




Vacuum Technology for Superconducting Devices

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Outline


- **Some definitions and degree of vacuum.**
- **Thermal transport at low pressure.**
- **Mass transport at low pressure:**
 - ❖ Conductance
 - ❖ Pumping speed.
 - ❖ Electrical analogy.
- **Gas sources:**
 - ❖ Outgassing.
 - ❖ Inleakage.
- **Pumping technologies:**
 - ❖ Momentum transfer.
 - ❖ Capture pumps.
- **Pressure measurement in vacuum.**

Appendices


1. Basic elements.
2. Numerical values for slides 6 and 7.
3. Numerical values of conductances.
4. Pressure profiles.
5. Outgassing values.
6. Complement of info about sputter ion pumps.
7. A few notes about cryopumps.

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Some Definitions and Degree of Vacuum



Vacuum for superconductivity in particle accelerators:

1. Thermal insulation for cryogenic systems.
2. Physical vapour deposition of superconducting thin films


	Pressure boundaries [mbar]	Pressure boundaries [Pa]
Low Vacuum LV	10^3 -1	10^5 - 10^2
Medium Vacuum MV	1 - 10^{-3}	10^2 - 10^{-1}
High Vacuum HV	10^{-3} - 10^{-9}	10^{-1} - 10^{-7}
Ultra High vacuum UHV	10^{-9} - 10^{-12}	10^{-7} - 10^{-10}
Extreme Vacuum XHV	$<10^{-12}$	$<10^{-10}$




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Some Definitions and Degree of Vacuum



The framework:


1. **Ideal gas :**

$$PV = N_{moles}RT \Rightarrow PV = N_{molecules}k_B T \Rightarrow N_{molecules} = \frac{PV}{k_B T}; n = \frac{P}{k_B T}$$
2. **Maxwell-Boltzmann model:**

molecular mean speed	impingement rate	mean free path
$\langle v \rangle = \sqrt{\frac{8k_B T}{\pi m}}$	$\varphi = \frac{1}{4} n \langle v \rangle = \frac{1}{4} n \sqrt{\frac{8 k_B T}{\pi m}}$	$l = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2} n \pi \delta^2}$
<p>RT: $\langle v \rangle_{H_2} = 1761 \frac{m}{s}$ LHe: $\langle v \rangle_{H_2} = 213 \frac{m}{s}$</p>	<p>RT - $10^{-8} Pa - N_2$ $\varphi = 1.1 \cdot 10^{11} \frac{collisions}{cm^2 s}$</p>	<p>RT - $10^{-8} Pa - N_2$ $l \cong 700 km$</p>

Knudsen number $\Rightarrow K_n = \frac{l}{D}$


D is a characteristic dimension of a vacuum system (e.g. the diameter of a beam pipe).




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Some Definitions and Degree of Vacuum



K _n range	Regime	Description
K _n > 0.5	Free molecular flow	The gas dynamics are dominated by molecular collisions with the walls of the system
K _n < 0.01	Continuous (viscous) flow	The gas dynamics are dominated by intermolecular collisions
0.5 < K _n < 0.01	Transitional flow	Transition between molecular and viscous flow


Both heat and mass transport are strongly dependent on the gas flow regime.




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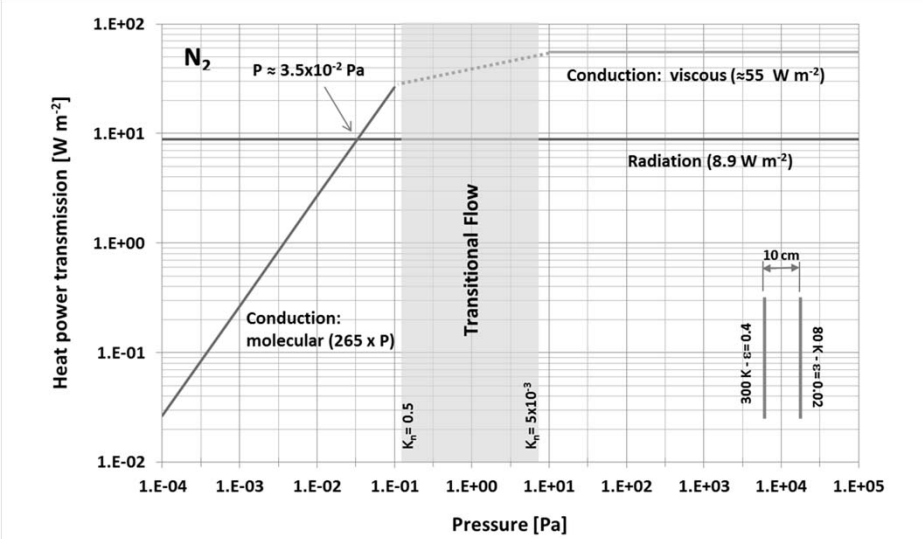
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Thermal Transport at Low Pressure





Pressure [Pa]

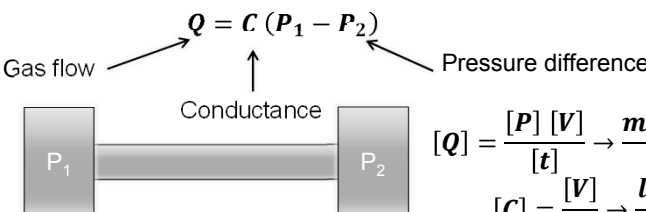


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Mass Transport at Low Pressure: Conductance



$$[Q] = \frac{[P] [V]}{[t]} \rightarrow \frac{\text{mbar l}}{\text{s}}$$

$$[C] = \frac{[V]}{[t]} \rightarrow \frac{\text{l}}{\text{s}}$$

For N₂:

T = 300K
Cylindrical duct
L = 2 m; D = 0.1 m


In molecular: **C ≈ 60 l/s**

In viscous: **C ≈ 70000 l/s**
for P₁-P₂ = 1000 Pa

C depends on:

molecular regime	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Geometry of the duct • Mass of the gas molecule • Temperature of the gas 	viscous regime
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Viscosity • Pressure • Reynolds number 	

Conductances are much lower in molecular regime.



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Mass Transport at Low Pressure: Conductance

Wall slot of area A and infinitesimal thickness; molecular regime:

T, P ₁	T, P ₂
A	

$$C = \frac{1}{4} A \langle v \rangle = AC' \rightarrow \frac{\text{l}}{\text{s}}$$


$$C' = \frac{1}{4} \langle v \rangle \rightarrow \frac{\text{l}}{\text{s} \cdot \text{cm}^2}$$

In general, the transmission probability τ is introduced:

(see appendix 3, p. 53)

Vessel 1

P ₁	A ₁
----------------	----------------



Vessel 2

A ₂	P ₂
----------------	----------------

$$C = A_1 C' \tau_{1 \rightarrow 2}$$

$$C = [AC' = \text{conductance of the aperture}] \times [\text{molecular transmission probability}]$$



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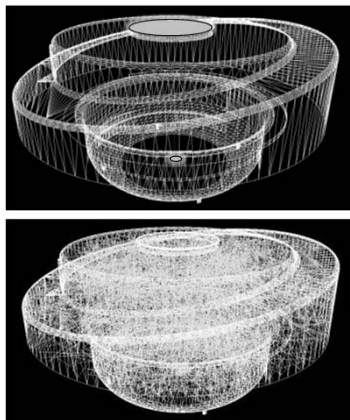
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Mass Transport at Low Pressure: Conductance

Analytical expressions for the transmission probability can be found for ducts of circular, rectangular and elliptical cross section. For long cylindrical tubes: $\tau \approx \frac{8R}{3L}$.

$$\rightarrow C = C' A \tau \approx 11.75 \times \frac{\pi D^2}{4} \times \frac{4D}{3L} = 12.3 \frac{D^3}{L} \left[\frac{l}{s} \right] \quad ([D] \text{ and } [l] = \text{cm})$$

For more complicated geometry, Test-Particle Monte Carlo methods (TPMC) are used.



roberto.kersevan@cern.ch

A test-particle Monte-Carlo simulator for ultra-high-vacuum systems

<http://cern.ch/test-molflow>



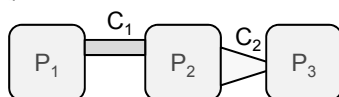
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Mass Transport at Low Pressure: Conductance



$$\begin{aligned} Q_1 &= C_1(P_1 - P_2) \\ Q_2 &= C_2(P_2 - P_3) \\ Q_{TOT} &= C_{TOT}(P_1 - P_3) \end{aligned}$$

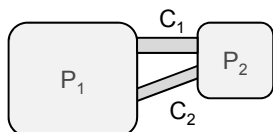
In steady conditions, there is no gas accumulation in the whole system: $Q_1=Q_2=Q_3$

It can be easily verified that: $C_{TOT} = \frac{C_1 C_2}{C_1 + C_2}$ and $\frac{1}{C_{TOT}} = \frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2}$:

In general for N vacuum components traversed by the same gas flux, i.e. placed in series :

$$\frac{1}{C_{TOT}} = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{C_i}$$

For components placed in parallel (same pressures at the extremities):



$$\begin{aligned} Q_1 &= C_1(P_1 - P_2) \\ Q_2 &= C_2(P_1 - P_2) \\ Q_{TOT} &= C_{TOT}(P_1 - P_2) \end{aligned}$$

$$Q_{TOT} = Q_1 + Q_2 \rightarrow C_{TOT} = C_1 + C_2 \rightarrow C_{TOT} = \sum_{i=1}^N C_i$$




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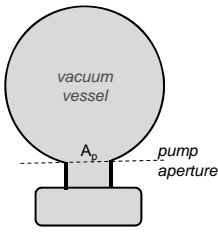
Mass Transport at Low Pressure: Pumping Speed




In vacuum technology a pump is any 'object' that remove gas molecules from the gas phase.
 The pumping speed **S** of a pump is defined as the **ratio** between the **pump throughput Q_p** (flow of gas definitively removed) and the **pressure P at the entrance** of the pump:

$$S = \frac{Q_p}{P} \quad [S] = \frac{[Volume]}{[Time]} = [conductance]$$

The molecule removal rate can be written as $\frac{1}{4} A_p n \langle v \rangle \sigma = A_p C' n \sigma = A_p C' \frac{P}{k_B T} n \sigma$



A_p : is the area of the pump aperture
 C' : is the conductance of the unit surface area
 n : the gas density
 σ : the capture probability, i.e. the probability that a molecule entering the pump is definitively captured




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Mass Transport at Low Pressure: Pumping Speed



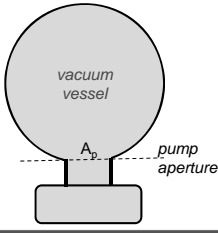
As usual, in term of pressure and PV units:

$$Q_p = A_p C' \sigma P \rightarrow S = A_p C' \sigma$$


S depends on the conductance of the pump aperture $A_p C'$ and the capture probability σ .
 σ may depend on many parameters including pressure, kind of gas, and quantity of gas already pumped.

The **maximum pumping speed** is obtained for $\sigma = 1$ and is equal to the conductance of the pump aperture.

Maximum pumping speed [l s^{-1}] for different circular pump apertures



ID [mm]	H ₂	N ₂	Ar
36	448	120	100
63	1371	367	307
100	3456	924	773
150	7775	2079	1739




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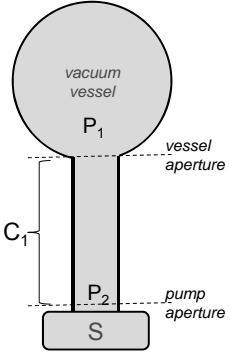
Mass Transport at Low Pressure: Pumping Speed

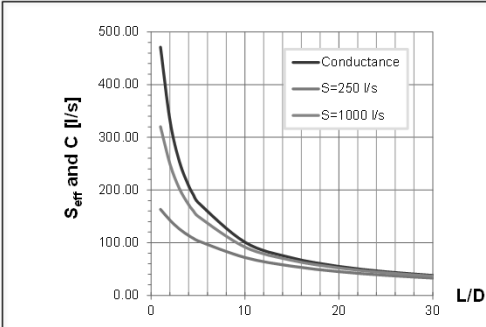


A gas flow restriction interposed between a pump and a vacuum vessel reduces the 'useful' pumping speed. The effective pumping speed S_{eff} seen by the vacuum vessel is easily calculated:


$$Q = C_1(P_1 - P_2) = SP_2 = S_{eff}P_1$$

$$\frac{1}{S_{eff}} = \frac{1}{S} + \frac{1}{C} \quad \text{when } C \ll S: S_{eff} \approx C$$





Example
Vessel and pump connected by a 100 mm diameter tube; N_2 , $S=250$ l/s and 1000 l/s.




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Efficient pumping?





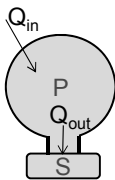
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Mass Transport at Low Pressure: Transient



From the ideal gas equation: $PV = Nk_B T \rightarrow V \frac{dP}{dt} = k_B T \frac{dN}{dt}$

A gas balance equation can be written as: $\frac{dN}{dt} = N_{in} - N_{out}$

$V \frac{dP}{dt} = k_B T (N_{in} - N_{out})$; in PV units: $V \frac{dP}{dt} = (Q_{in} - Q_{out})$

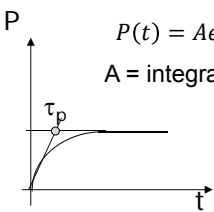
The pumped gas rate is: $Q_{out} = SP \rightarrow V \frac{dP}{dt} = Q_{in} - SP$


$P(t) = Ae^{-\frac{t}{\tau_p}} + \frac{Q_{in}}{S}$

A = integration constant

$\left\{ \begin{aligned} P(0) = P_0 &\rightarrow P(t) = \left(P_0 - \frac{Q_{in}}{S}\right) e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_p}} + \frac{Q_{in}}{S} \\ P(0) = 0 &\rightarrow P(t) = \frac{Q_{in}}{S} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_p}}\right) \end{aligned} \right.$

$\tau_p = \frac{V}{S}$ characteristic time of pumping







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




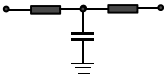
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Electrical analogy

Vacuum element	Electrical elements
Conductance C	Conductance 1/R 
Gas Flow Q	Current I
Pressure P	Voltage V
Volume V	Capacitance C 
Pump	Conductance to ground 
Gas source	Current generator 
Constant pressure source	Voltage supply 
Vacuum chamber with conductance and volume	

- The ground potential is equivalent to zero pressure.
- Long tubes** are divided into 'n' subparts in order to evaluate the pressure profile along the main axes. $C_n = C_{TOT} \times n$ and $V_n = V_{TOT}/n$.
- Non-linear** electric characteristics can be used to simulate pressure and time dependent conductance and pumping speed.
- In this way pressure profiles and transients in **viscous regime** can be calculated.



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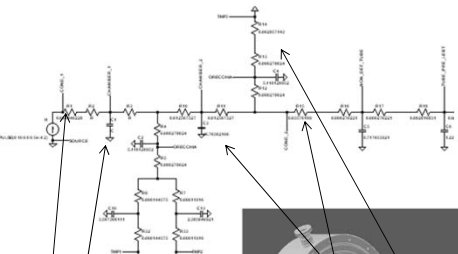
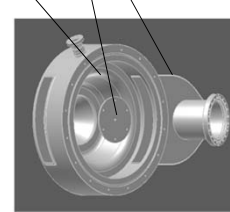
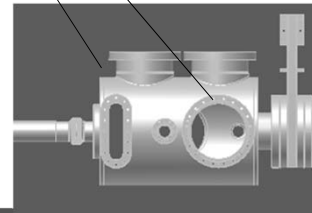
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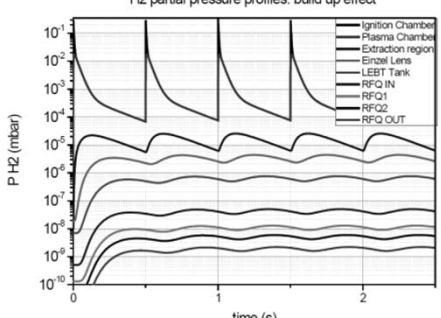
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Simple example: differential pumping


A more complex example: part of the Linac4 H-source (from C. Pasquino et al., CERN, ATS/Note/2012/043 Ti)


H2 partial pressure profiles: build up effect



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Gas Sources




oils, dirt, ... →	Gross contamination	
$C_xH_y, H_2O, Cl, \dots \rightarrow$	Sorption layer (≈nm)	← solvents and/or ← detergents cleaning
$Me_xO_y \rightarrow$	Oxide layer (1-10 nm)	← chemical pickling
excess dislocation, voids →	Damaged skin (10-100 μm)	← etching and ← electropolishing
	Undamaged metal	

Courtesy of M. Taborelli

Solvents: their molecules interact and transport contaminants away by diffusion (dilution) -> quite selective! (C_2Cl_4 , wide spectrum; HFC, more restricted action)


Detergents in water: allows organics and water to combine by forming micelle (surfactant: **surface acting agent**). Based on molecule with hydrophilic heads and lipophilic tail: less selective than solvents




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Gas Sources: Outgassing



Any material in vacuum is a spontaneous source of gas.

Metals

After state-of-art surface cleaning:

- If not heated in situ: mainly **H₂O** for the first months in vacuum, then also H₂.

$$q_{H_2O} \approx \frac{3 \times 10^{-9} \left[\frac{\text{mbar l}}{\text{s cm}^2} \right]}{t[\text{h}]}$$


The source of H₂O is recharged after each venting to air.

- If heated in situ (baked-out): mainly **H₂**. The outgassing rate can be assumed as constant; it depends on the accumulated effect of the previous thermal treatments.

Organics (Polymers)

- High solubility of gas in the bulk, in particular **H₂O**.
- In general, the outgassing process is dominated by H₂O release.
- In the initial phase of pumping:


$$q_{H_2O} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{t}}$$
- Heavier gas molecules can be outgassed (remnant of polymerization, fraction of polymeric chains).
- The **permeation** of light molecules is not negligible, in particular He.




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Gas Sources: Outgassing



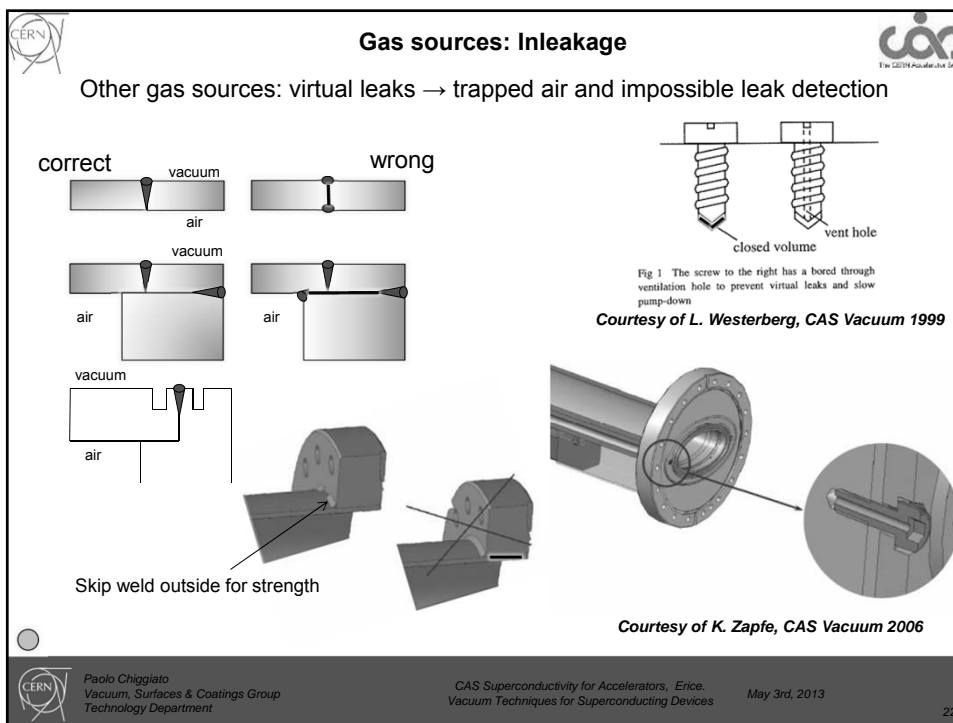
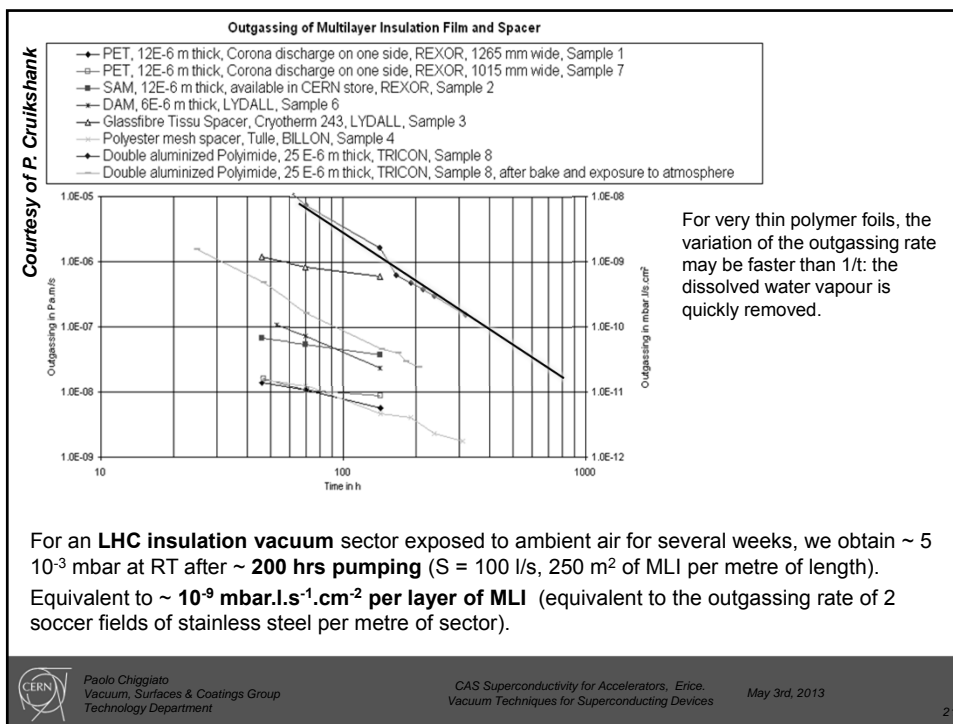
	Material	q (mbar l s ⁻¹ cm ⁻²)	Main gas species
At room temperature	Neoprene, not baked, after 10 h of pumping	order of 10 ⁻⁵	H ₂ O
	Viton, not baked, after 10 h of pumping	order of 10 ⁻⁷	H ₂ O
	Austenitic stainless steel, not baked, after 10 h of pumping	3 × 10 ⁻¹⁰	H ₂ O
	Austenitic stainless steel, baked at 150°C for 24 h	3 × 10 ⁻¹²	H ₂
	OFS copper, baked at 200°C for 24 h	order of 10 ⁻¹⁴	H ₂




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Gas Pumping



In molecular regime:


- Gas molecules cannot be removed by suction: the molecules do not transfer energy and momentum among them; the pumps act on each molecule singularly.
- Pumps are classified in two families:
 - momentum transfer pumps;
 - capture pumps.
- Capture pumps remove molecules from the gas phase by fixing them onto an internal wall.
- To do so the sojourn time on the wall has to be much longer than the typical time of the accelerator run. An estimation of sojourn time is given by the Frenkel law *J. Frenkel, Z. Physik, 26, 117 (1924)*:

$$t_s = t_0 e^{\frac{E_a}{k_B T}}$$

where E_a is the adsorption energy and $t_0 \approx \frac{h}{k_B T} \approx 10^{-13}$ s.

$E_a \gg k_B T \rightarrow$ Chemical pumps (**getter pumps**)


$T \ll \frac{E_a}{k_B} \rightarrow$ **Cryopumps**

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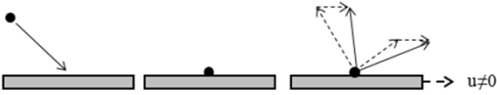
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Gas pumping: Momentum Transfer Pumps

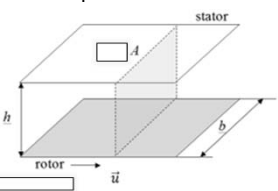


Molecules impinge and adsorb on the moving surface; on desorption the velocity distribution is superimposed by the drift velocity of the wall \rightarrow a moving wall generates a gas flow.



The molecules receive a momentum components pointing towards the pump outlet where the gas is compressed and finally evacuated by pumps working in viscous regime.


The most important characteristics of molecular pumps are:



- Pumping speed $\Rightarrow S \propto u \times A$
- Maximum compression ratio:

$$K_0 = \left(\frac{P_{OUT}}{P_{IN}}\right)_{MAX} \propto \exp\left[\frac{u}{\langle v \rangle} \times \frac{L}{h}\right] \propto \exp\left[u\sqrt{m} \times \frac{L}{h}\right]$$

S does not depend significantly on the mass of the molecule.
K₀ depends exponentially on the wall speed and square root of the gas molecule mass.



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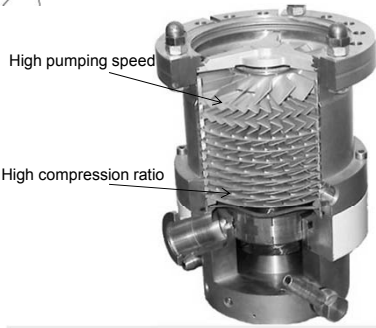
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Gas pumping: Momentum Transfer Pumps

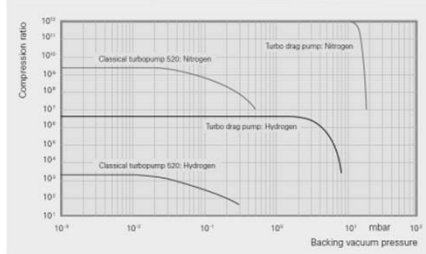



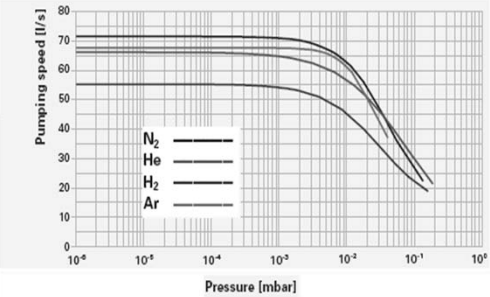


Courtesy of Pfeiffer Vacuum

TMP pumping speeds are in the range from 10 l/s to 25,000 l/s.

Their ultimate pressure (H_2) is of the order of 10^{-10} , 10^{-11} mbar







Courtesy of Pfeiffer Vacuum
<http://www.pfeiffer-vacuum.com>

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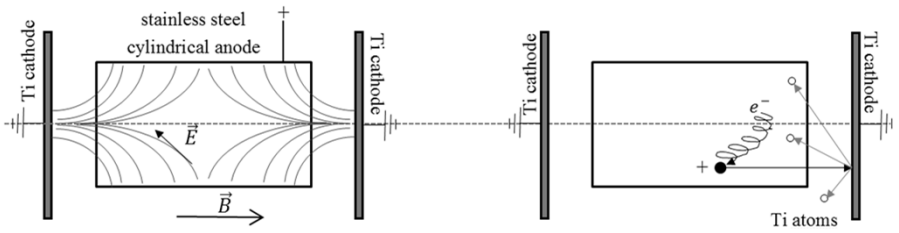
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Gas Pumping: Sputter Ion Pumps (SIP)

- In SIP the residual gas is ionized in a Penning cell.



- The ions are accelerated towards a cathode made of a reactive metal.
- The collisions provoke sputtering of reactive-metal atoms that are deposited on the nearby surfaces.

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Gas Pumping: Sputter Ion Pumps (SIP)

- The pumping action is given by:
 1. **chemical adsorption onto the reactive metal layer** and subsequent burial by additional metallic atoms of gas molecules: all gases except rare gases
 2. **implantation of gas ions into the cathode and of energetic neutrals** bounced back from the cathode into the deposited film: only mechanism of pumping for rare gases
 3. **diffusion** into the cathode and the deposited film: only H₂

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Gas Pumping: Getter Pumps

The surface of getter materials reacts with gas molecules by forming **stable chemical compounds**.

This is **possible only** if the surface is clean, **free of contamination and native oxide**.

The clean metallic surface is obtained by:

1. **Sublimating** the reactive metal in situ → **Evaporable Getters, Sublimation Pumps**.
2. **Dissolving** the surface contamination into the bulk of the getter material by heating in situ (**activation**): Non-Evaporable Getters **NEG**.

Getter surfaces are characterized by the sticking probability α :

$$\alpha = \frac{\text{number of molecules captured}}{\text{number of molecules impinging}}$$

$$0 \leq \alpha \leq 1 \quad S = \alpha A_{\text{getter}} C'$$

For $\alpha=1$, the pumping speed of the surface is equal to its maximum pumping speed.
Getter materials do not pump rare gases, and methane at room temperature.

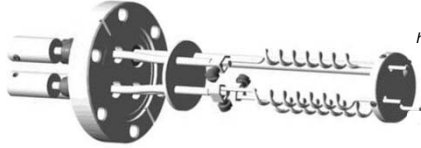
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Gas Pumping: Evaporable Getter Pumps

For particle accelerators **Ti is the sublimated metal**.
 Ti alloy rods are heated up to 1500°C attaining a Ti vapour pressure of about 10^{-3} mbar.



Courtesy of Kurt J. Lesker Company
http://www.lesker.com/newweb/Vacuum_Pumps

The sticking probabilities depend on the nature of the gas and the quantity of gas already pumped.

$$\alpha_{\max} \begin{cases} H_2: 10^{-2} \leq \alpha \leq 10^{-1} \\ CO: 5 \times 10^{-1} \leq \alpha \leq 1 \end{cases}$$

The sticking probability is negligible:

- For CO, one monolayer adsorbed
- For O₂ several monolayer
- For N₂ fraction of monolayer

Hydrogen diffuses in the Ti film → much higher capacity

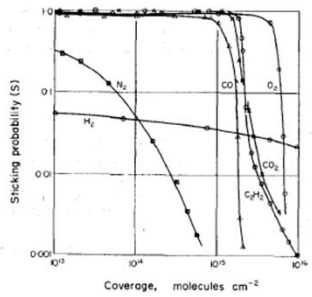


Figure 4. Room temperature sorption characteristics for pure gases on batch evaporated clean titanium films.
 A K Gupta and J H Leek, *Vacuum*, 25(1975)362

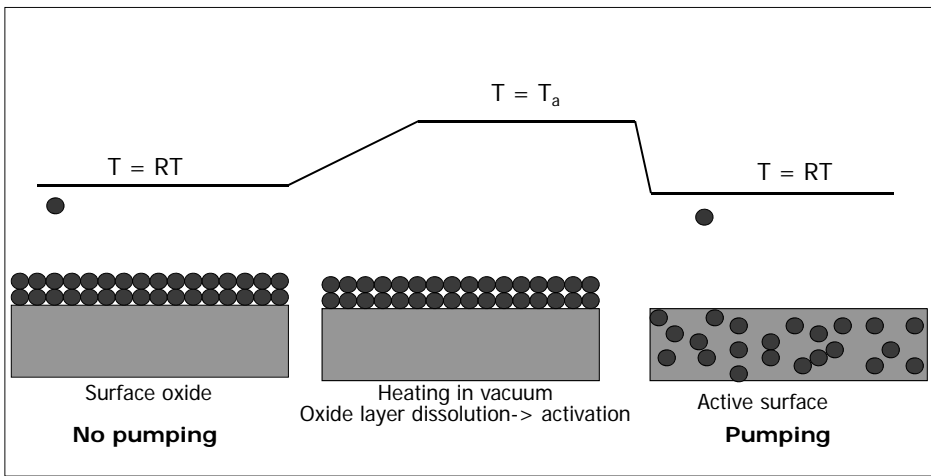
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Gas Pumping: Non-Evaporable Getter Pumps


The dissolution of the oxide layer is possible only in metals having very high oxygen solubility limit, namely the elements of the 4th group: Ti, Zr and Hf.




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Gas Pumping: Non-Evaporable Getter Pumps




The activation temperature of the **4th group elements** can be decreased by adding selected elements which increase oxygen diffusivity.

NEG materials are produced industrially by powder technology. Small fragments are sintered to form pellets, discs or plates. The powder can also be pressed at room temperature on metallic ribbon.

A typical alloy produced by SAES Getter is **St707**:

Element	Concentration [wt. %]	Main role in the alloy
Zr	70	- High O solubility limit. - Chemical reactivity
V	24.6	- Increases O diffusivity, - Chemical reactivity
Fe	5.4	- Reduces pyrophoricity


Full pumping speed is obtained after heating at 400°C for 45' or 300°C for 24h


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Gas Pumping: Non-Evaporable Getter Pumps




St 171® and St 172 - Sintered Porous Getters

CapaciTorr D 2000 MK5 (nude)

□ Sorption temperature: 25 °C
 □ Activation: 450 °C ± 45°
 □ Sorption pressure: 3x10⁻⁶ Torr

— nude — with CF-100 body

The **high porosity of NEG materials** allows pumping of relatively high quantities of gas without reactivation.



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Courtesy of SAES Getters, www.saesgetters.com

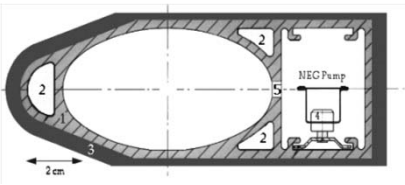


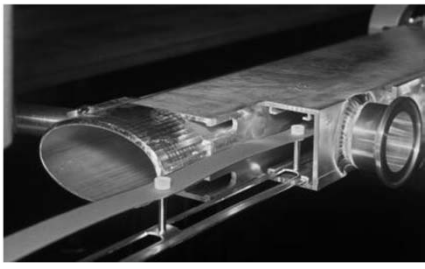
Gas Pumping: Non-Evaporable Getter Pumps




Linear pumping may be obtained by NEG ribbons.

LEP dipole vacuum chamber





The first application was in the LEP.




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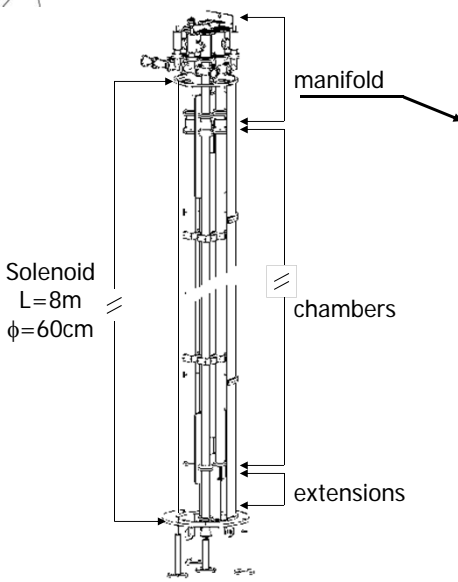
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Gas Pumping: Non-Evaporable Getter Coatings





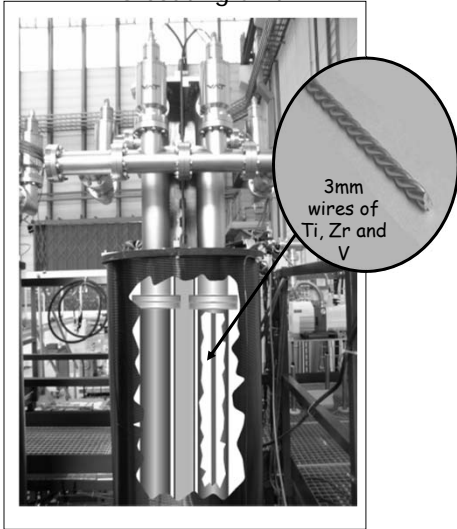
Solenoid
L=8m
 $\phi=60\text{cm}$

manifold


chambers

extensions

NEG coating unit



3mm
wires of
Ti, Zr and
V




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Gas Pumping: Non-Evaporable Getter Coatings






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Gas Pumping: Cryopumping

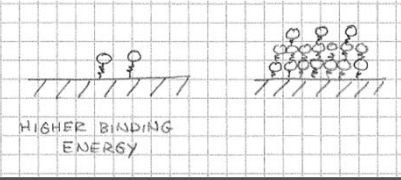


Cryopumping relies on three different pumping mechanisms:


1. **Cryocondensation:** is based on the mutual attraction of **similar** molecules at low temperature:
 - a. the key property is the **saturated vapour pressure**, i.e. the pressure of the gas phase in equilibrium with the condensate at a given temperature. It limits the attainable pressure.
 - b. Only Ne, H₂ and He have saturated vapour pressures higher than 10⁻¹¹ mbar at 20 K.

VAPOR PRESSURES OF COMMON GASES

- c. The vapour pressure of H₂ at 4.3 K is in the 10⁻⁷ mbar range, at 1.9 lower than 10⁻¹² mbar.
- d. Large quantity of gas can be cryocondensed (limited only by the thermal conductivity of the condensate phase and the thermal flow)



HIGHER BINDING ENERGY




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Gas Pumping: Cryopumping



2. Cryosorption: is based on the **attraction between molecules and substrate**. The interaction is much stronger than that between similar molecules:

- a) Gas molecules are pumped at pressures much lower than the saturated vapour pressure providing the adsorbed quantity is lower than one monolayer.
- a) **Porous materials** are used to increase the specific surface area; for charcoal about 1000 m² per gram are normally achieved.
- b) The important consequence is that significant quantities of H₂ can be pumped at 20 K and He at 4.3 K.
- c) Submonolayer quantities of all gases may be effectively cryosorbed at their own boiling temperature; for example at 77 K all gases except He, H₂ and Ne.

3. Cryotrapping : low boiling point gas molecules are trapped in the layer of an easily condensable gas. The trapped gas has a saturation vapor pressure by several orders of magnitude lower than in the pure condensate. Examples: Ar trapped in CO₂ at 77 K; H₂ trapped in N₂ at 20 K.




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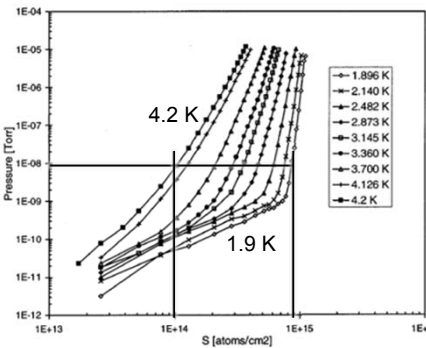
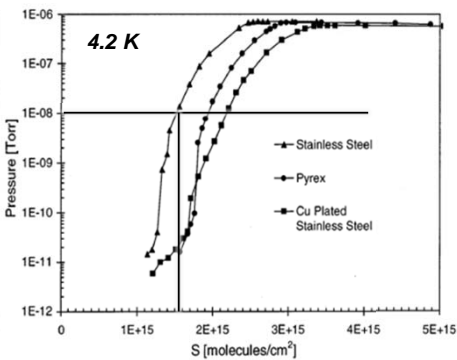


Gas Pumping: Cryopumping




LHC beam vacuum in the arcs

→ **Requirement:** 100 h beam life time (nuclear scattering) equivalent to ~ 10¹⁵ H₂/m³ (10⁻⁸ mbar of H₂ at 300 K).

Pumping capacity of He decreases by an order of magnitude between 1.9K and 4.2 K

E. Wallén, J. Vac. Sci. Technol. A 15, 265 (1997)




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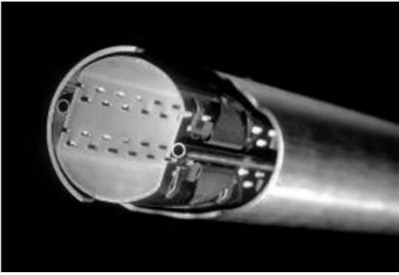
Gas Pumping: Cryopumping

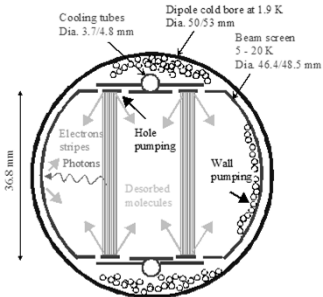


→ **Main gas source:** desorption stimulated by photon, electron and ion bombardment.


→ **Pumping:**
 Molecules with a low vapour pressure are first cryopumped onto the beam screen (CH_4 , H_2O , CO , CO_2) and then onto the cold bore.

Most of the H_2 is cryopumped onto the cold bore.





Courtesy of V. Baglin




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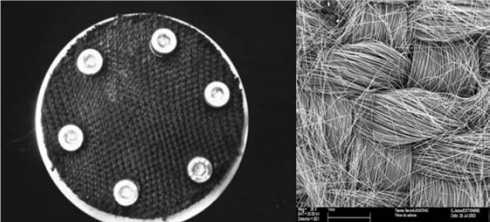
Gas Pumping: Cryopumping

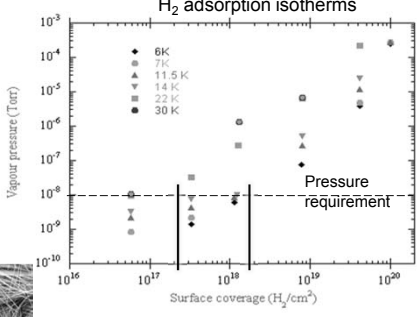


In a few cases, the cold bore temperature is higher than 1.9 K (stand alone magnets).

High specific surface materials are used to cryosorb H_2 .

Woven carbon fibers, developed at BINP






Courtesy of V. Baglin

Coverage limits :

- $10^{18} \text{ H}_2/\text{cm}^2$ at 6 K
- $10^{17} \text{ H}_2/\text{cm}^2$ at 30 K






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  Pressure Measurement				
Physical phenomena	Name of gauges	Pressure range of gauge family	Fields of application	Advantages/ Limitations
Force measurement due to ΔP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Manometers. McLeod. Bourdon. Capacitance. 	10^{-2} - 10^5 Pa	Metrology. Gas dosing. Gas line pressure.	Absolute gauges Easy to use
Viscous drag	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spinning rotor. 	10^{-4} - 10^3 Pa	Metrology.	High precision Cost Gas dependence To be used by trained technicians
Gas thermal conductivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pirani. Thermocouple. 	10^{-1} - 10^3	Rough measurement during pump-down.	Inexpensive Limited precision Fast response
Gas ionization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Bayard-Alpert Cold-cathode Extractor 	10^{-3} - 10^{-12}	HV-UHV monitoring XHV measurement	Low pressure BA:X-ray limitation Sensitive to contamination



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Conclusion




First Nb thin-film coated Cu cavity, at CERN by the Cris Benvenuti team in 1983.

The sputtering technique was used for the RF SC cavities of LEP2.

The experience in UHV technology achieved by the team during the ISR construction and upgrade was a key factor of their success.

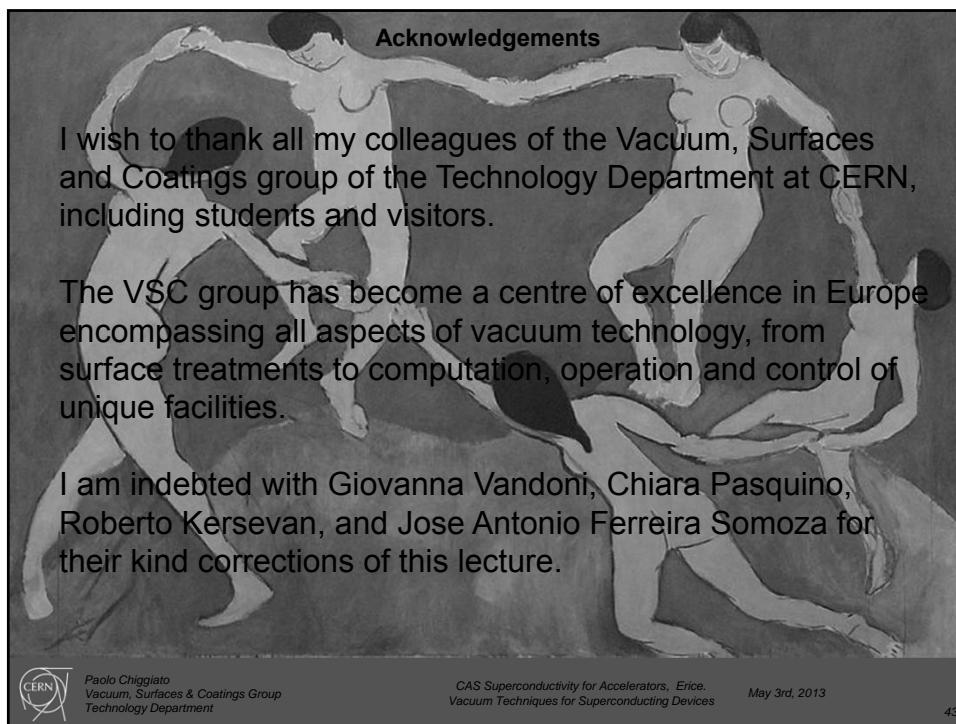
On the other hand, the experience in Nb thin films led to the invention of Non-Evaporable Getter thin film coatings


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Acknowledgements

I wish to thank all my colleagues of the Vacuum, Surfaces and Coatings group of the Technology Department at CERN, including students and visitors.

The VSC group has become a centre of excellence in Europe encompassing all aspects of vacuum technology, from surface treatments to computation, operation and control of unique facilities.

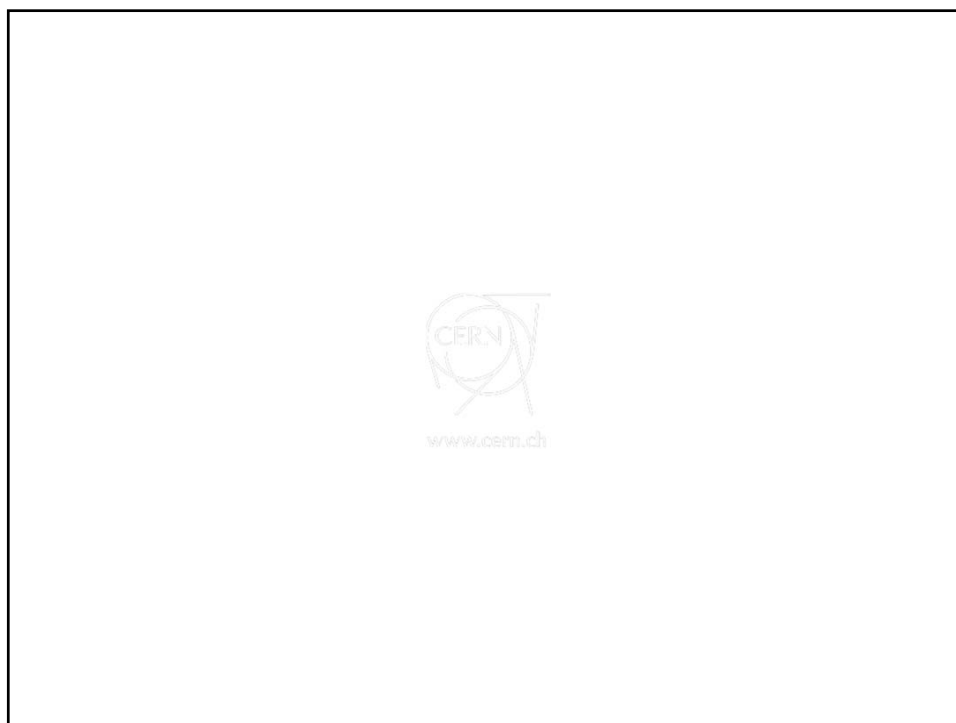
I am indebted with Giovanna Vandoni, Chiara Pasquino, Roberto Kersevan, and Jose Antonio Ferreira Somoza for their kind corrections of this lecture.



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Appendices





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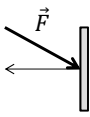
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Appendix 1: Basic Elements, Pressure Units

Definition of pressure: $\frac{|Force\ component\ in\ normal\ direction|}{Surface\ area}$




Units of measurement: $\frac{[Force]}{[Surface]} \rightarrow \frac{N}{m^2} = Pa \rightarrow 10^5 Pa = 1\ bar \rightarrow 1\ atm = 1.013\ bar$

In vacuum technology: **mbar** or **Pa**

Still used in vacuum technology (particularly in USA): **Torr**
1 Torr \rightarrow pressure exerted by a column of 1 mm of Hg, 1 atm = 760 Torr

Conversion Table

	Pa	bar	atm	Torr
1 Pa	1	10^{-5}	$9.87 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$7.5 \cdot 10^{-3}$
1 bar	10^5	1	0.987	750.06
1 atm	$1.013 \cdot 10^5$	1.013	1	760
1 Torr	133.32	$1.33 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.32 \cdot 10^{-3}$	1




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Appendix 1: Basic Elements, Gas Density



$P = n k_B T$


	Pressure (Pa)	293 K (molecules cm ⁻³)	4.3 K (molecules cm ⁻³)
Atmospheric pressure at sea level	1.013×10^5	2.5×10^{19}	1.7×10^{21}
Typical plasma chambers	1	2.5×10^{14}	1.7×10^{16}
LHC experimental beam pipes	10^{-9}	2.5×10^5	1.7×10^7
Lowest pressure ever measured at room temperature	10^{-12}	250	1.7×10^4

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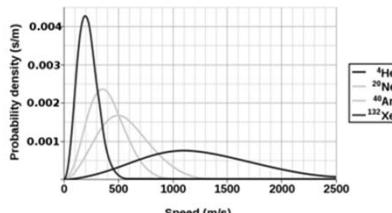
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Appendix 1: Basic Elements, Mean speed of a molecule



Maxwell-Boltzmann Molecular Speed Distribution for Noble Gases



Courtesy of Wikipedia: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Maxwell%E2%80%93Boltzmann_distribution


Mean speed of a molecule

In the kinetic theory of gas the mean speed of a molecule is the mathematical average of the speed distribution:

$$\langle v \rangle = \sqrt{\frac{8 k_B T}{\pi m}} = \sqrt{\frac{8 R T}{\pi M}}$$

m is the molecular mass [Kg]
M is the molar mass [Kg]

Gas	$\langle v \rangle$ at 293 K $\left[\frac{m}{s}\right]$	$\langle v \rangle$ at 4.3 K $\left[\frac{m}{s}\right]$
H ₂	1761	213
He	1244	151
CH ₄	622	75
N ₂	470	57
Ar	394	48

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Appendix 1: Basic Elements, Impingement rate

$$\varphi = \frac{1}{4} n \langle v \rangle = \frac{1}{4} n \sqrt{\frac{8 k_B T}{\pi m}}$$

$$\varphi [\text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}] = 2.635 \cdot 10^{22} \frac{P [\text{mbar}]}{\sqrt{M [\text{g}] T [\text{K}]}}$$

Gas	Pressure [mbar]	Impingement rate 293 K [cm ⁻² s ⁻¹]
H ₂	10 ⁻³	1.1 10 ¹⁸
	10 ⁻⁸	1.1 10 ¹³
	10 ⁻¹⁴	1.1 10 ⁷
N ₂	10 ⁻³	2.9 10 ¹⁷
	10 ⁻⁸	2.9 10 ¹²
Ar	10 ⁻³	2.4 10 ¹⁷
	10 ⁻⁸	2.4 10 ¹²

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Appendix 1: Basic Elements, Mean Free Path

The molecular collision rate ω in a gas is:

$$\omega = \sqrt{2} n \langle v \rangle \sigma_c$$

where σ_c is the collision cross section.
For a single gas, in case of elastic collision of solid spheres:

$$\sigma_c = \pi \delta^2 \rightarrow \omega = \sqrt{2} \pi n \langle v \rangle \delta^2$$

and δ is the molecular diameter.

The mean free path l , i.e. the average distance travelled by a molecule between collisions:

$$l = \frac{\langle v \rangle}{\omega} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2} \pi n \delta^2} = \frac{k_B T}{\sqrt{2} \pi P \delta^2}$$

$$l_{H_2} [m] = 4.3 \cdot 10^{-5} \frac{T [K]}{P [Pa]}$$

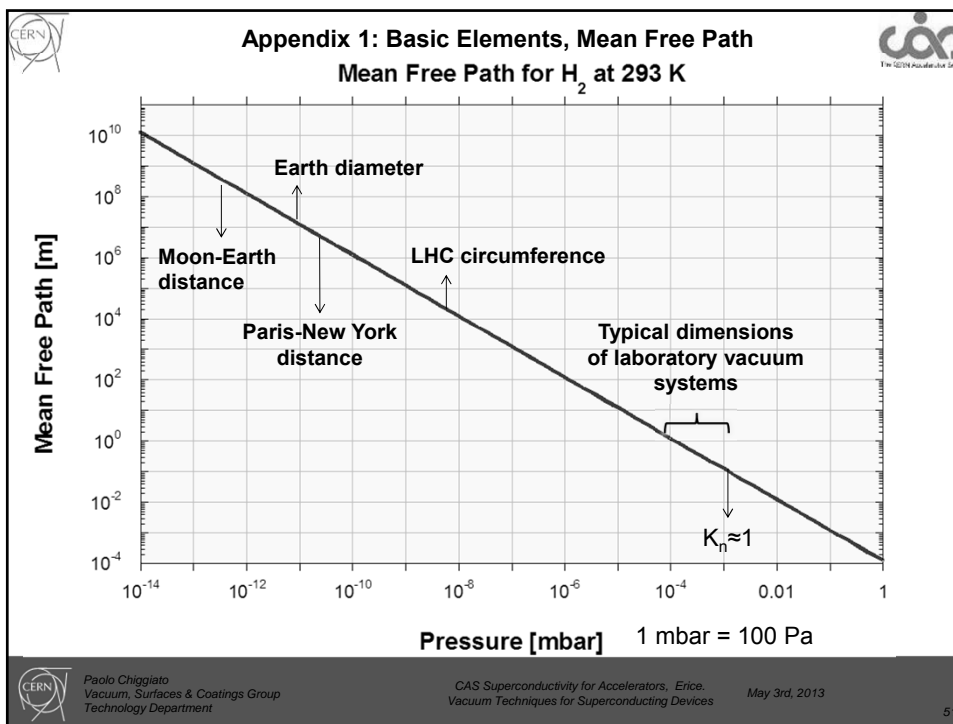
$$l_{N_2} [m] = 2.3 \cdot 10^{-5} \frac{T [K]}{P [Pa]}$$

Gas	σ_c [nm ²]
H ₂	0.27
He	0.21
N ₂	0.43
O ₂	0.40
CO ₂	0.52

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Appendix 2: Numerical values for slide No. 6

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Conduction in viscous regime

$$k_{th} = 25.3 \frac{mW}{K m}$$

$$q_{th} \approx k_{th} \frac{\Delta T}{L} = 55.7 \frac{W}{m^2}$$

Conduction in molecular regime

$$q_{th} \approx 265 P \frac{W}{m^2}$$

Radiation

$$q_{rad} \approx 8.9 \frac{W}{m^2}$$

For diatomic molecules:

$$k_{th} = \frac{1}{4} (9\gamma - 5) \eta c_v \left[\frac{W}{m K} \right]$$

$$\eta = \frac{5}{16} \frac{1}{\delta^2} \sqrt{\frac{m_{N_2} k_B T}{\pi}}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{c_p}{c_v} = \frac{7}{5}; c_v = \frac{5}{2} \frac{k_B}{m_{N_2}}; c_p = c_v + \frac{k_B}{m_{N_2}}$$

$$m_{N_2} = 4.6 \times 10^{-26} Kg \quad \delta = 370 pm$$

$$q_{th} = \frac{P}{8} \langle v \rangle a_E \frac{\gamma + 1 T_1 - T_2}{\gamma - 1 T_1 + T_2}$$

$\langle v \rangle$ at the average temperature = 381 m/s
 a_E equivalent accommodation coefficient
 $a_E \approx 0.8$


$$q_{rad} = \sigma \frac{T_1^4 - T_2^4}{\frac{1}{\epsilon_1} + \frac{1}{\epsilon_2} - 1}$$

$$\sigma = 5.7 \times 10^{-8} W m^{-2} K^{-4}$$


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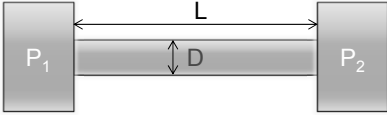
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Appendix 2: Numerical values for slide No. 7





Poiseuille equation for long circular pipes in **viscous regime**:

$$C = \frac{\pi D^4}{128 \eta L} (P_1 - P_2) \qquad \eta = \frac{5}{16} \frac{1}{\delta^2} \sqrt{\frac{mk_B T}{\pi}}$$

For N₂:

$\delta = 370 \text{ pm}$

$m = 4.6 \times 10^{-26} \text{ Kg}$


$T = 300\text{K}$

$P_1 - P_2 = 1000 \text{ Pa}$

$L = 2 \text{ m}; D = 0.1 \text{ m}$

$\eta = 17.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ Pa.s}$


C = 70 m³/s = 70000 l/s




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Appendix 3: Numerical Values of Conductances



Wall slot of area A and infinitesimal thickness; molecular regime:

T, P ₁	T, P ₂
A	

Gas flow 1 → 2 : $\varphi_{1 \rightarrow 2} = \frac{1}{4} A n_1 \langle v \rangle$

Gas flow 2 → 1 : $\varphi_{2 \rightarrow 1} = \frac{1}{4} A n_2 \langle v \rangle$


Net flow: $\frac{1}{4} A (n_1 - n_2) \langle v \rangle = \frac{1}{4} A \frac{\langle v \rangle}{k_B T} (P_1 - P_2)$

In PV units ($PV = Nk_B T$) → $Q = \frac{1}{4} A \langle v \rangle (P_1 - P_2)$ → $C = \frac{1}{4} A \langle v \rangle = AC'$

For other gas flow restrictions, the transmission probability τ is introduced:

Vessel 1

P ₁	A ₁
----------------	----------------




Vessel 2	P ₂
A ₂	P ₂

Gas flow 1 → 2 : $\varphi_{1 \rightarrow 2} = \frac{1}{4} A_1 n_1 \langle v \rangle \tau_{1 \rightarrow 2}$

Gas flow 2 → 1 : $\varphi_{2 \rightarrow 1} = \frac{1}{4} A_2 n_2 \langle v \rangle \tau_{2 \rightarrow 1}$

$Q = \frac{1}{4} A_1 \langle v \rangle \tau_{1 \rightarrow 2} (P_1 - P_2)$ → $C = A_1 C' \tau_{1 \rightarrow 2}$


C = [AC' = conductance of the aperture] × [molecular transmission probability]




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Appendix 3: Numerical Values of Conductances



Conductance of a wall aperture in PV units, per unit area: $C' = \frac{1}{4} \langle v \rangle$


T= 293 K

Gas	$\langle v \rangle$ at 293 K $\left[\frac{m}{s} \right]$	C' at 293 K $\left[\frac{m^3}{s m^2} \right]$	C' at 293 K $\left[\frac{l}{s cm^2} \right]$
H ₂	1761	440.25	44
He	1244	311	31.1
CH ₄	622	155.5	15.5
H ₂ O	587	146.7	14.7
N ₂	470	117.5	11.75
Ar	394	98.5	9.85

Example: H₂ P₁ = 5 10⁻⁴ mbar, P₂ = 7 10⁻⁵ mbar, A = 0.8 cm²

P ₁	P ₂
A	

 $\rightarrow Q = 44 \times 0.8 \times (5 \cdot 10^{-4} - 7 \cdot 10^{-5}) = 1.5 \times 10^{-2} \frac{mbar \cdot l}{s}$
 $\rightarrow Q = 1.5 \times 10^{-2} \frac{mbar \cdot l}{s} \times 2.47 \cdot 10^{19} \frac{molecules}{mbar \cdot l} = 3.74 \cdot 10^{17} \frac{molecules}{s}$




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Appendix 3: Numerical Values of Conductances



Santeler formula for transmission probabilities of cylindrical tubes


- Tubes of uniform circular cross section (L length, R radius); Santeler formula (max error 0.7%):

$$\tau = \tau_{1 \rightarrow 2} = \tau_{2 \rightarrow 1} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{3L}{8R} \left(1 + \frac{1}{3 \left(1 + \frac{L}{7R} \right)} \right)}$$

For long tubes ($\frac{L}{R} \gg 1$): $\tau \approx \frac{1}{1 + \frac{3L}{8R}} \approx \frac{8R}{3L}$

For N₂ and $\frac{L}{R} \gg 1$

$$\rightarrow C = AC' \tau \approx 11.75 \times \frac{\pi D^2}{4} \times \frac{4D}{3L} = 12.3 \frac{D^3}{L} \left[\frac{l}{s} \right] \quad ([D] \text{ and } [l] = \text{cm})$$

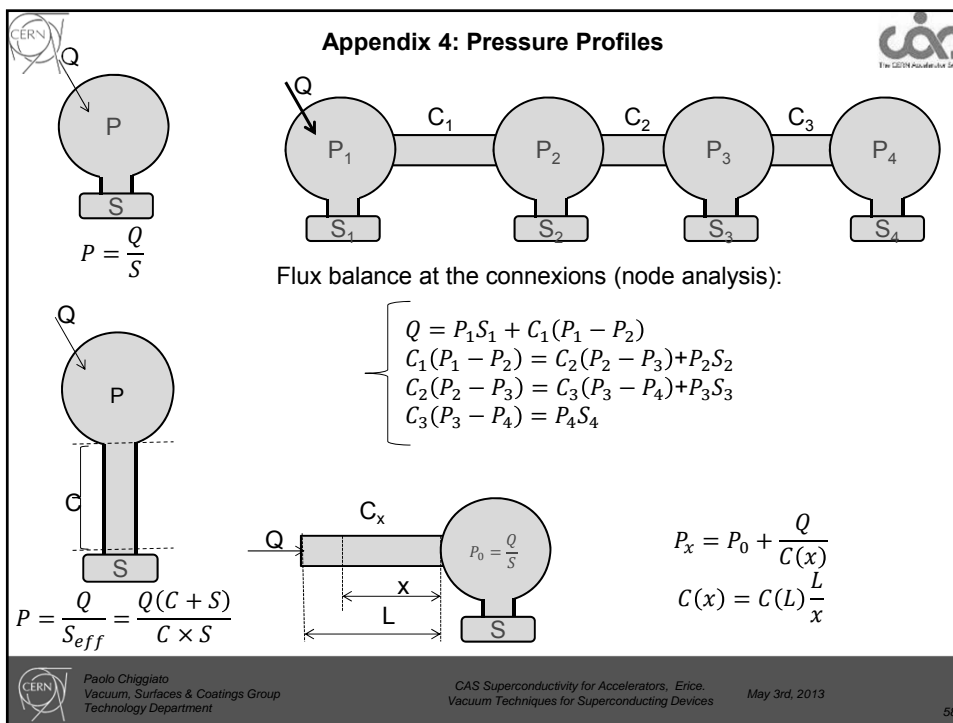
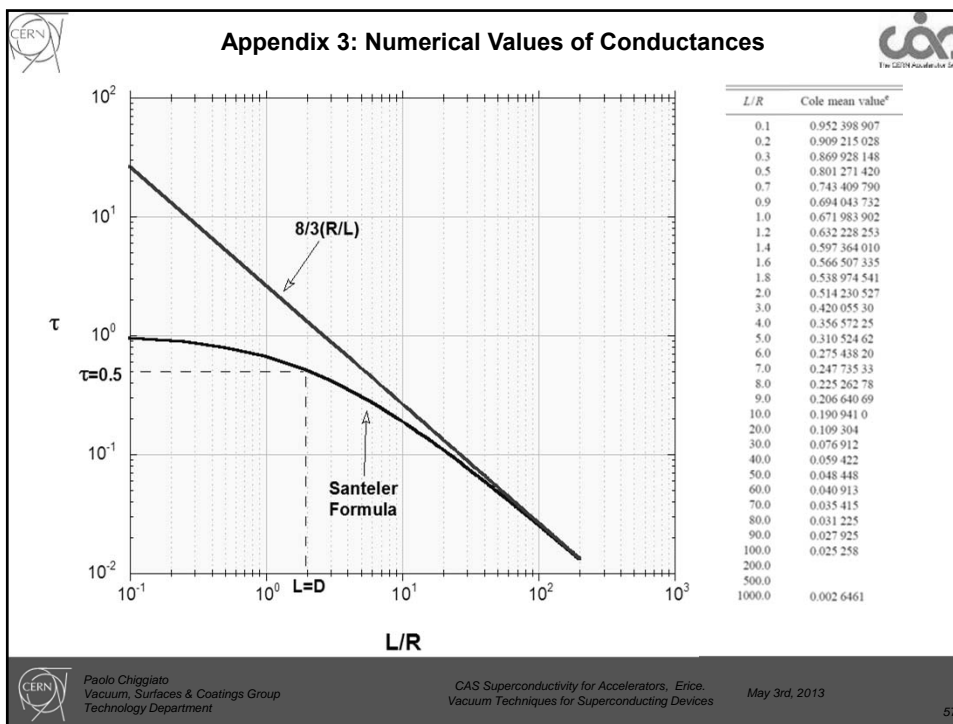


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Appendix 4: Pressure Profiles

Pressure profiles with distributed outgassing can be calculated analytically (for simple geometry), by electrical analogy or by Monte Carlo simulation.

Distributed outgassing

$$Q(x + \Delta x) - Q(x) = 2\pi R \Delta x \cdot q \rightarrow \frac{dQ}{dx} = 2\pi R \cdot q$$

$$Q(x + \Delta x) = -C \frac{L}{\Delta x} (P(x + \Delta x) - P(x)) = -CL \frac{dP}{dx}$$

$$\rightarrow CL \frac{d^2P}{dx^2} = -2\pi R \cdot q$$

$$P(0) = \frac{2\pi RL \cdot q}{S} = \frac{Q_{TOT}}{S}$$

$$\left(\frac{dP}{dx}\right)_{x=L} = 0$$

$$P(x) - P(0) = -\frac{Q_{TOT}}{C} \left[\frac{x}{L} - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x}{L}\right)^2 \right]$$

$$P(L) - P(0) = \frac{Q_{TOT}}{2C}$$

Distributed outgassing

$$P(0) = \frac{2\pi RL \cdot q}{2S} = \frac{Q_{TOT}}{2S}$$

$$\left(\frac{dP}{dx}\right)_{x=L/2} = 0$$

$$P(x) - P(0) = -\frac{Q_{TOT}}{2C} \left[\left(\frac{x}{L}\right) - \left(\frac{x}{L}\right)^2 \right]$$

$$P\left(\frac{L}{2}\right) - P(0) = \frac{Q_{TOT}}{8C}$$

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Appendix 4: Pressure Profiles, Time Variation (with reference to slide 15 and 60)

When Q_{in} is a function of time:

$$P(t) = \frac{\int e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_p}} \frac{Q_{in}(t)}{V} dt + A}{e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_p}}} = \frac{\int Q_{in}(t) dt}{V} - \frac{e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_p}}}{V \tau_p} \int \left[\int Q_{in}(t) dt \right] dt + A e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_p}}$$

A = integration constant

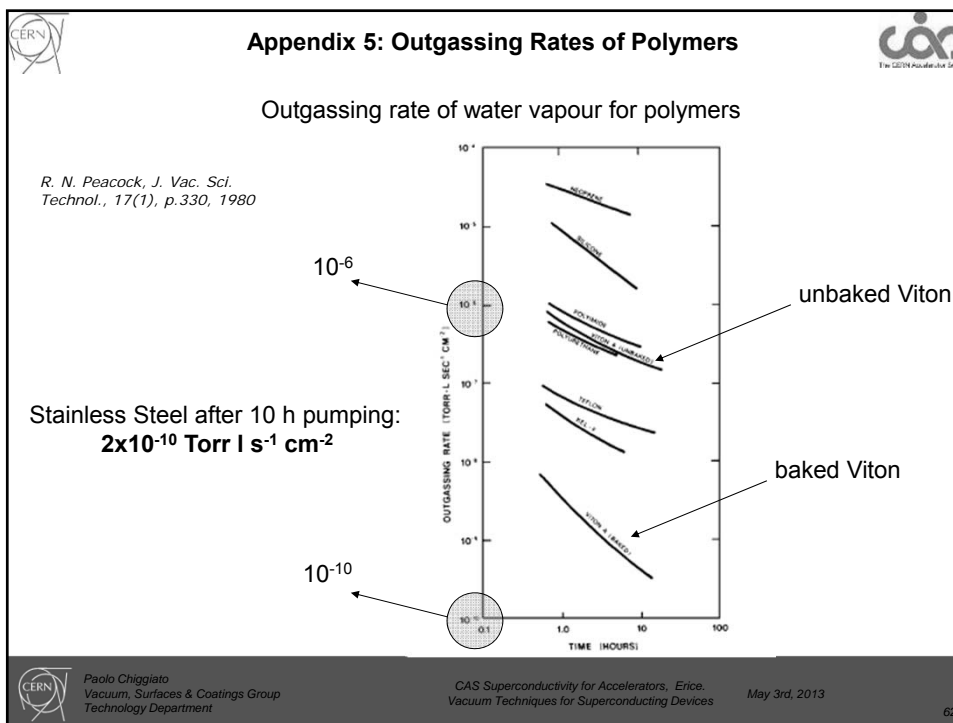
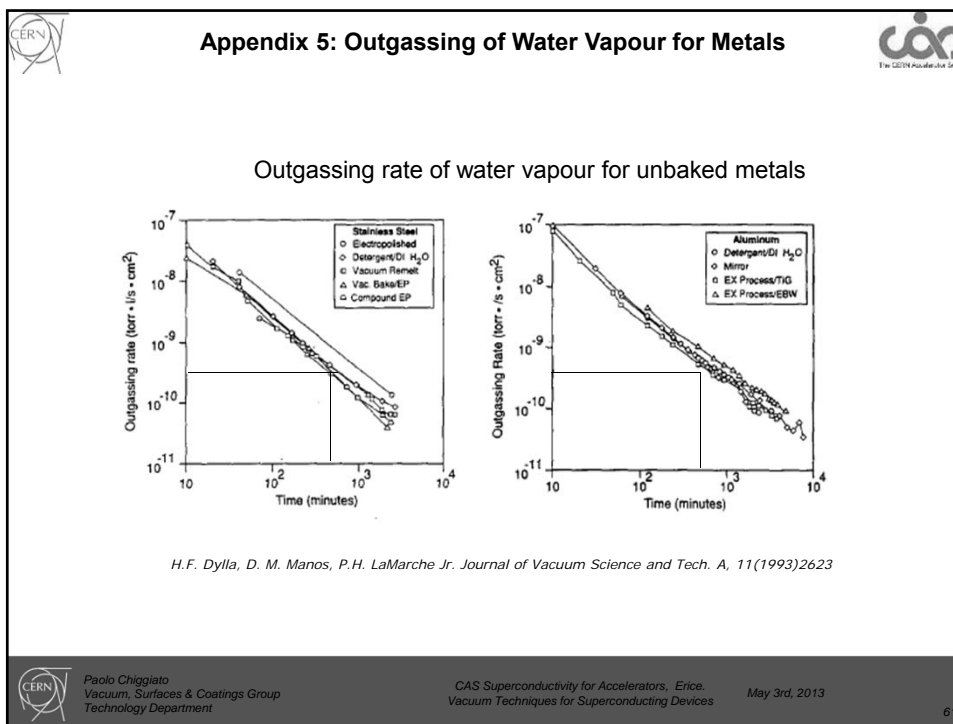
For a network of vacuum chambers, systems of coupled differential equations for each chamber have to be solved.

However, a simpler method exists. It is based on the analogy between vacuum systems and electrical networks. Very powerful software is available for the time dependent analysis of electrical networks.

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Appendix 6: Momentum Transfer Pumps

Old molecular pump

To overcome the problem of the required narrow pump duct, in 1957 Backer introduced the turbomolecular pumps (TMP) based on rapidly rotating blades.

The molecules seen from the blades have a velocity oriented towards the blades' channels when they come from space 1. From space 2, most of the molecules hit the blades and are backscattered → a significant gas flow is set if $\langle v \rangle \approx u$.

Every series of rotating blades (rotor) is followed by a series of static blades (stator).

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Appendix 6: Sputter Ion Pumps (SIP)

Two different configurations:

- **Diode**
- **Triode**: better pumping for noble gas (see appendix 6, p.65)

K. M. Welch, Capture Pumping Technology, North-Holland, p.113

An improved triode ion pump is the StarCell (Agilent Vacuum)

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Appendix 6: Sputter Ion Pumps (SIP)

Pumping speed for SIP depends on the **pressure at the pump inlet** and the **nature of the gas**.

Fig. 5 Pumping speed vs pressure for a standard diode with $S_0 = 100$ l/s (for air after saturation).

GAS	DIODE PUMPS	TRIODE PUMPS
AIR	1	1
N ₂	1	1
O ₂	1	1
H ₂	1.5-2	1.5-2
CO	0.9	0.9
CO ₂	0.9	0.9
H ₂ O	0.8	0.8
CH ₄	0.6-1	0.6-1
Ar	0.03	0.25
He	0.1	0.3

Pumping speed normalized to air

Nominal pumping speed for N₂:
Agilent starcell

DN	S [l s ⁻¹]
63	50
100	70/125
150	240/500

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Appendix 6: Triode Sputter Ion Pumps

An excessive quantity of noble gas implanted in the cathode can produce pressure instabilities (Ar disease):

- the continuous erosion extract noble gas atoms from the cathode;
- as a result the pressure increases and the erosion is accelerated;
- a pressure rise is obtained, which terminate when most of the gas is implanted again in the sputtered film or in a deeper zone of the cathode.

Figure 2.4.12. Example of instabilities in a system with one sputter-ion pump with titanium cathodes, after pumping argon at 5×10^{-7} Torr for a few hours.


Kimo M. Welch, Capture Pumping Technology, North-Holland, p.106

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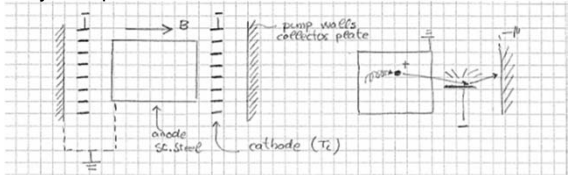
Appendix 6: Triode Sputter Ion Pumps




To increase the pumping efficiency of noble gas, the rate of ions implantation in the cathode has to be reduced while increasing the rate of energetic neutrals impingement on the anode and their burial probability.

Two different approaches:

1. **Heavier atoms for the cathode**
Ta (181 amu) is used instead of Ti (48 amu). The ions, once neutralized, bounce back at higher energy and rate → these pumps are called '**noble diode**'
2. **Different geometry of the Penning cell.**
 - a) Three electrodes are used: **triode pumps**. The cathodes consists of a series of small platelets aligned along the cell axis.
 - b) The collisions ion-cathode are at glancing angle → higher sputtering rate of Ti atoms + higher probability of neutralization + higher energy of bouncing + lower probability of implantation in the cathode.






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Appendix 6: H₂ Pumping by Sputter Ion Pumps

Hydrogen pumping by SIP



- H₂ is mainly pumped by diffusion into the cathode.
- To be adsorbed, H₂ must be dissociated. Only 2.5% of the ions created in a low-pressure H₂ Penning discharge are H⁺ ions.
- The dissociation is possible only on atomically clean Ti.
- H₂⁺ ions have poor sputtering yield: 0.01 at 7 KeV on Ti.
- When H₂ is the main gas, it takes a long time to clean the cathode surface by sputtering.
- As a consequence, at the beginning of the operation the pumping speed for H₂ is lower than the nominal and increases gradually with time.
- The simultaneous pumping of another gas has strong effects on H₂ pumping speed.
 - Higher sputtering yield → faster cleaning → higher pumping speed
 - Contaminating of the Ti surface → lower pumping speed
 - Desorption of implanted H ions → lower pumping speed
- When the concentration of H₂ is higher than the solubility limit in Ti, hydride precipitates are formed → Ti expansion and hydrogen embrittlement → short circuits and cathode brittleness (for 500 l/s pumps: typical value are 10000 Torr l of H₂)




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Appendix 6: Operation of Sputter Ion Pumps

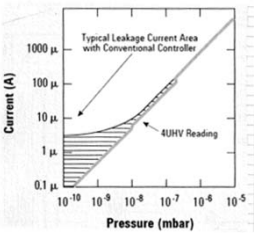


High Pressure Operation


- High pressure ($>10^{-5}$ mbar) operation can **generate thermal run-away**. It is frequently noticeable during the pumping of H_2 or after the absorption of high quantity of H_2 (for example due to pumping of H_2O).
- The Penning discharge heats the cathode and provokes gas desorption, which enhance the discharge. This positive feedback mechanism can melt locally the cathode.
- The total electrical power given to the pump has to be limited at high pressure.

Pressure measurement by ion pumps

- The discharge current of the penning cells can be used for pressure measurement.
- In the low pressure range, the current measurement is limited by field emission (leakage current): pressure reading is limited in the 10^{-9} mbar range.
- By reducing the applied voltage in the lower pressure range, the pressure measurement is possible down to 10^{-10} mbar.



Courtesy of Agilent Vacuum




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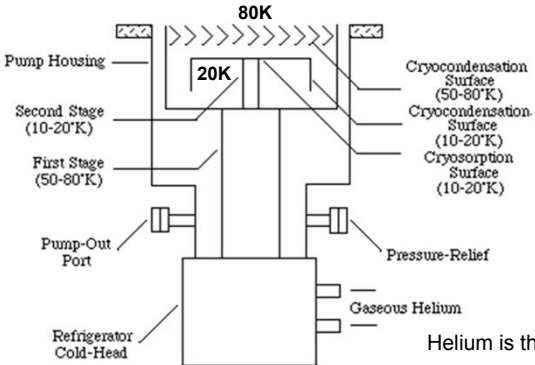


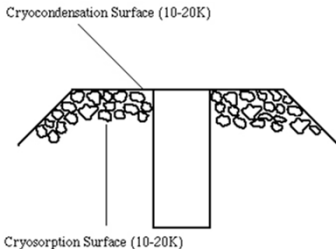
Appendix 7: Cryopumps




Modern cryopumps take advantages of both cryocondensation and cryosorption.

1. The cryocondensation takes place on a cold surfaces, in general at 80 K for H_2O and 10 or 20 K for the other gases.
2. The cryosorption of H_2 , Ne and He is localised on a hidden surface where a porous material is fixed. This surface is kept away from the reach of the other molecules.





Helium is the working fluid of refrigerators.



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Appendix 7: Cryopumps

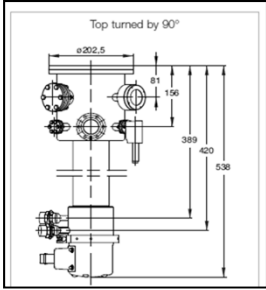
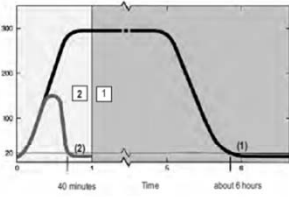
Pumping speeds and maximum gas capacities of a commercial cryopump (Oerlikon-Leybold 800 BL UHV); the pump inlet diameter is 160 mm. Courtesy of Oerlikon-Leybold.


	H ₂ O	N ₂	Ar	H ₂	He
S [l s ⁻¹]	2600	800	640	1000	300
Capacity [Torr l]		225 000	225 000	3225	375

Cryopumps require periodic regeneration to evacuate the gas adsorbed or condensed.

To remove all captured gas, the pump is warmed at room temperature. The desorbed gas is removed by mechanical pumps (in general, for accelerators, mobile TMP). During regeneration, the rest of the system shall be separated by a valve.

In the majority of application, the performance deterioration is given by the gas adsorbed on the second stage (10-20 K). A partial regeneration may be carried out for a shorter time while water vapour is kept on the first stage at temperatures lower than 140 K.


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Appendix 7: Cryopumps

Characteristics of Cryopumps

- Starting Pressure**
 - Cryopumps should be started when the mean free path of molecules is higher than the pump vessel diameter: $P < 10^{-3}$ mbar. Otherwise the thermal load is too high.
 - In addition a thick condensate layer must be avoided.
 - They need auxiliary pumps.
- Pumping speed**
 - High effective pumping speed for all gases. Pumping speed from 800 l/s up to 60000 l/s are commercially available.
 - Pumping speed for water vapour close to the theoretical maximum.
- Maximum Gas Intake (Capacity)**
 - At the maximum gas intake, the initial pumping speed of the gas is reduced by a factor of 2.
 - Condensed gases: the limitation is given by the thermal conductivity of the gas layer and the heat flux on the cold surface.
 - Adsorbed gases: the capacity depends on the quantity and properties of the sorption agent; the capacity is pressure dependent and generally several orders of magnitude lower than that of condensable gases.



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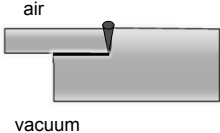
Spare Slides

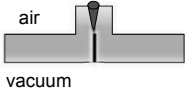


Gas Sources: Inleakage

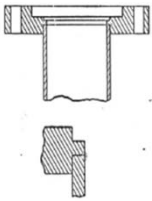
Good practice: avoid trapped liquids



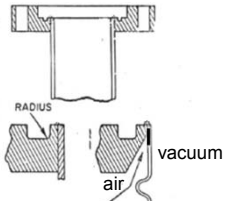




Trapped liquids could be harmful even on the external parts of thin-wall components: corrosion!




PREFERRED FOR STANDARD TUBING & FLANGES



CHAMFER FLANGE TO AVOID CREVICE WHICH MAY TRAP CHEMICAL CLEANING SOLUTIONS

FOR VERY THIN SECTIONS (BELLOWS ETC.)



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PREFERRED JOINT DESIGN FOR WELDING VACUUM COMPONENTS

BUTT

LAP

TEE

CORNER

EDGE

IF VACUUM ON THIS SIDE, PART CANNOT BE RECLEANED DUE TO CREVICE WHICH MAY TRAP CONTAMINANTS

Courtesy of C. Hauviller (copied from his presentation at CAS Vacuum 2006)

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Fig. 5 Two examples of welding lips for bellows

Fig. 6 Examples of thin-window welding

REQUIRED DESIGN

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