

SRF Tutorial – part I

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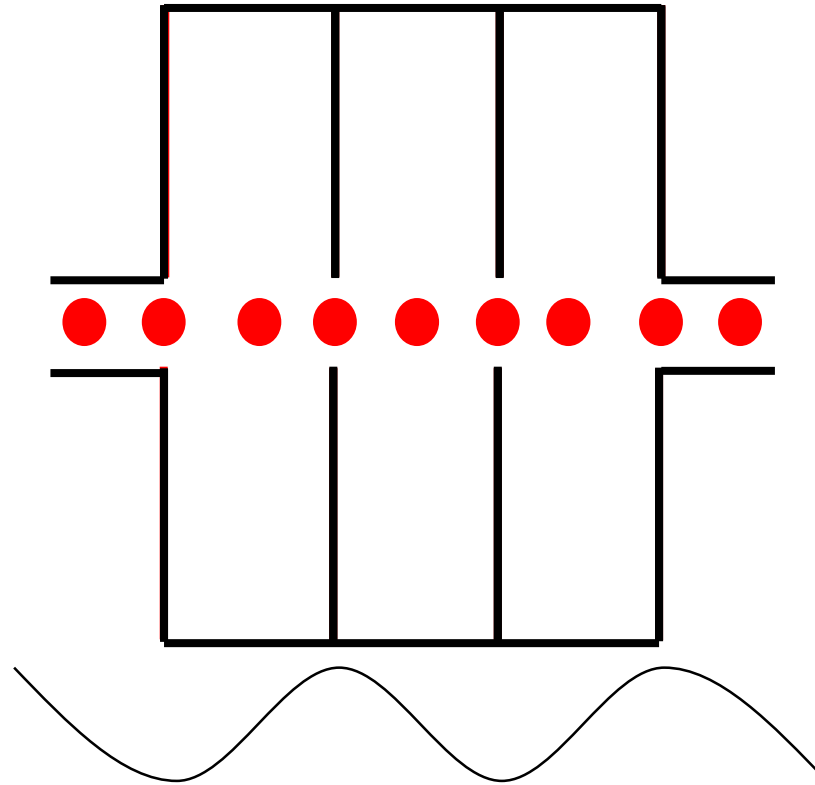


- What is a RF cavity?
 - Q factor
 - Different shapes
- Surface impedance
 - Definition
 - Normal metals
- Basics of superconductivity
 - Surface impedance of superconductors
 - Two fluids
 - BCS
 - Skin depth
- Cryogenics

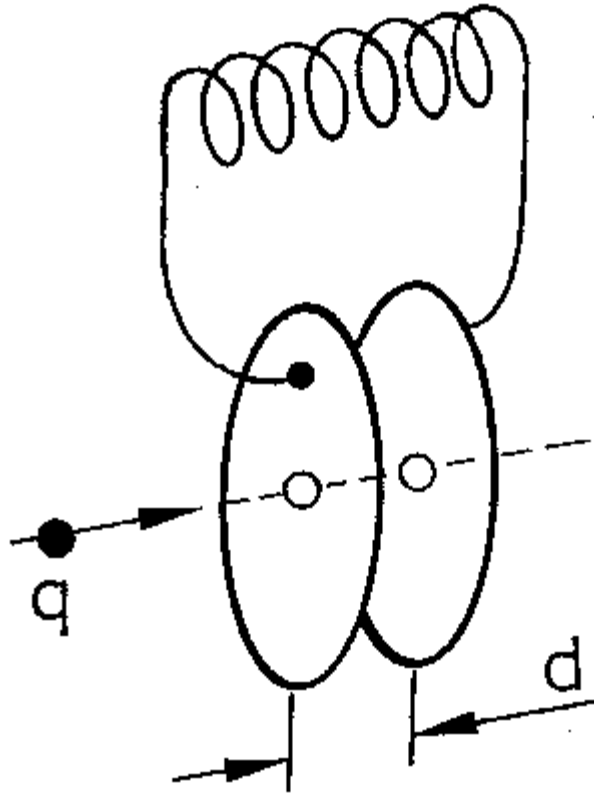
- Review paper:
 - J.P. Turneaure, J. Halbritter and H.A. Schwettman, J. Supercond. 4 (1991) 341
- Details:
 - J. Halbritter, Z. Physik 238 (1970) 466
 - J. Halbritter, Z. Physik 243 (1971) 201
- Books:
 - RF Superconductivity for Particle Accelerators by H. Padamsee, Vols I & II
 - HTS Thin Films at Microwave Frequencies by M. Hein (Springer, Berlin, 1999)
- CERN Accelerator Schools: Superconductivity in Particle Accelerators “Yellow reports” n. 89-04, 96-03 and 2014-05
- <http://w4.lns.cornell.edu/public/CESR/SRF/SRFHome.html> and links therein
- Wikipedia http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Superconducting_Radio_Frequency !!!

How to accelerate a particle?

- You need electric fields of the order of several MV/m
- You cannot do it in DC!
- You need a trick...



- An accelerating RF cavity is a resonant RLC circuit



$$\nu_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}}$$

In order to fully exploit the accelerating effect, it is required that the transit time of the particle be \leq than the half-period of the RF wave

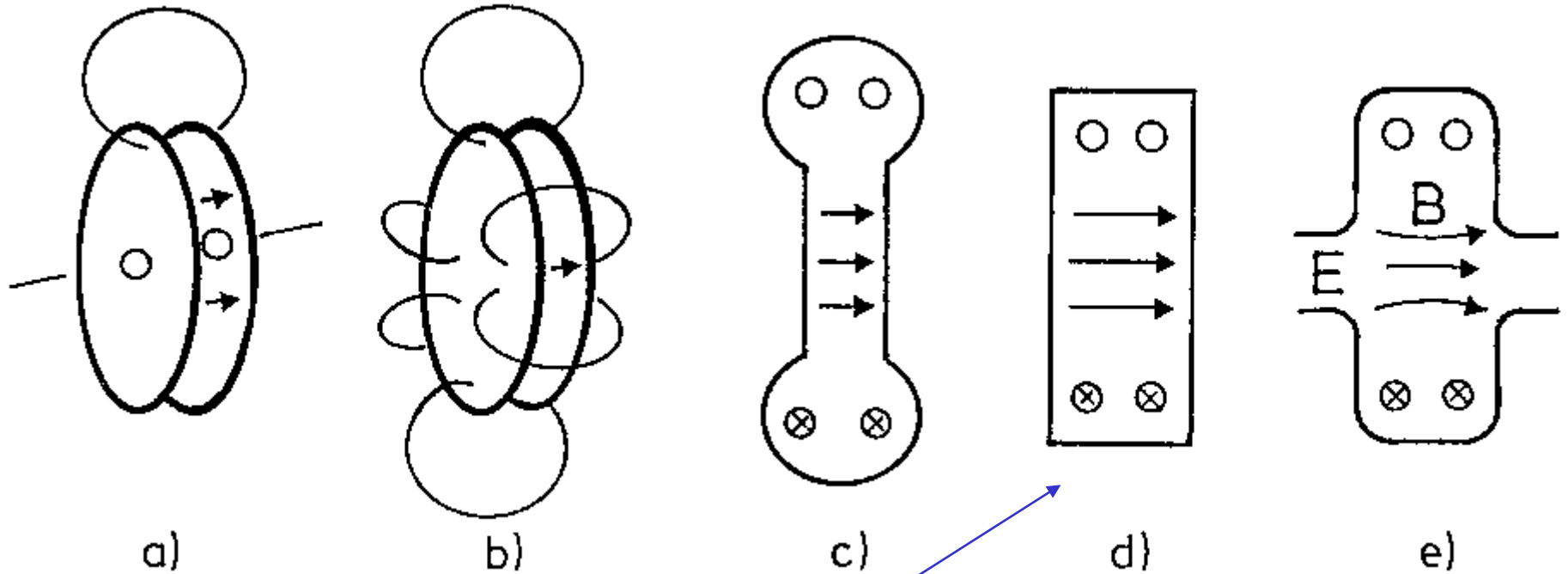
$$d/v_{particle} \leq 1/(2\nu_0)$$

Which translates into

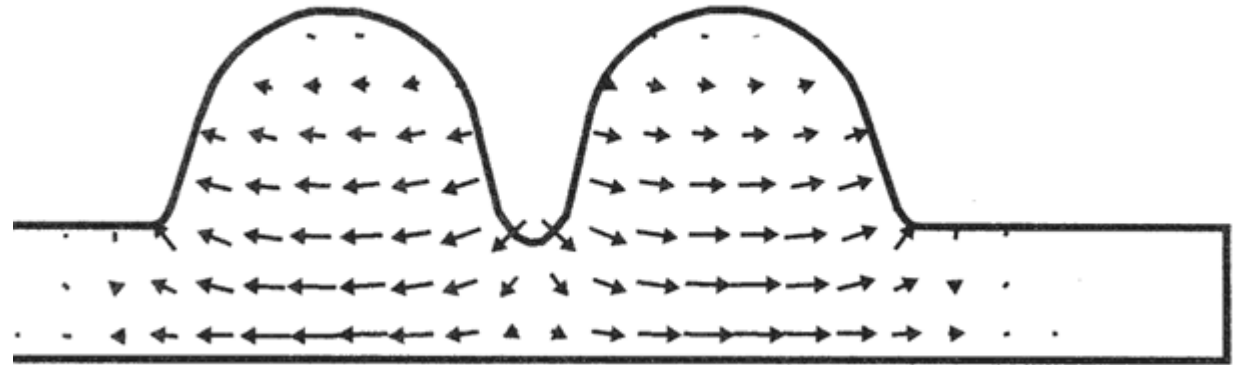
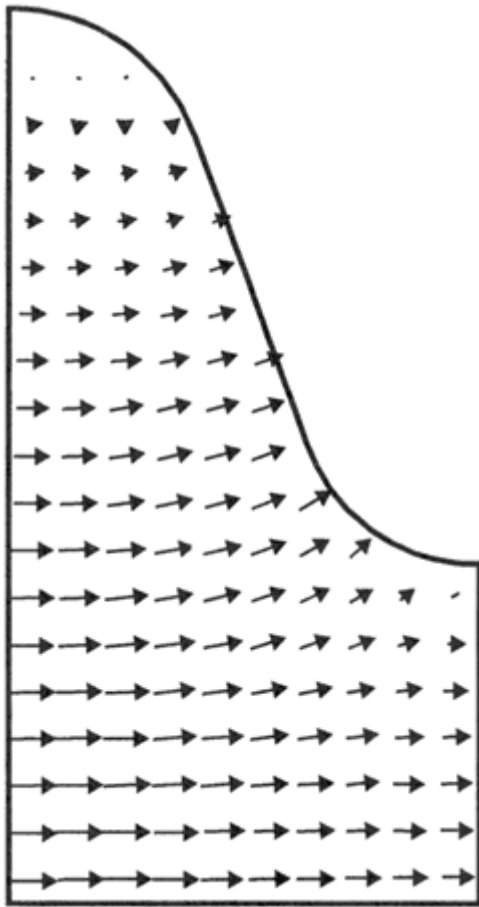
$$2d\nu_0 \leq \beta c$$

That is

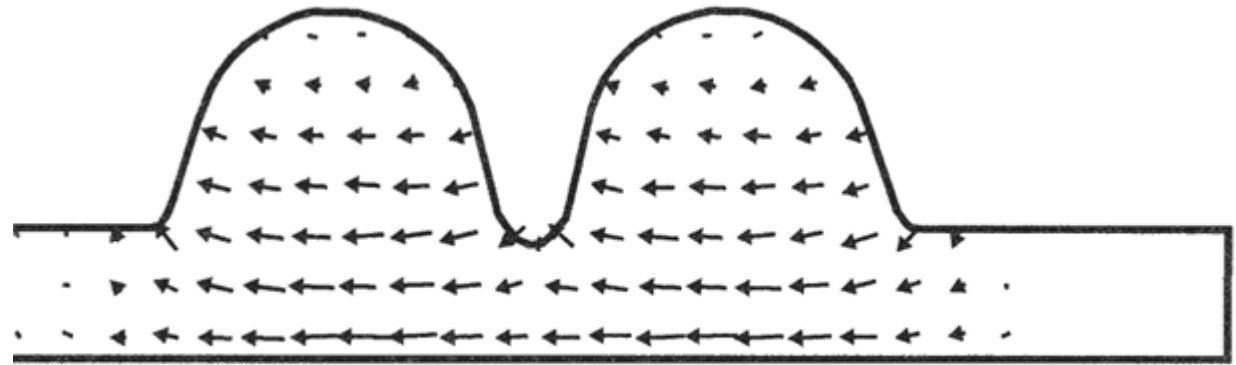
$$d \leq \beta\lambda/2$$



“Pillbox cavity” : $v_0 = 2.405 c / (2 * \pi * radius)$

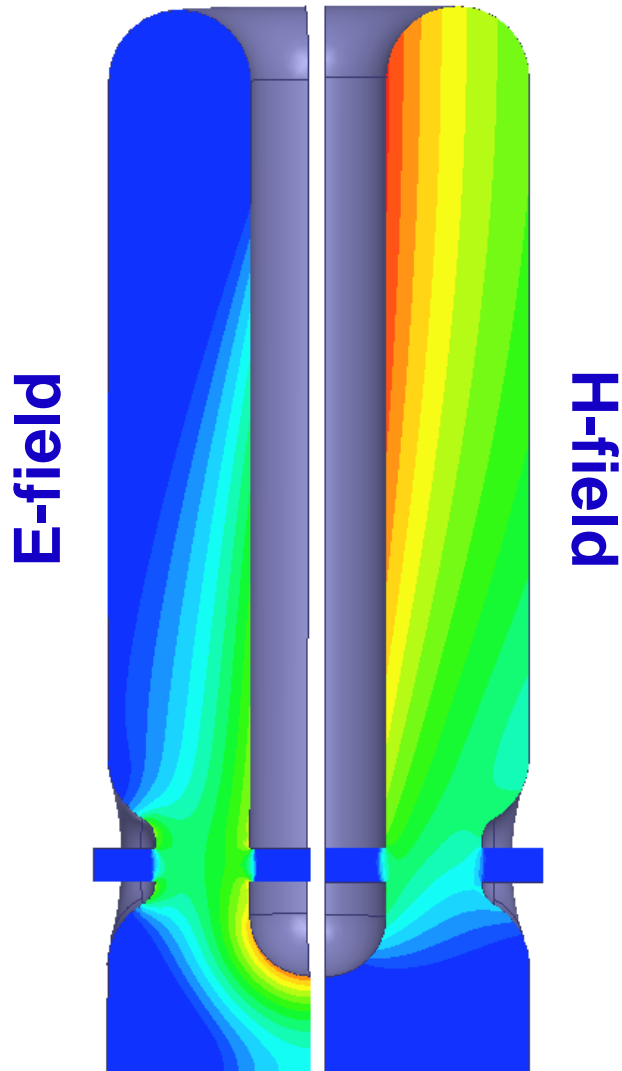


π mode.



$\pi/2$ mode.

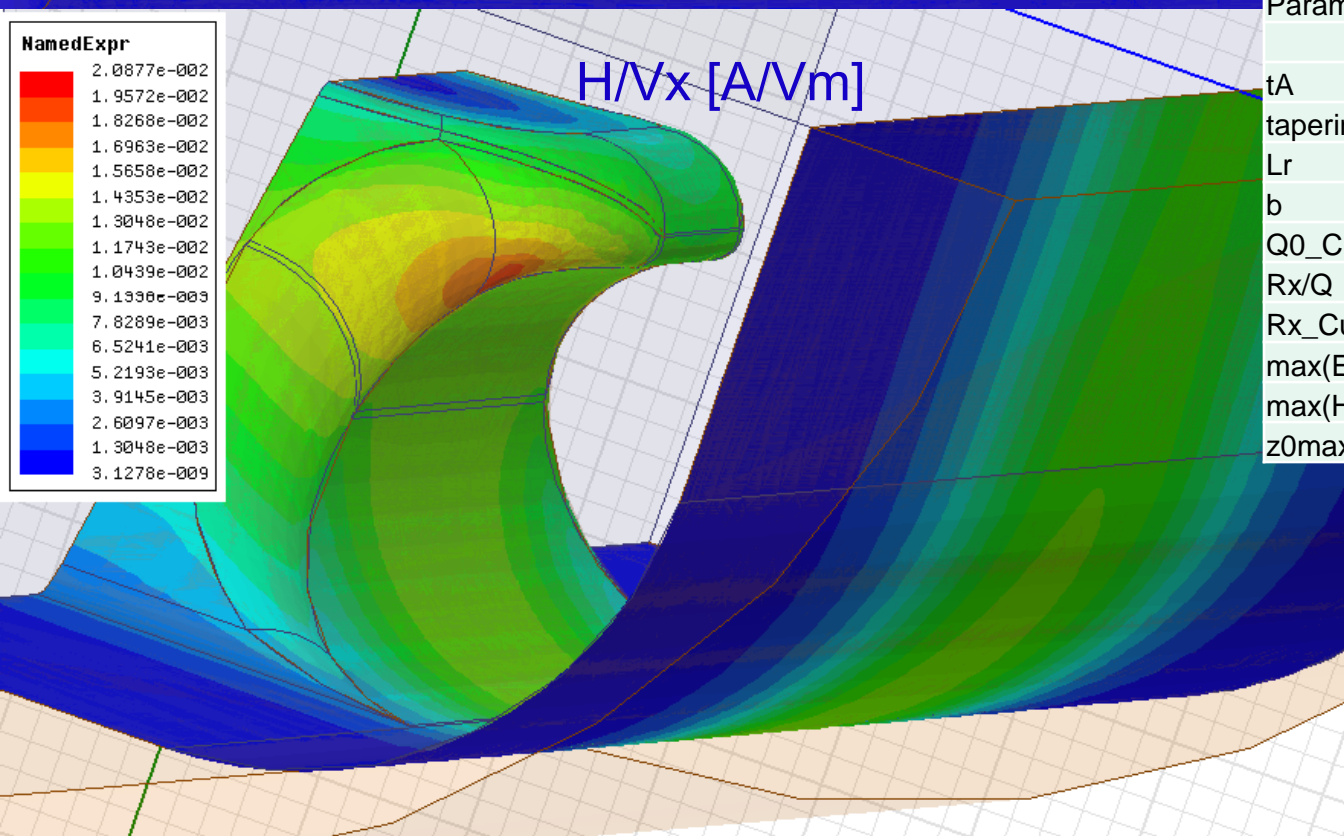
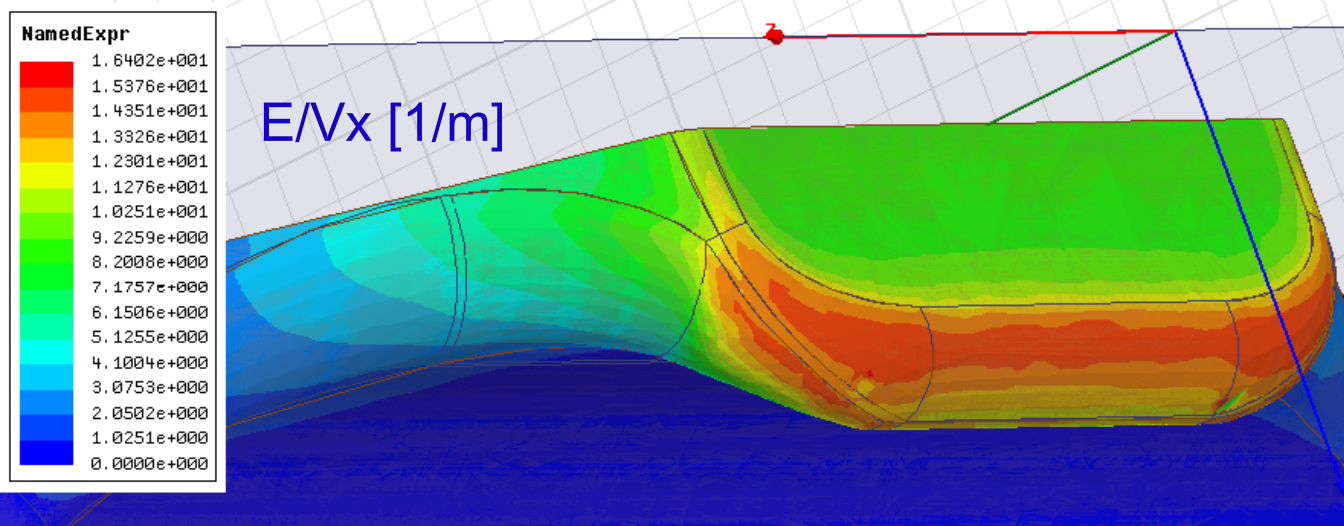
High beta QWR design (electromagnetic)



HIE ISOLDE	
f_0 at 4.5 K [MHz]	101.28
β_{opt} [%]	10.88
TTF at β_{opt}	0.9
R/Q [Ω] (incl. TTF)	556
E_p/E_{acc}	5.0
H_p/E_{acc} [G/(MV/m)]	95.3
U/E_{acc}^2 [mJ/(MV/m) ²]	207
$G=R_s Q$ [Ω]	30.8
P_{diss} @ 6 MV/m [W]	10
P_{diss} on bottom plate [W]	0.0018

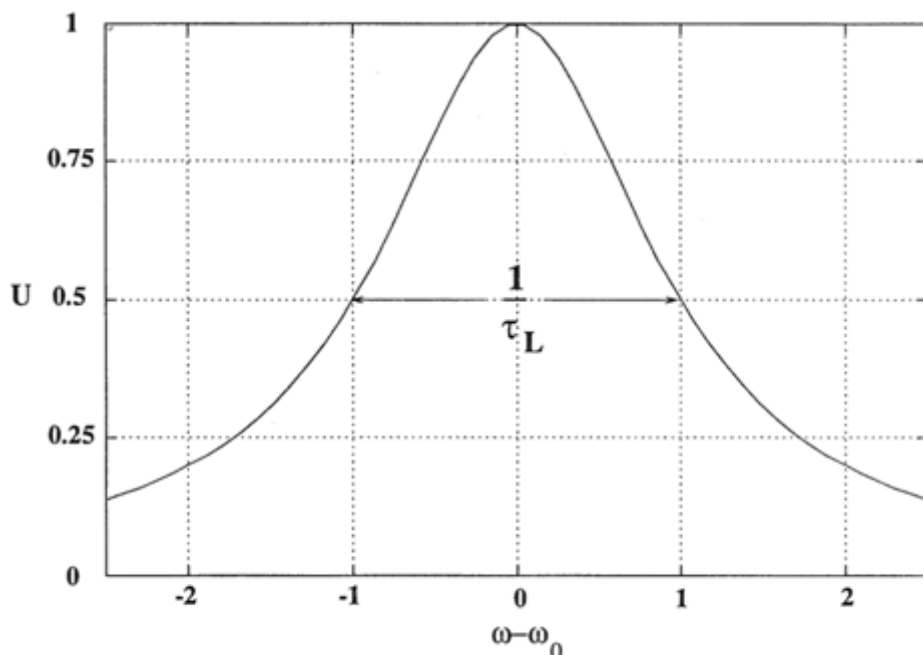
Ref. Proceedings of SRF2009, p. 609

Normalized field distributions



Parameter	Unit	WOW
		aR180,
		bRR63.3
		VariaRR
tA	[deg]	
tapering angle	[deg]	60
Lr	[mm]	30
b	[mm]	70
Q0_Cu		125.85
Rx/Q	[Ohm]	20850
Rx_Cu	[MOhm]	343.4343629
max(Esurf)/Vx	[1/m]	7.161504
max(Hsurf)/Vx	[1/Ohm*m]	15
z0max(Hsurf)/Vx	[1/Ohm*m]	0.018
		0.012

- As we said at the beginning, an accelerating RF cavity is indeed a resonator for an electromagnetic wave. We already mentioned the idea of comparing an RF cavity to an RLC circuit.
- Two important quantities characterise a resonator (remember your first physics course..): the resonance frequency f_0 and the quality factor Q_0



$$Q_0 = \frac{f_0}{\Delta f} = \frac{\omega_0 U}{P_c}$$

$$U = U_0 \exp(-t/\tau_L)$$

- Where U is the energy stored in the cavity volume and P_c/ω_0 is the energy lost per RF period by the induced surface currents

- Let's expand on the latter definition:

$$Q_0 = \frac{\omega_0 U}{P_c}$$

$$U = \frac{1}{2} \mu_0 \int_V |\mathbf{H}|^2 dV$$

$$P_c = \frac{1}{2} R_s \int_S |\mathbf{H}|^2 dS$$

- Thus:

$$Q_0 = \frac{\omega_0 \mu_0 \int_V |\mathbf{H}|^2 dV}{R_s \int_S |\mathbf{H}|^2 dS} = \frac{\Gamma}{R_s} = \frac{\omega_0 L_{eff}}{R_s}$$

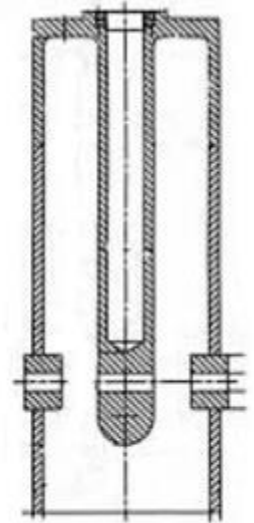
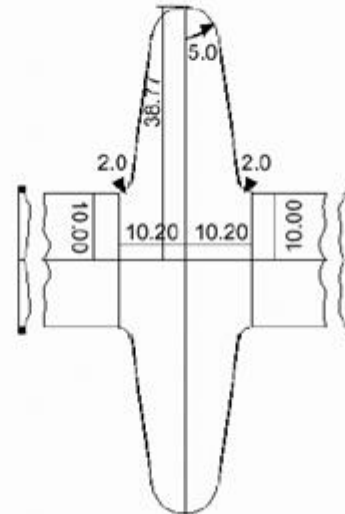
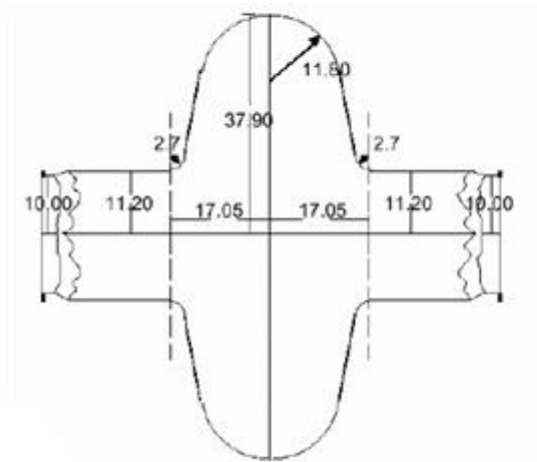
- Γ depends only on the shape of the cavity, and is generally calculated numerically with computer codes (HFSS...)
- For a “pillbox” cavity Γ is 257 Ω . For an accelerating cavity for relativistic particles ($\beta=1$) like those used at CERN Γ ranges in 270÷295 Ω .
- The Q_0 factor of a SC cavity is in the $10^9 \div 10^{10}$ range!
- L_{eff} is the effective inductance of the equivalent RLC circuit

- Our cavities are meant to accelerate particles, and the accelerating electric field is of basic importance.
- However most of the considerations on the surface impedance are based on the surface magnetic field and on the induced currents.
- For a given geometry, there exists a fixed proportionality between H_0 , E_0 and E_{acc} .

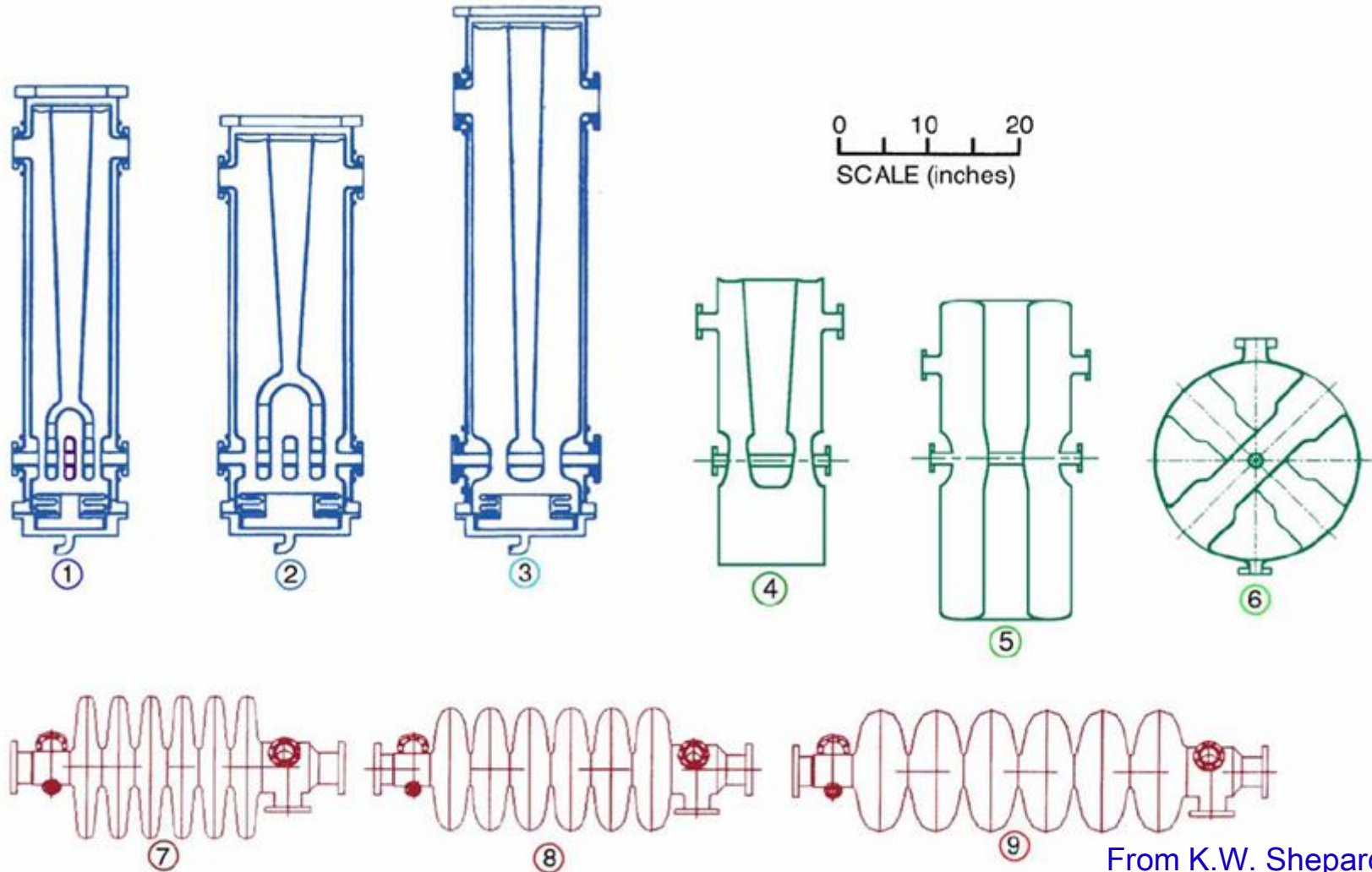
	“Pillbox”	Elliptical
H_0/E_{acc} [mT/(MV/m)]	3.33	4.55
E_0/E_{acc}	$\pi/2$	2.3
Γ [Ω]	257	295

Remember: $2dv_0 \leq \beta c$

Electron accelerators	Proton accelerators	Ion accelerators
$\beta \cong 1$	$\beta \cong 0.5$	$0.05 \leq \beta \leq 0.2$
$350 \text{ MHz} \leq \nu_0 \leq 3 \text{ GHz}$	$500 \text{ MHz} \leq \nu_0 \leq 1.5 \text{ GHz}$	$50 \text{ MHz} \leq \nu_0 \leq 150 \text{ MHz}$
$\Gamma \cong 270 \Omega$	$\Gamma \cong 170 \Omega$	$\Gamma \cong 20 \Omega$ (QWR)
$d \cong 35 \text{ cm}$ ($\nu_0 = 350 \text{ MHz}$)	$d \cong 20 \text{ cm}$ ($\nu_0 = 350 \text{ MHz}$)	$d \cong 15 \text{ cm}$ ($\nu_0 = 100 \text{ MHz}$)

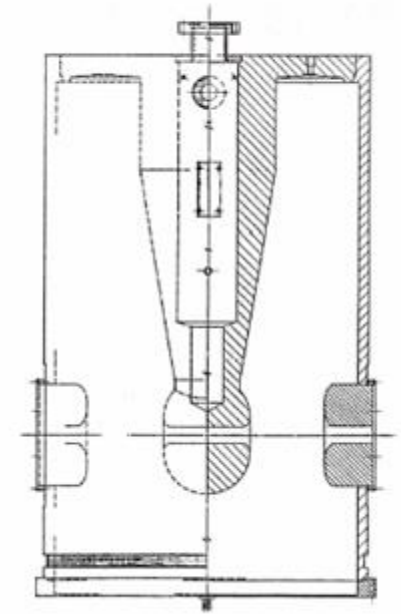


- We have already mentioned that the β of particles to be accelerated is an important parameter. The design of cavities depend strongly on this.



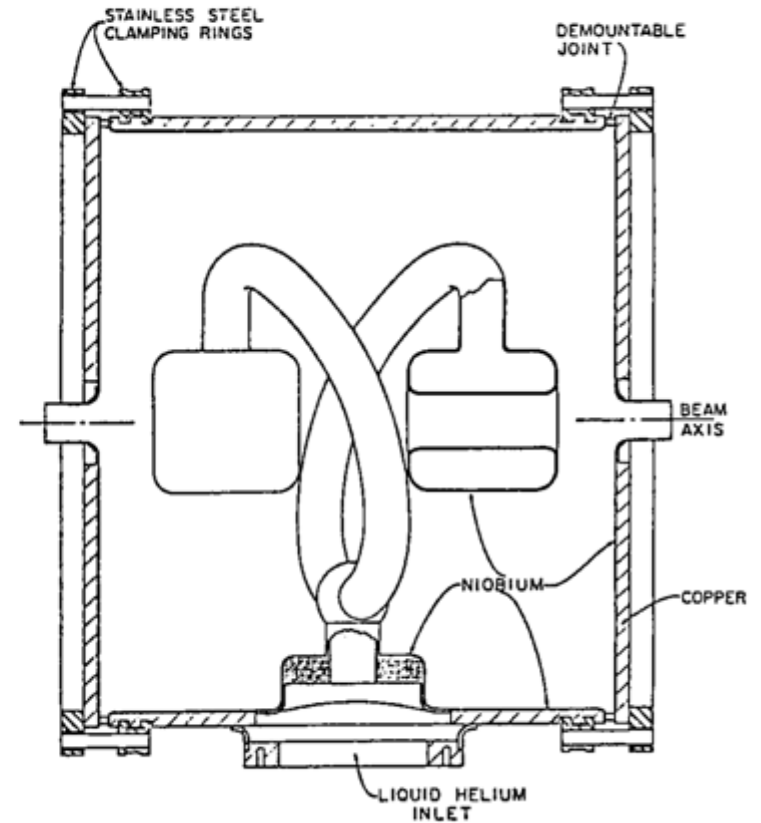
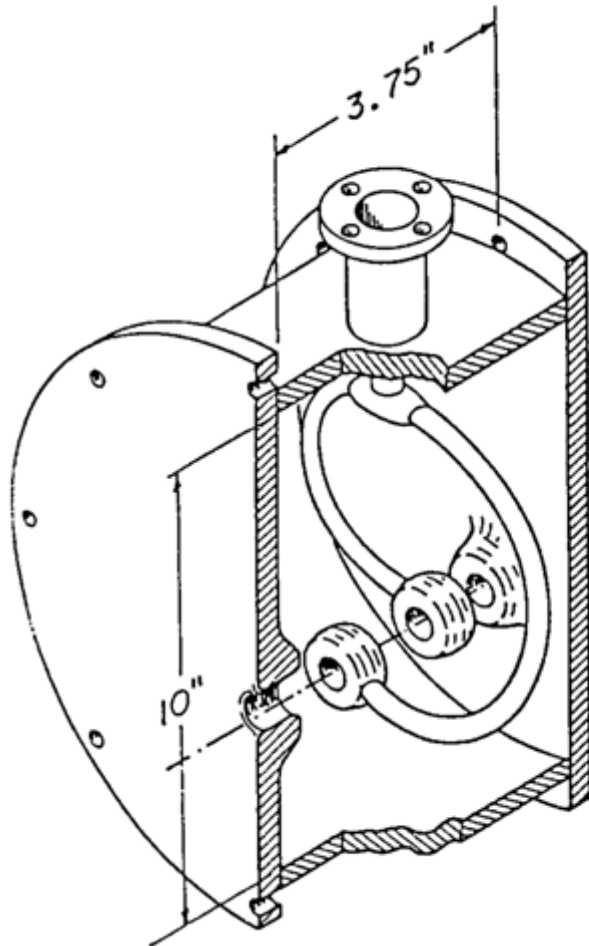
From K.W. Shepard, ANL

Split Rings ($\lambda/4$)



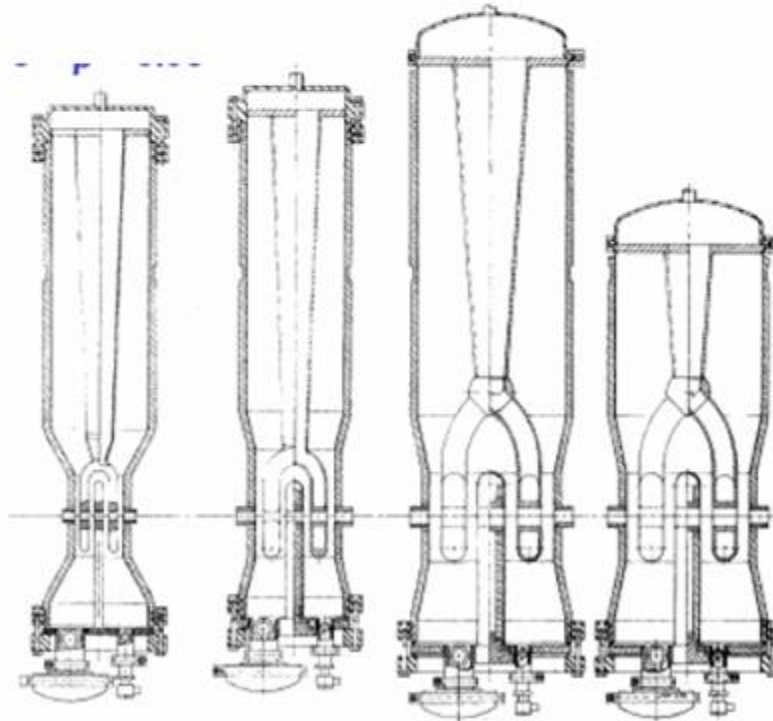
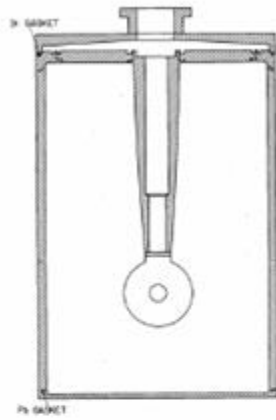
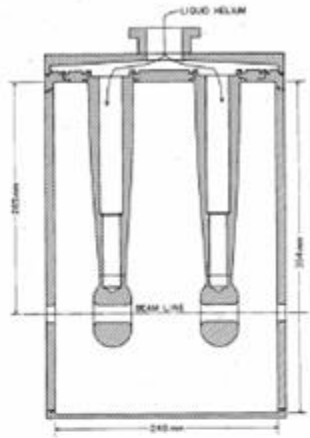
From J. Delayen, TJNAF

Split Rings ($\lambda/4$)

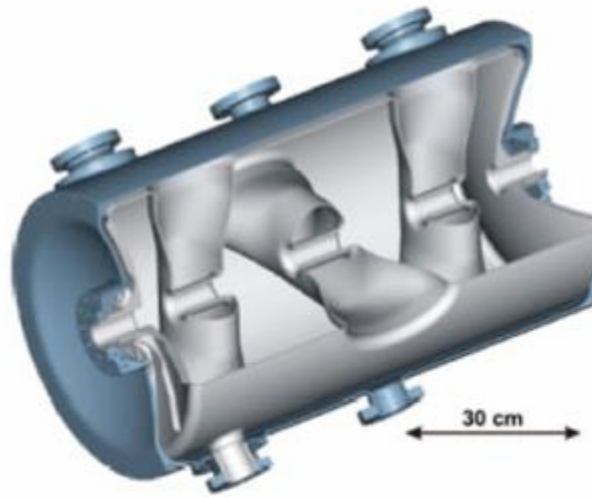
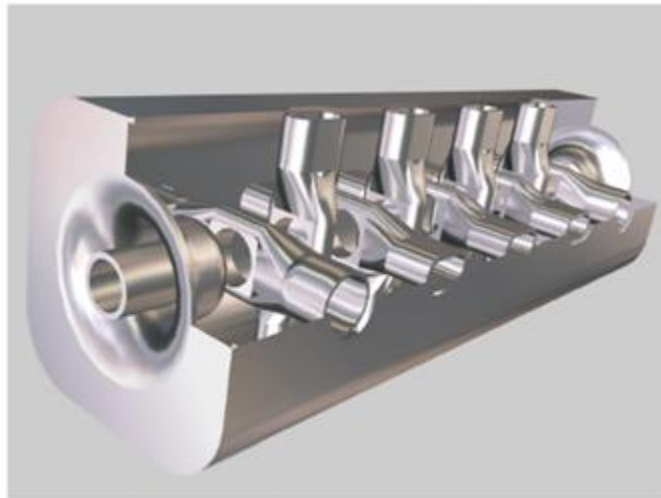
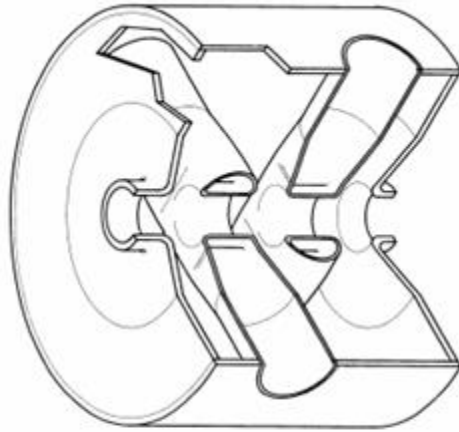


From K.W. Shepard, ANL

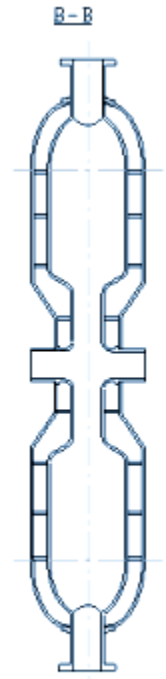
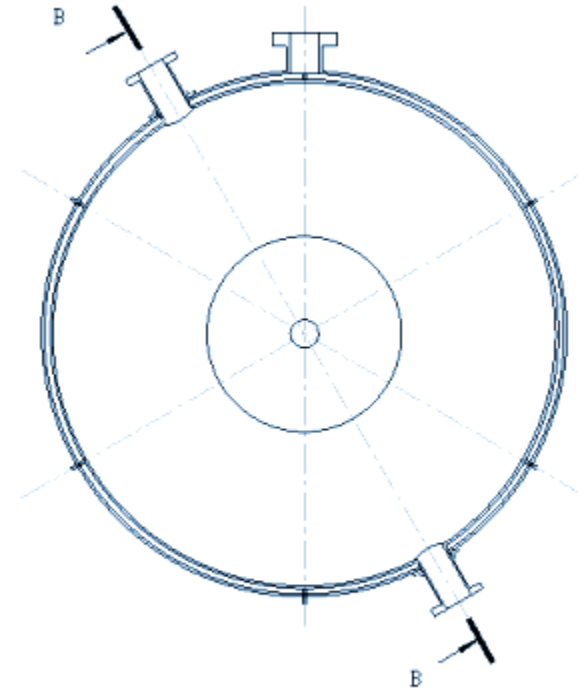
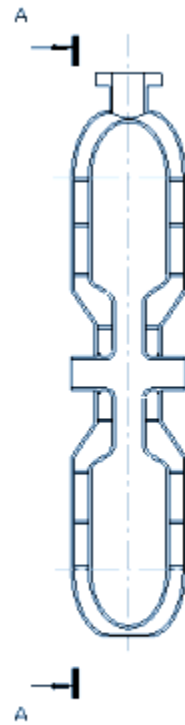
Quarter Wave ($\lambda/4$)



From J. Delayen, TJNAF

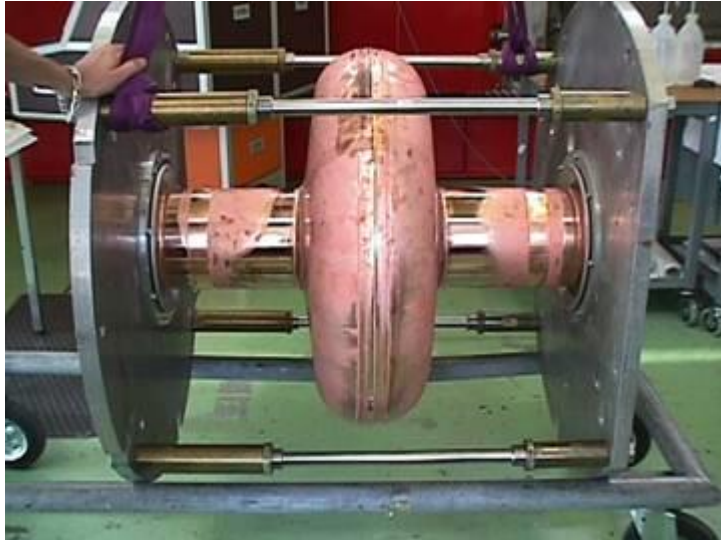
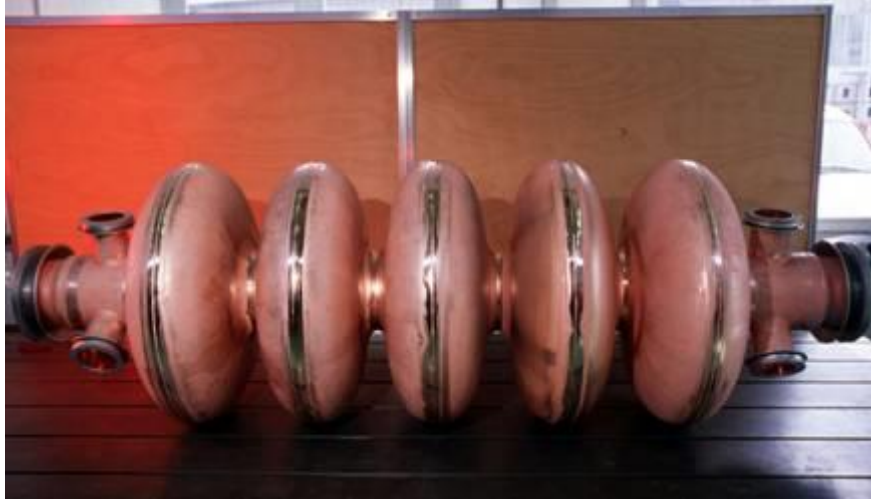


From J. Delayen, TJNAF

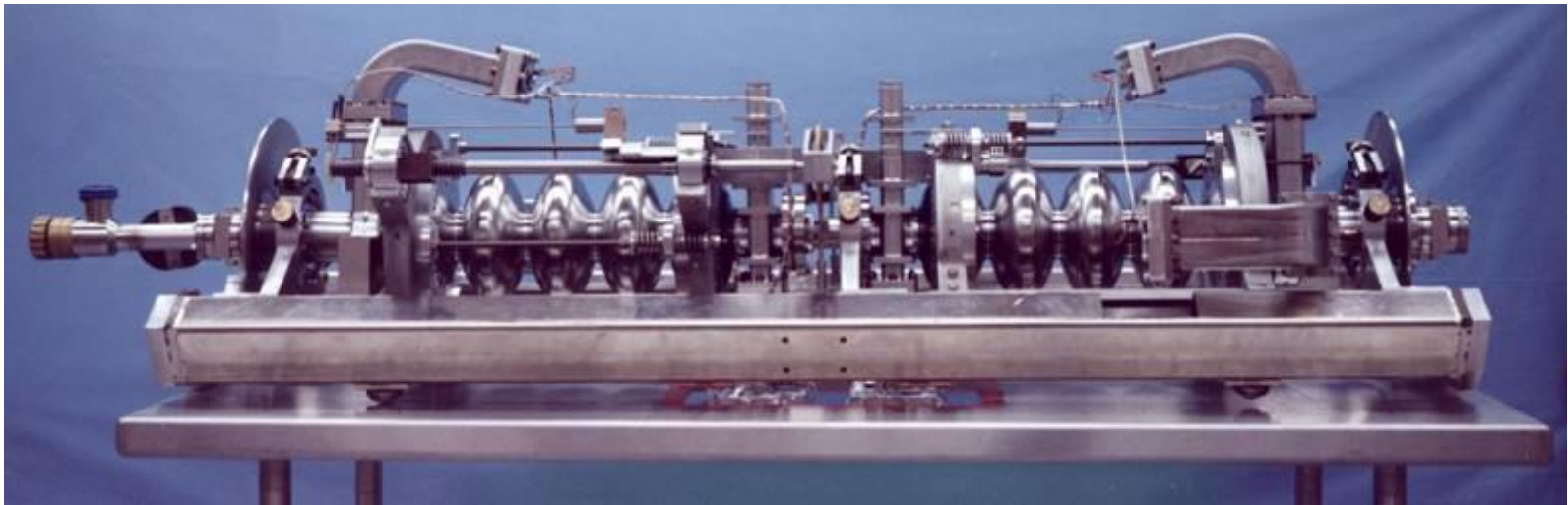


From F. Krawczyk, LANL and A. Facco, INFN-LNL

Elliptical cavities (“pizza”)



Trasco cavities (INFN) and SNS cavities (Oak Ridge)



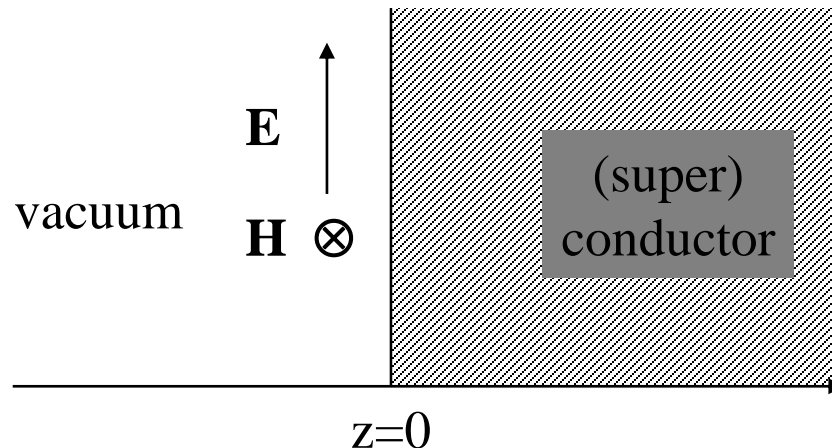
Surface Impedance: definition

For a plane E-M wave incident on a semi-infinite flat metallic surface:

$$Z_S = R_S + iX_S = \frac{E_{\parallel}(0)}{H_{\parallel}(0)}$$

Where we use: **E, H always in complex notation**
E, H parallel to the surface

Our reference frame has x, y parallel to the surface of the metal, and the z axis directed towards its interior: $z=0$ means at the surface.



Surface impedance in normal metals

- The Surface Impedance Z_s is defined at the interface between two media. It can be calculated in a similar way as for continuous media.
- You take Maxwell's equation, set the appropriate boundary conditions for the continuity of the waves (incident, reflected, transmitted), and you get:

$$Z_s = \frac{E_{\parallel}(0)}{H_{\parallel}(0)} = \sqrt{\frac{i\omega\mu_0}{\sigma}} = \sqrt{\frac{\omega\mu_0}{2\sigma}} + i\sqrt{\frac{\omega\mu_0}{2\sigma}} = R_s + iX_s$$

- Introducing appropriate numbers:

For copper ($\rho=1/\sigma=1.75\times 10^{-8} \mu\Omega\cdot\text{cm}$) at 350 MHz

$$R_s = 5 \text{ m}\Omega$$

$$\delta = 3.5 \mu\text{m (from previous page)}$$

Surface Impedance – Why bother? I

The surface impedance $Z_s = R_s + iX_s$ is a very useful concept, since it contains all properties of the dissipative medium. Making use of Maxwell's equations for plane waves:

- Power dissipation per unit surface (equivalent to the energy flux through the unit surface) making use of Poynting vector :

$$|S| = \text{Re}[E \times H]$$

- Averaging over one period, at the surface, recalling the definition of Z_s

$$\bar{P} = \frac{1}{2} \text{Re}[\overline{\mathbf{E}_0 \times \mathbf{H}_0}] = \frac{1}{2} \text{Re}[Z_s H_0^2] = \frac{1}{2} R_s H_0^2$$

- Effective magnetic penetration depth (most general definition):

$$\lambda = \text{Re} \left[\int_0^{\infty} H(z) dz / H(0) \right]$$

Using Maxwell's eq.: $\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\mu_0 \frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial t} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial E}{\partial z} = -i\omega\mu_0 H$

integrating and using the fact that: $E(\infty) = 0$

$$E(\infty) - E(0) = -i\omega\mu_0 \int_0^{\infty} H(z) dz \Rightarrow \int_0^{\infty} H(z) dz = -\frac{i}{\omega\mu_0} E(0)$$

Substituting:

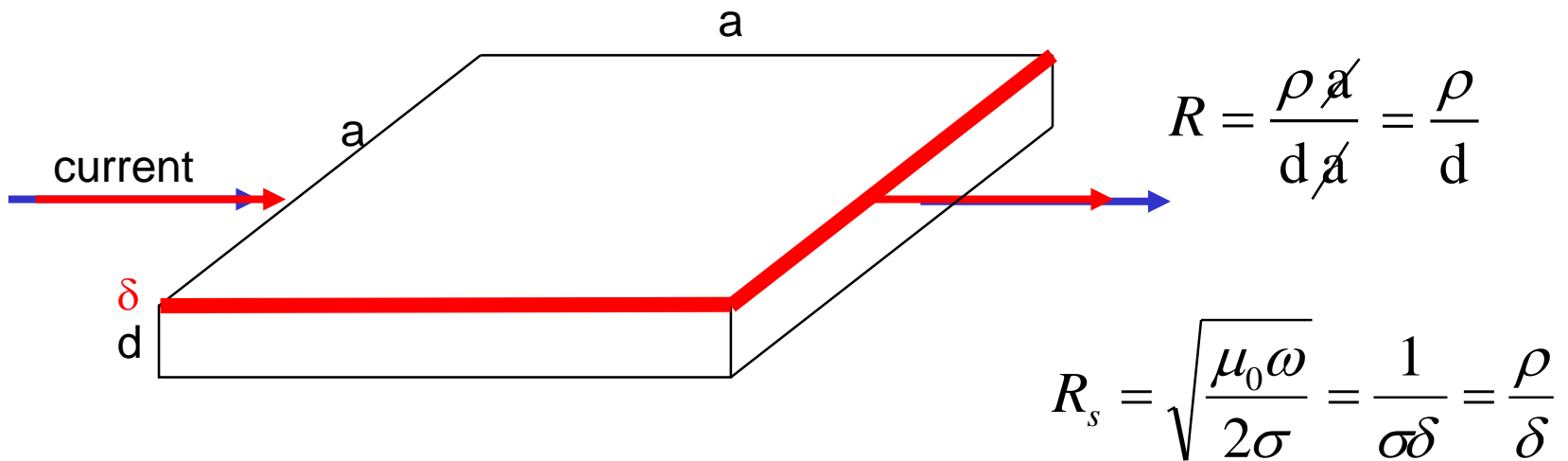
$$\lambda = \text{Re} \left[-i \frac{E(0)}{\omega\mu_0 H(0)} \right] = \frac{1}{\mu_0 \omega} X_s$$

Remarkably similar to $\frac{1}{\beta} = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma\omega\mu}{2}} = \delta$ in the case of normal metals

Surface resistance: intuitive meaning

Since we will deal a lot with the surface resistance R_s in the following, here is a simple DC model that gives a rough idea of what it means:

Consider a square sheet of metal and calculate its resistance to a transverse current flow:

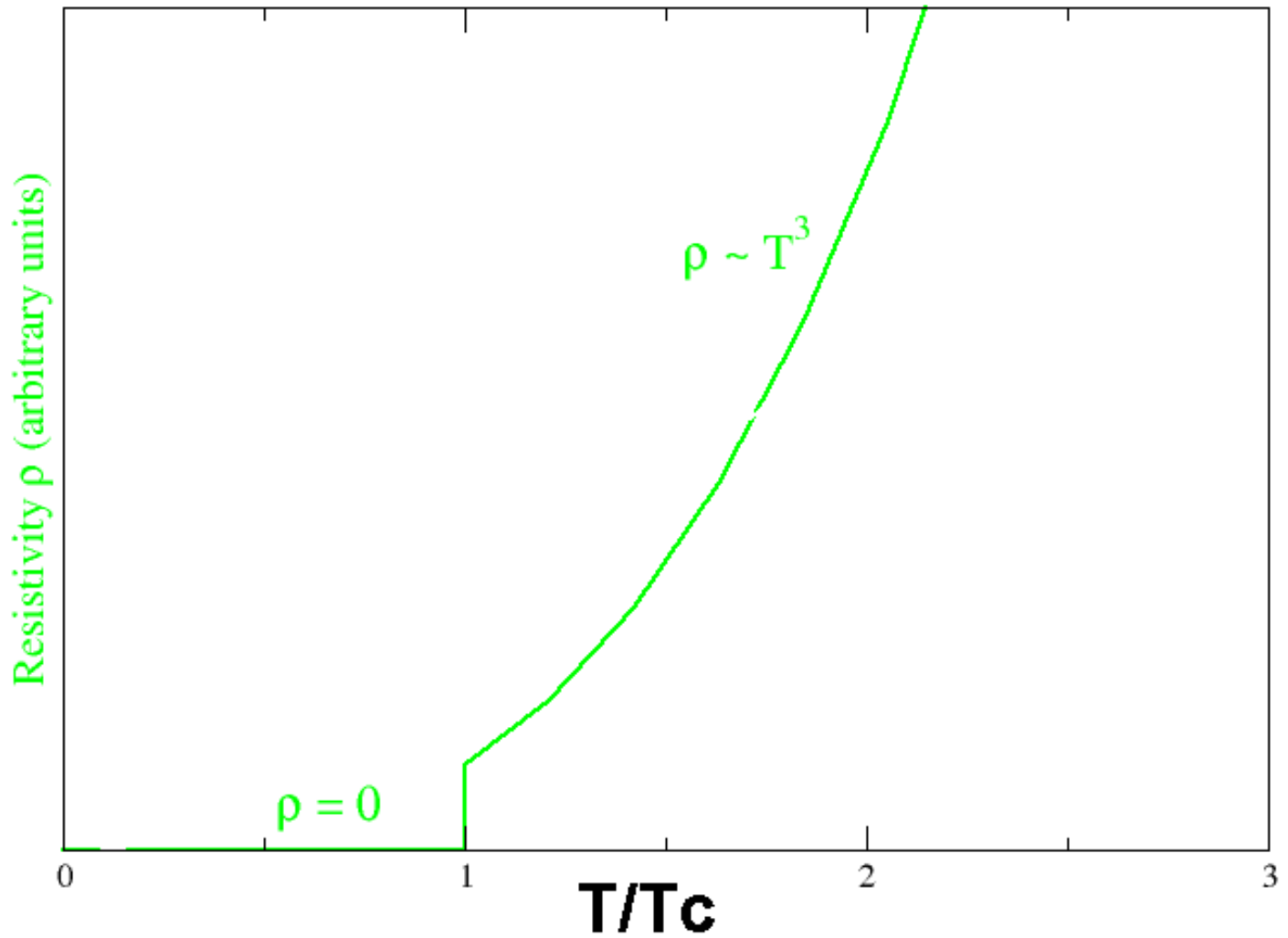


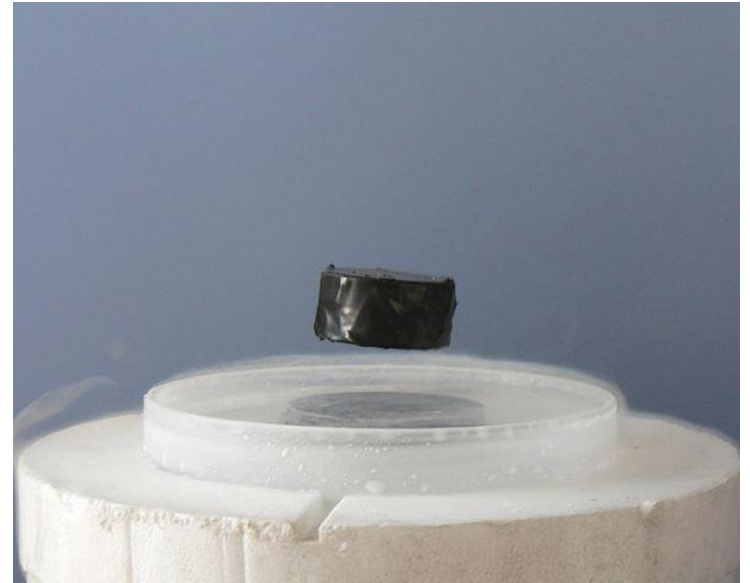
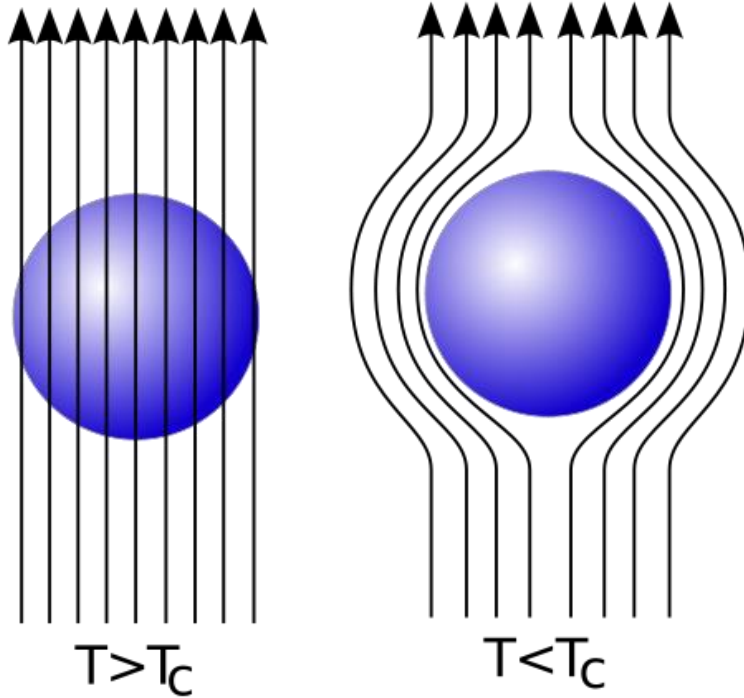
The surface resistance R_s is the resistance that a square piece of conductor opposes to the flow of the currents induced by the RF wave, within a layer δ

More on electrical conductivity

We mentioned before the electrical conductivity σ and the law $\mathbf{J}=\sigma\mathbf{E}$.

- σ depends on the frequency:
$$\sigma_0 = \frac{ne^2\tau}{m} = \frac{ne^2\ell}{mv_F} \rightarrow \sigma(\omega) = \frac{\sigma_0}{(1+i\omega\tau)}$$
- For low temperatures τ increases and (as function of frequency), it happens $\ell \gg \delta$
- In this case, an electron senses a variation of field during its travel between two collisions.
- The local relationship $\mathbf{J}=\sigma\mathbf{E}$ between current and field does not hold anymore and a new “non-local” law has to be introduced -> the Anomalous Skin Effect

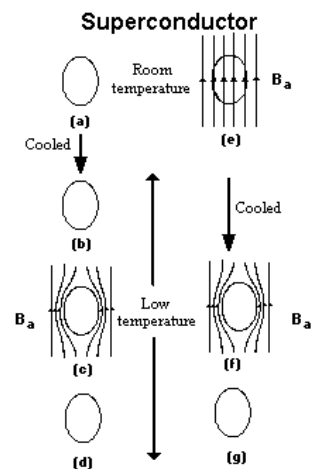
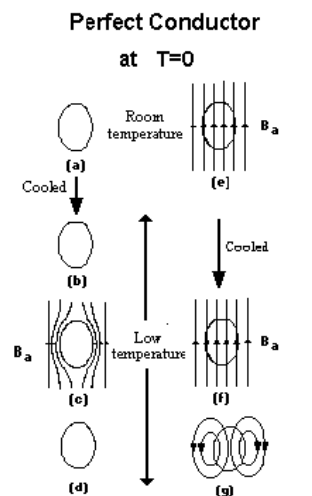
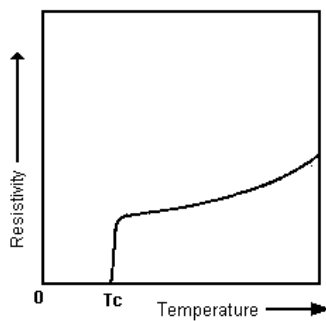
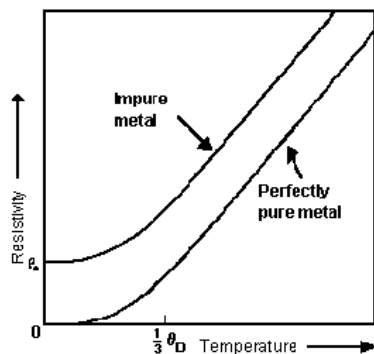






Theories of Superconductivity

- Gorter & Casimir two fluid model
 - London Equations
 - Pippard's Coherence length ξ
- Ginzburg-Landau
 - Second order phase transition of complex order parameter Ψ
- BCS (Bardeen-Cooper-Schrieffer)
 - Microscopic theory
 - Two Fluid Model revised
- (Strong coupling – Elihasberg)



Postulated on plausibility arguments

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{J}}{\partial t} = \frac{n_s e^2}{m} \mathbf{E} \quad \nabla \times \mathbf{J} = -\frac{n_s e^2}{m} \mathbf{B}$$

Applying $\mathbf{B} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A}$

$$\mathbf{J} = -\frac{n_s e^2}{m} \mathbf{A} = -\Lambda^{-1} \mathbf{A}$$

Applying Ampere's law to London's 2nd eq gives:

$$\nabla^2 \mathbf{B} = \frac{1}{\lambda_L^2} \mathbf{B} \quad \lambda_L = \sqrt{\frac{m}{\mu_0 n_s e^2}}$$

Exponential decay of B inside SC

- You will probably be only half surprised to hear that a superconductor at $T > 0$ has a $R_s \neq 0$.
- This can be easily understood in the framework of the two fluids model, where a population of normal electrons of density n_n and a population of “superconducting electrons” of density $n_s = n_0(1 - T^4/T_c^4)$ coexist such as $n_n + n_s = 1$ and both give a response to the varying e.m. fields.
- Let’s “invent” the conductivity of superconducting electrons:

$$\sigma(\omega) = \frac{ne^2\tau}{m_e(1+i\omega\tau)} \quad \lim_{\tau \rightarrow \infty} \sigma(\omega) = -i \frac{ne^2}{m_e\omega}$$

Superconductors – Complex conductivity

- The conductivity of superconductors then becomes:

$$\sigma_s = \frac{n_0 e^2 \tau}{m} \left(\frac{T^4}{T_c^4} \right) - i \frac{n_0 e^2}{m \omega} \left(1 - \frac{T^4}{T_c^4} \right) = \sigma_1 - i \sigma_2$$

conductivity of
“normal electrons”

conductivity of
“superconducting electrons”

- Where $n_s = n_0(1 - T^4/T_c^4)$ and $n_n = n_0(T^4/T_c^4)$ with n_0 total electron density
- Note:

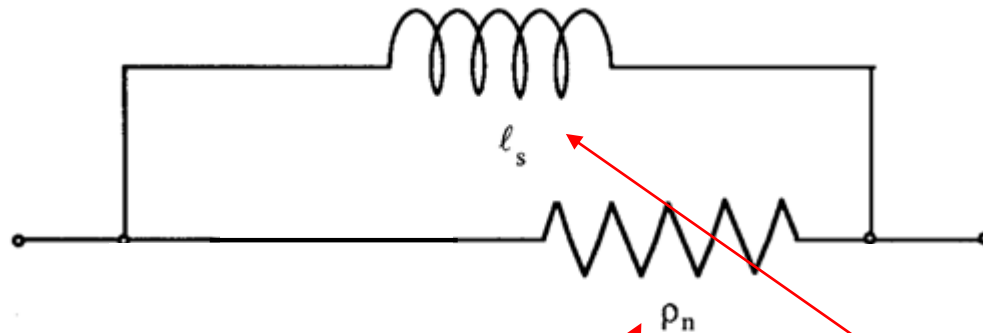
$$\sigma_2 = \frac{\sigma_0}{\omega \tau} = \frac{1}{\mu_0 \omega \lambda_L^2} = \frac{1}{\Lambda \omega} \quad \text{with} \quad \lambda_L^2 = \frac{\Lambda}{\mu_0}$$

Superconductors – Equivalent circuit

Indeed if you take the time derivative of $\mathbf{J} = -\Lambda^{-1} \mathbf{A}$ you get the 1st London eq:

$$-\frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} = \mathbf{E} = \Lambda \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}}{\partial t}$$

Λ is interpreted as a specific inductance. This justifies representing the complex conductivity of a superconductor with an equivalent circuit of parallel conductors:



$$\sigma_s = \sigma_1 - i\sigma_2 = \sigma_n \left(\frac{T^4}{T_c^4} \right) - i \frac{\sigma_n}{\omega\tau} \left(1 - \frac{T^4}{T_c^4} \right)$$

- It is now possible, within the basic approximations we have made, to calculate the surface impedance of a superconductor.
- Take the formula for normal metals:

$$Z = (1 + i) \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0 \omega}{2\sigma_n}}$$

- Perform the substitution: $\sigma_n \rightarrow \sigma_s = \sigma_1 - i\sigma_2$

- Calculate:

$$R_s = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0 \omega}{\sigma_n}} \frac{\left[(\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)^{1/2} - \sigma_2 \right]^{1/2}}{(\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)^{1/2}} \quad X_s = \dots\dots$$

- In the approximation of small ℓ (small $\omega\tau \rightarrow \sigma_1 < \sigma_2$)
- and $0 < T < 0.5T_c$ ($n_n < n_s \rightarrow \sigma_1 < \sigma_2$) it gives:

$$R_s = \frac{R_N}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{\sigma_1/\sigma_n}{(\sigma_2/\sigma_n)^{3/2}} = \frac{1}{2} \mu_0^2 \omega^2 \sigma_1 \lambda_L^3 \quad X_s = X_N \frac{\sqrt{2}}{(\sigma_2/\sigma_n)^{1/2}} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0 \omega}{\sigma_2}} = \mu_0 \omega \lambda_L$$

- Which is a good description of the experimental data, but...

1st step:

$$\mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \sum_{\omega} \frac{e^2 N(0) v_0}{2\pi^2 \hbar c} \times \int \frac{\mathbf{R}[\mathbf{R} \cdot \mathbf{A}_{\omega}(r')] I(\omega, R, T) e^{-R|t|} dr'}{R^4}, \quad (3.3)$$

is

$$I(\omega, R, T) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left\{ L(\omega, \epsilon, \epsilon') - \frac{f(\epsilon) - f(\epsilon')}{\epsilon' - \epsilon} \right\} \times \cos[\alpha(\epsilon - \epsilon')] d\epsilon d\epsilon', \quad (3.4)$$

2nd step:

$$\frac{\sigma_1 - i\sigma_2}{\sigma_N} = \frac{I(\omega, 0, T)}{-\pi i \hbar \omega}.$$

3rd step:

$$\frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_N} = \frac{2}{\hbar \omega} \int_{\epsilon_0}^{\infty} [f(E) - f(E + \hbar \omega)] g(E) dE + \frac{1}{\hbar \omega} \int_{\epsilon_0 - \hbar \omega}^{-\epsilon_0} [1 - 2f(E + \hbar \omega)] g(E) dE, \quad (3.9)$$

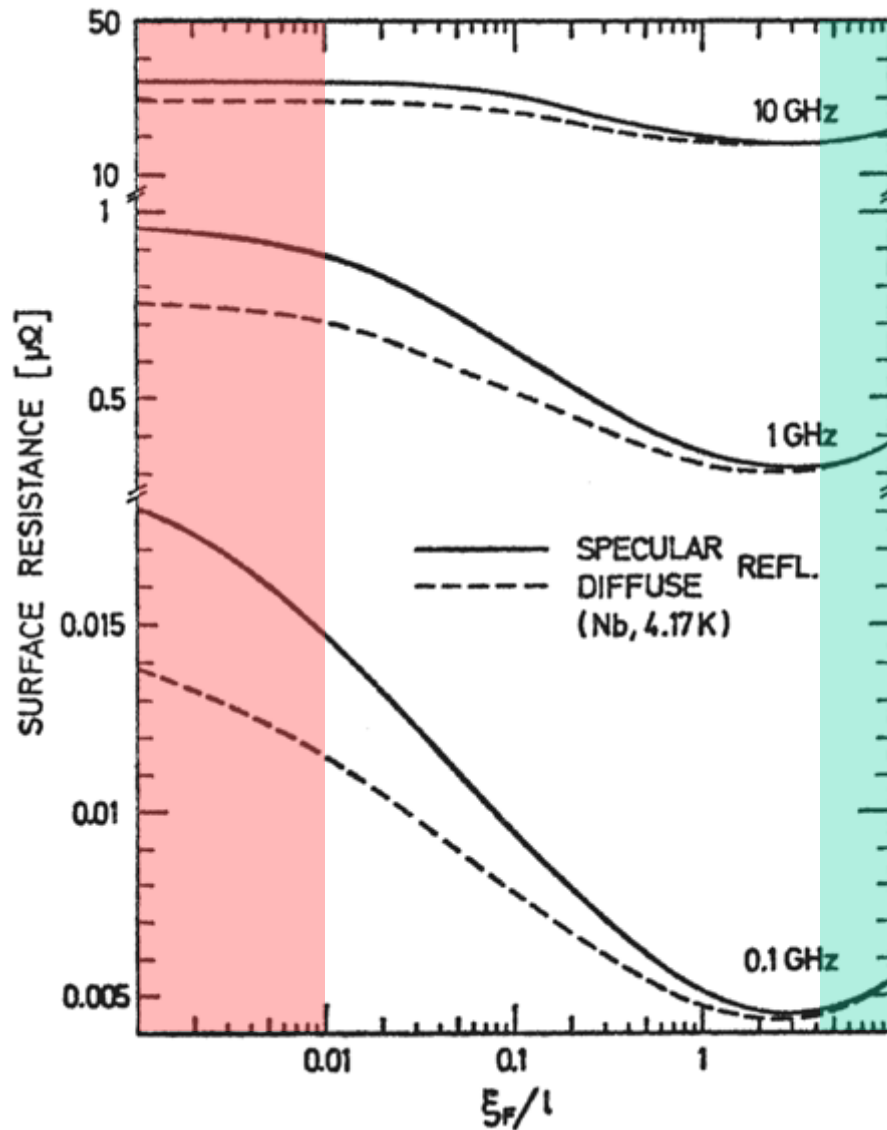
$$\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_N} = \frac{1}{\hbar \omega} \int_{\epsilon_0 - \hbar \omega, -\epsilon_0}^{\epsilon_0} \frac{[1 - 2f(E + \hbar \omega)] (E^2 + \epsilon_0^2 + \hbar \omega E)}{(\epsilon_0^2 - E^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} [(E + \hbar \omega)^2 - \epsilon_0^2]^{\frac{1}{2}}} dE. \quad (3.10)$$

- These can be approximated for low frequencies $\hbar\nu \ll 2\Delta$ as:

$$\frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_n} = 2f(\Delta) \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{kT} \ln \left(\frac{2\Delta}{\hbar\omega} \right) [1 - f(\Delta)] \right\} \quad \frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_n} = \frac{\pi\Delta}{\hbar\omega} \tanh \left(\frac{\Delta}{2kT} \right)$$

- The surface impedance Z can be calculated from σ_1/σ_n and σ_2/σ_n
- However the formulas seen until now are approximate valid only in a very specific limit.
- Calculations can be done having a full validity range (but only for $H_{RF} \ll H_C$)
 - Abrikosov Gorkov Khalatnikov, JETP 35 (1959) 182
 - Miller, Phys. Rev. 113 (1959) 1209
 - Nam, Phys. Rev. A 156 (1967) 470
 - Halbritter, Z. Phys. 238 (1970) 466 and KFK Ext. Bericht 3/70-6

Superconductors – Halbritter's theoretical predictions



In the green region (small ℓ):

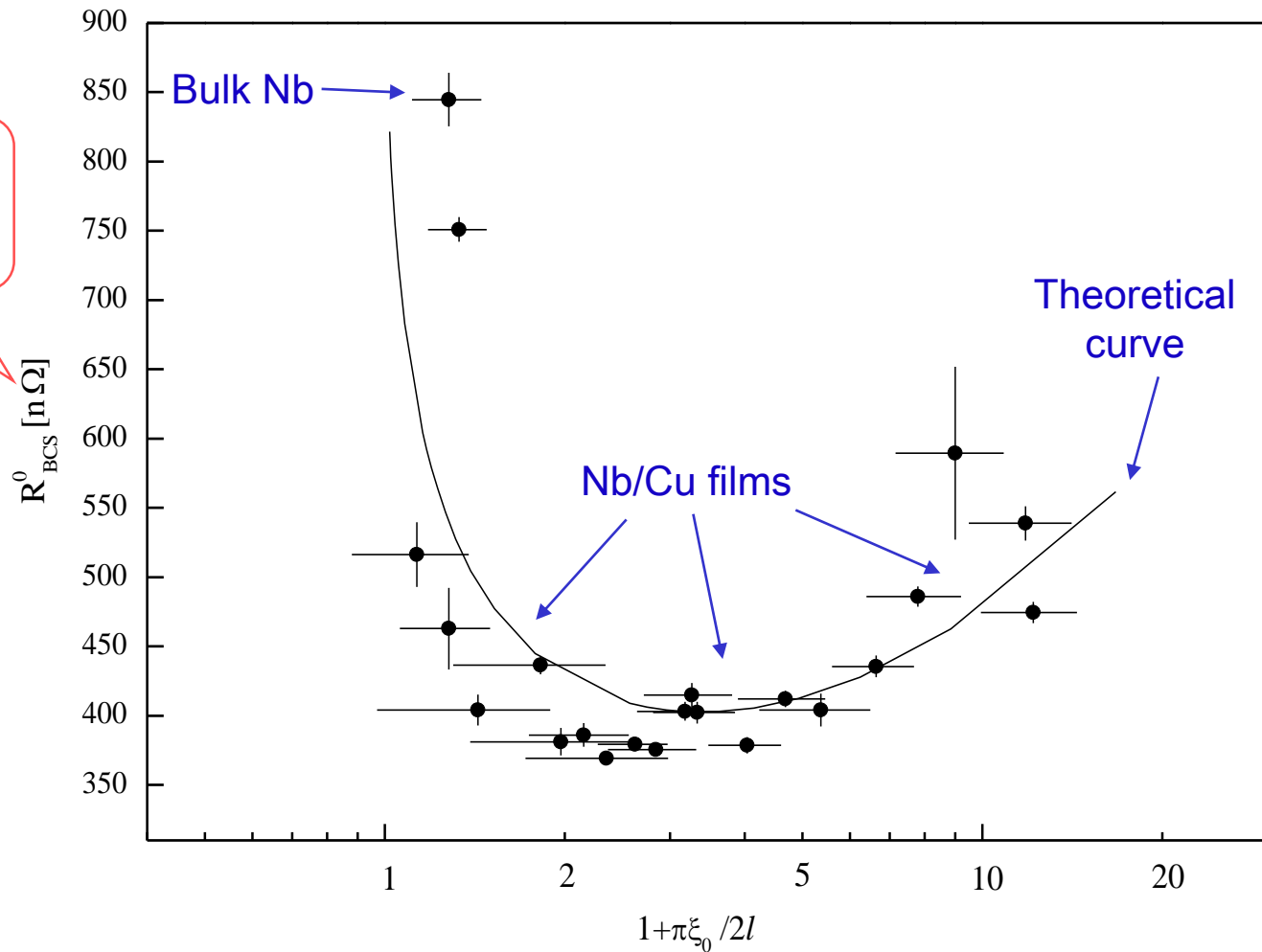
$$\frac{Z_s}{Z_n} = \left(\frac{\sigma_1 - i \frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_n}}{\sigma_n} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$R_s \propto \frac{\omega^2}{T \sqrt{\sigma}} \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta}{kT}\right)$$

In the red region (large ℓ):

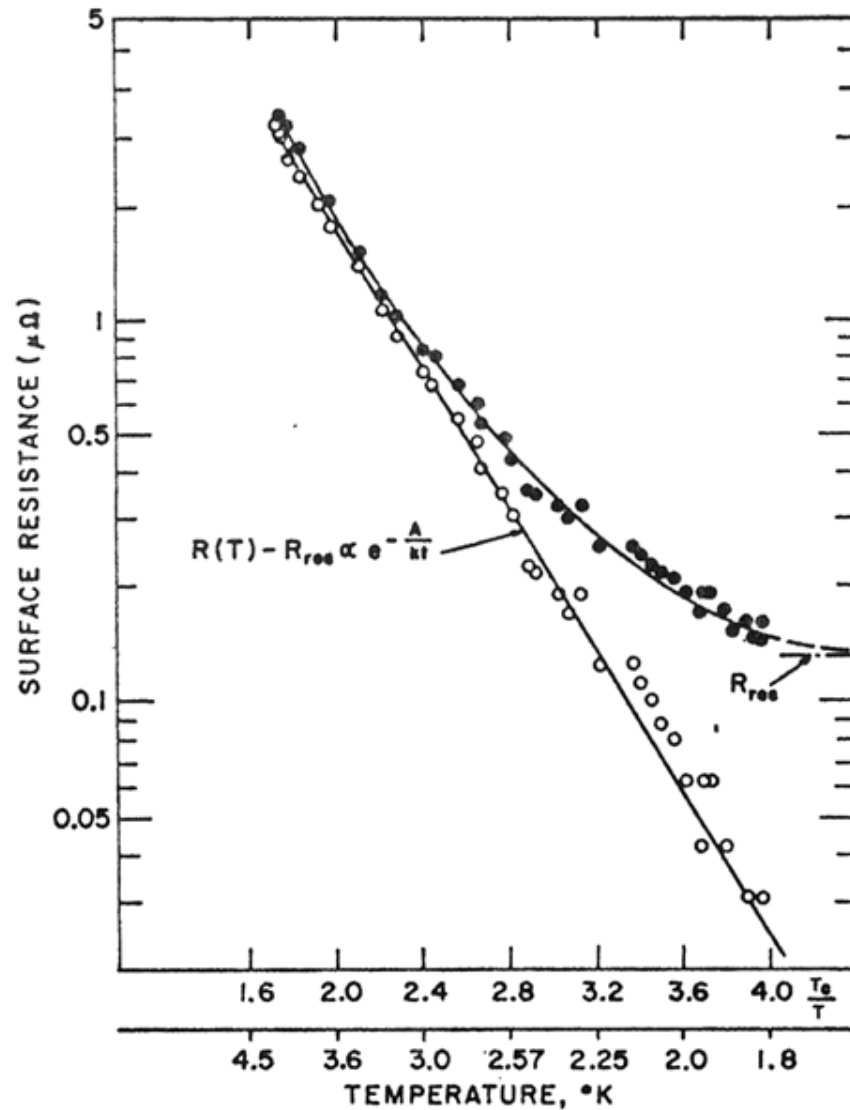
$$\frac{Z_s}{Z_n} = \left(\frac{\sigma_1 - i \frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_n}}{\sigma_n} \right)^{1/3}$$

$$R_s \propto \frac{\omega^{3/2}}{T} \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta}{kT}\right)$$



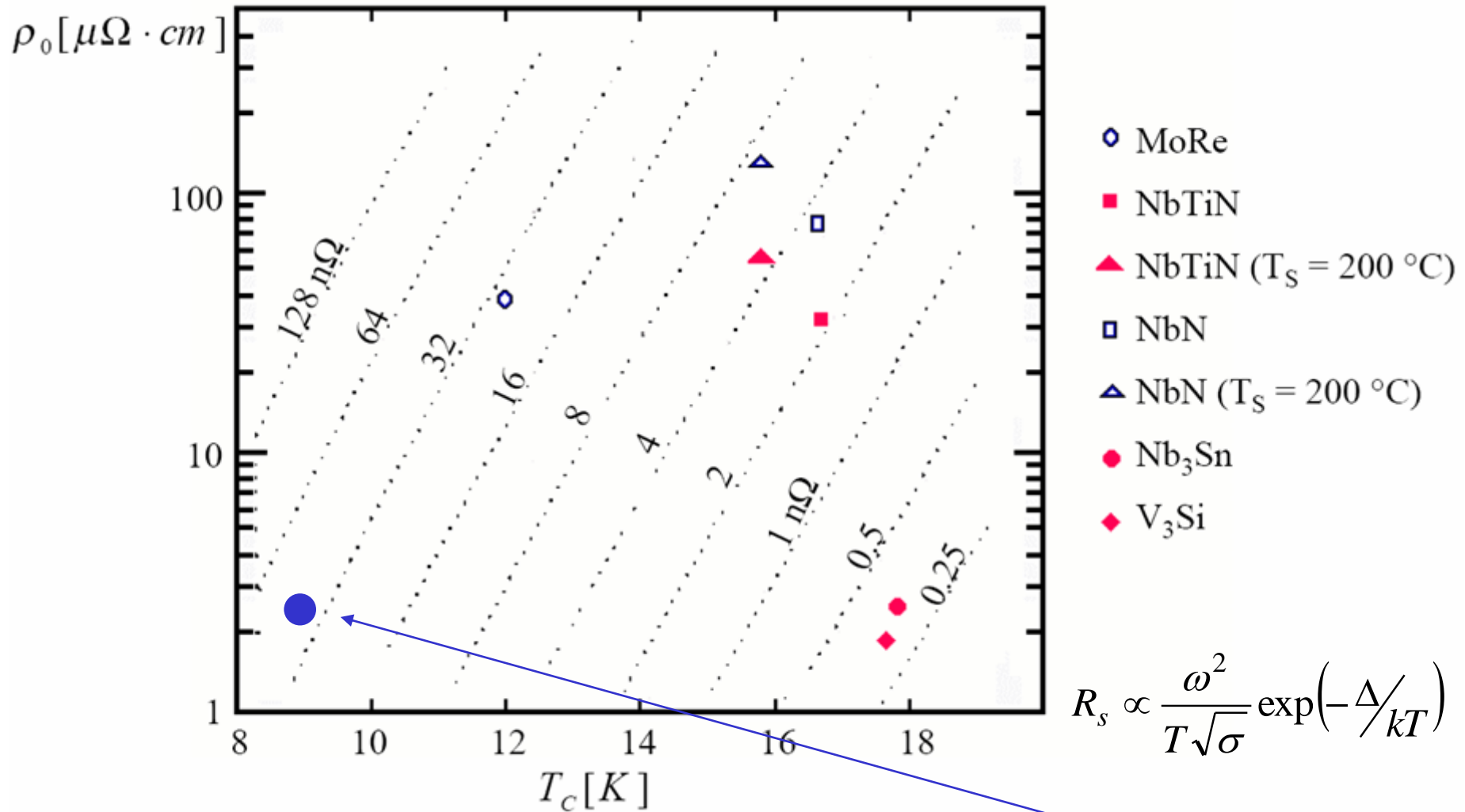
Compilation of results from several Nb/Cu and Nb bulk 1.5 GHz RF cavities

Temperature dependence of R_{BCS}



Exponential
 dependence limited
 by a temperature
 independent
 “residual” term

Other materials than niobium



BCS surface resistance at 4.2 K and 500 MHz for films (Nb ~ 45 nΩ)

- London penetration depth

- dependence on mean free path

$$\lambda_L(T, \ell) = \lambda_L(T, 0) \sqrt{1 + \frac{\pi \xi_0}{2\ell}}$$

- dependence on T ($T > T_c/2$)

$$\lambda_L(T, \ell) = \lambda_L(0, \ell) * 1 / \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{T}{T_c}\right)^4}$$

- define $\gamma(T, \ell) = \lambda_L(T, \ell) / \xi_F(T, \ell)$

$$\xi_F(0, 0) = \frac{\pi}{2} \xi_0 \quad \frac{1}{\xi} = \frac{1}{\xi_0} + \frac{1}{\ell}$$

- London limit $\gamma \gg 1$ (mfp “small”)

$$\lambda_{SC}(T, \ell) = \lambda_L(T, \ell)$$

- Pippard limit $\gamma \ll 1$ (mfp “large”)

$$\lambda_{SC}(T, \ell) = \lambda_L(T, \ell) * f_s \propto \lambda_L(T, \ell) * \gamma^{-1/3}$$

- (non-local effects, non-exponential decay of fields, field reversal for $\gamma \leq 1$)

Surface impedance and skin depth

- We are ready to meet again our friend X_s :

$$X_s = \omega \mu_0 \lambda = 2\Gamma \frac{\omega_\infty - \omega}{\omega_\infty}$$

- Where ω_∞ is the resonant frequency if the cavity walls were perfectly conducting, in which case the penetration depth would vanish.
- This formula (Slater's theorem) in its differential form is particularly useful to measure the penetration depth
- A non-zero penetration depth results in a larger resonating volume, thus a lower resonating frequency
- Changes in $\lambda(T)$ with the temperature result in changes of ω_0 ,
- Recall the two-fluids (London limit) formula for $\lambda(T)$:

$$\lambda_L(T, \ell) = \lambda_L(0,0) \sqrt{1 + \frac{\pi \xi_0}{2\ell}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{T}{T_c}\right)^4}}$$

Surface impedance and skin depth

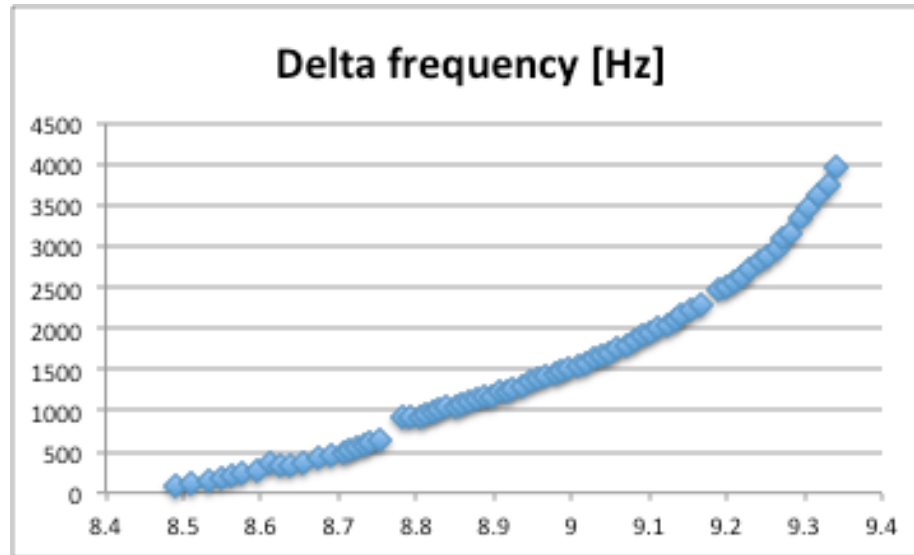
- Expressing the frequency shift as a function of $\lambda(T)$ we can write:

$$-\Delta \nu(t) = \frac{\pi\mu_0\nu^2}{\Gamma - \pi\mu_0\nu\Delta\lambda(T)} \Delta\lambda(T)$$

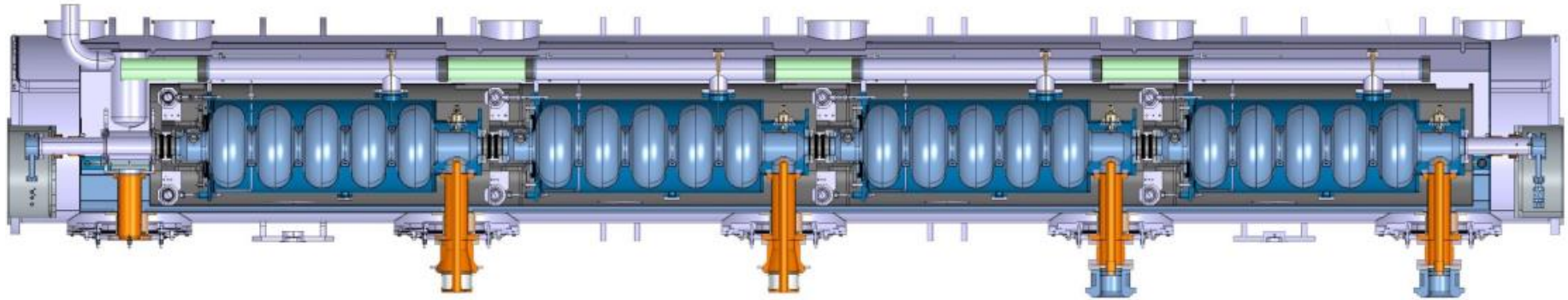
- Non-linear-fitting it to experimental data (measuring frequency as a function of temperature, approaching T_c) one can calculate the mean free path assuming reasonable values for the material (Nb) parameters:

λ_L	36 nm
ξ_0	40 nm
$\rho^*\ell$	$0.28 \times 10^{-15} \Omega\text{m}^2$
$\rho_{\text{phononic}}(300\text{K})$	$14.5 \times 10^{-8} \Omega\text{m}$

- Our most studied “thin film” cavity



$\lambda(0\text{ K})$	7.51 nm
l	19nm
ρ_{imp}	1.47×10^{-8} Ohm m
RRR	$(14.5 \times 10^{-8} + 1.47 \times 10^{-8}) / 1.47 \times 10^{-8} = 10.8$



- The reason is very simple: to obtain very high accelerating fields in continuous mode, the power dissipated by normal conducting (i.e copper) cavities becomes too large. Remember that there can be a 10^5 difference in R_s , thus in dissipated power, for the same surface fields.
- This is valid also taking into account the efficiency of the cryogenic plant. The Carnot efficiency of a perfect cooler working between 300 K and T is:

$$\eta_c = \frac{T}{300 - T}$$

- For $T=4.2$ K, $\eta_c=0.014$. A modern cryoplant has a technical efficiency that can reach about 30% of the ideal one, thus $\eta_{real}=0.0042$. Even taking this into account the energy savings are huge.
- Moreover, SC cavities allow designs with larger beam pipes which, are beneficial for beam stability although reducing R_a . This would be unacceptable for NC cavities, but owing to the huge Q_0 the performance of SC cavities don't suffer much.

- When RF power is fed into a cavity, a voltage is developed inside it. As for any RLC circuit, we must match the impedance of the generator to that of the resonator to transfer the maximum amount of power:

$$P_c = \frac{V_c^2}{R_a}$$

- R_a is called shunt impedance [Ω / accelerating cell], and we want to maximise it in order to develop the largest voltage for a given power.
- Substituting into the definition of Q_0 :

$$\frac{R_a}{Q_0} = \frac{V_c^2}{\omega_0 U}$$

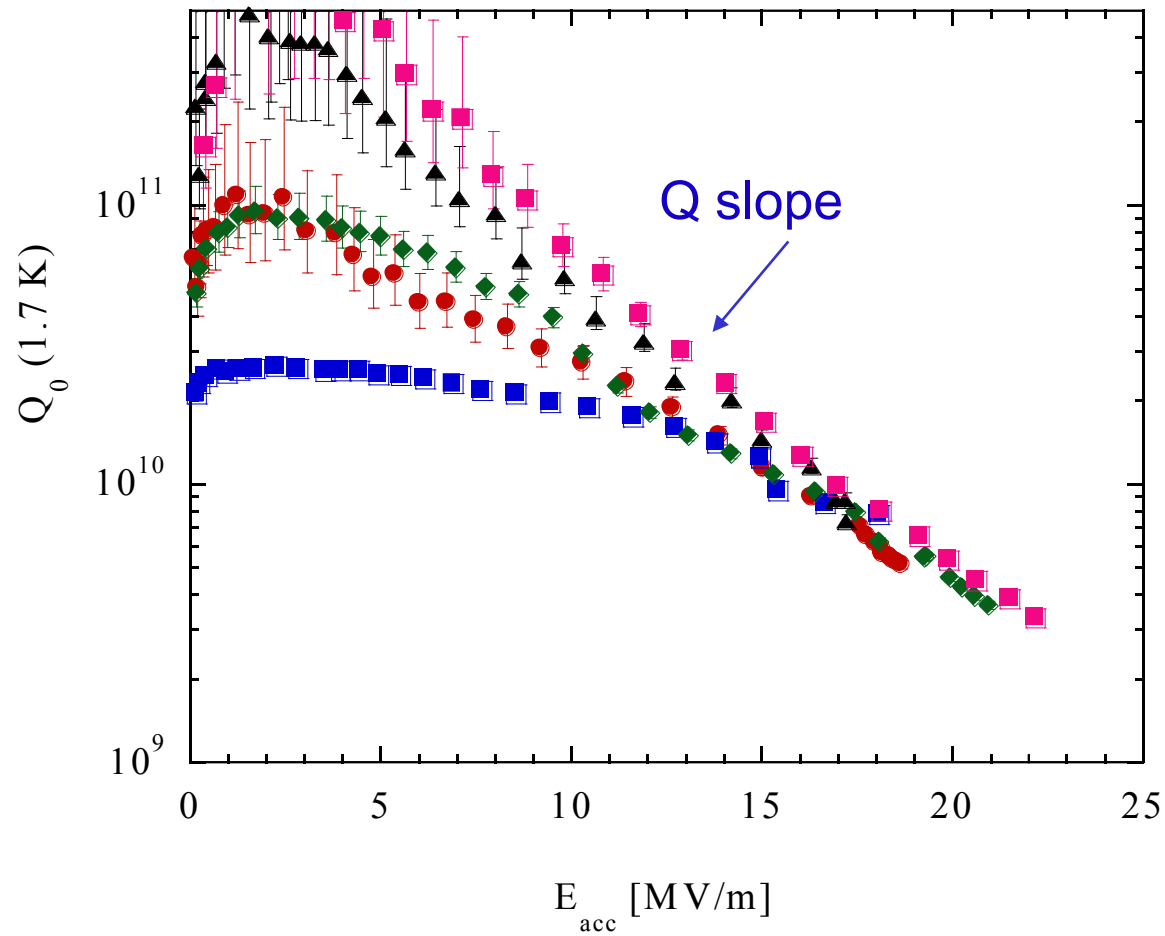
- The quantity is independent of surface resistance, of cavity size and only depends on its shape. For a pillbox it is 196 Ω /cell, for LEP-type cavities it is 83 Ω /cell

- Here is a brief summary for comparing SC cavities (Nb @ 4.2 K) and NC cavities, both at 500 MHz

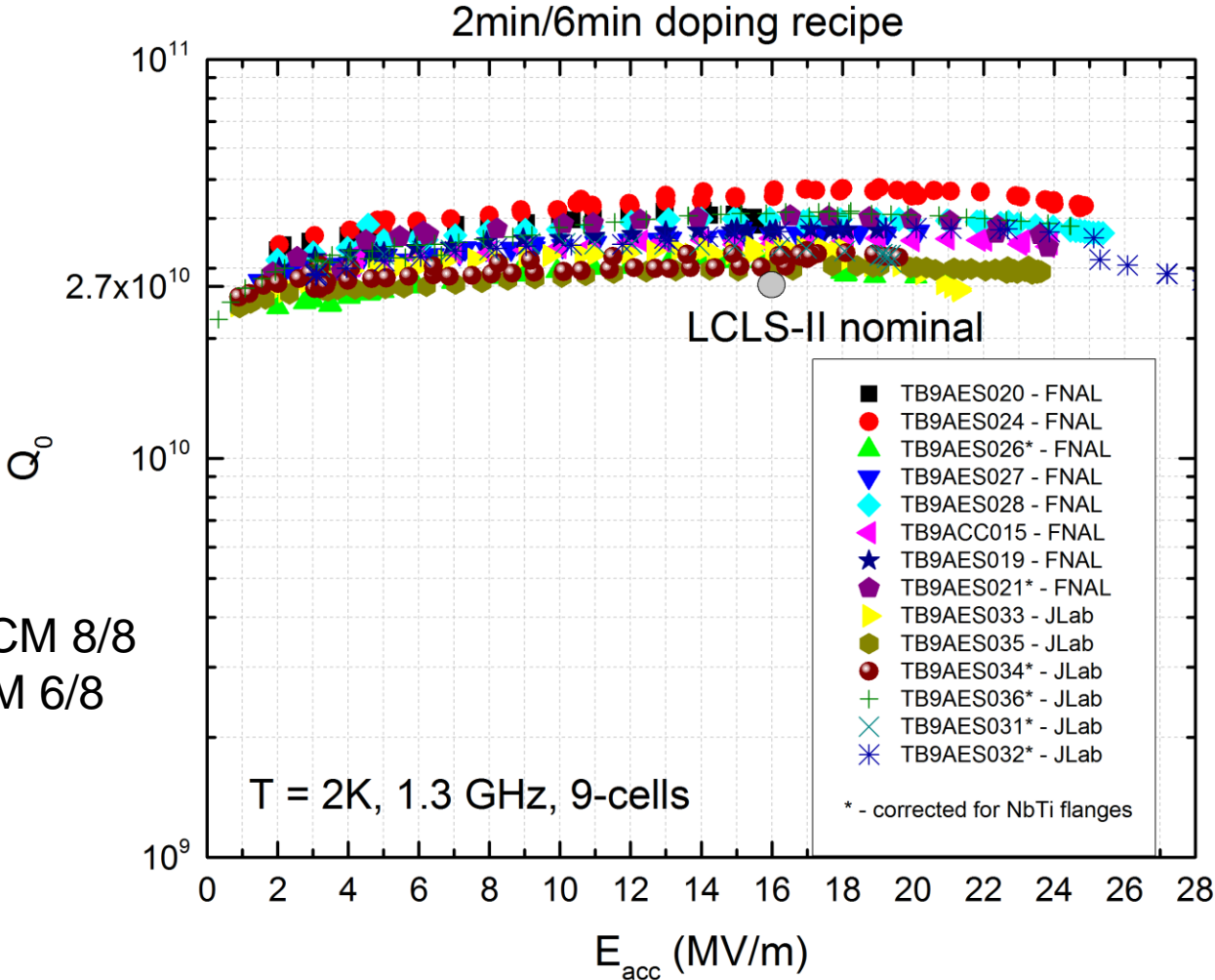
	Superconducting	Normal conducting
Q_0	2×10^9	2×10^4
R_a/Q_0 [Ω/m]	330	900
Dissipated power [kW/m] (for $E_{acc}=1MV/m$)	0.0015	56
Total AC power [kW/m] (for $E_{acc}=1MV/m$)	0.36	112

Performance of cavities II

Nb/Cu cavities 1.5 GHz at 1.7 K ($Q_0=295/R_s$)



FNAL + Jlab Nine Cell 2.0K Results, doping recipe 2/6

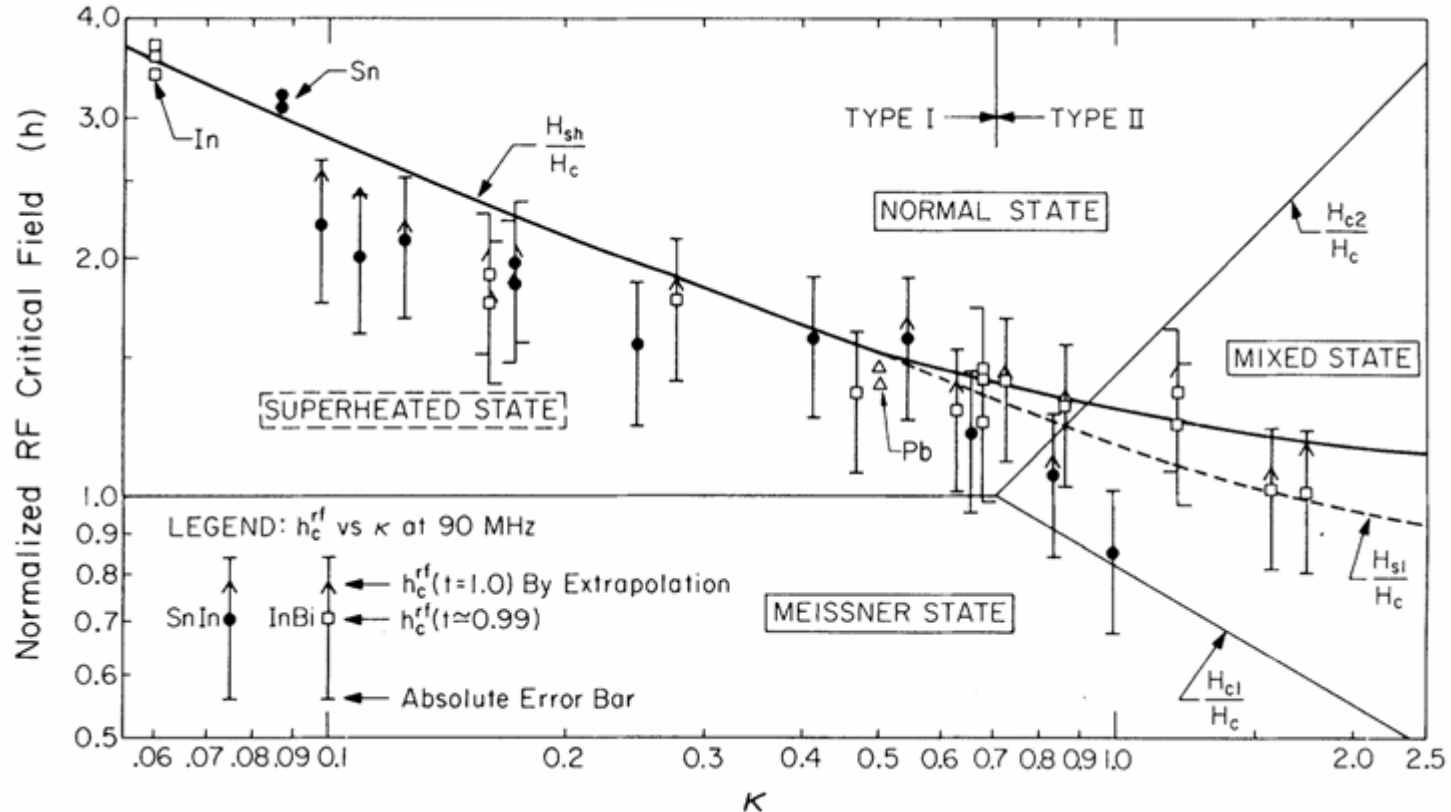


FNAL pCM 8/8
Jlab pCM 6/8

- The first notable fact is that the surface resistance R_s is not constant with field. (The Mattis-Bardeen equations are a zero-field perturbation theory, and this should not come as a surprise)
- Second, even when lowering temperature the surface resistance does not reduce as foreseen. This is the residual surface resistance R_{res}
- Third, other phenomena take place at high fields: electron field emission, thermal breakdown (quench)
- Fourth, in the case of films, there is a stronger decrease of Q_0 factor (increase of R_s) with field compared to bulk cavities
- In fact the surface resistance is generally:

$$R_s(T, E_{rf}, H_{DC}) = R_{BCS}(T, E_{rf}, 0) + R_{res}(0, E_{rf}, 0) + R_{fl}(T, E_{rf}, H_{DC})$$

- As already said, there is in principle no intrinsic lower limit for the surface resistance ($R_s \rightarrow 0$ for $T \rightarrow 0$)
- However all superconductors are faced with the hard limit: H_c
- When H_{rf} exceeds some superheating H_{sh} value linked to H_c they lose superconductivity. This limit is around 50 MV/m for Nb at 1.7 K



Thank you!

(end of part I)

Some useful definitions

- FOR NORMAL METALS :
 - i) LOCAL OR CLASSICAL LIMIT $l \rightarrow 0$ or $l \ll \delta$
 - ii) ANOMALOUS LIMIT $l \rightarrow \infty$ or $l \gg \delta$

- FOR SUPERCONDUCTORS
 - i) LOCAL LIMIT $l \ll \xi, \lambda$ (INDEPENDENTLY EITHER FOR TYPE I OR II SUPERCONDUCTORS)
 MORE COMMONLY CALLED ~~CLEAN~~ DIRTY LIMIT $l/\xi \rightarrow 0$
 WHICH HAPPENS TO BE EQUIVALENT
 - ii) IN THE CLEAN LIMIT $l/\xi \rightarrow \infty$ WE HAVE TWO CASES:
 - ii) ANOMALOUS OR PIPARD LIMIT FOR $\lambda \ll \xi, l$
 (A CLEAN TYPE I SUPERCONDUCTOR)
 - iii) LONDON LIMIT $\xi \ll \lambda, l$ (A CLEAN TYPE II)

- Nb FOR $l \rightarrow \infty$ IS IN THE ANOMALOUS LIMIT WHEN NORMAL BUT IN LONDON LIMIT WHEN SUPERCONDUCTOR

- Gauss' Law

$$\nabla \cdot D = \rho$$

- Faraday's law of induction

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

- Gauss Law for magnetism

$$\nabla \cdot B = 0$$

- Ampère's circuital law

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

- With:

$$D = \varepsilon E \quad B = \mu H$$

- Continuity equation

$$\nabla \cdot J + \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = 0$$