

Summer Student Lecture

Superconductivity and superconducting magnets for the LHC Upgrade

Paolo Ferracin

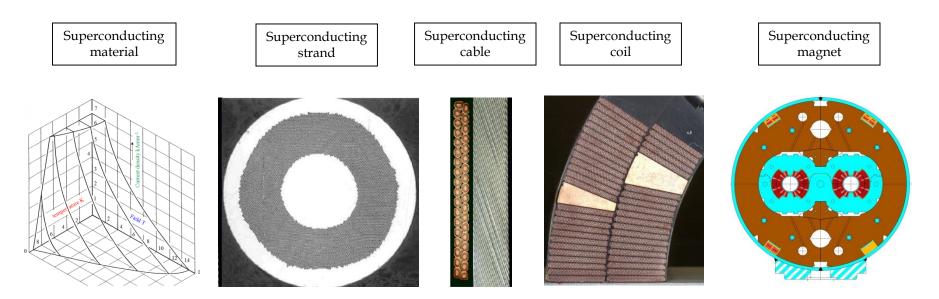
(paolo.ferracin@cern.ch)

European Organization for Nuclear Research (CERN)



Introduction Goal of the lecture

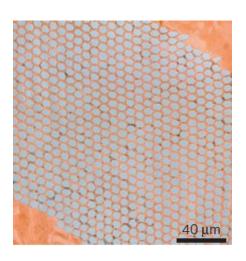
- Overview of superconducting magnets for particle accelerators (dipoles and quadrupoles)
 - Description of the components and their function
 - ...past, present, and future: HiLumi LHC and FCC
- From the superconducting material to the full magnet

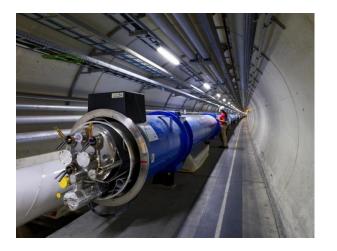




Introduction Superconducting magnet technology

- Multidisciplinary field: mixture of
 - Chemistry and material science: superconducting materials
 - Quantum physics: the key mechanisms of superconductivity
 - Classical electrodynamics: magnet design
 - Mechanical engineering: support structures
 - Electrical engineering: powering of the magnets
 - Cryogenics: keep them cool ...
- Very different order of magnitudes









Outline

- Particle accelerators and superconductors
- Magnetic design and coils
- Mechanics of superconducting magnets
- Quench and protection
- HiLumi LHC and FCC



References

Particle accelerators and superconductors

- K.-H. Mess, P. Schmuser, S. Wolff, "Superconducting accelerator magnets", Singapore: World Scientific, 1996.
- Martin N. Wilson, "Superconducting Magnets", 1983.
- Fred M. Asner, "High Field Superconducting Magnets", 1999.
- P. Ferracin, E. Todesco, S. Prestemon, "Superconducting accelerator magnets", US Particle Accelerator School, www.uspas.fnal.gov.
 - Units 2 by E. Todesco
- A. Devred, "Practical low-temperature superconductors for electromagnets", CERN-2004-006, 2006.
- Presentations from Luca Bottura and Martin Wilson



Particle accelerators and magnets

by E. Todesco

LSS

LSS

LSS

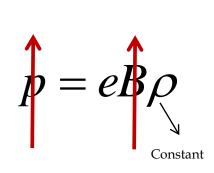
LSS

- Principle of synchrotrons
 - Driving particles in the same accelerating structure several times
- Electro-magnetic field accelerates particles

 Magnetic field steers the particles in a ~circular orbit

$$\vec{F} = e\vec{v} \times \vec{B}$$

Particle accelerated → energy increased →
magnetic field increased ("synchro") to keep
the particles on the same orbit of curvature



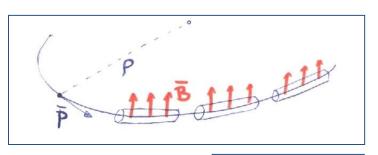


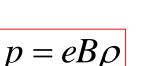
Particle accelerators and magnets Dipoles

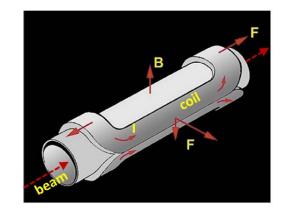
- Main field components is B_y
 - Perpendicular to the magnet axis *z*
- Electro-magnets: field produced by a current (or current density)

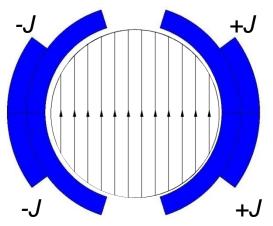
$$B_{y} = -\frac{\mu_{0}J_{0}}{2}(r_{out} - r_{in})$$







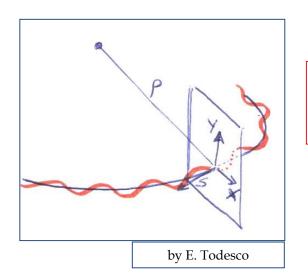




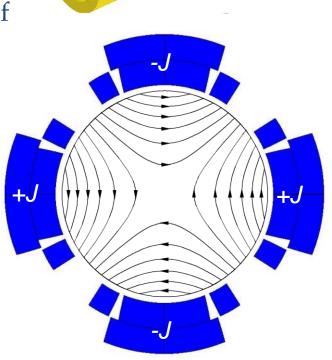


Particle accelerators and magnets Quadrupoles

- The force necessary to stabilize linear motion is provided by the quadrupoles
- They provide a field equal to zero in the center
 - increasing linearly with the radius
- They act as a spring: focus the beam
- Prevent protons from falling to the bottom of the aperture due to the gravitational force
 - it would happen in less than 60 ms



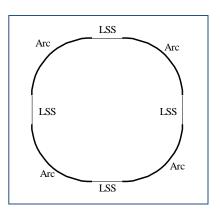
$$G = \frac{B_{y}}{r} = -\frac{\mu_{0}J_{0}}{2} \ln \frac{r_{out}}{r_{in}}$$



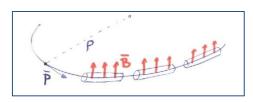


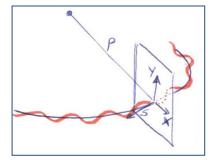
Particle accelerators and magnets

- Dipoles: the larger B, the larger the energy
- Quadrupoles: the larger B, the larger the focusing strength
- For an electro-magnet, the larger B, the larger must be J

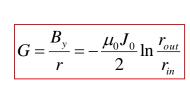


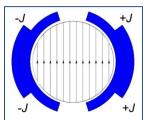
$$p = eB\rho$$

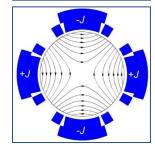




$$B_{y} = -\frac{\mu_{0}J_{0}}{2}(r_{out} - r_{in})$$







- In normal conducting magnets, J ~ 5 A/mm²
- In superconducting magnets, Je ~ 600-700 A/mm²

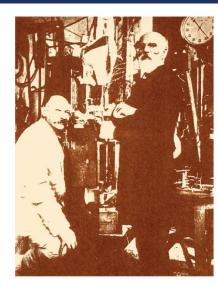


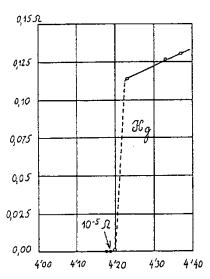
Superconductivity The discovery

- Superconductivity discovered in 1911 by Kammerling-Onnes
 - **ZERO resistance** of mercury wire at 4.2 K
- Temperature at which the transition takes place: critical temperature T_c



- but not in the typical best conductors (Cu, Ag, Au)
- At $T > T_c$, superconductor very poor conductor
- 2 kinds of superconductors
 - Type I and Type II
 - Different behaviour with magnetic field

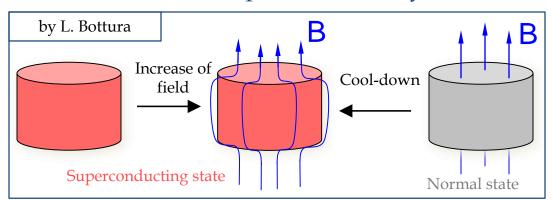






Superconductivity Type I superconductors

- Meissner-Ochsenfeld effect (1933)
- Perfect diamagnetism
 - With T<T_c magnetic field is expelled
- But, the *B* must be < critical field *B*_c
 - Otherwise superconductivity is lost



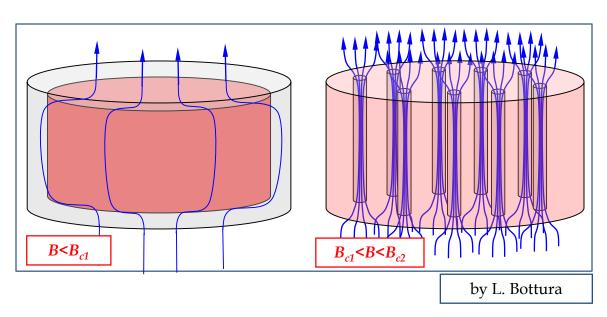
- Unfortunately, first discovered superconductors (**Type I**) with **very low** B_c ($\leq 0.1 \text{ T}$)
 - not practical for electro-magnets

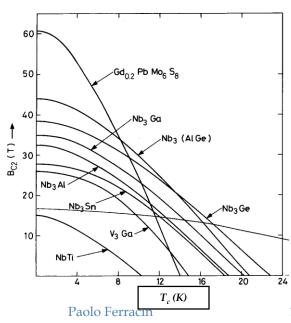
Material	$T_{c}\left(\mathbf{K}\right)$	$\mu_0 H_0 (\mathrm{mT})$
Aluminum	1.2	9.9
Cadmium	0.52	3.0
Gallium	1.1	5.1
Indium	3.4	27.6
Iridium	0.11	1.6
Lanthanum α	4.8	
$oldsymbol{eta}$	4.9	
Lead	7.2	80.3
Lutecium	0.1	35.0
Mercury α	4.2	41.3
β	4.0	34.0
Molybdenum	0.9	
Osmium	0.7	~ 6.3
Rhenium	1.7	20.1
Rhodium	0.0003	4.9
Ruthenium	0.5	6.6
Tantalum	4.5	83.0
Thalium	2.4	17.1
Thorium	1.4	16.2
Tin	3.7	30.6
Titanium	0.4	
Tungsten	0.016	0.12
Uranium α	0.6	
β	1.8	
Zinc	0.9	5.3
Zirconium	0.8	4.7



Superconductivity Type II superconductors

- So, for 40-50 years, superconductivity was a research activity
- Then, in the 50's, type II superconductors
 - Between B_{c1} and B_{c2} : mixed phase
 - *B* penetrates as flux tubes: *fluxoids*
 - with a flux of $\phi_0 = h/2e = 2 \cdot 10^{-15} Wb$
- Much higher fields and link between T_c and B_{c2}

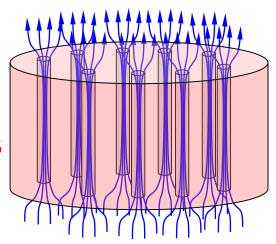






Superconductivity Hard superconductors

- ...but, if a current passes through the tubes
 - Lorentz force on the fluxoids: $F_L = J \times B$
- The force causes a **motion** of tubes
 - Flux motion $(dB/dt) \rightarrow (V) \rightarrow$ **dissipation** (VI)
- Fluxoids must be locked by pinning centers
 - <u>Defects</u> or <u>impurities</u> in the structure

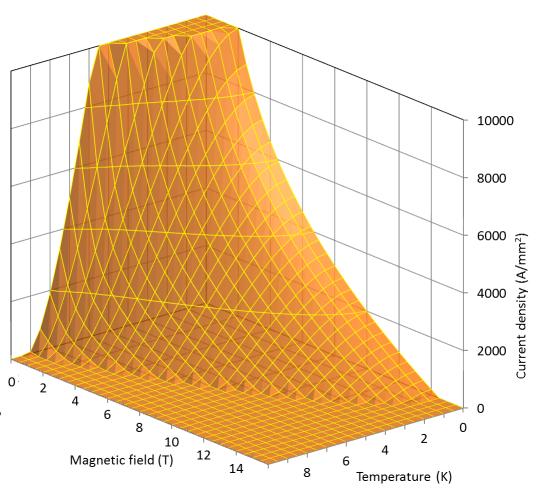


- The pinning centres exert a pinning force F_p
- As long as $F_p \le J \times B$
 - No flux motions → no dissipation
- J_c is the current density at which, for a given B and at a given T the pinning force is exceeded by the Lorentz force



Superconductivity Critical surface

- A type II material is supercond. below the critical surface defined by
 - Critical temperature *Tc*
 - Property of the material
 - Upper critical field B_{c2}
 - Property of the material
 - Critical current density J_c
 - Hard work by the producer



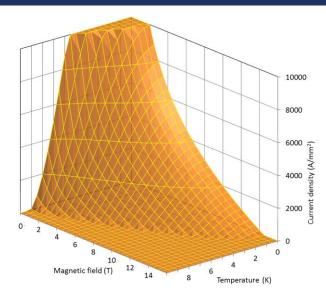


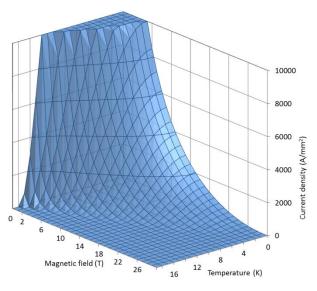
Superconductivity Nb-Ti (1961) and Nb₃Sn (1954)

- Nb and Ti → ductile alloy
 - Extrusion + drawing
- T_c is ~9.2 K at 0 T
- B_{C2} is ~14.5 T at 0 K
- Firstly in **Tevatron** (80s), then all the other
- ~50-200 US\$ per kg of wire (1 euro per m)



- Brittle, strain sensitive, formed at ~650-700°C
- T_C is ~18 K at 0 T
- B_{C2} is ~28 T at 0 K
- Used in NMR, ITER
- ~700-1500 US\$ per kg of wire (5 euro per m)

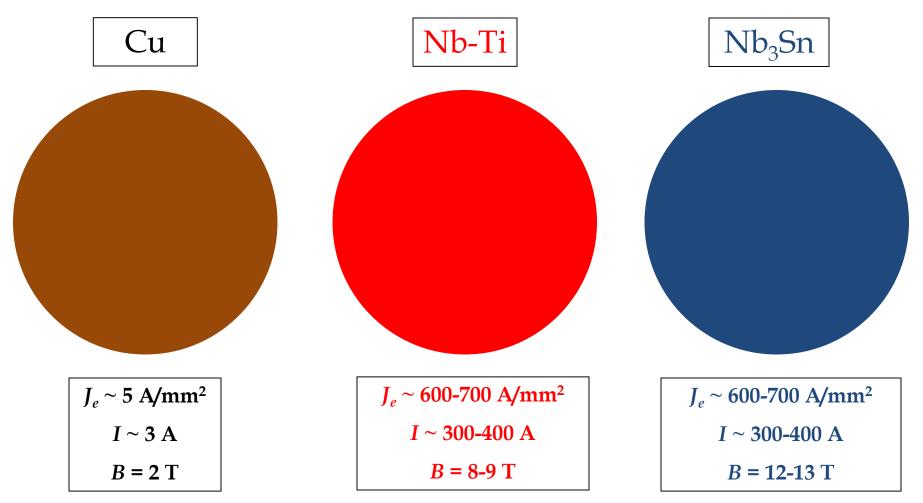






Superconductivity from Cu to Nb₃Sn

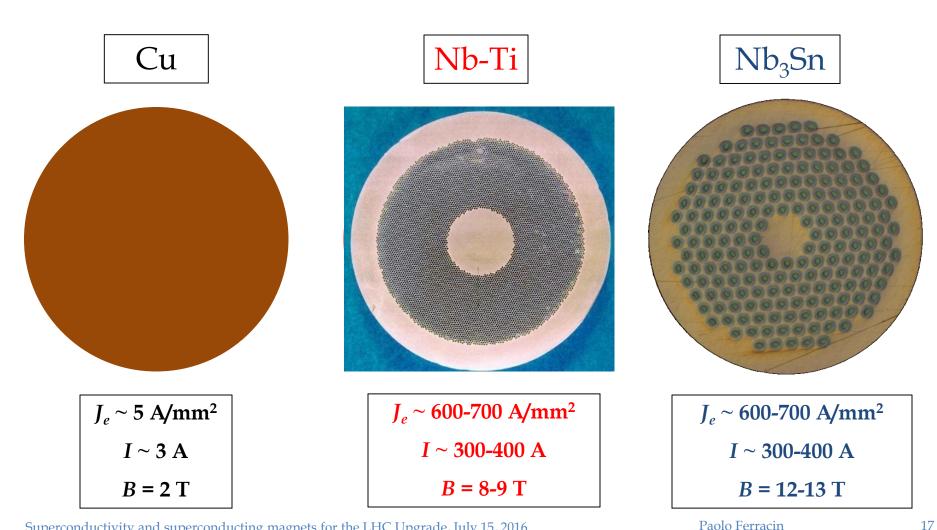
• Typical operational conditions (0.85 mm diameter strand)





Practical superconductors

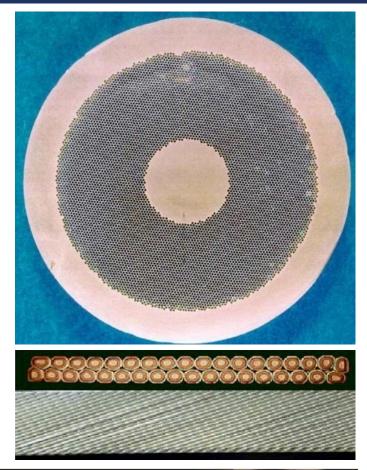
• Typical operational conditions (0.85 mm diameter strand)





Practical superconductors Introduction

- Superconducting materials are produced in small filaments and surrounded by a stabilizer (typically copper) to form a *multi-filament wire* or *strand*.
- A superconducting cable is composed by several wires: *multi-strand cable*.



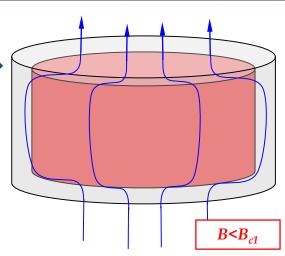


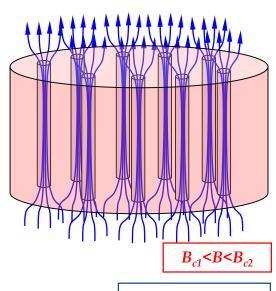


- Fluxoid distribution depends on \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{J}_c
- Thermal disturbance \rightarrow the local change in $J_c \rightarrow$ motion or "flux jump" \rightarrow power dissipation
- Stability criteria for a slab (adiabatic condition)

$$a \le \sqrt{\frac{3\gamma C(\theta_c - \theta_0)}{\mu_0 j_c^2}}$$

- a is the half-thickness of the slab
- j_c is the critical current density [A m⁻²]
- γ is the density [kg m⁻³]
- C is the specific heat [J kg⁻¹]
- θ_c is the critical temperature.
- Filament diameters usually < 50 μm



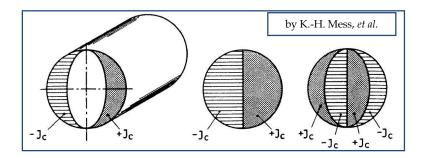


by L. Bottura

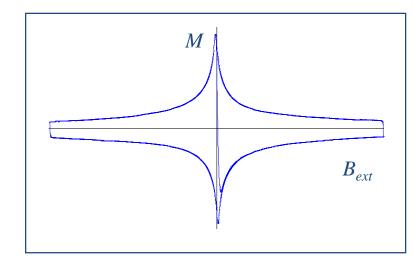


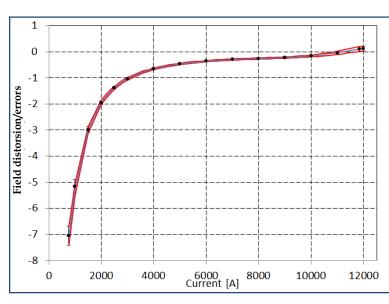
Superconductor magnetization

- When a filament is in a varying B_{ext} , its inner part is shielded by currents distribution in the filament periphery
 - They **do not decay** when B_{ex} is held constant \rightarrow **persistent currents**



- These currents produce **field errors** and **ac losses** proportional to $J_c r_f$
 - LHC filament diameter 6-7 μm.
 - HERA filament diameter 14 μm.

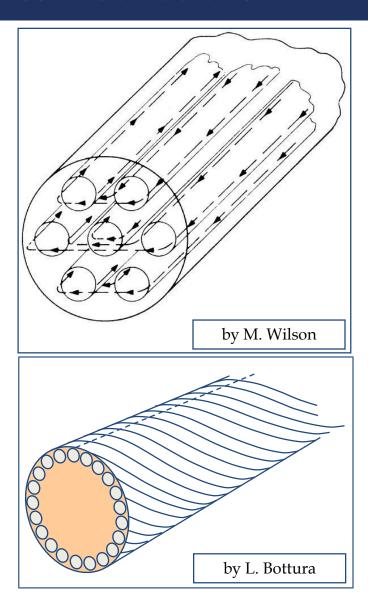






Inter-filament coupling

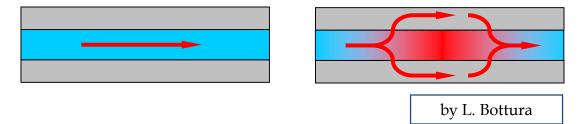
- When a multi-filamentary wire is subjected to a time varying magnetic field, current loops are generated between filaments.
- If filaments are straight, large loops with large currents → ac losses
- If the strands are magnetically coupled the effective filament size is larger → flux jumps
- To reduce these effects, filaments are twisted
 - twist pitch of the order of 20-30 times of the wire diameter.





Quench protection

- Superconductors have a very high normal state resistivity
 - If quenched, could reach very high temperatures in few ms.
- If embedded in a **copper matrix**, when a quench occurs, current redistributes in the low-resisitivity matrix → **lower peak temperature**



- The copper matrix provides **time to act** on the power circuit
- In the case of a small volume of superconductor heated beyond the critical temperature the current can flow in the copper for a short moment, allowing the filament to cool-down and recover supercond.
- The matrix also helps stabilizing the conductor against **flux jumps**

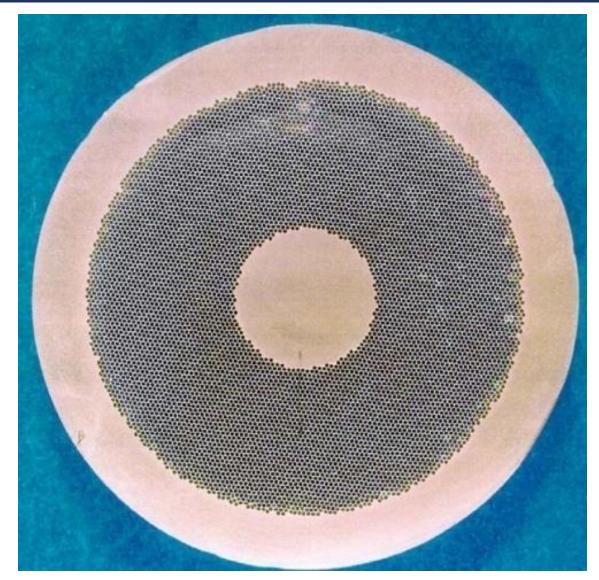


• Flux jumps

Persistent currents

AC losses

Quench protection

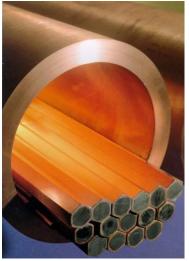




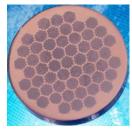
Practical superconductors Fabrication of Nb-Ti multifilament wires

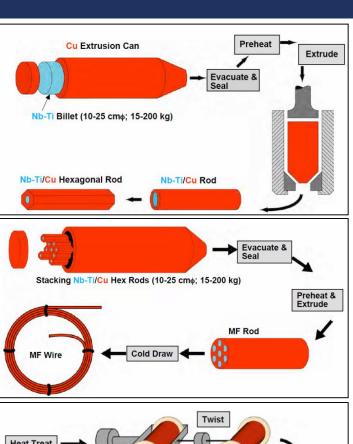
- Nb-Ti ingots
 - 200 mm Ø 1 750 mm long
- Monofilament rods are stacked to form a multifilament billet
 - then extruded and drawn down
 - can be re-stacked: double-stacking process

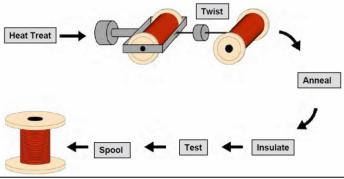












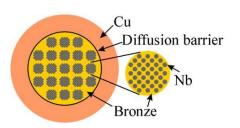


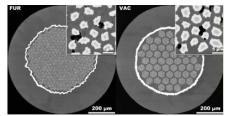
Multifilament wires Fabrication of Nb₃Sn multifilament wires

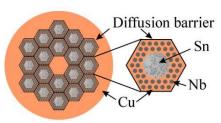
- Since Nb₃Sn is brittle
 - it cannot be extruded and drawn like Nb-Ti.

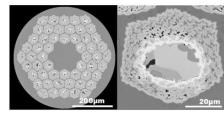


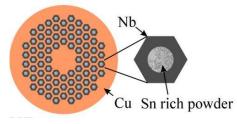
- Assembly multifilament billets from with Nb and Sn separated
- Fabrication of the wire through extrusion-drawing
 - Fabrication of the cable
 - Fabrication of the coil

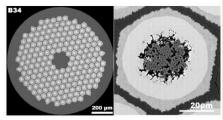












by A. Godeke

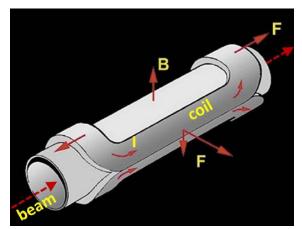
• "Reaction"

- Sn and Nb are heated to 600-700 C
- Sn diffuses in Nb and reacts to form Nb₃Sn



Practical superconductors Multi-strand cables motivations

- Most of the superconducting coils for particle accelerators wound from a multi-strand cable (Rutherford cable)
 - Reduction of strand piece length
 - reduction of number of turns
 - easy winding
 - smaller coil inductance
 - less V for power supply during ramp-up;
 - after a quench, faster discharge and V
 - **current redistribution** in case of a defect or a quench in one strand
- The strands are **twisted** to
 - Reduce inter-strand coupling currents
 - Losses and field distortions
 - Provide more mechanical stability







by M. Wilson



Practical superconductors Superconducting cables





Outline

- Particle accelerators and superconductors
- Magnetic design and coils
- Mechanics of superconducting magnets
- Quench and protection
- HiLumi LHC and FCC



References

Magnetic design and coils

- K.-H. Mess, P. Schmuser, S. Wolff, "Superconducting accelerator magnets", Singapore: World Scientific, 1996.
- Martin N. Wilson, "Superconducting Magnets", 1983.
- Fred M. Asner, "High Field Superconducting Magnets", 1999.
- S. Russenschuck, "Field computation for accelerator magnets", J. Wiley & Sons (2010).
- P. Ferracin, E. Todesco, S. Prestemon, "Superconducting accelerator magnets", US Particle Accelerator School, www.uspas.fnal.gov.
 - Units 5, 8, 9 by E. Todesco
- A. Jain, "Basic theory of magnets", CERN 98-05 (1998) 1-26
- L. Rossi, E. Todesco, "Electromagnetic design of superconducting quadrupoles", Phys. Rev. ST Accel. Beams 10 (2007) 112401.
- L. Rossi and Ezio Todesco, "Electromagnetic design of superconducting dipoles based on sector coils", Phys. Rev. ST Accel. Beams 9 (2006) 102401.



Magnetic design and coils

- How do we create a perfect field?
- How do we express field and its "imperfections"?
- How do we design a coil to minimize field errors?
- How do we fabricate a coil?





Perfect dipole field Intercepting circles (or ellipses)

• Within a cylinder carrying j_0 , the field is perpendicular to the radial direction and proportional to the distance to the centre r:

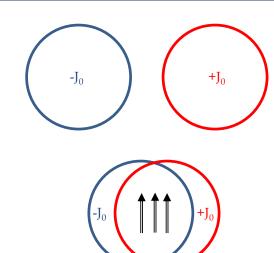
$$B = -\frac{\mu_0 j_0 r}{2}$$

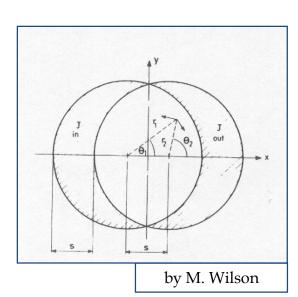
• Combining the effect of two intersecting cylinders

$$B_{x} = \frac{\mu_{0} j_{0} r}{2} \{ -r_{1} \sin \theta_{1} + r_{2} \sin \theta_{2} \} = 0$$

$$B_{y} = \frac{\mu_{0} j_{0} r}{2} \left\{ -r_{1} \cos \theta_{1} + r_{2} \cos \theta_{2} \right\} = -\frac{\mu_{0} j_{0}}{2} s$$

- A uniform current density in the area of two intersecting circles produces a pure dipole
 - The aperture is not circular
 - Not easy to simulate with a flat cable
- Similar proof for intersecting ellipses





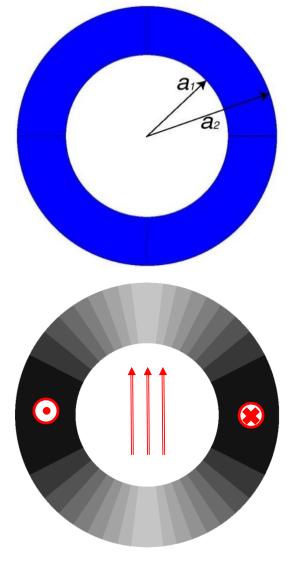


Perfect dipole field Thick shell with $cos\theta$ current distribution

- If we assume
 - $J = J_0 \cos \theta$ where $J_0 [A/m^2]$ is \perp to the cross-section plane
 - Inner (outer) radius of the coils = a1 (a2)
- The generated field is a pure dipole

$$B_{y} = -\frac{\mu_{0}J_{0}}{2}(a_{2} - a_{1})$$

- Linear dependence on coil width
- Easier to achieve with a Rutherford cable





Perfect quadrupole field

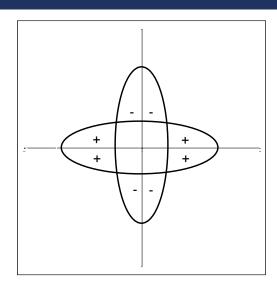
Intercepting ellipses or circles

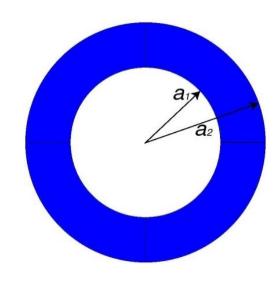
- Thick shell with $\cos 2\theta$ current distribution
- If we assume
 - $J = J_0 \cos 2\theta$ where $J_0 [A/m^2]$ is \perp to the cross-section plane
 - Inner (outer) radius of the coils = a1 (a2)

$$G = \frac{B_{y}}{r} = -\frac{\mu_{0}J_{0}}{2} \ln \frac{a_{2}}{a_{1}}$$



- Perfect sextupoles: $\cos 3\theta$ or 3 intersect. ellipses
- Perfect 2n-poles: $\cos n\theta$ or n intersecting ellipses







From ideal to practical configuration

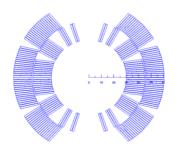
- How can I reproduce thick shell with a $cos\theta$ distribution with a cable?
 - Rectangular cross-section and constant *J*



- Sector dipole
- Better ones
 - More layers and wedges to reduce *J* towards 90°







- As a result, the field is **not perfect** anymore
 - How can I express in improve the "imperfect" field inside the aperture?



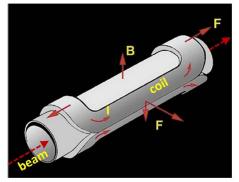
Field representation Maxwell equations

Maxwell equations for magnetic field

$$\nabla \cdot B = \frac{\partial B_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial B_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial z} = 0 \qquad \nabla \times B = \mu_0 J + \mu_0 \varepsilon_0 \frac{\partial E}{\partial t}$$

In absence of charge and magnetized material

$$\nabla \times B = \left(\frac{\partial B_{y}}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial B_{z}}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial B_{z}}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial B_{x}}{\partial z}, \frac{\partial B_{x}}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial B_{y}}{\partial x}\right) = 0$$



• If $\frac{\partial B_z}{\partial z} = 0$ (constant longitudinal field), then

$$\frac{\partial B_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial B_y}{\partial y} = 0 \qquad \qquad \frac{\partial B_x}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial B_y}{\partial x} = 0$$



Field representation Analytic functions

• If
$$\frac{\partial B_z}{\partial z} = 0$$

Maxwell gives

$$\frac{\partial B_{y}}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial B_{x}}{\partial y} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial B_{y}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial B_{x}}{\partial x} = 0$$

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial f_{x}}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f_{y}}{\partial y} = 0\\ \frac{\partial f_{x}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial f_{y}}{\partial x} = 0 \end{cases}$$

Cauchy-Riemann conditions

and therefore the function $B_y + iB_x$ is analytic

$$B_{y}(x, y) + iB_{x}(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_{n}(x + iy)^{n-1}$$

where C_n are complex coefficients

$$B_{y}(x,y) + iB_{x}(x,y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_{n}(x+iy)^{n-1} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (B_{n} + iA_{n})(x+iy)^{n-1}$$

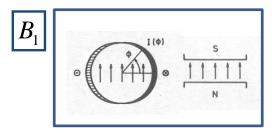
 Advantage: we reduce the description of the field to a (simple) series of complex coefficients

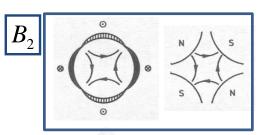


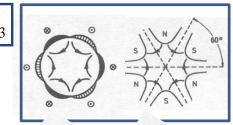
Magnetic design Harmonics

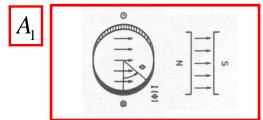
- The field can be expressed as (simple) series of coefficients
- ()
- So, each coefficient corresponds to a "pure" multipolar field

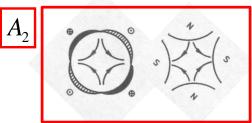
$$B_{y}(x,y) + iB_{x}(x,y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_{n}(x+iy)^{n-1} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (B_{n} + iA_{n})(x+iy)^{n-1}$$

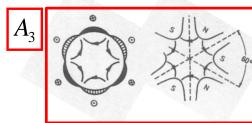












• The field harmonics are rewritten as

by K.-H. Mess, et al.

37

$$B_{y} + iB_{x} = 10^{-4} B_{1} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (b_{n} + ia_{n}) \left(\frac{x + iy}{R_{ref}} \right)^{n-1}$$

- The coefficients b_n , a_n are called <u>normalized multipoles</u>
 - b_n are the <u>normal</u>, a_n are the <u>skew</u> (adimensional)



Back to the original issue: From ideal to practical configuration

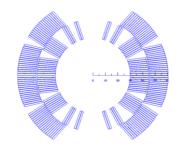
- How can I reproduce thick shell with a $cos\theta$ distribution with a cable?
 - Rectangular cross-section and constant *J*



- Sector dipole
- Better ones
 - More layers and wedges to reduce *J* towards 90°







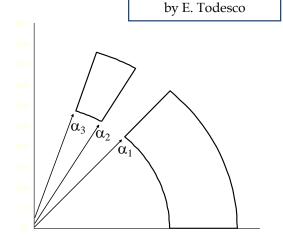
 Now, I can use the multipolar expansion to optimize my "practical" cross-section



A "good" field quality dipole Sector dipole

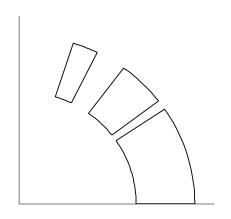
- We compute the central field given by a sector dipole with 2 blocks
 - Equations to set to zero B_3 , B_5 and B_7

$$\begin{cases} \sin(3\alpha_3) - \sin(3\alpha_2) + \sin(3\alpha_1) = 0\\ \sin(5\alpha_3) - \sin(5\alpha_2) + \sin(5\alpha_1) = 0 \end{cases}$$



- And the one given by a 3 blocks
 - Equations to set to zero B_3 , B_5 , B_7 , B_9 and B_{11}

$$\begin{aligned} &\sin(3\alpha_{5}) - \sin(3\alpha_{4}) + \sin(3\alpha_{3}) - \sin(3\alpha_{2}) + \sin(3\alpha_{1}) = 0 \\ &\sin(5\alpha_{5}) - \sin(5\alpha_{4}) + \sin(5\alpha_{3}) - \sin(5\alpha_{2}) + \sin(5\alpha_{1}) = 0 \\ &\sin(7\alpha_{5}) - \sin(7\alpha_{4}) + \sin(7\alpha_{3}) - \sin(7\alpha_{2}) + \sin(7\alpha_{1}) = 0 \\ &\sin(9\alpha_{5}) - \sin(9\alpha_{4}) + \sin(9\alpha_{3}) - \sin(9\alpha_{2}) + \sin(9\alpha_{1}) = 0 \\ &\sin(11\alpha_{5}) - \sin(11\alpha_{4}) + \sin(11\alpha_{3}) - \sin(11\alpha_{2}) + \sin(11\alpha_{1}) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

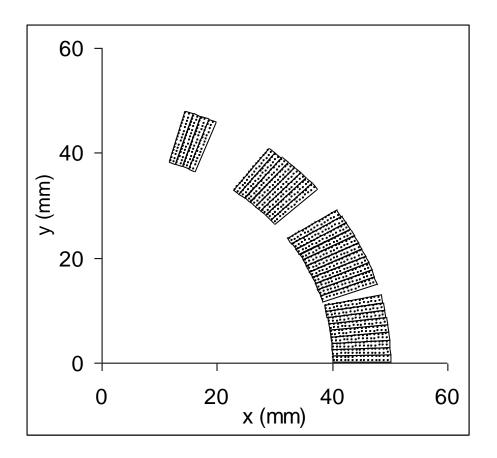


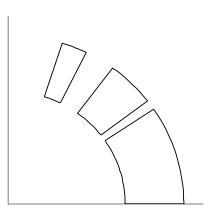
Two wedges, b₃=b₅=b₇=b₉=b₁₁=0 [0°-33.3°,37.1°-53.1°,63.4°-71.8°]



A "good" field quality dipole Sector dipole

- Let us see two coil lay-outs of real magnets
 - The RHIC dipole has four blocks

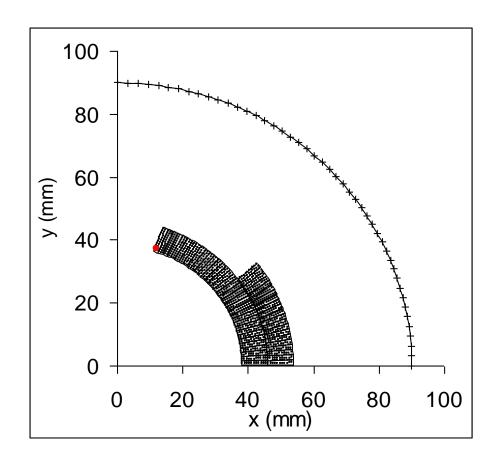




Two wedges, b₃=b₅=b₇=b₉=b₁₁=0 [0°-33.3°,37.1°-53.1°,63.4°-71.8°]

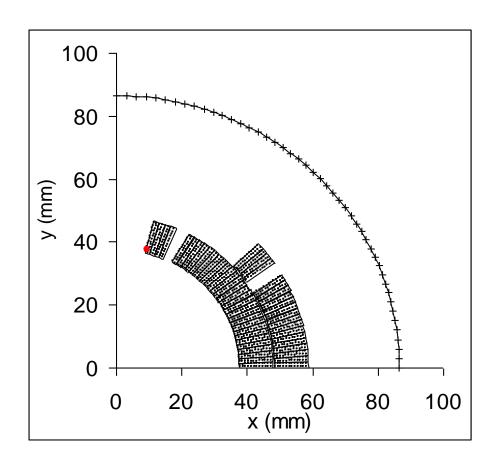


Tevatron MB



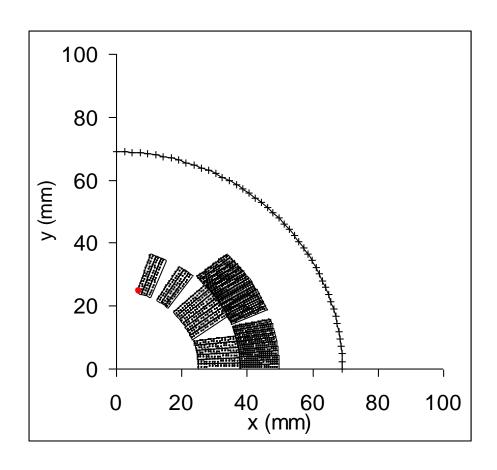


HERA MB



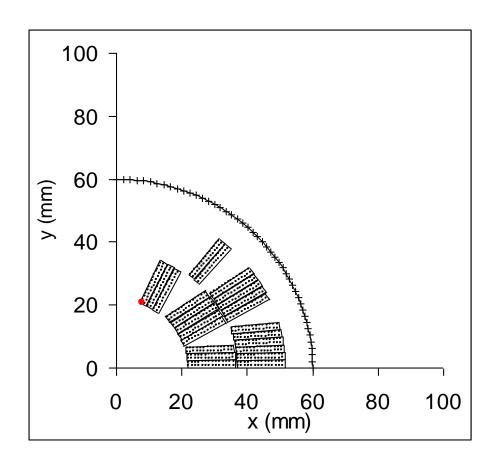


• SSC MB



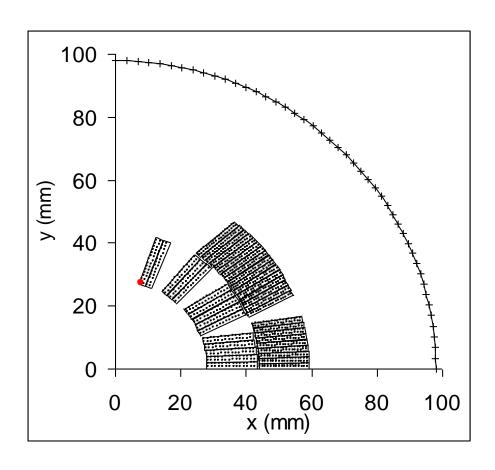


HFDA dipole



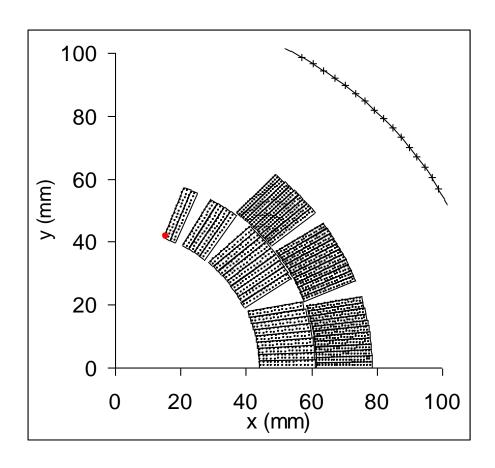


• LHC MB



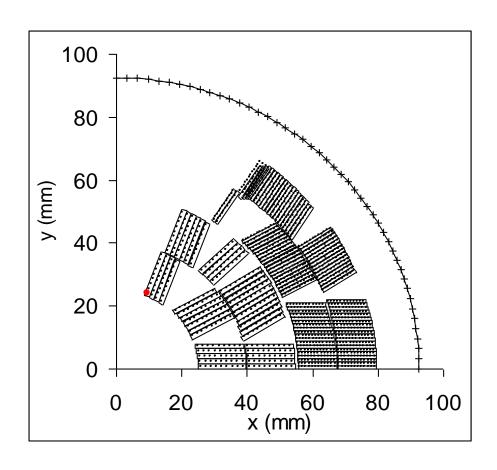


FRESCA





• D20



Superconductivity and superconducting magnets for the LHC Upgrade, July 15, 2016



Magnetic design and coils

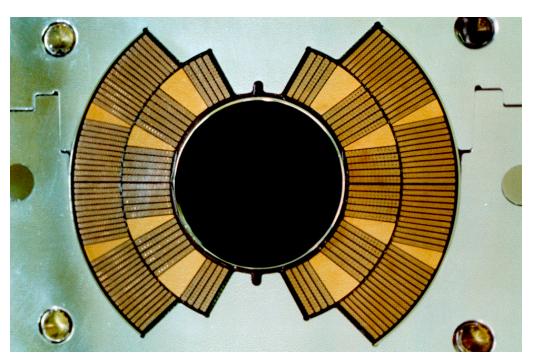
- How do we create a perfect field?
- How do we express field and its "imperfections"?
- How do we design a coil to minimize field errors?
- How do we fabricate a coil?

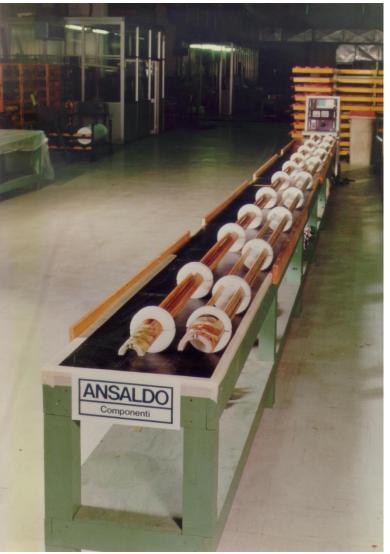




Coil fabrication Winding

- The coil: most **critical component** of a superconducting magnet
- **Cross-sectional accuracy** of few hundredths of millimeters over ~15 m
- Laminated tooling

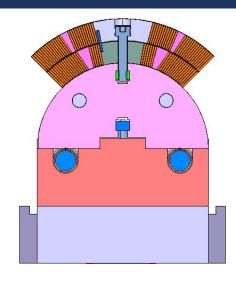






Coil fabrication Winding

- The cable is wound around a **pole** on a mandrel.
 - The mandrel is made of laminations
- Winding starts from pole turn of the inner layer
- Cable maintained in tension (200 N)
- For large production → automated winding machines







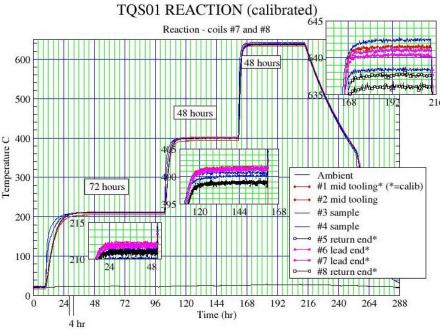




Superconductivity and superconducting magnets for the LHC Upgrade, July 15, 2016



Coil fabrication Reaction of Nb₃Sn coils



Heat treatment

- Sn and Nb are heated to 650-700 C in vacuum or inert gas (argon)
 - They reacts to form Nb₃Sn
- The cable becomes **brittle**
- The reaction is characterized by three temperature steps
 - Homogeneity is of about ± 3 °C

- Reaction oven with argon gas flow
 - Minimize O₂ content and Cu oxydation

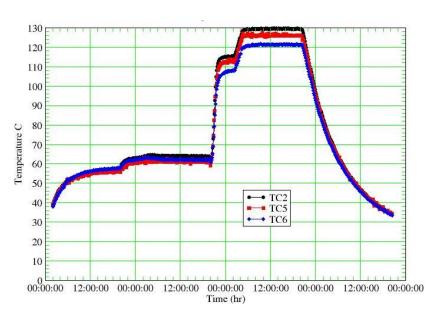


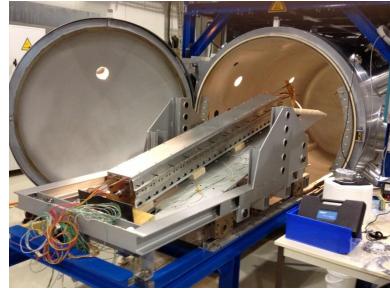




Coil fabrication Vacuum impregnation of Nb₃Sn coils

- After reaction, coil placed in a impregnation fixture
 - The fixture is inserted in a vacuum tank, evacuated → epoxy injected
 - high viscosity at room temperature,
 - low viscosity at ~60 °C
 - Then, curing at ~150 °C → solid block





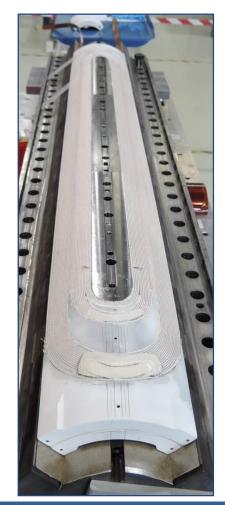




Paolo Ferracin



Overview of coil fabrication stages



After winding/curing



After reaction

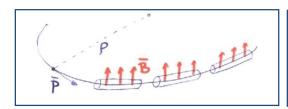


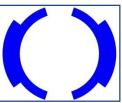
After impregnation

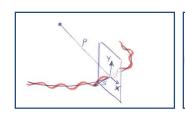


Summary

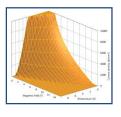
Particle accelerators and superconductors

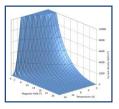


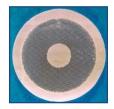






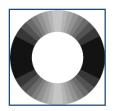


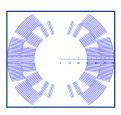






Magnetic design and coils













Next lecture

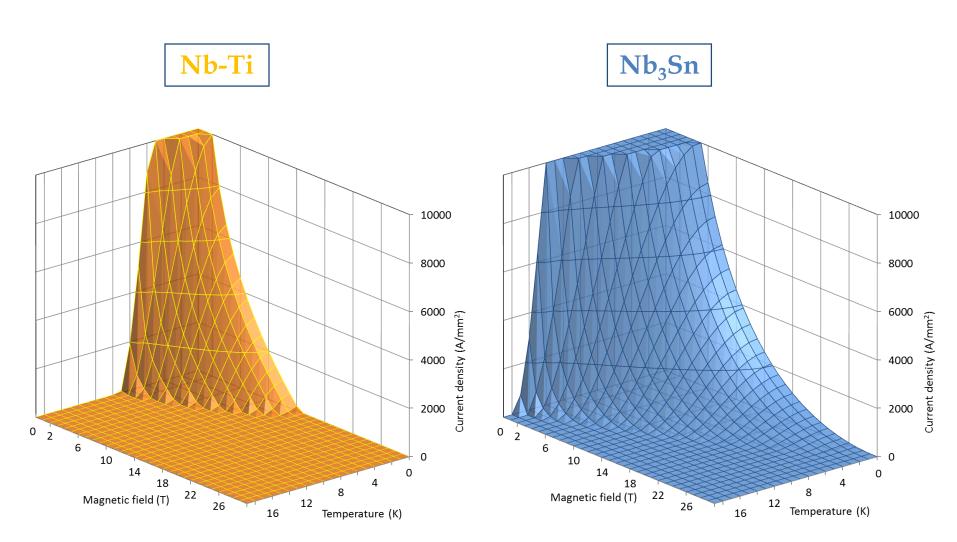
- Mechanics of superconducting magnets
- Quench and protection
- HiLumi LHC and FCC



Appendix



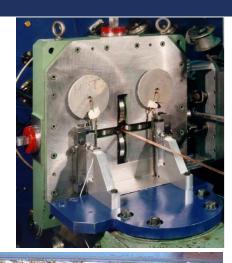
Superconductivity Nb-Ti vs. Nb₃Sn

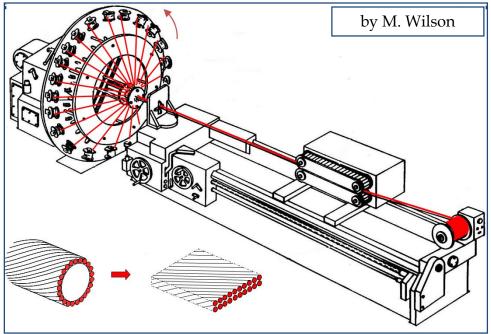




Practical superconductors Multi-strand cables motivations

- Rutherford cables fabricated by cabling machine
 - Strands wound on spools mounted on a rotating drum
 - Strands twisted around a conical mandrel into rolls (Turk's head)
 - The rolls compact the cable and provide the final shape



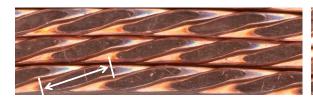






Practical superconductors Multi-strand cables

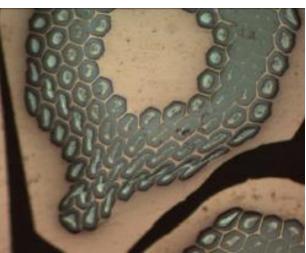
- Edge deformation may cause
 - reduction of the filament cross-sectional area (Nb-Ti)
 - breakage of reaction barrier with incomplete tin reaction (Nb₃Sn)
- In order to avoid degradation
 - strand cross-section investigated
 - Edge facets are measured
 - General rule: no overlapping of facets





• **Keystone angle** is usually of $\sim 1^{\circ}$ to 2°

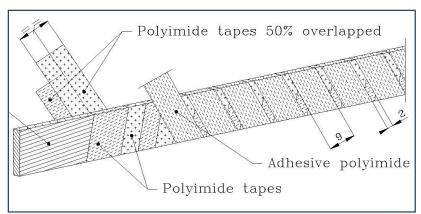






Practical superconductors Cable insulation

- The cable insulation must feature
 - Good **electrical properties** to withstand turn-to-turn *V* after a quench
 - Good mechanical properties to withstand high pressure conditions
 - Porosity to allow penetration of helium (or epoxy)
 - Radiation hardness
- In Nb-Ti magnets overlapped layers of polyimide
- In Nb₃Sn magnets, **fiber-glass** braided or as tape/sleeve.
- Typically the insulation thickness: 100 and 200 μm.









Coil fabrication Winding and curing

- There is a minimum bending radius, which depends on the cable dimensions.
 - Is there a general rule?
 - No, but usually the bending radius is 10-15 times the cable thickness.
 - The cable must be constantly monitored during winding.
- If the bending radius is too small
 - **De-cabling** during winding;
 - Strands "pop-out".

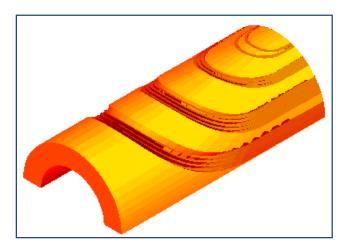






Coil fabrication Winding and curing

- In the **end region**, more difficult to constrain the turns
 - bent over the narrow edge
- To improve the mechanical stability and to reduce the peak field → end spacers
 - constant perimeter approach
 - The two narrow edges of the turn in the ends follow curves of equal lengths.
- In Nb-Ti magnets, end spacers are produced by 5-axis machining of epoxy impregnated fiberglass
 - Remaining voids are then filled by resins
- In Nb₃Sn magnets, end spacers are made of aluminum bronze or stainless steel.

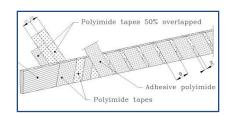




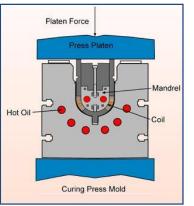


Coil fabrication Winding and curing

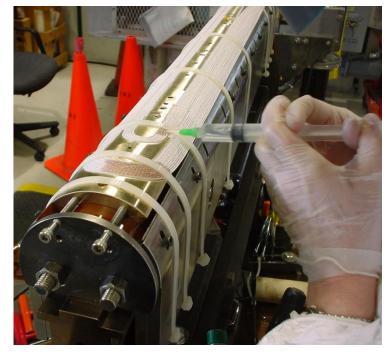
- The goal of curing
 - Glue turns facilitating handling
- Coils are placed in the curing mould equipped with a heating system, and compressed in press
- Nb-Ti coils cured up to 190±3 °C at 80-90 MPa (LHC) to activate resin



- In Nb₃Sn coils, cable insulation is injected with **ceramic binder**
 - Cured at 150° C and at ~10-30 MPa









....more on field harmonics

- As we said, we minimize harmonics during design phase
- After fabrication we can **measure** them
 - Reproducibility of coil positioning is \sim 20-50 mm (1 σ)
- If an anomaly is observed-→ inverse problem
 - Which coil defect could cause such an anomaly?

