



Berliner Elektronenspeicherring-Gesellschaft
für Synchrotronstrahlung m.b.H.

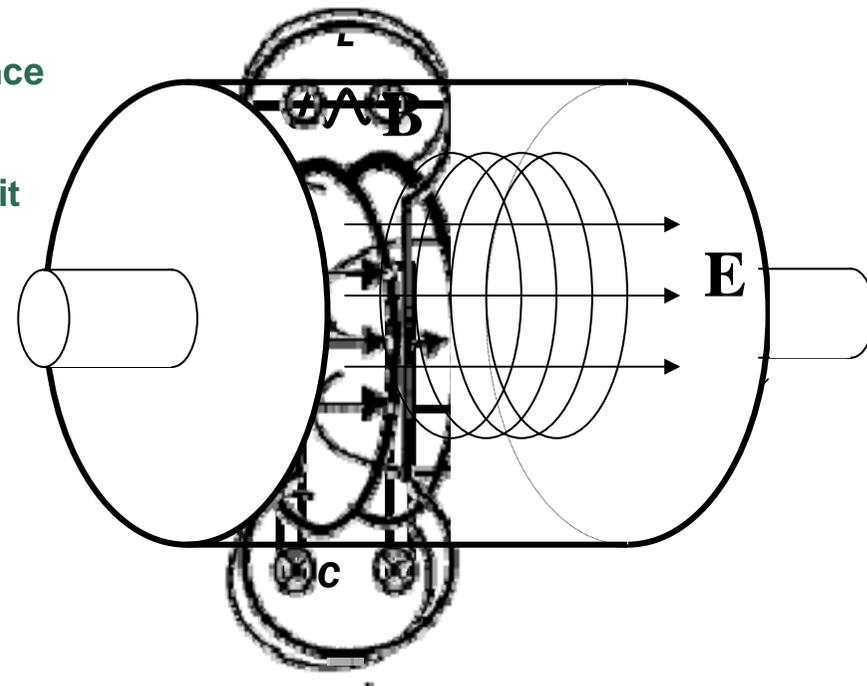
Basics of Superconducting RF

J. Knobloch, BESSY

- **What is the theoretical behavior of superconducting RF cavities?**
- **Short introduction to RF cavities** *(details in Tutorials 2a/b)*
- **Need some „tools“ to characterize their performance/losses**
 - Figures of Merit: Surface resistance, Q-factor, shunt impedance ...
- **RF losses for normal and superconductors: theoretical behavior**
- **Use the Figures of Merit to understand the impact of losses on RF cavities**
- **Cavity losses: measured behavior, how to improve them**
- **Fundamental field limits of superconducting cavities** *(practical limits in Tutorial 4b)*
- **Note: Throughout will calculate examples**
 - Always use a 1.5 GHz pillbox cavity
 - Superconductor: always bulk niobium *(Other materials/thin films to Tutorial 6a/b)*
 - Some equations, most you can forget again. Important ones are marked in yellow

- For acceleration we require an oscillating RF field
- Simplest form is an LC circuit
- Let $L = 0.1 \text{ mH}$, $C = 0.01 \text{ } \mu\text{F} \rightarrow f = 160 \text{ kHz}$
- To increase the frequency, lower L , eventually only have a single wire
- To reach even lower values must add inductances in parallel
- Eventually have we have a solid wall
- Shorten „wires“ even further to reduce inductance
- → Pillbox cavity, „simplest form“
- Add beam tubes to let the particles enter and exit
- Magnetic field concentrated in the cavity wall, losses will be here.

Based on Feynman's Lect. on Physics.

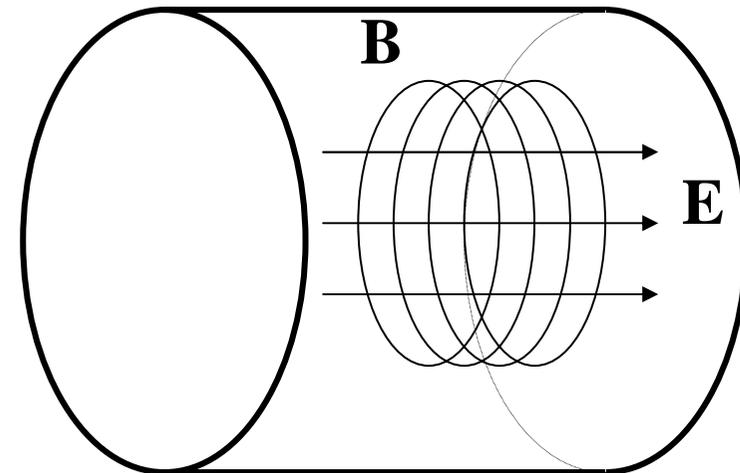


- Fields in the cavity are solutions to the wave equation $\left(\nabla^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \right) \begin{Bmatrix} \mathbf{E} \\ \mathbf{H} \end{Bmatrix} = 0$
- Subject to the boundary conditions $\hat{n} \times \mathbf{E} = 0, \quad \hat{n} \cdot \mathbf{H} = 0$
- Solutions are two families of modes with different eigenfrequencies
 - TE modes have only transverse electric fields
 - TM modes have only transverse magnetic fields (but longitudinal component for \mathbf{E})
- TM modes are needed for acceleration. Choose the one with the lowest frequency (TM₀₁₀)
- For pillbox (no beam tubes) solution is:

$$E_z = E_0 J_0 \left(\frac{2.405 \rho}{R} \right) e^{-i\omega t}$$

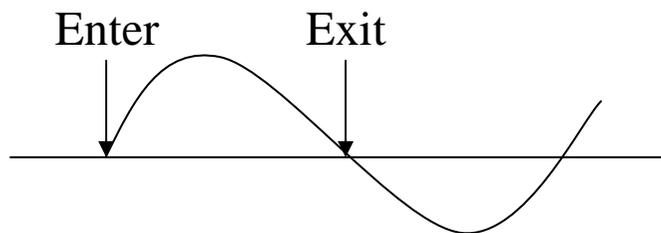
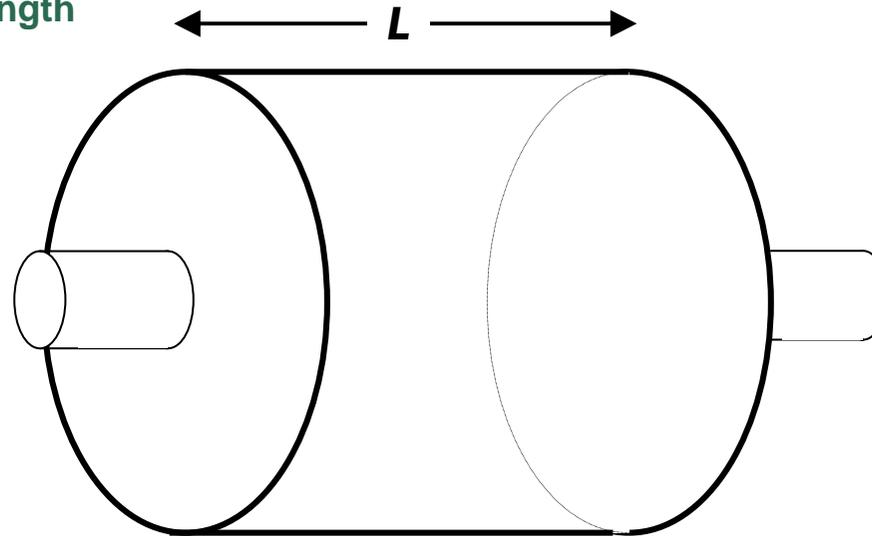
$$H_\phi = -i \frac{E_0}{\eta} J_1 \left(\frac{2.405 \rho}{R} \right) e^{-i\omega t}$$

$$\omega_{010} = \frac{2.405c}{R} \quad \eta = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0}{\epsilon_0}}$$



- Note that the frequency scales inversely with the linear dimension of the cavity (call this „a“)

- Optimizing Cavity Length



$$T_{\text{transit}} = \frac{L_{\text{acc}}}{\beta c} = \frac{T_{\text{RF}}}{2} \Rightarrow L_{\text{acc}} = \frac{\beta c T_{\text{RF}}}{2}$$

E.g.: For 1.5 GHz cavity and speed of light electrons ($\beta = 1$), $L_{\text{acc}} = 10 \text{ cm}$

- How much energy gain can we expect?
- Integrate the E-field at the particle position as it traverses the cavity:

$$V_c = \left| \int_0^d E_z(\rho = 0, z) e^{i\omega_0 z/c} dz \right| \quad (\text{assume speed of light electrons})$$

- For the pillbox cavity this is

$$V_c = E_0 \left| \int_0^L \exp\left(\frac{i\omega_0 z}{c}\right) dz \right| = LE_0 \frac{\sin\left(\frac{\omega_0 L}{2c}\right)}{\frac{\omega_0 L}{2c}} = \frac{2}{\pi} E_0 L$$

$L_{\text{acc}} = \frac{cT_{\text{RF}}}{2}$

- We can define the accelerating field as $E_{\text{acc}} = \frac{V_c}{L} = \frac{2}{\pi} E_0$

- Important for the cavity performance is the ratio of the peak fields to the accelerating field.

- Ideally these should be relatively small to limit losses and other trouble at high fields

$$\frac{1}{L} E_z = E_0 J_0\left(\frac{2.405\rho}{R}\right) e^{-i\omega t} \quad \text{ore like 2}$$

$$\frac{1}{L_{\text{acc}}} H_\phi = -i \frac{E_0}{\eta} J_1\left(\frac{2.405\rho}{R}\right) e^{-i\omega t} \quad \text{ly more like 3600}$$

- Tangential magnetic fields exist at the cavity wall

→ By Maxwell's equation $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu \vec{J} + \mu \epsilon \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$ currents must flow.

- Current density is proportional to the magnetic field

- If the material is lossy, this will lead to power dissipation

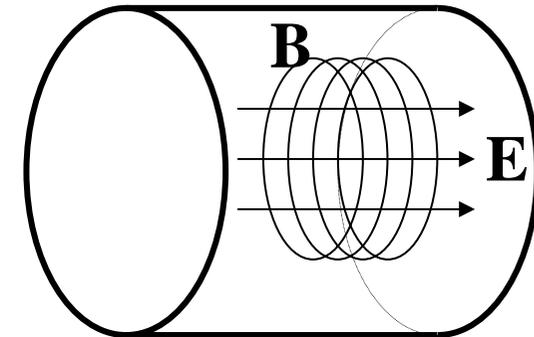
- (one reason why one may want a low ratio of magnetic field to accelerating field)

- By Ohm's law one can define a surface resistance such that the power dissipated per unit area is given by:

$$\frac{dP_c}{ds} = \frac{1}{2} R_s |\mathbf{H}|^2$$

- The total power dissipated in the cavity is given by the integral over the surface:

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



- How does this compare to the energy stored in the cavity?
- Define the cavity quality as:

$$Q_0 = 2\pi \frac{\text{Energy stored in the cavity}}{\text{Energy dissipated in one RF cycle}} \approx 2\pi \times \text{Number of cycles to dissipate the stored energy}$$

- (Note: Easy quantity to measure. Just fill the cavity with energy, switch off and count the number of cycles it takes to dissipate the energy)

- The stored energy is: $U = \frac{1}{2} \mu_0 \int_V |\mathbf{H}|^2 dv$

- Hence $Q_0 = \frac{\omega_0 \mu_0 \int_V |\mathbf{H}|^2 dv}{R_s \int_S |\mathbf{H}|^2 ds}$

- Note that $\frac{\int_V |\mathbf{H}|^2 dv}{\int_S |\mathbf{H}|^2 ds} \propto a \propto \frac{1}{\omega_0}$

- And hence $Q_0 = \frac{G}{R_s}$

where G is the geometry factor which only depends on the cavity shape!



$$\text{For a pillbox : } G = \frac{453\Omega \frac{d}{R}}{1 + \frac{d}{R}} = 257\Omega$$

- The cavity quality: useful value for the performance of the cavity, measures how lossy the cavity material is
- But really we want to know how much power is dissipated to accelerate the charges.
- Hence one defines a *shunt impedance*:

$$R_a = \frac{V_c^2}{P_{\text{diss}}}$$

- The higher the shunt impedance, the more acceleration we get per watt of dissipation

- A very useful quantity is generated by dividing by the quality factor: Operating parameter, given by Accelerator

$$\frac{R_a}{Q_0} = \frac{V_c^2}{\omega_0 U} \Rightarrow P_{\text{diss}} = \frac{V_c^2}{\frac{R_a}{Q_0} \times Q_0} \Rightarrow P_{\text{diss}} = \frac{V_c^2}{\frac{R_a}{Q_0} \times G} R_s$$

Cavity material

- Why? Because $V_c^2 \propto a^2 \propto \frac{1}{\omega_0^2}$
 $U \propto a^3 \propto \frac{1}{\omega_0^3}$ } $\Rightarrow \frac{V_c^2}{U} \propto \omega_0 \Rightarrow \frac{R}{Q_0}$ **Depends only on the cavity shape but not its size (frequency) or material!**

- Pillbox: $\frac{R}{Q_0} = 150\Omega \frac{d}{R} = 196\Omega$

- Lets calculate one example: Want to operate a 1.5 GHz Pillbox at 1 MV

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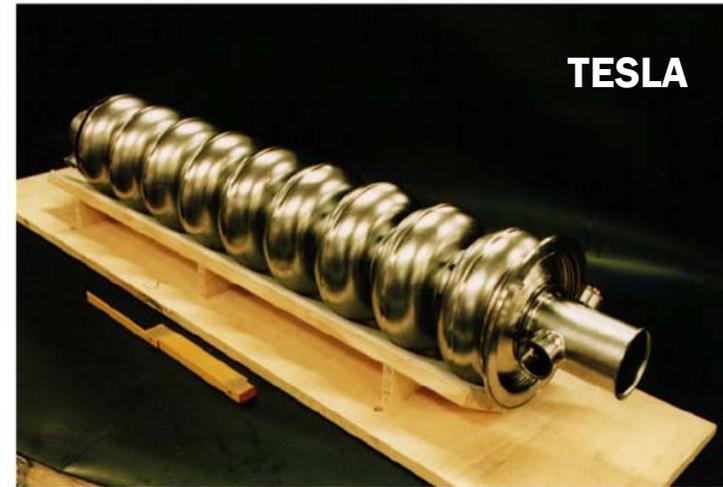
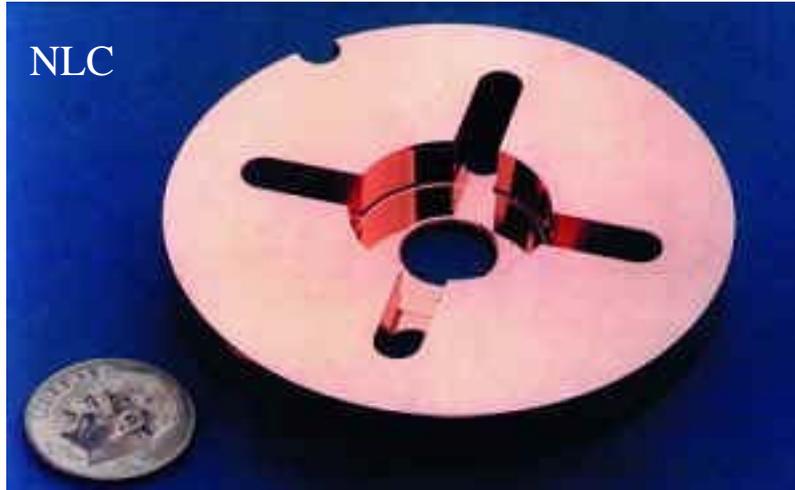
For copper cavities, power dissipation is a huge constraint
 → Cavity design is driven by this fact

For a clock pendulum (1 sec): 815 years!

For SC cavities, power dissipation is minimal
 → decouples the cavity design from the dynamic losses
 → free to adapt design to specific application

$$L_{\text{acc}} = \frac{10}{L_{\text{acc}}} \text{ m} \quad \rightarrow \quad H_{\text{pk}} = 2 \frac{E_{\text{acc}}}{m} \text{ m}$$

$$H_{\text{pk}} = 2430 \frac{\text{A}}{\text{m}} E_{\text{acc}} = 24300 \frac{\text{A}}{\text{m}}, B_{\text{pk}} = 31 \text{mT}$$



- **NLC design developed to reduce power dissipation to a minimum**
- **But many other areas are impacted in a negative way**
 - E.g., → Strong wakefields are created → impact beam dynamics
 - Small size → extremely tight tolerances
- **TELSA design**
- **Power dissipation less critical**
 - → Choose design that relaxes wakefields
 - Still: heat is deposited in LHe → cost issue that must be understood

- Clearly, cavity losses strongly impact the design/operation of the cavity
- Will analyze the behavior of normal-conducting and superconducting RF losses
- Look at scaling laws: frequency, temperature, material purity ...

- Then turn to the real world, look at deviation from the ideal
 - Residual losses
 - Trapped magnetic flux
 - The Q-disease

- How far can we push a superconducting cavity?
- Theoretical Limit of superconductors

- For simplicity, use the nearly-free electron model
- Losses given by Ohm's law
- The electrons have a time τ between scattering events to gain energy $\Delta v = \frac{-e\mathbf{E}\tau}{m}$

$$\mathbf{j} = \sigma\mathbf{E} = \frac{n_n e^2 \tau}{m} \mathbf{E}, \quad \tau = \text{scattering time}$$

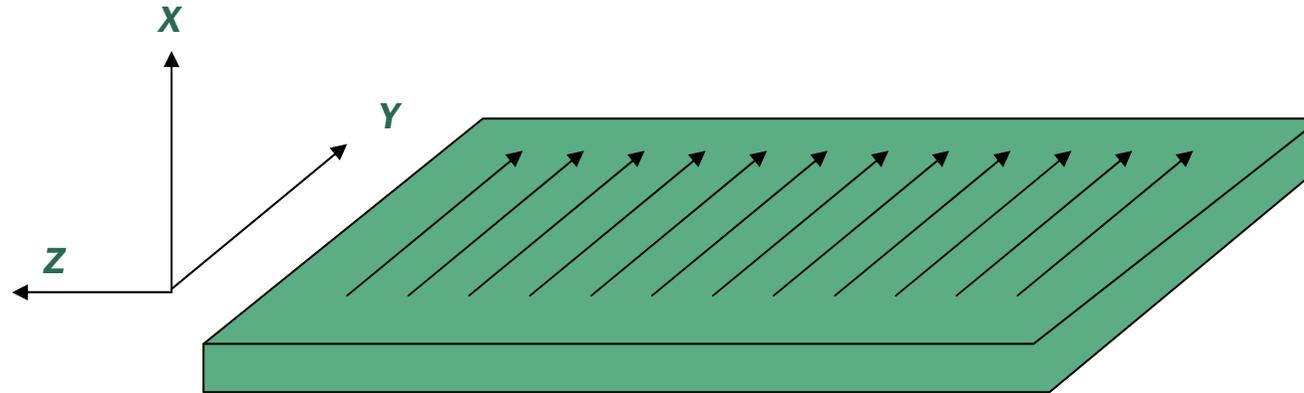
- In a cavity, the magnetic field drives an oscillating current in the wall
 - → Start with Maxwell's equations

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \mu \mathbf{j} + \mu \epsilon \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} \quad \nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

- Combine the two and take the $\exp(i\omega t)$ dependence into account

$$-\nabla^2 \mathbf{B} = \mu \nabla \times \mathbf{j} - \mu \epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{B}}{\partial^2 t} = -i\mu \sigma \omega \mathbf{B} + \mu \epsilon \omega^2 \mathbf{B}$$

- Look at a typical copper RF cavity: $\sigma = 5.8 \times 10^7 \frac{\text{A}}{\text{Vm}}$ $\omega \epsilon_0 = 0.08 \frac{\text{A}}{\text{Vm}}$ at 1.5 GHz



Consider now a uniform magnetic field (y-direction) at the surface of a conductor.

Solving $\nabla^2 \mathbf{B} - i\mu\sigma\omega \mathbf{B} = 0$

yields $H_y = H_0 e^{-x/\delta} e^{-ix/\delta}$

where the field decays into the conductor with over a skin depth of

$$\delta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi f \mu \sigma}}$$

Similarly, from Maxwell find that $E_z = -\frac{(1+i)}{\sigma\delta} H_y$

So that a small, tangential component of E also exists which decays into the conductor

$$H_y = H_0 e^{-x/\delta} e^{-ix/\delta} \quad E_z = -\frac{(1+i)}{\sigma\delta} H_y$$

- The losses per area are simply
$$P'_{\text{diss}} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{x=0}^{\infty} J_z^* E_z dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_{x=0}^{\infty} \sigma |E_z|^2 dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\sigma\delta} H_0^2 = \frac{1}{2} R_s H_0^2 \quad R_s = \frac{1}{\sigma\delta} = \sqrt{\frac{\pi f \mu}{\sigma}}$$

- Note: Surface resistance is just the real part of the surface impedance:

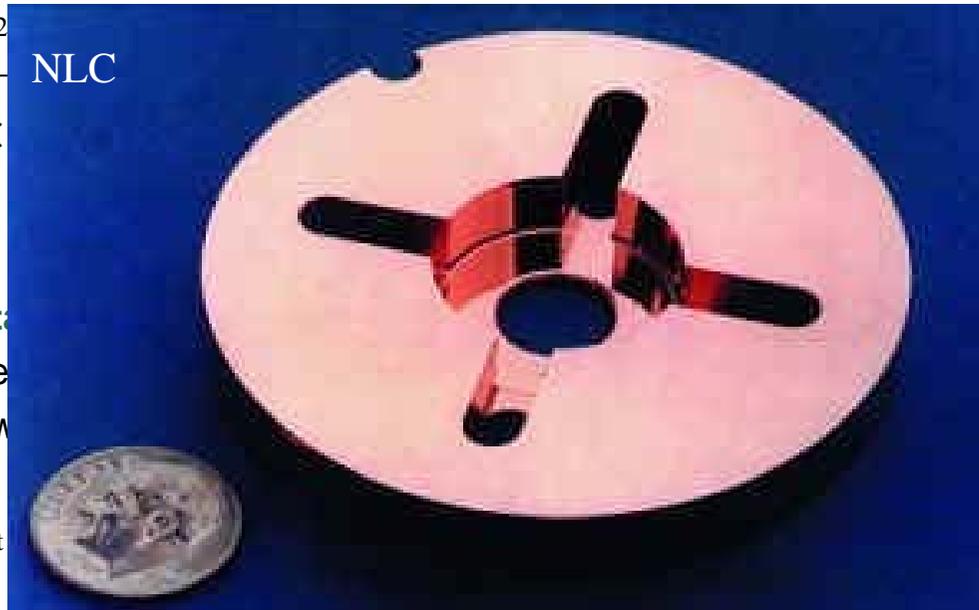
$$Z_s = \frac{E_z}{H_y} = \frac{1+i}{\sigma\delta} = (1+i) \sqrt{\frac{\pi f \mu}{\sigma}} = \sqrt{\frac{\omega \mu}{\sigma}} \exp(i\pi/4)$$

- Plug in some numbers:
- Copper: $f = 1.5 \text{ GHz}$, $\sigma = 5.8 \times 10^7 \text{ A/Vm}$, $\mu_0 = 1.26 \times 10^{-6} \text{ Vs/Am}$

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow \delta &= 1.7 \text{ } \mu\text{m}, R_s = 10 \text{ m}\Omega \\ \rightarrow Q_0 &= G/R_s = 25700 \end{aligned}$$

- Note that for $R_s = \frac{1}{\sigma\delta} = \sqrt{\frac{\pi f \mu}{\sigma}}$, the surface resistance scales as $\sqrt{\omega}$

- Recall $P_{\text{diss}} = \frac{V_c^2}{\frac{R_a}{Q_0} \times \text{NLC}}$



- But consider the total power (nac):
 - For a total voltage
 - Thus the total power

P_{tot}

- Since $L_{\text{acc}} \propto \frac{1}{\omega}$ All geometry

- The total power dissipation scales as: $P_{\text{tot}} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{\omega}}$ → For NC systems high frequencies are desirable (But beam dynamics may suffer!)

Two fluid model, must consider both sc and nc components:

- Below T_c superconducting cooper pairs are formed with an energy gap 2Δ
- The density of remaining „normal“ electrons is given by

$$n_n \propto \exp\left(\frac{-\Delta}{k_B T}\right)$$

- DC case: The lossless Cooper pairs short out the field
 - the normal electrons are not accelerated
 - the SC is lossless even for $T > 0$ K

- What's different for the RF case?
- Cooper pairs have inertia!
 - they cannot follow an AC field instantly and thus do not shield it perfectly
 - a residual field remains
 - the normal electrons are accelerated and dissipate power
- Scalings of the surface resistance:
- The faster the field oscillates the less perfect the shielding
 - We expect the surface resistance to increase with frequency
- The more normal electrons exist, the lossier the material
 - We expect the surface resistance to drop exponentially below T_c

- Calculate surface impedance of a superconductor
→ Must take into account the „superconducting“ electrons (n_s) in the 2-fluid model
- For these there is no scattering
- Thus:

$$m \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial t} = -e \mathbf{E} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{j}_s}{\partial t} = \frac{n_s e^2}{m} \mathbf{E} \quad \text{First London Equation}$$

$\mathbf{j}_s = n_s e \mathbf{v}$

- In an RF field with $\exp(i\omega t)$ dependence $\Rightarrow \mathbf{j}_s = -i \frac{n_s e^2}{m\omega} \mathbf{E}$

Acts as the AC conductivity of the superconducting fluid. „Collision time“ is the RF period.

or $\mathbf{j}_s = \frac{-i}{\omega \mu_0 \lambda_L^2} \mathbf{E}$ where $\lambda_L = \frac{m}{\mu_0 n_s e^2}$ is the London penetration depth

- Total current: Just add the currents due to both „fluids“: $\mathbf{j} = \mathbf{j}_n + \mathbf{j}_s = (\sigma_n - i\sigma_s) \mathbf{E}$

- Thus, the treatment with a superconductor is the same as before, only that we have to change:

$$\sigma \rightarrow (\sigma_n - i\sigma_s)$$

- Impedance $Z_s = \sqrt{\frac{\omega\mu}{\sigma}} \exp(i\pi/4) \rightarrow \sqrt{\frac{\omega\mu}{\sigma_n - i\sigma_s}} \exp(i\pi/4)$

- Penetration depth $\delta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi f \mu \sigma}} \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi f \mu (\sigma_n - i\sigma_s)}}$

- Where $H_y = H_0 \exp\left(-\frac{(1+i)}{\delta}x\right)$, $\sigma_n = \frac{n_n e^2 \tau}{m}$ and $\sigma_s = \frac{n_s e^2}{m\omega}$

- Note that $1/\omega$ is of order 100 ps whereas for normal conducting electrons τ is of order few 10 fs. Also, $n_s \gg n_n$ for $T \ll T_c$. Hence $\sigma_n \ll \sigma_s$

- As a result one finds that: $\delta \approx (1+i)\lambda_L \left(1 + i \frac{\sigma_n}{2\sigma_s}\right)$ $H_y = H_0 e^{-x/\lambda_L} e^{-ix\sigma_n/2\sigma_s\lambda_L}$

- Again, the field decays rapidly but now over the London penetration depth

Surface resistance of the superconductor

- For the impedance we get: $Z_s \approx \sqrt{\frac{\omega\mu}{\sigma_s}} \left(\frac{\sigma_n}{2\sigma_s} + i \right)$ $X_s = \omega\mu_0\lambda_L$ $R_s = \frac{1}{2}\sigma_n\omega^2\mu_0^2\lambda_L^3$
- Lets look at some numbers:
 For niobium $\lambda_L = 36$ nm, for Copper the penetration depth was 1.7 μm (@ 1.5 GHz)
 → The field penetrates over a much shorter distance than for a normal conductor
- At 1.5 GHz: $X_s = 0.43$ m Ω , whereas R_s is < 1 $\mu\Omega$
 → The superconductor is mostly reactive in line with our previous explanation of losses in a superconductor

- Note $R_s = \frac{1}{2} \sigma_n \omega^2 \mu_0^2 \lambda_L^3$

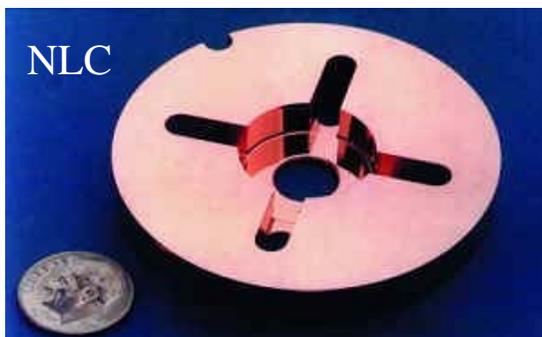
→ The surface resistance scales quadratically with frequency, also in agreement with our previous analysis

- Recall that the total dissipated power for all accelerating cavities was given by

$$P_{\text{tot}} = \text{frequency independent stuff} \times \frac{R_s}{\omega}$$

- Hence for a superconductor $P_{\text{tot}} \propto \omega$

→ Favors low-frequency cavities if cryogenic power is an issue.



$$R_s = \frac{1}{2} \sigma_n \omega^2 \mu_0^2 \lambda_L^3$$

- The surface resistance is proportional to the conductivity of the normal fluid!
→ If the normal-state resistivity is low, the superconductor is more lossy!
- Explanation: For „residual“ field not shielded by the Cooper pairs more „normal current“ flows → more dissipation
 $P_{\text{diss}} \propto \sigma_n E^2$

- *Temperature dependance:* Below T_c , electrons condense into the superconducting state.
- In the previous tutorial we saw for the normal fluid:

$$n_n \propto \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta(T)}{k_B T}\right) \approx \exp\left(-1.86 \frac{T_c}{T}\right)$$

→ Conductivity is $\sigma_n \propto \ell \exp\left(-1.86 \frac{T_c}{T}\right)$

~~Property of the normal conductor~~
Property of cooling

- Hence the SC surface resistance is given by

$$R_s \propto \omega^2 \lambda_L^3 \ell \exp\left(-1.86 \frac{T_c}{T}\right)$$

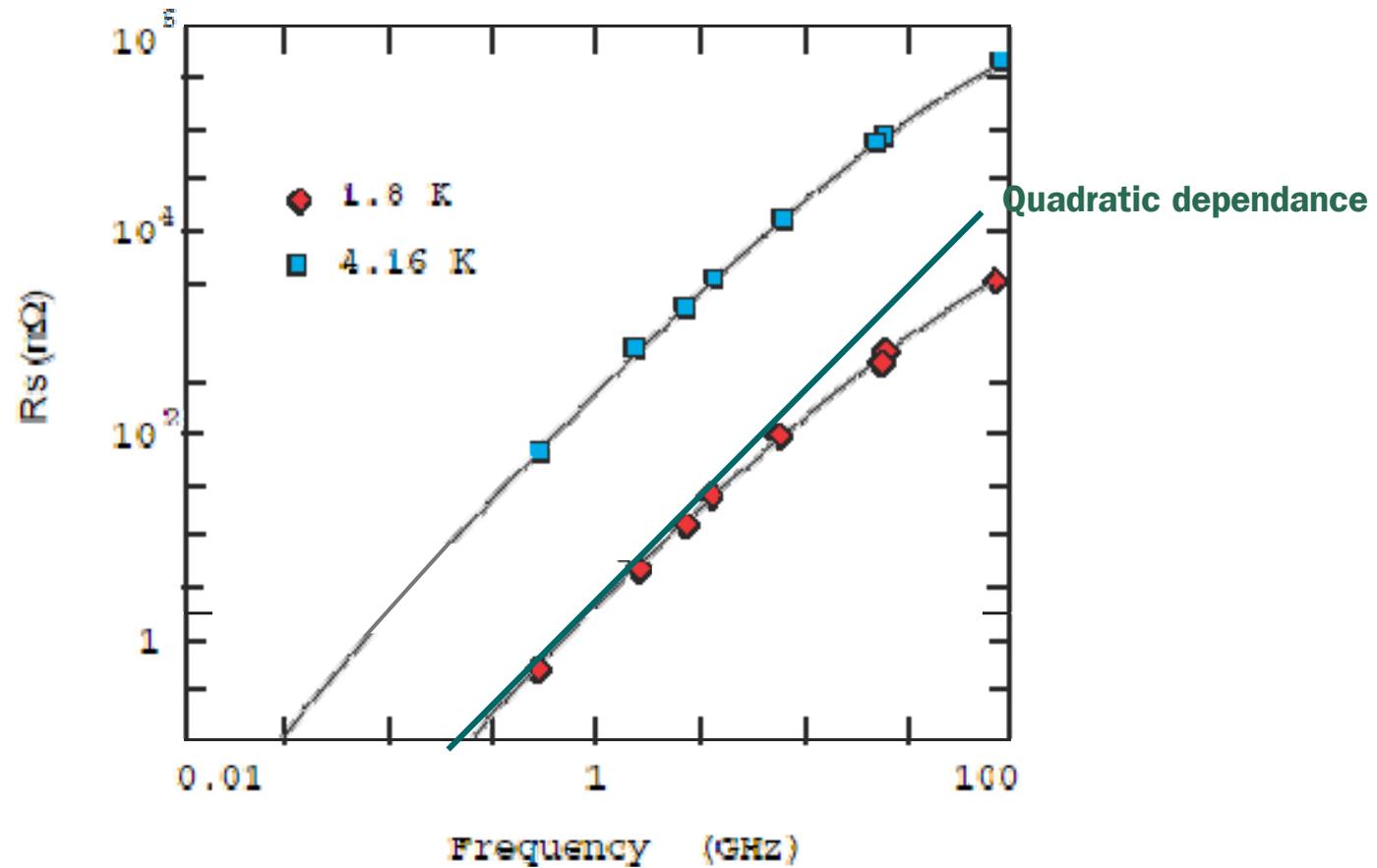
$$R_s \propto \omega^2 \lambda_L^3 \ell \exp\left(-1.86T_c/T\right)$$

The surface resistance

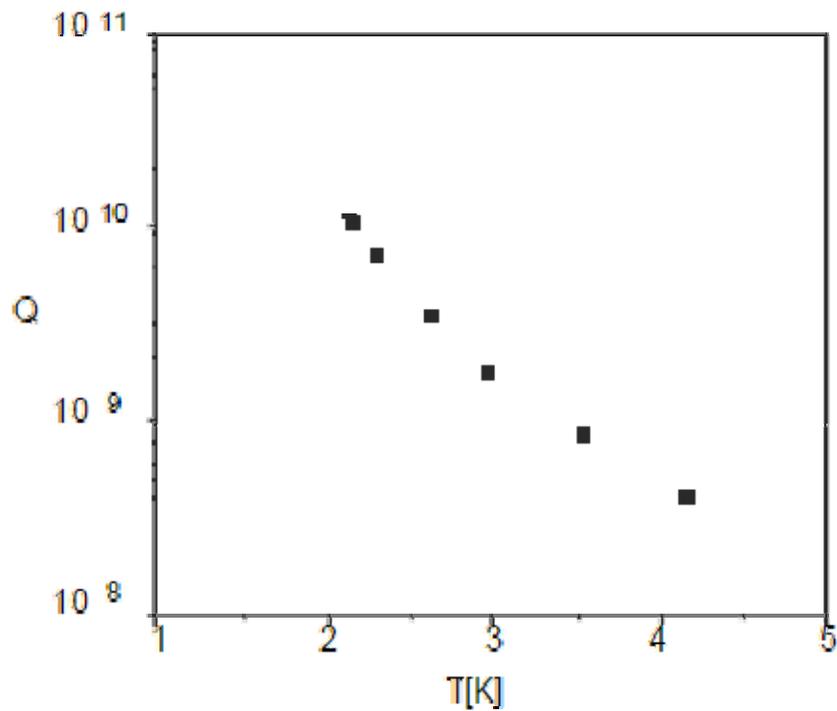
- Increases quadratically with frequency → use low frequency cavities
- Decreases exponentially with temperature → stay well below T_c
- Increases with increasing purity of the material → ~~use impure materials~~

No! This statement breaks down for very impure SC + there are compelling arguments to use high-purity material (see later and tutorial 4b!)

- Measurements at 4.2 K and 1.8 K confirm the frequency dependence.
- Slight deviation at high frequencies due to anisotropy of niobium



- Exponential dependance confirmed experimentally
- Measure Q factor of a cavity v. temperature
- Calculate surface resistance = G/Q_0



H. Padamsee et. al, Cornell

$$R_s \propto_n \omega^2 \lambda_L^3 l \exp\left(-1.86T_c/T\right)$$

- Surface resistance decreases as the mean free path decreases (less pure)
- This is only valid as long as the coherence length is \ll mean free path

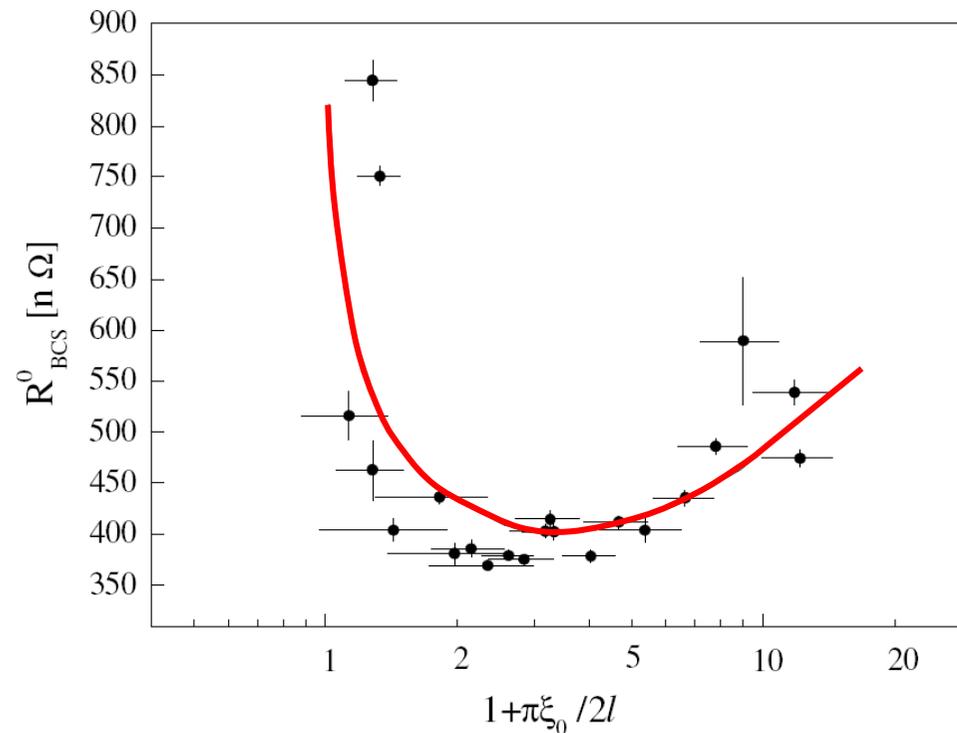
$$\xi_0 \ll l$$

- Otherwise the first London equation (local equation) breaks down.
- In that case must replace:

$$\lambda_L \Rightarrow \Lambda_L = \lambda_L \sqrt{1 + \frac{\xi_0}{l}}$$

- And thus the surface resistance increases when $l \leq \xi_0 = 64\text{nm}$

- Measurements have confirmed the general dependance on purity
- Sputtered niobium on copper
- By changing the sputtering species, the mean free path was varied (see Tutorial 6 (??))



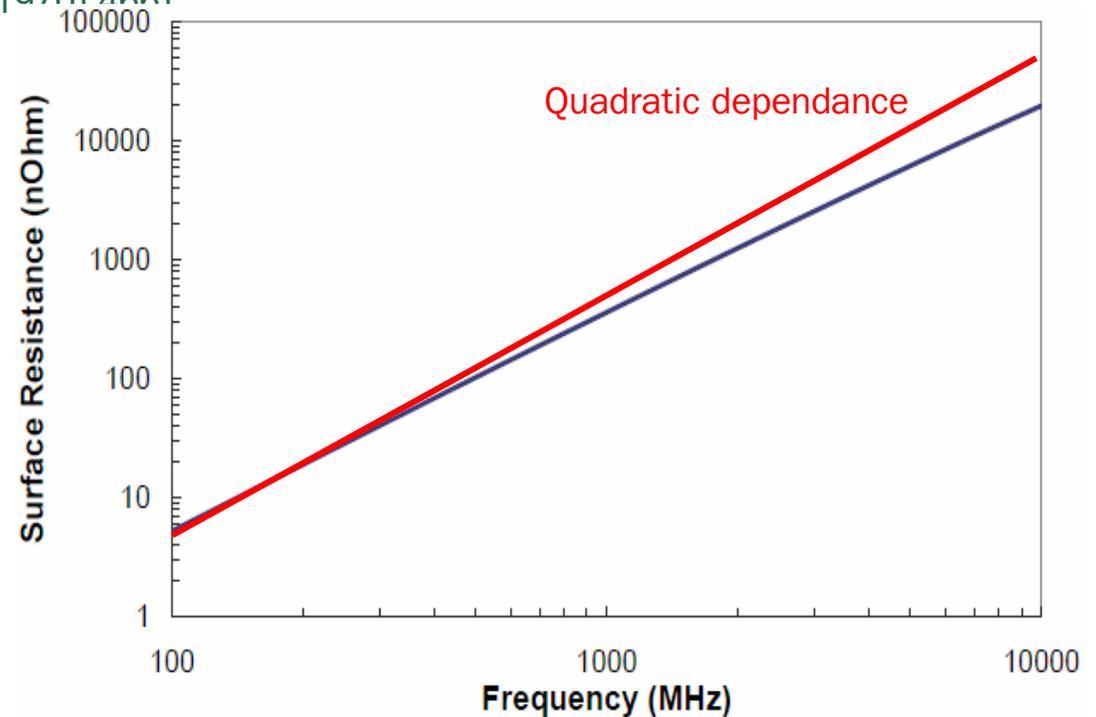
C. Benvenuti et. al, Physica C 316 (1999)

- Clearly, absolute calculation of surface resistance must take into account numerous parameters.
- Mattis & Bardeen developed theory based on BCS: „involves many tricky integrals“ ←HSP
- Approximate expression for Nb:

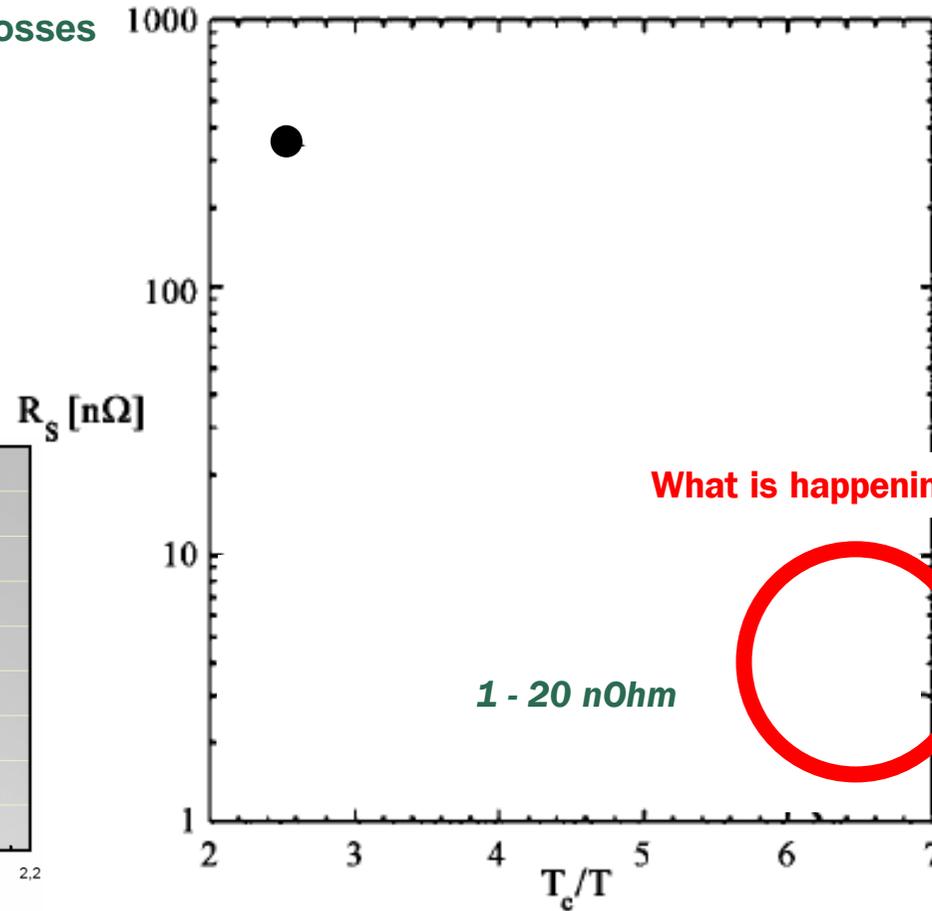
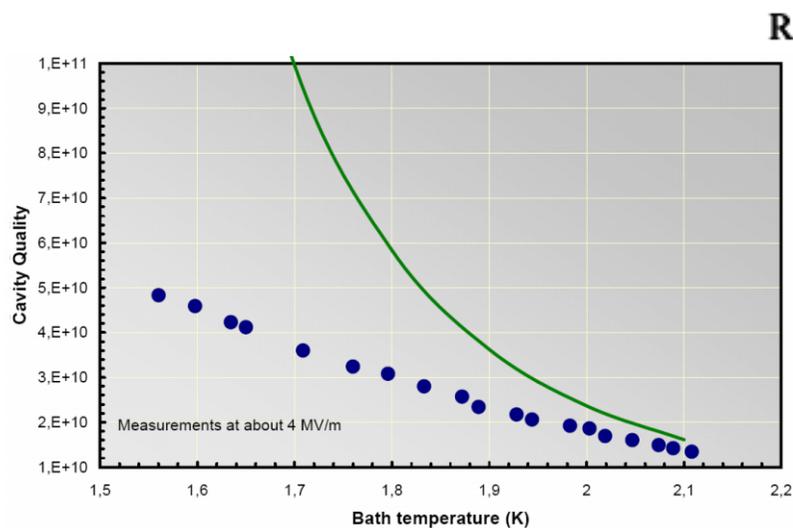
$$R_{\text{BCS}} \approx 2 \times 10^{-4} \Omega \left(\frac{f}{1500 \text{MHz}} \right)^2 \frac{1}{T} \exp\left(\frac{-17.67}{T} \right)$$

- Program written by J. Halbritter to calculate resistance under wide range of conditions
(J. Halbritter, Zeitschrift für Physik 238 (1970) 166)

- At Cornell: **SHRIMP**
- Must only supply a minimum number of parameters
- Effect of material purity included
- Frequency dependence calculated



- Measured cavities display a behavior similar to the theoretical surface resistance
- Thus lowering the temperature further should always improve the dynamic losses
- But eventually the effect saturates
- Temperature independent term is called *Residual Resistance*

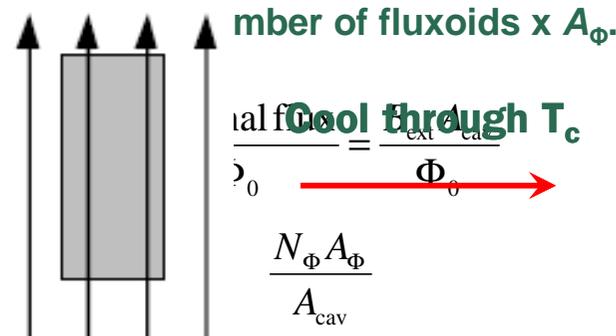


- Theory: Below H_{c1} , a superconductor always is in the Meissner State
- Reality: Nb „traps“ entire field if < 0.3 mT (even for high purity Nb)
 - → Earth's field (50 μ T) would be completely trapped.

C. Valet et al., in
Proc. EPAC 1992,
p. 1295

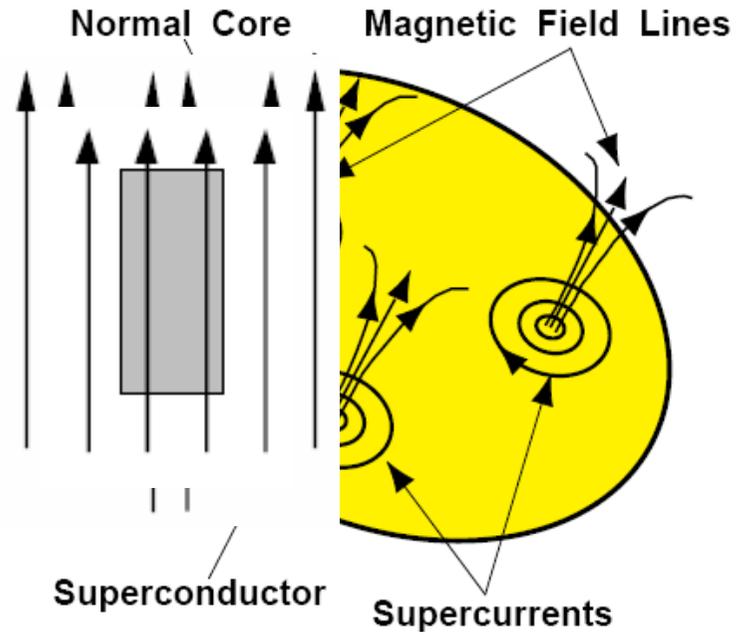
- The field penetrates the wall in „fluxoids“ of flux $\Phi_0 = \frac{\pi\hbar}{e}$ and normal conducting area $A_\Phi \approx \pi\xi_0^2$
- The RF field „tugs“ on the fluxoids and because of their motion a current flows through the normal conducting region

- Total area of the normal conducting region A_{cav}
- Number of fluxoids N_Φ
- Fraction of surface $\frac{N_\Phi A_\Phi}{A_{cav}}$

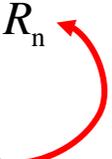


→ Effective surface resistance due to trapped flux is:

$$R_\Phi = \frac{N_\Phi A_\Phi}{A_{cav}} R_n = \frac{\mu_0 H_{ext} \pi \xi_0^2}{\Phi_0} R_n$$



$$R_{\Phi} = \frac{\mu_0 H_{\text{ext}} \pi \xi_0^2}{\Phi_0} R_n$$

$$H_{c2} = \frac{\Phi_0}{2\pi\mu_0 \xi_0^2}$$


- From the BCS theory we have:

- So that the contribution from trapped flux is simply:

$$R_{\Phi} \approx \frac{H_{\text{ext}}}{2H_{c2}} R_n$$

- Note:

1. Normal surface resistance scales as \sqrt{f}

→ resistivity due to flux trapping increases with frequency

2. Resistivity decreases with increasing critical field

→ Thin film superconductors (which have a much higher critical field) are less susceptible to trapped flux.

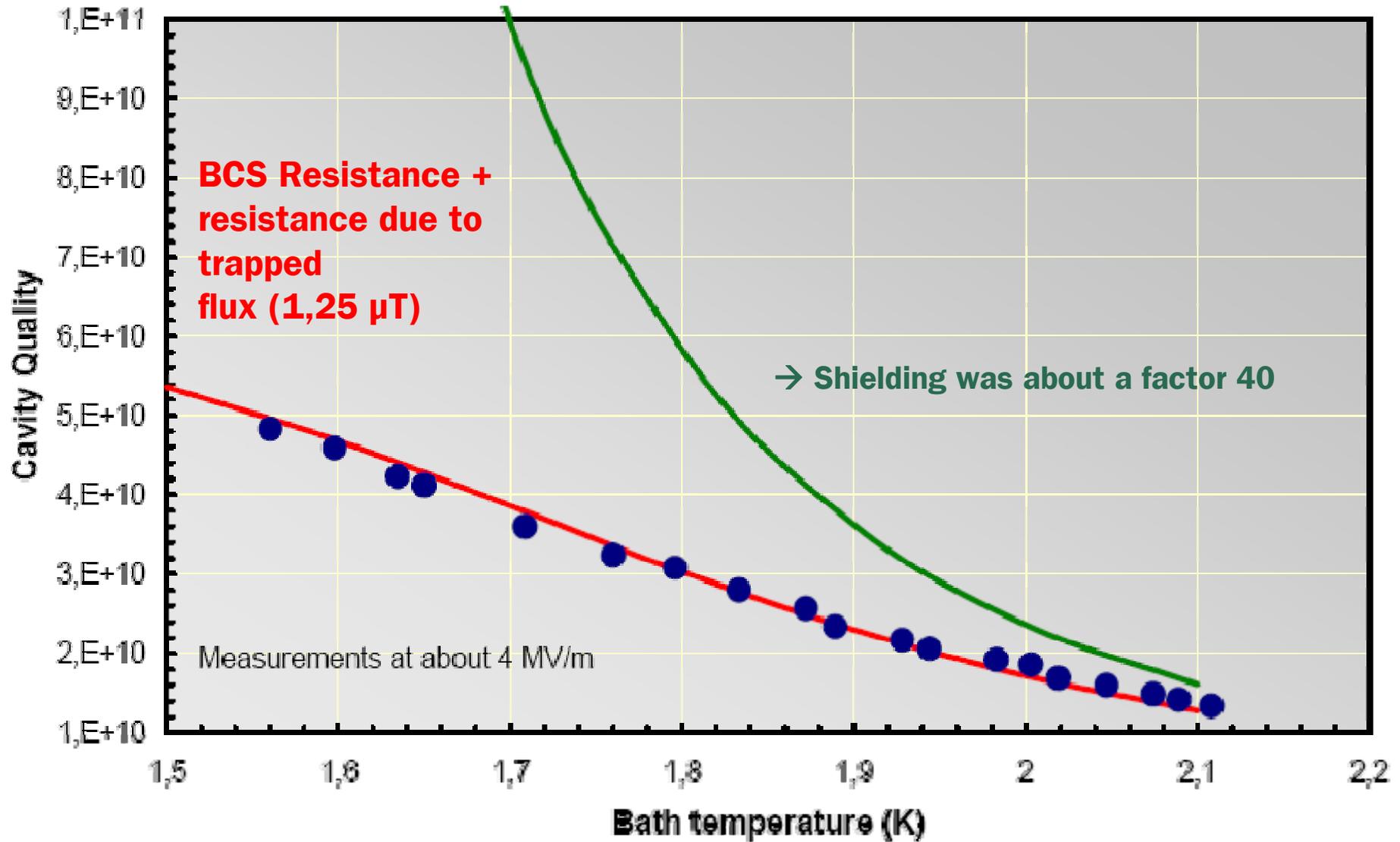
- Some values: For Nb, $B_{c2} = 240$ mT, at 1.5 GHz and 10 K, $R_n \approx 1.8$ m Ω → $R_{\Phi} = 3.75$ n Ω/μ T

- In general (for Nb)

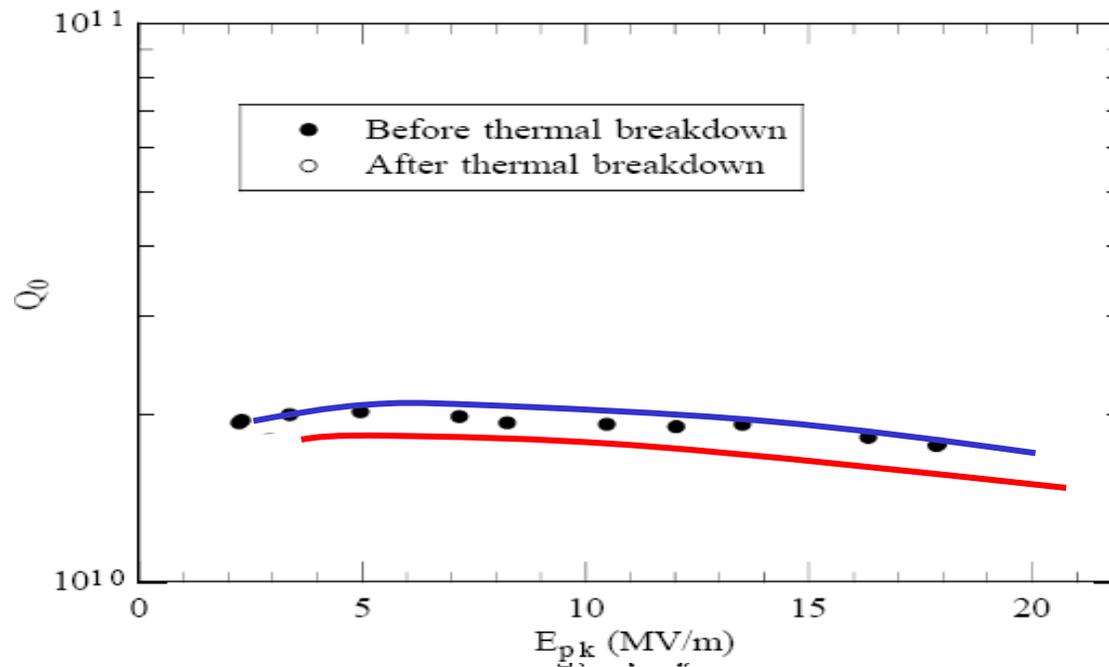
$$R_{\Phi} \approx 3 \frac{\text{n}\Omega}{\text{mT}} B_{\text{ext}} \sqrt{\frac{f}{1\text{GHz}}}$$

- Earth's field is 50 μT
 - Residual resistance (at 1.5 GHz) is = 175 n Ω
- Hence for a pillbox cavity $Q_0 < 1.5 \times 10^9$
 - *To achieve Q factors in the 10^{10} range, the earth's field must be shielded by at least a factor 10 – 20.*
- Use μ -Metal for shielding
- + MAKE SURE NO MAGNETIC MATERIALS ARE NEAR THE CAVITY
- + Don't turn nearby magnets on until the cavity is superconducting





- Sometimes, during cavity tests, one observes a quench
 - Cavity is heated locally above T_c due to
 - Defects on the surface
 - Electron bombardment from field emitters
 - Electron bombardment due to multipacting
- } Details are covered in Tutorial 4b
- When the heating becomes too strong it drives the cavity normal conducting
 - After the quench the Q -factor often is reduced

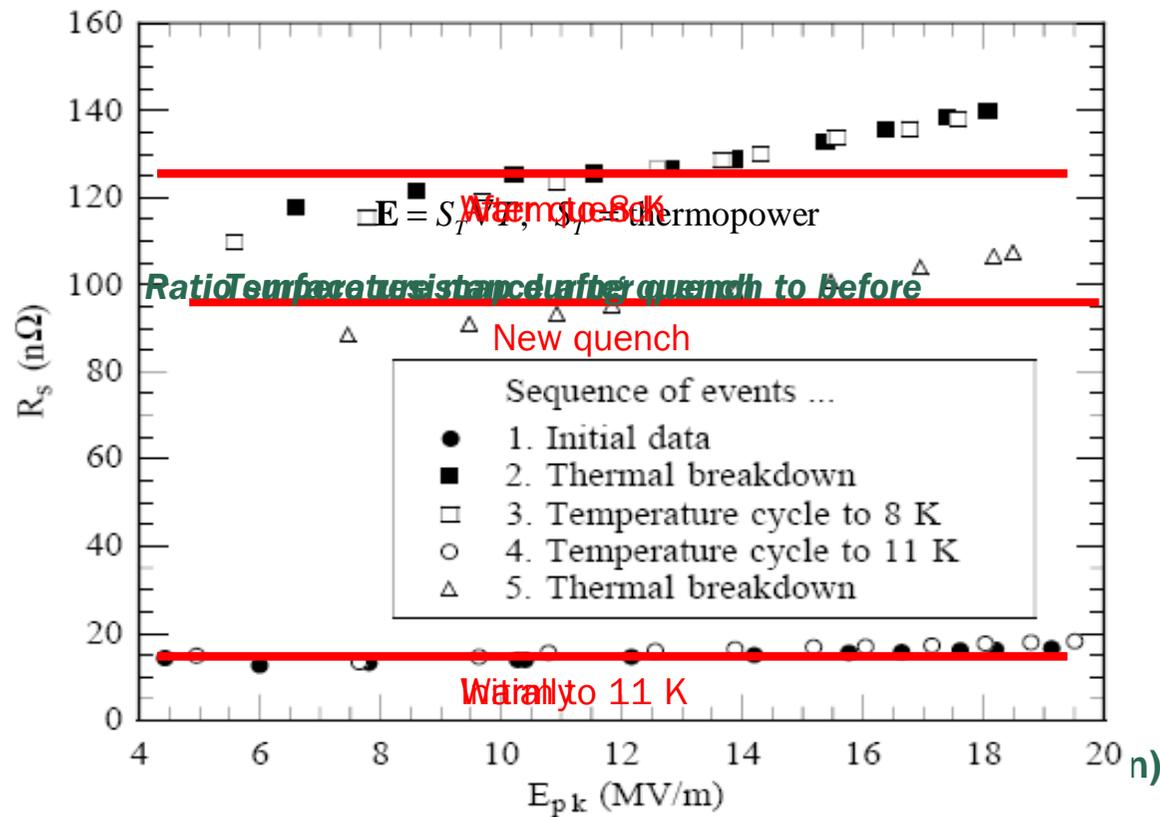


- Perform measurements of the surface resistance in the region of the quench (with thermometry)
- After the quench, the surface resistance increased in this region
- Raising the temperature above T_c eliminates the additional resistivity

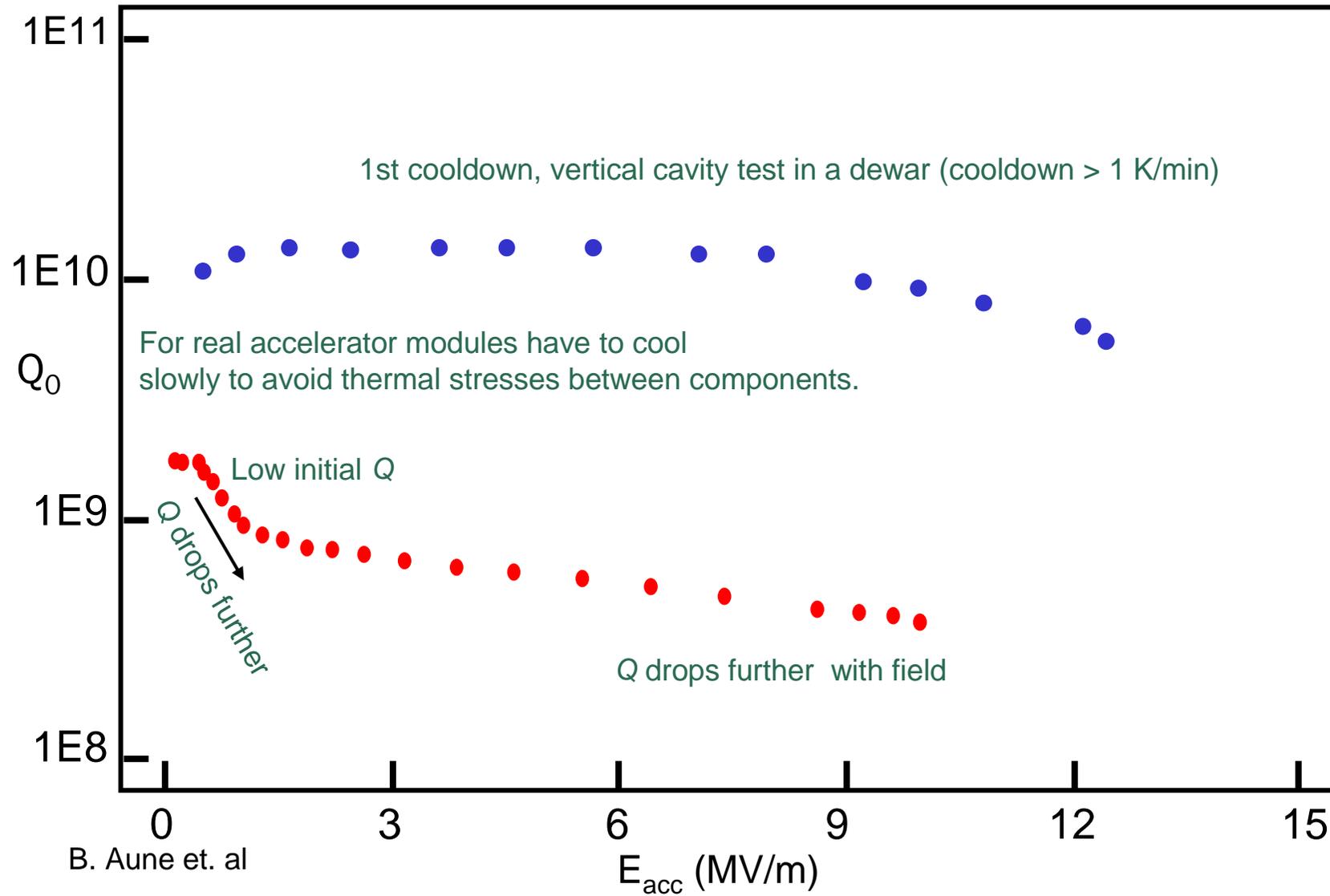
- Explanation:
- This creates

- As the cavity
- Warming the

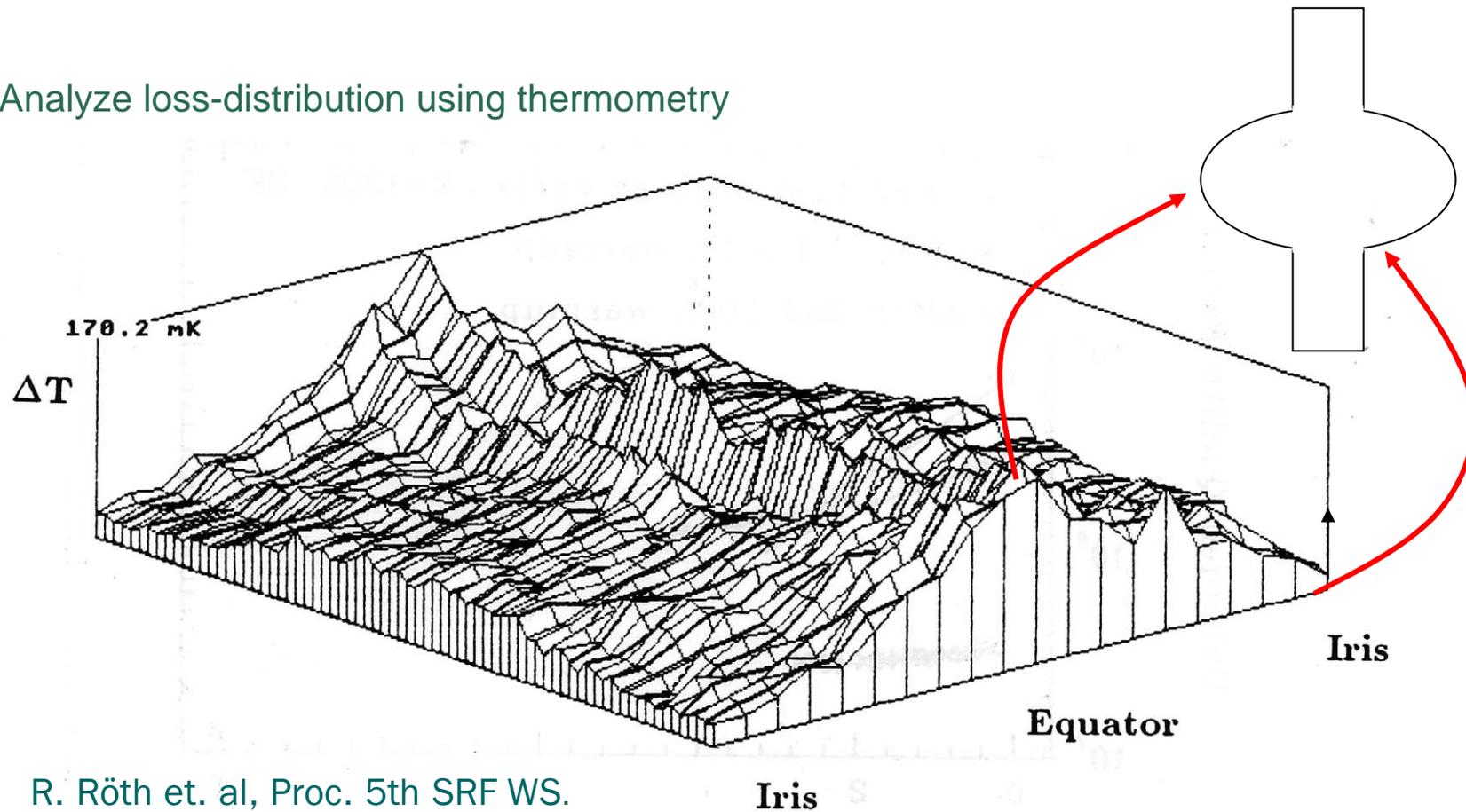
- Typical value
 - Temperature
 - Electrical i
 - Thermopo
 - current de
- Resistance du



- In the 80's and early 90's it was found that sometimes a good cavity could go „bad“ when tests were repeated.
- This was especially the case when cavities were installed in „real“ accelerator modules
- This became known as the Q-disease
- What follows are some of the observations

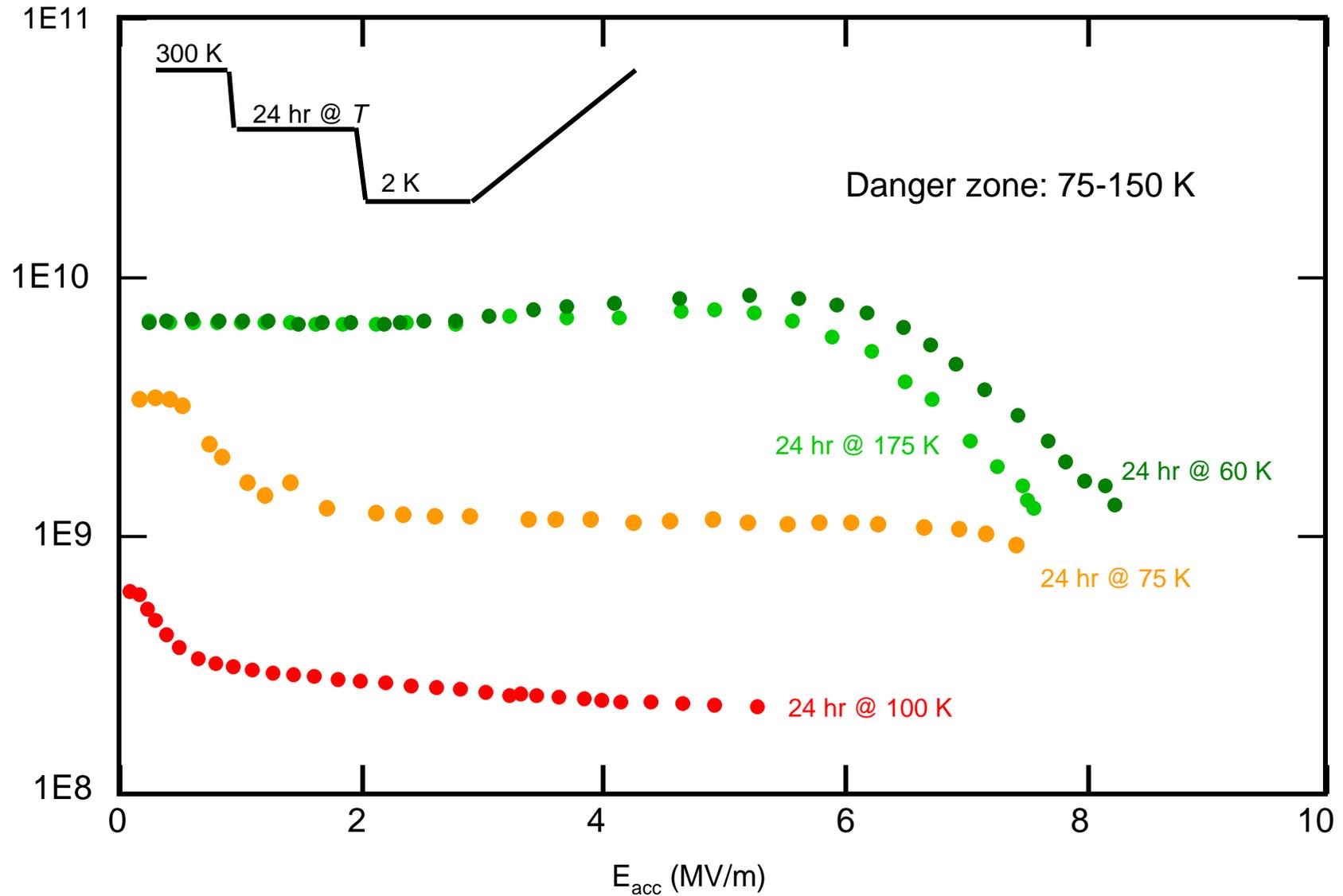


Analyze loss-distribution using thermometry

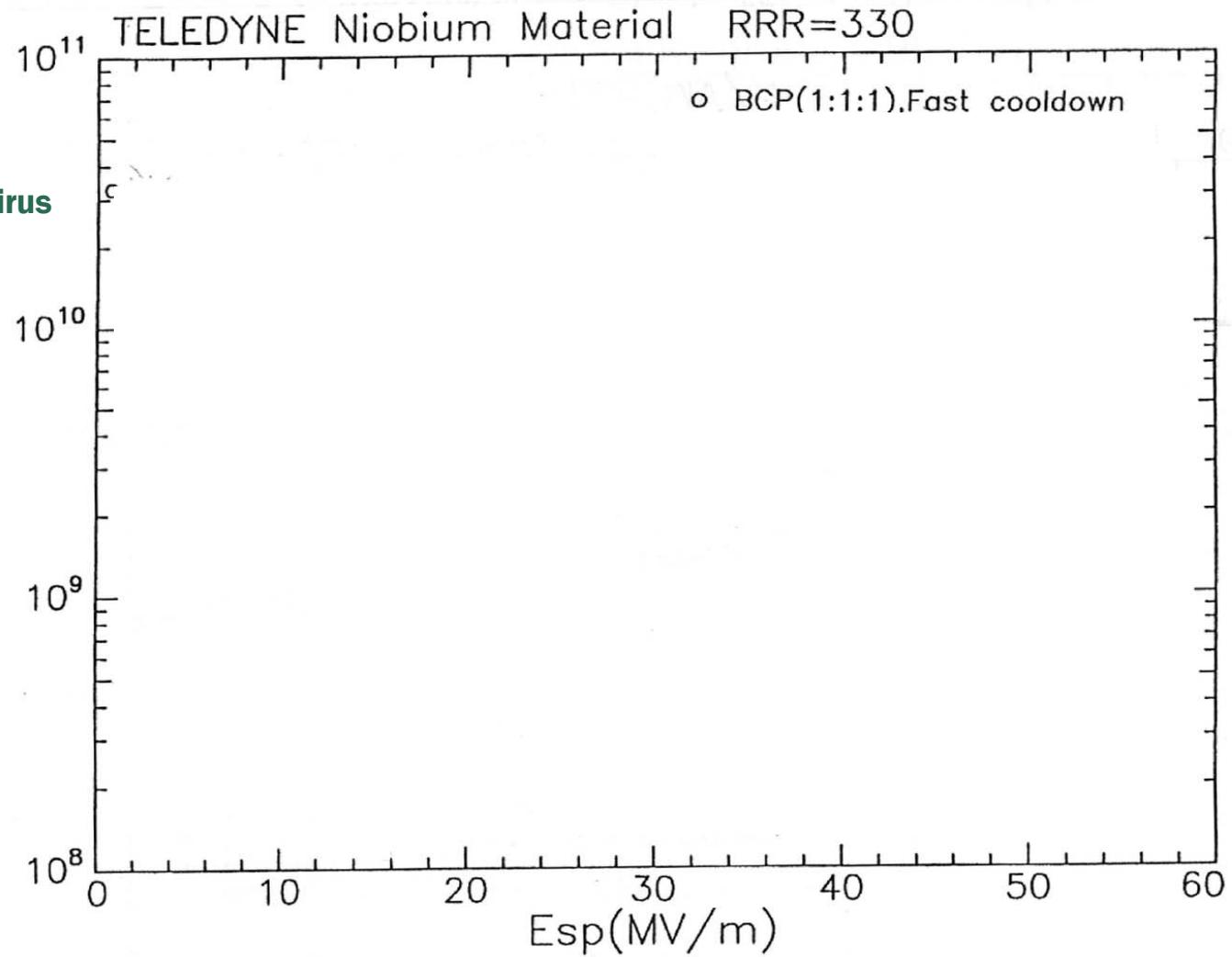


R. Röth et. al, Proc. 5th SRF WS.

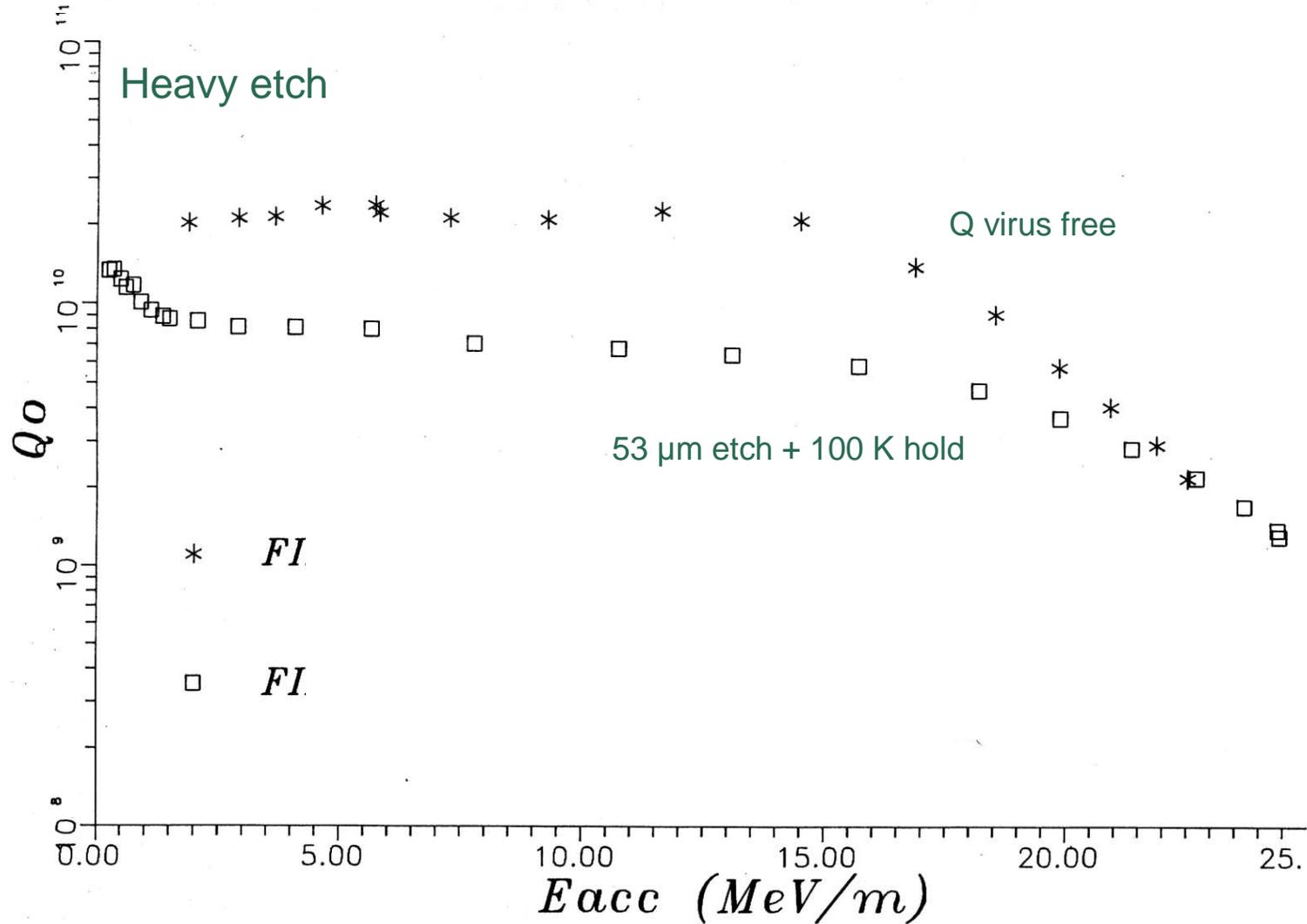
Increased surface resistance is uniformly distributed (losses proportional to H^2)



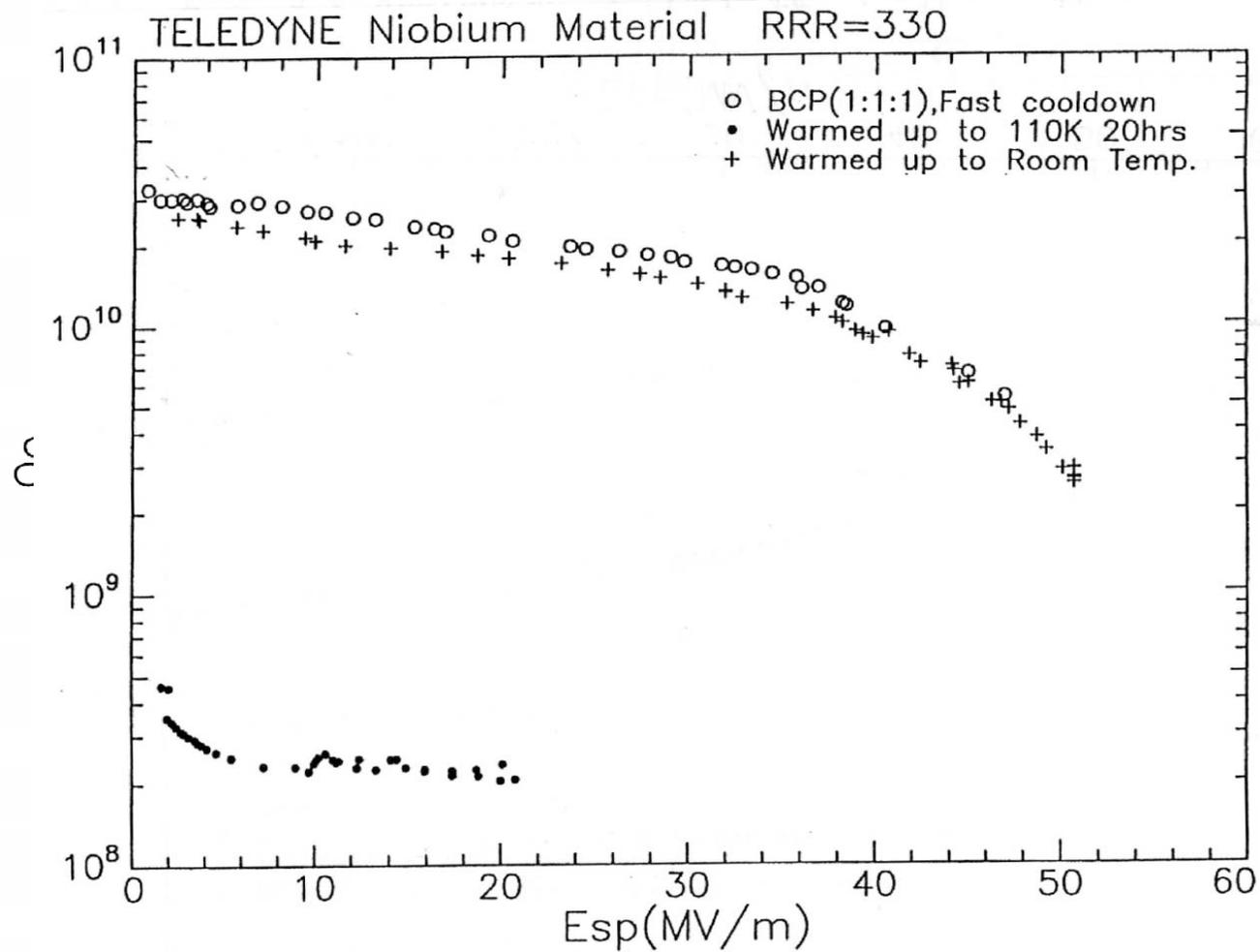
A room temperature cycle removes the Q-virus

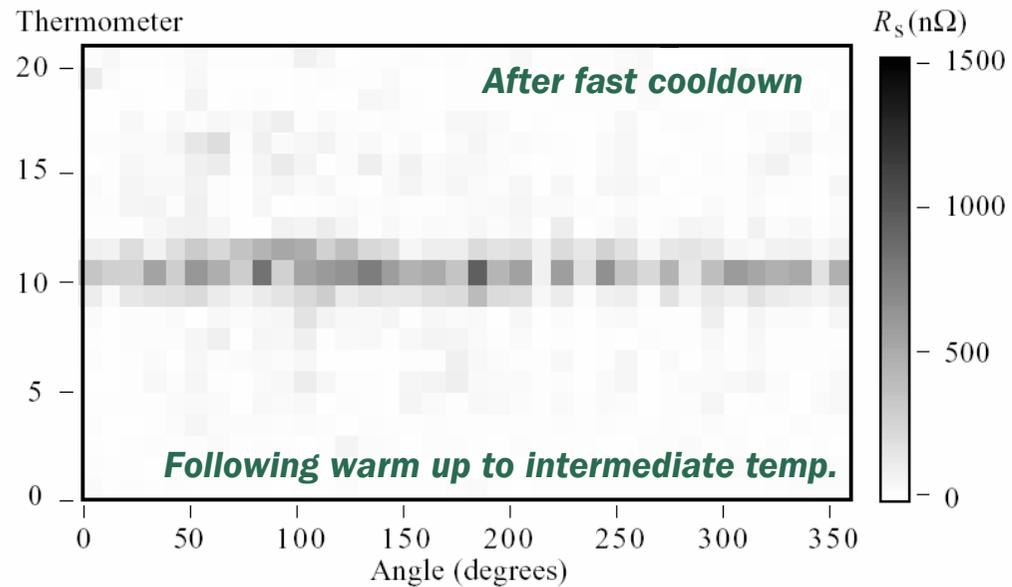
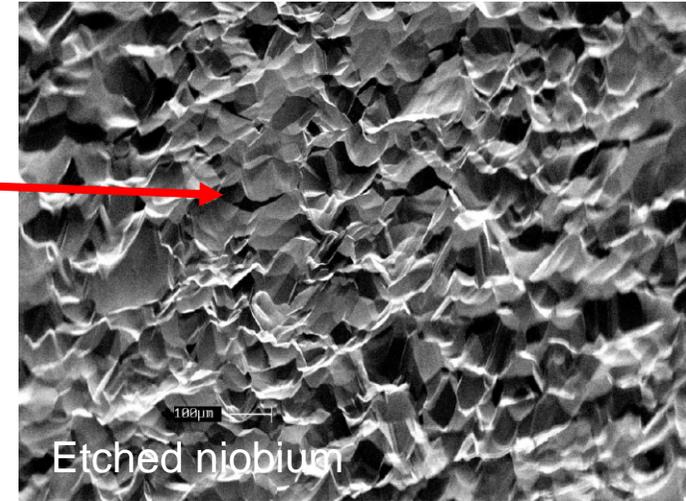
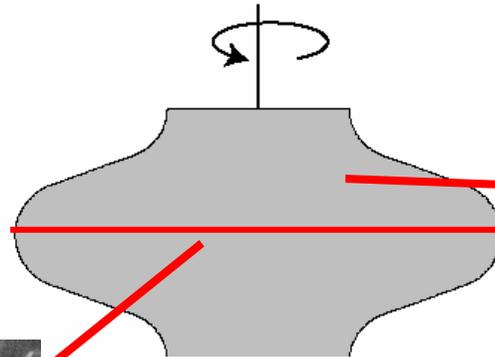


- A heavy etch enhances the danger of the Q-virus



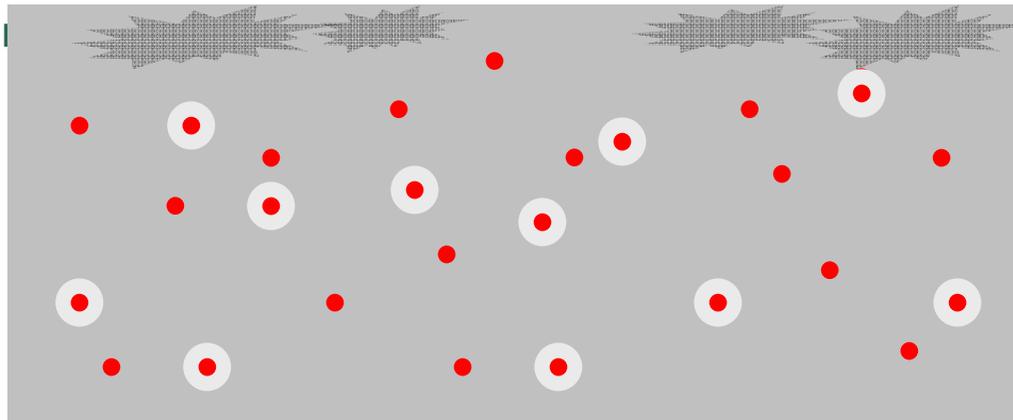
- High purity material is more susceptible



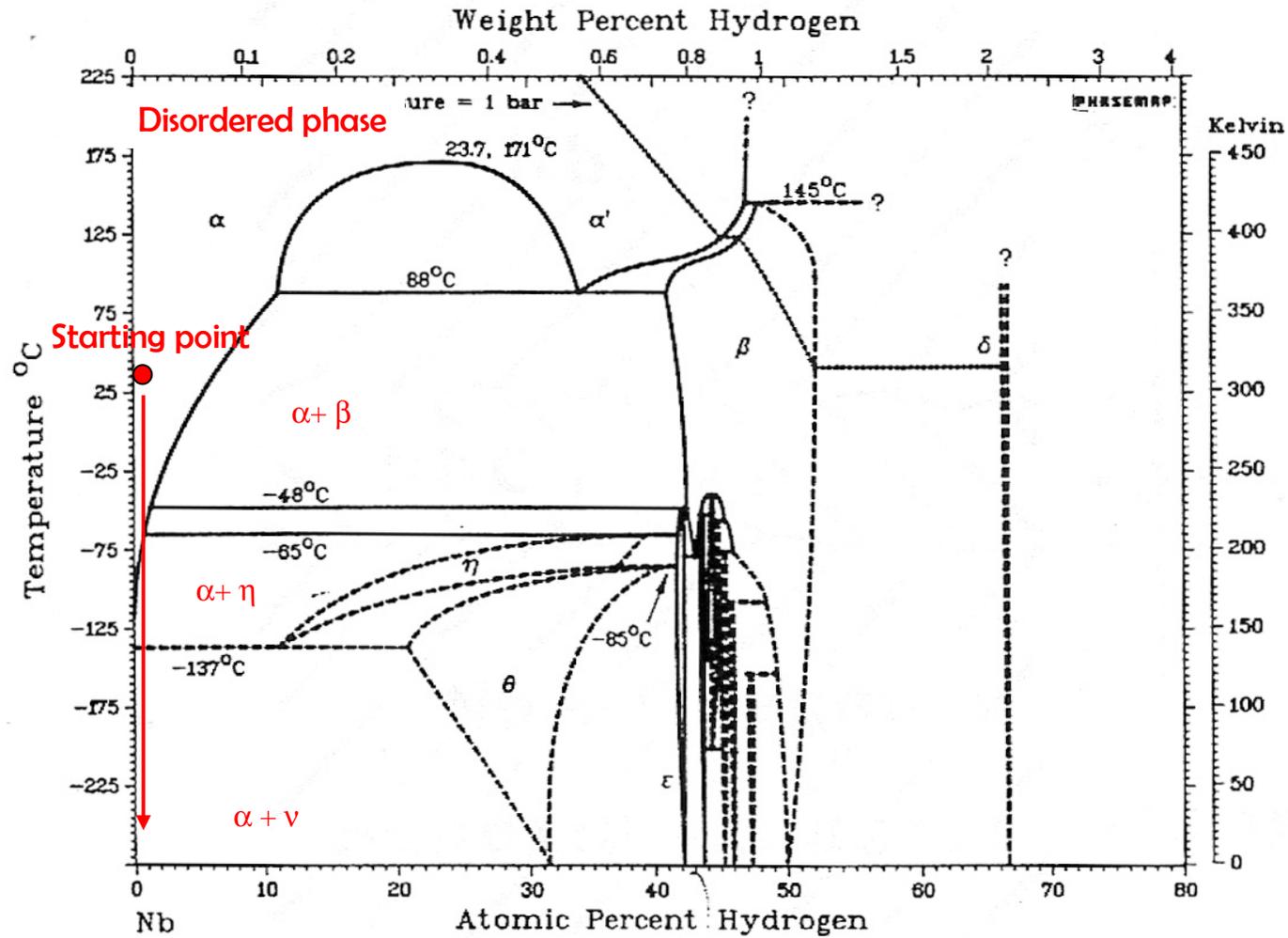


The most likely culprit is hydrogen:

- **Nb-H system undergoes several phase transitions at low temperature, problems arise for concentrations greater than 2 wt ppm**
- **Mobile even at 120 K (300 μm in 1 hour!); not so other impurities**
 - During cooldown hydrogen moves to form high-concentration islands that precipitate to bad SC hydrides → “weak superconductor”
 - Cool quickly to < 100 K to “freeze” hydrogen in place
- **Hydrogen likes to sit at “low-electron-density” sites in the niobium**
 - near the surface or at interstitial impurities
 - for impure niobium, much hydrogen is “bound” and cannot precipitate at the surface
- **Copious hydrogen missing**



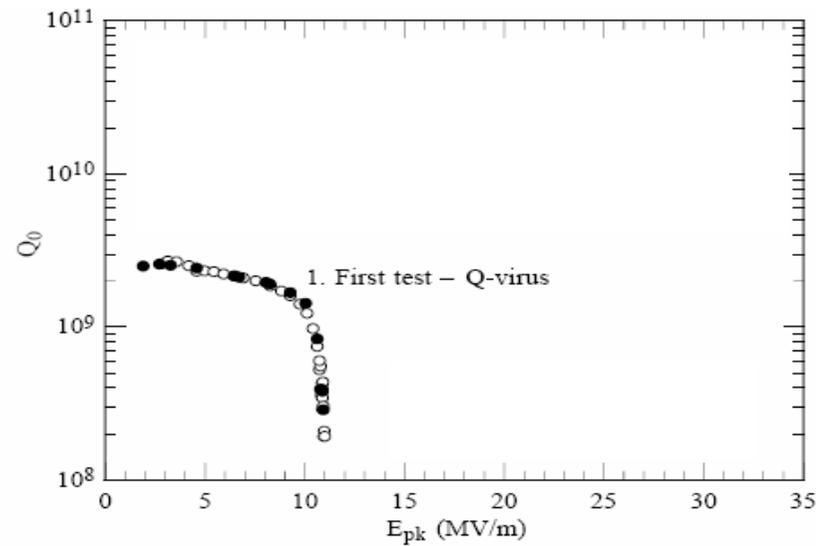
ve oxide layer is



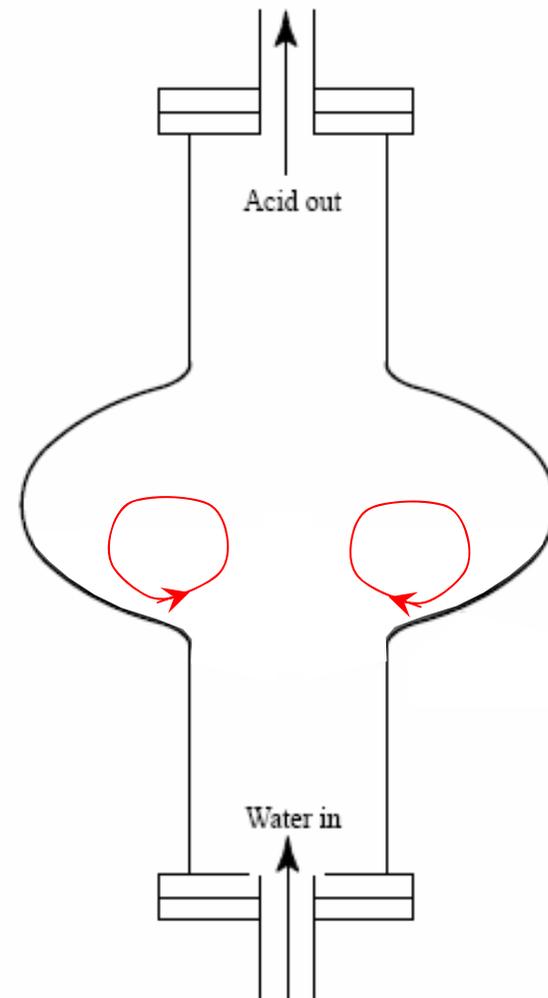
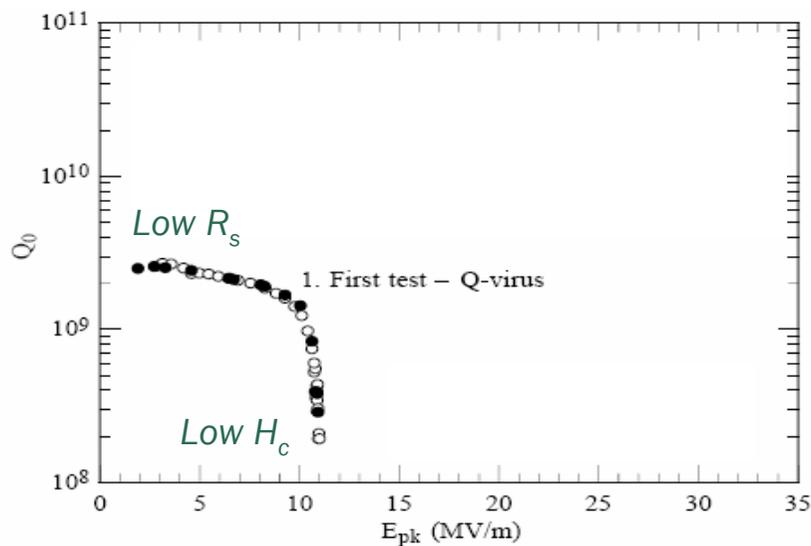
[Back](#)

How do we „vaccinate“ cavities against the Q disease?

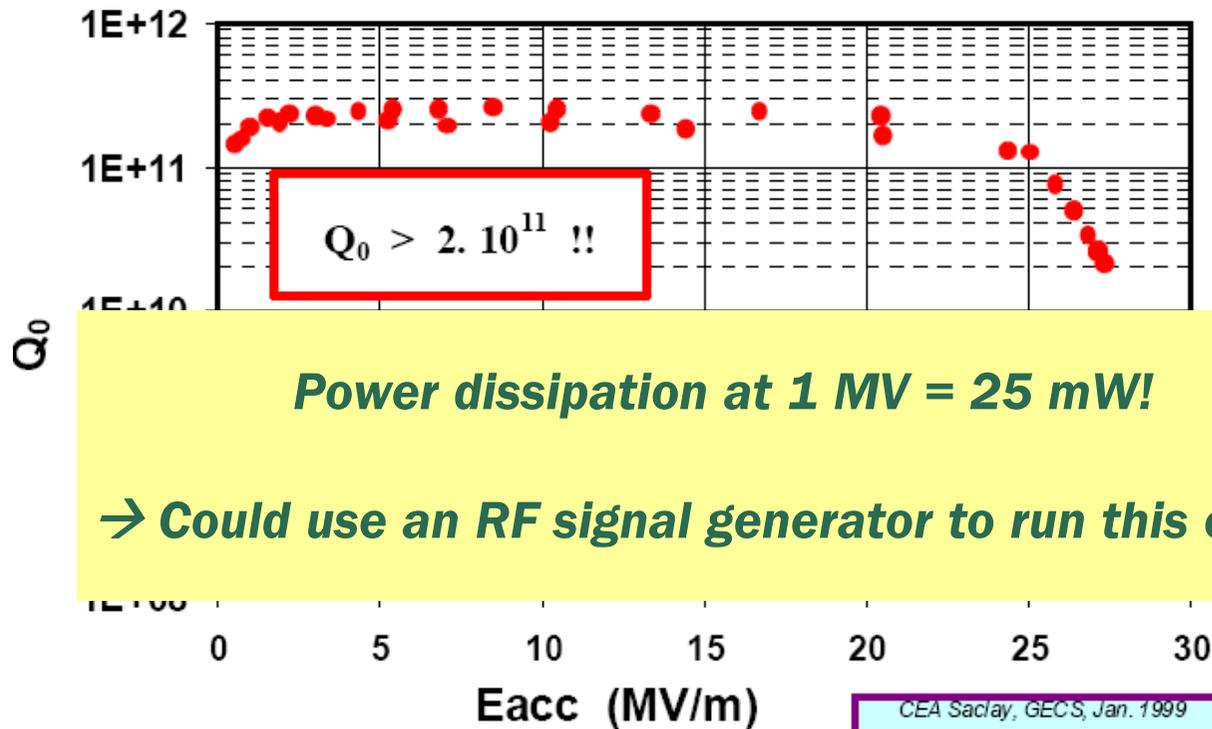
- Buy niobium with little hydrogen to begin with (< 1 wt ppm)
- Etch your cavities with cold (< 15 C) acid
- Use a large acid volume to stabilize the temperature (exothermic reaction!)
- Vacuum-furnace bake at 700-900 C ($P < 10^{-6}$ mbar) to drive out the hydrogen



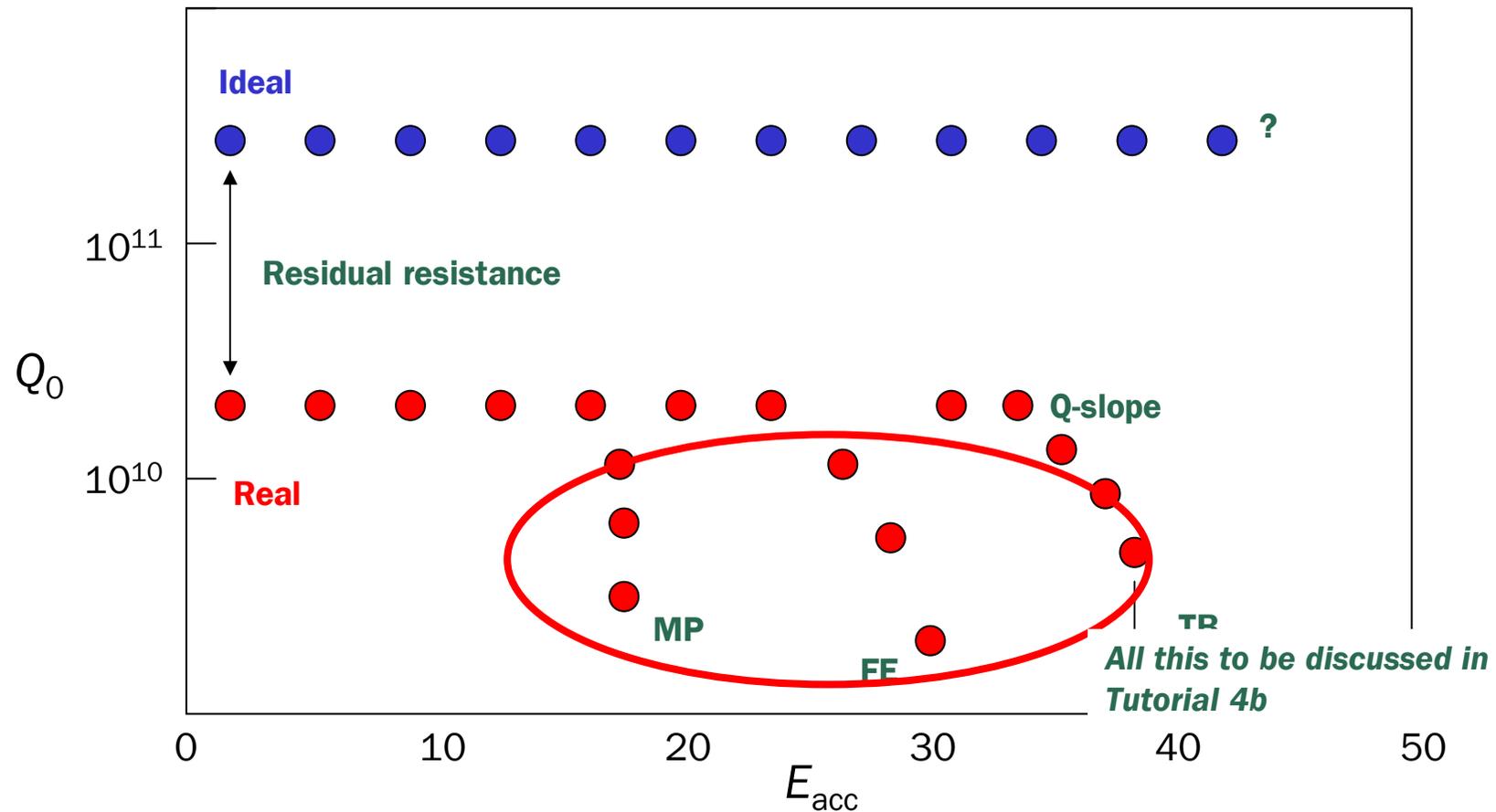
- Tried a new scheme to remove acid without exposure to air
 - Was supposed to reduce field emission
- Following RF test showed VERY strong heating in the lower portion of the cavity
- Presumably, acid removal in lower portion was probably slow
- Rather it diluted the acid slowly → increased reaction rate
- How to solve the problem?
 - Heat the cavity to 900 C in a vacuum furnace ($P < 10^{-6}$ mbar)
 - Hydrogen is removed and cavity performance recovered



- With a carefully prepared cavity, well shielded from the earth's field, one can achieve a very high Q factor
- Surface resistance is around 1.3 nΩ
- SHRIMP predicts a value around 1.8 nΩ for BCS losses



- What is the intrinsic field limitation of niobium cavities



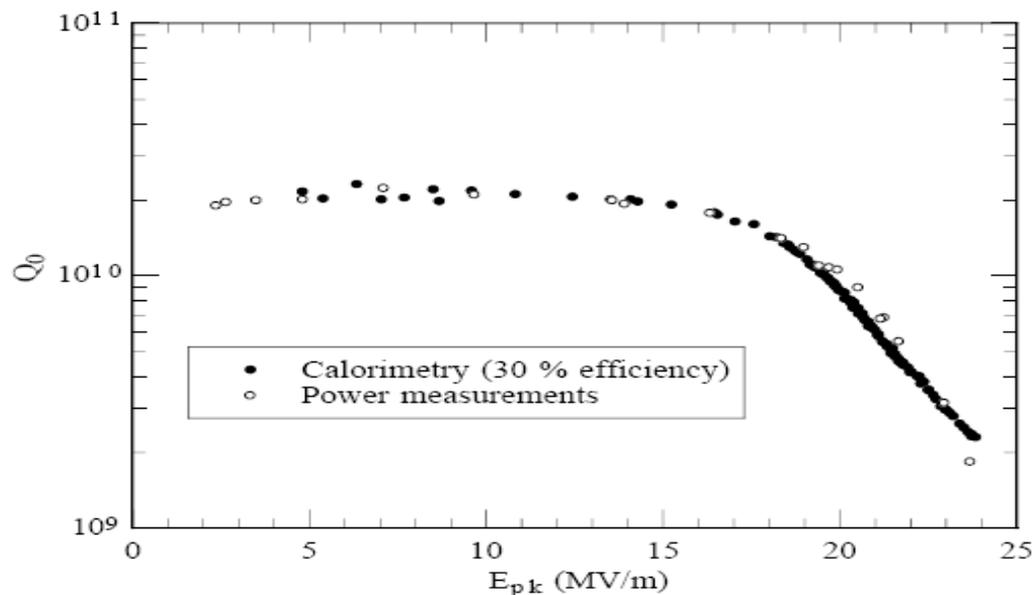
- **Two field limits possible:**
 - Electric field
 - Magnetic field
- **Peak fields rather than accelerating field will be the limit**
- **→ Ratios play a vital role:**

$$\frac{E_{\text{pk}}}{E_{\text{acc}}} = \frac{\pi}{2} = 1.6$$

$$\frac{H_{\text{pk}}}{E_{\text{acc}}} = 2430 \frac{\text{A/m}}{\text{MV/m}}$$

For pillbox

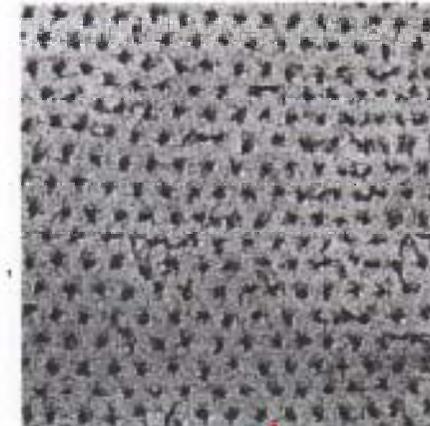
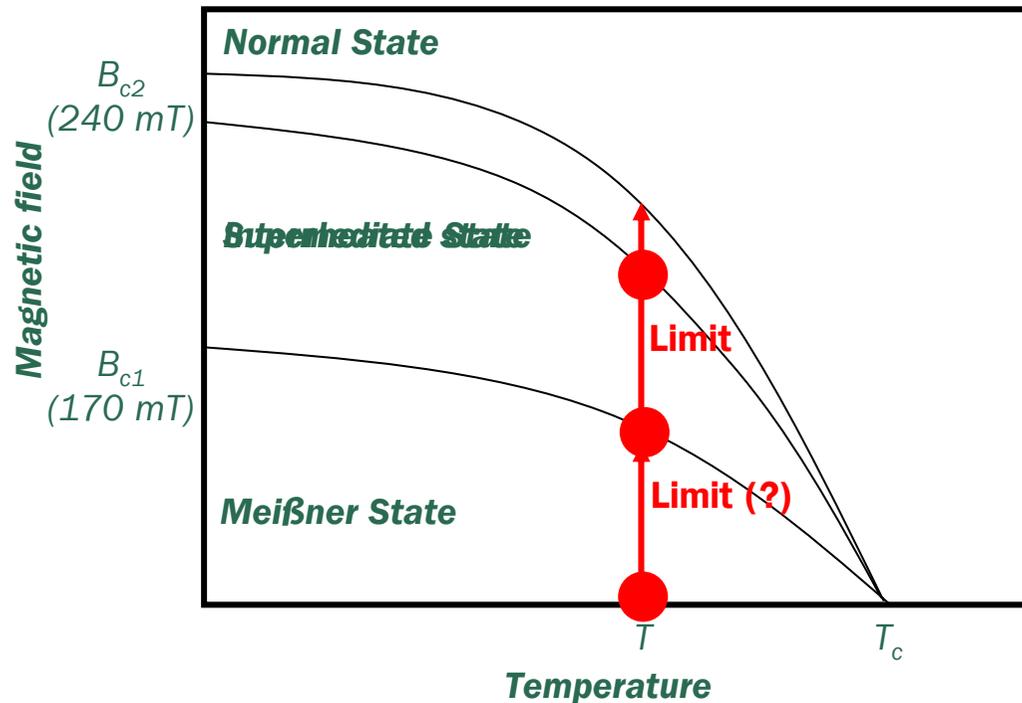
- BCS theory does not predict an electric field limit
- In real cavities, a practical electric field limit clearly exists: Field emission in high electric field regions (Tutorial 4b)
- To test whether there is a fundamental field limit:
 - Design a cavity with relatively small H_{pk}/E_{acc} → to eliminate any magnetic field limit
 - Pulse the cavity with high power (MW) in short time (μs) → reach high field before field emission can cause cavity quenches
- That way 145 MV/m (CW) and 220 MV/m (pulsed) peak fields have been achieved
- So far no fundamental electric-field limit observed



D. Moffat et al., Proc. 4th SRF WS
 J. Delayen and K. W. Shepard,
Appl. Phys. Lett., **57(5)**:514

- BCS superconductivity does predict a magnetic field limit
- Intermediate state is lossy in RF field → quenches cavity (see discussion on trapped flux)
→ must remain below H_{c1} ?
- Not quite: Phase transition is first order (latent heat) → it takes time to nucleate this ($\approx 1\mu\text{s}$)
- → for short times can „superheat“ the field and remain in the Meißner State
- Theory predicts a superheating field $H_{\text{sh}} = 240 \text{ mT}$ (@ 0 K for Nb)

Type-II superconductors



- Temperature dependence of critical field is given by

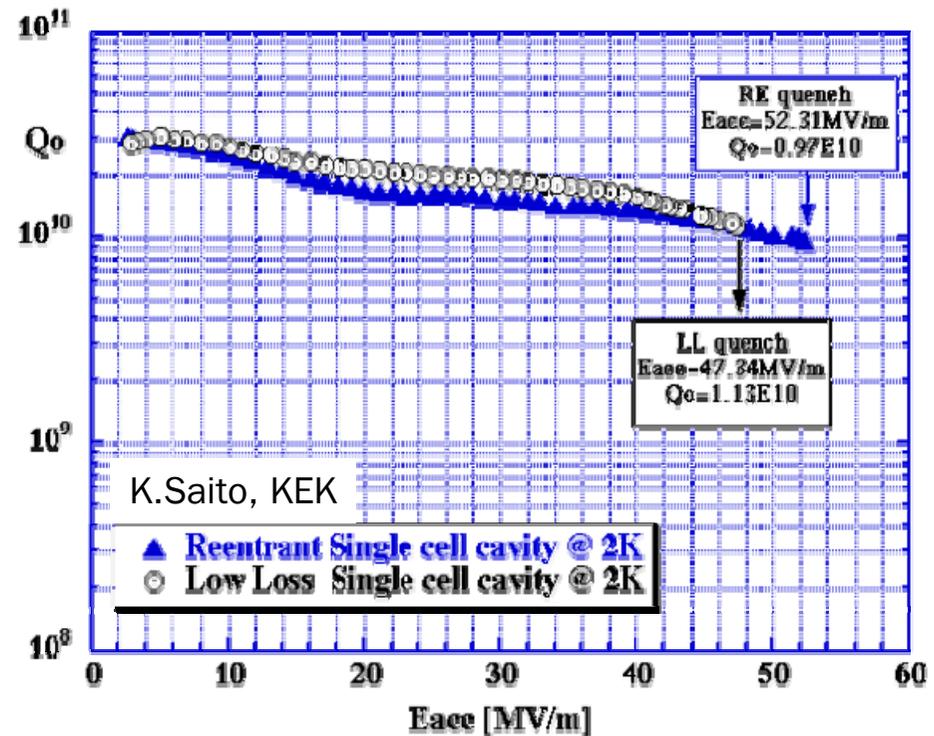
$$H_{\text{sh}}(T) = H_{\text{sh}}(0) \left[1 - \left(\frac{T}{T_c} \right)^2 \right]$$

- Let's calculate an example with out Pillbox:
 - For Nb at 2 K: $B_{sh} \approx 231$ mT
 - $\rightarrow E_{acc} = 75$ MV/m when $B_{pk} = B_{sh}$
 - $\rightarrow E_{pk} = 120$ MV/m \leftarrow already exceeded with other cavities

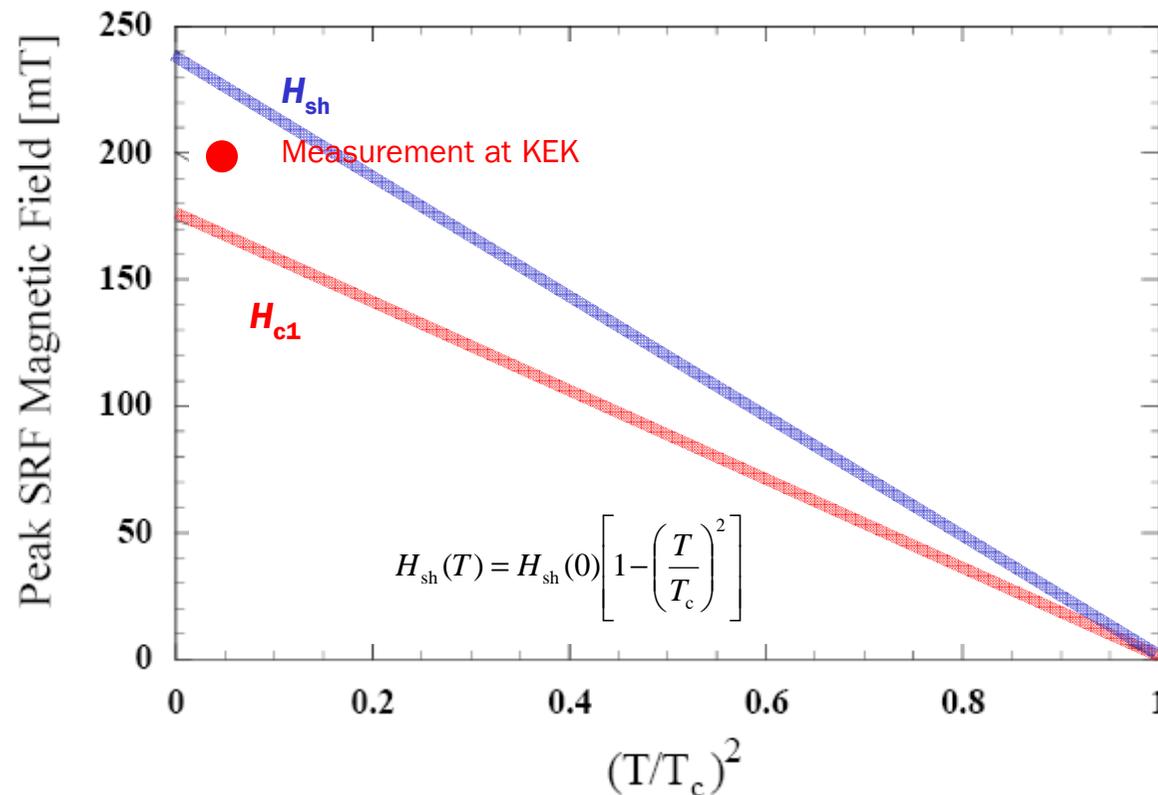
$$\frac{E_{pk}}{E_{acc}} = \frac{\pi}{2} = 1.6$$

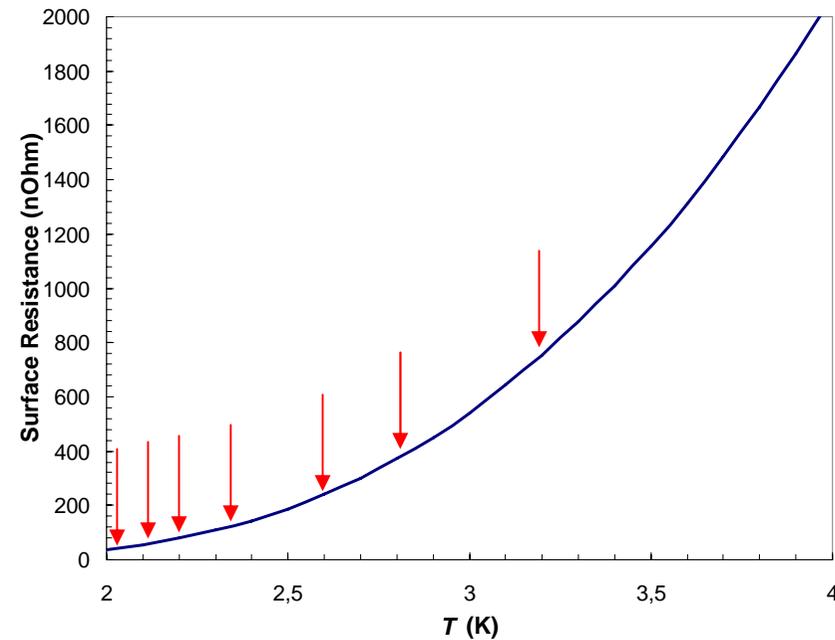
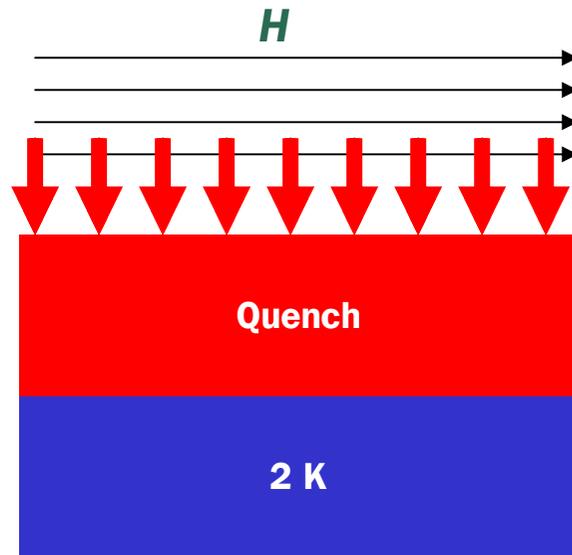
$$\frac{H_{pk}}{E_{acc}} = 2430 \frac{A/m}{MV/m}$$

- „Best real cavity results“ (@ 2 K)
 - $E_{acc} = 52,3$ MV/m
 - $E_{pk} = 116$ MV/m
 - $B_{sh} (229 \text{ mT}) > B_{pk} = 197 \text{ mT} > B_{c1} (162 \text{ mT})$
 - At B_{sh} : $E_{acc} = 60.9$ MV/m

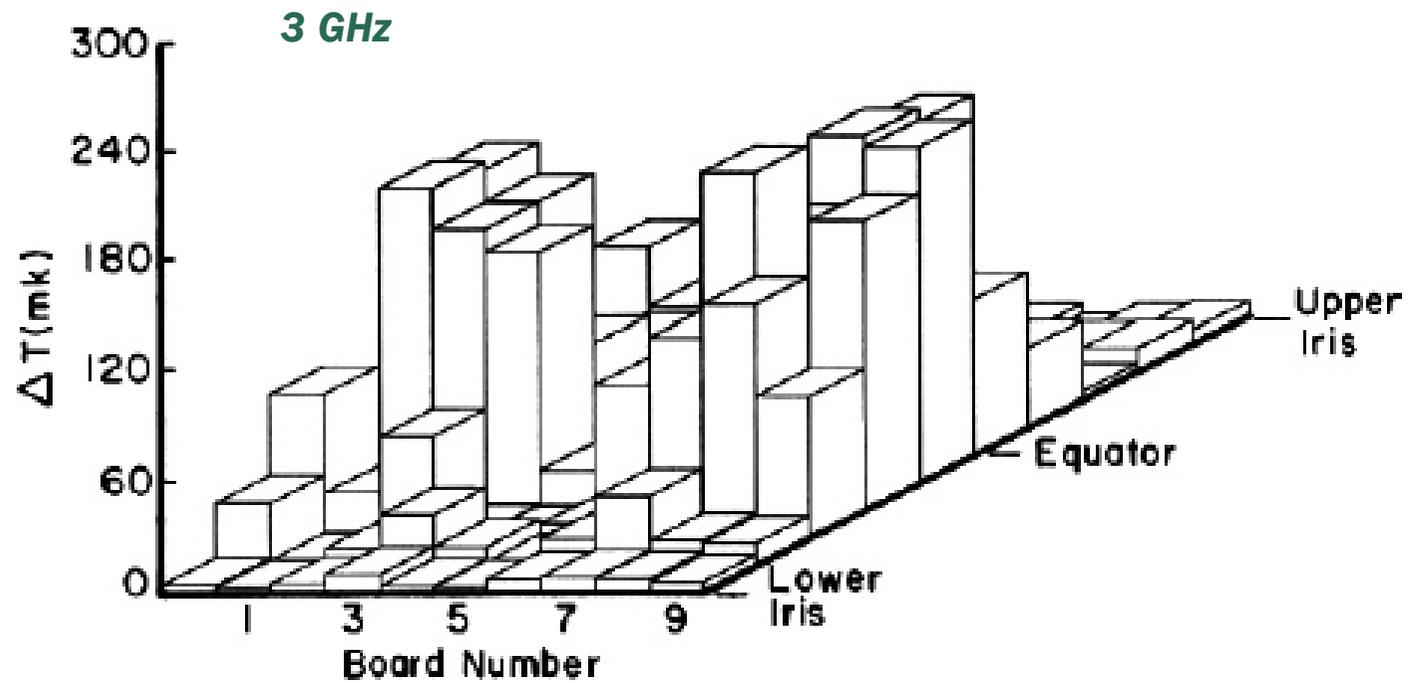


- To demonstrate the field limit $B_{pk} = B_{sh}$
 - Apply short, high-power pulses to reach the maximum field before anomalous losses like thermal breakdown (due to particles) or field emission can kick in.
 - Measure closer to T_c so that the superheating field is lower
- Clearly H_{c1} has been exceeded and H_{sh} reached at higher temperatures

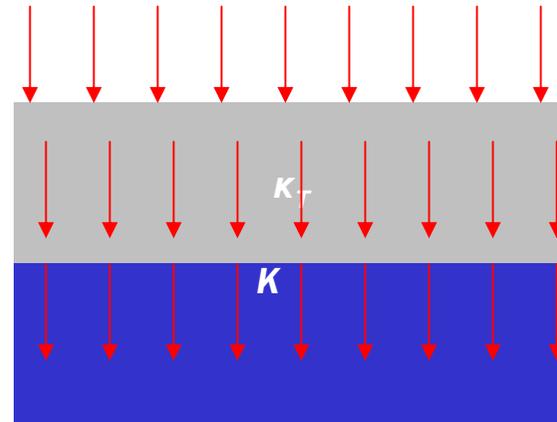




- Exponential increase of BCS surface resistance with temperature
→ Danger of thermal runaway (global quench, contrast with local quench)
- Field limit is a direct consequence of RF superconductivity



- **To calculate onset need:**
 - Surface resistance
 - Thermal conductivity of niobium
 - Kapitza conductivity into the helium bath



- **Thermal energy in a superconductor can be carried by electrons and lattice vibrations (phonons)**
 - Cooper pairs do not scatter off lattice → cannot transfer heat
 - only the normal „fluid“ is involved in heat transfer
 - Largest near T_c , then drops exponentially
 - Specific heat due to electrons drops as $T \exp(-\Delta/k_B T)$
 - Only few phonons present at low temperature
 - Electronic contribution dominates near T_c
 - Specific heat due to phonons only drop as T^3
 - Phonons dominate at lowest temperatures
- **Electronic contribution limited by:**
 - NC electrons scattering off impurities (concentration determined by the RRR)
 - NC electrons scattering off phonons
- **Phonon contribution limited by:**
 - Phonons scattering off electrons
 - Phonons scattering off lattice defects, in particular grain boundaries

$$\kappa_T = \dots + \dots$$

Electron contribution

Phonon contribution

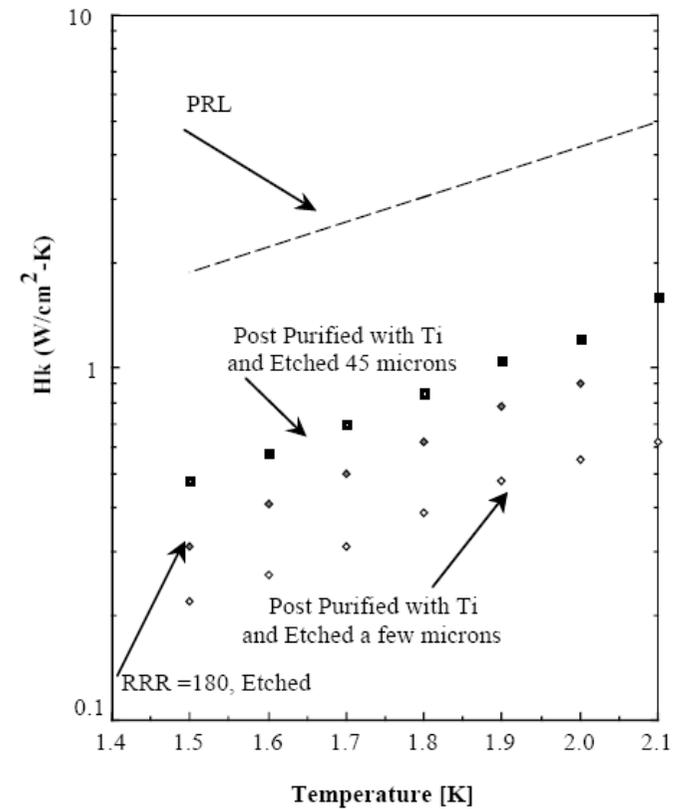
→ To maximize thermal conductivity:

- Decrease impurities of Nb (high RRR material)
- Increase the size of the crystal grains

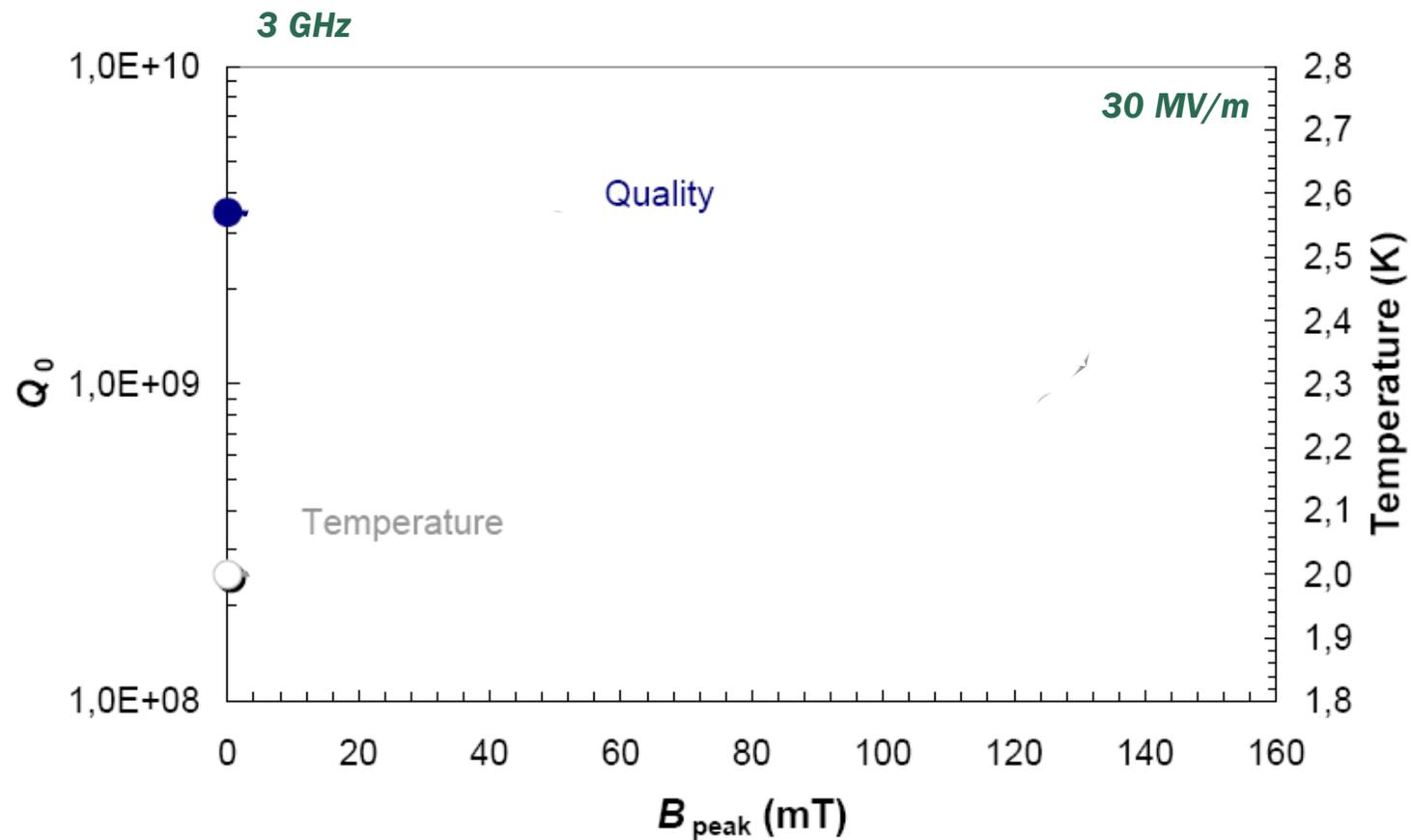


ACCEL P. Kneisel

- At the interface from the niobium to the helium, heat is transferred by phonons
- Theory not well understood, but generally dependence follows a T^3 to T^4 law
- Depends on the surface condition of the niobium
- Typical values are in the range 0.1-1 W/cm² K



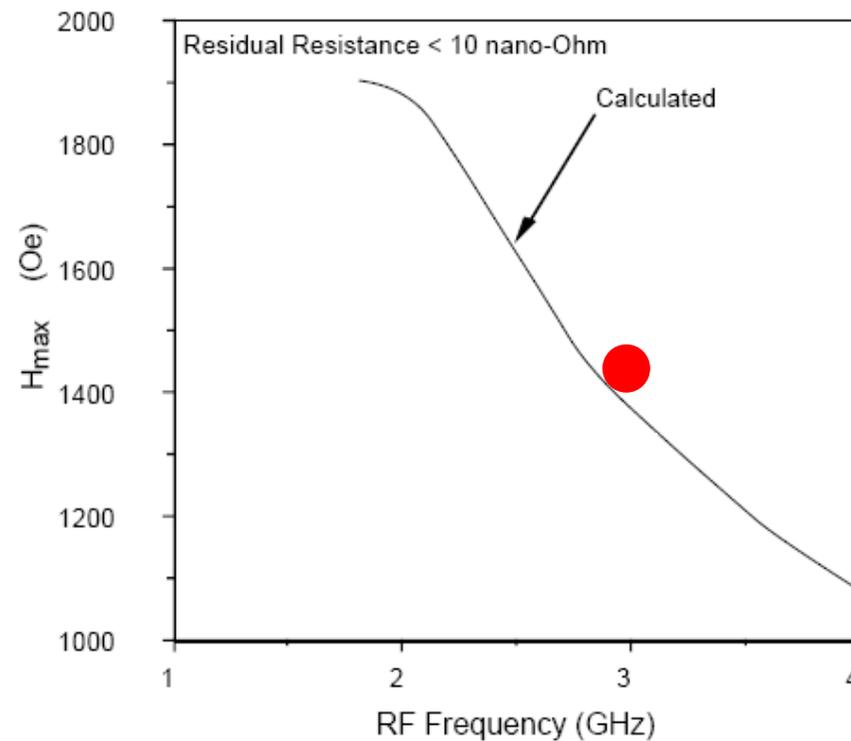
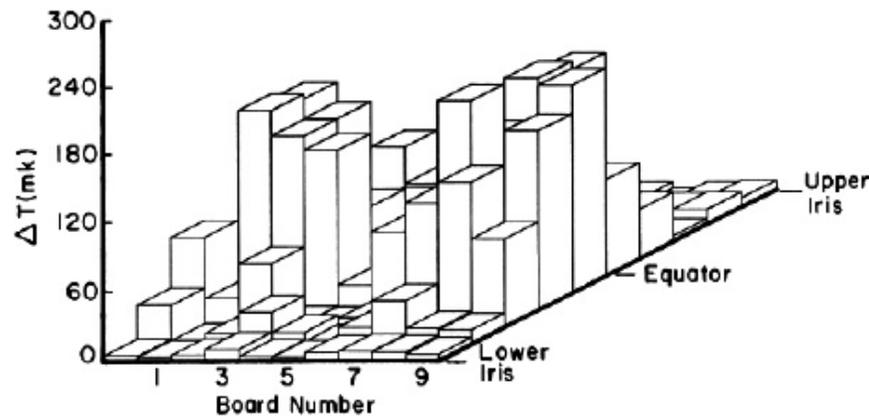
- Surface resistance, thermal conductivity and Kapitza conductivity are all non-linear
→ Must simulate GTI



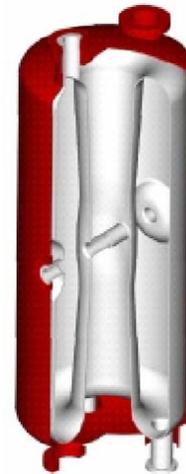
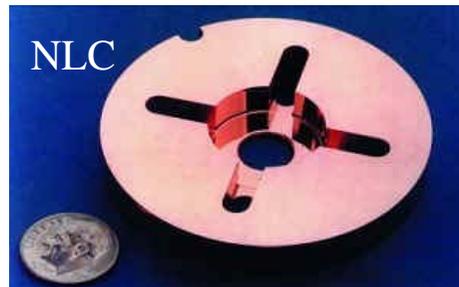
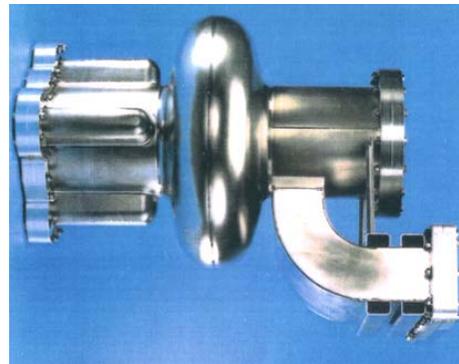
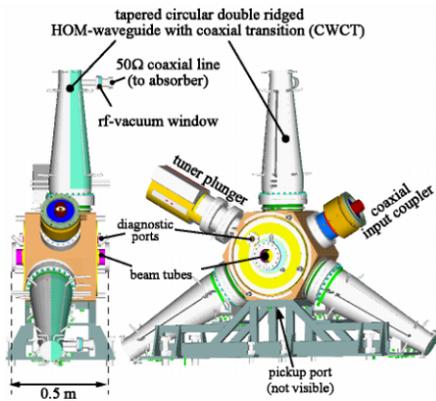
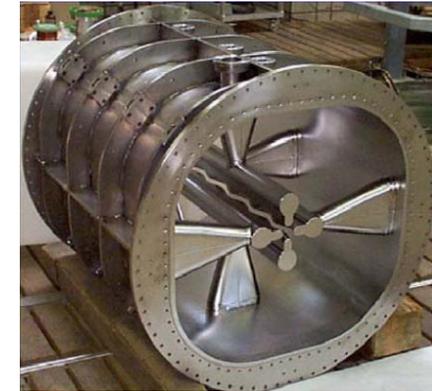
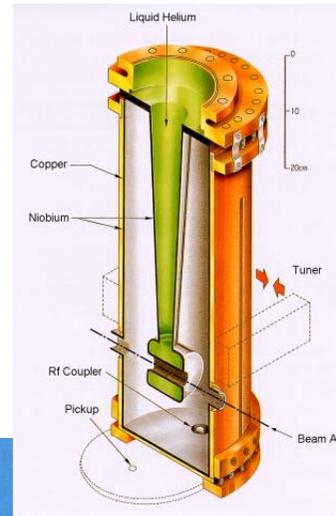
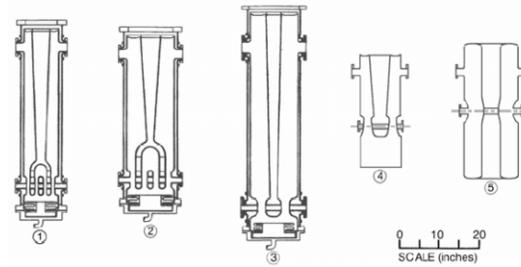
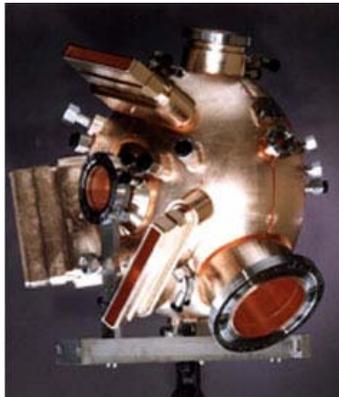
→ Problem largest for

- Cavities made of low thermal conductivity
- Operation at temperatures where the BCS resistance is significant
- High-frequency cavities, > 2 GHz (recall ω^2 dependence of resistance)
- Simulations at least partially validated by experiment

→ for highest gradients will need to stay at lower frequencies

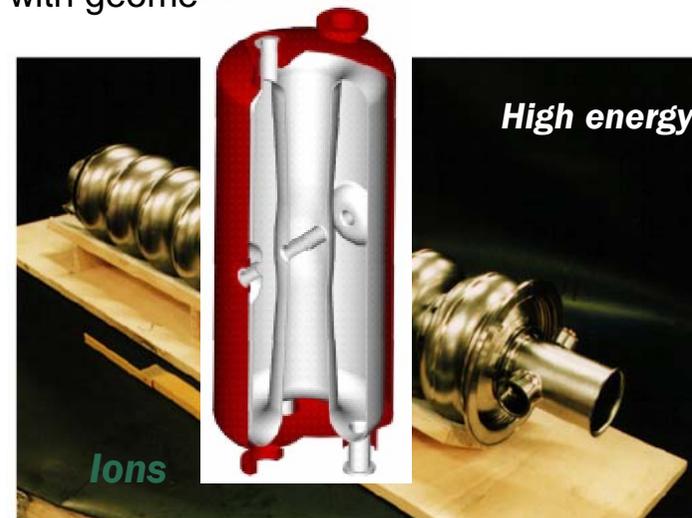
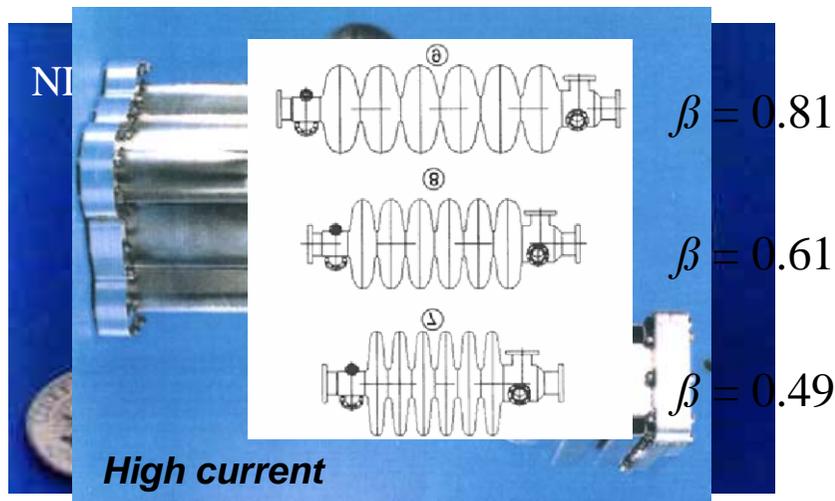


- In reality one has to calculate the modes with field solvers. Simply adding beam tubes already means there are no analytic solutions
- But can still identify the modes
- Length is still chosen according to the previous criterion
- Show a field map in a real cavity



$$L_{\text{acc}} = \frac{E_{\text{acc}}}{\cancel{V_{RF}}} \quad P_{\text{diss}} = \frac{(E_{\text{acc}} L_{\text{acc}})^2}{\cancel{Q_0} \times Q_0} \quad I_{\text{th}} \propto \frac{E_{\text{acc}}^2}{\cancel{Q_0} \times Q_L \omega^{3/2}}$$

- **First consideration is the speed of the particles to be accelerated**
 - The slower the particles (ions) the shorter the gap:
- **Application plays an important role (e.g., high current v. high energy)**
 - Peak fields will play a role
 - + other issues that affect cavity geometry and the frequency
- **Then consider SC or NC cavities**
 - For NC cavities must reduce power dissipation with geometry



- Measurement of surface resistance reveals a SC transition for degraded cavities

Saclay, 4 GHz

