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1 *Review*

2 **Alternating current loss of superconductors applied** 3 **to superconducting electrical machines**

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10 **Abstract:** Superconductor technology has recently attracted increasing attention in power
11 generation and electrical propulsion related domains, as it provides a solution to the limited power
12 density seen by the core component, electrical machines. Superconducting machines, characterized
13 by both high power density and high efficiency, can effectively reduce the size and mass compared
14 to conventional machine designs. This opens the way to large scale purely electrical applications,
15 e.g., all-electrical aircraft. Alternating current (AC) loss of superconductors caused by time-varying
16 transport currents or magnetic fields (or both) has impaired the efficiency and reliability of
17 superconducting machines, bringing severe challenges to the cryogenic systems, too. Although
18 much research has been conducted in terms of the qualitative and quantitative analysis of AC loss
19 and its reduction methods, AC loss remains a crucial problem for the design of highly efficient
20 superconducting machines, especially for those operating at high speeds for future aviation. Given
21 that a critical review on the research advancement regarding the AC loss of superconductors has
22 not been reported during the last dozen years, especially combined with electrical machines, this
23 paper aims to clarify its research status and provide a useful reference for researchers working on
24 superconducting machines. The adopted superconducting materials, analytical formulae,
25 modelling methods, measurement approaches, as well as reduction techniques for AC loss of low
26 temperature superconductors (LTSs) and high temperature superconductors (HTSs) in both low
27 and high frequency fields have been systematically analyzed and summarized. Based on the
28 authors' previous research on AC loss characteristics of HTS coated conductors (CCs), stacks, and
29 coils at high frequencies, the challenges for the existing AC loss quantification methods have been
30 elucidated, and multiple suggestions with respect to the AC loss reduction in superconducting
31 machines have been put forward. This article systematically reviews the qualitative and
32 quantitatively analysis methods of AC loss as well as its reduction techniques in superconductors
33 applied to electrical machines for the first time. It is believed to help deepen the understanding of
34 AC loss and deliver a helpful guideline for the future development of superconducting machines
35 and applied superconductivity.

36 **Keywords:** Alternating current loss; superconducting machine; low/high temperature
37 superconductor; analytical formula; modelling method; measurement approach; loss reduction
38 technique; non-sinusoidal electromagnetic environment.

40 **1. Introduction**

41 Electrical machines are the key component of the power industry and have been extensively
42 employed in power generation, transportation, defense, industrial electrical automation, as well as
43 household appliances, etc. [1, 2]. Electrical generators produce virtually all artificial electrical energy
44 on Earth, and electric motors are responsible for approximately 40% of overall power consumption

45 all over the world [3]. With the progress of worldwide industrialization and urbanization, the
46 electricity demand is increasing rapidly, which has brought a negative impact on the global
47 environment, due to the consumption of natural resources like fossil fuels [4]. Therefore, the
48 electromechanical energy conversion efficiency and energy utilization efficiency of electrical
49 machines are crucial to green energy and sustainable energy strategies. However, despite many
50 attempts to improve the efficiency and power density of conventional machines [5-8], their
51 incremental advances have not brought about a fundamental qualitative change. For instance,
52 although the existing electrical machine technologies have satisfied the development of electric
53 vehicles [9-10], they cannot achieve the step change in power density required for electric aircraft and
54 marine transport [11]. In wind turbines, the use of direct drive eliminates the need for a mechanical
55 gearbox, but the low speed high torques encountered in renewable energy converters results in a
56 very large-diameter machine with high mass [12-13]. Both transport and energy sectors are
57 experiencing an electrical revolution in the transition to net zero emissions, but the limited power
58 density of traditional electrical machines requires radical progress. Superconducting machines,
59 characterized by high efficiency and power density, open the way to zero-emission transport and
60 power systems [14-15].

61 The majority of superconducting machine designs are based on conventional topologies, in
62 which the field or armature windings (or both) are built with superconducting coils or replaced by
63 trapped field magnets (TFMs) [11-15]. A summary of superconducting materials adopted for
64 superconducting coils and TFMs will be presented in Section 2. AC loss is generated by the movement
65 of magnetic vortices within the superconductor when experiencing time-varying currents or
66 magnetic fields [16]. Inside electric machines, the electromagnetic environment is complicated,
67 composed of abundant AC electromagnetic signals and high-frequency harmonics, especially for
68 high-speed rotating machines. As a result, AC loss of superconductors becomes a key challenge for
69 machine designs, in that not only does it affect the construction of cryocoolers and impair the
70 efficiency of the system, but it also causes security hazards in case of quench (for superconducting
71 coils) or demagnetization (for TFMs). The main concern regarding AC loss comes from armature
72 windings [17]. To avoid high AC loss, a number of researchers have adopted partially
73 superconducting machines, i.e. superconductors are only used as field sources by means of direct
74 current (DC) carrying coils or TFMs, and armature windings are made of conventional conductors
75 [18-19]. However, it appears difficult for partially superconducting machines to achieve a power
76 density higher than 20 kW/kg required for future aviation [11]. Nowadays, targeted at high power
77 superconducting machines for aircraft and aerospace applications, more and more researchers begin
78 to focus on fully superconducting machines. As a result, AC loss of superconductors becomes
79 inevitably one of the most challenging issues to be solved.

80 Figure 1 shows the AC loss per unit length of an example 12-mm-wide high temperature
81 superconductor (HTS) coated conductor (CC) and its filamentized tapes exposed to an externally
82 applied AC magnetic field with an amplitude varying from 1 to 100 mT, at 40 Hz [20]. It can be seen
83 that the AC loss of the HTS CC increases positively with the applied magnetic field, and for a CC
84 without filaments, the power dissipation per unit length can attain 1 W/m even under a field as low
85 as 20 mT at a low frequency of 40 Hz. The power is dissipated at cryogenic temperature, e.g. at liquid
86 nitrogen temperature 77 K, which can constitute a big cryogenic burden. Table 1 presents the
87 estimated heat load of HTS motors and generators employing different HTS materials at the
88 operating temperature. To remove the heat load contributed by the AC loss, high cooling power is
89 expected. Table 2 shows the ideal and practical Carnot specific power at a working temperature
90 varying from 4.2 to 273 K. Carnot specific power is the quantity of watts needed at ambient
91 temperature to offer 1 W of refrigeration at the lower working temperature [21]. At present,
92 commercially available refrigerators function far below the Carnot efficiency, i.e., their practical
93 Carnot specific power is much higher than the ideal one, as shown in Table 2. According to Figure 1,
94 Table 1, and Table 2, it is not difficult to conclude that the heat load due to the AC loss of HTS
95 materials applied to electrical machines proposes a big challenge for the design of cryogenic systems.

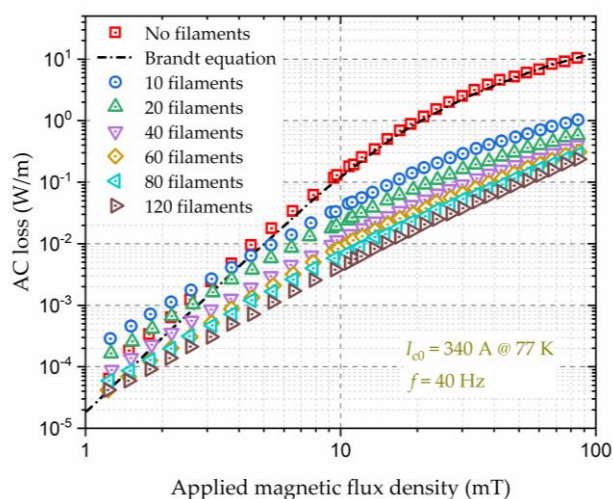


Figure 1. Variation of the AC loss of a 12 mm wide YBCO CC and its filamentized tapes with externally applied AC magnetic fields. The self-field critical current, I_{c0} , of the YBCO CC is 340 A at 77 K, and the frequency, f , of the AC magnetic field is 40 Hz. Experimental data are from [20].

Table 1. Estimated heat load of HTS machines at the working temperature [21].

HTS machines	Power level	BSCCO heat load	YBCO heat load
Generators	10-500 MW	100-500 W at 25-40 K	100-500 W at 50-65 K
Motors	1-10 MW	50-200 W at 25-40 K	50-200 W at 50-65 K

Table 2. Ideal and practical Carnot specific power at distinct working temperatures [21].

Working temperature (K)	Ideal Carnot specific power (W)	Practical Carnot specific power (W) (when heat load > 100 W)
273	0.11	0.4
77	2.94	12-20
50	5.06	25-35
20	14.15	100-200
4.2	71.14	11000

AC loss of superconductors has been widely studied by many researchers; however, we have not seen a systematic review to summarize the advancements with respect to AC loss analysis during the last dozen years, especially combined with superconducting machines. Aiming to illuminate the state of the art of AC loss related research work and figure out its future research trends in superconducting machine domains, we have conducted a comprehensive overview of AC loss related topics, including superconducting materials adopted in electrical machines, loss mechanism, and analytical formulae, modelling methods, measurement approaches, as well as loss reduction techniques. It should be pointed out that, as reported by our previous research work [22-24], the superconductors employed in high-speed rotating machines have to experience high frequency electromagnetic environments. In this case, the total loss inside electrical machines is not purely contributed by the superconducting parts, but also by the normal conducting parts, due to the skin effect, which poses great challenges to the existing loss quantification and reduction techniques. Therefore, AC loss at high frequencies will be highlighted and discussed throughout the paper. This review work is believed to help researchers better understand the research status of AC loss in

117 superconductors and to provide a useful reference for superconducting machine designs, especially
 118 for those functioning at high speeds for future aviation.

119 The article is structured as follows: Section 2 introduces different superconducting materials that
 120 can be applied to electrical machines, including superconducting coils made from low and high
 121 temperature superconductors and TFMs composed of bulk superconductors and trapped field stacks
 122 (TFSs); Section 3 summarizes the existing analytical formulae for calculating the AC loss of HTS tapes
 123 and stacks as well as MgB₂ wires; Section 4 systematically describes various numerical modelling
 124 methods for different superconducting topologies, and clarifies their advantages and disadvantages
 125 in distinct applications; Section 5 is dedicated to AC loss measurement approaches, of which the pros
 126 and cons have been discussed in detail in terms of their sensitivity, accuracy, measurement duration,
 127 and applicable occasions; Section 6 presents the existing AC loss reduction techniques and
 128 illuminates their potential problems in a complicated machine environment; and the main
 129 conclusions are drawn in Section 7, giving a future outlook with regards to the challenges and
 130 possibilities for loss quantification and controlling in superconducting electrical machines.

131 2. Superconducting materials applied to electrical machines

132 Superconducting materials can be categorized into low-temperature superconductors (LTSs),
 133 e.g., NbTi, and HTSs, e.g., REBCO (rare-earth barium copper oxide), and BSCCO (bismuth strontium
 134 calcium copper oxide), according to their critical temperature. For LTSs, their critical temperature is
 135 normally below 30 K. The unit cost, critical temperature, and current carrying capacity of different
 136 materials are presented in Table 3. As for superconducting coils, nowadays most researchers in the
 137 applied superconductivity community concentrate on HTS CC based coils because they can operate
 138 in liquid nitrogen (LN₂) with higher critical temperature in addition to higher critical current and
 139 critical magnetic field. Certainly, HTS has better current carrying capacity if they operate at lower
 140 temperatures. The cost of commercial HTS materials, e.g. ~69 \$/m for a 12-mm-wide YBCO tape [25],
 141 is a primary factor limiting the development of HTS machines. With the advancement of processing
 142 techniques and material science, HTS materials are expected to have a lower cost in the near future.
 143 LTSs, in spite of worse current carrying capacity compared to HTSs, have still been used in several
 144 designs because of their relatively lower material cost. However, they have to operate at liquid
 145 helium (LHe) or liquid hydrogen (LH₂) temperature, thus the cryogenic systems of LTS machines are
 146 generally more complicated and costly [26-27]. Concerning AC loss, MgB₂ possesses the advantage
 147 of a round wire compared with a flat tape, thus it has the potential to become a low AC loss
 148 superconductor operating below 30 K [28]. Given this fact, many fully superconducting machine
 149 designs have adopted MgB₂ coils as armature windings to avoid unbearable AC loss [29-31]. To
 150 maintain high electrical and magnetic loadings, while decreasing AC loss, multifilamentary HTS CCs
 151 have been implemented into electrical machines as an alternative [32]. The typical structure and
 152 composites of different superconductors can be found in Figure 2.

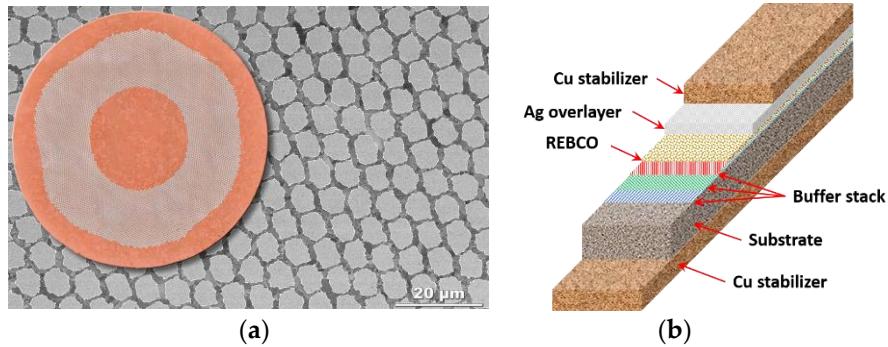
153 **Table 3.** Reported commercial superconductor specifications. Data are from [34-45].

Material	Unit cost	T_c	I_{c0}
REBCO (12 mm-width)	~227 \$/(kA·m)	up to 119 K	400 - 600 A (SuperPower, 77 K)
REBCO (4 mm-width)	~230 \$/(kA·m)	up to 119 K	>100 A (SuperOX, 77 K) min. 88 - min. 152 A (SuperPower, 77 K) min. 130 A (AMSC, enhanced pinning, 77 K) >165 A (Fujikura, 77 K) >150 A (SuNAM, 77K) ~150 A (Shanghai SC, 77K) >100 A (SWCC, 77 K)
Bi-2223	17.4 \$/(kA·m)	110 K	~170 - ~200 A (SEI, 77 K)

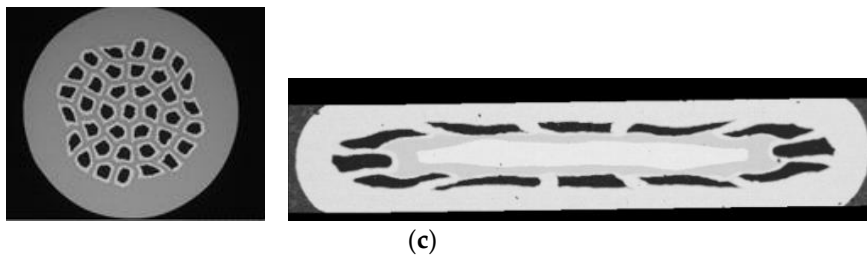
NbTi (LTS)	0.8 \$(/kA·m)	9.5 K	Up to 3 kA (SuperCon, 4.2 K)
MgB ₂	20 \$(/kA·m)	39 K	~157 A (MgB ₂ /Ga(30), 4.2 K)
NdFeB (PM)	28.9 \$/kg	/	/
Copper	11.6 \$/kg	/	/
Iron (Silicon steel)	1.6 \$/kg	/	/

T_c - critical temperature; I_{c0} – critical current in the self-field; PM – permanent magnet.

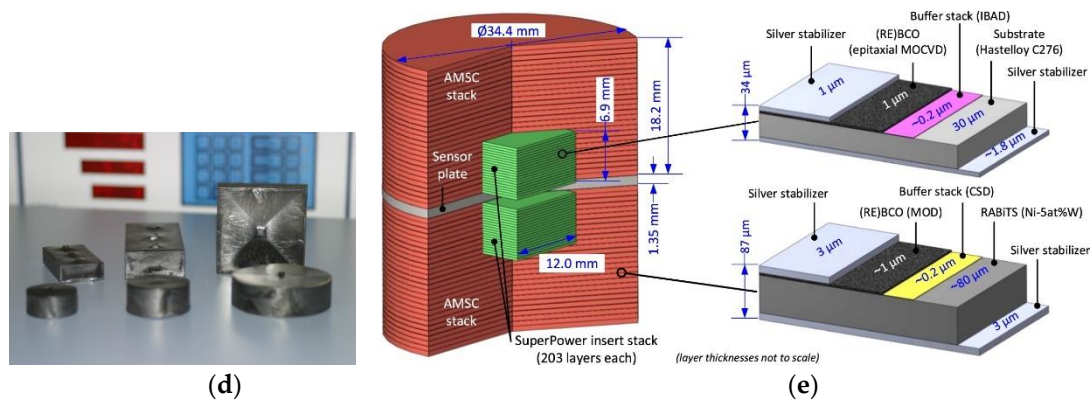
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Figure 2. Diagrams of the superconductors applied to electrical machines: (a) Cross section of a NbTi wire (LTS). Illustration courtesy of Peter J. Lee, NHMFL; (b) Multilayer structure of an REBCO coated conductor (HTS); (c) Cross sections of round and flat MgB₂ wires. Image courtesy of G. Grasso (© ASG Superconductors); (d) Photo of REBCO bulk superconductors, © evico GmbH; (e) Diagram of a trapped field HTS stack. Adapted from [33].

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TFMs consist of bulk superconductors and TFSs, most of which are manufactured by REBCO, despite the existence of MgB₂ bulks. TFMs can give a magnetic field up to a significant degree higher contrasted with conventional PMs. Besides, different from electromagnets like coils, no connection to a power supply is needed for TFMs. In 2014, Durrell et al reported a trapped field of 17.6 T at 29 K in a stack of two silver doped GdBCO superconducting bulk samples [46]. A record-high trapped field of 16.1 T in MgB₂ bulk has been recently achieved at 20 K by Hirano et al using pulsed-field magnetization (PFM) [47]. The possibility of the application of bulk superconductors to electrical machines has been discussed by many researchers. Kurbatova et al have presented an

173 electromagnetic analysis of an electrical generator equipped with HTS bulks on the rotor and
 174 revealed that the generator performance depends on the HTS properties and the parameters of the
 175 magnetization [48]. Izumi et al have developed an axial-gap-type synchronous machine utilizing
 176 GdBCO bulks as field poles, which is meant for low-speed ship propulsion [49]. Bulk
 177 superconductors can also serve as lightweight and compact magnetic shields in electrical machines,
 178 as reported by Leveque et al [50]. However, a pivotal disadvantage of bulk superconductors lies in
 179 their thermal instability at low temperatures, making it hard to exploit the high critical current under
 180 30 K [51]. In addition, external mechanical support is required in the utilization of bulk
 181 superconductors on account of their restricted mechanical strength. Compared with bulk
 182 superconductors, TFSs have better thermal stability and mechanical strength on the grounds that the
 183 copper stabilizers and silver overlayer of REBCO CCs have a thermal conductivity over a significant
 184 degree higher than REBCO, and the Hastelloy substrate has a more grounded tensile strength
 185 contrasted with REBCO. A trapped field of 17.7 T at 8 K in a stack of HTS tapes was reported by Patel
 186 et al in 2018 [33]. The application of TFSs as field poles to a 1MW superconducting demonstrator
 187 motor is being explored in the EU project ASuMED [14]. As mentioned in [52], in terms of the
 188 energization method, TFM s can avoid the application of current leads during operation compared to
 189 DC superconducting coils. However, the maximum size of TFM s can be limited by the existing
 190 production technology, especially for TFSs, and they can experience a possible demagnetization
 191 under cross fields [53], bringing a threat to the safe operations of superconducting electrical machines.

192 3. Analytical formulae for AC loss calculation

193 It is a common practice (related to experiments) to categorize AC loss based on the AC source
 194 (transport current or external field). Therefore, AC loss can be classified into two kinds of power
 195 dissipation, namely, transport current loss and magnetization loss. Transport current loss is caused
 196 by the carried current inside the superconductor in the absence of external magnetic fields, and
 197 magnetization loss describes the dissipation due to purely external magnetic fields without transport
 198 current. Magnetization loss consists of eddy current loss, hysteresis loss, and coupling loss.
 199 Hysteresis loss is generated by flux pinning and the loss per cycle is proportional to the area of the
 200 hysteresis loop. Coupling loss occurs due to the flowing of eddy current induced by external
 201 magnetic fields between filaments in multifilamentary conductors. Therefore, coupling loss can also
 202 be a problem for striated HTS CCs. Eddy current loss is the ohmic energy dissipation generated by
 203 the eddy current in the metal matrix. Transport current loss includes hysteresis loss and flux flow
 204 loss. Hysteresis loss occurs because the carried time-varying current provides the self-field. Flux flow
 205 loss happens due to more and more flux lines moving in the superconductor with the increase of the
 206 transport current (or the load proportion between the transport current and the self-field critical
 207 current) [54].

208 Let us consider a thin HTS film with the width of $2w$ and the thickness of h , as shown in Figure
 209 3 (a), having I_{c0} as the self-field critical current. When the HTS film is exposed to an AC magnetic field
 210 perpendicular to its wide surface, with the amplitude of B_{ext} , the Brandt equation can be utilized to
 211 quantify the average magnetization power loss per unit length (W/m), P_{mag} , as [55-57]

$$212 \quad P_{mag} = 4\pi\mu_0 w^2 f H_0 H_c \left\{ \frac{2H_c}{H_0} \ln \left[\cosh \left(\frac{H_0}{H_c} \right) \right] - \tanh \left(\frac{H_0}{H_c} \right) \right\} \quad (1)$$

213 where $H_0 = B_{ext} / \mu_0$, H_c denotes the characteristic field given by $I_{c0}/(2w\pi)$, μ_0 is the free space
 214 permeability, and f refers to the frequency of the AC field. As demonstrated in Figure 1, the Brandt
 215 equation agrees well with the experimental data for the 12-mm-wide HTS CC.

216 In the absence of external magnetic fields, when the HTS thin film carries an AC current with
 217 amplitude of I_t , according to the Norris equation, the average transport power loss per unit length
 218 (W/m), P_{trans} , can be written as [58]

$$219 \quad P_{trans} = \frac{\mu_0 f I_{c0}^2}{\pi} \left[(1-i) \ln(1-i) + (1+i) \ln(1+i) - i^2 \right] \quad (2)$$

220 where i represents the load ratio, determined by $i = I_t / I_{c0}$, and f is the frequency of the AC current.

221 When the HTS film carries an AC transport current and simultaneously experiences an AC
 222 magnetic field, both of which share the same frequency f and the same phase, the total average power
 223 dissipation per unit length can be estimated by [59]¹

224
$$P_{AC} = \frac{\mu_0 f I_{c0}^2}{4\pi} \left(\frac{b}{w} \right) (P_1 - pP_2) \quad (3)$$

225 with

226
$$P_1 = \alpha A \cdot \operatorname{arcosh} \alpha - \alpha^2 + \beta B \cdot \operatorname{arcosh} \beta - \beta^2 + 2 \quad (4)$$

227
$$P_2 = -A(\alpha + 2\beta) \cdot \operatorname{arcosh} \beta - B(\alpha + 2\beta) \cdot \operatorname{arcosh} \alpha + 2(\alpha + \beta)^2 \cdot \operatorname{arctanh} \frac{AB}{\alpha\beta + 1} + 2AB \quad (5)$$

228 where $b = w\sqrt{1-i^2}\sqrt{1-c^2}$, $c = \tanh[\pi B_{ext}/(\mu_0 J_{c0} h)]$, $p = \operatorname{sign}(i-c)$, $\alpha = w(1+ic)/b$, $\beta = w(1-ic)/b$,
 229 $A = \sqrt{\alpha^2 - 1}$, $B = \sqrt{\beta^2 - 1}$.

230 Additionally, the analytical techniques and formulae used to describe the transport current and
 231 magnetization losses of infinite stacks and arrays of thin tapes have been reviewed by Mikitik et al in
 232 [60]. For an infinite stack of superconducting tapes with stack periodicity L_y , as shown in Figure 3 (b),
 233 P_{trans} is given by [61]

234
$$P_{trans} = \frac{\mu_0 f I_t^2}{\pi} \int_0^1 (1-2s) \ln \left[\frac{\cosh^2(\pi w / L_y)}{\cosh^2(\pi i s w / L_y)} - 1 \right] ds \quad (6)$$

235 where I_t is the carried transport current in each tape. P_{mag} is written as [62]

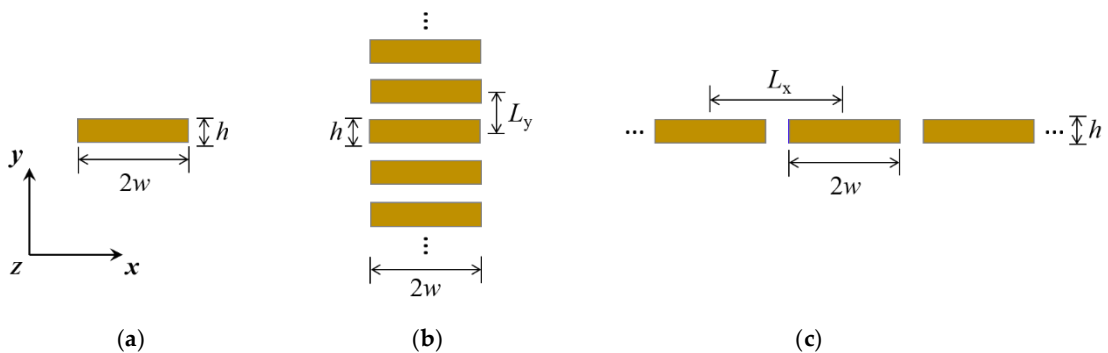
236
$$P_{mag} = \frac{\mu_0 f I_{c0}^2}{\pi} \left(\frac{L_y}{\pi w} \right)^2 h_0^2 \int_0^1 (1-2s) \ln \left[\frac{\sinh^2(\pi w / L_y)}{\cosh^2(h_0 s)} + 1 \right] ds \quad (7)$$

237 where $h_0 = \pi H_0 / (J_{c0} h)$.

238 With respect to an infinite array of coplanar superconducting tapes with array periodicity L_x , as
 239 shown in Figure 3 (c), P_{trans} and P_{mag} can be calculated by [61-62]

240
$$P_{trans} = \frac{\mu_0 f I_t^2}{\pi} \int_0^1 (1-2s) \ln \left[1 - \frac{\tan^2(\pi i s w / L_x)}{\tan^2(\pi w / L_x)} \right] ds \quad (8)$$

241
$$P_{mag} = \frac{\mu_0 f I_{c0}^2}{\pi} \left(\frac{L_x}{\pi w} \right)^2 h_0^2 \int_0^1 (1-2s) \ln \left[1 - \frac{\sin^2(\pi w / L_x)}{\cosh^2(h_0 s)} \right] ds \quad (9)$$



242
 243 (a) (b) (c)
 244 **Figure 3.** Cross sections of the infinitely long thin HTS tape, stack, and array, each HTS layer having
 245 the width of width $2w$ and thickness of h : (a) Single HTS layer; (b) Stack of HTS tapes with stack
 246 periodicity L_y ; (c) Array of coplanar superconducting tapes with array periodicity L_x .

¹ Formula (11) in [59] contains a typo: in the expression for P_2 , the last term, $2AB$, should be a plus sign, not a minus.

247 For field coils embedded on the rotor in a superconducting machine, each HTS CC carries DC
 248 and is exposed to time-varying magnetic fields. In this case, dynamic loss (W/m) occurs in the HTS
 249 layer and can be calculated by [63]

$$250 \quad P_{\text{dyn},l} = 4wfI_t i (B_{\text{ext}} - B_{\text{th}}) \quad (10)$$

251 where B_{th} is the threshold field defined by

$$252 \quad B_{\text{th}} = \frac{\mu_0 h J_{c0}}{2\pi} \left[\frac{1}{i} \ln \left(\frac{1+i}{1-i} \right) + \ln \left(\frac{1-i^2}{4i^2} \right) \right] \quad (11)$$

253 However, (10) can only be utilized to depict the linearity of dynamic loss at low load ratio and
 254 simultaneous low external fields. In fact, when an HTS CC with a high load ratio experiences a high
 255 external magnetic field, its dynamic loss will vary in a non-linear way with the external field, putting
 256 the CC in the danger of a quench. Therefore, a novel full-range formulation for dynamic loss (W/m)
 257 of HTS CCs has been proposed by Zhang et al in [64], expressed as

$$258 \quad P_{\text{dyn}} = 4wfI_t i (B_{\text{ext}} - B_{\text{th}}) + E_0 I_t i^{n+1} \cdot \left\{ \begin{aligned} & 1 + \sum_{p=0}^{n/2-1} \frac{n!}{(2p+1)! [n-(2p+1)]!} \left(\frac{B_{\text{ext}}}{B_0} \right)^{2p+1} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^{2p+1} \cdot \frac{2^{3p+2} \cdot p!}{\pi \prod_{q=0}^{2p+1} (2q+1)} \\ & + \sum_{p=0}^{n/2-1} \frac{n!}{(2p+2)! [n-(2p+2)]!} \left(\frac{B_{\text{ext}}}{B_0} \right)^{2p+2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^{2p+2} \cdot \frac{(2p+2)!}{[(p+1)!]^2} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (12)$$

259 where n is the power exponent in the E - J power law. In (12), n is even. When n is odd, the upper
 260 bound of summation has to be changed correspondingly, as

$$262 \quad P_{\text{dyn}} = 4wfI_t i (B_{\text{ext}} - B_{\text{th}}) + E_0 I_t i^{n+1} \cdot \left\{ \begin{aligned} & 1 + \sum_{p=0}^{(n-1)/2} \frac{n!}{(2p+1)! [n-(2p+1)]!} \left(\frac{B_{\text{ext}}}{B_0} \right)^{2p+1} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^{2p+1} \cdot \frac{2^{3p+2} \cdot p!}{\pi \prod_{q=0}^{2p+1} (2q+1)} \\ & + \sum_{p=0}^{(n-1)/2-1} \frac{n!}{(2p+2)! [n-(2p+2)]!} \left(\frac{B_{\text{ext}}}{B_0} \right)^{2p+2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^{2p+2} \cdot \frac{(2p+2)!}{[(p+1)!]^2} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (13)$$

263 With respect to BSCCO tapes, an engineering formula has been proposed to describe their AC
 264 power loss per unit length at 77 K by Rabbers et al [65], written as

$$266 \quad P_{\text{tot}}(B_{\text{ext}}, I_t, \alpha) = f \cdot \left[\frac{C_1(\alpha) B_{\text{ext}}^p \cdot C_2(\alpha) B_{\text{ext}}}{C_1(\alpha) B_{\text{ext}}^p + C_2(\alpha) B_{\text{ext}}} + C_3 I_t^q + C_4(\alpha) B_{\text{ext}} I_t^2 \right] \quad (14)$$

267 where α refers to the orientation of the externally applied magnetic field (the angle between the field
 268 vector and the normal vector of the tape wide surface); the AC transport current and external AC
 269 magnetic field share the same frequency f ; the parameters C_1 , C_2 , C_3 , C_4 , p , and q have to be derived
 270 from measured data, in which C_1 , C_2 , and C_4 depend on α . (14) shows an average deviation of 10%
 271 compared to the measured results. It has to be noted that (14) can only be obtained through curve
 272 fitting, thus an experimental measurement of AC loss is necessary. Therefore, the significance of (14)
 273 lies in decreasing the number of tests while predicting the loss under different B_{ext} and I_t .

274 For MgB₂ wires, the superconducting filaments are inserted in the resistive matrix. Under the
 275 influence of external magnetic fields, hysteresis loss P_{hys} (W/m) and a collective coupling loss P_{cp}
 276 (W/m) are generated, which can be obtained by [17]

$$277 \quad P_{\text{hys}} = \frac{2fB_{\text{ext}}^2}{\mu_0} \frac{\lambda}{1 + 4\pi^2 f^2 \tau_\alpha^2} \Gamma \left(\frac{\beta}{\sqrt{1 + 4\pi^2 f^2 \tau_\alpha^2}} \right) \quad (15)$$

$$278 \quad P_{\text{cp}} = \frac{4fB_{\text{ext}}^2}{\mu_0} \frac{\pi^2 f \alpha \tau_\alpha}{1 + 4\pi^2 f^2 \tau_\alpha^2} \quad (16)$$

279 where λ represents the fraction of the wire that is superconducting, $\tau\alpha$ denotes the LR constant of the
 280 wire cross-section, α means the internal eddy current shielding factor, β means the ratio between B_{ext}
 281 to the penetration field of the filaments, and Γ is a normalized function based on β .

282 4. Modelling methods

283 Analytical equations can help understand the AC loss mechanism and figure out the loss
 284 influential factors, from the theoretical perspective. However, analytical loss calculations are imperfect
 285 in that the formulae have been derived based on some fundamental assumptions, e.g., constant critical
 286 current, homogenous external field, thin film approximation for HTS CCs, etc. [55-64]. Besides, the
 287 analytical equations are normally limited to simple structures, e.g. single tapes or wires, thus in
 288 superconducting machines, the analytical equations are not enough to accurately quantify the practical
 289 AC loss. Therefore, numerical models appear to be an indispensable tool for the design of
 290 superconducting machines. Simulation of HTS devices is challenging in view of the nonlinear E - J
 291 power law and the high aspect ratio of the HTS layer, which results in hard convergence and a huge
 292 amount of degrees of freedom (DOF). Grilli et al have made a comprehensive review of the methods
 293 for calculating AC loss before 2014 in [21]. As pointed out in [21], to obtain the AC loss of
 294 superconductors the primary task is to calculate the electromagnetic state variables, e.g., magnetic
 295 field H , current density J , electric field E , magnetic vector potential A , current vector potential T , and
 296 magnetic scalar potential ϕ (or Ω), etc. Once these variables are obtained, the AC loss can be calculated
 297 according to the methods presented in Section II-C in [21]. The primary modelling of HTS CCs is
 298 based on Maxwell's equations and finite element methods (FEM), which is typically achieved by four
 299 kinds of formulations, including T - ϕ formulation [66-68], A - V formulation [69-76], E -formulation
 300 [77], and H -formulation [78-82]. The four formulations have been summarized in Table 4.

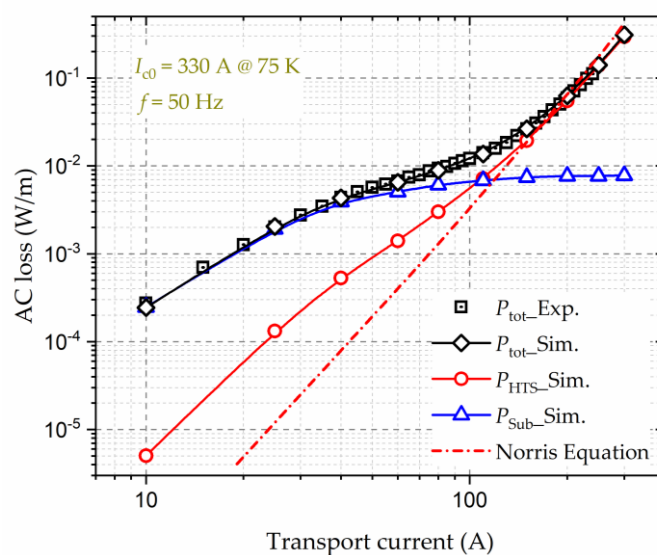
301 **Table 4.** Typical formulations exploited to solve Maxwell's equations with numerical models [78]

Formulation	Equations	Definitions
T - ϕ	$\nabla \times \rho \nabla \times T = -\mu \frac{\partial (T - \nabla \phi)}{\partial t}$ $\nabla^2 \phi = 0$	$J = \nabla \times T$ $H = T - \nabla \phi$ $\rho = \rho(J)$
A - V	$\nabla^2 A = \mu \sigma \left(\frac{\partial A}{\partial t} + \nabla V \right)$ $\nabla \cdot \left(\sigma \frac{\partial A}{\partial t} + \sigma \nabla V \right) = 0$	$B = \nabla \times A$ $E = -\frac{\partial A}{\partial t} - \nabla V$ $\sigma = \sigma(E)$
E	$\nabla \times \nabla \times E = -\mu \frac{\partial (\sigma E)}{\partial t}$	$\nabla \times E = -\frac{\partial B}{\partial t}$ $\sigma = \sigma(E)$
H	$\nabla \times \rho \nabla \times H = -\mu \frac{\partial H}{\partial t}$	$J = \nabla \times H$ $\rho = \rho(J)$

302 The option of a formulation is in principle arbitrary, however, in certain cases a specific
 303 formulation is advantageous. The T - ϕ formulation was first proposed by Amemiya in 1998 to
 304 simulate 2D superconducting wires [66] and the current vector potential T on each node was defined
 305 to describe the current density J , with $J = \nabla \times T$. Later on, Sugita et al have applied the thin film
 306 approximation to the HTS CC, and the current component perpendicular to the wide surface of the
 307 CC is neglected [67]. In this way, the modelling of HTS films turns into a 1D problem. The T - ϕ
 308 formulation based 1D numerical model has been demonstrated to possess the highest calculation
 309 efficiency for simulating the HTS layer among the four formulations because $\nabla \times T$ is simply
 310 calculated by the two vector potentials on both sides of each element [68]. However, the magnetic
 311 field components parallel to the wide surface of the HTS CCs cannot be considered with the thin film
 312 approximation, thus some errors can be introduced to the simulation of HTS coils. Brandt has
 313

314 proposed an integral equation for the time derivative of the current density in simple geometries,
 315 starting from calculating the magnetic vector potential A [69]. Then, Otten and Grilli have presented
 316 a step-by-step deduction of Brandt's strategy for a thin film, a rectangular bar, as well as a cylindrical
 317 bulk [70], and the corresponding MATLAB codes have been published online for easier access to the
 318 model [71]. An A - V formulation-based simulation module was first developed in the commercial
 319 finite element program Flux2D by Nibbio et al in 2001, which is appropriate for the numerical method
 320 naturally written with the magnetic vector potential A [72]. Afterwards, Cedrat's Flux3D has been
 321 put forward as an industrial-strength FEM package to solve 3D problems [73]. Stenvall and
 322 Tarhasaari have clarified the mathematical background of a co-tree gauged T - ϕ FEM solver [74] and
 323 A - V - J formulation [75] for computing the hysteresis losses of superconductors, and the two
 324 formulations have been compared with H -formulation in terms of DOF, computation time, and
 325 accuracy [76]. [76] shows that the A - V - J formulation needs denser meshes to get solid outcomes
 326 compared to the H - and T - ϕ formulations, but the A - V - J formulation based solver can be less time-
 327 consuming versus the other solvers with the same mesh. E -formulation has been put forward to avoid
 328 the derivative calculation. However, according to [77], it may lead to convergence problems in finite
 329 geometries with a strongly nonlinear E - J power law, especially for an n -value greater than 20.
 330 Nowadays, the most extensively adopted formulation is the H -formulation [78-80]. The quick
 331 evolution of the H -formulation is contributed by its intuitiveness, fast convergence, and ease of
 332 implementation within COMSOL Multiphysics [81]. Nevertheless, the H -formulation still has its
 333 drawbacks. For instance, the calculation of a vector field is needed in non-conducting sections, which
 334 expands the size of the linear matrix to be computed and thus increases the complexity of solving
 335 [82]. Moreover, a dummy resistivity needs to be applied to the air region, which degrades the matrix
 336 conditioning [82].

337 Figure 4 shows the variation of the AC loss of a 10-mm wide HTS CC with a 75- μ m thick Ni-W
 338 layer (magnetic substrate) carrying sinusoidal transport currents. The non-linearities of the HTS layer
 339 and the substrate have been well considered in the numerical model. It can be seen that the modelled
 340 total AC loss of the whole CC based on the H -formulation is in good agreement with the measured
 341 data. Through numerical modelling, we can access quantities not available from measurements, e.g.,
 342 the loss generated in various layers of the CC, and the saturation of magnetic loss, etc. It should be
 343 pointed out that the AC loss in the HTS layer of a CC with a magnetic substrate is different from that
 344 of a CC with a non-magnetic substrate. In this case, the analytical formulae, e.g. Norris Equation, are
 345 not accurate to calculate the AC loss and thus numerical modelling is the best and only way to
 346 quantify the loss in the HTS layer.



347

348

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Figure 4. Variation of the AC loss of a 10 mm wide HTS CC with a magnetic substrate with sinusoidal transport currents. The self-field critical current, I_{c0} , of the HTS CC is 330 A at 75 K, and the frequency,

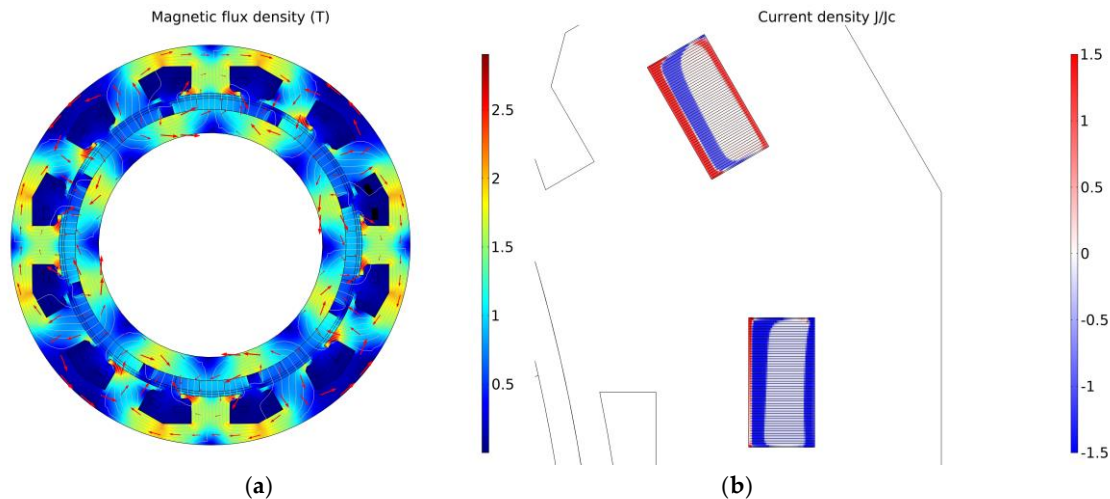
350 f , of the AC magnetic field is 50 Hz. Experimental data are taken from [83]. Exp.-Experiment, Sim.-
 351 Simulation.

352 In HTS machines with coil-shaped magnets, a large number of HTS CCs are needed. Naturally,
 353 the modelling of HTS machines becomes very complicated and time-consuming, no matter which
 354 type of formulation is chosen. In order to mitigate the simulation complexity, most of the researchers
 355 have only focused on the superconducting parts in electric machines and choose 2D models to study
 356 the cross section of HTS coils, stacks of tapes, and bulks [84-95]. However, the electromagnetic
 357 environment inside electric machines is quite complex, and is also decided by non-superconducting
 358 parts, like iron cores and iron slotted structures. In addition, conventional conductors can become a
 359 severe heat load, which affects the design of cryogenic systems. Therefore, it is more reasonable to
 360 model both superconducting and non-superconducting sections simultaneously to accurately predict
 361 the loss distribution inside electrical machines. In order to achieve this requirement, different
 362 combinations of formulations have been developed. As presented in [96], an H - A formulation-based
 363 FEM framework has been applied to the modelling of rotating machines with HTS windings. It has
 364 been pointed out that the H -formulation is more reliable than the A -formulation as far as the
 365 simulation of flux dynamics in superconductors through the E - J power law is concerned. Therefore,
 366 the H -formulation has been employed in the superconducting parts, and the A -formulation has been
 367 used in the outer iron stator poles. A T - A formulation based 2D numerical model for simulating large-
 368 scale superconducting stack/coil has been exploited in [86, 90, 97-100]. The T -formulation has been
 369 used to calculate the current density in superconductors, and the A -formulation has been employed
 370 to obtain the magnetic flux density in the whole space. The proposed T - A formulation based
 371 numerical model has been proven to be much more efficient than the H -formulation based reference
 372 model [86]. Both [96] and [97] demonstrate that the numerical modelling of moving superconductors
 373 does not present additional difficulties compared with static cases. In [97-98], the electromagnetic
 374 results calculated based on the T - A formulation have been compared with those from the H - A
 375 formulation. Due to the thin-film approximation adopted in the T - A formulation, the T - A formulation
 376 has been proven to be more efficient and time-saving than the H - A formulation. The T - A formulation
 377 has recently been applied to the design of a 10-MW HTS wind turbine generator in [100], and the
 378 model building methodology combining the resistive model and the superconducting model has
 379 been introduced. The modelling results of an example machine regarding the magnetic field and
 380 current density distributions are shown in Figure 5 [101]. The H - ϕ formulation has been used by a
 381 few researchers to simulate superconductors in GetDP [102-103]. However, the implementation of
 382 the H - ϕ formulation into COMSOL Multiphysics has just been reported recently in detail for the first
 383 time in [82]. The H -formulation has been applied to superconductors, and the ϕ physics has been
 384 introduced to current-free domains. Compared to the H -formulation, the application of the H - ϕ
 385 formulation can largely decrease the size of the linear matrix and the number of DOF, thus the
 386 computational time can be decreased by almost a factor of two for a fixed relative error [82]. The H -
 387 ϕ formulation is believed to be an advantageous alternative for modelling superconducting machines
 388 considering both the superconducting and non-superconducting components.

389 To overcome the limitations of the full models, some simplification approaches have been put
 390 forward, e.g., the homogenization and multi-scaling methods. The homogenization model for HTS
 391 CCs was developed by Zermeno et al [104-105], which represents significant progress of large-scale
 392 superconductor modelling regarding computational speed. Given that the conductivity values of
 393 superconductors are several orders of magnitude higher than those of normal conductors and air,
 394 only the superconducting layer's volume fraction is considered in the homogenization model. In this
 395 way, the stack of HTS tapes can be considered as a homogeneous bulk, with an equivalent field
 396 dependence of the critical current as [106]

$$397 \quad J_{c,eq} = J_c \cdot f_{HTS} = \frac{J_{c0}}{\left(1 + \sqrt{\frac{k^2 \|\mathbf{B}_{\parallel}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{B}_{\perp}\|^2}{B_0}}\right)^{\alpha}} \cdot \frac{h_{HTS}}{t} \quad (17)$$

398 where B_{\perp} represents the local magnetic flux density perpendicular to the wide surface of the HTS
 399 tape, and B_{\parallel} is the corresponding parallel component. B_0 refers to a constant determined by the HTS
 400 material. k and α are all constants. h_{HTS} and t are the thickness of the HTS layer and that of the CC,
 401 respectively. In [104], the homogenization model is 113.5 times faster than the reference H -
 402 formulation based reference model for simulating a stack composed of 64 tapes, with an accepted
 403 error of less than 2%. However, it needs to be pointed out that the homogenization model only works
 404 for CCs with non-magnetic substrates.
 405



406
 407

408 **Figure 5.** 2D modelling results of a superconducting wind turbine generator equipped with HTS coils,
 409 based on the T - A formulation [101]: (a) Magnetic flux density distributions; (b) Current density
 410 distribution in the HTS coils, J/J_c .

411 The large aspect ratio of HTS CCs, in the order of 10^3 – 10^4 , causes a big constraint in the number
 412 of DOF to be solved so that conventional meshing using elements with an aspect ratio close to unity
 413 cannot meet the demand of fast computation for numerous turns. In light of this, a multi-scaling
 414 approach has been developed by Zermeno et al for the superconductor modelling [91, 107–108]. The
 415 basic idea is to estimate the magnetic field of coils with a fast coil model first, and then parallelize the
 416 calculation with the obtained field by dividing the computation domain into multiple smaller
 417 domains [91]. Of course, the multiscale meshing techniques also need to be considered, as illustrated
 418 in [107]. The application of the multiscale modelling method largely reduces the number of DOF,
 419 requires less calculation memory, and allows parallel computation, thus it is considered as the fastest
 420 model in [108] compared with the H -formulation based reference model and the homogenization
 421 method. However, it should be pointed out that, the use of a coil sub-model with uniform current
 422 density can introduce a large error, especially for low current amplitude. Therefore, we need to find
 423 a good trade-off between computational time and accuracy.

424 A novel simplification method, named densification, has recently been proposed by Berrospe-
 425 Juarez et al in [109]. The HTS tapes forming part of a stack and their neighboring tapes can be merged
 426 by the densification method, resulting in fewer tapes to be modelled. All the possible combinations
 427 of the homogenization, multi-scaling, and densification methods applied to the T - A and H -
 428 formulations have been analyzed in [109], including in total 14 modelling strategies. It is concluded
 429 that the T - A homogenous model possesses the highest computational efficiency, but it is restricted to
 430 situations where the thin film approximation of HTS CCs is applicable. In contrast, the H -formulation
 431 has a wider scope of application as it can be used to study systems made of wires with various
 432 geometries, e.g. MgB_2 wires. It should be underlined that the H iterative multi-scale strategy can be
 433 exploited to model large-scale applications nearly with no size limitation.

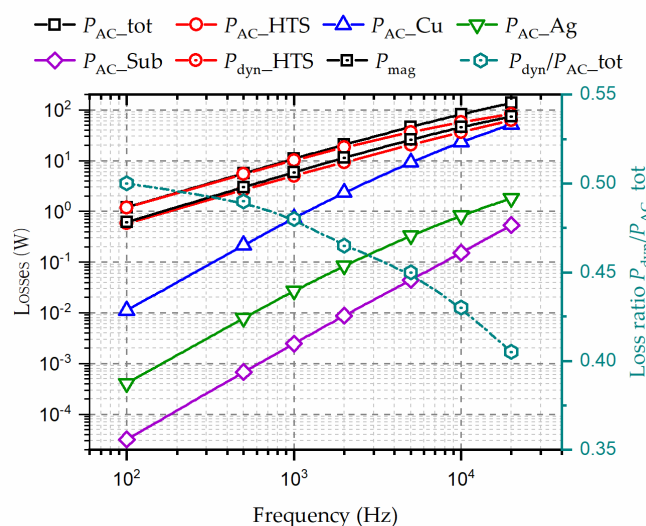
434 Although 2D numerical models can reflect the electromagnetic properties of superconducting
 435 devices in many cases, e.g., infinitely long conductors, it is not considered trustworthy enough to
 436 predict the behavior of a 3D superconducting device in a specific shape [110]. For example, when the

437 ratio between the thickness of a racetrack coil and its diameter cannot be neglected, a 3D numerical
438 model is necessary to accurately quantify the AC loss. In [110], an $A-V$ formulation based numerical
439 model has been extended from 2D to 3D for simulating the magnetization of superconductors. The
440 electromagnetic characteristics of curved HTS TFSs exposed to high frequency cross fields have been
441 explored in [111] through the H -formulation based numerical modelling. It is concluded that the 2D
442 axisymmetric model to approximate a square TFS as a round bulk is inapplicable for studying the
443 electromagnetic distributions of TFSs, thus a 3D model has to be employed [111]. An H -formulation
444 based full 3D time-dependent numerical model for Roebel cables have been proposed in [112]. An
445 efficient 3D FEM model based on the $T-A$ formulation has been developed in [113], which is 10 times
446 faster than H -formulation based 3D modelling method. In [82], the $H-\phi$ formulation based 3D
447 modelling of the magnetization of HTS bulks has been investigated systematically. As concluded,
448 cubic is the ideal element order for 3D modelling for both H -formulation and $H-\phi$ formulation in
449 terms of the computational time as well as accuracy. More 3D modelling work of superconductors
450 can be found in [21, 78, 114-118].

451 There exist other modelling methods for the calculation of AC loss, such as the integral equation
452 method for thin HTS layers based on FEM proposed by Brambilla et al [119], and the Minimum
453 Magnetic Energy Variation (MMEV) method [120] as well as Minimum Electro-Magnetic Entropy
454 Production (MEMEP) method developed by Pardo et al [121-122]. Although the integral equation
455 method is much faster and computationally less demanding than FEM models, it is difficult to be
456 applied to complex 3D superconducting structures. As for the MMEV and MEMEP methods, they
457 are computationally time-efficient and potentially promising for demanding 3D problems. However,
458 these methods are less commercially available compared to FEM based numerical models that can be
459 incorporated into commercial software, e.g., COMSOL Multiphysics, as described before. In addition
460 to COMSOL Multiphysics, ANSYS is also widely utilized to build numerical models for
461 superconductors [123-125].

462 Despite the above-mentioned state of the art of the existing modelling methods for
463 superconducting machines, a few issues remain to be solved or deserve further investigation:

464 1) Aerospace electrical machines work at very high speeds (7-50 krpm), and accordingly the
465 adopted HTS materials in superconducting machines ought to be capable of operating in a high-
466 frequency electromagnetic environment ($\sim 0.2-2$ kHz) [15]. Until now, the vast majority of
467 numerical models are based on the thin film approximation and only the HTS layer is
468 considered, which has been proven inapplicable for high frequencies beyond 100 Hz for the first
469 time by our previous research work [22-24]. Therefore, the multilayer physical structure of the
470 commercial HTS CC needs to be taken into account, typically composed of the copper stabilizers,
471 silver overlayer, and substrate, in addition to the HTS layer, as shown in Figure 2 (b). In [23],
472 Zhang et al have analyzed the magnetization loss and dynamic loss of HTS CCs, stacks, circular
473 coils as well as racetrack coils over a wide frequency band from 50 Hz to 20 kHz using the H -
474 formulation based multilayer numerical models. The modelled losses in different layers of the
475 studied 2×12 double pancake racetrack coil in [23] are shown in Figure 6. It can be found that the
476 loss in the copper layer increases fast and it will be approaching the magnetization loss and the
477 total AC loss with increasing frequency. Musso et al have also studied the AC loss distributions
478 in various layers of HTS CCs by use of the $A-V$ formulation and found that the contribution to
479 the total losses of the non-superconducting parts is strengthened when the field frequency
480 surpasses 1 kHz [126]. However, the electromagnetic interaction among different layers can
481 largely increase the number of DOF and computational complexity, especially for 3D modelling
482 of racetrack coils.



483

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485

486

Figure 6. Dynamic loss, magnetization loss, AC losses in different layers, and loss ratio $P_{\text{dyn}}/P_{\text{AC_tot}}$ of the 2×12 HTS double pancake racetrack coil at different frequencies. The AC field frequency, f , ranges from 100 Hz to 20 kHz. The DC transport current $I_t = 50$ A. $B_{\text{ext}} = 50$ mT. [23]

487

2) The electromagnetic environment in electrical machines is quite complex, composed of high-frequency harmonics. Therefore, the electromagnetic signals are not purely sinusoidal. The vast majority of numerical models concentrate on the AC loss with standard sinusoidal AC transport current or magnetic fields. Although some simulation work of AC loss has considered both the DC background field, AC ripple field, and non-sinusoidal currents [127-130], the input signals for simulation are not real synthetic signals generated inside practical electrical machines. Consequently, the performance of HTS CCs under a complex synthetic electromagnetic environment deserves further exploration.

495

3) The magnetic field distribution inside HTS machines is determined by both the superconducting and non-superconducting parts, thus just modelling the superconductors is not sufficient to reflect the overall power dissipation of the machine that decides the design of cryogenic systems. The non-superconducting parts can contain conventional conductors, iron cores, and permanent magnets, thus their electromagnetic interaction with the superconductors has to be considered. However, the existing numerical models have rarely considered the influence of non-superconducting parts.

502

4) 3D numerical models of superconducting machines are still lacking due to a large number of DOF and high computation complexity. Studies on convergence and computational speed in 3D models have to be thoroughly conducted to improve simulation efficiency.

505

5) Besides the electromagnetic properties, the thermal characteristics of superconductors should also be investigated because they directly affect the design of cryocoolers and quench protection. An electro-thermal numerical model for high-speed superconducting machines needs to be developed.

509

6) The stability of superconducting materials is critical to the normal functioning of the machine. The high centrifugal force in high-speed electrical machines brings a big challenge to the design of rotating field coils. Apart from the necessary mechanical simulation, online monitoring and fault detection methods of HTS machines have not been studied due to the lack of superconducting machine demonstrators.

513

514 5. AC loss measurement approaches

515

There exist three main approaches for measuring AC loss of superconductors, namely electric, magnetic, and calorimetric methods [131].

516

517 5.1. Electric method

518 The electric method is extensively used on account of its fast measurement speed and high
 519 sensitivity. The electric method is usually exploited to measure AC transport current loss and
 520 magnetization loss, which consists of three types of techniques: the pick-up coil method, lock-in
 521 amplifier method, and the combination of the two techniques. Two typical electrical circuits of the
 522 pick-up coil method and the lock-in amplifier technique are presented in Figure 7.

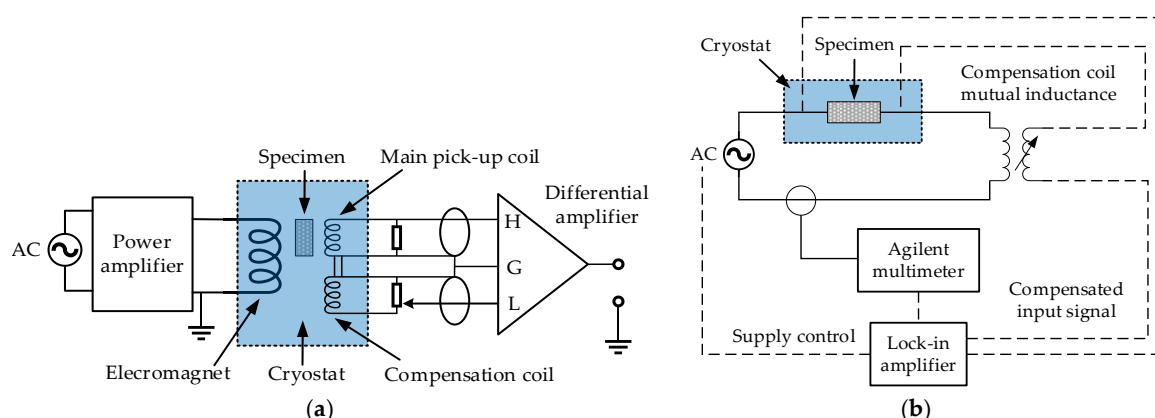
523 The pick-up coil method is often applied to measure the magnetization loss of superconducting
 524 samples [133-136]. The measurement system is usually composed of the AC power supply, AC
 525 electromagnet, isolation amplifier, pick-up coil, compensation circuit, compensation coil, cryostat, as
 526 well as data acquisition and processing parts, as shown in Figure 7 (a). The AC power dissipation per
 527 unit length (W/m) can be obtained by [137]

$$528 \quad P_{\text{mag}} = -\frac{AGf}{VN\mu_0} \int_0^{y_f} (V_p - kV_c) B_{\text{ext}} dt \quad (17)$$

529 where A and V are the sample volume and cross-sectional area surrounded by the main coil,
 530 respectively; N refers to the turn number per unit length of the main pick-up coil; V_p and V_c represent
 531 separately the induced voltage in the pick-up coil and the compensation coil; k denotes an adjustable
 532 coefficient. G is the geometrical correction factor, which has to be calculated for various arrangements
 533 of tested samples and pick-up coils.

534 Yang et al have derived a general formulation used for the calibration of the pick-up coils with
 535 distinct geometries and concluded that the AC loss of round/square wires can always be measured
 536 with errors less than 10% using coils of any turn and dimensions [133]. Souc et al have measured the
 537 AC loss and the voltage signals of single pancake coils using different pick-up coils with the help of
 538 a transformer and found that the AC loss can be measured through voltage taps on a turn close to the
 539 coil average to avoid the difficulties in correcting the huge inductive signal of the whole coil when
 540 the number of turns is greater than 10 [134]. Different from the conventional pick-up coil method, a
 541 calibration-free method has been proposed by Souc et al to measure magnetization loss [138]. A coil
 542 wound in parallel to the AC field magnet is employed as the measurement coil, and a compensation
 543 system is utilized to eliminate the eddy current loss in the coil winding. Consequently, the
 544 magnetization loss of the sample of any geometry can be determined by measuring the power
 545 supplied by the AC source to the AC magnet without calibration.

546 The lock-in amplifier technique is usually applied to the measurement of transport current loss
 547 of HTS CCs and non-inductive coils [139-145]. The measurement system usually consists of the AC
 548 power supply, non-inductive voltage divider, cryostat, compensation coil, and acquisition system, as
 549 shown in Figure 7 (b).



552 **Figure 7.** Typical electric circuits for the AC loss measurement. (a) Pick-up coil method, adapted from
 553 [132]. (b) Lock-in amplifier technique, adapted from [54].

554 Time-domain periodical current, $i(t)$, and voltage, $u(t)$, can be expressed in the form of Fourier
 555 expansion, as [130]

$$556 \quad i(t) = i_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \sin(n\omega t + \varphi_n) \quad (18)$$

$$u(t) = u_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin(n\omega t + \phi_n) \quad (19)$$

where i_0 and u_0 are separately the DC components of the current and voltage; a_n and b_n represent the Fourier coefficients; φ_n and ϕ_n are phase-related constants. When the transport current is purely sinusoidal, the average power dissipation can be written as

$$P_{\text{trans}} = i_0 u_0 + \frac{1}{2} a_1 b_1 \sin(\varphi_1 - \phi_1) \quad (20)$$

It can be seen that, from (20), P_{trans} depends on the first harmonics. With the lock-in amplifier technique, the transport power loss per unit length (W/m) of an HTS CC can be written as

$$P_{\text{trans}} = \frac{I_{\text{rms}} U_{\text{rms}}}{L} \quad (21)$$

where I_{rms} means the root of mean square (RMS) value of the AC transport current carried by the sample CC; U_{rms} is the RMS value of the loss voltage component; L denotes the studied length of the sample.

In [145], Pei et al have developed a high-precision digital lock-in measurement technique using a lock-in amplifier and nano-voltage meter, and it can resolve signals at the nano-volt level. Different from conventional electric methods, Souc and G6m6ry have developed a compact cold-core toroidal transformer system and proposed an auxiliary contactless loop based electric method to measure the transport current loss of long superconducting samples [146]. This measurement method could be applied to complex structures, e.g., superconducting cables, and help monitor the quality of long pieces of superconducting tapes. To deal with the disadvantages of conventional compensation coils, e.g., low mechanical control precision, narrow compensation range, and voltage with harmonic components, Liao et al have proposed an automatic compensation method with phase detection and feedback control algorithm for measuring the AC loss of HTS coils [147]. This method possesses a higher degree of automation and can be potentially applied to different objects in complex environments. In practice, the superconducting elements are normally put inside a metallic containment vessel, in which additional AC loss can be generated due to the induced eddy current. Therefore, Pei et al have measured the total AC loss of a YBCO coil in different containment vessels using a compensation coil and recommended the vessel with a non-metallic material to minimize the eddy current loss [148]. Shen et al have recently developed a distinct lock-in amplifier method to measure the transport current loss, with which the unknown inductive part of the obtained voltage can be eliminated by alternating the inductance of the compensating coil, and thus the loss can be calculated without phase control [149]. An electric measurement method without the application of a lock-in amplifier has been recently put forward by Breschi et al [150]. This approach includes a Hilbert transform based treatment procedure in terms of the voltage and current signals of the HTS sample, allowing one to analyze the harmonic components of the signals with a remarkable noise reduction. Sytnikov et al have proposed a digital phase shift method for the AC loss measurement of HTS power cables, which has provided a fast and simple way to estimate the AC loss with an error $\pm 25\%$, without the application of expensive lock-in amplifiers [151]. This electric method has recently been adopted in [152] to analyze the performance of a 23 kV/60 MVA class tri-axial HTS power cable for real-grid applications in Korea.

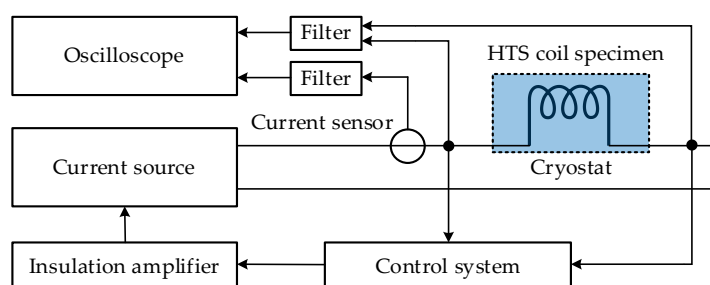
When the superconductor carries AC transport current and is simultaneously exposed to an AC magnetic field of the same phase, the combination of pick-up and lock-in amplifier techniques should be adopted to measure the total loss. Rabbers et al have proposed an “8” shaped pick-up loop and voltage tap combined measurement method, which can be used to measure separately the transport current loss and magnetization loss of an HTS tape, and the total AC loss has been obtained by summing the two type of losses [153]. In order to measure the total AC loss in HTS CCs carrying AC transport current in an AC transverse magnetic field, Jiang and Amemiya have developed a linked pick-up coil (LPC) to reduce the error in the measured magnetization loss due to the variation of field orientation and used the combination of an internal compensation coil and a non-inductive shunt resistor to reduce the LPC output voltage and phase error [154]. Schwartz et al have designed a versatile AC loss and stability characterization facility suitable for various temperatures between 35

606 to 100 K [155]. This facility can be utilized to measure the total AC loss under simultaneous AC
 607 transport currents and background fields, and the sample can rotate to change its orientation with
 608 respect to the field. Vojenciak et al have studied the influence of the voltage taps position on the AC
 609 loss of the HTS tapes and pointed out that the placement of voltage contacts outside the current leads
 610 is beneficial for the protection of the sample against thermal runaway, but the eddy current loss in
 611 normal metal is unavoidable during the loss measurement [156].

612 The above-mentioned AC loss measurement methods perform well when the carried current is
 613 purely sinusoidal. However, as pointed out in Section 3, the superconductors applied to electrical
 614 machines have to work with non-sinusoidal signals, namely harmonics. De Bruyn et al have specified
 615 in [130] that the total AC loss is not always the result of a linear contribution of different harmonics
 616 when the transport current is not purely sinusoidal. Therefore, to measure the AC loss in
 617 superconducting machines, the conventional electric methods need to be improved. A direct electric
 618 method has been proposed in [130], which is achieved by directly measuring the current and voltage
 619 over the specimen. Therefore, the average P_{trans} can be calculated by

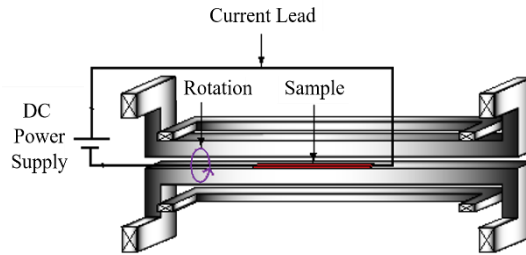
$$620 \quad P_{\text{trans}} = \frac{1}{NT} \int_{t=t_0}^{t=t_0+NT} u(t)i(t)dt \quad (22)$$

621 where T is the current cycle, N is an integer. The diagram for the measurement system is shown in
 622 Figure 8. Zhu et al have recently proposed an integral method for measuring the AC loss of HTS coils
 623 carrying non-sinusoidal current [157]. The current flowing through the HTS coil is obtained by
 624 measuring the voltage of the inductance-free resistor (divider). The proposed integral method has
 625 provided a useful tool for measuring the AC loss of superconductors carrying non-sinusoidal
 626 currents, which is of great importance for the loss quantification in superconducting machines.
 627



628
 629 **Figure 8.** Schematic graph of the experimental equipment for measuring the AC transport current loss
 630 of superconducting specimen, adapted from [130].

631 As mentioned above, dynamic loss happens when the HTS CC carrying DC is exposed to time-
 632 varying magnetic fields, which can dominate the total loss of field coils in superconducting machines.
 633 The experimental setup for the measurement of the dynamic loss of HTS CCs is shown in Figure 9,
 634 designed by Jiang et al [158]. This system is mainly composed of a custom-built AC magnet, a DC
 635 power supply that provides transport current, and a cryogenic container to maintain the operating
 636 temperature. The dynamic loss is calculated by measuring the voltage along with the transport
 637 current of the coated conductor sample. The measurement method has been extensively applied to
 638 much experimental exploration of dynamic loss and dynamic resistance of HTS CCs [16, 63-64, 158-
 639 161]. Ogawa has studied the magnetization loss and dynamic loss of an HTS pancake coil with a
 640 double pick-up coil method and found that the dynamic resistance can mitigate the DC of the coil
 641 when it is operated in the permanent current mode [135].



642

643

Figure 9. Experimental setup for the measurement of dynamic loss in HTS CCs [158].

644

5.2. Magnetic method

645

The magnetic method is regularly used to measure the hysteresis loss of superconductors. By measuring the voltages over pick-up coils around the superconducting specimen, which are then multiplied by the field strength and integrated over one cycle, the variation in the magnetic moment of the specimen can be identified [162]. The magnetic moment of the superconductor can be obtained with different methods, such as pick-up coils, Hall probes, superconducting quantum interference devices (SQUID), and vibrating-sample magnetometers (VSM). The measurement system is usually composed of the AC magnet, cryostat, pick-up coil, high-current amplifier, compensation coil, as well as the data acquisition system.

653

According to [131], for small superconducting samples, the hysteresis loop can be measured by SQUID and VSM methods to obtain the hysteresis power loss per unit length (W/m), as

655

$$P_{\text{hys}} = CAf \mu_0 \oint H_{\text{ext}} dM = -CAf \mu_0 \oint M dH_{\text{ext}} \quad (23)$$

656

where A is the geometrical cross-sectional area of the sample, C denotes the effective area coefficient ($C = 1$ at low frequencies), H_{ext} stands for the external AC field strength, and M represents the measured magnetization. Hysteresis loss can also be acquired through the measurement of the imaginary part of complex AC susceptibility. In a superconducting machine, the HTS field windings are always exposed to a large DC background field with a relatively small AC ripple field. In this case, P_{hys} can be calculated by

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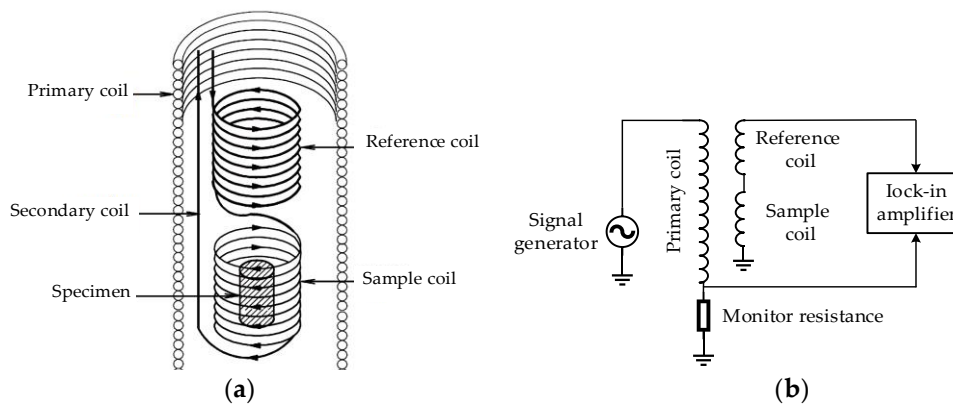
$$P_{\text{hys}} = CAf \frac{\pi B_m^2}{\mu_0} \chi'' \quad (24)$$

663

where χ'' is the measured imaginary part of the AC susceptibility, and B_m is the amplitude of the AC magnetic field. The minimum measurable loss value can attain 10^{-6} ~ 10^{-5} W/m with the magnetic method. The equivalent circuit for a typical AC susceptibility measurement system is shown in Figure 10.

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Figure 10. Diagrams of the measurement systems for AC susceptibility of superconductors, adapted from [163]: (a) Geometrical arrangement of different coils; (b) Equivalent circuit for the measurement system using the magnetic method.

672 Pardo et al have measured the voltage signal and AC loss in a pancake coil made of CCs with
 673 the ferromagnetic substrate utilizing a SQUID magnetometer at 100 K [164]. However, it appears that
 674 the SQUID and VSM techniques are too slow for measurement at power frequencies. For varying
 675 magnetic fields with different orientations, the pick-up magnetic methods seem to be the best choice.
 676 Gömöry has measured the AC susceptibility with a pick-up coil and lock-in amplifier combined
 677 method [165]. Kajikawa et al have proposed a perpendicular-field loss measurement method for
 678 superconducting coils using a pair of pick-up coils, which enables the measurement of long-length
 679 samples in a compact apparatus [166]. Iwakuma et al have applied a saddle-shaped pick-up coil to
 680 measure the magnetization loss of superconducting tapes and windings because it can avoid the end
 681 effect by using longer sample wires [167-169]. The saddle-shaped pick-up coil based magnetic
 682 method has recently been used in [170] to quantify the AC loss of perpendicularly stacked REBCO
 683 CCs. To characterize the AC loss of a coil wound cable-in-conduit conductor (CICC) in pulsed
 684 regimes, Muzzi et al have modified the pick-up coils with an extra-compensation procedure [171].
 685 Fisher et al have developed a simple calibration-free method based on the dipole approximation,
 686 which allows obtaining both the AC loss and orientation of the sample magnetic moment [172]. More
 687 recent experimental measurement work based on the magnetic method can be found in [173-174].

688 5.3. Calorimetric method

689 If the superconducting sample carrying an AC current experiences an AC magnetic field, the
 690 conventional electric method will be applicable for the AC loss measurement only when the current
 691 and field are varying at the same frequency and in phase. It is practical to have the transport current
 692 and magnetic field out of phase in superconducting machines. In this case, the calorimetric method
 693 becomes a superior alternative. In [175-176], the influence of the phase shift between the external
 694 magnetic field and the transport current on the AC loss of the HTS tape has been investigated using
 695 both the electric method and calorimetric method. As a comparison, though the electric method has
 696 higher sensitivity, the calorimetric method can provide higher reliability. Besides, the disturbance of
 697 alternating magnetic fields or currents is intrinsic in the electric and magnetic measurement
 698 approaches, which is not a concern for the calorimetric method. Therefore, the calorimetric method
 699 can be applied to a complicated electromagnetic environment. With the calorimetric method, the total
 700 AC loss can be obtained by the measurement of either the temperature rises of superconductors or
 701 the evaporated cryogen.

702 5.3.1. Measurement of the temperature rise

703 The thermal conductivity measurement technique was first put forward by McConnell and
 704 Critchlow for the determination of superconducting AC power loss [177]. To measure the
 705 temperature variation, cryogenic thermometers, cryostat, thermal isolation material, and voltage taps
 706 are usually needed. The calibration of the thermometers is the first step. Then, the variation of the
 707 thermal conductivity of the superconducting sample with temperature needs to be measured. Once
 708 the temperature distribution along the sample is known, the total AC power dissipation can be
 709 obtained by [177]

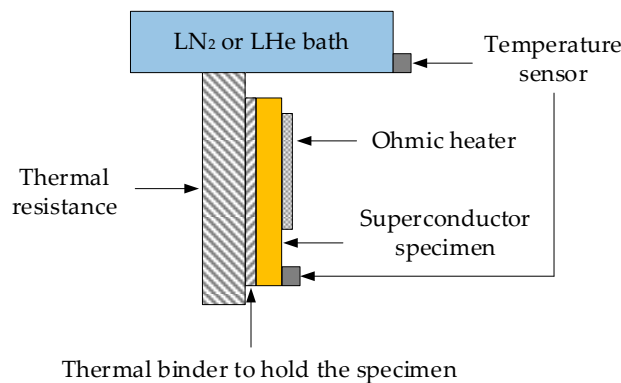
$$710 P_{AC} = \frac{8KA \cdot \Delta T}{L^2} \quad (25)$$

711 where K , A , and L represent the thermal conductivity, cross-sectional area and length of the
 712 superconducting sample, respectively. ΔT denotes the temperature difference between the sample
 713 center and its ends. It is claimed that the thermal conductivity measurement technique is possibly
 714 able to measure a loss of 2×10^{-10} W/cm with an uncertainty of about 30% [177].

715 In order to measure the low losses of superconductors operated at liquid-helium temperature
 716 calorimetrically, Schmidt and Specht have developed a temperature-rise-measurement based method
 717 with a resolution of 10^{-8} W [178]. The superconducting sample is placed into a vacuum vessel and
 718 connected via a thermal resistance to the liquid-helium bath. However, to measure low loss of less
 719 than $1 \mu\text{W}$, three conditions must be fulfilled: no additional eddy current losses generated in the
 720 structure, limited self-heating power in the thermometer attached to the sample, and stable

721 temperature of the heat sink. Dolez et al have proposed a null calorimetric method for measuring the
 722 AC loss of superconducting tapes without any compensation and any size and shape restriction [179],
 723 and then this method has been ameliorated in [180] to overcome the insufficient thermalization of the
 724 tape extremities and thermocouple reference junctions. Although it was demonstrated in [179-180]
 725 that the proposed null calorimetric method was able to measure losses of 10^{-8} W/cm, its accuracy and
 726 uncertainty were not discussed in detail. To simplify the experimental setup and save measurement
 727 time, Ashworth and Suenaga have reported a simple technique to measure the AC losses using a
 728 differential thermocouple [181]. However, this technique has a low resolution limit of approximately
 729 0.01 W/m. See et al have reported a calorimetric method to determine the AC losses of
 730 superconducting samples in superimposed DC and AC fields/currents by measuring the change in
 731 resistance due to temperature variation [182-183]. The measurement system can achieve operating
 732 temperature from 2 to 300 K [183].

733 For the superconductors located in electrical machines, they can experience rotating magnetic
 734 fields. In view of this situation, Ghoshal et al have adopted the calorimetric method based on the
 735 temperature variation of the superconductor thermally insulated from the cooling bath [184]. The
 736 principle of this calorimetric method is shown in Figure 11, in which the tested specimen is placed in
 737 a vacuum vessel and connected to the coolant by thermal resistance. The NASA Glenn Research
 738 Center has recently developed a LH₂-based test rig, which can be used to measure the AC loss of HTS
 739 stator coils in rotating magnetic fields with the thermocouples between the range of 18 to 28 K
 740 (extensible to 95 K employing LN₂ or GHe as a coolant) [185]. The system can be applied with the
 741 following test parameters: injected current (0 to 400 A), magnetic field (0 to 0.6 T), phase angle
 742 between injected current and induced voltage (-180° to 180°), and frequency (0 to 400 Hz).



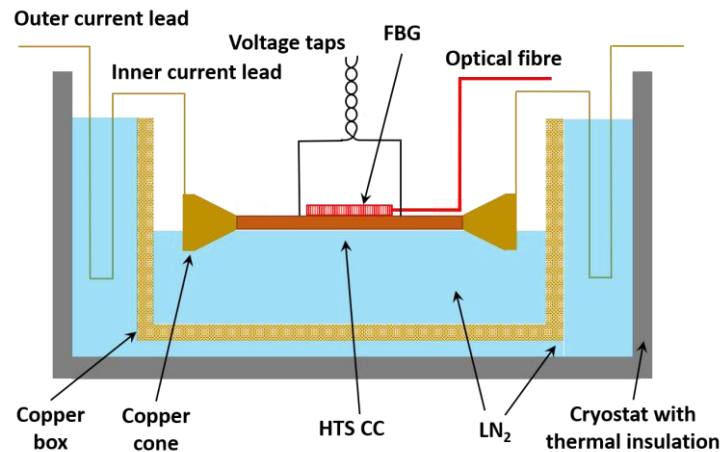
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744 **Figure 11.** Diagram of the calorimetric measurement system for AC loss of superconductors, adapted
 745 from [184].

746 Another temperature variation detection method is by optical fiber Bragg grating (FBG) [186],
 747 which takes advantage of the wavelength variance dependence of temperature described by

$$748 \quad \Delta\lambda_B = \alpha_T \Delta T = \lambda_B (\xi + \alpha) \Delta T \quad (26)$$

749 where λ_B stands for the wavelength of the optical FBG; α_T denotes the temperature-dependent
 750 sensitivity coefficient; ξ and α represent temperature-dependent constants. The minimum
 751 measurable loss by the temperature rise measurement method is approximately 10^{-4} W/m. The
 752 measurement system using FBG is presented in Figure 12. Compared to the conventional calorimetric
 753 methods, the FBG sensor possesses the advantages of anti-electromagnetic interference and rapid
 754 response, it is thus capable of measuring the AC loss of HTS applications in a complex
 755 electromagnetic environment at a faster speed.



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Figure 12. Diagram of the calorimetric measurement system based on the optical fiber Bragg grating for AC loss of HTS tapes, adapted from [186].

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5.3.2. Measurement of the cryogen evaporation

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The temperature rise due to dissipated energy will lead to the evaporation of the cryogen; thus, the measurement of AC loss can be achieved by measuring the gas flow volume of the evaporating cryogen, namely the boil-off method [187]. The corresponding measurement system is mainly composed of the AC power supply, non-metal cryostat, cryogen, heat exchanger, thermostat, and gas flow meter. The AC power loss per unit length (W/m) can be obtained by [131]

765

$$P_{AC} = CAf \int_{T_b}^{T_m} \gamma C(T) dT = CAf [H(T_m) - H(T_b)] \quad (27)$$

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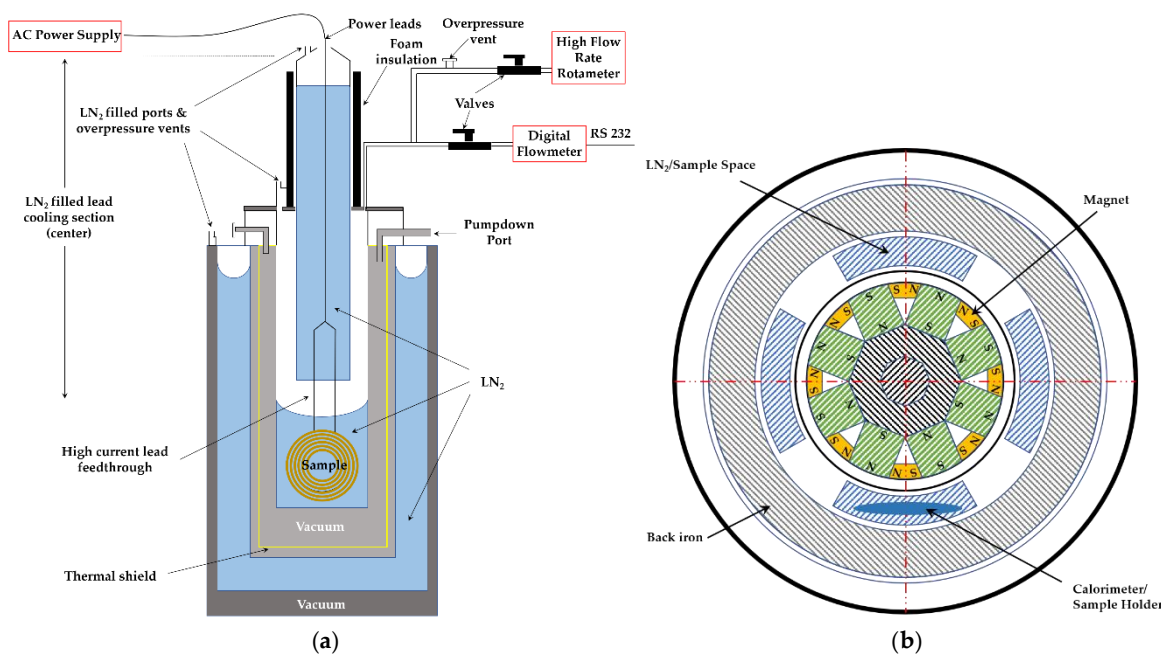
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where A is the geometrical cross-sectional area of the sample; C stands for the effective area coefficient; T_b is the environment temperature; T_m denotes the average temperature rise; $\gamma C(T)$ is the volumetric heat capacity of the superconductor; $H(T)$ refers to the enthalpy of the cryogen at temperature T . It should be noted that the measurement of cryogen evaporation is time-consuming and does not possess a high accuracy, with the minimum measurable loss of 10^{-4} ~ 10^{-2} W/m. With this method, Kuroda has measured the AC losses of superconducting solenoidal coils with a resolution of 10^{-3} W [188]. However, it is difficult to maintain the thermal equilibrium of the liquid cryogen filled cryostat, which affects the measurement accuracy. To overcome this disadvantage, Kuroda has then proposed a modified boil-off method without a pre-calibration, and the AC loss is obtained by multiplying the generating rate of the helium gas by a constant [189]. After improvement, the accuracy and measurement range could attain $\pm 3\%$ and 3-170 mW, respectively. Okamoto et al have developed an apparatus for applying the nitrogen boil-off method to measure the AC losses in HTS coils at liquid nitrogen temperature, and a sensitivity of about 0.1 W was achieved [190]. W. Yuan et al have measured the transport current loss of a pancake coil with the LN₂ boil-off measurement technique and the electric method, respectively. The experimental results are consistent with the model calculations, though there exists a discrepancy between the modelling results and the electric method based experimental data at large currents [191]. Figure 13 (a) shows a calorimetric system to measure the total AC loss of superconducting tapes or coils based on the boil-off of liquid nitrogen, proposed by Murphy et al [192]. With the help of the proposed calorimeter system, a permanent magnet rotor has been designed to simulate the electromagnetic environment of an electrical machine, and the AC loss of one armature coil carrying AC current exposed to rotating fields has been measured, as shown in Figure 13 (b). The calorimetric system can measure low losses from a few milliwatts to several hundred milliwatts [192].



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790

791 **Figure 13.** Diagram of LN₂ boil-off calorimeter system for measuring AC losses of HTS CCs and coils,
792 adapted from [192]: (a) AC transport current loss measurement of an HTS coil; (b) AC loss
793 measurement of an armature coil in the environment of an electrical machine.

794 The comparison among three different measurement methods has been summarized in Table 5.
795 Nowadays, the measurement of AC loss has been concentrated on simple single HTS tape or stacks
796 of tapes [153-154, 193-195], and stationary coils [196-201]. It can be seen that the most widely adopted
797 method is the electric method. Nevertheless, it should be noted that most of the experimental
798 measurements are conducted with pure sinusoidal currents or fields (or both in phase at the same
799 frequency). As far as the AC loss measurement in high-speed electric machines is concerned, the
800 extensively used traditional electric method is inapplicable for measurement in a high frequency
801 electromagnetic environment containing harmonics. Significant progress has been made in [202] in
802 which Zhang et al have measured the AC loss of HTS stator coils under rotational magnetic fields
803 inside an axial flux type machine demonstrator. However, for simplification, the tested unit is one
804 circular coil rather than widely used racetrack coils, and the measurement has been conducted under
805 low frequencies of less than 150 Hz. Therefore, for the measurement of AC loss in a high-speed
806 superconducting machine, an efficient and highly accurate method remains to be developed.

807

Table 5. Comparison among different AC loss measurement methods

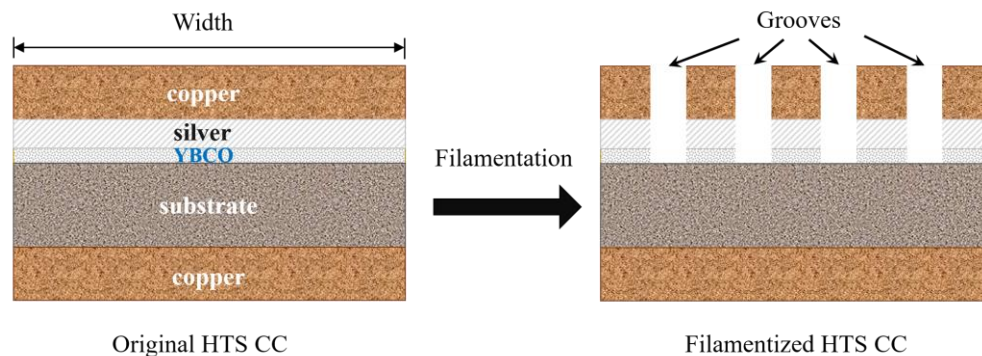
Measurement Methods	Main purpose	Advantages	Disadvantages
Electric method	Transport current loss; total AC loss	Fast; high sensitivity; high accuracy; able to measure low AC loss	Compensation coil needed; lock-in amplifier can only work with pure sinusoidal signals; easy introduction of harmonics.
Magnetic method	Magnetization loss	Fast; high sensitivity; high accuracy; able to measure low AC loss	Limited to static measurement; pick-up coils easily interfered by external magnetic fields;
Calorimetric method	Total loss	Disregarding object shape;	Poor sensitivity; weak accuracy;

disregarding working conditions; able to measure large scale specimen	long time consumption; possible disturbance from thermal effects of non-superconductors.
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808 6. AC loss reduction techniques

809 6.1. Filamentation of HTS CCs

810 The large cross-sectional aspect ratio of HTS CCs leads to a high magnetization loss. Therefore,
 811 to reduce AC loss, the striation of the HTS layer to a filamentary structure has been proposed [203-
 812 207]. Two types of techniques can be used to divide the HTS layer: striation before or after REBCO
 813 synthesis [206-207]. The former is the processing of the substrate by etching, lift-off, mechanical
 814 scribing, and ink-jet printing for the synthesis of the striated HTS layer or the barrier between
 815 filaments. The latter includes laser ablation, mechanical cutting, and chemical etching, etc. Godfrin et
 816 al have made a comparison of the two striation techniques in [207]. The diagram of the filamentation
 817 of a typical HTS CC is presented in Figure 14.



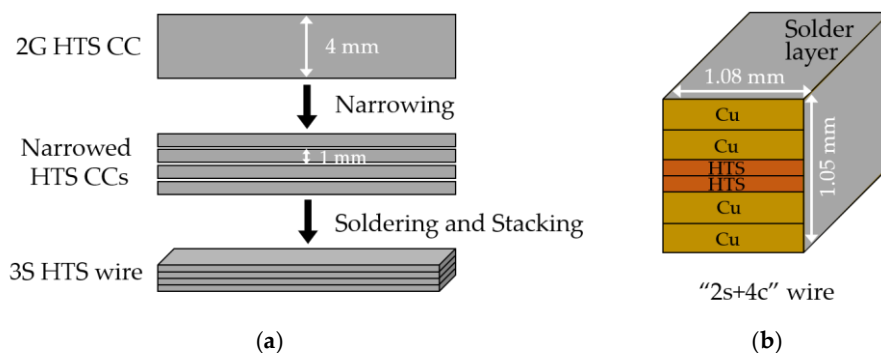
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Figure 14. Diagram of the filamentation of a typical HTS coated conductor (cross section).

820 As illustrated in Figure 1, the filamentation of HTS CCs can effectively decrease the AC loss, and
 821 the loss reduction effect gets enhanced with the increasing number of filaments. According to
 822 Equation (1), the magnetization loss is proportional to the square of the width of the HTS CC, thus a
 823 reduction by a factor N is expected if the HTS layer is striated to N filaments. However, this is true
 824 only at sufficiently high fields because at lower fields the superconductor volume penetrated by the
 825 field is larger in uncoupled filaments than in a nonstriated CC [20] and hence the loss of a
 826 filamentized CC can be greater than that of the original one, as shown in Figure 1. The influence of
 827 subdividing YBCO films into arrays of parallel strips on AC loss was revealed experimentally for the
 828 first time in [208]. Then, in [209], it has been shown that the laser striation process has little influence
 829 on the critical current of the tape with a small number of filaments. However, when increasing the
 830 number of filaments, as illustrated in [207], the critical current of each CC will experience a
 831 degradation. [210] points out that an AC loss decrease proportional to the number of filaments only
 832 happens when the filaments in perpendicular magnetic fields are decoupled. However, this is not the
 833 case in practical machine applications because the filaments are coupled by current leads. The
 834 coupling loss between filaments can largely increase the total AC loss, which is proportional to the
 835 frequency and the square of the external magnetic field [203]. As illustrated in [203], a decrease of
 836 coupling loss at high frequencies can be achieved by increasing the transverse resistivity and by
 837 reducing the twist pitch. It should be noted that though the filamentation of the CC can help decrease
 838 the overall AC loss, the mechanical strength of each filament degrades. Therefore, once one filament
 839 breaks down due to a localized defect, hotspot, or a mechanical shock, the superconducting state of
 840 the CC can be destroyed. To solve this problem, bridges can be exploited to enhance the connectivity
 841 between filaments. In [211], AC losses of striated and nonstriated RABiTS CCs were measured and
 842 compared. Results showed that the application of bridges can increase the total AC loss due to

843 significant filament coupling, but still much lower than CCs without filamentation. Therefore, the
 844 number and arrangement of filaments can bring about a trade-off between the current sharing
 845 capacity and total AC loss of HTS CCs. It is not sufficiently effective to decrease AC loss simply by
 846 cutting the CC into filaments because of the incomplete flux penetration in between the filaments
 847 [212]. Therefore, virtual transverse crosscuts have been proposed in [213] to introduce flux
 848 penetration in between the filaments more uniformly, which can help magnetically decouple the
 849 filaments and further reduce AC loss. Indium bridges across crosscuts can be used to guarantee the
 850 continuity of the current flow. The improvement of striation methods can also help with the reduction
 851 of AC loss. A significant loss reduction method in HTS CCs with transposed filaments has been
 852 reported in [214]. The proposed CC is made of two diffusively reinforced silver-clad CCs with
 853 filaments in a zigzag form which are partially isolated by a dielectric layer. [214] suggests that the
 854 improvement of the bonding process and the decrease of the filament size contribute positively to the
 855 AC loss reduction. In [215], a scalable laser lithographic process has been applied, including laser
 856 patterning a resist coating, and etching. Results have demonstrated that the critical current is not
 857 debased for striation width over 150 μm , and the AC loss can be decreased effectively. Different from
 858 conventional filamentary HTS CCs, a soldered-stacked-square (3S) wire has been proposed in [216].
 859 The fundamental manufacturing process is to divide HTS CCs into 1-mm-wide ones, solder with a
 860 soldering furnace, and put them into a stack, as shown in Figure 15. [216] reported that the 3S concept
 861 can help to decrease AC loss by 80% compared with originally uncut tapes.

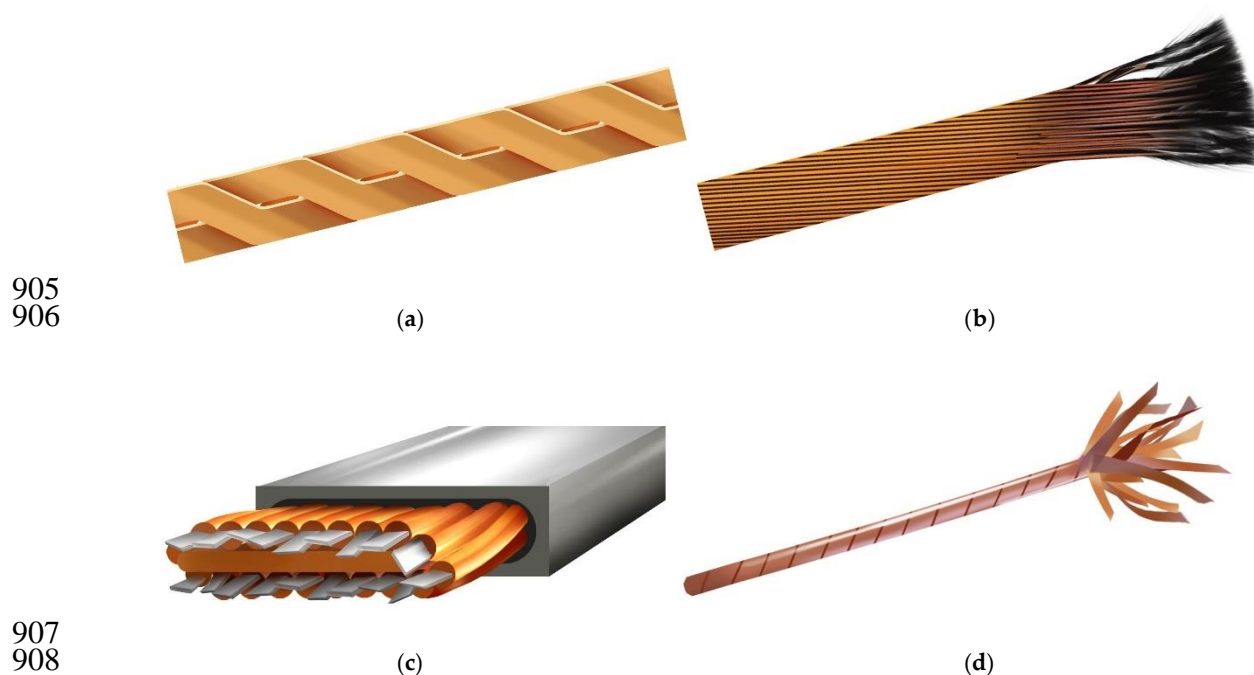


864 **Figure 15.** Diagram of the 3S wire [216]: (a) Fabrication process of the 3S wire; (b) Cross-sectional view
 865 of the 3S wire with 2s+4c (2 superconducting layers + 4 copper stabilizers).

866 6.2. Roebel, Rutherford-type, and CORC® cables

867 Another method to reduce the AC loss of HTS CCs is to change their physical arrangements,
 868 e.g., the Roebel concept [217-219], Rutherford cable [220-221], and Conductor on Round Core
 869 (CORC®) wire [222-224]. The Roebel cable concept was proposed by Ludwig Roebel in 1914 to
 870 produce a low-loss copper cable [224]. The first HTS Roebel cable was developed by the Siemens
 871 Corporate Technology group using BSCCO-2223 tapes in 2004 [217], and later the Karlsruhe Institute
 872 of Technology applied the Roebel structure to REBCO CCs in 2006 [218]. The diagram of a typical
 873 Roebel cable is shown in Figure 16 (a), in which the HTS CCs are cut in a specially designed zigzag
 874 pattern. Because of their periodically repeating and transposed physical properties, Roebel cables can
 875 effectively reduce the transport current loss and magnetization loss compared with conventional HTS
 876 stacks, especially at medium-high currents and low magnetic fields [218]. [219] has shown that the
 877 decrease of strand width can further help lower AC loss. As mentioned before, the filamentation of
 878 HTS CCs can help with the reduction of AC loss. However, at high frequencies, the coupling loss
 879 between filaments will increase rapidly and begin to dominate. To minimize the high-frequency
 880 coupling loss, the Rutherford cable structure has been proposed by Wilson, which does not require
 881 complex twist geometries [220]. It has been demonstrated that the Rutherford configuration is a
 882 promising candidate to realize the ultimate low AC loss [221]. The conventional Rutherford-type
 883 cabling technique is suitable for round strands of superconductors, e.g. BSCCO-2212 and NbTi wires,
 884 as shown in Figure 16 (b). To extend the Rutherford-type design towards 2G flat HTS CCs, the

885 concept of twisting stacked tapes has been firstly introduced by Takayasu et al [227], based on which
 886 Uglietti et al have developed a novel flat HTS cable by winding the HTS strands around a central
 887 copper former [228], as shown in Figure 16 (c). Although the design of the twisted flat HTS cables
 888 was proposed for fusion magnets with high current carrying capacity, they are believed to possess
 889 the potential to be applied as superconducting machine windings to achieve low AC loss. The
 890 CORC® cabling approach was initiated by Van der Laan et al [222], which is achieved by the helical
 891 winding of REBCO CCs on a round former, as shown in Figure 16 (d). The decrease of the width and
 892 thickness of commercial REBCO CCs has enabled the production of flexible, round, and
 893 multifilamentary HTS wires [223]. Vojenčiak et al have demonstrated that the magnetization loss in
 894 CORC® cables twisted from striated CCs holding 5 filaments can be reduced by a factor of almost 5
 895 at fields higher than the penetration field [230]. Terzioglu et al have concluded that the copper tube
 896 former can contribute to the transport current loss and magnetization loss of CORC® cables, thus an
 897 optimized former material with high thermal conductivity and low electrical conductivity should be
 898 employed to reduce the AC loss [231]. Yagotintsev et al have compared the AC loss and inter-tape
 899 contact resistance of multiple cabling methods, including REBCO CORC®, Roebel, and stacked tape
 900 cables [232]. It is found that the CORC® cable has lower hysteresis loss in an alternating magnetic
 901 field perpendicular to the wide side of the REBCO layer, compared with Roebel cables and non-
 902 twisted conductors. Nevertheless, it should be noted that twisting of filaments has the possibility of
 903 damaging the microstructure and grain orientations, thus the critical current of the CC can be
 904 severely affected.

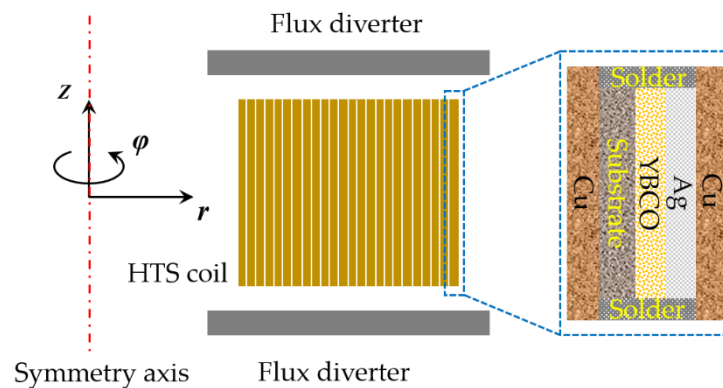


909 **Figure 16.** Pictures of Roebel and Rutherford-type cables: (a) Roebel cables fabricated from HTS CCs,
 910 adapted from [225]; (b) Rutherford cable made from round superconducting wires, adapted from
 911 [226]; (c) Twisted flat HTS cable made from HTS CCs, adapted from [229]; (d) CORC® wire, adapted
 912 from [224].

913 6.3. Flux diverters

914 In addition to the modifications to the physical structure of HTS CCs, the application of magnetic
 915 materials as flux diverters in electrical machines can also serve to decrease the AC loss of
 916 superconductors. In [233-234], Gömörý has demonstrated that adding ferromagnetic covers on the
 917 edges of a single HTS CC or a stack of tapes can effectively reduce the magnetization loss. However,
 918 the reduction effect becomes weaker with the increase of CC numbers. The ferromagnetic shielding
 919 effect in HTS CCs was first experimentally observed in [235] and the ferromagnetic materials'

920 potential of loss reduction has been evaluated. As pointed out in [235], an ideal flux diverter material
 921 should exhibit low saturation field densities, low hysteresis loss, and high permeability. A YBCO
 922 pancake coil with two ring-shaped magnetic diverters made of an iron-based amorphous alloy has
 923 been tested in [236], and the results have shown that the reduction of AC loss is due to the magnetic
 924 mirror effect rather than change of the coil critical current. However, Pardo has pointed out that the
 925 hysteresis loss in the magnetic materials can degrade the reduction effect of flux diverters. The
 926 influence of flux diverters on the reduction of transport current loss has been verified in [237], and it
 927 is shown that the favored diverter material should possess both a low remanence and a high
 928 saturation field. Liu has studied the geometric dimension and location optimization of the magnetic
 929 flux diverter for a better loss reduction effect [238-240]. Results in [238] have shown that the flux
 930 diverter demonstrates an adverse consequence on the CC critical current, depending on the width,
 931 height of the diverter, and the gap between the diverter and the HTS coils. [239] shows that, besides
 932 the positions of flux diverters, their loss reduction effect is also related to the load ratio between the
 933 transport current and critical current, e.g., the use of flux diverters in the middle and end positions
 934 of the double pancake coil can reduce the AC loss by 70%. The frequency-dependence of the diverter
 935 effect for the transport current loss of a YBCO coil has been studied within the frequency band of 10
 936 Hz~5 kHz in [240], and the arrangement of the HTS coil and flux diverters are presented in Figure 17.
 937 Interestingly, the effect of flux diverters for HTS coils with magnetic substrate depends on both the
 938 load ratio and frequency: at low load ratios and high frequencies, the flux diverter will increase the
 939 total loss, because under such conditions the eddy current loss and ferromagnetic loss (in both
 940 diverter and the magnetic substrate) will be enhanced. However, the effectiveness of flux diverters
 941 for non-magnetic-substrate-based HTS coils at high frequencies still deserves further investigation in
 942 the future.



943

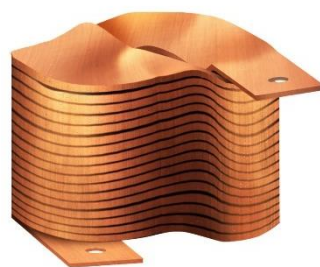
944

Figure 17. Arrangement of the HTS coils and ferromagnetic flux diverters [240].

945 6.4. Winding techniques

946 Apart from the structure modification of superconductors and the application of ferromagnetic
 947 flux diverters, winding techniques are another effective way to decrease the AC losses of coils.
 948 Kawagoe et al have proposed a winding method for multilayer-type conductors composed of stacked
 949 Rutherford-type cables by controlling the twist angle around the conductor axis, which can help
 950 decrease the total AC loss by 74% compared to the conventional winding method [241]. Heydari et
 951 al have applied two auxiliary windings to reduce the leakage flux in HTS transformers so that the
 952 AC loss of HTS coils can be decreased by about 13.6% [242]. Kim et al have employed a metal-clad
 953 (MC) winding technique for non-insulated (NI) HTS coils to enhance the turn-to-turn resistance by
 954 adding a 5- μm -thick coating of stainless steel to a copper-stabilized HTS CC [243]. It has been
 955 demonstrated that the NI coil has the least AC loss, followed by the NI coil with the MC winding
 956 technique, and the insulated coil has the highest AC loss. However, it should be noted that the AC
 957 transport current loss tests in [243] were performed at 20 Hz, i.e., at low frequencies. Therefore, the
 958 effectiveness of the added metal clad in high frequency electromagnetic environment (e.g., in high-
 959 speed rotating machines) remains unclear. In addition, the application of metal clad can definitely
 960 increase the total mass of the machine windings. The influence of turn-to-turn resistivity on the AC

961 loss of HTS coils has been recently discussed by Wang et al in [244], in which a grading turn-to-turn
962 resistivity technique has been put forward to reduce the total AC loss on the outer turns while
963 keeping good thermal stability on the middle turns of the NI HTS coils used for electrical aircraft
964 propulsion. Simpson et al have invented a shaped profile winding for minimal AC loss in
965 conventional electrical machines [245], as shown in Figure 18, which maximizes slot area utilization
966 to realize an improved low-speed and DC performance while achieving low AC loss. As pointed out
967 by Simpson and Kails from the University of Bristol, the proposed shaped profile winding technique
968 can have the potential to be adapted to superconducting windings in the future. Recently, Jiang et al
969 have reported a 15% loss reduction in a 3-phase 1 MVA HTS transformer by exploiting the anisotropic
970 field dependence of the critical current of HTS CCs [246]. By orienting the CC or coil appropriately
971 with respect to the external field, a substantial AC loss reduction can be achieved.



972

973 **Figure 18.** Diagram of the shaped profile winding [245].

974 To sum up, the existing AC loss reduction methods have provided some significant design
975 guidelines, but a few challenges remain:

- 976 1) The filamentation of HTS CCs, the Roebel, the Rutherford as well as the CORC cables can help
977 with the reduction of AC loss. However, their electro-thermal performance under the skin effect
978 and coupling effect between filaments in the practical machine environment (especially at high
979 frequencies for high-speed rotating machines) is still unclear, therefore their loss reduction
980 effectiveness needs to be further explored.
- 981 2) Flux diverters have been proven to be useful to decrease the AC loss of superconductors, but
982 this effectiveness gets weaker with the increase of the number of turns in a coil. Besides, the
983 hysteresis loss in ferromagnetic flux diverters increases rapidly with increasing frequency. In
984 this way, the flux diverter at high frequencies can become a severe heat load itself. Therefore,
985 the contribution of flux diverters to the total loss distribution at high frequencies inside
986 superconducting machines needs more investigation.
- 987 3) Winding techniques appear to be a useful alternative for the AC loss reduction of HTS coils.
988 When the coils are implemented into rotating machines, besides the electromagnetic
989 performance, their mechanical strength, thermal characteristics, as well as processing difficulty
990 also need to be considered. A balance needs to be reached between the AC loss reduction and
991 total mass augmentation for the design of superconducting machines.

992 7. Conclusions and future outlook

993 This paper has reviewed multiple AC loss related topics with respect to superconducting
994 machines: adopted superconducting materials, AC loss mechanism and analytical formulae,
995 modelling methods, measurement approaches, as well as loss reduction techniques. The main
996 conclusions are presented as follows.

997 The primary advantage of LTSs lies in their relatively lower cost. MgB₂ has been employed in
998 many armature coils because of its filamentary structure which can achieve a relatively lower AC
999 loss. HTS CCs, fabricated from REBCO or BSCCO, possess larger current carrying capacity and
1000 higher critical field, thus they can bring a higher electric and magnetic load to superconducting
1001 machines. Although the cryogenic system for superconductors has not been discussed in this paper,
1002 we have to note that its cost plays an important role in the design of superconducting machines.

1003 Compared to LTSs and MgB₂, both of which usually function in LHe at ~4 K or LH₂ at ~20 K, HTS
1004 tapes have higher critical temperature thus they can be cooled by LN₂ operating at 77 K. Therefore,
1005 the cost of the cryogenic system used for HTS CCs can be relatively lower. In addition, the material
1006 cost of HTS CCs is expected to decrease soon with the advancement of processing techniques and
1007 material science. Hence, HTS CCs are believed to have a good application prospect in
1008 superconducting machines. HTS bulks and trapped field magnets are also competent candidates as
1009 field sources in superconducting machines, which can avoid the application of current leads during
1010 operation.

1011 The existing analytical equations to calculate AC loss are mainly focused on HTS thin films. The
1012 analytical formulae can help easily understand the loss mechanism and its influential factors, which
1013 are conveniently used to predict the AC loss of HTS CCs in simple structures. However, when the
1014 HTS CCs are wound into complex structures, e.g. racetrack coils widely used in electrical machines,
1015 we need to apply numerical modelling or measurement methods to quantify the total loss. The two
1016 principle reasons are: 1) The analytical formulae have been derived based on some necessary
1017 approximations and assumptions, which become inapplicable in complex machine environment; 2)
1018 There always exist harmonics in electrical machines composed of high frequency components, and
1019 the interactions between the superconducting and non-superconducting layers of HTS CCs at high
1020 frequencies cannot be correctly reflected by the existing equations. Therefore, it remains an open
1021 subject for researchers to develop analytical models to predict the AC loss of complex geometries
1022 employed in a complicated electromagnetic environment.

1023 The widely adopted numerical modelling methods for the AC loss quantification of
1024 superconductors are mainly consisted of: 1) Maxwell's equations-based FEM achieved by four types
1025 of basic formulations, including the T - ϕ formulation, A - V formulation, E -formulation, and H -
1026 formulation and their several combinations, e.g. the H - A formulation, T - A formulation, and H - ϕ
1027 formulation; 2) Integral equation method for thin tapes solved with FEM; 3) Minimum Magnetic
1028 Energy Variation method; 4) Minimum Electro-Magnetic Entropy Production method. Maxwell's
1029 equations-based FEM can be easily incorporated into commercially available software, e.g. COMSOL
1030 Multiphysics and Ansys, and the interactions between superconducting and non-superconducting
1031 parts inside machines can be considered, thus this approach is recommended for the AC loss
1032 estimation in HTS machines. Given that a great number of HTS CCs are needed in electrical machines,
1033 the modelling of superconducting windings can be computationally complicated and time-
1034 consuming. To improve the computational efficiency, three simplification techniques can be
1035 exploited, including the homogenization, multi-scaling, and densification methods. For modelling a
1036 large number of HTS turns at low frequencies, both the H -formulation and T - A formulation-based
1037 homogenization methods have a high computational speed with acceptable accuracy. The
1038 application of the multiscale modelling method can largely reduce the number of DOF, requiring less
1039 calculation memory, and thus it can further save computational time. The densification method leads
1040 to fewer tapes to be modelled. However, the 3D modelling of HTS racetrack coils considering the
1041 multilayer structure of each HTS CC in rotating electrical machines remains a big challenge to be
1042 overcome.

1043 Besides numerical modelling, significant contributions have been realized in the
1044 instrumentation and measurement of AC loss in superconductors. More specifically, AC loss
1045 measurement techniques can be categorized into the electric method, the magnetic method, and the
1046 calorimetric method. The electric method has been most widely used because of its relatively higher
1047 sensitivity and shorter measurement duration. For measuring the total AC loss composed of
1048 transport current loss and magnetization loss, the electric method and calorimetric method are
1049 suggested. Considering the complex electromagnetic environment composed of high frequency
1050 harmonics inside electrical machines, the calorimetric method seems to be the best choice because it
1051 disregards the object shape and working conditions, being also able to measure large scale specimen.
1052 However, the sensitivity of the calorimetric method is relatively poorer, and it takes longer duration
1053 for measuring compared to the electric and magnetic methods. The conventional electric method has
1054 been improved to measure the AC loss of superconducting coils carrying non-sinusoidal currents or

1055 in the case of phase shift between the measurement voltage and transport current, which is of great
1056 significance for the loss quantification in electrical machines. Nevertheless, an efficient and accurate
1057 experimental method remains to be developed to measure the total AC loss of superconductors
1058 applied in a complicated electromagnetic environment with harmonics inside practical electrical
1059 machines.

1060 Concerning the AC loss reduction techniques, the modification of superconductor structures has
1061 been widely investigated, e.g. the filamentation of HTS CCs, the 3S wire, the Roebel structure, the
1062 Rutherford concept, as well as the CORC® wire. However, it should be pointed out that, the
1063 filamentation process can potentially weaken the mechanical strength and critical current of the HTS
1064 CC. Although the filamentary structure can help with the reduction of AC loss at low frequencies,
1065 e.g. Roebel cables, it can bring about a high coupling loss between different filaments at high
1066 frequencies. The Rutherford design can mitigate the coupling loss, however, twisting of filaments has
1067 the possibility of damaging the microstructure and grain orientations, thus the critical current of the
1068 CC can be severely affected. The tube former can contribute to the AC loss of CORC® cables, thus an
1069 optimized former material with high thermal conductivity and low electrical conductivity needs to
1070 be investigated. Ferromagnetic flux diverters have been demonstrated to be useful for decreasing the
1071 AC loss of superconductors, despite that the effectiveness drops with the increase of turn numbers.
1072 We need to realize that the ferromagnetic materials can favor the total power dissipation of electrical
1073 machines, thus the effect of flux diverters applied to high-speed rotating machines deserves further
1074 exploration. Winding techniques can also be exploited to AC loss reduction of superconducting coils,
1075 e.g., the NI HTS coils and shaped profile windings. However, the mechanical and thermal
1076 characteristics of superconducting coils should also be taken into account when they are applied to
1077 practical electrical machines.

1078 Evidently, remarkable original contributions have pushed forward the area of AC loss analysis,
1079 modelling, measurement, and controlling in superconductors. This paper has demonstrated the state
1080 of the art in this research area and provided a useful reference for loss quantification and loss
1081 reduction techniques in superconducting machines. Additionally, this paper exposes gaps in our
1082 understanding and knowledge and opens up the challenges that need to be addressed for the design
1083 of high-speed superconducting machines, delivering a helpful guideline for future research efforts.

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1085 H.Z.; validation, H.Z., Z.W., F.G., and M.M.; formal analysis, H.Z., Z.W., F.G., K.G., and M.M.; investigation,
1086 H.Z. and Z.W.; resources, F.G. and M.M.; data curation, H.Z., F.G., and Z.W.; writing—original draft
1087 preparation, H.Z.; writing—review and editing, H.Z., F.G., K.G., and M.M.; visualization, H.Z., Z.W., F.G., K.G.,
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