

Analysis of systematic errors in the frequency-based approach to estimating the deuteron electric dipole moment in a frozen spin storage ring

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Abstract

The purpose of the present work is to evaluate the capability of the frequency-based approach to the measurement of the electric dipole moment of a charged particle in a storage ring environment.

For that purpose, we analyzed several effects of the beam spin dynamics, which could result in systematic errors in the electric dipole moment estimator statistic. Those are: spin motion perturbations caused by betatron oscillations; spin decoherence in the frozen spin regime; properties of the magnetic dipole moment faking signal.

Keywords: electric dipole moment; frozen spin; spin transparency; spin dynamics; spin decoherence.

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1. Introduction

The search for the electric dipole moments of elementary particles is motivated by the question of the baryon asymmetry of the universe. In his seminal 1967 paper [1] A. Sakharov proposed CP-symmetry violation as one of the conditions for baryogenesis. Permanent electric dipole moments (EDMs), if they exist, violate both the P- and T-symmetries, and hence, via the CPT-theorem, can be linked to CP-symmetry violation.

At the same time, the Standard Model (SM) predicts exceedingly small values for nucleon EDMs, in the range of 10^{-33} to 10^{-31} e·cm, which is way below the current upper bound for the neutron EDM, with $d_n = 2.9 \cdot 10^{-26}$ e·cm. This implies that particle EDMs can serve as a powerful tool for discovering physics beyond the SM. For example, CP-violations that are endemic in supersymmetric theories (SUSY) are such as to span d_n values in the range of 10^{-29} to 10^{-24} e·cm. [2]

Up until now, all EDM-searching experiments were carried out with electrically-neutral particles, such as atoms or the neutron. The idea of searching of a charged particle's EDM in a storage ring environment appeared during the development of the g-2 experiment [3] in Brookhaven National Laboratory.

The original method proposal [4] consisted in observing a slow and gradual growth of the vertical component of polarization in an initially fully longitudinally-polarized beam injected into a storage ring in which spin precession due to the magnetic dipole moment (MDM) is suppressed. Since the MDM component of spin precession is assumed to be zero, the tilting of the polarization vector out of the orbit plane, which causes the growth of the vertical component, is an indication of the existence of something else that's turning the particles' spin-vectors. This something is presumed to be the EDM.

In the following, we will outline the frozen spin (FS) storage ring design concept, on which the above methodology rests. Then, we will describe the characteristic features of the frequency-based approach to EDM measurements. After that, we will present the results of our analysis of the three major spin dynamics effects affecting the measurements.

2. The Frozen Spin concept

The dynamics of a spin vector \vec{s} in a magnetic field \vec{B} and an electrostatic field \vec{E} is described by the Thomas-BMT equation. Its generalized version, accounting for the effect of the particle's electric dipole moment, can be written in the rest frame as:

$$\frac{d\vec{s}}{dt} = \vec{s} \times \underbrace{(\vec{\Omega}_{MDM} + \vec{\Omega}_{EDM})}_{\Omega_s}, \quad (1a)$$

where the magnetic (MDM) and electric (EDM) dipole moment angular velocities $\vec{\Omega}_{MDM}$ and $\vec{\Omega}_{EDM}$

$$\vec{\Omega}_{MDM} = \frac{q}{m} \left[G\vec{B} - \left(G - \frac{1}{\gamma^2 - 1} \right) \frac{\vec{E} \times \vec{\beta}}{c} \right], \quad (1b)$$

$$\vec{\Omega}_{EDM} = \frac{q}{m} \frac{\eta}{2} \left[\frac{\vec{E}}{c} + \vec{\beta} \times \vec{B} \right]. \quad (1c)$$

In the above equations, m , q , $G = (g - 2)/2$ are, respectively, the mass, charge, and anomalous magnetic moment of the particle; $\beta = v_0/c$ is its normalized speed; γ its Lorentz-factor. The EDM factor η is defined by the equation $d = \eta \frac{q}{2mc}$, in which d is the particle EDM, s its spin.

If the storage ring's radial electric field component [4, p. 10]

$$E_r = \frac{GB_y c \beta \gamma^2}{1 - G\beta^2 \gamma^2},$$

the MDM component in (1a) is set to zero: $\vec{\Omega}_{MDM} = \vec{0}$, and we are said to be operating in the frozen spin (also called “spin transparent”) regime.

In this case, the vertical polarization vector component is expected to be a harmonic signal

$$P_y = A \cdot \sin \left(\underbrace{\sqrt{(\omega_{edm} + \omega_{\langle E_v \rangle})^2 + \omega_y^2 + \omega_z^2}}_{\Omega} \cdot t + \delta \right), \quad (2)$$

where $\omega_{\langle E_v \rangle}$ denotes the MDM spin precession frequency generated by fields connected with machine imperfections. It is the primary source of systematic error in the storage ring EDM search experiment based on the classical, i.e. 3D, FS idea.

According to equation (2), two distinct measurement modes can be conceptualized in the FS measurement framework: *a)* the amplitude-, and *b)* the frequency-based methods.

In the former, all EDM-unrelated precession in the ring must first be suppressed; then, if the beam's polarization vector still keeps turning, it indicates to us that something else (the EDM) exists, that's turning it.

In the frequency-based methodology, on the other hand, spin precession is stopped only in the beam orbit plane, and the EDM indicator is the change to the vertical plane spin precession frequency under time reversal (the time reversal is simulated by reversing the beam circulation direction).

We call the state in which the beam particles' spins are frozen in the horizontal, but precess freely in the vertical, plane the 2D FS – or the spin wheel (SW) – state.

Three advantages follow from not freezing the spin precession in the vertical plane:

- (i) since we don't have to stop vertical plane MDM spin precession, lattice optical element alignment specifications aren't as stringent;
- (ii) it also means that the spin precession axis is more stable, which is a remedy for another major systematic error – geometric phase;
- (iii) and since we don't have to measure microradian deviations of the polarization vector from the beam orbit plane, the polarization measurement is much easier.

Standard terminology. For terminology's sake, we should note that in the standard formalism one operates with the spin transfer matrix [5, p. 4]

$$\mathbf{t}_R = \exp(-i\pi\nu_s\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{n}) = \cos \pi\nu_s - i(\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{n}) \sin \pi\nu_s,$$

where $\nu_s = \Omega_s/\Omega_{cyc}$, the ratio of the particle's spin precession frequency to its cyclotron frequency, is termed *spin tune*, and \vec{n} , termed the *invariant spin axis*, defines the spin precession axis. They relate to the spin precession angular velocity as in

$$\vec{\Omega}_s = \omega_{cyc} \cdot \nu_s \vec{n}.$$

3. The characteristic features of the frequency-based methodology

4. Effects of spin dynamics

4.1. Betatron oscillations

4.1.1. Problem statement

The problem of the betatron motion is as follows:

- a) the EDM statistic is composed from two estimates of the spin precession frequency; in one the EDM and MDM effects add up, in the other subtract:

$$\begin{cases} \hat{\omega}_{edm} &= \frac{1}{2}(\hat{\omega}_x^+ + \hat{\omega}_x^-), \\ \omega_x^\pm &= \omega_{edm} \pm \omega_{mdm}. \end{cases}$$

- b) Those frequencies are estimated via fitting a harmonic function with constant parameters to polarimetry data:

$$\begin{cases} f(t) &= a \cdot \sin(\omega_x \cdot t + \delta) \mapsto \hat{\omega}_x, \\ (a, \omega_x, \delta) &= \text{const.} \end{cases}$$

- c) At the same time, the solution of the T-BMT equation for the vertical spin vector component has a non-constant amplitude $a = \sqrt{\bar{n}_x^2 + (\bar{n}_y \cdot \bar{n}_z)^2}$ for a betatron-oscillating particle.

4.1.2. Simulation setup

In the simulation we used a FS lattice with bent E+B-field spin rotators shown in Figure 1. We used an imperfect machine; imperfections were simulated by spin-rotator tilts about the optic axis. The tilt angles were normally-distributed, each trial the expectation of the tilt distribution was varied. The non-zero expectation value simulates the application of a spin wheel driver. Imperfections introduced in this way affect only the particle spin dynamics, leaving the orbital dynamics the same for every trial.

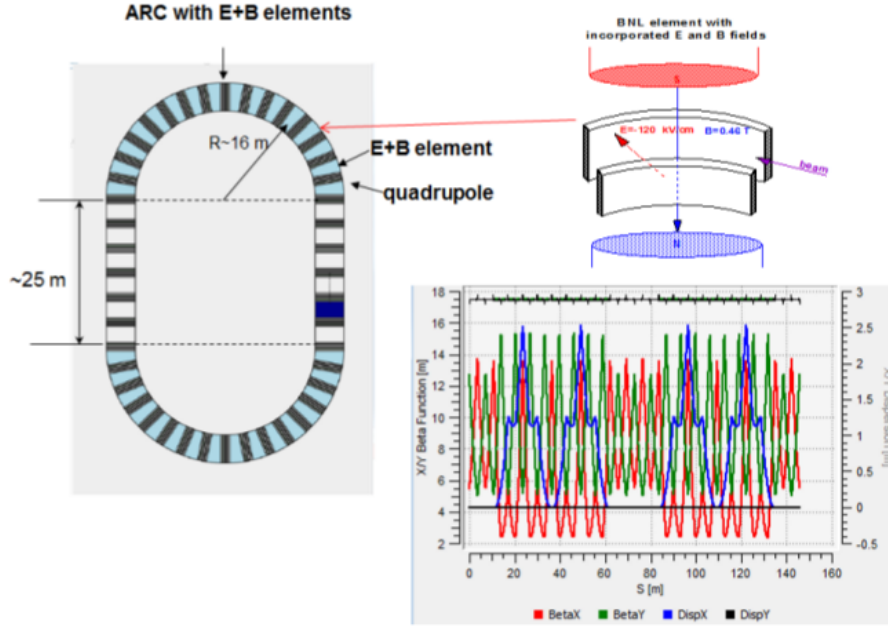


Figure 1: Frozen Spin lattice used in all simulations. Bent E+B-field spin-rotators are inserted into the arc sections. The lattice length is 146 m, the beam injection energy is 270 MeV. Image taken from [13].

Particles injected into the lattice were betatron-scillating in the vertical plane

for the most part. Since 270 MeV is not exactly the FS energy¹ for this lattice, the radial component of the spin precession axis is fairly small. This, however, does not pose a problem for this particular simulations, since it only amplifies the effect of vertical betatron oscillations, which were being studied.

In the analysis we used three data sets. The s_y^{trk} time series was taken directly from the COSY Infinity [6] tracker. The s_y^{gen} were data generated using a harmonic function with varying amplitude and frequency; the amplitude and frequency values at time t were computed based on the invariant spin axis and spin tune time series obtained during COSY Infinity tracking. The s_y^{idl} data series was also computed from the harmonic signal, but constant estimates of amplitude and frequency were used.

From the data series, two comparator statistics/residuals were computed:

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon_1(t) &= s_y^{gen}(t) - s_y^{idl}(t), & (\text{generator residual}) \\ \epsilon_2(t) &= s_y^{trk}(t) - s_y^{idl}(t). & (\text{tracker residual})\end{aligned}$$

The tracker residual serves as an estimate of the amplitude oscillations caused by the particle's betatron motion, and hence it is the primary statistic for analysis.

4.1.3. Simulation results and conclusions

In Figure 2 are shown the time-dependencies of the comparator residuals. These are plots for the particle with the largest (3 mm) amplitude of betatron oscillations. We observe that even in this case the tracker residual's oscillation amplitude does not exceed 10^{-5} ; for a whole ensemble of particles, this value can only be smaller, due to the averaging effect.

The amplitude growth in the generator residual's case is due to the difference between the ideal and generator signal's oscillation frequencies, which is a consequence of the way in which we defined the ideal signal's parameters.

Figure 3 presents the most significant simulation results. We make two observations:

- (1) the comparator's standard deviations follow the same functional dependence on the SW driver's strength as the spin tune's, and do not show any interest in the behavior of the spin precession axis;
- (2) the variability of the precession axis grows smaller as the driver strength increases. This is what we referred to as advantage (ii) of the frequency-based approach.

This simulation was set up so as to check the robustness of the frequency-based approach's EDM statistic with regard to perturbations to the particle spin dynamics; specifically, those that cause the invariant spin axis to change its orientation. Even though the only source of perturbation we used was the

¹The more precise value is 270.0092 MeV

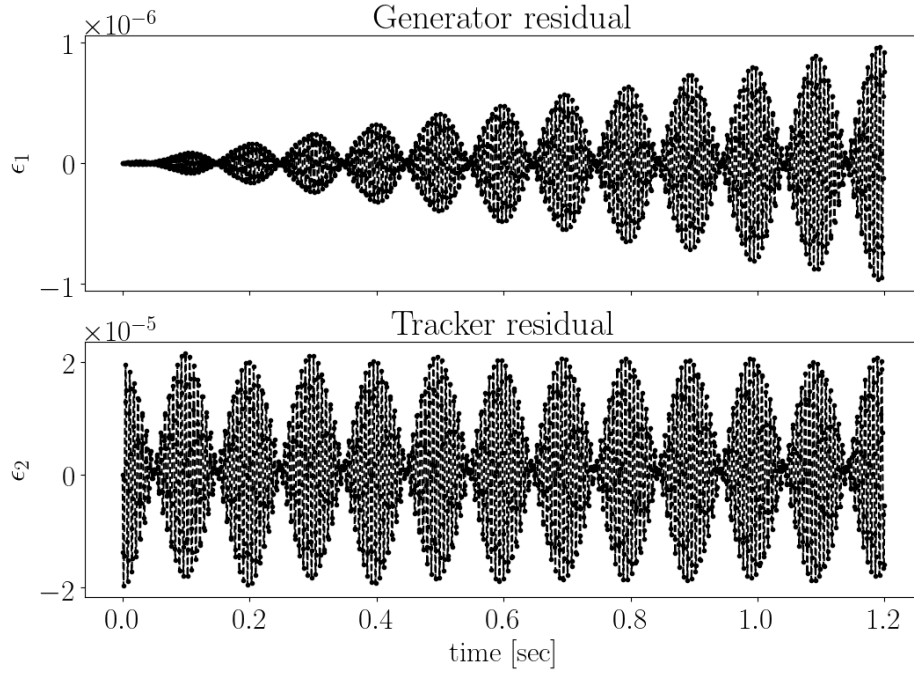


Figure 2: Comparator statistics' time-dependence.

particles' betatron motion, some general conclusions can be inferred from the results:

- (1) The amplitude oscillations are small, as evidenced by Figure 2 (directly), and the residual standard deviation plots in Figure 3a (indirectly). We expect the random polarization measurement error to occur at the percent level, which means that the superposition of this systematic error with the random measurement error should not exhibit any statistically-significant systematicity.
- (2) The correlation coefficient between the \hat{a} - and $\hat{\omega}_x$ -estimates is less than 10%. The measured signal's amplitude oscillations affect the amplitude estimate in the first place, while their effect on the frequency estimate is described by the correlation coefficient. Since it is small, even if our first conclusion is false, and the amplitude oscillations are sufficient to bias the \hat{a} -estimate, their effect on the frequency estimate will be attenuated by at least a factor of 10.
- (3) This systematic effect is controllable. This can be observed in Figure 3b, where the precession axis' variability goes down with the SW roll rate. The frequency-based approach permits the application of a SW driver in a reasonably wide strength range.

4.2. Spin decoherence

4.2.1. Origins

According to equation $\nu_s = \gamma G$, a particle's spin tune depends on its energy. Because particles in a bunch travel different length orbits, their equilibrium energy levels also experience a dispersion. As a consequence, their spin vectors precess at different rates, which is the immediate cause of decoherence.

In Figure 4a one can see the longitudinal phase space portraits of particles doing betatron oscillations in the vertical plane. The centers of the ellipses indicate the particles' equilibrium energy levels. Data used in the drawing of this figure was obtained in a simulation in which third-order spin and orbital transfer maps were utilized. Compare with the linear theory prediction, represented in Figure 4b.

4.2.2. Theory behind the sextupole decoherence suppression technique

Our hypothesis is that decoherence is a result of the dispersion in the particle equilibrium energy levels. If one solves the system of equations for the longitudinal particle dynamics,² assuming a non-linear momentum compaction factor $\alpha = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \cdot \delta$, one will obtain the following general expression for the equilibrium level momentum shift:

$$\Delta\delta_{eq} = \frac{\gamma_0^2}{\gamma_0^2\alpha_0 - 1} \left[\frac{\delta_m^2}{2} (\alpha_1 - \alpha_0\gamma_0^{-2} + \gamma_0^{-4}) + \left(\frac{\Delta L}{L} \right)_\beta \right]. \quad (3)$$

In the above equation:

- a) $\delta = \Delta p/p$ is the particle's momentum offset³;
- b) γ_0 is the Lorentz factor of the reference particle;
- c) $\left(\frac{\Delta L}{L} \right)_\beta = \frac{\pi}{2L} [\epsilon_x Q_z + \epsilon_y Q_y]$ is the orbit lengthening due to betatron oscillations;
- d) $\epsilon_{x,y}$ are, respectively, the horizontal and vertical transverse emittances, $Q_{x,y}$ the corresponding betatron tunes.

The expression (3) contains two terms: the first has to do with the non-linear momentum compaction factor, the second with the particle orbit length.

If one inserts a sextupole of strength

$$S_{sext} = \frac{1}{B\rho} \frac{\partial^2 B_y}{\partial x^2} \quad (4)$$

²For details, please cf. reference [15].

³ δ_m is the amplitude of synchrotron oscillations.

into the beam line, its field will first of all affect the particle trajectories:

$$\left(\frac{\Delta L}{L}\right)_{sext} = \mp \frac{S_{sext} D_0 \beta_{x,y} \varepsilon_{x,y}}{L}, \quad (5)$$

and second — it will modify the non-linear part of the momentum compaction factor:

$$\Delta\alpha_{1,sext} = -\frac{S_{sext} D_0^3}{L}. \quad (6)$$

We call equation (5) the orbit length effect, equation (6) the momentum compaction factor effect. In the following sections we will try to analyze the signatures of these effects in spin tune data.

4.2.3. Sextupole field effect signatures

Momentum compaction factor effect. In Figure 5a is drawn the dependence of a particle's mean spin tune level on its mean energy level. In this simulation we injected an ensemble of particles with differing initial energy offsets on the closed orbit of the FS lattice from Figure 1. Since the sextupole fields do not affect the closed orbit, this simulation tests only for the momentum compaction factor effect.

The plot exhibits two features:

- (1) the functional dependence $\langle\nu_s\rangle(\langle\Delta K/K\rangle)$ changes with the field gradient;
- (2) the point density distribution does not vary.

In Figure 5b we drew the particles' longitudinal phase space portraits. We observe no change in the portraits when the sextupole field gradient is varied, which is attributed to the particle orbit lengths' not changing.

Orbit length effect. In this simulation, particles were injected at the same initial energy, but different vertical offsets from the closed orbit. Because of that, they do betatron oscillations, and as a result, synchrotron oscillations. As a consequence of equation (3), we should anticipate both sextupole field effects in this simulation.

As predicted, Figure 6a exhibits two features:

- (1) the functional dependence $\langle\nu_s\rangle(\langle\Delta K/K\rangle)$ changes as in the previous simulation;
- (2) the point density distribution changes also.

In Figure 6b we see that the phase portraits compress when the sextupole field gradient is changed. This compression corresponds to the point density change, seen in Figure 6a.

Conclusions. The above analysis brought us to the following conclusions:

- (1) The signature of the sextupole fields' momentum compaction factor effect is the change in the functional form of the mean spin tune dependence on the particle's mean energy level $\langle \nu_s \rangle (\langle \Delta K/K \rangle)$.
- (2) The pure orbit length effect is the reduction in the dispersion of the mean energy levels.

Contrary to our original intuition, the minimization of the dispersion in the mean energy levels does not effect the desired minimization in the dispersion of the particles' spin tunes. In Figure 6a, for example, we see that the sextupole gradient value corresponding to the minimal $\sigma [\Delta K/K]$ is not optimal in terms of $\sigma [\langle \nu_s \rangle]$, while at the optimal value, the $\Delta K/K$ dispersion does not matter at all.

4.2.4. *Decoherence suppression in an ideal lattice*

In the lattice from Figure 1 three families of sextupoles are used: one is to reduce spin decoherence associated with horizontal plane betatron oscillations, one with vertical, and one with synchrotron oscillations.

In order to test the effect of each sextupole family, we injected two planar bunches (with particles offset from the closed orbit in, respectively, the x- and y-coordinates), and a bunch, whose particles had non-zero initial momentum offsets. Figure 7 shows the simulation results.

One can see that the parabolic term disappears when the corresponding sextupoles are turned on in each case, which is the expected effect; the remaining linear term is insensitive to the sextupole fields. Currently, we don't exactly know its source.

4.2.5. *Decoherence in an imperfect lattice*

There exists another approach to suppressing spin decoherence: the spin wheel measurement method. [7] The basic idea there is to insert a solenoid generating a radial magnetic field into the (ideal) beamline. The beam particles' spin vectors precess incoherently in the horizontal plane – the cause of horizontal plane decoherence. A sufficiently high solenoid field will precess them coherently in the vertical plane. The coherent precession is then assumed to be the dominant one, hence the conclusion that decoherence is suppressed.

The purpose of the following simulation is to show two things: *a)* that the spin wheel technique does not suppress decoherence, *b)* that the sextupole fields technique still does even in an imperfect lattice.

In the simulation we used an imperfect lattice, with imperfections introduced in the same way as in section 4.1.2. Because of imperfections, a radial magnetic field exists, that simulates the introduction of a SW-driving solenoid into the beam line.

Thirty particles were distributed uniformly in the vertical plane at injection. We tracked this beam through the lattice for $20 \cdot 10^6$ turns (20 seconds). Every

$2 \cdot 10^4$ turns particles' spin vector components were recorded, and their dispersion (estimated as the standard deviation) was used as a decoherence measure. In Figure 8 are shown the dispersions for the radial and vertical spin vector components, when the sextupoles are turned off. Figure 8a shows the dispersion for the radial component, and we see that it goes up and down within bounds but does not accumulate (which is indicated by a statistically insignificant slope of the trend line labeled “slp”). This means that there is no spin decoherence in the horizontal plane when particle spin vectors precess in the vertical plane. However, if one turns to Figure 8b, one will observe the accumulation, as evidenced by the slope of the trend line being seven standard deviations removed from zero; meaning that decoherence just transferred from the horizontal, into the vertical plane.

As the next step we turned on the sextupole fields. The results are presented in Figure 9. We see that qualitatively nothing changed for the horizontal plane (except the dispersion bounds are a factor of 10 less), while in the vertical plane the accumulation trend vanished. Hence we conclude that the decoherence-suppressing effect of sextupole fields is plane-independent.

4.3. MDM faking signal

4.3.1. Problem statement

For this investigation, the primary cause for concern were machine imperfections resulting from accelerator element tilts about the optic axis, because they induce a radial MDM angular velocity component, which precesses particle spin vectors in the same plane as the EDM, thus resulting in a faking signal.

The standard deviation of the distribution of the erroneous spin precession angular velocity component

$$\sigma [\Omega_x^{MDM}] = \frac{q}{m\gamma} \frac{G+1}{\gamma} \frac{\sigma [B_x]}{\sqrt{n}}, \quad (7)$$

where n is the number of imperfections contributing the radial magnetic field component B_x (or its equivalent E_y).

For the assessment of the capabilities of the frequency-based methodology, we need to answer two questions:

- (1) Is the erroneous component independent of the particular element tilt angle distribution, i.e. is it a linear function $\Omega_x^{MDM} = L(\langle \theta_{tilt} \rangle)$ of the *mean* tilt angle?
- (2) Is it (anti-)symmetric relative to time-reversal, i.e., $|\Omega_x^{MDM,CW}| = |\Omega_x^{MDM,CCW}|$?

What these questions add up to is: will the faking signal change sign, if we inject the beam in the opposite direction? If it does, since the EDM angular velocity will not, we can eliminate the faking signal from the final statistic.

We analyzed the same lattice, with the same way of introducing machine imperfections, as in the previous cases. In total, 11 simulations were done, in each of which we varied the tilt angle distribution's expectation value. Spin and

orbital transfer maps were computed up to the third order Taylor expansion; in view of our spin decoherence suppression simulation results⁴ we were only looking at the behavior of the closed orbit particle. The injection energy is 270.0092 MeV (the precise FS energy for this lattice; i.e. the invariant spin axis is radially-orientated).

4.3.2. Results and conclusions

Results. In Figure 10 is drawn the dependence of the spin precession angular velocity vector's radial and vertical components on the mean E+B element tilt angle distribution. We observe that regardless of the particular distribution, all data points lie perfectly on the same straight line, which indicates a lack of dependence on anything but the mean angle.

In Figure 11 are presented the relative differences between the clockwise (CW) and counter-clockwise (CCW) beams' radial invariant spin axis component and spin precession frequency at different mean E+B tilt angles. As before, the non-zero average tilt angle is equivalent to the presence of a spin wheel driver in the lattice. We varied the strength of the SW driver in two ranges: first in a bigger one, then smaller. What we observed is that in both ranges the compared variables have similar values for the CW vs CCW beams; in the case of frequency, though, the similarity is the better, the higher is the SW driver's strength (i.e. the faster the spin wheel is rolling).

We used Figure 10 to estimate what vertical spin precession frequency could be expected as a result of misalignments. Assuming the number of misaligned elements $n = 100$, and $\sigma[\theta_{tilt}] = 10^{-4}$ rad, we computed $\sigma[\langle\theta_{tilt}\rangle] = 10^{-5}$. This gives us a confidence interval estimate, presented as Table 1. There's a 28% chance to encounter a $\Omega_x^{MDM} \in [50, 100]$ rad/sec.

Table 1: Probability to encounter an MDM-related EDM-faking signal less than Ω^{max}

Ω^{max} [rad/sec]	$P(\Omega_x^{MDM} < \Omega^{max})$
50	67%
100	95%

Conclusions.

- (1) We confirmed that the MDM component of the spin precession angular velocity vector depends only on the expectation value, but not the form, of the lattice's imperfection distribution,⁵ i.e. its *linearity*.
- (2) We've observed some *asymmetry*, likely due to the difference between the CW and CCW beams' closed orbits.

⁴Meaning, when the sextupole fields are turned on, spin tune becomes independent of the particle trajectory, be it the closed or any of the betatron orbits.

⁵This has been confirmed only for the specific lattice we used, whose imperfections do not perturb the closed orbit.

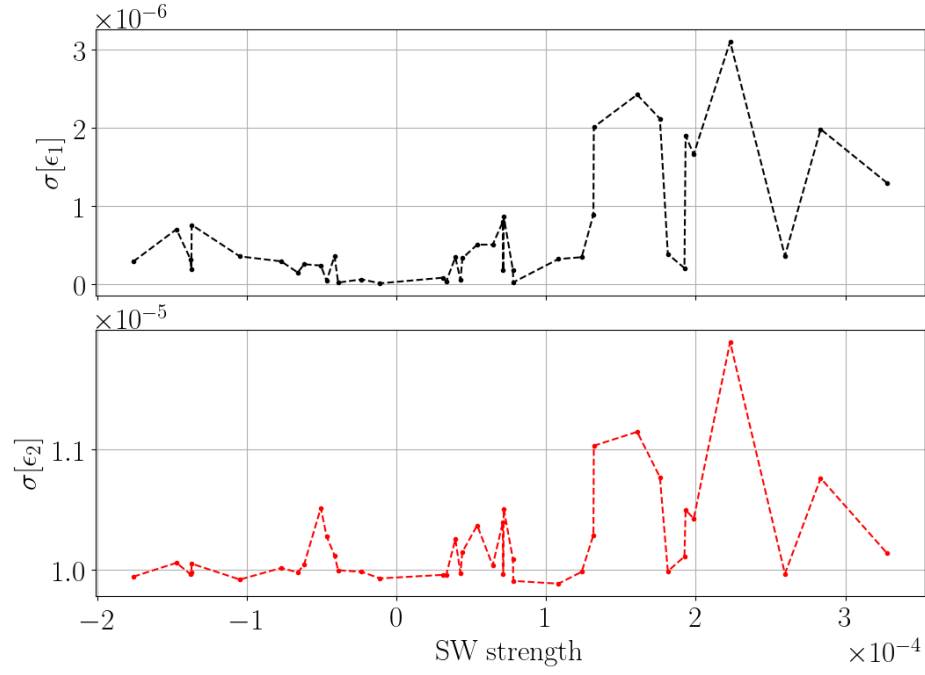
- (3) The asymmetry is less pronounced at higher spin wheel roll rates.

5. Conclusions

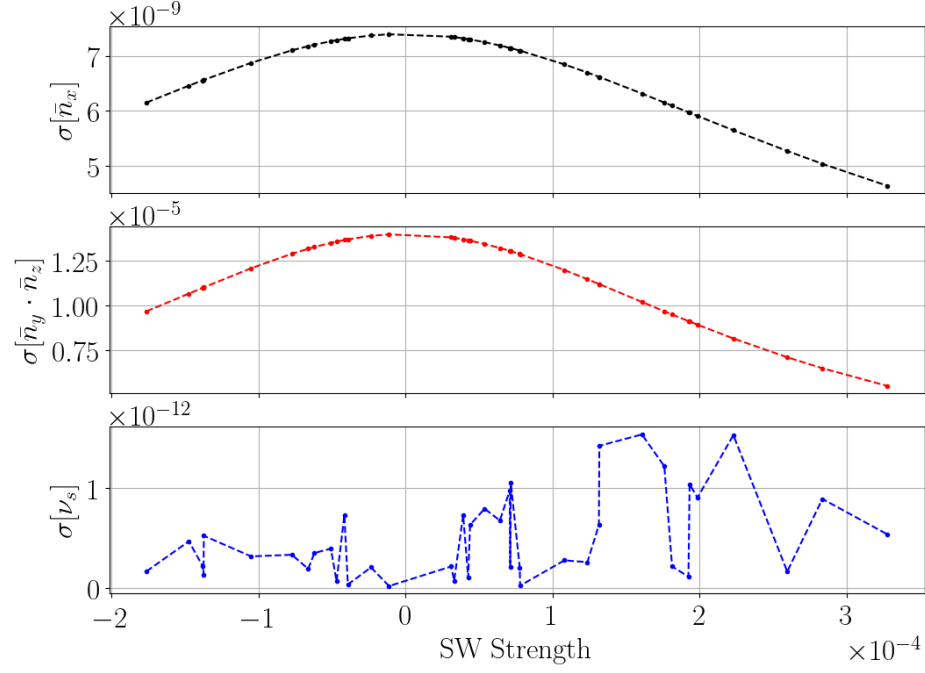
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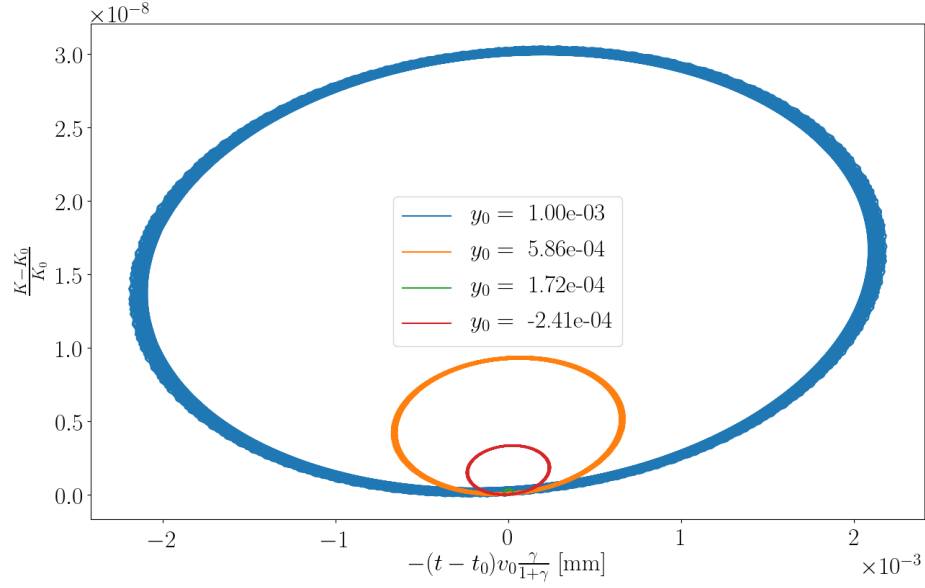


(a) Standard deviations of the comparator statistics versus the SW driver's relative strength.

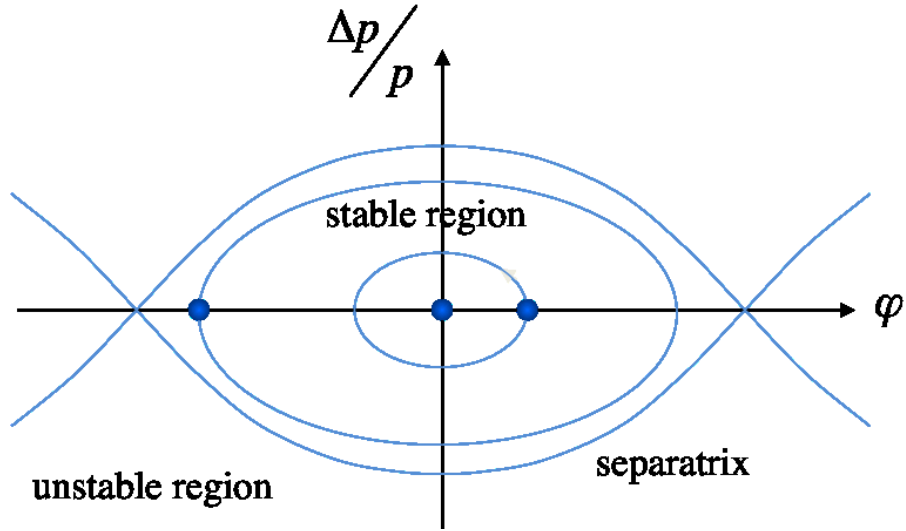


(b) The same statistic for the spin precession axis components and spin tune.

Figure 3: Effect of betatron oscillations on the particle spin dynamics simulation results.

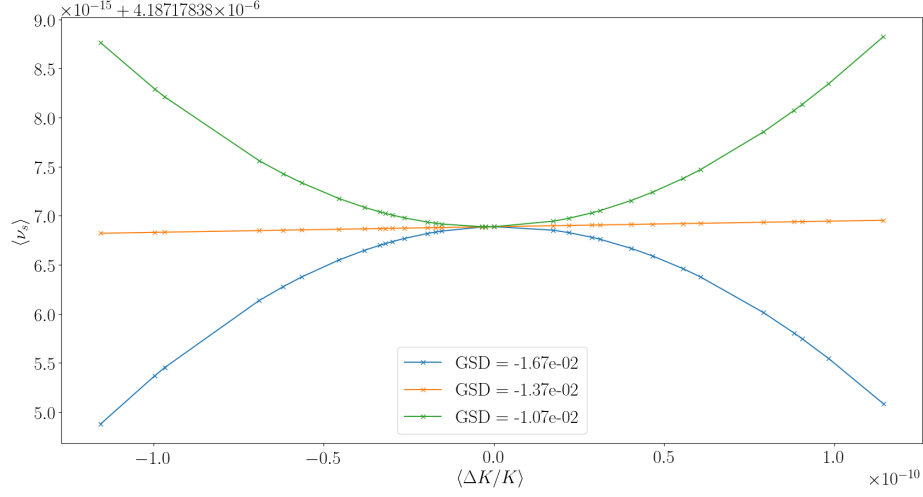


(a) Particles do vertical plane betatron oscillations. Colors mark the particles' vertical offsets at injection; all other initial coordinate offsets are zero. Third-order transfer maps were used in the computation of this plot's data.

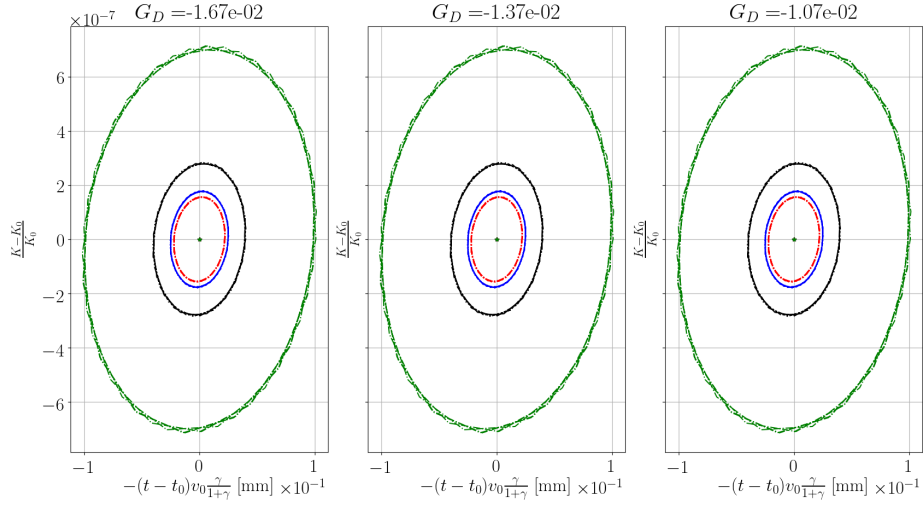


(b) Classic text-book image computed from a linear theory. All ellipses are centered on one point, i.e. all particles have the same equilibrium energy.

Figure 4: Longitudinal phase space portraits in a lattice using RF bunching.

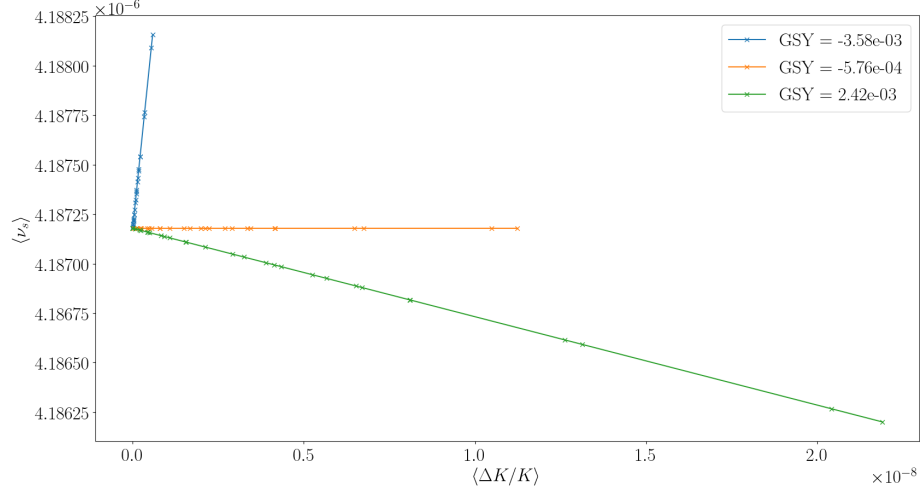


(a) Dependence of the mean level of a particle's spin tune on its mean energy level. Colors mark different sextupole field gradients. The functional form of the dependence changes with the field strength.

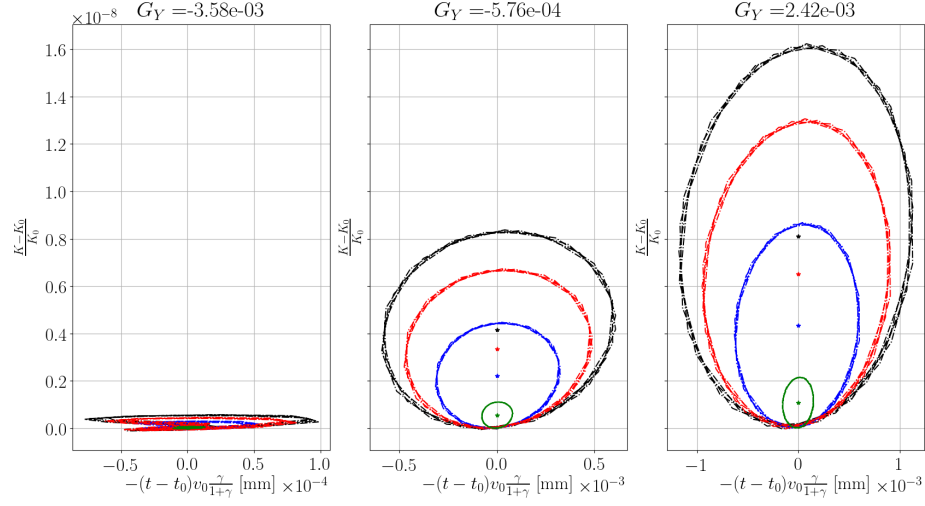


(b) Longitudinal phase space portraits of the injected particles. Particles were injected on the closed orbit, hence the sextupole fields do not affect their orbit length. No change is observed when the field strength changes.

Figure 5: Analysis of the sextupole fields' momentum compaction factor effect.

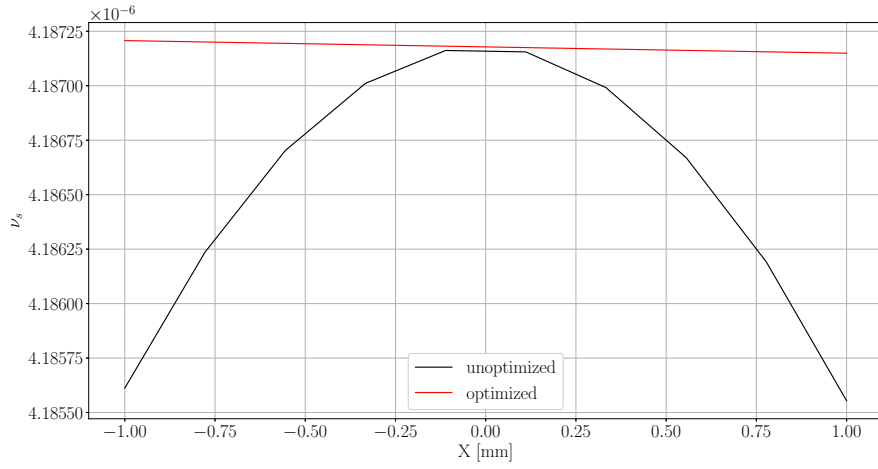


(a) Dependence of the mean level of a particle's spin tune on its mean energy level. Colors mark different sextupole field gradients. The functional form of the dependence changes with the field strength.

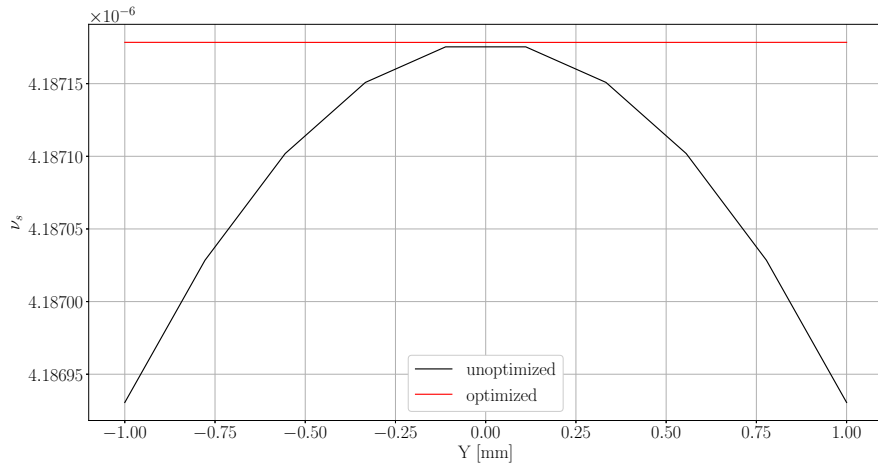


(b) Longitudinal phase space portraits of the injected particles. Particles were injected on different betatron orbits, hence sextupole fields modify their orbit lengths. Portraits compress when the fields strength is varied.

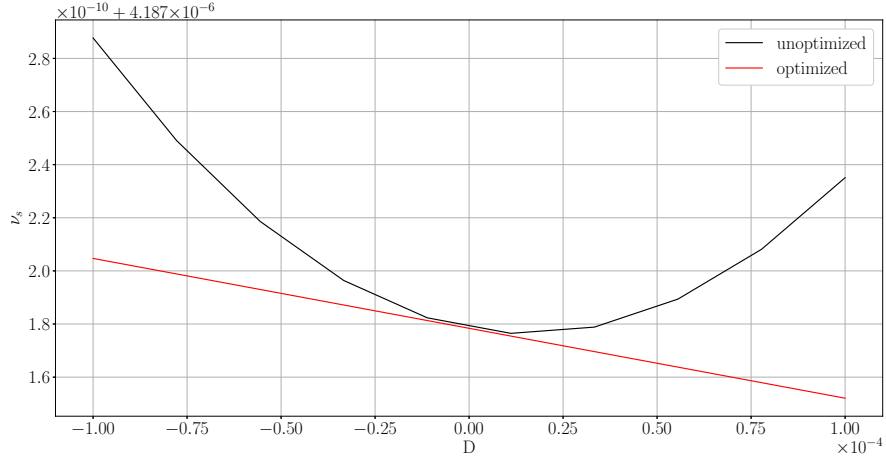
Figure 6: Analysis of the sextupole fields' orbit length effect.



(a) Horizontal plane betatron oscillations.

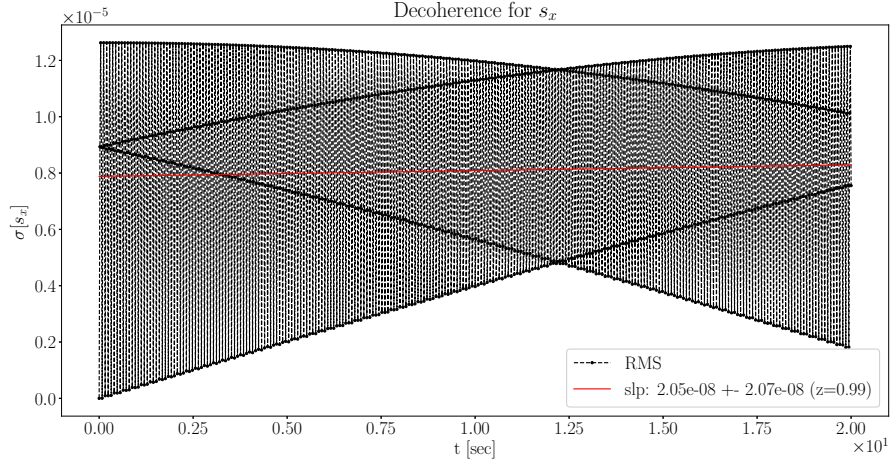


(b) Vertical plane betatron oscillations.

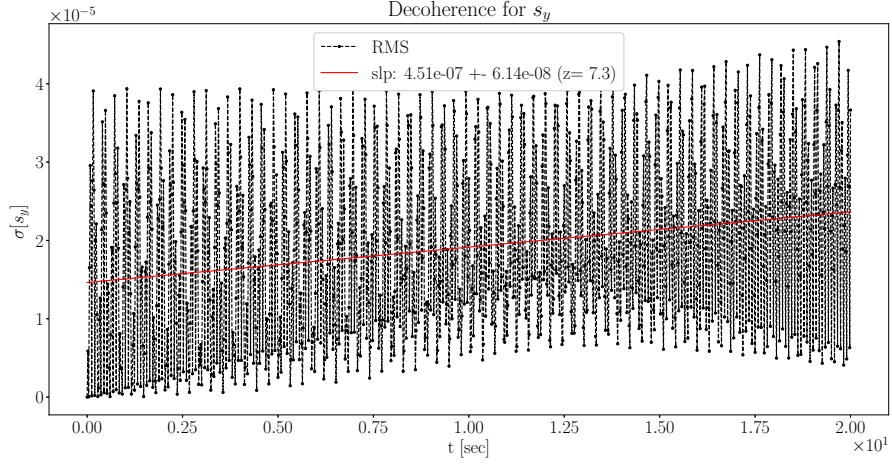


(c) Synchrotron oscillations.

Figure 7: Spin tune dependence on the initial particle offset from the reference value in one of the three phase space coordinates: X, Y, or $D \equiv \delta$. The black line represents that dependence prior to turning on the sextupole family responsible for the suppression of the corresponding decoherence type, red one after. We observe that in each case the parabolic term disappears when the sextupoles are turned on. The remaining linear term is insensitive to the sextupole fields.

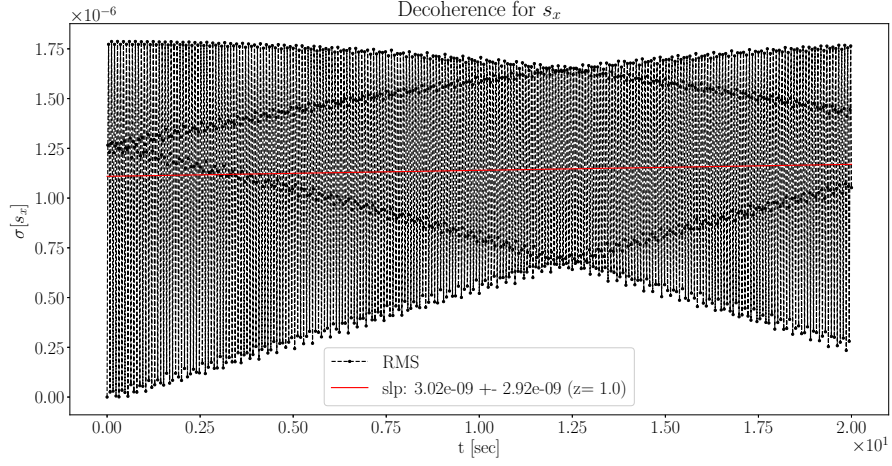


(a) Radial component distribution standard deviation.

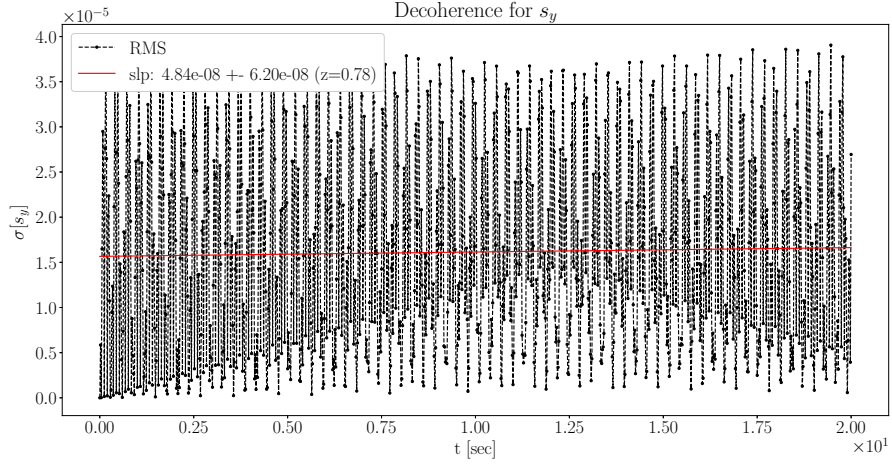


(b) Vertical component distribution standard deviation.

Figure 8: Standard deviation of the ensemble spin vector component distribution plotted against time. The standard deviation is used as a (local) decoherence measure. The red trend line is used to characterize the global decoherence behavior. We observe that the slope of the trend line is statistically insignificant in the case of the radial spin vector component, but is seven standard deviations removed from zero in for the vertical component. This means that there's no horizontal plane decoherence, but particle spin vectors disperse in the vertical plane. Sextupoles are turned off in this simulation.



(a) Radial component distribution standard deviation.



(b) Vertical component distribution standard deviation.

Figure 9: The same plots as in Figure 8, but in this case the sextupoles are turned on.

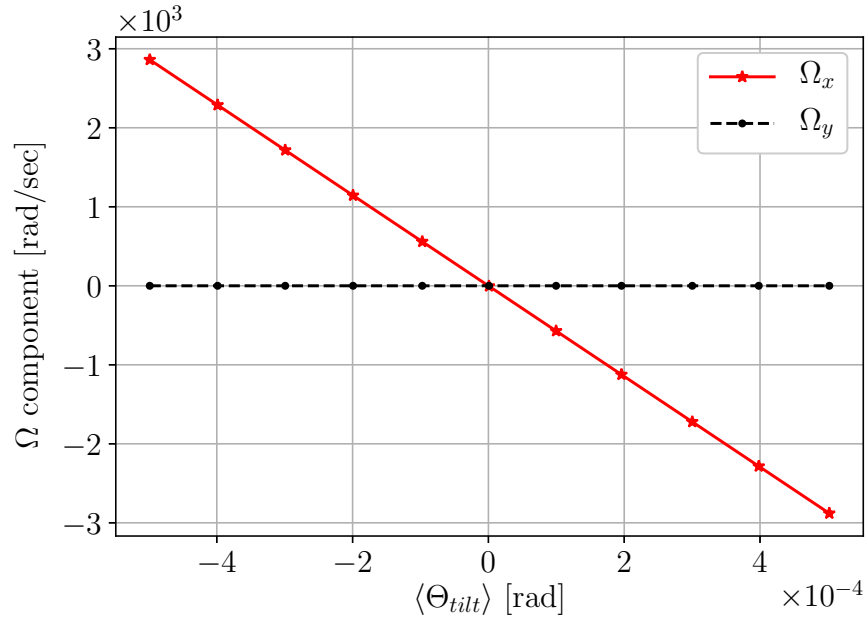
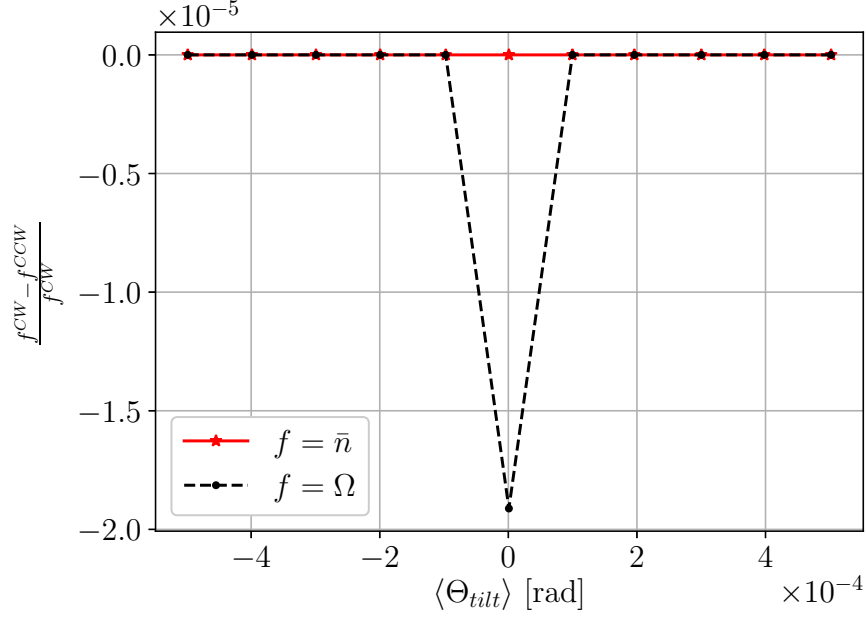
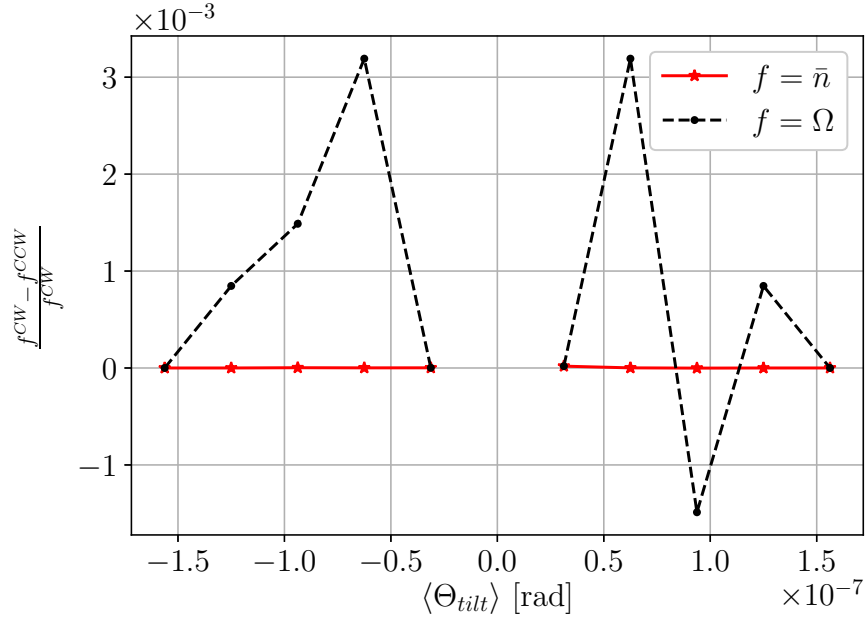


Figure 10: Components of the spin precession angular velocity vector for the reference particle plotted against the mean spin-rotator tilt angle. Each data point corresponds to a different tilt angle distribution; however, the vector components do not exhibit any pattern other than the linear dependence on the mean angle.



(a) Bigger SW driver strength range.



(b) Smaller SW driver strength range.

Figure 11: Relative difference between the clockwise and counter-clockwise beams' radial invariant spin axis component and precession frequency at different SW driver strengths. The compared variables are fairly similar; in the frequency case the similarity is the better, the greater the strength of the SW driver.