

RF Systems

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Outline

- Definitions and basic concepts
- On modulation
- Digital Signal Processing
- RF System & Control Loops
- RF Power Sources
- Fields in a Waveguide
- From Waveguide to Cavity
- Accelerating Gap
- Characterizing a Cavity
- Many Gaps
- Superconducting Cavities
- Some Examples of RF Systems

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).
$$g(t) \circ \bullet G(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t) e^{j\omega t} dt$$
- The inverse transform (IFT) is also referred to as *Fourier Integral*
$$G(\omega) \bullet \circ g(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(\omega) e^{-j\omega t} d\omega$$
- 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 is composed of”.

Time domain – frequency domain (2)

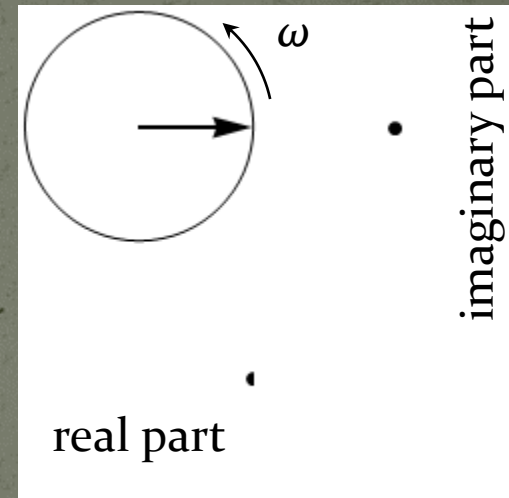
- For T -periodic signals, the FT becomes the Fourier-Series, $d\omega$ becomes $2\pi/T$, \int becomes Σ .
- The cousin of the FT is the *Laplace transform*, which uses a complex variable (often s) instead of $j\omega$; it has generally a better convergence behaviour.
- Numerical implementations of the 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} .

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”.

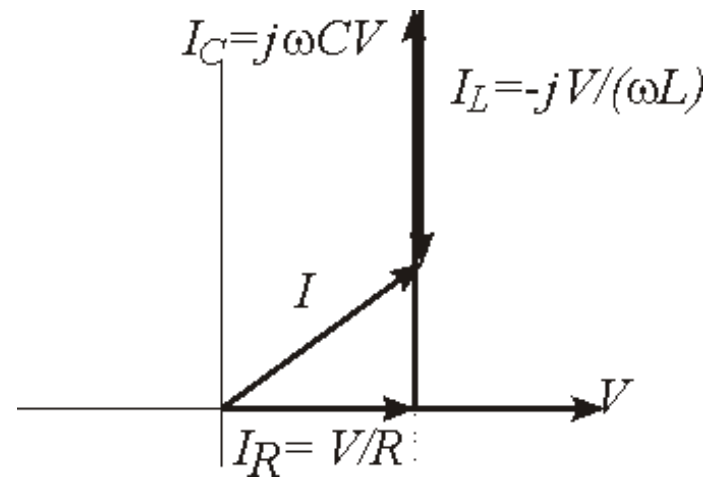
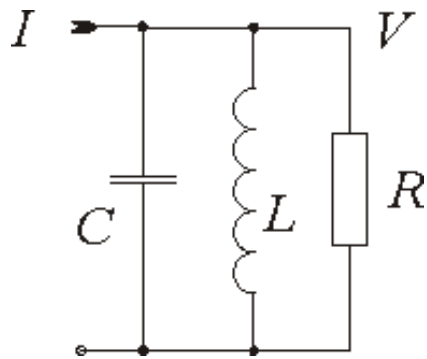
$$\tilde{A} = A(\cos(\varphi) + j \sin(\varphi))$$



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

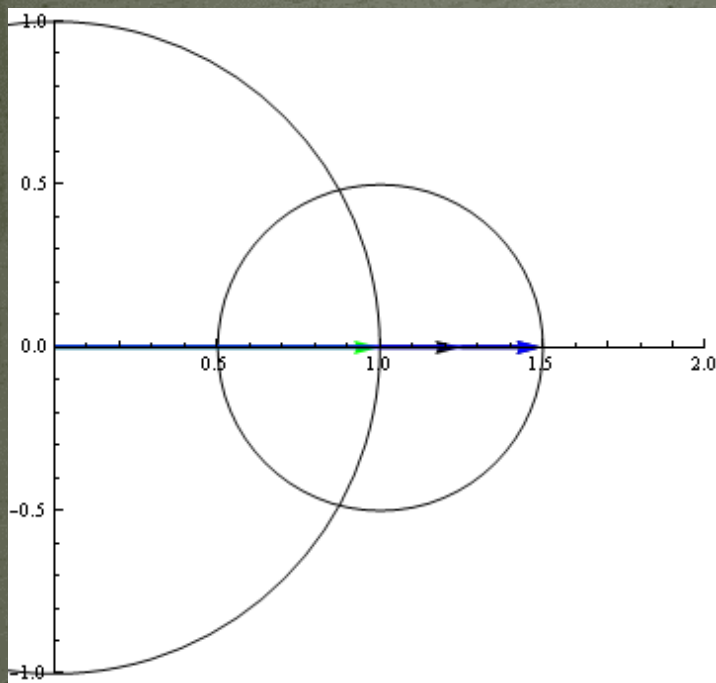
Amplitude modulation

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

m : modulation index or modulation depth

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

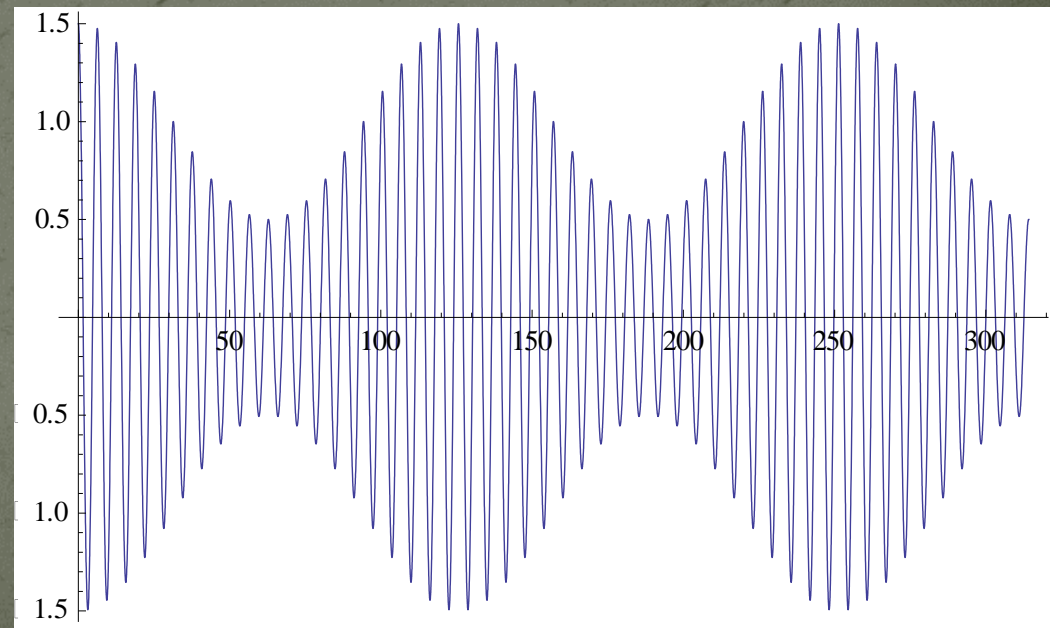
$m = 0.5$



green: carrier

black: sidebands at $\pm f_m$

blue: sum



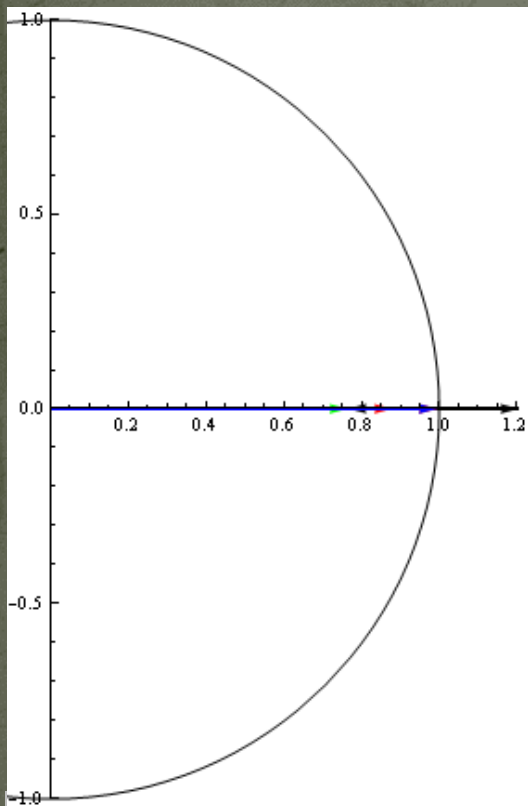
Phase modulation

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

M : modulation index
(= max. phase deviation)

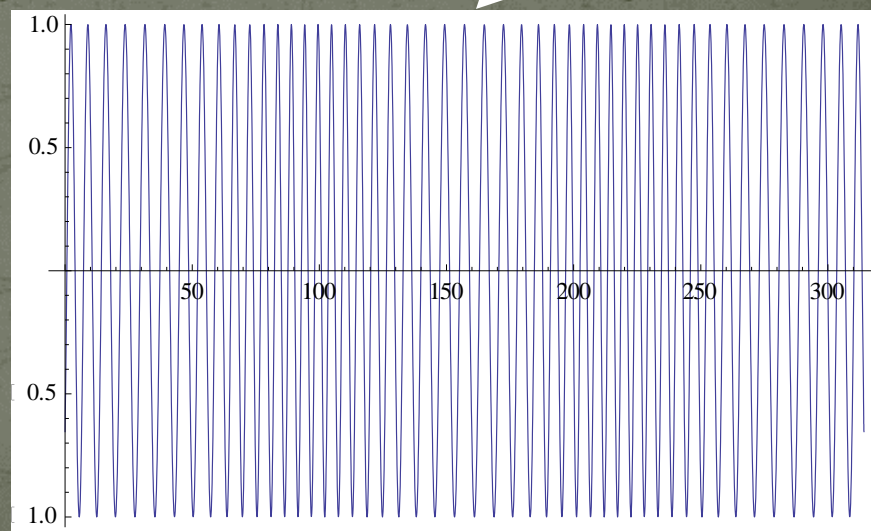
$$\varphi = \omega_m t = 0.05 \omega_c t$$

$$M = 4$$



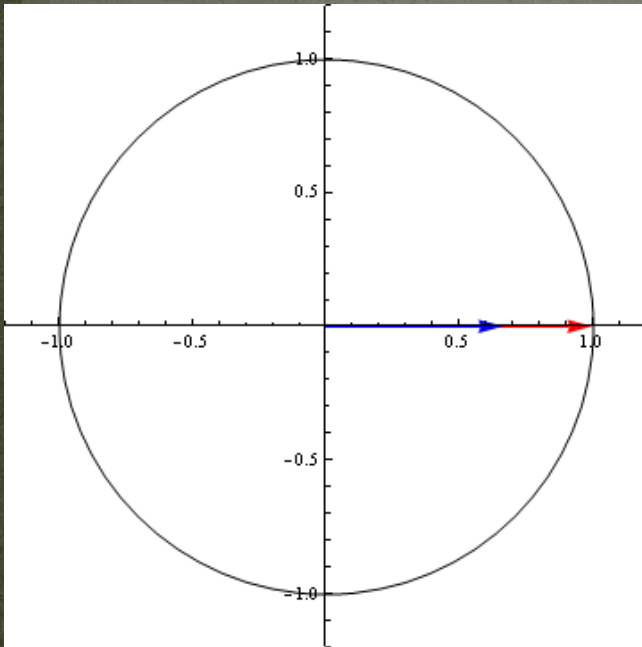
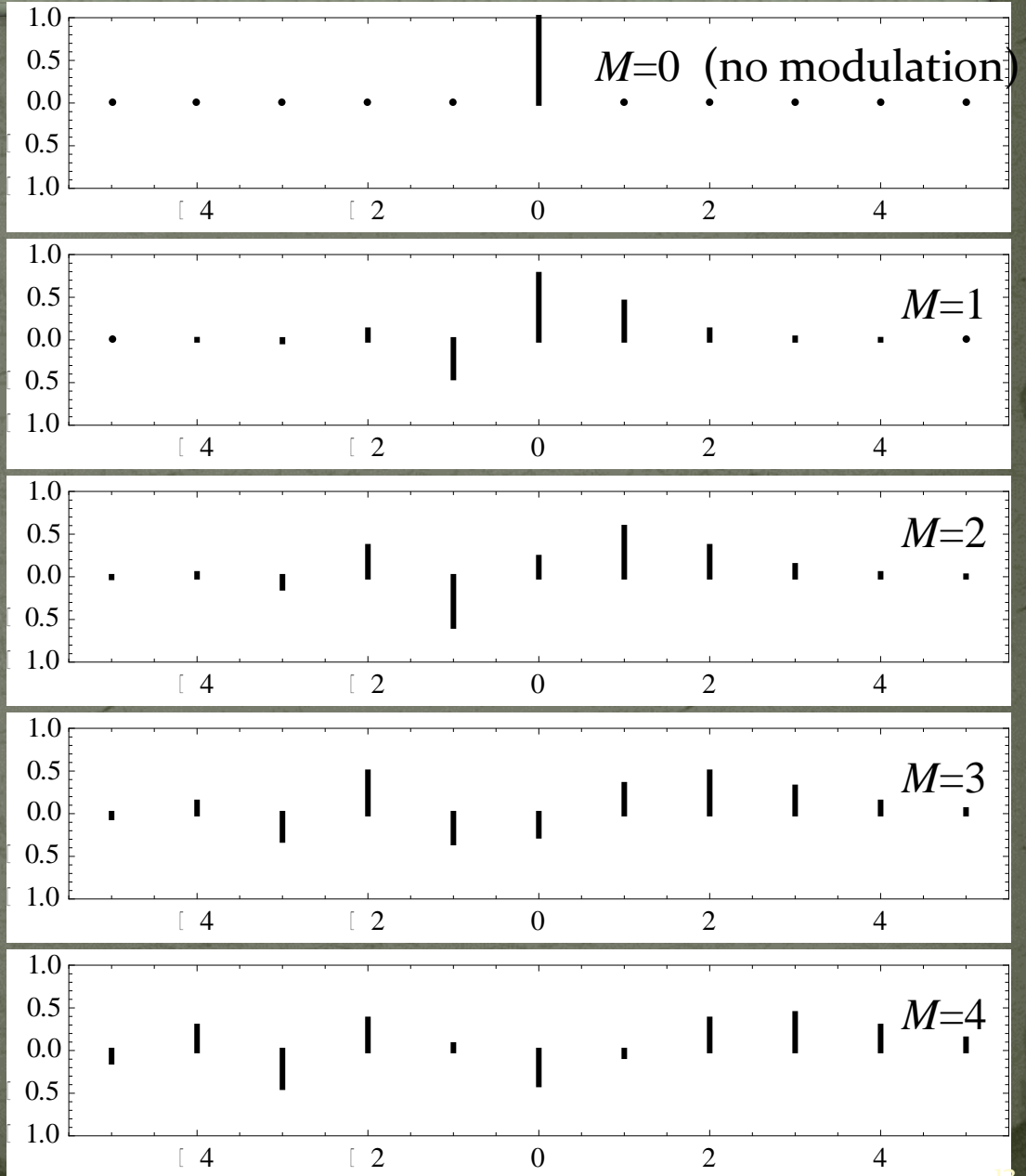
Green: $n=0$ (carrier)
black: $n=1$ sidebands
red: $n=2$ sidebands
blue: sum

$$M = 1$$



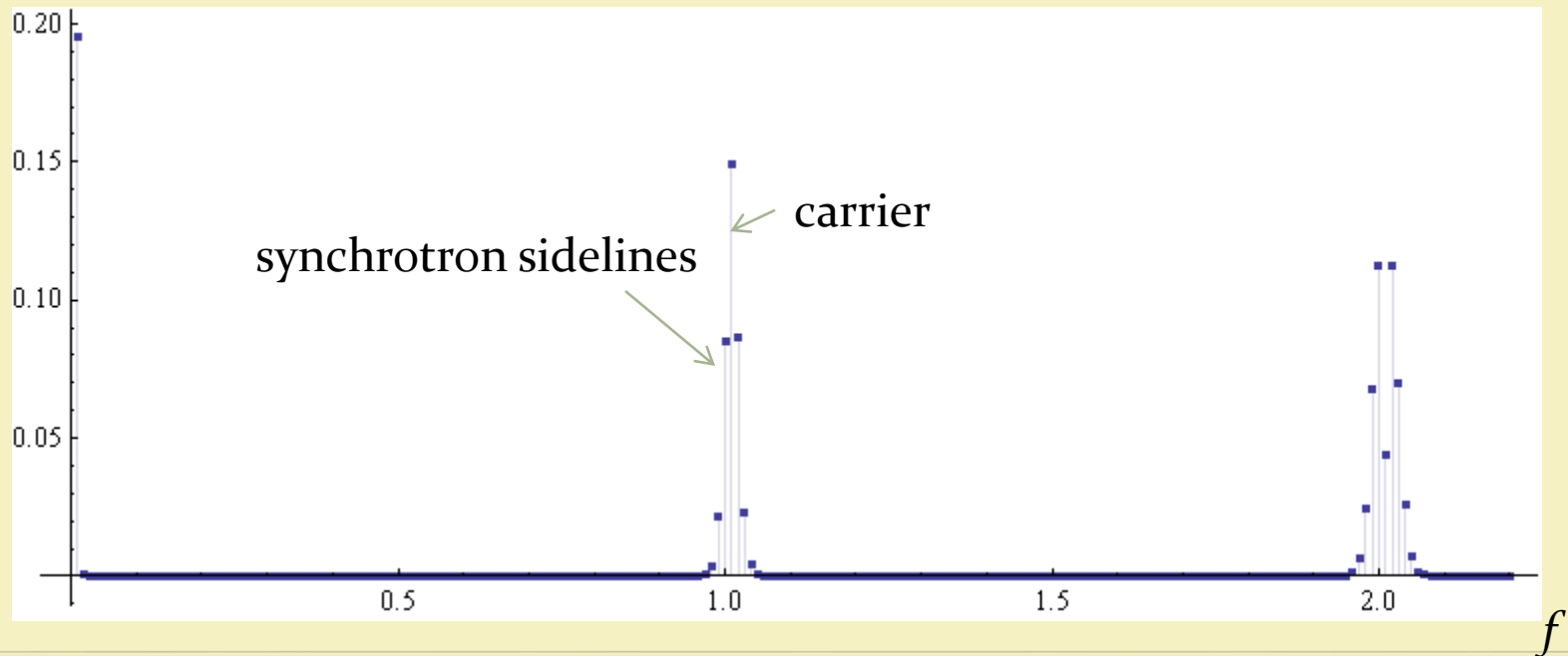
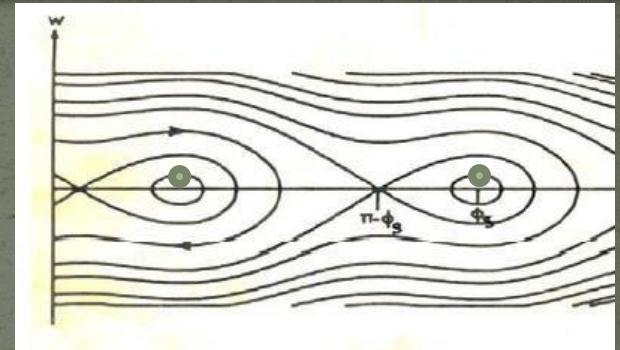
Spectrum of phase modulation

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

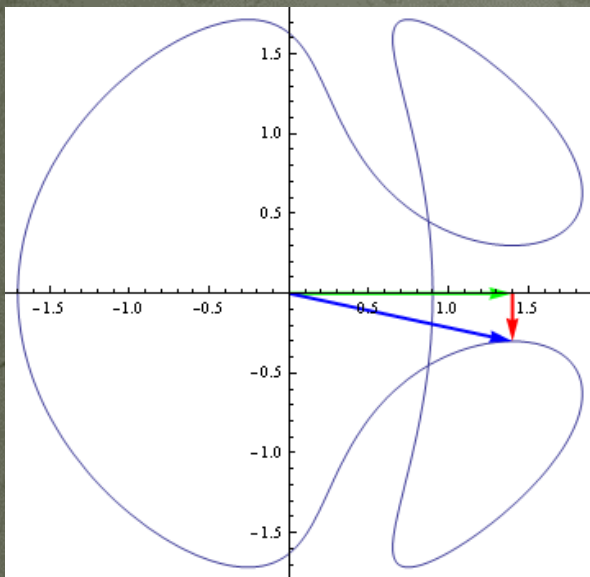
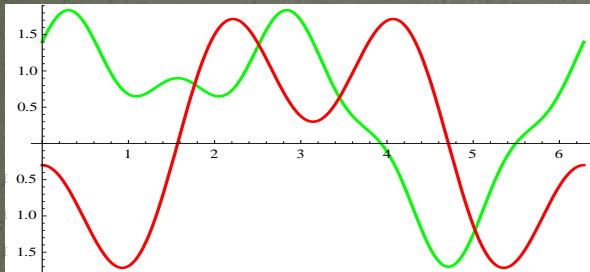


Phase modulation with $M=\pi$:
 red: real phase modulation
 blue: sum of sidebands $n \leq 3$

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:

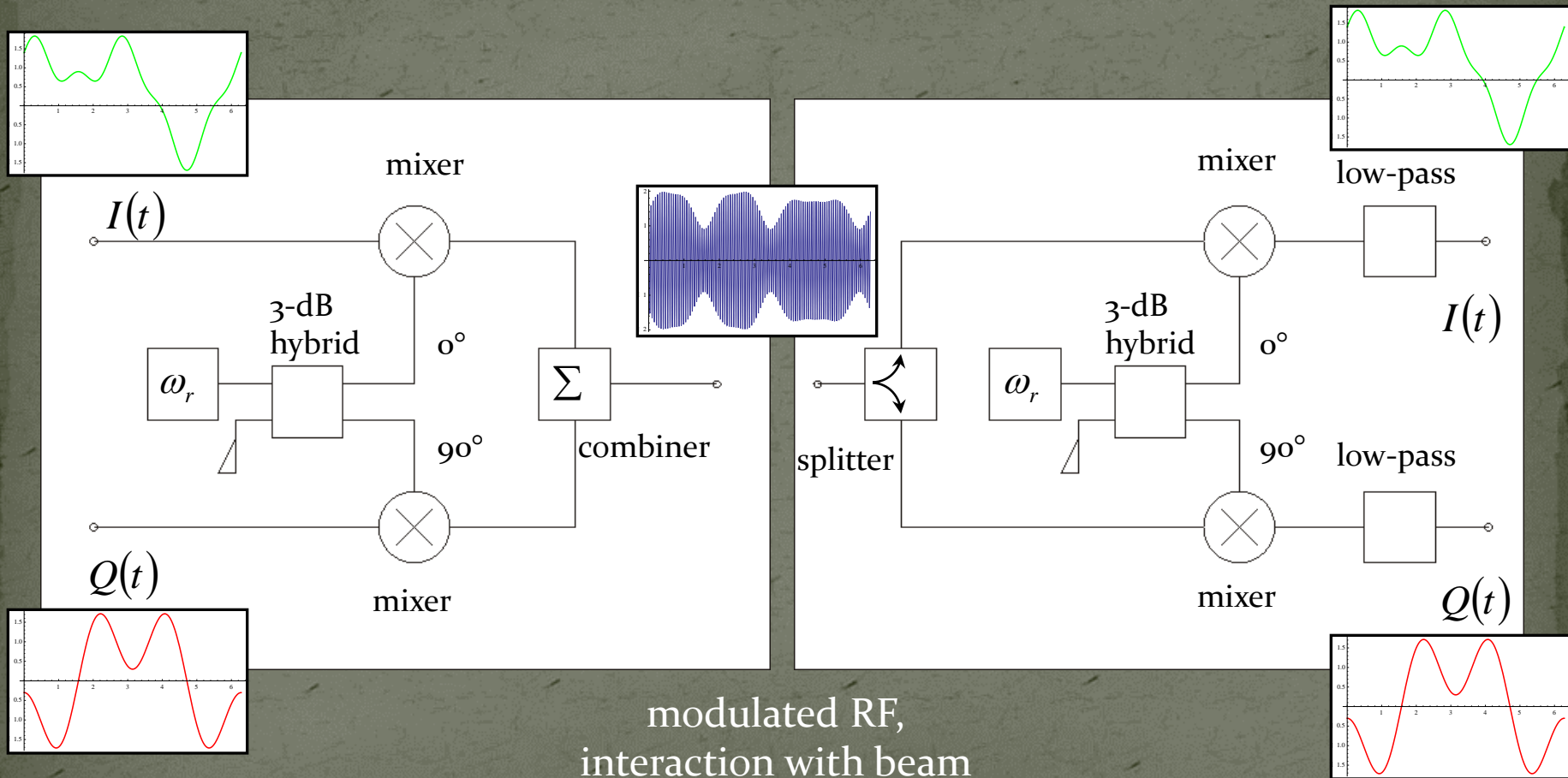
$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Re}\{(I(t) + jQ(t))e^{j\omega_r t}\} &= \\ \operatorname{Re}\{(I(t) + jQ(t))(\cos(\omega_r t) + j\sin(\omega_r t))\} &= \\ I(t)\cos(\omega_r t) - Q(t)\sin(\omega_r t) & \end{aligned}$$

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

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

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

Vector modulator/demodulator

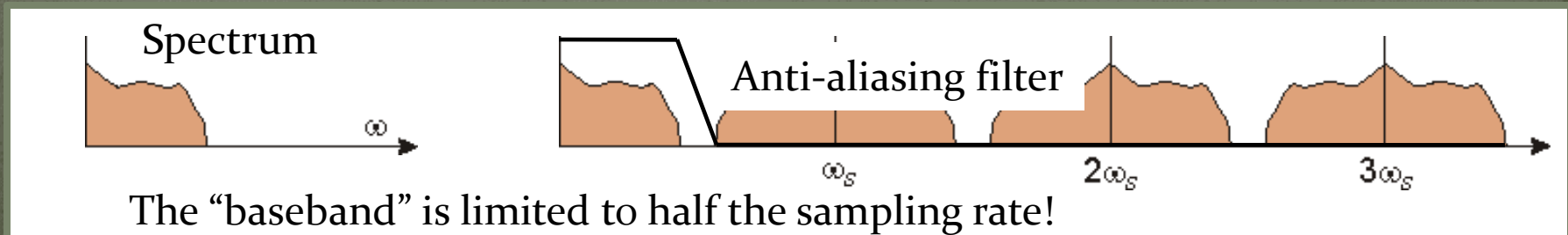
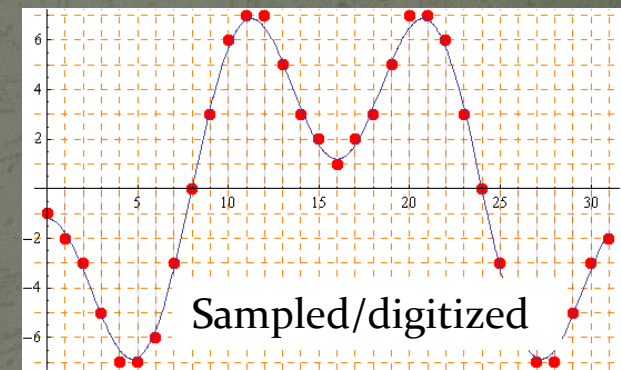
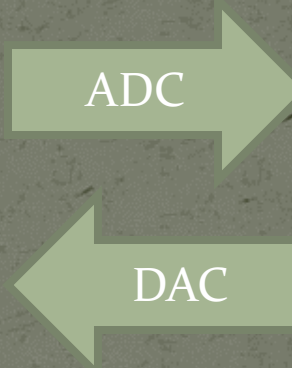
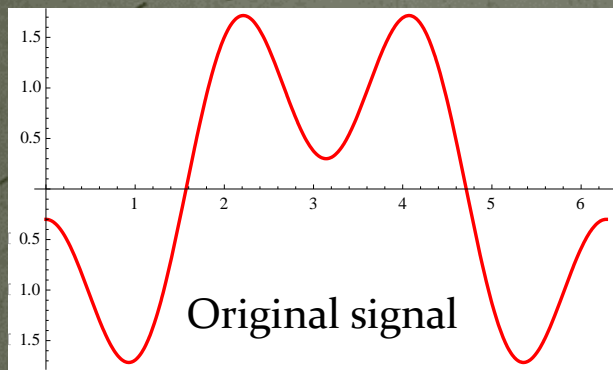


Digital Signal Processing

Just some basics

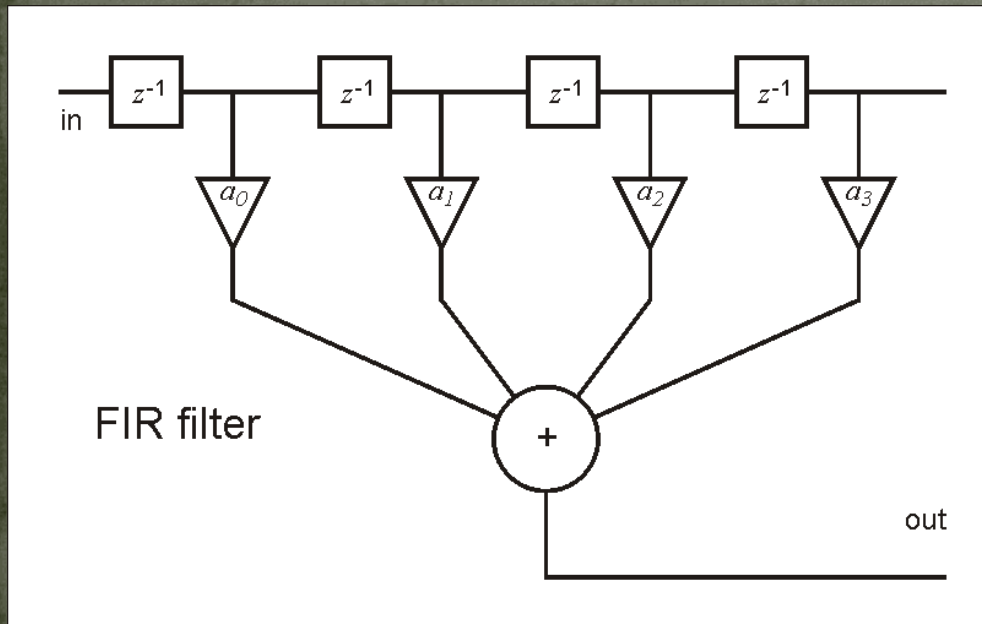
Sampling and quantization

- 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):

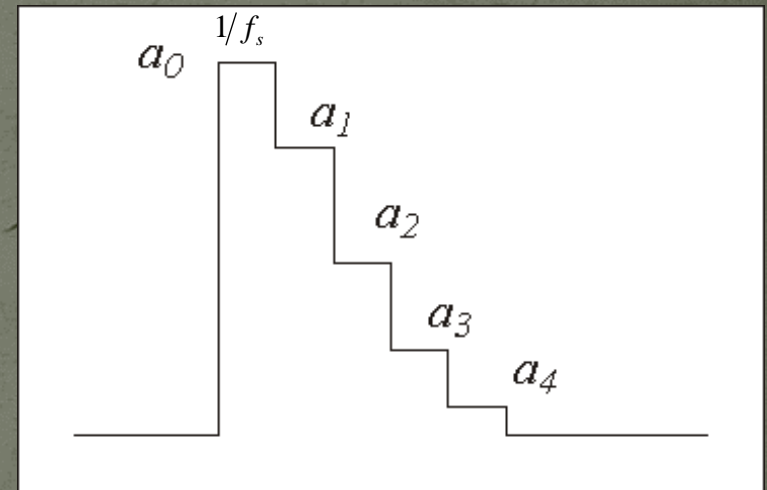


Digital filters (1)

- 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.



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

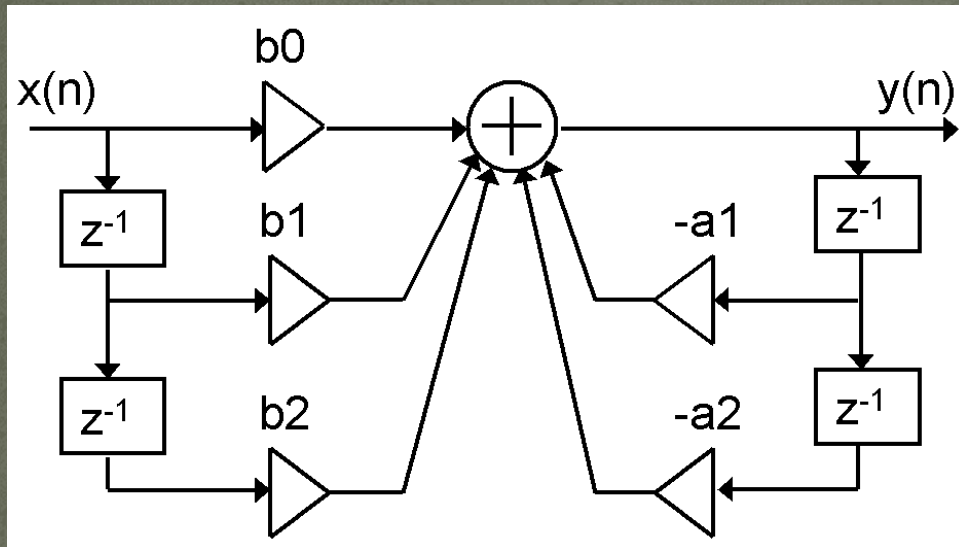


Transfer function:

$$a_0 + a_1z^{-1} + a_2z^{-2} + a_3z^{-3} + a_4z^{-4}$$

Digital filters (2)

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

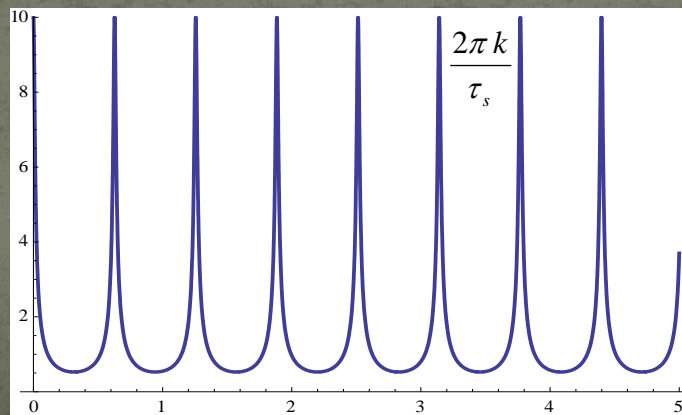


Transfer function:

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

Example:

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



... is a comb filter

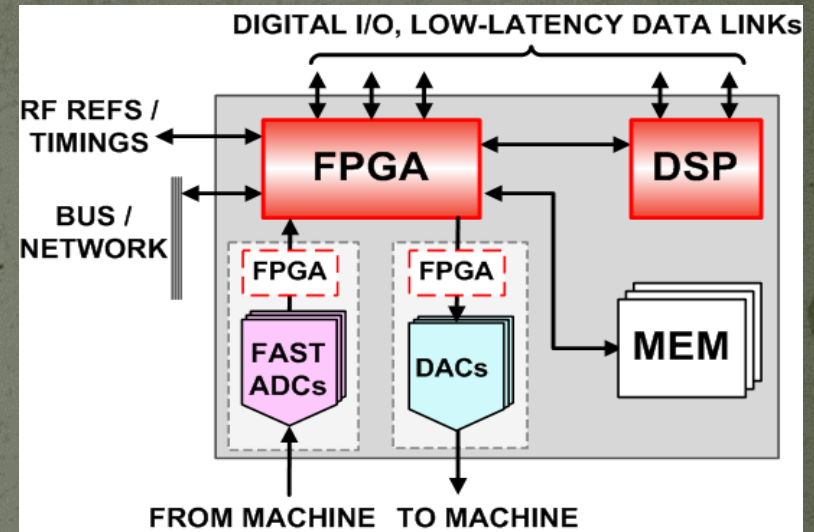
Digital LLRF building blocks – examples

- General D-LLRF board:

- modular!

FPGA: Field-programmable gate array

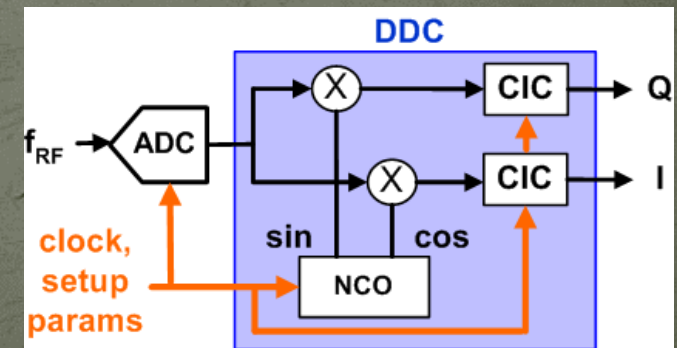
DSP: Digital Signal Processor



- DDC (Digital Down Converter)

- Digital version of the I-Q demodulator

CIC: cascaded integrator-comb (a special low-pass filter)



RF system & control loops

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

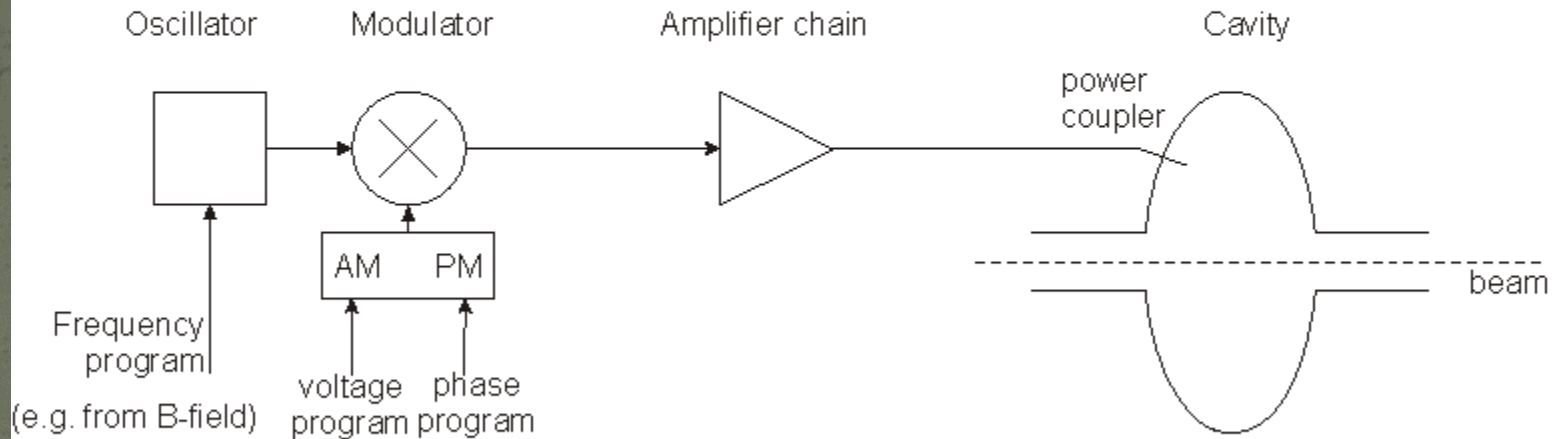
Cavity control loops

Beam control loops

Minimal RF system (of a synchrotron)

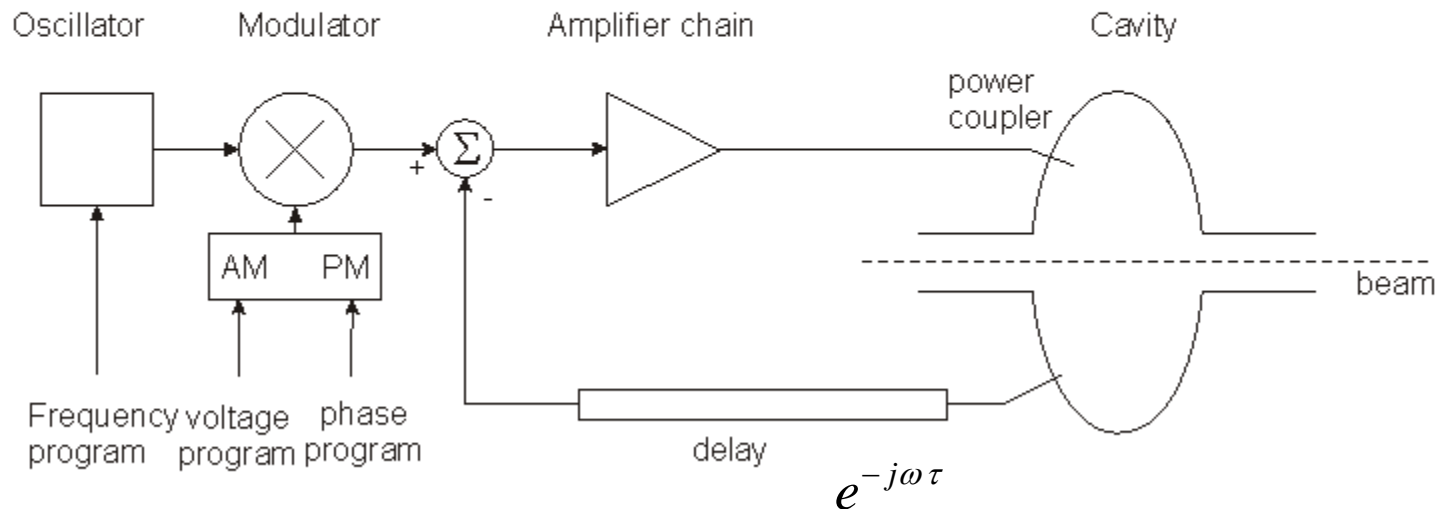
Low-level RF

High-Power RF



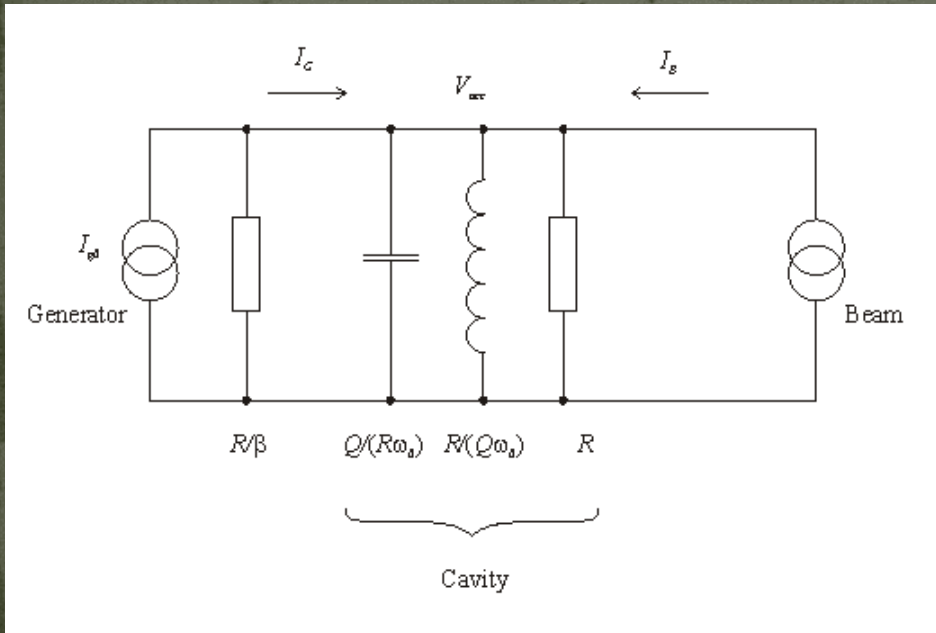
- The frequency has to be controlled to follow the magnetic field such that the beam remains in the centre of the vacuum chamber.
- The voltage has to be controlled to allow for capture at injection, a correct bucket area during acceleration, matching before ejection; phase may have to be controlled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

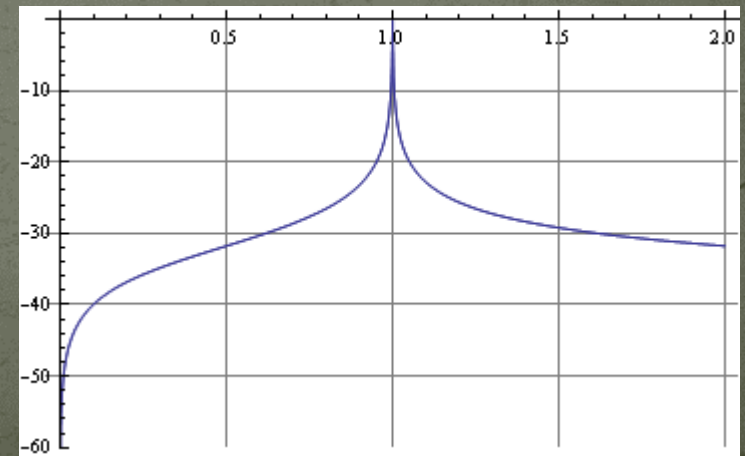
- Without feedback, $V_{acc} = (I_{G0} + I_B) \cdot Z(\omega)$

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
$$I_{G0} = I_{drive} - G \cdot V_{acc}$$

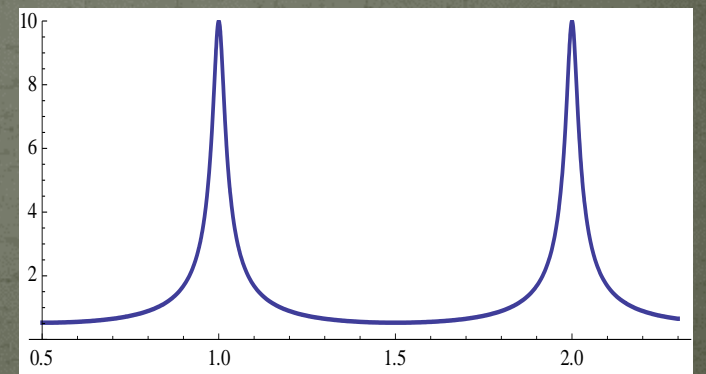
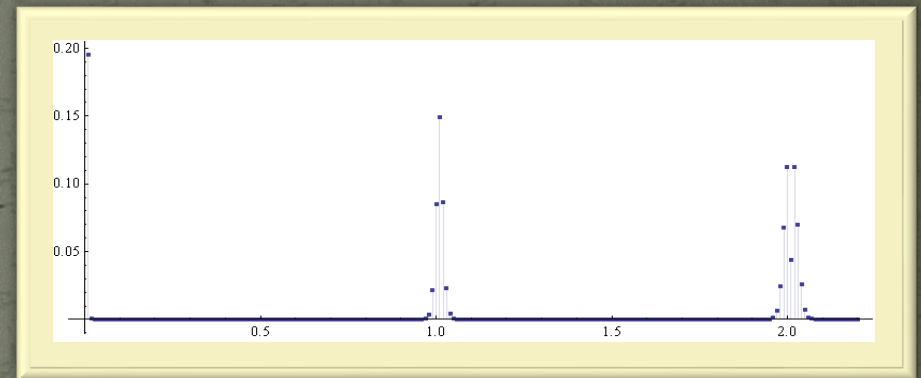
where G is the total loop gain (pick-up, cable, amplifier chain ...)

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

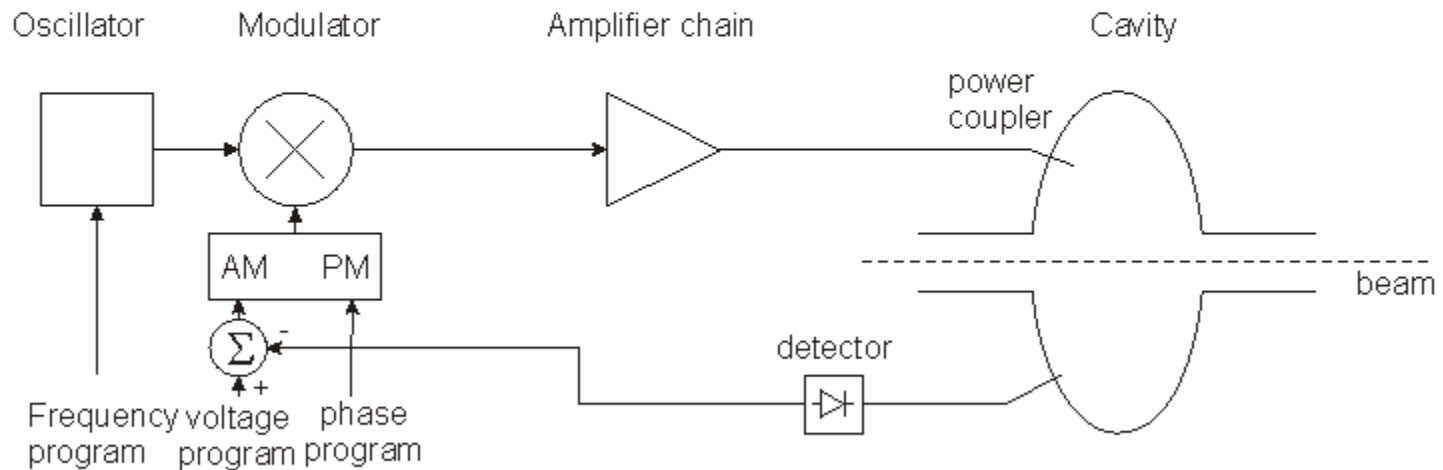


1-turn delay feed-back loop

- 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!

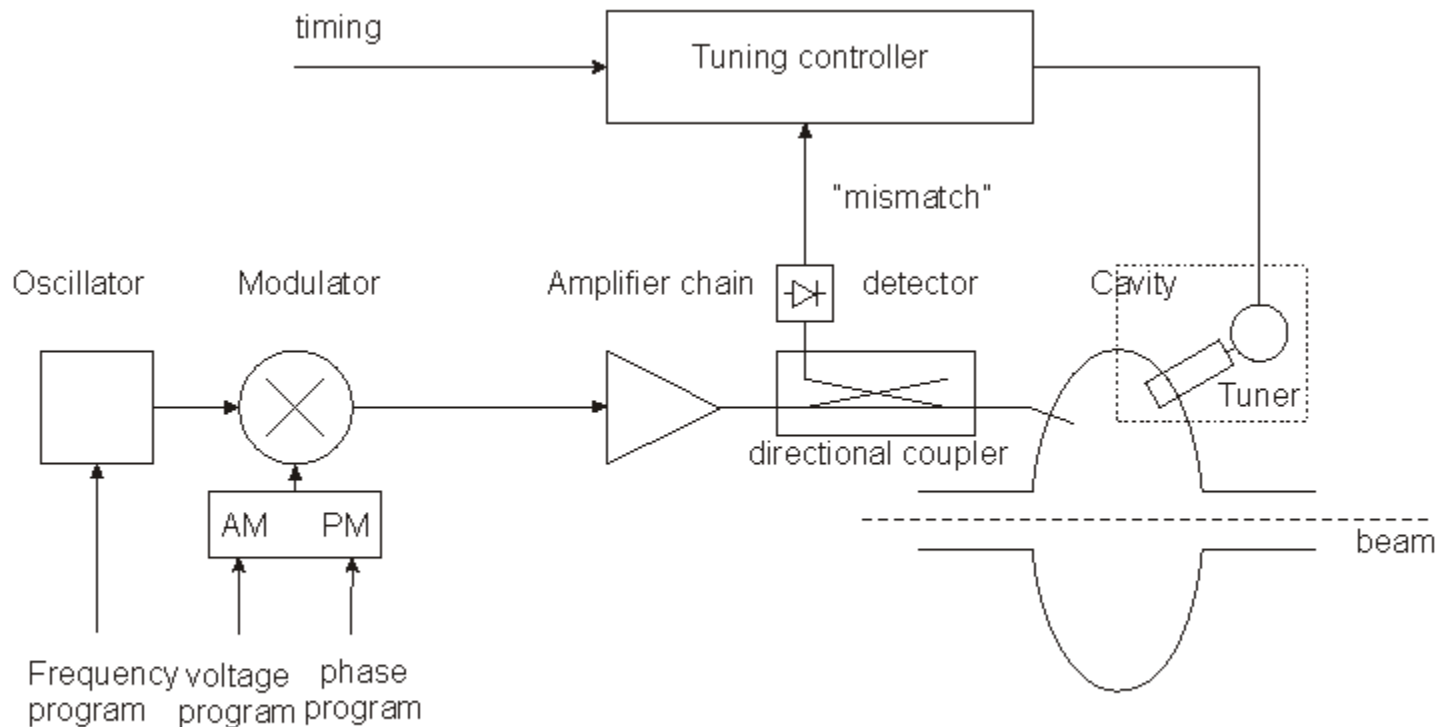


Field amplitude control loop (AVC)



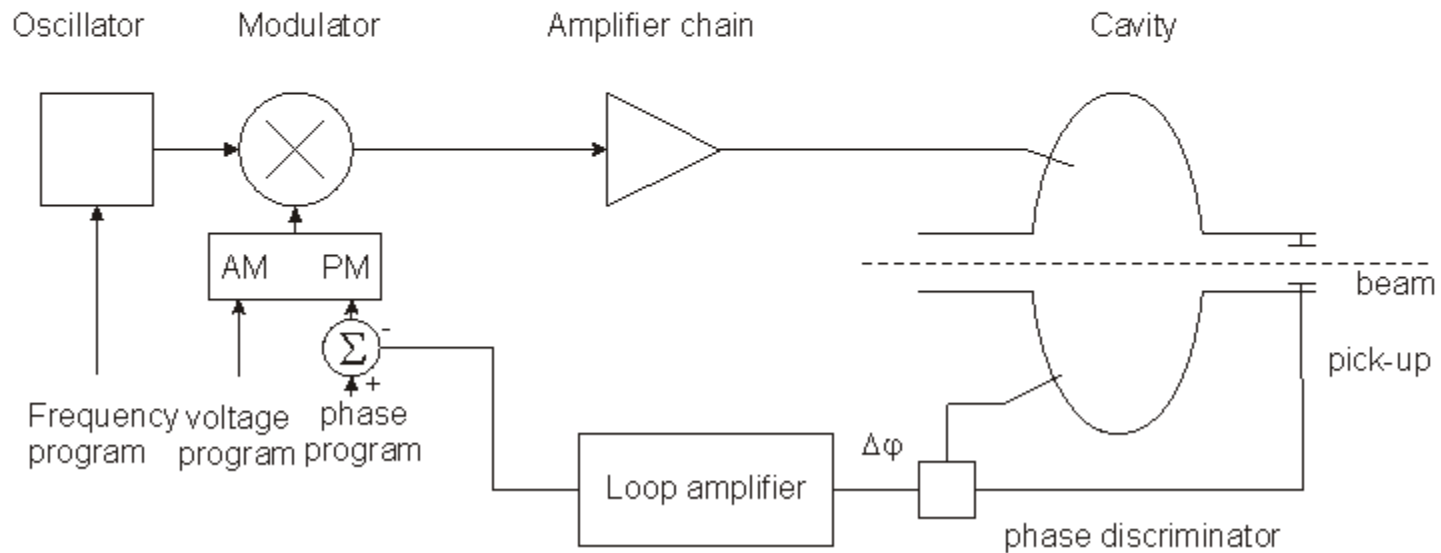
- Compares the detected cavity voltage to the voltage program. The error signal serves to correct the amplitude

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, ...

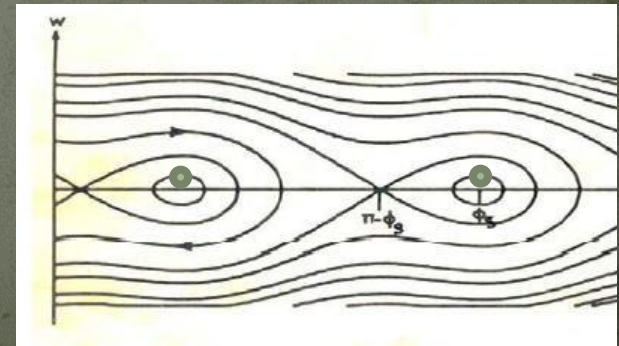
Beam phase loop



- 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:

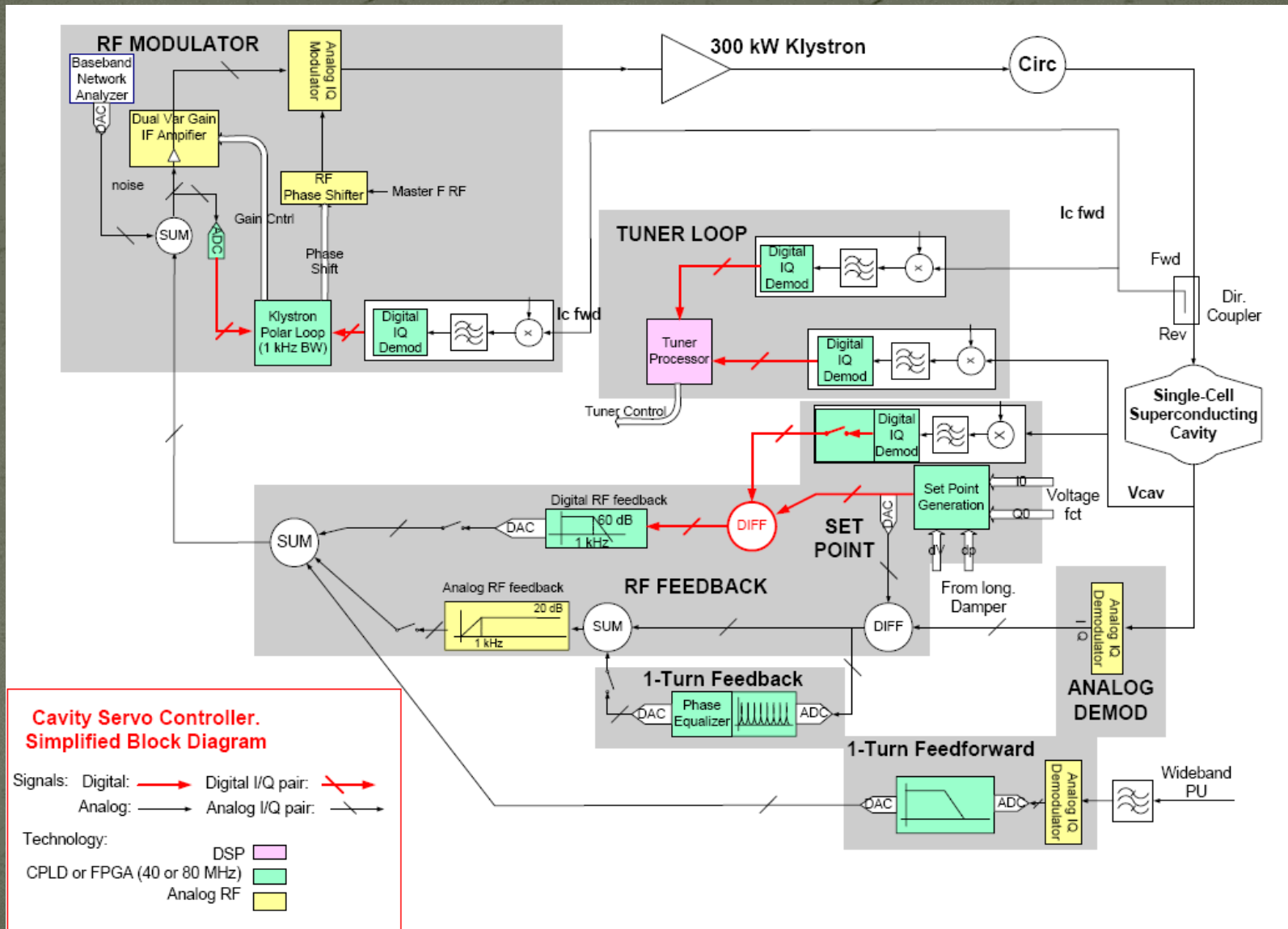
$$\frac{d^2(\Delta\phi)}{dt^2} + \alpha \frac{d(\Delta\phi)}{dt} + \Omega_s^2(\Delta\phi)^2 = 0$$



Other loops

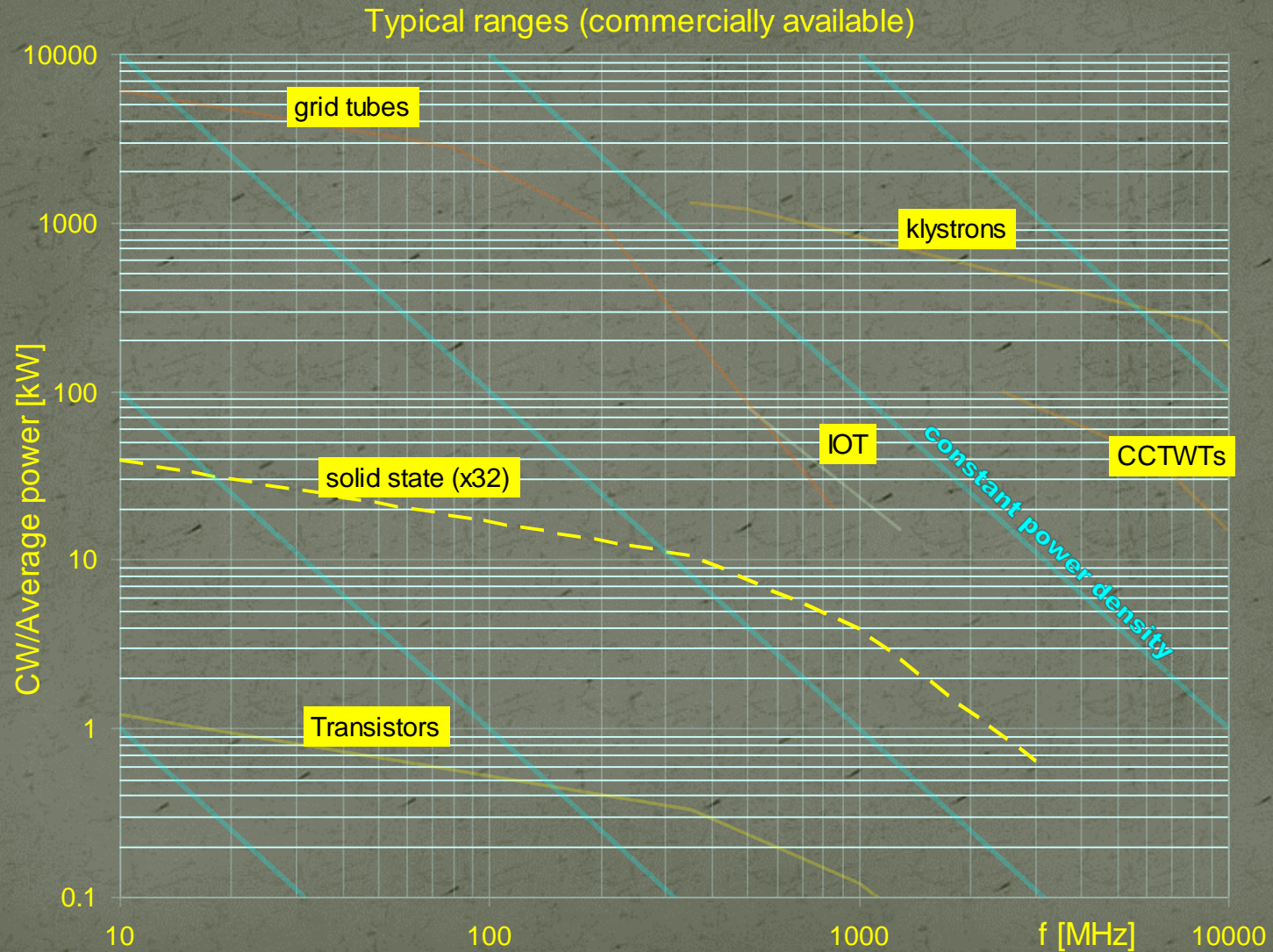
- Radial loop:
 - Detect average radial position of the beam,
 - Compare to a programmed radial position,
 - Error signal controls the frequency.
- Synchronisation loop:
 - 1st step: Synchronize f to an external frequency (will also act on radial position!).
 - 2nd step: phase loop
- ...

A real implementation: LHC LLRF

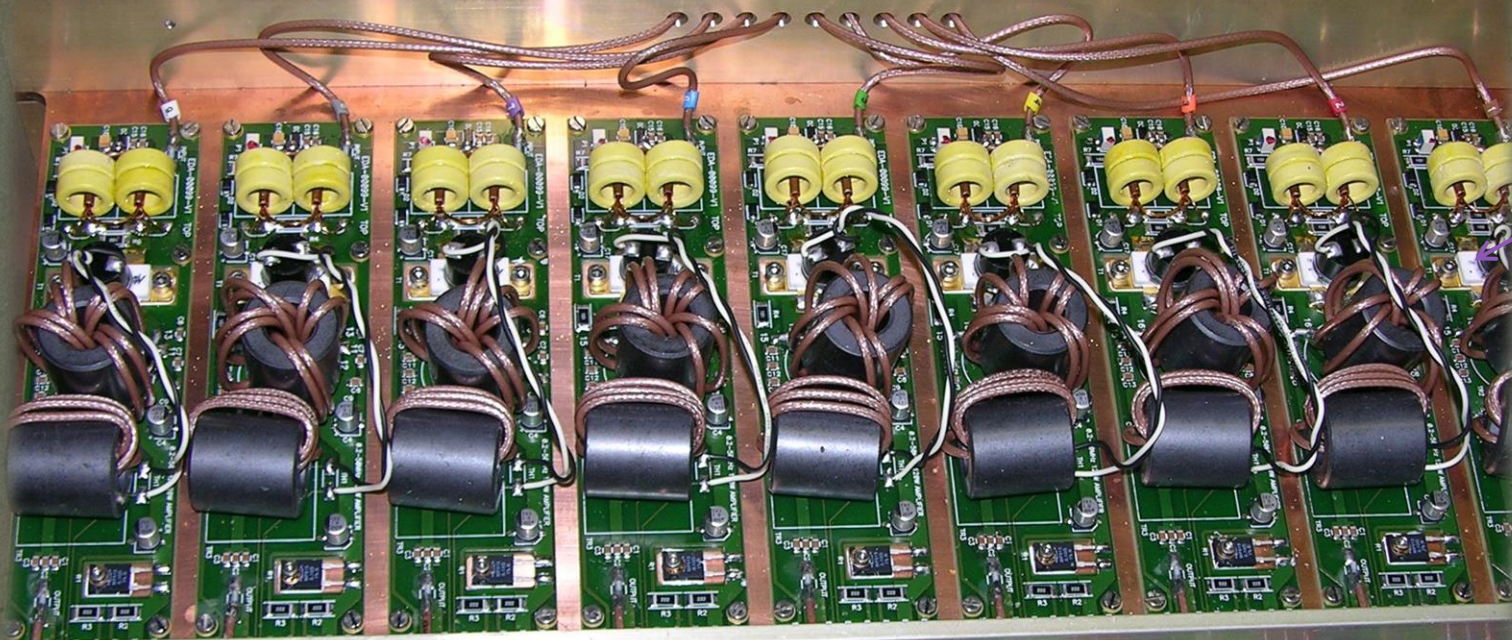


RF power sources

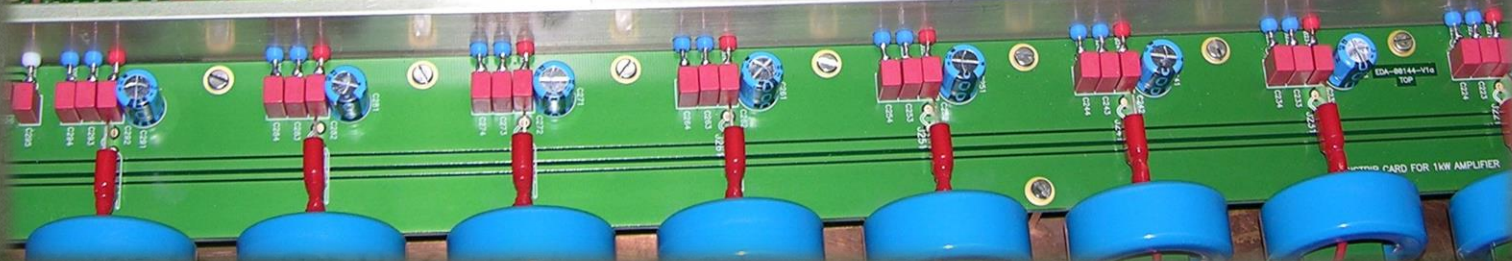
RF power sources



LEIR SSPA, 1 kW, 0.2 – 50 MHz

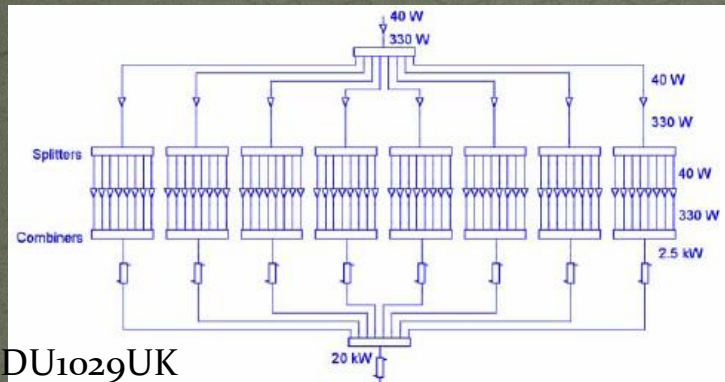


MRF151G



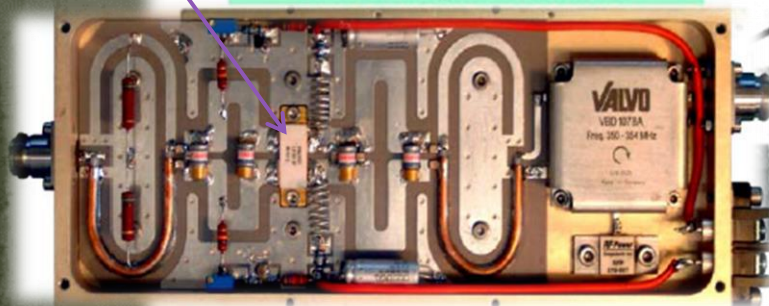
Soleil Booster SSPA, 40 kW, 352 MHz

147 modules

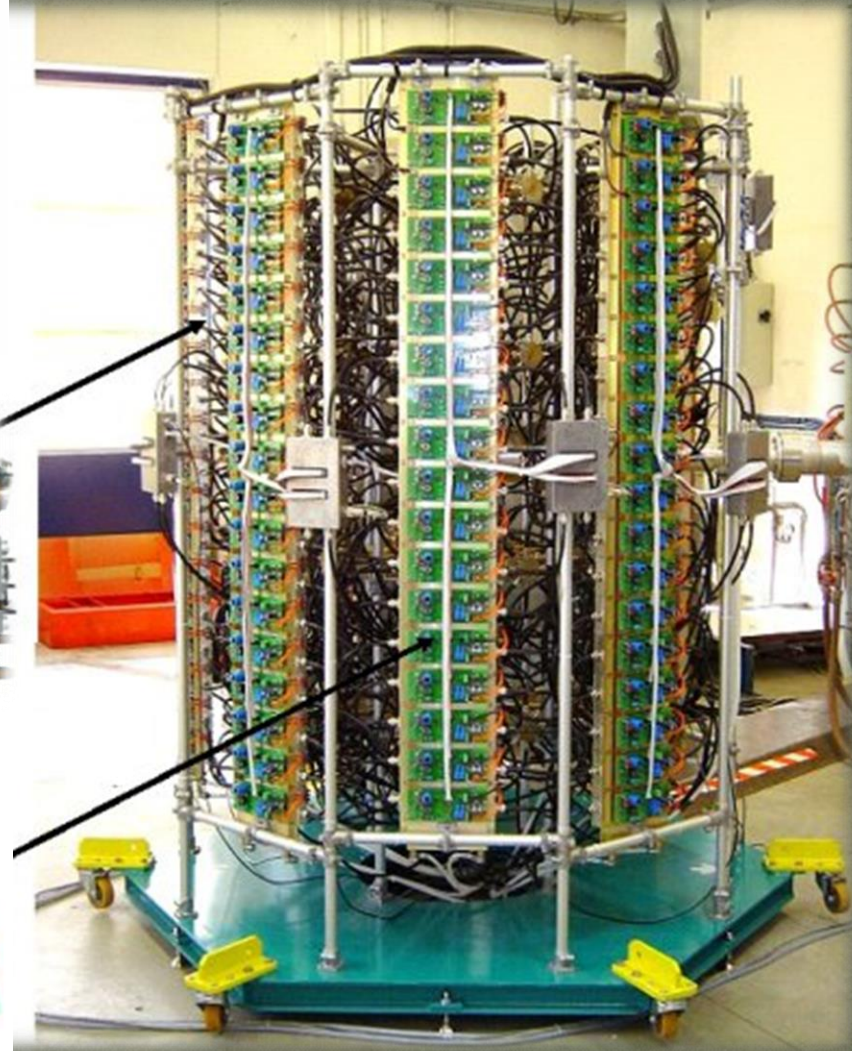


DU1029UK

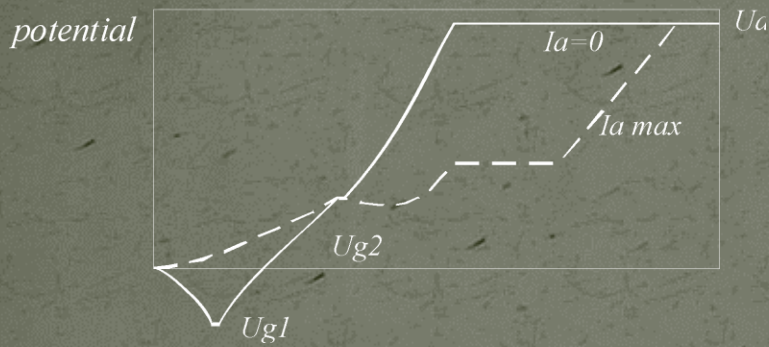
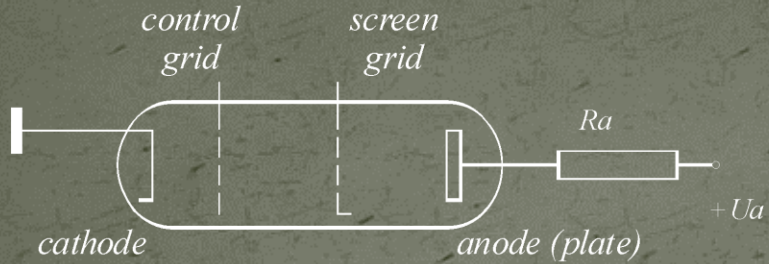
330 W amplifier module



600 W, 300 Vdc / 30 Vdc converter



Tetrode



RS 1084 CJ (ex Siemens, now Thales),
< 30 MHz, 75 kW

4CX250B
(Eimac/CPI),
< 500 MHz, 600 W
(Anode removed)



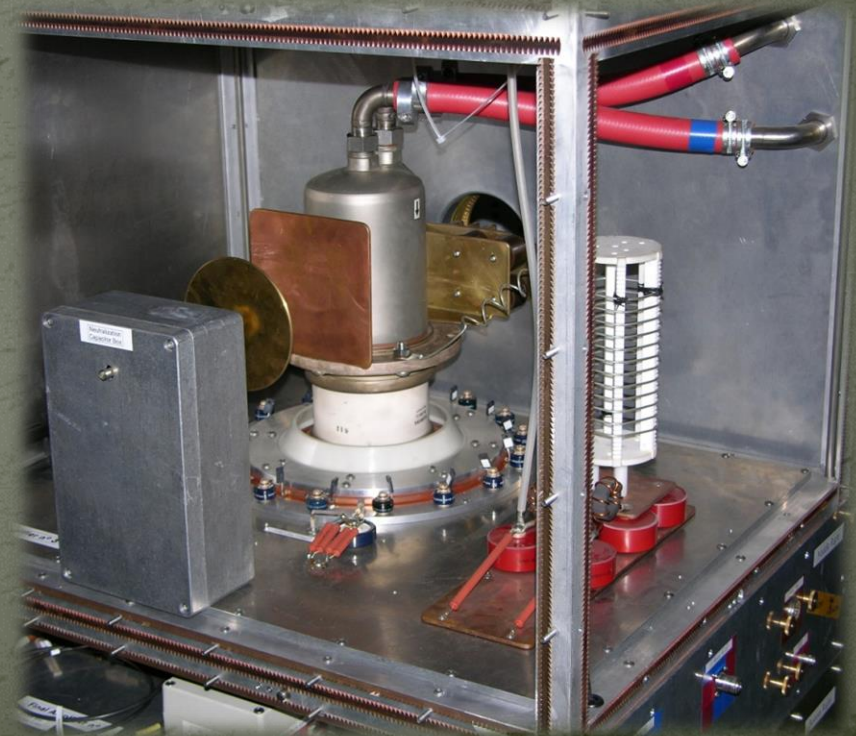
YL1520 (ex Philips, now Richardson),
< 260 MHz, 25 kW

High power tetrode amplifier



CERN Linac3: 100 MHz, 350 kW
50 kW Driver: TH345, Final: RS 2054 SK

CERN PS: 13-20 MHz, 30 kW
Driver: solid state 400 W, Final: RS 1084 CJSC

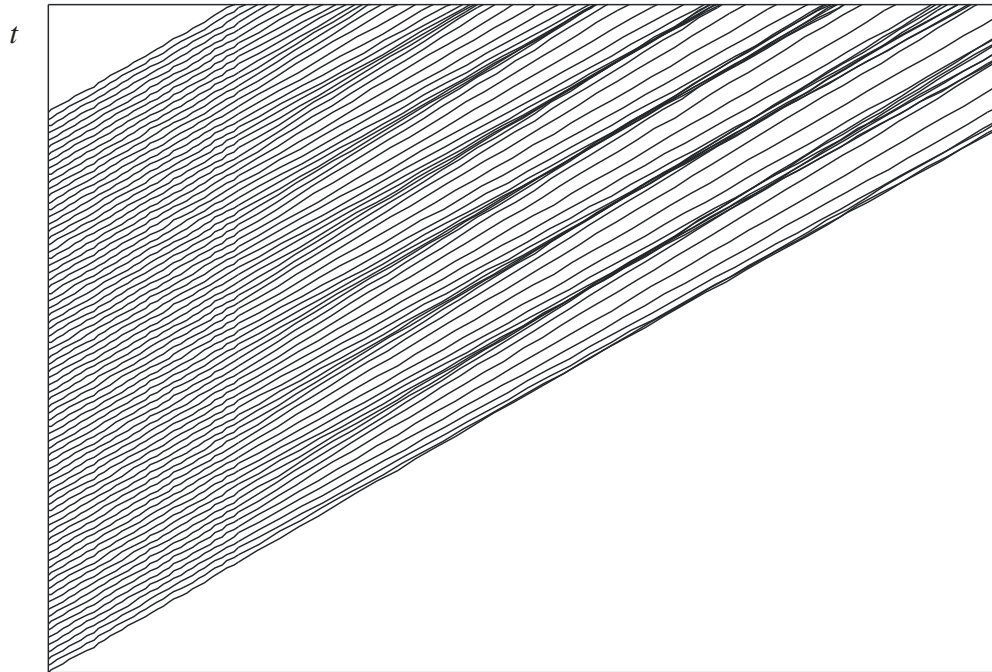


Klystron principle

velocity modulation

drift

density modulation



RF in

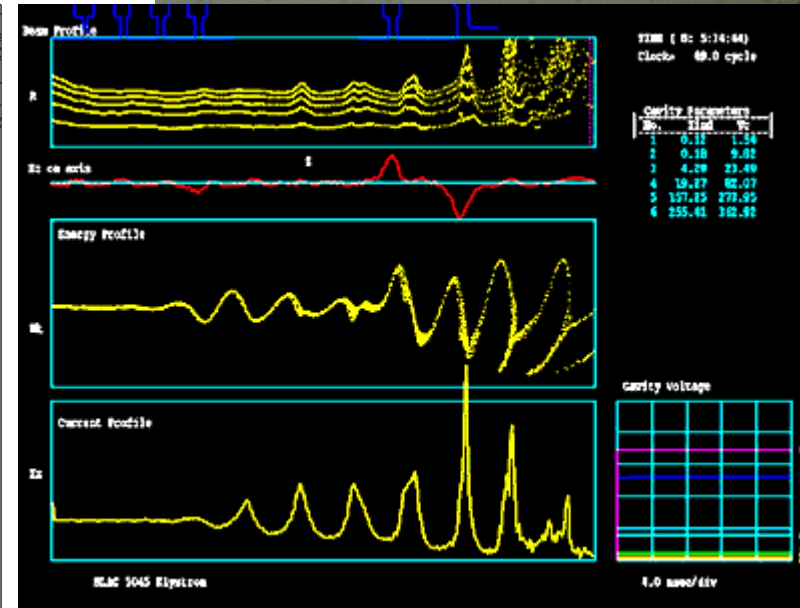
RF out

z

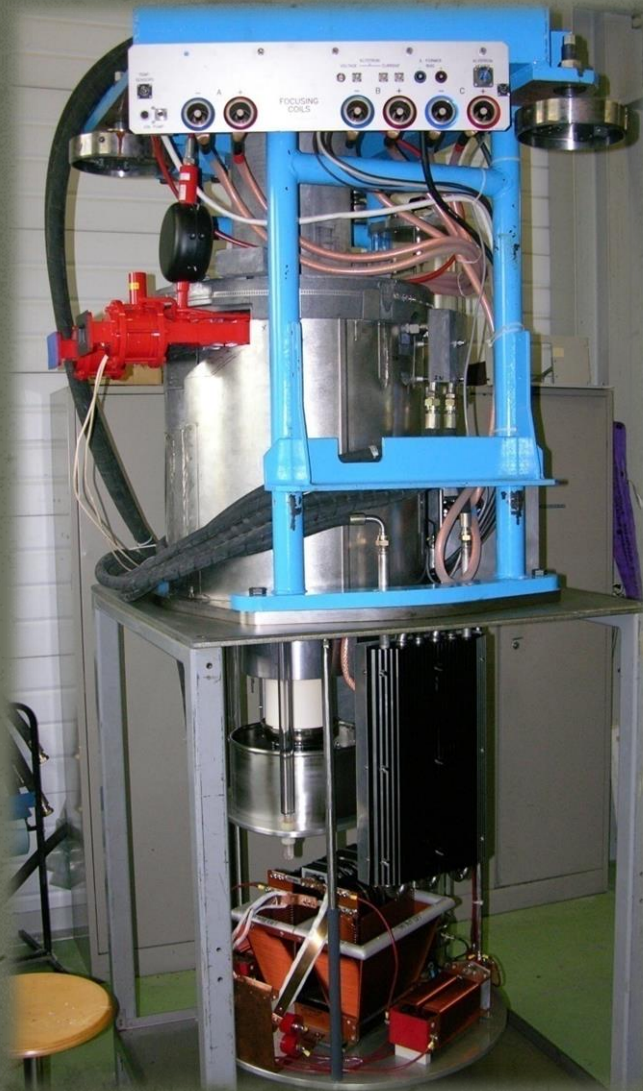
$-V_0$

Cathode

Collector



Klystrons



CERN CTF3 (LIL):
3 GHz, 45 MW,
4.5 μ s, 50 Hz, η 45 %



CERN LHC:
400 MHz, 300 kW,
CW, η 62 %

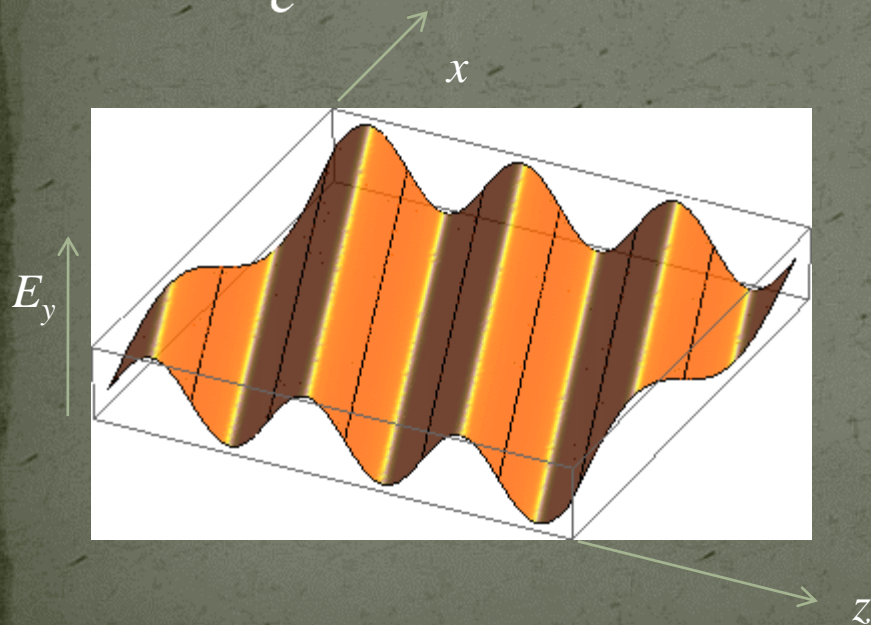
Fields in a waveguide

Homogeneous plane wave

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

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

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



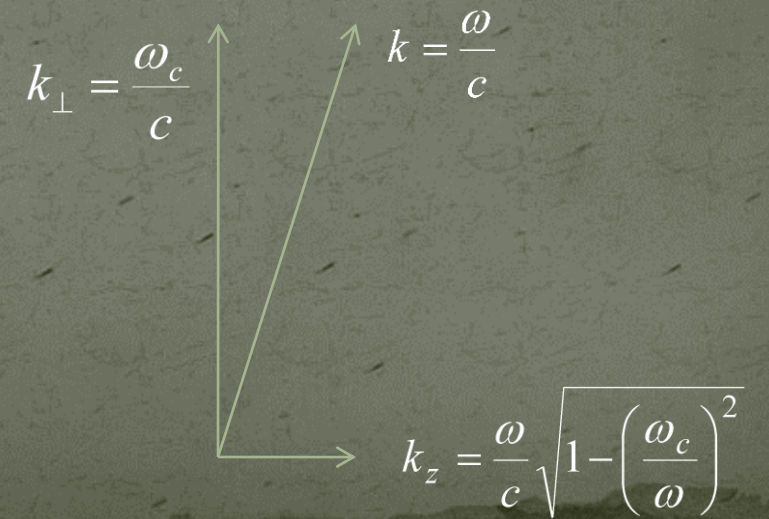
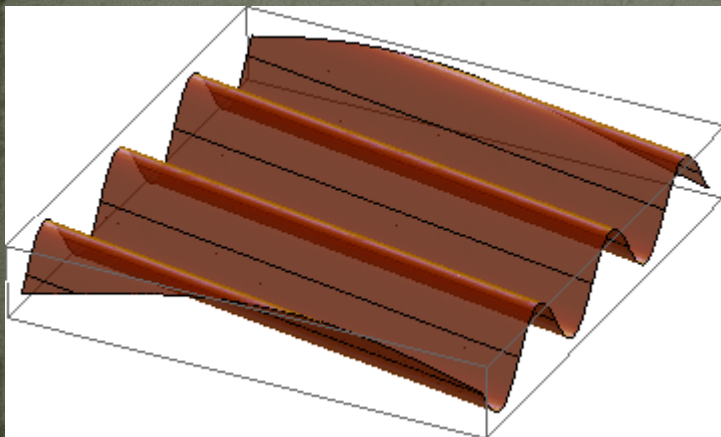
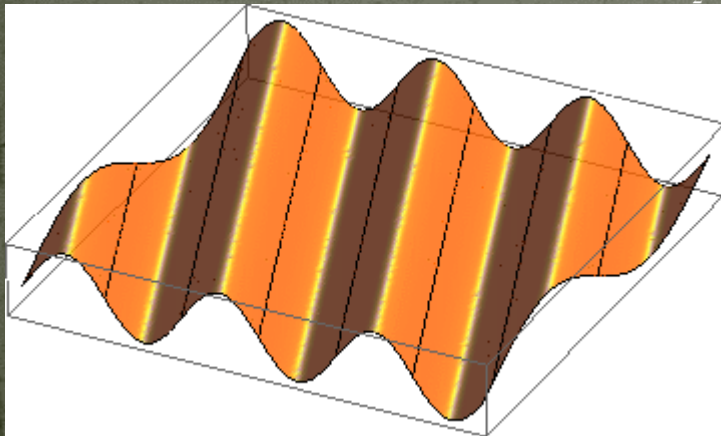
Wave vector \vec{k} :
the direction of \vec{k} is the direction of propagation,
the length of \vec{k} is the phase shift per unit length.
 \vec{k} behaves like a vector.

A vector diagram showing the wave vector \vec{k} in the xz plane. The horizontal axis is x and the vertical axis is z . The wave vector \vec{k} is shown as a yellow arrow pointing into the first quadrant. The angle between \vec{k} and the x axis is labeled φ . The magnitude of \vec{k} is labeled $k = \frac{\omega}{c}$. The vertical component of \vec{k} is labeled $k_{\perp} = \frac{\omega_c}{c}$. The horizontal component is labeled $k_z = \frac{\omega}{c} \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{\omega_c}{\omega}\right)^2}$.

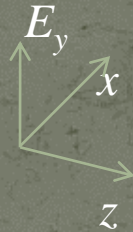
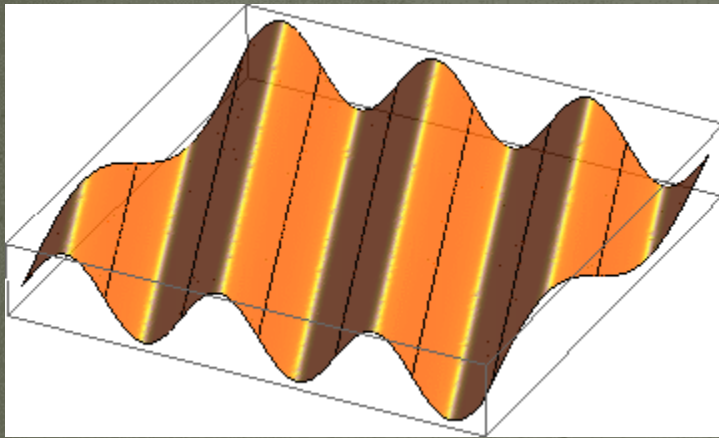
$$k_{\perp} = \frac{\omega_c}{c}$$
$$k = \frac{\omega}{c}$$
$$k_z = \frac{\omega}{c} \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{\omega_c}{\omega}\right)^2}$$

Wave length, phase velocity

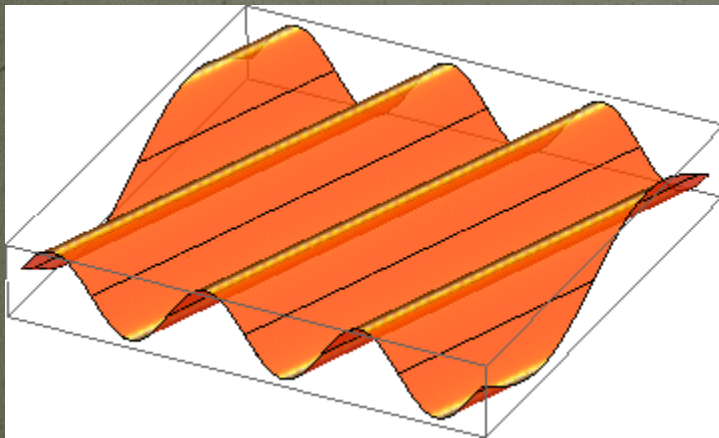
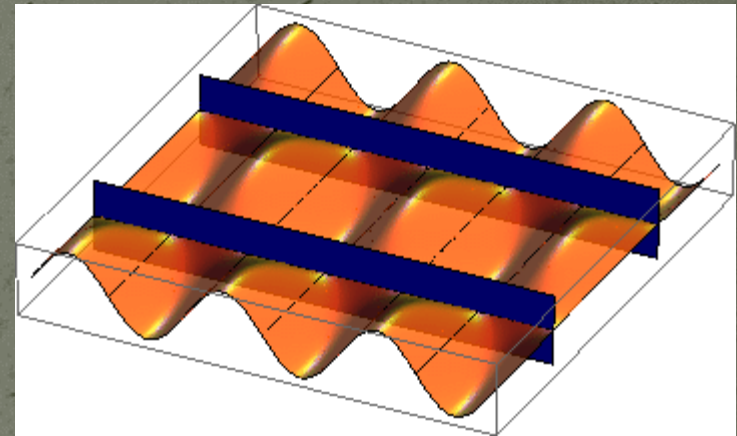
- The components of \vec{k} are related to the wavelength in the direction of that component as $\lambda_z = \frac{2\pi}{k_z}$ etc. , to the phase velocity as $v_{\phi,z} = \frac{\omega}{k_z} = f \lambda_z$.



Superposition of 2 homogeneous plane waves



=



+

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

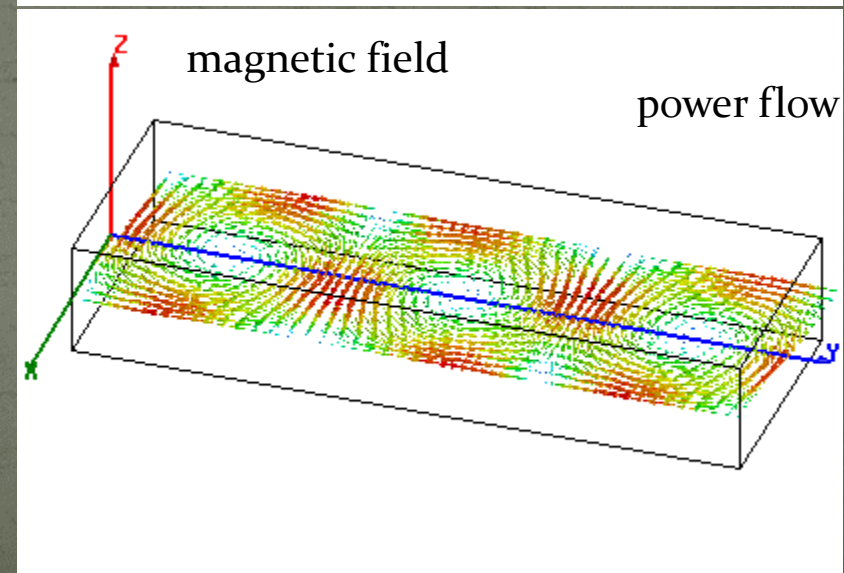
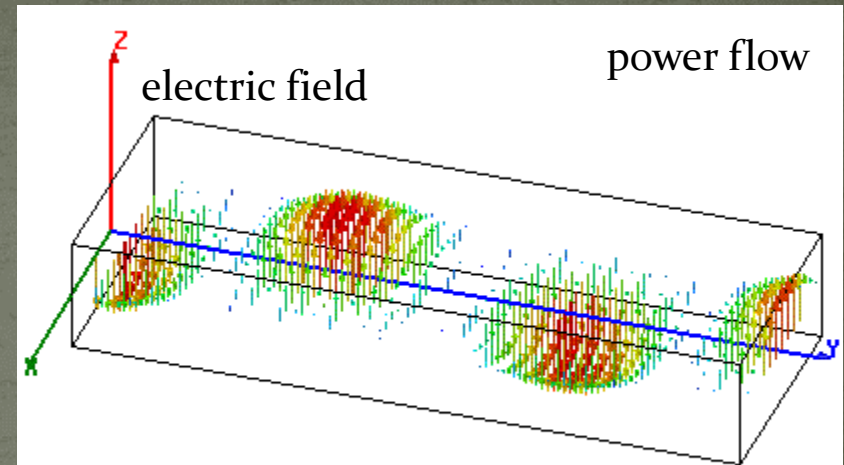
Fundamental (TE_{10} or H_{10}) mode
in a standard rectangular waveguide.

Example: “S-band” : 2.6 GHz ... 3.95 GHz,

Waveguide type WR284 (2.84” wide),
dimensions: 72.14 mm x 34.04 mm.

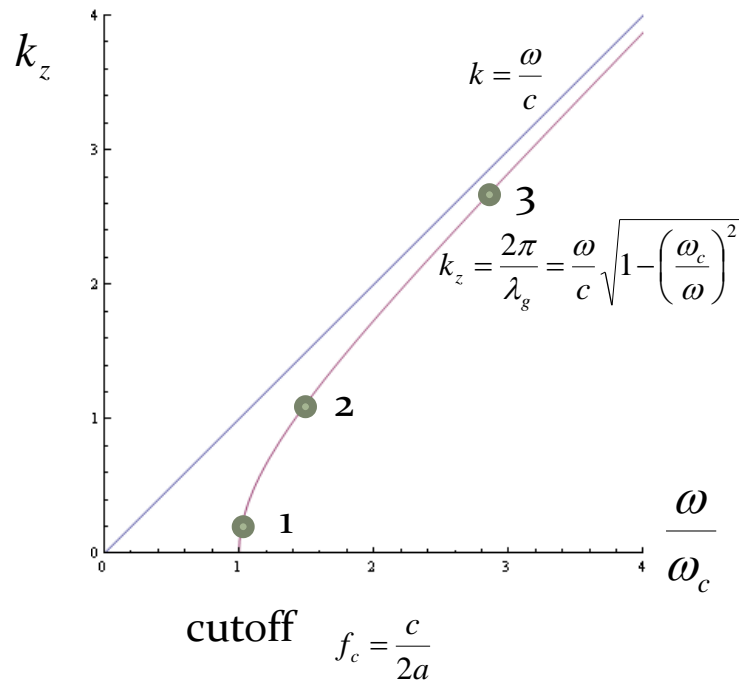
Operated at $f = 3$ GHz.

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



Waveguide dispersion

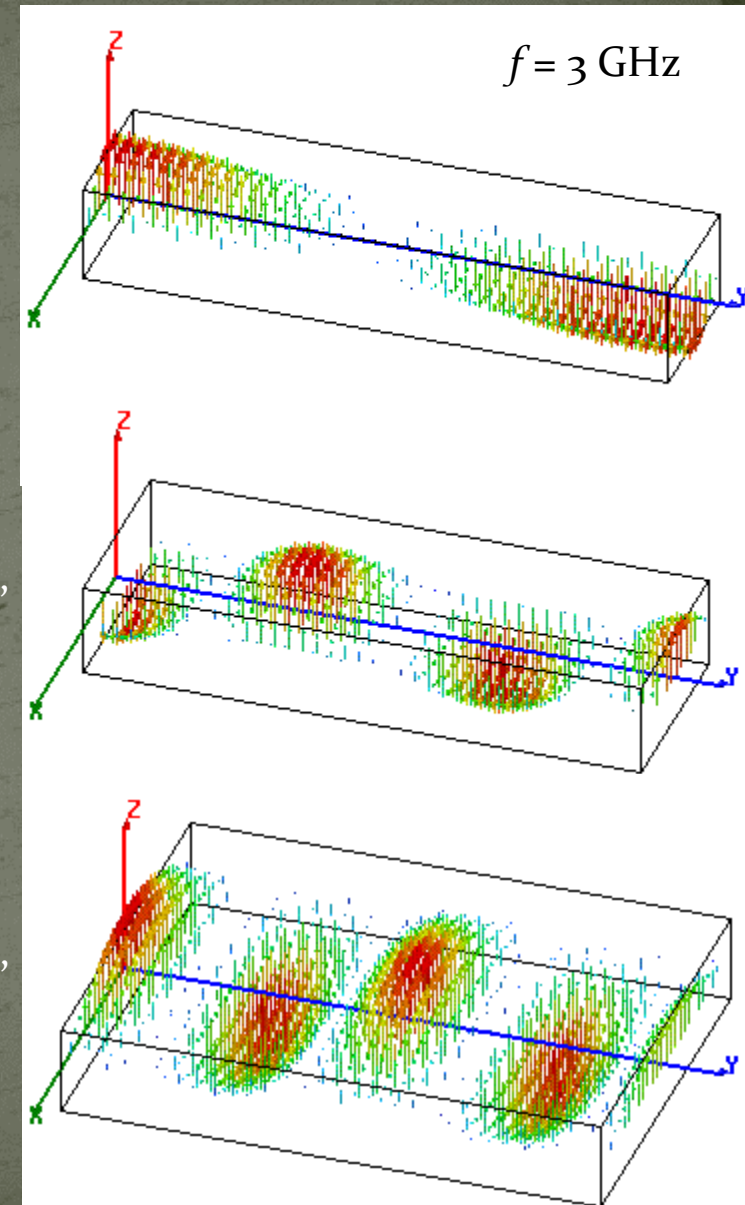
What happens with different waveguide dimensions (different width a)?



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

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

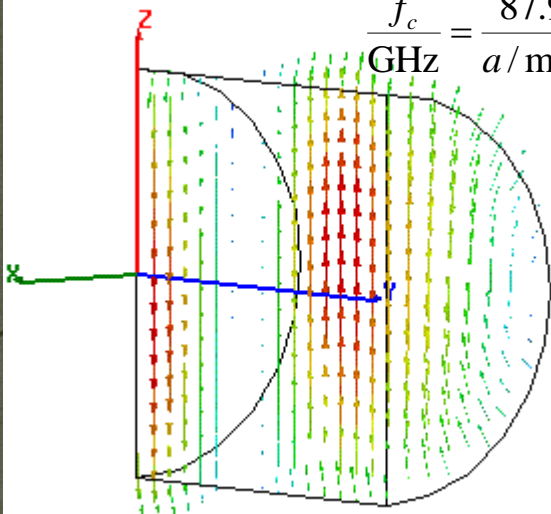
3:
 $a = 144.3 \text{ mm}$,
 $f/f_c = 2.88$



Round waveguide modes

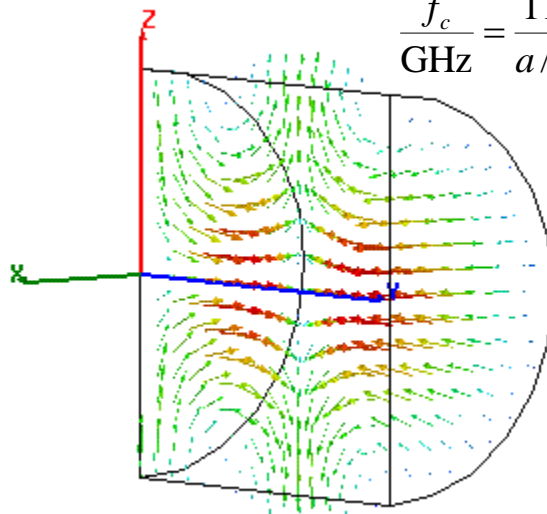
TE₁₁ - fundamental

$$\frac{f_c}{\text{GHz}} = \frac{87.9}{a/\text{mm}}$$



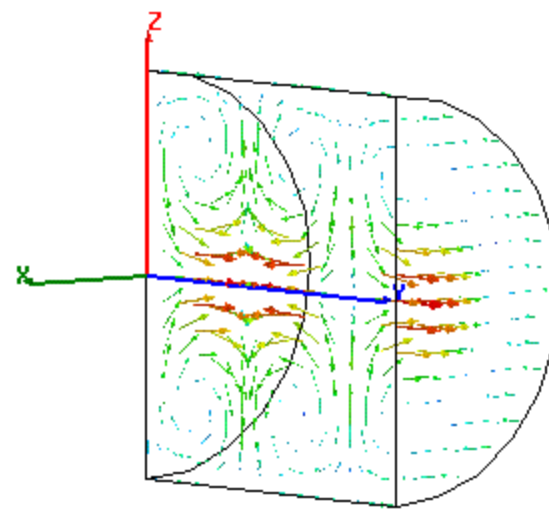
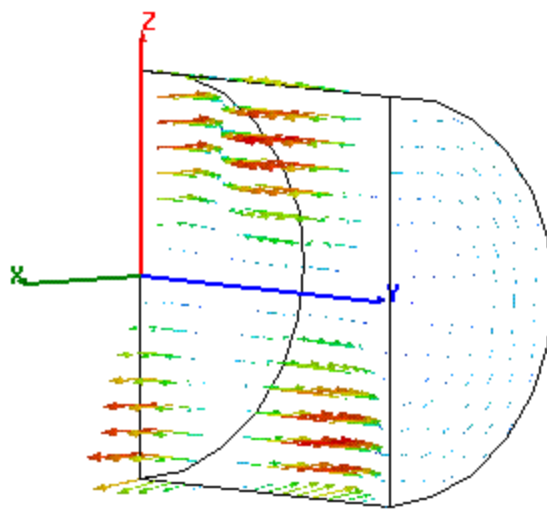
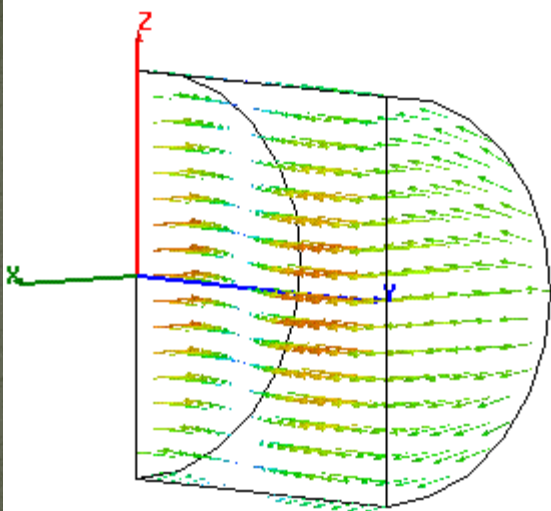
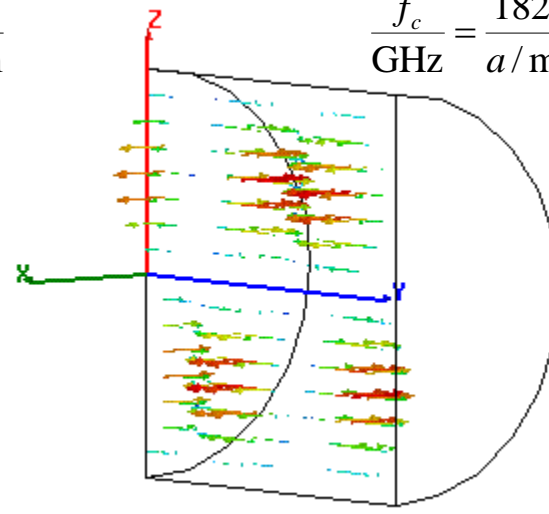
TM₀₁ - axial field

$$\frac{f_c}{\text{GHz}} = \frac{114.8}{a/\text{mm}}$$



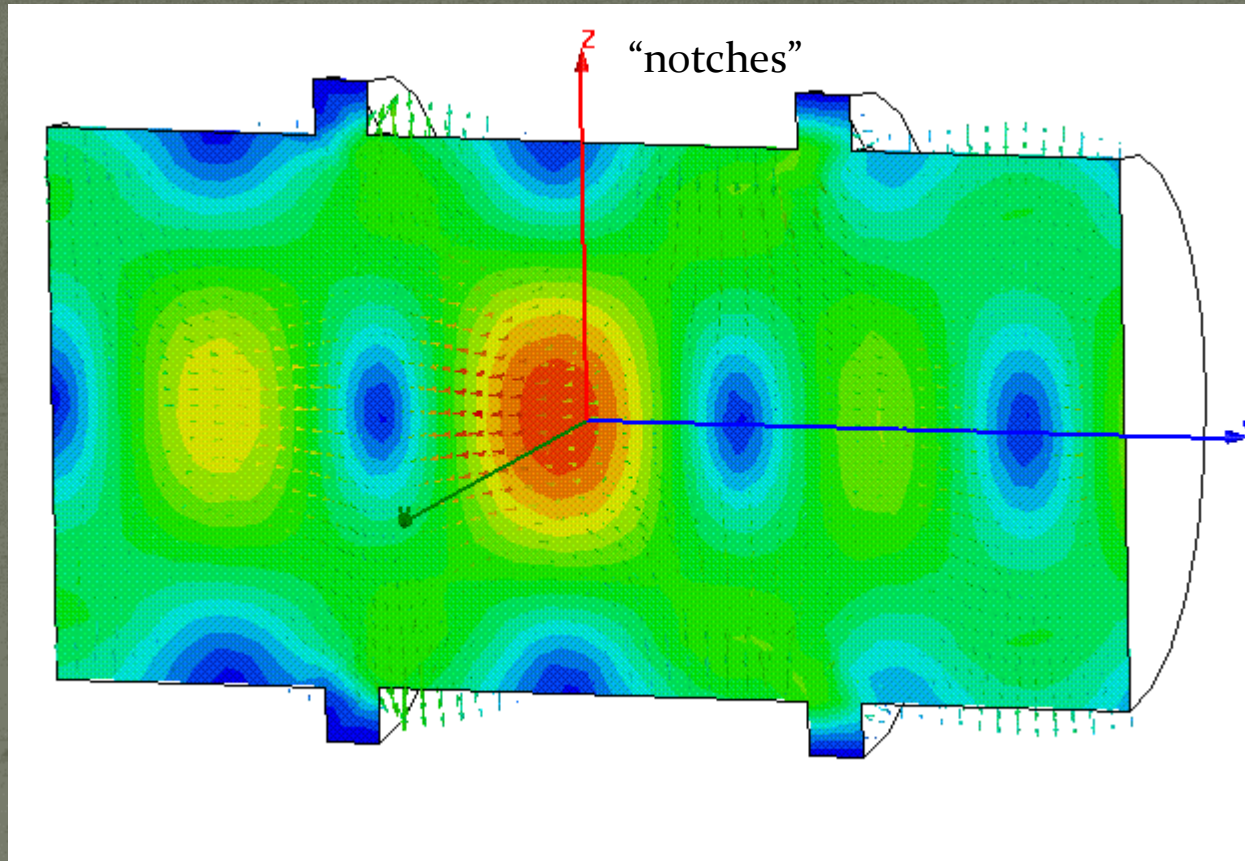
TE₀₁ - low loss

$$\frac{f_c}{\text{GHz}} = \frac{182.9}{a/\text{mm}}$$



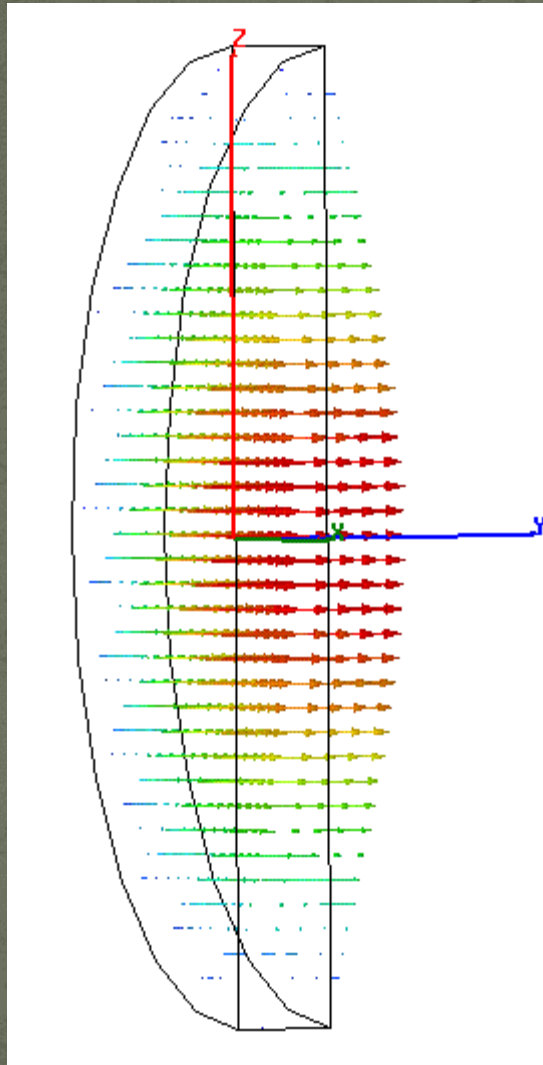
From waveguide to cavity

Waveguide perturbed by notches



Reflections from notches lead to a superimposed standing wave pattern.
“Trapped mode”

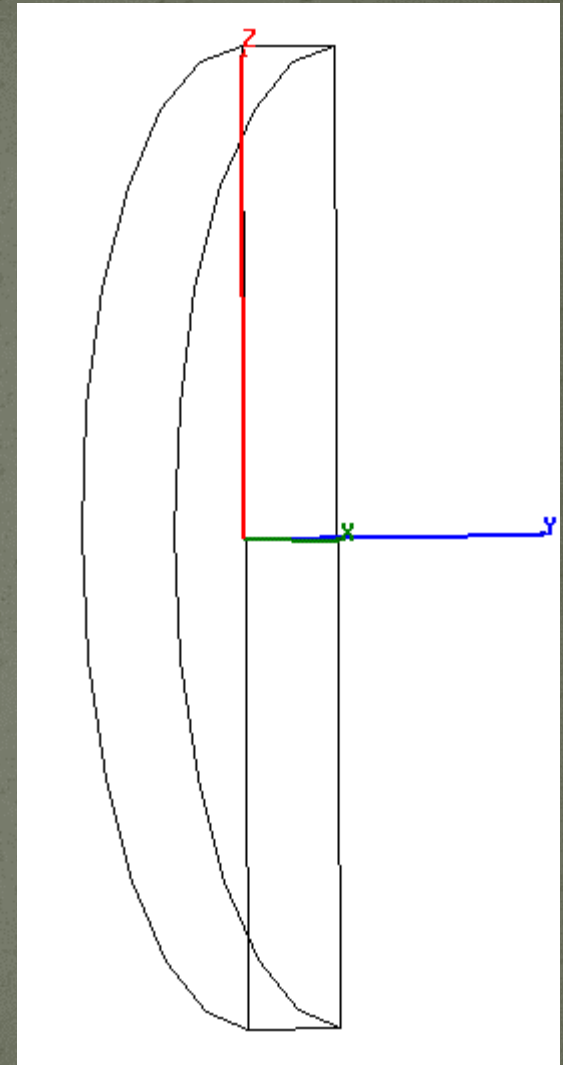
More drastic than notches: short circuits!



electric field (purely axial)

TM_{010} -mode

This is called
“Pillbox cavity”

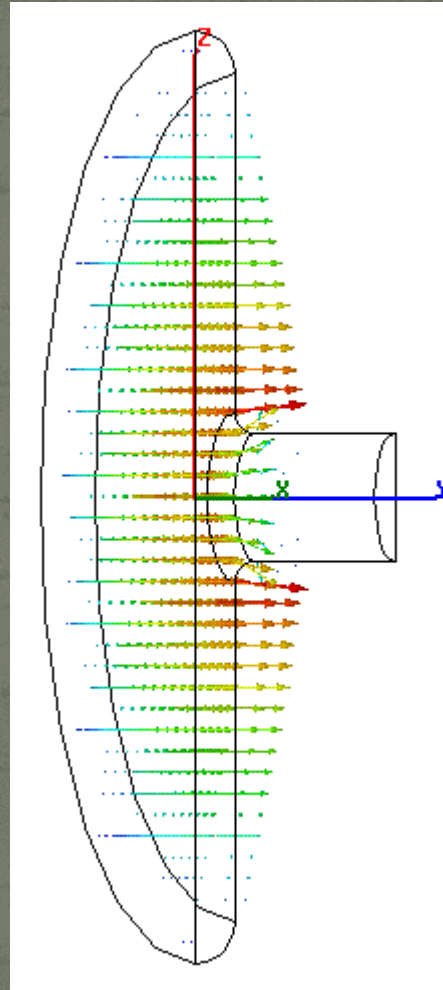


magnetic field (purely azimuthal)

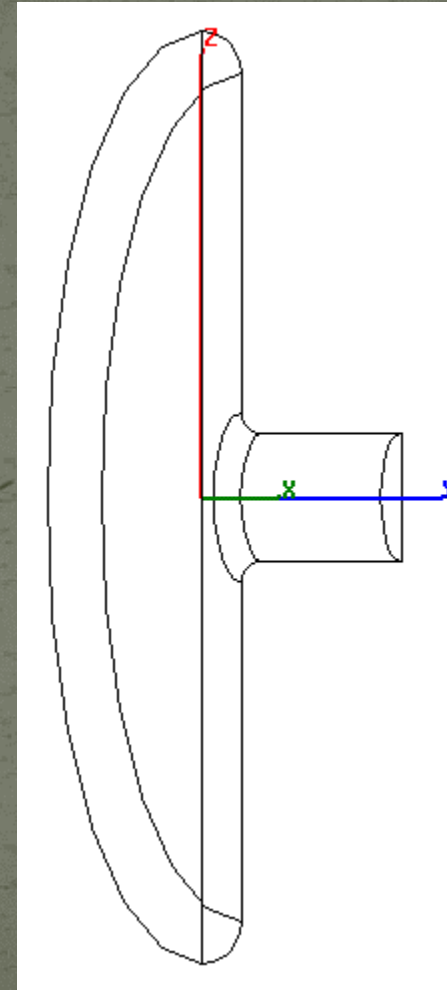
A more practical pillbox cavity

Beam pipe added,
sharp edges rounded off

TM_{010} -mode (only 1/4 shown)



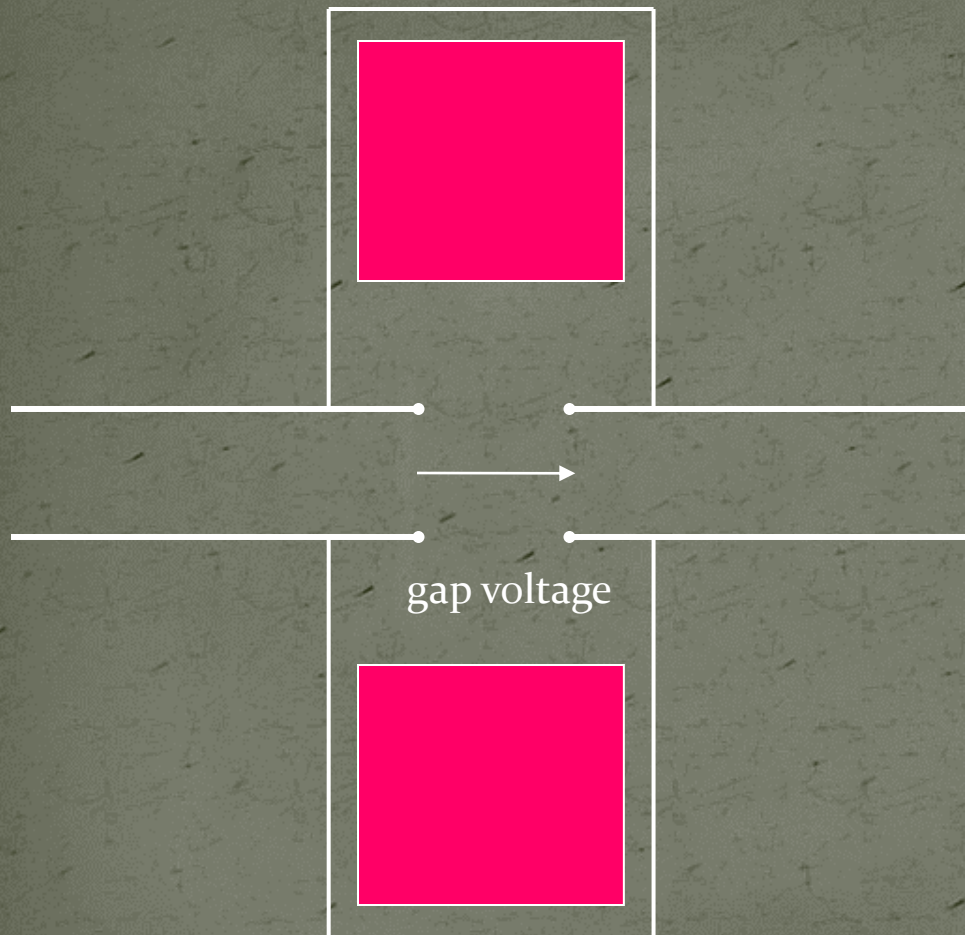
electric field



magnetic field

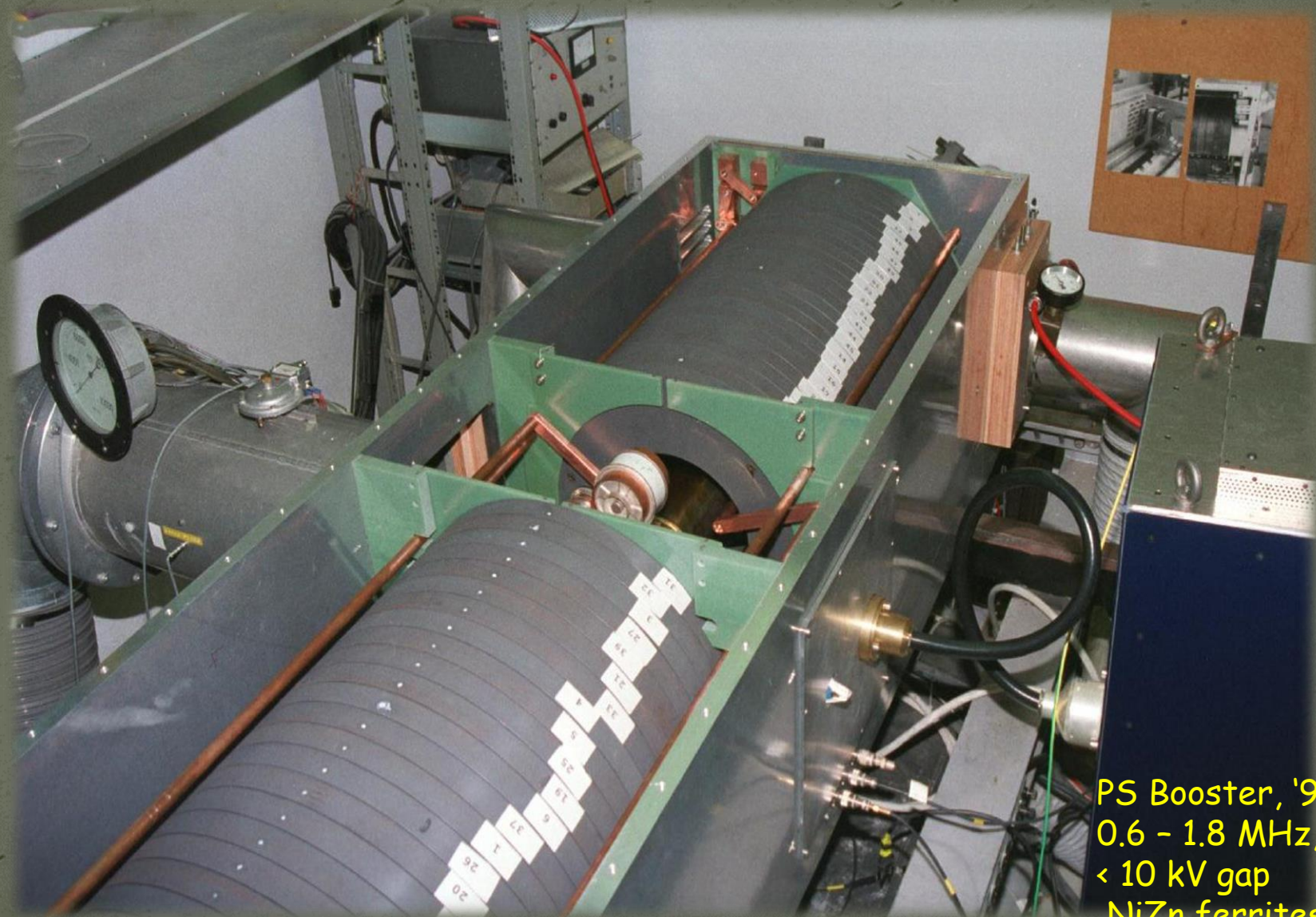
Accelerating gap

Accelerating gap



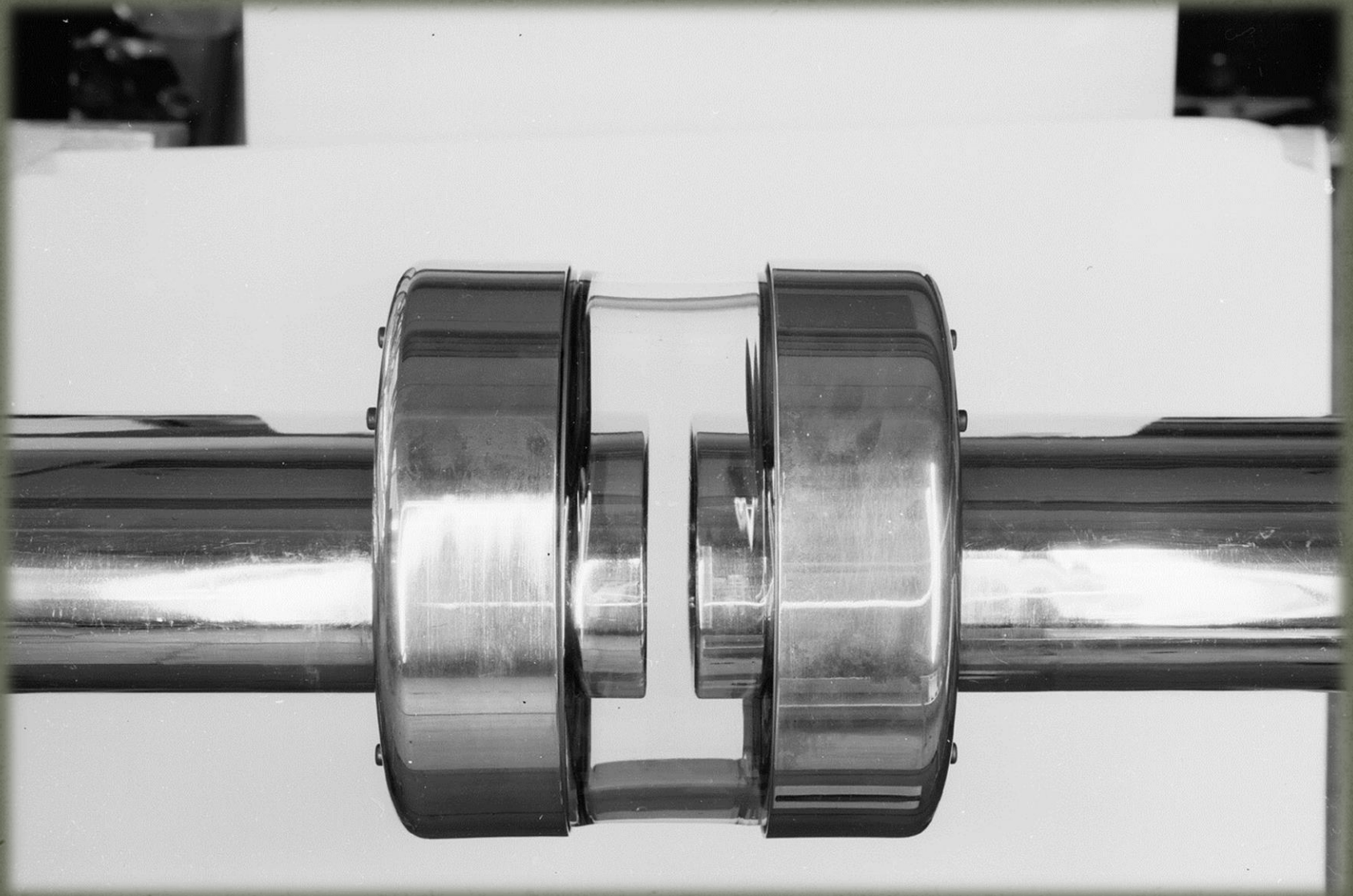
- We want a voltage across the gap!
- It cannot be DC, since we want the beam tube on ground potential.
- Use $\int \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = - \iint \frac{d\vec{B}}{dt} \cdot d\vec{A}$
- The “shield” imposes a
 - upper limit of the voltage pulse duration or – equivalently –
 - a lower limit to the usable 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)

Ferrite cavity



PS Booster, '98
0.6 - 1.8 MHz,
< 10 kV gap
NiZn ferrites

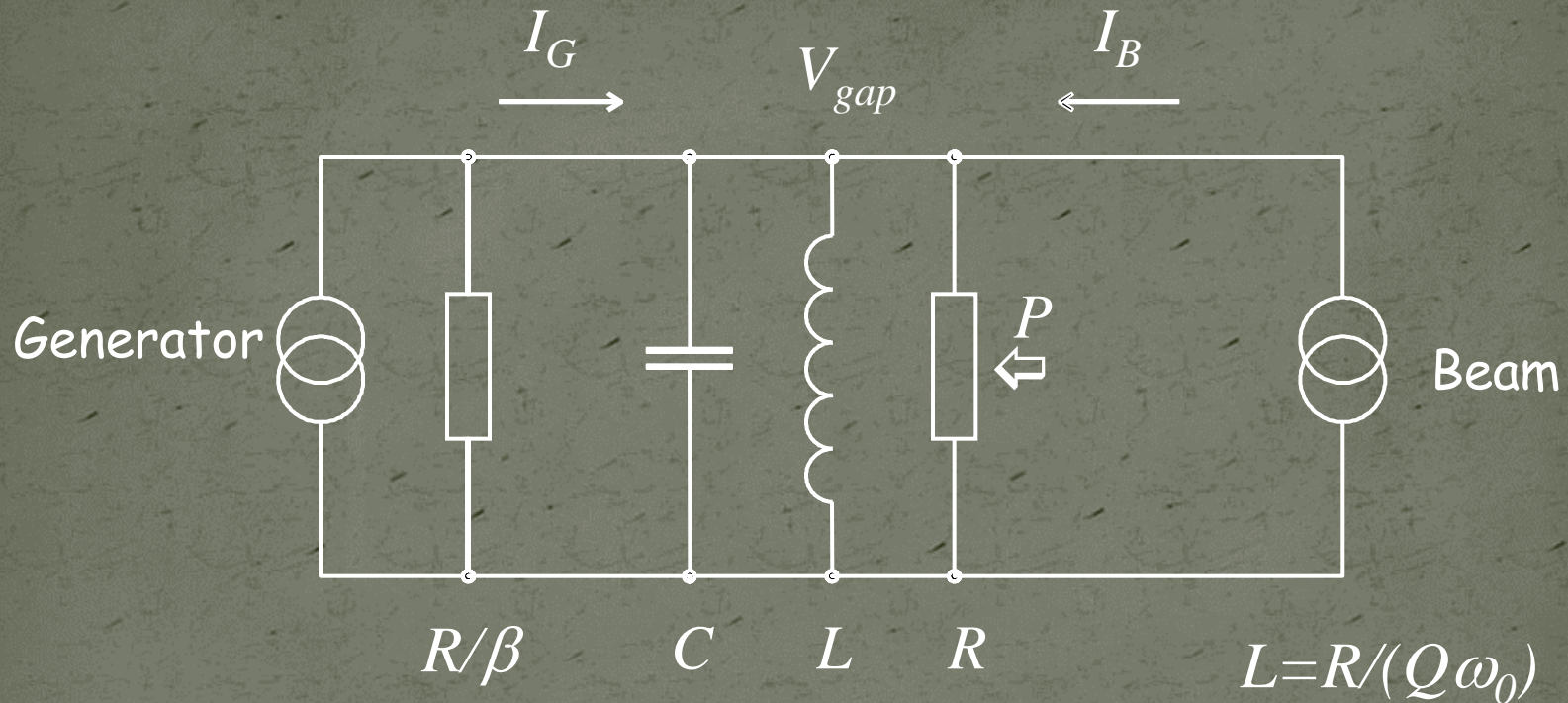
Gap of PS cavity (prototype)



Characterizing a cavity

Cavity resonator – equivalent circuit

Simplification: single mode



β : coupling factor

Cavity

$$L = R / (Q \omega_0)$$

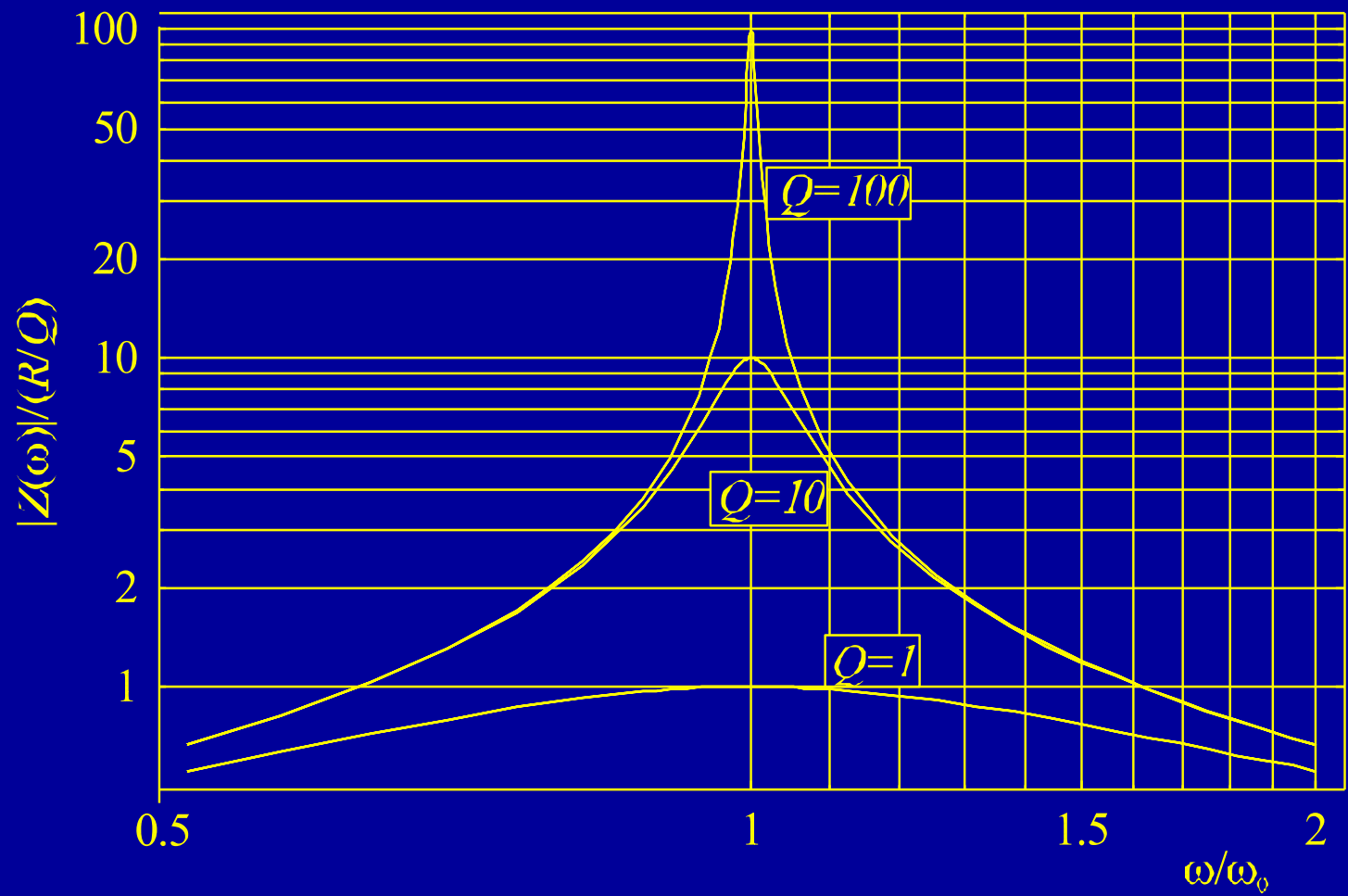
$$C = Q / (R \omega_0)$$

R : Shunt impedance

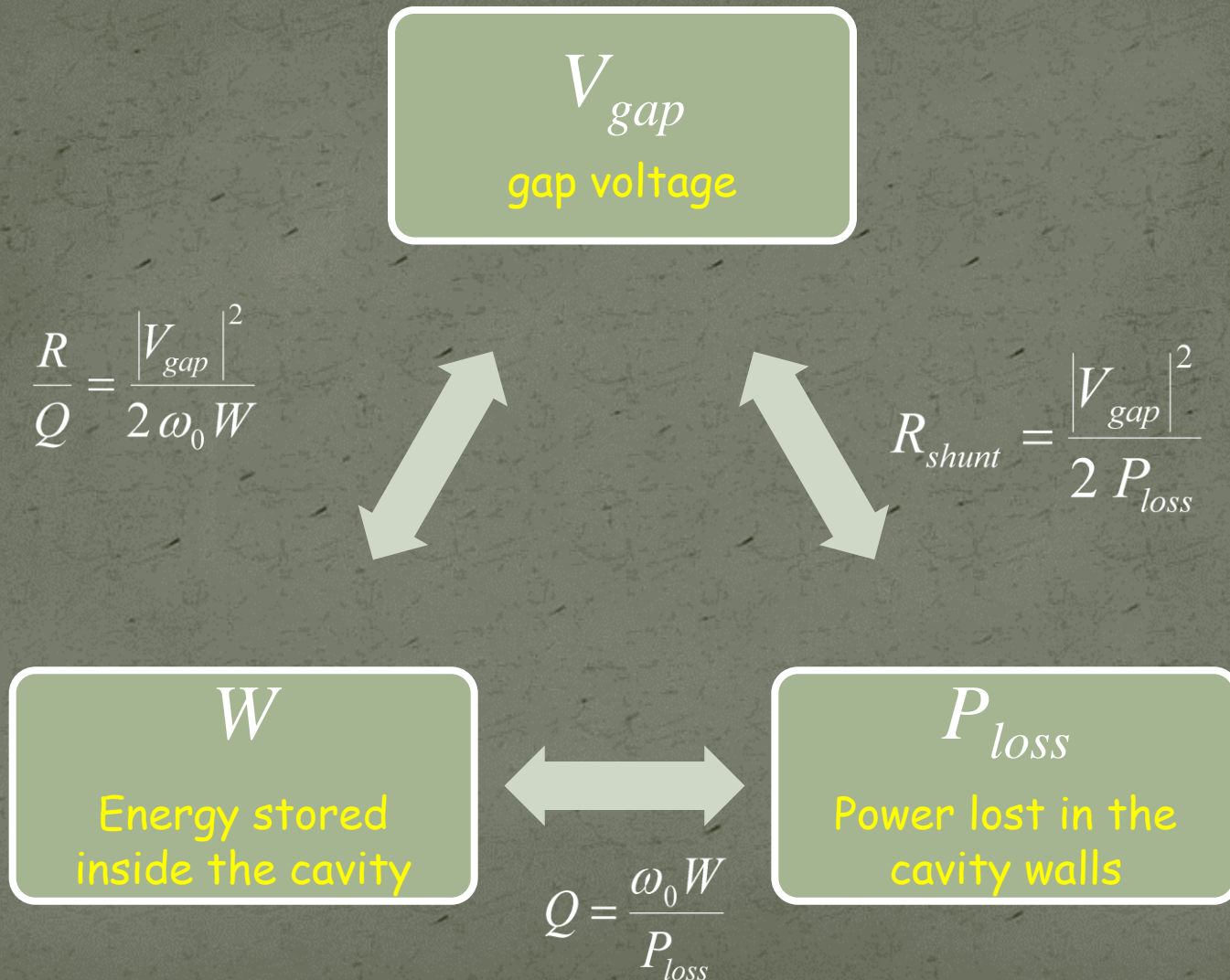
$$\sqrt{L/C}: R\text{-upon-}Q$$

We have used this before when explaining the “fast feedback”

Resonance



Summary: relations V_{gap} , W , P_{loss}

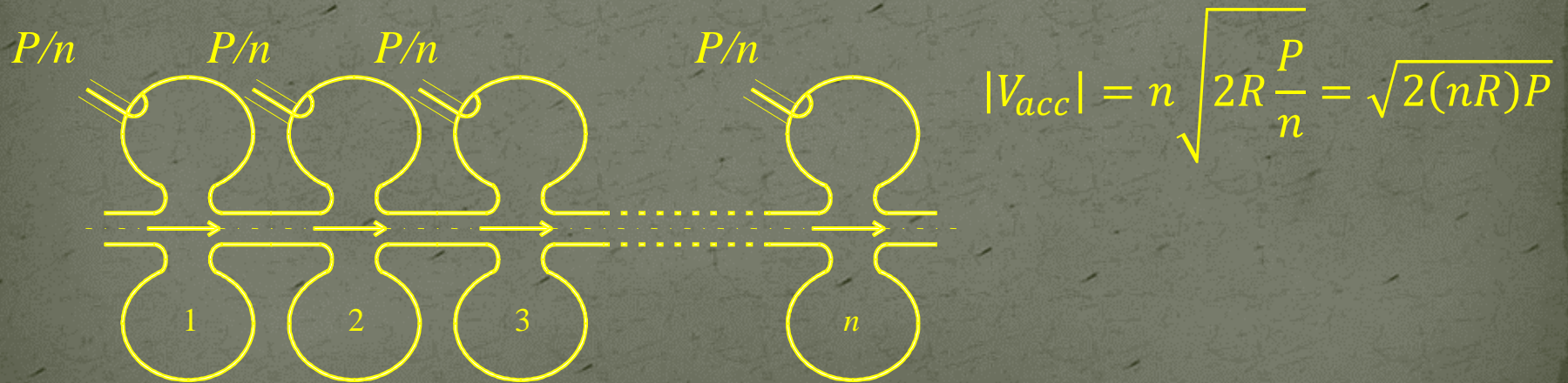


Many gaps

What do you gain with many gaps?

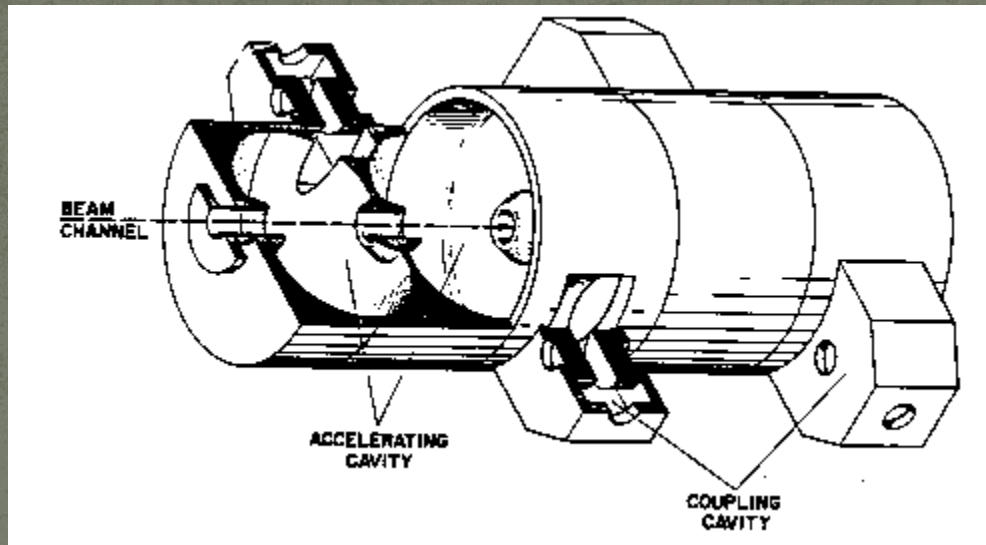
- The R/Q of a single gap cavity is limited to some 100Ω .
Now consider to distribute the available power to n identical cavities: each will receive P/n , thus produce an accelerating voltage of $\sqrt{2 R P/n}$.

The total accelerating voltage thus increased, equivalent to a total equivalent shunt impedance of nR .



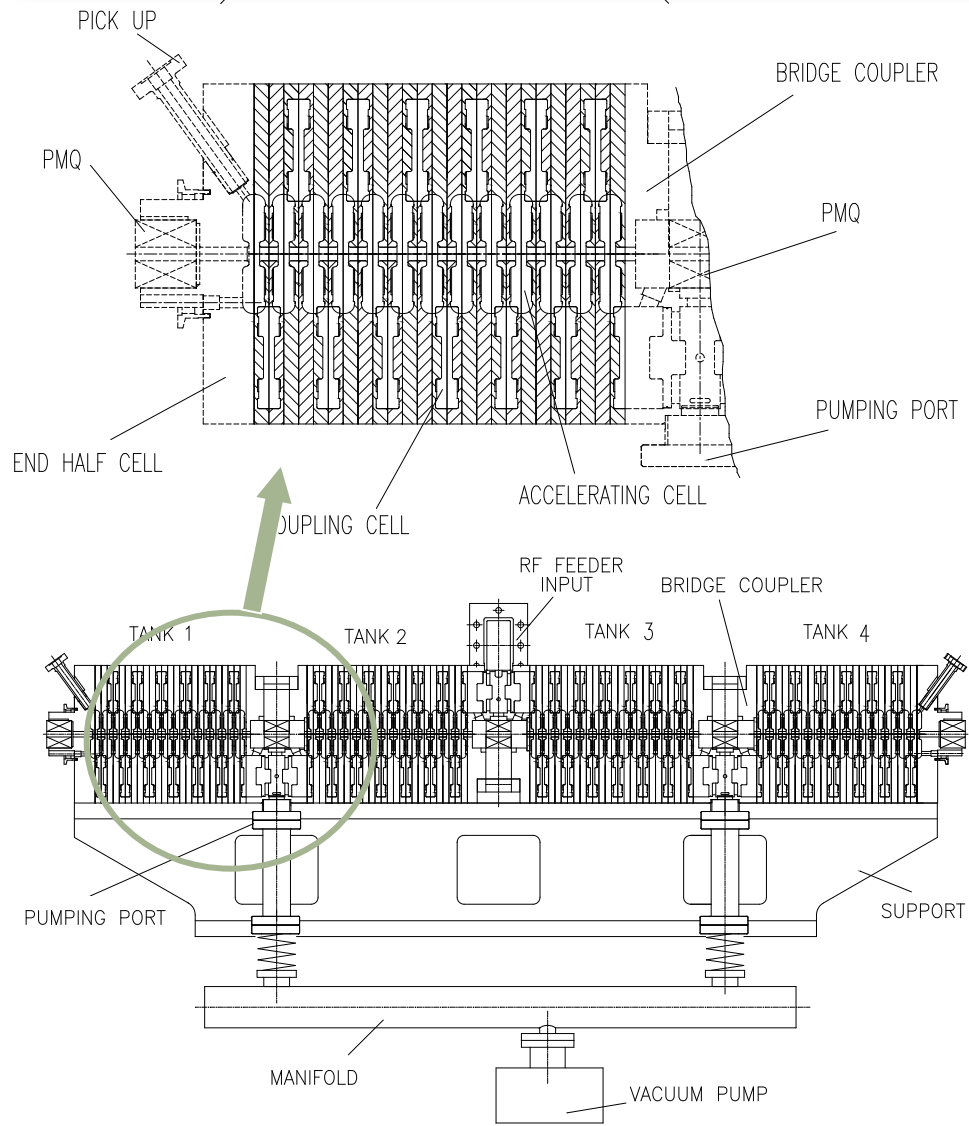
Standing wave multicell cavity

- Instead of distributing the power from the amplifier, one might as well couple the cavities, such that the power automatically distributes, or have a cavity with many gaps (e.g. drift tube linac).
- Coupled cavity accelerating structure (side coupled)



- The phase relation between gaps is important!

Side Coupled Structure : example LIBO



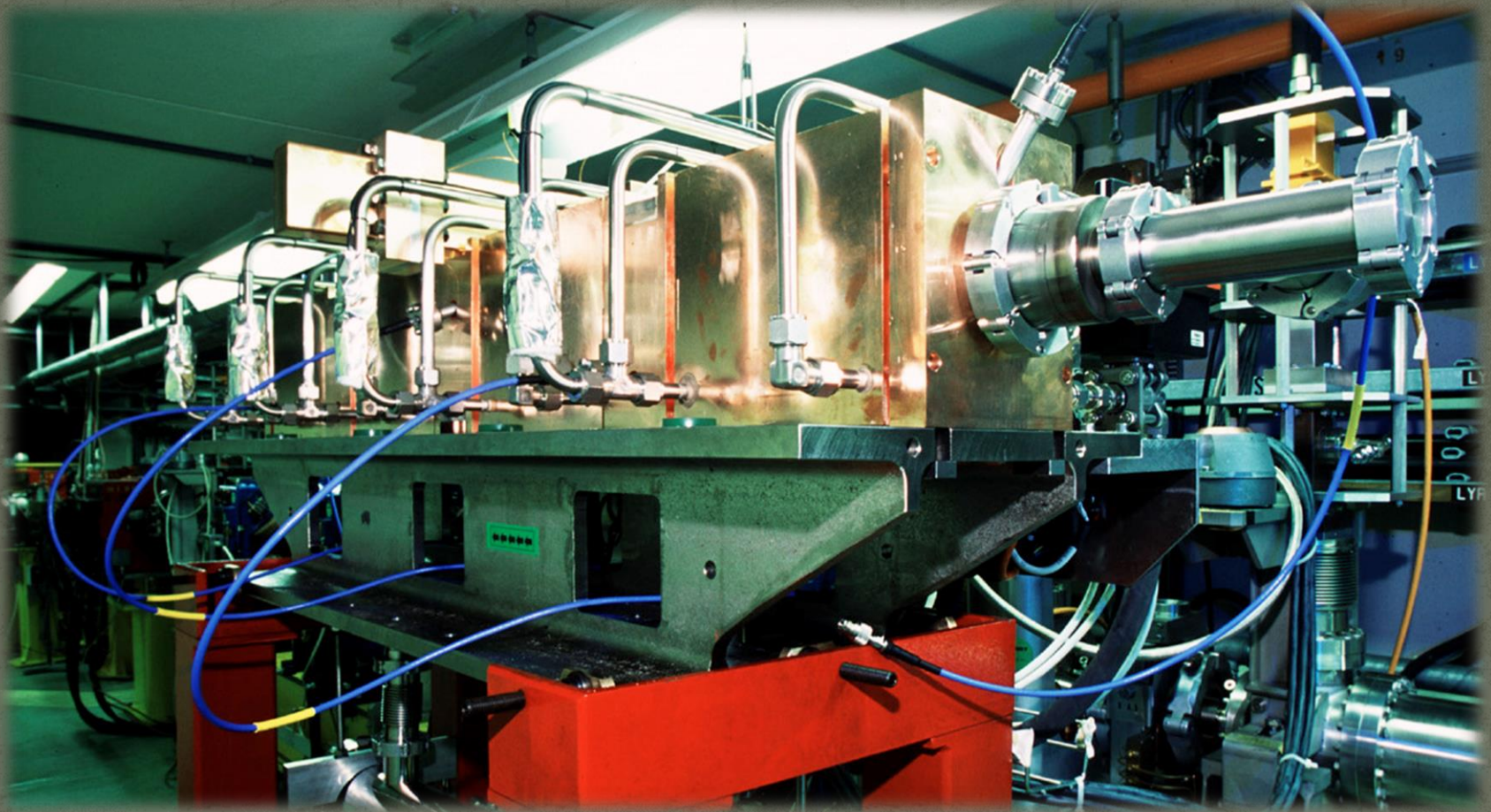
A 3 GHz Side Coupled Structure to accelerate protons out of cyclotrons from 62 MeV to 200 MeV

Medical application: treatment of tumours.

Prototype of Module 1 built at CERN (2000)

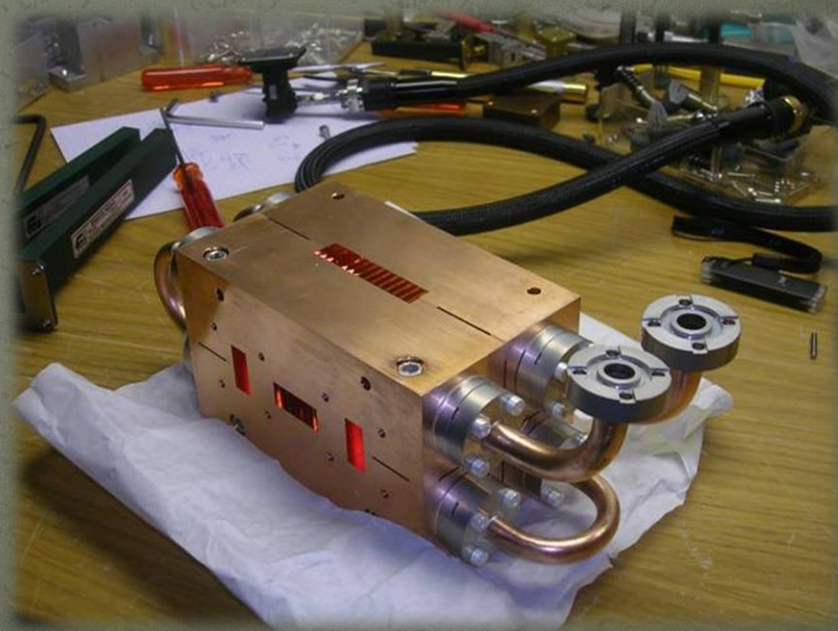
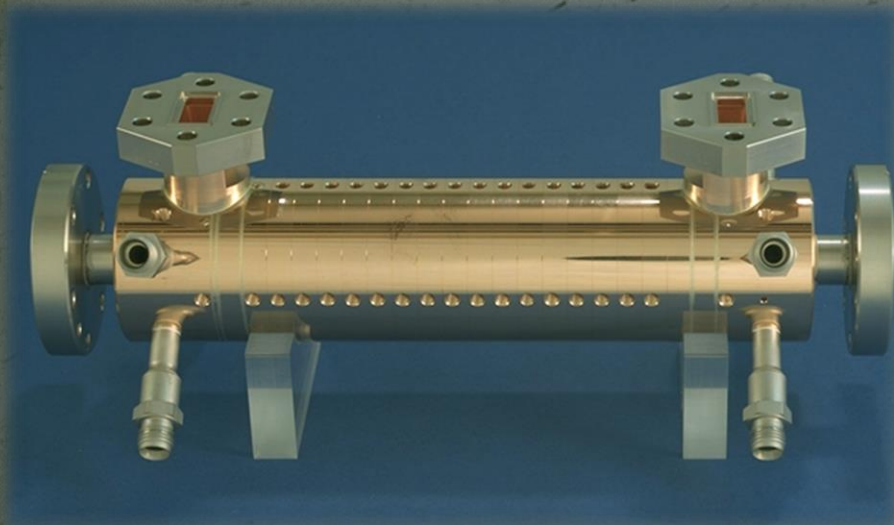
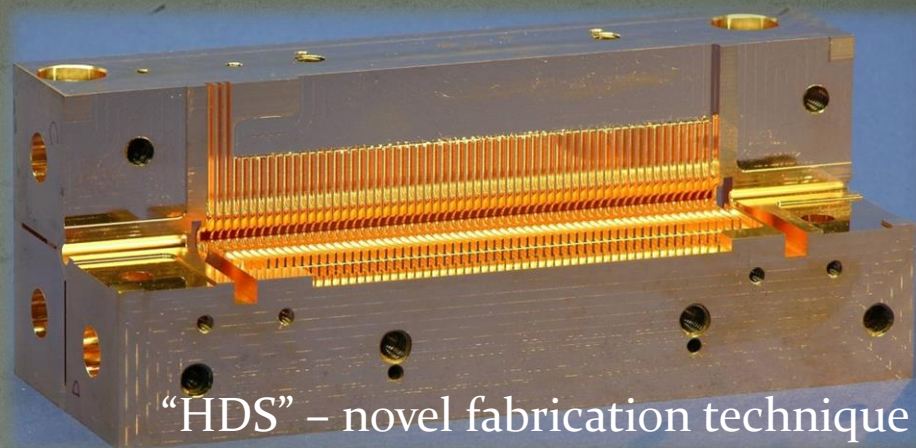
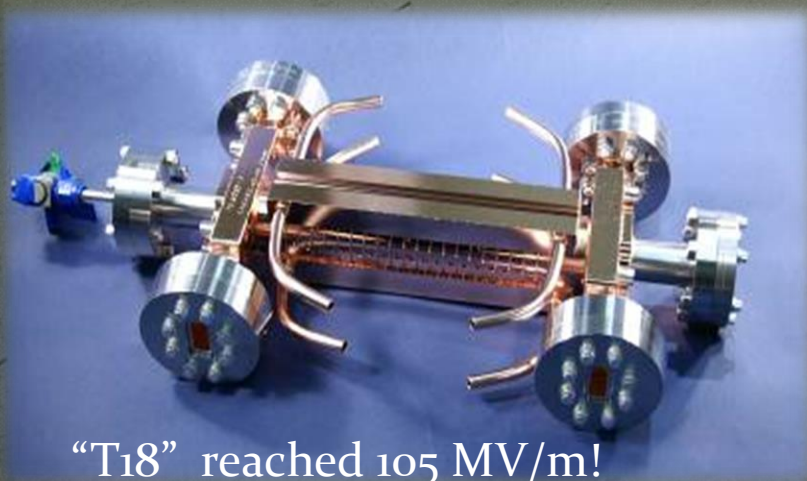
Collaboration CERN/INFN/Tera Foundation

LIBO prototype



This Picture made it to the title page of CERN Courier vol. 41 No. 1 (Jan./Feb. 2001)

CLIC travelling wave structures (12 & 30 GHz)



Superconducting Cavities

RF Superconductivity

- Best described by BCS (Bardeen-Cooper-Schrieffer) Theory
- $R_{BCS} \propto \frac{\omega^2}{T} \exp\left(-1.76 \frac{T_c}{T}\right)$
- Surface resistance $R = R_{BCS} + R_{res}$.
- R is not zero - Q_0 is finite.
- Good values are some 10^{10} .
- Typical performance plot of a SC cavity:

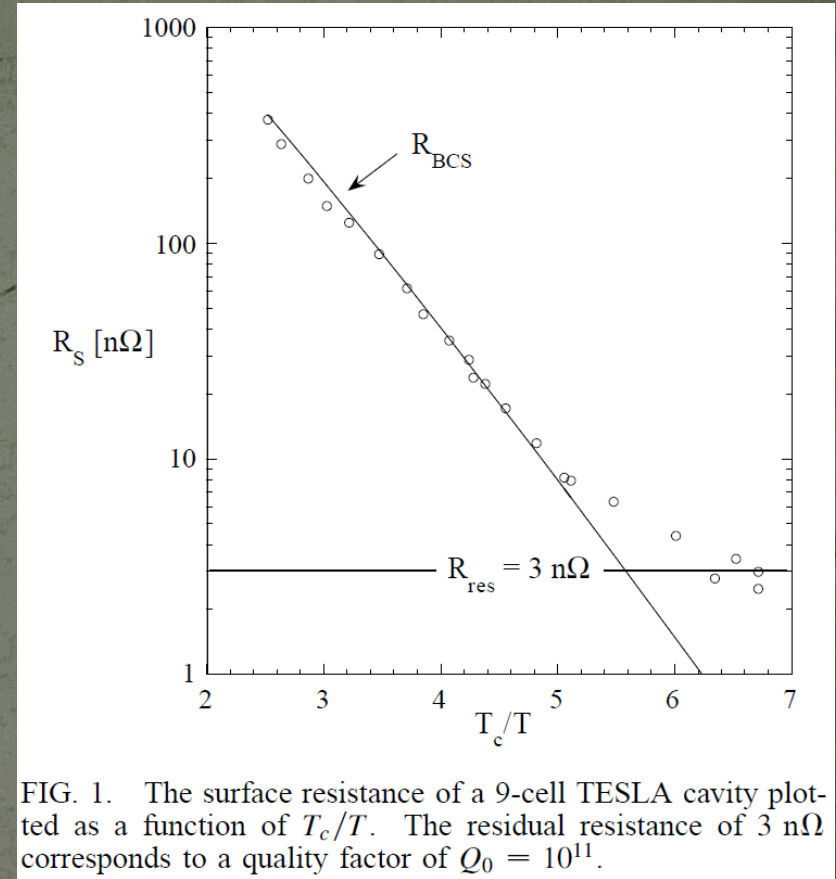
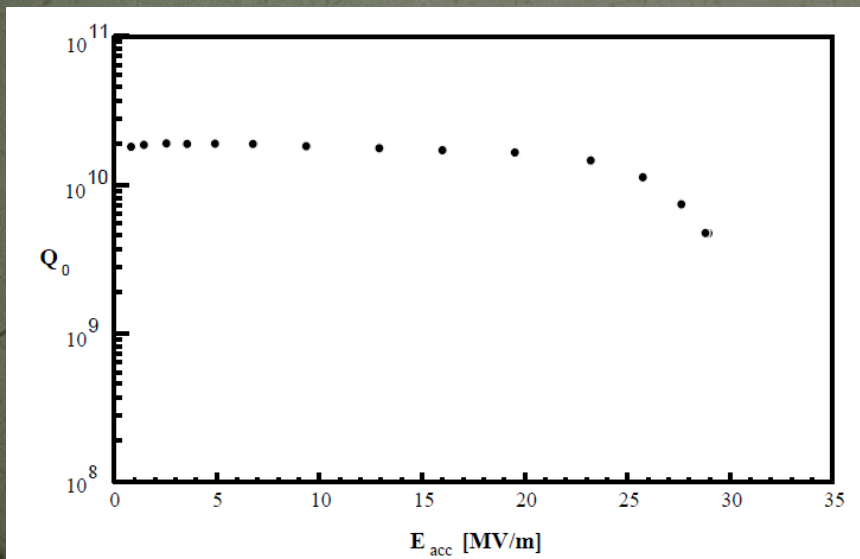
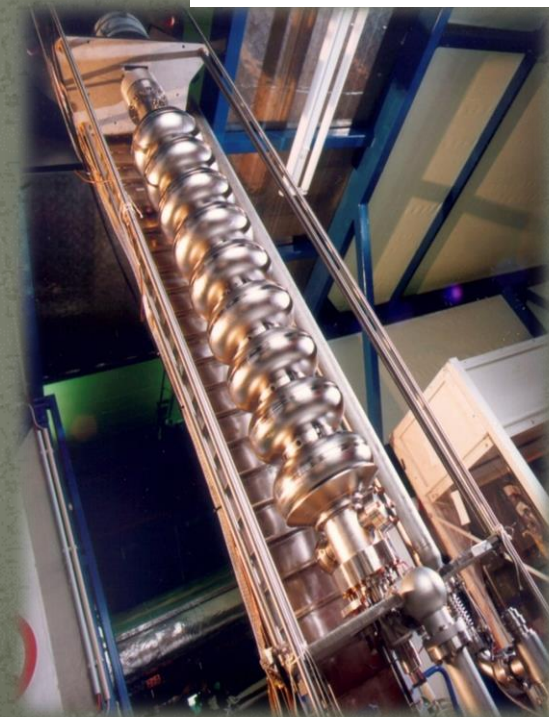
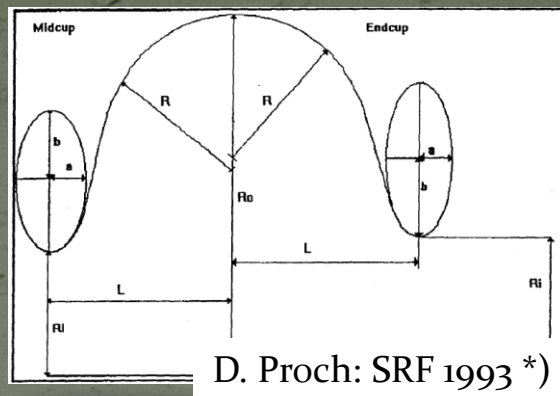


FIG. 1. The surface resistance of a 9-cell TESLA cavity plotted as a function of T_c/T . The residual resistance of $3 \text{ n}\Omega$ corresponds to a quality factor of $Q_0 = 10^{11}$.

From prst-ab.aps.org/abstract/PRSTAB/v3/i9/e092001

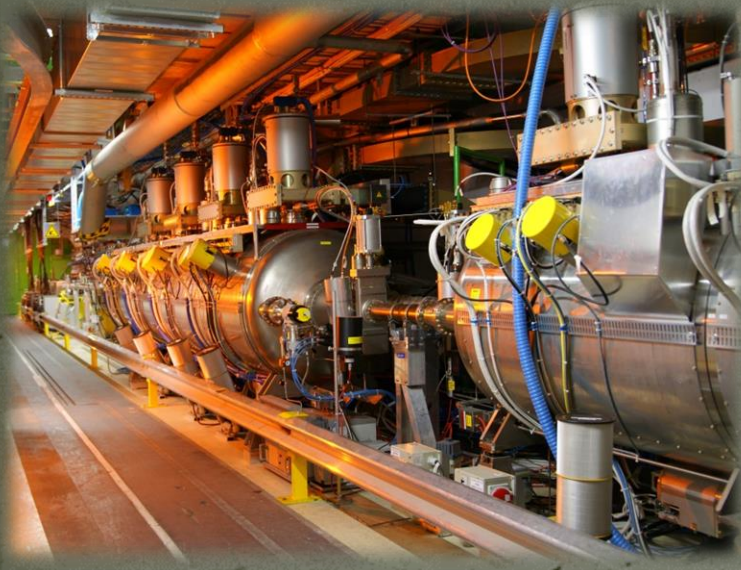
“Elliptical” multi-cell cavities

- The elliptical shape was found as optimum compromise between
 - maximum gradient (E_{acc}/E_{surf})
 - suppression of multipactor
 - mode purity
 - machinability
- Operated in π -mode, i.e. cell length is exactly $\beta\lambda/2$.
- It has become de facto standard, used for ions and leptons! E.g.:
 - ILC/X-FEL: 1.3 GHz, 9-cell cavity
 - SNS (805 MHz)
 - SPL/ESS (704 MHz)
 - LHC (400 MHz^{*)})



^{*)}: accelconf.web.cern.ch/accelconf/SRF93/papers/srf93g01.pdf

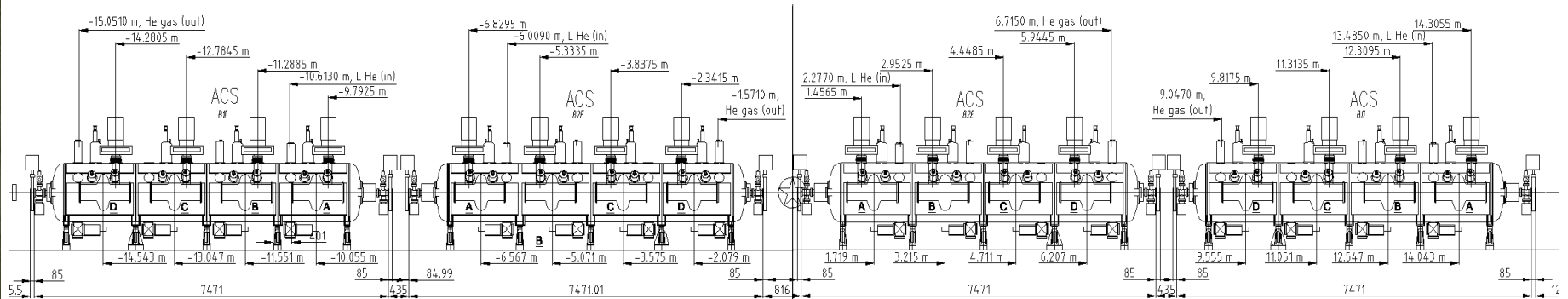
LHC SC RF, 4 cavity module, 400 MHz



installed in LHC IP₄, 2 MV/cavity

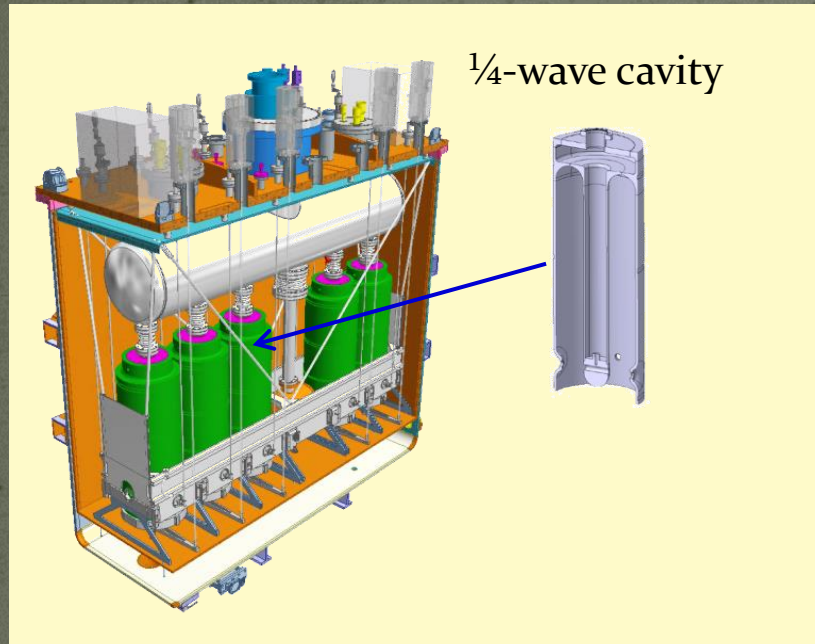


LHC spare module stored in CERN's SM18

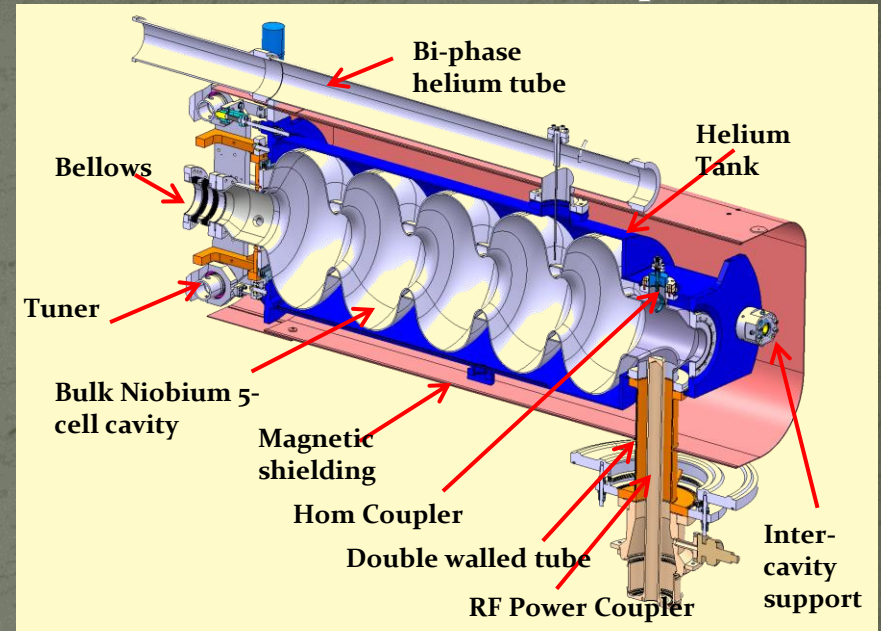


SC Cavity Cryomodules (examples)

HIE-ISOLDE (radioactive isotopes post-accelerator), 101 MHz, 5-cavity CM



SPL/ESS 704 MHz CM (partial view)



ILC/X-FEL 1.3 GHz, 8 cavity CM

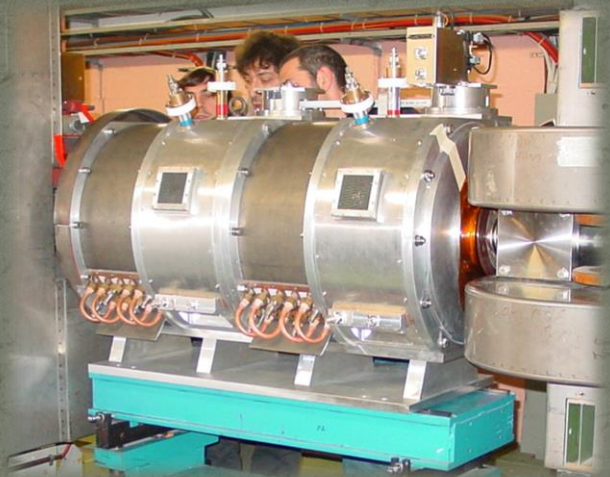


Some examples of RF Systems

CERN PS RF Systems



10 MHz system, $h=7...21$



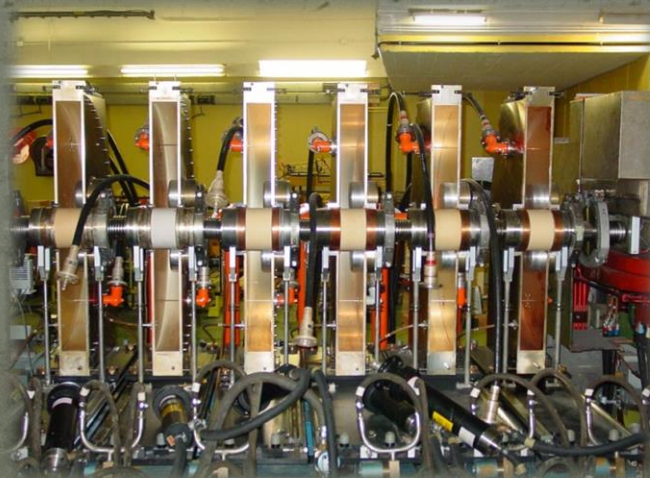
13/20 MHz system, $h=28/42$



40 MHz system, $h=84$



80 MHz system, $h=168$



200 MHz system

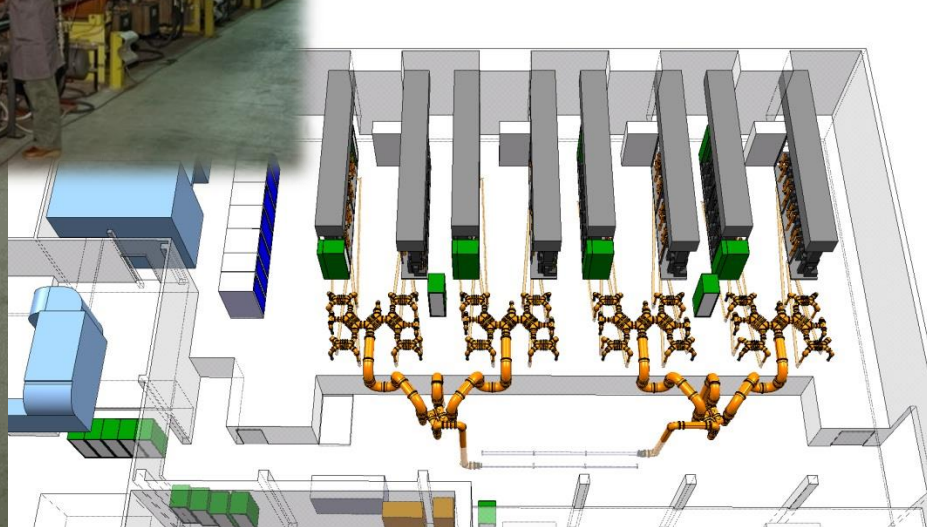
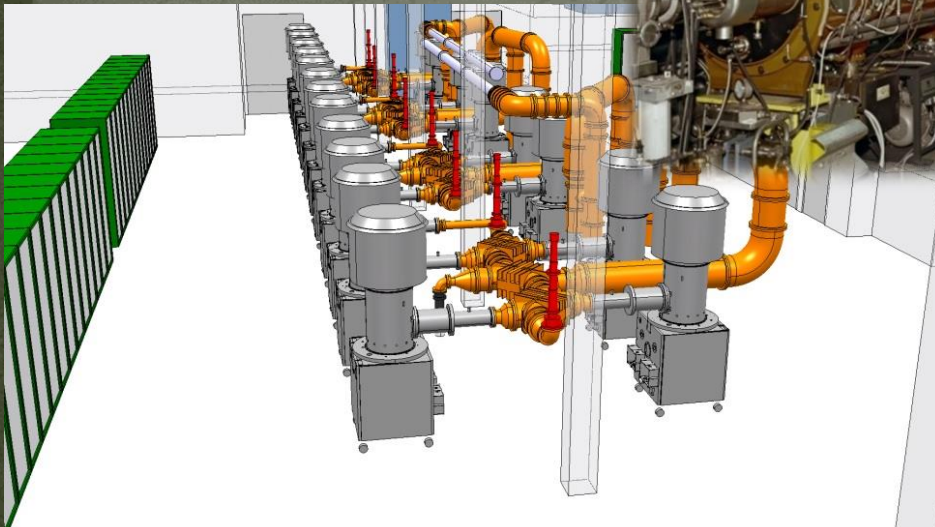
CERN SPS 200 MHz system



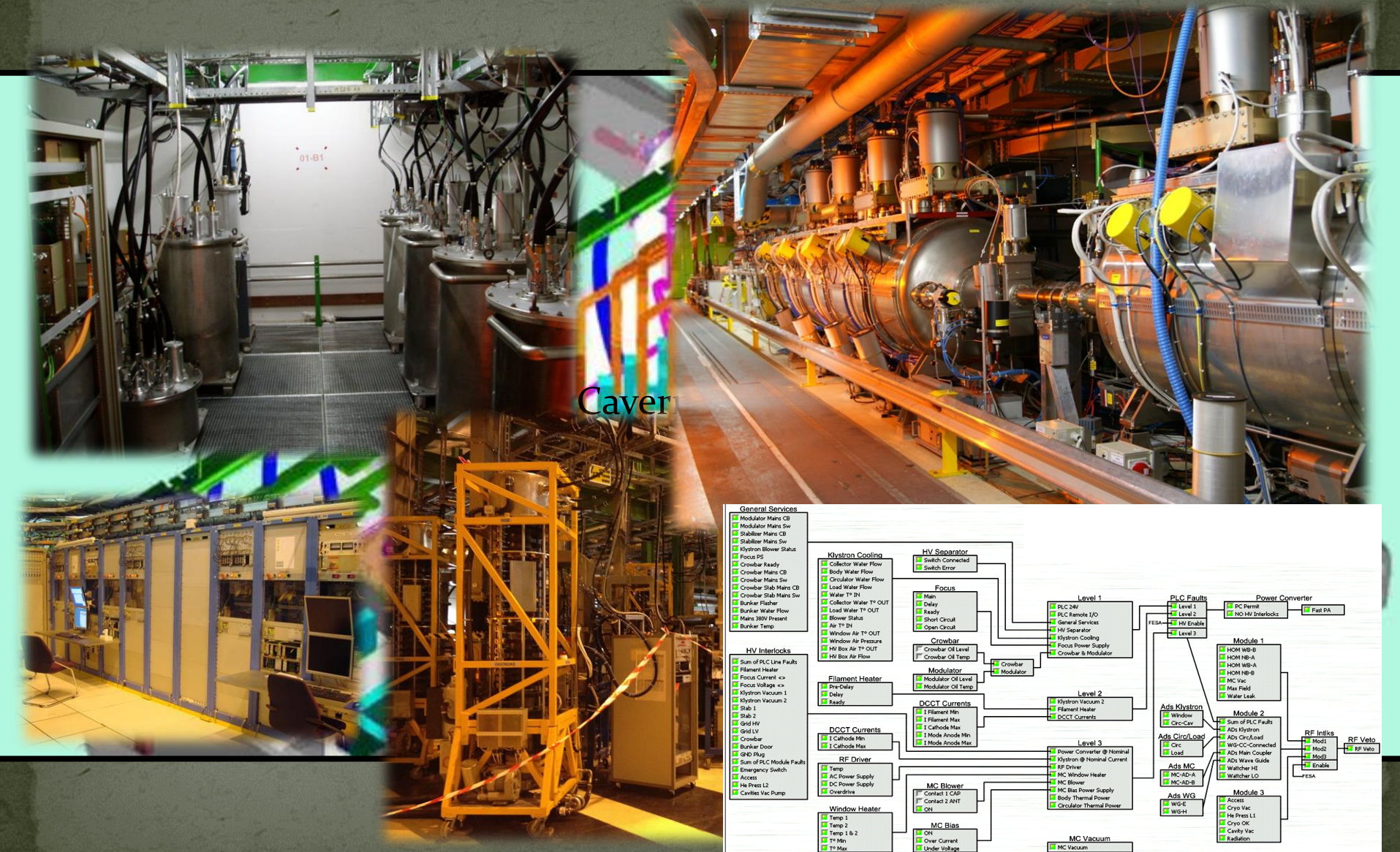
“Siemens” plant



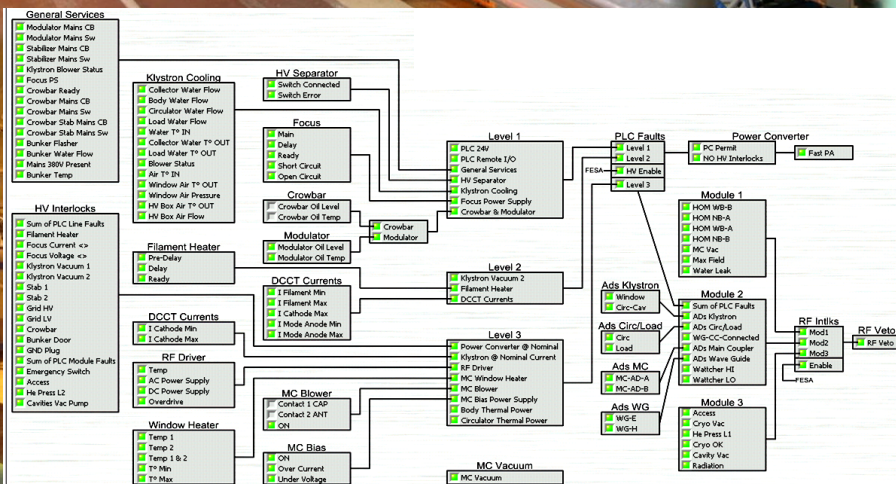
“Philips” plant



LHC RF System (ACS400)



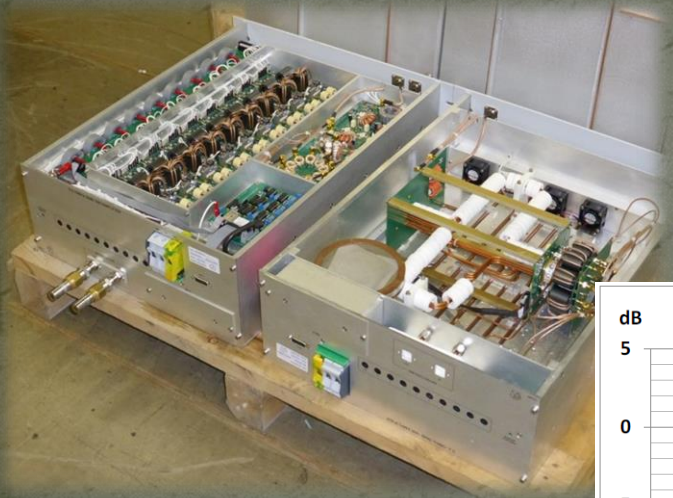
Caver



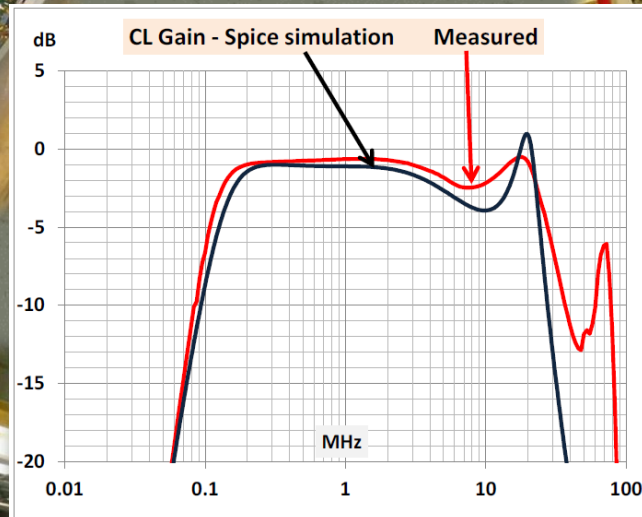
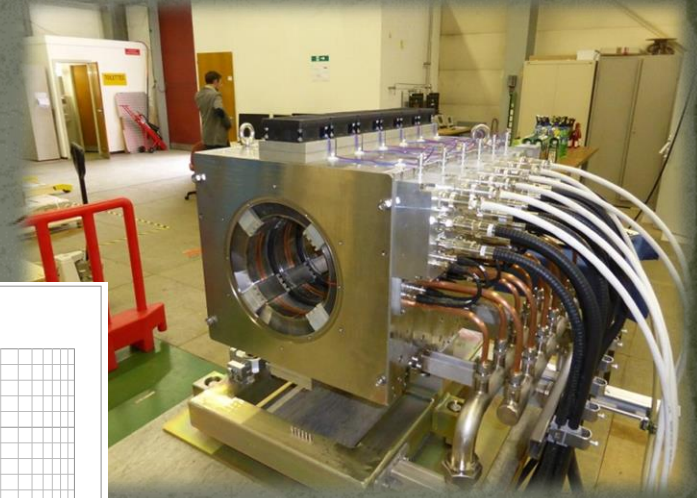
Finemet RF System (MedAustron & PSB)

(0.2 ÷ 10) MHz, 1 kW solid state amplifier

6-gap finemet cavity

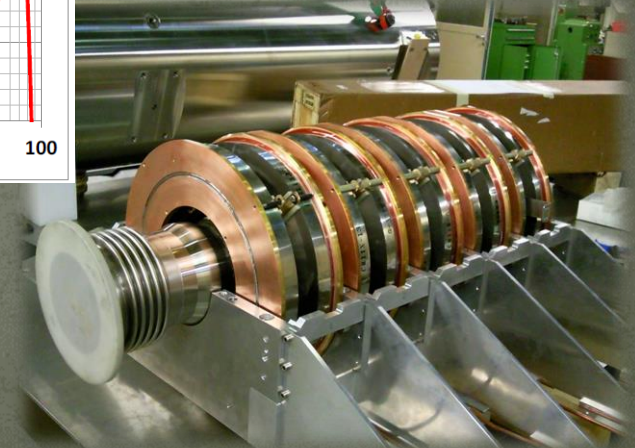


MedAustron



Prototype system installed in ring 4

5-gap finemet cavity



Large instantaneous bandwidth!

CERN PSB

Thank you for your attention!

... Questions?