

# Cryogenic Techniques below 1K

## How to get cold, stay cold and measure something!

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### Initial statement of problem

- You need to choose a refrigerator that can get colder than the temperature needed by your experiment  $T_E$
- The refrigerator must have sufficient cooling power to absorb the power dissipated by the measurement  $\dot{Q}_E$  and still maintain  $T_E$
- You need to cool the sample through some thermal link:
  - sample must cool in a reasonable time
  - thermal contact must be good enough that  $\dot{Q}_E$  doesn't warm the experiment above  $T_E$
- You need to be able to measure temperature:
  - resolution, stability, transferability
  - thermal contact
  - power dissipation of the thermometer
  - response time of the thermometer
  - sensitivity to external parameters e.g. magnetic field

### Books:

O V Lounsamaa	Experimental Principles & Methods below 1K Academic Press 1974
D S Betts	Refrigeration and Thermometry below 1K Sussex Univ Press 1976
R C Richardson & E N Smith	Experimental Techniques in Condensed Matter Physics at Low Temperatures, Addison Wesley 1988
F Pobell	Matter & Method at Low Temperatures Springer Verlag 1996

## Cooling Methods

The main choices of refrigeration method:

- |    |                             |   |
|----|-----------------------------|---|
| a) | $T > 0.25 \text{ K}$        | $^3\text{He}$ evaporation cryostat                |
| b) | $1.0 > T > 0.003 \text{ K}$ | $^3\text{He} - ^4\text{He}$ dilution refrigerator |
| c) | $T < 0.003 \text{ K}$       | Adiabatic nuclear demagnetisation                 |

Others: *Not discussed further*

Adiabatic electron demagnetisation<sup>†</sup>  
 PrNi<sub>5</sub> demagnetisation  
 Pomeranchuk cooling

<sup>†</sup> For example, the recently developed Cambridge Magnetic Research mFridge.  
 $T_{min} < 40\text{mK}$ , 24 hours @ 100mK

Cryogen-free systems now becoming available which can be combined with one of the above.

### a) $^3\text{He}$ evaporation cryostat

- commercially available
- reasonable cooling power

Oxford Instruments:

$T_{base} = 250\text{mK}$ ,  
 $40\mu\text{W}$  for 6 hours with  $T < 300 \text{ mK}$

Temperature dependence of  $^3\text{He}$  vapour pressure described by Clausius-Clapeyron equation

$$\frac{dP}{dT} = \frac{\Delta S}{\Delta V}$$

Ignoring negligible liquid molar volume, substituting for the (approx constant) latent heat  $L = T\Delta S$ , find

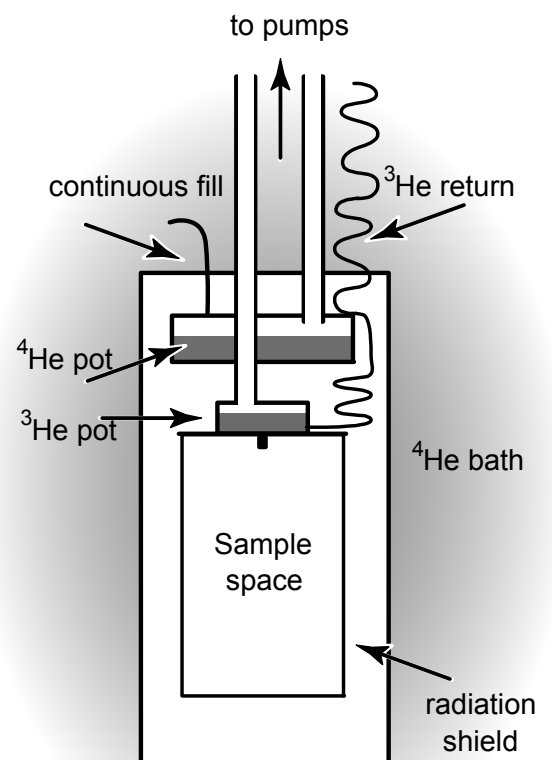
$$P \propto \exp(-L / RT)$$

Cooling power  $\propto$  mass flow across phase boundary  $\propto P$ .  $\therefore$  exponentially falling cooling power.

$L / R = 2.5 \text{ K}$  limits  $T_{base}$  to  $0.2 - 0.3 \text{ K}$

Costs:

- $^4\text{He}$  £3 per liquid litre,  $^3\text{He}$  £60,000 per liquid litre!



## b) $^3\text{He}$ - $^4\text{He}$ dilution refrigerator

- commercially available
- not cheap to buy or run!

Oxford Instruments:

$T_{\text{base}} < 7\text{mK}$ ,  
cooling power  $> 300\mu\text{W}$  at 100 mK

Just a different form of evaporation cooling.

Well described in literature:

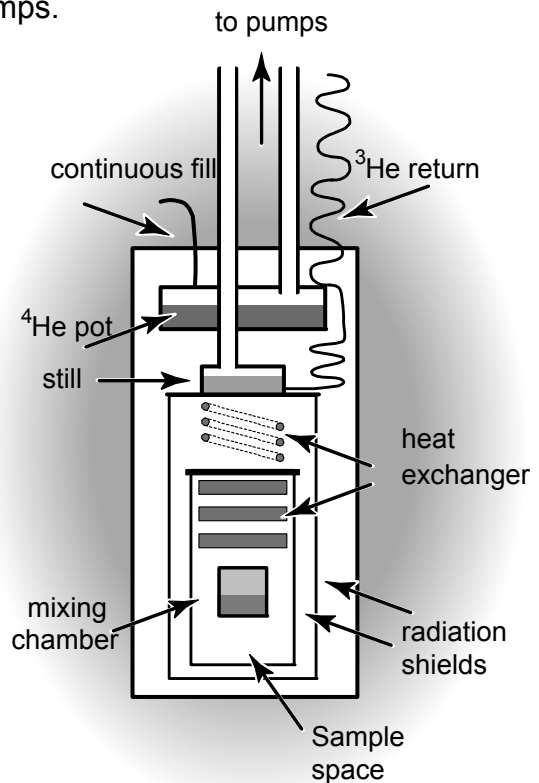
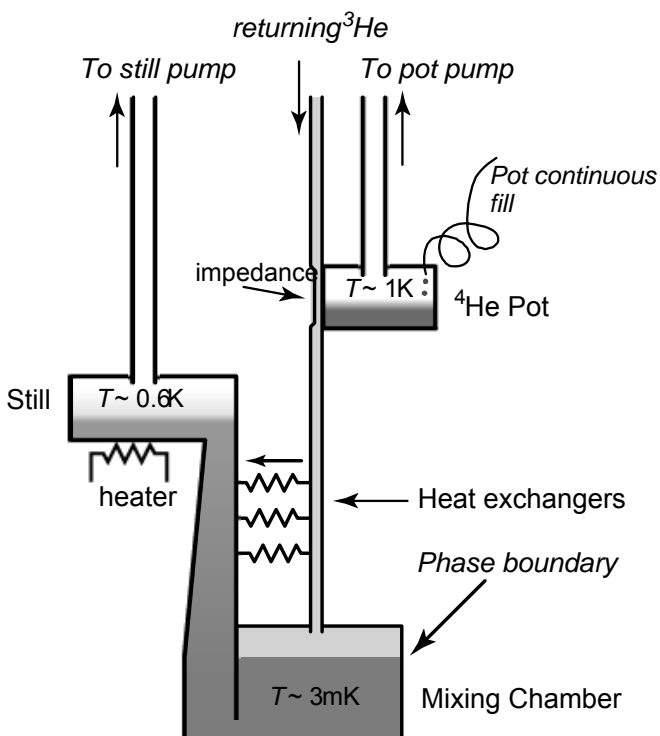
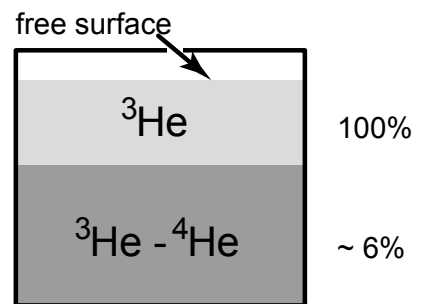
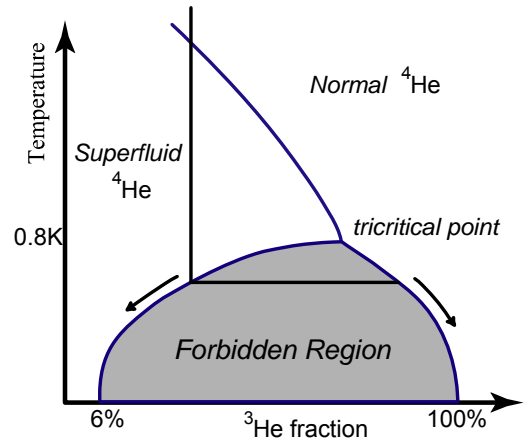
Frossati, LT15, J de Physique C6,  
sup 8, 1578, 1975

How does it work?  $^3\text{He}$ - $^4\text{He}$  mixture phase separates as it cools into a  $^3\text{He}$ -rich phase floating on top of a  $^4\text{He}$ -rich phase. At  $T \sim 0\text{K}$ , the  $^3\text{He}$ -rich phase is 100%  $^3\text{He}$  whilst the  $^4\text{He}$ -rich phase is  $\sim 6.6\%$   $^3\text{He}$ . If  $^3\text{He}$  can be made to 'evaporate' across the phase boundary from the  $^3\text{He}$ -rich phase to the  $^4\text{He}$ -rich phase, then cooling can occur. The entropy of each phase is proportional to  $T$  (Fermi statistics) with the entropy of the dilute  $^4\text{He}$ -rich phase being larger than that of the pure phase. (A proper argument uses enthalpies – see Lounasmaa.) For a given

$^3\text{He}$  circulation rate  $\dot{n}_3$ , the cooling power at  $T$  is approximately

$$\dot{Q} \sim 80 \dot{n}_3 (T^2 - T_{\text{base}}^2)$$

Circulation rate can be 1000  $\mu\text{mol s}^{-1}$  with big pumps.



## Problems and solutions

Use a log-book to keep a good record of all changes!

### Wiring:

- Use insulated superconducting wire with CuNi cladding, not copper cladding
- Thermally anchor at each intermediate stage
- Beware difficulty in cooling the core of coax cables
- Twisted pairs usually OK for low frequency
- Liquid fill lines anchor at all intermediate stages
- can you get the wiring or fill line out non-destructively?

### Common problems:

#### Fridge initially gets cold then warms up 24h or so later to ~1K

- small leak – look for excess  $^4\text{He}$  or  $^3\text{He}$  in vacuum space

#### Pot empty

- blocked continuous fill
  - dirty  $^4\text{He}$  or air leak to  $^4\text{He}$  bath
- large heat load on pot
  - touch?
  - any new wiring?

#### Base T very high

- touch between shields
- large heat load
  - diagnostic see if cools if increase circulation rate – if so
    - touch?
    - any new wiring?

#### Condensers keep blocking

- air leak into system
- 'cold traps' not cold or contaminated
- poor procedures?
  - pump carefully at start of run
  - ensure equal pressure both sides of an impedance

### Dilution fridge specific:

#### Fridge won't start to cool or cools badly

- Has something changed?
  - mixture loss
  - wiring changed
  - new experimental cell

!! Do you really want to continue?? The following is for experts only - seek advice locally first before doing anything which might be irreversible!!!

**Symptom:**

- no vapour pressure in still
- no cooling of still
  - still empty
    - too little mixture – add <sup>4</sup>He

**Symptoms:**

- mixing chamber not very cold
- mixing chamber not the coldest
  - phase boundary in wrong place – difficult to tell!
    - remove <sup>3</sup>He to storage containers and monitor temperature

**C) Adiabatic Nuclear Refrigeration**

- Single shot process
- $T < 3$  mK

Needs

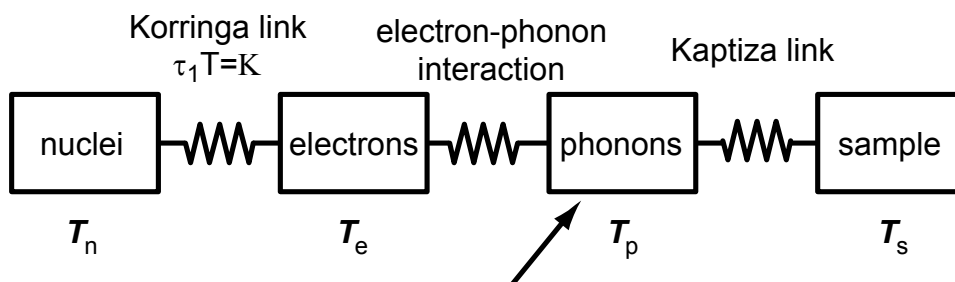
- large magnetic field,  $B > 6$  Tesla
- dilution fridge precool to  $< 10$  mK through superconducting heat switch

see Pickett, Rep Prog Phys 51, 1295, 1988 for a recent review or Pobell's book

Cool nuclear paramagnet, usually copper, in high field, isolate and remove B.

Entropy  $S = f(B / T)$ ; adiabatic  $S = \text{const} \therefore B \downarrow \quad T \downarrow$

**difficulty of thermal contact**



small heat capacity

Limits:

- |  |                                      |
|--|--------------------------------------|
| nuclear spins                              | $T_{\text{nuc}} \sim 100$ pK         |
| electrons                                  | $T_{\text{electron}} \sim 1$ $\mu$ K |
| <sup>3</sup> He                            | $T_3 \sim 80$ $\mu$ K                |
| <sup>3</sup> He – <sup>4</sup> He mixtures | $T_3 \sim 100$ $\mu$ K ??            |

## Thermal Contact

- The lowest sample temperature is often determined NOT by the refrigerator cooling power/base temperature but by the thermal link to the sample

heat flow  $\dot{Q}$  through finite thermal resistance  $R$  causes  $\Delta T$

$$\dot{Q} = \Delta T / R$$

Thermal time constant  $\tau = RC$  where  $C$  is the sample heat capacity

### Metallic contact:

Thermal conductivity is very difficult to measure. Fortunately, we can use the Weidemann-Franz law which relates the thermal and electrical conductivities. These quantities are related through the constant

$$L_0 = \frac{K}{\sigma T} = 2.45 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W}\Omega\text{K}^{-2}$$

where  $K$  is the thermal conductivity at temperature  $T$ , and  $\sigma$  is the electrical conductivity at  $T$ . The room temperature electrical conductivity is usually well known and the low temperature conductivity can be found by a quick measurement of the ratio of the resistivity at room temperature to that at 4K– the Residual Resistance Ratio  $RRR = \rho_{293\text{K}} / \rho_{4\text{K}}$  (connect up a 4-probe resistance measurement and dip the sample into a  $^4\text{He}$  dewar. The ratio avoids needing to know the sample dimensions accurately.)

typically:

- 50 –100 for untreated copper wire
- 1 for alloys - Stainless Steel, CuNi

if very pure (99.999%) starting material, heat treating can raise this to 1000 – 10000

Thermal resistance  $R = l / KA$  where

$$K = L_0 \frac{RRR}{\rho} T \quad \text{where} \quad \sigma = \frac{RRR}{\rho}$$

so

$$\dot{Q} = \frac{KA}{l} \Delta T$$

If the temperature difference  $\Delta T$  across the conductor is large, you must integrate

$$\dot{Q} = \int_{T_{cold}}^{T_{hot}} \frac{KA}{l} dT$$
$$\dot{Q} = \frac{A}{l} L_0 \frac{RRR}{\rho} \frac{(T_{hot}^2 - T_{cold}^2)}{2}$$

As an example, let's consider a 1mm diameter untreated copper wire straight off a reel connecting your sample to the mixing chamber of a dilution fridge at 10mK. We'll assume  $1\mu\text{W}$  power is dissipated in the sample, the typical cooling power of a dilution refrigerator at 10mK..

Example: Round Copper Rod

$\rho = 1.7 \times 10^{-8} \Omega \text{ m}$      $\text{RRR} = 100$   
 diameter = 1 mm    length  $\ell = 1 \text{ cm}$

$$T_{\text{hot}}^2 = T_{\text{cold}}^2 + \dot{Q} \frac{2\ell}{KA}$$

Find  $T_{\text{hot}} = 16.6 \text{ mK!!!}$

### Metallic sinters

Boundary resistance between fine metal particles (sinters) and the He liquids inversely proportional to the sinter area and depends on T as

${}^3\text{He} - {}^4\text{He}$		$R \propto 1/T^2$
${}^3\text{He}$	$T > 10 \text{ mK}$	$R \propto 1/T^3$
${}^3\text{He}$	$T < 10 \text{ mK}$	$R \propto 1/T$

### Screw Joints

screw joints can have contact resistance  $< 0.1\mu\Omega$  with care.  $R \sim 4/T \text{ K}^2/\text{W}$

## Thermal Isolation

### Insulators:

Best material

- Vespel SP22
  - strong, machinable
  - low thermal conductivity  $K = 17 \times 10^{-4} T^2 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$  Locatelli, Cryogenics **16**, 374, 1976

### Superconducting heat switches

	$T_c(\text{K})$	$H_c(\text{mT})$	contact method
Sn	3.7	30.4	solder <sup>††</sup>
Zn	0.85	5.3	solder with Cd <sup>†</sup> or In
Al	1.16	10.3	gold plate & clamp or melt

†† beware changing to grey tin powder

† highly toxic!

## Vibrational Isolation

- think about it especially if you have large magnetic fields
  - use air springs to decouple from floor
  - dump vibrations from pipework, etc in heavy masses

## Thermometers

- thermal contact difficult.
- want small  $C$  to get fast response

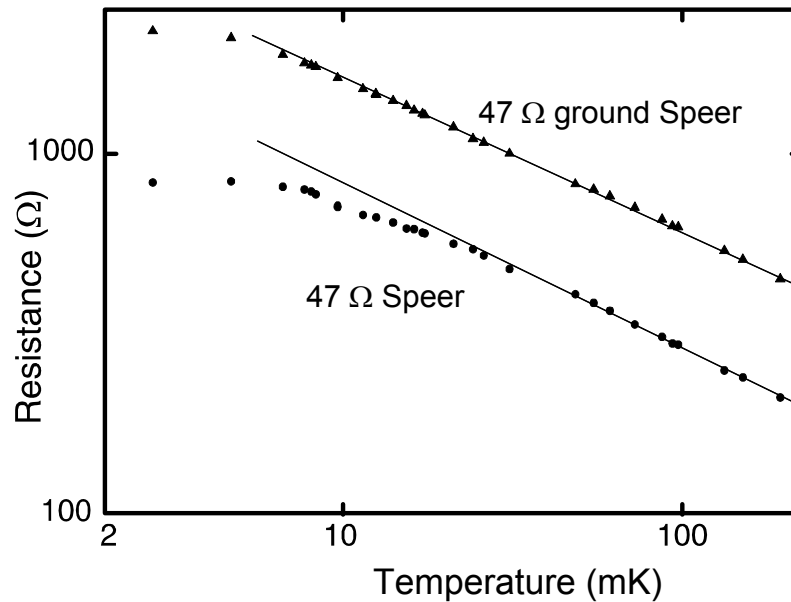
### Resistance thermometry

(Speer) carbon resistor

- usable to  $\sim 10$  mK with care
- power dissipation must be  $< T^3 \text{ nW/K}^3 \sim 10^{-15} \text{ W}$  at 10 mK
- field dependent
- cooled mainly through the leads
  - glue thin slice to copper plate improves thermal contact.



The examples below are of a 47 $\Omega$  Speer resistor mounted directly in the liquid in the mixing chamber and a similar 47 $\Omega$  Speer resistor ground to ~0.5mm thick, glued to a copper plate (insulated by stycast 1266 impregnated cigarette paper, attached by a silver wire to a sinter pad in the mixing chamber. Both resistors have simple low-pass LC filters on the electrical leads. The ground resistor tracks T to much lower temperatures.



#### Germanium resistor

- expensive & fragile
- some OK down to ~ 20 mK
- field dependent

#### RuO<sub>2</sub> resistor

- not very field dependent
- as Speer resistors otherwise

### susceptibility thermometry

#### CMN

- Curie-Weiss law  $\chi = C/(T-\Delta)$
- SQUID useful
- two forms
  - powder form for He liquids
  - slurry with glycerol in fine wires for thermal contact to solid
- usable down to ~3 mK with care
  - dilute with La to go lower
- field dependent
- can order above 3 mk if dehydrated

PdFe (few % Fe) see Pobell's book

- Curie law  $\chi = C/T$
- ~50 mK to  $\ll$  1mK
- SQUID necessary
- field dependent
- tunable range by Fe content

NMR Pt wire or powder

- field independent
- Curies law  $\chi = C/T$
- pulsed technique
  - $\tau_2$  short  $\tau_1$  long (= 0.03/T s)
- commercially available
- 20 mK to  $\sim$ 1  $\mu$ K with care

### Capacitance thermometer – Frossatti LT18, p1723

- field independent
- 1 K to 1 mK
- fast response, low dissipation,
- resolution 10 $\mu$ K at 1mK
- needs 'fancy' C bridge Andeen-Hagerling

### $^3\text{He}$ melting curve

- 0.3K – 2 mK
- difficult to calibrate - needs  $T_A$
- field independent
- large heat capacity – slow response

### Nuclear Orientation

- measure  $\gamma$ -ray decay anisotropy
- constant heat leak which cannot be turned off!
  - 650 pW per 1 $\mu$ C  $^{60}\text{Co}$
- slow
- needs expensive detectors

### Vibrating wire resonators

- useful in  $^3\text{He}$  or  $^3\text{He}$ - $^4\text{He}$  mixtures
- 50 mK to  $<$  100  $\mu$ K
- measures liquid temperature directly
- requires magnetic field