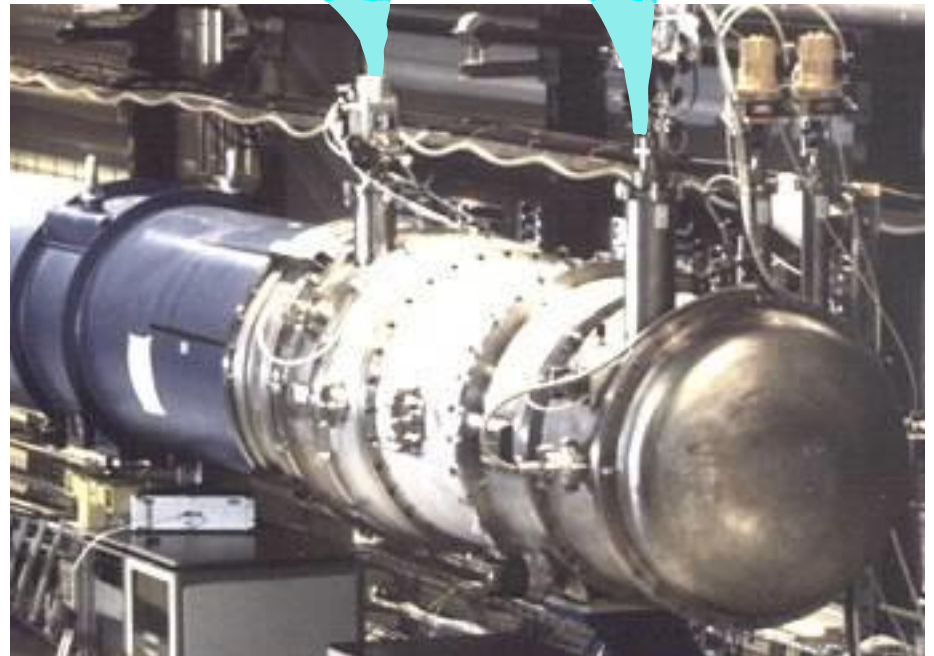
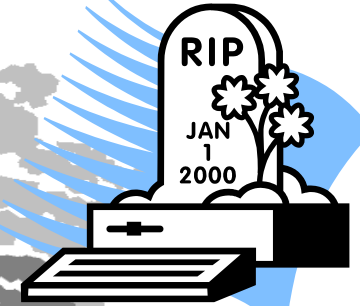


# Lecture 3: Quenching and a bit about hardware

## Plan

- the quench process
- decay times and temperature rise
- quench protection schemes
- cryostats
- superconductor manufacture
- coil manufacture
- some superconducting accelerators

*the most likely cause of  
death for a  
superconducting magnet*



# Magnetic stored energy

**Magnetic energy density**  $E = \frac{B^2}{2\mu_0}$  at 5T  $E = 10^7$  Joule.m<sup>-3</sup> at 10T  $E = 4 \times 10^7$  Joule.m<sup>-3</sup>

**LHC dipole magnet (twin apertures)**  $E = \frac{1}{2}LI^2$   $L = 0.12$ H  $I = 11.5$ kA  $E = 7.8 \times 10^6$  Joules

the magnet weighs 26 tonnes

so the magnetic stored energy is equivalent to the kinetic energy of:-

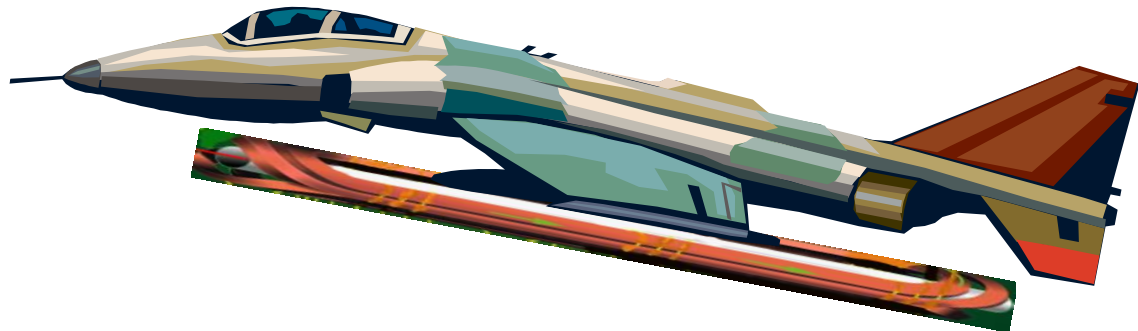
**26 tonnes travelling at 88km/hr**



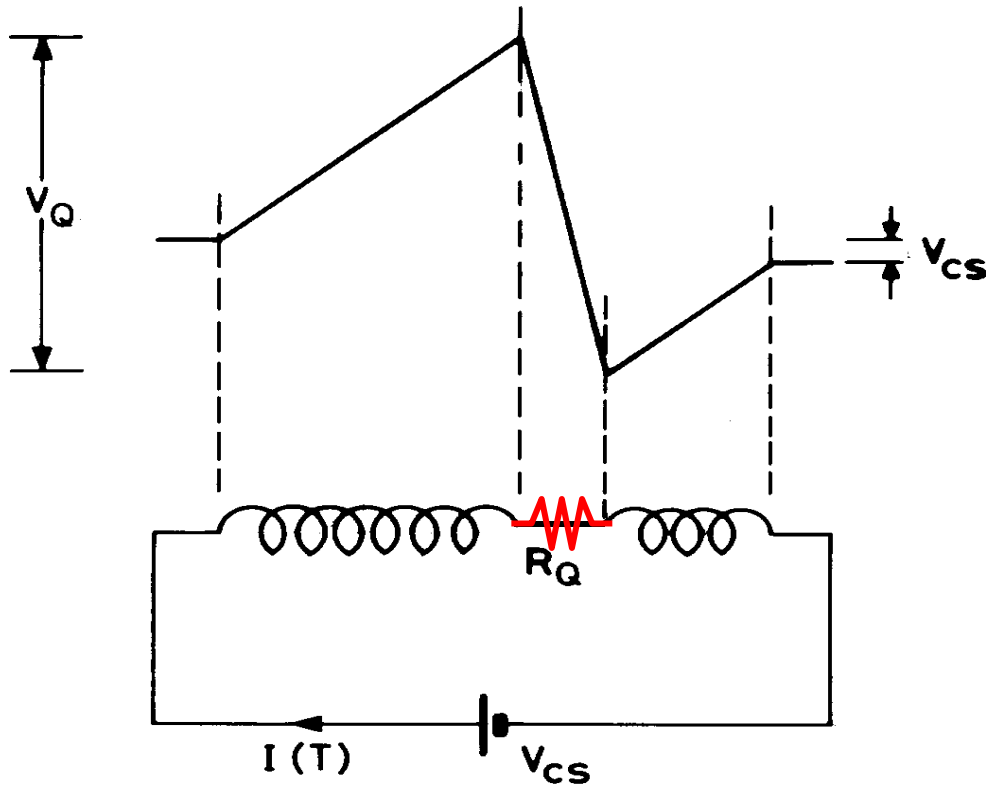
coils weigh 830 kg

equivalent to the kinetic energy of:-

**830kg travelling at 495km/hr**



# The quench process



- resistive region starts somewhere in the winding  
at a **point - this is the problem!**
- it grows by thermal conduction
- stored energy  $\frac{1}{2}LI^2$  of the magnet is dissipated as heat
- greatest integrated heat dissipation is at point where the quench starts
- internal voltages much greater than terminal voltage ( $= V_{cs}$  current supply)
- maximum temperature may be calculated from the current decay time via the  $U(\theta)$  function (adiabatic approximation)

# The temperature rise function $U(\theta)$

- Adiabatic approximation

$$J^2(T)\rho(\theta)dT = \gamma C(\theta)d\theta$$

$J(T)$  = overall current density,

$T$  = time,

$\rho(\theta)$  = overall resistivity,

$\gamma$  = density

$\theta$  = temperature,

$C(\theta)$  = specific heat,

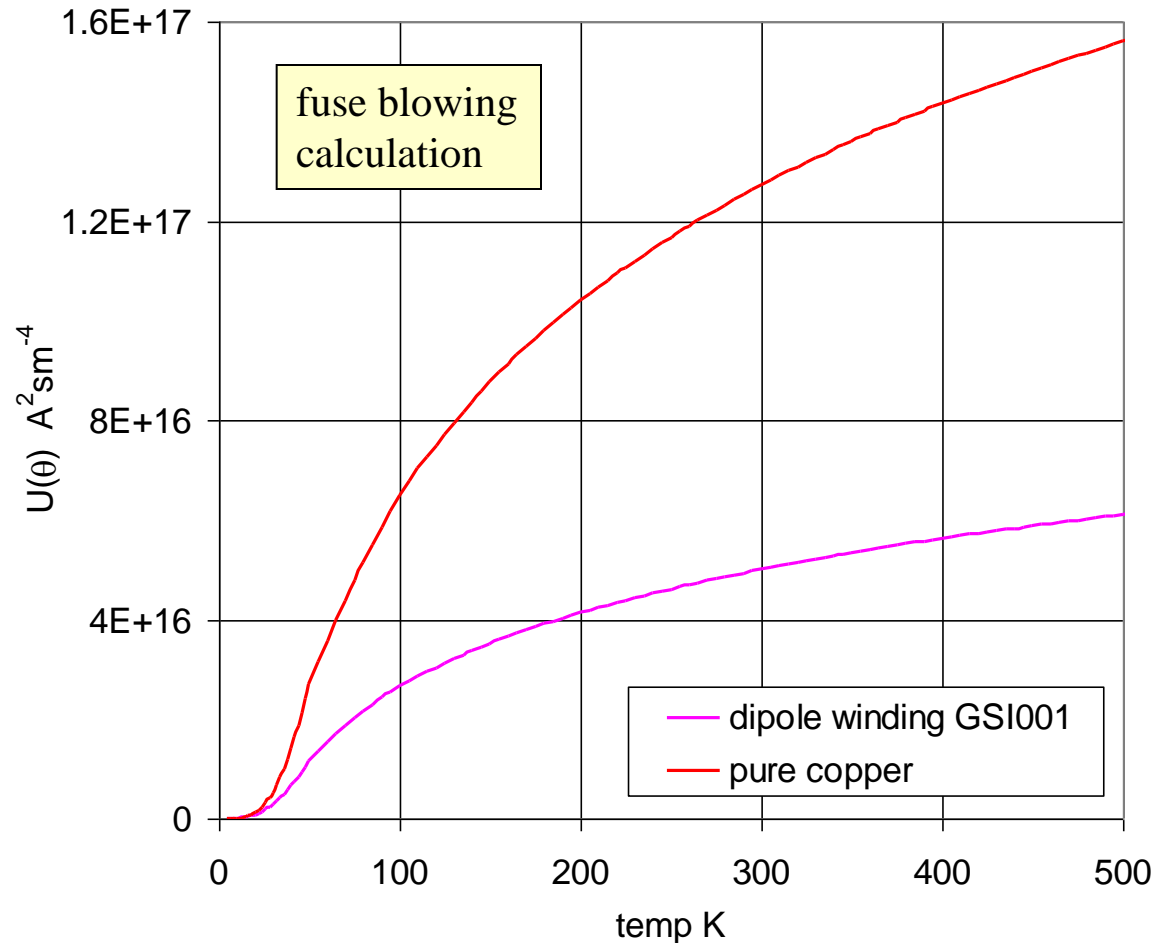
$T_Q$  = quench decay time.

$$\int_0^\infty J^2(T)dT = \int_{\theta_0}^{\theta_m} \frac{\gamma C(\theta)}{\rho(\theta)} d\theta$$

$$= U(\theta_m)$$

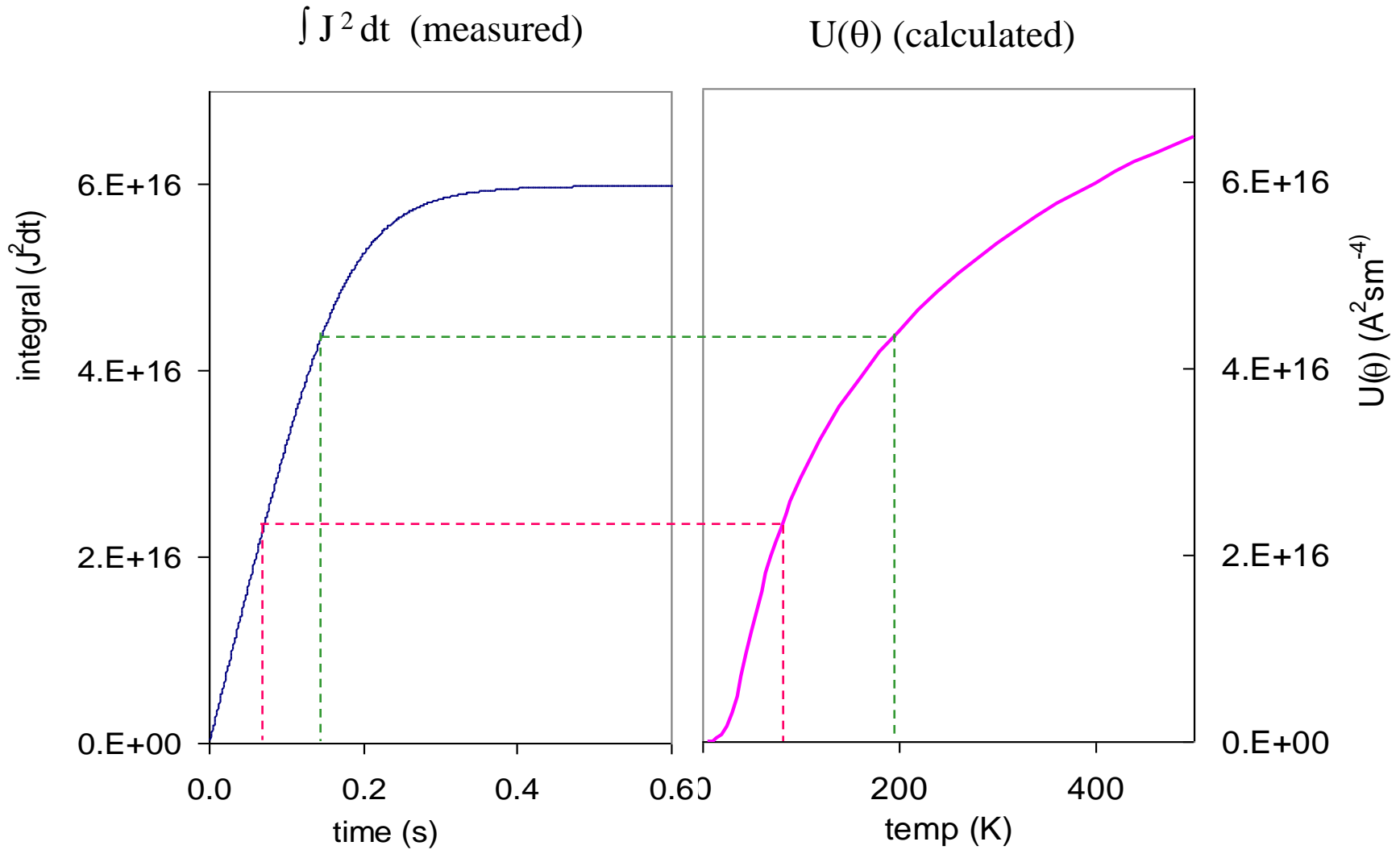
$$J_o^2 T_Q = U(\theta_m)$$

- GSI 001 dipole winding is  
50% copper, 22% NbTi,  
16% Kapton and 3% stainless steel
- NB always use **overall** current density

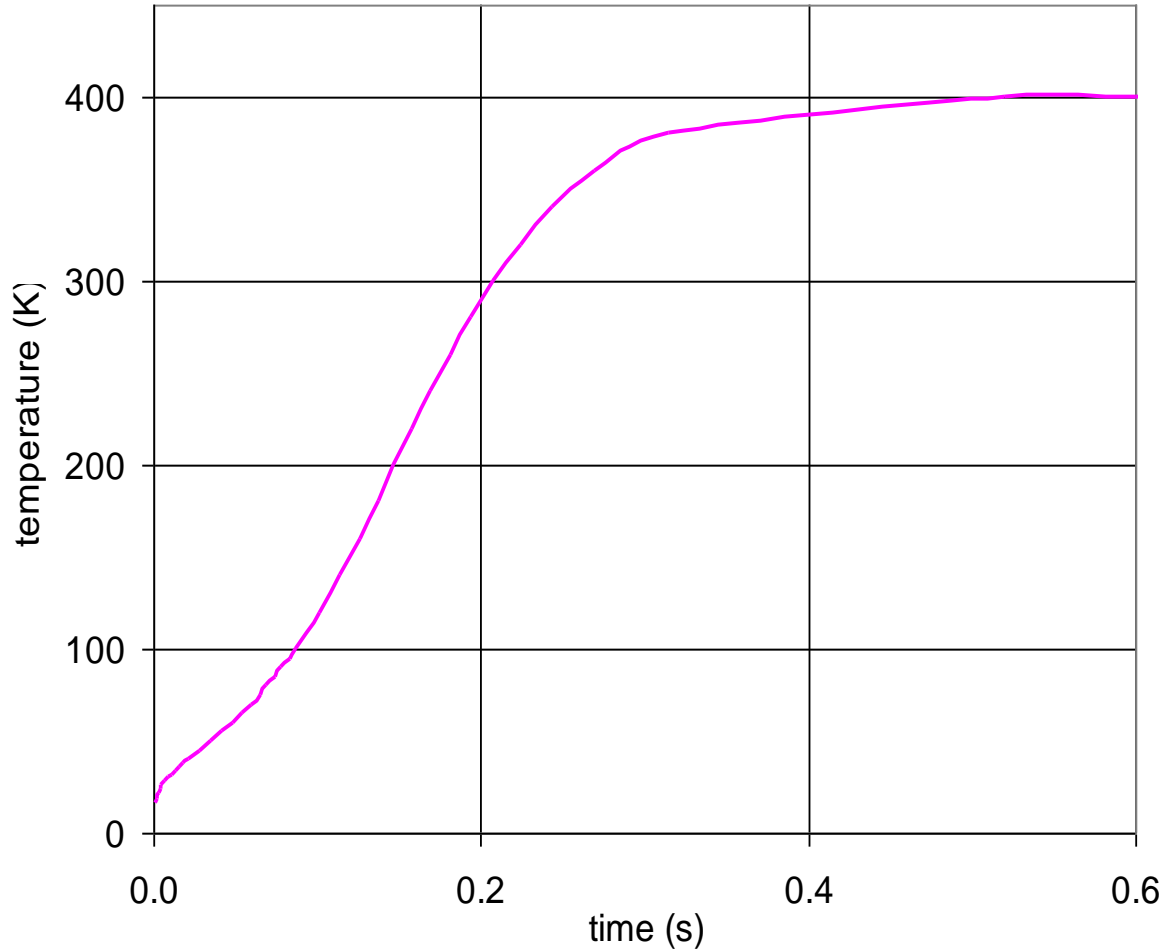


household fuse blows at 15A,  
area = 0.15mm<sup>2</sup>  $J = 100Amm^{-2}$   
NbTi in 5T  $J_c = 2500Amm^{-2}$

# Calculating temperature rise from the current decay

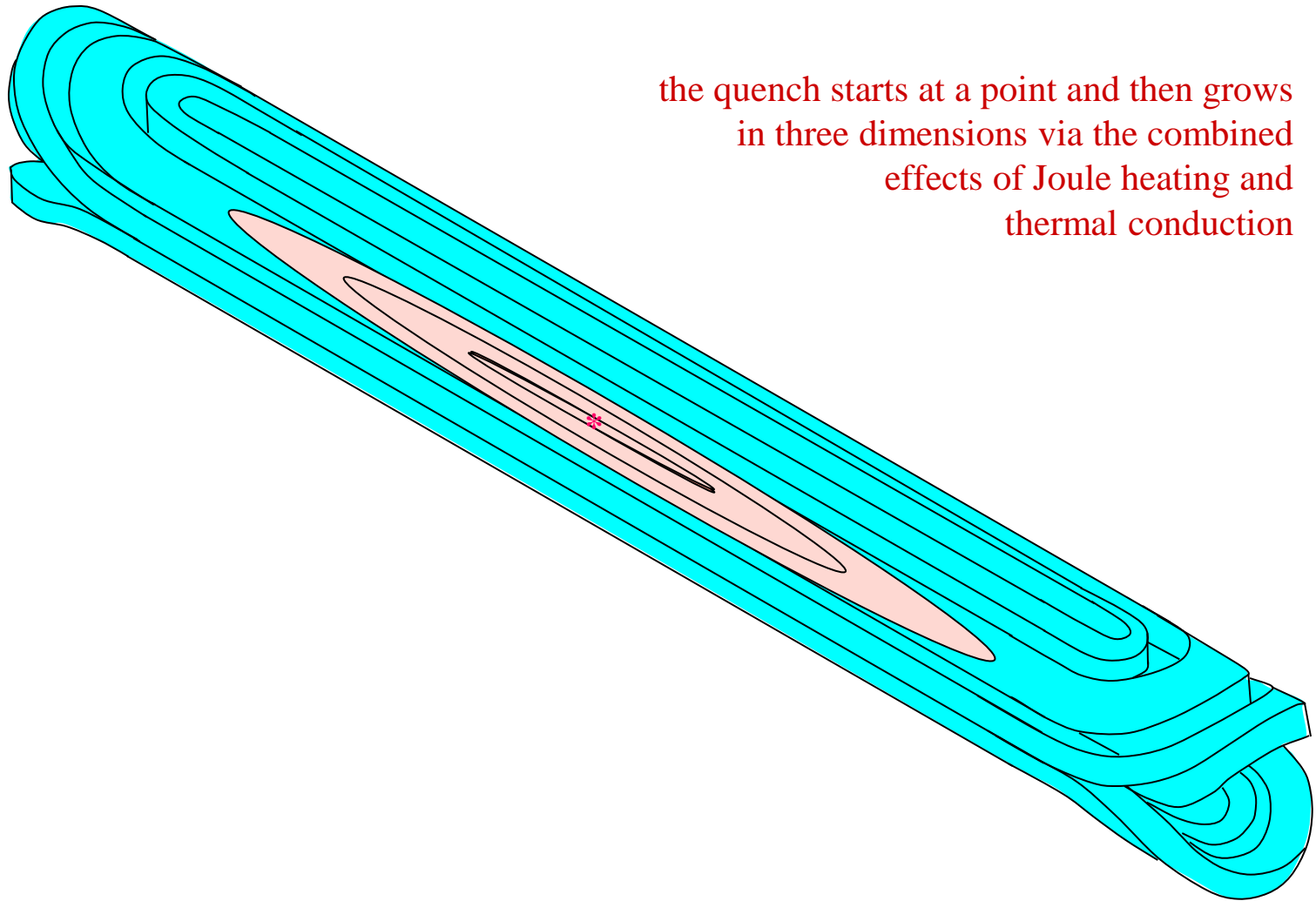


# Calculated temperature



- calculate the  $U(\theta)$  function from known materials properties
- measure the current decay profile
- calculate the maximum temperature rise at the point where quench starts
- we now know if the temperature rise is acceptable  
- but only after it has happened!
- need to calculate current decay curve before quenching

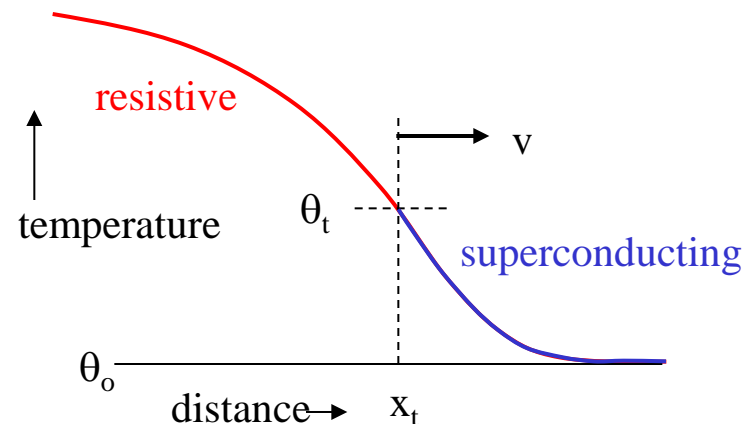
# *Growth of the resistive zone*



the quench starts at a point and then grows  
in three dimensions via the combined  
effects of Joule heating and  
thermal conduction

# Quench propagation velocity 1

- resistive zone starts at a point and spreads outwards
- the force driving it forward is the heat generation in the resistive zone, together with heat conduction along the wire
- write the heat conduction equations with resistive power generation  $J^2\rho$  per unit volume in left hand region and  $\rho = 0$  in right hand region.



$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( kA \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} \right) - \gamma CA \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} - hP(\theta - \theta_0) + J^2 \rho A = 0$$

where:  $k$  = thermal conductivity,  $A$  = area occupied by a single turn,  $\gamma$  = density,  $C$  = specific heat,  $h$  = heat transfer coefficient,  $P$  = cooled perimeter,  $\rho$  = resistivity,  $\theta_0$  = base temperature

**Note:** all parameters are averaged over  $A$  the cross section occupied by one turn

assume  $x_t$  moves to the right at velocity  $v$  and take a new coordinate  $\varepsilon = x - x_t = x - vt$

$$\frac{d^2 \theta}{d\varepsilon^2} + \frac{v\gamma C}{k} \frac{d\theta}{d\varepsilon} - \frac{hP}{kA} (\theta - \theta_0) + \frac{J^2 \rho}{k} = 0$$



# Quench propagation velocity 2

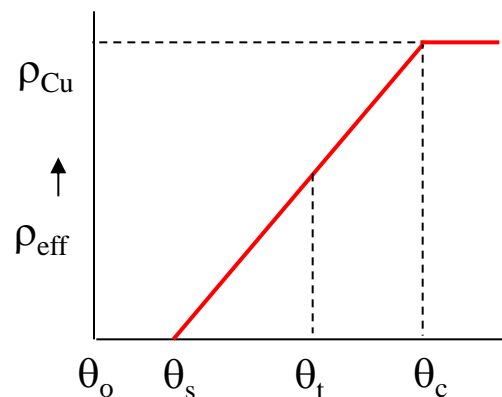
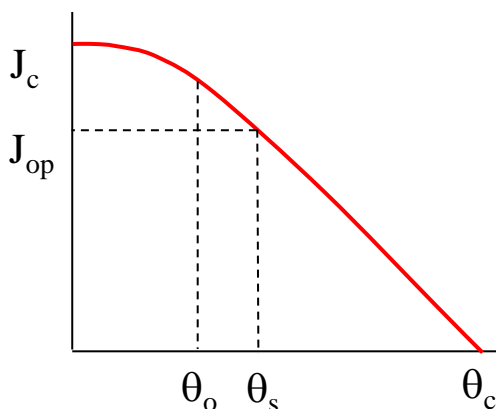
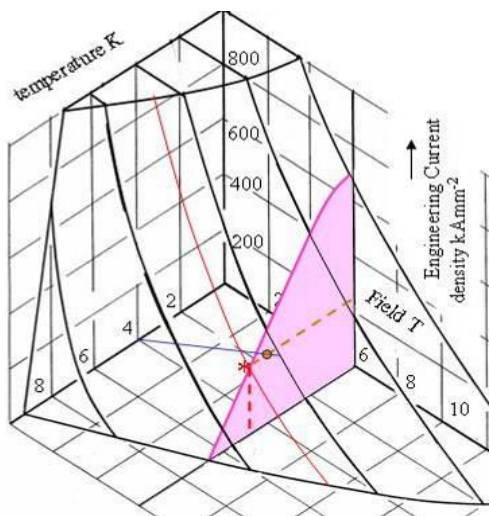
when  $h = 0$ , the solution for  $\theta$  which gives a continuous join between left and right sides at  $\theta_t$  gives the **adiabatic propagation velocity**

$$v_{ad} = \frac{J}{\gamma C} \left\{ \frac{\rho k}{\theta_t - \theta_0} \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{J}{\gamma C} \left\{ \frac{L_o \theta_t}{\theta_t - \theta_0} \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

recap Wiedemann Franz Law  $\rho(\theta).k(\theta) = L_o\theta$

## what to say about $\theta_t$ ?

- in a single superconductor it is just  $\theta_c$
- but in a practical filamentary composite wire the current transfers progressively to the copper
  - current sharing temperature  $\theta_s = \theta_o + margin$
  - zero current in copper below  $\theta_s$  all current in copper above  $\theta_s$
  - take a mean transition temperature  $\theta_s = (\theta_s + \theta_c) / 2$



# Quench propagation velocity 3

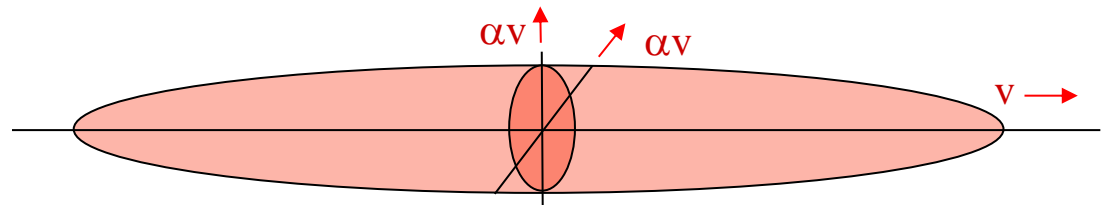
the resistive zone also propagates sideways through the inter-turn insulation (much more slowly)  
calculation is similar and the velocity ratio  $\alpha$  is:

$$\alpha = \frac{v_{trans}}{v_{long}} = \left\{ \frac{k_{trans}}{k_{long}} \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

## Typical values

$$v_{ad} = 5 - 20 \text{ ms}^{-1} \quad \alpha = 0.01 - 0.03$$

so the resistive zone advances in the form of an ellipsoid, with its long dimension along the wire



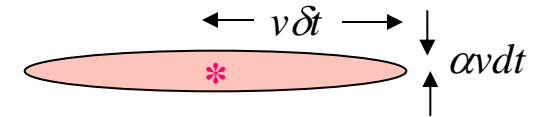
## Some corrections for a better approximation

- because  $C$  varies so strongly with temperature, it is better to calculate an averaged  $C$  from the enthalpy change
- heat diffuses slowly into the insulation, so its heat capacity should be excluded from the averaged heat capacity when calculating longitudinal velocity - but not transverse velocity
- if the winding is porous to liquid helium (usual in accelerator magnets) need to include a time dependent heat transfer term
- can approximate all the above, but for a really good answer must solve (numerically) the three dimensional heat diffusion equation or, even better, measure it!

$$C_{av}(\theta_g, \theta_c) = \frac{H(\theta_c) - H(\theta_g)}{(\theta_c - \theta_g)}$$

# Resistance growth and current decay - numerical

start resistive zone 1



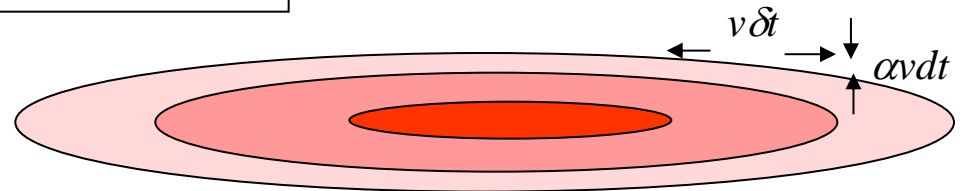
in time  $\delta t$  zone 1 grows  $v \cdot dt$  longitudinally and  $\alpha \cdot v \cdot dt$  transversely

temperature of zone grows by  $\delta\theta_1 = J^2 \rho(\theta_1) \delta\tau / \gamma C(\theta_1)$

resistivity of zone 1 is  $\rho(\theta_1)$

calculate resistance and hence current decay  $\delta I = R / L \cdot \delta t$

in time  $\delta t$  add zone n:  
 $v \cdot \delta t$  longitudinal and  $\alpha \cdot v \cdot \delta t$  transverse



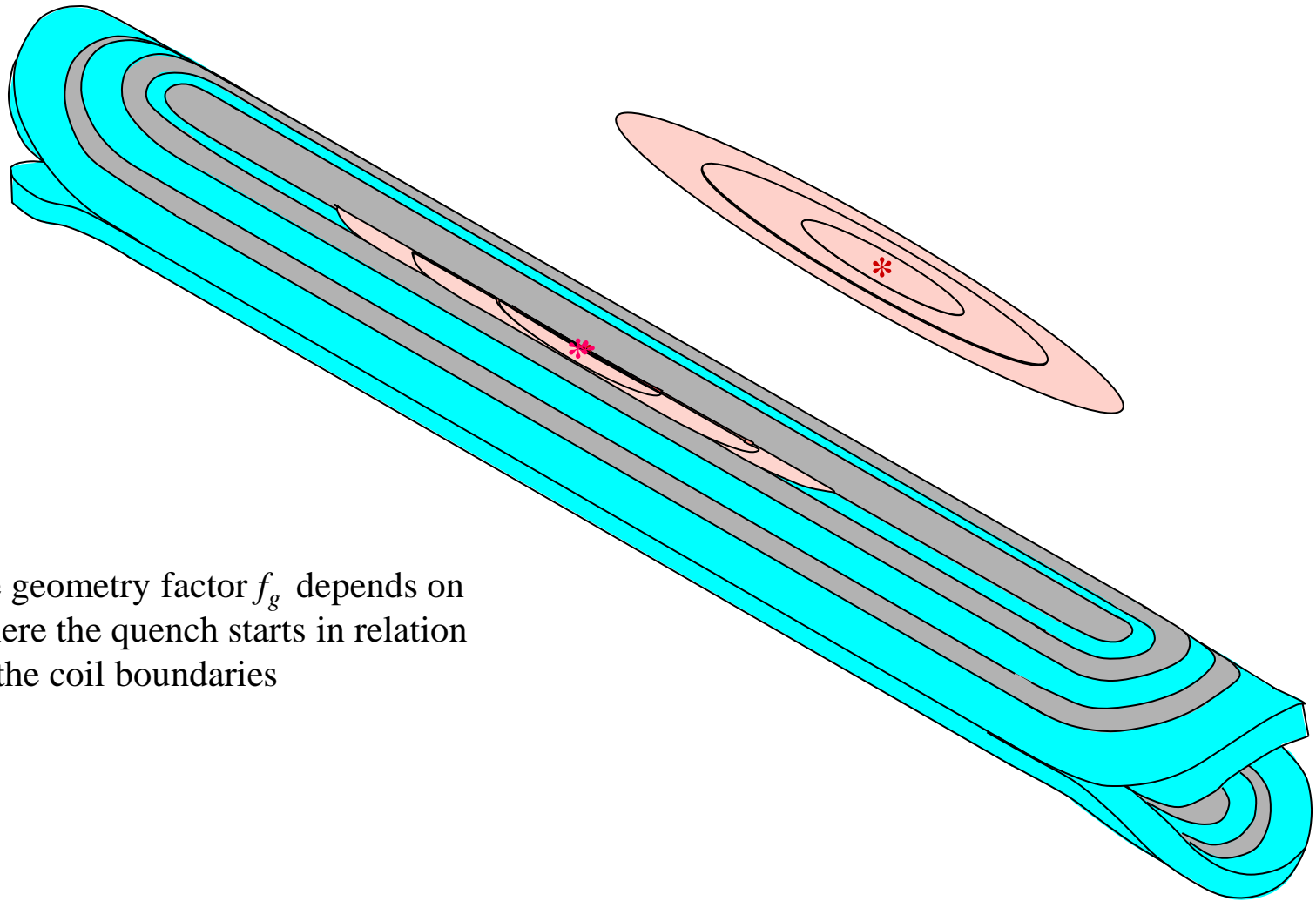
temperature of each zone grows by  $\delta\theta_1 = J^2 \rho(\theta_1) \delta t / \gamma C(\theta_1)$   $\delta\theta_2 = J^2 \rho(\theta_2) \delta t / \gamma C(\theta_2)$   $\delta\theta_n = J^2 \rho(\theta_n) \delta t / \gamma C(\theta_n)$

resistivity of each zone is  $\rho(\theta_1)$   $\rho(\theta_2)$   $\rho(\theta_n)$  resistance  $r_1 = \rho(\theta_1) * f_{g1}$  (geom factor)  $r_2 = \rho(\theta_2) * f_{g2}$   $r_n = \rho(\theta_n) * f_{gn}$

calculate total resistance  $R = \sum r_1 + r_2 + r_{n..}$  and hence current decay  $\delta I = (IR/L) \delta t$

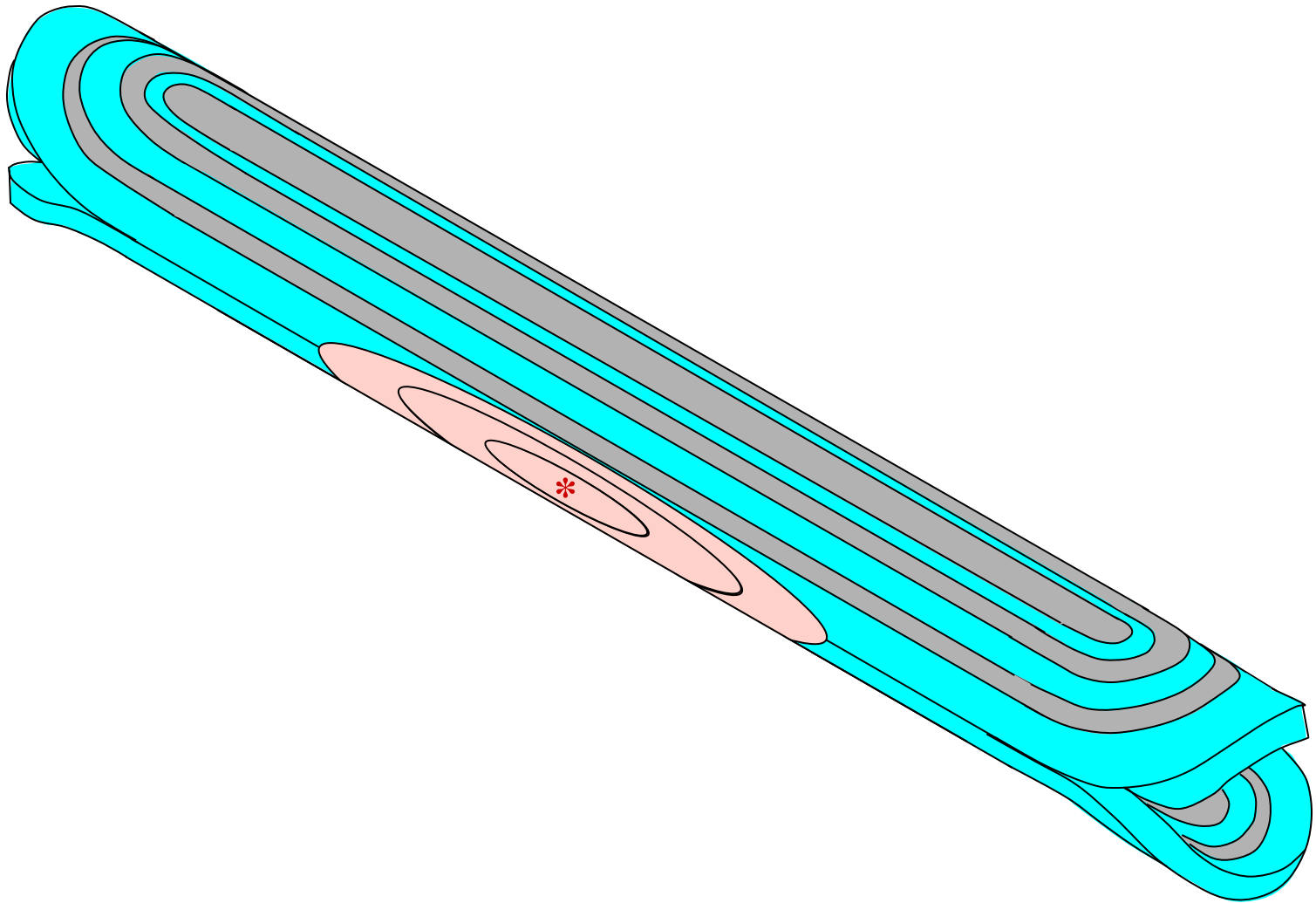
when  $I \Rightarrow 0$  stop

# Quench starts in the pole region

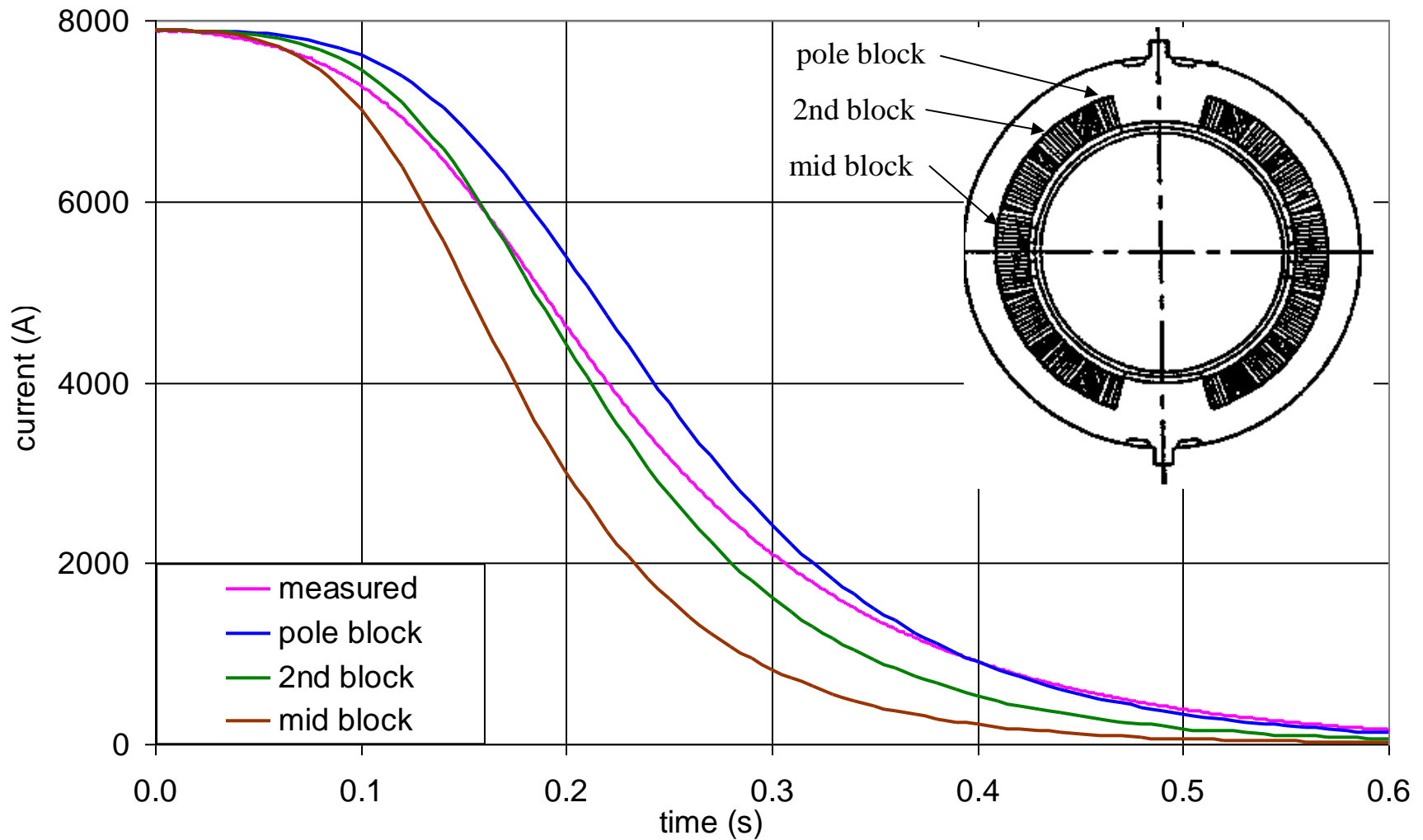


the geometry factor  $f_g$  depends on where the quench starts in relation to the coil boundaries

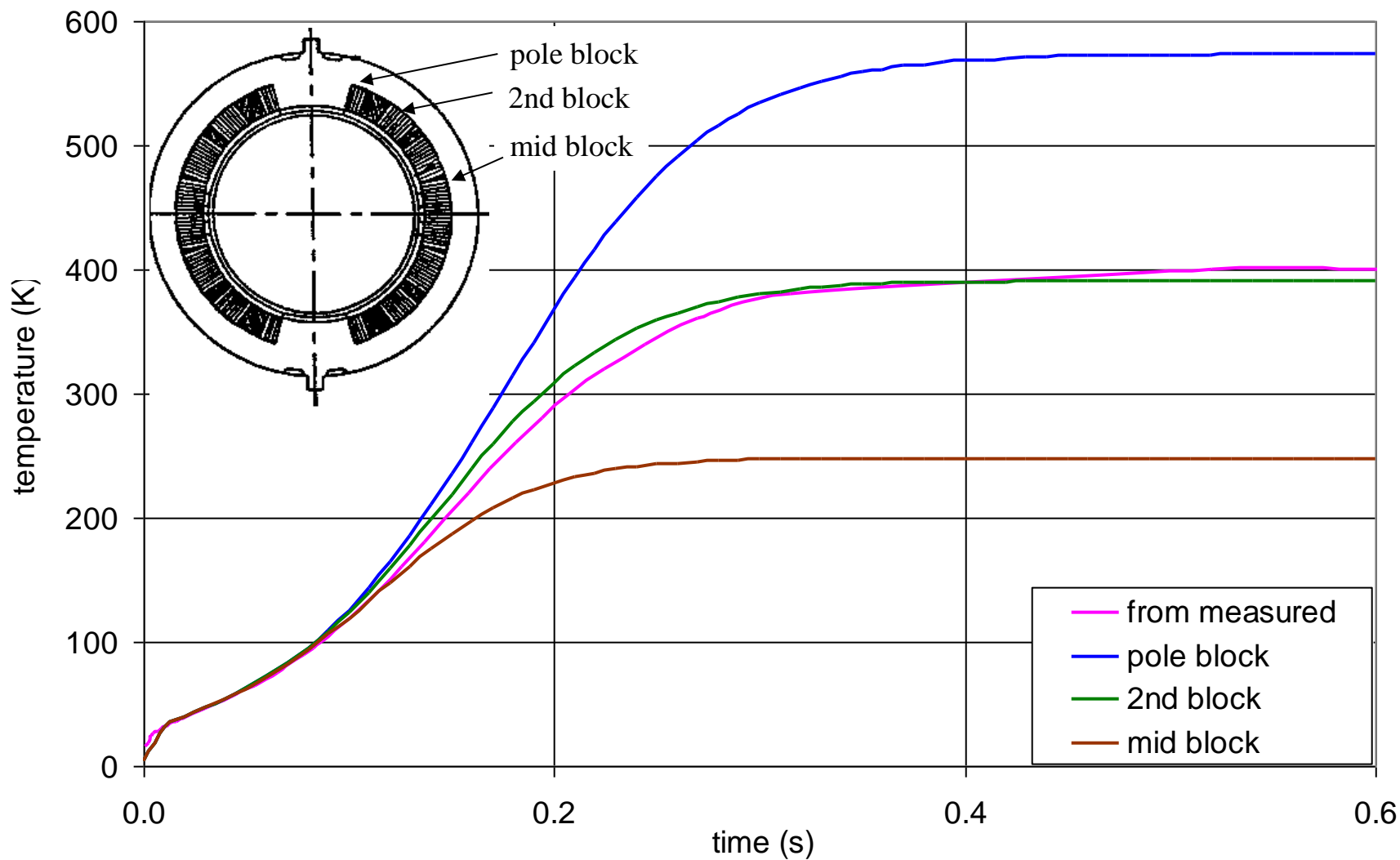
# *Quench starts in the mid plane*



# Computer simulation of quench (dipole GSI001)

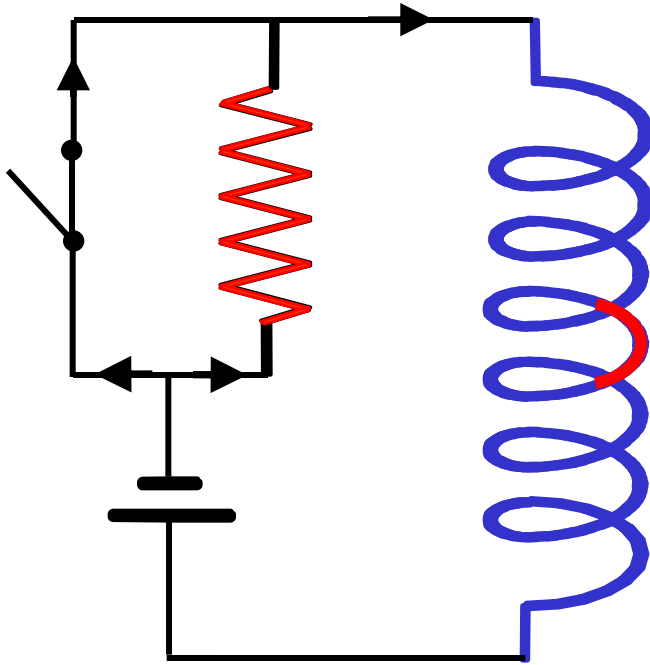


# Computer simulation of quench temperature rise



# Methods of quench protection:

## 1) external dump resistor



- detect the quench electronically
- open an external circuit breaker
- force the current to decay with a time constant

$$I = I_o e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} \quad \text{where} \quad \tau = \frac{L}{R_p}$$

- calculate  $\theta_{\max}$  from

$$\int J^2 dt = J_o^2 \frac{\tau}{2} = U(\theta_m)$$

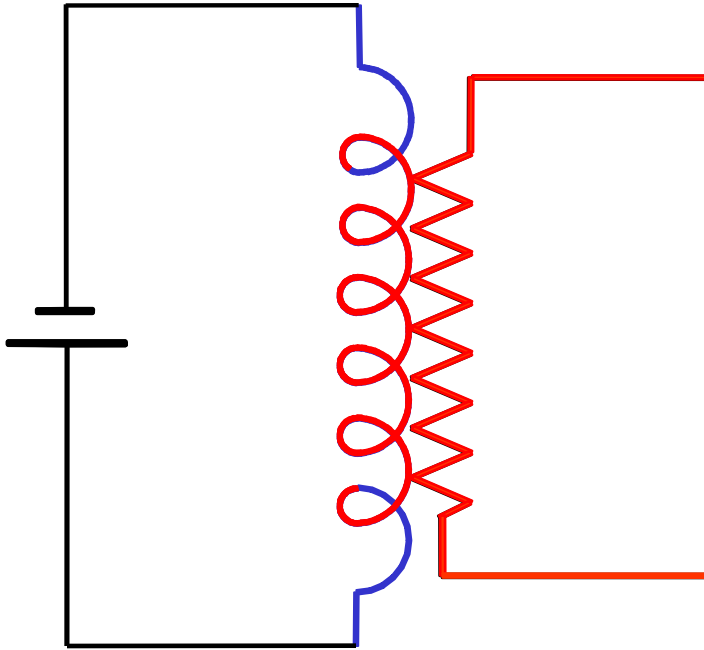
$$T_Q = \frac{\tau}{2}$$

*Note: circuit breaker must be able to open at full current against a voltage  $V = I.R_p$  (expensive)*



# Methods of quench protection:

## 2) quench back heater



- detect the quench electronically
- power a heater in good thermal contact with the winding
- this quenches other regions of the magnet, effectively forcing the normal zone to grow more rapidly
  - ⇒ higher resistance
  - ⇒ shorter decay time
  - ⇒ lower temperature rise at the hot spot

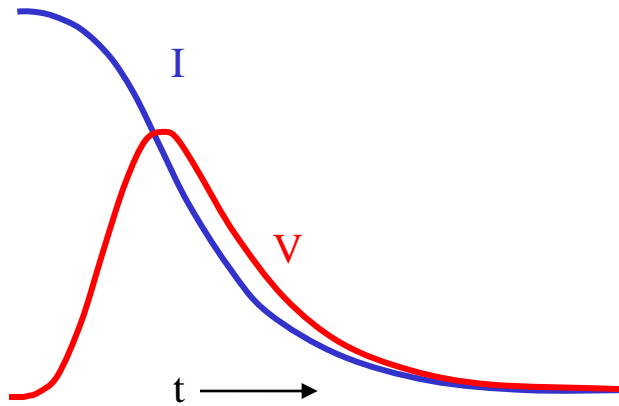
*Note: usually pulse the heater by a capacitor, the high voltages involved raise a conflict between:-*

- *good thermal contact*
- *good electrical insulation*

*method most commonly used in accelerator magnets ✓*

# Methods of quench protection:

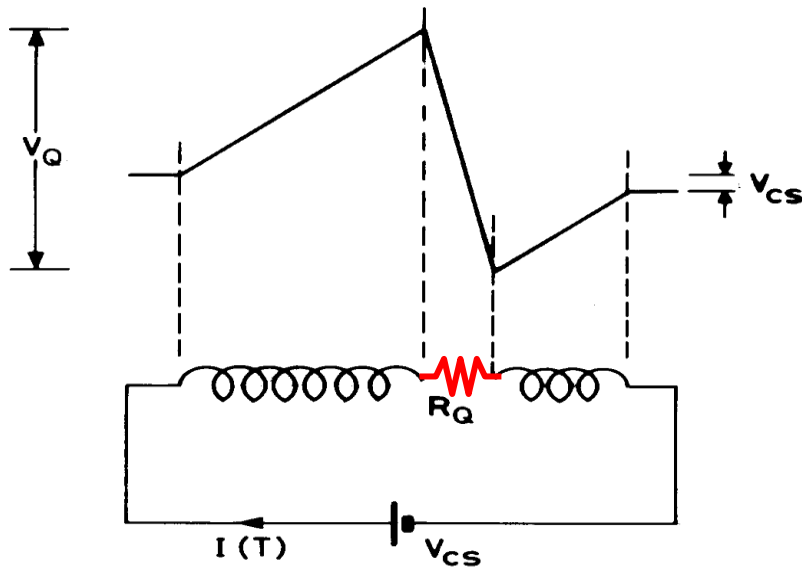
## 3) quench detection (a)



internal voltage after quench

$$V = IR_Q = -L \frac{dI}{dt} + V_{cs}$$

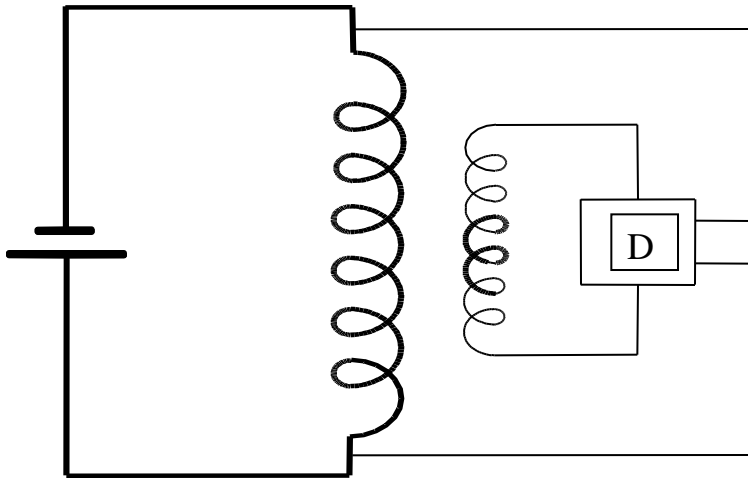
- not much happens in the early stages - small  $dI/dt \Rightarrow$  small  $V$
- but important to act soon if we are to reduce  $T_Q$  significantly
- so must detect small voltage
- superconducting magnets have large inductance  $\Rightarrow$  large voltages during charging
- detector must reject  $V = L dI/dt$  and pick up  $V = IR$
- detector must also withstand high voltage - **as must the insulation**



# Methods of quench protection:

## 3) quench detection (6)

### i) Mutual inductance



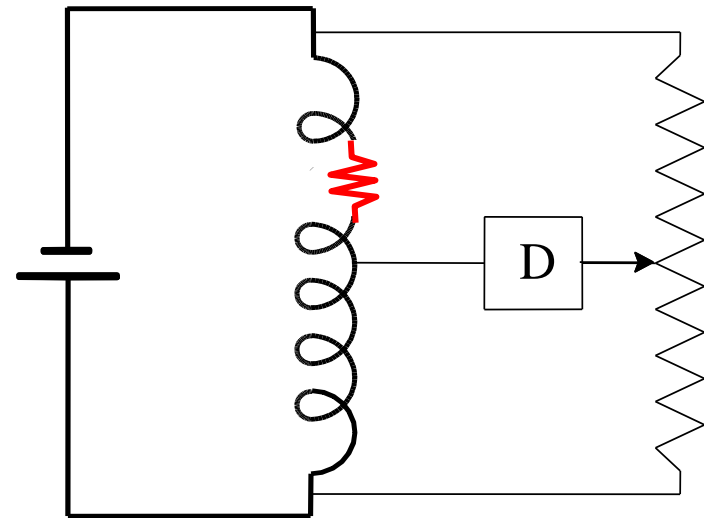
detector subtracts voltages to give

$$V = L \frac{di}{dt} + IR_Q - M \frac{di}{dt}$$

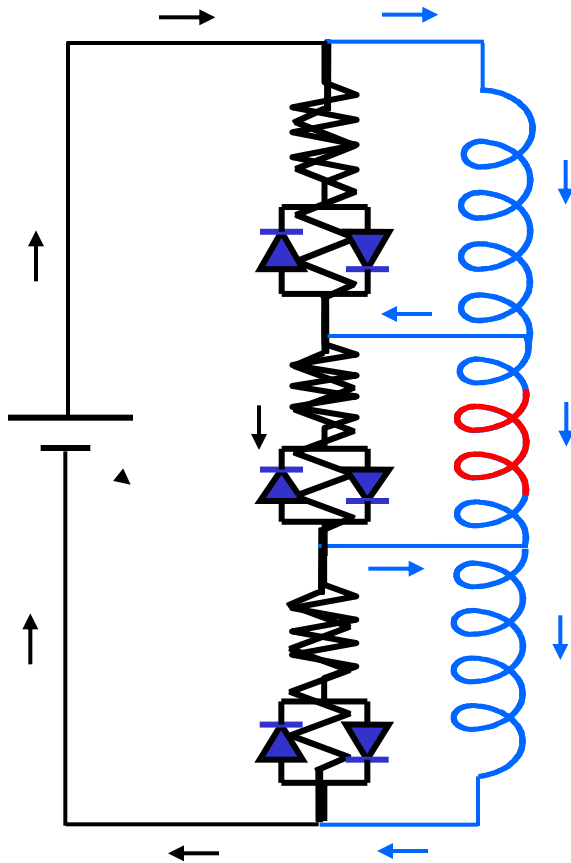
- adjust detector to effectively make  $L = M$
- $M$  can be a toroid linking the current supply bus, but must be linear - no iron!

### ii) Balanced potentiometer

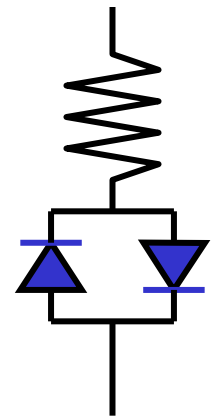
- adjust for balance when not quenched
- unbalance of resistive zone seen as voltage across detector D
- if you worry about symmetrical quenches connect a second detector at a different point



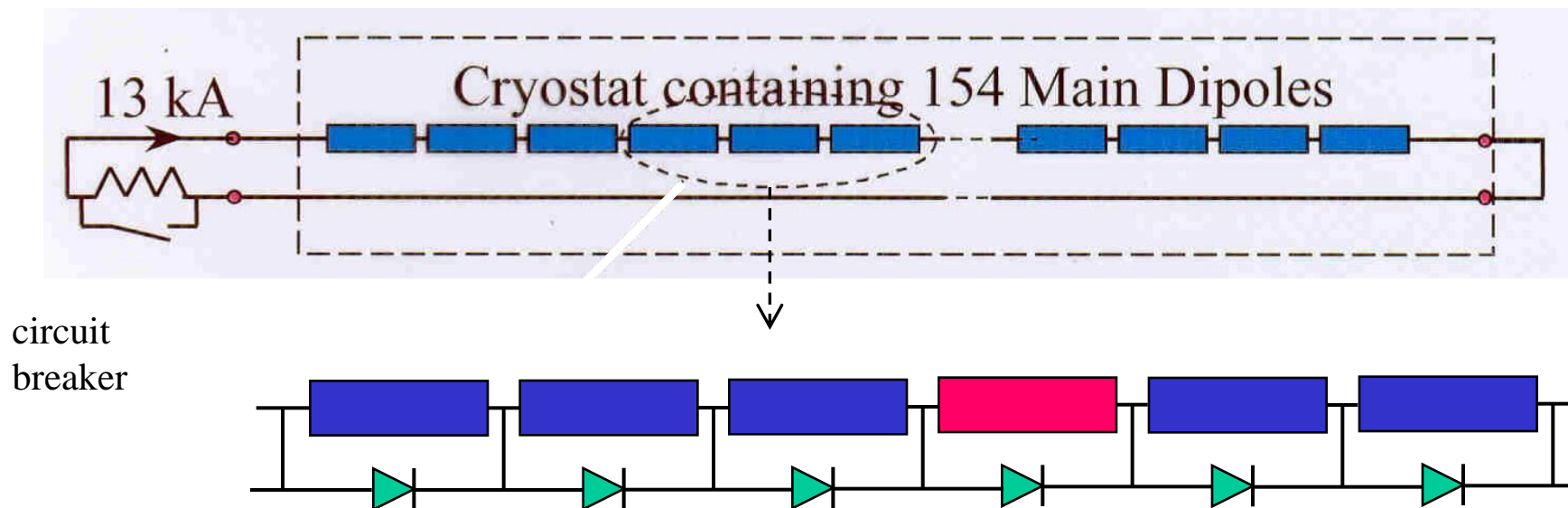
# Methods of quench protection: 4) Subdivision



- resistor chain across magnet - cold in cryostat
- current from rest of magnet can by-pass the resistive section
- effective inductance of the quenched section is reduced
  - ⇒ reduced decay time
  - ⇒ reduced temperature rise
- current in rest of magnet increased by mutual inductance
  - ⇒ quench initiation in other regions
- often use cold diodes to avoid shunting magnet when charging it
- diodes only conduct (forwards) when voltage rises to quench levels
- connect diodes 'back to back' so they can conduct (above threshold) in either direction



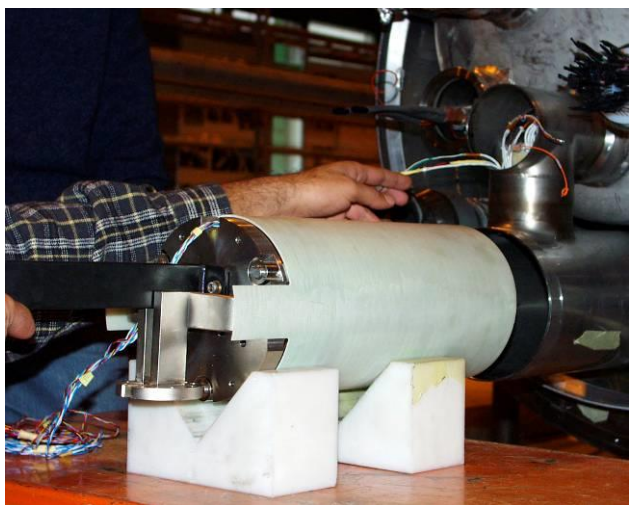
# *LHC power supply circuit for one octant*



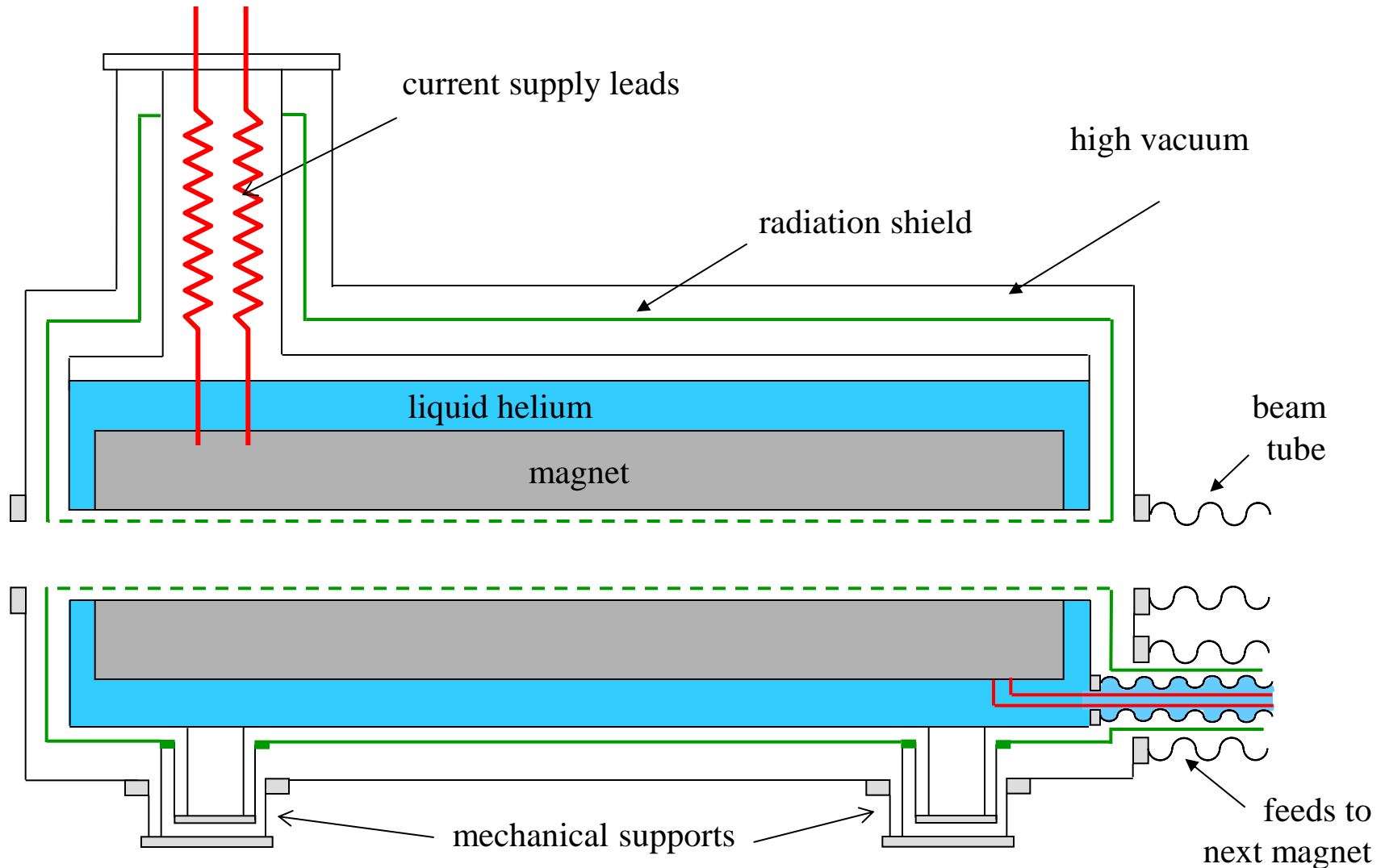
- diodes allow the octant current to by-pass the magnet which has quenched
- circuit breaker reduces to octant current to zero with a time constant of 100 sec
- initial voltage across breaker = 2000V
- stored energy of the octant = 1.33GJ

# *Diodes to by-pass the main ring current*

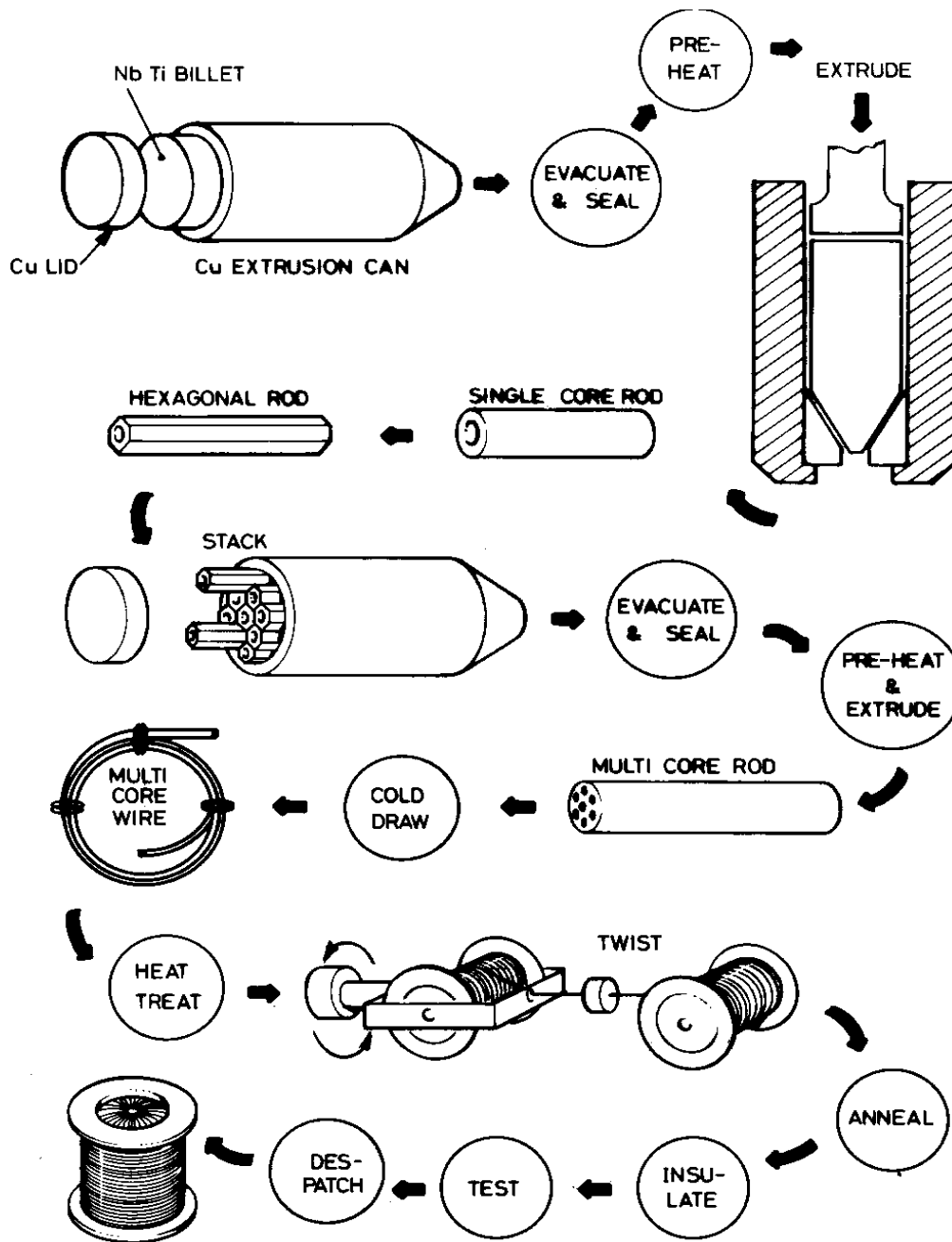
Installing the cold diode package on the end of an LHC dipole



# Cryostat essentials



# Manufacture of NbTi



- vacuum melting of NbTi billets
- hot extrusion of copper NbTi composite
- sequence of cold drawing and intermediate heat treatments to precipitate  $\alpha$ Ti phases as flux pinning centres
- for very fine filaments, must avoid the formation of brittle CuTi intermetallic compounds during heat treatment
  - usually done by enclosing the NbTi in a thin Nb shell
- twisting to avoid coupling - recap lecture 2



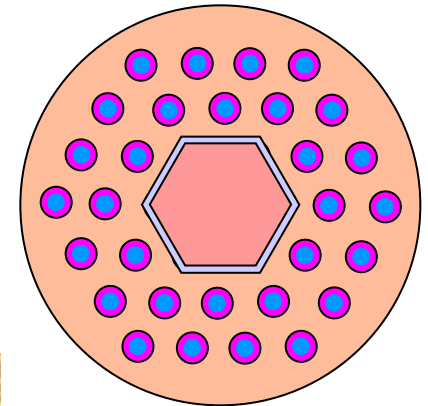
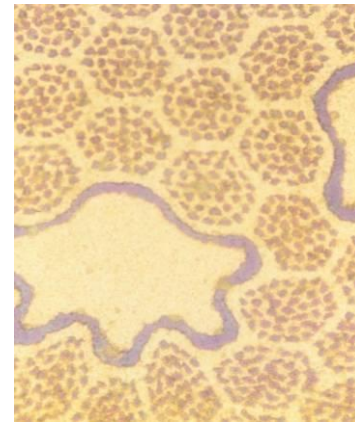
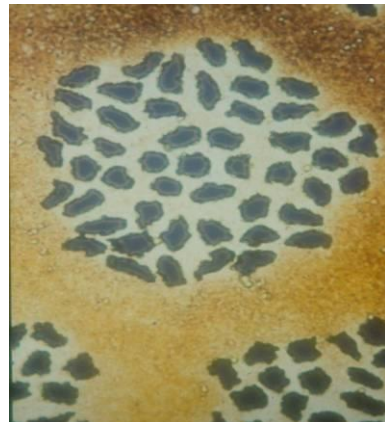
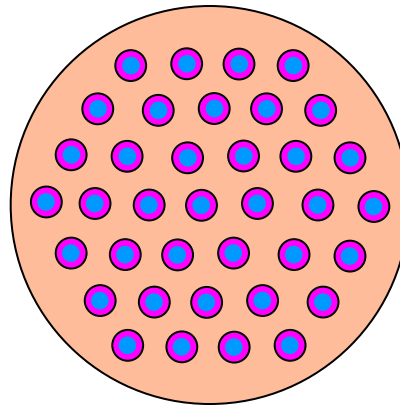
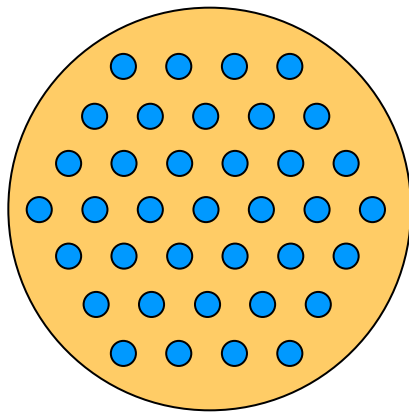
# Manufacture of filamentary $Nb_3Sn$ wire

Because  $Nb_3Sn$  is a brittle material, it cannot be drawn down in final form.

Instead we must draw down pure niobium in a matrix of bronze (copper tin)

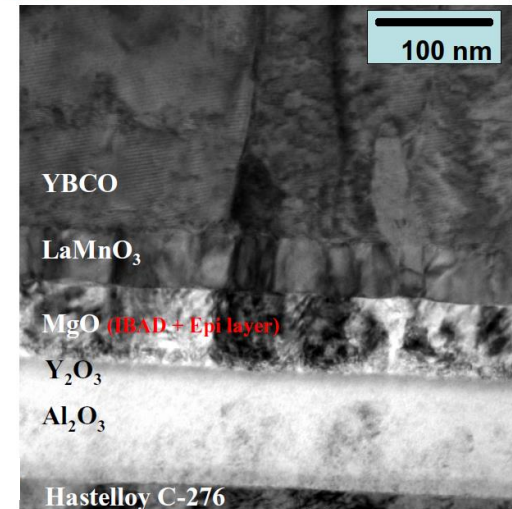
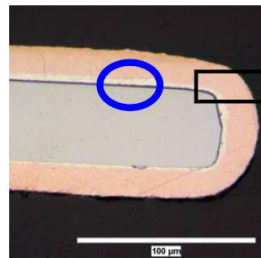
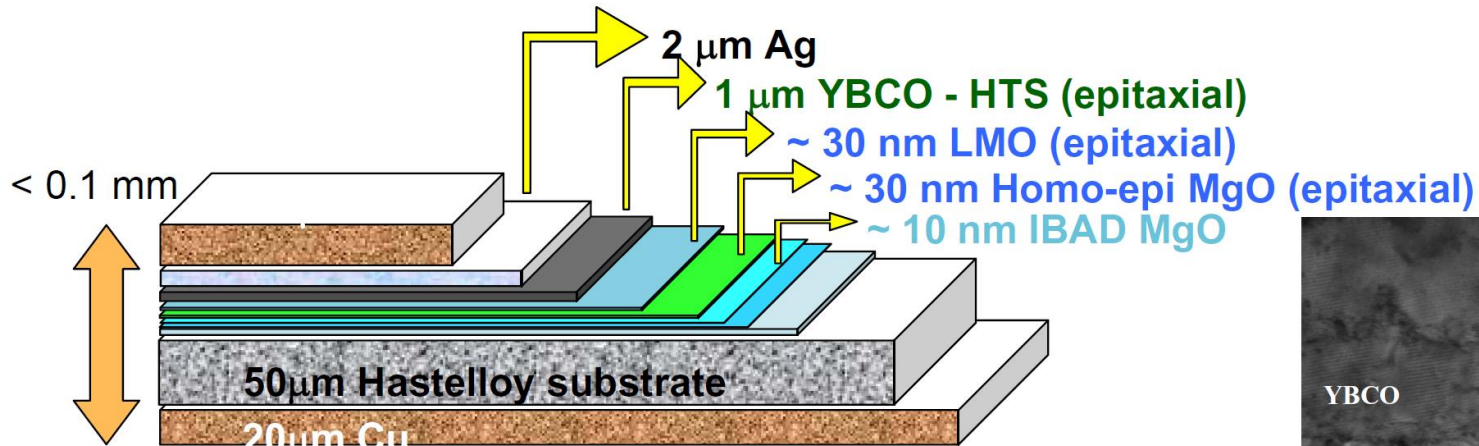
At final size the wire is heated ( $\sim 700C$  for some days) tin diffuses through the Cu and reacts with the Nb to form  $Nb_3Sn$

Unfortunately the remaining copper still contains some tin and has a high resistivity. We therefore include 'islands' of pure copper surrounded by a diffusion barrier

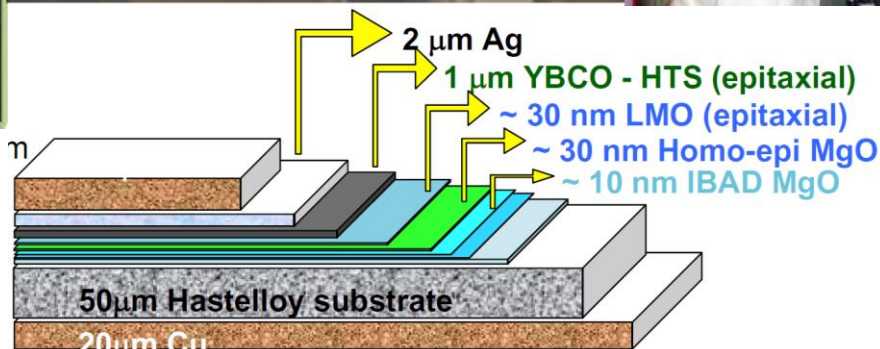


# Coated YBCO tape

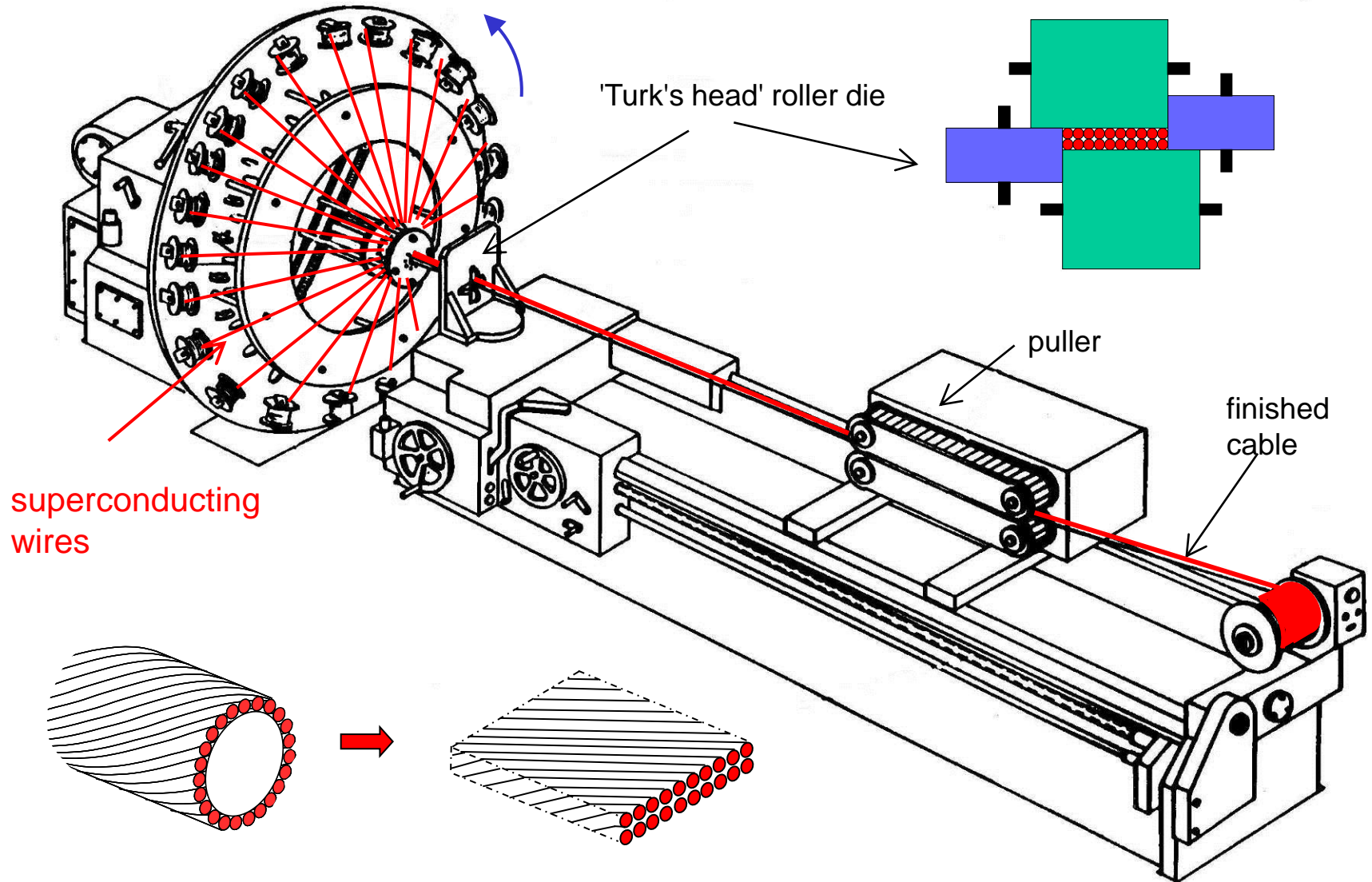
- YBCO has the best irreversibility field, but it is very sensitive to grain boundary misalignment
- the grains do not line up naturally - they must be persuaded
- deposit YBCO on a substrate where the grains are aligned and the lattice roughly matches YBCO



# YBCO coated tape at



# Manufacture of Rutherford cable



# Winding the LHC dipoles

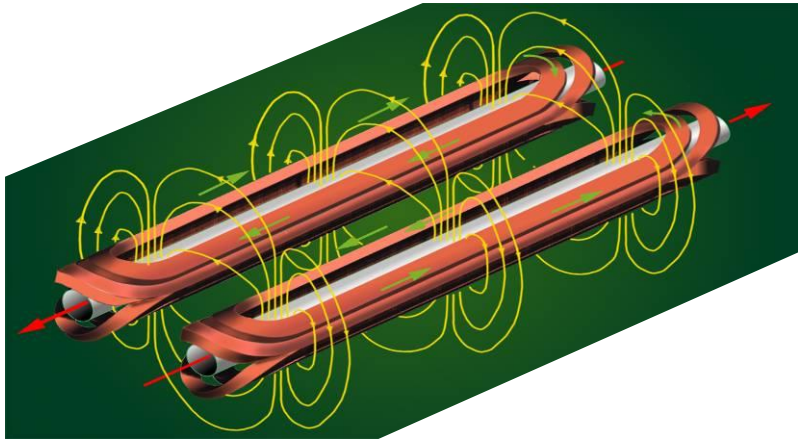
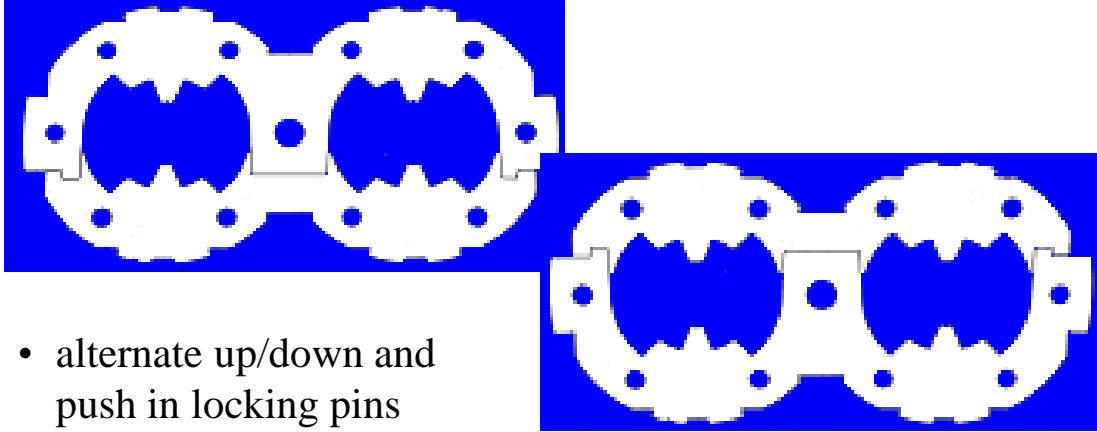


photo courtesy of Babcock Noell

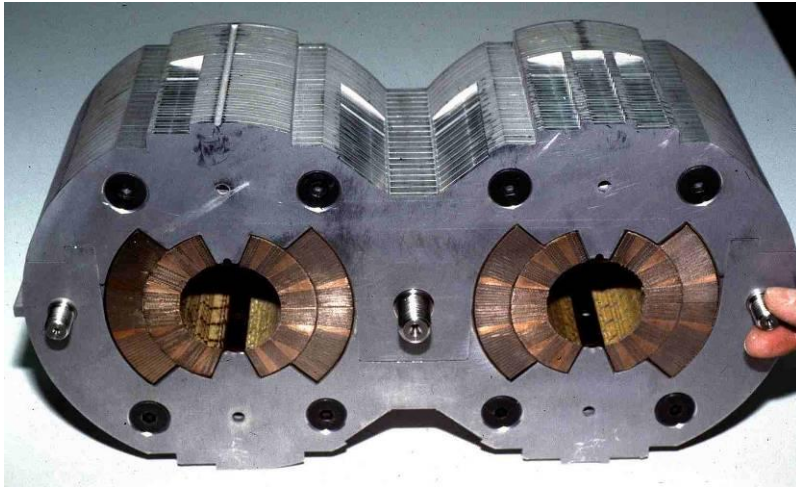
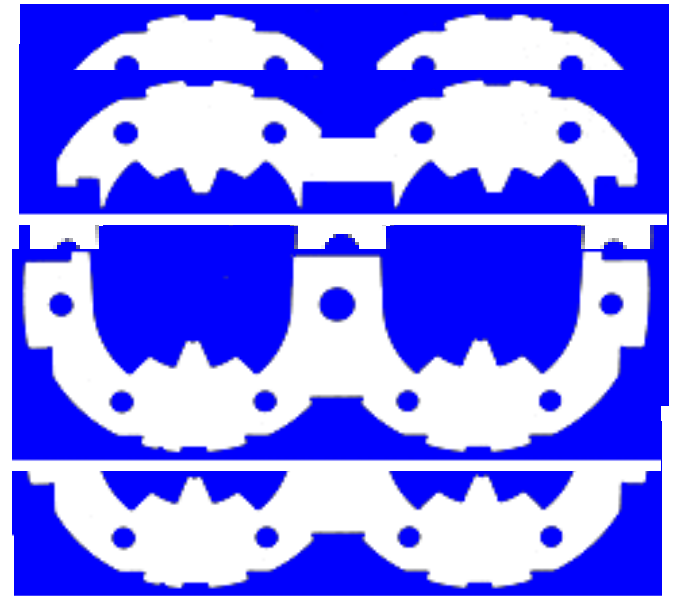


# Collars to support magnetic forces

- field quality depends on coil shape - define accurately
- collars stamped from stainless steel plate a few mm thick

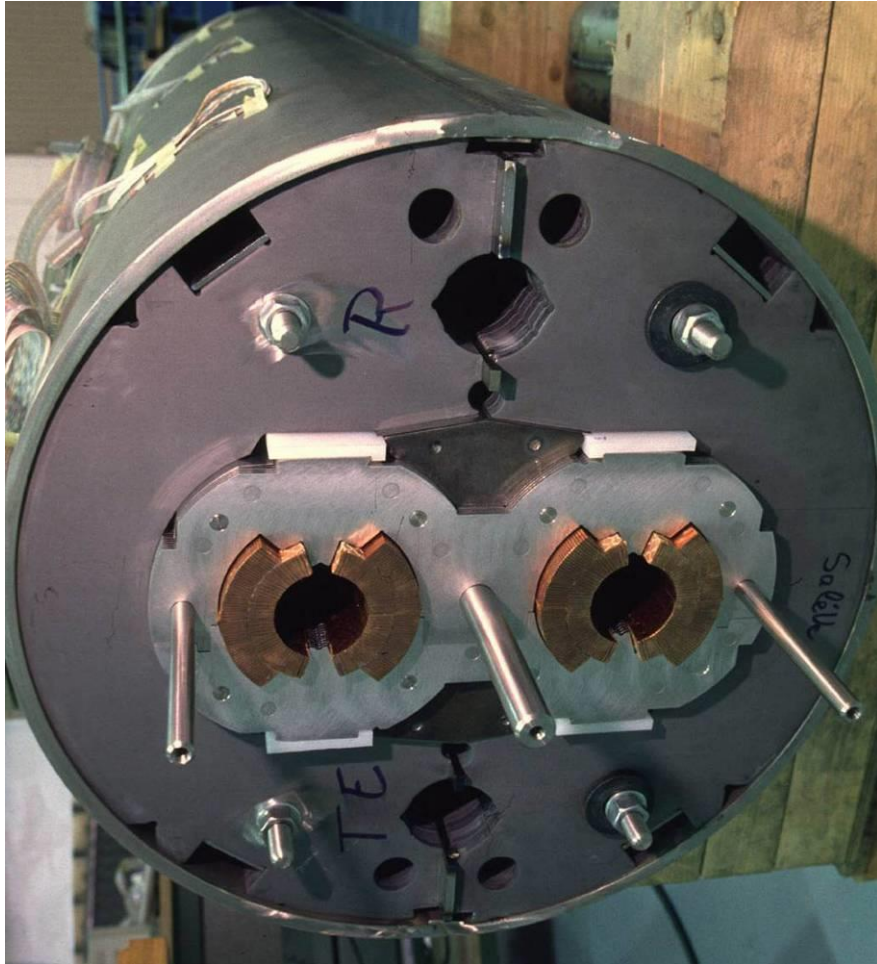


- alternate up/down and push in locking pins



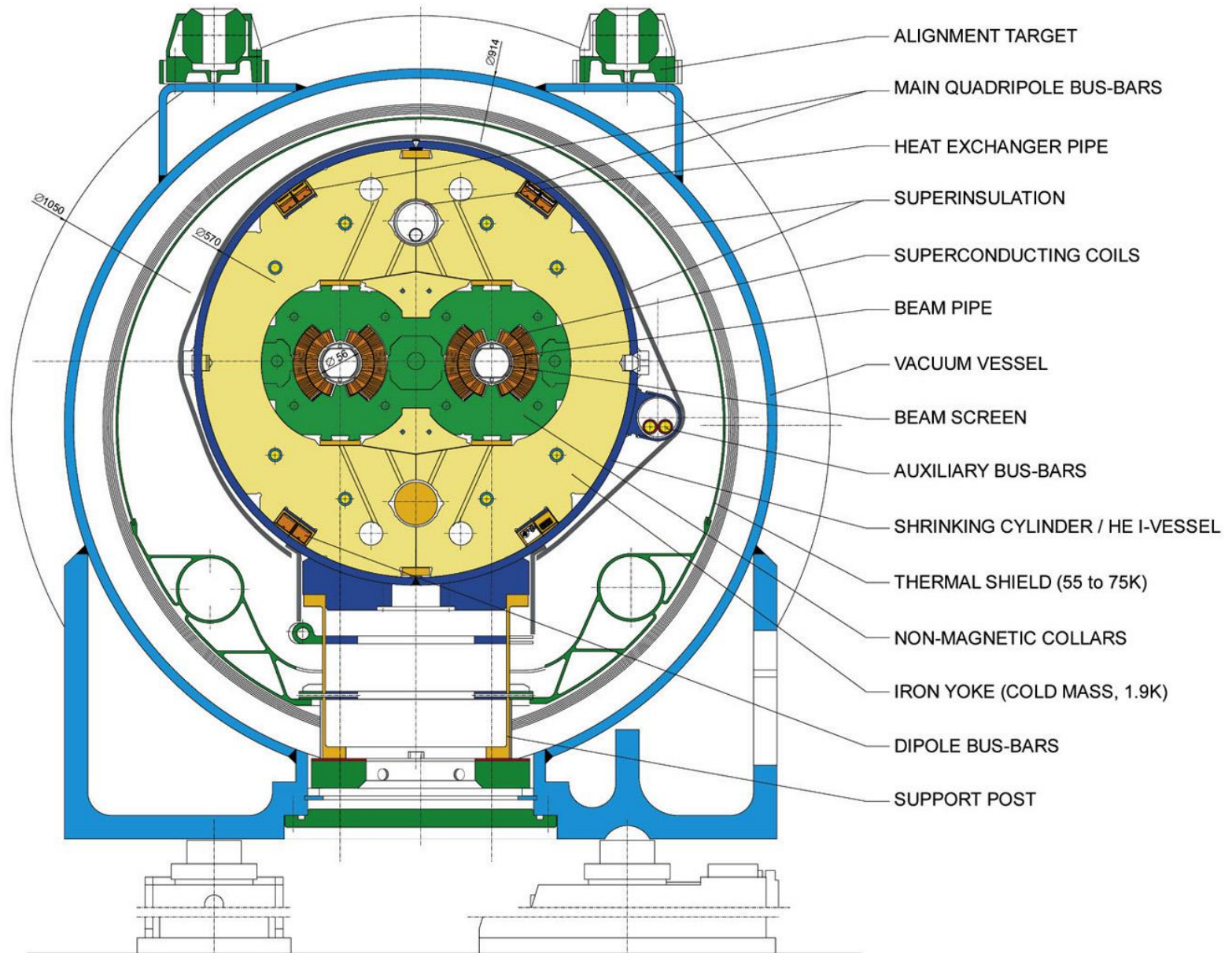
# *Adding the iron*

enclosed and compressed by the  
stainless steel helium vessel



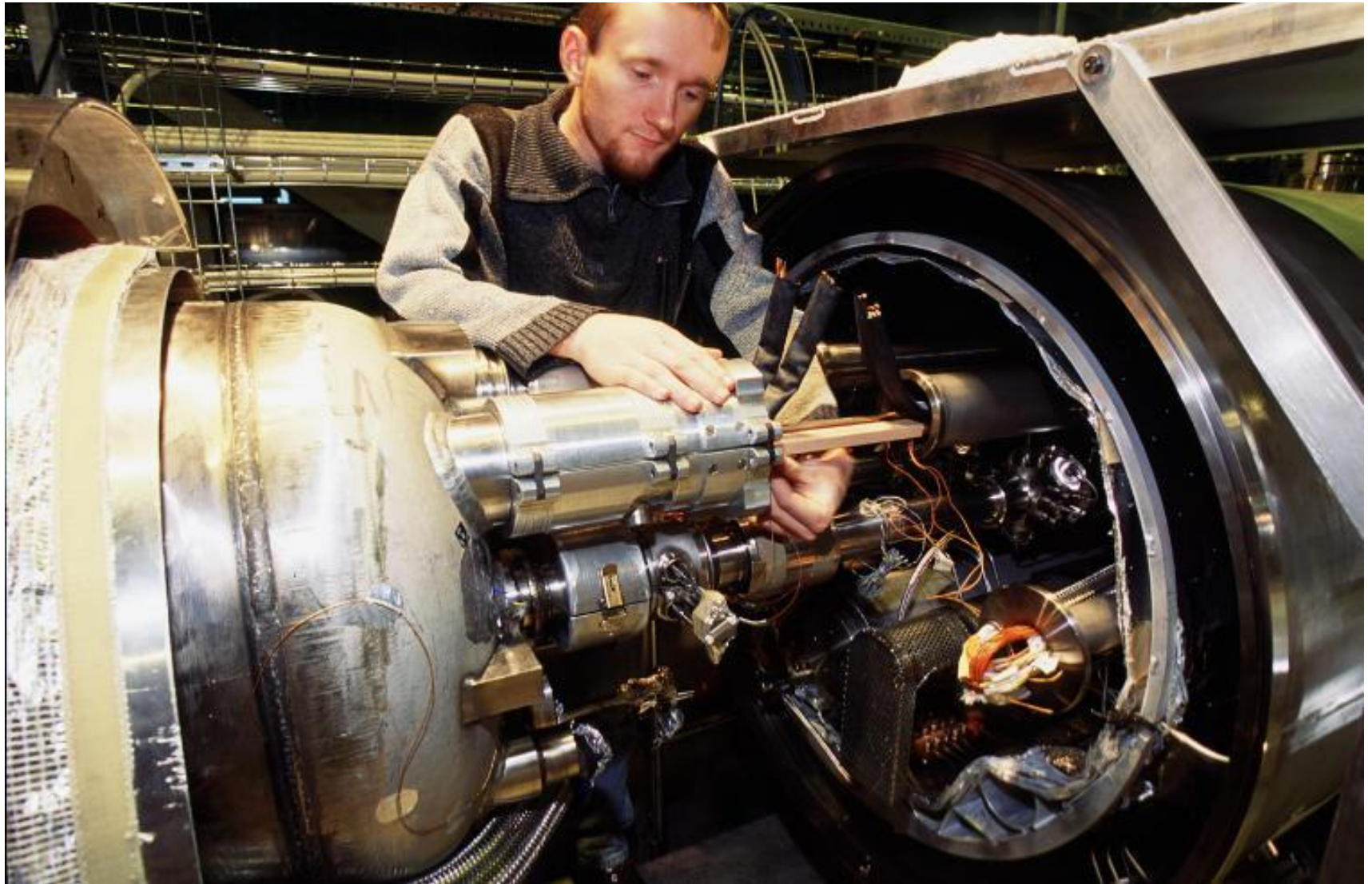
# LHC DIPOLE : STANDARD CROSS-SECTION

CERN AC/DI/MM - HE107 - 30 04 1999

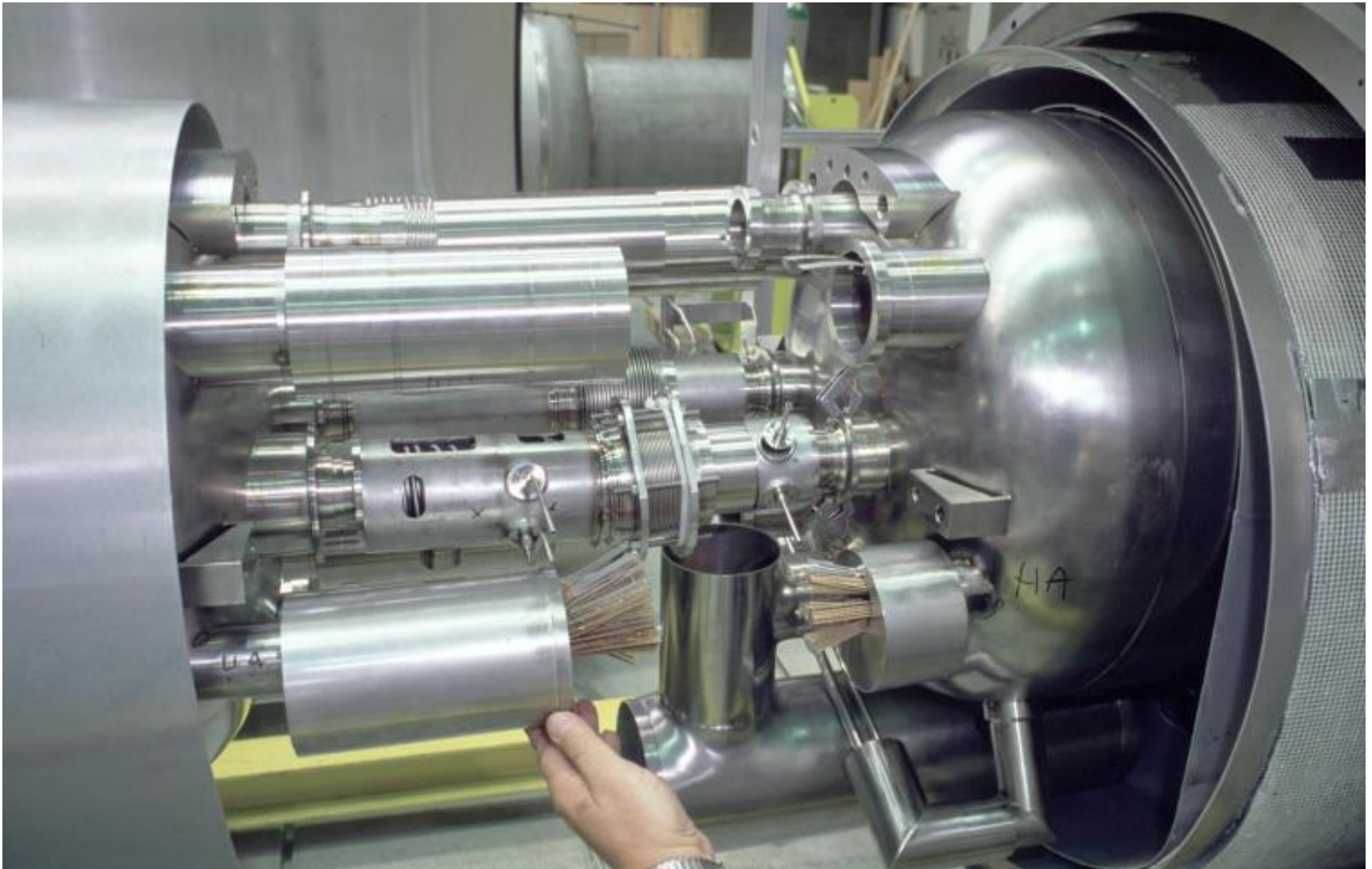




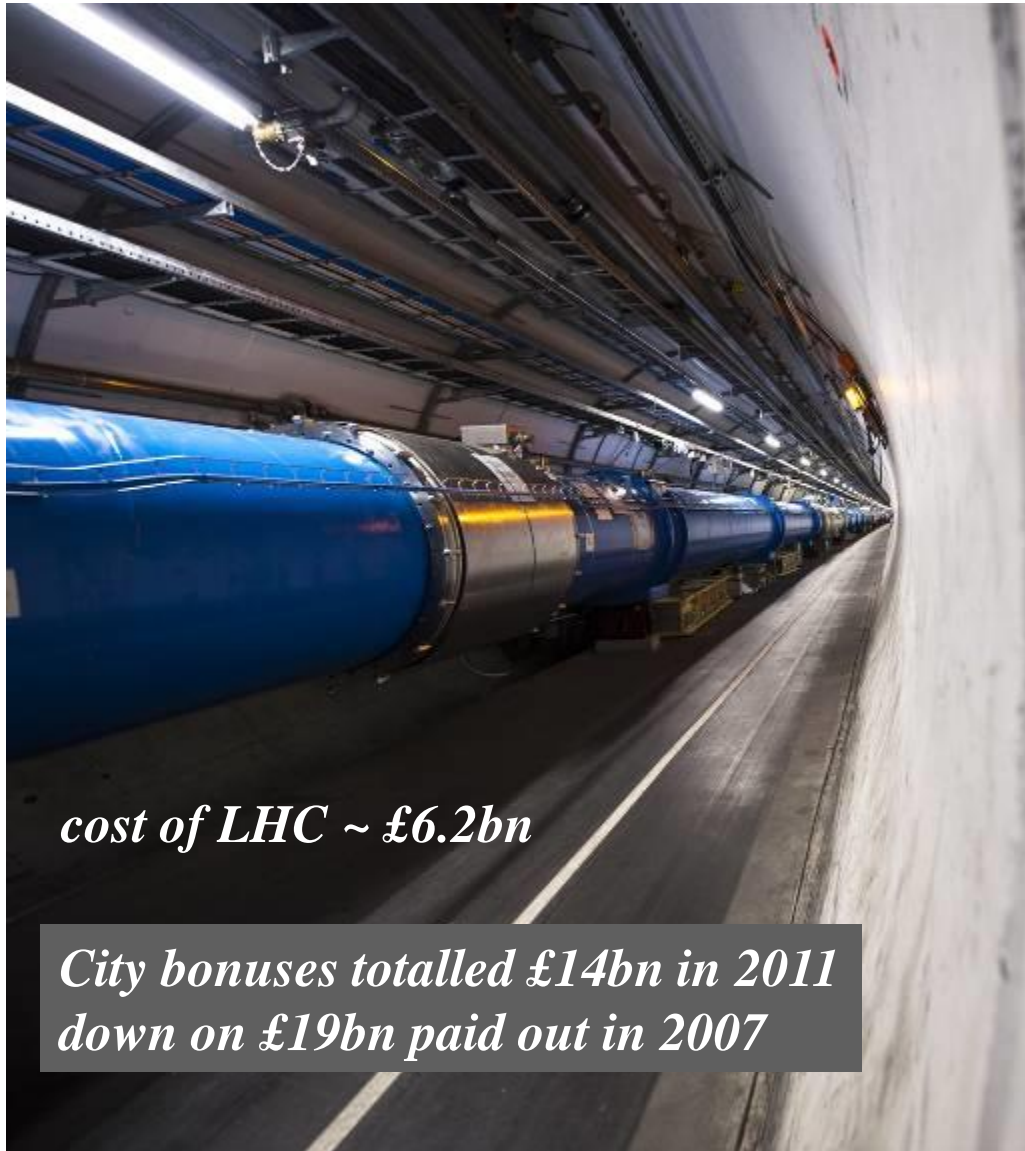
# *Make the interconnections - electrical*



# *Make interconnections - cryogenic*

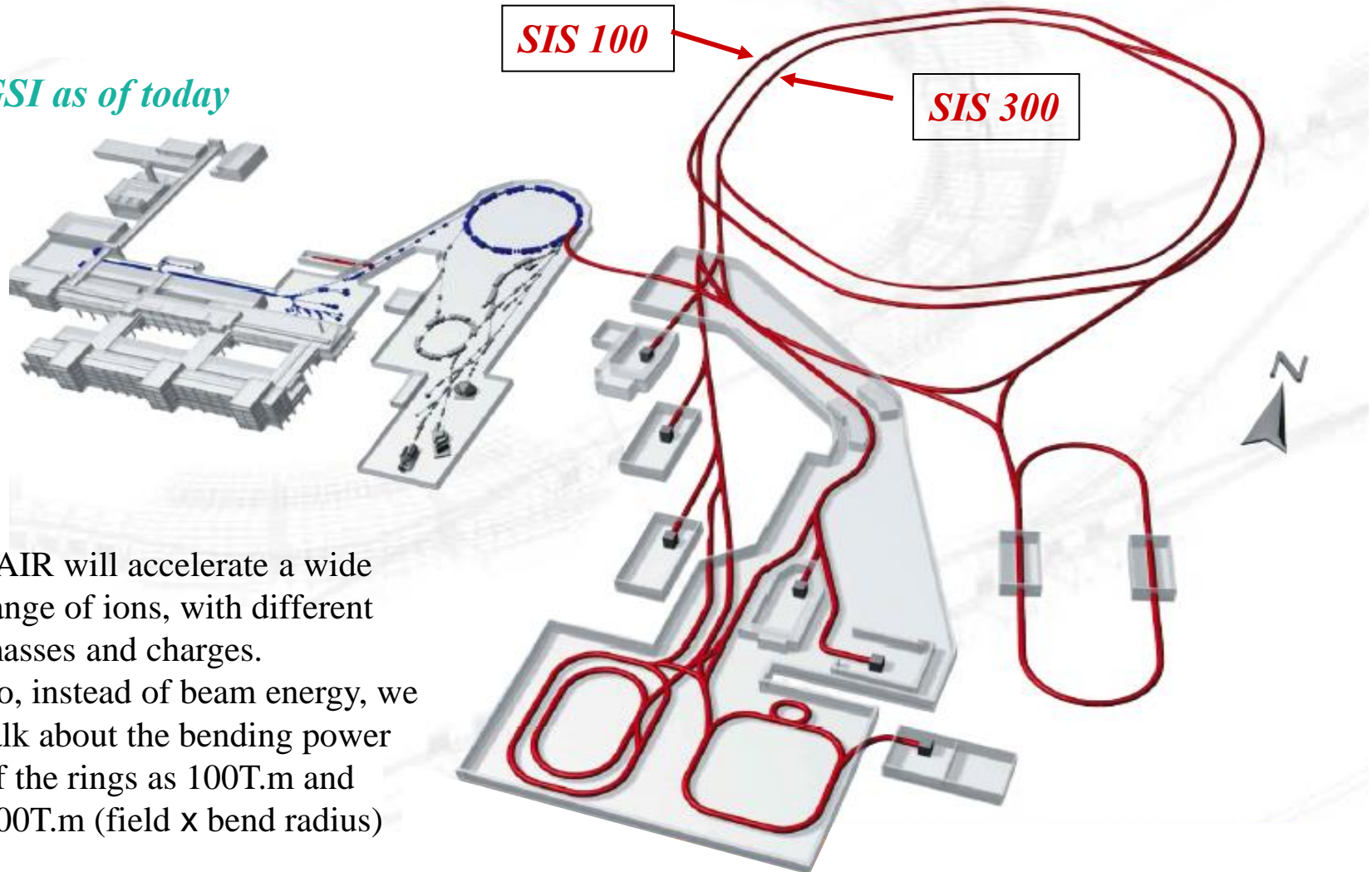


# *The Large Hadron Collider*



# Facility for Antiproton and Ion Research FAIR

*GSI as of today*



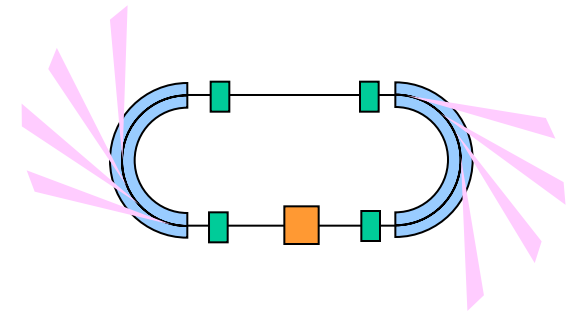
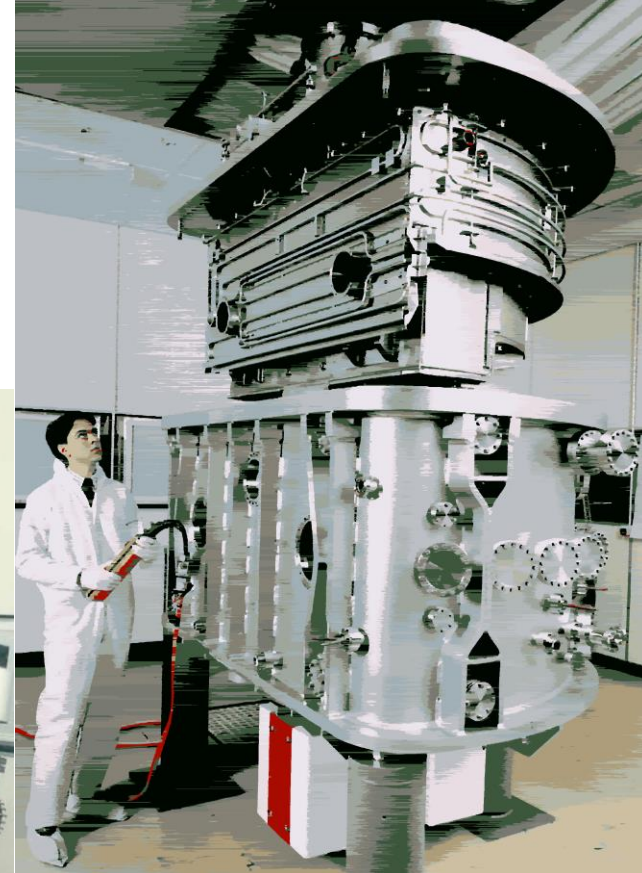
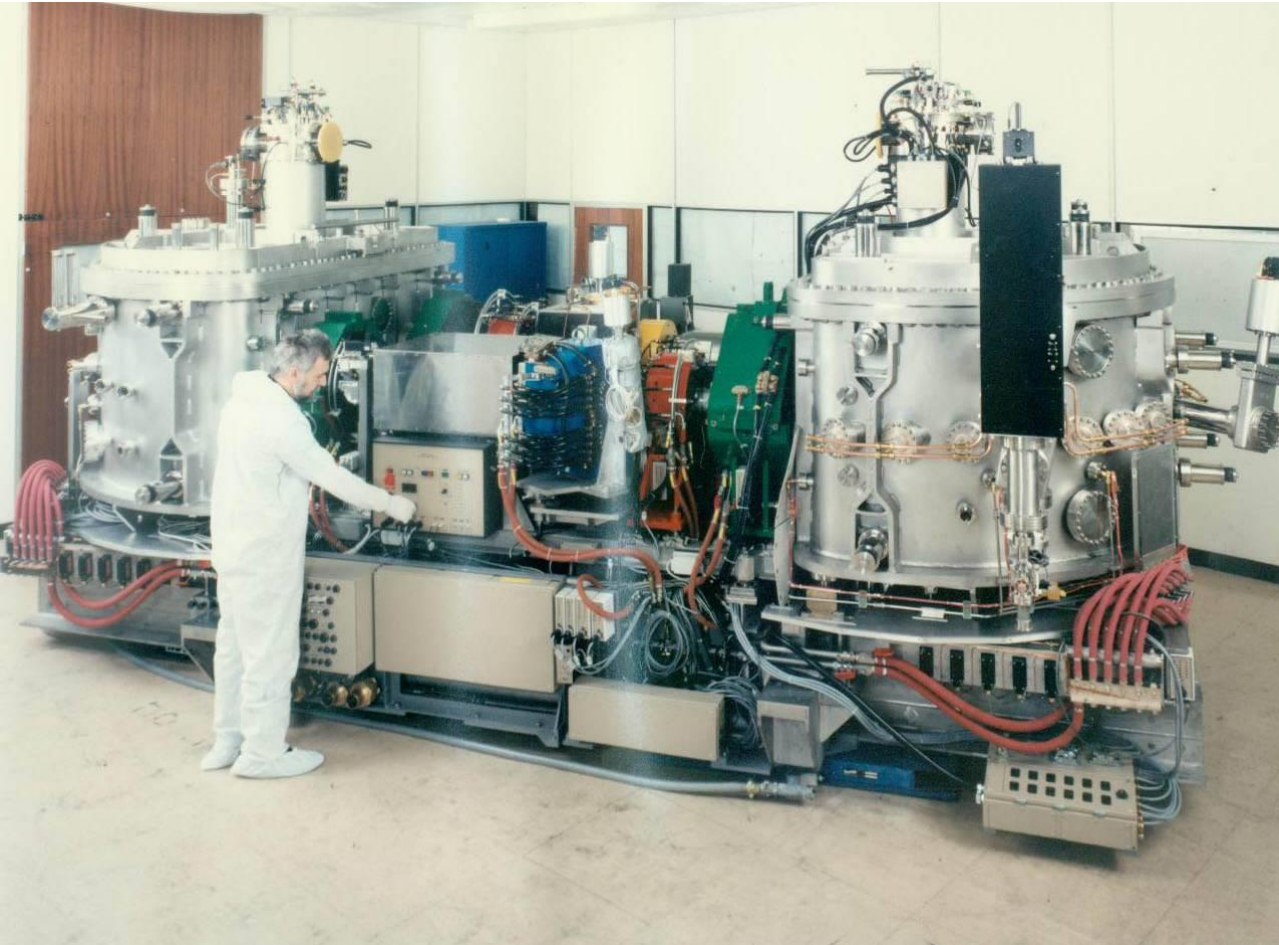
FAIR will accelerate a wide range of ions, with different masses and charges. So, instead of beam energy, we talk about the bending power of the rings as 100T.m and 300T.m (field x bend radius)

# *Winding curved dipoles for FAIR*



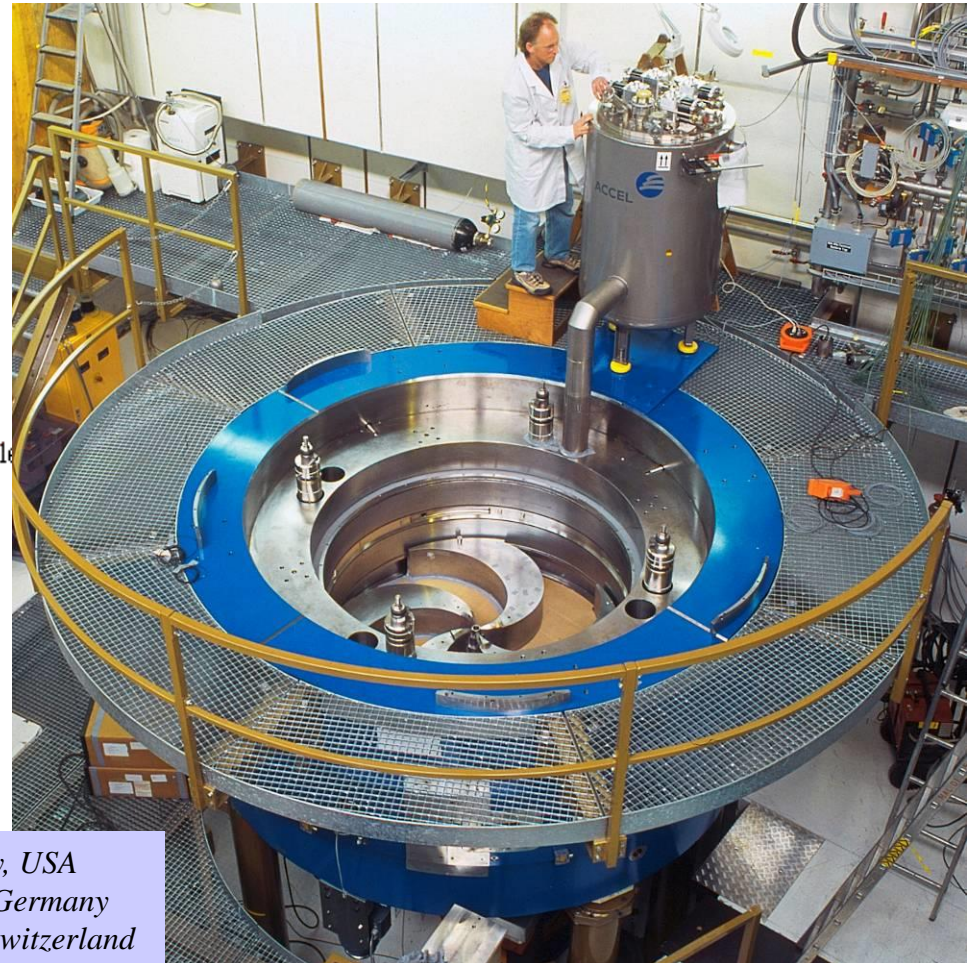
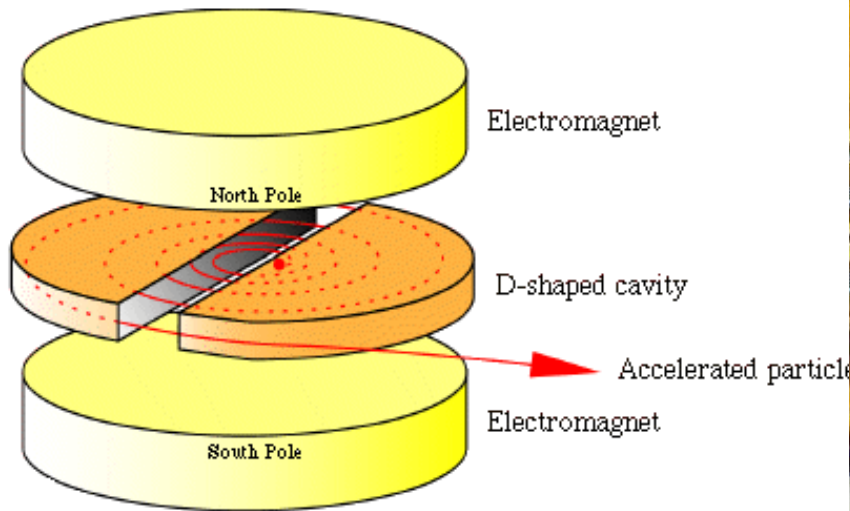
# Helios

*compact electron synchrotron X-ray source for microchip lithography*



# Cyclotrons

- constant magnetic field so particles spiral out as their energy increases
- cw operation  $\Rightarrow$  high beam current
- large magnet but no ac loss

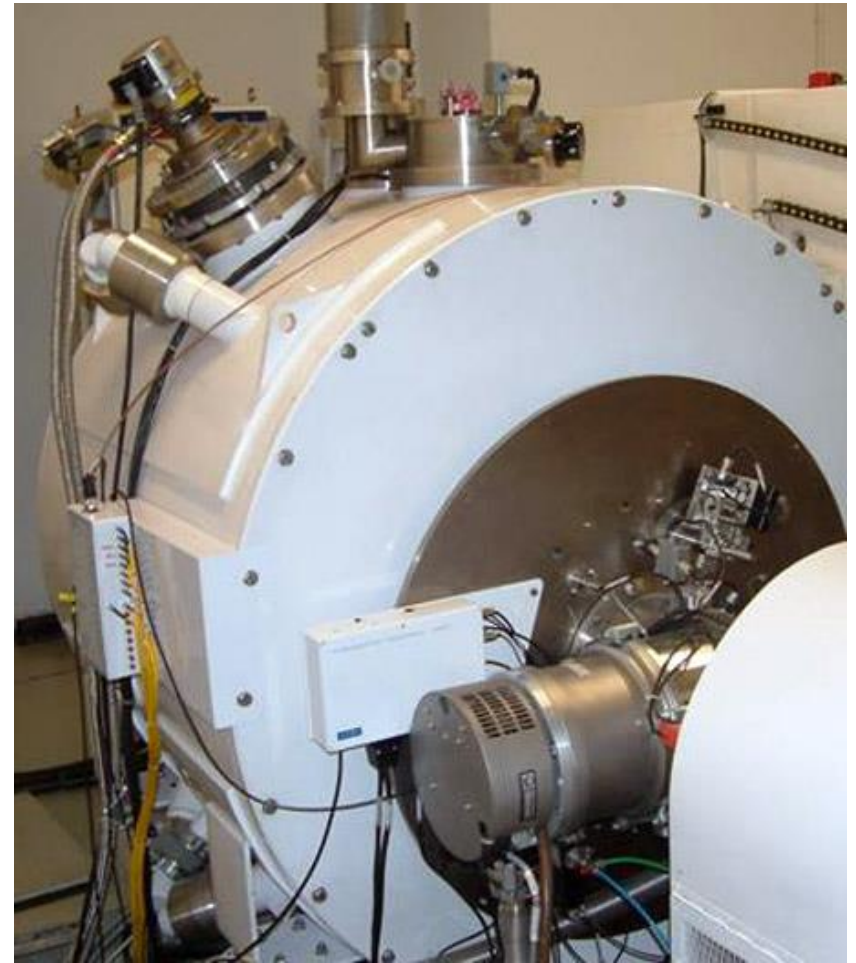
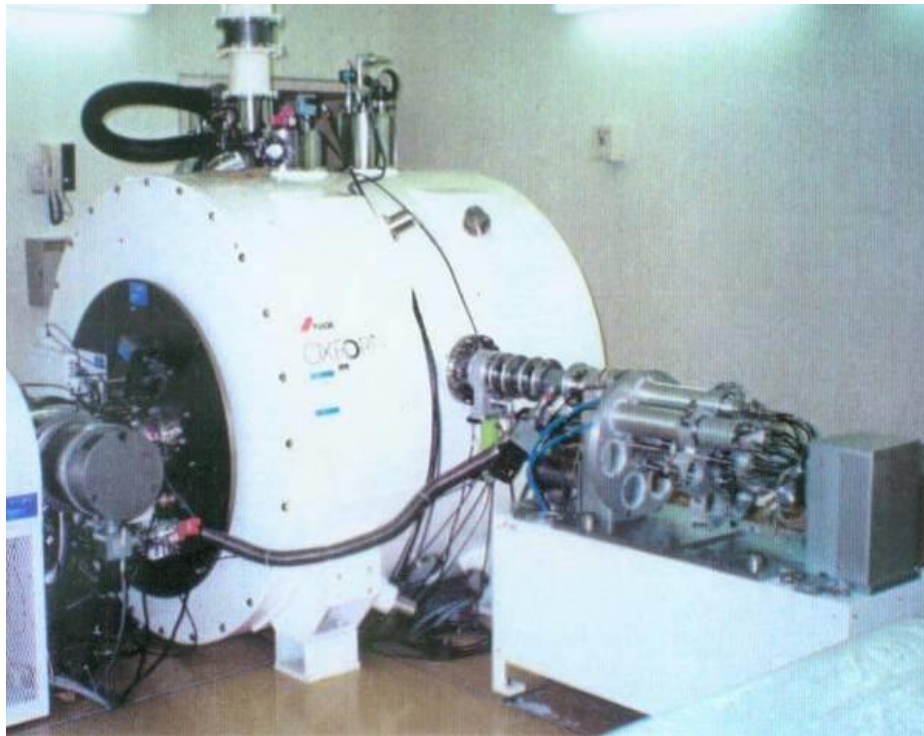


- cyclotrons are increasingly being used for cancer therapy

*design by Michigan State University, USA  
manufactured by ACCEL (Varian), Germany  
installed at Paul Scherrer Institut, Switzerland*

# *Oscar* $\Rightarrow$ *Isotracer*

- 11 MeV superconducting cyclotron developed by Oxford Instruments
- proton beam used to produce short lived isotopes for use in positron emission tomography PET imaging

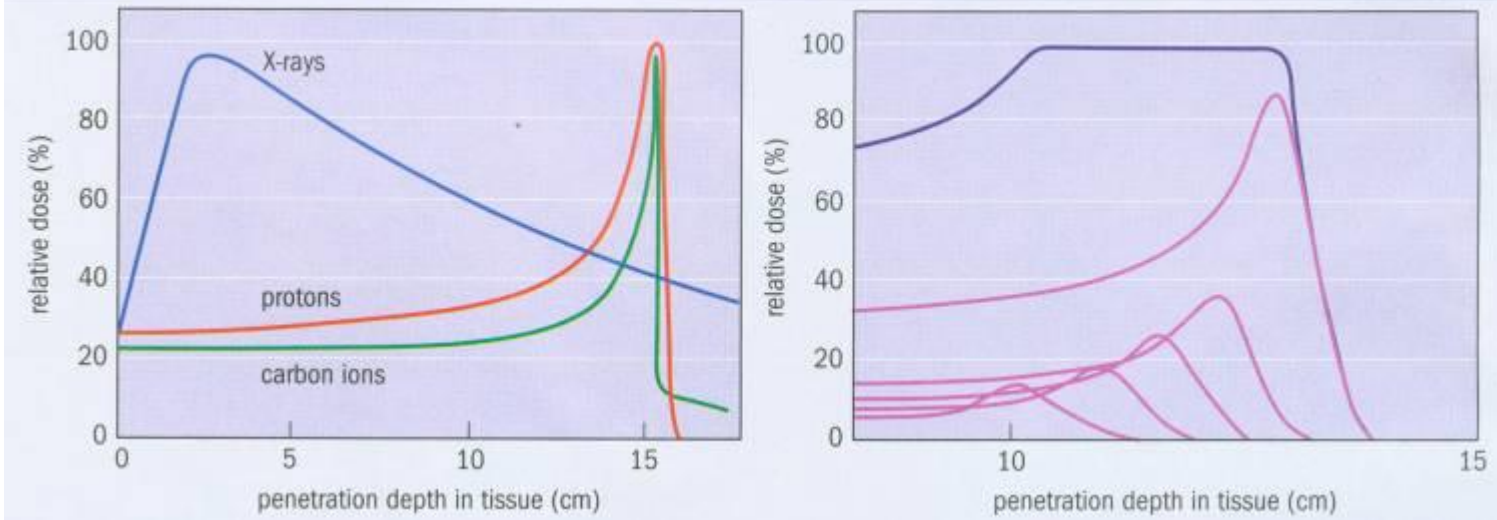


- design acquired by Alcen and marketed as the Isotracer cyclotron

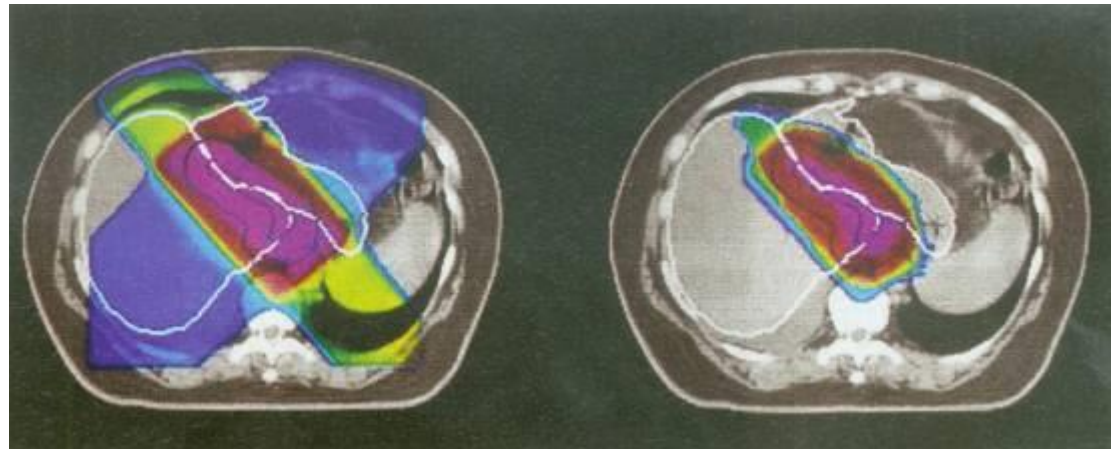


# Cancer therapy by charged particle beams

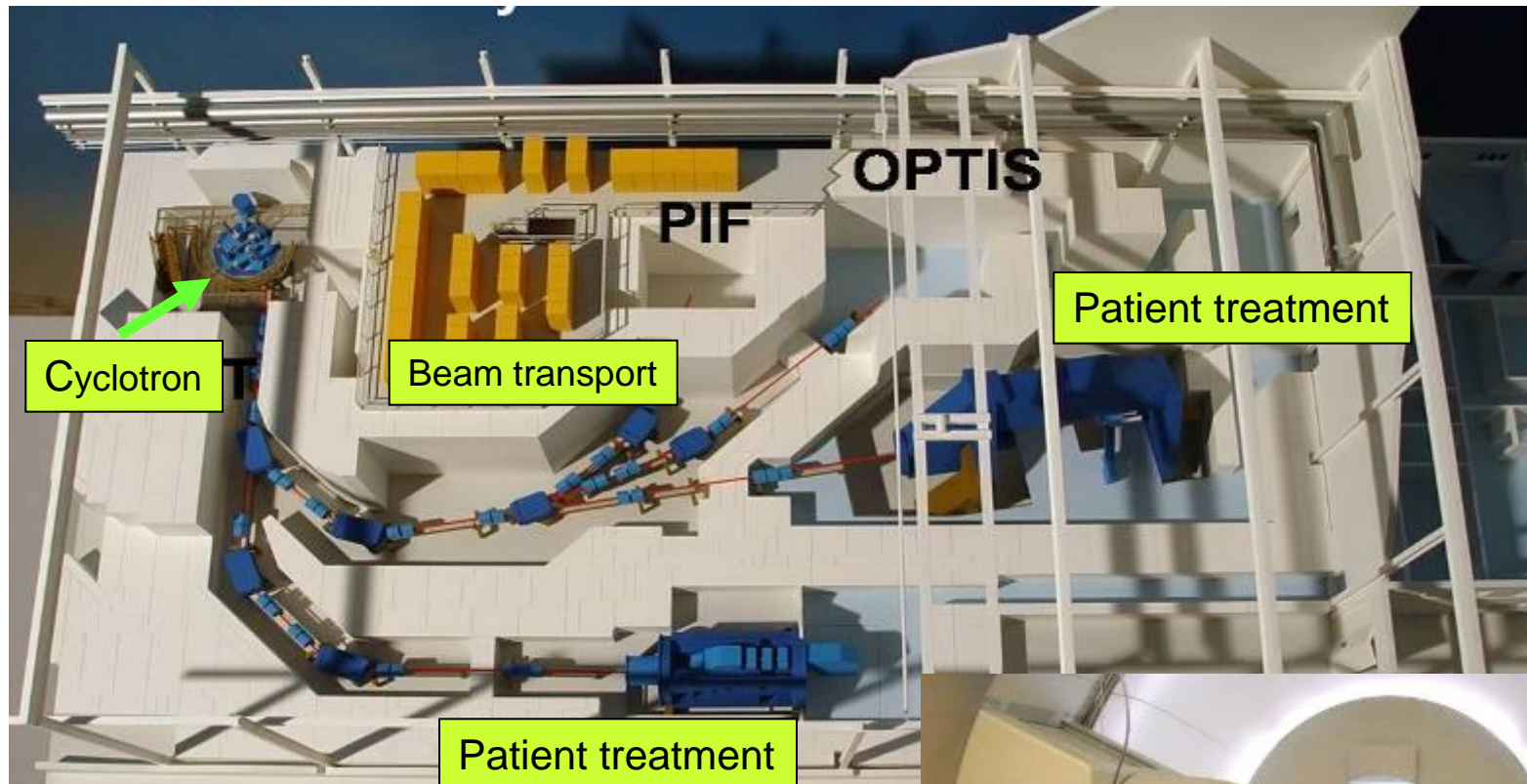
## 1 Bragg curves and photon absorption in water



- photons (X-rays) deposit most energy at surface (skin)
- protons deposit most energy at depth
- adjust energy to make depth = tumour
- carbon ions are even better



# Layout of a Proton therapy Facility



- Cyclotron: produces 250MeV protons
- Beam transport: selects the right energy and guides proton beam to patient
- Patient treatment gantry: scans the beam over the patient



# Concluding remarks

## Quenching

- magnets store large amounts of energy - during a quench this energy gets dumped in the winding  
⇒ intense heating ( $J \sim$  fuse blowing)      ⇒ possible death of magnet
- temperature rise and internal voltage can be calculated from the current decay time
- computer modelling of the quench process gives an estimate of decay time  
– but must first decide where the quench starts
- if temperature rise is too much, must use a protection scheme - active or passive
- protection of accelerator magnets is made much more difficult by their series connection

**always do the quench calculations before testing the magnet ✓**

## Hardware

- helium doesn't want to be a liquid - a lot of technology needed to keep it so - cryogenics
- manufacture of NbTi and Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn filamentary wires is a routine industrial process  $\sim 10^5$  km per year
- BSCCO wires and textured YBCO tapes are a 'semi industrial' process  $\sim 10^2$  km per year
- Rutherford cable used in all superconducting accelerators to date
- in recent years the largest accelerators have all been superconducting – industrial scale of manufacture

**thank you for your attention**