

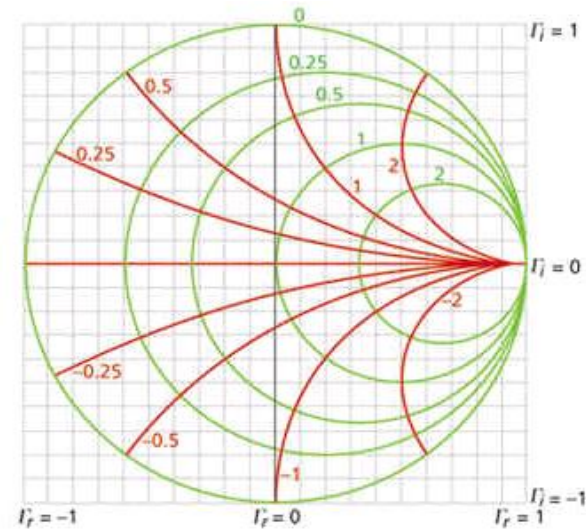
JUAS RF Course 2020

Cavities



Superconducting LEP cavity

RF Theory



The Smith Chart

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Basics on RF Transmission, and Resonant Structures

Section A

- ◆ *Basics*
- ◆ *Transmission-lines*
- ◆ *Striplines, Microstrip-lines, Slotlines*
- ◆ *Waveguide and single cell cavity structures*
- ◆ *Decibel*
- ◆ *Equivalent circuit*
- ◆ *Characteristic in time and in frequency domain*
- ◆ *Beam-cavity interaction*

Section B

- ◆ *Scaling laws*
- ◆ *Simulation techniques*
- ◆ *Higher order modes (HOMs)*
- ◆ *Transit time factor*
- ◆ *Coupling and tuning*
- ◆ *Different shapes of cavities*
- ◆ *Voltage breakdown & Multipactor*
- ◆ *Multi-cell cavities, travelling wave structures*

S-Parameters, Smith Chart, and Active Systems

Section C

- ◆ *RF systems*
- ◆ *Navigation in the Smith Chart*
- ◆ *Examples*
- ◆ *Rulers on the Smith Chart*

Section D

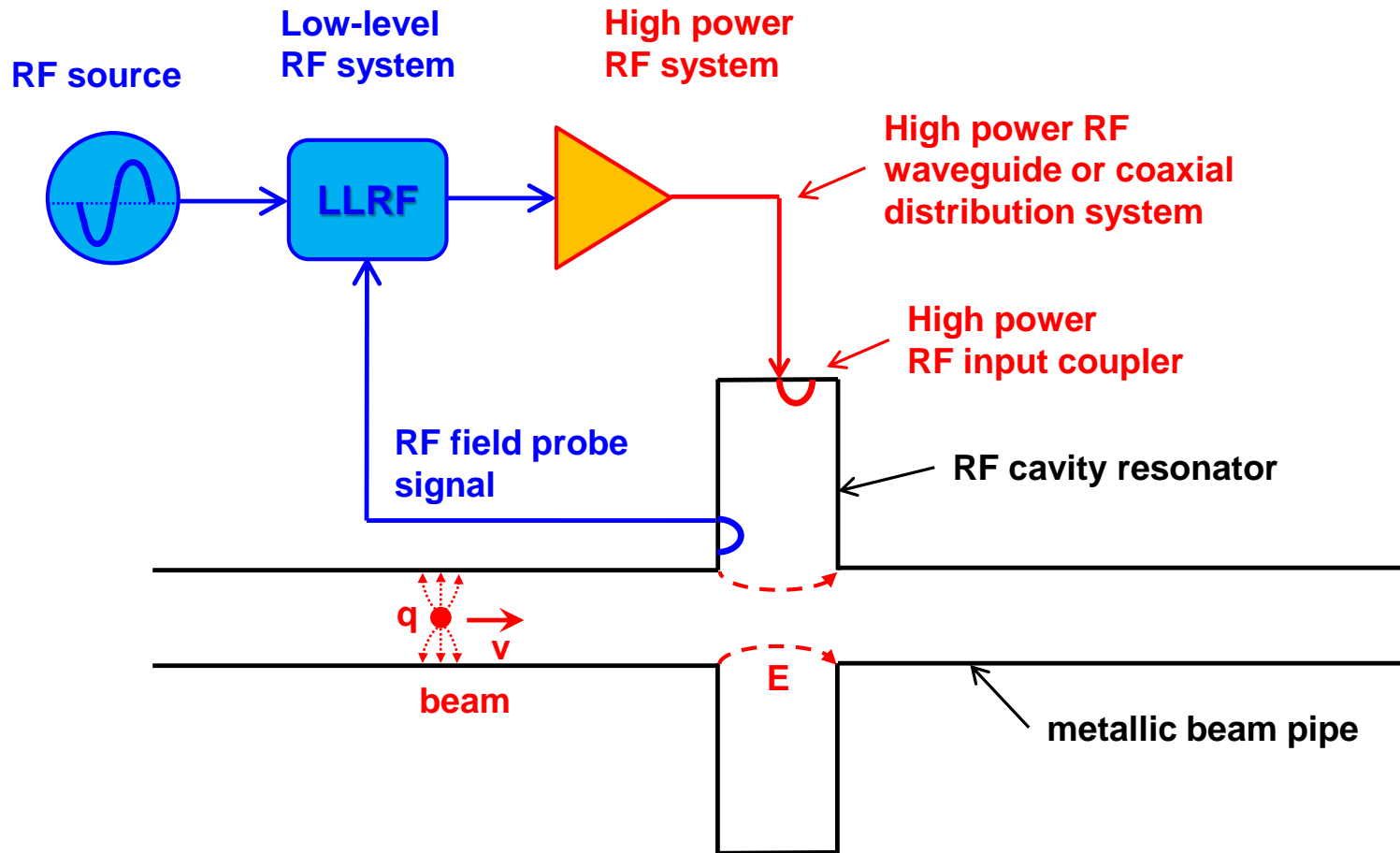
- ◆ *S-Parameters*
- ◆ *The scattering matrix*

Section E

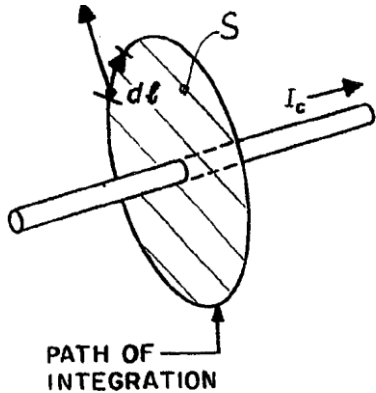
- ◆ *Active elements*
 - *Transistors*
 - *Gridded tubes*
 - *Klystrons*
 - *IOTs*
- ◆ *Measurement devices and concepts*
- ◆ *Superheterodyne Concept*

Section A

A Simplified RF System



Maxwell's equations (1)



Ampere's Law:

$$\oint_C \mathbf{H} d\mathbf{l} = I = I_c + I_d = \iint_S \left(\mathbf{J}_F + \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t} \right) d\mathbf{S}$$

conductive current displacement current

with \mathbf{J}_F being the "free" or conduction current density,

and $\frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t} = \mathbf{J}_D$

the displacement current density.

$$\text{curl } \mathbf{H} = \nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{J}_F + \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t}$$

with the current density \mathbf{J}_F
the electric displacement field \mathbf{D}
and the magnetic field \mathbf{H}

In an RF-field the conduction current I_c may continue through vacuum as displacement current I_d

Faraday's Law
(Kelvin – Stokes Theorem):

$$\oint_{\partial \Sigma} \mathbf{E} d\mathbf{l} = - \int_{\Sigma} \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} d\mathbf{A}$$

with the magnetic field \mathbf{B} linked to the magnetic flux,

$$\Phi_B = \iint_{\Sigma(t)} \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r}, t) d\mathbf{A}$$

and the electromotive force (EMF)

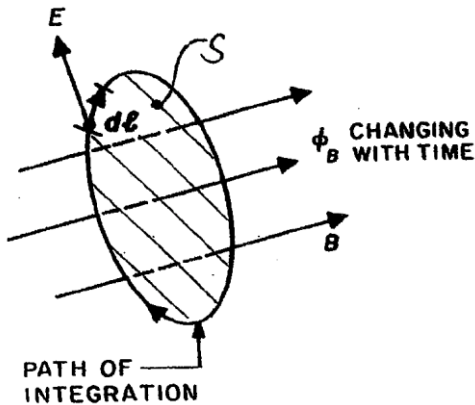
$$\mathcal{E} = - \frac{\partial \Phi_B}{\partial t}$$

integral form

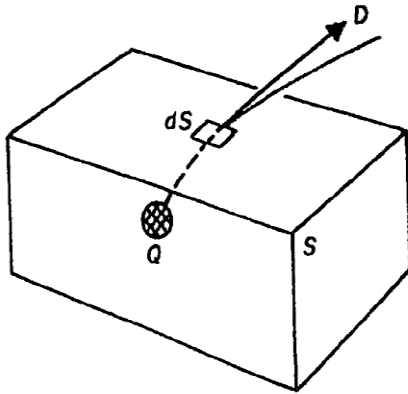
$$\text{curl } \mathbf{E} = \nabla \times \mathbf{E} = - \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

with the electric field \mathbf{E}
and the magnetic field \mathbf{B}

differential form



Maxwell's equations (2)



S = TOTAL SURFACE
 Q = TOTAL CHARGE INSIDE S

Gauss' Law (Electricity):

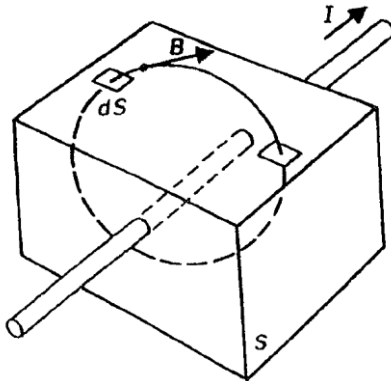
$$\oiint_S \mathbf{D} \, dA = \Phi_D = Q_{\text{free}}$$

with the electric displacement \mathbf{D}
 and the free charge Q_{free}
 equivalent to the \mathbf{D} -field flux Φ_D

$$\text{div } \mathbf{D} = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \rho_{\text{free}}$$

with the free charge density ρ_{free}

The surface S must be closed!



Gauss' Law (Magnetism):

$$\oiint_S \mathbf{B} \, dS = 0$$

with the magnetic field \mathbf{B}

Integral form

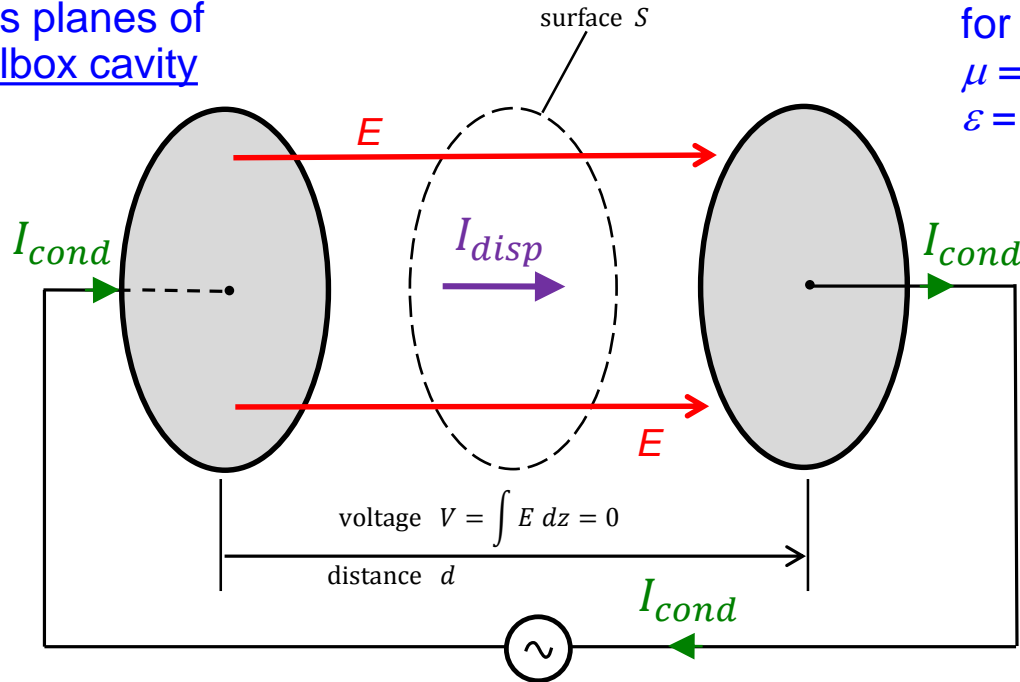
$$\text{div } \mathbf{B} = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$

there are no magnetic charges

differential form

Displacement and conduction currents in a simple capacitor

end plates =
sides planes of
a pillbox cavity



for vacuum and approximately for air:
 $\mu = \mu_0 = 4\pi \cdot 10^{-7} = 1.257 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ Vs/(Am)}$
 $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_0 = 8.854 \cdot 10^{-12} \text{ As/(Vm)}$

The conduction current passes
as displacement current the
capacitor gap

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \text{Displacement current in the dielectric: } I_{disp} &= \frac{\partial \Phi_D}{\partial t} = \varepsilon \int \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \varepsilon \mathbf{S} \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} \\ \text{Conduction current in conductor: } I_{cond} &= \frac{\partial Q}{\partial t} = C \frac{\partial V}{\partial t} = \varepsilon \frac{\mathbf{S}}{d} d \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} = \varepsilon \mathbf{S} \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} \end{aligned} \right\} I_{disp} = I_{cond}$$

with the electric flux Φ_D and the charge Q .

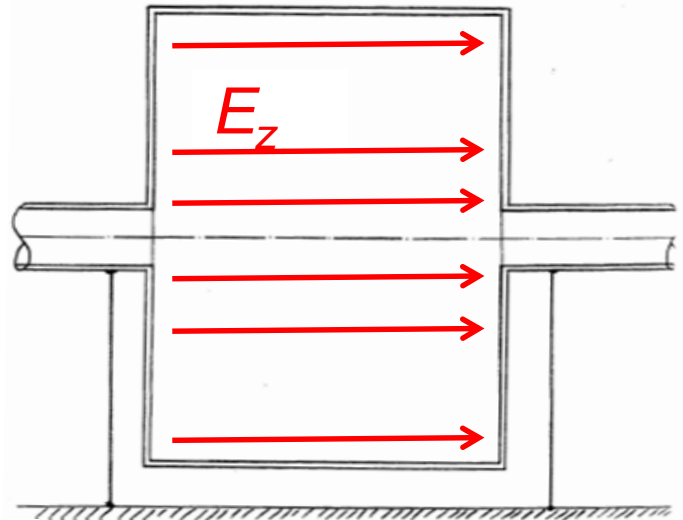
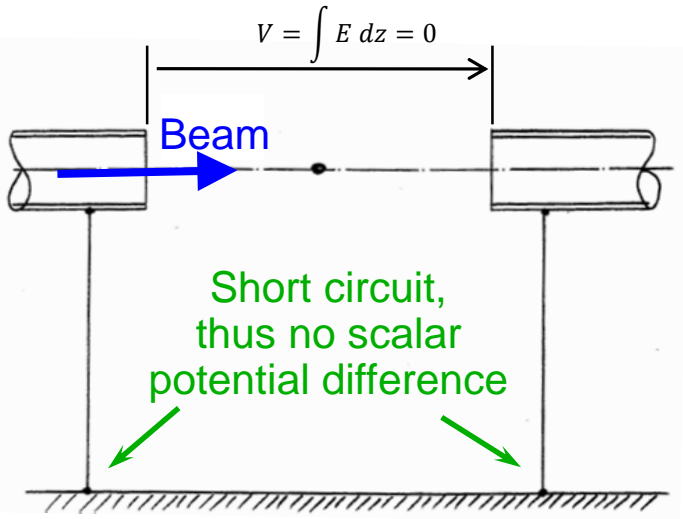


From L and C to a cavity

With a gap in the beam pipe we still have both ends at the same electric potential

→ put a cavity in there

Creates E-field for accelerating the particles; Along the cavity walls the field is zero and so is the integral



Caveat: Do not try to construct equipotential planes from the electric field pattern in this cavity..why?

Capacitor at high frequencies,
The Feynman Lectures on Physics

Can the short-circuit be avoided?

Answer: No - but it doesn't bother us at high frequencies.

TEM transmission lines (1)

Transverse electric modes (TEM) can propagate on any structure with at least two conductors

Given a structure with

C' ... capacitance per unit length in Faraday per meter [F/m]

L' ... inductance per unit length in Henry per meter [H/m]

Typical values for an air filled TEM line (not necessarily coax): $C' \approx 67 \frac{\text{pF}}{\text{m}}$ $L' \approx 167 \frac{\text{nH}}{\text{m}}$

It then follows (no losses assumed)

characteristic impedance $Z = \frac{V_{\text{wave}}}{I_{\text{wave}}} = \sqrt{\frac{L'}{C'}} \quad [Z] = \Omega$

velocity of propagation $v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L'C'}} = \frac{c_0}{\sqrt{\mu_r \epsilon_r}} \quad [v] = \text{m/s}$

If $\mu_r = \epsilon_r = 1$ (vacuum or approximately air), then the velocity of propagation is equal to the velocity of light $c_0 \approx 3 \cdot 10^8 \text{ m/s}$

TEM transmission lines (2)

Formulae for the characteristic impedance Z_L can be found in many textbooks (e.g. "Reference Data for Radio Engineers" or others). From a known Z_L (= line impedance; thus index L) the values for C' and L' can be deduced by

$$\left. \begin{aligned} C' &= \frac{1}{v Z_L} \\ L' &= \frac{Z_L}{v} \end{aligned} \right\} \text{for "normal" cable } (\mu_r = 1)$$

$$C' \text{ [pF/m]} = \frac{10000}{3 Z_L} \sqrt{\epsilon_r} \quad \text{For 50 Ohm and } \epsilon_r = 1 \text{ we get } \approx 67 \text{ pF/meter}$$

$$L' \text{ [nH/m]} = \frac{100 Z_L}{30} \sqrt{\epsilon_r} \quad \text{For 50 Ohm and } \epsilon_r = 1 \text{ we get } \approx 167 \text{ nH/meter}$$

$$C' \text{ [pF/m]} = 55.6 \epsilon_r / \ln(D/d)$$

$$\text{For coaxial cables : } Z_L = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_r}{\epsilon_r}} 60 \ln\left(\frac{R}{r}\right)$$

$$Z_L = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0}{\epsilon_0}} \frac{\ln\left(\frac{D}{d}\right)}{2\pi \sqrt{\epsilon_r}}$$

Assuming $\mu_r = 1$ here
And of course $D/d = R/r$

Reference: Meinke Gundlach Taschenbuch der Hochfrequenztechnik 3 rd edition; 1968 page 253..255; or K3 in 4 th edition

Note that v stands for the phase velocity in the coax cable which in case of vacuum as dielectric becomes $= c = \text{speed of light}$

TEM transmission lines (3)

Coaxial cable with minimum loss:

$$\alpha_R = \frac{R_S \sqrt{\epsilon_r}}{Z_0 D} \cdot \frac{1 + \frac{D}{d}}{\ln\left(\frac{D}{d}\right)} \quad R_S = \text{Surface resistance [Ohm]}$$

$$R_S = \frac{\rho}{\delta} = \frac{1}{\sigma \delta} = R_{\square}$$

$$f_{\alpha} = \alpha_R \frac{Z_0 D}{R_S \sqrt{\epsilon_r}} = \frac{1 + \frac{D}{d}}{\ln\left(\frac{D}{d}\right)}$$

$$Z_L = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0}{\epsilon_0}} \frac{\ln\left(\frac{D}{d}\right)}{2\pi \sqrt{\epsilon_r}}$$

$$Z_0 = 377 \text{ Ohm}$$

The term f_{α} is a dimensionless form factor function

α_R in [Neper/meter] with 1 Np=8.685 dB
dB=decibel

δ = skin depth [meter]

$$\delta = 1/\sqrt{\pi f \mu \sigma}$$

=2 micron for copper @1 GHz

ρ = resistivity [$\Omega \cdot \text{meter}$]

Copper has 17 nanoOhm meter = $1.7 \cdot 10^{-8} \Omega \cdot \text{m}$

$\sigma = 1/\rho$ = conductivity [Siemens/meter]

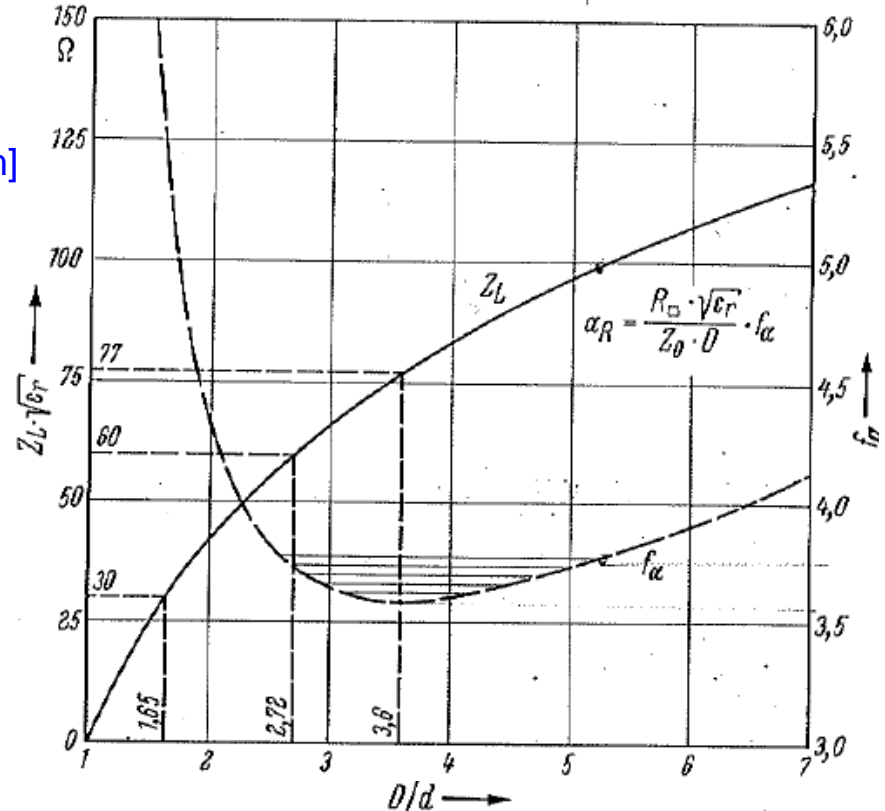


Abb. 4.6/2. Wellenwiderstand und Dämpfung α_R eines Koaxialkabels in Abhängigkeit vom Durchmesser Verhältnis D/d . In dem eingezeichneten Toleranzfeld bedeutet eine Linie jeweils 1% Abweichung vom Optimum

normalized characteristic impedance $Z_L/\sqrt{\epsilon_r}$ and attenuation α_R as a function of D/d with D =inner diameter of the outer conductor and d =outer diameter of the inner conductor. The term f_{α} is a dimensionless form factor function

TEM transmission lines; loss (4)

How to use the term α_R now in practise? The letter R as index stands for resistive=metallic losses; in most cases but not always we can neglect dielectric losses. Otherwise we have to add α_D for diel. loss remember the unit is: Neper/meter with 1 Neper =8.68 decibel or dB

both Neper and dB are dimensionless since they stand for some ratio.

When looking at the formula for α_R you find the relative epsilon there..why this when we are talking about metallic losses only? Is it true, that the metallic losses depends on ϵ_r ..? Yes its ! And why..even for a lossless dielectric [typically around 2..2.5]? Without going through formulae you can visualize that the presence of some dielectric lowers the characteristic impedance and this increase the surface current density..

An another question: Why is not everyone using cables with lowest attenuation around 77 Ohm?

Answer: First of all this is only true for air filled cables and the (in most cases unavoidable) dielectric material has its impact (c.f. Zinke Brunswig Vol 1, Page 124) thus in the end the 50 Ohm is very close to optimum (with dielectric).

For a coax cable with best breakdown voltage we obtain $Z_L = 60$ Ohm (in air)

Now for the power along some lossy line vs z (matched=terminated with its char. impedance we get:

$P_{\text{coax}} = P_{\text{in}} e^{-2\alpha z}$ thus for a length L of the cable : $P_{\text{outcoax}} = P_{\text{in}} e^{-2\alpha L}$; assume 3 dB (which is half power) we first convert to this Neper thus we have $0.345 \text{ Np} \triangleq 3 \text{ dB}$ and we arrive at $e^{-0.691} = 0.5$

In other words, we clearly see half the power (50 %) or $1/\sqrt{2}$ of the voltage as $P \sim \text{Voltage}^2$

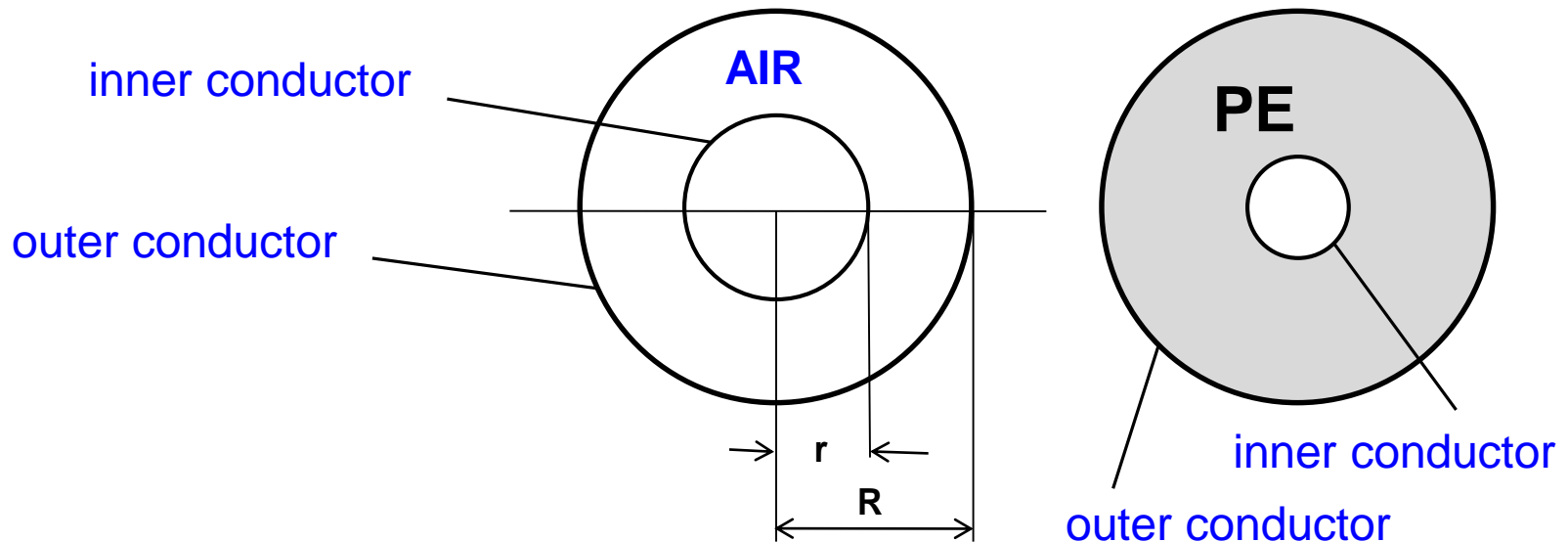
Obviously the voltage (assuming only one forward travelling wave; no refl) along a lossy line is $\sim e^{-\alpha z}$

To keep in mind: after 1 Neper of attenuation the VOLTAGE or fieldstrength is down by $1/e$!

TEM transmission lines (5)

Applied to **50-Ohm-lines** (the impedance mostly used) one finds

	Vacuum or \approx air	Polyethylene (PE)
ϵ_r	1	2.26
v (m/sec)	$c_0 = 3 \cdot 10^8$ m/s	$0.665 c_0 = 1/\sqrt{2.26} c_0$
L' (nH/m)	166.7	250.6
C' (pF/m)	66.7	100.2
$R/r = D/d$	2.30	3.50



TEM Transmission lines (6)

Standard RF coax cables

single screen

50 Ω

RG 58 and RG 213 are very common

H+S type	Item no.	Curves see page	Center conductor ①			Dielectric ②		Screen 1 ③			Screen 2 ④		Jacket ⑤			Weight kg/100 m	Operating voltage kV	Max. operation frequency	Cable group*	
			Design	Mat.	Dim. mm	Mat.	Dim. mm	Mat.	Dim. mm	Cover %	Dim. mm	Cover %	Mat.	Dim. mm	Colour				crimp	clamp
G_03212-01	22610095		Strand-19	CuSn	0.90	PE	2.95	CuSn	3.60	95	-	-	PUR ¹⁾	4.95	black	3.60	2.5	1	U7	U7
RG_58_C/U	22510015	5 and 6	Strand-19	CuSn	0.90	PE	2.95	CuSn	3.60	96	-	-	PVC2(LM)	4.95	black	3.70	2.5	1	U7	U7
RG_58_C/U-01	22510350		Strand-19	CuSn	0.90	PE	2.95	CuSn	3.60	96	-	-	PVC2(LM)	4.95	black	3.70	2.5	1	U7	U7
RG_58_C/U-05	22511239		Strand-19	CuSn	0.90	PE	2.95	CuSn	3.60	96	-	-	PVC2(LM)	4.95	blue	3.70	2.5	1	U7	U7
RG_58_C/U-06	22510017		Strand-19	CuSn	0.90	PE	2.95	CuSn	3.60	96	-	-	PVC	4.95	black	3.70	2.5	1	U7	U7
RG_58_C/U-07	22511244		Strand-19	CuSn	0.90	PE	2.95	CuSn	3.60	96	-	-	PVC2(LM)	4.95	grey	3.70	2.5	1	U7	U7
RG_58_C/U-22	22511607		Strand-19	CuSn	0.90	PE	2.95	CuSn	3.60	96	-	-	PVC2(LM)	4.95	red	3.70	2.5	1	U7	U7
RG_58_C/U-62 ^{b)}	23024284		Strand-19	CuAg	0.90	PE	2.95	CuAg	3.60	96	-	-	PVC(UL)	4.95	black	3.70	2.5	1	U7	U7
G_03232	22510128		Strand7	Cu	0.95	PE	2.95	Cu	3.60	95	-	-	PVC	5.00	black	3.70	2.5	1	U7	U7
G_03262-1	22512108	Strand7	CuSn	0.90	PE	2.95	CuSn	3.60	96	-	-	LSFH ¹⁾	4.95	black	3.90	2.5	1	U7	U7	
G_03272	22511434	Strand7	Cu	0.95	PE	2.95	Cu	3.60	95	-	-	PE ¹⁾	5.00	black	3.50	2.5	2	U7	U7	
G_05232	22510176	Strand7	Cu	1.50	PE	4.80	Cu	5.60	92	-	-	PVC2(LM)	7.40	black	7.70	3.5	1	-	U19	
RG_213_U	22510052	Strand7	Cu	2.25	PE	7.25	Cu	8.10	96	-	-	PVC2(LM)	10.30	black	15.30	5.0	1	U29	U28	
RG_213_U-01 ^{a)}	22510053	Strand7	Cu	2.25	PE	7.24	Cu	8.10	96	-	-	PVC2(LM)	10.30	black	15.30	5.0	1	U29	U28	
RG_213_U-04	22510055	Strand7	Cu	2.25	PE	7.25	Cu	8.10	96	-	-	PVC	10.30	black	15.30	5.0	1	U29	U28	
G_07262	22511836	Strand7	Cu	2.25	PE	7.28	Cu	8.10	96	-	-	LSFH ¹⁾	10.30	black	15.30	5.0	1	U29	U28	
RG_218_U	22510066	Wire	Cu	5.00	PE	17.30	Cu	18.40	96	-	-	PVC2(LM)	22.10	black	66.90	11.0	1	-	U44	

* for suitable connectors

^{a)} precision type: impedance 50 ± 1 Ω

^{b)} UL recognised (see UL types page 117)

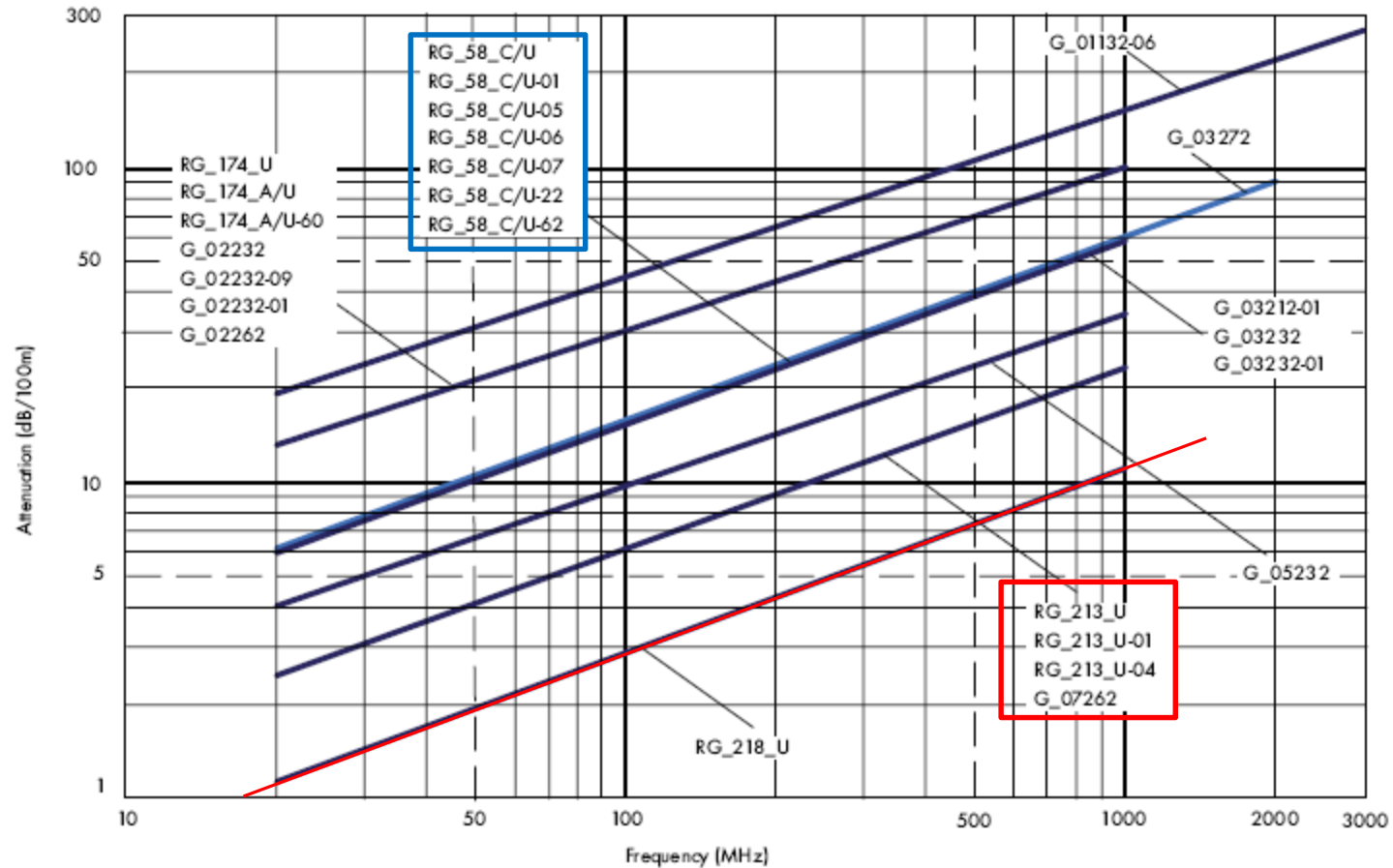
¹⁾ Low Smoke Free of Halogen (LSFH) acc. waste electrical and electronic equipment (WEEE) and restriction of the use of certain hazardous substances (RoHS) directive.

TEM Transmission lines (7)

Attenuation

Standard RF coax cables, single screen, 50 Ω

typical values at +20 °C ambient temperature

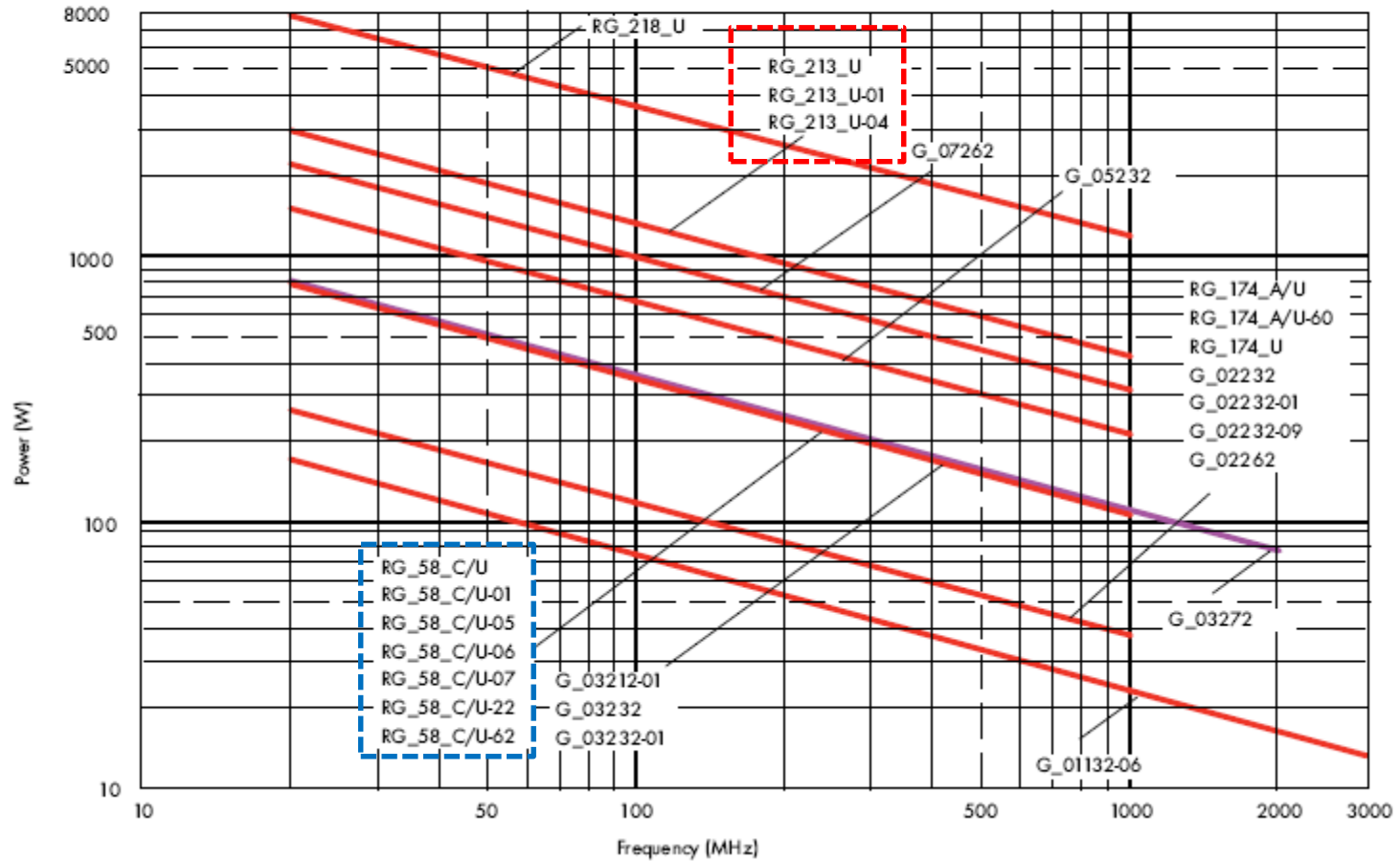


TEM Transmission lines (8)

Power

Standard RF coax cables, single screen, 50 Ω

typical values at +40 °C ambient temperature



TEM Transmission lines (9)

Technical data

Downloads

RF characteristics

EIA stands for electronic industries standard

Number of interfaces:	2
Interface type:	6 1/8" EIA (50 Ω) per IEC 60339-2
Interface direction:	straight
Waveguide size:	RL 6 1/8
Waveguide component type:	Outer conductor tube
Frequency range:	DC to 800 MHz
Cut-off frequency for H₁₁-Mode:	0.83 GHz
Average power rating:	224 kW @ 100 MHz (at +40 °C ambient temperature) 148 kW @ 230 MHz (at +40 °C ambient temperature) 78 kW @ 800 MHz (at +40 °C ambient temperature)
Proof voltage rating:	28000 V
Proof voltage rating remark:	(at sea level (NN))
Insertion loss coefficient /100m:	0.16 dB @ 100 MHz (at +20 °C ambient temperature) 0.24 dB @ 230 MHz (at +20 °C ambient temperature) 0.46 dB @ 800 MHz (at +20 °C ambient temperature)

Mechanical characteristics

Material:	copper
Surface:	untreated
Weight, approx.:	15.81 kg
Length:	2.0 m

Data: from the
SPINNER company
webpage

And here are the data of
some real big coax line:
6 1/8 inch=155.6 mm

As inner diameter of the
outer conductor.

This line is straight, not
corrugated

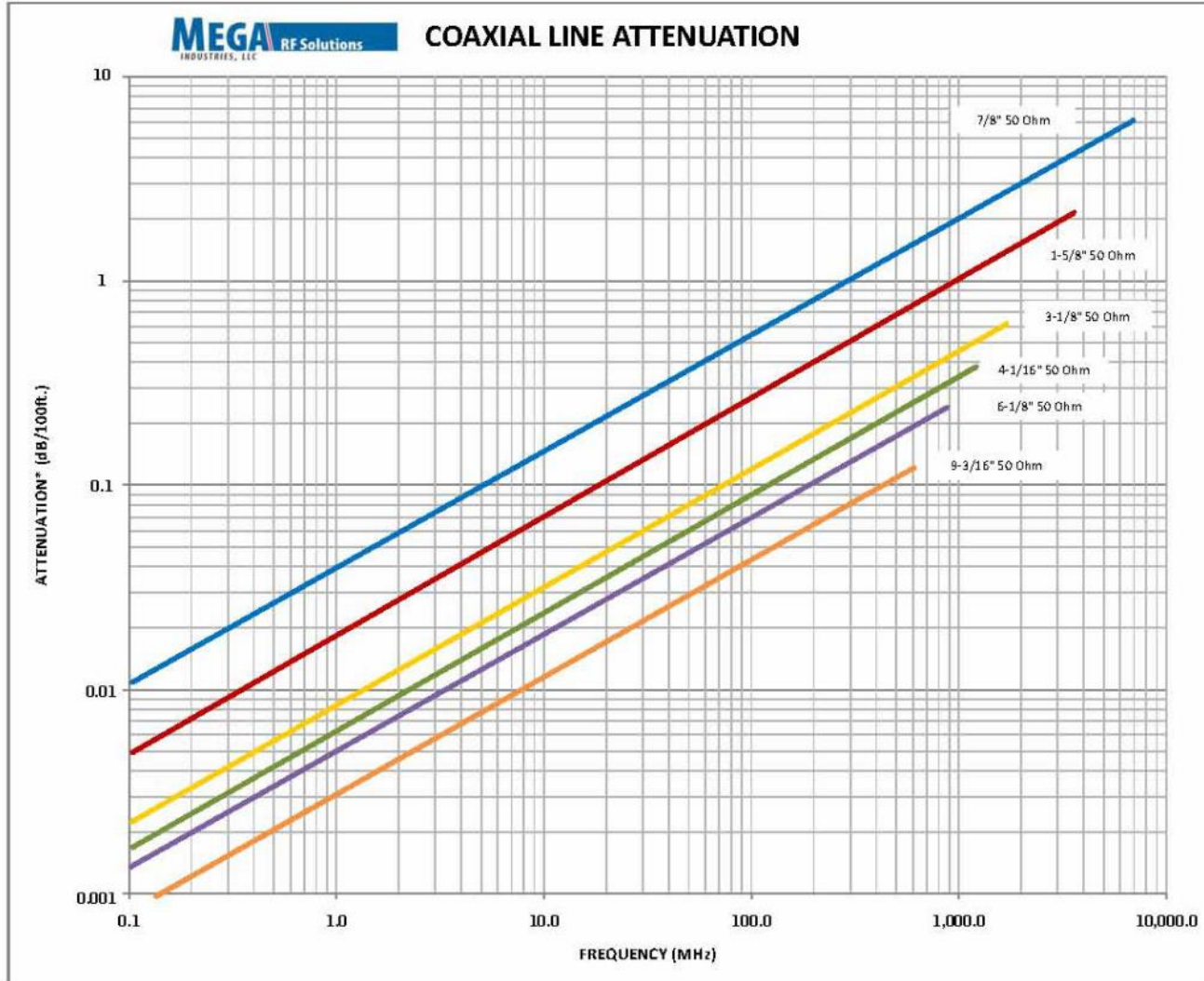
Remember: most of the
metallic losses are at
the inner conductor.

You may calculate the
Q of a coax resonator
made with this line at
100 MHz.

And crosscheck the
cutoff for H₁₁

TEM Transmission lines (10)

And here is another attenuation graph for BIG coax lines; note then unit [dB/100 feet]



General Transmission lines

- ◆ **TEM lines: coaxial, stripline ,“microstrip as quasi TEM”, slotline**
 - frequency range: 0...~100 GHz
 - largest practical size: 350 mm for outer conductor, 150 mm for the inner conductor (used at CERN for the 200 MHz power plant)
 - power rating: for CW operation at 200 MHz: 1 MW
 - low-pass like line, upper frequency limit given by higher order modes
 - But the fundamental TEM mode still exists, this rule is a practical limit
 - relatively high attenuation
 - power limited by inner conductor (high field => thermal load and risk of voltage breakdown there)
 - in general easier to handle than waveguides
 - Stripline and microstrip are usually rather small, slotline=dual to microstrip
- ◆ **Waveguides**
 - frequency range 0.32...325 GHz (standard guides)
 - largest practical size: 590 mm x 298 mm
 - power rating: 150 MW peak (short pulse) at 310 MHz
 - low attenuation
 - bandpass, low frequency cut-off determined by dimension

Watch a good old school “visual” introduction into transmission-lines:<https://youtu.be/l9m2w4DgeVk>

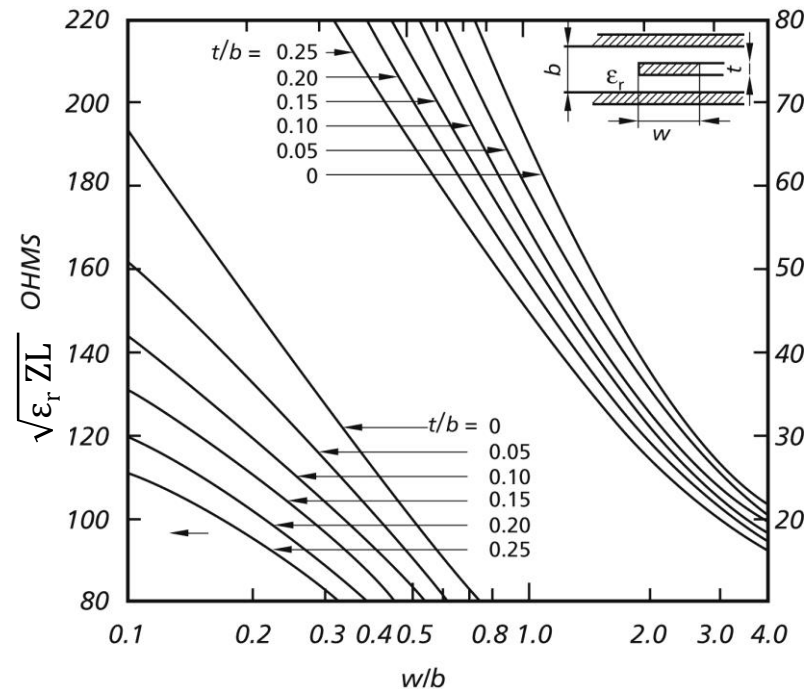
Striplines (1)

A stripline is a **flat conductor** between a top **and** bottom ground plane. The space around this conductor is filled with a homogeneous dielectric material. **This line propagates a pure TEM mode.** With the static capacity per unit length, C' , the static inductance per unit length, L' , the relative permittivity of the dielectric, ϵ_r and the speed of light c the characteristic impedance Z_L of the line is given by

$$Z_L = \sqrt{\frac{L'}{C'}}$$

$$v_{ph} = \frac{c}{\sqrt{\epsilon_r}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L'C'}}$$

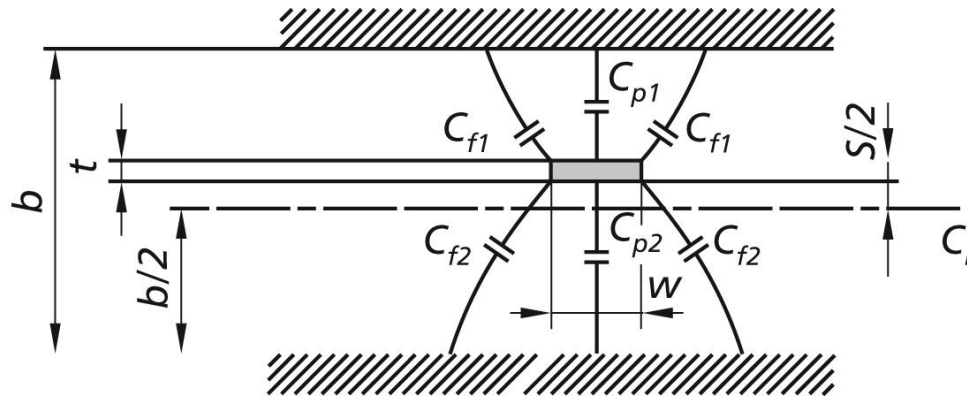
$$Z_L = \sqrt{\epsilon_r} \frac{1}{C'c}$$



Characteristic impedance of striplines

Striplines (2)

For a mathematical treatment, the effect of the fringing fields may be described in terms of static capacities. The total capacity is the sum of the **principal** and **fringe** capacities C_p and C_f .



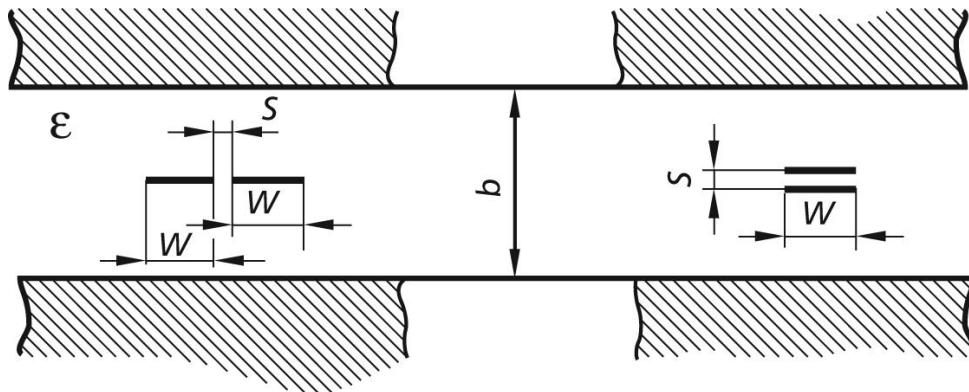
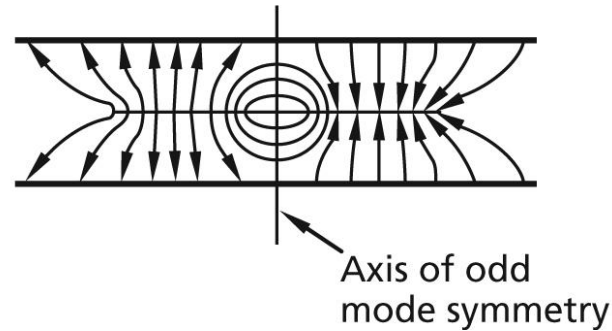
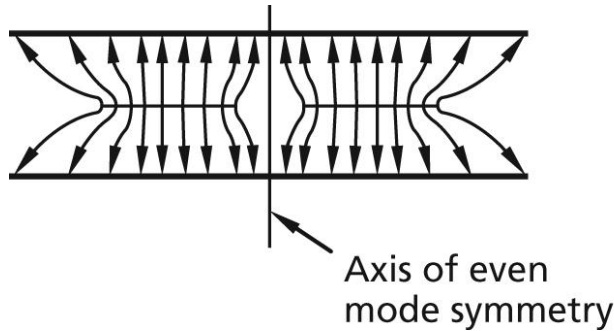
t = thickness of the strip
 $S/2$ = distance to center plane
 C_L = center layer or plane

$$C_{tot} = C_{p1} + C_{p2} + 2C_{f1} + 2C_{f2}$$

C_f stands for fringe field capacity,
 C_p stands for principal capacity

Striplines (3)

Coupled striplines (in odd and even mode):



side-coupled

broad-coupled

$$Z_{L,even} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon_r}} \cdot \frac{94.15 \Omega}{\frac{w}{b} + \frac{\ln 2}{\pi} + \frac{1}{\pi} \ln \left(1 + \tanh \left(\frac{\pi s}{2b} \right) \right)}$$

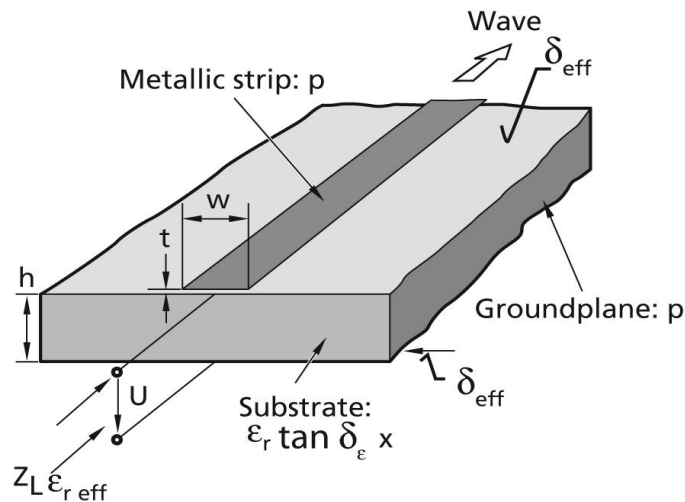
$$Z_{L,odd} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon_r}} \cdot \frac{94.15 \Omega}{\frac{w}{b} + \frac{\ln 2}{\pi} + \frac{1}{\pi} \ln \left(1 + \coth \left(\frac{\pi s}{2b} \right) \right)}$$

This formula for side-coupled structure only.

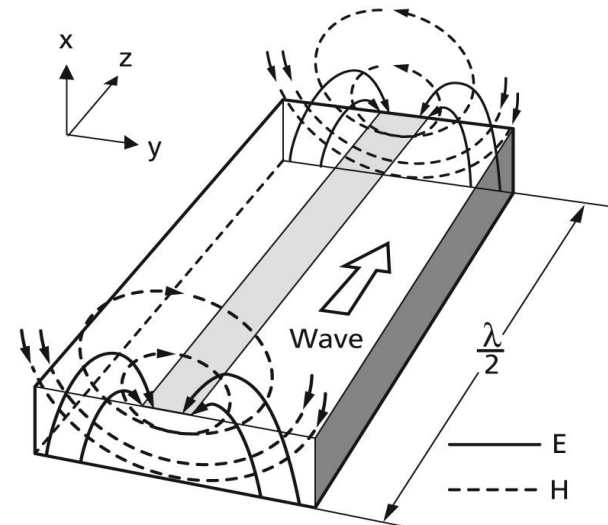
Microstriplines (1)

A microstripline may be visualized as a stripline with the top cover and the top dielectric layer taken away. It is thus an asymmetric open structure, and only part of its cross section is filled with a dielectric material. Since there is a transversely inhomogeneous dielectric, **only a quasi-TEM wave** exists. This has several and severe implications such as a frequency-dependent characteristic impedance and a considerable dispersion. And “why the hell” are people using it?

(a) Mechanical construction



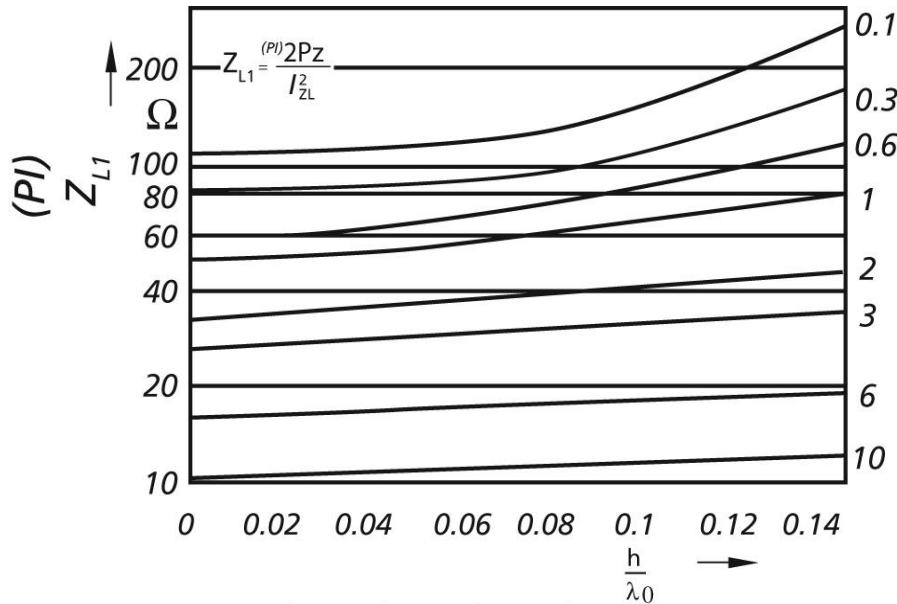
(b) Static field approximation



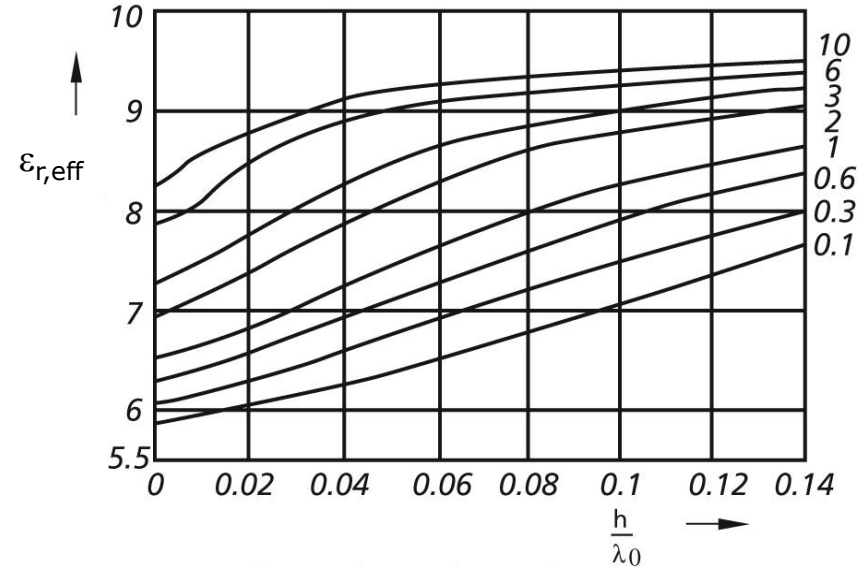
Note: Quasi-TEM wave due to different dielectric constants in different parts of the cross-section. We do get longitudinal field components.

From: R.K Hoffmann; Integrierte Mikrowellenschaltungen Springer 183 page 142

Microstriplines (2)



frequency-dependent characteristic impedance Z_L according to the PI= power-current definition of the char. impedance Z_L
 The traces are parametrized (0.1 ..10) as w/h ;
 w =strip width; h =substrate thickness

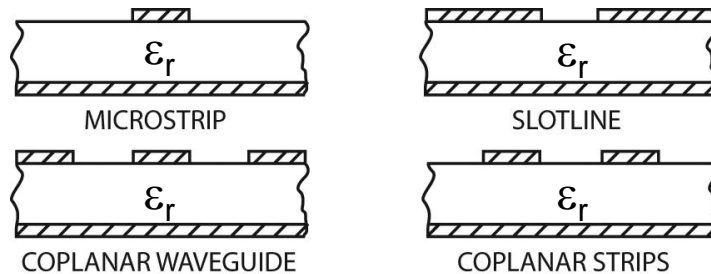


effective permittivity with an alumina substrate $\epsilon_r = 9.7$
 The traces are parametrized (0.1 ..10) as w/h ; w =strip width; h =substrate thickness

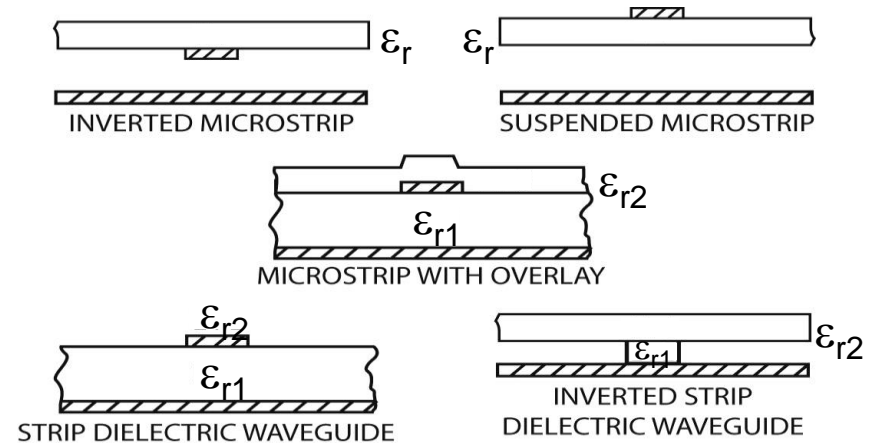
From: R.K Hoffmann: Integrierte Mikrowellenschaltungen (Springer) page 169

Microstriplines (3)

Planar transmission lines used in MIC (microwave integrated circuits)



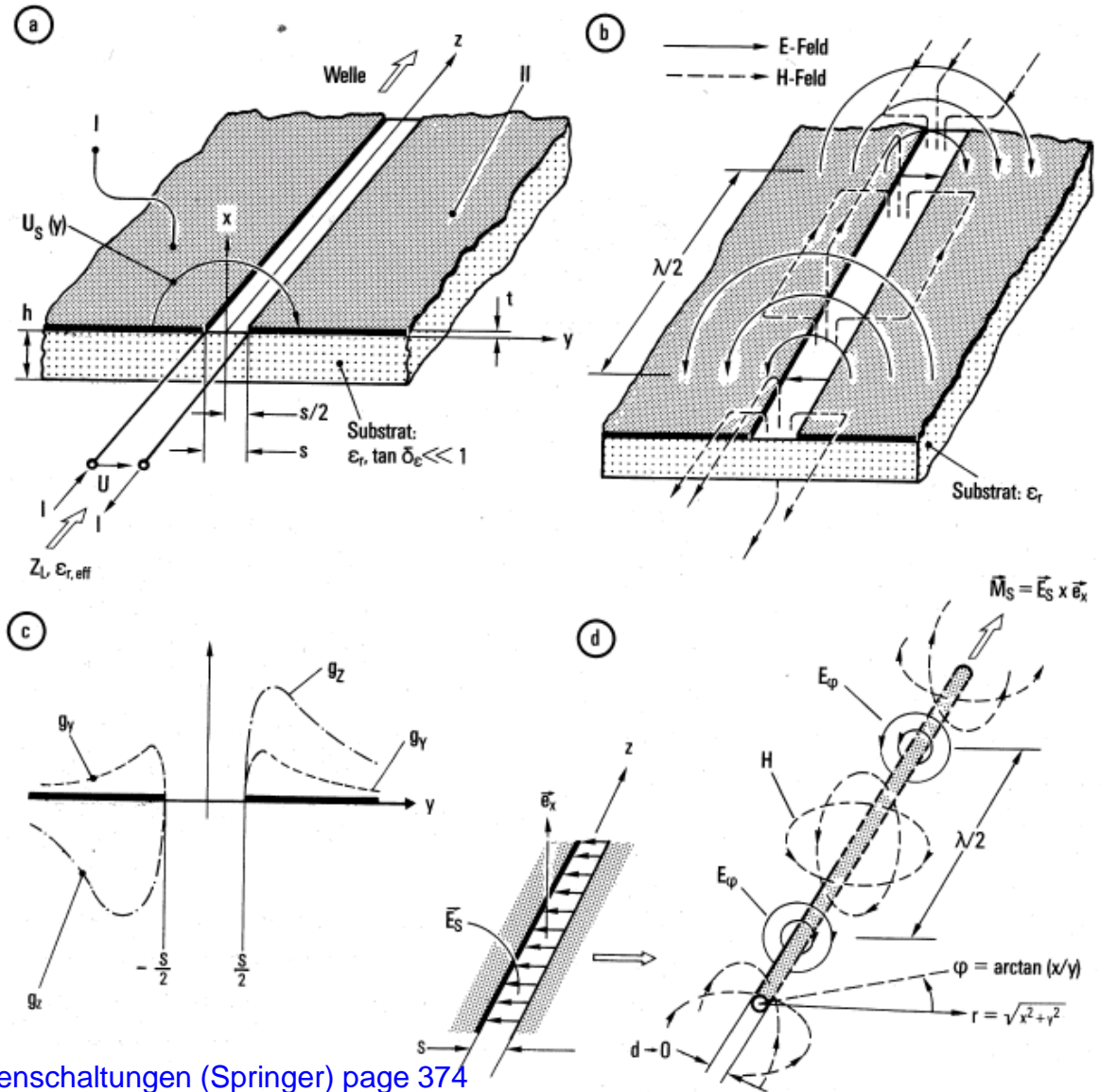
Various transmission lines derived from microstrip



This is a kind of printed optical fibre and this type of structure is becoming more and more important in integrated optics; the metal layer may also be dielectric

Slotlines (1)

The slotline may be considered as the dual structure of the microstrip. It is essentially a slot in the metallization of a dielectric substrate. The characteristic impedance and the effective dielectric constant exhibit similar dispersion properties to those of the microstrip line.



(a) Mechanical construction

(b) Field pattern
(TE approximation)

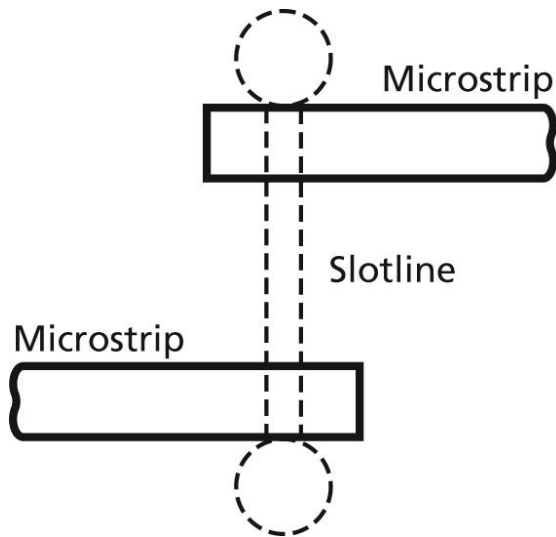
(c) Longitudinal and
transverse current
densities

(d) Magnetic line current
model.

From: R.K Hoffmann: Integrierte Mikrowellenschaltungen (Springer) page 374

Slotlines (2)

A broadband (decade bandwidth) pulse inverter. Assuming the upper microstrip to be the input, the signal leaving the circuit on the lower microstrip is inverted since this microstrip ends on the opposite side of the slotline compared to the input. The “bone” (broken line) denotes missing metal (slotline) in the metallization (=groundplane) of the microstrip.



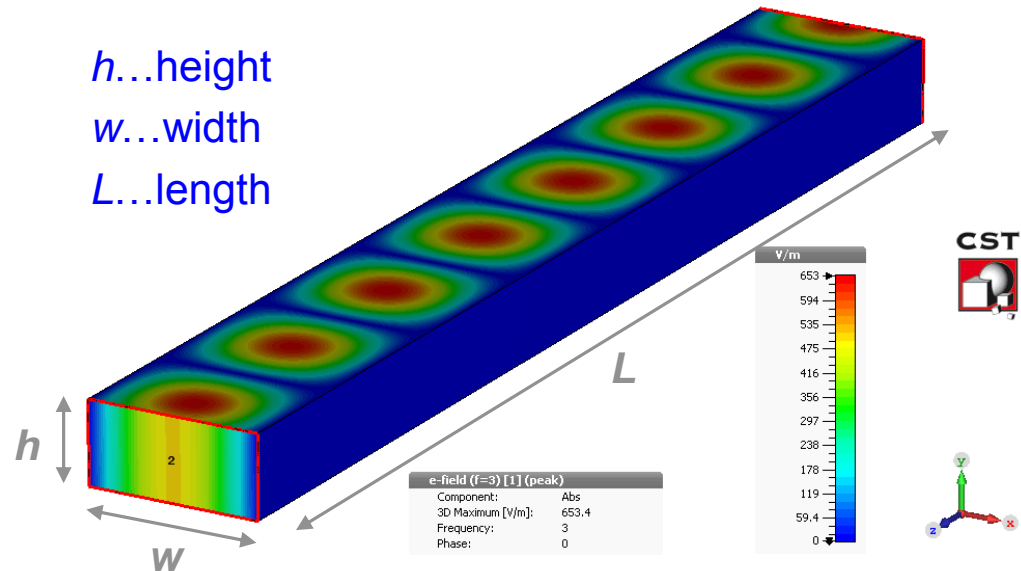
Two microstrip-slotline transitions connected back to back for 180° phase change.

Let there be waveguide modes 😊

Details have been discussed in other lectures (hopefully 😊)

For all homogeneous waveguides (any cross section), there are two basic types of modes, with different orthogonality:

	Europe:	USA:
◆	H mode	= TE
◆	E mode	= TM



- ◆ H modes are characterized by the fact that they have **only** an H-component in the direction of propagation and no E-field in this direction (Transverse Electric)
- ◆ E modes on the other hand are characterized by the fact that they have **only** an E-component in direction of propagation and no H-field in this direction (Transverse Magnetic)
 - → Waveguide modes in a homogeneous waveguide with homogeneous fill (no partial fill with dielectric) are described by a maximum of up to five mode parameters

“Electric” boundary condition for cavities and waveguides

In the stationary (general) case:

- ◆ On perfect conducting surfaces the parallel component of the electric field has to vanish:

$$E_{\parallel} = 0$$

- ◆ There is no perpendicular magnetic field to a conducting surface:

$$B_{\perp} = 0$$

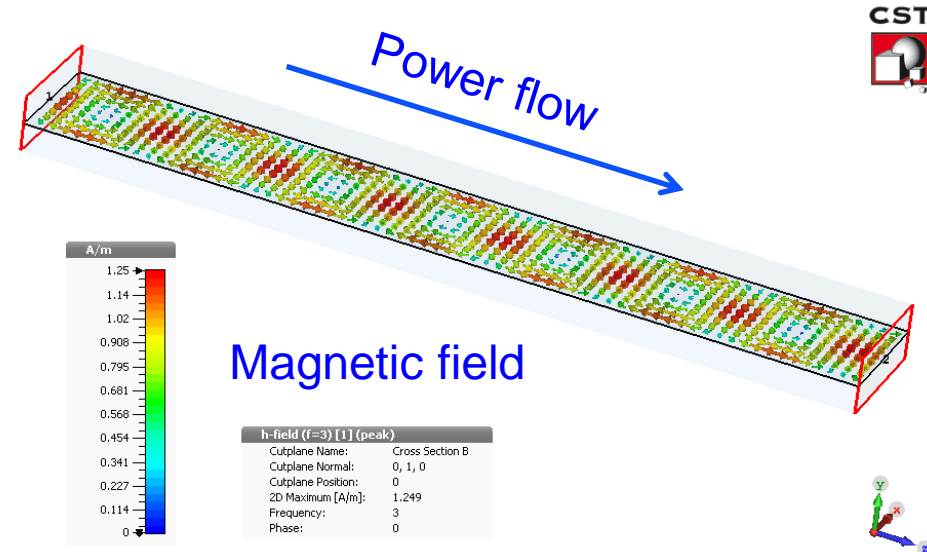
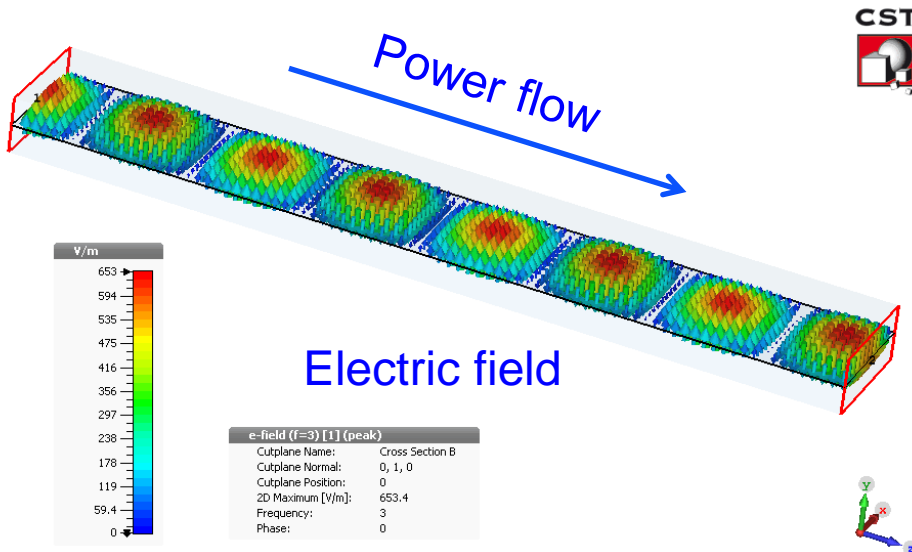
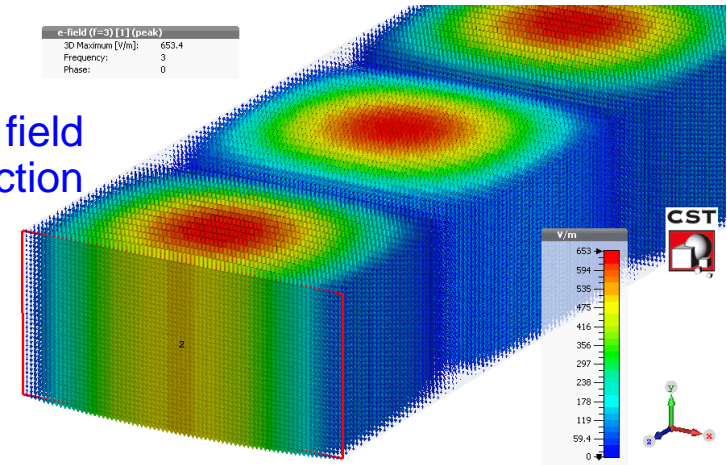
- E-field and B-field are coupled: $B_{\perp} \neq 0$ would cause $E_{\parallel} \neq 0$

Well known waveguide modes (1)

The most well known waveguide modes are:

- ◆ Rectangular waveguide:
 - ◆ H_{10} (TE_{10}) (fundamental mode, depends only from the width)

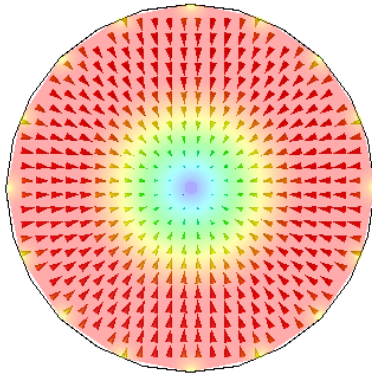
Electric field
in cross section



Well known waveguide modes (2)

- ◆ Cylindrical waveguide:

- ◆ E_{01} (TM_{01}) mode is similar to the mode in coaxial cables.



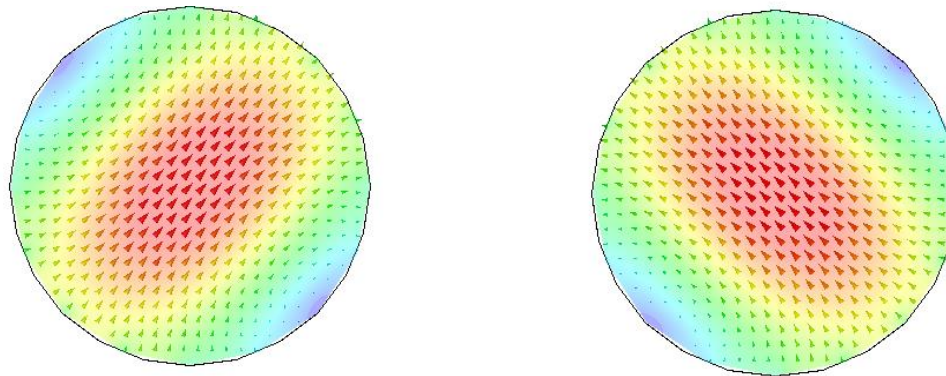
Transverse electric field (cross section)

- ◆ H_{11} (TE_{11}) mode has 2 polarizations, and the lowest cut-off frequency

How is the polarization defined?

Answer: W.r.t. the E field plane!

Why E field? Because it is easier to measure!

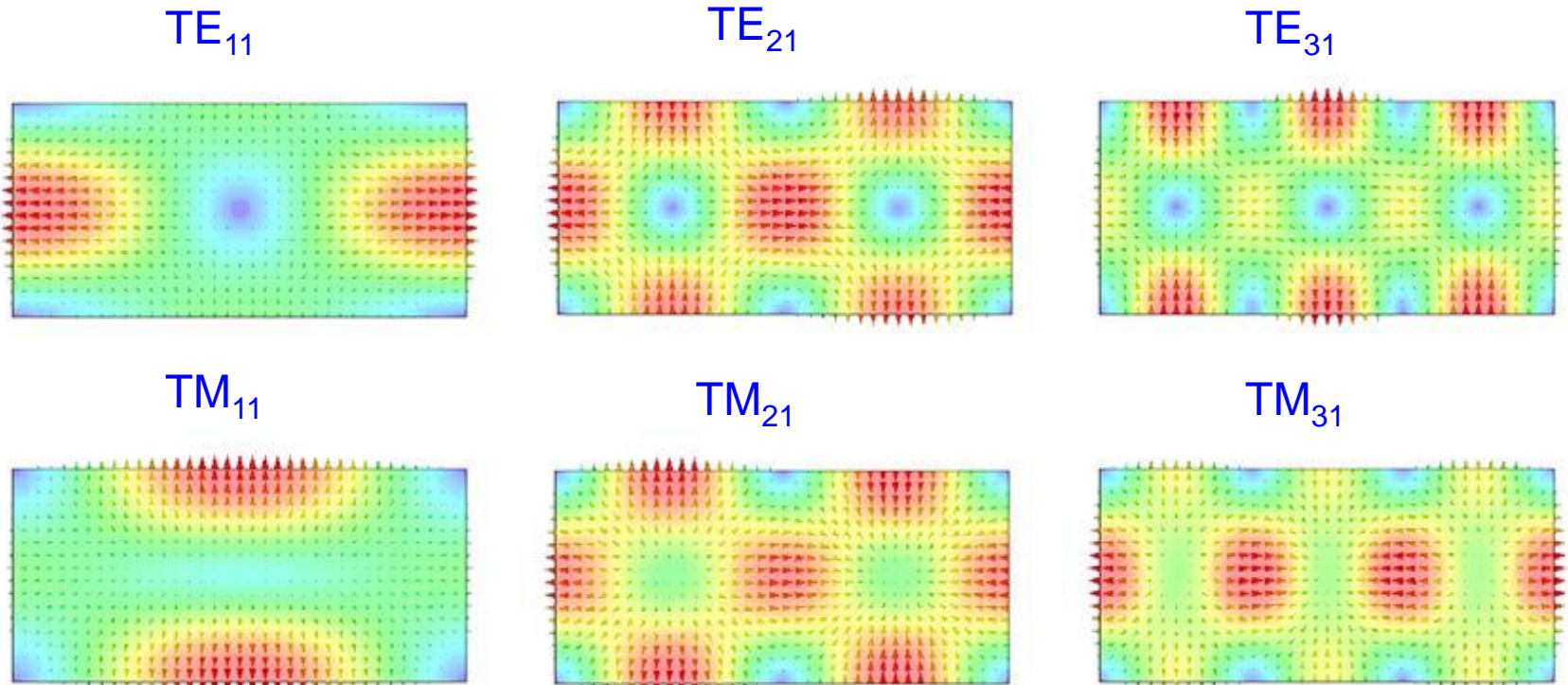


Transverse electric field (cross section)

Pictures: courtesy E. Jensen

Higher order waveguide modes (1)

- ◆ Rectangular waveguide (transverse electric field in cross section):

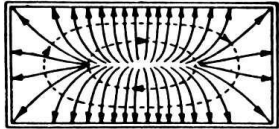


Pictures: courtesy E. Jensen

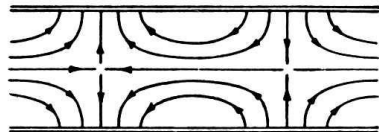
Rectangular waveguide

E- and H- field lines

$$\lambda_c = \frac{2a}{\sqrt{1 + (a/b)^2}}$$



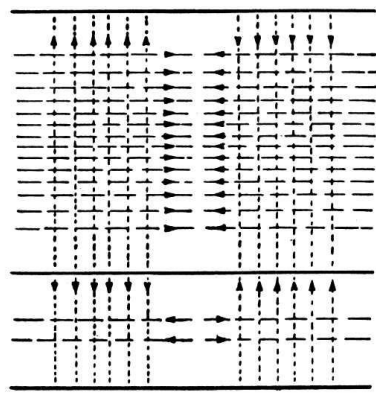
1.



2.

TM₁₁

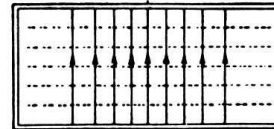
Surface current distribution



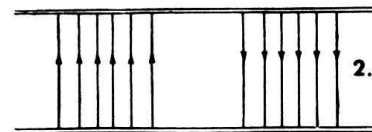
3.

E- and H- field lines

$$\lambda_c = 2a$$



1.

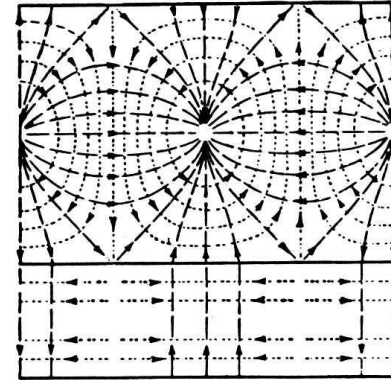


2.

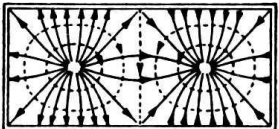
TE₁₀

H₁₀

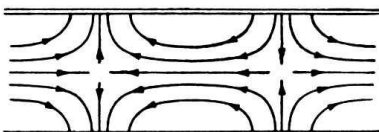
Surface current distribution



$$\lambda_c = \frac{a}{\sqrt{1 + (a/2b)^2}}$$

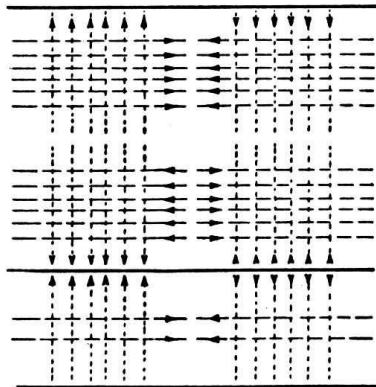


1.



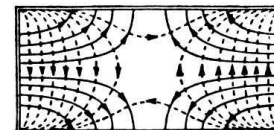
2.

TM₂₁

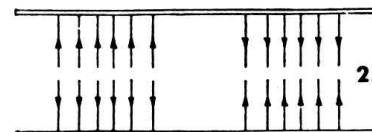


3.

$$\lambda_c = \frac{2a}{\sqrt{1 + (a/b)^2}}$$

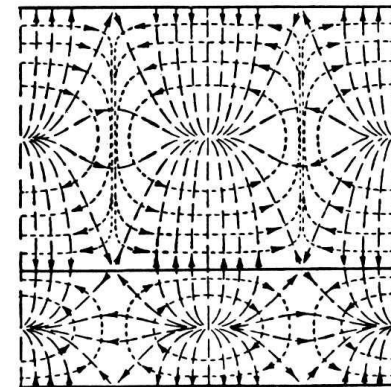


1.



2.

TE₁₁

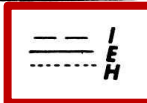


3.

Modes in a rectangular waveguide with dimensions a and b.
solid lines: E-field,
dotted lines: H-field

1. Cross-sectional view
2. Longitudinal view
3. Surface view

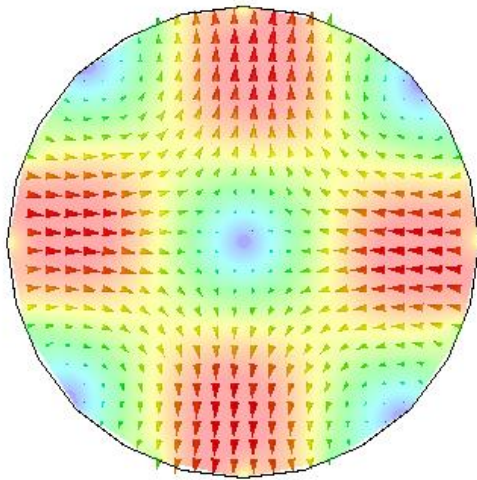
- a. Inside Broad Dimension
- b. Inside Narrow Dimension



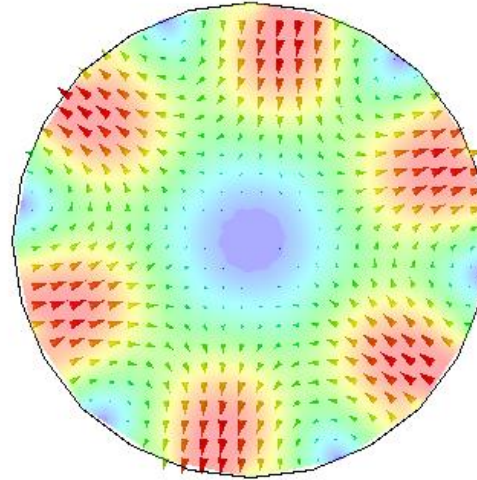
Reprinted from Saad, T S, *Microwave Engineers' Handbook*, Artech House

Higher order waveguide modes (2)

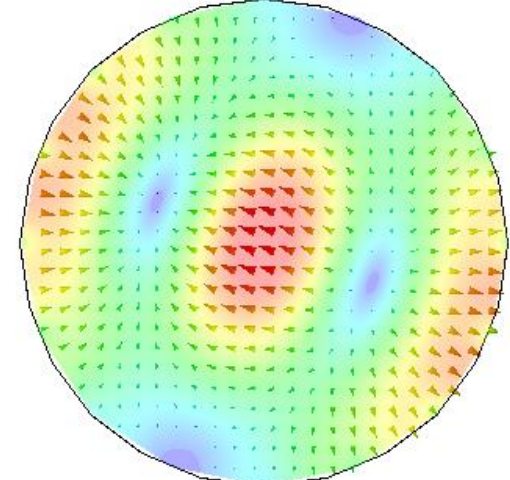
- ◆ Circular waveguide (cross-section plot of the transverse electric field):



TE_{21}



TE_{31}

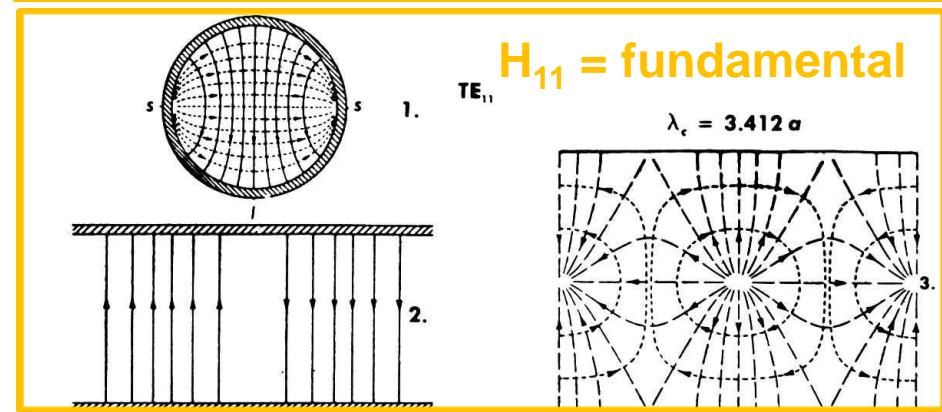
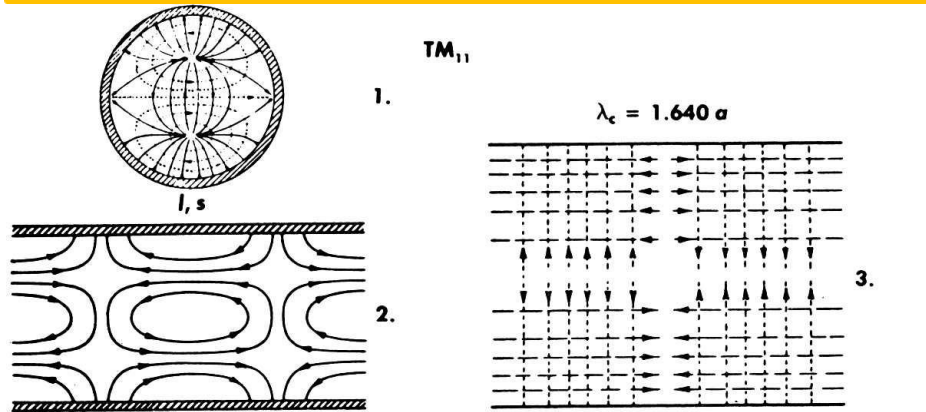
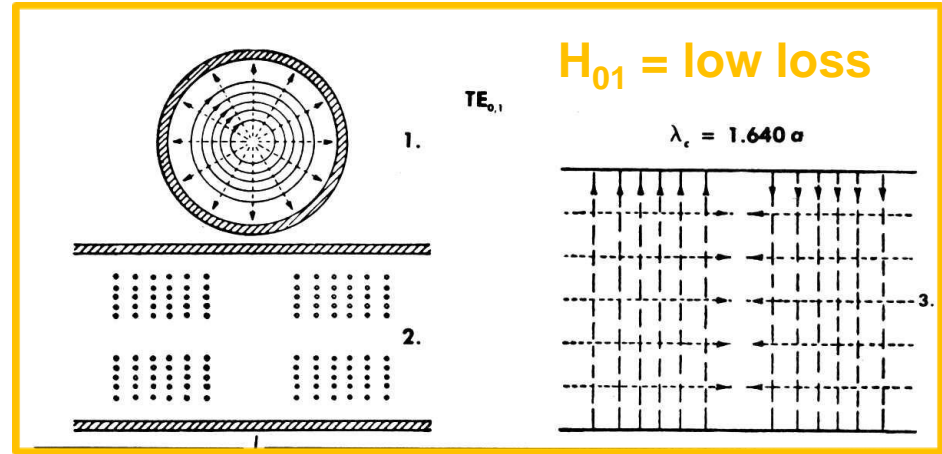
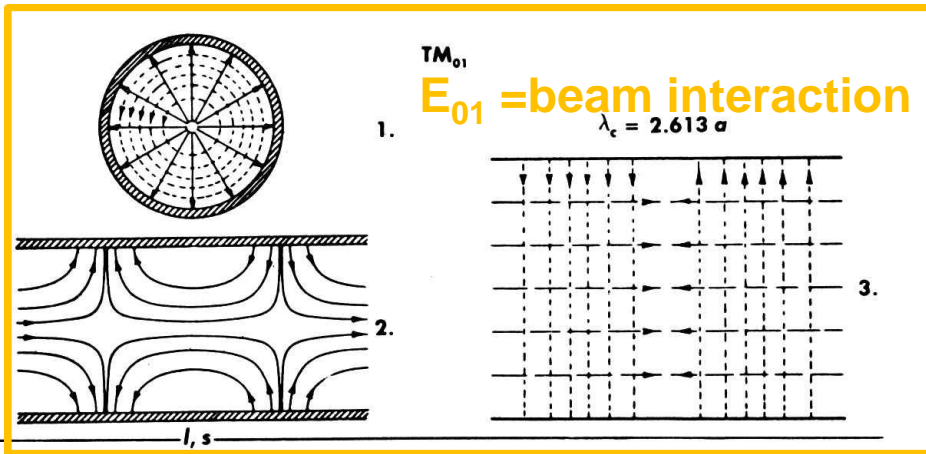


TM_{11}

- ◆ TE_{21} : 2 pairs of maxima in azimuth, one maximum radially
- ◆ TE_{31} : 3 pairs of maxima in azimuth, one maximum radially

Pictures: courtesy E. Jensen

Circular waveguide



1. Cross-sectional view
2. Longitudinal view through plane /-/
3. Surface view from s-s

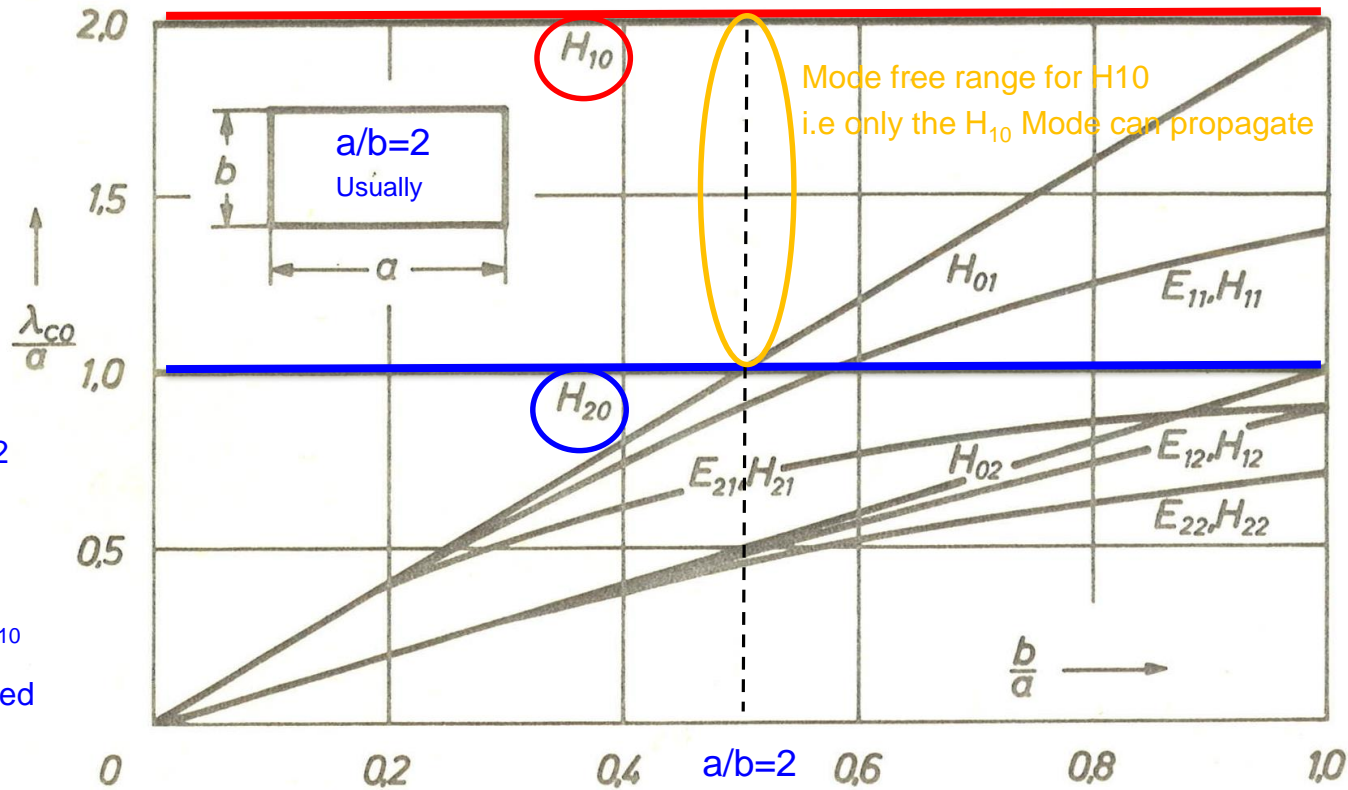
a . Inside Radius



Modes in a circular waveguide with radius a
solid lines: E field, dotted lines: H field
Please note the similarity to the pillbox cavity!

Reprinted from Saad, T S, *Microwave Engineers' Handbook*, Artech House

Mode chart of a rectangular waveguide



Cutoff frequency for H_{10} is at $\lambda/a=2$ or $a = \lambda/2$. This means that even for a very flat ($b/a \ll 1$) waveguide the H_{10} mode can propagate provided that $a > \lambda/2$

λ_{co} = free space wavelength at cutoff

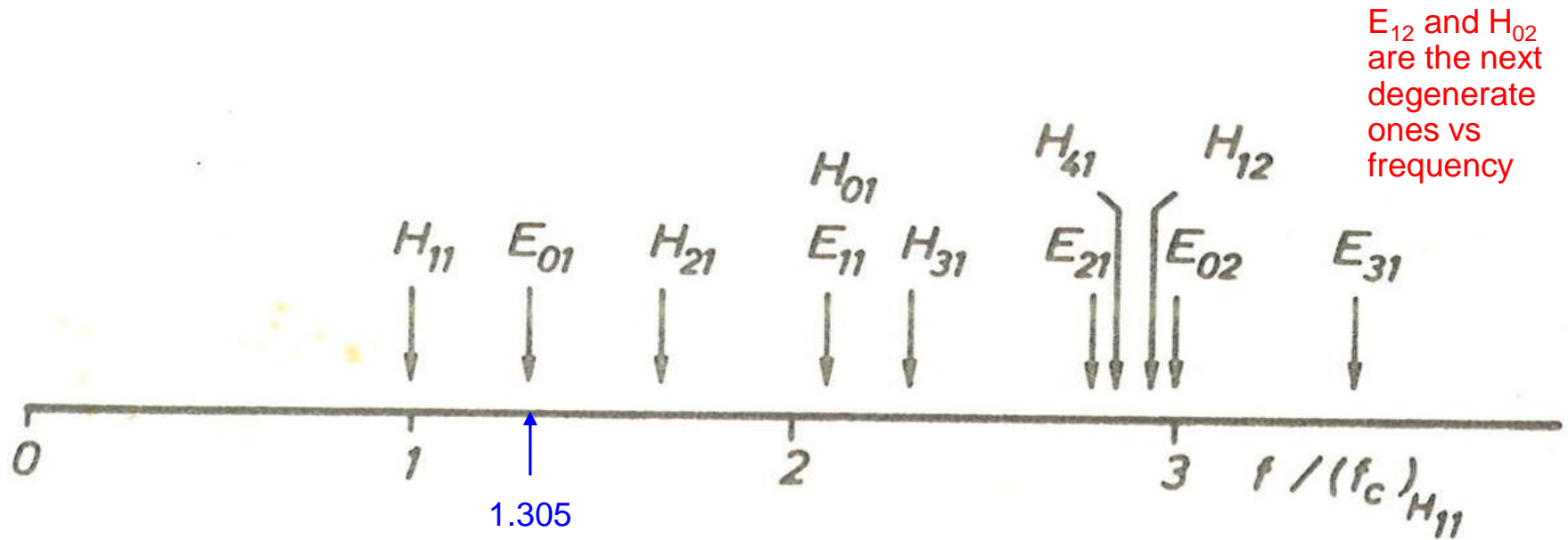
Cutoff frequency = frequency of the mode under consideration; lowest= H_{10}

Some degenerate modes: E_{11} with H_{11} ; E_{21} with H_{21} ; E_{12} with H_{12} ; E_{22} with H_{22}

Remember: H = TE E = TM

Waveguides

Mode chart of a cylindrical waveguide



Why is the reference the H_{11} mode?

Because it is the fundamental mode of the cylindrical waveguide!

Caveat: 2 polarisation states (degenerate) for this mode as it is a dipole mode

Which of those modes are monopole = cylinder symmetric? (E_{01} , H_{01} , E_{02})

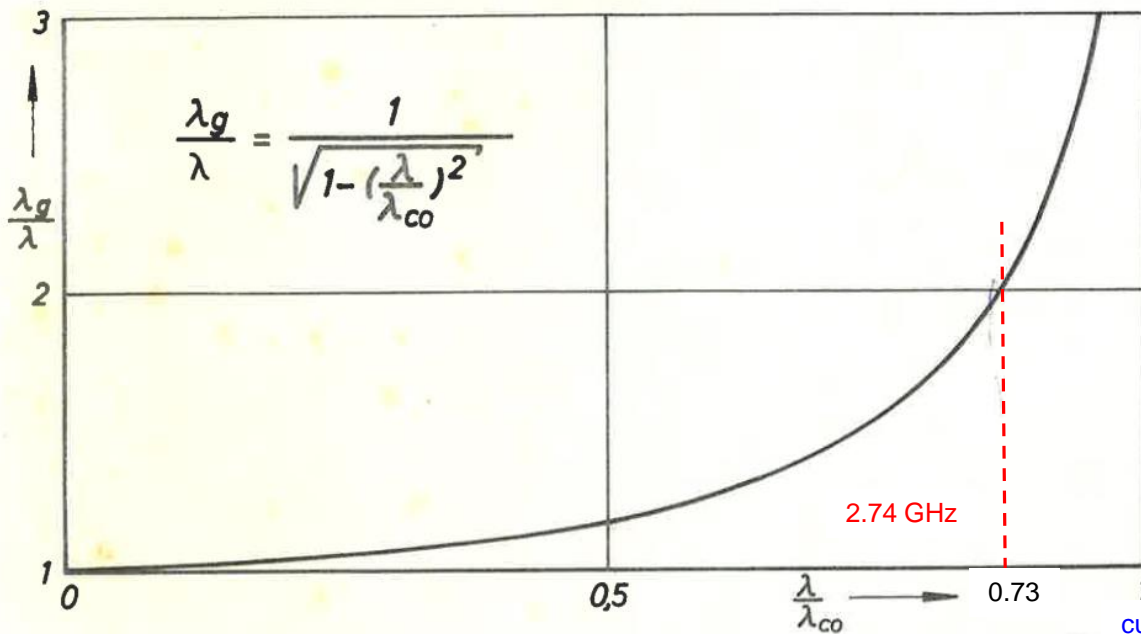
Which of those modes are “degenerate”(same cut-off frequency); H_{01} with E_{11}

Wavelength of a waveguide mode

For ANY waveguide mode in a homogeneous waveguide the wavelength in the waveguide λ_g at waveguide cut-off goes to infinity (phase velocity=infinity)

With increasing frequency the waveguide wavelength is becoming smaller and approaching the free space wavelength for very high (normalized to f_c) frequencies.

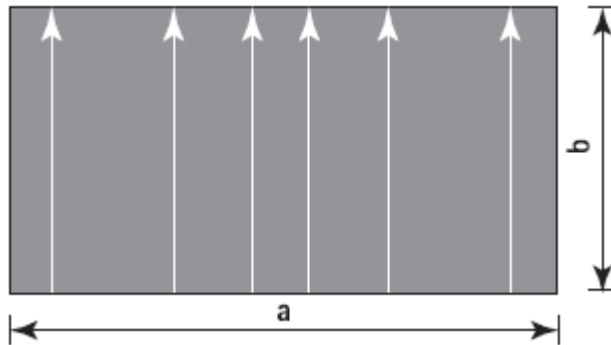
This graph can be useful e.g for finding resonances of higher order modes in coax lines



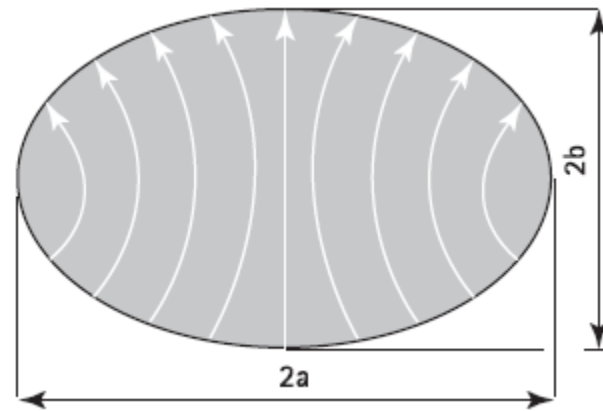
λ = free space wavelength
 λ_g = waveguide wavelength
 λ_{co} = free space wavelength at waveguide cutoff;
 e.g. 15 cm (or 2 GHz) for a rectangular waveguide with $a=7.5$ cm (about S-band)
 Example: read from the graph where the waveguide wavelength is twice the free space wavelength (at about $0.73 = \lambda/\lambda_{co}$)
 cutoff=2GHz which is $\lambda_{co}=15$ cm

Elliptical waveguide (1)

E field lines for TE_{10} mode



E field lines for TE_{c11} mode



The small index c stands for the polarization and refers to sine (s) or cosine (c).

The cut-off wavelengths of the various modes that can propagate in an elliptical waveguide can be found analytically using rather complicated methods or numerically.

Application: beam pipes often have elliptical cross sections. Here the H_{11c} is no longer degenerate with the H_{11s} like for the “round” tube.

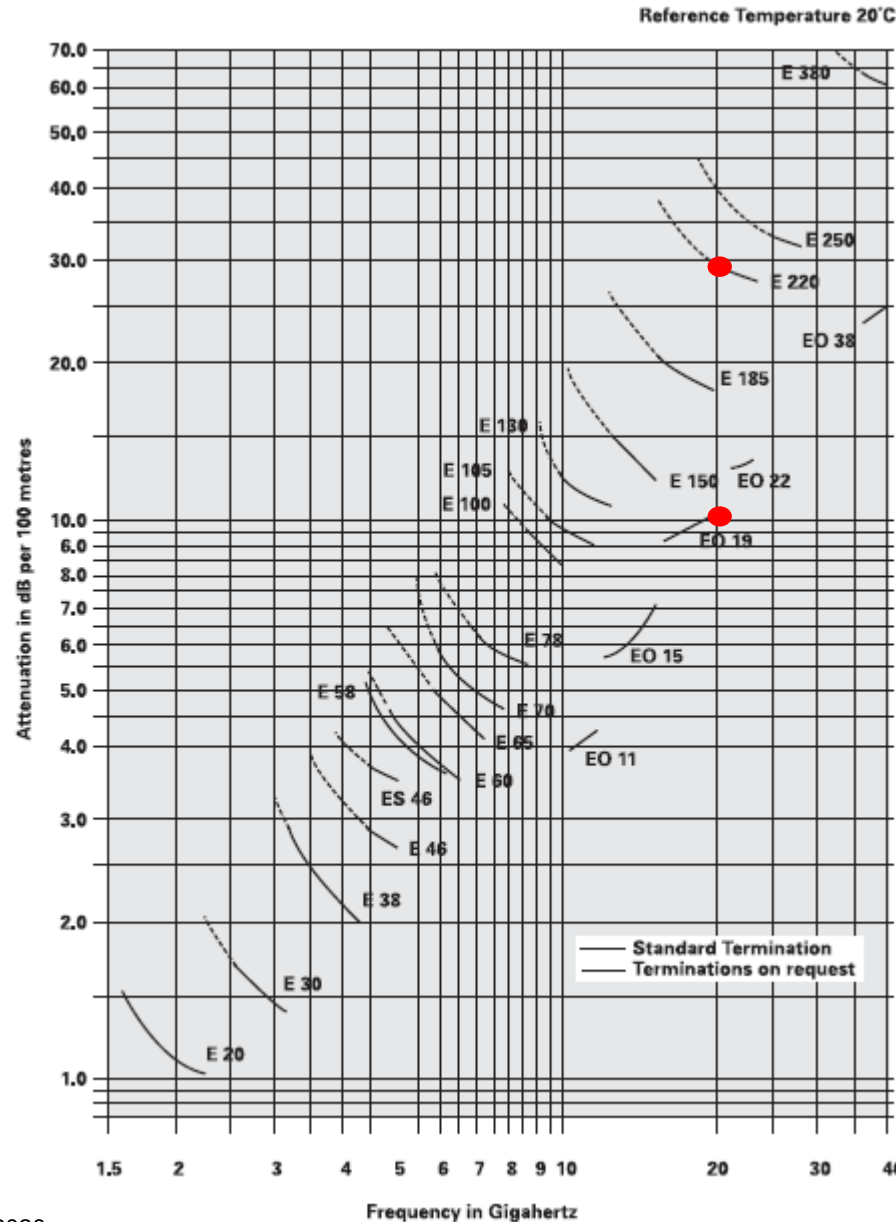
Elliptical waveguide (2)

Typical attenuation values for flexible elliptical waveguides:

Over-moded rigid rectangular cross-section waveguides are rather seldom used in industry.

Application are e.g. for fusion reactor related plasma heating

Reprinted from Flexwell, RFS Datasheet *Elliptical Waveguides*



EO stands for **overmoded waveguide** and E for elliptical

How to read this diagram?

Example: Go to 20 GHz and compare the attenuation of a standard elliptical waveguide (E 220) with an overmoded for the same frequency range e.g. the EO 19 (roughly a factor 3 better)

Note that for normal waveguides (E) the attenuation in the usable frequency range goes down with frequency while for the EOs it increases.

Elliptical waveguide (3)

Datasheet

WVG. TYPE	OPER. FREQ. GHz	CUT OFF FREQ. GHz	MAX. VSWR/ RETURN LOSS, dB	ATTENUATION dB/100m (ft)			AVG. POWER kW MID BAND	GROUP VELOCITY %c MID BAND	GROUP DELAY ns/100m (ft) MID BAND
				IN THE OPERATING FREQUENCY BAND					
				LOW BAND	MID BAND	HIGH BAND			
E30	2.7 - 3.1	1.8	1.128/24.4	1.61 (0.49)	1.49 (0.45)	1.4 (0.43)	30.37	78.4	425.4 (129.7)
E38	3.6 - 4.2	2.4	1.15/23.1	2.37 (0.72)	2.20 (0.67)	2.08 (0.63)	16.27	78.8	423.2 (129.0)
EP38	3.6 - 4.2	2.4	1.083/28.0	2.37 (0.72)	2.20 (0.67)	2.08 (0.63)	16.27	78.8	423.2 (129.0)
E46	4.4 - 5.0	2.88	1.15/23.1	2.92 (0.89)	2.80 (0.85)	2.73 (0.83)	10.93	79.0	422.1 (128.7)
EP46	4.4 - 5.0	2.88	1.083/28.0	2.92 (0.89)	2.80 (0.85)	2.73 (0.83)	10.93	79.0	422.1 (128.7)
ES46	4.4 - 5.0	3.08	1.15/23.1	3.69 (1.12)	3.55 (1.08)	3.49 (1.06)	8.39	75.5	441.6 (134.6)
ESP46	4.4 - 5.0	3.08	1.073/29.1	3.69 (1.12)	3.55 (1.08)	3.49 (1.06)	8.39	75.5	441.6 (134.6)
EP58	4.4 - 6.2	3.56	1.083/28.0	5.10 (1.55)	3.96 (1.21)	3.60 (1.10)	6.54	74.1	450.3 (137.2)
E60	5.6 - 6.425	3.65	1.15/23.1	4.15 (1.27)	3.95 (1.20)	3.80 (1.16)	7.24	79.4	420.3 (128.1)
EP60	5.6 - 6.425	3.65	1.062/30.5	4.15 (1.27)	3.95 (1.20)	3.80 (1.16)	7.24	79.4	420.3 (128.1)
E65	5.9 - 7.125	4.01	1.15/23.1	4.9 (1.50)	4.5 (1.37)	4.25 (1.30)	5.26	78.7	423.8 (129.2)
EP65	5.9 - 7.125	4.01	1.062/30.5	4.9 (1.50)	4.5 (1.37)	4.25 (1.30)	5.26	78.7	423.8 (129.2)
EP70	6.4 - 7.75	4.34	1.062/30.5	5.5 (1.68)	5.0 (1.52)	4.8 (1.46)	4.65	79.1	421.5 (128.5)
E78	7.1 - 8.5	4.72	1.15/23.1	6.2 (1.89)	5.8 (1.77)	5.6 (1.71)	3.67	79.6	419.0 (127.7)
EP78	7.1 - 8.5	4.72	1.062/30.5	6.2 (1.89)	5.8 (1.77)	5.6 (1.71)	3.67	79.6	419.0 (127.7)
EP100	9.0 - 10.0	6.43	1.105/26.0	9.5 (2.90)	8.9 (2.71)	8.4 (2.56)	1.91	73.6	453.1 (138.1)
E105	10.0 - 11.7	6.49	1.15/23.1	9.6 (2.92)	9.2 (2.79)	8.9 (2.71)	1.77	79.9	417.3 (127.2)
EP105	10.0 - 11.7	6.49	1.062/30.5	9.6 (2.92)	9.2 (2.79)	8.9 (2.71)	1.77	79.9	417.3 (127.2)
E130	10.7 - 13.25	7.43	1.15/23.1	12.6 (3.84)	11.5 (3.52)	11.1 (3.39)	1.22	78.5	424.8 (129.5)
EP130	10.7 - 13.25	7.43	1.083/28.0	12.6 (3.84)	11.5 (3.52)	11.1 (3.39)	1.22	78.5	424.8 (129.5)
E150	13.4 - 15.35	8.64	1.15/23.1	14.6 (4.44)	14.0 (4.26)	13.7 (4.16)	0.88	79.7	418.6 (127.6)
EP150	13.4 - 15.35	8.64	1.083/28.0	14.6 (4.44)	14.0 (4.26)	13.7 (4.16)	0.88	79.7	418.6 (127.6)
E185	17.3 - 19.7	11.06	1.15/23.1	20.3 (6.17)	19.4 (5.92)	18.9 (5.75)	0.51	80.2	416.1 (126.8)
EP185	17.3 - 19.7	11.06	1.083/28.0	20.3 (6.17)	19.4 (5.92)	18.9 (5.75)	0.51	80.2	416.1 (126.8)
E220	21.2 - 23.6	13.36	1.105/26.0	28.8 (8.77)	28.3 (8.63)	28.1 (8.56)	0.31	80.3	415.6 (126.7)
E250	24.25 - 26.5	15.06	1.15/23.1	33.2 (10.1)	32.4 (9.88)	32.0 (9.75)	0.31	80.5	414.2 (126.3)
E300	27.5 - 33.4	19.05	1.15/23.1	50.0 (15.2)	46.0 (14.0)	44.4 (13.5)	0.14	78.1	427.1 (130.2)
E380	37.0 - 39.5	23.45	1.15/23.1	61.3 (18.7)	60.7 (18.5)	60.0 (18.3)	0.09	79.1	421.9 (128.6)

General Solution for a Rectangular (brick-type) Cavity

When describing field components in a Cartesian coordinates system (assuming a homogeneous and isotropic material in a space charge free volume) with harmonic functions (angular frequency ω) then each Cartesian component needs to fulfill Laplace's equation:

$$\Delta\Psi + k_0^2 \varepsilon_r \mu_r \Psi = 0$$

$$k_0^2 = \omega^2 \varepsilon_0 \mu_0 \quad k_0 \text{ free space wave number}$$



$$k_0 = 2\pi / \lambda_0 \quad \lambda_0 \text{ free space wave length}$$

As a general solution we can use the product ansatz for Ψ

$$\Psi = X(x)Y(y)Z(z)$$

From this one obtains the general solution for Ψ (Ψ may be a vector potential or field)

$$\Psi = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} A \cdot \cos(k_x x) + B \cdot \sin(k_x x) \\ A' \cdot e^{-jk_x x} + B' \cdot e^{jk_x x} \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} C \cdot \cos(k_y y) + D \cdot \sin(k_y y) \\ C' \cdot e^{-jk_y y} + D' \cdot e^{jk_y y} \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} E \cdot \cos(k_z z) + F \cdot \sin(k_z z) \\ E' \cdot e^{-jk_z z} + F' \cdot e^{jk_z z} \end{array} \right\}$$

standing waves 
travelling waves 

with the separation condition

$$\boxed{(k_x)^2 + (k_y)^2 + (k_z)^2 = (k_0)^2 \varepsilon_r \mu_r}$$

$$k_x = \frac{n\pi}{a}$$

$$k_y = \frac{m\pi}{b}$$

$$k_z = \frac{p\pi}{c}$$

Cavity basics

see also: G. Dome, RF Theory
Proceeding Oxford CAS, April 91
CERN Yellow Report 92-03, Vol. I;

W. Demtroeder, Experimentalphysik 2,
Springer 2004

General Solution in Cylindrical Coordinates

As a general solution we can use the product ansatz for Ψ

$$\Psi = R(\rho)F(\varphi)Z(z)$$

From this one obtains the general solution for Ψ (Ψ may be a vector potential or field)

$$\Psi = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} A \cdot J_m(k_\rho \rho) + B \cdot N_m(k_\rho \rho) \\ A' \cdot H_m^{(2)}(k_\rho \rho) + B' \cdot H_m^{(1)}(k_\rho \rho) \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} C \cdot \cos(m\varphi) + D \cdot \sin(m\varphi) \\ C' \cdot e^{-jm\varphi} + D' \cdot e^{jm\varphi} \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} E \cdot \cos(k_z z) + F \cdot \sin(k_z z) \\ E' \cdot e^{-jk_z z} + F' \cdot e^{jk_z z} \end{array} \right\}$$

standing waves ←
travelling waves ←

and the functions

J_m ... cylindrical harmonics of the Bessel function of order m

N_m ... cylindrical harmonics of the Neumann function of order m

$H_m^{(1)}$... Hankel function of the first kind of order m (outward travelling wave)

$H_m^{(2)}$... Hankel function of the second kind of order m (inward travelling wave)

$$H_m^{(1)} = J_m + jN_m$$

$$H_m^{(2)} = J_m - jN_m$$

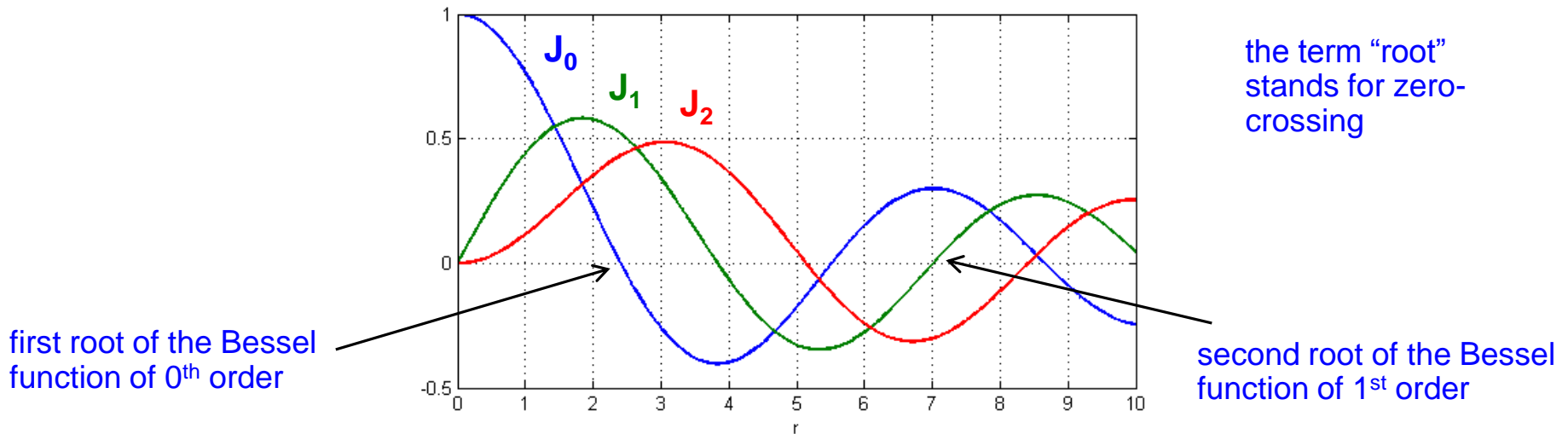
Here the separation condition is

$$\boxed{(k_\rho)^2 + (k_z)^2 = (k_0)^2 \varepsilon_r \mu_r}$$

Hint: the index m indicating the order of the Bessel and Neumann function shows up again in the argument of the sine and cosine for the azimuthal dependency.

Bessel Functions (1)

A nice example of the derivation of a Bessel function is the solution of the cylinder problem of the capacitor given in the Feynman reference (Bessel function via a series expansion).



- ◆ Comment: For the generalized solution of cylinder symmetrical boundary value problems (e.g. higher order modes on a coaxial resonator) Neumann functions are required. Standing wave patterns are described by Bessel- and Neumann functions respectively, radially travelling waves in terms of Hankel functions.
- ◆ Hint: Sometimes the **Bessel function** is called **Bessel function of first kind**, a **Neumann** (or **Weber's**) **function** is a **Bessel function of second kind**, and a **Hankel function** is called a **Bessel function of third kind**.

Bessel Functions (2)

Some practical numerical values:

k-th roots of the first five Bessel functions:

k	$J_0(x)$	$J_1(x)$	$J_2(x)$	$J_3(x)$	$J_4(x)$	$J_5(x)$
1	2.4048	3.8317	5.1356	6.3802	7.5883	8.7715
2	5.5201	7.0156	8.4172	9.7610	11.0647	12.3386
3	8.6537	10.1735	11.6198	13.0152	14.3725	15.7002
4	11.7915	13.3237	14.7960	16.2235	17.6160	18.9801
5	14.9309	16.4706	17.9598	19.4094	20.8269	22.2178

See: <http://mathworld.wolfram.com/BesselFunctionZeros.html>

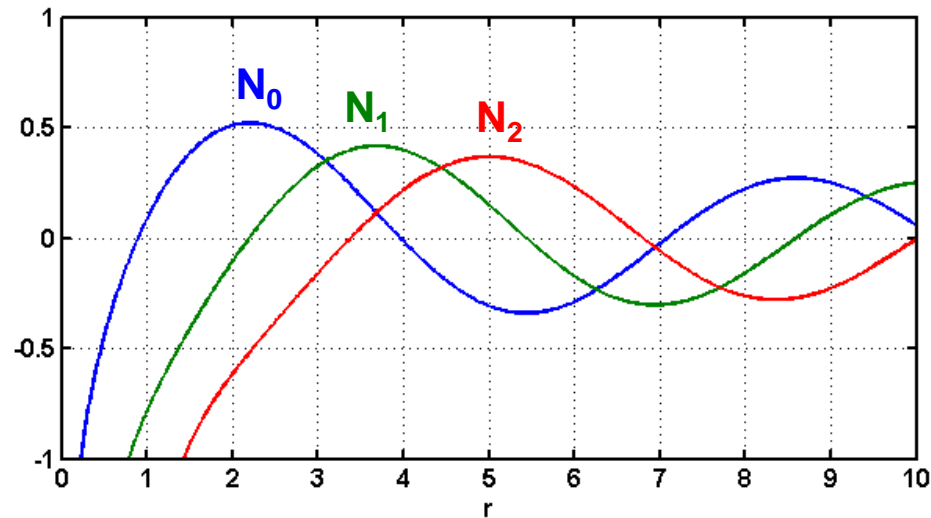
Bessel Functions (3)

For determination of cutoff frequencies of E and H type waveguide modes (travelling wave case):

$n \backslash m$	0	1	2	3
1	H_{01} 3,832	H_{11} 1,841	H_{21} 3,054	H_{31} 4,201
2	H_{02} 7,016	H_{12} 5,331	H_{22} 6,706	H_{32} 8,015
3	H_{03} 10,173	H_{13} 8,536	H_{23} 9,969	H_{33} 11,346

$n \backslash m$	0	1	2	3
1	E_{01} 2,405	E_{11} 3,832	E_{21} 5,136	E_{31} 6,380
2	E_{02} 5,520	E_{12} 7,016	E_{22} 8,417	E_{32} 9,761
3	E_{03} 8,654	E_{13} 10,173	E_{23} 11,620	E_{33} 13,015

Neumann Functions

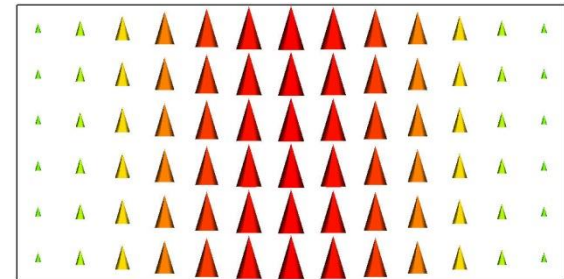


Neumann functions are often also denoted as $Y_m(r)$.

Important f.e. for coaxial cables. The conductor in the core averts the pole at $r=0$

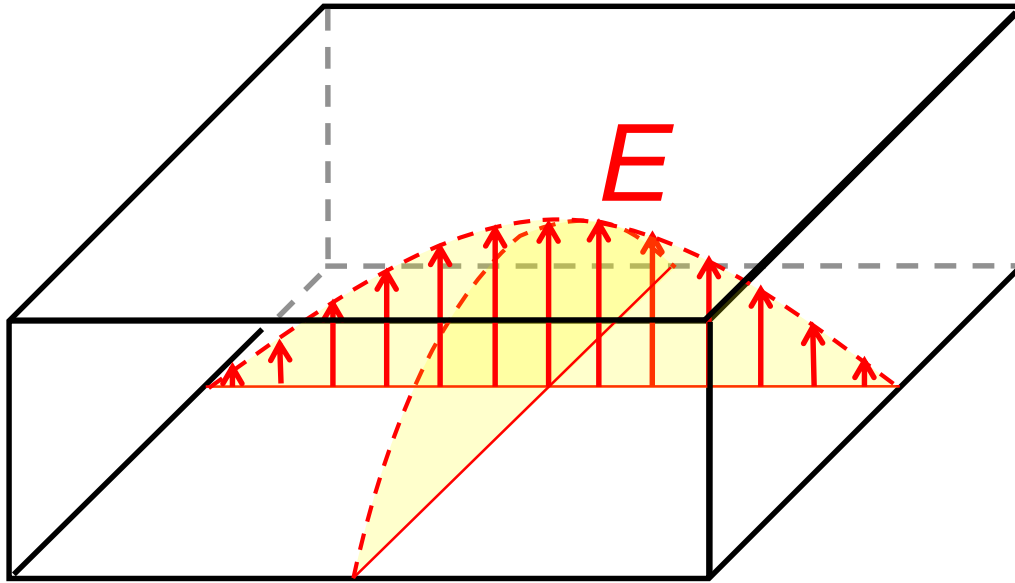
Electromagnetic waves

- ◆ Propagation of electromagnetic waves inside empty metallic channels is possible: there exist solutions of Maxwell's equations describing waves
- ◆ These waves are called waveguide modes
- ◆ There exist two types of waves,
 - Transverse electric (TE) modes:
→ the electric field has only transverse components
 - Transverse magnetic (TM) modes:
→ the magnetic field has only transverse components
- ◆ Propagate at above a characteristic cut-off frequency
- ◆ In a rectangular waveguide, the first mode that can propagate is the TE₁₀ mode. The condition for propagation is that half of a wavelength can “fit” into the cross-section => cut-off wavelength $\lambda_c = 2a$
- ◆ The modes are named according to the number of field maxima they have along each dimension. The E field of the TE₁₀ mode for instance has 1 maximum along x and 0 maxima along the y axis.
- ◆ For circular waveguides, the maxima are counted in the radial and azimuthal direction



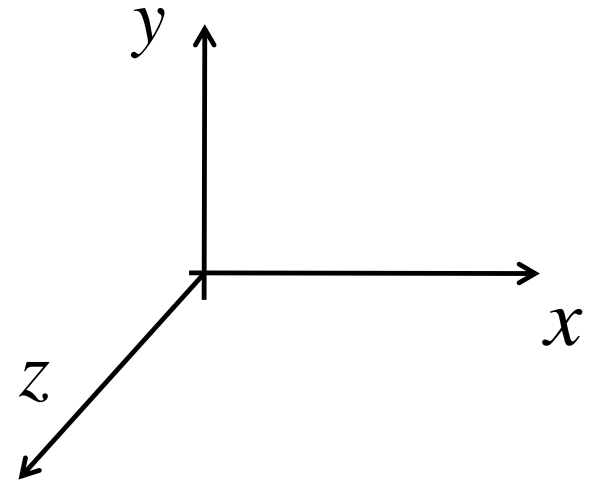
Transverse E-field of the fundamental TE₁₀ mode

Mode Indices in Resonators (1)

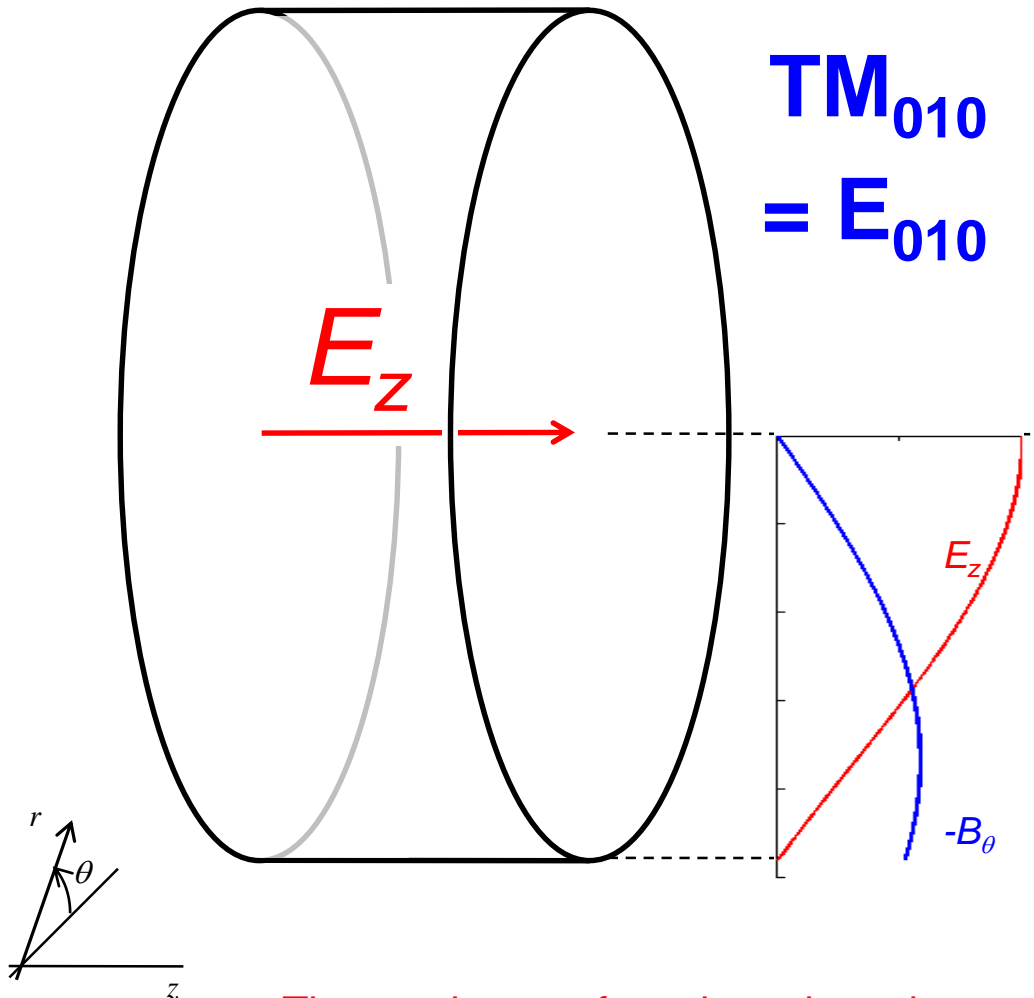


$$\text{TE}_{101} \\ = \text{H}_{101}$$

For a structure in rectangular coordinates the mode indices simply indicate the **number of half waves** (standing waves) along the respective axis. Here we have one maximum along the x-axis, no maximum in vertical dimension (y-axis), and one maximum along the z-axis. TE_{101} corresponds to TE_{xyz}



Mode Indices in Resonators (2)



The number m of maxima along the azimuth is coupled to the order of the Bessel function (see slide on theory).

For a structure in cylindrical coordinates:

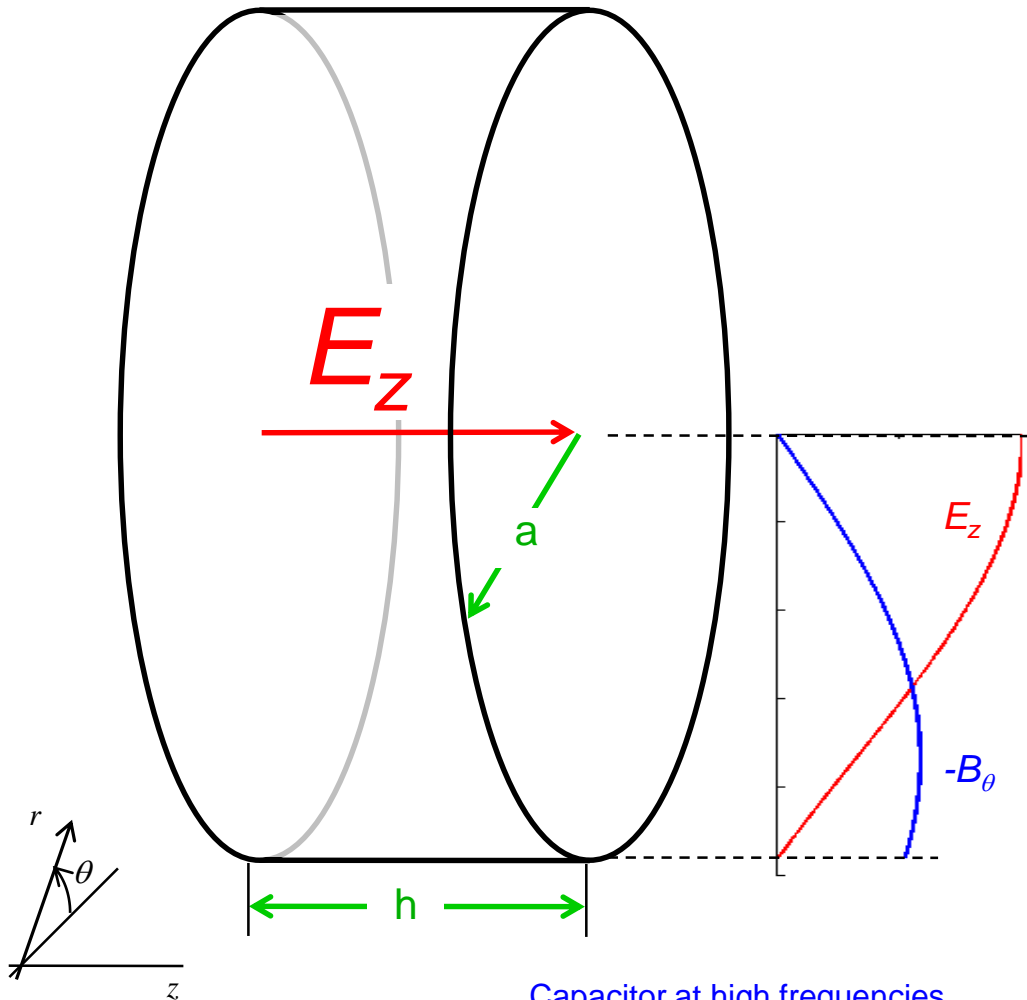
The first index is the order of the Bessel function or in general cylindrical function.

The second index indicates “the root” of the cylindrical function which is the number of zero-crossings.

The third index is the number of half waves (maxima) along the z -axis.

Hint: In an empty pillbox there will be no Neumann function as it has a **pole in the center** (conservation of energy). However we need Bessel and Neumann functions for higher order modes of **coaxial** structures.

Fields in a pillbox cavity



Cavity height: h
cavity radius: a

TM₀₁₀ mode resonance
= E₀₁₀ mode resonance for

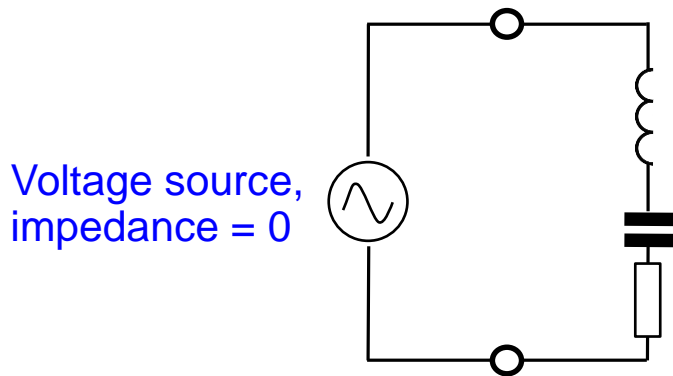
$$a = 0.383\lambda = 1.53\lambda / 4$$

TM₀₁₀ resonance frequency
independent of h !!!

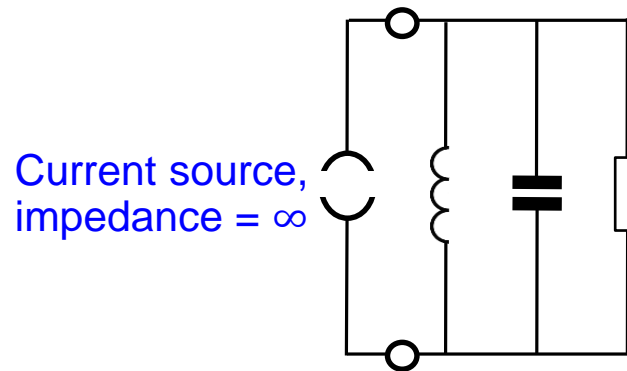
In the cylindrical geometry the E and H fields are proportional to Bessel functions for the radial dependency.

Capacitor at high frequencies,
The Feynman Lectures on Physics

Basic equivalent circuits



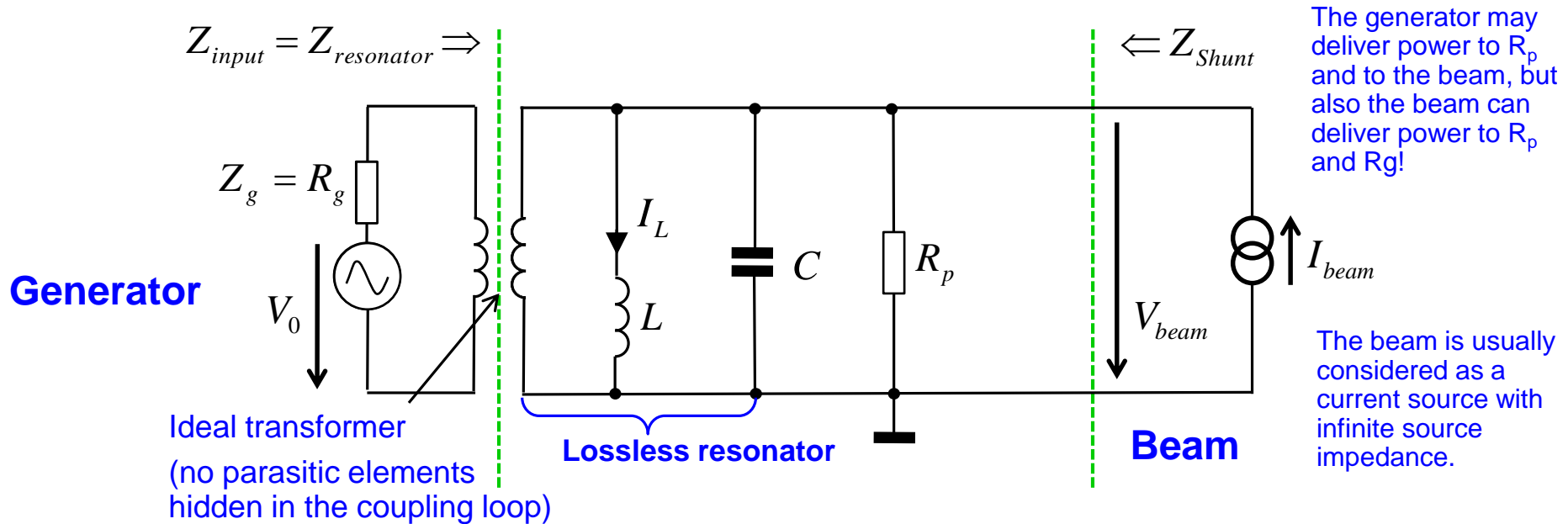
(a)



(b)

- ◆ Often an equivalent circuit with elements in series is used (a)
- ◆ However for our purpose a circuit with parallel elements (b) is preferable since an efficient acceleration of a beam requires the maximum possible voltage and such a circuit has maximum impedance at resonance
- ◆ Hence the cavity is a transformer with maximum impedance seen by the beam

Equivalent circuit (1)



R_p = resistor representing the losses of the parallel RLC equivalent circuit (resonator losses)

We have Resonance condition, when $\omega L = \frac{1}{\omega C}$

→ Resonance frequency: $\omega_{res} = 2\pi f_{res} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} \Rightarrow f_{res} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$

The Quality Factor (1)

- ◆ The quality (Q) factor of a resonant circuit is defined as 2π the ratio of the stored energy W over the energy dissipated P in one oscillation cycle.

$$Q = 2\pi W \frac{f_{RES}}{P} = \frac{\omega_{RES}W}{P}$$

- ◆ The Q factor can be given as
 - Q_0 : Unloaded Q factor of the unperturbed system, e.g. an isolated cavity without external loading
 - Q_L : Loaded Q factor with measurement or power supply circuits connected
 - Q_{ext} : External Q factor of the measurement circuits without cavity
- ◆ These Q factors are related by

$$\frac{1}{Q_L} = \frac{1}{Q_0} + \frac{1}{Q_{ext}}$$

The Quality Factor (2)

- ◆ Q as defined in a Circuit Theory Textbook:

$$Q = \frac{R}{\omega_{res} L}$$

- ◆ Q as defined in a Field Theory Textbook:

$$Q = 2\pi \frac{\text{energy stored in the resonator}}{\text{energy dissipated per period}}$$

- ◆ Q as defined in an optoelectronics Textbook:

$$Q = \frac{\nu_0}{\nu_{1/2}}$$

ν_0 = the resonant frequency

$\nu_{1/2}$ = "full - width at half (power) maximum" (FWHM = 3dB point)

Equivalent circuit (2)

- ◆ Characteristic impedance “R upon Q”

(R/Q) is independent of Q and a pure geometry factor for any cavity or resonator! This lumped element formula here assumes a HOMOGENEOUS field in the capacitor !

- ◆ Stored energy at resonance

- ◆ Dissipated power

- ◆ Q-factor

- ◆ Shunt impedance (circuit definition)

- ◆ Tuning sensitivity

- ◆ Coupling parameter (shunt impedance over generator or feeder impedance Z)

$$X = \frac{R}{Q} = \omega_{res} L = \frac{1}{\omega_{res} C} = \sqrt{L/C}$$

$$W = W_C + W_L = \frac{CV_c^2}{2} = \frac{LI_L^2}{2}$$

$$P = \frac{V_c^2}{2R}$$

V_c : Peak voltage at capacitor
 I_L : Peak current in the coil

$$Q = \frac{R}{X} = \frac{\omega_{res} W}{P}$$

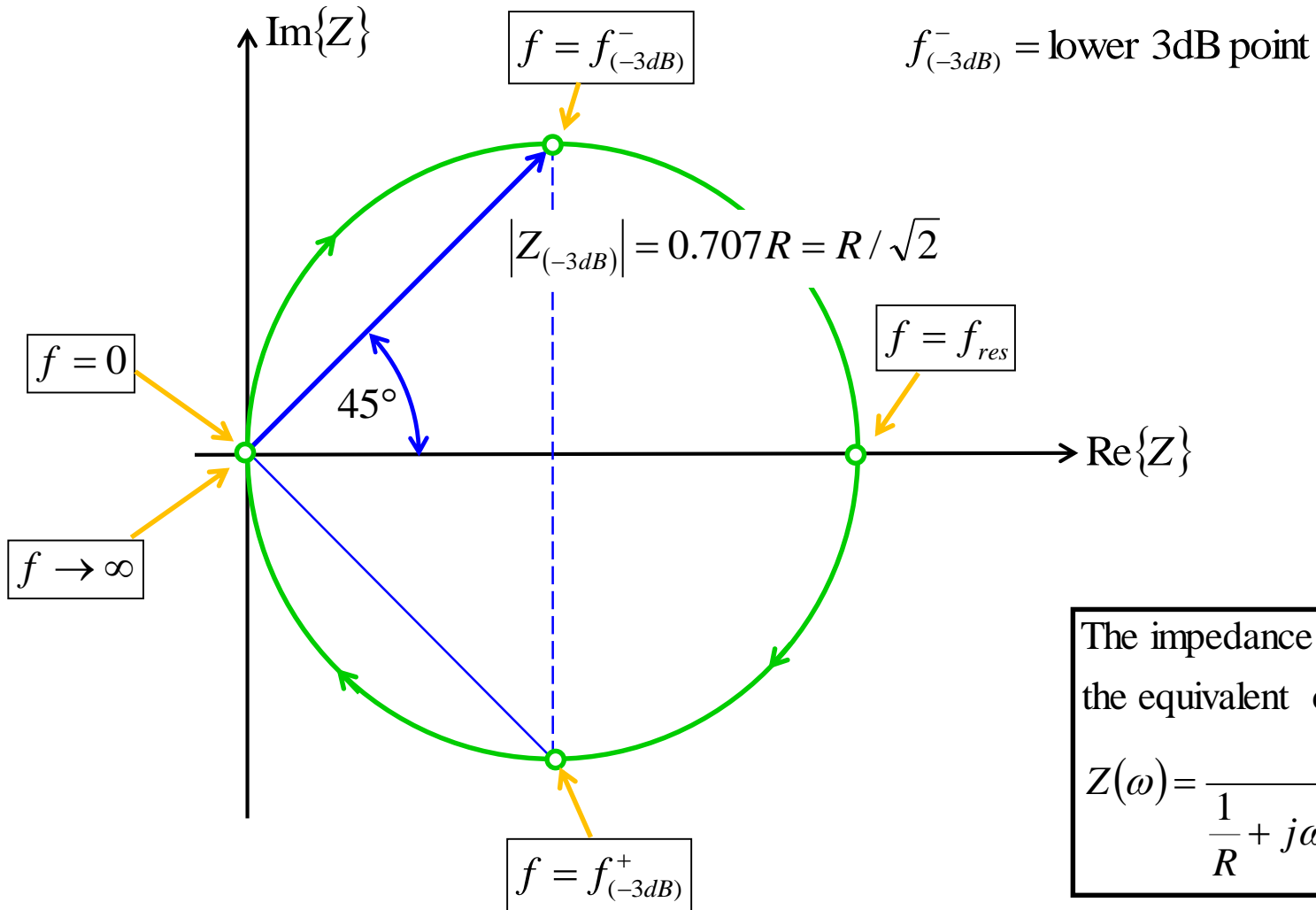
←..... W: stored energy
←..... P: dissipated power

$$R = \frac{V_c^2}{2P}$$

$$\frac{\Delta f}{f} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta C}{C} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta L}{L}$$

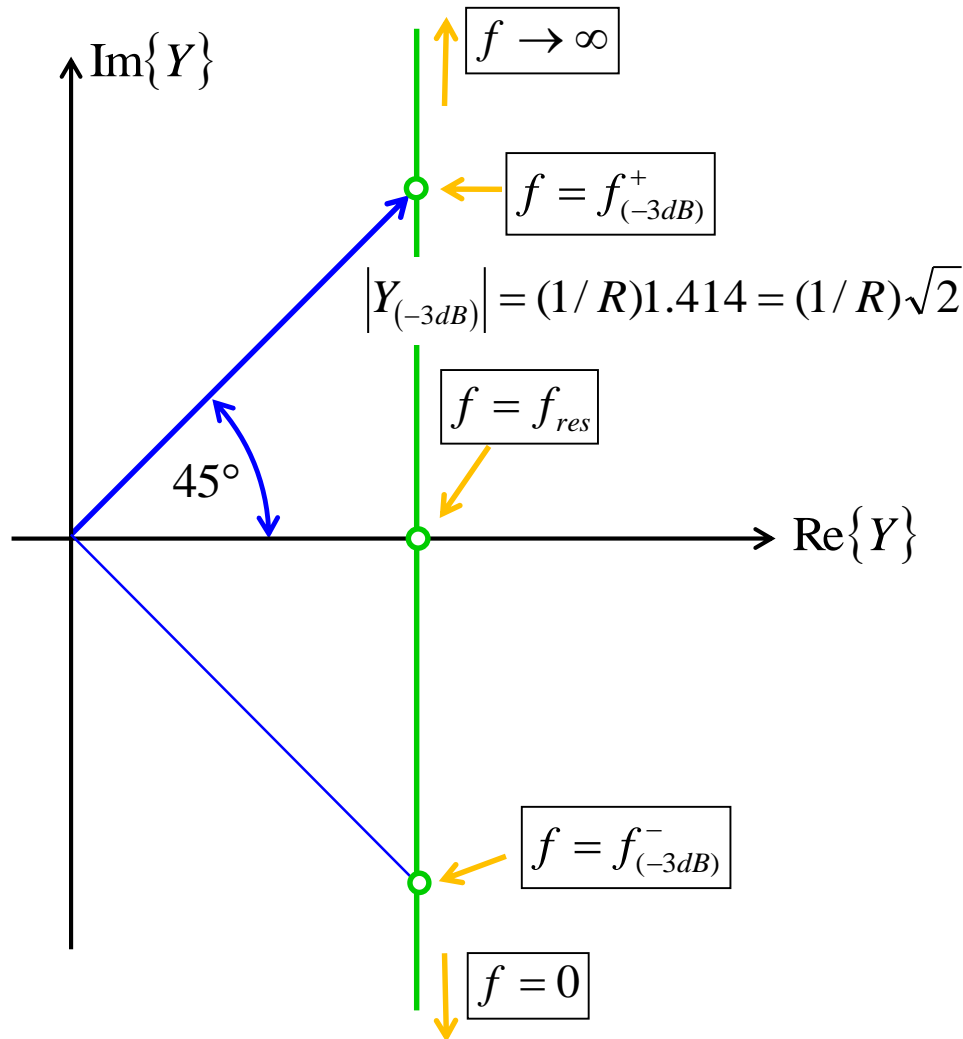
$$k^2 = \frac{R}{R_{input}}$$

Input Impedance: Z-plane



$f_{(-3dB)}^+ = \text{upper } 3\text{dB point}$

Input Admittance: Y-plane



Evaluating the admittance Y for the equivalent circuit we get

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y &= \frac{1}{Z} = \frac{1}{R} + j\omega C + \frac{1}{j\omega L} \\
 &= \frac{1}{R} + j\left(\omega C - \frac{1}{\omega L}\right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{R} + j\frac{1}{R/Q} \left(\frac{f}{f_{res}} - \frac{f_{res}}{f}\right)
 \end{aligned}$$

3 dB bandwidth

In the Z-plane (= impedance) $|Z|$ reduces to 0.707 to the value at resonance.

The real part of Z becomes 50% of the real part of that at resonance.

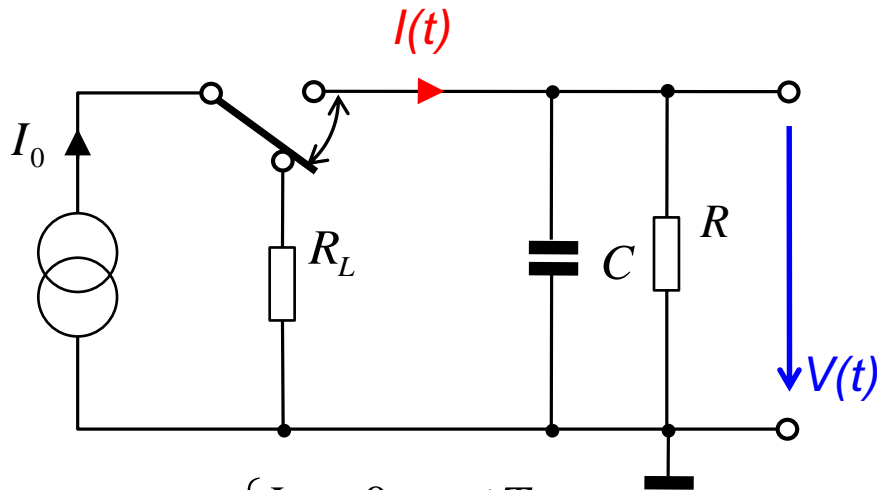
The phase deviates +/- 45 degrees from the phase at resonance.

0.707 in voltage = unit voltage – 3dB (decibel)

0.707 in voltage = 50% in power since power $\sim V^2$

The Q factor of a resonance peak or dip can be calculated from the center frequency f_{res} and the 3 dB bandwidth $\Delta f = f_{(-3dB)}^+ - f_{(-3dB)}^-$ as $Q = f_{res} / \Delta f$.

Transients on an RC-Element (1)

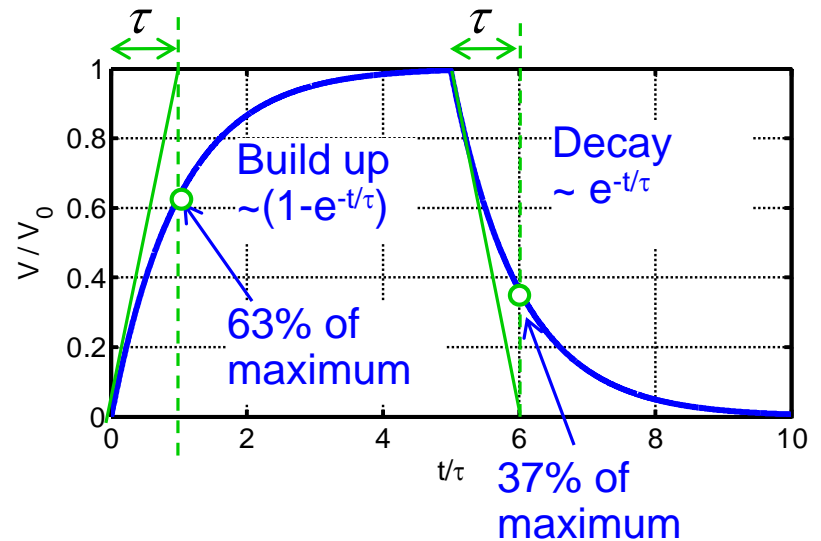
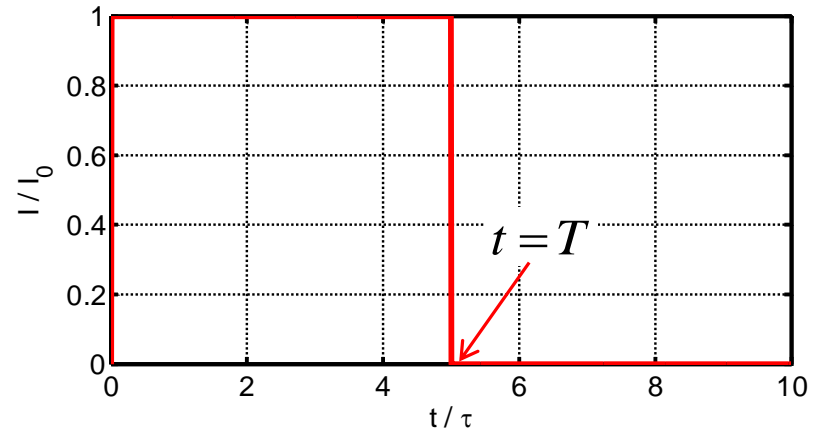


$$I(t) = \begin{cases} I_0 & 0 < t \leq T \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

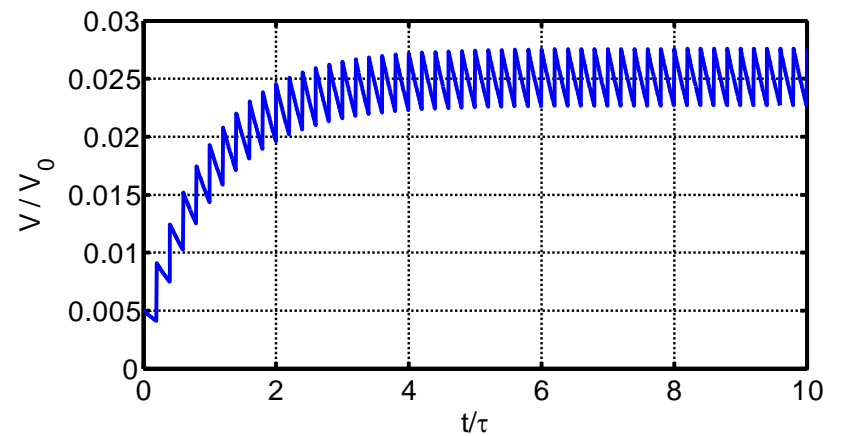
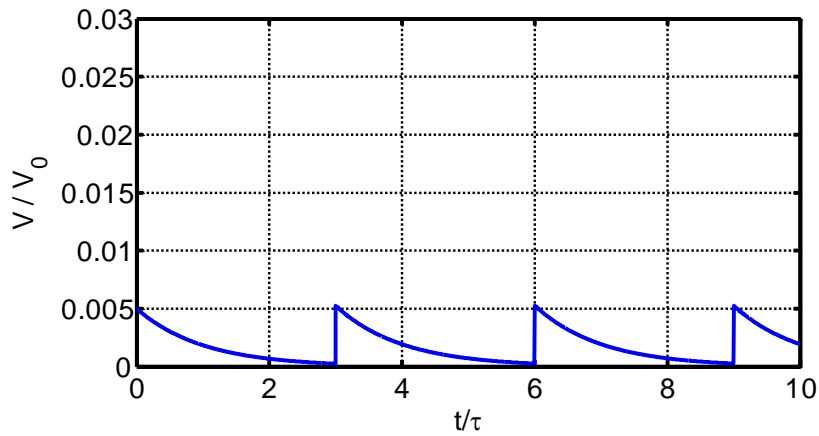
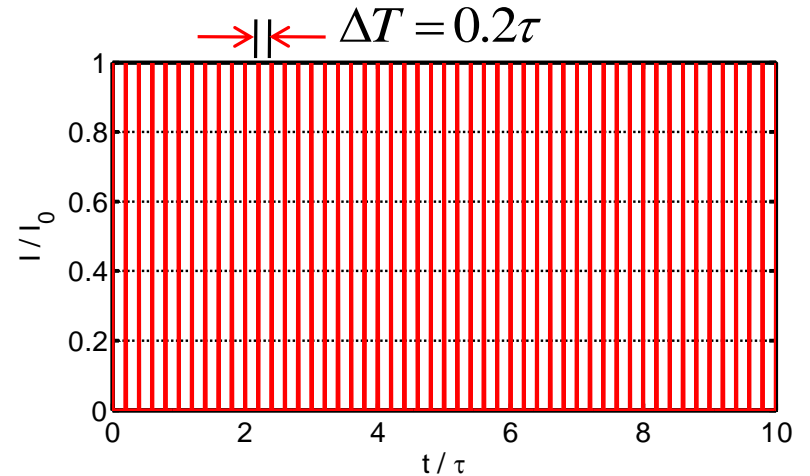
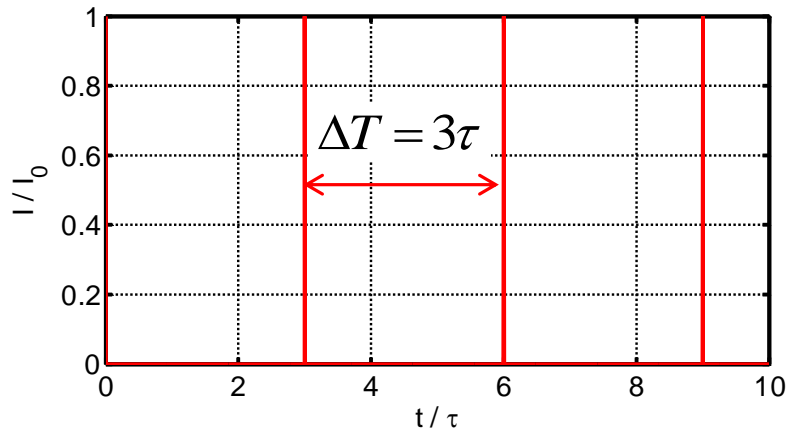
A voltage source would not work here! Explain why. (infinite current when switched on)

$\tau = RC$... time constant

$V_0 = I_0 R$... maximum voltage

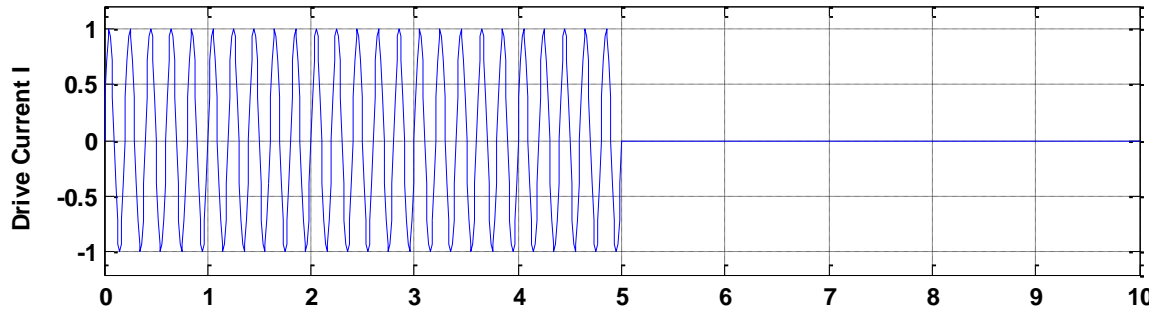


Transients on an RC-Element (2)



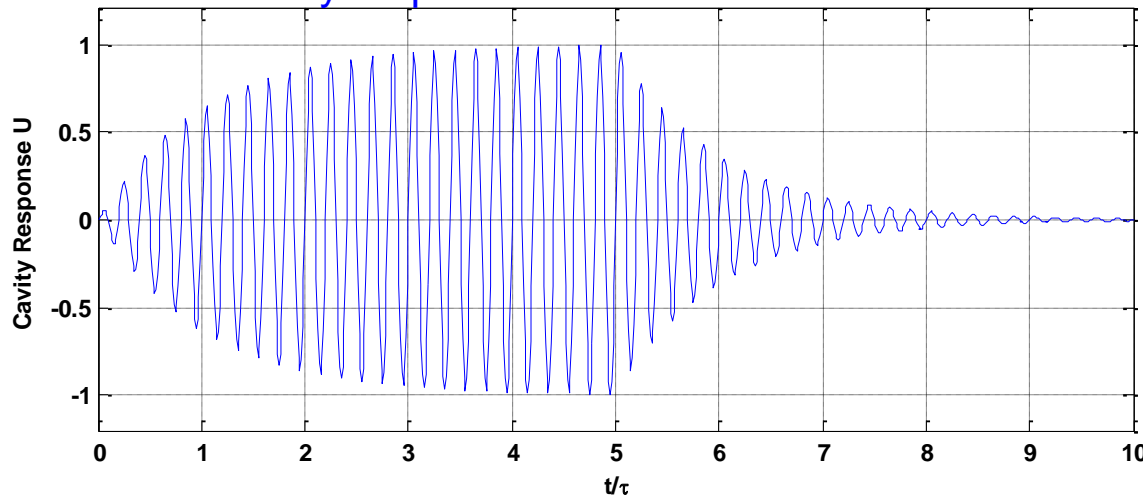
Response of a tuned cavity to sinusoidal drive current (1)

Drive current I



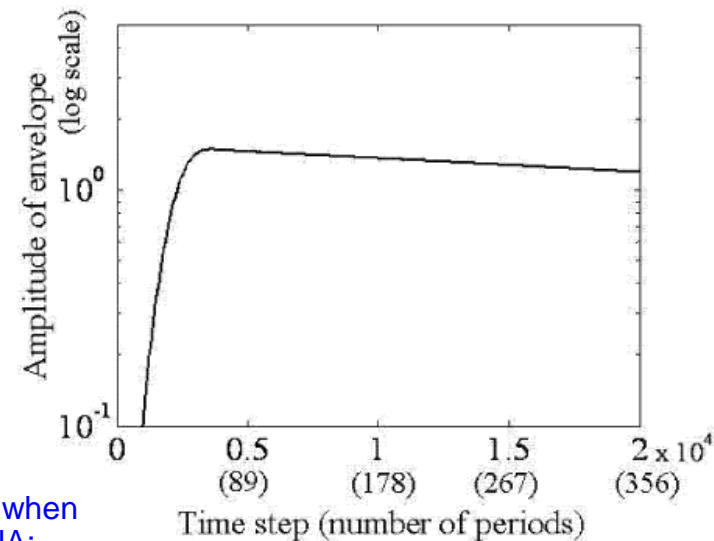
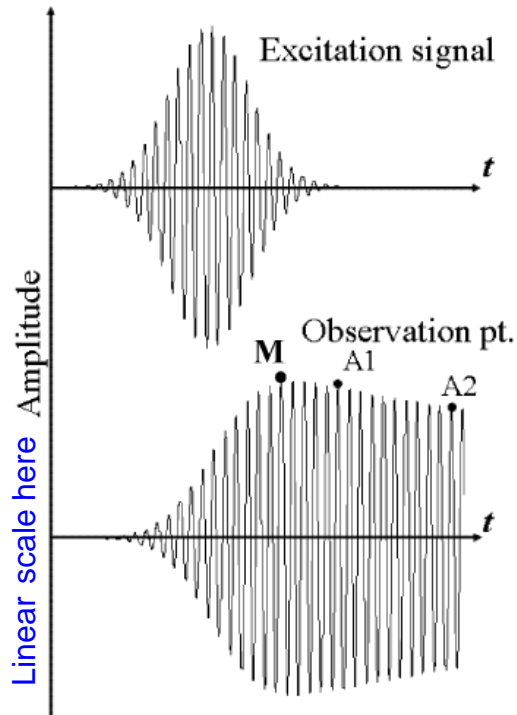
In the first moment, the cavity acts like a capacitor, as seen from the generator (compare equivalent circuit). The RF is therefore short-circuited

Cavity response U



In the stationary regime, the inductive (ωL) and capacitive reactances ($1/(\omega C)$) cancel (operation at resonance frequency!). All the power goes into the shunt impedance $R \Rightarrow$ no more power reflected, at least for a matched generator...

Numerically calculated response of a cavity in the time domain



Practical procedure when doing this on the VNA:

Adjust the points A1 and A2 (markers in the time domain trace) such that the ratio is 8.6 dB (one Neper or 1/e on linear scale) and then read the time difference $t_2 - t_1$ using the markers on the screen

$$Q = \frac{\omega_r (t_2 - t_1)}{2 \ln \left(\frac{A_1}{A_2} \right)},$$

$$E = E_o \sin \omega_c t \cdot e^{-\left(\frac{t-T}{T}\right)^2}$$

see: I. Awai, Y. Zhang, T. Ishida, Unified calculation of microwave resonator parameters, IEEE 2007

Practical Q measurement of a cavity in the time domain (1)

- Using the transient analysis
- Amplitude E-field inside a resonator is given:

$$E(t) = E_0 \cdot e^{-\frac{\omega_0 \cdot t}{2 \cdot Q_{\text{load}}}} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{E(t)}{E_0} = e^{-\frac{\omega_0 \cdot t}{2 \cdot Q_{\text{load}}}}$$

Usually we consider the time dependent voltage of a resonator, thus we have the factor 2 in the exponent (formula above)

- Monitored using an E-field probe
- Measure the time difference Δt in which the E-field is damped by a factor of 1/e then Q load is given by

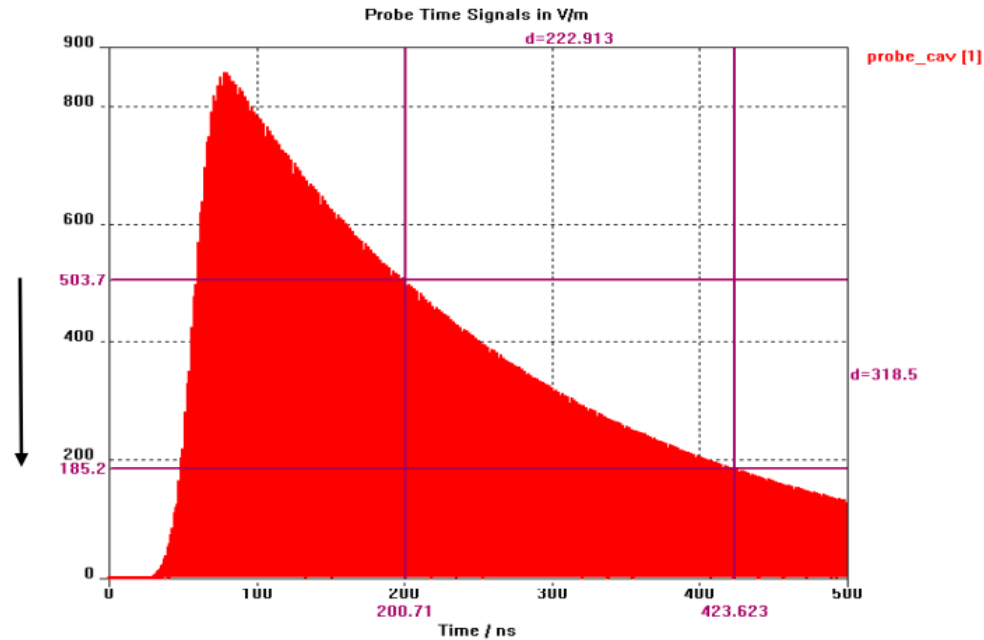
$$Q_{\text{load}} = \pi \cdot \Delta t \cdot f_0$$

Practical Q measurement of a cavity in the time domain (2)

$$Q_{\text{load}} = \pi \cdot \Delta t \cdot f_0$$

Signal: 503.7 at t1=200 ns
Signal: 503.7/e = at t2= 423.6ns
 $\Delta t = t_2 - t_1 = 223.6\text{ns}$
 $f_0 = 2.4615\text{ GHz}$
 $Q_{\text{load}} = 1729$

1 Neper 1/e



Response of a tuned cavity to sinusoidal drive current (2)

Differential equation of the envelope

(shown without derivation):

$$\dot{V} = \frac{1}{2C} = \left(I - \frac{V}{Z}\right) = \frac{1}{2ZC} (IZ - V)$$

\dot{V}, V, I, Z are complex quantities, evaluated at the stimulus (drive) frequency.

For a tuned cavity all quantities become real. In particular $Z = R$, therefore

$$\dot{V} = \frac{1}{2RC} (IR - V)$$

→ time constant becomes

$$\tau = 2RC = 2 \frac{R}{Q} QC = \frac{2Q}{\omega_0} = \frac{Q}{\pi f} = \frac{QT}{\pi}$$

$T = 1/f$

"Q over π periods"

V ... envelope amplitude
 C ... cavity capacitance
 I ... drive current
 Z ... cavity impedance
 R ... real part of cavity impedance

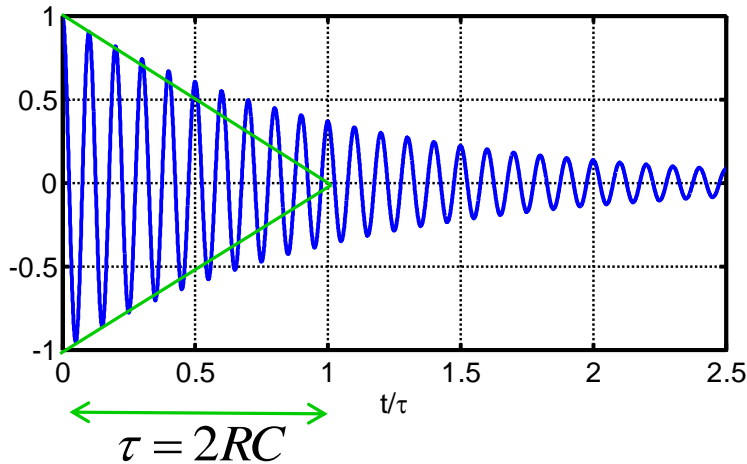
This τ value refers to the 1/e decay of the field in the cavity or the voltage at a lumped element. Sometimes (rarely) one finds τ_w referring to the energy with $2\tau_w = \tau$.

The **voltage (or current)** decreases to 1/e of the initial value within the time τ .

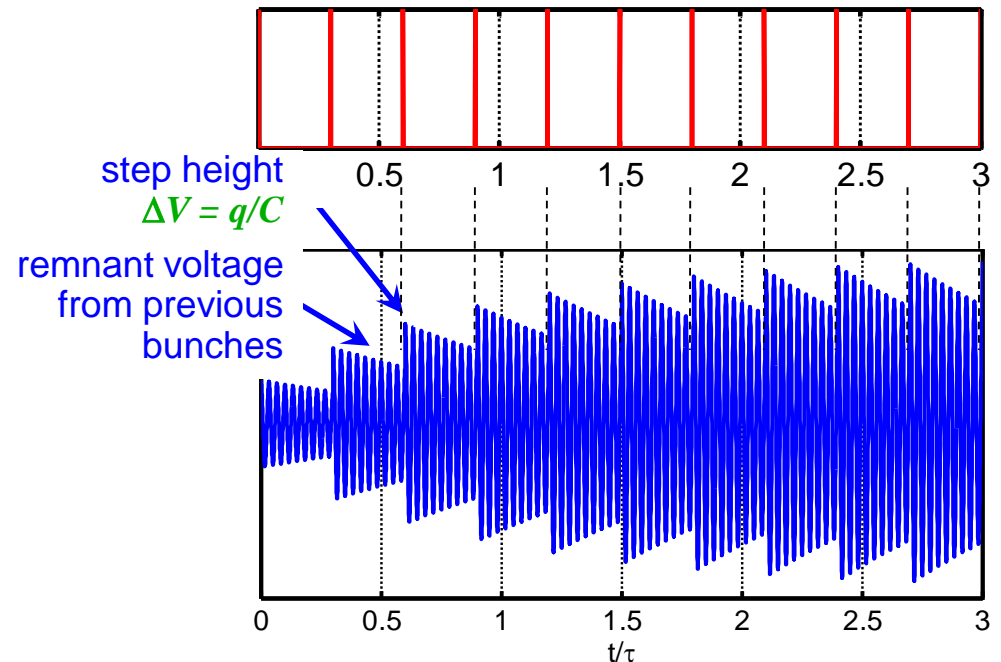
see also: H. Klein, Basic concepts I
 Proceeding Oxford CAS, April 91
 CERN Yellow Report 92-03, Vol. I

Beam-cavity interaction (1)

Cavity response in time domain $c(t)$ from one very short bunch



Bunched beam $b(t)$ with bunch length t_b , bunch spacing T and beam current I_0



Resulting response for bunched beam obtained by convolution \otimes of the bunch sequence with the cavity response $r(t) = b(t) \otimes c(t)$
 Condition that the induced signals in the cavity add up:
 cavity resonant frequency f_{res} must be an integer multiple of bunch frequency $1/T$

Beam-cavity interaction (2)

For a quantitative evaluation the worst case is considered with the induced signals adding up in phase.

Two approaches:

- ◆ Equilibrium condition: Voltage drop between two bunch passages compensated by newly induced voltage

$$V_{end} e^{-T/\tau} = V_{step} = V_{end} - \frac{q}{C} \Rightarrow V_{end} = \frac{q}{C} \frac{1}{1 - e^{-T/\tau}}$$

- ◆ Summing up individual stimuli

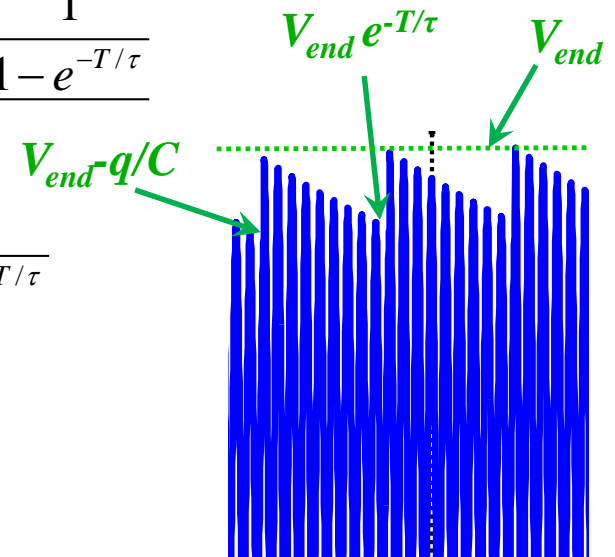
$$V_{end} = \frac{q}{C} (1 + e^{-T/\tau} + e^{-2T/\tau} + \dots) = \frac{q}{C} \frac{1}{1 - e^{-T/\tau}}$$

Approximation for $T/\tau \ll 1$:

$$1 - e^{-T/\tau} = 1 - (1 - T/\tau + \dots) \approx T/\tau$$

$$\frac{V_{end}}{C} = \frac{q}{C} \frac{1}{T/\tau} = \frac{q}{C} \frac{2RC}{T} = 2R \frac{q}{T} = \frac{2RI_0}{T}$$

where I_0 is the mean beam current.

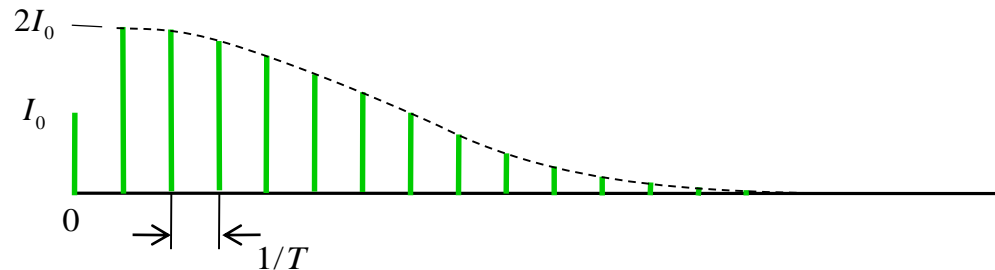


Beam-cavity interaction in Frequency domain

◆ Frequency domain

beam spectrum $B(f)$

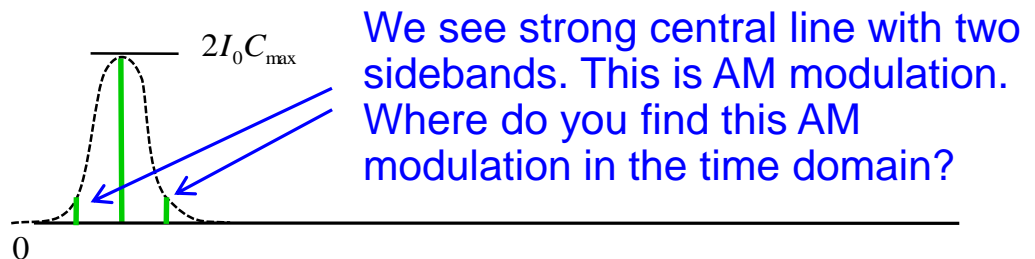
$$B(f) = 2I_0 \frac{\sin(\pi t_b f)}{\pi t_b f}$$



cavity response $C(f)$



Resulting spectrum
obtained by multiplication
 $R(f) = B(f) * C(f)$



Typical parameters for different cavity technologies

Cavity type	R/Q	Q_0	R
Ferrite loaded cavity (low frequency, rapid cycling)	4 k Ω	50	200 k Ω
Room temperature copper cavity (type 1 with nose cone)	192 Ω	$30 * 10^3$	5.75 M Ω
Superconducting cavity (type 2 with large iris)	50 Ω	$1 * 10^{10}$	500 G Ω

Different definitions of the shunt impedance

Four relevant parameters:

- ◆ Shunt impedance, e.g.: $r = 3.3 \text{ M}\Omega$

Linac definition:

$$P = \frac{\hat{V}^2}{R} \text{ with } \hat{V} \text{ being the peak voltage}$$

Electrical (or circuit) definition:

for circular machines the effective voltage V_{eff} is used => factor 2

$$P = \frac{\hat{V}^2}{2r} \Rightarrow 2r = R$$

- ◆ Length of the cavity gap, e.g.: $L = 0.2 \text{ m}$
 - ◆ Phase between particle (bunch) and RF signal, e.g.: $\cos(\varphi) = 0.866$
 - ◆ Transit-time factor, e.g.: $T = 0.756$
- (T and φ^1 defined later in more detail, see transit time factor slides!)

=> confusion can be maximized by using $2^4 = 16$ different definitions...
Linac and electrical definition most often used.

-> Typically used shunt impedance definitions for the above cavity example:

$r = 3.3 \text{ M}\Omega$ (using the circuit definition, w/o transit-time factor)

$rT^2 = 1.89 \text{ M}\Omega$ (using the circuit definition, including the transit-time factor)

$R = 6.6 \text{ M}\Omega$ (using the linac definition, w/o transit-time factor)

$RT^2 = 3.77 \text{ M}\Omega$ (using the linac definition, including the transit-time factor)

1: φ refers to the phase of the particle in the centre of the cavity w.r.t. the rf signal. Typically $\cos(\varphi) = 1$ is used.

Learning targets(1) for Section A

At the end of this chapter you should

- Be able to write down Maxwell's equations in integral and differential form
- Have understood why cavities are used for particle accelerators
- Have understood that in time dependent fields the scalar electric potential is meaningless and not defined (unless superposition of an e-stat field)
- Be familiar with the basics of coaxial transmission lines and be able to calculate their char. Impedance , their loss and their phase velocity
- Have understood the skin-depth
- Know about decibel and Neper and be able to handle those terms
- Know about the most common modes in cylindrical and brick shaped resonators
- Be familiar with basics resonant circuits made by lumped elements (R,L,C) and be able to carry out basic calculations like finding the resonance frequency and Q value.
- Be able to use the graphical mode charts to identify modes in a given resonator with a certain geometry.
- Have understood the meaning of the mode indices for rectangular and cylindrical cavities.
- Be familiar with the properties of cavities and resonators in the time and frequency domain including beam interaction
- Know about the different definition of the shunt impedance.
- Have understood the logic and mathematical tools of functions to describe fields in rectangular and cylindrical coordinates (in particular Bessel functions)
- Be able to draw the locus of impedance of a resonator in the impedance plane
- Have an idea about field patterns of the most important modes in different waveguides (rectangular, round) and related wall current distributions

Learning targets(2) for Section A

- Have understood and be able to apply the term degeneration of modes
- Know the difference between a voltage and a current source and where to apply them
- Be able to draw the equivalent circuit of a series and also parallel RLC resonator
- Have understood that and why R/Q is independent of Q and material conductivity
- Have an idea about the typical values of Q for ferrite, copper and superconducting cavities

Electromagnetic scaling laws

A cavity of a given geometry can be scaled using three rules:

- ◆ The ratio of any cavity dimension to λ is constant. To put it another way, all cavity (linear, not volume) dimensions are inversely proportional to frequency
- ◆ Characteristic impedance $R/Q = \text{const.} = \text{independent of } \lambda$
- ◆ $Q * \delta / \lambda = \text{const.}$

The skin depth δ is given by

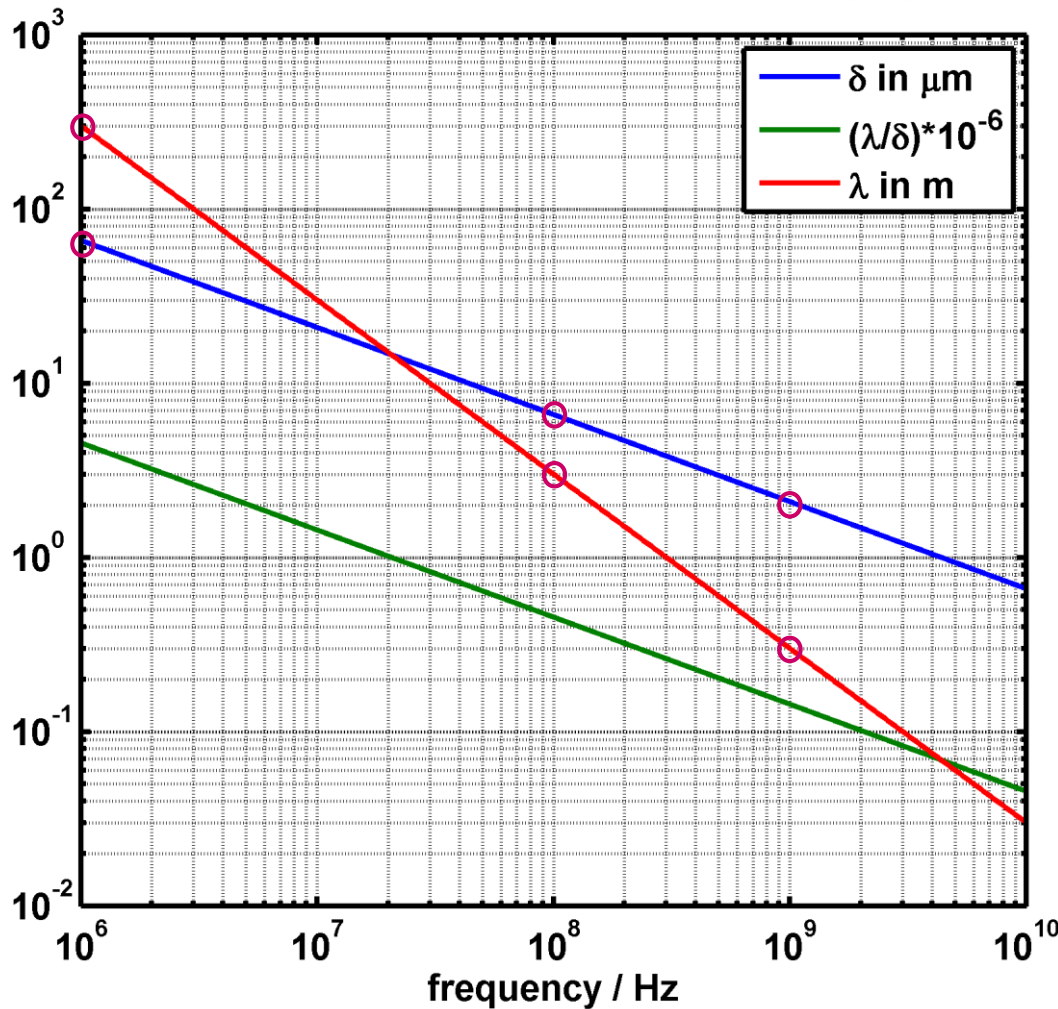
$$\delta = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\omega\sigma\mu}}$$

with the conductivity σ , the permeability μ , and the angular frequency $\omega=2\pi f$.

Note that it is proportional to $\frac{1}{\sqrt{f\sigma}}$

For instance, in copper ($\sigma_{\text{copper}} = 5.8 \cdot 10^7 \text{ S/m}$) the skin depth is $\approx 9 \text{ mm}$ at 50 Hz, while it decreases to $\approx 2 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ at 1 GHz.

Skin-effect and scaling laws for copper



Skin-effect graph, plot for copper at room temperature and no DC magnetic field

$$\delta = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi f \mu \sigma}}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{c}{f}$$

Examples:

f	λ	δ (copper)
1 GHz	0.3 m	2 μm
100 MHz	3 m	6.6 μm
1 MHz	300 m	66 μm
50 Hz	6 000 km	9.3 mm

$$\mu_0 = 4\pi \cdot 10^{-7} \text{ Vs/Am}$$

$$\epsilon_0 = 8.854187 \cdot 10^{-12} \text{ As/Vm}$$

$$c \approx 3 \cdot 10^8 \text{ m/s}$$

Plotted are the wavelength λ in [m], the skin depth δ in [μm] and the ratio $(\lambda\delta) \cdot 10^6$ for copper.
Conductivity of copper: $\sigma = 58 \cdot 10^6 \text{ S/m}$

Reprinted from Meinke, H. and Gundlach, F. W.,
Taschenbuch der Hochfrequenztechnik,
Dritte Auflage, Springer-Verlag, Berlin (1968) and
Techniques of Microwave Measurements by Carol G. Montgomery,
1st ed., 1947; by permission, McGraw-Hill Book Co., N. Y.

Scaling of a pillbox-type cavity

Starting point: SUPERFISH simulation results for a cavity of a given geometry with copper walls. Parameters: $f = 3030$ MHz, $Q_1 = 9625$ and $R = 631$ k Ω

Question: What are the characteristic parameters (Q , R/Q , λ) of a cavity of similar shape, that operates at a frequency of 814.5 MHz, built with steel walls?
($\sigma_{copper} = 58$ MS/m, here we assume $\sigma_{steel} \approx 2$ MS/m)

Answer: For the first cavity we find

Skin depth $\delta_1 = 1.195$ μ m,

Resonant wavelength $\lambda_1 = c/f_1 = 98.97$ mm,

$Q_1 * \delta_1 / \lambda_1 = 0.1162$

For the larger steel cavity all dimensions have to be scaled by the inverse frequency ratio f_1/f_2 , which gives a factor of $3030/814.5 = 3.72$

$\Rightarrow \lambda_2 = 3.72 \lambda_1 = \underline{368}$ mm

The characteristic impedance remains unchanged.

$R_2/Q_2 = R_1/Q_1 = 632 * 10^3 / 9625 = \underline{65.56}$ Ω

The skin depth for steel at 814.5 MHz is $\delta_2 = 12.5$ μ m.

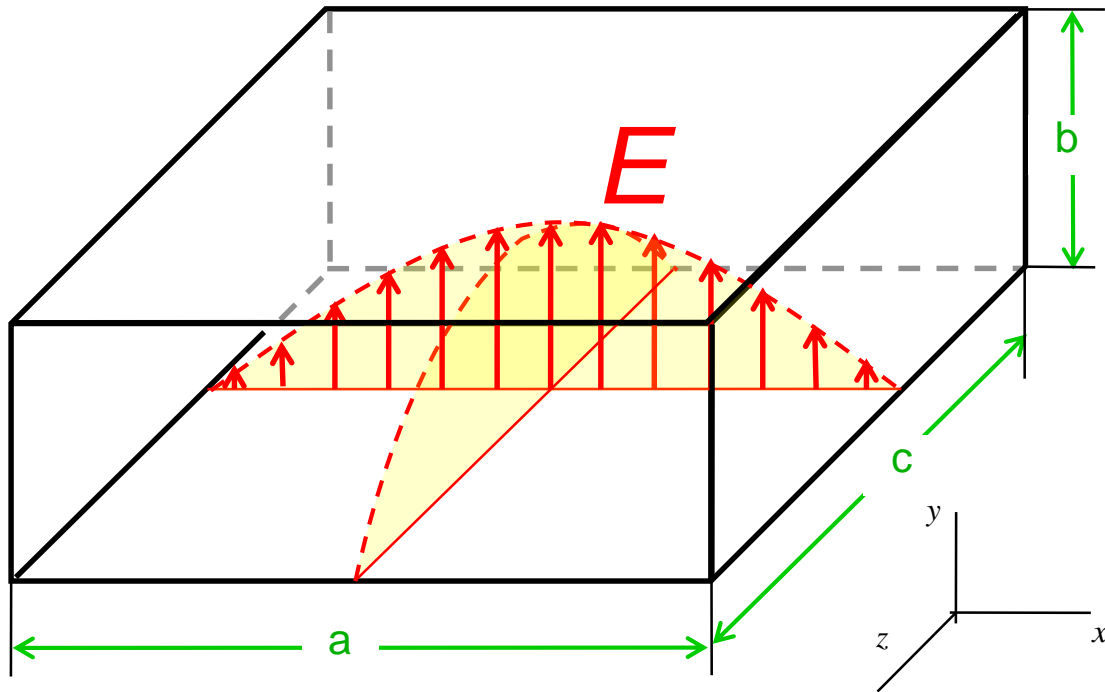
Using $Q_1 * \delta_1 / \lambda_1 = Q_2 * \delta_2 / \lambda_2$ we find $Q_2 = \underline{3420}$

Finally, the shunt impedance gets

$R_2 = (R_1/Q_1) * Q_2 = 65.56 * 3420 = \underline{224}$ k Ω

Common cavity geometries (1)

Square prism H_{101} or TE_{101}



Comment: For a brick-shaped cavity (the structure is described in Cartesian coordinates) the E and H fields would be described by sine and cosine distributions. The mode indices indicate the number of half waves along the x-, y-, and z-axis, respectively.

$$\lambda_0 = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{m}{a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{n}{b}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{p}{c}\right)^2}}$$

$$Q_{H_{101}} = \frac{\lambda_0 b}{\delta} \frac{(a^2 + c^2)^{3/2}}{2c^3(a + 2b) + a^3(c + 2b)}$$

form factor (dimensionless)

$$\text{Skin depth } \delta = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\omega\sigma\mu}}$$

with $\omega = 2\pi f$

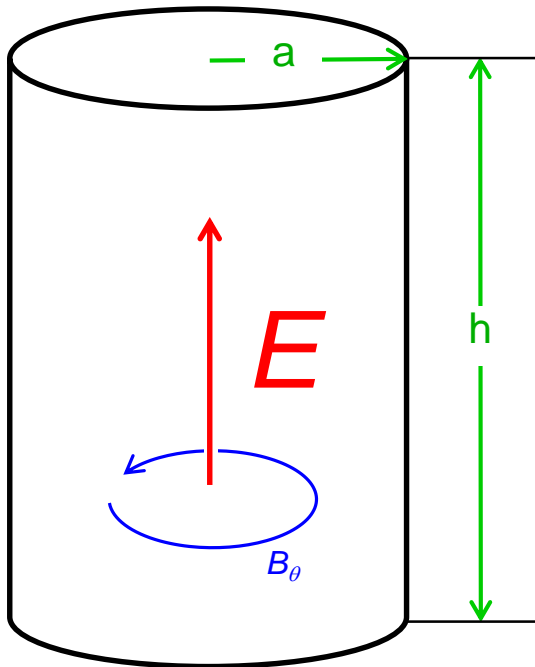
this simplifies in the case $a=c$:

$$\lambda_0 = \sqrt{2}a$$

$$Q = \frac{1}{\delta} \frac{ab}{a + 2b}$$

Common cavity geometries (2)

Circular cylinder: $E_{010}, = TM_{010}$



$$\lambda_0 = 2.61a$$

$$Q = \left(0.383 \frac{\lambda_0}{\delta} \right) \left[1 + \left(0.383 \frac{\lambda_0}{h} \right) \right]^{-1}$$
$$= 0.383 \lambda_0 / \delta \left[1 + \frac{a}{h} \right]^{-1} = \frac{a}{\delta} \left[1 + \frac{a}{h} \right]^{-1}$$

$$R/Q \approx 185 h/a \quad \text{for } h/a < 0.5 \quad ^1$$

Note: h denotes the **full** height of the cavity
In some cases and also in certain numerical codes, h stands for the half height

¹: This formula uses Linac definition and includes time transit factor ($v=c$)

R/Q for cavities

The full formula for calculating the R/Q value of a cavity is

$$\frac{R}{Q} = \frac{4\eta}{\chi_{01}^3 \pi J_1^2(\chi_{01})} \frac{\sin^2\left(\frac{\chi_{01}}{2} \frac{h}{a}\right)}{\frac{h}{a}}$$

see lecture: RF cavities, E. Jensen, Varna CAS 2010

with

$$\eta = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0}{\epsilon_0}} = \sqrt{\mu_0^2 c_0^2} = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \times 3 \times 10^8 = 377 \Omega$$

$$\chi_{01} = 2.4048 \quad (\text{First zero of the Bessel function of 0}^{\text{th}} \text{ order})$$

$$J_1(\chi_{01}) = 0.5192$$

This leads to

$$\frac{R}{Q} = 128 \frac{\sin^2\left(1.2024 \frac{h}{a}\right)}{\frac{h}{a}}$$

The sinus can be approximated by $\sin(x) = x$ (for small values of x) leading to

$$\frac{R}{Q} \approx 128 \frac{\left(1.2024 \frac{h}{a}\right)^2}{\frac{h}{a}} = 185 \frac{h}{a}$$

Common cavity geometries (3)

Circular cylinder:

H_{011}

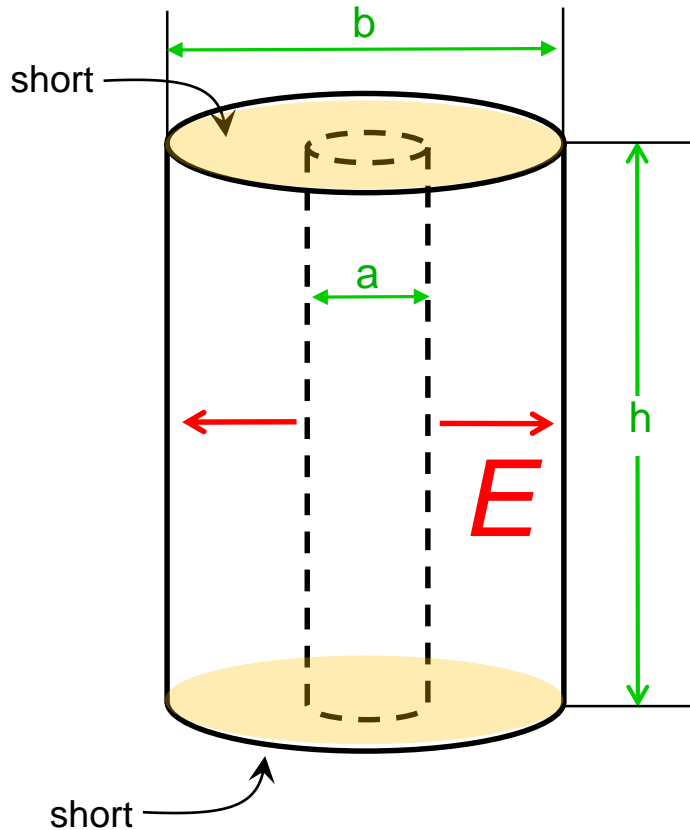
$$Q = 0.61 \frac{\lambda_0}{\delta} \frac{\left[1 + 0.17 \left(\frac{2a}{h} \right)^2 \right]^{3/2}}{1 + 0.17 \left(\frac{2a}{h} \right)^3}$$

H_{111}

$$Q = 0.206 \frac{\lambda_0}{\delta} \frac{\left[1 + 0.73 \left(\frac{2a}{h} \right)^2 \right]^{3/2}}{1 + 0.22 \left(\frac{2a}{h} \right)^2 + 0.51 \left(\frac{2a}{h} \right)^3}$$

Common cavity geometries (4)

Coaxial TEM



$$\lambda_0 = 2h \text{ or } h = \lambda_0 / 2$$

Important:
alternative
formula:

$$Q = \frac{\lambda_0}{\delta} \frac{1}{4 + \frac{h}{b} \cdot \frac{1+b/a}{\ln(b/a)}}$$

$Q = \beta / (2\alpha)$ where
 α is in Neper
and $\beta = 2\pi/\lambda$
without losses
in endplates

Optimum Q for $(b/a) = 3.6$ ($Z_{Lopt} = 77\Omega$)

$$Q_{optimum} = \frac{\lambda_0}{\delta} \frac{1}{4 + 7.2 \frac{h}{b}}$$

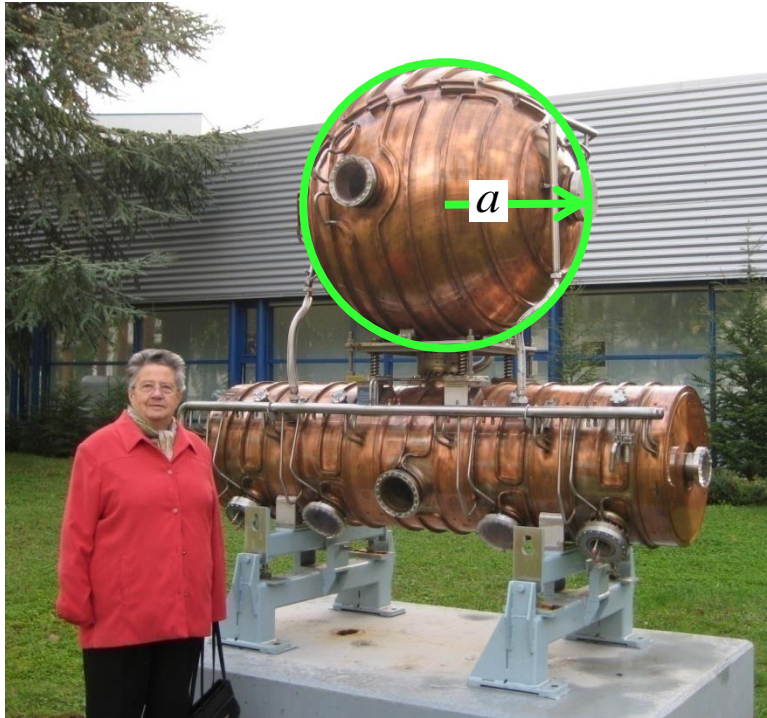
Coaxial line with minimum loss

→ slide TEM transmission lines (3)

Taken from S. Saad et.al.,
Microwave Engineers' Handbook, Volume I, p.180

Common cavity geometries (5)

Sphere

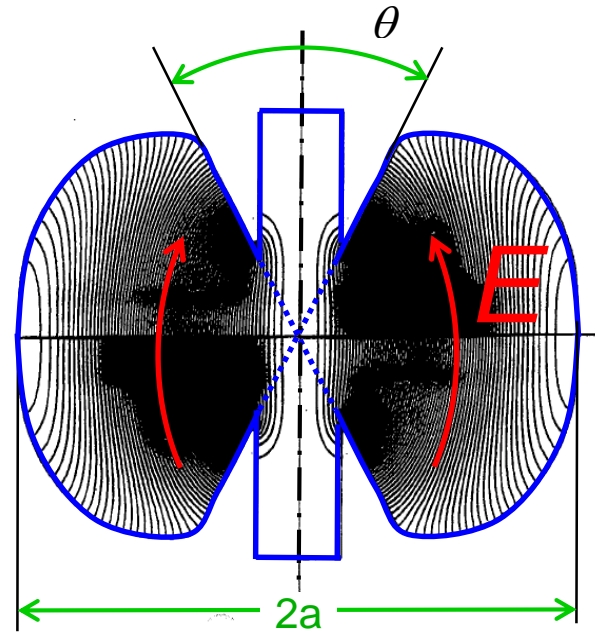


“Energy storage in LEP”

$$\lambda_0 = 2.28a$$

$$Q = 0.318(\lambda / \delta)$$

Sphere with cones

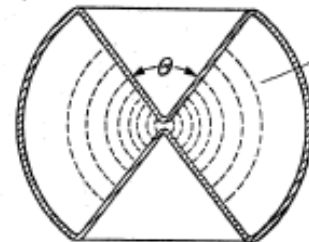


“Nose cone cavity”

$$\lambda_0 = 4a \rightarrow a = \lambda_0 / 4$$

Optimum Q for $\theta = 34^\circ$

$$Q_{opt,34^\circ} = 0.1095(\lambda / \delta)$$



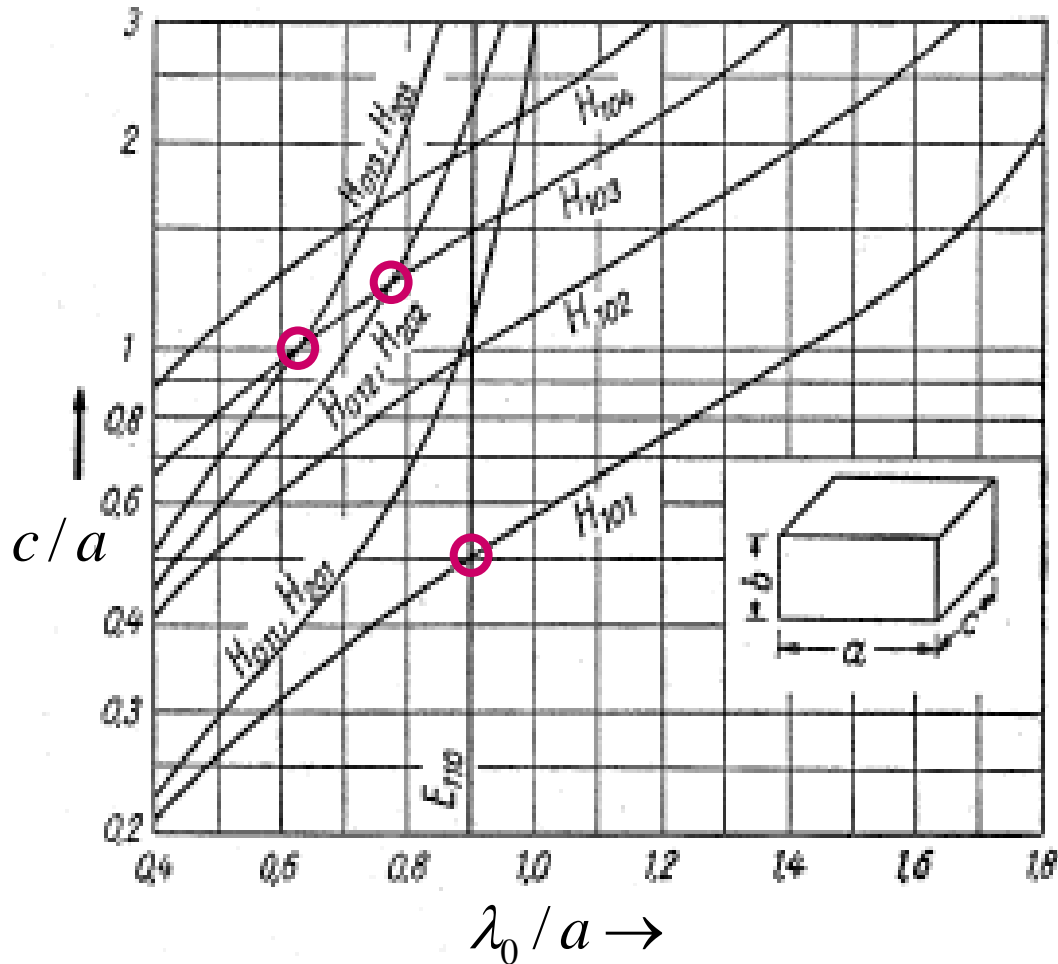
the tips of the cone don't touch

a spherical “ $\lambda/4$ -resonator”

Cavity structures

Mode chart of a brick-shaped cavity – Version 1

Reprinted from Meinke, H. and Gundlach, F. W.,
Taschenbuch der Hochfrequenztechnik, S.469
 Erste Auflage, Springer-Verlag, Berlin (1968) and
Techniques of Microwave Measurements by Carol G. Montgomery,
 1st ed., 1947; by permission, McGraw-Hill Book Co., N. Y.



The resonant wavelength of the H_{mnp} resonance calculates as

$$\lambda_0 = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{m}{a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{n}{b}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{p}{c}\right)^2}}$$

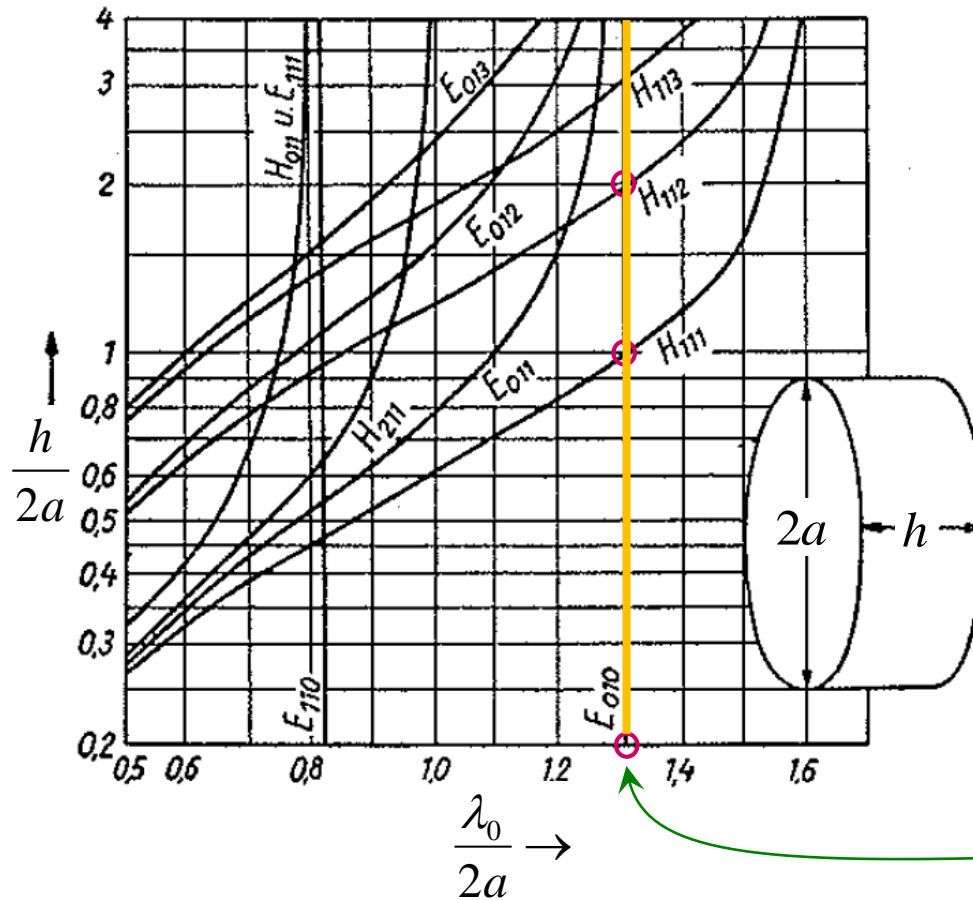
for a E_{mn} or a H_{mn} wave with p half waves along the c -direction.

○ ... some degenerate modes

Attention: The chart is only valid for $a:b = 2:1$

Mode chart of a Pillbox cavity – Version 1

Reprinted from Meinke, H. and Gundlach, F. W., *Taschenbuch der Hochfrequenztechnik*, S.471 Erste Auflage, Springer-Verlag, Berlin (1968) and *Techniques of Microwave Measurements* by Carol G. Montgomery, 1st ed., 1947; by permission, McGraw-Hill Book Co., N. Y.



Cylindrical cavity with **radius a** , **height = h** and **resonant wavelength λ_0** .
H stands for TE and E for TM modes.

Example:

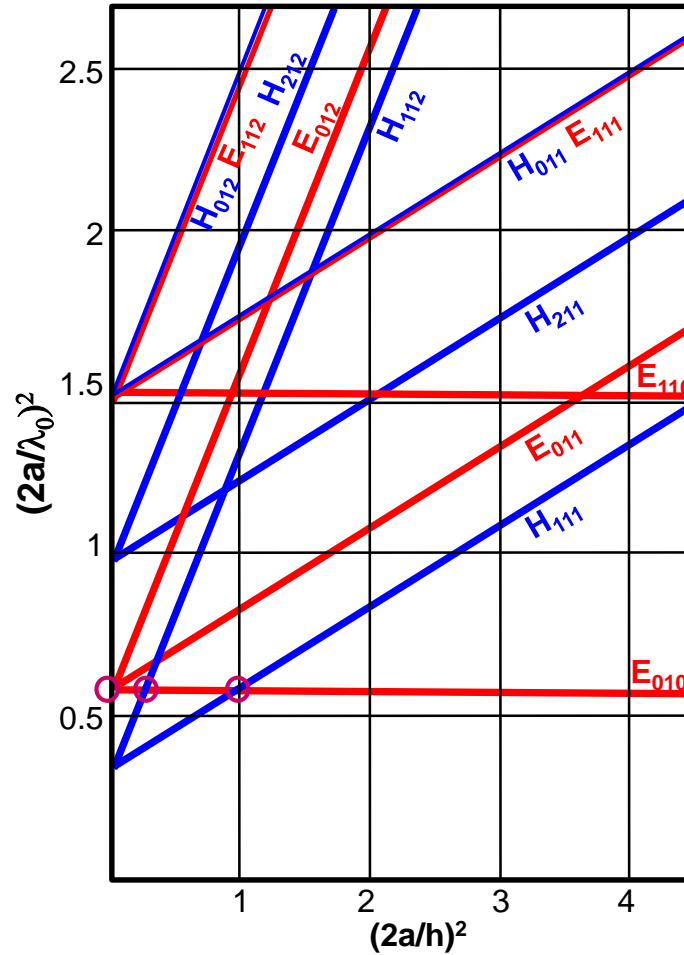
E_{010} : $\lambda_0 \approx 2.6a = 1.3D$

H_{111} : $h \approx 2a$

H_{112} : $h \approx 4a$

Mode chart of a Pillbox cavity – Version 2

Reprinted from Meinke, H. and Gundlach, F. W.,
Taschenbuch der Hochfrequenztechnik, S.471
 Erste Auflage, Springer-Verlag, Berlin (1968) and
Techniques of Microwave Measurements by Carol G. Montgomery,
 1st ed., 1947; by permission, McGraw-Hill Book Co., N. Y.



Cylindrical cavity with **radius a**,
height = h and **resonant wavelength λ_0** .
 H stands for TE and
 E for TM modes.

Example:

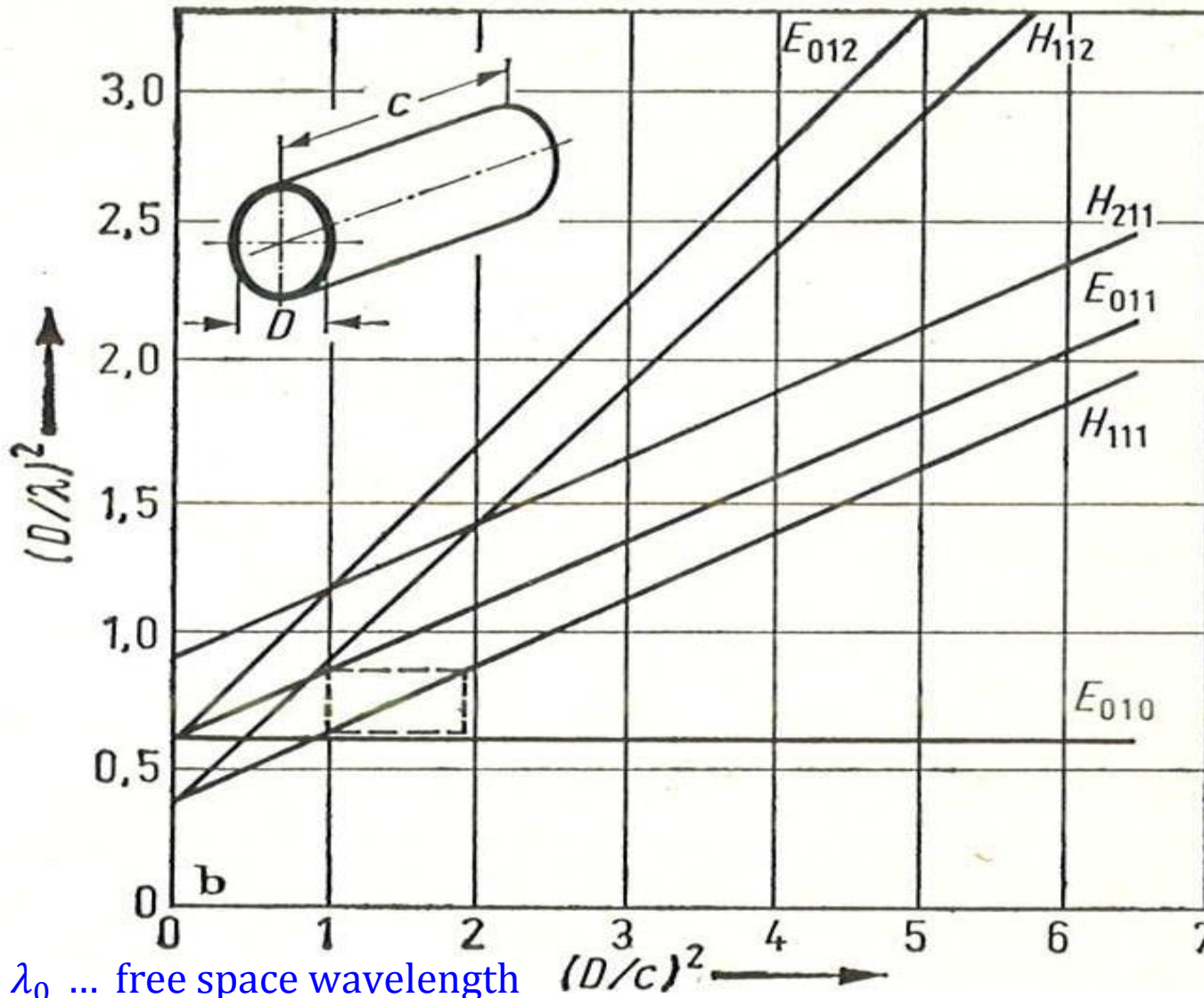
← E_{010} : $(2a/\lambda_0)^2 \approx 0.6 \rightarrow \lambda_0 \approx 2.6a$
 H_{111} : $h \approx 2a$
 H_{112} : $h \approx 4a$

Note that the very important (for accelerator applications) E_{010} mode resonant frequency does NOT depend on the height of the cylinder

Why do we have this strange normalisation $(2a/h)^2$ in the abscissa and similar in the ordinate ?

Answer: to get straight lines in the diagram.

Mode chart of a Pillbox cavity – Version 3



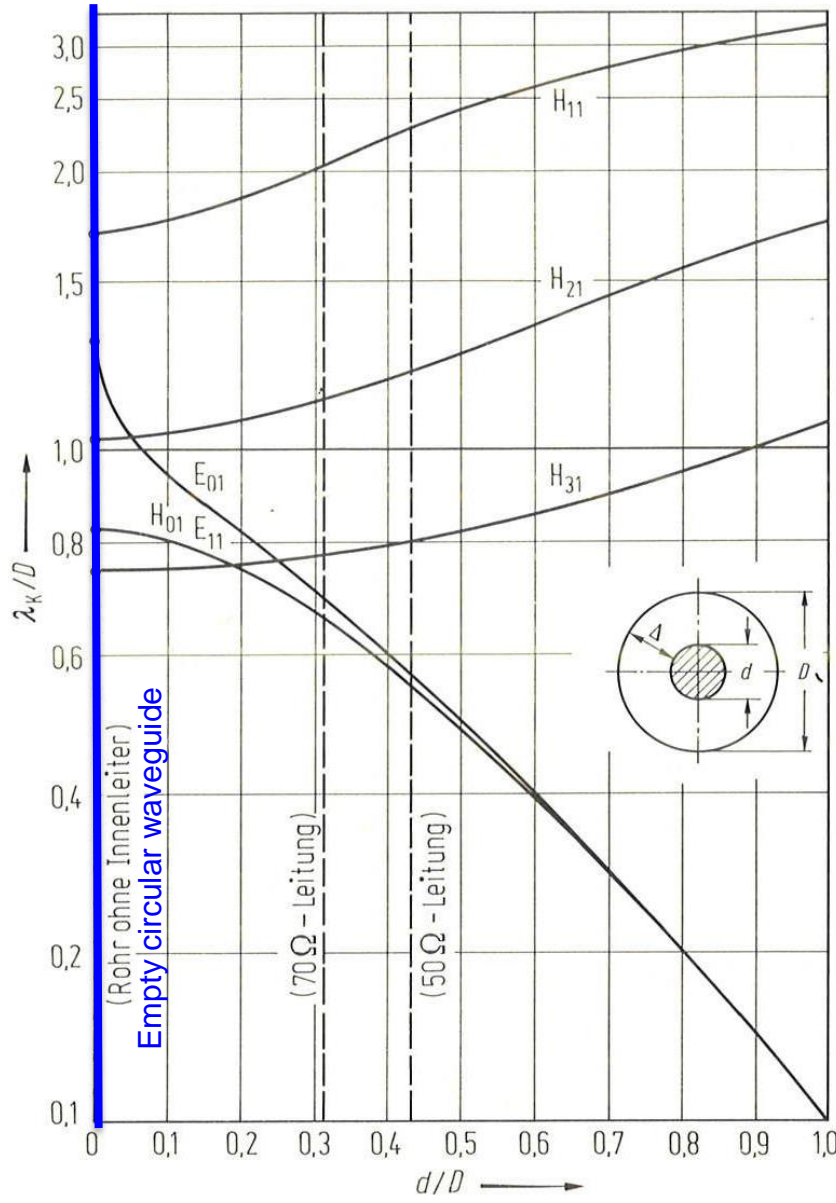
Caution! Here, c refers to the length of the cavity **NOT** the speed of light!

Reprinted from Zinke, o. and Brunswig, H., Lehrbuch der Hochfrequenztechnik, erster Band

$\lambda = \lambda_0$... free space wavelength

Higher order Mode chart of a Coaxial line

Reprinted from Meinke, H. and Gundlach, F. W.,
Taschenbuch der Hochfrequenztechnik, S.471
 Vierte Auflage, Springer-Verlag, Berlin (1986)



λ_K ... cutoff wavelength
 Index K related to: kritische Wellenlänge
 ← German textbook...

Suggestion for exercise:
 Find ALL points in this diagram where modes including the TEM one, become degenerate and discuss your results

Which ones of the higher order modes shown have two polarisations?

For a 50 Ohm coax line with $D=100$ mm at which frequency comes the first HOM (higher order mode) in?

Why is this a problem?
 Theoretically all modes are (mathematically) orthogonal to each other and thus should not couple..?!

Is the cutoff frequency for H_{11} in an empty tube with same D as a coax line bigger or smaller than in a coax line ?

Decibel (1)

- ◆ The Decibel is the unit used to express relative differences in signal power. It is expressed as the base 10 logarithm of the ratio of the powers of two signals:

$$P \text{ [dB]} = 10 \cdot \log(P/P_{\text{ref}})$$

- ◆ Signal amplitudes can also be expressed in dB. Since power is proportional to the square of a signal's amplitude, the voltage in dB is expressed as follows:

$$V \text{ [dB]} = 20 \cdot \log(V/V_{\text{ref}})$$

- ◆ P_{ref} and V_{ref} are the reference power and voltage, respectively.
- ◆ A given value in dB is the same for power ratios as for voltage ratios
- ◆ There are no “power dB” or “voltage dB” as dB values always express a ratio!!!

Decibel (2)

- ◆ The following table helps to indicate the order of magnitude associated with dB:
- ◆ Power ratio = voltage ratio squared!
- ◆ S-parameters are defined as ratios and sometimes expressed in dB, no explicit reference needed!

	power ratio	V, I, E or H ratio, S_{ij}
-20 dB	0.01	0.1
-10 dB	0.1	0.32
-3 dB	0.50	0.71
-1 dB	0.74	0.89
0 dB	1	1
1 dB	1.26	1.12
3 dB	2.00	1.41
10 dB	10	3.16
20 dB	100	10
$n * 10$ dB	10^n	$10^{n/2}$

Decibel (3)

- ◆ Conversely, the absolute power and voltage can be obtained from “referenced” dB values (dBm, dBW, etc.), e.g.:

$$P = P_{ref} \cdot 10^{\frac{P[\text{dBW}]}{10}}, \text{ with } P_{ref} = 1\text{W}$$

$$V = V_{ref} \cdot 10^{\frac{V[\text{dBm}]}{20}}, \text{ with } P_{ref} = 1\text{mW}$$

$$\text{for } Z_0 = 50\Omega: V_{ref} = \sqrt{0.05}\text{V}$$

0 dBm on 50 Ohm are 223 mV effective (= rms) or 314 mV peak

- ◆ Logarithms are useful as the unit of measurement because (1) signal power tends to span several orders of magnitude and (2) signal attenuation losses and gains can be expressed in terms of subtraction and addition.

Reference: dB or not dB (Rohde&Schwarz, 2006)

(Application Note: 1MA98_6e_dB_or_not_dB)

Decibel (4)

- ◆ Frequently dB values are expressed using a special reference level and not SI units. Strictly speaking, the reference value should be included in parenthesis when giving a dB value, e.g. +3 dB (1W) indicates 3 dB at $P_{\text{ref}} = 1 \text{ Watt}$, thus 2 W sometimes this is written as dBW(dB referring to 1 Watt)
- ◆ For instance, dBm defines dB using a reference level of $P_{\text{ref}} = 1 \text{ mW}$, which is equivalent to $V_{\text{ref}} = 223.6 \text{ mV}$, assuming a reference impedance of 50Ω .
- ◆ Thus, 0 dBm correspond to -30 dBW, where dBW indicates a reference level of $P_{\text{ref}}=1\text{W}$.
- ◆ Other common units:
 - dBmV for the small voltages, $V_{\text{ref}} = 1 \text{ mV}$
 - dB μ V/m for the electric field strength radiated from an antenna, $E_{\text{ref}} = 1 \mu\text{V/m}$

Decibel (5)

- ◆ If the basic values from Decibel (3) are known, then one can easily calculate intermediate values:
- ◆ $14\text{dB} = 20\text{dB} - 6\text{dB}$ \rightarrow power ratio: $100/4 = 25$
- ◆ $17\text{dB} = 20\text{dB} - 3\text{dB}$ \rightarrow power ratio: $100/2 = 50$
- ◆ $33\text{dB} = 20\text{dB} + 10\text{dB} + 3\text{dB}$ \rightarrow power ratio: $100 \cdot 10 \cdot 2 = 2000$

Simulation Tools

- ◆ Poisson Superfish (poisson equation; poisson = fish in French)
- ◆ CST Studio Suite, Mafia (Maxwell's finite integration algorithm), <http://www.cst.com>
- ◆ Ansoft HFSS (High frequency structure simulator), <http://www.ansoft.com>
- ◆ GdfidL (“Gitter drauf fertig ist die Laube” – no joke, really true!)

Simulation Techniques (1)

◆ Frequency domain analysis

- CST Microwave Studio, Ansoft HFSS
- Uses a tetrahedral mesh
- Maxwell's equations solved in frequency domain for *one frequency point at a time*
- Frequency sweeps may take very long time, very powerful PC or computer cluster needed!
- Applications: quite universal

◆ Time domain analysis

- CST Microwave Studio
- Space is discretized by a rectangular mesh
- Excitation of structure with time domain pulse
- Transformation to frequency domain by Fourier Transform => entire frequency range with only one run => *fast!!!*
- Bad convergence for resonant structures, since pulse does not decay fast
- Applications: Waveguide transitions, connectors, antennas, but *no resonant structures* such as cavities!!!

Simulation Techniques (2)

- ◆ Eigenmode analysis
 - Microwave Studio, Mafra, HFSS, Superfish ...
 - Allows to calculate eigenmodes of resonant structures
 - Used for instance to determine resonant frequencies of cavities, including higher order modes

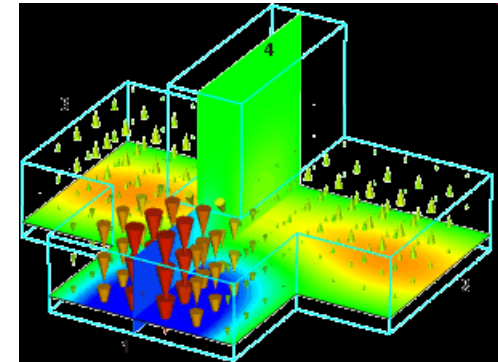
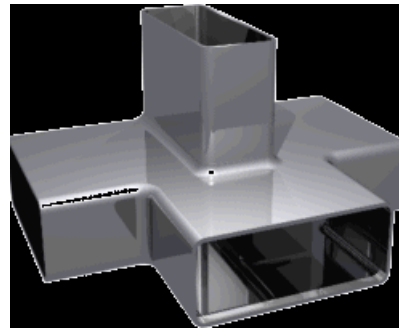
The Mesh

- ◆ Space discretized by a mesh
- ◆ Mesh width in the order of a tenth of the wavelength in the material
- ◆ Successive mesh refinement to improve precision
- ◆ Expert systems or user determine critical regions where mesh needs to be denser
- ◆ Magic T shown below: Roughly 10^5 mesh cells and a few seconds to minutes simulation time on a present-day PC

3D Simulation examples

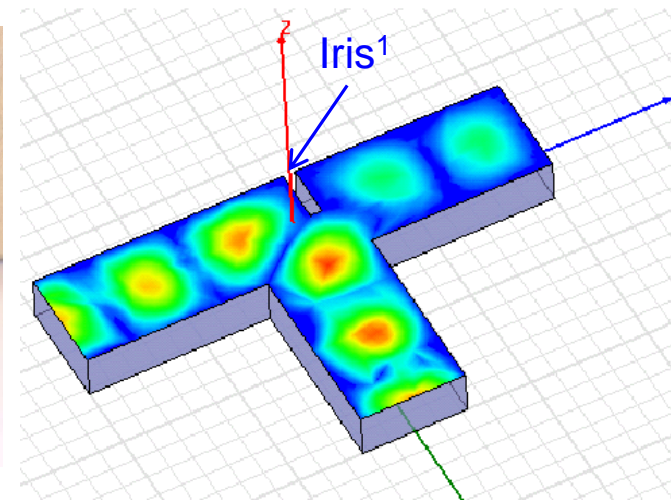
◆ A Magic T with Microwave Studio 4.3

- Arrows show the E field of the TE_{10} mode
- Power goes in at the front port
- How much power gets out by the other ports?



◆ A T-junction with HFSS 9.0

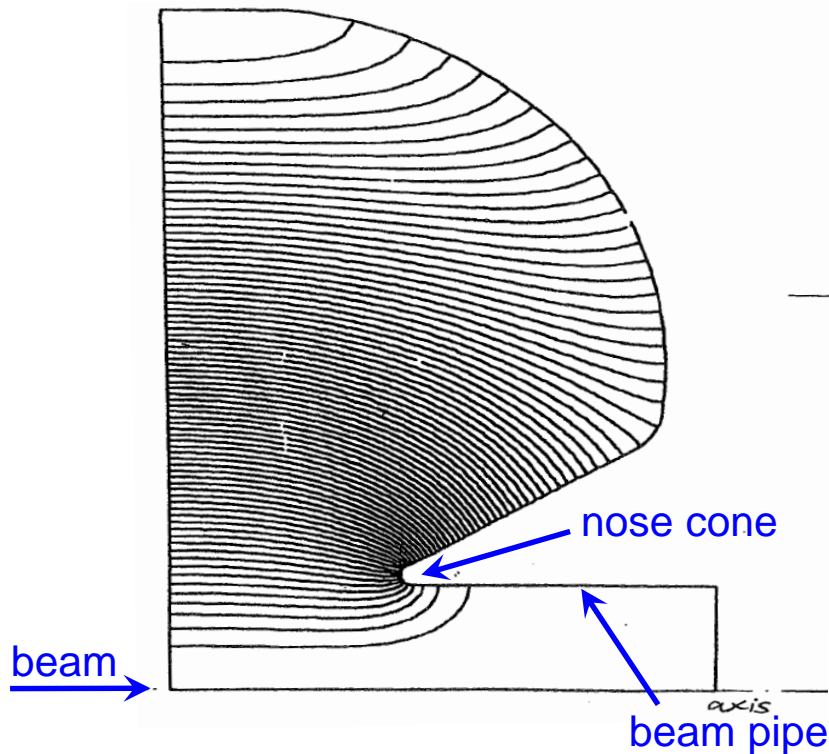
- Junction (H-plane) with conducting iris
- Magnitude of TE_{10} electric field



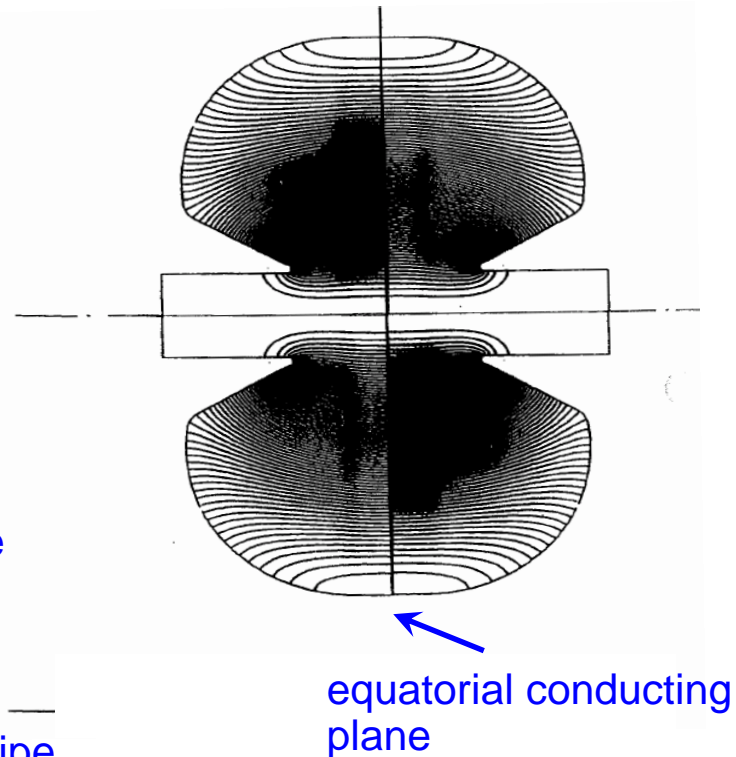
1: Due to the iris, the field is not symmetric!

Nose cone cavity: field pattern

type-1 cavity with all symmetries exploited

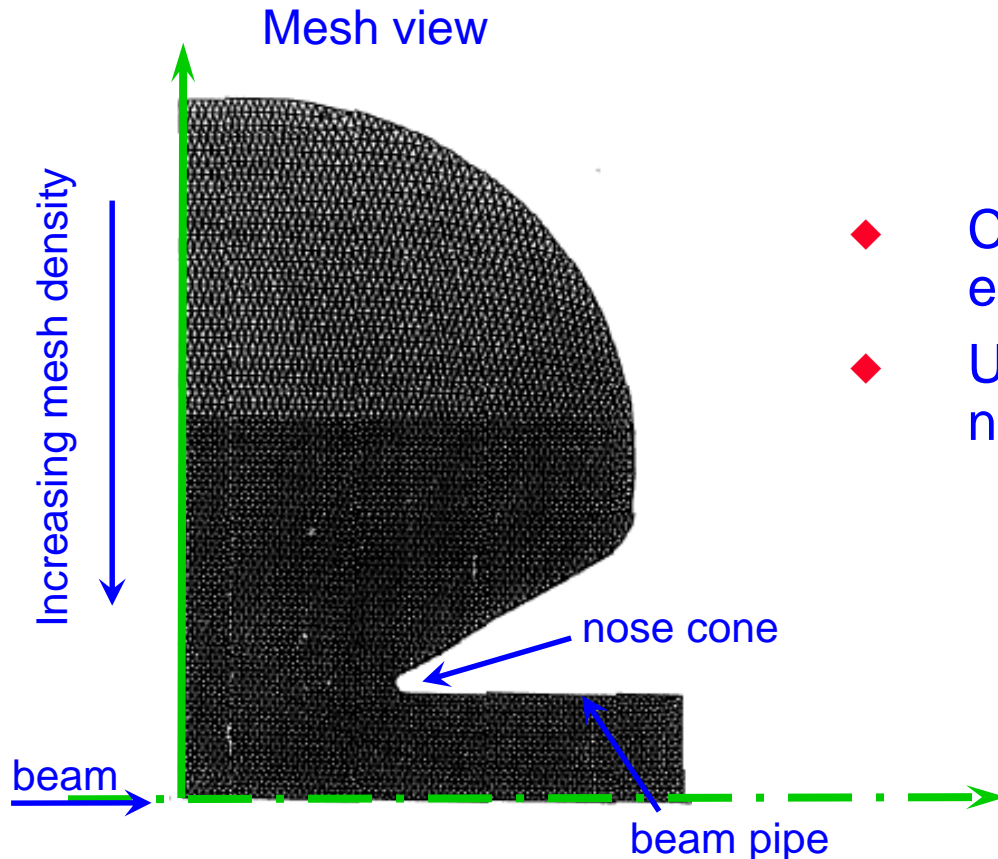


entire type-1 cavity



- ◆ The electric field lines are plotted

Superfish: 2 ½ D simulation¹



- ◆ Calculate resonant modes using eigenmode analysis
- ◆ Use symmetries to reduce the number of mesh points!!!
 - rotational symmetry around axis
 - left-right symmetry by defining metallic boundary (electric field lines perpendicular to this plane)

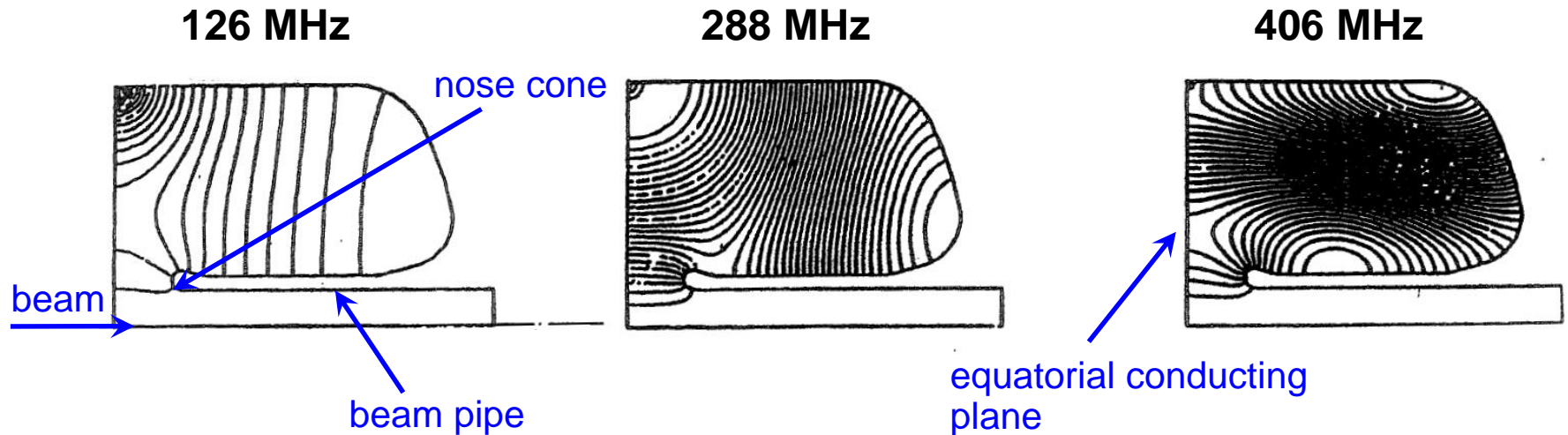
1: The name Superfish is derived from the Poisson equation (poisson is French for fish)

Why 2 ½ D? 2 D for the rotational symmetry of the object ½ D for using electric and magnetic symmetry planes

This example is a very old simulation from around 1980

Higher order modes (HOMs)

Slightly different cavity:

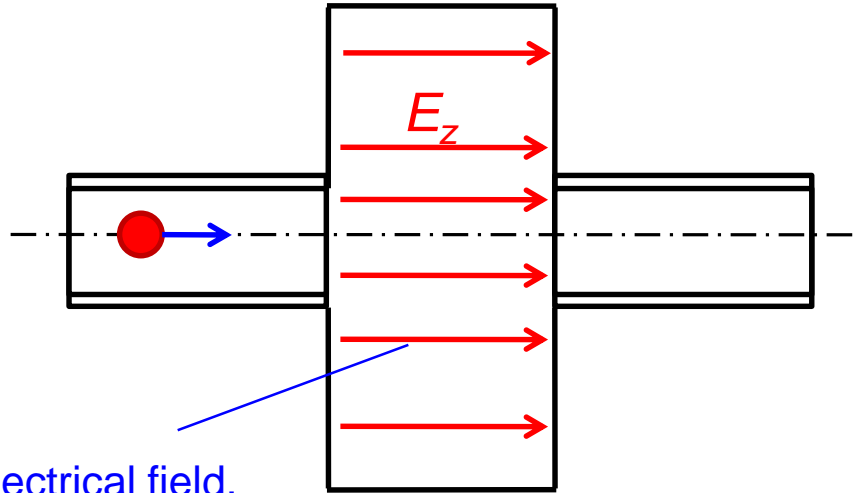


Higher order modes in a 100-MHz cavity.

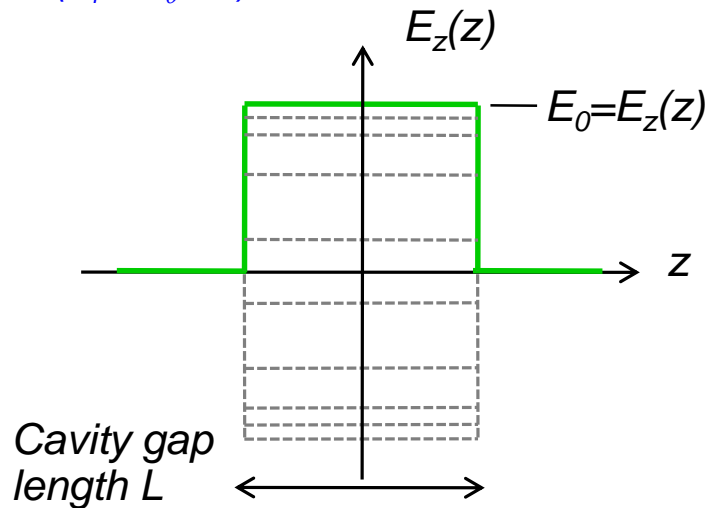
All these modes are TM type modes. This is due to the boundary condition: electric wall in equatorial plane.

references: G. Rogner, CERN report SPS/SME/Note 86-65

Transit time factor (1)



const. electrical field,
e.g. E_{010} mode ($E_r = E_\theta = 0$)



Cavity gap
length L

The “voltage” in a cavity along the particle trajectory (which coincides with the axis of the cavity) is given by the integral along this path for a fixed moment in time:

$$V = \int_L E_z(z) dz$$

But: the field in the cavity is varying in time:

$$\begin{aligned} E_z(z, t) &= E_z(z) f(t) \\ &= E_z(z) \cos(\omega t + \varphi) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the field seen by the particle is

$$V = E_0 \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} \cos(\omega t + \varphi) dz$$

Transit time factor (2)

The transit time factor describes the amount of the supplied RF-energy that is effectively used to accelerate the traversing particle.

$$T = \frac{V}{\hat{V}}$$

V ... voltage seen by a particle
 \hat{V} ... reference voltage

→ relative loss in accelerating voltage

Usually, as a reference the moment of time is taken when the longitudinal field strength of the cavity is at its maximum, i.e. $\cos(\varphi)=1$. A particle with infinite velocity passing through the cavity at this moment would see

$$\hat{V} = E_0 L$$

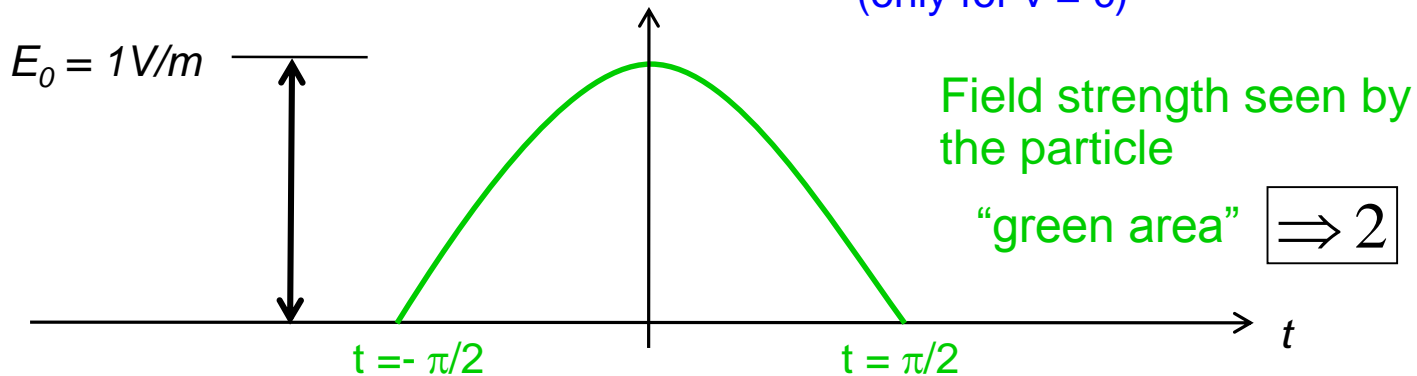
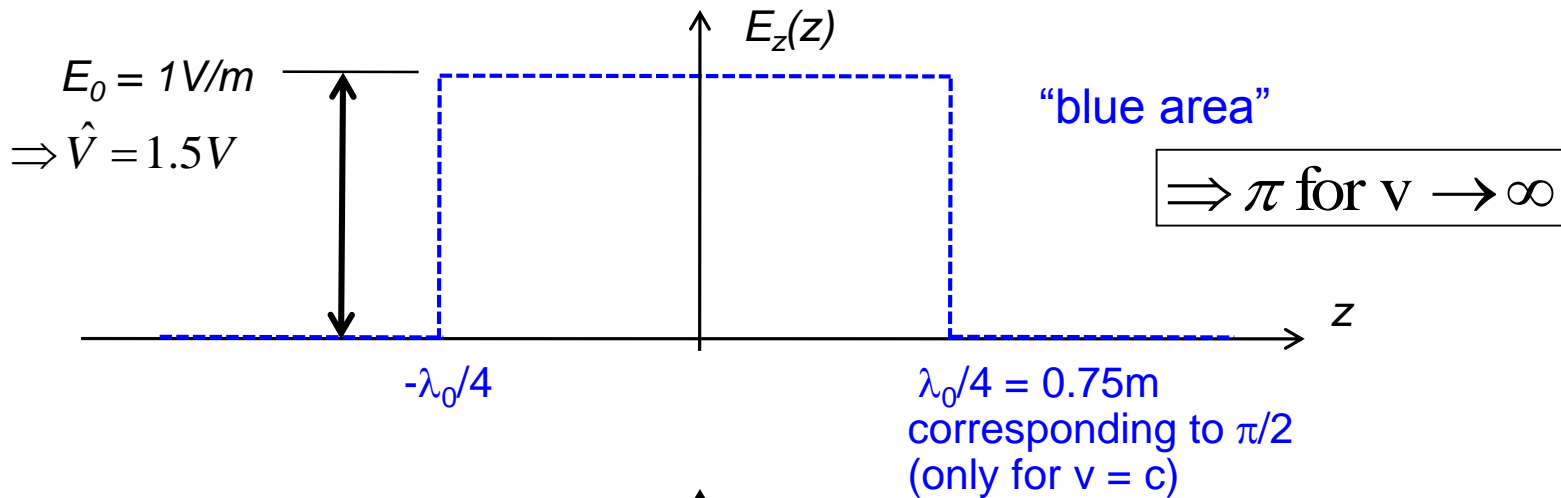
Now the particle is sampling this field with a finite velocity. This velocity is given by $v = \beta c$. The resulting transit time factor returns therefore as

$$T = \sin\left(\frac{L \omega}{2 \beta c}\right) / \left(\frac{L \omega}{2 \beta c}\right)$$

Transit time factor, p.565f. ,Alexander Wu Chao, Handbook of Accelerator Physics and Engineering

Transit time factor (3)

Example: Cavity gap length $L = \lambda_0/2$
 $\lambda_0 = 1\text{m}$ corresponding to $f = 300\text{MHz}$
 particle velocity $v = c$ or $\beta = 1$



Acceleration

We have “slow” particles with β significantly below 1. They become faster when they gain energy and in a circular accelerator with fixed radius we must tune the cavity (increase its resonance frequency).

When already highly relativistic particles become accelerated (gaining momentum) they cannot become significantly faster as they are already very close to c , but they become heavier. Here we can see very nicely the conversion of energy into mass. In this case no or little tuning of the resonance frequency of the cavity is required. It is sufficient to move the frequency of the RF generator within the 3dB bandwidth of the cavity.

Fast tuning (fast cycling machines) can only be done electronically and is implemented in most cases by varying the inductance via the effective μ of a ferrite.

Tuning of cavities (1)

Slater's perturbation theorem:
$$\frac{\Delta f}{f} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta W}{W} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta C}{C} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta L}{L}$$

with W designating the energy

stored in the cavity (see also slide equivalent circuit (2))

◆ Inductive tuner

- In regions of high magnetic field
- increases resonant frequency ($\Delta W < 0$)

$$\Delta W = -\frac{\Delta L I^2}{2}; \quad dW = -\frac{\mu_0 \mu_r H^2}{2} dV$$

◆ Capacitive tuner

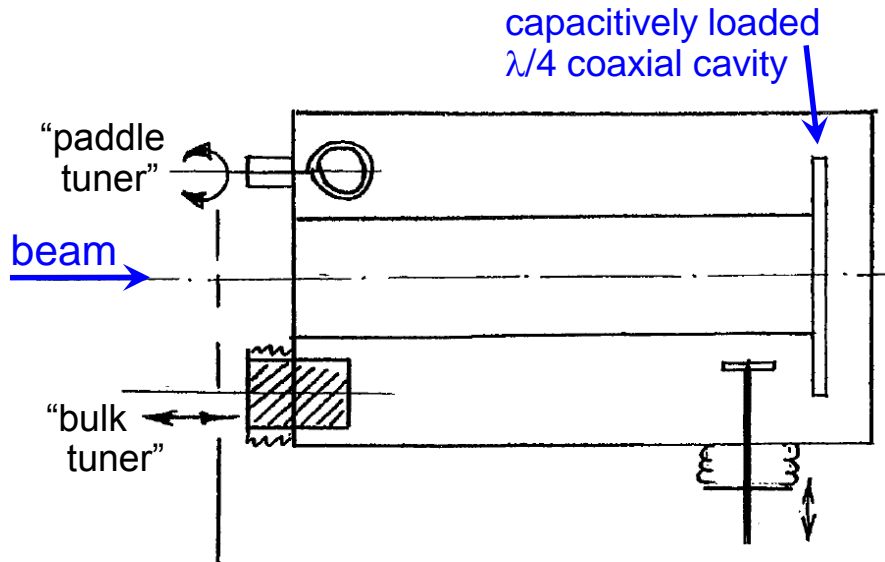
- In regions of high electric field
- decreases resonant frequency ($\Delta W > 0$)

$$\Delta W = \frac{\Delta C V^2}{2}; \quad dW = \frac{\varepsilon_0 \varepsilon_r E^2}{2} dV$$

Tuning of cavities (2)

◆ Operational tuning

- paddle tuner
- bulk tuner



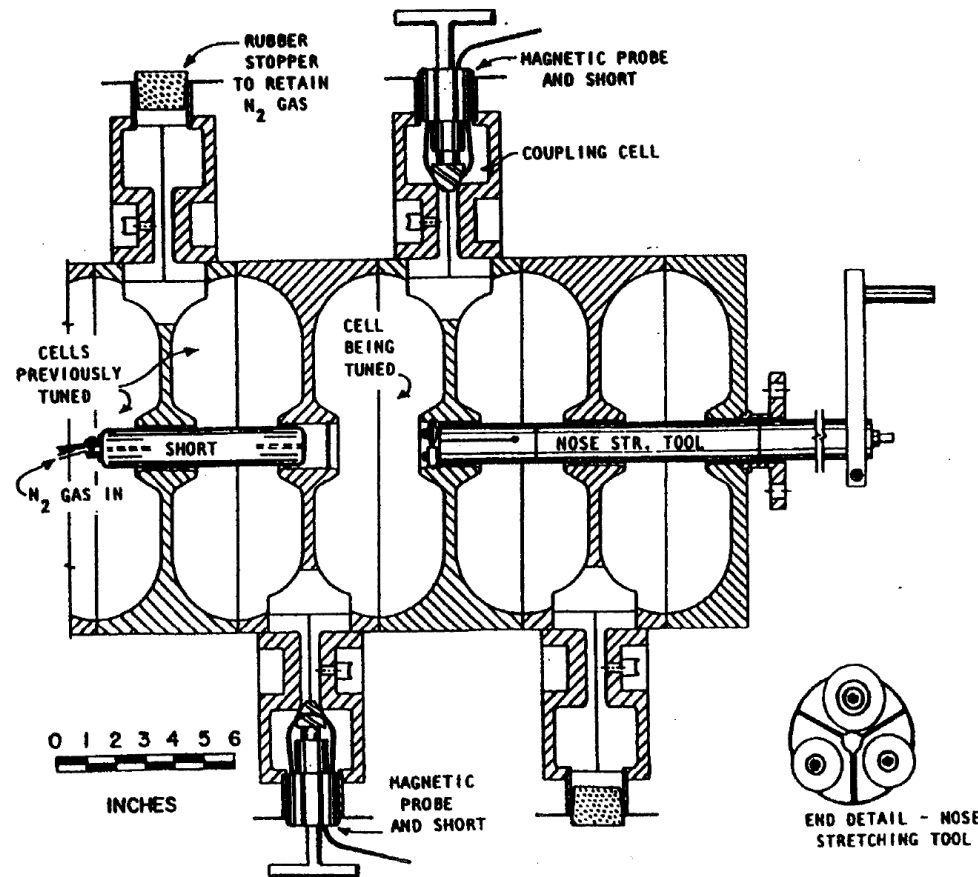
◆ Tuning by global deformation

- mechanically (SC cavities)
- thermally

Source of right image: G.R Swain et al., "Cavity tuning for the LAMPF 805 MHz Linac", 1972 Linac Conference, p. 242

◆ Initial tuning during manufacture

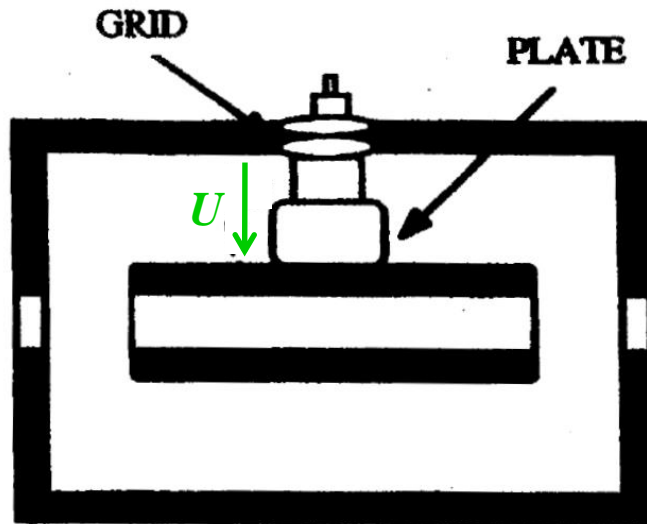
- Bumping, dummy tuners
- modification of joint sizes or plating thickness



Coupling and Tuning

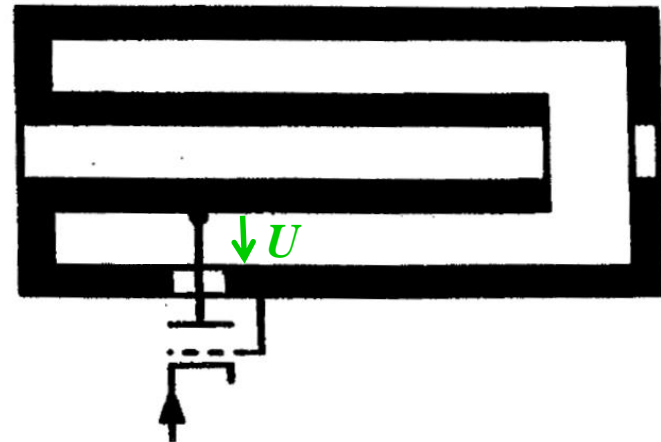
Coupling cavities to the outside world (1)

- ◆ Direct coupling (DC coupling)
Generator (tube) has to "see" a certain voltage U



"Wideroe" or $\lambda/2$ structure

basic $\lambda/4$ - resonator



Source: M. Puglisi: "Conventional RF cavity design"
CAS "RF engineering for Particle Accelerators", CERN 92-03, Vol. 1

Coupling cavities to the outside world (2)

Acts as transformer:

◆ Inductive coupling

Generator requirement:

P ... required power

Z ... optimum load resistance

Induced voltage in loop:

$$V = \sqrt{2PZ}$$

$$V = \mu_0 \frac{d}{dt} \int_S H ds$$

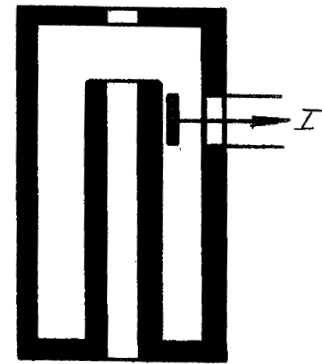
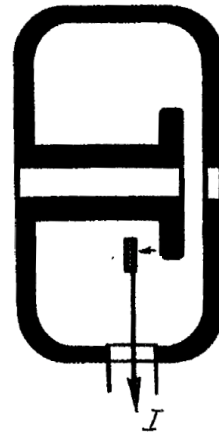
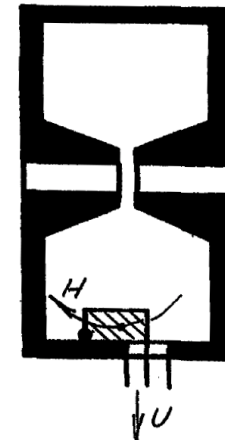
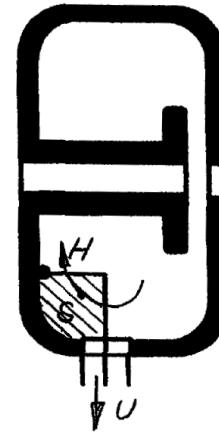
◆ Capacitive coupling

Generator requirement:

Induced displacement current

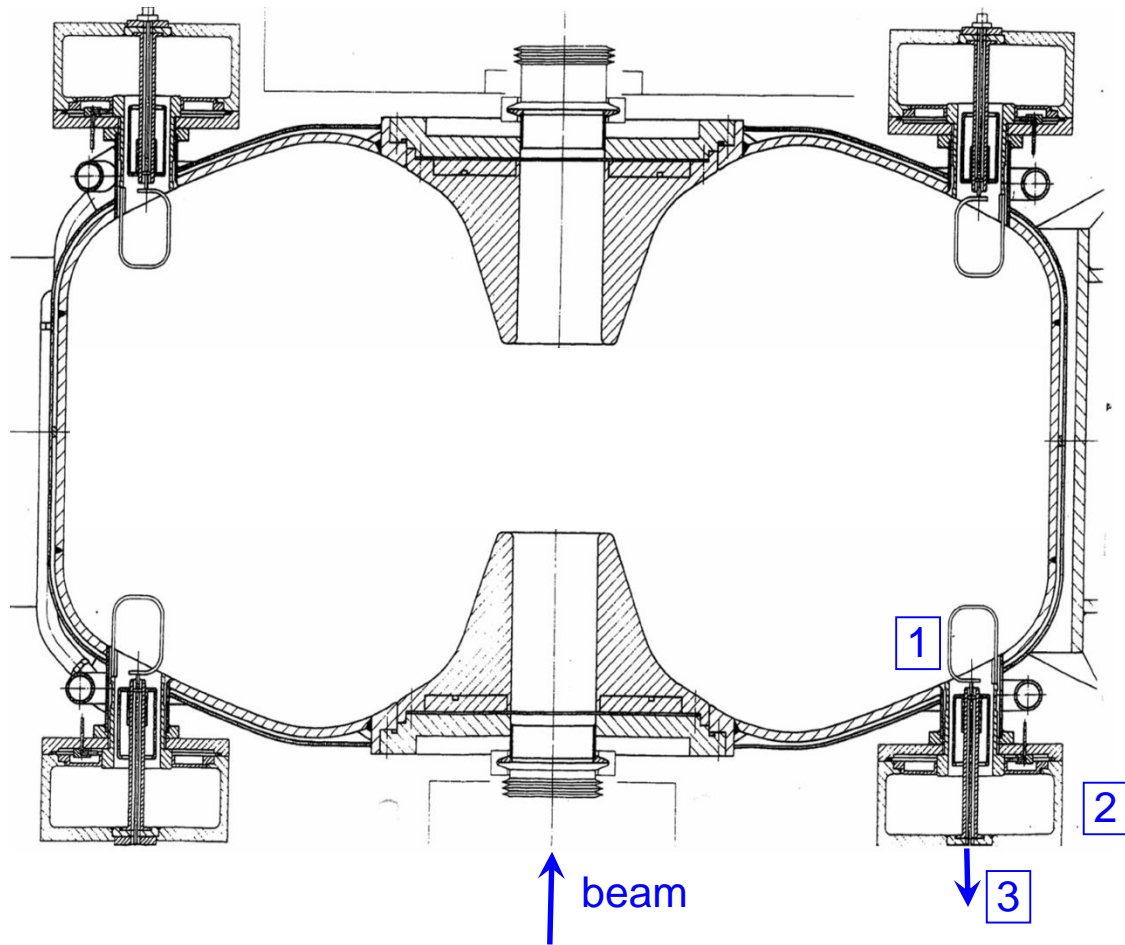
$$I = \sqrt{2P/Z}$$

$$V = \varepsilon_0 \frac{d}{dt} \int_S E ds$$



General example

A single-cell configuration: 114-MHz room temperature cavity of CERN PS. Type I profile with nose-cone to optimize shunt impedance



- 1: higher order mode (HOM) coupling loop which serves for eliminating beam-induced power
- 2: HOM filter
- 3: HOM power guided towards load and dissipated

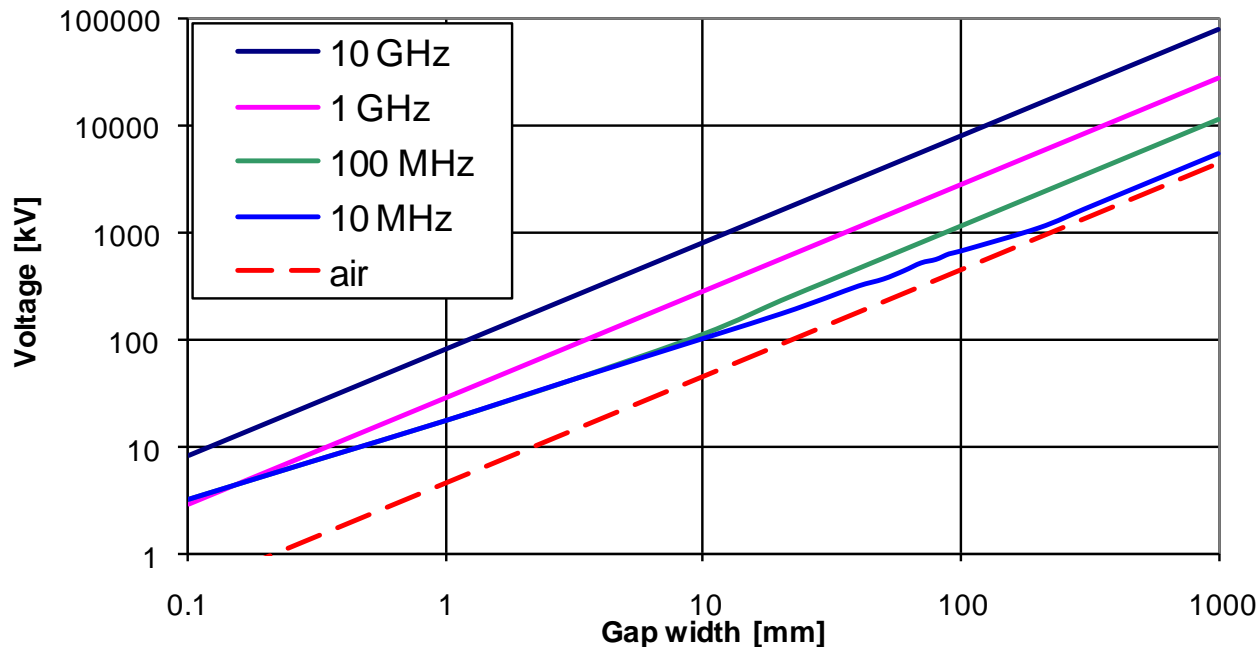
“Kilpatrick” voltage breakdown (1)

The maximum E field achievable is limited by a process known as RF **breakdown**.
The Breakdown voltage is given by

$$W \cdot E^2 \cdot e^{\frac{-1.7 \cdot 10^5}{E}} = 1.8 \cdot 10^{14}$$

where W [eV] is the impact energy of the electrons and E the electric field [V/m]
(W = E * gap width for DC, W < E * gap width for RF).

- ◆ High power effect
- ◆ Destructive!!
- ◆ Breakdown voltage proportional to square root of frequency



Breakdown voltage given in plot for vacuum (solid lines) and in air (dashed line)

“Kilpatrick” voltage breakdown (2)

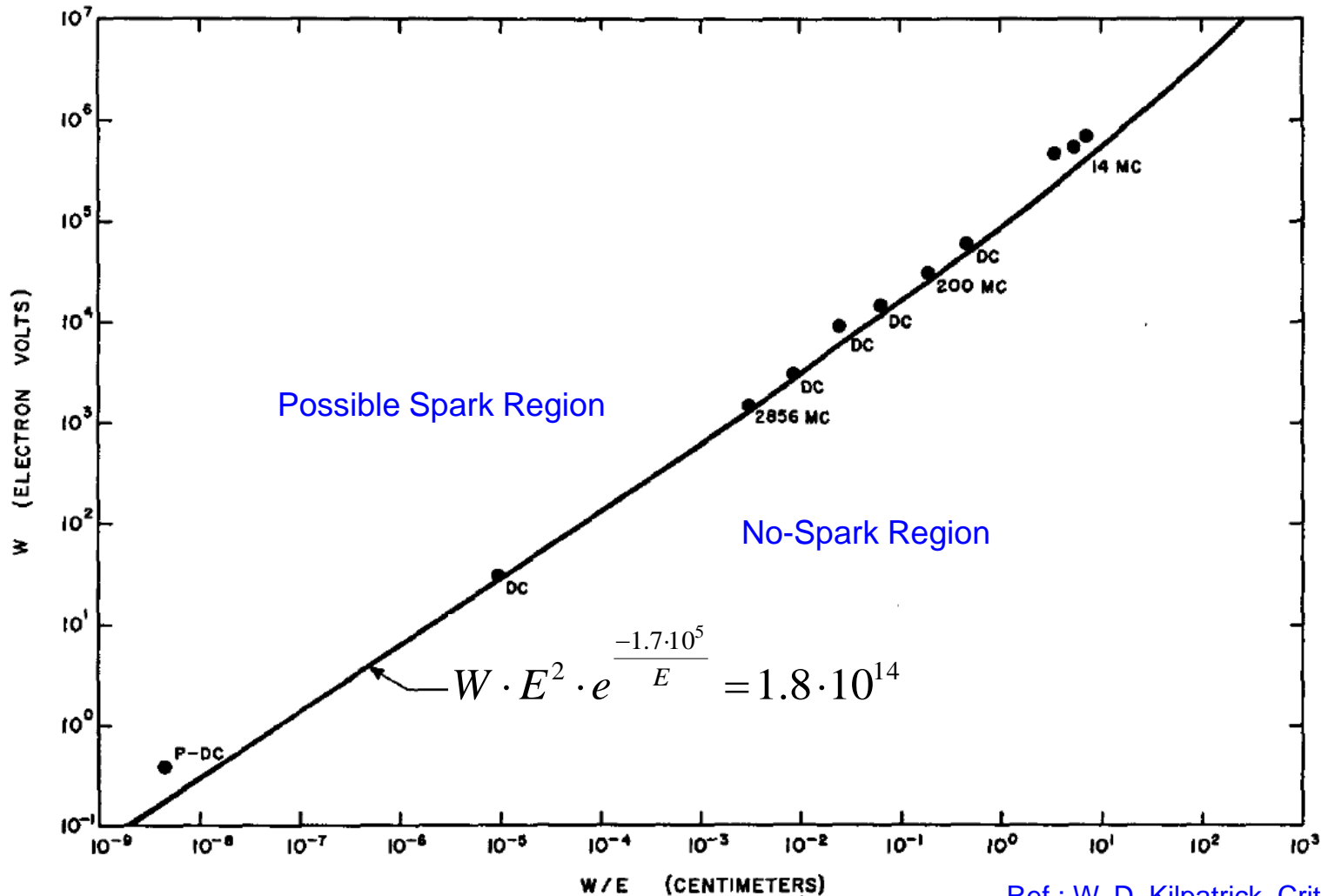
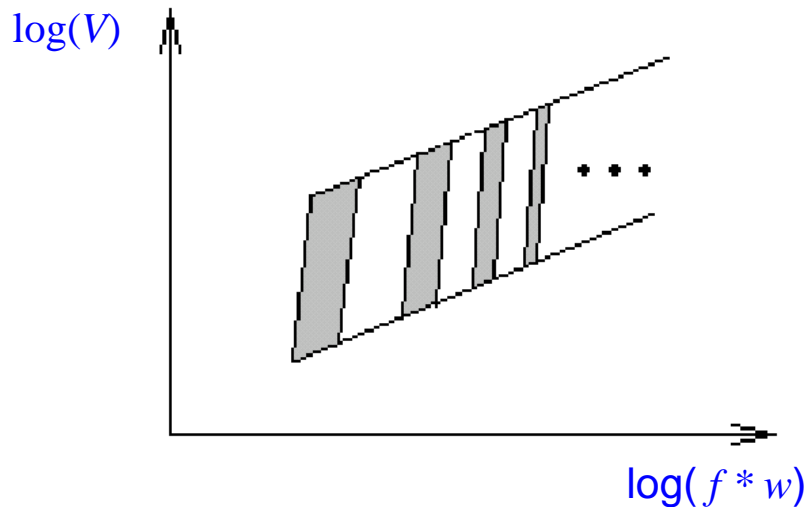
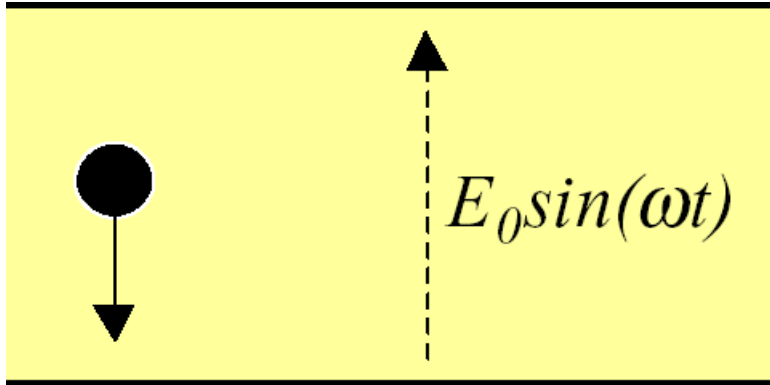


FIG. 1. W is the maximum ion energy at the cathode, in electron volts. For dc, W corresponds to the applied voltage, and W/E is the gap spacing for plane parallel fields. For rf, W is a function of frequency and gap (see text).

Ref.: W. D. Kilpatrick, Criterion for vacuum sparking designed to include both Rf and DC, The Review of Scientific Instruments, Vol. 28, No. 10, 1957

Multipactor (1)



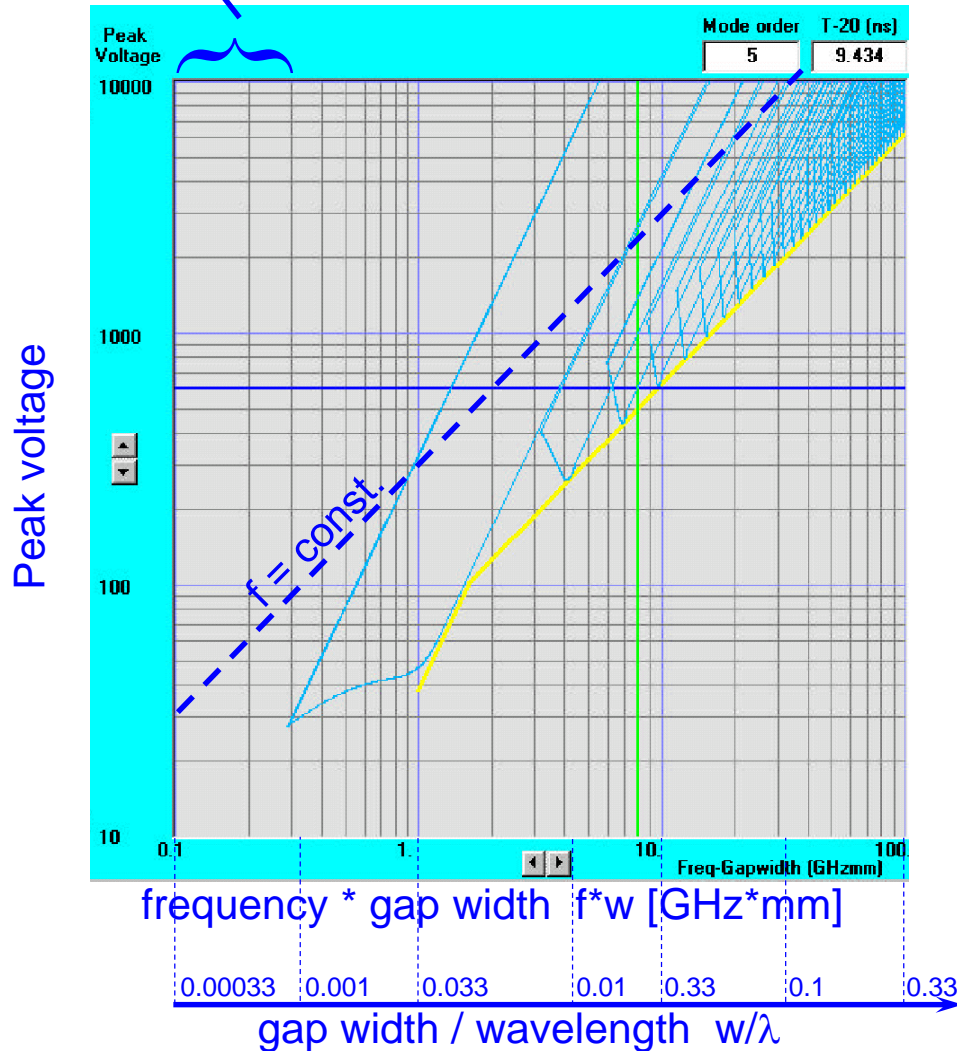
Basically,

- ◆ Electrons get accelerated in an electric field
- ◆ When they hit the wall, secondary electrons are freed
- ◆ If the electric field changes sign as it is the case for RF fields, the secondary electrons will eventually see an accelerating field
- ◆ Therefore, at least for some distinct frequency bands and accelerating voltages, resonance effects can be expected

V ... gap voltage
 f ... RF frequency
 w ... gap width

No multipactor for very small gap width or very high frequencies

Multipactor (2)

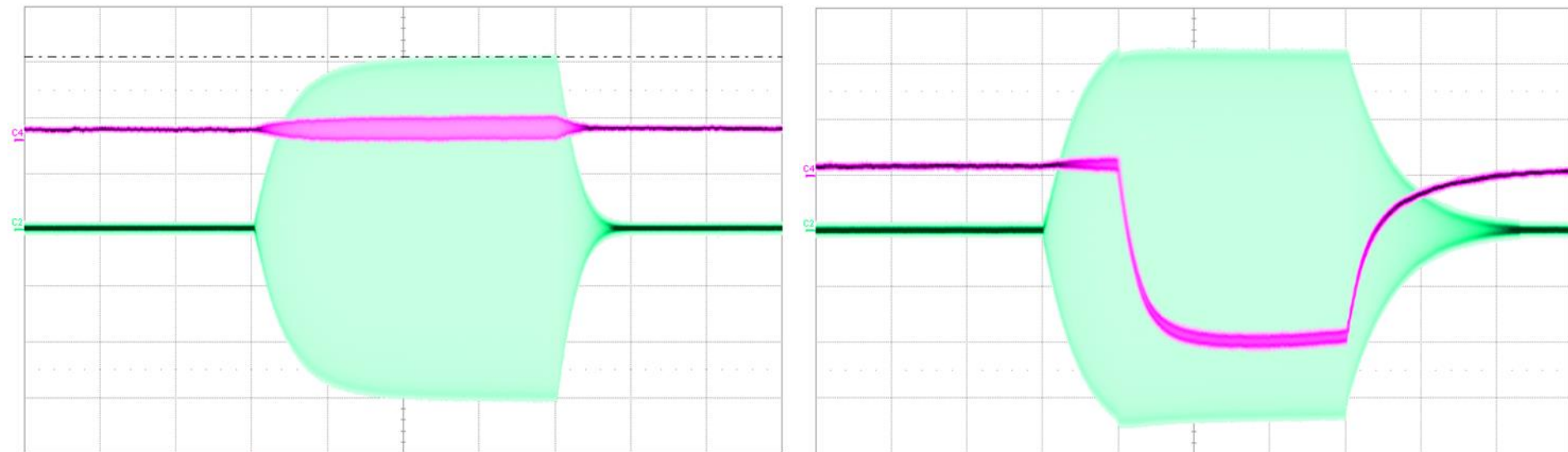


More formally,

- ◆ Multipactor is a resonant avalanche discharge, typically a **low-power effect**.
- ◆ The basic "two-point" resonance condition is met if the time of flight of an electron between electrodes equals an odd number of RF half cycles
- ◆ Other necessary condition: The coefficient of secondary electron emission must be larger than 1. This corresponds to an energy range between 50 eV and 5000 eV for copper surfaces

Multipactor calculator available at <http://www.estec.esa.nl/multipac/>

Measured time domain response of a cavity



Very few electrons= small signal from the electron probe (cyan)

many electrons= large signal from the electron probe (cyan)

- ◆ Cavity E field (green trace) and electron probe signal (cyan trace) with and without multipacting. 200 μ s RF burst duration.
Notice the exponential fill of the cavity with RF energy from the generator and also exponential decay after the RF burst

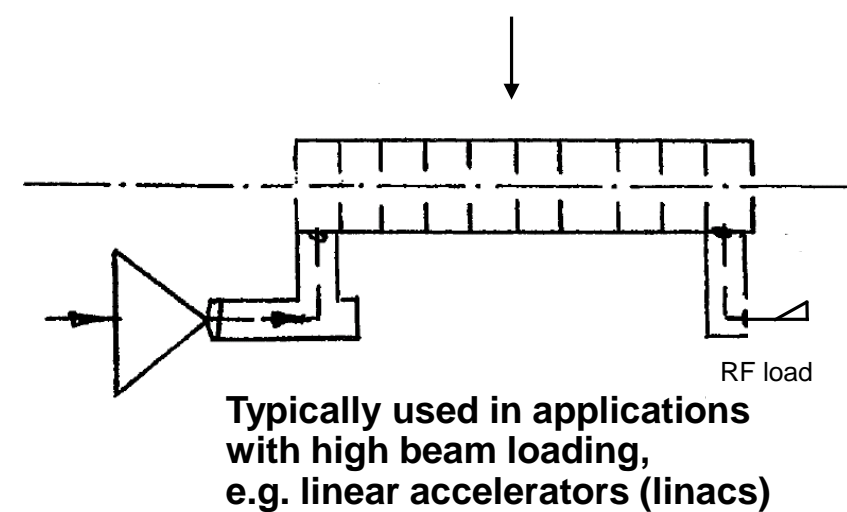
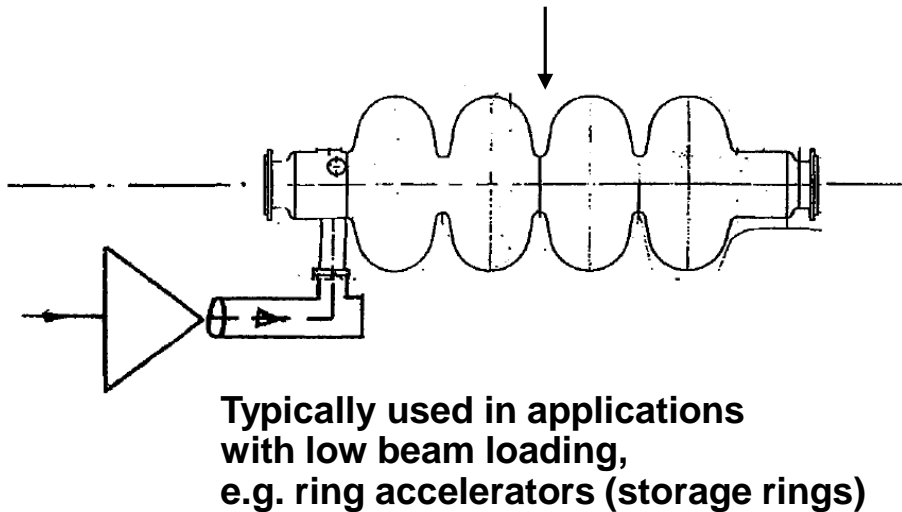
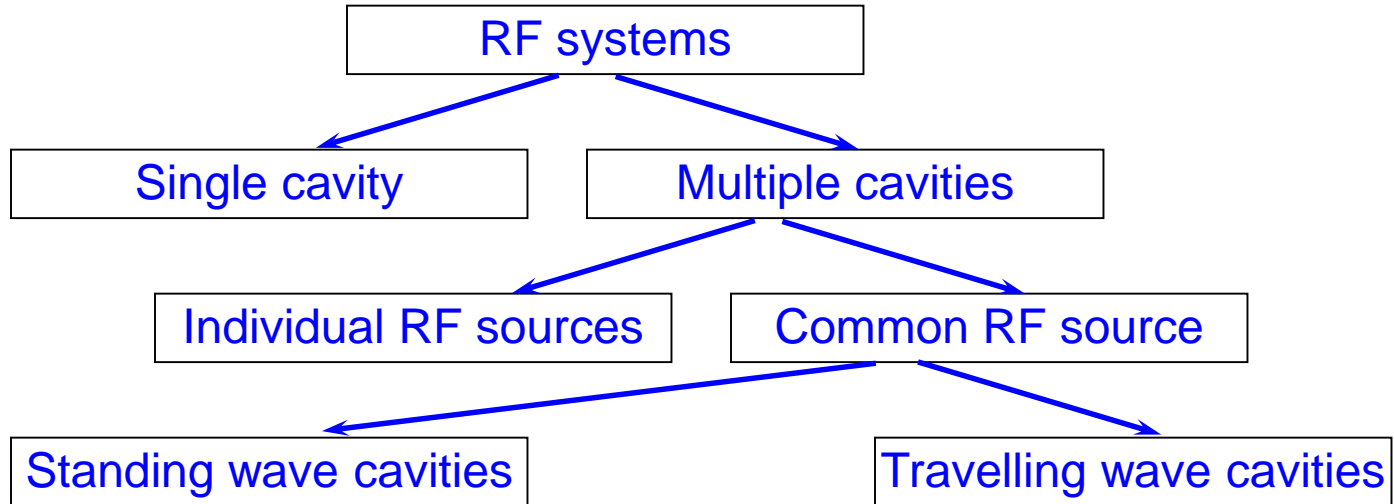
see: O. Heid, T Hughes, COMPACT SOLID STATE DIRECT DRIVE RF LINAC EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAM, IPAC Kyoto, 2010

Learning targets for Section B

At the end of this chapter you should

- Be familiar with scaling laws and able to apply them
- Have a basic idea on the mechanism of multipactor
- Be able to explain qualitatively the “multipactor bands”
- Have understood the difference between multipactor and voltage breakdown
- Know some fundamental concepts of coupling to the modes of a cavity and be able to discuss their advantages and disadvantages for a particular shape or mode
- Know some of the methods how to tune cavities and how to use the related formulae
- Have understood the basic strategies used in numerical simulation
- Having understood the meaning of dB and be able to convert any dB value to linear in terms of power and also voltage ratio.
- Know by heart the most relevant dB to linear conversions e.g. 3 dB =factor 2 in power and vice versa
- Be familiar with the mode chart for higher order modes of coaxial lines and resonators and able to carry out related calculations
- Having understood the relevance and meaning of the transit time factor both for highly relativistic and also for slow beams.
- Be familiar with the skin effect and be able to apply the formulae as well as the graph for all kind of technically used metals in accelerator design

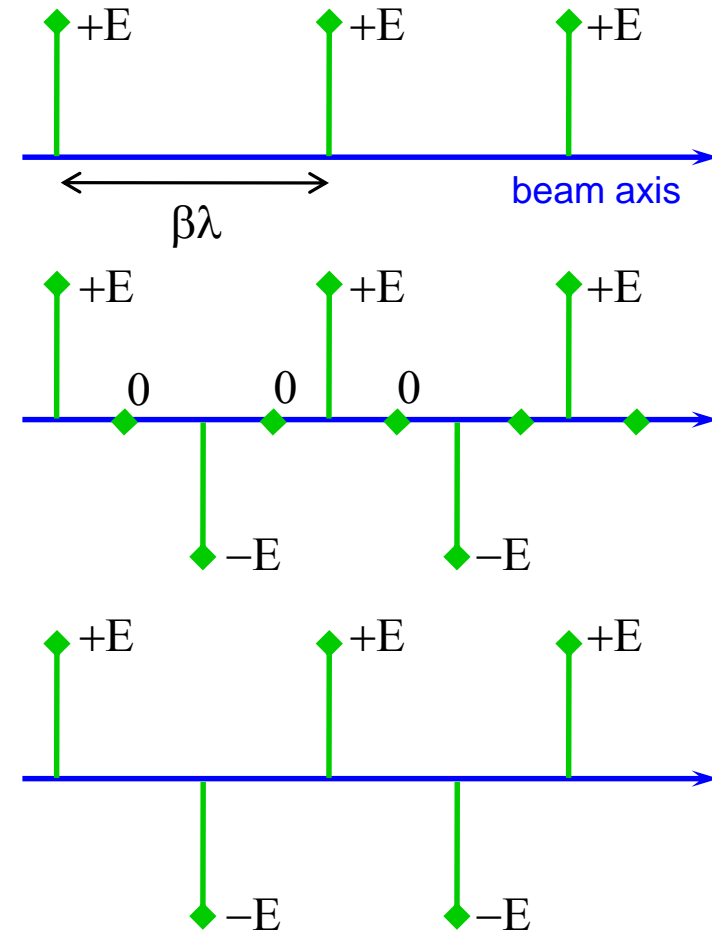
RF systems



Why? The standing wave cavity need for time to be filled with RF energy compared to the travelling wave one

Standing wave cavities

- ◆ The only possible phase differences between the SW fields in lossless cells are 0° or 180° wrt $\beta\lambda$
- ◆ For N cells there are N possible longitudinal modes. Practically used modes:
 - 0° (zero mode): Gap distance $\beta\lambda$ with $\beta = v/c$. Structures: Alvarez Drift Tube Line (DTL)
 - 90° ($\pi/2$ mode): Distance active cell to coupling cell $\beta\lambda/4$ or $\beta\lambda/2$. Structures: Side coupled, Disk and Washer
 - 180° (π mode): Gap distance $\beta\lambda/2$. Structures: Wideroe, superconducting cavities (LHC, TESLA), Interdigital (IH)

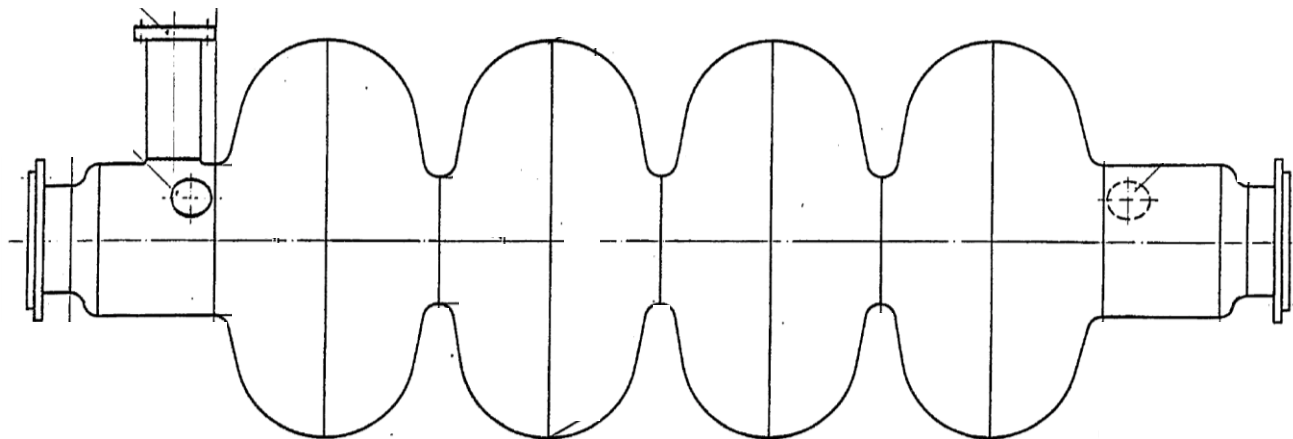
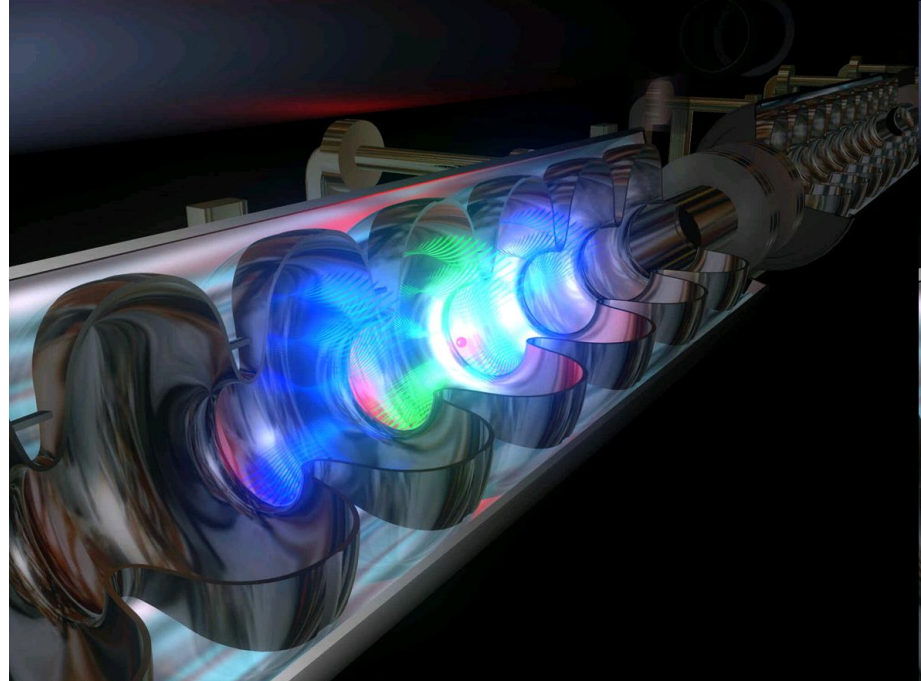


Travelling wave cavities

- ◆ Phase difference between adjacent cells can be chosen arbitrarily to assure synchronism with beam. Values around $2\pi/3$ often give best compromise between structure length, group velocity (filling time) and overall dissipation.
- ◆ Without beam loading, (almost) the entire input power is dissipated in the absorber and the end of the structure.
- ◆ The field decay due to attenuation of the structure can be taken into account by designing "constant gradient" rather than constant geometry structures.
- ◆ There exists a specific amount of beam loading for which all RF power is transmitted to the beam, resulting in zero power dissipated in the absorber =>"fully loaded" structure.
- ◆ Repercussion of beam loading and structure transients on generator is minimized.
- ◆ Structures
- ◆ Loaded waveguide (generally used in electron linacs, e.g. CERN LIL, CLIC ...), Parallel bar

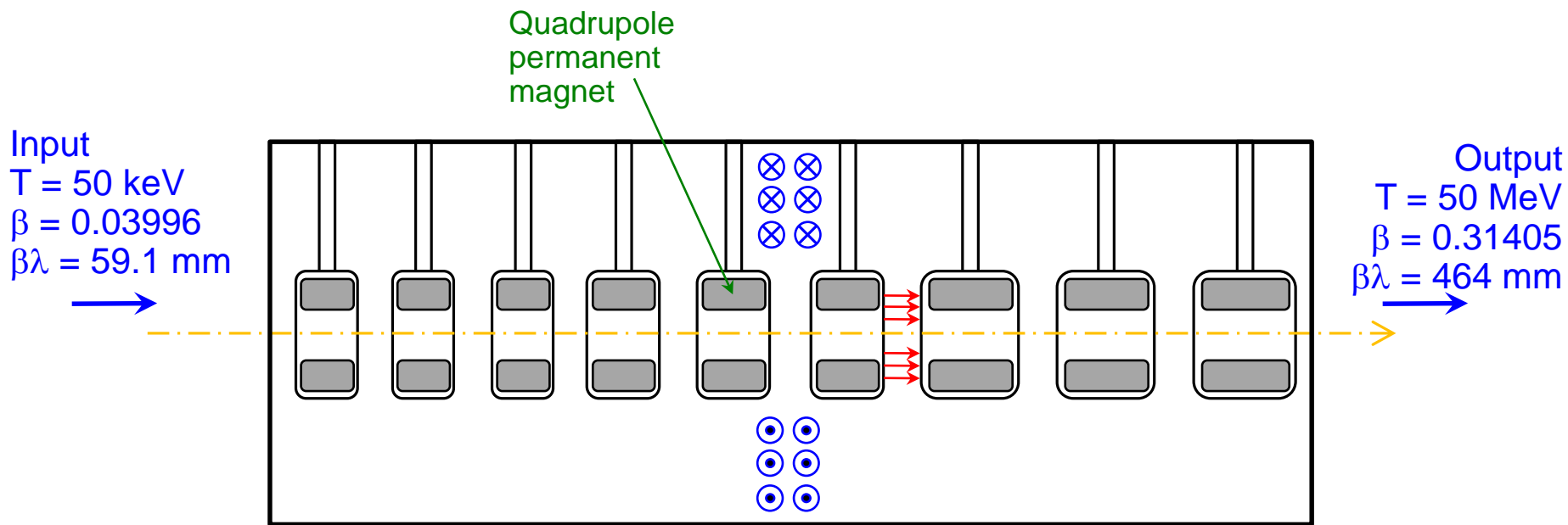
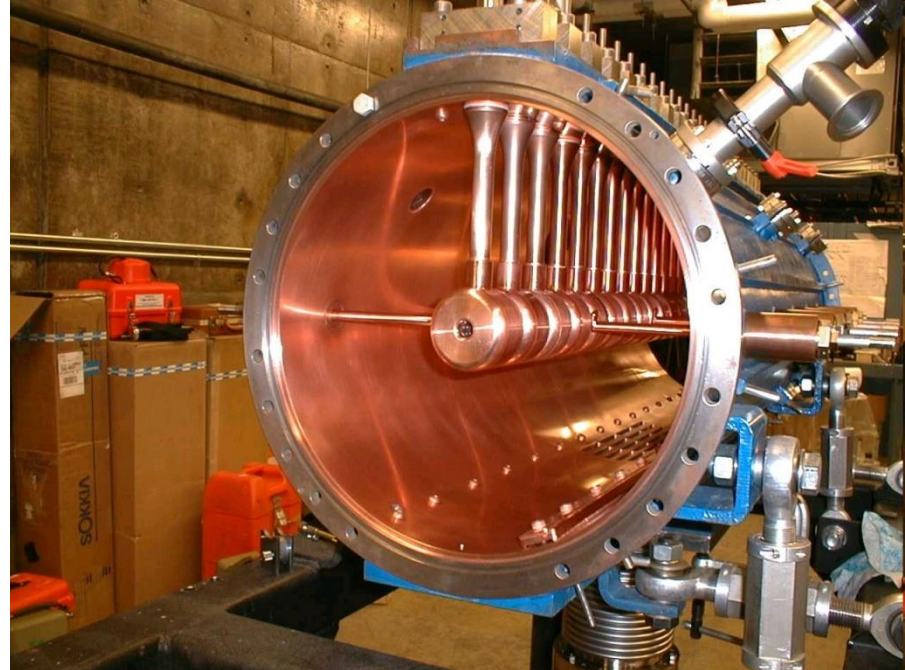
Examples (1)

- ◆ Standing wave cavity in multicell configuration
- ◆ This superconducting cavity was used in CERN's LEP
- ◆ "Type II" profile without nose-cone to avoid multipactor and reduce r/Q



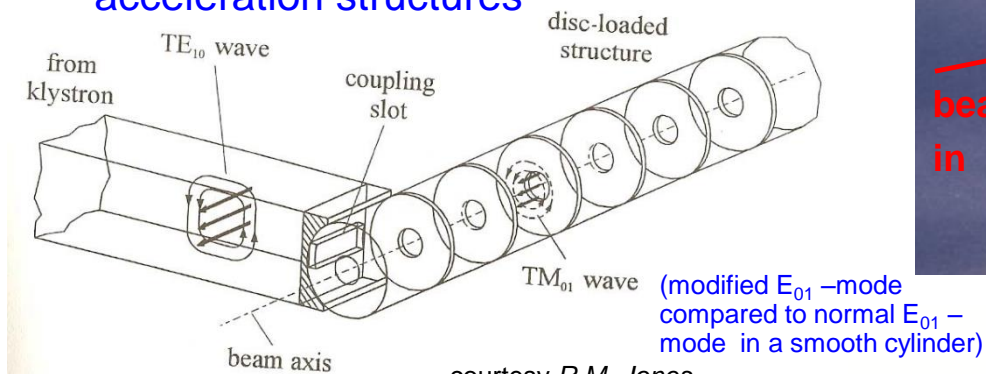
Examples (2)

- ◆ Standing wave drift tube resonator
- ◆ Below: An ALVAREZ structure (Drift tubes with interposed quadrupole magnets), used in the CERN 50 MeV Proton LINAC
Frequency: 202.56 MHz thus $\lambda \approx 1500$ mm

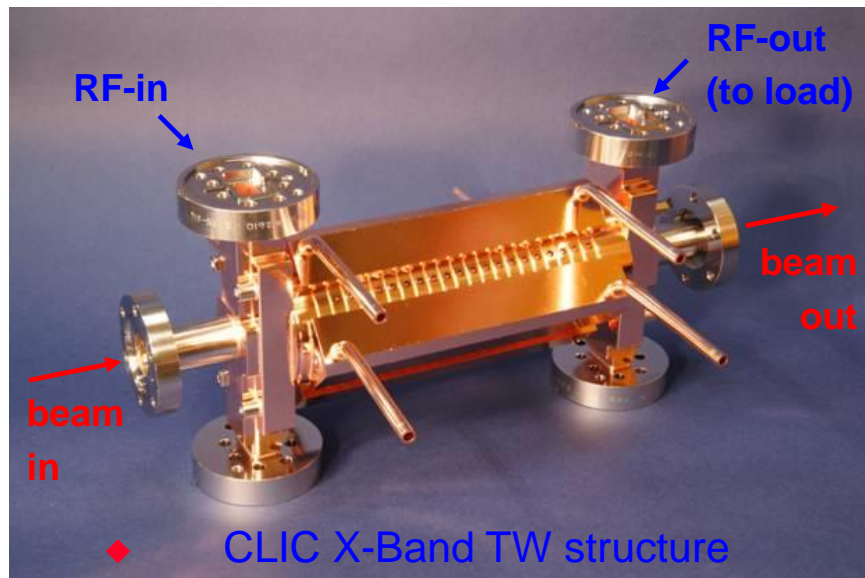
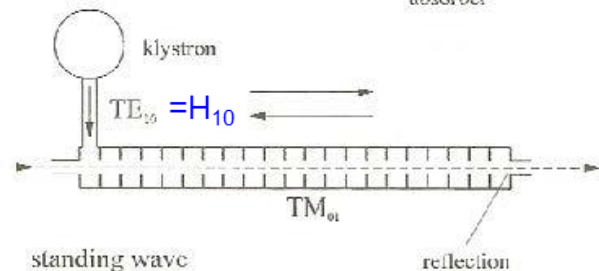
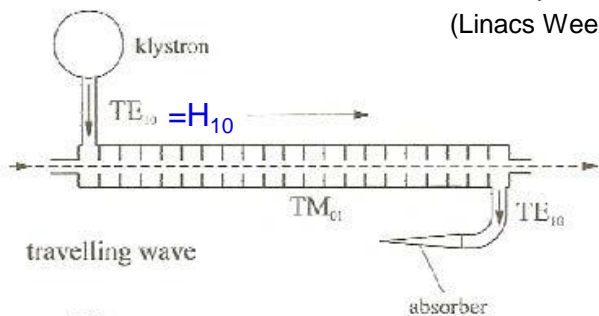


Examples (3)

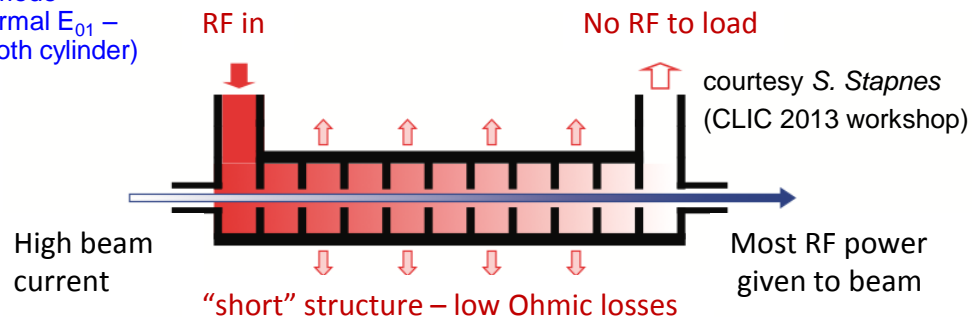
- ◆ Travelling wave accelerating structures
- ◆ TW and SW operation of disk-loaded acceleration structures



courtesy R.M. Jones
(Linacs Week, April 2007)

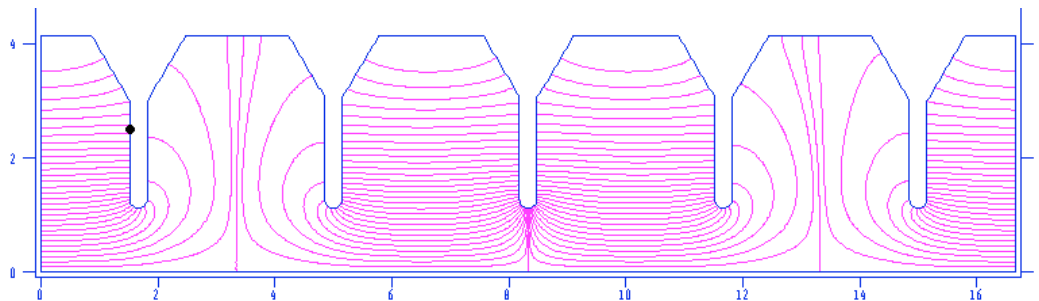


◆ CLIC X-Band TW structure



courtesy S. Stapnes
(CLIC 2013 workshop)

◆ 5-cell TW 2/3 π mode Superfish simulation



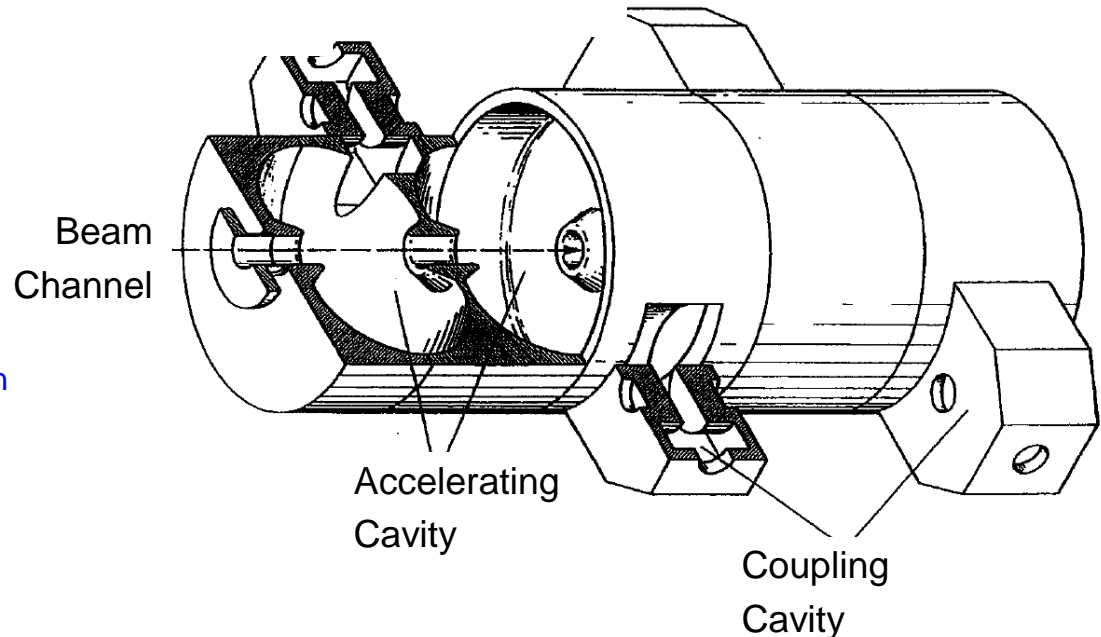
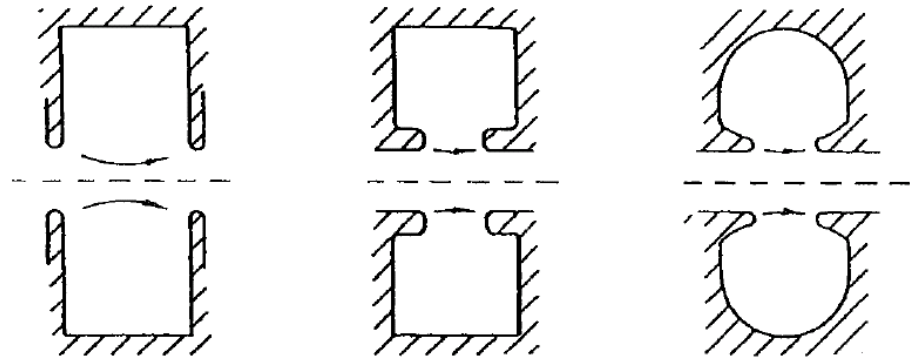
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courtesy A. Setty
(PAC 2013)

Multiple cell cavities

Side coupled structures

- ◆ Cavity geometry changes to optimize shunt impedance
- ◆ Higher shunt impedance => higher accelerating gradient
- ◆ Side coupled cavity configuration for optimum shunt impedance

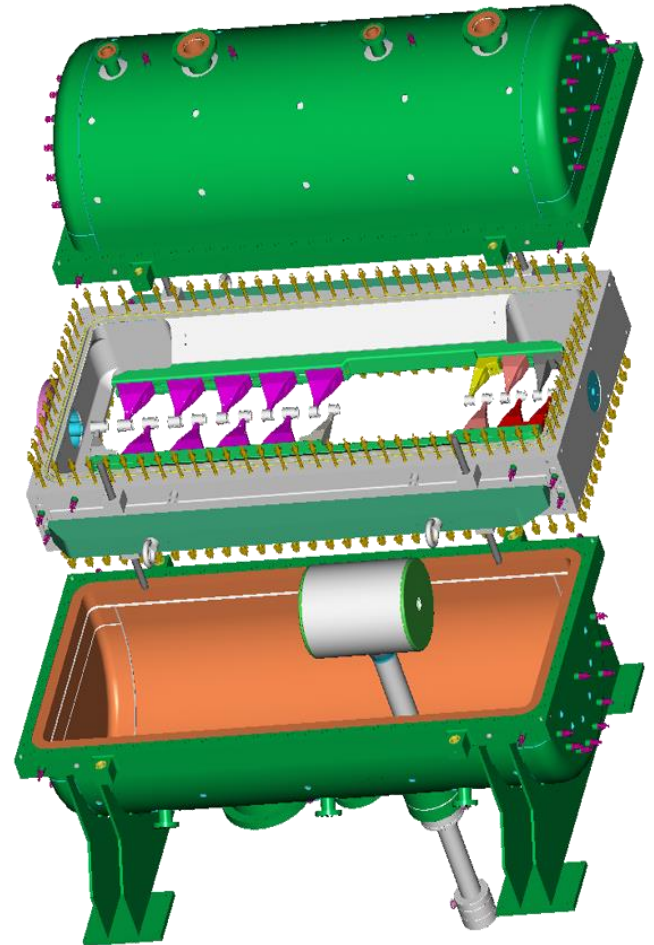


Source: E.A. Knapp and W Shlaer: Design and initial performance of a 20MeV high-current side-coupled cavity electron accelerator, 1968 Linac Conference Proceedings, p. 635 to 649

The IH structure

- ◆ IH stands for Interdigital H mode
- ◆ Interleaved fingers “adapt” the deformed H (TE) mode that is usually only deflecting
- ◆ Inside the resonator tank cylindrical cavity drift tubes of varying length (matching the ion velocity) are mounted alternating on opposite sides. The magnetic field lines are parallel to the beam axis and the induced currents flow azimuthally on the wall, creating electric fields of alternating direction between the drift tubes. This field forces the ions forward.
- ◆ The big pot is necessary for transverse focusing.

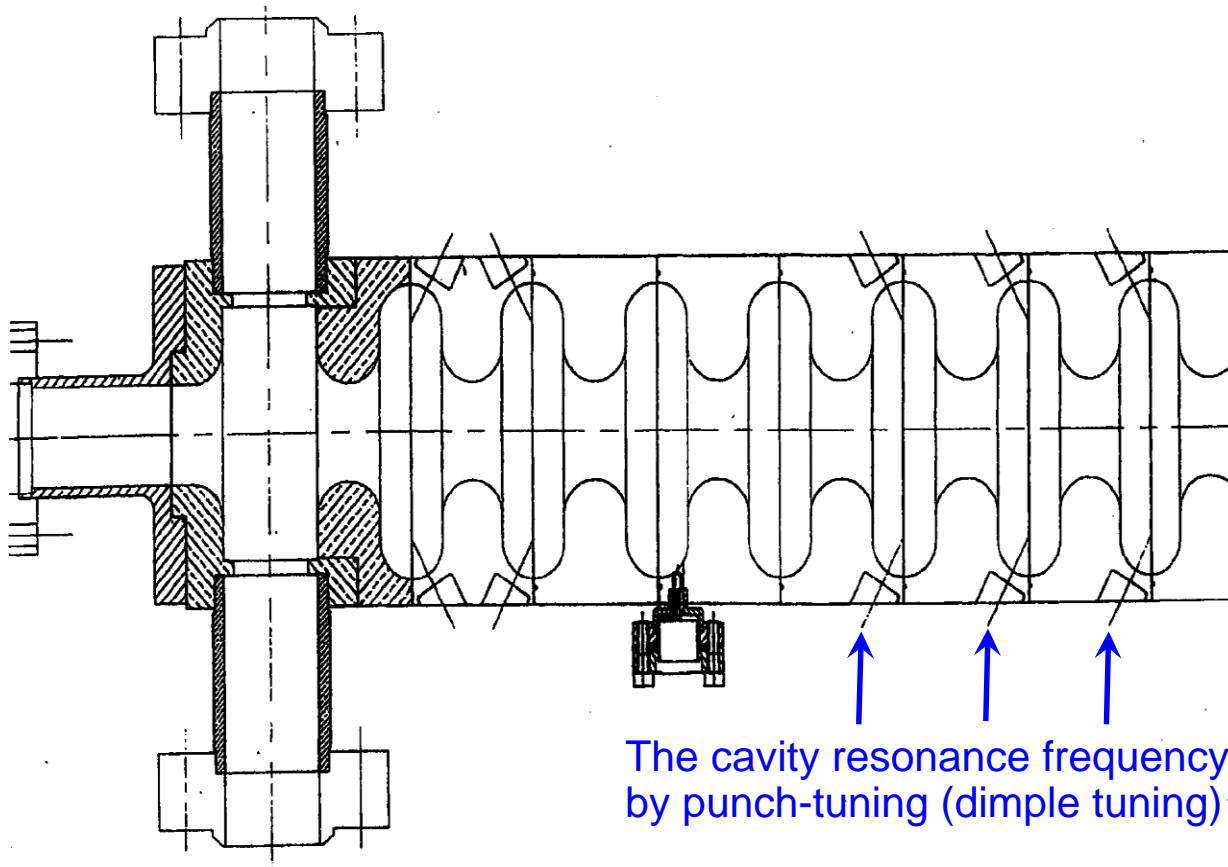
Properties of the structure on the right:
 $E_{in} = 300 \text{ keV}$, $E_{out} = 1.1\text{-}1.2 \text{ MeV}$
Electrode voltage $V_{eff} = 4.05 \text{ MV}$
Tank length $L = 1.5 \text{ m}$
Number of gaps = 20
Peak power consumption $W_{peak} = 36 \text{ kW}$



Source: fy.chalmers.se/subatom/f2bfw/poster97_ps_pic/ihstructure.ppt

A disc loaded waveguide structure

CERN LIL (Linear Injector for LEP), operating frequency 2.98 GHz



The cavity resonance frequency can be changed by punch-tuning (dimple tuning) at these spots.

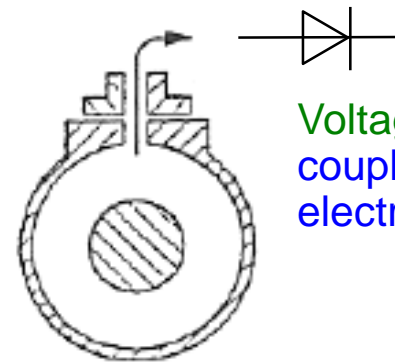
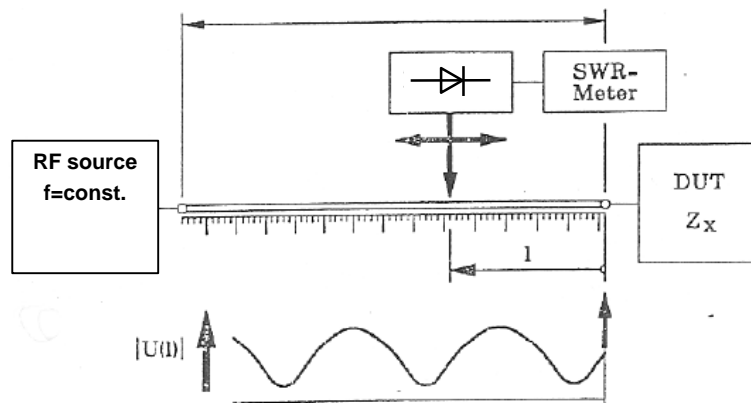
Voltage Standing Wave Ratio (1)

Origin of the term “*VOLTAGE Standing Wave Ratio – VSWR*”:

In the old days when there were no Vector Network Analyzers available, the reflection coefficient of some DUT (device under test) was determined with the coaxial measurement line.

Was is a coaxial measurement line?

This is a coaxial line with a narrow slot (slit) in length direction. In this slit a small voltage probe connected to a crystal detector (detector diode) is moved along the line. By measuring the ratio between the **maximum** and the **minimum voltage** seen by the probe and the recording the **position** of the maxima and minima the **reflection coefficient** of the DUT at the end of the line can be determined.



Voltage probe weakly coupled to the radial electric field.

Cross-section of the coaxial measurement line

Voltage Standing Wave Ratio (2)

VOLTAGE DISTRIBUTION ON LOSSLESS TRANSMISSION LINES

For an **ideally terminated** line the magnitude of voltage and current are **constant** along the line, their phase vary **linearly**.

In presence of a notable load reflection the voltage and current distribution along a transmission line are no longer uniform but exhibit characteristic ripples. The phase pattern resembles more and more to a staircase rather than a ramp.

A frequently used term is the “**Voltage Standing Wave Ratio VSWR**” that gives the ratio between maximum and minimum voltage along the line. It is related to load reflection by the expression

$$\begin{aligned} V_{\max} &= |a| + |b| \\ V_{\min} &= |a| - |b| \end{aligned} \quad \text{VSWR} = \frac{V_{\max}}{V_{\min}} = \frac{|a| + |b|}{|a| - |b|} = \frac{1 + |\Gamma|}{1 - |\Gamma|}$$

Remember: the reflection coefficient Γ is defined via the **ELECTRIC FIELD** of the incident and reflected wave. This is historically related to the measurement method described here. We know that an open has a reflection coefficient of $\Gamma=+1$ and the short of $\Gamma=-1$. When referring to the magnetic field it would be just opposite.

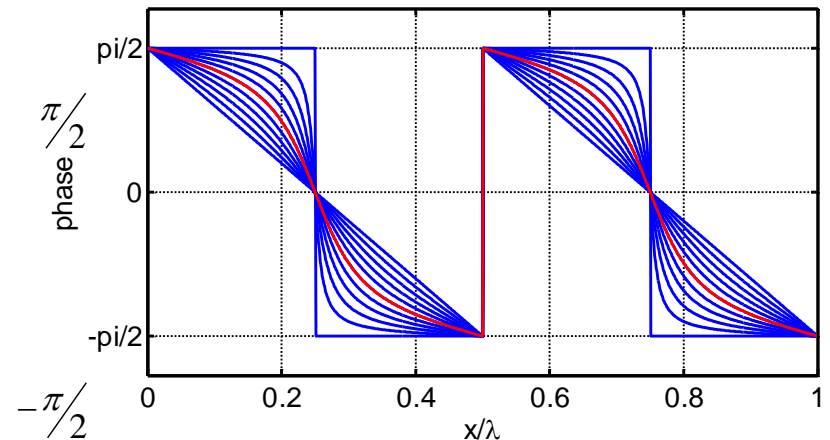
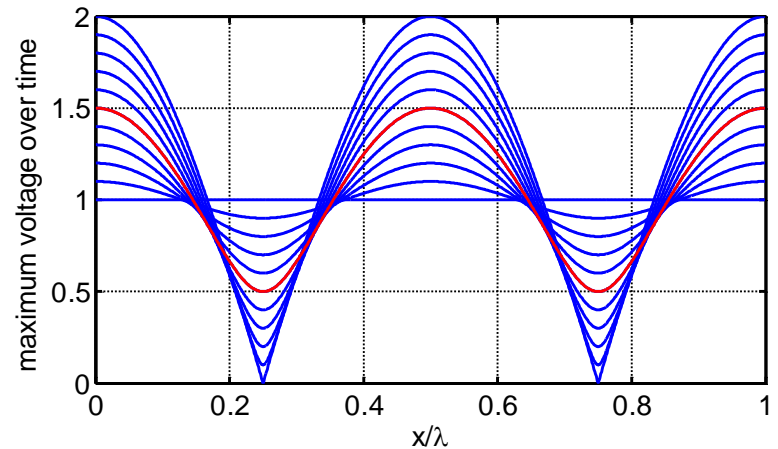
Voltage Standing Wave Ratio (3)

Γ	VSWR	Refl. Power $ \Gamma ^2$
0.0	1.00	1.00
0.1	1.22	0.99
0.2	1.50	0.96
0.3	1.87	0.91
0.4	2.33	0.84
0.5	3.00	0.75
0.6	4.00	0.64
0.7	5.67	0.51
0.8	9.00	0.36
0.9	19	0.19
1.0	∞	0.00

With a simple detector diode we cannot measure the phase, only the amplitude.

Why? – What would be required to measure the phase?

Answer: Because there is no reference. With a mixer which can be used as a phase detector when connected to a reference this would be possible.



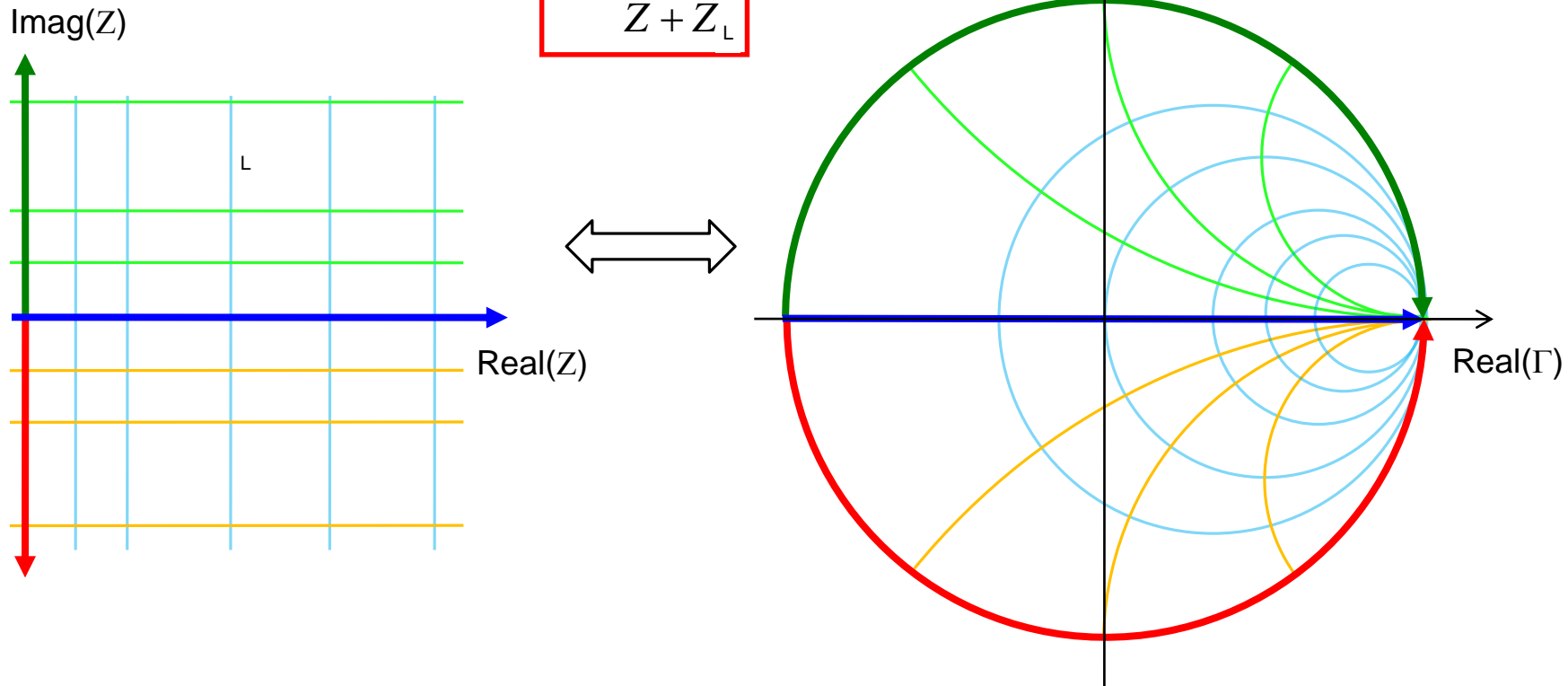
Watch a good old school “visualization” of waves and reflections:

<https://youtu.be/DovunOxIY1k>

The Smith Chart (1)

The Smith Chart represents the complex Γ -plane within the unit circle. It is a conformal mapping of the complex Z -plane onto itself using the transformation

$$\Gamma = \frac{Z - Z_L}{Z + Z_L}$$



→ The real positive half plane of Z is thus transformed into the interior of the unit circle!

The Smith Chart (2)

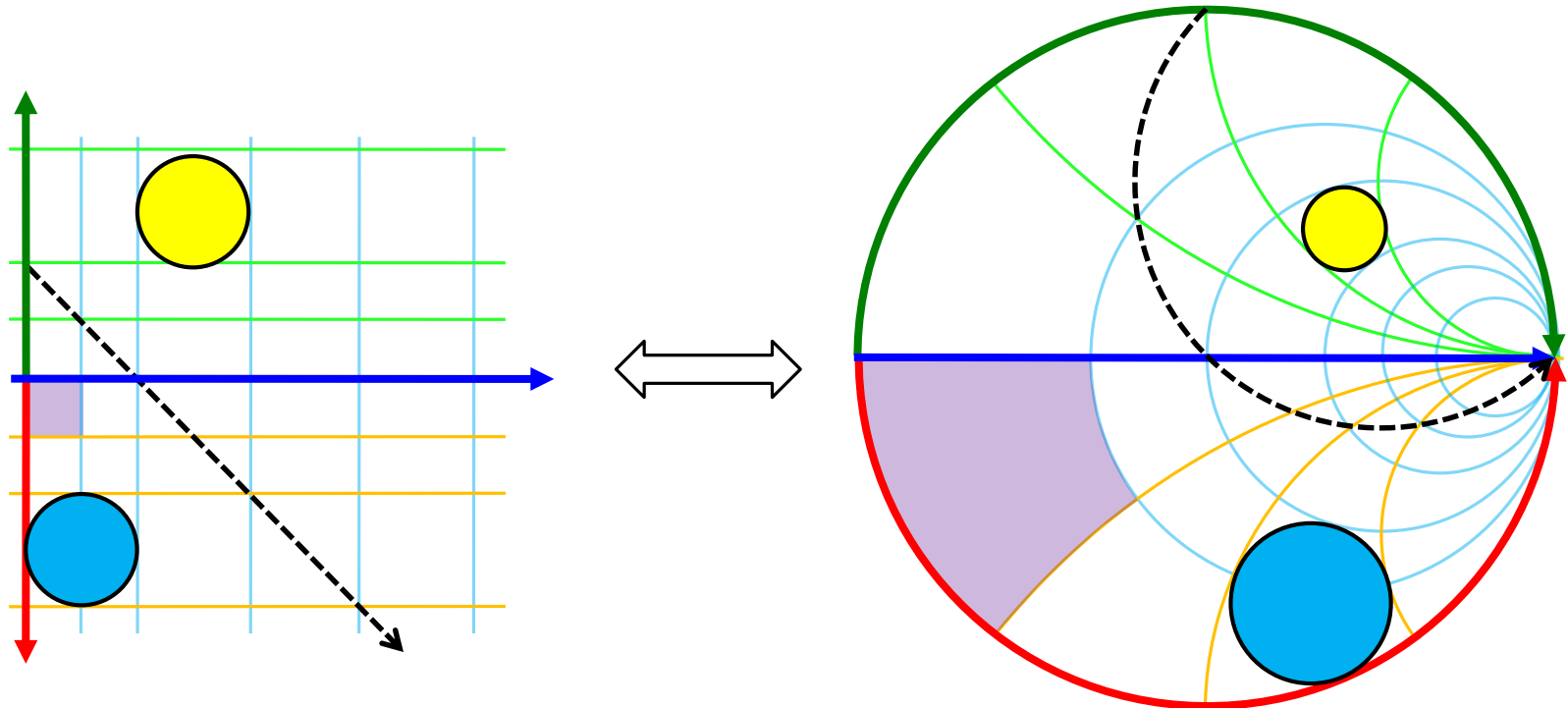
This is a “bilinear” transformation with the following properties:

- generalized circles are transformed into generalized circles
 - circle \rightarrow circle
 - straight line \rightarrow circle
 - circle \rightarrow straight line
 - straight line \rightarrow straight line
- angles are preserved locally

a straight line is nothing else than a circle with infinite radius

a circle is defined by 3 points

a straight line is defined by 2 points



The Smith Chart (3)

Impedances Z are usually first **normalized** by $z = \frac{Z}{Z_L}$ Normalized impedance = lower case letter (symbol)
Not normalized=CAPITAL

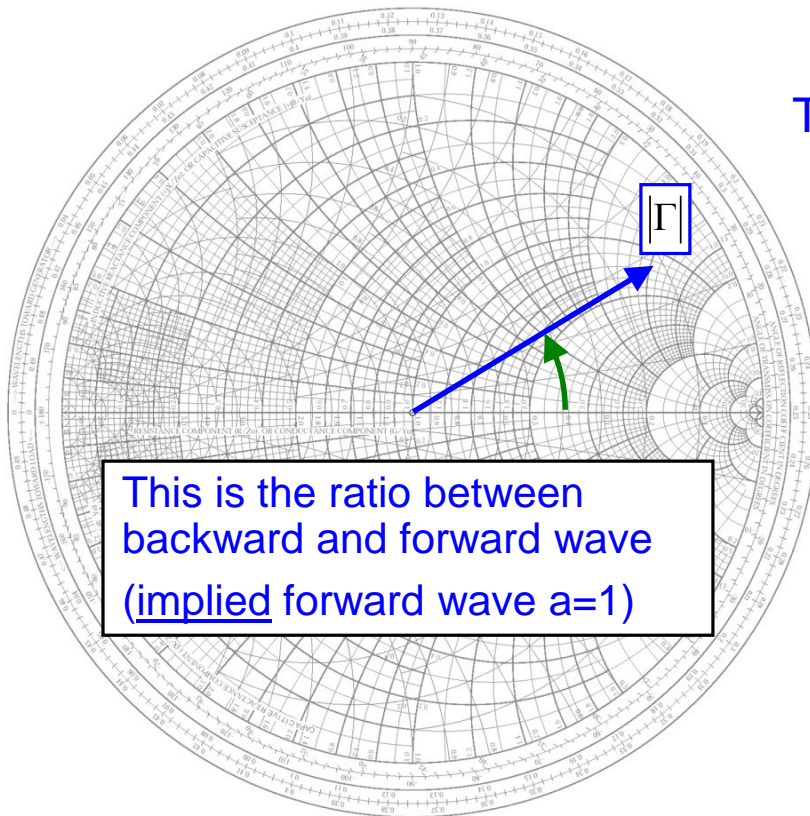
where Z_L is some characteristic impedance (e.g. 50 Ohm). The general form of the transformation can then be written as

$$\Gamma = \frac{z-1}{z+1} \quad \text{resp.} \quad z = \frac{1+\Gamma}{1-\Gamma}$$

This mapping offers several practical advantages:

1. The diagram includes all “passive” impedances, i.e. those with positive real part, **from zero to infinity** in a handy format. Impedances with negative real part (“active device”, e.g. reflection amplifiers) would be outside the (normal) Smith chart.
2. The mapping converts impedances or admittances into reflection factors and vice-versa. This is particularly interesting for studies in the radiofrequency and microwave domain where electrical quantities are usually expressed in terms of “**direct**” or “**forward**” waves and “**reflected**” or “**backward**” waves. This replaces the notation in terms of currents and voltages used at lower frequencies. Also the reference plane can be moved very easily using the Smith chart.

The Smith Chart (4)



The Smith Chart (*Abaque Smith* in French) is the linear representation of the complex reflection factor

$$\Gamma = \frac{b}{a}$$

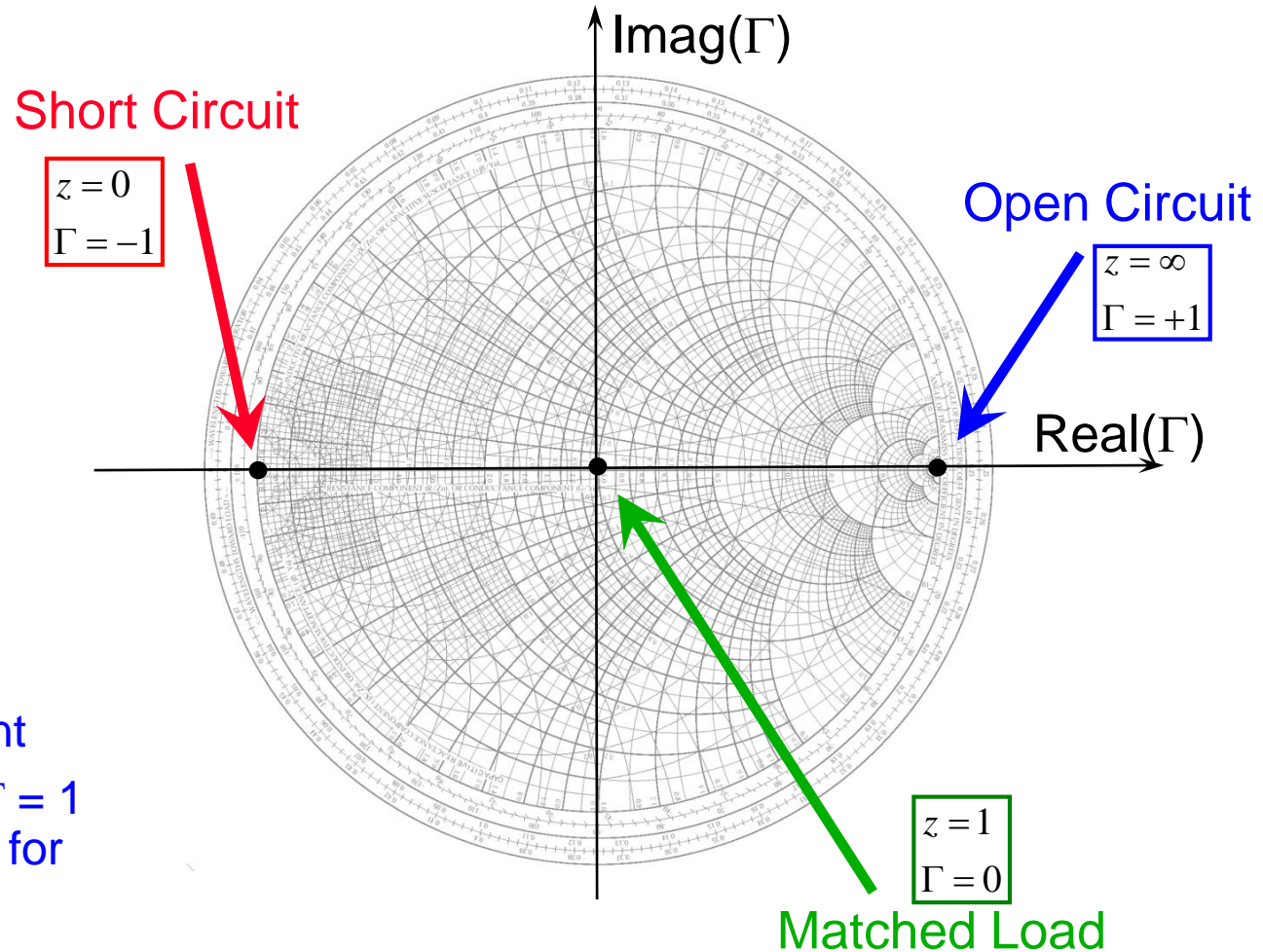
i.e. the ratio backward/forward wave.

The upper half of the Smith-Chart is “inductive” = positive imaginary part of impedance, the lower half is “capacitive” = negative imaginary part.

Important points

Important Points:

- ◆ Short Circuit
 $\Gamma = -1, z = 0$
- ◆ Open Circuit
 $\Gamma = 1, z \rightarrow \infty$
- ◆ Matched Load
 $\Gamma = 0, z = 1$
- ◆ On circle $\Gamma = 1$
lossless element
- ◆ Outside circle $\Gamma = 1$
active element, for instance tunnel diode reflection amplifier



The Smith Chart (5)

3. The distance from the center of the diagram is directly proportional to the magnitude of the reflection factor. In particular, the perimeter of the diagram represents full reflection, $|\Gamma|=1$. Problems of matching are clearly visualize.

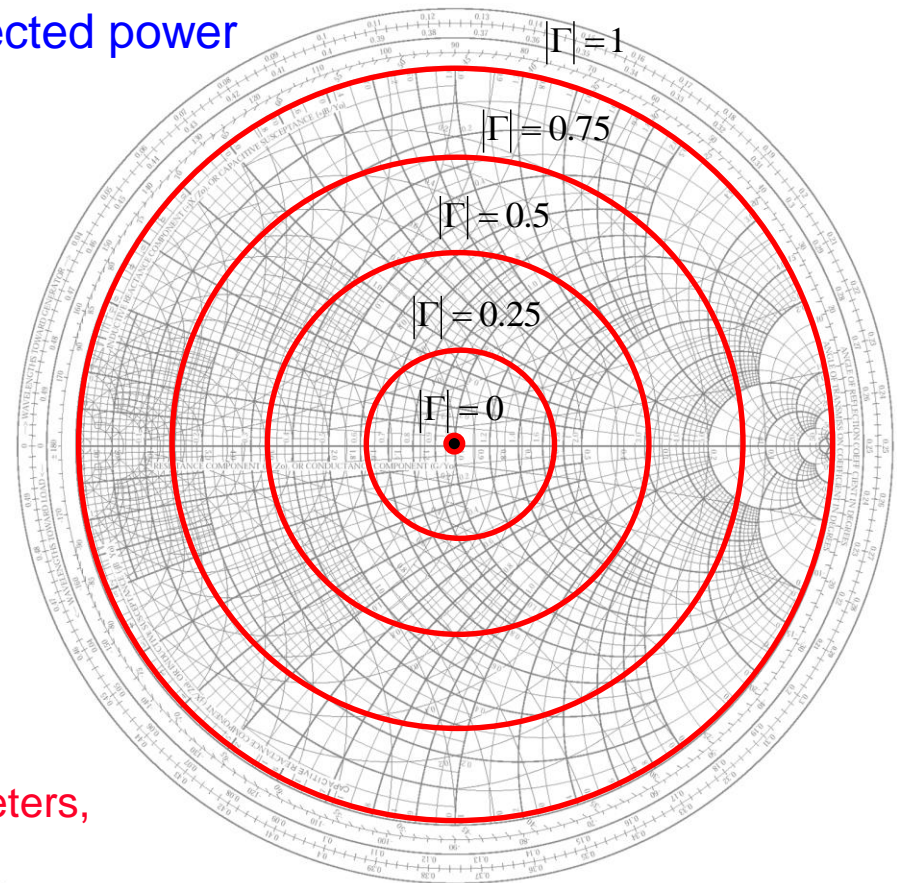
Power into the load = forward power – reflected power

$$P = |a|^2 - |b|^2$$
$$= |a|^2 (1 - |\Gamma|^2)$$

max source
power

“(mismatch)”
loss

Here the US notion is used, where power = $|a|^2$.
European notation (often): power = $|a|^2/2$
These conventions have no impact on S parameters,
only relevant for absolute power calculation



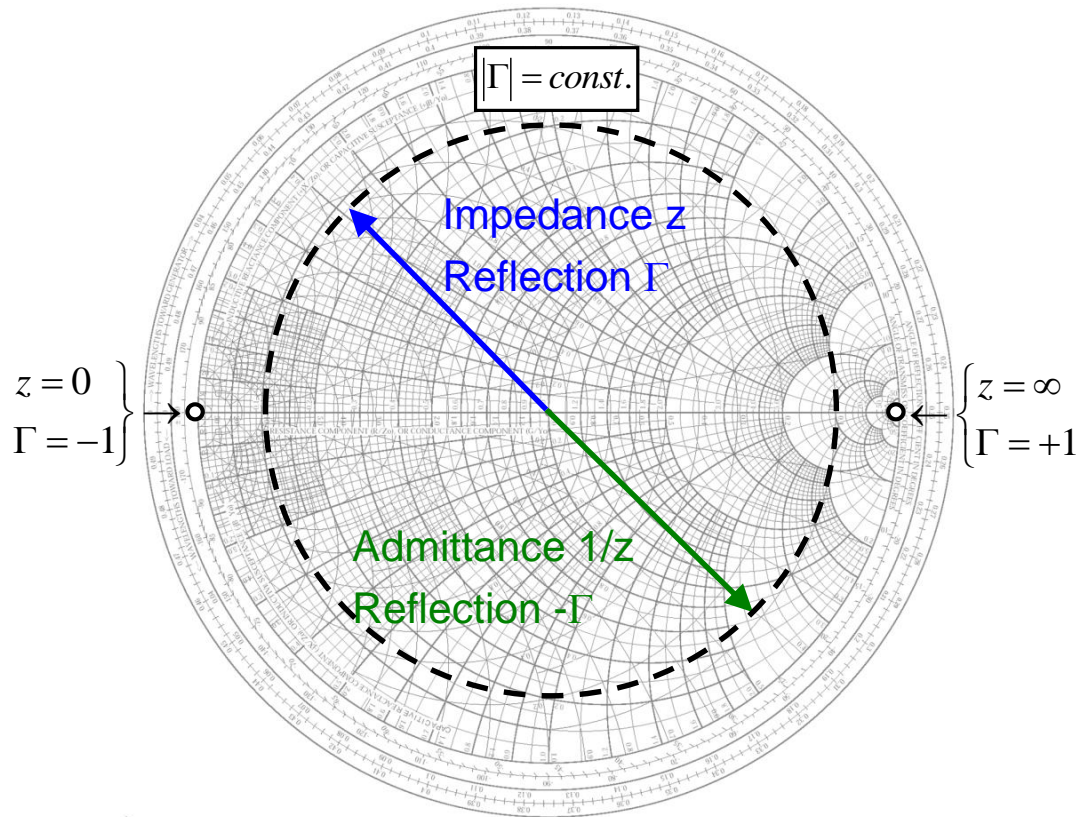
The Smith Chart (6)

4. The transition

impedance \Leftrightarrow admittance
and vice-versa is particularly easy.

$$\Gamma(1/z) = \frac{1/z - 1}{1/z + 1} = \frac{1 - z}{1 + z} = -\left(\frac{z - 1}{z + 1}\right)$$

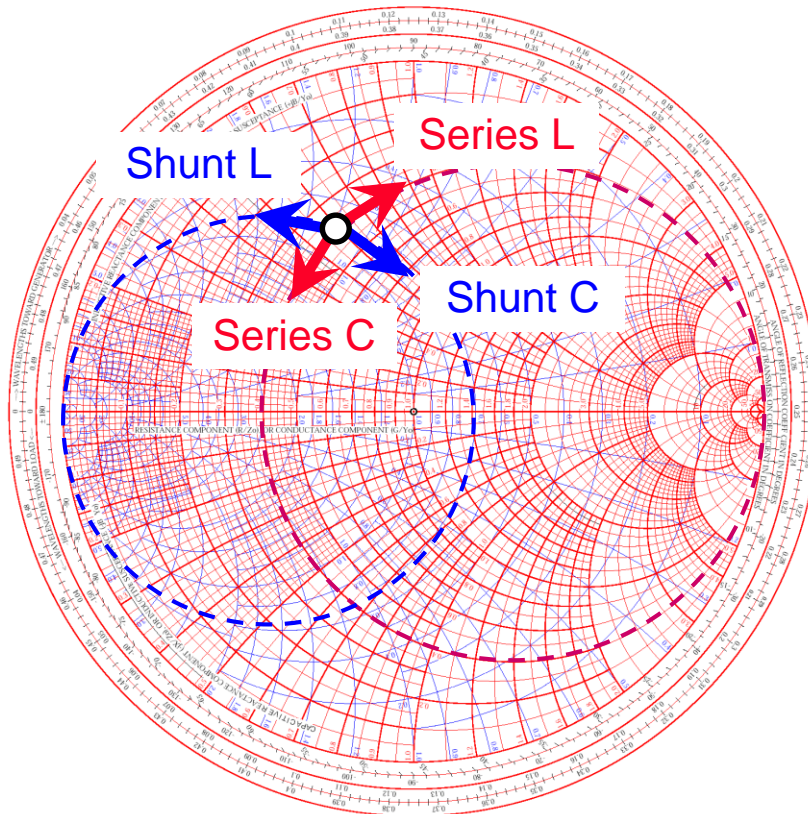
$$\underline{\Gamma(1/z) = -\Gamma(z)}$$



Navigation in the Smith Chart (1)

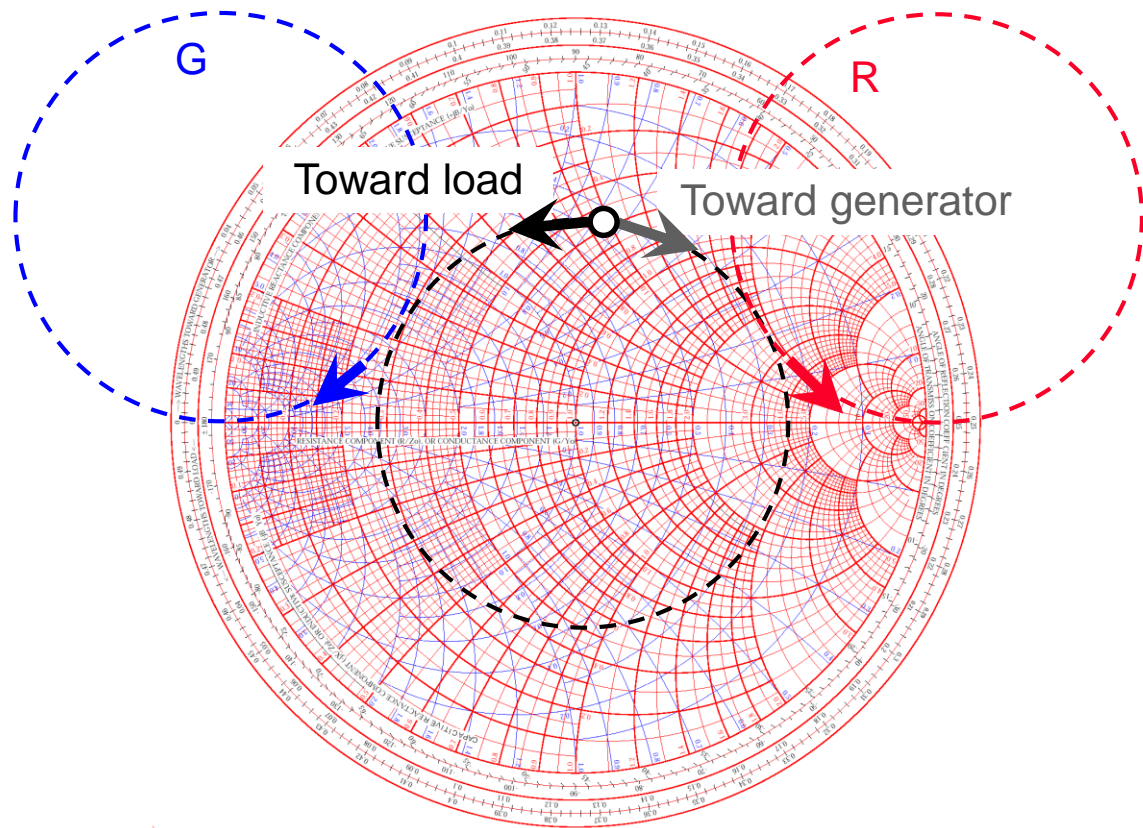
in red: Impedance plane ($=Z$)

in blue: Admittance plane ($=Y$)



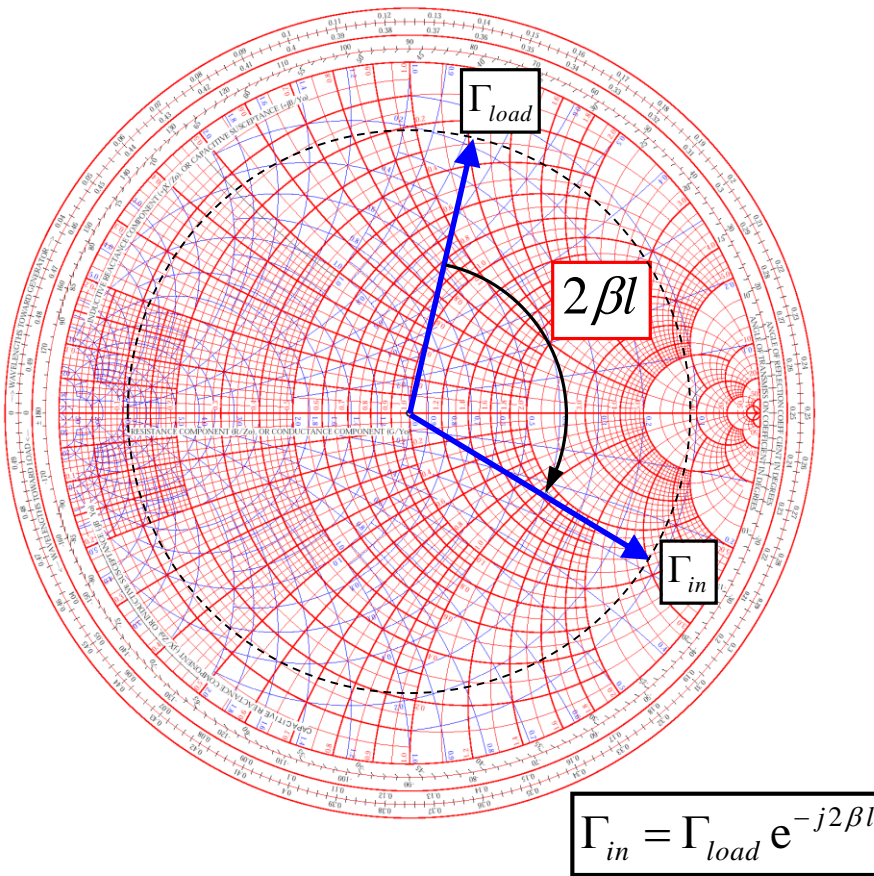
	CW	CCW
Red circles	Series L	Series C
Blue circles	Shunt C	Shunt L

Navigation in the Smith Chart (2)



Red arcs	Resistance R
Blue arcs	Conductance G
Concentric circle	Transmission line going Toward load Toward generator

Impedance transformation by transmission lines

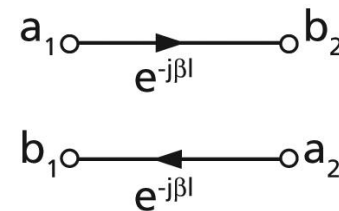


The S-matrix for an ideal, lossless transmission line of length l is given by

$$\mathbf{S} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & e^{-j\beta l} \\ e^{-j\beta l} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\beta = 2\pi / \lambda$

is the propagation coefficient with the wavelength λ (this refers to the wavelength on the line containing some dielectric).



N.B.: It is supposed that the reflection factors are evaluated with respect to the characteristic impedance Z_0 of the line segment.

How to remember that when adding a section of line we have to turn clockwise: assume we are at $\Gamma = -1$ (short circuit) and add a very short piece of coaxial cable. Then we have made an inductance thus we are in the upper half of the Smith-Chart.

$\lambda/4$ - Line transformations

A transmission line of length

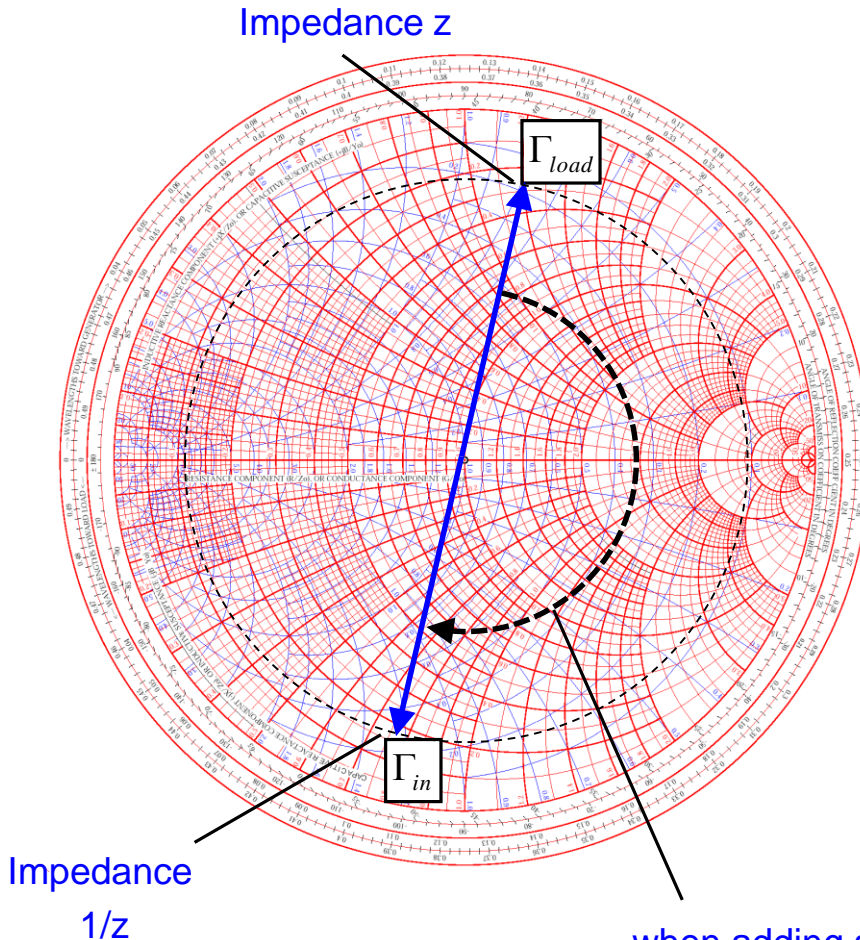
$$l = \lambda/4$$

transforms a load reflection Γ_{load} to its input as

$$\Gamma_{in} = \Gamma_{load} e^{-j2\beta l} = \Gamma_{load} e^{-j\pi} = \underline{-\Gamma_{load}}$$

This means that normalized load impedance z is transformed into $1/z$.

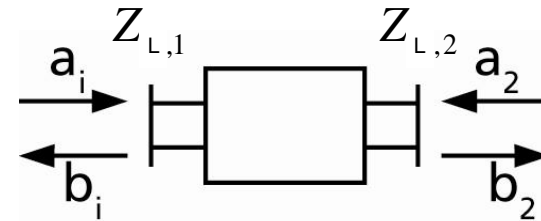
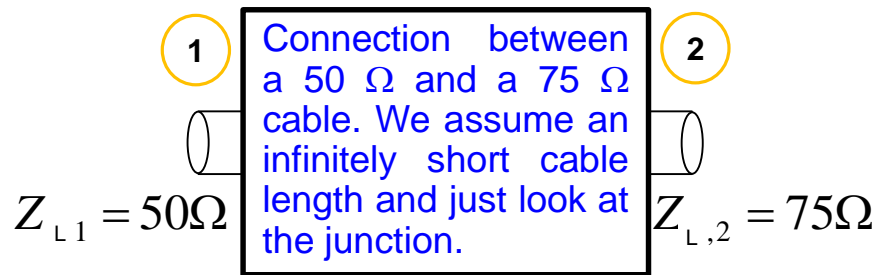
In particular, a short circuit at one end is transformed into an open circuit at the other. This is the principle of $\lambda/4$ -resonators.



when adding a transmission line to some terminating impedance we move clockwise through the Smith-Chart.

Example: a Step in Characteristic Impedance (1)

Consider a connection of two coaxial cables, one with $Z_{L,1} = 50 \Omega$ characteristic impedance, the other with $Z_{L,2} = 75 \Omega$ characteristic impedance.



Step 1: Calculate the reflection coefficient and keep in mind: all ports have to be terminated with their respective characteristic impedance, i.e. 75Ω for port 2.

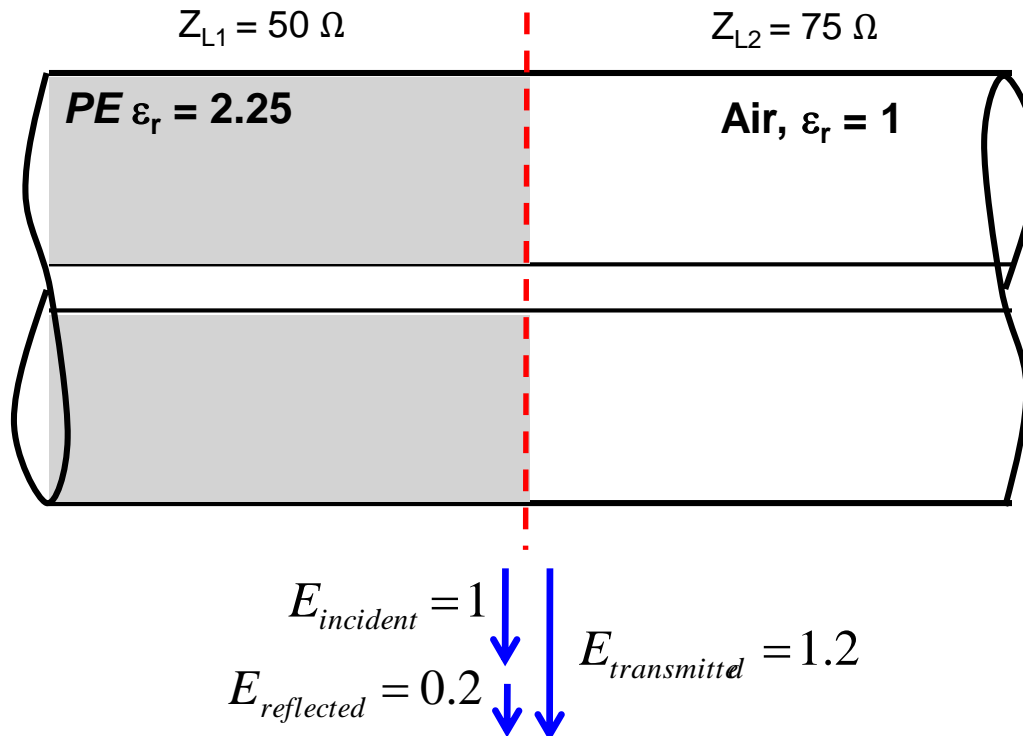
$$\Gamma_1 = \frac{Z - Z_{L,1}}{Z + Z_{L,1}} = \frac{75 - 50}{75 + 50} = 0.2$$

Thus, the voltage of the reflected wave at port 1 is 20% of the incident wave and the reflected power at port 1 (proportional Γ^2) is $0.2^2 = 4\%$. As this junction is lossless, the transmitted power must be 96% (conservation of energy). From this we can deduce $b_2^2 = 0.96$. **But: how do we get the voltage of this outgoing wave?**

Example: a Step in Characteristic Impedance (2)

Step 2: Remember, a and b are **power-waves** and defined as voltage of the forward- or backward travelling wave normalized to $\sqrt{Z_L}$

The tangential electric field in the dielectric in the 50 Ω and the 75 Ω line, respectively, must be continuous.



t = voltage transmission coefficient $t = 1 + \Gamma$ in this case. ($t = 1.2$)

This is counterintuitive, one might expect $1 - \Gamma$. Note that the voltage of the transmitted wave is higher than the voltage of the incident wave. But we have to normalize to $\sqrt{Z_L}$ to get the corresponding S-parameter. $S_{12} = S_{21}$ via reciprocity! But $S_{11} \neq S_{22}$, i.e. the structure is NOT symmetric.

Example: a Step in Characteristic Impedance (3)

Once we have determined the voltage transmission coefficient, we have to normalize to the ratio of the characteristic impedances, respectively. Thus we get for

$$S_{12} = 1.2 \sqrt{\frac{50}{75}} = 1.2 \cdot 0.816 = 0.9798$$

We know from the previous calculation that the reflected power (proportional Γ^2) is 4% of the incident power. Thus 96% of the power are transmitted.

Check done $S_{12}^2 = 1.44 \frac{1}{1.5} = 0.96 = (0.9798)^2$

$$S_{22} = \frac{50 - 75}{50 + 75} = -0.2 \quad \text{To be compared with } S_{11} = +0.2!$$

Example: a Step in Characteristic Impedance (4)

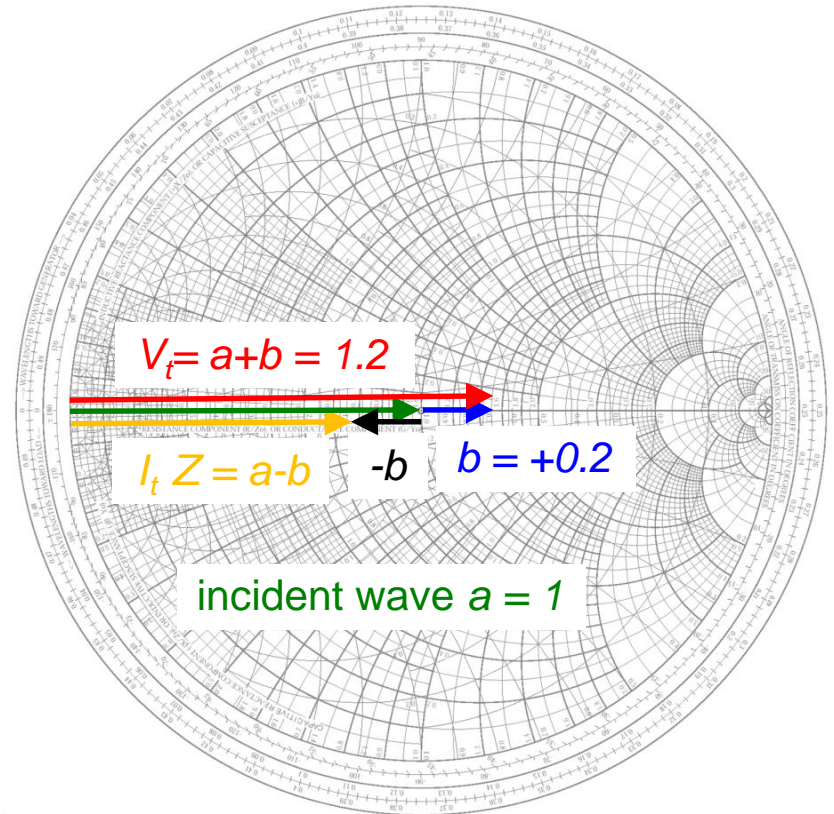
Visualization in the Smith chart

As shown in the previous slides the voltage of the transmitted wave is with

$$V_t = a + b$$

and subsequently the current is $I_t Z = a - b$.

Remember: the reflection coefficient Γ is defined with respect to voltages. For currents the sign inverts. Thus a positive reflection coefficient in the normal definition leads to a subtraction of currents or is negative with respect to current.

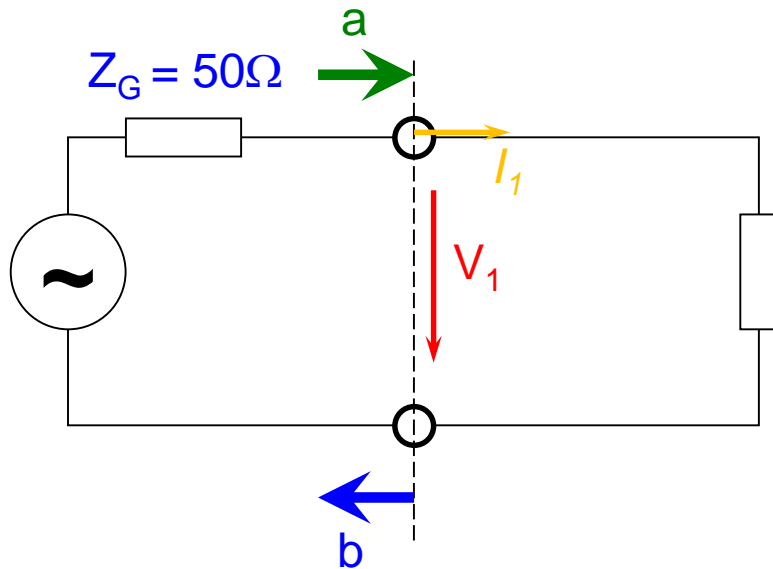


Note: here Z_{load} is real

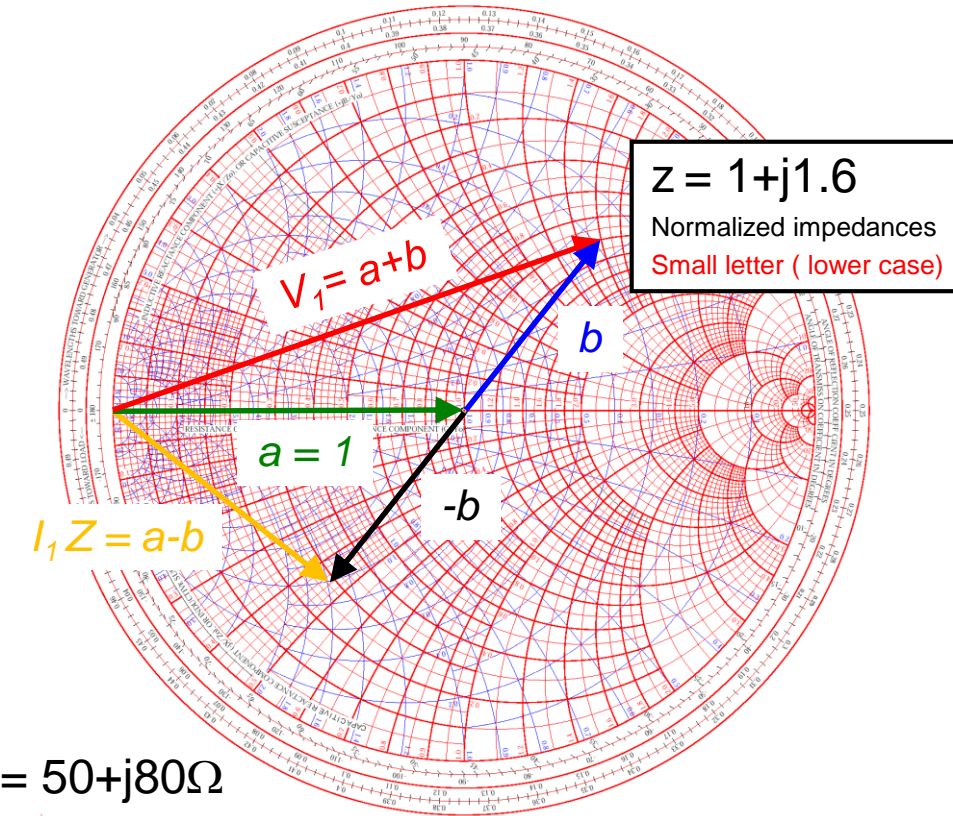
Example: a Step in Characteristic Impedance (5)

General case

Thus we can read from the Smith chart immediately the amplitude and phase of voltage and current on the load (of course we can calculate it when using the complex voltage divider).



$Z = 50 + j80\Omega$
(load impedance)



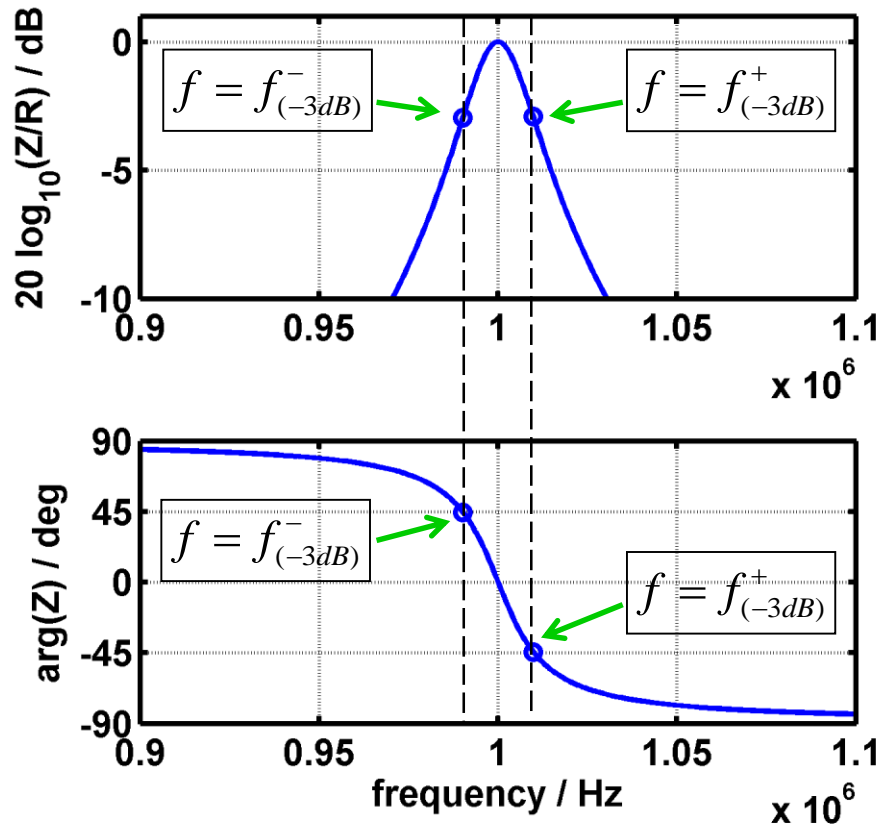
$z = 1 + j1.6$
Normalized impedances
Small letter (lower case)

- The green arrow = Incident wave as normalized to 1 and 0 deg phase.
- The blue arrow = the well known complex refl. coefficient
- The red arrow = normalized voltage on the complex load
- The yellow arrow = normalized current on the complex load
- The black arrow = inverted by 180 deg refl. coefficient to read the admittance and to get (construct) the current vector for the load.

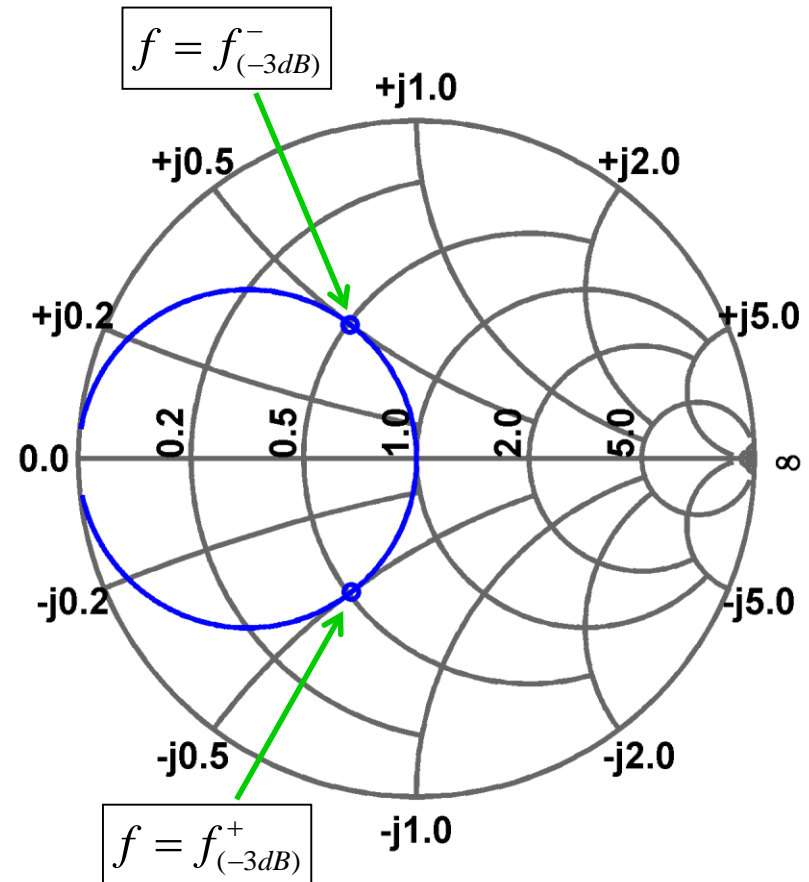
Example

Simulation results of a 1 MHz resonator

Cavity response vs. frequency
Top: logarithmic magnitude
Bottom: phase



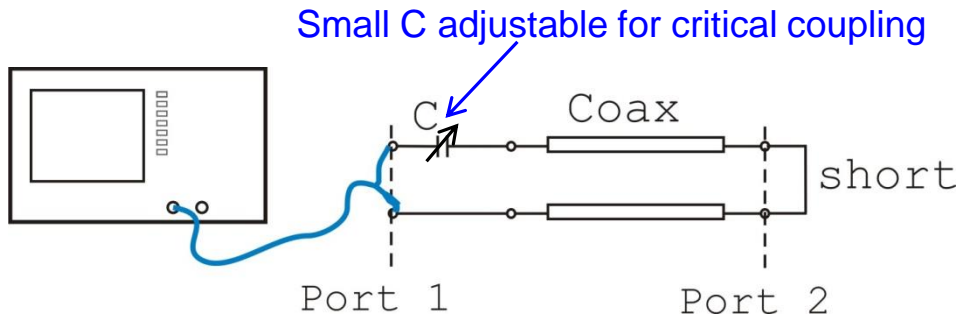
Data represented in Smith Chart



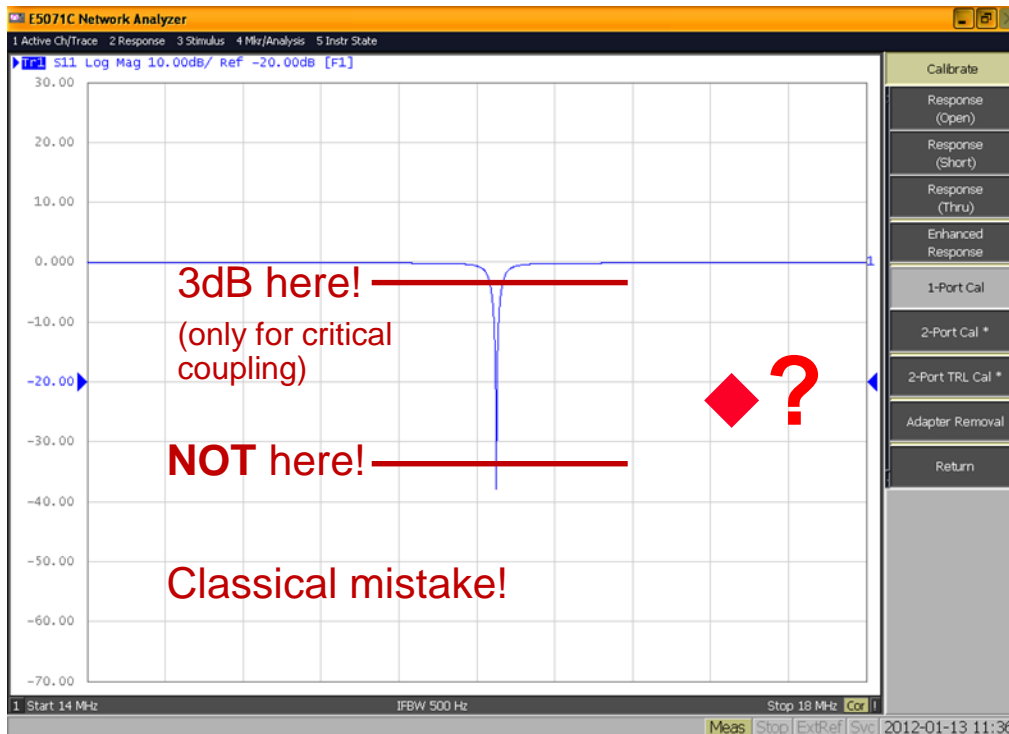
Shown is the model of a Ferrite loaded cavity:
 $R=200 \text{ k}\Omega$, $Q=50$, $f_{\text{res}}=1 \text{ MHz}$

Equivalent circuit

Example: Measurement of Q with VNA in Reflection



- ◆ But how?
- ◆ This is the recipe:
 - Get the resonance frequency and read out the 3dB-points
 - Calculate $Q = f_{res}/\Delta f$.

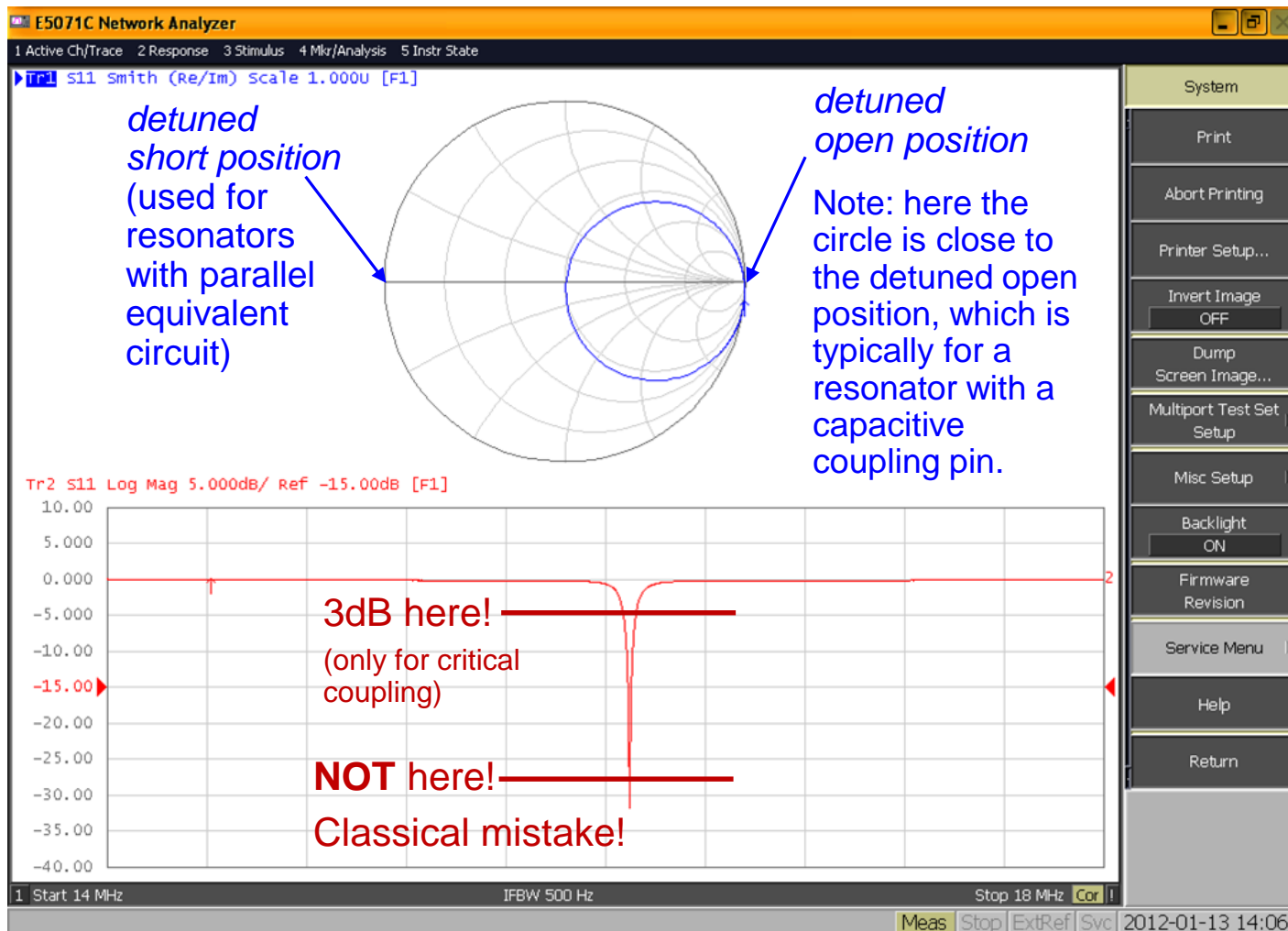


◆ Ooops? Not so straightforward?



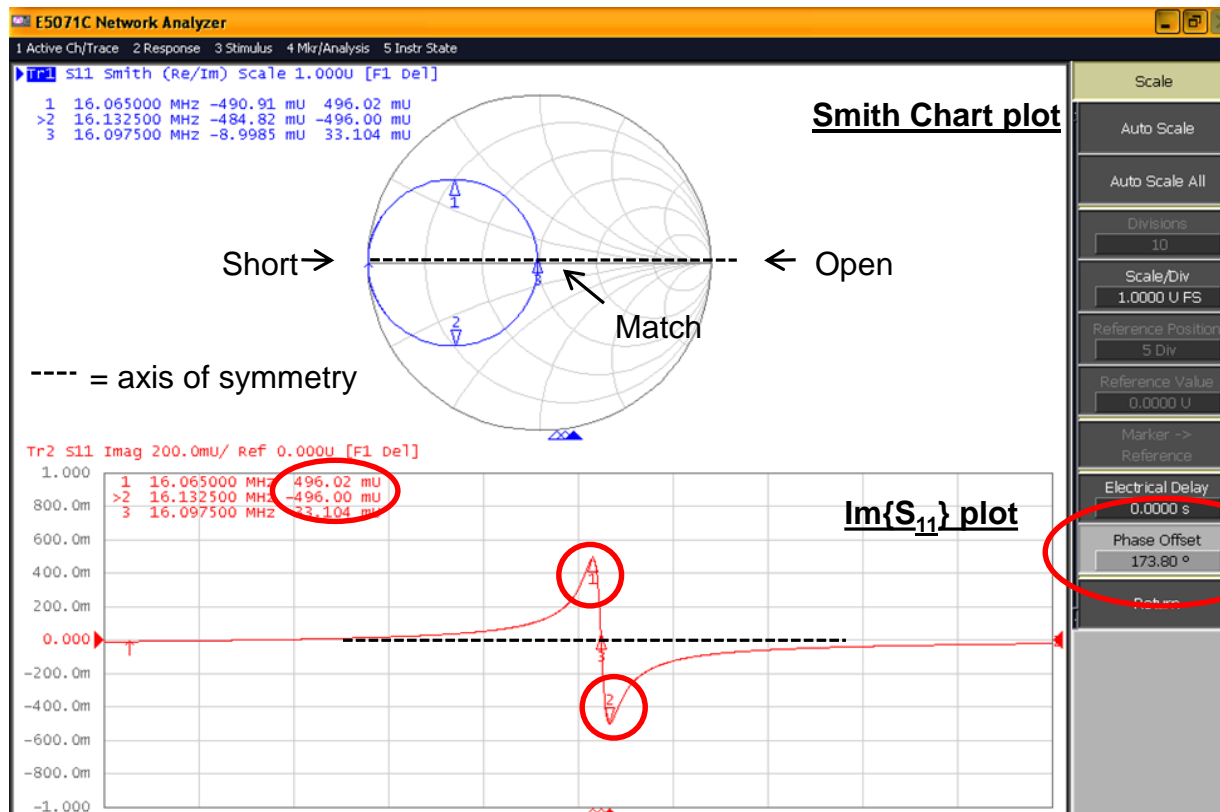
Example: Determination of Q in the Smith chart (1)

- ◆ This is “our” recipe: Put your network analyzer display format in Smith-chart.



Example: Determination of Q in the Smith chart (2)

2. Move your graph in the Smith-chart to the so-called “detuned short position”.
3. For this, you display the imaginary part of S_{11} in Cartesian coordinates (lower part of the display) and change the phase offset and electrical delay such that the graph is symmetric to the abscissa and horizontal.
Hint: Put Markers on the plot to make sure that your graph is symmetric



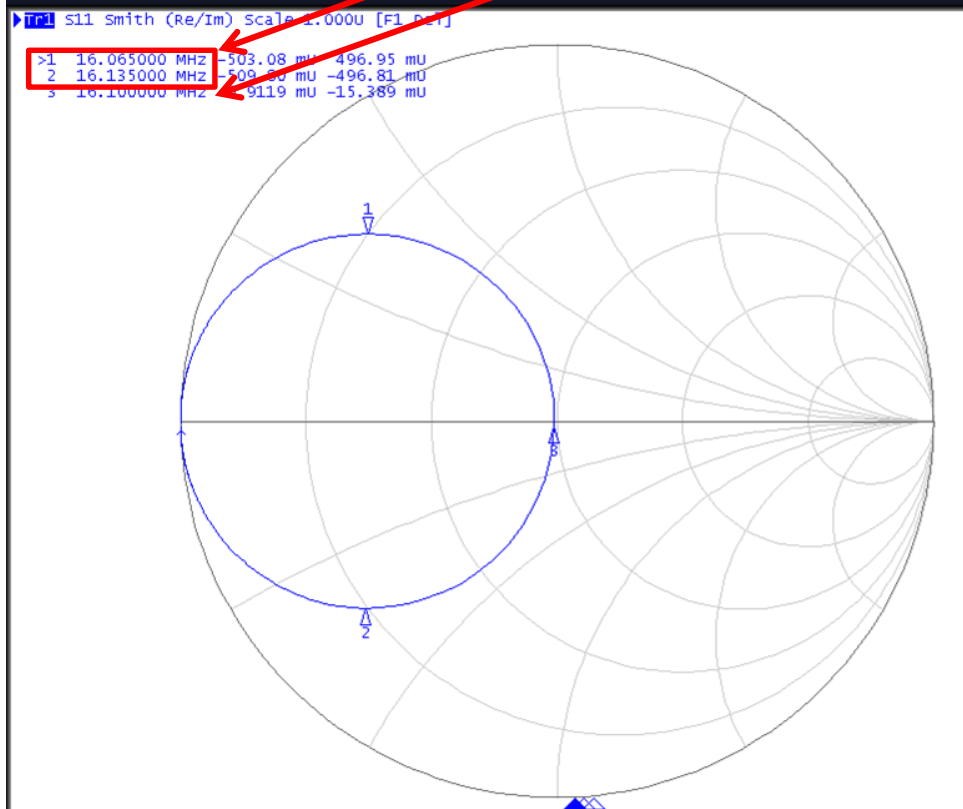
“Rotates” the circle into the detuned short position



Example: Determination of Q in the Smith chart (3)

3. Use **markers** (in S_{11} format) in the Smith-chart to read out the frequencies at points **(1)** and **(2)**, in the upper and lower halves of the circle, this is the **maximum of $|\text{Im}\{S_{11}\}|$** .
4. Calculate the difference in frequency Δf , this is the 3 dB bandwidth of the loaded cavity.
5. Read-out the resonant frequency f_{res} at point **(3)**
4. Now the formulae will give you the loaded Q:

$$Q_L = \frac{f_{res}}{\Delta f}$$



Here:

$$Q_L = 16.1 \text{ MHz} / 70 \text{ kHz}$$

$$Q_L = 230$$

Note:

to determine the unloaded Q_0 , the condition for placing the markers (in impedance format) in Step 3 is:

$$\text{Im}\{Z\} = \text{Re}\{Z\}$$

All other steps stay the same.

The Quality Factor [Q-Value] (4)

- ◆ The quality (Q) factor of a resonant circuit is defined as ratio of the stored energy W over the energy P dissipated in one oscillation cycle:

$$Q = 2\pi \frac{\text{energy stored}}{\text{energy dissipated in 1 cycle}} = \frac{2\pi f_{res} W}{P}$$

- ◆ The Q-factor of an impedance loaded resonator:

- Q_0 : unloaded Q-value of the unperturbed system
- Q_L : loaded Q-value, e.g. measured with the impedance of the connected generator
- Q_{ext} : external Q-factor, representing the effects of the external circuit (generator and coupling circuit)

$$\frac{1}{Q_L} = \frac{1}{Q_0} + \frac{1}{Q_{ext}}$$

- ◆ Q-factor and bandwidth

- This is how we actually "measure" the Q-factor!

$$Q = \frac{f_{res}}{\Delta f}$$

$$\text{with: } \Delta f = f_{+3dB} - f_{-3dB}$$

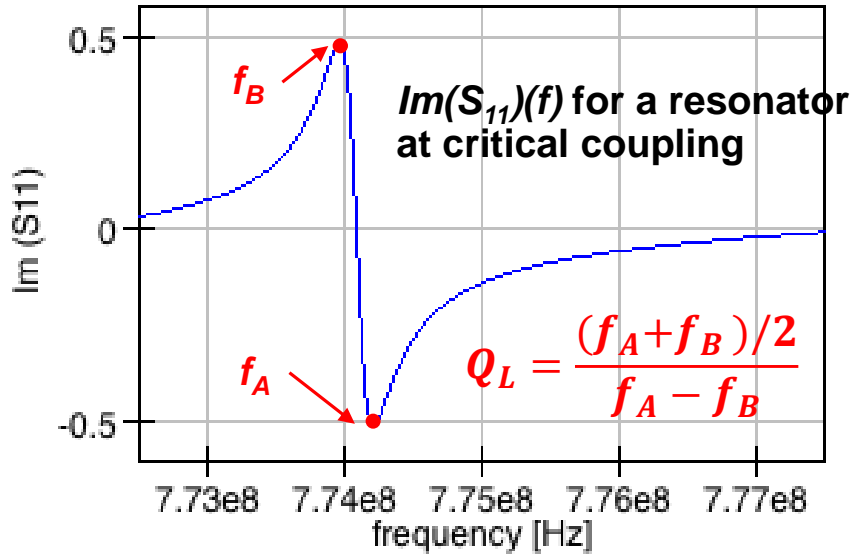
tune k for
critical coupling:

$$Q_0 = Q_{ext}$$

$$\Rightarrow Q_0 = 2 Q_L$$

With Q_L being our
measured Q-value

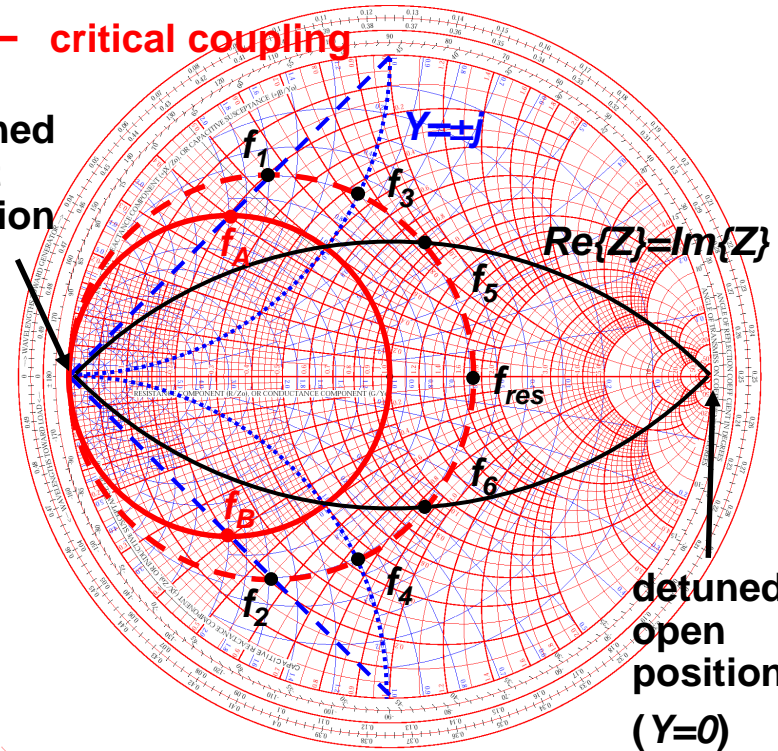
Q-factor from an S_{11} measurement (5)



--- arbitrary coupling (here: over-critical)

— critical coupling

detuned short position ($Z=0$)



- ◆ **Correct for the uncompensated effects of the coupling loop**

- Electrical length adjustment: "straight" $Im\{S_{11}\}(f)$

- ◆ **Adjust the locus circle to the detuned short location**

- Rotate the circle to the detuned short position using the phase offset.

- ◆ **Verify no evanescent fields penetrating outside the beam ports**

- i.e. no frequency shifts if the boundaries at the beam ports are altered

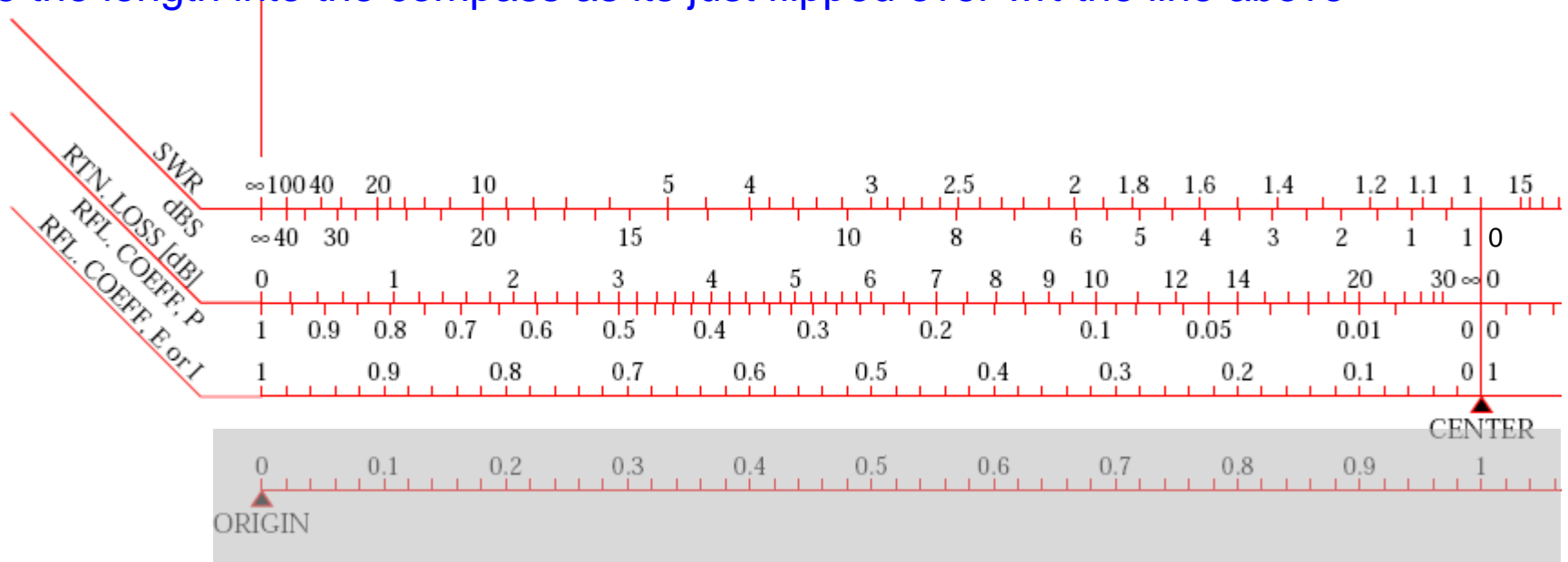
Frequency marker points in the Smith chart:

- ◆ $f_{1,2}$: $Im\{S_{11}\}=max.$ to calculate Q_L
- ◆ $f_{3,4}$: $Y=Re\pm j1$ to calculate Q_{ext}
- ◆ $f_{5,6}$: $Re\{Z\}=Im\{Z\}$ to calculate Q_0 ; set marker format to $Re\{Z\}$ and $Im\{Z\}$ or go to the complex impedance plane via conversion menu

What about all these rulers below the Smith chart (1)

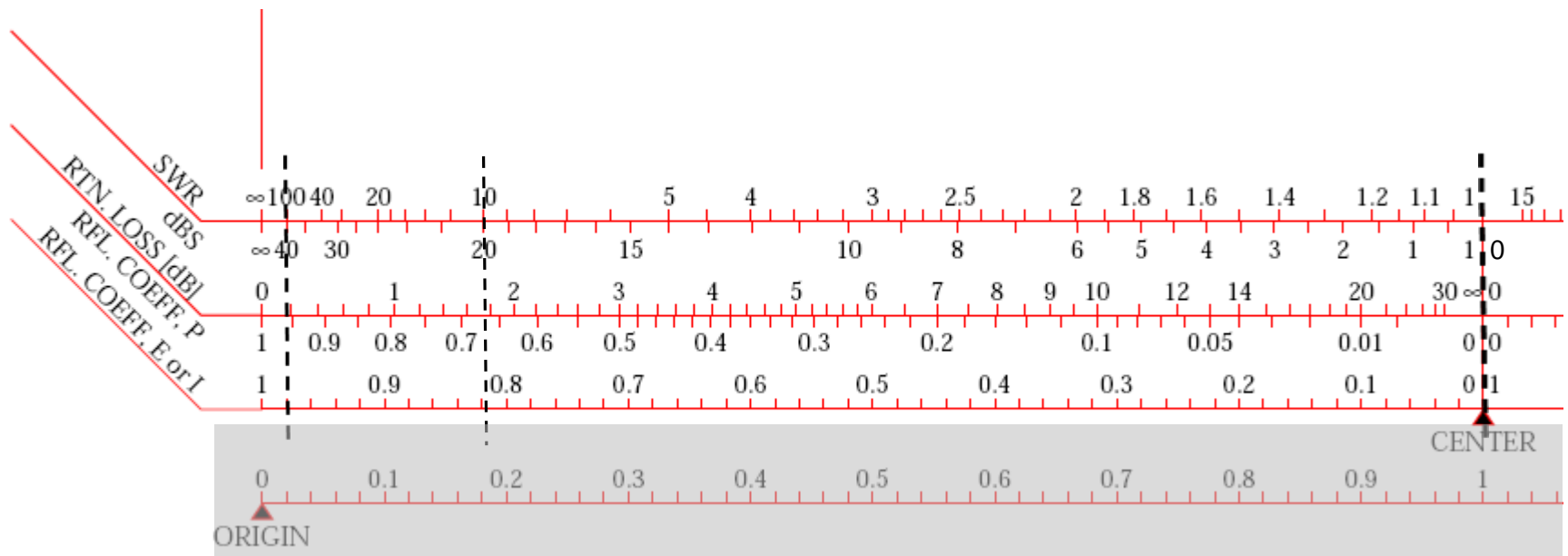
How to use these rulers: (if you do this on paper, otherwise use electronic markers)

You take the modulus of the reflection coefficient of an impedance to be examined by some means, either with a conventional ruler or better take it into the compass. Then refer to the coordinate denoted to CENTER and go to the left or for the other part of the rulers (not shown here in the magnification) to the right except for the lowest line which is marked ORIGIN at the left. This line essentially only serves to take the length into the compass as its just flipped over wrt the line above



What about all these rulers below the Smith chart (2)

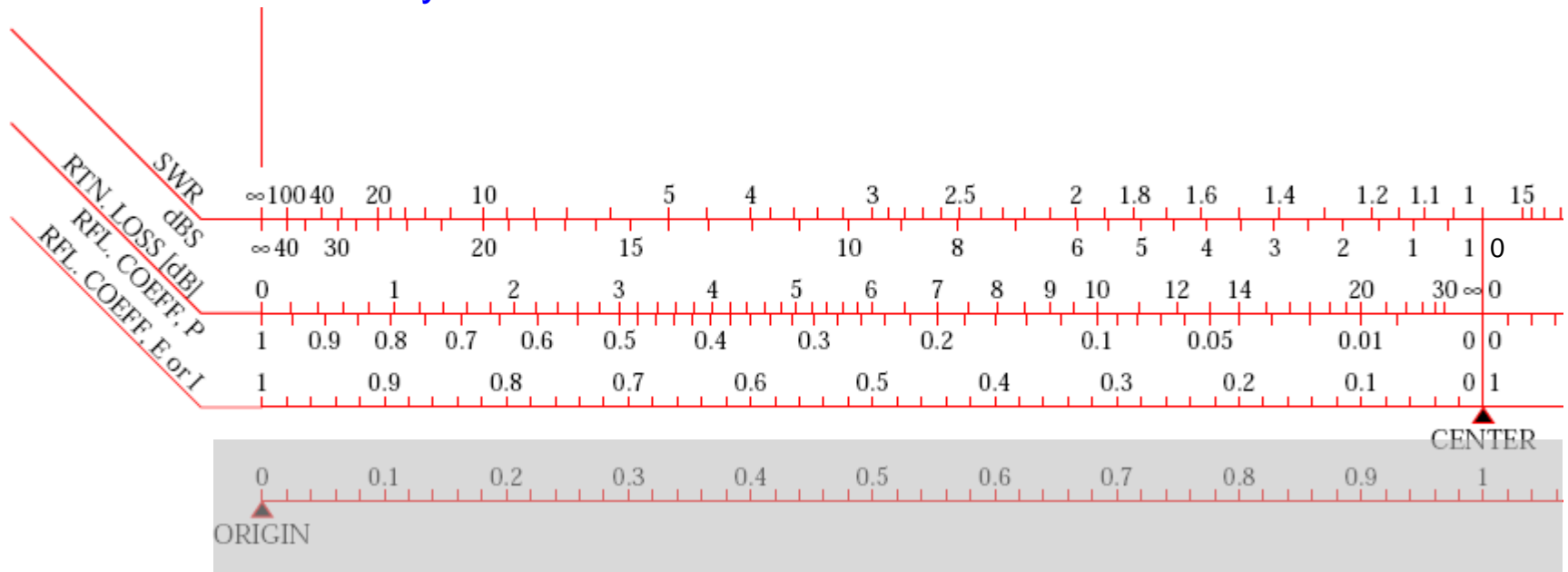
First ruler / left / upper part, marked SWR. This means VSWR, i.e. Voltage Standing Wave Ratio, the range of value is between one and infinity. One is for the matched case (center of the Smith chart), infinity is for total reflection (boundary of the SC). The upper part is in linear scale, the lower part of this ruler is in dB, noted as dBS (dB referred to Standing Wave Ratio). Example: SWR = 10 corresponds to 20 dBS, SWR = 100 corresponds to 40 dBS [voltage ratios, not power ratios].



The "reflection coefficient E" corresponds to the usual definition of Γ and "reflection coefficient I" is the inverse with equal modulus

What about all these rulers below the Smith chart (3)

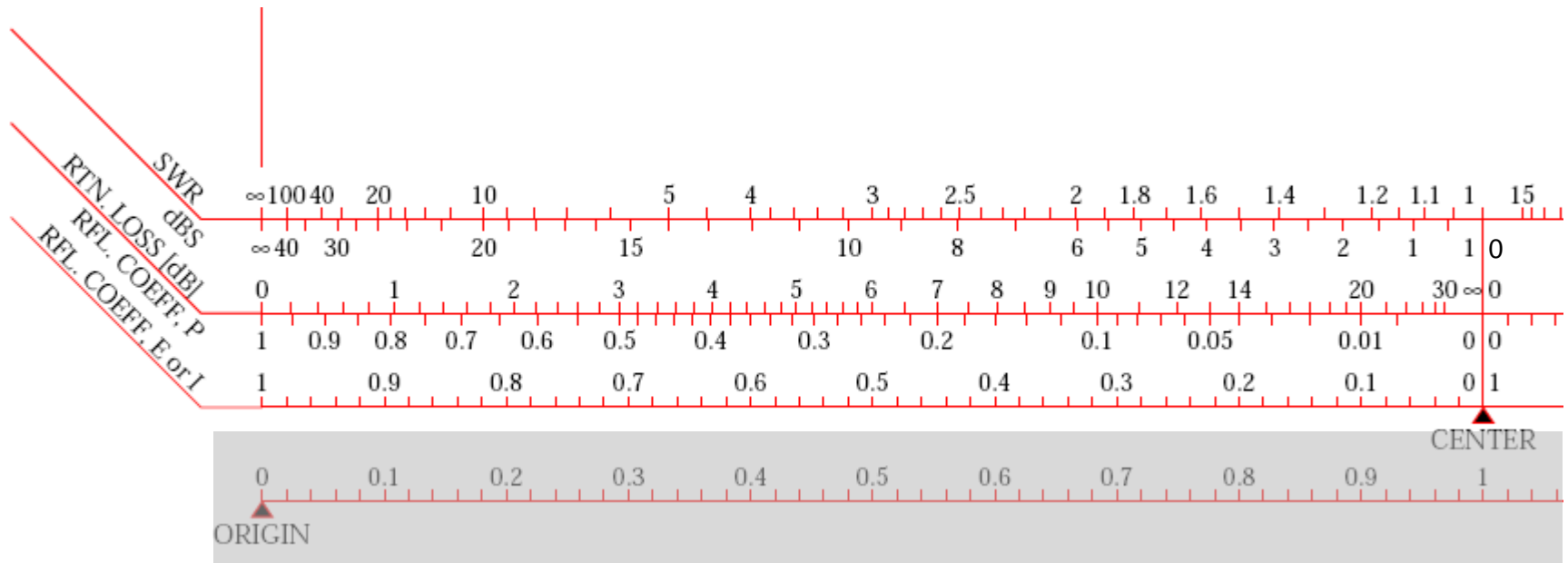
Second ruler / left / upper part, marked as RTN.LOSS = return loss in dB. This indicates the amount of reflected wave expressed in dB. Thus, in the center of SC nothing is reflected and the return loss is infinite. At the boundary we have full reflection, thus return loss 0 dB. The lower part of the scale denoted as RFL.COEFF. P = reflection coefficient in terms of POWER (proportional $|\Gamma|^2$). No reflected power for the matched case = center of the SC, (normalized) reflected power = 1 at the boundary.



What about all these rulers below the Smith chart (4)

Third ruler / left, marked as RFL. COEFF, E or I = gives us the modulus (= absolute value) of the reflection coefficient in linear scale. Note that since we have the modulus we can refer it both to voltage or current as we have omitted the sign, we just use the modulus. Obviously in the center the reflection coefficient is zero, at the boundary it is one.

The fourth ruler has been discussed in the example of the previous slides: Voltage transmission coefficient. Note that the modulus of the voltage (and current) transmission coefficient has a range from zero, i.e. short circuit, to +2 (open = $1 + \Gamma$ with $\Gamma = 1$). This ruler is easy to use for $Z_{load} = \text{real}$, i.e. the case of a step in characteristic impedance of the coaxial line.

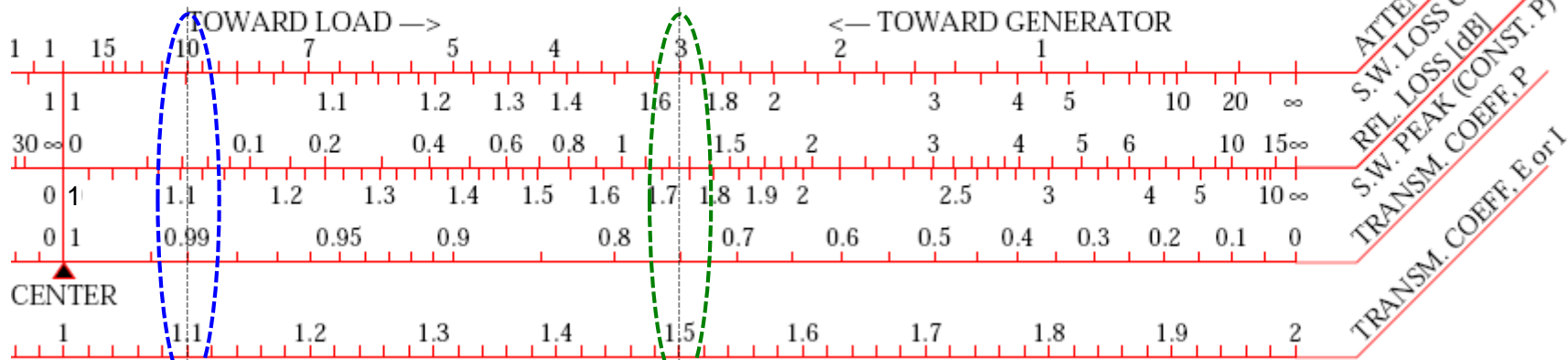


What about all these rulers below the Smith chart (5)

First ruler / right / upper part, denoted as ATTEN. in dB assumes that we are measuring an attenuator (that may be a lossy line) which itself is terminated by an open or short circuit (full reflection). Thus the wave is travelling twice through the attenuator (forward and backward). The value of this attenuator can be between zero and some very high number corresponding to the matched case.

The lower scale of ruler #1 displays the same situation just in terms of VSWR.

Example: a 10dB attenuator attenuates the reflected wave by 20dB going forth and back and we get a reflection coefficient of $\Gamma=0.1$ (= 10% in voltage).



Another Example: 3dB attenuator gives forth and back 6dB which is half the voltage.

$\Gamma=0.5$ in this case (3 db attenuator open), thus the reflected power is $0.25 = \Gamma^2$ which means that 75% of the power are transmitted into this attenuator

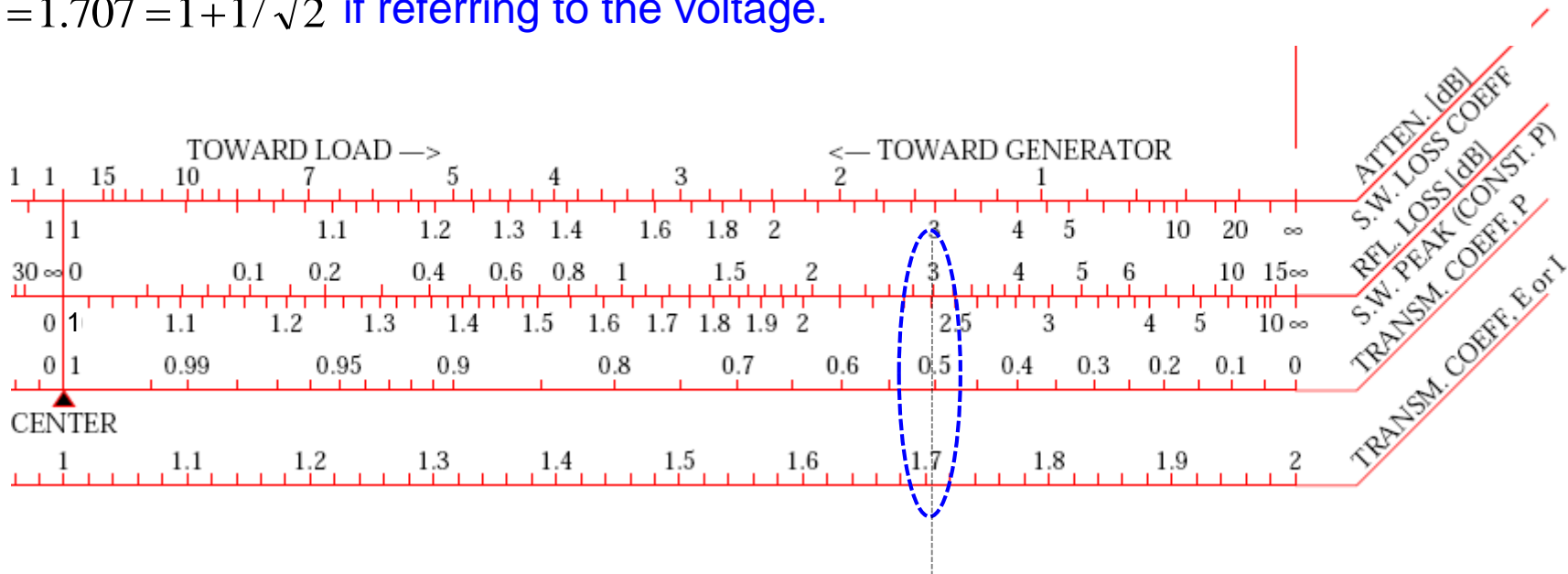
Example

What about all these rulers below the Smith chart (6)

Second ruler / right / upper part, denoted as RFL.LOSS in dB = reflection loss. This ruler refers to the loss in the transmitted wave, not to be confounded with the return loss referring to the reflected wave. It displays the relation $P_t = 1 - |\Gamma|^2$ in dB.

Example: $|\Gamma| = 1/\sqrt{2} = 0.707$, transmitted power = 50% thus loss = 50% = 3dB.

Note that in the lowest ruler the voltage of the transmitted wave ($Z_{load} = \text{real}$) would be $V_t = 1.707 = 1 + 1/\sqrt{2}$ if referring to the voltage.



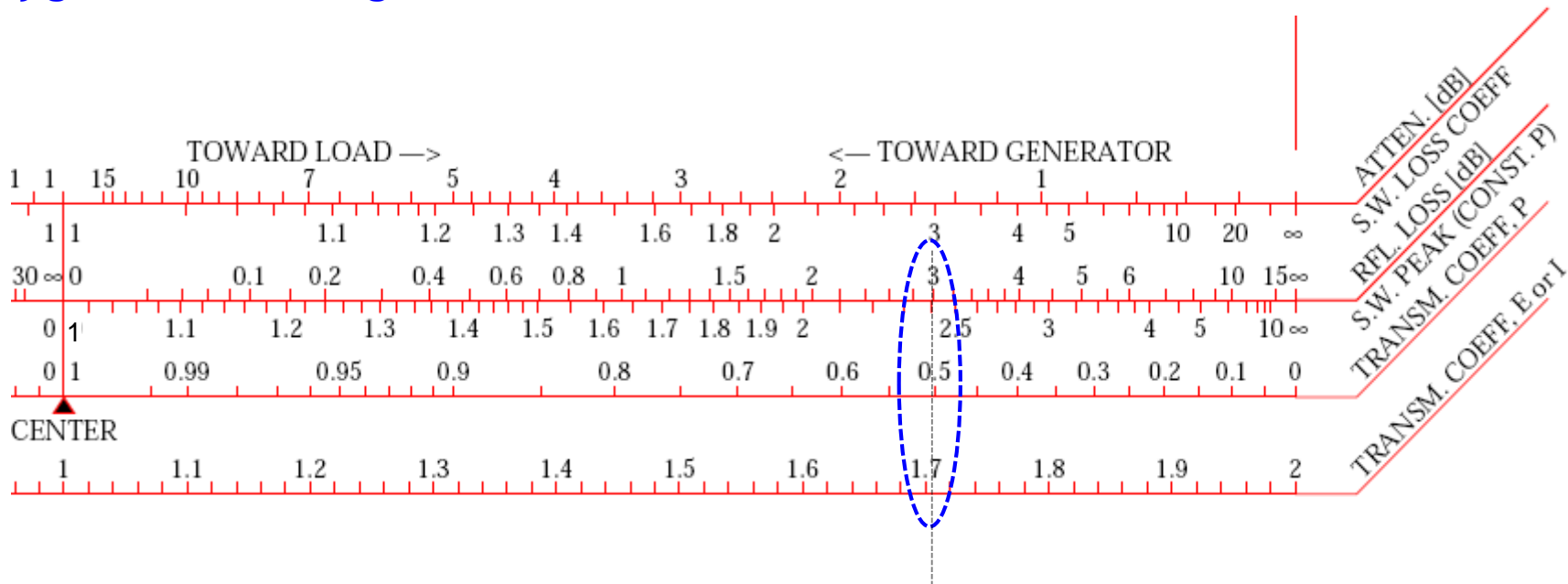
What about all these rulers below the Smith chart (7)

Third ruler / right / upper part, denotes the power transmission coefficient. $P_t = 1 - |\Gamma|^2$

Example: $|\Gamma| = 1/\sqrt{2} = 0.707$, transmitted power = 50% thus loss = 50% = 3dB.

Note that in the lowest ruler the **voltage** of the transmitted wave ($Z_{load} = \text{real}$) would be $V_t = 1.707 = 1 + 1/\sqrt{2}$. But we are not gaining energy despite a transmitted voltage > incident wave since power is $\sim V^2/Z$

And the fourth ruler (refer to E when on the right side from centre and I when on the left side) gives us the voltage of the transmitted wave.



Learning targets for Section C

At the end of this chapter you should

- Be familiar with the basic methods how to implement an RF system (standing and travelling waves) and know some of the advantages and disadvantages of either method
- Know some of the classic RF cavities to accelerate slow beams
- Have an idea on the shape of superconducting cavities (why this shape)
- Know that multiple cell cavities have a filling time to be charged with power from a generator which is usually considerably larger as for a single cell cavity
- Know the advantage of the $3\pi/2$ mode.
- Know all the basics of the Smith Chart (Cardinal points in Γ : $-1, j, 0, -j, 1$) and be able to navigate there on paper and also via some electronic version
- Have understood the difference between normalized and non normalized complex impedances (upper /lower case symbols) in the Smith Chart and how to read their numerical value.
- Be able to use the Smith Chart also for complex admittances and convert mutually
- Know the meaning of the different vector (origin and point “-1”) to a given point in the Smith Chart.
- Be able to do a transformation over a lossless line on the Smith Chart.
- Be able to add some passive elements in the Smith Chart.
- Have a rough idea of the different rulers at the bottom of the Smith Chart; you do not need to be familiar with all of them just the 2 or 3 most relevant ones.
- Have understood the meaning and origin of the voltage standing wave ratio (VSWR) and how to convert this to a reflection coefficient Γ .
- Know the importance of a reference plane to define an impedance.

Introduction of the S-parameters

- ◆ The first paper by Kurokawa
- ◆ Introduction of power waves instead of voltage and current waves used so far (1965)
- ◆ Note that only real values for the char. impedance Z_i are considered in practice.

Abstract—This paper discusses the physical meaning and properties of the waves defined by

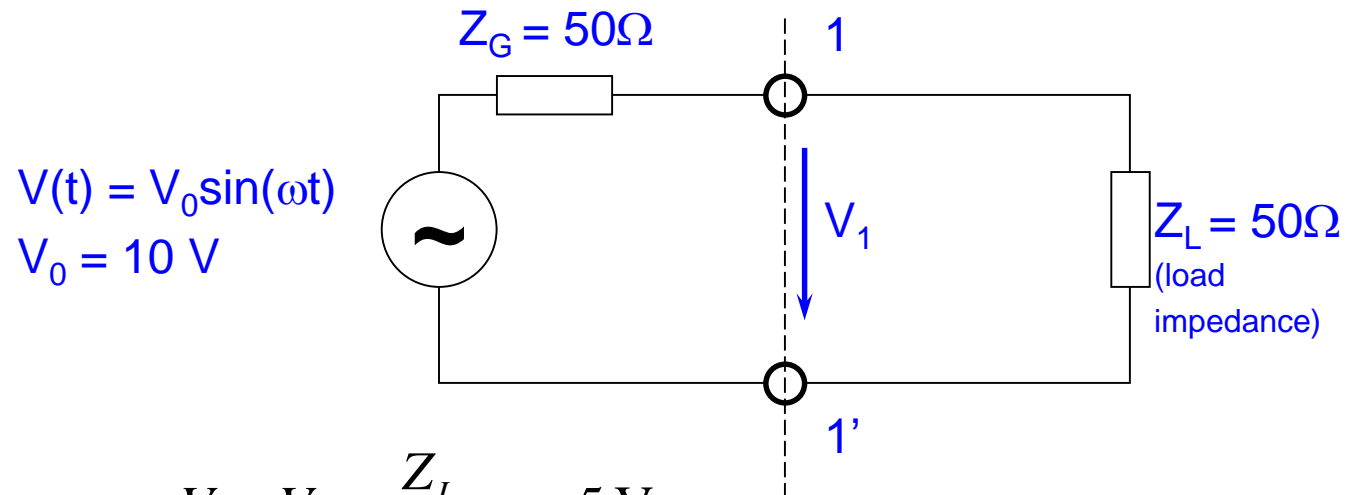
$$a_i = \frac{V_i + Z_i I_i}{2\sqrt{|\operatorname{Re} Z_i|}}, \quad b_i = \frac{V_i - Z_i^* I_i}{2\sqrt{|\operatorname{Re} Z_i|}}$$

where V_i and I_i are the voltage at and the current flowing into the i th port of a junction and Z_i is the impedance of the circuit connected to the i th port. The square of the magnitude of these waves is directly related to the exchangeable power of a source and the reflected power. For this reason, in this paper, they are called the power waves. For certain applications where the power relations are of main concern, the power waves are more suitable quantities than the conventional traveling waves. The lossless and reciprocal conditions as well as the frequency characteristics of the scattering matrix are presented.

Then, the formula is given for a new scattering matrix when the Z_i 's are changed. As an application, the condition under which an amplifier can be matched simultaneously at both input and output ports as well as the condition for the network to be unconditionally stable are given in terms of the scattering matrix components. Also a brief comparison is made between the traveling waves and the power waves.

K. Kurokawa, 'Power Waves and the Scattering Matrix,'
IEEE Transactions on Microwave Theory and Techniques,
Vol. MTT-13, No. 2, March, 1965.

Example: A generator with a load



- ◆ Voltage divider: $V_1 = V_0 \frac{Z_L}{Z_L + Z_G} = 5 \text{ V}$
- ◆ This is the matched case, since $Z_G = Z_L$. Thus we have a forward travelling wave only, no reflected wave. Thus the amplitude of the forward travelling wave in this case is $V_1 = 5 \text{ V}$, a_1 returns as $5 \text{ V} / \sqrt{50 \Omega}$ (forward power = $25 \text{ V}^2 / 50 \Omega = 0.5 \text{ W}$)
- ◆ a_1 is always **independent** of the load impedance (wave source)
- ◆ Matching means maximum power transfer from a generator with given source impedance to an external load
- ◆ In general, $Z_L = Z_G^*$

Power waves (1)

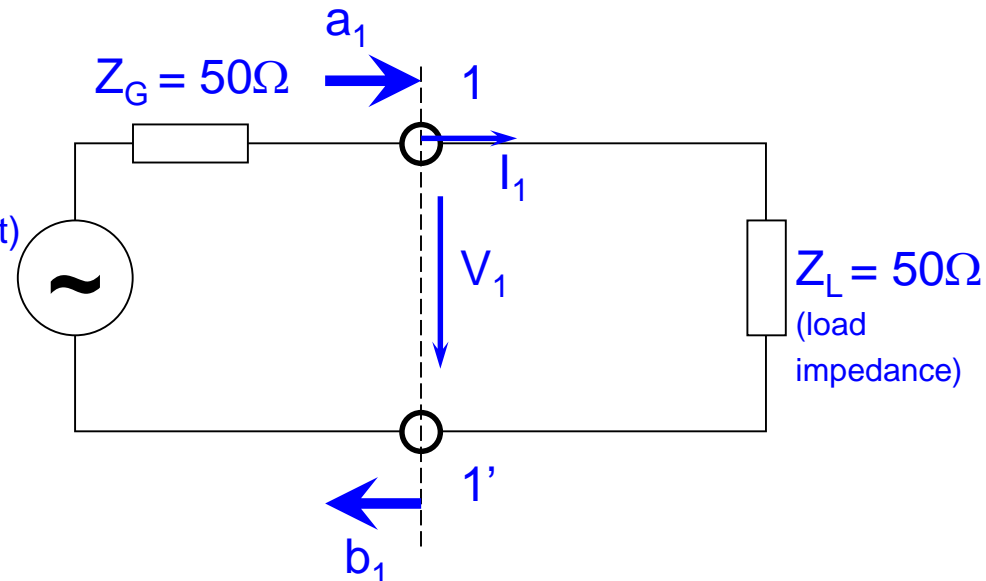
$$a_1 = \frac{V_1 + I_1 Z_L}{2\sqrt{Z_L}},$$

$$b_1 = \frac{V_1 - I_1 Z_L}{2\sqrt{Z_L}},$$

where the characteristic impedance $Z_L = Z_G$

$$V(t) = V_0 \sin(\omega t)$$

$$V_0 = 10 \text{ V}$$



Definition of power waves:

- ◆ a_1 is the wave incident on the termination one-port (Z_L)
- ◆ b_1 is the wave running out of the termination one-port
- ◆ a_1 has (here) a peak amplitude of $5 \text{ V}/\sqrt{(50\Omega)}$; Just half the generator voltage V_0
- ◆ What is the amplitude of b_1 ? Answer: $b_1 = 0$ in case of a matched load
- ◆ And how to get b_1 in general? Very simple: $b_1 = \Gamma a_1$ with $\Gamma = \text{refl coeff.}$
- ◆ Dimension: $[V/\sqrt{(Z_L)}]$, in contrast to pure voltage or current waves

Power waves (2)

This is the definition of a and b
(see Kurokawa paper):

$$a_1 = \frac{V_1 + I_1 Z_L}{2\sqrt{Z_L}}$$

$$b_1 = \frac{V_1 - I_1 Z_L}{2\sqrt{Z_L}}$$

Here comes a probably more practical method for determination. Assume that the source (Voltage generator with V_0 see next slide) is terminated with an external load equal to the generator impedance. Then we have the matched case and only a forward travelling wave (no reflection). Thus, the voltage on this external resistor is equal to the voltage of the outgoing wave.

$$a_1 = \frac{V_0}{2\sqrt{Z_L}} = \frac{\text{incident voltage wave (port 1)}}{\sqrt{Z_L}} = \frac{V_1^{inc}}{\sqrt{Z_L}}$$

$$b_1 = \frac{V_1^{refl}}{\sqrt{Z_L}} = \frac{\text{reflected voltage wave (port 1)}}{\sqrt{Z_L}}$$

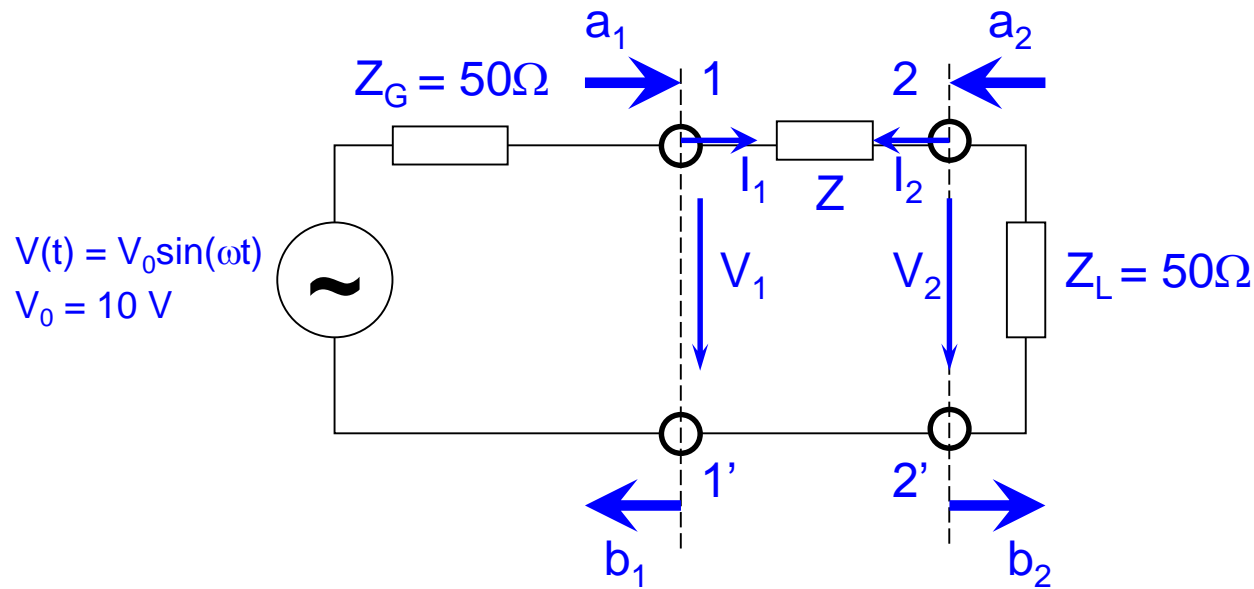
$$V_i = \sqrt{Z_L} (a_i + b_i) = V_i^{inc} + V_i^{refl}$$

$$I_i = 1/\sqrt{Z_L} (a_i - b_i) = (V_i^{inc} - V_i^{refl})/Z_L$$

$$\text{When } b_i = 0 \text{ we get } I_i = \frac{V_0/2\sqrt{Z_L}}{\sqrt{Z_L}} = V_0/2Z_L$$

Caution! US notion: power = $|a|^2$ whereas European notation (often): power = $|a|^2/2$

Analyzing a lumped element 2-port



- ◆ A 2-port or 4-pole is shown above between the generator output [accessible points outside source impedance (plane 1-1')] and the load. $DUT=Z$! (DUT=device under test)
- ◆ One strategy for practical solution: Determine currents and voltages at all ports (classical network [voltage divider] calculation techniques) and from there determine “a” and “b” for each port. Alternatively start with the determination of Γ in plane 1-1’.
- ◆ Don’t forget to normalize the results to the case of a matched load and $Z=0$ i.e. no DUT. The waves “a” always travel towards an N-port, the waves “b” always travels away from an N-port

3 Using S-Parameters

Another important advantage of s-parameters stems from the fact that traveling waves, unlike terminal voltages and currents, do not vary in magnitude at points along a lossless transmission line. This means that scattering parameters can be measured on a device located at some distance from the measurement transducers, provided that the measuring device and the transducers are connected by low-loss transmission lines.

Derivation

Generalized scattering parameters have been defined by [K. Kurokawa \[Appendix A\]](#). These parameters describe the interrelationships of a new set of variables (a_i , b_i). The variables a_i and b_i are normalized complex voltage waves incident on and reflected from the i^{th} port of the network. They are defined in terms of the terminal voltage V_i , the terminal current I_i , and an arbitrary reference impedance Z_i , where the asterisk denotes the complex conjugate:

$$a_i = \frac{V_i + Z_i I_i}{2\sqrt{|\operatorname{Re} Z_i|}} \quad (4)$$

$$b_i = \frac{V_i - Z_i^* I_i}{2\sqrt{|\operatorname{Re} Z_i|}} \quad (5)$$



Transmission and Reflection

When light interacts with a lens, as in this photograph, part of the light incident on the woman's eyeglasses is reflected while the rest is transmitted. The amounts reflected and transmitted are characterized by optical reflection and transmission coefficients. Similarly, scattering parameters are measures of reflection and transmission of voltage waves through a two-port electrical network.

3 Using S-Parameters

For most measurements and calculations it is convenient to assume that the reference impedance Z_i is positive and real. For the remainder of this article, then, all variables and parameters will be referenced to a single positive real impedance, Z_L

The wave functions used to define s-parameters for a two-port network are shown in Fig. 2.

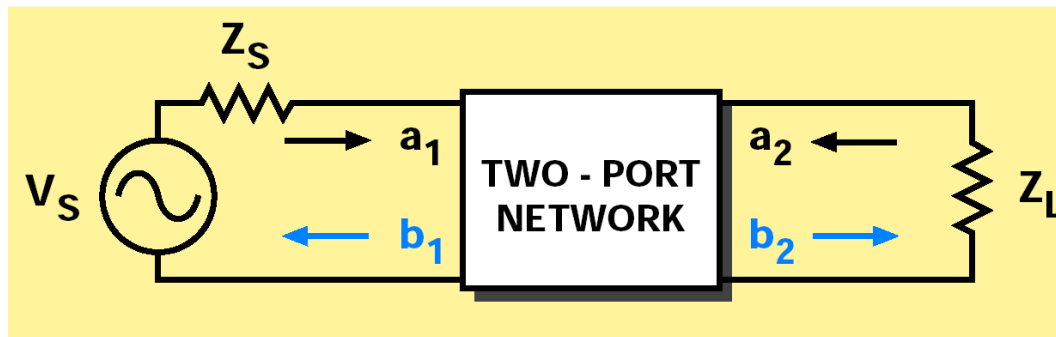


Figure 2

Two-port network showing incident waves (a_1 , a_2) and reflected waves (b_1 , b_2) used in s-parameter definitions. The flow graph for this network appears in [Figure 3](#).

Scattering parameters relationship to optics
Impedance mismatches between successive elements in an RF circuit relate closely to optics, where there are successive differences in the index of refraction. A material's characteristic impedance, Z_0 , is inversely related to the index of refraction, N :

$$Z_0 \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon}{377}} = \frac{1}{N}$$

The s-parameters s_{11} and s_{22} are the same as optical reflection coefficients; s_{12} and s_{21} are the same as optical transmission coefficients.

3 Using S-Parameters

The independent variables a_1 and a_2 are normalized incident voltages, as follows:

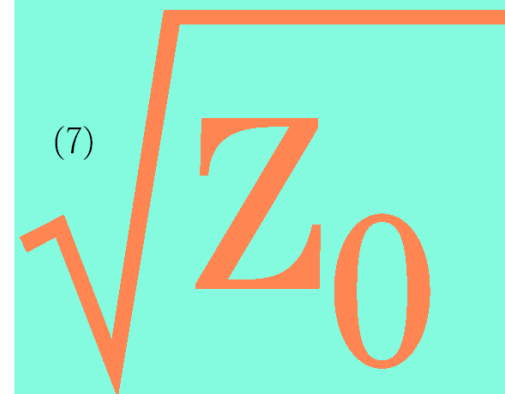
$$a_1 = \frac{V_1 + I_1 Z_L}{2\sqrt{Z_L}} = \frac{\text{voltage wave incident on port 1}}{\sqrt{Z_L}} = \frac{V_{i1}}{\sqrt{Z_L}} \quad (6)$$

$$a_2 = \frac{V_2 + I_2 Z_L}{2\sqrt{Z_L}} = \frac{\text{voltage wave incident on port 2}}{\sqrt{Z_L}} = \frac{V_{i2}}{\sqrt{Z_L}} \quad (7)$$

Dependent variables b_1 , and b_2 , are normalized reflected voltages:

$$b_1 = \frac{V_1 - I_1 Z_L}{2\sqrt{Z_L}} = \frac{\text{voltage wave reflected from port 1}}{\sqrt{Z_L}} = \frac{V_{r1}}{\sqrt{Z_L}} \quad (8)$$

$$b_2 = \frac{V_2 - I_2 Z_L}{2\sqrt{Z_L}} = \frac{\text{voltage wave reflected from port 2}}{\sqrt{Z_L}} = \frac{V_{r2}}{\sqrt{Z_L}} \quad (9)$$



3 Using S-Parameters

The linear equations describing the two-port network are then:

$$b_1 = s_{11} a_1 + s_{12} a_2 \quad (10)$$

$$b_2 = s_{21} a_1 + s_{22} a_2 \quad (11)$$

The s-parameters s_{11} , s_{22} , s_{21} , and s_{12} are:

$$s_{11} = \left. \frac{b_1}{a_1} \right|_{a_2=0} = \text{Input reflection coefficient with the output port terminated by a matched load } (Z_L=Z_0 \text{ sets } a_2=0) \quad (12)$$

$$s_{22} = \left. \frac{b_2}{a_2} \right|_{a_1=0} = \text{Output reflection coefficient with the input terminated by a matched load } (Z_S=Z_0 \text{ sets } V_S=0) \quad (13)$$

$$s_{21} = \left. \frac{b_2}{a_1} \right|_{a_2=0} = \text{Forward transmission (insertion) gain with the output port terminated in a matched load.} \quad (14)$$

$$s_{12} = \left. \frac{b_1}{a_2} \right|_{a_1=0} = \text{Reverse transmission (insertion) gain with the input port terminated in a matched load.} \quad (15)$$

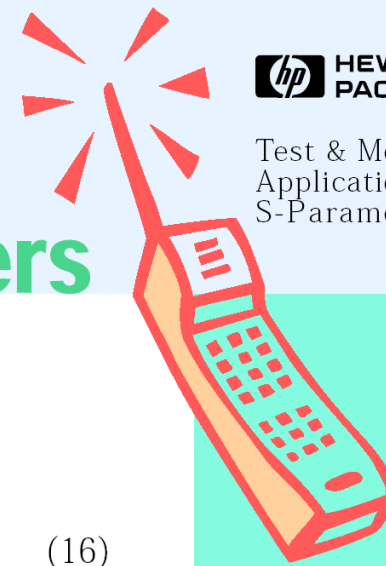
12

All ports including the generator port MUST be terminated for a proper S-parameter measurement

Limitations of lumped models

At low frequencies most circuits behave in a predictable manner and can be described by a group of replaceable, lumped-equivalent black boxes. At microwave frequencies, as circuit element size approaches the wavelengths of the operating frequencies, such a simplified type of model becomes inaccurate. The physical arrangements of the circuit components can no longer be treated as black boxes. We have to use a distributed circuit element model and s-parameters.

3 Using S-Parameters



Notice that

$$s_{11} = \frac{b_1}{a_1} = \frac{\frac{V_1}{I_1} - Z_L}{\frac{V_1}{I_1} + Z_L} = \frac{Z_1 - Z_L}{Z_1 + Z_L} \quad (16)$$

$$\text{and } Z_1 = Z_L \frac{(1 + s_{11})}{(1 - s_{11})} \quad (17)$$

where $Z_1 = \frac{V_1}{I_1}$ is the input impedance at port 1.

This relationship between reflection coefficient and impedance is the basis of the Smith Chart transmission-line calculator. Consequently, the reflection coefficients s_{11} and s_{22} can be plotted on Smith charts, converted directly to impedance, and easily manipulated to determine matching networks for optimizing a circuit design.

S-parameters

S-parameters and distributed models provide a means of measuring, describing, and characterizing circuit elements when traditional lumped-equivalent circuit models cannot predict circuit behavior to the desired level of accuracy. They are used for the design of many products, such as cellular telephones.

3 Using S-Parameters

Another advantage of s-parameters springs from the simple relationship between the variables a_1 , a_2 , b_1 , and b_2 , and various power waves:

$|a_1|^2$ = Power incident on the input of the network.
 = Power available from a source impedance Z_L .

$|a_2|^2$ = Power incident on the output of the network.
 = Power reflected from the load.

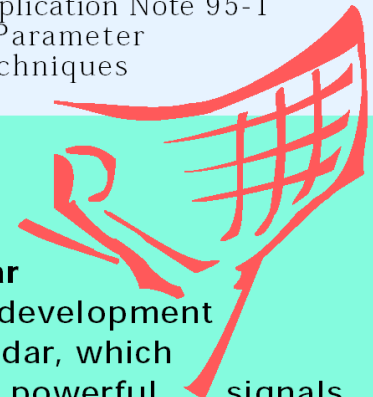
$|b_1|^2$ = Power reflected from the input port of the network.
 = Power available from a Z_L source minus the power delivered to the input of the network.

$|b_2|^2$ = Power reflected from the output port of the network.
 = Power incident on the load.
 = Power that would be delivered to a Z_L load.

Here the US notion is used, where power = $|a|^2$.

European notation (often): power = $|a|^2/2$

These conventions have no impact on S-parameters, only relevant for absolute power calculation



Radar

The development of radar, which uses powerful signals at short wavelengths to detect small objects at long distances, provided a powerful incentive for improved high frequency design methods during World War II. The design methods employed at that time combined distributed measurements and lumped circuit design. There was an urgent need for an efficient tool that could integrate measurement and design. The Smith Chart met that need.

3 Using S-Parameters

The previous four equations show that s-parameters are simply related to power gain and mismatch loss, quantities which are often of more interest than the corresponding voltage functions:

$$|s_{11}|^2 = \frac{\text{Power reflected from the network input}}{\text{Power incident on the network input}}$$

$$|s_{22}|^2 = \frac{\text{Power reflected from the network output}}{\text{Power incident on the network output}}$$

$$|s_{21}|^2 = \frac{\text{Power delivered to a } Z_L \text{ load}}{\text{Power available from } Z_L \text{ source}}$$

= Transducer power gain with Z_L load and source

$$|s_{12}|^2 = \text{Reverse transducer power gain with } Z_L \text{ load and source}$$

Here the US notion is used, where power = $|a|^2$.

European notation (often): power = $|a|^2/2$

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These conventions have no impact on S parameters, only relevant for absolute power calculation

The Scattering-Matrix (1)

The abbreviation S has been derived from the word *scattering*. For high frequencies, it is convenient to describe a given network in terms of **waves** rather than voltages or currents. This permits an easier definition of reference planes. For practical reasons, the description in terms of **in- and outgoing waves** has been introduced.

Waves travelling **towards** the n-port: $(a) = (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n)$

Waves travelling **away** from the n-port: $(b) = (b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots, b_n)$

The relation between a_i and b_i ($i = 1..n$) can be written as a system of n linear equations (a_i being the independent variable, b_i the dependent variable):

one - port	$b_1 = S_{11}a_1 + S_{12}a_2 + S_{13}a_3 + S_{14}a_4 + \dots$
two - port	$b_2 = S_{21}a_1 + S_{22}a_2 + S_{23}a_3 + S_{24}a_4 + \dots$
three - port	$b_3 = S_{31}a_1 + S_{32}a_2 + S_{33}a_3 + S_{34}a_4 + \dots$
four - port	$b_4 = S_{41}a_1 + S_{42}a_2 + S_{43}a_3 + S_{44}a_4 + \dots$

In compact matrix notation, these equations are equivalent to

$$\boxed{(b) = (S)(a)}$$

The Scattering Matrix (2)

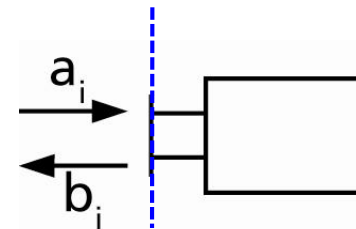
The simplest form is a passive **one-port** (2-pole) with some reflection coefficient Γ .

$$(S) = S_{11} \rightarrow b_1 = S_{11}a_1$$

With the reflection coefficient Γ it follows that

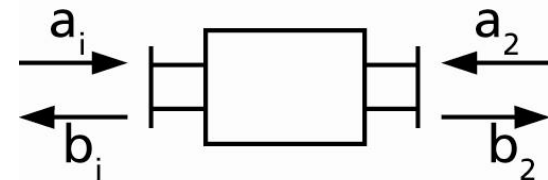
$$S_{11} = \frac{b_1}{a_1} = \Gamma$$

Reference plane



Two-port (4-pole)

$$(S) = \begin{bmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{aligned} b_1 &= S_{11}a_1 + S_{12}a_2 \\ b_2 &= S_{21}a_1 + S_{22}a_2 \end{aligned}$$



A non-matched load present at port 2 with reflection coefficient Γ_{load} transfers to the input port as

$$\Gamma_{in} = S_{11} + S_{21} \frac{\Gamma_{load}}{1 - S_{22}\Gamma_{load}} S_{12}$$

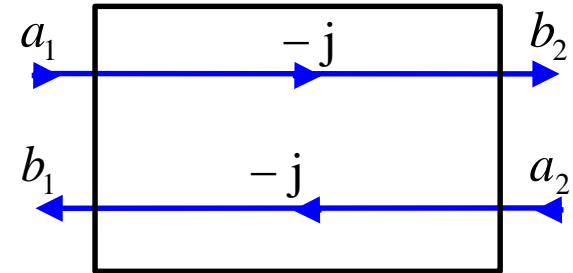
Examples of 2-ports (1)

Line of $Z_L=50\Omega$, length $l=\lambda/4$

$$(S) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -j \\ -j & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{aligned} b_1 &= -ja_2 \\ b_2 &= -ja_1 \end{aligned}$$

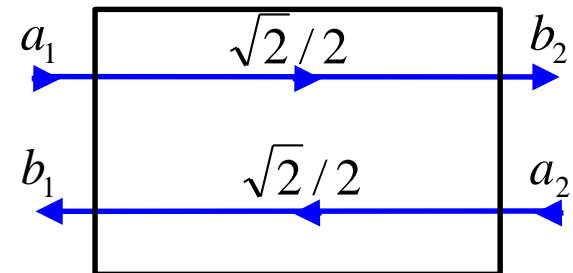
Port 1:

Port 2:



Attenuator 3dB, i.e. half output power

$$(S) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{aligned} b_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} a_2 = 0.707 a_2 \\ b_2 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} a_1 = 0.707 a_1 \end{aligned}$$



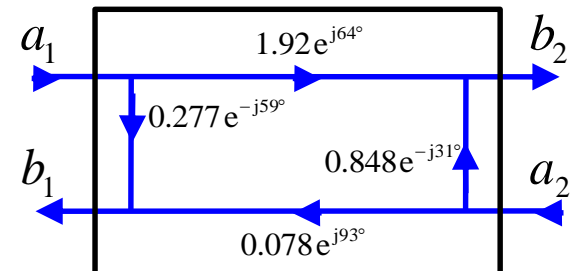
RF Transistor

$$(S) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.277 e^{-j59^\circ} & 0.078 e^{j93^\circ} \\ 1.92 e^{j64^\circ} & 0.848 e^{-j31^\circ} \end{bmatrix}$$

backward transmission

forward transmission

non-reciprocal since $S_{12} \neq S_{21}$!
=different transmission forwards and backwards



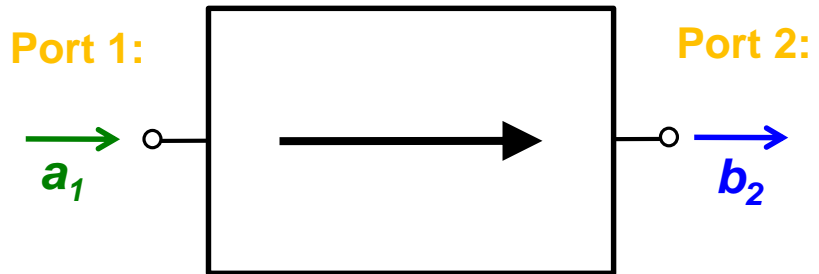
Examples of 2-ports (2)

Ideal isolator

$$(S) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$b_2 = a_1$$

only forward
transmission

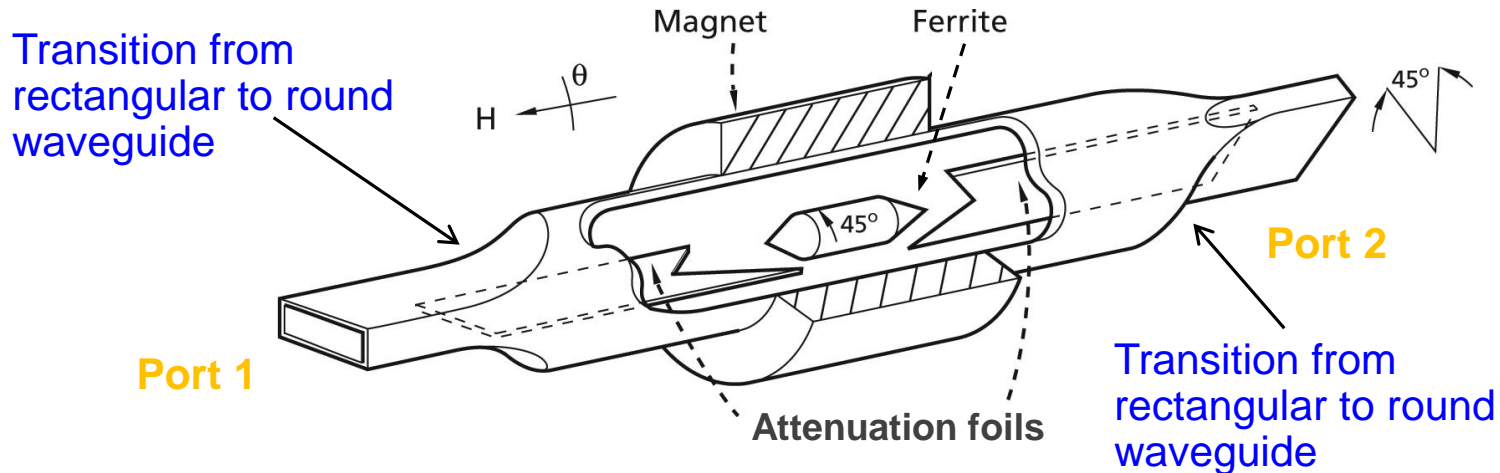


A wave can only pass from left to right through an ideal isolator

A possible implementation is the Faraday rotation isolator presented on the following slide

Examples of 2-ports (3)

Faraday rotation isolator



The left waveguide uses a TE_{10} mode (=vertically polarized H field). After transition to a circular waveguide, the polarization of the mode is rotated **counter clockwise** by 45° by a ferrite.

Then follows a transition to another rectangular waveguide which is rotated by 45° such that the forward wave can pass without reflection or attenuation.

However, a wave coming from the other side will have its polarization rotated by 45° **clockwise** as seen from the right hand side.

Examples of 3-ports (1)

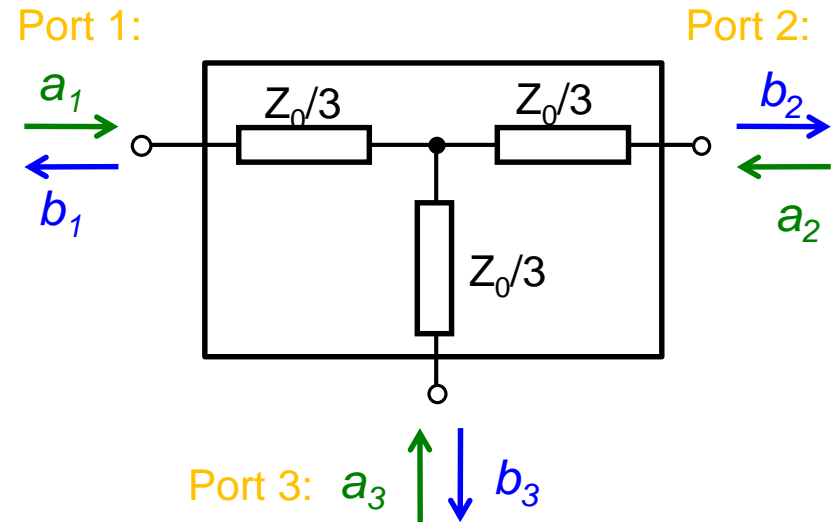
Resistive power divider

$$(S) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$b_1 = \frac{1}{2}(a_2 + a_3)$$

$$b_2 = \frac{1}{2}(a_1 + a_3)$$

$$b_3 = \frac{1}{2}(a_1 + a_2)$$



3-port circulator

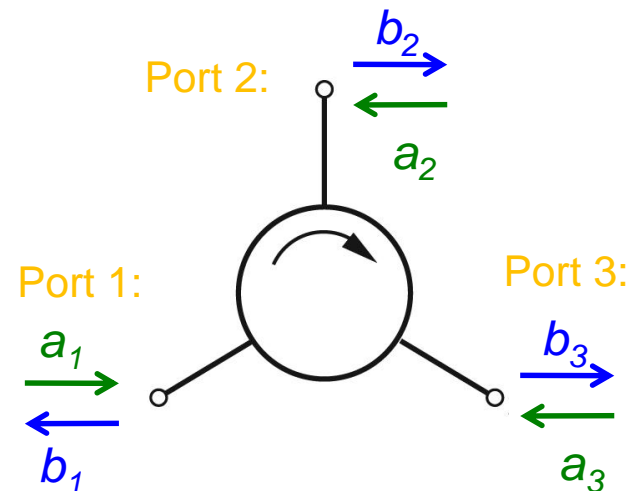
$$(S) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$b_1 = a_3$$

$$b_2 = a_1$$

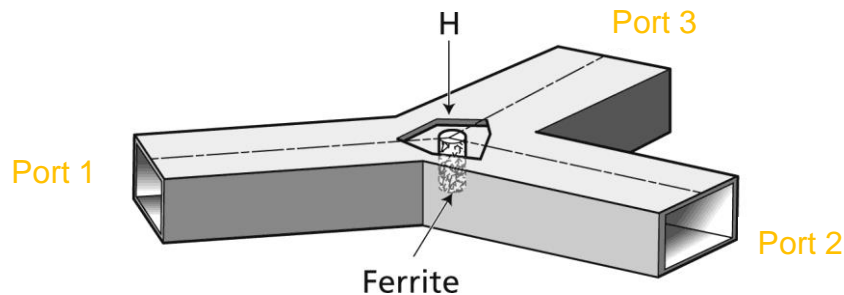
$$b_3 = a_2$$

The ideal circulator is lossless, matched at all ports, but not reciprocal. A signal entering the ideal circulator at one port is transmitted exclusively to the next port in the sense of the arrow.

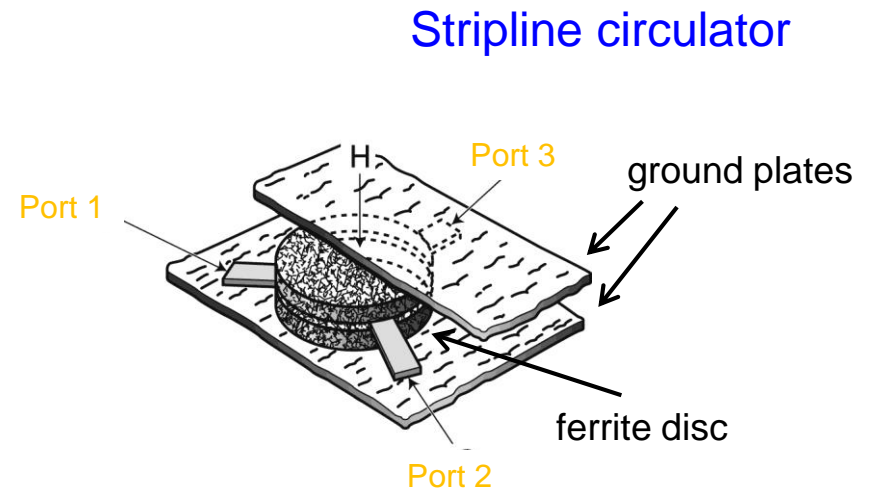


Examples of 3-ports (2)

Practical implementations of circulators:



Waveguide circulator

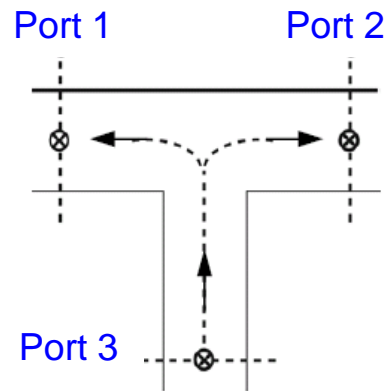
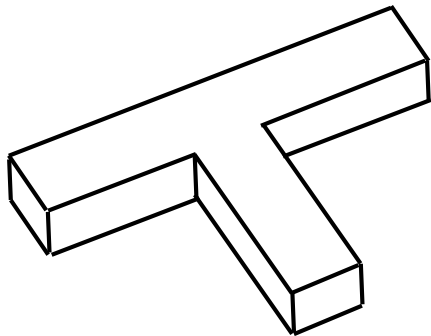


Stripline circulator

A circulator contains a volume of ferrite. The magnetically polarized ferrite provides the required non-reciprocal properties, thus power is only transmitted from port 1 to port 2, from port 2 to port 3, and from port 3 to port 1.

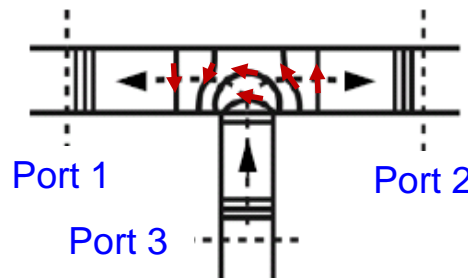
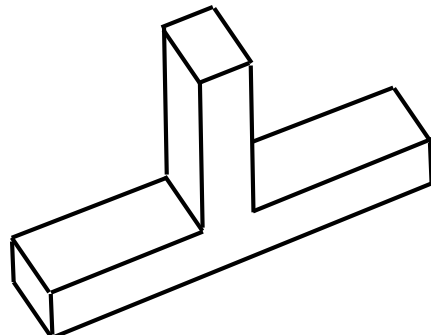
Examples of S matrices: 3-ports (3)

- ◆ The T splitter is reciprocal and lossless but not matched at all ports. Using the losslessness condition and symmetry considerations one finds for E and H plane splitters



H-plane splitter

$$S_H = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & \sqrt{2} \\ -1 & 1 & \sqrt{2} \\ \sqrt{2} & \sqrt{2} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



Note: change in sign of wave going left and right

E-plane splitter

$$S_E = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & \sqrt{2} \\ 1 & 1 & -\sqrt{2} \\ \sqrt{2} & -\sqrt{2} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Examples of 4-ports (1)

Ideal directional coupler

$$(S) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & jk & \sqrt{1-k^2} & 0 \\ jk & 0 & 0 & \sqrt{1-k^2} \\ \sqrt{1-k^2} & 0 & 0 & jk \\ 0 & \sqrt{1-k^2} & jk & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ with } k = \left| \frac{b_2}{a_1} \right|$$



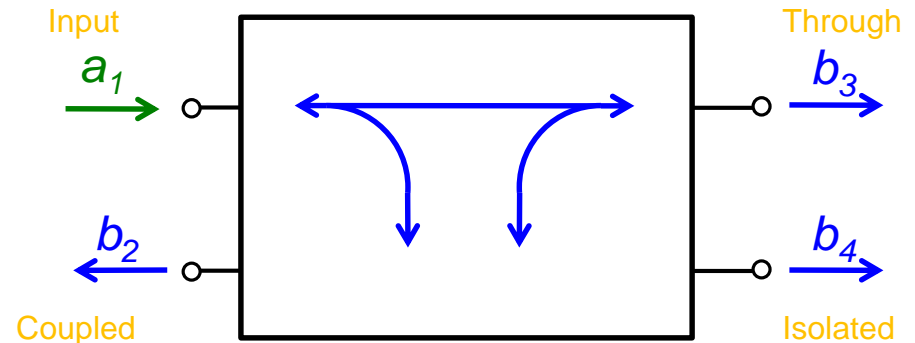
Picture from:
<http://www.thetestequipmentstore.com/waveguide.htm>

To characterize directional couplers, three important figures are used:

the coupling $C = -20 \log_{10} \left| \frac{b_2}{a_1} \right|$

the directivity $D = -20 \log_{10} \left| \frac{b_4}{b_2} \right|$

the isolation $I = -20 \log_{10} \left| \frac{a_1}{b_4} \right|$

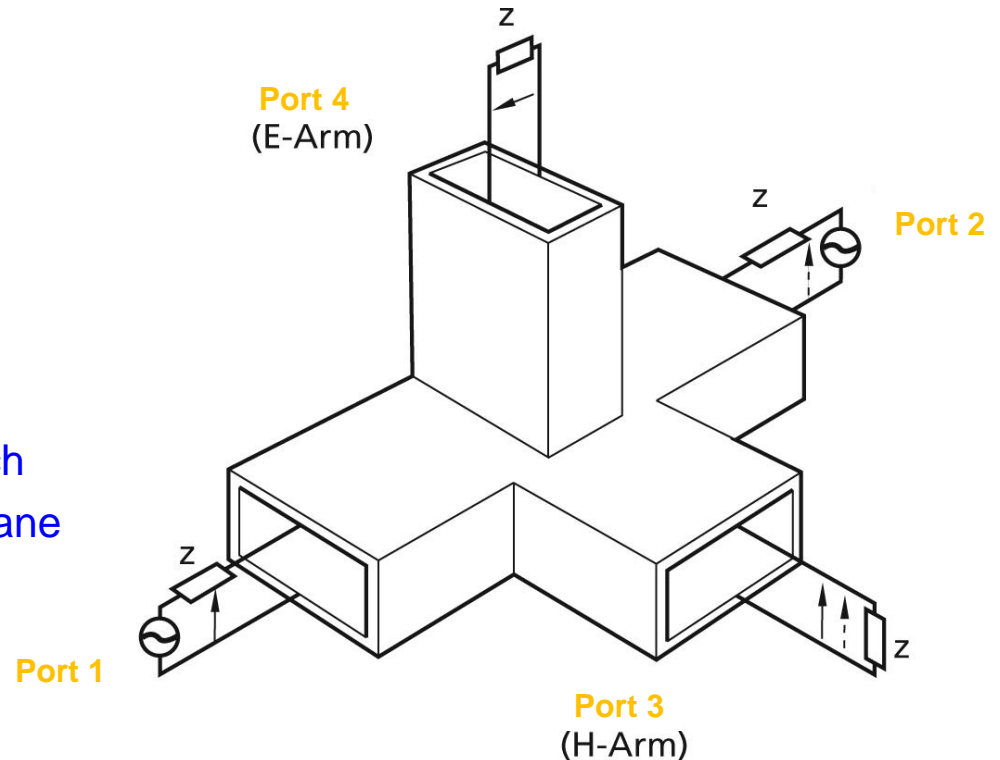


Examples of 4-ports (2)

Magic-T also referred to as 180° hybrid:

$$(S) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The H-plane is defined as a plane in which the magnetic field lines are situated. E-plane correspondingly for the electric field.



Can be implemented as waveguide or coaxial version. Historically, the name originates from the waveguide version where you can “see” the horizontal and vertical “T”.

Evaluation of scattering parameters (1)

Basic relation:

$$b_1 = S_{11}a_1 + S_{12}a_2$$

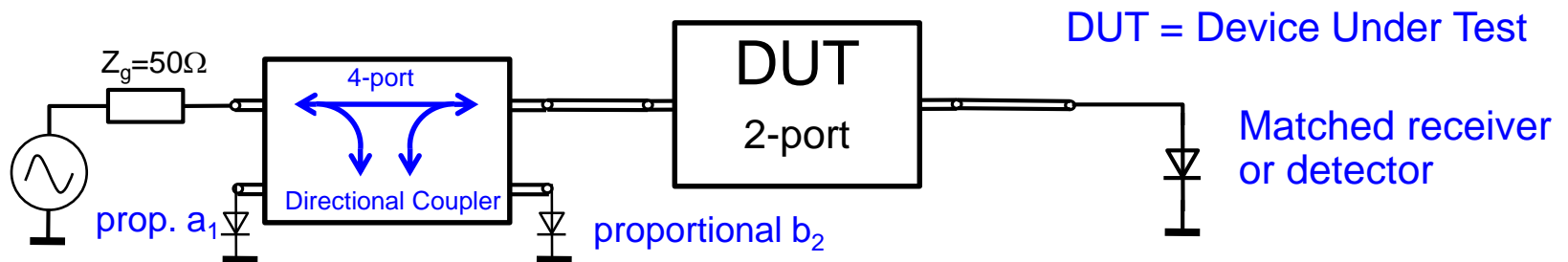
$$b_2 = S_{21}a_1 + S_{22}a_2$$

Finding S_{11} , S_{21} : ("forward" parameters, assuming port 1 = input, port 2 = output e.g. in a transistor)

- connect a generator at port 1 and inject a wave a_1 into it
- connect reflection-free absorber at port 2 to assure $a_2 = 0$
- calculate/measure
 - wave b_1 (reflection at port 1)
 - wave b_2 (generated at port 2)
- evaluate

$$S_{11} = \left. \frac{b_1}{a_1} \right|_{a_2=0} \quad \text{"input reflection factor"}$$

$$S_{21} = \left. \frac{b_2}{a_1} \right|_{a_2=0} \quad \text{"forward transmission factor"}$$



Evaluation of scattering parameters (2)

Finding S_{12} , S_{22} : ("backward" parameters)

- interchange generator and load
- proceed in analogy to the forward parameters, i.e. inject wave a_2 and assure $a_1 = 0$
- evaluate

$$S_{12} = \left. \frac{b_1}{a_2} \right|_{a_1=0} \quad \text{"backward transmission factor"}$$

$$S_{22} = \left. \frac{b_2}{a_2} \right|_{a_1=0} \quad \text{"output reflection factor"}$$

For a proper S-parameter measurement all ports of the Device Under Test (DUT) including the generator port must be terminated with their characteristic impedance in order to assure that waves travelling away from the DUT (b_n -waves) are not reflected back and convert into a_n -waves.

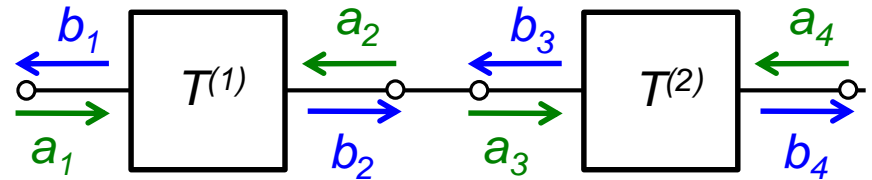
Scattering transfer parameters

The T-parameter matrix is related to the incident and reflected normalised waves at each of the ports.

$$\begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ a_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} T_{11} & T_{12} \\ T_{21} & T_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_2 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

T-parameters may be used to determine the effect of a cascaded 2-port networks by simply multiplying the individual T-parameter matrices:

$$[T] = [T^{(1)}][T^{(2)}] \dots [T^{(N)}] = \prod_N [T^{(i)}]$$



T-parameters can be directly evaluated from the associated S-parameters and vice versa.

From S to T:

$$[T] = \frac{1}{S_{21}} \begin{bmatrix} -\det(S) & S_{11} \\ -S_{22} & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

From T to S:

$$[S] = \frac{1}{T_{22}} \begin{bmatrix} T_{12} & \det(T) \\ 1 & -T_{21} \end{bmatrix}$$

Learning targets for Section D

At the end of this chapter you should

- Know the reason for the introduction of the S-parameter concept
- Have understood why for RF-circuits its more convenient to analyse them in terms of waves instead of voltages and currents
- Know the definition of power waves
- Know the difference between normal voltage (or current) waves and power waves.
- Be familiar with the concept, definition, motivation and implication of reference planes
- Keep in mind that S-parameters always need some reference impedance
- Be able to deduce the S-matrix of a very simple lumped element circuit by hand.
- Be able to read and understand datasheet of components in terms of S-parameters
- Know about basic properties of 1..4 ports in terms of S-parameters.
- Know the difference between reciprocity and symmetry.
- Know the difference between coupling ,directivity and isolation in directional couplers
- Know the definition of reciprocity in terms of S-parameters.
- Be familiar with the S-matrix of nonreciprocal elements (isolator, circulator, amplifier)
- Have understood the basic microwave circuit building blocks, such as directional coupler, power divider (lossy and lossless) isolator/circulator, magic T
- Know that that a “port” has to be assigned for each mode including the polarisation state if relevant (e.g. dipole modes). That’s sometimes overlooked in simulations
- Never forget that the measurement condition for S-parameters assumes that all ports of the device under test have to be properly terminated including the generator port.

Amplifiers (1)

- ◆ **Semiconductors**

- Bipolar transistors
- Field effect transistors
- many others

- ◆ Frequency range: 0...100 GHz

- ◆ Power range: from close to thermal noise level to many kW

- ◆ High reliability, but lifetime not infinite (thermal fatigue, metal migration, etc.)

- ◆ Often unforgiving, failure is normally definitive

- ◆ Inherently low-voltage, high current devices compared to tubes

- ◆ Low to medium gain

Amplifiers (2)

- ◆ **Gridded Tubes (electron tubes)**
- ◆ Frequency range: 0...0.5 GHz (tetrodes), 0...3 GHz (triodes)
- ◆ Power range:
 - for CW (continuous wave) up to 30 MHz: 1 MW
 - at 300 MHz: 200 kW
 - pulsed at 200 MHz: 4 MW
- ◆ Medium reliability, lifetime cathode limited to 5000...40000 hours
- ◆ Relatively robust
- ◆ Inherently medium to high voltage, low current devices
- ◆ Density modulated
- ◆ High gain at low frequencies, medium gain at high frequencies

Amplifiers (3)

- ◆ **Klystrons**

- ◆ Frequency range: 0.3...10 GHz

- ◆ Power range:

- CW at 350 MHz: 1 MW
- pulsed at 3 GHz: 30 MW

- ◆ Medium reliability, lifetime cathode limited

- ◆ Needs expert care

- ◆ Inherently very high voltage device

- ◆ Velocity modulated(a priori, which then converts to density mod.)

- ◆ Very high gain (≈ 40 to 60 dB, about 10 dB per passive resonator)

- ◆ Tend to be noisy (acoustically and electrically)

- ◆ **Others**

- ◆ Travelling wave tubes, magnetrons (Microwave ovens!!), Gyrotrons

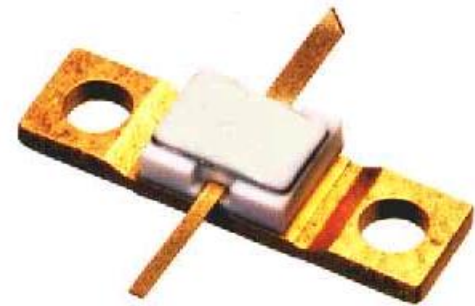
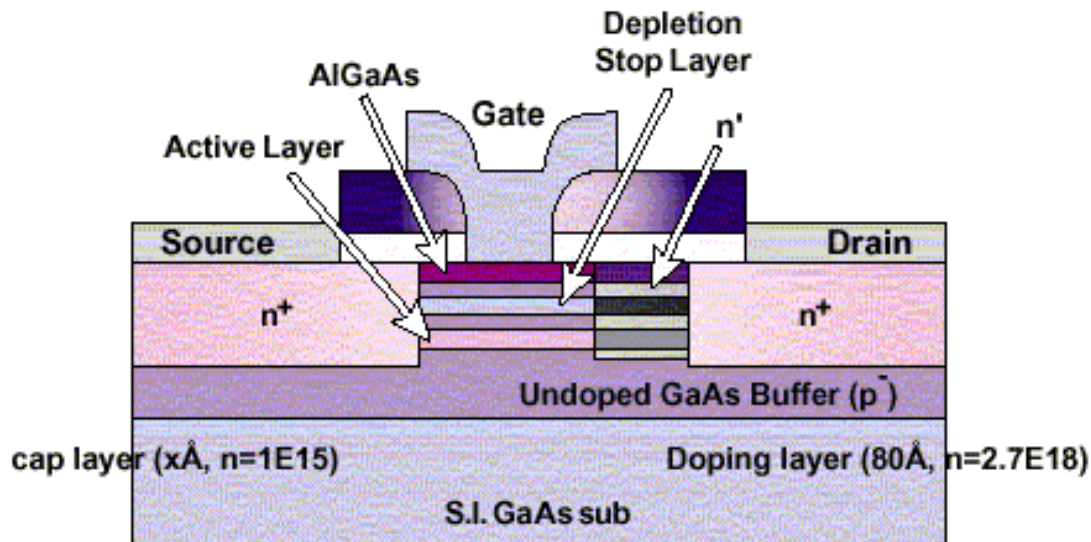
- ◆ 2-beam accelerators (CLIC)

Transistors (1)

Example: a field effect transistor (FET)

Structure of an advanced pulse-doped MESFET

High Power and Low Distortion GaAs FET



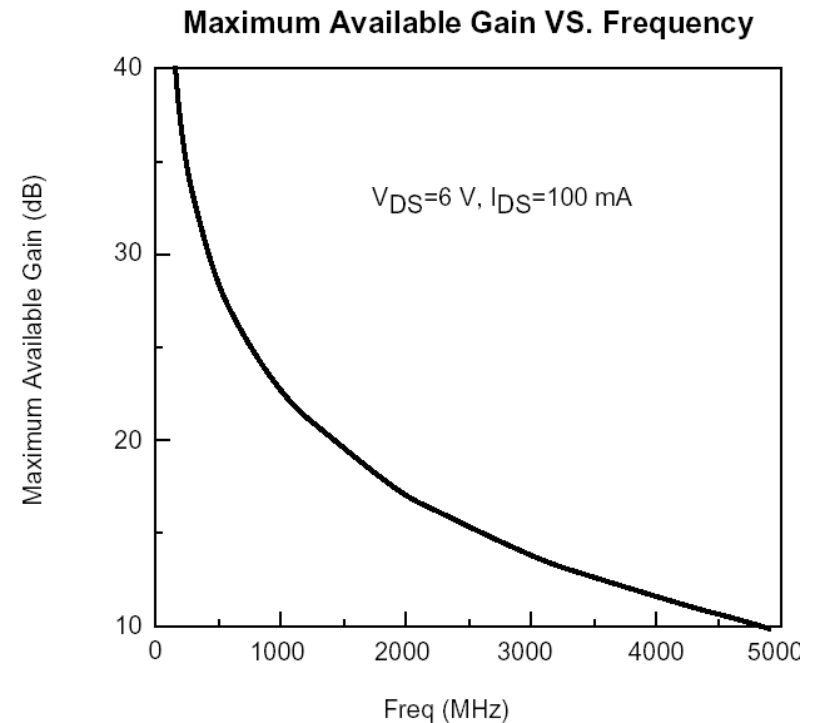
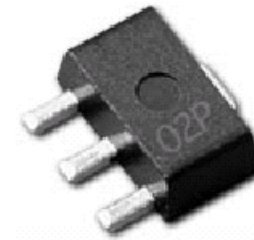
Transistors (2)

A typical data sheet of a Medium Power GaAs FET

- Up to 2.5 GHz frequency band
- Beyond 22 dBm output power
- Low distortion characteristics
- Low power consumption
- High power gain
- Low-cost plastic mold package
- Low thermal resistance lead

Applications

- Driver amplifier preceding final power amplifier for DECT

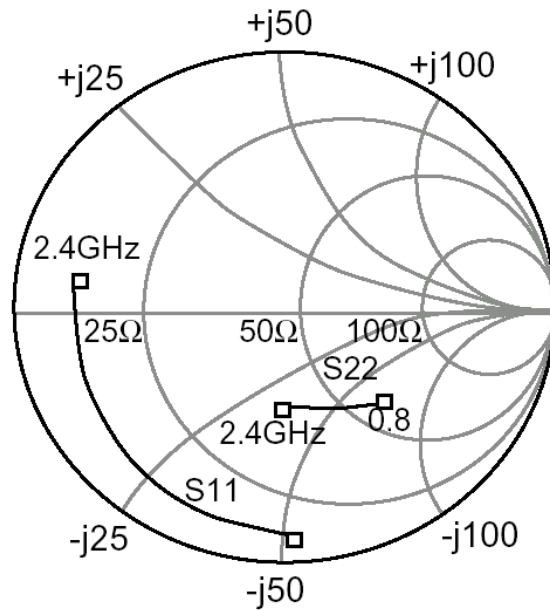


Transistors (3)

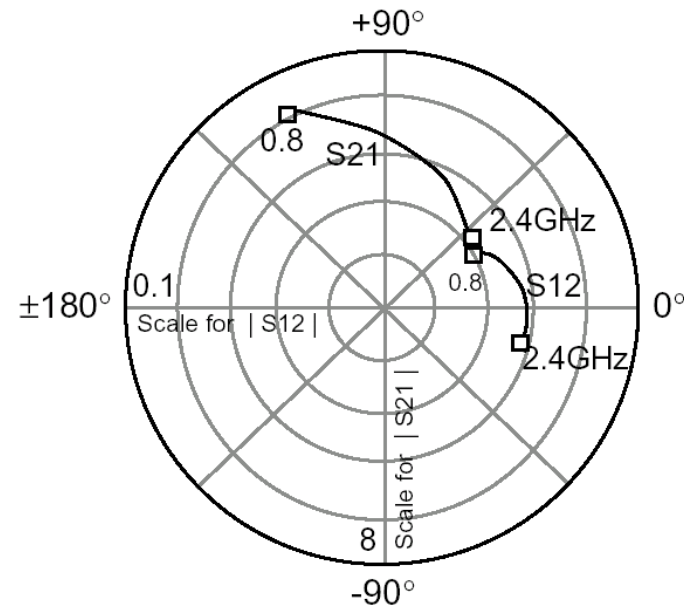
Transistor scattering parameters

They will be covered in detail in the second part of this lecture...

The input and output reflection
 S_{11} and S_{22}

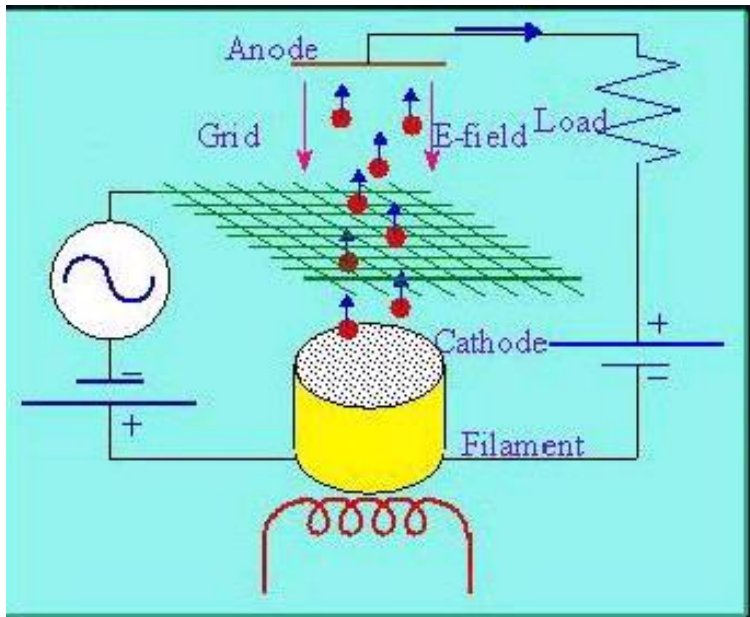


The forward transmission S_{21} and the
backward transmission S_{12}

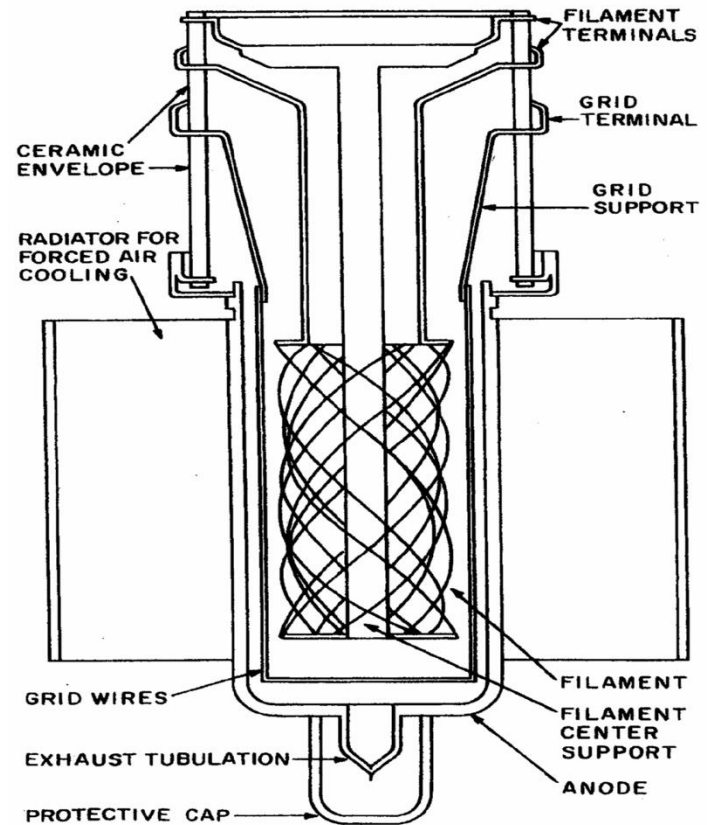


Gridded tubes

- ◆ Filament burns off electrons
- ◆ acceleration in DC field
- ◆ density modulation by grid
- ◆ => voltage controlled current source



A medium power external anode transmitting tube

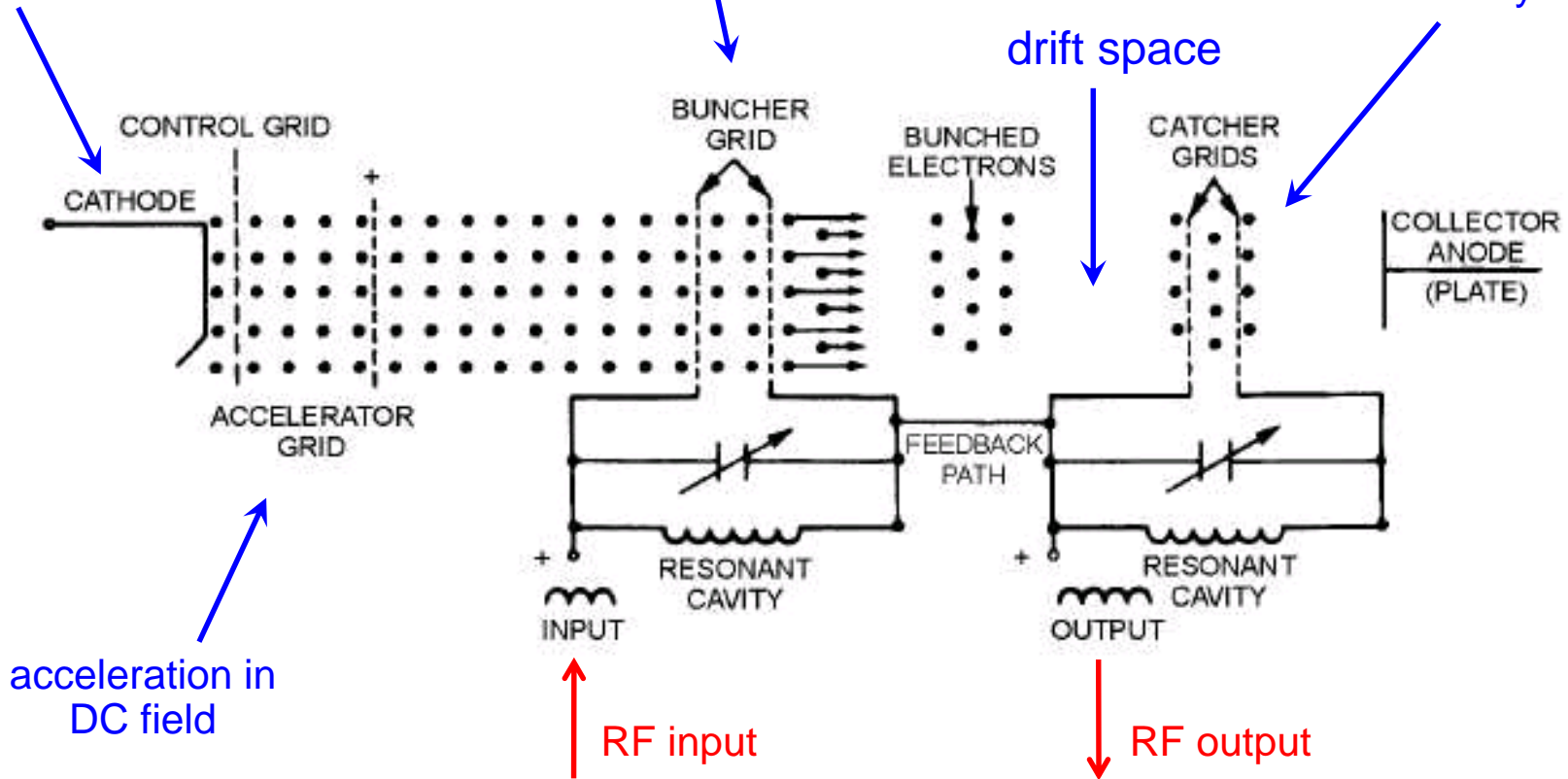


Klystrons (1)

Filament (electron gun) emits electrons

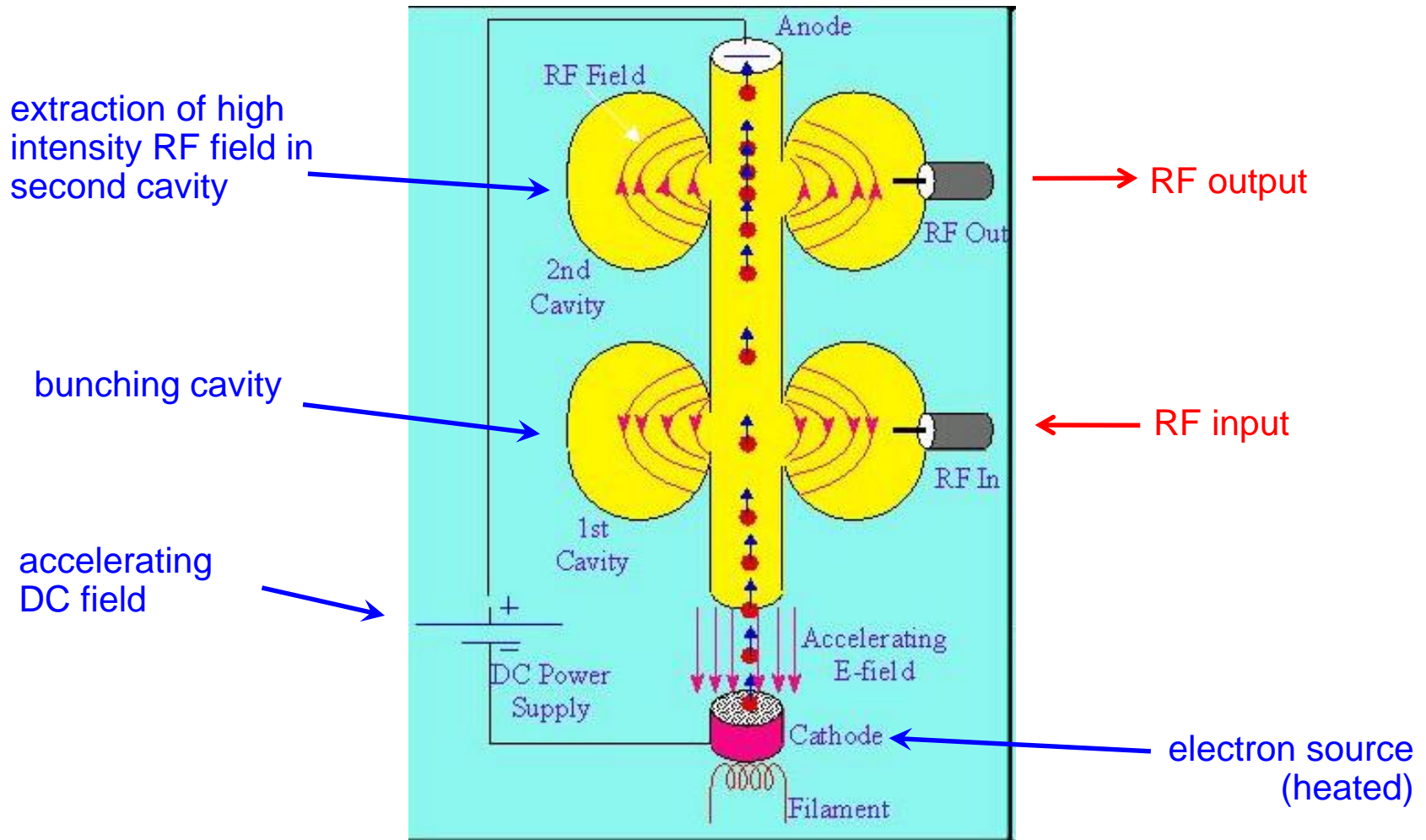
velocity modulation in first cavity

extraction of high intensity RF field in second cavity

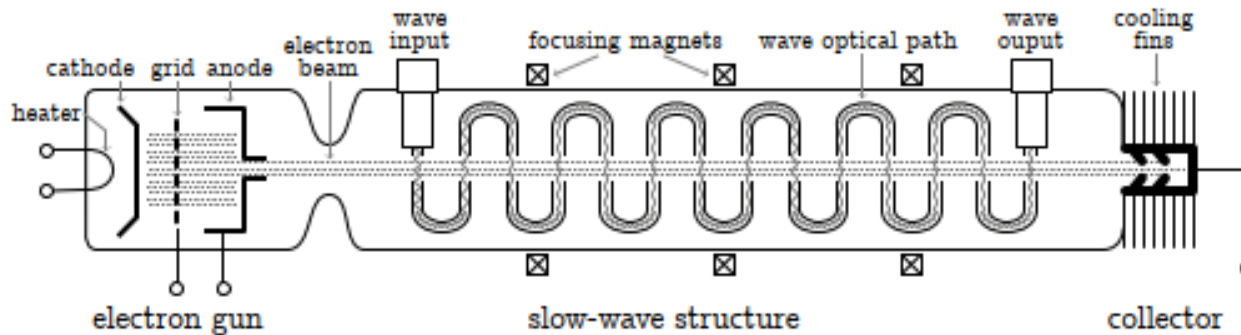


A very good and recent review paper: M. Thumm: State of the Art of high power gyro devices and free electron Masers; J Infrared Milli Terahz Waves (2020) 41:1-140 DOI 10.1007/s10762-019-00631-y

Klystrons (2)



Travelling Wave tubes (TWTs)



From: Minenna et al.. "the travelling wave tube in the history of telecommunication."

The TWT is basically a slow wave structure (e.g. helix or series of coupled cavities) where the beam is in synchronism with the phase velocity of this structure.

TWTs can have bandwidths up to 2 octaves and may show very high gain (40 dB).

They have been used for rather low noise small signal amplifiers and many are still in operation in satellites these days (reliability issues) as power amplifiers (TV satellites)

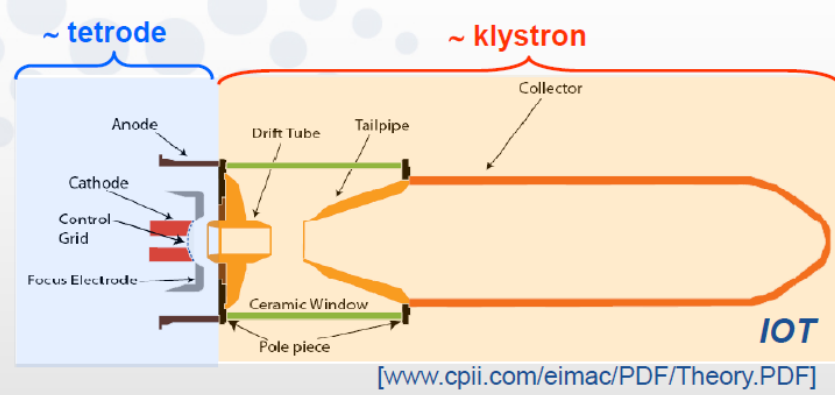
The range for different models is from 300 MHz to beyond 100 GHz.

Usually the electron beam (space charge forces) is kept focused by (permanent) magnets for a solenoidal field.

Both, forced air cooled and water cooled (in particular for the collector) versions exist.

IOT – Inductive Output Tubes (1)

IOT - Inductive Output Tubes or klystrodes



[www.cpii.com/eimac/PDF/Theory.PDF]

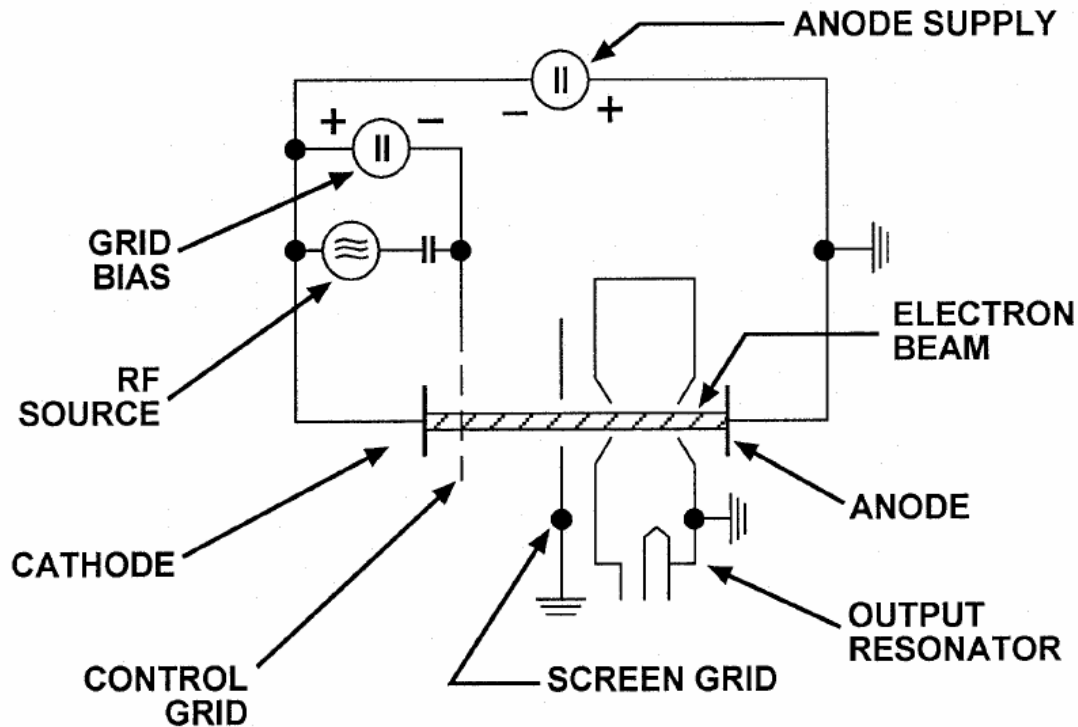
☞ Often with external in-air cavities allowing easy IOT exchange

- TV IOT: typically 60 kW at 460 – 860 MHz
- IOT developed for accelerators [Thales, CPI]:
 - 80 kW CW at 470 – 760 MHz
 - $\eta \approx 70\%$ ☞ operation in class B
 - Intrinsic low Gain = 20 ... 22 dB $\Rightarrow P_{in} = 1$ kW
 - Compact, external cavity \Rightarrow easy to handle
 - BUT: low unit power \Rightarrow power combiners

- 1.3 GHz IOT for cw X-FEL Linacs & ERLs
 - 16...20 kW
 - $\eta \approx 55$ to 65% [Thales, CPI, E2V]
 - No adequate klystron on the market
 - Superiority of IOTs:
 - ☞ Higher efficiency
 - ☞ Less amplitude & phase sensitivity to HV ripples
 - ☞ No collector overheating after loss of drive
 - ☞ Expected lower costs

IOT – Inductive Output Tubes (2)

IOT RF Power Sources for Pulsed and CW Linacs



An IOT is a simple device

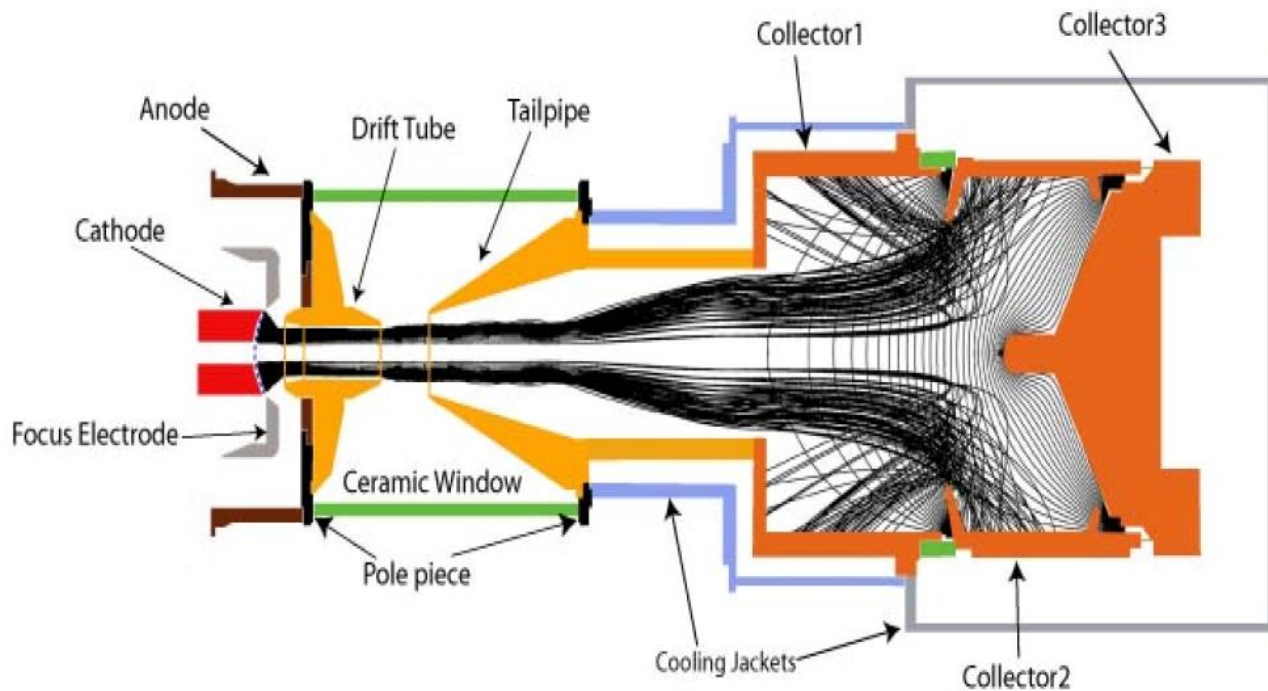
IOT – Inductive Output Tubes (3)



IOT RF Power Sources for Pulsed and CW Linacs



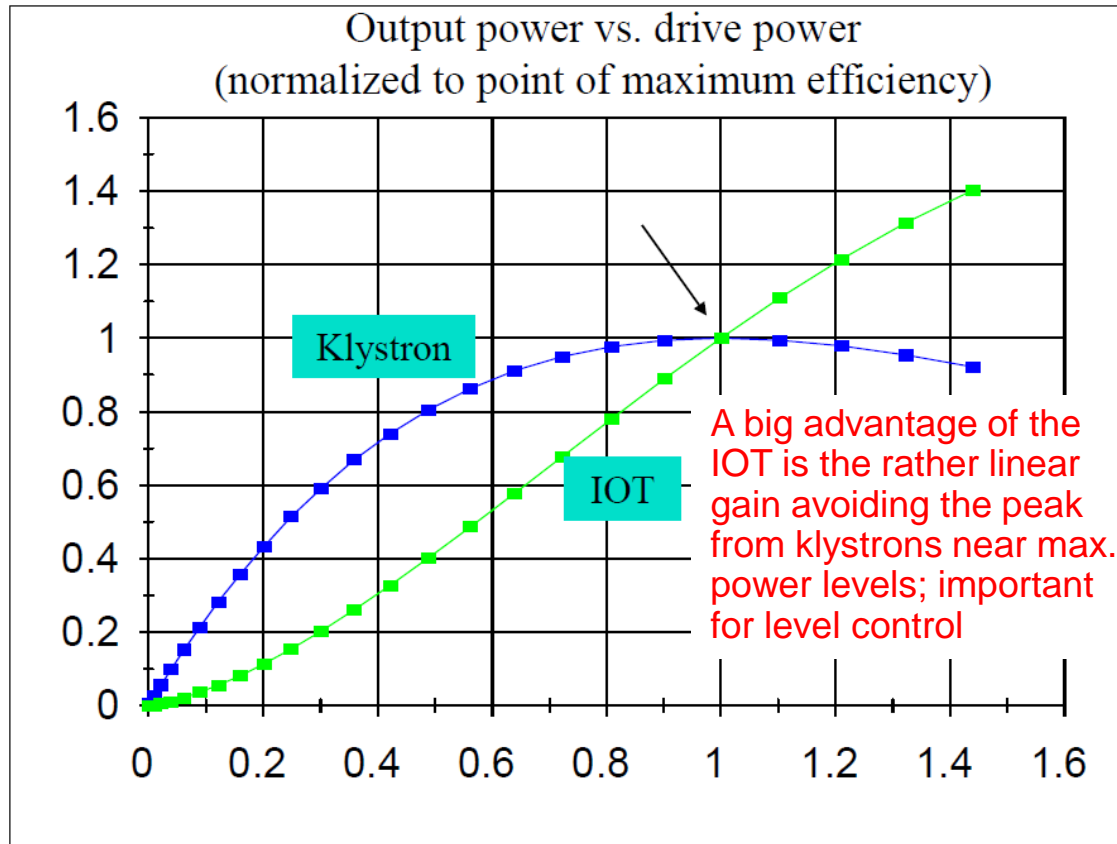
This computer graph shows the equipotential lines inside the collector assembly and the resulting distribution of the spent electron beam.



IOT – Inductive Output Tubes (4)



IOT RF Power Sources for Pulsed and CW Linacs



**Comparison of amplifier characteristics:
IOT vs. klystron**

Comparison of solid state and vacuum technology for RF power generation (1986)

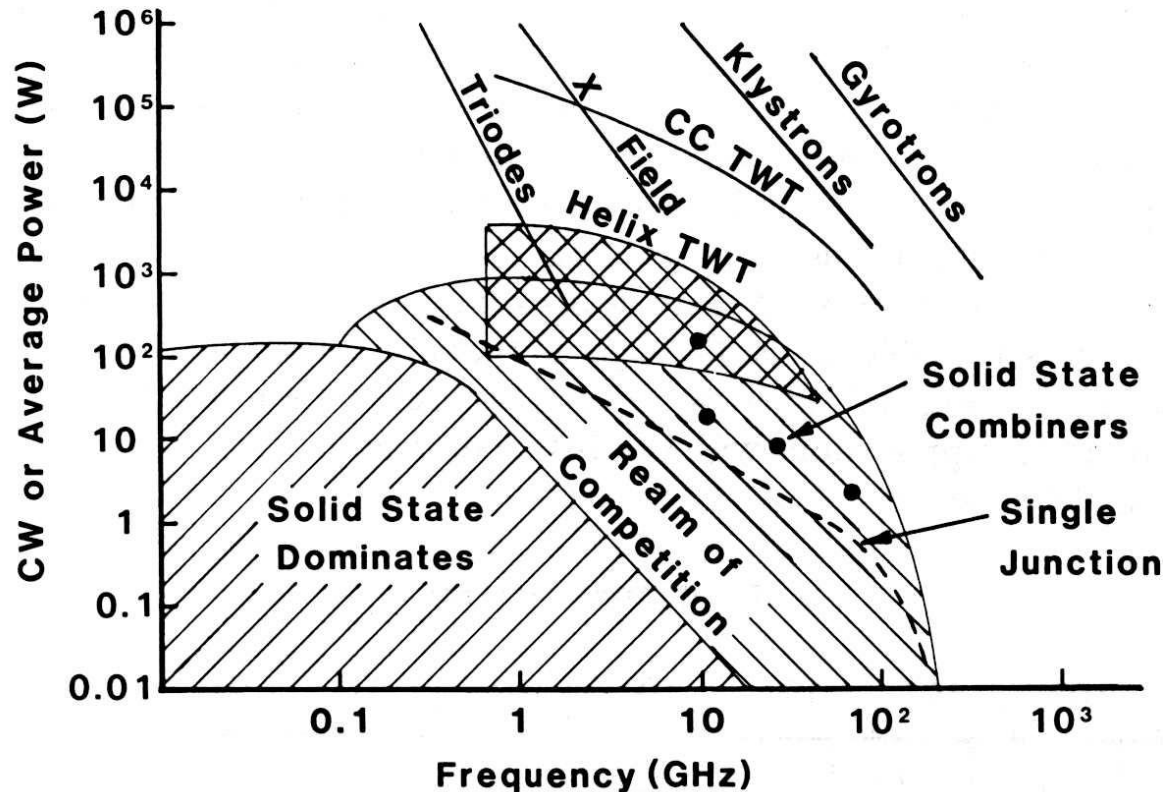
Solid state devices move steadily up in frequency

Abbreviations:

X Field: crossed field, especially magnetrons

TWT: Travelling wave tubes

CC TWT: coupled cavity TWT

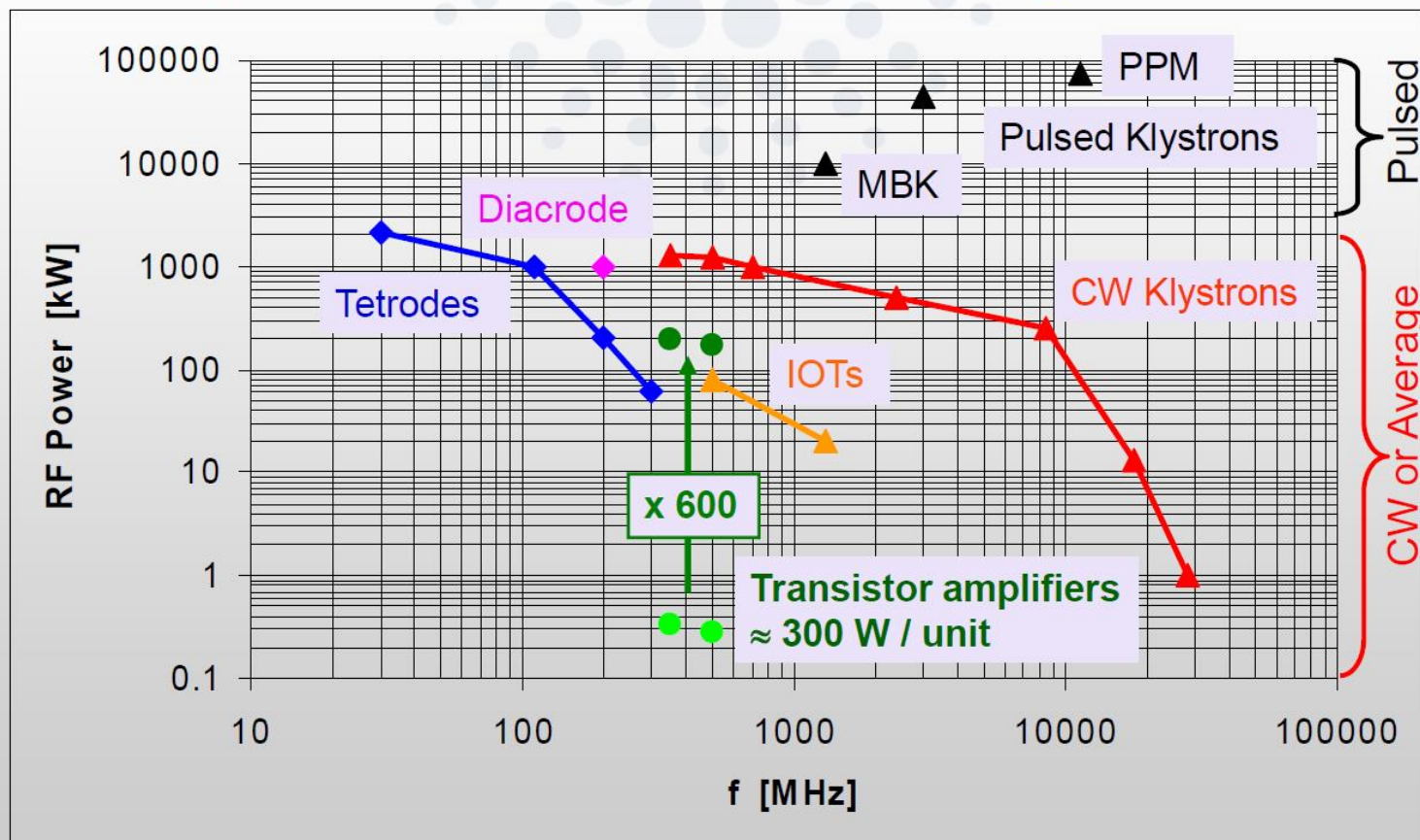


Ref.: Gilmour, A S, *Microwave Tubes*, Artech House, 1986

Comparison of solid state and vacuum technology for RF power generation (2009)



RF power sources for accelerating cavities



Some comments on solid state power amplifiers

Since solid state power amplifiers are getting more and more important since about 40 years

Here some general comments on technological issues:

Wideband (one octave) “High Fidelity” amplifiers (e.g. as used for stochastic beam cooling:

They are typically “Class A or AB”, often water cooled and use a signal combiner technology “tree” via 90 deg Hybrids and internal dummy loads in order to be insensitive to mismatch.

As an example one can mention the power amplifiers (octave bandwidth 100 Watt CW) developed at CERN around 1985 for the AAC stochastic cooling systems

Regarding narrowband systems, “radial” or cavity type power combiners are often applied and Class C amplifier concepts. This kind of amplifiers do produce harmonics which are however filtered out.

As for the (numerical) optimisation : Nonlinear techniques are required !

Measurement devices (1)

- ◆ There are many ways to observe RF signals. Here we give a brief overview of the four main tools we have at hand

- ◆ Oscilloscope: to observe signals in **time domain**
 - periodic signals
 - burst signal
 - application: direct observation of signal from a pick-up, shape of common 230 V mains supply voltage, etc.

- ◆ Spectrum analyzer: to observe signals in **frequency domain**
 - sweeps through a given frequency range point by point
 - application: observation of spectrum from the beam or of the spectrum emitted from an antenna, etc.

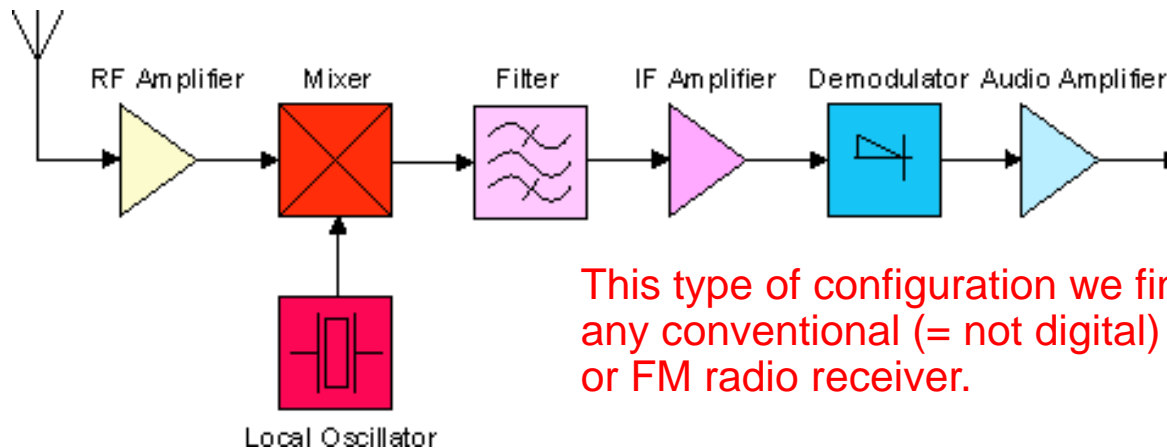
Measurement devices (2)

- ◆ **Dynamic signal analyzer (FFT analyzer)**
 - Acquires signal in time domain by fast sampling
 - Further numerical treatment in digital signal processors (DSPs)
 - Spectrum calculated using Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)
 - Combines **features of a scope and a spectrum analyzer**: signals can be looked at directly in time domain or in frequency domain
 - Contrary to the SPA, also the spectrum of non-repetitive signals and transients can be observed
 - Application: Observation of tune sidebands, transient behavior of a phase locked loop, etc.
- ◆ **Network analyzer**
 - Excites a network (circuit, antenna, amplifier or such) at a given CW frequency and measures response in magnitude and phase => **determines S-parameters**
 - Covers a frequency range by measuring step-by-step at subsequent frequency points
 - Application: characterization of passive and active components, time domain reflectometry by Fourier transforming reflection response, etc.

Superheterodyne Concept (1)

Design and its evolution

The diagram below shows the basic elements of a single conversion superhet receiver. The essential elements of a local oscillator and a mixer followed by a fixed-tuned filter and IF amplifier are common to all superhet circuits. [super ετερω δυναμις] a mixture of Latin and Greek ... it means: *another force becomes superimposed*.

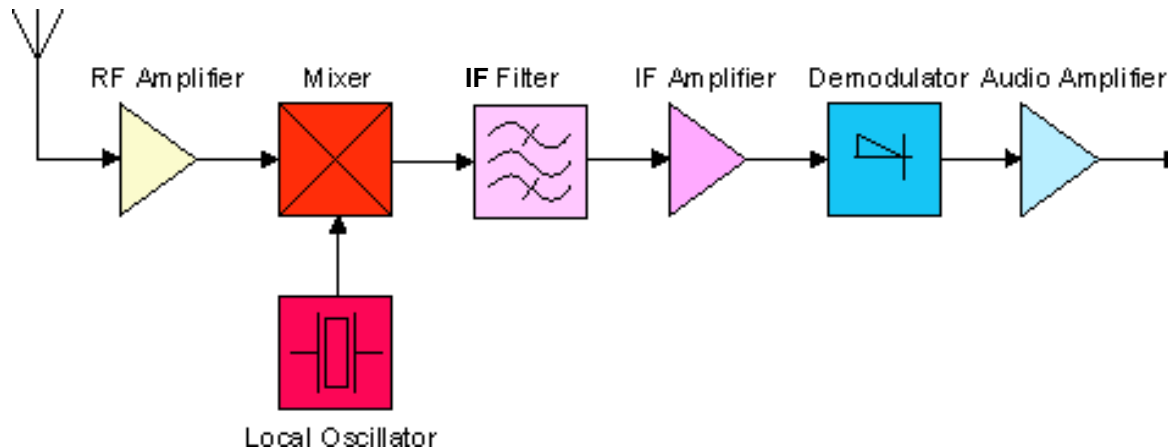


This type of configuration we find in any conventional (= not digital) AM or FM radio receiver.

The advantage to this method is that most of the radio's signal path has to be sensitive to only a narrow range of frequencies. Only the front end (the part before the frequency converter stage) needs to be sensitive to a wide frequency range. For example, the front end might need to be sensitive to 1–30 MHz, while the rest of the radio might need to be sensitive only to 455 kHz, a typical IF. Only one or two tuned stages need to be adjusted to track over the tuning range of the receiver; all the intermediate-frequency stages operate at a fixed frequency which need not be adjusted.

en.wikipedia.org

Superheterodyne Concept (2)



RF Amplifier = wideband frontend amplification (RF = radio frequency)

The Mixer can be seen as an analog multiplier which multiplies the RF signal with the LO (local oscillator) signal.

The local oscillator has its name because it's an oscillator situated in the receiver locally and not far away as the radio transmitter to be received.

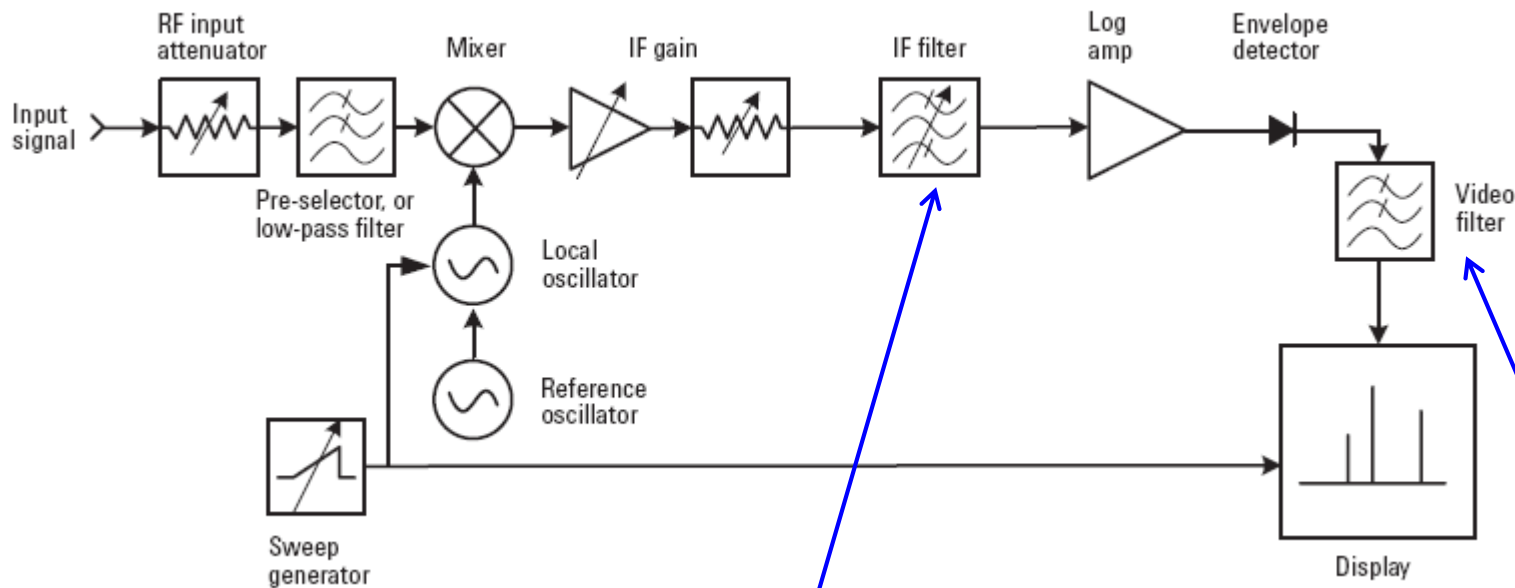
IF stands for intermediate frequency.

The demodulator can be an amplitude modulation (AM) demodulator (envelope detector) or a frequency modulation (FM) demodulator, implemented e.g. as a PLL (phase locked loop).

The tuning of a normal radio receiver is done by changing the frequency of the LO, not of the IF filter.

en.wikipedia.org

Example for Application of the Superheterodyne Concept in a Spectrum Analyzer



The center frequency is fixed, but the bandwidth of the IF filter can be modified.

The video filter is a simple low-pass with variable bandwidth before the signal arrives to the vertical deflection plates of the cathode ray tube.

Agilent, 'Spectrum Analyzer Basics,'
Application Note 150, page 10 f.

Further reading

Introductory literature

- ◆ A very good general introduction in the context of accelerator physics: CERN Accelerator School: RF Engineering for Particle Accelerators, Geneva
- ◆ The basics of the two most important RF measurement devices: Byrd, J M, Caspers, F, Spectrum and Network Analyzers, CERN-PS-99-003-RF; Geneva

General RF Theory

- ◆ RF theory in a very reliable compilation: Zinke, O. and Brunswig H., Lehrbuch der Hochfrequenztechnik, Springer
- ◆ Rather theoretical approach to guided waves: Collin, R E, Field Theory of Guided Waves, IEEE Press
- ◆ Another very good one, more oriented towards application in telecommunications: Fontolliet, P.-G.. Systemes de Telecommunications, Traite d'Electricite, Vol. 17, Lausanne
- ◆ And of course the classic theoretical treatise: Jackson, J D, Classical Electrodynamics, Wiley

For the RF Engineer

- ◆ All you need to know in practice: Meinke, Gundlach, Taschenbuch der Hochfrequenztechnik, Springer
- ◆ Very useful as well: Matthaei, G, Young, L and Jones, E M T, Microwave Filters, Impedance-Matching Networks, and Coupling Structures, Artech House
- ◆ D. Pozar, Microwave engineering, Wiley

Learning targets for Section E

At the end of this chapter you should

- Be able to handle and understand datasheets of active elements written in terms of Smith Chart plots or complex S-parameter tables
- Have some ideas on solid state elements used in RF engineering
- Know a little bit about the history evolution of Rf power sources (transition from vacuum tubes to solid state)
- Have understood the working principle of a klystron
- Have understood the concept of an IOT
- Be able to discuss the main differences between IOT and klystron
- Have an idea about a 2 beam accelerator and its motivation
- Have understood the motivation and power of the superheterodyne concept both in terms of classical mixers and also via digital down conversion
- Know the basic difference between a network and a spectrum analyzer
- Know about the limitations but also range, bandwidth and sensitivity of modern oscilloscopes
- Have understood that a “signal analyzer” takes (bandlimited) data in the time domain and displays them in the frequency domain often as “spectrogram”
- Keep in mind that the good old transistor radio FM receiver for 20 Euro used the superheterodyne concept.
- Remember that the superheterodyne is often nick-named “heterodyne “in the US and “super“ in Germany.

Appendix

- ◆ **The RF diode**
- ◆ **The RF mixer**
- ◆ **Backup slides**

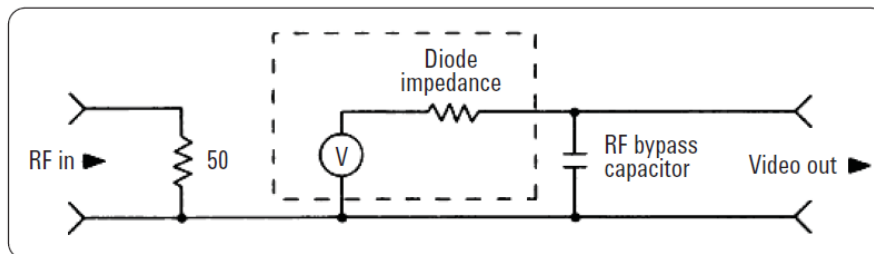
The RF diode (1)

- ◆ We are not discussing the generation of RF signals here, just the detection
- ◆ Basic tool: fast RF* diode (= Schottky diode)
- ◆ In general, Schottky diodes are fast but still have a voltage dependent junction capacity (metal – semiconductor junction)



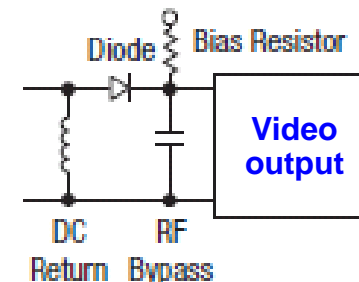
Agilent 423B

- ◆ Equivalent circuit:



- ◆ A typical RF detector diode

- ◆ Try to guess from the type of the connector which side is the RF input and which is the output



- ◆ *Please note, that in this lecture we will use RF for both the RF and micro wave (MW) range, since the borderline between RF and MW is not defined unambiguously

The RF diode (2)

- ◆ Characteristics of a diode:
- ◆ The current as a function of the voltage for a barrier diode can be described by the Richardson equation:

$$I = AA^{**} \exp\left(-\frac{q\phi_B}{kT}\right) \left[\exp\left(\frac{qV}{nKT}\right) - 1\right]$$

where

A = area (cm²)

A^{**} = modified Richardson constant (amp/oK)²/cm²)

k = Boltzman's Constant

T = absolute temperature (°K)

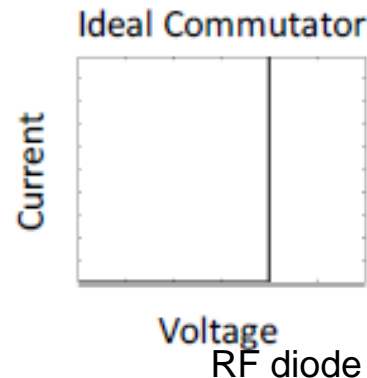
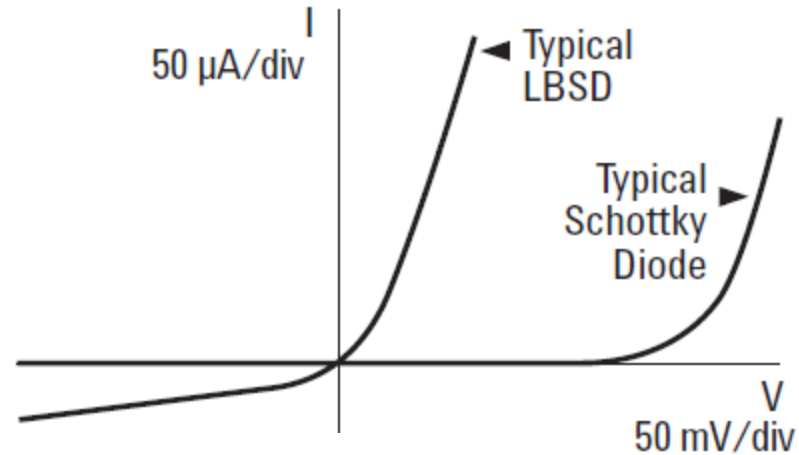
ϕ_B = barrier heights in volts

V = external voltage across the depletion layer
(positive for forward voltage) - V - IR_S

R_S = series resistance

I = diode current in amps (positive forward current)

n = ideality factor



- ◆ The RF diode is NOT an ideal commutator for small signals! We cannot apply big signals otherwise burnout

The RF diode (3)

- ◆ In a highly simplified manner, one can approximate this expression as:

$$I = I_S \left[\exp \left(\frac{V_J}{0.028} \right) - 1 \right] \quad \text{◆ } V_J \dots \text{ junction voltage}$$

- ◆ and show as sketched in the following, that the RF rectification is linked to the second derivation (curvature) of the diode characteristics:

If the DC current is held constant by a current regulator or a large resistor, then the total junction current, including RF, is

$$I = I_0 = i \cos \omega t$$

and the I-V relationship can be written

$$\begin{aligned} V_J &= 0.028 \ln \left(\frac{I_S + I_0 + i \cos \omega t}{I_S} \right) \\ &= 0.028 \ln \left(\frac{I_0 + I_S}{I_S} \right) + 0.028 \ln \left(\frac{i \cos \omega t}{I_0 + I_S} \right) \end{aligned}$$

If the RF current, i , is small enough, the LN-term can be approximated in a Taylor series:

$$\begin{aligned} V_J &\approx 0.028 \ln \left(\frac{I_0 + I_S}{I_S} \right) + 0.028 \left[\frac{i \cos \omega t}{I_0 + I_S} - \frac{i^2 \cos^2 \omega t}{2(I_0 + I_S)^2} + \dots \right] \\ &= V_{DC} + V_J \cos \omega t + \text{higher frequency terms} \end{aligned}$$

If you use the fact that the average value of \cos^2 is 0.50, then the RF and DC voltages are given by the following equations:

$$\begin{aligned} V_J &= \frac{0.028}{I_0 + I_S} \quad i = R_S i \\ V_{DC} &= 0.028/n \left(1 + \frac{I_0}{I_S} \right) - \frac{0.028^2}{4(I_0 + I_S)^2} = V_0 - \frac{V_J^2}{0.112} \end{aligned}$$

RF diode

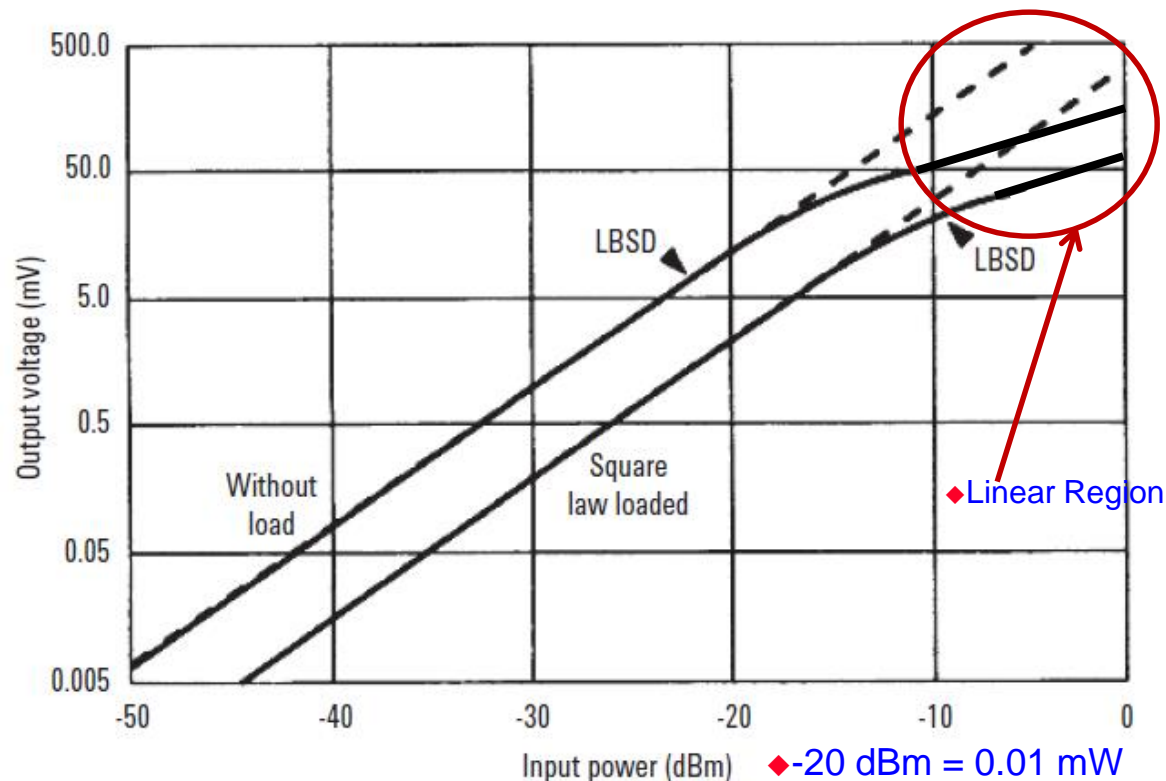
The RF diode (4)

- ◆ This diagram depicts the so called square-law region where the output voltage (V_{Video}) is proportional to the input power

Since the input power is proportional to the square of the input voltage (V_{RF}^2) and the output signal is proportional to the input power, this region is called square-law region.

In other words:

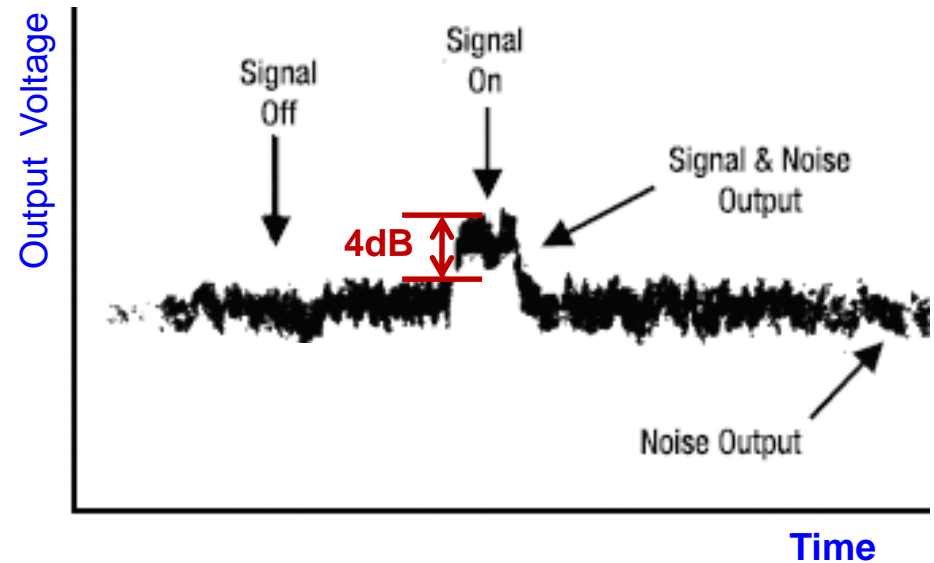
$$V_{\text{Video}} \sim V_{\text{RF}}^2$$



- ◆ The transition between the linear region and the square-law region is typically between -10 and -20 dBm RF power (see diagram)

The RF diode (5)

- ◆ Due to the square-law characteristic we arrive at the thermal noise region already for moderate power levels (-50 to -60 dBm) and hence the V_{Video} disappears in the thermal noise
- ◆ This is described by the term *tangential signal sensitivity* (TSS) where the detected signal (Observation BW, usually 10 MHz) is 4 dB over the thermal noise floor



If we apply an RF-signal to the detector diode with the same power as its TSS, its output voltage will be 4 dB over the thermal noise floor.

The RF mixer (1)

- ◆ For the detection of very small RF signals we prefer a device that has a linear response over the full range (from 0 dBm (= 1mW) down to thermal noise (= -174 dBm/Hz = $4 \cdot 10^{-21}$ W/Hz))
- ◆ This is the RF mixer which is using 1, 2 or 4 diodes in different configurations (see next slide)
- ◆ Together with a so called LO (local oscillator) signal, the mixer works as a signal multiplier with a very high dynamic range since the output signal is always in the “linear range” provided, that the mixer is not in saturation with respect to the RF input signal (For the LO signal the mixer should always be in saturation!)
- ◆ The RF mixer is essentially a multiplier implementing the function

$f_1(t) \cdot f_2(t)$ with $f_1(t)$ = RF signal and $f_2(t)$ = LO signal

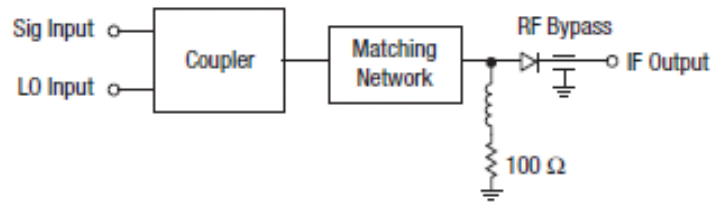
$$a_1 \cos(2\pi f_1 t + \varphi) \cdot a_2 \cos(2\pi f_2 t) = \frac{1}{2} a_1 a_2 [\cos((f_1 + f_2)t + \varphi) + \cos((f_1 - f_2)t + \varphi)]$$

- ◆ Thus we obtain a response at the IF (intermediate frequency) port that is at the sum and difference frequency of the LO and RF signals

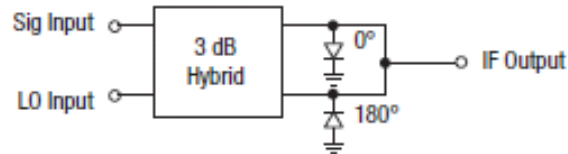
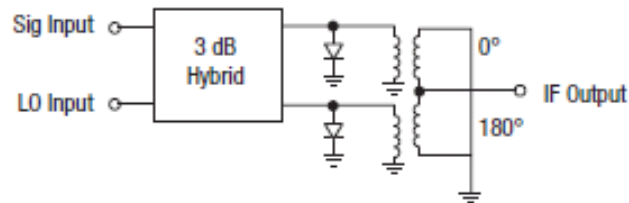
The RF mixer (2)

◆ Examples of different mixer configurations

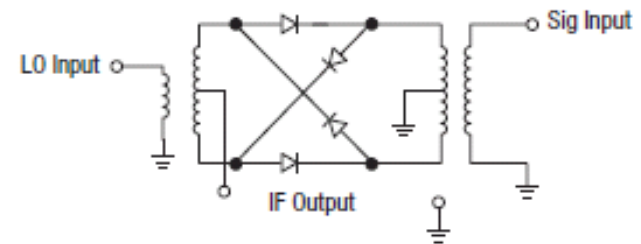
A. Single-Ended Mixer



B. Balanced Mixers



C. Double-Balanced Mixer



A typical coaxial mixer (SMA connector)

The RF mixer (3)

- ◆ Response of a mixer in time and frequency domain:

Input signals here:

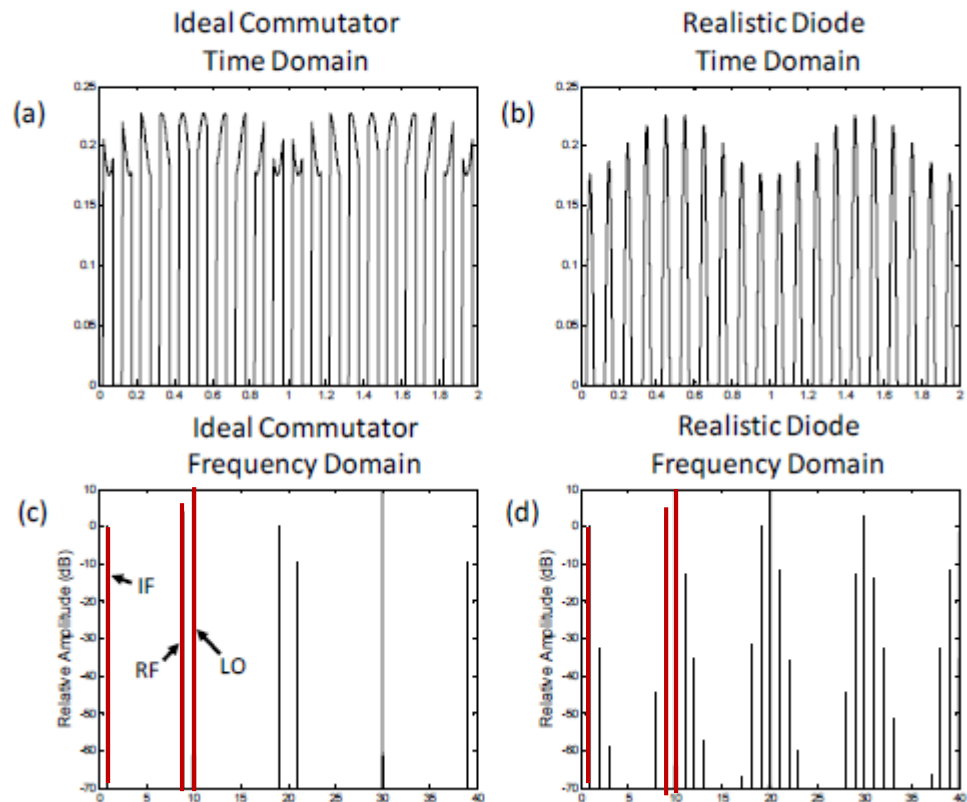
LO = 10 MHz

RF = 8 MHz

Mixing products at

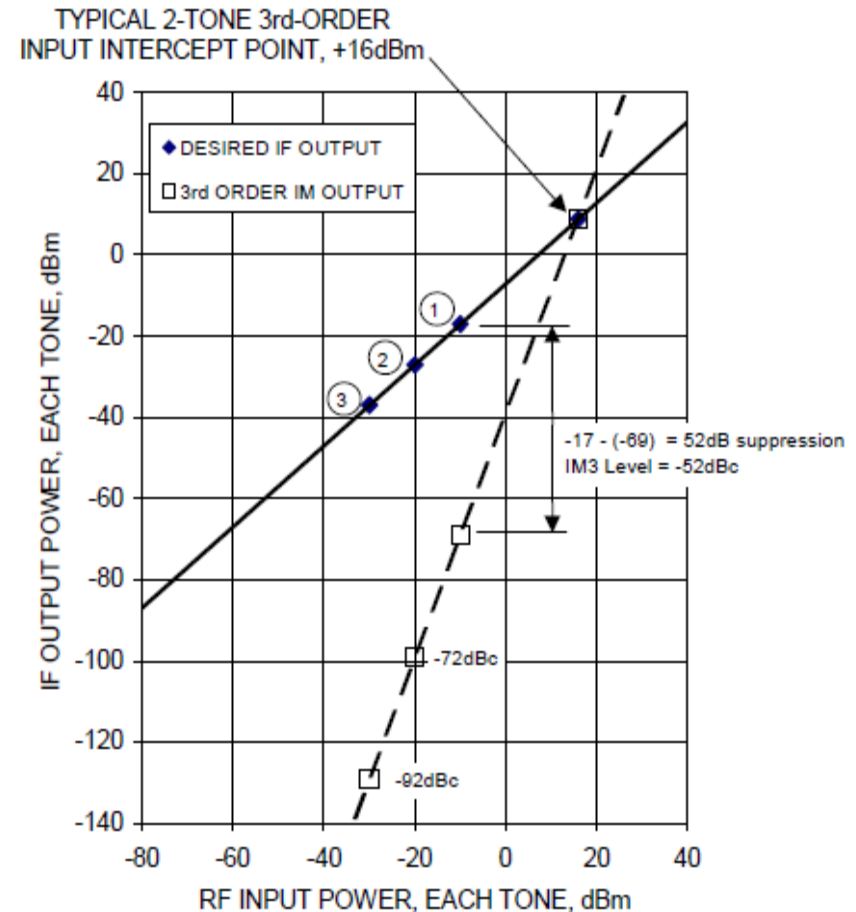
2 and 18 MHz

plus higher order terms
at higher frequencies



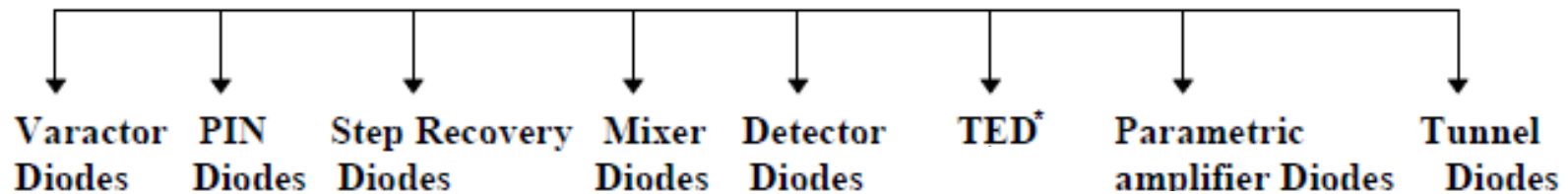
Dynamic range and IP3 of an RF mixer

- ◆ The abbreviation IP3 stands for the third order intermodulation point where the two lines shown in the right diagram intersect.
- ◆ Two signals ($f_1, f_2 > f_1$) which are closely spaced by Δf in frequency are simultaneously applied to the DUT.
- ◆ The intermodulation products appear at $+\Delta f$ above f_2 and at $-\Delta f$ below f_1
- ◆ This intersection point is usually not measured directly, but extrapolated from measurement data at much smaller power levels in order to avoid overload and damage of the DUT



Solid state diodes used for RF applications

- ◆ There are many other diodes which are used for different applications in the RF domain



* Transferred Electron Devices

- ◆ Varactor diodes: for tuning applications
- ◆ PIN diodes: for electronically variable RF attenuators
- ◆ Step Recovery diodes: for frequency multiplication and pulse sharpening
- ◆ Mixer diodes, detector diodes: usually Schottky diodes
- ◆ TED (GUNN, IMPATT, TRAPATT etc.): for oscillator
- ◆ Parametric amplifier Diodes: usually variable capacitors (vari caps)
- ◆ Tunnel diodes: rarely used these days, they have negative impedance and are usually used for very fast switching and certain low noise amplifiers

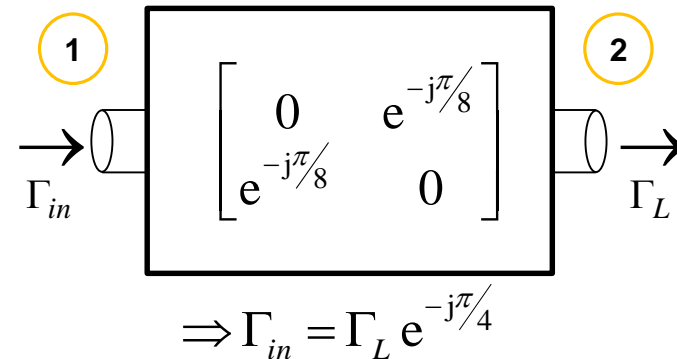
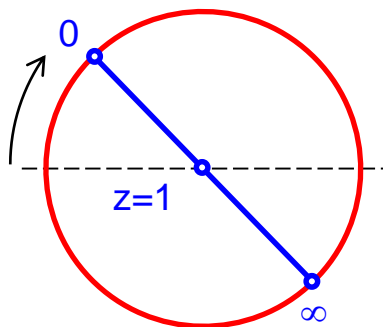
Looking through a 2-port (1)

In general:

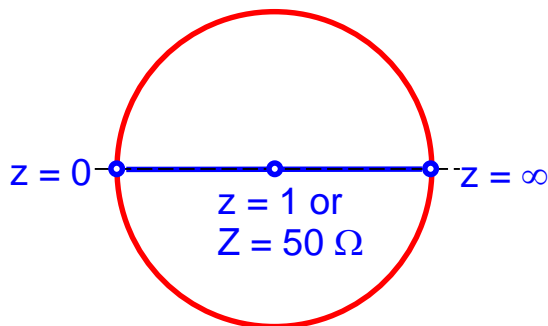
$$\Gamma_{in} = S_{11} + \frac{S_{12}S_{21}\Gamma_L}{1 - S_{22}\Gamma_L}$$

where Γ_{in} is the reflection coefficient when looking through the 2-port and Γ_{load} is the load reflection coefficient.

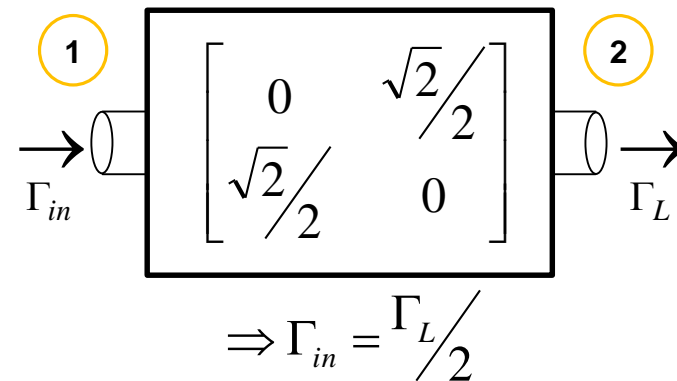
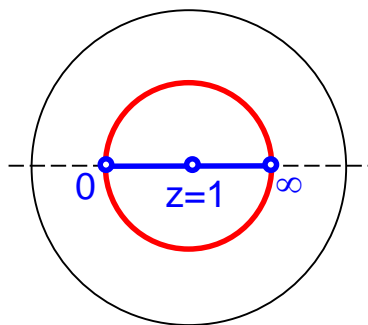
Line $\lambda/16$:



The outer circle and the real axis in the simplified Smith diagram below are mapped to other circles and lines, as can be seen on the right.

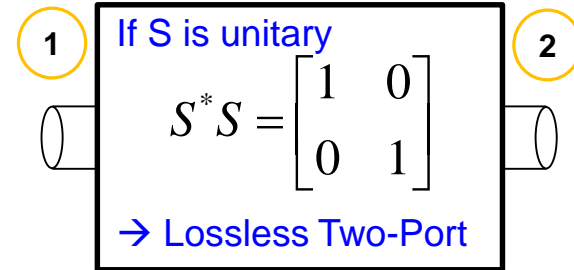
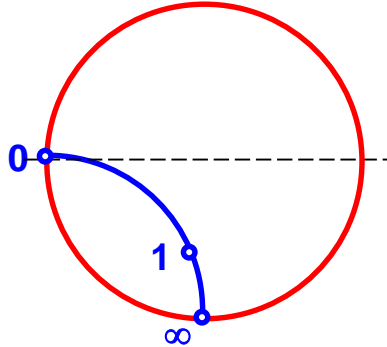


Attenuator 3dB:

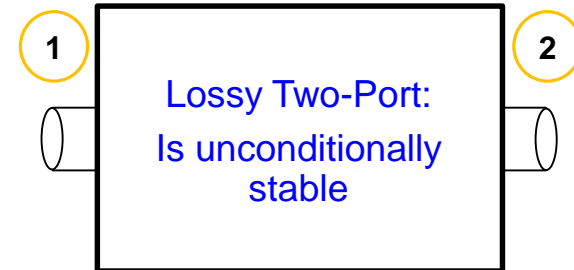
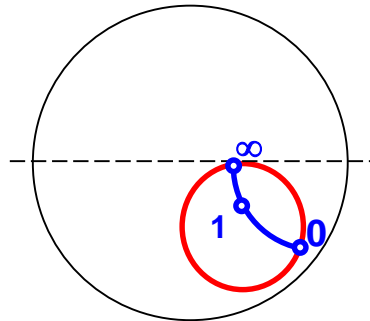


Looking through a 2-port (2)

Lossless
Passive
Circuit



Lossy
Passive
Circuit



Active
Circuit

