

RF Systems I

Erk Jensen, CERN BE-RF

Definitions & basic concepts

dB

t -domain vs. ω -domain

phasors

Decibel (dB)

- Convenient logarithmic measure of a power ratio.
- A “Bel” (= 10 dB) is defined as a power ratio of 10^1 . Consequently, 1 dB is a power ratio of $10^{0.1} \approx 1.259$
- If *rdB* denotes the measure in dB, we have:

$$rdB = 10 \text{ dB} \log\left(\frac{P_2}{P_1}\right) = 10 \text{ dB} \log\left(\frac{A_2^2}{A_1^2}\right) = 20 \text{ dB} \log\left(\frac{A_2}{A_1}\right)$$

$$\frac{P_2}{P_1} = \frac{A_2^2}{A_1^2} = 10^{rdB/(10 \text{ dB})}$$

$$\frac{A_2}{A_1} = 10^{rdB/(20 \text{ dB})}$$

| <i>rdB</i> | -30 dB | -20 dB | -10 dB | -6 dB | -3 dB | 0 dB | 3 dB | 6 dB | 10 dB | 20 dB | 30 dB |
|------------|--------|--------|--------|-------|-------|------|------|------|-------|-------|-------|
| P_2/P_1 | 0.001 | 0.01 | 0.1 | 0.25 | .50 | 1 | 2 | 3.98 | 10 | 100 | 1000 |
| A_2/A_1 | 0.0316 | 0.1 | 0.316 | 0.50 | .71 | 1 | 1.41 | 2 | 3.16 | 10 | 31.6 |

- Related: dBm (relative to 1 mW), dBc (relative to carrier)

Time domain – frequency domain (1)

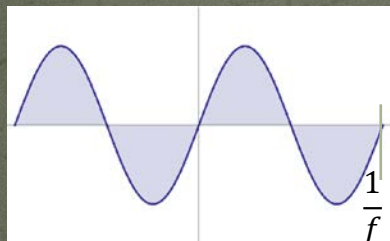
- An arbitrary signal $g(t)$ can be expressed in ω -domain using the *Fourier transform* (FT).
$$g(t) \xrightarrow{\bullet} G(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t) e^{j\omega t} dt$$
- The inverse transform (IFT) is also referred to as *Fourier Integral*
$$G(\omega) \xrightarrow{\bullet} g(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(\omega) e^{-j\omega t} d\omega$$
- The advantage of the ω -domain description is that linear time-invariant (LTI) systems are much easier described.
- The mathematics of the FT requires the extension of the definition of a *function* to allow for infinite values and non-converging integrals.
- The FT of the signal can be understood at looking at “what frequency components it’s composed of”.

Time domain – frequency domain (2)

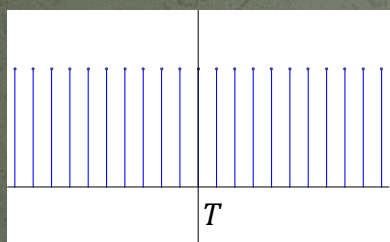
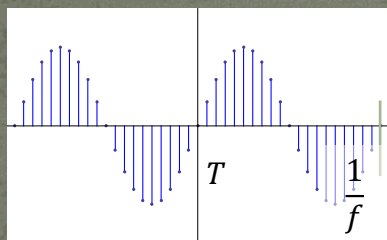
- For T -periodic signals, the FT becomes the Fourier-Series, $d\omega$ becomes $2\pi/T$, \int becomes Σ .
- The cousin of the FT is the *Laplace transform*, which uses a complex variable (often s) instead of $j\omega$; it has generally a better convergence behaviour.
- Numerical implementations of the FT require discretisation in t (sampling) and in ω . There exist very effective algorithms (FFT).
- In digital signal processing, one often uses the related z -Transform, which uses the variable $z = e^{j\omega\tau}$, where τ is the sampling period. A delay of $k\tau$ becomes z^{-k} .

Time domain – frequency domain (3)

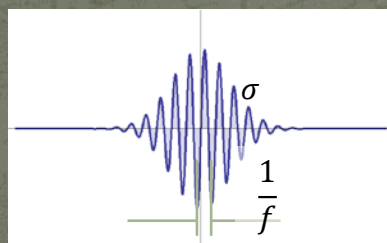
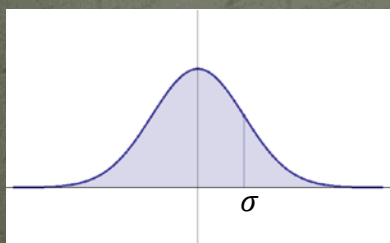
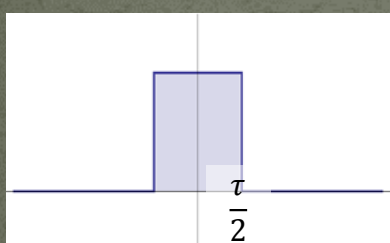
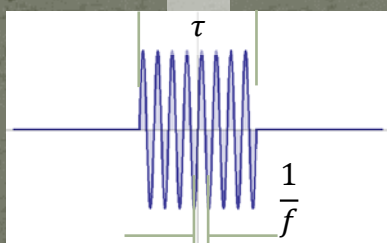
Time domain



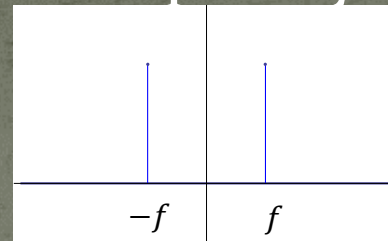
sampled oscillation



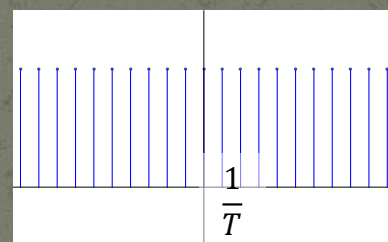
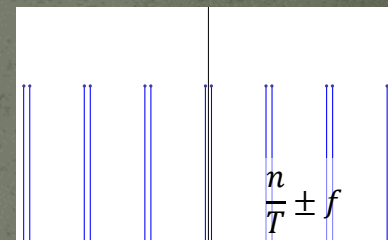
modulated oscillation



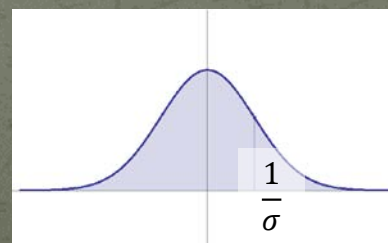
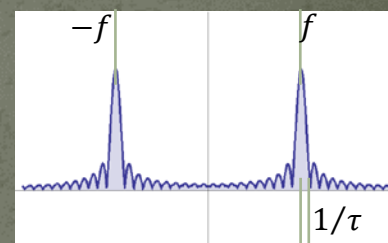
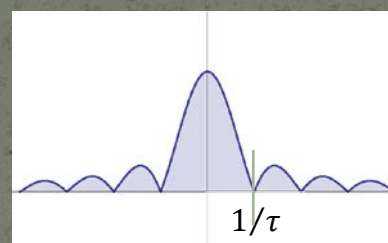
Frequency domain



sampled oscillation



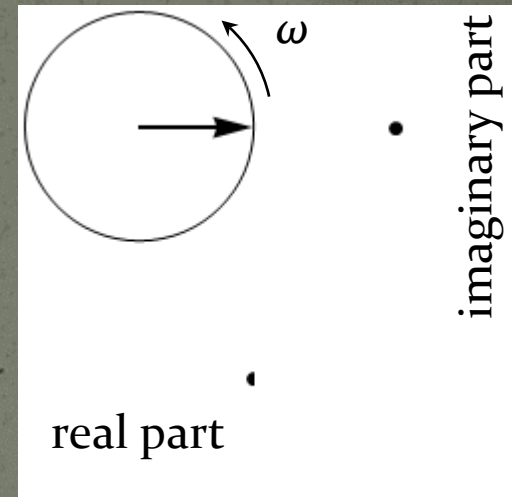
modulated oscillation



Fixed frequency oscillation (steady state, CW)

Definition of phasors

- General: $A \cos(\omega t - \varphi) = A \cos \omega t \cos \varphi + A \sin \omega t \sin \varphi$
- This can be interpreted as the projection on the real axis of a circular motion in the complex plane. $\text{Re} \{A(\cos \varphi + j \sin \varphi)e^{j\omega t}\}$
- The complex amplitude \tilde{A} is called “phasor”;

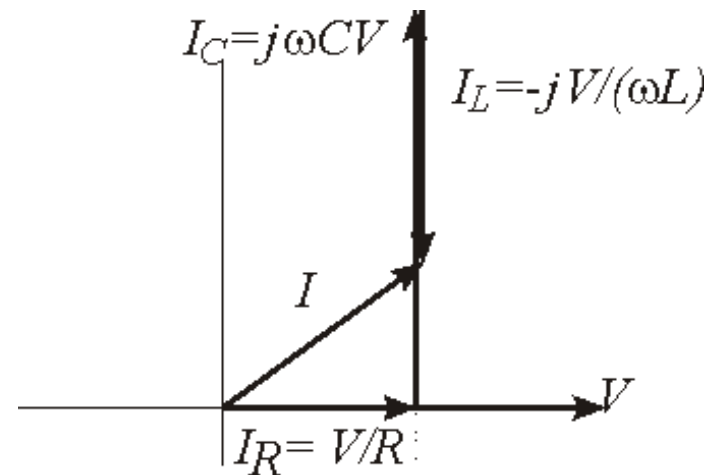
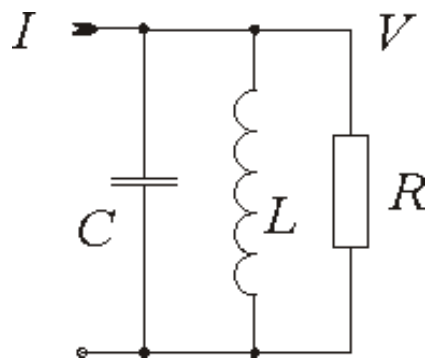


$$\tilde{A} = A(\cos \varphi + j \sin \varphi)$$

Calculus with phasors

- Why this seeming “complication”?:
Because things become easier!
- Using $\frac{d}{dt} \equiv j\omega$, one may now forget about the rotation with ω and the projection on the real axis, and do the complete analysis making use of complex algebra!

Example:



$$I = V \left(\frac{1}{R} + j\omega C - \frac{j}{\omega L} \right)$$

Slowly varying amplitudes

- For band-limited signals, one may conveniently use “slowly varying” phasors and a fixed frequency RF oscillation.
- So-called in-phase (I) and quadrature (Q) “baseband envelopes” of a modulated RF carrier are the real and imaginary part of a slowly varying phasor.

On Modulation

AM

PM

I-Q

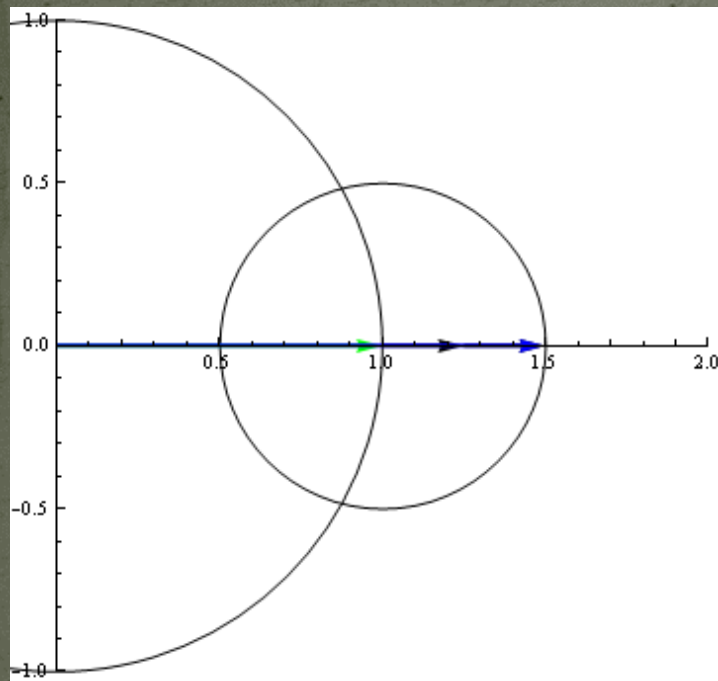
Amplitude modulation

$$(1 + m \cos(\varphi)) \cdot \cos(\omega_c t) = \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \left(1 + \frac{m}{2} e^{j\varphi} + \frac{m}{2} e^{-j\varphi} \right) e^{j\omega_c t} \right\}$$

m : modulation index or modulation depth

example: $\varphi = \omega_m t = 0.05 \omega_c t$

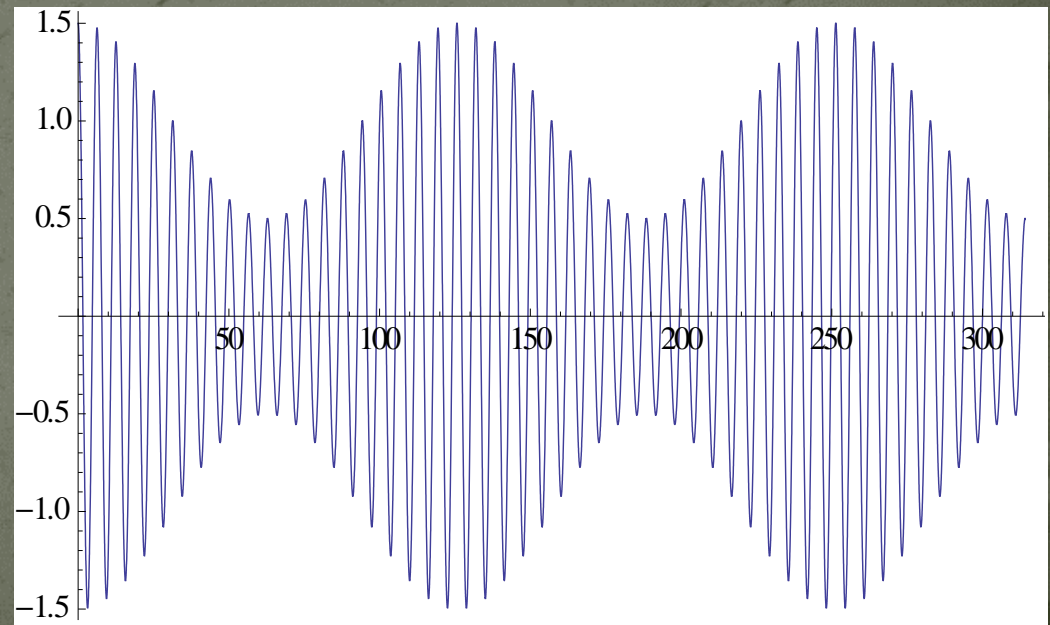
$m = 0.5$



green: carrier

black: sidebands at $\pm f_m$

blue: sum



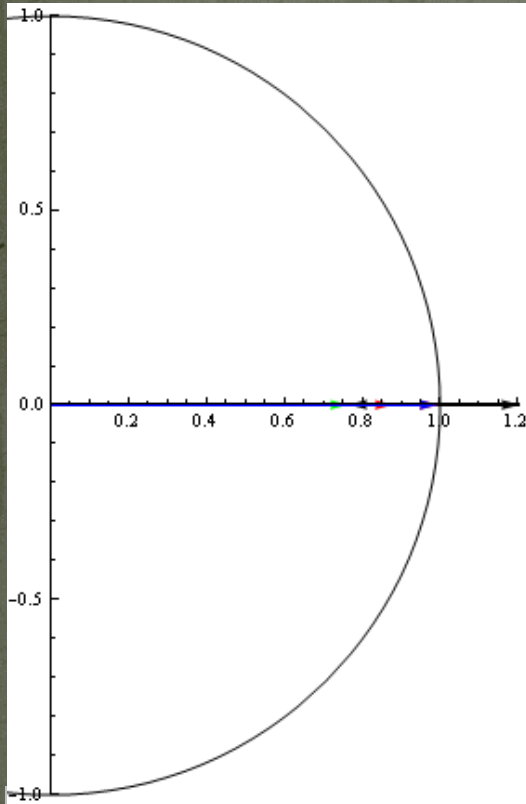
Phase modulation

$$\text{Re}\{e^{j\omega_c t + M \sin(\varphi)}\} = \text{Re}\left\{\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} J_n(M) e^{j(n\varphi + \omega_c t)}\right\}$$

M : modulation index
(= max. phase deviation)

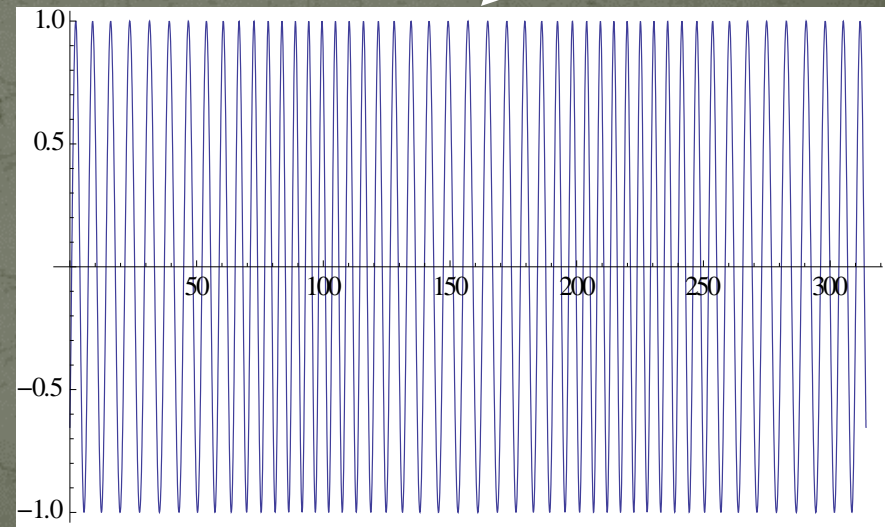
$$\varphi = \omega_m t = 0.05 \omega_c t$$

$$M = 4$$



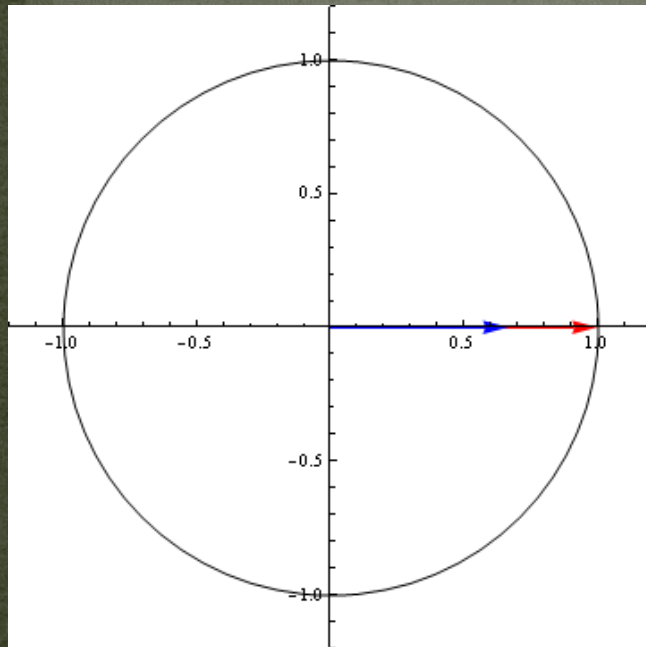
$$M = 1$$

Green: $n=0$ (carrier)
black: $n=1$ sidebands
red: $n=2$ sidebands
blue: sum

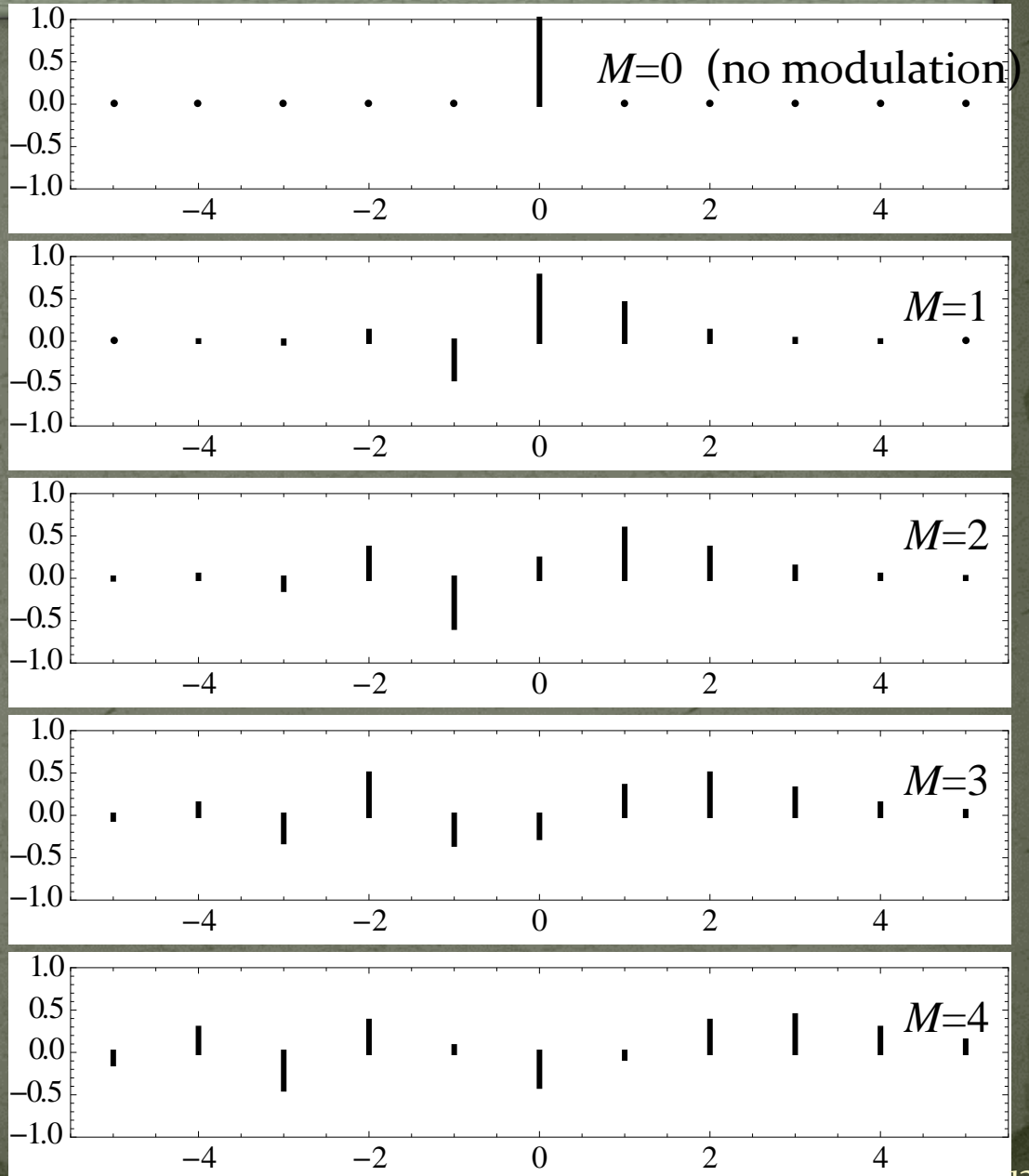


Spectrum of phase modulation

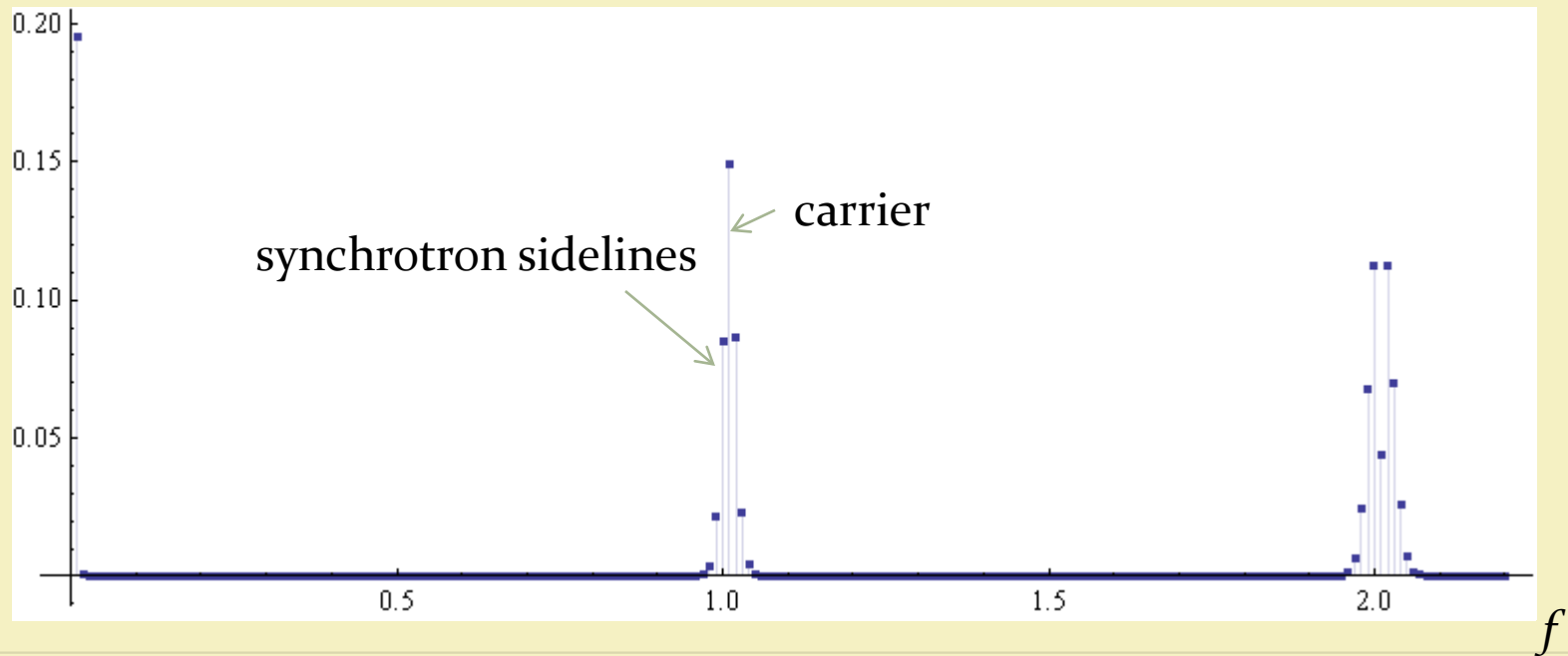
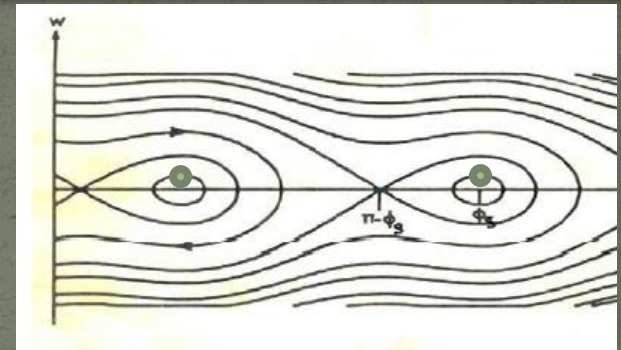
Plotted: spectral lines for sinusoidal PM at f_m
Abscissa: $(f-f_c)/f_m$



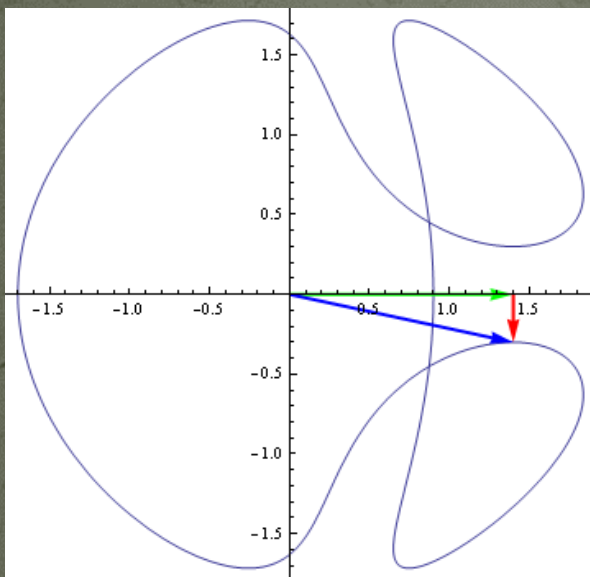
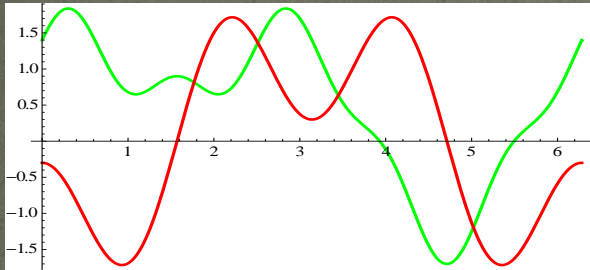
Phase modulation with $M=\pi$:
red: real phase modulation
blue: sum of sidebands $n \leq 3$



Spectrum of a beam with synchrotron oscillation, $M=1$ ($=57^\circ$)



Vector (I-Q) modulation



I-Q modulation:

green: *I* component

red: *Q* component

blue: vector-sum

More generally, a modulation can have both amplitude and phase modulating components. They can be described as the in-phase (*I*) and quadrature (*Q*) components in a chosen reference, $\cos(\omega_r t)$. In complex notation, the modulated RF is:

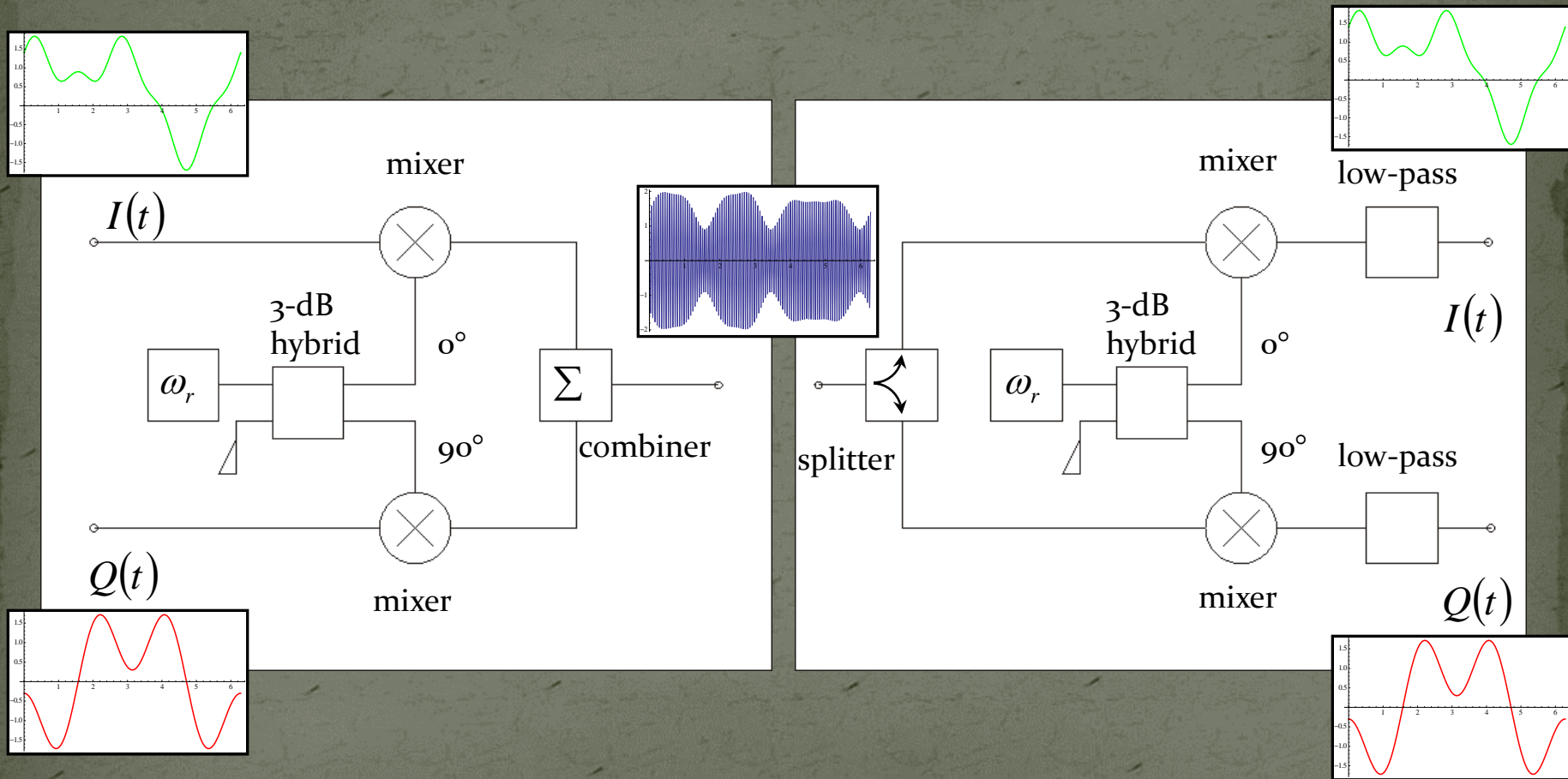
$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Re} \{ (I(t) + j Q(t)) e^{j \omega_r t} \} &= \\ \operatorname{Re} \{ (I(t) + j Q(t)) (\cos(\omega_r t) + j \sin(\omega_r t)) \} &= \\ I(t) \cos(\omega_r t) - Q(t) \sin(\omega_r t) & \end{aligned}$$

So *I* and *Q* are the Cartesian coordinates in the complex “Phasor” plane, where amplitude and phase are the corresponding polar coordinates.

$$I(t) = A(t) \cos(\varphi)$$

$$Q(t) = A(t) \sin(\varphi)$$

Vector modulator/demodulator

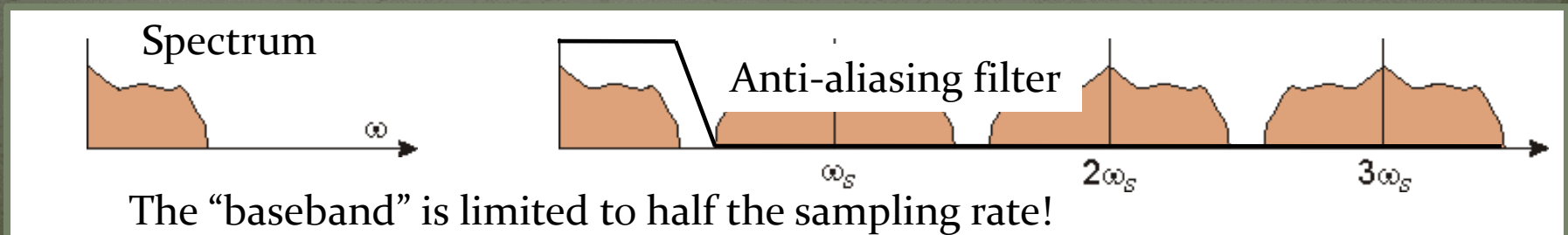
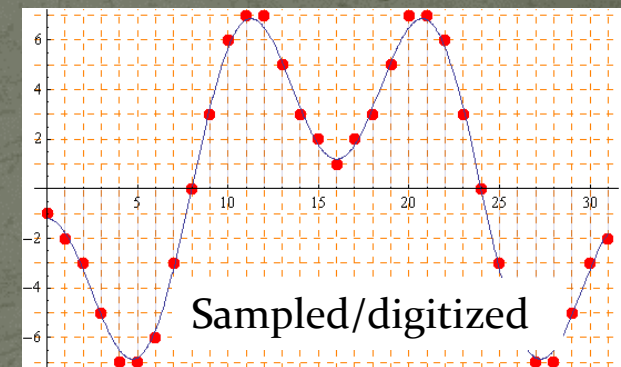
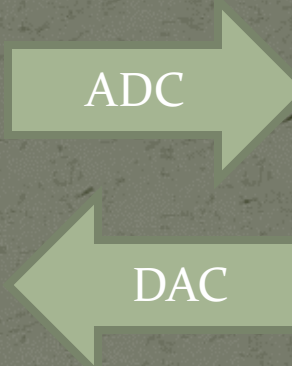
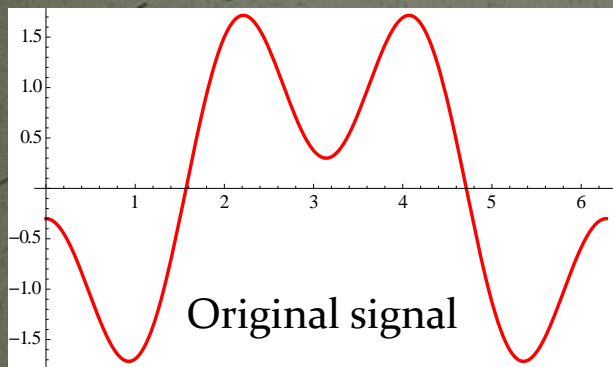


Digital Signal Processing

Just some basics

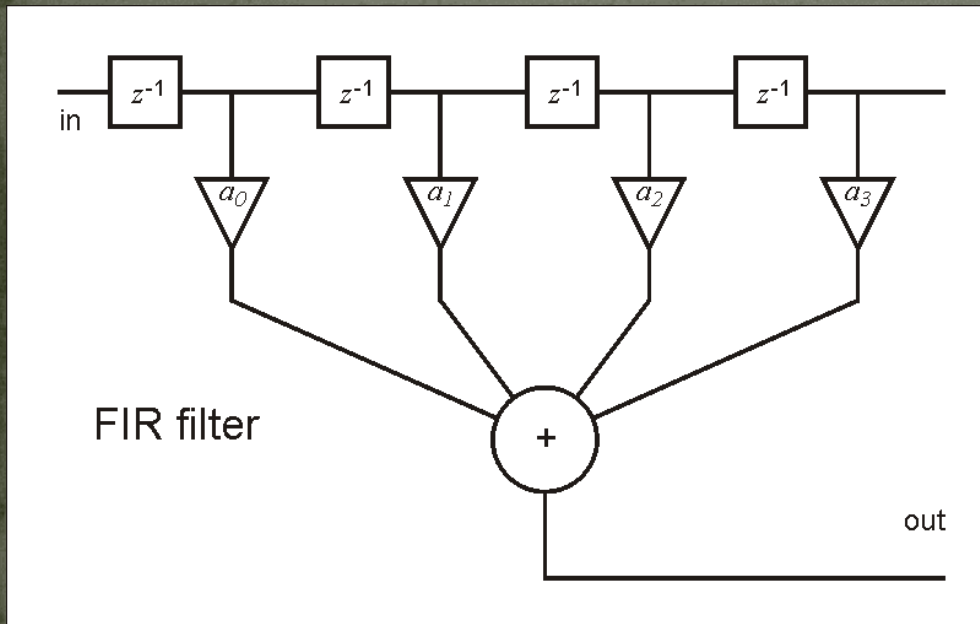
Sampling and quantization

- Digital Signal Processing is very powerful – note recent progress in digital audio, video and communication!
- Concepts and modules developed for a huge market; highly sophisticated modules available “off the shelf”.
- The “slowly varying” phasors are ideal to be sampled and quantized as needed for digital signal processing.
- Sampling (at $1/\tau_s$) and quantization (n bit data words – here 4 bit):

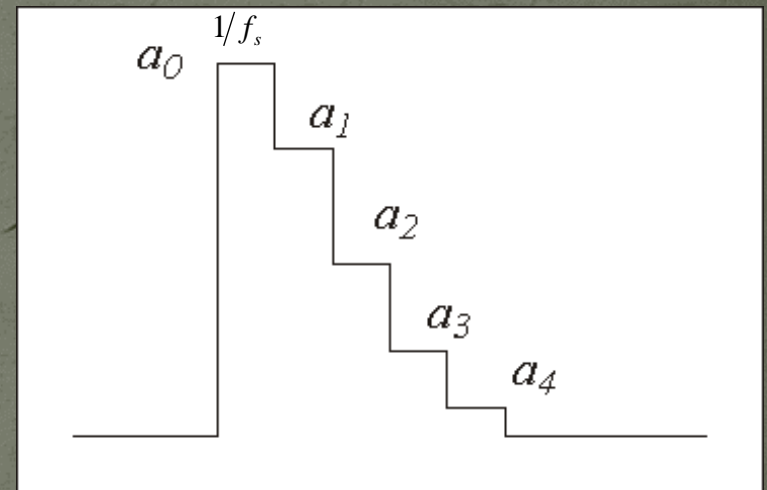


Digital filters (1)

- Once in the digital realm, signal processing becomes “computing”!
- In a “finite impulse response” (FIR) filter, you directly program the coefficients of the impulse response.



$$z = e^{j\omega T_s}$$

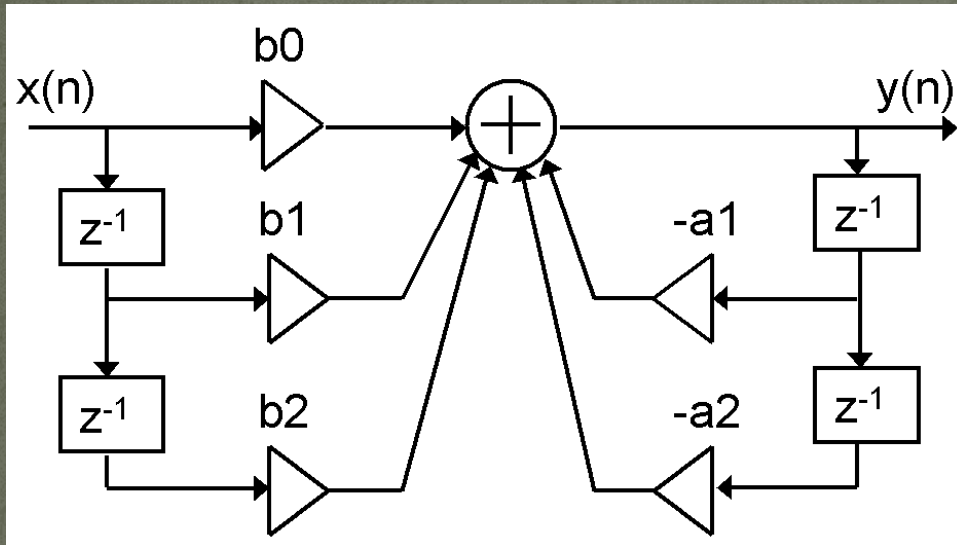


Transfer function:

$$a_0 + a_1 z^{-1} + a_2 z^{-2} + a_3 z^{-3} + a_4 z^{-4}$$

Digital filters (2)

- An “infinite impulse response” (IIR) filter has built-in recursion, e.g. like

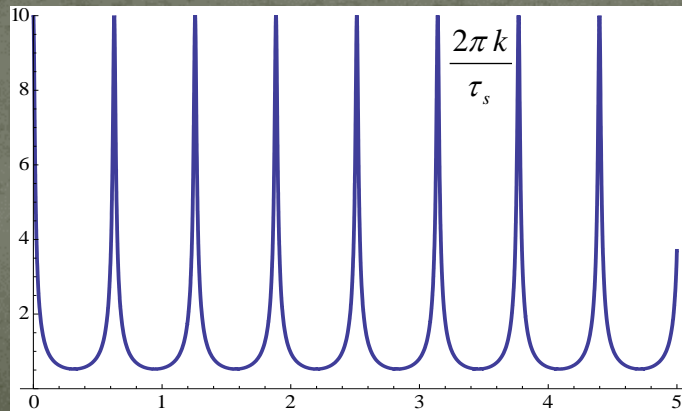


Transfer function:

$$\frac{b_0 + b_1 z^{-1} + b_2 z^{-2}}{1 + a_1 z^{-1} + a_2 z^{-2}}$$

Example:

$$\frac{b_0}{1 + b_k z^{-k}}$$



... is a comb filter

RF system & control loops

e.g.: ... for a synchrotron:

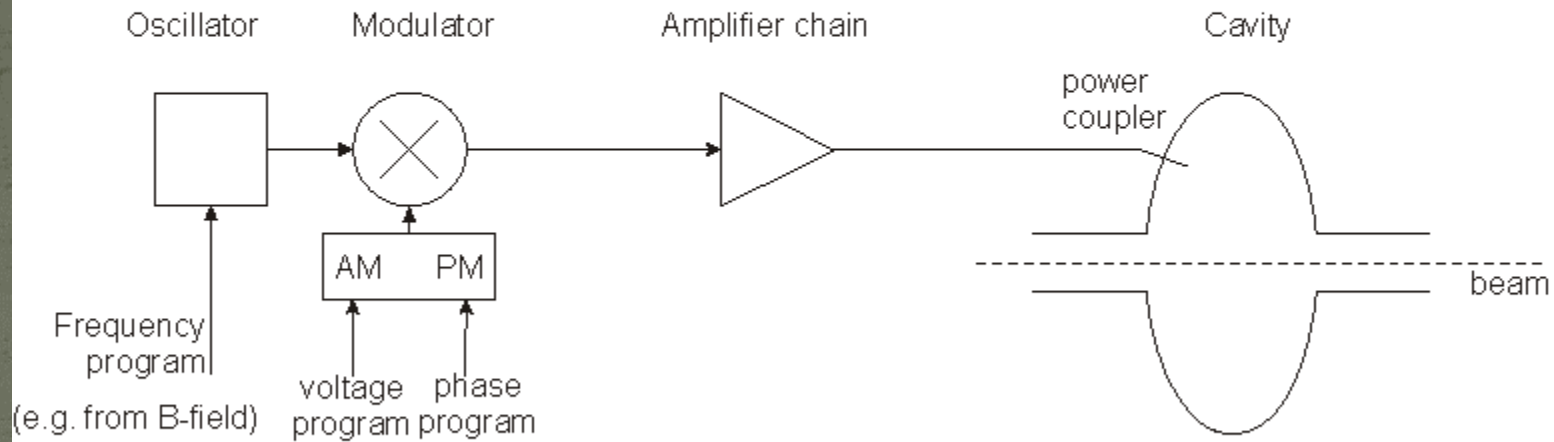
Cavity control loops

Beam control loops

Minimal RF system (of a synchrotron)

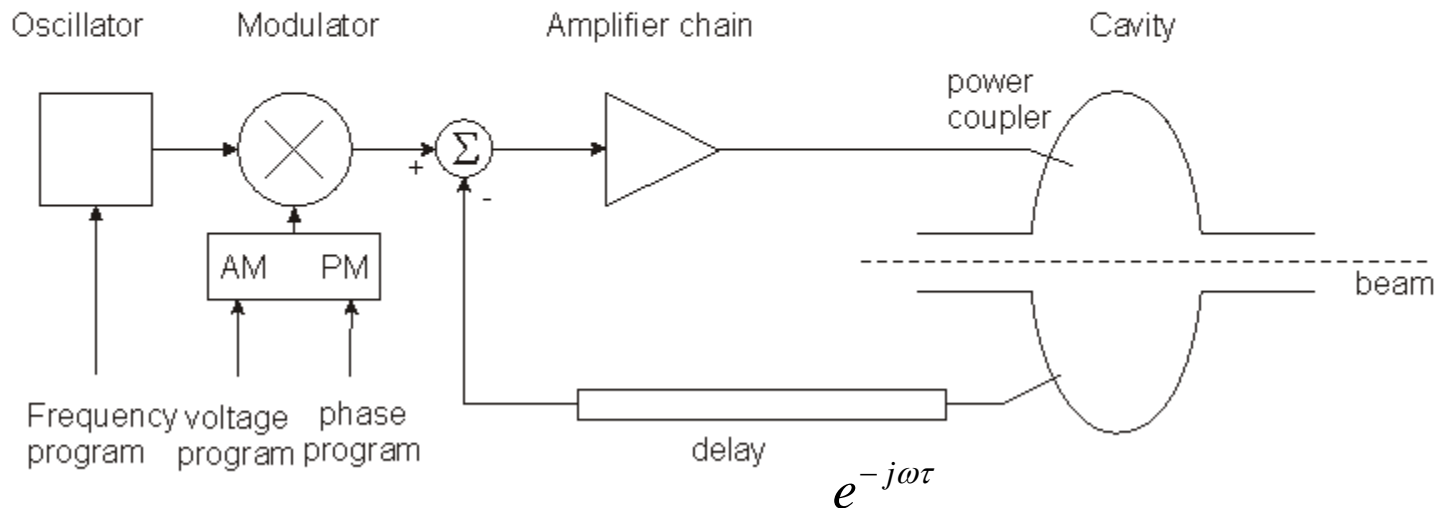
Low-level RF

High-Power RF



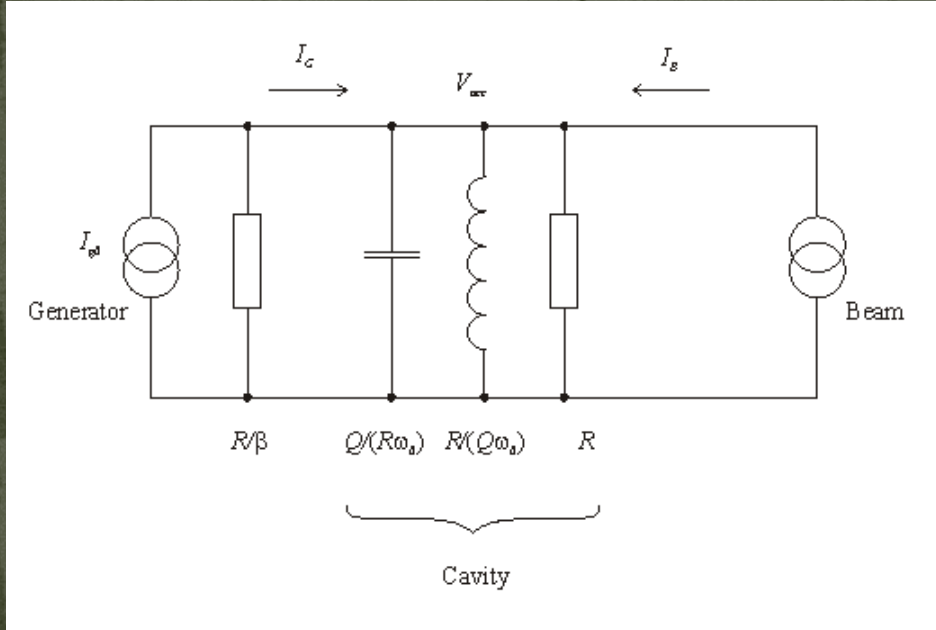
- The frequency has to be controlled to follow the magnetic field such that the beam remains in the centre of the vacuum chamber.
- The voltage has to be controlled to allow for capture at injection, a correct bucket area during acceleration, matching before ejection; phase may have to be controlled for transition crossing and for synchronisation before ejection.

Fast RF Feed-back loop



- Compares actual RF voltage and phase with desired and corrects.
- Rapidity limited by total group delay (path lengths) (some 100 ns).
- Unstable if loop gain =1 with total phase shift 180° – design requires to stay away from this point (stability margin)
- The group delay limits the gain·bandwidth product.
- Works also to keep voltage at zero for strong beam loading, i.e. it reduces the beam impedance.

Fast feedback loop at work



- Gap voltage is stabilised!
- Impedance seen by the beam is reduced by the loop gain!

• Plot on the right: $\frac{1 + \beta}{R} \left| \frac{Z(\omega)}{1 + G \cdot Z(\omega)} \right|$ vs. ω

with the loop gain varying from 0 to 50 dB.

- Without feedback, $V_{acc} = (I_{G0} + I_B) \cdot Z(\omega)$

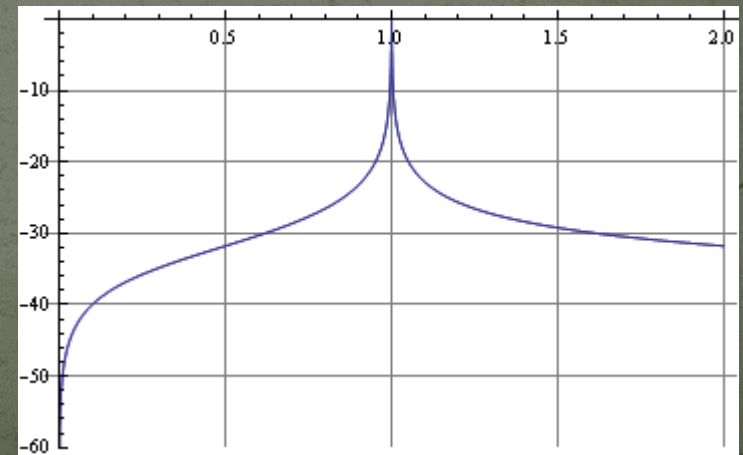
where
$$Z(\omega) = \frac{R(1 + \beta)}{1 + jQ \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0} - \frac{\omega_0}{\omega} \right)}$$

- Detect the gap voltage, feed it back to I_{G0} such that
$$I_{G0} = I_{drive} - G \cdot V_{acc}$$

where G is the total loop gain (pick-up, cable, amplifier chain ...)

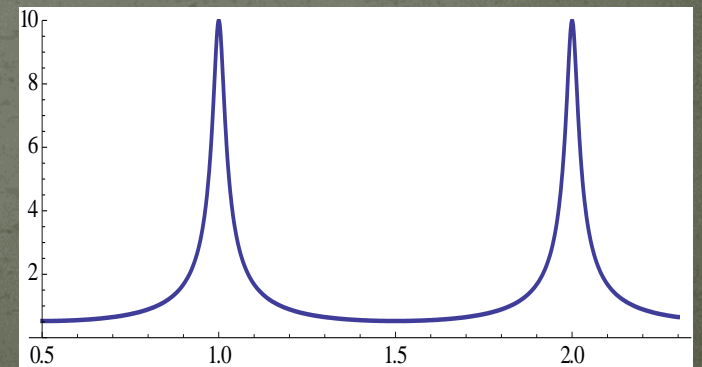
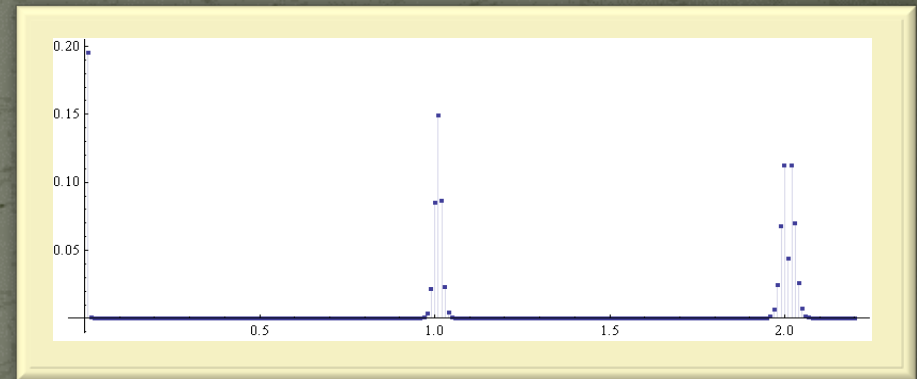
- Result:

$$V_{acc} = (I_{drive} + I_B) \cdot \frac{Z(\omega)}{1 + G \cdot Z(\omega)}$$

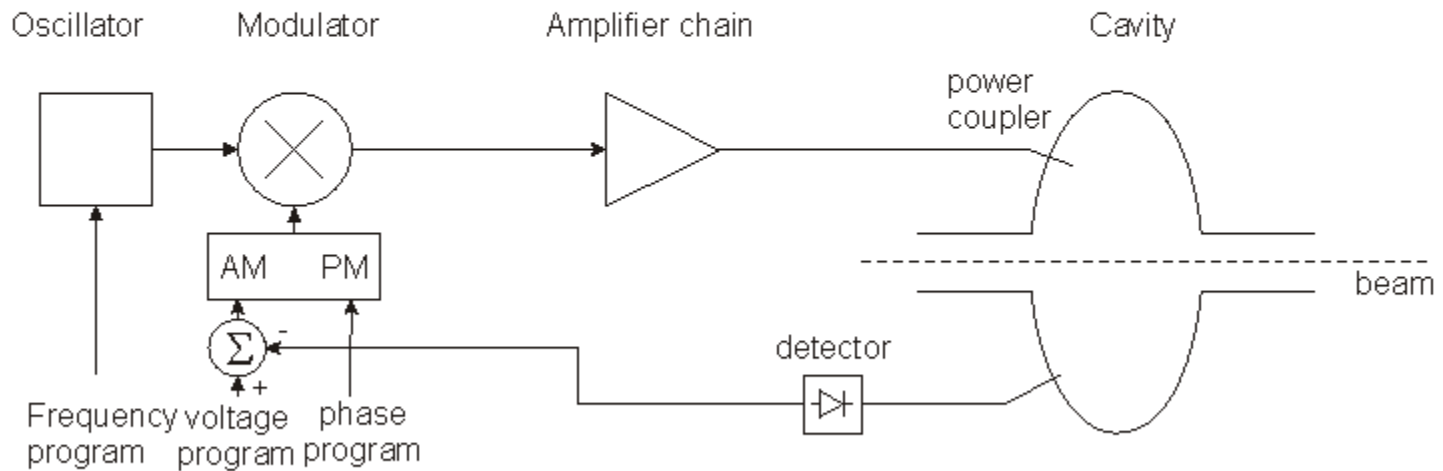


1-turn delay feed-back loop

- The speed of the “fast RF feedback” is limited by the group delay – this is typically a significant fraction of the revolution period.
- How to lower the impedance over many harmonics of the revolution frequency?
- Remember: the beam spectrum is limited to relatively narrow bands around the multiples of the revolution frequency!
- Only in these narrow bands the loop gain must be high!
- Install a comb filter! ... and extend the group delay to exactly 1 turn – in this case the loop will have the desired effect and remain stable!

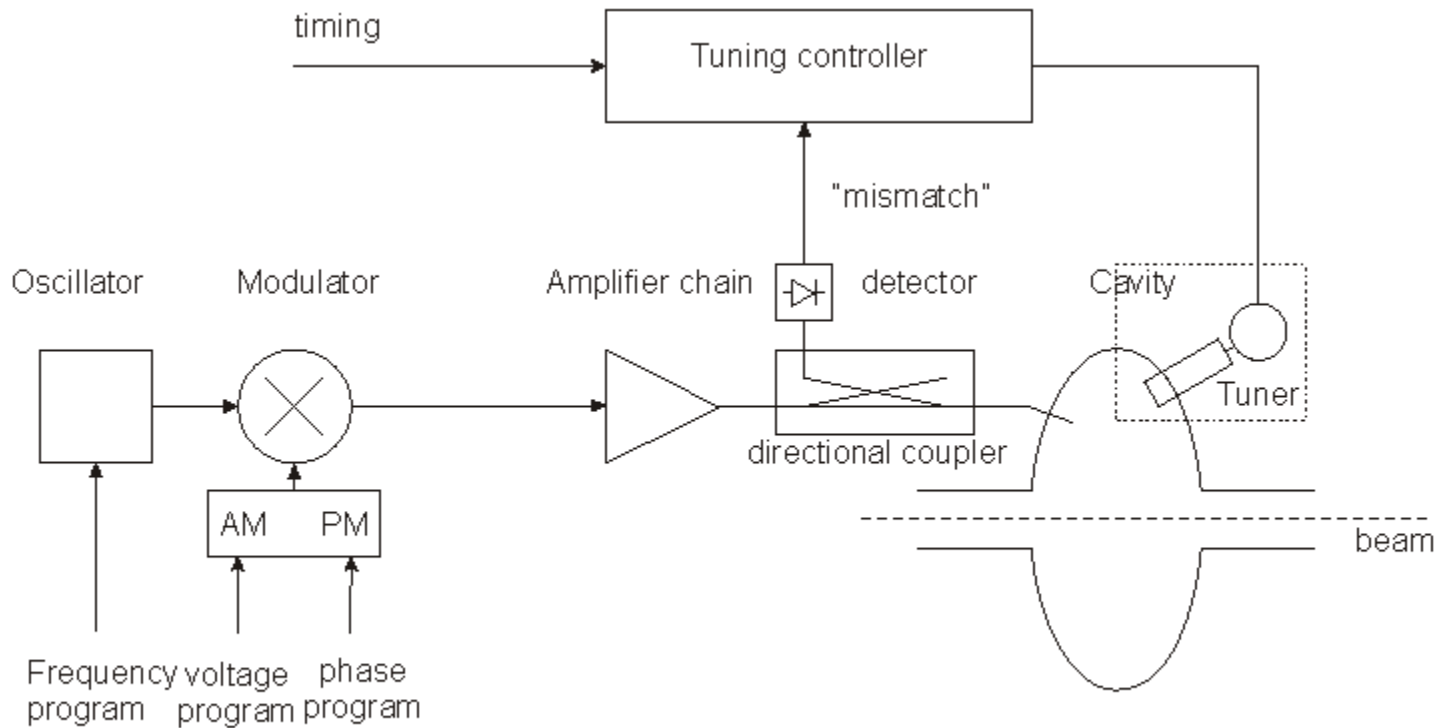


Field amplitude control loop (AVC)



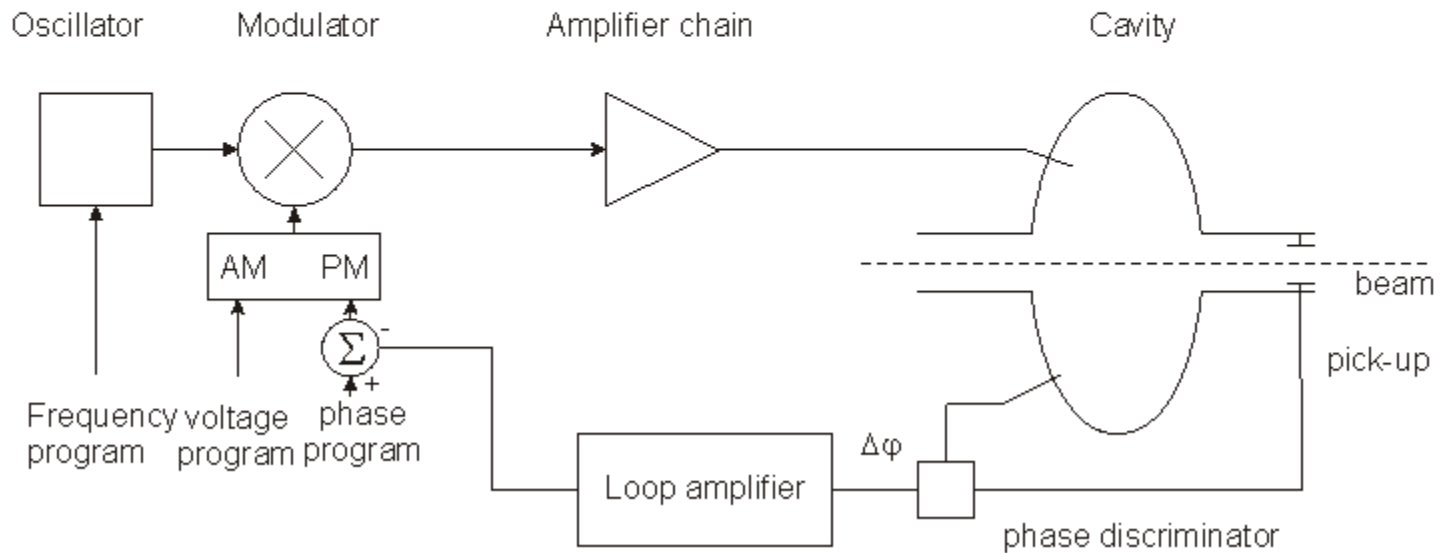
- Compares the detected cavity voltage to the voltage program. The error signal serves to correct the amplitude

Tuning loop



- Tunes the resonance f of the cavity to minimize the mismatch of the PA.
- In the presence of beam loading, this may mean $f_r \neq f$.
- In an ion ring accelerator, the tuning range might be $>$ octave!
- For fixed f systems, tuners are needed to compensate for slow drifts.
- Examples for tuners:
 - controlled power supply driving ferrite bias (varying μ),
 - stepping motor driven plunger,
 - motorized variable capacitor, ...

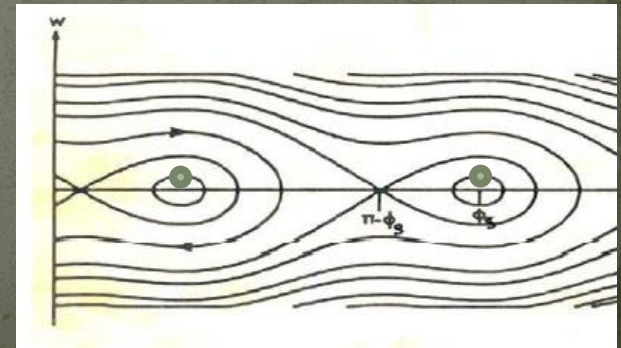
Beam phase loop



- Longitudinal motion: $\frac{d^2(\Delta\phi)}{dt^2} + \Omega_s^2(\Delta\phi)^2 = 0$

- Loop amplifier transfer function designed to damp
- synchrotron oscillation. Modified equation:

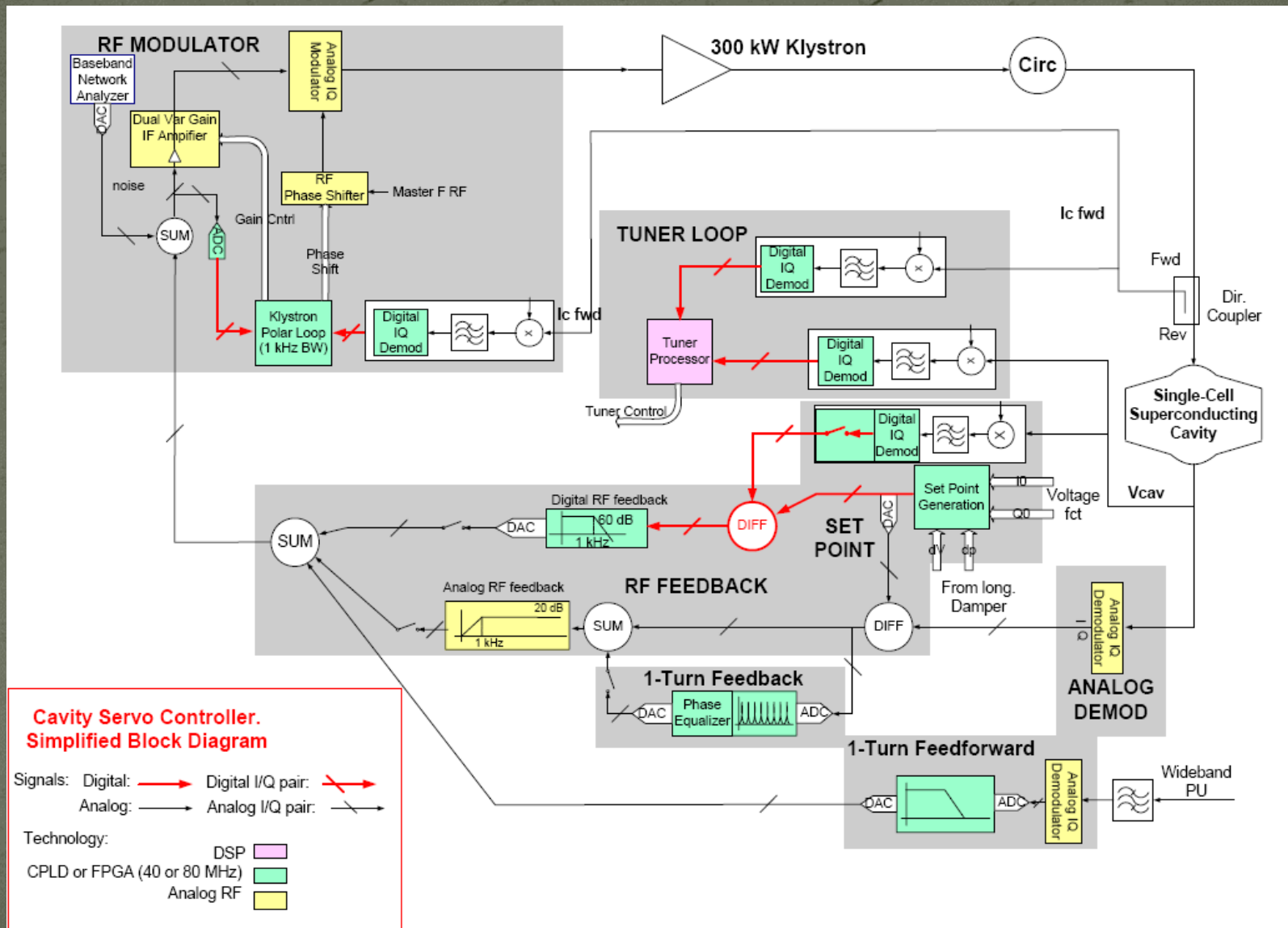
$$\frac{d^2(\Delta\phi)}{dt^2} + \alpha \frac{d(\Delta\phi)}{dt} + \Omega_s^2(\Delta\phi)^2 = 0$$



Other loops

- Radial loop:
 - Detect average radial position of the beam,
 - Compare to a programmed radial position,
 - Error signal controls the frequency.
- Synchronisation loop (e.g. before ejection):
 - 1st step: Synchronize f to an external frequency (will also act on radial position!).
 - 2nd step: phase loop brings bunches to correct position.
- ...

A real implementation: LHC LLRF



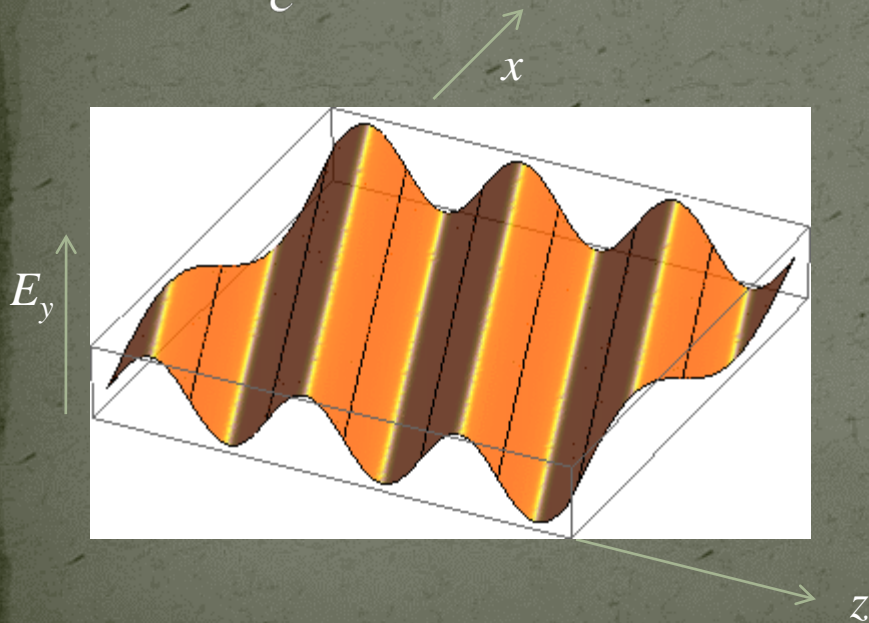
Fields in a waveguide

Homogeneous plane wave

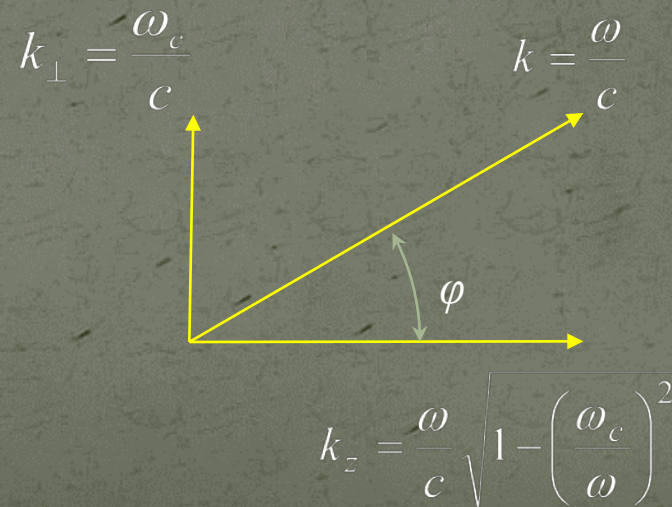
$$\vec{E} \propto \vec{u}_y \cos(\omega t - \vec{k} \cdot \vec{r})$$

$$\vec{B} \propto \vec{u}_x \cos(\omega t - \vec{k} \cdot \vec{r})$$

$$\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} = \frac{\omega}{c} (\cos(\varphi)z + \sin(\varphi)x)$$

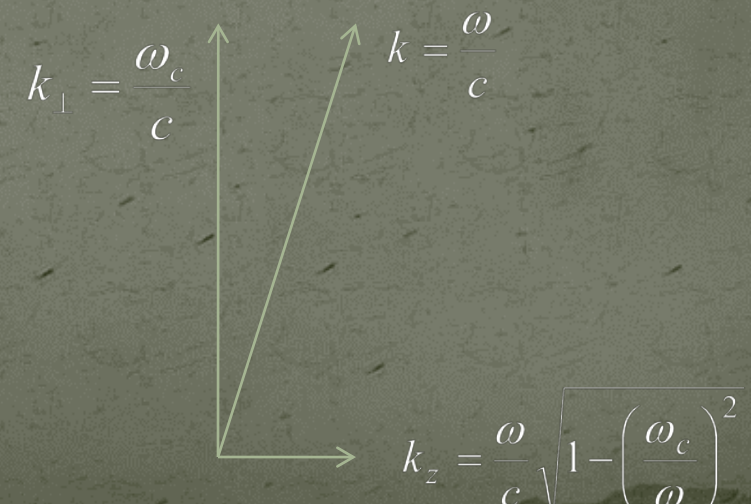
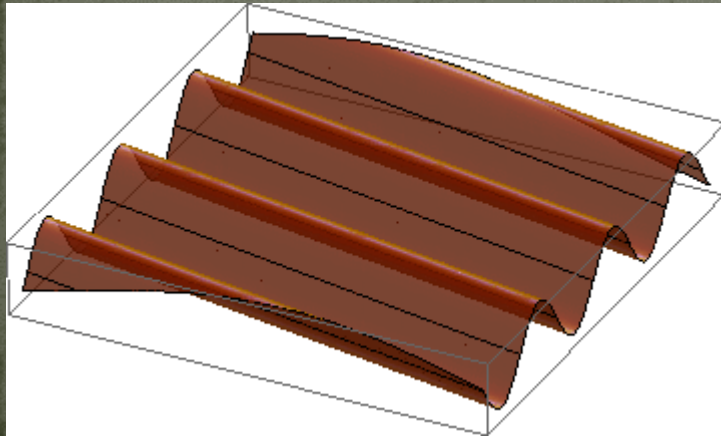
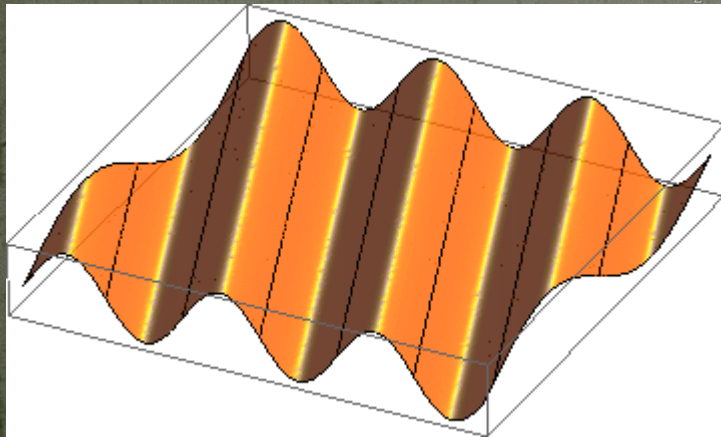


Wave vector \vec{k} :
the direction of \vec{k} is the direction of propagation,
the length of \vec{k} is the phase shift per unit length.
 \vec{k} behaves like a vector.

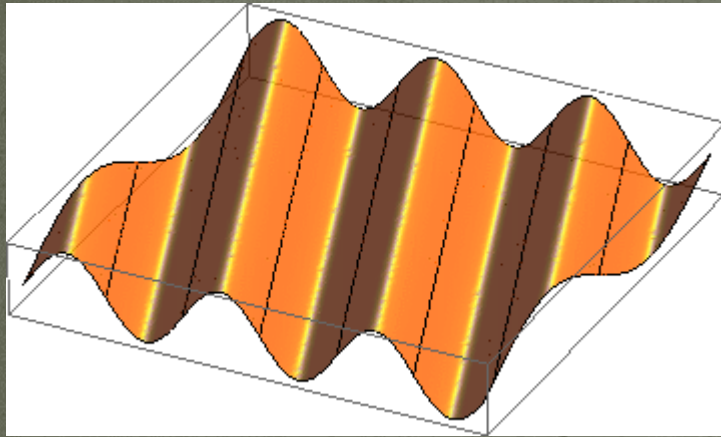


Wave length, phase velocity

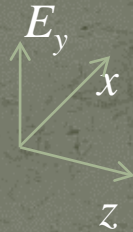
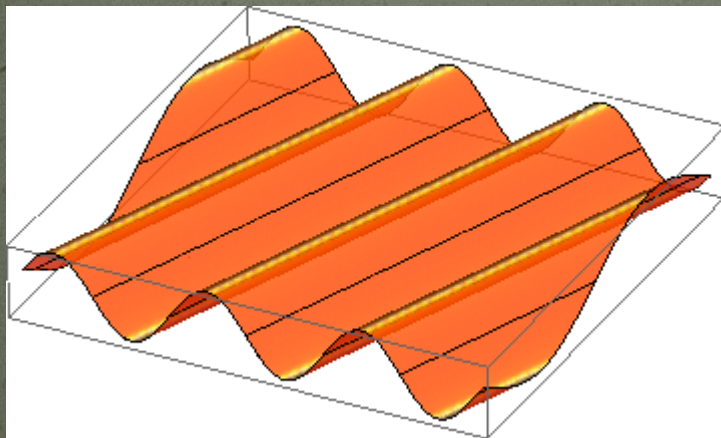
- The components of \vec{k} are related to the wavelength in the direction of that component as $\lambda_z = \frac{2\pi}{k_z}$ etc. , to the phase velocity as $v_{\phi,z} = \frac{\omega}{k_z} = f \lambda_z$.



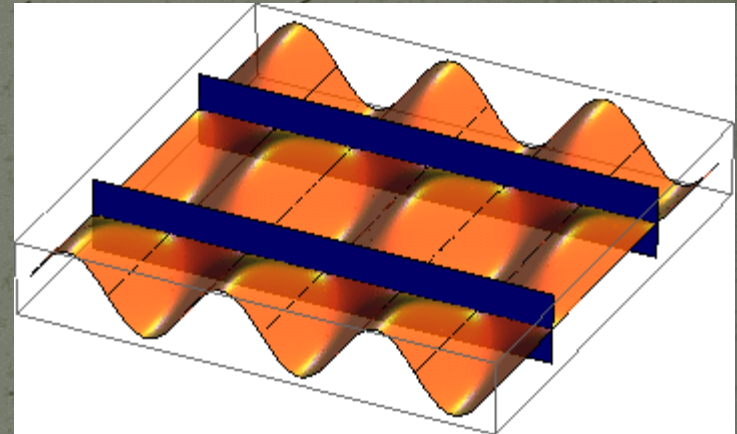
Superposition of 2 homogeneous plane waves



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Metallic walls may be inserted where $E_y \equiv 0$ without perturbing the fields. Note the standing wave in x -direction!

This way one gets a hollow rectangular waveguide!

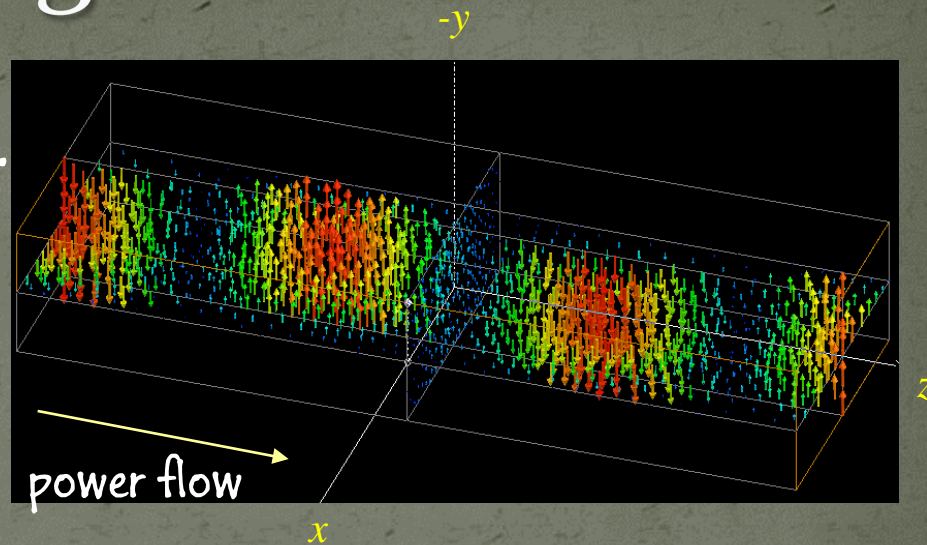
Rectangular waveguide

Fundamental (TE_{10} or H_{10}) mode
in a standard rectangular waveguide.

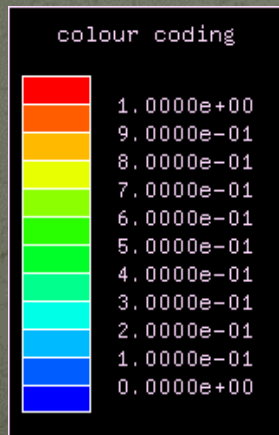
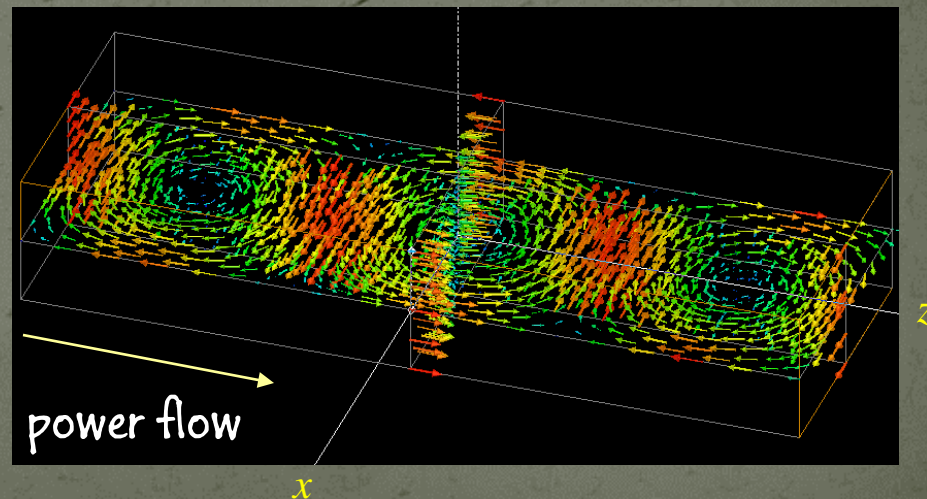
E.g. forward wave

electric field

$$\text{power flow: } \frac{1}{2} \text{Re} \left\{ \iint \vec{E} \times \vec{H}^* dA \right\}$$



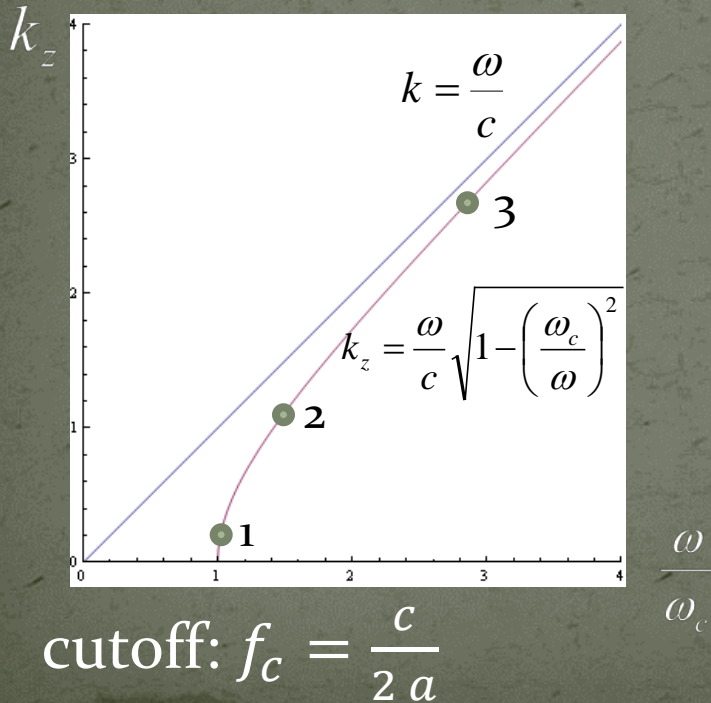
magnetic field



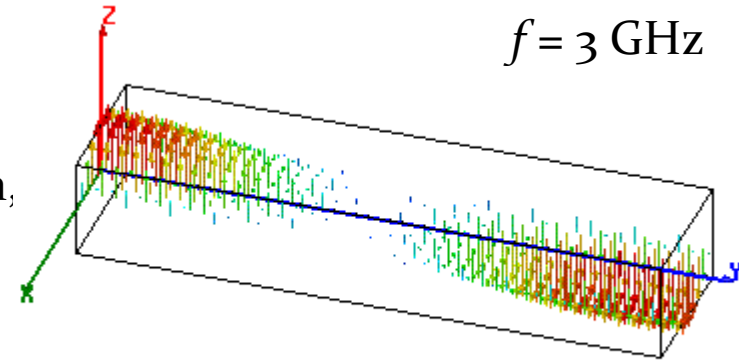
Waveguide dispersion

What happens with different waveguide dimensions (different width a)?

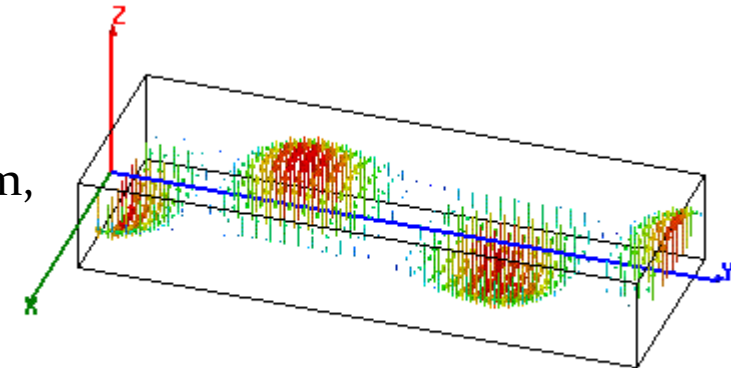
The “guided wavelength” λ_g varies from ∞ at f_c to λ at very high frequencies.



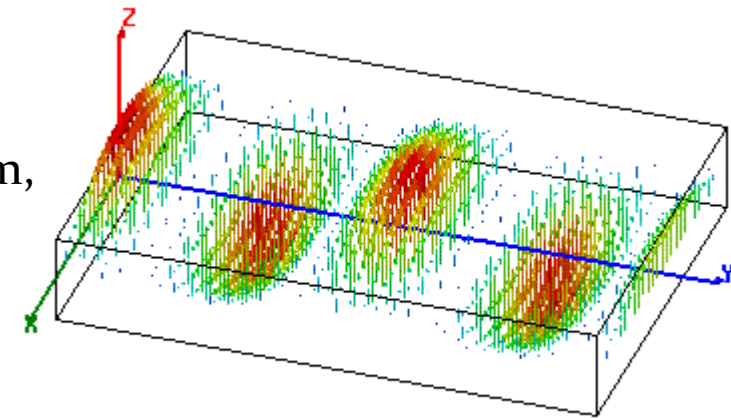
1:
 $a = 52 \text{ mm},$
 $f/f_c = 1.04$



2:
 $a = 72.14 \text{ mm},$
 $f/f_c = 1.44$



3:
 $a = 144.3 \text{ mm},$
 $f/f_c = 2.88$



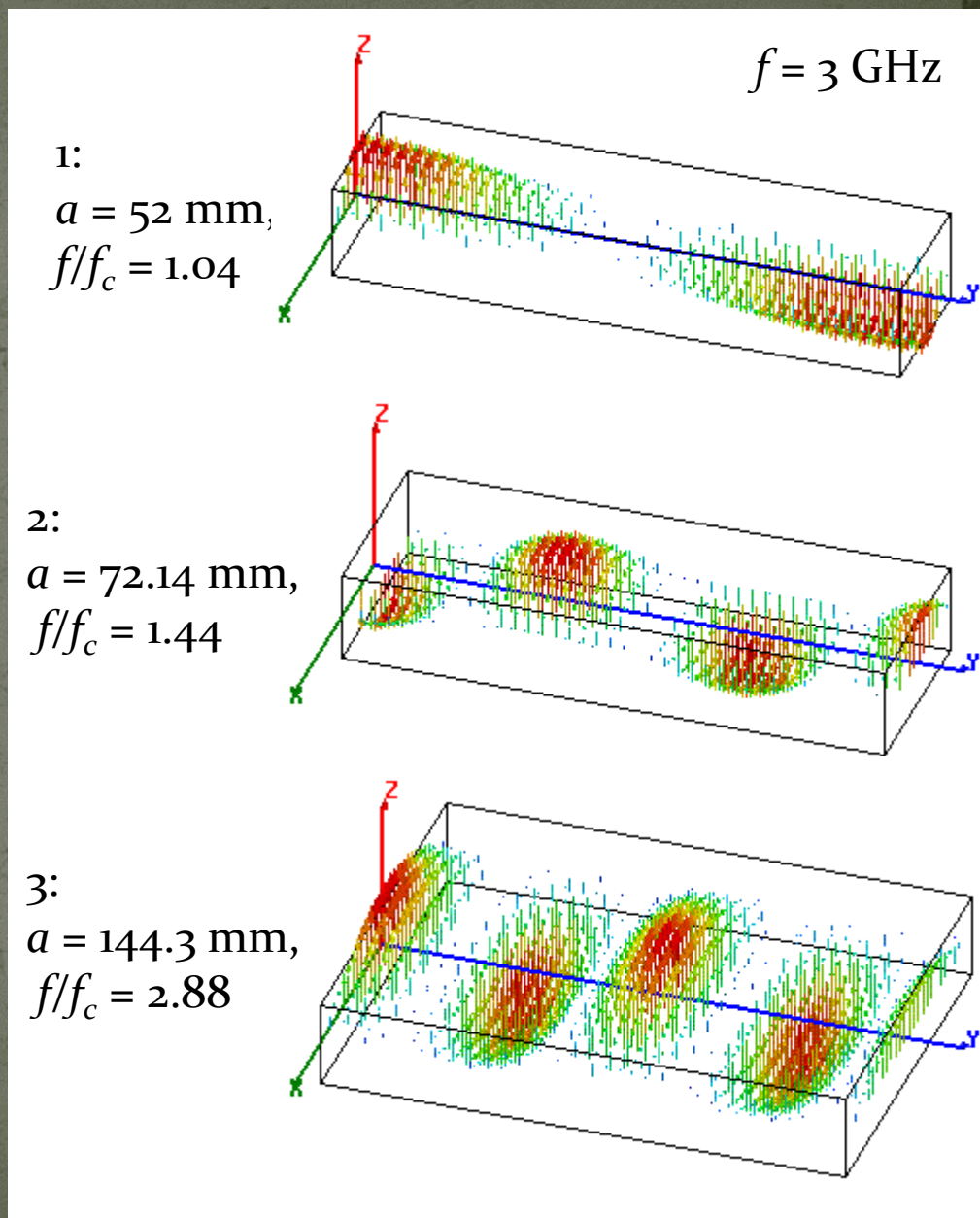
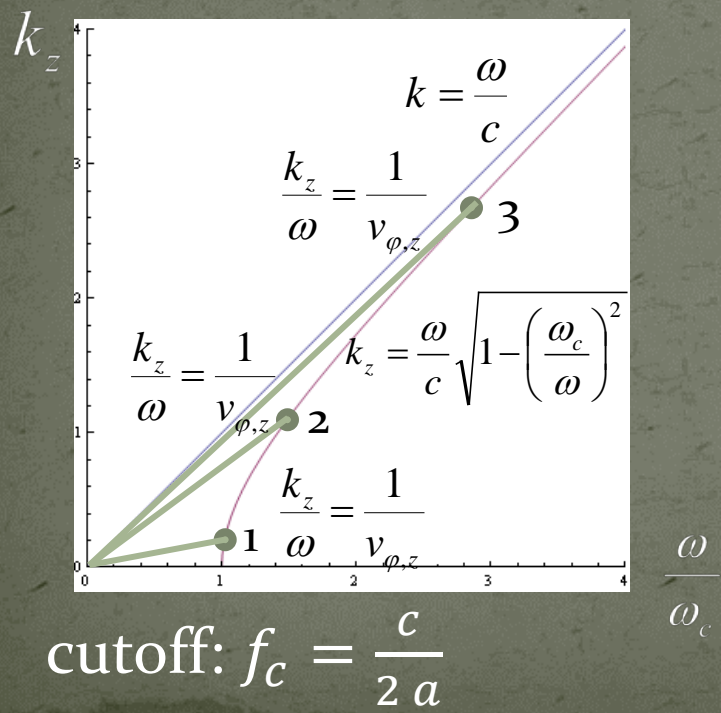
Phase velocity $v_{\phi,z}$

The phase velocity is the speed with which the crest or a zero-crossing travels in z-direction.

Note in the animations on the right that, at constant f , it is $v_{\phi,z} \propto \lambda_g$.

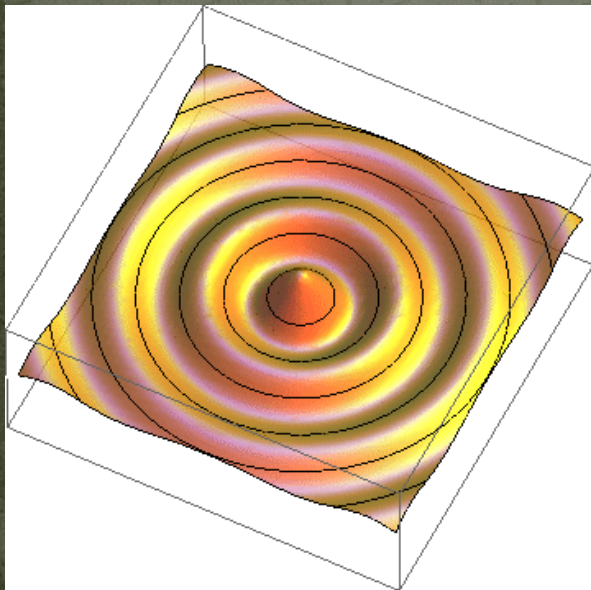
Note that at $f = f_c$, $v_{\phi,z} = \infty$!

With $f \rightarrow \infty$, $v_{\phi,z} \rightarrow c$!

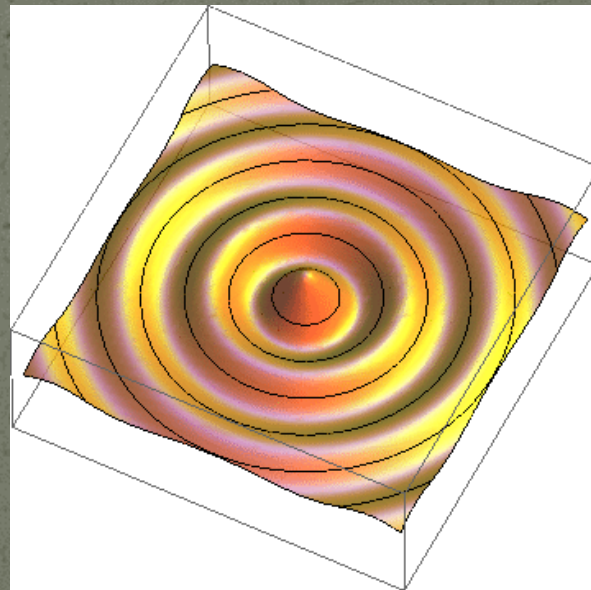


Radial waves

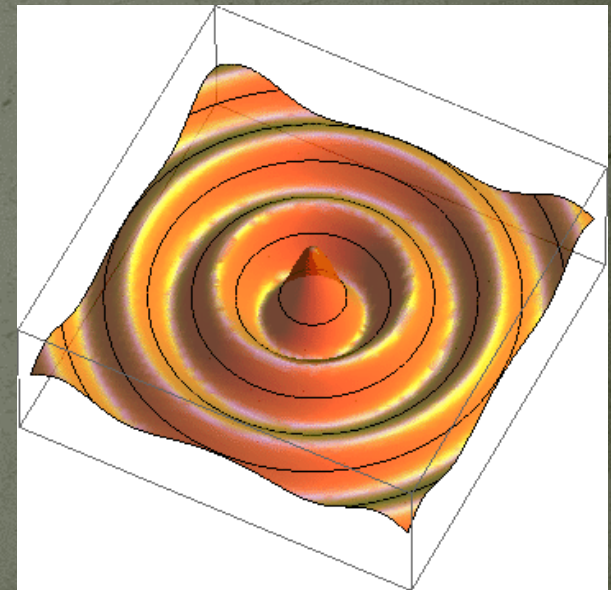
- Also radial waves may be interpreted as superpositions of plane waves.
- The superposition of an outward and an inward radial wave can result in the field of a round hollow waveguide.



$$E_z \propto H_n^{(2)}(k_\rho \rho) \cos(n\varphi)$$



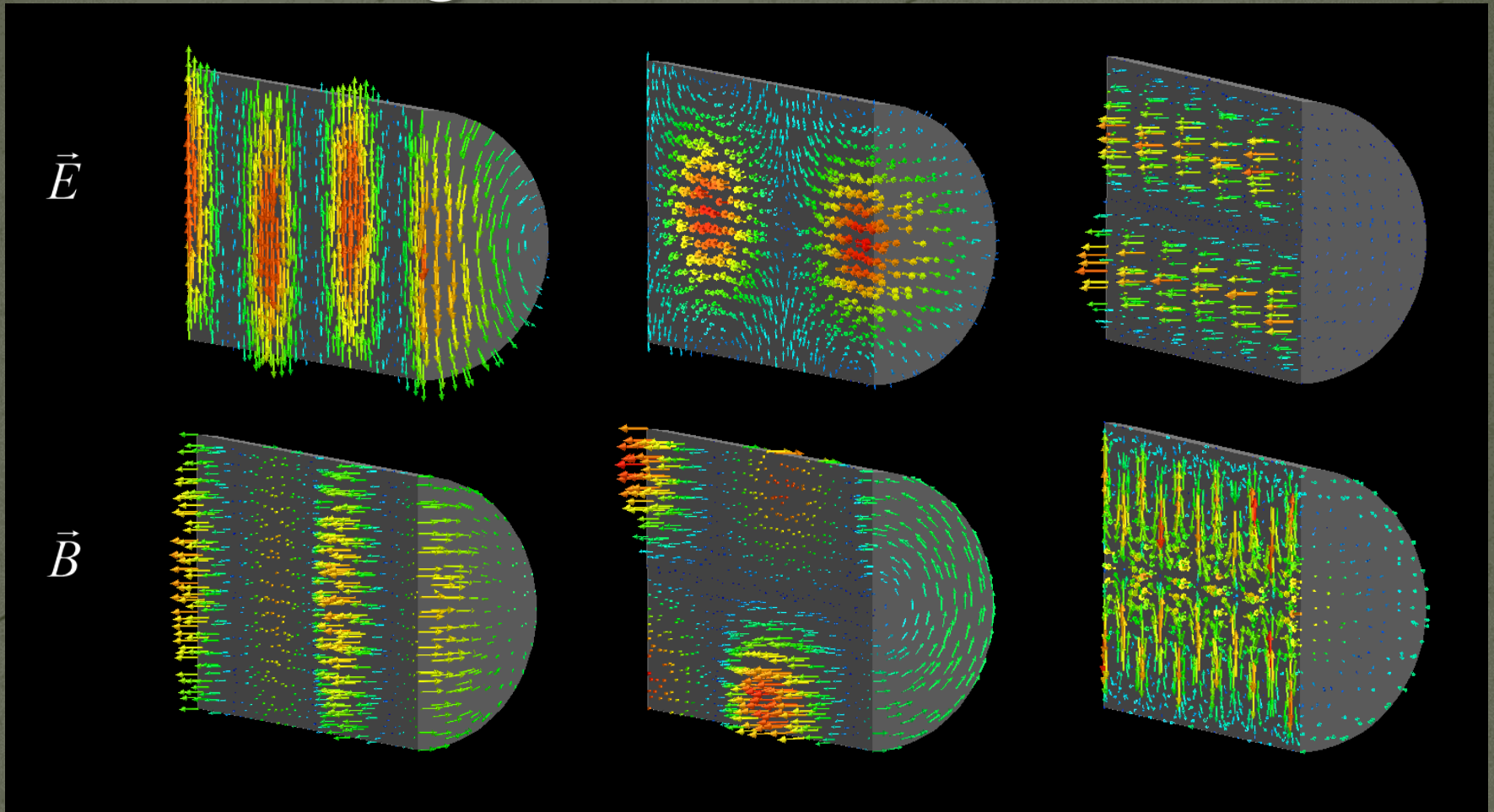
$$E_z \propto H_n^{(1)}(k_\rho \rho) \cos(n\varphi)$$



$$E_z \propto J_n(k_\rho \rho) \cos(n\varphi)$$

Round waveguide modes

parameters used in calculation:
 $f = 1.43, 1.09, 1.13 f_c$, a : radius



TE_{11} : fundamental mode

$$\frac{f_c}{\text{GHz}} = \frac{87.85}{a / \text{mm}}$$

TM_{01} : axial electric field

$$\frac{f_c}{\text{GHz}} = \frac{114.74}{a / \text{mm}}$$

TE_{01} : lowest losses!

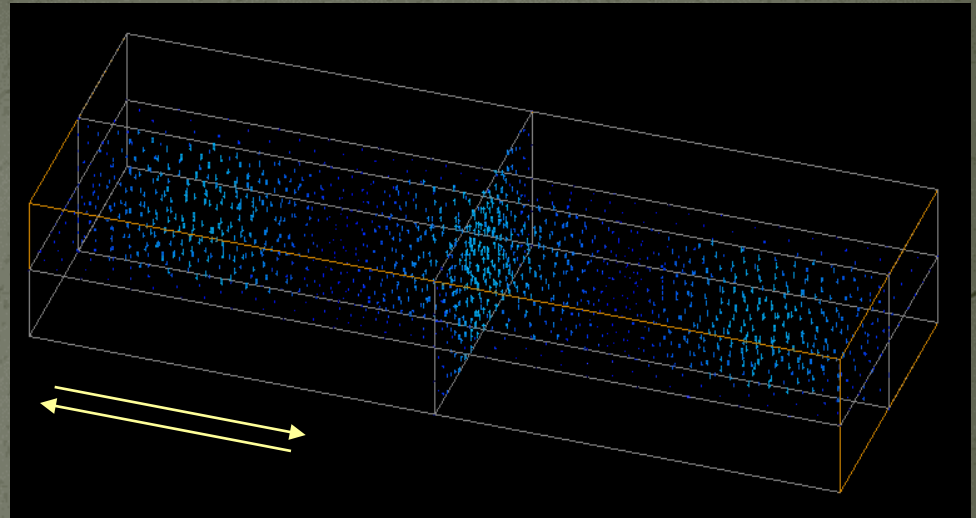
$$\frac{f_c}{\text{GHz}} = \frac{334.74}{a / \text{mm}}$$

From waveguide to cavity

Standing wave – resonator

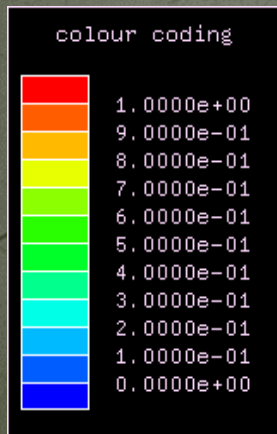
Same as above, but two counter-running waves of identical amplitude.

electric field

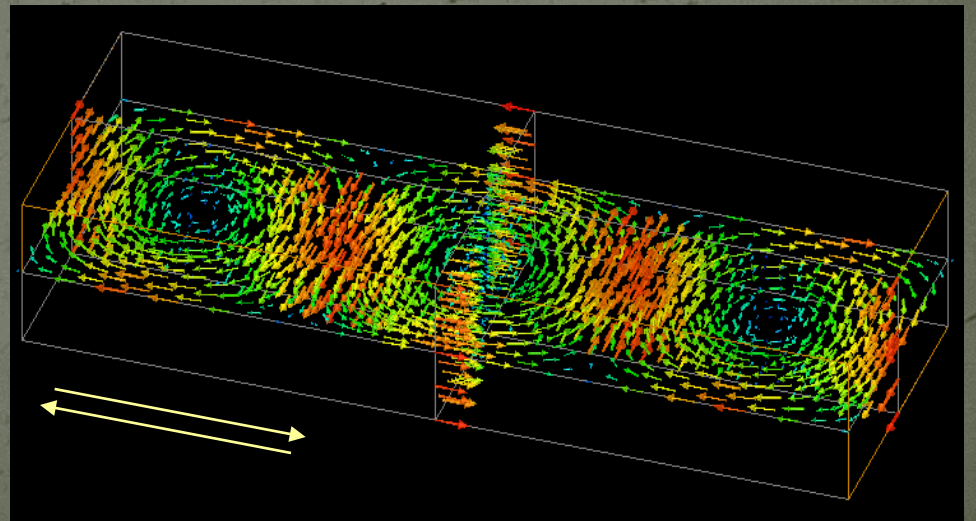


No net power flow:

$$\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \iint \vec{E} \times \vec{H}^* dA \right\} = 0$$



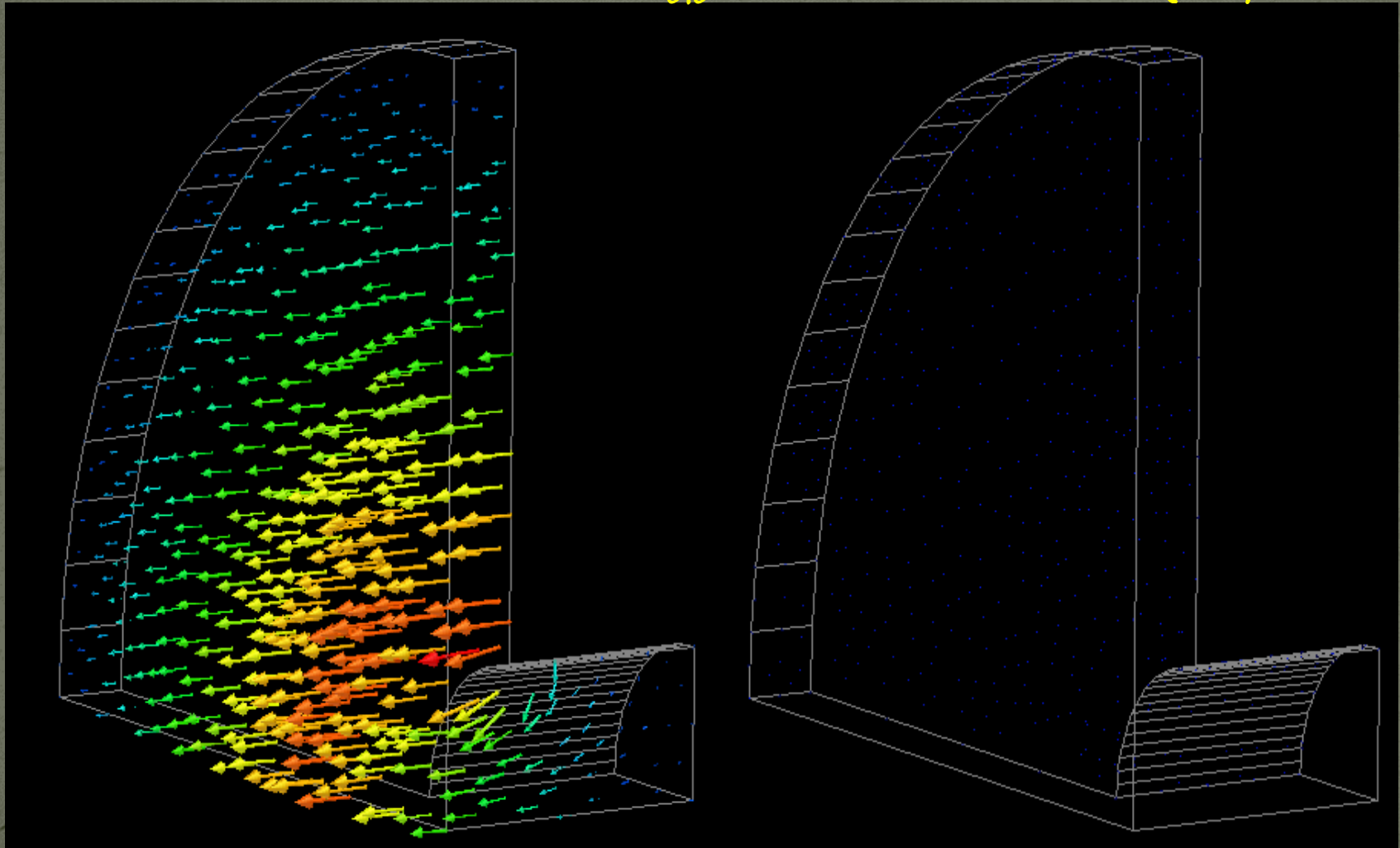
magnetic field
(90° out of phase)



A piece of round waveguide – pillbox cavity

TM_{010} -mode

(only 1/8 shown)



electric field

magnetic field

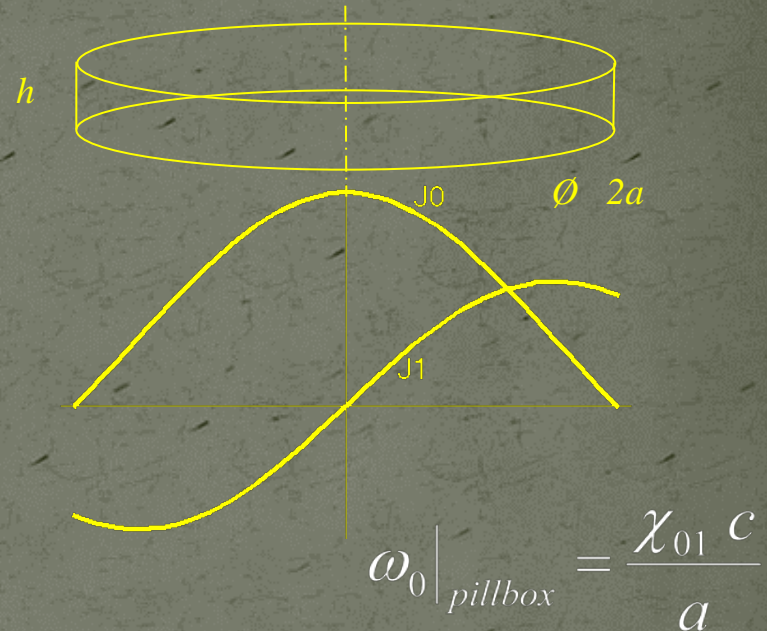
Pillbox cavity field (w/o beam tube)

The only non-vanishing field components :

$$E_z = \frac{1}{j\omega\epsilon_0} \frac{\chi_{01}}{a} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi}} \frac{J_0\left(\frac{\chi_{01}\rho}{a}\right)}{a J_1\left(\frac{\chi_{01}}{a}\right)}$$

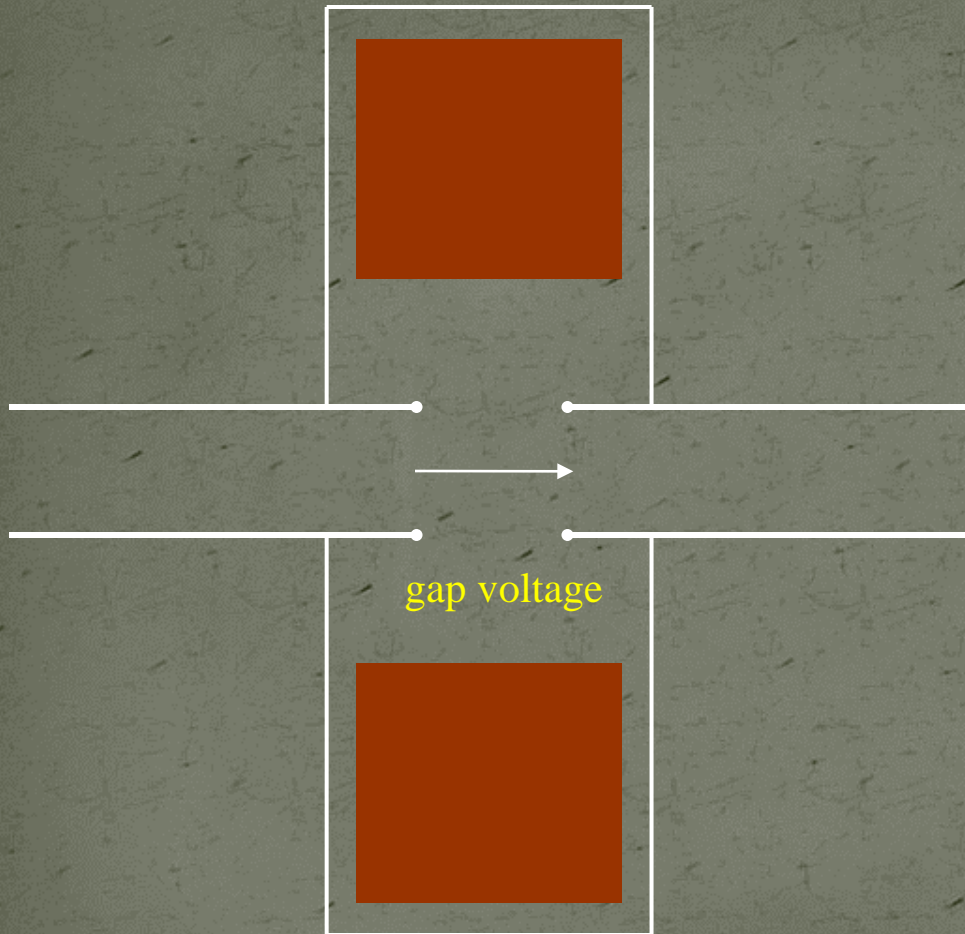
$$B_\phi = \mu_0 \sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi}} \frac{J_1\left(\frac{\chi_{01}\rho}{a}\right)}{a J_1\left(\frac{\chi_{01}}{a}\right)}$$

$$\chi_{01} = 2.40483\dots$$



Accelerating gap

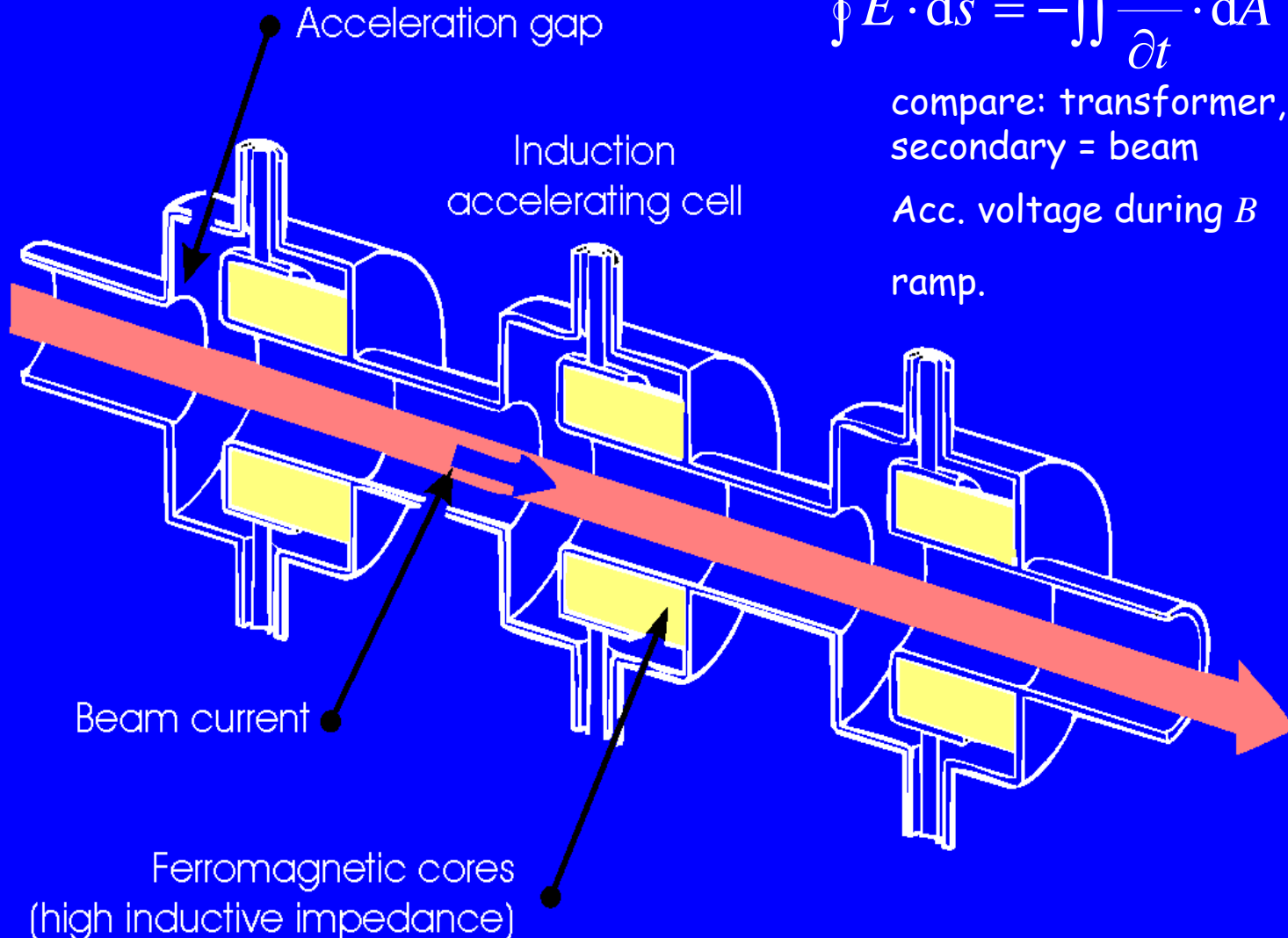
Accelerating Gap



- We want a voltage across the gap!
- It cannot be DC, since we want the beam tube on ground potential.
- Use $\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = - \iint \frac{d\vec{B}}{dt} \cdot d\vec{A}$
- The “shield” imposes a
 - upper limit of the voltage pulse duration or – equivalently –
 - a lower limit to the usable frequency.
- The limit can be extended with a material which acts as “open circuit”!
- Materials typically used:
 - ferrites (depending on f -range)
 - magnetic alloys (MA) like Metglas®, Finemet®, Vitrovac®...
- resonantly driven with RF (ferrite loaded cavities) – or with pulses (induction cell).

Linear induction accelerator

Linear induction accelerator

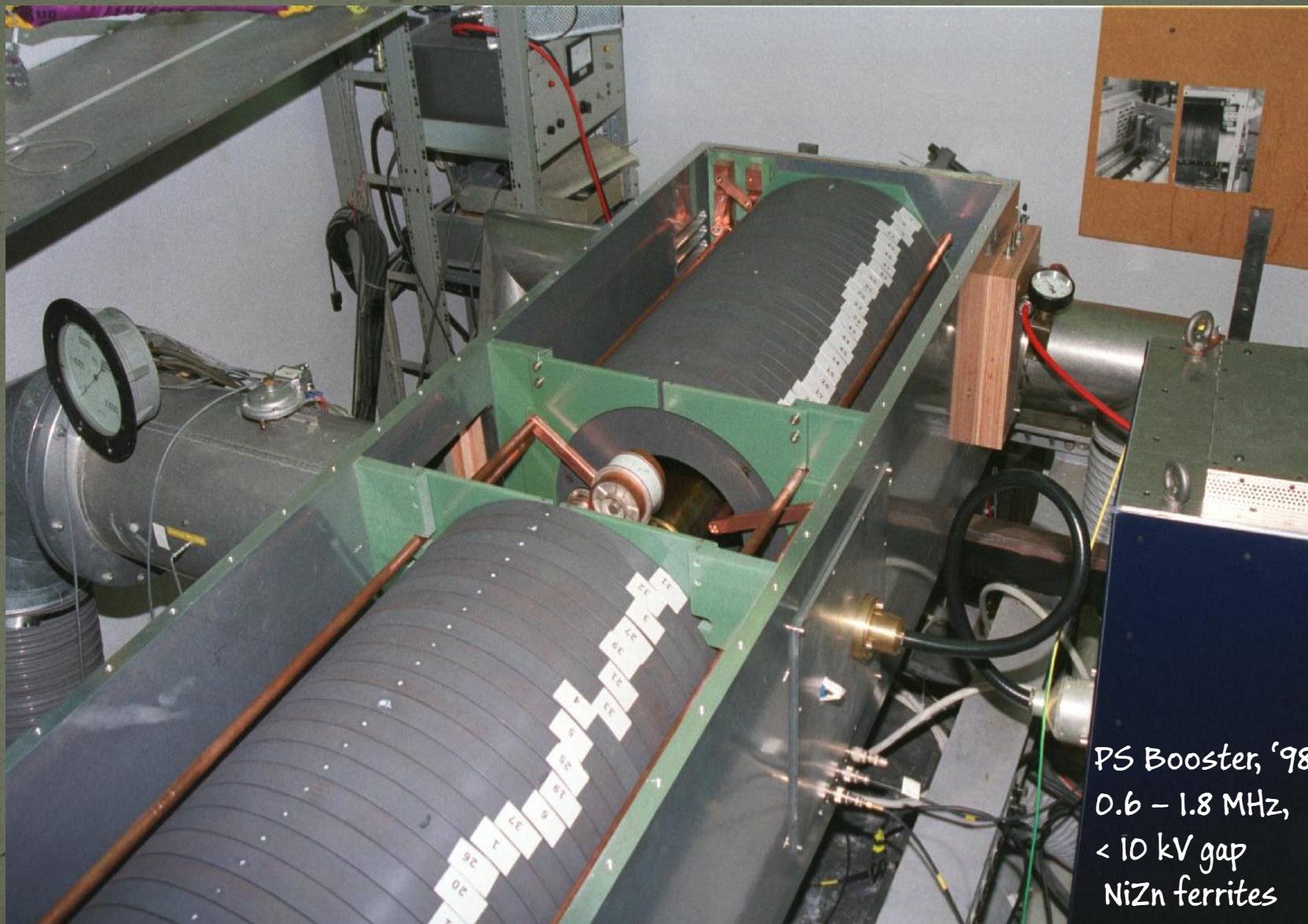


$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = - \iint \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \cdot d\vec{A}$$

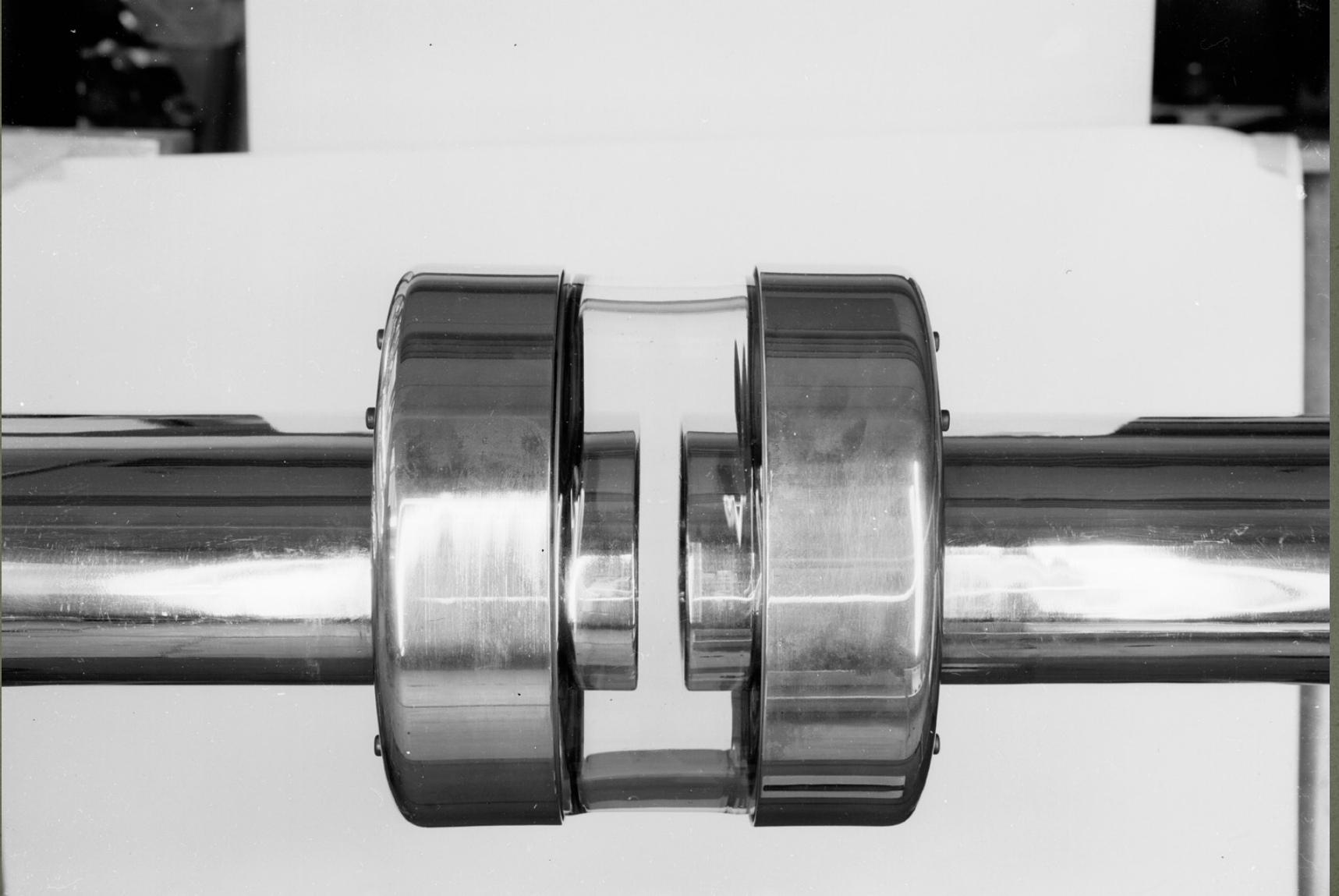
compare: transformer,
secondary = beam

Acc. voltage during B
ramp.

Ferrite cavity



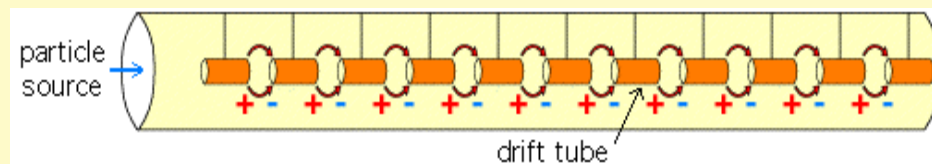
Gap of PS cavity (prototype)



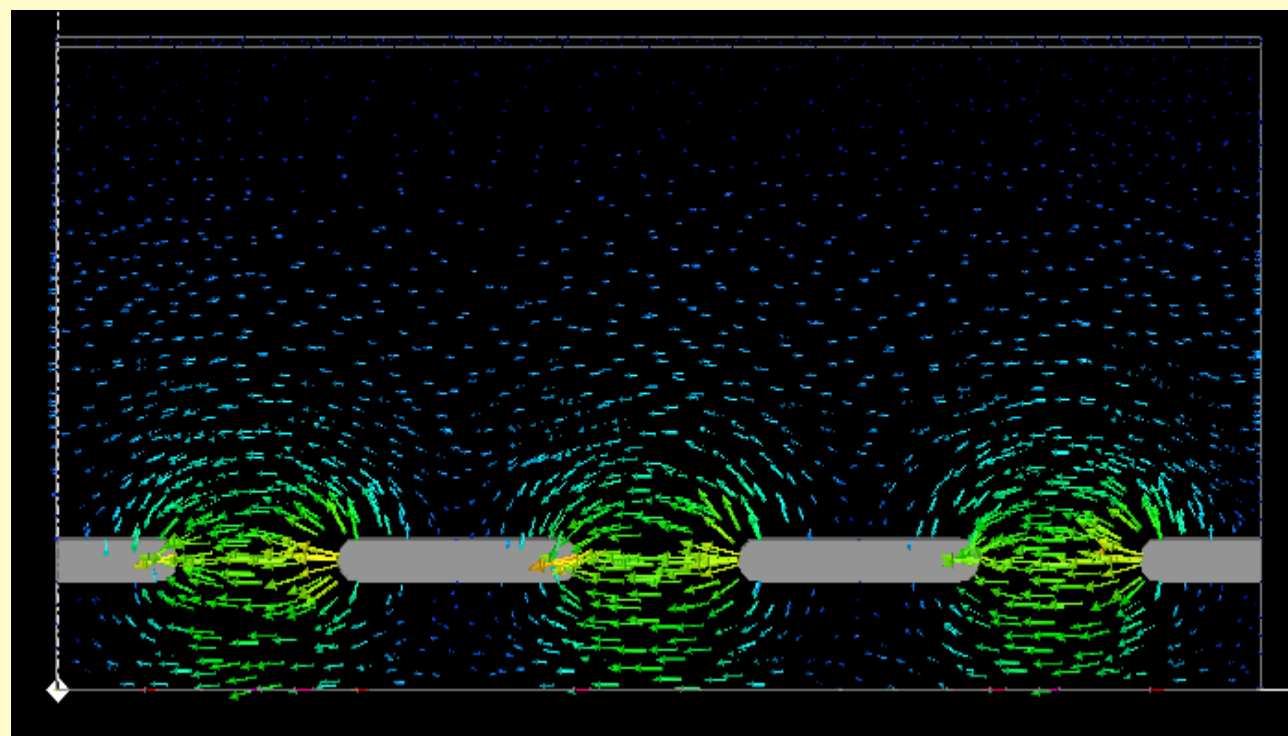
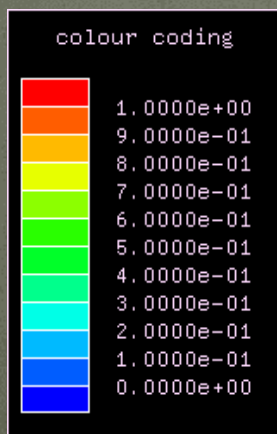
Drift Tube Linac (DTL) – how it works

aka Alvarez*)

For slow particles –
protons @ few MeV e.g. –
the drift tube lengths
can easily be adapted.

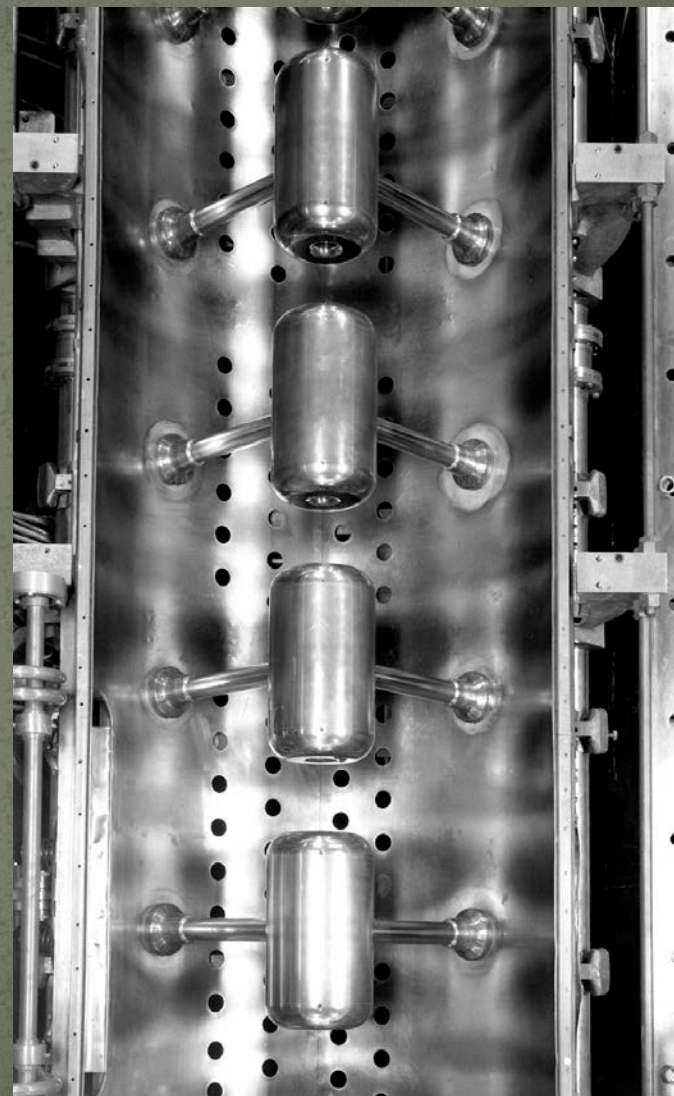
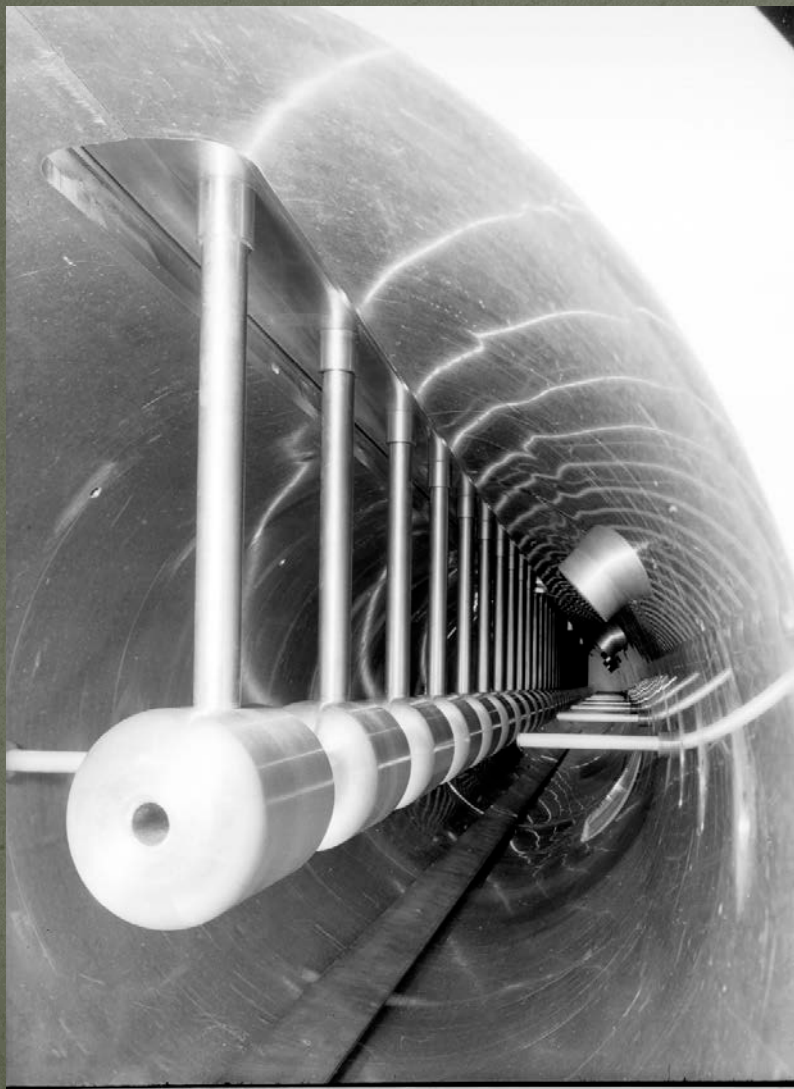


electric field



*) not Marc, but Luis Walter

Drift tube linac – practical implementations



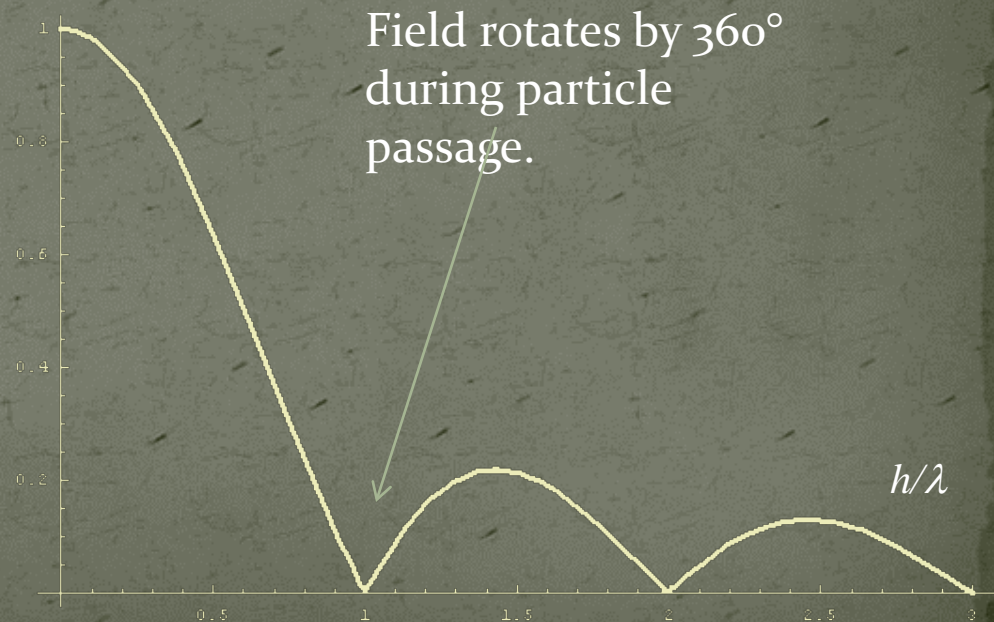
Transit time factor

The transit time factor is the ratio of the acceleration voltage to the (non-physical) voltage a particle with infinite velocity would see.

$$TT = \frac{|V_{acc}|}{|\int E_z dz|} = \frac{|\int E_z e^{j\omega z} dz|}{\int E_z dz}$$

The transit time factor of an ideal pillbox cavity (no axial field dependence) of height (gap length) h is:

$$TT = \sin\left(\frac{\chi_{01}h}{2a}\right) / \left(\frac{\chi_{01}h}{2a}\right)$$



End of RF Systems I
