

Electronic Theory of Solids
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Lecture – 58
Josephson junction

We are discussing the Ginzburg Landau theory of superconductors; particularly we are interested in the electrodynamics of superconductor.

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Ginzburg-Landau Theory for Superconductivity in a magnetic field

The G-L free energy for Ψ varying slowly in space can be written as:

$$f = f_{00} + \alpha |\psi|^2 + \frac{\beta}{2} |\psi|^4 + \frac{1}{2m^*} \left| \left(\frac{\hbar}{i} \nabla - \frac{e^*}{c} \mathbf{A} \right) \psi \right|^2 + \frac{H^2}{8\pi}$$

α, β are real

Equation of motion: $\alpha \psi + \beta |\psi|^2 \psi + \frac{1}{2m^*} \left(\frac{\hbar}{i} \nabla - \frac{e^*}{c} \mathbf{A} \right)^2 \psi = 0$

$$\mathbf{J} = \frac{c}{4\pi} \nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \frac{e^* \hbar}{2m^* i} (\psi^* \nabla \psi - \psi \nabla \psi^*) - \frac{e^{*2}}{m^* c} \psi^* \psi \mathbf{A}$$

$$\mathbf{v}(r) = |\psi(r)| e^{i\theta(r)} \Rightarrow \mathbf{J} = \frac{e^* \hbar}{m^*} |\psi|^2 \left(\hbar \nabla \theta - \frac{e^*}{c} \mathbf{A} \right) = e^* |\psi|^2 \mathbf{v}_s$$

Writing $e^* = e$ and $m^* = m$

The boundary condition used by G-L was: $\left(\frac{\hbar}{i} \nabla - \frac{e^*}{c} \mathbf{A} \right) \psi \Big|_s = 0$

which assures that no current passes through the surface

Handwritten notes on the whiteboard:

$$f = \frac{\psi}{\psi_0}$$

/ SC /

$$\frac{\hbar^2}{2m^* |\alpha|} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \psi = 0$$

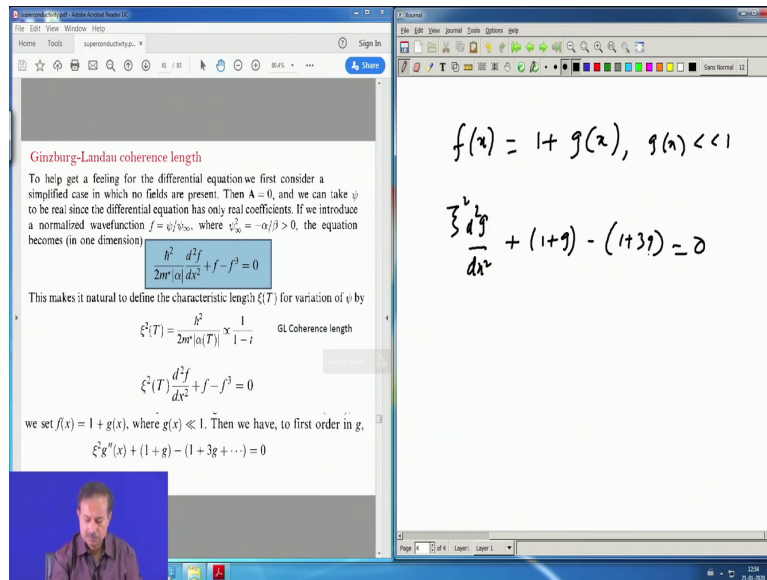
$$+ f - f^2 = 0$$

$$\xi^2(\tau) = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m^* |\alpha(\tau)|}; \quad \alpha \sim (\tau - \tau_c)$$

$$\xi \sim \frac{1}{(\tau - \tau_c)}; \quad \xi \sim (\tau - \tau_c)^{-1/2}$$

And, what I will show is finally, show you is that there is a state in which the magnetic field does penetrate superconductors and we will find out when and how does it happen. So, in that context we have written down the Ginzburg Landau free energies wrote down the equations of motion these equations; one gives me the equation for psi, another gives me the equation for the current ok.

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So, then we are we have taken the equation for psi and for situation where there is no field and solved it not yet solved, but wrote it down and immediately found out there is a length scale that appears in the problem. And, that length scale is this xi it is called Ginzburg Landau coherence length and that varies with temperature as T minus T c to the power minus half. So, let us go ahead and find out how psi behaves inside a superconductor.

So, f function as you can see is a ratio of two quantities one is psi and another is the bulk value of psi deep inside the superconductor this psi infinity. So, that means, it is I can write it as f x equal to 1 plus some g of x, where g of x is much much less than 1 because f x equal to 1 is the value deep inside the super conductor and we assume that the in homogeneity is not in homogeneity is not so strong that it destroys superconductivity completely somewhere inside.

So, in that case g x will smoothly vary and vary in a within a small range and. So, therefore, g of x is much much less than 1 and they are both dimension less quantities, f x and g x are dimensionless. Then we can rewrite this equation by expanding this cubic term 1 plus g cube and this is what has been done xi square g d 2 g d x 2 this plus 1 1 plus g minus 1 plus 3 g equal to 0 and you can solve this equation straightforwardly. This is now a linear equation.

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The slide on the left contains the following text and equations:

$$g' = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\xi}\right)g$$

$$g(x) \sim e^{\pm\sqrt{2}\lambda/\xi(T)x}$$

Which means it decays, i.e. Ψ reaches Ψ_0 in a small distance $\xi(T)$

If $\alpha(T)$ is estimated in terms of H_c , then

$$\alpha(T) = \frac{-2e^2}{mc^2} H_c^2(T) \lambda_L^2(T)$$

Substituting the value of α $\xi(T) = \frac{\Phi_0}{2\sqrt{2}\pi H_c(T) \lambda_L(T)}$; $\Phi_0 = \frac{hc}{e} = \frac{hc}{2e}$

It is also useful to introduce the famous dimensionless Ginzburg-Landau parameter κ , which is defined as the ratio of the two characteristic lengths

$$\kappa = \frac{\lambda_L(T)}{\xi(T)} = \frac{2\sqrt{2}\pi H_c(T) \lambda_L^2(T)}{\Phi_0} \quad \lambda_{\text{eff}} = \text{London pen. depth in dirty SC}$$

In a typical pure (Type-I) superconductor $\kappa \ll 1$, since $\lambda \ll \xi$. In dirty superconductor $\lambda \gg \xi$ is possible (also in Type-II), $\kappa = \frac{\lambda}{\xi}$ separates Type-I from Type-II

The handwritten note on the right shows:

$$f(x) = 1 + g(x), \quad g(x) \ll 1$$

$$\sum \frac{d^2 g}{dx^2} + (1+g) - (1+3g) = 0$$

$$g(x) \sim e^{-\sqrt{2} \frac{\lambda}{\xi(T)} x}$$

And, you can solve it giving g of x going as e to the power plus minus root 2 x by c of T that is the solution that is for g . As I said g is the division from the infinite values so, that means, the over a length scale of g the function f basically restores its value of this infinity.

So, if you are coming from deep inside the superconductor the ξ you see if it is you are going inside the superconductor g this minus sign has to be taken and then it decays within a g decays within a distance of c typical decay I mean it is exponential decay. So, nearly one third is gone by the time you reach x equal to ξ and that is; that means, that it attains its full value Ψ infinity within a distance somewhat below somewhat beyond ξ of T .

So, that is ξ of T is a measure of the distance by which the superconductor attains superconducting work function attains it is full bulk value ok. One can define these parameters in terms of other quantities and those are not getting into these are for experiments these are extremely important because there are measurable quantities like H_c and $\lambda_{\text{effective}}$ in terms of with ξ of T can be defined and so, these definitions are given in books. So, it is not important to realize to go through this algebra in the sense that this is you have to know what $\lambda_{\text{effective}}$ is and so on.

This is a London penetration depth in a superconductor where there are disorders and so, these are somewhat more phenomenological parameters, but these are things that experimentally actually need and they can find out so, so defining ξ of T in terms of those quantities. The interesting thing is that there is a ϕ_0 ; ϕ_0 is a universal quantity. It is an universal quantity in the sense that ξ it is $hc / 4\pi e^* v_F$; e^* was just e this would be the Dirac quantum flux quantum whereas, here of course, each ϕ_0 is $hc / 2e$, but it is still a fundamental quantity is just the half of direct flux.

So, there is a fundamental physical quantity that is now appearing here and there is another quantity that is extremely important and that is why one puts in this ξ of T here. One defines a κ which is which is the ratio between these two and the λ effective and ξ of T and this actually defines the border between it is value defines the border between a type I and a type II superconductor.

So, for a type I superconductor κ is much less than 1 and λ much less than ξ whereas, in dirty superconductor λ can be greater than and actually much greater than ξ and in type II also that is what happens and κ equal to 1 one actually in actual practice κ equal to $1/\sqrt{2}$ separates these type I from type II.

So, type I and type II are basically determined by the value of κ and if κ is much less than 1 you have type I surely type I κ much greater than 1, you have type II. The border is at the separation happens at $1/\sqrt{2}$.

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The image shows a video lecture interface. On the left, a slide titled 'superconductivity.pdf' displays two schematic diagrams of a domain wall. The left diagram is for a Type I superconductor ($\kappa < 1$), showing a smooth transition of the order parameter ψ and the magnetic field h across a width ξ . The right diagram is for a Type II superconductor ($\kappa > 1$), showing a sharp transition of ψ and a more gradual decay of h over a larger distance ξ . Below the diagrams, text reads: 'Schematic diagram of variation of ψ and h in a domain wall. The case $\kappa < 1$ refers to a type I superconductor. The case $\kappa > 1$ refers to a type II superconductor.' On the right, a whiteboard contains handwritten equations: $f(x) = 1 + g(x), g(x) \ll 1$; $\frac{d^2g}{dx^2} + (1+g) - (1+3g) = 0$; and $g(x) \sim e^{-\sqrt{2} \frac{x}{\xi(x)}}$.

So, this is a picture of how λ and ξ behave in a type I superconductor and in a type II superconductor. As you can see the ξ is large in a type I superconductor and λ is small it is somewhat reversed in type II superconductor where the full value is attained quite quickly for the given function and h decays in a very long distance. Here it is just the opposite. It takes long it takes some distance ξ which is large we for ψ to attain its value at infinity now value deep inside the bulk.

So, this is how it is typical values in a normal superconductor which is not very dirty are like few 100 for λ few 100 Angstroms for λ and few 1000 Angstroms for ξ in a type II superconductor. Of course, in the high T ξ superconductor ξ is very small. So, they are inherently mostly type II superconductors ok.

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Type-II Superconductor

Between H_{c1} and H_{c2} , flux penetrates in regular array of flux tubes carrying quantum of flux $\Phi_0 = hc/2e = 2.07 \times 10^{-7} \text{ G cm}^2$

$H_{c2} = \sqrt{2}\kappa H_{c1}$

Comparison of flux penetration behavior of type I and type II superconductors with the same thermodynamic critical field H_c , $H_{c2} = \sqrt{2}\kappa H_{c1}$.

$f(x) = 1 + g(x), g(x) \ll 1$

$\sum \frac{d^2 g}{dx^2} + (1+g) - (1+3g) = 0$

$g(x) \sim e^{-\sqrt{2} \frac{x}{\xi(0)}}$

The other interesting thing is we can discuss type II superconductivity and there are there is some quantity called $H_c 2$ appears which I will discuss briefly quickly and. So, this is how it behaves between $H_c 1$ and $H_c 2$ the flux penetrates there is a field called $H_c 1$ there is a field which is $H_c 2$ between these the flux penetrates. So, if you are coming from large fields you are reducing fields. So, at $H_c 2$ you will first penetrate the field and then it will carry on till $H_c 1$.

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Type-1 **Type-2**

$f(x) = 1 + g(x), g(x) \ll 1$

$\sum \frac{d^2 g}{dx^2} + (1+g) - (1+3g) = 0$

$g(x) \sim e^{-\sqrt{2} \frac{x}{\xi(0)}}$

So, let me just show you the other picture which is much more much easier to comprehend and this is how a of type I superconductor here M versus H curve it goes up to minus 4 pi M and then that is minus 4 pi M is the value in the magnetization. As you increase H there is a H c at which the magnetization drops to 0 ok. So, this is negative because in a superconductor you know it is diamagnetic and the. So, it rises with the magnetic field and then it just it rises means it goes negative and then at H c 2 it is just drops to vertically drops to 0.

Whereas in a type II superconductor M versus H curve is like this it goes up then it starts dropping from H c 1 and it takes all the way up to H c 2 where H c is between H c 1 and H c 2 and it goes to 0 in a type II superconductor at H c 2. So, there is a large region between H c 1 H c 2 where flux has field has penetrated the system ok.

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The Abrikosov Vortex solution :

- In a type I superconductor the B field remains zero inside the superconductor until suddenly the superconductivity is destroyed. The field where this happens is called the critical field, H_c .
- In a type II superconductor there are two different critical fields, denoted by H_{c1} , the lower critical field, and H_{c2} , the upper critical field. Once the field exceeds H_{c1} , magnetic flux does start to enter the superconductor and hence B is not equal to zero.
- The physical explanation of the thermodynamic phase between H_{c1} and H_{c2} was given by Abrikosov: He showed that the magnetic field can enter the superconductor in the form of vortices
- Each vortex consists of a region of circulating supercurrent around a small central core which has essentially become normal metal. The magnetic field is able to pass through the sample inside the vortex cores, and the circulating currents serve to screen out the magnetic field from the rest of the superconductor outside the

<https://www.open.edu/openlearn/scw/mod/oucontent/view.php?id=2653&printable=1>

$f(x) = 1 + g(x), g(x) \ll 1$

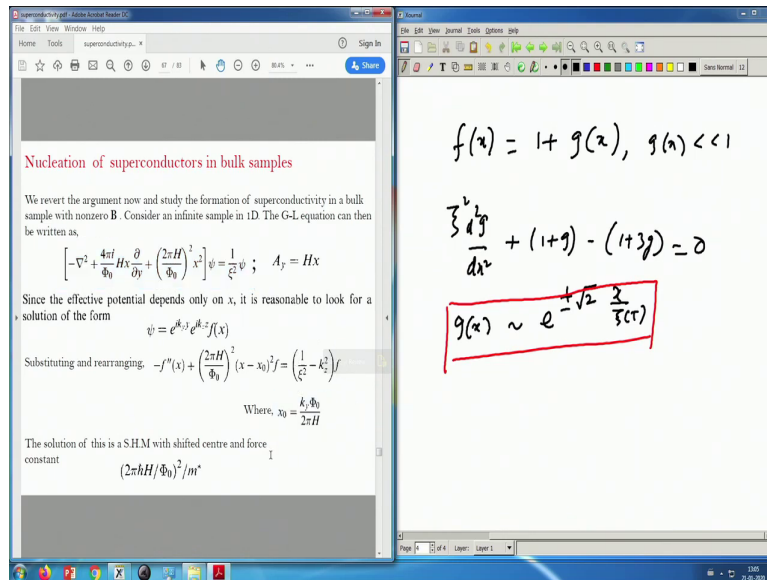
$\sum \frac{d^2 g}{dx^2} + (1+g) - (1+3g) = 0$

$g(x) \sim e^{-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{x}{\xi(x)}}$

So, let us just look at that as I mentioned that Abrikosov was the in his remarkable theoretical paper who predicted that the magnetic fields can enter a superconductor particularly in inhomogeneous superconductor and in a type II which is now called type II superconductor and as we just discussed these are like tubes that penetrate the super conductor.

And, therefore, there is a screening current across around this tube and typical distances between these tubes is twice the Ginzburg Landau coherence length and the tubes size is typically lambda the Landaun penetration depth lambda effective actually twice of that.

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So, let us just do the calculation very quickly because this is in presence of a Landau gauge and remember A_y equal to Hx . So, you now have a magnetic field and you are trying to solve that equation on motion again and the equation is very similar to what we did for quantum Hall with integer quantum Hall effect and that is exactly what it is except that this side has 1 by xi square. This equation had this 1 by xi square into on this side and so, xi square delta square was there.

So, then xi square has been taken to the right hand side and this equation then is exactly what you get in integer quantum hall effect case also. A_y is chosen as Hx this is the gauge that is taken. So, then you can write down the same solution again when y and z directions are plane waves whereas, direction will turn out to be a displaced harmonic oscillator whose centre is at x_0 where x_0 is this $k_y \Phi_0 / 2\pi H$.

These are very similar to that calculation. So, I am not repeating it you can look up. What is interesting is that you do not have to solve this you know the solution. So, you do not have to do anything more. What is interesting is this right hand side this is 1 by xi square minus k_z square into f and this is the eigenvalue. And, we know what the value is eigenvalue is n plus of h cross ωc .

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The resulting Harmonic oscillator eigenvalues are:

$$E_n = \left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right) \hbar \omega_c = \left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right) \hbar \left(\frac{2eH}{m^*c}\right)$$

these are to be equated to $\hbar^2/2m^*(z^2 - k_z^2)$. Thus,

$$H = \frac{\Phi_0}{2\pi(2n+1)} \left(\frac{1}{z^2} - k_z^2\right)$$

Evidently, this has its highest value if $k_z = 0$ and $n = 0$. The corresponding value, defined as H_{c2} , is

$$H_{c2} = \frac{\Phi_0}{2\pi z^2(T)}$$

the corresponding eigenfunction is

$$f(x) = \exp\left[-\frac{(x-x_0)^2}{2z^2}\right]$$

Handwritten on the whiteboard:

$$f(x) = 1 + g(x), \quad g(x) \ll 1$$

$$\sum \frac{d^2 g}{dx^2} + (1+g) - (1+3g) = 0$$

$$g(x) \sim e^{-\sqrt{2} \frac{z}{\xi(T)} x}$$

$$E_n = \left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right) \hbar \omega_c$$

$$E_n = \frac{1}{2} \hbar \omega_c - k_z^2 \hbar^2$$

So, you just equate this n plus of \hbar cross ω_c to that 1 by x square minus k_z square that was there. Therefore, you can immediately pull out an H because \hbar cross is the c contained at \hbar . So, you equate it with this quantity with n plus half \hbar with 1 by x square minus k_z square and you will end up for this equation. So, these two equations you are using $n E_n$ equal to n plus half \hbar cross ω_c and E_n is also 1 by x square minus k_z square from the previous page.

This one. So, these you equate you will get the equation that is written down here. So, this gives the value of the magnetic field so, H . So, the now what we try to find out is whether magnetic field and the superconductivity co-exists or not. So, let us see the highest value H can have is when k_z equal to 0 obviously, and when n is also 0 right.

So, these are the these are of course, n is the n is 0 is the lowest Landau available and we can also set k_z is equal to 0 is very large wavelength for example, along the that is maximum that you can have in this z direction. It is like a free particle to fairly very large wavelength.

So, the corresponding H value is called H_{c2} and what does it mean? It means that at this value both f which is the f is the solution remember f is the f is what you are looking for I mean the solution for f is already written down ψ is something is this. So, as long as f is non-zero ψ is also non-zero ok. So, that means, in this when this happens this is the largest

magnetic field for which f is non-zero actually that means, ψ is non-zero. That means, at this magnetic field the beyond this magnetic field your f will become 0 that will be means that this superconducting wave function will vanish after this H_c2 .

Below this H_c2 the equations admit of both h and f ; that means, ψ non-zero and that is what means that this is called the nucleation of superconductivity. So, as if you have a very large magnetic field you are. So, you are now reducing the magnetic field and you are looking at what magnetic field suddenly the superconducting wave function becomes non-zero and this is the way one you can think of it.

Or the other way is you are increasing H and then. So, you have a superconductor you are bring you have a very large H and then you are bring the H down at one particular point suddenly there is a superconductivity appears and at that value is H_c2 . So, this is the this below this value superconductivity and magnetic field coincide. They co-exist inside this system how do they coincide that we will see.

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The slide on the left contains the following text and diagrams:

The relation of H_{c2} to the thermodynamic critical field H_c is clarified if we reexpress H_{c2} in terms of H_c . In this way, we arrive at the three equivalent expressions for H_{c2}

$$H_{c2} = \frac{\Phi_0}{2\pi\xi^2} = \frac{4\pi\lambda^2 H_c^2}{\Phi_0} = \sqrt{2}\kappa H_c$$

The third form makes it clear that the value $\kappa = 1/\sqrt{2}$ does indeed separate the materials for which $H_{c2} > H_c$ (type II superconductors) from those for which $H_{c2} < H_c$ (type I).

Two graphs show the order parameter $|\psi|^2$ vs magnetic field H . The left graph is for Type I ($\kappa < 1/\sqrt{2}$) and the right graph is for Type II ($\kappa > 1/\sqrt{2}$).

Behaviour of order parameter for Type-I and Type-II Superconductor

The whiteboard on the right contains the following handwritten equations:

$$f(x) = 1 + g(x), \quad g(x) < 1$$

$$\int_0^x \frac{1}{dx} + (1+g) - (1+3g) = 0$$

$$g(x) \sim e^{-\sqrt{2} \frac{x}{\xi(x)}}$$

$$\epsilon_n = (n + \frac{1}{2}) \hbar \omega_c$$

$$E_n = \frac{1}{3} \epsilon_n - \hbar \epsilon_n^2$$

So, this one can actually calculate the relation of H_c2 with the thermodynamic critical field H_c and that relation gives you this 2κ into root of 2κ into H_c and that is why the κ equal to $1/\sqrt{2}$ separates the two types of superconductors type I and type II because when H_c2 becomes when κ is $1/\sqrt{2}$ H_c2 will be H_c when κ equal to $1/\sqrt{2}$

root 2 then H_{c2} will become H_c . So, it will then move here and we will get type I superconductor.

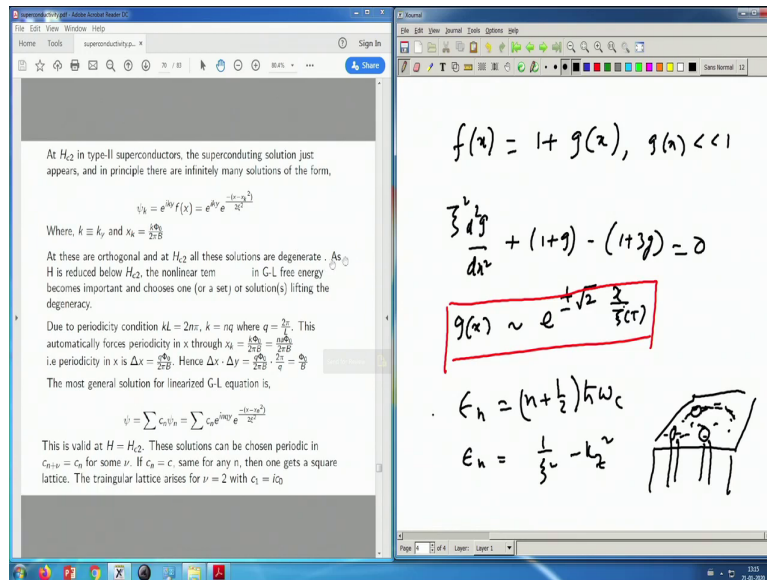
So, that is at $1/\sqrt{2} H_{c2}$ becomes H_c and at for H_{c2} less than that you are in a type I superconductor and this is how the ψ behaves with respect to H as you bring it down in a type I at H_c it starts moving up and becomes infinite value of superconductor and then. So, actually at H_{c2} you go up and then if you are decreasing if you are increasing the field at H_{c2} you will. So, H_{c2} is less than H_c this is how it will behave.

So, you are coming from high magnetic field decreasing and only at H_{c2} you can nucleate superconductivity and the moment you do that it will immediately go to ψ infinity value the bulk value that is because you are already way below H_c . And, then of course, if you are increasing the field then you have to go up to H_c to destroy it. So, this that is how the H_c is defined the field at which superconductivity is destroyed.

So, there is a hysteretic region. Whereas in type II the H_{c2} is greater than H_c . So, if you are reducing H you will start having superconductivity here ψ will become finite at H_{c2} and go up and go up and till H_{c2} it will keep going up till H_c it will keep going up, but till H_{c1} it will go up. But, interesting thing is that it retraces the path there is no hysteresis because H_{c2} is much larger than H_c .

So, that is the; that is the distinction between. So, that is what that is what that picture showed us. So, that picture is recovered from this calculation.

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Now, Abrikosov went even further he tried to figure out how these fluxes penetrate the superconductor how the magnetic field penetrates the superconductor and the he actually worked it out. I am not going to give it out in detail and that is a separate calculation and that is something that is a knowledge that you should keep, the calculation is somewhat complicated and very very intuitive.

So, just that he found out that there is a you know the oscillators the fact that you can put the oscillators centre the symplomatic motion centre of the symplomatic oscillator solution that you get within a range I mean that range he found out and that range give him delta x into delta y equal to phi 0 by B.

So, this is inverse of the flux I mean number of flux quantum basically see a into area into B is equal to B is the flux total flux and phi 0 by B. So, inverse of that is the number of flux quantum and each of these fluxes carry a flux quantum which is H c by 2 e here and from there he did a beautiful analysis it is just a remarkable calculation and he found out that this flux tubes do not go uniformly inside.

They do not form a liquid like structure they can or a random structure, they go in regular arrangements and these regular arrays are they form a lattice and that lattice is called the Abrikosov flux lattice. The turns out that for the this kind of superconductor the structure that

is more stable is a triangular lattice structure and that is slightly lower energy than the square lattice structure and so, he predicted that there will be lattice structure and now we know that this triangular lattice structure is available, this is experimentally measured and the measurement is very simple actually.

What you do is that you just put some iron files on the superconductor. So, take a superconductor put some iron files randomly all over small iron particles and then take it to a type suppose a type II superconductor then thread the magnetic field.

So, put a magnetic field below $H_c 2$ and then the magnetic fluxes penetrate and they penetrate in a lattice which is triangular and then you just check the super conductor and iron files will basically go towards the magnetic fields where the magnetic field has penetrated and then you will see a pattern of this iron powders exactly as the pattern of the magnetic fluxes below the arrangement of the flux tubes below and that is how it is figured out easily. You can actually do it in your MSc lab or BSc lab and if you have a low temperature say liquid nitrogen for example, and you can find this lattice structure.

So, that is all we wanted to discuss about type I type II superconductivity and Abrikosov vortex lattice. This is again a remarkable piece of intuition and to confidence in your theoretical calculations that you predicted it way ahead of the experimental even people even did not even think about that kind of a situation. So, Abrikosov later got Nobel Prize and this is really a remarkable piece of intuitive calculation. So, I stop my discussion of this Ginzburg Landau theory here.

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FLUX QUANTISATION

Remember London equation: $\vec{J} = (\text{const.}) \vec{A}$. What is \vec{J} in terms of the wavefunction

Consider the Wavefunction of a pair $\psi(\vec{r}) = \sqrt{n(\vec{r})} e^{i\theta(\vec{r})}$

Assuming $n(\vec{r}) \approx \text{const.} = \rho^2$ (say), $\psi(\vec{r}) = \rho e^{i\theta(\vec{r})}$

The fact that $n(\vec{r})$ is nearly uniform comes from the fact that any charge fluctuations costs a lot of energy (in presence of the neutralizing background)

Now, $\vec{p} = -i\hbar \nabla \psi = \hbar \nabla \theta$

Hence in presence of the magnetic field,

$$\vec{p} = \vec{p} - \frac{e\vec{A}}{c} = \hbar \nabla \theta - \frac{e\vec{A}}{c}$$

$f(x) = 1 + g(x), g(x) \ll 1$

$$\int \frac{d^2x}{dx^2} + (1+g) - (1+3g) = 0$$

$g(x) \sim e^{-\sqrt{2} \frac{x}{\xi(r)}}$

$E_n = (n + \frac{1}{2}) \hbar \omega_c$

$E_n = \frac{1}{2} \hbar \omega_c$

And, let us just go over to another very very important applications of superconductor that I alluded to when I discuss this delta n delta phi uncertainty. So, let me just go through quickly what it is. It is called flux quantization it is.

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Josephson Effect:

If $d < \xi$ then the electrons can coherently pass through the barrier. Also assume that 1 and 2 are of same material with $T < T_c$. So the junction is symmetric. Assume there is no B. Therefore,

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi_1}{\partial t} = U_1 \psi_1 + K \psi_2,$$

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi_2}{\partial t} = U_2 \psi_2 + K \psi_1.$$

This is the two-state system model. If the two sides 1 and 2 are identical $U_1 = U_2 = U$ (say) and we can drop this term. But if there is a battery connected across, then $U_1 - U_2 = -qV$. Taking the zero of energy half way between them,

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi_1}{\partial t} = \frac{qV}{2} \psi_1 + K \psi_2,$$

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi_2}{\partial t} = -\frac{qV}{2} \psi_2 + K \psi_1.$$

$|\Psi|^2 = n_s$

So, let me just do the one that is important which is what I was alluded to which is Josephson effect. So, in Josephson effect what one does is you just as I said you put two superconductors separated by very thin very very thin insulating region and then you

basically it is so small that it is less than the length is less than the coherence length. So, that this super conductor and this superconductor can talk to each other.

And, then you can simply write a Schrodinger equation for the superconducting wave functions and is it is like a two state model again. And, this is the actual geometric physically this is how it is done there is a small insulating layer. You can basically ace out the superconducting regions and that gives you a insulating region ok. So, let us just quickly go through the calculation.

If you put a if you connect a battery then this the two potentials U 1 and U 2 that are arbitrary here that the difference is at least qV and one can just then set U 1 and U 2 to midpoint I mean the one is at minus qV by 2 another is at plus qV by 2 qV is the charge corresponding to this functions the ok. So, we are discussing we have been discussing this for long ok.

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The slide content is as follows:

Writing, $\psi_1 = \sqrt{\rho_1} e^{i\theta_1}$, $\psi_2 = \sqrt{\rho_2} e^{i\theta_2}$

where θ_1 and θ_2 are the phases on the two sides of the junction and ρ_1 and ρ_2 are the density of electrons at those two points. Remember that in actual practice ρ_1 and ρ_2 are almost exactly the same and are equal to ρ_0 , the normal density of electrons in the superconducting material.

Substituting above and equating real and imaginary parts, we get

Letting $(\theta_2 - \theta_1) = \delta$

$$\dot{\rho}_1 = +\frac{2}{\hbar} K \sqrt{\rho_2 \rho_1} \sin \delta,$$

$$\dot{\rho}_2 = -\frac{2}{\hbar} K \sqrt{\rho_2 \rho_1} \sin \delta,$$

$$\dot{\theta}_1 = -\frac{K}{\hbar} \sqrt{\frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1}} \cos \delta - \frac{qV}{2\hbar},$$

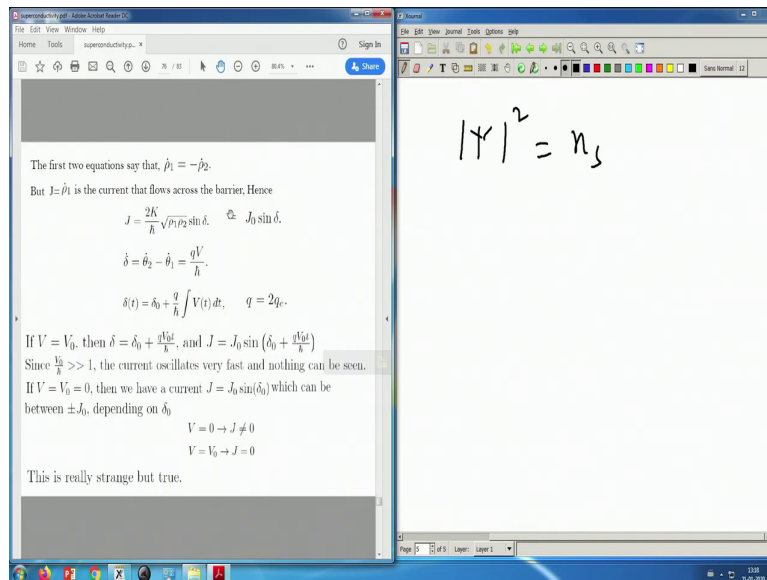
$$\dot{\theta}_2 = -\frac{K}{\hbar} \sqrt{\frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2}} \cos \delta + \frac{qV}{2\hbar}.$$

The whiteboard shows the handwritten equation: $|\psi|^2 = n_s$

So, then the calculation is goes as follows you just you can write this psi 1 as root over n s e to the power i theta 1. Remember that mod psi that we were using mod psi square was n s. So, mod psi square we wrote down as n s. So, psi can be then written as rho 1 and rho 2 at the two densities on the two sides which are this n s 1 and n s 2 ok. So, once we do that these phases are all that we are interested in now.

So, then write down the equations and define theta 2 minus theta 1 equal to delta, go ahead and you can calculate you can equate the imaginary and real parts to get these two equations real part is this and imaginary part will give you this. So, these equations are absolutely simple algebra you can work it out.

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Now, the first two equations as you can see so, basically rho 1 dot equal to minus rho 2 dot, but current is rho 1 dot that flows across the barrier; that means, the reverse current you can think of is rho 2 dot flowing in the other direction. So, J of the current is then 2K by h cross root over rho 1 rho 2 into sine delta because that is what you will get from these equations right rho 1 dot is this and that is the current.

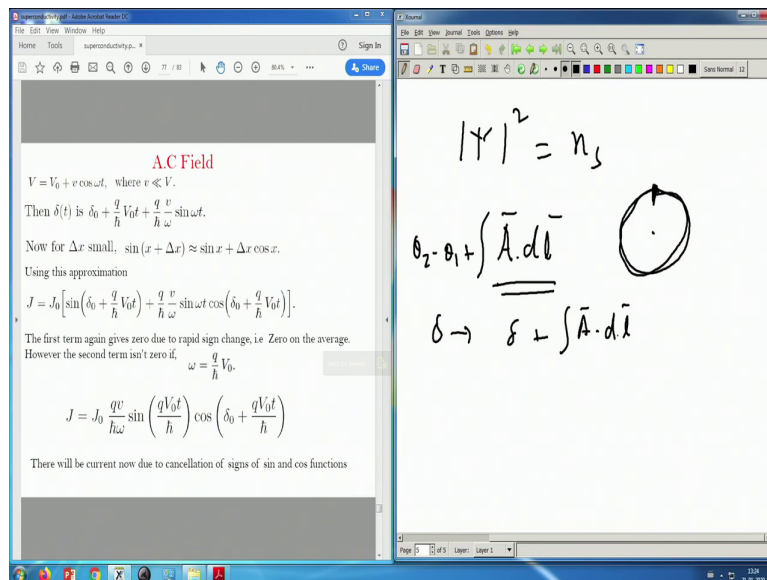
And, the delta dot is theta 2 dot minus theta 1 dot and that turns out to be qV by h cross again from the second set of equations ok. And, then you can integrate and get some delta naught constant of integration plus integral of V t, where V equal to V 0 then delta is basically this quantity this constant potential. So, this is a DC basically DC voltage and you get this and you can write your J therefore, as you can put that delta in here and J is J sine delta naught plus q 0.

Now, the thing is that V 0 by h cross is large very very large of course, h cross is in extremely small quantity. So, the this part oscillates extremely fast and therefore, you cannot see this ok.

Whereas, if V_0 is equal to 0 so, this will average out to 0 if V_0 is finite whereas, if V_0 is 0 then you can have a current which is just $J_0 \sin \delta_0$ and δ_0 is basically the difference between the 2 theta 1 and theta 2 at $V_0 = 0$ now.

So, it is just the difference between these 2 at $t = 0$. So, if initially there is a difference between the two phases that is that will give you a current which can be between. So, the current can be now be plus and minus this oscillates between plus 0 and minus 0 between depending on δ_0 . So, it is a very contrary situation; if you have no voltage you have a current, if you have a voltage you have no current. So, this is what happens in the DC Josephson junction this is really strange, but this is true.

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In AC field you can just go ahead and do this calculation, it is again the simple calculation another term will appear and then you just for Δx small you expand and what you get is finally, this quantity. Now, again in this quantity this will be oscillating very fast this will also oscillate very fast the last $qV_0 t$ by h cross $qV_0 t$ by h cross they will oscillate very fast and they will wash out.

But, if somehow the what happens is that you can choose your δ_0 in such a way then you can actually so, this is on an average this is 0 because of this is $qV_0 t$ by h cross being very large rapid sign change will make it 0. But, you can choose your ω to be this q by h

cross into V naught because the ω is the frequency you are applying for outside, the AC field the AC voltage and then of course, you can get these quantities where for example, look at it if δ_0 is to $\pi/2$ this is sine square. So, this will be this will then show up in a oscillatory, but it is always positive.

So, this will give you a current. There will be no cancellation due to change of signs and you can have an AC Josephson effect with a suitable periodic periodicity coming from here ok. So, this is the remarkable situation. Again, because this as I said the DC one is really amazing that if you have no voltage you have a current you have a voltage you do not have a current and of course, there is also an AC Josephson effect and Josephson junctions are extremely important because these are the ones that are used to measure the magnetic field.

Because, if you have a magnetic field then there will be additional phase coming from say suppose you have a ring Josephson ring with a this is a Josephson ring and you are threading a magnetic field through it that then; that means, there will be a $A \cdot dl$ due to the magnetic field and that phase changes the overall phase of this ψ_{θ_1} and θ_2 that we started with and that therefore, you can measure this flux that flows through this ring.

And, it is extremely sensitive that one can measure very very small fields due to this θ_1 θ_2 minus θ_1 minus or plus this additional field. So, the your δ will change to δ minus $A \cdot dl$ and so, make it plus. So, δ plus $A \cdot dl$ and that $A \cdot dl$ can be picked up because that is that is in the phase and the current that the phase shifts means current the profile of the current where it goes to the oscillation points where it becomes minimum and maximum those shift and from that shift you can immediately find out what this $A \cdot dl$ is and therefore, what the flux is that means.

So, this is called $A \cdot ds$ right and therefore, it is a flux and then this is measurable. You beautifully one can measure the flux and you can actually measure even extremely tiny fields by this kind of measurement. So, the application of Josephson junction is tremendous and Josephson rings, junctions and so on and that actually led to the person Josephson getting a Nobel Prize along with Esaki and Giaever for this. This very simple, but extremely interesting and important calculation, and suggestion which was borne out by experiment.