## Calculation of Dynamic Critical Properties Using Wilson's Expansion Methods

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The dynamic critical behavior of a continuum analog of the kinetic Ising model is studied using a generalization of Wilson's expansion methods. Results are found which disagree with the mode-mode coupling approach and the conventional (Van Hove) theory.

A major advance in our understanding of the properties of a system near its critical point has resulted from the discovery of methods for obtaining static critical exponents as power series expansions in  $\epsilon = 4 - d$ ,<sup>1</sup> and in 1/n.<sup>2</sup> (d is the dimensionality of the system, and n the dimensionality of the order parameter.) We have extended these techniques to calculate the exponent for the time-dependent critical behavior of a simple system-the time-dependent Ginzburg-Landau (TDGL) model. This is a continuum generalization of the kinetic Ising model introduced by Glauber,<sup>3</sup> in which time dependence is introduced via weak coupling to an infinite heat reservoir at each lattice site. In the case where the order parameter is not conserved, we find a characteristic frequency  $\omega_k \sim k^{2+c\eta}$ , with  $c \ge 0$  in all cases. This disagrees with the conventional (Van Hove<sup>4</sup>) prediction (c = -1), and results inferred from mode-mode coupling theories.<sup>5</sup> When the order parameter is conserved, on the other hand, we find  $\omega_{k} \sim k^{4-\eta}$ , in agreement with these theories.

The TDGL model is described by the equations<sup>6</sup>

$$\frac{\partial s_{\alpha}}{\partial t} = -\left(\frac{\Gamma}{k_{\rm B}T}\right) \frac{\delta H}{\delta s_{\alpha}} + \eta_{\alpha}, \qquad (1)$$

$$\frac{1}{k_{\rm B}T} \frac{\delta H}{\delta s_{\alpha}} = (r_0 - \nabla^2 + 4u_0 \sum_{\alpha} s_{\alpha}, {}^2)s_{\alpha} - h.$$
(2)

Here  $s_{\alpha}(\vec{x}, t)$  is the  $\alpha$  component of the order parameter at position  $\vec{x}$  and time t,  $\vec{x}$  is a point in a *d*-dimensional space, and  $\alpha$  varies from 1 to n; the Hamiltonian *H* is the one employed by Wilson,<sup>1</sup> except for the inclusion of an infinitesimal *position*- and *time-dependent* magnetic field

 $k_{\rm B}Th(\vec{x}, t)$ ; and  $\eta_{\alpha}$  is a Langevin noise source with mean zero, and correlation function

$$\langle \eta_{\alpha}(\vec{\mathbf{x}},t)\eta_{\alpha},(\vec{\mathbf{x}'},t')\rangle = 2\Gamma\delta(\vec{\mathbf{x}}-\vec{\mathbf{x}'})\delta(t-t')\delta_{\alpha\alpha'}.$$
 (3)

It is understood that only fluctuations with wave vectors smaller than a cutoff  $\Lambda$  of order unity are to be included in the above, but frequencies may range from  $-\infty$  to  $\infty$ . If  $\Gamma$  is proportional to  $\nabla^2$ , then the integral over space of  $s_{\alpha}$  is conserved, and  $\partial s_{\alpha}/\partial t$  is described by a diffusion equation for  $T > T_c$ . We shall primarily discuss the case where  $\Gamma$  is a constant, so that the value of the k = 0 component of  $s_{\alpha}$  is not conserved, i.e., it relaxes at a finite frequency above  $T_c$ . In either case, the static properties are the same, and all thermodynamic properties and equal-time correlation functions are identical to those calculated by Wilson.<sup>1</sup>

We shall study the linear response function  $\chi(k, \omega)$ , which relates the expectation value of  $s_{\alpha}$  to the time-dependent field h, for small values of the wave vector  $\vec{k}$  and frequency  $\omega$ . For  $T = T_c$ , according to the dynamic scaling hypothesis,<sup>7</sup> we expect to have

$$\chi^{-1}(k,\,\omega) = k^{2-\eta} f(\omega/\omega_k),\tag{4}$$

$$\omega_{k} \equiv \Gamma k^{z}, \tag{5}$$

where z is an unknown exponent, and f is a dimensionless function. Note that  $\chi$  is equal to the static correlation function  $g(k) \sim k^{\eta^{-2}}$  when  $\omega = 0$ , so that f must approach a finite constant when its argument approaches zero. The exponent  $\eta$  has been calculated by Wilson<sup>1</sup> to be  $\eta = \epsilon^2(n+2)/2(n+8)^2 + O(\epsilon^3)$ . For 2 < d < 4, Ma<sup>2</sup> has found

$$\eta = 4n^{-1} \left[ (4/d) - 1 \right] \sin \left( \frac{1}{2}d - 1 \right) \left[ \pi (\frac{1}{2}d - 1) B(\frac{1}{2}d - 1, \frac{1}{2}d - 1) \right]^{-1} + O(n^{-2})$$

where B(u, v) is the beta function.

It is convenient to write  $\chi(k, \omega)$  in the form

$$\chi(k,\,\omega)^{-1}=G_0^{-1}(k,\,\omega)+\Sigma(k,\,\omega),$$

where  $G_0^{-1}$  is the value of  $\chi^{-1}$  when  $u_0 = 0$ , namely

$$G_0^{-1} = -i\omega/\Gamma + r_0 + k^2$$

A perturbation expansion for  $\Sigma(k, \omega)$  can be developed, whose general structure is described in Ref. 6 for the TDGL model of a superconductor (n=2). A typical diagram of order  $u_0^2$  for the self-energy is shown in Fig. 1(a). The value of this diagram is

$$\Sigma_{(2)}(k, \omega) = 24(n+2)(4u_0)^2 \int \frac{d^d k_1}{(2\pi)^d} \frac{d^d k_2}{(2\pi)^d} \frac{d\omega_1}{2\pi} \frac{d\omega_2}{2\pi}$$

$$\times G_{0}(\vec{k} - \vec{k_{1}} - \vec{k_{2}}, \omega - \omega_{1} - \omega_{2}) \frac{1}{\omega_{1}} \operatorname{Im} G_{0}(k_{1}, \omega_{1}) \frac{1}{\omega_{2}} \operatorname{Im} G_{0}(k_{2}, \omega_{2}).$$
(8)

Equation (8) in fact gives the entire contribution to  $\Sigma$  of order  $u_0^2$ , other than a term independent of k and  $\omega$ , which contributes to a renormalization of  $T_c$ , but does not affect the correlation functions at  $T_c$ .

Now let us examine (4) and (8) near four dimensions. In the static case, Wilson<sup>1</sup> has argued that the asymptotic form of g(k) at  $T = T_c$  and k -0 can be obtained directly from the perturbation series for g provided one chooses  $u_0 = 2\pi^2 \epsilon /$ (n+8) (correct to lowest order in  $\epsilon$ ), and systematically expands all diagrams in powers of  $\epsilon$ . We assert that the same procedure will yield the correct form for the dynamic correlation function.<sup>8</sup> To apply the Wilson prescription, we first note that when  $r_0 = u_0 = 0$ , which is the correct limit for the critical point in four dimensions,  $\chi^{-1}$  is given by (7), and the exponent z of (5) has the value 2. If we take the limit where k = 0, while  $\omega/\Gamma$  is small but finite, we expect *in gen*eral that  $\chi^{-1}$  will have a finite value. According to dynamic scaling [Eq. (4)],  $\chi^{-1}$  will then have

the form

$$\chi^{-1} = c_1 \omega^{1-\lambda}, \tag{9}$$

where  $1 - \lambda = (2 - \eta)/z$ . Furthermore in the limit  $\epsilon \to 0$ , we should have  $\lambda \to 0$ , and  $c_1 \to i\Gamma^{-1}$ .

In order to compute  $\chi^{-1}(0, \omega)$  to order  $\epsilon^2$ , we need only evaluate (8) at d = 4, with k = 0 and  $r_0 = 0$ . The leading term for small  $\omega$  is proportional to  $i\omega \ln \omega$ . The coefficient of this term may be evaluated, and we find

$$\chi(0,\,\omega)^{-1} \sim -i(\omega/\Gamma)[1-u_0^{2}b_1\ln\omega], \qquad (10)$$

where  $b_1 = 3(n+2)\ln(\frac{4}{3})/8\pi^4$ . This is compatible with (9) and the expressions for  $\eta$  and  $u_0$  if and only if  $\lambda = b_1 u_0^2$ , or

$$z=2+c\eta, \tag{11}$$

with  $c = 6 \ln(\frac{4}{3}) - 1$ , to order  $\epsilon^2$ . We note that c is independent of n in this case.

In order to check the dynamic scaling assumption (4) to order  $\epsilon^2$ , we consider Eq. (8) in the limit  $\omega \to 0$ ,  $k \to 0$ , with  $\omega/\Gamma k^2$  finite. We find

$$\chi^{-1}(k,\,\omega) = k^2 \left[1 - u_0^2 b_2 \ln k\right] - i(\omega/\Gamma) \left[1 - u_0^2 b_3 \ln k\right] + u_0^2 k^2 \Phi(\omega/\Gamma k^2),\tag{12}$$

where  $b_2 = (n+2)/8\pi^4$ ,  $b_3 = 2b_1$ , and  $\Phi$  is a regular function of its argument, in the sense that all derivatives exist at  $\omega/\Gamma k^2 \to 0$ . Using Wilson's expression for  $\eta$  and Eq. (11), it is now easy to check that Eq. (12) is consistent with the dynamic scaling assumption (4) to order  $\epsilon^2$ , with the function f identified as

$$f(x) = 1 - ix + \epsilon^{2} [2\pi^{2}/(n+8)]^{2} \Phi(x).$$
(13)



FIG. 1. (a) Diagram contributing to the self-energy to order  $\epsilon^2$ . (b) General form of the self-energy to order 1/n.

(6)

(7)

In the limit  $\omega/\Gamma k^2 - \infty$ , of course,  $\Phi(\omega/\Gamma k^2)$  diverges as  $ib_1(\omega/\Gamma k^2)\ln(\omega/\Gamma k^2)$ , in order to make contact with (9) and (10).

Let us now turn to the expansion in 1/n. As in the static case,<sup>2</sup> in order to evaluate  $\chi^{-1}$  to first order in 1/n, we must sum the diagrams shown in Fig. 1(b). This yields, for  $T = T_c$ ,

$$\operatorname{Im}\Sigma(k,\,\omega) = \left(\frac{2\omega}{\Gamma n}\right) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d\nu}{2\pi\nu} \int \frac{d^d p}{(2\pi)^d} \frac{l(p,\,\nu)}{[\Gamma^{-2}(\omega-\nu)^2 + (\vec{k}-\vec{p})^4]},\tag{14}$$

$$I(p, \nu) = 2 \operatorname{Im} \left\{ \int \frac{d^{d}q}{(2\pi)^{d}} q^{-2} (\vec{p} + \vec{q})^{-2} \left[ \frac{q^{2} + (\vec{p} + \vec{q})^{2}}{q^{2} + (\vec{p} + \vec{q})^{2} - i\nu\Gamma^{-1}} \right] \right\}^{-1}.$$
(15)

Taking k = 0, and  $\omega$  small but finite, we again find Im $\Sigma$  to be proportional to  $\omega \ln \omega$ ; comparing with Eqs. (9), (4), and (5), we find Eq. (11), with

$$c = \left(\frac{4}{4-d}\right) \left\{ \frac{dB(\frac{1}{2}d-1,\frac{1}{2}d-1)}{8\int_0^{1/2} dx [x(2-x)]^{d/2-2}} - 1 \right\},$$
 (16)

where we have used Ma's expression<sup>2</sup> for  $\eta$ , given in the equation preceding (6). It may be shown from Eq. (16) that for d = 4,  $c = 6 \ln(\frac{4}{3}) - 1$ , in accordance with our previous result, while for d = 3,  $c = \frac{1}{2}$ , and for d = 2, c = 0.

The case where the order parameter is conserved is similar to that considered above. Equations (1)-(8) are essentially unchanged, except that  $\Gamma$  is everywhere replaced by  $\lambda_0 k^2$ , where  $\lambda_0$ is the "unrenormalized transport coefficient" for s. When we evaluate the self-energy in Eq. (8), however, for the case where  $\omega \to 0$  and  $k \to 0$ , with  $\omega/\lambda_0 k^2$  small but finite, we find no term of order  $(\omega/\lambda_0 k^2) \ln \omega$ . Thus there is no correction to the conventional form,  $\chi^{-1}(0, \omega) \sim i\omega/\lambda_0 k^2$ . We therefore have  $\omega_k \sim \lambda_0 k^{4-\eta}$ , as predicted by the conventional theory. Similarly, if we consider (8) in the case where  $\omega/\lambda_0 k^4$  is a finite constant, we find

$$\Sigma(k, \omega) \sim -\eta k^2 \ln k + b_4 k^2 \psi(\omega/\lambda_0 k^4), \qquad (17)$$

where  $b_4$  is a constant of order  $\epsilon^2$ , and  $\psi$  is a dimensionless regular function of  $\omega/\lambda_0 k^4$ . Again, this result shows that the conventional theory is correct in this case, and that the dynamic scaling assumption is verified to order  $\epsilon^2$ .

Let us comment on the relevance of our calculations to other systems. For static properties the universality hypothesis leads one to believe that the exponents of the "Ginzburg-Landau" model<sup>1</sup> will be the same as those for other systems with the same symmetry and dimensionality. For dynamic critical phenomena, we again expect to have a certain degree of universality, but the classes of systems having the same exponents clearly must be smaller than for static properties alone. For example, the two systems considered here (order parameter conserved or not conserved) have identical static properties, but have different dynamic exponents. On the other hand, renormalization-group arguments<sup>8</sup> certainly support the idea that for n=1, our continuum TDGL models should have the same critical exponents as their discrete kinetic Ising model counterparts, independent of the details of the lattice, or of the coupling to the reservoirs, etc.

The TDGL models differ obviously from some of the more commonly considered models, such as the isotropic Heisenberg ferromagnet or antiferromagnet, in that they have no propagating hydrodynamic modes for the order parameter, even for  $T < T_c$ . The TDGL models are more analogous to anisotropic Heisenberg models, where there are also no propagating hydrodynamic modes. Examples include the uniaxial ferromagnet, where the order parameter is conserved, and models where the order parameter is not conserved, such as the uniaxial *antiferromagnet* or the anisotropic ferromagnet without a symmetry axis. The TDGL models differ even from these, however, in that the assumption of an infinite heat reservoir at every site eliminates any effects that energy conservation might have on the dynamic critical properties. Within the spirit of mode-mode coupling theory,<sup>5</sup> one might ask whether the absence of a low-frequency thermal diffusion mode in the TDGL models will affect their dynamic critical exponents. In contrast to the TDGL and kinetic Ising models, the isotropic Heisenberg ferromagnet or antiferromagnet does not seem to approach a simple Gaussian fixed point for their dynamic properties as  $d \rightarrow 4$  or  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , and the methods of the present paper are not directly applicable. For example, by studying the Heisenberg ferromagnet in the limit of long-range forces, or by using dynamic scaling, one finds that the exponent z does not reach its conventional value (z=4) in four dimensions.<sup>9</sup>

The frequencies  $\omega_k$  found in the present paper

are always equal to or smaller than those predicted by the conventional theory. This is consistent with a rigorous theorem that has been proved<sup>10</sup> for purely dissipative models of the present type, and may be contrasted with cases such as the Heisenberg ferromagnet or antiferromagnet where the characteristic frequencies, according to dynamic scaling<sup>7</sup> or the mode-mode theories,<sup>5</sup> are always larger than the conventional predictions. A characteristic frequency slower than the conventional theory has previously been obtained for the two-dimensional kinetic Ising model by Yahata and Suzuki,<sup>11</sup> based on high-temperature series expansions. Specifically, these authors found a relaxation frequency  $\omega \sim \kappa^2$  for the k = 0 component of the magnetiza tion above  $T_c$ (i.e., z = 2), whereas the conventional theory predicts  $z = \frac{7}{4}$  for this case. We note that the result z = 2 (c = 0) for two dimensions is precisely the one obtained in Eq. (16) to leading order in 1/n. Recently, however, Schneider, Stoll, and Binder<sup>12</sup> have studied the same model using a Monte Carlo molecular-dynamics approach, and find results which agree with the conventional theory for the relaxation of the uniform mode.

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<sup>8</sup>The justification for this procedure in terms of Wilson's renormalization group ideas is similar to one that can be given for the static case. In particular, we have studied the infinitesimal generator of the renormalization group for the dynamic system in the vicinity of the Gaussian fixed point  $[u_0 = r_0 = 0 \text{ in Eq. } (2)]$ , and we find that in four dimensions there is only one nontrivial zero eigenvalue, just as in the static case. The corresponding low-lying eigenvalue can be prevented from "contaminating" the  $\epsilon$  expansion of the exponents by properly choosing a single parameter in the Hamiltonian, specifically by choosing  $u_0$  according to Wilson's prescription. Details will be published elsewhere.

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## Superconductivity Mechanisms and Covalent Instabilities

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Quantitative estimates are made of the maximum value of the superconductive transition temperature  $T_c$  attainable through combining electron-exciton interactions with electron-phonon interactions in metal-semiconductor sandwiches. Because of covalent instabilities, it is argued that no enhancement of  $T_c$  can be expected if the initial value of  $T_c$  in the pure metal was greater than 5°K.

Some fifteen years ago the discovery by Bardeen, Cooper, and Schfieffer<sup>1</sup> (BCS) of a microscopic theory of superconductivity raised hopes of achieving higher superconducting transition temperatures  $T_c$  through careful choice of coupling parameters and sample configurations. However, as Matthias has often emphasized,<sup>2</sup> these hopes have yet to be realized. One reason for this is that the mechanism utilized in the BCS theory, the electron-phonon interaction, is well understood in the normal state only for structurally stable metals like Al (with low values of  $T_c$ ) and not for structurally unstable metals like Pb, NbN, and Nb<sub>3</sub>Sn with high values of  $T_c$ . After more