# Temperature and energy measurements in ultra-low temperature Helium-3

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Specific heat capacity  $C_V$  as a function of the temperature T (in units of  $[J/K/m^3]$ ) has been calculated from the entropy of a system of independent fermions, quasiparticles [1], as

$$C_V(T) = 2(2\pi)^{1/2} k_B N_0 \Delta \left(\frac{\Delta}{k_B T}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta}{k_B T}\right)$$
 (1)

where  $k_B$  is the Boltzmann constant,  $N_0$  is the density of quasiparticle states in the normal phase at Fermi energy for one spin component,  $\Delta$  ( $\approx 1.76k_BT_c$ ) is the average gap energy at low temperature near the critical temperature for superfluidity  $T_c$  ( $\simeq 930 \,\mu\text{K}$ ). They all depend on pressure P.

 $C_V(T)$  has a strong dependency with temperature (fig. 1)

To obtain the heat variation  $\Delta Q$  between two temperatures  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  for a given volume V of helium-3 is required the integration

$$\Delta Q(T_1, T_2) = \Delta C_V V = V \int_{T_1}^{T_2} C_V(T) dT$$
 (2)

$$= V \left( \int_0^{T_2} C_V(T) dT - \int_0^{T_1} C_V(T) dT \right)$$
 (3)

$$= V (I(T_2) - I(T_1)) (4)$$

where

$$I(T) = \int_0^T C_V(T)dT = \sqrt{2}\pi N_0 \Delta^2 \left( 1 - \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{\sqrt{\frac{\Delta}{k_B T}}} e^{-t^2} dt \right)$$
 (5)

$$= \sqrt{2\pi N_0 \Delta^2} \operatorname{erfc} \sqrt{\frac{\Delta}{k_B T}}$$
 (6)

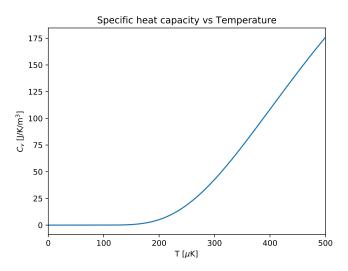


Figure 1:  $C_V$  vs T, below  $T_c$ . He3 has an extremely low heat capacity at low temperatures.

therefore

$$\Delta Q(T_1, T_2) = \sqrt{2\pi} N_0 \Delta^2 \left( \operatorname{erfc} \sqrt{\frac{\Delta}{k_B T_2}} - \operatorname{erfc} \sqrt{\frac{\Delta}{k_B T_1}} \right) V \tag{7}$$

We consider the 1 cm<sup>3</sup> volume of helium-3 at a certain base temperature  $T_0$  so we can calculate the temperature variation  $\Delta T$  for an energy deposition  $\Delta Q(T_0, T_0 + \Delta T)$ ; since both  $N_0$  and  $\Delta$  are function of the pressure we calculate the energy deposition for 4 different pressures in the range (0–30) bar (fig. 2)

Higher pressures for higher system temperatures have equivalent effects in terms of temperature variations.

For a vibrating wire resonator (VWR), either from an amplitude sweep or a resonance tracking is possible to calculate the resonance width  $\Delta f$  which can be used to infer the temperature [2]. Since the resonance width is

$$\Delta f = \frac{2F}{\pi \rho d} \tag{8}$$

where d and  $\rho$  are respectively the diameter and the mass density of the wire, and F is the damping(?) force (in units of length, velocity and diameter), defined as

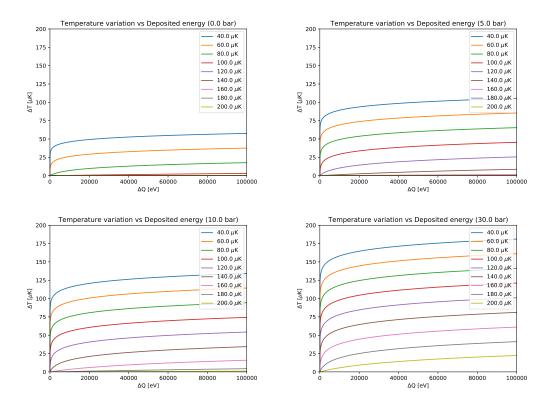


Figure 2:  $\Delta T$  vs  $\Delta Q$  for several  $T_0$  in the range 40–200  $\mu$ K for pressures of 0 bar (top-left), 5 bar (top-right), 10 bar (bottom-left), 30 bar (bottom-right).

$$F = \frac{\pi}{4} p_F^2 v_F N_0 \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta}{k_B T}\right) \tag{9}$$

The resonance width expressed in terms of temperature is

$$\Delta f = \frac{p_F^2 v_F N_0}{2\pi \rho d} \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta}{k_B T}\right) \tag{10}$$

e.g. in fig. 3 for a Niobium-Titanium wire of 150 nm diameter in a volume at 1 bar; therefore the temperature can be derived from the resonance width

$$T = -\frac{\Delta}{k_B \ln\left(\Delta f \frac{2\pi\rho d}{p_F^2 v_F N_0}\right)} \tag{11}$$

The increase of resonance width  $\Delta(\Delta f)$  in response of an energy deposition  $\Delta Q$  is linearly proportional, as shown in figures 4 and 5. The constant

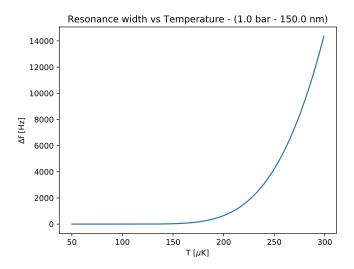


Figure 3: Resonance frequency width dependence on temperature for a nanowire.

of proportionality is inversely proportional to the base temperature (and pressure), so the other way around, in terms of energy deposition

$$\Delta Q = \alpha(T_0, P)\Delta(\Delta f), \alpha \propto T_0 \tag{12}$$

The increase of resonance width  $\Delta(\Delta f)$  can be measured from fitting each bolometric recorded event, e.g. in figure 6 from [3], using the function

$$\Delta f(t) = \Delta f_{\text{base}} + \Delta (\Delta f) \left(\frac{\tau_b}{\tau_w}\right)^{\tau_w/(\tau_b - \tau_w)} \frac{\tau_b}{\tau_b - \tau_w} \left(e^{-t/\tau_b} - e^{-t/\tau_w}\right)$$
(13)

in order to extract the maximum variation  $\Delta(\Delta f)$ , where  $\Delta f_{\text{base}}$  is the base width at the base temperature of the helium,  $\tau_w$  is the response time of the oscillating wire

$$\tau_w \simeq \frac{1}{\pi \Delta f} = \text{const}$$
 (14)

and  $\tau_b$  is the decay constant, proportional to the Kapitza resistance (the thermal boundary resistance limiting the heat conduction between the solid metal and the liquid helium)

$$\tau_b = R_K(T)C_V \tag{15}$$

Considering that there are three main variables, base temperature, pressure of the helium, wire diameter (considering fixed the wire material and

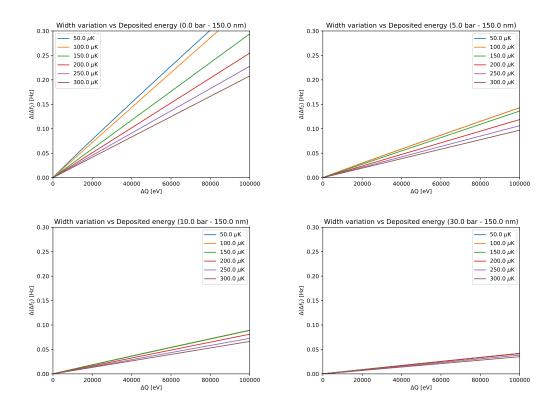


Figure 4:  $\Delta(\Delta f)$  vs  $\Delta Q$  for several  $T_0$  in the range 50–300  $\mu$ K for pressures of 0 bar (top-left), 5 bar (top-right), 10 bar (bottom-left), 30 bar (bottom-right).

the helium volume), all with an interplay between each other, we can at least extract few conclusions:

- For small wires there is an higher amplitude of the width response  $\Delta(\Delta f)$
- For low temperatures there is an higher amplitude of the width response  $\Delta(\Delta f)$
- For high pressures there is a lower width response for a certain energy deposition
- The response time of the oscillating wire is faster for high temperatures
- The decay time of the oscillating wire is faster for high temperatures (low Kapitza resistance), so low temperatures might cause some pile-up of events

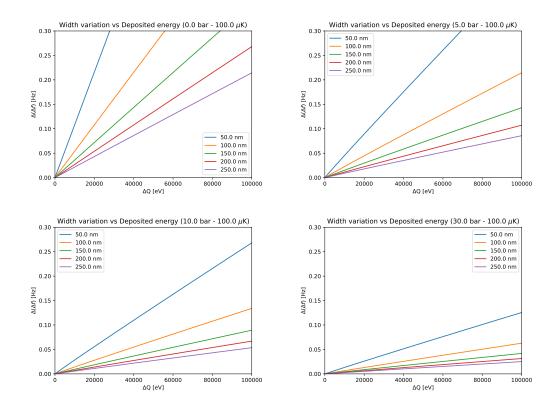
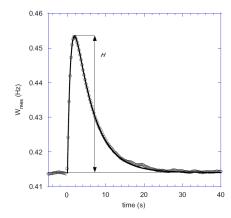


Figure 5:  $\Delta(\Delta f)$  vs  $\Delta Q$  for several wire diameters in the range 50–250 nm for pressures of 0 bar (top-left), 5 bar (top-right), 10 bar (bottom-left), 30 bar (bottom-right).

Ultimately the measurement done in the lab is done in terms of voltage readout of the oscillating wire, in two main steps:

- 1. Sweep measurement to extract the resonance frequency of the wire for a certain base temperature and the base width  $\Delta f_{\text{base}}$ . The quantities are extracted from the Lorentzian fits of the in-phase and out-of-phase signal (Voltage vs Frequency). This should provide the error  $\sigma_{\Delta f_{\text{base}}}$ .
- 2. Data acquisition with the setup sitting at the resonance frequency (resonance tracking) for a fixed voltage drive value  $V_D$  (amplitude of the injected voltage). The measurement is voltage height  $V_H$ . From the Lorentzian function we know that

$$\frac{V_H \Delta f}{V_D} = \text{const} = K \tag{16}$$



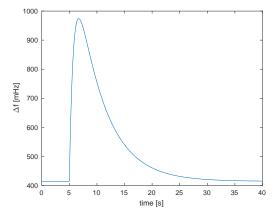


Figure 6: Example of an energy deposition event for a 4.5  $\mu$ m wire in a volume of 0.14 cm<sup>3</sup> of He-3. H in the paper's notation is proportional to  $\Delta(\Delta f)$  with respect to a base width [3] (*left*); fit function as in eq. 13 (*right*) with  $\tau_b$ =5 s,  $\tau_w$ =0.77 s and  $\Delta f_{\rm base}$ =414 mHz.

in particular for the base values at the steady state (before the heat pulse)

$$\frac{V_{H_{\text{base}}} \Delta f_{\text{base}}}{V_D} = \text{const} = K \tag{17}$$

so we are going to measure  $\Delta f(t)$ , as in figure 6, as

$$\Delta f(t) = \frac{V_D}{V_H(t)} K = \frac{V_{H_{\text{base}}} \Delta f_{\text{base}}}{V_H(t)}$$
 (18)

### 1 Errors

In order to answer to the following questions, we need to find which is the measurement uncertainty coming from the laboratory setup:

- What is the minimum voltage variation we can measure, hence the threshold of the energy deposition?
- Which is the resolution in the resonance width variation (aka temperature variation), hence the resolution of the energy deposition?

We assume that the main uncertainty comes from the voltage measurement  $\sigma_{V_H}$  which propagates into the determination of  $\Delta f_{\text{base}}$  and into the quality of the fit to extract  $\Delta(\Delta f)$ 

The error on the energy deposition should be

$$\sigma_{\Delta Q} \simeq \left| \frac{\partial \Delta Q}{\partial (\Delta(\Delta f))} \right| \sigma_{\Delta(\Delta f)} \stackrel{\text{eq.12}}{=} \alpha(T_0, P) \sigma_{\Delta(\Delta f)}$$
 (19)

The analytical error propagation might prove to be ineffective; is worth assigning an error coming from the voltage measurement noise from the lockin amplifier and do a systematic error study starting from a toy distribution generated  $\Delta f(t)$  (where the noise is present both for the baseline and for the signal distribution); find an error on the fit done to extract  $\Delta(\Delta f)$ ; propagate this error to  $\Delta Q$ .

Since the data acquisition will fit  $\Delta f$  we need to add the uncertainty  $\sigma_{\Delta f}$  on the toy generated function from eq. 13, where

$$\sigma_{\Delta f}(t) = \left| \frac{\partial \Delta f(t)}{\partial V_H(t)} \right| \sigma_{V_H} = \frac{(\Delta f(t))^2}{V_{H_{\text{base}}} \Delta f_{\text{base}}} \sigma_{V_H}$$
 (20)

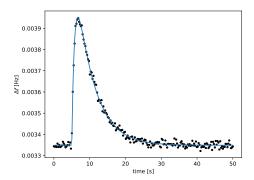
producing a distribution like in figure 7. To summarize the independent parameters present in the simulation are

- volume and pressure of the helium-3 cell (V, P)
- wire density  $(\rho)$
- diameter of the oscillating wire (d)
- base temperature of the helium  $(T_0)$
- decay constant and response time  $(\tau_b, \tau_w)$
- base voltage height  $(V_{H_{\text{base}}})$
- error on the voltage measurement  $(\sigma_{V_H})$

The randomization and fit of the pseudo-experiments is repeated N times, ultimately extracting the distribution of the deposited energy from the fitted  $\Delta(\Delta f)$  using eq. 12, as in figure 8.

The error for the energy measurement can be related to  $\sigma/\mu$ , so for a range of energies [0–100] KeV is possible to obtain distributions of the expected error for a certain configuration (figure 9)

In order to consider the error on the wire diameter we should take into account also the error on the base width, so



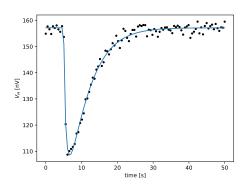


Figure 7: Example of a pseudo-experiment distribution of  $\Delta f(t)$  (left) and  $V_H(t)$  (right).

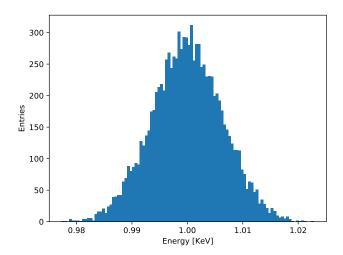


Figure 8: Energy distribution for 10000 toys.

$$\sigma_{\Delta Q}^2 \simeq \left(\frac{\partial \Delta Q}{\partial \Delta f_{\text{base}}}\right)^2 \sigma_{\Delta f_{\text{base}}}^2 + \left(\frac{\partial \Delta Q}{\partial (\Delta(\Delta f))}\right)^2 \sigma_{\Delta(\Delta f)}^2$$
 (21)

$$= \left(\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \Delta f_{\text{base}}}\Big|_{(T_0, P)} \Delta(\Delta f)\right)^2 \sigma_{\Delta f_{\text{base}}}^2 + \alpha^2(T_0, P) \sigma_{\Delta(\Delta f)}^2$$
 (22)

We can define the base voltage  $V_{H_{\mathrm{base}}}$  fixing the wire velocity to  $v{=}1\,\mathrm{mm/s}$ 

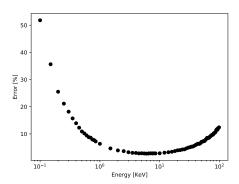


Figure 9: Error vs energy (in a certain configuration), for a 200 nm wire. The relative error increases with high energies because is proportional to the square of the width increase.

and assuming a field  $B=100\,\mathrm{mT}$  and a leg spacing  $D=2\,\mathrm{mm}$ , according to this describing the induced voltage of the wire moving in a magnetic field

$$V_H(t) = \frac{\pi}{4}BDv(t) \tag{23}$$

(where the geometrical constant  $\pi/4$  corresponds to a semi-loop),  $V_{H_{\rm base}} \simeq 157\,nV$ 

## References

- [1] Vollhardt, D., Wolfle, P., The Superfluid Phases of Helium 3 (1990)
- [2] Lawson, C.R., A Novel Measurement Device for use in Multiphase Helium-3 and 4 at Ultra-Low Temperatures, MPHys thesis (2014)
- [3] Winkelmann et al, Bolometric calibration of a superfluid 3He detector for Dark Matter search: Direct measurement of the scintillated energy fraction for neutron, electron and muon events (2007)