-w	Detailed flux analysis in pole of PM assisted em U/W	86
0042u-w	OHFX	86
0043u-w	Implementation of non-linear tapers with order 4 binomial coefficients	86

0044u-w	Quadrupole field produced by canted CSEM blocks in pure CSEM U/W	86
0045u-w	Propagation of perturbations along single string of hybrid U/W poles	86
004би-w	Single string of hybrid undulator/wiggler poles with $C_1$ , $C_2$ , $C_3$	86
0047u-w	Low energy resonance equ. for synchrotron/FEL radiation	86
0048u-w	Design of end of hybrid W/U without coil, Method 1	86
0049u-w	Design of end of hybrid W/U without coil, Method 2	86
0050u-w	Design of end of hybrid W/U without coil, Method 3	86
0051u-w	Steering in hybrid U/W due to easy axis error	86
0052u-w	Flux from Paladin CSEM blocks to midplane	86
0053u-w	Steering/displacement correction strategy #1	86
0054u-w	Steering correction systems	86
0055u-w	Mathematical representation of U/W fields	86
005би-w	Explicit comparison between two different U/W with Ted poles	86
0057u-w	Placement of CSEM in hybrid to get binomial order three potentials on poles	86
0058u-w	Analysis of flux into pole of prototype strong em U	86
0059u-w	Comp. runs (by Bob Lown) for end correction of U with CSEM alone	87
0060u-w	Quad excited as dipole	87
0060u-w 0061u-w	Quad excited as dipole "Quadrupole" module excitation for production of helical undulator field	87 87
	"Quadrupole" module excitation for production of helical undulator	
0061u-w	"Quadrupole" module excitation for production of helical undulator field Fields in helical U consisting of quadrupole modules excited as	87
0061u-w 0062u-w	"Quadrupole" module excitation for production of helical undulator field Fields in helical U consisting of quadrupole modules excited as dipoles A simple, but better, model for the fields in modular helical	87 87
0061u-w 0062u-w 0063u-w	"Quadrupole" module excitation for production of helical undulator field Fields in helical U consisting of quadrupole modules excited as dipoles A simple, but better, model for the fields in modular helical undulator, and the remitting harmonics	87 87 87
0061u-w 0062u-w 0063u-w 0064u-w	"Quadrupole" module excitation for production of helical undulator field Fields in helical U consisting of quadrupole modules excited as dipoles A simple, but better, model for the fields in modular helical undulator, and the remitting harmonics Optimum deposition of CSEM in strong em U	87 87 87 87
0061u-w 0062u-w 0063u-w 0064u-w 0065u-w	"Quadrupole" module excitation for production of helical undulator field Fields in helical U consisting of quadrupole modules excited as dipoles A simple, but better, model for the fields in modular helical undulator, and the remitting harmonics Optimum deposition of CSEM in strong em U Peak field, range, that are achievable in Paladin-type U	87 87 87 87 87
0061u-w 0062u-w 0063u-w 0064u-w 0065u-w 0066u-w	"Quadrupole" module excitation for production of helical undulator field Fields in helical U consisting of quadrupole modules excited as dipoles A simple, but better, model for the fields in modular helical undulator, and the remitting harmonics Optimum deposition of CSEM in strong em U Peak field, range, that are achievable in Paladin-type U Modeling functions for V, excess flux in hybrid undulator pole	87 87 87 87 87 87 88
0061u-w 0062u-w 0063u-w 0064u-w 0065u-w 0066u-w	"Quadrupole" module excitation for production of helical undulator field Fields in helical U consisting of quadrupole modules excited as dipoles A simple, but better, model for the fields in modular helical undulator, and the remitting harmonics Optimum deposition of CSEM in strong em U Peak field, range, that are achievable in Paladin-type U Modeling functions for V, excess flux in hybrid undulator pole W-end correction with coil	87 87 87 87 87 87 88 88
0061u-w 0062u-w 0063u-w 0064u-w 0065u-w 0066u-w 0066u-w	<ul> <li>"Quadrupole" module excitation for production of helical undulator field</li> <li>Fields in helical U consisting of quadrupole modules excited as dipoles</li> <li>A simple, but better, model for the fields in modular helical undulator, and the remitting harmonics</li> <li>Optimum deposition of CSEM in strong em U</li> <li>Peak field, range, that are achievable in Paladin-type U</li> <li>Modeling functions for V, excess flux in hybrid undulator pole</li> <li>W-end correction with coil</li> <li>W/U optics correction</li> </ul>	87 87 87 87 87 88 88 88 88
0061u-w 0062u-w 0063u-w 0064u-w 0065u-w 0066u-w 0067u-w 0068u-w 0069u-w	<ul> <li>"Quadrupole" module excitation for production of helical undulator field</li> <li>Fields in helical U consisting of quadrupole modules excited as dipoles</li> <li>A simple, but better, model for the fields in modular helical undulator, and the remitting harmonics</li> <li>Optimum deposition of CSEM in strong em U</li> <li>Peak field, range, that are achievable in Paladin-type U</li> <li>Modeling functions for V, excess flux in hybrid undulator pole</li> <li>W-end correction with coil</li> <li>W/U optics correction</li> <li>Hybrid U/W steering with coils on side</li> </ul>	87 87 87 87 87 87 88 88 88 88 88
0061u-w 0062u-w 0063u-w 0064u-w 0065u-w 0066u-w 0066u-w 0068u-w 0069u-w	<ul> <li>"Quadrupole" module excitation for production of helical undulator field</li> <li>Fields in helical U consisting of quadrupole modules excited as dipoles</li> <li>A simple, but better, model for the fields in modular helical undulator, and the remitting harmonics</li> <li>Optimum deposition of CSEM in strong em U</li> <li>Peak field, range, that are achievable in Paladin-type U</li> <li>Modeling functions for V, excess flux in hybrid undulator pole</li> <li>W-end correction with coil</li> <li>W/U optics correction</li> <li>Hybrid U/W steering with coils on side</li> <li>Capacities between pole of hybrid W and midplane, and other poles</li> </ul>	87 87 87 87 87 88 88 88 88 88 88 88
0061u-w 0062u-w 0063u-w 0064u-w 0065u-w 0066u-w 0067u-w 0068u-w 0069u-w 0070u-w	<ul> <li>"Quadrupole" module excitation for production of helical undulator field</li> <li>Fields in helical U consisting of quadrupole modules excited as dipoles</li> <li>A simple, but better, model for the fields in modular helical undulator, and the remitting harmonics</li> <li>Optimum deposition of CSEM in strong em U</li> <li>Peak field, range, that are achievable in Paladin-type U</li> <li>Modeling functions for V, excess flux in hybrid undulator pole</li> <li>W-end correction with coil</li> <li>W/U optics correction</li> <li>Hybrid U/W steering with coils on side</li> <li>Capacities between pole of hybrid W and midplane, and other poles</li> <li>EM W/U design (for Boscolo)</li> </ul>	87 87 87 87 87 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 8
0061u-w 0062u-w 0063u-w 0064u-w 0065u-w 0066u-w 0067u-w 0068u-w 0069u-w 0070u-w 0071u-w	<ul> <li>"Quadrupole" module excitation for production of helical undulator field</li> <li>Fields in helical U consisting of quadrupole modules excited as dipoles</li> <li>A simple, but better, model for the fields in modular helical undulator, and the remitting harmonics</li> <li>Optimum deposition of CSEM in strong em U</li> <li>Peak field, range, that are achievable in Paladin-type U</li> <li>Modeling functions for V, excess flux in hybrid undulator pole</li> <li>W-end correction with coil</li> <li>W/U optics correction</li> <li>Hybrid U/W steering with coils on side</li> <li>Capacities between pole of hybrid W and midplane, and other poles</li> <li>EM W/U design (for Boscolo)</li> <li>Some general thoughts about 1st order optics - corrected W/U</li> </ul>	87 87 87 87 87 87 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 8

•

· .

j.

· · ·

: .

. .

007би-w	Execution of design of 1. order W/U compensation system, to 1st order in wiggler focusing	88
0077u-w	Path length error in 1 $\lambda_u \rightarrow$ phase shift	88
0078u-w	Effect of small angle between two halves of U/W	88
0079u-w	Capacity between ID poles, next to midplane, for poles filling all available space	89
0080u-w	Signal from 2d easy axis error measurement apparatus	89
0081u-w	Propagation of field errors on 3-C ladder system	89
0082u-w	Error in ID field integral caused by gap error of one pole and CSEM orientation error close to midplane	89
0083u-w	$\int B_y dz$ produced by easy axis orientation error of "short" CSEM blocks	89
0084u-w	Steering caused by end-rotation	89
0085u-w	Zero-steering insertion device entry system with one, and two, parameter	89
0086u-w	Formulas for insertion device entry design, and one for design of end of ID	89
0087u-w	Insertion device Parameter Calculation WH-RS-01 (Roland Savoy)	89
0088u-w	Steering produced by two tuners and use to tune U	89
0089u-w	Coil to measure steering in U/W	<b>89</b>
0090u-w	Excitation of semi-infinite U in vicinity of an end, and flux into pole $0$	89
0091u-w	Decay eigenvalues for three-capacitor ladder array	89
0092u-w	Steering in hybrid U from indirect fields	89
0093u-w	Systematic classification of perturbations and tolerances in hybrid ID	89
0094u-w	Indirect flux contributions to displacement without steering	89
0095u-w	Direct flux sources for generation of displacement without steering	89
009би-w	Excess coefficient for $\int F^2 dz$ on pole of Gm16	89
0097u-w	Calculation of steering in hybrid insertion device from $\lambda/2$ model measurements	89
0098u-w	2D force and torque on CSEM rotators	89
0099u-w	Effect of pole saturation in ID	89
0100u-w	Calculation of $\frac{B(g)}{B(g_0)}$ and $\frac{\Delta B(g)}{\Delta B(g_0)}$	89
0101u-w	U trajectory and radiation	90
0102u-w	Femtosecond time resolution with a two undulator system (discussed with S. Ruby and K. Halbach)	90
0103u-w	Helical U with "quads"	87
0104u-w	Geometry of central pole	90

0105u-w	Asymmetric W	90
0106u-w	$C'_0 / C'_2$ as function of gap for small gaps	90
0107u-w	Flux split and excess potential drop in Gm16	90
0107u w	Design of hybrid asymmetric (Goulon) wiggler	90
0109u-w	Entry into Goulon-W	90
0109u-w 0110u-w	Entry into Goulon-W	90
0110u-w 0111u-w	Entry into Goulon-W	90
0111u-w 0112u-w	Displacement-free iron free undulator for $M' = 4$	90
0112u-w 0113u-w	Decay cond. for Goulon-W	90
0113u-w 0114u-w	Line integrals over fields produced by line changes	90
0114u-w 0115u-w	Steering from a round finite length block of CSEM	90 90
0115u-w 0116u-w	Displacement from around finite length block of CSEM	90 90
	Steering without displacement with 2 round blocks of CSEM	90 90
0117u-w	5	90 92
0118u-w	Coil system to measure steering between field free region at end of ID, and periodic part of ID	92
0119u-w	Steering with flooding pole 0	92
0120u-w	Gradient measurement in ID	92
0121u-w	Displacement-free entry system for "2-wire" helical U	90
0122u-w	Procedure to correct ends of ID	90
0123u-w	Determination of $B_r/H_c$ of CSEM with Helmholtz coil	91
0124u-w	Scalar potential for 3D ID fields	92
0125u-w	3D scalar potential for saturation caused fields in ID, Vers. 2	92
012би-w	3D scalar potential for saturation caused fields in ID, Vers. 1	92
0127u-w	Direct flux from CSEM corrector in ID	92
0128u-w	"Impedance" for hybrid ID	92
0129u-w	Flux transport along axial direction of EM wiggler	93
0130u-w	Flux into top of rectangular block on $V = 1$	93
0131u-w	Excess flux into pole, and flux into side of Gm40	93
0132u-w	Effects of excess potential drop on flux into side of pole	93
0133u-w	Error of flux calculation for finite pole width with excess flux coefficient	93
0134u-w	NPOLE	93
0135u-w	Wiggler parameter K definitions	93
0136u-w	Simple analytical model for fields from one pole of hybrid ID	93
0137u-w	$\rho$ , $A_0/B_1$ for hybrid insertion device	93
0138u-w	Connection between undulator field errors and optical phase	93
0139u-w	Comparison of first and second order contributions of error fields to phase shift	93

0140u-w	Normalization factors $\varepsilon_1$ and $\varepsilon_2$ for comparison of first order to second order phase shifts, with analytical model for $b(z)$	93
0141u-w	Least square fit of $f(z)$ with $a + bz$ in $0 \le z \le 1$	93
0142u-w	Magnetic measurement and data reduction to identify some specific (undesirable) error field consequences (Talk ANL)	93
0143u-w	Field integrals for iron-free ID	93
0144u-w	Scalar Potential for 3D Fields in "Business Region" of insertion device with finite width poles	92
0145u-w	Consequences of Field Perturbations in ID	92
0001misc	Solenoid lens, different derivation	67
0002misc	Solenoid lens, solenoid field on axis	67
0003misc	Multipole shielding	67
0004misc	Velocity selector	67
0005misc	Homopolar ion source	67
0006misc	Matrix describing 2nd order effects to 2nd order, in one dimension	66
0007misc	"Resonances" in r and z directions, without coupling	
0008misc	Beam optics in periodic machine, with no acceleration	67
0009misc	Weak focusing	67
0010misc	Phase space matching of ellipses and parallelograms (2D phase space only)	71
0011misc	Matching of two beam ellipses with single lens	71
0012misc	Description and some simple properties of phase space parallelograms	71
0013misc	Doublett optimization	71
0014misc	Transmission of periodic sequence of quadrupoles	71
0015misc	Bad method	71
0016misc	Gas filled magnetic spectrometer	71
0017misc	Velocity selector	71
0018misc	Homogeneous field velocity separator with fringe fields to first order	71
0019misc	Strong focusing vel. separator to first order (only strong focus modification)	71
0020misc	Phase space matrix, and achromatic spot size	71
0021misc	"Optimum" dispersive system	71
0022misc	Optimized dispersive system	71
0023misc	Polynomial $a_0x + a_1x^2 + a_2x^3 = y$ having same y value for $x_1 = 1, x_2 = \frac{1+c}{2}, x_3 = c$	71
0024misc	Vel. spectrometer	71
0025misc	Vel. spectrometer	71

0026misc	Twister, achromatic	71
0027misc	Achromatic twister	71
0028misc	Twister condition	71
0029misc	Easy to design twister with periodic system	71
0030misc	Four quadrupole twister	70
0031misc	Impossibility to make any twister (i.e. it does not have to have a simple drift space) with symmetrical system having only four magnets	71
0032misc	Impossibility to make symmetrical twister with 4 thin lenses	71
0033misc	First order twister-theory	70
0034misc	Achromatic spot size in both planes	71
0035misc	Solenoid to first order	71
0036misc	Long, periodic, symmetric, beam transport line	71
0037misc	Elimination of singularities of integrand at ends of integration interval	69
0038misc	Linear least squares with erroneous matrix	71
0039misc	Fierz's planet orbits	71
0040misc	HAT-detector	72
0041misc	"Stiff catenary" = "axially stressed beam"	72
0042misc	Network to give $1 + \mu$ plot (Gm33)	72
0043misc	"Harmonic polynomials" for V in cylindrical geometry	70
0044misc	Exact "λ∕4 plate" from two plates	72
0045misc	Integrator drift	72
0046misc	"Buffed" doublett	73
0047misc	Beam bending	73
0048misc	Vibrating beam, right end free, left end clamped	73
0049misc	Different method to derive formula for curvature of a mapped curve	73
0050misc	Change of curvature along tangent	75
0051misc	Heat conduction in cylindrical shells	73
0052misc	Foil thickness measurement with specular reflection measurements	72
0053misc	Dimensional analysis of space charge flow	73
0054misc	Bending angle for particle in $\varphi$ -independent field	73
0055misc	$\varepsilon_1$ and $\varepsilon_2$ relaxation	73
0056misc	Optimum overrelaxation factor	73
0057misc	$\Delta$ -properties	74
0058misc	Optimization of $\varepsilon$ for linearized $P_e$ -cycle	74
0059misc	Difference equations from variational principle, specifically for geoth. transform with $k^2 V$ term	74

•

,

0060misc	Determination of dominant eigenvalues and associated quantities	74
0061misc	$\int V^n dv$ over tetrahedron, for $V =$ linear function of x, y, z	74
0062misc	$\int \pi v_{v}^{nv} da$ over triangle for $v_{v}$ = linear function of x, y	74
0063misc	Current deposition in POISSON	74
0064misc	Explicit expressions for geothermal difference equations	73
0065misc	Kerr cell apodizer	74
0066misc	Potential distribution for 2D elst. lens	74
0067misc	2D and cylindrical elst. lens	74
0068misc	Increase of convergence rate of sums with integration	74
0069misc	Determination of width of distribution function with slit	74
0070misc	$\int_{1}^{2} W^{*N-n} W^{n} dW$	74
0071misc	Young overrelaxation	71
0072misc	Push-pull effect from two parameters with nearly identical effects	74
0073misc	Input impedence of "bridged" op-amplifier	74
0074misc	Minimization of $\int y^2(x) dx$ , $y =$ joined straight lines in equidistant <i>x</i> -intervals (re-creation of 1966 work)	75
0075misc	Fast conventional Fourier series	75
0076misc	Evaluation of polynomial with real coefficients, but complex argument	75
0077misc	Simpler derivation of evaluation of polynomial of $z$	76
0078misc	Analytical $F(z)$ in upper half-plane from $F(x)$	75
0079misc	Analytical $F(z)$ in upper half-plane from $A(x)$ ; $V(x)$ (new version)	75
0080misc	Propagation of sound in layered structure	75
0081misc	Equation of motion in S-C-mapped geometry	75
0082misc	Two-plane imaging with doublett	75
0083misc	Phase space detected by detector of width $2x_0$	74
0084misc	Periodic doublett system for beam transport over long distances	75
0085misc	Representation of matrix by ideal lens and 2 drift spaces	75
0086misc	Hippi modification = design of strong focusing bending magnet	75
0087misc	Estimate of necessary aperture for Hippi-beam transport	75
0088misc	Proof that necessary aperture for infinite periodic beam transport system does not necessarily represent an upper limit for aperture of phase space matching system for same beam	75
0089misc	Buffed doubletts, distributed and lumped elements as cell for periodic system	75
0090misc	Graphical representation of transform. of phase space ellipse through drift space and thin lens	75

0091misc	Computation and graphical representation of transformation of phase space matrix through drift space and thin lens (from Steffer)	75
0092misc	PEP-interaction region solenoid compensation schemes	75
0093misc	Properties of total H-system that has pure drift matrix	75
0094misc	$M_x = M_y$ system	75
0095misc	Beam transport system with axisymmetric transfer matrices	75
0096misc	2 identical systems, but with opposite polarities, in series	76
0097misc	Triplett telescope (thin lenses)	75
0098misc	Optimization of $n = 1$ , two compensated coil system for harmonic analysis	75
0099misc	Effect of field errors on observation in detector plane	75
0100misc	Analytical continuation of $1/(z-a)$ with N-term Taylor series	75
0101misc	Schwarz's formula, with $z_0$ inside or outside circle	75
0102misc	Some thoughts on analytical continuation for measurement evaluation	75
0103misc	Coil structure adjustment of 2D magnetic measurements	75
0104misc	Trajectories in some bending magnets	75
0105misc	Location of minimum aperture of 2D beam	75
0106misc	2D parallel duct as a virtual leak	75
0107misc	Properties of tape wound coil geometry	75
0108misc	Parabola extremum finder and equation solver	75
0109misc	Lawson's ring	75
0110misc	Simple method to determine location of focal plane of optical system	75
0111misc	Retroreflecting optical system	75
0112misc	Search routine for maximum finder	76
0113misc	An interesting data analysis and error analysis problem	76
0114misc	3 ways to calculate Fourier coefficients	76
0115misc	Trajectory with air resistance; slightly different approach	77
0116misc	Trajectory with air resistance	76
0117misc	Eriter Maclanrim formula derivation	76
0118misc	Expansions in $y_o$	76
0119misc	Trajectory with curvature concept	76
0120misc	Particle trajectories in $\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{B}$ field with $E_{\phi} = 0$ , $B_{\phi} = 0$ with Lagrange function	76
0121misc	Particle trajectories in $\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{B}$ field with $E_{\varphi} = 0$ , $B_{\varphi} = 0$ with equation of motion	76
0122misc	Particle trajectories in $\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{B}$ field with $E_z = 0$ ; $B_z = 0$	76
0123misc	1st order "radial" particle trajectory in electric field	76
0124misc	Coefficients of polynomial after factoring one or two roots (Horner)	76

.

· 141.

.

\$ 1.7

0125misc	More sophisticated model for integration of $x'' 2\upsilon + x'\upsilon' + ax\upsilon'' = 0$	76
0126misc	Expansion of solution of $-2Uy'' = (1 + y'^2)(U'_x y' - U'_y)$ about starting point	76
0127misc	Self-consistent potential and field in Gm1-mesh	76
0128misc	Momentum-derivative of matrix elements of magnetic beam transport system	76
0129misc	Chromaticity of axisymmetry condition of "my" 4-pole system	76
0130misc	Hydrodynamic lift	76
0131misc	Numbers, and their application, for symmetrical air foil NACA 0009	76
0132misc	Numerical integration of $y'' = f(x, y, y')$	76
0133misc	Lorentz transformation of plane e.m. wave	77
0134misc	S-C-transform of Gm1	77
0135misc	POISSON potentials for one string of points between equi potentials	77
0136misc	Two different ways to evaluate Fourier coefficients from data	77
0137misc	Lines of equal phase shift in source for point detector (for B. Billard)	77
0138misc	Coordinate transformation caused by reflections in multiple 2D mirror system	77
0139misc	Coordinate transformation caused by reflections off mirrors and transmission through interfaces between different media	77
0140misc	A new method for matrix inversion	78
0141misc	A property of 3D trajectories in 2D magnetic field	78
0142misc	Mathematics of Moirce patterns	78
0143misc	1st order optics with $\Delta p/p$ and $\Delta L$	79
0144misc	Additional considerations about 1st order optics with $\Delta p/p$ and $\Delta L$	79
0145misc	Algorithm for computation of Taylor series coefficients of $F(z) = \left(\sum_{n=1}^{N} A_n z^n\right)^m$	79
0146misc	Energy in CM system of two colliding particles	79
0147misc	Local interpolation with continuous function and first derivative	79
0148misc	"Reverse" parabola equ. solver, and generalization	79
0149misc	Path length aberration for strip magnet	79
0150misc	Phase space matrix; diff. equ. for envelope, with acceleration and space charge	79
0151misc	Reference trajectory and first order matrices in linear undulator	79

•

. .

0152misc	Minimum beam size in system described by	<b>79</b>
	$M = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\varphi & \sin\varphi / k \\ -k\sin\varphi & \cos\varphi \end{pmatrix}$	
0153misc	Fourier series/transform facts, for FFT use	79
0154misc	EFB of dipole to produce desired beam spot location	80
0155misc	Power density produced on target by scanning	80
0156misc	Scanner optics	80
0157misc	Combination of scanning dipole with quadrupole to correct chromatic aberration of center trajectory	80
0158misc	Scanning properties of hard edge strip magnet	80
0159misc	Scanning caused by hard edge magnet with circular pole	80
0160misc	Exact equ. of motion in 2D multipole field	77
0161misc	Ray tracing in oriented wedge dipole-quadrupole (Ray's quad)	80
0162misc	2D multipole transmitter	80
0163misc	Strip transmission magnet for given deflection of two given in species	80
0164misc	Beam dump with arbitrary orientation	80
0165misc	Application of Bernoulli's equ. to water pipe system	80
0166misc	Trajectory displacement because of soft edge, composed to hard edge of magnet	80
0167misc	General midplane ray tracing with homog. fields, and straight and circular boundaries	80
0168misc	TRACE	80
0169misc	Axisymmetric quadrupole quadruplett	80
0170misc	Aperture projection into starting phase space for lumped optical system	80
0171misc	Trajectory and first order matrix in bend plane of 2D magnet	80
0172misc	Computation and properties of first order optics matrices	80
0173misc	Ultrafish variables	81
0174misc	Envelope of $E_{\text{critical}}$ vs. $\theta$ curves	81
0175misc	Space charge limit on focusing of round zero-emittance beam in drift space	80
0176misc	Effect of exit impedance of duct on $\int p dx$ from outgassing	81
0177misc	Local interpolation with continuous function and its first $N$ derivatives	81
0178misc	1st order optics of $E = \text{constant}$ deflector	81
0179misc	Size of beam (of rhomboidal shape in phase space) in optical system	81
0180misc	Design of TRW spectrometer magnet	81
0181misc	Index and comments to notes sent to Phil Kidd (TRW)	81

.

•

• • •

0182misc	Probabilistic treatment of "pencil standing on its tip" - problem	81
0183misc	How long can a pencil stand on its tip?	81
0184misc	Things that work, and do not work	81
0185misc	Adjustable strength axisymmetric permanent quadrupole system	81
0186misc	Axisymmetric negative drift: detailed design	81
0187misc	An interesting property of symmetrical telescopes with power of $-1$	81
0188misc	Finite length doubletts, tripletts	81
0189misc	Slow FFT with round-off error protection	81
0190misc	Viscous gravity flow in pipe with constriction at end	81
0191misc	Triplett matrix, for $k_1 = k_2$ , but $\varphi_2 \neq \varphi_1$	81
0192misc	General symmetric triplett, $k_1 \neq k_2$ and $\varphi_2 \neq \varphi_1$	81
0193misc	Symmetric triplett, with $k_1 = k_2$ and $\varphi_2 \neq \varphi_1$ , and D between elements	81
0194misc	Triplett with $x$ and $y$ FP's at same location	81
0195misc	Triplett properties, disregarding different location of FP's in two planes	81
0196misc	Some numbers for final lens	81
0197misc	Comparison of quadrupole (triplett) focusing with solenoid focusing	81
0198misc	Doublett with $f_x = f_y$ and same FP location on one side	81
0199misc	Corrective element in telescope to change target distance and to compensate for temperature effects on $f$ of objective	81
0200misc	Analytical test problem for program that finds (matrix) solutions to $x'' + K^2(z)x = 0$	81
0201misc	Extraction from SUPERFISH field line plot the location where movement of wall produces no resonance frequency change	82
0202misc	Expansion of $y(x)$ , defined by $y + y^m = x$ , $m =$ even, for case $y(0) = -1$	82
0203misc	Taylor expansion of $y(x)$ , defined by $y + ay^m = x$ , for case $y(0) \neq 0$	82
0204misc	$y + ay^m = x$ ; expansion of $y(x)$ in Taylor series in x, for case $y(0) = 0$	82
0205misc	Removal of singularities from the ends of integration intervals	82
0206misc	First order matrix for particles in quad with superimposed homogeneous solenoid field	82
0207misc	Swing optics central trajectory	82
0208misc	Optimum synchr. light focusing	81
0209misc	Optics of meridional rays in solenoid (3rd order)	82
0210misc	Stripping of $H^-$ in $B$	82
0211misc	Thermal analysis of 1D layered structure (THERM progr.)	83

•

· · ;

- ,

1

. -

----

. . . .

- ]

0212misc	Composite material for heat insulation	83
0213misc	Duct projection, for Jack Petersen	83
0214misc	At what photon energy shows wiggler spectrum structure	83
0215misc	Transmission through grid for ions transported by gas flow and ${f E}$	83
0216misc	Matching into a periodic system	78
0217misc	Numerical evaluation of $F(z) = \ln \frac{z - z_2}{z - z_1}$	84
0218misc	Transformer "theory"	84
0219misc	Synchrotron radiation from one electron (in W/U)	84
0220misc	Synchrotron radiation from electron in U with field errors	84
0221misc	Bendplane optics in wiggler with $B \approx 1 + kx^2$	84
0222misc	Behavior of $n_2(x)$ in vicinity of sharp absorption edge	84
0223misc	Proof that $v_g < C$ where $\varepsilon_1 = 0$ for all $\varepsilon_1(W) \ge 0$	84
0224misc	Focusing in planar undulator with curved poles	84
0225misc	Trajectory of electron in wiggler/undulator with strong field in midplane parallel to midplane	84
0226misc	Thoughts on effect of field errors in U on radiated spectrum	84
0227misc	Synchrotron radiation from sinusoidal trajectory in arbitrary direction	84
0228misc	Thermal noise from general passive linear electric system in thermal equilibrium	84
0229misc	3rd order errors inside quadrupole	84
0230misc	2nd order kick at entrance of dipole	84
0231misc	Lowest order nonlinear kick in fringe field region of multipole	84
0232misc	$I = \int_{a}^{b} \frac{f(t)dt}{\sqrt{t - a\sqrt{b - t}}}$	84
0233misc	$I = \int_{a}^{b} \frac{f(x)dx}{\sqrt{x - a\sqrt{b - x}}}$	84
0234misc	Some notes on electrical circuits	84
0235misc	Shortest twilight	84
0236misc	Map of circular disk on "nearly" eliptical disk (W)	85
0237misc	Weighted interpolation with $N = 1$ parabolas and equidistant intervals	85
0238misc	Large $\gamma$ electron buncher/debuncher	85
0239misc	$K = \int_0^\infty e^{-z \cosh t} \cosh nt dt = K(z, n)$	85
0240misc	Satisfying an incomplete set of linear equations $Mr = b$ , and $\sum W_n r_n^2 = Min$ .	86

7

65

.

and the second second

0241misc	$F_2 = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{e^{-x^2}}{(x+z_0)} dx, \Im z_0 > 0$	86
0242misc	Multilayer mirrors 1) basics	86
0243misc	Multilayer mirrors 2) periodic structures	86
0244misc	Summary of multilayer design formulae and procedures	86
0245misc	Some thoughts on design of multilayer mirrors	86
0246misc	Jacobian $J = \begin{pmatrix} u'_x & v'_x \\ u'_y & v'_y \end{pmatrix}$ in complex notation	82
0247misc	Determination of circle that connects three points	86
0248misc	Map of straight line segment $z_1$ , $z_2$ with $W = kz^2$	86
0249misc	Necessary condition for conformality	86
0250misc	Reflection magnet with achromatic zero offset	86
0251misc	Location and size of waist in driftspace from $\beta_2$ , $\beta_1$ , $\Delta z$	86
0252misc	Achromatic spots	86
0253misc	$[J_0(\xi) - J_1(\xi)]^2$	86
0254misc	$[J_0(\xi) - J_1(\xi)]^2$ for $x = \frac{1/2}{1+2/k^2} \le \frac{1}{2}$	86
0255misc	Decay of error fields in (ideal) $\leftarrow$ (not all is correct) symmetrical iron dominated quad	86
0256misc	Malcolm's mechanism, note #1	87
0257misc	Mechanism for Malcolm H., note #2 (on airplane from SFO to JFK)	87
0258misc	Synchrotron light phase shifter	87
0259misc	Trajectory in gradient magnet	88
0260misc	Least square fitting of function	88
0261misc	Design of quadrupole system with $M_x + M_y = 0$	88
0262misc	Twister condition (re-write of 1971 note, for SSRL)	88
0263misc	Twister condition	71
0264misc	Letter-Herman/Heinz (some notes)	88
0265misc	Expansion of Taylor series, raised to some power p, into a Taylor series (for Bozoki)	88
0266misc	Inversion of a Taylor series, with recursion formulae	88
0267misc	Analog integrator dynamics	89
0268misc	$F(x) = \int_0^{\pi} J_0(x\cos\varphi)d\varphi$	89
0269misc	New bumps	89
0270misc	$I_2 = \int_0^{+\infty} \frac{x^2}{\cosh x}  dx$	89

× .

ب <del>المعالية ،</del> ب المحالية ا

Chromaticity correction with sextupole	90
Simple proof for "amusing geometry theorem"	90
An amusing geometry theorem	90
Radiative energy loss by accelerated charge	90
Analysis of analog integrator	90
Analysis of analog integrator (Milan)	90
$\beta$ function in unstructured focusing quadrupole	90
Dimensional analysis of trajectory of non-relativistic charged particles in stationary electric and magnetic fields	92
Gravity drive "train"	92
Map of interior of unit circles with centers at $z = 0$ , $\omega = 0$ )	92
Simpler map of interior of circular disks onto each other	92
Map of circular unit circles onto each other, with given maps of two points on circumferences	93
Mathematical framework for production of achromatic spot, using only quadrupoles and/or solenoids	77
Production of achromatic spot with a beam transport system consisting only of quadrupoles and solenoids	77
Memo to participants of the discussion on linear beam transport systems at LASL, November 3–4, 1977	77
Fringe fields	??
A simple derivation of the Lorentz transformation without talking about light	92
General map of circular disks onto each other	92
Math for MATROPT (document, programs and assorted notes)	93
$J = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} [F(x) - F(x-a)]^2 dx$	93
Multipole fields	67
Statistics	67
Statistics	67
Mother-Daughter Detection	67
Statistics for decay time measurements	67
Application of generating function of two variables to specific problem	67
Generating Function with several variables	67
First order matrix-differential equation for relativistic particle	67
Field in twisted symmetrical multipole	69
Beam optics for long, twisted quadrupole	67
$I_q''$ calculations	67
	Simple proof for "amusing geometry theorem" An amusing geometry theorem Radiative energy loss by accelerated charge Analysis of analog integrator Analysis of analog integrator (Milan) $\beta$ function in unstructured focusing quadrupole Dimensional analysis of trajectory of non-relativistic charged particles in stationary electric and magnetic fields Gravity drive "train" Map of interior of unit circles with centers at $z = 0$ , $\omega = 0$ ) Simpler map of interior of circular disks onto each other Map of circular unit circles onto each other, with given maps of two points on circumferences Mathematical framework for production of achromatic spot, using only quadrupoles and/or solenoids Production of achromatic spot with a beam transport system consisting only of quadrupoles and solenoids Memo to participants of the discussion on linear beam transport systems at LASL, November 3–4, 1977 Fringe fields A simple derivation of the Lorentz transformation without talking about light General map of circular disks onto each other Multipole fields Statistics Statistics Statistics Mother-Daughter Detection Statistics for decay time measurements Application of generating function of two variables to specific problem Generating Function with several variables First order matrix-differential equation for relativistic particle Field in twisted symmetrical multipole Beam optics for long, twisted quadrupole

.

x • •

0302misc	Spline function	67
0303misc	Radial stability for constant guide field	67
0304misc	Electron ring acceleration in guide field $B_z$ with RF mode that has only $E_{\varphi}B_r$ , $B_z$ fields	67
0305misc	Asymptotic injection	68
0306misc	Space charge blow-up of beam	68
0307misc	Dimensional analysis and partial differential equation	68
0308misc	Heat conduction for septum	67
0309misc	Compton scattering	68
0310misc	Particle trajectory in B	68
0311misc	Superinsulation	68
0312misc	Solutions $z^2 - 2zb + 1 = 0$ for complex b	69
0313misc	Dependence of maximum of absorption signal after low frequency demodulation on modulation amplitude	69
0314misc	Derivation of Lorentz transformation	70
0315misc	Space travel with constant acceleration in moving cycle	70
0316misc	Correlation matrix and best weight matrix for past least square evaluation of parameters	70
0001thry	$\frac{1}{Hx}$ – expansion	65
0002thry	Bump size test	65
0003thry	Thoughts on elimination of 6 pole components resulting from saturation	65
0004thry	Thoughts on how to specify desired field	65
0005thry	Sliding intersection between "centered ellipse" and "displaced" hyperbola	66
0006thry	Magnetic field energy calculations	66
0007thry	Skin effect in Fe	66
0008thry	Penetration of fields into iron (transients)	68
0009thry	Curvature of field lines in a quadrupole	66
0010thry	Absolutely necessary width of pole of magnet	66
0011thry	Solid conducting sphere in homogeneous AC field	66
0012thry	Effect of eddy currents in strap coils on field distribution in omnitron synchrotron magnet	66
0013thry	4-pole field with added higher multipole components	66
0014thry	6-pole run as 4-pole	66
0015thry	Rotating fields	66
0016thry	Basic symmetries of magnets	66
0017thry	Consequences of field symmetries for editing purposes	66

,

.

0018thry	Fields at center and on center of pole tip in 3-pole case	66
0019thry	Ideal quadrupole	66
0020thry	Perfect 6-pole	67
0021thry	Sheet current ellipse and $\mu = \infty$ shield for production of homogeneous field inside ellipse	67
0022thry	Current filaments in circular $\mu = \infty$ iron shell with $r = r_0$	67
0023thry	Septum problem	67
0024thry	Field perturbation in septum magnet	67
0025thry	Errors from non-uniform current distribution in return path (near yoke) of septum magnet	68
0026thry	Numerical solution of algebraic equations	68
0027thry	Measurement in 6-pole of second order contribution to signal measured with pick up coil	67
0028thry	Field perturbation produced by bump	68
0029thry	Effective length of a magnet	68
0030thry	Field produced by two superconducting current sheets	67
0031thry	Magnetic field inside of ellipse with uniform $j$ over its total area	68
0032thry	Field energy for $\mathbf{B} \approx \mathbf{H}$	68
0033thry	Summary of formulas for energy, force and torque	67
0034thry	General force formula for cylindrical geometry	68
0035thry	Two-dimensional field produced by "odd"-shaped conductor with constant current density	68
0036thry	Vector potential measured by bundle of wires with polygon as boundary	68
0037thry	Pick up coil system for harmonic analysis with suppression of all harmonics up to $n$	68
0038thry	Experimental zero-field point determination in sextupole	68
0039thry	The number of zero-field points in the aperture region of a multipole magnet	68
0040thry	Octupole component produced by a sextupole run as a quadrupole	68
0041thry	Sextupole with one pair of poles having different excitation or different spacing	68
0042thry	Better method to drive error fields produced by error excitation of one pole of a symmetric 4-pole	68
0043thry	Symmetrical 4-pole with only one pole excited	68
0044thry	Amplitude and phase errors in harmonic analysis	68
0045thry	Current distribution and power dissipation in conductors in two- dimensional fields	68
0046thry	1/4 of Panofski quadrupole with non-constant current densities	68

;

3. .

0047thry	1/4 of Panofski quadrupole with unequal current densities	68
0048thry	1/4 of Panofski quadrupole	68
0049thry	Application of trim to a cavity problem	68
0050thry	Quadrupole with filaments to give sextupole	68
0051thry	End of septum magnet	68
0052thry	Field distribution in shielding plate (SLAC problem)	68
0053thry	Multipole expansion of the sector potential in a circular aperture	68
0054thry	Schwarz's formula	68
0055thry	Calculation of fields, gradients and multipole coefficients by contour integrals over circle	68
0056thry	Qualitative considerations concerning field corrections with special coil windings and "chunks" of iron, using the 2D current flow or fluid flow analogue	68
0057thry	More details about the "vane-skim"	68
0058thry	Minimization of stray fields of magnet by optimizing "steel shield"	68
0059thry	Fourier analysis of numerical data	68
0060thry	Fields in Gm8	68
0061thry	Combined skew 4-pole and normal 6-pole	68
0062thry	12-pole with straight slots for combined skew 4-pole - "normal" 6- pole	68
0063thry	Transformation of curvature under conformal map	68
0064thry	Methods to eliminate or reduce long time dynamical drift of systems ("creepy magnet")	68
0065thry	Optimization of a function of more variables than number of restraints plus one	68
0066thry	Heating of kicker magnet "coils"	68
0067thry	Integrated multipole strengths for skew axis	68
0068thry	Power with eddy currents in sheet	68
0069thry	Optimization of coil slot for combined 6-pole and skew 4-pole	68
0070thry	Multipole components with respect to displaced axis	68
0071thry	Sensitivity of solution of linear equations to change of an individual matrix element	68
0072thry	Change of determinant for small changes of one element of the matrix that describes a system that is least squares optimized with restraints and has least squares limitations on parameters	68
0073thry	Allowable relative errors of the elements of matrices describing system to be optimized	68
0074thry	Error analysis for parameters obtained from least squares optimization with restraints and least squares bound on parameters	68

0075thry	Efficient method to solve homogeneous system of linear diff. equ. with const coefficients	68
0076thry	Data analysis of stripping cross-section measurements	68
0077thry	Corner saturation	69
0078thry	Transmission of rotation angles through universal joint	69
0079thry	Summary of integrator roles from Dec. 63	69
0080thry	Fields in magnet with midplane symmetry in $r, \varphi z$	69
0081thry	2D fields in slab (no iron or singularities) in region of description	69
0082thry	Logarithmic spiral	69
0083thry	<b>B</b> and <b>H</b> variation in direction of center of curvature of $V = \text{constant}$ and $A = \text{constant}$ lines in 2D isotropic, homogeneous, nonlinear iron	69
0084thry	<b>B</b> and <b>H</b> variation in direction of center of curvature of $V = \text{constant}$ and $rA\phi = \text{constant}$ lines in cylindrical geometry for isotropic, homogeneous, nonlinear iron	69
0085thry	Reduction of $B(H)$ measurements on torus	69
0086thry	Capacitor stray field (for Bob Smith)	69
0087thry	Power dissipation in tape wound quadrupoles	69
0088thry	Field quality criterion	69
0089thry	Field error criterion for non-circular aperture	70
0090thry	Some general field relations expressed in complex form	69
0091thry	Effective length of quadrupole	70
0092thry	Comparison between $L_1 = [B]/B_0$ and $L_2 = 2\sqrt{3[x^2B]/[B]}$ for several $B(x)$	70
0093thry	Better formulation of effective length of 4-pole for first order optics	70
0094thry	Force between HILAC quadrupoles	67
0095thry	Total extinction lines produced by magneto-birefringent material between crossed polaroid jitters multipole magnet	69
0096thry	Weights for calculating potential from potentials at surrounding points if pot. satisfies Laplace's equation	69
0097thry	Resistance of specific 2D sheet structure	70
0098thry	Computation of upper and lower limits of impedances of 2D structures with variational principle	70
0099thry	Relation between $H_x$ at pole face and $H_y$ in midplane of magnet	69
0100thry	Measurement of Fourier coefficients of field between two $\mu = \infty$ plates	69
0101thry	Calculation of Fourier coefficients of H*	69
0102thry	Representation of fields between two parallel plates of $\mu = \infty$ iron	69

<u>\_</u>\_\_\_

· .

1.1

•,

0103thry	General relationships of fields in linear, location independent, anisotropic medium	70
0104thry	Effect of nonlinearity of iron on the effect of small perturbations in 3D	70
0105thry	Scalar potential and pole face for $\mu = \infty$ bending magnet with cylindrical symmetry, and given inhomogeneous field in midplane	70
0106thry	Scalar potential and $\mu = \infty$ poleface for inhomogeneous field with midplane symmetry in cylindrical magnet with axis outside field region	70
0107thry	Scalar potential and $\mu = \infty$ poleface to get given inhomogeneous field with midplane symmetry in cylindrical magnet with axis far outside of field region	70
0108thry	Correct POISSON equation for cylindrical geometry	74
0109thry	Effect of current sheet in midplane of windowframe magnet	70
0110thry	Additional effective "force" length and "field" length of corners	70
0111thry	$F(z) = \int_0^z \frac{\ln(1+t)}{t} dt$	70
0112thry	Orthogonal 2D analogue for 2D and cylindrical geometry magnetic fields	70
0113thry	Energy in magnetostatic field, and derivation of field equations from variational principles	70
0114thry	Derivation of TRIM equ's from variational principle	70
0115thry	TRIM equ's for anisotropic medium	70
0116thry	Evaluation of $b(H)$ curve from flux measurements on "washer"-shaped iron ring	70
0117thry	Evaluation of <i>b</i> ( <i>H</i> ) curve from flux measurements on "washer"- shaped ring (without Fourier transform)	71
0118thry	Feeding of 4-poles	70
0119thry	Eddy current loss in Fe for $\overline{H} = \overline{H}_0 \cos \omega t$ with Pryntig reactor	74
0120thry	Eddy current loss in Fe for $\overline{B} \approx \sin \omega t$	71
0121thry	Rise time of magnetic field and eddy current - energy deposition in pulsed magnet (old version)	70
0122thry	Power dissipation and " $\mu_{eff}$ " of Cu conductor in pulsed magnet	71
0123thry	$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left(\frac{e^{-\alpha\sqrt{p}}}{p^{3/2}}\right)$	73
0124thry	$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left(\frac{e^{-\alpha\sqrt{p}}}{p^{5/2}}\right)$	73
0125thry	$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left(\frac{\coth y \cdot \sqrt{p}}{p^{3/2}}\right)$	73

<u>,</u>-

. . .

0126thry	$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left(\frac{\coth y \cdot \sqrt{p}}{p^{5/2}}\right)$	73
0127thry	Energy dissipation in vacuum vessel	71
0128thry	Eddy current effects for ramp excitation (one pulse)	71
0129thry	Important eddy current formulae	74
0130thry	Eddy current effects in pulsed magnet	71
0131thry	Eddy currents (does not take nonlinearity-induced apparent anisotropy into account)	70
0132thry	Rotating E quadrupole and DC magnetic field as mass filler	71
0133thry	RF Bax	71
0134thry	Matrix for cylindrical lens for $\varphi(z) = \varphi_0 + \frac{\varphi_0 z}{1 + kz}$	71
0135thry	Effect of gap above HT-conductor	71
0136thry	Effect of horizontal gap on Ht-distribution produced by Ht-filament (reformulation of 3/71 notes)	71
0137thry	Eddy current time constants in Fe-magnets	70
0138thry	Beneficial effects of saturation in yoke-connected field clamp	71
0139thry	Eddy currents for cylindrical geometry	72
0140thry	Turn-on procedure of magnet to avoid "overdriving" $B(H)$ curve	71
0141thry	B(H) measurement with two rings; cancellation of contributions $B', B', B'''$	71
0142thry	Normal TRIM-equation	71
0143thry	Simultaneous compensation of two time constants	71
0144thry	Procedure to make small changes of field level in large magnet so that inhomogenieties in gap decay as fast as possible, and to reach new field level in shortest time	71
0145thry	Dynamical system to drive "loudspeaker"	71
0146thry	Coating of steel with Cu to reduce eddy current losses	71
0147thry	SLAC - bubble chamber eddy current problem	71
0148thry	Power loss in coil in limit of "small" cross section	71
0149thry	Eddy current power in the limit of "small" losses	71
0150thry	Losses in "loudspeaker" coil (SLAC)	71
0151thry	Qualitative considerations for SLAC bubble chamber - "loudspeaker"	71
0152thry	Numbers for bubble chamber "loudspeaker"	71
0153thry	Convergence test (originally done spring 1970; notes lost; this written in spring 1972)	72
0154thry	Windowframe tolerances	71
0155thry	Slit effect for $\mu = \infty$	71

.

1

0156thry	Purcell gap: necessary accuracy of field level in gap and allowable $n = 3$ in gap	71
0157thry	Matrix method to calculate effect of Ht at one boundary of Purcell gap on field in working gap	71
0158thry	Expansion of field from conductor in Gm24 geometry in $e^{kz}$	71
0159thry	Model for necessary height of slit	71
0160thry	Slit, necessary height	71
0161thry	B calculation in ellipse of different $\mu$	72
0162thry	$B^2$ calculation for cylindrical POISSON, and differential equation	72
0163thry	Effect of turns at ends of 4-pole (letter to Bohm)	70
0164thry	Slot in window frame: elimination of $e^{-\pi z}$ perturbation term for $\mu = \infty$	72
0165thry	Slit in window frame: compensation of $e^{-\pi z}$ perturbation with geometry for $\mu = \infty$	73
0166thry	Slot in window frame: elimination of $e^{-\pi z}$ perturbation with filament for $\mu = \infty$	72
0167thry	Effective width of pole; original, working version	72
0168thry	Operating point of naked permanent bar magnet	72
0169thry	Symmetrical corner/curtain	72
0170thry	$\frac{1}{E^{*2}}$	74
0171thry	Square box with rounded box inside that has $ E  = \text{constant on}$ surface	72
0172thry	Field error criteria for non-circular aperture	70
0173thry	$\frac{B_y(B_0 - B_y)dx}{2hB_0^2} = K \text{ for Gm25}$	72
0174thry	Execution of expansion of $\frac{B^*}{i}$ into exponentials	72
0175thry	Best excitation of 8-pole to produce dipole	72
0176thry	Best excitation of 8-pole to produce dipole	72
0177thry	Best excitation of 12-pole to produce dipole	72
0178thry	Production of $n = 3$ or $n = 4$ in 12-pole	74
0179thry	Summary of harmonics produced by "abnormal" excitation of perfect symmetrical multipole magnets	74
0180thry	Field measurement with cylindrical coil	73
0181thry	Pole face windings	73
0182thry	Curvature of 3D $V = \text{constant surface}$	73
0183thry	One-pole shimming of dipole with $n = 3$ component	73
0184thry	Axial motion of particle in cylindrical magnet with $B_z = B_0 =$ constant, and $B_r = B'r$	73

4,

<u>``</u>.....

0185thry	Reduction of bending length because of slit	73
0186thry	Harmonics production by symmetrical cut at pole ends of 4-pole,	73
oroonnj	(a transcript of notes made during Dec 72–Feb 73)	
0187thry	Excitation loss for $\mu = \infty$ laminations with finite insulation thickness	73
0188thry	Torque acting on ellipse with $\mu = \infty$ in homogeneous field	73
0189thry	Single shim first and second order	73
0190thry	First and second order shimming of H-magnet with slot	73
0191thry	Coil position for 1st and 2nd order corrected fields	73
0192thry	1st and 2nd order shimming with two filaments	73
0193thry	Mapping of magnet with pole with slanted side	73
0194thry	Jim Walter's lamination thickness	73
0195thry	2D eddy current distribution in lamination of anisotropic steel	73
0196thry	$W = -iz^2$ , map of circular pole of 4-pole	73
0197thry	Saturating yoke and poles in 4-pole	72
0198thry	Analytical B-H curve description	73
0199thry	Long coil to measure $\partial B_y / \partial y$ in 2D	73
0200thry	Coil system to measure $\partial B_z / \partial z$ in 3D	73
0201thry	Coil system to measure $\partial B_z / \partial x$ in 3D	73
0202thry	Epics flux splitting	73
0203thry	Properties of magnetic line integrals	74
0204thry	Change of harmonic content of multipole due to change of width of	74
	(all) poles	
0205thry	Pole shimming methods	74
0206thry	Shimming with knife edge pole and filaments	74
0207thry	Shimming of pole with filament at $t = -a$ , strength m	74
0208thry	Power in thick storage ring wall	74
0209thry	Finite thickness current sheet on poleface (for HAT)	74
0210thry	Eddy currents when driving magnet very hard into saturation ("charging" permanent magnet with coil)	74
0211thry	Field modification in ideal quadrupole by round pipe, to first order in $\mu - 1$	73
0212thry	Seminar on 8/10/73 at LASL	73
0213thry	EFB - coil geometry - effect on EFB (done at LASL)	73
0214thry	Torque on vane in homogeneous field	70
0215thry	Ellipse in homogeneous field	70
0216thry	Evaluation of first vane run	70
0217thry	Position of vane in 2-vane correction system	70

•

•

B - 39

0218thry	Multipoles produced by radial displacement of Fe-plate between poles of 4-pole	70
0219thry	Parameter to correct field errors in assembled 4-poles	70
0220thry	Force and torque calculations for vanes	70
0221thry	$Q^2$ distribution	70
0222thry	Notes for measurements of 4-poles	70
0223thry	LASL 4-poles	70
0224thry	Arch's "new" field quality normalization	70
0225thry	Achievable 4-pole quality	70
0226thry	Conclusions for ESCAR coil system	74
0227thry	Error analysis for dipole coil system	74
0228thry	$\overline{z^n}$ over square	74
0229thry	$\sum z^n$ over line perpendicular to $z_{center}$	74
0230thry	Stray field outside field clamp	75
0231thry	Effects of construction errors at the end of dipole magnets	75
0232thry	Field coil to test pick-up coil	75
0233thry	Quadrupole - pole width $\leftrightarrow$ dipole overhang	75
0234thry	Calibration of OAM	75
0235thry	Harmonics in dipole fringe field	75
0236thry	Harmonics to produce $B_y \approx x$ in midplane of quadrupole	75
0237thry	Quadrupole with $B_y \approx x$ in midplane	75
0238thry	Conventional dipole	75
0239thry	Recreation of "integrated multipole strengths for skewed axis"	75
0240thry	Eddy current energy deposition at yoke's edge	75
0241thry	Possible solutions to 2D grid problem	75
0242thry	Correct POISSON equation for cyl. geometry	74
0243thry	Diff. equation for cyl. geometry - POISSON	75
0244thry	1/2 - windowframe - sextupole	75
0245thry	Windowframe sextupole with wedge-shaped coil	75
0246thry	Windowframe sextupole with finite and constant thickness coil	75
0247thry	Method to calculate 2D field outside convergence radius from 2D harmonic measurements (recreation of notes from ~ early 75 that I cannot find)	75
0248thry	Eddy current force between solenoid and thick Cu plate	75
0249thry	"Octupus" fields	75
0250thry	Penetration of high frequency fields into dipole	75
0251thry	AC fields in windowframe magnet	75

-.,

•

0252thry	Measurement of pure quadrupole with displaced coil rotating about a skewed axis	75
0253thry	2D field in homogeneity $\leftrightarrow$ curvature and displacement of field line	75
0254thry	$ \Delta B ^2$ from allowed harmonics in symmetric quadrupole	76
0255thry	Magnetization data for Texas A&M magnet	76
0256thry	Multipole production by pole asymmetry of 4-pole	76
0257thry	Stored energy in permanent magnet assembly	76
0258thry	Alternate way to excite quadrupole with filaments on pole to give sextupole	77
0259thry	Production of $n = 3$ in quadrupole with poleface filament	77
0260thry	Production of sextupole field in quadrupole with current sheet on pole surface	77
0261thry	PEP staircase 4-pole	77
0262thry	Measurements to give field quality outside "normal" convergence radius of quadrupole	77
0263thry	AC force on 2D conducting steel plate	77
0264thry	Eddy currents for fast permanent magnet magnetization	77
0265thry	Stored energy in cylindrical and 2D geometry and in cylindrical geometry with $rA = \text{constant surface}$	77
0266thry	Field errors because of parabolic segment cut from pole	77
0267thry	Effect of circular arc carved into pole of dipole	77
0268thry	Polynomials for edit in cyl. geometry	78
0269thry	SC transform of Gm26 with ellipse integral	78
0270thry	SC transformation of Gm27	78
0271thry	Minimization of correction coil current	78
0272thry	"Superconducting" kicker magnet	72
0273thry	Shimming of pole with filament model	78
0274thry	Eddy currents in cylindrical yoke-ring	78
0275thry	Eddy current summary for TPC	78
0276thry	Error analysis for Don Sorenson's measurement coil system	78
0277thry	Decay of V in pipe	74
0278thry	Poleface for weak focusing bend magnet with cyl. symm.	78
0279thry	$\overline{B}$ through plate excited by two coils	78
0280thry	Lee Heflinger's notes on coil system stability	78
0281thry	Current increase necessitated by hole in steel	79
0282thry	Flux through $\mu = \infty$ bodies in uniform magnetic field	79
0283thry	Eddy current - caused force and torque on conducting circular plate	79
0284thry	Eddy current - force and torque on long thin sheet in 2D field	79

. .

.

2.

• :

,

4.4 •

0285thry	Force and torque on 2D body with $\mu = \infty$ or $\sigma = \infty$ in 2D multipole field	79
0286thry	Model for eddy current forces and torques on 2D structures with incomplete flux exclusions	79
0287thry	Complex potential for $\mu = \infty$ or $\sigma = \infty$ ellipse in pure multipole field	79
0288thry	Summary for 2D, $\sigma = \infty$ , or $\mu = \infty$ forces and torques	79
0289thry	∫jdv	<b>79</b>
0290thry	Re-formulation of model for forces and torques on 2D structures with incomplete flux exclusion by eddy currents, and for $\mu = \infty$	79
0291thry	1/2 dipole magnet with hole in septum	79
0292thry	WNR stripping magnet	79
0293thry	Effect of hole in yoke of PSR dipole	79
0294thry	1/2 quadrupole with hole in mirror plate	79
0295thry	2D field model for D3 magnetic coil system	79
0296thry	Field distortion from bellows welds in Bevatron	79
0297thry	Corner flux	76
0298thry	1D model of eddy currents in non-linear steel	79
0299thry	Re-creation of optimization of 2-coil measurement system for quadrupoles	79
0300thry	Force on coil in 2D and cylindrical geometry	79
0301thry	Axial forces on HISS coil	79
0302thry	Decay of cylindrical symmetrical field between two parallel plates with $\mu = \infty$	79
0303thry	B. Price magnet	79
0304thry	Charged circle next to plane; minimization of $E_{\text{max}}$ for given $\Delta V$ and center of circle	79
0305thry	"Closed" charged surface with constant  E*  next to conducting plane	79
0306thry	Curved electrodes with $ E^*  = \text{constant}$ , next to conducting plane	79
0307thry	Dipole steering with quadrupole	79
0308thry	Dipole steering with quad in 2 extreme cases	80
0309thry	Representation of laminated steel by anisotropic medium	79
0310thry	Analysis of cylindrically symmetric solenoid system with a symmetry-violating perturbation	80
0311thry	Approxim. calcul. of flux going into cyl. hoop, and consequences of satur. of hoop	80
0312thry	Effective edge associated with step in pole	80
0313thry	Jeff associated with coil-ends in HIF quadrupole	80
0314thry	Leff of HIF quadrupole	80

0315thry	Etst. field from plate with circular hole	80
0316thry	Axisymmetric elongated ellipsoid in field parallel axis	80
0317thry	NBS race track K-iron magnet	80
0318thry	Fringe field flux in some magnets	80
0319thry	Force estimates for ideal superconducting undulator	80
0320thry	Far field expansion of $A_{\varphi}$ (cylindrical geometry)	80
0321thry	Simulation of "rest of universe" in cyl. geometry	80
0322thry	Deductive proof that for 2D fields, only $A_z$ is needed	80
0323thry	Test for aberrations for far off midplane trajectories in strip magnet	80
0324thry	$B_y = \text{constant curves in Gm10}$	80
0325thry	3rd order kick at end of semi-infinite quadrupole	81
0326thry	Rogowski quadupole: formulation of problem	81
0327thry	Compensation of ripple from coil (for D3)	81
0328thry	Compensation of ripple from coil (for D3)	81
0329thry	Adaptive optics correction element	81
0330thry	VECAN; disk 52	81
0331thry	Fourier analysis of vector pot. in X/4-section	81
0332thry	Field penetration through 2D slit	81
0333thry	$\overline{B_r}, \overline{B_z}$ in cylindrical geometry, from $rA = V =$ linear function in $\Delta$	81
0334thry	Eddy current in conductor with circular cross section exposed to (previously) uniform AC field	81
0335thry	Eddy currents in lamination	81
0336thry	Poleface correction of LANL AT2 quads	81
0337thry	1st order shim of pole	82
0338thry	Design of center part of "Rug's" quadrupole	81
0339thry	TRW undulator problem with floating wire	81
0340thry	Force on REC and small sphere of $\mu = \infty$ steel in external field	82
0341thry	Design and properties of Helmholtz coil system	82
0342thry	Superconducting wiggler with coil surface = field line with $ B $ = constant	82
0343thry	Shielding inside of 2D "box" with elliptical outer contour	82
0344thry	Shielding of long box against transverse field in presence of longitudinal field	82
0345thry	Summary of formulas for shielding in transverse direction only	82
0346thry	Shielding considerations for neutral beam injection module containing 4 individual lines	82
0347thry	Production on quadrupole field modulated by $\sin kz$	82
0348thry	Shielding of cylinder with superconducting sheet, or steel	82

2-

7

1.1

2 4 7 B

0349thry	Production and properties of 2D E field that has on x-axis the properties $\vec{x} = \vec{x}$	82
	$E_y = E_o, E_x = f(x)$ , with Gm28	
0350thry	Optimization of T-M coil system for quad	82
0351thry	j and H caused by two displaced solenoids with opposite polarities	82
0352thry	Force between charge sheet and pole (2D)	82
0353thry	Force on solenoid (between steel poles) due to radial motion	82
0354thry	Axial force on TPC coil due to axial displacement	82
0355thry	"Rogowski"-shield (for TRW)	82
0356thry	PSR stripper 2: magnet optimization	82
0357thry	PSR stripper 1: conformal map, fields	82
0358thry	Single stripping magnet with eddy current driven Cu sheet	82
0359thry	Pulsed wiggler field inside circular cylinder with thin conducting wall	82
0360thry	Timing of ELF wiggler use	82
0361thry	Fields in ribbon-beam-electrode system	82
0362thry	Foraday-rotator-magnet	82
0363thry	Fieldline bow $\leftrightarrow$ field error in cyl. geometry	82
0364thry	Jose Alonso magnet	81
0365thry	Measurement coil for small quads	82
0366thry	Questions about properties of 2D, 3D magnet codes	82
0367thry	Application of the V-Q theory to the design of electromagnets	82
0368thry	Decay of fields in $\mu = \infty$ steel box	83
0369thry	Stability of current carrying wire in magn. field	81
0370thry	Eddy currents in circular pipe in quadrupole	83
0371thry	Filament-wiggler (for Sandia)	83
0372thry	Production of quadrupole field with windings on cylinder surface, surrounded by shells of various properties	83
0373thry	Quadrupole with thin sheet excitation, surrounded, at a distance, by a thin sheet of finite conductivity	83
0374thry	Finite thickness plate in homogeneous field	83
0375thry	Thoughts on description of fringe fields of dipoles	83
0376thry	Comments to representation of 2D dipole fringe fields	83
0377thry	Thin sheet eddy current damper	83
0378thry	Behavior of $F$ , $\int F dz$ , $F'$ in vicinity of a corner	83
0379thry	3rd order kick in fringe field of quadrupole	83
0380thry	Estimate of flux going into pole of multipole	83
0381thry	Treatment of 2D quadrupole, with excitation sheet, eddy current	83
-	sheets, etc., with matrices (in Laplace domain) (Version 1)	

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0382thry	Using different matrices for 2D quad description	83
0383thry	Treatment of 2D quadrupole, with excitation sheet, eddy current sheets, etc., with matrices (in Laplace domain) (Version 2)	83
0384thry	Details of coils for 3rd gradient, including induced voltage	83
0385thry	Eddy current H for cylinder with hole	83
0386thry	Eddy current H in cylindrical disk	83
0387thry	Unified matrix representation of fields produced by externally driven and eddy current sheets for two gradient systems	83
0388thry	Gradient fields inside thick steel shell	83
0389thry	Tests of gradient field quality	83
0390thry	Time constant necessary to make eddy current sheet infinitely thick	83
0391thry	Energy deposition by eddy currents in thin conducting sheets	83
0392thry	"Interference"-effects in eddy current energy dissipation in sheets	83
0393thry	Negative restoring torque in ring dipole magnet	83
0394thry	$F = \Sigma_1 C_n z^n$ from $F = \Sigma_1 b_n t^n$ and $z = \Sigma_1 a_n t^n$	83
0395thry	Expansion of fields in Gm29 in harmonics	83
0396thry	Eddy currents in laminations $\rightarrow$ necessary thickness	83
0397thry	Rogowski dipole	83
0398thry	Flux induced into Helmholtz coil system by small volume of CSEM with easy axis perpendicular to z-axis	84
0399thry	Sandia storage ring steering magnet	84
0400thry	Transcription of letter regarding the calculation of forces and torques between magnets	83
0401thry	A 2D field paradox	84
0402thry	Stored magnetic field energy in vacuum and $\mu = \infty$ material, and circular cross-section conductors	84
0403thry	Numerical examples for $\varepsilon$ in quadrupole	84
0404thry	Stored energy in some pure circular conductor excited quadrupoles	84
0405thry	$\varepsilon$ modification of quadrupole by circular outside shield that is superconducting or has $\mu = \infty$	84
0406thry	Design and properties of Helmholtz coil system for measurement of magnetic dipole moment of REC	82
0407thry	Design and performance of Helmholtz coils with finite winding area	84
0408thry	Eddy currents in thin conducting sheets	83
0409thry	Eddy currents in thin conducting sheets in LAMPF2 magnets	84
0410thry	Electric field between laminations of AC magnet	84
0411thry	2D needle with $ E  = \text{constant}$ on rounded part	84
0412thry	F from $I$ if $B$ perpendicular to a part of boundary, and parallel to the rest, or vice versa	85

.

٠

,

0413thry	2D electrode system to produce prescribed $ E $ on a $V = \text{constant}$ surface of prescribed shape	85
0414thry	Exact solution for 2D electrodes that give $ E  = \text{constant}$ on $V = 0$ surface given by curvature $\approx \cos(k \cdot \text{curve length})$	85
0415thry	Re-creation of eddy current overshoot limit	85
0416thry	Penetration of potential (+ fields) into a hollow cylindrical shell of zero potential and semi-infinite length	70
0417thry	Magnetic spring constants for radial and axial displacement of SLD coil	84
0418thry	B(H) interpolation function	85
0419thry	$\overline{j}$ for circular bend of conductor (for POISSON)	85
0420thry	Representation of a rectangular 2D conductor with non-uniform $j$ by a rectangular conductor with uniform $j$	85
0421thry	BNL measurement system deficiencies (quad system)	85
0422thry	Fields around $x_0 = y_0 = z_0 = 0$ from centered rectangular $\pm$ charge sheet pair at $\pm z$	85
0423thry	Beam spreader magnet optics	86
0424thry	Beam spreader quadrupole: first cut	86
0425thry	GM in source magnet	86
0426thry	Fields, and flux into center pole, of cyl. in source magnet	86
0427thry	Field in vicinity of corner	86
0428thry	Design of poles of quadrupole for general shape of good field region	86
0429thry	Quadrupole, made with filaments, inside a dipole	86
0430thry	Filaments for dipole field parallel to midplane in midplane of dipole	86
0431thry	Sextupole = 0 from linear superposition of contributions from vacuum and iron	83
0432thry	Field change inside circular $\mu$ = constant shell in sin $n\varphi$ multipole with circular outer iron shell	86
0433thry	ALS combined function bend magnet (Note #1)	86
0434thry	ALS combined function bend magnet (Note #2)	86
0435thry	ALS laminated combined function bend magnet (Note #3)	86
0436thry	Aberrations in a curved laminated combined function bend magnet	86
0437thry	Penetration of solenoidal field through conducting shell	86
0438thry	Characterization of dipole fringe fields with field integrals	86
0439thry	Field from four semi-infinite line charges	86
0440thry	Flux in shell of Richard's refrigerator	86
0441thry	Math details for "perfect" quad end	86
0442thry	Math details index	86

0443thry	Quadrupole with "perfect" ends	86
0444thry	Three coil quad measurement system	86
0445thry	Method to calculate effect of iron connection between parts of symmetric multipoles	86
0446thry	C between poles of symmetrical multipole	86
0447thry	Excitations necessary in sextupole to produce given sextupole	86
0448thry	Flux into poles of sextupole for various excitation patterns	86
0449thry	C between poles of 2D undulator or wiggler with $V = 0$ midplane	86
0450thry	<i>C</i> between poles of 2D undulator (general case of two linear arrays of poles)	86
0451thry	"Invisible Flux" to $V = constant surface: sextupole run as skew quadrupole. Correct method to calculate flux from a surface to other surfaces on varying potentials$	86
0452thry	$\overline{B}_{max}$ in "coil section" of pole of quadrupole	86
0453thry	$\overline{B}_{\max}$ in CSEM section of quadrupole	86
0454thry	Max of $\overline{B}$ in pole of quadrupole, general formulation	86
0455thry	Comments and sum notes for excitation coefficients in iron dominated multipoles	86
0456thry	E* from 2D charge distribution	87
0457thry	$E^*$ from uniform $\sigma$ inside ellipse	87
0458thry	Analysis of flux pattern in ALS sextupole	86
0459thry	Running iron dominated sextupole as a dipole	86
0460thry	L <sub>eff</sub> of dipole with thin field clamp	87
0461thry	Excess flux in Gm30	87
0462thry	Field from current sheet on $\mu = \infty$ pole of dipole	87
0463thry	Definition and measurement of imperfect multipole magnet center	87
0464thry	Field from $0 < \mu < \infty$ sphere	87
0465thry	Unimportance of magnetic length of dipole in ring	87
0466thry	"Corner problem" for CTI	87
0467thry	S-C-transform of Gm31	87
0468thry	Thick septum eddy currents	87
0469thry	$I = \int ds/z^4$ over ellipse with half-axes a, b	87
0470thry	"Screwdriver-effect"	87
0471thry	Estimate of harmonics produced by thin $0 < \mu - 1 << 1$ vacuum chamber	87
0472thry	Field from "slightly" magnetic material in $H_0$	87
0473thry	Tolerable $\mu - 1$ for ALS booster vacuum chamber	87
0474thry	Effect of stacking factor $\eta$ on $B_{\rm air}$	88

•

.

-. -

-

0475thry	$\overline{B}$ , $B_0$ in bend dipole	87
0476thry	Description of the properties of an ellipse	88
0477thry	Fields produced by eddy currents in thin elliptical vacuum chamber in dipole with	88
0.470/1	$\mu = \infty$ poles, to 1st order Denote the part of a function $\nabla^2 f = 0$ where $\nabla^2 a < 0$	00
0478thry	Procedure to get $f[g(x,y)]$ with $\nabla^2 f = 0$ , when $\nabla^2 g \neq 0$	88 88
0479thry	Useful techniques for designing a 2D non-dipole in dipole geometry	88
0480thry	De-normalization of fields and currents in quadrupole	88
0481thry	Excess flux in Gm32	88
0482thry	Total flux into 1st quadrant pole of quad when excited as dipole	88
0483thry	Thoughts about the (asymmetric) ALS ring quadrupole	88
0484thry	"Production" of nonlinear $I_0(V_0)$ for quadrupole shunt	88
0485thry	Summary of properties of fringe fields of multipoles	88
0486thry	3rd order kick in fringe field region of semi 1/0 quad	88
0487thry	Force in cylindrical symmetry on 1/2 tones	88
0488thry	A general theorem about integrals over Cartesian vacuum field components, and applications to field integral measurements	88
0489thry	Propagation of fast perturbation in dipole	87
0490thry	Boundary condition vacuum-conducting iron	87
0491thry	Flux into rectangular box	88
0492thry	Boundary condition at iron-air interface for AC, and application to 2D circle	88
0493thry	AC shielding of circular cylinder	88
0494thry	Propagation of AC fields in 1D	88
0495thry	Decay of fields between parallel plates, and in circular cylinder, with eddy current boundary condition	88
0496thry	$\Omega(x)$ properties	88
0497thry	Summary of eddy current modified H in $\mu \ge 1$ , $\sigma \ge 0$ material	88
0498thry	Inadequacy of ID eddy current analysis	88
0499thry	Quad measurement coil system on surface of cylinder	88
0500thry	Sextupole measurement coil system	88
0501thry	Effect of (thin) gap in yoke of quadrupole	88
0502thry	"Math part" of ID eddy current analysis in iron	88
0503thry	Model functions for $H(B)$ without hysteresis	88
0504thry	B at the edge of a multipole pole, and $\overline{B}$ between edges	88
0505thry	Analytical design of dipoles with vanishing $N = 3$ ; and $N = 3, 5, 7$ (no success)	88
0506thry	Eddy currents in $\mu\sigma \neq 0$ spherically symmetric system	88

.

7 · : \* :

1.

0507thry	$\Delta V$ generated at joint of inner shell of a two shell system with points in same location in both shells	89
0508thry	Effect of a gap in $\mu$ -metal shielding, for DC fields	89
0509thry	Polarity jump associated with flux going across joint	89
0510thry	Estimate of effectiveness of double shell DC shielding	89
0511thry	Fields in cylinder with eddy boundary condition and potential jump—V <sub>0</sub> at $\varphi = \pm \pi/2$	89
0512thry	Propagation of EM fields between two plates with different properties	89
0513thry	2D field harmonics from measurement of $ B $	<b>89</b>
0514thry	A simpler way to do $\int_0^1 \ln \frac{1+t}{1-t} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{1-t^2}}{t} dt = J$	89
0515thry	Calculation of F produced by small "bump" in $v = \text{constant surface}$ in SC mapped geometry	89
0516thry	$\int V dx$ across top of gap in Gm41	89
0517thry	$I_2 = \int \frac{dx}{x^3 \pm 1}$ and $J = \int_0^\infty \frac{d\omega}{1 + \omega^4}$	89
0518thry	Maximum achievable field in conventional quadrupole	89
0519thry	Strongest possible conductor dominated quadrupole	89
0520thry	$A = \int_0^{2\pi} \cos^3 \varphi \cdot e^{(a\cos^2 \varphi)} d\varphi$	89
0521thry	Reduction of saturation induced movement of trajectory at center of symmetric dipole magnet	89
0522thry	Inl Bl	89
0523thry	Effect of iron end plate on fields of ALS gradient magnet	89
0524thry	Driving two coils with some amplitude, but 90 degrees phase shift, currents from one source	90
0525thry	$\mu^T = \mu$ and $\varepsilon^T = \varepsilon$ from scratch	90
0526thry	Data reduction for some hybrid ID measurements	90
0527thry	Harmonics in S.C. dipole due to horizontal and vertical splits in iron yoke	90
0528thry	Three representations of notation to $\nabla^2 V = 0$ in cylindrical geometry	90
0529thry	$\mu_1, r_1$ circle at $z = 0$ in 2D multipole field	90
0530thry	Harmonics from Hll at top and bottom of "tall" window frame dipole	90
0531thry	Mid-plane symmetrical window-frame magnet with excitation to produce quadrupole, sextupole	90
0532thry	Design of window-frame with quadrupole not equal to 0, sextupole equal to 0	90

. .

. · .

0533thry	Design of window-frame magnet coil that gives no sextupole even though it can not touch poles	90
0534thry	Flux carried by ferromagnetic conduction bolt	90
0535thry	F(z) outside circle from A (or V) on circle (if well behaved outside circle)	90
0536thry	Mapping exterior of ellipse to exterior of unit circle	90
0537thry	Procedure to "fake nut of universe" outside elliptical boundary in POISSON	90
0538thry	Line integral measurement with circular coil of magnet with non- parallel straight EFB ideal	90
0539thry	Properties of field integral along circular arc through a magnet with a field that depends on $x$ , $y$ , but not $z$	90
0540thry	Europe Notes — POISSON	90
0541thry	Calculation of 2D harmonics from exotic measurements	89
0542thry	POISSON notes, Europe 1990	90
0543thry	Circular cyclotron magnet design	90
0544thry	Curvature of $\omega = z^2/2$ map of circle	90
0545thry	Curvature of $\omega = z^n$ map of circle	90
0546thry	Flux induced onto $\mu = \infty$ surface by coil with I	90
0547thry	Change in EFB due to movement of coil, to 1st order	90
0548thry	Coil system to measure precisely the (integrated) strength of a (small) quadrupole	90
0549thry	I' shimmed vertical steering magnet	89
0550thry	Penetration of external fields into gap of semi-infinite dipole	90
0551thry	Penetration of external field into gap of dipole with finite pole thickness	90
0552thry	Multipole expansion of skew fields produced by filaments and sheets	90
0553thry	Dipole field from environmental field in fig 8 quad	90
0554thry	General procedure to get perturbation effects in non-ideal 2D magnets "without" finite element code	91
0555thry	CERN Permeameter: primitive analytical model	90
0556thry	Techniques for evaluating $F(C,A) = \int_0^{2\pi} [G(C + A\cos\varphi)\cos\varphi d\varphi]$	90
0557thry	$\int_0^{2\pi} \cos k (C + A \sin \varphi) \sin \varphi d\varphi = J$	90
0558thry	Amplitude dependent shift correction for modified sextupoles	90
0559thry	Field in iron quadrupole from $I' = \cos 2\varphi$	91
0560thry	Currents $\approx \cos n\varphi$ on circle in iron multipole	91
0561thry	Thin walled circular conducting shell in multipole field	91

0562thry	Generation of 3rd harmonic in mapped geometry with filaments in ideal multipole	91
0563thry	Generation of 2nd harmonic in mapped geometry with filaments in ideal multipole	91
0564thry	Multipole from $I_1$ in dipole and quadrupole	91
0565thry	Stored energy inside I carrying conductor	91
0566thry	$\mathcal{L}$ for correction conductor in dipole	91
0567thry	Minimizing stored energy in (2D) region around point with given field	91
0568thry	A theorem about fields produced by $\pm$ filaments on closed $\mu = \infty$ boundary	91
0569thry	Map of circular disk on unit circular disk with centers at $\omega = 0$ and $z = 0$ , with $\omega(1) = 1$ and $\omega(0) = \omega_0$ , $ \omega_0  < 1$	91
0570thry	Re-formulation of "large gap suspension" problem in 2D	91
0571thry	Cyclotron correction coil use (Juelich Note)	91
0572thry	Transmission of light through a substance between two polaroid filters	92
0573thry	$V_1, H_z, H'_z, H''_z$ for semi-infinite solenoid of finite radial thickness	92
0574thry	AC fields onto conducting 2D iron cylinder	92
0575thry	Penetration of mid-plane symmetric fields into ends of 2D dipole	92
0576thry	PM solenoid for SLAC Klystron	92
0577thry	Penetration of fields parallel mid-plane of 2D dipole into ends of dipole	92
0578thry	Design of coil system to measure quadrupole (re-creation)	92
0579thry	Sextupole measurement coil design	92
0580thry	Field from finite size Helmholtz coil	92
0581thry	Ratio of fields at points in scale and mapped geometry	92
0582thry	Power of Panofski quadrupole	92
0583thry	T-distribution in magnet when cooled/heated on outside surface	93
0584thry	Field in vicinity of $\mu = \infty$	93
0585thry	Magnet axes notation — Folder (no transcription)	68
0586thry	Ht windings — Folder (no transcription)	70
0587thry	Conductor dominated magnets — Folder (no transcription)	70
0588thry	Iron dominated magnets — Folder (no transcription)	69
0589thry	Over-relaxation — Folder (no transcription)	75
0590thry	Ripple (Eddy currents) — Folder (no transcription)	75
0591thry	Dipole with small gap bypass	93
0592thry	Displacement-caused change of force on coil in coil slot	93
0593thry	LEB-MEB symmetrical H dipole	92

•

-----

1.7

ć

.

٠

0594thry	Field lines, $\mu = \infty$ surface, from two filaments in vacuum, on boundary and inside or outside circular $\mu = \infty$ surface	92
0595thry	Load line for circular cylinder/sphere in uniform field	91
0596thry	2D ellipse with arbitrary (isotropic) $B(H)$ curve in homogenous external field	91
0597thry	Representation of magnetization data, for 3D sphere and 2D ellipse	91
0598thry	Conduction 2D iron cylinder and 3D sphere in AC field	91
0599thry	Geometry specific perturbation effects by mapping into infinitely wide dipole	91
0600thry	Perturbation harmonics in circular disk	91
0601thry	Mapping function POISSON geometry $\rightarrow$ circular disk	91
0602thry	Relations between expansion coefficients for perturbations in systems with mirror symmetry	91
0603thry	SSC dipole: analysis with 2DPERT2 using GEN1.DAT	91
0604thry	Determination of amplitude and phase of long coil	93
0605thry	Meaning of $C_n$ for one filament from 2DPERT in system that is symmetric with respect to x and y axes	91
0606thry	H magnet with minimal yoke flux density	93
0607thry	Stored energy in H magnet for $\mu = \infty$	93
0608thry	Some thoughts on generation of a set of 2D fields that are locally perpendicular to each other	93
0609thry	Comments about RAYTRACE	93
0610thry	Fringe field model function for dipoles	93
0611thry	Curvature of 2D Magnetic Field Lines and Scalar Potential Lines	94
0612thry	Some Thoughts on an Eddy Current Septum Magnet	94
0613thry	One Pulse Energy Deposition in Septum	94
0614thry	Geometry Specific Effects in Iron Dominated 2D Magnets	94