



Unit 16 Degradation and Training I

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Outline



- Introduction
- Quench of a superconductor
- Classification of quenches
- Conductor limited quenches
 - Measurements of critical surfaces
 - Short sample current
 - Degradation
- Energy deposited quenches
 - Distributed disturbances
 - Minimum quench energy density
 - Point disturbances
 - Minimum quench energy
 - Minimum propagation velocity
- Practical example: SSC and HERA wires
- Cryogenic stabilization
- Practical example: LHC wire
- Summary





- In this unit we will address the following questions
 - What is a quench?
 - How can we classify a quench according to the different causes?
 - What is the maximum current that a wire can carry and how can we measure it?
 - Which are the volumes and the energies involved in the quench phenomenon?
 - What is the role of the stabilizer and of the liquid helium?

15

Temperature [K]

20 35 ³⁰ ²⁵ ²⁰ ¹⁵ ¹⁰

Applied field [T]

4

The superconducting state is defined by the critical surface

Quench of a superconductor

- B (T), J (A/mm²), T (K)
- A superconducting magnet operates in conditions corresponding to a point located beneath the critical surface, and defined by $T=T_{op}$, $J=J_{op}$, and $B=B_{op}$.
- Let's assume (A. Devred, [1]) that, starting from the operational conditions, we increase the current in the magnet, and, as a result, the magnetic field.
- At a certain point, the critical surface is crossed, and a small volume V of superconductor becomes normal.
- Therefore, the volume *V* starts dissipating energy in the form of Joule heating, and the temperature increases.





Quench of a superconductor

- Due to thermal diffusion, the surrounding volume *dV* undergoes an increase in temperature as well.
- If the heat dissipated by *V* is **enough**, *dV* reaches the critical temperature, becomes normal conducting, and dissipates heat.
- In certain conditions, the normal zone propagates through the coil: this phenomenon is called a **quench**.
- Depending on its causes, a quench can be classified and defined in different ways.











- A first classification (A. Devred, [1])
 - The maximum field seen by the conductor in the coil is referred to as the **peak field** (*B*_{peak}).
 - At a given temperature T_0 , the maximum current that the conductor can reach will be $I_{max}=I_c$ (B_{peak} , T_0), where I_c is the critical current at B_{peak} and T_0 .
 - When the magnet quenches, we can have either $I_{quench} = I_{max}$ or $I_{quench} < I_{max}$.
 - If $I_{quench} = I_{max}$ we have a conductor-limited quench (or exhausted margin quench).
 - If the maximum current is consistent with measurements performed on wire short samples, we have a *short-sample quench* (success!!)





We have a problem . . .

- More often than not, this is the case.
- Accelerator magnets, in contrast to most other types are aggressively designed.
 - Compact
 - High current density
 - Geometry (dipoles, quads, . . . Are mechanically more complex
- In this case we say that the magnet performance is *degraded*, either due to a mechanical instability, damage to the conductor, AC losses or some other flaw (like a bad splice joint).
- In either case, a quench occurs because of a release of energy that increases the temperature of the conductor beyond the critical temperature. These are called *energy-deposited quenches* or, also, *premature quenches*.





• In the first case the critical surface is crossed because of an increase of *I* (and *B*); in the second case the critical surface is crossed because of an increase of temperature.









A second, more detailed classification (M. Wilson, [2])

• We can define a **spectrum of disturbances**, which classifies the energy disturbances along two dimensions: time and space.

		Space	
		Point	Distributed
Time	Transient	J	J/m ³
	Continuous	W	W/m ³

• **Continuous disturbances** are due to a steady power dissipation in the coil

- Point: ramp splice with high resistance joint
- Distributed: a.c. losses in the conductor, thermal leak of the cryogenic system.
- These causes are relatively easy to diagnose and remedy or at least understand.





		Space	
		Point	Distributed
Time	Transient	J	J/m ³
	Continuous	W	W/m ³

- Transient quenches are due to a sudden release of energy, either over a small volume (J) or over a large volume (J/m³)
 - Flux jumps: dissipative redistribution of magnetic field within the superconductor. It can be eliminated with small filaments.
 - Mechanical disturbances: wire frictional motion, epoxy cracking. They are less predictable and difficult to avoid, since they are related to mechanical design, material properties, fabrication processes, etc.



Conductor limited quenches



- Conductor limited quenches are usually very stable.
- A series of conductor limited quenches in a "quench current vs. quench number" graph (or training curve) appears as a stable plateau. For these reasons they are also called *plateau quenches*.
- After having reached the maximum current of the magnet, we have to compare it with the critical current measured on a short sample of the conductor (*I*_{ss}).







- The critical current of a conductor is measured by winding a sample of the wire around a sample holder.
- To avoid premature quenching induced by Lorentz forces during ramping, the wire must be well supported
 - Stycast epoxy may be used to constrain the wire around the holder
- In the case of Nb₃Sn wires, a sample holder made of titanium is used. (Better thermal-mechanical match to the wire)
- Once the wire is cooled-down and placed in a given magnetic field, the current is increased until the transition occurs.







- The transition from the superconducting to the normal state is observed through an increase of voltage.
- The increase is initially slow and reversible. By further increasing the current, the voltage rise becomes more steep, until it takes off and becomes irreversible: we refer in this case to the short sample quench current *I*_{ss}.
- In different conditions (wire as a part of a cable in a magnet, in different cooling conditions) the quench may occur at a different current.







- The conventions to determine the quench current are the following [4].
 - Let's assume that we have a wire of length *L* and cross-sectional area *S* and λ as the copper to superconductor or copper to non-copper ratio.
 - The resistivity of the superconductor and the electrical field are

$$\rho_{sc} = \frac{1}{1+\lambda} \frac{V}{L} \frac{S}{I} \qquad E = \frac{V}{L}$$

and V is the measured voltage across the wire.

• The critical current I_c is defined as the current where $\rho_{sc} = 10^{-14} \Omega m$ or $E = 0.1 \mu V/cm$.

This is standard practice for LTS strands



"It has been verified, in particular for accelerator magnets, that the critical currents defined above can be used to make fairly accurate estimations of the maximum quench current of a superconducting magnet" [4].





- The critical current is measured in a few different conditions of temperature and field. By fitting the data with known parameterizations, the entire critical surface can be reconstructed. (In the case of Nb-Ti there is a large data base of measurements that have been parametrized, giving very reliable predictions of expected magnet behavior)
- If the magnet reaches the maximum current computed through the intersection of the measured critical surface and the load line, i.e. I_{max} = I_{ss}, one can declare victory (at least from the quench performance point of view).
- If the magnet maximum current I_{max} is lower that I_{ss} , the quench performance is expressed in terms of fraction of short sample (I_{max}/I_{ss}) .
- A conductor-limited quench or a plateau at a level lower than the expected short sample is an indication of *conductor degradation*



Conductor limited quenches Degradation



- Degradation in a superconductor can be due to
 - Conductor damage or error in cable manufacturing
 - Depressed I_c due to stress (strain)
-but, sometimes, magnet performance can be interpreted as degraded in the case of
 - An error in the evaluation of maximum current
 - Computation of peak field
 - Measurements of temperature
 - Difference between coil and witness sample reaction temperature and time.
 - During the reaction of Nb₃Sn coils, the temperature in the oven is not uniform.
- In general, there is about a 5% uncertainty in the short sample current estimate for Nb₃Sn. Less for Nb-Ti.







- Let's imagine that, in a coil operating in the superconducting state, a certain amount of energy *E* is released. This energy will bring a volume *V* of the superconductor to a temperature $T \ge T_c$.
- One can imagine that if *E* or *V* are not large enough, the temperature of the superconductor will decrease to below the critical temperature, because of cooling and or thermal conductivity.
- If, on the other hand, *E* or *V* are large enough, the normal zone will increase and a quench will propagate.



Energy deposited quenches MQE and MPZ



• The minimum energy necessary to initiate a quench is defined as the

minimum quench energy MQE

• The minimum volume of superconductor that must be brought beyond the critical temperature in order to initiate a quench is defined as the

minimum propagation zone MPZ

• The two parameters are connected: *MQE* is the energy necessary to create a *MPZ*, i.e [5]

$$E_{MQE} = V_{MPV} \int_{\theta_0}^{\theta_C} \gamma C(\theta) d\theta$$

where *C* is the specific heat [J kg⁻³ K⁻¹] and γ is the density [kg m⁻³].



Energy deposited quenches Distributed disturbances



- Consider a disturbance where the release of energy is uniformly distributed. This situation corresponds to an adiabatic condition.
 - The temperature increase is uniform and no heat is conducted along the coil.
- In this condition, the temperature rise depends only on the specific heat *Cp* (J/kg-K)
- Very little energy is required for a significant temperature rise since *Cp's* are about 10⁻³ of the room temperature values.
 - For copper, Cp from 28e-3 J/kg-K at 1.8 K to 380 J/kg-K at 300 K





Energy deposited quenches Distributed disturbances



 Because of the change in *Cp* with temperature, for the computation of the energy density required to quench a coil, it is convenient to use the volumetric specific enthalpy *H* (J/m³)

$$H(\theta) = \gamma \int_{1.8}^{\theta} C(\theta) d\theta$$

where γ (kg/m³) is the density of the material.

- Assuming a volume fraction of 1/3 superconductor , 1/3 copper, and 1/3 epoxy, we can estimate a Nb-Ti and Nb₃Sn coil volumetric specific enthalpy.
- Then, it is possible to compute the energy density to quench, but we need the temperature margins.





Temperature margins at 80% of I_{ss}





Superconducting accelerator magnets, June, 2018





• Margin roughly independent of operational field





Quench energy densities (Impregnated Nb-Ti and Nb₃Sn coils)



- Nb-Ti
 - At 1.8 K
 - 1.8 K of margin: 1.4 · 10³ J/m³
 - At 4.2 K



- Nb₃Sn
 - At 1.8 K
 - 4.2 K of margin: $7.7 \cdot 10^3 \text{ J/m}^3$
 - At 4.2 K



Superconducting accelerator magnets, June, 2018





- We start considering a wire made purely of superconductor.
- Let's assume that a certain amount of energy *E* increased the temperature of the superconductor beyond θ_c over a length *l*. The segment *l* of superconductor is dissipating power given by $J_c^2 \rho A l$ [W].
- Part (or all) of the heat is conducted out of the segment because of the thermal gradient, which can be approximated as (θ_c-θ_o)/l. With k the thermal conductivity [W m⁻¹ K⁻¹] we set the dissipated power equal to the power conducted away, and obtain

$$\frac{2kA(\theta_c - \theta_0)}{l} = J_c^2 \rho Al$$

which results in

$$l = \sqrt{\frac{2k(\theta_c - \theta_0)}{J_c^2 \rho}}$$







- The length *l* defines the MPZ (and MQE).
 - A normal zone longer that *l* will keep growing (quench). A normal zone shorter than *l* will collapse.
- An example [2]
 - A typical Nb-Ti 6 T magnet has the following properties
 - $J_c = 2 \times 10^9 \text{ A m}^{-2}$
 - $\rho = 6.5 \times 10^{-7} \,\Omega \,\mathrm{m}$
 - $k = 0.1 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ • $\theta_c = 6.5 \text{ K}$ $l = \sqrt{\frac{2k(\theta_c - \theta_0)}{J^2 \rho}}$
 - $\theta_o = 4.2 \text{ K}$
 - In this case, $l = 0.5 \,\mu\text{m}$ and, assuming a 0.3 mm diameter, the required energy to bring to θ_c is 10^{-9} J.
- A wire made purely of superconductor, without any stabilizer (like copper) around, would quench with nJ of energy.
 - In order to increase *l*, since we do not want to reduce *J_c*, we have to increase *k/ρ*: we need a composite conductor!



Energy deposited quenches Point disturbances



- We now consider the situation where the superconductor is surrounded by material with low resistivity and high conductivity.
- At 4.2 K copper can have
 - resistivity $\rho = 3 \times 10^{-10} \Omega$ m (instead of 6.5 × 10⁻⁷ Ω m for Nb-Ti)
 - *k* = 350 W m⁻¹ K⁻¹ (instead of 0.1 W m⁻¹ K⁻¹ for Nb-Ti).
- We can therefore increase k/ρ by almost a factor of 10⁷.
- A significant improvement was achieved in the early years of superconducting magnet development after the introduction of composite conductor.
 - Both for flux jumps and stability





Energy deposited quenches Point disturbances



- In a composite superconductor, when a transition from the normal to superconducting state occurs, the heat dissipated per unit volume of the entire wire (stabilizer and superconductor) G [W m⁻³], can be subdivided into three parts
 - All the current flows in the superconductor
 - The current is shared by the superconductor and the stabilizer (current sharing temperature)
 - All the current flows in the stabilizer.



 A_{tot}

- The heat dissipated per unit volume of the ٩ entire wire (stabilizer and superconductor) G [W m⁻³] has a linear increase from θ_{cs} to θ_{c} .

$$\theta < \theta_{cs} \longrightarrow G = 0$$

$$\theta > \theta_{c} \longrightarrow G = G_{c} = \rho_{stab} \frac{\lambda^{2} J_{m}^{2}}{1 - \lambda}$$

$$\theta_{cs} < \theta < \theta_{c} \longrightarrow G = G_{c} \frac{(\theta - \theta_{cs})}{(\theta_{c} - \theta_{cs})} = \rho_{stab} \frac{\lambda^{2} J_{m}^{2}}{1 - \lambda} \frac{(\theta - \theta_{cs})}{(\theta_{c} - \theta_{cs})}$$











- Now that we have an expression for *G(θ)*, we can modify the one-dimensional equation considered for the pure superconductor case, to a three-dimensional equation which includes the transverse conductivity.
- Assuming the coil as an isotropic continuum with twodirection conduction, the steady state equation of heat conduction becomes

$$\frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(rk_{r}\frac{\partial\theta}{\partial r}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\left(k_{z}\frac{\partial\theta}{\partial z}\right) + \lambda_{w}G(\theta) = 0$$

where

- *k_r* is the conductivity along the wire
- k_z is the conductivity transverse to the wire
- λ_w is the fraction in volume of the composite conductor (both superconductor and stabilizer) over the coil.



• The solution provides an MPZ that is an ellipsoid elongated in the *z* direction (along the cable), with a semi-axis *R*_g in *z*

$$R_g = \pi \sqrt{\frac{k_z(\theta_c - \theta_{cs})}{\lambda_w G_c}}$$

and a circular cross-section in the transverse plane with radius r_g

$$r_g = R_g \sqrt{\frac{k_r}{k_z}}$$

• The MQE necessary to generate the MPZ is significantly increased, from the nJ level to the 10-100 µJ level.







Practical example I SSC and HERA wires [7]



- SSC
 - The design field (> 6.6 T) is close to the short sample field
 - MQE = $10 \mu J$
 - MPZ is less than a strand diameter
 - "Adiabatic" condition (no heat exchanged with liquid helium) is a conservative estimate.

• HERA

- The design field (5 T) is not as close to the short sample field
- MQE = 150 μJ
- MPZ is several mm
 - Helium cooling will increase the energy threshold.







- When a *distributed disturbance* (large volume) produces a transition in the superconductor to a normal zone, or when the MPZ is significantly larger than the strand diameter, we abandon the adiabatic conditions described previously.
- In this case, we have to take into account the cryogenic liquid (liquid Helium) in contact with the wire.









• The heat generation per unit of cooled area is given by

$$G(\theta) = \frac{\lambda^2 J_c \rho}{(1-\lambda)} \frac{(\theta - \theta_0)}{(\theta_c - \theta_0)} \frac{A}{P} = G_c \frac{(\theta - \theta_0)}{(\theta_c - \theta_0)} \frac{A}{P}$$

where we assumed that $\theta_0 = \theta_{cs}$ (i.e. $J_m = J_c$), and A is the cross-sectional area of the conductor and P is the cooled perimeter.







• The cooling per unit of cooled area is given by

 $h(\theta - \theta_0)$

where h [W m⁻¹ K⁻¹] is the heat transfer coefficient (we assume it is a constant) and θ_0 the temperature of the bath.





Cryogenic stabilization Stekly criteria



• The criterion for cryogenic stability (Stekly and Zar) is therefore

$$\alpha = \frac{\lambda^2 J_c^2 \rho A}{(1-\lambda)Ph(\theta_c - \theta_0)} = \frac{G_c A}{Ph(\theta_c - \theta_0)} < 1$$

- In reality *h* is characterized by three zones
 - Nucleate boiling
 - Transition boiling
 - Film boiling
- In general, we have cryogenic stability when the curve of the dissipated power $G(\theta)$ stays below the curve of the power removed by helium.
- The Stekly criteria requires an ohmic heat per unit area of cooled surface < 1.5-2.0 kW/m²









- The Stekly criteria neglects heat conduction.
- But, if the hot zone has finite dimensions and is surrounded by a cold zone, the heat conduction at the boundaries can improve the stability
 - Conductor can also be stable if *G* >*H*
- Maddock, *et al.*, [10] proposed an equal area theorem
 - The surplus of heat generation must be balanced by a surplus of cooling.
- Maddock criteria requires an ohmic heat per unit area of cooled surface < 3 kW/m²

 $\int_{\theta_0}^{\theta_1} \left\{ H(\theta) - \frac{A}{P} G(\theta) \right\} k(\theta) d\theta = 0$







Practical example II LHC wire [8]



• Wire

- Measurements showed that the most important parameter is the amount of helium in contact with the strand.
- The MQE at 0.8 I_c is
 - 10 μJ in adiabatic conditions
 - 1000 μJ in an open bath
- Cable
 - A "kink" is observed
 - Zone where the strands behave collectively
 - Zone where the strands behave individually
 - Above the kink
 - MQE is around 100 μJ
 - Below the kink
 - MQE is > 1000 µJ









- Classification of quenches in superconducting magnets
 - Conductor limited quenches
 - Energy deposited quenches
- We introduced the concept of MPZ and MQE
 - Depending on the assumptions, the energy required to quench a magnet is
 - 10⁻⁹ J in the case of a "pure superconductor"
 - 10-100 μJ in the case of a composite wire
 - More than 1000 µJ in an open bath
- In the case of a distributed disturbance, the minimum quench energy density can be on the order of 10³ J m⁻³ (Nb-Ti magnets).
- Considering the effect of liquid He, a conductor can be stable up to an ohmic heat per unit area of cooled surface of about 3 kW/m².









• Both the increase in ρ_{sc} and *V* can be fit by a scaling law like

$$\frac{\rho_{sc}}{\rho_c} = \left(\frac{I}{I_c}\right)^{N-1} \qquad \frac{V}{V_c} = \left(\frac{I}{I_c}\right)^N$$

- *N* is called the resistivity transition index, or *N*-value, and it is an indication of the sharpness of the transition from the superconducting to the normal state.
- Usually, the better quality the conductor, the higher (\geq 30) is the *N*-value.







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Superconducting accelerator magnets, June, 2018





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