

## Thermodynamic and response properties of superconductors (other than EM)

**Recap:** For any temperature  $< T_c$ , superconductor characterized by ‘energy gap’  $\Delta_{\mathbf{k}}(T)$  which under normal conditions  $\rightarrow \Delta(T)$  [independent of  $\mathbf{k}$ ] for  $|\epsilon_{\mathbf{k}}| \leq k_B T_c$ . Quantity  $\Delta(T)$  satisfies gap equation,  $\rightarrow 0$  at  $T_c$  and  $\rightarrow \text{const}$  ( $= \Delta(0) \sim 1.75 k_B T_c$ ) for  $T \rightarrow 0$ . Many body density matrix is product of density matrices over ‘occupation space’ of  $\mathbf{k}, \uparrow, -\mathbf{k}, \downarrow$  and is diagonal with respect to 4 states:

$$\begin{aligned} |\text{GP}\rangle &= u_{\mathbf{k}}|00\rangle + v_{\mathbf{k}}|11\rangle \\ |\text{EP}\rangle &= v_{\mathbf{k}}|00\rangle - u_{\mathbf{k}}|11\rangle & E &= 2E_{\mathbf{k}}(T) \\ |\text{BP}\rangle &= |10\rangle, |01\rangle & E &= E_{\mathbf{k}}(T) \end{aligned}$$

with  $u_{\mathbf{k}}v_{\mathbf{k}} = \Delta_{\mathbf{k}}/2E_{\mathbf{k}}$ : here  $E_{\mathbf{k}} \equiv (\epsilon_{\mathbf{k}}^2 + |\Delta_{\mathbf{k}}|^2)^{1/2}$ .

Most important expectation value characterizing the S phase is the ‘pair wave function’  $F(\mathbf{r}) \equiv \langle \psi_{\downarrow}(\mathbf{r})\psi_{\uparrow}(0) \rangle \equiv \sum_{\mathbf{k}} F_{\mathbf{k}} \exp i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r}$ ,  $F_{\mathbf{k}} \equiv \langle a_{-\mathbf{k}\downarrow}a_{\mathbf{k}\uparrow} \rangle$ .

We saw in Lecture 6 that

$$F_{\mathbf{k}} = u_{\mathbf{k}}v_{\mathbf{k}} \tanh \beta E_{\mathbf{k}}/2 = (\Delta_{\mathbf{k}}/2E_{\mathbf{k}}) \tanh \beta E_{\mathbf{k}}/2 \quad (1)$$

and so

$$F(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \frac{\Delta_{\mathbf{k}}}{2E_{\mathbf{k}}} \tanh(\beta E_{\mathbf{k}}/2) \exp i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r} \quad (2)$$

In the case of *s*-wave pairing,  $\Delta_{\mathbf{k}}$  is not a function of  $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$  and we can write

$$\sum_{\mathbf{k}} \exp i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r} = N(0) \int d\epsilon_{\mathbf{k}} \int \frac{d\Omega_{\mathbf{k}}}{4\pi} \exp i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r} = N(0) \int d\epsilon_{\mathbf{k}} \frac{\sin kr}{kr} \quad (3)$$

so

$$F(\mathbf{r}) \equiv F(r) = N(0) \int d\epsilon_{\mathbf{k}} \frac{\sin kr}{kr} \frac{\Delta_{\mathbf{k}}}{2E_{\mathbf{k}}} \tanh(\beta E_{\mathbf{k}}/2) \quad (4)$$

For the moment, no restrictions on  $\int d\epsilon_{\mathbf{k}}$  (though lower limit cannot be  $< \mu!$ ). We will assume in what follows

$$T_c \ll \epsilon_F \quad (5)$$

and hence  $k_F \xi' \gg 1$  where  $\xi' \sim \hbar v_F / \Delta(0)$  (see below), as found experimentally.

### 3 Regimes:

- (1) For  $r \lesssim k_F^{-1}$ , integral dominated by  $k \gtrsim k_F$ , i.e.  $|\epsilon| \gtrsim \epsilon_F \gg T_c$  (or  $\Delta$ ). In this regime, behavior of ‘exact’  $F_{\mathbf{k}}$  similar to that of 2 particle wave function  $\psi_{\mathbf{k}}$ , and  $E_{\mathbf{k}} \rightarrow |\epsilon_{\mathbf{k}}|$ ,  $\tanh \beta E_{\mathbf{k}}/2 \rightarrow 1$ . Hence, apart from overall constant, wave function in this regime is that of 2 particles at Fermi energy colliding in free space.

- (2) For  $r \gg k_F^{-1}$  but  $r \ll \hbar v_F/\Delta$  ( $\sim \xi$ , see below), energies entering integral are mostly  $\gg \Delta$ , and so again can put  $E_{\mathbf{k}} \rightarrow |\epsilon_{\mathbf{k}}|$ ,  $\tanh \beta E_{\mathbf{k}}/2 \rightarrow 1$ . If also  $\Delta_k \sim \text{const}$  in this regime (true provided ‘range’ of  $V_{\mathbf{k}\mathbf{k}'} \sim \epsilon_F$ ), then in this regime

$$\begin{aligned} F(r) &\approx \Delta(T)N(0) \int d\epsilon_k \frac{\sin kr}{2kr|\epsilon_k|} \approx \frac{\Delta(T)N(0)}{2k_F r} \sin k_F r \int d\epsilon \frac{\cos(\epsilon r/\hbar v_F)}{|\epsilon|} \\ &\approx \frac{1}{2} \Delta(T)N(0) \frac{\sin k_F r}{k_F r} \times \ln \text{factor} \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

where the ln factor is crudely  $\sim \ln r/\xi$ , ( $\xi \sim \hbar v_F/\Delta$ ). This expression is, apart from a multiplying constant and the ln, essentially the wave function of the free particles in an  $s$ -state at the Fermi energy:

$$\psi(r) \sim \sum_{|\mathbf{k}|=k_F} e^{i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r}} \sim \frac{\sin k_F r}{k_F r} \quad (7)$$

- (3) The most interesting regime is  $r \gtrsim \hbar v_F/\Delta$ . Here the relevant energies are all  $\lesssim k_B T_c$  and we can write (again approximating  $k \sim k_F$  in denominator, etc.)

$$\begin{aligned} F(r) &= \frac{1}{2} \Delta(T)N(0) \frac{\sin k_F r}{k_F r} \int_0^\infty d\epsilon \frac{\cos(\epsilon r/\hbar v_F) \tanh \beta \sqrt{\epsilon^2 + \Delta^2(T)}/2}{\sqrt{\epsilon^2 + \Delta^2(T)}} \\ &\equiv \Delta(T)N(0) \frac{\sin k_F r}{k_F r} \times J(r, \Delta, \beta) \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

Since  $\Delta/\Delta(0) = f(T/T_c)$ ,  $J$  can in fact be a function only of the variables  $\sim \Delta(0)$  and  $T/T_c$ .

Consider two limits:

- (1) In the limit  $T \rightarrow 0$  define  $\xi' \equiv \hbar v_F/\Delta(0)$ , then

$$J(r) = \int_0^\infty dx \frac{\cos x}{\sqrt{x^2 + (r/\xi')^2}} \quad (9)$$

This expression is in fact the Bessel function  $K_0(r/\xi')$ : for small values of the argument, it diverges as  $\ln(\xi'/r)$  [cf. above] while for large values we have

$$J(r) \sim \exp -\sqrt{2} r/\xi' \quad (10)$$

Thus the quantity  $\xi' \equiv \hbar v_F/\Delta(0)$  characterizes (to an order of magnitude) the ‘radius’ of a Cooper pair. (In the literature, it is conventional to use the quantity  $\xi_0 \equiv \hbar v_F/\pi\Delta(0) = \pi^{-1}\xi'$  known as the Pippard coherence length).

- (2) In the limit  $T \rightarrow T_c$  the gap  $\Delta(T)$  tends to zero, and the expression for  $J(r)$  becomes

$$J(r) = \int_0^\infty \frac{d\epsilon}{\epsilon} \cos(r\epsilon/\hbar v_F) \tanh \beta_c \epsilon/2 \quad (11)$$

or introducing  $\xi'' \equiv \hbar v_F / k_B T_c$  ( $\sim \xi'$ )

$$J(r) = \int_0^\infty \frac{dx}{x} \cos x \tanh \frac{x}{2r/\xi''} \equiv f(r/\xi'') \quad (12)$$

Again it is clear that  $J$  diverges as  $\ln(r/\xi'')$  for  $r \rightarrow 0$ , and somewhat less obvious (but true) that it converges exponentially for  $r \gg \xi''$ . Thus as  $T \rightarrow T_c$ , pair radius is  $\sim \xi''$ : note that this is of the same order as  $\xi'$  (or  $\xi_0$ ) and doesn't diverge in this limit.

In intermediate range of  $T$ ,  $J$  is somewhat complicated but still has range  $\sim \xi'$ .

**Normalization:** Consider the quantity:

$$N \equiv \int |F(\mathbf{r})|^2 d\mathbf{r} = \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \frac{\Delta_{\mathbf{k}}^2}{4E_{\mathbf{k}}^2} \tanh^2(\beta E_{\mathbf{k}}/2) \quad (13)$$

It is clear that the main contribution comes from  $|\epsilon| < \Delta(T), k_B T_c$ , where we can approximate  $\Delta(T) \sim \Delta(0)$ . Thus  $N = |\Delta(T)|^2 N(0) \int_0^\infty (d\epsilon/4E^2) \tanh^2 \beta E/2$ . For  $T \rightarrow 0$ , this is  $\sim N(0)\Delta(0)$ ; for  $T \rightarrow T_c$ , it is  $\sim N(0)|\Delta(T)|^2/T$ . (Interpretation as 'number of Cooper pairs').

## Thermodynamics

The most directly observable property is the specific heat  $c_v(T)$ . Recall that in the normal phase we have

$$c_n(T) = \gamma T + \beta T^3 \quad (14)$$

$$\gamma \equiv \frac{\pi^2}{3} \left( \frac{dn}{d\epsilon} \right) k_B^2 \sim n k_B / \epsilon_F, \quad \beta \sim n k_B \theta_D^{-3}$$

Since for  $T \sim T_c$  we usually have  $T_c/\epsilon_F \ll (T_c/\theta_D)^3$ , phonon contribution is usually negligible (if not, it can be subtracted out since it is expected to change little in the superconducting phase). Note in type I superconductors,  $c_s$  can be measurable not only directly but from  $H_c(T)$ .

To calculate  $c_s(T)$ , can either (a) calculate temperature-dependent mean energy  $E(T)$  and differentiate; (b) calculate entropy  $S(T)$  and use  $c_s = T dS/dT$ . Do latter:

$$S(T) = \sum_{\mathbf{k}} S_{\mathbf{k}}(T) \quad (15)$$

For each 'pair space'  $\mathbf{k} \uparrow, -\mathbf{k}, \downarrow$ , we have

$$S_{\mathbf{k}}(T) = -k_B \sum_n p_n \ln p_n = -k_B (P_{GP} \ln P_{GP} + 2P_{BP} \ln P_{BP} + P_{EP} \ln P_{EP}) \quad (16)$$

Since  $P_{GP} : P_{BP} : P_{EP} = 1 : e^{-\beta E_{\mathbf{k}}} : e^{-2\beta E_{\mathbf{k}}}$ , this gives

$$S_{\mathbf{k}}(T) = 2k_B \left\{ \frac{\beta E_{\mathbf{k}}}{e^{\beta E_{\mathbf{k}}} + 1} + \ln(1 + e^{-\beta E_{\mathbf{k}}}) \right\} \quad (17)$$

where recall that  $E_{\mathbf{k}} \equiv E_{\mathbf{k}}(T)$ . When we differentiate with respect to temperature, the explicit  $d/d\beta$  gives a contribution to  $c$  of  $(1/2)k_B\beta^2 \text{sech}^2 \beta E_{\mathbf{k}}/2$ , and the dependence of  $E_{\mathbf{k}}$  on  $T$  gives a contribution  $\beta E_{\mathbf{k}}^{-1} dE_{\mathbf{k}}/d\beta$  times this. Thus

$$c_s/k_B = \frac{1}{2} \beta^2 \sum_{\mathbf{k}} (E_{\mathbf{k}} + \beta dE_{\mathbf{k}}/d\beta) E_{\mathbf{k}} \text{sech}^2 \beta E_{\mathbf{k}}/2 \quad (18)$$

- (A) In limit  $T \rightarrow 0$ , can neglect the second term: result is thus the specific heat of a gas of independent Fermi particles of fixed energy  $E_{\mathbf{k}}$ . [note one  $\mathbf{k}$  contains both  $\mathbf{k} \uparrow$  and  $-\mathbf{k} \downarrow$ ], i.e.,

$$E(T) = \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \frac{2E_{\mathbf{k}}}{e^{\beta E_{\mathbf{k}}} + 1}, \quad c_s(T) = dE/dT \quad (19)$$

Explicitly,

$$c_s(T)_{T \rightarrow 0} = \text{const } \beta^{3/2} [\Delta(0)]^{5/2} (dn/d\epsilon) \exp -\beta \Delta(0) \quad (20)$$

hence can measure zero- $T$  gap  $\Delta(0)$ .

- (B) In limit  $T \rightarrow T_c$ , put  $E_{\mathbf{k}} \rightarrow |\epsilon_{\mathbf{k}}|$  except in  $dE_{\mathbf{k}}/d\beta$ , then first term simply gives N-state specific heat. The difference between the S- and N-state specific heat at  $T_c$  is therefore given by

$$\Delta c_{sn} = \frac{1}{2} k_B \beta_c^3 \sum_{\mathbf{k}} E_{\mathbf{k}} (dE_{\mathbf{k}}/d\beta) \text{sech}^2 \beta |\epsilon_{\mathbf{k}}|/2 \quad (21)$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} k_B \beta_c^3 \frac{d}{d\beta} \Delta^2(T)_{T \rightarrow T_c} (dn/d\epsilon) \int_0^\infty \text{sech}^2 \beta_c |\epsilon|/2 \leftarrow 2\beta_c^{-1} \quad (22)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{dn}{d\epsilon} \right) \left[ -\frac{d}{dT} \Delta^2(T) \right]_{T \rightarrow T_c} \quad (23)$$

Now for  $T \rightarrow T_c$  BCS gap equation gives  $\Delta^2(T) = (3.06 k_B T_c)^2 (1 - T/T_c)$  so

$$\Delta c_{sn} = (1/2)(3.06 k_B)^2 T_c (dn/d\epsilon) \quad (24)$$

or

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta c_{sn}/c_n(T_c) &= (1/2)3.06^2/(\pi^2/3) = 1.43 \\ \Delta c_{sn}/c_n(T_c) &= 1.43 \end{aligned} \quad (25)$$

Note, refers to electronic contribution only

in reasonable agreement with experiment on most superconductors other than Pb and Hg, where the experimental value is larger (see Table in Kuper p. 36: ratio is 1.15–1.6 for most elemental superconductors, 2.07 for Nb, 2.1 for Hg, and 2.65 for Pb).

## Response to external fields

**Spin susceptibility**  $\chi$ : in real life, if apply magnetic field, couple to both spin + orbital motion. Can sometimes separate out ‘spin’ effect by using very thin/dirty samples. Usual measurement is from Knight shift. Assume for the moment simple BCS model, and in particular neglect any Landau Fermi liquid-type effects. Then apply weak field:

Magnetic field cannot shift energy of states  $|00\rangle$  or  $|11\rangle$  since these both have total spin 0. But shifts energy of  $|10\rangle$  and  $|01\rangle$ :

$$E_{\mathbf{k}}(1,0) = E_{\mathbf{k}} - \mu_B H, \quad E_{\mathbf{k}}(0,1) = E_{\mathbf{k}} + \mu_B H$$

$$P_{\mathbf{k}}(1,0) \sim \frac{\exp -\beta(E_{\mathbf{k}} - \mu_B H)}{(1 + \exp -\beta E_{\mathbf{k}})^2} \quad \text{etc.} \quad (26)$$

(neglect 2nd-order changes in normalization),

$$M = \mu_B \sum_{\mathbf{k}} (P_{\mathbf{k}}(1,0) - P_{\mathbf{k}}(0,1)) \sim \mu_B \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \frac{\exp -\beta(E_{\mathbf{k}} - \mu_B H) - \exp -\beta(E_{\mathbf{k}} + \mu_B H)}{(1 + \exp -\beta E_{\mathbf{k}})^2}$$

$$\sim 2\mu_B^2 H \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \frac{\beta \exp -\beta E_{\mathbf{k}}}{(1 + \exp -\beta E_{\mathbf{k}})^2} = \mu_B^2 H \left( \frac{dn}{d\epsilon} \right) \int_0^\infty d\epsilon (\beta/2) \operatorname{sech}^2(\beta E/2) \quad (27)$$

Since  $\chi_n = \mu_B^2 (dn/d\epsilon)$ , this gives

$$\chi(T)/\chi_n = \int_0^\infty d\epsilon (\beta/2) \operatorname{sech}^2(\beta E/2) \equiv Y(T/T_c) \quad \leftarrow \quad \text{Yosida function} \quad (28)$$

The Yosida function is characteristic of the response to fields which cannot affect the Cooper pairs: it is in a sense a measure of the ‘density (fraction) of normal component’. For  $T \rightarrow 0$   $Y$  tends to zero exponentially: for  $T \rightarrow T_c$ , it is equal (in the simple BCS model) to  $1 - 2(1 - T/T_c)$  (The number 2 is exact!).

**Normal density**  $\rho_n$ : momentum of  $|00\rangle_{\mathbf{k}}$  and  $|11\rangle_{\mathbf{k}}$  is 0, of  $|10\rangle_{\mathbf{k}}$  is  $\hbar \mathbf{k}$  etc. Let us imagine a probe which does not affect the pairs, but shifts the energies of the BP states by  $E_{\mathbf{k}}(1,0) \rightarrow E_{\mathbf{k}} - \hbar \mathbf{v} \mathbf{k}$ ,  $E_{\mathbf{k}}(0,1) \rightarrow E_{\mathbf{k}} + \hbar \mathbf{v} \mathbf{k}$ . Such a probe is a uniform (in space) transverse vector potential  $\mathbf{A}$  (actually  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{A}/m$ ), if we assume for the moment it does not act on the pairs. We are then interested in the mass current (momentum density) given by

$$\mathbf{P} = \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \hbar \mathbf{k} (P_{\mathbf{k}}(1,0) - P_{\mathbf{k}}(0,1)) \quad (29)$$

It is clear that the analysis goes through as for  $\chi$  with  $\hbar \mathbf{v} \mathbf{k}$  replacing  $\mu_B$ : the average of  $(\mathbf{v} \mathbf{k})^2$  over the Fermi surface gives  $(1/3)v^2 k_F^2$ . Hence

$$\mathbf{P} = (1/3)(dn/d\epsilon) \hbar^2 k_F^2 Y(T/T_c) \mathbf{v} \quad (30)$$

In the normal phase  $\mathbf{P}$  is just  $(1/3)(dn/d\epsilon) \hbar^2 k_F^2 \mathbf{v}$ , so define  $\rho_n/\rho$  as  $\mathbf{P}/\mathbf{P}_n$ :

$$\rho_n/\rho = Y(T/T_c) \quad (31)$$

[Note: in general it is difficult to realize this thought-experiment!]

### Fermi-liquid effects

These are the most easily modeled by the molecular-field technique, which gives the general result (e.g.) that if  $\chi_0$  is the ‘free-superfluid-gas’ expression then

$$\chi(T) = \frac{\chi_0(T)}{1 + f_0^a \mu_B^{-2} \chi_0(T)} \quad (32)$$

Since  $\chi_0(T) = \mu_B^2 (dn/d\epsilon) Y(T)$ , this gives at once

$$\chi(T) = \frac{(dn/d\epsilon) \mu_B^2 Y(T)}{1 + F_0^a Y(T)}, \quad F_0^a \equiv (dn/d\epsilon) f_0^a \quad (33)$$

or

$$\chi(T)/\chi_0 = \frac{(1 + F_0^a) Y(T)}{1 + F_0^a Y(T)} \quad (34)$$

In superfluid  $^3\text{He}$ , where  $F_0^a$  is large, the corresponding effect is quite dramatic.<sup>†</sup>

Note that the electron-phonon renormalization effects do not cancel in the superfluid phase as they do in the normal phase, so in principle we can extract  $F_0^a$  from the superfluid-state measurement of  $\chi$  (or an equivalent quantity).

#### Normal density

Again the molecular-field technique can be applied. Quote result only for translational-invariant system:

$$\rho_n = \frac{\rho_{n0}}{1 + (1/3) F_1^s p_f^{-2} (dn/d\epsilon)^{-1} \rho_{0n}} = \frac{nm^* Y(T)}{1 + (1/3) F_1^s Y(T)} \quad (35)$$

or

$$\rho_n/\rho = \frac{(1 + (1/3) F_1^s) Y(T)}{1 + (1/3) F_1^s Y(T)} \quad (36)$$

Note that there is now no cancellation between  $m^*/m$  and  $1 + (1/3) F_1^s$  as in the normal phase. Thus, in a translation-invariant system (such as  $^3\text{He}$ ) it is possible to measure  $F_1$  exactly in the superconducting state, independently of  $m^*$ . (but beware strong coupling effects!). In the limit  $T \rightarrow T_c$ ,  $\rho_n/\rho$  tends to 1 as we expect.

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<sup>†</sup>  $^3\text{He}$  is not singlet-paired, so the result must be generalized.