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**Investigation of a New Pathway Toward a Viable  
High-Field MgB<sub>2</sub> Conductor by Plasma Spray  
Synthesis of a Carbon-Doped Boron Precursor**

**A Thesis Presented**

**by**

**Paul Stephen Chang**

**to**

**The Graduate School**

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Abstract of the Thesis

**Investigation of a New Pathway Toward a Viable High-Field MgB<sub>2</sub>  
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The use of superconducting MgB<sub>2</sub>, which has a  $T_c \sim 40$  K, in engineering applications will reduce costs associated with the use of cryogenic liquid He that is necessary with current technology and will improve design options for devices like patient-friendly open MRI systems. The main obstacle to achieving this is the poor high-field performance of this multiband superconductor. This thesis explores a new pathway toward a viable high-field MgB<sub>2</sub> conductor. The method presented utilizes plasma spray to synthesize a nanoscale boron carbide powder from gas phase precursors. This enables the integration of the important alloying element (carbon) on an atomic scale. This is different than all other routes to date, which either add boron and carbon separately and therefore require diffusion at excessive temperatures for wire technology, or use high energy milling to create an atomic boron-carbon mixture which incorporates high amounts of disorder. This thesis shows that the plasma-sprayed boron carbide produces a uniformly alloyed MgB<sub>2</sub> that is relatively free from defects and can be reacted at temperatures low enough for making wires.

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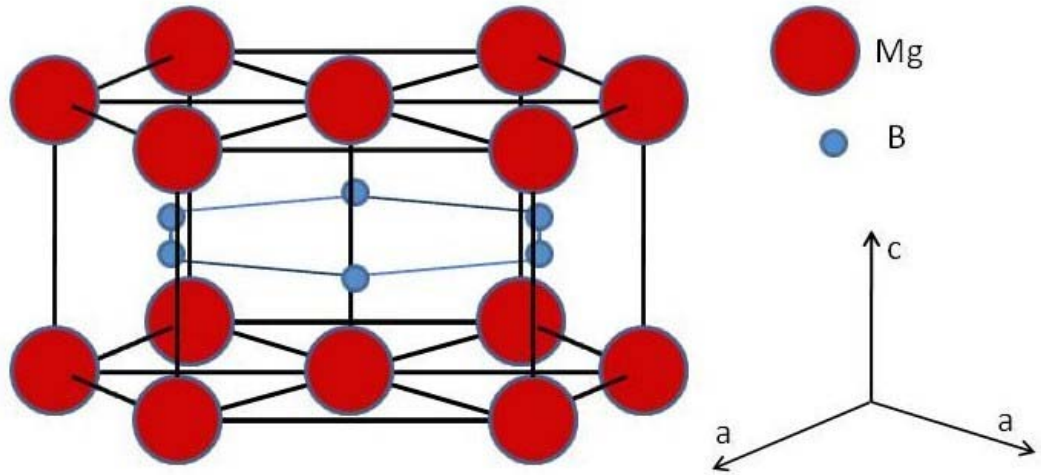
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# 1. Magnesium Diboride ( $\text{MgB}_2$ )

The January 2001 discovery of superconductivity in magnesium diboride at 39K [1] was a historical moment in this field. The surprisingly high  $T_c$  for a binary compound with a simple hexagonal structure generated a large amount of excitement and this discovery was followed by a flurry of activity. Within seven months, over 260 studies on this material had emerged [2]. The general enthusiasm also led to the discovery of other superconductors, especially in materials related to  $\text{MgB}_2$  [3-6] as well as in elemental boron under pressure [7]. The  $T_c$  of  $\text{MgB}_2$  is higher than the most widely used superconductors NbTi ( $T_c \sim 9\text{K}$ ) and  $\text{Nb}_3\text{Sn}$  ( $T_c \sim 18\text{K}$ ). Although its  $T_c$  is about three times lower than that of the high- $T_c$  superconducting (HTSC) cuprates [8], these cuprates require complex manufacturing and the cost of making wires is high.  $\text{MgB}_2$  carries critical current densities similar to these competing materials and is relatively cheap and simple to manufacture. These factors combined with its high transition temperature make it a contender for the preferred material in many superconductor applications.  $\text{MgB}_2$  powder has been commercially available since early 1950s and it also can be made into thin films [9-14], single crystals [15-18], wires [19-22] and tapes [9, 21, 23]. These available fabrication methods enabled the study of  $\text{MgB}_2$  for applications. Several commercial applications are imminent in the 20-30K and 1-4T range, but for uses in high fields more improvements need to be made. The most prominent potential application is open MRI systems with  $\text{MgB}_2$  magnets that operate without liquid cryogenes. Prototypes of these MRI devices have been made and tested [20, 24-26]. Details of MRI and other applications in refrigeration, fault current limiters, transformers, motors, generators, adiabatic demagnetization refrigerators, superconducting magnetic energy storage, and high-energy physics are presented by Tomsic et al [27].

The interest in  $\text{MgB}_2$  is not only due to its potential for industrial applications and cheap raw materials, but also for fundamental scientific research.  $\text{MgB}_2$  has a simple hexagonal crystal structure with spacegroup  $p6/mmm$ . The  $\text{MgB}_2$  structure is shown in Figure 1. The boron forms graphite-like layers separated by close-packed hexagonal layers of magnesium. The magnesium atoms line up with the center of the hexagons formed by boron and the in-plane B-B lengths are much shorter than the inter-plane lengths. The electronic states at the Fermi level consist primarily of the  $\sigma$  and  $\pi$  boron bonds. A full description of the electronic and crystal structure is given



**Figure 1.1** The crystal structure of magnesium diboride.

by Ivanovskii [28]. The high  $T_c$  found in this material is surprising because of this simple structure. An interesting finding is the existence of multiple superconducting band gaps[29] which was predicted by various researchers [30-32]. The  $\sigma$  states confined to the boron plane couple strongly with the lattice vibrations and create a large superconducting band gap. The  $\pi$  states couple weakly with phonons to create a much smaller band gap. At 17K the  $\sigma$  band is 6.5eV and the  $\pi$  band is 1.5eV. Due to coupling, both gaps develop at the same  $T_c$ . The BCS description of superconductivity [33] leads to the prediction that low-mass elements would have higher  $T_c$  because of higher frequency phonon modes. Predictions have been made for hydrogen to have the highest  $T_c$  for a monatomic superconductor [34]. The discovery of superconductivity in MgB<sub>2</sub> gave credence to these predictions because of the strong contribution of the boron layers [31, 32, 35]. MgB<sub>2</sub> indeed showed signs of the familiar phonon mediated superconductivity as outlined by BCS when samples made from the isotopes B-11 and B-10 were found to have a 1K difference in  $T_c$  [36]. This variation of  $T_c$  with atomic mass is known as the isotope effect and is discussed further in section 2.

The widespread use of MgB<sub>2</sub> still depends on increasing its upper critical field,  $H_{c2}$  i.e. the value of the applied magnetic field at which superconductivity disappears. This can be achieved by adding non-magnetic impurities and other disorder producing means. This work is a study of a novel method for preparing carbon doped MgB<sub>2</sub> in an attempt to produce a homogeneously doped material with an increased upper critical field. The results have implications for both applications

and pure science. The next section will describe the nature of superconductivity in  $\text{MgB}_2$  followed by a review of the methods of fabricating doped samples and the resulting superconducting parameters.

## 2. Superconductivity and properties of MgB<sub>2</sub>

### 2.1. General Superconductivity

Superconductivity was discovered by Kamerlingh Onnes in 1911. He conducted extensive research in cryogenics and was the first to liquefy helium at 4.2K. What he observed was that the electric resistance of mercury dropped drastically at about 4 K below which it was immeasurably low. Onnes described this as a newly discovered state of the material which he called the “superconducting state” which occurs at and below the critical temperature  $T_c$ . He predicted that this state would be used to produce superconducting magnets with fields exceeding 10T. First attempts at these magnets were not successful due to the loss of superconductivity with small applied fields and Onnes’ prediction did not come true until many years later.

In 1933, Meissner and Oschenfeld discovered perfect diamagnetism in superconductors. What they found was that an applied field was excluded from a superconductor as well as from an originally normal material when it is cooled below  $T_c$ . If superconductivity were explained by simply zero resistance then the flux penetrating the normal material would be trapped after the transition. This feature of superconductivity is known as the Meissner effect. In order to exclude flux in this way, a superconductor develops a shielding current at its surface which creates a field that cancels the applied field. This current flows within a short depth of the surface known as the penetration depth  $\lambda$ . The shielding current increases as the applied field is increased until the required shielding current density reaches a limiting value above which superconductivity cannot be sustained, i.e. the depairing current  $J_d$ . The energy of  $J_d$  is equal to the energy gap of the superconducting state. The field that induces  $J_d$  is known as the thermodynamic critical field  $H_c$ .

The next important breakthrough in superconductivity was the discovery of a second class of superconductors which we now call type-II. This class of superconductor could sustain high current densities even in high fields. The cutoff field for superconductivity in type-II materials ( $H_{c2}$ ) is much higher than  $H_c$  of the type-II materials and thus engineering applications almost exclusively use type-II materials.

Abrikosov made significant contributions to understanding of type-II superconductivity using the phenomenological Ginzburg-Landau (GL) theory. The

surface energy  $E_s$  between normal and superconducting regions is

$$E_s = \frac{1}{2} \mu_0 H_c^2 (\xi - \lambda) \quad \text{Eq 2.1}$$

where  $\xi$  is the coherence length over which the superconductivity order parameter decays and is effectively the thickness of the boundary between the two regions. The GL parameter  $\kappa = \lambda/\xi$  and Abrikosov showed that the value of  $\kappa$  determined if a material was type-I or type-II. Namely, for type-I materials  $\kappa < 1/\sqrt{2}$  and for type-II materials  $\kappa > 1/\sqrt{2}$ . He found that in the latter case this leads to a gradual increase in magnetic flux penetration by quantized increments beginning at a lower critical field  $H_{c1}$ . For field between  $H_{c1}$  and  $H_{c2}$  the penetrating flux is contained in normal cores of radius  $\xi$  which are distributed within the superconducting matrix. Furthermore, the flux in each core is a quantized amount called a fluxon  $\Phi_0$  given in terms of the universal constants  $h$  (Planck's constant),  $c$  (the speed of light in a vacuum), and  $e$  (the electronic charge) by

$$\Phi_0 = \frac{hc}{2e} = 2.07 \times 10^{-7} \text{ gauss} - \text{cm}^2 \quad \text{Eq 2.2}$$

Each core is surrounded by a vortex of circulating supercurrent which shields the superconducting region from the flux. This system of normal flux-carrying cores within superconducting material is known as the mixed state or Abrikosov vortex state. The quantized flux penetration lowers the energy of holding the field out which explains why  $H_{c2}$  can be much greater than  $H_c$ .

The distribution of fluxons in a perfect superconductor is controlled by the mutual repulsion on each other. This results in a close packed hexagonal array called a flux line lattice (FLL). As the applied field is increased more fluxons are forced into the sample decreasing the spacing of the FLL until at  $H_{c2}$  they overlap and the entire material loses superconductivity.  $H_{c1}$  and  $H_{c2}$  are defined by the following

$$H_{c1} = \frac{H_c}{\kappa} \quad \text{Eq 2.3}$$

$$H_{c2} = \sqrt{2} \kappa H_c = \frac{\Phi_0}{2\pi\xi^2} \quad \text{Eq 2.4}$$

Current flowing through a type-II superconductor exerts a Lorentz force ( $\mathbf{F}_L = \mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B}$ ) on the fluxons. This cause sideways motion of the flux lines which induces a "resistive" voltage. The imperfections and impurities present in real materials lower

the free energy of the superconductor when they are present within the fluxons and act as pinning sites. The critical current density is then reached when  $F_L$  is equal to the flux pinning force  $F_P$ . So if  $F_L$  is greater than  $F_P$  the fluxons move and the material shows a finite resistance.

The microscopic theory of Bardeen, Cooper and Schreiffer (BCS) [33] describes the framework in which superconductivity works. In 1956 L.N. Cooper presented the idea that a weak attraction between them could cause electrons to bind into pairs [37]. Cooper showed that at adequately low temperatures the Fermi electrons are unstable against the formation of the bound pair. These Cooper pairs have zero net spin and zero net linear momentum. Thus as a pair they do not obey Fermi-Dirac statistics which allows them to condense into the lowest energy state with a single coherent wavefunction  $\psi$ . This wavefunction continues over the entire sample and forms a coherent system which defines superconductivity. Usually, electrons repel each other because of Coulombic forces so this pairing mechanism must include additional interactions. In the BCS description the interaction is initiated when the first electron attracts the positively charged ions and causes a charge polarization. The increase in positive charge then attracts another electron creating an attractive interaction, described as being mediated by a phonon, between the two electrons which can overcome the Coulombic repulsive forces. At sufficiently low temperatures the random thermal vibrations are not strong enough to affect this interaction and the Cooper pairs described above are created. Soon after the BCS paper, calculations done by Pines[38] showed that the phonon mediated interaction is of the same order as the direct Coulomb repulsion thus showing that a net attractive interaction due to phonon mediation is a realistic result.

## **2.2. Superconductivity in MgB<sub>2</sub>**

One of the foremost questions about MgB<sub>2</sub> was whether the microscopic interactions were similar to that in the low  $T_c$  metallic superconductors. Since its transition temperature was higher than all the usual phonon mediated superconductors, it was speculated that there might be some type of exotic coupling in MgB<sub>2</sub>. The BCS theory is based upon the interaction between electrons and lattice vibrations. Thus it is reasonable to assume that the mass of the element M would have an effect on the transition temperature of a superconductor due to its effect on the characteristic phonon frequency of the lattice. This was confirmed by the discovery of the isotope effect[39, 40]. The isotope effect gives a correlation between

$T_c$  and the mass of the element  $M$ . The relationship is defined by the isotope coefficient  $\alpha$ , where

$$\alpha = -\frac{d \ln T_c}{d \ln M} \quad \text{Eq 2.5}$$

for a single-element system and

$$\alpha = \sum_i \alpha_i = \sum_i -\frac{\partial \ln T_c}{\partial \ln M_i} \quad \text{Eq 2.6}$$

for a multielement system. In the case of a moderately coupled classical BCS superconductors the value of  $\alpha$  is 0.5. The isotope effect has largely been used to identify the nature of superconductivity in a material. The boron isotope effect was found in  $\text{MgB}_2$  [36] with  $\alpha(\text{B}) = 0.25$  and later studies showed  $\alpha(\text{B}) = 0.30$  and  $\alpha(\text{Mg}) = 0.02$  [41, 42]. This confirms that BCS electron-phonon interaction is involved in the superconductivity of  $\text{MgB}_2$ . However, some questions still arise because the isotope coefficient found in  $\text{MgB}_2$  is significantly lower than the expected 0.5. A few factors have been proposed as the cause of this reduced  $\alpha$  including the Coulomb repulsion between paired electrons, the two-band nature of  $\text{MgB}_2$  and the anharmonic character of the phonon spectrum. In most of these cases the studies have shown that the measured  $\alpha$  is too low to be accounted for by the proposed factors and a definitive explanation is still sought[41]. In  $\text{MgB}_2$ , two-dimensional  $\sigma$ -bands develop from the boron  $p_{xy}$  orbitals and three-dimensional  $\pi$ -bands develop from the boron  $p_z$  orbitals. The  $\sigma$  bands couple strongly to the boron in-plane phonon modes and produce superconductivity. The  $\pi$ -bands couple weakly and become superconductive with a much smaller energy gap.

### 2.3. Comparison of modern superconductors

There are hundreds of known superconductors but only a few are commercially applicable and compete with  $\text{MgB}_2$ . This is because real engineering uses, such as magnets, require that the superconductor be formed into a long wire with an electrical stabilizer, fine filaments, insulation, and other features, in addition

to having strong superconductivity. The vast majority of superconducting materials either are not suited for these forms, do not exhibit properties better than the available technology, or are not feasible for economical reasons. This thesis will not be concerned with the hundreds of materials, but will focus on the technological ones.

The HTSC materials are able to work in temperatures above the boiling point of N (77K). The most notable of these are  $\text{Bi}_2\text{Sr}_2\text{CaCu}_2\text{O}_{8-x}$  (Bi-2212),  $(\text{Bi,Pb})_2\text{Sr}_2\text{Ca}_2\text{Cu}_3\text{O}_{10-x}$  (Bi-2223) and  $\text{YBa}_2\text{Cu}_3\text{O}_7$  (YBCO). They have  $T_c$ s of  $\sim 90$  K,  $\sim 110$  K and  $\sim 92$  K respectively and at low temperatures all have  $H_{c2}$  values greater than 50 T [43, 44]. The major drawback of these HTSC materials is the difficulty of manufacturing them into useful forms. They have high  $H_{c2}$  anisotropy with parameters ( $\gamma = H_{c2}^{\parallel}/H_{c2}^{\perp}$ ) above 20 and they also suffer from poor grain boundary connectivity. This means that they cannot be easily drawn into long length wires like the low  $T_c$  superconductors. They are usually made into tapes and have to be crystallographically textured to produce conductors with sufficiently high  $J_c$  for applications. These factors make them expensive to use.

Nb is one of the few elemental type-II superconductors and two of its alloys, NbTi and  $\text{Nb}_3\text{Sn}$ , are the most widely used in superconductor applications. NbTi wires are easy to make as the material is strong and ductile. Long lengths of multifilament wires can be inexpensively with high critical current densities. It has a transition temperature of  $\sim 9$ K and  $H_{c2} \sim 10$ -12K at 4.2K (liquid He) [43, 45]. More careful methods are needed to make  $\text{Nb}_3\text{Sn}$  wires as it is brittle and sensitive to strain.  $\text{Nb}_3\text{Sn}$  has  $T_c$  of 18K and  $H_{c2}$  of 23-29T at 4.2K [43, 46-49]. The difficulty in making and winding  $\text{Nb}_3\text{Sn}$  wires makes these magnets more expensive than NbTi. These two materials are classified as low temperature superconductors (LTS) and require cryogenic liquid helium to cool them during operation.

$\text{MgB}_2$  has a higher transition temperature than the niobium alloys. It is four times the  $T_c$  of NbTi and double the  $T_c$  of  $\text{Nb}_3\text{Sn}$ .  $\text{MgB}_2$  is also capable of carrying a similar critical current density ( $J_c$ ). It also has the advantage of well connected grains. It has moderate anisotropy ( $\gamma \sim 2$ -5) [2, 50] unlike the Nb alloys which can be considered isotropic but not as problematic as that of the HTSCs. Superconductors are used mainly for high field electromagnets and so are required to carry currents in high fields. Pure  $\text{MgB}_2$  has  $H_{c2}^{\parallel} = 18$ T and  $H_{c2}^{\perp} = 3.5$ T, respectively, with fields parallel and perpendicular to the ab plane [50-54]. This poor performance at high fields is the main obstacle to the widespread use of  $\text{MgB}_2$ . It has been shown that the  $H_{c2}$  of  $\text{MgB}_2$  can be hugely improved by introducing impurities that cause scattering [43]. This information has led to numerous studies done on introducing scattering through doping and neutron irradiation. It is also the motivation for the work presented in this paper. The advantages of the various methods of increasing  $H_{c2}$  as well as the problems involved are discussed in a later section of this paper.



## 2.4. Fabrication of MgB<sub>2</sub> for magnets

Soon after the superconducting properties of MgB<sub>2</sub> were discovered it was found that good quality samples of pure MgB<sub>2</sub> were easy to synthesize by Mg diffusion into solid B. Sintered pellets were made by sintering commercially available Mg and B placed in Ta capsules and then in secondary containment [36, 55]. The samples made via this simple synthesis procedure were used to study the boron isotope effect [36] and later on revealed the transparency of MgB<sub>2</sub> grain boundaries to supercurrent flow [55]. The first MgB<sub>2</sub> wires were also made by this diffusion process [56]. Boron filaments with a tungsten core were sealed in a Ta tube which was then sealed in quartz and sintered at 950°C. This process produced 80% dense wires with full Meissner state shielding. Single crystals have been made of MgB<sub>2</sub> to provide detailed information about the anisotropy of critical fields and currents [50, 51]. Thin films can be made by sputtering, CVD and PLD. The best superconducting MgB<sub>2</sub> samples to date are in the form of thin films, with reported values of  $H_{c2} \sim 39$  T,  $J_c(1T) \sim 10^6$  and  $J_c(10T) \sim 10^5$  with a  $T_c$  of 31-36K [2, 11, 57, 58].

Since superconductors are mainly used in magnets, emphasis is placed on making long lengths of wire. Superconducting wires are generally composite conductors with a superconducting core and a sheath made of a suitable metal. The sheath material plays a few key roles. It mechanically supports the superconductor which is usually brittle, it conducts thermal energy out to the cryogen during operation and in the case of MgB<sub>2</sub> it contains the volatile Mg during sintering. The sheath material chosen must therefore be ductile, chemically compatible and it must be a good thermal conductor. Multifilament wires are preferable because they can endure larger bending strains than monofilaments. The small diameters for the superconductors achieved in multifilament wires also lead to better thermal stability. The PIT (powder in tube) method is a common process used for making composite multifilament MgB<sub>2</sub> wires. In this process the precursor is in powder form and placed into a tube of a suitable sheath material. The tube is then drawn into a wire and sintered. The process can be carried out either in-situ, where the powders are reacted after being drawn into wires, or ex-situ, where already reacted powders are inserted into the tube before drawing. The in-situ process is preferred because it allows lower sintering temperature and a more controllable way to add dopants [44]. Hyper Tech Research has patented a modified PIT process called continuous tube forming/filling (CTFF) [27]. In this process the precursor is deposited on a strip of sheath material as

it is being formed into an overlap-closed tube. This allows for continuous formation of powder filled tube and thus continuous lengths of drawn filaments. Hyper Tech uses Nb as a reaction barrier and Cu and Cu-Ni alloys as sheath materials. Using this process, 0.8mm diameter wires have been made in up to 5 km lengths and there is ongoing research to make wires up to 30 km long. It is highly desirable to develop means of synthesizing suitably doped MgB<sub>2</sub> powder with high values of H<sub>c2</sub> for use in ex situ processing methods or appropriate mixtures of precursor powders from which suitably-doped MgB<sub>2</sub> is formed during in situ processing methods. This is the goal of the work described in this thesis.

## 2.5. Improving H<sub>c2</sub> – impurity scattering

In type-II superconductors the H<sub>c2</sub> value is directly related to the coherence length  $\xi$  according to Eq 2.4. The effective value of  $\xi$  of a doped or imperfect material is given by

$$\frac{1}{\xi} = \frac{1}{\xi_0} + \frac{1}{l} \quad \text{Eq 2.7}$$

where  $\xi_0$  is the coherence length of the pure material and  $l$  is the electron mean free path. If  $l \ll \xi_0$  the actual  $\xi$  becomes  $l$  and if  $\xi_0 \ll l$  it becomes  $\xi_0$ . The pure material coherence length is a constant of the material but the electron mean free path will become shorter with an increase in electron scattering. In a physical sense, the decreased  $\xi$  means that the diameter of the normal state flux line cores is smaller. So when a field is applied the material is able to contain more flux quanta without the overlapping of flux lines and thus the material can withstand a larger applied field. Researchers have taken advantage of this to increase the value of H<sub>c2</sub> for superconducting materials.

Creating disorder by irradiation with protons [59, 60] as well as neutrons [61, 62] and ball milling [63, 64] have all proven to increase H<sub>c2</sub>. These techniques cause damage and increase disorder and hence increase scattering. The other commonly used method is doping the sample with impurities. This has been used to improve H<sub>c2</sub> in the LTS and HTSC materials superconductors in the past and has shown potential in MgB<sub>2</sub>. Elements used in doping of MgB<sub>2</sub> include Sc and Al [65-68] which substitute for Mg in the lattice and C which replaces B [18, 69-71]. The major

drawback to all these reported experiments is the suppression of  $T_c$  with increases in scattering. This occurs because of interband scattering factors unique to the multiband  $MgB_2$  and, in the case of doping, addition of electrons or electron-holes which alter the density of states and the electron-phonon interactions. Carbon is the most promising of the chemical substitutions because of the dominant contribution of the B orbitals to the superconductivity of  $MgB_2$ , especially in the  $\sigma$  band which is confined to the boron  $ab$  plane. The work presented in this paper deals with issues surrounding the carbon doping of  $MgB_2$ .

## 2.6. Carbon doping- reactions, homogeneity and precursors

Common reactions that produce high-quality samples of homogeneous  $MgB_2$  do not result in the same homogeneity for C doped samples. In attempts to optimize this process carbon has been introduced by different means. These include the addition of SiC [72], nanoscale carbon [73], boron carbide ( $B_4C$ ) [69] and hydrocarbons like toluene and acetone [74] as well as the ball milling of precursor powders [64]. It usually requires high reaction temperature and long reactions to get all the added C into the  $MgB_2$  phase. This limits the ability to manipulate the microstructure of the superconductor for optimization of  $J_c$  and thermal stability. It is advantageous to create  $MgB_2$  with small grain sizes as the grain boundaries are important for flux pinning and preventing flux creep. Also fluctuating microstrains in the lattice that provides additional scattering are relieved in long, hot reactions. Another concern is the grain to grain homogeneity of dopant levels. The most common B-C phase is  $B_4C$  and this has been used frequently as a precursor for  $MgB_2$  synthesis. However this phase has a broad range of carbon concentration ranging from 7% to 20%. Dopant concentration in  $MgB_2$  is usually indicated by the value of  $x$  in the formula  $Mg(B_{1-x}C_x)_2$ . The predicted optimal value of  $x$  is  $\sim 0.07$  [69, 75] above which the gradient  $dH_{c2}/dx$  becomes negative. Therefore in a polycrystalline superconducting wire the measured critical fields and currents may be influenced by “weak” grains and not a true result of the average dopant concentration. Since the replacement of B by C in the crystal alters its average dimensions the lattice parameter, in particular that within the  $ab$  plane, the  $a$  parameter, as obtained from measured x-ray diffraction (XRD) spectra, is used as an indicator of  $x$  in a sample. Data from a systematic study on doped single crystal  $MgB_2$  [18] have been fitted to produce the relationship [64]

$$a = -0.3153x + 3.08439 \quad \text{Eq 2.8}$$

between the boron plane lattice parameter  $a$  and the concentration of carbon,  $x$ . The C addition has the effect of reducing  $a$  with little or no effect on the lattice parameter  $c$ , which characterizes the spacing between  $ab$  planes. The problem of homogeneity was investigated by Zambano et al [76] using the breadth, as characterized by the full width at half-maximum (FWHM) of the XRD peaks to calculate the residual root-mean-square microstrain which yields an estimate of the level of homogeneity of the doped sample.

The work in this thesis presents a unique method of preparing atomically mixed, nanoscale powders of B and C which are reacted with Mg to form C doped  $\text{MgB}_2$ . The small particle size and atomic mixing of elements is expected to aid in the production of homogeneously doped samples. The unique method of powder synthesis also results in metastable phases of B and C which could have further effects on the resulting superconductor.

### 3. Experimental Details

This experiment utilizes a unique fabrication process to synthesize nano-scale powder of carbon doped boron at the Center for Thermal Spray Research at Stony Brook University. Plasma spray is a thermal spray process that uses a hot plasma flame to melt and accelerate particles toward a substrate where they solidify upon impact. This process is usually employed to deposit functional coatings of alloys and ceramics on a substrate. In this process the raw materials are injected into a plasma torch which uses RF induction to create a dense plasma. The internal temperature of the plasma can exceed 10,000 °C. The powder synthesis process employed here is described by Marzik et al [77]. In this use of plasma spray the material is sprayed into a controlled chamber (~300Torr) where it solidifies. The torch used was a Tekna PL-50 and Ar was used as a sheath gas with a swirl flow ~30 standard liters per minute (SLPM) and a radial flow of ~70 SLPM.

The reactants inserted into the plasma were  $\text{BCl}_3$ ,  $\text{H}_2$  and  $\text{CH}_4$ . To ensure atomic mixing of the elements the reactants were all introduced in the gas phase with average flow rates of 5 SLPM, 12 SLPM and 0.100 SLPM respectively. When the gas mixture is exposed to the plasma the HCl and a B-C phase solidifies. The waste gas was pumped out through a water seal and the B-C powder was collected on a stainless steel screen. The particle size of the powder ranges from 2 to 50 nm and agglomerates into clusters that range from 1 to 50  $\mu\text{m}$  in size. The powders used in this experiment had a molar C composition of 4.52% with B.

This B-C powders made in this way have advantageous features for the synthesis of C doped  $\text{MgB}_2$ . The atomic mixing and the small particle size should assist in the homogeneity of the final C concentration. The powders are processed in violently with extreme temperature and rapid solidification. This quenches the powder in metastable phases of B and C which eliminates the variation of composition of the stable phase  $\text{B}_4\text{C}$  and may prove to have an effect on the formation of the  $\text{MgB}_2$  phase.

The powder described above is mixed with 325 mesh Mg powder from Alpha Aesar. Mg was added in excess of stoichiometry to account for losses due to its high vapor pressure. The mixture was then pressed into 6mm diameter pellets which were then wrapped in Ta foil and sealed in a stainless steel tube fitting. The samples were reacted at temperatures and times spanning those commonly used for  $\text{MgB}_2$  synthesis. The samples and reaction parameters are listed in Table 1. The reacted samples were brittle and a dull grayish-black color. Each sample was cut into 1 mm x 1 mm x 10 mm bars used for resistive measurements taken at the National High Magnetic Field

Laboratory at Florida State University. The remaining sample was crushed and used for powder x-ray diffraction.

<b>Sample</b>	<b>Reaction Time (hrs)</b>	<b>Sintering Temperature (°C)</b>
A	48	650
B	24	750
C	10	850
D	1	950
E	1	1050
F	1	1150

**Table 3.1** Reaction parameters for samples A-F

## 4. Results and Discussion

### 4.1. X-ray Diffraction

The x-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns, shown in Figure 4.1, reveal a dominant  $\text{MgB}_2$  phase and trace amounts of impurity phases. The presence of the impurity phases is most likely due to incomplete reaction due to loss of Mg or contamination from the stainless steel vessel. The peak shift due to carbon substitution was the same in all samples. The lattice parameter  $a$  as calculated by a least squares fit of the peak positions was used in Eq 2.8. The results showed good agreement with the full uptake of the nominal carbon ( $\sim 5\%$ ) present during reaction. The small differences lie within the estimated margin of error. However, since the all the differences showed a composition greater than the nominal this indicates that the C concentration in the plasma-sprayed powder may be higher than expected. Table 4.1 lists all the lattice parameter data. Evidently, the plasma-sprayed powder allows full incorporation of the carbon regardless of the heat treatment temperature.

A method for studying the homogeneity of the substitution of carbon for boron is the analysis of the residual strain as suggested by Zambano et al [76]. By using the Williamson-Hall (WH) method [78] one can differentiate the peak broadening effects of the grain size and strain, the latter presumably resulting from an inhomogeneous distribution of C. The breadth of the reciprocal lattice points ( $\beta^*$ ) and their distance from the origin ( $d^*$ ) are calculated from the full width at half maximum (W) of the peaks and the Bragg angle ( $\theta$ )

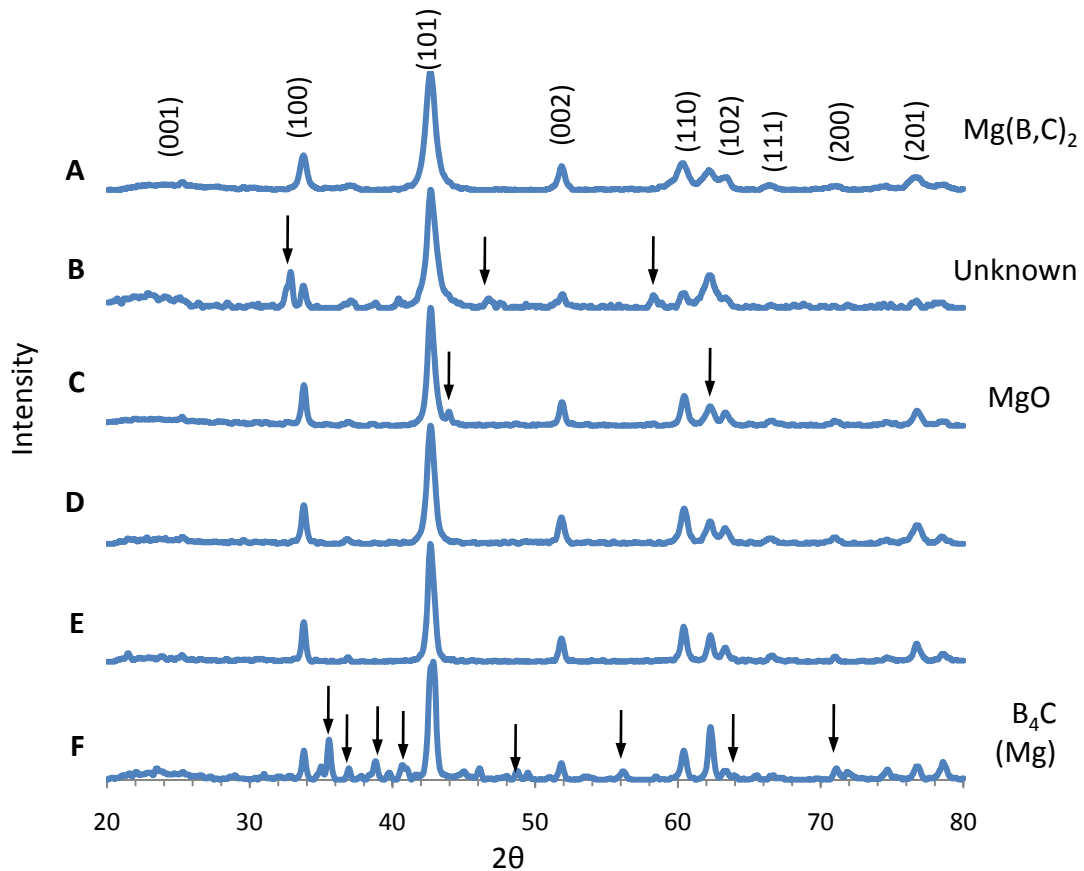
$$\beta^* = \frac{W \cos \theta}{\lambda} \quad \text{Eq 4.1}$$

$$d^* = \frac{2 \sin \theta}{\lambda} \quad \text{Eq 4.2}$$

where  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of the x-rays and is  $1.5418 \text{ \AA}$  for the Cu source used. Then  $\beta^*$  is plotted against  $d^*$ . These quantities are related by

$$\beta^* = \frac{1}{D} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} d^* \quad \text{Eq 4.3}$$

where  $D$  is the effective grain size and  $\varepsilon$  is the root-mean-square (rms) average of the fluctuating strain throughout a coherently-diffracting domain. Thus the plot of  $\beta^*$  versus  $d^*$  has slope of  $\varepsilon/2$  and intercepts the vertical axis at  $1/D$ . The four Bragg reflections used are (100), (101), (110) and (201). The effect of C addition in the  $\text{MgB}_2$  lattice is to decrease the  $a$  parameter with little or no effect on the  $c$  parameter. The fact that the  $a$  parameter is affected by the C content while the  $c$  parameter is not means that the (hk0) peaks will have more broadening than the (hk1) peaks and a linear fit of all four points is not expected. The strains are therefore analyzed by connecting two (hk0) data points with a straight line and likewise for the (hk1) points. The WH plots for samples A-F are given in Figure 4.2. The WH plots for pure  $\text{MgB}_2$  found in the literature show a residual strain close to 0.4% [76]. In this case the rms-microstrains are presumably caused by dislocations, stacking faults and other crystal structure defects rather than inhomogeneously distributed solute atoms.



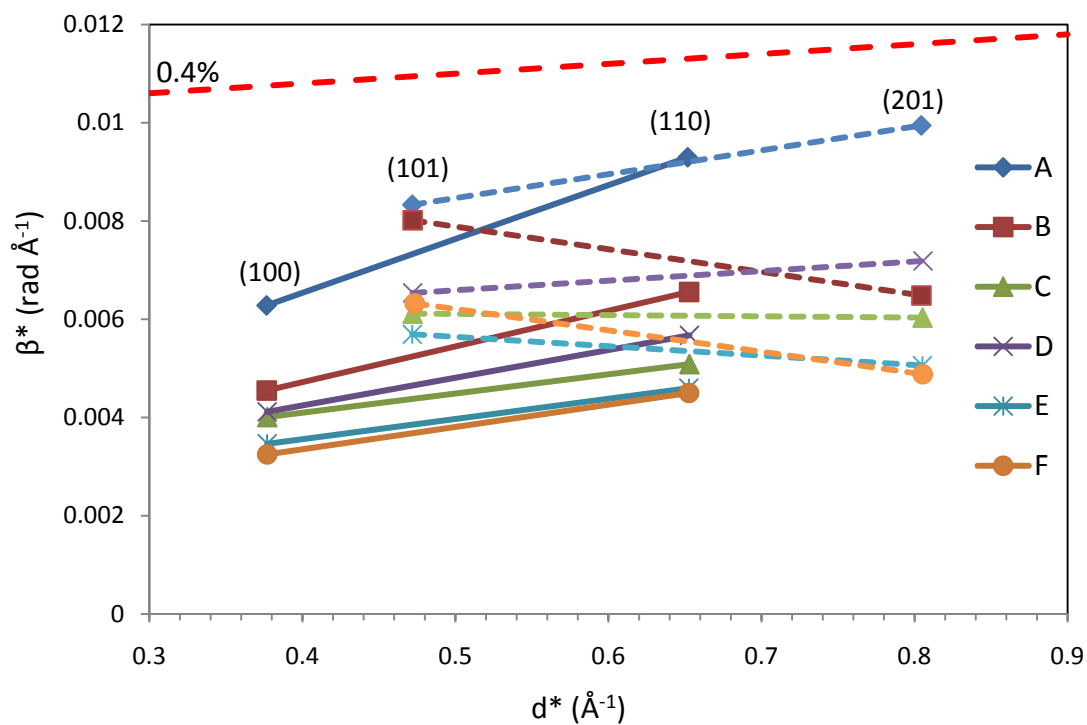
**Figure 4.1** X-ray diffraction data are shown for samples A-F. The spectra have been offset to provide clarity. The peak positions for the  $\text{MgB}_2$  phase are indicated in the spectra for sample A and other impurity phases are labeled in the spectra they appear the strongest.



<i>Sample</i>	<i>a</i> (Å)	<i>c</i> (Å)	<i>Nominal</i> <i>x</i>	<i>Calculated</i> <i>X</i>
A	3.068(5)	3.526(6)	0.045	0.052
B	3.066(5)	3.525(5)	0.045	0.058
C	3.065(5)	3.528(5)	0.045	0.061
D	3.065(5)	3.531(5)	0.045	0.061
E	3.066(5)	3.531(5)	0.045	0.058
F	3.065(6)	3.529(7)	0.045	0.061

**Table 4.1** Lattice parameters *a* and *c* from the peak positions in XRD spectra. The nominal C concentration *x* and the calculated *x* (Eq 2.8) are also listed.

The data, especially the (201) data, are slightly scattered but the data sets show a slightly greater strain than 0.4%. However, this is much lower than the massive strains seen in similarly sintered Al-doped [76] that were caused by large concentration gradients of the alloying element. The WH plots give evidence to the homogeneous alloying that results from the plasma spray precursor. The (hk0) plots display a trend of decreasing strain with increasing reaction temperature below 950°C. This trend is not seen in the pure material data and could be a feature of disorder which is reduced by annealing at high temperatures. Moreover, the XRD patterns show presence of the B-C equilibrium phase B<sub>4</sub>C in sample F. Since the B-C precursor is nanoscale and has low atomic mass elements, any unreacted B and C would not give sharp peaks but would contribute to the “hump” seen at low angles. This B and C form crystalline B<sub>4</sub>C when annealed at high temperature.



**Figure 4.2** Williamson-Hall plots are shown for samples A-F. The samples and the diffraction peaks are indicated on the plot. The red dashed line to the top shows  $\varepsilon = 0.004$  for comparison.

## 4.2. Resistivity Measurements

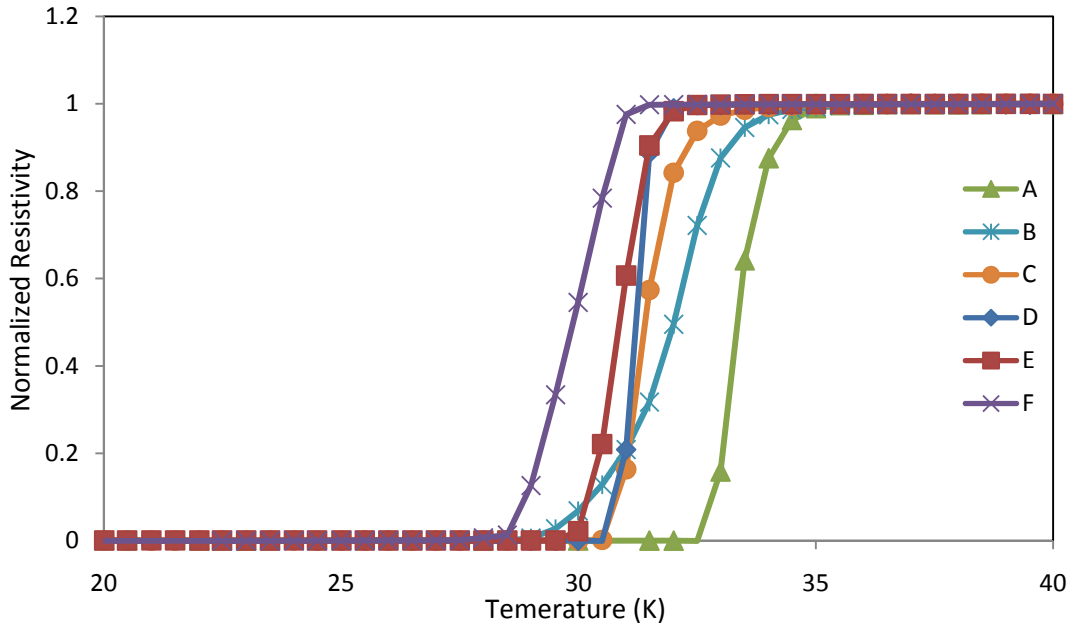
The resistivity of the 1 mm x 1mm x 10 mm bars was measured while being cooled from 300 K to 20 K in self field. All samples showed sharp transitions between 33 K and 29 K with transition widths ranging from 2 to 5 K. The presence of carbon and other imperfections is known to reduce  $T_c$ . The difference in  $T_c$  here is small and could be explained by a slightly increased amount of carbon in the  $MgB_2$  phase (as evidenced in the lattice parameter analysis) when annealed at high temperature. The  $T_c$  data is shown in Figure 4.3. The range of  $T_c$ s obtained is in good agreement with similar dopant concentrations in single crystal data [18] and with the XRD data given above, which also suggests low levels of interband scattering unlike the ball-milled material [64].

The  $H_{c2}$  measurements were taken at varying temperatures and up to 9 T. The  $H_{c2}$  values are plotted against temperature in Figure 4.4. The trend observed is the same as the  $T_c$  where higher reaction temperatures lead to lower  $H_{c2}$ . A linear extrapolation gives  $H_{c2}$  at 0 K to be  $\sim 32$  T for the best sample. The elevated  $H_{c2}$  values are excellent for the incorporated carbon content especially in sample A which was reacted at the lowest temperature. The slope  $dH_{c2}/dT$  does not increase, but instead the entire curves shift upward which is consistent with constant alloying and resistivity.

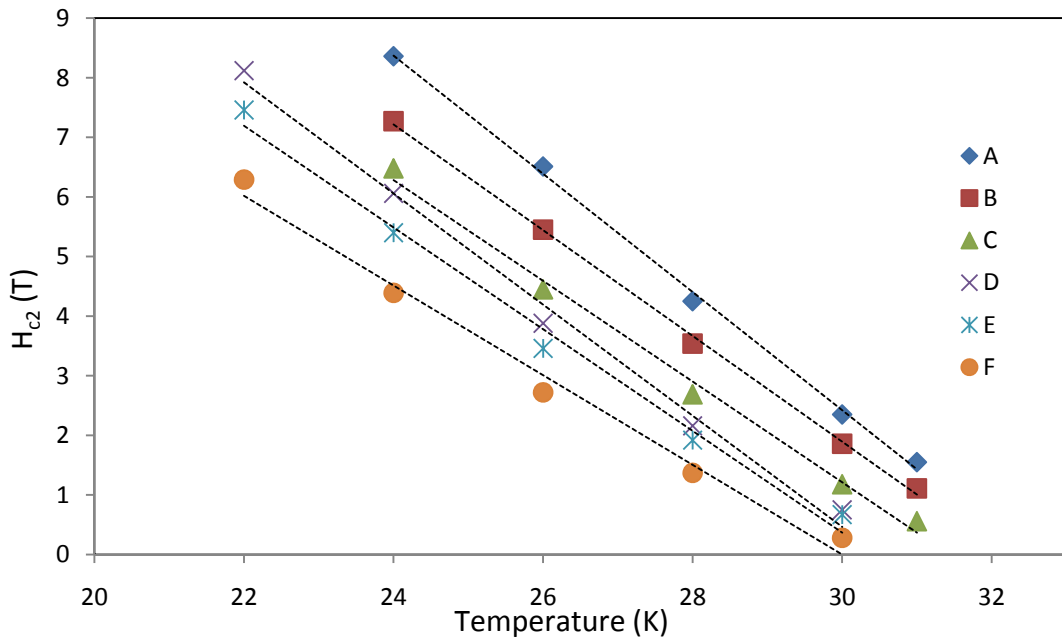
The  $H_{c2}$  of a dirty superconductor is related to the  $T_c$  and normal state resistivity ( $\rho_n$ ) by the Werthamer-Helfand-Hohenburg (WHH) equation

$$H_{c2}(0K) = 3110\rho_n\gamma T_c \quad \text{Eq 4.4}$$

where  $\gamma$  is the Sommerfeld coefficient of specific heat and can be considered constant in this case. The addition of impurities affects both  $\rho_n$  and  $T_c$ . In the case of carbon substitution in  $MgB_2$  the effect of the  $T_c$  is due to the lattice parameter shift and the additional electrons affecting the density of states. The balancing act of increasing  $\rho_n$  and reducing  $T_c$  is seen in the data from these samples. The B-C powder used in this experiment has potential of significantly increasing the high field performance in  $MgB_2$  in the 20-30 K range.



**Figure 4.3** The superconducting transitions at self field for samples A-F. The resistivity is normalized to aid comparison of the transition temperatures.



**Figure 4.4**  $H_{c2}$  versus  $T$  for samples A-F. The straight line fit for all plots are shown by dotted lines.

Using the Rowell analysis [79] of the normal state resistivity of  $\text{MgB}_2$  allows the normalization of the resistivity in terms of the area fraction of superconductor. This is useful to compare the superconducting material made in different reactions. The results of this analysis on samples A through F gave inconsistent results over a few orders of magnitude. This is most likely a result of the porosity and cracking from mechanical stress during sample preparation and the impurity phases seen in the XRD spectra. The preferred method of sintering is by using an isostatic hot press. This would ensure dense material and well connected grains by applying pressure throughout the reaction. This was attempted but was not successful due to equipment malfunction. The residual resistivity ratio (RRR) defined as  $\rho(300 \text{ K}) / \rho(40 \text{ K})$  was similar for all samples. This is another indicator of the ability to consistently add carbon at different temperatures using the plasma-sprayed powder.

## 5. Conclusion

The plasma spray synthesis of carbon doped boron provides a unique avenue for the production of high field superconducting MgB<sub>2</sub>. The combination of gaseous reactants, high temperature and rapid solidification provides a nanoscale powder containing metastable phases of B and C. The microstrain, lattice parameter, critical temperature and normal state resistivity measurements are all consistent with uniform incorporation of carbon at all reaction temperatures. The results for samples sintered at low temperatures are particularly desirable for wire fabrication. This method of carbon doping has potential to make MgB<sub>2</sub> the preferred superconductor for high – field applications in the 20-30 K range. The precursor powder can be used for both *in situ* and *ex situ* PIT processes, including the CTFP process used by Hyper Tech Research. The attributes of this doping method can also provide insight into the multiband effects in MgB<sub>2</sub> and possibly additional means of improving its high field performance.

There are still more studies to be done on this process in order to achieve the full scale use of MgB<sub>2</sub> wires. The plasma spray powder should be studied to understand phase composition created during the plasma spray process. This may help in understanding the impurity phases that appear at high temperatures may block current and reduce the H<sub>c2</sub> values of these samples and provide methods to reduce this effect. The nanoscale particle size and low elemental can be studied using electron energy loss spectroscopy and synchrotron light source radiation. The sintering process needs improvement to made dense, well-connected samples for more quantifiable superconducting property data.

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