



# Calibration of superconducting radio-frequency cavity forward and reflected channels based on stored energy dynamics

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## Abstract

Modern superconducting radio-frequency linear accelerators require the cavity bandwidth and detuning to be within a specified range to maximize the efficiency of the machine. To correctly estimate these states during operation, the measured RF signals should be calibrated. Due to the finite isolation of the waveguide directional couplers, cross-coupling effects in the forward and reflected channels complicate the calibration of the RF signals in Low-Level RF control systems. Past work proposed a compensation method employing least-squares optimization. This method requires the directivity of the directional couplers to be much higher than one. Additionally, the algorithm requires a tuning parameter to optimize the calculated calibration. However, for some accelerating systems, finding an acceptable value for such a parameter is challenging and time-consuming. In this paper, we present a way to overcome these limitations by performing a nonlinear least square optimization constrained by energy conservation laws. The method is tested with L-band superconducting resonators at loaded quality factors of  $4.6 \cdot 10^6$  and  $2.8 \cdot 10^7$ .

*Keywords:* LLRF, Signal calibration, Superconducting RF, Accelerating cavities

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

The task of continuously estimating the state of Superconducting Radio-Frequency (SRF) cavities is essential for the efficient operation of linear particle accelerators. The cavity unloaded quality factor or  $Q_0$  is related to the losses dissipated in the cryogenic system

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$$P_{cryo} = \frac{U}{\omega_0 Q_0}, \quad (1)$$

with  $P_{cryo}$  the dissipated power,  $U$  the stored electromagnetic energy inside the RF cavity and  $\omega_0$  the cavity resonance in angular frequency [1].  $Q_0$  is related to the cavity half bandwidth  $\omega_{1/2}$

$$\omega_{1/2} = \frac{\omega_0}{2} \left( \frac{1}{Q_0} + \frac{1}{Q_{ext}} \right) = \frac{\omega_0}{2Q_L}, \quad (2)$$

with  $Q_{ext}$  the external quality factor, which describes the coupling strength between the superconducting cavity and the transmission line used to transfer power from the RF amplifier to the resonator.  $Q_L$  is the loaded quality factor. Assuming  $Q_{ext}$  to be constant during operations, the variations in cryogenic heat losses can be estimated by measuring  $\omega_{1/2}$ . It is also assumed  $Q_0 \gg Q_{ext}$  during nominal operation. Therefore a cavity quench, that reduces  $Q_0$  by several orders of magnitude, makes  $\omega_{1/2}$  deviating from  $\approx \frac{\omega_0}{2Q_{ext}}$ . A protection system needs to shut the RF drive as soon as a variation of  $\omega_{1/2}$  is detected to prevent excessive heat dissipation in the cryogenic system. When not caught, quenches can result in increased downtime or, in extreme cases, in damages to the cryogenic system [2]. In short pulse particle accelerators like European XFEL (EuXFEL) [3], this can be accomplished by measuring the time constant of the RF field decay. However, for Continuous Wave (CW) or pulsed machines with a duty factor of several ten percent, alternative methods have to be used.

Another important parameter that needs to be estimated in real-time is the cavity detuning  $\Delta\omega$ . Such a parameter describes the difference between the frequency of the high-power driving signal and the cavity resonance frequency. For on-crest acceleration, detuning increases the required power  $P_{RF}$  needed to drive an RF resonator at a certain voltage[4]

$$P_{RF} = \frac{|V_P|^2}{4\frac{r}{Q}Q_L} \left[ \left( 1 + \frac{\frac{r}{Q}Q_L I_b}{|V_P|} \right)^2 + \frac{\Delta\omega^2}{\omega_{1/2}^2} \right], \quad (3)$$

where  $r/Q$  is the shunt impedance,  $V_P \in \mathbb{C}$  the accelerating voltage or *calibrated probe signal* and  $I_b$  the beam current. The real and imaginary parts of  $V_P$  represent respectively in In-phase and Quadrature (I&Q) components. Estimating and correcting for  $\Delta\omega$  during operations maximizes the efficiency



Figure 1: S.P.A. FERRITE, WDHC 3-3A bi-directional coupler for 1.3 GHz waveguides used at EuXFEL. The declared directivity is 40 dB

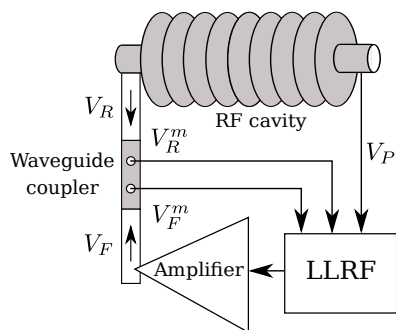


Figure 2: Simplified RF cavity-based accelerating system. A waveguide connects the high-power amplifiers to the cavity. On the waveguide, a bidirectional coupler is used to sample the forward  $V_F$  and reflected  $V_R$  RF components.

42 of the accelerator. The efficient operation of the RF cavities results also in a  
 43 reduction in cost and size of the RF amplifiers.

44 Already since years, FPGA-based LLRF control systems are capable of  
 45 calculating  $\Delta\omega$  and  $\omega_{1/2}$  in real-time using model-based approaches [5, 6]. To  
 46 perform the estimation, the measured RF cavity probe and forward signals  
 47 are used. However, imperfections in the RF measurement chain result in  
 48 errors in the estimated states. One of the most important systematic errors  
 49 in the measurements arises from waveguide directional couplers (Fig. 1) used  
 50 to sample the forward ( $V_F$ ) RF signal sent from the RF high-power amplifier  
 51 and reflected ( $V_R$ ) wave at the cavity power coupler. Since these devices  
 52 have a finite directivity, the measured signals  $V_F^m$  and  $V_R^m$  are affected by the  
 53 opposite components (Fig. 2). Therefore, to correct the measured signals for  
 54 this effect, it is necessary to apply a calibration matrix as described in [7]

$$V_F = aV_F^m + bV_R^m \quad (4)$$

$$V_R = cV_F^m + dV_R^m \quad (5)$$

55 where  $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{C}$  represent the signal calibration of  $V_F$  and  $V_R$ . For the  
 56 model of Eq. 4,5, it is assumed that the directional coupler behaves as a  
 57 linear device. In principle, with an accurate RF characterization of the whole  
 58 chain, it would be possible to estimate the parameters of Eq. 4,5. However,  
 59 in practice, this procedure might be excessively time-consuming, error-prone,  
 60 and affected by drifts like the humidity and temperature dependence of RF  
 61 cables.

## 62 2. DISCUSSION ON THE CURRENT METHODS FOR SIGNAL 63 CALIBRATION

64 Another way to estimate  $a, b, c, d$  is to characterize the accelerating system  
 65 by relying completely on the measurements performed by the LLRF system.  
 66 Assuming  $V_P$  is already calibrated using beam-based methods or by RF  
 67 power-based methods, the simplest form of calibration can be performed  
 68 using a general result from the physics of transmission lines

$$V_P(n) = V_F(n) + V_R(n) \quad \forall n \in N, \quad (6)$$

69 where  $N$  is the set of the indices of the recorded data samples. Eq. 6 states  
 70 that the sum of the forward and reflected waves at the end of the transmission

line is equal to the voltage on the termination load which, in this case, is the SRF cavity. It is important to point out that, using Eq. 6,  $V_F$  and  $V_R$  are not defined anymore as the amplitude of the RF signals in the waveguide. Instead,  $V_F$  and  $V_R$  now represent the transformed voltages when considering the cavity power coupler as an electrical transformer [1]. The advantage of such a decision is that, while still having calibrated values proportional to the RF fields in the waveguide, it avoids requiring the parameters of the cavity power coupler in the equations. Under these considerations, Eq. 4,5 still hold.

### 2.1. Diagonal calibration

If the effect of the finite directivity is negligible for the intended application, the non-diagonal terms  $b, c$  of Eq. 4,5 can be set to zero and only  $a, d$  are used. It is then possible to find the diagonal terms of the over-determined system of Eq. 6 using a least square optimization for linear systems [8].

### 2.2. Calibration from Pfeiffer et al.

If the effect of the directivity on the measurements makes the use of the diagonal calibration method not viable, all the parameters of Eq. 4,5 have to be used. This results in Eq. 6 being not constrained enough and having an infinite number of solutions for  $a, b, c, d$ . A way to solve this issue is presented in [7] by Pfeiffer et al. This method requires the data to represent an RF pulse in the SRF resonator. The data is then divided into two parts

$$N = N_{pulse} \cup N_{decay}, \quad (7)$$

with  $N_{pulse}$  the set of the indices when the amplifier that excites the cavity is generating an RF signal and  $N_{decay}$  the set of indices when the same amplifier is switched off and the cavity field does an unforced decay. Then additional constraints are added

$$V_F(n) = 0 \quad \forall n \in N_{decay}, \quad (8)$$

$$V_R(n) = V_P(n) \quad \forall n \in N_{decay}. \quad (9)$$

Eq. 8,9 state that the forward signal  $V_F$  is equal to zero during the decay period and, as a consequence of Eq. 6, the reflected signal  $V_R$  is equal to the probe signal. The above constraints turn out to be too strict, since the measurement noise results in Eq. 6 to be solved only for  $a, b = 0$ . Having an

100 RF calibration that results in  $V_F(n) = 0 \quad \forall n \in N$  is physically meaningless.  
 101 Therefore additional constraints are added to penalize the magnitude of  
 102  $|b|, |c|$ . These constraints can be strengthened by adjusting the weighing  
 103 parameter  $k_{add}$ .

104 Even though the above method has shown to be effective and reliable  
 105 in calibrating cavity signals at EuXFEL, some limitations might prevent its  
 106 practical application in other facilities:

- 107 1. The suggested procedure is to evaluate the calibration with  $k_{add} = 1$ .  
 108 If the computed calibration is not satisfactory, the calibration should  
 109 be repeated at different values of the parameter. Then, the result that  
 110 minimizes the standard variation of the estimated cavity bandwidth on  
 111 the calibrated signals is chosen. Such an operation is time-consuming  
 112 and, at certain facilities (e.g. at the ELBE accelerator at Helmholtz  
 113 Zentrum Dresden-Rossendorf [9]) the algorithm is not able to estimate  
 114 the calibration parameters in a stable and reliable manner.
- 115 2. The procedure assumes the ratio

$$|\mathbf{S}_{ab}| \simeq \frac{1}{|N_{decay}|} \sum_{n \in N_{decay}} \left| \frac{V_R^m(n)}{V_F^m(n)} \right| \ll 1. \quad (10)$$

116 Therefore Eq. 10 requires the directivity of the waveguide couplers to  
 117 be much smaller than unity. This might not be true for every facility.

- 118 3. Systems that show a significant reflection of  $V_R$  back to the cavity are  
 119 not expected to fulfill Eq. 10. This may happen, for example, if a  
 120 mismatched RF element is present in the waveguide system.

### 121 3. DERIVATION OF THE ENERGY-BASED CALIBRATION METHOD

122 To overcome the limitations of the above methods, we present a new  
 123 calibration procedure that is based on the superconducting cavity system  
 124 dynamics. Using the RF cavity equation in complex form[10]

$$\frac{dV_P}{dt} = -(\omega_{1/2} + j\Delta\omega)V_P + 2\omega_{1/2}V_F. \quad (11)$$

125 It is assumed that  $\omega_{1/2}$  is known and constant during the RF pulse used in  
 126 the calibration, while  $\Delta\omega$  is unknown and generally time-varying. Then,  $\overline{V_P}$   
 127 is multiplied on both sides of Eq. 11. By taking the real part of Eq. 11, an

equation that describes the dynamics of the stored energy inside the cavity  
and does not depend on  $\Delta\omega$  is derived

$$\frac{1}{2\omega_{1/2}} \frac{d|V_P(n)|^2}{dt} + |V_P(n)|^2 = 2\Re\{\overline{V_P}(n)V_F(n)\}, \quad (12)$$

$$\forall n \in N.$$

The condition of Eq. 12 can be further elaborated by substituting the  
non-derivated terms of  $V_P$  with Eq. 6

$$\frac{1}{2\omega_{1/2}} \frac{d|V_P(n)|^2}{dt} = |V_F(n)|^2 - |V_R(n)|^2 \quad \forall n \in N. \quad (13)$$

Since Eq. 13 depends only on the square of the signals, it can be interpreted  
as an energy conservation condition. Eq. 13 states that the variation in  
the stored electromagnetic energy is equal to the difference between the  
forward and reflected power. Apparently, deriving Eq.13 is not necessary  
since Eq. 6 and 12 implicitly describe the energy conservation of the system.  
Moreover, using Eq.13 requires solving an over-determined nonlinear system  
of equations. However, it is found that not using Eq.13 results in an insufficiently  
constrained magnitude of the cross-coupling term of the reflected signal  
and, as a consequence, decreases the accuracy of the calculated calibration  
parameters. Therefore it is possible to formulate an optimization problem to  
find  $a, b, c, d$

$$(a, b, c, d) = \arg \min_{\hat{a}, \hat{b}, \hat{c}, \hat{d}} \sum_{n \in N} |f_{probe}(n; \hat{a}, \hat{b}, \hat{c}, \hat{d})|^2 +$$

$$|f_C(n; \hat{a}, \hat{b}, \hat{c}, \hat{d})|^2 + |f_D(n; \hat{a}, \hat{b})|^2. \quad (14)$$

The terms  $f_{probe}, f_C, f_D$  represent the contributions given by Eq. 6,13 and 12  
defined as

$$f_{probe}(n; \hat{a}, \hat{b}, \hat{c}, \hat{d}) = V_F(n; \hat{a}, \hat{b}) + V_R(n; \hat{b}, \hat{c}) - V_P(n), \quad (15)$$

$$f_C(n; \hat{a}, \hat{b}, \hat{c}, \hat{d}) = \frac{|V_F(n; \hat{a}, \hat{b})|^2 - |V_R(n; \hat{b}, \hat{c})|^2 - C(n)}{\max_{n \in N} |V_P(n)|}, \quad (16)$$



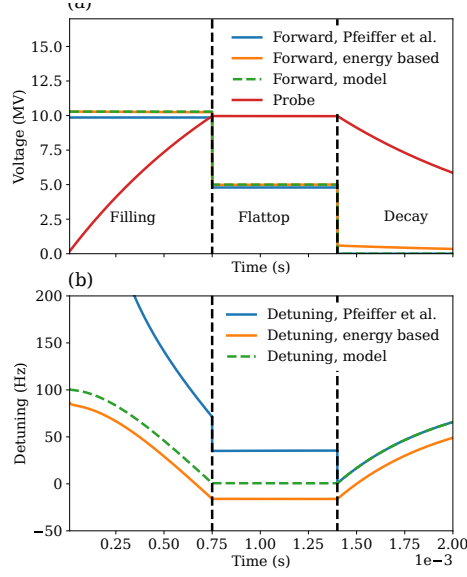


Figure 3: Comparison of different calibration methods with respect to the simulated model. The measurement noise is removed. The probe and forward cavity signals (a) and the estimated detuning (b) are displayed. The model calibration coefficients are  $|a| = 0.976$ ,  $|b| = 0.145$ ,  $|c| = 0.207$ ,  $|d| = 0.879$ . Therefore, the condition  $|\mathbf{S}_{ab}| \ll 1$  is not fulfilled.

146

$$f_D(n; \hat{a}, \hat{b}) = \frac{2\Re\{\overline{V_P}(n)V_F(n; \hat{a}, \hat{b})\} - D(n)}{\max_{n \in N} |V_P(n)|}, \quad (17)$$

$$C(n) = \frac{1}{2\omega_{1/2}} \frac{d|V_P(n)|^2}{dt}, \quad (18)$$

$$D(n) = C(n) + |V_P(n)|^2, \quad (19)$$

147 where Eq. 16 and Eq. 17 are normalized to the maximum amplitude of the  
 148 probe signal to have the same units as Eq. 15. The problem described by  
 149 Eq. 14 can be solved to calculate  $a, b, c, d$ . For this, the *least\_squares* routine  
 150 of the package SciPy[11] is used to numerically find the minimum of Eq. 14.

#### 151 4. SIMULATIONS

152 Multiple sets of simulations are performed to evaluate the performance of  
 153 the algorithm described in the previous section. The model for the simulations

154 is a 1.3 GHz TESLA-like[12] cavity with an half bandwidth  $\omega_{1/2} = 2\pi \cdot$   
155 141.3 Hz as for the EuXFEL accelerator. The pulse structure is chosen to  
156 have an initial *filling* period of 750  $\mu\text{s}$  with  $V_F = 12.14 \text{ MV}$ . After the filling  
157 period a *flattop* period of 650  $\mu\text{s}$  at  $V_F = 5.00 \text{ MV}$  results in a steady state  
158 gradient  $V_P = 10 \text{ MV}$ . Finally, a *decay* period of 600  $\mu\text{s}$  with  $V_F = 0$  ends  
159 the pulse. To add a realistic detuning profile, a predetuning of 100 Hz and a  
160 Lorentz Force Detuning (LFD) component equal to  $-1 \text{ Hz}(\text{MV})^{-2}$  is added  
161 to the simulation. The detuning  $\Delta\omega$  is then

$$\Delta\omega(V_P(t)) = 2\pi(100 - 1 \cdot |V_P(t)|^2). \quad (20)$$

162 Eq. 11 is used to simulate the system with the chosen parameters with a  
163 sample rate  $f_s = 10 \text{ MHz}$ . A Gaussian measurement noise with  $\sigma_n = 1 \text{ kV}$   
164 is added to the simulated traces when evaluating the calibration algorithm.  
165 An example of a simulated cavity pulse with the above parameters is given  
166 in Fig. 3 (a).

167 For the algorithm in [7], it is prescribed to start with  $k_{add} = 1$  and  
168 then vary it to optimize the calibration. However, attempts of varying  $k_{add}$   
169 often result in unsatisfactory local minima in the calibration correctness.  
170 Therefore, since Pfeiffer et al. does not describe how to perform such a  
171 parametric optimization, it is decided to keep  $k_{add} = 1$ . This choice could  
172 result in an unfair comparison with the other methods, but, on the other  
173 hand, it puts all the algorithms roughly at the same level in terms of time for  
174 executing a single calibration. Additionally, this algorithm is always run with  
175  $k_{add} = 1$  when used for calibrating EuXFEL or FLASH. Therefore, the use  
176 of  $k_{add} = 1$  is still representative of the calibration accuracy of the algorithm  
177 compared with how the algorithm itself is used under operating conditions.

178 For the energy based algorithm, Eq. 12,13 require to compute  $\omega_{1/2}$  and  
179  $\frac{d|V_P(n)|^2}{dt}$ . To take into account the effect of  $\sigma_n$  in real scenarios, it is decided  
180 to estimate  $\omega_{1/2}$  in each simulation by doing an exponential fit of  $|V_p(n)|$  on  
181 the decay period. To compute  $\frac{d|V_P(n)|^2}{dt}$  a Savitzky-Golay derivator routine  
182 from [11] is used. The parameters used in *savgol\_filter* are a window length of  
183 201 and a filter order of 3. This results in a signal bandwidth approximately  
184 equal to 62 kHz [13]. Filtering and deriving the square amplitude of the  
185 probe signal results in distortions of the computed trace around the transition  
186 between the filling and flattop and the transition between the flattop and  
187 decay. Therefore, 402 samples are removed from the set  $N$  around these two  
188 transition points. Three simulated datasets with normally distributed values

189 for  $a, b, c, d$  are generated:

- 190 1.  $|\mathbf{S}_{ab}| \approx -40$  dB: in this dataset it is assumed that the conditions of  
 191 the method from Pfeiffer et al. are fulfilled. A randomly distributed  
 192 contribution with  $\sigma_c = 0.01$  is set on  $a, b, c, d$  in every simulation. The  
 193 average of  $a, d$  is  $\mu_{a,d} = 1$ , while, for  $b, c$   $\mu_{b,c} = 0$ .
- 194 2.  $|\mathbf{S}_{ab}| \approx -20$  dB : in this dataset  $\sigma_c = 0.1$
- 195 3.  $|\mathbf{S}_{ab}| \approx -40$  dB **with randomly distributed predetuning**: in this  
 196 dataset  $\sigma_c = 0.01$ . The cavity is simulated with an additional detuning  
 197 component, applied from the beginning of the pulse to its end, which is  
 198 normally distributed with  $\sigma_{det} = 260$  Hz through the different elements  
 199 of the dataset.

| Method          | nRMSE( $\omega_{1/2}^e$ ) % | nRMSE( $\Delta\omega^e$ ) % |
|-----------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| None            | 7.88                        | 8.14                        |
| Diagonal        | 7.57                        | 7.94                        |
| Pfeiffer et al. | 5.83                        | 6.30                        |
| Energy          | 0.05                        | 16.44                       |
| Energy constr.  | 0.05                        | 0.60                        |

Table 1: normalized RMSE bandwidth and detuning estimation errors over  $\omega_{1/2}$  for the  $|\mathbf{S}_{ab}| \approx -40$  dB case

| Method          | nRMSE( $\omega_{1/2}^e$ ) % | nRMSE( $\Delta\omega^e$ ) % |
|-----------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| None            | 80.47                       | 82.64                       |
| Diagonal        | 77.81                       | 81.18                       |
| Pfeiffer et al. | 73.87                       | 65.00                       |
| Energy          | 0.05                        | 18.45                       |
| Energy constr.  | 0.05                        | 0.60                        |

Table 2: normalized RMSE bandwidth and detuning estimation errors over  $\omega_{1/2}$  for the  $|\mathbf{S}_{ab}| \approx -20$  dB case

200 Each dataset contains 1024 different cavity simulations. The calibration  
 201 algorithms are executed on each element of the datasets. Then, the computed  
 202 coefficients are used to calibrate the denoised cavity signals and estimate the  
 203 cavity half bandwidth  $\omega_{1/2}^e(n)$  and detuning  $\Delta\omega^e(n)$  traces. The Root Mean

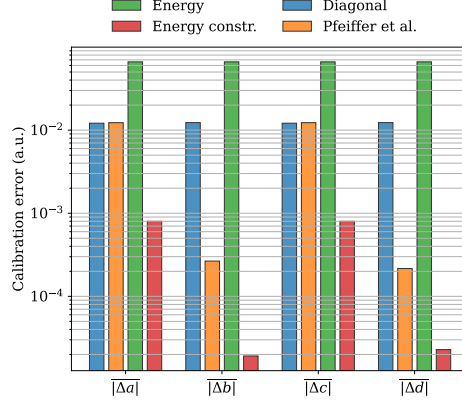


Figure 4: Average errors on the  $a, b, c, d$  parameters for the  $|\mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{ab}}| \approx -40$  dB dataset.

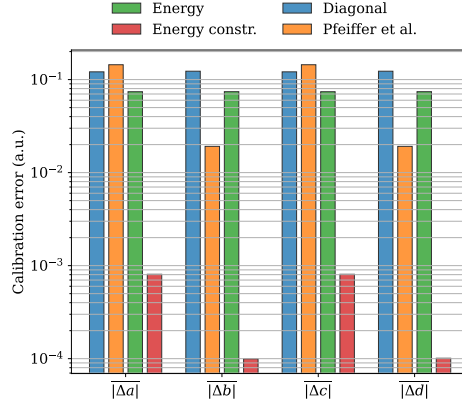


Figure 5: Average errors on the  $a, b, c, d$  parameters for the  $|\mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{ab}}| \approx -20$  dB dataset.

| Method          | nRMSE( $\omega_{1/2}^e$ ) % | nRMSE( $\Delta\omega^e$ ) % |
|-----------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| None            | 7.97                        | 8.21                        |
| Diagonal        | 7.69                        | 8.01                        |
| Pfeiffer et al. | 5.90                        | 5.90                        |
| Energy          | 0.02                        | 30.62                       |
| Energy constr.  | 0.02                        | 0.20                        |

Table 3: normalized RMSE bandwidth and detuning estimation errors over  $\omega_{1/2}$  for the  $|\mathbf{S}_{ab}| \approx -40$  dB *with randomly distributed predetuning* case

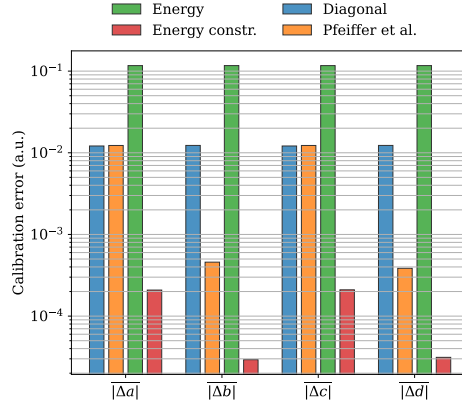


Figure 6: Average errors on the  $a, b, c, d$  parameters for the  $|\mathbf{S}_{ab}| \approx -40$  dB *with randomly distributed predetuning*: dataset.

204 Square Error (RMSE) normalized to  $\omega_{1/2}$  of  $\omega_{1/2}^e(n), \Delta\omega^e(n)$  with respect  
205 to the underlying model is used to evaluate the goodness of the different  
206 calibration procedures. Additionally, the average absolute error on each  
207 calibration parameter is calculated. For the  $|\mathbf{S}_{ab}| \approx -40$  dB dataset, Tab. 1  
208 shows that the algorithm from Pfeiffer et al. results in the reduction of  
209 roughly 2% nRMSE compared to the uncompensated case. The diagonal  
210 calibration method does not result in a significant nRMSE improvement.  
211 The energy calibration, even if results in only a 0.05% nRMSE for the  
212 half bandwidth computation, results in an error for the detuning twice as  
213 big as the uncorrected case. Fig. 4 shows that for the energy calibration,  
214 the average error on the  $a, b, c, d$  parameters is the highest among all the  
215 calibration methods. This result hints that the energy-based method is

216 insufficiently constrained. Then, the  $|\mathbf{S}_{ab}| \approx -20$  dB dataset is analyzed. In  
 217 Tab. 2 the error for the detuning and bandwidth measured for the diagonal  
 218 and Pfeiffer et al. methods is comparable to  $\omega_{1/2}$  and only slightly better  
 219 than the uncorrected case. This comes with no surprise since these methods  
 220 are suited for small to zero values for  $b, c$ . For the energy-based method,  
 221 the errors on detuning and bandwidth for the  $|\mathbf{S}_{ab}| \approx -20$  dB dataset are  
 222 similar to the  $|\mathbf{S}_{ab}| \approx -40$  dB case. Further qualitative investigations on the  
 223 detuning and bandwidth give an explanation for such a behavior. Fig. 3 (b)  
 224 shows that, even though the energy calibration resulted in an estimated  
 225 detuning trace that matches the shape of the detuning model, it presents  
 226 a constant difference between the two traces. The algorithm of Pfeiffer et  
 227 al. shows a detuning trace that significantly deviates from the model in  
 228 the filling and flattop period but matches it in the decay period. A similar  
 229 behaviour is found in all the analyzed simulations. This finding motivates  
 230 a modification of the original version of the calibration algorithm. The  
 231 constrain of Eq. 9 is included to Eq. 14. This *energy constrained* calibration  
 232 method improves the detuning estimation by reducing the  $\text{nRMSE}(\omega_{1/2}^e)$  to  
 233 less than 1%, making it the most precise method with respect to the other  
 234 algorithms. Fig. 5 shows that the energy-constrained algorithm results in  
 235 an error on the calibration parameters more than two orders of magnitude  
 236 smaller with respect to the other methods. The same is confirmed in the  
 237  $|\mathbf{S}_{ab}| \approx -40$  dB *with randomly distributed predetuning* dataset. While for  
 238 the other algorithms, the nRMSE for detuning and bandwidth is similar or  
 239 worse than the simple  $|\mathbf{S}_{ab}| \approx -40$  dB case, the energy-constrained method  
 240 improves the estimations by a factor 2 to 3 with respect to the other cases  
 241 (Fig. 6).

## 242 5. MEASUREMENTS ON SRF CAVITY SYSTEMS

243 Measurements are carried out at EuXFEL, at the CryoModule Test Bench  
 244 (CMTB)[14]. Each facility allows to test the algorithms with different cavity  
 245 conditions. In real machines, as opposed to simulations, it is not possible to  
 246 know the ground truth for the detuning estimation. Therefore, the goodness  
 247 of the calibration algorithms is evaluated only by computing the systematic  
 248 estimation errors on the bandwidth flatness. However, since there might  
 249 be other systematic errors on the measurement chain other than the finite  
 250 directivity of the waveguide couplers, the data analysis only gives a lower  
 251 bound on the precision of the algorithm. For the analysis, 1024 traces were

acquired for each facility. The first of these traces is used to calculate the  $a, b, c, d$  parameters. Then, the obtained parameters are used to calibrate all the other measured traces. The estimated  $\omega_{1/2}^e$  is used to calculate the normalized RMSE( $\overline{\omega}_{1/2}^e$ ) defined as

$$\text{nRMSE}(\overline{\omega}_{1/2}^e) = \frac{1}{\omega_{1/2}^{(0)}} \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{n \in N} \left( \sum_{m=1}^M \frac{\omega_{1/2}^{e(m)}(n) - \omega_{1/2}^{(m)}}{M} \right)^2}{|N|}}, \quad (21)$$

where  $\omega_{1/2}^{e(m)}(n)$  represents the estimated model-based bandwidth of the  $m$ -th collected trace and  $\omega_{1/2}^{(m)}$  is calculated using the decay. Since, from the previous section, there are no clear benefits in using the original version of the energy-based calibration method with respect to its constrained version, we decide to just use the improved algorithm in the analysis of the experimental data.

| Method          | nRMSE( $\overline{\omega}_{1/2}^e$ ) % |       |
|-----------------|--|-------|
|                 | EuXFEL                                 | CMTB  |
| None            | 7.05                                   | 14.64 |
| Diagonal        | 4.39                                   | 13.66 |
| Pfeiffer et al. | 2.04                                   | 13.90 |
| Energy constr.  | 0.75                                   | 0.31  |

Table 4: nRMSE of the estimated bandwidth with different calibrations at CMTB, EuXFEL, and AMTF. CMTB and EuXFEL are equipped with 1.3 GHz accelerating cavities.

### 5.1. EuXFEL

The measurements at EuXFEL are performed on a TESLA cavity with a  $Q_L = 4.6 \cdot 10^6$  equivalent to a half bandwidth of  $\omega_{1/2} = 2\pi \cdot 141.3$  Hz. The tests are performed in a closed radio-frequency loop, Generator Driven Resonator (GDR), mode of operation with  $\max_{n \in N} |V_P(n)| = 22.6$  MV. The filling length is 750  $\mu$ s, while the flattop length is 650  $\mu$ s. The expected directivity of the waveguide couplers is in the order of 40 dB. Fig. 7 shows the estimated bandwidth and detuning traces for a single pulse. For the chosen cavity, the energy constrained method gives  $|a| = 0.981$ ,  $|b| = 0.021$ ,  $|c| =$

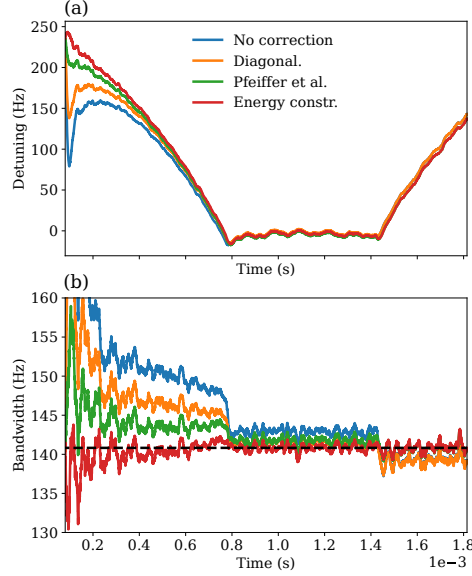


Figure 7: Detuning (a) and bandwidth (b) for the EuXFEL cavity, calculated with different calibrations. The measurements are taken with a closed RF loop. The resonator is a 1.3 GHz TESLA cavity with  $Q_L = 4.6 \cdot 10^6$

0.015,  $|d| = 0.994$ . Therefore, for this cavity, the  $|\mathbf{S}_{ab}| \ll 1$  condition is roughly valid. This is confirmed by the results listed in Tab. 4. The method from Pfeiffer et al. improves the error of the  $\text{nRMSE}(\overline{\omega_{1/2}^e})$  with respect to the uncorrected and diagonal case by a factor roughly 3 and 2 respectively. The energy-constrained method improves the error with respect to the uncorrected case by a factor of 10 and by a factor of 2.7 with respect to Pfeiffer et al.

## 5.2. CMTB

As for the EuXFEL case, the measurements at CMTB are performed on a TESLA cavity.  $Q_L$  is set to  $2.8 \cdot 10^7$  equivalent to  $\omega_{1/2} = 2\pi \cdot 22.5$  Hz. The tests are performed in an open radio-frequency loop GDR mode of operation with  $\max_{n \in N} |V_P(n)| = 10.6$  MV. The filling length is 7500  $\mu\text{s}$ , while the flat-top length is 6500  $\mu\text{s}$ . With the energy constrained method  $|a| = 1.05$ ,  $|b| = 0.038$ ,  $|c| = 0.122$ ,  $|d| = 0.960$ . The high value for  $|c|$  suggests that the method from Pfeiffer et. al would not perform well in calibrating this cavity. This is qualitatively confirmed by Fig. 8 and numerically in Tab. 4. Evaluating the bandwidth with the uncorrected and diagonal methods gives similar results in terms of achieved error. Contrary to this trend, the energy-constrained



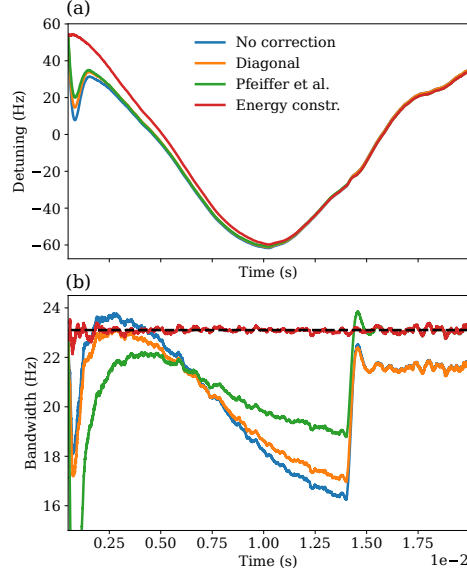


Figure 8: Detuning (a) and bandwidth (b) for the CMTB cavity, calculated with different calibrations. The measurements are taken with an open RF loop. The resonator is a 1.3 GHz TESLA cavity with  $Q_L = 2.8 \cdot 10^7$

algorithm performs even better than the EuXFEL case with an nRMSE of 0.31%.

## 6. CONCLUSION

In this paper, a new method to calibrate the forward and reflected signal of a superconducting cavity is exposed. The algorithm assumes a finite directivity of the waveguide couplers used to sample the forward and reflected signals and corrects it. From the simulations and the experiments performed, the algorithm always improves the correctness of the calibrated signals with respect to all the other techniques used for comparison. In some cases, the signals calibrated with the new method are one order of magnitude or more more precise than the other approaches. Particularly interesting are the measurements performed on a high- $Q_L$  cavity at CMTB. Here, the model-based half bandwidth has an RMSE of just 0.07 Hz when averaging the estimations over multiple pulses. Therefore these results might open new possibilities in using model-based techniques to reliably perform quench detection when a sufficiently low-noise, low-drift LLRF measurement chain is

304 used. Additionally, this technique is particularly useful in high  $Q_L$  accelerating  
 305 systems that require an Hz-scale precision in the compensation of the detuning.  
 306 Some additional work has to be carried out to examine how the technique  
 307 behaves in the presence of a mismatched element that generates a driving  
 308 signal even when the RF amplifier is switched off. In this case, initial  
 309 evaluations show that the algorithm is able to extrapolate the equivalent  
 310 cavity model that includes the frequency,  $Q_L$ , and phase shift generated by  
 311 the reflective component (see appendix A). However, it has still to be seen  
 312 what the consequences are when this reflective element has time-changing  
 313 properties. Such a situation can occur, for example in Vector-Sum (VS)  
 314 systems with poor isolation on the circulators. In this case, all the other  
 315 cavities can perform as variable reflective elements depending on their detuning  
 316 state. Finally, the energy-based constrained calibration algorithm, contrary  
 317 to the other examined techniques, has not a closed mathematical form but is  
 318 given as an optimization problem. This can potentially result in a sub-optimal  
 319 solution depending on the minimization algorithm used. However, this issue  
 320 was not observed so far and the method behaves always in a reliable and  
 321 reproducible manner. In appendix B, a Python implementation of the algorithm  
 322 is given, along with a version of all the other algorithms used in this study.

## 323 7. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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 325 for the 1.3 GHz waveguide directional coupler.

## 326 Appendix A. Calibration in presence of waveguide reflections

327 Since the constraint of Eq. 8 imposes  $V_F$  to be equal to zero in the decay  
 328 period, it is interesting to understand what is the consequence of this choice in  
 329 systems that exhibit reflections of  $V_R$  in the waveguide. It is assumed that the  
 330 waveguide coupler is placed between the accelerating cavity and the reflective  
 331 element  $\Gamma_r$ . Such condition can occur, for example, when the directional  
 332 coupler is placed after a mismatched RF circulator. The directional coupler  
 333 is supposed to have infinite directivity and  $V_F = V_F^m$  and  $V_R = V_R^m$ . Also,  
 334 the group delay  $\tau_g$  of the signal from the cavity power coupler is reflected  
 335 back at  $\Gamma_r \in \mathbb{C}$  is

$$\tau_g \ll \frac{1}{\omega_{1/2}}. \tag{A.1}$$

336 With Eq. A.1 the field inside the waveguide can be approximated as being in  
 337 steady state with respect to the accelerating field of the RF cavity. Therefore  
 338 it is possible to define  $V_F$

$$V_F = V_{F0} + rV_R \quad (\text{A.2})$$

339 with

$$r = \Gamma_r e^{j\omega_0 \tau_g} \quad (\text{A.3})$$

340  $r \in \mathbb{C}$  represents the fraction and the phase of the field that comes from the  
 341 reflective element back to the cavity coupler.  $V_{F0}$  is the part of the forward  
 342 signal that is generated by the RF amplifier. Using Eq. A.2 with Eq. 6

$$\begin{aligned} V_F &= V_{F0} + r(V_P - V_F) \quad \rightarrow \\ V_F &= V_P \frac{r}{r+1} + \frac{V_{F0}}{r+1}. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.4})$$

343 The forward signal derived in Eq. A.4 can be substituted in the cavity  
 344 equations in Eq. 11

$$\frac{dV_P}{dt} = -(\omega_{1/2} + j\Delta\omega + \frac{r}{r+1})V_P + 2\omega_{1/2}\frac{V_{F0}}{r+1} = \quad (\text{A.5})$$

$$= -(\omega_{1/2}^* + j\Delta\omega^*)V_P + 2\omega_{1/2}^*V_F^*, \quad (\text{A.6})$$

345 with the values of the equivalent resonant system identified by the asterisk  
 346 (\*). It is easy to see that the presence of  $r$  modifies the system detuning and  
 347 bandwidth by a constant factor

$$\omega_{1/2}^* = \omega_{1/2} + \Re\left\{\frac{r}{r+1}\right\}, \quad (\text{A.7})$$

$$\Delta\omega^* = \Delta\omega + \Im\left\{\frac{r}{r+1}\right\}, \quad (\text{A.8})$$

$$V_F^* = \frac{\omega_{1/2}}{\omega_{1/2}^*(1+r)}V_{F0}. \quad (\text{A.9})$$

348 Since  $V_F^*$  is proportional to  $V_{F0}$ , it is equal to zero during the decay period.  
 349 Therefore, if the system described in Eq. A.6 is calibrated with the energy  
 350 constrained method, Eq. 6 requires

$$V_P = V_F + V_R = V_F^* + V_R^*. \quad (\text{A.10})$$

351 Using Eq. A.10 with Eq. A.2 and Eq. A.9 gives a linear transformation from  
 352 the original cavity signals to the equivalent cavity model which comprises  
 353 the effect of the reflective element

$$\begin{cases} V_F^* = q(V_F - rV_R), \\ V_F^* + V_R^* = V_F + V_R, \end{cases} \rightarrow \quad (\text{A.11})$$

$$\begin{cases} V_F^* = qV_F - qrV_R & = a^*V_F + b^*V_R, \\ V_R^* = (1 - q)V_F + (1 + rq)V_R & = c^*V_F + d^*V_R, \end{cases} \quad (\text{A.12})$$

with

$$q = \frac{\omega_{1/2}}{\omega_{1/2}^*(1 + r)}. \quad (\text{A.13})$$

354 Therefore Eq. A.12 describes the calibration with parameters  $a^*, b^*, c^*, d^*$  of  
 355 the equivalent system with half bandwidth  $\omega_{1/2}^*$ .

## 356 Appendix B. Implementation of the calibration methods in python

357 Here the code for the diagonal, energy methods, and the one from Pfeiffer et al.  
358 used in the paper is given. The decay traces in the *calibrate\_energy* function  
359 have to be assigned to use the energy-constrained method.

```
360 2
361
362
363 # Copyright 2023 A. Bellandi et al.
364 #
365 # Permission is hereby granted, free of charge, to any person obtaining a copy of this
366 # software and associated documentation files (the "Software"), to deal in the Software
367 # without restriction, including without limitation the rights to use, copy, modify,
368 # merge, publish, distribute, sublicense, and/or sell copies of the Software, and to
369 # permit persons to whom the Software is furnished to do so, subject to the following
370 # conditions:
371 #
372 # The above copyright notice and this permission notice shall be included in all
373 # copies or substantial portions of the Software.
374 #
375 # THE SOFTWARE IS PROVIDED "AS IS", WITHOUT WARRANTY OF ANY KIND, EXPRESS OR IMPLIED,
376 # INCLUDING BUT NOT LIMITED TO THE WARRANTIES OF MERCHANTABILITY, FITNESS FOR A
377 # PARTICULAR PURPOSE AND NONINFRINGEMENT. IN NO EVENT SHALL THE AUTHORS OR COPYRIGHT
378 # HOLDERS BE LIABLE FOR ANY CLAIM, DAMAGES OR OTHER LIABILITY, WHETHER IN AN ACTION
379 # OF CONTRACT, TORT OR OTHERWISE, ARISING FROM, OUT OF OR IN CONNECTION WITH THE
380 # SOFTWARE OR THE USE OR OTHER DEALINGS IN THE SOFTWARE.
381
382 """
383     Calibration methods for SRF cavity accelerating systems. See:
384     Bellandi, Andrea, et al. 'Calibration of superconducting
385     radio-frequency cavity forward and reflected channels based on stored energy dynamics'
386 """
387
388 # Params
389 #
390 # hbw: Cavity half bandwidth in angular frequency
391 # probe_cmplx, vforw_cmplx, vrefl_cmplx: Cavity signal traces in I (real) and Q (imaginary)
392 # probe_cmplx_decay, vforw_cmplx_decay, vrefl_cmplx_decay: Cavity signals on decay
393 # probe_sq_deriv: time derivative of the probe square amplitude
394 # kadd: tuning parameter
395 #
396 # The calibration algorithms returns a 4 complex values array with
397 #
398 # (a, b, c, d) = (arr[0], arr[1], arr[2], arr[3])
399
400 import numpy as np
401 from scipy.optimize import least_squares, lsq_linear
402
403 # ----- Utility functions -----
404
405 def C2RE(x):
406     """
407         Separate the real (even indices) from imaginary (odd indices) parts
408         of a complex array in a real array
409     """
410     result = np.empty(2*np.array(x).shape[0], dtype=float)
411     result[0::2] = np.real(x)
412     result[1::2] = np.imag(x)
413     return result
414
415 def RE2C(x):
416     """
417         Merge the real (even indices) and imaginary (odd indices) parts
418         of a real array in a complex array
419     """
420     x = np.array(x)
421     return x[0::2] + 1.0j * x[1::2]
422
423
424 # ----- Calibration methods -----
425
426 def calibrate_diagonal(probe_cmplx, vforw_cmplx, vrefl_cmplx):
```

```

428 """
429     Classical calibration method. b,c terms are assumed to be zero and
430     probe = a*vforw + d*vrefl
431 """
432 A = np.empty((probe_cmplx.shape[0], 2), dtype=complex)
433 A[:, 0] = vforw_cmplx
434 A[:, 1] = vrefl_cmplx
435
436 b = probe_cmplx
437 calib = lsq_linear(A, b).x
438
439 return np.array([calib[0], 0, 0, calib[1]])
440
441 def calibrate_pfeiffer(probe_cmplx, vforw_cmplx, vrefl_cmplx,
442     probe_cmplx_decay, vforw_cmplx_decay, vrefl_cmplx_decay, kadd=1):
443     """
444     Method from:
445     Pfeiffer, Sven, et al. "Virtual cavity probe generation using calibrated
446     forward and reflected signals." MOPWA040, IPAC, 2015, 15.
447     """
448
449     zeros = np.zeros_like(vforw_cmplx_decay)
450
451     A_probe = np.column_stack([vforw_cmplx, vrefl_cmplx] * 2)
452     A_vforw_cmplx_decay = np.column_stack([vforw_cmplx_decay, vrefl_cmplx_decay, zeros, zeros])
453     A_vrefl_cmplx_decay = np.column_stack([zeros, zeros, vforw_cmplx_decay, vrefl_cmplx_decay])
454
455     (x, -, -, y) = tuple(calibrate_diagonal(probe_cmplx, vforw_cmplx, vrefl_cmplx))
456
457     S = lsq_linear(np.column_stack([-vrefl_cmplx_decay]), vforw_cmplx_decay).x[0]
458
459     Wb = np.abs(S)
460     Wc = kadd*Wb
461
462     A_absx = np.column_stack([np.abs(x)-Wc], [0.0], [1.0/Wc], [0])
463     A_absy = np.column_stack([0.0], [1.0/Wb], [0.0], [np.abs(y)-Wb])
464
465     A = np.vstack([A_probe, A_vforw_cmplx_decay, A_vrefl_cmplx_decay, A_absx, A_absy])
466     b = np.concatenate([probe_cmplx, zeros, probe_cmplx_decay, [np.abs(x)], [np.abs(y)]])
467
468     return lsq_linear(A, b).x
469
470
471 def calibrate_energy(hbw, probe_cmplx, vforw_cmplx, vrefl_cmplx, probe_sq_deriv,
472     probe_cmplx_decay=None, vforw_cmplx_decay=None, vrefl_cmplx_decay=None):
473     """
474     Cavity stored energy-based calibration method.
475     If the decay traces are assigned, the algorithm imposes a zero forward
476     in the decay phase.
477     """
478
479     max_probe_recip = 1.0/np.max(np.abs(probe_cmplx))
480     probe_cmplx_conj = np.conjugate(probe_cmplx)
481     C = probe_sq_deriv/(2*hbw)
482     D = C + np.abs(probe_cmplx)**2
483
484     if (probe_cmplx_decay is None or vforw_cmplx_decay is None or vrefl_cmplx_decay is None):
485         probe_cmplx_decay = np.zeros(0)
486         vforw_cmplx_decay = np.zeros(0)
487         vrefl_cmplx_decay = np.zeros(0)
488
489     # Optimization routine. least squares tries to minimize ||fun(abcd)||
490     def fun(abcd):
491         abcd = RE2C(abcd)
492         vforw_calib = abcd[0] * vforw_cmplx + abcd[1] * vrefl_cmplx
493         vrefl_calib = abcd[2] * vforw_cmplx + abcd[3] * vrefl_cmplx
494
495         vforw_calib_decay = abcd[0] * vforw_cmplx_decay + abcd[1] * vrefl_cmplx_decay
496         vrefl_calib_decay = abcd[2] * vforw_cmplx_decay + abcd[3] * vrefl_cmplx_decay
497
498         # Error of Eq. 5
499         dprobe = vforw_calib + vrefl_calib - probe_cmplx
500
501         # Error of Eq. 10
502         dD = (2.0 * np.real(probe_cmplx_conj * vforw_calib) - D) * max_probe_recip
503
504

```

```

505     # Error of Eq. 11
506     dC = (np.abs(vforw_calib)**2 - np.abs(vrefl_calib)**2 - C) * max_probe_recip
507
508     # Error of Eq. 8
509     dvforw_calib_decay = vforw_calib_decay
510
511     return C2RE(np.concatenate([dprobe, dD, dC, dvforw_calib_decay]))
512
513     # The initial guess for the least squares algorithm is (a=1, b=0, c=0, d=1)
514     return RE2C(least_squares(fun, C2RE([1.0, 0.0, 0.0, 1.0]), method="lm").x)

```

---

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