

Joint Universities Accelerator School

JUAS 2016

Archamps, France, 22nd – 26th February 2016

Normal-conducting accelerator magnets

Thomas Zickler,

CERN



Scope of the lectures



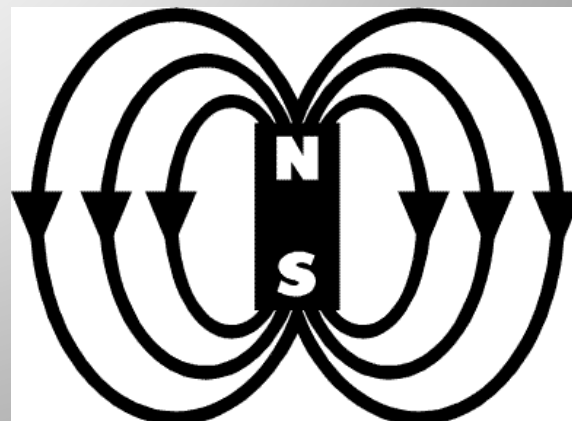
Overview of electro-magnetic technology as used in particle accelerators considering *normal-conducting, iron-dominated* electro-magnets (generally restricted to direct current situations)

Main goal is to:

- create a fundamental understanding in accelerator magnet technology
- provide a guide book with practical instructions how to start with the design of a standard accelerator magnet
- focus on applied and practical design aspects using 'real' examples
- introduce finite element codes for practical magnet design
- present an outlook into magnet manufacturing, testing and measurements

Not covered:

- permanent magnet technology
- superconducting technology





Acknowledgements



Many thanks ...

... to all my colleagues who contributed to this lecture,
in particular L.Bottura, M.Buzio, B.Langenbeck,
N.Marks, A.Milanese, S.Russenschuck, D.Schoerling,
C.Siedler, S.Sgobba, D.Tommasini, A.Vorozhtsov



Literature



- Fifth General Accelerator Physics Course, CAS proceedings, University of Jyväskylä, Finland, September 1992, CERN Yellow Report 94-01
- International Conference on Magnet Technology, Conference proceedings
- Iron Dominated Electromagnets, J. T. Tanabe, World Scientific Publishing, 2005
- Magnetic Field for Transporting Charged Beams, G. Parzen, BNL publication, 1976
- Magnete, G. Schnell, Thiemig Verlag, 1973 (German)
- Field Computation for Accelerator Magnets: Analytical and Numerical Methods for Electromagnetic Design and Optimization, S. Russenschuck, Wiley-VCH, 2010
- Practical Definitions & Formulae for Normal Conducting Magnets, D. Tommasini, Sept. 2011
- CAS proceedings, Magnetic measurements and alignment, Montreux, Switzerland, March 1992, CERN Yellow Report 92-05
- CAS proceedings, Measurement and alignment of accelerator and detector magnets, Anacapri, Italy, April 1997, CERN Yellow Report 98-05
- Physik der Teilchenbeschleuniger und Synchrotronstrahlungsquellen, K. Wille, Teubner Verlag, 1996
- CAS proceedings, Magnets, Bruges, Belgium, June 2009, CERN Yellow Report 2010-004



Program (1)



Lecture 1

Monday 22.2. (10:45 – 12:15)

Introduction & Basic principles

- A bit of history...
- Why do we need magnets?
- Basic principles and concepts
- Magnet types

Lecture 2

Monday 22.2. (16:15 – 17:15)

Analytical design

- What do we need to know before starting?
- Yoke design
- Coil dimensioning
- Cooling layout

Lecture 3

Monday 22.2. (17:15 – 18:15)

Magnet production, tests and measurements

- Magnetic materials
- Manufacturing techniques
- Quality assurance
- Recurrent quality issues
- Cost estimation and optimization



Program (2)



Lecture 4

Tuesday 25.2. (15:00 – 16:00)

Applied numerical design

Building a basic 2D finite-element model

Interpretation of results

Outlook into 3D design

Typical application examples / limitation of numerical design

Tutorial

Tuesday 25.2. (16:15 – 18:15)

Case study (part 1)

Introduction

Students are invited to design and specify a ,real‘ magnet

Analytical magnet design on paper

Mini-workshop

Wednesday, 26.2. (9:00 – 12:15)

Case study (part 2)

Computer work

Numerical magnet design



Lecture 1: Basic principles



- A bit of history...
- Why do we need magnets?
- Magnet technologies
- Basic principles and concepts
- Field description
- Magnet types and applications





A bit of history...



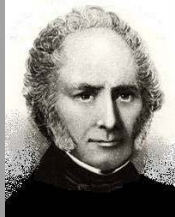
1820: **Hans Christian Oersted** (1777-1851) finds that electric current affects a compass needle



1820: **Andre Marie Ampere** (1775-1836) in Paris finds that wires carrying current produce forces on each other



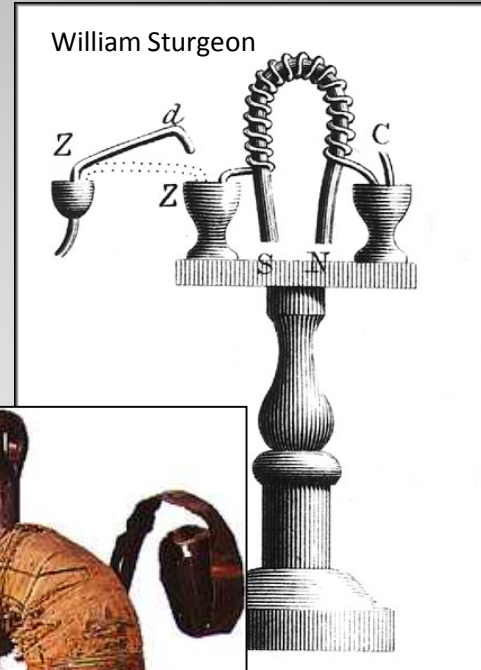
1820: **Michael Faraday** (1791-1867) at Royal Society in London develops the idea of electric fields and studies the effect of currents on magnets and magnets inducing electric currents



1825: British electrician, **William Sturgeon** (1783-1850) invented the first electromagnet



1860: **James Clerk Maxwell** (1831-1879), a Scottish physicist and mathematician, puts the theory of electromagnetism on mathematical basis



Joseph Henry

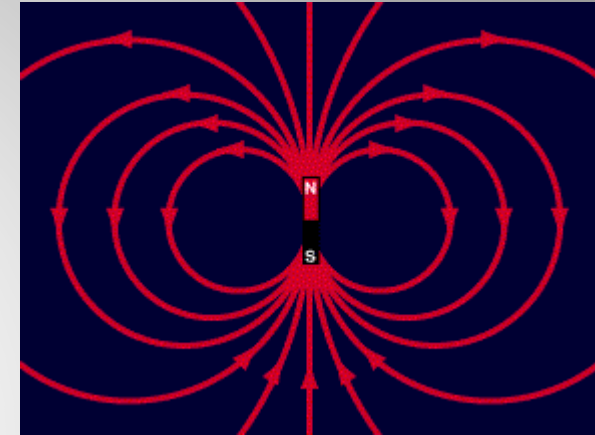


Magnetic units



IEEE defines the following units:

- **Magnetic field:**
 - H (vector) [A/m]
 - the magnetizing force produced by electric currents
- **Electromotive force:**
 - e.m.f. or U [V or $(\text{kg m}^2)/(\text{A s}^3)$]
 - here: voltage generated by a time varying magnetic field
- **Magnetic flux density or magnetic induction:**
 - B (vector) [T or $\text{kg}/(\text{A s}^2)$]
 - the density of magnetic flux driven through a medium by the magnetic field
 - Note: induction is frequently referred to as "Magnetic Field"
 - H , B and μ relates by: $B = \mu H$
- **Permeability:**
 - $\mu = \mu_0 \mu_r$
 - permeability of free space $\mu_0 = 4 \pi 10^{-7}$ [V s/A m]
 - relative permeability μ_r (dimensionless): $\mu_{\text{air}} = 1$; $\mu_{\text{iron}} > 1000$ (not saturated)
- **Magnetic flux:**
 - ϕ [Wb or $(\text{kg m}^2)/(\text{A s}^2)$]
 - surface integral of the flux density component perpendicular through a surface





Maxwell's equations



In 1873, Maxwell published "Treatise on Electricity and Magnetism" in which he summarized the discoveries of Coulomb, Oersted, Ampere, Faraday, et. al. in four mathematical equations:

Gauss' law for electricity:

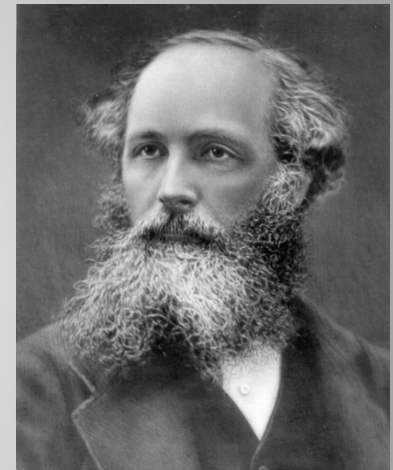
$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\oint_{\partial V} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

Gauss' law of flux conservation:

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0$$

$$\oint_{\partial V} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A} = 0$$



Faraday's law of induction:

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\oint_{\partial A} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = -\frac{d\Phi}{dt} = -\frac{d}{dt} \int_A \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A}$$

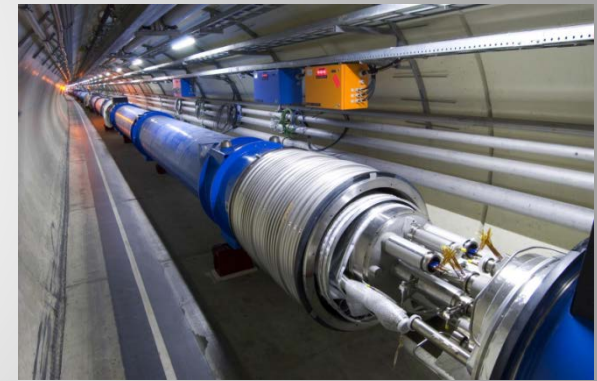
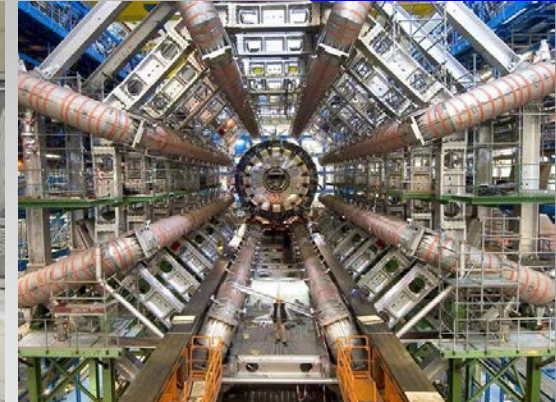
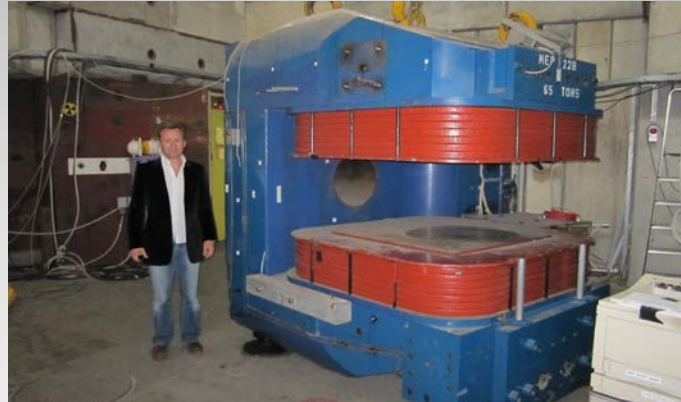
Ampere's circuital law:

$$\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$$

$$\oint_{\partial A} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} = \int_A \mu_0 \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{A} + \frac{d}{dt} \int_A \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$$



Magnets at CERN



Resistive magnets:

4800 magnets (50 000 tons) are installed in the CERN accelerator complex

Superconducting magnets:

10 000 magnets (50 000 tons) mainly in LHC

Permanent magnets:

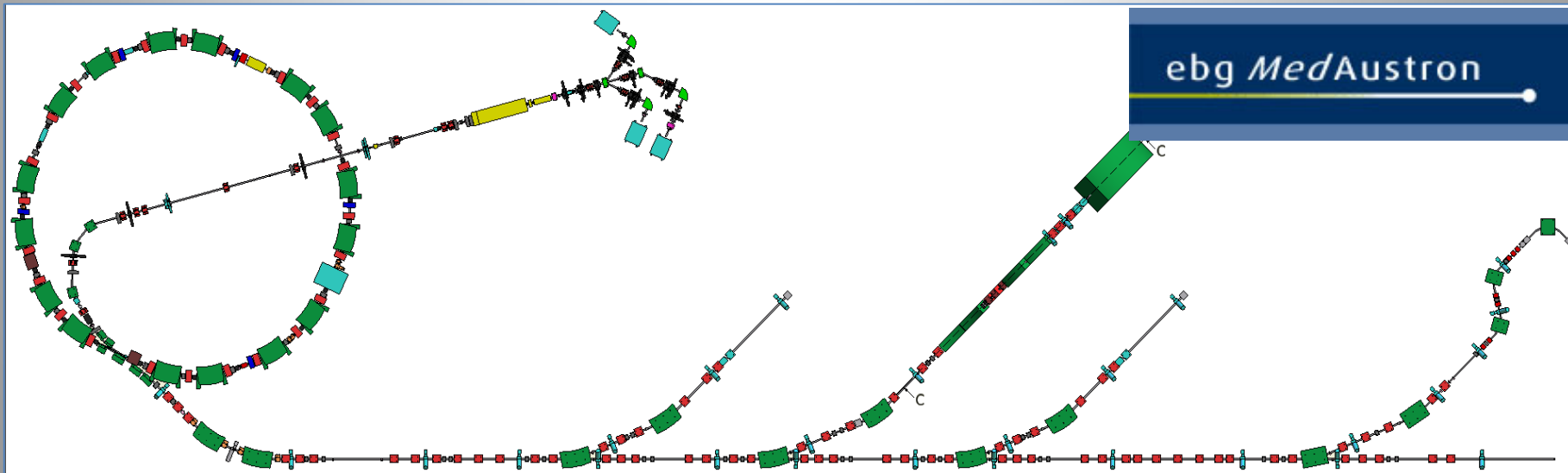
150 magnets (4 tons) in Linacs & EA



Why do we need magnets?

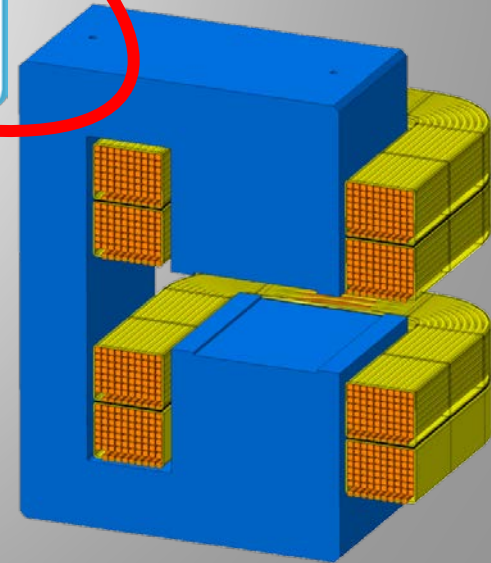
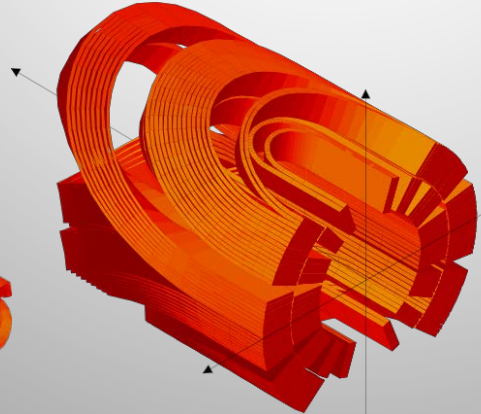
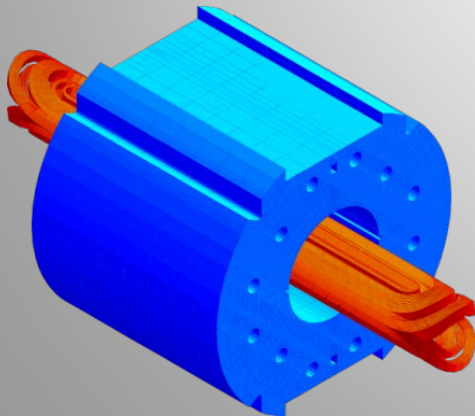
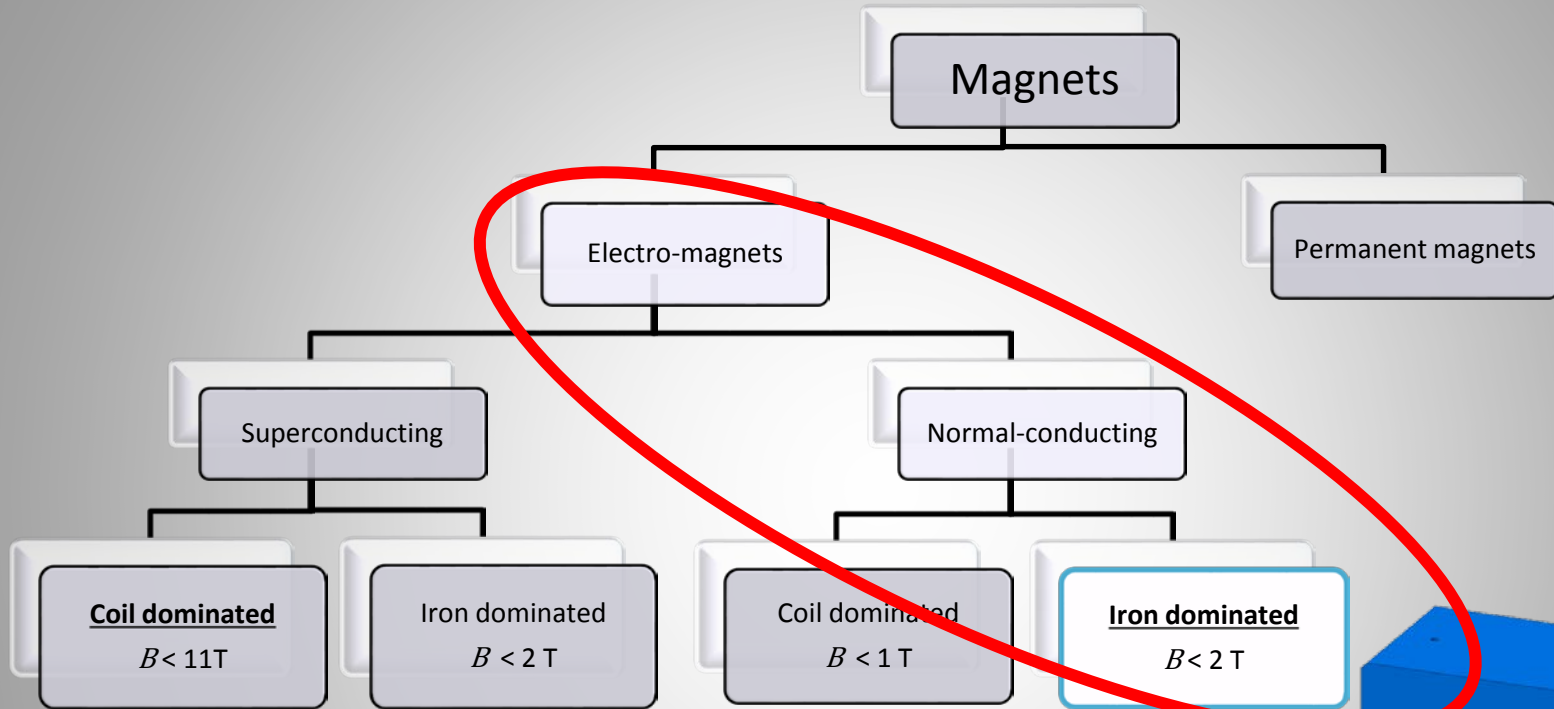


- Interaction with the beam
 - guide the beam to keep it on the orbit
 - focus and shape the beam
- Lorentz's force: $\vec{F} = q(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B})$
 - for relativistic particles this effect is equivalent if $\vec{E} = c\vec{B}$
 - if $B = 1 \text{ T}$ then $E = 3 \cdot 10^8 \text{ V/m}$





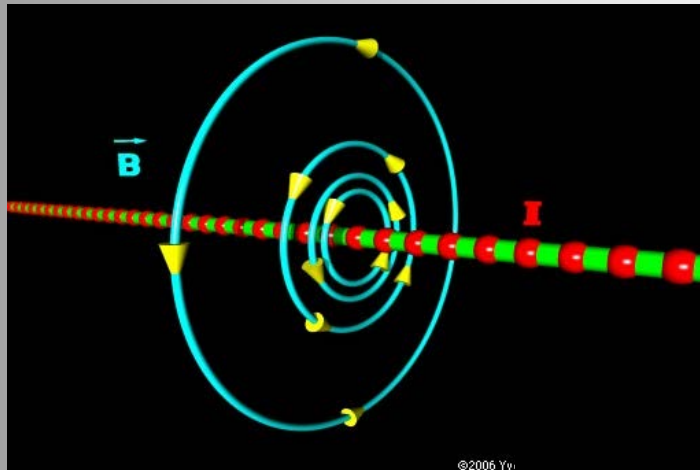
Magnet technologies





How does a magnet work?

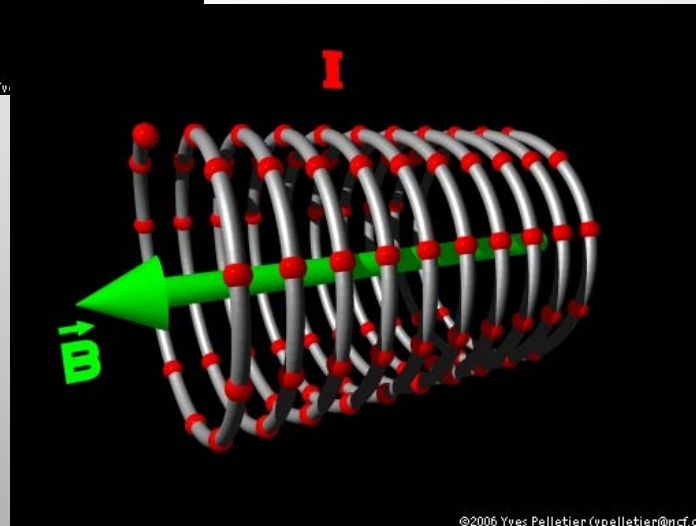
- Permanent magnets provide only constant magnetic fields
- Electro-magnets can provide adjustable magnetic fields



Maxwell & Ampere:

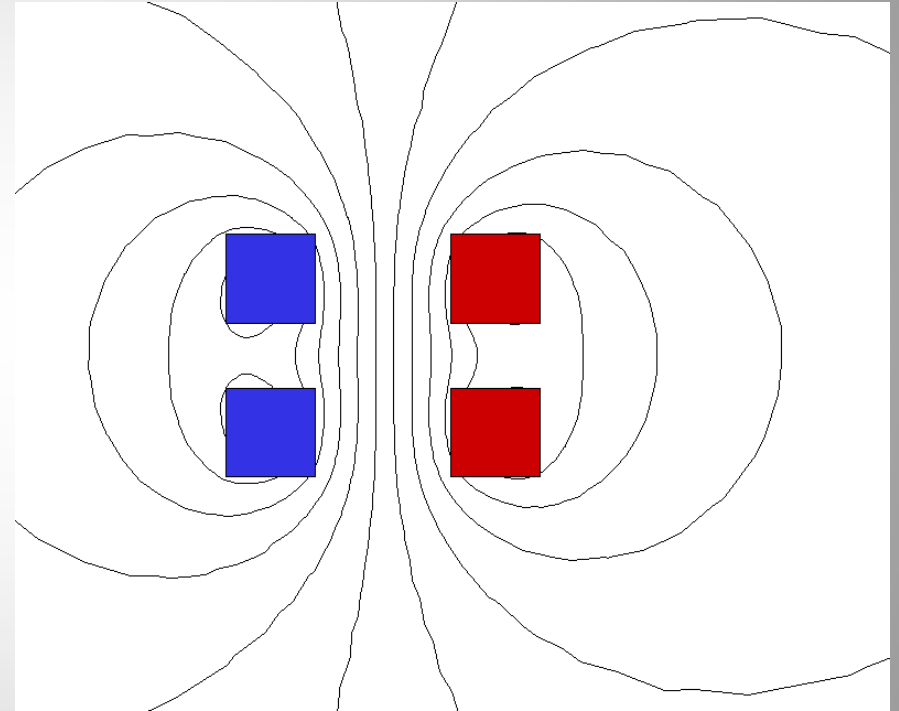
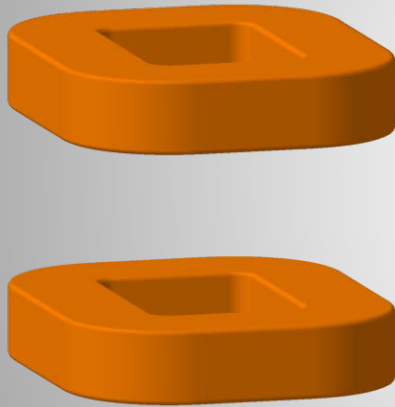
$$\nabla \times \vec{H} = \vec{J} + \frac{\partial \vec{D}}{\partial t}$$

„An electrical current is surrounded by a magnetic field“





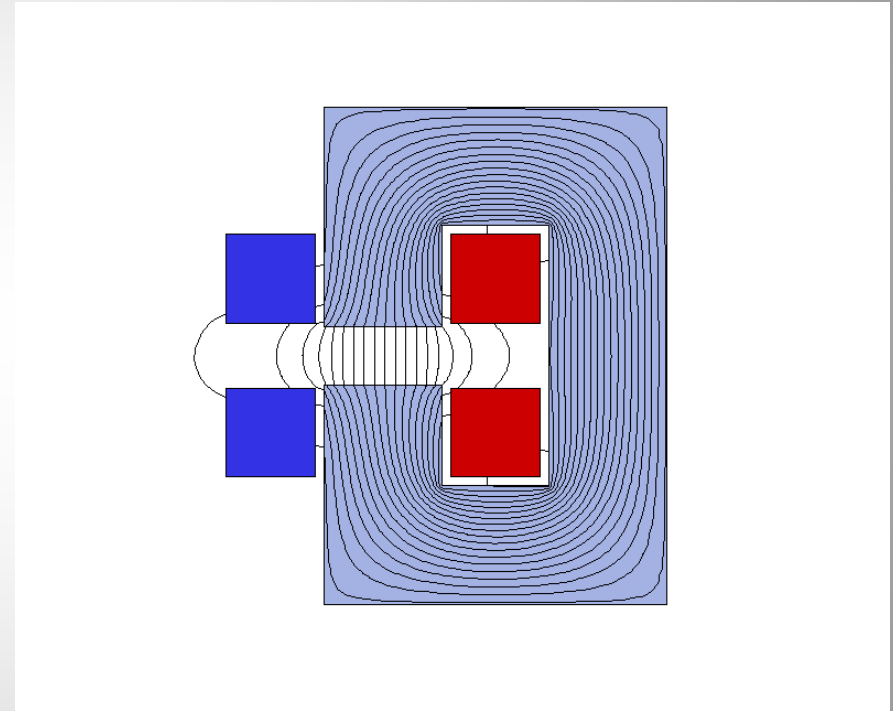
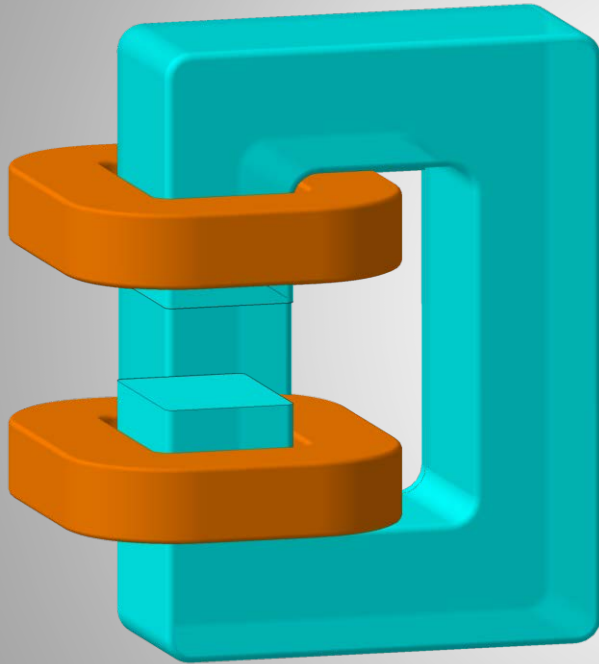
Magnetic circuit



Flux lines represent the magnetic field
Coil colors indicate the current direction



Magnetic circuit



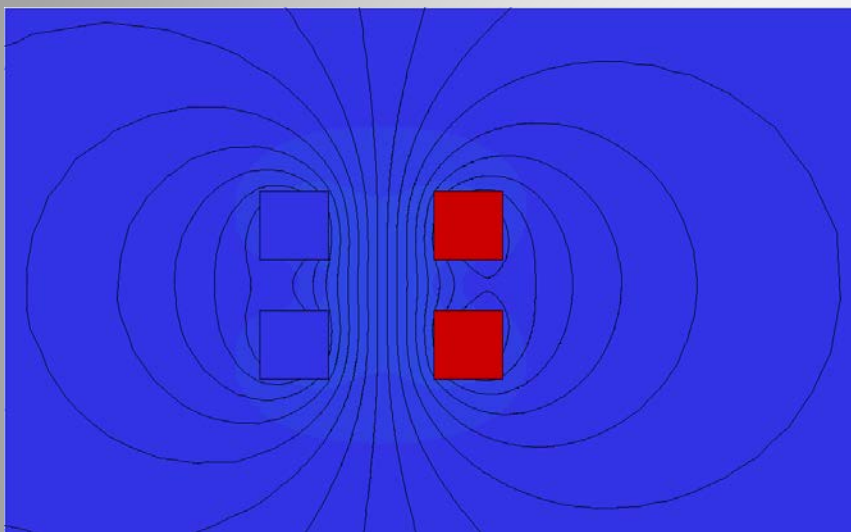
Coils hold the electrical current
Iron holds the magnetic flux



Magnetic circuit

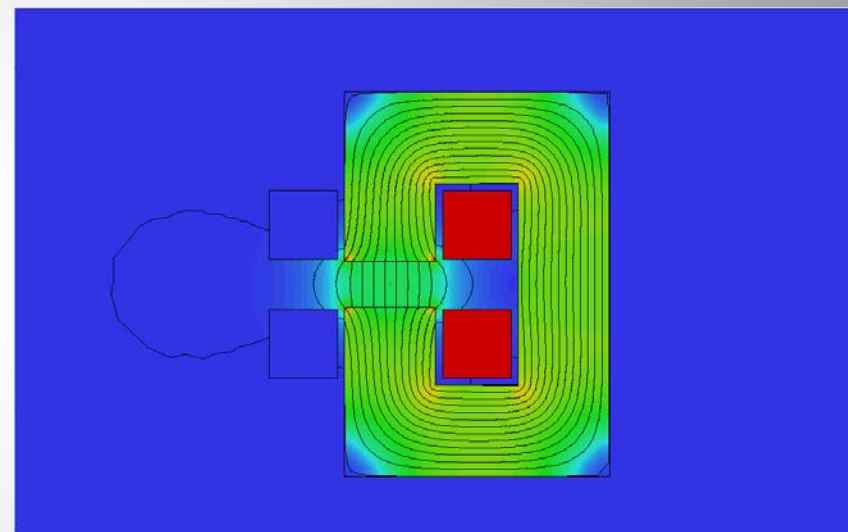
$$I = 32 \text{ kA}$$

$$B_{\text{centre}} = 0.09 \text{ T}$$



$$I = 32 \text{ kA}$$

$$B_{\text{centre}} = 0.80 \text{ T}$$



Component: BMOD
0.0

1.0

2.0

The presence of a magnetic circuit can increase the flux density in the magnet aperture by factors

Note: the asymmetric field distribution is an artifact from the FE-mesh



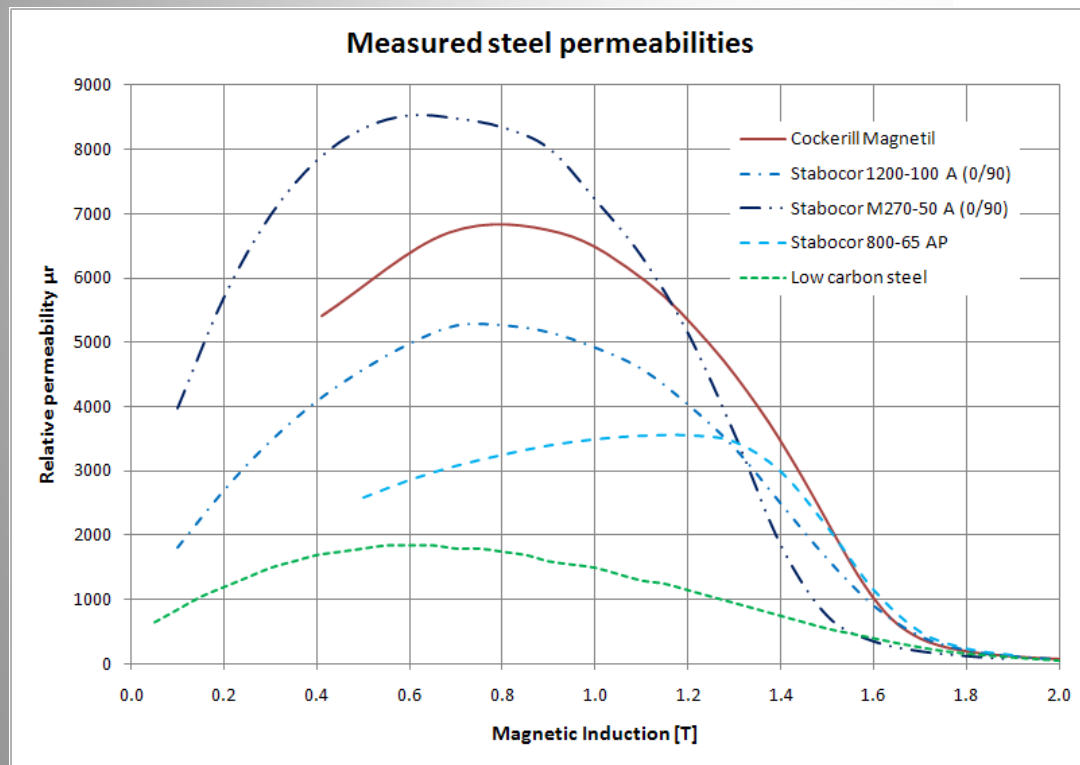
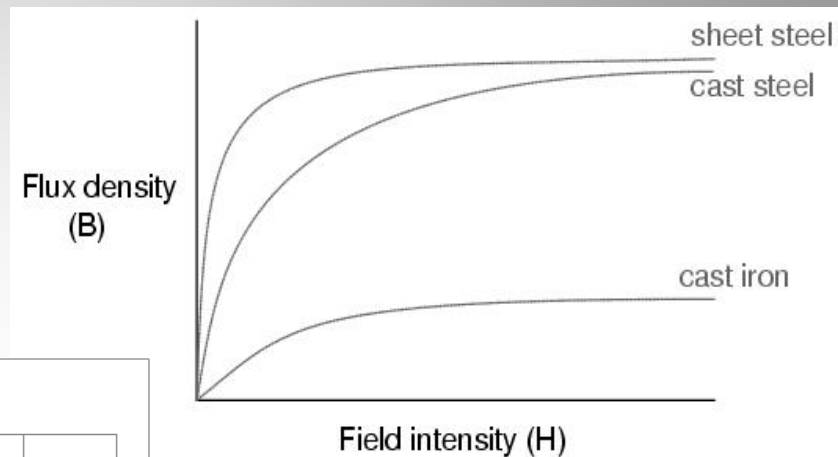
Permeability



$$\vec{B} = \mu \vec{H}$$

$$\mu = \mu_0 \mu_r$$

Permeability: correlation between field strength H and flux density B



Ferro-magnetic materials:
high permeability ($\mu_r \gg 1$),
but not constant



Excitation current in a dipole

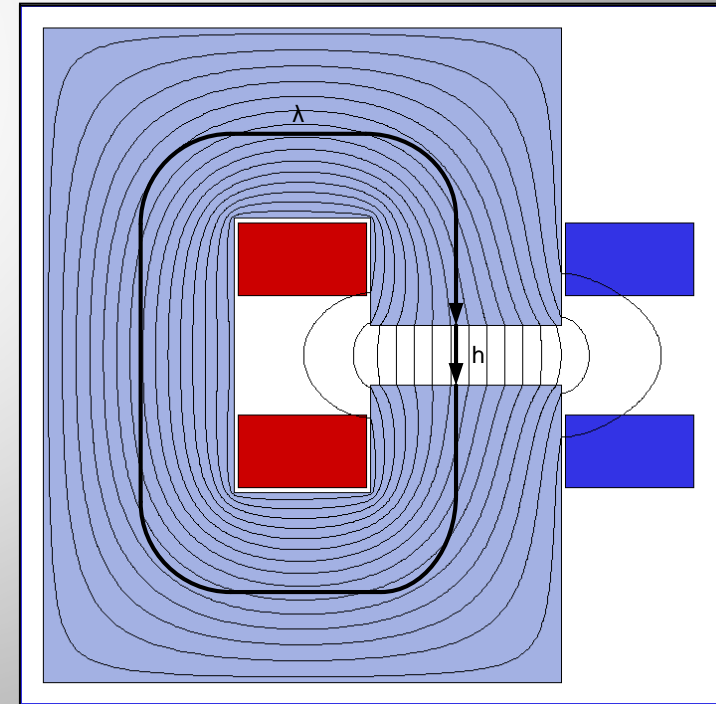
Ampere's law $\oint \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = NI$ and $\vec{B} = \mu \vec{H}$

leads to
$$NI = \oint \frac{\vec{B}}{\mu} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_{\text{gap}} \frac{\vec{B}}{\mu_{\text{air}}} \cdot d\vec{l} + \int_{\text{yoke}} \frac{\vec{B}}{\mu_{\text{iron}}} \cdot d\vec{l} = \frac{Bh}{\mu_{\text{air}}} + \frac{B\lambda}{\mu_{\text{iron}}}$$

assuming, that B is constant along the path.

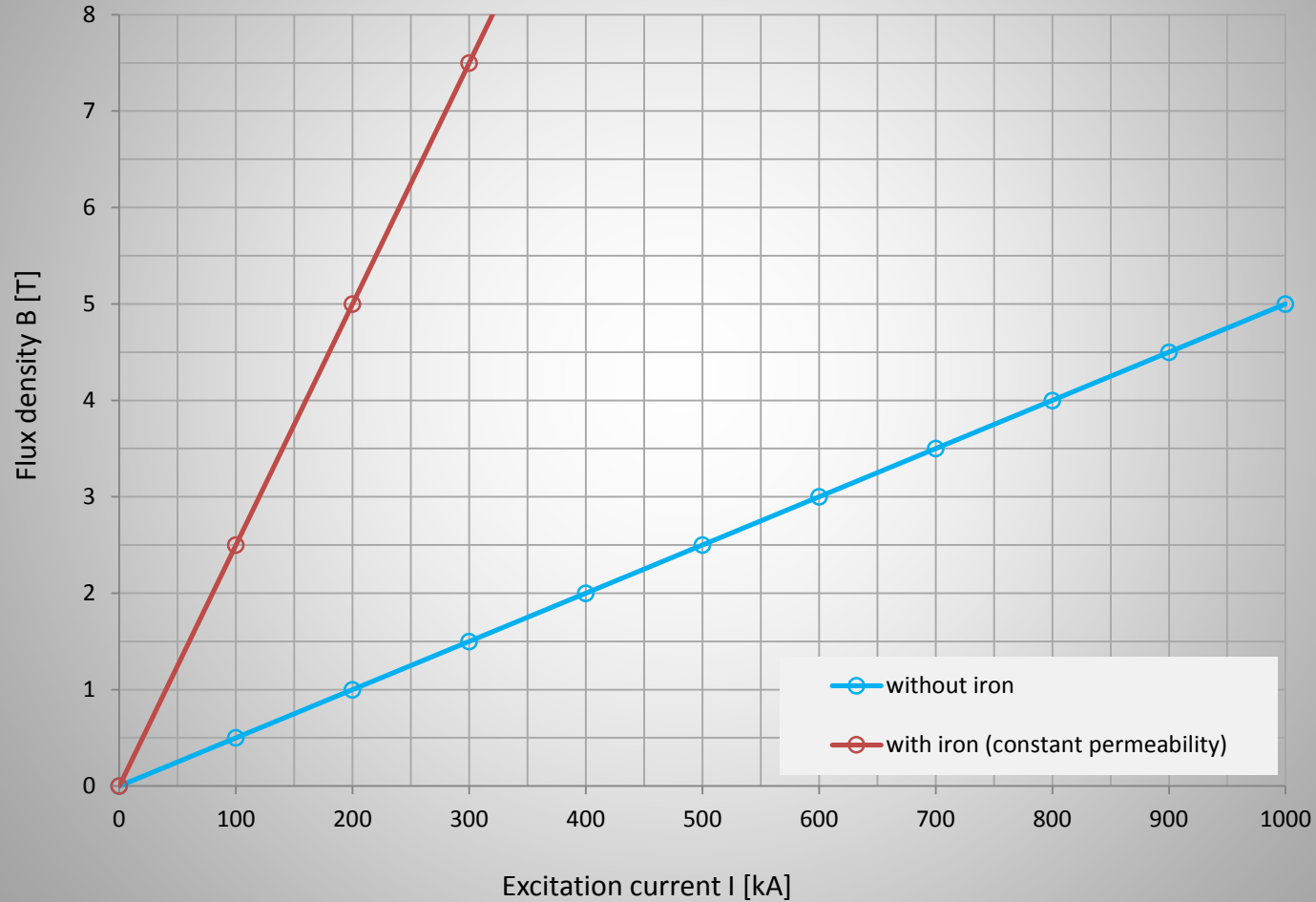
If the iron is not saturated: $\frac{h}{\mu_{\text{air}}} \gg \frac{\lambda}{\mu_{\text{iron}}}$

then:
$$NI_{(\text{per pole})} \approx \frac{Bh}{2\mu_0}$$





Transfer function





Reluctance and saturation



Similar to electrical circuits, one can define the ‘resistance’ of a magnetic circuit, called ‘reluctance’:

Ohm’s law:

$$R_E = \frac{U}{I} = \frac{l_E}{A_E \sigma}$$



Hopkinson’s law:

$$R_M = \frac{NI}{\Phi} = \frac{l_M}{A_M \mu_r \mu_0}$$

- Voltage drop U [V]
- Resistance R_E [Ω]
- Current I [A]
- El. Resistivity σ [Ωm]
- Conductor length l_E [m]
- Conductor cross section A_E [m^2]

- Magneto-motive force NI [A]
- Reluctance R_M [A/Vs]
- Magnetic flux Φ [Wb]
- Permeability μ [Vs/Am]
- Flux path length in iron l_M [m]
- Iron cross section A_M [m^2]
(perpendicular to flux)



Reluctance and saturation

$$I = 32 \text{ kA}$$

$$B_{\text{centre}} = 0.09 \text{ T}$$



$$I = 64 \text{ kA}$$

$$B_{\text{centre}} = 0.18 \text{ T}$$

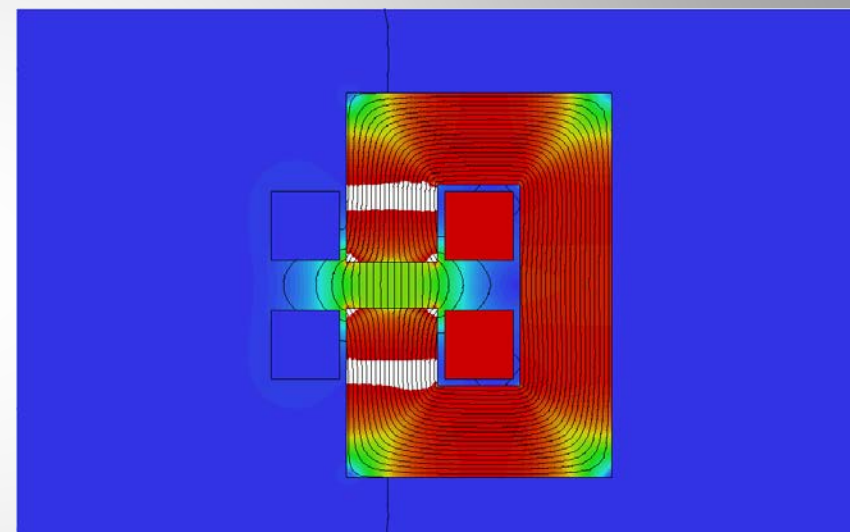
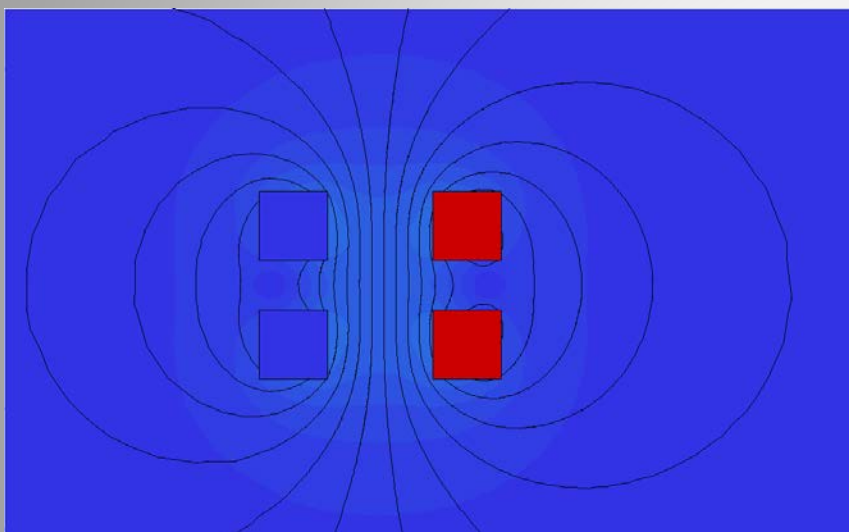
$$I = 32 \text{ kA}$$

$$B_{\text{centre}} = 0.80 \text{ T}$$



$$I = 64 \text{ kA}$$

$$B_{\text{centre}} = 1.30 \text{ T}$$



Component: BMOD
0.0

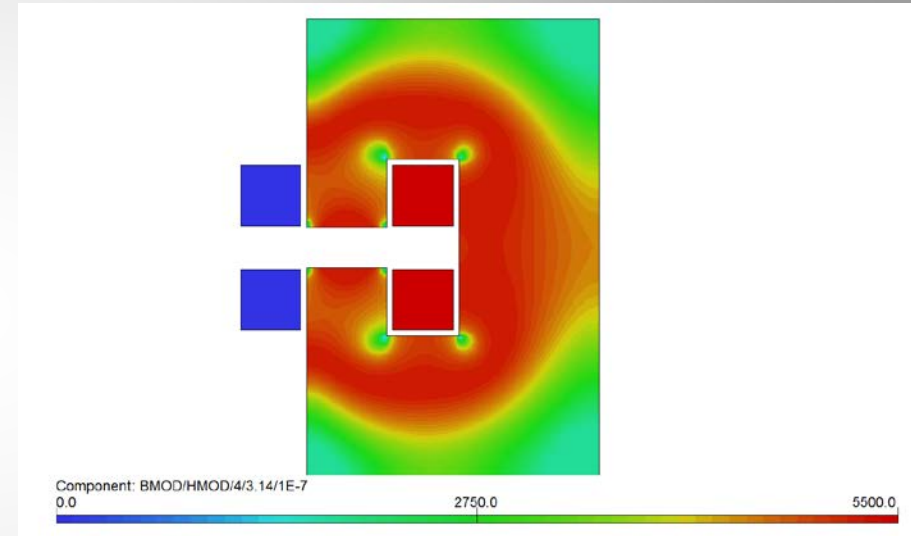
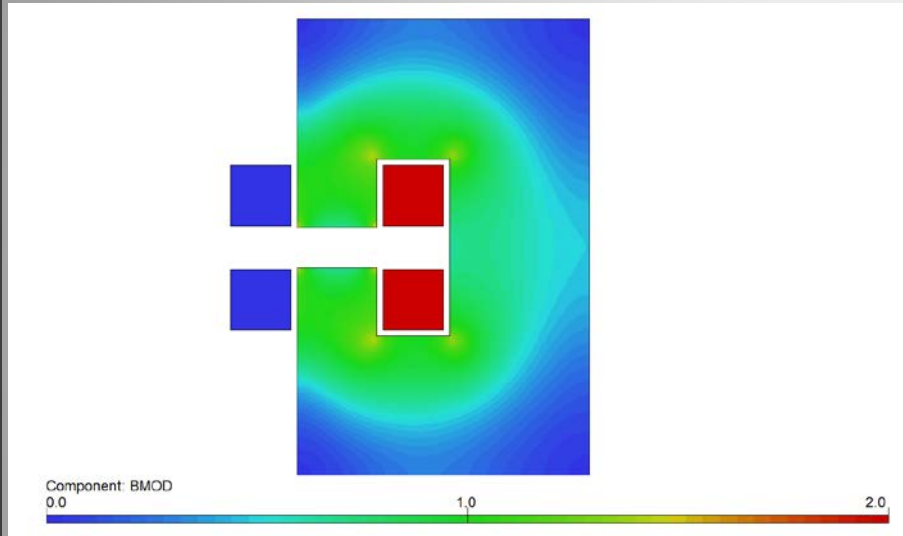
1.0

2.0

Increase of B above 1.5 T in iron requires non-proportional increase of H
 Iron saturation (small μ_{iron}) leads to inefficiencies



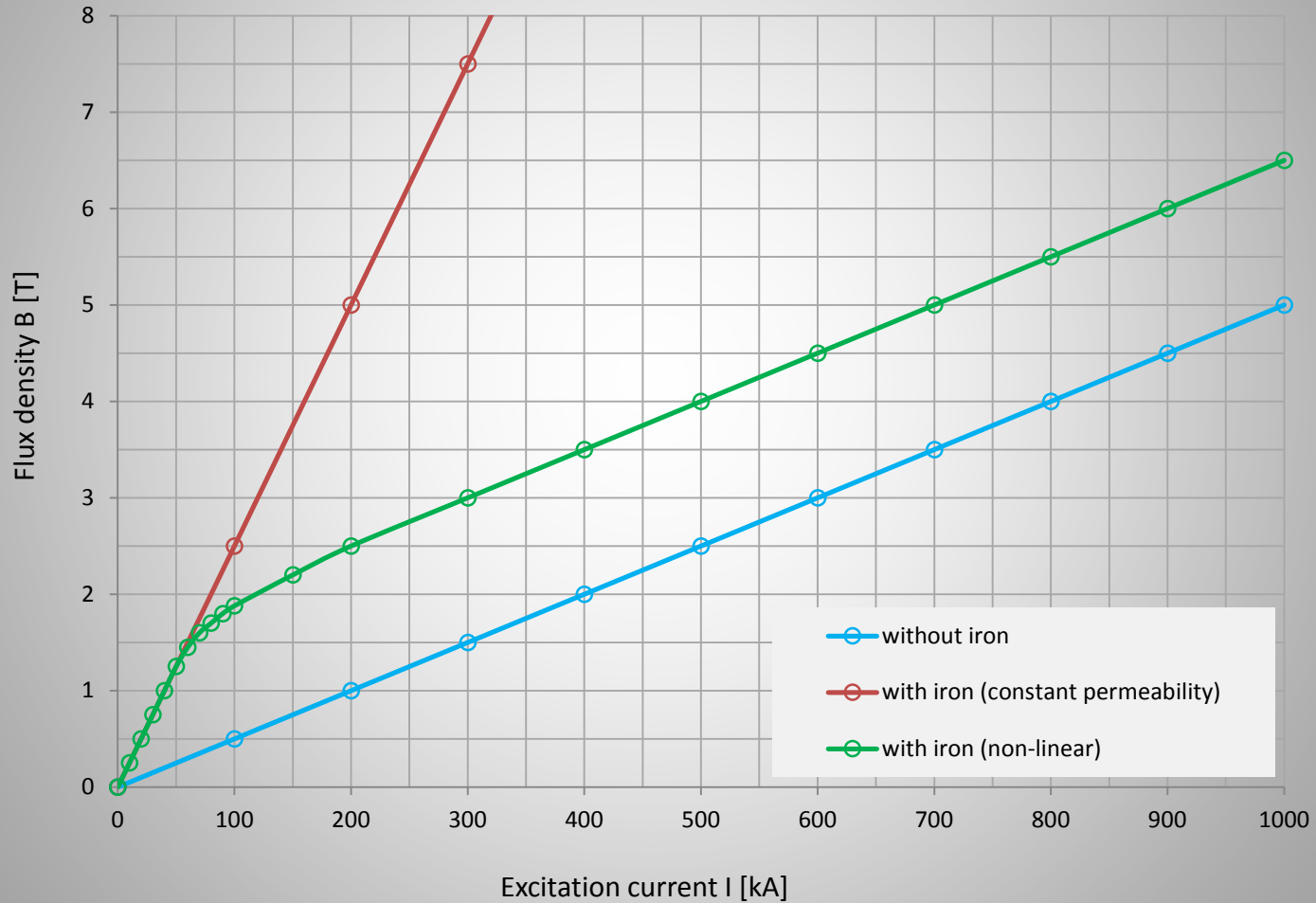
Reluctance and saturation



Keep yoke reluctance small by providing sufficient iron cross-section!



Reluctance and saturation

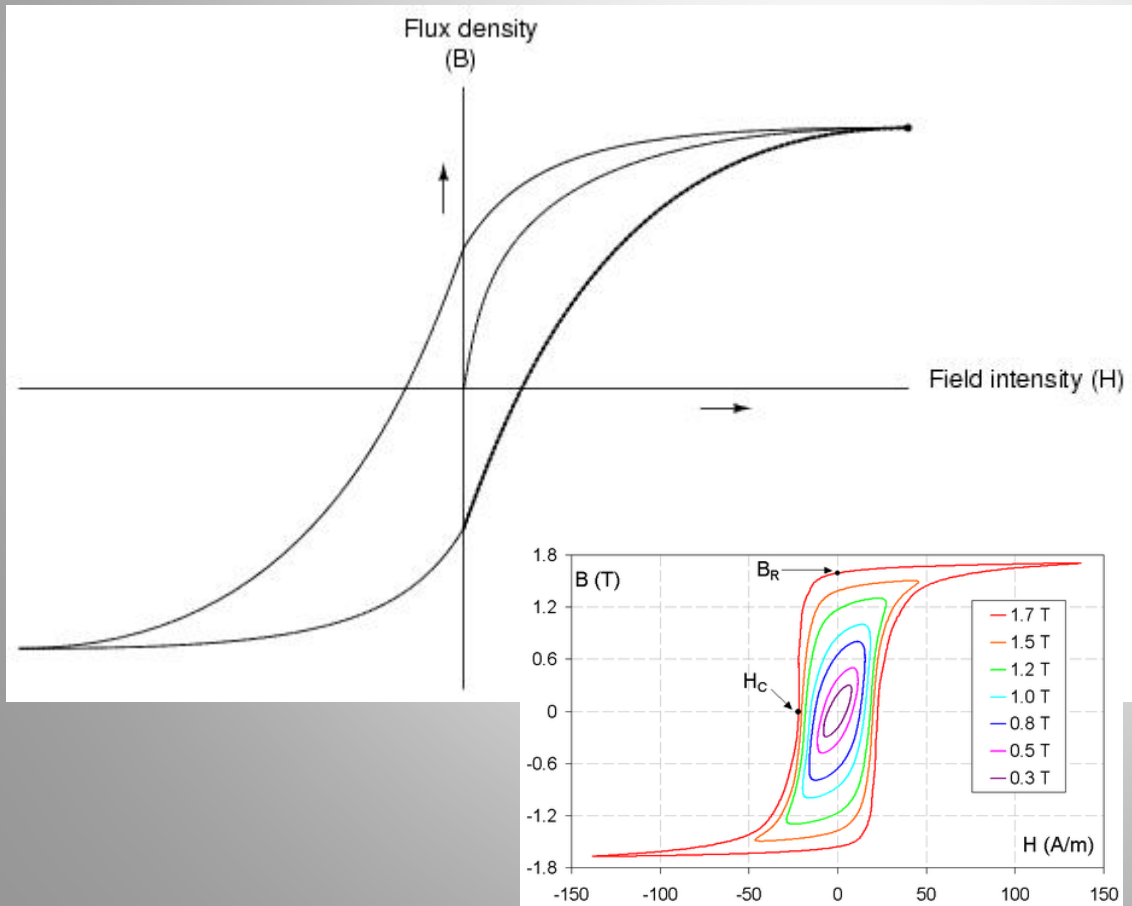




Steel hysteresis



Flux density $B(H)$ as a function of the field strength is different, when increasing and decreasing excitation

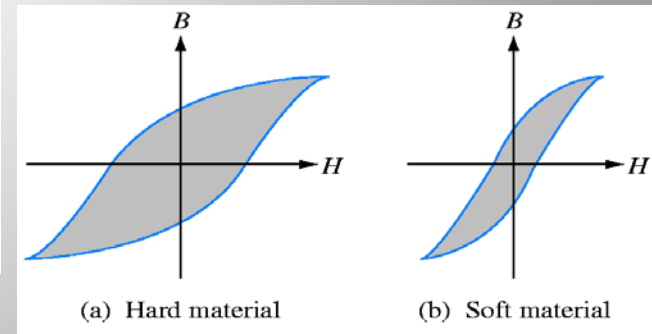


Remanent field (Retentivity):

$$H = 0 \rightarrow B = B_r > 0$$

Coercivity or coercive force:

$$B = 0 \rightarrow H = H_c < 0$$





Residual field in a magnet



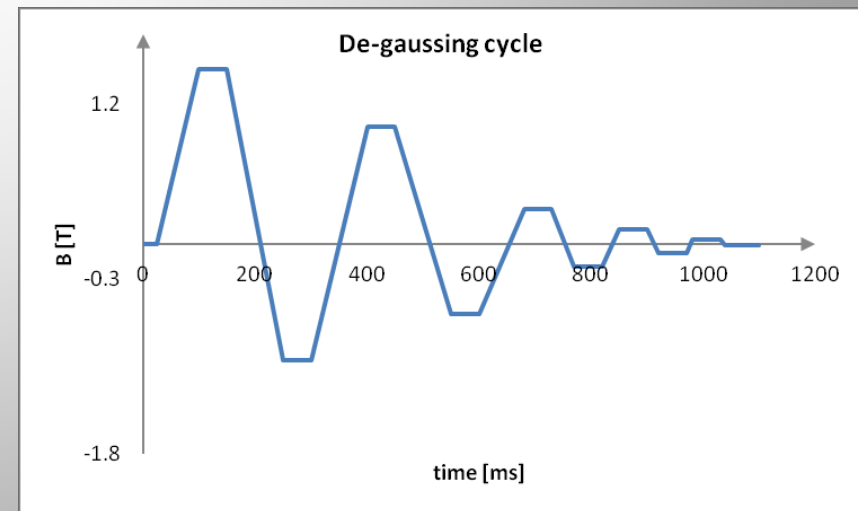
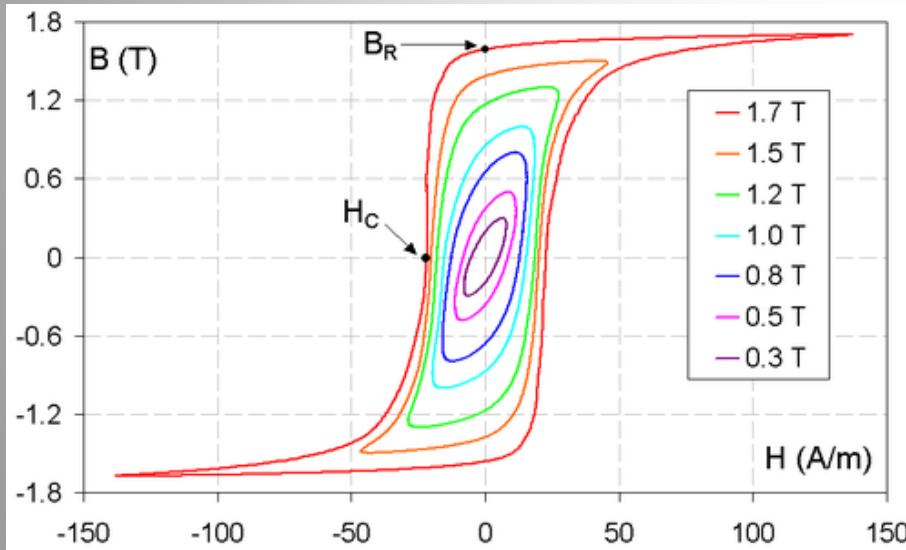
In a continuous ferro-magnetic core (transformer) the residual field is determined by the remanent field B_R

In a magnet core (gap), the residual field is determined by the coercivity H_C

Assuming the coil current $I=0$:

$$\oint \vec{H} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_{gap} \vec{H}_{gap} \cdot d\vec{l} + \int_{yoke} \vec{H}_c \cdot d\vec{l} = 0$$

$$B_{residual} = -\mu_0 H_C \frac{l}{g}$$



Demagnetization cycle!



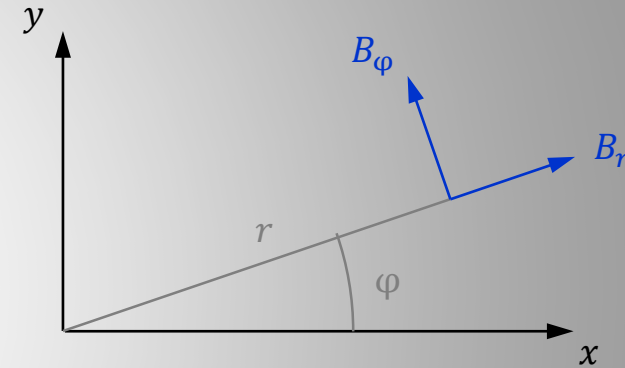
Field description



The 2D vector field of B can be expressed as a series of multipole coefficients $B_n(r_0)$, $A_n(r_0)$ with r_0 being the reference radius:

$$B_r(r_0, \varphi) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{r}{r_0}\right)^{n-1} [B_n \sin(n\varphi) + A_n \cos(n\varphi)]$$

$$B_\varphi(r_0, \varphi) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{r}{r_0}\right)^{n-1} [B_n \cos(n\varphi) - A_n \sin(n\varphi)]$$



$$B_y(z) + iB_x(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (B_n + iA_n) \left(\frac{z}{r_0}\right)^{n-1}$$

$$z = x + iy = r e^{i\varphi}$$

This 2D decomposition holds only in a region of space:

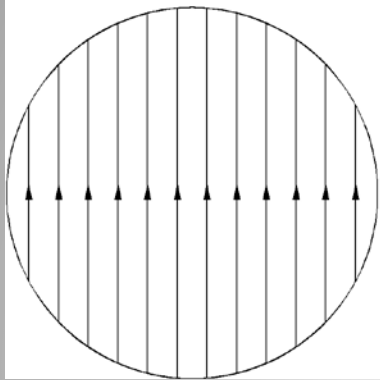
- without currents
- without magnetic materials ($\mu_r = 1$)
- where B_z is constant



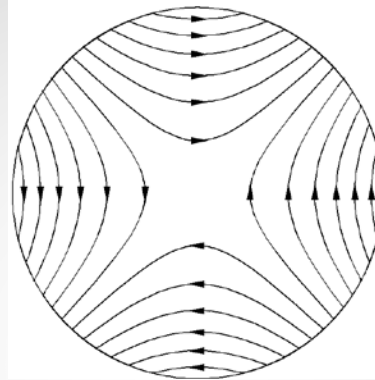
Field description



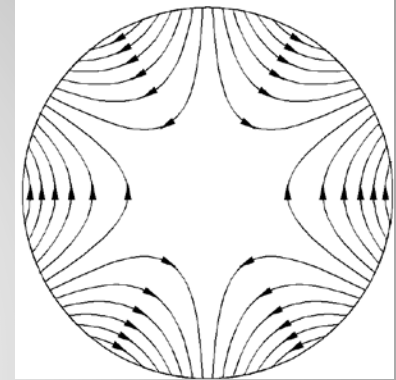
B_1 : normal dipole



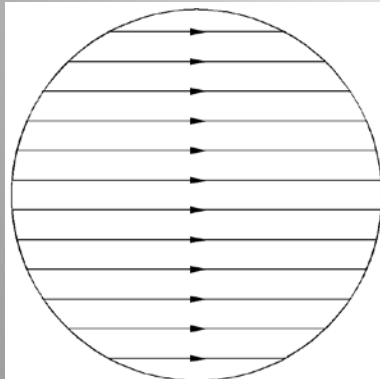
B_2 : normal quadrupole



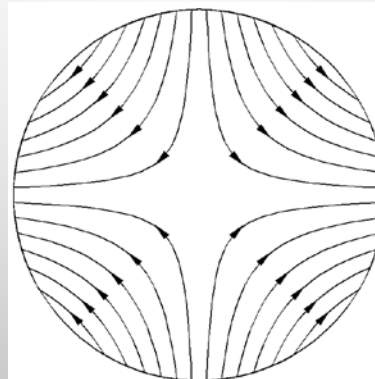
B_3 : normal sextupole



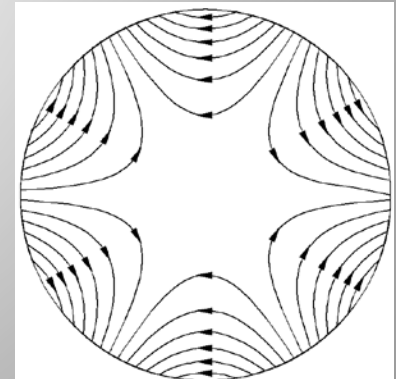
A_1 : skew dipole



A_2 : skew quadrupole



A_3 : skew sextupole

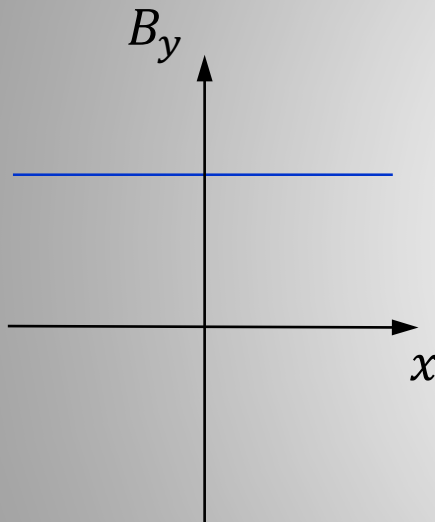


Each multipole term has a corresponding magnet type

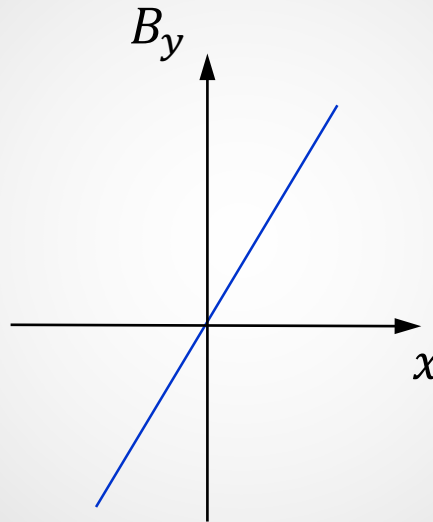


Field description

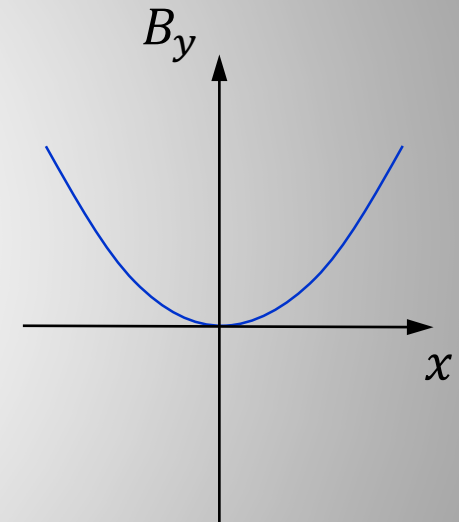
$$B_y(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \left(\frac{x}{r_0} \right)^{n-1} = B_1 + B_2 \frac{x}{r_0} + B_3 \frac{x^2}{r_0^2} + \dots$$



B_1 : dipole



B_2 : quadrupole



B_3 : sextupole

$$G = \frac{B_2}{r_0} = \frac{\partial B_y}{\partial x}$$

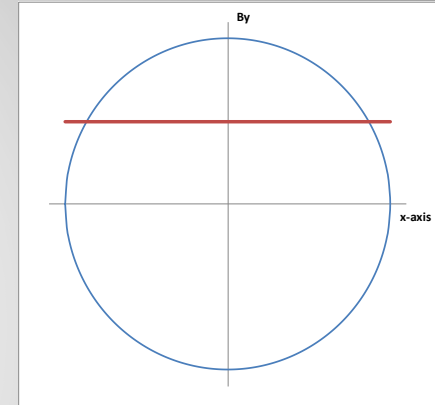
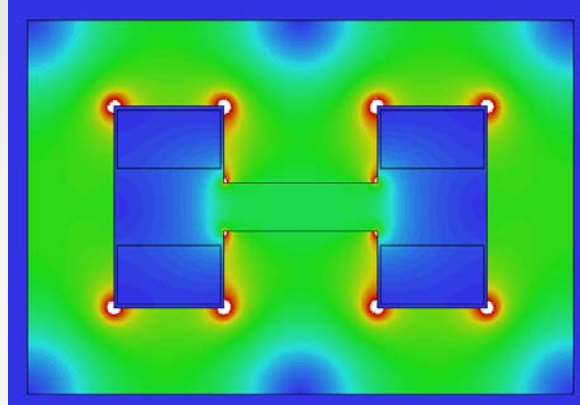
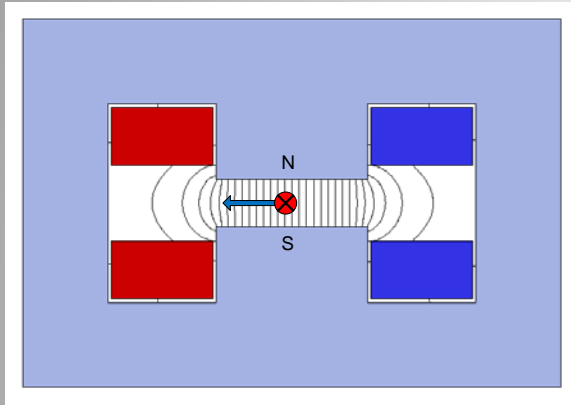
The field profile in the horizontal plane follows a polynomial expansion
 The ideal poles for each magnet type are lines of constant scalar potential



Dipoles



Purpose: bend or steer the particle beam



Equation for normal (non-skew) ideal (infinite) poles:

- Polar coordinates: $\rho \sin(\varphi) = \pm h/2$
- Cartesian coordinates: $y = \pm h/2$
- Straight line ($h = \text{gap height}$)

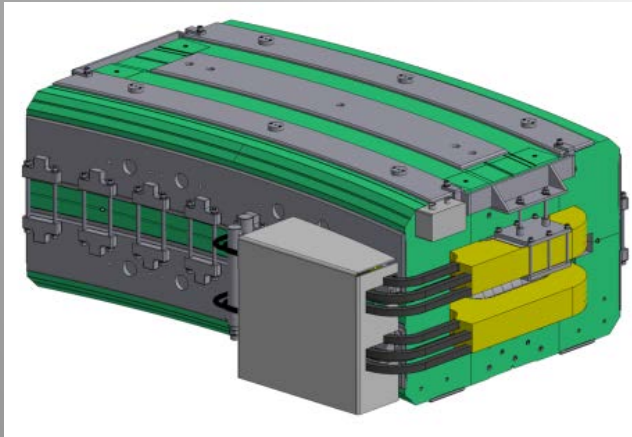
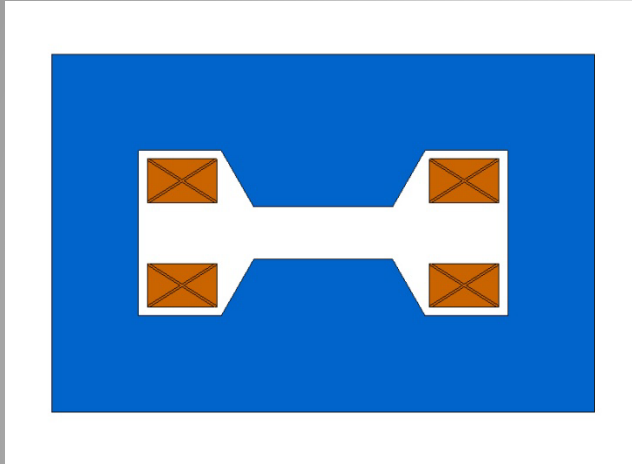
Magnetic flux density: $B_x = 0$; $B_y = B_1(r_0) = \text{const.}$

Applications: synchrotrons, transfer lines, spectrometry, beam scanning

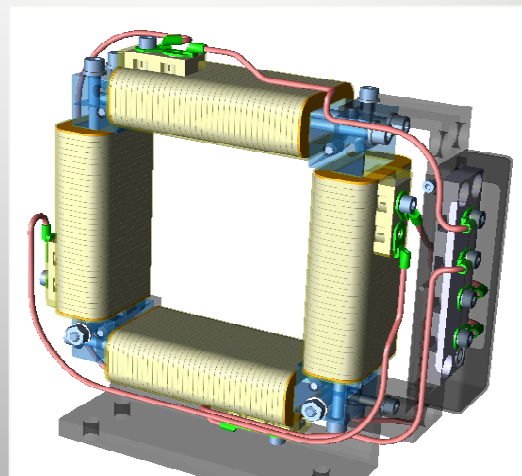
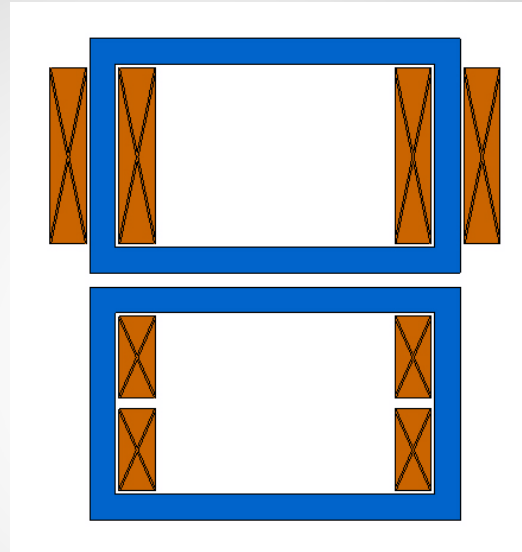


Dipole types

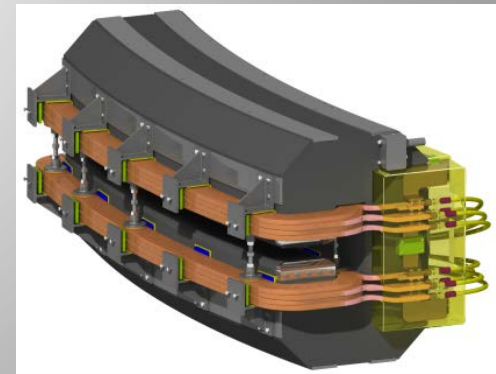
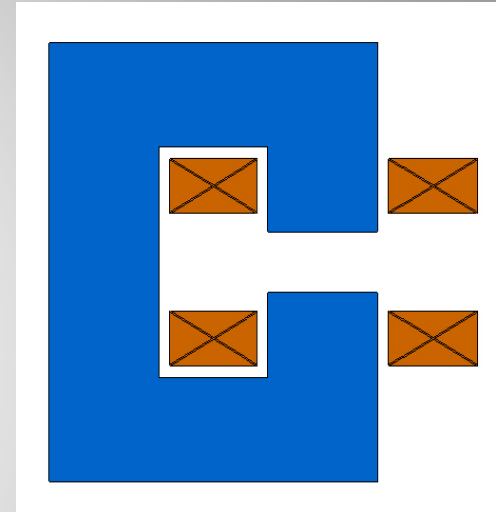
H-Shape



O-Shape



C-Shape

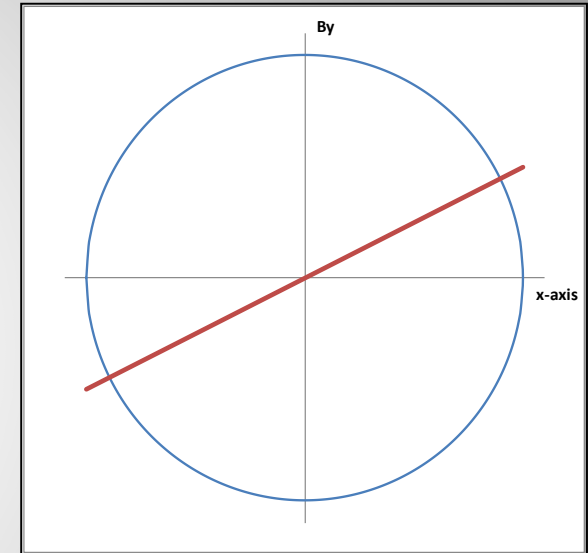
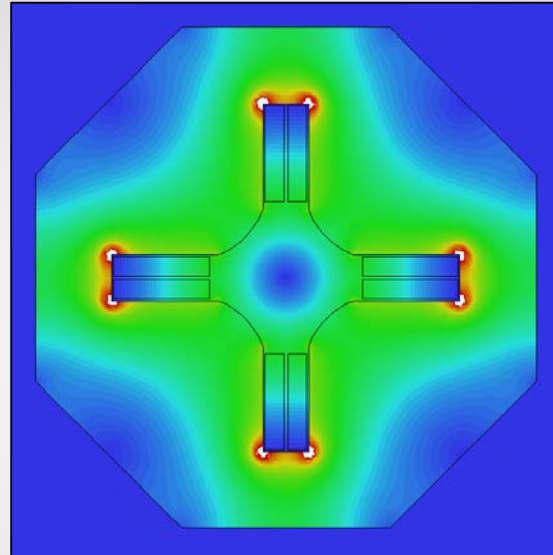
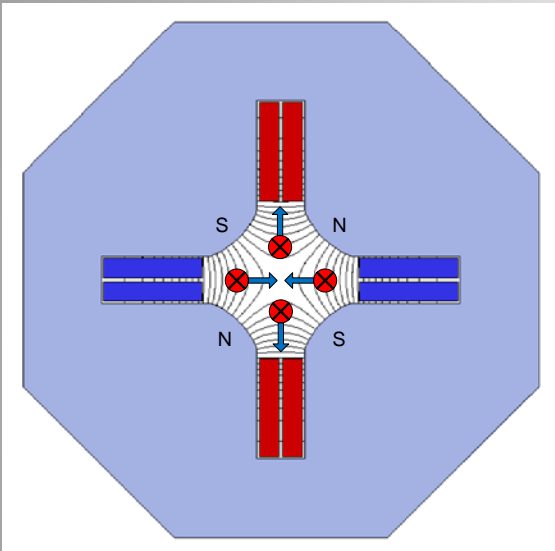




Quadrupoles



Purpose: focusing the beam (horizontally focused beam is vertically defocused)



Equation for normal (non-skew) ideal (infinite) poles:

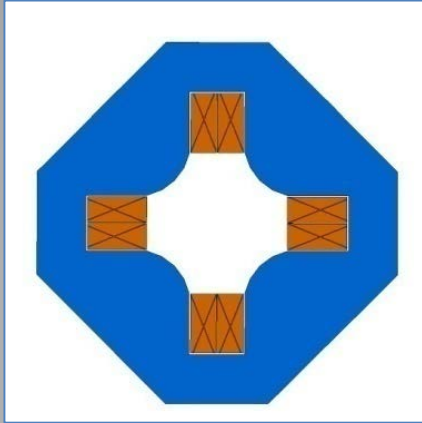
- Polar coordinates: $\rho^2 \sin(2\varphi) = \pm r^2$
- Cartesian coordinates: $2xy = \pm r^2$
- Hyperbola ($r =$ aperture radius)

Magnetic flux density: $B_x = \frac{B_2(r_0)}{r_0} y; B_y = \frac{B_2(r_0)}{r_0} x$

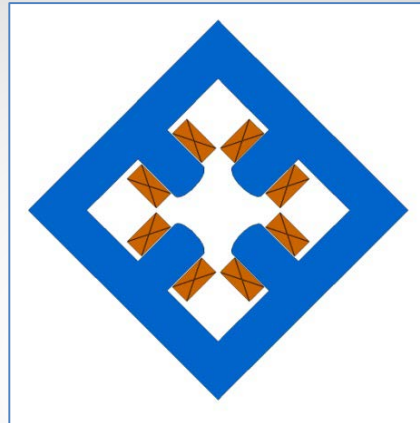


Quadrupole types

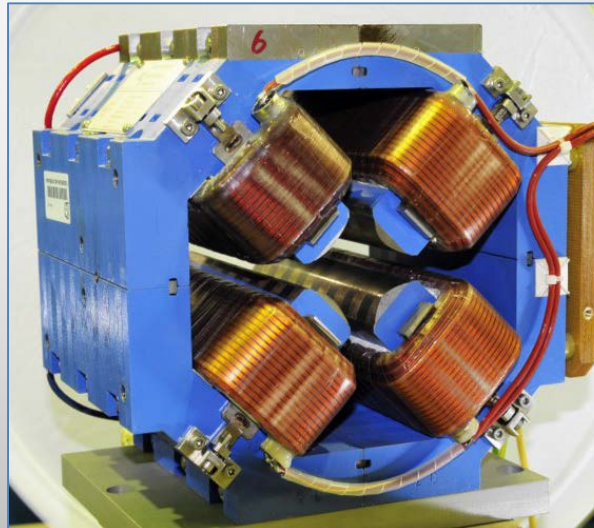
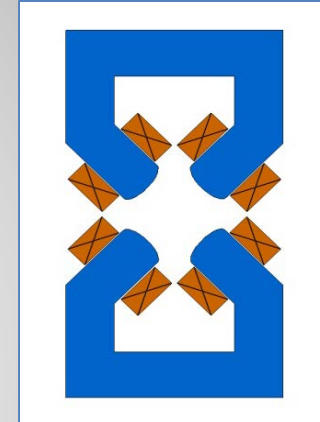
Standard quadrupole I



Standard quadrupole II



Collins or Figure-of-Eight

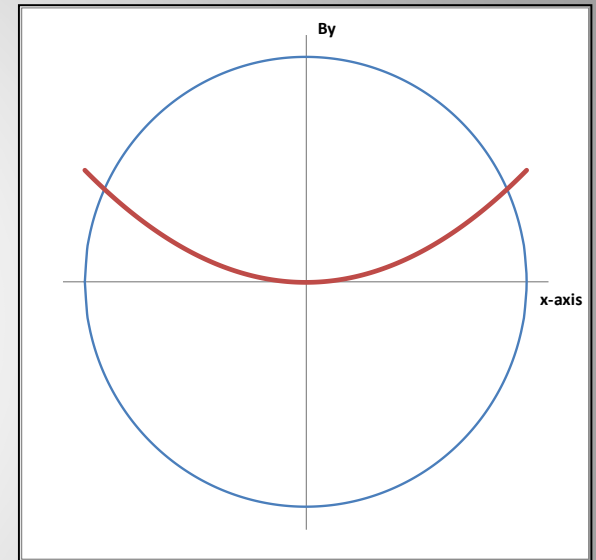
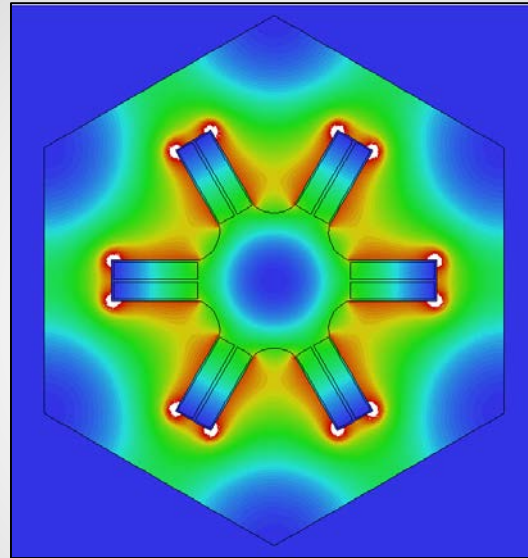
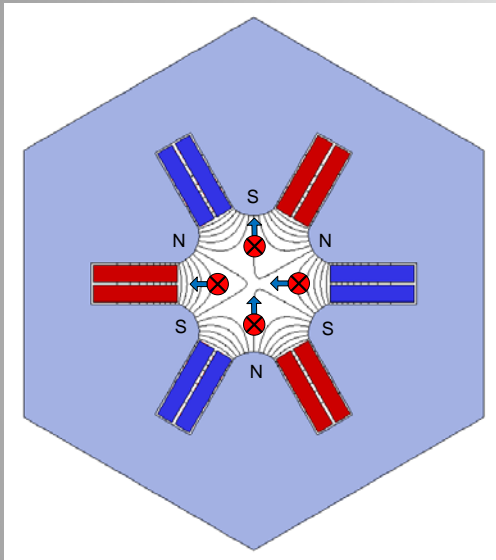




Sextupoles



Purpose: correct chromatic aberrations of 'off-momentum' particles



Equation for normal (non-skew) ideal (infinite) poles:

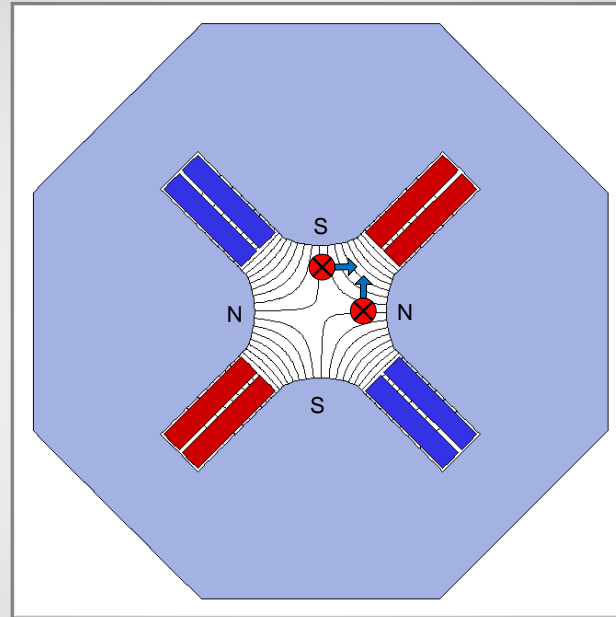
- Polar coordinates: $\rho^3 \sin(3\varphi) = \pm r^3$
- Cartesian coordinates: $3x^2y - y^3 = \pm r^3$

Magnetic flux density: $B_x = \frac{B_3(r_0)}{r_0^2} xy; B_y = \frac{B_3(r_0)}{r_0^2} (x^2 - y^2)$



Skew quadrupole

Purpose: coupling horizontal and vertical betatron oscillations



Rotation by $\pi/2n$

Beam that has horizontal displacement (but no vertical) is deflected vertically
 Beam that has vertical displacement (but no horizontal) is deflected horizontally



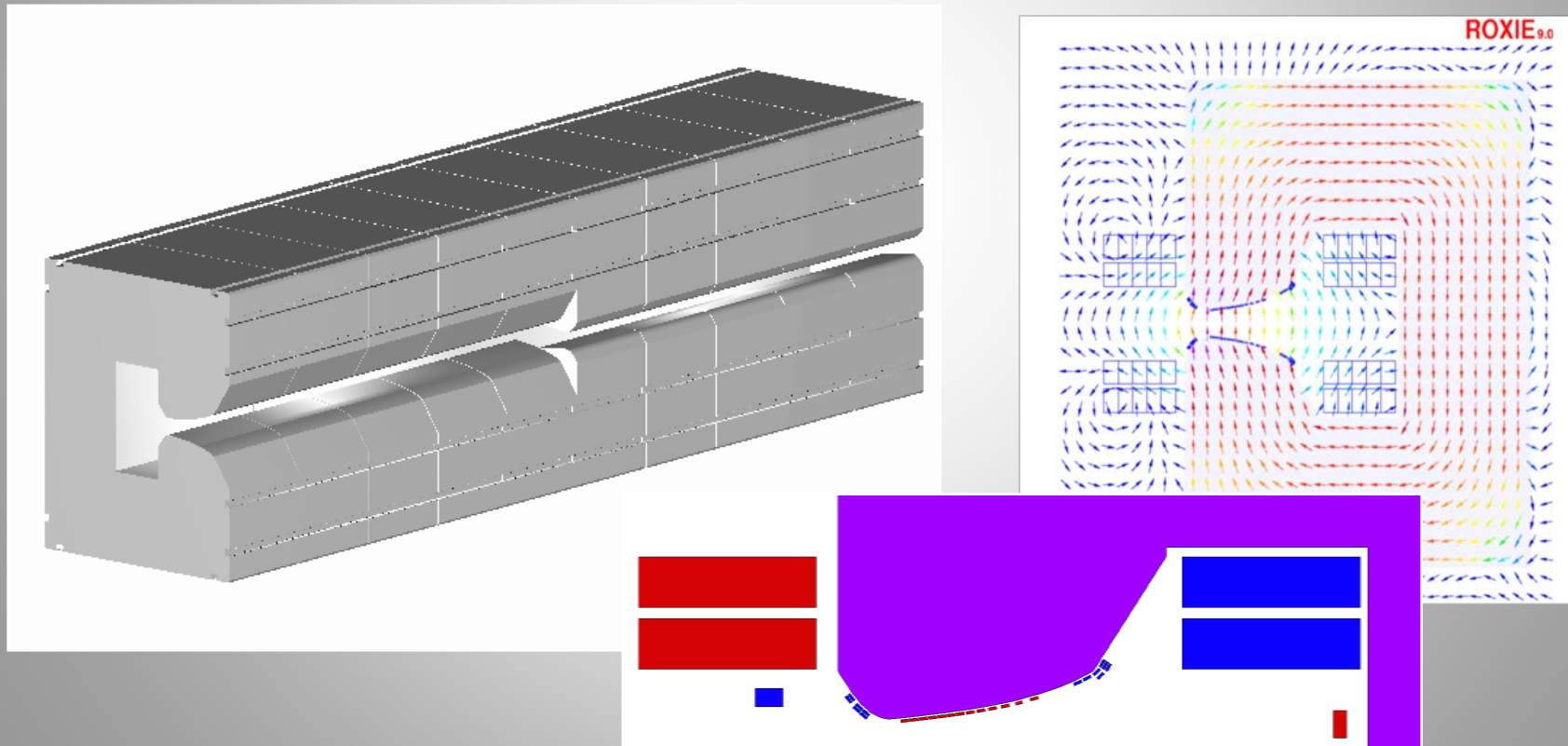
Combined function magnets



Functions generated by pole shape (sum a scalar potentials):

Amplitudes cannot be varied independently

Dipole and quadrupole: PS main magnet (PFW, Fo8...)



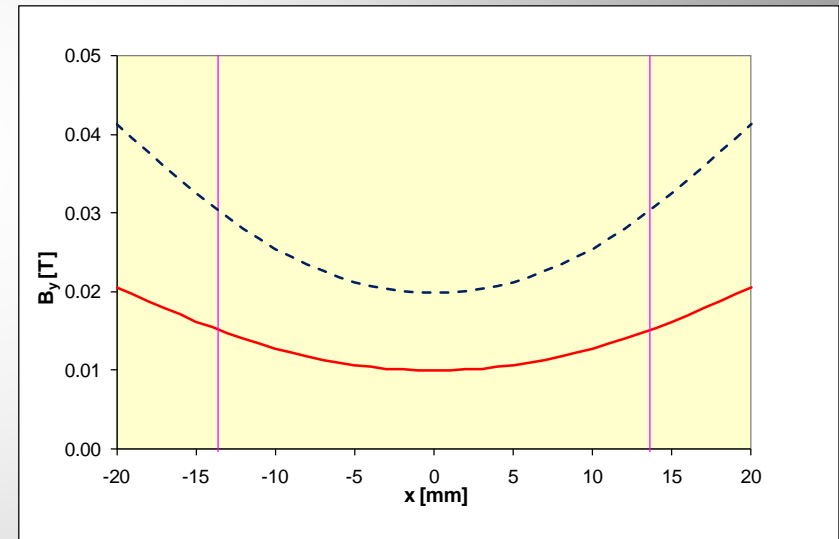
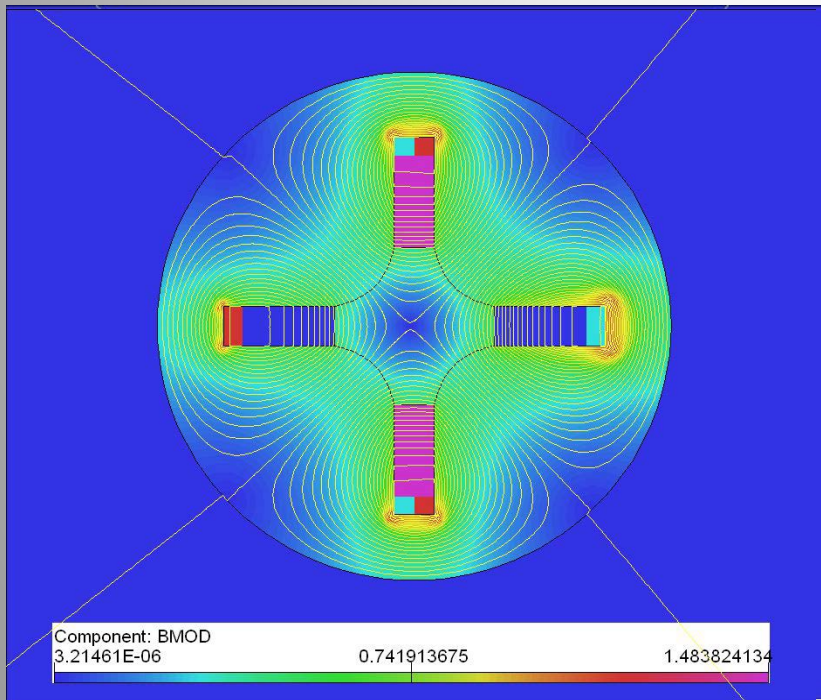


Combined function magnets



Functions generated by individual coils:

Amplitudes can be varied independently



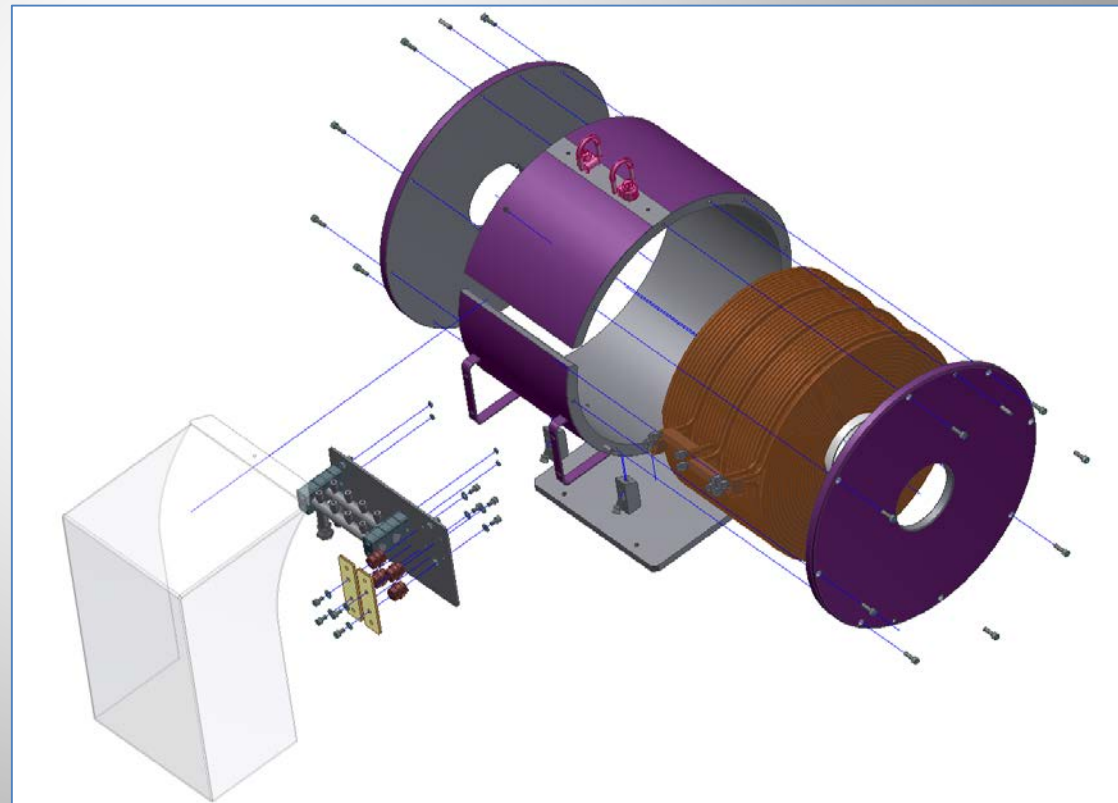
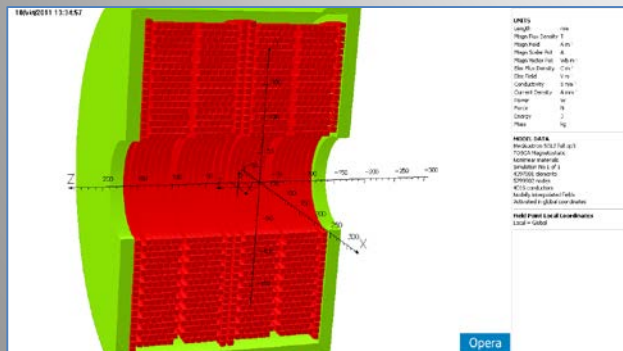
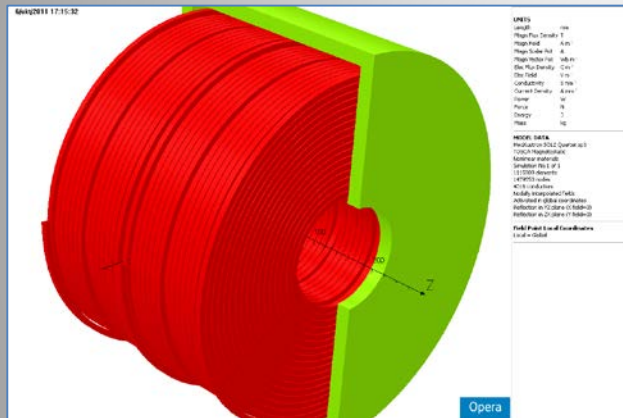
Quadrupole and corrector dipole
 (strong sextupole component in dipole field)



Solenenoids



- Weak focusing, non-linear elements
- Main field component in z-direction, focusing by end fields
- Usually only used in experiments or low-energy beam lines

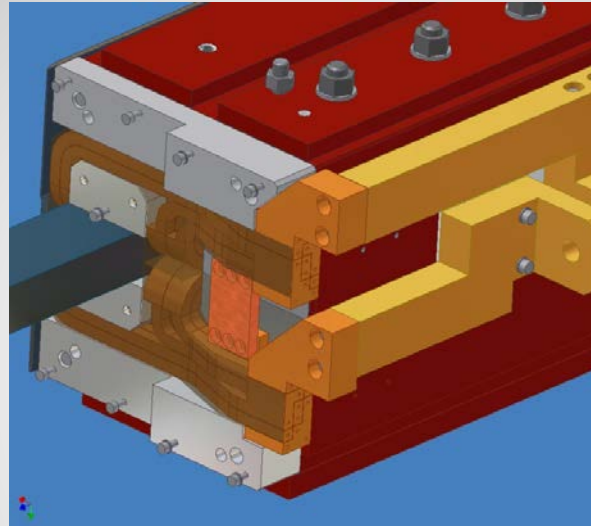




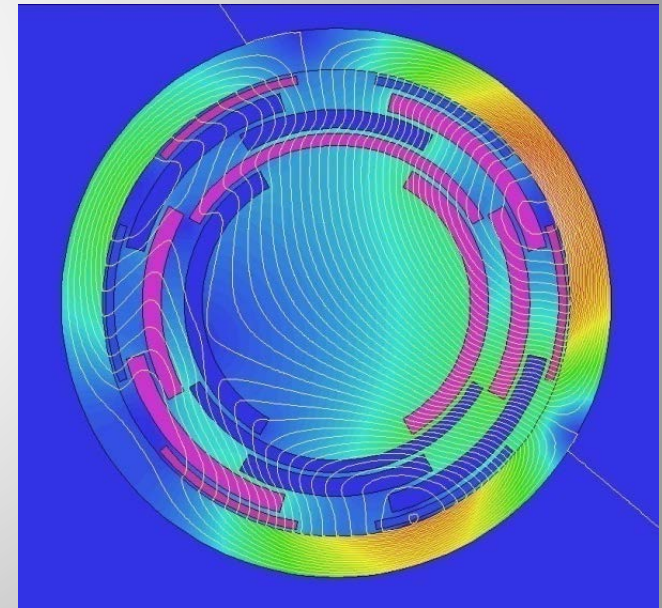
Special magnets

For beam injection and extraction

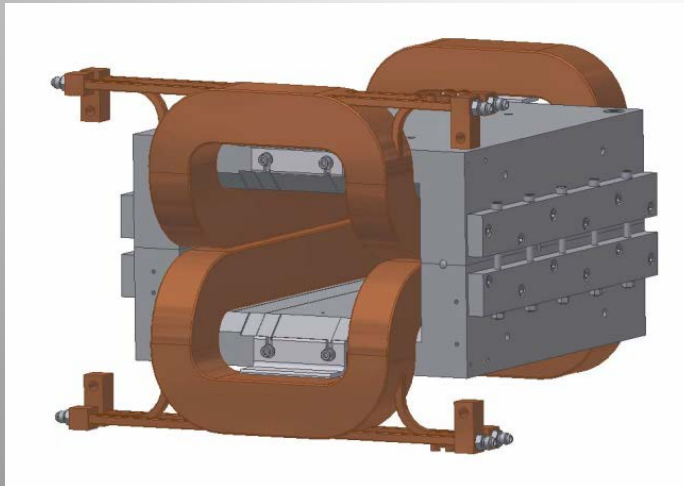
- Septa
- Kicker magnets
- Bumper magnets



Coil-dominated magnets



Scanning magnets



Overview



Pole shape	Field distribution	Pole equation	B_x, B_y
		$y = \pm r$	$B_x = 0$ $B_y = B_1(r_0) = \text{const.}$
		$2xy = \pm r^2$	$B_x = \frac{B_2(r_0)}{r_0} y$ $B_y = \frac{B_2(r_0)}{r_0} x$
		$3x^2y - y^3 = \pm r^3$	$B_x = \frac{B_3(r_0)}{r_0^2} xy$ $B_y = \frac{B_3(r_0)}{r_0^2} (x^2 - y^2)$
		$4(x^3y - xy^3) = \pm r^4$	$B_x = \frac{B_4(r_0)}{6r_0^3} (3x^2y - y^3)$ $B_y = \frac{B_4(r_0)}{6r_0^3} (x^3 - 3xy^2)$



Summary

- Magnets are needed to guide and shape particle beams
- Coils carry the electrical current, the iron yoke carries the magnetic flux
- Steel properties have a significant influence on the magnet performance
- Iron saturation influence the efficiency of the magnetic circuit and has to be taken into account in the design
- The 2D magnetic vector field can be expressed as a series of multipole coefficients
- Different magnet types for different functions