

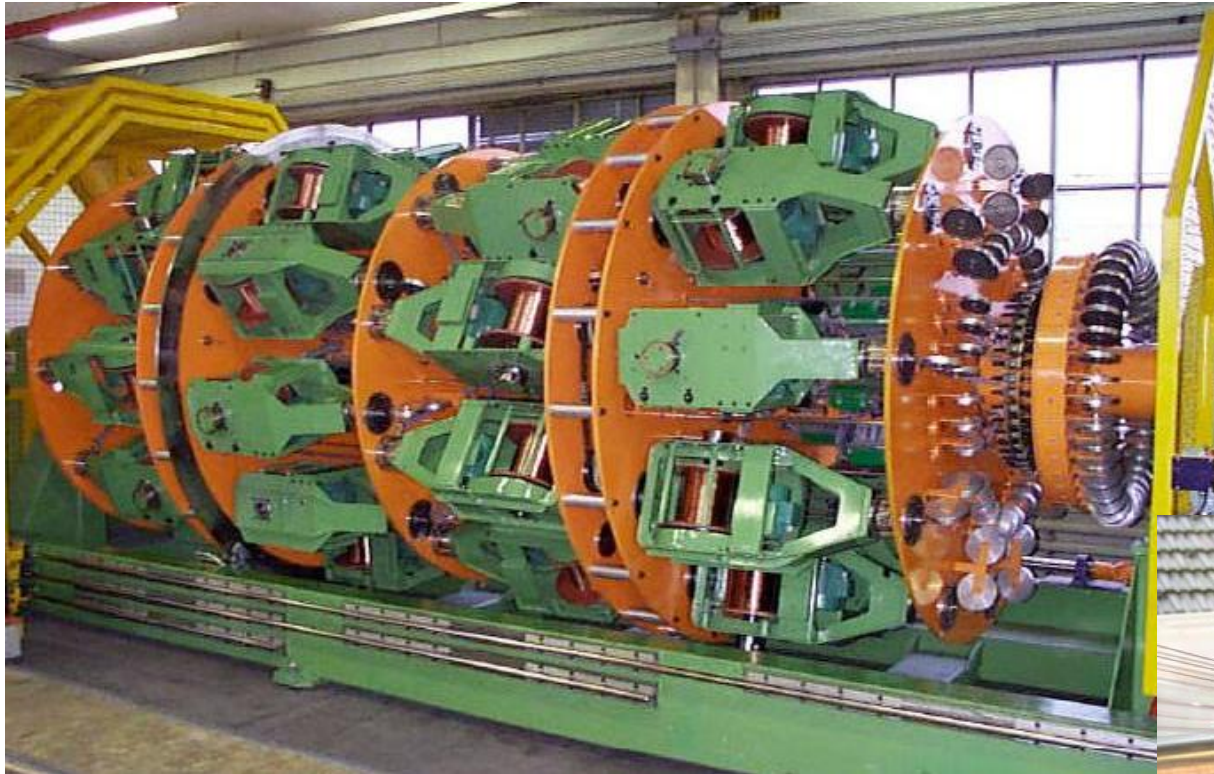


# Motivation - Re-cap

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- The main motivation to design magnets using superconductors is to **abolish Ohm's law**
- This is used either to:
  - Decrease power consumption, and thus improve the performance and operation balance (cost + efficiency) replacing existing technology  $\Rightarrow$  *technology displacer*
  - Allow to reach higher magnetic field, over larger bore and for longer time, allowing new physics or technological opportunities  $\Rightarrow$  *technology enabler*
- *Both these effects are important for accelerators*

# Rutherford cable machine @ CERN



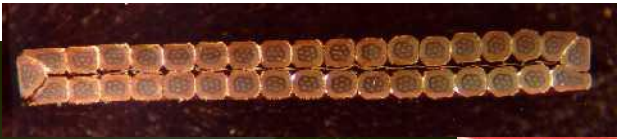
Strand spools on rotating tables

Strands fed through a cabling tongue to shaping rollers

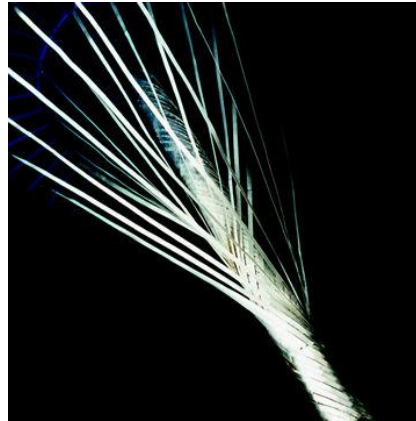


# Superconducting cables

Rutherford



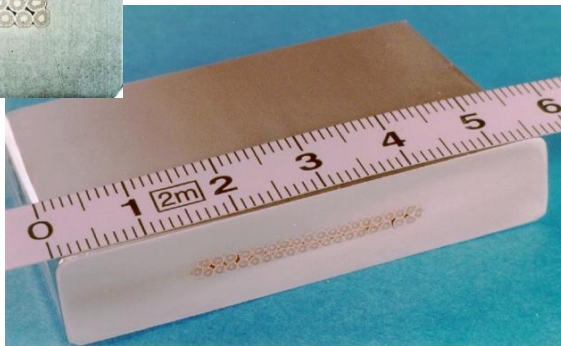
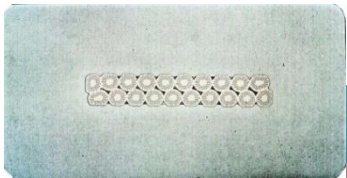
Braids for power transmission



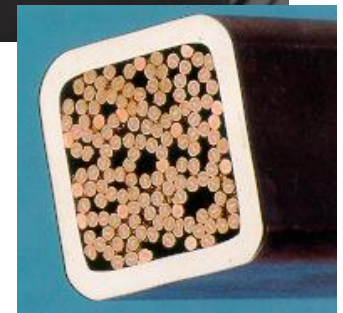
CICC



Super-stabilized



Internally cooled





# From materials to magnets

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- Materials must be made in **high-current wires, tapes and cables** for use in magnets
- The manufacturing route depends, among others on:
  - The material (e.g. alloy or chemical compound),
  - The material synthesis (e.g. reaction conditions or a crystal growth method)
  - The material mechanical properties (e.g. ductile or fragile)
  - The compatibility with other materials involved (e.g. precursors or mechanical supports)





# Operating margins - Re-cap

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- To maximize design and operating margin:
  - Choose a material with **high  $J_C$**  for the desired field
- Logically, we would tend to:
  - **Cool-down** to the lowest practical temperature ( $J_C \uparrow\uparrow$ )
  - Use a **lot of superconductor** ( $J_E \uparrow\uparrow$ )
- However ! Superconductor is expensive, and cooling to low temperature is not always optimal. We shall find out:
  - How much margin is really necessary ? (energy spectrum vs. **stability**)
  - What is the best way to get it ? (**AC loss, cooling**)
  - What if all goes wrong ? (**quench and protection**)

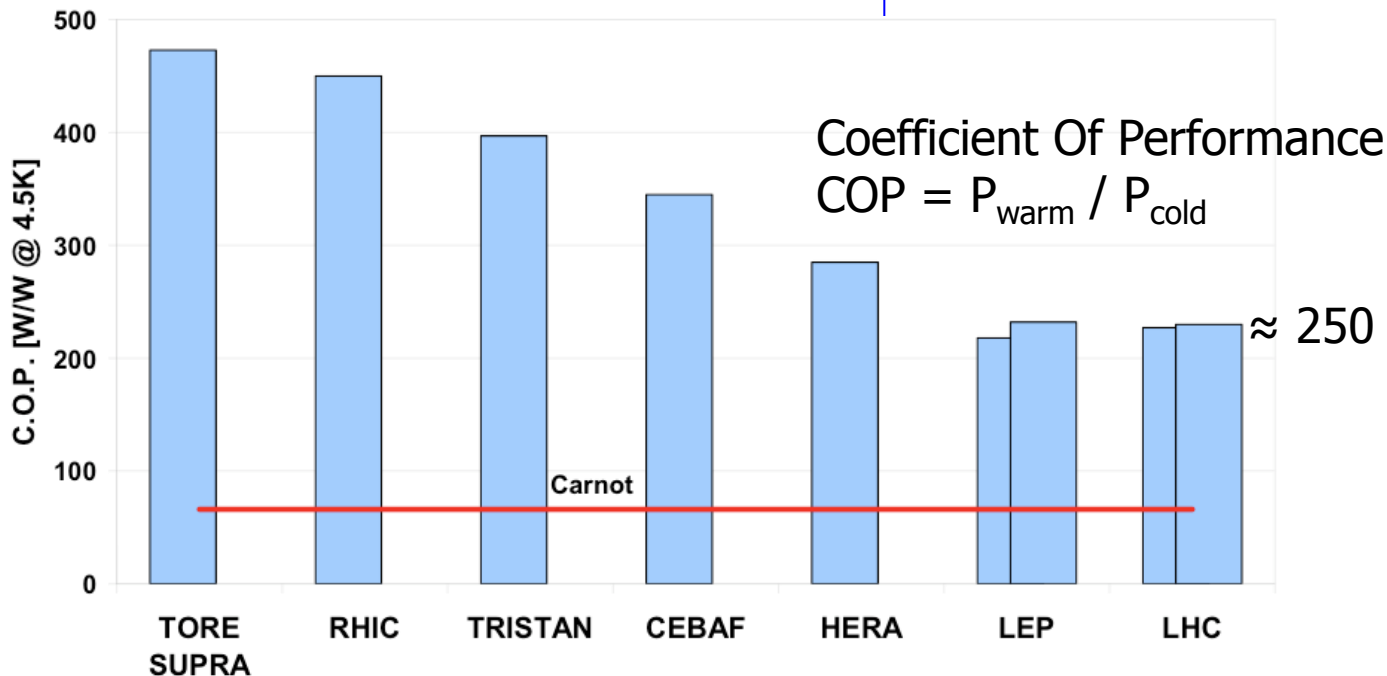
# Basic thermodynamics

- The maximum efficiency that can be achieved by a heat machine is that of the Carnot cycle:

Work at the warm end

Heat at the cold end

$$W/Q = (T_{\text{hot}} - T_{\text{cold}}) / T_{\text{cold}}$$



# Fridge's



Cryocooler: 0.1 W @ 4 K



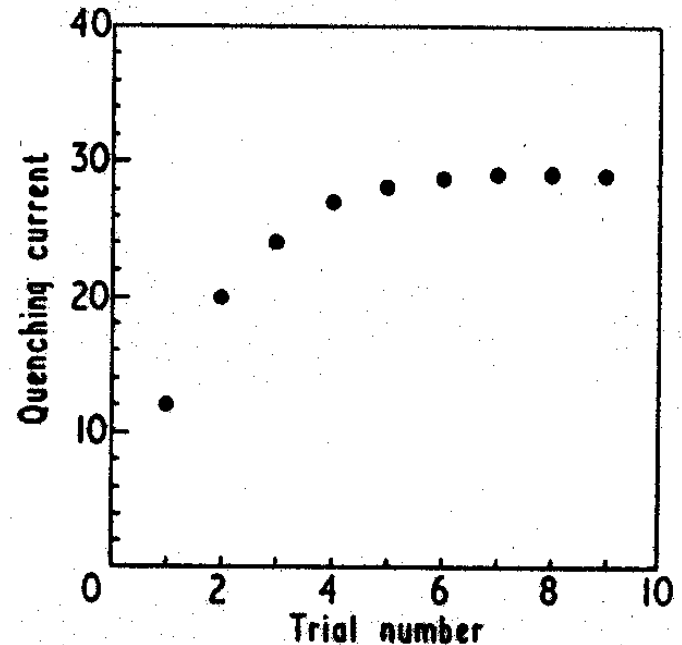
LHC refrigerators: 140 kW @ 4.5 K

# Training...

- Superconducting solenoids built from NbZr and Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn in the early 60's quenched much below the rated current ...
- ... the quench current increased gradually quench after quench: **training**

M.A.R. LeBlanc, Phys. Rev., **124**, 1423, 1961.

**NbZr solenoid  
Chester, 1967**



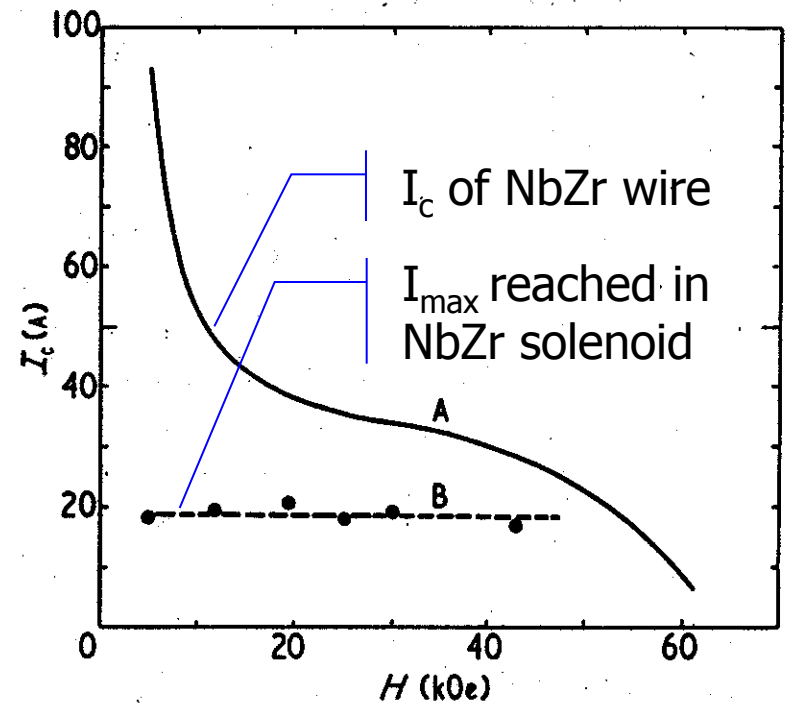
P.F. Chester, Rep. Prog. Phys., **XXX**, II, 561, 1967.



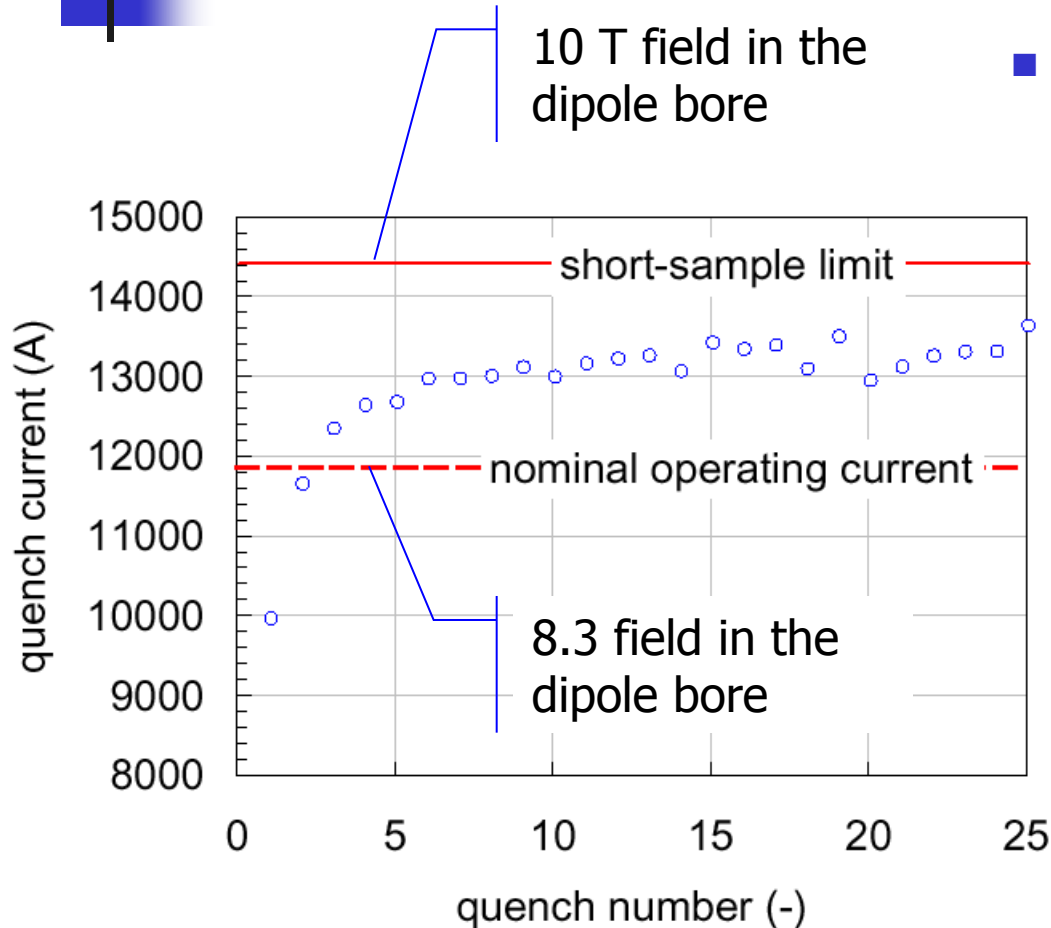
# ... and degradation

- ... but did not quite reach the expected maximum current for the superconducting wire !
- This was initially explained as a local damage of the wire: *degradation*, a very misleading name.
- All this had to do with *stability* !

NbZr solenoid vs. wire  
Chester, 1967



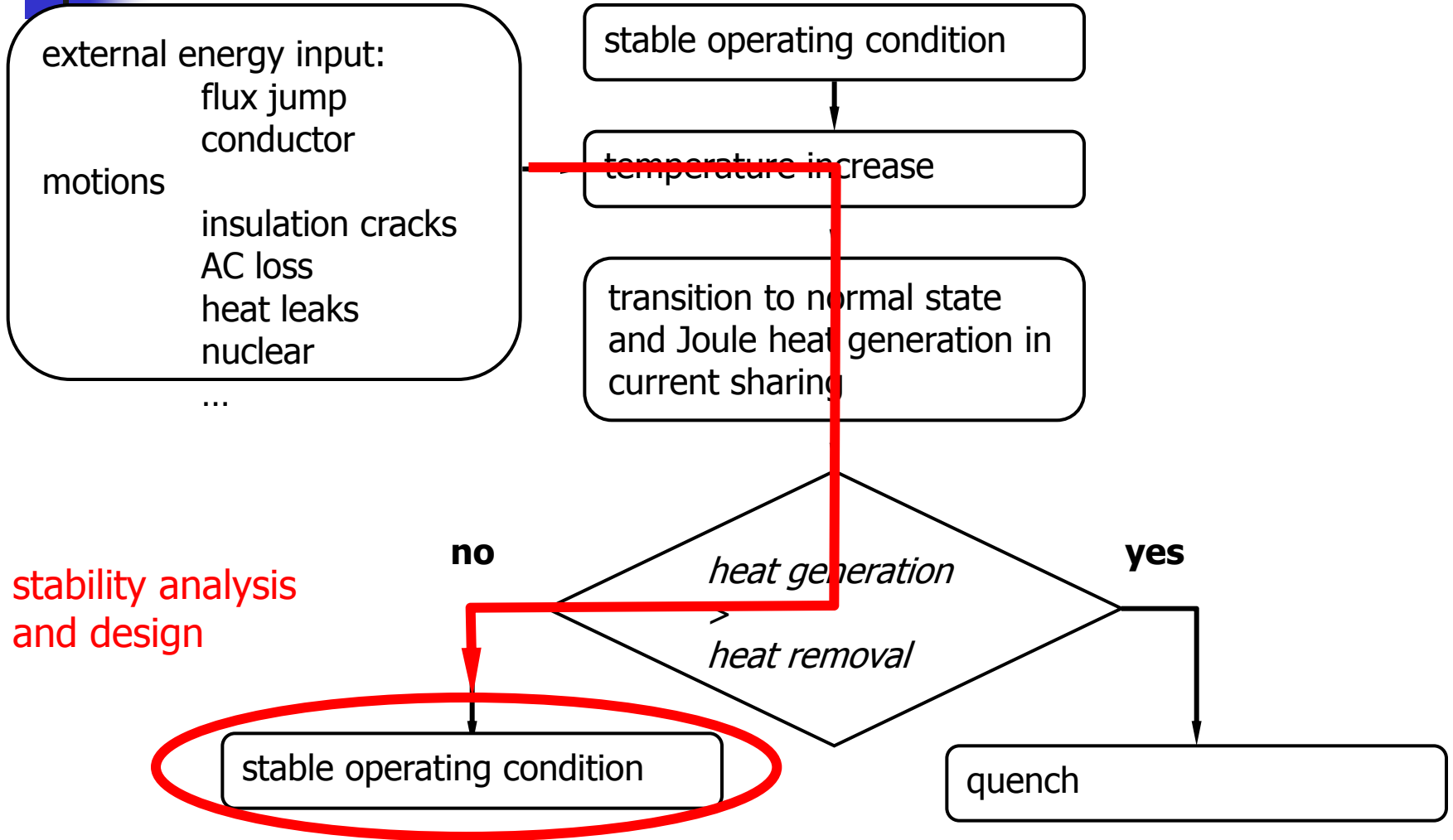
# Training today



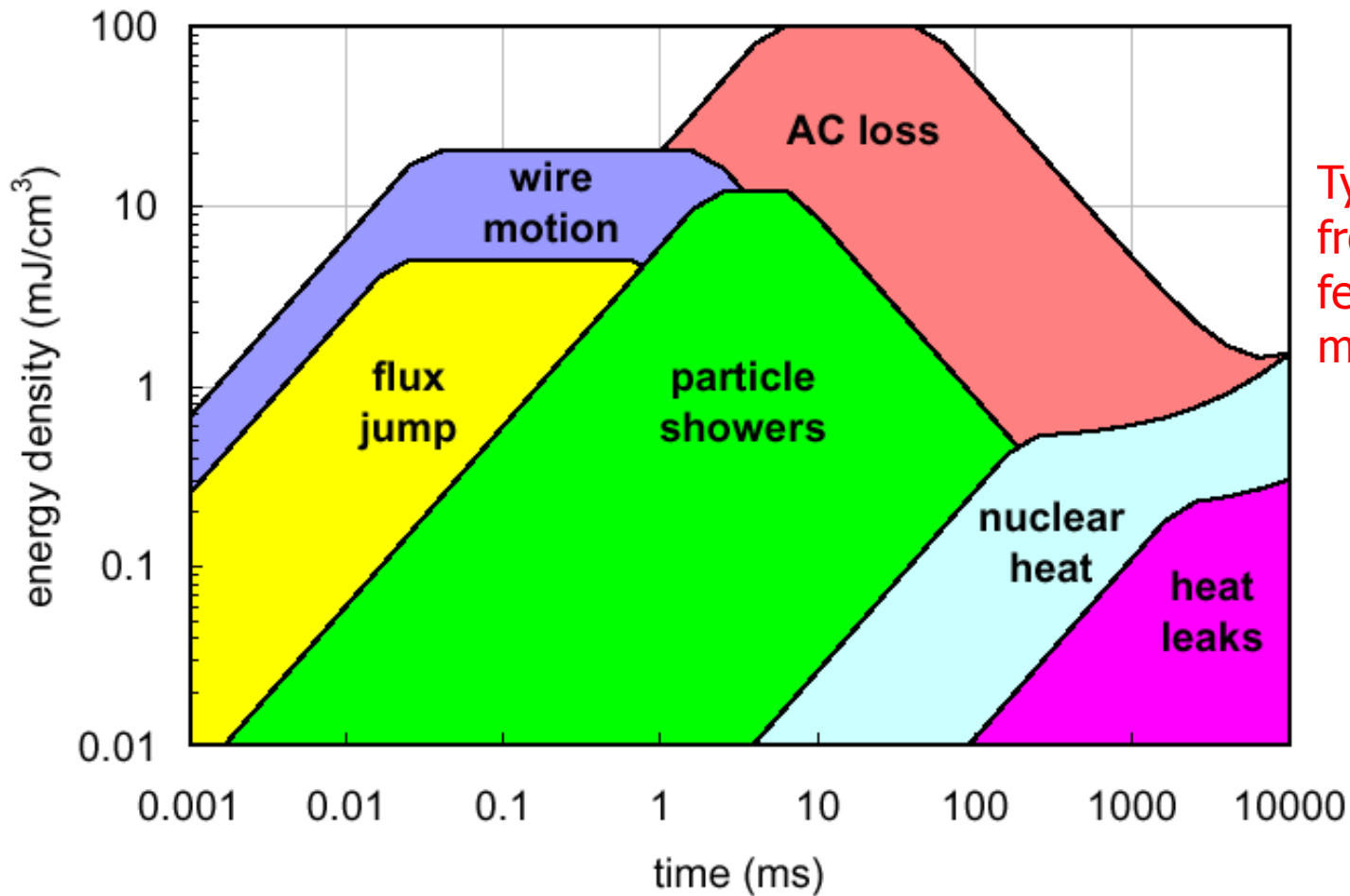
- training of an LHC short dipole model at superfluid helium
  - still (limited) training may be necessary to reach nominal operating current
  - short sample limit is not reached, even after a long training sequence

**stability is (still) important !**

# Why training ?

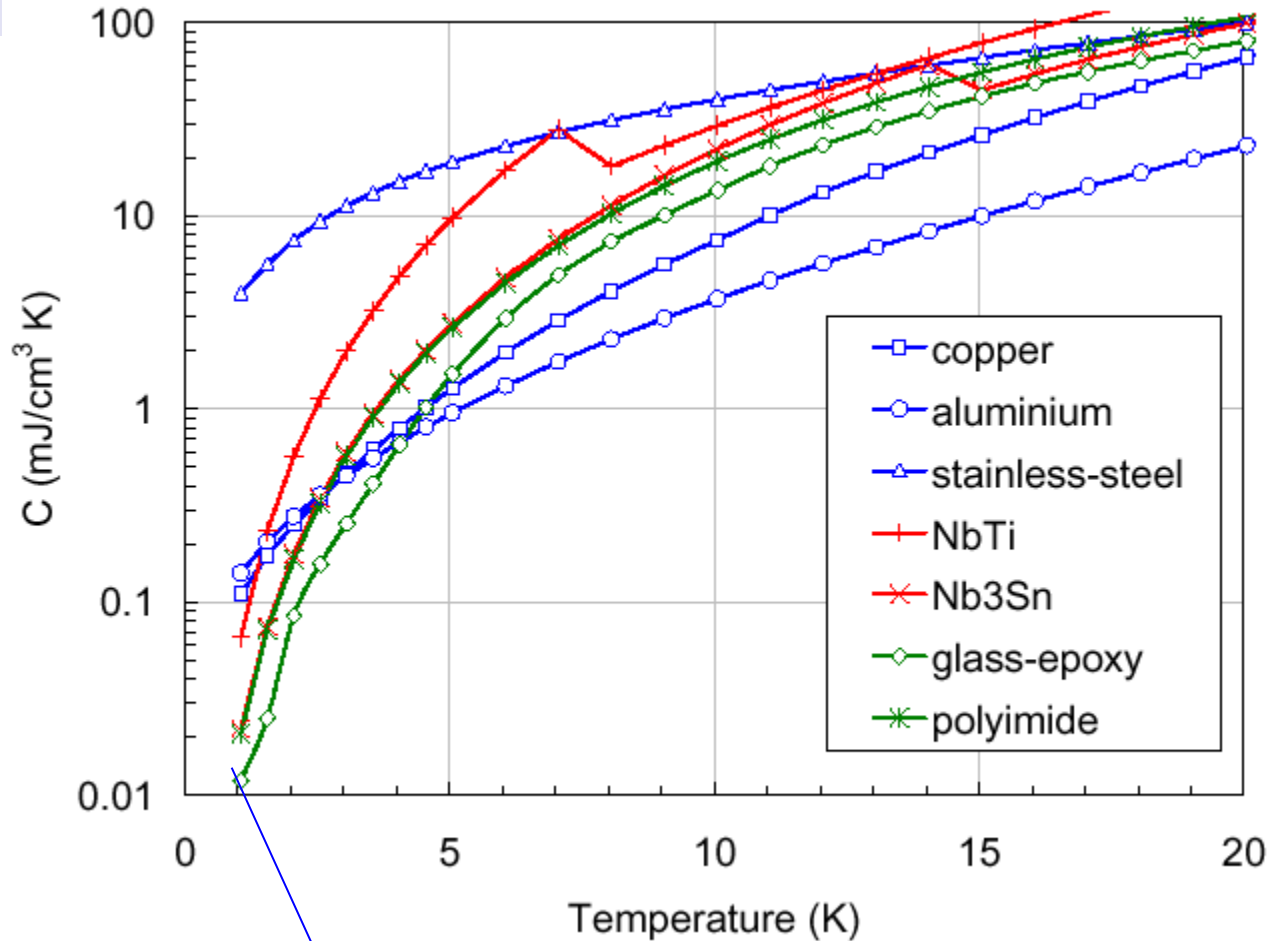


# Perturbation overview



Typical range is from a few to a few tens of mJ/cm<sup>3</sup>

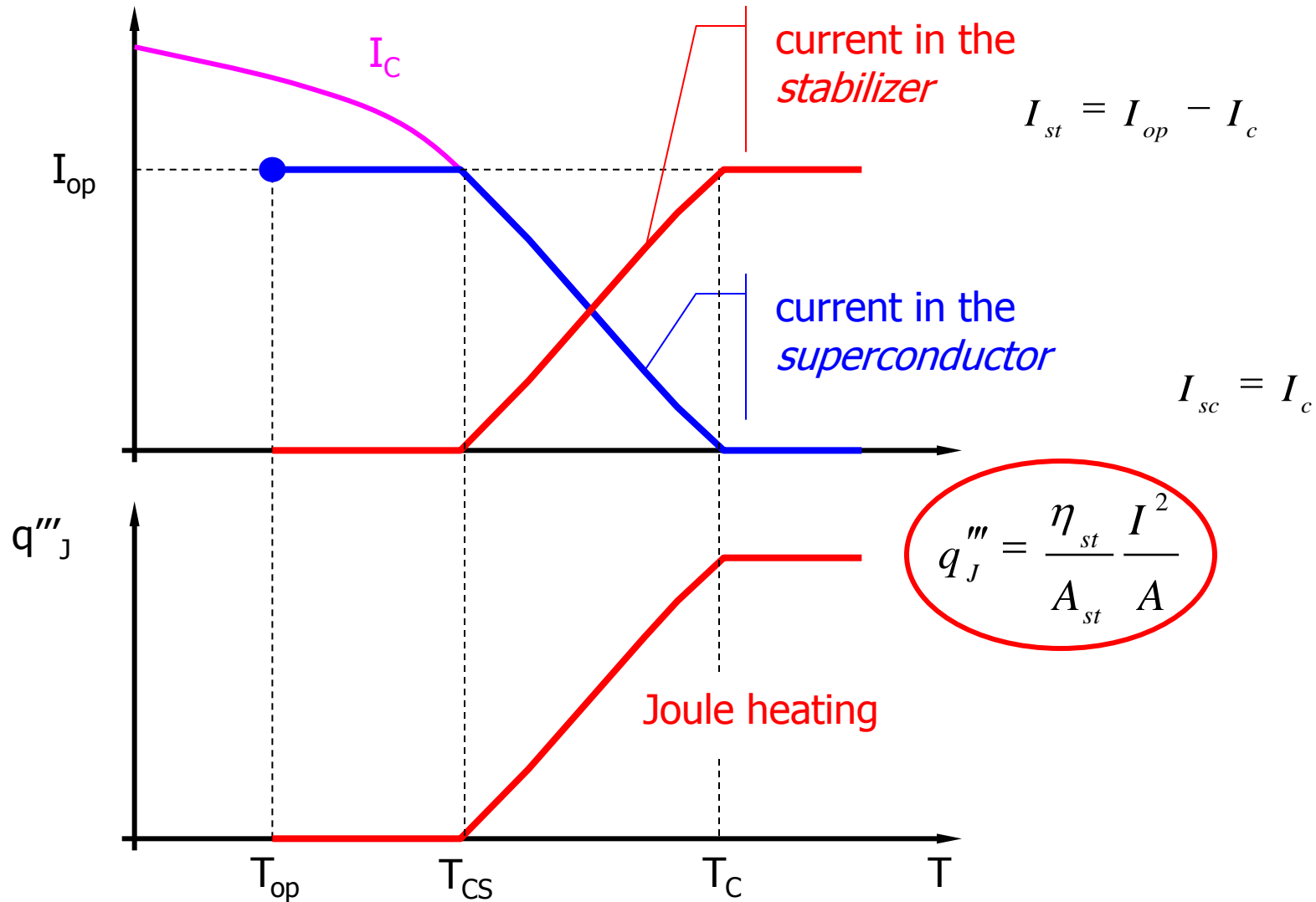
# Low temperature heat capacity



Note that  $C \Rightarrow 0$  for  $T \Rightarrow 0$  !



# Joule heating



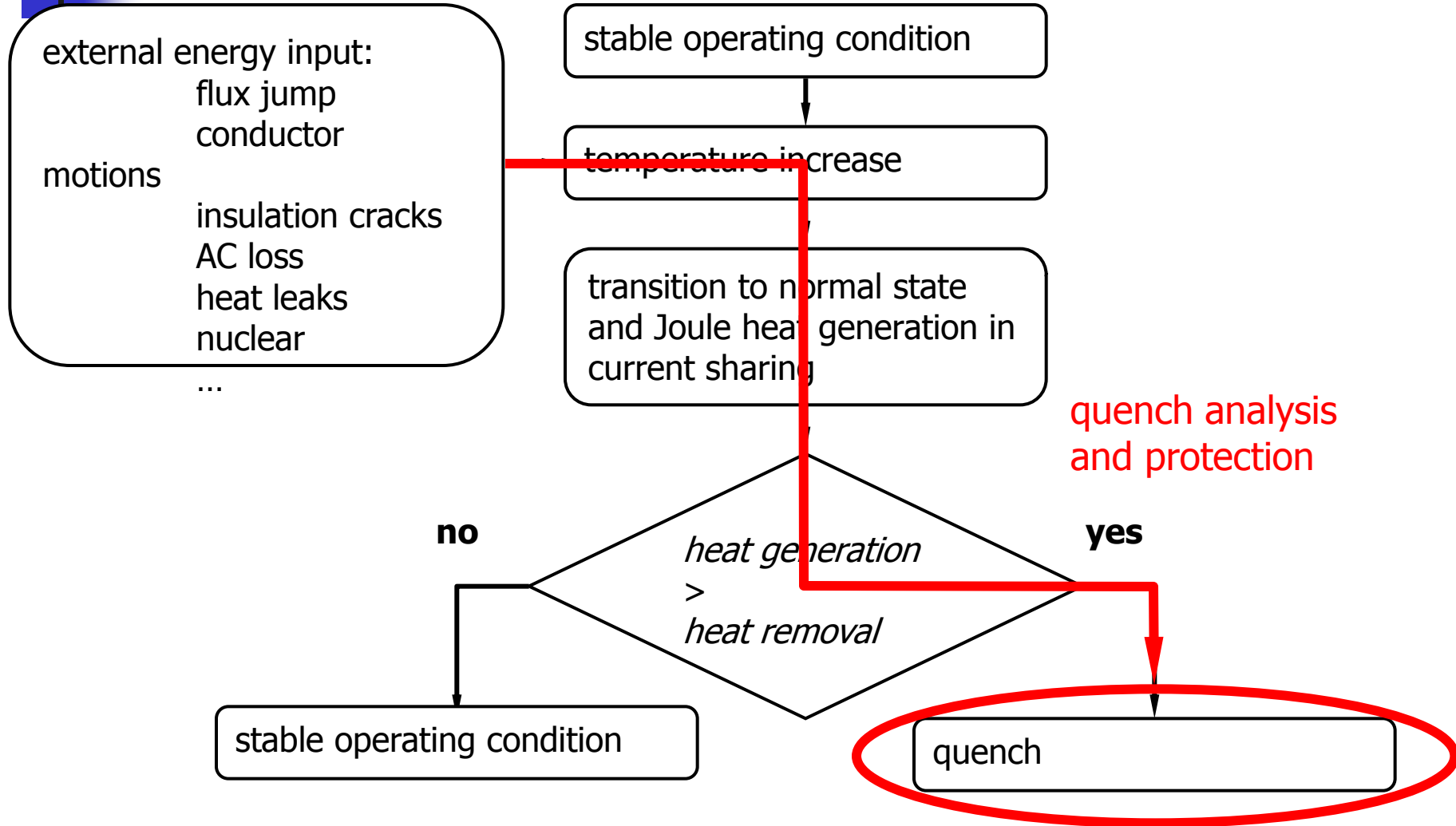


# Stability - Re-cap

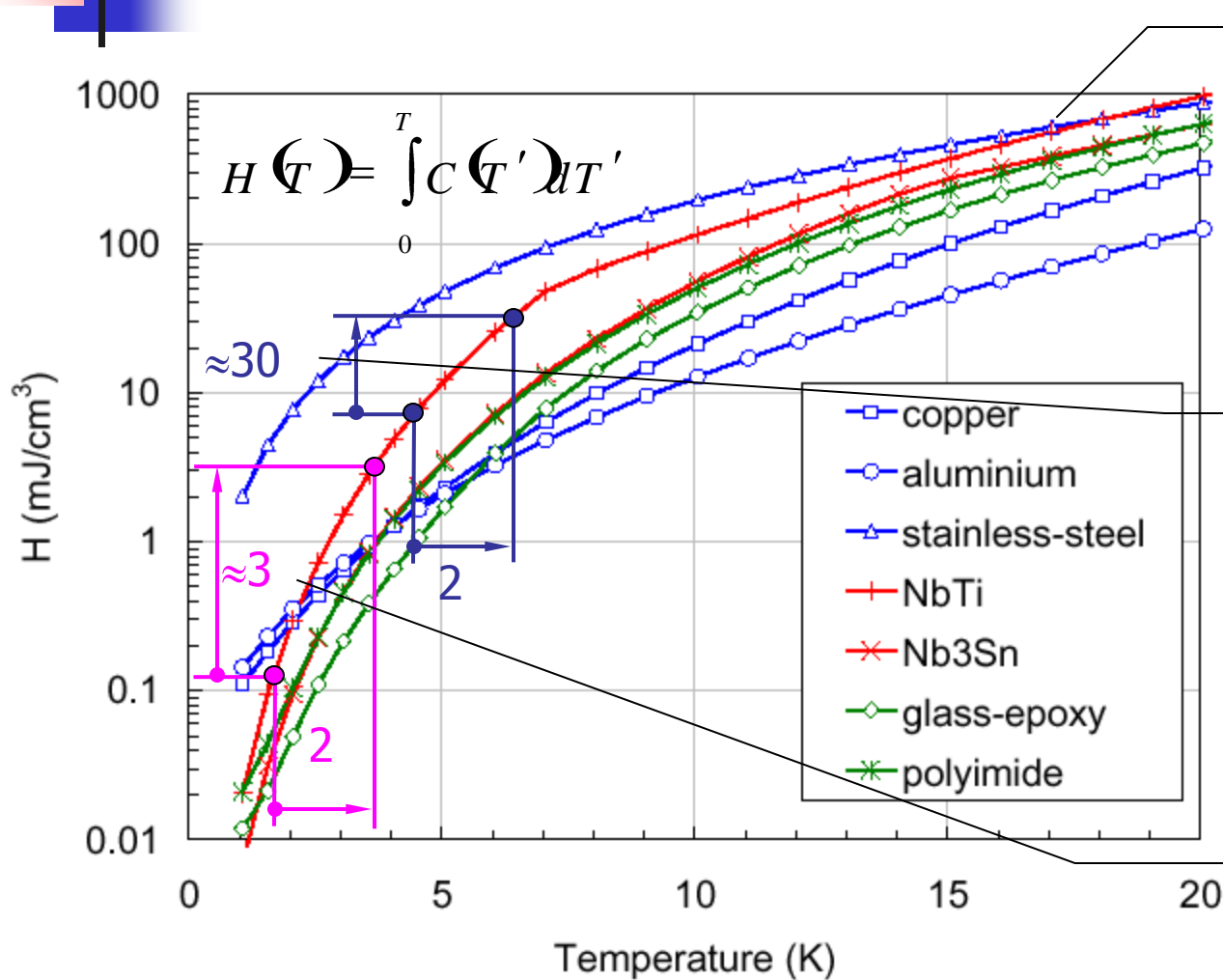
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- A sound design is such that **the expected energy spectrum is smaller than the expected stability margin**
- To increase stability:
  - Increase **temperature margin**
  - Increase **heat removal** (e.g. conduction or heat transfer)
  - Decrease Joule heating by using a stabilizer with **low electrical conductance**
  - Make best use of **heat capacity**
    - Avoid sub-cooling (heat capacity increases with  $T$ , this is why stability is not an issue for HTS materials)
    - Access to helium for low operating temperatures

# What is a quench ?



# Enthalpy reserve

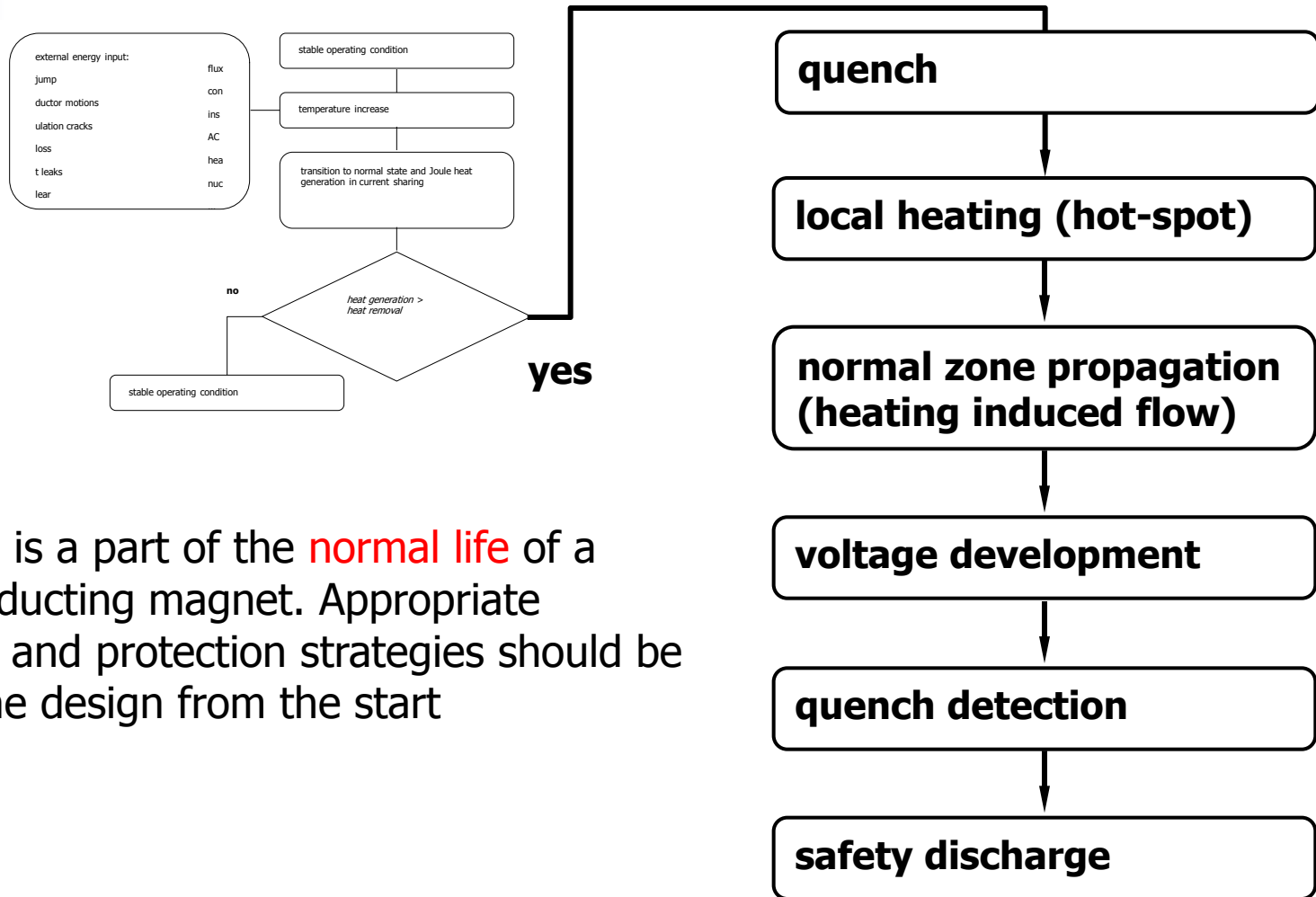


*Enthalpy reserve* increases massively at increasing T: **stability is not an issue for HTS materials**

*Enthalpy reserve* is of the order of the expected perturbation spectrum: **stability is an issue for LTS magnets**

**do not sub-cool** if you can only avoid it !

# Quench sequence

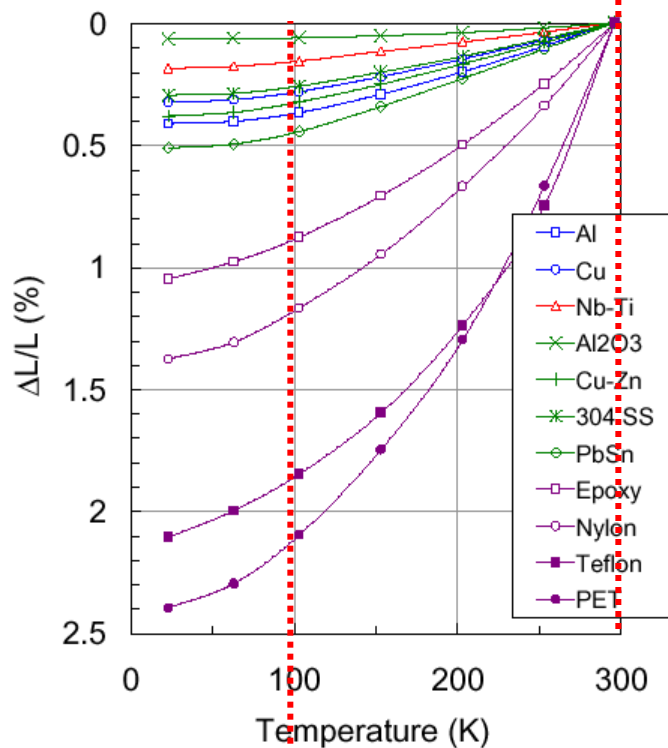


A quench is a part of the **normal life** of a superconducting magnet. Appropriate detection and protection strategies should be built in the design from the start



# Hot-spot limits

$T_{max} < 300$  K for highly supported coils (e.g. accelerator magnets)



$T_{max} < 100$  K for negligible effect

- the quench starts in a point and propagates with a *quench propagation velocity*
- the initial point will be the *hot spot* at temperature  $T_{max}$
- $T_{max}$  must be limited to:
  - limit thermal stresses (see graph)
  - avoid material damage (e.g. resins have typical  $T_{cure}$  100...200 C)

# Adiabatic hot spot temperature

- adiabatic conditions at the hot spot :

$$C \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = q_J'''$$

where:

$$q_J''' = \frac{\eta_{st}}{A_{st}} \frac{I^2}{A}$$

- can be integrated:

total volumetric heat capacity

stabilizer resistivity

stabilizer fraction

cable operating current density

$$\int_{T_{op}}^{T_{max}} \frac{C}{\eta_{st}} dT = \frac{1}{f_{st}} \int_0^{\infty} J^2 dt$$

$$Z(T_{max}) = \int_{T_{op}}^{T_{max}} \frac{C}{\eta_{st}} dT$$

$$\int_0^{\infty} J^2 dt \approx J_{op}^2 \tau_{decay}$$

The function  $Z(T_{max})$  is a *cable property*

# How to limit $T_{max}$

stabilizer material property

$$Z(T_{max}) \approx \frac{1}{f_{st}} J_{op}^2 \tau_{decay}$$

electrical operation of the coil (energy, voltage)

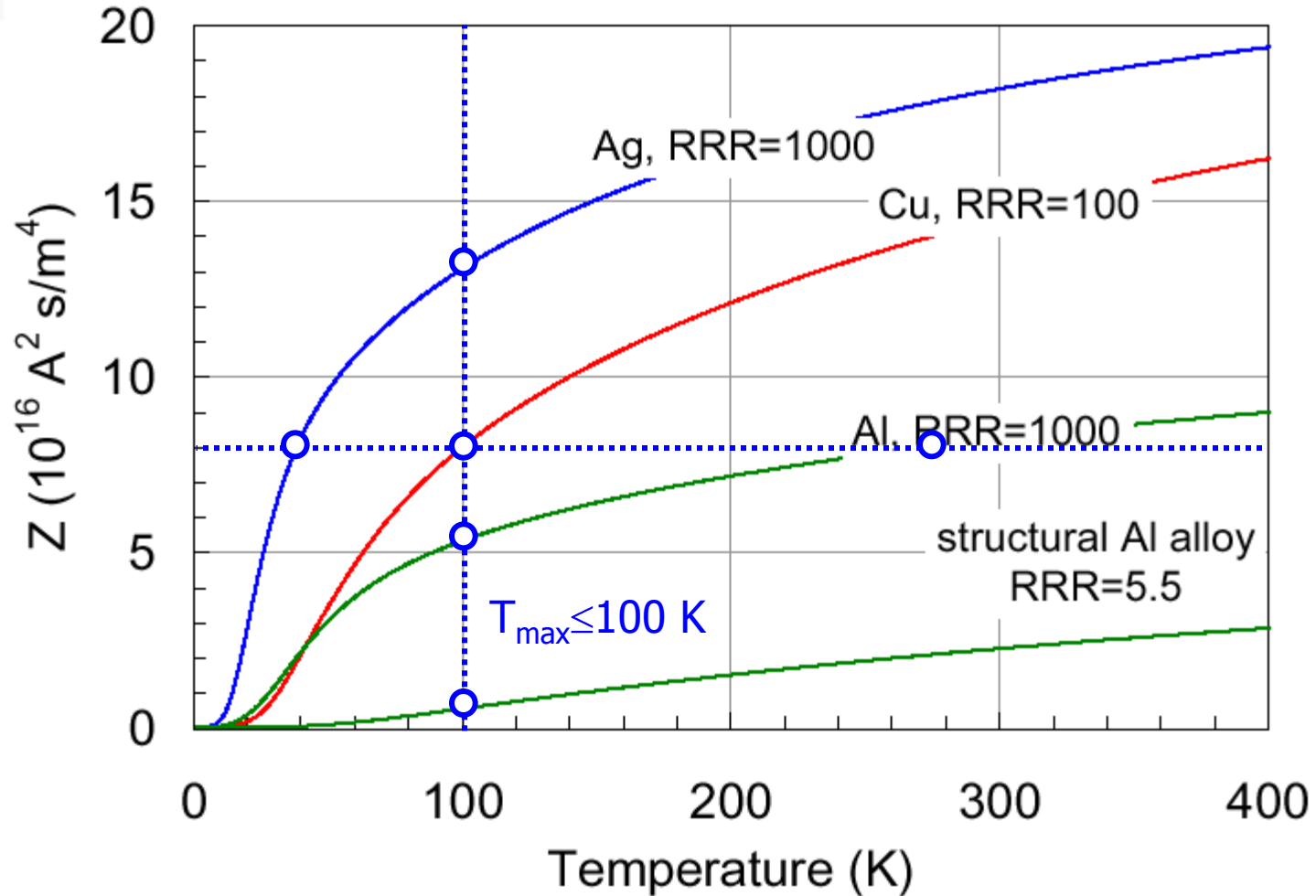
cable fractions design

implicit relation between  $T_{max}$ ,  $f_{st}$ ,  $J_{op}$ ,  $\tau_{decay}$

- to decrease  $T_{max}$ 
  - reduce operating current density ( $J_{op} \Downarrow$ )
  - discharge quickly ( $\tau_{decay} \Downarrow$ )
  - add stabilizer ( $f_{st} \Uparrow$ )
  - choose a material with large  $Z(T_{max}) \Uparrow$

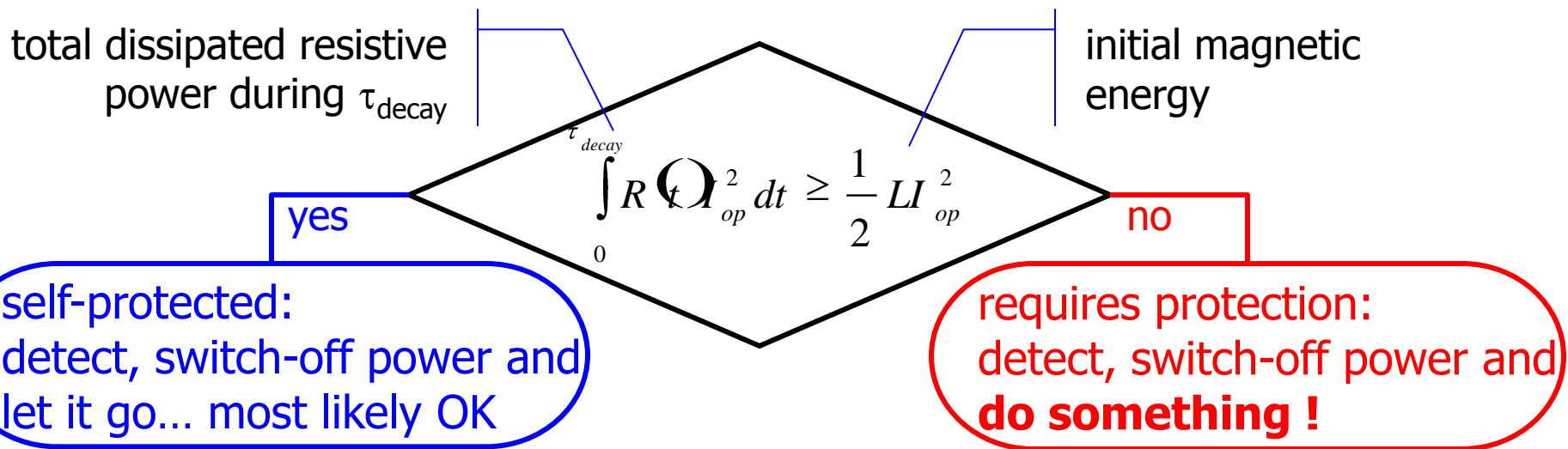
$$Z(T_{\max}) \approx \frac{1}{f_{st}} J_{op}^2 \tau_{decay}$$

# Z(T<sub>max</sub>) for typical stabilizers



# Quench protection

- The magnet stores a magnetic energy  $\frac{1}{2} L I^2$
- During a quench it dissipates a power  $R I^2$  for a duration  $\tau_{\text{decay}}$  characteristic of the powering circuit

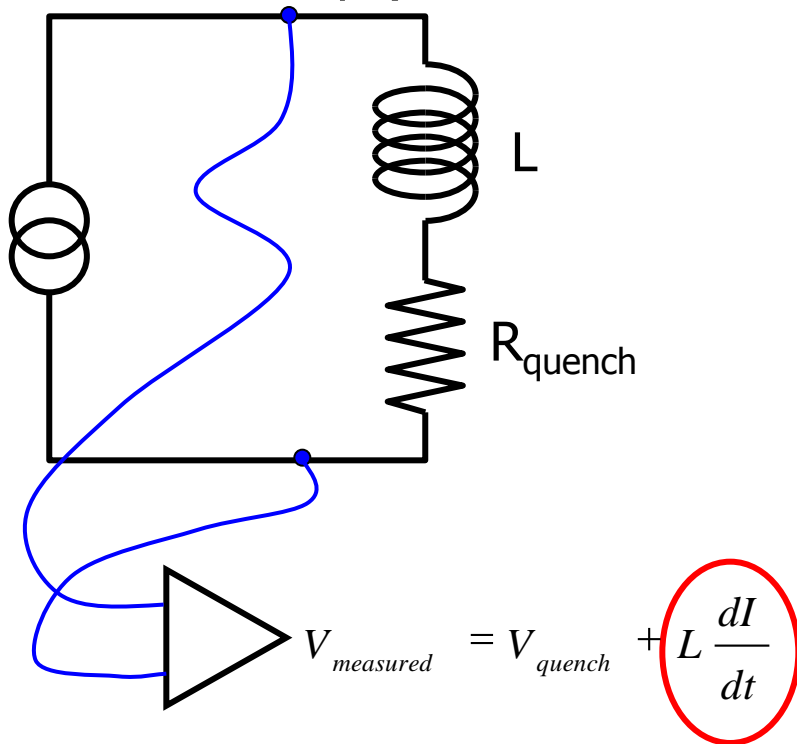


**WARNING:** the reasoning here is qualitative,  
conclusions require in any case detailed checking

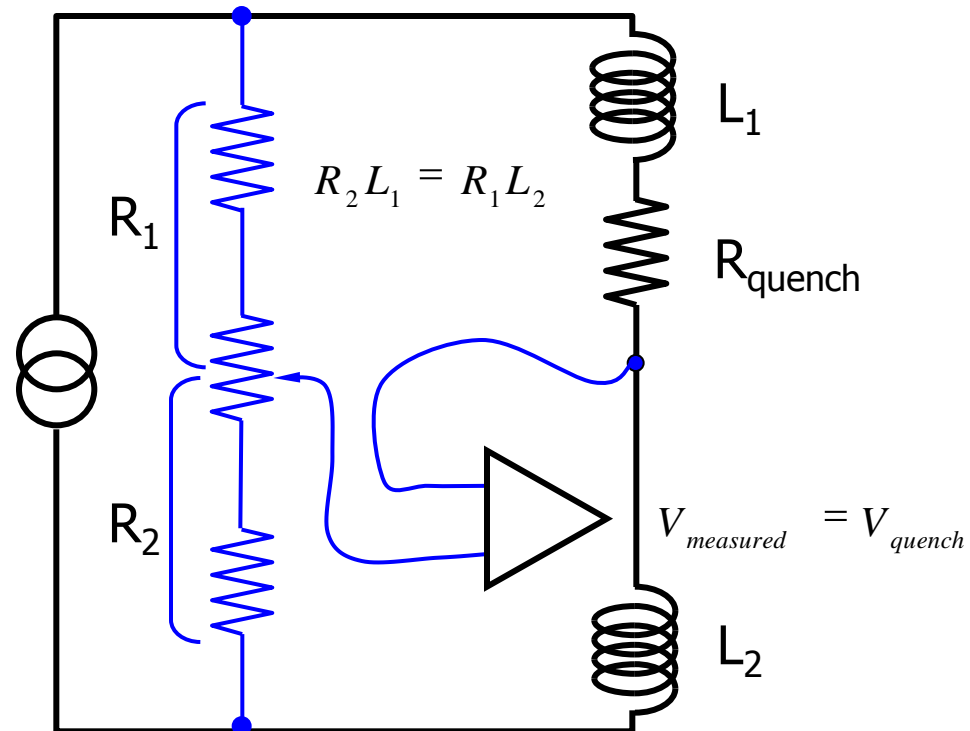


# Quench detection: voltage

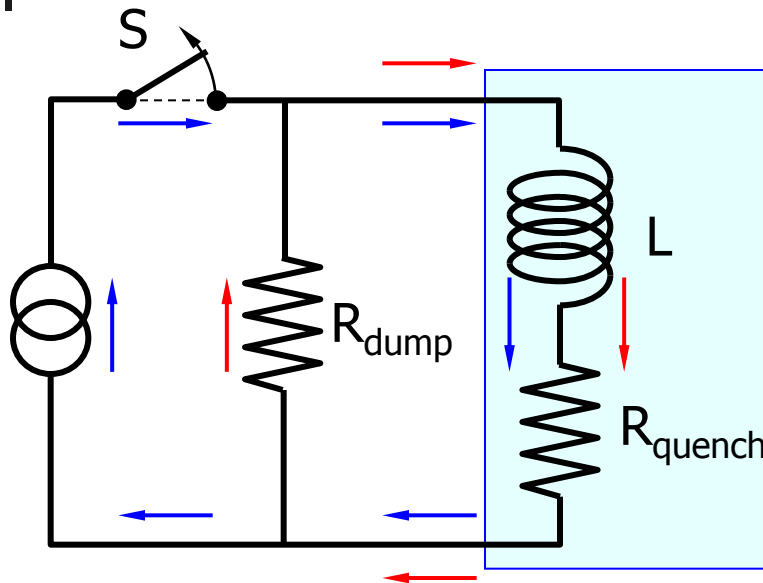
- a direct quench voltage measurement is subject to inductive pick-up (ripple, ramps)



- immunity to inductive voltages (and noise rejection) is achieved by *compensation*



# Strategy 1: energy dump



$$R_{dump} \gg R_{quench}$$

← normal operation

← quench

- the magnetic energy is extracted from the magnet and dissipated in an external resistor:

$$I = I_{op} e^{-\frac{(t - \tau_{detection})}{\tau_{dump}}} \quad \tau_{dump} = \frac{L}{R_{dump}}$$

- the integral of the current:

$$\int_0^{\infty} J^2 dt \approx J_{op}^2 \left( \tau_{detection} + \frac{\tau_{dump}}{2} \right)$$

- can be made small by:

- fast detection
- fast dump (large  $R_{dump}$ )

# Dump time constant

- magnetic energy:

$$E_m = \frac{1}{2} L I_{op}^2$$

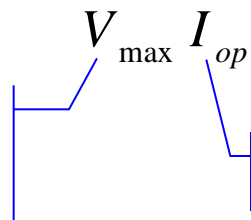
- maximum terminal voltage:

$$V_{max} = R_{dump} I_{op}$$

- dump time constant:

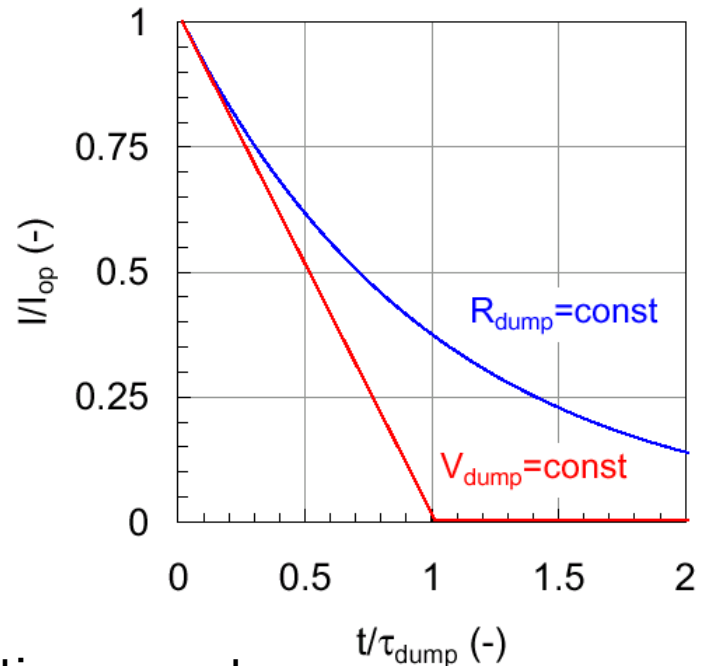
$$\tau_{dump} = \frac{L}{R_{dump}} = \frac{2 E_m}{V_{max} I_{op}}$$

maximum terminal voltage



operating current

interesting alternative:  
non-linear  $R_{dump}$  or voltage source



increase  $V_{max}$  and  $I_{op}$  to achieve fast dump time

# Strategy 2: coupled secondary

- the magnet is coupled inductively to a secondary that absorbs and dissipates a part of the magnetic energy

- advantages:

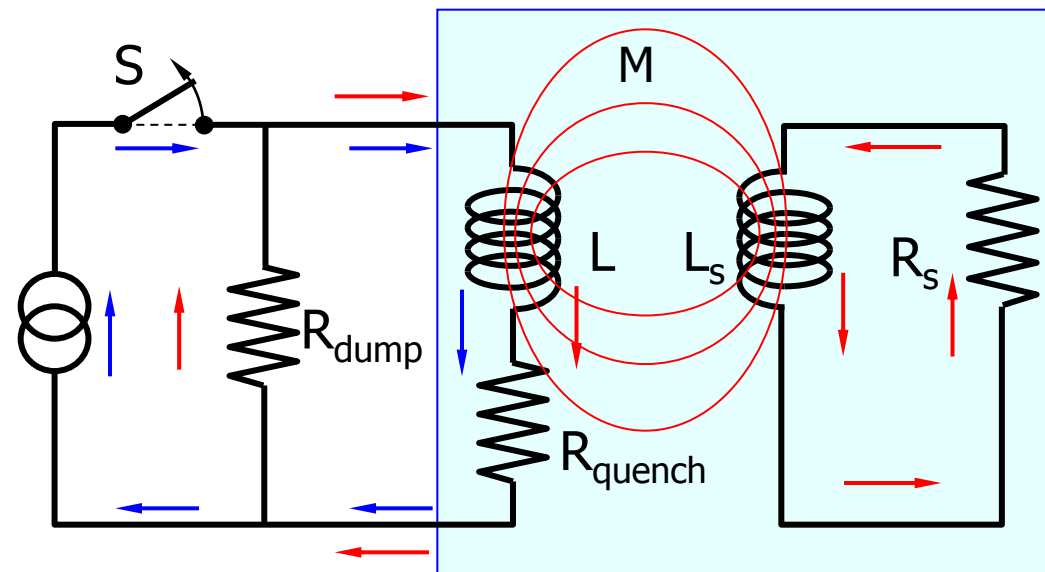
- magnetic energy partially dissipated in  $R_s$  (lower  $T_{\max}$ )
- lower effective magnet inductance (lower voltage)
- heating of  $R_s$  can be used to speed-up quench propagation (quench-back)

- disadvantages:

- induced currents (and dissipation) during ramps

← normal operation

← quench



# Strategy 3: subdivision

- the magnet is divided in sections, with each section shunted by an alternative path (resistance) for the current in case of quench

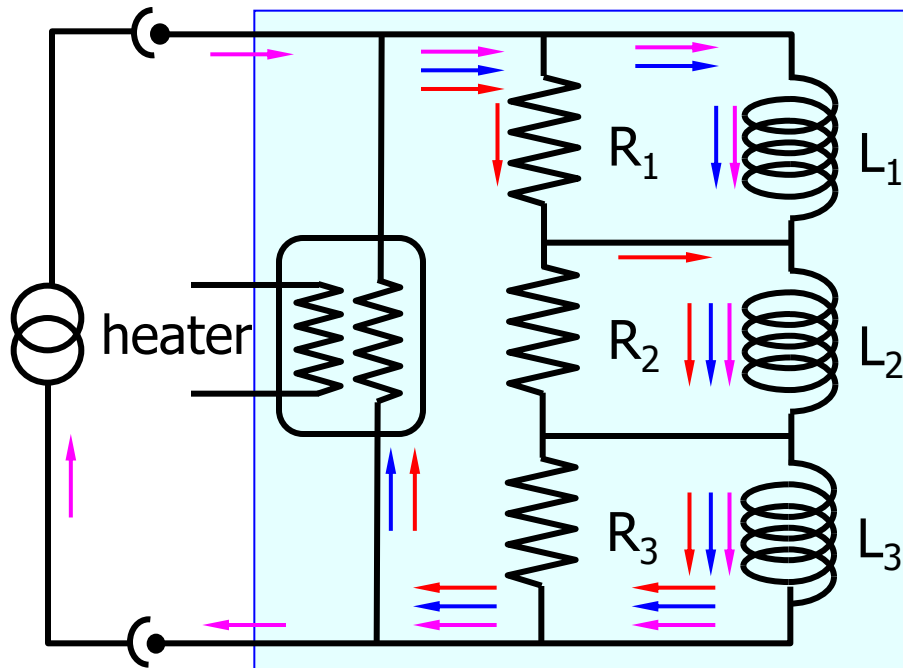
- advantages:

- passive
- only a fraction of the magnetic energy is dissipated in a module (lower  $T_{\max}$ )
- transient current and dissipation can be used to speed-up quench propagation (quench-back)

- disadvantages:

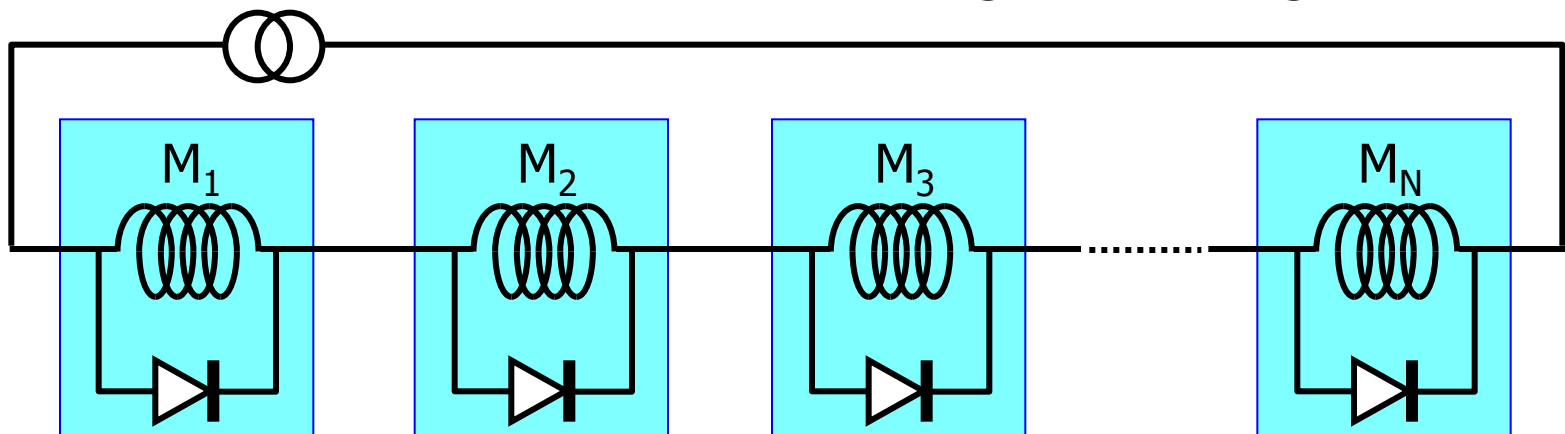
- induced currents (and dissipation) during ramps

- charge
- normal operation
- quench



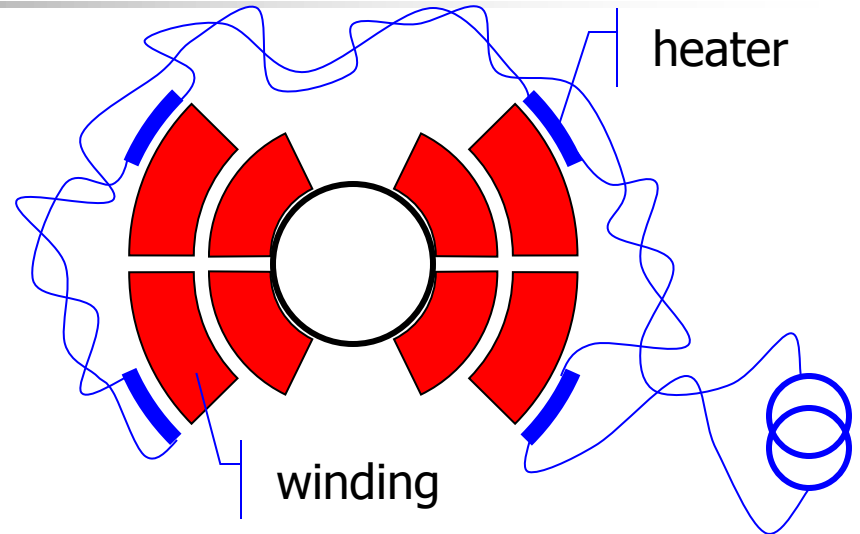
# Magnet strings

- magnet strings (e.g. accelerator magnets, fusion magnetic systems) have exceedingly large stored energy (10's of GJ):
  - energy dump takes very long time (10...100 s)
  - the magnet string is *subdivided* and each magnet is bypassed by a diode (or thyristor)
  - the diode acts as a shunt during the discharge



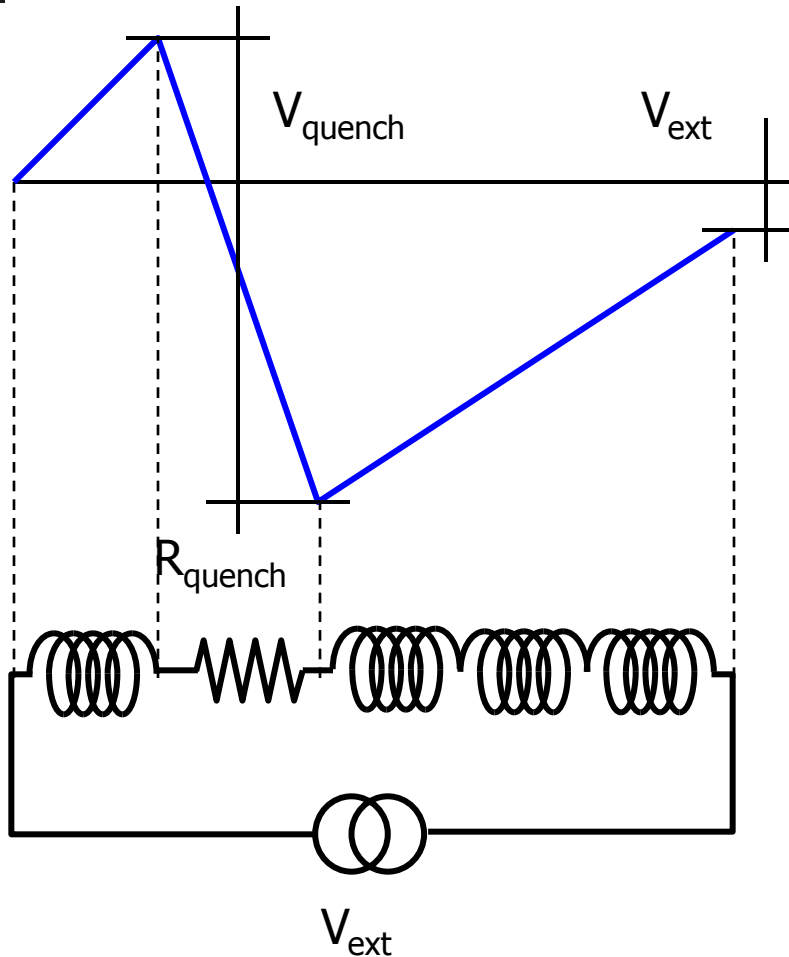
# Strategy 4: heaters

- the quench is spread actively by firing heaters embedded in the winding pack, in close vicinity to the conductor
- heaters are mandatory in:
  - high performance, aggressive, cost-effective and highly optimized magnet designs...
  - ...when you are really desperate



- **advantages:**
  - homogeneous spread of the magnetic energy within the winding pack
- **disadvantages:**
  - active
  - high voltages at the heater

# Quench voltage



- electrical stress can cause serious damage (arcing) to be avoided by proper design:
  - insulation material
  - insulation thickness
  - electric field concentration
- **REMEMBER: in a quenching coil the maximum voltage is not necessarily at the terminals**
- the situation in subdivided and inductively coupled systems is complex, may require extensive simulation





# Quench and protection - Re-cap

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- A **good conducting material** (Ag, Al, Cu: large  $Z(T_{\max})$ ) must be added in parallel to the superconductor to limit the maximum temperature during a quench
- The effect of a quench can be mitigated by
  - Adding stabilizer ( $\Leftrightarrow$  operating margin, stability)
  - Reducing operating current density ( $\Leftrightarrow$  economics of the system)
  - **Reducing the magnet inductance (large cable current) and increasing the discharge voltage** to discharge the magnet as quickly as practical



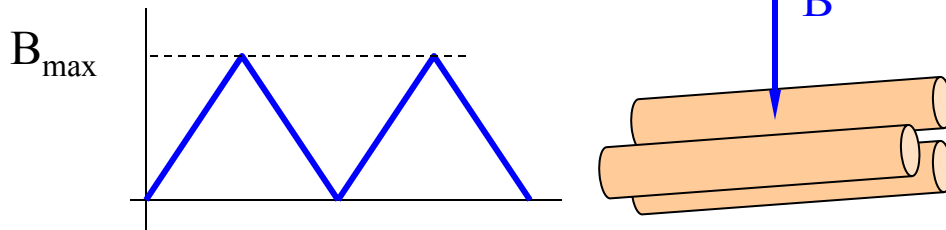
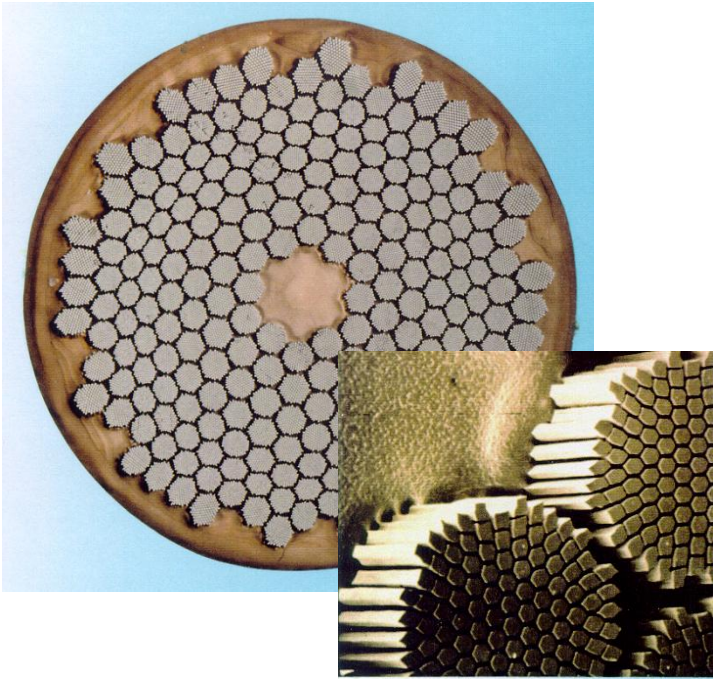
# Overview

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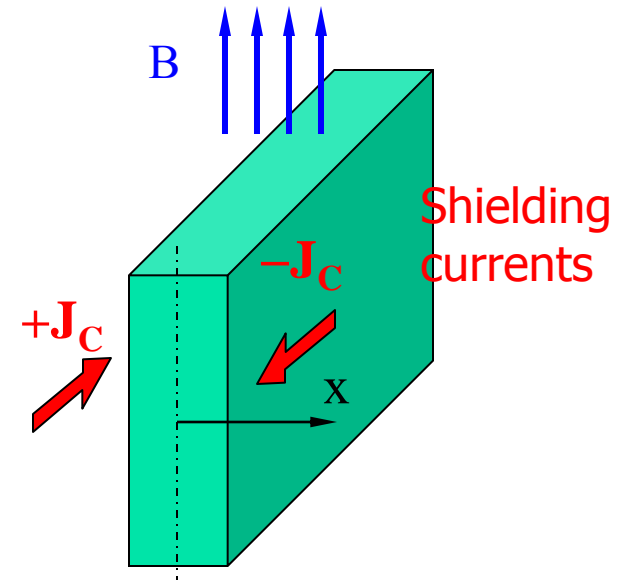
- Why superconductors ? A motivation
- A superconductor physics primer
- **Superconducting magnet design**
  - Wires, tapes and cables
  - Operating margins
  - Cooling of superconducting magnets
  - Stability, quench and protection
  - **AC loss**
- The making of a superconducting magnet
- Examples of superconducting magnet systems

# A superconductor in varying field

A simpler case: an infinite slab in a uniform, time-variable field



A filament in a time-variable field

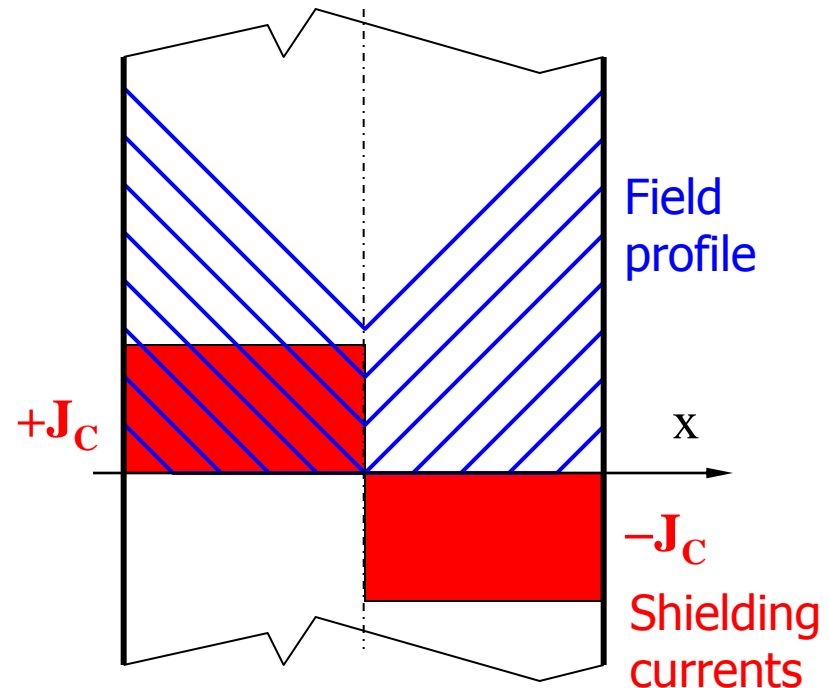
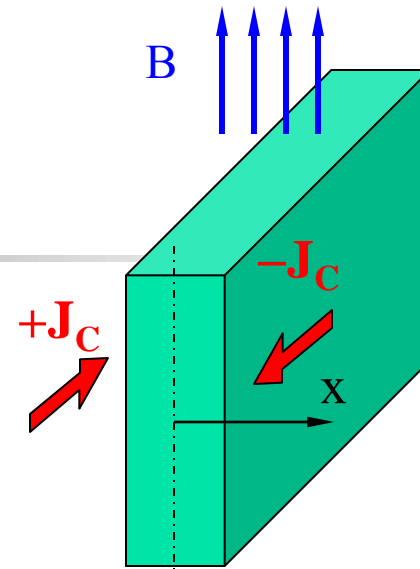


Quiz: how much is  $J$  ?

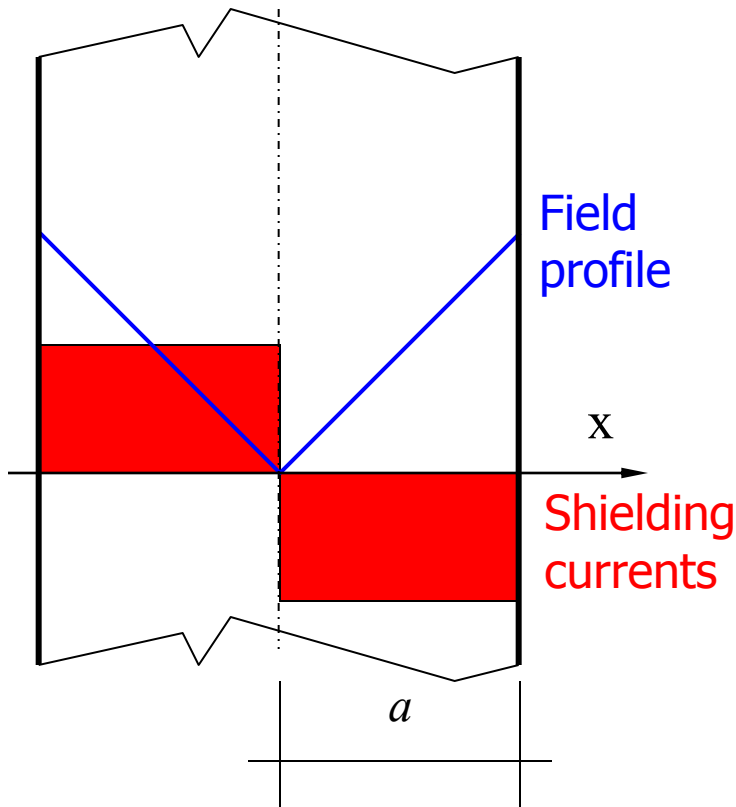
# Persistent currents

- $dB/dt$  produces an electric field  $E$  in the superconductor which drives it into the resistive state
- When the field sweep stops the electric field vanishes  $E \Rightarrow 0$
- The superconductor goes back to  $J_C$  and then stays there
- This is the critical state (Bean) model: *within a superconductor, the current density is either  $+J_C$ ,  $-J_C$  or zero, there's nothing in between!*

$$J = \pm J_C$$



# Magnetization



- Seen from outside the sample, the persistent currents produce a magnetic moment. We can define a *magnetization*:

$$M = \frac{1}{a} \int_0^a J_c x dx = \frac{J_c a}{2}$$

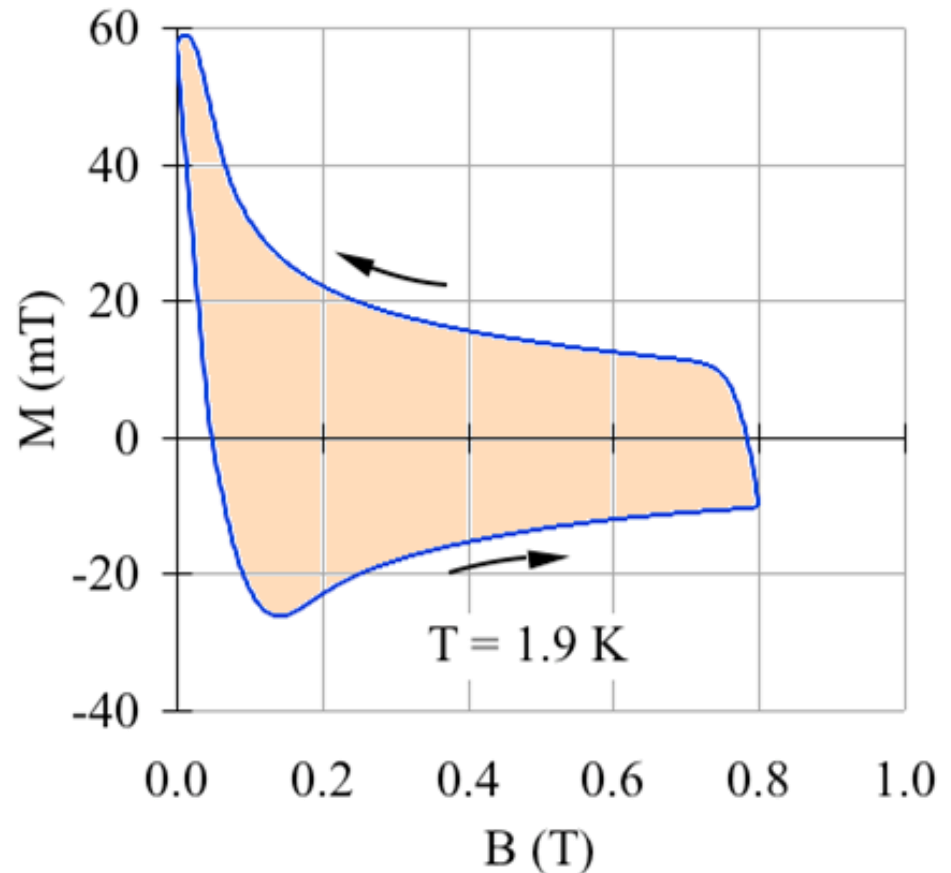
- The magnetization is proportional to the critical current density and to the size of the superconducting slab

# Hysteresis loss

- The response of a superconducting wire in a changing field is a field-dependent magnetization (remember  $M \propto J_C(B)$ )
- The work done by the external field is:

$$Q = \oint \mu_0 M dH = \oint \mu_0 H dM$$

i.e. the **area of the magnetization loop**

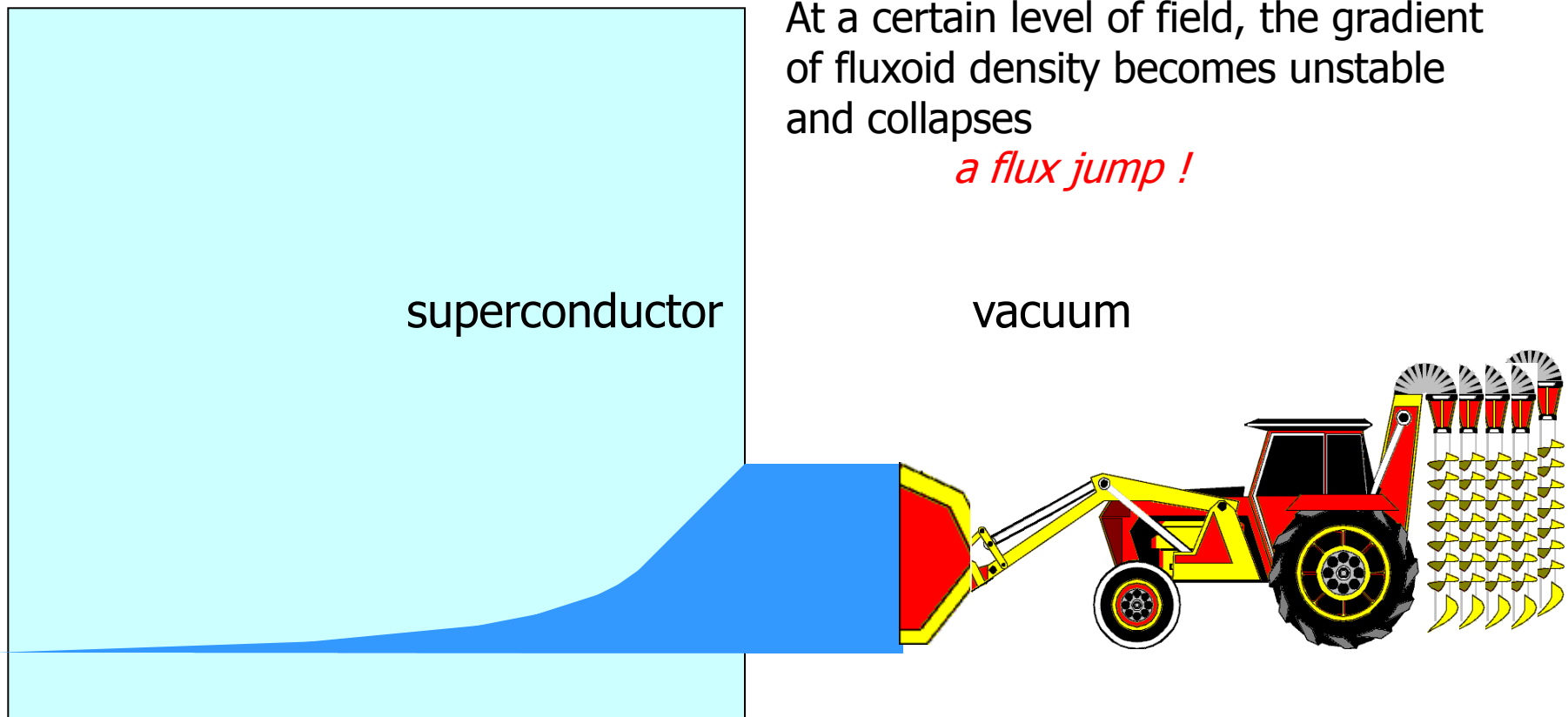


# A different view of flux penetration

The screening currents are a gradient in fluxoid density. The increasing external field exerts pressure on the fluxoids against the pinning force, and causes them to penetrate, with a characteristic gradient in fluxoid density ( $J_c$ )

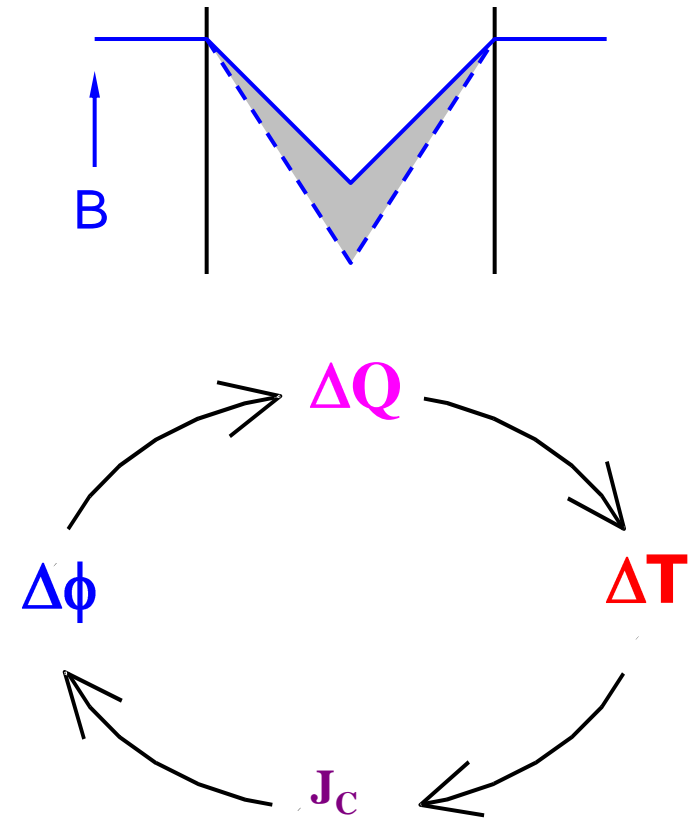
At a certain level of field, the gradient of fluxoid density becomes unstable and collapses

*a flux jump !*



# Flux jumps

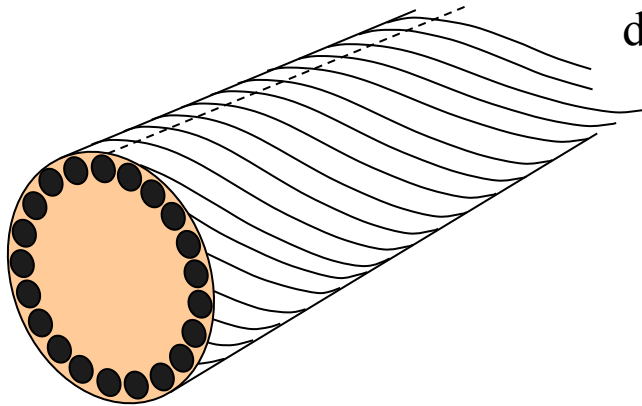
- Unstable behaviour is shown by all superconductors when subjected to a magnetic field:
  - B induces screening currents, flowing at critical density  $J_C$
  - A change in screening currents allows flux to move into the superconductor
  - The flux motion dissipates energy
  - The energy dissipation causes local temperature rise
  - $J_C$  density falls with increasing temperature



Flux jumping is cured by making superconductor in the form of fine filaments. This weakens the effect of  $\Delta\phi$  on  $\Delta Q$



# Filaments coupling



All superconducting wires and are twisted to **decouple the filaments** and reduce the magnitude of eddy currents and associated loss

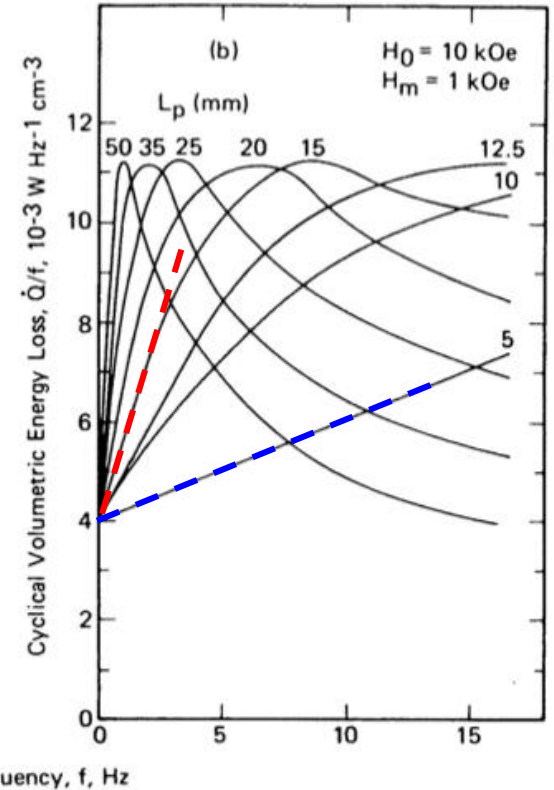
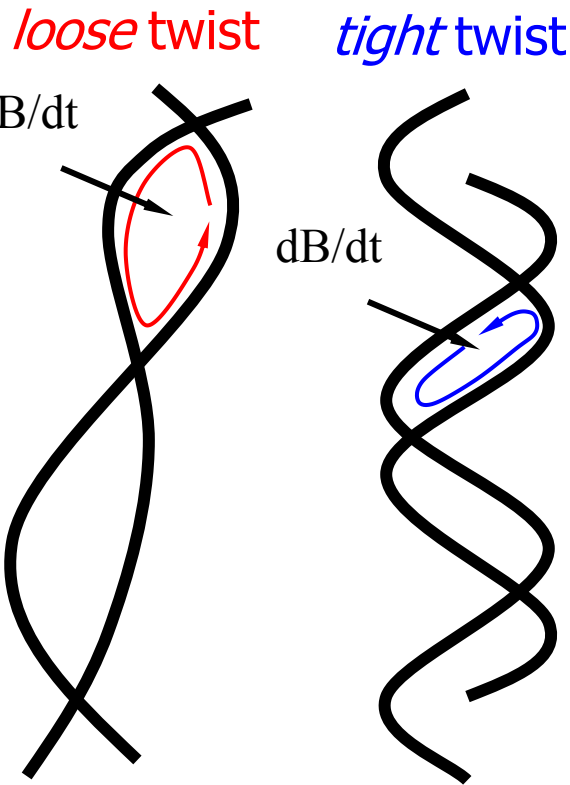
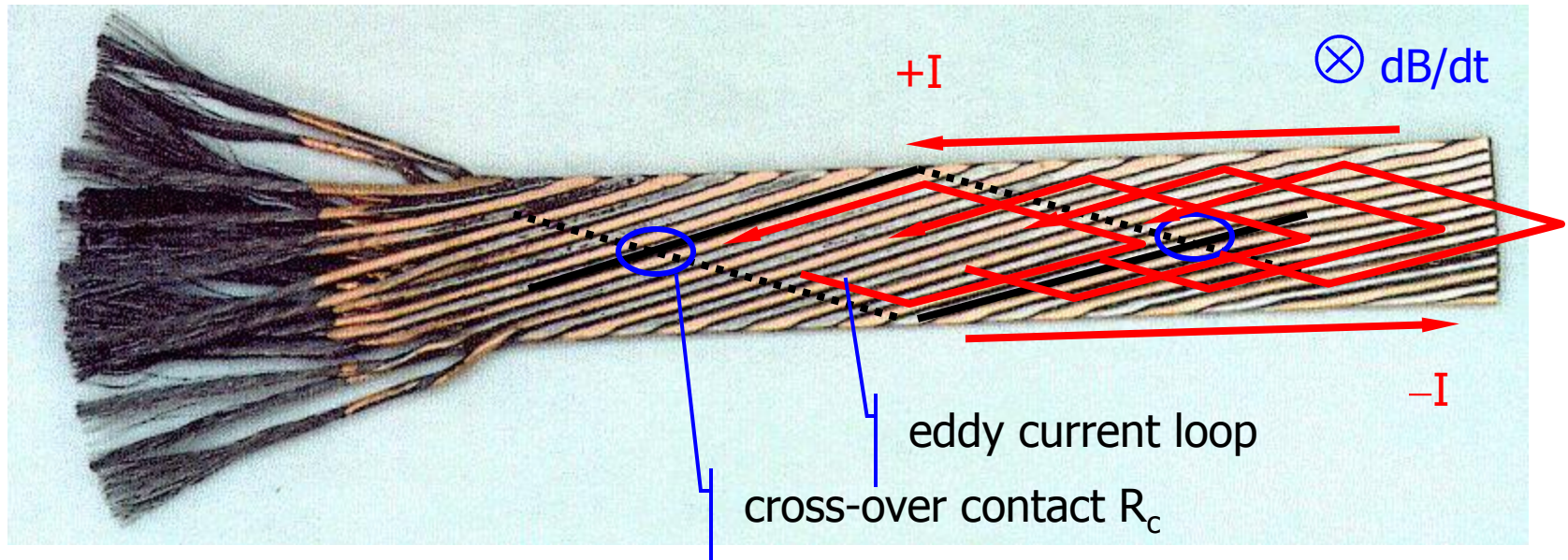


Figure 26-8. Energy loss per cycle ( $\equiv \dot{Q}/f$ ) plotted versus frequency of the alternating component of an applied field  $H_a(\omega) = H_0 + H_m \sin \omega t$ . (a) The per-cycle coil loss is plotted for six values of  $H_m$  between 0.25 and 1.25 kOe at  $H_0 = 10$  kOe; (b) the per-cycle volumetric loss of the composite is plotted for eight values of the twist pitch,  $L_p$ , at  $H_0 = 10$  kOe,  $H_m = 1$  kOe—after KWASNITZA and HORVATH [KWA74, KWA76].

# Coupling in cables



The strands in a cable are coupled (as the filaments in a strand). To decouple them we require to twist (**transpose**) the cable and to control the **contact resistances**

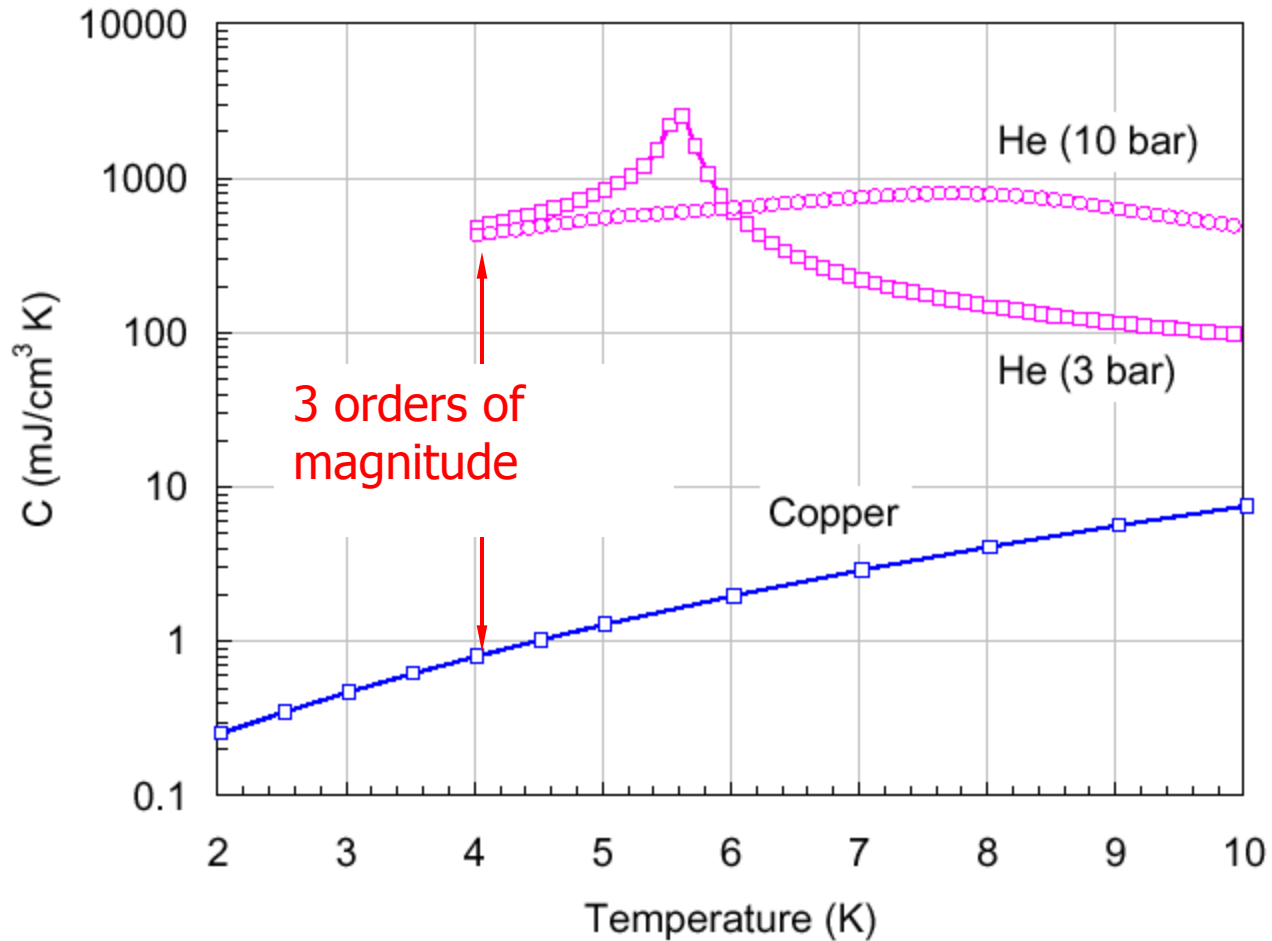


## AC loss - Re-cap

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- AC loss is usually the **major source of internal heat** in pulsed and cycled superconducting magnets
- To reduce loss
  - Use **fine superconducting filaments**, and in any case  $< 50...10 \mu\text{m}$  to avoid flux-jump instability
  - Use **tight twist pitch**, and small cable dimensions
  - Include **resistive barriers** in the wires and cables
- The theory and calculation of AC loss is a **complicated matter !** Rely heavily on measurements

# Helium is a great heat sink !



# Pairing mechanism

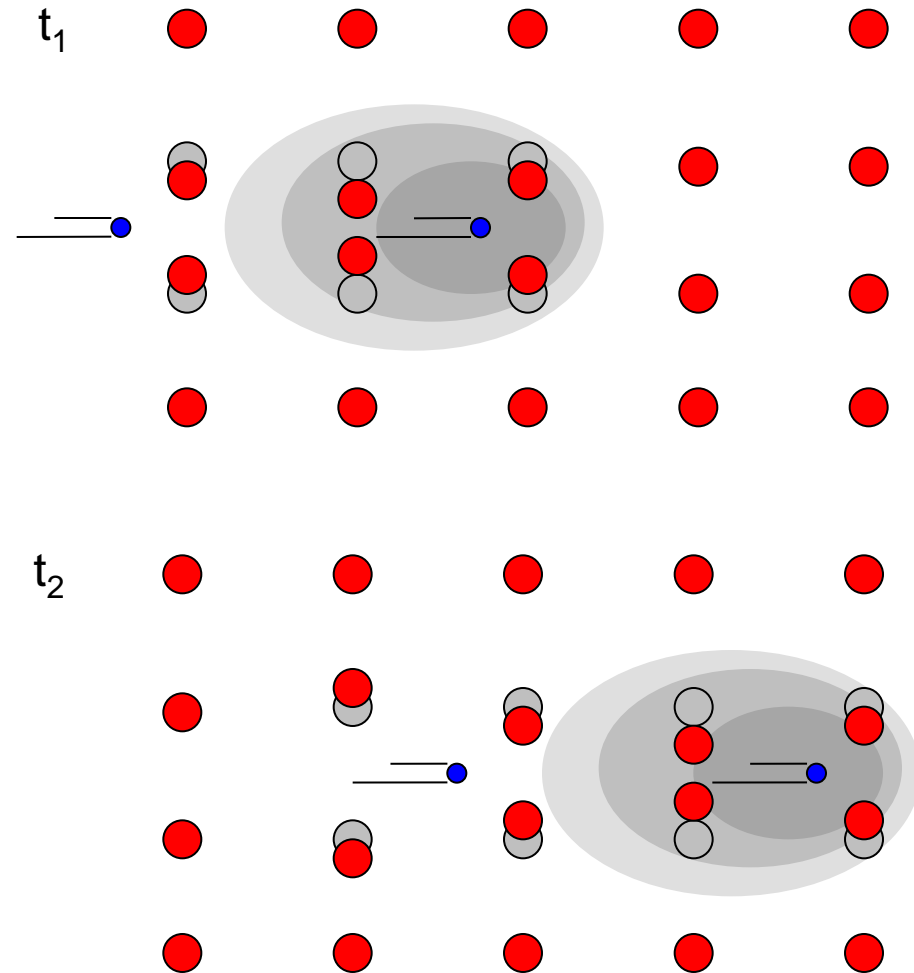
Lattice displacement



phonons (sound)



coupling of charge carriers





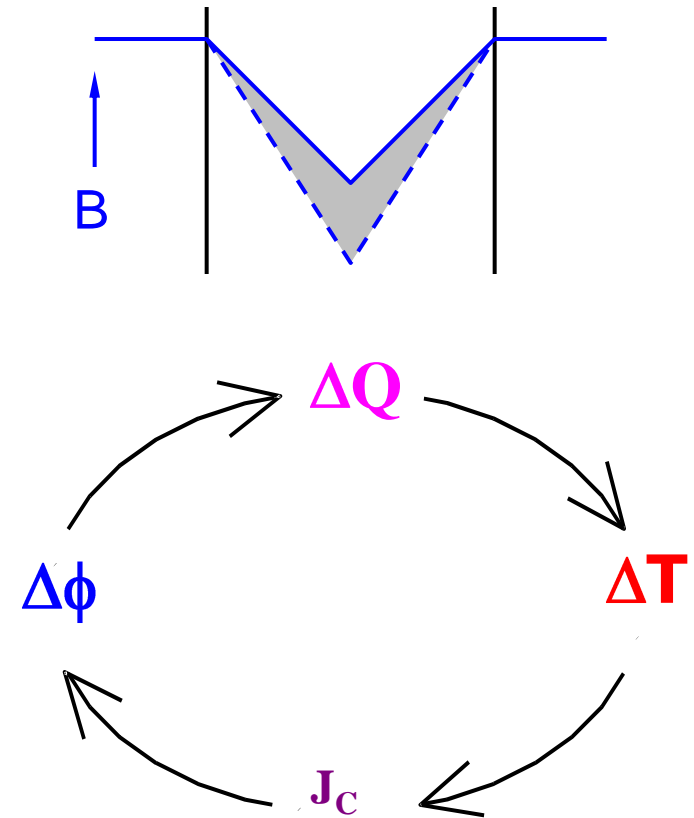
# Superconductors physics - Re-cap

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- Superconducting materials are only useful if they are **dirty** (type II - high critical field) and **messy** (strong pinning centers)
- A superconductor is such only in conditions of temperature, field and current density within the critical surface, and it is a normal-conductor above these conditions. The transition is defined by a **critical current density  $J_C(B, T, \dots)$**
- The maximum current that can be carried is the  **$I_C = A_{SC} \times J_C$**

# Flux jumps

- Unstable behaviour is shown by all superconductors when subjected to a magnetic field:
  - B induces screening currents, flowing at critical density  $J_C$
  - A change in screening currents allows flux to move into the superconductor
  - The flux motion dissipates energy
  - The energy dissipation causes local temperature rise
  - $J_C$  density falls with increasing temperature



Flux jumping is cured by making superconductor in the form of fine filaments and twisting the conductor. This weakens the effect of  $\Delta\phi$  on  $\Delta Q$