RF Systems I



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CERN



Introduction to Accelerator Physics

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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 feedbacks
- Longitudinal beam control system
 - Building blocks: RF source and receiver
 - Phase, radial and synchronization 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
 - \rightarrow On top of the RF system food chain
 - \rightarrow Interacts directly with beam
- \rightarrow What is below?
- → How are RF signals generated which make the beam feel comfortable?



Frequency and wavelength ranges



Amplitude ranges



Particle velocity





Old television set (30 kV):



 \rightarrow Most electron accelerators at 'fixed' frequency



Parameter choices

RF system for high-energy accelerators



Choice of frequency (range)

Why choose a low RF frequency?

Advantages	Disadvantages
 Large beam aperture Long RF buckets, large acceptance Wide-band or wide range tunable cavities possible Power amplification and transmission straightforward 	 Bulky cavities, size scales < 1/f, volume < 1/f³ Lossy material to downsize cavities Moderate or low acceleration gradient Short particle bunches difficult to generate
RF frequencies below \rightarrow \rightarrow \rightarrow \rightarrow	Some hadron linear accelerators Cyclotrons

→ Low- and medium energy hadron synchrotrons

Why choose a high RF frequency?

Advantages	Disadvantages
 Cavity size scales \$\alpha\$ 1/f, volume \$\alpha\$ 1/f³ 	 Maximum beam available aperture scales ∝ 1/f
• Break down voltage increases	• No technology for wide-band or tunable cavities
• High gradient per length	• Power amplifiers more difficult
• Particle bunches are short	• Power transmission losses
RF frequencies above ~200 MHz used for	Linear accelerators Electron storage rings High energy hadron storage rings

Limits to maximum gradient

• Surface electric field in vacuum



 \rightarrow High frequencies preferred for large gradient

E. Jensen

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,)	499.6499.8 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 voltage

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

$$qV > \Delta E \rightarrow qV \sin(\phi_{\rm S}) = \Delta E$$

- → 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°
 - Electron storage rings: ~ 20°

Minimum voltage requirement (circular)

17

The RF system must compensate

1. Energy gain per turn due to changing magnetic field

$$F_Z = F_L \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{p}{q} = \rho B \quad \rightarrow \quad \dot{p} = q\rho \dot{B}$$
$$\dot{p} = \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta t} = \frac{m_0 c^2 \beta}{2\pi R} (\beta \Delta \gamma + \gamma \Delta \beta) = \frac{\Delta E_{\text{turn}}}{2\pi R}$$

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

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

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

$$E^4 [C_0 V]^4 \qquad E^4 [C_0 V]^4$$

$$\Delta E_{\text{turn}}[\text{keV}] = 88.5 \cdot \frac{E^4 [\text{GeV}]^4}{\rho[\text{m}]} \quad \Delta P_{\text{loss}}[\text{kW}] = 88.5 \cdot \frac{E^4 [\text{GeV}]^4}{\rho[\text{m}]} \cdot I_{\text{B}}[\text{A}]$$
$$\rightarrow (m_{\text{p}}/m_{\text{e}})^4 = 1836^4 \sim 1.1 \cdot 10^{13} \text{ times less for protons}$$

RF system overview



→ Convert RF power into longitudinal electric field

→ Amplify low-power signal from beam control to kW, MW or GW

→ Provide RF signals with correct frequency, amplitude and phase

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RF cavity

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



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

- Most common choice by cavity designers ω_0 , R, R/Q why?
- **Resonance frequency**, ω_o

 \rightarrow 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*
 - \rightarrow Defined only by the cavity geometry
 - \rightarrow Criterion to optimize a geometry
 - \rightarrow Detuning with beam proportional to R/Q

Why R/Q?

→ Charged particle experiences cavity gap as capacitor



 \rightarrow 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
- \rightarrow Line resonators: $\lambda/4$ resonator



- → Short circuit on one side
 - Open end on other

 \rightarrow

- \rightarrow Voltage is zero
- \rightarrow 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



 \rightarrow Still rather long geometry, 7.5 m at 10 MHz



Capacitive loading

\rightarrow Add capacitor at gap of cavity to shorten the resonator

NSLS, 52.88 MHz



ACOL, 9.53 MHZ



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

Outer cond.



Inductive loading

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

CERN PSB Finemet cav., o.6-18 MHz

Paoluzzi

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

Tunable cavities at higher frequencies

→ **Remove inductive or capacitive loading**



FNAL Booster 2nd harmonic, 76 MHz – 106 MHz, 100 kV



\rightarrow Upper frequency limit for cavities with large tuning range

Further increase frequency

→ Remove inner conductor from coaxial set-up



→ The resonator becomes a pill-box cavity



 \rightarrow 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





 \rightarrow 2×8 cavities, 5.3 MV/m



RF cavities in linear accelerators

- Beam only passes once → Maximize gradient
- Many accelerating cells to best reuse RF voltage

SuperHILAC, ~70 MHz, Berkley





- → Cavity is the contrary to 'one size fits all'
- \rightarrow Many, many more variants

Coupling power into a cavity

Coupling power into a cavity

• Attack inductivity or capacitance of resonator, or combined



→ Coupling loop forms transformer with resonator inductivity



 Main coupler PSI cyclotron
 → ~1 MW at 50 MHz
Coupling power into a cavity

• Attack inductivity or capacitance of resonator, or combined



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

Coupling power into a cavity

• Attack inductivity or capacitance of resonator, or combined



- → Combined electromagnetic coupling
- \rightarrow Antenna radiating into cavity



Capacitive or combined coupling

• Some examples of capacitive and antenna couplers

Capacitive coupler of CERN PS 40 MHz



→ Coupler forms one half of capacitor with the gap

Antenna coupler of LHC cavities



→ Coupler antenna transmits directly into the cavity

RF system overview



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Power amplifiers

How much power is required?



Power amplifiers

• Basically

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

- The ideal power amplifier
 - → Large bandwidth: amplifies all frequencies equally
 - \rightarrow No saturation, infinite power
 - \rightarrow Zero delay
 - \rightarrow No added noise
 - \rightarrow Unconditionally stable and resistant to reverse power
 - \rightarrow Radiation-hard
- → Unfortunately such a device has not been invented yet
- \rightarrow Let us have a look at some real amplifiers

• 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

• From diode to tetrode amplifier



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

→Diode

• From diode to tetrode amplifier



→Triode

- Modulating the grid voltage proportionally modulates the anode current
- Transconductance
 - Voltage at grid
 - \rightarrow Current at anode
- Limitations
 - Parasitic capacitor from anode to control grid (g1)
 - Tendency to oscillate

• From diode to tetrode amplifier



→Tetrode

- Screen grid
 - Positive (lower anode)
 - Decouple anode and g1
 - Higher gain
- Limitations
 - Secondary electrons
 - Anode treated to reduce secondary emission

Tetrode based power amplifier

• Example of SPS 200 MHz amplifier, tetrode RS2004



 \rightarrow Very simplified block diagram

Example: Tetrode amplifier driving SPS RF

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

RS2004 tetrode



Amplifier trolley



Complete transmitter



 \rightarrow 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



- \rightarrow Tetrode is obvious choice
 - → High power in small volume
 - → Operates in radioactive environment

Basics of linear beam tube

• Klystron: a complete mini-accelerator



- Klystrons velocity modulation
 - Converts the kinetic energy into RF power
- Vacuum tube
- Electron gun
 - Thermionic cathode
 - Anode
- Electron beam
- Drift space
- Collector
- e- constant speed until the collector

50

Basics of linear beam tube

• Klystron: a complete mini-accelerator



- Cavity resonators and drift
- RF input cavity (Buncher)
 - → Modulates electron velocity
- Drift space
 - → Faster electrons catch up
 - → Slower electrons fall behind
- RF output cavity (Catcher)
 - Resonating atsame frequency as input cavity
 - At place where electrons are maximally bunched
 - Kinetic energy converted into voltage and extracted

Basics of linear beam tube

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Example: Klystrons driving accelerators

- 2 × 8 cavities, each driven by separate 400 MHz klystron, 330 kW
- $\rightarrow\,$ First klystron amplifiers powering a hadron collider





- 12 GHz pulsed klystron for CLIC
- \rightarrow 50 MW in 1.5 μ s



- Significantly more power was required to feed LEP (until 2000)
- → About 50 MW CW was installed at 352 MHz



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



- 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





Example: Soleil 45 kW, 352 MHz

Large scale solid state amplifier installations

45 kW per tower (2004 and 2007)

150 kW per tower (2012)







→ Requires a series of power combiners to moderate power per amplifier module to several tens of kilowatts

Example: BESSY II

500 MHz solid state amplifiers:4 × 80 kW for storage ring,40 kW for booster synchrotron



Amplifier modules

80 kW unit

Combiner

- \rightarrow Power per module limited by RF transistors
- \rightarrow Increasing with modern semiconductor devices

RF power amplifier

Power capability of commercially available amplifier types



E. Jensen

How to choose the right RF amplifier?

Prefer tube amplifier, when	Prefer solid-state amplifier, when
• Amplifier must be installed in the accelerator tunnel	• Amplifier can be located in non- radioactive environment
• Expecting important spikes from beam induced voltage	• Circulator can be installed to protect the amplifier
• Large output power of a single device is required, without combiners	• Delay due to unavoidable combiner stages is little issue
• Not much space is available	• Sufficient space can be made available
• High peak power in pulsed mode	• Continuous operation
• Amplifier must be compact and/or close to cavity	• Amplifier can be separate from the cavity

 \rightarrow Mostly no hard criteria \rightarrow decide on case by case basis

Summary

- RF system parameters
 → Choose frequency and voltage wisely
- Parameters of RF cavities
 - $\rightarrow R, R/Q$ \rightarrow No 'one-size fits' all
- Power amplifier
 - → Ideal amplifier does not (yet) exist
 → Tube or solid-state based
- Feedbacks and longitudinal beam control
 → Make the beam feel comfortable in bucket
 → Beam phase, radial and synchronization loops

RF Systems II



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17 September 2019

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- Choice of parameters
 - Frequency and voltage
- **RF cavity parameters**
 - Shunt impedance, beam loading, power coupling
- Power amplifiers
 - Tube or solid state
 - Local feedbacks
- Longitudinal beam control system
 - Building blocks: RF source and receiver
 - Phase, radial and synchronization loops

• Summary

RF system overview



→ Convert RF power into longitudinal electric field

→ Amplify low-power signal from beam control to kW, MW or GW

→ Provide RF signals with correct frequency, amplitude and phase

Local feedbacks

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

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

Example: 10 MHz RF system in CERN PS



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

Why not further reduction with more gain?

- Subtraction of gap voltage and drive signal imperfect due to
 - 1. Delay of cables and amplifier
 - 2. Parasitic resonances of amplifier and cavity system

Bandwidth $\uparrow \leftrightarrow$ Achievable gain \downarrow

Example: 10 MHz RF system in CERN PS

• 10 + 1 ferrite loaded cavities, tunable from 2.8...10 MHz





 Fast wide-band feedback around amplifier (internal)
 → Gain limited by delay

Example: RF feedback with 1-turn delay

• 10 + 1 ferrite loaded cavities, tunable from 2.8...10 MHz





Example: RF feedback with 1-turn delay

\rightarrow Reduce cavity impedance beyond stability limit of wide-band FB





→ Important additional impedance reduction

→ Clever usage of beam periodicity in circular accelerator
RF system overview



→ Convert RF power into longitudinal electric field

→ Amplify low-power signal from beam control to kW, MW or GW

→ Provide RF signals with correct frequency, amplitude and phase

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

Basic building blocks

Measure phase differences

• Two signals at different frequencies ω_1 and ω_2



- \rightarrow Phase difference, $\Delta \phi$, between both signals changes linearly
- \rightarrow **Ambiguity** to distinguish between $\Delta \phi = -\pi, \pi, -3\pi, 3\pi, ...$
- → Saw-tooth in phase means constant frequency difference
- $\begin{array}{ll} \rightarrow \ {\bf Equivalence of} \\ {\bf frequency and phase} \end{array} & \omega = \frac{d\phi}{dt} \quad \leftrightarrow \quad \phi = \int \omega \, dt \end{array}$

Mixer or multiplier

• Example: analogue 4 quadrant multiplier and low pass filter



Mixer or multiplier

• Example: analogue 4 quadrant multiplier and low pass filter



• Signals:



How to detect phase differences?

• Example: analogue 4 quadrant multiplier and low pass filter



Phase discriminator in approximately +/-90° range

RF sources

RF sources

What finally generates the RF signal to power amplifier and cavity? → Need an RF source!



- Electron accelerators
 - Off-the-shelf high-performance laboratory generators as reference: BESSY SR, CERN CTF₃
 - Dedicated commercial fixed-frequency sources with low phase noise: free electron lasers, CERN AWAKE
- Proton accelerators
 - Special sweeping RF sources, controlled by beam-based loops: mostly in-house developments

Noisy RF signals

- Degradation of signal quality due to noise
 - Amplitude and/or phase jitter
- What is the difference between a coherent signal and noise?



- → Amplitude of coherent, quasi monochromatic signal (at 200 MHz) is independent of observation bandwidth
- → Incoherent noise power (dominated by spectrum analyzer front-end amplifier/mixer) is proportional to bandwidth
- \rightarrow Thermal noise power $\frac{P}{\Delta f} = k_{\rm B}T = 1.38 \cdot 10^{-23} \text{ J/K} \cdot 296 \text{ K} \simeq -174 \text{ dBm/Hz}$

Analysis of phase noise

• Compare noise power with carrier power as reference



• Noise power density $\mathcal{L}(f) = \frac{\text{Power density}}{\text{Carrier power}} \left[\frac{\text{dBc}}{\text{Hz}} \right] = \frac{1}{2} S_{\phi}(f)$

 \rightarrow Its integral is the phase jitter and using $\Delta t = \frac{\Delta \phi}{2\pi f_c}$

the jitter in time becomes

$$\Delta t_{\rm rms} = \frac{1}{2\pi f_{\rm c}} \sqrt{\int_{f_1}^{f_2} S_{\phi}(f) \, df}$$

Typical phase noise plots

• Measure phase noise of a synthesized lab generator



Total

→ Convenient split to relevant ranges

31.0

Variable frequency: direct digital synthesis

- Generate (almost) any frequency starting from a given clock frequency, f_{clk}
- Digitally programmable in frequency



85



Variable frequency: direct digital synthesis

- Generate (almost) any frequency starting from a given clock frequency, f_{clk}
- Digitally programmable in frequency and phase



86



→ Two output signals with ideal 90° phase shift
→ Output signals are digital data streams

Receivers

I/Q representation of signals

• Any signal can be represented by amplitude *A* and phase ϕ



 \rightarrow In phase, *I* and quadrature, *Q* describe the same signal \rightarrow Avoids phase discontinuities at 0, 2π , ...

Signal receivers

- Radio with listens to beam or cavity signals
- Listens to amplitude and phase





 $\rightarrow \text{With } \omega_{in} \approx \omega_{LO} \text{ input signal is down-converted to base-band}$ $\rightarrow \text{Resulting I/Q vector rotates slowly with } \omega_{in} - \omega_{LO}$

Digital receivers

- No conceptual difference between analogue and digital
- Digitization can be performed at any level



→ Analog down-conversion of I and Q, then digital processing
 → High input frequencies beyond ADC sampling rates

Digital receivers

- No conceptual difference between analogue and digital
- Digitization can be performed at any level



- \rightarrow Analogue mixers become digital multipliers
- → All digital receiver
- → Theoretically perfect I/Q symmetry

Vector modulator

Invers receiver: vector modulator

• Convert I/Q data into modulated RF signal



Inverse receiver: vector modulator

• Convert I/Q data into modulated RF signal



- → Perfect I/Q symmetry difficult to achieve
- \rightarrow Up-conversion of digital signal to a high RF frequency

Electronic phase-locked loop

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



- → Fixed phase relationship:
- → Optional divider:

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





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



→ 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

 \rightarrow Essential in hadron accelerators to keep RF locked to beam



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

Beam phase loop during acceleration

- → What happens with phase loop during acceleration?
- → During plateaus the phase between RF and beam is either o° or 180°
- → Fast phase changes well handled, but need slow frequency correction



→ Radial or synchronization loop

Radial loop

Radial loop



Radial loop

• Slow correction of RF frequency to keep beam centred

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

- \rightarrow At transition energy
 - → Longer path of higher energy particle compensated by higher velocity
 - → No revolution frequency change for energy offset



→ Need beam-based frequency correction



Synchro(nization) loop



→ Fast control of RF frequency to cavities, **but no slow corrections**
Synchronization loop, internal reference

108



 \rightarrow Avoids noise from radial detection when not crossing transition

Synchronization loop, external reference

109



→ Synchronize between accelerators for transfer

Before synchronization

• Simple test case of circumference ratio 2: $C_2 = 2C_1$



\rightarrow Synchronize both accelerator to force: $f_{rev,1} = 2f_{rev,2}$

After synchronization

• Simple test case of circumference ratio 2: $C_2 = 2C_1$

Source or target accelerator is master at transfer



- \rightarrow Revolution frequencies coupled: $f_{rev,1} = 2f_{rev,2}$
- → **Ready to extract during** every turn of the target accelerator

Summary

- **RF system parameters**
- Parameters of RF cavities
- Power amplifier
- Local feedbacks

 \rightarrow Direct and 1-turn delay feedback

- Building blocks of low-level RF systems
 → Phase comparison, RF sources and receivers
- Basic global feedback loops
 → Beam phase, radial and synchronization loops

→ Make the beam feel comfortable!

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Normalized Hamiltonian representation

116

• For a single harmonic RF system $H(\phi, \dot{\phi}) = \frac{1}{2}\dot{\phi}^2 + \frac{\omega_s^2}{\cos\phi_S} \left[\cos\phi_S - \cos\phi + (\phi - \phi_S)\sin\phi_S\right]$

with $\phi = \phi_{\rm S} + \Delta \phi$ it becomes

 $H(\Delta\phi,\dot{\phi}) = \frac{1}{2}\dot{\phi}^2 + \frac{\omega_s^2}{\cos\phi_s} \left[\cos\phi_s - \cos(\phi_s + \Delta\phi) - \Delta\phi\sin\phi_s\right]$

using
$$\cos(\phi_{\rm S} + \Delta \phi) = \cos \phi_{\rm S} \cos \Delta \phi - \sin \phi_{\rm S} \sin \Delta \phi$$

 $\simeq \cos \phi_{\rm S} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\Delta \phi^2\right) - \sin \phi_{\rm S}\Delta \phi$

this simplifies to $H(\Delta\phi,\dot{\phi})\simeq \frac{1}{2}\dot{\phi}^2 + \frac{1}{2}\omega_s^2\Delta\phi^2$

Cascaded integrator-comb filter (CIC)

- Efficient implementation of low pass filter
- Standard form with sampling rate decimation: $f_{clk} \rightarrow f_{clk}/d$



→ Easy to implement in programmable logic: no multipliers
 → Only adders and shift registers

Cascaded integrator-comb filter (CIC)

Why particularly interesting for circular accelerators?

- Choose clock frequency, $f_{clk} = 2^m f_{rev}$ and decimation $d = 2^m$
- \rightarrow Notches at all multiples of f_{rev} except zero
- \rightarrow Linear phase $\phi(f) \rightarrow$ filter behaves like a constant delay



Ideal low-pass filter in digital receivers

 \rightarrow Filter selected multiple of $f_{\rm rev}$ while suppressing all others

Transmission of reference signals

• Thermal drift of long coaxial cables or optical fibres



- Example: 2 km long RG223 cable with ~10 µs delay
- $\rightarrow \Delta T$ of only 1° C (room temperature) changes delay by ~0.5 ns
- \rightarrow 1.8° at 10 MHz (CERN PS), but 73° at 400 MHz (LHC)
- Optical fibres are typically 10...100 times more stable
- What to do if this is still not sufficient?

Simple synchronization process

- Move beam to off-momentum (*B* const.): $\frac{df}{f} = \frac{\gamma_{tr}^2 \gamma^2}{\gamma^2 \gamma_{tr}^2} \frac{dp}{p}$ 1.
 - → Well defined frequency difference between accelerators
- Measure azimuth error, when beam at correct azimuth 2.
 - → Close synchronization loop
 - \rightarrow Moves beam to ref. momentum

