# SRF CAVITIES BEYOND NIOBIUM: CHALLENGES AND POTENTIAL\*

S. Posen<sup>†</sup> and M. Liepe

Cornell Laboratory for Accelerator-Based Sciences and Education, Ithaca, NY, USA

#### Abstract

With niobium cavities now approaching the fundamental limits of the material, SRF researchers have begun a significant R&D effort to develop alternative materials to continue to keep up with the demands of new accelerator facilities. In this paper, the benefits of new materials are explored, as well as the critiria for selecting superconductors to use for SRF applications. The materials Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn and MgB<sub>2</sub> are discussed in detail, including an exciting new result from a Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn cavity that shows the great potential of alternative SRF materials. NbN and multilayers are also briefly discussed. The current status and the outlook for the future of alternative materials are reviewed.

# WHY LOOK BEYOND NIOBIUM?

To accelerate beams of charged particles, superconducting radio-frequency (SRF) cavities are the technology of choice for many facilities. They can reach large accelerating gradients  $E_{acc}$  on the order of tens of MV/m, and though they require cryogenics for cooling below the superconducting transition temperature  $T_c$  of the material they are made from, they achieve high wall-power-to-beampower efficiency due to their small surface resistances  $R_s$ . Modern SRF facilities use cavities made of niobium, either formed from bulk sheets, or sputtered in films onto copper. Early niobium cavities could operate at only small gradients of a few MV/m, but through years of research, preparation techniques were developed to avoid non-fundamental limitations, such as multipacting and field emission [1]. State-of-the-art production methods regularly produce cavities that operate very close to the fundamental limits of niobium: they have surface resistances  $R_s$  very close to the ideal BCS value at operating temperatures, and they sustain electromangetic fields very close to the material's superheating field  $B_{sh}$ , the field at which vortices penetrate the superconductor-creating unmanageable levels of heating in RF fields-for an ideal surface [2]. In Fig. 1, the qualification curve of a high-performing TESLA 9-cell niobium cavity (the proposed cavity design for ILC) is plotted. The curve tracks two figures of merit:  $E_{acc}$  and  $Q_0$ , which is inversely proportional to  $R_s$ . It shows that this cavity performs very close to the fundamental limits of the material.

To continue to keep up with continually increasing demands of future accelerator driven sciences, SRF researchers have begun a significant effort to develop alternative materials, chosen to have higher fundamental limits

\* Work supported by DOE award number DE-SC0002329.

ISBN 978-3-95450-138-0

t topyright topyright Copyright topyright

0

Figure 1:  $Q_0$  vs  $E_{acc}$  for a High Performing ILC 9-cell Niobium Cavity [3]. The maximum  $E_{acc}$  and the  $Q_0$  over the entire range are very close to the fundamental limits of the material.



than niobium. The optimal material may depend on the type of facility. For low-duty-cycle high energy linacs, an alternative material would be chosen that can sustain very large surface magnetic fields, as this is what fundamentally limits  $E_{acc}$ , and therefore sets the minimum number of cavities requied to reach a given energy. On the other hand, for modern CW SRF linac designs, cryogenics is the cost driver, not the number of cavities. For niobium, low  $R_s$  operation requires the cavity to be cooled to  $\sim 2$  K, where cryogenic efficiency often pushes the cost-optimum arrangement to using only modest gradients, because losses go quadratically with  $E_{acc}$ . At ~2 K, cavities made from an alternative material with lower  $R_s$  than niobium would have smaller losses at a given  $E_{acc}$ , so they would allow the cryogenic plant to be smaller and require less grid power, or they could operate at higher gradients, and therefore require fewer cavities. Furthermore, the temperature dependent part of  $R_s$  scales with  $e^{-T_c/T}$ , so if the alternative material had a large  $T_c$ , low  $R_s$  operation could be possible at 4.2 K, greatly simplifying the cryogenic plant by allowing it to operate at atmospheric pressure. Low  $R_s$  operation at even higher temperatures would open up the possibility of using helium gas for cooling.

Long term R&D will be needed to reach the full potential of these alternative materials, but already new results (which will be shown later) on a Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn cavity fabricated by Cornell show performances now superior to niobium for some applications requiring modest fields only.

> 07 Accelerator Technology T07 - Superconducting RF

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>†</sup> sep93@cornell.edu

# WHAT PROPERTIES TO LOOK FOR IN ALTERNATIVE MATERIALS?

To determine which superconductors are viable candidates for producing high-performing SRF cavities, one should look for certain properties. To achieve large  $E_{acc}$ , a large superheating field  $B_{sh}$  is desirable, as this is the relevant critical field for RF applications. This is different from  $B_{irr}$ —the irreversibility field at which at which vortices that have penetrated into the sample become depinnedwhich is relevant for magnet applications. In SRF cavities, the objective is to exclude flux, not to pin it inside the superconductor; pinned normal conducting vortex cores dissipate strongly in RF fields. It is energetically favorable for vortices to be inside the superconductor above the first critical field  $B_{c1}$ , and only an energy barrier prevents flux penetration above this field. For an ideal surface, the barrier disappears at  $B_{sh}$ , making it the ultimate limit for SRF applications, but surface defects with size on the order of the coherence length  $\xi$ —roughly, the spacial amplitude of the superconducting wavefunction-can reduce the barrier to vortex penetration, such that fields close to  $B_{sh}$  cannot be realized without vortex entry. It is therefore important to have a large enough  $\xi$  to not be affected by small defects that would be present even on a well prepared surface, e.g. grain boundaries. It has been an open question how large of  $\xi$  is large enough—niobium cavities have reached fields quite close to  $B_{sh}$  and its  $\xi$  is ~20 nm—but recent results (presented in a later section) on a Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn cavity have shown that operation well into the metastable regime where only the energy barrier prevents vortex penetration is possible for  $\xi \sim 3$  nm.

For small  $R_s$ , one must first consider the temperaturedependent surface resistance from BCS theory,  $R_{BCS}$ . As discussed previously,  $R_{BCS} \propto e^{-T_c/T}$ , so it is important for materials to have high  $T_c$ . Materials that have small  $R_{BCS}$ also tend to have small normal resistivity  $\rho_n$  [4]. However, there is also a temperature independent part of  $R_s$ , the "residual resistance"  $R_{res}$ :  $R_s(T) = R_{BCS}(T) + R_{res}$ . The factors contributing to  $R_{res}$  are not well understood, but previous SRF experience has made it clear that weak links between grains contribute to large  $R_{res}$  [1].

To be useful for cavity operation, alternative materials must also possess the following qualities: 1) it must be possible to fabricate it in a way that it conforms to a complex geometry over large area; 2) it must have decent thermal conductivity (and be able to be deposited on a substrate with decent thermal conductivity) for cooling to avoid thermal runaway; 3) it must have minimal surface roughness to avoid field enhancement; 4) it must be able to be made clean (for example, it cannot release potentially field emitting dust, and there must be a method to clean surface contaminants without affecting quality).

Some of the most promising alternative SRF materials and relevant properties are shown in Table 1, along with those of niobium. Experimental references for these properties were chosen to try to display realistic properties for Table 1: Material Properties of Niobium and Three Promising Alternative SRF Materials. The penetration depth  $\lambda$  is calculated using Eqn 3.131 in [5]. The coherence length  $\xi$ is calculated using the equations in [6]. For Nb a RRR of 10 was assumed. For MgB<sub>2</sub>,  $\lambda$  and  $\xi$  are not calculated, as the experimental values are given in the reference.  $B_{sh}$ for Nb is found from [7] and for others calculated from [2]. For  $B_{sh}$  calculations,  $B_c = \phi_0/(2\sqrt{2}\pi\xi\lambda)$  is used, where  $\phi_0$  is the flux quantum [5]. Nb data from [8], Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn data from [9], NbN data from [10], and MgB<sub>2</sub> data from [11] and [12]. Note that the two gap nature of MgB<sub>2</sub> may require more careful analysis than is performed here.

Material	$\lambda(0)$	$\xi(0)$	$B_{sh}$	$T_c$	$\rho_n$
	[nm]	[nm]	[mT]	[K]	$[\mu\Omega cm]$
Nb	50	22	210	9.2	2
Nb <sub>3</sub> Sn	111	4.2	410	18	8
MgB <sub>2</sub>	185	4.9	210	40	0.1
NbN	375	2.9	160	16	144

#### Potential and Challenges

Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn is a material with tremendous potential for SRF applications. It has extremely small  $R_s$ , as a result of its small  $\rho_n$  and large  $T_c \sim 18$  K (twice as high as niobium), as well as its small  $R_{res}$ , shown in cavity measurements [13]. It also is an excellent candidate for achieving large  $E_{acc}$ , with very large predicted  $B_{sh} \sim 400$  mT (again twice as high as niobium), and a decent  $\xi \sim 3-4$  nm. Furthermore, it can be coated onto niobium substrates, allowing existing niobium cavities to be upgraded. It is also non-reactive with water, and it adheres strongly to niobium when coated onto it, so that Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn cavities can be cleaned using the high-pressure-water-rinsing methods developed for niobium.

 $Nb_3Sn$  is brittle, and it has low thermal conductivity, so it has to be used in film form. Therefore it faces challenges associated with using SRF films. These are detailed in a later section.

## Preparation Methods

The Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn fabrication method that has produced the most encouraging SRF results is vapor diffusion. The technique was developed at Siemens AG [14] and University of Wuppertal [15], and it is now being employed by researchers at Cornell University [16] and Jefferson Lab [17]. A niobium cavity is placed in an ultra-high-vacuum furnace with a small amount of tin. The temperatures of both are

755

raised to around 1000°C, so that the tin has a high enough vapor pressure to reach the cavity, and once it reaches the surface, the temperature is high enough to encourage diffusion and alloying.

Researchers at several institutions have recently attempted to fabricate  $Nb_3Sn$  using other methods: liquid tin dipping and multilayer sputtering at INFN [18]; cathodic arc deposition at Alameda Applied Sciences Corp. [19]; and pulsed laser deposition at KEK [20] (note that AASC and KEK fabricated MgB<sub>2</sub> via the same methods). However, so far these studies have not produced encouraging RF results.

#### **Development Status**

Jefferson Lab has fabricated Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn samples with excellent  $T_c$ . They have also performed low-field  $R_s$  measurements in a 7.4 GHz host cavity. A dedicated furnace has been delivered, and is currently being commissioned to coat full single-cell cavities. The apparatus is shown in Fig. 2.



JLab-Design JLab-Commissioning Cornell-Design Cornell-Commissioning Cornell-Coating



The Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn program at Cornell University (see coating apparatus in Fig. 2) has been ongoing for several years, and recently produced its second 1.3 GHz cavity, shown in Fig. 3, which showed exceptional performance in RF test [16]. As shown in Fig. 4, it achieved fields  $\sim 12$  MV/m at 4.2 K with a  $Q_0$  of  $10^{10}$ , 20 times higher than niobium. It is the first alternative material accelerator cavity to achieve significantly smaller  $R_s$  than niobium at useful gradients and temperatures. Previous Nb3Sn cavities suffered from a strong increase in  $R_s$  with field, leading to speculation that the coherence length was too small, causing the barrier to vortex penetration to fail at surface imperfections. However, this new cavity proves that even with a  $\xi$  of only  $\sim$  3 nm, the energy barrier prevents observable vortex dissipation, the first clear indication that such a small  $\xi$  will not cause a fundamental limitation for cavities made from alternative materials.

# MAGNESIUM DIBORIDE

## Potential and Challenges

 $MgB_2$  was discovered relatively recently, so it is not as well developed as  $Nb_3Sn$ , but it also has exciting poten-



Figure 3: Cavity coated with Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn at Cornell (left); view looking down into cavity before (top right) and after coating (bottom right). Notice the dark, matte gray appearance of the Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn coating.



Figure 4:  $Q_0$  vs  $E_{acc}$  for Cornell's Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn cavity. At 10 MV/m, the  $Q_0$  is a factor of 20 times higher than Nb at 4.2K. The maximum surface magnetic field is approximately 2 times higher than  $B_{c1}$ =27±5 mT, which was calculated using Ginzburg Landau theory from measured material parameters.

tial. With a  $T_c$  of approximately 40 K, and a small  $\rho_n$ , it can have a very small  $R_{BCS}$  even well above liquid helium temperatures. Its superheating field is not clear at this early stage of development, but it could range from ~200-600 mT, depending on the material properties. More development of SRF-quality MgB<sub>2</sub> films is needed to make a better estimate. It also has a decent  $\xi \sim 5$  nm.

There are some challenges to developing MgB<sub>2</sub> as an SRF material. In fabrication, it is necessary to obtain a very small oxygen background in the coating chamber, as the magnesium is highly reactive with it. The coatings also react with water, which makes cleaning difficult. It might be necessary to coat an additional dielectric "capping" layer to allow a MgB<sub>2</sub> cavity to be cleaned. Additionally, because it is a two-gap material, its  $R_s$  is predicted to increase with field, but there might be methods to reduce this effect [21]. MgB<sub>2</sub>, like Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn is being developed in film form, so it will have the same film challenges detailed in a later section.

07 Accelerator Technology T07 - Superconducting RF

756

#### **Preparation Methods**

Excellent preliminary results have been obtained using hybrid physical chemical vapor deposition at Temple University [22] and using reactive co-sputtering at Superconducting Technologies Inc. (STI) [23].

#### **Development Status**

Coating of accelerator cavities with MgB<sub>2</sub> is being developed by X. Xi at Temple University [22]. Studies of samples produced at Temple have repeatably shown films with  $T_c$  very close to the ideal literature value, and  $\rho_n$  of only 0.1  $\mu\Omega$ cm [12]. Encouraging RF results have been obtained by researchers at Los Alamos and MIT Lincoln labs on MgB<sub>2</sub> stripline and dielectric resonators fabricated by STI, as shown in Fig. 5. Measurements still need to be done at smaller frequencies to determine if  $R_{res}$  can be small enough for SRF cavities, and if this can be maintained up to useful fields.



Figure 5: RF measurements of MgB<sub>2</sub> stripline and dielectric resonators show excellent  $R_s$  at high temperatures and high frequencies. Experimental data from D. Oates [23]. Note that scaling of the data from high frequencies may significantly underestimate the residual resistance at 2.2 GHz.

#### NIOBIUM NITRIDE

With a high  $T_c \sim 15-17$  K, the  $\delta$  phase of NbN has the potential to have  $R_{BCS}$  significantly smaller than niobium. For the relatively dirty films that are generally produced, it has a predicted  $B_{sh}$  of only around 150-200 mT, with a decent  $\xi \sim 3$  nm. However, one additional argument in favor of pursuing NbN is that it might be possible to coat large niobium cavities in existing UHV furnaces-one of the methods of producing NbN involves bringing niobium to high temperatures in the presence of nitrogen gas, then quickly cooling it [24].

NbN has a very complex phase diagram, which makes it very challenging to achieve the superconducting  $\delta$  phase. This is achievable with sputtering, but with heat treatment in a nitrogen atmosphere, no reliable procedure has been developed that could be applied to cavities. Recently an  $R_s$  reduction was observed in niobium cavities that were treated with nitrogen gas in a UHV furnace at Fermilab, and it was initially speculated that the cause was the growth of superconducting NbN. However,  $T_c$  and XRD measurements of samples revealed that another mechanism must have been responsible [25]. Another challenge is  $R_{res}$  tests of sputtered NbN have shown a relatively high value. Additional investigations are needed to determine if this can be avoided.

# **MULTILAYERS**

In 2006, A. Gurevich proposed that bulk films of alternative materials would be inferior to "SIS multilayer" films, which consist of alternating layers of thin superconductor (S) and insulator (I) on top of bulk superconductor, as shown in Fig. 6 [26]. It was suggested that the enhancement of the critical fields in thin films would help smallmaterials to avoid vortex penetration from small surface defects. Several labs over the world have made excellent progress in the difficult process of fabricating SIS films, including CEA [27], Argonne [28], JLab [29], William and Mary [30], and Grenoble IPT [31]. However, recent theoretical work has shown that compared to bulk films, SIS multilayers can offer only a small enhancement of the superheating field, and only for a small parameter range [32].



Figure 6: SIS multilayer structure proposed to protect alternative materials from vortex penetration. New theoretical work suggests that multilayers will not be superior to bulk films. Image adapted from [26].

# FILM CHALLENGES

The alternative materials being researched are primarily used in film form over metal substrates. There are unique challenges associated with SRF films that are not encountered in cavities made form bulk material. The cooldown of a film cavity must be done slowly and uniformly to avoid temperature gradients over the surface. Gradients can cause thermocurrents due to the interface of the two materials, which in turn can create and trap flux that causes excess  $R_{res}$ . This also means that after a quench, the cavity must be warmed above  $T_c$  and cooled slowly again to regain a small  $R_s$ . Films cavities have fewer options available in case of a contaminated surface after coating-because the film is usually only a few µm thick, only light chemistry is available to clean the surface. Large cavities also present a significant challenge with films, since applying a film to a completed structure requires a very large coating apparatus. Coating pieces before welding is not possible in most cases because this would destroy the quality of the film at the weld.

# **OTHER MATERIALS**

Other potentially promising materials not presented here but for which there has been some recent activity include V<sub>3</sub>Si, Mo<sub>3</sub>Re [33], and Nb<sub>3</sub>GaAl [34]. In addition, though they have very complex structures, the oxypnictides are an exciting possibility. More research is needed into these materials to understand if they might be useful for SRF applications.

#### CONCLUSIONS

Alternative SRF materials offer lower  $R_s$ , higher  $T_c$ , and higher  $B_{sh}$  than niobium. Cavities made from these materials would be much more cryogenicically efficient (likely a factor of 10-100), and they are predicted to reach higher gradients (up to a factor of  $\sim$ 2), meaning that fewer cavities would be required to reach a given beam energy. Many labs worldwide are contributing to the effort, and while it is expected to be a long term R&D project, there has been significant progress recently. A Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn cavity produced at Cornell achieved a breakthrough performance: at 4.2 K and  $\sim 12$  MV/m, it had a  $Q_0$  of  $10^{10}$ , 20 times higher than Nb, making it the first alternative material accelerator cavity to far outperform niobium at useful gradients and temperatures. MgB<sub>2</sub> is also showing great promise in smallscale RF tests, and the first MgB2 accelerator cavities are planned to be produced soon.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors would like to express sincere thanks to the following contributors: Grigory Eremeev, JLab; Anne-Marie Valente-Feliciano, JLab; Enzo Palmieri, INFN; Xiaoxing Xi, Temple U.; Tsuyoshi Tajima, Los Alamos; Shinji Mitsunobu, KEK; Claire Antoine, CEA; Rosa Lukaszew, William and Mary; Daniel Oates, MIT Lincoln Labs; Mahadevan Krishnan, Alameda Applied Sciences Corp.; Franois Weiss, Institut Polytechnique de Grenoble. The authors would also like to thank authors of previous very helpful alternative SRF materials summaries, such as [35], [36], [37], [38], [21], and [39].

## REFERENCES

- [1] H. Padamsee, J. Knobloch, and T. Hays, RF Superconductivity for Accelerators, Wiley & Sons, New York, ISBN 0-471-15432-6, 1998.
- [2] M. Transtrum, G. Catelani, and J. Sethna, Phys. Rev. B 83, 094505 (2011).
- [3] A. Yamamoto, MOIOA02 (Presented at the SRF Conference, Chicago, USA, 2011).
- [4] Vaglio, Particle Accelerators 61, 391 (1998).
- [5] M. Tinkham, Introduction to Superconductivity (New York: Dover, 1996).

- [6] T. Orlando, et al., Phys. Rev. B 19, 4545 (1979).
- [7] A. J. Dolgert, S. J. Di Bartolo, and A. T. Dorsey, Phys. Rev. B 53, 5650 (1996); Phys. Rev. B 56, 2883 (1997).
- [8] B. Maxfield and W. McLean, Phys. Rev. 139, A1515 (1965).
- [9] M. Hein, High-Temperature Superconductor Thin Films at Microwave Frequencies (Berlin: Springer, 1999).
- [10] D. Oates, et al., Phys. Rev. B 43, 7655 (1991).
- [11] Y. Wang, T. Plackowski, and A. Junod, Physica C 355, 179 (2001).
- [12] X.X. Xi, et al., Physica C, 456, 22-37, (2007).
- [13] D. Proch, TESLA Report, TESLA 2000-15 (2000).
- [14] B. Hillenbrand et al., IEEE Trans. Mag. 13, 481 (1997).
- [15] G. Müller et al. EPAC 1996. p. 2085.
- [16] S. Posen and M. Liepe, TUP087 (Presented at the SRF Conference, Paris, France, 2013).
- [17] G. Eremeev et al., TUP071 (Presented at the SRF Conference, Paris, France, 2013).
- [18] S. Deambrosis, Ph.D. Thesis, University of Padua (2008).
- [19] M. Krishnan, C. James and B. Bures, (Presented at the TF-SRF Workshop, Newport News, USA, 2012).
- [20] S. Mitsunobu, (Presented at the TFSRF Workshop, Padua, Italy, 2010).
- [21] X. X. Xi, Supercond. Sci. Technol. 22, 043001 (2009).
- [22] T. Tan, et al., TUP089, (Presented at the SRF Conference, Paris, France, 2013).
- [23] T. Tajima, WEIOB01, (Presented at the SRF Conference, Paris, France, 2013).
- [24] G. Gemme et al., J. App. Phys. 77 (1995).
- [25] Y. Trenikhina, A. Grassellino, and A. S. Romanenko, TUP065, (Presented at the SRF Conference, Paris, France, 2013).
- [26] A. Gurevich, App. Phys. Lett. 88, 012511 (2006).
- [27] C. Antoine, J.-C. Villegier, and G. Martinet, APL 102, 102603 (2013).
- [28] T. Proslier et al., WEIOC03, (Presented at the SRF Conference, Paris, France, 2013).
- [29] A.-M. Valente Feliciano et al., TUP088, (Presented at the SRF Conference, Paris, France, 2013).
- [30] W. M. Roach et al., IEEE Trans. App. SC., VOL. 23, NO. 3, JUNE 2013.
- [31] F. Weiss et al., TUP081, (Presented at the SRF Conference, Paris, France, 2013).
- [32] S. Posen et al., WEIOC04 (Presented at the SRF Conference, Paris, France, 2013).
- [33] S. Deambrosis et al., Physica C 441 (2006) 108-113.
- [34] A. Romero, Ph.D. Thesis, University of Padua (2011).
- [35] A.-M. Valente Feliciano, (Presented at the SRF Conference, Beijing, China, 2007).
- [36] G. Eremeev, TUOBAU08, (Presented at the SRF Conference, Berlin, Germany, 2009).
- [37] A. Gurevich, (Presented at the TFSRF Workshop, Newport News, USA, 2008).
- [38] T. Tajima et al., IEEE Trans. on Appl. Supercond., Vol. 17, No. 2 (2007).
- [39] P. Kneisel, JLAB-TN-12-016 (2012).

ISBN 978-3-95450-138-0