Progress in performance improvement and new research areas for cost reduction of 2G HTS wires


Abstract—Second-generation (2G) HTS wires are now being produced routinely in kilometer lengths using Metal Organic Chemical Vapor Deposition (MOCVD) process with critical currents of 300 A/cm. While this achievement is enabling several prototype devices, in order to reach a substantial commercial market, the cost-performance metrics of 2G HTS wires need to be significantly improved in device operating conditions. Zr-doping has been found to be an effective approach to improve in-field critical current performance of MOCVD-based HTS wires. In this work, we have explored modifications to the Zr-doped precursor compositions to achieve three and two-fold increase in deposition rate in research and production MOCVD systems respectively. Production wires made with modified Zr-doped compositions exhibit a self-field critical current density of 50 MA/cm² at 4.2 K and a 55 to 65% higher performance than our previous wires with Zr-doping, over magnetic field range of 0 to 30 T. We have also developed an alternate, low-cost technique, namely electrodeposition, to deposit silver overlayer on superconducting film. Wires made with electrodeposited silver are able to sustain the same level of overcurrent as sputtered silver layers. This process has been successfully scaled up to 100 m lengths.

Index Terms—second-generation HTS, MOCVD, critical current, magnetic field, long length, BZO, Zr, silver, electrodeposition

I. INTRODUCTION

Second-generation (2G) REBa₂Cu₃Oₓ (REBCO, RE = rare earth) High Temperature Superconducting (HTS) wires have been scaled up to pilot-scale manufacturing and are produced routinely in lengths of more than a kilometer. Our 2G HTS wire consists of biaxially-textured buffers based on ion beam assisted deposition (IBAD) of MgO [1-3] on high-strength Hastelloy substrates followed by REBCO film deposition by metal organic chemical vapor deposition (MOCVD) [4,5]. The use of IBAD to achieve biaxially-textured template has several benefits including choice of essentially any substrate. Such a choice allows us to employ high-strength, non magnetic and high resistivity substrates. High-strength substrates provide a great benefit in device fabrication, especially for high-field magnets. Additionally, thin (50 µm) substrates are possible because of high strength which results in substantially higher engineering current density. Non magnetic and high resistivity substrates lead to lower ac losses. Metal Organic Chemical Vapor Deposition is the only technique that has been used to demonstrate 2G HTS wires longer than a kilometer. A world-record performance of 300,330 A-m was demonstrated over a 1,065 m long wire in 2009 using MOCVD [6]. While the ability to manufacture a complex thin film using epitaxial growth over lengths of kilometer is impressive, a major factor that needs to be addressed to reach widespread commercial use of 2G HTS wire is its cost. The feedback from device manufacturers indicates that 2G HTS wire price of less than $ 50/kA-m in device operating conditions needs to be achieved for a substantial commercial market. So, our research in the last year has been focused on improving the cost-performance metrics of 2G HTS wire in device operating conditions. In addition to higher zero-field critical current (Jc) at 77 K, the performance of the wire in a magnetic field of a few Tesla is an important factor that affects the cost-performance metric. In this paper, we will present advances made in improving the in-field performance of MOCVD-based 2G HTS wires and the successful transition to production. Additionally, we will introduce an alternate technique to deposit silver overlayer, namely electrodeposition as a low-cost alternative to vacuum deposition processes such as sputtering that are commonly used. While the content of silver in 2G HTS wire is small (< 2 µm), silver deposition is an important constituent of wire cost as well as production capacity.

II. IMPROVED CRITICAL CURRENTS IN MAGNETIC FIELDS

In 2009, we demonstrated more than two-fold improvement in critical current of MOCVD-based (Gd,Y)-Ba-Cu-O (GdYBCO) films using Zr-doping [7]. Zr-tetra methyl heptanedionate (thd) was added to the precursor solution for Zr doping [7]. BaZrO₃ (BZO) nanocolumns formed by a self-assembly process were found to be responsible for improved pinning. BZO-based self-assembled nanocolumnar structure had been previously created by several groups using pulsed
laser deposition \[8-11\] to achieve improved pinning, but it was not obvious that a similar structure could be achieved by a chemical process where Zr is added to the precursor rather than BZO to the PLD target. After demonstrating that it is indeed possible with MOCVD, optimization of Zr content in the GdYBCO film resulted in the highest critical current at a Zr doping level of 7.5\%. Also, in 2009, we were able to successfully transition the process to manufacturing [12]. Figures 1 and 2 show the angular dependence of critical current of GdYBCO wires made in research and production MOCVD systems with and without Zr-doping. A two-fold improvement in critical current is observed over a wide angular range with Zr doping in both research and production systems. The higher magnitude of critical current in the production system is due to the fact that the films were 1.1 µm in thickness compared to 0.4 µm thick films fabricated in the research MOCVD system.

![Fig.1](image1.png)

**Fig.1.** Angular dependence of critical current of 0.4 µm thick films fabricated in research MOCVD system using undoped and Zr-doped precursors.

![Fig.2](image2.png)

**Fig.2.** Angular dependence of critical current of 1.1 µm thick films fabricated in production MOCVD system using undoped and Zr-doped precursors.

While superior in-field performance has been achieved with Zr-doped precursor chemistry, a drawback was the need to reduce the deposition rate in the MOCVD process. In the research MOCVD system, a deposition rate of 0.13 µm/min was used in fabrication of the Zr-doped wire that is described in Figure 1, which is ¼ of the deposition rate that is normally used in this system. In order to explore if compositional changes could be made to improve the deposition rate, we embarked on a thorough investigation of rare-earth precursor composition in GdYBCO films at a fixed Zr doping level of 7.5\%. We found that even with a fixed Zr-doping level, the in-field performance can be substantially modified by changing the Gd+Y content or the Gd:Y ratio [13]. In addition, in this work, we evaluated the influence of Ba:Cu content of the starting precursor. We found that with a starting precursor chemistry of \(Y_{0.6}Gd_{0.6}Ba_{2.0}Cu_{2.3}O_x\), a high in-field critical current can be achieved even at a three-fold higher deposition rate of 0.4 µm/min. Figure 3 displays the angular dependence of critical current of a sample with a starting precursor composition of \(Y_{0.7}Gd_{0.6}Ba_{2.0}Cu_{2.3}O_x\) processed at a deposition rate of 0.13 µm/min and the angular dependence of critical current of a sample with a starting precursor composition of \(Y_{0.6}Gd_{0.6}Ba_{2.0}Cu_{2.3}O_x\) processed at a deposition rate of 0.4 µm/min. It is seen that in both cases, the critical current performance is very similar. The reason for achieving good critical current even at a higher deposition rate is not clear, but a high density of self-assembled BZO nanocolumns were observed in the high-rate samples too, indicating that the self-assembly process could be sustained even at a high deposition rate using the modified composition.

![Fig.3](image3.png)

**Fig.3.** Angular dependence of critical current of 0.5 µm thick films fabricated in research MOCVD system using Zr-doped precursors with two different compositions and different deposition rates.

The Zr-doped precursor chemistry with the modified precursor composition was then transferred to the production MOCVD system. We were able to confirm that high in-field critical currents could be achieved even with a high deposition rate in the production MOCVD system using the modified precursor composition. Figure 4 shows angular dependence of critical current of two wires made with the original and modified compositions, the same as was used in
the samples made in the research system. It is seen that even
at twice the deposition rate, the in-field performance of
the wire fabricated using the modified composition is comparable
with that made using the original composition. The critical
current in the orientation of field along the wire normal (B ||
c) is lower in the case of the wire fabricated at a higher rate.
But, the critical currents in the orientation of field
perpendicular to the wire normal (B ⊥ c) and the minimum
critical current values are comparable in both wires. The
minimum critical current value is typically the key parameter
that determines the performance of HTS devices in most
applications. Since a high value of minimum critical current
is achievable even at a higher deposition rate, we can realize
the benefit of the faster production process and still meet
application requirements.

Wires are now manufactured in the production MOCVD
system using the modified composition. Uniformly good
critical current values between 250 to 300 A/cm are routinely
produced with the modified Zr-doped composition. The zero-
field critical current of a 600 m long wire made in the
production MOCVD with the modified Zr-doped composition
is shown in Figure 5. A uniformly high critical current can be
observed over the entire wire length.

The in-field performance of production wires made with
modified Zr doped composition have been measured over a
temperature range of 4.2 K to 77 K and magnetic field range
of 0 to 30 T. Figure 6 shows the critical current density
values of wires fabricated in the production MOCVD system
without Zr doping and with Zr doping with previous and
modified precursor compositions. It is seen that the new
production wires exhibit the best critical current over the
entire range of magnetic fields up to 7 T at 4.2 K. The new
production wires show the highest critical current values
above 0.2 T at 40 K and above 0.5 T at 75 K. So, the
production wires made with the modified composition
display the best performance at essentially all field values
that are relevant in practical applications. It is also seen from
Figure 6 that the α value of the wire made with the modified
Zr-doped composition is low at 0.27 at 75 K.

A similar set of production wires without Zr doping and
with Zr doping, the latter using the original and modified
GdYBCO compositions were examined at 4.2 K, in the
orientation of B || wire and B ⊥ wire from 0 to 30 T. All wires
had a nominal superconductor film thickness of 1.1 µm. The
zero-field critical current of a recent production wire with
modified Zr-doped composition over a temperature range of
4.2 K to 77 K is shown in Figure 7. This wire sustained a
zero-field critical current density of 3 MA/cm² (310 A/cm²)
(at 77 K which increased to 50 MA/cm² at 4.2 K). Results
from in-field measurements from the three wires are shown in
Figure 8. Consistent with the results shown in Figure 6, the
recent production wires with modified Zr-doped composition
show the best critical current performance over the entire
magnetic field range of 0 to 30 T and in both field
orientations.
III. SILVER ELECTRODEPOSITION

The typical thickness of silver in 2G HTS wire is only about 2% of the overall wire architecture. However, the capacity of 2G HTS wire production and wire cost are impacted the silver layer especially since vacuum deposition techniques such as magnetron sputtering are typically used. In this work, we explored an alternate, lower-cost technique for silver overlayer, namely electrodeposition. Since the copper stabilizer in our wire architecture is also deposited by electrodeposition, this would allow for both silver and copper to be deposited in tandem, which can lead to a further reduction in processing cost. Another important benefit of electrodeposition is in the fabrication of multifilamentary 2G HTS wire for low ac losses. While techniques are being developed to fabricate striated 2G HTS wire, it is important that the silver overlayer and copper stabilizer are also striated. A cross section of a previously fabricated 2G HTS wire with superconductor film, silver overlayer and copper stabilizer all striated is shown in Figure 9. It is not a straightforward task to achieve such an architecture especially over long lengths. Clearly, etching techniques will not be economical to striate a thick copper stabilizer. Therefore, it is desirable to fabricate an all-striated architecture without having to etch a thick copper stabilizer. Once a striated superconducting film is fabricated, a vacuum deposition process such as silver sputtering will couple all the filaments and defeat the purpose of filamentization. On the other hand, since electrodeposition occurs preferentially on low-resistivity areas, a striated silver structure can be obtained on the filamentized superconducting film. Similarly, a striated, thick copper stabilizer can be obtained by preferential deposition on the striated silver layer. Hence, electrodeposition can be an enabling technique to fabricate a fully filamentized 2G HTS wire.

In this work, we explored silver electrodeposition on superconducting films using silver nitrate solution. A silver thickness of approximately 2 µm was used. An important metric in the quality of silver layer is the contact resistivity with the superconducting film. Contact resistance measurements were done on a wire with electrodeposited silver using a three-probe technique and a resistivity value of 4 µΩcm was measured. This value is higher than that of sputtered silver contacts. So, in order verify the effectiveness of the silver overlayer, we conducted overcurrent measurements until burn out of the wire. Figure 10 shows a current-voltage curve obtained from one such measurement. It is seen that the sample with about 2 µm of electrodeposited silver is able to sustain 20% higher current beyond the take-
off current. This value is comparable with that measured in samples with sputtered silver indicating the functionality of the electrodeposited silver.

Next, we evaluated if the electrodeposition process can be scaled up to long lengths. A 100 m long 2G HTS wire, 12 mm in width was electrodeposited with silver at a tape speed of 20 m/h in the same research-scale system that was used for short sample fabrication. Figure 11 shows a photograph of the 100 m wire wound on a mandrel.

Non contact critical current measurements were conducted using hall-probe technique over the 100 m before and after electrodeposition, and after oxygenation and the results are summarized in Figure 12. Overall, it is seen that the critical current stays at the 300 A level over the 12 mm width after each step indicating no degradation in the wire quality after the electrodeposition and oxygenation processes. It is to be noted that the spatial resolution along the wire length in these non contact measurements is 1 mm, as a result of which more details are seen in the critical current values. In order to probe the efficacy of the silver coating, contact measurements were conducted over the 100 m using transport current four-probe technique. Data was obtained at every 5 m interval and the results are shown in Figure 13. The transport critical current values are found to be consistent with the results from non contact measurements, with an average critical current of 300 A over the 12 mm width. The critical current drops to a lower value at 80 m which could be due to a discontinuity problem that occurred during the electrodeposition process. The ability to flow transport current over the 100 m length shows that the electrodeposited silver-superconductor interface is good for current transfer and that the silver surface is good enough for pressed electrical contacts which are used in the transport current measurement system.
A current-voltage curve from one of the 5 m segments that was measured is shown in Figure 14. It is seen that the wire was able to sustain 10 to 20% higher current beyond the take-off current value without wire burn out, up to the maximum measurement voltage of 100 µV (0.2 µV/cm). This data reconfirms the efficacy of the electrodeposited silver even when processed in a continuous reel-to-reel mode over 100 m.

Fig.14 Current-voltage curve obtained from transport current measurements over a 5 m segment of a 100 m long HTS wire made with electrodeposited silver.

REFERENCES


