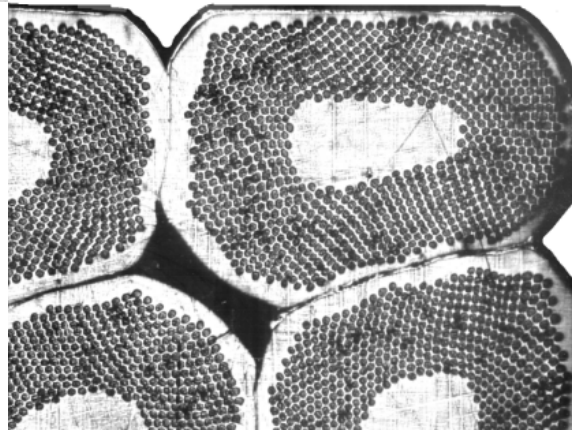
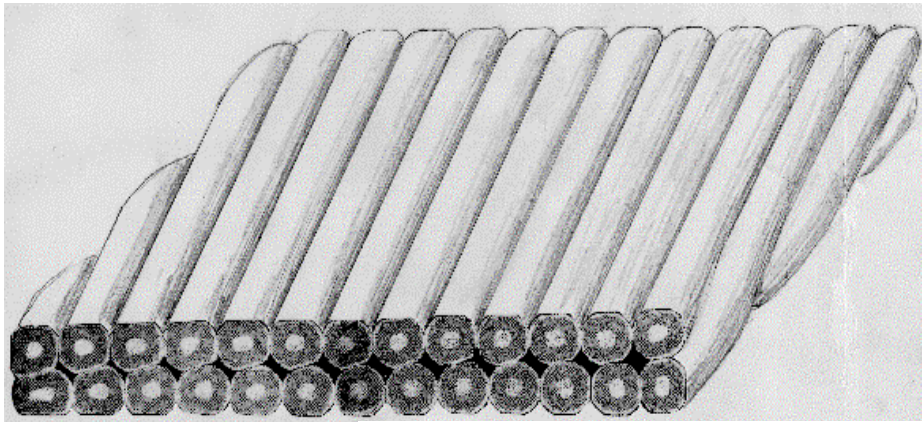


Lecture 3: Cables and Materials Manufacture



*Rutherford cable
used in all superconducting accelerators to date*

Cables

- why cables?
- coupling magnetization in cables
- anisotropy
- resistance between strands
- measurement
- effect on field error in magnets
- BICCs and snap back
- manufacture of wire and cable

Why cables?

- for good tracking we connect synchrotron magnets in series
- if the stored energy is E , rise time t and operating current I , the charging voltage is

$$E = \frac{1}{2} LI^2 \quad V = \frac{LI}{t} = \frac{2E}{It}$$

RHIC $E = 40\text{kJ/m}$, $t = 75\text{s}$, 30 strand cable
cable $I = 5\text{kA}$, charge voltage per km = **213V**
wire $I = 167\text{A}$, charge voltage per km = **6400V**

FAIR at GSI $E = 74\text{kJ/m}$, $t = 4\text{s}$, 30 strand cable
cable $I = 6.8\text{kA}$, charge voltage per km = **5.4kV**
wire $I = 227\text{A}$, charge voltage per km = **163kV**

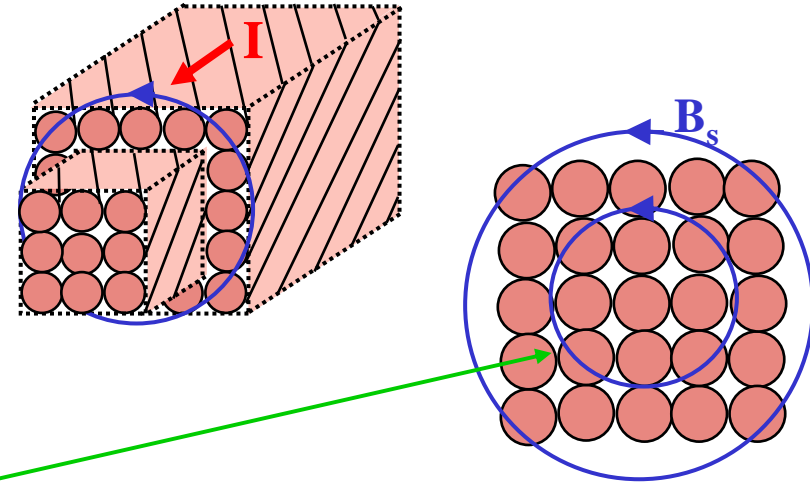
- so we need high currents!
- a single $5\mu\text{m}$ filament of NbTi in 6T carries 50mA
- a composite wire of fine filaments typically has 5,000 to 10,000 filaments, so it carries 250A to 500A
- for 5 to 10kA, we need 20 to 40 wires in parallel - **a cable**



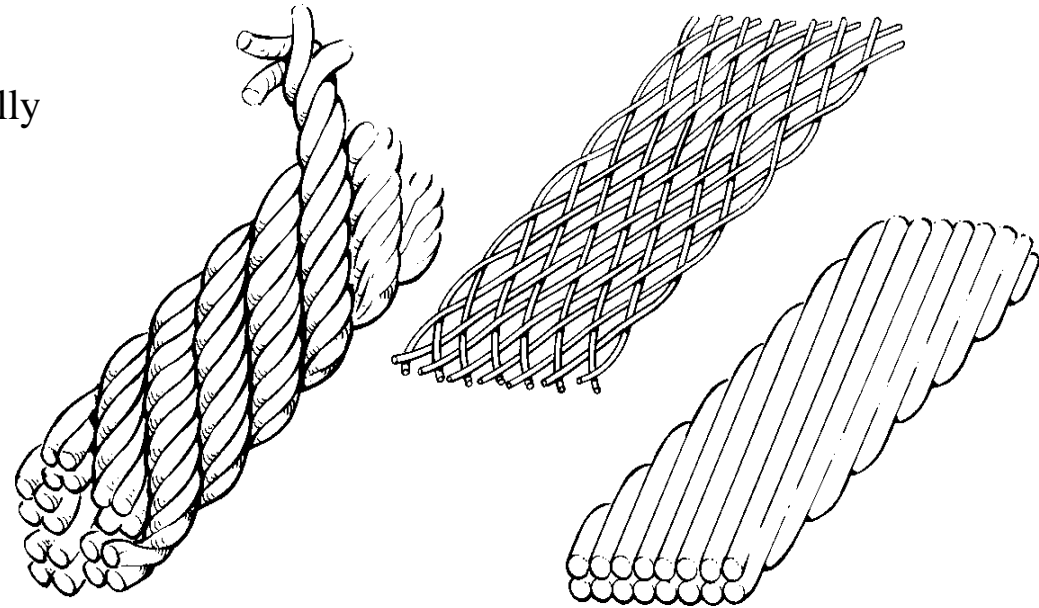
the RHIC tunnel

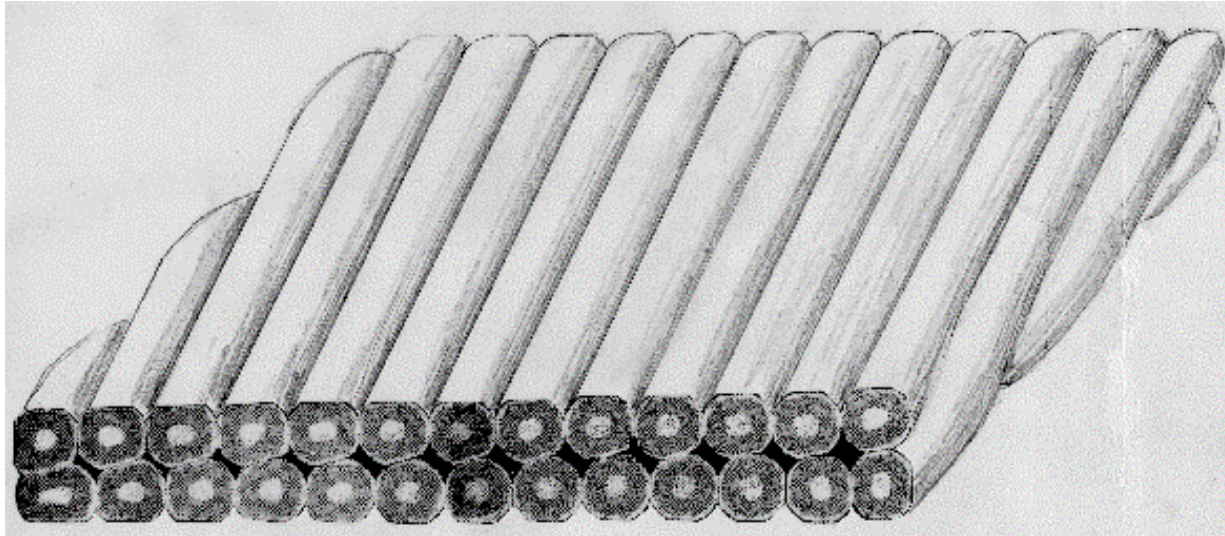
Types of cable

- cables carry a large current and this generates a **self field**
- in this cable the self field generates a flux between the inner and outer wires \Rightarrow
- wire are twisted to avoid flux linkage between the filaments, for the same reasons we should avoid flux linkage between wires in a cable
- but twisting this cable doesn't help because the inner wires are always inside and the outers outside



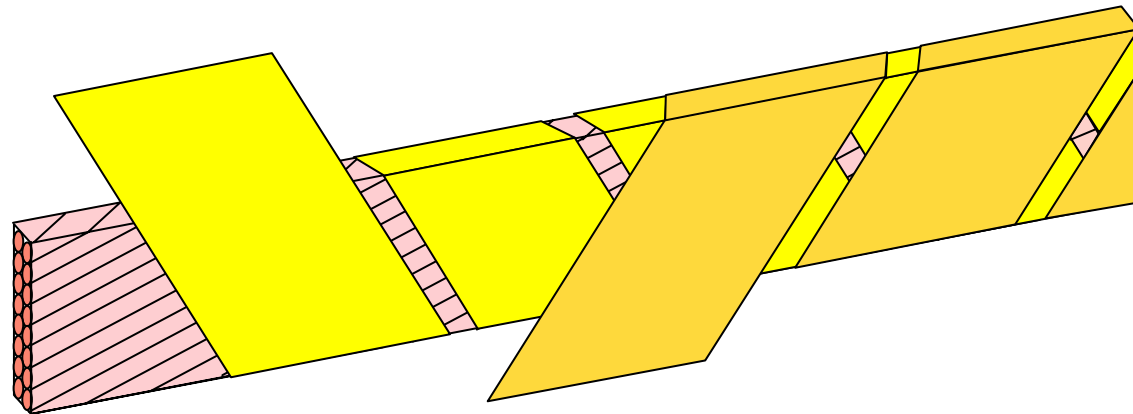
- thus it is necessary for the wires to be fully **transposed**, ie every wire must change places with every other wire along the length of the cable so that, averaged over the length, no flux is enclosed
- three types of fully transposed cable have been tried in accelerators
 - rope
 - braid
 - Rutherford



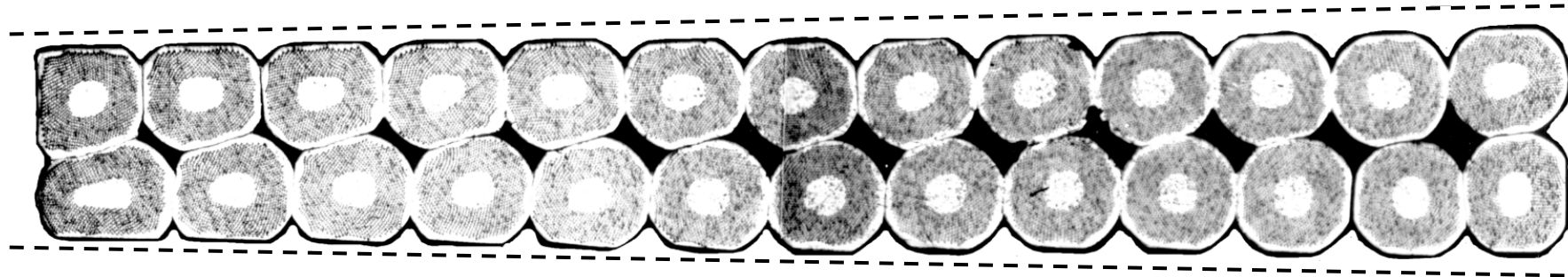


Rutherford cable

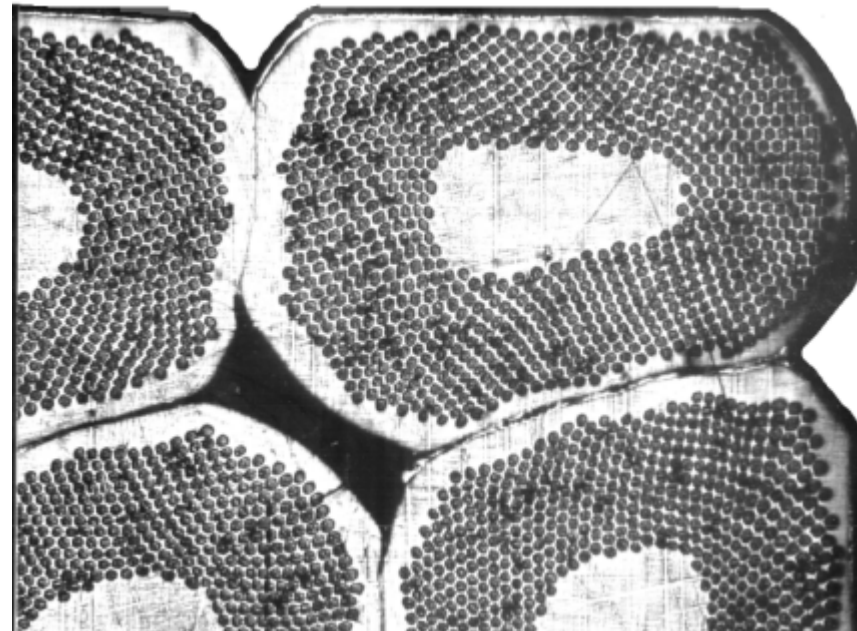
- the cable is insulated by wrapping 2 or 3 layers of Kapton; gaps may be left to allow penetration of liquid helium; the outer layer is treated with an adhesive layer for bonding to adjacent turns.
- Note: the adhesive faces outwards, don't bond it to the cable (avoid energy release by bond failure, which could quench the magnet)



Rutherford cable

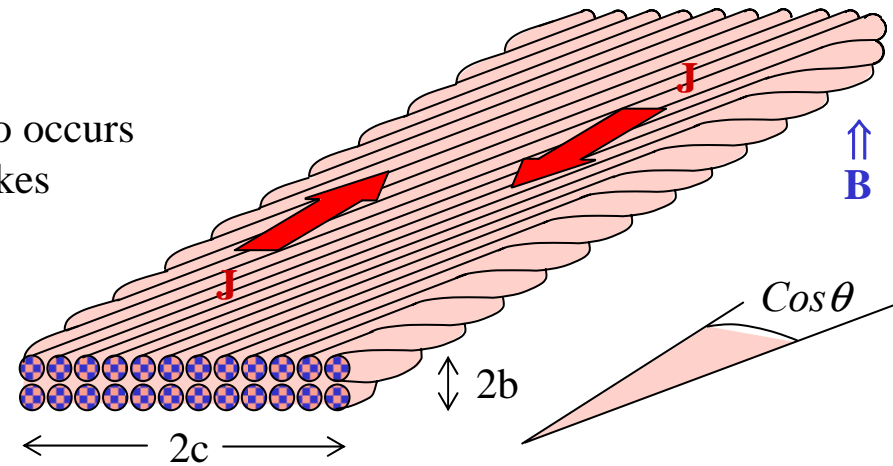
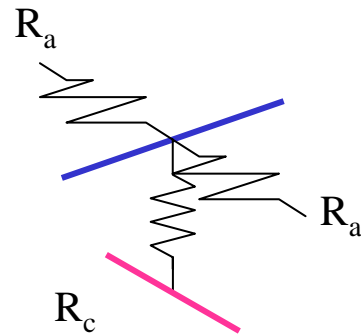
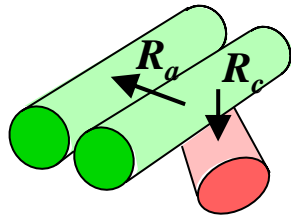


- The main reason why Rutherford cable succeeded where others failed was that it could be compacted to a high density (88 - 94%) without damaging the wires. Furthermore it can be rolled to a good dimensional accuracy (~ 10mm).
- Note the 'keystone angle', which enables the cables to be stacked closely round a circular aperture



Coupling in Rutherford cables: resistances

Just like the filaments in the wires, coupling also occurs between the wires in a cable. The geometry makes things more complicated, but the processes are the same.



Coupling is via resistive contacts between the wires, we distinguish two different types of contact: **crossover** and **adjacent**

For network modelling (see Arjan Verweij) we use resistances per contact R_c and R_a

For the continuum model we use resistances per unit area of contact r_c and r_a . To relate the two, note that, over a twist pitch p , each strand makes $(2N-2)$ crossover and $2N$ adjacent contacts

crossover area

$$A_c = \frac{2cp}{N(N-1)}$$

$$R_c = \frac{r_c}{A_c} = r_c \frac{N(N-1)}{2pc}$$

adjacent area per crossover

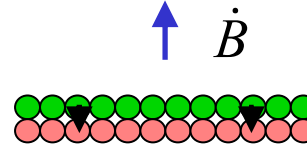
$$A_a = \frac{pb}{2N \cos \theta}$$

$$R_a = \frac{r_a}{A_a} = r_a \frac{2N \cos \theta}{pb}$$

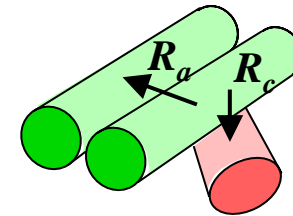
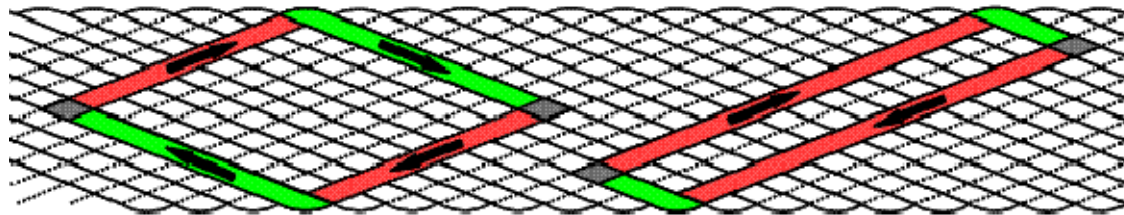
Note: r_c and r_a depend only on surface properties, R_c and R_a also depend on geometry.

Perpendicular field: coupling via crossover resistance 1

- Field transverse coupling via crossover resistance R_c

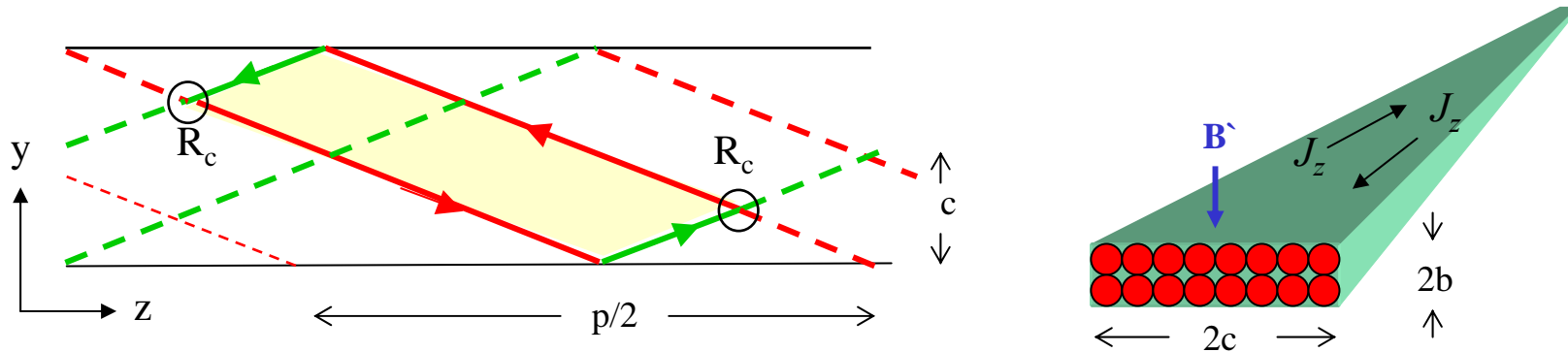


crossover resistance R_c
adjacent resistance R_a



- changing perpendicular fields induce diamond shaped current loops
- current flows along the **top surface** then downwards through a crossover (grey) along the **bottom surface** and then over the edge and up to the **top surface**
- a whole range of different loops are possible, but they are all symmetrical about the cable centre line
- all shapes of loop are induced simultaneously by a changing field
- they must be summed together to calculate the magnetization
- for exact calculations, a network model should be used
- here we use an approximate continuum model, which gives similar answers

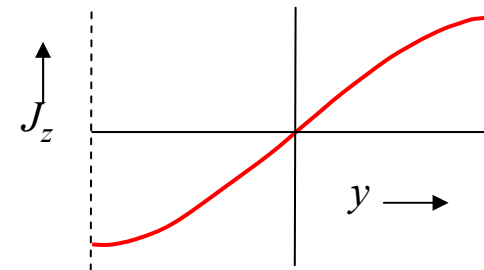
Perpendicular field: coupling via crossover resistance 2



- calculate voltage induced around the loop shaded yellow $V_{loop} = 2R_a I_{loop}$

- sum over all possible loops and resolve I_{loop} along direction parallel to cable

- current density in z direction $J_z(y) = \frac{\dot{B}_t p^2}{48 r_c b c^2} (-y^3 + 3y^2 c - 2c^3)$

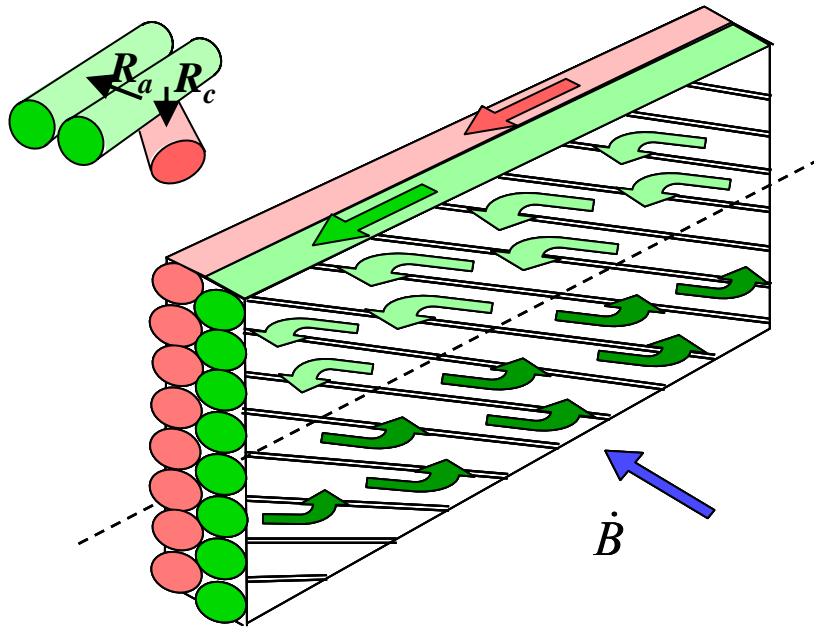


- integrate current \times area to get magnetization

$$M_{tc} = \frac{1}{60} \frac{\dot{B}_t}{r_c} p^2 \frac{c^2}{b}$$

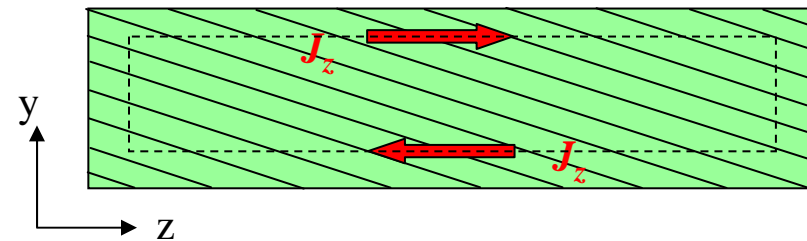
$$M_{tc} = \frac{1}{120} \frac{\dot{B}_t}{R_c} p \frac{c}{b} N(N-1)$$

Perpendicular field: coupling via adjacent resistance



- consider the current paths shown to find an effective resistivity along the cable

$$\rho_{ez} = \frac{N}{p} r_a \sin\theta$$



- equate the the rate of change of flux linked to the resistive voltage and thus find a longitudinal current density

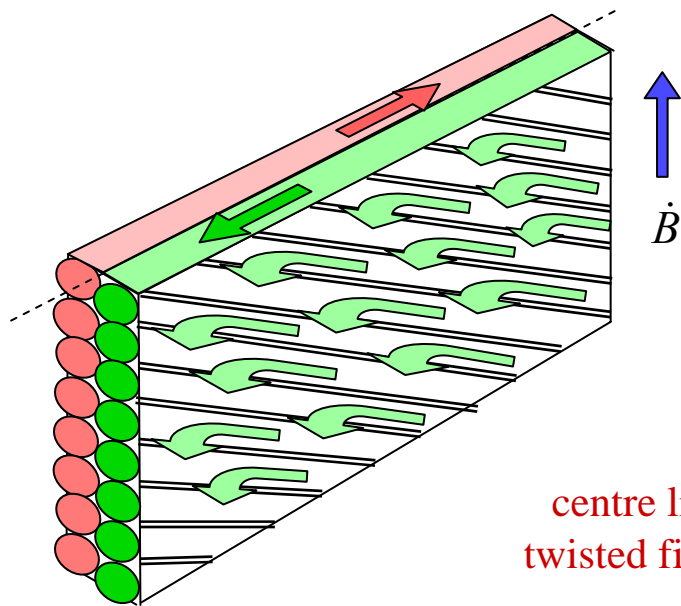
$$J_z(y) = \frac{\dot{B}_t p y}{N r_a \sin\theta}$$

- integrate current \times area to get magnetization

$$M_{ta} = \frac{1}{12} \frac{\dot{B}_t p^2 c}{r_a N \cos\theta}$$

$$M_{ta} = \frac{1}{6} \frac{\dot{B}_t p c}{R_a b}$$

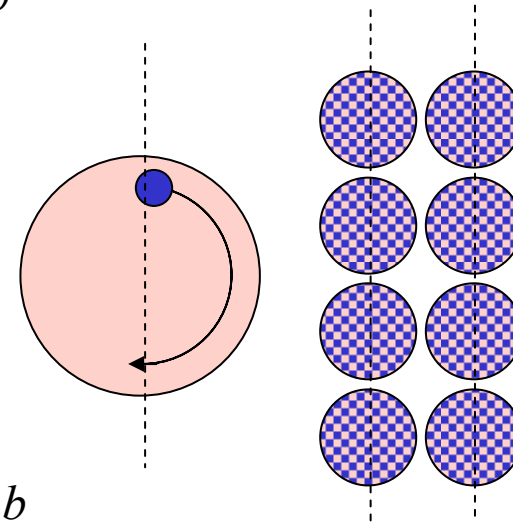
Parallel field: coupling via adjacent resistance



- consider the current paths shown to find an effective resistivity along the cable

$$\rho_{ez} = \frac{N}{p} r_a \sin \theta$$

(take flux linkages to centre line of wires because all twisted filaments rotate about it)



- equate the the rate of change of flux linked to the resistive voltage and thus find a longitudinal current density

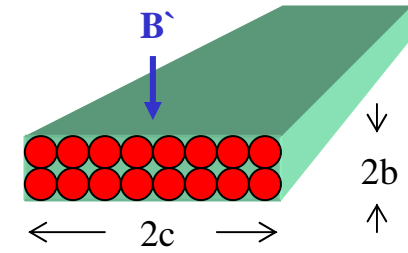
$$J_z = \frac{\dot{B}_p p b}{2 N r_a \sin \theta}$$

- integrate current \times area to get magnetization

$$M_{pa} = \frac{1}{16} \frac{\dot{B}_p}{r_a} \frac{p^2}{N} \frac{b^2}{c \cos \theta}$$

$$M_{pa} = \frac{1}{8} \frac{\dot{B}_p}{R_a} p \frac{b}{c}$$

Summary of coupling magnetization in cables



- Field transverse
coupling via crossover
resistance R_c

$$M_{tc} = \frac{1}{60} \frac{\dot{B}_t}{r_c} p^2 \frac{c^2}{b}$$

$$M_{tc} = \frac{1}{120} \frac{\dot{B}_t}{R_c} p \frac{c}{b} N(N-1)$$

where M = magnetization *per unit volume of cable*, p twist pitch, N = number of strands

- Field transverse
coupling via adjacent resistance R_a

$$M_{ta} = \frac{1}{12} \frac{\dot{B}_t}{r_a} \frac{p^2}{N} \frac{c}{\cos\theta}$$

$$M_{ta} = \frac{1}{6} \frac{\dot{B}_t}{R_a} p \frac{c}{b}$$

where θ = slope angle of wires $\cos\theta \sim 1$

- Field parallel
coupling via adjacent
resistance R_a

$$M_{pa} = \frac{1}{16} \frac{\dot{B}_p}{r_a} \frac{p^2}{N} \frac{b^2}{c \cos\theta}$$

$$M_{pa} = \frac{1}{8} \frac{\dot{B}_p}{R_a} p \frac{b}{c}$$

(usually negligible)

- Field transverse
ratio crossover/adjacent

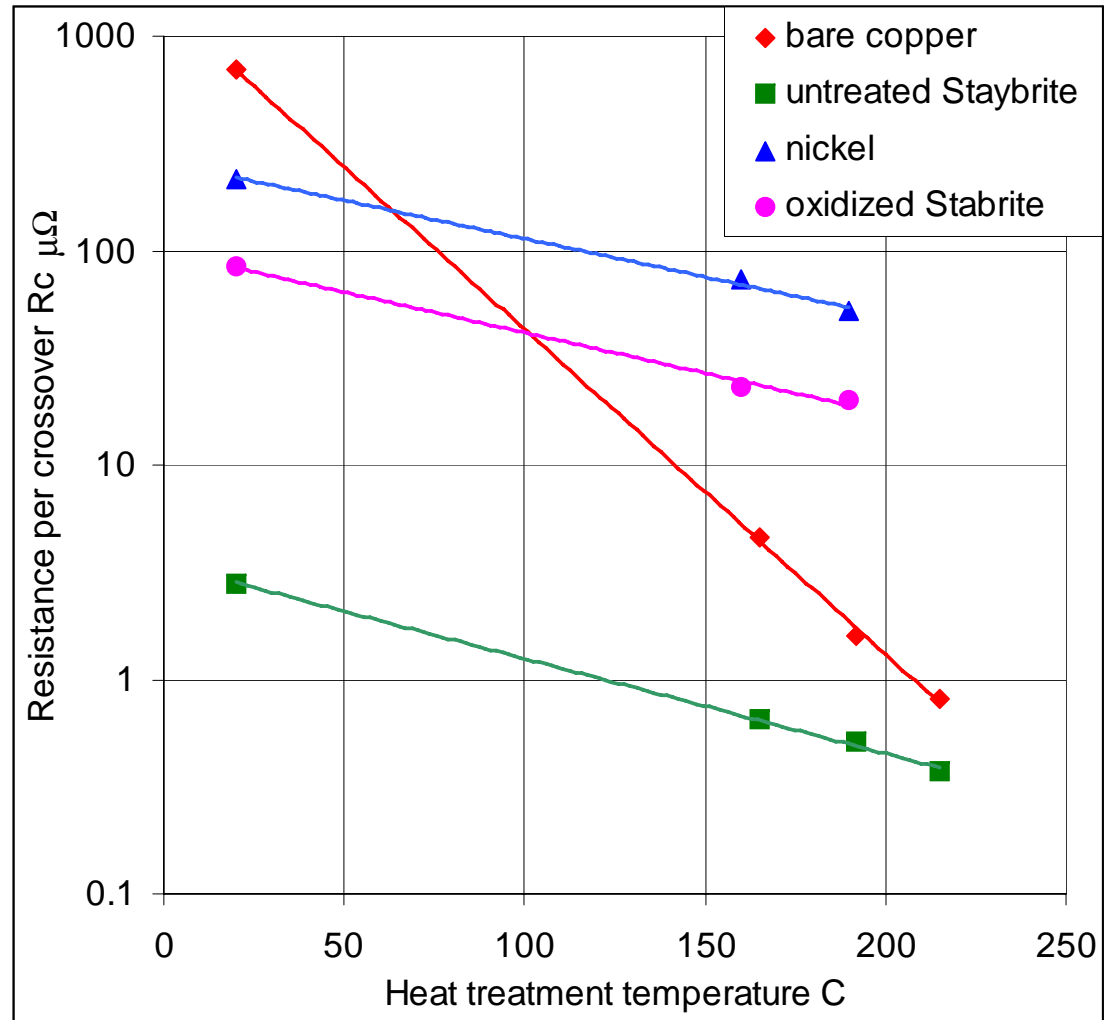
$$\frac{M_{tc}}{M_{ta}} = \frac{R_a}{R_c} \frac{N(N-1)}{20} \approx 45 \frac{R_a}{R_c}$$

So without increasing loss too much can make R_a 50 times less than R_c - anisotropy

Controlling R_a and R_c : coatings

- surface coatings on the wires are used to adjust the contact resistances R_c and R_a
- the values obtained are very sensitive to pressure and heat treatments used in coil manufacture (to cure the adhesive between turns)
- with a bare copper surface, the contact resistance is high, but heat treatment under pressure causes the oxide to dissolve into the copper and produces pure copper contact points
- metallic coatings have more stable oxide layers

data from David Richter CERN

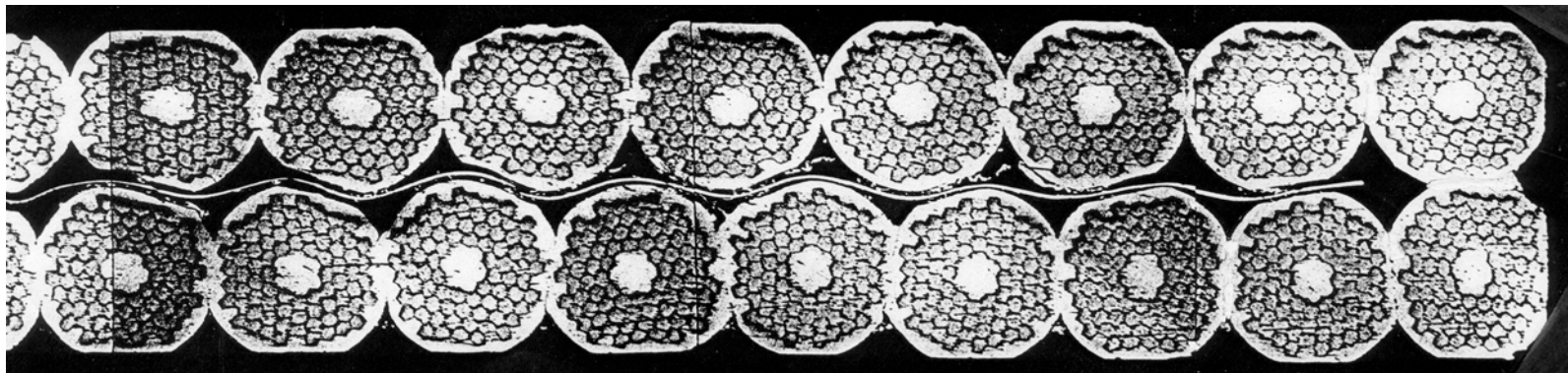


Controlling R_a and R_c : cores

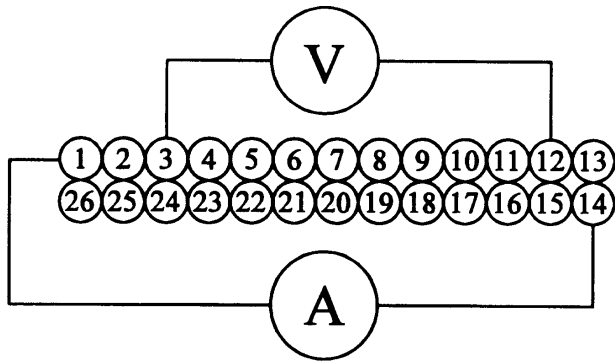
recap the anisotropy of magnetization
(and therefore losses)

$$\frac{M_{tc}}{M_{ta}} = \frac{R_a}{R_c} \frac{N(N-1)}{20} \approx 45 \frac{R_a}{R_c}$$

- some of us have the idea that and high resistance between strands is not a good thing - it is more difficult for the current to share in the event that one strand has too much current or suffers a temperature spike - so high R_c and $R_a \Rightarrow$ instability (contentious).
- because of the anisotropy, we can keep the losses low by increasing R_c only, while keeping R_a low
- a resistive (eg stainless steel) core foil gives high R_c and R_a
- it is not affected much by heat treatment but reduces the filling factor slightly

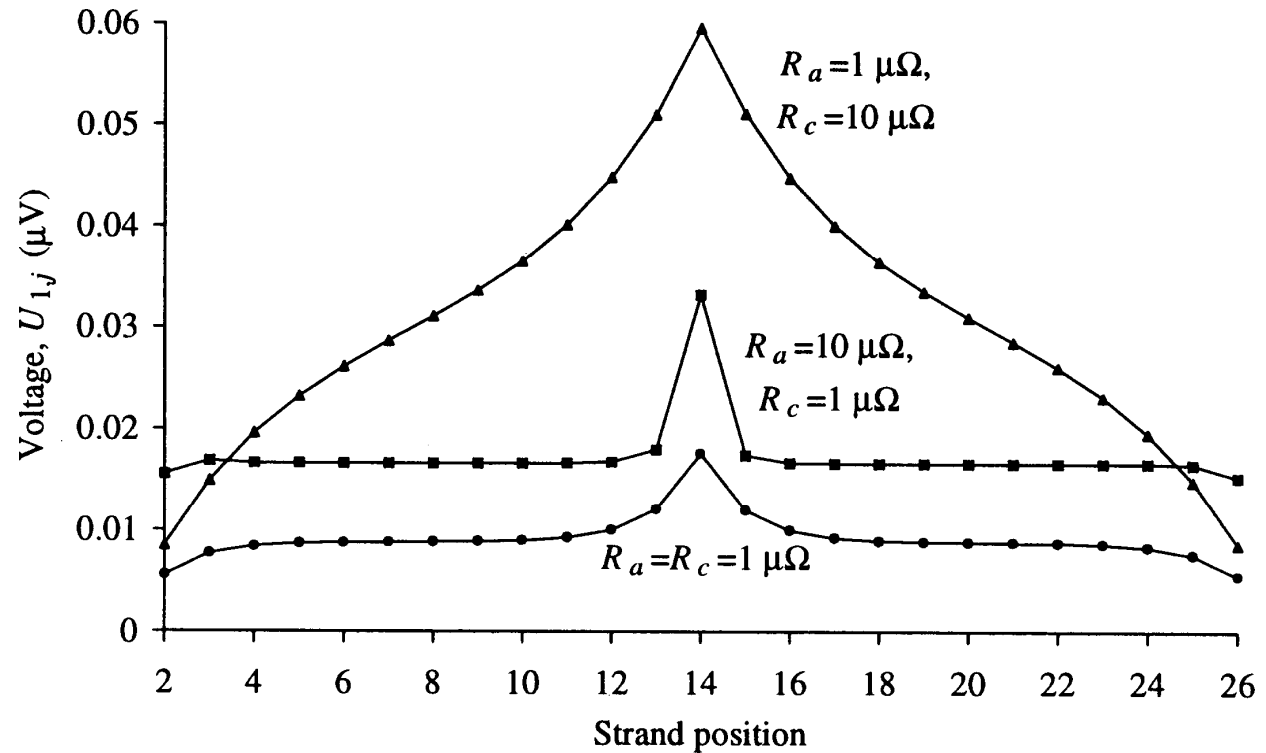


Measurement of r_c and r_a



- the best way is to measure magnetization directly, but this is expensive for a large cable
- a cheaper quicker alternative is to inject current between opposite sides of a cable sample and measure the voltage distribution between all the wires

- shape of the plots depends on the ratio R_a / R_c
- for details see *'Electrodynamics of superconducting cables in accelerator magnets', AP Verweij Thesis University Twente 1995*

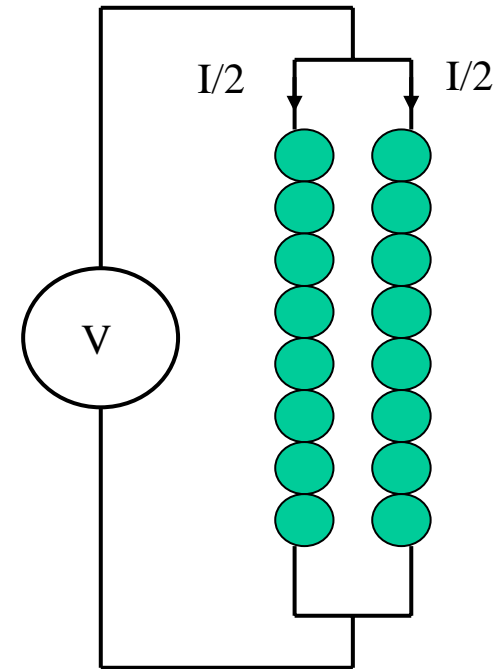


Measurement when $r_a \ll r_c$

Cored cables when $R_a \ll R_c$ are a rather simple case.
The current divides in two and each branch flows
between $N/2$ wires, where N is number of wires in cable
let sample length = l_s measured voltage = V current = I

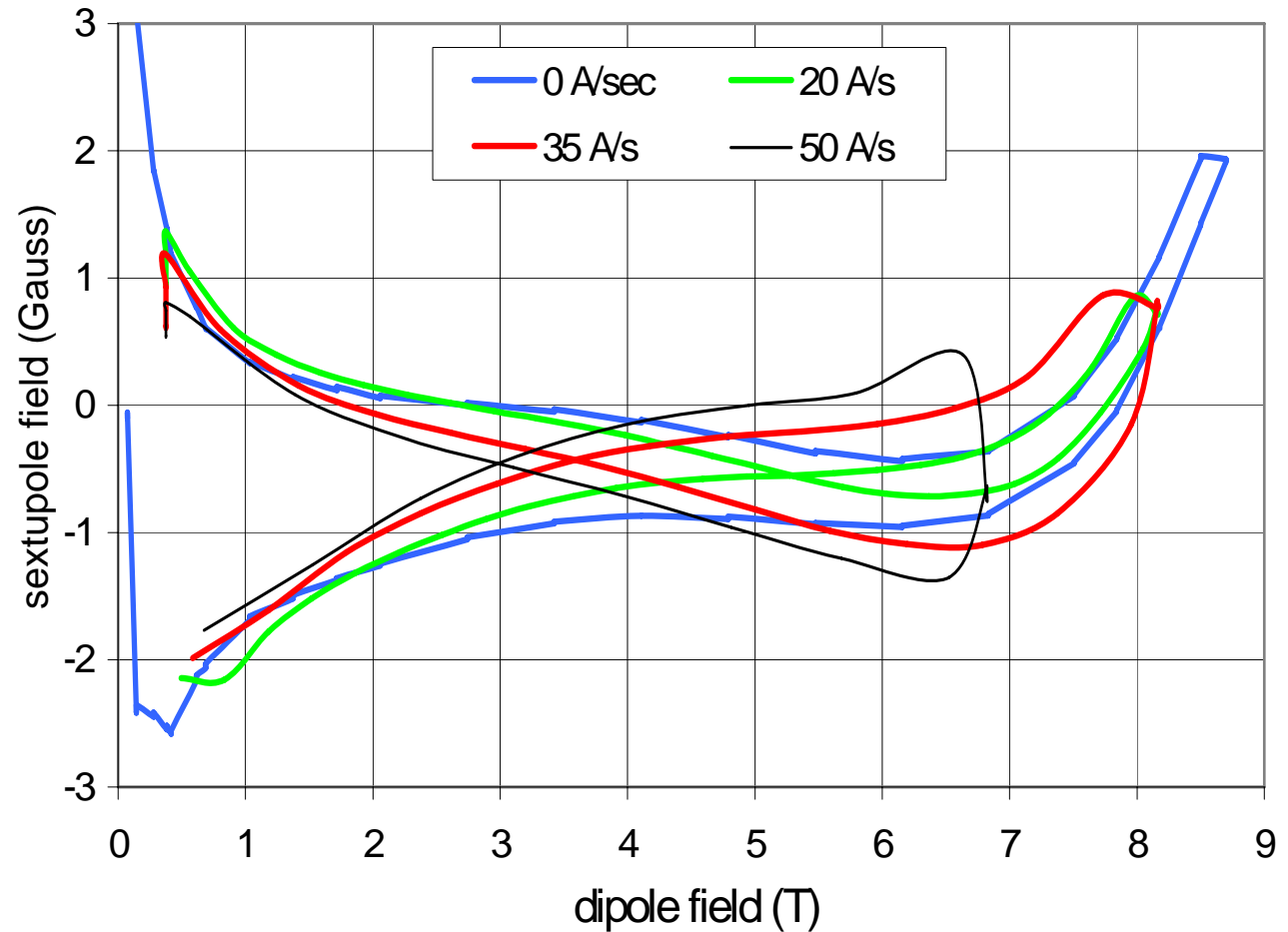
$$\frac{2V}{I} = \frac{N}{2} \frac{r_a}{b l_s}$$

$$r_a = 4 \frac{V b l_s}{I N}$$



Field errors caused by coupling

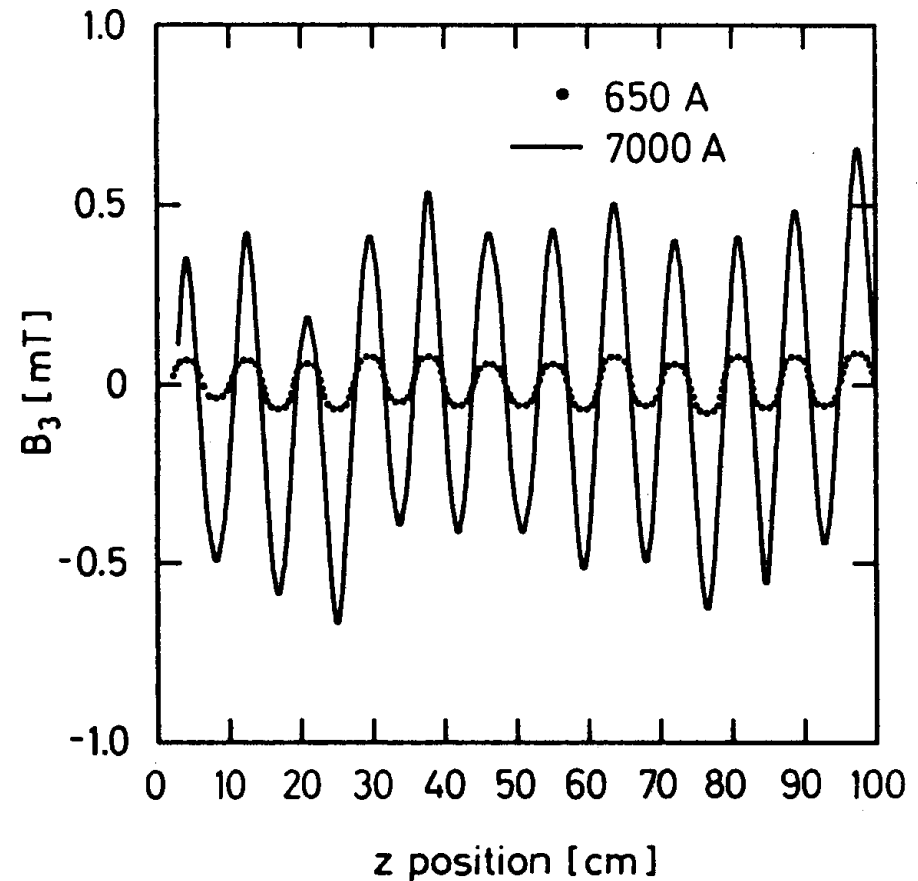
- plot of sextupole field error in an LHC dipole with field ramped at different rates
- error at low field due to filament magnetization
- error at high field due to
 - a) iron saturation
 - b) coupling between strands of the cable
- the curves turn 'inside out' because
 - greatest **filament** magnetization is in the **low** field region (high J_c)
 - greatest **coupling** is in the **high** field region (high dB/dt)



data from Luca Bottura CERN

Long range coupling: BICCs

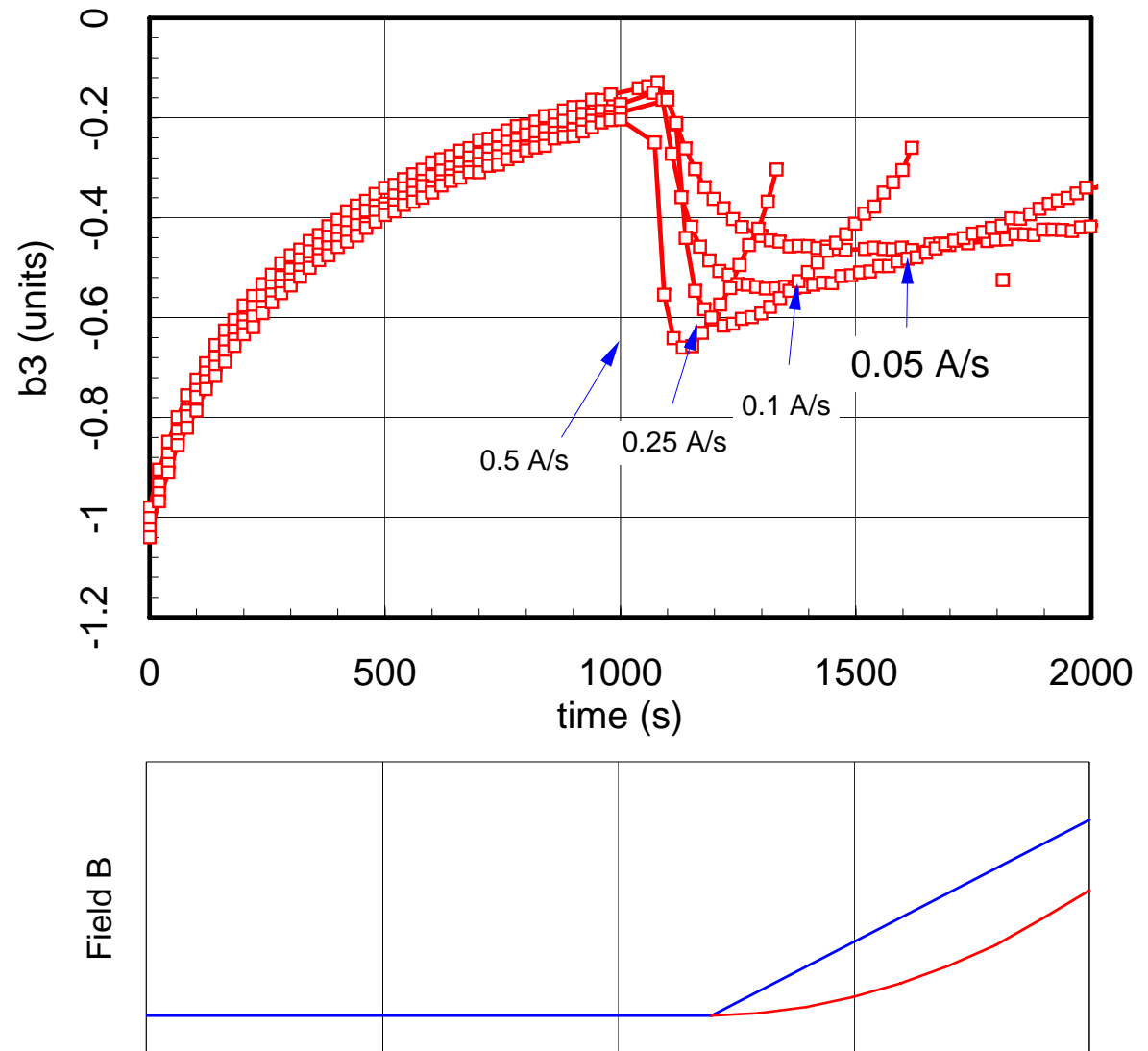
- measuring the field of an accelerator magnet along the beam direction, we find a ripple
- wavelength of this ripple exactly matches the twist pitch of the cable
- thought to be caused by non uniform current sharing in the cable
- Verweij has called them 'boundary induced coupling currents' **BICCs**
- they are caused by non uniform flux linkages or resistances in the cable, eg at joints, coil ends, manufacturing errors etc.
- wavelength is \ll betatron wavelength so no direct problem, but interesting secondary effects such as '**snap back**'.



sextupole measured in SSC dipole at injection and full field

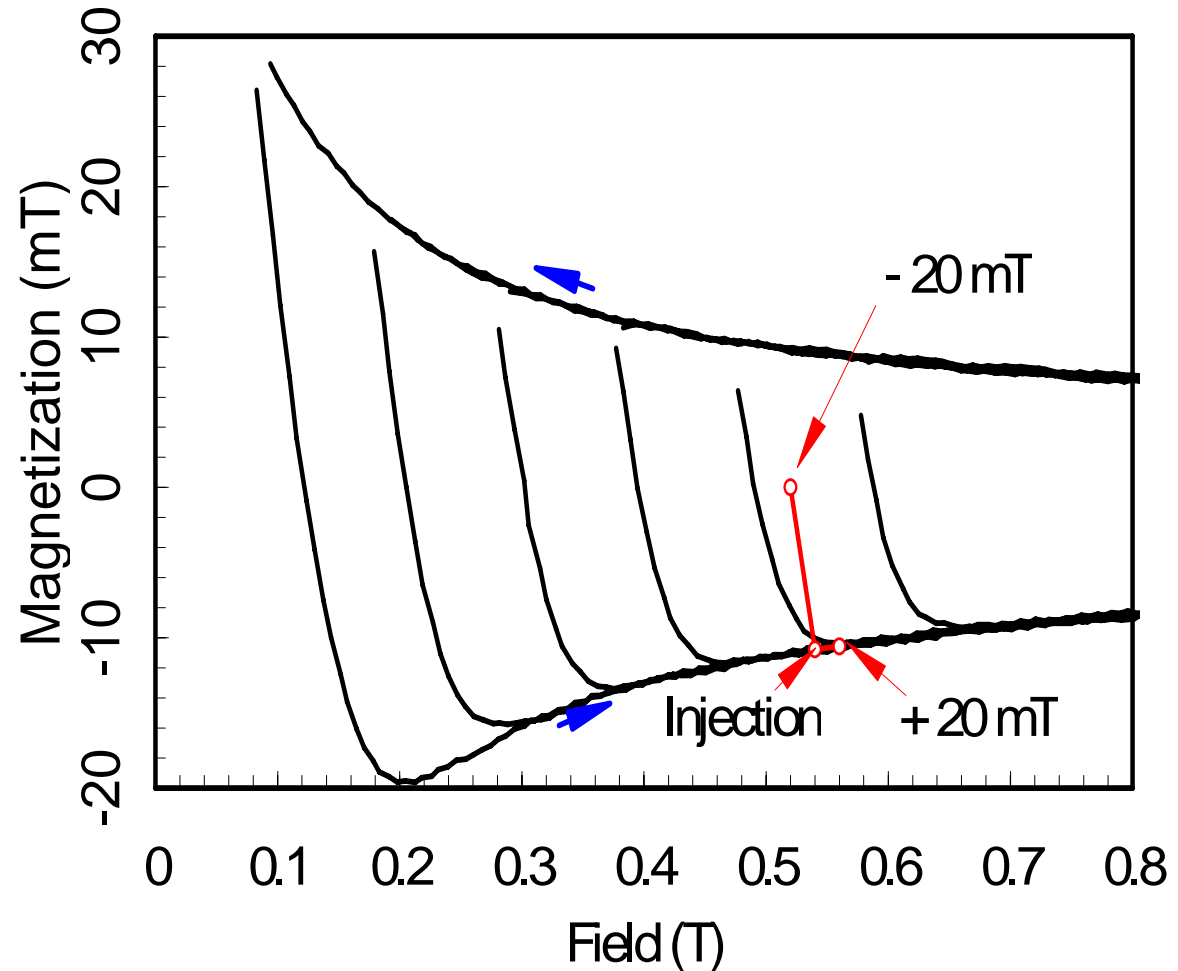
Snap back

- during the injection platform of an LHC dipole, the sextupole error term **integrated over the magnet length** decays with a time constant of $\sim 1000\text{sec}$.
- when the ramp is started, the error term 'snaps back' to its earlier value
- it is difficult to find a time constant of 1000 seconds in any of the usual coupling modes
- BICCs have such a time constant, but integrating the oscillating field over the magnet length gives zero!



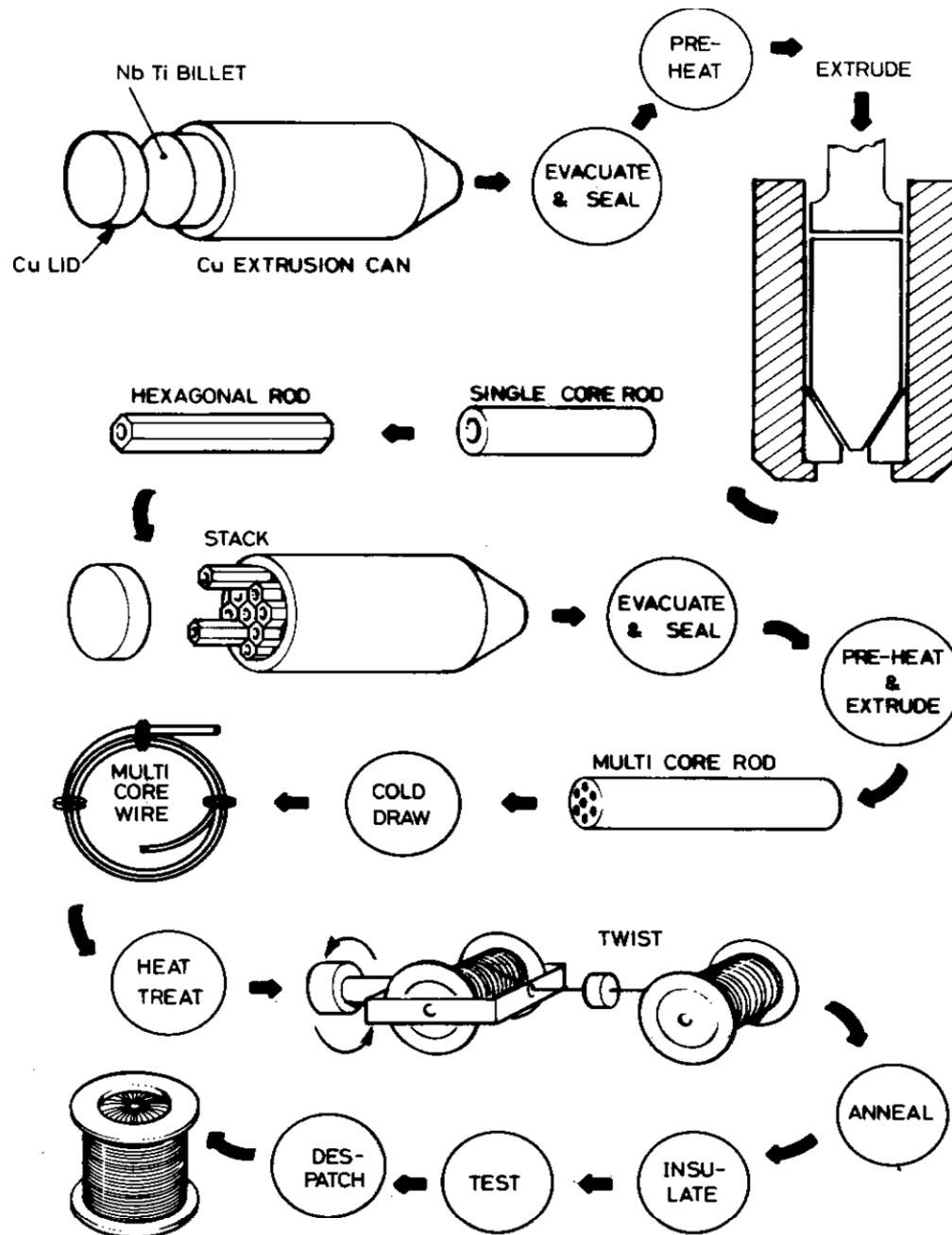
Snap back: an explanation

- BICCs produce a field component which alternates ± 20 mT along the magnet
- imagine the hysteresis curve of NbTi filaments subjected to this oscillation
- a 20 mT increase produces very little change in filament magnetization
- a 20 mT decrease produces a large change in filament magnetization
- thus the hysteresis curve acts as a 'rectifier' enabling the oscillating BICCs to produce a dc level



explanation by Rob Wolf of CERN

Manufacture of NbTi



- vacuum melting of NbTi billets
- hot extrusion of the copper NbTi composite
- sequence of cold drawing and intermediate heat treatments to precipitate α 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 - see lecture 2

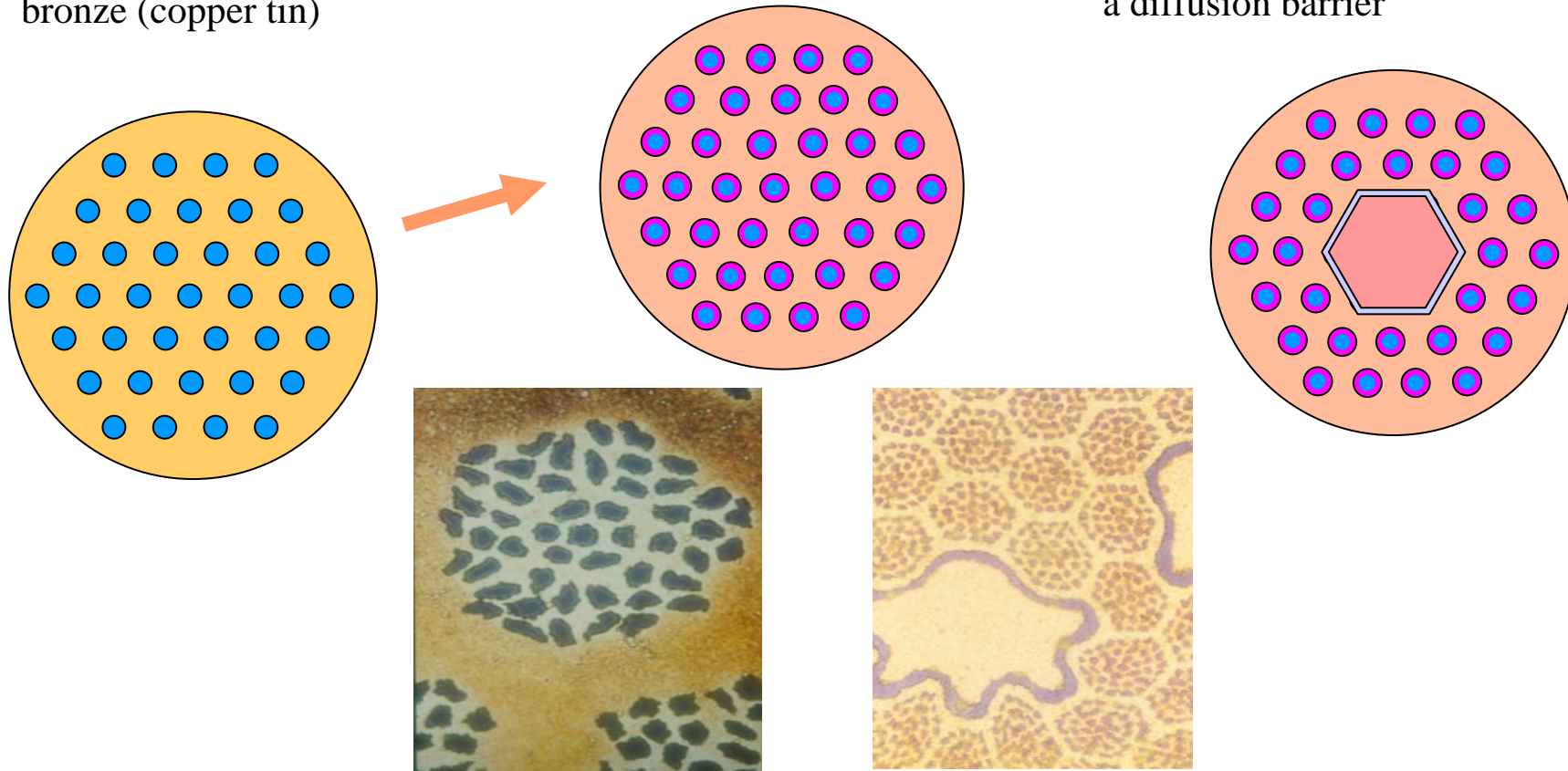
Manufacture of filamentary Nb_3Sn wire

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

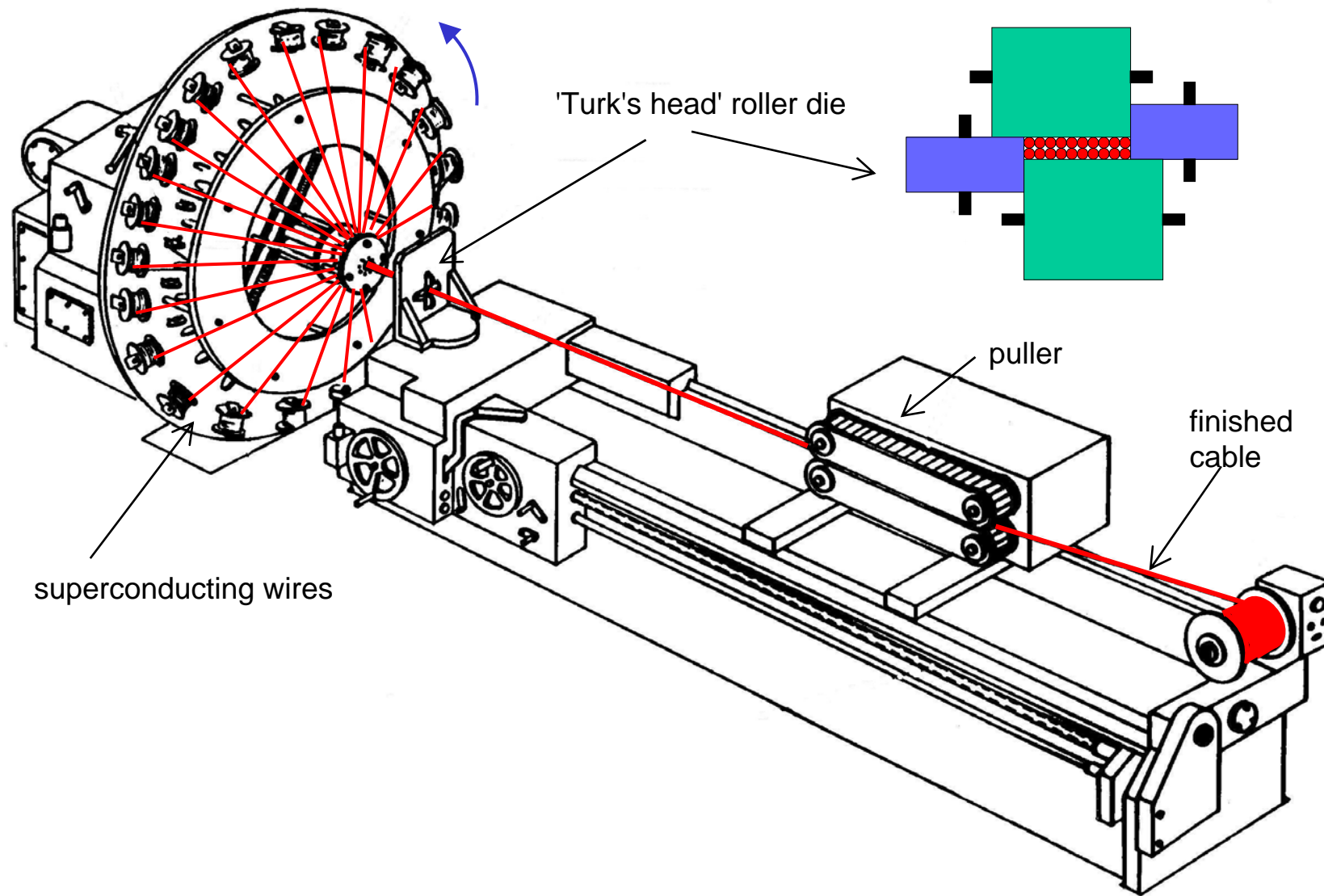
Instead we must draw down pure niobium in a matrix of bronze (copper tin)

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



Cable manufacture



Cables: concluding remarks

- accelerator magnets need high current because they must be connected in series
- high currents need cables of 20 - 40 wires
- cables must be fully transposed to get uniform current sharing between the wires
- wires in the cables become coupled in changing fields and acquire additional magnetization - similar to the filaments in composite wires, but more complicated because of geometry
- we distinguish between coupling magnetization coming from crossover and adjacent resistance R_c and R_a and fields perpendicular or parallel to the broad face of the cable
- in all cases the increased magnetization \Rightarrow loss
- need to control loss by surface treatment to increase R_c and R_a or core to increase R_c only
- measure R_c and R_a resistively
- cable magnetization also \Rightarrow field error
- boundary induced coupling currents BICCs give some interesting 2nd order effects