



Introduction to RF for Particle Accelerators Part 2: RF Cavities

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RF Cavity Topics

- Modes
 - Symmetry
 - Boundaries
 - Degeneracy
- RLC model
- Coupling
 - Inductive
 - Capacitive
 - Measuring
- Q
 - Unloaded Q
 - Loaded Q
 - Q Measurements
- Impedance Measurements
- Power Amplifiers
 - Class of operation
 - Tetrodes
 - Klystrons
- Beam Loading
 - De-tuning
 - Fundamental
 - Transient

RF and Circular Accelerators

For circular accelerators, the beam can only be accelerated by a time-varying (RF) electromagnetic field.

Faraday's Law

$$\oint_C \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \iint_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{S}$$

The integral

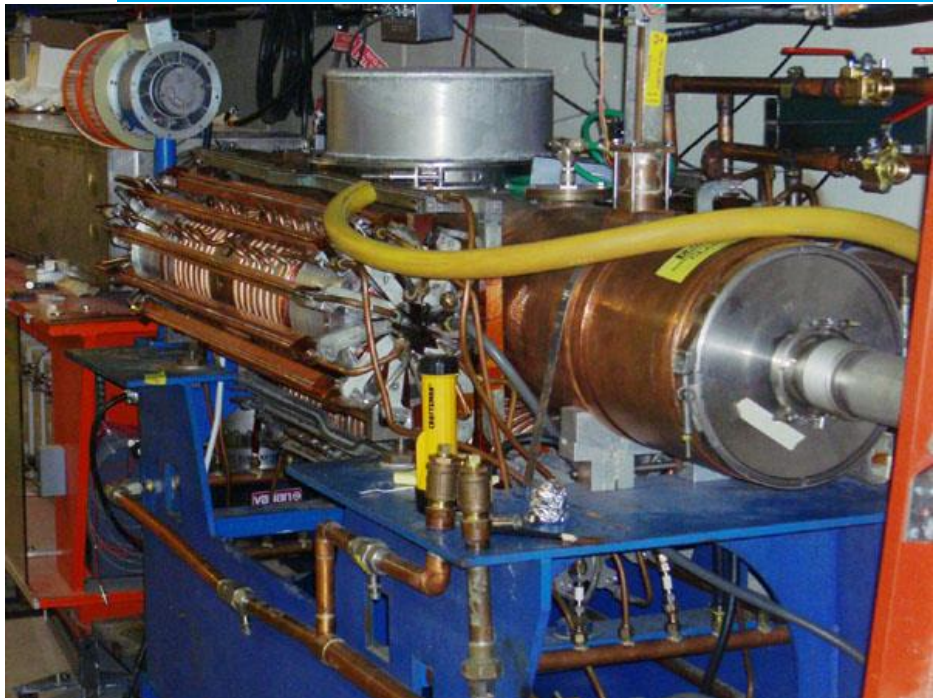
$$q \oint_C \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

is the energy gained by a particle with charge q during one trip around the accelerator.

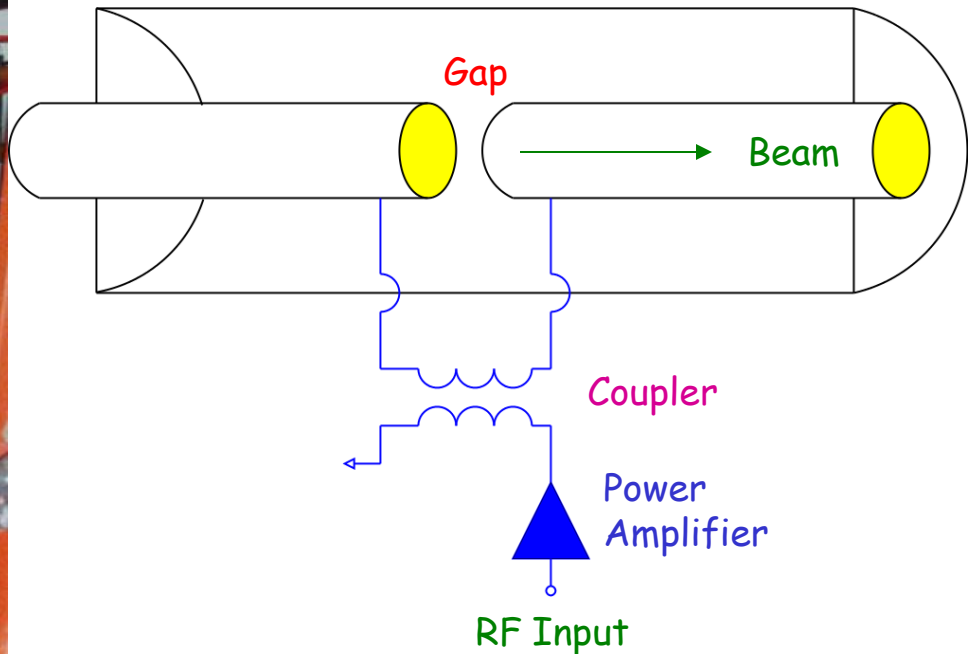
For a machine with a fixed closed path such as a synchrotron, if

$$\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = 0 \quad \text{then} \quad q \oint_C \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = 0$$

RF Cavities



New FNAL Booster Cavity



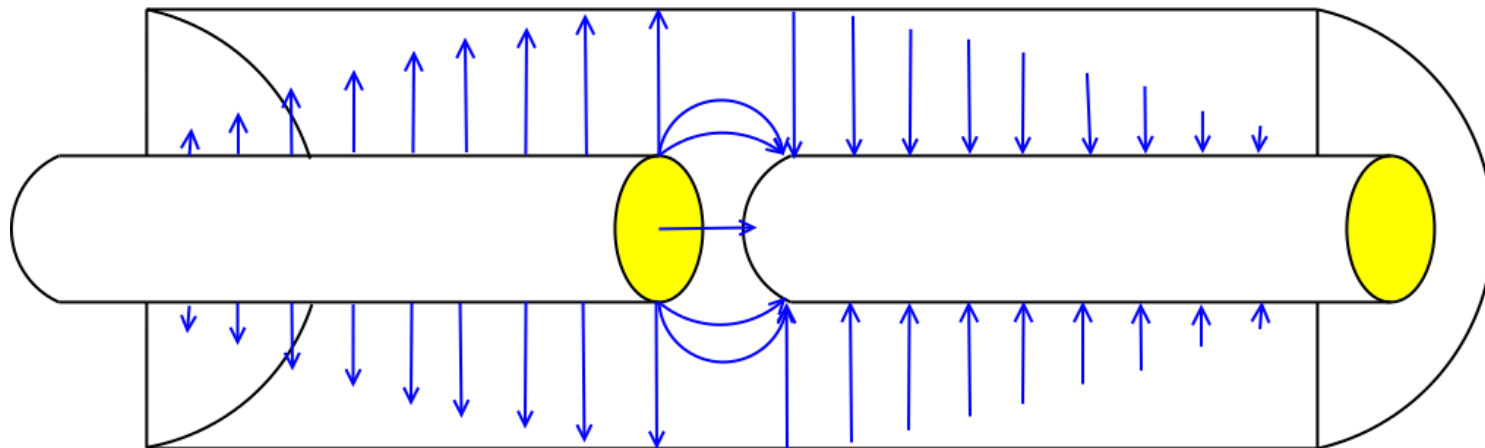
Transmission Line Cavity

Multi-cell
superconducting
RF cavity

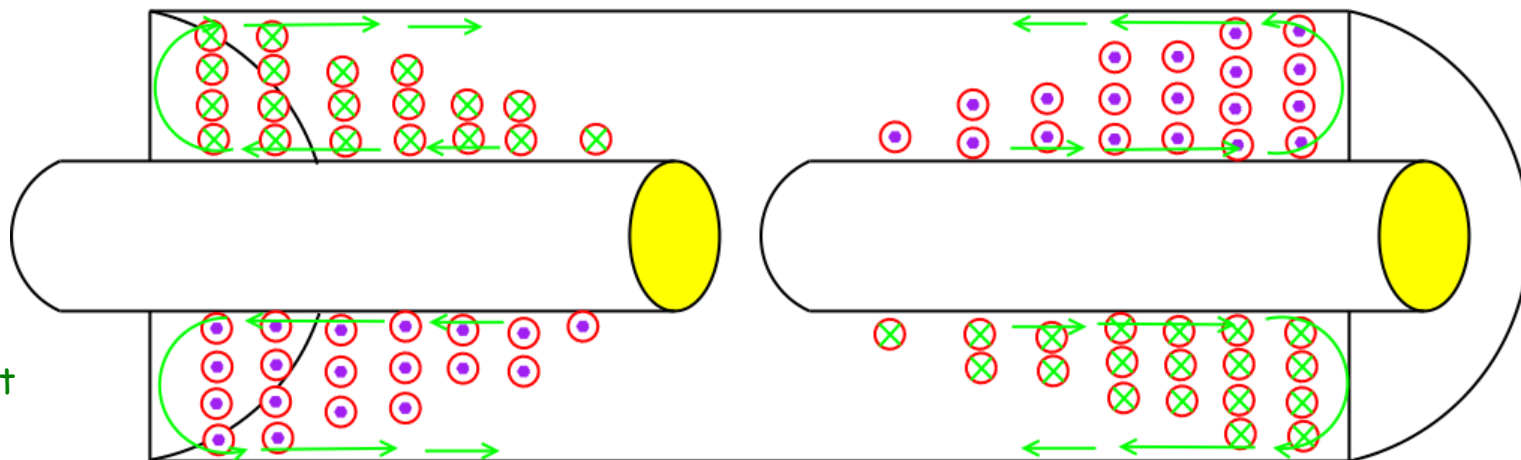


Cavity Field Pattern

For the fundamental mode at one instant in time:



Electric Field



⊗ Out

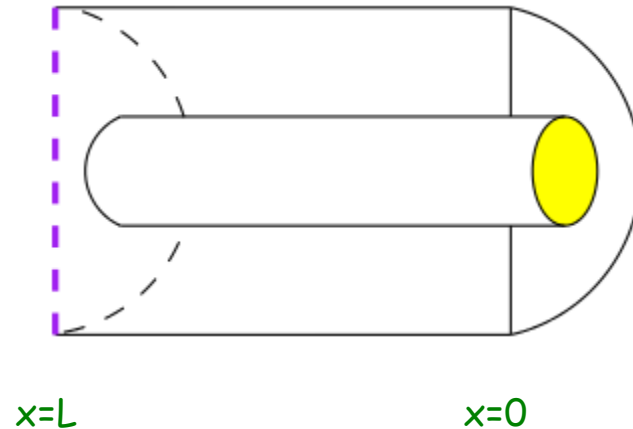
⊙ In

→ Wall Current

Magnetic Field

Cavity Modes

We need to solve only $\frac{1}{2}$ of the problem



For starters, ignore the gap capacitance.

The cavity looks like a shorted section of transmission line

$$V = V^+ e^{-j\beta x} + V^- e^{+j\beta x}$$

$$Z_0 I = V^+ e^{-j\beta x} - V^- e^{+j\beta x}$$

where Z_0 is the characteristic impedance of the transmission line structure of the cavity



Cavity Boundary Conditions

Boundary Condition 1:

$$\text{At } x=0: \quad V=0$$

$$V = V_0 \sin(\beta x)$$

$$Z_0 I = -jV_0 \cos(\beta x)$$

Boundary Condition 2:

$$\text{At } x=L: \quad I=0$$

$$\cos(\beta L) = 0$$

$$\beta_n L = (2n + 1) \frac{\pi}{2}$$

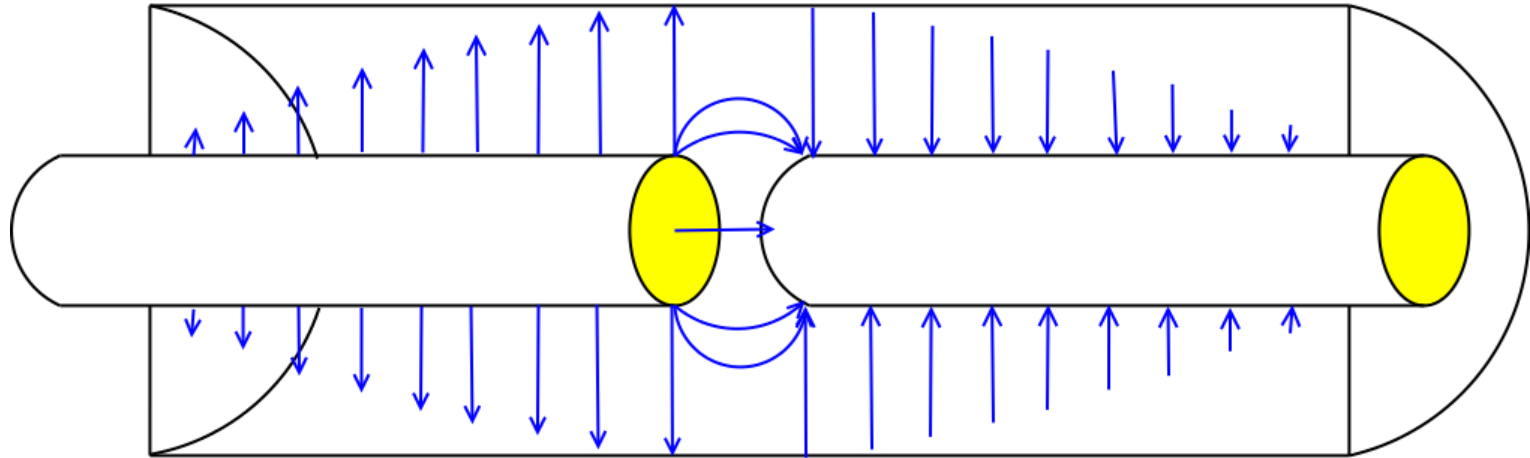
$$f_n = (2n + 1) \frac{c}{4L}$$

$$L = (2n + 1) \frac{\lambda_n}{4}$$

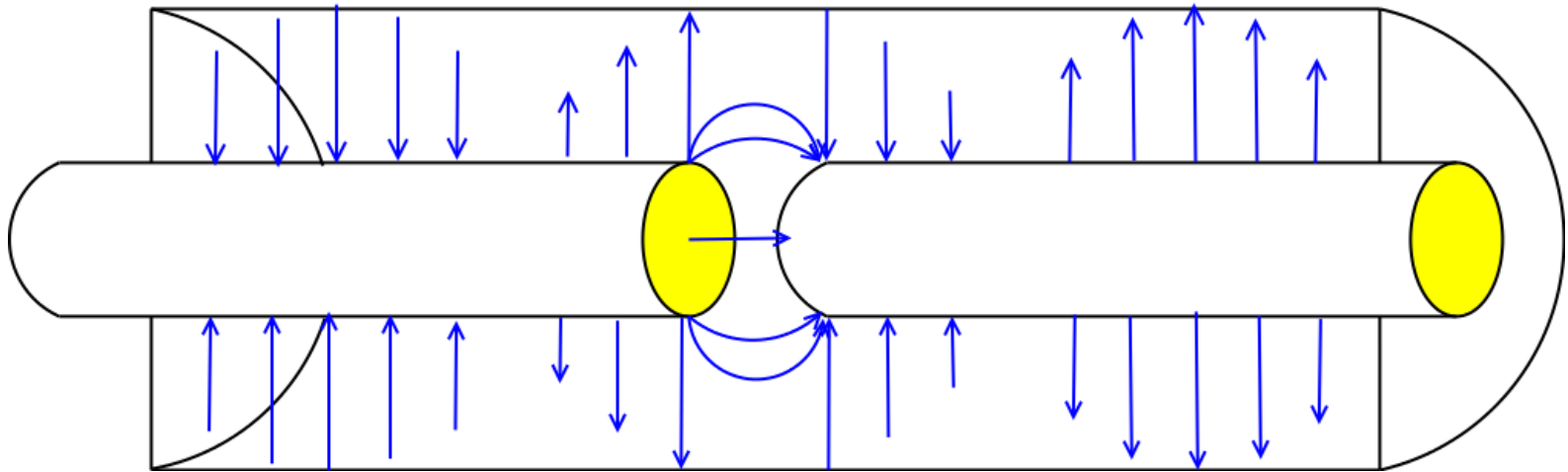
$$n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

Different values of n are called modes. The lowest value of n is usually called the fundamental mode

Cavity Modes

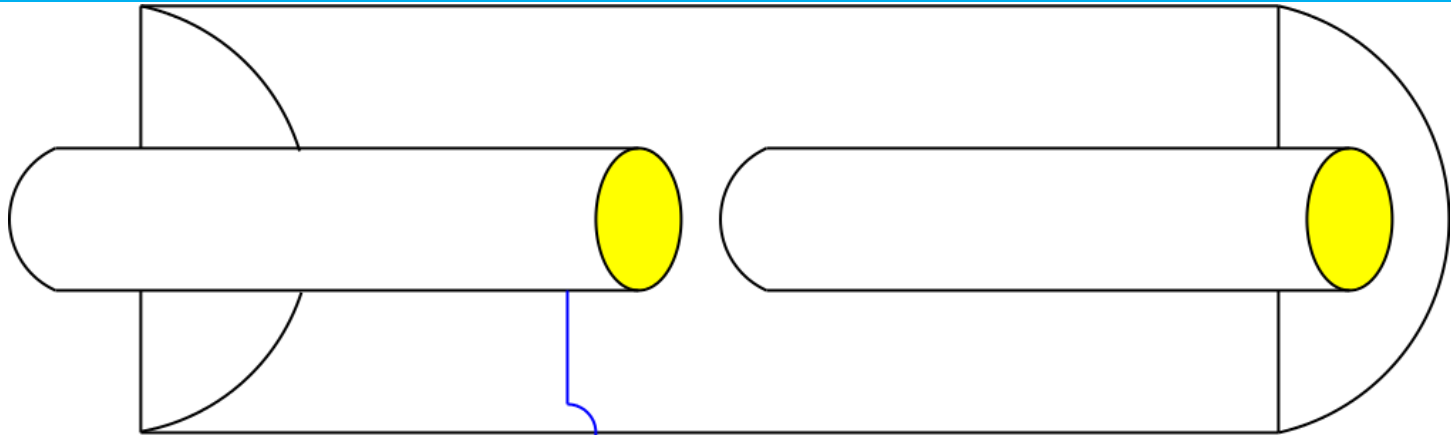


$n=0$

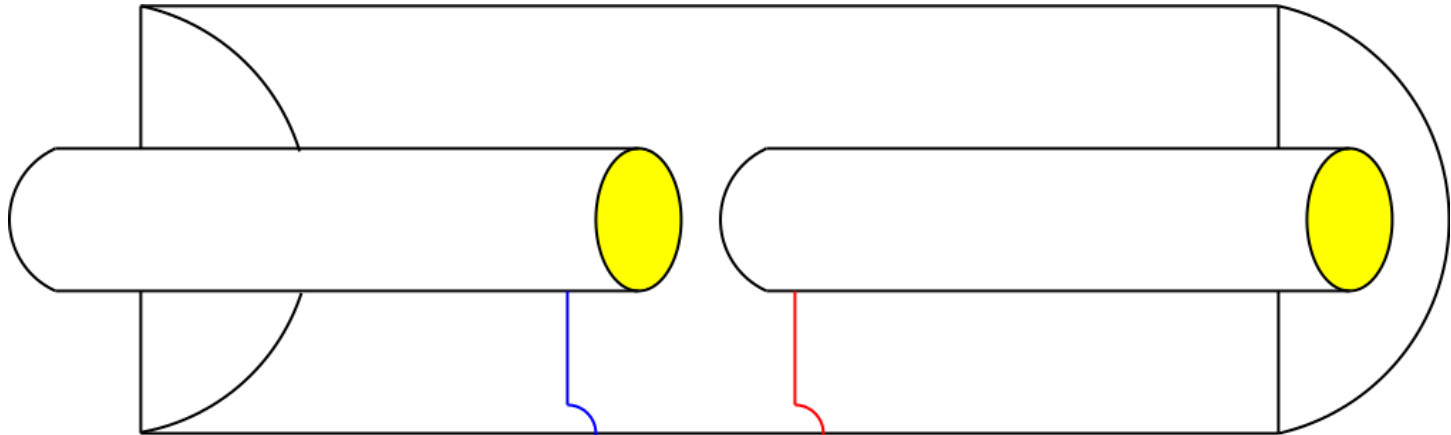


$n=1$

Even and Odd Mode De-Composition



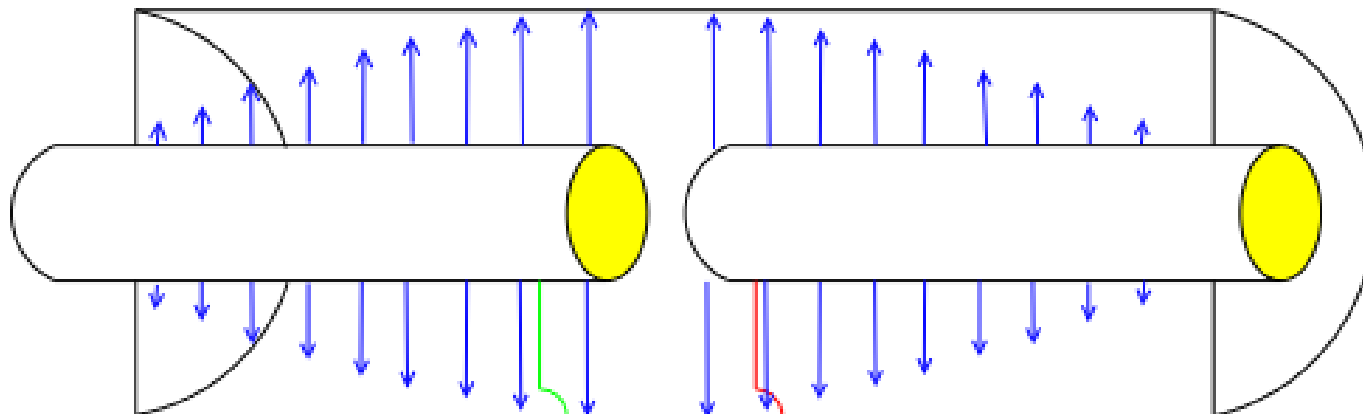
V_{in}



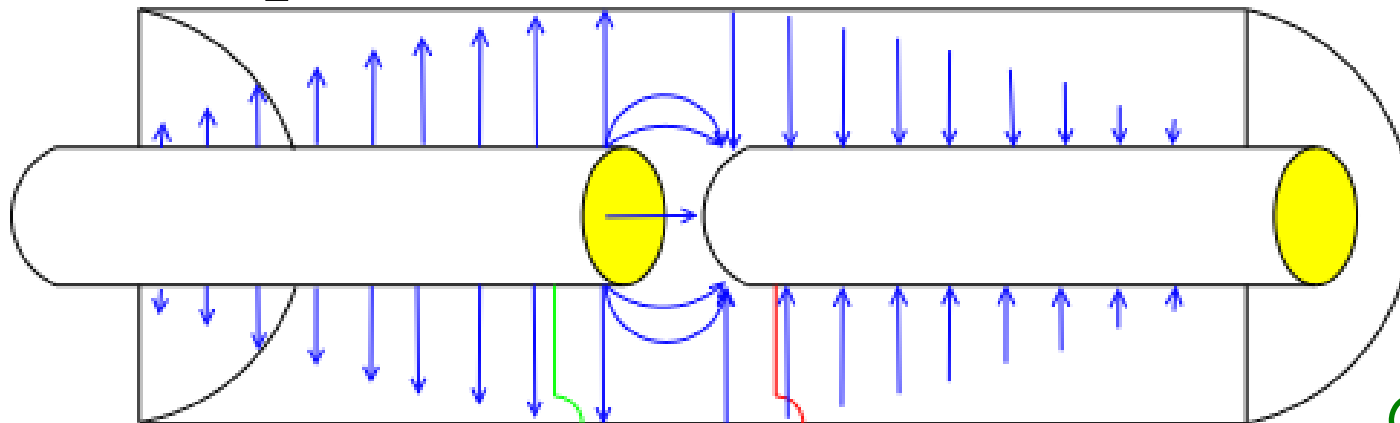
$\frac{1}{2}V_{in} + \frac{1}{2}V_{in}$

$\frac{1}{2}V_{in} - \frac{1}{2}V_{in}$

Even and Odd Mode De-Composition



Even Mode
No Gap Field

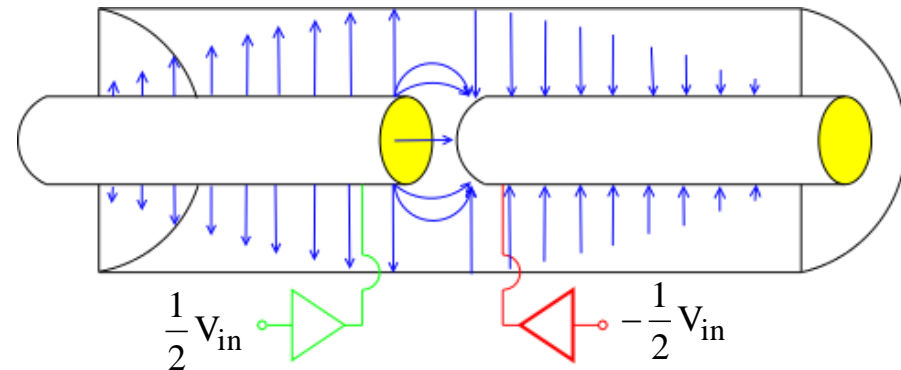
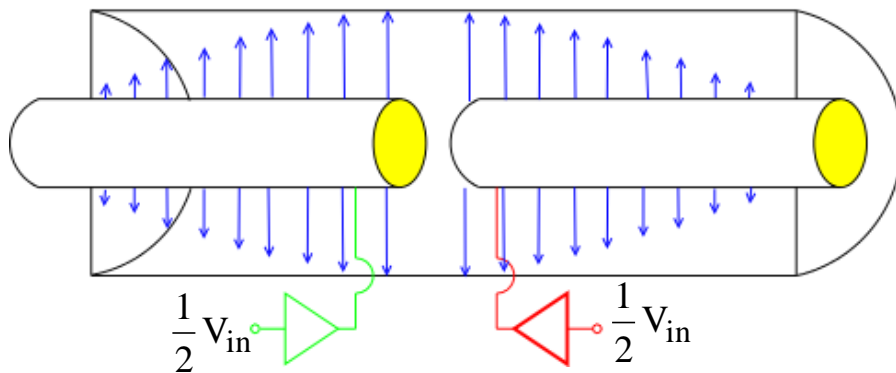


Odd Mode
Gap Field!



Degenerate Modes

- The even and odd decompositions have the same mode frequencies.
- Modes that occur at the same frequency are called degenerate.
- The even and odd modes can be split if we include the gap capacitance.
- In the even mode, since the voltage is the same on both sides of the gap, no capacitive current can flow across the gap.
- In the odd mode, there is a voltage difference across the gap, so capacitive current will flow across the gap.



Gap Capacitance

Boundary Condition 1:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{At } x=0: \quad V=0 \quad V &= V_o \sin(\beta x) \\ Z_o I &= -jV_o \cos(\beta x) \end{aligned}$$

Boundary Condition 2:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{At } x=L: \quad I &= j\omega C_g V \quad \text{where } C_g \text{ is the gap capacitance} \\ \omega C_g Z_o &= \frac{\cos(\beta L)}{\sin(\beta L)} \end{aligned}$$

RF Cavity Modes

Consider the first mode only ($n=0$) and a very small gap capacitance.

$$\beta L = \frac{\pi}{2} + \delta$$

$$\frac{\cos(\beta L)}{\sin(\beta L)} \approx -\delta$$

$$\delta = -\omega_0 C_g Z_0$$

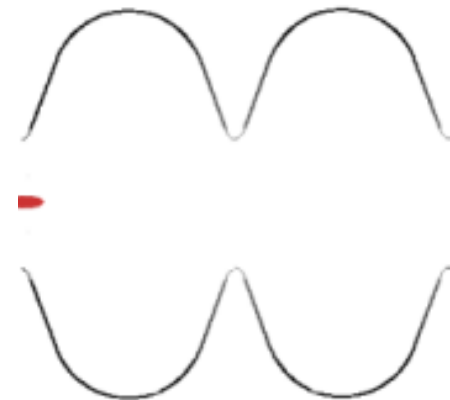
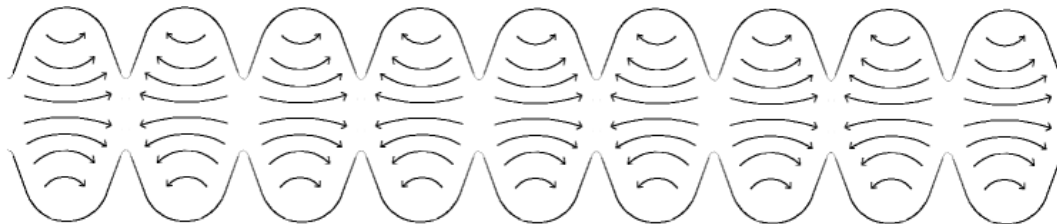
$$\frac{\Delta\omega_0}{\omega_0} = \frac{2}{\pi} \delta$$

The gap capacitance shifts the odd mode down in frequency and leaves the even mode frequency unchanged

Multi-Celled Cavities



- Each cell has its own resonant frequency
- For n cells there will be n degenerate modes
- The cavity to cavity coupling splits these n degenerate modes.
- The correct accelerating mode must be picked



Cavity Q

- If the cavity walls are lossless, then the boundary conditions for a given mode can only be satisfied at a single frequency.
- If the cavity walls have some loss, then the boundary conditions can be satisfied over a range of frequencies.
- The cavity Q factor is a convenient way the power lost in a cavity.
- The Q factor is defined as:

$$Q = \frac{W_{\text{stored}}}{W_{\text{lost/cycle}}}$$


$$= \omega_0 \frac{W_E + W_H}{P_L}$$

Transmission Line Cavity Q

We will use the fundamental mode of the transmission line cavity as an example of how to calculate the cavity Q.

Electric Energy:

$$\begin{aligned}
 W_E &= \frac{1}{4} \iiint_{\text{vol}} \epsilon |\vec{E}|^2 \, d\text{vol} \\
 &= 2 \frac{1}{4} \int_0^L C_1 |V(x)|^2 \, dx \\
 &= \frac{\pi}{8\omega_0} \frac{V_0^2}{Z_0}
 \end{aligned}$$

Both Halves: 

Magnetic Energy:

$$\begin{aligned}
 W_H &= \frac{1}{4} \iiint_{\text{vol}} \mu |\vec{H}|^2 \, d\text{vol} \\
 &= 2 \frac{1}{4} \int_0^L L_1 |I(x)|^2 \, dx \\
 &= \frac{\pi}{8\omega_0} \frac{V_0^2}{Z_0}
 \end{aligned}$$

Transmission Line Cavity Q

Assume a small resistive loss per unit length $r_L \Omega/m$ along the walls of the cavity.

Also assume that this loss does not perturb the field distribution of the cavity mode.

$$P_{\text{loss}} = 2 \frac{1}{2} \int_0^L r_l |I(x)|^2 dx$$

Time average

$$= \frac{1}{2} r_l L \frac{V_o^2}{Z_o}$$

The cavity Q for the fundamental mode of the transmission line cavity is:

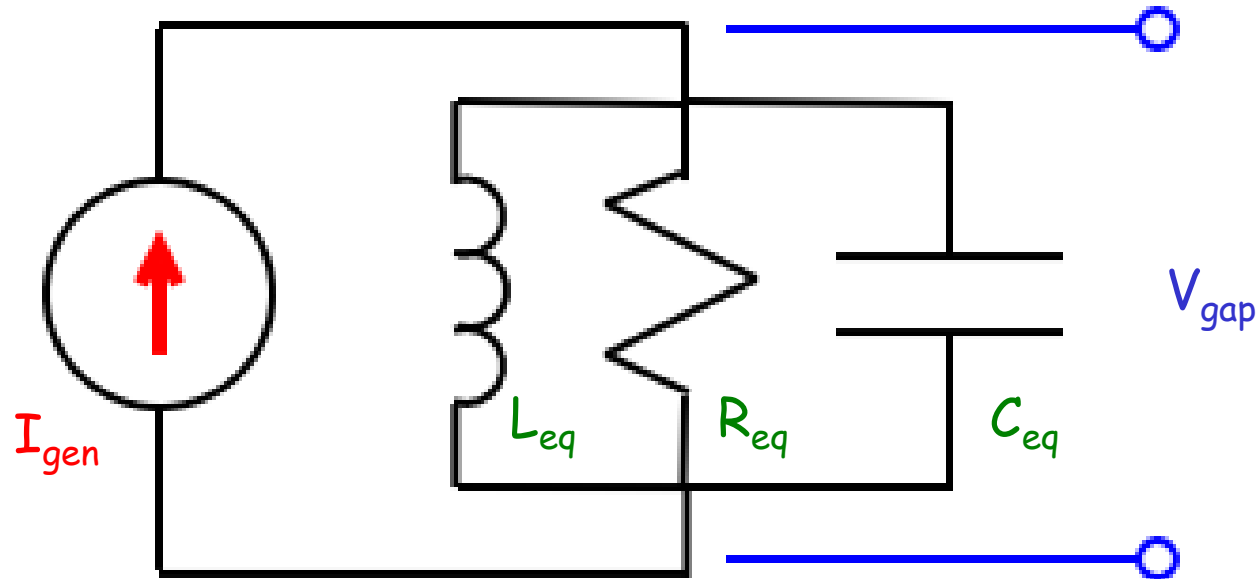
$$Q = \frac{\pi Z_o}{2 r_l L}$$

Less current flowing along walls

Less loss in walls

RLC Model for a Cavity Mode

Around each mode frequency, we can describe the cavity as a simple RLC circuit.



R_{eq} is inversely proportional to the energy lost

L_{eq} is proportional to the magnetic stored energy

C_{eq} is proportional to the electric stored energy

RLC Parameters for a Transmission Line Cavity

For the fundamental mode of the transmission line cavity:

$$P_{\text{loss}} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{V_{\text{gap}}^2}{R_{\text{eq}}}$$

$$R_{\text{eq}} = 4 \frac{Z_0^2}{r_l L}$$

$$W_E = \frac{1}{4} C_{\text{eq}} V_{\text{gap}}^2$$

$$C_{\text{eq}} = \frac{\pi}{8} \frac{1}{\omega_0 Z_0}$$

$$W_H = \frac{1}{4} \frac{V_{\text{gap}}^2}{\omega_0^2 L_{\text{eq}}}$$

$$L_{\text{eq}} = \frac{8 Z_0}{\pi \omega_0}$$

The transfer impedance of the cavity is:

$$Z_c = \frac{V_{\text{gap}}}{I_{\text{gen}}}$$

$$\frac{1}{Z_c} = \frac{1}{R_{\text{eq}}} + \frac{1}{j\omega L_{\text{eq}}} + j\omega C_{\text{eq}}$$

Cavity Transfer Impedance

Since:

$$\frac{1}{\omega_0} = \sqrt{L_{\text{eq}} C_{\text{eq}}}$$

Function of geometry only

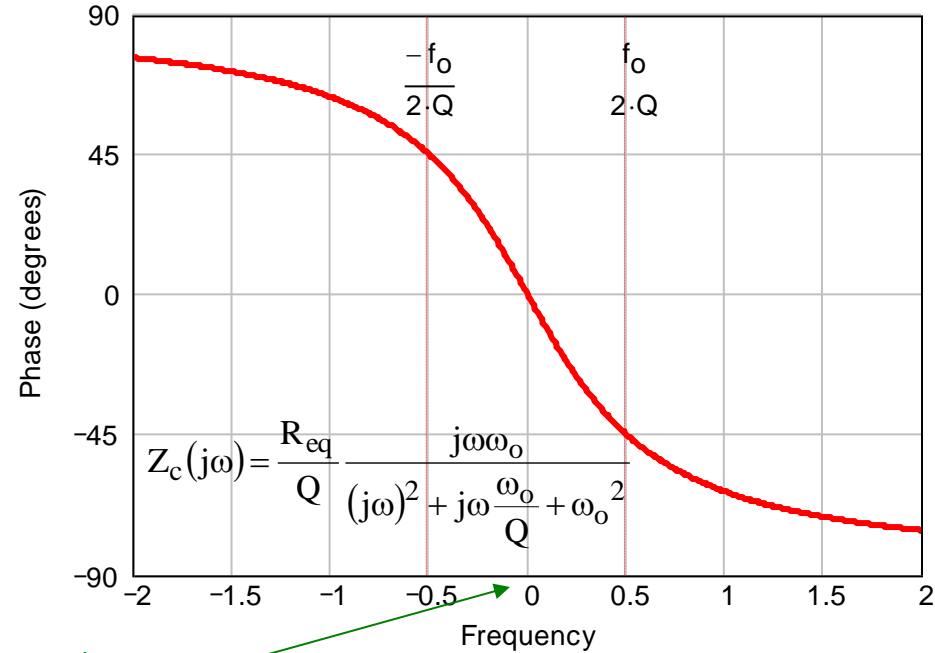
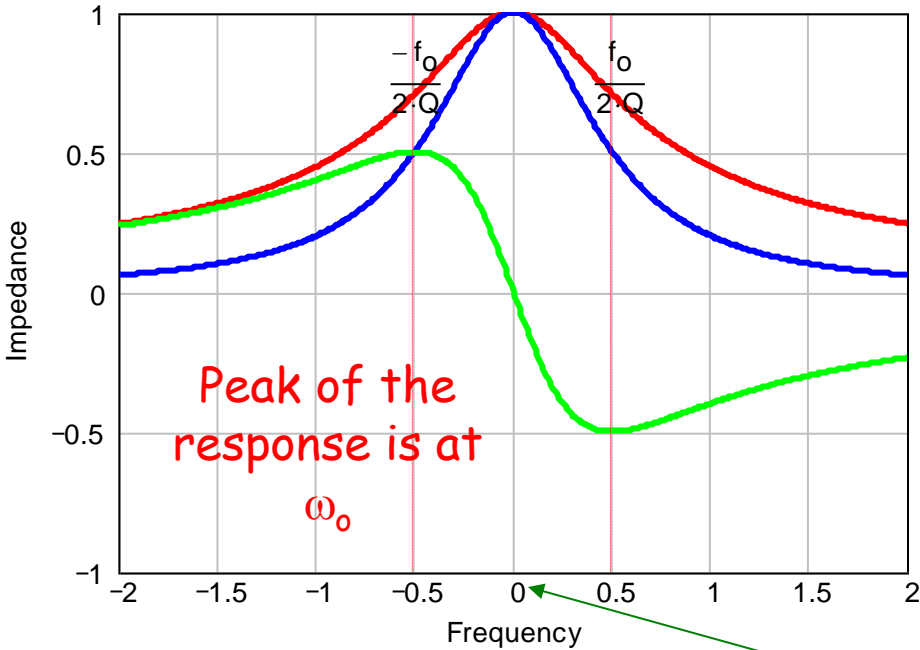
$$\frac{R_{\text{eq}}}{Q} = \sqrt{\frac{L_{\text{eq}}}{C_{\text{eq}}}}$$

Function of geometry and cavity material

$$Q = \omega_0 R_{\text{eq}} C_{\text{eq}}$$

$$Z_c(j\omega) = \frac{R_{\text{eq}}}{Q} \frac{j\omega\omega_0}{(j\omega)^2 + j\omega\frac{\omega_0}{Q} + \omega_0^2}$$

Cavity Frequency Response



- Magnitude
- Real
- Imaginary

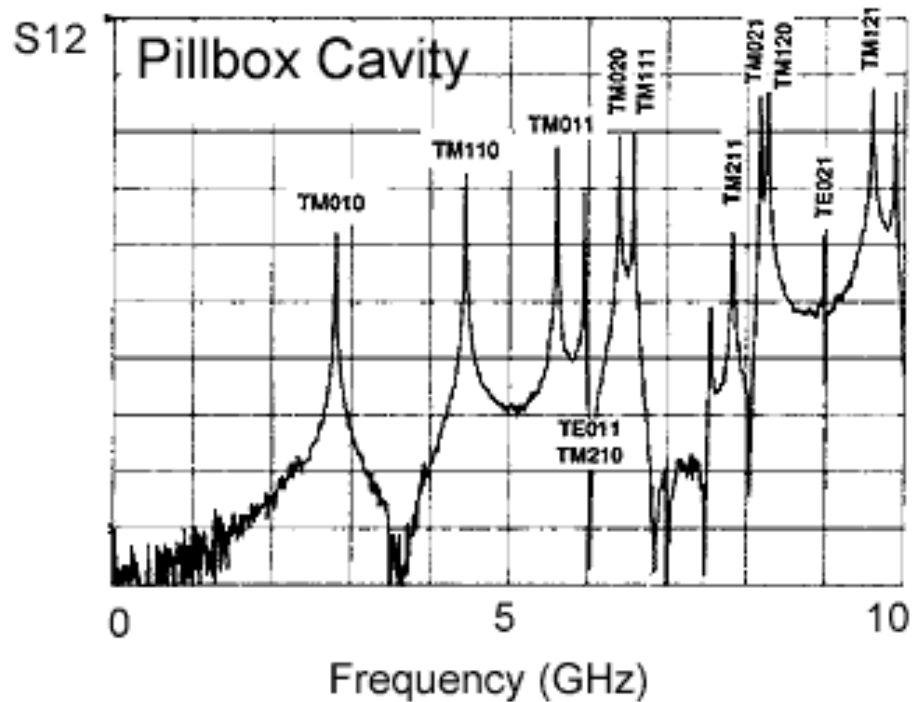
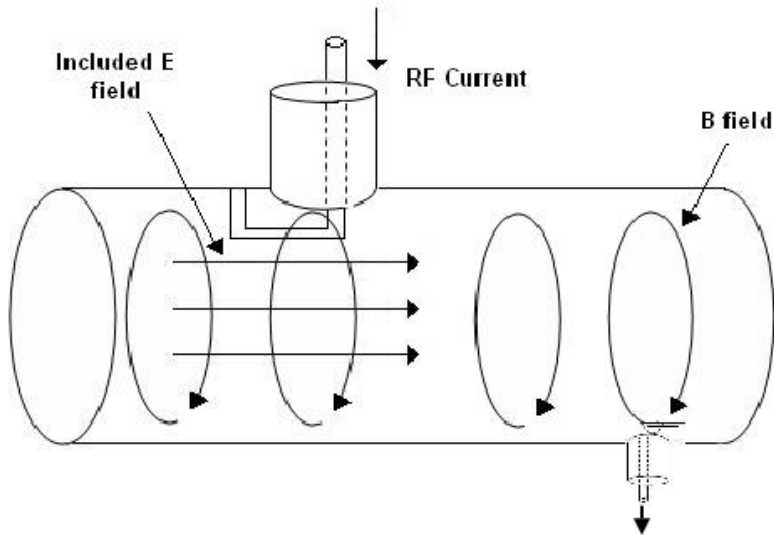
Referenced to ω_0

$$\left| Z\left(\omega_0 \pm \frac{\omega_0}{2Q}\right) \right|^2 = \frac{1}{2} |Z(\omega_0)|^2$$

$$\text{Im}\left\{ Z\left(\omega_0 \pm \frac{\omega_0}{2Q}\right) \right\} = \mp \text{Re}\left\{ Z\left(\omega_0 \pm \frac{\omega_0}{2Q}\right) \right\}$$

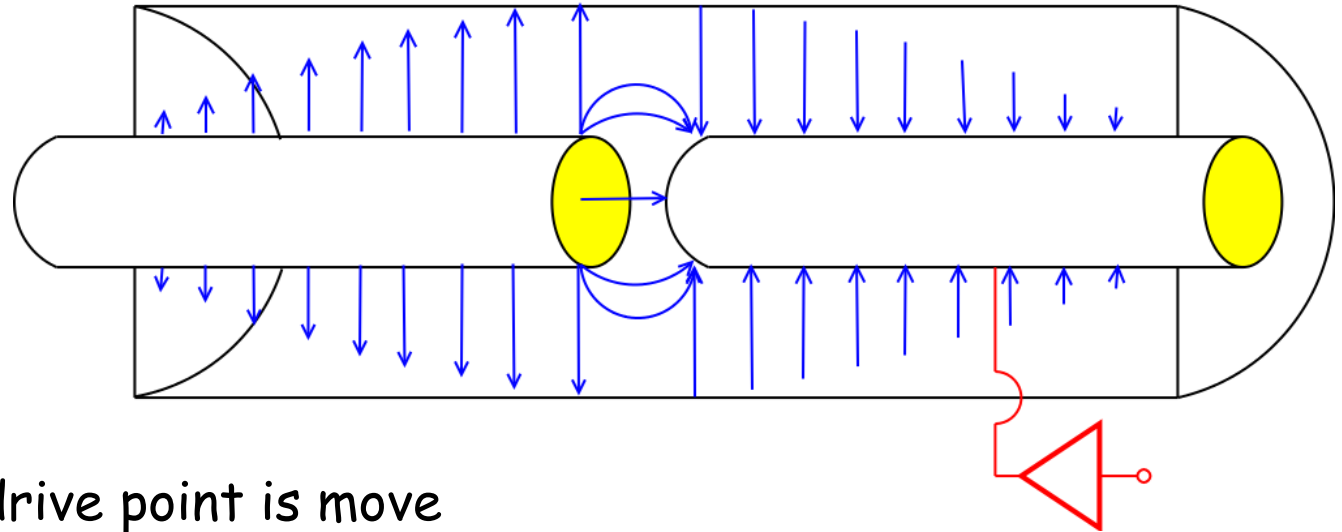
$$\arg\left\{ Z\left(\omega_0 \pm \frac{\omega_0}{2Q}\right) \right\} = \mp 45^\circ$$

Mode Spectrum Example - Pill Box Cavity

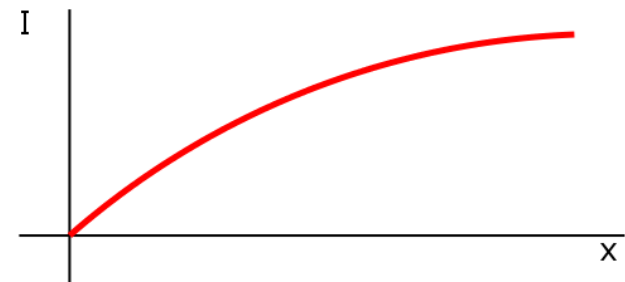
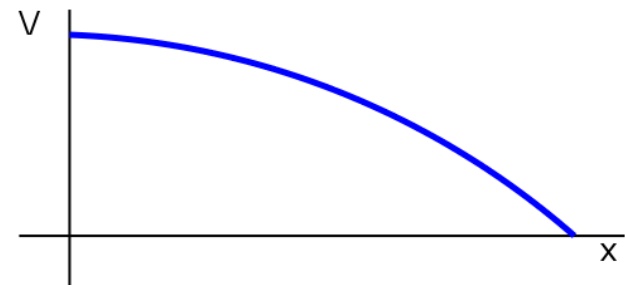


- The RLC model is only around a given mode
- Each mode will a different value of R,L, and C

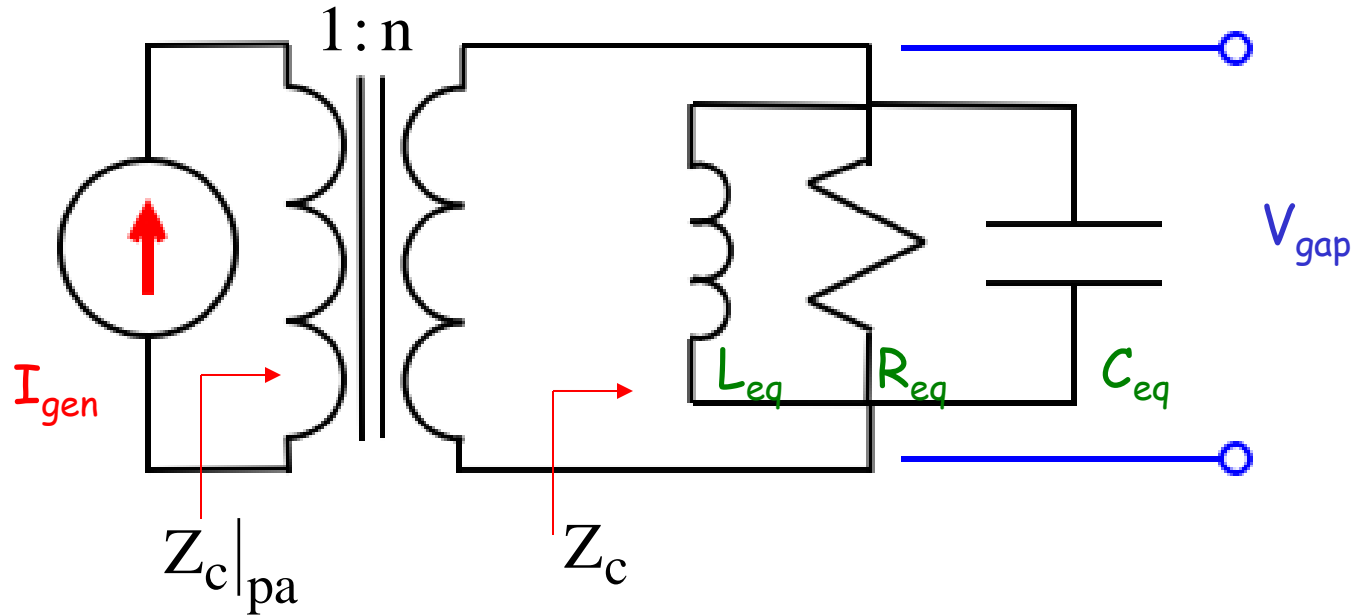
Cavity Coupling - Offset Coupling



- As the drive point is move closer to the end of the cavity (away from the gap), the amount of current needed to develop a given voltage must increase
- Therefore the input impedance of the cavity as seen by the power amplifier decreases as the drive point is moved away from the gap



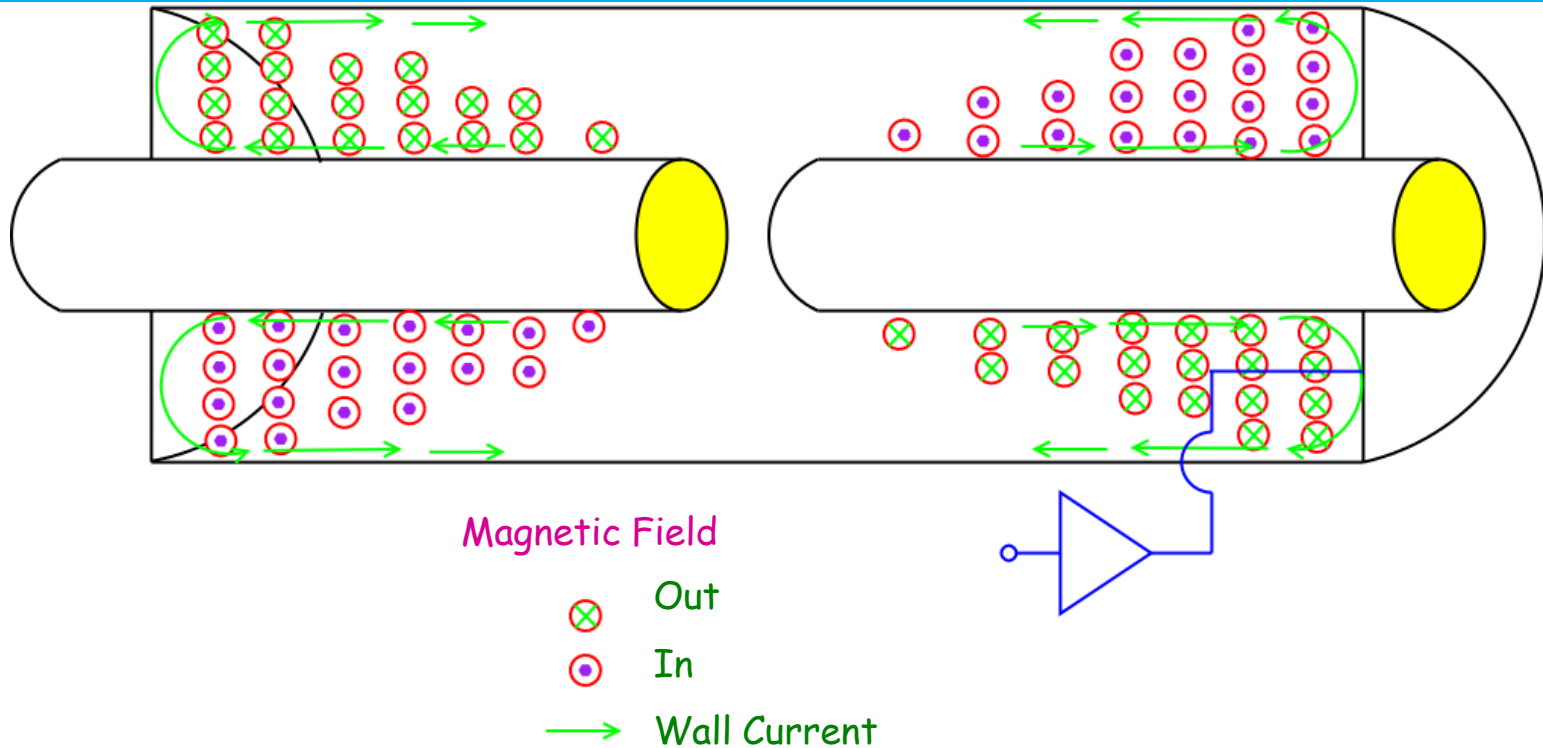
Cavity Coupling



$$Z_c|_{pa} = \frac{1}{n^2} Z_c$$

- We can model moving the drive point as a transformer
- Moving the drive point away from the gap increases the transformer turn ratio (n)

Inductive Coupling



- For inductive coupling, the PA does not have to be directly attached to the beam tube.
- The magnetic flux thru the coupling loop couples to the magnetic flux of the cavity mode
- The transformer ratio $n = \text{Total Flux} / \text{Coupler Flux}$

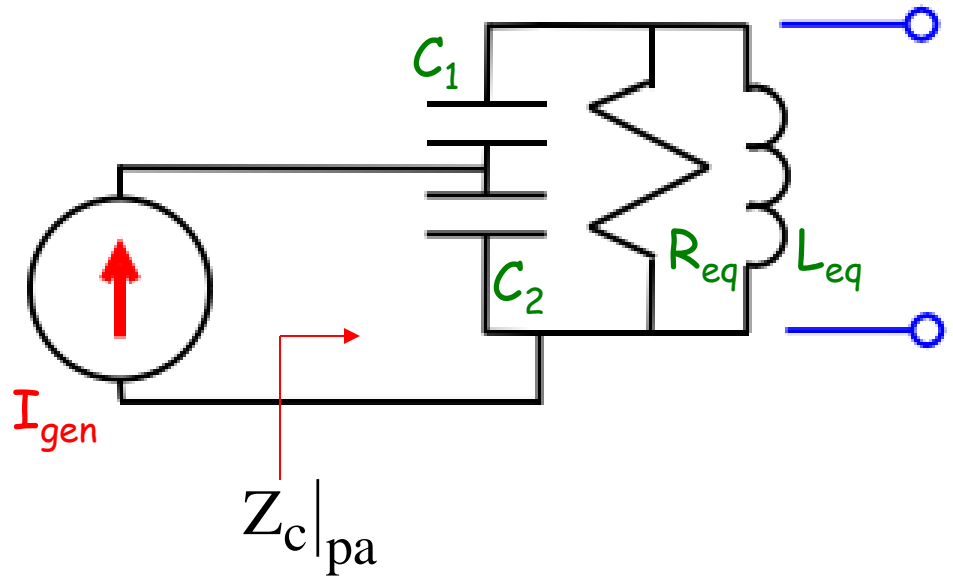
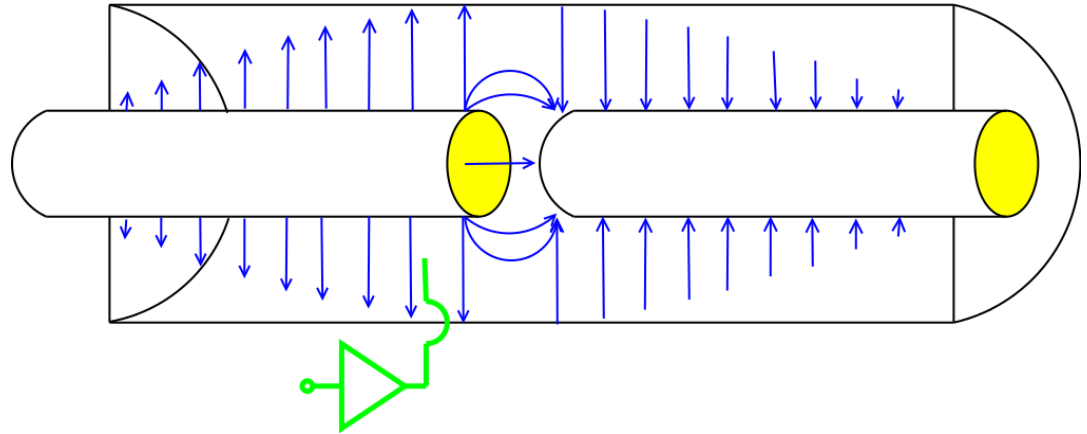
Capacitive Coupling

If the drive point does not physically touch the cavity gap, then the coupling can be described by breaking the equivalent cavity capacitance into two parts.

$$\frac{1}{C_{eq}} = \frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2}$$

As the probe is pulled away from the gap, C_2 increases and the impedance of the cavity as seen by the power amp decreases

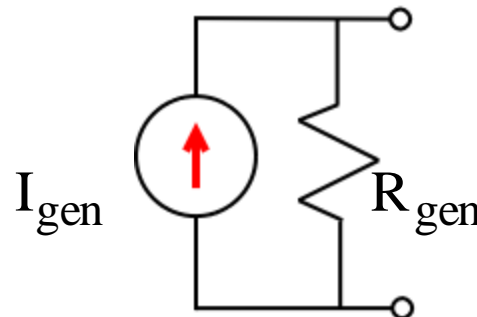
$$Z_c|_{pa} \approx \frac{1}{C_2 / C_{eq}} Z_c$$



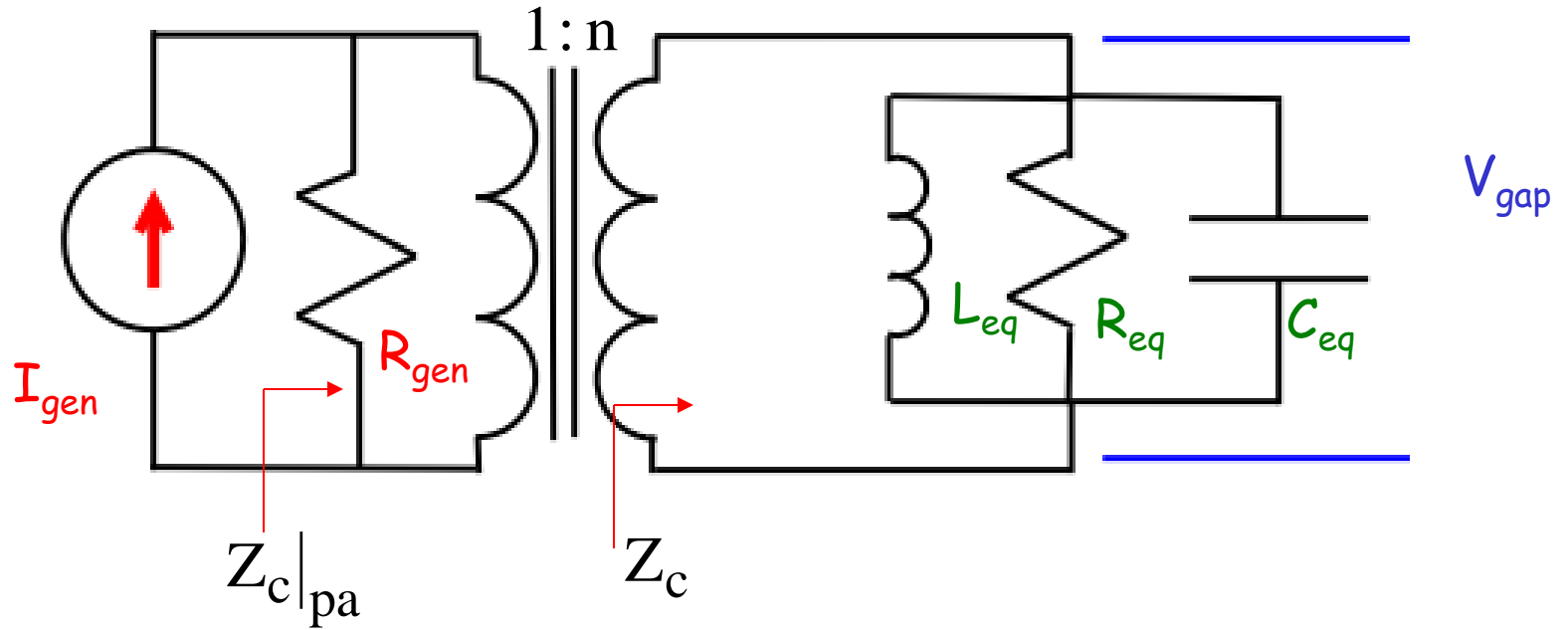
Power Amplifier Internal Resistance

- So far we have been ignoring the internal resistance of the power amplifier.
 - This is a good approximation for tetrode power amplifiers that are used at Fermilab in the Booster and Main Injector
 - This is a bad approximation for klystrons protected with isolators
- Every power amplifier has some internal resistance

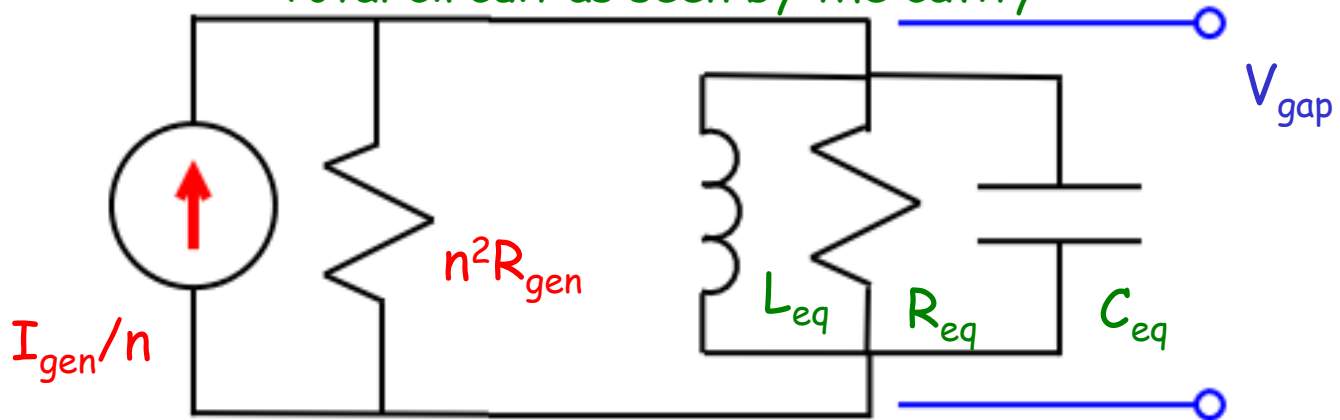
$$R_{\text{gen}} = \left. \frac{\Delta V_{\text{gen}}}{\Delta I_{\text{gen}}} \right|_{I_L=0}$$



Total Cavity Circuit



Total circuit as seen by the cavity



Loaded Q

- The generator resistance is in parallel with the cavity resistance.
- The total resistance is now lowered.

$$\frac{1}{R_L} = \frac{1}{R_{eq}} + \frac{1}{n^2 R_{gen}}$$

- The power amplifier internal resistance makes the total Q of the circuit smaller (d'Q)

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

$$Q_L = \omega_o R_L C_{eq} \quad \text{Loaded Q}$$

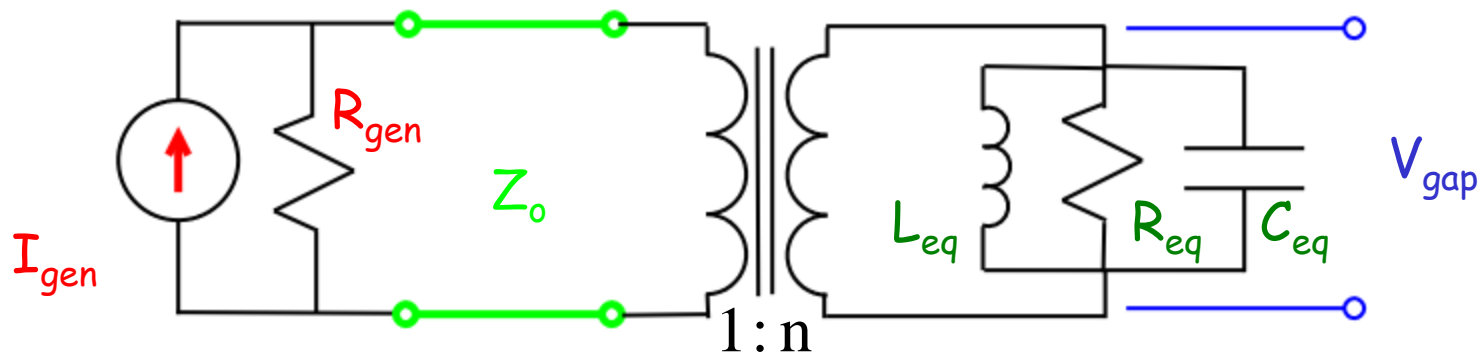
$$Q_o = \omega_o R_{eq} C_{eq} \quad \text{Unloaded Q}$$

$$Q_{ext} = \omega_o n^2 R_{gen} C_{eq} \quad \text{External Q}$$

Cavity Coupling

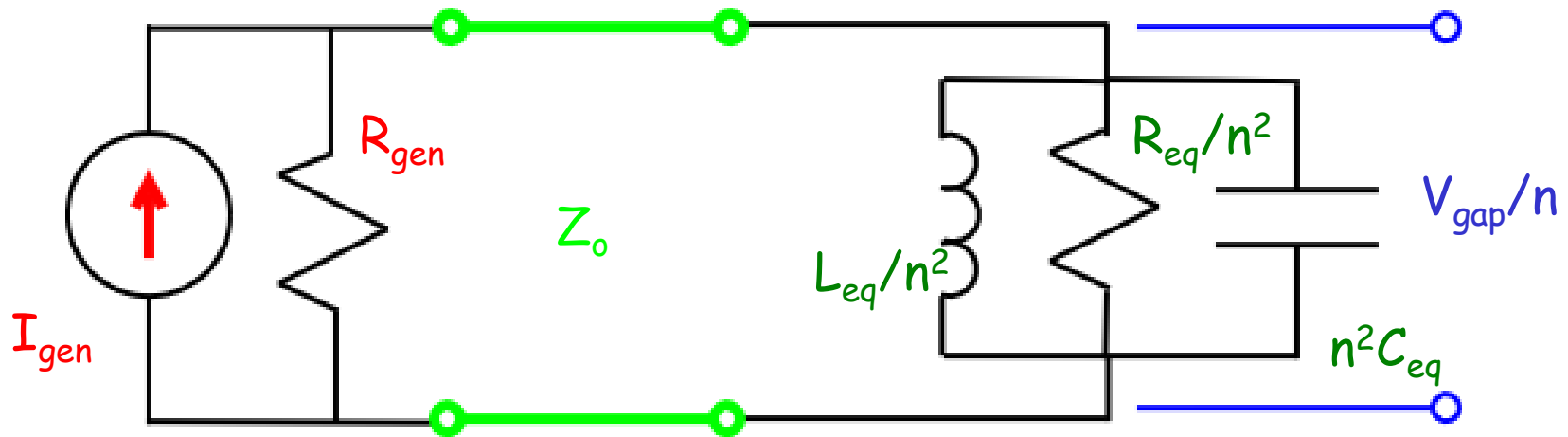
- The cavity is attached to the power amplifier by a transmission line.
 - In the case of power amplifiers mounted directly on the cavity such as the Fermilab Booster or Main Injector, the transmission line is infinitesimally short.
- The internal impedance of the power amplifier is usually matched to the transmission line impedance connecting the power amplifier to the cavity.
 - As in the case of a Klystron protected by an isolator
 - As in the case of an infinitesimally short transmission line

$$R_{\text{gen}} = Z_0$$



Cavity Coupling

Look at the cavity impedance from the power amplifier point of view:



Assume that the power amplifier is matched ($R_{gen} = Z_0$) and define a coupling parameter as the ratio of the real part of the cavity impedance as seen by the power amplifier to the characteristic impedance.

$$r_{cpl} = \frac{R_{eq}/n^2}{Z_0}$$

$r_{cpl} < 1$ **under-coupled**

$r_{cpl} = 1$ **Critically-coupled**

$r_{cpl} > 1$ **over-coupled**



Which Coupling is Best?

- Critically coupled would provide maximum power transfer to the cavity.
- However, some power amplifiers (such as tetrodes) have very high internal resistance compared to the cavity resistance and the systems are often under-coupled.
 - The limit on tetrode power amplifiers is dominated by how much current they can source to the cavity
- Some cavities have extremely low losses, such as superconducting cavities, and the systems are sometimes over-coupled.
- An intense beam flowing through the cavity can load the cavity which can affect the coupling.

Measuring Cavity Coupling

The frequency response of the cavity at a given mode is:

$$Z_c(j\omega) = \frac{R_{eq}}{Q} \frac{j\omega\omega_0}{(j\omega)^2 + j\omega\frac{\omega_0}{Q} + \omega_0^2}$$

which can be re-written as:

$$Z_c(j\omega) = R_{eq} \cos(\phi) e^{j\phi}$$

$$\tan(\phi) = Q \frac{\omega_0^2 - \omega^2}{\omega_0\omega}$$

Cavity Coupling

The reflection coefficient as seen by the power amplifier is:

$$\Gamma = \frac{Z_c - n^2 Z_o}{Z_c + n^2 Z_o}$$

$$\Gamma = \frac{r_{cpl} \cos(\phi) e^{j\phi} - 1}{r_{cpl} \cos(\phi) e^{j\phi} + 1}$$

This equation traces out a circle on the reflection (u,v) plane

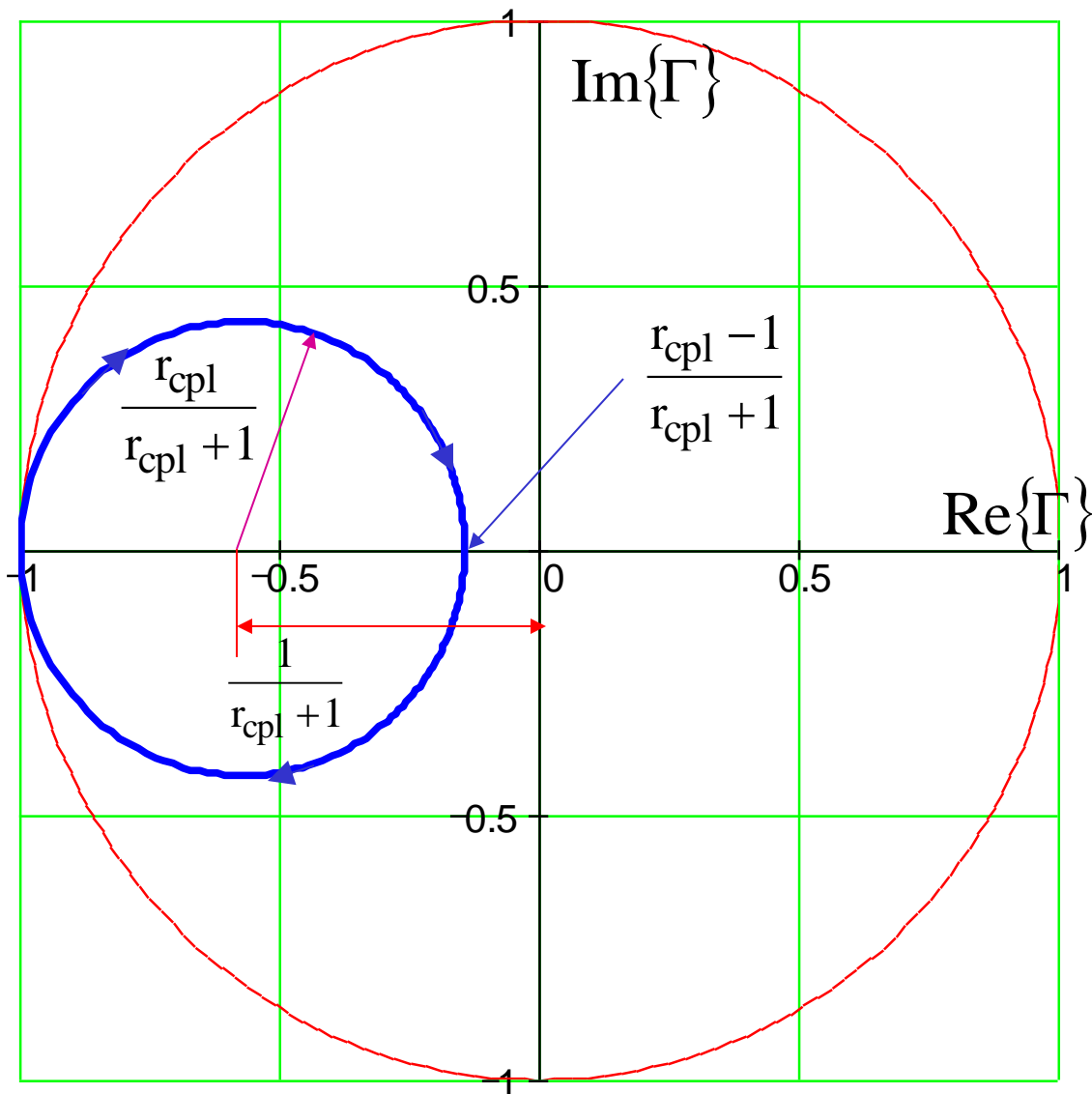
Cavity Coupling

$$\text{Radius} = \frac{r_{\text{cpl}}}{r_{\text{cpl}} + 1}$$

$$\text{Center} = \left(\frac{-1}{r_{\text{cpl}} + 1}, 0 \right)$$

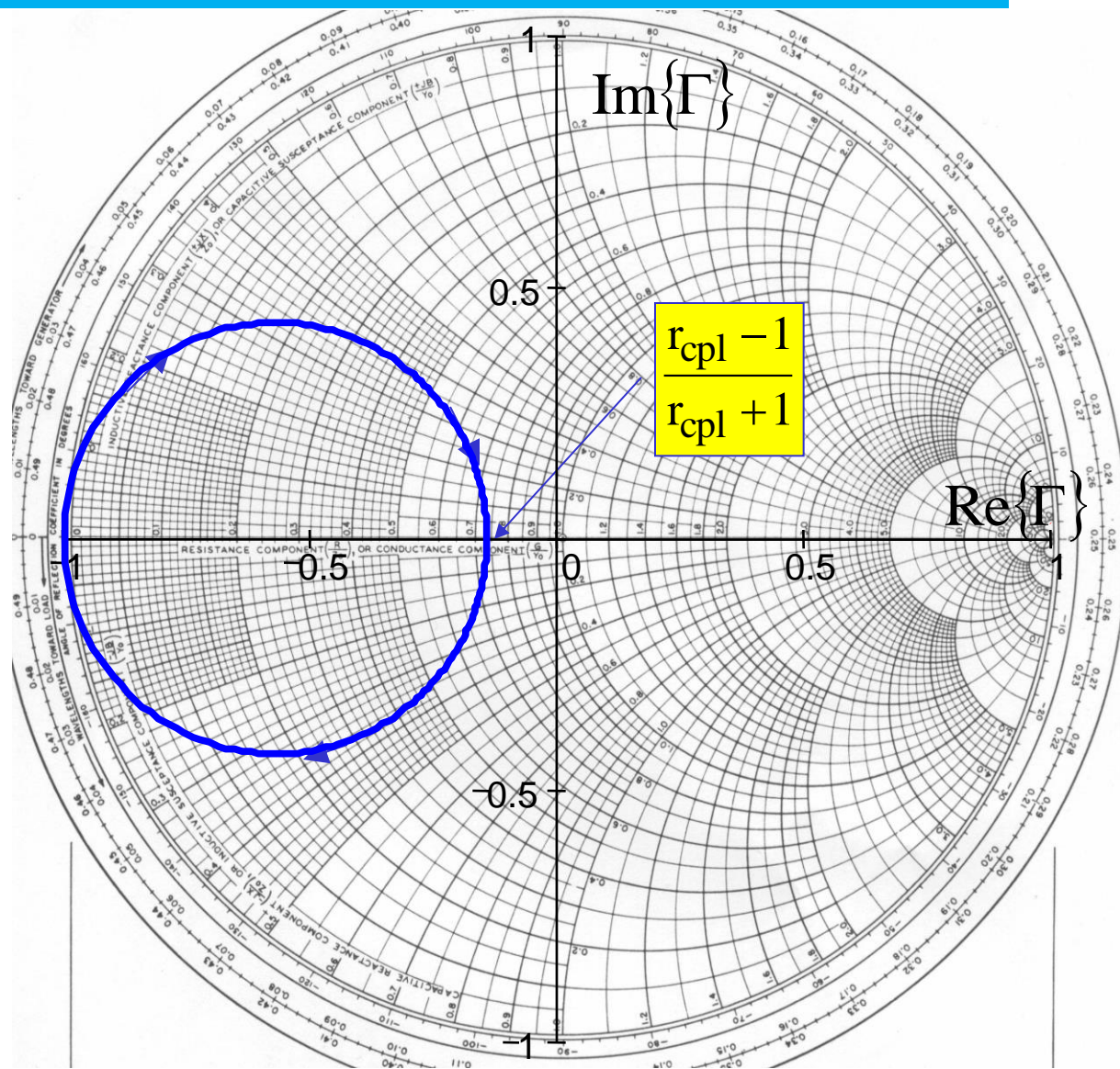
$$\text{Left edge} \quad (\phi = \pm \pi/2) = (-1, 0)$$

$$\text{Right edge} \quad (\phi = 0) = \left(\frac{r_{\text{cpl}} - 1}{r_{\text{cpl}} + 1}, 0 \right)$$



Cavity Coupling

- The cavity coupling can be determined by:
 - measuring the reflection coefficient trajectory of the input coupler
 - Reading the normalized impedance of the extreme right point of the trajectory directly from the Smith Chart

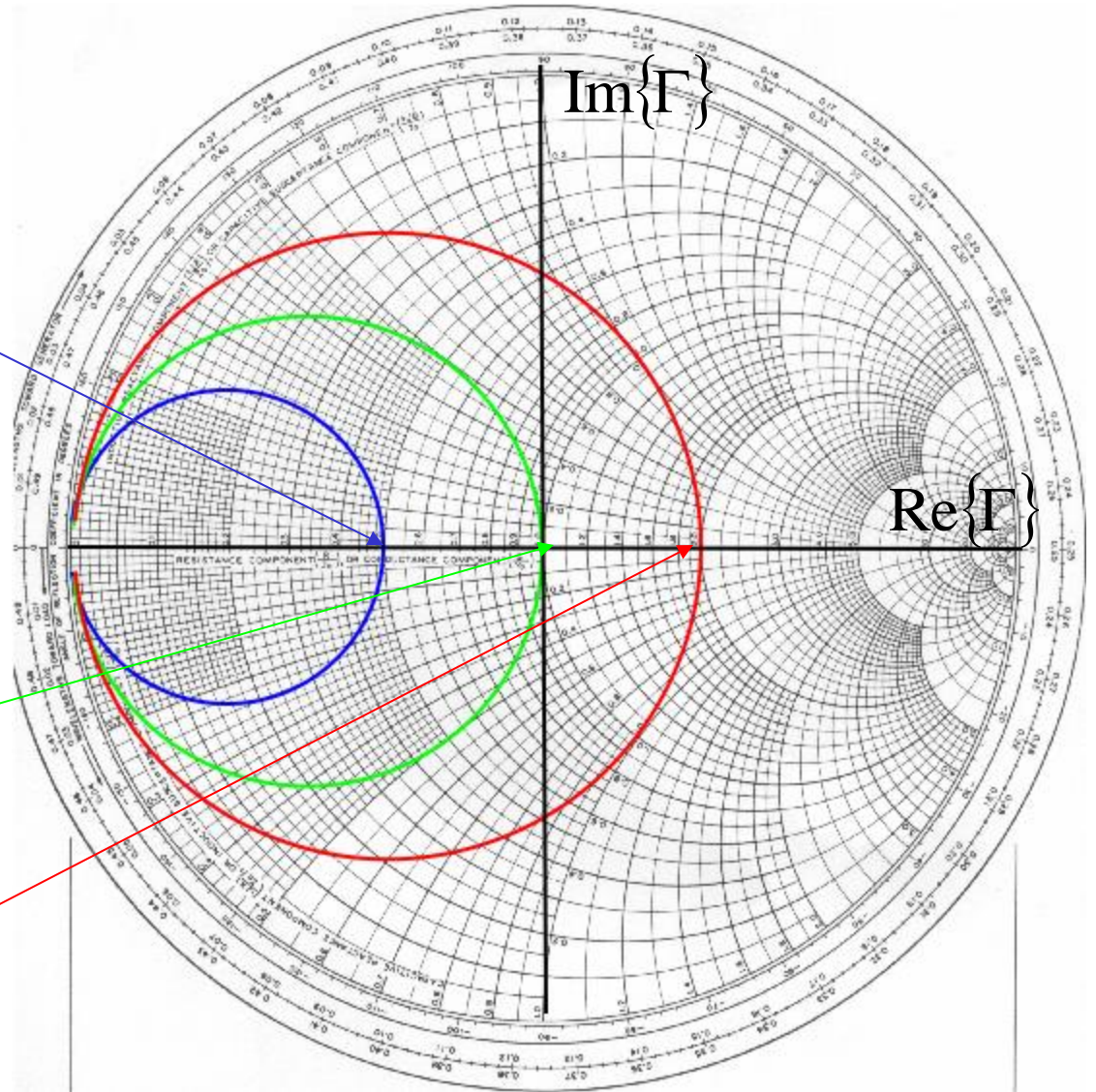


Cavity Coupling

Under coupled

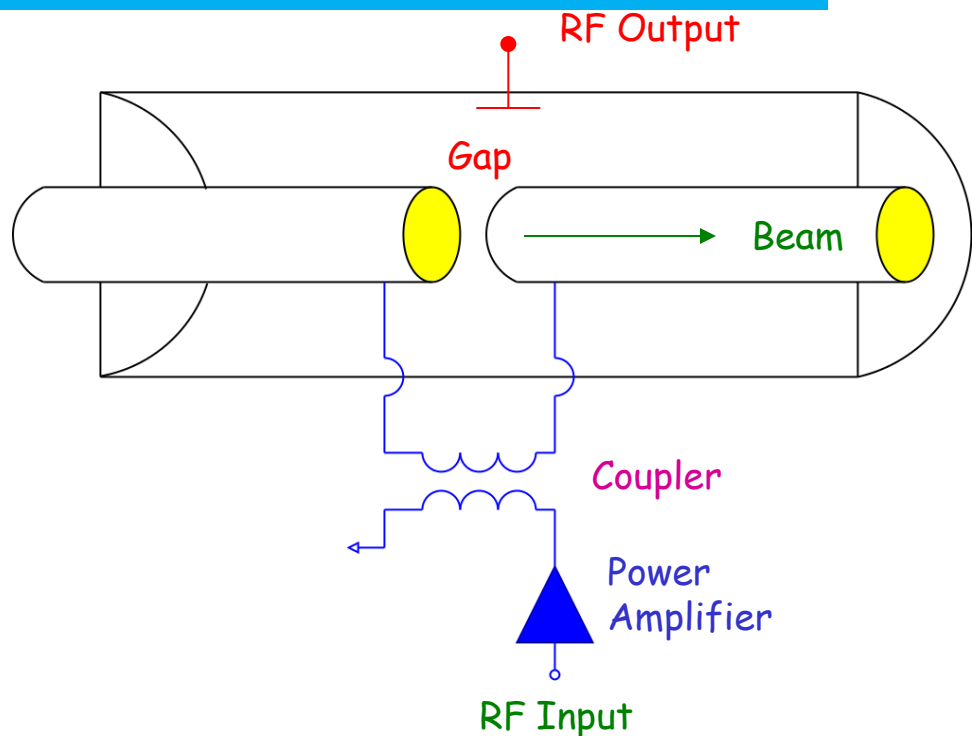
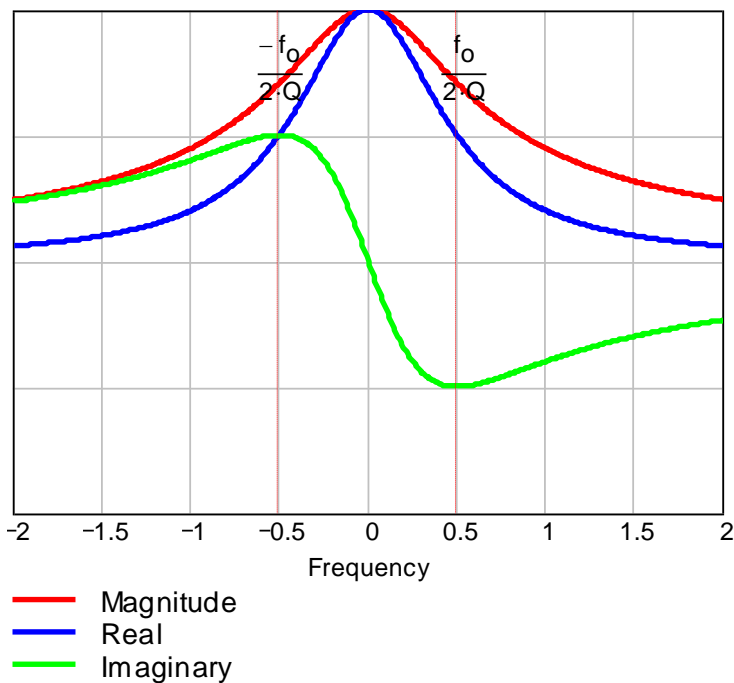
Critically coupled

Over coupled



Measuring the Loaded Q of the Cavity

S_{21}



- The simplest way to measure a cavity response is to drive the coupler with RF and measure the output RF from a small detector mounted in the cavity.
- Because the coupler “loads” the cavity, this measures the loaded Q of the cavity
 - which depending on the coupling, can be much different than the unloaded Q
 - Also note that changing the coupling in the cavity, can change the cavity response significantly

Measuring the Unloaded Q of a Cavity

- If the coupling is not too extreme, the loaded and unloaded Q of the cavity can be measured from reflection (S_{11}) measurements of the coupler.

At:

$$\omega = \omega_0 \mp \frac{\omega_0}{Q_0} \leftarrow \text{Unloaded Q!}$$

$$\phi = \pm \frac{\pi}{4}$$

$$\text{Im}\{Z_c\} = \pm \text{Re}\{Z_c\}$$

For:

$$\text{Im}\{Z_c\} = \pm \text{Re}\{Z_c\}$$

where:

$$\Gamma = u + jv$$

Circles on the
Smith Chart

$$u^2 + (v \pm 1)^2 = 2$$

Measuring the Unloaded Q of a Cavity

- Measure frequency (ω_-) when:

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

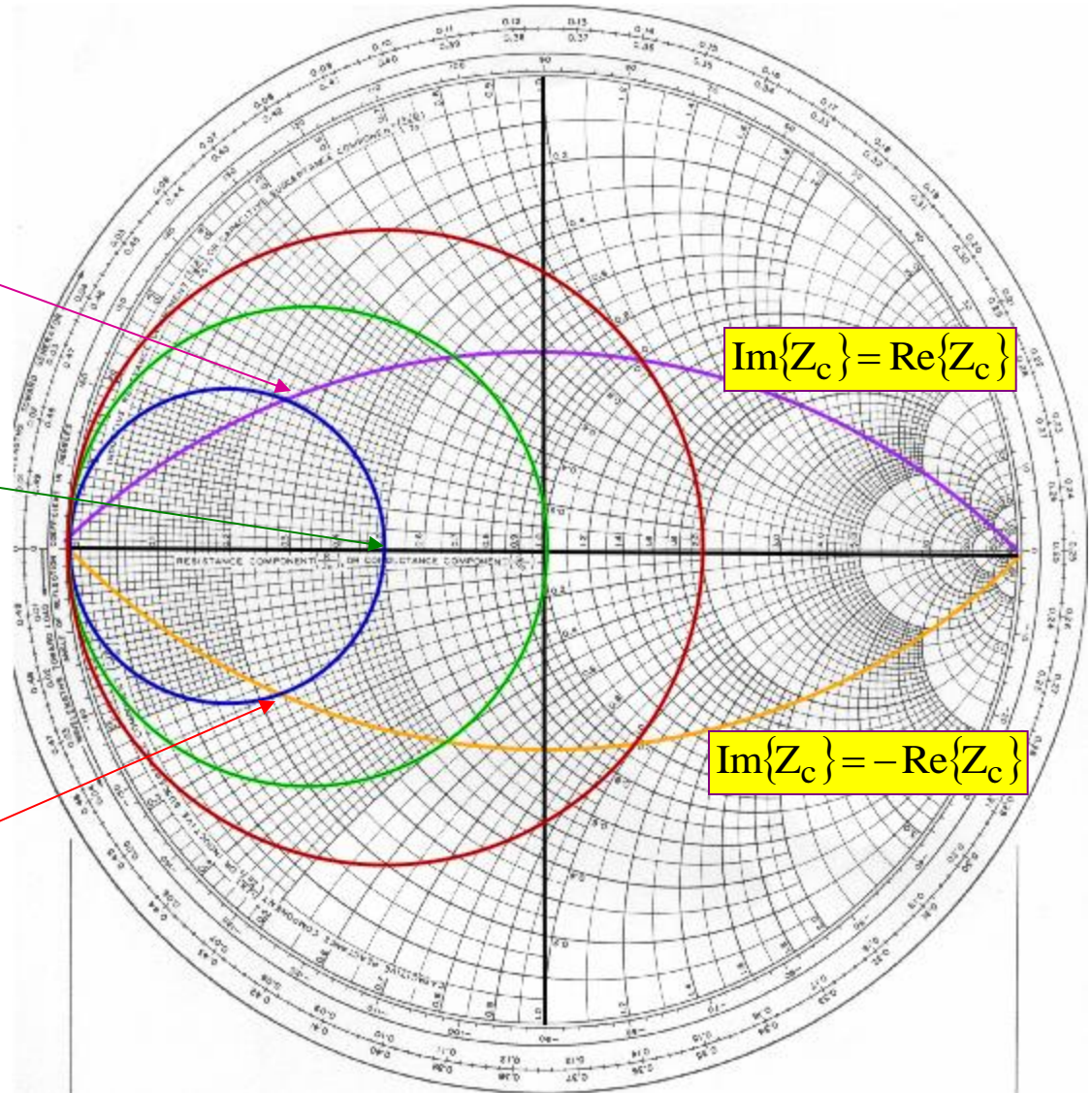
- Measure resonant frequency (ω_0)

- Measure frequency (ω_+) when:

$$\text{Im}\{Z_c\} = -\text{Re}\{Z_c\}$$

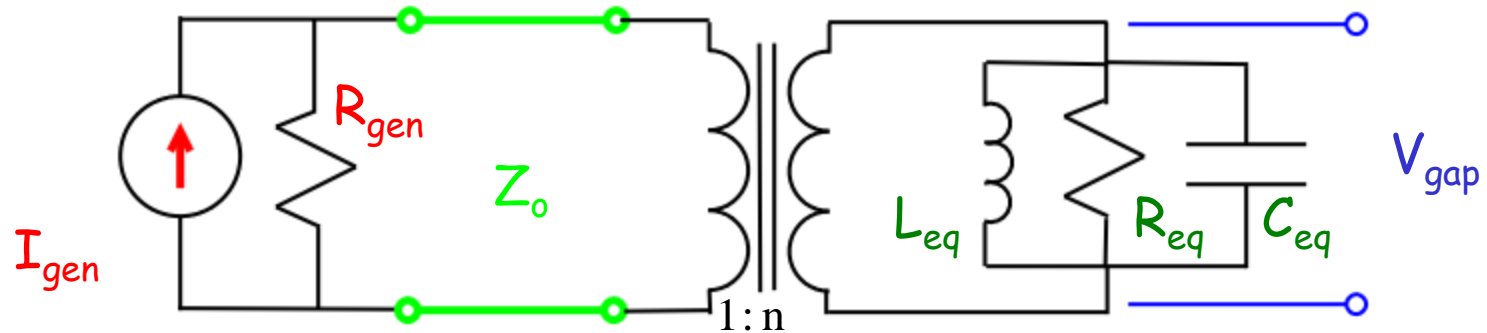
- Compute

$$Q_0 = \frac{\omega_0}{\omega_+ - \omega_-}$$



Measuring the Loaded Q of a Cavity

- Measure the coupling parameter (r_{cpl})
- Measure the unloaded Q (Q_o)



$$R_{eq} = n^2 r_{cpl} Z_o$$

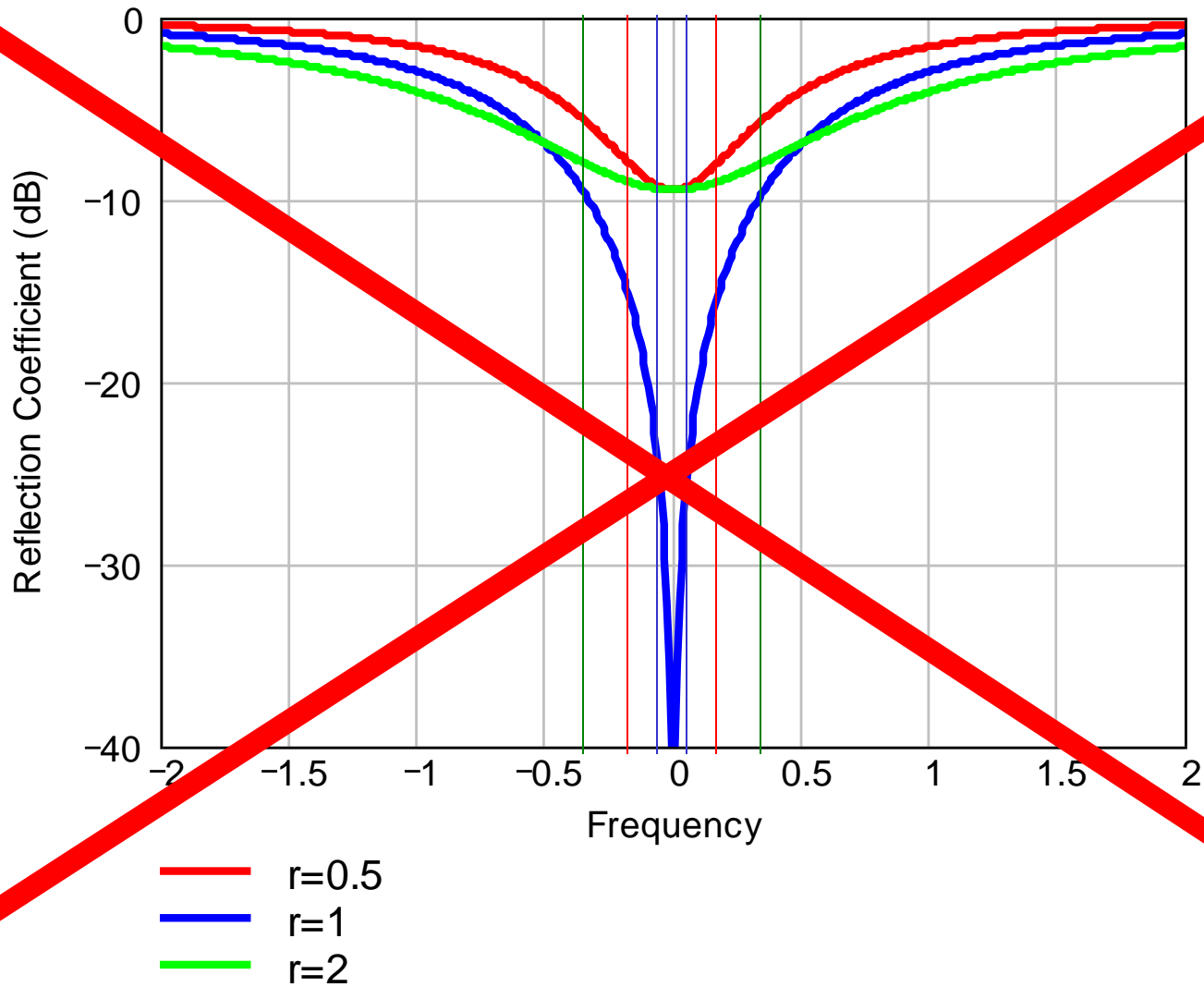
$$Q_o = \omega_o n^2 r_{cpl} Z_o C_{eq}$$

$$Q_{ext} = \omega_o n^2 Z_o C_{eq}$$

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

$$Q_L = \frac{Q_o}{r_{cpl} + 1}$$

NEVER - EVER!!

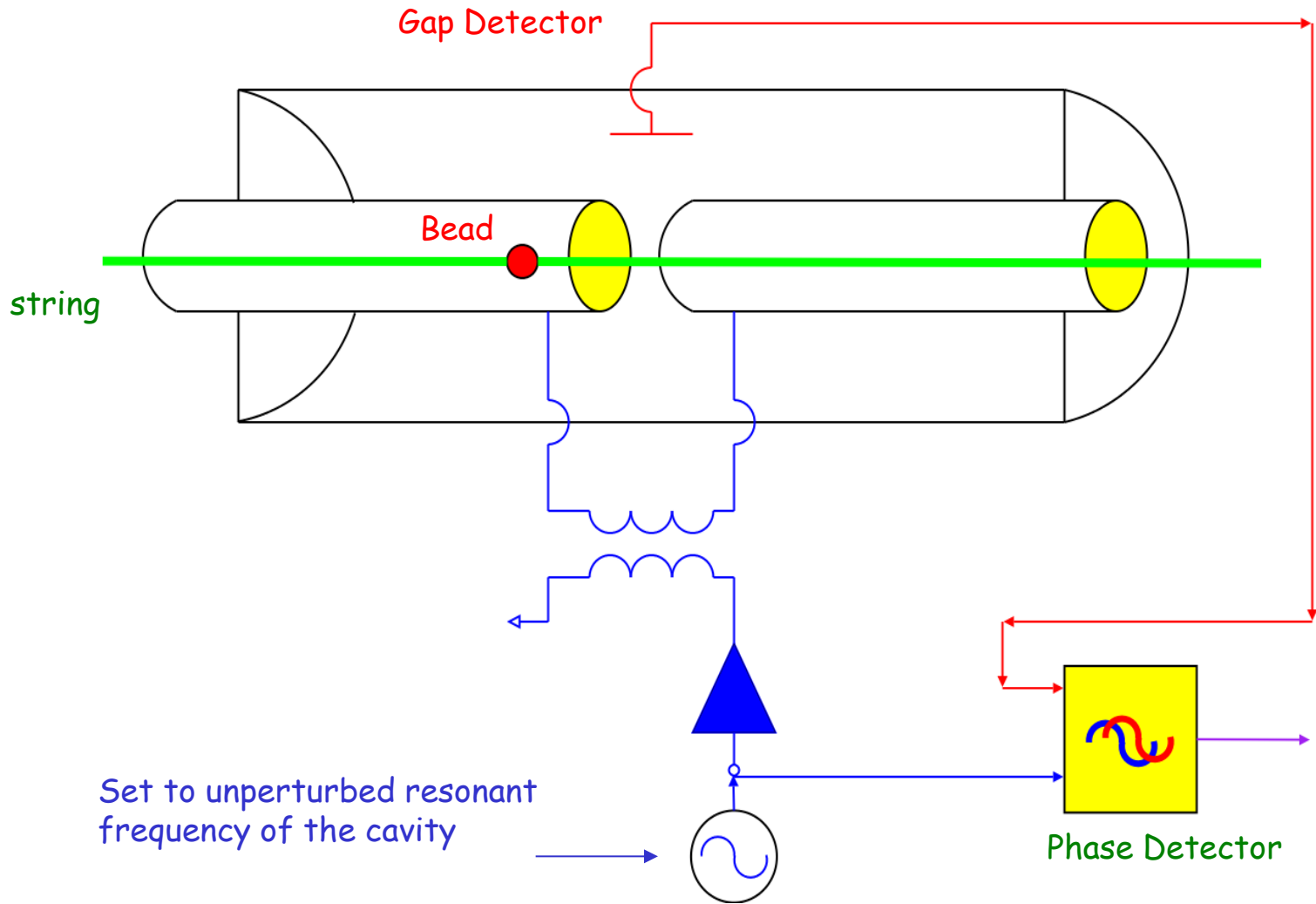


Bead Pulls

- The Bead Pull is a technique for measuring the fields in the cavity and the equivalent impedance of the cavity as seen by the beam
 - In contrast to measuring the impedance of the cavity as seen by the power amplifier through the coupler

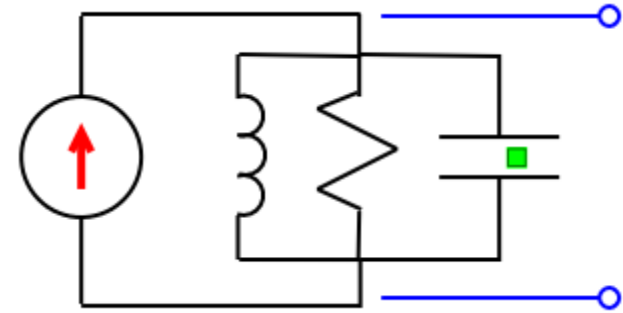


Bead Pull Setup



Bead Pulls

- In the capacitor of the RLC model for the cavity mode consider placing a small dielectric cube
 - Assume that the small cube will not distort the field patterns appreciably
- The stored energy in the capacitor will change



$$W_E = \underbrace{\frac{1}{4} C_{eq} V_{gap}^2}_{\text{Total original Electric energy}} - \underbrace{\frac{1}{4} \epsilon_0 E_c^2 dv}_{\text{Original Electric energy in the cube}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{4} \epsilon_r \epsilon_0 E_c^2 dv}_{\text{new Electric energy in the cube}}$$

Where E_c is the electric field in the cube

dv is the volume of the cube

ϵ_0 is the permittivity of free space

ϵ_r is the relative permittivity of the cube

$$W_E = \frac{1}{4} \iiint_{\text{vol}} \epsilon |\vec{E}|^2 dv$$

Bead Pulls

The equivalent capacitance of the capacitor with the dielectric cube is:

$$W_E = \frac{1}{4} C V_{\text{gap}}^2 = \frac{1}{4} (C_{\text{eq}} + \Delta C) V_{\text{gap}}^2$$

$$\Delta C = \epsilon_0 (\epsilon_r - 1) \text{dv} \left(\frac{E_c}{V_{\text{gap}}} \right)^2$$

The resonant frequency of the cavity will shift

$$(\omega_0 + \Delta\omega)^2 = \frac{1}{L_{\text{eq}} (C_{\text{eq}} + \Delta C)}$$

Bead Pulls

For $\Delta\omega \ll \omega_0$ and $\Delta C \ll C_{eq}$

$$\frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_0} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta C}{C_{eq}}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{1}{4} \epsilon_0 (\epsilon_r - 1) \int dv E_c^2}{\frac{1}{2} C_{eq} V_{gap}^2}$$

$$\frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_0} = \frac{\Delta W_E}{W_T}$$

Bead Pulls

- Had we used a metallic bead ($\mu_r > 1$) or a metal bead:

$$\frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_0} = \frac{\Delta W_E - \Delta W_H}{W_T}$$

- Also, the shape of the bead will distort the field in the vicinity of the bead so a geometrical form factor must be used.
- For a small dielectric bead of radius a

$$\frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_0} = -\pi a^3 \epsilon_0 \left(\frac{\epsilon_r - 1}{\epsilon_r + 2} \right) \frac{E_b^2}{W_T}$$

- For a small metal bead with radius a

$$\frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_0} = -\frac{\pi a^3}{W_T} \left[\epsilon_0 E_b^2 + \frac{\mu_0}{2} H_b^2 \right]$$

A metal bead can be used to measure the E field only if the bead is placed in a region where the magnetic field is zero!

Bead Pulls

- In general, the shift in frequency is proportional to a form factor F

$$\frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_0} = -F \frac{E_b^2}{W_T}$$

$$F = \pi a^3 \epsilon_0 \left(\frac{\epsilon_r - 1}{\epsilon_r + 2} \right)$$

Dielectric bead

$$F = \pi a^3 \epsilon_0$$

Metal bead

Bead Pulls

From the definition of cavity Q:

$$Q = \omega_o \frac{W_T}{P_L}$$

$$P_L = \frac{1}{2} \frac{V_{\text{gap}}^2}{R_{\text{eq}}}$$

$$W_T = \frac{1}{2\omega_o} \frac{V_{\text{gap}}^2}{R_{\text{eq}} / Q}$$

$$\left(\frac{E_b(x, y, z)}{V_{\text{gap}}} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{F} \frac{1}{2\omega_o} \frac{1}{R_{\text{eq}} / Q} \frac{\Delta\omega(x, y, z)}{\omega_o}$$

Bead Pulls

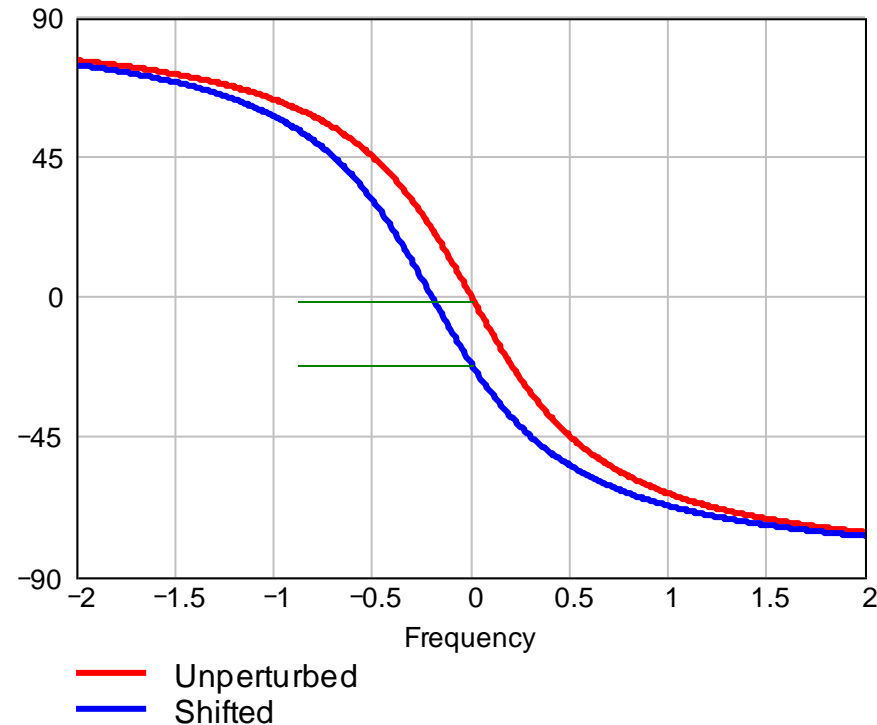
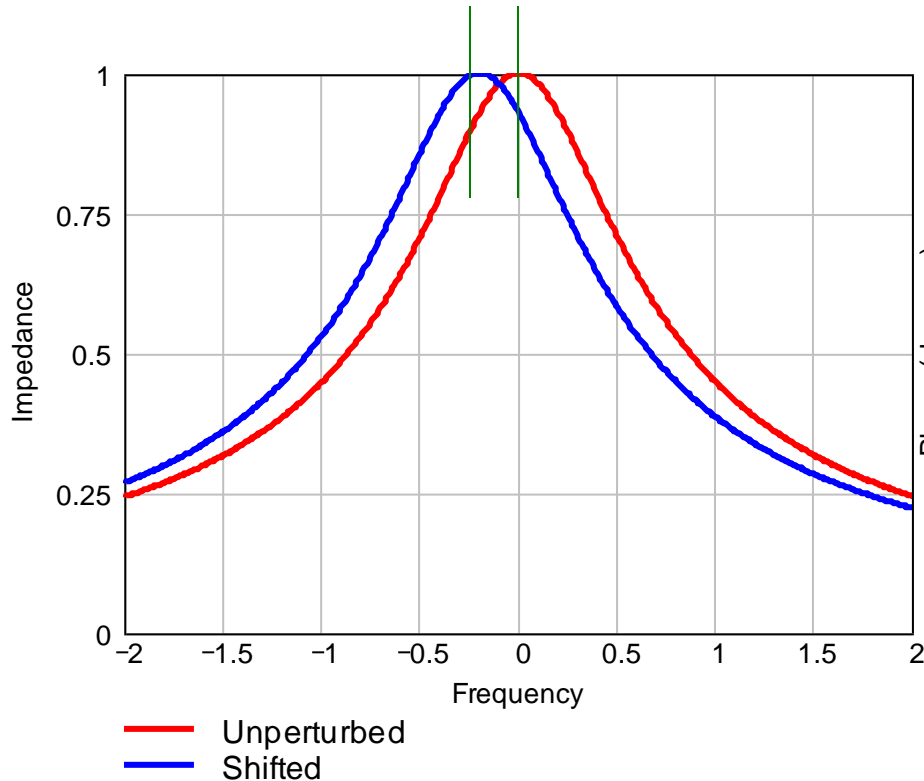
Since:

$$\int_{\text{gap}} E(x_{\text{gap}}, y_{\text{gap}}, z) dz = V_{\text{gap}}$$

$$\frac{R_{\text{eq}}}{Q} = \frac{1}{F} \frac{1}{2\omega_0} \left[\int_{\text{gap}} \sqrt{\frac{\Delta\omega(x_{\text{gap}}, y_{\text{gap}}, z)}{\omega_0}} dz \right]^2$$

Bead Pulls

- For small perturbations, shifts in the peak of the cavity response is hard to measure.
- Shifts in the phase at the unperturbed resonant frequency are much easier to measure.



Bead Pulls

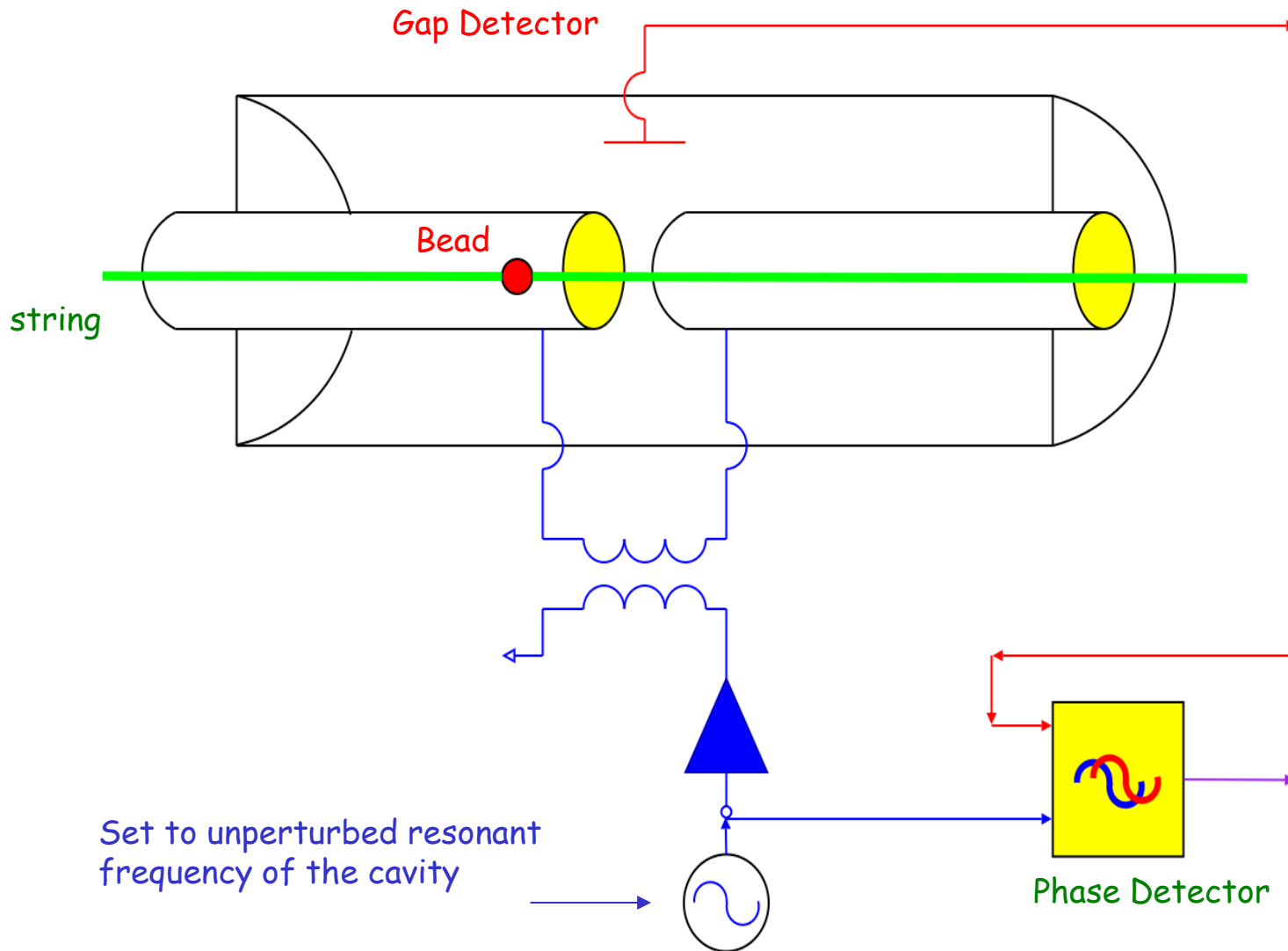
Since:

$$\tan(\phi) = Q \left(\frac{\omega_o}{\omega} - \frac{\omega}{\omega_o} \right)$$

$$\approx 2Q \frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_o}$$

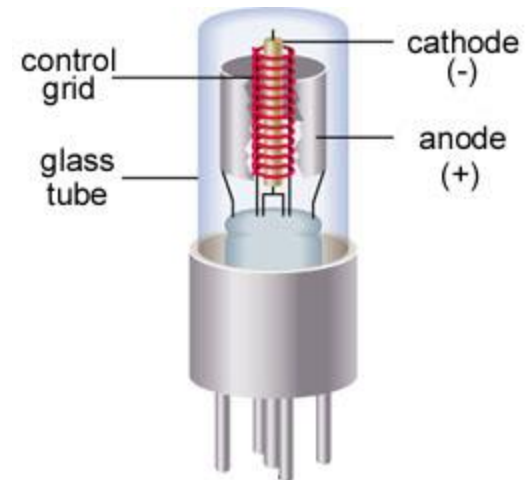
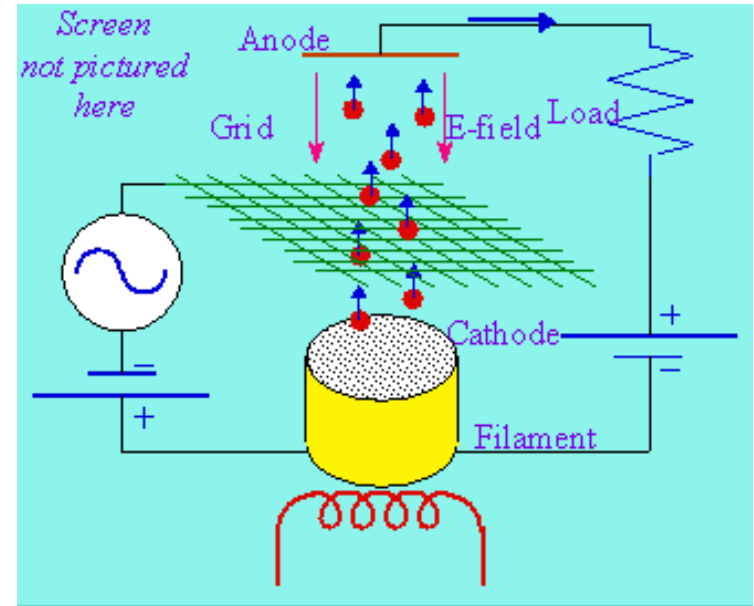
$$R_{eq} = \frac{1}{F} \frac{1}{2\omega_o} \left[\int_{\text{gap}} \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \tan(\phi(x_{\text{gap}}, y_{\text{gap}}, z))} dz \right]^2$$

Bead Pulls

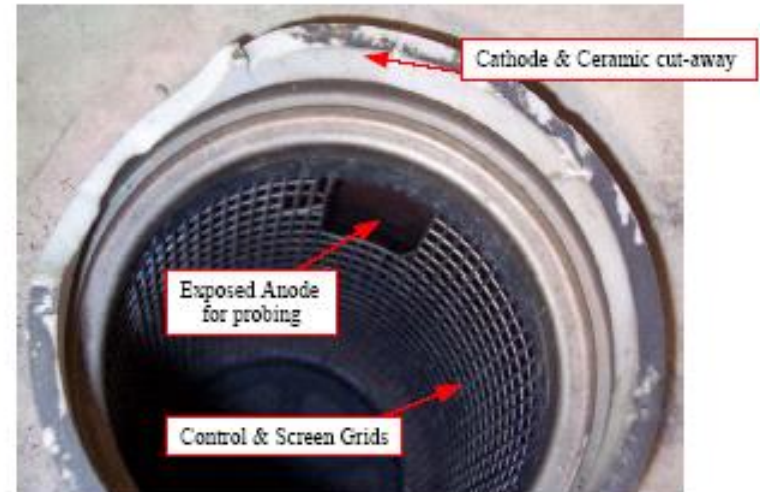
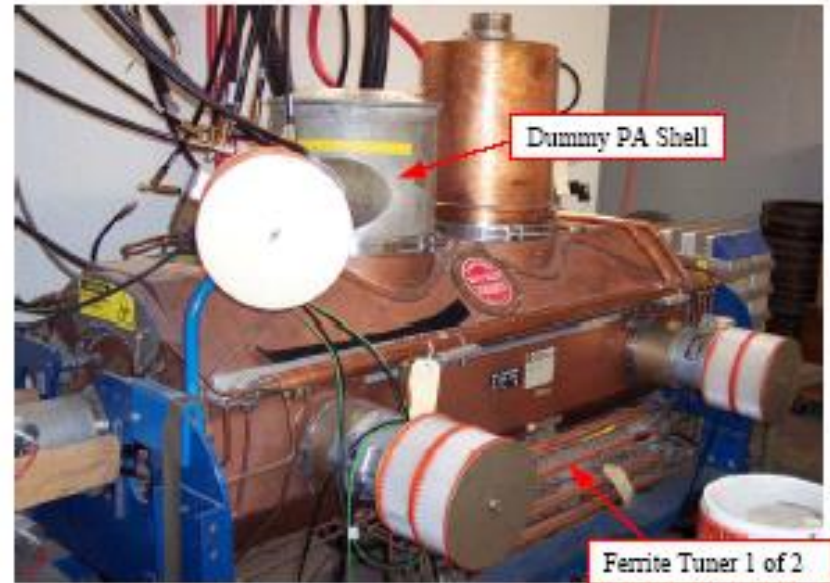


Power Amplifiers - Triode

- The triode is in itself a miniature electron accelerator
- The filament boils electrons off the cathode
- The electrons are accelerated by the DC power supply to the anode
- The voltage on the grid controls how many electrons make it to the anode
- The number of electrons flowing into the anode determines the current into the load.
- The triode can be thought of a voltage controlled current source
- The maximum frequency is inversely proportional to the transit time of electrons from the cathode to the anode.
 - Tetrodes are typically used at frequencies below 300 MHz



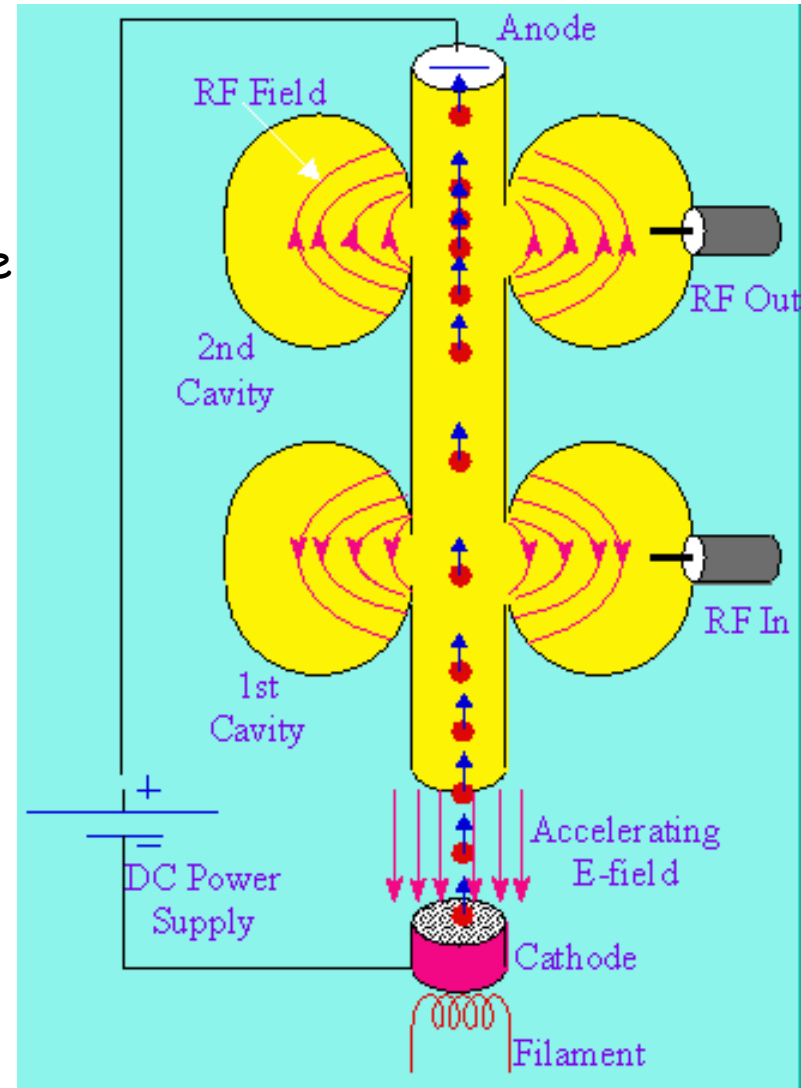
Tetrodes



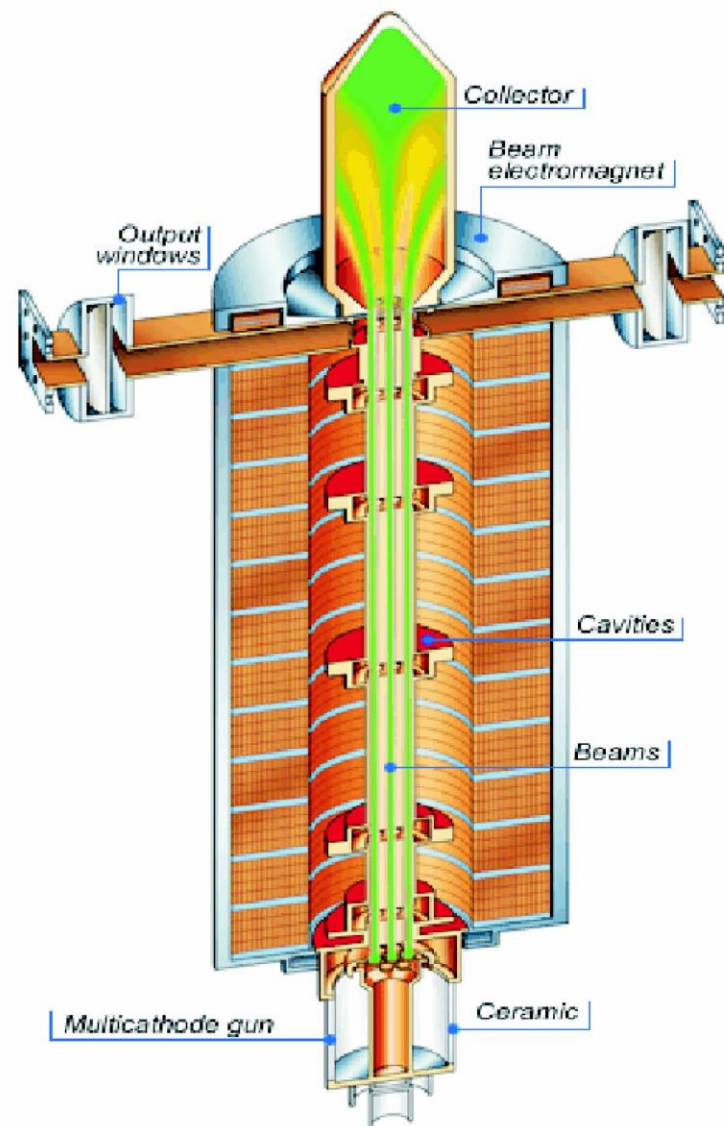
Courtesy of Tim Berenc

Klystrons

- The filament boils electrons off the cathode
- The velocity (or energy) of the electrons is modulated by the input RF in the first cavity
- The electrons drift to the cathode
- Because of the velocity modulation, some electrons are slowed down, some are sped up.
- If the output cavity is placed at the right place, the electrons will bunch up at the output cavity which will create a high intensity RF field in the output cavity
- Klystrons need a minimum of two cavities but can have more for larger gain.
- A Klystron size is determined by the size of the bunching cavities.
 - Klystrons are used at high frequencies (>500 MHz)



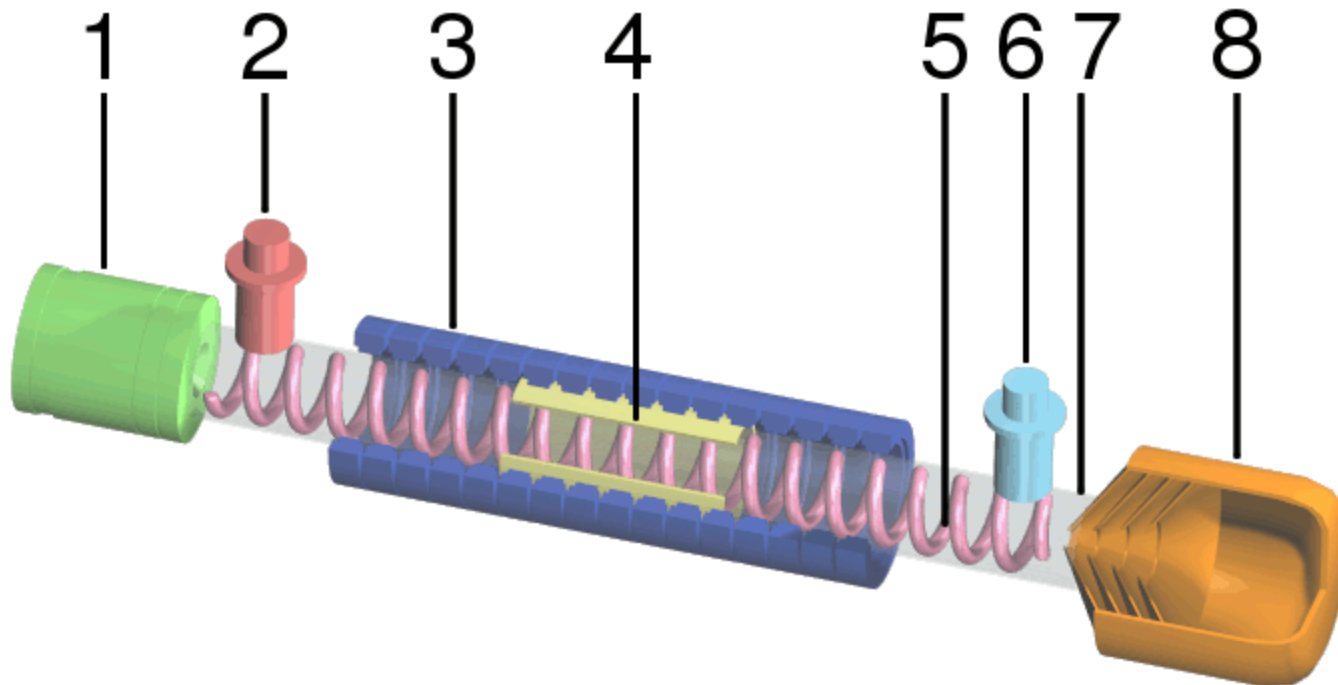
Klystrons



Traveling Wave Tube

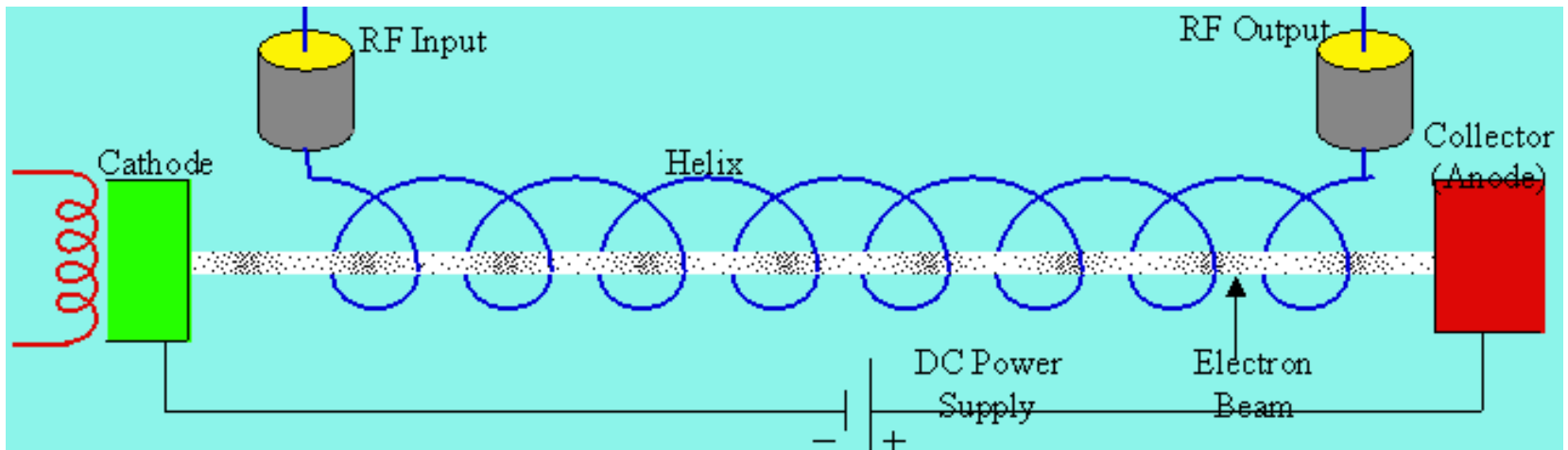


Cutaway view of a TWT. (1) Electron gun; (2) RF input; (3) Magnets; (4) Attenuator; (5) Helix coil; (6) RF output; (7) Vacuum tube; (8) Collector.



Traveling Wave Tubes

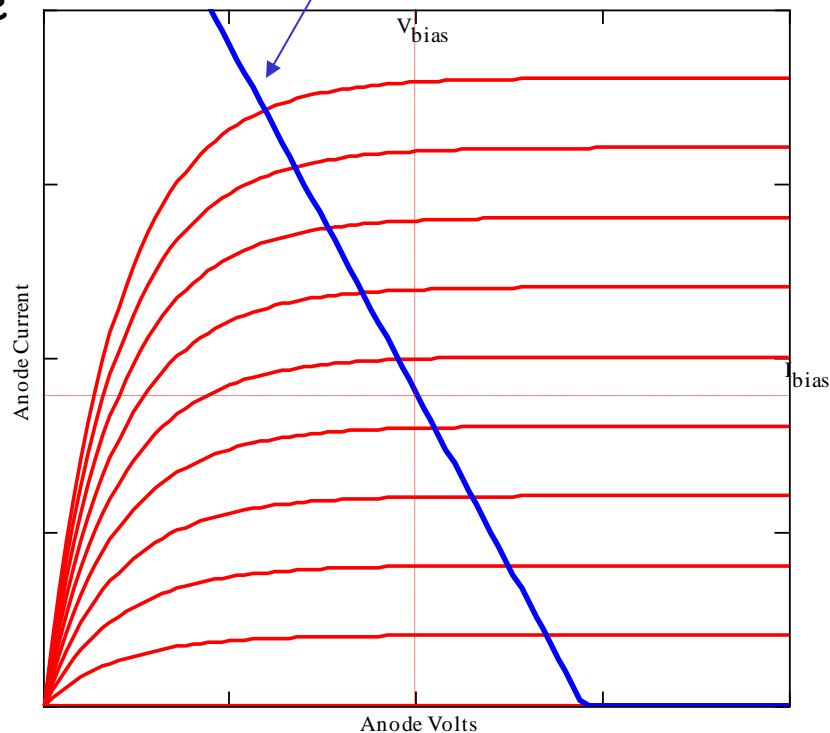
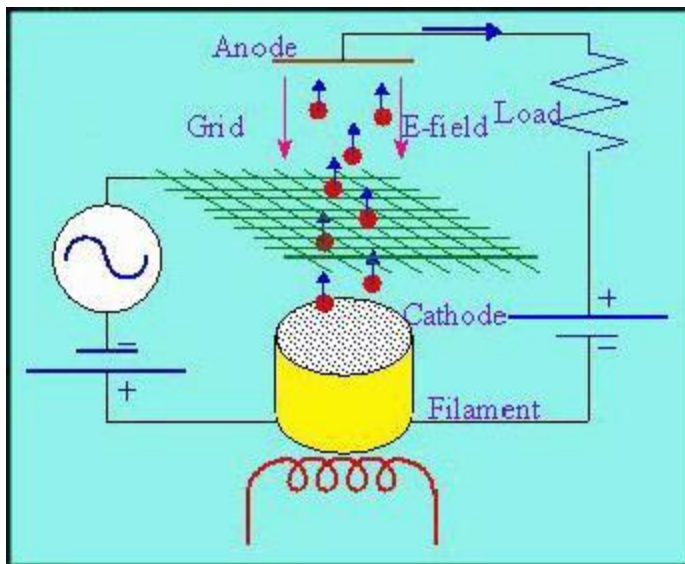
- Traveling wave tubes (TWTs) can have bandwidths as large as an octave ($f_{\max} = 2 \times f_{\min}$)
- TWTs have a helix which wraps around an electron beam
 - The helix is a slow wave electromagnetic structure.
 - The phase velocity of the slow wave matches the velocity of the electron beam
- At the input, the RF modulates the electron beam.
- The beam in turn strengthens the RF
- Since the velocities are matched, this process happens all along the TWT resulting in a large amplification at the output (40dB = 10000 x)



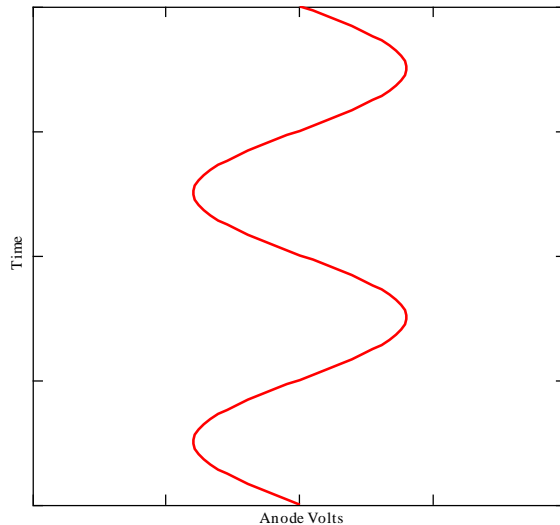
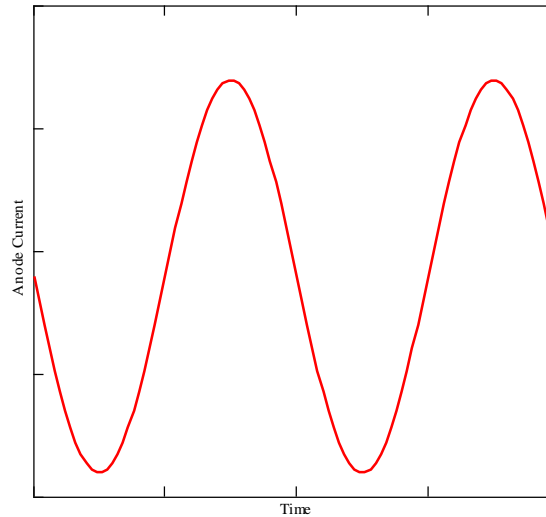
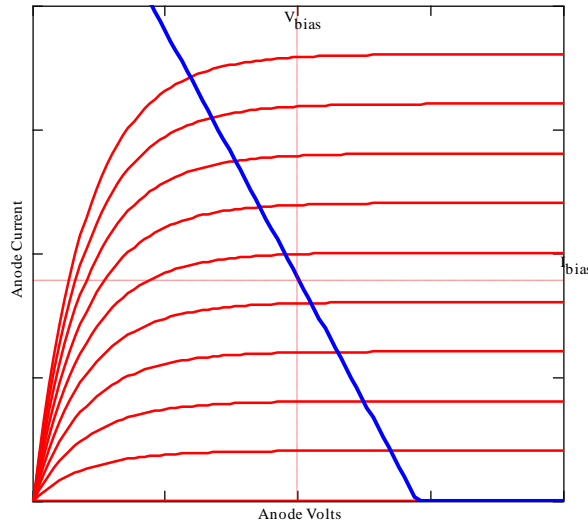
Power Amplifier Bias

- The power amplifier converts DC energy into RF energy.
- With no RF input into the amplifier, the Power amplifier sits at its DC bias.
- The DC bias point is calculated from the intersection of the tube characteristics with the outside load line

$$I_A = \frac{V_{A0} - V_A}{R} + I_{A0}$$



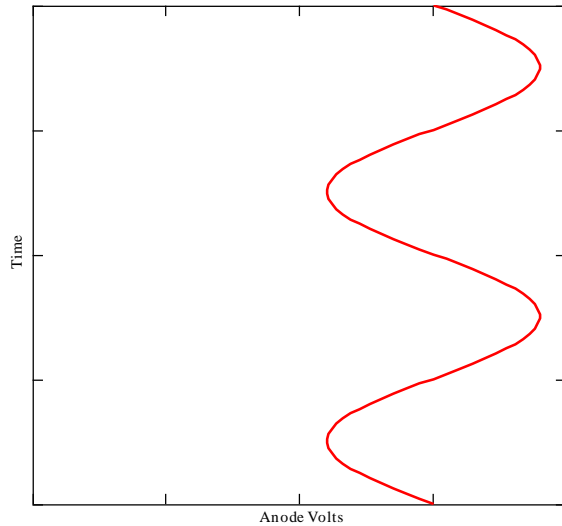
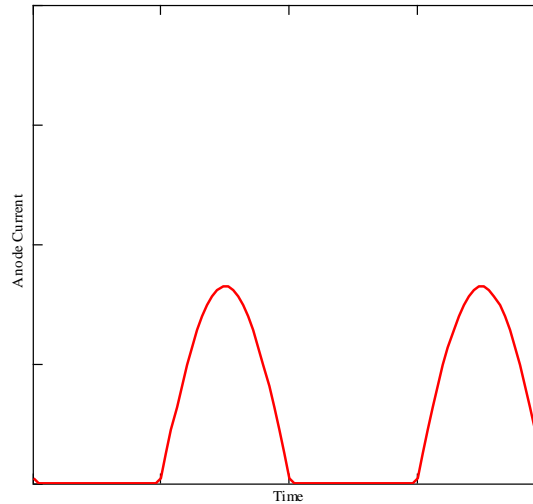
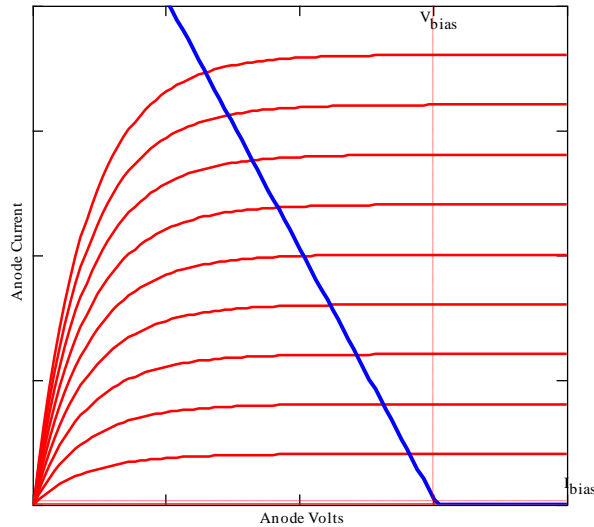
Class A Bias



- In Class A, the tube current is on all the time - even when there is no input.
- The tube must dissipate

$$P_{dis} = I_{A_{dc}} V_{A_{dc}} - \frac{1}{2} I_{A_{ac}} V_{A_{ac}}$$
- The most efficient the power amplifier can be is 50%

Class B Bias



- In Class B, the tube current is on $\frac{1}{2}$ of the time
- The tube dissipates no power when there is no drive
- The output signal harmonics which must be filtered
- The efficiency is much higher (>70%)