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Abstract Dummy Page.

Contents

1	Introduction	5
1.1	Project Purpose and Goal	5
1.2	Previous Work	5
2	Background	6
2.1	Electromagnetic Fields	6
2.1.1	Magnetic Flux and Induction	7
2.2	Series decompositions of the magnetic field	8
2.2.1	Cylindrical Coordinates	8
2.2.2	Bessel Functions	10
2.2.3	Bessel-Fourier-Fourier Series	11
2.3	Signal Processing	11
2.3.1	Filters	11
2.3.2	Least Squares Fitting	11
3	The Translating Coil Magnetometer	13
3.1	PCB printed coils	13
3.2	Positional Encoder	13
3.3	Geometric Lidar Measurements	13
3.4	Fast Digital Integrators	13
3.5	The Measurement Assembly	13
4	Measurements	14
4.1	Solenoidal Field Maps	14
4.2	The Magnet-Magnetometer Yaw Angle Peak Shift	14
5	Post Processing	15
5.1	Lidar Scans	15
5.2	Coil Induction Analysis	15
5.3	Bessel-Fourier-Fourier Series Fitting	15
5.4	Estimating the Magnet-Magnetometer Yaw Angle	15
6	Discussion	16
6.1	Metrological Characterization	16
6.2	Future Design Considerations	16
	References	17

1. Introduction

Might move below to abstract.

At CERN, a new electron cooler is being commissioned for the AD experiment. This cooler shoots electrons into ion-beam path. These electrons then collide with the beam particles, and momentum is transferred from the beam particles to the electrons. The electrons are then steered away from the beam path, into an electron collector.

In the beam path drift of the cooler, a solenoid magnet is used to orient the electron path. This magnet comes with strict requirements on field quality, in the order of $\vec{B}_\perp/\vec{B}_\parallel < 10\text{E}-10$. A new measurement system for solenoids has been proposed, using coils wound on a pcb. This pcb is then translated through the solenoid aperture, to obtain maps of the magnetic field. In this thesis, the metrological characterization of this system is presented, along with some post processing methods.

1.1 Project Purpose and Goal

1.2 Previous Work

2. Background

2.1 Electromagnetic Fields

The electromagnetic fields are a collection of closely linked fields. These fields govern the electric and magnetic interactions of charged particles and domains. These fields can be seen in table 2.1

Field	SI unit	Description
H	$1 A m^{-1}$	Magnetic Field
E	$1 V m^{-1}$	Electric Field
B	$1 V s m^{-2}$	Magnetic Flux Density
D	$1 A s m^{-2}$	Electric Flux Density
J	$1 A m^{-2}$	Electric Current Density
ρ	$1 A s m^{-3}$	Electric Charge Density

These fields are described by Maxwells Equations. In differential form for the stationary case, these are as follows:

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{J} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{D} \quad (2.1)$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{B} \quad (2.2)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0 \quad (2.3)$$

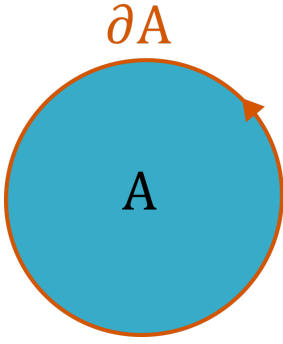
$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \rho \quad (2.4)$$

Since we're dealing with measurement of magnetic fields in this thesis, equations 2.1 and 2.3 will naturally be of the most interest. In simple cases, the **H**, **D**, **E** and **B** field obey the easy relations

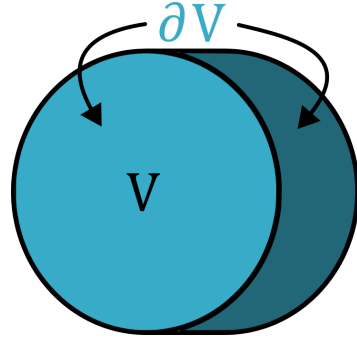
$$\mathbf{B} = \mu \mathbf{H} \quad (2.5)$$

$$\mathbf{D} = \epsilon \mathbf{E} \quad (2.6)$$

where μ is the *magnetic permeability* and ϵ is the *electric permittivity* in the domain of interest. Formally, simple cases are where the fields are located in a medium that is linear, homogenous across its domain, invariant depending on



(a) An area A and its boundary ∂A .



(b) A volume V and its surface boundary ∂V .

direction, and stationary. Since the magnetic measurements are made inside the empty aperture of the magnet, the domain is only made up of air. Thus, equation 2.5 holds, and the magnetic permeability is the one of free space, that is $\mu = \mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{Hm}^{-1}$. [?, Ch.4.1-4.4]

2.1.1 Magnetic Flux and Induction

Magnetic flux Φ is the surface integral of the \mathbf{B} field along the normal vector to the surface. Mathematically, it is defined as:

$$\Phi(A) = \iint_A \mathbf{B} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} dA \quad (2.7)$$

where A is the surface, and $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ is the normal vector to the surface. We then have the following governing laws of electromagnetism for objects at rest:

$$U(\partial A) = -\frac{d}{dt} \Phi(A) \quad (2.8)$$

$$\Phi(\partial V) = 0 \quad (2.9)$$

Equation 2.8, also called faradays law, describes the voltage ε induced in a length of wire ∂A , enclosing an area A , when the magnetic flux Φ is changing with respect to time. The signs of U and Φ obey the right hand rule as indicated in figure 2.1a.

Equation 2.9 states that the total amount of flux flowing through the boundary ∂V of the volume V must equal 0.[2, Ch.4.1.1]

2.2 Series decompositions of the magnetic field

The magnetic field can be calculated in some different ways, for instance directly from Maxwells equations or using Biot-Savarts law:

$$\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int_V \frac{\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{r}') \times (\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}')}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|^3} dV \quad (2.10)$$

where $\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r})$ is the \mathbf{B} field at coordinate \mathbf{r} and $\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{r}')$ is the current distribution at coordinate \mathbf{r}' . [?, Ch.5.4] Except for very simple geometries, the magnetic field is rarely expressible using elementary functions. A common method is then to express it using fourier series solutions inside a specified domain. [?, Ch.6]

Inside the aperture of a magnet, the domain is free of currents and made up of air or vacuum. The current powering the magnet is constant, meaning we have a constant electric field. Equation 2.1 can then be rewritten as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \times \mathbf{H} &= \mu_0 \nabla \times \mathbf{B} \\ \mu_0 \nabla \times \mathbf{B} &= \mathbf{J} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{D} \bigg|_{\substack{\mathbf{J}=0 \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{D}=0}} \\ &= \mathbf{0} \end{aligned} \quad (2.11)$$

This, along with equation 2.3 means that there exists a magnetic scalar potential $\Psi(\mathbf{r})$ of \mathbf{B} that satisfies Laplace's equation

$$\nabla^2 \Psi = \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial z^2} = 0 \quad (2.12)$$

inside the domain, where the \mathbf{B} field components are

$$B_x = \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x}, B_y = \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial y}, B_z = \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial z} \quad (2.13)$$

2.2.1 Cylindrical Coordinates

Since the aperture of our magnet is cylindrical, working in cylindrical coordinates (r, φ, z) is a natural choice. They are related to the cartesian system (x, y, z) through the relations:

$$\begin{aligned} x &= r \cos \varphi \\ y &= r \sin \varphi \\ z &= z \end{aligned} \quad (2.14)$$

A vector \mathbf{v} is defined by its distance r from the origin, its angle ϕ from the x -axis, and its offset in z as $\mathbf{v}(r, \phi, z) = (r \cos \phi, r \sin \phi, z)$. Where in cartesian coordinates we have the basis vectors $\hat{\mathbf{e}}_x, \hat{\mathbf{e}}_y, \hat{\mathbf{e}}_z$ along the x, y and z axis, in cylindrical coordinates we have $\hat{\mathbf{e}}_r, \hat{\mathbf{e}}_\phi, \hat{\mathbf{e}}_z$ as illustrated in figure 2.2. Note that $\hat{\mathbf{e}}_r$ and $\hat{\mathbf{e}}_\phi$ change direction depending on the current value of ϕ .

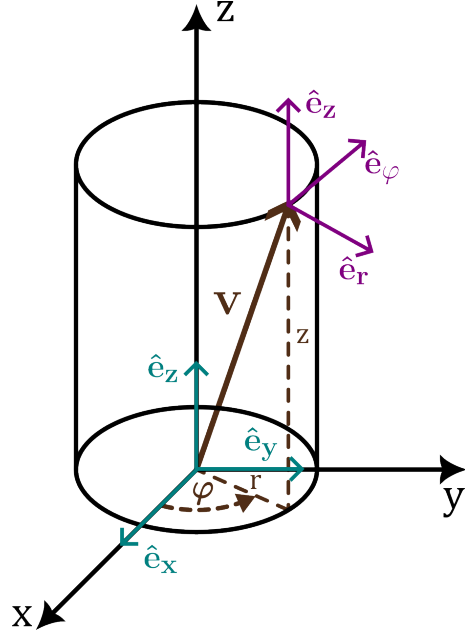


Figure 2.2. Cylindrical coordinates and their relationship to cartesian coordinates.

Scaling Factors

In cylindrical coordinates, scaling factors are needed for common differential operators. For a scalar field $\Psi(r, \phi, z)$ the gradient is defined as

$$\nabla \Psi = \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial r} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_r + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial \phi} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_\phi + \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial z} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_z \quad (2.15)$$

The divergence of a vector field $\mathbf{V}(r, \phi, z)$ is

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{V} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r V_r) + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial V_\phi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\partial V_z}{\partial z} \quad (2.16)$$

which gives the laplacian $\nabla^2 \Psi = \nabla \cdot \nabla \Psi(r, \phi, z)$

$$\nabla^2 \Psi = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial z^2} \quad (2.17)$$

[?, Ch.3.13]

The Laplace Equation in Cylindrical Coordinates

One way to solve the laplacian is to use separation of variables technique to find the set of potential solutions, and from that set choose the ones that make sense for our problem.

Firstly, we make the ansatz that the solutions can be written in the form

$$\Psi(r, \phi, z) = R(r) \Phi(\phi) Z(z) \quad (2.18)$$

Insertion of equation 2.18 into 2.17 then gives us

$$\nabla^2 \Psi = \frac{1}{rR} \frac{d}{dr} \left(r \frac{dR}{dr} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \Phi} \frac{d^2 \Phi}{d\phi^2} + \frac{1}{Z} \frac{d^2 Z}{dz^2} \quad (2.19)$$

We know from equation 2.12 that this is equal to zero, and can therefore rewrite as

$$-\frac{1}{\Phi} \frac{d^2 \Phi}{d\varphi^2} = \frac{r}{R} \frac{d}{dr} \left(\frac{dR}{dr} \right) + \frac{r^2}{Z} \frac{d^2 Z}{dz^2} \quad (2.20)$$

Here, a contradiction emerges. A change in φ can only introduce a change in the left hand side of this equation. Likewise, this equality must still hold for a change in r or z . These conditions only hold under the assumption that both sides are constant, such that

$$\frac{1}{\Phi} \frac{d^2 \Phi}{d\varphi^2} = \alpha_1 \quad (2.21)$$

where α_1 is constant. Using similar reasoning for $Z(z)$ and then $R(r)$ we can reduce this partial differential equation to a system of ordinary differential equations.

$$\frac{d^2 R}{dr^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{dR}{dr} = \left(\frac{\alpha_1}{r^2} + \alpha_2 \right) R \quad (2.22)$$

$$\frac{d^2 \Phi}{d\varphi^2} = \alpha_1 \Phi \quad (2.23)$$

$$\frac{d^2 Z}{dz^2} = \alpha_2 Z \quad (2.24)$$

While the differential equations in Φ and Z have a well defined set of solutions using elementary functions like sines, cosines and exponentials, equation 2.22 is a bit trickier. This equation is known as the Bessel differential equation, and solving it will require a set of functions known as the Bessel functions.

2.2.2 Bessel Functions

The Bessel functions are defined as the solutions to equation 2.22. They come in several different variants depending on the values of α_1 and α_2 . They are not expressible using elementary functions and are therefore often approximated using power series solutions, generating functions or numeric integration.

The actual calculation of the Bessel functions is outside the scope of this thesis, more than stating that they are implemented in most popular programming languages. Still, a short overview of the properties of the most relevant subset of Bessel functions will aid greatly in finding the solutions to our magnetic scalar potential.

Bessel Function, First Kind

The Bessel function of the first kind is a collection of functions that are non-singular at the origin. It is often denoted $J_n(x)$. Figure 2.3 shows $J_n(x)$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4$.

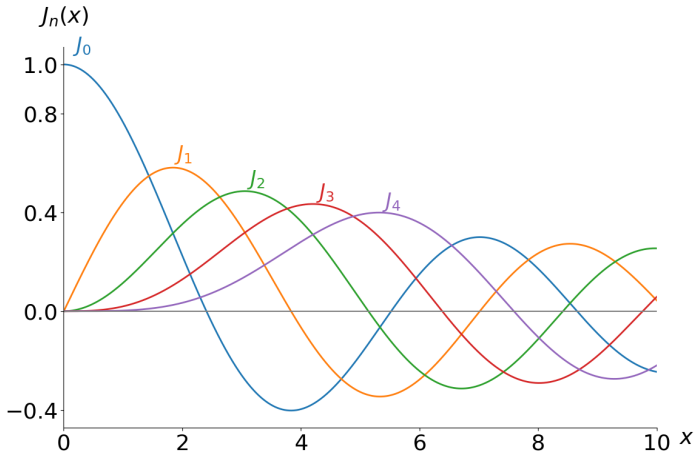


Figure 2.3. Bessel functions of the first kind, for $n \in [0, 4]$.

For negative n we have

$$J_{-n}(x) = (-1)^n J_n(x) \quad (2.25)$$

Modified Bessel Function, First Kind

For the Bessel function of the first kind with imaginary arguments, the modified Bessel function $I_n(x)$ is often used. It is related to the regular first kind Bessel function through the equality

$$I_n(x) = j^{-n} J_n(jx) \quad (2.26)$$

The first five terms of I_n can be seen in figure 2.4.

Bessel Function, Second Kind

The Bessel function of the second kind is a solution to the Bessel differential equation that is singular at the origin. It can be seen in figure 2.5.

2.2.3 Bessel-Fourier-Fourier Series

With

2.3 Signal Processing

2.3.1 Filters

2.3.2 Least Squares Fitting

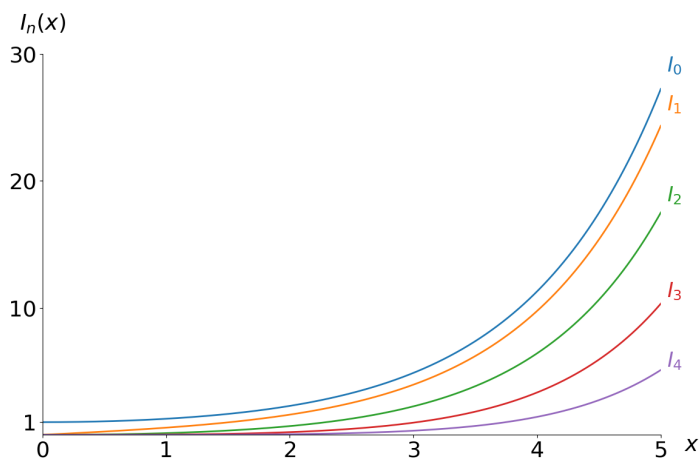


Figure 2.4. Modified Bessel functions of the first kind, for $n \in [0, 4]$.

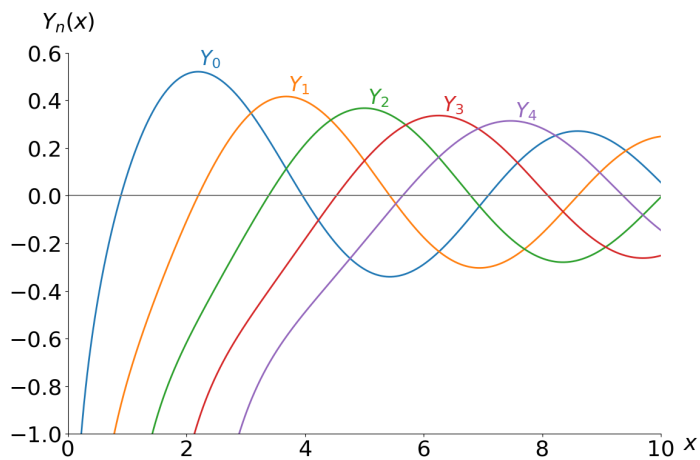


Figure 2.5. Bessel functions of the second kind, for $n \in [0, 4]$.

3. The Translating Coil Magnetometer

3.1 PCB printed coils

3.2 Positional Encoder

3.3 Geometric Lidar Measurements

3.4 Fast Digital Integrators

3.5 The Measurement Assembly

4. Measurements

4.1 Solenoidal Field Maps

4.2 The Magnet-Magnetometer Yaw Angle Peak Shift

5. Post Processing

5.1 Lidar Scans

5.2 Coil Induction Analysis

5.3 Bessel-Fourier-Fourier Series Fitting

5.4 Estimating the Magnet-Magnetometer Yaw Angle

6. Discussion

6.1 Metrological Characterization

6.2 Future Design Considerations

References

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