

# Superconductive Materials

## Part 3

### London equations

# Overview of principal theories

## London Theory (1935)

Based on Maxwell's equations

Phenomenological theory that can describe zero resistance and the Meissner effect

Applicable even to Type-II superconductors after Pippard corrections

## Ginzburg Landau Theory (1950)

Phenomenological theory

Can describe non-local effects

Works well near  $T_c$  and for Type-II superconductors

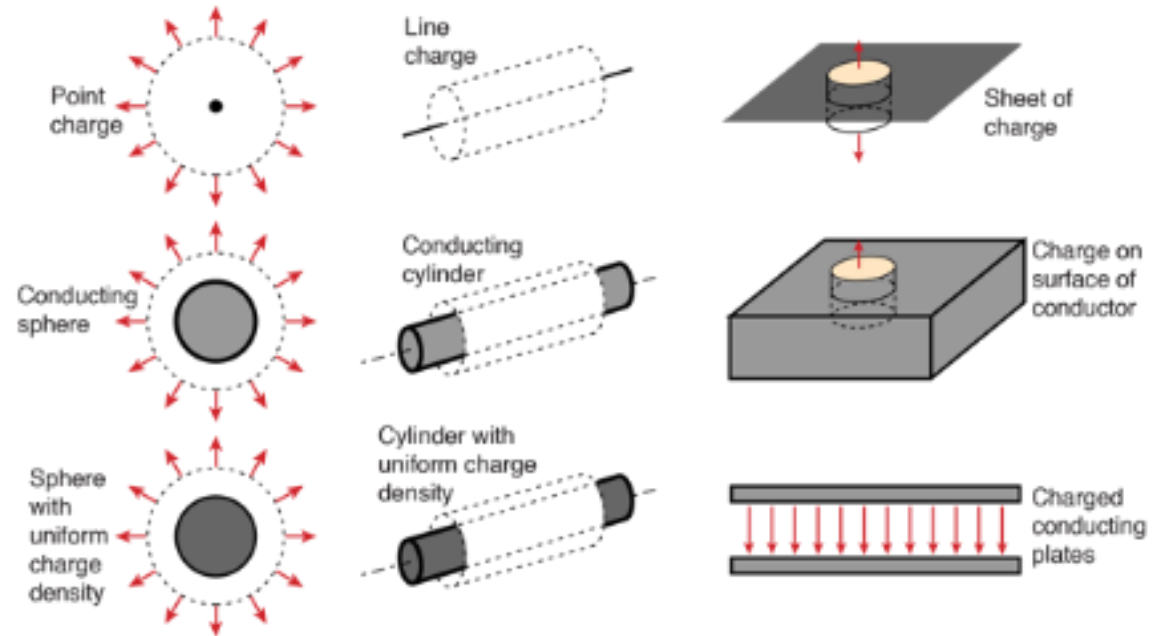
## BCS Theory (1957)

First microscopic theory of superconductivity

Published 46 years after the discovery of superconductivity

# Maxwell Equations

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \quad \text{Gauss' Law for electricity}$$

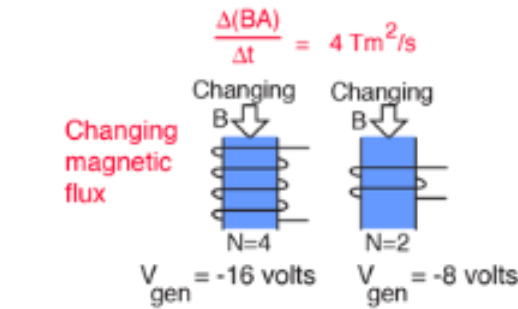


This law states that the Electric Flux out of a closed surface is proportional to the total charge enclosed by that surface

# Maxwell Equations

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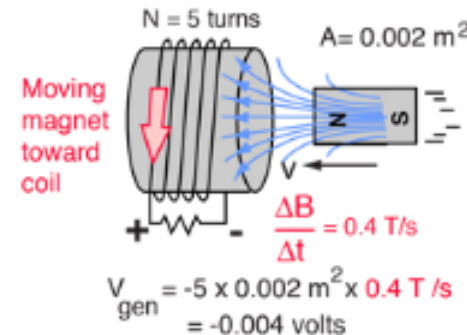
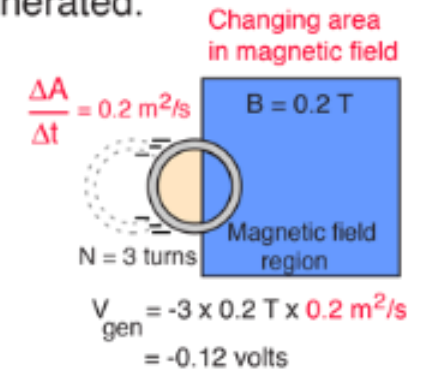
$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} \quad \text{Faraday's Law of induction}$$



$$\text{Voltage generated} = -N \frac{\Delta(BA)}{\Delta t}$$

Faraday's Law

Faraday's Law summarizes the ways voltage can be generated.



Faraday's law states that when there is a change in magnetic flux (changing with respect to time) linking a coil or any conductor, there will be an EMF induced in the coil. Lenz's stated that the EMF induced will be in a direction such that it opposes the change in magnetic flux producing it.

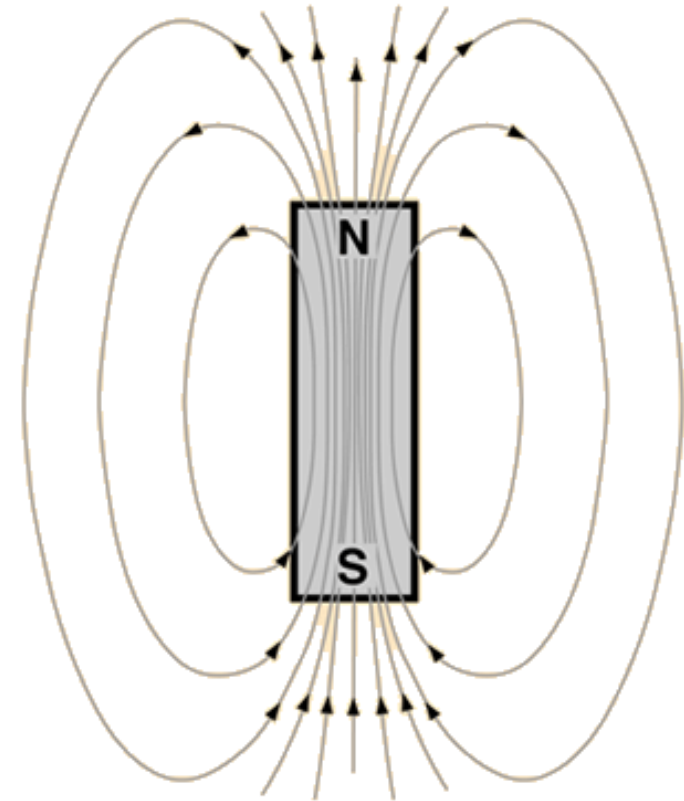
<http://hyperphysics.phy-astr.gsu.edu/>

# Maxwell Equations

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \quad \text{Gauss Law of electricity}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} \quad \text{Faraday's Law of induction}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0 \quad \text{Gauss Law of Magnetism}$$



Neither the north pole nor south pole individually acts a source or sink like the electric charges: magnetic monopoles do not exist

<http://hyperphysics.phy-astr.gsu.edu/>

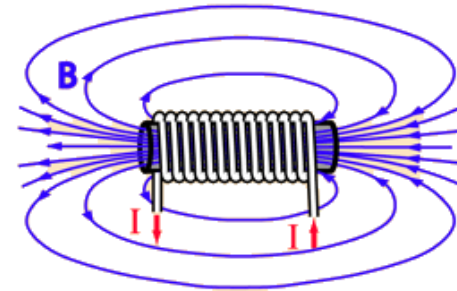
# Maxwell Equations

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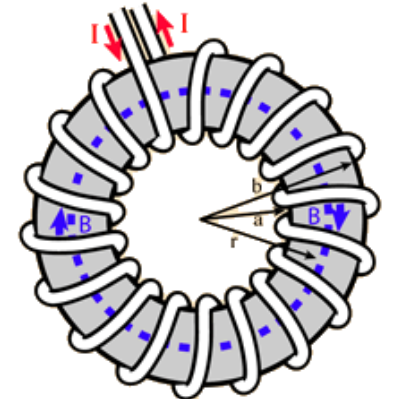
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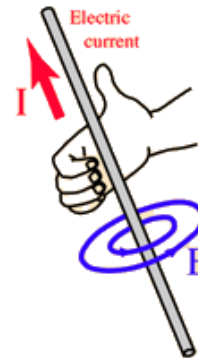
$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{J} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t} \quad \text{Ampere's Law}$$



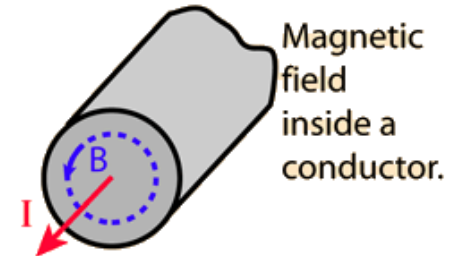
Magnetic field inside a long solenoid.



Magnetic field inside a toroidal coil.



Magnetic field from a long straight wire.

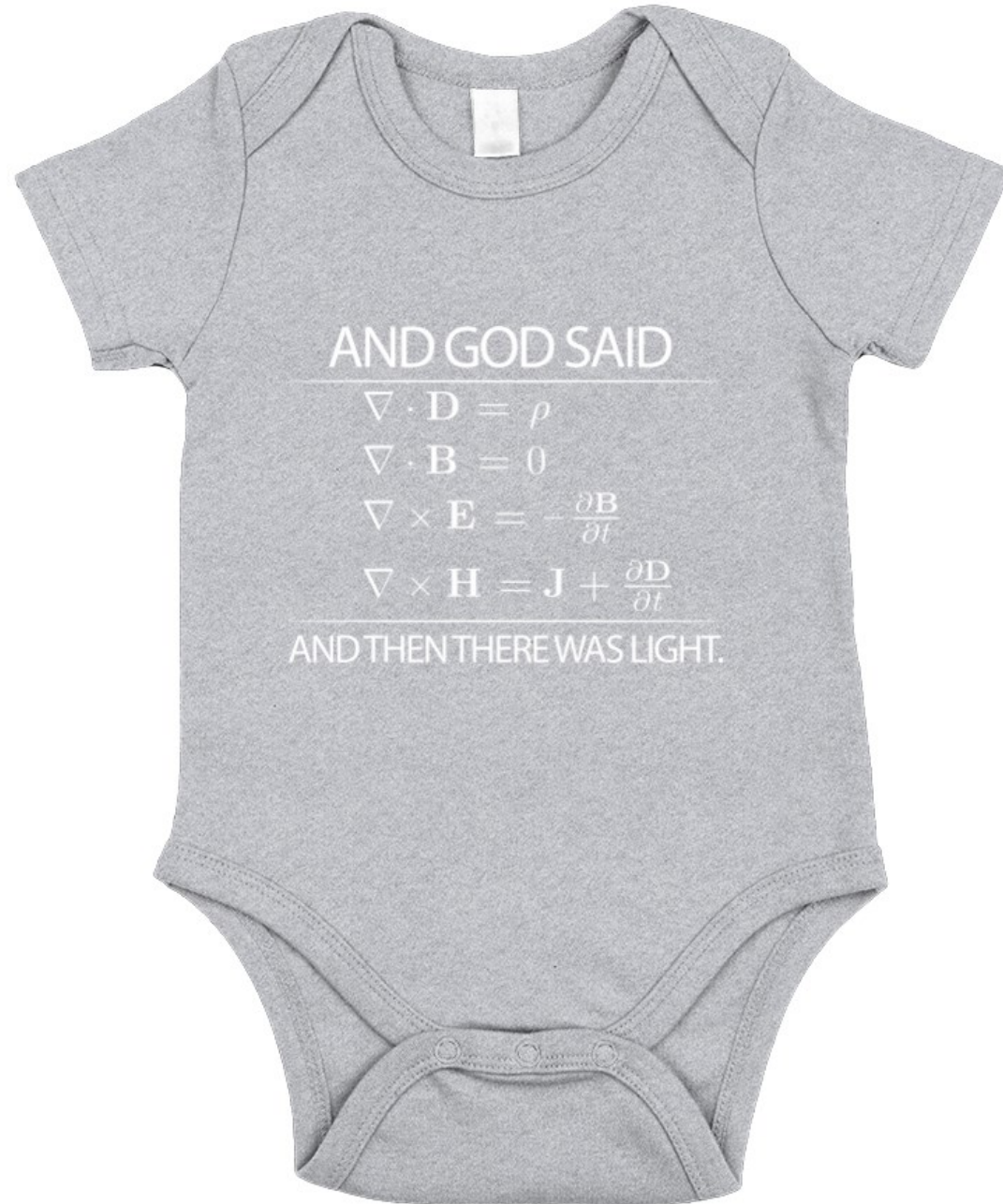


Magnetic field inside a conductor.

Ampere's law states that when an electric current flows through a wire, it produces a magnetic field around it

<http://hyperphysics.phy-astr.gsu.edu/>

# Maxwell Laws

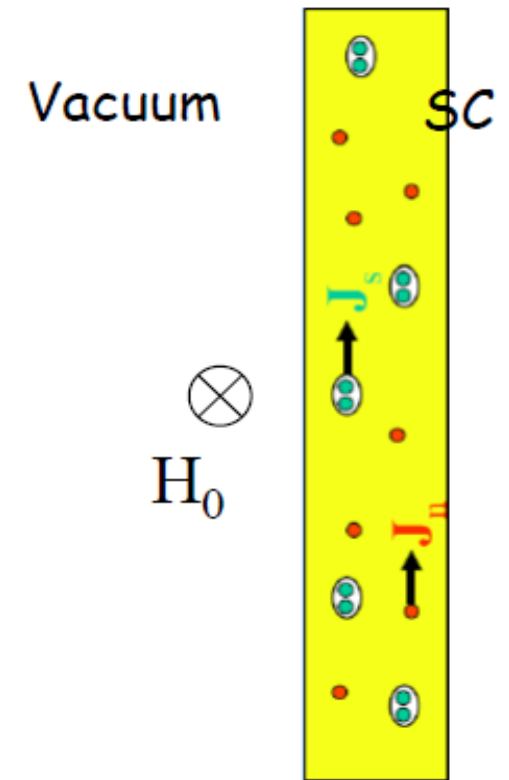


# Two fluid model - Gorter and Casimir, 1934

Gorter and Casimir at Leiden developed this simple model to explain zero resistivity and perfect diamagnetism

Charge carriers are divided in two subsystems, superconducting carriers of density  $n_s$  and normal electrons of density  $n_n$

$$n = n_n + n_s \quad \longrightarrow \quad J = J_n + J_s$$



G. Ciovati, Basic Principle of RF superconductivity, Tutorials SRF15



# Two fluid model - Gorter and Casimir, 1934 (2)

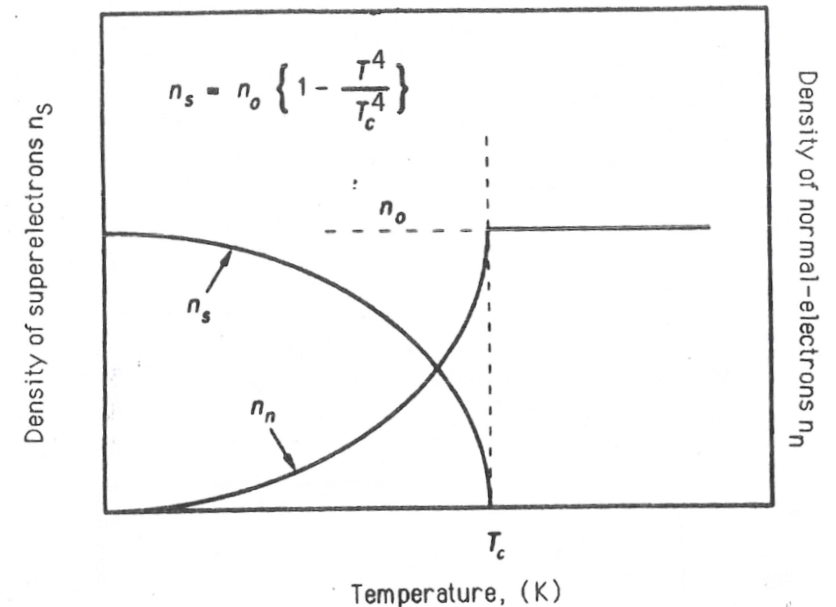
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$$\mathbf{n} = n_n + n_s \quad \longrightarrow \quad \mathbf{J} = J_n + J_s$$

The number of SC electrons **depends by T**

$$n_s = n_0 \left( 1 + \frac{T^4}{T_c^4} \right)$$

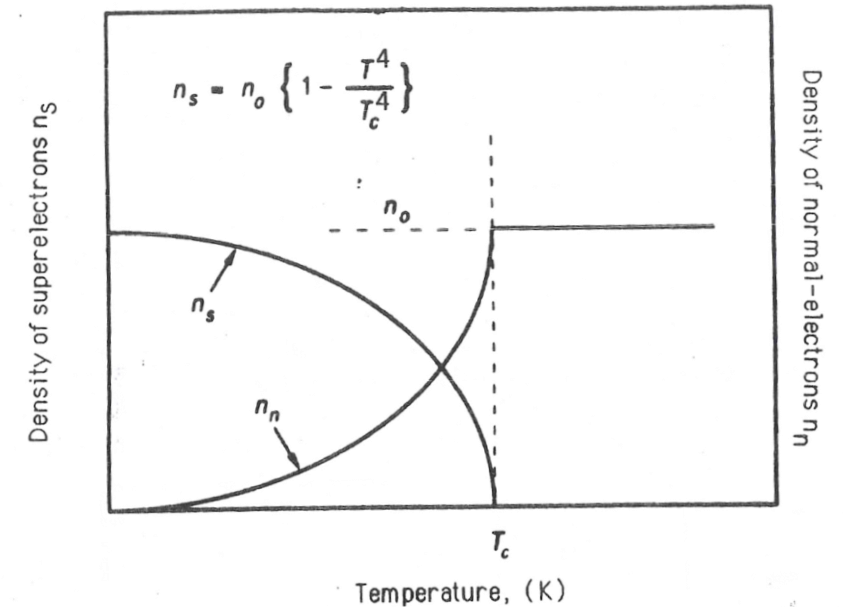


V. Palmieri, *The classical superconductivity*, 1992

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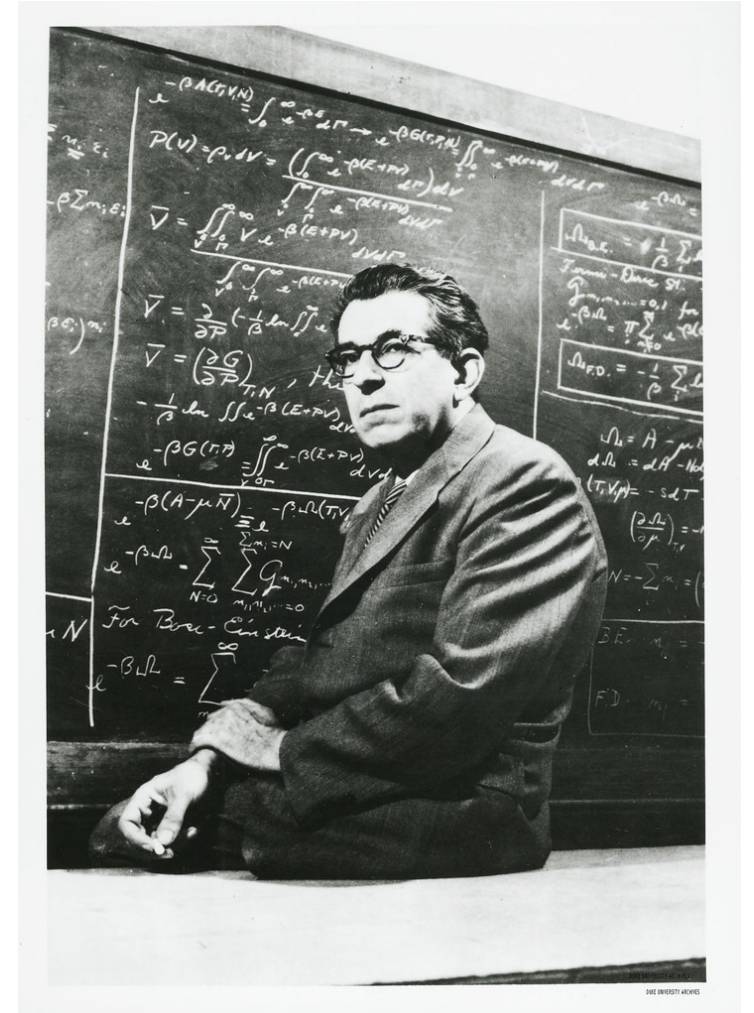
Two Fluid model is the fundament of each SC theory developed later

# The London brothers

**Fritz London** is well known to material scientists...

- 1. Valence Bond Theory** or Heitler–London Theory  
(chemical bonds in a molecule are overlapping of the atomic orbitals)
- 2. London dispersion forces**  
(instantaneous dipole–induced dipole forces)

In his carrier has been worked with Sommerfield and Schoredinger among others...



Fritz London

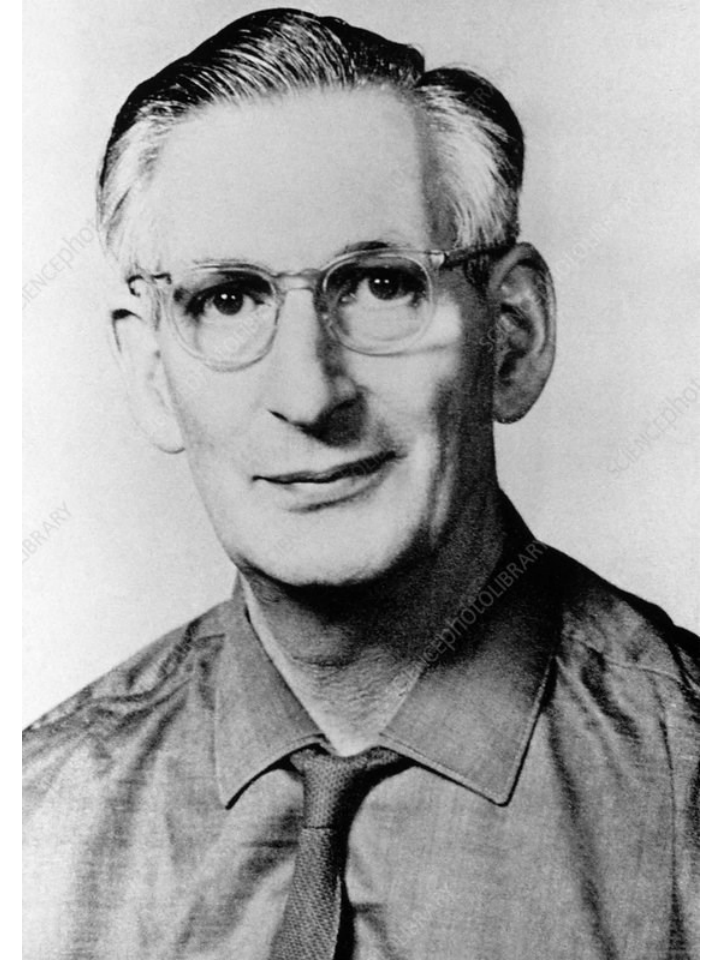
# The London brothers

**Heinz London** (the younger brother) worked on Superconductivity with **Franz Simon** in **Breslau** (Germany)

Franz Simon was Jewish and in the thirties, since nazi-fascism was rising over Germany, moved to **Oxford** with his team, where **Frederick Lindemann** (head of the physics department) hired refugee scientists

Lindemann at that time had a second motivation in addition to the humanitarian one: reduce the gap with Cambridge's Cavendish Laboratory

Lindemann also wanted a theoretician to be added to the new SC group and Fritz London was the right person for him



Heinz London

# The London brothers

Fritz London and his wife moved into a house in Hill Top Road, Oxford, and Heinz stayed with them, giving the brothers an opportunity to talk and work together about superconductivity

**The London brother joint work was to provide the biggest breakthrough yet in understanding superconductivity**



Heinz and Fritz London

# Surface currents

Already years before the discovery of Meissner screening, speculations had been made by Onnes among others, that the **current in a superconductor might involve surface currents**

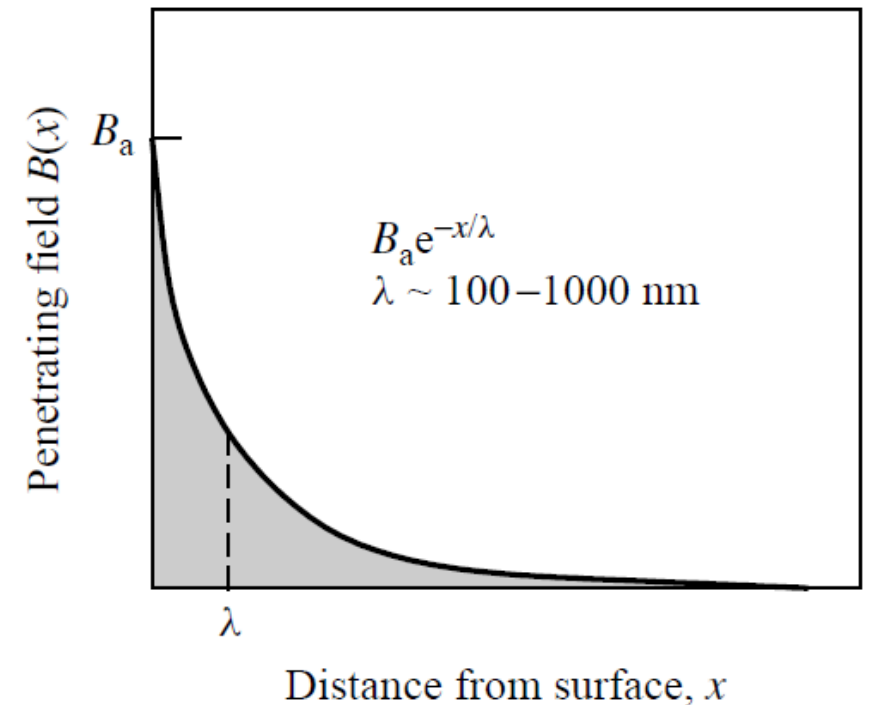
The discovery of Meissner and Ochsensfeld effect proved that this was correct

Logically the **magnetic field could be expelled** from the interior **only by setting up a surface current**

# Penetration depth $\lambda$

Current could not exist only in the surface. It would have to **penetrate to a certain depth called ( $\lambda$  or  $\lambda_L$ )**

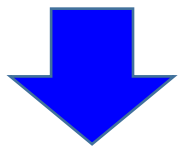
The penetration depth must be finite, and its length must be controlled by the free electron number density  $n_e$ . The **more electrons are present per volume, the more effective is the screening, and the shorter must  $\lambda$  be**



# Derivation of 1<sup>st</sup> London equation

London brothers started with the logic that **E can accelerate superconducting electrons without friction/resistance**

$$m \frac{dv_s}{dt} = eE$$



since  $J = n_s e v_s$

$$\frac{dJ_s}{dt} = \frac{n_s e^2}{m} E$$

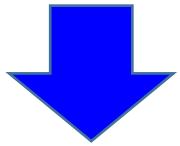
1.  **$E = 0 \rightarrow J_s$  goes on forever**
2. **E is required to maintain an AC current**



# Derivation of 2<sup>nd</sup> London equation

London expressed the electromagnetic field in terms of a **vector potential  $A$**

$$\mathbf{B} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A}$$



$$\mathbf{E} = - \left| \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} \right|$$

From Maxwell:  $\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = - \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$

# Derivation of 2<sup>nd</sup> London equations (2)

Combining  $\mathbf{E} = - \left| \frac{\partial A}{\partial t} \right|$  and  $\frac{d\mathbf{J}_s}{dt} = \frac{n_s e^2}{m} \mathbf{E}$

$$\mathbf{J}_s = - \frac{n_s e^2}{m} \mathbf{A}$$

INTEGRATING

$$\frac{d\mathbf{J}_s}{dt} = - \frac{n_s e^2}{m} \left| \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} \right|$$

$$\mathbf{J}_s = -\Lambda \mathbf{A}$$

Analogous to Ohm's law:  $\mathbf{J}_n = \sigma \mathbf{E}$

The factor  $\Lambda$  is a response function, analogous to the conductivity  $\sigma$  in a normal metal

# Derivation of London penetration depth

$$\mathbf{J}_s = -\frac{n_s e^2}{m} \mathbf{A}$$

From the Amperes law  $\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \mathbf{J}_s$

we can obtain the expression for  $\mathbf{B}$ :

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{B}) = \mu_0 \nabla \times \mathbf{J}_s$$

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{B}) = \nabla(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B}) - \nabla^2 \mathbf{B}$$

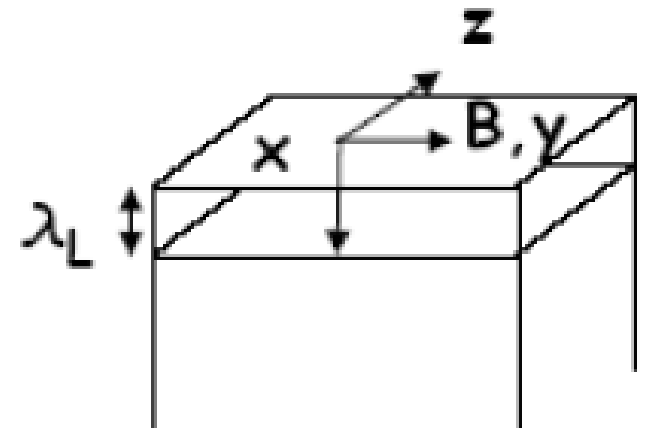
$$\mu_0 \nabla \times \mathbf{J}_s = -\mu_0 \left( \frac{n_s e^2}{m} \right) \nabla \times \mathbf{A}$$

# Derivation of London penetration depth (2)

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{B}) = \mu_0 \nabla \times \mathbf{J}_s \quad \rightarrow \quad \nabla^2 \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \left( \frac{n_s e^2}{m} \right) \mathbf{B}$$

The simplest situation is the 1-dimensional case with the field applied parallel to the y-axis along the surface of a superconductor of long length along z, and with the x-axis measuring the distance from the surface into the superconductor

$$\frac{\partial^2 B(x)}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\mu_0 n_s e^2}{m} B(x)$$



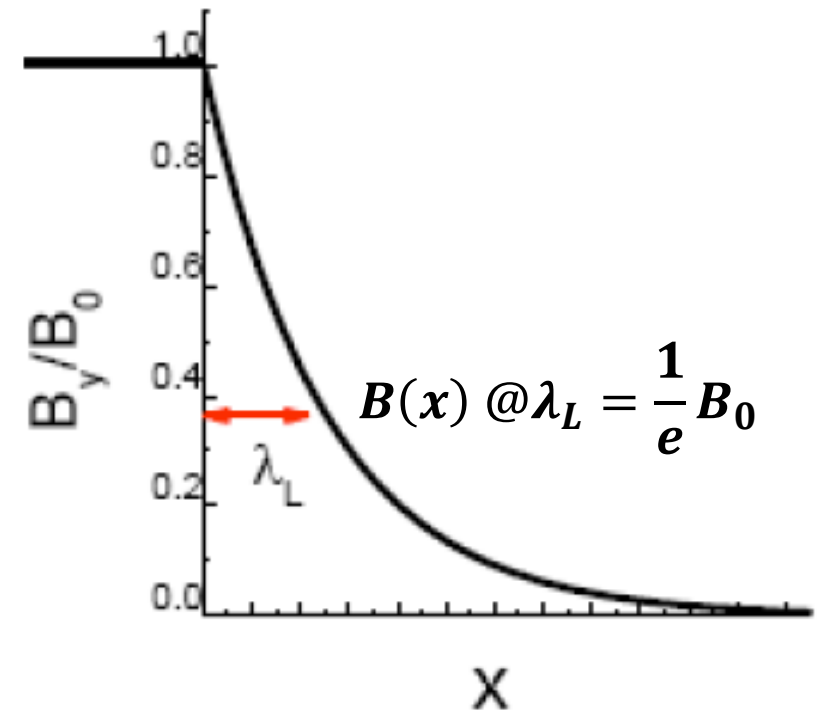
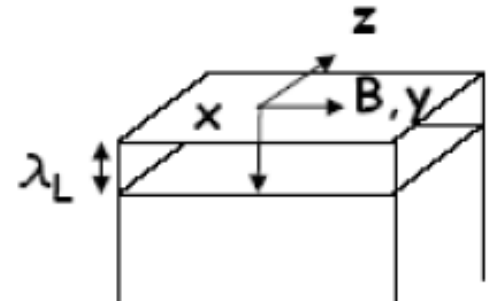
# Derivation of London penetration depth (3)

$$\frac{\partial^2 B(x)}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\mu_0 n_s e^2}{m} B(x)$$

The solution is:  $B(x) = B_0 e^{-\left(\frac{x}{\lambda_L}\right)}$

With **London penetration depth**:

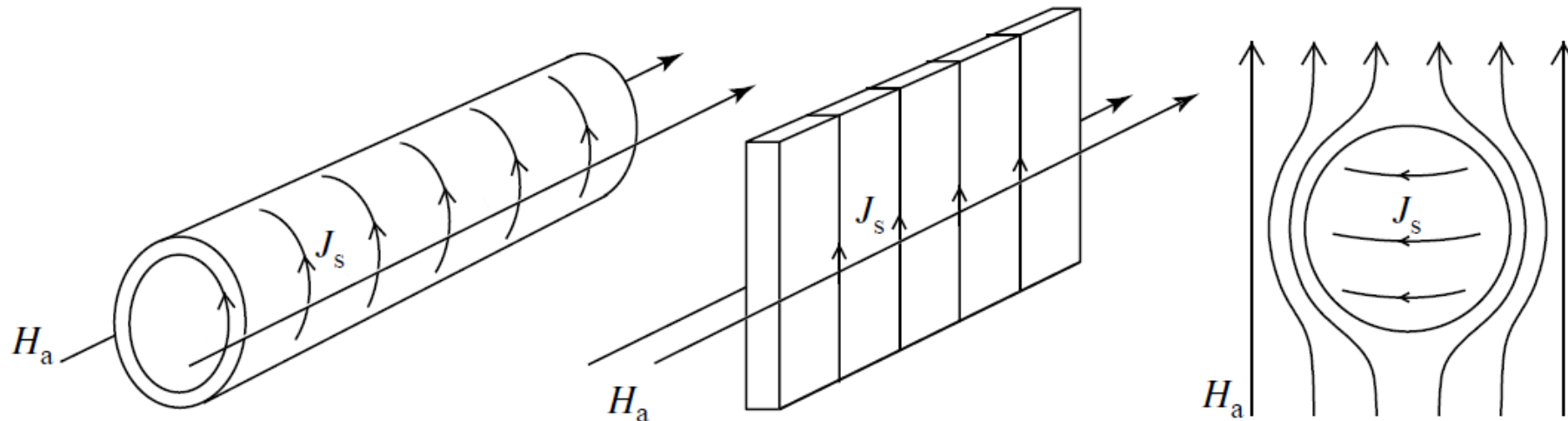
$$\lambda_L^2 = \frac{1}{\mu_0 n_s e^2} m$$



# Derivation of London penetration depth (4)

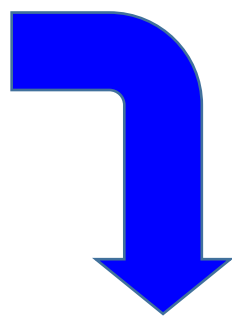
$$B(x) = B_0 e^{-\left(\frac{x}{\lambda_L}\right)}$$

$$\lambda_L^2 = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \frac{m}{n_s e^2}$$



# 2<sup>nd</sup> London equation in terms of B

$$J_s = -\frac{n_s e^2}{m} A$$



$$B = \nabla \times A \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda_L^2 = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \frac{m}{n_s e^2}$$
$$\nabla \times J_s = -\frac{1}{\mu_0 \lambda_L^2} B$$

1. B is the source of  $J_s$
2. Spontaneous flux expulsion

# London equations meaning

$$\frac{dJ_s}{dt} = \frac{n_s e^2}{m} E$$

**Zero resistance**

$$\nabla \times J_s = -\frac{1}{\mu_0 \lambda_L^2} B$$

**Meissner effect**



# Estimation of London penetration depth

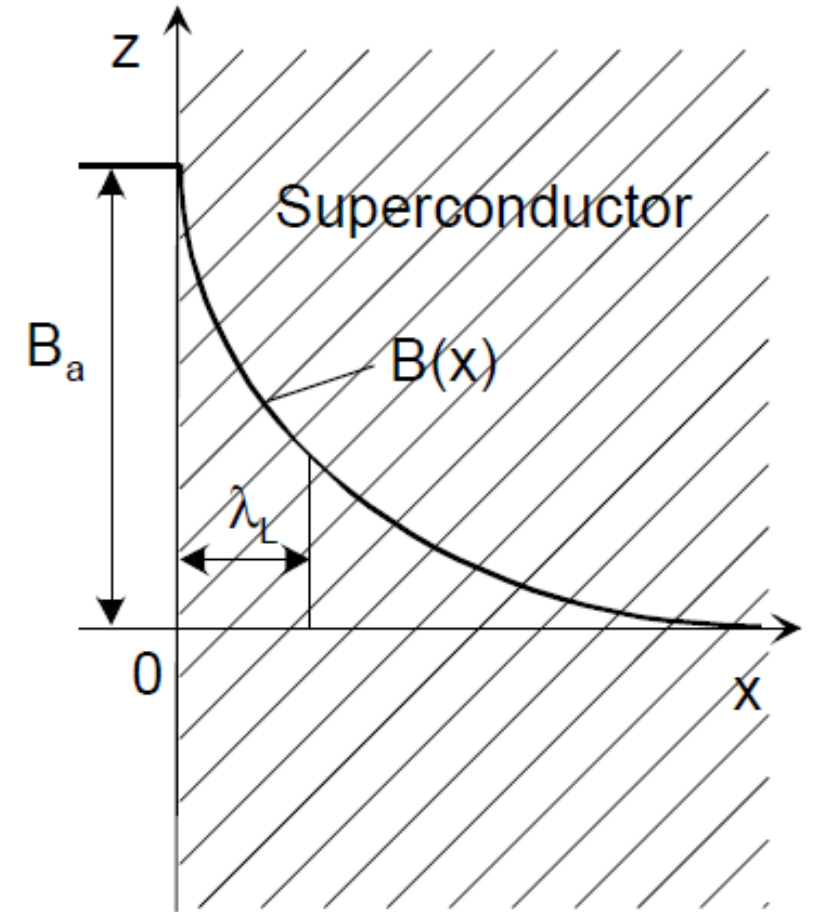
From 
$$\lambda_L^2 = \frac{1}{\mu_0 n_s e^2} m$$

we can obtain a **rough estimate of the London penetration depth** with the simplifying assumption that **one electron per atom with free-electron mass  $m_e$  contributes to the supercurrent**

For Sn, for example, such an estimate yields:

$$\lambda_L = 26 \text{ nm}$$

This value deviates only little from the measured value, which at low T is in the range **25–36 nm**



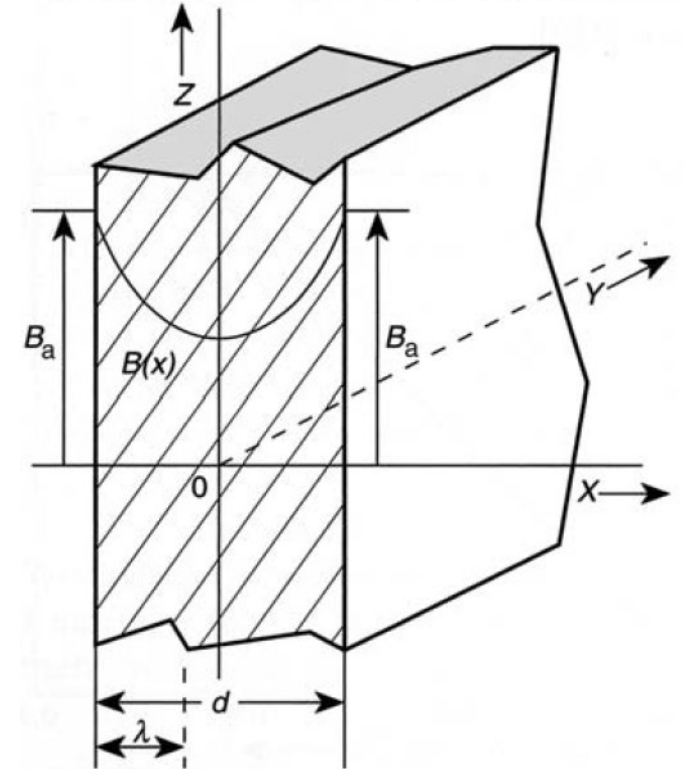
# Measure of London penetration depth

How can one measure  $\lambda_L$ ?

We can measure the **shielding effect** due to the **diamagnetic behavior** in **function of the thickness**

$d \gg \lambda_L$   *perfect magnetic shielding*

$d \sim \lambda_L$   *poor magnetic shielding*

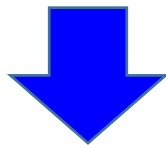


Spatial dependence of the magnetic field in a thin superconducting layer of thickness  $d$ . For the assumed ratio  $d/\lambda_L = 3$ , the magnetic field only decreases to about half of its outside value

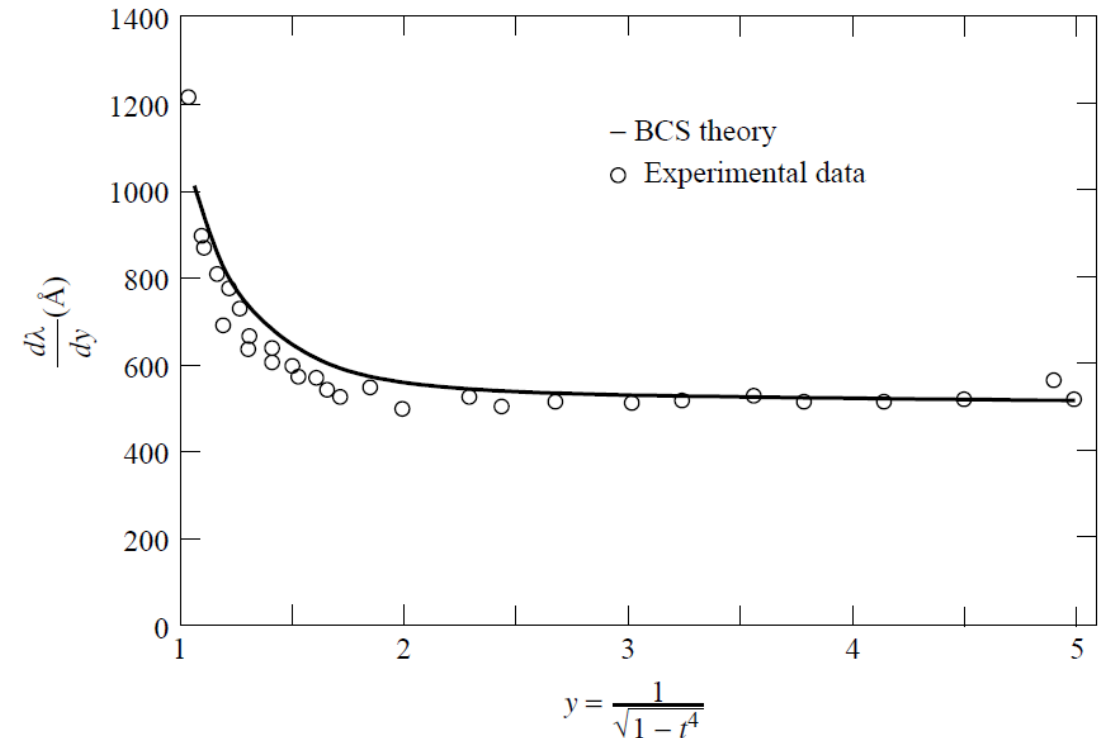
# London penetration depth T dependence

$$\lambda_L^2 = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \frac{m}{n_s e^2}$$

According with two-fluid model,  $n_s$  depend on  $T$



$$\left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda_0}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{1 - \left(\frac{T}{T_c}\right)^4}$$



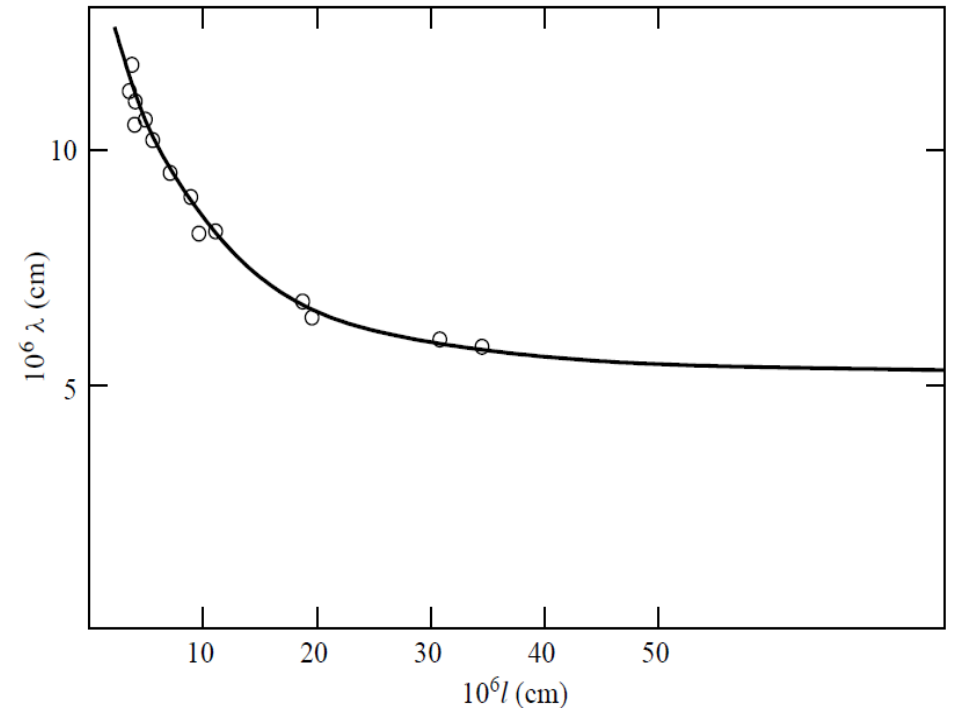
Early results on the temperature dependence of  $\lambda$  in a type I superconductor (Fosseim – Subdo)

# Effect of impurities on $\lambda_L$

Pippard showed that  $\lambda$  depended very sensitively on impurity scattering

Addition of only 3% indium to tin  $\lambda$  changed by a factor of 2, while at the same time the changes in  $T_c$  and  $H_c$  were insignificant

In the London theory  $\lambda$  depended only on  $m/n$ , offering no hint at an explanation

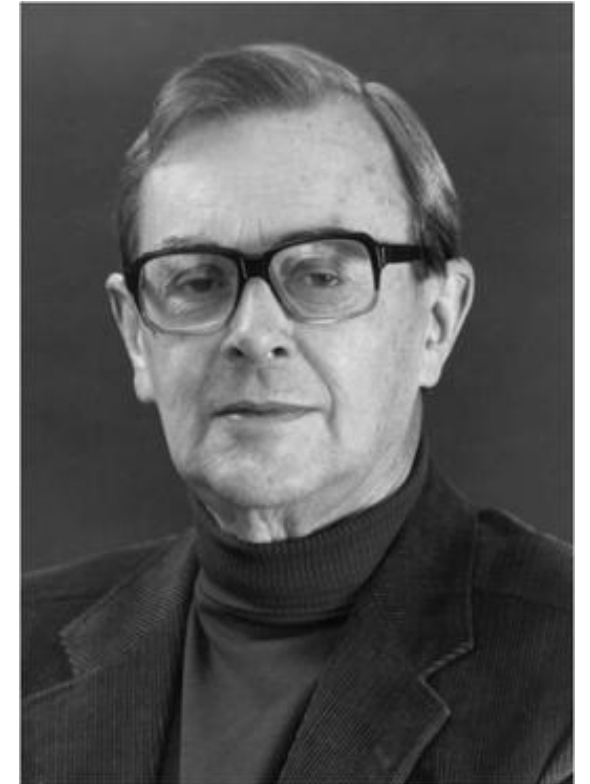


*Pippard non-local behaviour as evidenced by mean free path dependent penetration depth (Fossehim – Subdo)*

# Pippard - Non local version of London equation

In 1953, **Pippard** realized that the **key point** was a **breakdown** of the underlying assumption **of local response in the London theory**

In complete analogy with Ohm's law,  $\mathbf{J} = \sigma \mathbf{E}$ , which we pointed out is **formally equivalent to the London equation**, Pippard adopted the corresponding non-local version of Ohm's law from Reuther and Sondheimer for the so-called **anomalous skin-effect**



Brian Pippard

# Electrodynamics of normal conductors

$$E = E_0 e^{i\omega t}$$

We can derive the **skin depth** starting from the fundamental equation of electrodynamics:

*Maxwell's equations* + *Linear and isotropic Material's equation* + *Drude's model*

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho}{\varepsilon_0}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{J} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t}$$

$$\mathbf{D} = \varepsilon_0 \varepsilon \mathbf{E}$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \mu \mathbf{H}$$

$$\mathbf{J} = \sigma \mathbf{E}$$

# Skin depth

For a good conductor at RF frequencies:  $\omega\epsilon \ll \sigma$   $\Rightarrow$   $\frac{\partial D}{\partial t} \sim 0$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{J} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{J} \quad \xrightarrow[\mathbf{J} = \sigma \mathbf{E}]{\nabla \times} \quad \nabla \times \nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \sigma \nabla \times \mathbf{E}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \mu \mathbf{H}$$

$$\nabla^2 \mathbf{H} = i\sigma\mu_0\mu\omega\mathbf{H}$$

$$\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{H}_0 e^{i\omega t}$$

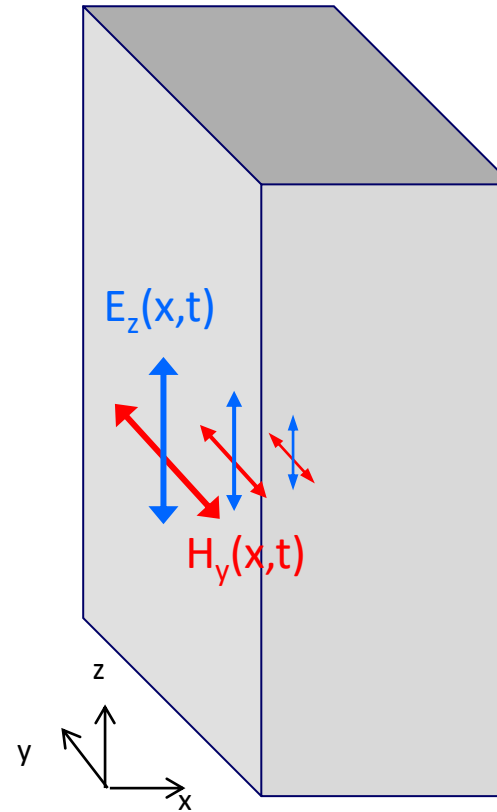
# Skin depth (2)

$$\nabla^2 H = i\sigma\mu_0\mu\omega H$$

Solution (semi-infinite slab):

$$H_y = H_0 e^{-x/\delta} e^{-ix/\delta}$$

$$E_z = -\frac{(1+i)}{\sigma\delta} H_y$$



AC fields penetrate a thickness  $\delta$  (the skin depth)  $\delta = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\mu_0\mu\sigma\omega}}$



# Surface impedance

$$Z = \frac{E_{\parallel}}{H_{\parallel}} = R_s + iX_s$$

Surface reactance

Surface resistance

For the semi-infinite plane conductor:

$$Z_n = \frac{|E_z|}{H_y} \xrightarrow{E_z = -\frac{(1+i)}{\sigma\delta} H_y} Z_n = \frac{1+i}{\sigma\delta} \rightarrow R_s = X_s = \frac{1}{\sigma\delta} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0\mu\omega}{2\sigma}}$$

# Anomalous skin effect

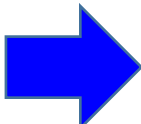
What happens at low T (and high frequency)?

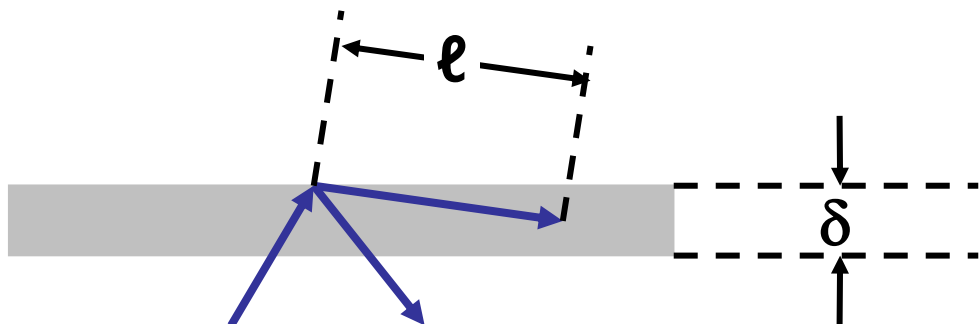
$$R_s = \frac{1}{\sigma \delta}$$

$\sigma(T)$  increases 

$\delta$  decreases 

The skin depth (the distance over which fields vary) **can become less than the mean free path of the electrons** (the distance they travel before being scattered)

  $J(x) \neq \sigma E(x)$



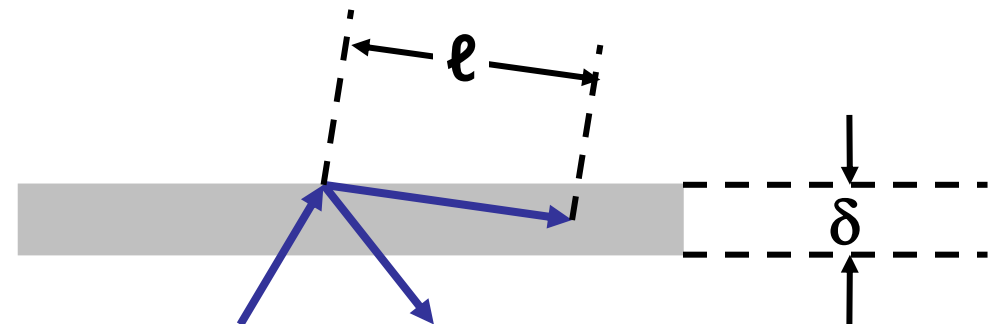
$$\delta = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\mu_0 \mu \sigma \omega}}$$

# Anomalous skin effect (2)

**Non local relationship** introduced by Reuther and Sondheimer:

$$\mathbf{J} = \frac{3\sigma}{4\pi\ell} \int \frac{\mathbf{r}(\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{E}) e^{-r/\ell}}{r^4} d^3\mathbf{r}$$

Non-locality enters the problem when the response to a field can only be determined correctly by integrating over a volume of the size of  $\ell^3$  (3D case), where  $\ell$  is comparable to or longer than the distance  $\delta$ , the depth over which the  $\mathbf{E}$ -field varies



# Surface resistance - some numbers

For Cu @ 300 K and 1.5 GHz:

$$\sigma (300 \text{ K}) = 5.8 \times 10^7 \text{ 1}/\Omega\text{m}$$

$$\mu_0 = 1.26 \times 10^{-6} \text{ Vs/Am}$$

$$\mu = 1$$

$$\delta = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\mu_0 \mu \sigma \omega}} = 1.7 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$$

$$R_s = \frac{1}{\sigma \delta} = 10 \text{ m}\Omega$$

# Surface resistance - some numbers (2)

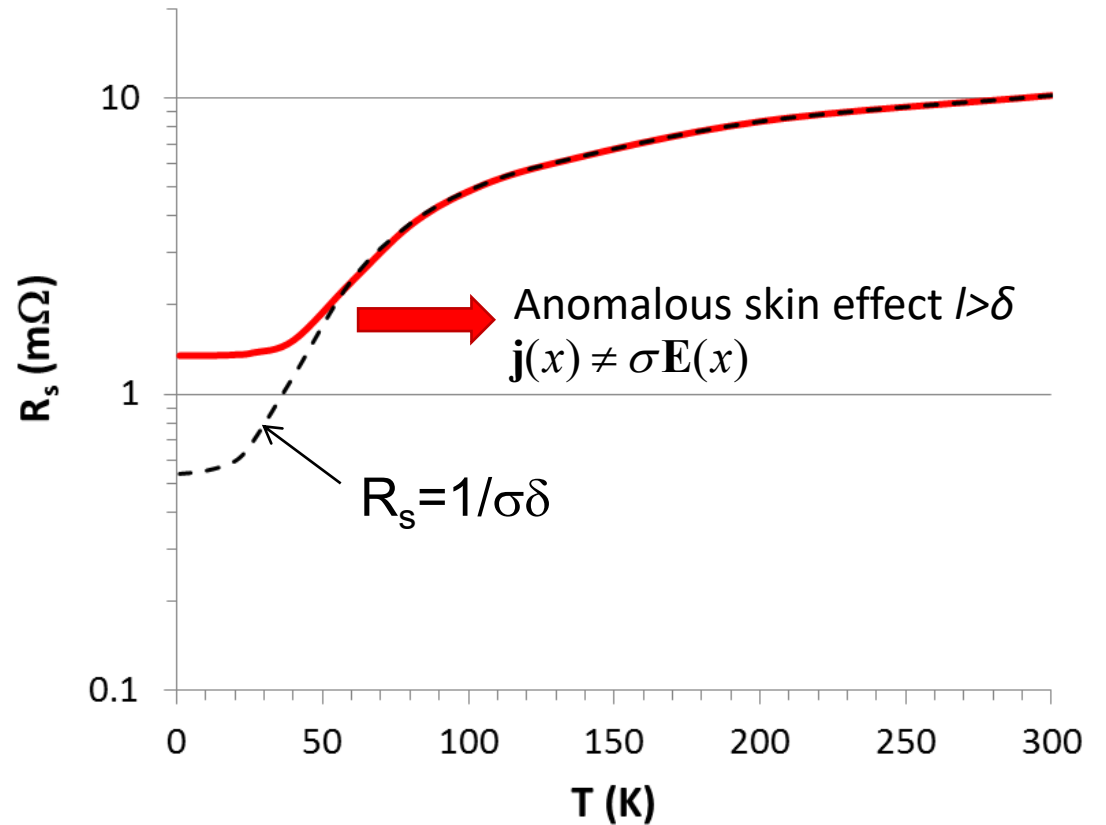
Surface resistance of Cu at 1.5 GHz as a function of temperature

$$R_s(300 \text{ K}) \cong 10 \text{ m}\Omega$$

$$R_s(4.2 \text{ K}) \cong 1.3 \text{ m}\Omega$$

$$\text{RRR} = \sigma(4.2\text{K})/\sigma(300\text{K}) = 300$$

...in spite of the **resistivity**  
**decreasing by a factor 300** from  
300 K to 4.2 K,  $R_s$  **only decreases by**  
**a factor of ~8!**



# Pippard - Non local version of London equation

From experience in studies of the anomalous skin-effect in pure, normal metals **Pippard** saw the **analogy for the superconductor**, introducing the so called **coherence length  $\xi$**

The **response** of the SC **to the applied magnetic field** is **nonlocal**, in the sense that the value of  $J_s$  measured at a point  $r$  depends on the value of  $\mathbf{A}$  throughout a volume of radius  $\xi$  surrounding the point  $r$

# Pippard - Non local version of London equation

In the simple case London equation  $J_s = -\Lambda A$  became:

$$J_s = -\frac{\xi(\ell)}{\xi_0} \Lambda A$$

where  $\xi_0$  is the value of  $\xi(\ell)$  in the limit of large  $\ell$   
and  $\Lambda = (\mu_0 \lambda_L^2)^{-1}$

The equation predicts a reduced response when  $\xi(l)$  is reduced by impurities

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# Pippard - Non local version of London equation (2)

Experimentally is found that:

$\ell \gg \xi$  *Clean limit*

$\ell$  ↓       $\lambda$  ↑       $\xi(\ell)$  ↓

$\ell \ll \xi$  *Dirty limit*

In complete analogy with the non-local response to an electric field in a normal metal:

$$J = \frac{3\sigma}{4\pi\ell} \int \frac{\mathbf{r}(\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{E}) e^{-r/\ell}}{r^4} d^3\mathbf{r} \quad \longrightarrow \quad J = \frac{3\Lambda}{4\pi\xi_0} \int \frac{\mathbf{r}(\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{A}) e^{-r/\xi}}{r^4} d^3\mathbf{r}$$

where:  $\xi_0 = a \frac{\hbar v_F}{k_B T_c}$

$a = 0,15$

$v_F =$  Fermi velocity

$k_B =$  Boltzman constant

$T_c =$  Critical Temperature

and:  $\frac{1}{\xi(\ell)} = \frac{1}{\xi_0} + \frac{1}{\ell}$

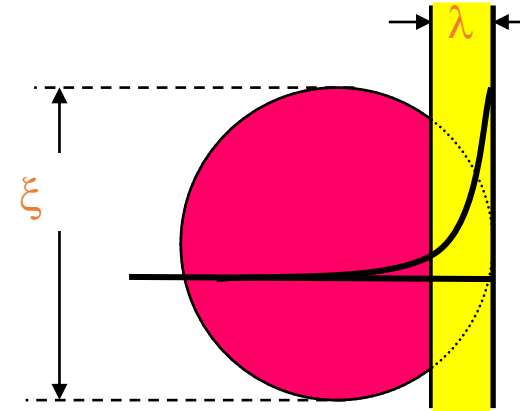


# Type I and Type II superconductors

In the two opposite limits of  $\xi \gg \lambda$  and  $\xi \ll \lambda$

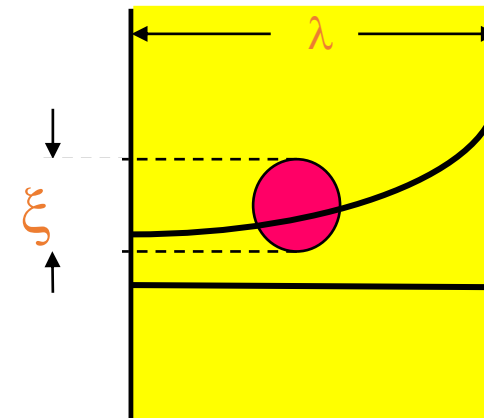
for  $\xi \gg \lambda$   $\rightarrow$   $\lambda = \left( \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2\pi} \xi_0 \lambda_L \right)^{\frac{1}{3}}$

**PIPPARD LIMIT, TYPE I SC (DIRTY LIMIT)**



for  $\xi \ll \lambda$   $\rightarrow$   $\lambda = \frac{\xi_0}{\xi} \lambda_L$

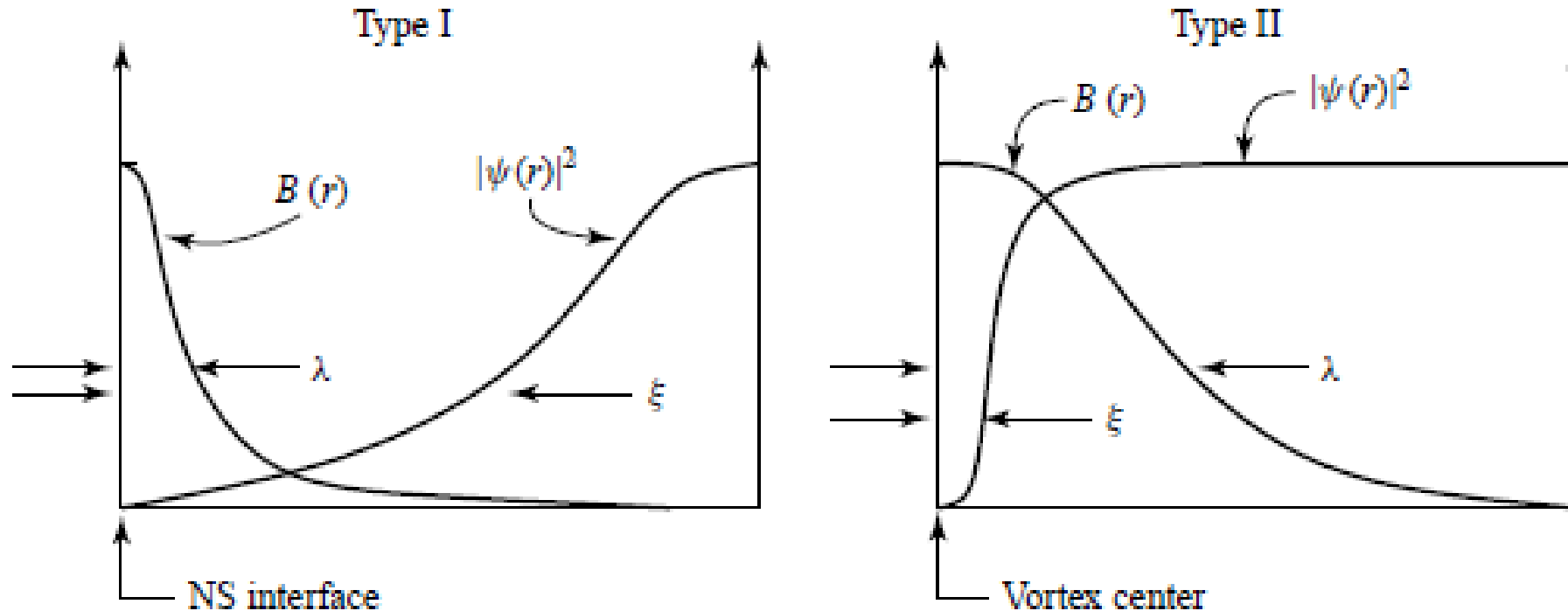
**LONDON LIMIT, TYPE II SC (CLEAN LIMIT)**



# Coherence length in BCS theory

BCS theory later confirmed the essential correctness of Pippard's bold adaptation of non-local electrodynamics from normal metals to superconductors

In **BCS coherence length** is related to **characteristic Cooper pair size**



# London's theory final remarks

London's theory explain infinite conductivity and Meissner effect

**Expression of  $\lambda$  are only approximate**

Calculates values of  **$\lambda$  differ from experimentally determined values**

This may be due to **uncertainty of the values of  $n_s$ ,  $e$  and  $m$**  taken for free electron

**A SC cannot be treated as a free electron metal:  
superelectrons in a SC interact coherently**

# Bibliography of this part

- K. Fossheim, A. Sudbø, "[Superconductivity - Physics and applications](#)", Wiley

**6.1 The London equation and the penetration depth  $\lambda_L$**

**7.3 Two types of superconductors**

- W. Buckel, R. Kleiner, "[Superconductivity - Fundamentals and Applications](#)", Wiley

**1.4 Superconductivity: A Macroscopic Quantum Phenomenon**