



Heat transfer, cryostat, (conduction-)cooling (I of II)

CAS – Austria 2023

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Outline Monday 27/11

- Introduction
 - 1. Intent
 - 2. Main cooling-option drivers
- Temperature levels
 - 1. Introduction
 - 2. Cryogenic fluids
- Helium as a cold-source
 - 1. Phase diagram
 - 2. Intermezzo Hell conduction through superfluid helium (Hell)
 - 3. Conduction comparative
- Intermezzo: Magnet-examples
- Temperature levels
 - 1. "Why do we need to talk about it"
 - 2. "That's why we need to talk about it"



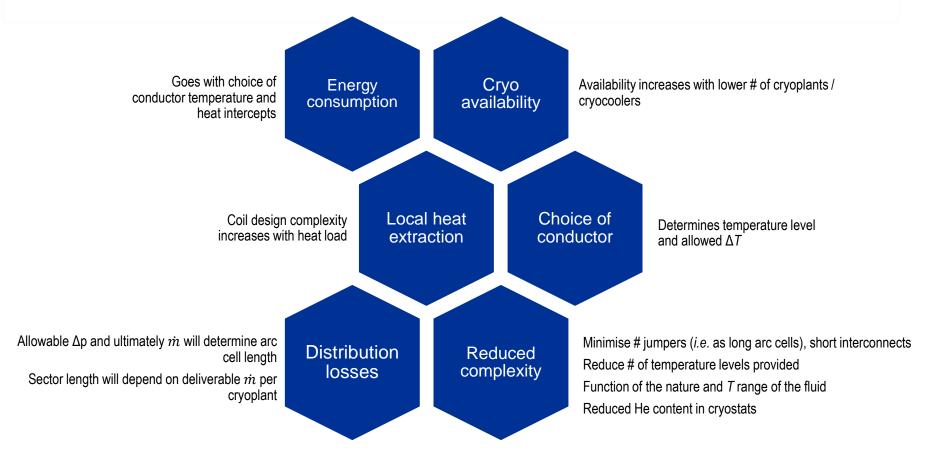
Introduction: Intent

The intent of these two lectures is to introduce you the *aspects of cryogenics* that enter the reflection of choosing a development direction when tasked with a superconducting magnet design.

We'll familiarize you with the major elements involved that arise in a coherent/optimized design satisfying the magnet performance requirements on the one hand and on the other hand the cryogenic drivers of sustainability (i.e. minimizing operational cost, infrastructure, complexity), safety constraints,...



Introduction: main cooling-option drivers



All "drivers" are interlinked, even if not shown adjacent

We'll mainly focus on Energy consumption & Local heat extraction



Temperature levels: introduction

Superconducting magnets come in *many variants and applications* ranging from small medical devices, motors, wind-power generators, huge particle detectors and plasma containing structures to km-long particle accelerators,...

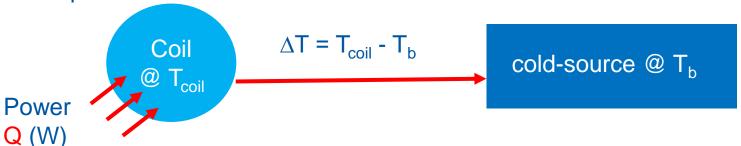
The most common superconductors, NbTi, Nb₃Sn, MgB₂, HTS making up the magnet coils *generally operate at temperatures from 1.9 K*- *4.5 K*- *20 K*< *77 K*



THERMOPHYSICAL PROPERTIES

The choice of cryogenic fluid in the cooling system is principally driven by:

- 1. T_b: boiling temperature at atmospheric pressure of 1.013 bar
 - The boiling temperature provides a fixed "base reference temperature" for the cooling system. It will be the lowest temperature available. All cooled devices, will function at slightly higher temperatures depending on implementation specifics.



The ΔT originates from an accumulation off: conduction through solid material, solid-fluid interface resistances, conduction though cooling fluids, pressure drops in the cooling fluid system



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THERMOPHYSICAL PROPERTIES

The choice of cryogenic fluid in the cooling system, is principally driven by:

- 2. The latent heat "L" of evaporation at T_b (kJ/kg)
 - The latent heat determines the rate of liquid to evaporate per power at cold

21 W for 1 g/s of helium @ 4.2 K 199 W for 1 g/s of nitrogen @ 77 K

$$\frac{dm}{dt} = \frac{Q}{L}$$

THERMOPHYSICAL PROPERTIES

Fluid	⁴ He	N ₂	Ar	H ₂	O ₂	Kr	Ne	Xe	Air	Water
Boiling temperature 1.013 bar (K)	4.2	77.3	87.3	20.3	90.2	119.8	27.1	165.1	78.8	373
Latent heat (evaporation a Tb) kJ/kg	21	199.1	163.2	448	213.1	107.7	87.2	95.6	205.2	2260
Ratio volume gas (273 K) /liquid	709	652	795	798	808	653	1356	527	685	
Specific mass of liquid (at Tb) – kg/m³	125	804	1400	71	1140	2413	1204	2942	874	960

Given the present use of superconductors for accelerators (NbTi, Nb3Sn) helium is applied as main cooling fluid, with sometimes nitrogen for thermal shields. Future HTS use might open-up the use of liquid hydrogen (but has many issues to be solved).



Comparison:

1L LHe: ≈ 12 - 50 € and *rising/fluctuating*

1L LN₂: ≈ 0.1 €

Quantity to cooldown 1 kg of stainless steel

Using	Latent heat only	Latent heat and enthalpy of gas		
LHe from 290 to 4.2 K	29.5 litre	0.75 liter		
LHe from 77 to 4.2 K	1.46 litre	0.12 litre		
LN2 from 290 to 77 K	0.45 litre	0.29 litre		



Phase diagram of helium

10.000

Thelium behave
domain indicate

The live behave

SATURATED He II

T(K)

Helium behaves as any "normal-fluid in the domain indicated by Hel ("normal helium")

Helium behaves as a "super-fluid" in the domain indicated by Hell ("superfluid helium")

Working domain of saturated helium II is along the saturation line from (starting from 5.0 kPa & 2.17 K, to typically 1.6 kPa & 1.8 K)

Working domain of pressurised helium II, by subcooling liquid at any pressure above saturation, typically near atmospheric pressure (100 kPa).

Additional advantage of functioning in pressurized superfluid helium is that subatmospheric pressures are avoided, thus minimizing the impact of air-inleaks, and the good electrically isolating properties (compared with low pressure helium).



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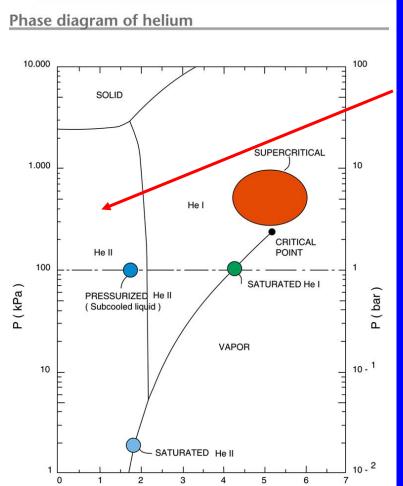
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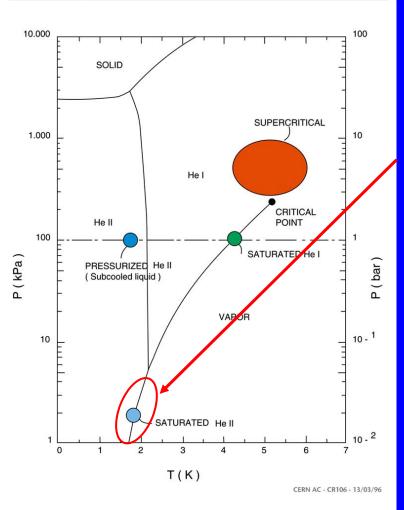


T(K)

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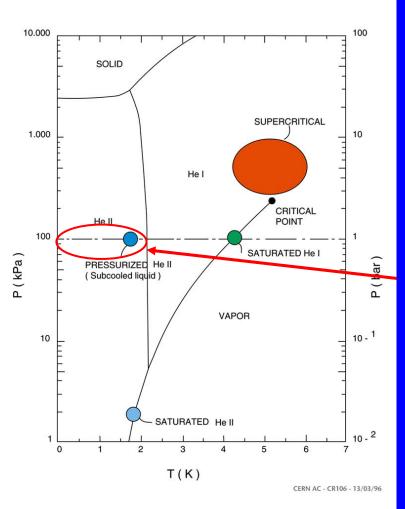
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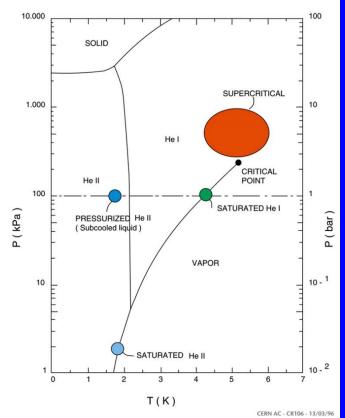
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Helium as a

Phase diagram of helium



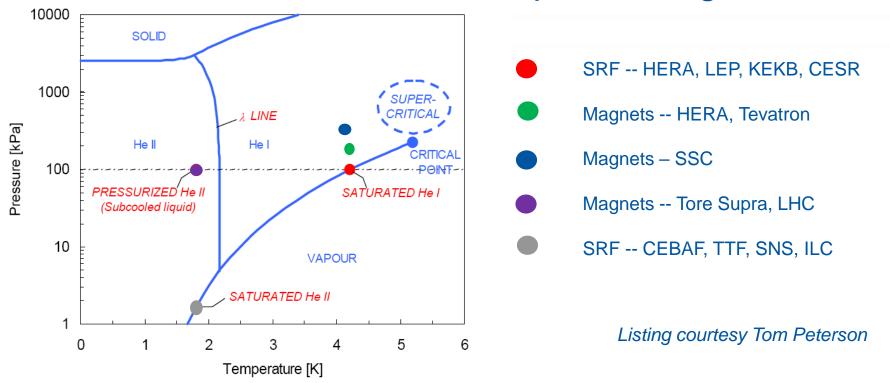
Advantages of functioning in pressurized superfluid helium w.r.t. saturated helium

- pressurised helium II can absorb heat, up to the temperature at which the lambda-line is crossed. saturated helium II, which is slightly subcooled due to the hydrostatic head below the surface of the liquid bath, absorbs heat up to the point at which the saturation line is crossed.
- --> The enthalpy difference from the working point to the transition line is usually much smaller in the saturated helium bath. One typically could get an order of magnitude better performance in pressurised helium II (see ref).
- subatmospheric pressures are avoided, thus minimizing the impact of air-inleaks.
- both liquids have good electrically isolating properties but low vapour areas, possible when using saturated helium, are prone to electrical breaktrough ("Paschen-curve").

ref: B. Rousset & F. Viargues, An alternative cooling scheme for the TeV superconducting linear accelerator project, Cryogenics 34 ICEC Supplement (1994) 91-94



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Accelerator magnets are (up to now) often cooled with subcooled liquid

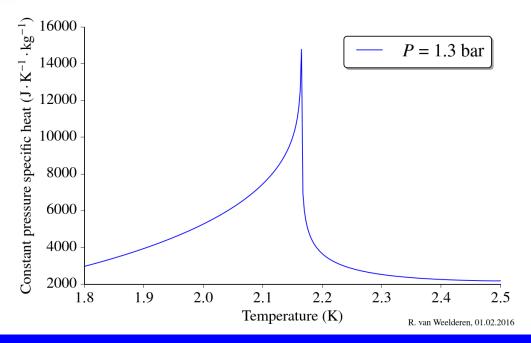
- Typically working near the limit of the superconductor with large stored energy
- Ensure complete liquid coverage and penetration

Superconducting RF cavities are generally (up to now) cooled with a saturated bath

"up to now": but there's a drive for several reasons to move most of the liquid out of the system



Intermezzo Hell: Specific heat



Cp of helium

showing the characteristic shape when crossing the superfluid to normal helium transition which gave the transition its name "λ – point"

At these low temperatures the Cp of helium is roughly at least 4 to 5 orders of magnitude higherthan values for coil-pack and collar & yoke materials!

This high thermal capacity of the superfluid helium contributes to coil stability in fully immersed coil magnet designs only



Conduction cooling via (pressurized -) superfluid helium can for the majority of heat fluxes and geometries involved in the magnet design $\approx 100\,\mathrm{mW/cm^3}$ be described by the equations for the "turbulent" regime with full mutual friction between the components of the two-fluid model description of superfluid helium.

One uses a simplified superfluid model which is based on a non-linear heat diffusion equation:

$$\rho C_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \nabla \cdot K_{eff} \nabla T + q_{vol}$$

where ho is the density q_{vol} is the volumetric heat source and K_{eff} is the non-linear, effective thermal conductivity.



effective thermal conductivity in the turbulent regime (prevalent in the great majority of cases):

$$K_{effT} = \left(\frac{1}{f(T,p)|\nabla T|^2}\right)^{1/3} \tag{1}$$

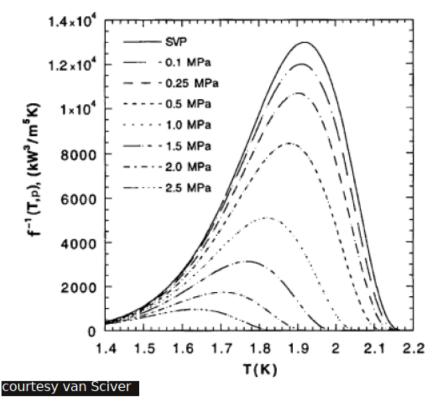
with

$$\frac{1}{f(T,p)} = g(T_{\lambda}) \left[t^{5.7} \left(1 - t^{5.7} \right) \right]^{3}$$
 (2)

where
$$t = \frac{T}{T_{\lambda}}$$
 and $g(T_{\lambda}) = \frac{\rho^2 S_{\lambda}^4 T_{\lambda}^3}{A_{\lambda}}$.

 S_{λ} is the reference entropy at the lambda point, A_{λ} is the Gorter-Mellink mutual friction parameter and T_{λ} is the transition temperature from superfluidity at a given pressure.





Conductivity function

- peaks around 1.9 K
- goes to zero at the lambda-point and for low temperatures



Inserting $q = -K_{effT} \frac{dT}{dx}$ in equation (1) we see that the conductivity, although very high, collapses for high heat fluxes

$$K_{effT} = \frac{1}{f(T, p)q^2}$$

and that the maximum heat flux q^* is limited by channel length L (see excercises)

$$q^* = Z(T_{bath})L^{-1/3}$$

Nevertheless, since $f^{-1}(T,p)$ has values around $1000\,\mathrm{W}^3/\mathrm{cm}^5$, we get for $q=1\,\mathrm{W/cm}^3$ an effective conductivity of about $100\,\mathrm{kW/m\dot{K}}$. Two orders of magnitude above pure metals at low temperatures.



What makes superfluid helium as a coolant stand-out?

high heat capacity

largely dominates all other cold-mass materials at low temperatures --> increases stability

extremely low viscosity

even within very dense structures, just very low porosity is enough to bring the coolant near the hottest places

very good, but functionally special, effective thermal conductivity

orders of magnitude better than any other cold-mass material



Helium as...: conduction comparative

Normal helium (Hel):

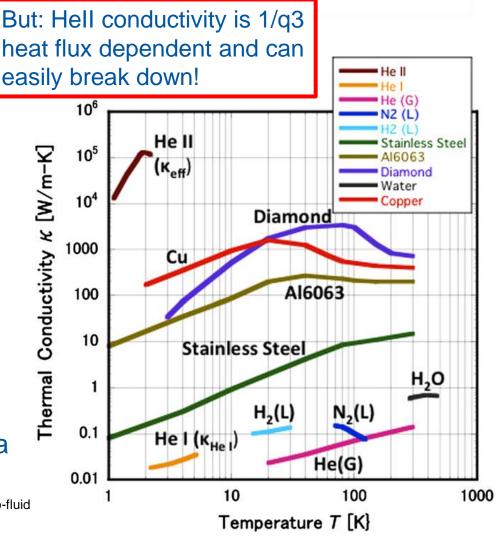
Temperature > 2.17 K
Bad thermal conductivity
Viscous

Superfluid helium (HeII):

Temperature < 2.17 K Peak in heat capacity c_p at T_λ High thermal conductivity Low / vanishing viscosity

→ If the substantially higher refrigeration cost (see later) can be justified than HeII is used as a conductive medium

Murakami, Experimental study of thermo-fluid dynamic effect in He II cavitating flow, Cryogenics, 2012.





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Intermezzo: Magnet-examples

Superconducting magnets come in *many variants and applications* ranging from small medical devices, motors, wind-power generators, huge particle detectors and plasma containing structures to km-long particle accelerators,...

The most common superconductors, NbTi, Nb₃Sn, MgB₂, HTS making up the magnet coils *generally operate at temperatures from 1.9 K*- *4.5 K*- *20 K*< *77 K*

Limiting the heating power from the room temperature environment to reach the low-temperature environment of the coils requires *heat intercepts at intermediate temperatures* (will be quantified later on)

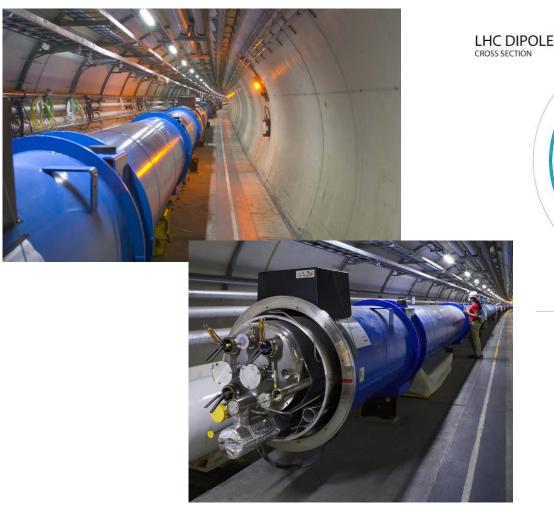
- 1. The superconducting magnet cryostats typically exhibit a "layered onion shape": High temperatures on one side and layers at decreasing temperature levels until the layer that incorporates the superconducting coil.
- 2. Temperature layers are separated by vacuum spaces to limit heat exchange by gas molecules
- 3. Mechanical support structures and visible "thermal radiation windows" between these layers are optimized for low heat conduction

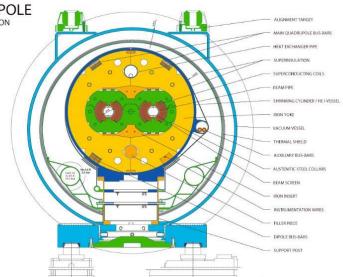


Magnet examples: LHC-particle (proton) accelerator

23 km superconducting magnets operating @ 1.9 K, NbTi-cables (HL-LHC upgrade quadrupole → Nb₃Sn)

1232 dipoles, 474 quadrupoles, 7612 corrector magnets

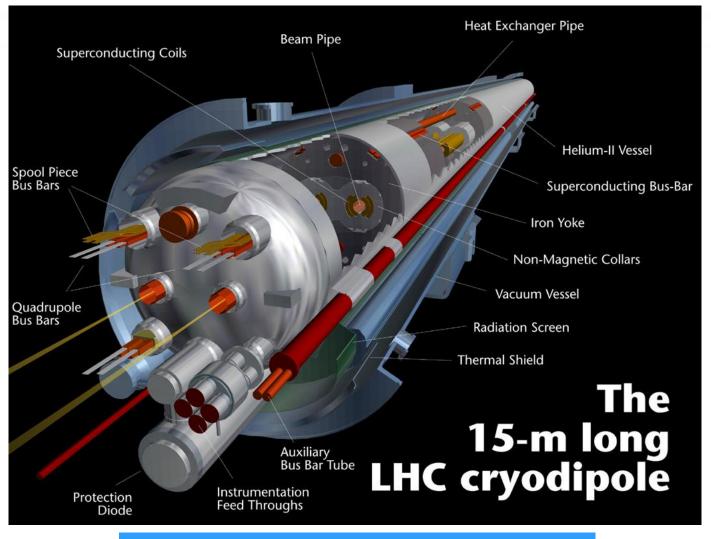




Fully helium- immersed magnet: coil, collars & yoke all @ 1.9 K (superfluid helium)

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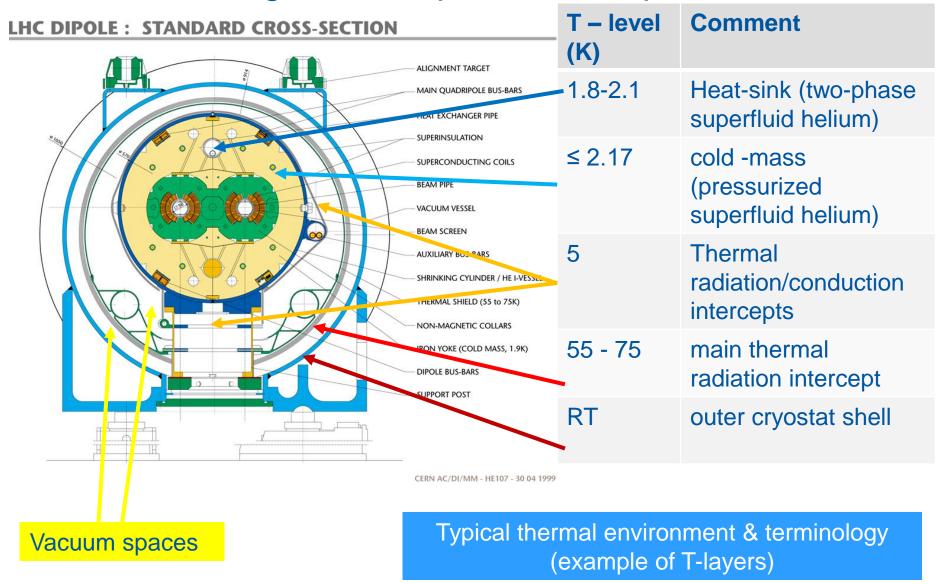
Magnet examples: LHC-dipole



Typical thermal environment & terminology



Magnet examples: LHC-dipole

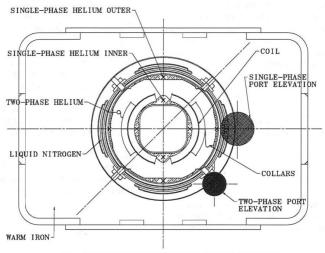




Magnet examples: Tevatron-particle accelerator

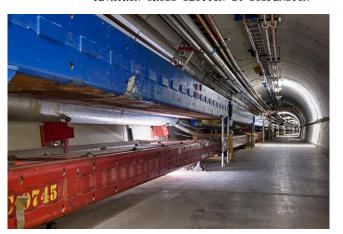
6.5 km of superconducting magnets operating @ 3.6 Kelvin, NbTi-cables & warm yoke

+777 dipoles, +216 quads, +204 correction elements

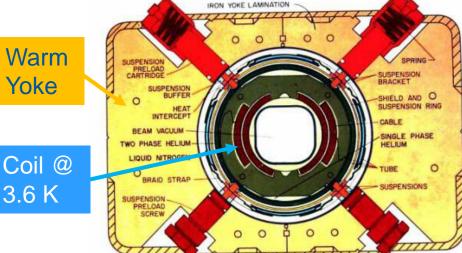


X = SINGLE-PHASE TEMPERATURE SENSOR LOCATION

TEVATRON CROSS-SECTION at SUSPENSION



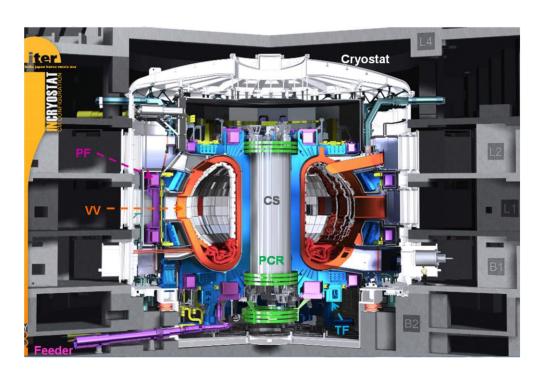






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Magnet examples: ITER — fusion Toroidal Field (TF) operating @ 4–6 K force flow cooled K, Nb3Sn-cables



Nb₃Sn, operating at 4-6 K, force flow cooled

https://www.iter.org/mach/Magnets





Magnet examples: MRI

CEA/Irfu for NeuroSpin (900mm bore 11.74T 500MHz) magnet





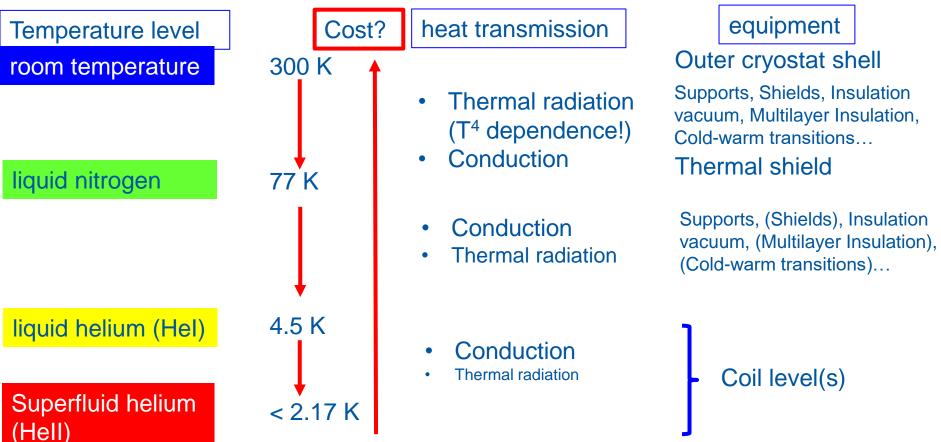
Nb3Sn @ 1.9 K

https://joliot.cea.fr/drf/joliot/en/Pages/research_entities/NeuroSpin.aspx



(and "Why do we need to talk about it?")

The superconducting magnet cryostats typically exhibit a "layered onion – shape": High temperatures on one side and layers at decreasing temperature levels until the layer that incorporates the superconducting coil.





(and "Why do we need to talk about it?")

In general, cooling is done by using a working fluid, helium in our case (I'll refrain from H_2) and making it undergo a closed thermodynamic cycle that *removes heat at low temperature* (T_{cold}) and rejects the heat at *room temperature* (T_{room}).

This process requires work

Coefficient of Performance COP: the heat absorbed from the cold sink divided by the net work required to remove this heat

Ideally (i.e. thermodynamically reversible process) the "Carnot cycle coefficient":

$$COP_{ideal} = \frac{1}{(\frac{Troom}{Tcold} - 1)}$$

(and "Why do we need to talk about it?")

In practice, the inverse (COP -1) is often stated, as this shows the number of watts of work required to provide 1 Watt of cooling at a given temperature:

T _{cold} (K)	COP _{ideal}	COP-1 _{ideal} (W/W)
77	0.35	3
4.5	0.015	66
1.9	0.0064	157

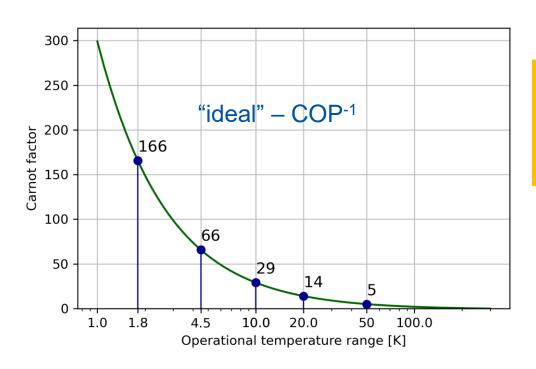
!Take with care "Ideal" values" (see next slides)

→ it is always thermodynamically more efficient to intercept heat (provide cooling) at higher temperatures!

("These values are why we need to talk about it")

Power consumption at refrigerator I/F

The (*warning!*) "ideal" inverse coefficient of performance (COP-1) power consumption electric power needed per power at cold (W/W).



→ it is always thermodynamically more efficient to intercept heat (provide cooling) at higher temperatures!



(and "Why do we need to talk about it?")

In the real world we do not manage to have a cryoplant that operates a fully reversible (ideal) process.

A measure of how good a cryoplant operates is the Figure of Merit (FOM):

$$FOM = \frac{COP_{real}}{COP_{ideal}}$$

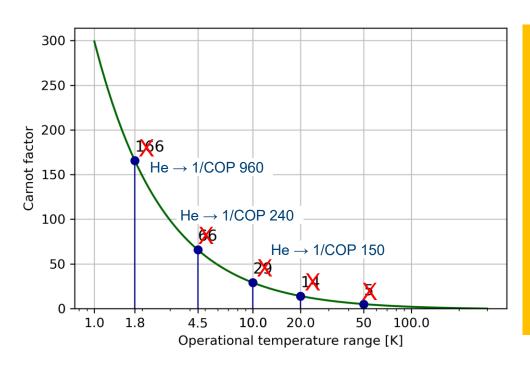
Even the latest LHC cryoplants do not exceed a FOM ≈ 30 %

In addition to the non-ideal COP-value one has to add-in a non-negligible power loss to account for the distribution of the coolants (think of pumping losses p.e.). These distribution costs depend heavily on the cooling implementation and are not examined here.

("These values are why we need to talk about it")

Power consumption at refrigerator I/F
From heat loads to power consumption based on actual machine data

The inverse coefficient of performance (COP-1) at refrigerator interface was estimated to give a semi-realistic power consumption.



- Carnot efficiency gives a potential reduction in operational costs
 - e.g. from 4.5 K to 10 K there is a potential factor 2.3 improvement in efficiency
- But reality (process inefficiencies) need to be considered
 - Actual COP at refrigerator interface for 10 K is 150 vs. 240 at 4.5 K → factor 1.6 improvement in efficiency (W/W)
- Losses on distribution and heat extraction systems still need to be added (up to 30%-50%!)



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("These values are why we need to talk about it")

Power consumption at refrigerator I/F
From heat loads to power consumption based on actual machine data

The inverse coefficient of performance (COP-1) at refrigerator interface was estimated to give a <u>semi-realistic</u> power consumption.

Temperat ure level	COP ⁻¹ in W _{elect} /W _{cool}	FOM (%)	Source		
250 K	1		CO ₂ plant ATLAS ITk		
100 K	12		LN ₂ plant ATLAS		
80 K	16	17	LN ₂ plant ATLAS		
20 K	50		20 K/50 kW plot Frey		
10 K	150		LHC cryoplant data		
4.5 K	240	28	LHC cryoplant data		
2.0 K	960	16	LHC cryoplant data		

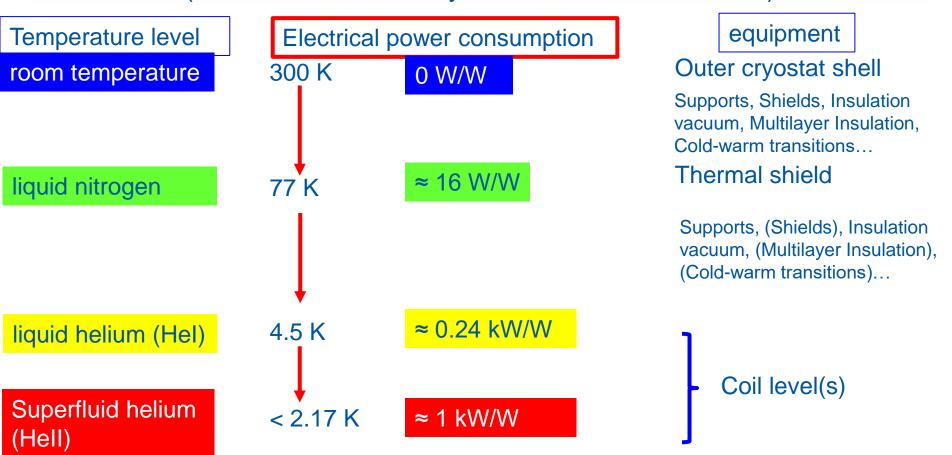
The efficiency of 2.0 K cryoplant wrt 4.5 K goes down much more than you'd estimate from the "ideal" Carnot: from 28 % down to 16 %!

→ Be careful not to fully rely power consumption-scaling, when changing temperatures, on ideal Carnot coefficient ratios!

> ≈ 1 kW/W @ 2.0 K! ≈ 0.24 kW/W @ 4.5 K



("These values are why we need to talk about it?")



Take away: try to incorporate in the magnet design, whenever possible, features to intercept heat at as high T as possible!

