



Cornell Laboratory for
Accelerator-based Sciences and Education (CLASSE)



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CRYOGENIC SYSTEMS

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ScienceS and Education (CLASSE)

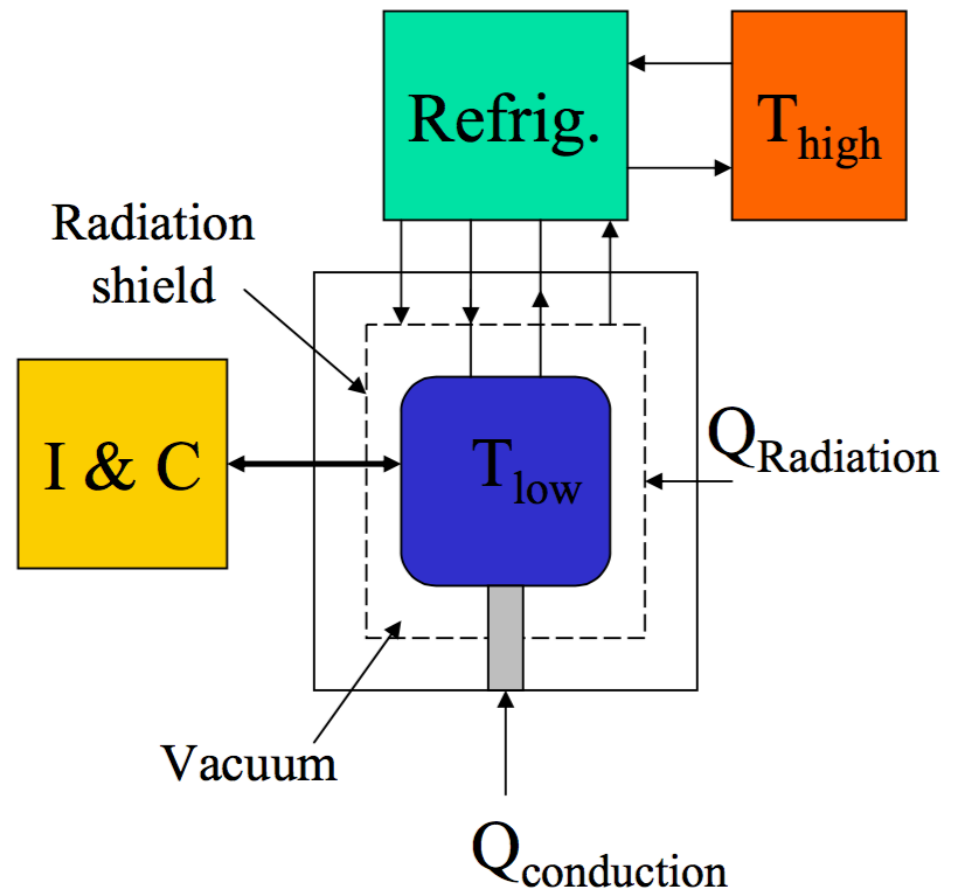


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- Goal: provide a low temperature environment
- Needed: source of refrigeration
- What to obey:
 - Heat transfer
 - Thermal insulation
 - Heat exchange
 - Structural support
 - Instrumentation and controls
 - Safety





- Let us take a piece of metal and cool it down

- How much heat do we remove?

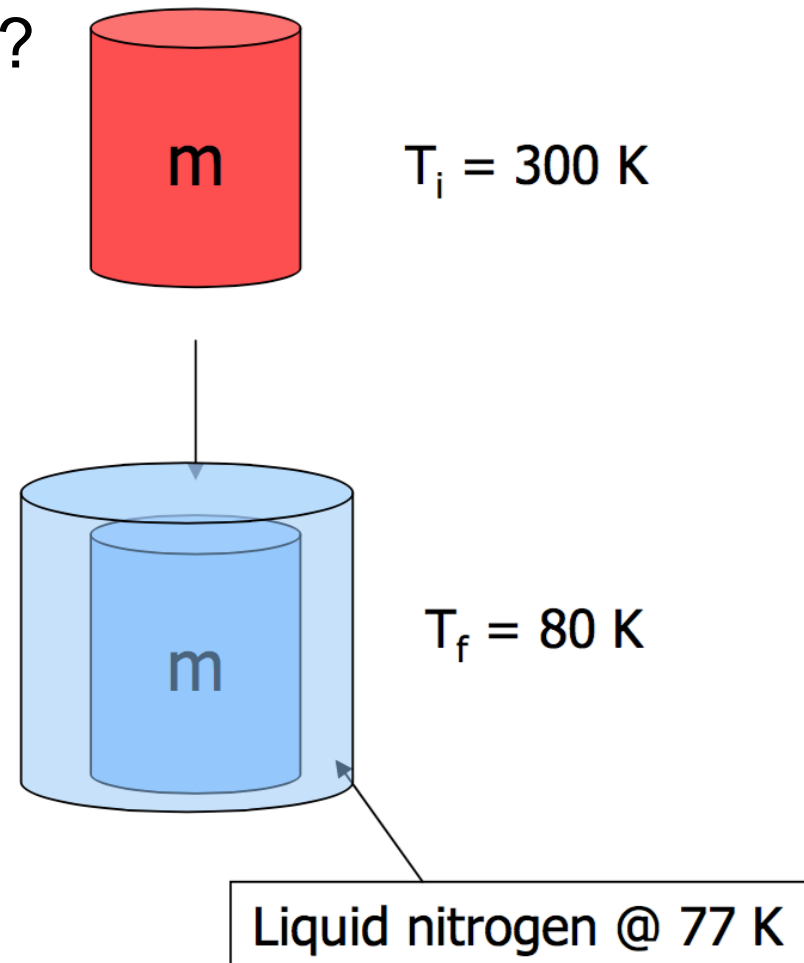
- $Q = m \cdot c \cdot T$

- Or if c is not constant:

- $Q = m \int_{T_i}^{T_f} c(T) dT$

- Two questions:

- What temperature does the metal have?
- What property of the metal did we change during cool-down?





- 0th fundamental law of thermodynamics:
bodies in thermal contact have the same temperature

- 1st fundamental law of thermodynamics

*The increase in internal energy of a **closed system** is equal to the difference of the heat supplied to the system and the work done by the system:*

$$dU = dW + dQ \quad U = \frac{1}{n} \sum E_i$$

...more to come later

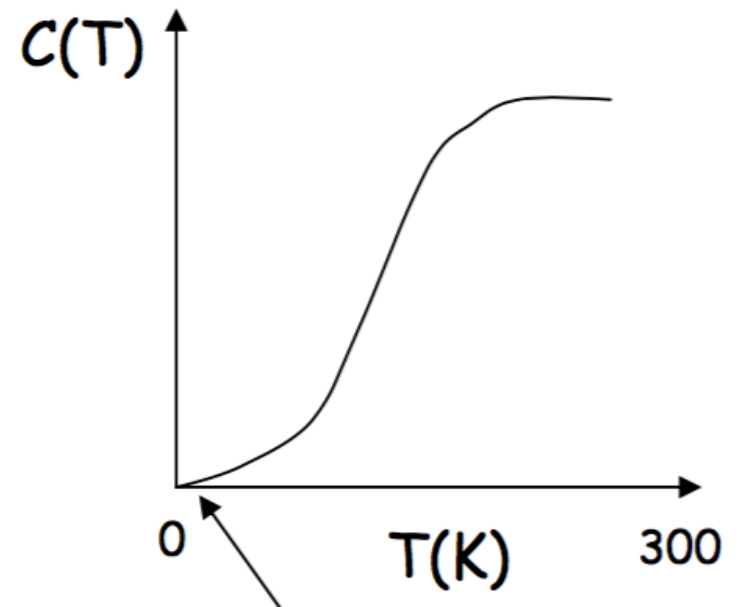




- Specific heat is more generally defined as

$$C_V = \left. \frac{dU}{dT} \right|_V \quad C_p = T \left. \frac{dS}{dT} \right|_p$$

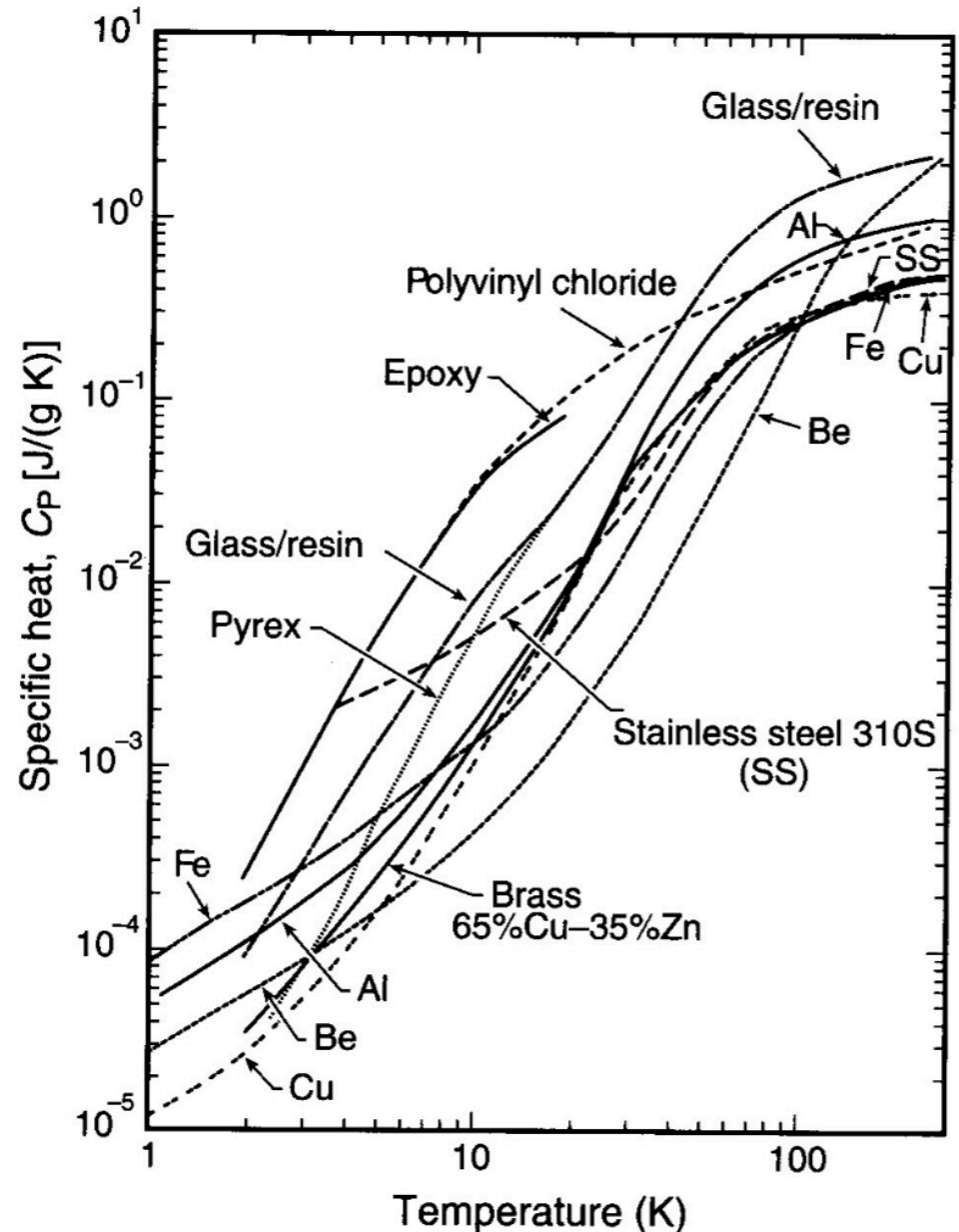
- $C_p - C_V \approx 0$ for solids and incompressible fluids
- $C_p - C_v \approx R = 8.31 \frac{J}{molK}$ for gasses





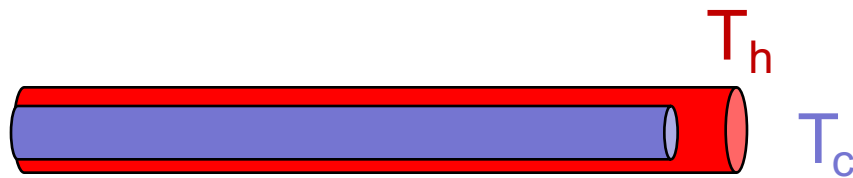
Specific heat at low temperatures

- c_p usually decreases by an order of magnitude from room temperature (RT) to 77K (LN₂)
- Down to 4 K (LHe) there are another **2** orders of magnitude!
- General characteristics:
 - $c_p \sim \text{const.}$ at RT
 - $c_p \sim T^3$ for $T < 100$ K
 - $c_p \sim T$ for metals below 1K



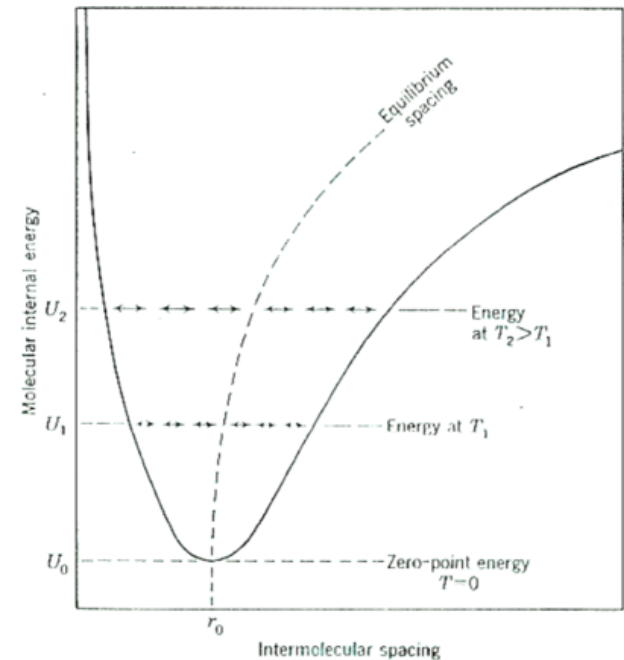


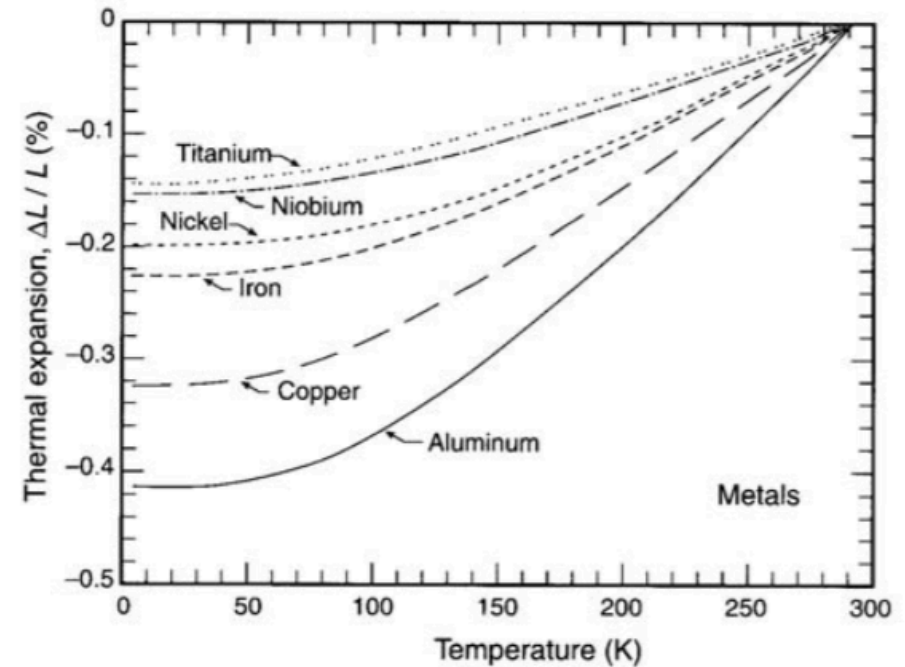
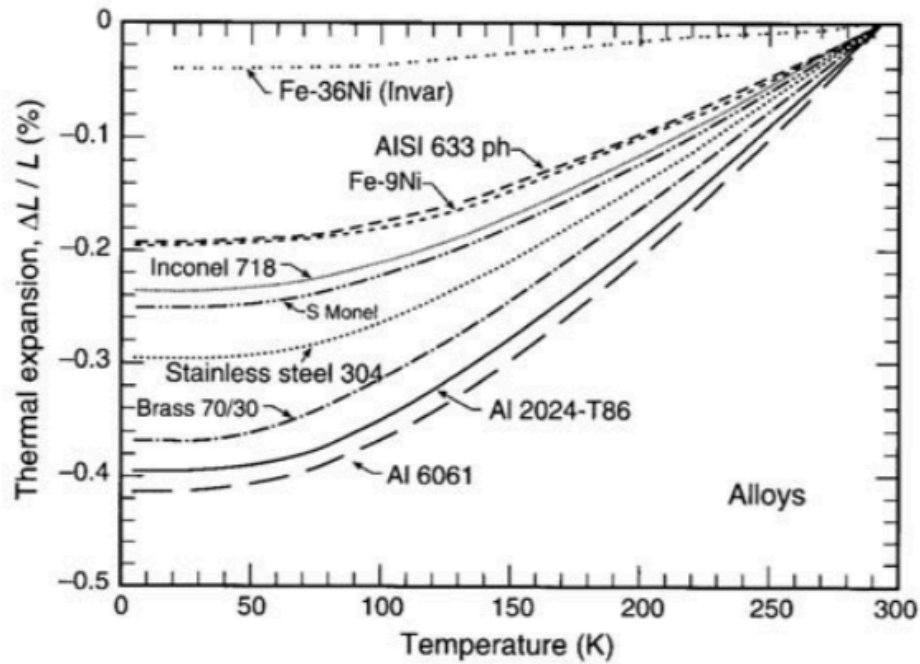
- Materials change dimensions with temperature



- This is captured by the expansion coefficient (CTE):

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{L} \cdot \frac{dL}{dT}$$





- At LN₂ most CTEs become constant. This is why people say: the mechanical properties freeze in at LN₂

$$\frac{\Delta L}{L} = \frac{L_T - L_{295K}}{L_{295K}}$$



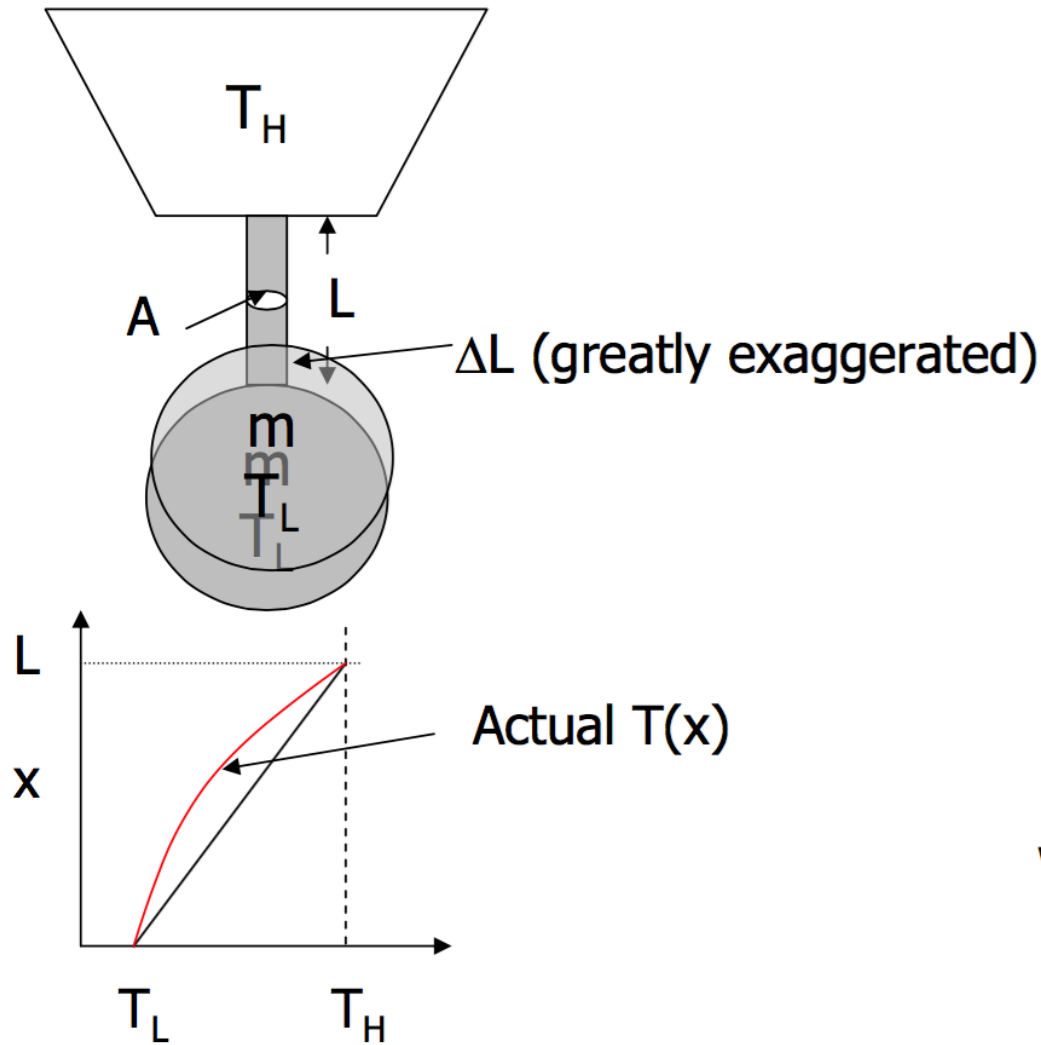
Table 2.5. Linear Thermal Contractions Relative to 293 K^a (in units of 10⁻⁴)

Substance	$T(K) :$	0	20	40	60	80	100	150	200	250
Aluminum		41.4	41.4	41.2	40.5	39.0	36.9	29.4	20.1	9.6
Copper		32.6	32.6	32.3	31.6	30.2	28.3	22.1	14.9	7.1
Germanium		9.3	9.3	9.3	9.4	9.3	8.9	7.3	5.0	2.4
Iron		20.4	20.4	20.3	19.9	19.5	18.4	14.9	10.2	4.9
Lead		70.8	70.0	66.7	62.4	57.7	52.8	39.9	26.3	12.4
Nickel		23.1	23.0	22.9	22.6	21.8	20.8	16.5	11.4	5.4
Silicon		2.16	2.16	2.17	2.23	2.32	2.40	2.38	1.90	1.01
Silver		41.0	41.0	40.3	38.7	36.5	33.7	25.9	17.2	8.2
Titanium		15.1	15.1	15.0	14.8	14.2	13.4	10.7	7.3	3.5
Tungsten		8.6	8.6	8.5	8.4	8.1	7.6	5.9	4.0	1.9
Brass (65% Cu, 35% Zn)		38.4	38.3	38.0	36.8	35.0	32.6	25.3	16.9	8.0
Cu + 2 Be		32.4	32.4	31.9	31.6	30.0	28.3	22.0	16.0	7.0
Constantan		—	—	26.4	25.8	24.7	23.2	18.3	12.4	5.85
Invar ^b		4.5	4.6	4.8	4.9	4.8	4.5	3.0	2.0	1.0
304, 316 Stainless steel		—	29.7	29.6	29.0	27.8	26.0	20.3	13.8	6.6
Pyrex		5.6	5.6	5.7	5.6	5.4	5.0	3.95	2.7	0.8
Silica (1000° C) ^c		-0.1	-0.05	0.05	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.2
Silica (1400° C) ^c		-0.7	-0.65	-0.5	-0.3	-0.2	-0.05	0.2	0.2	0.1
Araldite		106	105	102	98	94	88	71	50	25
Nylon		139	138	135	131	125	117	95	67	34
Polystyrene		155	152	147	139	131	121	93	63	30
Teflon		214	211	206	200	193	185	160	124	75





Thermal contraction of the support



- The change in length of a support is determined by the temperature distribution along the support
- Tabulated $\Delta L/L$ values are for uniform temperature of support
- For non-uniform temperature

$$\Delta L = \int_0^L dx \int_{T(x)}^{T_H} \alpha(T) dT$$

Where $T(x)$ is defined according to,

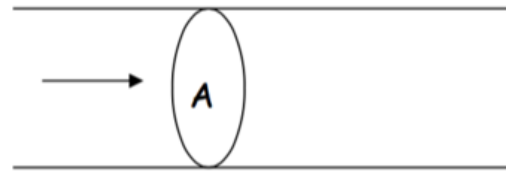
$$\int_{T_x}^{T_H} k(T) dT = \left(\frac{x}{L} \right) \int_{T_L}^{T_H} k(T) dT$$



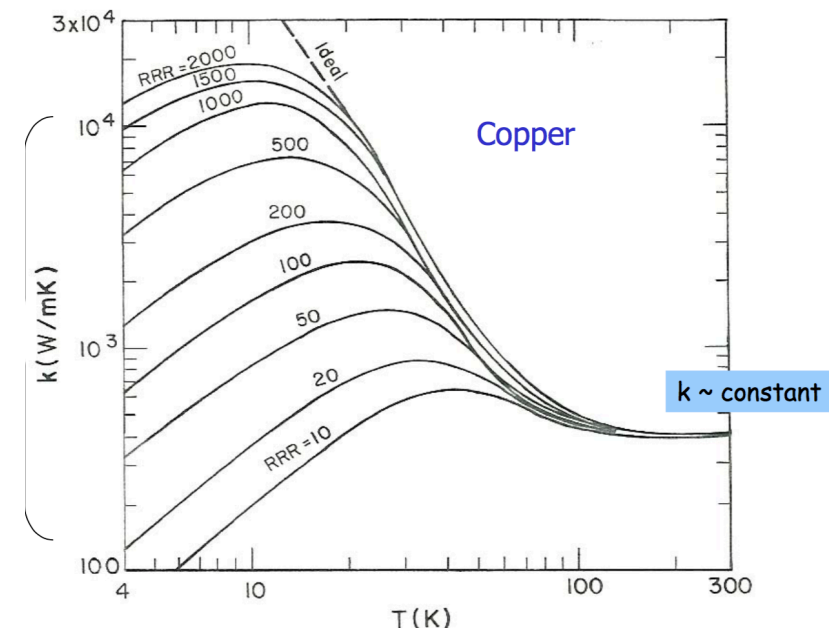


- Thermal conductivity is defined as the relation between the temperature gradient and the heat flux.

$$\dot{Q} = -k(T)A \frac{dT}{dx}$$



- k usually is a strong function of the temperature
- Thermal conductivity has two contributions:
 - Phonons (dominant for insulators)
 - Electrons (dominant for metals)
- For metals, this means, electron properties depend on temperature and impurities



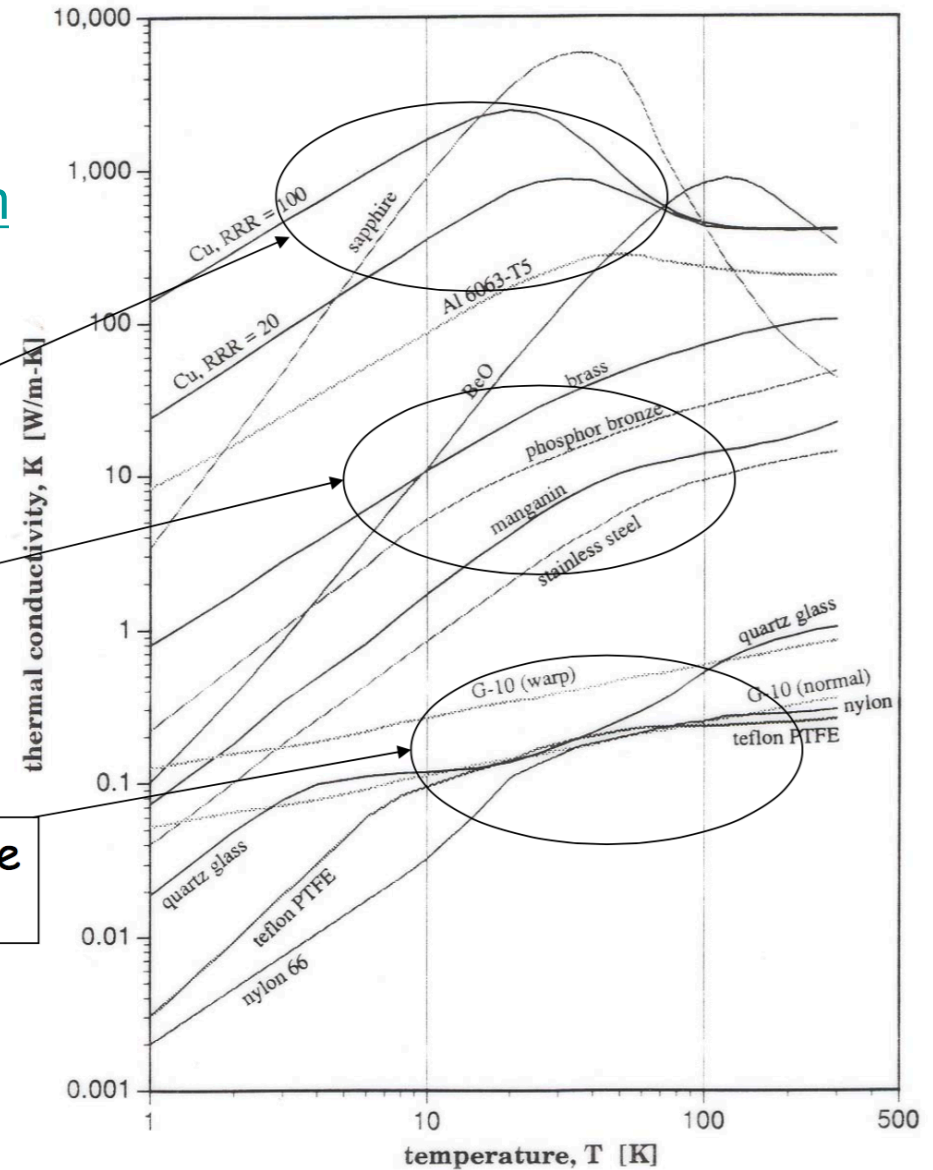


Good source of cryogenic data:
<http://www.cryogenics.nist.gov/MPropsMAY/material%20properties.htm>

Pure metals and
crystalline insulators

Alloys

Non-crystalline
Non-metallics



- Staff
- Group Information
- Publications
- Cryocoolers
- Material Properties
- Fluid Properties
- About Cryogenics
- Links of Interest
- Software
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Material Properties

- | | |
|--|--|
| Aluminum 1100 (UNS A91100) | Molybdenum |
| Aluminum 3003-F (UNS A93003) | Nickel Steel Fe 2.25 Ni |
| Aluminum 5083-Q (UNS A95083) | Nickel Steel Fe 3.25 Ni (UNS S20103) |
| Aluminum 6061-T6 (UNS A96061) | Nickel Steel Fe 5.0 Ni (UNS S20153) |
| Aluminum 6063-T5 (UNS A96063) | Nickel Steel Fe 9.0 Ni (UNS S21800) |
| Apiezon N | Platinum |
| Balsa | Polyamide (Nylon) |
| Beechwood/phenolic | Polyethylene Terephthalate (Mylar) |
| Beryllium | Polyimide (Kapton) |
| Beryllium Copper | Polystyrene |
| Brass (UNS C2600) | Polyurethane |
| Copper (OFHC) (UNS C10100/ C10200) | Polyvinyl Chloride (PVC) |
| <small>* rev. 02/03/2010</small> | Sapphire |
| Fiberglass Epoxy G-10 | ... |

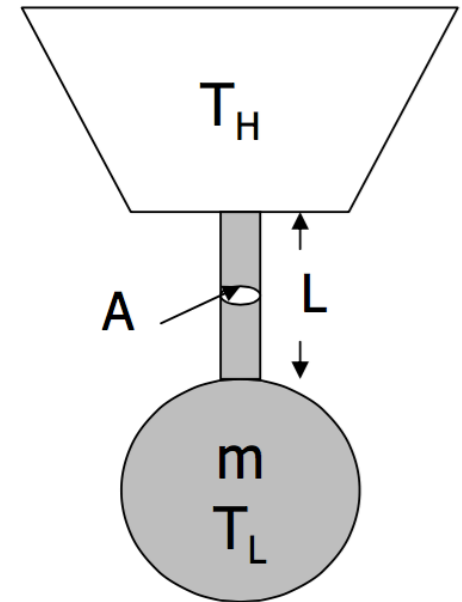


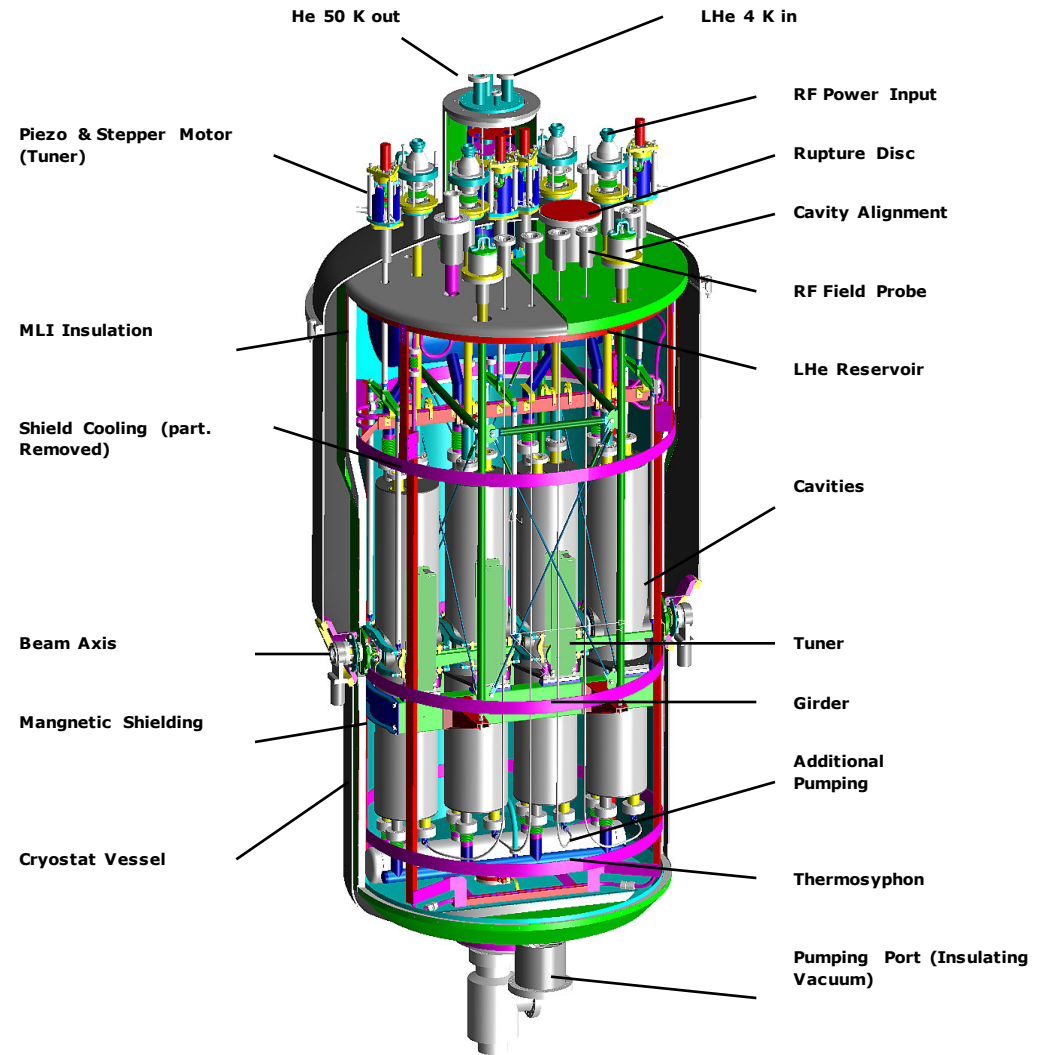
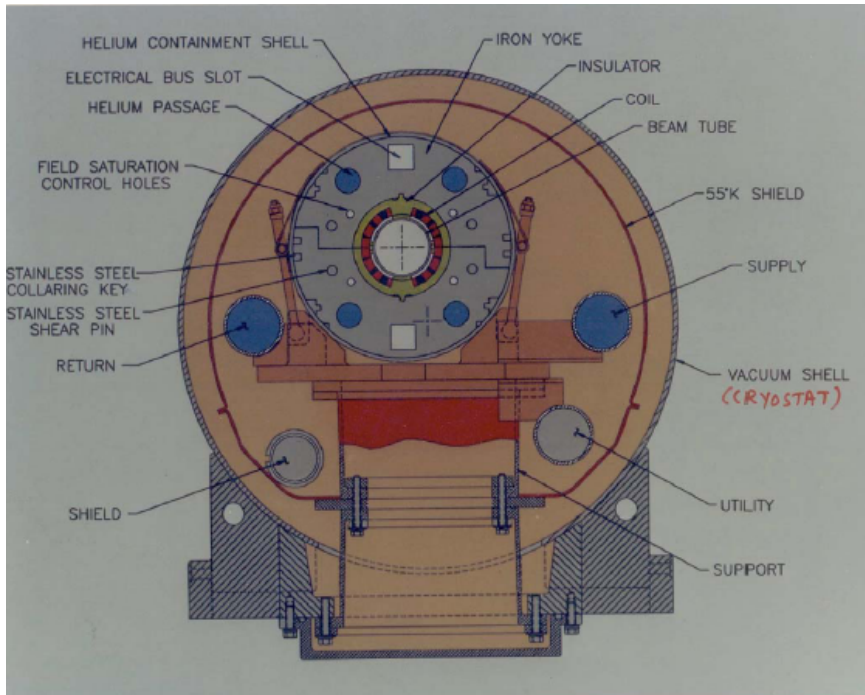


- It will not only move your cold mass as you cool-down,
- It will also add a heat load to the cold mass:

$$Q = \left(\frac{A}{L} \right) \int_{T_L}^{T_H} k(T) dT$$

- But there are limitations on A,L and the choice of material
- So: how would you design a support?
- Typical material used: G10







A design help: conductivity integrals

- Heat transfer is given by:

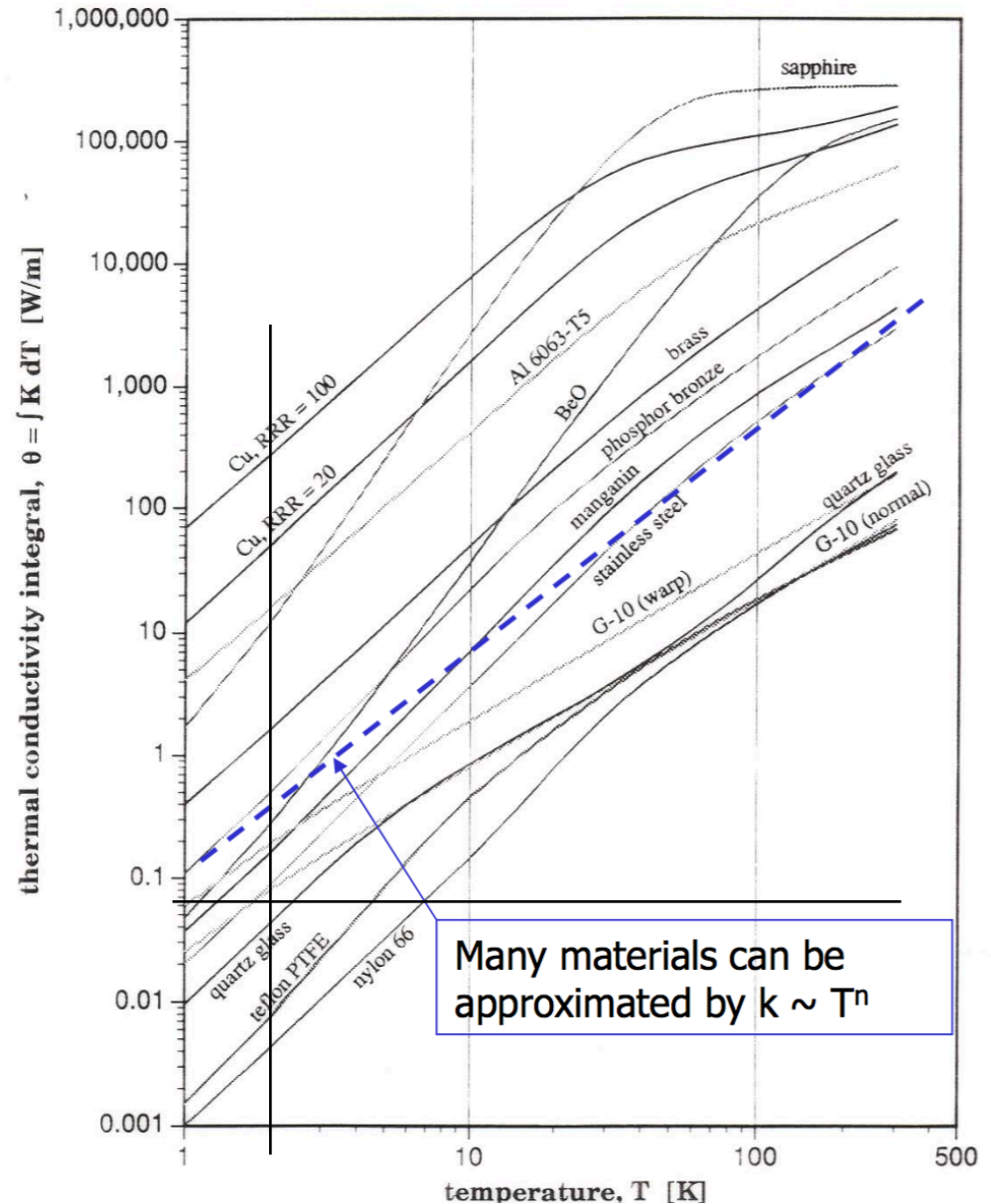
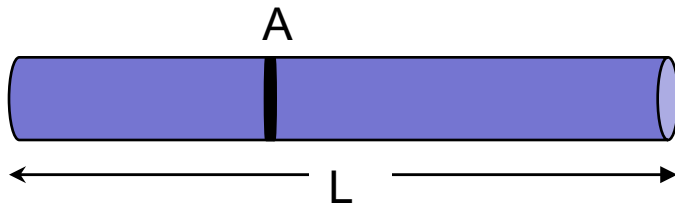
$$Q = \left(\frac{A}{L} \right) \int_{T_L}^{T_H} k(T) dT$$

- For convenience, you can precalculate the conductivity integrals:

$$\theta(T_1, T_2) = \int_{T_1}^{T_2} k(T) dT$$

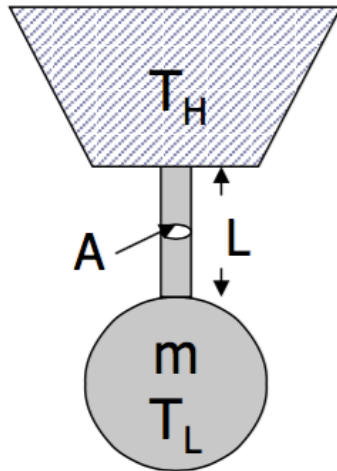
- So Q becomes

$$Q = \theta(T_1, T_2) \frac{A}{L}$$

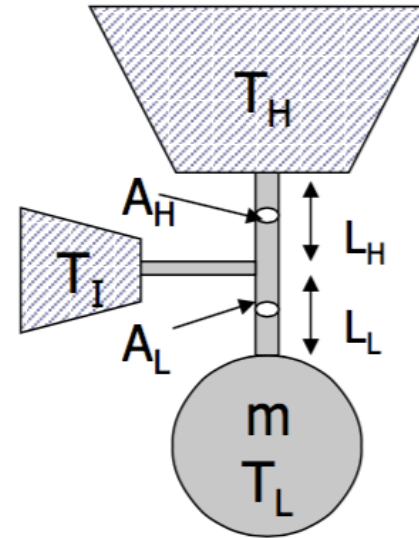




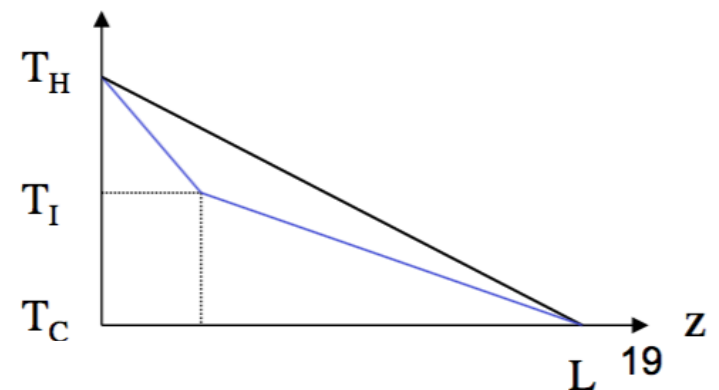
Simple
support:



Actively
cooled
support:

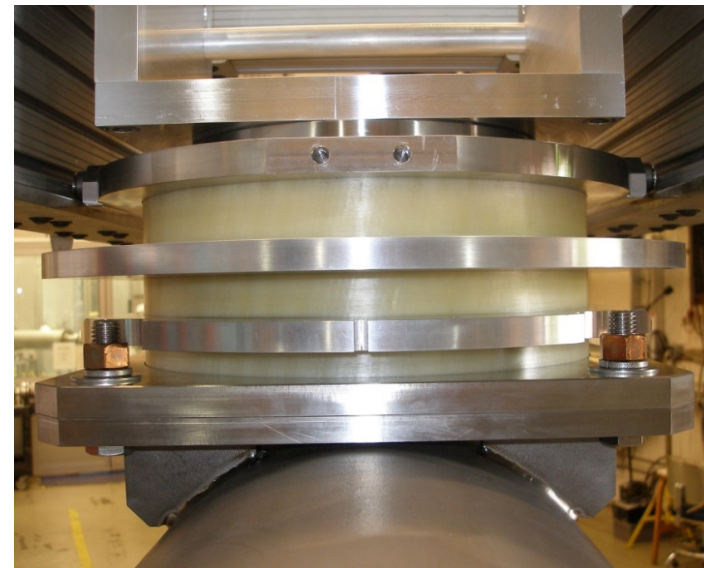
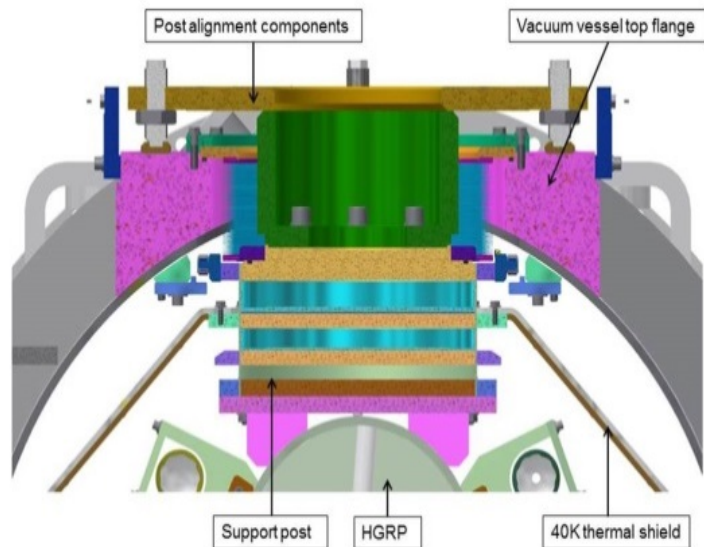
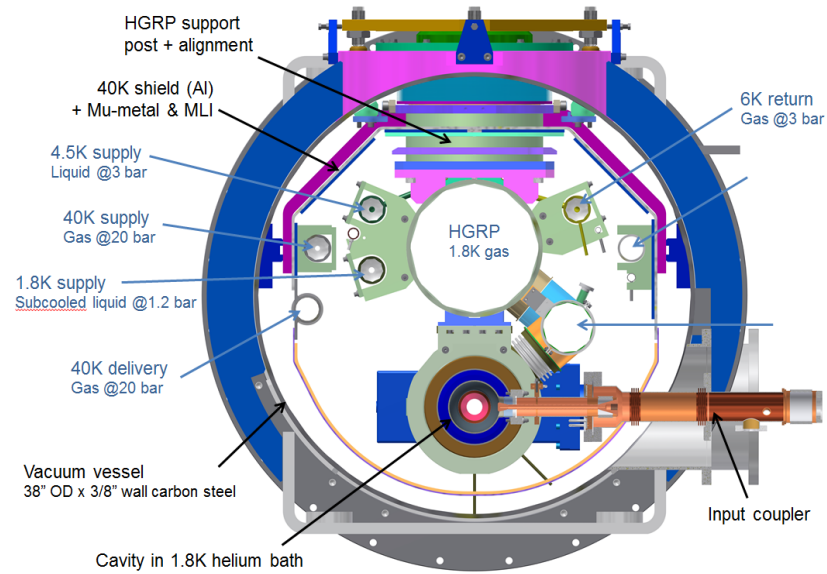


- By intercepting the support at an intermediate temperature, heat transfer can significantly be reduced!
- But: where to position it,
- at what temperature?





Composit posts/ anchoring

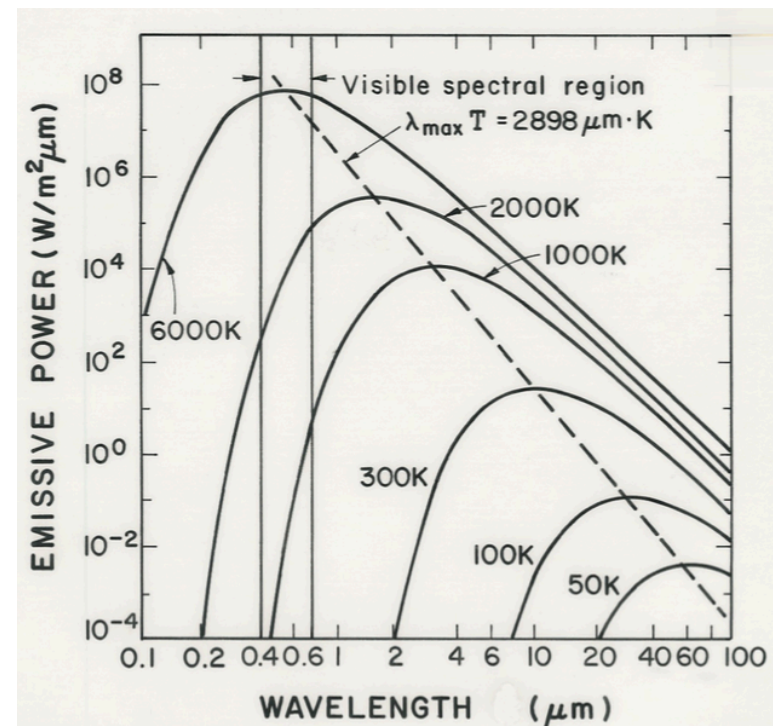


- Planck's law of black body radiation

$$I(\nu, T) = \frac{2h\nu^3}{c^2} \frac{1}{e^{\frac{h\nu}{kT}} - 1}$$

- Believe it or not: this is still a factor at 300 K and below!
- If you are just interested in the total power transfer, you can integrate over the wavelength which gives you the Stephan Boltzmann law

$$Q = \sigma T^4, \sigma = \frac{2\pi^5}{15} \frac{k^4}{c^2 h^3}$$





- If you have two surfaces facing each other, this is the net heat transfer:

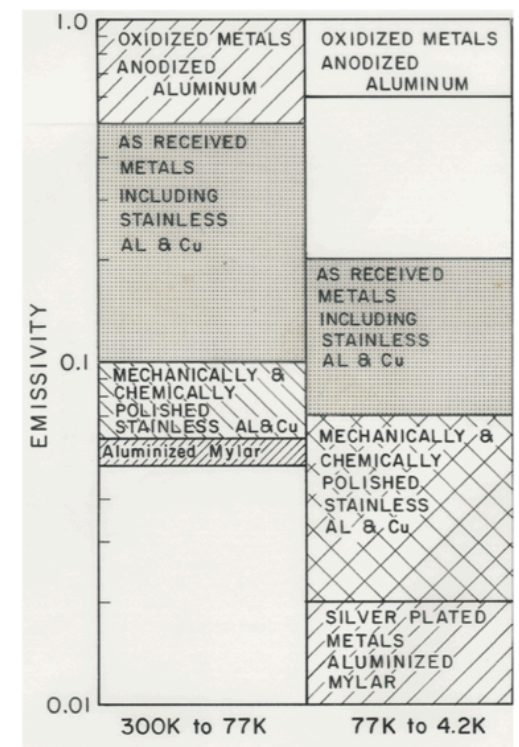
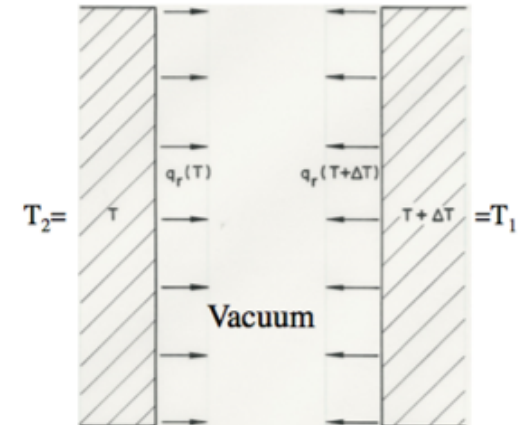
$$Q_R = \sigma A[(T + \Delta T)^4 - T^4]$$

- But: are all bodies black?
- No! Materials have emissivity!

$$Q_R = \varepsilon \sigma T^4$$

- So the heat exchange of two, non-black surfaces is given by

$$Q_R = \frac{\varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_2}{\varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2 - \varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_2} \sigma (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$





- Is this relevant?
- What is the heat transfer from 300 K to 4K if the emissivity of both surfaces is .05?

$$Q_R = \frac{\varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_2}{\varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2 - \varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_2} \sigma (T_1^4 - T_2^4) \quad \sigma = 5,67 \cdot 10^{-8} \frac{W}{m^2 K^4}$$

- Please calculate!



- Is this relevant?
- What is the heat transfer from 300 K to 4K if the emissivity of both surfaces is .05?

$$Q_R = \frac{\varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_2}{\varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2 - \varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_2} \sigma (T_1^4 - T_2^4) \quad \sigma = 5,67 \cdot 10^{-8} \frac{W}{m^2 K^4}$$

- Please calculate!
- => It's ~115 W/m²
- What can we do about it?



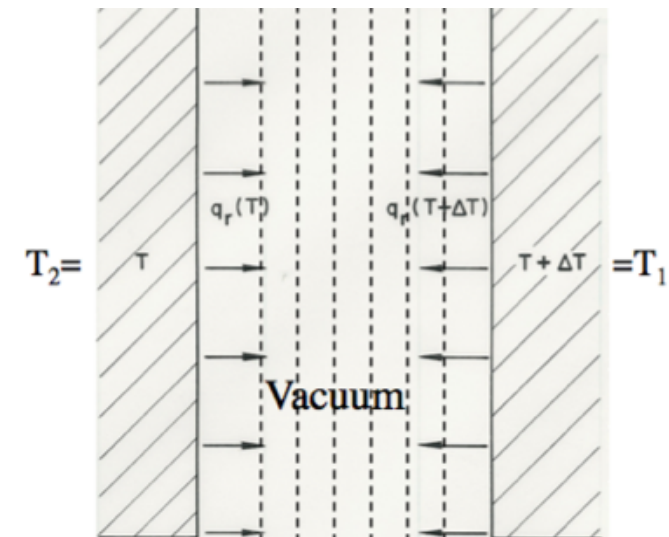
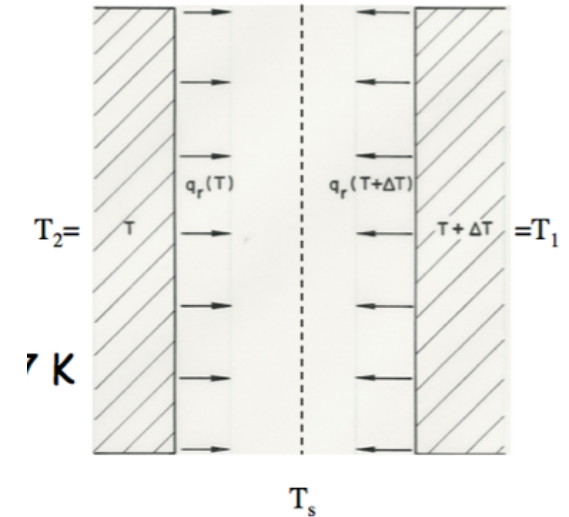
- Let us investigate what a radiation shield (passive) does:

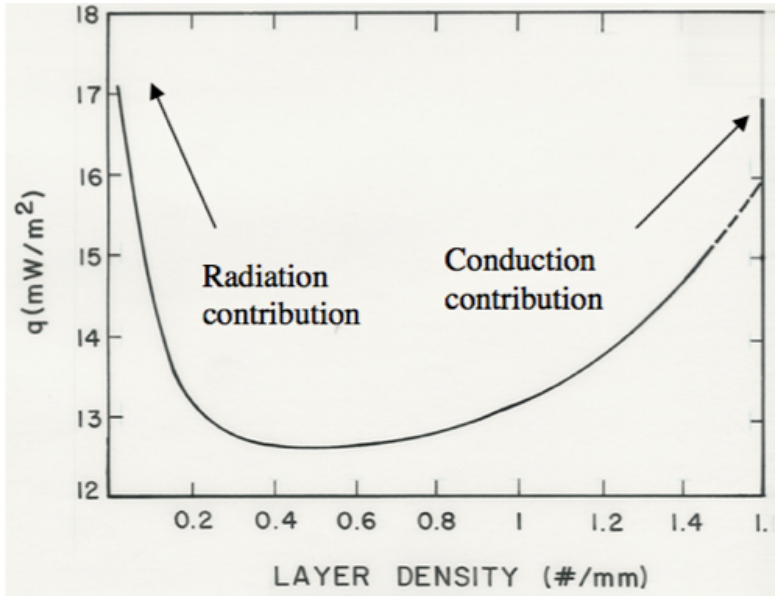
$$Q_{1 \rightarrow s} = \frac{\epsilon_1 \epsilon_2}{\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2 - \epsilon_1 \epsilon_2} \sigma (T_1^4 - T_s^4)$$

$$Q_{s \rightarrow 2} = \frac{\epsilon_1 \epsilon_2}{\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2 - \epsilon_1 \epsilon_2} \sigma (T_s^4 - T_2^4)$$

- And as there is no cooling at T_s , so $Q_{1 \rightarrow s} = Q_{s \rightarrow 2}$, and this turns out to be smaller than $Q_{1 \rightarrow 2}$
- For n passive layers, you get

$$Q_{MLI} = \frac{\epsilon}{(n + 1)(2 - \epsilon)} \sigma (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$



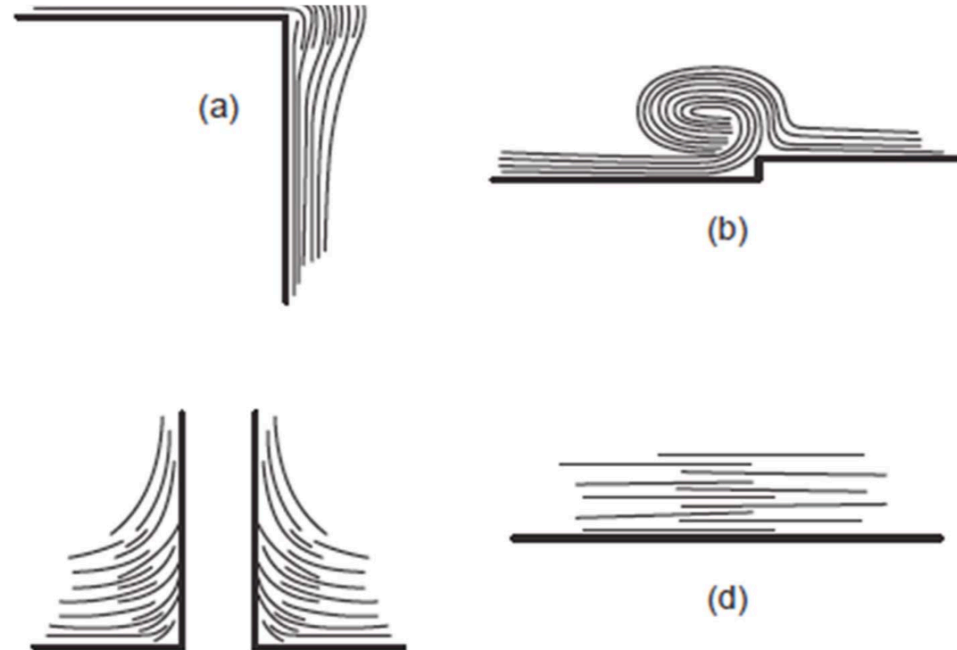


- Make sure you don't pack the MLI too tightly!



Multi-layer Superinsulation Package

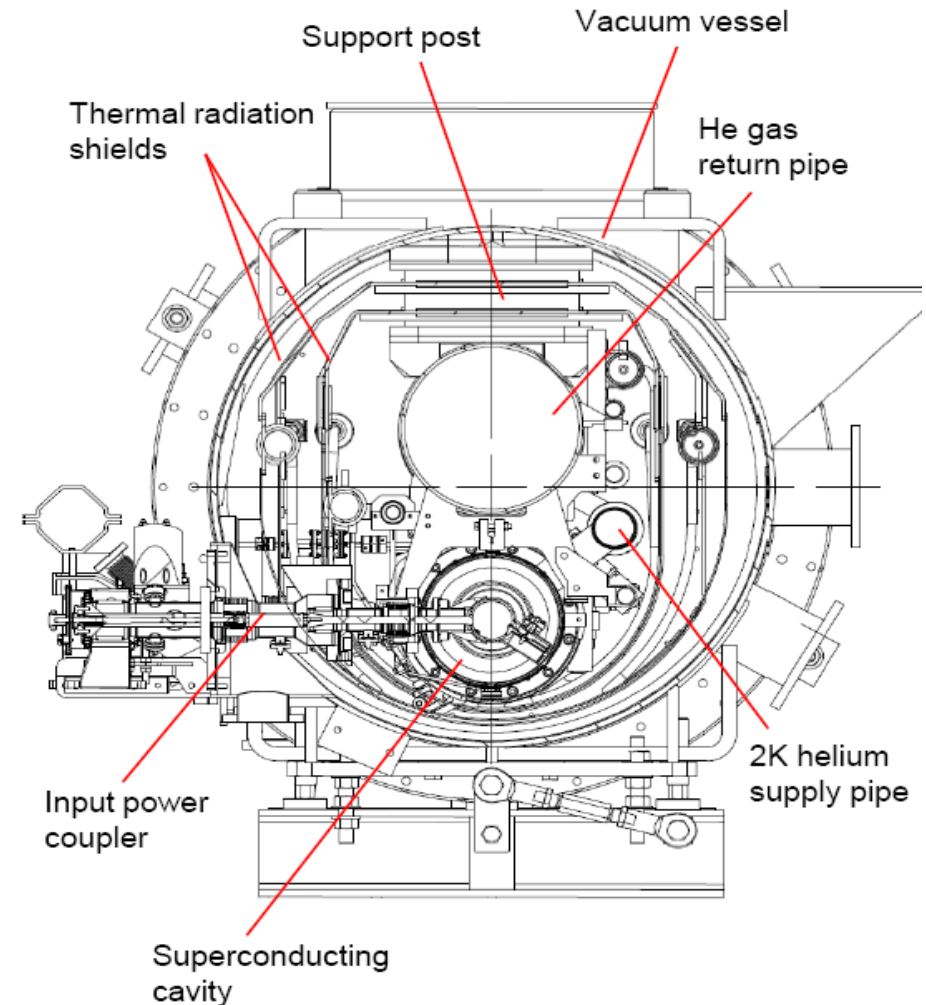
Function	Specification	Properties and Justification
Insulation 300 K to 77 K	10 foil + 10 spacer layers	1.0 to 1.5 W/m ²
	20 foil + 20 spacer layers	0.8 to 0.9 W/m ²
	30 foil + 30 spacer layers	0.6 to 0.7 W/m ²
	40 foil + 40 spacer layers	0.55 to 0.6 W/m ²
Insulation 77 K to 4 K	10 foil + 10 spacer layer	0.05 W/m ²





From what we learned, we can build a cryostat

- **Vacuum vessel (Iron pipe)**
 - Outer diameter = 965.2mm, Length=11.8m
 - Connection between cryomodules
 - Vacuum bellow
 - Total length=12.7m
 - Magnetic shielding
- **Support post**
 - Supporting the all cold mass in the vacuum vessel
 - Material: FRP(G-10)
- **Thermal radiation shield**
 - Aluminum plate + Multi-layer insulation of aluminum-evaporated film (Super Insulation)
 - 40K-80K, 4K-5K helium gas cooling



DESY-TECLA-TYPE-III
Cryomodule Cross Section

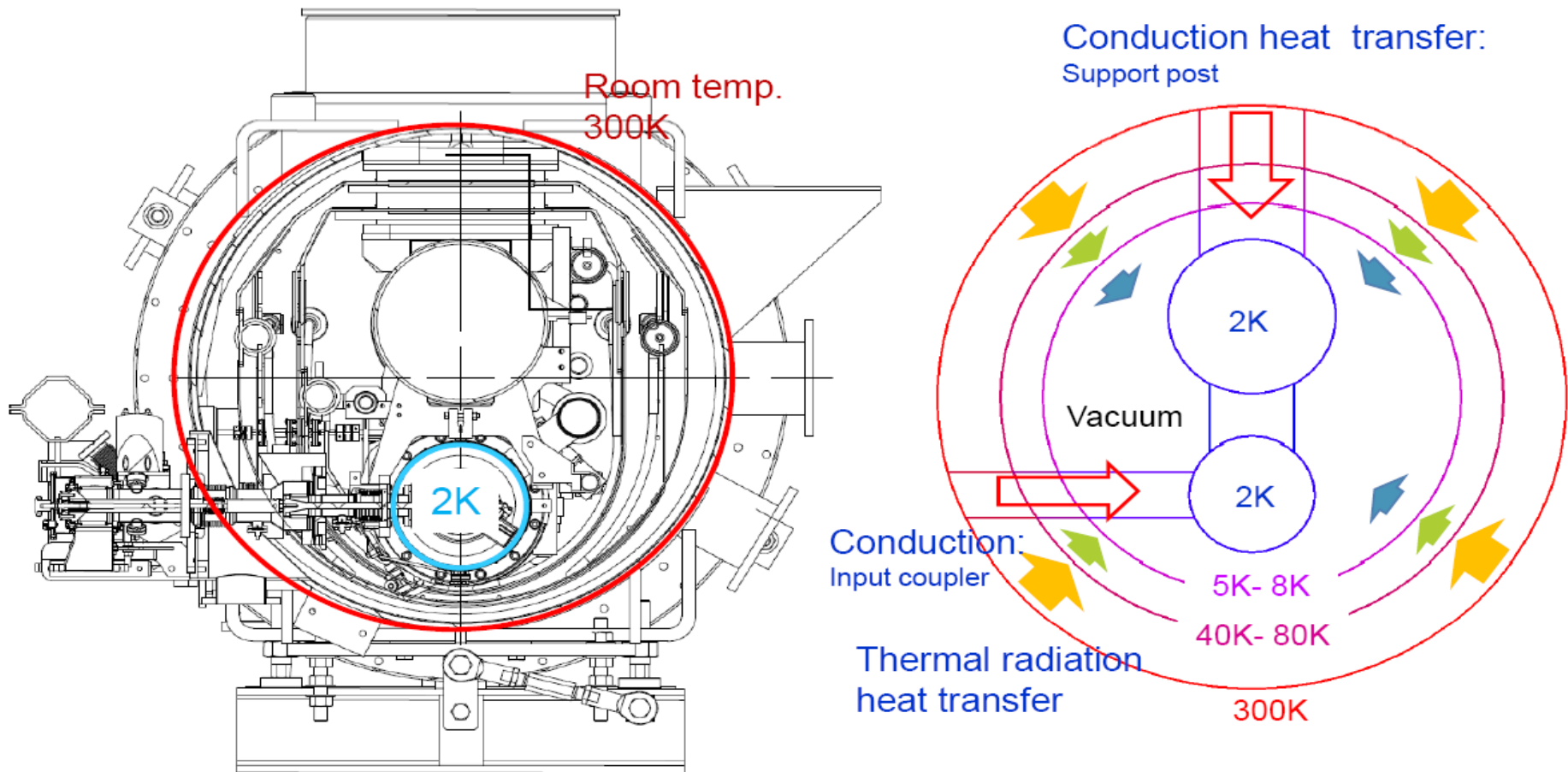
But hey! Why do we have a vacuum vessel?

What type of vacuum do we need here?





Making thermal insulated environment for superconducting cavity





A typical heat load table (ILC)

Figures are in W

	2K		5-8K		40-80K	
	Static	Dynamic	Static	Dynamic	Static	Dynamic
RF load		7.5				
Thermal radiation	0.0		1.4		32.5	
Supports	0.6	0.0	2.4		6.0	
Input coupler	0.5	0.2	1.5	1.3	15.5	66.1
HOM coupler (cables)	0.0	0.2	0.3	1.8	1.8	9.0
HOM absorber	0.1	0.0	3.1	0.5	3.3	10.9
Beam tube bellows		0.4				
Current Leads	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.5	4.1	4.1
HOM to structure		1.2				
Coax cable (4)	0.07					
Instrumentation tapes	0.07					
Diagnostic cable			1.4		2.8	
Sum	1.7	9.7	10.6	4.2	59.2	90.1





End of Lecture I

Cryo-Module Basics

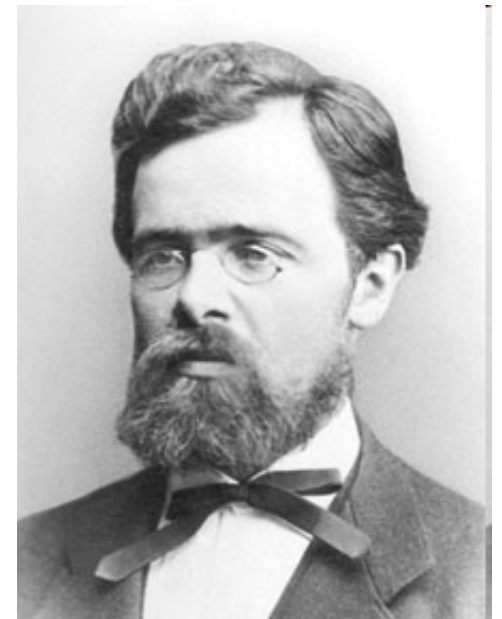
Next: Lecture II

Refrigeration, Liquefaction and Properties of Helium



Low temperature physics started with **Carl von Linde**

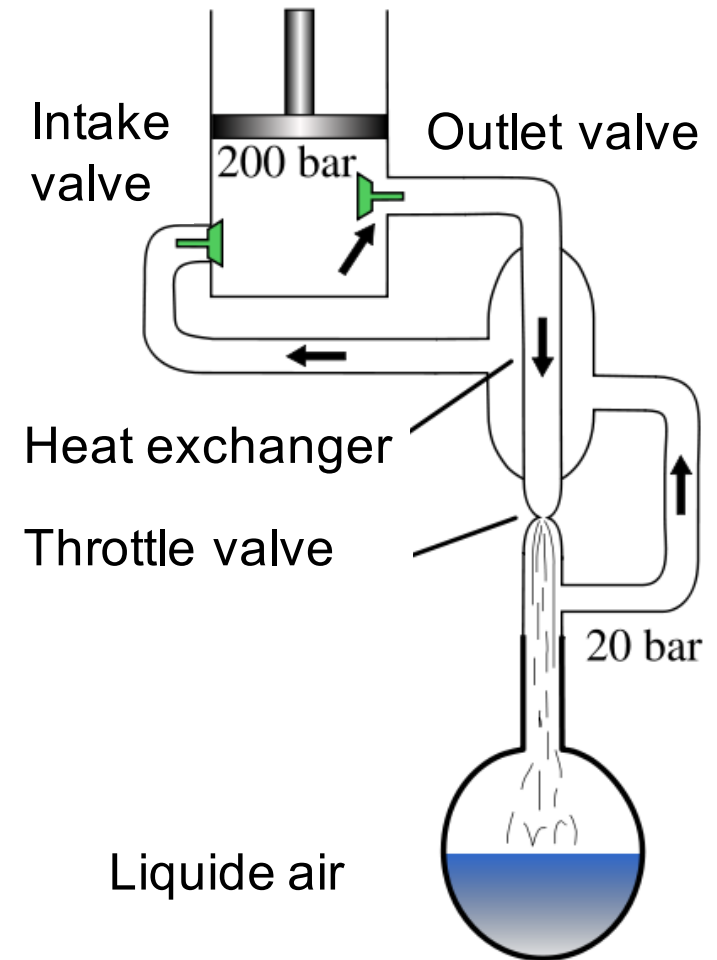
- 1868-78 Prof. in Mechanical Engineering Polytechnikum München (TUM)
- 1874 first cooling device
- 1879 foundation of “Linde's Eismaschinen” (now Linde AG)
- 1892-1910 Profesor, Polytechnikum München
- 1895 first liquefaction of air
- 1901 Liquefaction of O_2 und N_2 on an industrial scale





Linde's process to liquefy air based on heat exchangers

- Air gets compressed
- Heat generated by that gets chilled by water
- Expansion of the air in a throttle
- => cooling due to the Joule-Thomson effect (expansion from 200 to 20 bar results in 45 K)
- Process can also be used to liquefy Hydrogen
- But: Helium cannot!

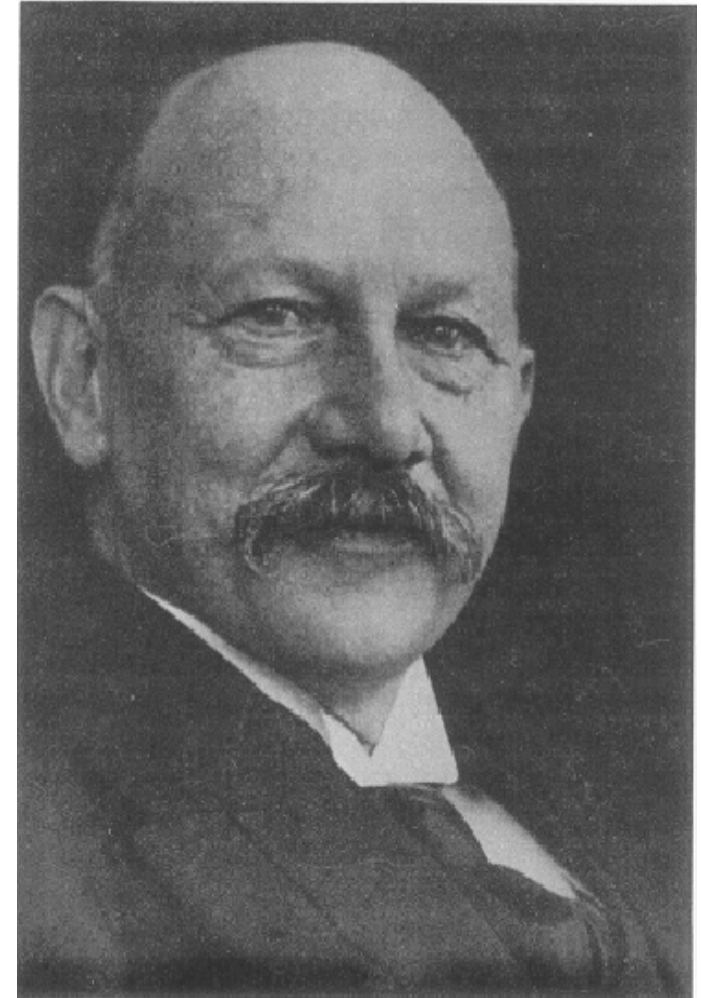




- First successfully done by Heike Kammerlingh Onnes
- 1908 in Leiden (Netherlands)
- Nobel price 1913

And people asked: why do we need liquid helium?

But let's come back to the Joule-Thompson effect...





- 0th fundamental law of thermodynamics:
bodies in thermal contact have the same temperature

- 1st fundamental law of thermodynamics

*The increase in internal energy of a **closed system** is equal to the difference of the heat supplied to the system and the work done by the system:*

$$dU = dW + dQ \quad U = \frac{1}{n} \sum E_i$$

In **open systems**, the enthalpy is a more appropriate quantity for the energy:

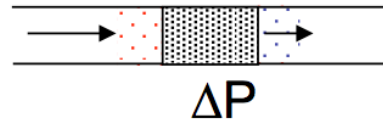
$$H = U + p \cdot V$$

when you allow a gas to expand, H is constant



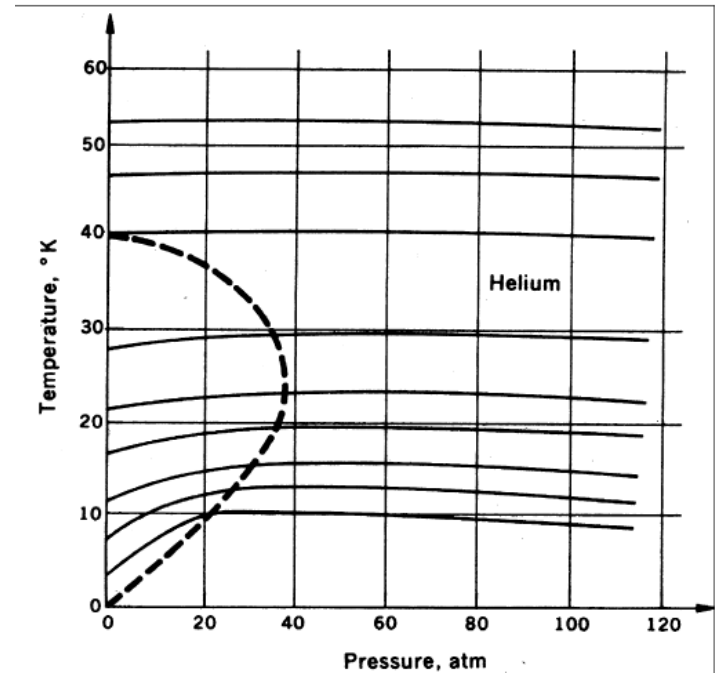


- 1885 - Joule & Thomson (Lord Kelvin) confirm that a gas flow through a restriction experiences a temperature drop along with the pressure drop.



- The Joule-Thomson coefficient: $\mu_j = \left. \frac{dT}{dP} \right|_h$ characterizes the phenomenon.
- When $\mu_j > 0$, cooling accompanies a pressure drop.

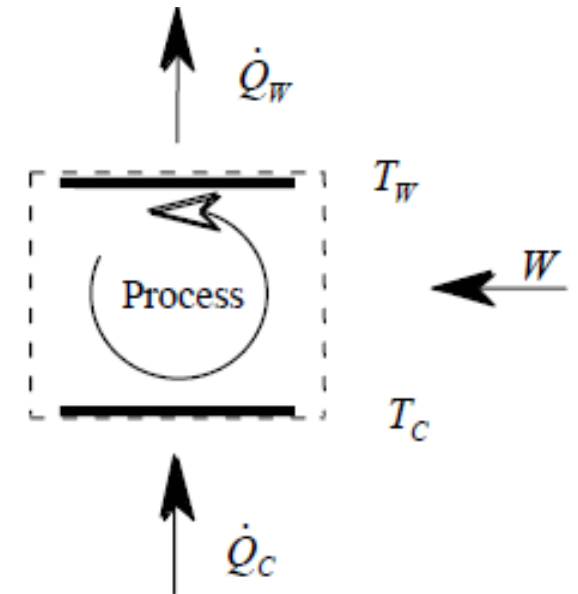
Gas	Maximum Joule-Thomson inversion temperature [K]
Helium	43
Hydrogen	202
Neon	260
Air	603
Nitrogen	623
Oxygen	761



- 2nd fundamental law of thermodynamics

Heat can never pass from a colder to a warmer body without some other change, connected therewith, occurring at the same time.

$$\frac{Q_w}{T_w} + \frac{Q_c}{T_c} \leq 0$$



This limits the options of transferring energy according to the 1st law

=> Gives rise to the definition of the entropy



The entropy of an isolated system increases in all real processes and is conserved in reversible processes

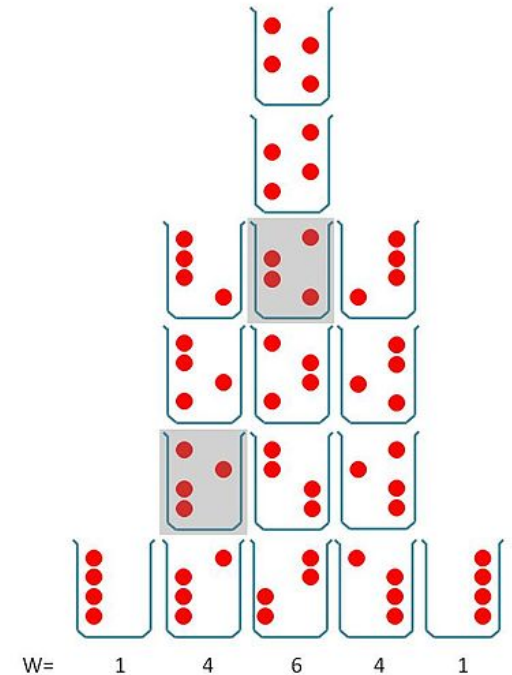
- Definition of the entropy (change)

$$\Delta S = \frac{\Delta Q}{T}$$

- Entropy also measures the disorder in a system. The statistical definition is:

$$S = k_B \ln W$$

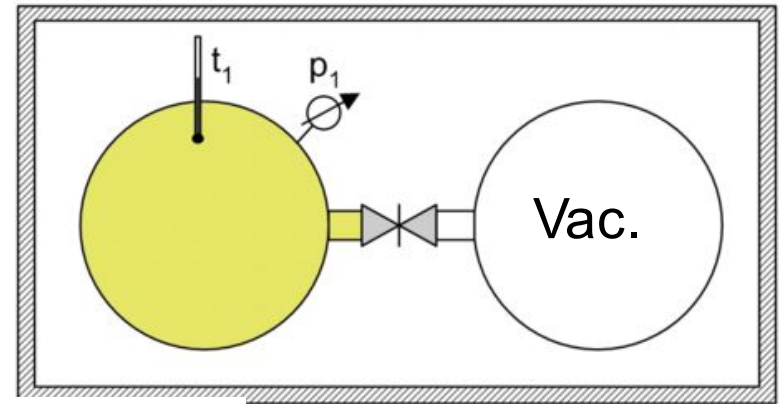
(W is the number of microscopic states)



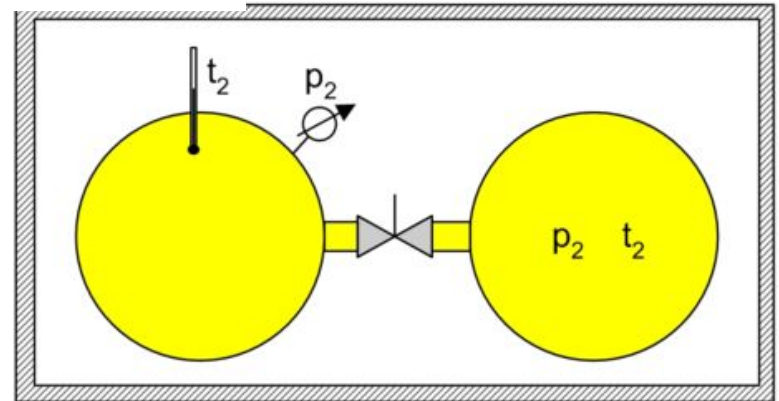


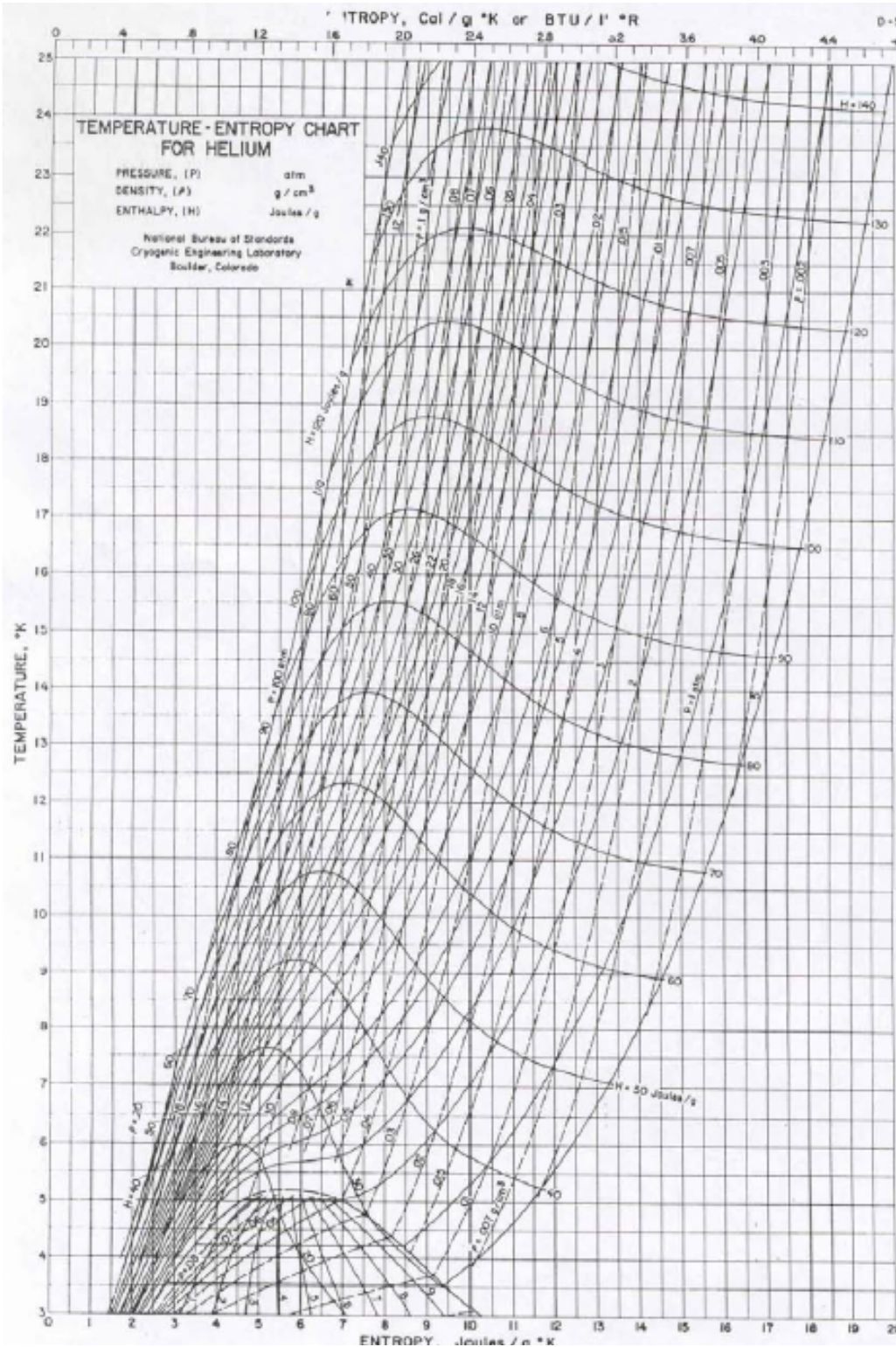
- What happens to the entropy?
- Is this process reversible?

Initial state



final state





TS Diagram

- Gives thermodynamic properties of a specific material
- Contains a lot of information!

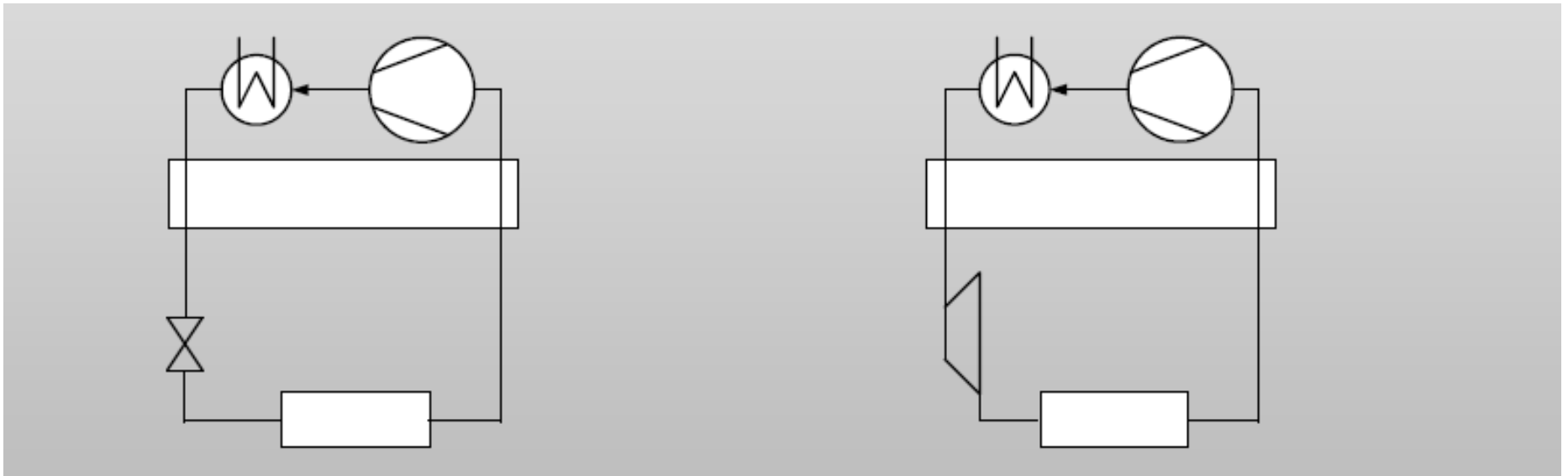
Get oriented:

- Find lines of constant p
- Find lines of constant T
- Constant h
- Where is the 2 phase region?
- Quality of the liquid?
- Critical point?



Joule-Thomson effect:
isenthalpic expansion

Expander: isentropic
expansion



Expansion without heat
transfer

$$\Delta H = 0$$

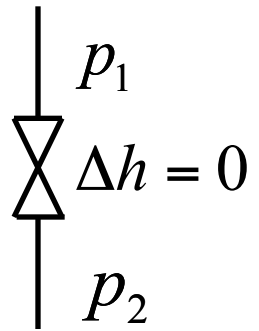
Expansion while delivering
mechanical work

$$\Delta S = 0$$

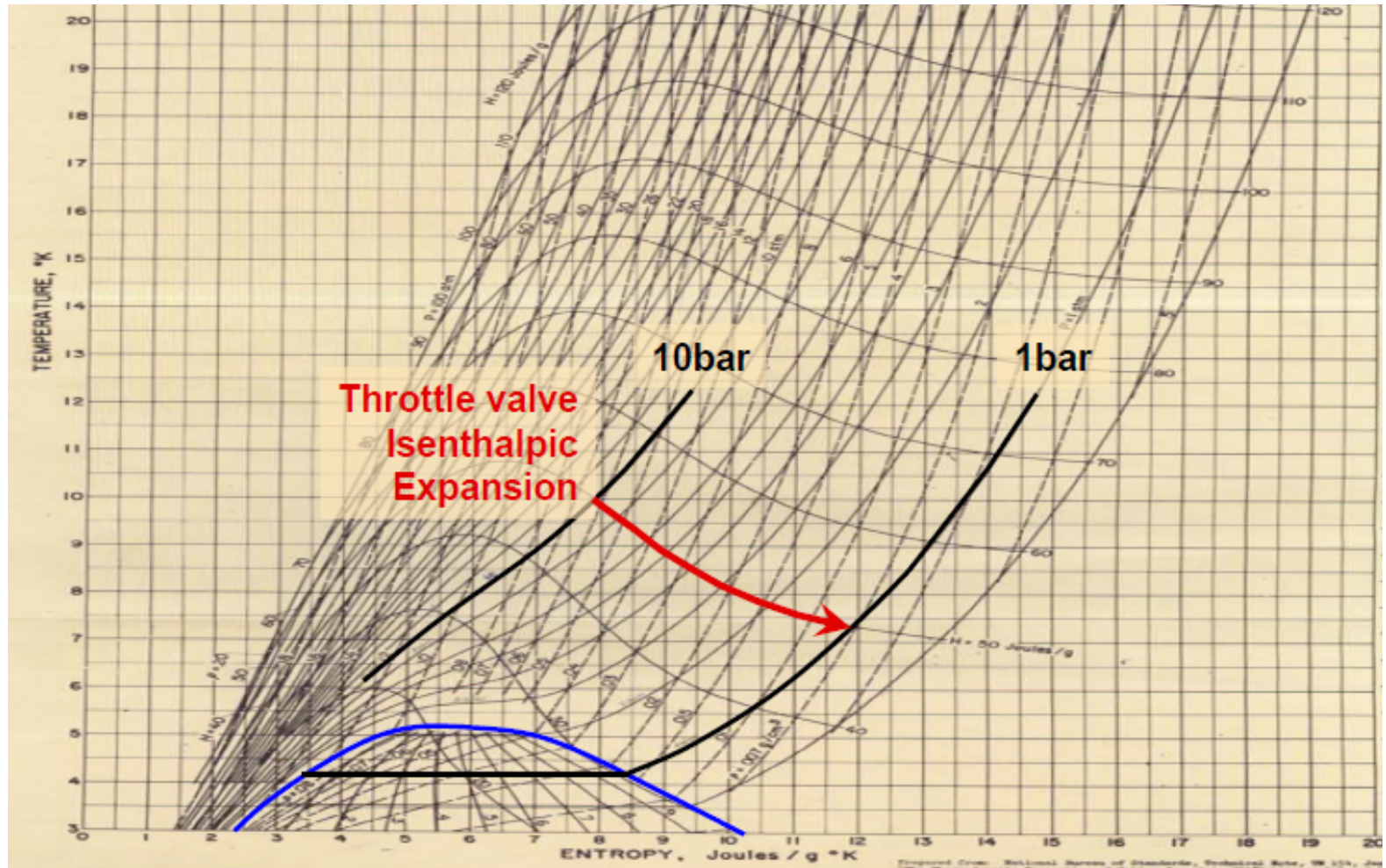




Joule Thomson effect TS Diagram



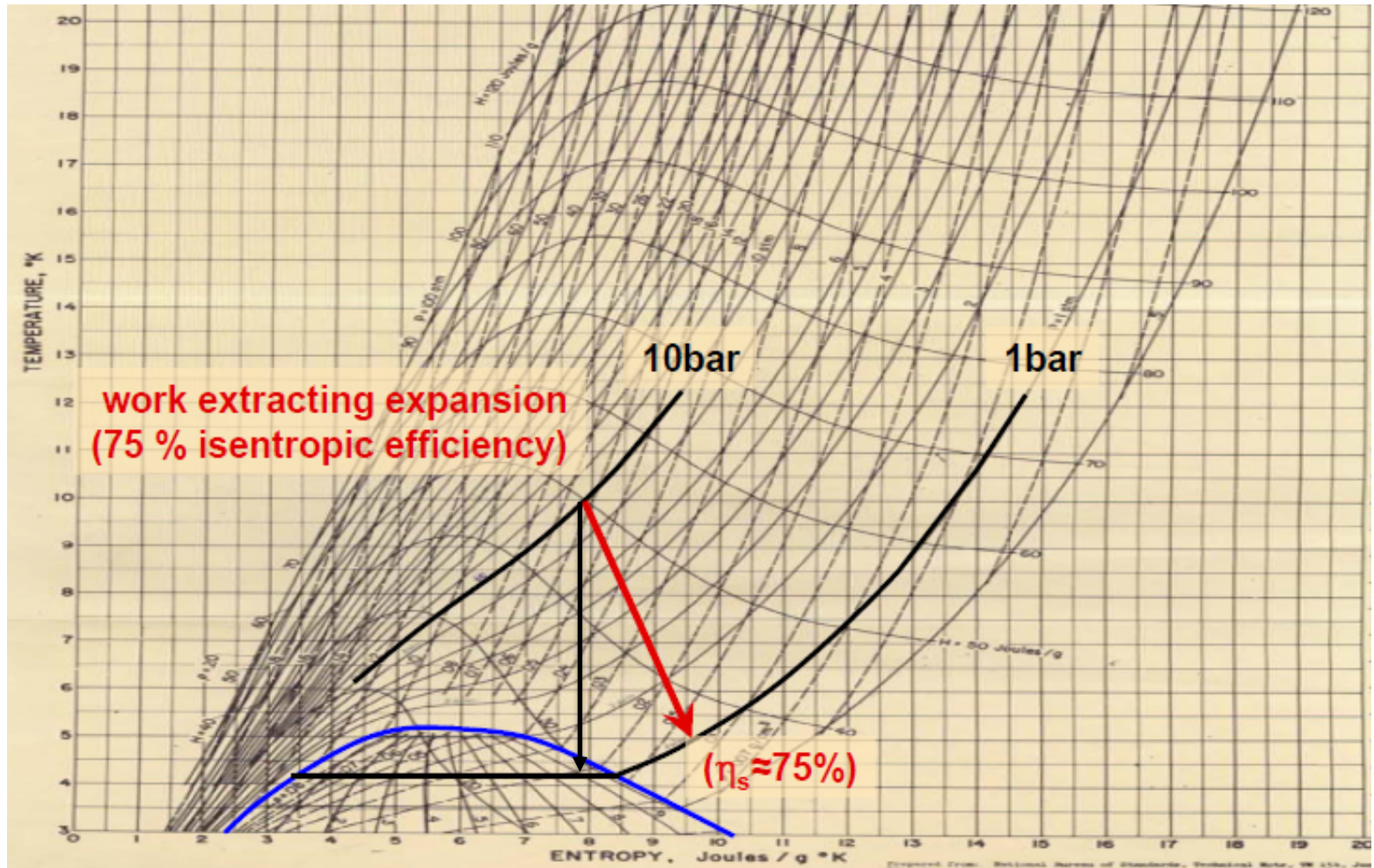
$$\Delta S \gg 0$$





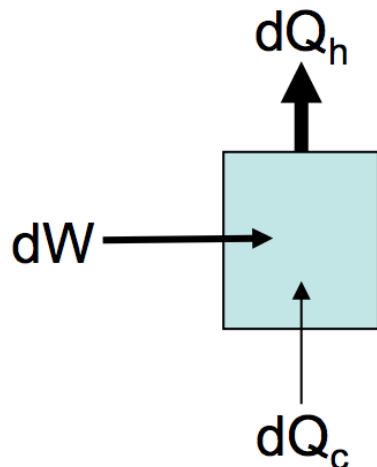
$$\left. \begin{array}{c} p_1 \\ \Delta S = 0 \\ p_2 \end{array} \right\}$$

$$S_2 = \frac{1}{\eta_s} S_1$$





- ‘Moving’ heat from a cold reservoir to a warm reservoir requires energy



The amount of heat moved is associated with an amount of entropy by the relationship:

$$dQ = TdS$$

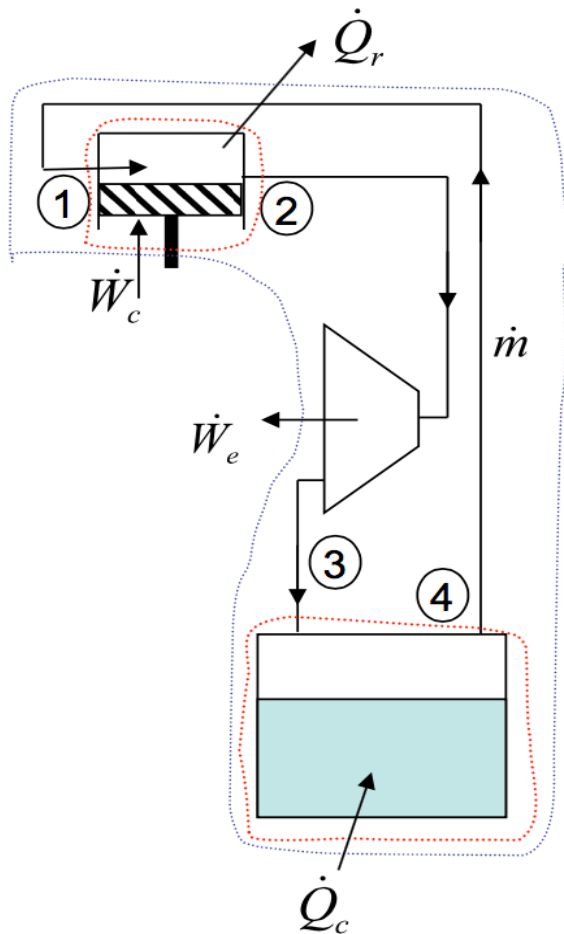
- In an ideal process, the entropy associated with the two heat flows is the same, that is:

$$dS = \frac{dQ_c}{T_c} = \frac{dQ_h}{T_h}$$

- In an ideal process the amount of work (energy) required to ‘move’ the heat is

$$dW = dQ_h - dQ_c$$





- In steady state, the 1st law around the whole system gives:

$$\dot{W}_c - \dot{W}_e = \dot{Q}_r - \dot{Q}_c \quad \text{or} \quad \dot{W}_{net} = \dot{Q}_r - \dot{Q}_c$$

- The 2nd law around the compressor gives:

$$\dot{Q}_r = T_H \dot{m} (s_1 - s_2)$$

- The 2nd law around the evaporator gives:

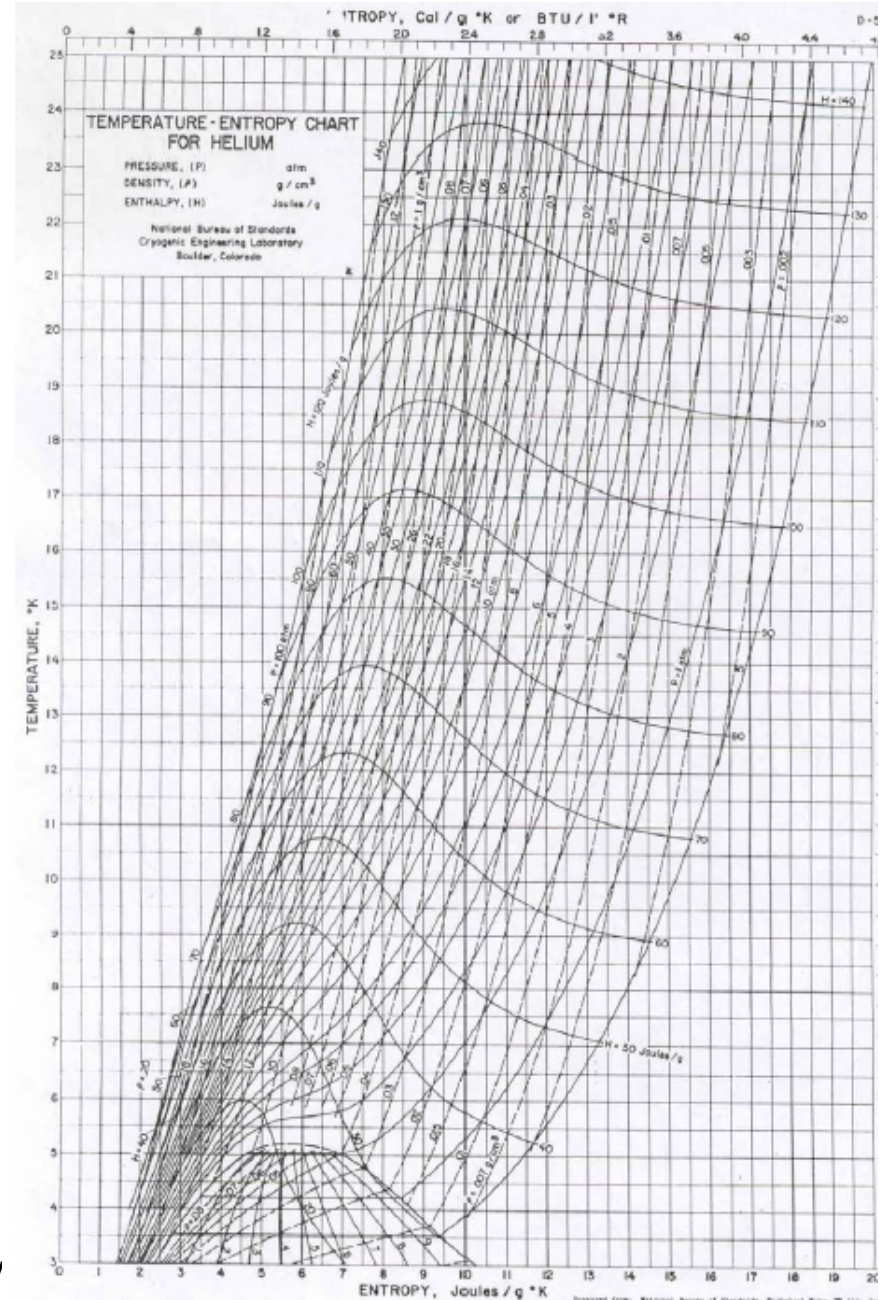
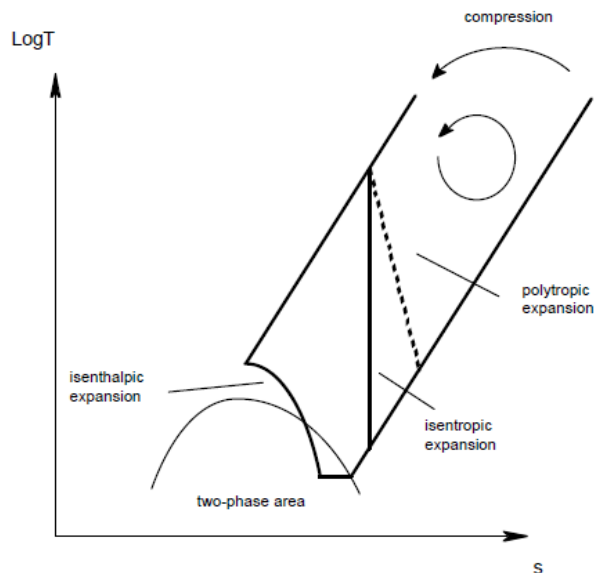
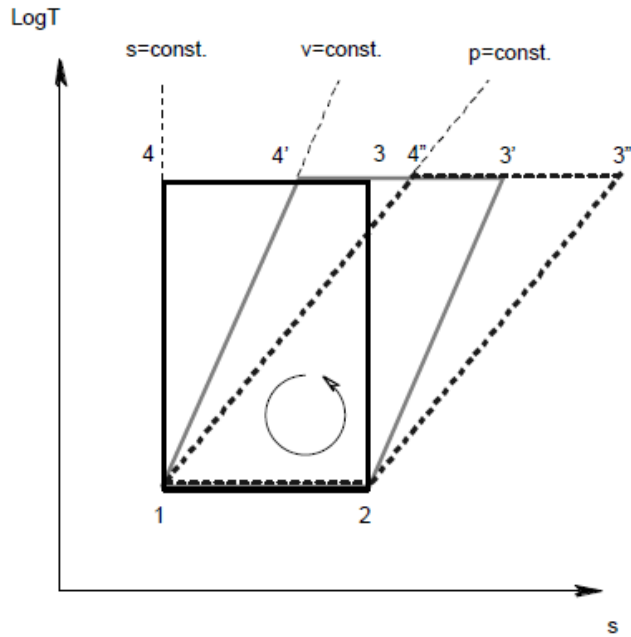
$$\dot{Q}_c = T_C \dot{m} (s_4 - s_3)$$

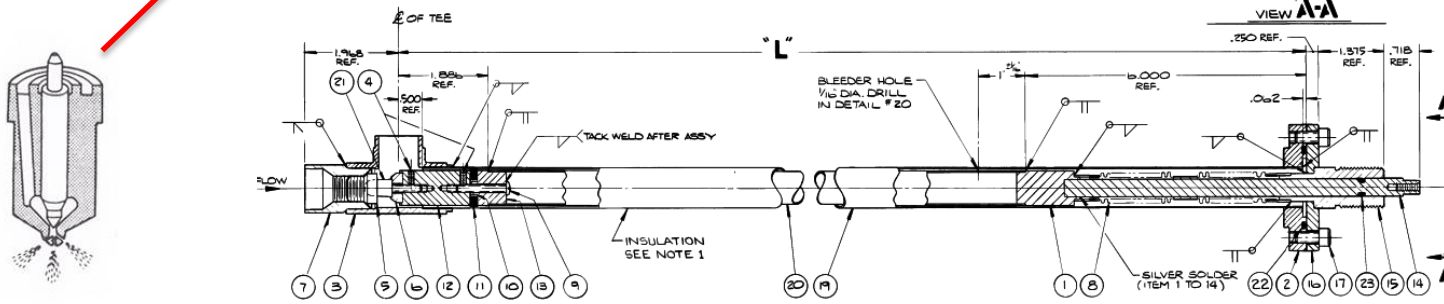
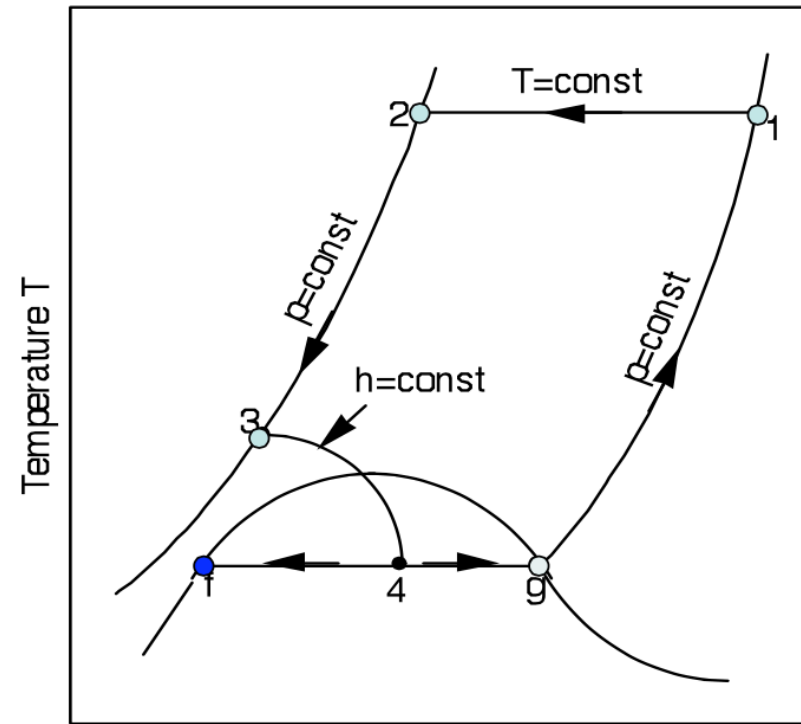
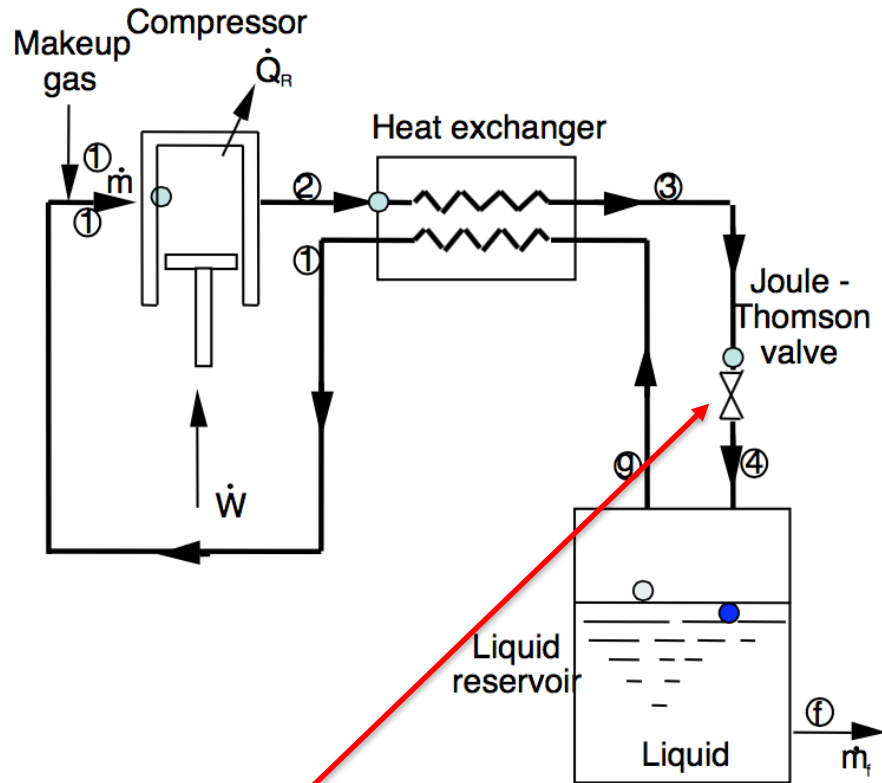
- Combining, and noting that $s_1 = s_4$ and $s_2 = s_3$ we have:

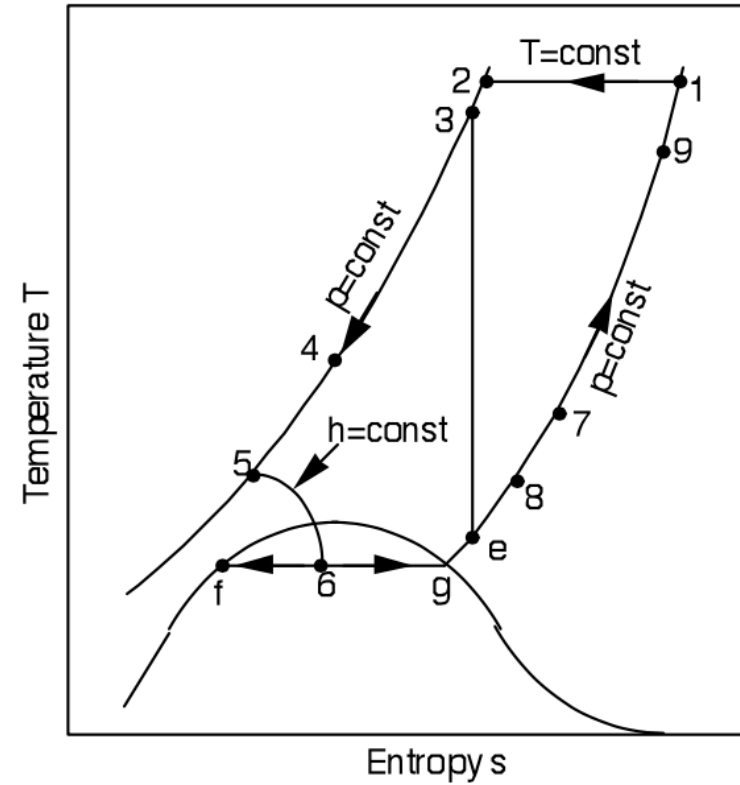
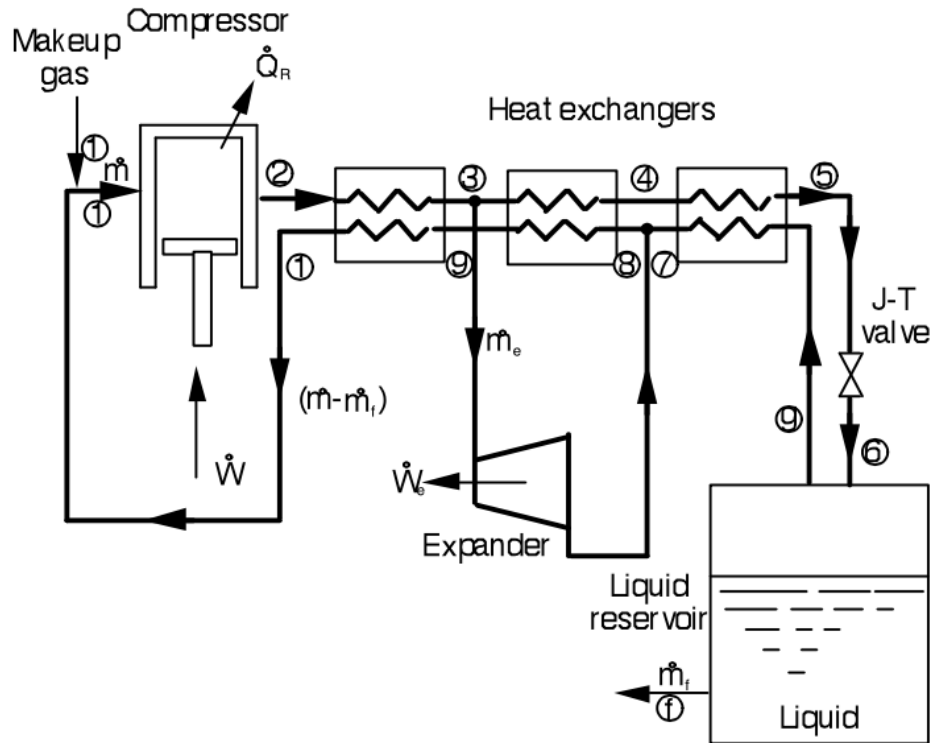
$$\frac{\dot{W}_{net}}{\dot{m}} = (T_H - T_C)(s_4 - s_3) = \frac{\Delta S}{\dot{m}} (T_H - T_C) = \frac{\dot{Q}_c}{\dot{m}} \left(\frac{T_H}{T_C} - 1 \right)$$

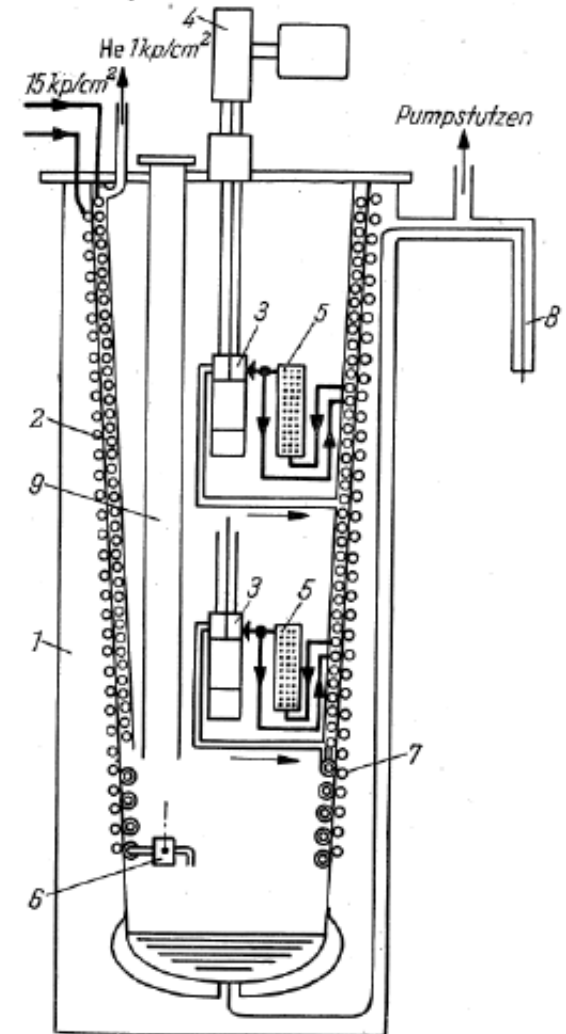
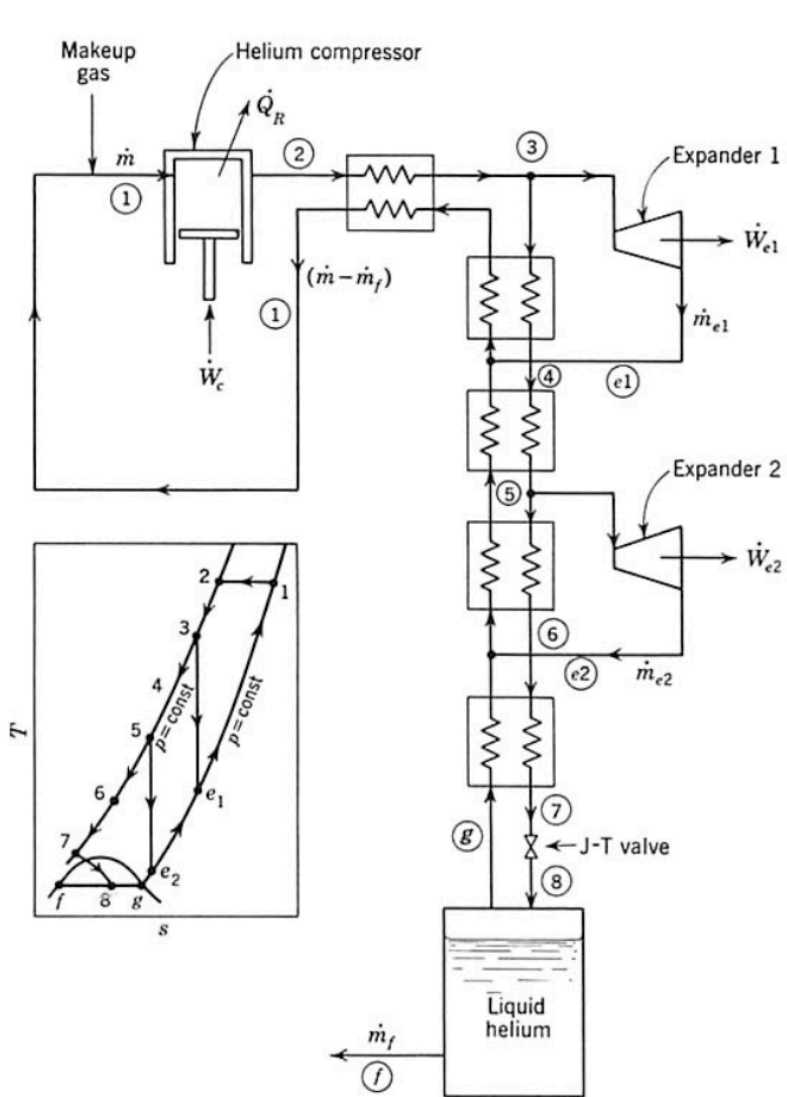
- The coefficient of performance (COP) for the refrigerator is then

$$COP_{ideal} \equiv \frac{\dot{Q}_c}{\dot{W}_{net}} = \left(\frac{T_H}{T_C} - 1 \right)^{-1} = \frac{T_C}{T_H - T_C}$$





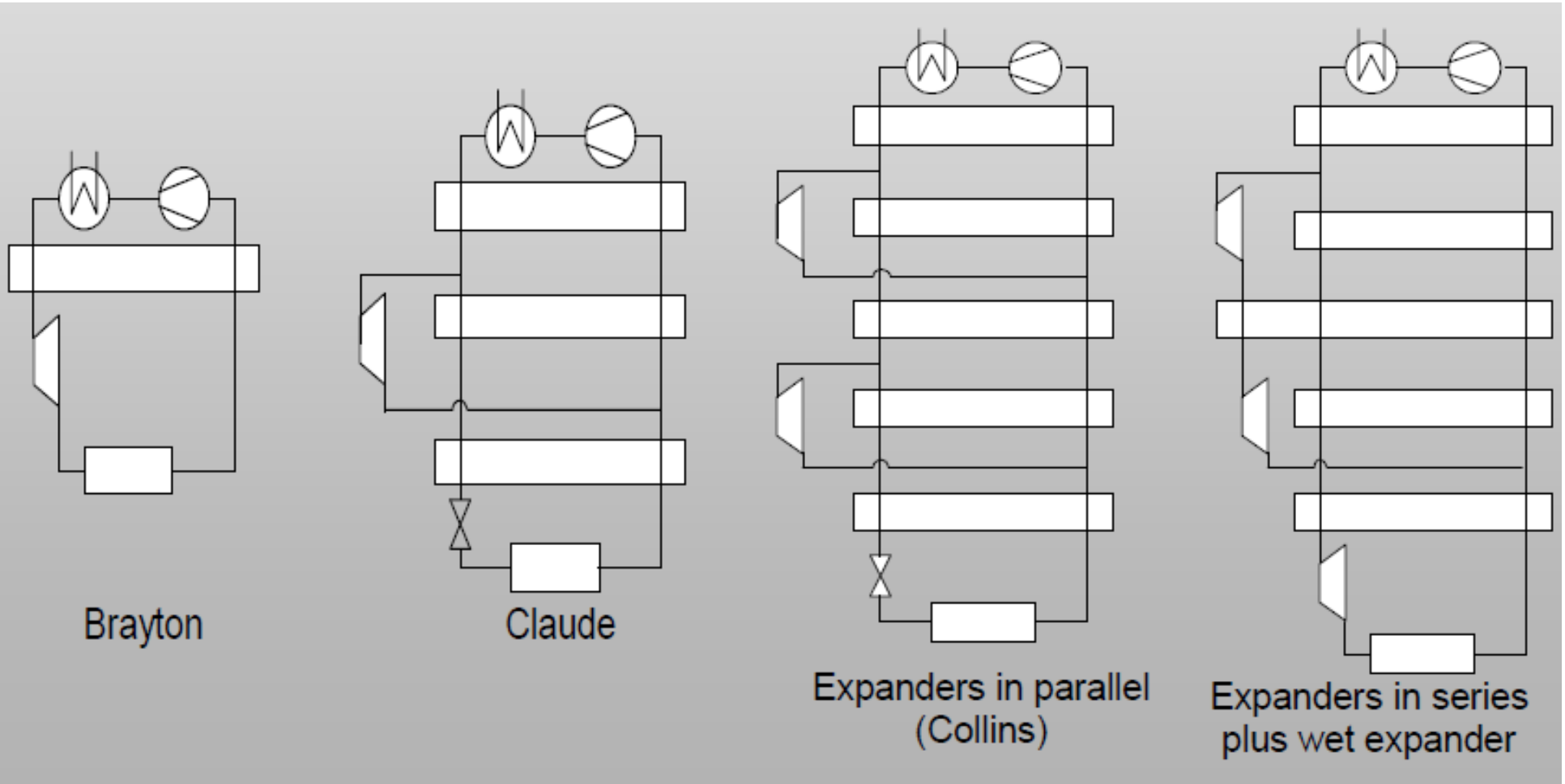


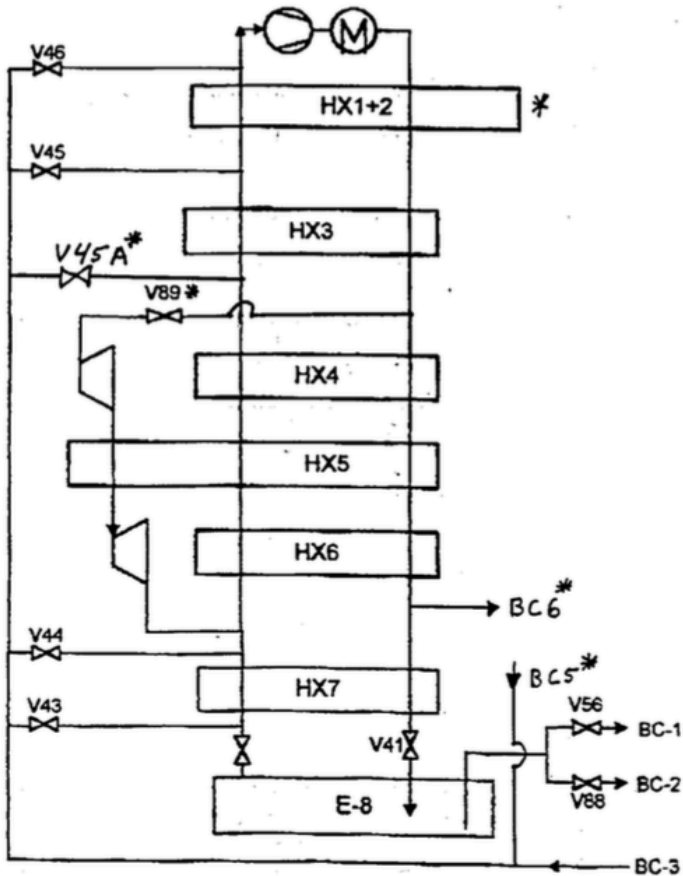




- First commercially available liquefier

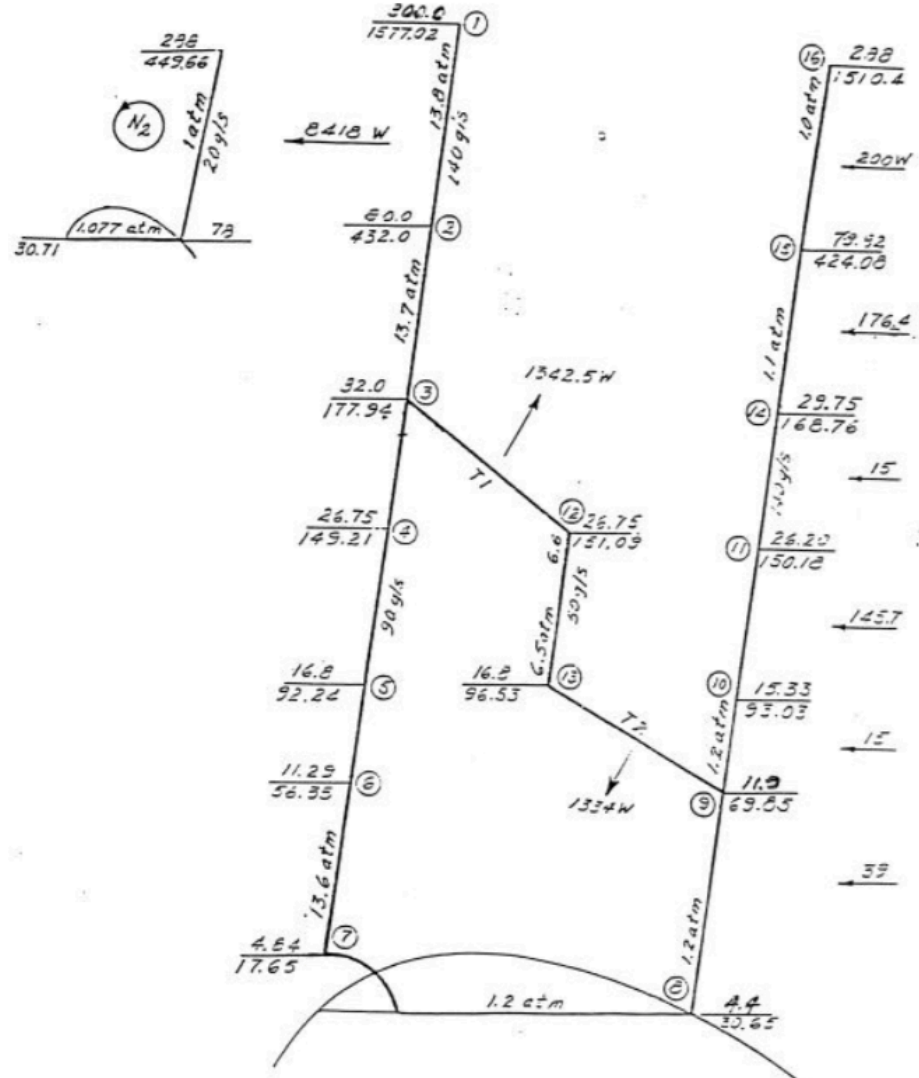


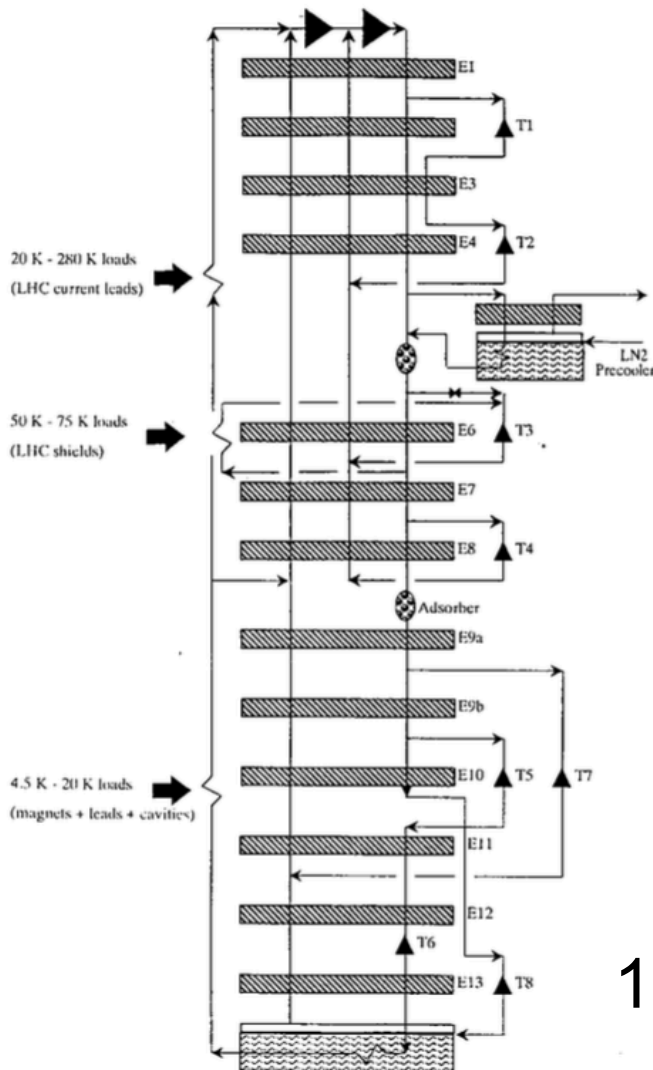




CTI 4000 Upgrade 12/2/99

* Indicates new or changed component





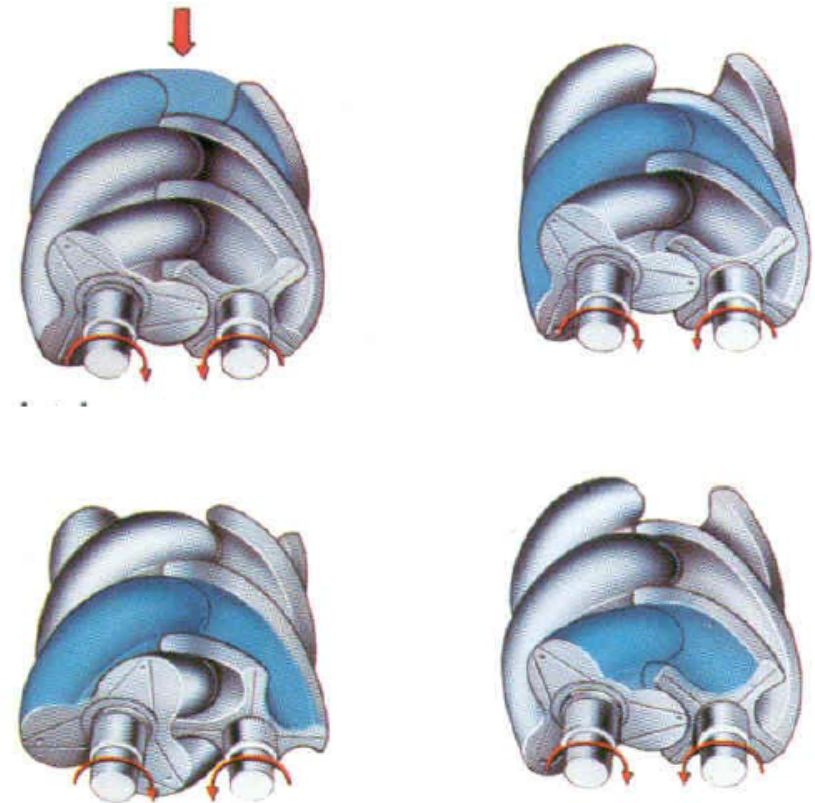
18 kW @ 4.5K

■ Note:

- Large number of expansion turbines – some in series with HP stream
- Medium pressure return
- Heat loads at intermediate temperatures
- Designed to have high % Carnot (roughly 30%)

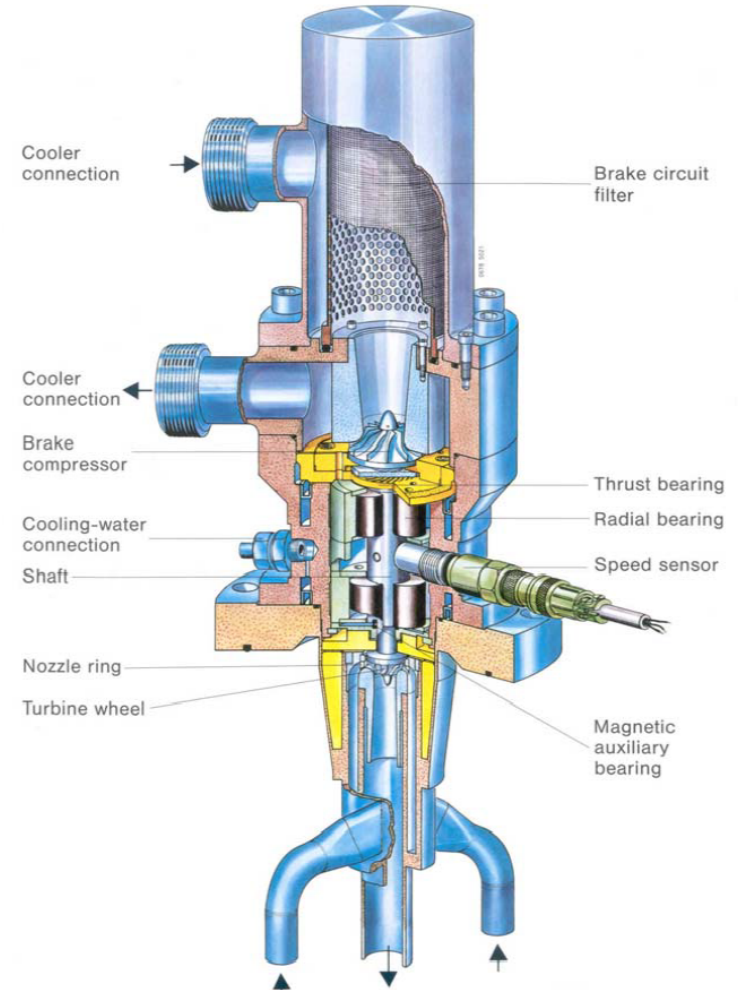


- Typically a 2 stage, oil flooded screw compressor
- Compression from 1 to 15..20 bar
- Oil removal can be critical





- Typically 5000 rps
- Gas-bearing, magnetic guidance
- Throttle gas circuit
- Helium contaminations can kill the turbine
- Quick pressure changes, too



27.08.06.40 - X.88 - 30 - Printed in Switzerland

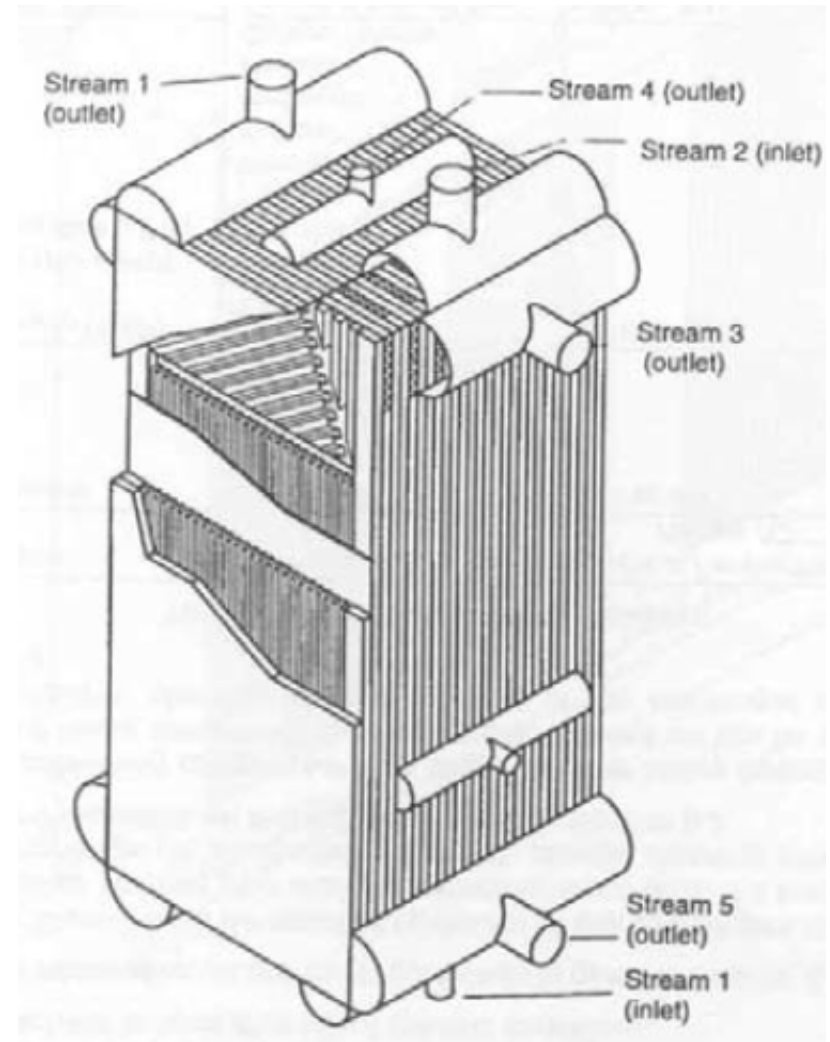
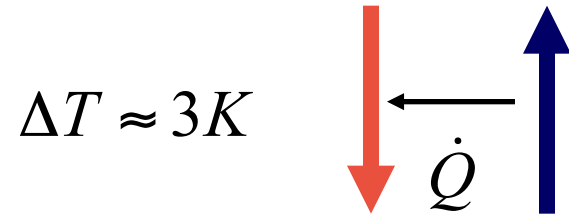




Isentropic efficiency

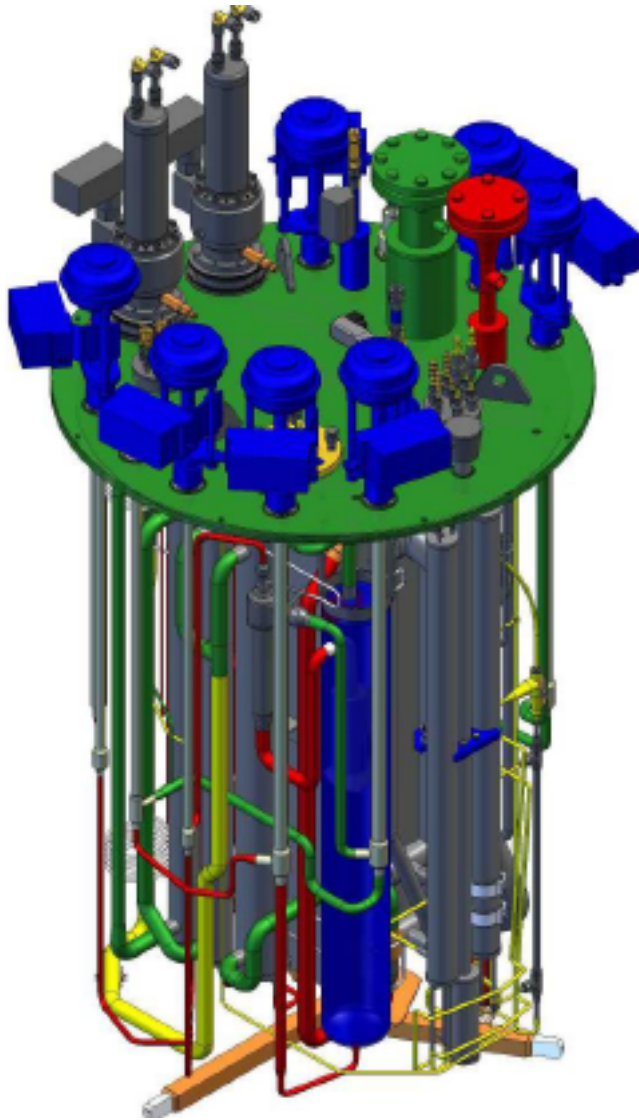
$$\eta_s \sim 65...80\%$$



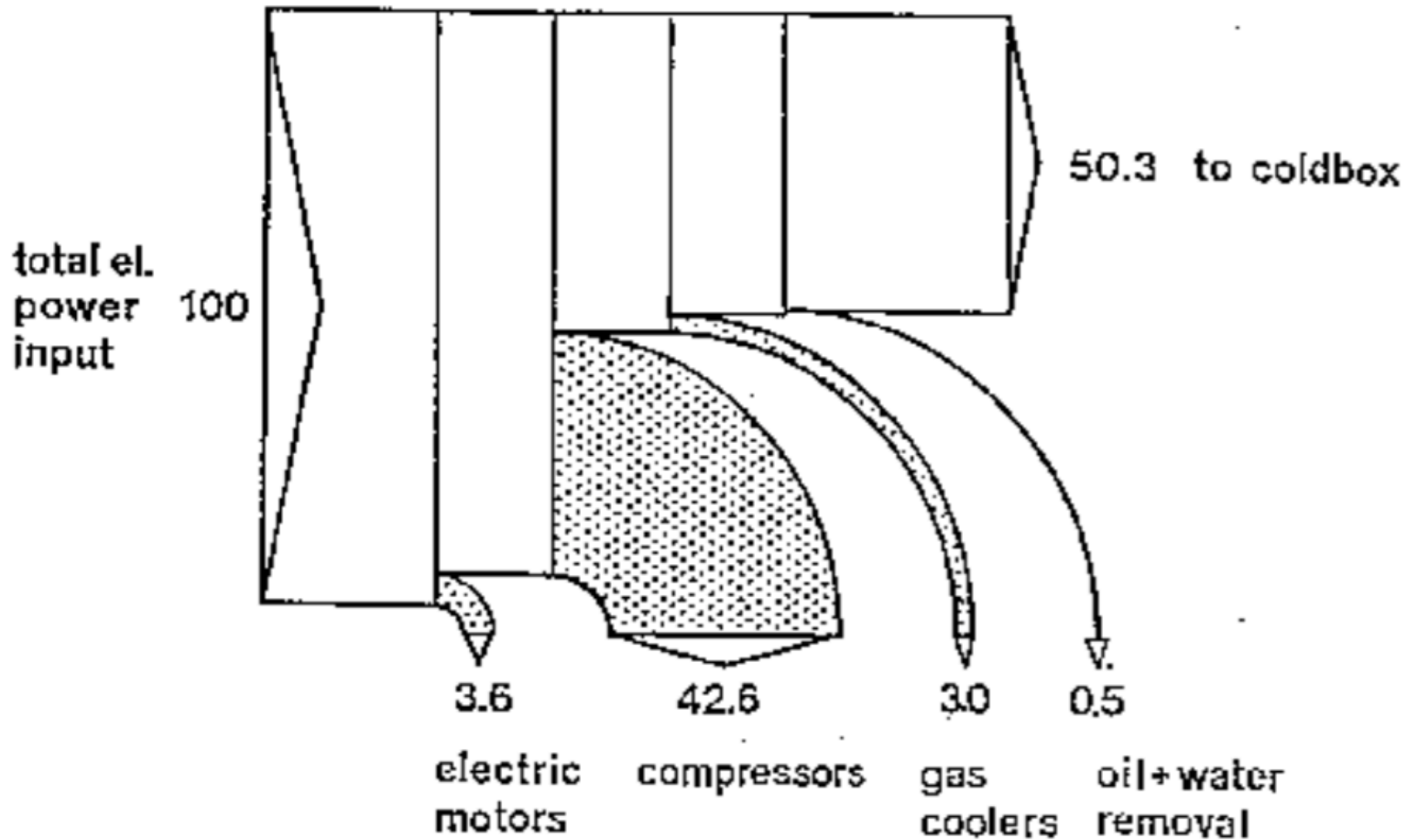


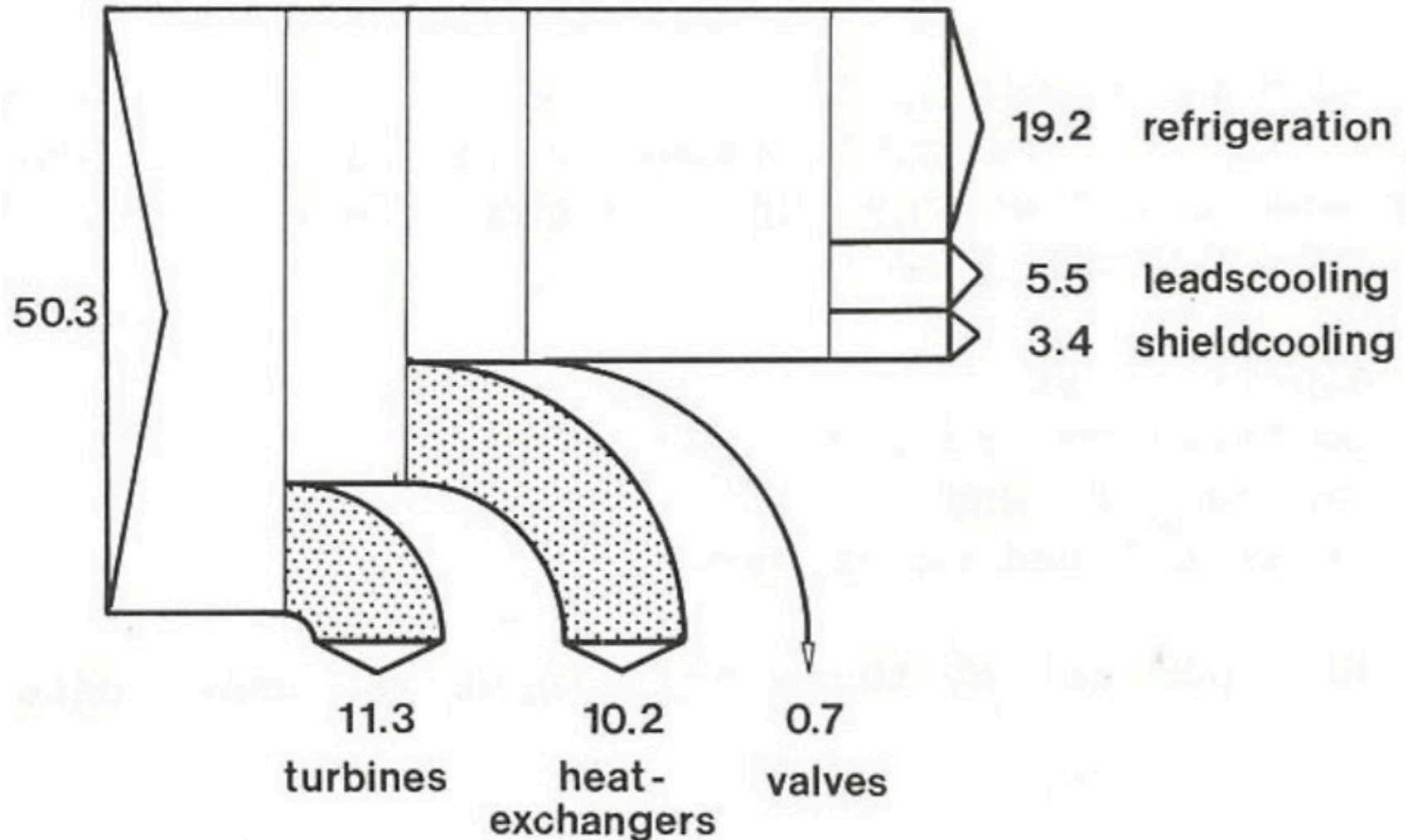


A typical (small size) Cold-Box



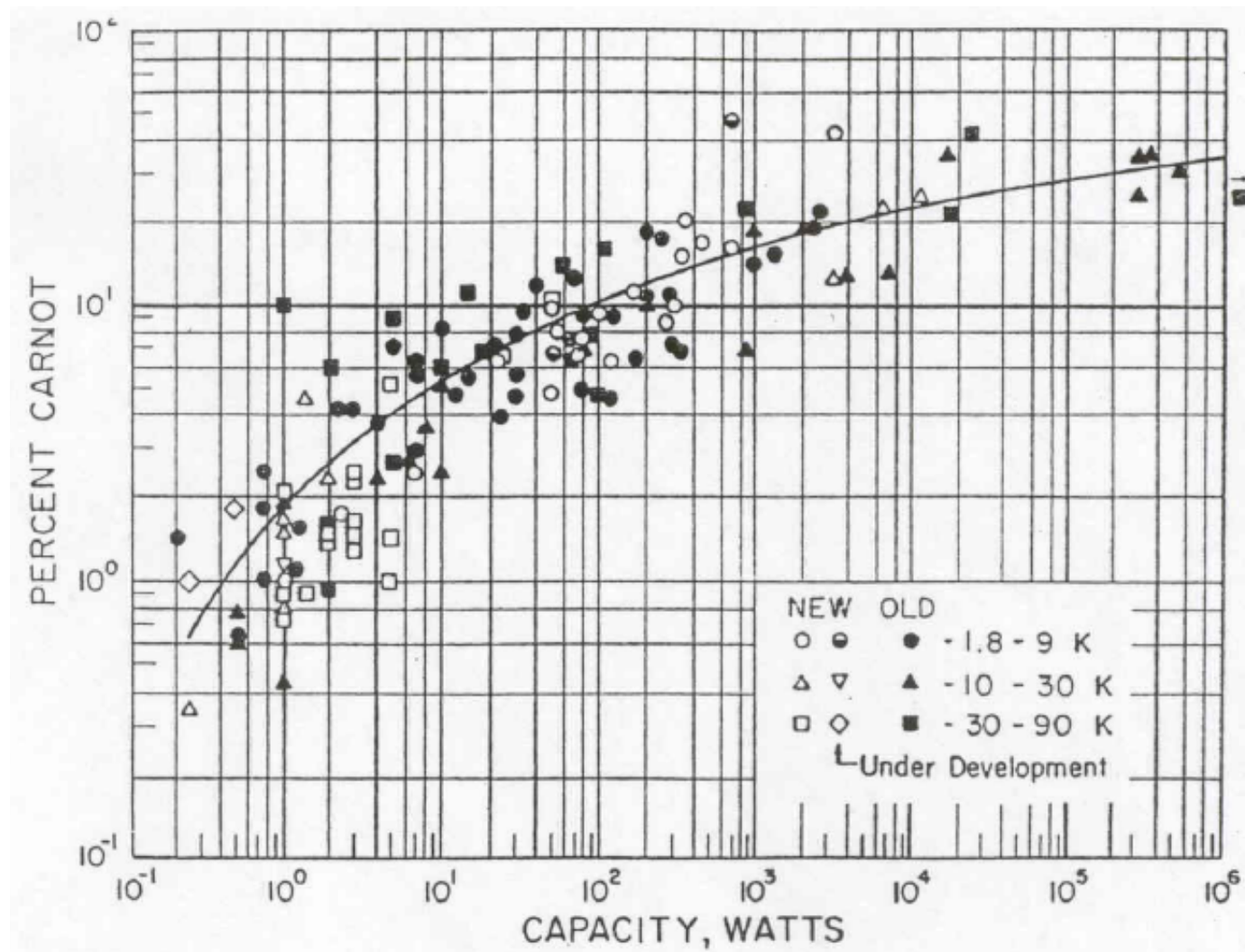






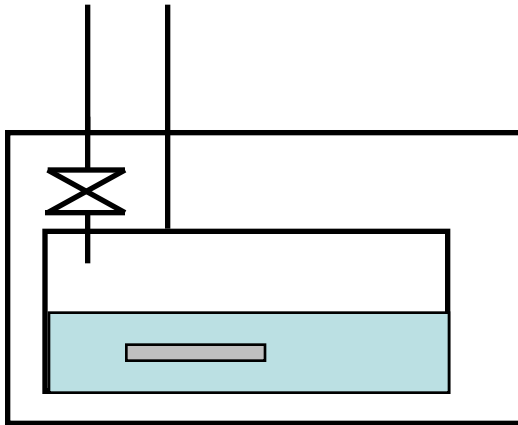


$$\eta_C = \frac{T_h - T_c}{T_h}$$

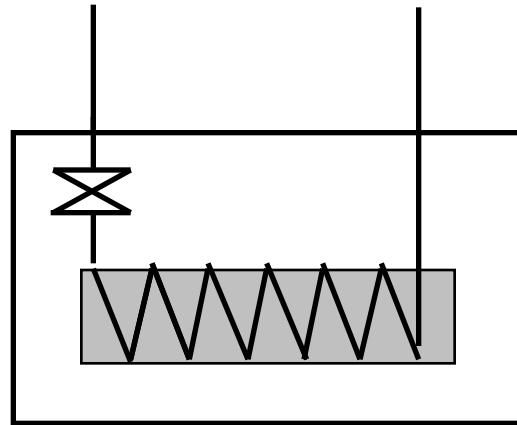




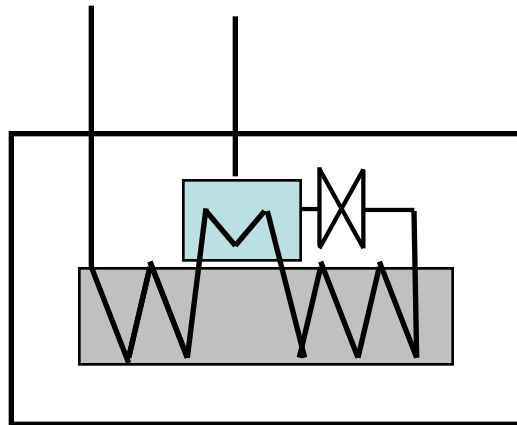
Types of cryogenic cooling



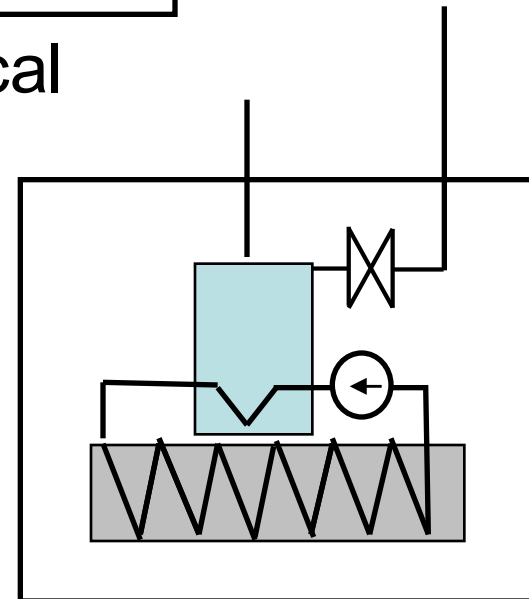
Bath cooling



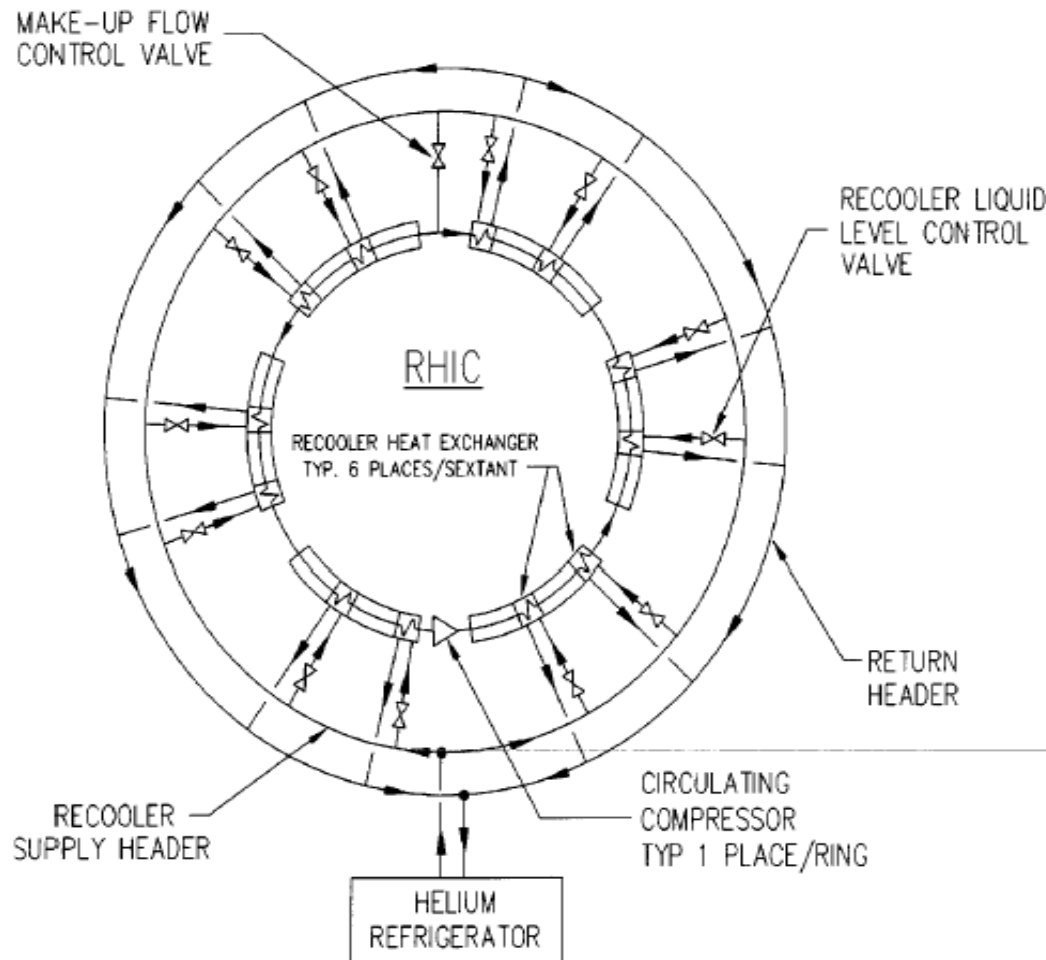
Subcritical

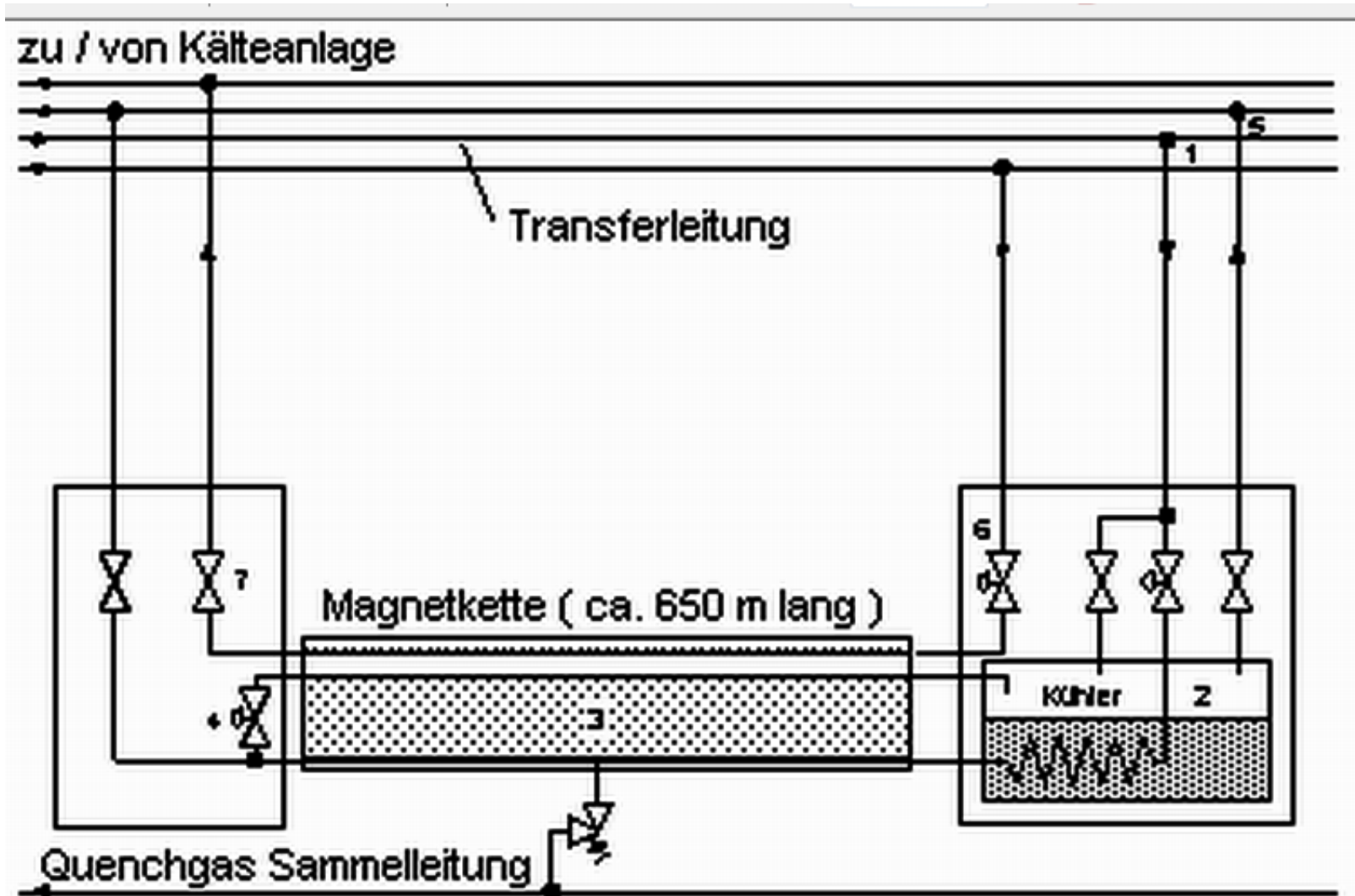


Supercritical with Recooler



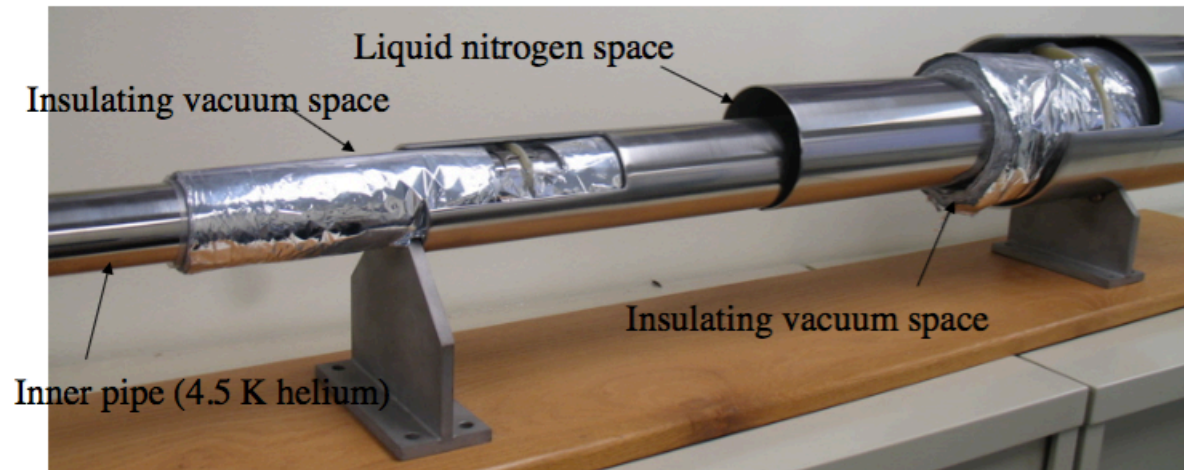
Supercritical using
a pump







Fermilab's 4.5 K transfer line

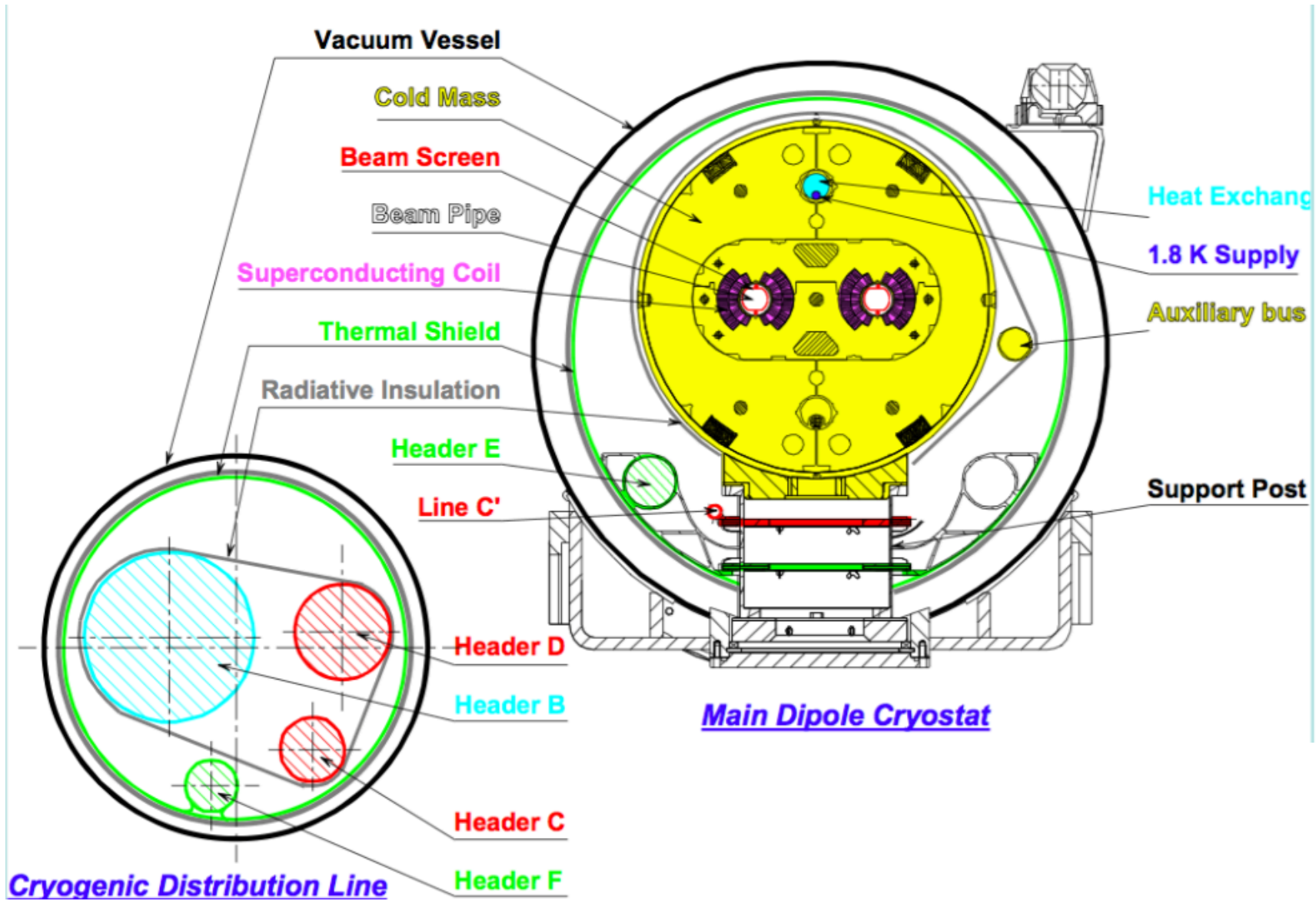


- Supplies 4.5 K, supercritical (3 bar) helium over 6 km to “satellite” refrigerators
- Also provides LN2



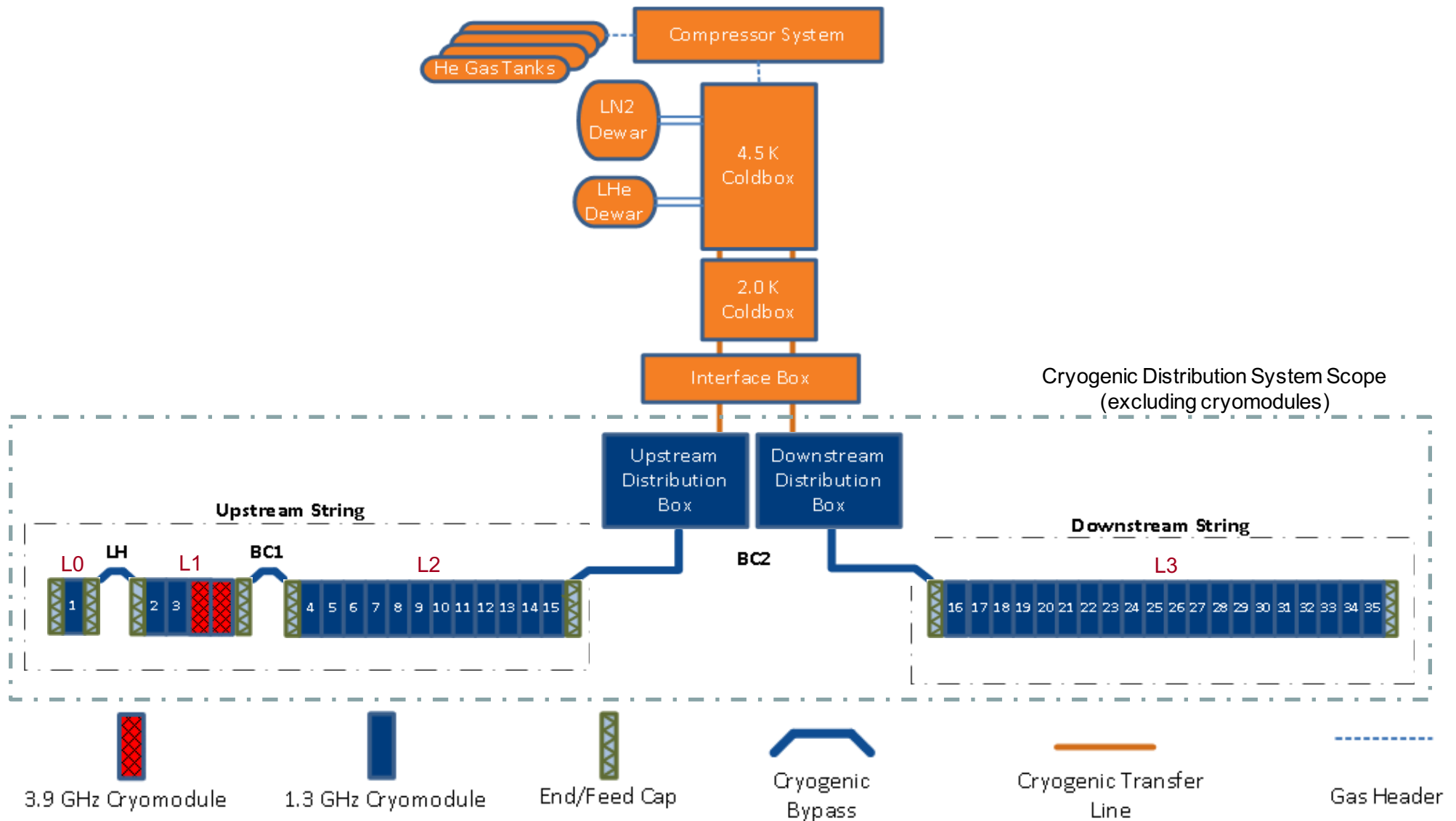


The LHC cryogenic distribution line



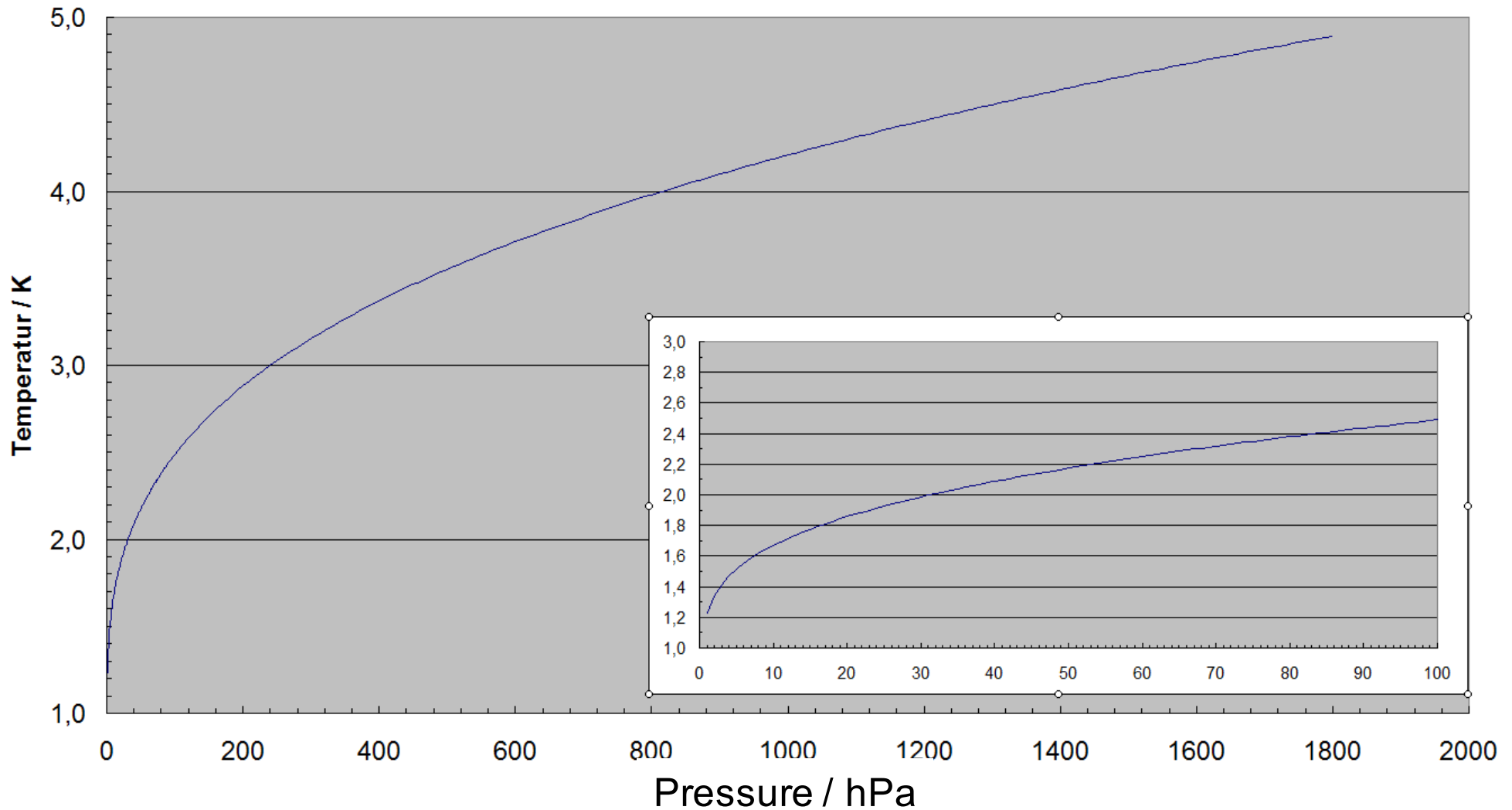


LCLS-II Cryogenic System Overview





- Boiling curve of helium

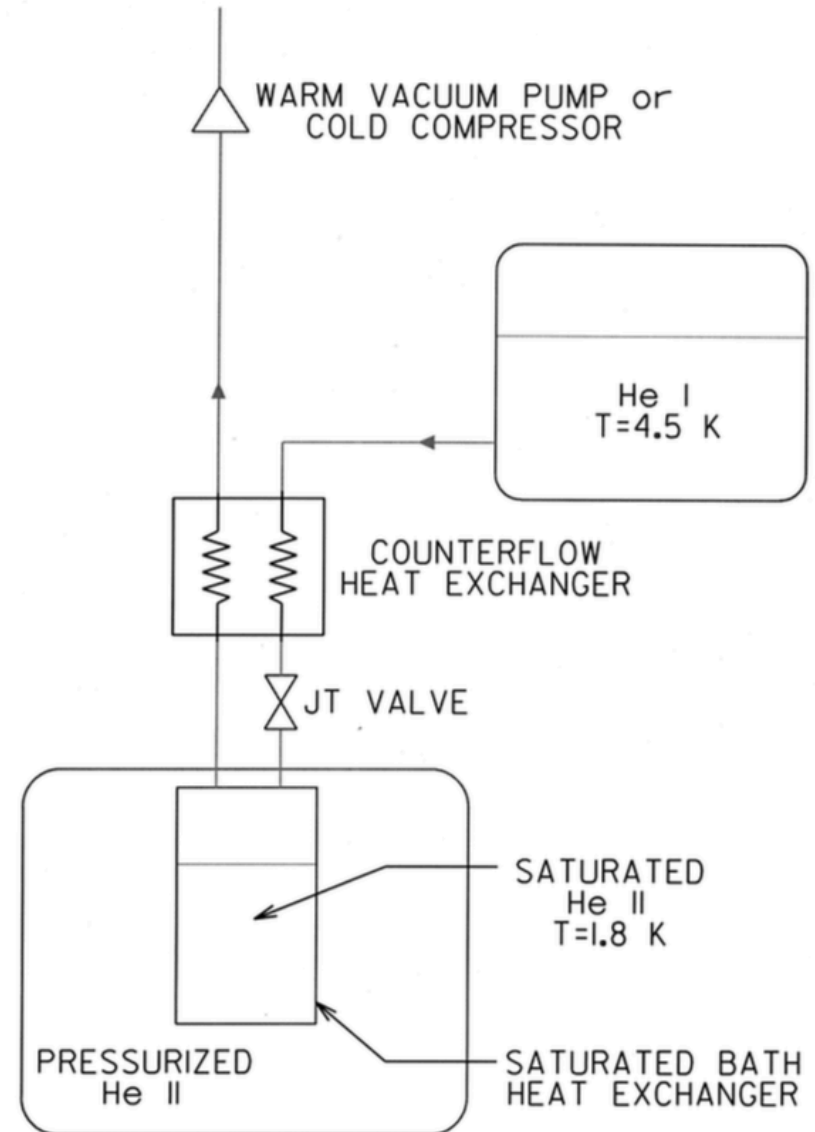


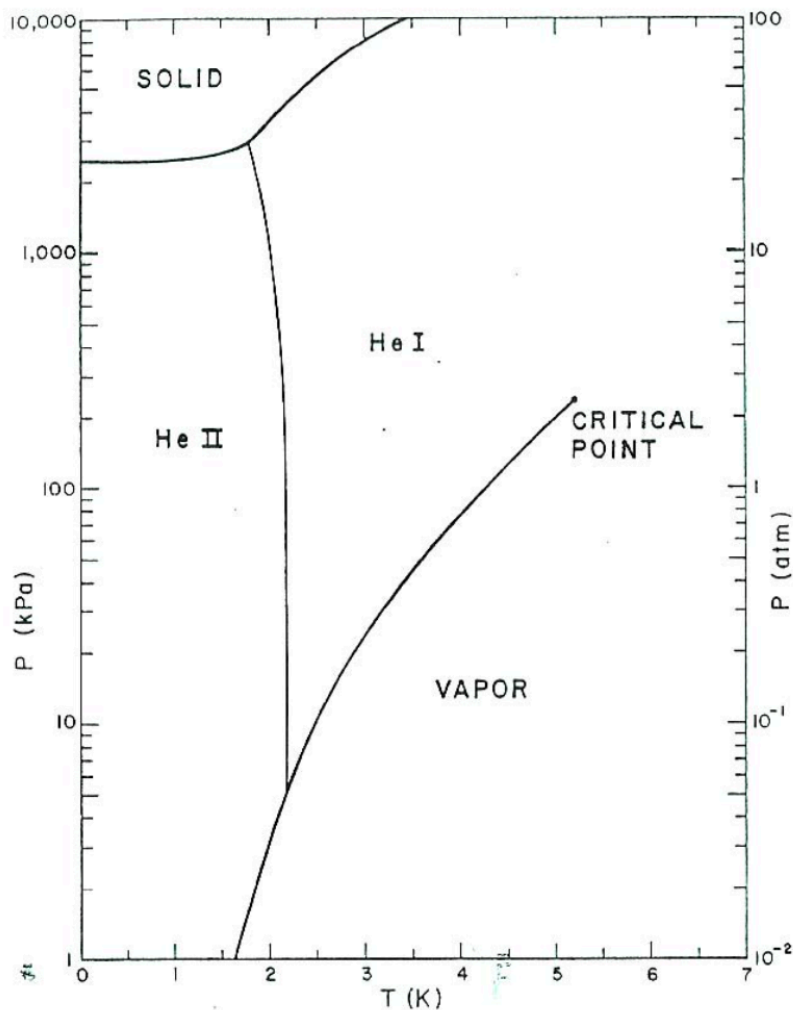


2 K Pump Skids (8 g/s, 125 kW)



- State of the art are colc compressors

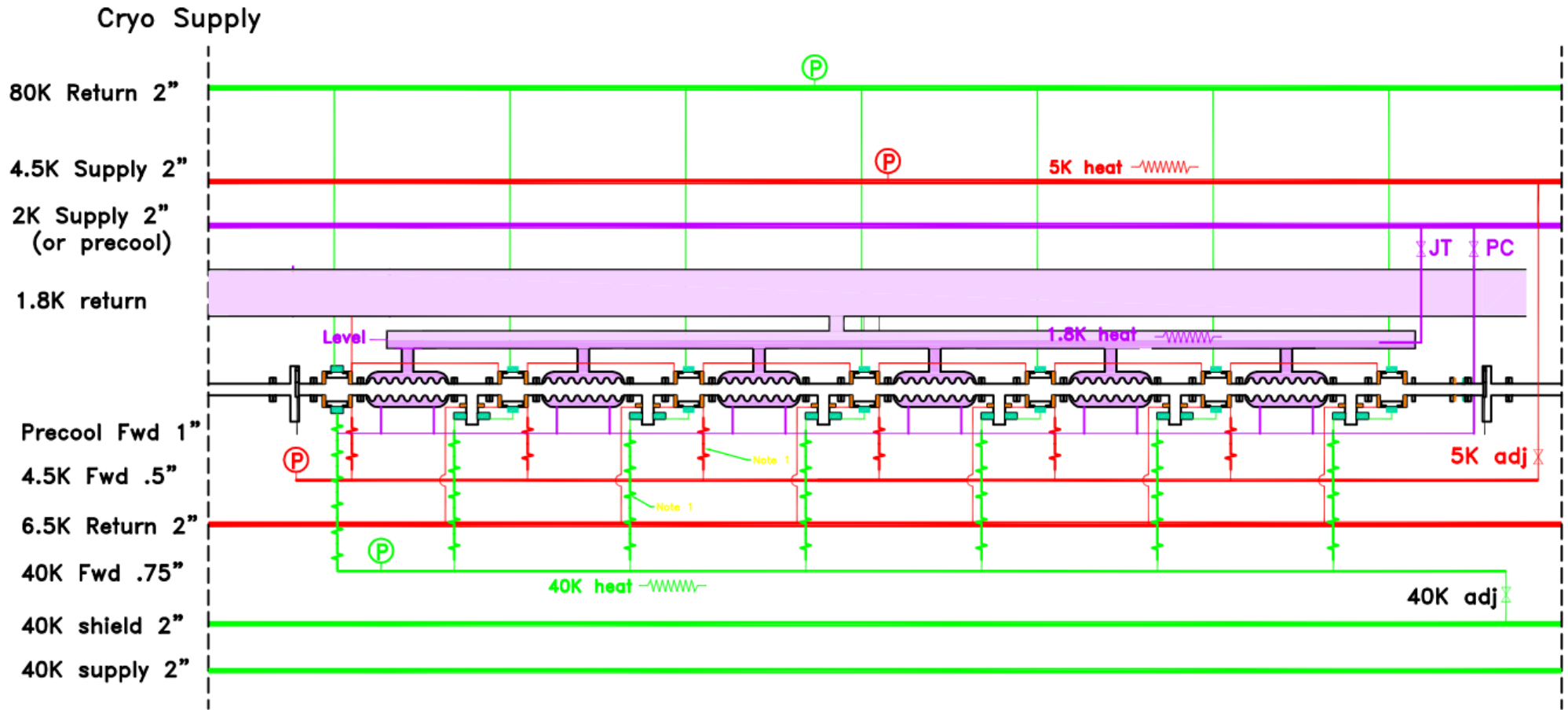




- Two Liquid phases
 - He I - Newtonian fluid
 - $T_\lambda < T < T_c = 5.2 \text{ K}, P_c = 0.226 \text{ MPa}$
 - He II - quantum fluid
 - $T < T_\lambda = 2.176 \text{ K @ SVP}$
 - T_λ (solid line, 3 MPa) = 1.76 K
- Solid phase only under external pressure $P > 2.5 \text{ MPa}$
- Important point: no triple point

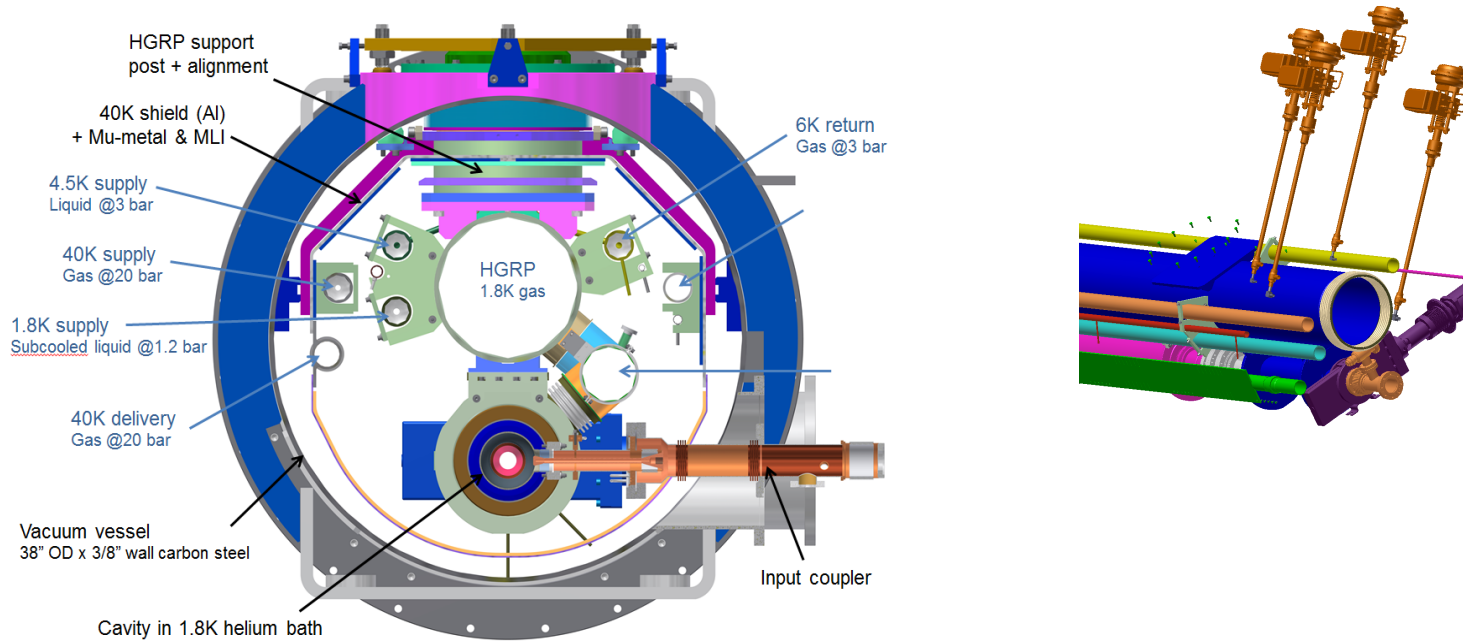


Cryogenic sketch of an SRF Module





Cryogenic sketch of an SRF Module

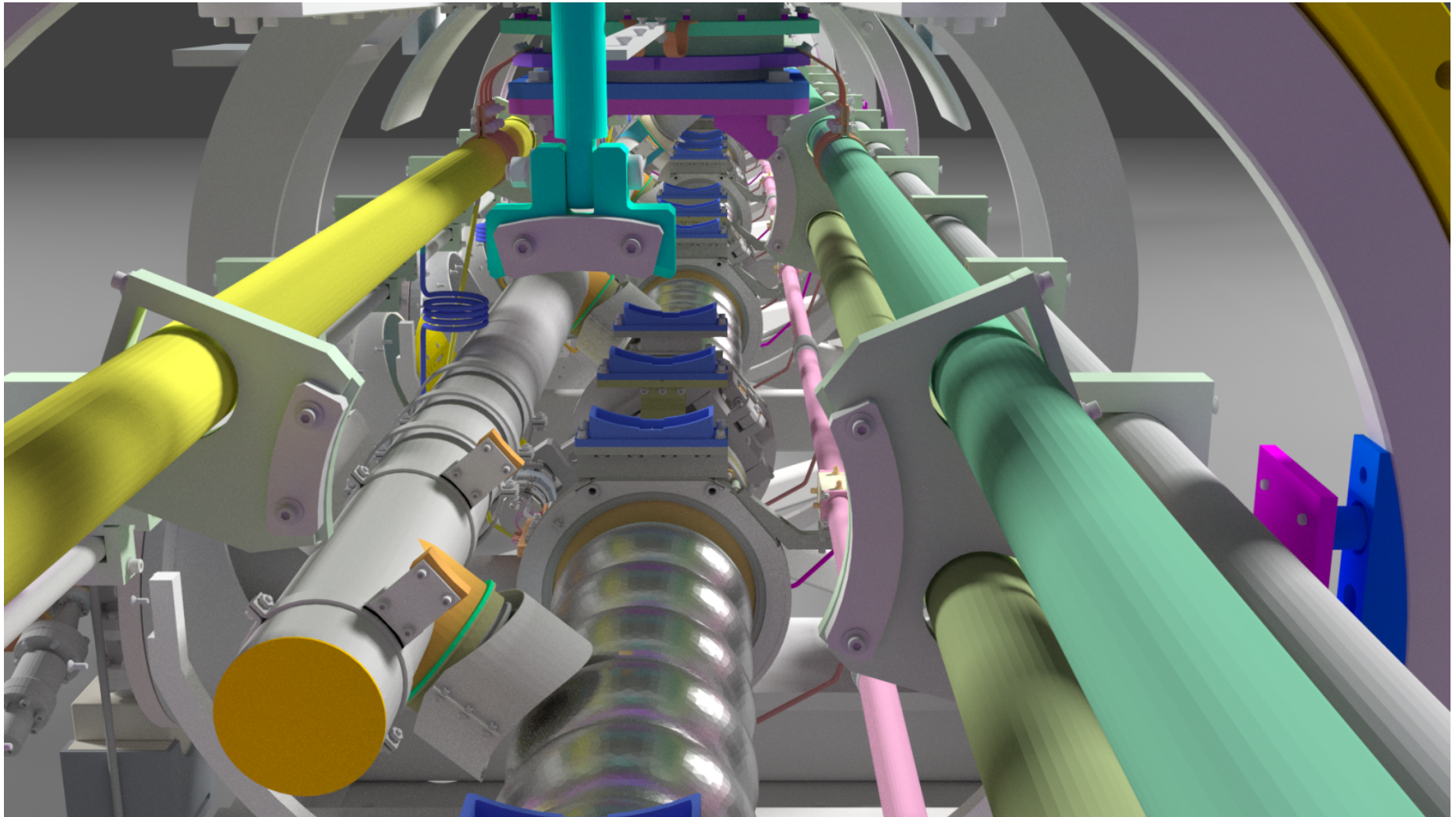


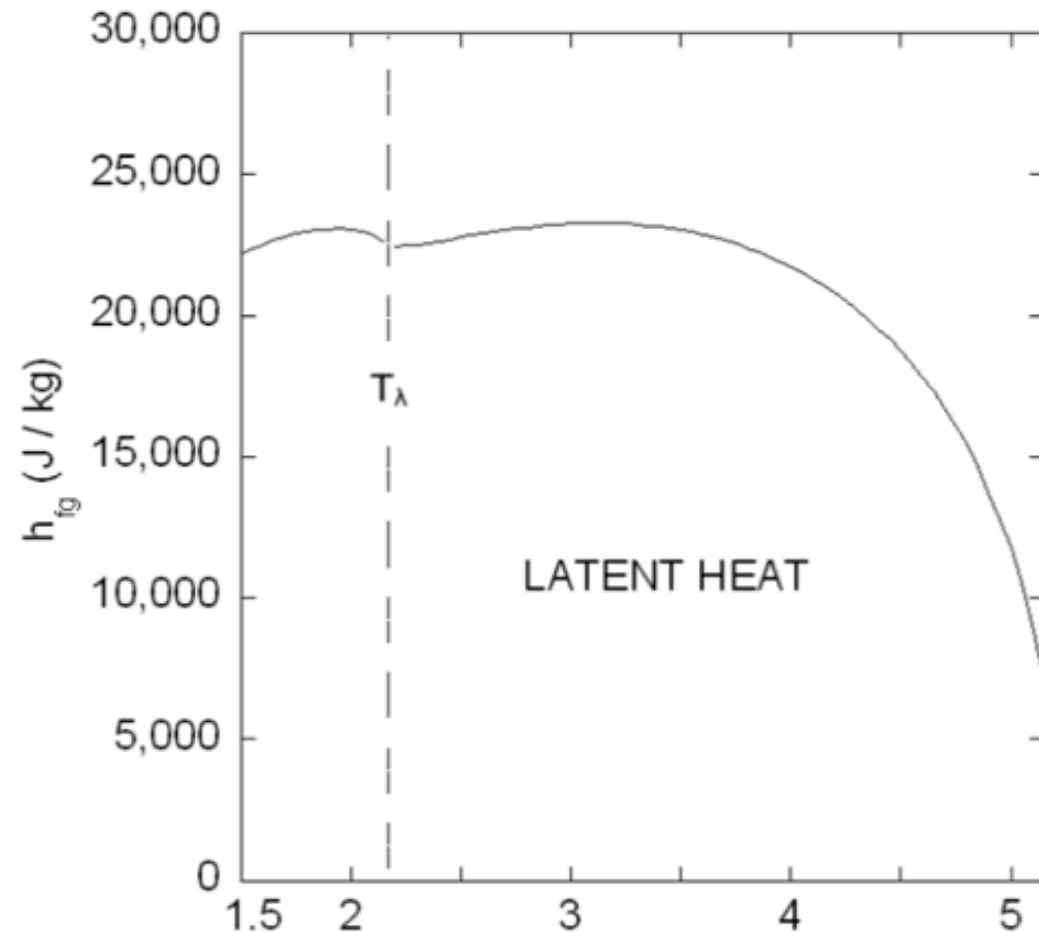
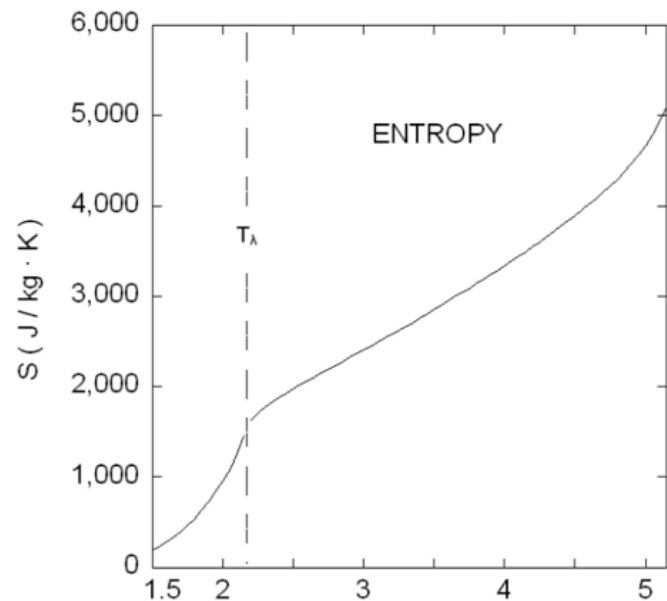
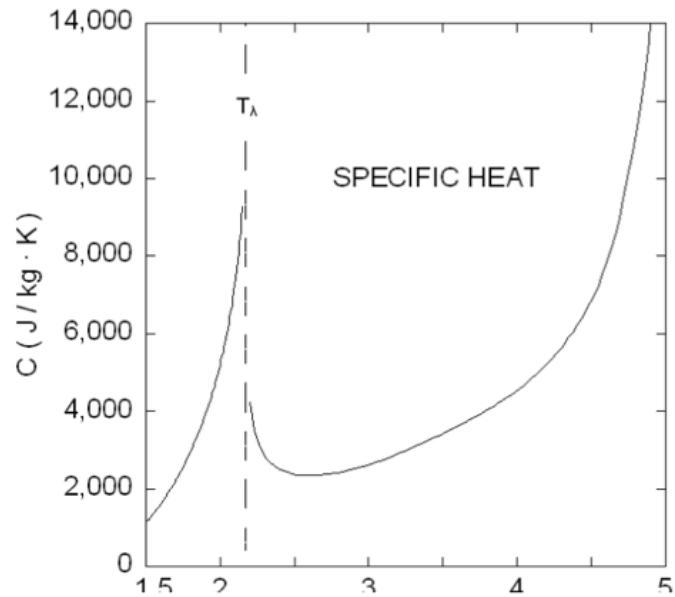
1 line for 2K supply	subcooled liquid @1.2 bar	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2K helium bath for cavities via 2K-2 phase line • pre-cool gas for cool-down • 90% heat load from RF losses in the cavities
2 lines for 4.5-6K	3.0 bar He liquid Single phase flow	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Thermal intercept for HOM absorbers and couplers • 2/3 dynamic heat load
3 lines for 40- 80K	20 bar He gas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Thermal intercept for HOM absorbers and couplers • 40K thermal shield • 90% heat load from HOM



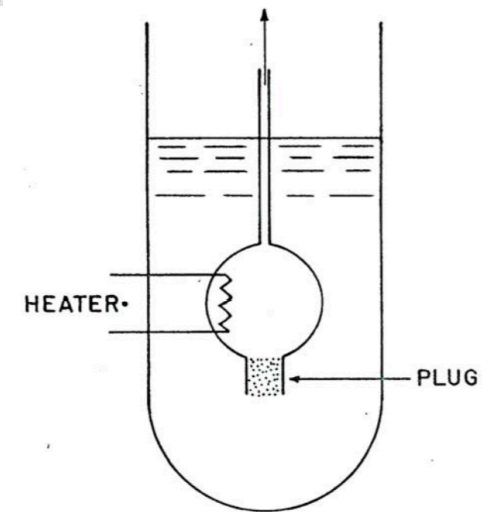
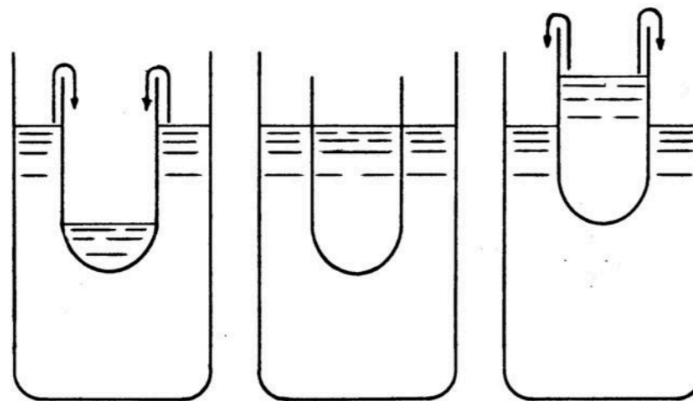
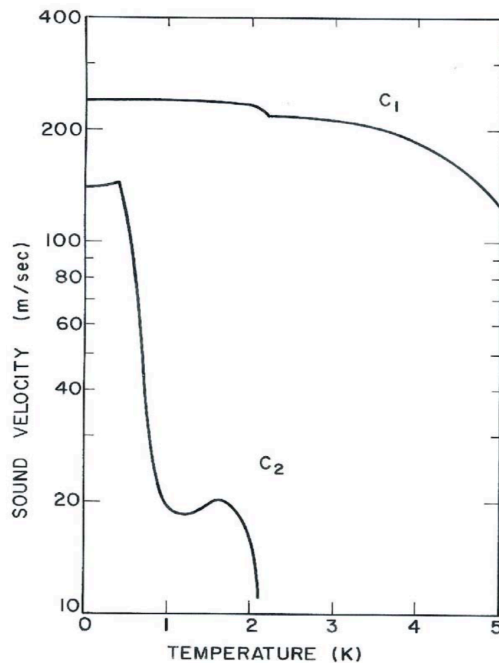
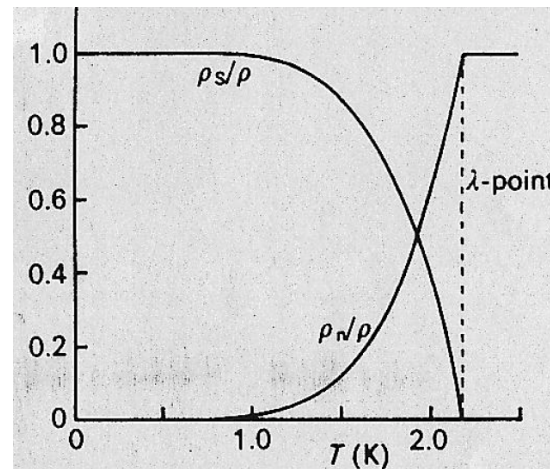


Cornell's ERL Main Linac Cryomodule





- Helium II is a superfluid (similar to a superconductor):
 - no viscosity
 - great heat conductivity
 - film flow
 - fountain effect
 - has 2nd sound





Some Helium properties

Normal boiling point	[K]	4.2
Critical temperature	[K]	5.2
Critical pressure	[bar]	2.3
Liquid density/ Vapor density*		7.4
Heat of vaporisation*	[Jg ⁻¹]	20.4
Liquid viscosity*	[μPa s]	3.2
Enthalpy increase between T ₁ and T ₂	T ₁ = 4.2 K	384
	T ₂ = 77 K	
[Jg ⁻¹]	T ₁ = 77 K	1157
	T ₂ = 300 K	

*at normal boiling point



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Accelerator-based Sciences and Education (CLASSE)



Thank you!



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Homework #1: Thermal radiation:

Assume you have two surfaces with identical emissivity being 0.1. One surface is at 300K while the second surface is cooled to 77 K.

- a) What is the heat transfer through radiation?
- b) If you insert a passive layer of shielding material (again $e=0.1$), what is the heat transfer from 300 K to 77 K now?
- c) At which temperature will that passive layer settle in?
- d) Why do people usually use 30 layers of MLI between 300 K and 77 K, but only 10 layers between 77 K and 4 K? try to quantify the difference.



Homework #2: Safety and boil-off:

You have a helium dewar (size 250 l). After doing your experiment, you have 100 liters left. You decide to close all valves and leave the dewar on it's own over the weekend. When you returned on Monday, you realized that the pressure went from 1 bar on Friday to 1.5 bar on Monday morning.

- a) What is the temperature of the helium?
- b) How much helium has been evaporated to get to 1.5 bar?
- c) How much heat was leaking into the dewar over the weekend? Assume a mean (temperature independent) latent heat (what's the value?) and use the density of liq. Helium of 125 g/l.
- d) Now you open the valve to release the pressure into a recovery system. What process is this? Will you get more or less than 75 l of gas? Why?
- e) Assume you have a gas cylinder, 200 bar at room temperature, full of helium. You connected the cylinder to your liquefier which accepts the gas at 1 bar. What should you open the valve slowly?