



Cryostat design

⁴He and ³He cryostats

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Summary



Generalities on cryogenic devices

- Description
- Important parameters

* The design of cryogenic devices

- * thermal conception
 - Insulation, calculation, radiation, conduction
 - Cooling down, other phenomena which lead to fluid's evaporation
- * Mechanical design
 - Material resistance at low temperature, material used
 - Differential contraction
 - Mechanical resistance of the cryostats

* Technology of cryogenic constructions

- Welding, brazing, leak tightness test, seals

* ⁴He cryostats

- Glass cryostats, Metallic cryostats, Plastic cryostats
- Obtaining variable temperature at T > 4.2 K and T < 4.2 K
- Superfluid under atmospheric pressure

* ³He cryostats

- Description of a complete device

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Design a system working at very low temperature

→ Evaluate the importance of the heat flows

→ Get a good heat insulation compared to the outside

→Get a good cooling efficiency

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The design of cryogenic devices

Energy balance

- Available cooling power
 - s cryocooler machine or consumption in cryogenic fluid
- Heat losses
 - from outside (radiation, conduction, convection)
 - Device self losses

Evolution of the physical properties

- Mechanics (Tensile strength, fatigue strength, yield strength, thermal expansion....)
- Specific heat, latent heat of the cryogenic fluids
- Thermal conductivity
- Magnetic, electrical properties
- Size, mass (space, cryostat)
- Safety systems (safety valves, safety discs)
 - For Helium, 100 liters of vapor at 4.2 K = 10 m³ of gas TPN \rightarrow risk of bursting cryostat in the event of fast reheating









Cryostat design

Thermal design



Fluid evaporation, latent heat

• We have $Q = \dot{m}$

$$Q$$
 in Watt
 \dot{m} in g / sec
 L in J / g

Some values at boiling temperature

Cryogenic liquid	L (under 1 bar) J/g	L' J/liter liquid	<i>ṁ</i> liter liq./h/W
N ₂	199	159200	22.6.10-3
H ₂	445	31150	0.115
⁴ He	20.5	2562	1.4
³ He	8.2	490	7.3



For the same heating power, helium boil 70 time more than nitrogen



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Minimize different ways of heat transport Adiation, conduction, convection

Vacuum <10⁻⁴ mbar : Total losses between 2 stainless steel plane plates 300 and 77 K ; 25 to 50 W/m²

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Thermal insulation



Foams

- Thermal conductivity from 20 to 30 mW/(m.K)
- (Total losses between 2 plane plates 300 and 77 K; 700 W/m², e = 1cm)

Powders (perlite Sio₂ Al₂O₃ (sous 1 Pa), alumina)

- Mean thermal conductivity between 300 and 77 K : 2 mW/(m.K)
- (Total losses between 2 plane plates 300 and 77 K; 50 W/m², e = 1 cm)

Multilayer insulation

- Reduction of radiation losses
 (if we placed n thermal shield at fixed intermediate Temperature we divided radiation power by n+1)
- Vacuum < 10⁻² Pa (elimination of gas conduction)
- Solid conduction canceled if we eliminate contact between each layers
- Mean thermal conductivity between 300 and 77 K : 0.06 to 0.2 mW/(m.K)
- Total losses between 2 plane plates 300 and 77 K; 0.67 W/m^2 , e = 1 cm
- Optimum between 20 and 25 layers per cm

Solid Thermal shield : copper aluminum

Used of materials with low thermal conduction between T_{room} and T_{crvo} (optimization between mechanical resistance and thermal conduction)

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Insulation T > 80 K

Helium Insulation





N Identical floating shields

$$\dot{\mathbf{q}}_{2\to e1} = \dot{\mathbf{q}}_{e1\to e2} = \dots = \dot{\mathbf{q}}_{eN\to 1}$$

$$\dot{q}_{eN \rightarrow 1} = \frac{\dot{q}_{2 \rightarrow 1}}{N+1}$$
 (Without shield)



Number of insulted layers per centimeter

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Thermal calculation of cryostat





Thermal balance





We saw that :

$$\dot{m} = \frac{Q_{total}}{L}$$

• With $Q_{total} =$ $Q_{R col} + Q_{cond} + Q_{gas} + Q_{R lat} + Q_{acc} +$ $Q_{gaz col}$

• $Q_{gaz \ col} << Q_{cond}$

In fact
$$Q = L.\dot{m}.\left(\frac{\rho_L}{\rho_L - \rho_V}\right) = \frac{125}{125 - 17}.L.\dot{m} = 1.15.L.\dot{m}$$

 A part of evaporation compensates the decrease of liquid (very dense vapor)

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Radiation

Stefan-Boltzmann equation (black body)

The black body completely absorbs the received radiation

(K)

$$\dot{q}_{\acute{e}mis} = \sigma.T^4$$

 $\sigma = 5,67.10^{-8} \text{ W}.\text{m}^{-2}.\text{K}^{-4}$

(constante de Stefan - Boltzmann)

 $\dot{\mathbf{q}}_{\acute{emis}}$ (W.m⁻²)

 4
 1,5.10⁻⁵

 20
 9,1.10⁻³

 80
 2,3

 300
 460

(W.m⁻²)

$$\frac{\dot{q}_{\acute{e}mis}(300\,K)}{\dot{q}_{\acute{e}mis}(80\,K)} = 200$$

Thermal shields are essentials

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Radiation Q_{R side}

Heat transfer between 2 neighbouring surfaces

$$Q_{RL} = \frac{S_i}{\frac{1}{\varepsilon_i} + \left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon_e} - 1\right) \frac{S_i}{S_e}} \sigma \left(T_e^4 - T_i^4\right)$$

avec $\sigma = 5.7.10^{-12} W / cm^2 / K^4$

- In general T_i⁴ is negligible compared to T_e⁴
- S_i/S_e is in the interval between 0.5 and 0.9



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importance of emissivity

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Vére Normal total emissivity of a surface at temperature T

power radiated by a real surface

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	Emissivity	= 3 \	1 5
		power	r radiated by a black body at the same temperature
Material	Т (°К)	ε _n	
Silver	300	0.022	
	76	0.008	
	4	0.0044	
Stainless steel 18-8	300	0.15	
	76	0.061	
	4	0.034	
Aluminum annealing	300	0.03	
Polish electrolytic	76	0.018	
	4	0.011	
Aluminum commercial			
rolled	76	0.02	
Brush	76	0.06	
Oxydised	76	0.21	
Chromium	300	0.08	
Copper polish electrolytic	300	0.018	
	76	0.015	c when T
	4	0.006	
Cuivre mecanical polish	300	0.03	•
	76	0.019	ε with the pollution of surfaces
	4	0.015	with the politicity of surfaces
tin	300	0.05	(oxidation, impurities, traces
	76	0.013	
	4	0.012	of grease)
Polish brass	300	0.03	
	76	0.029	
	4	0.018	
Nickel	300	0.045	
	76	0.022	
Gold	300	0.02	
	76	0.01	

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Some values of Q_{RL}

♦ Power radiated per cm² Deduced from the preceding table Black body (glass) • 300 on 4 K $\rightarrow \varepsilon = 1 \rightarrow Q_{RL} = 42 \text{ mW/cm}^2$ Copper, aluminum • 300 on 77 K $\rightarrow Q_{RL} = 0.7 \text{ to } 1 \text{ mW/cm}^2$ $\rightarrow Q_{RI} = 1.7 \text{ to } 3 \,\mu W/cm^2$ • 77 on 4.2 K Stainless steel $\rightarrow Q_{RL} = 3 \text{ to } 5 \text{ mW/cm}^2$ • 300 on 77 K $\rightarrow Q_{RL} = 6 \ \mu W/cm^2$ • 77 on 4.2 K www.neel.cnrs.fr UNIVERSITE JOSEPH FOURIER Cryocourse September 2011





Some values of Q_{RI} measured at MCBT Values between 300 and 77 K 2 stainless steel walls $5 mW/cm^2$ • Vacuum without activated charcoal • Vacuum with activated charcoal 3 mW/cm^2 **External stainless steel wall, interior stainless** steel wall covered with Aluminum adhesive 0.8 mW/cm^2 • Results Q_{RL} 2 stainless steel walls + 1 cm of M.L.I. $0.07 \ mW/cm^2$ • Results Q_{RL}





Radiation : Q_{RL} summary

The losses are related to:

- Interior surface
- *emissivity of metal* = ε
- *Temperature* T⁴
- MLI thickness
- MLI compression ratio

Interest of activated charcoal :

 cryogenic pumping of residual air by activated charcoal

 (300^4)

Air is not solidified on the walls







Conduction of neck tube (Q_{cond}) without vapors

• We have in this case :

$$Q_{cond} = \frac{S}{L} \int_{T_0}^{T_1} k(T) dT = \frac{S}{L} K$$
$$K = \int_{T_0}^{T_1} k(T) dT \text{ is given by tables}$$

■ For stainless steel • Between 300 and 80 K • K = 30.6 - 3.49 = 27.11 W/cm • Between 80 and 4.2 K • K = 3.49 W/cm • Interest to cool the neck with nitrogen



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values of the integral k(T) from 4.2K

T(K)	6	8	10	15	20	60	80	300
	W/cm							
Copper extra pure	166	382	636	1270	1790	2960	3090	4000
Copper cold worked	8.0	19.1	33.2	80.2	140	587	707	1620
Silver	320	670	990	1610	1980	2570	2670	3570
Alu. extra pure	73	168	280	600	907	1740	1840	2390
Alu. Commercial	1.38	3.42	6.07	15.2	27.6	170	232	728
Gold	41.0	93.0	149	274	364	612	682	1370
Brass	0.053	0.129	0.229	0.594	1.12	10.4	17.7	172
Lead normal	27.0	37.3	42.4	49.0	52.5	73.8	81.3	160
Titanium	0.115	0.277	0.488	1.21	2.20	15.5	22.6	99.6
Monel	0.0235	0.0605	0.112	0.315	0.618	5.23	8.24	52.5
Stainless steel.	0.0063	0.0159	0.0293	0.0816	0.163	1.98	3.49	30.6
Inconel							3.50	53.7
	mW/cm							
Glass	2.11	4.43	6.81	13.1	20.0	115	194	1990
Teflon	1.13	2.62	4.40	9.85	16.4	93.6	139	702
Plexiglas	1.18	2.38	3.59	6.69	10.1	68.3	110	630
Nylon	0.321	0.807	1.48	4.10	8.23	85.9	142	895
Fiber glass epoxy	1.3	2.8	4.5	10	17	95	160	1250



Conduction of neck tube (Q_{cond}) with vapors At a distance x : $Q = S \cdot k(T) \frac{dT}{dx}$ T_1 X=L \dot{m} $\uparrow S$ $\Box Also: dQ_{gaz} = \dot{m} \cdot C_P \cdot dT$ If perfect exchange : $Q - Q_1 = \dot{m}C_P(T - T_0)$ **if** k(T) is: $k(T) = k_0 + a(T - T_0)$ Then we obtain : T_0 X=0 $S[k_{0} + a(T - T_{0})]\frac{dT}{dr} = Q_{1} + \dot{m}C_{P}(T - T_{0})$ $\frac{L}{S} = \frac{1}{\dot{m}C_{P}} \left| a\Delta T + \left(k_{0} - \frac{Q_{1}a}{\dot{m}C_{P}} \right) \cdot \ln \left(\frac{Q_{1} + \dot{m}C_{P}\Delta T}{Q_{1}} \right) \right|$ with $\Delta T = T_1 - T_0$

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Conduction of neck tube Q_{cond} with vapors

Formula not easy to use
No analytical solution for Q₁

We must find solution with computer

Scott and Conte plot sets of curves giving Q₁

according to L/S and evaporation
Conte pages 52-53

Take into account of all other thermal contributions







Losses for Nitrogen containers, variation of Qr+Q1 as a function of Qr for a stainless steel neck for different values of Z=S/L (cm) (Perfect exchange between the neck and cold vapors)

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Losses for helium containers, variation of Qr+Q1 as a function of Qr for a stainless steel neck for different values of Z=S/L (cm) (Perfect exchanges between the neck and cold vapors)

Continuous line : temperature difference between 78 and 4.2 °K Dotted line : temperature difference between 300 and 4.2 °K







Radiation of neck : Q_{Rcol}



• We have : $Q_{Rneck} = S\varepsilon_e \sigma T^4 \cdot \Omega$ with $T^4 = 300^4$

$$\Omega = solid \ angle = \frac{R^2}{R^2 + L^2}$$

Example

- $\diamond O = 150 \text{ mm}$ then, S = 180 cm²
- ◆ L = 300 mm
- \diamond εΩ ~ 0.05 (typical value)
- $Qr_{neck} = 0.38$ watt
- high values

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Radiation of neck : Q_{Rcol}

- The cover plate radiates directly on the bath
 - Important losses!
- Solutions
 - Thermal shields distributed along the neck
 - Low emissivity ($\varepsilon < 0.1$)
 - The heat recovered by the shields is evacuated by the vapors







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Determination of Q_R and Q_{cond}







Cooling down

Remove the heat "stored" in material

→ Enthalpy of the material H

• Between 2 temperatures, we have : $\Delta H = \int_{T_1} C_H$ • H expressed in J/g

$$\int_{T_1}^{T_2} C_P dT = H_2 - H_1$$

Enthalpy H(T) of some materials (J/g)

T(°K)	1	4	15	20	60	80	300
Aluminum	$2.5.10^{-5}$	4.63.10 ⁻⁴	$1.8.10^{-2}$	$4.8.10^{-2}$	3.64	9.37	170.4
Chromium	1.42.10 ⁻⁵	$2.37.10^{-4}$	$0.53.10^{-2}$	$1.28.10^{-2}$	0.904	2.77	78.9
Copper	0.6.10 ⁻⁵	1.3.10-4	$1.07.10^{-2}$	$3.4.10^{-2}$	2.58	6.02	79.6
Iron	$4.5.10^{-5}$	7.42.10 ⁻⁴	$1.45.10^{-2}$	$3.16.10^{-2}$	1.43	3.84	81.1
Nickel	6.10 ⁻⁵	9.8.10 ⁻⁴	$1.85.10^{-2}$	$4.1.10^{-2}$	1.79	4.56	82.1
Niobium	4.10^{-5}	7.3.10-4	$2.6.10^{-2}$	$6.6.10^{-2}$	2.76	5.8	59.2
Titanium	$3.5.10^{-5}$	5.99.10 ⁻⁴	$1.56.10^{-2}$	$4.0.10^{-2}$	2.59	6.37	101.4
Zinc	5.10-5	$1.4.10^{-4}$	$3.4.10^{-2}$	$12.5.10^{-2}$	5.01	9.70	87.1
Teflon		10.10^{-4}	21.10^{-2}	52.10^{-2}	7.02	12.52	144.6

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 ΔH in j/g

m in g

V in l

L in J/l

Cooling down

Starting from these data.

- Calculation of the quantity of fluid which will be evaporated to cool a given mass $\Delta H^* m$
- Exemple for 1 kg of Copper
 - Cooled by helium from 300 to 4 K
 - $\Delta H = (79.6-13.10^{-5})*1000 = 79600$ Joules
 - Helium evaporated = 79600/2562 = 30.3 Liters!

Starting	⁴ He	H ₂	N ₂
temperature			
300 K	30.3 liters	2.5 liters	0.49 liters
77 K	2.1 liters	0.17 liters	

Interest of pre-cooling with liquid nitrogen! !



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VEE Vapor cold energy recovery

 The vapor generated by the evaporation of the liquid can also extract some heat

- Example for helium
 - $L_{vap} = 2562 Joules/litre$
 - Specific heat between T_{Eb} et $300K = m.Cp.\Delta t = 193750$ joules/litre
 - Specific heat / L_{vap} = 74 !
 - Very cooling vapors → recover cold energy is very interesting

For nitrogen

- $L_{vap} = 159200$ Joules/litre
- Specific heat between T_{Eb} et $300K = m.Cp.\Delta t = 188730$ joules/litre
- Specific heat / L_{vap} = 1.18 only !

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Vapor cold energy recovery

 Quantity of liquid evaporated for 1kg of copper with total recovery of cold energy

Starting	⁴ He	H_2	N_2
temperature			
300 K	0.4 liters	0.28 liters	0.2 liters
77 K	0.1 liters	0.07 liters	

- Consequence:
 - Interest to transfer at the lower part for cooling large masses









Other phenomena which lead to fluid's evaporation

For ⁴He only

Taconis effect

Evaporation ~ 1/10 l/h to 10 l/h!!

Ocur when a closed tube is immersed into liquid He bath

Superfluid film

The film goes up along the neck tube of the cryostats and along the pumping line 0.19 *liters / hour / cm*

smallest perimeter encountered at TPN







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Mechanical design

Strength of materials at low temperature
Material used
Differential contraction
Mechanical calculation







Mechanical strength of materials at low temperature

In a general way :

- When we decrease the temperature
 - Improvement of the material's resistance
 - Tensile strength increases
 - Yield strength increases
 - *Fatigue limit at 10⁶ cycles increases*
 - Young's Modulus remains stable

Example	300 K	300 K	77 K	77 K	20 K	20 K
	R (kg/mm2)	E (kg/mm2)	R (kg/mm2)	E (kg/mm2)	R (kg/mm2)	E (kg/mm2)
Stainless steel 304L or 316l	60	20	130	24	150	24
Copper	20	10	40	15		

- However:

- For certain materials, phenomenon of embrittlement
 - Elongation at break decreases (A%)
 - *impact strength decreases (energy of shock)*

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Mechanical strength of materials at L.T.

- Embrittlement = related to the crystallographic structure
 - Importance to know materials which become brittle!

• Materials forbidden for cryogenic applications

- Iron, carbon steels
- Body-centered cubic crystal structures
- Certain stainless steel (ferritic ex: Z8C17 (stainless steel 430) chromium (up to 30%), martensitic ordinary steels, Resists badly to the corrosion, Contain approximately chromium 15% + carbon)

Materials used without problem

- Copper, Nickel and its alloys, Aluminium and its alloys, lead, Silver, gold, platinum, brasses (<30% Zn), Titanium
- faces centered cubic crystal structures
- *Austenitic stainless steel containing* + 7% of Nickel (12 to 30% chromium and 7 to 25% of Nickel)
 - Z₃CN 18.10 (304L)
 - Z₂CN 17.13 (316L)



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Tensile test




Stainless steel 18.10

- ◆ Z3CN 18.10 or 304L
- ♦ Austenitic

Sometimes 316L (more expensive)

Low thermal conductivity
A little magnetic (especially 304L)

Sometimes porosities or cracks in the component *Round bar; thick plate; convex bottom; tubes*Difficult to solder with tin







- Copper
 - Good thermal conductor
 - Not easy to do leak tight welding using TIG process
 - Nonmagnetic
 - Several varieties:
 - CuA1 : profile (round, square, etc...)
 - contains a little oxygen (bubbles to the welding)
 - Avoid if possible (risk of leak)
 - Cu.b : tubes, thin or thick plates
 - Oxygen free variety, better appropriate for welding and stamping than CuA1
 - Contain Phosphorus → thermal and electrical properties lower than CuA1 CuC2
 - CuC2 : still better, rare, expensive, Oxygen-Free, High Conductivity Copper
 - Combine the best of Cu.b and CuA1

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- ATTENTION : round bar in UZ36 Pb2 (lead) forbidden
 - \rightarrow leak + magnetic at low temperature
- To take thick plate in UZ36
- Not welding with TIG
- Brazing without problem

Light alloys

- pure Aluminum (A5): very soft, good thermal conduction (used for thermal shields)
- Aluminum magnesium Alloys (AG3 or AG5) : soft, poor thermal conductor, welded well
- ◆ Dural (AU4G) and Fortal (7075) : poor thermal conductor, easy to machine
- Bonding Aluminum/stainless steel difficult







Copper / Nickel Alloys (cupronickel 60/40)
 Recommended for the capillary tubes (welding tin)
 poor thermal conduction (insulator)

Similar to stainless steel

Nickel alloys

- The Invar (36%Ni + Fe) low thermal expansion coefficient (construction without expansion bellows)
- The Monel (67%Ni + Cu) fine mechanical properties, high corrosion resistance







General precautions (leak) Observe the global aspect of the materials (cracks) Caution with the minimal thicknesses Different according to the materials Stainless steel (0.1 mm), Copper (1 to 2 mm), etc...

Leakage possible in parallel to the extrusion direction







Plastic materials

• Interesting properties of insulation

- shaping often difficult
- Varying characteristics
- high anisotropy in certain cases

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Use of plastics at LT

 Porosity with helium (especially at room temperature)

• outgassing (caution for the tests)

• Emissivity of a black body (cover with aluminum...)

• Avoid the sharp angles (incipient crack)



VEL Properties of plastic materials at cryogenic temperatures



• The mechanical strength increases

- But the majority become brittle
- Problem :
 - Bad thermal conduction
 - high coefficient of contraction
 - significant stresses appear when cooling down
 - → major risks of break
 - Very resistant = Kapton (polyimide)
 - \blacksquare R = 30 kg/mm² at low temperatures
 - Fiber glass Epoxy (G11 type)
 - \blacksquare R = 40 to 50 kg/mm²

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Problems of contraction



Cooling = contraction of the materials

Major part of the contraction between 300 and 80 K (95%)

Behavior very different depending on the materials

• Some values of $\Delta L/L$ (mm/m) between 300 and 80 K



Problems of contraction



Precautions to be taken

For the brazing of 2 different metals



- The material which contracts more must be around the other
- Large precautions for the plastics
 Orientation = anisotropic
- Choices of the bolts
 - Must contract more than the supports to be tightened
- Expansion bellows for the tubes in parallel









P.D.X = 200.e.R

cryostats

Mechanical resistance of

Cylindrical cryostat, case of internal pressure



- P : internal pressure in bar
- D: diameter in mm
- e : thickness in mm
- R : tensile strength in kg/mm²
- X: Safety Coeff (taken very often equal to 5)

Example for tensile strength

- Stainless steel 18/10 : R = 20 kg/mm² = 200 MPa
- Copper : $R = 15 \text{ kg/mm}^2 = 150 \text{ MPa}$

• Example of calculation : \emptyset 200 mm, e = 1.5 mm, Stainless steel 18/10 We find : $P = \frac{200 \times 1.5 \times 50}{200 \times 5} = 15 \text{ bar}$







Mechanical resistance of cryostats

- Cylindrical cryostat, case of internal pressure
 - Calculation of the bottom of cryostat
 - convex bottom = with the same thickness than the cylindrical shell
 - flat bottom must be thicker
 - Circular flat bottom welded (welded plates)
 - P : internal pressure in kg/mm²
 - **r** : radius in mm
 - e : thickness in mm
 - \blacksquare R_P : tensile strength in kg/mm²
 - Bolted flat bottom (supported plates)

$$e = 1.1.r.\left(\frac{P}{R_P}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$e = 0.866.r.\left(\frac{P}{R_P}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

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Mechanical resistance of cryostats



External pressure : to hold the vacuum ($\Delta P = 1$ bar)

• Take care !

- Phenomenon of avalanche as soon as a deformation appears
- Buckling : more complicated formulas
- Long tubes : L > 10 D
 - Behaviour independent of the length
 - *Depends on metal, the thickness, the diameter*
 - For stainless steel : $e = 8.10^{-3}$.D
 - *For copper, brass* : $e = 1.10^{-2}.D$
- Short tubes : L < 10 D
 - Use of formulas or abacs which give the thickness you need
 - Abacs are valid ONLY for $\Delta P < 1$ bar



E = Elasticity modulus σ = poisson ratio = 0.3 without safety coefficient

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thickness of wall for vacuum capability (external pressure, $\Delta P \leq 1$ bar)





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Mechanical resistance of cryostats

External Pressure : to hold the vacuum ($\Delta P = 1$ bar)

• Short tubes : L < 10 D

$$P_{C} = \frac{2,4 \cdot E\left(\frac{e}{D}\right)^{\frac{5}{2}}}{\left(1 - \sigma^{2}\right)^{\frac{3}{4}} \cdot \left[\frac{L}{D} - 0,45\left(\frac{e}{D}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}\right]}$$

Without saffety coef $\sigma = Poisson \ coef$ $Pc = buckling \ critical \ pressure(bar)$ $E = Young \ modulus(bar)$

$$\frac{e}{D} = 4.10^{-3} \left(\frac{L}{D}\right)^{0.4} \text{ for stainless steel}$$
$$\frac{e}{D} = 5,5.10^{-3} \left(\frac{L}{D}\right)^{0.4} \text{ for copper, brass}$$
with saffety coeff 5 and for $\Delta P = 1$ bar

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the mechanical resistance (plastics)

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Technology of cryogenic constructions

Starting from mechanics and boiler making

Fine welding

leak tightness = crucial problem
the leak increase at low temperature

No carbon steel

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TIG Welding

- Under Argon
- autogenous welding
- Need for a good protection
- Thickness: not too thin sheet
- Design:
 - Free passage of the welding torch :
 - Lips of welding
- Preparation:
 - Degreasing
 - do not pollute weld bead



- Very advised on stainless steel
 - Reliable in time
 - Clean
- Not recommended on Cu
 - Bubbles
 - Yes for the thermal shields
- Difficult to do something leak tight on light alloys



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Silver brazing

- Heterogeneous ("gluing")
- Example, at MCBT :
 - Castolin 1802
 - fusion 608 to 615°C
 - Rod 1020F (pink)
 - Castolin 1804
 - Castolin 1806
 - Fusion ~ 778°C

- Necessary for bonding :
 - Copper / Copper
 - Copper / stainless steel
 - Brass / stainless steel
- Cleaning before and after
 - Flux material (preparation)
- Ageing
 - thermal cycling
- Not good : stainless steel / stainless steel
 - Risk of detachment
- Less guaranteed than TIG
- Take care with the design







Soft Solder (Tin)

• Low mechanical resistance

Avoid if stress or pressure

- Difficult on stainless steel
- Used if
 - Welding close to brazing
 - If we don't want to deform
- Easier on the capillaries (Cu Ni) than Ag brazing
- Easily detachable (tests) but less reliable
- Important preparation and cleaning

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Problems of deformation (TIG and brazing)

Choice a suitable geometry

Risk to deform flange

Consider possible re-work of the flange

Never machine again the welding or brazing = leak

Take care with the differences in thermal contraction Copper around stainless steel



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Silver brazing some advised geometries

Socket joint

Connection





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Leak tightness tests

Helium mass spectrometer

- General principle
 - To test each element separately before integration
 - To test the whole with each new element
 - Take care with the problems of accessibility after assembly
- Test method
 - ♦ Cleaning
 - hot water + acid + rinsing
 - thermal shocks (liquid nitrogen)
 - Stove in order to completely dry the piece
 - Remove water in the porosities
 - Careful handling (fingers, greasy substance...)

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Seals at low temperature

commercial seals

Helicoflex, Kenol

Soft metals seals

- Indium, Aluminum, lead
- Need important tightening
- ♦Ø joint = approximately 1 mm
- Problem of differentials contraction
 - Flanges of different materials + screw



To plan disassembly







Seals at low temperature

Silicone seals (sylastene)

- Interest: less cumbersome than Indium
 - Less tightening required
- Need for awaiting polymerization
 - 1 to 2 hours according to product
- To plan disassembly
- Glue
 - Stycast, Eccobond
 - allows to glue plastic metal
 - Suitable coefficient of contraction

Araldite

For the plastics between them

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⁴ He Laboratory cryostats

Metallic cryostats Fiberglass cryostats Glass cryostats









- Low conductive heat losses (thin stainless steel tube)
- If liquid helium, intermediate point at T N₂ (77K)
- Reserve : (function of use)
 - Not wall too thick (for cooling)
 - to approach a spherical geometry

Tail:

- shape adapted to the experiment
- Varied materials (depends on)
- Sometimes dismountable, windows

External wall

• Must resist to the vacuum

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Helium cryostats : with « nitrogen guard »

Radiation

- External wall at 77 K
 - Heat which arrives on the internal wall is divided 230 (300⁴ / 77⁴)
 - Useless activated charcoal on the 4K
 - Air solidified on the walls

Neck conduction

- Heat coming from 300 K dissipated in N₂
- thinnest and longest neck as possible
- Conduction between 77 and 4 K lower than 300K→4K



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- Each unit is less heavyEasier to repair
- Fast heating
- Interest of 2 separate vacuums:
 - allows to precool the cryostat with nitrogen







- Less cumbersome tail
 - One wall in less
- Need for expansion
 bellows on N₂ filling and
 He vacuum tubes
- Possibility to have only one vacuum







- Interchangeability of the tails
- Expensive and heavier
 Additional flanges
- Accessibility inside
- Essential for neutrons
 Tails in light alloys







 Good blocking of the thermal flow at 77 K

Requires to plan at the beginning all the things which go inside







Helium cryostats : without « nitrogen guard » Neck conduction \diamond Critical because $\Delta T = 300 - 4 = 296$ K • *Rather choose "plastic" neck* Conduction 20 times lower than stainless steel • but conduction attenuated by the cold energy of the vapors • Only a part of heat reach the bath • that depends on heat exchange between neck - vapors • Example for a100 L helium commercial vessel Plastic neck \emptyset 50 mm, thickness = 1 mm, length = 400 mm + MLI \rightarrow Total losses = 30 mW so 1 l/day \rightarrow 1% per day • 5000 liters He vessels : 0.2% per day

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2 types of vessels

- stainless steel
- Aluminum with fibre glass neck (standard G11)

To minimize the losses

- cryostats with MLI
- Vapor cold energy recovery
 - allows to cool down the various layers of S.I.
 - Contact with the neck

Activated charcoal

- Must be placed in the vacuum
- In contact with the cold wall





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Interest of activated charcoal



Example of radiation on nitrogen cryostat • 30 liters cryostat: $\emptyset = 30$ cm, h = 40 cm Vacuum alone: not very good ! Q = 25 watts ■ 0.5 l/h or 12 l/day ◆ Vacuum + activated charcoal : better $\bigcirc Q = 15$ watts ■ 0.33 1/h or 8 1/day ◆ Vacuum + activated charcoal + MLI : still better Q = 2 watts ■ 0.044 l/h or 1 l/day







Helium cryostats : without « nitrogen guard »

- Problems with the "plastic" neck
 - Anisotropic contractions
 - Gluing sensitive \rightarrow be careful with the behaviour at low temperature
 - Porous for helium at room temperature
 - Keep the cryostat cold
 - Metal barrier deposited on the plastic
 - ◆ Use compact fiber glass (standard G11)
 - Limit but not sufficient
 - → after each reheating, the vacuum becomes progressively bad
 - it is necessary to remake the vacuum on the vessel
 - In spite of activated charcoal

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Plastic cryostats

- Suitable for magnetic measurements and for experiments in intense and variable magnetic fields
- Problems with this type of cryostats
 - In intense and variable magnetic fields experiments, the thermal shields and the MLI must prevent the development of eddy current (use of MLI in which the aluminum deposit consisted in small squares of 5mm width separated from each other by an insulated barrier)
 - There are no standard components (tubes, flanges)
 - Plastic plastic gluing (Araldite, Ecobond)
 - Plastic metal gluing (Ecobond)



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Glass cryostats

• Advantages :

- possible observation
- Nonmagnetic , but more cumbersome tail

• Disadvantages:

- brittle, they should be annealed regularly
 - Release of the constraints accumulated after several cooling
- *Helium porosity (5.10⁻⁷ mbar.l/sec)*
 - Need for permanent pumping or special glasses
- $\varepsilon = 1$ (black body) \rightarrow silvering necessary
 - Plan the windows
 - important losses by radiation
- Especially teaching interest

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Obtaining variable temperatures at T > 4.2 K

- He gas circulation + heating
- Cooling down fast
 - Difficulty of stabilization
 T = f (flow and W)
 - Sample well thermalized under gas flow
 - ♦ Easy replacement of sample



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Obtaining variable temperatures at T > 4.2 K







Obtaining temperatures lower than 4.2 K

Interests: :

- Appearance of physical phenomena which cannot be seen at 4.2 K
- Refrigeration of superconducting magnets in He superfluid
 - at 4.2 K
 - Heat exchange 0.5 to 1 W/cm² according to orientation of surface in free convection and < 0.1 W/cm² in a blind channel
 - at 1.8 K
 - Heat exchange 5 W/cm² even in narrow channels
 - **Cp** of helium close to T_{λ} is high

Better stability of superconducting magnets and improvement of the performances Ic 4 when T



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Véel Obtaining temperatures Iower than 4.2 K



- Transient state = loss in liquid
 - Q to be extracted is such as:

$$Q = L \cdot dm = mC_P dT$$
$$\ln\left(\frac{m}{m_0}\right) = \int_{T}^{4,2} \frac{C_P(T)}{L(T)} dT$$

- \diamond L(T) changes little with T
- $C_p(T)$ strongly changes towards T_{λ}
- Below the transition
 - There remains only half of the liquid







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Obtaining temperatures lower than 4.2 K

pumping on the bath

- T minimal depends on :
 - Cryostat losses
 - Pumping flow
 - Pressure drop in the pumping line
- order of magnitude
 - \rightarrow 12 m³/h + Ø 15 mm + 16,5 mbar
 - \rightarrow T = 1.8 K
 - \diamond 60 m³/h + Ø 40 mm + 4,8 mbar
 - \rightarrow T = 1.5 K
 - ◆ 170 m³/h + Ø 100 mm + 0,6 mbar
 - \rightarrow T = 1.15 K





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Obtaining temperatures around 1K

- The double bath
 - «1 K box»
 - A few milliwatts
 - If pump at 30 m³/h
 - \diamond T ~ 0.9 K if closed valve

 T ~ 1.5 K to 1.8 K if impedance (pressure drop)











Superfluid under atmospheric pressure

- Roubeau bath
 - Superfluid Helium
 - $T \sim T_{\lambda} \epsilon$
 - Rigorously constant temperature
 - No stratification



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- Claudet bath
 - Superfluid Helium $T < T_{\lambda} \sim 1.8 \text{ K}$
 - Uniform temperature
 - Interest: performance of superconducting coil + current leads at atmospheric pressure..
 - Safety valves !









Optical cryostat 6 K - 77 K : Magneto optical experiments on HTC superconducting tapes



CryoFIB 4 K He Emission

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He³ cryostats

- To reach temperatures lower than 1 K
 What is ³He
 - He³ is an isotope of ⁴He : he has 2 protons 1 neutron
 Boiling point 3.2 K
 Superfluid temperature 2.5 mK
 He is used for dilution systems
 - We can reach 270 mK by pumping directly on ³He bath
 ³He filling line must be heat sunk by means of 1K ⁴He box



He³ device description





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Coil support + Roubeau bath











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