

RF Systems



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CERN



CAS Basics of Accelerator Physics and Technology

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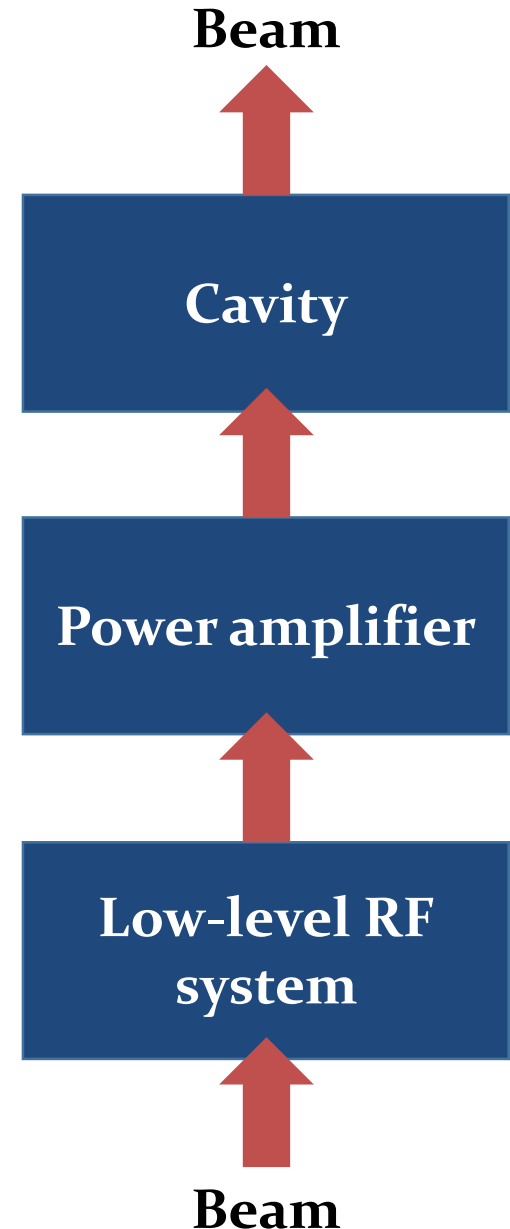
Outline

- **Introduction**
- **Choice of parameters**
 - Frequency and voltage
- **RF cavity parameters**
 - Shunt impedance, beam loading, power coupling
- **Power amplifiers**
 - Tube or solid state
 - Local feedback
- **Longitudinal beam control system**
 - Global feedback
 - Phase and radial loops
- **Summary**

Introduction

Introduction

- The **radiofrequency (RF)** system transforms a string of magnets into an **accelerator**
 - Cavity most is the most visible part of an RF system
 - On top of the RF system **food chain**
 - Interacts directly with beam
- What is below?
- How are RF signals generated which make the beam feel comfortable?



Frequency and wavelength ranges



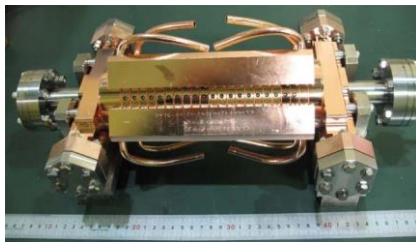
PS longitudinal damper



PS main RF system



SPS 200 MHz



CLIC 12 GHz

100 kHz
3 km

1 MHz
300 m

10 MHz
30 m

100 MHz
3 m

1 GHz
30 cm

10 GHz
3 cm

100 GHz
3 mm



Long wave

**Medium/
short wave**



VHF

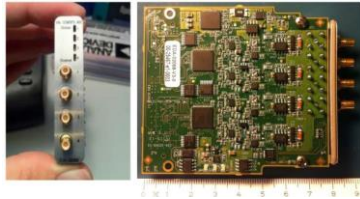


**Microwave
links**



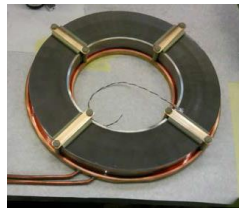
Amplitude ranges

Signals from beam
pick-ups



LLRF systems

Low/Medium
energy hadron RF



SLS

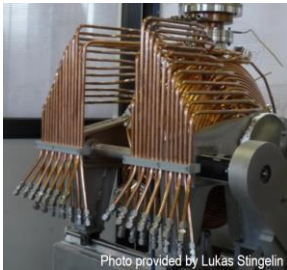


Photo provided by Lukas Stingelin

LHC: 16 MV



LEP: 3.6 GV total

$1 \mu\text{V}$

1 mV

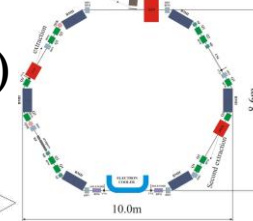
1 V

1 kV

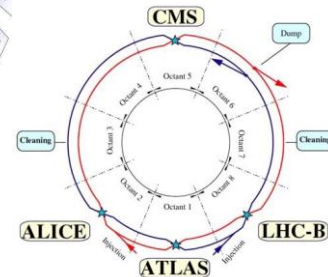
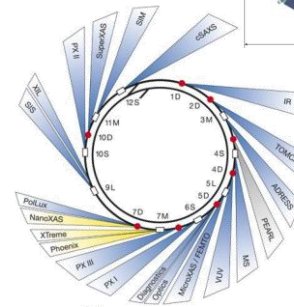
1 MV

1 GV

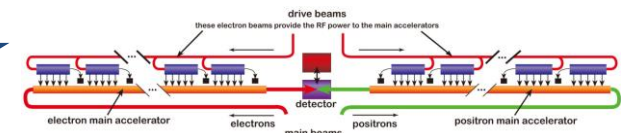
Cooled hadron
beams
(ELENA)



Electron light
sources



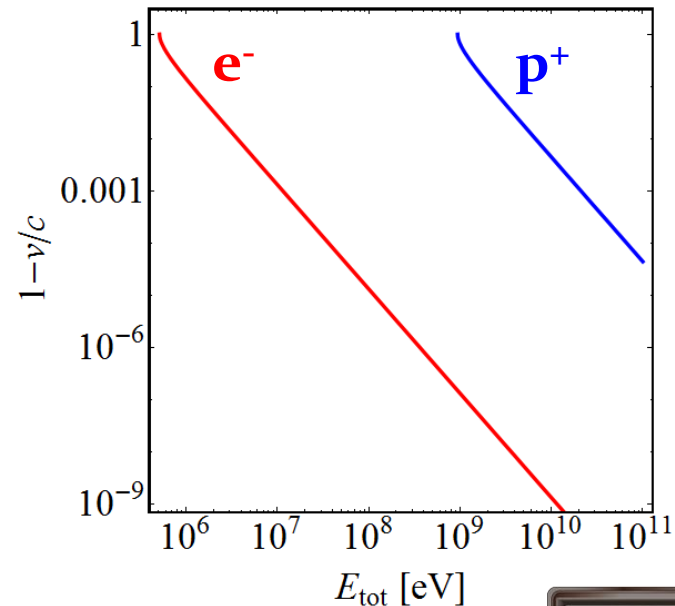
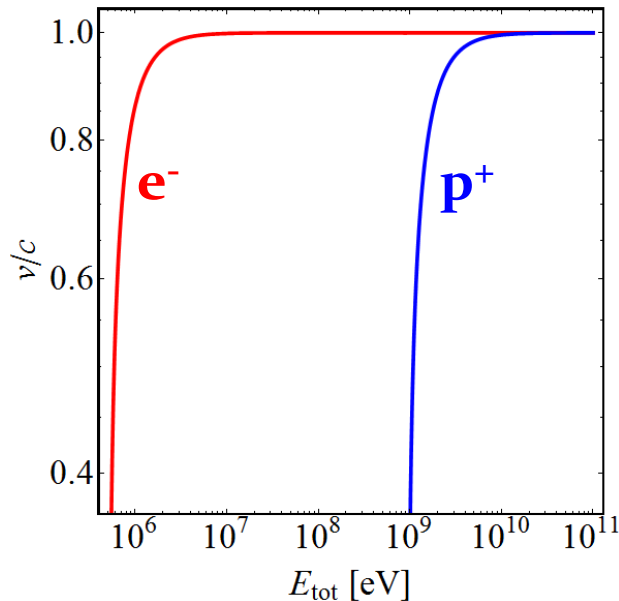
LHC



ILC and CLIC: several TV

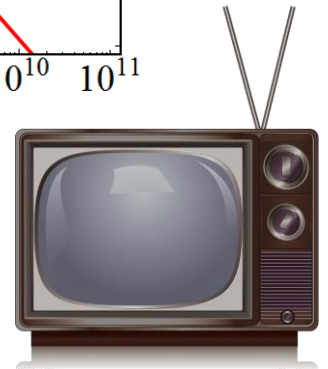
Particle velocity

- Particle velocity depends on its type: $\beta = v/c = \sqrt{1 - (E_0/E)^2}$



- Old television set (30 kV): **Electrons** at 30% of c_0
Protons just at 0.7%
- Small synchrotron (500 MeV): **Electrons** at 99.99995%
Protons at 75.8%

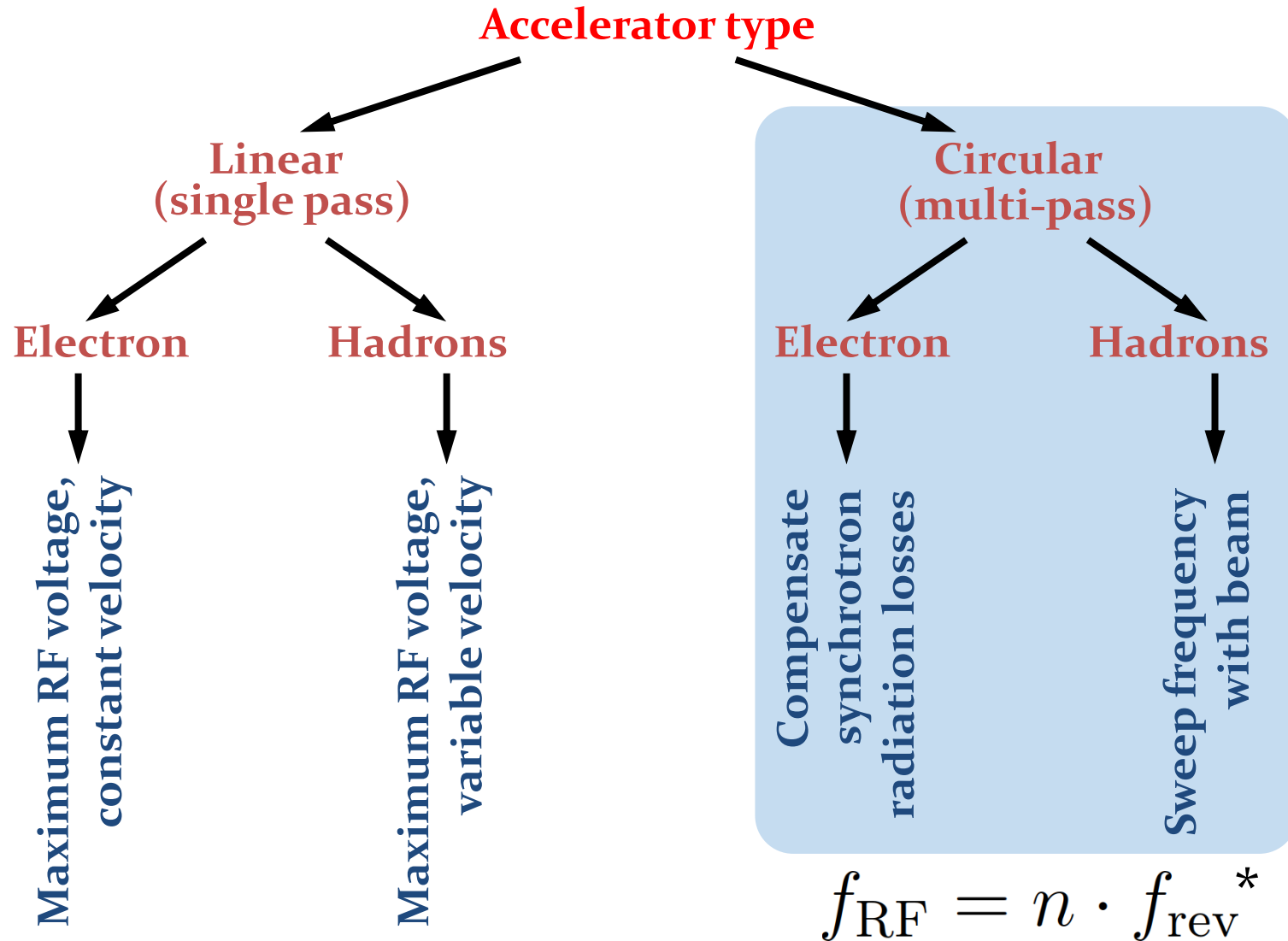
→ Most electron accelerators at 'fixed' frequency



Parameter choices

RF system for high-energy accelerators

9




$$f_{\text{RF}} = n \cdot f_{\text{rev}}^*$$


*Exceptions (rare) exist

Choice of frequency (range)

Why choose a **low** RF frequency?

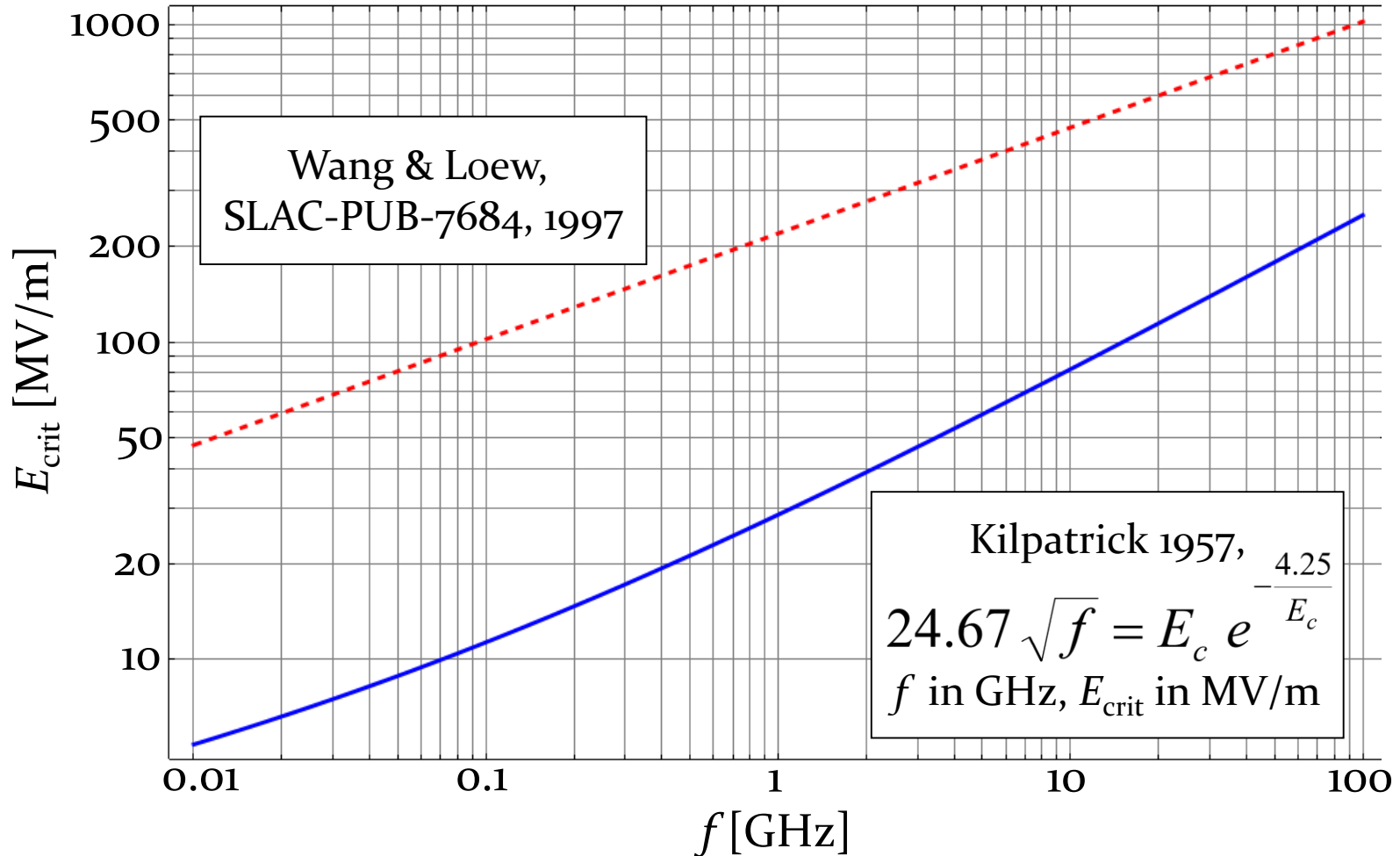
Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Large beam aperture• Long RF buckets, large acceptance• Wide-band or wide range tunable cavities possible• Power amplification and transmission straightforward	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Bulky cavities, size scales $\propto 1/f$, volume $\propto 1/f^3$• Lossy material to downsize cavities• Moderate or low acceleration gradient• Short particle bunches difficult to generate
<p>RF frequencies below ~200 MHz for</p> 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none">→ Some hadron linear accelerators→ Cyclotrons→ Low- and medium energy hadron synchrotrons	

Why choose a **high** RF frequency?

Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Cavity size scales $\propto 1/f$, volume $\propto 1/f^3$• Break down voltage increases• High gradient per length• Particle bunches are short	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Maximum beam available aperture scales $\propto 1/f$• No technology for wide-band or tunable cavities• Power amplifiers more difficult• Power transmission losses
<p>RF frequencies above ~200 MHz used for</p> 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none">→ Linear accelerators→ Electron storage rings→ High energy hadron storage rings	

Limits to maximum gradient

- Surface electric field in vacuum



→ High frequencies preferred for large gradient

RF voltage

Minimum voltage requirement (circular)

The RF system must compensate

1. Energy gain per turn due to changing magnetic field

$$F_Z = F_L \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{p}{q} = \rho B \quad \rightarrow \quad \dot{p} = q\rho\dot{B}$$

$$\dot{p} = \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta t} = \frac{m_0 c^2 \beta}{2\pi R} (\beta \Delta \gamma + \gamma \Delta \beta) = \frac{\Delta E_{\text{turn}}}{2\pi R}$$

$$\Delta E_{\text{turn}} = 2\pi q \rho R \dot{B}$$

2. Energy loss, e.g., due to synchrotron radiation (electrons)

$$\Delta E_{\text{turn}} = \frac{e^2}{3\epsilon_0 (m_0 c^2)^4} \frac{E^4}{\rho}$$

$$\Delta E_{\text{turn}}[\text{keV}] = 88.5 \cdot \frac{E^4[\text{GeV}]^4}{\rho[\text{m}]} \quad \Delta P_{\text{loss}}[\text{kW}] = 88.5 \cdot \frac{E^4[\text{GeV}]^4}{\rho[\text{m}]} \cdot I_B[\text{A}]$$

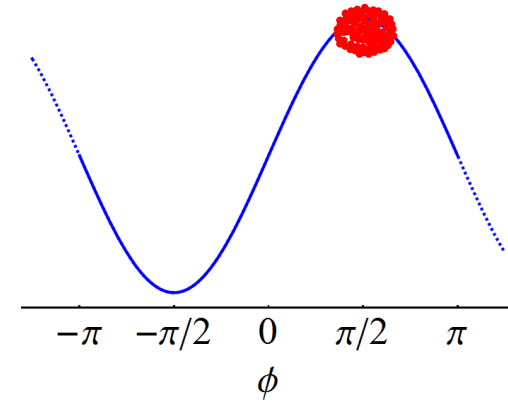
$$\rightarrow (m_p/m_e)^4 = 1836^4 \sim 1.1 \cdot 10^{13} \text{ times less for protons}$$

Minimum voltage requirement

- RF system expected to provide given energy gain

$$qV = \Delta E$$

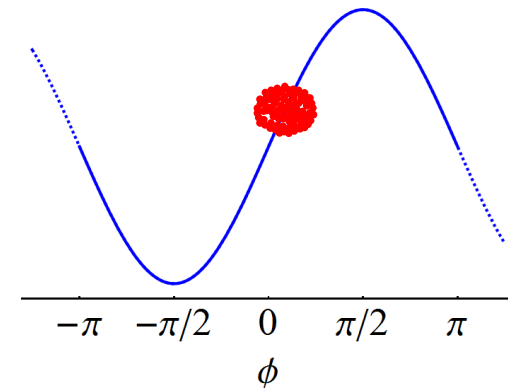
- On-crest acceleration
- Used in some linear accelerators
- Insufficient in a circular accelerator



- More voltage provided to avoid on-crest acceleration

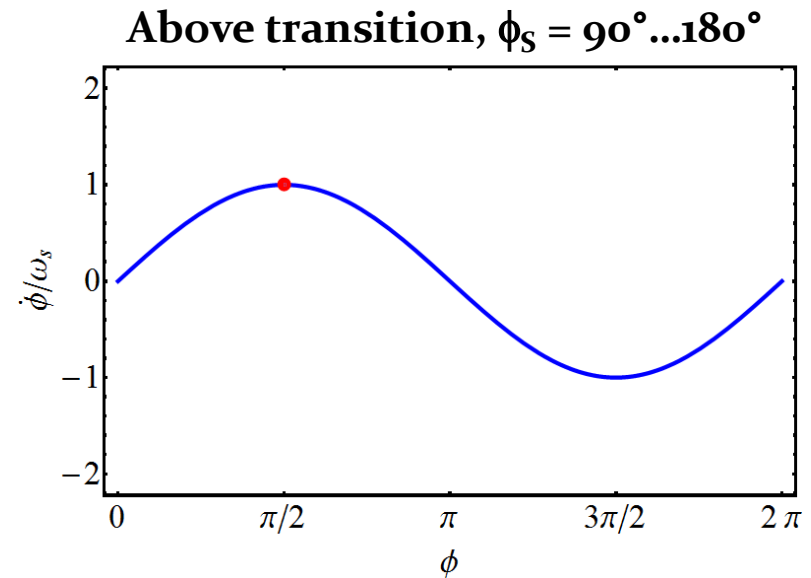
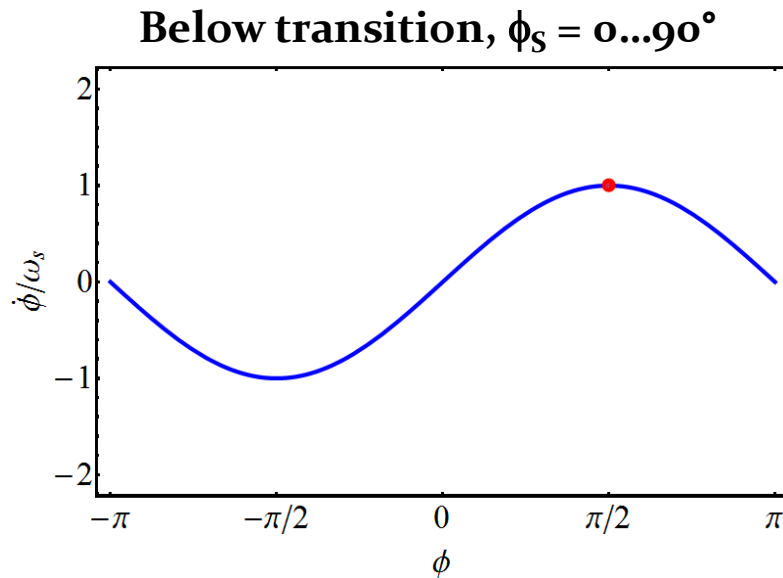
$$qV > \Delta E \rightarrow qV \sin(\phi_S) = \Delta E$$

- Off-crest acceleration
- Needed for circular accelerator
- Higher voltage for given energy gain



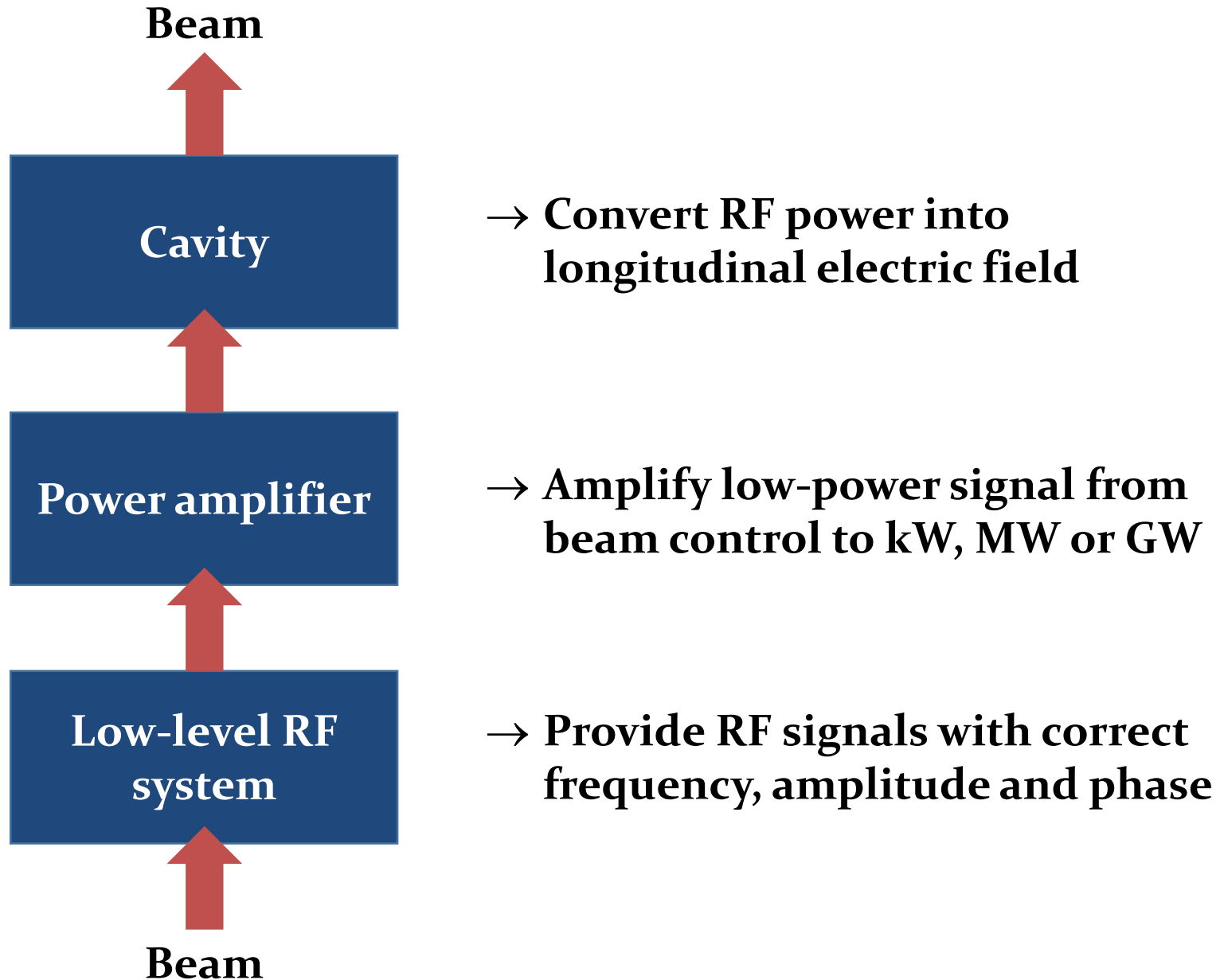
Bucket area dependence on stable phase

- In a circular accelerator the area in energy-time phase space (bucket area) depends on the stable phase

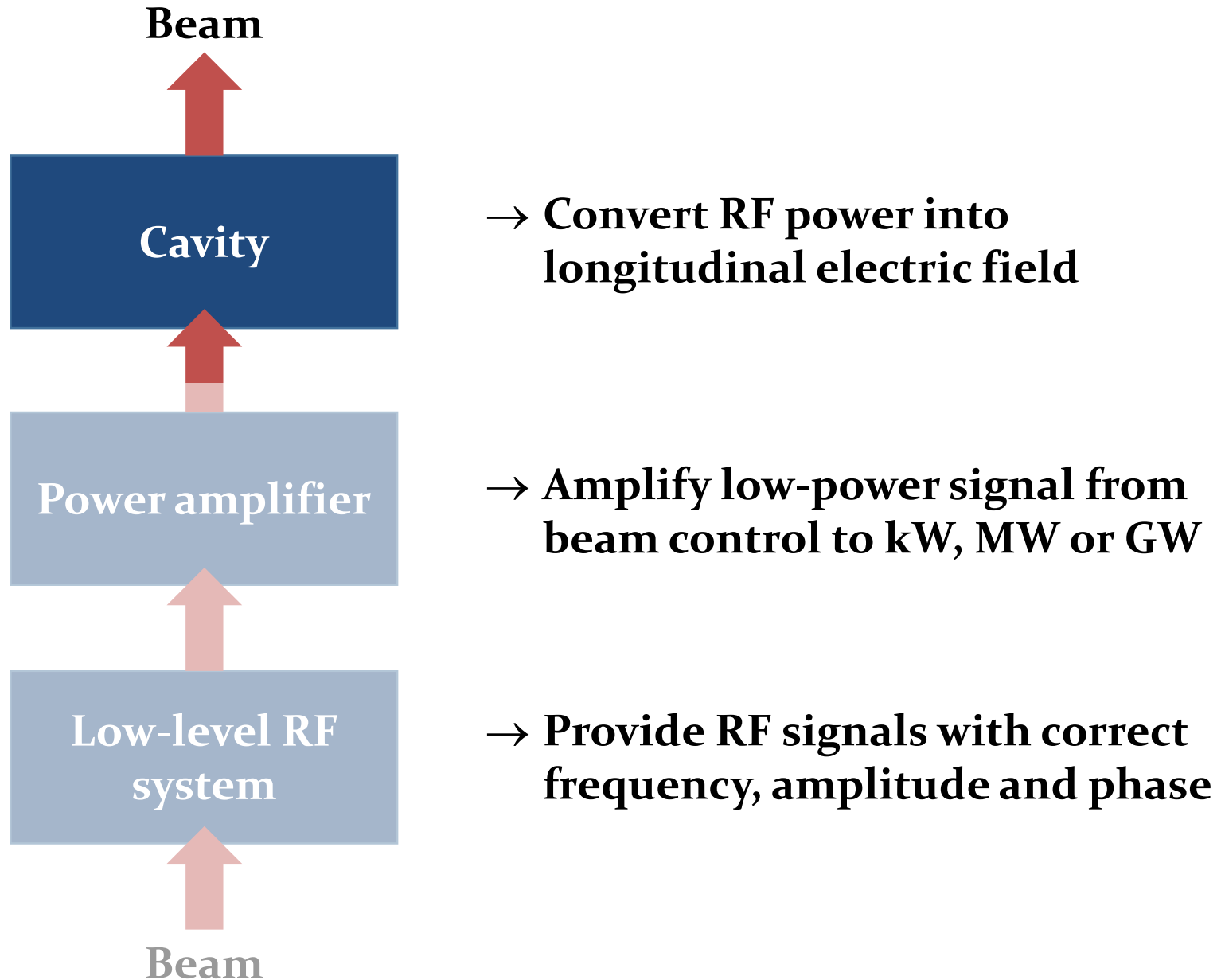


- Typical synchronous phase with respect to 0° or 180°
 - Hadron accelerators: $< 40^\circ$
 - Electron storage rings: $\sim 20^\circ$

RF system overview



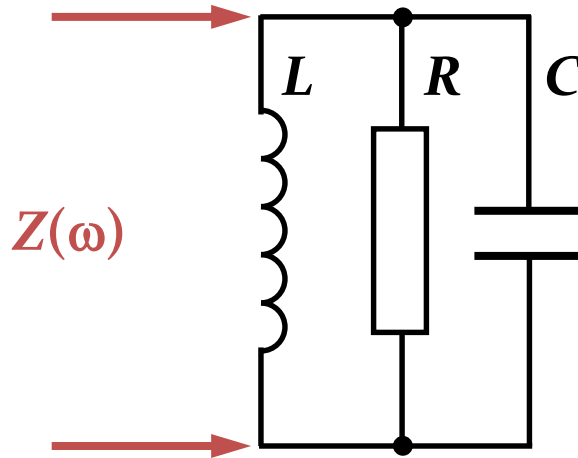
RF system overview



RF cavity

Cavity parameters

- The resonance of a cavity can be understood as simple parallel resonant circuit described by R , L , C



$$\frac{1}{Z(\omega)} = \frac{1}{R} + \frac{1}{i\omega L} + i\omega C$$

with $\omega_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$

$$Q = \omega_0 \frac{\text{Stored energy}}{\text{Average power loss}} = \frac{\omega_0 E}{P}$$

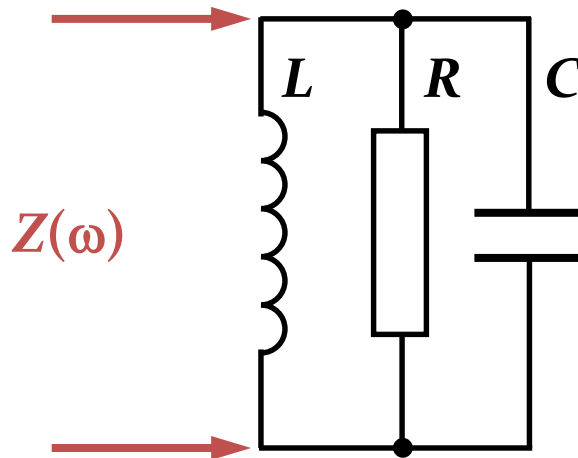
$$E = \frac{1}{2} CV^2 = \frac{1}{2} LI^2$$

$$P = \frac{1}{2} \frac{U^2}{R} = \frac{1}{2} I^2 R$$

$$Q = \omega_0 RC = \frac{R}{\omega_0 L}$$

Cavity parameters

- The resonance of a cavity can be understood as simple parallel resonant circuit described by **R , L , C**



$$\frac{1}{Z(\omega)} = \frac{1}{R} + \frac{1}{i\omega L} + i\omega C$$

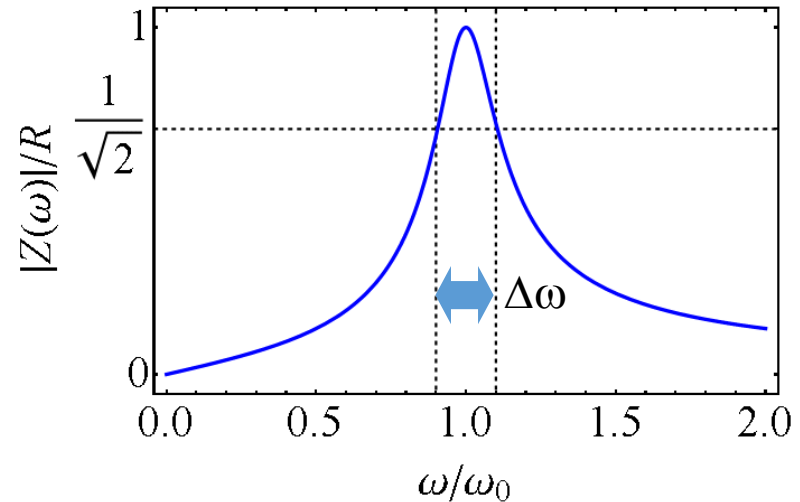
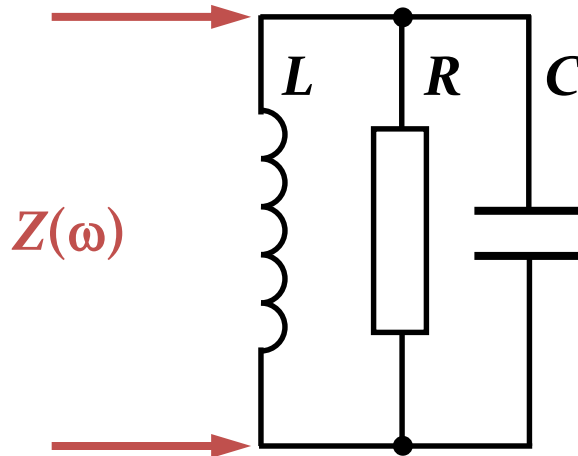
with $\omega_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$

$$Q = \omega_0 RC = \frac{R}{\omega_0 L} \quad Z(\omega) = \frac{R}{1 + iQ \left(\frac{\omega^2 - \omega_0^2}{\omega\omega_0} \right)} \simeq \frac{R}{1 + 2iQ \frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_0}}$$

→ Resonant circuit can also be described by **R , R/Q , ω_0** or any other set of three parameters

Cavity parameters

- The resonance of a cavity can be understood as simple parallel resonant circuit described by R, L, C



$$Q = \omega_0 RC = \frac{R}{\omega_0 L} \quad Z(\omega) = \frac{R}{1 + iQ \left(\frac{\omega^2 - \omega_0^2}{\omega \omega_0} \right)} \simeq \frac{R}{1 + 2iQ \frac{\Delta \omega}{\omega_0}}$$

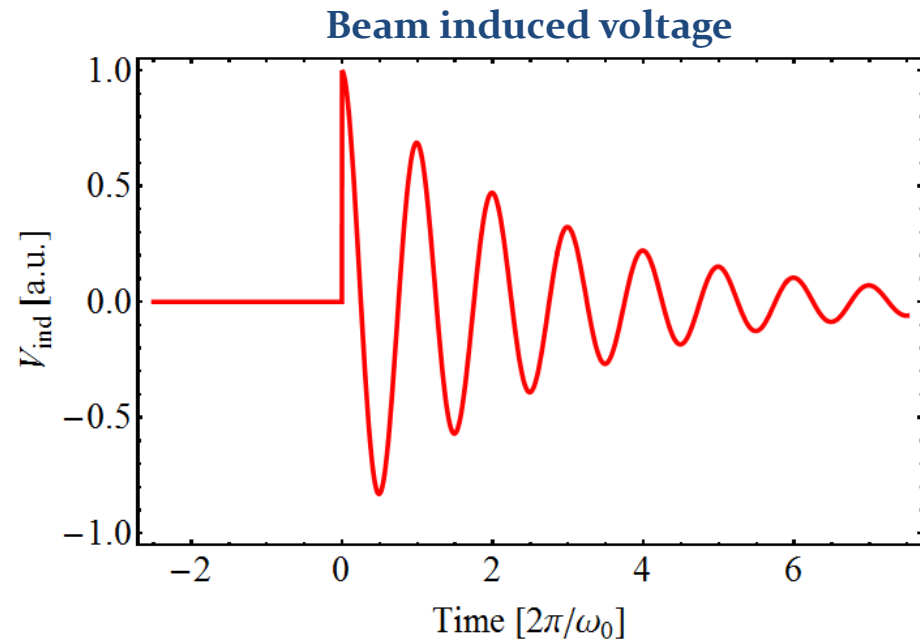
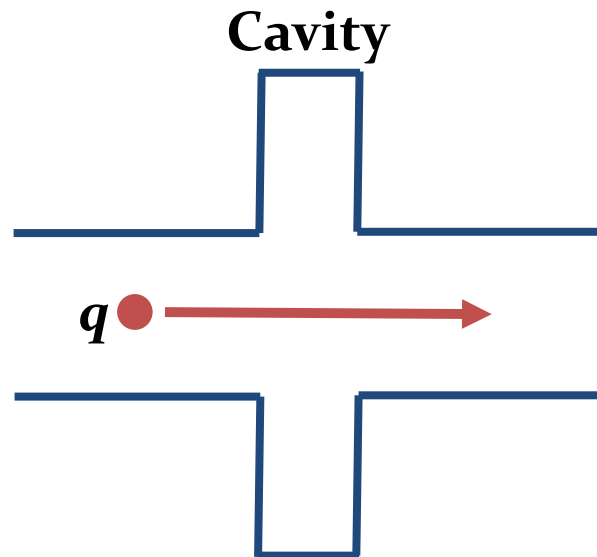
→ Resonant circuit can also be described by $R, R/Q, \omega_0$ or any other set of three parameters

Cavity parameters

- Most common choice by cavity designers ω_o , R , R/Q – why?
- **Resonance frequency, ω_o**
 - Exactly defined for given application, e.g. hf_{rev}
- **Shunt impedance, R**
 - Power required to produce a given voltage **without beam**
- **“R-upon-Q”, R/Q**
 - Defined only by the cavity geometry
 - Criterion to optimize a geometry
 - Detuning with beam proportional to R/Q

Why R/Q?

→ Charged particle experiences cavity gap as capacitor



$$q = V_{\text{ind}} C$$

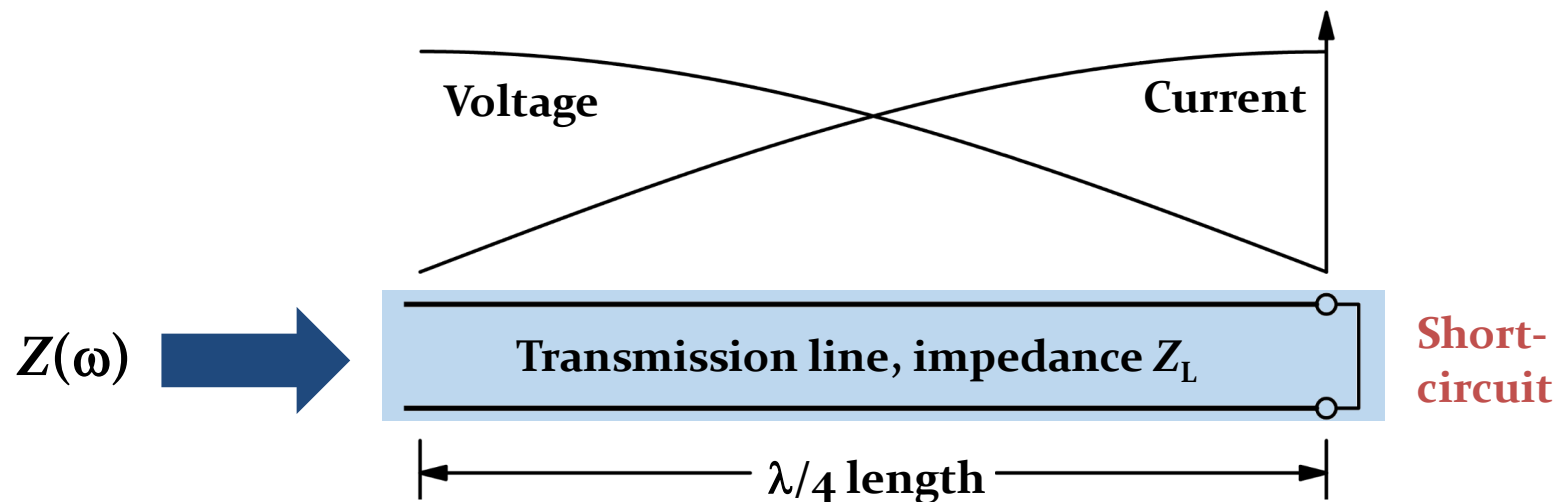
$$Q = \omega_0 R C \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{C} = \left(\frac{R}{Q} \right) \omega_0$$

$$V_{\text{ind}} = \frac{q}{C} \propto \frac{R}{Q}$$

→ Cavity geometry with small R/Q to reduce beam loading

RF cavities in low frequency range

- **RF wavelength large below ~10 MHz: >30 m**
- Would need huge cavities → too large for accelerators
- Line resonators: **$\lambda/4$ resonator**

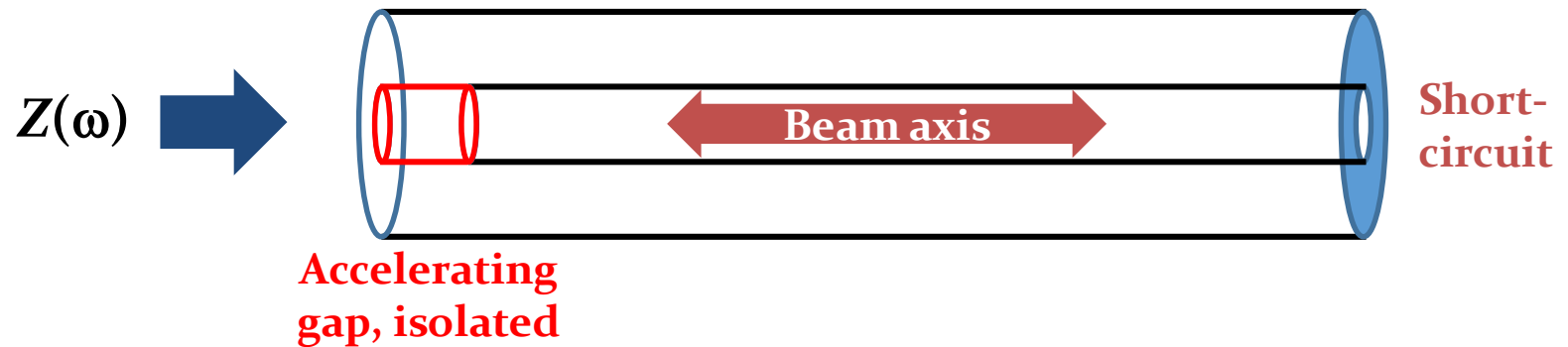


- Short circuit on one side
- Open end on other
- Voltage is zero
- No current but voltage

Why is this resonator so common in particle accelerators?

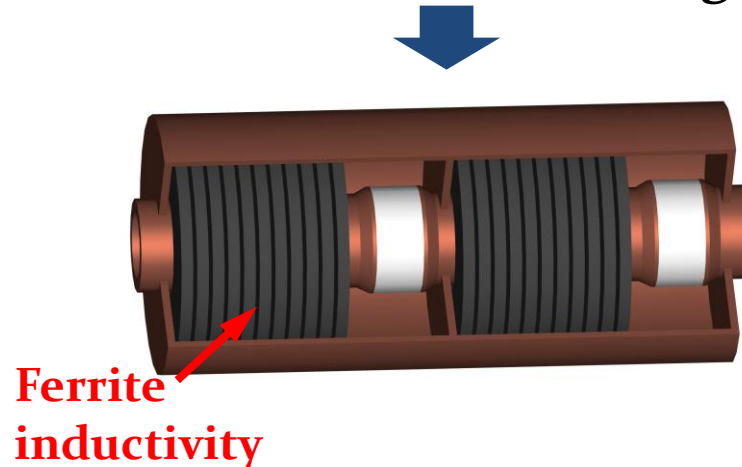
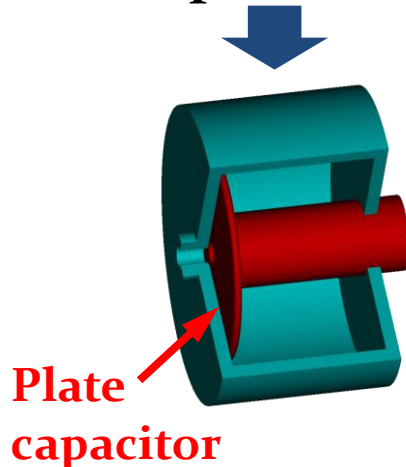
RF cavities in low frequency range

- Coaxial structure with inner conductor as beam pipe



→ Still rather long geometry, 7.5 m at 10 MHz

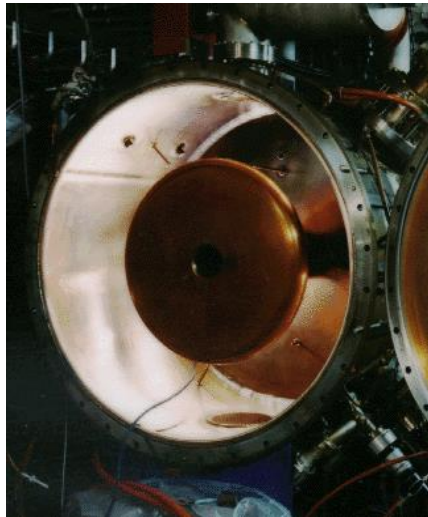
→ Add capacitive or inductive shortening



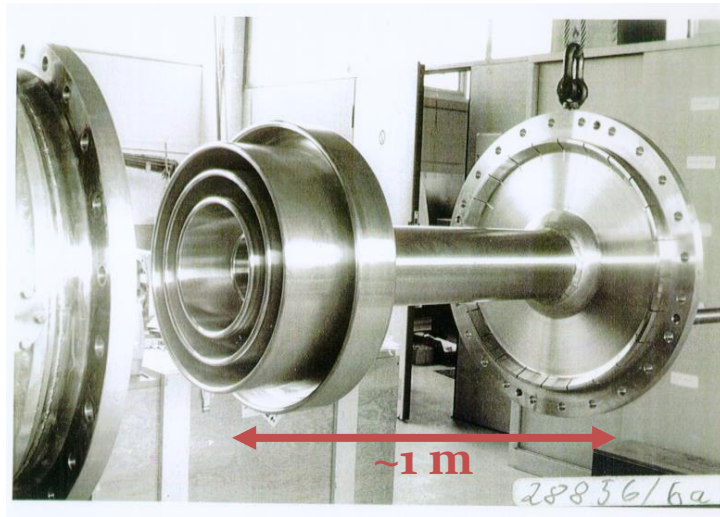
Capacitive loading

→ Add capacitor at gap of cavity to shorten the resonator

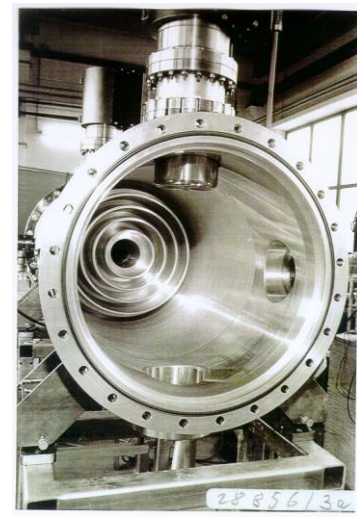
NSLS, 52.88 MHz



DESY PIA, 10.4 MHz, inner cond.



Outer cond.



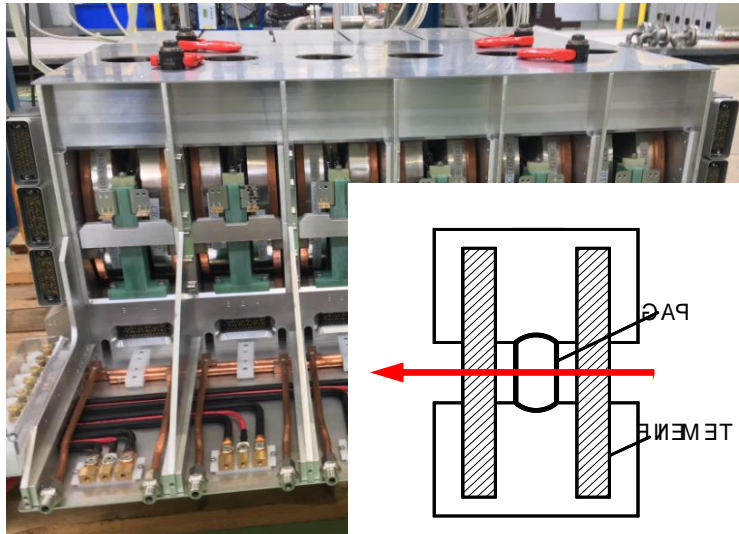
M. Nagl

- Significantly reduces cavity size
- Fixed frequency only
- Small losses due to capacitor
- Cavity in vacuum

Inductive loading

- Inductive loading with magnetic material shortens resonator from tens of meters to a device, **lossy though**

CERN PSB Finemet cav., 0.6-18 MHz



CERN PS, double gap, 2.8-10 MHz



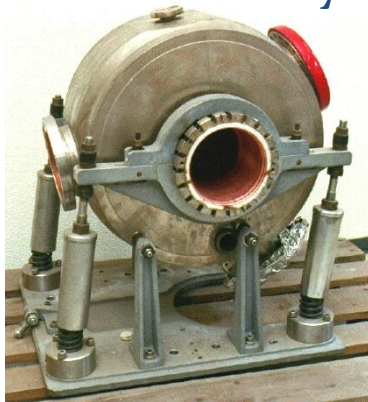
- Additional advantage: permeability of ferrite can be controlled by DC bias current → **variable inductivity**
 - Cavity with programmable resonance frequency
 - Essential for hadron acceleration in low-energy accelerators

Further increase frequency

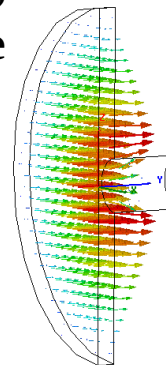
→ Remove inner conductor from coaxial set-up



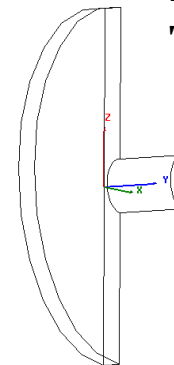
→ The resonator becomes a pill-box cavity
DORIS cavity



Electric field,
 TM_{010} -mode



Magnetic field,
 TM_{010} -mode

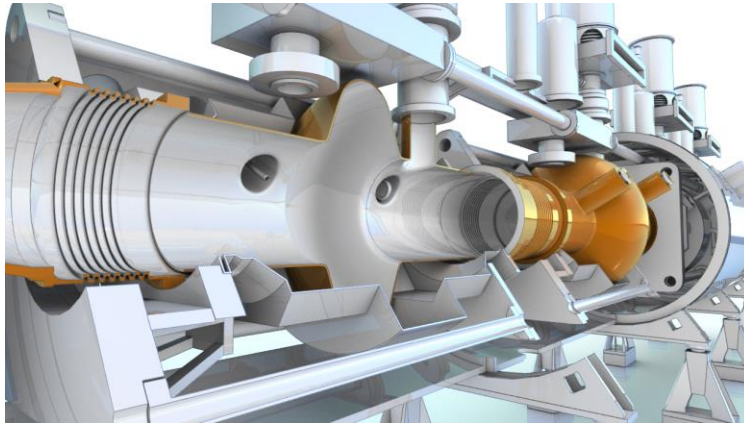


E. Jensen

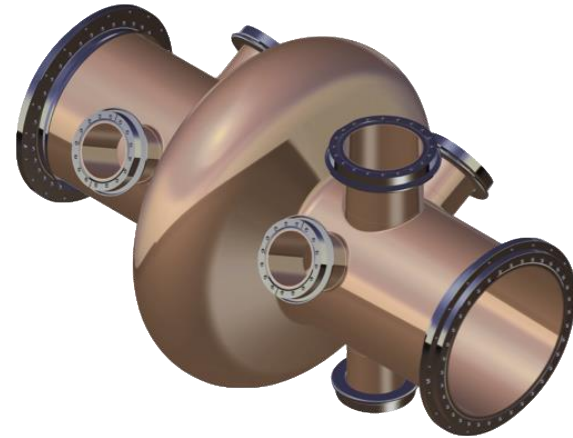
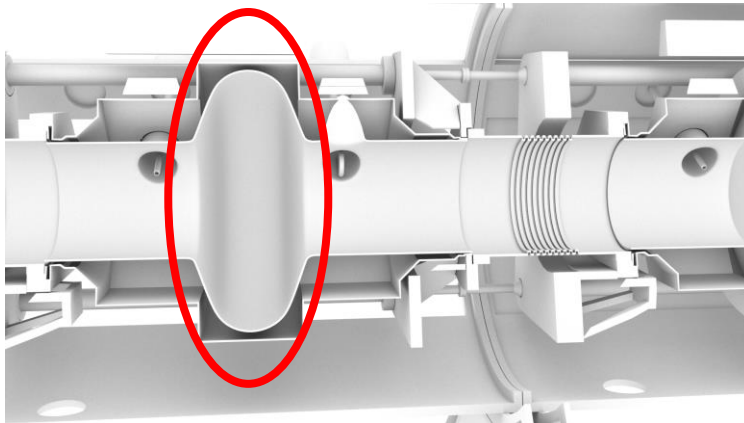
→ The basis for cavity resonators

Example: 400 MHz cavities in LHC

- Reduce beam loading in RF cavities
- Shunt impedance, R , low for small R/Q with normal conducting cavities → superconducting cavities in LHC



Bell shape: $R/Q \sim 44 \Omega$, 400 MHz

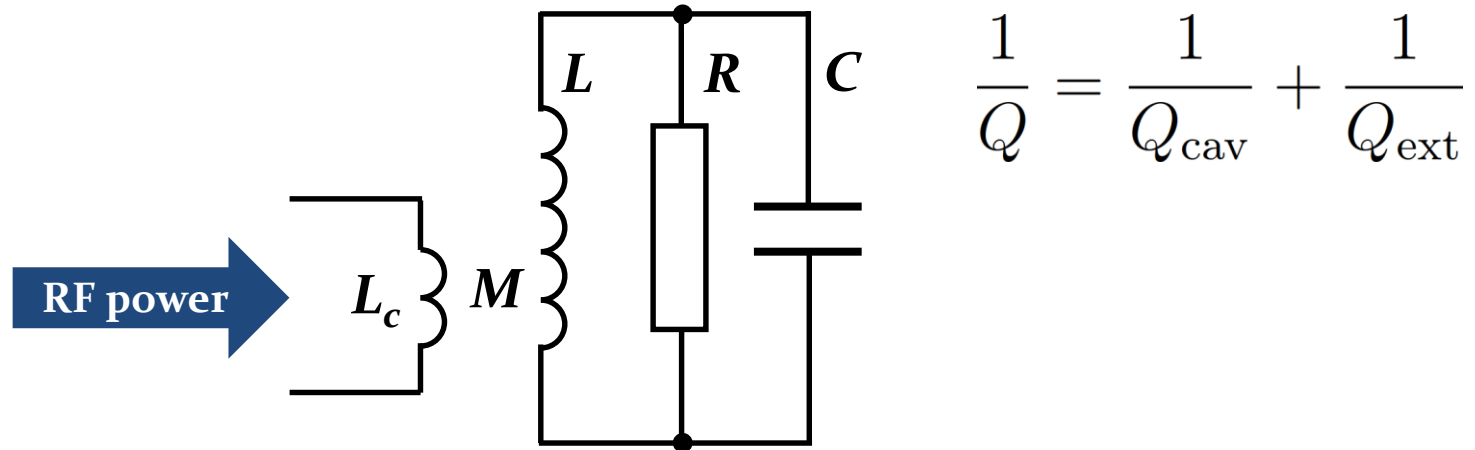


- 2×8 cavities, 5.3 MV/m
- 16 MV/beam

Coupling power into a cavity

Coupling power into a cavity magnetically

- Attack **inductivity** or capacitance of resonator, or combined



→ Coupling **loop** forms **transformer** with **resonator** inductivity



L. Stigelin

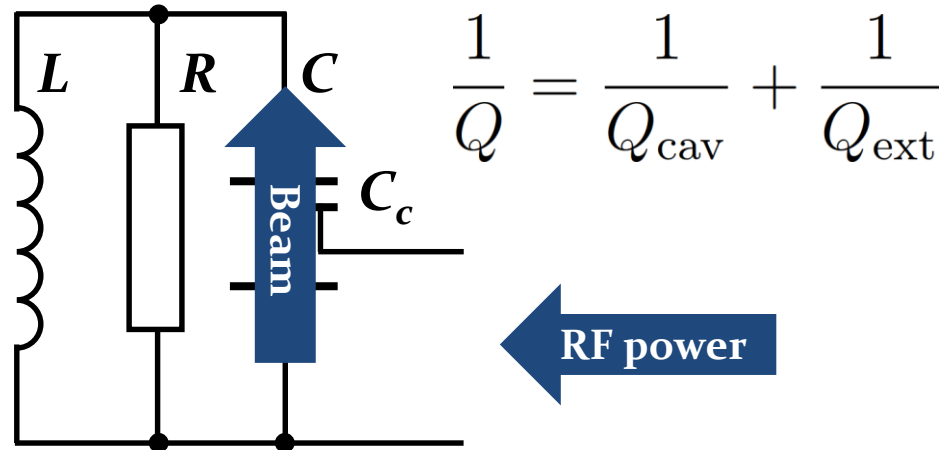
- Main coupler
PSI cyclotron
- **~1 MW at 50 MHz**



A. Rodchenko

Coupling power into a cavity electrically

- Attack inductivity or **capacitance** of resonator, or combined



- **Capacitive divider** to gap to transform generator impedance to cavity shunt impedance
- Beam also **couples capacitively** via the gap

Coupler of CERN PS 40 MHz

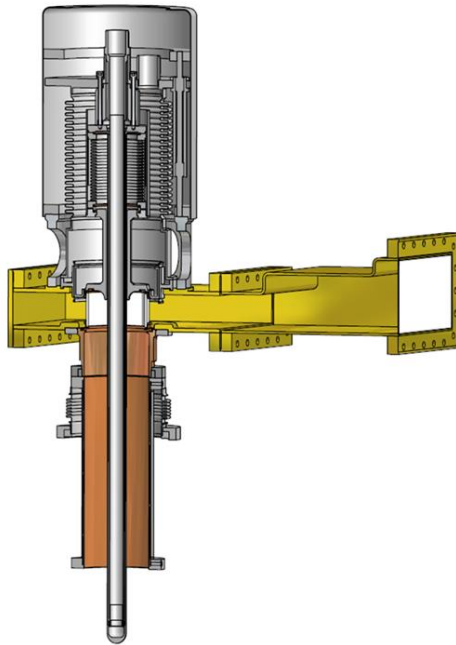


- Coupler forms one **half of capacitor** with the gap

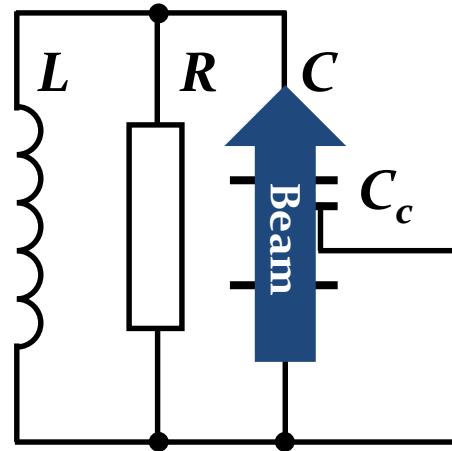
Coupling power into a cavity electrically

- Attack inductivity or **capacitance** of resonator, or combined

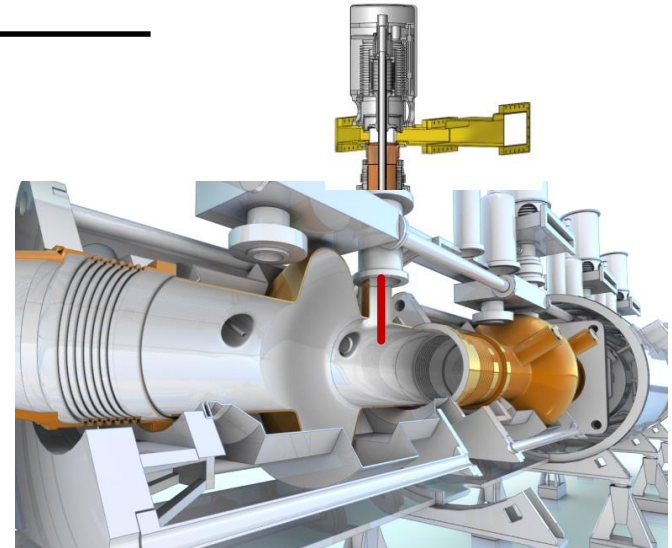
300 kW power coupler of
LHC 400 MHz cavities



→ **Coupler antenna transmits
directly into the cavity**

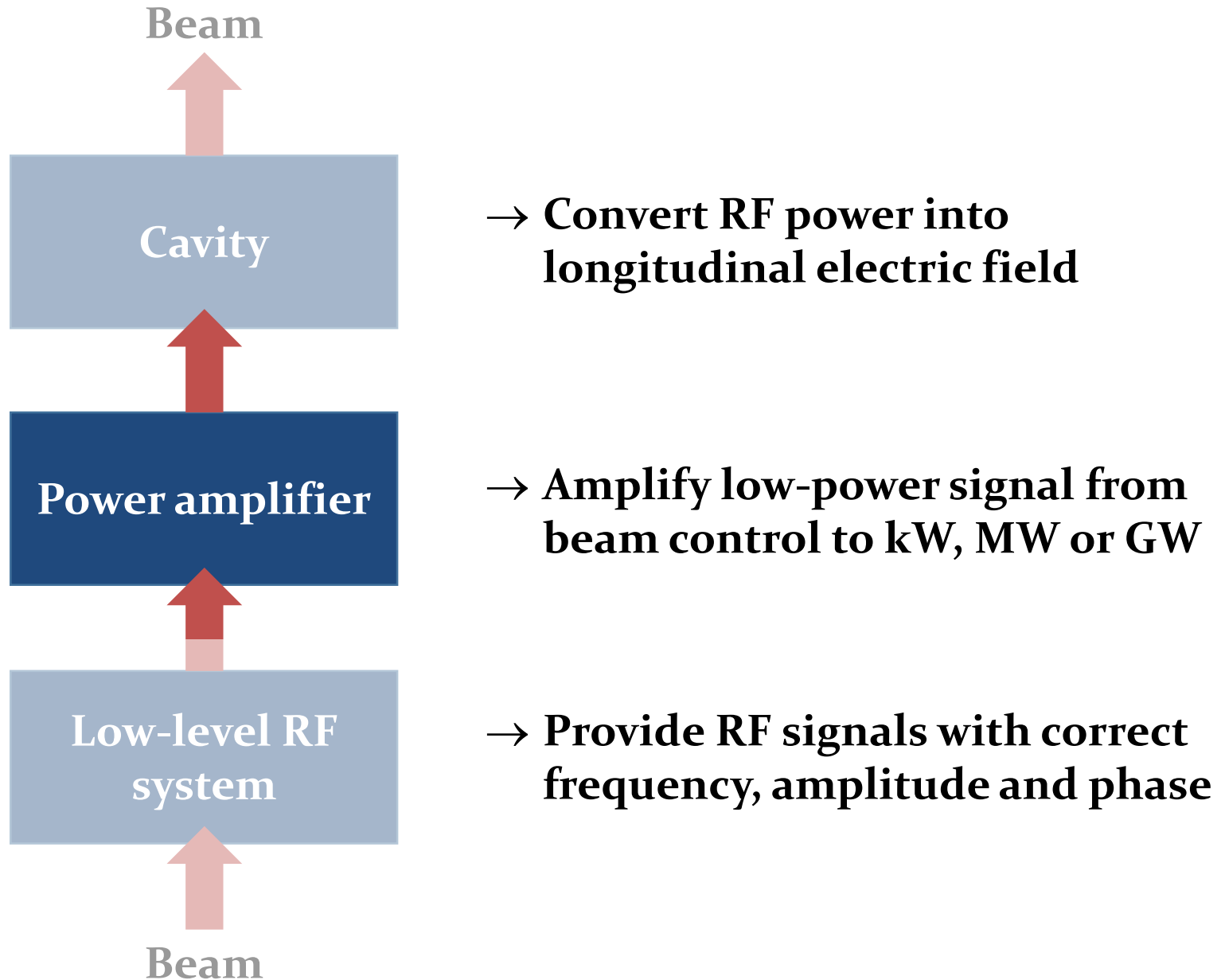


$$\frac{1}{Q} = \frac{1}{Q_{\text{cav}}} + \frac{1}{Q_{\text{ext}}}$$



→ **Most common electrical
coupler**

RF system overview

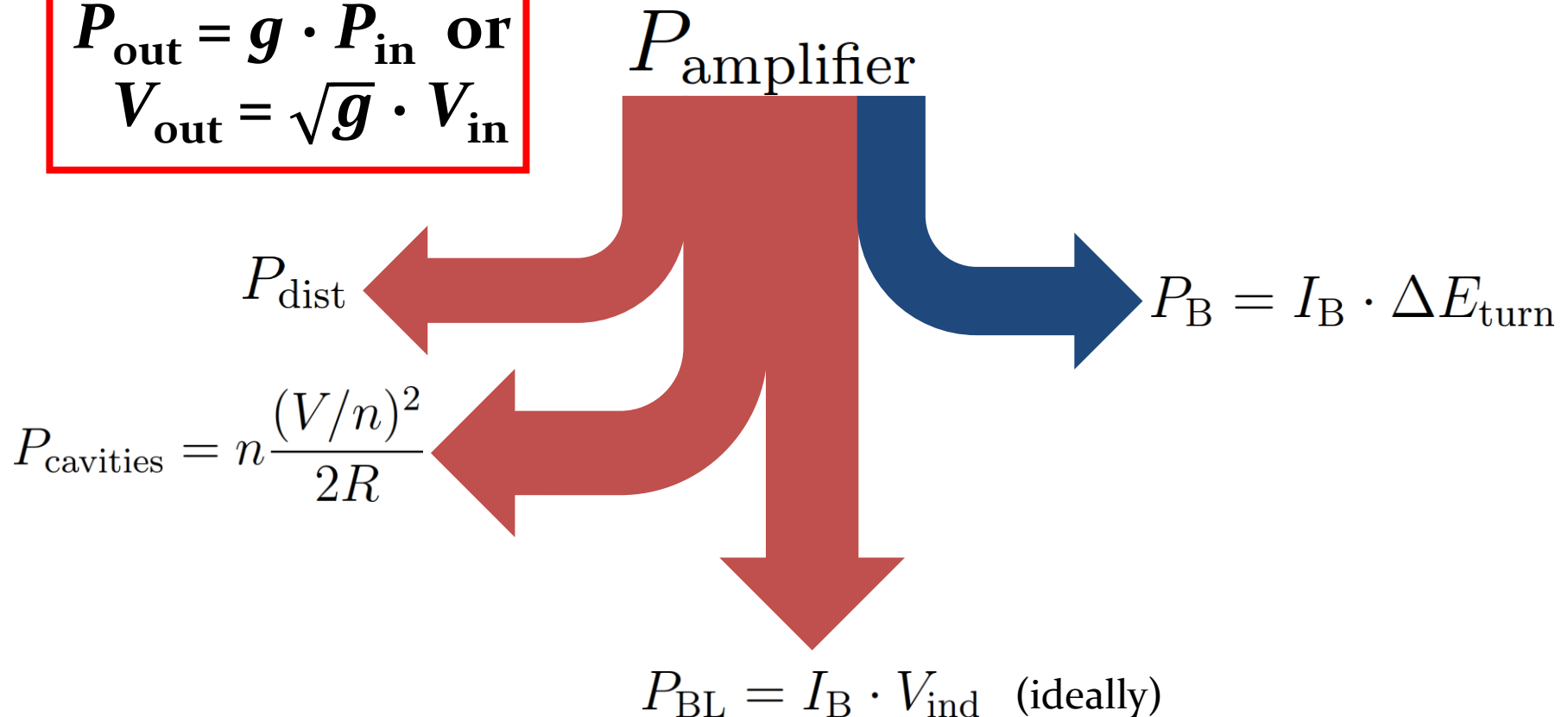


Power amplifiers

How much power is required?

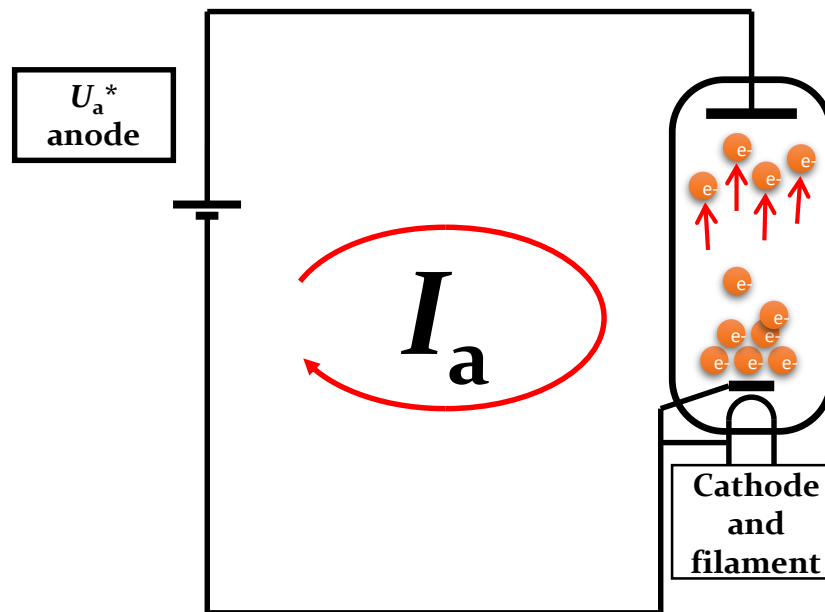
1. Power to accelerate beam → **Wanted**
2. Compensate beam-induced voltage → **Refl. P**
3. Compensate electrical losses in cavity → **Heat**
4. Compensate electrical losses in distribution → **Heat**

$$P_{\text{out}} = g \cdot P_{\text{in}} \text{ or } V_{\text{out}} = \sqrt{g} \cdot V_{\text{in}}$$



Basics of grid tube

- From diode to tetrode amplifier



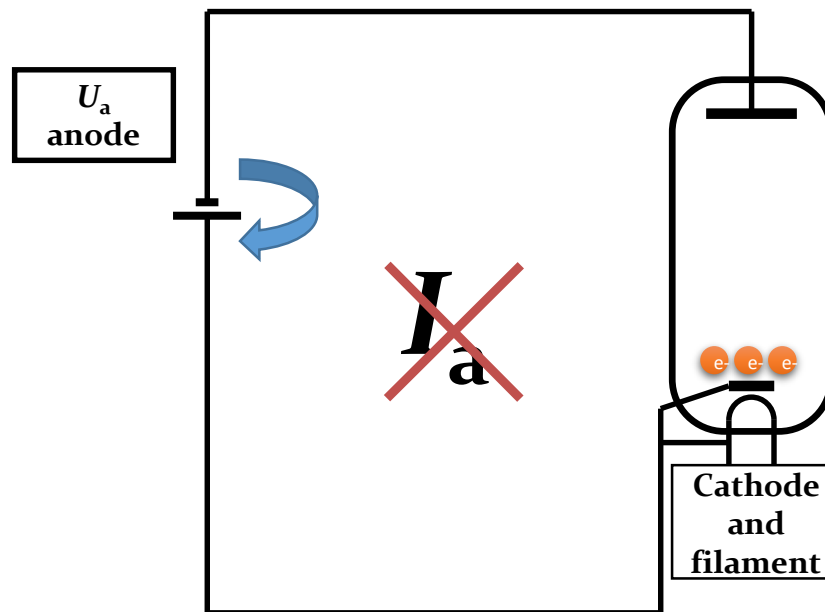
- Vacuum tube
- Heater + Cathode
 - Heated cathode
 - Coated metal, carbides, borides,...
- thermionic emission
- Electron cloud
- Anode

→ Diode

*For tube amplifier designs
voltages are named U instead of V

Basics of grid tube

- From diode to tetrode amplifier

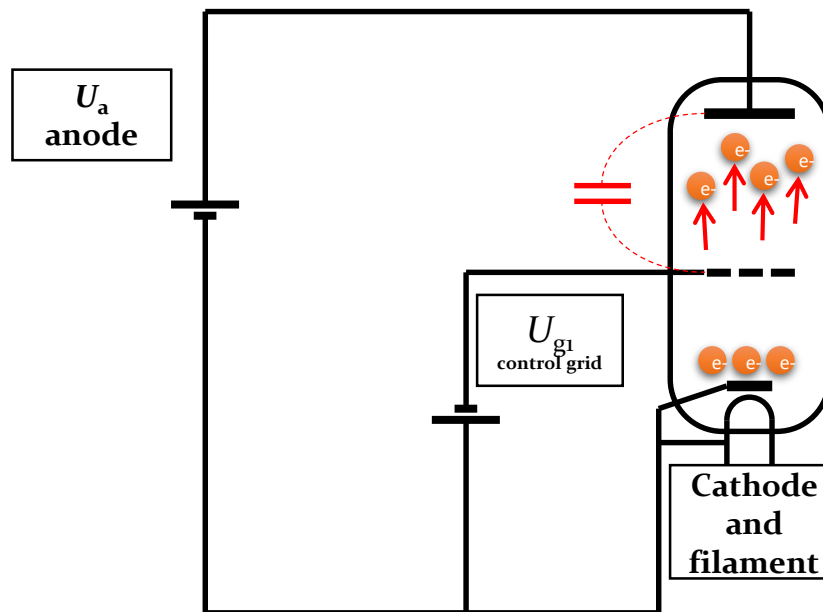


- Vacuum tube
- Heater + Cathode
 - Heated cathode
 - Coated metal, carbides, borides,...
- thermionic emission
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- Anode

→ Diode

Basics of grid tube

- From diode to tetrode amplifier

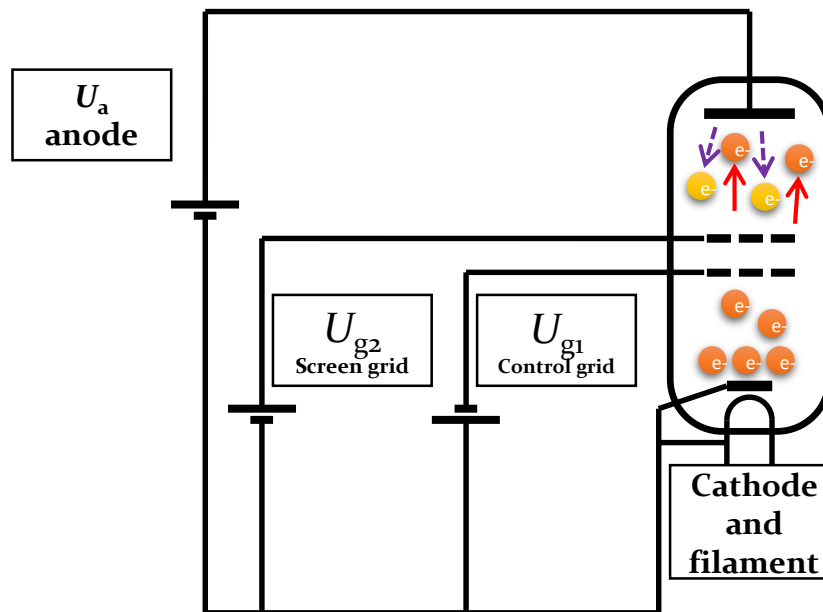


→ Triode

- Modulating the grid voltage proportionally modulates the anode current
- Transconductance
 - Voltage at grid
 - Current at anode
- Limitations
 - Parasitic capacitor from anode to control grid (g_1)
 - Tendency to oscillate

Basics of grid tube

- From diode to tetrode amplifier



→Tetrode

- Screen grid
 - Positive (lower anode)
 - Decouple anode and g_1
 - Higher gain
- Limitations
 - Secondary electrons
 - Anode treated to reduce secondary emission

Example: Tetrode amplifier driving SPS RF 43

- Two transmitters, 2×1 MW at 200 MHz (almost continuous)
- Eight tetrodes per amplifier

RS2004 tetrode



Amplifier trolley



Complete transmitter

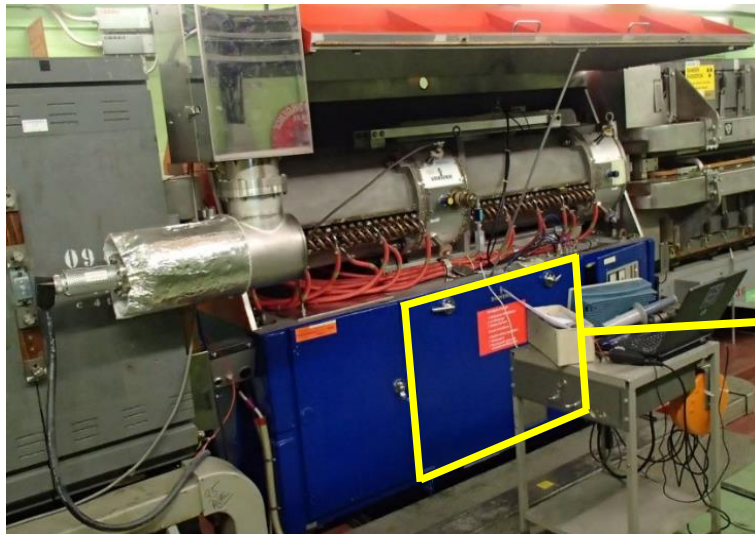


→ In operation since 1976

Tetrode amplifier driving PS RF

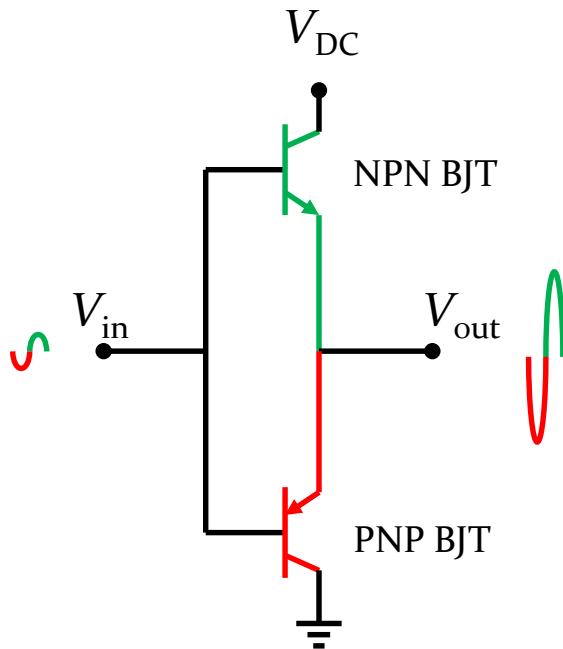
- Frequency range 2.8...10 MHz, ~60 kW per cavity, 11 units
- **Space constraints to have amplifier installed below cavity**

Amplifier trolley



- **Tetrode is obvious choice**
 - High power in small volume
 - Operates in radioactive environment

Basics of RF solid state amplifiers

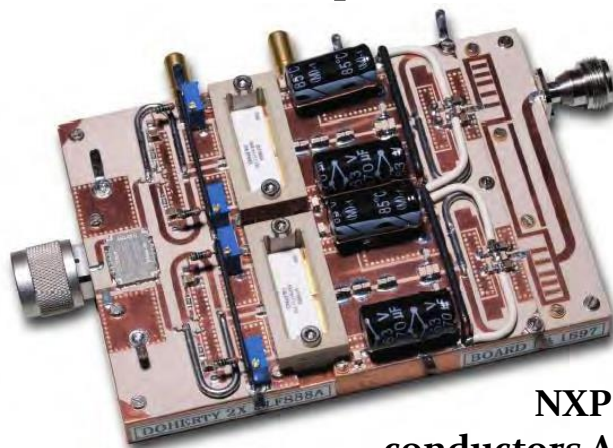
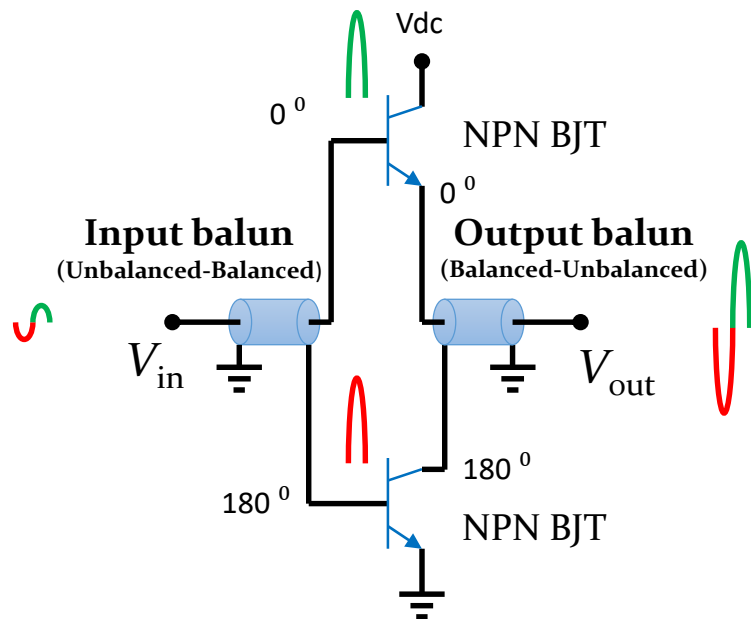


BJT: Bipolar Junction Transistor

- In a **push-pull** circuit the RF signal is applied to **two devices**
 - One of the devices is active on the positive voltage swing and off during the negative voltage swing
 - The other device works in the opposite manner so that the two devices conduct half the time
- The full RF signal is then amplified

→ Needs two different type of devices

Basics of RF solid state amplifiers

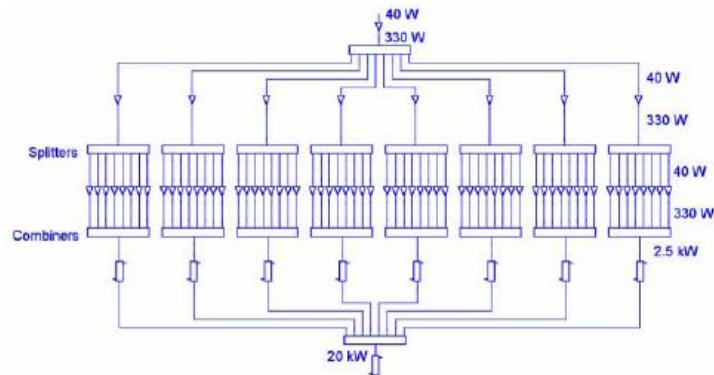


NXP Semi-
conductors AN11325
2-way Doherty amplifier with BLF888A

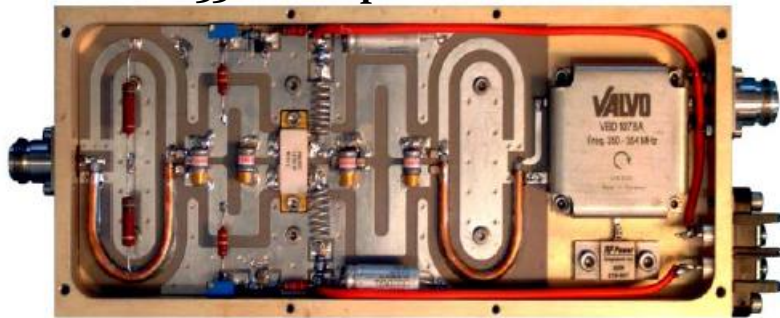
- Another **push-pull configuration** is to use a balun (balanced-unbalanced)
 - Power splitter, equally dividing the input power between the two transistors
 - Balun keeps one port in phase and inverts the second port in phase
 - Since the signals are out of phase only one device is On at a time
- This configuration is easier to manufacture since only one type of device is required

Example: Soleil 45 kW, 352 MHz

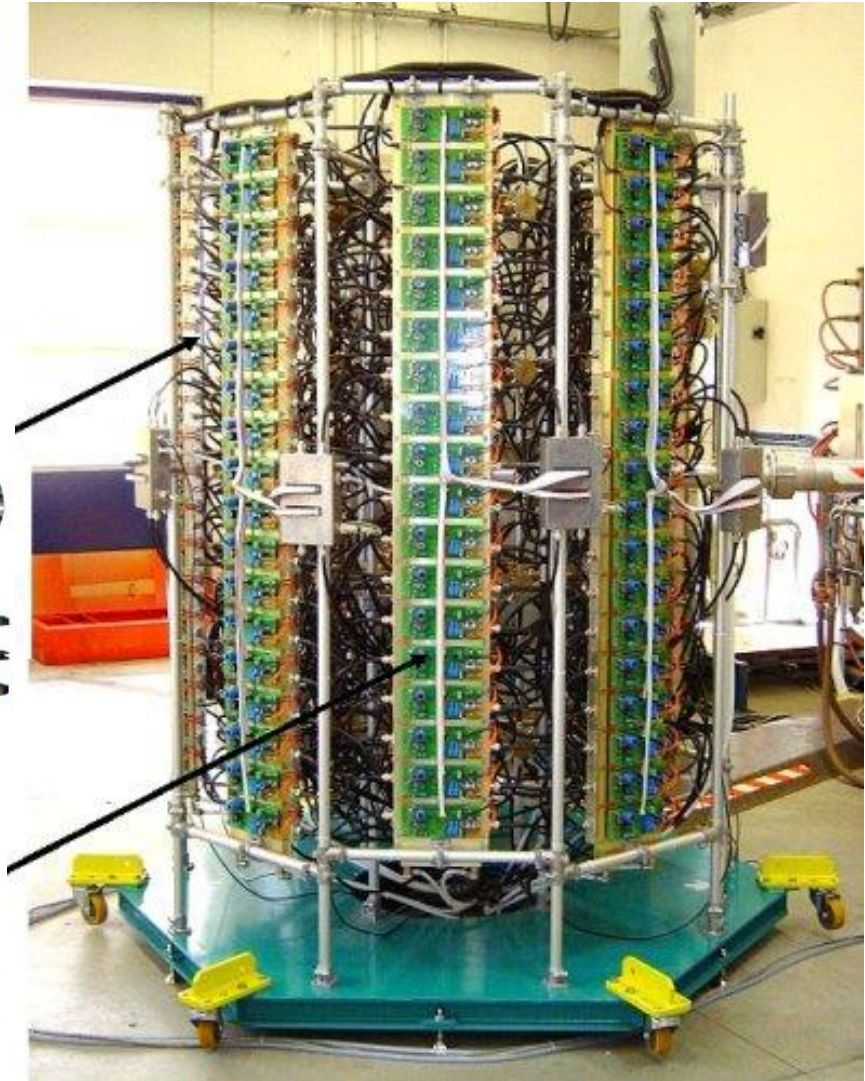
Electron storage ring running at 352 MHz



330 W amplifier module

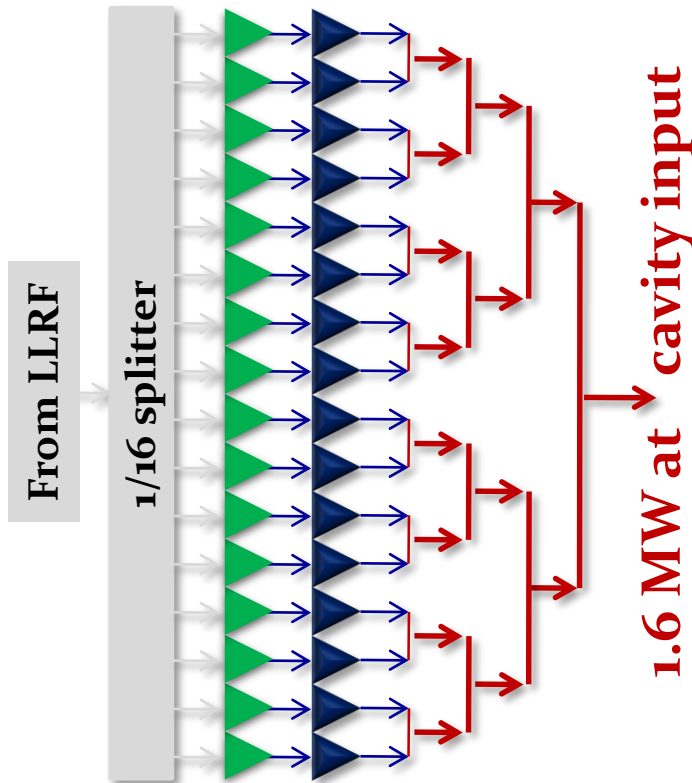


600 W, 300 V_{DC}/30 V_{DC} converter



Example: SPS

200 MHz solid state amplifiers: 2×1.6 MW peak power,
 2×16 towers per amplifier



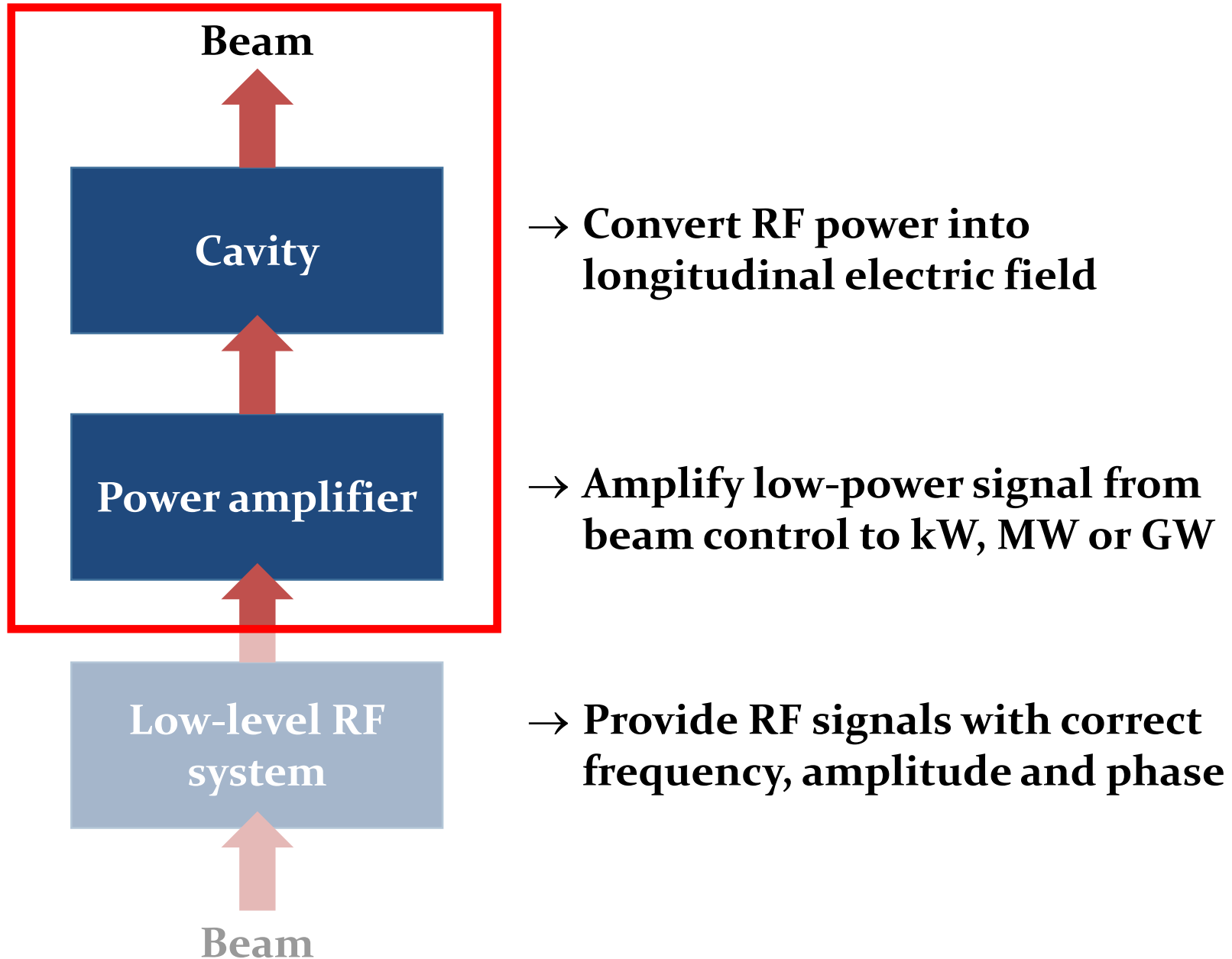
- 80 modules per tower, 1280 modules with **5120 transistors per amplifier**
- Presently the **largest RF installation** in a particle accelerator

How to choose the right RF amplifier?

Prefer tube amplifier, when	Prefer solid-state amplifier, when
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Amplifier must be installed in the accelerator tunnel • Expecting important spikes from beam induced voltage • Large output power of a single device is required, without combiners • Not much space is available • High peak power in pulsed mode • Amplifier must be compact and/or close to cavity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Amplifier can be located in non-radioactive environment • Circulator can be installed to protect the amplifier • Delay due to unavoidable combiner stages is little issue • Sufficient space can be made available • Continuous operation • Amplifier can be separate from the cavity

→ Mostly no hard criteria → decide on case by case basis

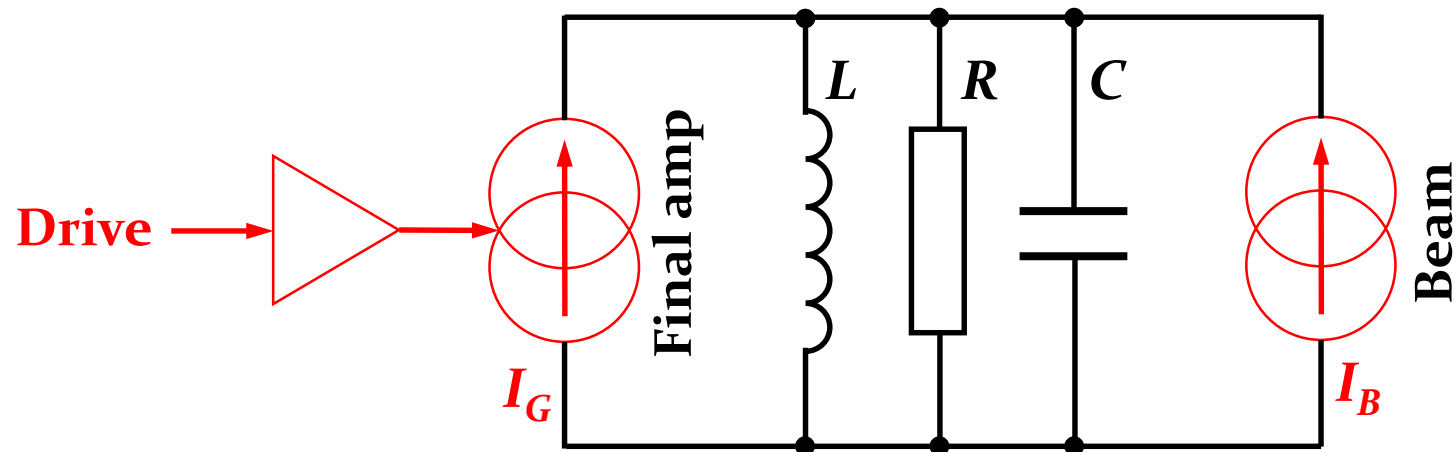
RF system overview




Local feedback

Reduction of cavity impedance

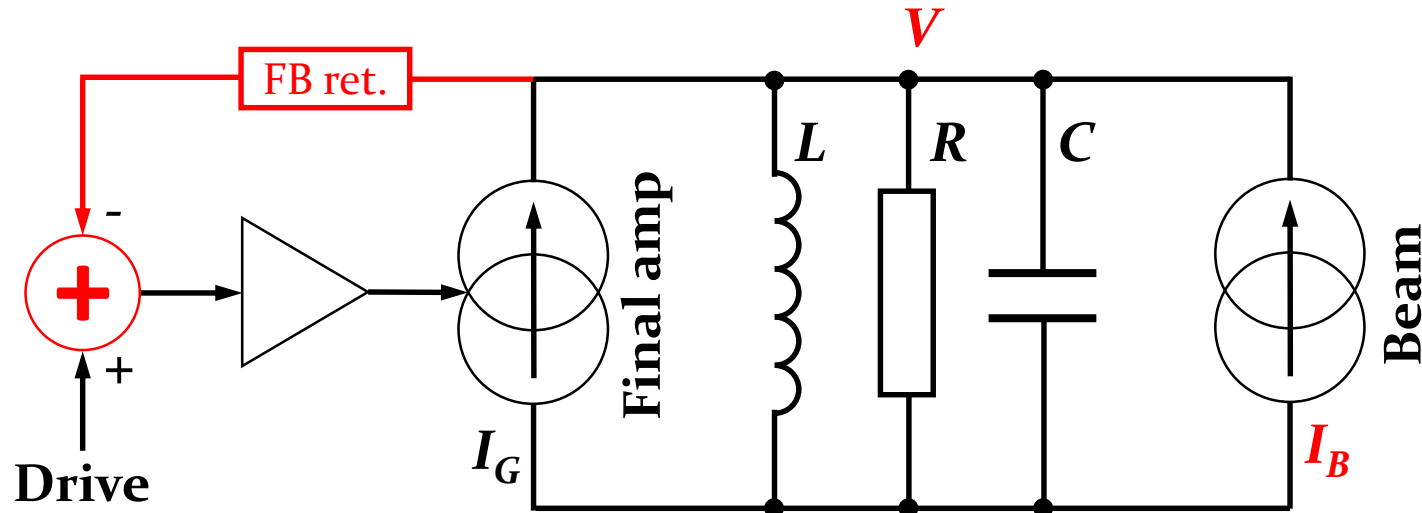
- Energy transfer from cavity to beam, but **from beam to cavity**
 → Both, RF generator and **beam can induced voltage** in cavity



1. Reduce beam induced voltage by reducing R , **but not efficient**
 → Obviously needs more power → 
2. Feedback to decrease the apparent impedance for the beam
 → Use amplifier to counteract beam induced voltage

Reduction of cavity impedance

- Energy transfer from cavity to beam, but **from beam to cavity**
 → Both, RF generator and **beam can induced voltage** in cavity

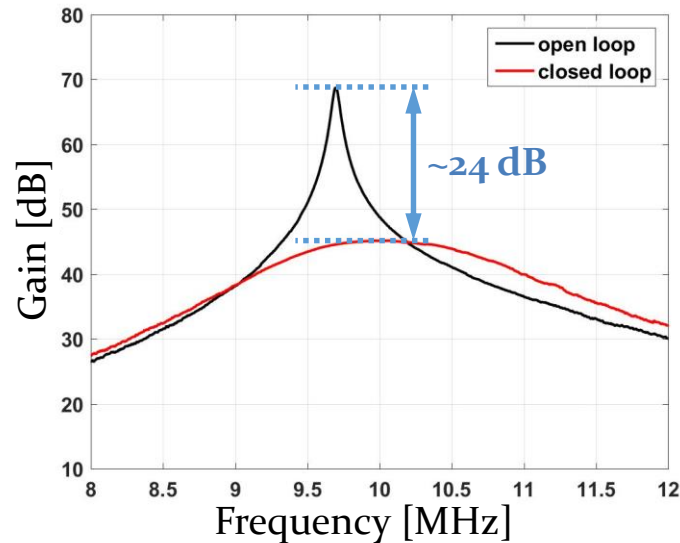


1. **Compare** drive signal (no beam) with gap (beam and generator)
2. **Amplify** inverted difference

$$Z_{\text{eq}}(\omega) = \frac{dV}{dI_B} = \frac{Z(\omega)}{1 + g_{\text{OL}}}$$

Example: 10 MHz RF system in CERN PS

Transfer function with and without feedback



- Feedback gain of 24 dB
- Equivalent impedance, $Z_{eq}(\omega)$ reduced
- Impedance for amplifier remains unchanged, $Z(\omega)$



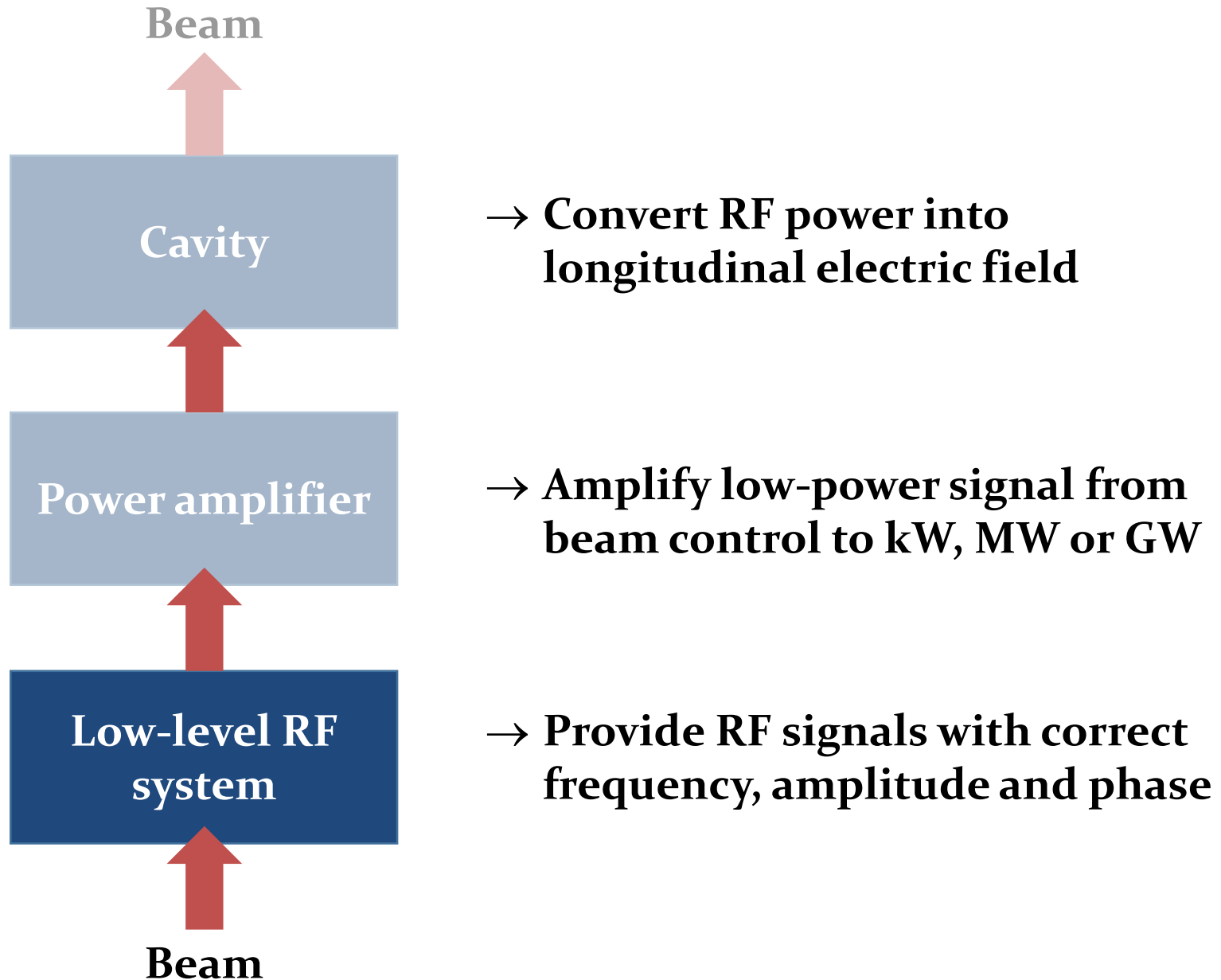
Why not further reduction with more gain?

- Subtraction of gap voltage and drive signal imperfect due to
 1. Delay of cables and amplifier
 2. Resonances

Bandwidth \uparrow \leftrightarrow Achievable gain \downarrow

→ Additional **narrow-band** filter feedback at $n \cdot f_{rev}$

RF system overview

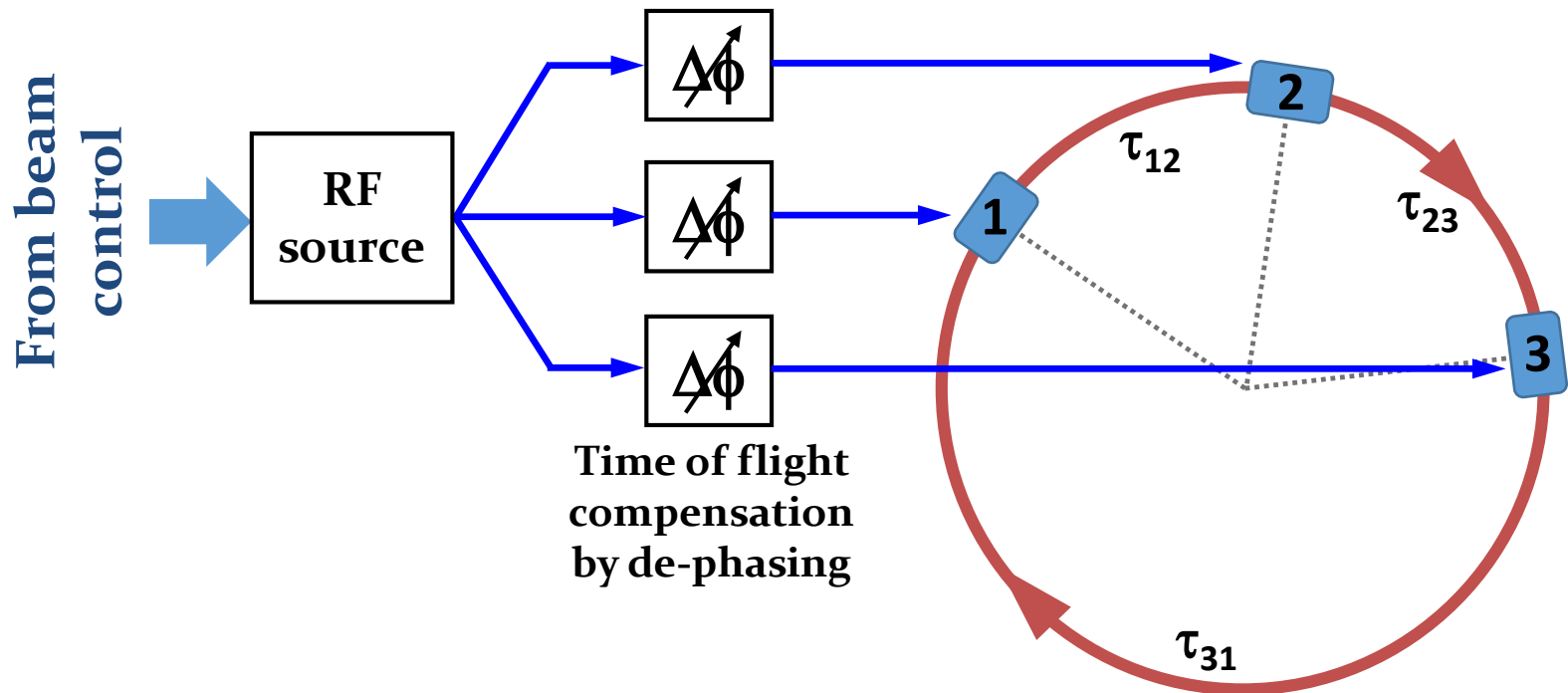


Global feedbacks

Low-level RF beam control

Longitudinal beam control

- **Local** feedbacks → Act on individual RF stations
- **Global** feedbacks → Act on all RF stations simultaneously

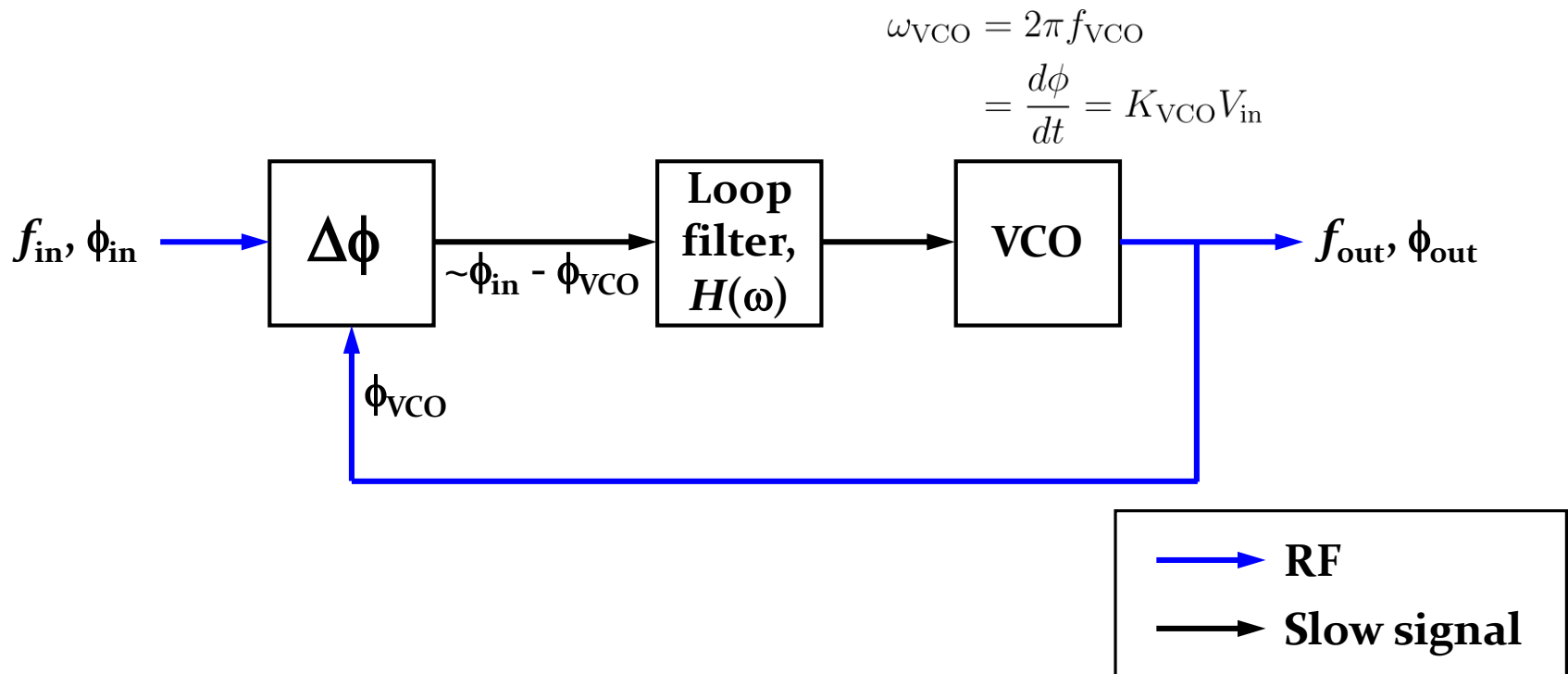


- RF distribution to compensate time of flight between stations
- Beam control drives all stations **like a single one**

Fast bunch tracking: Beam phase loop

Electronic phase-locked loop

- Frequency re-generation and multiplication
- Voltage controlled oscillator (VCO) locked in phase to input



→ Fixed phase relationship:

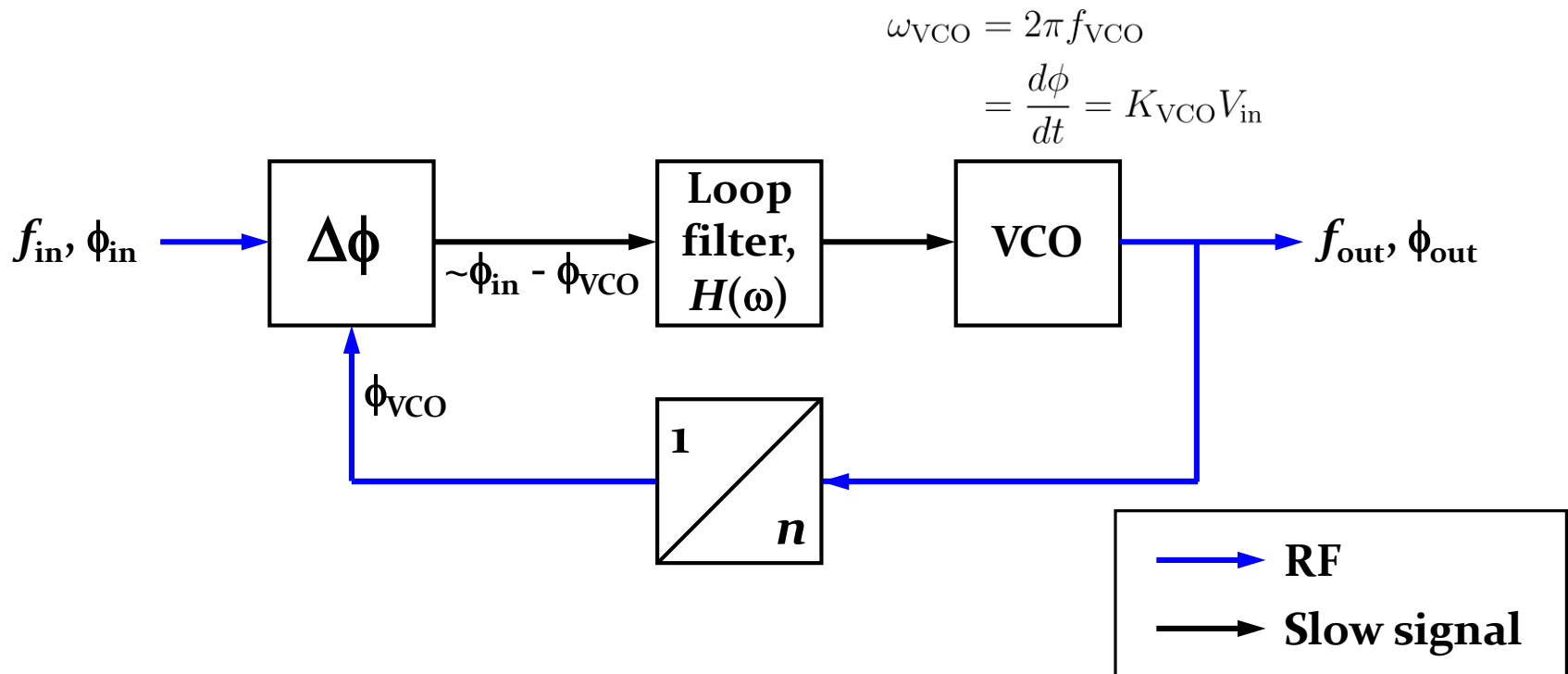
$$\phi_{out} - \phi_{in} = \text{const.}$$

→ Locked frequencies:

$$f_{out} = f_{in}$$

Electronic phase-locked loop

- Lock two signals: frequency re-generation and multiplication
- Voltage controlled oscillator (VCO) locked in phase to input



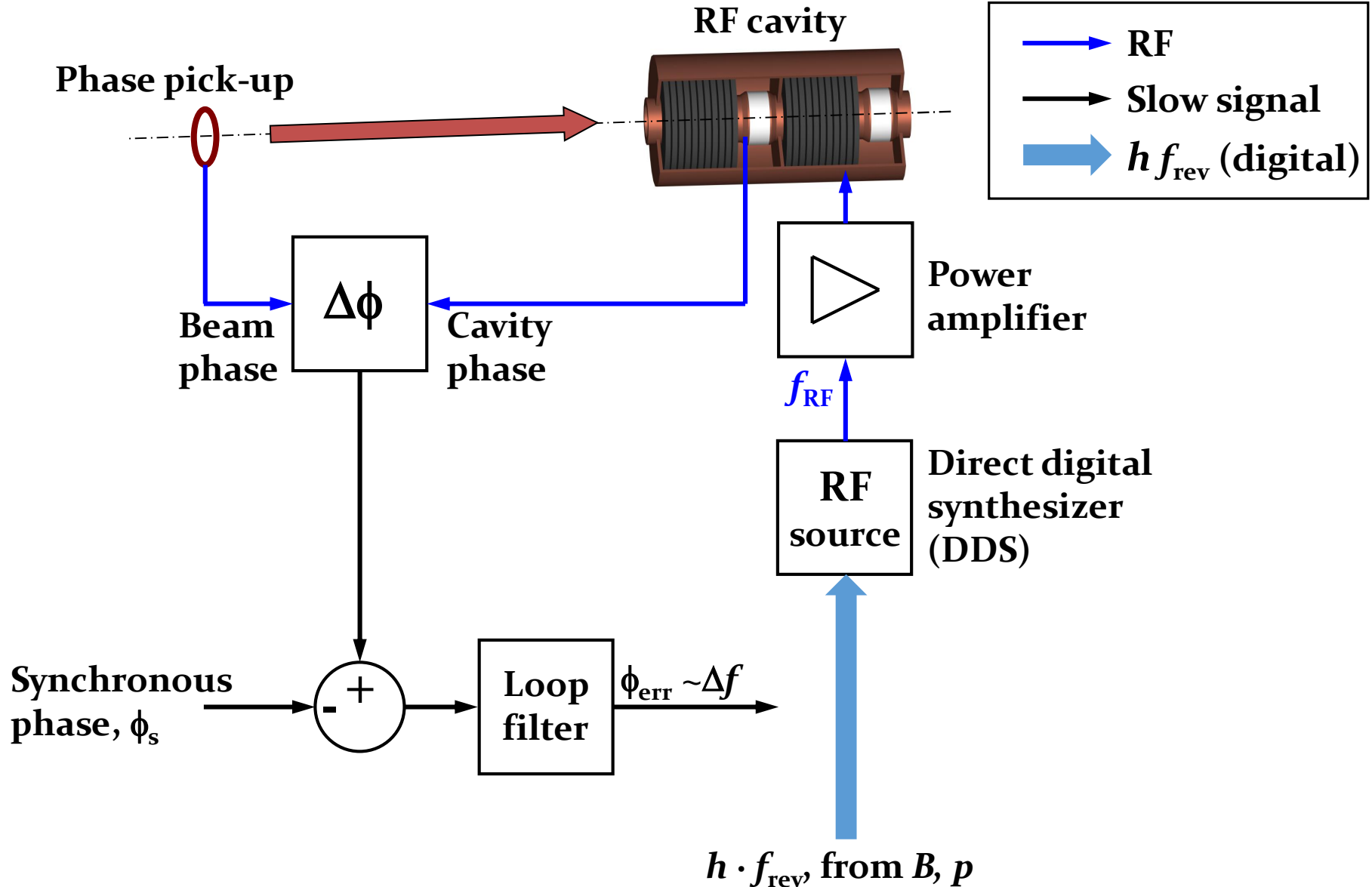
→ Fixed phase relationship:

$$\phi_{out}/n - \phi_{in} = \text{const.}$$

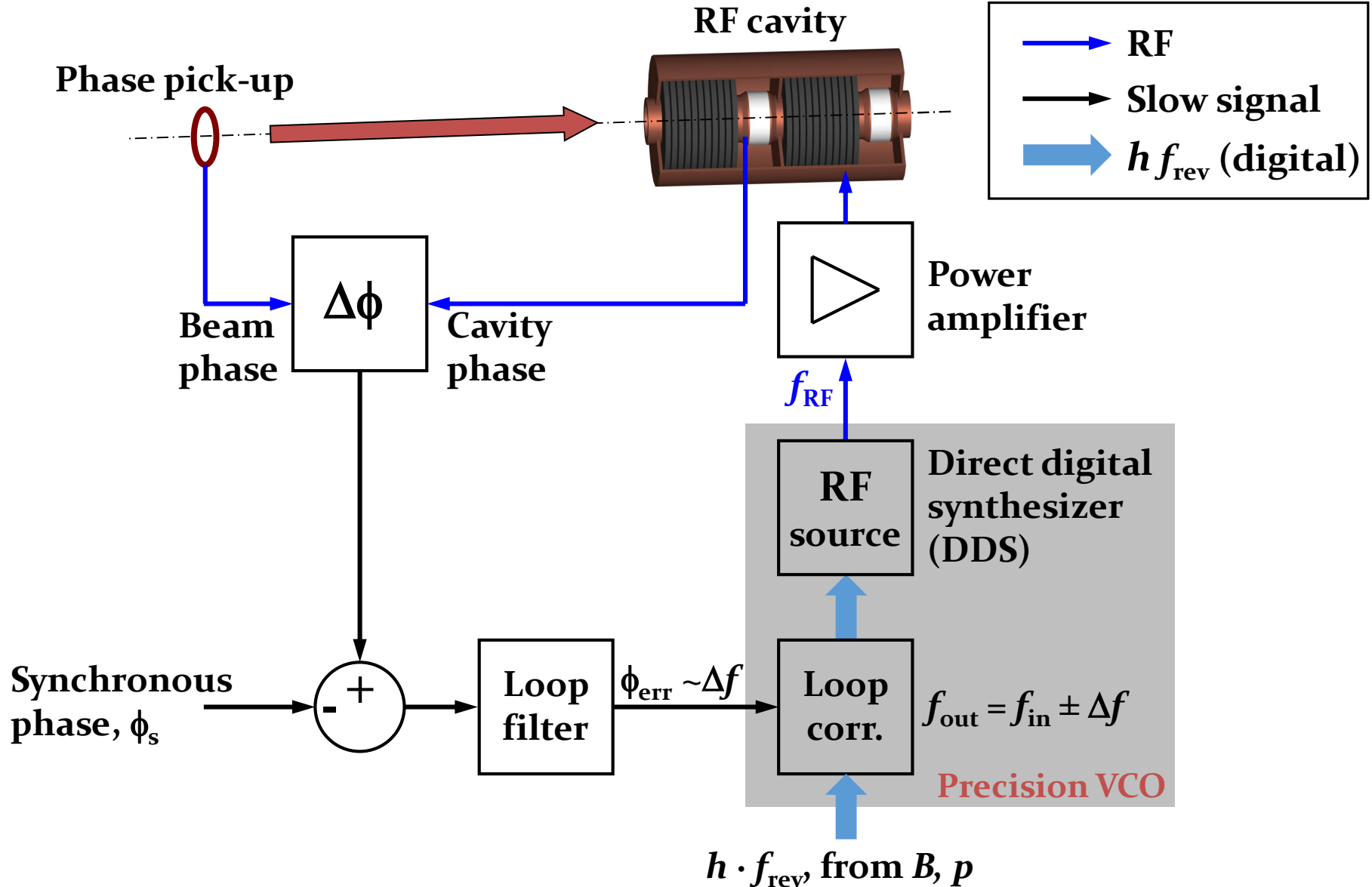
→ Optional divider:

$$f_{out} = n \cdot f_{in}$$

Beam phase loop

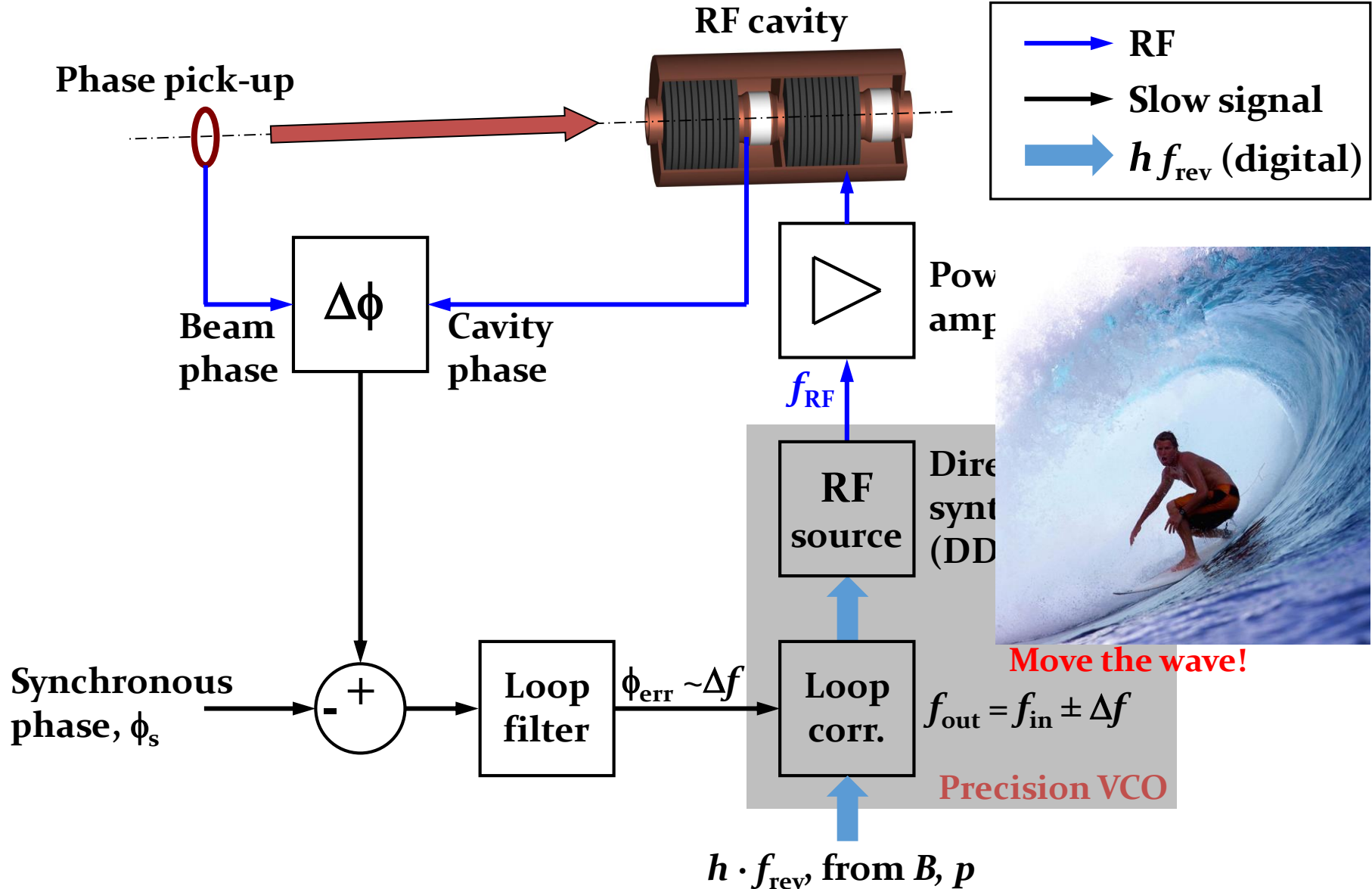


Beam phase loop



→ Phase-locked loop with beam **phase** as reference for RF system

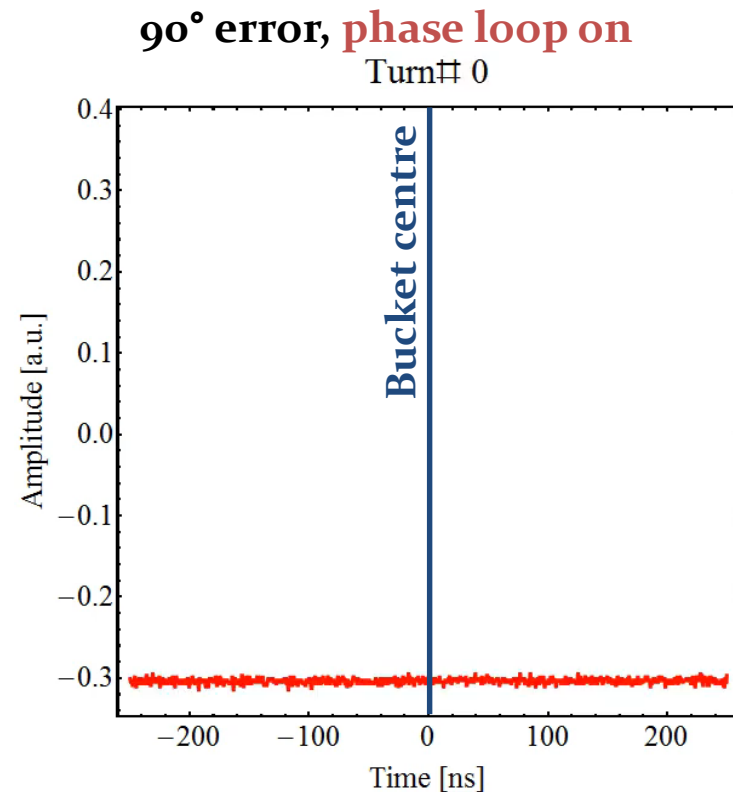
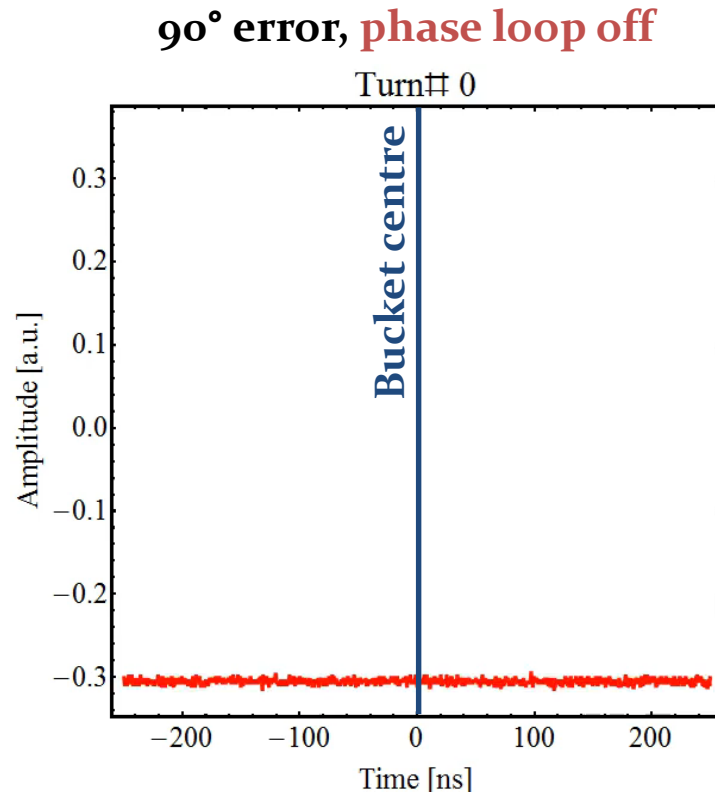
Beam phase loop



→ Fast control of RF frequency to cavities, **but no slow corrections**

Effect of beam phase loop at injection

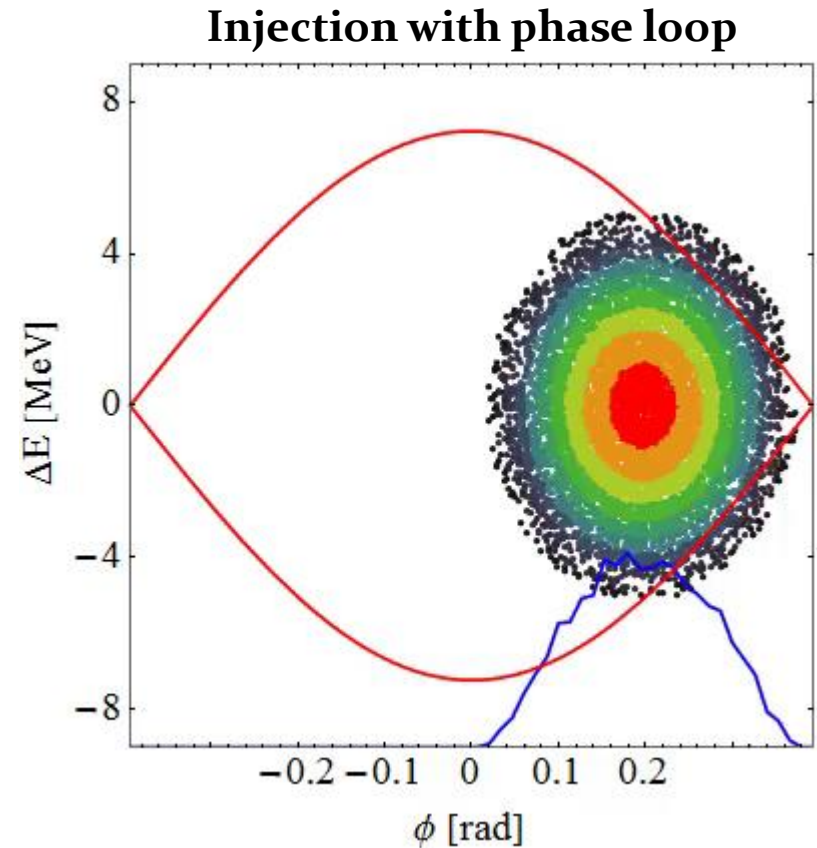
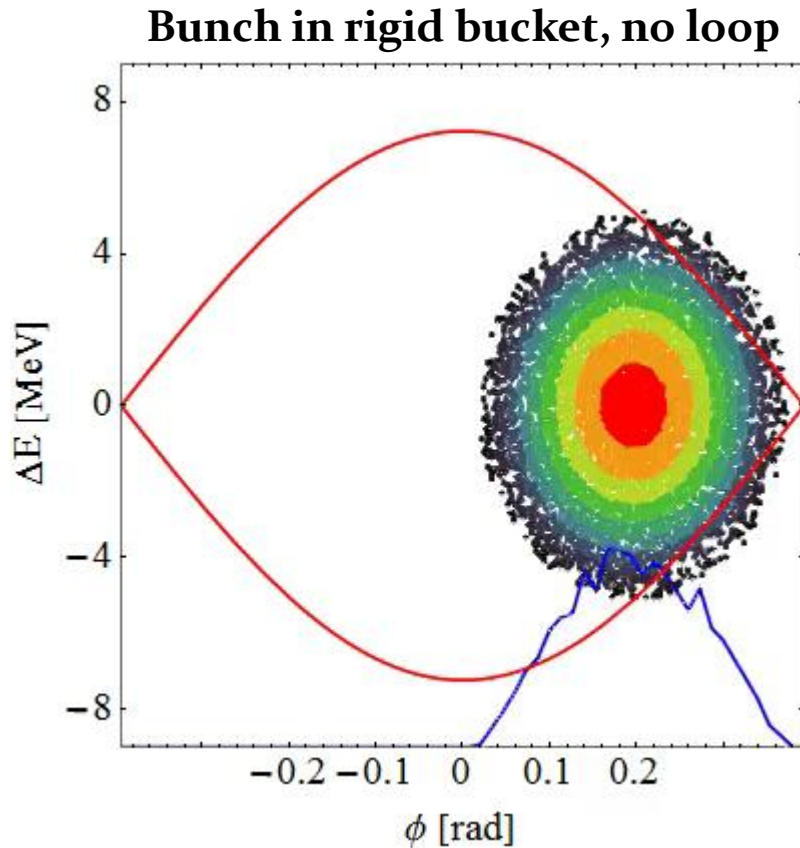
- **Example: Injection of a bunch from PS Booster into PS**



- **Essential in hadron accelerators** to keep RF locked to beam
- **How does this look like in longitudinal phase space?**

Effect of beam phase loop at injection

→ Essential in hadron accelerators to keep RF locked to beam



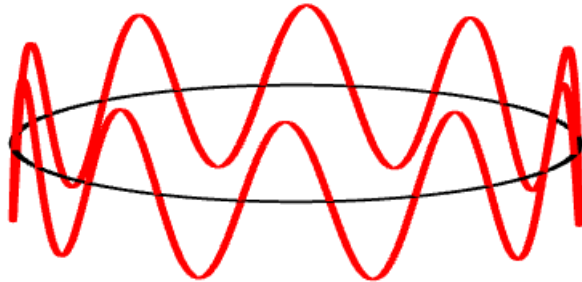
- Even large transients (injection, transition) are controlled
- Only minor longitudinal perturbation

Slow RF frequency control: Radial loop

Radial loop

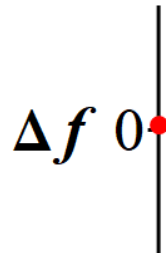
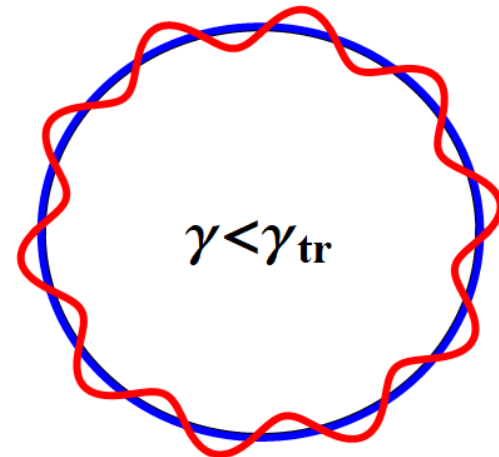
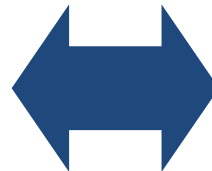
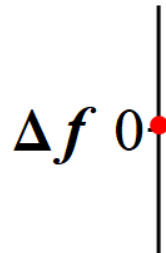
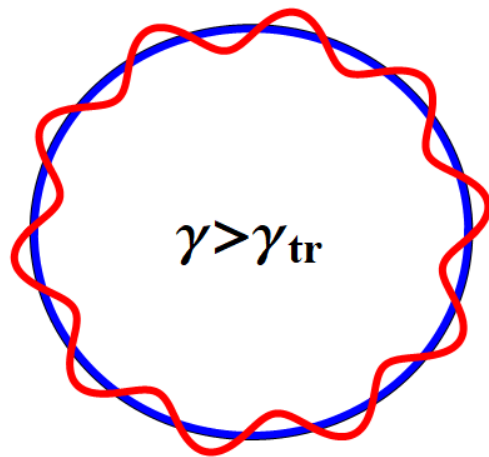
→ Slow correction of **average** RF frequency

Beam path length: $h \cdot \lambda_{\text{RF}} \cdot \beta$

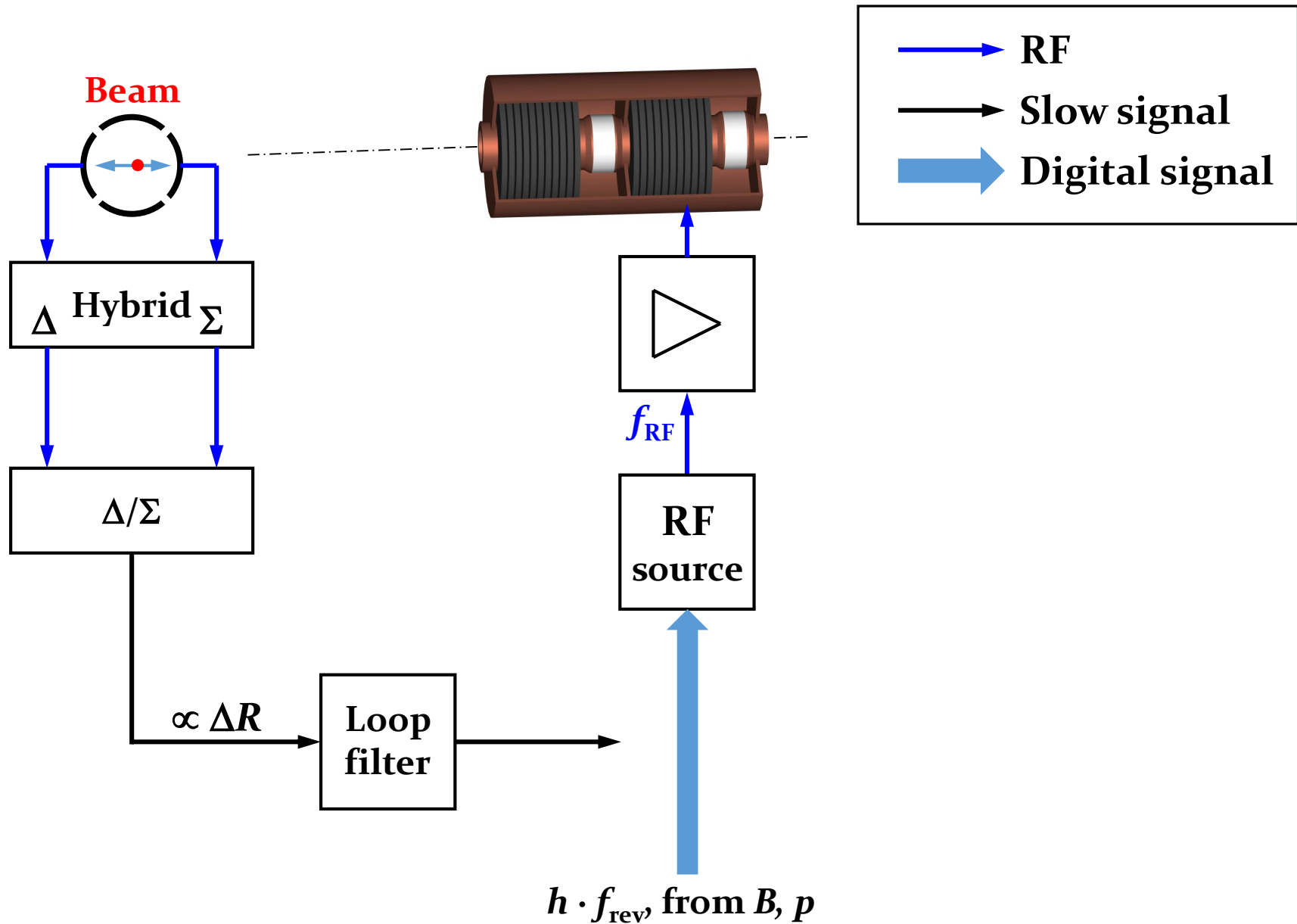


Above transition energy: $\beta \approx 1$

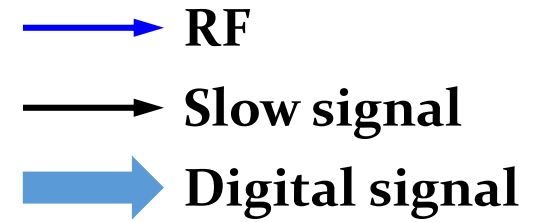
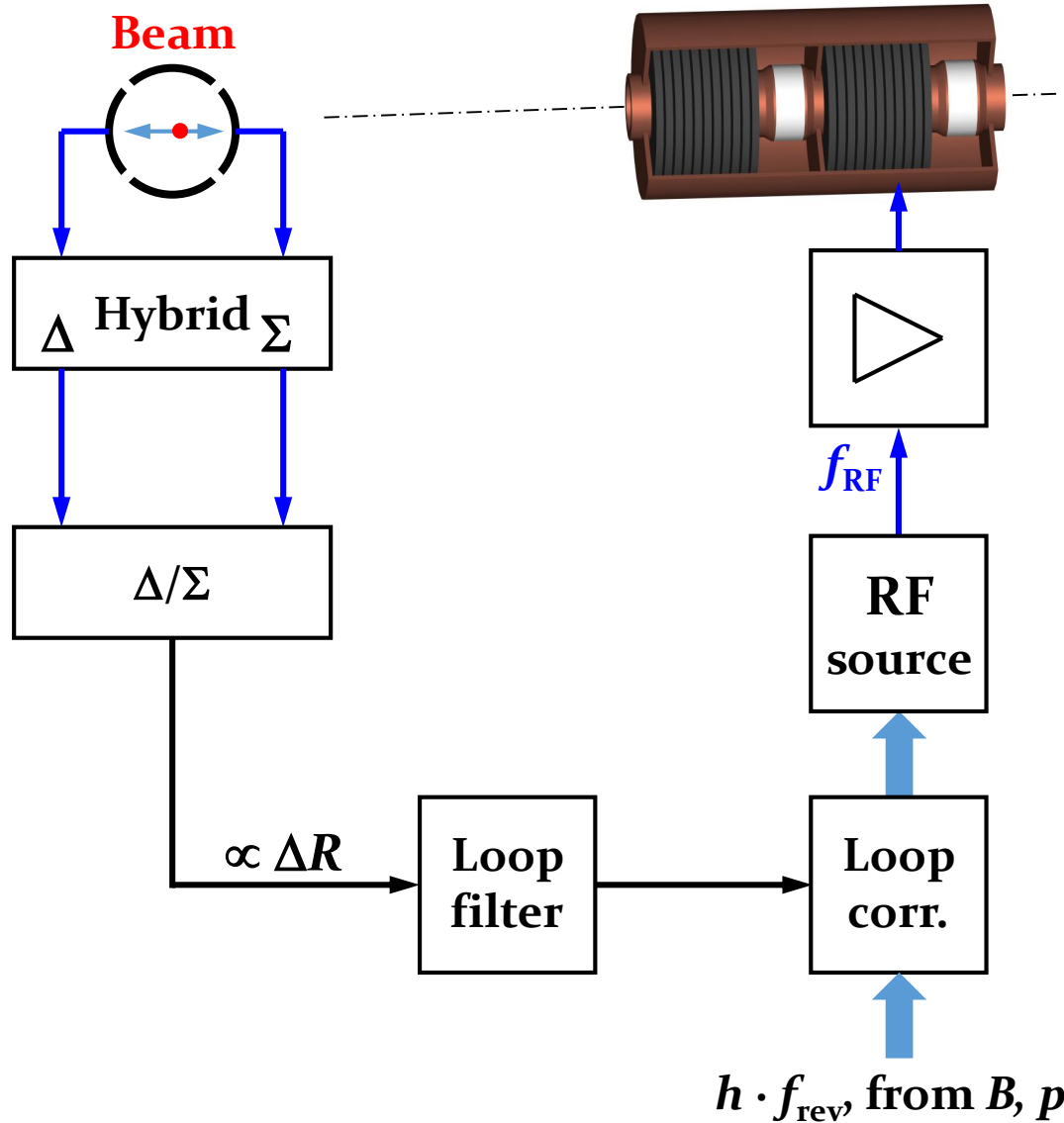
Below transition energy:
 β variable



Radial loop



Radial loop



→ Slow correction of average RF frequency

Radial loop at transition

- Slow correction of RF frequency to keep beam centred

Why needed at all with arbitrary precision synthesizers driving the RF system?

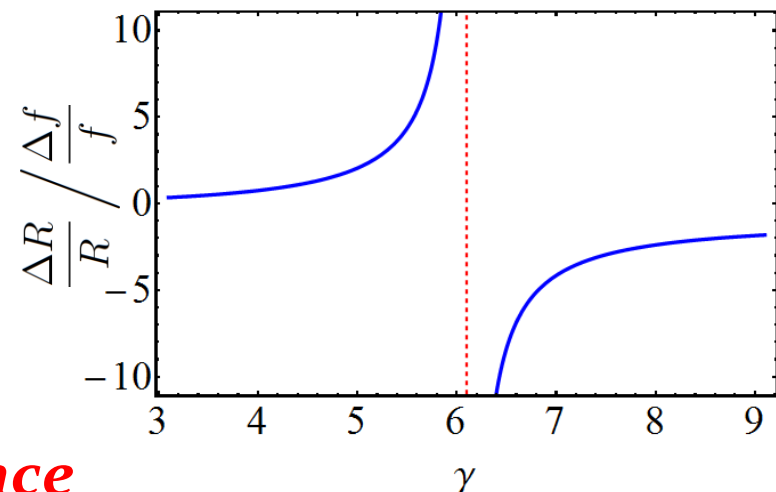
→ At transition energy

- Longer path of higher energy particle compensated by higher velocity
- No revolution frequency change for energy offset

$$\frac{\Delta R}{R} = \frac{\gamma^2}{\gamma_{tr}^2 - \gamma^2} \frac{\Delta f}{f}$$

→ Beam-based frequency correction essential

→ Take beam as *the reference*



Summary

- RF system parameters
 - Choose frequency and voltage wisely
 - Parameters of RF cavities
 - R , R/Q
 - No 'one-size fits' all
 - Power amplifier
 - Tube or solid-state based
 - Local feedback
 - Beam control as global feedback
 - Beam phase and radial loops
- The beam is *the reference* - make it feel comfortable!

**Thank you very much
for your attention!**

A big Thank You

to all colleagues providing support, material and feedback

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Some standard frequencies

If exact RF frequency not critical, choose standard value

Accelerator	Frequency
Hadron synchrotrons (PSB, PS, JPARC RCS, MR)	<10 MHz
Hadron accelerators and storage rings (RHIC, SPS)	~200 MHz
Electron storage rings (LEP, ESRF, Soleil)	352 MHz
Electron storage rings (DORIS, BESSY, SLS,...)	499.6...499.8 MHz
Superconducting electron linacs and FELs (X-FEL, ILC)	1300 MHz
Normal conducting electron linacs (SLAC)	2856 MHz
High-gradient electron linac (CLIC)	11.99 GHz

- **Off-the-shelf RF components easily available** in frequency ranges used by industry
- **Exchange of developments and equipment amongst research laboratories**

RF power amplifier

Power capability of commercially available amplifier types

