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The strong influence of Ti, Zr, Hf solutes and their oxidation on microstructure and performance of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconductors

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### **Abstract**

Over the last few years a new type of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconducting composite based on the internal oxidation approach has emerged and has demonstrated performance significantly superior to conventional Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn. It requires a supply of O and the use of a Nb alloy – Nb-X, where X is a solute element that can be selectively oxidized to form oxide particles within the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn. Such oxide particles not only refine Nb3Sn grain size, but also have the proper size to act as artificial pinning centers (APC) directly restraining fluxon motion, and thus dramatically improve superconducting properties. In this article we show that the size and volume fraction of the oxide particles determine both the levels of grain refinement and the shift in the peak field of the flux pinning force  $(F_p - B)$  curve. We explore the factors influencing these microstructure and properties, which we find include: selection of the solute element X, solute content, O content, and heat treatment. For the selection of X, we searched the periodic table for all promising candidates but focused down on the group-IVB elements (Ti, Zr, Hf) here as the drawability of  $Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn$  wires made from Nb-Ti, Nb-Zr, and Nb-Hf alloys has been demonstrated in the past few decades. We found that while internally oxidizing Nb-1.5at.% Ti led to negligible grain refinement and  $F_p$ -*B* peak shift, Nb-Zr alloys led to much more dramatic results, and internally oxidizing Nb-Hf alloys led to the strongest grain refinement and *Fp*-*B* peak shift. For Hf alloying in particular, we compared our internal oxidation method with another method for grain refinement, which uses Hf alloying itself without oxidation, and found that internal oxidation led to much stronger grain refinement and *Fp*-*B* peak shift. We also found that higher solute content and lower reaction temperature led to stronger grain refinement and  $F_p$ -*B* peak shift. We conclude with a discussion of the possible mechanisms for the influence of these factors.

Keywords: Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconductor, Internal oxidation, Grain size, Precipitation, Flux pinning

# **1. Introduction**

Nb3Sn superconductors have important applications in the building of high-field magnets. Research and development of Nb3Sn conductors is regaining significant interest worldwide, for two main reasons. First, the proposed Future Circular Collider (FCC) plans to use Nb3Sn conductors to produce its dipole and quadrupole magnets [1]; however, the FCC-required performance, particularly the critical current density  $(J_c)$ , is significantly higher than what stateof-the-art Nb3Sn can deliver [2,3], motivating efforts to further improve this technical superconductor. Second, although the  $J_c$  level of the state-of-the-art Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn has been more or less at a plateau for nearly two decades [4], some recent research and development has demonstrated that Nb3Sn still have significant room for further improvement. One such advance was our successful application of the internal oxidation method to Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn wires [5,6], which has led to a new type of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn with performance significantly superior to that of conventional Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn [5]. This has inspired a few groups to research into this promising approach [7-10]. Another development fostering progress was that recently the Florida State University (FSU) group, when in a followon study of the internal-oxidation Nb3Sn for Ta doping, discovered that Hf alloying itself could refine Nb3Sn grain size even without internal oxidation, and thus proposed to use the non-oxidation Hf-alloying approach to improve Nb3Sn *J<sup>c</sup>* [11]. In fact, it is interesting that Tachikawa et al., who heavily studied Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn wires with doping of group-IVB elements (Ti, Zr, Hf) in the 1980s (e.g., [12,13]), reported that addition of Ti, Zr, or Hf to Nb led to appreciably finer  $Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn$  grain size for the reaction temperature of 800℃, but not much for 700℃ [12]. The FSU group further showed that Hf alloying could still refine Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn grain size for low reaction temperatures (650-675 °C) and clarified its mechanism in terms of suppression of Nb recrystallization [11].

In general, a subelement of a conventional Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn wire before heat treatment is composed of precursors including a Sn-source core (e.g., Sn+Cu) in a Nb alloy tube or variant (e.g., an annulus composed of Cu-clad Nb rods for rod-restack-process, RRP®, wires). Ti or Ta doping (e.g., via Nb-4at.%Ta alloy) is used to improve Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn upper critical field [14]. In contrast, fabrication of an internal-oxidation-type Nb3Sn subelement requires two modifications: (1) the Nb or Nb-4at.%Ta must be replaced by a suitable Nb-X or Nb-4at.%Ta-X alloy for internal oxidation (where X is a solute element in Nb), (2) a proper oxide must be added into the subelement, which must have a design that allows oxygen transfer to the Nb alloy [15]. In the early stages of heat treatment O diffuses to the Nb alloy and dissolves in it; subsequently, while the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn layer grows, the X solute is selectively oxidized to form oxide nanoparticles in the  $Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn$  matrix. These particles can significantly refine Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn grain size (by a factor of two or greater [15]). This method significantly improves Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn  $J_c$ : e.g., the internal-oxidation-type wires we developed recently using a Nb-4at.%Ta-1at.%Zr alloy, with either 61 or 217 filaments, have achieved the FCC non-Cu *J<sup>c</sup>* specification [16,17]. In fact, the layer  $J_c$  of the internally-oxidized Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn is 2-3 times of that of the state-of-the-art RRP® conductors at 16-20 T [18].

A proper understanding of the mechanism by which internal oxidation improves  $J_c$  is important for further development of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn conductors. The  $J_c$  of a superconductor at a given *B* is determined by the total available flux pinning force per unit volume,  $F_p$ , as  $J_c = F_p/B$ . Because grain boundaries were known to be the primary flux pinning centers for conventional  $Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn$ conductors [19] and the maximum pinning force  $(F_{p,max})$  increases dramatically as the grain size decreases [20,21], the  $J_c$  improvement in internally-oxidized Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn was, early on, interpreted primarily in terms of its refined grain size. However, our recent work, which designed an experiment to compare two conductors with similar average grain size (~85 nm), one with oxide precipitates and the other without, showed that the one with precipitates had significantly higher flux pinning and  $J_c$  [16]. This is because the oxide precipitates, most of which have a particle size below 10 nm, serve as "artificial pinning centers" (APC), which directly pin fluxons and make a significant contribution to the total  $F_p$  due to their high volumetric density [16]. An evidence supporting this is the change of the  $F_p$ -*B* curve shape for internally-oxidized Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn. All conventional Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn wires produced over the past five decades generally follow Kramer's law with  $F_p$ -*B* curves peaking at  $\sim 0.2B_{irr}$  ( $B_{irr}$  is the irreversibility field – the field at which  $J_c$  vanishes), known to be a characteristic of "surface pinning" [22]. In contrast, the  $F_p$ -*B* peak of internallyoxidized APC Nb3Sn is found to shift to higher fields [5,15,16]. This is believed to be due to the addition of the precipitates-contributed "point pinning", for which the  $F_p$ -*B* curves peak at 1/3 of *B*<sub>irr</sub> [23]. The shift of  $F_p$ -*B* peak to higher fields leads to a flatter  $J_c$ -*B* curve, which enhances  $J_c$  at high fields (e.g., above 10 T) but reduces  $J_c$  at low fields (e.g., below 3 T). Apart from the increase in  $F_{p,max}$  due to grain size reduction and addition of point pinning, as well as the shift of  $F_{p,max}$  to higher fields, we also found that internal oxidation can improve Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn  $B_{irr}$  [17], which also contributes to enhancement of high-field  $J_c$ . Overall, internal oxidation does not enhance Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn  $J_c$ via a single mechanism, but by several distinct influences on the microstructure and properties of  $Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn.$ 

In this work we explore factors that influence the microstructure and pinning properties of internal-oxidation Nb3Sn. We find that one key influencing factor is the alloying element X. We chose Zr for our past work [5,15-18] mainly because of the availability and low cost of the commercial Nb-1%Zr alloy, which is important for large-scale conductor productions. In this work we explore other possible options to see if there is any other element that can lead to more optimized internal oxidation effects. As explained later, we searched the periodic table for all promising candidates and focused down on Ti, Zr, and Hf solutes for this work, as drawability of Nb3Sn wires made from Nb-Ti, Nb-Zr, Nb-Hf alloys has been demonstrated in the past few decades (e.g., by Tachikawa et al. in the 1980s for Ti, Zr, Hf doping to improve Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn  $B<sub>irr</sub>$  [12,13], and later by Hong et al. who used Nb-Hf alloys with high Hf contents to generate Hf precipitates in Nb3Sn [24], as well as the recent results from the FSU group [11]). Another key influencing factor is oxygen content. The results by Balachandran et al. showing that non-oxidation Hf alloying could also refine Nb3Sn grain size [11] have led to a hypothesis that the grain refinement in Hfalloyed Nb3Sn, whether internally oxidized or not, might be because the grain size of the precursor Nb alloy is smaller (as a result of suppression of Nb recrystallization by Hf). This is an interesting question. In order to clarify the mechanism for grain refinement in internally-oxidized  $Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn$ , which is important for Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn conductor development, here we also compared Hf-alloyed wires with and without internal oxidation. This is a complement to our main focus, which is an exploration of the influence of solute choice, solute content, and heat treatment on the size and distribution of the internal oxidation generated precipitates, and their influence on grain size and pinning properties.

# **2. Experiments**

#### 2.1. Experimental materials

To search for all suitable elements for internal oxidation of  $Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn$ , we should keep in mind that a suitable solute X must satisfy two prerequisites. First, X must have an affinity to O that is much higher than that Nb does, such that X can be selectively oxidized while the Nb is left non-oxidized and available for Nb3Sn formation. Second, X must have a considerable solubility in Nb (e.g., a few atomic percent) in order to obtain a Nb-X alloy that has: (1) a solute content large enough to form a dense array of X-oxide precipitates, and (2) good ductility, because the precursor wires must undergo large area reductions without breakage during fabrication. This requirement on solubility in Nb precludes a number of elements, such as the alkaline earth and the rare earth elements, despite their very strong affinity to O. Based on the above prerequisites, we see only a few promising candidates, which include Al and the group-IVB metals (Ti, Zr, Hf). Nb-Al will be explored in a later study, while this work focused on Nb-Ti, Nb-Zr, Nb-Hf alloys, whose suitability for making Nb3Sn wires has been demonstrated in the past few decades [12,13,24]. Recently Nb-Ti alloy was tried for internal oxidation by Buehler et al., but it was not certain whether the Nb-Ti alloy took sufficient oxygen [10]. For the completeness of this study, we used the standard Nb-4at.%Ta alloy as a reference.

For the exploration of Ti as the solute, we used a Nb-1.5at.%Ti alloy. For Zr, we studied two alloys – Nb-4at.%Ta-0.63at.%Zr and Nb-4at.%Ta-1at.%Zr – in order to see the influence of solute content. Here Ta was used to improve Nb3Sn *Birr*. For Hf, we used Nb-4at.%Ta-1at.%Hf. For an initial study, we first fabricated a monofilament for each alloy. As we found that internal oxidation of Nb-1.5at.%Ti did not lead to noticeable grain refinement or *Fp*-*B* peak shift, we did not proceed to fabricate multifilamentary wires using Nb-Ti, and thus the monofilament results are reported here. On the other hand, internal oxidation of the Nb-4at.%Ta-1at.%Hf led to significant grain reduction and *Fp*-*B* peak field shift, encouraging us to fabricate multifilamentary wires using the Nb-4at.%Ta-1at.%Hf alloy. Tube materials were used for fabrication of all of the wires. Each Nb alloy tube was filled with a mixture of  $Sn$ ,  $Cu$ , and  $SnO<sub>2</sub>$  powders (all of these wires had similar Cu/Sn, Nb/Sn, and O/Nb ratios [16]) and then inserted into a pure Cu tube and drawn to a stacking size; 48 such composites and 13 pure Cu rods were stacked into a pure Cu can to constitute a multifilamentary billet (which is called a 48/61 design), and the assembly (with a starting diameter of 19 mm) was drawn to a final wire size of 0.71 mm diameter. In order to compare the effects of the internal-oxidation Hf-alloying approach to the non-oxidation Hf-alloying approach, we also fabricated a wire with the 48/61 design using the same Nb-4at.%Ta-1at.%Hf alloy tube but without any SnO<sup>2</sup> addition. All of the wires were fabricated at Hyper Tech Research Inc. and drew well without breakage; a summary of the wires is shown in Table 1. Among these wires, the one using Nb-4at.%Ta-0.63at.%Zr was described in detail in [18] (with the sample name of "APC-A"), and the one using Nb-4at.%Ta-1at.%Zr was described in detail in [16] (with the sample name of "IO61- 2"). In this paper the wires with an internal oxygen source are called out by their Nb alloy compositions, while the wire made with Nb-4at.%Ta-1at.%Hf but without an internal oxygen source is denoted 1Hf-noO.

**Table 1.** Wire design, chemistry, and reaction heat treatment.

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All of the wires were heat treated under vacuum with an initial ramp (at  $30^{\circ}$ C/h) up to  $675^{\circ}$ C and held for durations longer than needed for full reactions. The 1Zr and 1Hf wires were also reacted at 700℃ so that the influence of reaction temperature could be seen. The 1.5Ti and 1HfnoO wires were also reacted at 650°C to see if noticeable *Fp*-*B* peak shift could be obtained. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of 1.5Ti-650℃/350h, 1Zr-700℃/73h, 1Hf-700℃/91h, 1Hf-noO-650℃/126h are shown in Fig. 1, while SEM image of 0.6Zr-675℃/152h can be found in [18].



**Fig. 1.** SEM images of (a) 1.5Ti-650℃/350h, (b) 1Zr-700℃/73h, (c) 1Hf-700℃/91h, and (d) 1HfnoO-650℃/126h.

# 2.2. Measurements

Taking advantage of the inter-granular fracture mode of  $Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn$ , the as-reacted wire samples were fractured and high-resolution SEM images of their cross sections were taken to obtain their grain sizes. To observe the oxide particles, we used both high-resolution SEM and transmission electron microscopy (TEM), as we found that the  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  particles were large enough to be observed via high-resolution SEM in well-polished cross sections, but observation of  $ZrO<sub>2</sub>$  or HfO<sub>2</sub> particles, which were mostly below 10 nm, had to rely on TEM.

All of the reacted wires were measured using a Vibrating Sample Magnetometer (VSM) attached to a Physical Property Measurement System (PPMS®). The applied magnetic field was perpendicular to the wire axes, and had a 13 mT/s ramp rate. Magnetic moment versus field (*M*-*B*) loops were measured at 4.2 K to calculate the  $F_p$ -*B* curves. The peak field of an  $F_p$ -*B* curve is denoted "*Bp*" here.

# **3. Experimental Results**

### 3.1. Oxide particle size

Electron microscopy found no oxide particles in the 4Ta sample. SEM and TEM images displaying TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub> and HfO<sub>2</sub> particles in the 1.5Ti-675°C/250h, 1Zr-700°C/73h, and 1Hf-700°C/91h samples are shown in Fig. 2, respectively. The oxide particle size was observed to vary across the Nb3Sn layer for all the three samples. In Fig. 2 we show regions close to the outer boundaries of the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn layers (i.e., the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn/Nb interfaces) and also regions close to the inner boundaries of the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn layers (towards the Sn-source core). Since in each filament the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn layer grows from the Sn-source core outwards into the unreacted Nb area, regions close to the inner boundary of the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn layer are formed first and are in the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn state for a longer portion of the reaction time than regions close to the outer boundary. It is clear from these images that for each of the three internal-oxidation wires (1.5Ti, 1Zr, 1Hf), the particles in the earlier-formed regions appear larger than those in the later-formed regions, suggesting that the particles may coarsen with heat treatment time. Here it is also worth mentioning that our study in [25] shows that the oxide particle size increases with reaction temperature.

It can be seen from Fig. 2 that the  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  particles are much bigger than the  $ZrO<sub>2</sub>$  and  $HfO<sub>2</sub>$ particles. The TiO<sub>2</sub> particle size is about a few hundred nanometers in the earlier-formed  $Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn$ region and ranges from  $\sim 10$  nm to  $\sim 100$  nm in the later-formed Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn region in the 1.5Ti- $675^{\circ}$ C/250h. In contrast, the ZrO<sub>2</sub> particle size is mostly 5-10 nm (with a small percentage below 5 nm or reaching 15-20 nm) in the earlier-formed  $Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn$  region, but drops to only a few nanometers (mostly below 5 nm, only a small percentage reaching  $5\n-10$  nm) in the later-formed Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn region in the 1Zr-700 $\degree$ C/73h. The HfO<sub>2</sub> particles are even smaller than the ZrO<sub>2</sub> particles, with the majority of  $HfO<sub>2</sub>$  particles below 5 nm (and only a small percentage reaching 5-10 nm) in the earlier-formed Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn region, and almost all HfO<sub>2</sub> particles in the 1-4 nm range in the later-formed Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn region in the 1Hf-700 $^{\circ}$ C/91h. In Fig. 2 it also appears that the particles at Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn grain boundaries tend to grow bigger than those within Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn grains.



**Fig. 2.** (a) SEM image of a  $Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn$  layer for 1.5Ti-675°C/250h, (b) SEM image for the Region A, (c) SEM image for the Region B, (d) SEM image of a Nb3Sn layer for 1Zr-700°C/73h, (e) TEM image for the Region C, (f) TEM image for the Region D, (g) SEM image of a  $Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn$  layer for 1Hf-700°C/91h, (h) TEM image for the Region E, (i) TEM image for the Region F.

# 3.2. Nb3Sn grain size

Fig. 3 shows SEM images of fractured surfaces of all the six wires, all reacted at 675°C. We found that the grain size also varied as a function of position across the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn layer for all of the internally-oxidized wires (1.5Ti, 0.6Zr, 1Zr, and 1Hf). Fig. 3(a)-(f) show regions close to the outer boundaries of the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn layers, and Fig. 3(g)-(1) show regions close to the inner boundaries. For all of the internally-oxidized wires, it is seen that the earlier-formed  $Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn$  grains are somewhat larger than the later-formed grains, similar to the particle size variation. Such a noticeable grain size increase from the newly-formed regions to the early-formed regions in a Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn layer did not occur in the 4Ta or 1Hf-noO sample; in fact, it was not observed in the high-Sn-content versions of conventional, non-oxidation Nb3Sn wires, either [20,21].

Regions close to the outer boundaries:



Regions close to the inner boundaries:



Fig. 3. SEM images of fractured surfaces of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn regions (a)-(f) close to the outer boundaries, and (g)-(l) close to the inner boundaries, for (a) and (g)  $4Ta-675^{\circ}C/90h$ , (b) and (h) 1.5Ti-675°C/250h, (c) and (i)  $0.6Zr - 675$ °C/152h, (d) and (j) 1Zr-675°C/250h, (e) and (k) 1Hf- $675^{\circ}$ C/280h, and (f) and (l) 1Hf-noO-675 $^{\circ}$ C/70h, respectively.

The average grain sizes of these samples were calculated and are summarized in Table 2. The grain sizes of 4Ta or 1.5Ti were not noticeably smaller relative to conventional, non-oxidation Nb3Sn [20,21]. This is not very surprising given the lack of particle formation in the 4Ta sample, and the relatively coarse precipitate array in the 1.5Ti sample. However, the refinement of grain size was very obvious in the 0.6Zr sample, and was even stronger in the 1Zr, while the 1Hf sample had the most dramatic grain refinement among all the internal-oxidation samples. The grain sizes of the non-oxidation 1Hf-noO were somewhat smaller than those of 4Ta, demonstrating that Hf alloying without O can indeed refine Nb3Sn grain size to a certain extent. However, the internallyoxidized 1Hf had significantly smaller grain size than the non-oxidation 1Hf-noO, indicating that internal oxidation, instead of the Hf alloying by itself, is most likely the primary cause of the grain refinement in our internally-oxidized Hf-alloyed wires. This is consistent with our previous results for Nb-Zr alloys, which showed that internal oxidation led to much smaller grain size compared with the non-oxidation control sample [5,15].

**Table 2.** Summary of the average grain sizes of the samples in Fig. 3 (all reacted at 675<sup>o</sup>C)

Sample			1.5Ti $0.6Zr$ 1Zr	1Hf	1Hf-no $\Omega$
Grain size close to the outer boundaries, nm	127	129	70		
Grain size close to the inner boundaries, nm	130	141			98

# 3.3. *Fp*-*B* peak field shift

The measured  $F_p$ -*B* curves of all the samples are shown in Fig. 4, with each  $F_p$ -*B* curve normalized to its *Fp,max* so that all curves can be clearly compared regarding peak field shift. The measured  $B_p$  values of all the samples are summarized in Table 3. In some previous work (e.g., [26,27])  $B_{irr}$  values were obtained by fitting  $F_p - B$  curves using the equation:  $F_p$  =  $\alpha(B/B_{irr})^{0.5}(1-B/B_{irr})^2 + \beta(B/B_{irr})(1-B/B_{irr})^2$ , where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are fitting parameters. However, we decide not to use this method because the validity of this scaling relation has not been proven and Nb3Sn inhomogeneity may cause a deviation from the ideal scaling relation [28]. Thus, here we use *Birr* values directly extracted from the resistivity versus field (*R*-*B*) curves measured at high fields [17,18] (a criterion of 1% of the normal-state resistivity is used to determine *Birr*), which are also given in Table 3 (only those Zr and Hf alloyed samples were measured). Detailed information about the *R*-*B* measurements can be found in [17,18].



**Fig. 4.** Normalized magnetic  $F_p$ -*B* curves of all the samples.

**Table 3.** Summary of the *B<sup>p</sup>* values, and some *Birr* results from *R*-*B* measurements, along with the *Bp*/*Birr* values

Sample	$B_p$ , T	$B_{irr}$ , T	$B_p/B_{irr}$
4Ta-675°C/90h	4.7		
1.5Ti-675°C/250h	4.7		
1.5Ti-650°C/350h	4.8		
$0.6Zr - 675°C/152h$	5.9	25.8	0.229
1Zr-675°C/250h	6.6	26.9	0.246
$1Zr-700^{\circ}C/73h$	6.4	26.5	0.241
1Hf-675°C/280h	7.1	26.7	0.266
1Hf-700°C/91h	6.7	27.0	0.248
1Hf-noO-650°C/126h	4.9	25.4	0.193

Although the *Birr* results of the 4Ta and 1.5Ti samples were not available, we found that the Kramer plots of their magnetic  $J_c$ -*B* curves had good linearity, indicating that they followed the conventional grain boundary pinning. This is perhaps due to lack of particles in the 4Ta sample and the too large  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  particle size in the 1.5Ti samples. In contrast, internal oxidation of Nb-Zr led to much stronger *Fp*-*B* peak shift. The 1Zr wire reacted at 675°C had a *Bp*/*Birr* of 0.246. Higher reaction temperature led to weaker  $F_p$ -*B* peak shift due to increase of particle size with reaction temperature [25], with the  $B_p/B_{irr}$  dropping to 0.241 for the 1Zr wire reacted at 700°C. Even reducing the Zr content to 0.63at.%, the shift was still considerable ( $B_p/B_{irr} \approx 0.229$  for a reaction temperature of 675°C). Compared with Nb-Zr, internal oxidation of Nb-Hf led to even stronger shifts: the 1Hf wire reacted at 675°C had a  $B_p/B_{irr}$  of 0.266. Even raising the reaction temperature to 700°C, the 1Hf wire still had a *Bp*/*Birr* of 0.248. On the other hand, the non-oxidation 1Hf-noO wire, even reacted at 650°C, had a linear Kramer plot and no  $F_p$ -*B* peak shift ( $B_p/B_{irr} \approx 0.2$ ), which is consistent with our previous results for Nb-Zr alloys that there was no  $F_p$ -*B* peak shift if no O

was supplied [5,15]. This indicates that internal oxidation is needed for point pinning and *Fp*-*B* peak shift.

# **4. Discussion**

First, let us explore what factors determine the grain size of internally-oxidized Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn. This first requires a correct understanding of the mechanism for the grain refinement. We see from the comparison between the internally-oxidized 1Hf and the non-oxidation 1Hf-noO samples that although Hf alloying itself (without O) can moderately refine Nb3Sn grain size, internal oxidation leads to a much stronger grain refinement. This, as well as the fact that for Zr alloying internal oxidation also leads to much smaller grain size than non-oxidation control [5,15], indicates that the grain refinement in internally-oxidized Nb3Sn is primarily due to the generated oxide nanoprecipitates instead of the Hf (or Zr) alloying itself. The mechanism for the grain refinement by the precipitates is most likely the Zener drag effect – an important phenomenon in many material systems, in which dispersed particles exert a drag force on moving grain boundaries and thus cause grain size reduction by suppressing grain coarsening. For the Zener drag effect, a general relation is that  $D \propto r/f$ , where  $D$  is the grain size,  $r$  is the precipitate radius, and  $f$  is the volume fraction of the precipitates [29]. Thus, smaller particle size and higher particle volume fraction would lead to smaller grain size. In fact, this relation, combined with the oxide particle size variation (Fig. 2), explains the noticeable grain size variation across an internally-oxidized Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn layer, which does not occur in high-Sn-content-version, non-oxidation Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn. Provided that O content is sufficient, the precipitate volume fraction *f* is proportional to  $x \cdot V_{m,oxide}/V_{m, A15}$ , where *x* is the atomic fraction of the solute element in Nb (e.g., 1.5% for 1.5Ti),  $V_{m,oxide}$  is the molar volume of the oxide, and  $V_{m, A15}$  is the molar volume of Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn (~44.6 cm<sup>3</sup>/mol). The  $V_{m, oxide}$  of ZrO<sub>2</sub> or HfO<sub>2</sub> can be calculated to be  $\sim$ 21.7 cm<sup>3</sup>/mol, while that of TiO<sub>2</sub> is 21.1 or 18.9 cm<sup>3</sup>/mol depending on its forms. Therefore, we obtain  $D \propto r/x$  for each oxide. This relation can qualitatively explain the relative grain sizes of these samples, although a quantitative calculation is difficult because there may be other influencing factors as well. For example, although the 1.5Ti wire has a higher *x* value (1.5%) than that of 1Zr or 1Hf wire (1%), its much larger  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  particle size leads to much weaker grain size reduction. In fact, the  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  particles may be too large to cause an effective grain refinement. The 1Hf wire had smaller grain size than the 1Zr wire as a result of the smaller HfO<sub>2</sub> particle size. Higher solute content  $x$  leads to higher particle volume fraction and thus smaller grain size.

Next, let us consider the factors influencing the  $F_p$ -*B* peak field shift, which is determined by the ratio of point pinning force to grain boundary pinning force. It is interesting to see that smaller oxide particle size and higher volume fraction, on one hand leads to smaller Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn grain size and thus higher grain boundary pinning, on the other hand also leads to higher point pinning due to higher volumetric density of particles, because the average number of particles per unit volume equals to  $3f/(4\pi r^3)$ . From the comparison of the  $B_p/B_{irr}$  values in Table 3, it is clear that with the decrease of particle size and increase of volume fraction, the increase of point pinning is faster than the increase of grain boundary pinning, causing a more dramatic  $F_p$ -*B* peak shift, which is

desirable. Given that increasing the precipitate volume fraction by increasing the solute content (assuming oxygen is sufficient) is limited by the drawability of the Nb alloy, reduction of oxide particle size is especially desirable. Next let us consider the factors influencing the precipitate size. To do this, it is needed to explore the nucleation and growth of the oxide precipitates.

*(1) Nucleation.* Based on classical nucleation theory, the driving force for the X and O solutes in the matrix to precipitate out is partly the reduction of Gibbs free energy when X and O react to form XO2, and partly associated with a change in the strain energy in the matrix (e.g., elimination of the strain energy that is induced by the X and O solutes in the matrix); on the other hand, formation of  $XO<sub>2</sub>$  precipitates in the matrix would create new surfaces (interfaces between the precipitates and their surrounding matrix), which leads to increase of surface energy. For a spherical precipitate with radius *r*, the total Gibbs free energy change is  $4\pi r^2 \sigma - 4\pi r^3 \Delta G/3$ , where  $\sigma$ is the surface energy per unit area and Δ*G* is the energy decrease for formation of unit-volume precipitation. Thus, the minimum precipitate radius *r* for the nucleation to occur is  $r_{min} = 3\sigma/\Delta G$ . The  $\Delta G$  depends heavily on the energy reduction for the  $X + 2O \rightarrow XO_2$  reaction: the higher affinity X has to oxygen, the larger this energy reduction is. For example, the standard formation energies for Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, Ta<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, and HfO<sub>2</sub> at 675<sup>o</sup>C are -594, -649, -770, -917, -930 kJ/mole-of-O<sub>2</sub>, respectively. The formation energy of Ta<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> is similar to that of Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, which is why Nb-Ta cannot be internally oxidized. It is possible that the low formation energy of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$ partially accounts for formation of larger  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  precipitate nuclei, but a thorough study of the strain energies for all of the solutes in the matrix and the surface energies for  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$ ,  $ZrO<sub>2</sub>$ , and  $HfO<sub>2</sub>$ particles is needed to estimate their nucleation sizes. This will be explored in later work [25].

*(2) Growth.* The fact that the particle size is larger in the earlier-formed Nb3Sn than that in the Nb3Sn formed nearer the end of the reaction time suggests that the precipitates coarsen with heat treatment time. This indicates that Ti, Zr, Hf, and O atoms all must be able to diffuse within the Nb3Sn. The growth of the particles depends on the diffusivities of these atoms: higher diffusivity leads to more particle coarsening. The diffusion rate may depend on several factors. First, these atoms may diffuse faster along  $Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn$  grain boundaries than in the lattice – in fact, it indeed seems in Fig. 2 that the particles sitting at grain boundaries tend to be larger than those within Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn grains. Second, they diffuse faster at higher temperature, which perhaps partially explains why higher reaction temperature leads to larger particle size [25]. Last but not least, the diffusivities of Ti, Zr, and Hf in Nb3Sn may be different due to different atomic radius and mobility, etc., leading to different particle coarsening rate, which is worthy of further study.

In summary, from this work it can be seen that factors influencing grain size, oxide precipitate size and volume fraction, and  $F_p$ -*B* peak field shift in internally-oxidized Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn include (in order of significance of the influence):

*(1) Oxygen content.* Oxygen content is found to be the most critical factor – it is seen from previous work [5,15] and this work that for both Zr alloying and Hf alloying, lack of oxygen leads to much weaker grain refinement as well as negligible point pinning or  $F_p$ -*B* peak field shift.

*(2) Choice of solute element*. From Ti to Zr and further to Hf, the ability to generate a dense set of fine oxide precipitates via internal oxidation increases, leading to dramatically smaller  $Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn$ grain size and precipitate size as well as more pronounced  $F_p$ -*B* peak shift.

*(3) Solute content.* Assuming sufficient oxygen supply, higher solute content leads to increase in precipitate volume fraction, and thus stronger grain refinement and  $F_p$ -*B* peak shift.

*(4) Reaction temperature.* Lower reaction temperature leads to smaller precipitates in denser arrays, and thus stronger  $F_p$ -*B* peak shift.

Finally, it is worth briefly discussing the practical significance of  $F_p$ -*B* peak shift. It can be clearly seen from Fig. 4 that shift of  $F_p$ -*B* peak to higher fields strongly reduces  $J_c$  at low fields while enhancing  $J_c$  at high fields (even with the same  $F_{p,max}$ ). While the  $J_c$  enhancement at high fields, where Nb3Sn conductors are used, attracts extensive attention, the *J<sup>c</sup>* reduction at low fields has been seldom paid attention to in the superconductor community, which is in fact also critical. This is because persistent-current magnetization, which is determined by the product of *J<sup>c</sup>* and effective subelement diameter (*deff*), may cause several critical issues (e.g., flux jumps, field errors, hysteresis losses), and the magnetization of concern is primarily at low fields because low-field *J<sup>c</sup>* is much higher than high-field *Jc*. Due to the high *J<sup>c</sup>* required, the magnetization causes formidable field errors and a.c. losses in the FCC magnet design, which are imposing challenges to tackle [1,2]. A large reduction of  $d_{\text{eff}}$  while retaining high  $J_c$  is challenging for Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn conductors; on the other hand, the significant reduction of low-field  $J_c$  in the APC Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn offers a unique approach to combating the low-field magnetization problem [1].

#### **5. Conclusions**

This work explores the factors that influence the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn grain size, oxide precipitate size and volume fraction, and *Fp*-*B* peak field shift (which indicates point pinning contribution) for internaloxidation-type Nb3Sn superconductors. One influencing factor isthe solute element of the Nb alloy used for internal oxidation. In this work we searched for all promising candidates and focused down on the group-IVB metals (Ti, Zr, Hf). We found that each of them can form oxide particles, but only those particles that are small in size and present with a high volume fraction can lead to dramatic effects, because smaller particle size and higher volume fraction lead to both higher grain boundary pinning (due to grain refinement) and higher point pinning (due to higher particle density), as well as stronger  $F_p$ -*B* peak shift. In this regard, we found that internal oxidation of Nb-Hf led to the strongest effects, Nb-Zr was a strong performer, while Nb-Ti showed negligible effects. Apart from the solute element, another critical factor is oxygen supply. It was found that for Hf alloying without oxygen, the point pinning was negligible and the grain size was much larger than Hf alloying + internal oxidation, indicating that the grain refinement in internallyoxidized Nb3Sn is primarily due to the oxide particles (Zener drag effect) instead of Hf alloying itself. Other influencing factors include the solute content and heat treatment. Higher solute content leads to higher particle volume fraction, which leads to smaller grain size and more pronounced  $F_p$ -*B* peak shift. Lower reaction temperature leads to smaller precipitate size and thus more dramatic *Fp*-*B* peak shift. The mechanisms by which these factors influence the grain size and the particle size were discussed, which may shed light on how to optimize these conductor design/processing factors in order to further improve Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn superconductor performance. These results have an important implication for conductor development: since the needed high performance is at high fields, conductors that have a significant contribution of point pinning are most desirable. This suggests that internal oxidation is presently the best route to achieving the highest performance assuming conductor fabricability.

### **Declaration of interests**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

# **CRediT authorship contribution statement**

**X. Xu:** Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing - original draft, Funding acquisition. **X. Peng:** Investigation, Funding acquisition. **J. Rochester:** Investigation. **M. Sumption:** Investigation, Writing - review & editing. **J. Lee:** Investigation. **G.A. Calderon Ortiz:** Investigation. **J. Hwang:** Investigation.

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